Land Security and Mobility Frictions

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Big Picture

- Economic development is accompanied by a process of structural change and rural-urban migration
- > Yet, in less developed countries this process has been slow.
- Despite the large gap in labor productivity and wages between agriculture and non-agriculture
 - ...even after accounting for human capital and other measurement differences (Gollin, Lagakos, and Waugh 2013)
- Why aren't more people moving out of agriculture and into cities in less developed countries?

Motivation

- Literature views labor mobility barriers as key constraint on rural-urban migration
- Instead, we focus on insecure land tenure as an implicit migration cost:
 - renting land out: costly with potential risk of losing land
 - having family members continue farming helps "secure" their landholdings
- Our research objective:
 - quantify migration cost arising from insecure land tenure versus "residual"

What We Do

- ► Focus on China: migration restrictions & insecure property rights
- Access to rich household and individual-level panel data from China (2004-2018)
- Build an equilibrium quantitative framework with *frictional sorting* of workers/households across occupations and locations
 - Individual occupational choice as in Roy '51
 - \blacktriangleright Nests family decision whether to farm and choice of farm operator \rightarrow selection within the household
 - Insecure family land rights
 - Idiosyncratic barriers to labor mobility
- Disentangle the role of land security and labor mobility barriers and their evolution over time
- Quantify their impact on agricultural productivity and structural change

What We Find

- Mobility cost associated with land insecurity is substantial
 - in magnitude similar to all other labor mobility barriers
- With land security, more than half of incumbent farms stop farming and agricultural labor productivity increases by about 18 percent
- Over time overall mobility cost decreases
 - Mostly accounted by increase in land security
 - Other labor mobility barriers barely change

Related Literature

Structural transformation and agriculture

- Gollin-Parente-Rogerson '02 '05 '07, Restuccia-Yang-Zhu '08, Adamopoulos-Restuccia '14, Chen '17, Gottlieb-Grobovsek '19, Adamopoulos et al '21
- Structural transformation and migration
 - Gollin-Lagakos-Waugh '14, Bryan-Morten '19, Lagakos et al '20, Schoellman '20, Hamory et al '21
 - Land security and migration: de Janvry et al '15, Giles-Mu '17, Ngai-Pissarides-Wang '19
- Growth and development in China
 - Brandt-Zhu '10, Song et al '11, Brandt-Tombe-Zhu '13, Chari et al 20'

Institutional Environment in China

- Land rights:
 - Use rights over farmland on an egalitarian basis
 - Reallocations within villages were common
 - Limited rentals due to perceived "use it or lose it" practices
 - Land tenancy reforms in recent years
- Migration restrictions:
 - Household registration system (hukou)
 - Individuals assigned agricultural or non-agricultural hukou
 - Easing of restrictions over time, especially for smaller cities
 - Harder to obtain hukou to larger coastal cities; limited access to education; rising housing prices

Stylized Facts on China's Structural Transformation

Table: Employment in Agriculture

Variable	2004	2009	2014	2018
Nationwide agricultural employment share (%) Share of all households living in rural area (%) Share of labor days in agriculture among rural households (%)	39.1 68.7 56.9	28.4 56.3 50.4	19.8 45.6 43.2	15.5 41.6 37.8
Share of individuals in rural areas involved in agriculture (%) Share of farm operators (%) Share of full-time workers (%) Share of part-time workers (%) full-time non-agriculture (%)	70.3 27.5 21.5 21.2 29.7	62.8 23.8 20.3 18.7 37.2	56.2 19.6 18.8 17.8 43.8	48.4 16.5 18.2 13.7 51.6

Stylized Facts on China's Structural Transformation

Table: Average Farm Size and Land Rentals

Variable	2004	2009	2014	2018
Average farm size (ha)	0.59	0.62	0.73	0.87
Share of households renting-in land (%)	8.4	8.5	14.8	17.3
Share of land rented-in (%)	6.8	9.7	20.8	30.0

Stylized Facts on China's Structural Transformation

Table: Structural Transformation before 2004

Variable	1995	2002
Nationwide agricultural employment share (%)	48.0	42.2
Share of households living in rural area (%)	75.4	72.6
Share of labor days in agriculture among rural households (%)	63.6	58.2
Share of individuals in rural areas involved in agriculture (%)	73.6	67.5
Share of full-time workers (%)	53.6	48.8
Share of part-time workers (%)	19.9	18.8
Average farm size (ha)	0.57	0.59

Introduction

Model

Estimation

Quantitative Analysis

Adamopoulos et al (2023)

- ▶ General equilibrium model of occupational, spatial, and sectoral selection.
- Individual heterogeneity with respect to ability and idiosyncratic distortions.
- Key novelties:
 - 1. Families choose which member operates the farm (if any)
 - 2. Insecure land rights perceived by families

Environment

- Two goods (agriculture and non-agriculture, numeraire) in two sectors
- Spatially the economy consists of the rural (villages) and urban areas:
 - villages \rightarrow agriculture (a)
 - urban \rightarrow non-agriculture (*n*)
- Urban households work in the non-agricultural sector (passive)
- Village families consist of heterogenous individuals that make occupational and locational choices (focus of model):
 - operate a farm in the village
 - work in agriculture in the village
 - migrate and work in non-agriculture in the urban area

Preferences

Non-homothetic preferences over the agricultural and non-agricultural good

$$u(c_a, c_n) = \phi \log(c_a - \bar{a}) + (1 - \phi) \log(c_n)$$

Generates structural transformation from agriculture to non-agriculture

The Non-Agricultural Sector

A representative firm in non-agriculture produces by

$$Y_n = A_n H_n$$

Hires labor input from

urban families

some rural family members who work in urban non-agricultural sector

Village Families

- Village families indexed by i
- Each family has J individual members, indexed by j = 1, ..., J
- ▶ Family-level perceived chance of reallocation/expropriation: η
- lndividual-level labor mobility frictions to working in non-agriculture ξ_{ij}
- > Individual-level farm distortions τ_{ij} : residual misallocation across farmers

Village Families

- Each family member is endowed with:
 - a farm operating ability s_{ij}
 - a non-agricultural earning ability h_{ij}

This individual can choose from following occupations:

- full-time operator of family farm: $\pi_{ij}(s_{ij}, \tau_{ij})$
- full-time agriculture worker: $i_{ij}^{FA} = w$
- full-time non-agricultural worker: $i_{ij}^{FN} = w_n h_{ij} (1 \xi_{ij})$
- part-time worker:

$$\sum_{ij}^{PT} = \underbrace{h_{ij}w_{ij}^{n}(1-\xi_{ij})(1-c-n_{ij})}_{\text{Non-Agr Income}} + \underbrace{wn_{ij}^{\nu}}_{\text{Agr Income}}$$

Agricultural Production

- Heterogeneous farms operated by village families
- Family farm's productivity determined by operator's ability s_{ij}
- A farm produces according to a DRS technology

$$y_{ij} = A s_{ij} \left(\ell^{ heta}_{ij} n^{1- heta}_{ij}
ight)^{\gamma}$$

Family and hired labor are perfect substitutes

Land Rights

- Each family is allocated use rights over land $\overline{\ell}$ (egalitarian allocation)
- A farmer can adjust the size of their farm operation by renting-in $(\ell_{ii}^{rent} > 0)$ or renting-out $(\ell_{ii}^{rent} < 0)$ land
- \blacktriangleright After agricultural production, a land reallocation/expropriation may occur with probability η
 - Rent-out: punishment $\varphi_i \ell_{ii}^{\text{rent}}$ (loss of rented out land)
 - Land confiscated rebated to all rural households
- Profits $\pi(s_{ij}, \tau_{ij})$ given by

$$\max_{n_{ij},\ell_{ij}^{\text{rent}}} \left\{ \tau_{ij} \rho As_{ij} \left[\left(\bar{\ell} + \ell_{ij}^{\text{rent}} \right)^{\theta} n_{ij}^{1-\theta} \right]^{\gamma} - q \left(\ell_{ij}^{\text{rent}} \right) - w n_{ij} + \eta \varphi_i \ell_{ij}^{\text{rent}} \mathbb{1}[\ell_{ij}^{\text{rent}} < 0]) \right\},$$

Family Decisions

Who (if any) should be the farm operator?

▶ If individual *j* is the farm operator, then household income is

$$l_i(\text{operator} = j) = \pi_{ij} + \sum_{k \neq j} i_{ik} = \pi_{ij} + \sum_{k \neq j} \max\{i_{ij}^{FN}, i_{ij}^{FA}, i_{ij}^{PT}\}$$

Family chooses operator *j* that maximizes household income:

$$I_i = \max_{j \in J} \{I_i(\text{operator} = j)\}$$

Family may choose not to operate a farm

Household income if not operating a farm:

$$I_i^n = \sum_j \max\{i_{ij}^{FN}, i_{ij}^{FA}, i_{ij}^{PT}\} + q\bar{\ell} - \eta \varphi_i \bar{\ell}$$

• Family operates a farm if $I_i \ge I_i^n$

Introduction

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Quantitative Analysis

Parameterization I

Ability distributions (log normal)

 $\log(h_{ij}) = \log(h_i^H) + \log(h_{ij}^I), \quad \log(s_{ij}) = \log(s_i^H) + \log(s_{ij}^I) + \lambda \log(h_{ij})$

Family components $(s_i^H \text{ and } h_i^H)$; individual components $(s_{ij}^I \text{ and } h_{ij}^I)$

► $\{s_i^H, h_i^H, s_i^I, h_i^I\}$: mean-zero log-normal with s.d. of $\{\sigma_s, \sigma_h, \gamma \sigma_s, \gamma \sigma_h\}$

γ: relative importance of individual components versus family components.

 \blacktriangleright λ : correlation between two dimensions of abilities

Labor mobility barriers:

$$\xi_{ij} = rac{ \mathsf{exp}(arepsilon_{ij}^{\xi}) }{1 + \mathsf{exp}(arepsilon_{ij}^{\xi})},$$

$$\triangleright \ \varepsilon_{ij}^{\xi} \sim \log \mathcal{N}(\mu_{\xi}, \sigma_{\xi})$$

Parameterization II

Idiosyncratic farming wedges:

$$\log(\tau_{ij}) = \underbrace{\zeta \log(s_{ij})}_{\text{correlated distortions}} + \underbrace{\varepsilon_{ij}^{\tau}}_{\text{uncorrelated}}, \text{ where } \varepsilon_{ij}^{\tau} \sim \log \mathcal{N}(0, \sigma_{\tau})$$

Land security (punishment):

$$arphi_i = \mu_arphi + arepsilon_i^arphi, \quad arepsilon_i^arphi \sim \log \mathcal{N}(0, \sigma_arphi)$$

Data

- Unique household and individual panel data (RCRE's Fixed Point Survey)
- Panel data, use 2004 to 2018 waves
- Farm inputs and outputs; used to estimate farm productivity and wedges
- Individual labor supply to agriculture, rural/urban non-agriculture and wage
- Supplementary survey on land redistribution or land taking risks
- Macro data from various sources to determine non-agricultural moments
- Calibrate a benchmark economy to 2004 data moments using SMM

- We have 23 parameters to be determined
- ▶ 9 parameters determined based on a priori information and normalizations
- Remaining 14 parameters estimated jointly to match empirical moments
- While jointly determined certain moments more relevant for identifying key parameters

Targeted Moments: Data and Model

Moments	Data	Model
Employment share among village individuals:		
Full-time non-agriculture	0.297	0.293
Part-time	0.212	0.207
Median fraction of part-time hours in agriculture	0.274	0.275
Rank correlation of wages and part-time hours in nonagr.	0.398	0.398
Share of village households with farm operators	0.737	0.732
Sectoral gap: nonagr. wage versus farming profit	0.081	0.081
Family wage differentials:		
Average nonagr wage, with/without operators	-0.281	-0.283
Wage dispersion among full-time non-agr. workers:		
Standard deviation	0.610	0.608
Within-family correlation	0.557	0.555
Correlation of non-agricultural wage income and farm profit	0.083	0.080
Agricultural production:		
Standard deviation of farm TFP	0.657	0.659
Standard deviation of farm TFPR	0.633	0.630
Rank correlation of farm TFP and TFPR	0.963	0.975
Nominal agr. to non-agr. labor productivity ratio	0.388	0.387

- ▶ Land loss risk: the mean of η is 0.051 from our supplementary survey
- Separately identify land loss punishment (μ_{φ}) vs. labor mobility barriers (μ_{ξ})
 - both generates sectoral wage gaps of individuals
 - Iand insecurity matters more the fraction of households operating farms

Sensitivity of parameters:

- \blacktriangleright increase a single parameter by 1% keeping all other parameters unchanged
- assess the changes in model moments

Moments	μ_{arphi}	μ_{ξ}
Village households with farm operators (%)	+0.28	+0.09
Sectoral wage gap	+0.25	+0.29

- \blacktriangleright Estimated $\varphi_i \bar{\ell}$ is on average five times of rural household annual income
- This value is empirically plausible:
 - farming accounts for roughly 1/3 to half of total family income in 2004
 - Iand share 0.4
 - subjective discount rates ranging from 3% to 5%
 - ▶ present value of land is roughly $0.4 \cdot \frac{\frac{1}{3} \sim \frac{1}{2}}{\frac{3}{2} \sim -5\%} = 2.7$ to 6.7-fold annual income

- Consider an otherwise identical model but no land insecurity ($\eta = 0$)
- Re-calibrate it to match same moments except for those governing land insecurity
- We can match the same sectoral wage gap, BUT a much higher level of labor mobility barriers is needed
 - ▶ ξ_{ij} is now on average 80%, compared to 55% in the baseline calibration
- MOREOVER, this re-calibrated model predicts much fewer rural households operate farms
 - 43% in the re-calibrated model as opposed to 74% in the data (and baseline calibration)

Implications on Land Rental Markets

- The model is consistent with the data that most farms neither rent in nor rent out
 - 87% in the data and 72% in the model despite not targeted
 - Renting out land is associated with a risk which effectively reduces the rent-out price
 - Our modelling of land insecurity provides a micro foundation of the wedge between rent-in and rent-out prices used in literature to generate inaction

Implications on Land Rental Markets

Who rent in land?

- In a frictionless environment, the most productive farms rent in land
- In the data, however, the correlation between farm productivity and a rent-in dummy is weak at only 0.02
- Our baseline calibration also implies a low correlation (0.27)

Implications on Land Rental Markets

Rental implications are also consistent in the intensive margin

average amount of rentals among those who rent in land:

0.97-fold of average farm size in the model vs. 0.89-fold in the data

weak correlation between farm productivity and amount of rentals among those who rent in land

0.20 in the model and 0.31 in the data

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Adamopoulos et al (2023)

Experiment 1: Land Security and Labor Mobility

- Disentangle the importance of land security Vs. residual labor mobility barriers
 - eliminate risk of reallocation/expropriation ($\eta = 0$)
 - eliminate labor mobility barriers ($\xi_{ij} = 0$)

Experiment 1: Land Security and Labor Mobility

	Baseline	Land Security	No Labor Barriers
Village families operating farms (%)	73.2	28.6	48.3
Ag. emp. share among villagers (%)	56.6	46.0	46.3
Δ Agricultural labor productivity (%)	_	+24.3	+16.2
Δ Real GDP per capita (%)	_	+3.4	+2.7
Within-household selection in farming:			
% of farm operators with highest s_{ij}	61.4	69.3	62.9
Nominal agricultural productivity gap	2.58	2.22	1.38

- Land security has a substantial impact on the percentage of village families operating farms
 - Data: prevalence of (subsistence) farms that do not sell to the market
 - Land insecurity encourages farm operation to secure the land
- Residual labor mobility barriers have weaker effects on agr. productivity
- Real agricultural labor productivity is not necessarily related to the nominal labor productivity gaps between sectors within a country

Adamopoulos et al (2023)

Experiment 2: Evolution of Frictions over Time

- ▶ We recalibrate the model to match empirical moments for 2018
- Use estimated values of land security and labor mobility barriers as follows:
 - Change η to 0.016 and μ_{φ} to match the average $\varphi_i \bar{\ell} / I_i$ to 3.2-fold in 2018
 - Change distribution of ξ_{ij} to 2018 estimates
- From baseline, quantify changes to 2018 in land security and labor mobility barriers

Experiment 2: Evolution of Frictions over Time

	Baseline	2018 Land Security	2018 Labor Barriers
Village households operating farms (%) A_{ff} own, share among villagers (%)	73.2	56.4 53.2	77.0
Δ Agricultural labor productivity (%)	- 50.0	+6.8	-2.9
Δ Real GDP per capita (%)	-	+2.0	-0.2

Overall migration cost falls over time

- mostly from improvement in land security—consistent with land reform
- "residual" labor mobility barriers barely change

Extensions

- 1. Rural and Urban Non-agricultural Sectors
 - Motivation: About half leaving agriculture work in rural non-agriculture
 - Findings: Land insecurity hurts equally non-agricultural employment in rural and urban
- 2. Age Cohorts
 - ▶ Motivation: Old (45+) substantially more engaged as farm operators
 - Findings: Land insecurity contributes about 40% to age gap in farm operators
- 3. Regional Heterogeneity
 - Motivation: Peri-urban villages have better access to off-farm opportunities
 - Findings: Land insecurity less severe in peri-urban than remote villages

Conclusions

- Land insecurity as implicit reallocation barrier, prevalent in developing countries
- Build a framework:
 - nesting individual's occupational choice with family decision on farming
 - highlights the importance of within-family selection
- Estimate model using rich individual- and household-level panel data
- Land insecurity quantitatively as important as all other mobility barriers
 - contributes to accounting for prevalence of small/unproductive/subsistence farms
- Overall mobility barriers fall over time
 - mostly from improvement in land security associated with land reforms
 - other mobility barriers barely change

The Extended Model: Setup

We allow for two non-agricultural sector: rural (r) and urban (u)

- technologies: $Y_r = A_r N_r$, $Y_u = A_u N_u$
- labor mobility barriers differ: ξ_{ij}^r and ξ_{ij}^u
- Different costs of part-time working c_r and c_u
- goods are perfect substitutes
- We also allow for cohort differences: young and old
 - each individual j in family i can be either young or old with probability p_o
 - differences in the levels of ability distribution and labor mobility barriers
 - drifts of labor mobility barriers of the old: μ^r_o and μ^u_o
 - drifts of abilities of the young: µ^s_v and µ^h_v

The Extended Model: Calibration

- Empirical moments: we treat an individual above 45 as "old"
- 7 more parameters to calibrate:
 - 7 more moments regarding the employment share and wage gaps for young and old separately and for rural and urban non-agricultural sectors separately

The Extended Model: Implications of Calibrated Economy

The young have higher average abilities but comparative advantage in non-agriculture

• $\mu_y^s = 0.14 \text{ and } \mu_o^s = 0.20$

The old face substantially higher labor mobility barriers especially to urban non-agriculture

•
$$\mu_o^r = 0.36$$
 and $\mu_o^u = 0.90$

The Extended Model: Quantitative Results

	Baseline	Land Security	No Labor Barriers
Village families operating farms (%)	72.1	30.5	53.4
Ag. emp. share among villagers (%)	57.7	51.0	49.3
Δ Agricultural labor productivity (%)	-	+11.7	+9.7
Δ Real GDP per capita (%)	-	+2.2	+5.8
Within-household selection in farming:			
% of farm operators with highest s_{ij}	54.4	61.0	53.9
Nominal agricultural productivity gap	2.50	2.14	1.28

Implications on farming choice and agricultural productivity remain largely unchanged

- Land insecurity helps explain "left-behind elderly"
 - With land security, the percentage of operators who are old reduces from 51% to 48%

Regional Heterogeneity

- Important heterogeneity across regions in China
- ▶ We divide villages into two groups: (a) Peri-urban and (b) Remote
- For each group, re-calibrate model using micro moments calculated from observations in each region only
- Implement "Land Security" and "No Labor Mobility Barriers" counterfactuals

Regional Heterogeneity

(a) Peri-urban A	Area			
	Baseline Calibration	Land Security	No Labor Barriers	
Village households operating farms (%)	53.9	33.5	35.9	
Agrricultural employment share of villagers (%)	44.4	40.6	35.9	
Δ Agricultural labor productivity (%)	-	+8.7	+14.2	
Δ Non-agricultural output (%)	-	+1.5	+6.3	
Δ Real GDP per capita (%)	-	+1.2	+3.9	
(b) Remote Area				
	Baseline	Land	No Labor	
	Calibration	Security	Barriers	
Village households operating farms (%)	75.9	46.1	58.8	
Agricultural employment share of villagers (%)	61.9	55.6	53.5	
Δ Agricultural labor productivity (%)	_	+11.5	+8.7	
Δ Non-agricultural output (%)	-	+2.6	+7.1	
Δ Real GDP per capita (%)	_	+2.2	+3.8	

Regional Heterogeneity

Results:

- Land insecurity less severe in Peri-urban than Remote
- Labor mobility barriers:
 - \flat ξ_{ii}^r substantially lower in Peri-urban than in Remote
 - ξ_{ii}^{u} slightly higher for Peri-urban villages
- Possible explanations:
 - More off-farm opportunities for Peri-urban villagers from local non-agriculture
 - Agriculture less important for Peri-urban and hence less pressure to reallocate land

Summary of Frequency of Reallocations and Takings

	Period	(a) Land Number	Reallocations Number per year	Probability	-
_	Survey, 2004:				-
	1991-1999	140	15.6	13.0%	
	2000–2003	15	3.8	3.1%	
	1991–2003	155	11.9	9.9%	
	Survey, 2018:				
	2003–2017	16	1.1	0.9%	
					-
		(b) Lar	nd Takings		
Period	Number	Number per y	ear Probability	Land (Ha)	Households
Survey, 2004:					
1991–2003	123	9.5	7.9%	581.6	11,076
Survey, 2018:					
2003-2017	123	8.2	7.3%	1,433.0	12,881