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EMPIRICAL TESTS OF ALTERNATIVE
MODELS OF INTERNATIONAL GROWTH

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ABSTRACT

Recent changes in patterns of international trade and growth have rekindled interest in the relationships among trade, growth, and the international distribution of income. Three alternative models can serve as a theoretical foundation for an empirical analysis of these relationships. The first is the standard Heckscher-Ohlin-Samuelson (HO) trade model with equal numbers of factors and goods and incomplete specialization. The second model allows complete specialization and more goods than factors. The third model posits short run capital immobility. Each of these models has quite different implications for the determination of wage levels and growth rates.

The conclusions that we draw from this research are rather mixed. Each of the models perform well on certain criteria and poorly on others. While the standard HO model clearly fails to satisfy certain cross-equation constraints, national endowments are remarkably good predictors of the locus of international production. There are, however, significant nonlinearities in the relationship between factor allocations and national endowments. Such nonlinearities are predicted by the uneven version of the HO model. At odds with both of these models is our finding that lagged values of inputs provide an important explanation of current factor demands. Such correlations are suggested by the adjustment cost model.

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Empirical Tests of Alternative Models of International Growth

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I. Introduction

Recent changes in patterns of international trade and growth have rekindled interest in the relationships among trade, growth, and the international distribution of income. Three alternative models can serve as a theoretical foundation for an empirical analysis of these relationships. The first is the standard Heckscher-Ohlin-Samuelson (HO) trade model with equal numbers of factors and goods and incomplete specialization. The second model allows complete specialization and more goods than factors. The third model posits short run capital immobility. Each of these models has quite different implications for the determination of wage levels and growth rates.

The traditional even (n x n) HO model with incomplete specialization predicts instantaneous factor price equalization and equivalent growth rates of wages across countries. In contrast, altering the standard HO model to permit specialization of production potentially eliminates factor price equalization and allows growth rates of wages to differ, both in the short and the long run. The third model, which assumes short run costs to

adjusting capital intensity, predicts short run differences in the levels and growth rates of factor returns, but long run equalization of these variables.

Because these three models can have very different policy consequences, it is important to make an attempt to determine which is the most accurate approximation of the real world. Unfortunately, many observations can be rationalized within the context of any one of these models, and it is therefore difficult to determine which is the most accurate. Take, for example, the data reported in Table 1 that show vast international differences in wages. If the even HO model is taken as the maintained hypothesis, then these data must be regarded to be wages averaged across skill groups. Wages within a given skill group are regarded to be the same in every country, and a country that has a relatively low reported wage is interpreted only to have a relatively large supply of low skilled workers. As a matter of fact, Krueger (1968) shows that a surprisingly large amount of the differences in gross wage rates can be accounted for by a bit of disaggregation.

On the other hand, if the uneven HO model is taken as a guide, the wage differences in Table 1 are suggestive of countries with factor endowment vectors sufficiently different that they fall in different cones of specialization; in this case the increasing similarity of wages over time is regarded as evidence either of increasing similarity of factor endowments or as evidence of the blurring of the differences among the specialization cones associated, for example, with product price changes. These wage data can also be rationalized within the context of the third model --the even HO model with adjustment

TABLE 1

Ratio of Foreign to U.S. Annual Earnings Per Worker

	<u>1958</u>	<u>1959</u>	<u>1960</u>	<u>1975</u>	<u>1976</u>	<u>1977</u>	<u>1978</u>	<u>1979</u>
<u>Western Europe</u>								
Austria				.63	.59	.65	.74	.78
Denmark				1.01	1.00	1.02	1.12	1.19
Finland	.30	.30	.31	.63	.63	.61	.61	.67
Ireland	.03	.03	.03	.10	.13	.15		
Italy				.51	.45	.49	.54	.61
Spain				.46	.46	.49		
Sweden				.95	.93	.89	.90	.95
U.K.				.51	.44	.45	.51	.61
West Germany				.87	.87	.93	1.34	1.16
<u>Pacific</u>								
Australia	.34	.33	.35	.48	.55	.63	.58	.64
New Zealand	.22	.22	.23	.44	.54			
<u>Asian</u>								
Japan	.13	.14		.54	.61	.19	.87	.87
Korea				.08	.10	.12	.16	.19
<u>South America</u>								
Brazil	.12	.13			.19	.20		
Chile				.14	.17	.20	.21	
Colombia	.13	.13	.14	.11	.11	.17	.20	.16
Dom. Republic	.09	.09	.09	.13	.14	.12	.12	.12
Ecuador			.15	.16	.17	.17		
El Salvador				.13	.14	.13		
<u>Southeast Asia</u>								
Hong Kong					.19	.19	.22	
Indonesia				.04	.04	.05	.05	
Philippines				.07	.06	.07		
Singapore				.23	.21	.21	.22	.24
<u>Mideast</u>								
Afghanistan				.04	.04	.03	.03	.03
India		.06	.06	.06	.05	.05	.05	
Israel	.37	.38	.39	.39	.42	.40	.35	.41
Jordan				.13	.14	.14	.18	.23
Syria				.07	.06	.08		
Turkey	.29	.32	.23	.25	.25	.32	.33	.37

Source: Yearbook of Industrial Statistics and International Financial Statistics

costs. Here the differences in wages are attributed to differences in initial conditions; and the tendency of wages to equalize over time is thought to be a consequence of increased domestic factor mobility over time.

Although the wage data can be rationalized within the framework of any one of these models, each model has very different implications concerning policies to raise wages in low wage countries. In the even HO model the route to increased wages is increased training or, more generally, increased human capital. Physical capital deepening can have no effect on wages of a specific skill group because the accumulation of physical capital leads only to an adjustment of the output mix and no change in capital per man within a given industry. For the uneven model, on the other hand, accumulation of physical capital can move a country from one cone of specialization to another, and can raise wages paid to each of the skill groups. Policies to promote wage increases implied by the third model (the even model with adjustment costs) aim at reducing the effective adjustment costs including policies that alter the path of net foreign investment.

The paper proceeds in the next three sections by briefly describing each of the models, pointing out in the process their different testable implications. Section IV describes the data used to test the three models and some of its main features. Section V presents regressions of value added, factor demands, and factor returns on country specific as well as industry specific inputs. These regressions permit more formal tests of the three models. The final section summarizes the findings and suggests additional areas of research.

The conclusions that we draw from this research are rather mixed. Each of the models perform well on certain criteria and poorly on others. While the standard HO model clearly fails to satisfy certain cross-equation constraints, national endowments are remarkably good predictors of the locus of international production. There are, however, significant nonlinearities in the relationship between factor allocations and national endowments. Such nonlinearities are predicted by the uneven version of the HO model. At odds with both of these models is our finding that lagged values of inputs provide an important explanation of current factor demands. Such correlations are suggested by the adjustment cost model.

The inability to clearly discriminate among the three models leaves open the issue of long as well as short run wage equalization. The partial support for each of the models offered here suggests that an uneven HO model with adjustment costs provides a better basis for discussing international trade than any of the three models on their own.

II. The Even Heckscher-Ohlin-Samuelson General Equilibrium Model

The traditional general equilibrium theory of production describes a country with a fixed endowment of a set of resources, facing commodity prices that are completely determined in international markets. Competition for scarce resources determines their allocation among industries and their rates of remuneration. The notation which we will use to describe this model is the following:

X = vector of outputs of m commodities

V = vector of endowments of n resources

p = vector of prices of m commodities

w = vector of factor rents of n resources

A = $n \times n$ matrix of factor input coefficients with elements equal to the amount of factor k used to produce one unit of commodity j

The factor input matrix, the vector of outputs, and the vector of endowments necessarily satisfy the relationship

$$AX = V. \tag{1}$$

With a suitable list of assumptions, including identical linear homogeneous production functions for all countries, equal numbers of commodities and resources, and incomplete specialization, it can be shown that the matrix A is the same for all countries, and in particular is independent of V . Under these conditions (1) may be inverted to obtain

$$X = A^{-1}V \tag{2}$$

which expresses outputs as linear functions of the endowments, with X and V varying among countries, but A^{-1} constant.

Equation (2) which maps factor endowments into commodities produced, also implicitly allocates the factors among the industries. The amount of factor k used to produce X_j of commodity j is $A_{kj}X_j$ where A_{kj} is the (k, j) element of the input-output matrix. Thus, the allocation of factor k to a particular industry is proportional to output and can be described by an equation which is linear in the factor endowments V . This equation can be estimated by regressing factor allocation data on factor endowment data. To clarify this regression model, consider the system for the simple case of

two factors, labor, L, and capital, K:

$$\begin{aligned}
 X_{ij} &= a^{Lj} L_i + a^{Kj} K_i \\
 L_{ij} &= A_{Lj} X_{ij} = A_{Lj} a^{Lj} L_i + A_{Lj} a^{Kj} K_i \\
 K_{ij} &= A_{Kj} X_{ij} = A_{Kj} a^{Lj} L_i + A_{Kj} a^{Kj} K_i
 \end{aligned} \tag{3}$$

where a^{Lj} and a^{Kj} are elements of A^{-1} and i denotes the country. Because of the constancy across countries of output per man, X_{ij}/L_{ij} , and capital per man, K_{ij}/L_{ij} , in industry j , these three equations are proportional to each other. Linearity and proportionality are two strong implications of the even HO model. In addition, the assumption of costless interindustry factor mobility rules out any influence of past history. However, higher order functions of national endowments, lagged values of national endowments, and lagged values of factor allocations do influence current factor allocations in the uneven HO model and the adjustment cost model in ways described below.

The factor demand system (3) can be transformed into a factor expenditure system by multiplying each factor demand by its rental rate. Multiplying the L_{ij} equation by the wage, w , and the K_{ij} equation by the rental rate, r , on capital gives:

$$\begin{aligned}
 E_{ij} &= wL_{ij} = wA_{Lj} a^{Lj} L_i + wA_{Lj} a^{Kj} K_i \\
 R_{ij} &= rK_{ij} = rA_{Kj} a^{Lj} L_i + rA_{Kj} a^{Kj} K_i
 \end{aligned} \tag{4}$$

where E_{ij} is the labor earnings in country i , industry j , and R_{ij} is the

corresponding payment for capital services. Summing the two equations in (4) yields the following expression for value added in country i , industry j , V_{ij} :

$$V_{ij} = (wA_{Lj} + rA_{Kj}) a^{Lj} L_i + (wA_{Lj} + rA_{Kj}) a^{Kj} K_i \quad (5)$$

The equations in (4) and (5) indicate that factor payments as well as value added are each linear functions of national endowments. In addition, each of the 6 equations in (3), (4), and (5) is proportional to the others.

Estimation of the factor payments and value added relations may be less subject to bias from measurement error than estimation of factor demands. Consider, for example, labor effort, which is ideally measured as total effective hours worked, but in our data is proxied by total employment. Assume that effective hours worked, L_{ij} , and employment, \hat{L}_{ij} , differ by a country specific factor λ_i , i.e., $L_{ij} = \lambda_i \hat{L}_{ij}$, and $L_i = \lambda_i \hat{L}_i$. The term λ_i may reflect cross country differences in hours worked per employee, the intensity of work effort, or the effectiveness of work effort due to training and ability. It is likely that \hat{L}_{ij} and λ_i are positively correlated because larger countries, with several notable exceptions, have higher per capita income; the workers in these countries are typically better educated and better trained. If this description of the relationship between effective hours and employment is correct, the use of \hat{L}_{ij} rather than L_{ij} will introduce complex biases in estimating (3). These biases will contaminate tests of the cross equation restrictions in (3), although the estimated R^2 of the \hat{L}_{ij} regression are likely to remain high if the R^2 from the unbiased

L_{ij} regressions are also large.

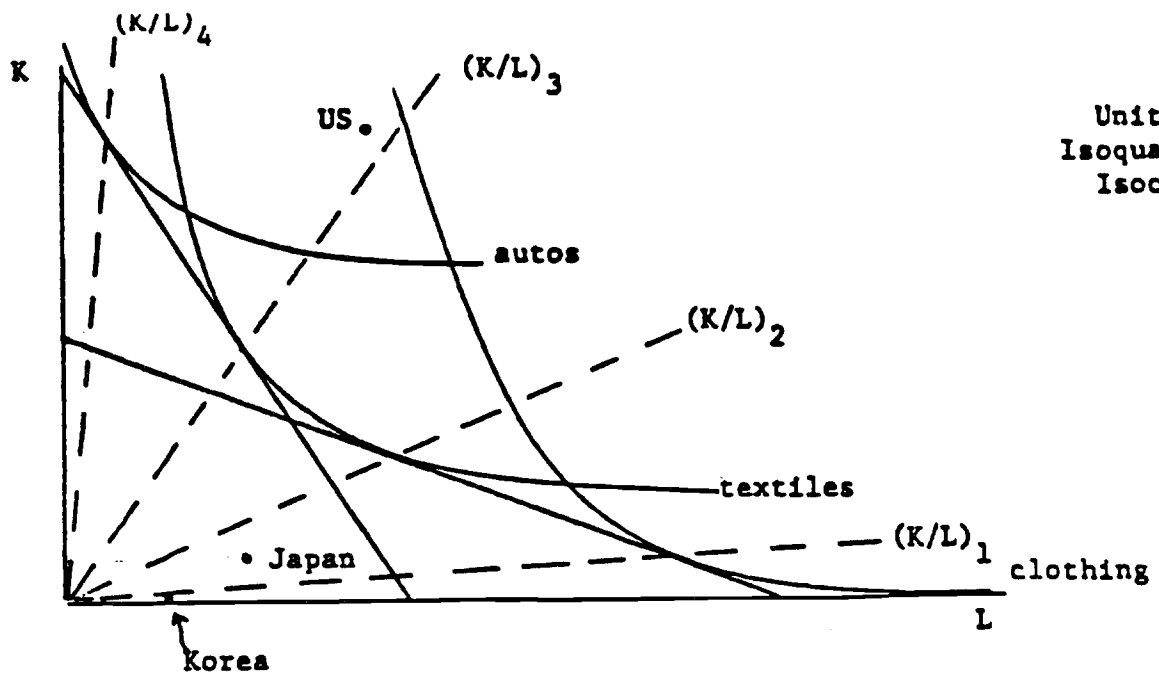
The earnings equation, E_{ij} , in (4) may be less sensitive to this bias. In principle measured E_{ij} equals true E_{ij} , since factor payments to labor are for effective hours worked, rather than payments for simply coming to work. In addition, wL_i in (4) can be replaced by E_i , total national labor earnings, thus eliminating the problem of mismeasuring total national labor input. A straightforward test of the constant proportionality properties of this model that do not involve measurement of the labor input is to determine whether the ratios E_{ij}/K_i , E_{ij}/R_{ij} , and E_{ij}/V_{ij} are roughly constant across all countries i . This is equivalent to asking whether profit rates and factor shares are equal across industry.

III. The Uneven Heckscher-Ohlin General Equilibrium Model

The simplest uneven model has many goods and two factors. A possible equilibrium of such a model has countries with sufficiently different factor supplies producing different subsets of the commodities and having different factor returns. Roughly speaking, the relatively capital abundant countries produce the relatively capital intensive commodities and have the higher wage rates and the lower returns to capital. This is illustrated in Figure 1 where the first panel contains the unit value isoquants and expansion paths of three commodities: automobiles, textiles, and clothing. The second panel illustrates the levels of factor returns as a function of capital per man, and the third panel contains the corresponding outputs per man.

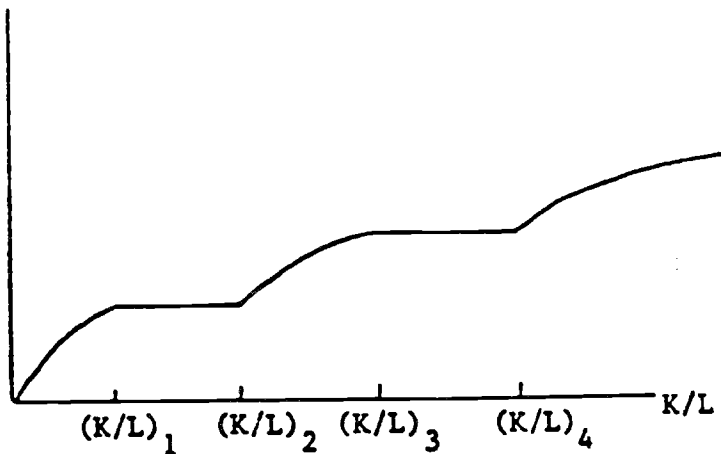
In the first panel, there are two unit isocost lines, each of which

Unit Value Isoquants and Isocosts



Wage rate

Wages



Output/Labor Endowment

Output Values
 — clothing
 - - - textiles
 - . . . automobiles

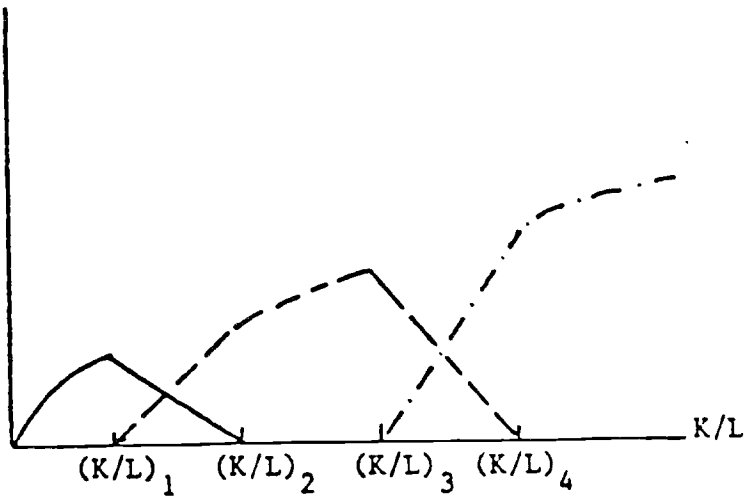


Figure 1 The 3x2 Heckscher-Ohlin-Samuelson Model

is consistent with the production of two of the three commodities. The hypothetical endowments of three countries are also indicated in this figure. The United States, which is capital abundant, has high wage rates and produces the two capital intensive products — autos and textiles. Japan, which is less well endowed in capital relative to labor has lower wage rates and produces the two less capital intensive products — textiles and clothing. Korea, which is still less well endowed in capital, specializes in the least capital intensive product (clothing) and has the very lowest wages. Note that although both the U.S. and Japan are producing textiles, the U.S. uses the more capital intensive technique.

This figure provides a stylized picture of the situation in the 1950s and early 1960s. Figure 2 then represents the current situation and differs from Figure 1 in two ways. First, both Japan and Korea have accumulated capital at a more rapid rate than the United States. Japan has moved into the same cone as the United States. Korea has moved into the cone where both textiles and clothing are produced. The other change that is evident in Figure 2 is that the spread in wages between the two cones of diversification is less than in Figure 1. What accounts for this change is the shifts in the world supply curves induced by the rapid accumulation of capital in Japan and Korea, and the consequent change in the relative prices of the three goods. In Figure 2 it is assumed that the relative supply of textiles increased and clothing decreased, and, consequently, the price of textiles fell, and the price of clothing rose. This change is depicted in Figure 2 by a shift outward of the textile unit value isoquant and a shift inward of the clothing

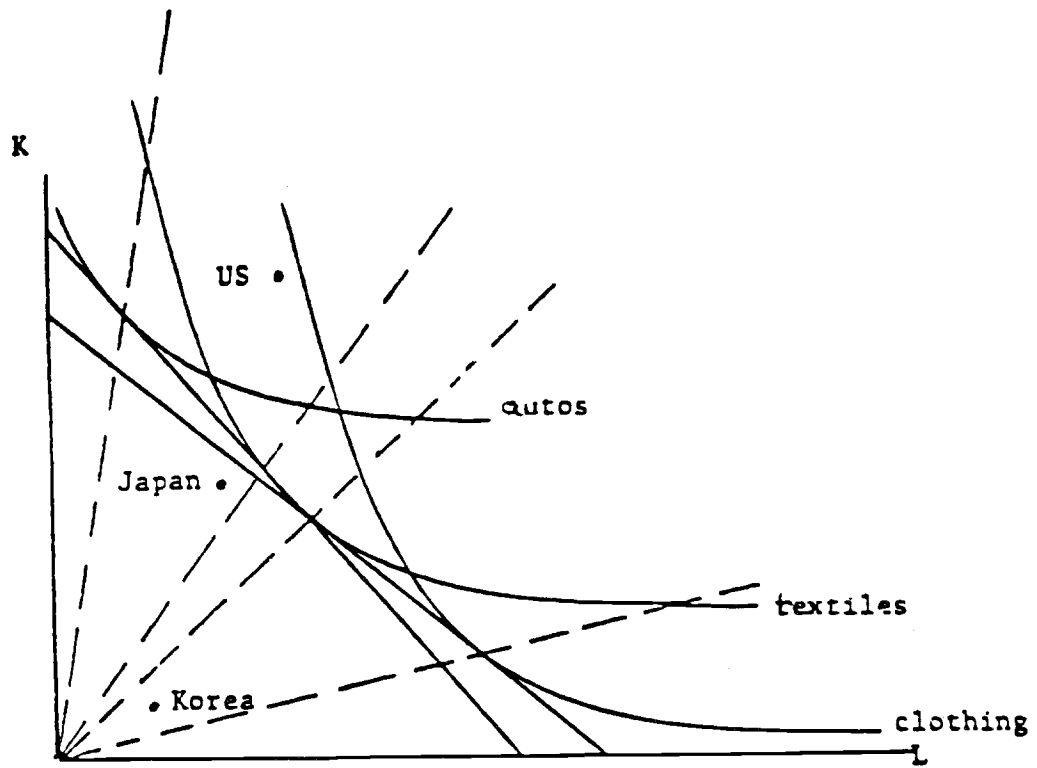


Figure 2 Unit Values Isoquants
and Isocosts after Product Prices Changes

unit value isoquant. This shift is accompanied by (1) a reduction in the wage in the U.S., (2) a shift toward more labor intensive techniques in the U.S. and a reduction in labor productivity, (3) an increase in the Korean wage rate, and (4) a shift toward more capital-intensive techniques in Korea and an attendant increase in labor productivity.

Worldwide accumulation of capital has generally the same effect in the even and the uneven model. Namely, supply curves of the relatively capital intensive commodities shift outward and, as is indicated by the Rybczynski theorem, supply curves of the labor intensive commodities shift inward. This will lead to a fall in the relative price of capital intensive products and a general rise in wage rates. In the uneven model, however, wage rates of the most capital abundant countries will fall if the supply curves of the most capital intensive products shift outward less than the next most capital intensive products. In terms of our stylized diagrams, this occurs if the supply of textiles increases more rapidly than the supply of automobiles.

Evidence in support of the uneven model would be wage, employment, or output data that conformed in a general sense to the second two panels of Figure 1. Namely, wages depend on national endowments, and industry output and employment are nonlinear functions of the national endowments. Since the output and employment functions are linear within cones of diversification a theoretically appealing data analysis would estimate linear models based on different subsets of the countries, possibly selected on the basis of similarity in factor returns.

A word of caution is in order here about aggregation effects. First it may appear that wage rates increase with capital abundance only because earnings include a return to human capital which naturally increases along with physical capital. On the other hand, the output and employment function may exhibit no clear nonlinearities because commodities with very dissimilar factor requirements are combined in a single aggregate. The textiles aggregate, for example, include both capital and labor intensive products. Countries that are capital scarce produce the labor intensive textiles and countries that are capital abundant produce the capital intensive textiles. As a result, there is relatively little variation in output of textiles overall associated with capital accumulation.

IV. A Generalized Heckscher-Ohlin Model of Economic Growth with Adjustment Costs

The key feature that differentiates the adjustment cost model described here from the standard Heckscher-Ohlin model of international trade is the assumption that firms incur costs for altering their level of capital in any finite period of time. The adjustment cost technology we consider expresses adjustment costs as an increasing function of the rate of investment (or disinvestment). Since the rate of investment depends on both the absolute level of the firm's (industry's) existing capital stock as well as the absolute level of new investment, a firm's investment decision today will affect its capital stock tomorrow and, therefore, its marginal adjustment costs tomorrow. This formulation of the problem links the production and investment decisions of the firm at one point in time to these decisions at

other points in time. Rather than equate the marginal product of capital to a common rental rate, as in the standard static trade model, firms in this environment alter their capital stocks over time to maximize the present value of profits where profits are net of adjustment costs. The relative immobility of physical capital does not preclude perfect national and international mobility of financial capital. In addition, the standard trade theory assumption of costless domestic, interindustry labor mobility is maintained.

The assumption that altering levels of industry-specific capital is costly in the short run has several important implications. First, wage rates will differ across countries in the short run despite the fact that countries have identical technologies, are incompletely specialized in production, and financial capital is internationally mobile. The world relative price of the two commodities is not sufficient here to determine wage rates. In the short run marginal revenue products of labor are equated across domestic industries, but marginal revenue products of capital are not. It is the satisfaction of both of these sets of conditions plus the assumption of identical constant returns to scale technologies that leads to factor price equalization. However, both conditions are satisfied in the long run when the economy has converged to a steady state characterized by incomplete specialization. Hence, if the economy converges to such a steady state, wage rates across different countries must converge as well.

A second feature of this model is that positive investment may take place even in those industries exhibiting low marginal revenue products of

capital. The reason is simply that concentrating substantial levels of new investment in any given industry or set of industries within any year entails increasing adjustment costs; this will prove unprofitable relative to investing in low marginal revenue product, but low marginal adjustment cost industries.

Even if disinvestment occurs, the rate of disinvestment will be slow, again because of the assumption of increasing costs to that activity. A consequence of this is that specialization in production will occur gradually if at all.

The supply relationships of this model are derived by noting that firms maximize the present value of profits. In country i , industry j , profits π_{ij} , are given by:

$$\pi_{ij} = \int_0^{\infty} (P_{jt} F(K_{ijt}, L_{ijt}) - w_{it} L_{ijt}) e^{-\int_0^t r_s ds} dt \quad j = 1, 2 \quad (6)$$

In (6) P_{jt} is the period t price of output j , K_{ijt} and L_{ijt} are country i , industry j , year t capital and labor demands, r_s is the interest rate prevailing in period s , $w_{it} L_{ijt}$ equals payments to labor in year t , and I_{ijt} equals country i , industry j 's total investment in year t inclusive of adjustment costs. Letting J_{ijt} stand for the actual installation of new units of capital, we parameterize the investment relationship in (7).

$$I_{ijt} = J_{ijt} + \frac{\gamma}{2} \left(\frac{J_{ijt}}{K_{ijt}} \right) J_{ijt} \quad (7)$$

The second term on the right hand side of (7) reflects the costs of varying the level of industry's capital stock and exhibits increasing marginal costs

to such activity. Ignoring depreciation, the industry increases its net capital stock according to formula (8).

$$\dot{K}_{ijt} = J_{ijt} \quad (8)$$

Maximization of (6) subject to (7) and (8) leads to the following first order conditions:

$$\frac{J_{ijt}}{K_{ijt}} = \frac{q_{ijt}^{-1}}{\gamma}, \quad (9)$$

$$P_{jt}^F L_{ijt} = w_{it} \quad (10)$$

$$P_{jt}^F K_{ijt} = r_t q_{ijt} + \dot{q}_{ijt} \quad (11)$$

where q_{ijt} is the market value of capital relative to its replacement cost in country i , industry j in year t .

In the steady state $\dot{q}_{ijt} = 0$, $q_{ijt} = 1$, and

$$P_{jt}^F K_{ijt} = r. \quad (12)$$

In the steady state equations (10) and (12) provide the standard HO relationship between marginal revenue products and factor prices. These relations hold for $j = 1, 2$ and suffice to determine factor returns, given constant returns to scale in production and output prices. Hence, assuming identical technologies in the foreign country, factor price equalization is satisfied in the long run.

In the short run equations (10) and (11) together determine wage rates given the time path of q_{ijt} , the world interest rate, r_t , and the output

prices P_{it} . Since the q_{ijt} s differ, in the short run, across countries, short run wage rates will also differ across countries.

According to (10) labor demand in the adjustment cost model depends on the fixed amount of capital in place at a point in time as well as the country's wage rate. In contrast to the HO model, the amount of capital in the rest of the economy should have no influence on labor demand. Hence, one test that can potentially discriminate between these models is to determine whether the economy's total capital endowment as opposed to the amount of capital in place in particular industries influences industry-specific labor demand. The economy's wage is another variable, whose inclusion in industry-specific labor demand regression is predicted by the HO model with adjustment costs, but not the non-adjustment cost model.

V. Data Descriptions

Data on number of workers, earnings, value of output, and investment expenditures for twenty eight three digit ISIC industries are compiled by the United Nations and published in the Growth of World Industry. The coverage of years and countries is very haphazard. The end years, 1963 and 1978, and the twenty eight countries listed at the bottom of Table 2 were selected to assure a complete matrix of data. Even for this relatively short list of countries there are very substantial problems caused by the fact that various countries intermittently choose to aggregate two or more of the commodity classes together. In such cases, we split the reported number among the components in proportion to the size of the components in adjacent years. The capital stock in 1978 were estimated from investment flow data beginning

in 1963 using the perpetual inventory method (e.g., Leamer (1984)). Missing intermediate investment data were imputed with straight line interpolation methods. As a consequence of these imputation schemes, we are not altogether comfortable with the econometric analysis that follows, since it inappropriately ignores the possibility of gross or chronic measurement errors in the data.

Features of our data set are reported in Tables 2, 3, 4, and 5. The first four columns of Table 2 contain the total number of workers in each of the industries in each of the years, and the share of these industries' workers in the total world work force included in our data. Over this period of time there was a fifteen percent increase in employment in these industries, but the composition of world employment across industries did not change much. The one major exception to this statement is that employment in textiles dropped substantially, both as a share of total employment and in absolute numbers. Iron and steel experienced less extreme employment declines. On the other side of the ledger, plastics had very substantial growth, as did machinery.

The last six columns of Table 2 contain the shares of the industrial employment located in each of the three regions: the U.S., other developed countries, and the rest of the world. The list of other developed countries includes the eleven countries with the highest overall capital per man, as measured in our resource data set. Generally speaking, the large changes in the distribution of employment across these regions involve shifts in favor of the "rest of the world" and to some extent to the U.S. at the

TABLE 2

Labor Allocation Data
(in thousands)

ISIC	World Totals				Shares of World Totals					
	1963	1978	Shares		U.S.		Develop.		Other	
			1963	1978	'63	'78	'63	'78	'63	'78
311 Food	5372	6261	.094	.094	.27	.21	.47	.42	.26	.36
313 Beverages	878	870	.015	.013	.22	.22	.58	.5	.19	.28
314 Tobacco	461	661	.008	.010	.16	.09	.37	.2	.46	.71
321 Textiles	6512	5918	.114	.089	.16	.18	.47	.31	.37	.51
322 Apparel	2776	3252	.048	.049	.41	.35	.51	.38	.08	.26
323 Leather	388	380	.007	.006	.23	.23	.53	.38	.23	.4
324 Footwear	668	640	.012	.010	.33	.24	.5	.33	.16	.43
331 Wood	1983	2077	.035	.031	.26	.26	.6	.51	.14	.23
332 Furniture	993	1333	.017	.020	.31	.33	.49	.41	.19	.26
341 Paper	1859	1972	.032	.030	.31	.32	.57	.49	.11	.18
342 Printing	2505	2942	.044	.044	.36	.39	.5	.45	.13	.15
351 Ind. Chem.	1585	1771	.028	.027	.27	.27	.56	.49	.16	.24
352 Other Chem.	1564	1815	.027	.027	.29	.25	.51	.47	.19	.27
353 Petro refin.	254	268	.004	.004	.46	.38	.37	.39	.17	.23
354 Petro, coal Prod.	123	155	.002	.002	.28	.3	.53	.36	.2	.34
355 Rubber prod.	891	1003	.016	.015	.28	.26	.54	.43	.18	.31
356 Plastics	642	1521	.011	.023	.26	.32	.61	.5	.13	.18
361 Pottery	450	419	.008	.006	.09	.1	.59	.48	.32	.42
362 Glass	577	641	.010	.010	.25	.29	.49	.38	.26	.33
369 Non-metal Prod.	1640	1960	.029	.029	.23	.21	.53	.43	.24	.35
371 Iron and Steel	3266	3213	.057	.048	.24	.25	.58	.5	.17	.25
372 Non-ferrous Steel	831	935	.014	.014	.3	.31	.58	.51	.12	.18
381 Metal prod.	3925	4750	.068	.071	.31	.31	.56	.5	.13	.19
382 Machinery	5380	6926	.094	.104	.3	.34	.61	.52	.09	.15
383 Electrical Mach.	4813	6124	.084	.092	.3	.31	.62	.53	.07	.16
384 Transport Equip.	5140	6328	.090	.095	.3	.32	.54	.51	.16	.17
385 Professional Goods	946	1409	.016	.021	.38	.42	.54	.43	.08	.15
390 Other	945	1136	.016	.017	.38	.38	.53	.41	.08	.21
Total	57367	66680			.25	.29	.54	.46	.18	.25

Note: Developed countries are Australia, Canada, Denmark, Finland, Germany, Israel, Japan, Netherlands, Norway, Sweden, United Kingdom.
Other countries are Brazil, Chile, Colombia, Cyprus, Ecuador, Greece, India, Ireland, Korea, Malta, Panama, Philippines, Portugal, Singapore, Spain, and Turkey.
The "World" refers to these twenty-seven countries plus the U.S.

expense of the other developed (OECD) countries. There were very substantial increases in the employment share of the "rest of the world" in tobacco, and the more labor intensive products: textiles, apparel, and footwear. The U.S. share generally fell for these industries, though textiles is an interesting exception.

As indicated in Table 3 the industrial distribution of world labor earnings also remained remarkably constant over the 15 year period 1963 through 1978. Though the U.S. share of total employment rose roughly from .25 to .29 (Table 2), the U.S. share of total earnings fell substantially from .60 to .41. In fact, the U.S. share of total world industrial earnings has fallen in every industry which reflects the faster growth rate of wages over the 15 year period in the rest of the world relative to the U.S. Developed countries other than the U.S. account for most of the gain in the non-U.S. world earnings share despite their decline in employment shares documented in Table 2. These data thus conform to the data in Table 1 in the sense of revealing much faster wage growth rate in these countries relative to the U.S. and less developed countries.

The data in Table 4 indicate little change over time in the industrial composition of world output just as the previous tables reveal slight changes in employment and earnings. In food, textiles, and apparel there is more than a 1 percentage point drop over the 14 year period in the share of world output. Industries whose output share rose by over 1 percentage point are industrial chemicals, petroleum refining, plastics, and machinery.

The capital data summarized in Table 5 indicate that there are great

TABLE 3

Labor Earnings Data
(In thousands of dollars)

ISIC	World Totals				Shares of World Totals					
	1963	1978	Shares		U.S.		Develop.		Other	
			1963	1978	'63	'78	'63	'78	'63	'78
311 Food	11972	46258	.077	.070	.62	.37	.32	.55	.05	.08
313 Beverages	2302	9163	.015	.014	.51	.24	.43	.57	.06	.1
314 Tobacco	736	3276	.005	.005	.45	.24	.44	.57	.11	.18
321 Textiles	8916	30795	.057	.047	.45	.34	.42	.5	.12	.16
322 Apparel	5805	18297	.037	.028	.67	.46	.31	.45	.02	.09
323 Leather	785	2369	.005	.004	.51	.33	.42	.51	.07	.16
324 Footwear	1470	3621	.009	.005	.55	.32	.39	.47	.06	.2
331 Wood	4012	17752	.026	.027	.53	.35	.43	.6	.03	.05
332 Furniture	2292	10679	.015	.016	.59	.42	.35	.49	.05	.09
341 Paper	5831	22394	.037	.034	.6	.44	.37	.51	.03	.05
342 Printing	8387	33659	.054	.051	.66	.46	.32	.5	.03	.04
351 Ind. Chem.	5255	24099	.034	.036	.57	.36	.39	.57	.04	.07
352 Other Chem.	5335	19798	.034	.030	.64	.37	.32	.55	.04	.08
353 Petro refin.	1284	4643	.008	.007	.72	.48	.24	.43	.04	.09
354 Petro, coal prod.	367	1625	.002	.002	.57	.47	.37	.44	.06	.09
355 Rubber prod.	2520	9700	.016	.015	.61	.39	.35	.52	.05	.09
356 Plastics	1439	14430	.009	.022	.58	.39	.39	.55	.03	.06
361 Pottery	630	2747	.004	.004	.33	.17	.56	.64	.1	.19
362 Glass	1487	6377	.010	.010	.57	.43	.37	.48	.06	.1
369 Non-metal prod.	3990	17224	.026	.026	.54	.34	.41	.56	.06	.1
371 Iron and steel	10074	39731	.065	.060	.56	.4	.4	.54	.04	.06
372 Non-ferrous metals	3284	11610	.021	.018	.5	.42	.48	.53	.02	.06
381 Metal prod.	11933	50260	.077	.076	.61	.41	.35	.53	.03	.06
382 Machinery	17355	84638	.111	.128	.6	.44	.38	.52	.02	.04
383 Electrical mach.	14596	66770	.094	.101	.62	.39	.36	.56	.02	.05
384 Transport equip.	18231	83787	.117	.127	.63	.45	.34	.5	.03	.05
385 Professional goods	3169	15610	.020	.024	.71	.54	.27	.42	.02	.04
390 Other	2336	9207	.015	.014	.71	.49	.27	.45	.02	.06
Total	1.6e5	6.6e5			.60	.41	.36	.52	.04	.07

Note: Developed countries are Australia, Canada, Denmark, Finland, Germany, Israel, Japan, Netherlands, Norway, Sweden, United Kingdom.
Other countries are Brazil, Chile, Colombia, Cyprus, Ecuador, Greece, India, Ireland, Korea, Malta, Panama, Philippines, Portugal, Singapore, Spain, and Turkey.
The "World" refers to these twenty-seven countries plus the U.S.

TABLE 4

Value of Output
(billions of dollars)

ISIC	World Totals				Shares of World Totals					
	1963	1978	Shares		U.S.		Develop.		Other	
			1963	1978	'63	'78	'63	'78	'63	'78
311 Food	111.6	493.8	.145	.127	.56	.39	.34	.47	.10	.13
313 Beverages	15.44	79.83	.020	.021	.40	.30	.52	.60	.09	.11
314 Tobacco	13.02	41.71	.017	.011	.34	.23	.55	.59	.11	.17
321 Textiles	47.33	167.5	.061	.043	.39	.31	.45	.46	.16	.23
322 Apparel	23.33	76.85	.030	.020	.63	.45	.33	.42	.04	.13
323 Leather	3.756	13.79	.005	.004	.40	.26	.46	.48	.14	.25
324 Footwear	5.129	15.22	.007	.004	.51	.30	.41	.46	.08	.24
331 Wood	17.78	97.44	.023	.025	.46	.36	.48	.57	.05	.07
332 Furniture	8.099	44.17	.010	.011	.57	.39	.36	.50	.07	.11
341 Paper	30.45	133.9	.039	.035	.54	.43	.42	.50	.04	.08
342 Printing	25.92	123.8	.034	.032	.62	.45	.34	.49	.04	.05
351 Ind. Chem.	34.57	207.9	.045	.054	.54	.38	.40	.50	.06	.12
352 Other Chem.	28.79	125.1	.037	.032	.57	.42	.36	.46	.07	.12
353 Petro refin.	26.09	221.0	.034	.057	.63	.44	.31	.43	.05	.13
354 Petro, coal Prod.	3.36	21.68	.004	.006	.45	.33	.47	.49	.08	.18
355 Rubber prod.	11.12	45.33	.014	.012	.54	.37	.36	.47	.11	.16
356 Plastics	6.391	74.91	.008	.019	.50	.36	.48	.56	.05	.08
361 Pottery	1.715	8.123	.002	.002	.29	.17	.59	.61	.12	.22
362 Glass	5.276	26.20	.007	.007	.54	.41	.38	.47	.08	.12
369 Non-metal Prod.	17.41	93.62	.023	.024	.52	.32	.41	.55	.07	.14
371 Iron and Steel	48.01	230.0	.062	.059	.47	.33	.46	.54	.06	.13
372 Non-ferrous Steel	19.32	93.01	.025	.024	.52	.41	.43	.49	.05	.10
381 Metal prod.	46.49	225.9	.060	.058	.58	.41	.38	.51	.04	.09
382 Machinery	60.65	354.2	.079	.091	.57	.43	.40	.51	.02	.06
383 Electrical Mach.	53.41	294.8	.069	.076	.55	.36	.42	.57	.04	.08
384 Transport Equip.	86.77	458.0	.112	.118	.61	.45	.34	.49	.04	.07
385 Professional Goods	10.26	62.28	.013	.016	.69	.55	.28	.41	.03	.04
390 Other	10.05	43.03	.013	.011	.59	.46	.39	.48	.03	.06
Total	771.5	3873.			.54	.40	.39	.50	.06	.10

Note: Developed countries are Australia, Canada, Denmark, Finland, Germany, Israel, Japan, Netherlands, Norway, Sweden, United Kingdom.

Other countries are Brazil, Chile, Colombia, Cyprus, Ecuador, Greece, India, Ireland, Korea, Malta, Panama, Philippines, Portugal, Singapore, Spain, and Turkey.

The "World" refers to these twenty-seven countries plus the U.S.

TABLE 5

Value of Capital, 1978

ISIC	World		Shares			Capital-Labor Ratios			
	Total	Share	U.S.	Dev.	Oth.	World	U.S.	Dev.	Oth.
311 Food	66019	.076	.33	.50	.17	10.54	16.57	12.52	4.98
313 Beverages	21661	.025	.28	.58	.13	24.90	31.69	28.88	11.56
314 Tobacco	10310	.012	.12	.82	.06	15.60	20.80	6.95	1.32
321 Textiles	37292	.043	.29	.42	.29	6.30	10.15	8.54	3.58
322 Apparel	7280	.088	.35	.43	.22	2.24	2.24	2.53	3.24
323 Leather	1540	.002	.24	.43	.32	4.05	4.23	4.59	1.52
324 Footwear	1490	.002	.26	.46	.28	2.33	2.52	3.25	4.90
331 Wood	19496	.023	.38	.50	.12	9.39	13.72	9.22	2.41
332 Furniture	6959	.008	.34	.54	.12	5.22	5.38	6.86	9.68
341 Paper	49099	.057	.41	.51	.07	24.90	31.90	25.86	4.37
342 Printing	24129	.028	.47	.45	.08	8.20	9.88	8.24	22.08
351 Ind. Chem.	97149	.112	.37	.52	.10	54.86	75.17	58.44	6.18
352 Other Chem.	25220	.029	.37	.50	.12	13.90	20.57	14.84	60.25
353 Petro refin.	33763	.039	.43	.46	.11	125.98	142.56	148.59	15.62
354 Petro, coal prod.	6381	.007	.17	.71	.13	41.17	23.33	81.19	5.42
355 Rubber prod.	11859	.014	.37	.48	.14	11.82	16.83	13.20	5.42
356 Plastics	17577	.020	.40	.48	.12	11.56	14.48	11.09	7.90
361 Pottery	2802	.003	.12	.56	.31	6.69	8.16	7.80	4.97
362 Glass	9875	.011	.37	.51	.12	15.41	19.66	20.68	5.70
369 Non-metal prod.	40344	.047	.23	.63	.14	20.58	22.54	30.16	8.23
371 Iron and Steel	83022	.096	.27	.63	.10	25.84	27.91	32.56	9.82
372 Non-fer. metals	24023	.028	.34	.54	.13	25.69	28.18	27.20	17.84
381 Metal prod.	39886	.046	.40	.50	.10	8.40	10.86	8.38	4.46
382 Machinery	71347	.083	.40	.51	.09	10.30	12.00	10.10	6.18
383 Electrical mach.	56765	.083	.36	.54	.10	9.26	10.73	9.44	5.62
384 Transport equip.	80913	.094	.36	.55	.09	12.79	14.34	13.79	6.84
385 Prof. goods	11847	.014	.53	.36	.12	8.41	10.53	6.96	6.50
390 Other	6763	.008	.45	.42	.13	5.95	7.10	6.05	3.63
Total			.35	.53	.12	12.97	15.89	14.99	5.98

Note: Developed countries are Australia, Canada, Denmark, Finland, Germany, Israel, Japan, Netherlands, Norway, Sweden, United Kingdom. Other countries are Brazil, Chile, Columbia, Cyprus, Ecuador, Greece, India, Ireland, Korea, Malta, Panama, Philippines, Portugal, Singapore, Spain and Turkey. The "World" refers to these twenty-seven countries plus the U.S.

differences in the capital intensity of production in the three regions data, both overall and at the industry level. These suggest that in a few industries current U.S. production techniques may be less capital intensive than those in the other developed countries (tobacco, furniture, petroleum refining, petroleum and coal production, non-metal manufactured products, and iron and steel). While the high rates of investment in many of the countries in the developed country aggregate is well documented, it is surprising that the U.S. advantage in capital per worker may have been eroded in many industries as early as 1978. There are, on the other hand, 12 industries out of the 28 for which measured 1978 U.S. capital intensity is more than one third larger than that in the other developed industries. These industries are food, textiles, wood, printing, industrial chemicals, other chemicals, rubber products, plastics, metal products, machinery, professional goods, and other industries. These capital intensity figures must be viewed with great skepticism because of the unknown quality of the available investment data and its intermittent nature, and also because of the capital depreciation method which is used. In particular: (1) investment occurring before 1963 does not contribute to the measured 1978 capital stock, (2) the depreciation rate is taken to be the same in all countries, (3) nominal exchange rates are used to convert foreign investment expenditures into dollar units.

With these caveats in mind it is interesting to note that the measured share of output in the U.S. (Table 14) exceeds the measured share of both capital and labor. One may suspect that the proper inclusion of pre-1963 investment would raise the U.S. share considerably.

TABLE 6

Correlations of Capital Per Worker in the Country
with Industrial Characteristics, 1978

ISIC	Capital Per Man	Value added Per Man	Earn 1 Per Man
311 Food	.65	.84	.91
313 Beverages	.80	.72	.89
314 Tobacco	.38	.49	.85
321 Textiles	.55	.85	.92
322 Apparel	.67	.79	.92
323 Leather	.44	.79	.92
324 Footwear	.65	.82	.91
331 Wood	.74	.90	.92
332 Furniture	.80	.89	.94
341 Paper	.66	.80	.89
342 Printing	.61	.85	.89
351 Ind. Chem.	.70	.69	.88
352 Other Chem.	.44	.67	.91
353 Petro refin.	.54	.51	.66
354 Petro, coal Prod.	.62	.51	.52
355 Rubber prod.	.69	.47	.89
356 Plastics	.66	.77	.93
361 Pottery	-.04	.83	.92
362 Glass	.57	.84	.89
369 Non-metal Prod.	.39	.87	.90
371 Iron and Steel	.60	.53	.84
372 Non-ferrous Steel	-.05	.66	.87
381 Metal prod.	.75	.81	.90
382 Machinery	.73	.83	.92
383 Electrical Mach.	.79	.79	.90
384 Transport Equip.	.63	.59	.87
385 Professional Goods	.48	.82	.92
390 Other	.70	.83	.89

The similarities in relative capital intensities by industry among the three country groups is remarkably high, particularly given the great differences in these numbers across country groups. For each region, petroleum refining, beverages, petroleum and coal products, and industrial chemicals rank among the top industries in terms of capital intensity. The correlation coefficients between industrial capital intensities are .89 for the U.S. and the other developed countries, .96 for the U.S. and the less developed countries, and .87 for the other developed and the less developed countries. There are also several anomalies. Tobacco has a quite high ratio of capital to labor in the U.S. and a quite low ratio in the less developed country group. A second example is the apparel industry; while the U.S. capital labor ratio is 2.6 times that of the less developed countries, it is only .2 times greater in apparel.

Assuming Table 5's capital intensity figures are fairly accurate measures, the table provides strong evidence against the even HO model. The similarity in relative capital intensities across industries suggests, however, that systematic measurement error, in particular in the measurement of human capital, could account for much of the disparity between the services. Similar evidence casting doubt on the even HO model appears in Table 6, which presents correlation coefficients between each country's capital per worker and its industry-specific capital per man, value added per man, and earnings per man. While the even HO model predicts zero correlation coefficients between these variables, 75 of the 84 coefficients exceed .5 and 33 exceed .8.

VI. Regression Analysis

Table 7 reports industry-specific cross country results using 1978 data for four of the equations described in (3), (4) and (5). The four dependent variables are the industrial employment of capital and labor, factor payments to labor, and output. The explanatory variables are country endowments of capital, high, medium, and low skilled labor (Labor 1, Labor 2, and Labor 3, respectively), and land. Leamer (1983) describes the construction of these variables. National endowments are strikingly significant explanatory variables in each of the four regressions for each of the 28 industries. All but 2 of the 112 R^2 equal or exceed .8; 87 equal or exceed .95. The large R^2 s may, however, simply reflect scale effects. Table 8 presents these R^2 s as well as R^2 s adjusted for scale effects. The adjusted R^2 s computed here are one minus the ratio of the error sum of squares of the Table 7 regression to the error sum of squares resulting from regressions including only national capital endowment as an explanatory variable. Hence the adjusted R^2 s represent the fraction of the variance of the dependent variable explained by national endowments after controlling for scale effects. These scale adjusted R^2 s are also quite large; 81 of these 112 R^2 s equal or exceed .5, and 94 exceed .4.

The coefficients in the rows labelled Capital, Labor 1, Labor 2, Labor 3, and Land indicate the impact on the various depend variables of raising these national endowments by specific amounts. As described above the even HO model predicts that the coefficients of each of the four regressions of Table 7 have the same sign. In addition the ratio of any two coefficients

TABLE 7

Regressions on Five Endowments, 1978

ISIC	Capital		Labor		Earnings		Output	
	Coef.	t-val	Coef.	t-val	Coef.	t-val	Coef.	t-val
311 Food								
CAPITAL	1.95	2.4	.02	.2	3.7	6.6	20.68	3.8
LABOR1	1146.7	7.1	-4.4	-.2	835	7.8	11166.	10.4
LABOR2	-13.51	-.5	15.9	4.7	-54	-2-7324.9	-1.7	
LABOR3	-5.25	-5.3	-1.5	-1.3	-21	-3.1	-389.7	-5.9
LAND	1.15	2.6	.022	.4	.3	.7	4.01	1.4
313 Beverages								
CAPITAL	.666	.8	-.03	-1	.6	2.1	5.02	2.3
LABOR1	509.67	2.9	8.6	1.6	231	4.2	438.5	1
LABOR2	-23.43	-.7	1.8	2	-19	-1.9	100.15	1.3
LABOR3	-16.32	-1.5	-1.07	-3.4	-3.5	-1.1	-62.9	-2.4
LAND	-.427	-.9	-.01	-.9	-.1	-.7	-2.2	-2
314 Tobacco								
CAPITAL	4.1	5.7	-.008	-.7	.4	3.7	1.18	.74
LABOR1	-1241.	-9	2.14	.9	-35	-1.9	-26.26	-.1
LABOR2	108.6	4.4	.669	1.6	5.6	1.6	116.5	2.1
LABOR3	14.7	1.7	1.52	11	-.3	-.3	-40.3	-2.1
LAND	-.283	-.7	-.011	-1.8	0	-1.2	-1.7	2
321 Textiles								
CAPITAL	-.101	-.1	-.121	-1.5	2.4	7.9	11.13	5.6
LABOR1	214.9	1.4	-27.7	-1.7	184	3.1	-867.4	-2.2
LABOR2	92	3.4	21.2	7.2	24	2.2	427.3	6.1
LABOR3	-44.98	-4.9	.876	.9	-14	-3.9	-87.3	-3.7
LAND	-.228	-.6	-.08	-1.8	-.5	-3.2	-.4	-.3
322 Apparel								
CAPITAL	-.099	-.6	-.187	-4.1	.7	2	1.237	.9
LABOR1	171.8	5.1	55.7	6.2	636	10	2377.4	8.6
LABOR2	2.94	.5	8.99	5.6	-30	-2.5	-51.6	-1
LABOR3	-9.67	-4.7	-6.1	-11.	-19	-4.7	-94.5	-5.6
LAND	.036	.4	.006	.3	0	.1	.739	1
323 Leather								
CAPITAL	-.075	-1.2	-.025	-2.3	.12	2	.3507	1
LABOR1	23.7	2	1.3	.6	37	3.2	3.782	.1
LABOR2	2.59	1.2	1.51	4	0	0	35.19	3
LABOR3	-2.14	2.9	-.54	-4.2	-1.8	-2.5	-12.36	-3
LAND	.019	.6	5.5	.1	-.04	-1.3	-.154	-.8
324 Footwear								
CAPITAL	-.028	-.4	-.085	-3.4	-.08	-.6	-.187	-.4
LABOR1	33.15	2.5	9.2	1.8	106	-4.1	238.5	2.3
LABOR2	-.193	-.1	2.5	2.8	-1.3	-.3	17.69	.9
LABOR3	-1.6	-2	-1.37	-4.5	-4.7	-2.9	-19.05	-3
LAND	.004	.1	.025	1.8	-.006	-.1	.19	.7

TABLE 7 (Cont.)

ISIC	Capital		Labor		Earnings		Output	
	Coef.	t-val	Coef.	t-val	Coef.	t-val	Coef.	t-val
331 Wood								
CAPITAL	.808	1.5	.137	4.6	2.8	9.2	13.27	9.1
LABOR1	530.8	5.1	-28.4	-4.8	84	1.5	-32.06	-.1
LABOR2	-38.7	-2.1	6.4	6.1	-26	-2.5	1.15	0
LABOR3	-12.5	-1.9	-1.13	-3.1	4	1.2	8.52	-.5
LAND	.808	2.8	.055	3.4	.4	2.3	1.49	1.9
332 Furniture								
CAPITAL	.408	1.6	-.048	-1.5	.5	2.6	2.65	4.8
LABOR1	187.1	3.7	19.4	3	330	10	801.6	7.4
LABOR2	-14.9	-1.7	2.99	2.5	-16	-2.8	-12.95	-.7
LABOR3	-3.5	-1.1	-2.18	-5.4	-10	-4.7	-35.73	-5.4
LAND	-.016	-.1	.022	1.2	-.04	-.4	.163	.5
341 Paper								
CAPITAL	2.95	1.7	.012	.5	1.3	2.9	8.26	2.9
LABOR1	1398.7	4.1	36.5	6.1	762	8.7	3059.3	5.5
LABOR2	-110.6	-1.8	.873	.8	-58	-3.6	-126.8	-1.3
LABOR3	-27.9	-1.3	-1.74	-4.8	-15	-2.7	-101.0	-3
LAND	1.55	1.7	.007	.4	.3	1.3	1.67	1.1
342 Printing								
CAPITAL	.445	1.1	-.0004	0	2	3	8.22	2.8
LABOR1	947	11.5	73.57	7.4	987	7.7	2619	4.5
LABOR2	-44.2	-3	.933	0	-47	-2	-37.37	-.4
LABOR3	-28.2	-5.6	-3.34	-5.5	-29	-3.7	-111.8	-3.2
LAND	-.06	-.3	-.014	-.5	-.2	-.6	-.632	-.4
351 Ind. Chem.								
CAPITAL	5.59	4.2	-.0299	-.5	2.2	2.4	10.35	2.8
LABOR1	2238.1	8.6	29.87	2.7	636	3.5	3818.5	5.3
LABOR2	-104.4	-2.2	2.19	1.1	-58	-1.7	16.5	.1
LABOR3	-66	-4.1	-1.72	-2.5	-7	-.6	-176.1	-.4
LAND	.086	-.1	-.035	-1.1	-.8	-1.6	-1.84	-.9
352 Other Chem.								
CAPITAL	1.25	4.8	.036	.6	2	2.8	5.92	3
LABOR1	571.2	11.2	30.7	2.8	519	3.7	2335.2	6
LABOR2	-18.4	-2	-.148	-.1	-55	-2.2	34.47	.5
LABOR3	-19.5	-6.3	-.42	-.6	-2.9	-.3	-108.8	-4.6
LAND	-.417	-3	-.045	-1.5	-.4	-1.2	-.778	-.7
353 Petro. Refin.								
CAPITAL	2.2	3.3	-.003	-.5	.22	1.6	7.7	1.6
LABOR1	869.6	6.7	6.96	7.2	190	7.1	6570.7	6.8
LABOR2	-53.8	-2.3	-.054	-.3	-14	-3	-244.1	-1.4
LABOR3	-22.5	-2.8	-.302	-5.1	-3.5	-2.1	-211.6	-3.6
LAND	.66	1.9	.01	3.9	.1	1.5	.243	.1

TABLE 7 (Cont.)

ISIC	Capital		Labor		Earnings		Output	
	Coef.	t-val	Coef.	t-val	Coef.	t-val	Coef.	t-val
354 Petro, Coal Prod.								
CAPITAL	.593	1.5	-.009	-2.8	0	.1	1.58	3.8
LABOR1	-.64	-.8	3.22	4.9	72	11.8	-.953	0
LABOR2	11.1	.8	.293	2.5	-3.1	-2.8	38.74	2.7
LABOR3	.064	0	-.162	-4	-2	-5.5	-12.37	-2.5
LAND	-.326	-1.5	-.002	-1	-.04	-2.2	-.22	-1
355 Rubber Prod.								
CAPITAL	.487	2.9	-.05	-1.9	.5	3.6	1.85	4
LABOR1	207.8	6.3	8.5	1.6	249	8.7	633.2	7
LABOR2	2.4	.4	3.32	3.5	-11	-2.1	33.33	2
LABOR3	-11.1	-5.6	-1.4	-4.4	-8	-4.2	-40.31	-7.1
LAND	.0005	0	-.019	-1.4	-.1	-2.3	-.033	-.1
356 Plastics								
CAPITAL	1.27	5.1	.093	5.1	2	9.4	12.17	20.3
LABOR1	280.2	5.7	2.297	.6	154	3.8	-696.5	-5.9
LABOR2	-3.62	-.4	2.71	4.2	-17	-2.3	84.93	4
LABOR3	-12.8	-4.2	-1.19	-5.4	-1	-5	-4.4	-6
LAND	-.04	-.3	-.008	-.8	-.2	-2	-.99	-3
361 Pottery								
CAPITAL	.084	.5	-.013	-.6	3	2	.775	2.3
LABOR1	-26.9	-.9	-9.91	-2.2	-49	-1.9	-237.7	-3.6
LABOR2	6.9	1.2	2.74	3.4	8.4	1.8	38.9	3.3
LABOR3	-1.8	-.9	-.511	-1.9	-1	-.7	-4.23	-1.1
LAND	-.01	-.1	-.009	-.8	-.1	-2.1	-.29	-1.7
362 Glass								
CAPITAL	.44	1.9	-.0129	-1.9	2.8	2	1.44	4.6
LABOR1	238.6	5.1	11.3	3.7	230	8.5	531.6	8.6
LABOR2	-10.6	-1.3	1.11	2	-13	-2.8	-4.3	-.4
LABOR3	-7.7	-2.7	-731	-3.9	-5.5	-3.2	-23.3	-6.1
LAND	-.01	-.1	.003	.4	-.1	-1.6	-.183	-1.1
369 Non-metal prod.								
CAPITAL	3.7	1.3	.05	1.3	2.1	11.8	11.07	12.7
LABOR1	308	.5	-23.6	-3.1	87	2.6	-872.4	-5.1
LABOR2	-52.7	-.5	7.24	5.3	-5.8	-.9	171.2	5.6
LABOR3	2.2	.1	-.837	-1.8	-3	-1.3	-27.35	-2.6
LAND	-.25	-.2	.026	1.2	-.2	-1.7	.017	0
371 Iron and steel								
CAPITAL	13.9	7	.114	1.1	4.1	4	31.28	11.8
LABOR1	-2253	-5.8	34.98	1.8	933	4.8	-2828	-5.4
LABOR2	254.4	3.7	1.485	.4	-80	-2.3	472.12	5
LABOR3	3.76	.2	-.31	-.3	-12	-.99	-38.1	-1.2
LAND	-.45	-.4	-.053	-.9	-.8	-1.4	-2.54	-1.8

TABLE 7 (Cont.)

ISIC	Capital		Labor		Earnings		Output	
	Coef.	t-val	Coef.	t-val	Coef.	t-val	Coef.	t-val
372 Non-ferrous met.								
CAPITAL	2.45	8.7	.022	1.3	1	6.5	6.898	6.7
LABOR1	29.7	.5	13.67	4.2	291	9.8	1428	7.1
LABOR2	7.2	.7	.52	.9	-23	-4.2	-16.11	-.4
LABOR3	-7.06	-2.1	-.726	-3.6	-6	-3.0	-64.1	-5.2
LAND	.932	6.1	.004	.5	.07	.9	1.36	2.4
381 Metal prod.								
CAPITAL	2.2	5.8	.051	.6	3.7	6.3	16.75	13.2
LABOR1	959.4	12.8	62.4	3.9	1299	11.6	3632	14.5
LABOR2	-42.3	-3.1	6.36	2.2	-81	-4	29.45	-.7
LABOR3	-31.04	-6.8	-4.93	-5	-31	-4.5	-166.4	-11
LAND	.032	.2	-.053	-1.2	-.7	-2.3	-.75	-1.1
382 Machinery								
CAPITAL	4.9	2.6	.172	1.1	7.6	3.7	29.54	6.3
LABOR1	1701.5	4.6	138.5	4.3	2611	6.7	7688	8.3
LABOR2	-82.3	-1.2	1.67	.3	-206	-2.9	-302.1	-1.8
LABOR3	-48.98	-2.1	-5.89	-3	-43	-1.7	-236.1	-4.2
LAND	-1.26	-1.2	-.129	-1.5	-2	-1.9	-6.14	-2.4
383 Electrical mach.								
CAPITAL	5.73	4.9	.333	2.7	8.1	5.3	42.95	13.3
LABOR1	579.2	2.5	35.94	1.5	1252	4.3	-1342	-2.1
LABOR2	-12.5	-.3	8.72	2	-120	-2.2	271	2.4
LABOR3	-26.3	-1.8	-6.43	-3.7	-70	-4	-305.9	-4.4
LAND	-.533	-.8	-.144	-1.8	-1.5	-2	1	.3
384 Transport equip.								
CAPITAL	8.9	7.4	-.035	-.2	4.4	3	39.81	7
LABOR1	363.5	1.5	155.05	5.4	3240	11.7	8880	7.9
LABOR2	26.6	.6	1.39	.3	-215	-4.2	-316.3	-1.6
LABOR3	-26.3	-1.8	-6.43	-3.7	-70	-4	-305.9	-4.4
LAND	-.533	-.8	-.144	-1.8	-1.5	-2	1	.3
385 Professional goods								
CAPITAL	-.15	-.5	-.027	-1.2	.5	1.25	2.71	1.7
LABOR1	491.5	7.7	39.88	8.7	739	10.6	2412	7.9
LABOR2	-8.88	-.8	1.17	1.4	-38	-3	-91.2	-1.7
LABOR3	-19.8	-5.1	-2.218	-7.9	-19	-4.4	-76.8	-4.1
LAND	.117	.7	-.01	-.8	-.2	-1.2	-.85	-1
390 Other								
CAPITAL	.008	.1	-.018	-.7	.6	2.5	3.3	2.8
LABOR1	1620.8	5.6	8.18	1.6	204	4.4	498.9	2.2
LABOR2	6.11	1.2	3.97	4.3	-.9	-.1	48.42	1.2
LABOR3	-10.4	-5.8	-1.87	-6	-9.6	-3.3	-42.95	-3
LAND	.13	1.6	.007	.5	0	-.03	-.3	-.5

in any of the four industry regressions should equal the ratios of the corresponding coefficients of the same exogenous variables in each of the other three industry regressions. These predictions of the even H0 model are sustained by many of the findings in Table 7. Consider, for example, the 28 pairs of capital and labor demand regressions. Of the 140 (28 x 5) pairs of coefficients, only 42 pairs are opposite in sign, and only 14 of these pairs of coefficients that violate the prediction about equal sign have corresponding pairs of t values that are each greater than one in absolute value. In addition there are seven industries, non-ferrous metals, food, beverages, tobacco, apparel, leather, and other chemicals in which each of the pairs of capital and labor coefficients agree in sign. Note that the probability of 5 equal sign coefficient pairs is 1/32 assuming an equal independent probability of each coefficient being positive or negative. In this case, the expected number of regressions with identical coefficient pairs in 28 trials is .875, well below the 7 actually observed.

The regressions of factor payments and output are potentially less plagued by systematic measurement error. Of the 140 pairs of coefficients in these two regressions only 25 exhibit opposite signs, and only 13 of these coefficient pairs have t values greater than one. 13 of the 28 pairs of earnings and output regressions have pairs of coefficients each of which agree in sign.

As indicated, tests of proportionality of the four regressions may fail due to mismeasurement of both the endogenous and right hand side variables. The nature of this mismeasure is, however, likely to be roughly

TABLE 8

R-Squared Values
Regressions on Five Endowments, 1978

ISIC	Including Scale Effects				Excluding Scale Effects			
	Out.	Lab.	Cap.	Wage	Out.	Lab.	Cap.	Wage
311 Food	.99	.97	.99	.99	.88	.89	.83	.78
313 Beverages	.95	.88	.87	.93	.24	.38	.30	.46
314 Tobacco	.88	.99	.90	.93	.26	.99	.82	.25
321 Textiles	.99	.98	.96	.99	.73	.97	.56	.63
322 Apparel	.98	.98	.96	.99	.84	.89	.71	.86
323 Leather	.95	.90	.82	.96	.36	.63	.40	.41
324 Footwear	.90	.83	.80	.90	.44	.64	.33	.54
331 Wood	.99	.98	.95	.98	.10	.68	.70	.41
332 Furniture	.99	.95	.91	.99	.80	.68	.42	.85
341 Paper	.98	.98	.93	.98	.68	.78	.56	.82
342 Printing	.98	.98	.99	.98	.57	.82	.89	.77
351 Ind. Chem.	.98	.91	.99	.92	.65	.48	.81	.37
352 Other Chem.	.99	.90	.99	.99	.74	.54	.87	.39
353 Petro refin.	.98	.98	.98	.99	.74	.86	.76	.76
354 Petro, coal Prod.	.98	.96	.68	.98	.31	.85	.17	.88
355 Rubber prod.	.99	.93	.99	.99	.83	.62	.76	.80
356 Plastics	.99	.99	.99	.99	.74	.54	.69	.45
361 Pottery	.86	.62	.55	.81	.50	.38	.07	.36
362 Glass	.99	.94	.96	.98	.83	.72	.60	.79
369 Non-metal Prod.	.99	.95	.56	.99	.58	.75	.01	.33
371 Iron and Steel	.99	.91	.97	.97	.64	.55	.63	.52
372 Non-ferrous Steel	.99	.97	.99	.99	.82	.65	.68	.85
381 Metal prod.	.99	.98	.99	.99	.94	.66	.91	.87
382 Machinery	.99	.96	.97	.98	.78	.58	.51	.68
383 Electrical Mach.	.99	.97	.98	.98	.47	.40	.26	.48
384 Transport Equip.	.99	.96	.99	.99	.80	.68	.09	.87
385 Professional Goods	.98	.99	.97	.98	.78	.87	.81	.86
390 Other	.97	.97	.98	.98	.37	.69	.79	.59

constant in the two sets of results; the method of estimating industry-specific capital stocks as well as national endowments is quite similar for the two periods. As a consequence, differences in estimated coefficients across the two periods may provide more reliable evidence of changes in underlying production technologies and/or world relative commodity prices, either of which would alter the coefficients in (3), (4) or (5). Table 9 presents labor input and earnings regressions using 1963 data. A comparison of the estimated coefficients of this table with those for the corresponding 1978 regressions suggests substantial changes in technologies or relative prices across the two periods.

While the regression findings of Tables 7 through 9 are broadly supportive of the even HO model, tests to distinguish between the even and uneven HO model provide strong support for the uneven version. The uneven HO model suggests factor price equalization among countries with similar relative factor endowments. This implies that subgroups of countries with similar relative endowments will satisfy equation (3), (4), and (5) for a given set of coefficients. As one shifts from one subgroup to another, however, the predicted coefficients will change.

Table 10 reports tests of structural differences in coefficients in the factor demands, output, and earnings regressions, where the sample of countries was split between the 15 countries with the largest and the 12 with the smallest 1978 capital-labor ratios. The table provides both F statistics testing for structural differences as well as the posterior probabilities of structural breaks. The posterior probability is calculated using a prior

TABLE 9

Regressions on Five Endowments, 1963

ISIC	Labor		Earnings	
	Coef.	t-val	Coef.	t-val
311 Food				
CAPITAL	-2.7	-3.1	1.3	.6
LABOR1	257.1	3.3	199	1.2
LABOR2	12.6	4.6	-5.3	-1.1
LABOR3	-6.6	-5.9	-3	-1.2
LAND	.07	1.9	0	1.3
313 Beverages				
CAPITAL	-1	-3.5	0	-.1
LABOR1	85.6	3.3	889	1.3
LABOR2	1.5	1.7	-1.8	-1
LABOR3	-2.5	-6.7	-1.7	-1.7
LAND	0	.3	0	-.2
314 Tobacco				
CAPITAL	-.2	-1.8	.6	1
LABOR1	21.2	2.1	-41	-1
LABOR2	.4	1.1	1.7	1.4
LABOR3	.17	1.1	.5	.7
LAND	0	-.8	0	-.2
321 Textiles				
CAPITAL	-3.9	-3.4	11.6	10.1
LABOR1	175.9	1.7	-245	-3.1
LABOR2	31	8.7	4	1.8
LABOR3	-5.5	-3.8	5.8	4.9
LAND	0	.1	0	-6.2
322 Apparel				
CAPITAL	-1.8	-3.3	.5	.7
LABOR1	290	5.9	82.1	1.5
LABOR2	-4.6	-2.7	-2.4	-1.6
LABOR3	-5.5	-7.8	-1.4	-1.7
LAND	0	-.3	0	-1.8
323 Leather				
CAPITAL	-.3	-1.7	.64	3.8
LABOR1	30.4	1.9	8.1	.7
LABOR2	.3	.5	-.5	-1.4
LABOR3	-.7	-2.9	-.1	-.8
LAND	0	.2	0	-3.8
324 Footwear				
CAPITAL	-.8	-3	1.1	3.6
LABOR1	100	4.2	32	1.4
LABOR2	-2.4	-2.9	-1.2	-2
LABOR3	-1.5	-4.5	-.6	-1.8
LAND	0	.1	0	-6.5

TABLE 9(Cont.)

ISIC	Labor		Earnings	
	Coef.	t-val	Coef.	t-val
331 Wood				
CAPITAL	1.5	2	.3	.9
LABOR1	-183	-2.8	44.6	1.8
LABOR2	19	8.3	-.3	-.5
LABOR3	-2	-2.2	-1.1	-2.9
LAND	0	.6	0	1.2
332 Furniture				
CAPITAL	-.5	-2.1	2.3	4.5
LABOR1	59.2	2.7	17.3	.5
LABOR2	1.7	2.2	-1.1	-1.1
LABOR3	-1.9	-5.9	-.5	.8
LAND	0	.9	0	-6.6
341 Paper				
CAPITAL	-1	-2.6	1.8	5.9
LABOR1	114.1	3.3	-10.2	-.5
LABOR2	3.2	2.6	0	-.1
LABOR3	-3.5	-7	0	.3
LAND	0	.5	0	-1.9
342 Printing				
CAPITAL	-2	-5.3	1.4	1.9
LABOR1	240	7.3	74	1.4
LABOR2	.4	.3	-2	-1.5
LABOR3	-4.9	-11	-1.1	-1.5
LAND	0	-.3	0	-2.5
351 Ind. Chem.				
CAPITAL	-1.5	-3.6	2.6	6.5
LABOR1	133	3.6	4	.1
LABOR2	4	2.8	-.3	-.4
LABOR3	-4	-7	-.2	-.5
LAND	0	-.8	0	-.7
352 Other Chem.				
CAPITAL	-.8	-1.4	2.6	6.5
LABOR1	100	2	4.4	.2
LABOR2	1.6	.9	-.4	-.5
LABOR3	-2.3	-3.1	-.2	-.5
LAND	0	-.4	0	-.3
353 Petro Refin.				
CAPITAL	.1	2.5	.3	2.1
LABOR1	5.2	1.3	-12.2	-1.5
LABOR2	-.09	-.7	.5	2.3
LABOR3	-.8	.1	.9	.9
LAND	0	2	0	7

TABLE 9(Cont.)

ISIC	Labor		Earnings	
	Coef.	t-val	Coef.	t-val
354 Petro, Coal Prod.				
CAPITAL	-.3	-8.2	.4	7.3
LABOR1	25.5	8.7	-6.2	-1.6
LABOR2	-.3	-3.1	.1	1.3
LABOR3	-.5	-11	0	.8
LAND	0	.7	0	-7.7
355 Rubber Prod.				
CAPITAL	-.5	-2.7	1	2.5
LABOR1	46.2	3	.8	.03
LABOR2	2.5	4.5	.2	.2
LABOR3	-1.6	-7.1	0	-.2
LAND	0	-.9	0	-2.8
356 Plastics				
CAPITAL	0	.02	.9	6.6
LABOR1	-7.4	-.4	2.2	.2
LABOR2	4	6.6	-.3	-1.3
LABOR3	-1	-4.2	0	-.4
LAND	0	-1.6	0	-10
361 Pottery				
CAPITAL	-.4	-1.5	2.1	6.3
LABOR1	15.3	.7	-18.3	-.8
LABOR2	2.4	3.1	0	-.1
LABOR3	-.9	-2.8	.2	.5
LAND	0	-.6	0	-11
362 Glass				
CAPITAL	-.3	-1.7	1.3	7
LABOR1	35.7	2	-12	-.1
LABOR2	.8	1.3	0	.1
LABOR3	-.8	-3	.2	.8
LAND	0	-.1	0	-4.2
369 Non-metal prod.				
CAPITAL	-.9	-2.3	2.8	6.6
LABOR1	58	2	-15.5	-.5
LABOR2	5.9	5.7	-.2	-.3
LABOR3	-2.5	-6	.2	.4
LAND	0	.2	0	-4.6
371 Iron and steel				
CAPITAL	-2.5	-1.4	5.9	5.1
LABOR1	235	1.5	-15	-.2
LABOR2	6.5	1.2	-1.7	-.8
LABOR3	-5.6	-2.5	1	8
LAND	0	-.8	0	-5.7

TABLE 9(Cont.)

ISIC	Labor		Earnings	
	Coef.	t-val	Coef.	t-val
372 Non-ferrous met.				
CAPITAL	-1	-4.3	1.3	7.7
LABOR1	281.6	3.6	-33.3	-.6
LABOR2	.2	.3	.2	.7
LABOR3	-2	-7.4	.3	2
LAND	0	1.1	0	2.5
381 Metal prod.				
CAPITAL	-2.7	-3	6.8	9.1
LABOR1	281.6	3.6	-33.3	-.6
LABOR2	8	2.7	-.6	-.4
LABOR3	-8	-7.4	0	.1
LAND	0	-1	0	-9.4
382 Machinery				
CAPITAL	-5	-2.2	3.7	4.8
LABOR1	520	2.5	6	.1
LABOR2	11.7	1.9	-2.1	-1.6
LABOR3	-12	-4.7	-.7	-.9
LAND	-.1	-1.2	0	-4.6
383 Electrical mach.				
CAPITAL	-3.7	-1.9	2.7	3.9
LABOR1	365	2.1	55.3	1.2
LABOR2	11.7	1.9	-2.1	-1.6
LABOR3	-12	-4.7	-.7	-.9
LAND	-.1	-1.2	0	-3.3
384 Transport equip.				
CAPITAL	-9.5	-7	5.6	4.1
LABOR1	928	8	26.8	.3
LABOR2	-11.7	-2.8	-3	-1
LABOR3	-14.6	-8.7	.5	.3
LAND	0	-.1	0	-5
385 Professional goods				
CAPITAL	-.8	-3.2	.3	1.7
LABOR1	101	4.4	14.8	1.1
LABOR2	.3	4	-.5	-1.4
LABOR3	-2.3	-6.9	-.2	-.9
LAND	0	-1.8	0	2.2
390 Other				
CAPITAL	.1	.2	.2	2.2
LABOR1	3.2	.1	10.5	1.4
LABOR2	4.7	4.3	-.4	-2
LABOR3	-1.5	-3.4	-.1	-1.2
LAND	0	-.3	0	2.3

TABLE 10

F-Values and Posterior Probabilities in Favor of Hypothesis
of Structural Difference

ISIC	F-Values			Post. Probabilities			
	Lab.	Cap.	Wage	Out.	Lab.	Cap.	Wage
311 Food	35.62	5.01	4.76	.89	1.00	.99	.99
313 Beverages	37.11	29.02	20.37	1.00	1.00	1.00	1.00
314 Tobacco	1.47	42.41	2.59	1.00	.02	1.00	.38
321 Textiles	2.10	1.34	5.26	.84	.13	.01	.99
322 Apparel	1.64	8.74	22.14	1.00	.04	1.00	1.00
323 Leather	10.76	25.51	17.60	1.00	1.00	1.00	1.00
324 Footwear	30.71	21.44	12.65	1.00	1.00	1.00	1.00
331 Wood	1.62	2.11	1.66	.02	.03	.14	.04
332 Furniture	5.17	21.31	9.02	1.00	.99	1.00	1.00
341 Paper	2.24	2.49	3.40	.99	.19	.32	.82
342 Printing	12.76	22.71	19.43	1.00	1.00	1.00	1.00
351 Ind. Chem.	27.77	5.39	23.04	1.00	1.00	1.00	1.00
352 Other Chem.	25.96	8.43	24.39	1.00	1.00	1.00	1.00
353 Petro refin.	3.39	3.56	8.89	.98	.82	.87	1.00
354 Petro, coal Prod.	1.00	3.20	4.91	.28	.00	.74	.99
355 Rubber prod.	3.11	8.63	24.63	.93	.70	1.00	1.00
356 Plastics	11.60	9.52	8.27	.96	1.00	1.00	1.00
361 Pottery	30.30	15.80	24.17	1.00	1.00	1.00	1.00
362 Glass	31.65	2.20	15.18	1.00	1.00	.17	1.00
369 Non-metal Prod.	48.97	.45	7.95	1.00	1.00	.00	1.00
371 Iron and Steel	22.74	10.33	9.95	1.00	1.00	1.00	1.00
372 Non-ferrous Steel	17.81	4.74	8.56	1.00	1.00	.99	1.00
381 Metal prod.	32.46	4.98	14.18	1.00	1.00	.99	1.00
382 Machinery	11.27	9.34	8.45	.98	1.00	1.00	1.00
383 Electrical Mach.	7.32	14.18	16.16	1.00	1.00	1.00	1.00
384 Transport Equip.	19.70	2.89	9.28	1.00	1.00	.57	1.00
385 Professional Goods	2.44	26.81	15.72	1.00	.29	1.00	1.00
390 Other	2.13	9.75	38.30	1.00	.15	1.00	1.00

probability that is diffuse with respect to coefficient values and specifies a 50 percent chance that there is a structural break (see Leamer (1978), chapter 4). The posterior probability is computed as $\delta/1-\delta$, where δ is given by:

$$\delta = \left(\frac{ESS}{ESS_D + ESS_U} \right)^{T/2} T^{-K/2} ,$$

and T is the number of observations, K is the number of parameter restrictions, ESS is the error sum of squares in the regression including the entire sample, and ESS_D and ESS_U are the respective error sums of squares from the separate regressions for the high and low capital intensity country samples. Holding the sample size and parameter restrictions constant, the posterior probability of structural differences is an increasing function of the calculated F statistic.

The critical F value at the 95 percent confidence level is 2.74. Virtually all of the F statistics in Table 10 exceed this critical value; many exceed 15. The corresponding posterior probabilities of structural differences are also very large. Over three quarters of these 112 probabilities are essentially unity. With the exception of the wood industry, there is a strong rejection of the structural equivalence of the two samples for at least one of the four dependent variables. The equally strong rejection of structural similarities in the case of the earnings and labor input regressions indicates that these tests are probably picking up more than differential measurement error.

The fact that significant structural differences are found for vir-

tually each industry suggests that dividing the sample based on capital per worker is a fairly good proxy for distinguishing countries lying in different cones of diversification. However, since there are 5 factors in our data set rather than 2, there is no theoretical rationale to split the sample on the basis of capital divided by the sum of the three types of workers. In a multi-factor setting there appear to be no simple rules for segmenting the sample. In the absence of a theoretical guide to splitting the sample, we also tested for structural differences across countries by including higher order terms in the regressions. More precisely, we added the squares of the country's endowments as well as the cross products of the country's capital and each of its three types of labor. Table 11 presents tests of the significance of these additional variables. Like Table 10, the F values as well as the posterior probabilities that the regression properly includes these higher order terms are typically quite large. They also constitute fairly strong rejection of the linearity prediction of the even HO model.

Additional regression results are presented in Table 12 that also contravene the even HO model, but that are consistent with both the uneven HO and the adjustment cost models. The dependent variable here is earnings per worker in a particular industry and country. According to the even HO model, earnings per worker in an industry should be unrelated to a country's endowment of capital per worker. In addition, given domestic labor mobility, an assumption of all three models, industrial wages should be unrelated to the capital in place in the particular industry.

The t values in column two of Table 12 quickly dismiss the notion

TABLE 11

F-values and Posterior Probabilities
in favor of second order model

ISIC	Out.	F-values			Posterior probabilities			
		Lab.	Cap.	Wages	Out.	Lab.	Cap.	Wages
311 Food	3.55	30.02	6.47	4.47	.90	1.00	1.00	.99
313 Beverages	11.11	23.00	21.74	24.00	1.00	1.00	1.00	1.00
314 Tobacco	24.11	3.17	193.62	11.92	1.00	.76	1.00	1.00
321 Textiles	7.23	3.39	3.79	8.13	1.00	.85	.94	1.00
322 Apparel	13.68	2.42	6.73	17.20	1.00	.24	1.00	1.00
323 Leather	9.48	5.28	15.54	15.16	1.00	1.00	1.00	1.00
324 Footwear	17.11	23.15	19.38	17.52	1.00	1.00	1.00	1.00
331 Wood	1.11	2.20	.79	.87	.00	.13	.00	.00
332 Furniture	6.13	8.79	19.17	8.03	1.00	1.00	1.00	1.00
341 Paper	2.19	1.27	1.01	1.03	.12	.00	.00	.00
342 Printing	24.27	29.60	24.07	32.40	1.00	1.00	1.00	1.00
351 Ind. chem.	7.58	12.86	3.18	22.53	1.00	1.00	.76	1.00
352 Other chem.	26.35	27.08	4.45	38.64	1.00	1.00	.99	1.00
353 Petro refin.	2.74	2.19	2.03	3.55	.47	.12	.07	.90
354 Petro, coal prod.	2.93	4.67	3.14	11.34	.61	.99	.74	1.00
355 Rubber prod.	3.02	3.59	3.59	10.75	.67	.91	.91	1.00
356 Plastics	2.46	4.79	7.09	7.44	.26	.99	1.00	1.00
361 Pottery	46.42	34.37	28.33	27.43	1.00	1.00	1.00	1.00
362 Glass	8.64	14.46	1.59	19.30	1.00	1.00	.01	1.00
369 Non-metal prod.	13.47	21.42	.52	8.57	1.00	1.00	.00	1.00
371 Iron and steel	4.49	13.83	12.24	10.49	.99	1.00	1.00	1.00
372 Nonferr. mtls.	6.74	10.62	3.38	4.48	1.00	1.00	.85	.99
381 Metal prod.	4.33	11.64	2.44	9.67	.98	1.00	.25	1.00
382 Machinery	3.13	5.63	6.81	8.28	.74	1.00	1.00	1.00
383 Electrical mach.	4.77	5.62	10.20	16.37	.99	1.00	1.00	1.00
384 Transport equip	5.20	9.08	2.77	9.07	1.00	1.00	.49	1.00
385 Prof. goods	62.93	2.07	28.70	22.58	1.00	.08	1.00	1.00
390 Other	29.71	4.30	16.78	36.65	1.00	.98	1.00	1.00

TABLE 12

Regressions of ISIC Earnings Per Worker
on National Capital Per Worker and ISIC Capital Per Worker, 1978

ISIC	Capital Per Worker		ISIC Capital Per Worker		R-Square
	Coeff.	T-Value	Coeff.	T-Value	
311 Food	.31	7.90	.06	.80	.83
313 Beverages	.34	5.30	.06	.90	.81
314 Tobacco	.29	8.00	.05	3.80	.83
321 Textiles	.27	9.20	.08	.90	.85
322 Apparel	.22	8.20	.31	1.40	.86
323 Leather	.27	10.10	.12	.90	.85
324 Footwear	.25	8.40	.07	.40	.84
331 Wood	.32	7.60	.05	.60	.85
332 Furniture	.32	8.40	-.04	-.40	.87
341 Paper	.35	7.40	.02	.40	.80
342 Printing	.31	7.00	.33	2.10	.81
351 Ind. Chem.	.39	6.00	.03	1.40	.79
352 Other Chem.	.36	9.80	.02	.60	.83
353 Petro refin.	.34	3.30	.06	13.00	.93
354 Petro, coal Prod.	-.39	-1.00	.55	11.00	.88
355 Rubber prod.	.30	.67	.10	1.00	.81
356 Plastics	.32	9.50	.06	.60	.88
361 Pottery	.31	11.80	-.01	-1.00	.85
362 Glass	.35	7.60	.04	.12	.81
369 Non-metal Prod.	.37	9.40	.00	.00	.80
371 Iron and Steel	.37	6.00	.02	.50	.71
372 Non-ferrous Steel	.37	9.00	.00	.00	.76
381 Metal prod.	.36	6.30	.09	.50	.81
382 Machinery	.32	7.20	.22	1.50	.86
383 Electrical Mach.	.34	6.10	.08	.40	.82
384 Transport Equip.	.37	6.60	.04	.30	.75
385 Professional Goods	.35	10.10	.25	2.10	.87
390 Other	.26	6.40	.21	1.10	.80

TABLE 13

Regressions on Five Endowments and 1963 Value

	<u>1978 Labor Equation</u>			<u>1978 Output Equation</u>		
	1963			1963		
	Labor			Labor		
	Variable			Variable		
	<u>Coefficient</u>	<u>T</u>	<u>Probability</u>	<u>Coefficient</u>	<u>T</u>	<u>Probability</u>
311 Food	.87	15.5	1.00	.002	.2	.16
313 Beverages	.71	16.8	1.00	-.001	-.05	.16
314 Tobacco	.82	5.4	1.00	-.001	-.04	.16
321 Textiles	.21	2.6	.90	-.001	-.1	.16
322 Apparel	-.06	-.3	.17	.007	.4	.17
323 Leather	.49	4.9	1.00	-.002	-.2	.16
324 Footwear	.67	3.1	.9	-.001	-.1	.16
331 Wood	.5	4.2	1.00	.003	.1	.16
332 Furniture	.96	5.1	1.00	-.01	-.2	.16
341 Paper	.7	7.8	1.00	.01	.4	.17
342 Printing	.78	4.8	1.00	.02	.5	.18
351 Ind. Chem.	.93	9.3	1.00	-.003	-.1	.16
352 Other Chem.	1.1	13.1	1.00	.01	.4	.17
353 Petro refin.	.5	3.3	.98	.02	.4	.17
354 Petro, coal	.18	1.3	.36	-.001	-.03	.16
355 Rubber prod.	.69	3.1	.97	-1e-4	-.01	.16
356 Plastics	.76	4.9	1.00	.02	.4	.17
361 Pottery	.77	10	1.00	-.006	-.1	.16
362 Glass	.69	6.6	1.00	.004	.3	.17
369 Non-metal	.69	5.8	1.00	-.003	-.2	.16
371 Iron and	.63	23.2	1.00	.006	.2	.16
372 Non-ferrous	.56	11.8	1.00	.03	1.7	.53
381 Metal prod.	.69	8.3	1.00	.004	.5	.18
382 Machinery	.67	9	1.00	.05	.6	.19
383 Electrical	.62	9.9	1.00	.005	.1	.16
384 Transport	.73	13	1.00	.04	.9	.24
385 Professional	.33	1.8	.58	.1	1.1	.29
390 Other	.62	3.2	.98	.05	.7	.21

Note: Probability refers to the posterior probability that the respective 1963 variable enters the equation.

of cross country wage equalization within particular industries. If there is error in measuring labor input, such error apparently goes beyond industry-specific differences in skills. While high capital-labor ratio countries have higher within-industry earnings per worker, the particular amount of capital in place in the industry typically has a negligible effect on this variable. Only 5 of 28 industry-specific capital coefficients are significant explanatory variables in Table 12. The evidence here is broadly supportive of the domestic labor mobility assumption.

Tables 13 and 14 provide two different tests of the adjustment cost model. In contrast to the even and uneven HO models, the assumption of adjustment costs implies that lagged industry-specific inputs should be significantly correlated with current input demand. To test this we added the industry's 1963 labor input to the list of country endowments in cross-industry regressions explaining 1978 labor demand. We also included 1963 output in the regression of 1978 output on national endowments. Lagged employment enters significantly for virtually all of the industries, but lagged output has a generally insignificant effect on output. This suggests that labor is rather immobile compared with capital, which is the opposite mobility assumption that we have made so far.

A second prediction of the adjustment cost model, tested in Table 14, is that current industrial labor demand is positively related to the amount of capital installed in the industry and negatively related to the economy's wage rate. In addition, given these variables, the adjustment cost model described in section IV ascribes no explanatory power to national

TABLE 14

Labor Regressions on Five Endowments Industry
Capital, and and Country Wage

	ISIC Cap		Nat. wage		CAPITAL		LABOR1		LABOR2	
	Coeff	t	Coeff	t	Coeff	t	Coeff	t	Coeff	t
Food	11	.4	4060	1.1	0	-.7	-21	-.6	19	4.4
Beverages	27	10	262	.6	0	-3.7	-5.6	-2.2	3	5.6
Tobacco	4.2	1.2	385	.9	0	-1.5	7	1.4	.5	.8
Textiles	80.8	.5	1975	.9	-.16	-2.1	-47.4	-3.8	15.4	5.2
Apparel	112.4	2.3	-1956	-1.3	-.15	-3	384	3.3	8	4.4
Leather	158.3	10.3	40.3	.2	0	-2.5	-2.5	-2.7	1.2	5.7
Footwear	282	5	-85.4	-.1	0	-3.6	-.1	0	2.7	3.4
Wood	21	2	143.2	.1	.1	3.2	-39.3	-4.7	7.2	5.3
Furniture	32	1.1	225.3	.2	0	-1.6	13.2	1.6	4	2.4
Paper	8	2.1	1086	1	0	-.7	25	3.3	2.4	1.8
Printing	48	1.9	205.1	.1	0	-.4	28	1.1	3.2	1.3
Ind. Chem.	22	2.6	1267	.7	-.2	-2.4	-21	-1	6	2.4
Other chem	171	5.3	1189	.8	-.2	-3.4	-68	-3.5	4.1	2.4
Petro refin.	5.4	4.1	-9	-.1	0	-2.4	2.3	1.6	.3	1.3
Petro, coal prod.	3.1	1.6	-23	-.2	0	-2.7	3.4	5	.3	1.7
Rubber prod.	107	4.2	1449	2	-.1	-4.8	-15.4	-2.3	4	4.8
Plastics	39	2.6	270.3	.4	0	1.3	-9	-1.6	3	4
Pottery	121	6.5	-13	0	0	-1.5	-7	-2.4	2	3.1
Glass	33	2.5	-118	-.2	0	-2.3	4	.8	1.5	2.3
Non-metal prod.	1	.3	553	.3	0	.7	-24.3	-3	8	4.3
Iron and steel	21.3	2.1	2940	.8	-.2	1.3	79	2.7	-2	-.4
Non-ferrous meta	13	1	591.2	.9	0	-.5	13	3.7	.8	1.1
Metal prod.	-23	-.5	2621	.8	0	.3	82	1.7	7	1.6
Machinery	61.4	4.6	3419	.8	-.2	-1.2	30	.9	9.2	1.7
Electrical mach.	75	4.3	2852	.8	-.2	-1	-11	-.5	12	2.9
Transport equip.	68	2.9	7071	1.5	-.8	-2.8	121	4.5	5	.9
Professional good	27.3	1.7	-521	-.6	0	-.5	27	2.8	1.1	1
Other	166	8.7	763	1.5	0	-2.3	-20	-4.7	4	6.5

endowments in explaining current labor demand. Table 14's results provide some support for the adjustment cost model; 19 of the 28 industry-specific capital coefficients have t values in excess of 2, and 27 of the 28 coefficients are positive. In contrast, the country's wage rate is insignificant in all 28 regressions. Furthermore, t values for aggregate national endowments are typically quite large. While the posterior probabilities that the industry's capital and national wage influence labor demand exceed 50 percent for 18 of 28 industries, the small explanatory power of national wage rates and the significance, for numerous industries, of country-wide endowments in explaining labor demand weakens the case for the adjustment cost model.

Conclusion

These preliminary tests of three alternative models of transitional international growth provide partial support for each view of the evolution of international trade and factor prices. While we intend to explore these data more closely in the future, our current assessment is that each of the three models plays an important role in determining trade, growth, and factor returns.

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