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A sub-national Economic Complexity analysis of Australia's states and territories

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5 Abstract

- 6 This paper applies Economic Complexity analysis to the Australian sub-national economy (9
- 7 regions with 506 exported goods and services). Using a 2009 Australian multi-regional Input-
- 8 Output table for base data, we determine the number of export goods or services in which
- 9 each state and territory has a revealed comparative advantage, and visualise the complexity
- 10 of Australia's interstate and international exports. We find that small differences in
- 11 industrial capability and knowledge are crucial to relative complexity. The majority of states
- 12 (especially Western Australia) export primarily resource intensive goods, yet interstate trade
- 13 has many complex products that are not currently internationally exported.
- 14 **Keywords:** economic complexity, implied comparative advantage, Australia; input-output;
- 15 sub-national; regional
- 16 **JEL classifications:** H70, O41, O47, O56
- 17 Date submitted: 08/07/2016
- 18
- 19

21 1. Introduction

22 The long-term prosperity of Australia's states and territories depends on their success in 23 (re)building their economic competitiveness in a post-global financial crisis, and post-24 Australian mining boom, globally-linked economy. The upcoming closure of the Victorian and 25 South Australian concentrated automotive industry (Davis, Dowling, & Norrie, 2008; Taylor, 26 2013), and the 2015 closure of the Tasmanian heavy mining vehicle industry(Cook, Silici, & 27 Adolph, 2015) is further weakening these states' manufacturing capabilities with the ensuing 28 reduction in economic complexity negatively impacting on state and national prosperity. The 29 correct identification of future industry sectors that will be beneficial to transition into, and 30 invest in, is therefore vital for future prosperity.

31

32 An impediment to identifying beneficial sectors is the current inability to identify — at the 33 sub-national level — competitive and comparative advantages; how best to achieve these 34 advantages, and how to monitor progress. Hausmann and Hidalgo (Hausmann & Hidalgo, 35 2013; Hausmann, Hidalgo, Bustos, et al., 2014; Hidalgo & Hausmann, 2009) have developed 36 Economic Complexity (EC) analysis as a method to identify current export capability as well as 37 predict future economic growth. EC analysis has been used at a global level (Felipe, Kumar, Abdon, & Bacate, 2012; Hausmann, Hidalgo, Bustos, et al., 2014), the national level 38 39 (Hausmann & Hidalgo, 2013), and at the city level (Nepelski & De Prato, 2015). However, the 40 scarcity of detailed interstate trade data has so far proven to be a challenge in adapting EC to the sub national level. 41

In this paper we propose a novel source of trade data to allow a further proliferation of EC 43 44 analysis: high resolution Multi-Regional Input-Output (MRIO) tables. IO tables contain matrices describing the supply, use, import, and margins of goods and services by industry 45 46 sectors in economies, with data expressed in monetary terms (UN, 1999). Traditionally, IO 47 tables have been confined to a limited number of aggregated macroeconomic sectors or 48 commodities due to computational power limits and data availability. However, recently 49 global and regional MRIO databases that have a high resolution of specific commodities have 50 been produced (Lenzen, Moran, Kanemoto, & Geschke, 2013; Lenzen et al., 2014). IO tables 51 have been previously used to examine national EC (Szyrmer, 1985a, 1985b), with Wood and Lenzen (2009) providing an analysis of Australia's internal EC from 1975 to 1999 at a 344 52 53 intermediate industry sector resolution. Wood and Lenzen revealed that Australia has 54 transformed since 1975, with decreasing primary and manufacturing sectors and increasing 55 tertiary and service sectors. Wood and Lenzen did not consider sub-national or international 56 linkages and trade in their analysis, instead investigated the developments of economic 57 structure solely at the national level.

58

59 This paper applies Hausmann and Hidalgo's EC analysis method to examine the complexity 60 of the Australian sub-national (interstate) economy. We determine the number of export 61 goods or services that each state and territory has a revealed comparative advantage (RCA) 62 in, and visualise the relative complexity of Australia's interstate and international exports. 63 The application of the EC methodology to sub-national level economies is considered a novelty in this paper. Likewise, our use of a subregional Multi-Regional Input-Output (MRIO) 64 65 table for trade and export data, and the inclusion of service based sectors, are other 66 innovations specific to this paper. Our paper differs from the work of Wood and Lenzen by

67	focusing on using the export and import data of MRIO tables rather than the internal
68	production and consumption data.

70	Section two provides a theoretical background to EC analysis. Section three lists the data
71	sources used for the EC analysis. Section four presents the results of EC analysis. Section five
72	discusses the results, and section six concludes. Appendixes are provided in the online
73	accompanying data. These provide detailed results of all analysis.
74	
75	2. Theoretical background
76	This section summarises the theory behind Hausmann and Hidalgo's (Hausmann & Hidalgo,
77	2013; Hausmann, Hidalgo, Bustos, et al., 2014; Hidalgo & Hausmann, 2009) EC analysis with
78	specific attention given to its use in measuring sub-national trade.
79	
80	The core concept of EC is that specific products are produced when a combination of
81	knowledge, natural resources and monetary capital, comes together in a specific way – with
82	each economy having its own combination of the three factors. EC theory proposes that
83	since natural resources and monetary capital are scarce, that it is by increasing the amount
84	of knowledge in an economy that more products can be made available for production,
85	specifically for export. In the case of sub-national states, this export of goods could be to
86	other sub national entities, or international export. Likewise, it is the differentiation of
87	knowledge capital between sub national states – in addition to natural resources and
88	monetary capital – that will help shape each state's unique EC measures.

Each economy's EC is also influenced by both 'relationship' capital – cultural collaboration
propensity; network economic effects due to economic agent density – and 'organisational'
capital – policy landscape, rules, regulations, systems, processes etc. These two additional
forms of capital are difficult to quantify, and are not captured in current EC modelling. This
means that EC modelling has limits to the amount of economic transformation it can explain
– typically 70% of the change.

96

97 Hausmann and Hidalgo propose that the amount of knowledge capital that an economy has 98 can be expressed in two complementary measures: Diversity, how many different products 99 are exported by a given economy x; and Ubiquity, how many economies export product y. The 100 ubiquity of a product reveals information about the volume of knowledge that is required for 101 its production, with products that demand large volumes of knowledge only becoming 102 feasible in places where all the requisite knowledge is available. Likewise, the diversity of 103 products can indicate the relative level of knowledge in an economy when compared to other 104 economies.

105

106 In EC modelling, diversity is used to correct the information carried by ubiquity, and ubiquity 107 corrects the information carried by diversity, this operation is processed a finite number of 108 times until a convergence is achieved, this is also known as Method of Reflection (Hidalgo & 109 Hausmann, 2009). Hausmann and Hidalgo note this relationship as a mathematical formula, 110 which provides as output the Economic Complexity Index (ECI), a ranking of economies by 111 their complexity; and Product Complexity Index (PCI), a ranking of products by their 112 complexity. The greater the amount of data in the model (number of products, and number 113 of economies) the greater the intricacy, and the truer the representation of the system. This

means that models with smaller numbers of aggregated products, or fewer economies, may
not present reliable depictions of ECI or PCI and associated other measures.

117	Using the PCI, EC analysis creates a holistic measure: <i>opportunity value</i> ¹ — the value to be
118	gained by an economy from shifting production to unexploited prospects (more complex
119	products). This value is relative to the level of technology already present in that economy.
120	Each product also has a relative <i>opportunity</i> $gain^2$ — the 'spillover' benefit to an economy
121	from producing new products in terms of providing capacity for producing even more
122	complex products. The opportunity value score is higher for economies that are already
123	closer ³ to more products and products that are more complex. This implies that economies
124	with a low level of knowledge have fewer opportunities for expansion available and that the
125	expansion is harder to achieve. Economies with high levels of complexity typically have few
126	remaining products left to manufacture in their chosen manufacturing field ⁴ Economies with
127	intermediate complexity can differ in their opportunity value scores depending on the
128	complexity of the products (i.e. the PCI value) that they currently produce.
129	
130	EC modeling suggests two ways in which economies can grow. First, if the economy is
131	currently underperforming given the level of complexity it has. Second, Hausmann et al
132	derive a measure of the 'proximity' of each product category to other product categories. In

¹ In later publications, Hausmann & Hidalgo use the term *complexity outlook* instead of *opportunity value*.

² In later publications, Hausmann & Hidalgo use the term *complexity outlook gain* instead of *opportunity gain*. ³ That is, closer in *Product Space*, in which products are organised such that Product a is close to Product b if a high number of countries co-export both products. The implication of high co-export numbers is that the two products are very likely to require similar types of expertise.

⁴Unless new knowledge is made available through research, as this can form the basis for new innovations. Note that this also implies that research has a higher importance for economies the higher their economic complexity – which seems to be supported by plotting Business Expenditure on R&D (BERD) as a share of GDP vs Economic complexity for all countries.

'product space', those close to one another are co-exported by a large number of countries, leading to the conclusion that they require similar capabilities for their production. If a country exports a product with a high Revealed Comparative Advantage (RCA), it is inferred that the country has an Implied Comparative Advantage (ICA) in those products that are 'close' (in Product Space) to this exported high RCA product and could, therefore, develop production capacity in those products. It should also expect to be able to develop the capability to export them with respectable RCA.

140

141 It should be noted that the ECI is not a measure of trade openness, or a report on the level of export diversification. Nor is the ECI related to an economy's size, population size or the 142 143 population's education level. There is, however, some relation between ECI, on the one 144 hand, and population density (linked to the agglomeration economic benefits of having 145 mutually beneficial economic agent interaction within relatively close geographical 146 proximity) on the other. Hausmann and Hidalgo articulates this as denser populations 147 having closer networks and greater knowledge exchange (Hausmann & Hidalgo, 2013; 148 Hausmann, Hidalgo, Bustos, et al., 2014; Hidalgo & Hausmann, 2009). We would, as a 149 consequence, expect propensity to collaborate to affect ECI positively in economies that 150 have similar size and population density. The ECI is a more generalised measure of potential 151 growth related to how knowledge is translated into the capability to produce products in each specific economy. 152

153

Export data is used, rather than total production data, because trade data is more readily available, and because it is a better indicator of international competitiveness in a product, that is, it offers a 'value proposition' that appeals to a significant number of 'non-captive'

buyers. In addition, for export products to be of importance in EC modelling an economy must export a significant quantity – as indicated by the economy possessing a Revealed Comparative Advantage (RCA) in that product. EC modelling uses Balassa's (Balassa, 1965) definition of RCA. Specifically, an economy has an RCA in a product if it exports 'more than its "fair" share — that is, more than the share of total world trade that the product represents'. As formal definition, if X_{cp} represents the exports of country c in product p, then the Revealed Comparative Advantage that country c has in product p can be written as

164
$$RCA_{cp} = \frac{X_{cp}}{\sum_{c} X_{cp}} / \frac{\sum_{p} X_{cp}}{\sum_{cp} X_{cp}}$$

165 Of course, in the context of sub-regional EC modelling, the subscript *c* would represent the 166 State (or sub-region) instead of country.⁵

A state or territory has a significant export presence in a good or service within the subregional economy if its revealed comparative advantage (RCA) is greater than 1 - and thus produces more than its "fair share" when compared to total Australian production. Accordingly, Revealed Comparative Advantage (RCA) can then be used to construct a matrix (M_{cp} matrix) that connects each state to the products that it makes. The entries in M_{cp} matrix are 1 if state *c* exports product *p* with Revealed Comparative Advantage larger than 1, and zero otherwise.

174 Once the M_{cp} matrix is constructed, diversity $k_{c,0}$, and ubiquity $k_{p,0}$ can be calculated

simply by summing over the columns and rows of M_{cp} , respectively. Formally, $k_{p,0} =$

176 $\sum_{c} M_{cp}$.

⁵ We have chosen to use consistent terminology so that the accustomed formulae remain the same and intact.

178 To generate a more accurate measure of the number of capabilities available in a state, or 179 number of capabilities required by a product, the information that diversity and ubiquity 180 carry is to be corrected by using each one to correct the other. For states, this requires calculation of the average ubiquity of the products that each state exports, the average 181 182 diversity of the states that make those products and so forth. For products, on the other 183 hand, this requires calculation of the average diversity of the states that make them and the 184 average ubiquity of the other products that these states make. This can be expressed by the 185 recursion:

186
$$k_{c,N} = \frac{1}{k_{c,0}} \sum_{p} M_{cp} \cdot k_{p,N-1}$$

187

188
$$k_{p,N} = \frac{1}{k_{p,0}} \sum_{c} M_{cp} \cdot k_{c,N-1}$$

189

190 $k_{c,N}$ can be rewritten as

191
$$k_{c,N} = \sum_{c'} \widetilde{M_{cc'}} k_{c',N-2}$$

192 where

193
$$\widetilde{M_{cc'}} = \sum_{p} \frac{M_{cp} \ M_{c'p}}{k_{c,0} \ k_{p,0}}$$

194 We then calculate \vec{K} , the eigenvector that corresponds to the second largest eigenvalue of 195 the matrix $\widetilde{M_{cc'}}$ (because this is the eigenvector that captures most of the variance in the

196 system). The Economic Complexity Index (ECI) is defined as

197
$$\overline{ECI} = \frac{\vec{K} - \langle \vec{K} \rangle}{stdev(\vec{K})}$$

where < > denotes the average, *stdev* stands for the standard deviation and \vec{K} is the eigenvector of $\widetilde{M_{ccr}}$ associated with the second largest eigenvalue.

200

Product Complexity Index (PCI) can be defined analogously. Due to the symmetry of the
problem this can be done simply by swapping the indices *c* and *p* in the definitions above.
Hence, we define PCI as

204
$$\overrightarrow{PCI} = \frac{\overrightarrow{Q} - \langle \overrightarrow{Q} \rangle}{stdev(\overrightarrow{Q})}$$

205 where \vec{Q} is the eigenvector of $\widetilde{M_{pp'}}$ associated with the second largest eigenvalue.

206

The objective of EC modelling is to provide the ECI and PCI to establish the RCA of each economy, and allow identification of potential products that the state might have opportunities in. This is where the concept of opportunity value (OV) is useful. Before we see a formal definition of OV, it is important to understand the notion of proximity between the products, and also the notion of distance between state c and the product *p*. Formally, for a pair of products *p* and *p'* proximity is defined as:

213
$$\emptyset_{pp'} = \frac{\sum_{c} M_{cp} M_{cp'}}{\max(k_{p,0}, k_{p',0})}$$

where $M_{cp} = 1$ if state *c* exports product *p* with $RCA_{cp} > 1$ and 0 otherwise, and $k_{p,0}$ is the ubiquity of the product *p*. Measure of proximity is based on the conditional probability that a state that exports product *p* will also export product *p'*.

217

The concept of distance gives us an idea of how 'far away' each product is given a state's current mix of exports. The distance between state c and the product *p* is defined as the weighted proportion of products connected to product p that state c is not exporting. Theweights are given by proximities. Formally,

222
$$d_{cp} = \frac{\sum_{p'} (1 - M_{cp'}) \phi_{pp'}}{\sum_{p'} \phi_{pp'}}$$

223

224 Opportunity Value of a state *c* can then be defined as

225
$$OV_c = \sum_{p'} (1 - d_{cp'}) (1 - M_{cp'}) PCI_{p'}$$

where PCI_p stands for PCI of a product p while d_{cp} denotes distance between state c and the product p. The term $1 - M_{cpr}$ makes sure that we count only the products that the state c is not currently exporting (with RCA >1). Higher OV indicates that a state (and the products it produces) are in the vicinity of more products and/or of products that are more complex.

OV can be used to calculate the potential benefit to a state if it were to move to a particular new product. This is called the "opportunity gain" (OG) that state *c* would obtain from making (and exporting) product *p*. This is calculated as the change in opportunity value that would come as a consequence of developing product *p*. OG quantifies the contribution of a new product in terms of opening up the doors to products of greater complexity. OG of a state *c* is formally expressed as:

236
$$OG_{c} = \sum_{p'} \frac{\phi_{pp'}}{\sum_{p''} \phi_{p''p'}} (1 - M_{cp'}) PCI_{p'} - (1 - d_{cp}) PCI_{p}$$

238 **3.** Data

To measure economic complexity at a sub-national level, sub-national trade data was
sourced from a sub-regional multi-regional Input-Output table (MRIO). This MRIO table was
based on the supply-use structure (Eurostat, 2008), and was obtained from the Australian
Industrial Ecology Virtual Laboratory (IELab) (Lenzen et al., 2014; Lenzen, Wiedmann, et al.,
2013).

244

245 The IELab is a unique cloud-environment for the compilation of high resolution sub-national 246 IO tables for Australia, it aggregates and harmonises many sources of economic information 247 into one customised super table (Lenzen et al., 2014; Lenzen, Wiedmann, et al., 2013). The 248 IELab consists of highly detailed Australian data for 1284 industry sectors (Australian Bureau 249 of Statistics, 2012a, 2012b) and 2214 regions (Australian Bureau of Statistics, 2010), with the 250 ability to augment this with additional Rest of the World (ROW) import/export vectors. 251 Using this root classification, users construct customised MRIO tables. In this instance, our 252 custom MRIO table featured 9 sub-regions of Australia (New South Wales, Victoria, 253 Queensland, South Australia, Western Australia, Tasmania, Australian Capital Territory, 254 Northern Territory, and Other territories (comprising Jervis Bay Territory, Christmas Island 255 and the Cocos (Keeling) Islands), and 506 industry (intermediate) sectors that corresponded 256 to the ANZSIC06 industry sector classification (Australian Bureau of Statistics, 2006). 257 International trade import/export vectors were added from the EORA world MRIO database 258 (EconSearch, 2015; Lenzen, Geschke, Kanemoto, & Moran, 2011; Lenzen, Kanemoto, Moran, 259 & Geschke, 2012; Lenzen, Moran, et al., 2013). Data sources used to create, harmonise, and 260 concord the MRIO table included the core IELab dataset, the ABS 5206 national IO tables,

ABS5220 state accounts (Australian Bureau of Statistics, 2008, 2014, 2015), state and substate economic information from EconSearch (EconSearch, 2015), and balancing constraints. Results for monetary transactions were given in AUD millions (1,000,000). The time period considered was 2009, as this matches the latest time period used in *The Atlas of Economic Complexity*.

266

267 The technical layout of a supply-use input-output table is as follows:

	Industry	Product	Int.	Final	Total
			Export	Demand	
Industry		V			$ec{g}$
Product	U		\vec{E}	f	\vec{q}
Int. Import	М				

268

where **U** is a product-by-industry use matrix, **V** is an industry-by-product supply matrix, \vec{E} is a vector of international exports, M is a series of vectors of international imports, **f** is final demand of products, $\vec{q} = \mathbf{U}\mathbf{1}^i + \vec{E} + \mathbf{f}_p\mathbf{1}^f$ is total use by product, $\vec{g} = \mathbf{V}\mathbf{1}^p$ is total use by industry, and $\mathbf{1}^i$, $\mathbf{1}^f$, and $\mathbf{1}^p$ are summation operators $\{1,1,...,1\}^T$ for industries, final demand categories, and products, respectively.

276
State₁ State_{...} State₉
State₁
$$\left[\begin{matrix} U_{1,1} & U_{1,...} & U_{1,9} \\ U_{...,1} & U_{...,9} \\ U_{9,1} & U_{9,...} & U_{9,9} \end{matrix} \right]$$

277 $U_{1,1}$ are the internal transactions of State 1, while $\sum U_{1,2} \dots U_{1,9}$ represents the interstate 278 exports of State 1 to the other states. For our EC analysis we used the interstate and 279 international export data, with direct interstate consumption to households excluded.

281	It should be noted that the ANZSIC06 industry sector classification includes goods and
282	services industries. This is a distinction from the Standard International Trade Classification
283	Revision 2 at the 4-digit level (SITC4) dataset used in The Atlas of Economic Complexity and
284	other prior EC research, as the SITC4 only includes tradable goods. The addition of services
285	export activities provides a more representative description of each state's economic
286	complexity, as exported service industries have the potential to be complex exports.
287	
288	Due to the nature of MRIO data, exports are given as Port of Exit, rather than State of
289	Origin. However, as total exports (interstate + international) are used for this EC analysis
290	rather than interstate this difference is academic: products created in one State and
291	exported from an interstate port appear as both interstate and international trade, so the
292	total exports from each State are correct. The use of Port of Exit trade data, rather than
293	State of Origin could possibly incorrectly inflate the ECI of states, if large quantities were
294	exclusively shipped to one specific state for export.
295	
296	However, our EC analysis of only interstate trade, shows similar findings due to high
297	correlations between interstate and International exports. Please refer to Appendix 4 in the
298	online accompanying data for further detail on the correlations between interstate trade
299	data and interstate and Rest of World trade data. Furthermore, if analysis was to focus upon
300	State of Origin rather than Port of Exit, one could use the Leontief inverse (Leontief, 1936)
301	to back calculate the State of Origin of all sectors.
302	

303	4. Australian economic complexity at national and sub-national levels
304	In The Atlas of Economic Complexity, Australia was ranked 79 th out of 128 countries in 2009,
305	with an Economic complexity score of -0.321 (Hausmann, Hidalgo, Bustos, et al., 2014). This
306	analysis implied that the majority of Australia's export products are resource intensive,
307	while being knowledge and skill deficient.
308	
309	However, our results reveal that interstate trade is more nuanced than international trade,
310	with the sub-national EC of Australia being much more varied. At the interstate level,
311	Australia exports many objects, goods and services that would never be internationally
312	exported due to fragility, perishability, or lack of productive capacity (volume). In addition,
313	Australia's states have no import barriers between them, and somewhat similar levels of
314	technological capacity, thus there is much generalised trade occurring between states.
315	Our EC analysis highlights that the small differences in industrial capability and knowledge
316	are crucial to relative complexity (and thus the future prosperity) of Australia's states and
317	territories.
318	

320 <

321 Table 1 The contribution of interstate and international export monetary transactions for
322 each state and territory. Monetary values listed in \$1,000,000 AU

323 >

324 Table 1 indicates the contribution of interstate and international export for each state, with

325 roughly half of each state's export generated from interstate sub-national trade. The

326 exceptions to this export split are Western Australia (WA), the Australian Capital territory

327 (ACT), and the Northern Territory (NT), that have 15%, 89% and 77% of their total trade as

328 interstate. This indicates the differing product bundles exported by WA, ACT and the NT

329 compared to the rest of the Australian States.

Table 2 highlights the differences between interstate and Rest of the World (ROW), that is,

international export. Due to the aforementioned split between interstate and international

export in most states, the proportional share of exports is matched to the economic size of

the state. However, the export specialisation of WA, ACT and NT has led to a

disproportionally large share of interstate or international export coming from these statesand territories.

38 Table 2 The percentage differences between interstate and international (ROW) exports

339 >

The exported product mixes of each state also differ. Further information on these are
provided in Appendix 4 of the online accompanying data, along with the differences of
interstate export data versus interstate and Rest of World export data.

343

344 Diversity and Ubiquity

345 Diversity and Ubiquity are the core measurements of EC modelling. The average diversity 346 score indicates the number of products in which each state or territory has a Revealed 347 Comparative Advantage, while a high average ubiquity score indicates a network of 348 exported goods that are commonly exported together. More specifically, this state or 349 territory is specialised in export goods that are also specialised in by other states and 350 territories. In the Australian context a high ubiquity score means that there is dominance of 351 unsophisticated products exported from that state. Graphically, the juxtaposition of these 352 two values indicates the production capability of each state and territory relative to the 353 other states and territories. Figure 1 and Table 3 plot the relative average diversity $(k_{c,0})$ 354 and ubiquity $(k_{c,1})$ for Australia's states and territories.

Not shown in Figure 1 is Other Territories (OT) region, as its diversity ($k_{c,0}$) was 30, much lower than the rest of Australia's state and territories. However, OT had the highest ubiquity ($k_{c,1}$ =4.1). This combined score indicates that though OT exported a small unique bundle of goods and services, it had very limited export specialisation. Due to its unique position OT will not be discussed for the rest of this paper.

360 New South Wales (NSW) has the next highest ubiquity score ($k_{c,1}$ =3.83), followed by

361 Victoria (Vic, $k_{c,1}$ =3.73), and Queensland (Qld, $k_{c,1}$ =3.64). The Northern Territory has the

- lowest ubiquity score ($k_{c,1}$ =3.17). However, the Northern Territory (NT) had the highest
- 363 diversity score ($k_{c,0}$ =249), followed by Qld ($k_{c,0}$ =238), and Vic ($k_{c,0}$ =219).
- South Australia (SA) had the lowest diversity score besides OT ($k_{c,0}$ =138), with a low to
- moderate ubiquity score of $k_{c,0}$ =3.45. It is worth noting that SA had similar ubiquity scores
- to Western Australia (WA, $k_{c,0}$ =3.47) and Tasmania (Tas, $k_{c,0}$ =3.46), with their relative levels
- 367 of diversity distinguishing them.

369	<
370	Table 3 Diversity and Ubiquity scores for Austrialia's states and territories.
371	>
372	<
373	

374Figure 1 Comparing diversity and ubiquity measures for each state and territory with internal+ ROW export. Other375Territories (OT) is not shown as its kc0, Diversity=30

376 >

377	The high ubiquity from international exporters confirms the situation discussed in Tables 1
378	and 2, and Figure 2: a large percentage of international export is from a small number of
379	non-complex products - in this case resources and agricultural products. The central
380	hypothesis of economic complexity modelling is to build upon the export of these non-
381	complex products, and move into the export of more complex, knowledge intensive
382	products – this is what has happened over time in Sweden and many other innovation-rich
383	countries. (Schön, 2012; Sjöö, 2014; Taalbi & Ljungberg, 2015; Taalbi, 2014; Tamrakar, 2014)
384	
385	The Economic Complexity Index (ECI)
386	Table 4 provides the ECI for each state and territory, the higher the EC score the more
387	relatively complex the state's economy is compared to the rest of Australia. New South
388	Wales has the highest ECI, while the Northern Territory has the lowest ECI. South Australia
389	(SA) is positively placed in Figure 2, and placed close to the middle of Figure 3. This indicates
390	that SA has much room for growth and improvement (opportunity) in expanding its goods
391	and services. However, the OV of 8.46 and ECI of 0.19 indicates this expansion may come at
392	a greater cost (i.e. with greater obstacles to overcome) than for states with a higher ECI and
393	OV.
394	

595 <

- Table 4 The Economic Complexity Index and Opportunity value for each state and territory, along with the GSP per
 capita in current price, Source: 5220.02013-14 ABS (Australian Bureau of Statistics, 2014)
- 398

>

- 399 Figures 2 and 3 complement Table 4, as a pictorial comparison of the ECI of each state and
- 400 territory to its relative OV (Figure 2), or log GSP per capita (Figure 3). Together these
- 401 illustrate how complex each economy is and the relative gains from increasing complexity.
- 402 The positive location of NSW, Vic, WA, QLD and SA, on the OV axis indicates that these
- 403 states have more to gain from moving into more complex products than the states and
- 404 territories with negative locations.
- 405
- 406 From Figures 2 and 3, it is apparent that QLD and VIC have higher OV than NSW, even
- 407 though NSW has the highest ECI. The reason for this positioning is that NSW is exporting
- 408 different types and quantities of commodties to the ROW, than QLD and VIC, this in turn has
- 409 impacts on the overall ECI and OV of NSW. NSW is a more complex economy, but has less
- 410 to gain (opportunity) to expand its exports into new goods or services.
- 411
- 412

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>

- 413 Figure 2 The ECI and Opportunity Value for each state and territory. OT is omitted.
- 414
- 415 <
- 416 Figure 3 Opportunity value as a function of GSP per capita (log value). OT omitted.

417 >

418 The Product Complexity Index (PCI)

419	Figure 4 shows the relative product complexity of the 506 goods and services produced in
420	Australia according to the ANZSIC06 classification. It can be seen that there is fluctuation of
421	product complexity within product groups with the notable exceptions of the 3 blocks of
422	product numbers #227-#244, #246-#284, and #285-#320. The appearance of these blocks of
423	equal PCI are due to these being common products across all states, though this
424	commonality is also likely to be attributable to the aggregation and disaggregation method
425	of the IELab. The higher the PCI score on the horizontal axis of Figure 4, the more complex
426	the good or service is to produce.
427	<
428	Figure 4 The Product Complexity Index for the 506 goods and services (ANZSIC 06 classification)
429	>
430	Appendix 5 in the online accompanying data lists the lowest national PCI for the goods and
431	services (the least complex products) for comparison.
432	
433	5. Discussion
434	The upcoming and ongoing exit of the automotive and heavy vehicle manufacturing
435	industries from Victoria, South Australia and Tasmania will have major impacts on the
436	economic structure and prosperity of these states. Our EC analysis has found that among
437	these three states, Victoria is the best situated to shift into other complex industries.
438	Likewise, South Australia, with a positive OV has the immediate ability to shift into other
439	complex export products but has to overcome larger barriers (i.e. incur higher costs) and
440	this industry shift will likely take a longer time. Tasmania is the least well positioned state to
441	respond to this economic restructure due to its negative opportunity value.

443	Our analysis extends the economic picture painted by Wood and Lenzen (2009) into the
444	year 2009. In the 25 year time period of Wood and Lenzen (2009), the Australian economy
445	had evolved increased efficiency of resource use and employment, smaller primary and
446	manufacturing sectors and larger and better linked tertiary and service sectors. Our EC
447	analysis confirms that this trend toward linked tertiary and service sectors has continued.
448	Our results also show that there has been greater development in specialised trade
449	occurring within the sub-national Australia (and thus Australia as a national entity).
450	Comparing this papers EC results for each state and territory against the results of Wood
451	and Lenzen's (2009) 1975-1999 national model, provides the insight that all states and
452	territories have developed and are at different stages of complexity and structure, with both
453	local and global developments in the intermittent decade having had impacts.
453 454	local and global developments in the intermittent decade having had impacts.
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463 may not provide a big enough model for the EC calculation process to work correctly. This

464 means that our model may have produced uncertain values for Diversity and Ubiquity,

465 which in turn will affect the ECI and PCI values given in this paper. Future research should

align the subnational EC analysis presented here to with global results. This would also allow
placement of Australia's regional complexity at a global scale, and produce more robust
values for Diversity, Ubiquity, ECI and PCI.

469

470 In addition, a limitation of EC theory, is that there is no theoretical integration of the 471 importance of historic relationships, population density bias and geographic proximity when 472 trade occurs (R Boschma & Frenken, 2010, 2011; Furman, Porter, & Stern, 2002). These 473 factors act as additional drivers of innovation and collaboration for economic actors, but are 474 absent from EC theory. Future studies could use network analysis to examine these impacts 475 within a longitudinal EC framework. These are especially important when discussing the 476 sub-national case of Australia, as the complexity analysis is showing bias towards the 477 eastern states, away from the more geographically distant WA, NT, and SA. Future research 478 could use the data found in the U matrices of MRIO tables and the EC analysis 479 methodologies of Wood and Lenzen (2009) (i.e. measures of multipliers and transactions, 480 and calculating forward and backward linkages) to take account of these relationships. 481 However, this analysis would be very data and processing intensive. Currently, no MRIO 482 time series database is available at a high enough resolution of data. This could probably be 483 a reason why Hausmann and Hidalgo's EC analysis is focused only on trade data. 484 485 A further limitation is that the importance of relationship capital is omitted in the EC theory. Relationship capital⁶ impacts cultural collaboration propensity – where Australia 486 ranks 24th (29th) out of 31 OECD countries for collaboration between SME's (large firms) and 487

488 Researchers (Office of the Chief Economist, 2015). In fact, the likelihood of having any form

⁶ For definition and discussion about relationship capital see (Roos, Pike, & Fernstrom, 2012) and (Roos, 2014)

of collaborative arrangement in place peaks at 9%, which is for a firm aged between one and
four years (Office of the Chief Economist, 2015).

In addition to this there are national organisational capital aspects that impact national
prosperity e.g. policy landscape, rules, regulations, systems, processes etc. This can be
exemplified with the negative impact of a rapidly shifting policy landscape, like in Australia,
where uncertainty will originate from the inability to predict the performance of new
institutions, the actions of other players, or what will be gained or lost if present behaviour
is changed (Culpepper, 2008).

497

498 A final limitation of EC theory predictive accuracy is the role of economic uncertainty. This 499 type of uncertainty is contributing to limiting national prosperity growth since capital 500 investment and workforce hiring decisions have long term consequences - often 10- to 20-501 year or more - and consequently policy uncertainty over longer time periods makes it 502 almost impossible to formulate business and investment strategies with sufficient 503 confidence which reduces the ability to commit to stakeholders and hence postpones 504 prosperity driving investments. Together these limitations contribute to understanding why, 505 as articulated in the correlation analysis underpinning the EC theory, change in economic 506 complexity explains (in correlation terms) 70% and not a greater amount of national 507 prosperity.

508

512

509 6. Conclusion

In this paper we have performed a sub-national EC analysis on the states and territories of
Australia. We have calculated the ECI, RCA, PCI, OG and OV relating to 9 sub-national

economies and 506 exported goods and services. To our knowledge this is the first

- 513 application of EC analysis to sub national dataset, and the first use of an MRIO database as
- 514 base data for EC analysis, and the first to include services sectors in EC analysis.
- 515 Future application of EC analysis at the sub national level could include calculation of the
- 516 implied comparative advantage for each sector (Hausmann, Hidalgo, Stock, & Yildirim,
- 517 2014), and thus identification of the best sectors (the *low hanging fruit* (Hausmann, Hidalgo,
- 518 Bustos, et al., 2014)) for investment and expansion into; further scenario modelling of the
- 519 impact of industries exiting or entering sub national markets; and integration of this sub
- 520 national model into Hausmann and Hidalgo's previous international model (STIC). This
- 521 would allow the use of the base MRIO table to perform structural decomposition analysis to
- 522 enable the tracing of the supply chains of complex products to quantify relationships
- 523 between sub-national and global economies.
- 524

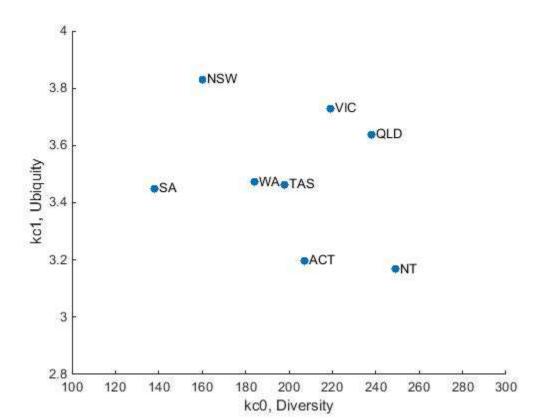
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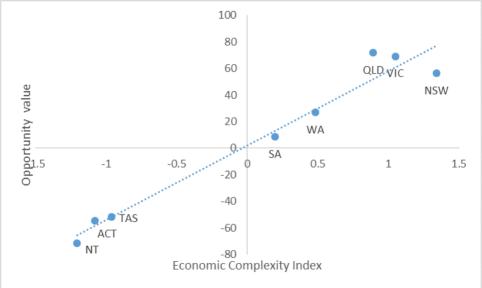
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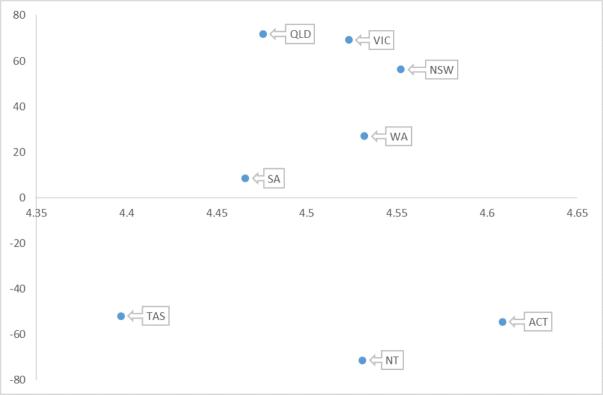
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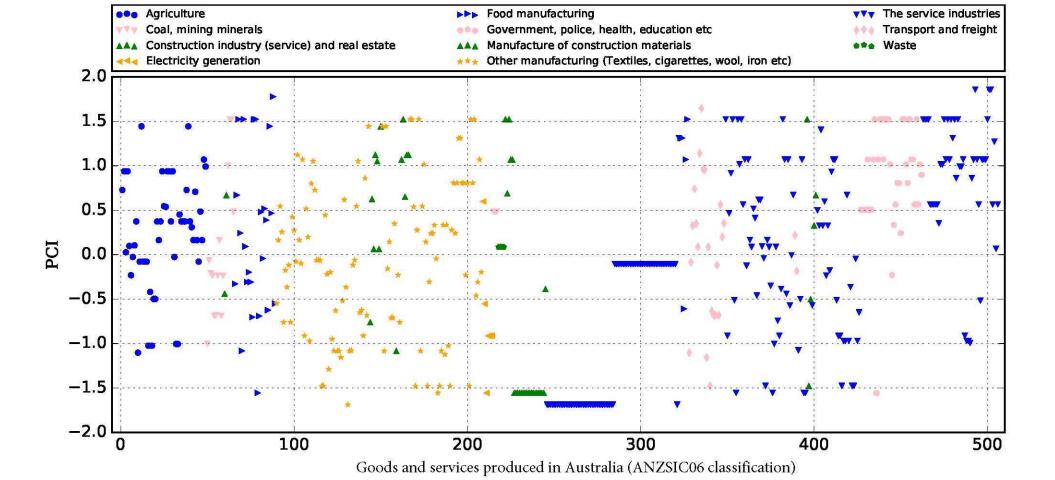


Table 1 The contribution of interstate and international export monetary transactions for each state and territory.Monetary values listed in \$1,000,000 AU

	INTERSTATE	INTERSATE AS % OF TOTAL EXPORTS	ROW	ROW AS % OF TOTAL EXPORTS	ROW+INTERSTATE
NEW SOUTH WALES	45411	56	35283	44	80694
VICTORIA	29585	50	29261	50	58846
QUEENSLAND	22317	48	24201	52	46518
SOUTH AUSTRALIA	12916	46	15139	54	28055
WESTERN AUSTRALIA	16826	15	91771	85	108597
TASMANIA	9800	44	12266	56	22067
AUSTRALIAN CAPITAL TERRITORY	63194	89	8038	11	71232
NORTHERN TERRITORY	69015	77	20102	23	89117
OTHER TERRITORIES	163	3	4718	97	4882
TOTAL	269227	53	240779	47	510006

	% OF ROW	% OF INTERSTATE	% OF TRADE
NEW SOUTH WALES	15	17	16
VICTORIA	12	11	12
QUEENSLAND	10	8	9
SOUTH AUSTRALIA	6	5	6
WESTERN AUSTRALIA	38	6	21
TASMANIA	5	4	4
AUSTRALIAN CAPITAL TERRITORY	3	23	14
NORTHERN TERRITORY	8	26	17
OTHER TERRITORIES	2	0	1
TOTAL	100	100	100

Table 2 The percentage differences between interstate and international (ROW) exports

Table 3 Diversity and Ubiquity scores for Austrialia's states and territories.

kc0 Diversity		kc1 Ubiquity	
NORTHERN TERRITORY	249	OTHER TERRITORIES	4.10
QUEENSLAND	238	NEW SOUTH WALES	3.83
VICTORIA	219	VICTORIA	3.73
AUSTRALIAN CAPITAL TERRITORY	207	QUEENSLAND	3.64
TASMANIA	198	WESTERN AUSTRALIA	3.47
WESTERN AUSTRALIA	184	TASMANIA	3.46
NEW SOUTH WALES	160	SOUTH AUSTRALIA	3.45
SOUTH AUSTRALIA	138	AUSTRALIAN CAPITAL TERRITORY	3.20
OTHER TERRITORIES	30	NORTHERN TERRITORY	3.17

 Table 1 The Economic Complexity Index and Opportunity value for each state and territory, along with the GSP per capita in current price, Source: 5220.02013-14 ABS (Australian Bureau of Statistics 2014)

	GSP per capita,	log10(GSP)	ECI	Opportunity value
	current price (\$), 2009			
NEW SOUTH WALES	35,668	4.55	1.34	56.27
VICTORIA	33,371	4.52	1.05	69.20
QUEENSLAND	29,903	4.48	0.89	71.86
SOUTH AUSTRALIA	29,233	4.47	0.19	8.48
WESTERN AUSTRALIA	34,045	4.53	0.48	26.91
TASMANIA	24,938	4.40	-0.96	-51.94
AUSTRALIAN CAPITAL TERRITORY	40,602	4.61	-1.08	-54.46
NORTHERN TERRITORY	33,959	4.53	-1.21	-71.37
OTHER TERRITORIES	-	-	-0.71	-7.95