Labor Share Decline and Intellectual Property Products Capital: A Different Measurement Perspective

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Abstract

Koh et al. (2020, Econometrica) attribute the decline in the labor share over the last 90 years to the capitalization of intellectual property in the national income and product accounts. We document that these findings are limited to the Gross labor share; the Net labor share trend is unrelated to the capitalization of intellectual property. This distinction is important because Net labor share is a more direct measure of income distribution between labor and capital. In addition, over the recent four decades, both Gross and Net labor shares for the corporate sector exhibit a declining trend irrespective of the accounting treatment of intellectual property. These findings extend to international settings. In sum, capitalization of intellectual property has little effect on the inferences about the shift in income distribution between capital and labor.

Keywords: Gross Labor Share, Net Labor Share, Intellectual Property Products, NIPA Accounting, BEA Revisions, Capitalization, Expensing, Accounting for Intellectual Property JEL Classifications: E01, E22, E25

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1. Introduction

The stability in the labor share of national income is a stylized fact (Kaldor 1961) embedded in macroeconomic theory. Yet, extensive literature documents a significant decline in the labor share over the recent forty years (e.g., Elsby et al. 2013; Karabarbounis and Neiman 2014a; Autor et al., 2020; Barkai 2020). The declining trend in labor share has implications for research on income and wealth inequality, macroeconomic dynamics, and growth accounting, as well as tax policy and federal budgeting (Neiman, 2013).

A recent paper by Koh et al. (2020) attributes the secular decline in the labor share to an accounting treatment of intellectual property products (IPP) in the national income and product accounts (NIPA). NIPA currently treats IPP spending as a durable capital investment (i.e., IPP spending is *capitalized*). Previously, business IPP spending was part of intermediate inputs to production (i.e., IPP spending was *expensed*). Koh et al. find that the significant downward trend in the fraction of labor compensation in gross value added is present only under the current accounting treatment of IPP. They conclude that the decline in the labor share is "entirely" driven by the capitalization of IPP.

Setting aside the question of whether IPP spending *should* be treated as durable capital investment, the accounting treatment of IPP has a mechanical effect on the *Gross* labor share (the fraction of *gross value added* that accrues to labor as compensation). Switching from expensing to capitalizing has no effect on the labor compensation, but it increases the gross value added by the amount of business IPP spending. As a result, labor compensation drops as a fraction of the gross value added, and the drop is greater in recent years when IPP spending is higher.

In this paper, we point out that this mechanical effect is limited to the Gross labor share;

¹ A review of this literature can be found in Grossman and Oberfield (2021).

² The current treatment of IPP spending was introduced through three comprehensive revisions of 1999, 2013, and 2018.

³ The reclassification has a different effect for the non-profit and government sectors, see section 2 for more details.

it may not apply to the *Net* labor share (the fraction of *net value added* that accrues to labor as compensation).⁴ The *Net* labor share differs from the *Gross* labor share in the treatment of depreciation.⁵ The *Net* share accounts for the fact that depreciation, which is the allowance for keeping the capital stock intact, cannot be consumed without reducing future consumption (Triplett 1996; Krusell and Smith 2015). The distinction between the *Gross* and *Net* shares is important because they serve different purposes (Hulten 1992; Rognlie 2016; Grossman and Oberfield 2021). The *Gross* share reflects the production structure, and it is more suitable for examining total factor productivity and technological growth. The *Net* labor share reflects the distribution of total income available for consumption between the labor and capital owners, and hence it is applicable to the discussion of aggregate welfare (Weitzman, 1976; Hulten 1992; Diewert and Fox 2005; Rognlie 2016; Bridgman 2018). Whether the Koh et al. conclusions extend to the *Net* labor share has implications for the debate on the causes of the changing distribution of income between labor and capital (e.g., Karabarbounis and Neiman 2014a; Piketty and Zucman 2014; Karabarbounis and Neiman 2019; Autor et al., 2020; Barkai 2020; Kehrig and Vincent 2020).

The effect that IPP treatment has on the *Net* labor share is ambiguous. The *Net* labor share is the fraction of the net value added that accrues to labor as compensation. Switching from expensing to capitalizing IPP does not affect labor compensation; it may either decrease or increase the net value added, depending on whether the IPP investment exceeds the IPP depreciation. Therefore, unlike the *Gross* labor share, the *Net* labor share does not mechanically decrease when IPP spending is capitalized. Hence, growth in IPP spending does not necessarily translate into a downward trend in the *Net* labor share.

Our results suggest that the Koh et al. findings do not extend to the *Net* labor share.⁶ Keeping their sample and research design constant, we find that the trends in the *Net* labor share

⁴ Net value added is the gross value added minus the depreciation.

⁵ Depreciation is referred to as fixed capital consumption in the NIPA.

⁶ We use Koh et al.'s (2020) data, to which we add IPP and disaggregated depreciation data. Our analysis first replicates Koh et al.'s (2020) findings using their data and methodology from 1929 to 2018. The reclassification of IPP spending has an immediate mechanical effect on the magnitude and the trend in the *Gross* labor share. When IPP is treated as intermediate consumption, the *Gross* labor share has no significant trend in the U.S. economy.

are not sensitive to the accounting treatment of IPP spending. Over the 1929-2018 period, the U.S. Net labor share does not exhibit a significant trend under either accounting method. We find similar results within broad institutional sectors, including domestic corporations and non-financial corporate businesses.

Recent research (e.g., Karabarbounis and Neiman 2014a; Caballero, Farhi, and Gourinchas 2017; Autor et al., 2020; Barkai 2020) focuses primarily on the changing income shares within the corporate sector over the last four decades. When we restrict the sample to the 1975-2018 period, the *Net* labor share for the corporate sector has a significant downward trend under either accounting method. In fact, over this period, the *Gross* labor share for the corporate sector also exhibits a significant downward trend under either accounting method, although the rate of decline is smaller (and more similar to the *Net* labor share) under the pre-1999 expensing treatment of IPP. Overall, the accounting treatment of IPP spending has little effect on the *Net* labor share trend estimates in the U.S., and IPP capitalization does not entirely explain the decline in the *Gross* labor share over the recent four decades.

These results also hold internationally. Koh et al. (2020) consider five countries with a recent change in accounting for IPP spending and sufficiently long time-series of data: Canada, France, Denmark, Sweden, and Japan. Our analyses require disaggregated depreciation estimates, unavailable for Sweden and Japan, limiting our analysis to the remaining countries. We replicate Koh et al.'s (2020) finding that declining *Gross* labor share is entirely attributable to the capitalization of IPP spending, using their methodology that imputes and backfills missing data. However, when we use *Net* labor share and the publicly available data, we find that *Net* labor share

Reclassifying IPP into investment lowers the *Gross* labor share and generates a significant downward trend. Overall, the growth in IPP investment entirely explains the declining trend in *Gross* labor share.

⁷ Focusing on the corporate sector alleviate the measurement issues arising from the allocation of mixed income between labor and capital (e.g., Gollin 2002; Rognlie 2016; Smith, Yagan, Zidar, and Zwick 2021). The mixed income is zero for the corporations.

⁸ Economy-wide *Gross* labor share declining trend is explained by the capitalization of IPP over 1975 to 2018. Therefore, Koh et al. findings extend to this sample period for the economy-wide *Gross* labor share measure but not for the corporate sector-level *Gross* labor share.

is declining irrespective of the accounting treatment of IPP.⁹ Furthermore, for two out of three countries, *Gross* labor share exhibits a significant declining trend under either accounting method as long as we restrict the sample to publicly available data.

We are not the first to suggest that depreciation should not be part of the capital income. For example, Weitzman (1976), Hulten (1992), Diewert and Fox (2005), Rognlie (2016), and Bridgman (2018) advocate for output net of depreciation to measure macroeconomic growth and to estimate the capital and labor shares. However, we are the first to document the effects that switching between accounting methods has on the *Net* labor shares. Our results suggest that the *Net* labor share is not only more conceptually suitable for measuring the distribution of income between capital and labor, but it is also more robust to accounting method changes and more comparable across macroeconomic data vintages. The key insight from our paper is that the alternative accounting methods for measuring IPP spending have little effect on the distribution of income between capital and labor. That is, the declining *Net* labor share in the last four decades is not an artifact of recent changes in NIPA accounting.

Our results also help reconcile the findings in prior research. Karabarbounis and Neiman (2014b) document that the *Net* and *Gross* labor shares move mainly together. Bridgman (2018) concludes that the *Gross* and the *Net* labor shares behave differently and attribute the discrepancy in findings to the difference in sample periods. Our results suggest that the vintage of the macroeconomic data is another factor contributing to conflicting inferences. The *Gross* and the *Net* labor share trends do not differ significantly in the pre-2014 vintages of NIPA, but they diverge significantly in the post-2014 vintages that treat intangibles as a durable investment.

⁹ We deviate from Koh et al. in the treatment of missing data. When the data are unavailable for the entire 1929-2018 period, Koh et al. impute and backfill observations. By contrast, we restrict our analysis to publicly available data. As a result, our international sample is constrained to the more recent years where we observe a declining trend in *Net* labor share similar to the U.S.

¹⁰ Atkeson (2020) suggests an alternative way of estimating the labor share that treats all capital spending as intermediate consumption that is expensed immediately (also see Barro 2019).

2. Labor Share and Accounting Treatment of Intellectual Property

BEA currently treats the expenditures for intellectual property products, including software, R&D, and entertainment, literary, and artistic originals, as durable capital investments. The IPP spending is *capitalized* and adds to the stock of fixed assets. The depreciation of IPP—the reduction in the present value of expected benefits from the IPP investments—is included in the consumption of fixed capital. This treatment is consistent with international guidelines (SNA 2008); it is uniform across private, non-profit, and government sectors, and it extends to both the internally generated and externally acquired IPP.¹¹ Prior to 1999, the IPP expenditures in the private sector were treated as intermediate consumption, and IPP expenditures in the government and non-profit sectors were treated as final consumption. We refer to this prior treatment as *expensing*, which is a business accounting term relevant to the private sector. The transition from the pre-1999 expensing to the current capitalizing treatment has occurred in stages. First, the 11th comprehensive revision in 1999 capitalized software costs. Second, the 14th comprehensive revision in 2013 capitalized the R&D and artistic originals. In addition, the 15th revision in 2018 updated the estimates of own-account software and R&D investments by adding the return to capital to production costs.¹²

The capitalization treatment of IPP requires estimates for both IPP investment and the IPP depreciation. Whenever feasible, BEA values IPP investment at market prices. When purchase prices are unavailable, which is the case for the own-account or non-market-use intangible assets, BEA utilizes alternative estimation methods. For own-account R&D, BEA uses the sum of production costs, including cost of labor, material inputs, overhead, and the depreciation of fixed assets engaged in R&D production. The main data sources for the R&D investment estimates are the costs statistics from the National Science Foundation (NSF) surveys and the Census Bureau

¹¹ European Commission, International Monetary Fund, Organization for Economic Co-operation and Development, United Nations, and World Bank, System of National Accounts 2008.

¹² BEA estimates private own-account software and R&D investment as the sum of production costs, including the depreciation of fixed assets involved in production. The 2018 revision has replaced the depreciation by the capital services measure that includes both the depreciation of fixed assets and the return to capital (Chute, McCulla, and Smith 2018).

data on sales of R&D (Crawford et al., 2014).¹³ For entertainment originals, BEA relies on the net present value (NPV) approach—the value of entertainment originals is estimated as the present value of the future royalties or other revenue net of the cost of sales.¹⁴ BEA draws on a combination of the Census Bureau data and multiple trade sources to provide inputs for the NPV estimation.

The depreciation of IPP assets reflects their decline in value as they produce diminishing benefits for their owners and eventually become obsolete. The lack of observable market values complicates the estimation of IPP depreciation rates. For the business sector, BEA calculates depreciation rates implied in the declining contribution of IPP assets to profits. In particular, BEA estimates the relationship between R&D investments and future profits for the individual establishments and firms across ten research-intensive industries. Current-period investment is assumed to contribute to future profits at a geometrically declining rate. Similar calculations derive depreciation rates for the entertainment originals. BEA includes the depreciation of IPP assets as part of the consumption of fixed capital.

Our main analysis focuses on the corporate sector. Table 1 summarizes the differences between various components of Gross Value Added under the pre-revision expensing treatment and the post-revision capitalizing treatment of IPP spending for the corporate sector. The accounting treatment of IPP does not affect employee compensation. Durable capital investment is higher under capitalization treatment by the amount of capitalized IPP spending (I_{IPP}). Fixed capital consumption is higher under capitalization treatment by the amount of depreciation on IPP assets (Dep_{IPP}). Corporate profits under the two methods differ by the amount of net investment in IPP

¹³ BEA treats the funder of R&D as the owner; the R&D that is funded by one entity and produced by another is classified as purchased R&D. When R&D is performed in corporate headquarters or R&D service establishments and transferred to the primary industry of the company, it is also classified as purchased R&D (Crawford et al., 2014).

¹⁴ See "Preview of the 2013 Comprehensive Revision of the National Income and Product Accounts", Survey of Current Business, March 2013.

¹⁵ Depreciation rates for R&D produced by the NPISH sector are assumed to be equal to the business-sector depreciation. Depreciation rates for R&D produced by the government sector rely on a separate estimation that utilizes outcomes other than profits. See Crawford et al. (2014) for more details.

¹⁶ Koh et al. (2020) summarize the differences across all sectors, including government and non-profits. Prior to 2013, R&D expenditures by government and nonprofit institutions are treated as part of the consumption expenditure.

 $(I_{IPP} - DEP_{IPP})$. In both 1947 and 2018, net investment in IPP was positive and corporate profits under capitalization were higher than under expensing.

The capitalization of IPP unambiguously increases the gross value added (i.e., output less intermediate inputs, minus the net taxes on production) by the amount of IPP investment:¹⁷

$$GVA_{CAP} = GVA_{EXP} + I_{IPP}$$
 (1)

The change in accounting treatment of IPP does not affect employee compensation, so the labor share of GVA (i.e., Gross labor share) under the expensing method ($LS_Gross_{Pre-1999}$) is strictly lower than the labor share of GVA under the capitalization method:

$$LS \ Gross_{Pre-1999} = Comp/GVA_{EXP} > LS \ Gross = Comp/(GVA_{EXP} + I_{IPP})$$
 (2)

As I_{IPP} increases over time, the difference between GVA_{CAP} and GVA_{EXP} also grows. Thereby, the Gross labor share exhibits a steeper decline under the capitalizing accounting method, as shown in Koh et al. (2020).

The net value added deducts the consumption of fixed capital from the gross value added. The capitalization treatment of IPP increases the fixed capital consumption by the amount of depreciation on IPP assets (Dep_{IPP}). As a result, capitalization of IPP changes the net value added for the business sector by the difference in the newly invested IPP capital and the depreciation of IPP capital already in place: ¹⁸

$$NVA_{CAP} = NVA_{EXP} + I_{IPP} - Dep_{IPP}$$
 (3)

The NVA_{CAP} (NVA under capitalization treatment) may be either higher or lower than NVA_{EXP} (NVA under expensing treatment) depending on the magnitude of I_{IPP} relative to Dep_{IPP} . In other words, IPP capitalization increases the net value added *only* when IPP investments exceed

¹⁷ The gross output increases by the amount of own-account IPP, the intermediate consumption decreases by the amount of sold IPP. As a result, GVA increases by the sum of own-account and sold IPP, i.e. by the total amount of capitalized IPP. See Koh et al. 2020 for a detailed discussion.

 $^{^{18}}$ Alternatively, consider the effects of IPP capitalization on the components of GVA. First, the corporate profits increase by the net investment amount (I_{IPP} - D_{IPP}) because IPP outlays are no longer expensed, which increases the profits, but there is an additional IPP depreciation expense that decreases the profits. Second, fixed capital consumption increases by the amount of IPP depreciation. In other words, $GVA_{CAP} = GVA_{EXP} + (I_{IPP} - DEP_{IPP}) + D_{IPP}$, where the second component of the left-hand sum is the effect of capitalization on the profits and the third component of the left-hand sum is the effect of capitalization.

the depreciation of IPP assets in place, i.e., when there is growth in the net value of IPP assets. As a result, the labor share of NVA (i.e., Net labor share) under the expensing method (LS_Net_{Pre-1999}) may be either higher or lower than the labor share of NVA under the capitalization method:

$$LS_Net_{Pre-1999} = Comp/NVA_{EXP} > LS_Net = Comp/(NVA_{EXP} + I_{IPP} - Dep_{IPP})$$

$$iff I_{IPP} > Dep_{IPP}$$

$$(4)$$

To explain a significant decline in the labor share, the difference between $LS_Net_{Pre-1999}$ and LS_Net should exhibit a significant upward trend. In both 1947 and 2018, the Net labor share under expensing treatment is higher than under the capitalization treatment, but the magnitudes of the differences are much smaller than for the Gross labor share. The difference between $LS_Net_{Pre-1999}$ and LS_Net rounds up to zero in 1947 and equals one percentage point in 2018; we formally test whether this modest increase can explain the trend in the net labor share in the next section. ¹⁹

3. The Gross and the Net Labor Shares

Our primary dataset comes from Koh et al. (2020).²⁰ We supplement it with IPP investment and disaggregated depreciation data for the international sample.²¹ By restricting to the Koh et al. (2020) main dataset, we keep the vintage of macroeconomic data constant and facilitate the comparability of key takeaways across papers.

¹⁹ Our paper also differs from Koh et al. in the treatment of capital income. Koh et al. (2020) consider profits and capital consumption as part of capital income. In that case, moving from expensing IPP to capitalizing IPP increases capital income by I_{IPP} for the business sector. However, capital owners cannot consume the depreciation portion of gross income without reducing future consumption. When we exclude depreciation from capital income, the capital income under IPP capitalization exceeds the capital income under IPP expensing by the amount of net IPP investment (I_{IPP} - DEP_{IPP}).

²⁰ We thank Dongya Koh, Raul Santaeulalia-Llopis, and Zheng for making the dataset and programs available in the public domain (https://github.com/dongyakoh/IPP_USLS).

²¹ We obtain data from the Statistics of Canada website for Canada: <u>IPP data</u>; <u>disaggregated depreciation data</u>. We obtain data from the Statistics Denmark website for Denmark: <u>IPP data</u>; <u>disaggregated depreciation data</u>. For France, we obtain data from the Insee website: <u>IPP data</u>; <u>disaggregated depreciation</u>.

3.1 Depreciation and Net Investment

The difference between the *Gross* and *Net* labor shares is in the treatment of depreciation. We plot depreciation relative to the gross value added in Figure 1. Over the period 1929 to 2018, the share of depreciation in gross value added has increased dramatically. The linear trend for the economy-wide depreciation for all fixed assets in Figure 1a translates into an annual rate of increase of 0.07% of gross value. In 1929, depreciation accounted for 10.6% of the gross value added; this fraction increased to 17.1% in 2018.

The increasing trend in total depreciation is primarily attributable to IPP assets. In 1929, the depreciation of IPP assets was 0.3% of gross value added; in 2018, this share increased to 5.17%. On average, IPP depreciation has increased at an annual rate of 0.06% of gross value added between 1929 and 2018. By contrast, the depreciation of non-IPP assets has remained relatively stable, ranging from 10.3% in 1929 to 11.9% in 2018, with a linear trend implying an average annual increase of 0.01% of gross value added. We observe similar trends in the depreciation and its components for the corporate sector, plotted in Figure 1c.

The increasing share of IPP depreciation is a direct consequence of the growth in IPP investment (e.g., Koh et al. 2020; Farhi and Gourio 2018). As long as IPP Investment is growing as a share of gross value added, capitalizing IPP spending results in a downward trend in the *Gross* labor share. IPP capitalization's effect on the *Net* labor share depends on the magnitude of IPP depreciation relative to IPP investment. We plot IPP depreciation, IPP investment, and net IPP investment (IPP investment minus IPP depreciation) over gross value added for the entire U.S. economy in Figure 1b. The rapid depreciation of intellectual property assets largely offsets IPP investment's growth; in fact, the net IPP investment is negative for a large portion of our sample. Over the entire period, 1929-2018, the linear trend in net IPP investment is nearly flat – the average trend-implied increase in the share of net IPP investment rounds up to zero percent and is not statistically significant. For the most recent period starting in 1975, the time frame in Karabarbounis and Neiman (2014), the trend in net IPP investment is positive and statistically significant but modest in terms of magnitude. The linear trend estimate for the 1975-2018 period implies an average yearly increase in net IPP investment of 0.01% of gross value added. The trends are similar for the

corporate sector, represented in Figure 1d with one exception: IPP investment exceeds IPP depreciation for the entire sample period, resulting in modest average growth in net IPP investment.

Overall, depreciation in IPP increases over time and largely offsets the growth in IPP investment. By adjusting for IPP depreciation, the net value added should be less affected by the accounting treatment of IPP. As a result, the trend in the *Net* labor share should be less sensitive to a shift to capitalization of IPP assets.

3.2 Trends in Economy-wide Labor Shares: U.S. Analysis

Before investigating the trends in Net labor share, we replicate the findings of Koh et al. (2020) using their data and methodology.²² In particular, following Koh et al. (2020), we estimate the benchmark economy-wide Gross labor share as:

$$LS_Gross = COMP/(GDP_{CAP} - Taxes + Subsidies - PI)$$
 (5)

where LS_Gross is the economy-wide Gross labor share under the IPP capitalization method, COMP is the compensation of employees, and GDP_{CAP} is the GDP under the IPP capitalization method as reported by the BEA. Following Koh et al. (2020), we adjust the denominator for the income that cannot be unambiguously allocated to capital and labor: taxes on production and imports (Taxes), subsidies on production and imports (Subsidies), and proprietors' income (PI).

To evaluate the effect of IPP accounting treatment on the labor share trends, we estimate the counterfactual labor share based on the "expensing" treatment of IPP spending prior to the 1999 BEA methodology revision:

$$LS_Gross_{pre-1999} = COMP/(GDP_{EXP} - Taxes + Subsidies - PI)$$
 (6)

where $LS_Gross_{pre-1999}$ is the Gross labor share under the pre-1999 IPP measurement rules, COMP is the compensation of employees, and GDP_{EXP} is the counterfactual GDP estimate under the pre-1999 IPP treatment. GDP_{EXP} is the 2019 vintage GDP (GDP_{CAP}) minus the sum of IPP investment by the business sector and IPP capital depreciation of nonprofit institutions serving households and government. All other variables are as defined above.

²² Unless explicitly stated in the paper, we restrict to Koh et al. (2020) data and methodology in our analysis for the replication of their key results and also to increase the comparability of findings between the studies.

Figure 2a presents the alternative labor share measures over 1929-2018. We reproduce the Koh et al. (2020) result for the *Gross* labor share. The *Gross* labor share exhibits a statistically significant downward trend under the IPP capitalization regime (LS_Gross). The downward trend implies an average yearly decline of 0.05% of gross value added. By contrast, the counterfactual labor share based on the pre-1999 ($LS_Gross_{pre-1999}$) does not exhibit any significant trend. Overall, the capitalization of IPP entirely explains the declining trend in *Gross* labor share.

To examine the *Net* labor share, we keep the sample and research design constant and replace the gross value added by the net value added in the denominator (i.e., we subtract depreciation from gross value added). The benchmark economy-wide *Net* labor share measure under the IPP capitalization method becomes:

$$LS_Net = COMP/(GDP_{CAP} - Taxes + Subsidies - PI - DEP_{CAP})$$
(7)

where COMP is the compensation of employees, GDP_{CAP} is the GDP under the IPP capitalization method as reported by the BEA, and DEP_{CAP} is the depreciation under the IPP capitalization method.

The counterfactual Net labor share based on the "expensing" treatment of IPP spending prior to the 1999 BEA methodology revision becomes:

$$LS_Net_{pre-1999} = COMP/(GDP_{EXP}-Taxes + Subsidies - PI-DEP_{CAP})$$
 where all variables are as defined above. (8)

Figure 2b plots Net labor share measures from 1929 to 2018. The switch from expensing to capitalization has a modest effect on the average Net labor share: the mean LS_Net is 77.45% and the mean LS_Net_{pre-1999} is 77.89%. Strikingly, the Net labor share exhibits almost identical trends under the capitalization and expensing IPP methods. The full-sample trend estimates for Net labor share are not statistically significant under either accounting method. We examine the trends in the most recent decades in section 3.4. Overall, the Net labor share estimates are insensitive to the change in NIPA treatment of intangible assets.

3.3 Trends in the Labor Share: U.S. Institutional Sector-level Analysis

One of the challenges in measuring the labor share is allocating mixed income, such as income earned by sole proprietors, entrepreneurs, and unincorporated businesses, between labor and capital (Gollin 2002; Elsby et al. 2013; Rognlie 2016). To circumvent this issue in the economy-wide analyses, we follow Koh et al. (2020) and deduct mixed income from the denominator of the labor share. An alternative approach is to focus on the corporate sector that does not have mixed income (e.g., Karabarbounis and Neiman 2014; Autor et al., 2020; Barkai 2020). To alleviate the measurement concerns and to offer additional insights, we plot the labor share for the domestic corporate sector in Figures 2c and 2d. Similar to the economy-wide labor share results, the *Gross* labor share trends are sensitive to capitalizing the IPP spending, but the *Net* labor share trends do not vary significantly between the pre-1999 counterfactual expensing treatment of IPP and the current capitalizing treatment. Similar results obtain for the non-financial corporate business sector in Figures 2e and 2f.

3.4 Trends in the Labor Share over the Recent Four Decades: U.S. Analysis

The research documenting changes in the labor share has primarily focused on the recent period starting from 1975 or later (see Karabarbounis and Neiman 2014; Caballero, Farhi, and Gourinchas 2017; Autor et al., 2020; Barkai 2020). This period has experienced the emergence of the knowledge economy, the rise in information technology, and the advent of computers. These factors have been proposed as the drivers for the drop in the labor share of national income. In Figure 3, we plot the labor share measures for the entire economy and broad institutional sectors for the period 1975-2018.

Our primary inferences for the entire economy remain similar in this subperiod. *Gross* labor share exhibits a declining trend under the post-2013 capitalization treatment for the IPP spending, but the trend is flat and not statistically significant under the pre-1999 expensing treatment (see figure 3a). In other words, the capitalization of IPP spending fully explains the declining *Gross* labor share, as in Koh et al. (2020). The *Net* labor share exhibits parallel trends using the alternative accounting treatment for the IPP spending (see figure 3b). In other words, capitalization of IPP has

an insignificant effect on the rate of change in the Net labor share. The linear trend implies a decline in the Net labor share of approximately 0.02% of net value added per year under either accounting treatment of IPP.²³

For the corporate sector, the recent period results diverge from Koh et al.'s findings. The corporate-sector labor share estimates in figures 3c – 3f exhibit significant declining trends irrespective of the accounting treatment of the IPP spending for both the *Gross* and *Net* labor share measures. The downward trend in the *Gross* labor share under the pre-1999 expensing treatment is statistically significant. These results differ from Koh et al. (2020) and suggest their inferences do not carry over to the more recent period. The trends in the *Net* labor share are parallel under the two accounting regimes, and hence our conclusions regarding the insensitivity of *Net* labor share to NIPA treatment of IPP spending remain unchanged.

Overall, our evidence suggests that the capitalization of IPP spending does not entirely explain the decline of the labor share. Koh et al. (2020) findings are sensitive to the time period and the type of the labor share measure. Their findings also do not apply to the corporate sector, essential to consider to alleviate the measurement concerns.

3.5 Trends in the Labor Share: International Analysis

Next, we investigate the effects of alternative accounting treatments of IPP on the *Gross* and *Net* labor share trends in international data. We reproduce the findings of Koh et al. (2020) using their data and methodology and restrict our analysis to the countries with the long time series of available data: Canada, France, Denmark, Sweden, and Japan. We further impose two additional restrictions. First, we require depreciation for all fixed assets and IPP assets to estimate *Net* labor share measures. These data are unavailable for Sweden and Japan. Second, we only use the publicly available data and do not impute and backfill the missing data to cover the entire sample period of 1929 to 2019, as do Koh et al. Our analysis thus avoids the researcher-specific methodology choices.

²³ By contrast, the *Net* labor share over the entire 1929-2018 period in Figure 1 has no significant trend.

We plot the labor share estimates for Canada, France and Denmark in Figure 4. The expensing treatment corresponds to the pre-SNA93 labor share measures, the current treatment of IPP spending across all countries is capitalization. In untabulated results, we reproduce the Koh et al. (2020) findings that the declining *Gross* labor share is entirely attributable to the capitalization of IPP spending. However, when we restrict the analysis to the publicly available data, our benchmark results diverge from Koh et al. For example, *Gross* labor share exhibits a declining trend for Canada (Figure 4a) and France (Figure 4e), irrespective of the IPP accounting treatment.

Our inferences regarding the insensitivity of the *Net* labor share to IPP capitalization hold in the international setting. The *Net* labor share declines significantly over the considered sample periods for all three countries, irrespective of the accounting treatment of IPP spending (see Figures 4b, 4d, 4f). Overall, the *Net* labor share declines significantly across all considered countries within the more recent sample periods, the decline is significant and it is not an artifact of the national accounting for the IPP spending.

4. Conclusions

We document that Koh et al.'s (2020) striking result – the decline in labor share entirely explained by the capitalization treatment of IPP in NIPA – is restricted to *Gross* labor share, and does not extend to the *Net* labor share. The trends in the *Net* labor share are not sensitive to the accounting treatment of IPP. Hence, from the perspective of understanding the distribution of income between labor and capital, the accounting treatment of IPP expenditures has little effect on the inferences. We find similar results within broad institutional sectors, including domestic corporations and non-financial corporate businesses.

Perhaps equally important, over the last four decades (1975-2018), a time period that has been a focus of recent research, we find that both *Gross* and *Net* labor shares for the corporate sector exhibit a declining trend irrespective of the IPP accounting treatment.

Overall, the accounting treatment of IPP spending has little effect on the *Net* labor share trend estimates in the U.S., and IPP capitalization does not entirely explain the decline in the *Gross* labor share over the recent four decades. Our findings extend to international settings.

Figure 1: Depreciation and Intellectual Property, 1929-2018

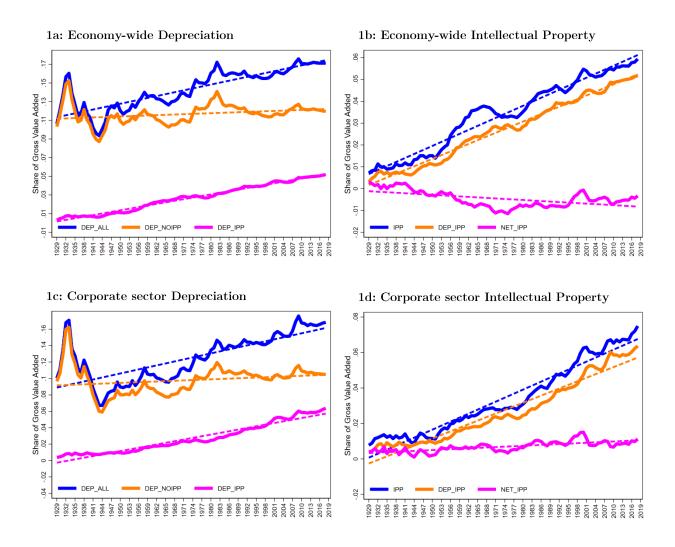


Figure 1 plots depreciation and intellectual property capital over 1929-2018. DEP_ALL is depreciation (fixed capital consumption) for all assets. DEP_NOIPP is depreciation excluding IPP assets. DEP_IPP is the depreciation expense of IPP assets. IPP is the IPP investment. NET_IPP is the net IPP investment (IPP spending less the depreciation). Dotted lines show linear trends. Figures 1a and 1b represent the entire U.S. economy. Figures 1c and 1d represent the U.S. corporate sector.

Figure 2: U.S. Labor Share, 1929-2018

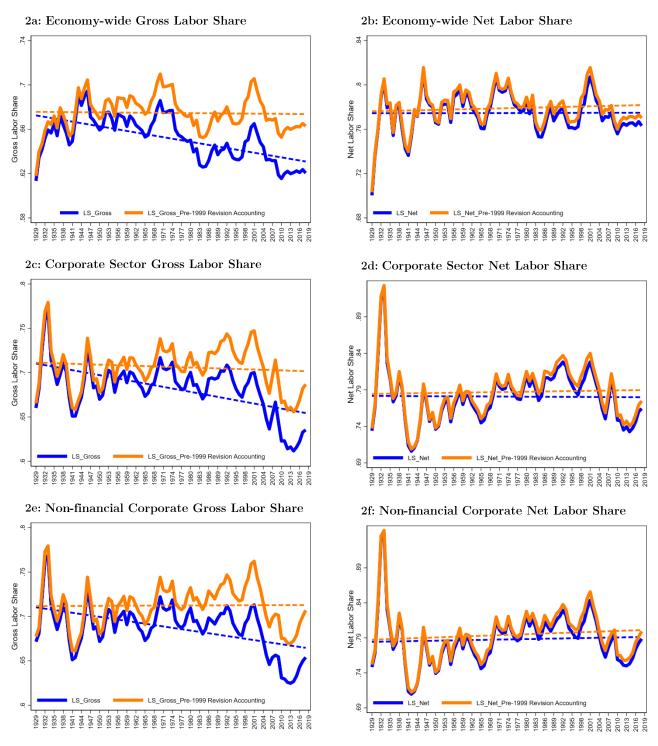


Figure 2 plots labor share over 1929-2018. Blue lines trace the labor shares when IPP is capitalized. Orange lines trace the labor shares when IPP is expensed. Dotted lines show linear trends. Figures 2a and 2b represent the entire U.S. economy. Figures 2c and 2d represent the U.S. corporate sector. Figures 2e and 2f represent the non-financial U.S. corporate sector.

Figure 3: U.S. Labor Share, 1975-2018

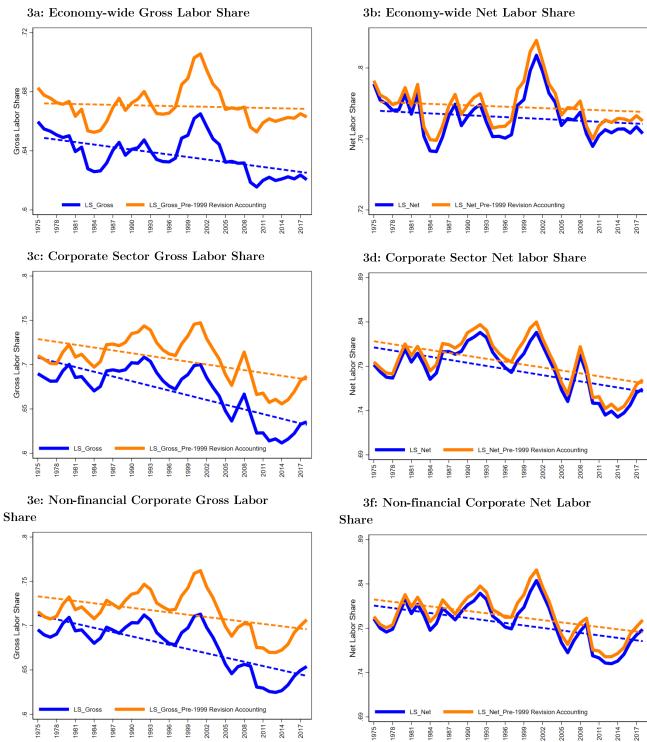


Figure 3 plots labor share over 1975-2018. Blue lines trace the labor shares when IPP is capitalized. Orange lines trace the labor shares when IPP is expensed. Dotted lines show linear trends. Figures 3a and 3b represent the entire U.S. economy. Figures 3c and 3d represent the U.S. corporate sector. Figures 3e and 3f represent the non-financial U.S. corporate sector.

Figure 4: International Labor Share

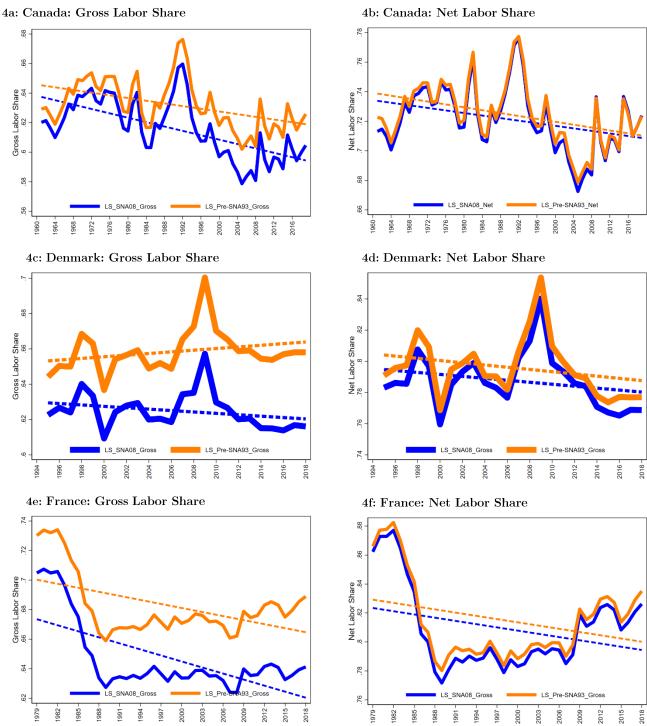


Figure 4 plots economy-wide labor share internationally. Blue lines trace the labor shares when IPP is capitalized. Orange lines trace the labor shares when IPP is expensed. Dotted lines show linear trends. Figures 4a and 4b represent Canada over 1960-2018. Figures 3c and 3d represent Denmark over 1994-2018. Figures 3e and 3f represent France over 1979-2018.

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Table 1: Effects of IPP accounting methods on the gross value added and net value added for the corporate sector

USD Bill. Notation 1947 2018 1. Compensation, pre-revision, expensing method $Comp_{EXP}$ 82.1 6750.3 2. No change 0 0 0 Comp_{CAP}=Comp_{EXP}=COMP Compensation, post-revision, capitalizing method 82.1 6750.3 4. Depreciation, pre-revision, expensing method $\mathrm{DEP}_{\mathrm{EXP}}$ 8.7 1112.3 Plus: depreciation of business IPP DEP_{IPP} 676.9 1.1 Depreciation, post-revision, capitalizing method DEP_{CAP}=DEP_{EXP}+DEP_{IPP} 9.8 1789.2 7. Corporate profits, pre-revision, expensing method $\mathrm{CP}_{\mathrm{EXP}}$ 23.7 1955.4 IPP Plus: IPP spending 1.6 796.1 Less: depreciation of corporate IPP $\mathrm{DEP}_{\mathrm{IPP}}$ 1.1 676.9 Corporate profits, pre-revision, capitalizing method CP_{CAP}=CP_{EXP}+IPP-DEP_{IPP} 24.2 2074.6 10. 11. Gross value added, pre-revision, expensing method GVA_{EXP} 125.9 10780.2 Compensation: No change 0 0 0 Plus: depreciation of business IPP DEP_{IPP} 13. 1.1 676.9Plus: Increase in corporate profits IPP-DEP_{IPP} 119.2 14. 0.5Gross value added, post-revision, capitalizing method $GVA_{CAP} = GVA_{EXP} + IPP$ 127.511576.3 16. Net value added, pre-revision, expensing method GVA_{EXP}-DEP_{EXP} 117.2 9667.9 Compensation: No change 0 0 0 17. Plus: Increase in corporate profits IPP-DEP_{IPP} 0.5 119.2 Net value added, post-revision, capitalizing method GVA_{CAP} - $DEP_{CAP} = GVA_{EXP}$ - DEP_{EXP} +IPP -DEP_{IPP} 117.79787.1

Table 1: Continued.			
20. Gross Labor Share, pre-revision, expensing method	$\mathrm{Comp}/\mathrm{GVA}_{\mathrm{EXP}}$	0.65	0.63
21. Numerator: No change	0	0	0
22. Denominator: Plus: IPP spending	IPP	1.6	796.1
23. Gross Labor Share, post-revision, capitalizing method	$\mathrm{Comp}/(\mathrm{GVA}_{\mathrm{EXP}} + \mathrm{IPP})$	0.64	0.58
24. Net Labor Share, pre-revision, expensing method	$\mathrm{Comp}/(\mathrm{GVA}_{\mathrm{EXP}} ext{-}\mathrm{DEP}_{\mathrm{EXP}})$	0.70	0.70
25. Numerator: No change	0	0	0
26. Denominator: Plus: Increase in corporate profits	$\mathrm{IPP\text{-}DEP}_{\mathrm{IPP}}$	0.5	119.2
27. Net Labor Share, post-revision, capitalizing method	$Comp/(GVA_{EXP} + IPP-DEP_{EXP}-DEP_{IPP})$	0.70	0.69

Table 1 presents the effects of IPP accounting methods on the gross value added and net value added for the corporate sector. Compensation, depreciation, corporate profits, gross value added refer to all corporations. The compensation of employees for all corporations is from NIPA Table 1.14. The depreciation for all corporations is from BEA fixed assets table (FAT 4.4). The corporate profits for all corporations is from NIPA Table 1.12. The IPP investment for all corporations is from BEA fixed assets table (FAT 4.7). The gross value added for all corporations is from NIPA Table 1.13.