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Economic Growth and Poverty in the Arab Countries: Does the Income of the Poor Grow by the Same Rates as Average Income?

Ali Abdel Gadir Ali

Abstract

The paper reviews the empirical basis for hypothesis that the poor tend to benefit from economic growth to the same extent as other sections of the population. The paper shows that, from a theoretical perspective, the existence of a proportional relationship between mean income of the society and that of the poor is a result of a confusion regarding the definition of who are the poor. A proportional relationship would obtain if, and only if, the poor are defined on the basis of Lorenz curve population shares. Otherwise, there exists no basis to expect such a proportional relationship. The paper shows that in the general case the income elasticity of the income of the poor is less than unity. Evidence for this general case is provided by direct calculations, as well as by estimating the relationship between the income of the poor and mean income of society, for a sample of developing countries for which data is available. The results for the sample of Arab countries show that the Arab poor benefit from growth by about 63% of the growth in mean income. These benefits range from a high of 80% or more for Tunisia to a low of 40% or less for Mauritania.

* مستشار الهيئة العلمية - المعهد العربي للتخطيط بالكويت.

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(1) لاحظ أننا سنورد أسماء المؤلفين باللغة العربية في متن الورقة بينما سننشرها بلغتها الأصلية في صفحة المراجع.

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$$(1) \quad y_{ct} = \alpha_0 + \alpha_1 u_{ct} + \alpha_2 x_{ct} + \mu_c + \varepsilon_{ct}$$

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(2) لاحظ أننا سنستخدم الحروف اللاتينية للرمز للمتغيرات التي تدخل في التحليل والتقدير وذلك لسهولة التعامل مع هذه الحروف.

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(2) $y_{c,t} - y_{c,t-k(c,t)} = \alpha_1(u_{ct} - u_{c,t-k(c,t)}) + \alpha_2(x_{c,t} - x_{c,t-k(c,t)}) + (\varepsilon_{ct} - \varepsilon_{c,t-k(c,t)})$

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(3) طريقة الأدوات ترجمة لطريقة "Instrumental Variables".

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$$S = H(1 - \frac{y}{z})$$

(4) هذه هي خطوات "تحديد الفقراء" و "تجميع المعلومات عن الفقراء الذين تم تحديدهم" في مؤشر تجميعي للفقير وهي الخطوات التي أوضحها بروفيسور سن (1976) في مقاله الرائدة في مجال قياس الفقر.

$$y = z \left(1 - \frac{S}{H}\right) \quad (5)$$

$$(4) \quad y = z \left(1 - \frac{S}{H}\right)$$

μ

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(1)

$$(5) \quad z = z(\mu), \quad 0 \leq \frac{\mu}{z} \frac{dz}{d\mu} = E_z \leq 1$$

$$(E_z = 0)$$

$$(E_z = 1)$$

(6)

$$z = z(\mu), \quad S = H \left(1 - \frac{z}{m}\right) \quad (2)$$

(5) لاحظ أننا سنستخدم y و Z و μ فيما تبقى من الورقة حسب تعريفنا وليس حسب ما ورد في القسم السابق والذي كان يشير إلى ورقة دولار وكراي.

(6) أنظر، على سبيل المثال، شن ورافاليون (2000) وإتكينسون (1998).

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$$(6) \quad H = H\left(\frac{\mu}{z}, m\right) \quad , \quad S = S\left(\frac{\mu}{z}, m\right)$$

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(7) (6)

$$(7) \quad H = H\left(\frac{\mu}{z(\mu)}, m\right) \quad , \quad S = S\left(\frac{\mu}{z(\mu)}, m\right)$$

:

$$(8) \quad E_H = \frac{\partial H}{\partial \mu} \cdot \frac{\mu}{H}$$

$$(9) \quad E_S = \frac{\partial S}{\partial \mu} \cdot \frac{\mu}{S}$$

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$$(10) \quad y(\mu, m) = z(\mu) \left[1 - \frac{S\left(\frac{\mu}{z(\mu)}, m\right)}{H\left(\frac{\mu}{z(\mu)}, m\right)} \right]$$

:

$$(11) \quad E_y = \frac{\mu}{y} \frac{\partial y}{\partial \mu} = \alpha_1 = E_z - (E_z) \left[\frac{S}{H-S} \right] [E_S - E_H]$$

(7) لاحظ أن خاصية التجانس من الدرجة صفر للدالة تعني أنه إذا تغير كل من متوسط الدخل، μ ، وخط الفقر، z ، بنسبة λ فإن ذلك يعني إستمارة مؤشر الفقر على حاله: $H(\lambda\mu, \lambda z, m) = H(\mu, z, m)$.

(11)

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$$(12) \quad \frac{S}{(H-S)} = \frac{(z-y)}{y}$$

(12) (1993)

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$$(13) \quad E_S = \frac{-y}{(z-y)}$$

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$$(14) \quad E_y = \frac{\mu}{y} \frac{\partial y}{\partial \mu} = \alpha_1 = E_z + (1 - E_z) \left(1 - \frac{E_H}{E_S}\right)$$

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. $E_z = 1$:

$$(7) \quad (z = \beta\mu)$$

:

$$(15) \quad H = H\left(\frac{1}{\beta}, m\right) = H(m) \quad , \quad S = S\left(\frac{1}{\beta}, m\right) = S(m)$$

(15) : $(E_H = E_S = 0)$
(10)

$$(16) \quad y(\mu) = z(\mu) \left[1 - \frac{S(m)}{H(m)}\right] = \beta\mu \left[1 - \frac{S(m)}{H(m)}\right] = \alpha\mu$$

$$(16) \quad \beta \left[1 - \frac{S(m)}{H(m)} \right] \quad \alpha$$

$$\begin{aligned} & (E_z = 0) \\ & (E_H = 0) \end{aligned}$$

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15.57	15.63	15.31	16.80	15.33	
39.39	42.26	42.39	44.01	44.94	
46.30	48.53	49.68	47.67	46.61	

23.96	24.53	28.15	28.95	28.31	
26.18	27.01	27.72	28.05	28.51) (

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15.41	14.40	6.99	6.52	6.52	()
33.72	43.00	33.45	37.66	37.66	()
45.80	50.40	37.00	38.90	38.90	()

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2.10 -	1.52 -	3.42 -	1.43 -	3.20 -	(E _S)
0.74	0.79	0.77	0.68	0.77	(E _H /E _S)
0.26	0.39	0.25	0.19	0.29	(E _Z)
0.47	0.51	0.43	0.46	0.45	(E _y)

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48	16	8	18	6	
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0.020	0.037	0.049	0.023	0.085	
26.50	13.24	11.83	23.48	6.58	-
1.50	0.27	1.43	1.74	0.59	0.5 -

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0.892 - (0.467)	0.440 - (0.453)			0.6937 (0.0937)	
0.1633 - (0.059)	- 0.1193 (0.05)				
0.1453 - (0.059)		0.1644 - (0.058)			
4.07 (1.069)	2.983 (1.099)	2.749 (0.1005)	2.551 (0.078)	1.342 (0.368)	
0.901	0.887	0.889	0.880	0.5354	
0.894	0.882	0.892	0.875	0.5253	

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(0.23) 0.59	(0.17) 0.75	0.16) 0.57 ((0.22) 0.43	(0.14) 0.63	(6)

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(8) المرونة من المعادلة شبة اللوغاريتمية (عمود 3) $\mu = (0.0073 - 0.00007 - \mu)$ ، المرونة للعمود (5) $(- 0.892 + 0.3266)$ لوغاريتم (μ) .

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(0.77) 2.29 -	1.26 -	2.13 -	- 3.54	2.67 -	1.86 -	- 2.28	
(1.48) 3.20 -	1.13 -	3.29 -	- 5.67	3.00 -	2.60 -	- 3.51	
(0.19) 0.77	1.11	0.65	0.62	0.89	0.72	0.65	
(0.10) 0.290	0.145	0.289	0.239	0.305	0.430	0.348	
(0.21) 0.45	0.05	0.54	0.53	0.38	0.59	0.58	

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(17) $E_y = \mu [0.0073 - 0.000014\mu]$

(18) $E_y = [-0.892 + 0.3266 \ln \mu]$

:(11)

()							
115	51	111	89	118	184	139	()
4.7449	3.9318	4.7095	4.4886	4.7707	5.2149	4.9345	
(0.18) 0.632	0.336	0.638	0.539	0.667	0.869	0.744	17)
(0.14) 0.635	0.392	0.646	0.574	0.666	0.811	0.720	(18)

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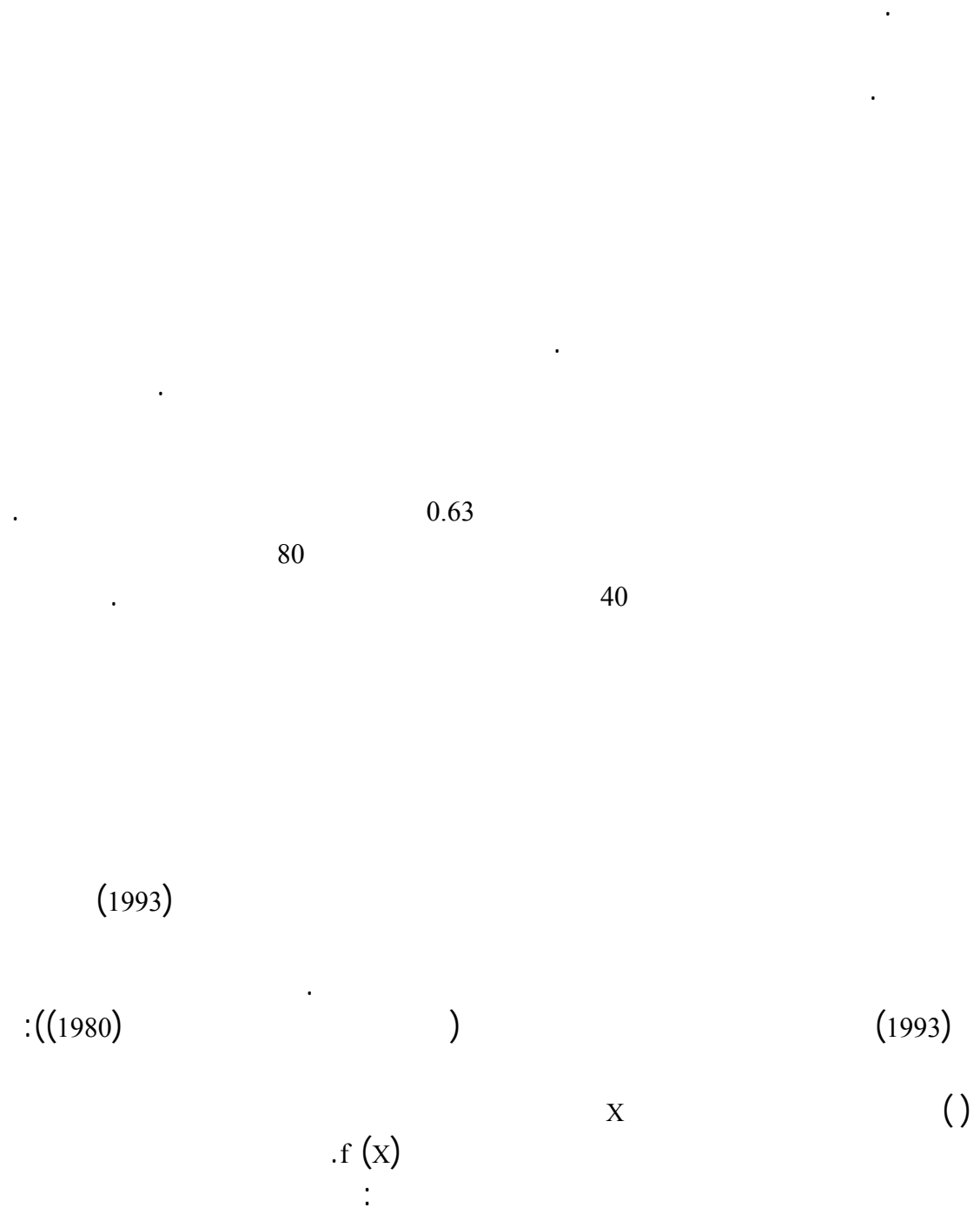
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(A.1) $F(x) = \Pr[X \leq x] = \int_0^x f(X) dX$

$$F(x) = \int_0^x f(x) dx$$

$$\mu = \int_0^{\infty} x f(x) dx$$

(A.2) $F_1(x) = \frac{1}{\mu} \int_0^x x f(x) dx$

(A-2) $F(x) = \int_0^x f(x) dx$

(A-3) $\frac{dF_1(x)}{dx} = \frac{x f(x)}{\mu}$

$$F(x) = \int_0^x f(x) dx$$

$$F_1(x) = \frac{1}{\mu} \int_0^x x f(x) dx$$

$$F_1(x) = \frac{1}{\mu} \int_0^x x f(x) dx$$

(A-4) $\frac{dF_1(x)}{dF(x)} = \frac{x}{\mu}$

(A-5) $\frac{d^2 F_1(x)}{dF(x)^2} = \frac{d}{dF(x)} \left[\frac{x}{\mu} \right] = \frac{1}{\mu f(x)}$

$$: \quad (A-4) \quad (A-3)$$

$$(A-5) \quad L(p) = F_1(x)$$

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$$(A-6) \quad 0 < p < 1 \quad p = F(x)$$

$$p \quad L(p)$$

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$$: \quad L(p) \quad ()$$

$$(A-7) \quad L(p) = 0 \quad P=0$$

$$(A-8) \quad L p = 1, \quad P=1$$

$$(A-9) \quad \frac{dL(p)}{dp} = L'(p) = \frac{x}{\mu}, \quad \frac{d^2L(p)}{dp^2} = L''(p) = \frac{1}{\mu f(x)}$$

$$(A-10) \quad L(p) \leq p$$

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$$.H \quad F(x) \quad z$$

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$$(A-11) \quad L'(H) = \frac{z}{\mu} \quad (A-4)$$

:

$$(A-12) \quad \frac{\partial H}{\partial \mu} = -\frac{z}{\mu^2 L''(H)} \quad (A-11)$$

:

$$(A-13) \quad E_H = \frac{\mu}{H} \frac{\partial H}{\partial \mu} = -\frac{zf(z)}{H} < 0 \quad (A-9)$$

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$$(A-14) \quad S = H(1 - \frac{y}{z})$$

y

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$$(A-15) \quad y = \frac{L(H)\mu}{H}$$

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(A-14)

$$(A-16) \quad \frac{\partial y}{\partial \mu} = \frac{y}{\mu} + \frac{(z-y)}{\mu} E_H$$

" (E_H) "

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$$11) \quad (A-16)$$

$$(10) \quad (z-y)$$

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$$(A-17) \quad \frac{\mu}{y} \frac{\partial y}{\partial \mu} = (1 - \frac{E_H}{E_S})$$

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(A-18) $L(0.2) = 0.2 \frac{y(0.2)}{\mu}$

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Comparing the Impact on Poverty of Food Subsidies and Regional Targeting. Evidence from Tunisia Using Household Survey*

Sami BIBI**

Abstract

This paper assesses the impact on the poor population welfare of hypothetical reforms, which advise to substitute a direct transfer program, based on a regional targeting, to the current universal food subsidies system. The outcomes show that this reform would allow an important reduction of poverty, varying between 8.4 and 34 percent according the way poverty is measured. Further, dominance tests are used to assess the likely effects of the reform on a wide range of poverty lines and poverty measures. The main result is that providing assistance to the poor based on regional targeting program would be more effective in reducing poverty than universal food subsidies scheme within a wide range of poverty measures and poverty lines including all those estimated and generally used for Tunisia.

Keywords : Poverty; Regional Targeting; Food Subsidies; Transfers.

JEL classification : D12; D63; H53; I32; I38.

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1. Introduction

Alleviating poverty is a major objective of economic development. Economic growth is generally considered as a necessary condition for lessening poverty [Bhagwati (1985)]. Yet growth alone may not be sufficient to improve significantly the well-being of the low-income households [Stewart (1985)]. As a consequence, programs that are specifically designed to decrease poverty need to be addressed in developed as well as developing countries. Among available means to channel assistance to the poor, targeting by commodities (i.e. by subsidizing food staples that are mainly consumed by the poorest), has been very popular, especially in developing countries. The experience with food subsidies shows, however, that the leakage to the non-poor people is frequently important whereas success in lessening the extent of poverty is limited.

Although the universal food subsidies program (henceforth UFSP) was considered as a suitable means to improve the welfare and nutritional intake of the poor in the beginning of the 70s, it no longer makes the unanimity in Tunisia. The cost of the program was as high as 3 percent of GDP and more than 7 percent of government expenditures in 1990¹. In addition to its cost, the large leakage to the non-poor made an overhaul of this system an urgent priority. Moreover, implementing new policies to combat poverty becomes necessary since (1) poverty stagnated between 1990 - 1995, in spite of a sustained growth of the real income *per capita* and a stabilized social expenditure, and in view of (2) the likely adverse effects on poverty that the economic changes induced by the post- free trade agreement (FTA) with EU will have. Within this context, focusing on more targeted transfers, that use exactly the same food subsidies funds, is worthy.

The objective of alleviating poverty is to raise people to a specified poverty line, expressed in terms of the minimum income (or expenditure) level required to be out of poverty. The key assumption of this paper is the impossibility to identify, at a lower cost, individuals with

income below the poverty line. While such identification is ideal to achieve a significant reduction of poverty given an available budget, it is unlikely to be administratively feasible. In reality, it requires accurate and up-to-date information on the households' characteristics and a complicated and costly means to identify who is really poor [Besley and Kanbur (1993)].² In addition, programs based on means tests frequently suffer from ineffective implementation and high administrative costs, and their overall costs always show an upward trend due to the incentive they give to households to change their characteristics or to masquerade as poor in order to become eligible.³

As a consequence, targeting poor regions could be preferred to targeting poor persons. Although some benefits will inevitably leak to the non-poor living in targeted regions and not to the poor that live in untargeted areas, geographic targeting has many appealing features. No means tests are needed, and no new administrative mechanism for selecting beneficiaries individually needs to be set up. Regional targeting is also easy to implement and to monitor, and hence typically involves less fraud and much lower administrative costs than many other targeting options [Bigman and Fofack (2000) and Bigman and Srinivasan (2002)]. In addition, when some geographic regions have exceptionally high incidence of poverty, the importance of location to poverty outcomes could justify targeting poor areas rather than poor individuals, mainly when labor and other factors are not fully mobile [Park et al. (2002)].

Searching for a poverty-alleviating reform requires ranking the population according to its economic well-being. A definition of a well-being indicator has to be agreed upon to allow determination of who is poor and who is non-poor. The definition of such an indicator could be expanded. For instance, Mayshar and Yitzhaki (1996) allow well-being to be

¹ See the World Bank (1995, 1999).

² For more information about targeting by means test, see for example Ravallion and Chao (1989), Glewwe (1992), Baker and Grosh (1995), and Bibi (2003).

³ On this issue, see for instance Baker and Grosh (1994), Bigman and Srinivasan (2002). However, according to Besley (1990), many of the non-poor could avoid to masquerade because of the psychic costs of the social stigma resulting from the participation in programs meant specifically for the poor.

affected by two variables, namely ability and needs. Given ability, the greater are the needs of a household, the lower is its welfare level; and, given needs, the greater is the ability, the higher is the well-being of a household. This kind of extension is appealing for treatment of household size, in which there are economies to scale in the intra-household consumption, but this is beyond the scope of this paper. Instead, we focus on total expenditure *per capita* which we consider as a relevant proxy for both household's welfare and (permanent) income [Jorgenson (1998), and Slesnick (1998)].⁴

This paper discusses some technical issues of designing anti-poverty programs that are based on regional targeting, and, using 1990 Tunisian households survey, provides an evaluation of their likely effects on poverty relative to those achieved under UFSP. Section 2 lays out the theoretical background of the paper. Section 3 exposes the relevant features of poverty under UFSP, using appropriately estimated poverty lines. Section 4 presents simulations results of awarding assistance to the poor based on regional targeting using dominance tests. Section 5 provides a brief summary and offers some concluding comments.

2. Theoretical Background

It is commonly argued that perfect targeting, such that income can be observed accurately and where there are no incentives for the government to bring any poor out of poverty, is very costly.⁵ Thus, poverty alleviation programs whose targeting is based on easily observable characteristics, such as household's region of residence, may be particularly appealing. Several authors have investigated the potential of regional-targeted-transfers in a model that minimizes poverty given a fixed amount of transfer funds.⁶ Results show that it is

⁴ As revealed by Deaton (1997), this option is always based on practicality and available data. That is why we measure poverty in terms of consumption expenditures.

⁵ Besley and Kanbur (1993) provide an excellent discussion about the cost of perfect targeting.

⁶ See, for example, Baker and Grosh (1994), Besley and Kanbur (1993), Bigman and Fofack (2000), Bigman and Srinivasan (2002), Datt and Ravallion (1993), Jalan and Ravallion (1998), Kanbur (1987), Park et al. (2002), and Ravallion (1993).

possible to achieve the same outcome on poverty as attained under untargeted transfer, while realizing substantial savings of the available budget.

Considering we wish to assess the likely effects on poverty of a reform that replaces the UFSP by a direct transfer system which is based on regional targeting, it is necessary to specify an individual well-being indicator that is sensitive to price system variations. This indicator could be presented in terms of the equivalent income function as defined by King (1983): for a given budget constraint (p, y) , equivalent income is defined as that income level which allows, at the reference price system p^r , the same utility level that can be reached under the given budget constraint:

$$v(p^r, y_e) = v(p, y) \quad (1)$$

where $v(\cdot)$ is the indirect utility function, y is the income level, and p is the price system. Notice that since p^r is fixed across all households, y_e is an exact monetary metric of actual utility $v(p, y)$ because y_e is an increasing monotonic transformation of $v(\cdot)$. Indeed, inverting the indirect utility function, we obtain equivalent income in terms of the expenditure function:

$$\begin{aligned} y_e &= e(p^r; v(p, y)) \\ &= y_e(p^r, p, y) \end{aligned} \quad (2)$$

where $e(\cdot)$ is the expenditure function and $y_e(\cdot)$ is the equivalent income function.

When p^r is set to be equal to the non-food subsidies price system, the move from the benchmark situation to another with food subsidies price system, p^s , can be then considered as a first possibility of a poverty alleviation scheme. Hence, targeting by commodities provides an equivalent gain, TC , for each person, which could be captured using the following formula:

$$\begin{aligned} TC &= y_e(p^r, p^r, y) - y_e(p^r, p^s, y) \\ &= y - y_e(p^r, p^s, y). \end{aligned} \quad (3)$$

Suppose now that UFSP has to be replaced by an alternative scheme, RT , based on regional targeting. The impact of this reform on the individual well-being will be given by:

$$y_e(p^r, p^r, y + RT) = y + RT. \quad (4)$$

In order to describe how this alternative anti-poverty policy could be deduced and to evaluate the relative efficiency of each policy in reducing poverty, it is necessary to specify a poverty measure. Hence, the way poverty is measured is important for achieving these two goals. Since the pioneering publication on poverty measurement of Sen (1976), many poverty measures have been suggested in the literature.⁷ We select the popular FGT class of poverty measures, introduced by Foster et al. (1984), as it involves several indices that are in line with the main axioms developed in the literature. This class is defined as:⁸

$$P_\alpha(z_e, y_e) = \frac{100}{N} \sum_{i=1}^N \left(\frac{z_e - y_e^i}{z_e} \right)^\alpha I(y_e^i \leq z_e), \quad (5)$$

where $I(\cdot)$ is an indicator function equal to 1 when its argument is true and 0 otherwise, z_e is the equivalent poverty line, i.e. the minimum expenditure level required to reach the indifference curve separating the poor from the non-poor, N is the population size, and α can be considered as a measure of poverty aversion: a larger α gives greater emphasis on the poorest poor. When α becomes very large, $P_\alpha(\cdot)$ approaches a Rawlsian measure which considers only the poorest households' welfare. The family of measures given by expression (5) involves many commonly used poverty measures as special cases. For instance, when $\alpha = 0$, $P_0(\cdot)$ is the headcount ratio, while when $\alpha = 1$, $P_1(\cdot)$ is the deficit of poverty measure (or the poverty gap). For $\alpha > 1$, $P_\alpha(\cdot)$ becomes sensitive to inequality within the poor.

The issue is how to target a direct transfer using regional information to decrease poverty as much as possible. Formally, the problem is to use the budget devoted to UFSP in order to deduce an alternative set of direct transfer so as to minimize a given poverty measure,

⁷ For a survey of the literature on the axiomatic foundations and the design of poverty indices, see, for instance, Zheng (1997, 2000).

⁸ The substitution of the equivalent income to the income in the class of poverty measures FGT was equally done by Besley and Kanbur (1988) to study the impact of infra-marginal subsidies' reforms and by Ravallion and van de Walle (1991) to study the impact on poverty of food pricing reforms.

$P_\alpha(\cdot)$.⁹ The issue that remains to be solved is how to distribute this available budget through the different regions?

One of the typical features of the FGT class of poverty measures is that it is additively decomposable.¹⁰ So, let us consider J mutually exclusive subgroups of population with poverty measure $P_{j,\alpha}(\cdot)$ in the subgroup j :

$$P_\alpha(z_e, y_e) = \sum_{j=1}^J \beta_j P_{j,\alpha}[z_e, y_e(p^r, p, y_j)], \quad (6)$$

where y_j is the income distribution in subgroup j and β_j is its population share. If each subgroup of the population is defined by reference to its region of residence, the optimal allocation of the available budget between the different regions can be deduced from the following optimization program:

$$\begin{aligned} \text{Min. } P_\alpha(z_e, y_e) &= \sum_{j=1}^J \beta_j P_{\alpha,j}(z_e, y_e(p^r, p^r, y_j + RT_j)) \\ \text{subject to} & \\ \sum_{j=1}^J \beta_j RT_j &= B, \end{aligned} \quad (7)$$

where RT_j is the transfer to be awarded to each one in j and B is the *per capita* cost of this program.¹¹ The first order condition for minimization of $P_\alpha(\cdot)$ with respect to RT_j is given by:

$$\beta_j \frac{\partial P_{\alpha,j}(z_e, (y_j + RT_j))}{\partial RT_j} + \lambda = 0. \quad (8)$$

The parameter λ is the shadow price which results from a marginal increase of the available budget. The equation (8) indicates that this budget has to be distributed so as the last monetary unit allocated to each region allows the same poverty reduction. Given that:

⁹ This paper focuses on targeting in the form of cash transfers. Nevertheless, the methodology followed here does not exclude the possibility that this design takes the form of food stamps, rations, etc.

¹⁰ The characteristic of any subgroup of poor population can be of regional nature (rural or urban zone, northern region or the south...) or socio-demographic (number of child by household, the occupation nature of the household head, his level of education, etc.). Note that the decomposability characteristic of the FGT poverty measure is not always respected in all poverty measures suggested in the literature. For instance, see Zheng (1997).

¹¹ This framework assumes then that targeting within j is not possible.

$$\frac{\partial P_{\alpha,j}}{\partial RT_j} = -\frac{\alpha}{\beta_j N z_e} P_{\alpha-1,j}(z_e, (y_j + RT_j)) \quad (9)$$

the optimal distribution of the available budget through the different regions is achieved when:

$$P_{\alpha-1,j}(z_e, (y_j + RT_j)) = P_{\alpha-1,k}(z_e, (y_k + RT_k)) \quad (10)$$

The first order condition given by equation (8) is very instructive. When the objective is to minimize the poverty measure $P_\alpha(\cdot)$, the available budget has to be allocated so as to equalize $P_{\alpha-1,j}(\cdot)$. Following Kanbur (1987), the intuition behind this result is obvious when $\alpha = 1$. The poverty deficit measure $P_1(\cdot)$ is proportional to the sum of the poverty gaps. The amount by which this sum changes when each income increases marginally is given by the number of households having an equivalent income per capita below the equivalent poverty line, which is proportional to $P_0(\cdot)$. Expression (10) stresses the fact that any poverty measure is a statement about poor population welfare on the average, whereas the optimal allocation of available budget requires marginal information. Therefore, while $P_{\alpha-1}(\cdot)$ is not in itself the objective of the design, it turns out to play the crucial role of an indicator in fixing the share of the available budget which has to benefit each region. Hence, the solution of this optimization program can be obtained numerically and it will only depend on the poverty aversion, α , and the distribution of income in region j :

$$RT_j^i = RT_j = RT_\alpha(y_j), \quad (11)$$

where RT_j^i is the transfer awarded to an individual i living in the region j .

Expression (11) clearly shows that under regional targeting of transfers, all individuals within a region are treated identically as with a universal transfer scheme; but only some regions are targeted by this system. Indeed, the scheme works as follows: transfers are awarded to everyone living in the poorest region up to equalize its $P_{\alpha-1,j}(\cdot)$ to the next poorest

region, then transfers are awarded to each person living in these two equally-poor regions until reaching the $P_{\alpha-1,j}(\cdot)$ of the third poorest region. This pattern is repeated until expending the entire budget. Thus, the available budget will be spent to minimize $P_{\alpha-1,j}(\cdot)$ of the poorest regions down to a common measure $\bar{P}_{\alpha-1,j}(\cdot)$ below the initial one. If the available budget is not large enough, $P_{\alpha-1,j}(\cdot)$ of the richest regions will be lower than $\bar{P}_{\alpha-1,j}(\cdot)$ and so they will be excluded from the benefits of regional targeting program.¹²

In order to assess how well regional targeting alleviates poverty, relative to targeting by commodities, we look at the cost resulting from the inclusion of the non-poor and the exclusion ratio of the poor.¹³ Interestingly, note that targeting by commodities, using UFSP, has no exclusion error and so, it is an optimal program when the objective is to minimize this kind of error. Nevertheless, as stated by Ravallion and Datt (1995), the ability of a design to concentrate benefits on the poor should not be confused with its impact on poverty; the former being one determinant of the latter.

The net effect on the individual welfare will then be appreciated with regard to the difference in the poverty level between the different schemes under consideration:

$$\Delta P_{\alpha} = \sum_{j=1}^J \beta_j [P_{\alpha,j}(z_e, y_e(p^r, p^s, y_j)) - P_{\alpha,j}(z_e, y_j + RT_j)]. \quad (12)$$

Furthermore, since poverty measures are estimated using sample observations, we need to test whether the observed reduction in poverty following the proposed design is statistically significant, which is possible using the test of Kakwani (1993):

$$\kappa = \frac{\Delta P_{\alpha}}{\sigma(\Delta P_{\alpha})} \quad (13)$$

where $\sigma(\cdot)$ is the standard error of ΔP_{α} :

¹² An alternative framework allowing the possibility of targeting within regions will not exclude any region from the benefits of such scheme [see for instance Ravallion (1998a)]. Yet the goal here is just to check whether using a simple targeting model could be more effective in reducing poverty than UFSP.

$$\sigma(\Delta P_{\alpha}) = \sqrt{\frac{(P_{2\alpha}(\cdot) - [P_{\alpha}(\cdot)]^2)_{TC} + (P_{2\alpha}(\cdot) - [P_{\alpha}(\cdot)]^2)_{RT}}{I}}$$

Since the UFSP entails a distortion of the relative price system, the average of the equivalent gain distribution will be less important than per capita cost of UFSP, i.e. B . The difference between these two arguments corresponds to the excess burden of UFSP and it constitutes a part of the inefficiency cost induced by choosing targeting by commodities. The evaluation of the extent of this cost requires the estimation of a demand system. If the estimation of the excess burden cost is found to be exaggerated, the impact of a revenue-neutral reform which uses the UFSP budget risks therefore to be overestimated. The removal of the excess burden cost estimated will explain a great part of the estimated welfare improvement, and it is not sure that such would be the case in reality. Since the objective of this study is to assess the impact of an alternative poverty alleviation program, we choose to ignore the importance of this cost since, if the reform is good under this assumption, it is at least as good under an alternative one.

3. Data and Methodology

The methodology presented in previous section is applied on a data set from the 1990 Tunisian survey. This is a multipurpose household survey which provides information on expenditures and quantities for food items and expenditures for non-food items, as well as on many other dimensions, that characterize the behavior of 7734 households. Information includes the consumption of education, housing, region of residence, demographic information, and economic activities. Nevertheless, it does not include information on income distribution. Therefore, as stated above, the easiest approach is to choose the total expenditures *per capita* of households as a *proxy* for the individuals' well-being.

¹³ For instance, see Cornia and Stewart (1995)

In any study of poverty, a cut-off point needs to be selected to serve as a poverty line across the distribution of households' expenditure *per capita*.¹⁴ The determination of the poverty line is rarely formulated in utilitarian terms [Ravallion (1996)]. In theory, a utilitarian approach should enable us to display a downward-sloping indifference curve that separates the poor from the non-poor. Hence, the compensated expenditure function would allow to determine, for any given price system, the minimum expenditure level required to reach this indifference curve. For instance, let the individual welfare be represented by the Stone-Geary utility function. Thus, the maximization of this function subject to the budgetary constraint gives the following non-compensated expenditures functions:

$$x_k^h = z_k + \sigma_k (y^h - z) \text{ with } \sum_k \sigma_k = 1 \quad (14)$$

where σ_k is a positive parameter, z_k can be interpreted as some minimum expenditure on commodity k , and x_k^h is the expenditure *per capita* on commodity k by household h having an income level *per capita*, y^h . Bourguignon and Fields (1997) have underlined that when we estimate and use this model to study the consumption behavior, it has to be assumed that all individuals having an income level below the minimum, $z = \sum_k z_k$, required to buy the minimum bundle $(z_1, \dots, z_k, \dots, z_K)$, can be considered as being poor. However, Ravallion and van de Walle (1991) find difficult to base poverty line on a basket of reference consumption.

It is both natural and convenient to decompose poverty line into two components: a food poverty line (z_f) and a non-food poverty line (z_{nf}). If we assume that food commodities make up a basket of goods that is separable from others, the food component of poverty line could be estimated using a linear demand system (*LES*), given by equation (14).¹⁵ This assumption enables us to keep the usage of the *LES* model only for the estimation of the food poverty line.

¹⁴ There is a large literature dealing with the determination of the poverty line. For a recent survey, see Ravallion (1998b).

The estimation results of the *LES* model using the restricted least square are reported in table A-1 in annex.¹⁶ This table reveals an estimated value of 167.7 *Tunisian Dinars* (henceforth TD) *per capita per year* for z_f under UFSP.¹⁷

The non-food poverty line (z_{nf}) is estimated using the Ravallion's (1998b) method. It consists in observing households' behavior whose income is just equal to the food poverty line ($y^h = z_f$). These households are in a position to afford basic foodstuffs but prefer to devote part of their income to non-food commodities. This income part can be deemed as the lower non-food poverty line z_{nf}^l :

$$z_{nf}^l = z_f - y_f \quad (15)$$

To estimate the non-food component of poverty line, we can use the *AIDS* model of Deaton and Muelbauer (1980) or *IQAIDS* model of Banks et al. (1997). The main hypothesis behind the *AIDS* model is the linearity of Engel curve when the latter describes a relationship between food budget share and the logarithm of individual's (y^h) income deflated by the food poverty line. However, it is possible that the slope of the Engel curve is not constant in which case, the below *IQAIDS* model becomes appealing:

$$w_f^h = \omega_f + \theta \ln\left(\frac{y^h}{z_f}\right) + \delta \left[\ln\left(\frac{y^h}{z_f}\right) \right]^2 + u_f^h. \quad (16)$$

The estimation parameters of the *IQAIDS* model are reported in table A-2 in annex. As equation (16) reveals, the coefficient ω_f is an estimated average of households' food share having total expenditures *per capita* equal to the food poverty line (z_f). The lower non-food poverty line (z_{nf}^l) could be then given by the following equation:

¹⁵ We have underlined that the linear demand system allows to estimate a poverty line by reference to a fixed consumption bundle that is too restrictive. To reduce disadvantages of the *LES* choice, we have chosen to decompose the poverty line into two components and to reduce the use of this system only for the estimation of food poverty line.

¹⁶ Ayadi and Matoussi (1995) have followed the energy approach to estimate the food component of poverty line. They found that food poverty line is equal to 152 *Tunisian Dinars*. Hence, table A-1 shows that our results allow households to reach easily their needs in calorific energy.

¹⁷ In 1990, one *Tunisian Dinar* is close to one US dollar.

$$z_{nf}^l = (1 - \omega_f)z_f. \quad (17)$$

Ravallion (1998b) considers the lower poverty line as an “ultra-poverty line”, such that households with consumption expenditures below that threshold face a serious venture of under-nutrition. Equation (17) allows us then to have a relation between the food poverty line (z_f) and the lower poverty line (z^l):

$$z^l = (2 - \omega_f)z_f \quad (18)$$

In addition, we can determine the upper poverty line (z^u) which is the required minimum income level for a household that allows him to devote, for food items, a budget that is equal to the food poverty line (z_f). The upper poverty line which can be obtained numerically, allows us to estimate an upper non-food poverty line that corresponds to the maximum reasonable expenditure for basic non-food items. The following table gives the lower non-food, the upper non-food, and the global poverty lines estimated following the Ravallion’s (1998b) approach:¹⁸

Table 1: Lower and upper poverty lines under UFSP (TD per capita per year)

	Lower	upper
Food poverty line, z_f	161.7	161.7
Non food poverty line, z_{nf}	65,9	133,2
(Global) poverty line, z	227,6	294.9

To assess how well UFSP and geographic targeting work, we have now to determine the equivalent poverty line, $y_e(p^r, p^s, z)$. An estimate of the equivalent gain at point z , TC_z , is then required. We use a non-parametric estimation procedure to estimate it, following the technique of kernel density estimation developed by Silverman (1986):

¹⁸ The official poverty line estimated by the National Statistic Institute corresponds to 278 (139) TD for the urban (rural) area. On the other hand, the poverty line estimated by Ayadi and Matoussi (1995), who have followed the Ravallion (1998b) method to estimate its non-food component, varies between 213 and 262 TD.

$$\hat{TC} = \frac{\int_0^{+\infty} TC \hat{f}(TC, z) dTC}{\int_0^{+\infty} \hat{f}(TC, z) dTC}. \quad (24)$$

In the application of this method, we use the non-parametric kernel estimation procedure, with Gaussian Kernel and bandwidth chosen to minimize the mean integrated square error of a wide range of possible population densities. The estimated distribution tends asymptotically to the true distribution if the latter is continuous.¹⁹ The following table gives the lower and upper equivalent poverty line that corresponds to those estimated above:²⁰

Table 2: Lower and upper equivalent poverty line (TD per capita per year)

	<i>Lower</i>	<i>Upper</i>
$z = e(p^s, v_z)$	227,6	294,9
$z_e = e(p^r, v_z) = y_e(p^r, p^s, z)$	253,1	323,6

Arguably, a general equilibrium model is required to elicit the sharing out of food subsidy benefits between firms and households. Most computable general equilibrium models assume that the supply curve of each commodity is horizontal such that consumers reap the entire benefits of the indirect transfers. For simplicity, we assume such framework. Hence, through UFSP, consumer price is lowered below marginal cost by 37 percent for hard wheat, 35 percent for tender wheat, 9 percent for other wheat, 14 percent for poultry and eggs, 18 percent for milk, 24 percent for sugar, and 34 percent for grain oil. The budgetary cost *per capita per year* of UFSP is 34.8 TD. The outcomes of this program on poverty are summarized in the following table.

¹⁹ See Silverman (1986).

²⁰ Although the approach followed here allows to resolve some defects involved in preceding approaches, the arbitrariness is not entirely excluded with utilitarian approach. That is why, there is a good case for considering quite a wide range of the whole distribution of income when we have to assess the likely effects of regional targeting.

Table 3: The outcomes of UFSP on poverty

α	z_e	$P_\alpha(z_e, y)$	$P_\alpha(z_e, y + TC)$	ΔP_α (%)	κ
0	255	15.9	12.5	-21.4	-14.9
0	325	26.2	21.8	-16.8	-15.4
1	255	4.3	3.1	-27.9	-15.5
1	325	7.9	6.1	-22.8	-16.9
2	255	1.7	1.2	-29.4	-13.9
2	325	3.4	2.5	-26.5	-15.9

The presence of UFSP is a meaningful source of welfare improvement for the poor, as the statistically significant decline of all poverty measures proved. For the lower poverty line, the extreme poverty decline is between 21.4 and 29.4 percent according to whether the poverty measure retained is $P_0(\cdot)$ or $P_2(\cdot)$. Further, table 3 shows that in relative terms, the subsidies on foodstuffs benefited more the poorest of the poor than the richest. So targeting by commodities is progressive in relative terms. For instance, we note that poverty reduction is less important as the poverty line rises for a given poverty measure.

In order to have economically homogeneous regions, eight regional groups are identified: Great Tunis, Northeast, Northwest, Middle East, Middle West, Sfax, Southeast, Southwest. Table A-3 in annex summarizes the distribution of the equivalent gain in each region and table 4 presented below reports some basic information on these regions in term of population weights, β_j , the mean and standard error of equivalent income (expenditures) *per capita per year* in the benchmark situation as well as the extent to which UFSP decreases poverty in these regions; using the upper poverty line.

Table 4: Outcome of UFSP on regional poverty ($z_e = 325$ TD *per capita per year*)

Regions	β_j (%)	$y_e(p^r, p^r, y_j)$	$P_0(z_e, y)$	$P_0(z_e, y+TC)$	$P_1(z_e, y)$	$P_1(z_e, y+TC)$
Great Tunis	16.84	955 (2134)	9.82	7.94	2.57	1.88
Northeast	12.64	733 (1606)	24.1	19.2	6.59	4.81
Northwest	17.54	510 (972)	38.6	34.3	13.3	10.6
Middle East	12.10	846 (1690)	14.2	11.5	4.0	3.09
Middle West	15.05	529 (1055)	36.3	29.4	11.7	9.13
Sfax	5.76	618 (1117)	26.3	20.9	7.65	6.02
Southeast	11.17	589 (1369)	27.3	22.7	6.26	4.59
Southwest	8.90	511 (920)	34	28.1	10.0	7.88

Note: (Standard error in parenthesis)

The impact of the targeting-by-commodities program on reducing poverty does not indicate, however, that it is an optimal transfer design. Indeed, although UFSP reduces the incidence and, to some extent, the severity of poverty in the poorest regions of Tunisia, i.e. mainly the west regions, the poverty level in these regions remain really high as table 4 reveals. Further, the magnitude of the income transfer to the non-poor, that is the leakages of the program benefits, is very important. The richest quintile group of the population received 2.1 times more of the equivalent gains from food subsidies than the poorest, with an average equivalent gain *per capita per year* of 47.33 TD and 22.79 TD respectively. This mistaken award of transfers to the non-targeted group reduces the vertical efficiency of this scheme and

leads to a leakage of program benefits. The restructuring of this scheme becomes then a pressing priority.

4. Simulation results of regional targeting

Two transfer schemes based on regional targeting are simulated using the upper poverty line. The first assumes that the objective is to minimize the poverty gap, $P_1(\cdot)$; whereas the second is based on the distribution of the available budget so as to decrease as much as possible the severity of poverty, i.e. $P_2(\cdot)$. As described above, when minimizing, say, $P_1(\cdot)$, transfers are first targeted to households living in the northwest area, since this area experiences the higher $P_{0j}(\cdot)$, until they reach the headcount ratio of the middle west area, then transfers are equally awarded to households living in both northwest and middle west regions until they reach the headcount ratio of the southwest area. The available budget is wholly expended and, so, this scheme stops when the headcount ratio in the six poorest regions equalizes 0.233.²¹ Because the incidence of poverty is lower than this threshold in Great Tunis and Middle East region, they are excluded from this design. The transfers scheme resulting from regional targeting simulations are reported in table A-3 in annex.

It is equally useful to test whether direct transfers based on regional targeting alleviate more poverty than universal transfers do; especially when the latter serves more poor people than targeting by commodities.²² Likewise, the targeting by commodities and the universal transfer effects, the effects of regional targeting transfers on the poor population welfare, for different values of aversion to the poverty, are summarized in the following table:²³

²¹ The same process is followed when minimizing the severity of poverty, i.e. $P_2(\cdot)$. The available budget is spent to decrease $P_{1j}(\cdot)$ of the six poorest regions up to 0.053. Poverty measures for each region before and after each transfer scheme are presented in the table A-3 in annex.

²² Note that the debate about the choice between a universal transfer system and a system based on targeted transfers to poor people is not yet closed. Political considerations or negative effects on the individuals' incentive could justify the choice of a universal transfer system. See, for example, Creedy (1996).

²³ We have to note here that the available budget allows to lift all the poor out of poverty if perfect targeting is not a policymaker's pipe dream and if we admit that equivalent poverty line can never exceed the limit of 358 TD.

Table 5: Regional targeting efficiency ($z_e = 325$ TD *per capita per year*)

	$y_e(p^r, p^r, y_j)$	TC	UT	$RT_1(y_j)$	$RT_2(y_j)$
Leakage	0	83.4	76.34	70.42	70.58
Under-coverage	100	0	0	12.86	12.86
$P_0(\cdot)$	26.2	21.8 ^{''}	20.9 ^{**}	19.9 ⁺⁺	19.97 ⁺⁺
$P_1(\cdot)$	7.9	6.1 ^{''}	5.34 ^{**}	4.70 ⁺⁺	4.72 ⁺⁺
$P_2(\cdot)$	3.4	2.47 ^{''}	1.98 ^{**}	1.65 ⁺⁺	1.63 ⁺⁺

^{''} Poverty differences between UFSP and no poverty alleviation program are significant at 1 percent level.

^{**} Poverty differences between universal transfer scheme and UFSP are significant at 1 percent level.

⁺⁺ Poverty differences between regional targeting of transfers and universal transfer scheme are significant at 1 percent level.

A close examination of this table shows that even universal transfer allows a better effect on poverty than UFSP. Simulations show that under UT , the 7 points decline of leakage entails a significant reduction of poverty varying between 4 and 19.8 percent according to whether poverty is measured by $P_0(\cdot)$ or $P_2(\cdot)$.

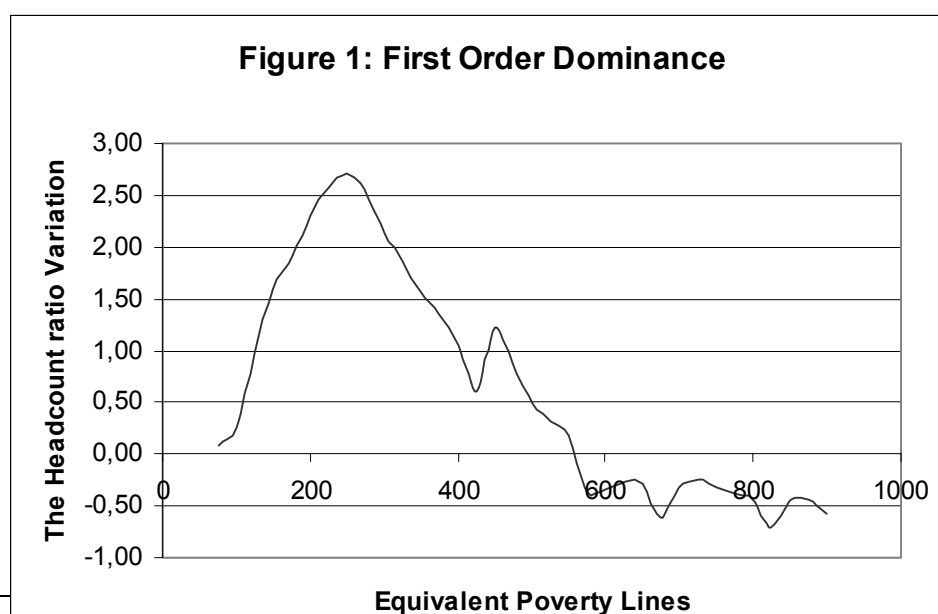
Performances of the universal transfer relative to UFSP do not indicate, nevertheless, that it is the optimal transfer scheme. Despite the presence of under-coverage with regional targeting scheme, the more important decline in leakage allows for poverty alleviation more than a universal transfer does.²⁴ Poverty is reduced by 23 percent from the original level - given by the UFSP - when the aim is to minimize the poverty gap (P_1), and this difference is statically significant. The depth of poverty, as measured by the FGT poverty measures with $\alpha = 2$ would be reduced from the original level even further. Indeed, when the objective is to minimize $P_2(\cdot)$, poverty would be decreased by 34 percent from the original level.²⁵

The analysis that we have just led is based on the choice of an equivalent poverty line z_e and a poverty measure $P_\alpha(\cdot)$ whose specification can be made arbitrary. Several choices of

²⁴ Although leakages have declined relative to food subsidies scheme and universal transfer scheme, they remain always important.

poverty measures exist and different levels of poverty lines could be advocated. The robustness of the above results facing the multiple choices of poverty lines and measures should be examined. Drawing on results from the theory of stochastic dominance developed by Atkinson (1987), we study the robustness of direct transfers outcomes based on regional targeting relative to those achieved under targeting by commodities scheme.²⁶

Suppose that it is not possible to have an assent neither about the choice of the equivalent poverty line, nor about the choice of the poverty measure. Then, it can be shown that poverty will certainly fall between the old and the proposed design, regardless of the poverty line and the poverty measure chosen, if the headcount ratio for the former always exceeds that for the later. In the stochastic dominance literature, this finding is known as “first-order dominance” (FOD). When comparing the regional targeting schemes, table 6 shows that they produce similar outcome, hence we will focus henceforth on the impact of the transfer scheme minimizing P_2 .²⁷ Figure 1 illustrates the relationship of UFSP and direct transfers based on regional targeting to FOD and the headcount ratio.



²⁵ Another

allowing the same poverty alleviation achieved by UFSP. Simulation results show that it is possible to alleviate poverty as well as with UFSP while allowing a substantial budgetary saving, varying between 50 and 64 percent.

²⁶ For robustness tests applied to poverty analysis, see, for example, Ravallion and van de Walle (1991) and Bishop et al. (1996). For a literature survey about poverty orderings, see for instance Zheng (2000).

²⁷ We have also verified that outcome differences between them are not statistically significant at 5 percent level.

By plotting the cumulative percentages variation of the population below various equivalent poverty lines, we find that difference in the headcount ratio could be positive for some equivalent poverty lines and negative for others. The impact of transferring benefits to the poor based on regional targeting relative to the UFSP is therefore ambiguous. Yet, if we can admit that the equivalent poverty line is never higher than 550 TD, then it is possible to argue that regional targeting of transfers is unambiguously more effective in serving poor people than UFSP, no matter what the poverty measure is. It is perhaps useful here to note that this range includes all the poverty lines estimated for Tunisia. Yet, if we admit an equivalent poverty line exceeding the limit of 550 TD, the outcome becomes ambiguous and FOD is unable to rank the relative effectiveness of direct transfer based on regional targeting in alleviating poverty.

Considering that these two schemes cannot be ranked by FOD, it is possible to order them by second-order dominance (SOD). A fall in poverty with regional targeting of transfers requires that the difference between the $P_1(\cdot)$ under regional targeting and the $P_1(\cdot)$ under UFSP, $\Delta P_1(\cdot)$, cannot be negative, regardless of the equivalent poverty line chosen and for all FGT poverty measures with $\alpha \geq 1$. Figure 2 illustrates the relationship of targeting by commodities and regional targeting of transfers to SOD and the poverty deficit measure. The resulting curve is equivalent to what Ravallion (1994) refers to as a poverty deficit curve.

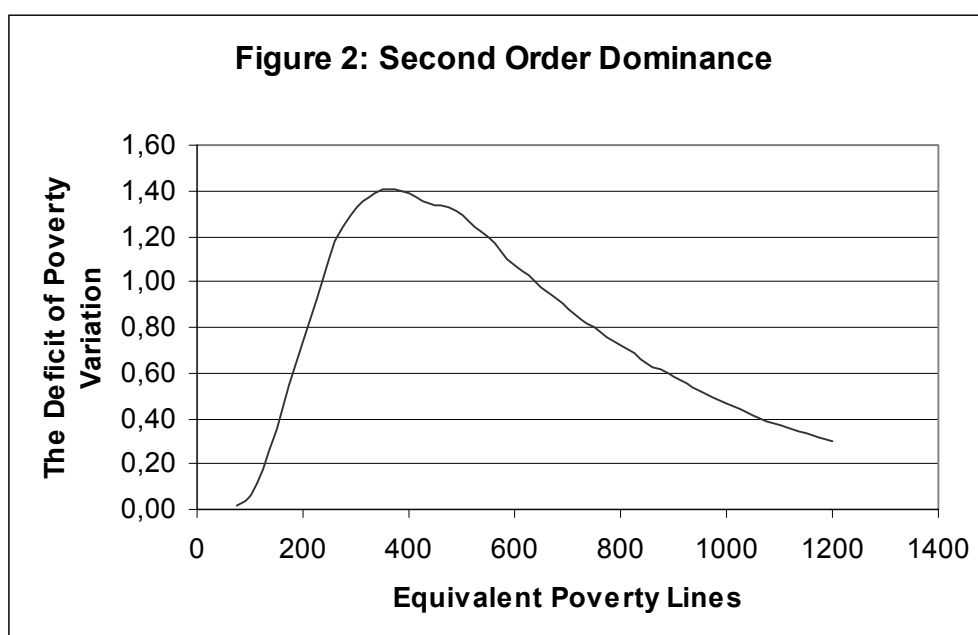


Figure 2 shows that direct transfers based on regional targeting second-order-dominates UFSP, if the maximum admissible equivalent poverty line is less than 1200 TD; this holds for all FGT poverty measures with $\alpha \geq 1$.²⁸ Indeed, since the deficit of poverty under UFSP is larger than the deficit of poverty under regional targeting at each equivalent poverty line up to 1200 TD, then we can conclude that the proposed design is more effective in decreasing the poverty deficit. Nevertheless, if it is inadmissible that poverty line is less than 1200 TD, the outcome becomes ambiguous and SOD is unable to rank the relative effectiveness of the proposed design in reducing poverty; and an unambiguous ranking may be possible at a higher order of dominance. The need to test higher orders of dominance becomes thin since the hypothesis of an equivalent poverty line exceeding the limit of 1200 TD is arguably far from being plausible.

²⁸ This holds also for all poverty measure in line with the Pigou-Dalton principle of transfers, which supports that a transfer of income from a non-poor person to a poorer one improves the social welfare.

5. Conclusion

With the economic growth decline and the advent of tight budgetary constraints in 1980s and 1990s, many governments have moved away from UFSP towards more targeted programs. In addition, governments having in hand efficient anti-poverty programs are more prepared to prevent severe and long-term losses for their vulnerable groups when they deal with macroeconomic shocks [Ferreira et al. (1999)]. Among targeting options, regional targeting of transfers could be a useful mechanism to channel assistance to the less well-off segment of the population. Hence, this paper presents some technical issues required in designing poverty alleviation programs based on regional targeting, and estimates their likely effects on poverty relative to the effects achieved under the current UFSP.

To assess how well regional targeting of direct transfers alleviates poverty, we have focused on the poverty outcome of direct transfers based on regional targeting relative to targeting by commodities. The system that alleviates more poverty for a given budget is preferred. The outcomes of a regional targeting design show that, although this transfer scheme would entail some under-coverage of poor people, it produces less leakage and, consequently, an important well-being improvement of the poor population. Indeed, all FGT poverty measures observe a decrease that varies between 8.4 and 34 percent according to the equivalent poverty line and the poverty measure chosen.

Dominance tests are equally used to avoid diverse views on both the appropriate functional form of the poverty measure and the choice of the equivalent poverty line, since these choices may be critical. The main result is that regional targeting design would second-order-dominate UFSP within a wide range of poverty lines. Thus, once the headcount ratio is excluded, it is possible to conclude that giving assistance to the poor based on regional

targeting should be more effective to lessen poverty than UFSP, regardless of the equivalent poverty line and the poverty measure chosen.

Under regional targeting, all individuals within a region are treated identically as with a universal transfer scheme; but only certain regions are targeted with this system. Giving benefits only to some regions could be politically impossible to implement. This concern could be solved by narrowing the target areas from the level of regions to villages or municipalities. In reality, an anti-poverty program that is more targeted would generate more political support, improve its coverage, reduce leakages to the non-poor and so enable to go further in lessening poverty. For instance, Baker and Grosh (1994) argue that regional targeting is an effective way to award transfers to the poor but the smaller the target areas are, the greater is the poverty reduction that is possible to achieve, revenue-neutral. Moreover, Jalan and Ravallion (1998) find that the greatest poverty alleviation is achieved when the target areas are villages or municipalities.

Before implementing targeted program, another issue relating to the indirect effects on poverty has to be discussed. These effects would arise through the impact of food subsidies removal on conditions in other markets, such as those for labor. In reality, only computable general equilibrium models would allow to include all indirect and direct effects of more targeted schemes to capture their net impact on poverty.

The present study is mainly illustrative. The focus on geographical targeting at a smaller level and the analysis of the indirect effects of a more targeted program require more detailed data and are beyond the scope of this paper. We leave this issue for future research. The outcome of this analysis highlights, however, the potential returns from a more refined research that could provide guidelines for policymakers on the optimal level of targeting as well as its expected benefits.

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7. Annex

Table A-1: Results of first stage estimation poverty line

Food Commodities:	z_k	σ_k	R^2
1/ Hard, Tender and Other Wheat	38,752 (88)	0.067 (42)	0.24
2/ Vegetables	28,757 (62)	0.116 (69)	0.45
3/ Fruit	3,851 (7,7)	0.105 (58)	0.37
4/ Poultry & Eggs, Meat and Fish	34,865 (46)	0.337 (125)	0.73
5/ Milk	13,471 (29)	0.088 (54)	0.34
6/ Sugar and Other Sugar Products	5,099 (18)	0.029 (28)	0.12
7/ Mix and Olive Oils	11,804 (29)	0.064 (43)	0.25
8/ Canned foods	13,771 (64)	0.035 (45)	0.26
9/ Other Foods	11,360 (13)	0.159 (52)	0.32
Food Poverty Line ($z_f = \sum z_k$)	161,73		

Note: (*t*-ratios in parenthesis)

Table A-2: Results estimation of the budget food share using the IQAIDS model:

Model	ω_f	θ	δ	R^2_{adjusted}
<i>IQAIDS</i>	0,5923 (170)	-0,062 (-12)	-0,0184 (-10)	0,32

Note: (*t*-ratios in parenthesis)

Table A-3: The distribution of transfers under the different schemes ($z_e = 325$ TD *per capita per year*)

Regions	β_j (%)	\overline{TC}_j	$B = UT$	$B_j = T_1(y_j)$	$B_j = T_2(y_j)$
Great Tunis	16.84	39.78 (35.1)	34.8 (0)	0 (0)	0 (0)
Northeast	12.64	37,54 (43,6)	34.8 (0)	4.95 (0)	17.5 (0)
Northwest	17.54	32.6 (36.8)	34.8 (0)	90.86 (0)	80.86 (0)
Middle East	12.10	34.6 (37.4)	34.8 (0)	0 (0)	0 (0)
Middle West	15.05	33.5 (38.8)	34.8 (0)	65.9 (0)	70.3 (0)
Sfax	5.76	30.4 (31.3)	34.8 (0)	14.82 (0)	32.16 (0)
Southeast	11.17	32.7 (35.6)	34.8 (0)	23.05 (0)	11,2 (0)
Southwest	8.90	33.7 (42.5)	34.8 (0)	55.13 (0)	53 (0)

Note: (standard-error in parenthesis)

Table A-4: Poverty measures in each region under no assistance to the poor and different transfer schemes ($z_e = 325$ TD per capita per year)

Regions	$y_e(p^r, p^r, y_j)$			TC			Universal Transfers			$B_j = T_1(y_j)$			$B_j = T_2(y_j)$		
	P ₀	P ₁	P ₂	P ₀	P ₁	P ₂	P ₀	P ₁	P ₂	P ₀	P ₁	P ₂	P ₀	P ₁	P ₂
Great Tunis	9.82	2.57	0.96	7.94	1.88	0.66	7.62	1.63	0.52	9.82	2.57	0.96	9.82	2.57	0.96
Northeast	24.1	6.59	2.67	19.22	4.81	1.83	18.67	4.28	1.52	23.3	6.22	2.47	21.6	5.35	2.03
Northwest	38.6	13.3	6.19	34.3	10.61	4.65	33.1	9.46	3.76	23.3	4.61	1.38	24.8	5.35	1.69
Middle East	14.2	4	1.69	11.5	3.09	1.25	10.5	2.66	0.99	14.2	4	1.69	14.2	4	1.69
Middle West	36.3	11.7	5.38	29.4	9.13	3.99	28.9	8.17	3.27	23.3	5.66	1.95	22.4	5.35	1.8
Sfax	26.3	7.65	3.2	20.9	6.02	2.34	19.6	5.19	1.84	23.3	6.53	2.57	20.2	5.35	1.92
Southeast	27.3	6.26	2.08	22.7	4.59	1.44	21.1	3.66	1.03	23.3	4.47	1.33	25.5	5.35	1.68
Southwest	34	10	4.12	28.1	7.88	3.02	26.9	6.77	2.34	23.3	5.19	1.59	23.9	5.35	1.66
(Mean)	(26.2)	(7.9)	(3.4)	(21.8)	(6.1)	(2.5)	(20.9)	(5.34)	(1.98)	(19.9)	(4.7)	(1.65)	(19.)	(4.72)	(1.63)

Defense Spending and Economic Development in Lebanon: A Co-integration and Vector Autoregression Analysis

Rock-Antoine Mehanna

Defense Spending and Economic Development in Lebanon: A Co-integration and Vector Autoregression Analysis

Rock-Antoine Mehanna*

Abstract

The lack of statistical data on Lebanon, especially before the 1990s, limited the amount of empirical work on this country. Unlike standard defense - growth literature that focuses mainly on total military expenditures, this study attempts to underscore the human resources' aspect of defense spending in Lebanon as measured by the armed personnel. It also examines the temporal causality between defense spending (i.e. total defense resources) and economic development, and between armed personnel (i.e. human defense resources) and economic development. Results show that total defense resources, and perhaps more interestingly, human defense resources, retard Lebanon's economic development significantly. Findings also reveal that diverting human resources, relative to total resources including physical, away from the private sector may be at least three times more distorting than diverting physical resources (e.g., land, building, and materials).

الإنتاج الدفاعي والتنمية الاقتصادية في لبنان: تحليل التكامل المشترك ومتجه الانحدار الذاتي

روك أنطوان مهنا

ملخص

إن نقص البيانات الإحصائية عن لبنان، وخصوصاً عن فترة ما قبل التسعينات، قد حد من كمية الأعمال الإمبريقية عن هذا البلد. وعلى خلاف أدبيات النمو الدفاعي التي تركز بشكل أساسي على مجموع الإنتاج الدفاعي، فإن هذه الدراسة تحاول التأكيد على جانب الموارد البشرية للإنتاج الدفاعي في لبنان مقاساً بعدد الأشخاص في القوات المسلحة. كما تشخص الورقة السببية المؤقتة بين الإنتاج الدفاعي (أي مجموع الموارد الدفاعية) والتنمية الاقتصادية، وكذلك بين عدد الأشخاص في القوات المسلحة (أي الموارد الدفاعية البشرية) والتنمية الاقتصادية. تبين النتائج أن الموارد الدفاعية وربما بشكل أكثر أهمية، الموارد الدفاعية البشرية، تعيق التنمية الاقتصادية في لبنان بشكل جوهري. كما تشير النتائج أيضاً إلى أن تحول الموارد البشرية، نسبة إلى مجموع الموارد بما فيها العينية، بعيداً عن القطاع الخاص، يمكن أن يكون مشوماً ثلاث مرات على الأقل أكثر من تحول الموارد الطبيعية (مثل الأرض، المباني والمواد الأولية).

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Introduction

The lack of statistical data on Lebanon, especially before the 1990s, limited the amount of empirical work on this country. Unlike standard defense spending literature that focuses mainly on total military expenditures, this study attempts to underscore the human resources' aspect of defense spending in Lebanon as measured by the armed personnel. It borrows from the new growth theory to examine the relationship between defense spending (i.e. total defense resources) and economic development, and between armed personnel (i.e. human defense resources) and economic development.⁽¹⁾

The relationship between defense spending and economic development is a controversial topic. There has been no sufficient empirical evidence on this relationship, while standard literature has synthesized few theoretical explanations. Defense spending may affect economic development either negatively through a crowding out of investment, positively through an expansion of aggregate demand, or positively through increased security. Past and contemporary work has examined the relationship between defense spending as measured mainly by total military expenditures—i.e. total physical and human resources—and economic development, and has reported mixed results (Sezing, 2000; Schiller, 1999; Kollias, 1994; Ward and Davis, 1992). These mixed findings are perhaps due to the methodology, sample period, sample countries, and/or the specificity of different countries.

Despite some recent attempts to investigate the relationship between defense spending and economic development in a panel set-up,² standard literature still shows a preference for examining the aforementioned relationship on a country basis time-series rather than panel data or cross-section (Kusi, 1994). The preference of country-specific studies is amplified by the dynamic existence of multi-layers of social, political, and economic factors embedded among different countries. Kusi (*op. cit.*) indicates that the link between defense spending and economic activity cannot be generalized across countries because it may depend on the sample period of study and the level of socio-economic development of the country concerned.

The puzzle between defense spending and economic development extends not only to their temporal causality, but also to the instrumentality and the endogeneity of pertinent variables. This is described by Gupta *et al.* (2001) and Mauro (1995) who argue that different channels linking defense spending to growth may exist in different countries, hence the preferable use of country-specific examination, rather than cross-country or panel data.

This study borrows from the new growth model of Barro and Sala-i Martin (1995) to address the physical, as well as the human capital aspects of defense spending, within a growth framework. The new growth model predicts the growth rate of economic development as a function of physical capital, human capital, a set of institutional determinants (e.g., rule of law), and some macroeconomic policies such as government spending, including defense spending, investment, trade openness and fertility rates.³

(1) In this paper, the terms “economic development,” “economic growth,” and “growth” are used interchangeably and represent the growth rate in per capita real gross domestic product (GDP).

(2) See Dakurah *et al.*, 2001.

(3) Barro and Sala-i-Martin examine the link between defense spending and growth in cross-country regression and find inconclusive results. For further details on the role of defense spending within the new growth framework, see Barro and Sala-i-Martin (1995).

Following Mauro's (1995) and Kusi's (1994) rationales, this paper uses a time-series co-integration and vector autoregression (VAR) analysis. This would allow the focus on the distinct dynamics of a single country — Lebanon — as well as the isolation of the possible structural channels that could affect the link between defense spending and economic development. Additionally, the feature of the adopted econometric model would allow the accounting for major exogenous shocks over the years such as the Lebanese military build-up during the early 1990s post war period without necessarily following the Barro and Sala-i Martin approach (1995), which uses a dummy variable to control for war.

In addition to being the first empirical defense study in Lebanon, the author believes that no empirical work has yet explored the role of human defense resources within the defense-growth framework. Subsequently, the novelty of this paper is that it attempts to shed light on the role of human defense resources in economic development by separately examining the effects of total military expenditures and armed personnel as a percentage of labor force. This could be consistent with the globalization framework that argues in favor of the dominance of human resources over physical ones.

Therefore, it is hypothesized that: (1) an increase in defense spending, i.e. total resources; and (2) an increase in armed forces personnel, i.e. human defense resources, tend to burden the Lebanese economy and impede economic development.

Defense Spending and Armed Personnel in Lebanon

Lebanon's defense spending as a percentage of gross national income (GNI) in 1999 (4%) is way above the world average of 3.3%, averages for middle- and high-income countries of 2.7 and 2.3% respectively, and European average of 1.9%. Additionally, Lebanon's defense spending as a percentage of central government expenditures remained considerably high throughout the 1990s. In 1992, it was more than triple the share of Europe's and 55% larger than high income countries and world averages. However, it started to drop in the latter part of the decade as shown in Table 1.

Table 1. Defense Spending

	% of GNI		% of Government Expenditures	
	1992	1999	1992	1999
Lebanon	4	4	18.5	11
Middle East & N. Africa	14.5	7	49	28.5
Low Income	2.6	2.5	11.8	13.8
Middle Income	4	2.7	21.1	15.8
High Income	3.1	2.3	11.1	9.1
Europe EMU	2.3	1.9	5.7	5.2
World	3.2	2.3	12.2	10

Source: World Bank. 2002. World Development Indicators.

Ironically, while most of the world, including low, middle, and high-income countries; European countries; and the Middle East (especially the Gulf States after the 1990 Gulf war) and North Africa known for their recent high military spending, cut their armed forces personnel as a percentage of the labor force, Lebanon increased its already high percentage from 3.1 in 1992 to 3.9 in 1999 (see Table 2). Lebanon's large percentage of armed forces personnel is to be compared, for instance, with middle-income countries and the world average that went down from 1% in 1992 to 0.7% in 1999.

Table 2. Armed Forces Personnel

	Total in thousands		% of Labor Force	
	1992	1999	1992	1999
Lebanon	37	58	3.1	3.9
Middle East & N. Africa	2,631	2,529	3.3	2.6
Low Income	6,483	6,254	0.7	0.6
Middle Income	12,383	10,220	1	0.7
High Income	5,665	4,724	1.3	1
Europe EMU	2,181	1,768	1.6	1.3
World	24,533	21,198	0.9	0.7

Source: World Bank. 2002. World Development Indicators

Three other issues to wit: (a) national security, (b) foreign policy, and (c) the trade off between *guns and butter*, are also pertinent to the “broader” topic of defense spending but not examined in this empirical study because they deserve to be investigated in a separate analysis. Consequently, this study examines a timely topic of significant importance affecting a current public policy dilemma in Lebanon. The country is struggling to find ways to control its flagrant public debt which is 180% of GDP in 2002. In addition, until this writing, there exists no such empirical study of the impact of defense spending in Lebanon.

The Lebanese public debt dilemma is obviously exacerbated by the large interest payments (48% of the budget in 2002), the slow privatization process, the large public wage bill and the unstable regional political situation. Subsequently, this study attempts to shed more light on the under-addressed component of government defense spending. In the midst of fiscal austerity measure, it may be noted that defense spending as a percentage of total public expenditure has dropped from 9.96% in 2001 to just 9.63% in 2002, a mere 0.33 percentage point (Lebanese Ministry of Finance, 2002).

Literature

The literature on defense spending and economic development is at once rich and also inconclusive. Several studies report a positive link, while others report a negative one. Kollias (1994) and Dunne and Nikolaidou (2001) examine the effect of defense expenditure on economic growth in Greece between 1963-1990 and 1960-1996, respectively, and find a significant negative relationship between defense spending and the economic welfare of Greece. Similarly, Dunne and Vougas (1999) adopt a VAR model to estimate the effect of military spending on the South African economy and report a negative link. Alternatively, Sezing (2000) analyzes the link between defense spending and growth in Turkey using a disaggregated approach where he finds a

significant positive correlation between the two variables. However, none of these studies consider the human resources aspect of defense policy.

Several studies have investigated the US defense policies for a 45-year period, and have argued that US defense spending is negatively correlated with economic development due to either the added budget deficit or the reduction in investment (Lapidus, 1993; Mintz and Huang, 1990; Ward and Davis, 1992). Conversely, Mueller and Atesoglu (1993) argue that the instrumentality of research and development in technology tend to spur a significant positive relationship between defense spending and economic development in the US.

Baran and Sweezy (1966) analyzed the role of defense spending in a sample of eighteen of the wealthiest capitalist countries. Their findings, known as the Baran-Sweezy theory, indicate that the greater the role of defense spending is in a capitalist economy, the lower the level of unemployment and the faster the rate of growth should be. However, Szymanski (1973) disputes the Baran-Sweezy theory and finds that while the level of unemployment is associated with the level of defense spending as predicted by the theory, the rate of growth is negatively associated.

From the perspective of new growth models, Mehanna (2002) argues that among developing countries, internal political stability, rather than government defense spending, would provide an environment conducive to economic growth. Barro and Sala-i Martin (1995) explore defense spending across countries to determine if it really acts as a productive instrument. To control for war, they add a dummy variable for countries that participated in at least one external war over the period 1960-1985. They postulate that an exogenous increase in government expenditures on defense could generate better national security. However, if the increase in defense spending is due to greater military threats, then such an expenditure would be nonproductive. They also find that the estimated coefficient of defense spending has an insignificant effect on economic growth.

Mehanna and Hassan (2003) examine the increase in US defense expenditures during the Kosovo war and its impact on the US domestic economy. They argue that an increase in defense spending would act as a fiscal policy that could stimulate aggregate demand if a country faces a potential or current war under the following circumstances of: (1) a remote location (not with a bordering state); (2) a collective effort (the country is a member of an international or regional body like NATO, UN, etc.); and (3) against a relatively marginal military power that would not threaten national security.

Methodology

This study borrows from the new growth theory of Barro and Sala-i Martin (1995):

$$PCI = f(DEF ; PERS ; X_i) \quad (\text{Equation 1})$$

where *PCI* denotes growth in real GDP per capita; *DEF* denotes growth in defense spending per capita ; *PERS* denotes growth in the ratio of armed personnel to labor force; and X_i represents a set of institutional determinants (e.g., rule of law) and other macroeconomic policies, such as trade openness and investment. Within the new growth framework, *DEF* is a component of the traditional determinant government spending (with a net negative impact); while *PERS* is one aspect of the broader human capital, which is depicted in endogenous, as well as new growth models.

Defense spending can crowd out investment, spur aggregate demand, and/or improve security, affecting economic development negatively in the former or positively in the latter two.

It is hypothesized here that the negative impact through the crowding out of investment, as well as human resources, outweighs the other two positive forces, aggregate demand and national security. According to both the endogenous and new growth theories, the main productive component in defense spending is research and development (R&D), something that is mostly absent in Lebanon. Subsequently, the diversion of physical resources away from the private sector could thwart entrepreneurial activities, a prominent engine for growth, particularly in Lebanon.

Perhaps more importantly, the diversion of human resources (armed forces personnel) from the private towards the public sector could have an even greater negative impact on economic development than physical capital does. Additionally, the argument behind the positive effect of security from external threats (and not internal security, which is the job of police/internal forces, i.e., Ministry of the Interior and not the Defense Ministry) could be much challenged. In fact, Lebanon's small military prowess relative to the much larger two regional (border) countries, Israel and Syria, makes the outcome of security from external threats unfeasible and irrelevant.

Growth in defense spending per capita is used as a proxy for military spending (i.e., total defense resources) and is represented by the symbol DEF. The growth rate in real gross domestic product (GDP) per capita is used as a proxy for economic development (or per capita income) and is represented by the symbol PCI. This study also employs the armed forces personnel (referred to as PERS) as a percentage of labor force as a proxy for the human defense resources. DEF, PERS, and PCI quarterly data are from 1985-Q1 through 1999-Q4. The data sets are collected and disaggregated quarterly following the exponential smoothing approach to increase their frequencies. The data are borrowed from the World Bank's World Development Indicators, the Bureau of Verification and Compliance's World Military Expenditures and Arms, and Lebanon's Ministry of Finance.

Data on defense spending from governments are often incomplete and unreliable. Thus, most researchers supplement their data from various sources. Defense spending data cover expenditures of the Ministry of Defense. Excluded are expenditures on public order and safety, which are classified separately. Armed forces personnel refer to active duty military personnel but exclude civilian police.

As previously noted, casual observation suggests a plausible association between defense spending and economic development in Lebanon. It is also useful to note that the new growth model, as well as much of the literature which reports a significant link, both indicate that the contemporaneous change in defense spending tends to impact subsequent rates of economic development. The direction and the resource components, however, differ. In order to prove any significant existence and causality in this stylized relationship, a co-integration analysis is performed followed by a dynamic VAR model to estimate the link between PCI, DEF, and PERS.

This study follows the Johansen co-integration and error correction methodology supplemented by a VAR and Granger analysis to assess the endogeneity of and causality between pertinent variables.⁽⁴⁾ Johansen methodology begins with the first-order vector autoregression (VAR) where one can generalize this model to allow for a higher-order VAR as follows:

⁽⁴⁾ For further discussion of the Johansen co-integration and error correction methodology, see Enders, 1995.

$$\Delta X = \sum_{i=1}^{p-1} \pi \Delta X_{t-i} + \pi X_{t-p} + \varepsilon_t \quad (\text{Equation 2})$$

where X is a vector with $(n \times 1)$ dimension; n is the number of variables in the model (in this article, $n = 2$); ε is a vector of error terms with $(n \times 1)$ dimension; A is an $(n \times n)$ matrix of parameters; I is an $(n \times n)$ identity matrix; $\pi = (A - I)$ is the number of co-integrating vectors; p is the order of autoregressive process; π is the number of co-integrating vectors; and Δ stands for the first difference. One may obtain the number of co-integrating vector by checking the significance of the character roots λ of π . If the variables are not co-integrated, the rank of π is zero.

The co-integration and error correction model identifies the long-run equilibrium among two or more time series variables. If two or more series are found to be co-integrated, those series will move together in the long run. In order to have co-integration in series, all series must first be integrated in the same order. Therefore, prior to testing for co-integration, an Augmented Dickey-Fuller test is performed on both the level and first-difference of the growth rates in per capita and the defense spending. The null hypothesis is that each series has a unit root. Table 3 presents the results.

Then, the co-integration test is applied. Johansen created test statistics of λ trace and λ max to test for the co-integration. R represents the order of co-integration. The co-integration test is performed at the order of zero to three. The result appears in Table 4.

To substantiate the co-integration result and estimate the temporal causality, as well as the relationship between defense spending (armed forces personnel) and economic development, all variables are treated as endogenous in two separate VAR models. This study runs two separate system equations of a 2-variable VAR model instead of one 4-variable model to avoid any misspecification due to multicollinearity between DEF and PERS.

A standard VAR can track in innovations in one series on the other one over varying time lags. Briefly stated, in a VAR model, every equation has the same right hand variables, and those variables include lagged values of all the endogenous variables. The inclusion of lagged values of the endogenous variables is intended to eliminate estimation bias associated with simultaneity and serial correlation. The following VAR are estimated using lags for each of the endogenous variables and four constants to capture the effects of exogenous variables including rule of law, investment, education, life expectancy, and fertility rates (see Equations 3 through 6). The VAR models in standard form are specified as follows:

Defense Spending and Economic Development System Equation:

$$PCI_t = \varphi_{10} + \varphi_{11}PCI_{t-1} + \varphi_{12}DEF_{t-1} + \varepsilon_{1t} \quad (\text{Equation 3})$$

$$DEF_t = \varphi_{20} + \varphi_{21}PCI_{t-1} + \varphi_{22}DEF_{t-1} + \varepsilon_{2t} \quad (\text{Equation 4})$$

Armed Forces Personnel and Economic Development System Equation:

$$PCI_t = \Omega_{10} + \Omega_{11}PCI_{t-1} + \Omega_{12}PERS_{t-1} + v_{1t} \quad (\text{Equation 5})$$

$$PERS_t = \Omega_{20} + \Omega_{21}PCI_{t-1} + \Omega_{22}PERS_{t-1} + v_{2t} \quad (\text{Equation 6})$$

where PCI is growth in economic development per capita; DEF is growth in defense spending per capita; and PERS is growth in armed forces personnel. A_{i0} is element i of the vector A_0 ; φ_{i0} and Ω_{i0} are the constant terms; φ_{ij} and Ω_{ij} are the elements in row i and column j of the matrix A_1 ; and ε_{it} and v_{it} are innovations for PCI, DEF, and PERS.

According to the VAR model represented in Equations 3 to 6, this study expects initial defense spending (and armed forces personnel) to negatively affect subsequent rates of economic development ($\varphi_{12}, \Omega_{12} < 0$). To render the innovations uncorrelated, the innovations are purged of any shared component before estimation of the parameters. Firstly, the impulse-response functions (IRF) are estimated to examine the effects of an innovation in a given variable on the endogenous variables that appear in the model. The response functions are equivalent to dynamic multipliers providing an estimate of the current and future response of a variable in the left-hand side of the equation to an innovation in one of the variables in the right-hand side of the system. Results are reported in Table 5.

Secondly, variance decomposition estimates are used to trace out the effects of innovations in all series. The decomposed variance estimates are indicative of the magnitude and the longevity of the variance in the system variables that can be attributed to an external shock. Results of variance decomposition and Granger-causality are reported in Table 6.

Empirical Analysis

The Augmented Dickey-Fuller test indicates the following results (see Table 3). From Panel A, at the 5 percent significance level, the null hypothesis of having a unit root in each level series cannot be rejected. This implies that each series is nonstationary or has a unit root. However, in Panel B the null hypothesis of each differenced series having a unit root is rejected. This means that each series is stationary after the first difference. Also, the Phillips-Perron (PP) unit root test, which accounts for a plausible structural change in the series that could occur due to the political changes in Lebanon during the early 1990s, shows similar results. This indicates that all level series contain a single unit root and that all series (PCI, DEF, and PERS) are integrated at the order 1, $I(1)$.

Table 3. Augmented Dickey-Fuller Unit Root Test

Series	Lag (p)	ADF (p)	PP (p)
Panel A: Level Series			
PCI	0	-2.08	0.58
DEF	5	-1.92	-2.70
PERS	2	-2.63	-1.29
Panel B: First Differenced Series			
DPCI	0	-5.17*	-21.08*
DDEF	0	-5.02*	-61.88*
DPERS	1	3.83*	-32.13*

N.B. PCI denotes growth in per capita income (i.e., economic development per capita); DEF denotes growth in defense spending per capita; PERS denotes growth in armed forces personnel. Variables beginning with D represent data after taking the first-difference. All variables are presented in log form. See details of unit root test in Enders (1995: pp 211-215).

*Indicates rejection of the null hypothesis of nonstationarity at less than 5% level of significance.

The co-integration results of DEF and PCI in Table 4 show the following. Firstly, the value of λ trace at $R = 0$ is 20.05, which exceeds the 95 percent critical value of the λ trace statistic. Hence, the null hypothesis of no-cointegrating vectors ($R = 0$) is rejected and the null hypothesis of $R = 1$ against the alternative of two or three co-integrating vectors ($R > 1$) is accepted. Since the λ trace statistic of $R = 1$ and $R > 1$ is 3.97, which is less than the 7.41 of the 95 percent critical level, the null hypothesis of $R = 1$ is not rejected. It may be concluded that there is a single co-integrating vector. Also, the λ max test reports that the null of $R = 1$ (against the alternative of $R = 2$) is not rejected. Thus, it is concluded that PCI and DEF co-move together in the long run. Similarly, PERS and PCI results show that the null hypothesis of $R = 1$ cannot be rejected. Therefore, this indicates that PERS and PCI series co-move together.

Table 4. Co-Integration Test Results

DEF and PCI				
Null Hypothesis Alternative Hypothesis Values			95% Critical Value	
<u>λ trace tests</u>			<u>λ trace value</u>	
$R = 0$		$R > 0$	20.05*	15.68
$R = 1$		$R > 1$	3.97	7.41
<u>λ max tests</u>			<u>λ max value</u>	
$R = 0$		$R = 1$	19.77*	12.18
$R = 1$		$R = 2$	3.82	7.41
PERS and PCI				
Null Hypothesis Alternative Hypothesis Values			95% Critical Value	
<u>λ trace tests</u>			<u>λ trace value</u>	
$R = 0$		$R > 0$	22.16*	15.68
$R = 1$		$R > 1$	4.35	7.41
<u>λ max tests</u>			<u>λ max tests</u>	
$R = 0$		$R = 1$	18.12*	12.18
$R = 1$		$R = 2$	4.21	7.41

N.B. All variables are tested on lag length of 2. Lag length is selected based on the results from Akaike's Information Criterion (AIC) and Schwartz Bayesian criterion (SBC). Lag length is selected based on forecasting performance. The lag that yields the best forecasting performance is the one that yields the lowest sum of square residuals. Although it is highly reasonable to use lags 3 to 12, the test results indicate that these lags did not have predicting power because they yielded high sum of squared residuals. See more details of lag length selection in Enders (1995: p 88). R denotes the rank of co-integration. $N=60$ observations.

*Indicates rejection of the null hypothesis of no co-integration at 5% level of significance.

If there exists a co-integrating vector between two series, there is causality among these variables in at least one direction. While there appears to be co-movement between each pair of series, to substantiate the results of the co-integration analysis and test further for any causality, a VAR test coupled with impulse-response functions, variance decompositions, and Granger-causality are employed. The impulse-response function for each variable that stem from innovations in its own lagged values against time is first examined. Casual observations demonstrate that the response from a shock to the endogenous variable is swift and tends to last for about three periods. Results indicate that all variables (PCI, DEF, and PERS) are exogenous.

VAR results support the hypotheses (see Table 5). Findings of Model 1 show that the impact of defense spending negatively and statistically predicts economic development at the 1% level of significance. Model 2 results indicate that the effect of armed forces personnel as a percentage of labor force negatively and significantly affects economic development. Both VAR models show a unidirectional impact from lagged defense spending and lagged armed personnel on the steady position of economic development. The implications of the estimated coefficients of both models are as follows: (1) a one percent increase in the armed forces personnel as a ratio of the labor force tends to hinder economic development per capita by 0.46 %; and (2) a one percent GNI devoted for defense spending tends to hamper economic development by 0.6 %.

Table 5. Vector Autoregression (VAR) Results

Model 1: PCI and DEF		
	Lag PCI	Lag DEF
PCI	0.726*** (0.102)	-0.613*** (0.089)
DEF	0.43 (0.312)	0.388** (0.15)
Model 2: PCI and PERS		
	Lag PCI	Lag PERS
PCI	0.741*** (0.148)	-0.465*** (0.11)
PERS	0.22 (0.18)	0.831** (0.365)

N.B. PCI, DEF, and PERS denote economic growth per capita, growth in defense spending per capita, and growth in armed personnel ratio, respectively.

Standard errors are reported in parentheses.

N=60 observations.

** indicates 5% level of significance.

*** indicates 1% level of significance.

The Variance Decompositions test in Table 6 shows that all series explain their own past values. PCI explains about 99% of its forecast error variance, while DEF and PERS explain 95 and 93% of their own forecast error variance, respectively. This variance decomposition test implies that past values of economic development, defense spending, and armed personnel also help predict their future values. Defense spending explains 4.59% of forecast error variance of PCI, while PCI explains only 0.12% of forecast error variance of defense spending. Similarly, armed forces personnel explain 5.36% of forecast error variance of PCI, while economic development explains a mere 0.09% of forecast error variance of PERS.

The Granger causality test (shown enclosed in parentheses in Table 6) confirms the results of VAR (Table 5), where growth in both defense spending and armed personnel Granger-cause economic development, separately. The Granger causality test indicates that the effects of DEF and PERS on PCI are highly and statistically significant at the 1% level of significance.

Also, in line with the VAR results, the Granger test indicates no significant impact from PCI on either DEF or PERS.

All the aforementioned econometric findings are substantiated and tell nearly the same story, which is that defense spending, whether measured by military expenditures or by the armed forces as a percentage of labor force, significantly hinders economic development in Lebanon. More importantly, the size of the diverted growth in human defense resources (more army recruits) occupies more than two-third of the total defense spending, leaving less than one-third for the physical component (e.g., equipment, materials, buildings, tanks, vehicles, etc.).

Table 6. Variance Decomposition and Granger-Causality Results

Model 1: PCI and DEF		
	Lag PCI	Lag DEF
PCI	99.83 (0.000)	4.59 (0.01)
DEF	0.12 (0.21)	95.31 (0.022)
Model 2: PCI and PERS		
	Lag PCI	Lag PERS
PCI	98.66 (0.000)	5.36 (0.01)
PERS	0.09 (0.28)	93.01 (0.03)

N.B. PCI, DEF, and PERS denote growth in per capita income, growth in defense spending per capita, and growth in the ratio of armed personnel to labor force, respectively.

Granger-causality results are reported in parentheses.

Conclusions and Policy Implications

This is the first empirical study that investigates the relationship between defense spending and economic development in Lebanon. The novelty of this study is that it assesses the size and direction of the human resource aspect of defense spending, as measured by the ratio of armed personnel to labor force. It adopts the modern co - integration and VAR techniques to estimate the long-term co-movement of the series, as well as their potential temporal causality.

Results show that total defense spending retards Lebanon's economic development significantly. The timeliness of this study occurs at a time when Lebanon faces serious public debt and budget deficit crises. Thus, it may help to shed light on an under-addressed, yet essential, component of government expenditures, i.e. defense spending. In turn, defense spending is one of the major avenues where spending cuts could be realized. However, the government has not yet addressed this critical issue sufficiently and adequately. For instance, defense spending as a percentage of total public expenditures dropped from 9.96 in 2001 to just 9.63 in 2002, a mere 0.33 percentage point (Lebanese Ministry of Finance, 2002).

Furthermore, results indicate that human resources diverted towards armed personnel hinder Lebanon's growth rate. For instance, most official attempts have focused on increasing public revenues through introducing a 10% value added tax (VAT), increasing different taxes (e.g., electricity, phone, gas, real estate), improving tax collections (unfortunately, only from certain regions of the country), and so on. What remains undone is a serious attempt to contain public expenditures, primarily public human resources. In addition to the burden of interest payments that devours most of the budget, the inflated public wage bill including armed personnel remains a major hindrance and practically untouchable.

The co-integration results of this study show that in the long - term, defense spending and armed personnel co-move inversely with economic development. VAR results show that every 1% of GNI devoted to defense spending robs Lebanon of about 0.62% of economic growth. Additional findings indicate that every 1% in armed personnel diverted from labor force costs Lebanon about 0.46% of economic development (or about US\$86 million annually in 1999 exchange rate).

Perhaps most interestingly, findings reveal that diverting human resources relative to total resources of physical and human, away from the private sector may be at least three times more distorting than diverting physical resources (e.g., land, building, and materials). This supports the main hypothesis and is consistent with the modern globalization view, which reverses the conventional view and prioritizes the dominance of human resources over physical ones. This implies that the inflating size of the armed personnel hampers growth much more than the other physical allocations.

Now that the civil war is over and the government has finished its aggressive human resource defense policy to contain former militia members, the government should abandon its expansionary defense policy. This recent policy increased the number of armed personnel by 54% in about 5 years to reach 58 thousand (or about 4% of the total labor force) coupled with inconsistent and unparalleled increases in benefits. The implication is that the Lebanese government should cut its military expenditures, mainly by decreasing or controlling the number of armed personnel, or even more feasibly by redirecting armed personnel's efforts towards productive social development projects.

The current over-capacity in army personnel could be trained and efficiently utilized for social development projects and other public services. For instance, many army personnel could plug in the current needs for public auditors (a serious need at the Ministry of Finance) and utility tax collectors. They could assist in building, repairing, maintaining and enhancing public infrastructures, such as the water supply pipes, new water canals, public parks, animal and environmental reservations.

Equally important for the survival of such proposal is a well communicated message that portrays such social contributions (especially in rural and deprived areas) conducted by the armed forces personnel (soldiers and officers) as being equally significant, noble, patriotic, and consistent with their initial defense/military duties. Working on such development projects may also be Pareto superior to Lebanon, through cutting public expenses, improving standards of living, narrowing income disparities, and perhaps promoting aggregate growth. This reallocation of human resources away from defense and towards development projects is an interesting topic for future research.

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The Determinants of GCC Intra-industry Trade in Agricultural Products

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The Determinants of GCC Intra-industry Trade in Agricultural Products

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Abstract

Similar economic structures and high per capita income levels in GCC countries are expected to promote economic integration in the region. However, despite the implementation of a unified economic agreement to promote free trade among member countries in 1981, the process of economic integration remains weak as reflected by intra-regional trade ratios. The objective of this paper is to assess the extent of GCC intra-regional trade and estimate the determinants of intra-industry trade in agricultural and food products. Results indicate that the Intra-Industry Trade (IIT) index is particularly high for the United Arab Emirates and Saudi Arabia indicating a potential for competition based on product differentiation and economies of scale for these two countries. Other countries like Oman and Qatar mostly trade in raw agricultural commodities with little scope for product differentiation. The econometric analysis shows that IIT is positively correlated with the frontier variable and the GDP of the country of destination but negatively correlated with relative income inequality.

مؤثرات التجارة البينية الصناعية للمواد الزراعية والغذائية في دول مجلس التعاون لدول الخليج العربية

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ملخص

يعتبر تشابه الهياكل الاقتصادية وارتفاع مستوى الدخل الفردي في دول مجلس التعاون لدول الخليج العربية من العوامل المساعدة على التكامل الاقتصادي في المنطقة. لكنه بالرغم من تطبيق الاتفاقية الاقتصادية الموحدة لتحرير التجارة بين الدول الأعضاء منذ عام 1981، إلا أن عملية التكامل الاقتصادي بين دول الخليج ظلت ضعيفة كما تنعكس في المعايير النسبية للتجارة البينية. تهدف هذه الدراسة إلى تقييم مدى وطبيعة مؤشر التجارة البينية بين دول الخليج وقياس العوامل المؤثرة في التجارة البينية الصناعية للمواد الزراعية والغذائية. تشير النتائج إلى أن مؤشر التجارة البينية مرتفع بالنسبة لدولة الإمارات العربية والمملكة العربية السعودية، باعتبار أن هاتين الدولتين لهما القدرة على المنافسة على أساس التمييز السعوي والإنتاج على مدى واسع، على عكس بعض البلدان الأخرى مثل عمان وقطر، اللتين تقتصر تجارتهما على المواد الخام الزراعية دون التركيز على عنصر التمييز السعوي. يشير التحليل القياسي إلى أن مؤشر التجارة البينية الصناعية مرتبط إيجابياً مع عامل الحدود وعامل الدخل القومي للدولة الموردة لكنه مرتبط سلباً مع عامل التفاوت النسبي للدخل.

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Introduction

The Gulf Cooperation Council (GCC)⁽¹⁾ is considered to be the most mature and organized body among the various regional trade blocks in the Arab world (Taher, 1998; Al-Faqi, 1997). The GCC countries share demographic and economic similarities that have the potential to facilitate economic integration and promote economic growth. They have a common language, culture and religion (neighborhood characteristics) but also have similar economic structures and per capita income levels. However, despite the implementation of the Unified Economic Agreement (UEA) to promote free trade among member countries in 1981, the process of economic integration remains weak as reflected by intra-regional trade ratios. For example, in 1988, intra-GCC exports comprised only 5.5% of GCC global exports⁽²⁾. This is rather small compared to other regional trade blocks such as the Andean Pact Countries where intra-trade is 50% higher than intra-trade of all Arab countries (Al-Atrash and Youssef, 2000).

The major goal of the Unified Economic Agreement(UEA) of the GCC was the unification of economic and financial policies as well as the establishment of a common legislation in the areas of commerce, industry and customs (GCC, 1999). In other words the ultimate aim of the GCC was the formation of an economic union. A recent review of the GCC achievement indicated that significant progress was made in terms of tariff and non tariff elimination and harmonization of trade laws and the region was operating as an effective free trade area. During the 2002 GCC Summit, member countries announced the establishment of a Custom Union to be effective on January 2002, with an external common tariff on imports from non-members countries set at 5% (Al-Ghorfa, 2002). The Summit also announced the year 2007 as the deadline for setting up the Common Market and totally liberalizing investment by removing the remaining economic activities from the list of activities restricted to the citizens of a particular countries (Al-Ghorfa, 2002).

Free trade in agricultural and food products was particularly emphasized in the UEA as a way to promote growth and development of non-oil producing sectors. The agricultural sector represents a small portion of the Gross Domestic Products (GDP) in all GCC countries but constitutes an important source of income for a large portion of the population and plays a major role in enhancing food security in the region. Despite the remarkable growth of agricultural production recorded in the region during the last two decades, little intra-regional trade is conducted between member states compared to trade with the rest of the world (Al-Belushi, 2001). This lack of integration between GCC countries reduces the ability of the GCC countries to compete in a more open and integrated world environment as witnessed by the World Trade Organization trading system and the emergence of new trading blocks worldwide.

The objective of this paper is to analyze the trade structure of GCC countries in agricultural products and use the intra-industry trade index (ITT) for the GCC as an indicator of economic integration to shed light on the determinants of ITT in the region.

⁽¹⁾ The GCC countries include Saudi Arabia, Kuwait, Qatar, Bahrain, United Arab Emirates (UAE) and Oman. The Council was founded in 1980 and a free trade agreement was implemented three years later, under the Unified Economic Agreement (UEA).

⁽²⁾ This includes trade in oil which exaggerates the level of trade with the rest of the world, as GCC countries are oil exporting countries

Agricultural Production and Trade in the GCC Region

The scarcity of agricultural resources, notably land and water, constitutes the main constraint for agricultural growth in the GCC region. Table 1 shows land availability for agriculture in GCC member countries. The total arable land of the GCC region amounts only to 4.1 million ha (1.61% of total area) of which 91% is held by Saudi Arabia. Because of limited rainfall, agriculture depends quite heavily on irrigation, as shown by the ratio of irrigated to cultivated land (43%). Water availability is estimated at less than 500 cubic meters per year compared to a world average of more than 5000 cubic meters (Esslimi, 2000).

Table 1. Land Use in GCC Countries, 2000

	Total area (1000 ha)	Arable land and per- manent crops(1000ha)	%of arable to total land	Irrigated land (1000ha)	%of irrigated to arable land
Bahrain	71	6	8.45	4	66.67
Kuwait	1782	10	0.56	7	70.00
Oman	30950	80	0.26	62	77.50
Qatar	1100	21	1.91	13	61.90
Saudi Arabia	214969	3785	1.76	1620	42.80
UAE	8360	247	2.95	76	30.77
Total GCC	257232	4149	1.61	1782	42.95

Source: FAOSTAT, 2002

Despite the harsh environment, the region is able to produce a variety of agricultural products. The composition of agricultural production for the year 2001 is shown in Table 2. The GCC region produces 2.2 million tons of cereals, 3.3 million of vegetables, 1.1 million of milk, 0.5 million of poultry meat, 0.2 million tons of eggs, 0.3 million tons of red meat, and 1.9 million tons of fruits. Saudi Arabia is the major producer of all commodities: cereals (99%), vegetables (54%), milk (74%), poultry (83%), eggs (73%), meat (53%), and fruit (61%). The next major producers are UAE in fruits (19.5%), vegetables (33%), and meat (20%); Kuwait in poultry (8%) and eggs (12%) and Oman in milk(12%)

Table 2. Agricultural Production in GCC Countries(Metric Tons), 2001

	Cereals	Vegetables	Milk	Poultry	Eggs	Red Meat	Fruit
Bahrain	0	10369	14390	5700	3000	8095	21518
Kuwait	3513	150678	44540	42182	22500	38293	11570
Oman	5450	193000	122920	4400	7000	24420	318100
Qatar	5810	55475	36200	4200	3600	9764	18390
Saudi Arabia	2214000	1821000	830800	419000	136357	160000	1191500
UAE	380	1128739	75529	29934	13317	58618	377652
Total GCC	2229153	3359261	1124379	505416	185774	299190	1938730

Source: FAOSTAT, 2002.

Due to significant investment in agriculture during the last 2 decades, some countries in the region have reached high levels of self-sufficiency in many commodities (Table A.1, Appendix), particularly UAE in milk (97%), Saudi Arabia in eggs (100%) and Oman in fruits (95%).

The GCC region has long been a heavy net food importer. Food trade deficits are indicated by the amount by which imports of food exceed exports. Table 3 shows that food trade deficit (negative figure) for the region has reached US\$7.98 billion in 1999, compared to US\$ 5.71 billion in 1990, i.e. an increase of almost 40%. Oman had experienced the highest trade deficit growth (152%) during the 1990s, followed by Kuwait (136%) and UAE (86%). The significant increase in trade deficit is the result of a growth in demand much faster than the growth in domestic production. Population growth and high incomes explain much of the demand changes.

Table 3. Agricultural Trade Deficits of GCC Countries, 1990 - 1999, (US\$1000)

Country	1990	1999	Change(%)
Bahrain	-231430	-269286	16.36
Kuwait	-517032	-1221523	136.3
Qatar	-282692	-251115	-11.17
Saudi Arabia	-3667481	-4222646	15.14
Oman	-211204	-532611	152.2
UAE	-802315	-1491328	85.88
Total GCC	-5712154	-7988509	39.85

Source:FAOSTAT, 2002

Agricultural imports in the region amount to US\$9.1 billion, representing approximately 10% of total imports (Table A.2, Appendix). The share of imports is highest for Saudi Arabia (16.5%), Kuwait (12%) and Oman (11%). Agricultural imports (Table A.3) are dominated by cereals (25.75%), followed by fruits and vegetables (14.13%), dairy and eggs (11.46%), and meat (9.79). Major importers in the region are Saudi Arabia (58%), UAE (22%) and Kuwait (10%).

Agricultural exports, however, represent a small proportion of total exports of the region (0.92%). Exports are dominated by fruits and vegetables (15.96%), dairy and eggs (11.23%), sugar (10.41%) and cereals (9.39%). The bulk of GCC exports originates from UAE (42.7%), Saudi Arabia (41.4%) and Oman (10.8%).

GCC Intra-regional trade

It is instructive to present the GCC intra-trade within the context of the Arab region and other regional groupings. Intra-GCC trade still represents a small proportion of total GCC trade. In 1998, exports by GCC countries to GCC countries amounted to US\$5.3 billion representing 5% of GCC exports to the world (Table 4)⁽³⁾. This compares unfavorably with other regional trade blocks, such as Andean Pact Countries, East Asia Economies, NAFTA and EU where intra-regional exports as a proportion of total exports are 11.4%, 22.2%, 51% and 56% respectively (Al-Atrash And Yousef, 1998). Trade within these regional groupings has increased significantly over time while intra-GCC trade has grown slowly.

Within the Arab region, the GCC intra-trade proportion is however, higher than that of the Maghreb region (3.1%) but lower than that of both the Mashreq (8.6%) and the whole Arab region (8.4%). It is to be noted that 57% of the Arab intra-regional exports

⁽³⁾ This share would improve significantly if trade in oil is excluded.

go to GCC countries, whereas 22% go to the Mashreq countries and 7% to the Maghreb countries. These differences are attributed to the higher per capita incomes of the GCC countries.

Al-Atrach and Yousef (2000) cited several factors that hinder intra-Arab trade in general, some of which apply to GCC countries. In particular, the lack of product complementarity and the similarity of production structures, due to similar resource endowments (e.g. oil) argues against intra-GCC trade since the comparative advantage of these countries is broadly in the same products. They also cite the difference in per capita income in the Arab region as a factor constraining intra-Arab trade, as richer countries prefer importing high quality products, most likely produced by industrial countries. However, this argument may not fit well for GCC countries where per capita incomes are high and comparable. In theory, high income levels argue for intra-trade on the basis of product differentiation (intra-industry trade) .

It is also interesting to note that the proportion of intra-trade within the Arab sub-groupings is significantly much higher than the overall intra-Arab trade. In particular, 70% of GCC exports to the Arab countries is to other GCC countries. This could partially lend support to the argument that neighborhood characteristics are important in the formation and success of regional trading blocks.

A closer look into the composition of GCC trade shows that agricultural products made up approximately 7.9% of total intra-GCC exports (Table 5). This proportion varies from a low of 0.73% in Bahrain to a high of 28.79% in Oman. The high agricultural proportion in Oman's exports to GCC suggests that Oman may hold a comparative advantage in agricultural production within the region.

Table 4: Indicators of Intra-Arab Trade, 1998

	Exports by				
	GCC Countries	Maghreb Countries	Mashreq Countries	Other Countries	All Arab Countries
Exports to:	(Billions US\$)				
GCC	5.3	0.1	1.2	0.2	6.8
Maghreb	0.6	1	0.4	0	2
Mashreq	1.2	0.5	1.2	0	2.6
Other	0.4	0	0	0.1	0.6
All Arab Countries	7.5	1.6	2.6	0.3	12
	% of Exports to World				
GCC	5.5	0.4	10.2	7.5	4.6
Maghreb	0.6	3.1	3.3	0	1.4
Mashreq	1.2	1.4	8.6	0.1	1.8
Other	0.4	0	0.6	4.9	0.4
All Arab Countries	7.7	4.9	22.7	12.5	8.2
	% of exports to Arab Countries				
GCC	70.7	6.3	46.2	66.7	56.7
Maghreb	8.0	62.5	15.4	0.0	16.7
Mashreq	16.0	31.3	46.2	0.0	21.7
Other	5.3	0.0	0.0	33.3	5.0
All Arab Countries	100.0	100.0	100.0	100.0	100.0

Source: Al-Atrach and Yousef, 2000

Intra-GCC agricultural exports make up a significant proportion (around 70%) of GCC agricultural exports to the world. This concentration of GCC agricultural exports within the region can be explained, among other things, by the lower transport cost among neighboring countries, but also by the lower trade impediment within the region. However, intra-regional agricultural imports remain small relative to the region's world imports of food (5.6%). This is because the GCC potential to supply the products imported from the rest of the world is quite limited, given the small size and the low competitiveness of its production base

Table 5. Intra-GCC Exports in Agricultural and Animal Products (US\$ billion), 1998

	Exports by						
	BA	KU	QA	OM	SA	UAE	GCC
Exports to:							
Bahrain		0.20	0.09	0.80	56.00	4.25	61.34
Kuwait	0.27		0.57	0.14	126.76	8.26	136.00
Qatar	0.27	0.07		1.33	51.20	2.48	55.35
Oman	0.27	0.02	0.02		21.87	12.53	34.71
Saudi Arabia	3.19	2.50	11.62	13.40		15.17	45.88
UAE	1.60	0.01	1.32	39.92	119.50		162.35
GCC	5.60	2.80	13.62	55.59	375.33	42.69	495.63
%of total exports	0.73	1.84	4.74	28.79	8.19	13.33	7.87

Source: GCC Secretariat, 2000

Intra-Industry Trade in GCC Countries

The concept of IIT developed from the observation that a significant proportion of trade between market economies is a two-way exchange of products within the same product category (Grubel and Lloyd, 1975). This trade, called Intra-industry, describes trade in similar but slightly differentiated products based on imperfect competition and economies of scale. This contrasts with the one-way trade predicted by the classical trade theory and based on differing resource endowments and factor intensities in a perfectly competitive markets. In the latter theory, trade occurs in complementary goods produced with differing levels of factor intensities.

A distinction has been made in the literature between horizontal and vertical IIT on the basis of different set of theories (Falvey 1981, Falvey and Kierszkowski 1989). Horizontal IIT is for products that are of different characteristics, based on models that relax the assumptions of the Hecksher-Ohlin model and assume a market structure that is monopolistically competitive (Helpman and Krugman, 1985). Vertical IIT is for products of different qualities and is linked to the capital-labor ratio, which is assumed to be the basis that leads to specialization in products with different qualities.

Although the IIT was first applied to the manufacturing sectors, the extent of product differentiation in agricultural and food products prompted the use of this index to analyze the two-way trade in the food sector. For example, Hartman et al. analyzed the determinants of variation across industries in the level of IIT for the food and beverage industries. Their results indicate that variation of IIT across the food and beverage industries is positively related to product differentiation, economies of scope, and

similarity of trade barriers among trading partners but negatively related to industry concentration (Hartman et al. 1993). More recently, Sun and Koo evaluated the IIT of US food industry by analyzing its horizontal and vertical components. They use a technique of unit value deviation to separate between the two components and where quality differences are reflected in the difference between import and export unit values. The results of their study indicate that most of IIT in the US food industries is vertical in nature and industries characteristics show more significant effects than country characteristics in explaining the variation in the vertical and horizontal IIT index (Sun and Koo, 2002).

In this paper, the aggregate “agricultural products” includes both primary agricultural commodities and processed food. At this high level of aggregation, some two-way trade will be expected, the extent of which will depend on the degree of product differentiation and the degree of processing of farm products. The agricultural and food sector in GCC countries have undergone important changes in terms of volume and value of the production due to investment in high value farm products and re-export food processing activities. This has increased the supply of various varieties of farm commodities and differentiated food products which are regionally traded to meet changing consumer taste and preferences.

More generally, the theoretical literature on IIT predicts that the extent of IIT would be larger with higher and more similar income levels of the trading partners. The reason for this is that as income increases, demand for variety and differentiated products increases (Hellvin, 1996). Furthermore, the more similar per capita income is, the more similar the demand structure and the larger the demand for varieties of a product in the partner country will be (Hellvin, 1996). In other words, intra-industry trade may be explained on the demand side by focusing on product differentiation.

The implication is that IIT will be higher in more developed countries than in developing countries, given the more specialized structure of the developed economies. The process of economic integration and trade liberalization have allowed firms in industrialized countries to take advantage of scale economies in the production process, which permit higher levels of IIT. Furthermore, Havrylyshyn and Kusnel (1997), in discussing intra-industry issues in the Arab region, argue that higher levels of IIT reflect a greater ability to compete internationally in a changing trade environment. Therefore countries that show an increasing trend of IIT are better prepared for trade liberalization and more likely to succeed in adapting to the new multi-lateral or regional trading systems.

The Index that is often used to measure IIT is given as follows (Grubel and Llyod, 1975):

$$IIT_{jk} = 1 - \left[\frac{|X_{jk} - M_{jk}|}{X_{jk} + M_{jk}} \right]$$

where X_{jk} and M_{jk} are country j exports and imports with country k for a given commodity. The IIT has a maximum value of 1 when all trade is intra-industry and a minimum of zero

when all trade is inter-industry⁽⁴⁾. Inter-industry reflects trade that occurs along comparative advantage, whereas intra-industry reflects trade based on economy of scale and product differentiation. The latter trade is most often observed in countries and regions with high levels of economic integration.

The Grubel-Lloyd IIT index is used to compute the extent of intra-industry for agricultural products within the GCC countries (Table 6) for two periods (1984-1990) and (1991-1997). This partition reflects decisions that set the stage for more trade liberalization between GCC countries. Further trade liberalization is expected to increase the IIT level.

The level of IIT in agricultural and food products during the study period may be classified into three categories: high (over 50% of total agricultural products trade is of IIT); medium level of IIT (25% to 50%); and low level of IIT (<25%). The UAE has, on the average, the highest level of IIT within the GCC region with 82%, followed by Saudi Arabia (72%) and Bahrain (55%). The high level of IIT in these countries is due to their relatively more developed agricultural and food processing activities, which allow them to trade in differentiated products. Three countries, i.e. Oman, Qatar, and Kuwait have a low IIT index (<25%), indicating that the nature of their trade is mostly inter-industry trade.

The share of IIT has slightly increased for some GCC countries and declined for other GCC countries over the two periods (the 1980s and the 1990s) lending little support to the argument that more trade liberalization is associated with more IIT.

Table 6. Intra-Industry Trade Index for GCC Trade in Agricultural and Food Products, 1984-1990 and 1991-1997

Year	UAE	SA	KU	OM	QA	BA
1984	0.81	0.65	0.89	0.43	0.78	0.73
1985	1.00	0.87	0.18	0.34	0.26	0.59
1986	0.75	0.78	0.12	0.12	0.21	0.26
1987	0.59	0.64	0.07	0.07	0.18	0.44
1988	0.69	0.70	0.08	0.07	0.18	0.36
1989	0.57	0.60	0.07	0.02	0.04	0.42
1990	0.70	0.64	0.08	0.07	0.04	0.26
AV(84-90)	0.73	0.70	0.21	0.16	0.24	0.44
1991	0.83	0.44	0.01	0.05	0.18	0.99
1992	0.75	0.53	0.02	0.06	0.39	0.41
1993	0.47	0.57	0.02	0.06	0.35	0.46
1994	0.90	0.66	0.06	0.21	0.47	0.54
1995	0.91	0.70	0.03	0.07	0.22	0.83
1996	0.82	0.83	0.06	0.14	0.13	0.15
1997	0.99	0.73	0.08	0.15	0.10	0.89
AV(91-97)	0.81	0.64	0.04	0.11	0.26	0.61
AV(84-97)	0.82	0.72	0.14	0.14	0.27	0.55

Source: Computed from GCC Secretariat Trade data, 2000

⁽⁴⁾ The IIT value will depend on the level of product aggregation. For highly aggregated products, the IIT level will be high (much trade is IIT) and vice-versa. Because of the lack of data in the GCC trade data base, this study used a SITC1 digit data disaggregation level.

Econometric analysis of intra-industry trade in GCC countries

To estimate the determinants of intra-industry trade, an econometric model is used (logistic specification) in which the dependent variable is the IIT index. This specification avoids the problem of having a predicted value that may fall outside the range of the IIT which is between zero and one. The logistic function (Griffith et al., 1993) takes the following form:

$$IIT_{ij} = \frac{1}{1 + \exp^{-X_{ij}'\beta}} + e_{ij}$$

where X is a vector of explanatory variables, β is the coefficient vector, and e is the disturbance term.

The independent variables included to explain the IIT variations are drawn from the theoretical and empirical literature (Balassa and Bauwens, 1988; Frahan and Tharakan, 1999). The retained variables and their expected effects on IIT are as shown below:

$$IIT_{ij}^k = F(\text{GDP}_i, \text{GDP}_j, \text{DPCI}, \text{IGDP}, \text{BORD}, \text{DIST})$$

+ + - - + -

Where IIT_{ij} is bilateral intra-industry index between country i and country j in industry k ; GDP_i is the gross domestic product in country i ; GDP_j is the gross domestic product in country j ; DPCI is the relative difference of per capita income between each pair of countries; IGDP is the relative inequality of market size between countries⁽⁵⁾; DIST is the geographical distance between the capital cities of two trading countries; and BORD is a dummy variable to capture special bilateral trade relations as well as characteristics specific to particular countries.

Time-series data for 1984-1997 period are used to estimate the model specified above. The data are gathered from various issues of the Statistical Bulletin of the General Secretariat of the GCC. Most trade data arise as an export from a country and an import by another, although the figures are not usually equal due to FOB/CIF factors, timing and reporting differences.

Results of the Logit procedure in TSP are presented in Table 7. They underscore the importance of country-specific variable in explaining IIT. Almost all variables have the expected sign predicted by trade theory and are statistically significant with exception of the distance variable used as a proxy for transportation cost.

⁽⁵⁾Balassa and Bauwens (1988) defined a relative inequality measure as follows:

$INEQ = 1 + \{w \cdot \log w + (1-w) \log (1-w)\} / \ln 2$ where: $w = \text{GDP}_i / (\text{GDP}_i + \text{GDP}_j)$. This is the inequality measure used by the authors in the empirical analysis.

As expected, the extent of IIT is positively correlated with the two country market size (GDP_i and GDP_j)⁽⁶⁾. The results support the hypothesis that the greater the market size of the two trading countries, the higher is the number of differentiated goods produced and traded, reflecting higher IIT share.

Table 7. Estimation Results of the Econometric Model

Independent variables	Expected sign	Parameters estimation	t-statistics
Constant		-5.39964	-2.68615**
GDP _i	Positive	0.649778E-05	0.441731
GDP _j	Positive	0.576867E-04	2.75485**
IGDP	Negative	-12.4485	-2.30359**
Bord	Positive	5.19739	1.81012*
DPCI	Negative	-0.417881E-03	-2.30685**
Dist	Negative	0.340043E-02	1.64958*
OBS=210			
$R^2=0.105$			

* Significant at 5% level

** Significant at 10% level

The per capita income difference variable (DPCI) is significant and negatively correlated with the IIT index. The smaller the relative difference in per capita income between two countries, the higher is the level of bilateral IIT. DPCI is a proxy variable indicating the degree of similarities in demand and consumer taste structure between two countries. Similarities in demand structure would create markets for differentiated products, thereby increasing IIT (Frahan and Tharakan, 1999).

Market size dissimilarity (IGDP) is correlated negatively with bilateral share of IIT and is highly significant. This means that the less dissimilar, i.e. the more similar, the countries in terms of market size, the higher the trade flow in differentiated goods between the pairs of countries.

Both the sign and significance of the dummy variable (BORD) confirm that intra-industry is more intense between neighboring countries than between non-neighboring countries as would be expected, because of lower transactions costs and greater taste similarities between neighboring countries.

Finally, the goodness of fit of the model is relatively low ($R^2 = 0.105$), but is in conformity with most food IIT studies that are based on cross sectional data.

⁽⁶⁾ As reported by Havrylyshyn and Kunzed, the effect of the size of the economy or GDP is somewhat unclear from a theoretical point of view. Scale effect would likely increase the IIT but smaller countries at closer proximity would also likely do more IIT than larger ones as trade between them may be viewed as a continuation of internal trade.

Conclusion

The objective of this paper is to review the pattern of intra-regional trade in agricultural products and estimate an econometric model to explain agricultural IIT in the region. Free trade in agricultural and food products is particularly emphasized in the GCC's Unified Economic Agreement, as a way to promote growth and development of non-oil producing sectors.

Intra-trade among GCC countries as a proportion of their total trade is still very low (5%) compared to other regional trade arrangements. This reflects the huge predominance of oil in GCC trade with the rest of the world. However, excluding oil, intra-regional trade represents a respectable proportion of total trade (19%) which compares favorably to some other regional groupings such as MERCOSUR and the ASEAN (Dervis et al. 1998).

Despite the remarkable growth of agricultural production during the last two decades, GCC countries are still heavy net importers of food. Agricultural trade deficit has increased significantly during the last decade to reach approximately US\$8 billion in 1999, i.e., 40% increase compared to 1990. Intra-trade in agricultural products can have the potential to promote efficiency in the sector, hence reducing the deficit, and provide the basis to develop international competitiveness in the non-oil sector.

The UEA was relatively successful in terms of promoting GCC intra-exports in agricultural products. Unlike aggregate intra-regional exports, agricultural intra-regional exports make up a significant proportion of global GCC exports (77%). However, in terms of imports, intra-trade still constitutes a small proportion of total regional imports. The region imports the bulk of its food from the rest of the world as the potential of GCC agriculture to provide consumption need of its population is still limited.

The IIT of the intra-regional trade is particularly important since it reflects the degree of specialization in a particular activity and the ability of a country to compete in differentiated products. Higher levels of IIT reflects better preparedness for trade liberalization and adaptation to the new multi-lateral or regional trading systems. The IIT index is particularly high for UAE, Saudi Arabia and to a lesser extent Bahrain, indicating that these countries are relatively more specialized in processed food products where the potential for competition based on product differentiation is greater. Oman, Kuwait and Qatar are mostly trade raw commodities with little scope for product differentiation.

The econometric analysis of intra-industry trade shows that border variable is positively correlated with the level of IIT indicating a concentration of IIT between countries sharing a common border. The extent of IIT is also positively correlated with market size of two countries, while it is negatively related to the per capita income differences between two countries. The larger income differences between countries, the more dissimilar is their demand structure leading to a lower intra-industry trade.

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Statistical Appendix

Table A.1. Self-sufficiency Ratios of GCC countries (%),1995

	Grains	Vegetables	Fruits	Red Meat	Poultry Meat	Eggs	Dairy
Bahrain		17	6	5	24	52	71
Kuwait		39.1		7.3	31.7	52.1	20.5
Oman	18.4	50.8	94.6	34.3	16	44.4	54
Qatar	7.8	38.7	34	20.1	19.5	53.8	65.6
Saudi Arabia	50	83	66	48	67	100	65.6
UAE	0.5	56	38	23	21	43	97

Source: Esslimi, 2000

Table A.2. Total Merchandize and Agricultural Trade in GCC Countries, 2000

	IMPORTS(Million\$)			EXPORTS (Million\$)		
	Total	Agriculture	Share%	Total	Agriculture	Share%
Bahrain	4612	142	3.07	5701	13	0.23
Kuwait	7621	908	11.91	19542	37	0.19
Oman	5040	563	11.16	5507	217	3.94
Qatar	3005	212	7.04	9378	91	0.97
Saudi Arabia	32000	5275	16.48	55000	474	0.86
UAE	44000	2007	4.56	61600	611	0.99
Total GCC	91670	9106	9.93	156729	1443	0.92

Source: FAOSTAT, 2002

Table A.3. Imports by Commodities in GCC Countries (US\$1000), 2000

	Live Animals	Cereals and preparation	Dairy and Eggs	Fruits and Vegetables	Meat and preperation	Sugar and Honey	Vegetable Oil
Ba	29	18761	20786	34168	16457	4339	3500
Ku	74025	116875	87807	123178	86203	28920	26554
Om	62045	94197	129213	44157	48298	6010	81686
Qa	13145	45544	40469	38681	29456	3216	2974
SA	250827	1577503	587698	689691	564296	158515	216429
UAE	197325	492240	177280	357143	146617	191932	65290
Total GCC	597396	2345120	1043253	1287018	891327	392932	396433
% of Ag	6.56	25.75	11.46	14.13	9.79	4.32	4.35

Source : Computed from FAOSTAT, 2002

Table A.4. Exports by Commodities in GCC Countries (US\$1000), 2000

	Live Animals	Cereals and preparation	Dairy and Eggs	Fruits and Vegetables	Meat and preparation	Sugar and Honey	Vegetab Oil
Ba	40	3845	331	2317	888	206	58
Ku	346	10340	4962	8014	1773	1109	2289
Oman	42431	14313	7628	19350	4438	593	5829
Qa	1844	732	161	668	3532	199	43
S A	6424	38655	137655	105638	40320	11004	21831
UAE	7969	67632	11359	94368	2920	137093	51500
Total GCC	59054	135517	162096	230355	53871	150204	81550
%	4.09	9.39	11.23	15.96	3.73	10.41	5.65

Source: Computed from FAOSTAT, 2002