Since 1939, real U.S. per capita personal income has grown more than 400 percent—an average of 2.5 percent per year—greatly raising living standards. Each state has seen its per capita income rise dramatically (see figure 1), but not all states have grown at the same rate. Between 1939 and 2004, these differing growth rates have caused a substantial reduction in the income differences between high- and low-income states, a concept known as convergence.

For example, the highest-income state in 1939 (Delaware) had a per capita personal income that was four and a half times higher than that of the lowest-income state (Mississippi). Since the mid-1970s, per capita personal income in the highest-income states has typically been only slightly less than two times the income level of the lowest-income states. While these differences are clearly smaller than those in the 1930s, current income differences remain significant: Connecticut’s 2004 top-ranked per capita personal income ($45,566) was almost double that of Mississippi’s ($24,397) (see figure 2).

What are the sources of these remaining differences? Recent research by Bauer, Schweitzer, and Shane find that there are identifiable factors reliably associated with income differences in U.S. states. They find that a state’s knowledge stocks—the innovativeness of its firms and the education and training of its workforce—are key determinants of its per capita personal income. In this Economic Commentary, we focus on the performance of Fourth District states in these areas. The results highlight issues that policymakers must face if they want to raise the income levels of Fourth District states.

How Are the Effects of Growth Factors Estimated?

Bauer, Schweitzer, and Shane apply a statistical model to identify factors that lead to persistent differences in state per capita personal incomes. The key features that help produce reliable estimates are as follows:

- Information on income levels over many years—65 years of state per capita income for the lower 48 states
- Information on how a wide variety of potential growth factors—educational attainment, patents, industry structure, taxes, infrastructure spending, banking deposits, and climate—differ between states
- A statistical model consistent with growth theory—the estimated model accounts for the income changes from the unobserved flows of capital and labor (see Barro and Sala-i-Martin, and Islam)
- A strategy ensuring that the factors are influencing income and not vice versa—the data on factors is five years prior to the income data

This last point requires more elaboration. When estimating the effects of these possible growth factors, it is necessary to carefully control for the possibility that per capita personal income might in turn influence the factors. For example, states with higher current incomes are likely to choose to spend more on education. The authors statistically verify that a five-year lag is enough to ensure that the factors’ effects on income are captured, not current income’s effect on the factors.

The key identified factors turn out to be the knowledge stocks of patents and educational attainment, as well as a state’s industry structure. Knowledge stocks are measured by three variables: The first measures the innovativeness of a state’s firms. Data on patents issued to a state are used because they are highly correlated with research and development spending, but unlike these more direct measures, they are available at the state level further back in time (see Griliches). The patent factor is measured as a stock because the innovativeness that patents strive to proxy is likely to persist beyond their date of issuance. The patent stocks depreciate over time because the research and development that led to them are also likely to have a diminishing impact on incomes over time (this is not a critical assumption to Bauer, Schweitzer, and Shane’s results, however). The other two knowledge-stock variables measure educational attainment, or human capital in the form of education.
fAVORABLE. IMPLICITLY, A STATE WITH LOW
LEVELS OF MANUFACTURING, FARMING, AND
MINING WILL HAVE A RELATIVELY LARGE
SERVICE SECTOR. DESPITE THE DESIRE OF
SOME ECONOMIC-DEVELOPMENT EFFORTS TO
GET THE “RIGHT” MIX OF INDUSTRIES, THE
ESTIMATED INDUSTRY-STRUCTURE EFFECTS
TEND TO BE MUCH SMALLER IN MAGNITUDE
THAN THOSE FOR KNOWLEDGE STOCKS.

The other factors—average tax rates, infrastructure spending, banking
deposits, and climate—are also com-
pared to the relevant national averages.
While it may surprise some readers,
these factors were not statistically
signiﬁcant, and their estimated effects
were small.

Knowledge Matters
The cumulative effects of patent stocks,
educational attainment, and industry
structure from 1939 to 2004 on the
Fourth District states and the average
top- and bottom-quartile states are
shown in ﬁgure 3. Effects accumulate
because some of the boost (or drag) in
per capita personal income in one
period carries over into the next, so pos-
itive or negative factors have persistent
effects just like any other historical
source of income differences. For exam-
ple, over the past 65 years, Kentucky
has had a much lower-than-average
patent stock, and as a result, the model
predicts a lower per capita personal
income (6.8 percent lower, to be spe-
ciﬁc). Kentucky’s educational attain-
ment has also lagged the average, which
results in an estimated 7.8 percent lower
level of per capita personal income. Its
industry structure led to a further 4.9
percent lower level than would other-
wise have been expected. The sum total
of all the other factors (relative taxes,
infrastructure spending, banking
deposits, heating degree days, cooling
degree days, and precipitation) lowered
Kentucky’s per capita personal incomes
by 3.8 percent. All together, the model
predicts that Kentucky’s income will be
15.3 percent below average. The model
does not account for everything, but for
most states, the estimated effects match
well with both the observed levels and
the states’ rankings.

Clearly, the performances of the top-
quartile states are driven by the three
identiﬁed factors. High levels of
knowledge stocks promote the most
income growth: ‘‘Top-quartile states’’
relative patent stock is estimated to
boost relative per capita personal
incomes by 20.5 percent. The effect of
educational attainment (high school and
college) is smaller, but it is estimated
to add another 8.0 percent. These top-
performing states get a further 5.1 per-
cent gain from their past industry struc-
tures. Other factors are small in magni-
tude, adding just 1.9 percent.

From the model’s estimates, it is equally
clear what drives low per capita personal
incomes: low knowledge stocks. Relative
to per capita personal incomes of the
lowest-quartile states are 6.3 percent
lower due to their relatively low patent
stocks, and they lose another 4.1 percent
due to low relative educational attain-
ments. Industry structure accounts for
just a 1.9 percent additional decline.
The effects of other explanatory vari-
ables in the model are relatively small
(1.1 percent).

So how do Fourth District states stack
up? Ohio and Pennsylvania are mid-pack
performers and are remarkably similar
to one another. Both have higher-than-
average patent stocks that boost their
per capita personal incomes: a 9.7 per-
cent boost for Ohio and 9.2 percent for
Pennsylvania. But they also both have
just average levels of education and other
factors. Somewhat surprisingly, given
that they lie in the heart of the “rust belt,”
their past industry structure exerts only
a modest drag—2.6 for Ohio and
1.6 percent for Pennsylvania.

Kentucky and West Virginia are also
very similar to one another, both having
signiﬁcantly lower per capita personal
incomes than Ohio and Pennsylvania as
well as low stocks of knowledge factors.
Patent stocks are predicted to reduce per
capita personal incomes by 4.0 percent
for West Virginia and 6.8 percent for
Kentucky. Low educational attainments
are expected to lower their personal
incomes by an additional 11.4 and 7.8
percent, respectively. One difference
between the two states is that while the
effect of industry structure is negligible
for West Virginia, Kentucky’s relative
per capita personal income is expected
to be an additional 4.9 percent lower.
Each beneﬁt some from the total effect
of all the other factors (3.8 for Kentucky
and 2.7 percent West Virginia).
Can States Change Their Growth Factors?

Are states simply stuck with their growth factors because of their geographic position or individual history, or can these factors be altered? Figures 4 and 5 suggest that they can. Figure 4 plots the change in the cumulative patent effects for Fourth District states and for the 12 states with the largest gains in this effect from 1989 to 2004. Fifteen years is a relatively short period of time for building up a research and development base, but it was long enough for some U.S. states to significantly improve their expected per capita personal incomes. Top performers’ incomes increased 2.2 percent more than they otherwise would have because they found ways to improve their relative patent positions. For some of these states, the improvement came from going from an extremely low value to merely a low value. But Idaho, Vermont, and New Hampshire actually went from being below the national average to above.

While Ohio and Pennsylvania both currently have relatively high levels of per capita patent stocks (about 20 percent above the national average), each has seen its advantage erode over the past 25 years, so that their per capita incomes are lower than they otherwise would have been. Kentucky’s and West Virginia’s positions eroded less, but their relative per capita patent levels merely remained at low levels (approximately 60 percent below the national average).

Figure 5 plots the change in the cumulative education effects. Here, two Fourth District states made the top quartile (Kentucky and Pennsylvania). Many of the states that stand out in education gains achieved their status by going from extremely low high school attainment to the national average, and further gains from this source will be harder to achieve. But Rhode Island, New Jersey, Missouri, Pennsylvania, and especially Minnesota achieved their gains from a position already at or above the national average.

Although Kentucky’s high school and college attainment remain among the lowest in the nation, the state has improved its relative performance. Kentucky led the nation in education gains, increasing its relative per capita personal income to 4.7 percent above what it would have otherwise been. It did this by making strong gains in both high school and college attainment. Pennsylvania also made strong gains in education, boosting its relative per capita income by 1.6 percent, mostly due to gains in high school attainment. All of West Virginia’s improvement came from a higher level of high school attainment, as it actually lost ground relative to the nation in college attainment. Ohio was fairly close to the national average for education (slightly above for high school attainment, but slightly below for college) and essentially remained there.

What Can States Do?

Governments are heavily involved in providing and encouraging education, and the results reported here suggest that significant benefits accrue to states that are successful in boosting their relative education levels. Of course, with the mobile labor force of the United States, a state can either educate its own residents or attract educated workers from other regions. Colorado has a large positive education effect, gained partly by the highly educated migrants to that state. Alternatively, states that produce more graduates internally can also achieve higher attainment levels, although some “brain drain” has to be expected. A past Economic Commentary showed that, for Ohio, brain drain seems to reflect current economic conditions rather than a general overproduction of college graduates (see Yazback).

Innovation, as measured by state patent stocks, has an even larger estimated effect on income than does education, particularly for top-quartile states (see figure 3), so governments should also be interested in encouraging this activity. We do not think that it is literally the income generated by patents accruing to firms that hold patents that are particularly high. Patents are more likely serving as a proxy for firms that are innovative in a far wider variety of ways. This broad characterization of
what patents might proxy for suggests few policies directly, but the successes of some states over the past 15 years at least should invite research interest in what might underlie these trends.

Bauer, Schweitzer, and Shane’s project revealed that large differences in state income levels are primarily associated with the variation in the states’ knowledge-building activities of education and patenting. Yet economic development has long focused not on boosting these activities, but instead on recruiting (or retaining) companies (often with a preference for manufacturers) or on recommending infrastructure projects. Looked at case-by-case, some of these efforts have offered substantial benefits, but the research looked at in this Commentary suggests that having a larger manufacturing base has not reliably led to higher incomes. While this research does not identify specific policies for raising a state’s per capita personal income, it does indicate that income growth at the state level tends to follow innovation and education.

For a detailed review of the evidence of state-income-level convergence, see:


For analysis of migration patterns of college graduates that suggest reasons why Ohio’s losses are not so extraordinary, see:


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