

Lecture # 19 – International Technology Policy

I. A Framework for Technological Progress in Developing Countries

- Drivers of technological progress (see figure 3.1)
 - Exposure to external flows (top) interacts with domestic capacity to diffuse technology
 - Absorptive capacity depends upon
 - Business and macroeconomic climate
 - Stable economic environment important, so that investors aren't worried about losing capital due to conflict, rapid inflation, or widely varying exchange rates
 - Banking system and equity markets are less developed in lower income countries
 - Makes it difficult for innovative firms to gain access to financing
 - Basic technological literacy & availability of advanced skills
 - Determine ability to implement, understand, and adjust to imported technologies
 - Policies to support innovative firms
 - Adaptive R&D may be necessary to adapt technology to local conditions
 - Increasing returns and spillovers can magnify these effects
 - Access to foreign markets allows firms to grow and potentially exploit economies of scale
 - Affordability of technologies is an issue
 - Financing constraints may be present in low-income countries
 - Adopting new technologies is risky
 - People with lower incomes likely to be more risk averse

II. Transmission Channels for Technology

A. Trade Policy

- Trade policy
 - Given the importance of trade for technology transfer, it follows that trade policy is also important.
 - Since mid-1990s, share of imported high-tech products in GDP has increased by 50% in low-middle income countries and 70 percent in middle income countries
 - Trade gives access to embodied technological change embodied in both capital and intermediate inputs
 - Allows firms to learn from and copy these technologies
 - Whether the productivity gains are a net gain to the country depends on how much companies pay for imported technology
 - Trade can be used to both substitute for and to compliment local capabilities.

- When production capabilities do not exist locally, trade may involve a decision to rely on foreign capabilities rather than first develop them indigenously.
 - As the costs of imitation and copying fall, international patent and copyright protection becomes a more important issue.
 - Trade exposes firms to competition, which encourages innovation
 - Competition reveals the least cost methods of production
 - Need to keep up in able to compete
 - Firms can realize economies of scale by expanding production beyond what is needed to satisfy local markets
 - However, studies suggest selection bias relevant here
 - While most productive firms export, it isn't that exporting makes them productive, but that the export because they are productive
 - In addition to allowing free trade, conforming to world standards and regulations is important.
 - Policies encouraging increased exports have been more successful in increasing technological improvement.
 - Compare India and Korea.
 - India focused on inward growth strategies.
 - Korea did not use protectionist measures until a strong industrial base had developed.
 - Note, for example, that Korea granted subsidies based on export performance.
 - Firms were rewarded for entering export markets with preferential access to credit.
 - Initial focus (1960s) was on low-tech industries, but moved towards high-tech over time.
 - Liberal trade policy helps to promote FDI
 - Open trade policy attracts outward-oriented investment.
 - Of course, may or may not lead to spillovers.
 - Protectionist trade policy leads to FDI to avoid tariffs.
 - Typically older technologies, only competing with domestic producers.
 - Not competitive internationally.
- Examples of different strategies – imports and exports vary by stage of production
 - China
 - Focus on assembly
 - Strongly integrated into international segment-of-production processes
 - Most high-tech imports are parts and components, which are incorporated into exports
 - India
 - Limited participation in international segment-of-production processes

- Low level of high-tech imports
 - High-tech exports concentrated in chemical industries
 - Turkey
 - High-tech imports are capital goods
 - Focus is on traditional technology transfer to upgrade local industrial capacity
 - Foreign trade focuses on Europe
- Counterexample: import substitution
 - Some developing countries try to limit dependence on imports by shifting resources from traditional export sectors to the production of goods they have imported.
 - Has been used in many Latin American countries.
 - The intuition is that, because of tacit skills, countries feel they cannot develop new technologies without experience.
 - By reducing dependence on global markets, import substitution strategies help insulate a developing country from fluctuations in global markets.
 - However, countries using import substitution strategies lose their comparative advantage.
 - Countries also lose the opportunity to import capital goods that may embody newer technology
 - The success of South Korea and Taiwan, who developed quickly with a heavy reliance on foreign trade, have made import substitution strategies less popular.
 - Note that Brazil did weaken restrictions on imported technology in the 1990s.
 - Example: computers in Brazil
 - During the mid-1970s, Brazil banned imports and FDI of computer products, in order to encourage development of a domestic computer industry.
 - Set up public research infrastructure to complement the industry.
 - Led to a large national industry by the mid-1980s.
 - However, this industry was inefficient.
 - Its prices were significantly higher than international competitors, and the computers were typically a generation behind the latest models.

B. FDI & Licensing

- FDI
 - Classification of FDI strategies (Soubotina 2006, cited in WB)
 - “Traditionalist slow learners”
 - Rely on imports of machinery and equipment
 - Examples: Bangladesh, Burkina Faso
 - “Passive FDI-dependent”
 - Share of high and medium tech in manufactured exports higher than in manufacturing value added
 - Their high-tech exports depend on imports of technologically sophisticated components
 - Local focus is on assembly
 - Examples” Malaysia, Mexico, Philippines
 - “Active FDI dependent”
 - High-tech exports and high-tech value added similar
 - Examples: Chile, Hungary
 - Important features to attract FDI:
 - Infrastructure
 - Stable political, economic, and social environments
 - For technology transfer to occur, foreign subsidiaries must be linked to the national economy.
 - Compare, for example, maquiladoras in Mexico, which do not transfer much technology beyond the border region
 - As noted before, closed economies will not be attractive to export-oriented FDI (e.g. high tech)
 - In the early 1990’s, China liberalized foreign joint venture laws to allow wholly-owned foreign enterprises
 - Much activity concentrated on coasts
 - Level of technology in country rising as a result of FDI and trade liberalization
 - Market forces have increased incentives for R&D at Chinese firms
 - R&D up 15%/yr from 1991-2002
 - R&D intensity: 1.3% of GDP in 2002
 - Just 0.7% in the late 1990s
 - FDI is concentrated in a few markets
 - Most in Latin America, least in South Asia
 - Not as high in East Asia in 2000s, because of financial crisis in late 1990s and because growth in FDI in China has not kept pace with GDP growth
 - More in middle income countries than low-income countries
 - Recall that host country must be attractive to the foreign investor
 - Factors influencing whether FDI leads to spillovers
 - Ability of upstream firms to provide needed products

- Requirements to use local firms may discourage use of most advanced technology to avoid leakage
- Absorptive capacity is important
 - Firms using advanced technology in low-income countries fail to achieve same level of productivity of those in middle- and high-income countries
- Availability of local skills
 - In some countries, such as Mexico, FDI has not led to spillovers because primarily aimed at exploiting availability of low wage workers
- Spillovers may be geographically concentrated
 - 90% of FDI in China goes to western coastal region
- Licensing
 - Has become an increasing source of transfer
 - Licensing fees paid by developing countries (5X increase as % of GDP):
 - 1999: \$7 billion
 - 2006: \$22 billion
 - Can be a substitute for FDI
 - Firms use when uncertain about policy environment
 - Some countries pursue licensing strategy so that domestic firms can learn from licensed technology
 - Japan in 1950s and 60s
 - Korean firms used licensing to negotiate access to underlying design principles of a technology (from older reading)
 - However, restrictive licensing depends on bargaining power.
 - Keep in mind that firms can go elsewhere
 - For example, Brazil historically capped royalty rates at around 5%. The goal was to help firms bargain with foreign companies. The result, however, was that firms chose not to license technology in Brazil.
 - Later, Brazil was more successful

C. International Migration

- International migration
 - Migration is increasing
 - There are about 215 million first-generation migrants globally
 - 40% more than in 1990
 - Better communication and travel make staying in touch with home easier
 - Immigrants are a source of technology transfer
 - But, brain drain is a negative influence
 - Particularly a problem for smaller countries
 - Diaspora can be a source of skills and capital
 - Strengthen trade and investment linkages

- Most FDI in China handled by Chinese diaspora
 - American firms employing more Chinese find it easier to set up operations in China without a joint venture
 - Help promote technology adoption at home
 - Partially through political pressure
 - Spread information about potential markets
 - Foster trust – leads to informal networks
 - More likely to work on international deals with someone of the same nationality
 - Trust particularly important in countries where the rule of law is uncertain
 - Personal ties important in such cases, as in the examples in the *Economist* article “Weaving the world together”
 - Example of Africans in China who help a Nigerian do business there
 - Create connections for collaboration
 - Kerr finds that patents are more likely to be cited by other inventors with surnames of similar ethnicities
 - Returnees can bring new abilities and new technologies
 - Since 1978, about 2.6 million Chinese have went abroad to study
 - About 1.1 million return
 - Many have founded companies or are senior managers
 - However, *Economist* article notes that returnees have had difficulties finding employment in China
 - One possibility is that Chinese society has changed since they left, so that they are unfamiliar with new industries such as e-commerce
 - Also note that more go abroad, so it isn’t just the best and brightest who are returning anymore
 - The most talented may want to stay abroad because of better IP protection and less corruption
 - A study in Romania found migrants returning home earned 12-14% more than similar people who had not migrated
- The “Brain Drain”
 - Another important issue is whether educated people stay in the country or move out.
 - This effect hurts the lowest developing countries more
 - ¼- ½ of college educated from poor countries live in the OECD
 - Less than 5% of college educated from countries like India, China and Brazil live in the OECD.

- In Ghana, $\frac{3}{4}$ of doctors leave within 10 years of qualifying
- Highest educated are more likely to leave
 - 2004 survey in India:
 - 40% of emigrants had more than high-school education
 - Compared to 3.3% of all Indians over age 25
- Two competing effects
 1. People leaving hurts the home country
 2. The prospect of leaving encourages others to get training (“brain gain”)
 - Thus, the key is which effect dominates
- Are there advantages to having workers abroad?
 - Help provide entry into markets
 - Send money home to help families
 - Worldwide remittances \$325 billion in 2010
 - In some low-income countries, remittances are more than 20% of GDP
 - In Guatemala, families receiving remittances from abroad spend more on education.
 - However, in Mexico they spend less, as they expect to leave for low-skilled jobs.
 - Encourages others to get more education
 - If stay at home, may be more likely to be unemployed, if there are fewer opportunities for education workers
- Competition: Quote from an Indian businessman who studied in the US and runs a chain of hospitals in India: “If you only live in India, you naturally measure yourself against Indian standards. If you have lived abroad, you measure yourself against the best in the world.”
- Potential policies
 - Tax expatriate workers
 - Raise incomes of professionals at home
 - Compensate hart-hit countries for their losses
 - Time limited visas in the developed world
 - So that professionals get experience and then return home
- China offers subsidies to those that return (“1,000 Talents program”)

III. Building Absorptive Capacity

- Absorptive capacity
 - Countries with weak domestic scientific capabilities more likely to passively adopt new technology
 - Import high tech products
 - If high-tech exports exist, they will be dominated by assembly operations of products developed elsewhere
 - Absorptive capacity also influences how far into a country new technology diffuses
 - E.g. does it stay in a few local clusters
 - Absorptive capacity depends upon
 - Business and macroeconomic climate
 - Stable economic environment important, so that investors aren't worried about losing capital due to conflict, rapid inflation, or widely varying exchange rates
 - Restrictions on firm exit prop up inefficient firms
 - Regulatory burdens greater in non-OECD countries
 - On average, 9.5 procedures taking 50 days to complete to start a new business
 - Compare to 6.2 procedures taking 16.6 days in OECD
 - Basic technological literacy & availability of advanced skills
 - Determine ability to implement, understand, and adjust to imported technologies
 - Policies to support innovative firms
- Education
 - Investment in science and technical education has been shown to be important.
 - However, demand is also important. Such investments are useless unless there are places for trained workers to go.
 - Thus, countries such as Korea and Taiwan offer tax incentives to those educated abroad who return home to teach or work.
 - Illiteracy has been falling
 - Biggest gains in lower-income countries, but there is still a gap (see Table 3.8)
 - Education can have spillover benefits
 - E.g. in agriculture, the highest educated are the earliest adopters of high-yield seed varieties.
 - This adoption leads to neighbors adopting more quickly, too.
 - Peer effects affect learning
 - People in developing countries may get too little education because they ignore this positive externality
 - In Rwanda, a shortage of plumbers and sheet metal workers constrained development of rain-harvesting technologies for drinking water

- In poor countries, the poor receive disproportionately less education
 - Even if free, the opportunity cost of time may be high (e.g. time not spent in fields)
 - Quality of education may also be lower
- Creating local knowledge & supporting local R&D
 - Because of income constraints, developing countries face the decision to create or adopt new technologies.
 - It is often cost-effective to take advantage of work done elsewhere
 - Still, developing countries do some R&D
 - Basing local R&D on local knowledge can be a successful strategy
 - Much R&D is for agriculture
 - Public sector investment
 - Not only is the level of R&D low in developing countries, but the composition is different.
 - In LDCs, what little research that is done is publicly funded agricultural research. There is very little privately funded research.
 - Domestic R&D helps technology transfer
 - Studies find that firms with more in-house technical resources or more in-house R&D are more likely to use outside technologies
 - One country that does do much research (2.3% of GDP) is Korea
 - They did little (about 0.5% of GDP) until 1980s.
 - Firms found that acquiring technology from abroad was becoming increasingly difficult, so did more R&D to understand relevant technologies.
- Returns to R&D
 - Returns generally higher in developing countries
 - US/OECD: 20-40%
 - Middle income (e.g. Mexico, Chile): 60%
 - Low income (e.g. Nicaragua): 100%
 - However, returns to physical capital investment are also higher, so the gaps between them don't vary much
 - Given these high rates of return, why don't developing countries do more R&D?
 - Variables determining R&D levels include:
 - Depth of credit markets
 - Weak credit markets lead to higher borrowing costs
 - Quality of education & academic institutions
 - Extent of IPR
- Policy challenges for promoting local R&D
 - Adaptive R&D is not patentable, since not new to market
 - Reduces incentives for local firms to do R&D
 - Coordination failures
 - Some technologies rely on complimentary inputs (e.g. logistics, utilities) that may not be in place

- These services have high fixed costs, so will not be provided until sufficient demand
 - But lack of services reduces demand, leading to a “vicious circle”
 - Thus, government can play an important role providing infrastructure
- Threshold effects
 - Economies of scale make it difficult for new firms to enter global markets dominated by large-scale manufacturers
- Knowledge spillovers
 - Often limited to local geographic regions
 - Thus, clustering and agglomeration effects important
- While there are successful examples of governments promoting specific technologies (e.g. Brazil and biofuels), in general, governments promoting specific technologies often fail