

NBER WORKING PAPERS SERIES

EQUIPMENT INVESTMENT AND ECONOMIC GROWTH

J. Bradford De Long

Lawrence H. Summers

Working Paper No. 3515

NATIONAL BUREAU OF ECONOMIC RESEARCH
1050 Massachusetts Avenue
Cambridge, MA 02138
November 1990

We thank Jonathan Gruber and Douglas Hendrickson for enthusiastic and highly capable research assistance; Robert Barro, Barry Bosworth, Anne Case, David Cutler, Paul David, Jay Hamilton, Dale Jorgenson, Anne Krueger, Ian McLean, Paul Romer, Andrei Shleifer, Robert Waldmann, Jeffrey Williamson, and especially Robert Summers for helpful discussions; Alan Heston and Robert Summers for providing unpublished data, revisions of published data, and for advising us on the use of the data; and David Cutler for aid in manipulating data. This paper is part of NBER's research program in Growth. Any opinions expressed are those of the authors and not those of the National Bureau of Economic Research.

NBER Working Paper #3515
November 1990

EQUIPMENT INVESTMENT AND ECONOMIC GROWTH

ABSTRACT

Using data from the United Nations Comparison Project and the Penn World Table, we find that machinery and equipment investment has a strong association with growth: over 1960-1985 each percent of GDP invested in equipment is associated with an increase in GDP growth of 1/3 a percentage point per year. This is a much stronger association than found between growth and any of the other components of investment. A variety of considerations suggest that this association is causal, that higher equipment investment drives faster growth, and that the social return to equipment investment in well-functioning market economies is on the order of 30 percent per year.

J. Bradford De Long
Department of Economics
Littauer Center G-20
Harvard University
Cambridge, MA 02138

Lawrence H. Summers
NBER
1050 Mass. Ave.
Cambridge, MA 02138

I. Introduction

It is no accident that the era in which European economic growth took off is called the *Industrial* Revolution. Blanqui [1837], first to use the phrase in print, identified its beginnings in the invention and spread of those “two machines, henceforth immortal, the steam engine and the cotton-spinning [water frame].” Ever since, qualitative historical discussions of growth have emphasized the role of machinery investment in augmenting labor power. Landes’ [1969] statement that “the machine is at the heart of the new economic civilization” is typical of accounts that have assigned a central role to mechanization. Technology embodied in machinery has been, as Mokyr [1990] says, “the lever of riches.”

Yet at least until recently modern quantitative studies of economic growth have tended to downplay the role of mechanization. Work in the aggregated growth accounting tradition of Solow [1957], Denison [1967], and Abramovitz [1956] has typically concluded that capital accumulation accounts for only a relatively small fraction of productivity growth in individual countries, or of differences across countries.¹ The assumption underlying growth accounting calculations that capital is paid its marginal product, coupled with observed profit rates, implies that increasing the rate of capital accumulation can make only a modest contribution to increasing growth in net product. Even a doubling of the U.S. net private investment rate would, according to standard estimates, raise the growth rate of real income by less than half a percentage point per year.

This paper provides quantitative evidence in support of the older, traditional view that the accumulation of machinery is a prime determinant

¹More disaggregated growth accounting studies like those of Jorgenson [1988], which consider different types of capital and draw a distinction between capital stocks and capital services, have typically found a larger role for accumulation in accounting for growth in some countries. We discuss the relationship between our findings and those of more disaggregated growth accounting studies in the conclusion.

of national rates of productivity growth, and against the supposition that the private return to equipment investment mirrors its social product. Using data on the components of investment drawn from the United Nations International Comparison Project (U.N. ICP) (see Kravis, Heston, and Summers [1982] and United Nations [1985]) and Summers and Heston [1988, 1990], we demonstrate a clear, strong and robust statistical relationship between national rates of machinery and equipment investment and productivity growth. Equipment investment has far more explanatory power for national rates of productivity growth than other components of investment, and outperforms many other variables included in cross-country equations accounting for growth. High rates of equipment investment can, for example, account for nearly all of Japan's extraordinary growth performance.

Timing evidence, consideration of alternative sources of variation in equipment investment, the behavior of equipment prices, and the differing association of equipment investment with intensive and extensive growth all suggest that this association is causal, with higher equipment investment driving faster economic growth. We interpret our results as suggesting that the social return to equipment investment in well-functioning market economies is on the order of thirty percent per year.

This paper is organized as follows. Section II motivates our emphasis on equipment investment and presents information on equipment prices and quantities for our sample of countries. Section III presents the basic results linking equipment investment and productivity growth. It also explores their robustness along a number of dimensions including variations in sample period, the sample of countries, the inclusion of additional determinants of growth, various interactions, and alternative measures of equipment investment.

Section IV addresses the issue of causality in the relationship between equipment investment and growth. The pattern of equipment prices supports the claim that fast-growing countries are those with favorable supply

conditions for producers' equipment, not those where some third factor has accelerated growth and shifted the demand curve for producers' equipment outward. Section IV also examines the timing of the relationship between equipment investment and growth, the effects of alternative sources of variation in equipment investment on productivity growth, and the differential association of equipment investment with that part of GDP growth generated by rising productivity and that part generated by an increasing labor force. Section V concludes by discussing the relationship between our results and previous arguments suggesting the unimportance of capital formation, and considering the normative implications of our findings.

II. Equipment Investment and Economic Structure

A. Equipment Investment and Economic Development

There are at least three grounds for suspecting that equipment investment may have higher social returns than other forms of investment.² First, as we have already noted, historical accounts of economic growth invariably assign a central role to mechanization. Economic historians have seen the richest countries as those that were first in inventing and applying capital intensive technologies, in which machines embody the most advanced technological knowledge (see, for example, Usher [1920], Landes [1969], and Pollard [1982]). The history of economic growth is often written as if nations and industries either seized the opportunity to intensify their specialization in manufactures and grew rapidly, or failed to seize such opportunities and stagnated (as in Rostow [1958] or Gerschenkron [1962]).

²Jorgenson's [1988] work highlights that equipment investment will have a larger short-run effect on growth in *gross* product than other forms of investment because of equipment's higher depreciation rate even if private and social returns to different forms of investment are equalized. In the long run, however, equipment's higher depreciation rate leads it to have a smaller effect on growth. We discuss these issues in the conclusion.

Second, discussions of economic growth in the development economics (like Hirschman [1958] or Chenery *et al.* [1986]) and the new growth theory traditions (like Romer [1986]) stress external economies or “linkages” as causes of growth. Spillovers may well be larger in some sectors than others. Manufacturing accounts for ninety-five percent of private-sector research and development in America, and within manufacturing the equipment sector accounts for more than half of research and development according to Summers [1990]. Hence, it is plausible that equipment investment will give rise to especially important external economies.

Third, it is often alleged that a number of countries have succeeded in growing rapidly by pursuing a government-led “developmental state” approach to development. The rationale for this policy is that countries which adopt the price and quantity structure of more affluent nations are more likely to grow than those that possess the structure of poorer countries. The government should jump-start the industrialization process by transforming economic structure faster than private entrepreneurs would.³ As we discuss below, rates of equipment investment tend to increase and their price tends to fall as productivity rises. If the developmental state approach is correct, countries investing more heavily in and enjoying lower equipment prices should enjoy more rapid growth.

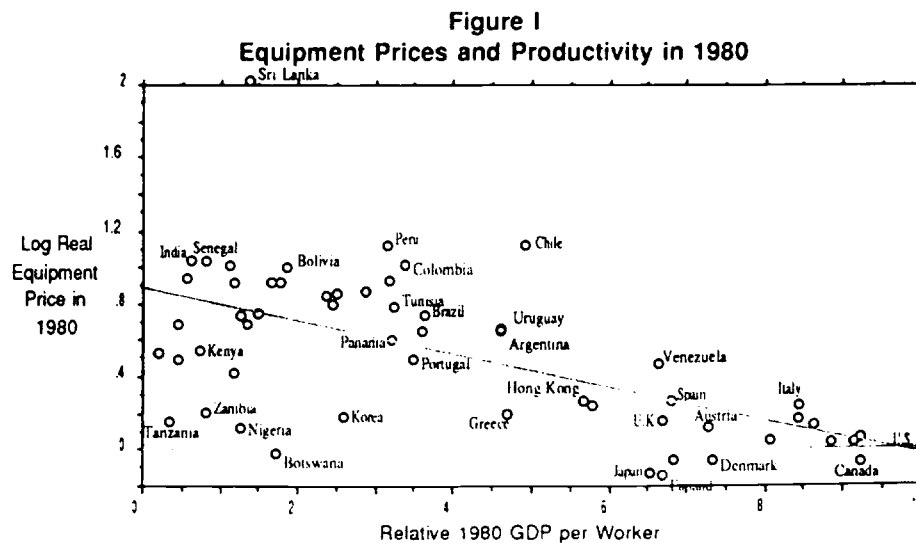
B. Measuring Equipment Investment

Data on the share of nominal national product devoted to equipment have long been available from national income accounts data. However, these data do not permit an accurate assessment of the impact of equipment investment on growth unless the relative price of equipment is constant across countries. The availability of data from the U.N. ICP, described in Kravis, Heston and Summers [1982], provides information on the relative prices of many components of GNP at a disaggregated level for a large

³Works taking this point of view include Cohen and Zysman [1987] and Johnson [1982].

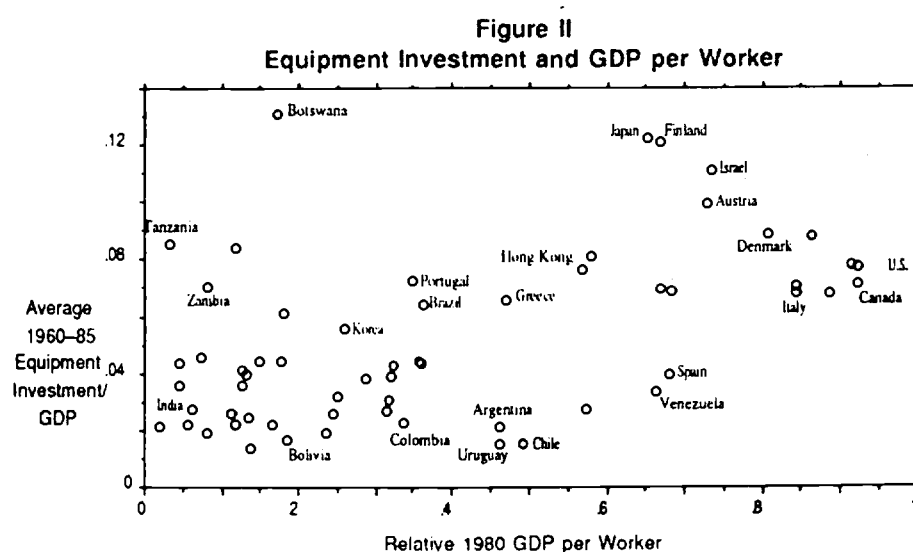
sample of countries for individual “snapshot” years. It is therefore possible to study in a cross section of nations the relationship between investment components and growth.

The ICP collects data on three components of producers’ durable investment—producers’ transportation equipment, electrical machinery, and non-electrical machinery. In an earlier draft of this paper (De Long and Summers [1990]) we investigated the relationship between total producers’ durable investment—the sum of these three components—and productivity growth. In carrying out the research reported here, we realized there was little information in the producers’ transportation component of durables, and so in this paper we focus primarily on an equipment aggregate comprising electrical and non-electrical machinery. With the benefit of hindsight the exclusion of producers’ transportation equipment can perhaps be justified by arguing that much variation in rates of transportation investment reflects differences in the “need” for transportation caused by differences in urbanization and population density.



C. Economic Structures and GDP per Worker Levels

The most extensive ICP data on equipment investment comes from the Phase IV 1980 survey which covers more than sixty countries.⁴ Figures I and II plot, respectively, our estimates of the real price of equipment relative to the GDP deflator in 1980 and of the average 1960–85 share of GDP devoted to equipment investment against 1980 GDP per worker for those nations in our sample in ICP Phase IV. We draw three principal conclusions.



First, variations in relative prices of equipment are large, and so measures of the share of nominal national product devoted to equipment investment are likely to be misleading guides to real magnitudes. As

⁴Kravis, Heston, and Summers [1982] report ICP Phase III estimates of relative price and quantity structures in 1975 for sixty percent of the Phase IV countries. We merge the 1975 Phase III and 1980 Phase IV snapshots of price and quantity structures with the 1960–85 long-run growth data of Penn World Table V (see Summers and Heston [1990]): we have adjusted the ICP estimates using revisions of published ICP data kindly provided by Robert Summers.

We also omit high-income oil exporting countries from our regressions. Our total sample consists of sixty-one countries. Appendix IV presents the data series used in our regressions.

productivity levels increase, there is a tendency for the relative price of equipment to fall. An increase of 10 percentage points in a country's income relative to the United States is associated with an 8 percent fall in its machinery price relative to the GDP deflator.⁵ This would generate a positive relationship between the real equipment share and productivity even if there were no correlation between productivity and the nominal share of equipment. Beyond the relationship between equipment prices and productivity, there are sizeable differences in the cost and quantity of equipment investment between countries at similar levels of development.

Second, as Figure II shows, there are wide variations in national rates of equipment investment as a share of GDP. Wealthier nations tend to have higher equipment investment shares: those nations with 1980 GDP per worker levels less than ten percent of the U.S. have equipment shares, calculated in the "international dollar" measure of Summers and Heston, that average 3.5 percent of GDP; those nations with 1980 GDP per worker levels greater than seventy percent of the U.S. have equipment shares averaging 8.2 percent of GDP. The cross section variation at given productivity levels is also substantial. Equipment investment shares in countries such as Chile and Venezuela are some five percentage points lower than would be expected given GDP per worker. Equipment investment shares in countries such as Israel, Japan, and Finland are five percentage points higher than expected.

Third, poorer nations possess very large relative variances in their equipment prices and quantities. Those nations with GDP per worker levels above eighty percent of the U.S. level have a standard deviation of producers' durables prices about the simple regression line of ten percent; those nations with GDP per worker levels below twenty percent of the U.S. level have a standard deviation of more than fifty percent. Some, perhaps

⁵A similar relationship holds over time: the fastest growing countries are also those that have experienced the steepest declines in relative real machinery prices. See De Long and Summers [1990].

much, of this variation in prices and quantities at the low end of the productivity scale is measurement error. Much of the remainder may reflect differences in the character of investment in very poor countries. For example, Zambian investment is concentrated in copper mining and copper-based manufacturing, which employ five percent of its labor force and where average labor productivity is forty times average labor productivity in agriculture; relatively small equipment investments in the copper sector will loom large in the economy as a whole, yet it is difficult to believe that this sector has significant linkages with the rest of the economy (see Young [1973] and Bates [1976, 1981]).

We are thus skeptical of what can be learned by combining in one regression very poor countries, which appear to have productivity levels less than those enjoyed in the United States before the industrial revolution,⁶ with technologically-sophisticated developed countries. We therefore focus heavily on a sample of countries with relatively high productivity levels: those countries with GDP per worker levels greater than 25 percent of the U.S. level in 1960.

Before analyzing the relationship between equipment investment and economic growth in the next section, we pause to highlight the fact that international patterns of equipment differ from patterns of non-equipment investment. In our sample, equipment investment averages 28 percent of total investment, but the composition of investment varies widely. Figure III plots the 1980 price of equipment investment against the investment deflator. Figure IV plots our estimate of equipment investment over 1960–1985 against other investment as a share of GDP. The correlations are weak—0.203 for the prices, 0.427 for the quantity shares in our sample. In the case of prices, this should not be too surprising, for equipment is tradeable while structures—the other major component of investment—are

⁶According to Summers and Heston, the U.S. today has a real GDP per worker level 14 times that of Zambia. According to Kuznets [1971], U.S. real GDP per worker increased by a factor of 8 between 1870 and the present, and perhaps slightly less than doubled over the previous century.

not.⁷

Figure III
Equipment and Non-Equipment Investment Prices in 1980

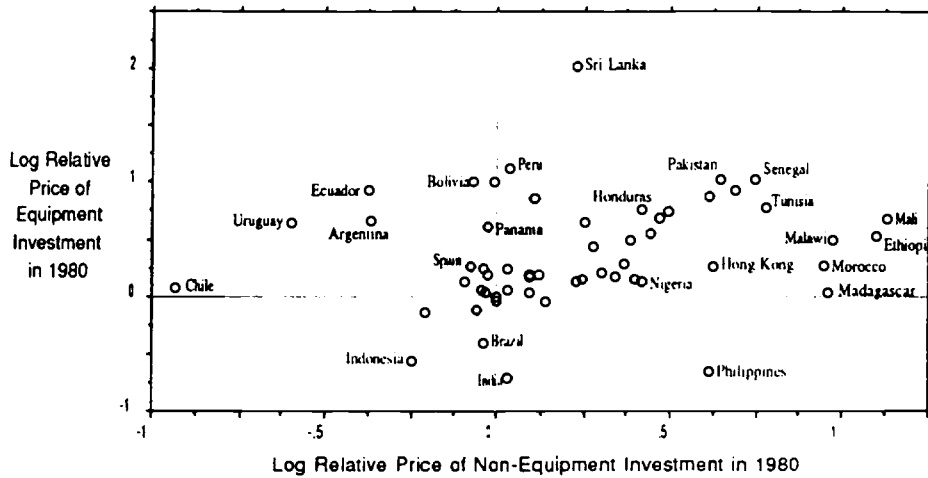
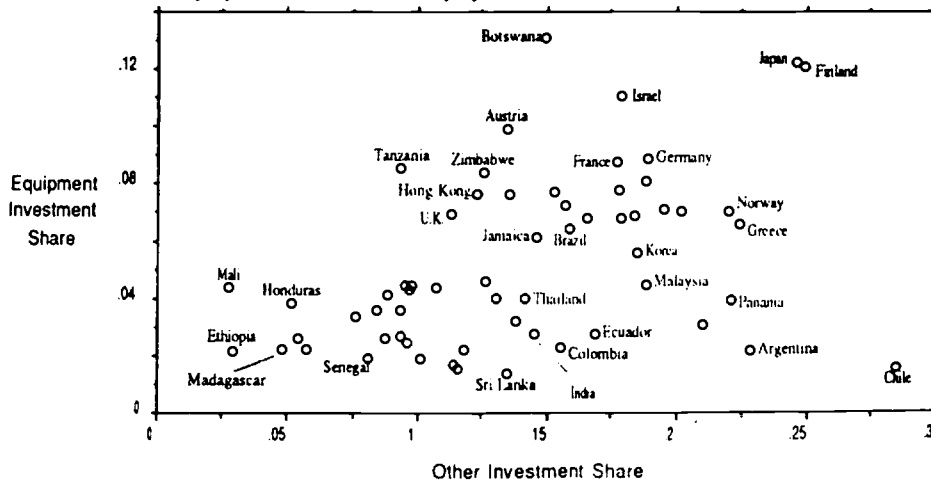


Figure IV
Equipment and Non-Equipment Investment as Shares of GDP



The fact that equipment's share in total investment varies so widely,

⁷Warner [1990] notes that 31 percent of U.S. equipment purchases in 1989 were imported.

and the centrality of machinery in historical discussions of growth suggest the importance of disaggregating investment in considering its relation to economic growth. If machinery and structures contribute differently to growth, then analyses of the relationship between total capital accumulation and growth are likely to be very misleading. Likewise, the use of an investment price deviation from a "normal" level as a proxy for the extent of distortions in an economy, as in Barro [1990], appears implausible given that structures are not traded and that the investment deflator depends heavily on the price of structures and on the composition of investment.

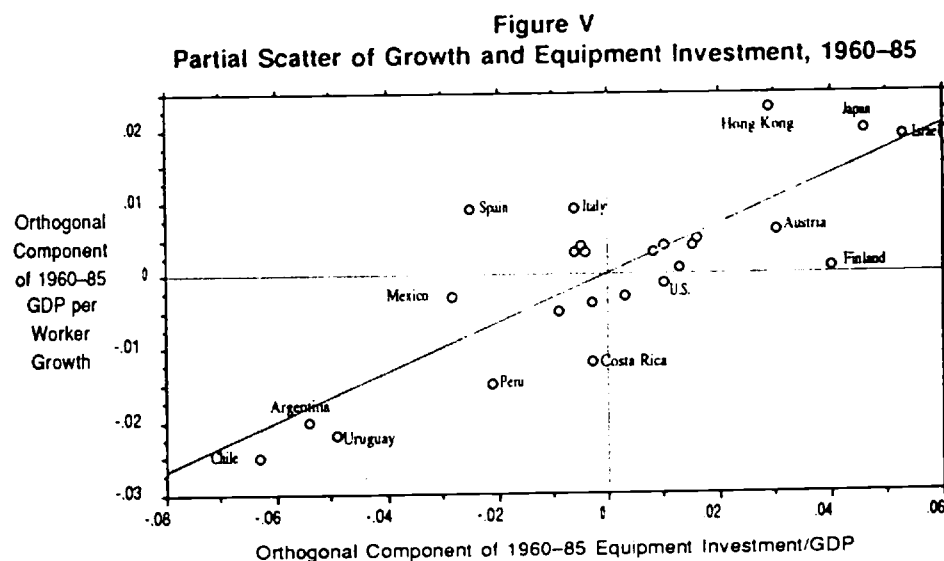
III. Equipment and Growth

This section demonstrates that nations which invested heavily in equipment relative to other nations at the same stage of economic development enjoyed rapid growth over 1960–1985. Our measure of economic growth is the growth rate of GDP per worker, measured in international dollars, as reported by Summers and Heston [1990]. In evaluating the contribution of equipment investment to growth, we hold constant labor force growth rates, the share of GDP devoted to non-equipment investment, and the level of GDP per worker. For the most part, we rely on the inclusion of the initial GDP per worker gap in the regressions to control for any systematic causal relationship running from the level of GDP per worker to the level of equipment investment. We also experiment with using a gap variable from the middle of the sample, as recommended by Romer [1989].

A. Basic Results

Figure V, and equation 1 beneath it, report our basic results obtained using the high productivity sample of the 25 nations with 1960 levels of GDP per worker greater than 25 percent of the U.S. level. Figure VI reports

the scatter for the same regression using the larger 61-nation sample. The figure plots that component of 1960–1985 GDP per worker growth orthogonal to 1960–1985 labor force growth, to the average 1960–1985 real non-equipment investment share of GDP, and to the 1960 relative GDP per worker gap vis-a-vis the United States against that component of the 1960–1985 real equipment investment share of GDP orthogonal to the same three variables. That is, it provides a partial scatter of equipment investment and productivity growth.



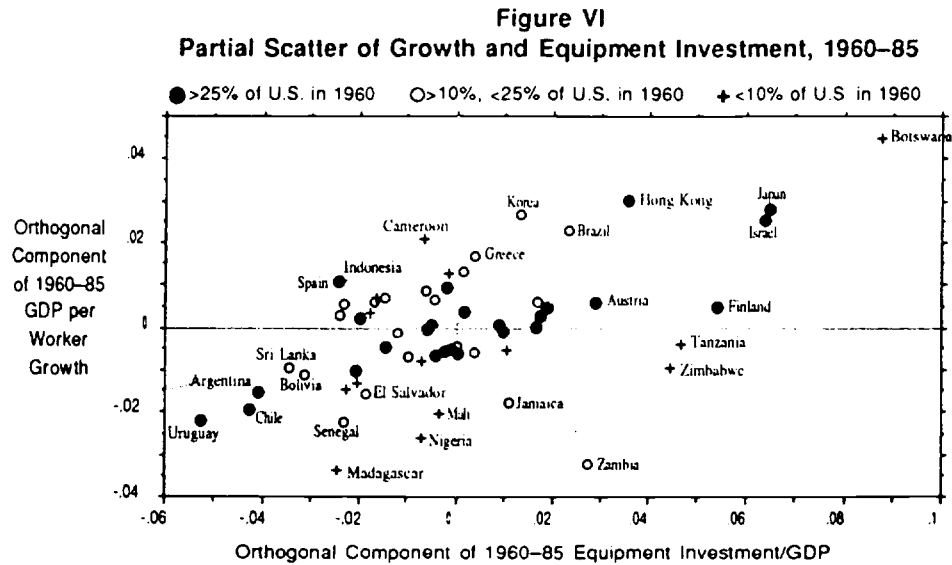
$$(1) \quad \text{GDP/Wkr Gr} = -.002(\text{LF Growth}) + .030(\text{Rel. GDP Gap}) + .337(\text{Equip}) - .015(\text{Non-Equip})$$

$$\quad \quad \quad (.146) \quad \quad \quad (.009) \quad \quad \quad (.054) \quad \quad \quad (.033)$$

$$n = 25 \quad R^2 = .662 \quad \text{RMSE} = .008$$

While the standard deviation of growth rates in our sample is 1.32 percent, the standard error of the equation using equipment quantities illustrated in figure V is only 0.80 percent. Including the equipment variable reduces the variance of the residual by 47 percent compared to a similar equation containing the aggregate investment share. The equation provides strong support for the proposition that equipment investment is more closely

related to growth than are other components of investment.



$$(1') \quad \text{GDP/Wkr Gr} = -.031(\text{LF Growth}) + .020(\text{Rel. GDP Gap}) + .265(\text{Equip}) + .062(\text{Non-Equip})$$

(.198)
(.009)
(.065)
(.035)

n = 61
R² = .291
RMSE = .013

The regression line of equation 1 implies that an increase of 3 percentage points (one standard deviation) in the share of GDP devoted to equipment investment leads to an increase in the growth of GDP per worker of 1.02 percent per year, which cumulates to a 29 percent difference over the 25 years of the sample. This means, for example, that differences in equipment investment account for essentially all of the extraordinary growth performance of Japan relative to the sample as a whole. Conditional on the initial GDP per worker gap and the achieved rates of growth of the labor force, Japan has achieved a relative GDP per worker growth rate edge of 2.2 percent per year over 1960–1985 relative to the average of the high productivity sample, and five percent per year relative to Argentina. In both cases, more than four-fifths of this difference is accounted for by Japan's

high quantity of equipment investment.⁸

The shift to a larger sample in Figure VI does not materially affect the coefficient of the equipment quantity variable. We performed Chow tests to see if the same structure holds for countries with 1960 GDP per worker levels greater than and less than 25 percent of the U.S, and failed to reject the null hypothesis of a common structure of regression coefficients.⁹

B. Statistical Issues

The regression lines depicted in Figures V and VI and equations 1 and 1' were obtained using OLS. We verified that the standard errors were not appreciably affected by allowing for conditional heteroscedasticity. A more significant issue is spatial correlation.¹⁰ If neighboring nations have similar values for significant omitted variables, the data will contain less information than the reported standard errors suggest. In a sense, country pairs like Norway and Sweden or Argentina and Uruguay seem *a priori* not two observations but more nearly one single observation—we would not feel that we had lost information if we had data not on Belgium and the Netherlands separately but on the Benelux aggregate instead.

However, when we examined the pattern of the residuals from the high productivity sample we found to our surprise no sign of spatial

⁸Japanese growth performance was extraordinary even before the post-World War II period. High equipment quantities and low prices characterized its economy far back into history. The argument that abnormally low equipment prices have had a strong impact on growth in Japan by significantly increasing the returns to saving is made by De Bever and Williamson [1978], who note abnormally low producers' durable prices in Japan and "suggest... that this unique relative price behavior has its source in the technological dynamics of Japan's capital goods industry... [and] deserves far more attention than Japanese analysts have given it so far." An argument that Japan has achieved high growth by concentrating investment in equipment rather than structures is made in Patrick and Rosovsky [1976].

⁹We always reject the null hypothesis that the residual variances are the same across the 25 percent of 1960 U.S. GDP per worker divide. Non-parametric tests do reject the hypothesis of a common structure of regression coefficients.

¹⁰See Case [1987].

correlation. We regressed the product $u_i u_j$ of the regression residuals for all country pairs on the distance between the capitals of country i and country j . We expected to find that the product of the residuals would tend to be high when countries had capitals that were close together. We did not: for a variety of specifications the estimated dependence of $u_i u_j$ on distance was statistically insignificant and substantively unimportant. We report some of our results on spatial correlation in an appendix.

We also examined sensitivity to outliers by dropping each of the observations in turn. There are no individual observations that, when omitted, change the equipment investment coefficient by as much as ten percent in the sample of the 25 high-income nations.¹¹

The most significant statistical issue is that the equations reported here are not the first equations we have estimated. Our earlier work explored various price variables in more detail, and also examined an equipment aggregate that included transportation equipment, unlike the aggregate used here. We thus choose the current set of specifications partially on empirical rather than *a priori* grounds.

Since finishing the bulk of the empirical work for this paper, we have obtained data on equipment quantities for five additional countries.¹² Adding these five points to our basic regression raises the coefficient on equipment investment by an insignificant amount. When data from later versions of the ICP become available for a larger number of new countries, it will be possible to further check the validity of the estimates we present using a sample not available when the estimates were generated.

¹¹Hong Kong is the most influential observation, having a very high growth rate given its equipment investment share. In the larger sample of 61 countries, Botswana and Zambia are influential outliers, as we discuss below.

¹²Australia, Iran, New Zealand, Turkey, and Sweden.

C. Sample Selection Issues

There are two important dimensions of sample selection involved in figure V and equation 1—the choice of countries included in the analysis, and the choice of a sample period. These issues are addressed in Table I. It considers the 1970–1985, the 1975–1985, and the 1960–1975 periods as well as the 1960–1985 period as a whole. The results for the equipment investment variable are not sensitive to the choice of a sample period.

Table I also compares the results obtained using the high productivity sample of countries with 1960 GDP per worker greater than 25 percent of the U.S. level with results obtained using the larger 61 country sample, and with results obtained using the 61 country sample while controlling for various educational and political correlates of growth as in Barro [1990a].¹³ If differences in the reduced-form laws of motion followed by rich and poor countries spring from poor countries' lack of the human and political infrastructures necessary to take advantage of modern technologies and to make fixed capital-intensive investments in technologies secure, including variables such as literacy and education rates should improve the power of regressions on the larger sample.¹⁴ The additional variables do contribute modestly to the explanatory power of the regressions, but do not have an appreciable impact on the equipment coefficients. For the entire 1960–1985 period, our results suggest that a twenty five percentage point increase in *both* primary and secondary education rates has the same partial association with growth as a one percentage point rise in the equipment investment share of national product. Table I also explores the effect of replacing the initial 1960 GDP per worker gap relative to the U.S. with the 1975, mid-sample period gap.¹⁵ This replacement has no material effect on the equipment investment coefficient.

¹³The coefficients on the correlates favored by Barro [1990a] are reported in Appendix II.

¹⁴The additional political and human capital correlates would have little effect in the high productivity sample because they do not vary much among developed countries.

¹⁵As suggested by Romer [1989].

Table I
Productivity Growth and Equipment Investment

Period used	Lab. fce. growth	GDP/wkr. gap	Equipment ^a share	Struc. & trans. share	n	R ² (RMSE)
<i>High Productivity Sample</i>						
1960-1985	-0.002 (0.146)	0.030 (0.009)	0.337 (0.054)	-0.015 (0.033)	25	0.662 (0.008)
1960-1985 (1975 Gap)	0.023 (0.179)	0.016 ^b (0.011)	0.361 (0.070)	-0.019 (0.040)	25	0.507 (0.009)
1960-1975	-0.081 (0.197)	0.049 (0.013)	0.295 (0.075)	-0.056 (0.043)	25	0.492 (0.011)
1970-1985	-0.030 (0.163)	0.015 (0.011)	0.379 (0.063)	-0.025 (0.038)	25	0.593 (0.009)
1975-1985	-0.177 (0.258)	0.014 (0.016)	0.425 (0.105)	0.047 (0.059)	25	0.428 (0.013)
<i>Larger Sample</i>						
1960-1985	-0.031 (0.198)	0.020 (0.009)	0.265 (0.065)	0.062 (0.035)	61	0.291 (0.013)
1960-1985 (1975 Gap)	0.051 (0.209)	0.006 ^b (0.008)	0.260 (0.070)	0.050 (0.036)	61	0.238 (0.014)
1960-1975	-0.088 (0.243)	0.013 (0.012)	0.181 (0.083)	0.035 (0.043)	61	0.093 (0.017)
1970-1985	-0.076 (0.236)	0.023 (0.010)	0.256 (0.075)	0.068 (0.042)	61	0.208 (0.016)
1975-1985	-0.372 (0.305)	0.026 (0.012)	0.291 (0.101)	0.112 (0.053)	61	0.192 (0.020)
<i>Larger Sample with Barro Correlates</i>						
1960-1985	-0.001 (0.203)	0.039 (0.013)	0.275 (0.070)	0.029 (0.037)	61	0.391 (0.012)
1960-1985 (1975 Gap)	0.011 (0.206)	0.023 ^b (0.011)	0.307 (0.074)	0.030 (0.040)	61	0.299 (0.013)
1960-1975	0.019 (0.233)	0.039 (0.016)	0.279 (0.086)	-0.011 (0.043)	61	0.263 (0.015)
1970-1985	-0.217 (0.270)	0.038 (0.017)	0.276 (0.082)	0.040 (0.047)	61	0.236 (0.016)
1975-1985	-0.537 (0.356)	0.037 (0.020)	0.262 (0.112)	0.097 (0.063)	61	0.190 (0.020)

^aThe equipment share, and the structures and producers' transportation equipment share variables were constructed as follows, using all information available. Summers and Heston (1990) report real investment as a share of GDP for each year from 1960 to 1985. The ICP reports the quantity ratio of equipment to total investment in each of its years—1970, 1975, and 1980—for the nations covered. If 1970, 1975, and 1980 quantity ratios were all available, the average equipment share was made by first multiplying the 1970 equipment share of investment by the average investment share of GDP from 1960-1972, multiplying the 1975 equipment share of investment by the average investment share of GDP from 1973-1977, and the 1980 equipment share of investment by the average investment shares from 1978-1985. Then these three values were averaged. If only 1975 and 1980 equipment share of investment ratios were available, they were multiplied by average investment share of GDP over 1960-1977 and 1978-1985, respectively, and averaged. If only the 1980 equipment share of investment was available, it was simply multiplied by the average investment share of GDP over 1960-1985.

^bRegression using the 1975 GDP per worker gap.

Results using the entire 61 nation sample are somewhat sensitive to outliers. The exclusion of Zambia, for example, raises the adjusted R^2 in the regression underlying figure VI from 0.29 to 0.44; the exclusion of Botswana would reduce the adjusted R^2 from 0.29 to 0.21. Inclusion or exclusion of these two countries can move the equipment share coefficient between 0.21 and 0.31, although the coefficient remains significant at conventional levels.

Although the larger 61 nation sample is significantly affected by outliers, it is worth pointing out that it omits two outlier nations with large identifying variances that would significantly strengthen our findings. Singapore and Taiwan have both had high equipment quantities, low equipment prices, and rapid productivity growth in the post-World War II period. Neither Singapore nor Taiwan is in our sample. Singapore surrendered and regained its independence during our sample period. The existence of Taiwan is not recognized by international organizations. The inclusion of these two observations would strengthen our conclusions.¹⁶

D. Additional Growth Determinants

It is natural to wonder whether the quantity of equipment is proxying for some other well-known determinant of growth omitted from our list of independent variables. Table II reports the results of adding variables measuring (i) the share of manufacturing in value added, (ii) the importance of public investment, (iii) the real exchange rate in 1980,¹⁷ and (iv) the continent to our basic specifications. The only case in which the inclusion of an additional variable has a material impact on the coefficient of equipment

¹⁶It is also worth pointing out that omitting the equipment investment share variable from the regression does not materially raise the coefficient on the other investment share. With equipment investment omitted, the other investment share has a coefficient of 0.029 for the high productivity sample and 0.105 for the larger sample; with other investment omitted, the equipment share has a coefficient in the two samples of 0.332 and 0.300, respectively.

¹⁷Since the real exchange rate is significantly related to current GDP per capita, our independent variable is the residual from a regression of the log 1980 real exchange rate on GDP per capita.

investment is the case in which continent dummies are added to the regression using the high productivity sample.

Table II
Productivity Growth and Equipment Investment with
Additional Correlates of Growth

Additional variable	Equip. share (w/o add. var.)	Equip. share (with add. var.)	Coefficient on add. var.	n	R ² (RMSE)
<i>High Productivity Sample</i>					
Public investment ^a	0.337 (0.056)	0.333 (0.058)	0.144 (0.296)	23	0.639 (0.008)
Mfg. share in GDP ^b	0.290 (0.058)	0.277 (0.056)	0.044 (0.027)	23	0.663 (0.007)
Exchange rate	0.337 (0.054)	0.333 (0.066)	0.001 (0.010)	25	0.644 (0.008)
Continent dummies					
<i>South America</i>	0.337 (0.054)	0.053 (0.063)	-0.010 (0.004)	25	0.856 (0.005)
<i>Europe</i>			0.008 (0.004)		
<i>Asia</i>			0.026 (0.006)		
<i>Larger Sample</i>					
Public investment	0.240 (0.075)	0.236 (0.075)	0.171 (0.154)	52	0.254 (0.012)
Mfg. share in GDP	0.288 (0.062)	0.287 (0.063)	0.012 (0.025)	45	0.413 (0.011)
Exchange rate	0.265 (0.065)	0.300 (0.072)	-0.007 (0.006)	61	0.294 (0.013)
Continent dummies					
<i>South America</i>	0.265 (0.065)	0.288 (0.072)	0.006 (0.006)	61	0.385 (0.012)
<i>Europe</i>			0.011 (0.008)		
<i>Asia</i>			0.012 (0.006)		
<i>Africa</i> ^c			-0.005 (0.006)		

^aFrom Barro (1990) The ratio of real public domestic investment to real domestic investment—average over 1970–85.

^bThe ratio of real manufacturing value added to real GDP in 1980.

^cThere are no African nations in the high productivity sample.

The lack of effect of continent dummies in the larger sample is perhaps worth a further note. Much of the identifying variance in our regressions does come from a comparison of East Asia to South America, but there is substantial variation within continents as well. Considering islands and peninsulas along the coast of Asia, Hong Kong, Japan, and Korea have low equipment prices, high equipment quantities, and rapid growth while Sri Lanka and the Philippines have high equipment prices, low quantities, and slow growth. Argentina, Chile, and Uruguay are poorly-performing South American nations, but Brazil has performed well. In Africa, Senegal, Madagascar, and Zambia have performed badly, but the Ivory Coast, Botswana, and Tunisia have all grown relatively rapidly.

The high productivity sample lacks these within-continent contrasts. The high productivity sample contains the United States, Canada, fast-growing Asians, slow-growing Latin Americans, and many intermediate European nations. Within Latin America the association between growth and equipment investment is strong. Within Europe it is not. And there are many more European than Latin American data points in the sample.

A great deal of attention has been devoted in recent years to the relationship between pricing distortions—particularly protection—and growth. The 1987 *World Development Report* has provided perhaps the most powerful statement of the case that relative economic success or failure is to a significant degree a function of the government's willingness to see its industry compete with foreign producers for the domestic market on a level playing field. Unfortunately, quantitative measures of the importance of protectionist barriers are not available, and the qualitative measures available do not match the sample of countries that we have used.

Table III examines the relationship between growth and equipment investment holding constant measures of the incidence of distortions. Measures of distortions are drawn from Luca Barbone's (1988) assessment of OECD openness using residuals from a modified gravity trade model;

from Jones' estimates of national effective protection rates, as summarized in the zero-one dummy variable for countries with effective protection rates above 40 percent used in Barro [1990b]; from "business leaders" perceptions of the business climate as reported in a collection of survey evidence, the *World Competitiveness Report*; from the work of Agarwala reported in the 1983 *World Development Report*, and from World Bank assessments of the "outward" orientation of trade policy as reported in the 1987 *World Development Report*.

While many of the measures of trade orientation and distortions we use suffer from being the subjective judgments of analysts who also know about growth outcomes, we nevertheless prefer them to the use of trade shares which we regard as relatively uninformative.¹⁸ Trade share measures to a large degree pick up difference in national size and proximity to trading partners. Suppose, for example, that Belgium and Holland merged. Would the resulting entity be—in any interesting sense—less open and able to exploit economies of scale than either country was previously?

The *World Competitiveness Report* surveyed business leaders around the world, asking them to assess governmental policies and economic environments in eighteen OECD and eight developing nations. We take three "openness" variables from the *World Competitiveness Report*: businessmen's assessments from the survey of the extent to which the government's exchange rate policy is oriented toward keeping its industries competitive exporters, the extent to which inward trade is free, and the extent to which trade legislation supports businessmen who wish to export as opposed to those who fear competition from imports.

¹⁸As used in, for example, Romer [1989].

Table III
Productivity Growth and Equipment Investment with
Alternative Distortion Measures

Additional variable	Equip. share (w/o add. var.)	Equip. share (w add. var.)	Coefficient of add. var.	n	R ² (RMSE)
<i>Barbone [1988]</i>					
Coefficient in openness regression	0.033 (0.089)	0.032 (0.093)	0.001 (0.009)	17	0.633 (0.006)
<i>World Competitiveness Report</i>					
Exch. rate policy Compet. Oriented	0.229 (0.084)	0.246 (0.086)	-0.001 (0.001)	26	0.500 (0.008)
Free Extern of Inward Trade		0.202 (0.092)	0.002 (0.002)		0.492 (0.008)
Trade Legislation Outward Oriented		0.227 (0.096)	0.007 (0.014)		0.478 (0.008)
<i>Jones (Barro [1990b])</i>					
Eff. prt. >40 percent high pdty. sample	0.335 (0.050)	0.261 (0.052)	-0.011 (0.004)	22	0.788 (0.006)
Effective protection rate > 40 percent	0.286 (0.068)	0.209 (0.066)	-0.011 (0.004)	43	0.448 (0.010)
<i>World Development Report 1983 (Agarwala)</i>					
Exchange rate ^a pricing distortion	0.165 (0.178)	0.081 (0.165)	-0.010 (0.004)	26	0.270 (0.012)
Protection of manufacturing distortion		0.183 (0.173)	-0.007 (0.004)		0.169 (0.013)
Capital pricing distortion		0.332 (0.191)	-0.011 (0.006)		0.203 (0.013)
Labor pricing distortion		0.171 (0.166)	-0.006 (0.003)		0.230 (0.013)
Distortion index ^b value		0.188 (0.155)	-0.018 (0.007)		0.331 (0.012)
Distortion index ranking		0.205 (0.151)	-0.010 (0.003)		0.366 (0.011)
<i>World Development Report 1987</i>					
Outward trade ^c oriented 1963-1973	0.242 (0.183)	0.153 (0.145)	0.011 (0.003)	32	0.414 (0.012)
Outward trade oriented 1973-1985		0.107 (0.145)	0.012 (0.003)		0.428 (0.012)

^aDistortion indices range from 1 to 3 for low, moderate, and high distortions.

^bAverage of the above distortions plus three more: agricultural protection, tariff, and inflation distortions.

^cRanges from 1 to 4 on a scale from strongly outward oriented to strongly inward oriented.

In the *World Competitiveness Report* sample, none of the three variables enters our growth equation significantly, and inclusion of each of the three does not materially affect the coefficient on equipment quantities. The failure of the *World Competitiveness Report* “openness” variables to reduce the coefficient on equipment investment gives us some confidence that equipment investment is not simply a proxy for distortions that work against the interests of exporters. These two sets of “openness” variables have the substantial virtue of not having been constructed in the context of studies advocating free trade.

Regressions using the Barbone openness estimates for OECD countries give no signs that our equipment variables are proxies for openness or trade-reducing distortions. The residuals from his modified gravity model are ineffective as an independent variable in our growth equation. And the coefficient of the equipment quantity variable is unaffected. Regressions using the Jones high effective protection rate dummy variable show that in both the larger and high productivity samples inclusion of the variable reduces the equipment investment coefficient by 1/4, and that nations with a high effective protection rate see economic growth lower by a significant 1.1 percent per year.

The Agarwala sample is not a favorable one for our basic regressions. It contains a set of poor nations for which our specifications work relatively badly, and for which the data are least reliable. In the Agarwala sample our basic equipment share regressions produce a coefficient half as large, with a standard error three times as large, as in our basic specification. Nevertheless, five of the six Agarwala measures *increase* the equipment coefficient when they are included in the regression. Only the exchange rate distortion index appears to pick up a significant part of the equipment investment share variable.

The World Bank sample is also a poor one for our basic specification—producing an equipment share coefficient of 0.242 with a standard error

of 0.183. The World Bank's "outward orientation" measure enters the regression significantly—the more outward oriented, the faster growth—and halves the equipment coefficient when included. The World Bank's trade orientation measure does capture a significant fraction of the factors captured by our equipment variable, in much the same way as the Agarwala exchange rate distortion variable does; the coefficient on the equipment share is reduced by about half.

Table IV
Productivity Growth and Disaggregated Investment 1960–85

Labor force growth	GDP/wkr gap	Equip. share	Non- equip. share	Machine ^a share	Elect. share	Struct. share	Trans. share	n	R ² (RMSE)
<i>High Productivity Sample</i>									
-0.002 (0.146)	0.030 (0.009)	0.337 (0.054)	-0.015 (0.033)					25	0.662 (0.008)
0.044 (0.144)	0.036 (0.009)	0.284 (0.063)				-0.006 (0.028)	0.332 (0.237)	25	0.675 (0.008)
0.036 (0.184)	0.019 ^b (0.013)	0.343 (0.079)				-0.021 (0.041)	0.106 (0.301)	25	0.489 (0.009)
0.004 (0.130)	0.034 (0.008)		-0.009 (0.029)	0.202 (0.072)	0.718 (0.160)			25	0.732 (0.007)
0.015 (0.135)	0.035 (0.009)			0.199 (0.074)	0.666 ^c (0.203)	-0.009 (0.030)	0.109 (0.249)	25	0.719 (0.007)
<i>Larger Sample</i>									
-0.031 (0.198)	0.020 (0.009)	0.265 (0.065)	0.062 (0.035)					61	0.291 (0.013)
-0.005 (0.196)	0.021 (0.009)	0.291 (0.076)				0.074 (0.031)	-0.078 (0.233)	61	0.310 (0.013)
0.056 (0.210)	0.005 ^b (0.008)	0.295 (0.082)				0.056 (0.037)	-0.212 (0.218)	61	0.234 (0.034)
-0.053 (0.197)	0.022 (0.009)		0.064 (0.034)	0.136 (0.107)	0.562 (0.206)			61	0.308 (0.013)
-0.049 (0.197)	0.021 (0.009)			0.162 (0.110)	0.637 ^d (0.219)	0.071 (0.090)	-0.237 (0.350)	61	0.307 (0.013)

^aDisaggregated shares were created using the same procedure as for the equipment share in table 1.

^bRegression uses 1975 GDP per worker gap instead of 1960 gap.

^cT-statistic on difference between electrical equipment and non-electrical machinery coefficients equals 1.95.

^dT-statistic on difference between electrical equipment and non-electrical machinery coefficients equals 1.67.

We are not sure how to interpret this association between the World Bank's outward orientation measure and our equipment investment measures. Korea, for example, which the World Bank treats as strongly outward oriented, has not attained its outward orientation by keeping relative prices free, but has sought instead to promote and heavily subsidize heavy and export industry.¹⁹ It may well be that promoting equipment investment and spurring export growth go hand in hand.²⁰

E. Components of Investment

Table IV reports results using different disaggregations of investment. When producers' transportation equipment is considered separately from the "other investment" aggregate, its coefficient is large—albeit imprecisely estimated—for the high productivity sample when the initial 1960 GDP per worker gap is used as a control. When the mid-sample GDP per worker gap is used, or when the larger 61 country sample is considered, producers' transportation equipment has a much weaker relationship to growth than either electrical machinery or non-electrical equipment.

Our decision to consider as our primary "equipment" measure the aggregate of electrical and non-electrical machinery excluding producers' durable transportation equipment is open to question. The fifth line of each panel of table IV contains the finest disaggregation of investment. In the high productivity sample, electrical and non-electrical machinery each help to forecast growth when the other is in the regression; structures and transport equipment do not.

In the larger sample, electrical machinery and non-electrical

¹⁹See Collins and Park [1987]. The 1987 *World Development Report* both holds Korea up as one of a very few examples of "strongly outward oriented" nations and critiques its governments for having interfered heavily in relative prices and so reduced growth rates.

²⁰Table V below presents some regressions suggesting that this may indeed be the case and that equipment investment and the *World Development Report* outward orientation measures are strong complements. However, equipment investment and a low Jones effective protection rate measure appear to be, if anything, substitutes.

machinery are the only components with t-statistics greater than one and positive signs, and it is not possible to reject the null that their coefficients are the same. We do not believe that any of our substantive results depend on the exclusion of producers' transportation equipment from our equipment aggregate, or on the grouping of electrical and non-electrical machinery.²¹

We suspect that attempting to refine the analysis and estimate different effects on growth of the different components of equipment pushes beyond the information that the data reliably contain. Our exploration of the separate effects on growth of electrical machinery and non-electrical equipment produced somewhat puzzling results. On the one hand, as table 4 shows the quantity of electric machinery has a more potent impact on growth than the non-electric machinery component. On the other hand, we have found that electrical machinery *prices* are less related to growth than non-electrical equipment prices—the fastest growing nations are those that have the lowest non-electrical equipment prices, not the lowest electrical machinery prices.²² We therefore settle on our “equipment” variable.

F. Interaction Terms

It is possible that the marginal impact of equipment investment differs systematically with the rate of equipment investment or with the values of other potential independent variables. Romer [1989], in his discussion of the determinants of growth, places great emphasis on evidence using total investment that the apparent marginal product of investment declines as nations grow richer and increases as their export share increases.

²¹In many industries electrical machinery and non-electrical machinery are very strong complements; efficient production requires both.

²²We report some of the disaggregated relative investment price regressions we have performed in Appendix III.

Table V
Productivity Growth and Interaction Terms

Interaction variable	Labor force growth	GDP per worker gap	Equip. share	Non-equip. share	Interaction term	Extreme Marginal Effect of Equipment Investment in:			R ² n (RMSE)	
						Poor ^a country	Rich country	High n		
<i>High Productivity Sample</i>										
GDP gap 60	-0.029 (0.146)	-0.028 (0.048)	-0.136 (0.392)	-0.030 (0.035)	0.777 (0.637)	0.445 (0.103)	-0.136 (0.392)	25	0.670 (0.008)	
GDP gap 75	-0.074 (0.146)	-0.087 (0.031)	-0.399 (0.226)	0.005 (0.033)	1.621 (0.466)	0.651 (0.100)	-0.399 (0.226)	25	0.683 (0.007)	
Equipment share	0.029 (0.137)	0.041 (0.010)	0.811 (0.242)	0.018 (0.035)	-3.680 (1.841)	0.698 (0.187)	-0.089 (0.219)	25	0.706 (0.007)	
Negative of Jones EPR	0.096 (0.136)	0.040 (0.007)	0.156 (0.069)	-0.002 (0.027)	-0.219 (0.105)	0.156 (0.069)	0.375 (0.114)	22	0.825 (0.006)	
<i>Larger Sample</i>										
GDP gap 60	-0.039 (0.204)	0.015 (0.026)	0.207 (0.291)	0.060 (0.037)	0.078 (0.378)	0.282 (0.280)	0.207 (0.291)	61	0.279 (0.013)	
GDP gap 75	0.017 (0.218)	-0.004 (0.020)	0.147 (0.204)	0.048 (0.037)	0.172 (0.293)	0.316 (0.119)	0.147 (0.204)	61	0.229 (0.014)	
Equipment share	-0.027 (0.200)	0.019 (0.010)	0.177 (0.241)	0.061 (0.035)	0.691 (1.813)	0.358 (0.252)	0.196 (0.193)	61	0.281 (0.013)	
Negative of Jones EPR	0.208 (0.218)	0.035 (0.009)	0.195 (0.101)	0.048 (0.036)	-0.027 (0.146)	0.195 (0.101)	0.222 (0.144)	43	0.433 (0.010)	
<i>Outward orientation</i>										
Outward oriented 63-73	-0.272 (0.381)	0.036 (0.024)	-0.256 (0.264)	0.061 (0.047)	0.205 (0.112)	0.002 (0.006)	0.563 (0.265)	-0.051 (0.178)	32	0.461 (0.012)
Outward oriented 73-83	-0.139 (0.359)	0.045 (0.023)	-0.288 (0.247)	0.036 (0.047)	0.211 (0.109)	0.005 (0.007)	0.556 (0.271)	-0.077 (0.168)	32	0.482 (0.011)

^aThese two columns give the increase in growth produced by a increase in equipment investment for the extreme countries in the sample: the first column applies to the poorest, with the lowest equipment investment, or the most outward oriented (which have the highest marginal effect of equipment investment on growth) nation; the second column applies to the richest, with the highest equipment investment, or the most inward oriented nation in the sample.

Table V adds quadratic equipment terms and the interactions between investment and the initial GDP gap, the *WDR* openness rating, and the Jones effective protection rate (EPR) dummy from Barro [1990b] to our basic specifications. The results are, unfortunately, inconclusive. There is some

evidence in the high productivity sample that the impact of additional investment on growth declines with the initial GDP per worker level, though the result fails to be statistically significant when the 1960 GDP per worker gap is used (although substantively it is very significant). There is also some evidence for decreasing returns to equipment investment. The (investment)² term is substantively significant for the high productivity sample.

But the patterns found in the high productivity sample are not robust to sample expansion. In the larger sample the interaction of GDP per worker and equipment investment is statistically and substantively insignificant. Moreover, the interaction of equipment investment with itself changes sign in our basic specification. We find very attractive the idea that a high social product of equipment investment reflects technology transfer mediated through capital goods, and thus that the social product is higher for poorer countries with more of a technology gap to bridge. But the data do not speak reliably enough on this point for us to be willing to do more than point out that the question is intriguing and potentially very important, and the evidence not conclusive.

The interaction of a high Jones effective protection rate dummy variable from Barro [1990b] and equipment investment similarly produces different patterns in the two samples. And in the high productivity sample, it appears that it is strongly protectionist, not open countries that benefit most from equipment investment.

This does not fit the fact that the interaction of equipment investment and the *WDR* trade orientation, for those developing nations with available data, is significant and important: the most outward oriented nations appear to be those that benefit the most from an increase in the equipment investment share. It is necessary to be both outward oriented *and* to have a high equipment investment share in order to achieve rapid growth. And the estimated coefficients imply that the most inward oriented nations would not benefit at all from increased equipment investment. High rates of

equipment investment appear to complement, not substitute for an outward orientation as the *World Development Report* defines it. It is somewhat puzzling that they do not also appear to complement a low effective rate of protection.

IV. Does Equipment Investment Cause Productivity Growth?

The relationship between equipment investment quantities and economic growth appears relatively robust, in that equipment investment does not appear to be proxying for some other widely recognized determinant of growth. This section takes up the question of whether the relationship between equipment investment and growth is causal.

One reason to believe that equipment investment causes growth, rather than that growth causes investment, is that if growth caused investment we would expect to see similar associations between equipment and structures investment and growth. Rapid economic growth certainly raises the quasi-rents earned by investments in equipment to establish and entrench market positions, but it also raises the rents earned by structures. Favorably located land is in fixed supply and larger structures economize on the use of such land, and so one might imagine that faster economic growth would tend to shift the use of savings away from producers' equipment and toward structures. Yet it is equipment, not investment and not structures, that is associated with rapid growth in our sample.

In this section we provide additional evidence against the hypothesis that equipment investment and growth are both driven by some third variable—that the same favorable conditions that raise productivity growth might also encourage equipment investment without equipment investment playing an essential direct role—in four further steps. First, we examine the association between equipment investment and the components of GDP growth driven by productivity growth and labor force growth; we find a

much closer relationship between productivity growth and equipment investment than between productivity growth and labor force growth; this is hard to reconcile with a viewpoint that holds that increasing GDP drives equipment investment. Second, we consider timing evidence. Third, we consider the joint behavior of equipment prices and quantities; we regard this as the strongest of the pieces of evidence—fast growth goes with high quantities and low prices of equipment investment, and this is not easy to reconcile with the belief that the high quantity of equipment investment in rapidly growing countries is due to some other factor that has both caused fast growth and shifted the demand curve for equipment investment outward. Fourth, we consider the effects of alternative instruments for the equipment quantity variable; if the association between growth and investment were due to some additional factor causing both, it would be surprising if that additional factor were closely associated with all of the different instruments we use.

A. Equipment Investment and the Components of Total GDP Growth

If the association between equipment investment and growth arose from some sort of accelerator mechanism, and equipment investment was a consequence and not a cause of growth, one would expect both increases in productivity and increases in the labor force to lead to increased equipment investment. Table VI reports regressions, for both the high productivity and the larger samples, with equipment investment on the left hand side and with the two different components of GDP growth—the rate of growth of GDP per worker, and the rate of growth of the labor force—on the right hand side as well as our standard control variables of the 1960 GDP per worker gap and the share of GDP devoted to other types of investment. Table VI shows that equipment investment is strongly positively associated with increases in GDP that come from increasing productivity, and *negatively* associated with increases in GDP that come from increasing the labor force holding productivity constant. The t-statistic on the difference

between the productivity growth and the labor force coefficients is more than 3 for the larger sample and more than 5 for the high productivity sample.

Table VI
Equipment Investment and the Components of Total GDP Growth

Sample	Other investment share	GDP/wkr. gap	GDP/wkr. growth	Labor force growth	n	R ² (RMSE)
High productivity sample	0.073 (0.078)	-0.063 (0.023)	1.965 (0.314)	-0.176 (0.351)	25	0.645 (0.019)
Larger sample	0.070 (0.064)	-0.033 (0.017)	0.858 (0.211)	-0.361 (0.354)	61	0.371 (0.023)

Table VI is thus an additional piece of evidence against the claim that our results arise because rapid growth leads naturally to rapid investment through an accelerator mechanism. Rapid total GDP growth driven by increasing productivity is closely associated with high equipment investment. Rapid total GDP growth driven by an increasing labor force is not. It is hard to reconcile this differential association of equipment investment with intensive and extensive growth without invoking a causal role for equipment investment in producing productivity growth.

B. Timing

If some unobserved attribute—perhaps national culture, or the structure of institutions—causes rapid productivity growth, there is the possibility that it would also induce an increase in equipment investment. In this case the association and equipment investment and growth would be driven by some deeper country-specific attribute. If such an attribute is persistent, a plausible proxy would be past growth rates. Table VII therefore adds growth over the 1960-1975 period to equations relating 1975-1985 growth to equipment for both our high productivity and full samples. The inclusion of past growth does not add much explanatory

power. The impact of equipment investment on growth is only marginally affected.

Table VII
1975–1985 Productivity Growth as a Function of Lagged
1960–1975 Productivity Growth and the Lagged Investment
Share

Specification	Lab. fee. growth	GDP/wkr. gap	Equip. share	Non- equip. share	Lagged 1960–1975 GDP/wkr. growth	n	R ² (RMSE)
<i>High Productivity Sample</i>							
Current eq. shares	-0.177 (0.258)	0.014 (0.016)	0.425 (0.105)	0.047 (0.059)		25	0.428 (0.013)
Current eq. shares	-0.174 (0.264)	0.015 (0.016)	0.447 (0.132)	0.044 (0.062)	-0.060 (0.218)	25	0.400 (0.013)
Lagged eq. shares ^a	-0.056 (0.264)	0.018 (0.015)	0.390 (0.096)	0.027 (0.051)		25	0.449 (0.013)
Lagged eq. shares	-0.053 (0.271)	0.018 (0.016)	0.399 (0.118)	0.026 (0.054)	-0.030 (0.207)	25	0.421 (0.013)
<i>Larger Sample</i>							
Current eq. shares	-0.372 (0.305)	0.026 (0.012)	0.291 (0.101)	0.112 (0.053)		61	0.192 (0.020)
Current eq. shares	-0.415 (0.306)	0.027 (0.012)	0.230 (0.114)	0.098 (0.054)	0.201 (0.178)	61	0.196 (0.020)
Lagged eq. shares	-0.421 (0.348)	0.010 (0.013)	0.117 (0.110)	-0.017 (0.057)		61	-0.018 (0.022)
Lagged eq. shares	-0.533 (0.332)	0.016 (0.013)	0.044 (0.108)	-0.025 (0.054)	0.453 (0.167)	61	0.086 (0.021)

^aLagged shares were constructed by multiplying the average of ICP observations of the equipment shares of investment by the investment share of GDP from 1960 to 1975, and then averaging over years.

Table VII also replaces current equipment investment with an estimate of the lagged investment share over 1960–1975 in the list of the determinants of 1975–1985 growth. If high investment is a consequence and not a cause of growth, it is hard to imagine how lagged investment could be

a better proxy for unobserved determinants of growth than lagged growth itself. Lagged equipment investment is estimated by multiplying the total investment share over 1960–1975 by ICP observations of the equipment share of investment. This lagged equipment variable has strong predictive power in the high productivity sample, and weak predictive power in the larger sample. It has strong predictive power in the high productivity sample even with 1960-1975 growth also included.²³

C. Equipment Prices and Growth

Figures VII and VIII plot the component of the equipment price orthogonal to GDP per worker²⁴ to growth rates, partialing out labor growth, relative prices of other investment, and initial productivity for both the full and high productivity samples. There is a strong *negative* association between equipment prices and growth. We see the association of growth with high quantities and low prices of equipment as strong evidence that equipment investment drives growth. If high rates of investment were a consequence rather than a cause of growth, one would expect that because of strong demand the price of equipment would be high in rapidly growing countries.

²³We have also attempted to estimate fixed-effects models relating changes in equipment investment rates to changes in growth rates without success. Our failure might be due to an errors-in-variables problem arising from our lack of direct data on the equipment proportion of investment before 1975 for most countries.

²⁴The “orthogonalized” equipment price used as the independent variable is the residual from log real relative equipment price regressed on GDP per capita relative to the United States, measured in international dollars. For nations covered in both the 1975 and 1980 ICP phases, the two observations are averaged to obtain an estimate of the characteristic relative price structure in the post-World War II period. Since equipment prices are markedly lower in richer countries, it is important to consider only that portion of relative prices orthogonal to the country’s level of GDP per worker. If we used the unadjusted and not the “orthogonalized” equipment price in a regression, it would be close to including the end of sample period level of GDP per worker as an independent variable. Since the beginning of sample period level of GDP per worker has already been included as an independent variable, such a regression would come close to reproducing the identity that change = final - initial.

Figure VII
Partial Scatter of 1960–85 Growth and Equipment Relative Price

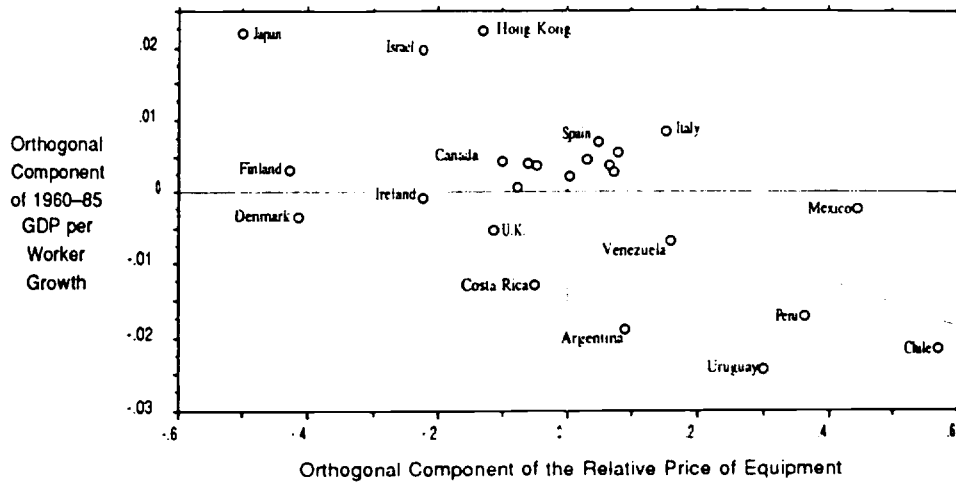
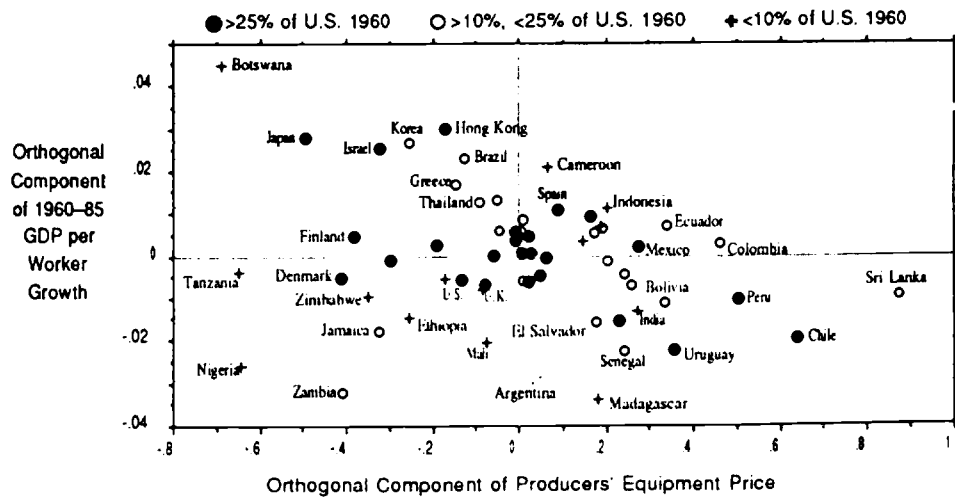


Figure VIII
Partial Scatter of Growth and Equipment Prices, All Countries



Fast growth would shift demand to the right, and move the economy upward and outward along the equipment supply curve. Instead, growth is associated with a move down and to the right in an equipment price-

quantity graph, suggesting that supply is shifting out in high-growth countries and moving the economy along the equipment demand curve.²⁵

The relationship between equipment prices and growth is explored in more detail in Table VIII, which reports equations relating equipment prices and growth for both our samples. The relationship between equipment prices and growth is almost as robust as the relation between quantities and growth for the high productivity sample. It is less robust for the larger 61 nation sample. Many African countries, including Ethiopia, Madagascar, Mali, Nigeria, Senegal, and Zambia, report low real producers' equipment prices, and yet have exhibited disappointing long run productivity growth rates.

In large part, low equipment prices operate to promote growth by increasing the quantity of equipment investment. As Table IX shows, when equipment investment is included in the productivity equation the coefficient on equipment prices declines, and is never both significant and negative. This bears on the "liberalization" hypothesis discussed above. If high equipment investment's large coefficient in a growth regression arose because it proxied for the presence of a *laissez faire* attitude towards trade, one would expect the equipment price variable, a direct measurement of distortions, to be a more important determinant of growth than the equipment quantity.

D. Alternative Sources of Variation in Equipment Investment

The evidence in the previous subsection suggested that low equipment prices are associated with rapid subsequent productivity growth, and that the mechanism through which the association operates is high rates of equipment investment; we now consider various sources of variation in equipment investment, and their impact on productivity growth. More

²⁵The association between low prices and growth does not arise because high investment makes it possible to take advantage of economies of scale in production. A high fraction of equipment—30 percent—is imported even in the United States. In Colombia, 80 percent of equipment is imported.

generally, an assertion that differences in equipment investment cause differences in productivity growth is a claim that changes in equipment investment, however engineered, will influence growth. The next best thing to direct experimental evidence is to examine whether different sources of variation in equipment have similar impacts on growth. To do this, we instrument equipment investment with a number of alternative variables and check whether its estimated impact changes. This procedure can be viewed as an informal Hausman-Wu test of the proposition that equipment investment can be treated as an exogenous variable.

Table VIII
Productivity Growth and Equipment Prices

Period	Lab. fce. GDP/wkr. growth	Tot. inv. Equip. ^a gap	rate	price	n	R ² (RMSE)
<i>High Productivity Sample</i>						
1960-1985	0.004 (0.192)	0.020 (0.012)	0.050 (0.037)	-0.024 (0.009)	25	0.414 (0.010)
1960-1975	0.049 (0.212)	0.045 (0.014)	0.008 (0.004)	-0.005 (0.014)	25	0.428 (0.012)
1970-1985	0.040 (0.198)	-0.007 (0.013)	0.031 (0.040)	-0.033 (0.010)	25	0.404 (0.011)
1975-1985	-0.061 (0.288)	-0.006 (0.016)	0.104 (0.056)	-0.025 (0.013)	25	0.309 (0.014)
<i>Larger Sample</i>						
1960-1985	-0.086 (0.213)	0.017 (0.010)	0.099 (0.030)	-0.004 (0.007)	61	0.181 (0.014)
1960-1975	-0.075 (0.239)	0.011 (0.012)	0.007 (0.002)	-0.005 (0.008)	61	0.119 (0.017)
1970-1985	-0.093 (0.245)	0.021 (0.011)	0.123 (0.036)	0.001 (0.080)	61	0.157 (0.017)
1975-1985	-0.393 (0.317)	0.025 (0.013)	0.146 (0.044)	0.006 (0.009)	61	0.138 (0.021)
<i>Larger Sample with Barro Correlates</i>						
1960-1985	0.003 (0.219)	0.040 (0.014)	0.059 (0.035)	-0.009 (0.007)	61	0.290 (0.013)
1960-1975	0.029 (0.234)	0.032 (0.017)	0.034 (0.036)	-0.016 (0.009)	61	0.257 (0.015)
1970-1985	-0.224 (0.284)	0.034 (0.018)	0.109 (0.043)	-0.001 (0.009)	61	0.163 (0.017)
1975-1985	-0.555 (0.365)	0.034 (0.019)	0.146 (0.052)	0.011 (0.011)	61	0.159 (0.020)

^aThe equipment price used is the average of that component of the 1975 and 1980 ICP observations orthogonal to GDP per worker. For countries where there was no 1975 price, the 1980 orthogonalized price was used alone, and vice versa.

Table IX
Productivity Growth, Equipment Quantities, and Equipment Prices

Period	Labor force. growth	GDP/wkr gap	Equip. price	Equip. share	Non- equip. share	n	R ² (RMSE)
<i>High Productivity Sample</i>							
1960-1985	-0.008 (0.149)	0.033 (0.010)	0.007 (0.011)	0.384 (0.092)	-0.018 (0.034)	25	0.651 (0.008)
1960-1975	-0.081 (0.201)	0.051 (0.014)	0.016 (0.015)	0.338 (0.130)	-0.060 (0.045)	25	0.470 (0.011)
1970-1985	-0.026 (0.171)	0.014 (0.013)	-0.002 (0.013)	0.367 (0.118)	-0.024 (0.039)	25	0.572 (0.009)
1975-1985	-0.229 (0.279)	0.020 (0.019)	0.012 (0.021)	0.523 (0.205)	0.040 (0.062)	25	0.408 (0.013)
<i>Larger Sample</i>							
1960-1985	-0.033 (0.194)	0.028 (0.010)	0.015 (0.009)	0.404 (0.101)	0.050 (0.035)	61	0.318 (0.013)
1960-1975	-0.087 (0.245)	0.011 (0.013)	-0.004 (0.012)	0.149 (0.129)	0.040 (0.046)	61	0.079 (0.017)
1970-1985	-0.145 (0.231)	0.034 (0.011)	0.024 (0.011)	0.453 (0.117)	0.052 (0.042)	61	0.257 (0.016)
1975-1985	-0.551 (0.290)	0.044 (0.013)	0.040 (0.013)	0.670 (0.155)	0.078 (0.051)	61	0.298 (0.019)
<i>Larger Sample with Barro Correlates</i>							
1960-1985	-0.017 (0.202)	0.042 (0.013)	0.011 (0.009)	0.377 (0.109)	0.028 (0.037)	61	0.397 (0.012)
1960-1975	0.023 (0.234)	0.035 (0.017)	-0.008 (0.011)	0.207 (0.129)	-0.003 (0.044)	61	0.256 (0.015)
1970-1985	-0.292 (0.264)	0.046 (0.017)	0.024 (0.012)	0.472 (0.123)	0.036 (0.046)	61	0.283 (0.016)
1975-1985	-0.743 (0.334)	0.049 (0.018)	0.044 (0.014)	0.659 (0.162)	0.083 (0.058)	61	0.312 (0.018)

Table X
Productivity Growth and Equipment Investment Instrumented with Equipment Prices, Savings Rates, and *World Competitiveness Report* Trade Orientation Variables

Instruments Used	Labor Force Growth	GDP/Wkr. Gap	Equip. Share	Non-Equip. Share	n	R ²
<i>High Productivity Sample</i>						
OLS	-0.002 (0.146)	0.030 (0.009)	0.337 (0.054)	-0.015 (0.033)	25	0.662
Equip. Prices	-0.063 (0.158)	0.031 (0.009)	0.318 (0.068)	-0.048 (0.041)		0.638
OLS	0.009 (0.149)	0.032 (0.009)	0.339 (0.055)	-0.017 (0.033)	24	0.667
Savings Rate	0.100 (0.206)	0.034 (0.011)	0.505 (0.191)	-0.039 (0.047)		0.506
OLS	0.092 (0.155)	0.042 (0.008)	0.161 (0.079)	-0.019 (0.045)	18	0.661
WCR Variables	-0.009 (0.342)	0.046 (0.014)	0.104 (0.215)	-0.103 (0.298)		0.480
<i>Large Sample</i>						
OLS	-0.031 (0.198)	0.020 (0.009)	0.265 (0.065)	0.062 (0.035)	61	0.291
Equip. Prices	-0.112 (0.209)	0.016 (0.010)	0.180 (0.085)	0.043 (0.046)		0.257
OLS	-0.029 (0.201)	0.020 (0.009)	0.265 (0.066)	0.062 (0.035)	60	0.291
Savings Rate	-0.248 (1.643)	0.011 (0.068)	-0.162 (3.173)	0.131 (0.511)		
OLS	0.161 (0.165)	0.034 (0.007)	0.229 (0.084)	0.013 (0.050)	26	0.503
WCR Variables	0.440 (0.479)	0.034 (0.015)	0.268 (0.320)	0.298 (0.474)		

For both the high productivity and full samples, Table X reports OLS estimates of the relation between equipment investment and growth, along with estimates obtained by instrumenting with equipment prices, with rates of national saving, and with measures of trade liberalization. The results for the high-productivity sample are supportive of a causal relation between equipment investment and growth. The coefficient using either prices or the national saving rate as an instrument is close to that obtained using OLS. Using *World Competitiveness Report* survey measures of trade orientation

as an instrument yields an imprecise estimate of the impact of equipment on growth, lower by six percentage points than the OLS estimate in the high productivity sample.

The results for the larger sample are almost as strong. Instrumenting equipment with its price or with the *WCR* survey variables yields results that are similar to the OLS results, although the *WCR*-instrumented coefficient is once again imprecise. However, the coefficient turns negative (with an enormous standard error) in the full sample when national saving rates are used as an instrument.²⁶

Five out of six regressions produce no material difference when the equipment investment coefficient is estimated by instrumental variables rather than by ordinary least squares. It is easy to construct arguments that the instruments used here are endogenous. This makes the similarity of the estimates obtained with different instruments to each other and to the OLS estimates more surprising. The different components of variation in equipment investment associated with equipment prices, with the nominal savings rate, and with the *WCR* variables all have the same association with the rate of growth. Such similarity would be a remarkable coincidence unless the association between equipment investment and growth is the result of structural causation running from equipment to growth.

V. Implications and Conclusions

We think that this paper makes a persuasive case for a strong association between equipment investment and growth. The relationship between rates of equipment investment and growth is very different from the relationship between structures investment and growth. It accounts for a substantial part of the variation in rates of growth. While there are a few

²⁶Perhaps national saving is a poor instrument for equipment investment in low income countries, given the importance of net capital inflows.

anomalies, we suspect that the results are very robust by the standards of research on cross-country growth. Tests of robustness performed here have been more extensive than in other efforts—for example, Romer [1989]—to draw conclusions about investment-growth correlations. Given the small number of observations, the large number of independent variables, and the poor quality of much data underlying the larger sample regressions, anomalies are inevitable. What is of interest is not that some specifications do not support our interpretation, but that many do.

A. Comparisons with Other Work

Our findings raise a number of questions. First, can they be reconciled with earlier research, especially research downplaying the role of capital accumulation? Research in the growth accounting tradition has assumed away the possibility of external effects from accumulation. But studies which took a more catholic viewpoint have also tended to downplay links between accumulation and growth. Dowrick and Nguyen [1989], for example, analyzed a sample close to our high productivity sample, yet found a coefficient of growth on the total investment share of only 0.12 or so.

We believe that many previous studies have been carried out at an inappropriate level of aggregation. We see no reason to expect that investments in structures should carry with them the same external effects as plausibly attach to investments in equipment. We are not aware of previous work that has separated the components of aggregate investment and studied their differential impacts on growth in a cross section of nations. Given the clear differences in the composition of investment depicted in Figure IV, it is not surprising that studies that have focused on total capital accumulation have understated the potential contribution of investment to growth.

One series of studies that has led to conclusions qualitatively similar to ours is the research project of Jorgenson [1988, 1990]. Jorgenson

estimates sectoral production functions and uses them for sophisticated and highly disaggregated growth accounting exercises. He finds substantial complementarity between equipment investment on the one hand and total factor productivity growth on the other. In most industries technological change is capital using: at given prices, isoquants with higher levels of total factor productivity lead to higher ratios of capital to labor (a point made for the nineteenth century by David [1977]).

Jorgenson thus finds a larger role for equipment investment in supporting productivity growth than is found in growth accounting work using aggregate production functions. The relative shares of industries differ across countries and since the magnitude of the capital using bias in total factor productivity growth may well not be independent of the level of productivity. Qualitatively, however, his stress on the importance of disaggregation in measuring capital inputs is the same as ours.

B. Equipment Investment and Aggregate Production Functions

Before seeking explanations involving external economies for our findings, it is important to ask whether they can be reconciled with the presence of a standard neoclassical aggregate production function and the restriction that capital is paid its marginal product. In neoclassical models steady-state growth rates are independent of investment rates. However, investment rates may influence growth rates as shifts in investment rates cause economies to transit between steady-state growth paths. Moreover, since equipment and structures have different depreciation rates, the neoclassical model predicts that with equal net private rates of return there will nevertheless be differences in the relationship between shifts in investment shares and shifts in the rate of growth of *gross* output including depreciation. This is the essential point behind Jorgenson's distinction between the stock of capital and the flow of capital services.

To evaluate the potential magnitude of these effects, we calculated the effects of increased equipment and structures investment on growth in GDP

and NDP, over short and long runs. For simplicity, we assumed an aggregate net product production function with the form of:

$$(2) \quad Y = (K_{eq} + K_{st})^\alpha L^{1-\alpha}$$

We begin the economy in steady state growth with the rate of growth of the effective labor force ($n + g$) equal to two percent per year, with the initial shares of GDP devoted to equipment and structures investment at 7.5 percent each, and with the rate of depreciation on structures equal to 2 percent per year. We consider capital shares (α) of 40 and 60 percent, and we consider depreciation rates on equipment (δ^{eq}) of 15 and 25 percent. For these various sets of parameter values, Table XI reports the marginal impact on growth rates in percentage points per year of a one percentage point shift in the GDP share of equipment or structures investment.

Table XI
Effect of a One Percentage Point Shift in the Proportion of GDP Devoted to Investment on Output Growth Rates

Shift in:	Percentage Point Change in Output Growth Rates				Parameters
	Over 1 Year		Over 25 Years		
	GDP	NDP	GDP	NDP	
Equipment investment	0.23	0.15	0.10	0.06	$\alpha = 0.4 \quad \delta^{eq} = 0.15$
Structures investment	0.16	0.16	0.14	0.13	
Equipment investment	0.39	0.27	0.17	0.13	$\alpha = 0.6 \quad \delta^{eq} = 0.15$
Structures investment	0.28	0.28	0.24	0.23	
Equipment investment	0.33	0.16	0.09	0.05	$\alpha = 0.4 \quad \delta^{eq} = 0.25$
Structures investment	0.17	0.17	0.15	0.14	

Two clear conclusions emerge. First, within the aggregate production function framework it is not possible to account for an association between investment and output growth of the magnitude suggested by the empirical cross-country results. Even assuming a capital share of 60 percent, a Cobb-Douglas production function produces a long-run effect of equipment

investment on growth little more than half as large as our empirical estimates support. Allowing for a lower elasticity of substitution in production would reinforce this conclusion. So would recognizing that differences in investment rates are persistent and that nations' capital/output ratios had already diverged by 1960 because of differential previous investment shares.

Second, the simulations illustrate that in the long run neoclassical models predict that increases in the share of output devoted to gross *structures* investment rather than equipment investment should have the most potent effect on growth. The effect of a once and for all shift Δi_{eq} in the equipment investment share asymptotically changes the equipment capital/output ratio by:

$$(3) \quad \Delta \left(\frac{K_{eq}}{Y} \right) = \frac{\Delta i_{eq}}{n + g + \delta^{eq}}$$

and similarly for a shift in structures investment. Because structures have a lower depreciation rate, adding to structures investment ultimately raises capital intensity and therefore gross output more than adding to equipment investment. A given increase in structures investment corresponds, in the long run, to a larger increase in cumulative net investment than does a given increase in the equipment investment rate. This pattern is even more apparent in net than in gross product growth.

C. Social Returns to Investment

We therefore interpret our results as suggesting that the private return to equipment investment is below the social return, and that the social return to equipment investment is very high. This raises the question of how to move from our coefficient estimates to estimates of the social returns to equipment investment.

We believe that our coefficients *understate* the true social return to equipment. Consider economies moving along steady-state paths as in

Solow [1956]. A regression of growth on capital formation will yield a zero coefficient even though capital has a positive rate of return. The negative correlation between the level of and rate of return to investment biases the coefficient on investment *down* below the rate of return in the average country.

To formalize this argument, consider a cross-section of nations i in each of which the marginal social product of *net* investment is r^i , so that:

$$(4) \quad \Delta Y_t^i = r^i (I_t^i - \delta K_t^i)$$

The average growth rate of output g^i over the sample is:

$$(5) \quad g^i = r^i \left\{ (I/Y)^i - \delta (K/Y)^i \right\}$$

where $(I/Y)^i$ and $(K/Y)^i$ without time subscripts are the average investment shares of national product and capital output ratios over the sample period in country i . Writing i^* and k^* for averages across countries of investment shares and capital/output ratios, and r^* for the average social product of net investment in the sample, the expected value of the coefficient β from the cross country regression of growth rates on gross investment shares will be:

$$(6) \quad \beta = r^* + [i^* - \delta k^*] \frac{\text{cov}[r^i, (I/Y)^i]}{\text{var}((I/Y)^i)} - r^* \delta \frac{\text{cov}[(K/Y)^i, (I/Y)^i]}{\text{var}((I/Y)^i)} + \{\text{higher order terms...}\}$$

The second of the major terms in (6) shows that a negative correlation between investment and social returns leads the coefficient to underestimate the true return. Our interaction regressions suggest some diminishing returns to investment, which would generate a negative $\text{cov}[r^i, (I/Y)^i]$. The alternative is that some third factor shifts demand for equipment and leads to high returns, high investment, and a positive $\text{cov}[r^i, (I/Y)^i]$. We discount this possibility because of the association of high equipment investment and

growth with low equipment prices.

We have used gross rather than net investment in this study; there is a strong case that it is gross rather than net investment that matters for productivity growth. If gross investment is the key determinant of growth, then the third term in equation (6) is not present. But if net investment is the relevant variable, then depreciation further biases the coefficient downward. Depreciation appears in the third, the $r \cdot \delta (\text{cov}[K/Y, I/Y] / \text{var}(I/Y))$ term in equation (6). Countries that have a high capital/output ratio devote a large share of national product to replacement investment. Differences in rates of gross investment can be correlated with but overstate differences in rates of net investment.

A factor in the other direction is that a unit of equipment investment has an effect on output that does not come all in the first year but that instead has some lag structure. If year-to-year output growth rates are determined by a distributed lag on equipment investment like:

$$(7) \quad g_t^i = \sum_{j=0}^J \rho_j (I_{t-j}^i / Y_{t-j}^i)$$

Then our cross section regression of average growth rates on average equipment investment shares would produce a coefficient estimate greater than the true social return to investment:

$$(8) \quad E(\beta) = \sum_{j=0}^J \rho_j > \sum_{j=0}^J (1-d)^j \rho_j$$

where d is the appropriate discount rate. We have little insight into the relevant lag structure, but suspect that the rapid economic depreciation of equipment implies that its effect on output has a relatively small mean lag.

D. Implications for Economic Policy

A point often made (for example, Krueger [1990]) against the position that investment has a high marginal product is that India has had a high

savings rate—Krueger estimates that it has risen from 14 to 22 percent over the post-independence period—and yet has exhibited poor growth performance, so the key to growth is not so much the accumulation as the effective use of resources. We would not disagree: India appears to be very close to the regression line relating equipment investment and productivity growth depicted in Figure VI. India has a relatively high savings rate, but equipment is expensive—more than twice as expensive in relative terms as in Korea in 1980. As a result, equipment investment as a share of GDP is about half of the sample average, even though Indian real non-equipment investment as a share of GDP is slightly greater than the sample average. From our standpoint according to which *equipment* investment is crucial, India does not appear to have made good use of its high savings rate.

This argument—that it is not only the volume of savings but also whether the savings are efficiently used to “buy” appropriate equipment—may have a wide range of application. Another often cited counterexample to the view that mechanization is the key to growth is the experience of planned economies, which have emphasized equipment to the exclusion of consumption and residences and grown slowly. These examples are not clear cut—the Soviet Union in the 1950’s and earlier appears to have seen rapid growth in industrial production, especially in military goods, albeit at the price of immense human misery. While our results suggest that high rates of equipment investment may be necessary for rapid growth, we certainly do not regard them as sufficient.

At a minimum, equipment must be directed to the most productive uses. A growth strategy based on equipment investment must be market conforming, not market replacing, to realize the very high social rates of return on equipment investment that appear in the cross section of nations. The strong interaction between equipment investment and outward orientation in Table V may arise because an outward oriented economy conforms to market forces, and does not try to replace them.

For these reasons, we interpret our results as implying that the social

rate of return to equipment investment is 30 percent per year, or higher. Much of this return is not captured by private investors. If these results stand up to scrutiny, they have obvious implications. The gains from raising equipment investment through tax or other incentives dwarf losses from any non-neutralities that would result. A 20 percent wedge between the social return to equipment and other investment has implications for all policies affecting saving and capital allocation.

Our finding that equipment investment is so important for growth suggests an explanation for the striking differences in economic performance realized by nations with “interventionist” governments that have tried to jump start economic growth. From our perspective, the key difference between countries ruled by “interventionist” governments in South America and East Asia—despite the similarities in the rhetoric used to justify intervention—lies in their quantities of equipment investment. All the programs are all rationalized by similar appeals to “Schumpeterian” rather than “Ricardian” advantage and to the crucial role of industry in economic development (see, for example, Sheahan [1987] and Johnson [1982]). But “industrial policies” in South America (aside from Brazil) and Africa have for the most part turned out so badly, while activist governments in East Asia have done well.

We suggest that the poor performers have confused support for *industrialization* with support for *industrialists*. Policies that try to increase the health of the equipment sector by enriching producing industrialists end up raising prices and reducing quantities, and so are counterproductive—even though existing industrialists are happy with such policies. Frameworks that increase the quantity of equipment investment by encouraging purchases appear to have been more successful. The divergence between Latin American and East Asian outcomes and the divergence in their relative quantity and price structures carries an important insight into what a successful “industrial policy” is, and how it should be implemented.

E. Views of Economic Growth

Yet another question is what do these results say about alternative theories of economic growth. Beyond calling into question views which overemphasize human capital accumulation through formal education, we doubt that they help in choosing between alternative theoretical formulations almost all of which allow for some type of important external economy. Instead they point out the importance of disaggregation. This calls into question the utility of research programs directed at spelling out alternative mechanisms driving all of aggregate growth in single-good models as if relative prices (and relative quantities) of different products did not matter. Economists' emphasis on single-good models is odd given that these models offer almost no scope for the relative price effects economists stress in most contexts.

Our exploration of the links between equipment investment and growth leaves many questions unaddressed. Three sets of issues strike us as particularly important. First, are our results an artifact of the particular natural experiment we have studied? We have examined growth and equipment investment during the post-World War II period which contains the largest boom and the largest expansion of trade and manufacturing that the world economy has ever seen. Would equipment investment have been so strongly correlated with growth if, say, the post-World War II period had been more like the interwar period, with falling commodity trade and protectionist pressures generated by unemployment in the industrial core? Some studies of the pre-World War II have been conducted (for example, Abramovitz and David [1973]; Abramovitz [1986]; De Long [1988]; McLean and Nguyen [1989]), but they view growth from a highly aggregative perspective, their data is unreliable, and much remains to be done.

Second, just what is the right measure of externality generating investment? X-ray machines and large turbine generators are both classified

as electrical machinery; oil drilling rigs and personal computers are both classified as non-electrical machinery. Yet in each of these sets of goods investment in one good may well have a very different impact on growth than investment in the other. Much more disaggregated equipment investment information is available in national income accounts data and the ICP, but the problem of finding appropriate price deflators remains, and plausible statistical procedures would soon run out of degrees of freedom. It may be possible to explore these issues using information on productivity at the industry, firm, or regional level.

Third, how does equipment investment contribute to growth? As we have just emphasized, aggregate production functions suggest much smaller effects of equipment investment on growth than those that appear in the post-WWII comparative cross section. Presumably some important external economies operate. But we have little insight into exactly what they are, or what their relative quantitative importance is.

REFERENCES

- Abramovitz, Moses, "Catching Up, Forging Ahead, and Falling Behind," *Journal of Economic History* 46 (June 1986), 385–406.
- Abramovitz, Moses, "Resource and Output Trends in the United States since 1870," *American Economic Review Papers and Proceedings* 46 (May 1956), 5–23.
- Abramovitz, Moses, and Paul David, "Reinterpreting American Economic Growth: Parables and Realities," *American Economic Review Papers and Proceedings* 63 (May 1973), 105–112.
- Agarwala, Robert, "Price Distortions and Growth in Developing Countries" (Washington, DC: World Bank, 1983).
- Barbone, Luca, "Import Barriers: An Analysis of Time-Series Cross-Section Data" (Paris: OECD Economic Studies, 1988).
- Barro, Robert, "Economic Growth in a Cross Section of Countries" (Cambridge, MA: unpublished NBER working paper, 1990a).
- Barro, Robert "Discussion of W. Easterly, 'Endogenous Growth in Developing Countries and Government-Induced Distortions'" (Cambridge, MA: unpublished Harvard University xerox, 1990b).
- Bates, Robert, *Markets and States in Tropical Africa: The Political Basis of Agricultural Policies* (Berkeley, CA: University of California Press, 1981).

Bates, Robert, *Rural Responses to Industrialization: A Study of Village Zambia* (New Haven, CN: Yale University Press, 1976).

Blanqui, Jérôme-Adolphe, *Histoire de l'Economie Politique en Europe*, Eng. version trans. Emily Leonard from the fourth French ed.; New York: G.P. Putnam's Sons, 1880; orig. published 1837).

Case, Anne, "On the Use of Spatial Autocorrelation Models in Demand Analysis" (Princeton, NJ: Princeton University xerox, 1987).

Chandler, Alfred, *The Visible Hand* (Cambridge, MA: Harvard University Press, 1978).

Chenery, Hollis *et al.*, *Industrialization and Growth: A Comparative Study* (Oxford: Oxford University Press, 1986).

Cohen, Stephen and John Zysman, *Manufacturing Matters* (New York: Basic Books, 1987).

Collins, Susan and Won Am Park, "External Debt and Macroeconomic Performance in Korea" (Cambridge, MA: unpublished NBER working paper, 1987).

David, Paul, "Invention and Accumulation in America's Economic Growth: A Nineteenth Century Parable," in Brunner, Karl and Allan Meltzer, eds., *International Organization, National Policies, and Economic Development* (New York: North-Holland, 1977).

De Bever, Leo and Jeffrey Williamson, "Saving, Accumulation, and Modern Economic Growth: The Contemporary Relevance of Japanese History," *Journal of Japanese Studies* 4 (Winter 1978),

125–67.

- De Long, J. Bradford, “Productivity Growth, Convergence, and Welfare: Comment,” *American Economic Review* 78 (December 1978), 1138–54.
- De Long, J. Bradford and Lawrence H. Summers, “Economic Structure, Relative Prices, and Economic Growth” (Cambridge, MA: Harvard University xerox, 1990).
- Denison, Edward F., *Why Growth Rates Differ: Postwar Experience in Nine Western Countries* (Washington, DC: The Brookings Institution, 1967).
- Denison, Edward F., and William Chung, *How Japan's Economy Grew So Fast* (Washington, DC: The Brookings Institution, 1976).
- Dowrick, Steven and Duc-Tho Nguyen, “OECD Comparative Growth,” *American Economic Review* 79 (December 1989), pp. 1010–30.
- Fitzpatrick, Gary L., and Marilyn J. Modlin, *Direct Line Distances: International Edition* (Metuchen, N.J.: Scarecrow Press, 1986).
- Gerschenkron, Alexander, *Economic Backwardness in Historical Perspective and Other Essays* (Cambridge, MA: Harvard University Press, 1962).
- Hirschman, Albert O., *The Strategy of Economic Development* (New Haven, CN: Yale University Press, 1958).
- Johnson, Chalmers, *MITI and the Japanese Miracle* (Stanford, CA:

Stanford University Press, 1982).

Jorgenson, Dale, "Productivity and Postwar U.S. Economic Growth,"
Journal of Economic Perspectives 2:4 (Fall 1988), 23–41.

Jorgenson, Dale, "Productivity and Economic Growth" (Cambridge,
MA: Harvard University xerox, 1990).

Kravis, Irving, Alan Heston, and Robert Summers, *World Product and
Income: International Comparisons of Real Gross Product*
(Baltimore, MD: Johns Hopkins University Press, 1982).

Krueger, Anne O., "Government Failures in Development," *Journal of
Economic Perspectives* 4:3 (Summer 1990), 9–24.

Kuznets, Simon, *The Economic Growth of Nations* (Cambridge, MA:
Harvard University Press, 1971).

Landes, David, *The Unbound Prometheus* (Cambridge: Cambridge
University Press, 1969).

Mankiw, N. Gregory, David Romer, and David Weil, "A Contribution
to the Empirics of Economic Growth" (Cambridge, MA: Harvard
University xerox, 1990).

McLean, Ian and Duc-Tho Nguyen, "Growth, Investment, and
Convergence 1870–1938" (Adelaide: University of Adelaide xerox,
1989).

Mokyr, Joel, *The Lever of Riches* (New York: Oxford University Press,
1990).

Ohkawa, Kazushi, and Henry Rosovsky, *Japanese Economic Growth: Trend Acceleration in the Twentieth Century* (Palo Alto, CA: Stanford University Press, 1973).

Patrick, Hugh and Henry Rosovsky, *Asia's New Giant: How the Japanese Economy Works* (Washington, DC: The Brookings Institution, 1976).

Pollard, Sidney, *Peaceful Conquest: The Industrialization of Europe 1760–1970* (Oxford: Oxford University Press, 1982).

Romer, Paul, “Increasing Returns and Long Run Growth,” *Journal of Political Economy* (October 1986), 1002–37.

Romer, Paul, “What Determines the Rate of Growth and Technological Change?” (Washington, DC: World Bank xerox, 1989).

Rostow, W.W., *The Stages of Economic Growth* (London: Macmillan, 1958).

Rostow, W.W., *Theories of Economic Growth from David Hume to the Present* (New York: Oxford University Press, 1990).

Sheahan, John, *Patterns of Development in Latin America* (Princeton, NJ: Princeton University Press, 1987).

Solow, Robert, “Technical Change and the Aggregate Production Function,” *Review of Economics and Statistics* 39 (August 1957), 312–20.

Solow, Robert, "A Contribution to the Theory of Economic Growth," *Quarterly Journal of Economics* 70 (February 1956), 65–94.

Summers, Lawrence, "What Is the Social Rate of Return to Capital Investment?" in Peter Diamond, ed., *Essays in Honor of Robert Solow* (Cambridge, MA: M.I.T. Press, 1990).

Summers, Robert and Alan Heston, "The Penn World Table V" (Philadelphia, PA: University of Pennsylvania xerox, 1990).

Summers, Robert and Alan Heston, "A New Set of International Comparisons of Real Product and Prices: Estimates for 130 Countries," *Review of Income and Wealth* 34 (March 1988), 1–25.

United Nations, *International Comparisons of Prices and Purchasing Power in 1980* (New York: United Nations, 1985).

Usher, Abbott P., *The Industrial History of England* (Boston: Houghton-Mifflin, 1920).

Warner, Andrew, "Debt, Trade, and Investment" (Harvard University Ph.D. Diss., forthcoming 1990).

World Competitiveness Report 1990 (privately published, 1990).

World Bank, *World Development Report 1987* (New York: Oxford University Press, 1987).

World Bank, *World Development Report 1983* (New York: Oxford University Press, 1983).

Young, Alastair, *Industrial Diversification in Zambia* (New York: Praeger Publishers, 1973).

Appendix I: Spatial Correlation

Many comparative cross country regressions have assumed that there is no dependence across residuals, and that each country provides as informative and independent an observation as any other. Yet it is difficult to believe that Belgian and Dutch economic growth would ever significantly diverge, or that substantial productivity gaps would appear within Scandinavia. The omitted variables that are captured in the regression residuals seem *ex ante* likely to take on similar values in neighboring countries. This suggests that residuals in nearby nations will be correlated, and that the sample contains less information than OLS regressions and standard errors report.

To investigate the possibility and significance of spatial correlation (Case, 1987), we formed, for all country pairs i and j , the product $u_i u_j / \sigma^2$ of the two fitted residuals from our basic regression on the high productivity sample, normalized by the estimate of the residual variance. We then regressed, using various functional forms, $u_i u_j / \sigma^2$ on the distance δ_{ij} (in miles) between the capitals of nations i and j . An appendix table presents the matrix of distances used.

The first functional form tried was:

$$(A1) \quad \frac{E(u_i u_j)}{\sigma^2} = \alpha + \frac{1}{1 + \lambda \delta_{ij}} + \varepsilon$$

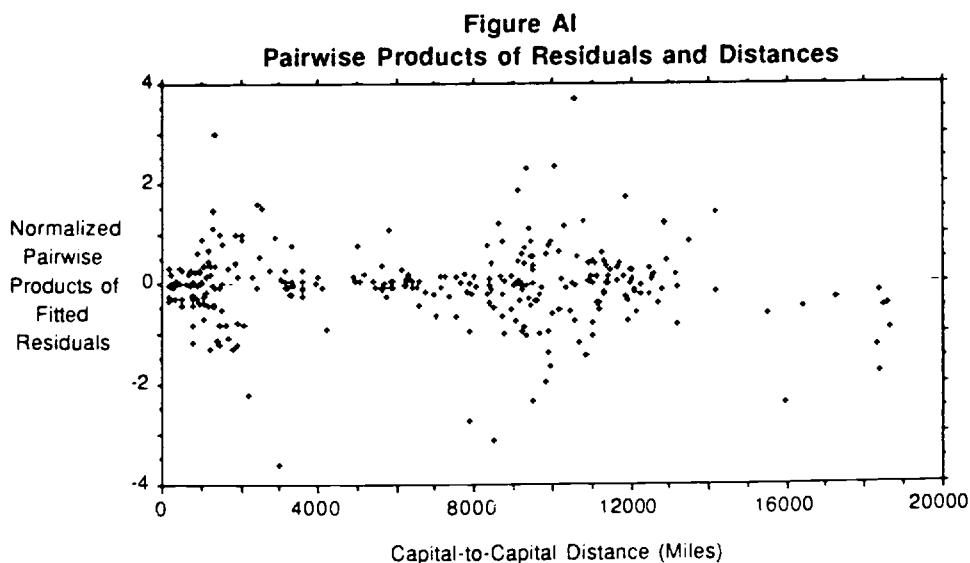
It yielded an adjusted R^2 of -.0003, an estimated α of -.974 (with an uncorrected OLS reported t statistic of -11.69), and an estimated λ of .0095569 for every thousand miles (with an uncorrected OLS reported t statistic of .76). The estimated correlation between residuals varies from .03 for countries with adjacent capitals to -.05 for countries with capitals 10,000 miles apart.

A second functional form tried was:

$$(A2) \quad \frac{E(u_i u_j)}{\sigma^2} = \alpha + \exp[-\lambda \delta_{ij}] + \varepsilon$$

It also produced an adjusted R^2 less than zero and a small estimate of λ . The estimated α was $-.971$ (with an uncorrected OLS reported t statistic of -11.96), and an estimated λ of $.00969$ for every thousand miles (with an uncorrected OLS reported t statistic of $.87$). Once again, the estimated correlation between residuals varies from $.03$ for countries with adjacent capitals to $-.05$ for countries with capitals 10,000 miles apart.

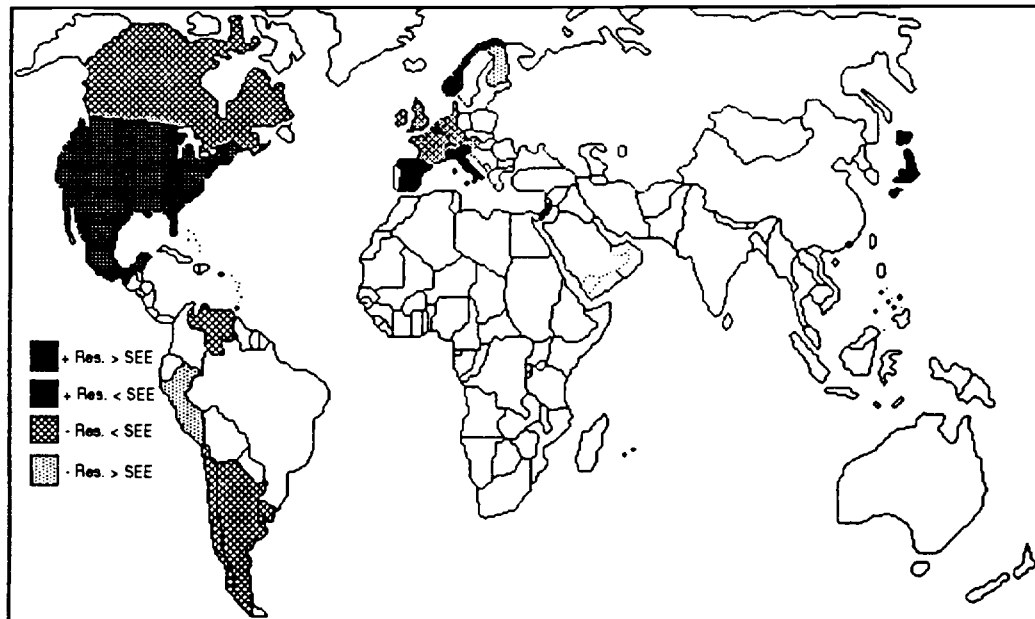
The figure below plots the pairwise products of fitted residuals, normalized by the residual variance, against the distance between national capitals for the high productivity sample. There is a tendency for countries located on opposite sides of the earth (Latin America and East Asia) to have negatively correlated residuals, but the scatter is not supportive of the hypothesis that neighboring countries have similar residuals.



A further figure maps the fitted residuals from the high productivity

sample, classifying them into four groups by whether they are positive and negative and whether they are greater or less in absolute value than the standard error of the estimate. The nations in the southern cone of South America all have similar residuals, but the many European countries exhibit no geographical pattern, and dominate the estimated coefficients in our spatial correlation regressions.

Figure All
Geographical Residual Distribution for the High-Productivity Sample



We are quite surprised at the apparent absence of a significant degree of spatial correlation in our sample, for much discussion tends to speak of economic growth in terms of regions sharing a common growth path: the southern cone, East Asia, southern Europe, Scandinavia, and so on. The absence of spatial correlation in the fitted residuals raises the possibility that the factors that lead countries within a region to follow similar growth paths work through the rate of equipment investment.

A table presents the matrix of distances between national capitals used.

Appendix II: Regression Coefficients of Omitted Independent Variables in Panel 3 of Table I

Table AII

Variable	Period:			
	1960-85	1960-75	1975-85	1970-85
	<i>Larger Sample</i>			
Labor Force Growth	-0.001 (0.203)	0.019 (0.233)	-0.217 (0.270)	-0.537 (0.356)
GDP/Wkr. Gap	0.039 (0.013)	0.039 (0.016)	0.038 (0.017)	0.037 (0.020)
Equipment Invest. Share	0.275 (0.070)	0.279 (0.086)	0.276 (0.082)	0.262 (0.112)
Non-Equipment Invest. Share	0.029 (0.038)	-0.011 (0.043)	0.040 (0.047)	0.097 (0.063)
Primary Sch. Enrollment 1960	0.011 (0.009)	0.023 (0.011)	0.009 (0.011)	-0.003 (0.015)
Secondary Sch. Enrollment 1960	0.003 (0.015)	-0.004 (0.018)	-0.005 (0.019)	-0.001 (0.238)
Government Cons./GDP	-0.086 (0.030)	-0.104 (0.039)	-0.084 (0.040)	-0.080 (0.051)
Assassinations/Year	-0.001 (0.003)	0.001 (0.042)	-0.003 (0.004)	-0.003 (0.006)
Revolutions/Year	-0.013 (0.010)	-0.004 (0.013)	-0.013 (0.014)	-0.027 (0.017)
n	61	61	61	61
R ² (RMSE)	0.391 (0.012)	0.264 (0.015)	0.236 (0.016)	0.190 (0.020)

Appendix III: Effects on Growth of the Prices of Disaggregated Components of Investment

Table AIII
High Productivity Sample

(dependent variable is the 1960–85 GDP per worker growth rate; all regressions include the 1960 relative GDP per worker gap and the 1960–85 labor force growth rate as additional independent variables)

"Orthogonalized"					R ²	SEE
Price Elec.	Price Mach.	Price Equip.	Price Trans.	Invest. Rate		
-.017 (.008)					.213	.012
				.075 (.037)	.311	.011
	-.029 (.009)				.362	.011
				.054 (.037)	.395	.010
		-.030 (.008)			.369	.010
				-.024 (.009)	.414	.010
-.003 (.009)	-.026 (.012)				.335	.011
				.054 (.036)	.366	.011
-.004 (.010)	-.029 (.013)		.002 (.007)		.378	.011
-.001 (.010)	-.022 (.014)		-.003 (.008)	.059 (.047)	.338	.011

For the high productivity sample, the table above shows that—whether or not the aggregate investment rate is included in the regression—the price of electrical equipment has a weaker relationship to growth than does the price of non-electrical machinery. When both price measures are included in the regression, the non-electrical machinery price swamps the

electrical equipment price (and swamps the price of producers' transport equipment when it is included as well). When the price variables are included in the regression one at a time, the coefficient on the non-electrical price is twice the coefficient on the price of electrical equipment. And the shift from including the electrical price to including the non-electrical price raises the adjusted R^2 by 3/4.

**Table AIV
Larger Sample**

(dependent variable is the 1960–85 GDP per worker growth rate: all regressions include the 1960 relative GDP per worker gap and the 1960–85 labor force growth rate as additional independent variables)

"Orthogonalized"					R^2	SEE
Price Elec.	Price Mach.	Price Equip.	Price Trans.	Invest. Rate		
-.011 (.005)					.047	.015
				.098 (.031)	.181	.014
		-.011 (.007)			.020	.015
				.103 (.030)	.176	.014
			-.013 (.007)		.043	.015
				.099 (.030)	.181	.014
-.010 (.008)	-.002 (.010)				.031	.015
				.099 (.031)	.167	.014
-.010 (.008)	-.003 (.011)		.002 (.007)		.015	.015
-.004 (.008)	.002 (.010)			-.001 (.006) .099 (.032)	.151	.014

For the larger sample, the prices of electrical equipment and non-electrical machinery have identical coefficients in accounting for growth

when entered into the regression separately. But the relationship between growth rates and prices is very weak in the larger sample. When the *total* investment rate is included as an independent variable, the relative price variables are never statistically significant or substantively important.

The fact that the non-electrical machinery price is more closely associated with growth than the electrical equipment price is somewhat anomalous. In Table IV, the quantity of electrical equipment had a much stronger association with growth than the quantity of non-electrical machinery. The disparity of coefficients in Table IV might be taken to suggest that it is electrical equipment—not equipment in general—that has the most powerful association with growth. But this pattern in prices is not mirrored in quantities: the electrical equipment price has a relatively unimpressive association with growth.

If the only data available were the quantities data, it would be natural to hypothesize that electrical equipment played a very special role in economic growth. If the only data available were the price data, it would be natural to hypothesize that it was non-electrical machinery that generated the largest productivity gains. Both sets of data are available and point in different directions. We therefore use the “equipment” aggregate of electrical and non-electrical machinery as the major independent variable.

Appendix IV: Data

Table AV

Variables Used in Regressions

Country	GDP/Wu Growth 40-85	GDP/Wu Growth 60-75	GDP/Wu Growth 70-85	GDP/Wu Growth 75-85	Labor Force Growth 60-85	Labor Force Growth 60-75	Labor Force Growth 70-85	Labor Force Growth 75-85	Equip. Share 60-85	Equip. Share 60-75	Equip. Share 70-85
Argentina	0.0089	0.0242	-0.0030	-0.0135	0.0118	0.0128	0.0103	0.0104	0.0214	0.0222	0.0219
Austria	0.0332	0.0471	0.0195	0.0129	0.0014	-0.0030	0.0079	0.0080	0.0991	0.0986	0.1023
Belgium	0.0256	0.0374	0.0151	0.0082	0.0061	0.0048	0.0084	0.0081	0.0684	0.0657	0.0684
Bolivia	0.0124	0.0350	0.0024	0.0206	0.0209	0.0189	0.0230	0.0240	0.0187	0.0190	0.0187
Botswana	0.0678	0.0741	0.0656	0.0580	0.0239	0.0182	0.0319	0.0326	0.1310	0.1168	0.1766
Brazil	0.0437	0.0655	0.0307	0.0119	0.0306	0.0319	0.0307	0.0288	0.0646	0.0697	0.0672
Cameroon	0.0458	0.0303	0.0533	0.0295	0.0169	0.0169	0.0164	0.0168	0.0415	0.0348	0.0464
Canada	0.0169	0.0220	0.0131	0.0092	0.0261	0.0284	0.0256	0.0228	0.0771	0.0800	0.0772
Chile	0.0021	0.0018	-0.0151	0.0025	0.0216	0.0192	0.0249	0.0251	0.0154	0.0154	0.0154
Colombia	0.0229	0.0323	0.0188	0.0113	0.0266	0.0265	0.0263	0.0269	0.0229	0.0243	0.0227
Costa Rica	0.0121	0.0251	0.0000	-0.0071	0.0354	0.0359	0.0361	0.0348	0.0433	0.0412	0.0448
Denmark	0.0187	0.0214	0.0112	0.0145	0.0115	0.0129	0.0105	0.0093	0.0688	0.0798	0.0684
Dominican Republic	0.0199	0.0355	0.0130	-0.0021	0.0280	0.0248	0.0322	0.0328	0.0321	0.0299	0.0381
Ecuador	0.0283	0.0411	0.0305	0.0094	0.0274	0.0265	0.0280	0.0287	0.0303	0.0301	0.0323
El Salvador	0.0046	0.0225	-0.0088	-0.0217	0.0316	0.0331	0.0296	0.0295	0.0223	0.0220	0.0230
Ethiopia	0.0094	0.0156	0.0015	0.0000	0.0206	0.0218	0.0193	0.0187	0.0212	0.0234	0.0221
Finland	0.0301	0.0376	0.0235	0.0190	0.0083	0.0082	0.0082	0.0084	0.1206	0.1295	0.1168
France	0.0292	0.0430	0.0170	0.0089	0.0089	0.0089	0.0089	0.0089	0.0879	0.0812	0.0911
Germany	0.0259	0.0348	0.0138	0.0130	0.0047	0.0038	0.0059	0.0063	0.0890	0.0910	0.0882
Greece	0.0446	0.0618	0.0267	0.0194	0.0044	0.0028	0.0068	0.0066	0.0655	0.0702	0.0668
Guatemala	0.0149	0.0258	0.0082	-0.0014	0.0242	0.0237	0.0239	0.0250	0.0384	0.0364	0.0382
Honduras	0.0148	0.0192	0.0075	0.0082	0.0303	0.0271	0.0338	0.0351	0.0448	0.0433	0.0451
Hong Kong	0.0484	0.0484	0.0391	0.0484	0.0359	0.0367	0.0377	0.0348	0.0787	0.0730	0.0782
India	0.0115	0.0118	0.0089	0.0110	0.0170	0.0159	0.0181	0.0186	0.0278	0.0298	0.0282
Indonesia	0.0345	0.0254	0.0507	-0.0484	0.0213	0.0203	0.0222	0.0227	0.0321	0.0164	0.0273
Ireland	0.0288	0.0369	0.0218	0.0187	0.0081	0.0041	0.0131	0.0140	0.0814	0.0729	0.0867
Israel	0.0452	0.0526	0.0392	0.0341	0.0305	0.0342	0.0261	0.0250	0.1112	0.1219	0.1038
Italy	0.0362	0.0449	0.0237	0.0233	0.0038	0.0023	0.0055	0.0060	0.0883	0.0717	0.0673
Ivory Coast	0.0278	0.0462	0.0185	0.0009	0.0274	0.0282	0.0281	0.0264	0.0242	0.0224	0.0281
Jamaica	0.0055	0.0044	-0.0276	-0.0445	0.0201	0.0157	0.0282	0.0283	0.0809	0.0731	0.0527
Japan	0.0535	0.0488	0.0347	0.0312	0.0117	0.0141	0.0077	0.0081	0.1223	0.1135	0.1295
Kenya	0.0148	0.0260	0.0157	-0.0024	0.0348	0.0340	0.0358	0.0355	0.0462	0.0478	0.0484
Korea	0.0479	0.0555	0.0500	0.0365	0.0282	0.0296	0.0261	0.0262	0.0557	0.0422	0.0587
Luxembourg	0.0236	0.0303	0.0143	0.0138	0.0064	0.0045	0.0113	0.0094	0.0711	0.0762	0.0683
Madagascar	-0.0102	-0.0028	-0.0213	-0.0217	0.0203	0.0201	0.0210	0.0206	0.0219	0.0223	0.0225
Malawi	0.0153	0.0304	0.0096	-0.0068	0.0226	0.0215	0.0237	0.0243	0.0361	0.0389	0.0386
Malaysia	0.0332	0.0291	0.0352	0.0361	0.0316	0.0306	0.0348	0.0335	0.0446	0.0375	0.0519
Mali	0.0044	-0.0071	0.0223	0.0218	0.0184	0.0166	0.0199	0.0212	0.0433	0.0481	0.0453
Mexico	0.0198	0.0310	0.0074	0.0005	0.0349	0.0301	0.0340	0.0380	0.0273	0.0265	0.0285
Morocco	0.0243	0.0428	0.0016	-0.0030	0.0281	0.0244	0.0339	0.0336	0.0280	0.0218	0.0328
Netherlands	0.0231	0.0363	0.0107	0.0036	0.0146	0.0147	0.0146	0.0145	0.0778	0.0801	0.0784
Nigeria	-0.0047	0.0088	-0.0075	-0.0217	0.0283	0.0280	0.0295	0.0287	0.0358	0.0258	0.0475
Norway	0.0260	0.0272	0.0244	0.0242	0.0150	0.0157	0.0160	0.0140	0.0781	0.0721	0.0718
Pakistan	0.0295	0.0259	0.0178	0.0348	0.0258	0.0229	0.0293	0.0300	0.0263	0.0263	0.0263
Panama	0.0295	0.0385	0.0184	0.0168	0.0279	0.0284	0.0263	0.0271	0.0388	0.0426	0.0414
Paraguay	0.0281	0.0202	0.0314	0.0350	0.0299	0.0277	0.0339	0.0333	0.0188	0.0137	0.0223
Peru	0.0187	0.0355	-0.0104	0.0254	0.0271	0.0243	0.0321	0.0313	0.0287	0.0284	0.0250
Philippines	0.0179	0.0295	0.0136	0.0007	0.0253	0.0254	0.0249	0.0250	0.0445	0.0423	0.0445
Portugal	0.0318	0.0530	0.0148	0.0007	0.0118	0.0081	0.0201	0.0175	0.0729	0.0729	0.0725
Senegal	-0.0011	0.0017	-0.0068	-0.0053	0.0274	0.0286	0.0281	0.0257	0.0183	0.0194	0.0194
Spain	0.0373	0.0617	0.0162	0.0017	0.0069	0.0048	0.0092	0.0101	0.0387	0.0438	0.0402
Sri Lanka	0.0137	-0.0030	0.0230	0.0391	0.0207	0.0213	0.0208	0.0187	0.0138	0.0138	0.0148
Tanzania	0.0184	0.0281	0.0083	0.0039	0.0276	0.0272	0.0284	0.0283	0.0860	0.0848	0.0954
Thailand	0.0341	0.0351	0.0305	0.0357	0.0278	0.0285	0.0270	0.0285	0.0395	0.0377	0.0377
Turkey	0.0279	0.0351	0.0275	0.0172	0.0254	0.0201	0.0351	0.0341	0.0428	0.0388	0.0445
U.K.	0.0188	0.0214	0.0163	0.0153	0.0048	0.0048	0.0048	0.0048	0.0884	0.0748	0.0888
U.S.	0.0130	0.0133	0.0081	0.0133	0.0188	0.0196	0.0197	0.0178	0.0782	0.0778	0.0783
Uruguay	0.0041	0.0091	0.0019	-0.0032	0.0052	0.0058	0.0005	0.0042	0.0155	0.0111	0.0158
Venezuela	0.0120	0.0407	-0.0012	-0.0296	0.0378	0.0351	0.0441	0.0417	0.0340	0.0253	0.0441
Zambia	-0.0118	0.0071	-0.0244	-0.0375	0.0275	0.0260	0.0288	0.0297	0.0702	0.1258	0.0688
Zimbabwe	0.0110	0.0182	0.0115	0.0002	0.0309	0.0329	0.0281	0.0279	0.0843	0.0975	0.0778

Country	Equip Share 75-85	Non-Equip Share 60-85	Non-Equip Share 60-75	Non-Equip Share 70-85	Non-Equip Share 75-85	GDP/WU Cap 1960	GDP/WU Cap 1970	GDP/WU Cap 1975	GDP/WU Cap 1980	Primary Educ 1960
Argentina	0.0210	0.2286	0.2372	0.2341	0.2248	0.6079	0.5820	0.5396	0.5388	0.98
Austria	0.1013	0.1349	0.1341	0.1401	0.1384	0.5805	0.4276	0.3145	0.2737	1.05
Belgium	0.0596	0.1653	0.1824	0.1653	0.1626	0.4109	0.2809	0.1611	0.1158	1.09
Bolivia	0.0151	0.1133	0.1292	0.1138	0.1029	0.0634	0.0437	0.0123	0.0133	0.64
Botswana	0.1610	0.1490	0.1327	0.2010	0.1833	0.9474	0.9154	0.8738	0.8273	0.42
Brazil	0.0693	0.1588	0.1772	0.1639	0.1679	0.0498	0.7740	0.6908	0.6386	0.95
Cameron	0.0503	0.0885	0.0743	0.0990	0.1074	0.0333	0.9239	0.9143	0.8741	0.65
Canada	0.0762	0.1529	0.1584	0.1530	0.1511	0.1783	0.1651	0.0650	0.0789	1.04
Chile	0.0154	0.2846	0.2846	0.2846	0.2846	0.5402	0.5065	0.6127	0.5095	1.09
Colombia	0.0225	0.1553	0.1606	0.1544	0.1479	0.7695	0.7486	0.6952	0.6640	0.77
Costa Rica	0.0445	0.1067	0.1013	0.1102	0.1095	0.7043	0.6755	0.6481	0.6410	0.96
Denmark	0.0662	0.1834	0.2103	0.1853	0.1761	0.4079	0.3541	0.3320	0.3186	1.03
Dominican Republic	0.0403	0.1379	0.1241	0.1679	0.1730	0.0293	0.8130	0.7635	0.7490	0.98
Ecuador	0.0324	0.2097	0.2086	0.2236	0.2239	0.0205	0.8134	0.7304	0.6814	0.83
El Salvador	0.0233	0.0577	0.0567	0.0594	0.0602	0.0414	0.8353	0.8184	0.8344	0.80
Ethiopia	0.0225	0.0288	0.0318	0.0301	0.0306	0.9805	0.9805	0.9798	0.9796	0.65
Finland	0.1092	0.2494	0.2678	0.2415	0.2259	0.5589	0.4696	0.3703	0.3301	0.87
France	0.0762	0.1767	0.1891	0.1817	0.1773	0.4708	0.3144	0.1833	0.1378	1.44
Germany	0.0749	0.1885	0.2148	0.1889	0.1768	0.4585	0.3212	0.2595	0.1833	1.30
Greece	0.0609	0.2245	0.2405	0.2287	0.2086	0.7824	0.6617	0.5811	0.5285	1.05
Guatemala	0.0383	0.0516	0.0490	0.0527	0.0529	0.7885	0.7804	0.7454	0.7130	0.45
Honduras	0.0451	0.0954	0.0925	0.0964	0.0965	0.8850	0.8796	0.8745	0.8513	0.67
Hong Kong	0.0807	0.1233	0.1173	0.1224	0.1294	0.7471	0.6237	0.5781	0.4334	0.87
India	0.0333	0.1448	0.1307	0.1485	0.1457	0.0256	0.8281	0.8370	0.8385	0.61
Indonesia	0.0296	0.1179	0.0875	0.1459	0.1581	0.9243	0.9316	0.9095	0.8831	0.67
Ireland	0.0844	0.1879	0.1673	0.1993	0.1943	0.6457	0.5774	0.4993	0.4215	1.10
Israel	0.0935	0.1788	0.1962	0.1667	0.1505	0.6816	0.5616	0.4362	0.2659	0.98
Italy	0.0581	0.1790	0.1961	0.1767	0.1624	0.5441	0.3669	0.2775	0.1561	1.11
Ivory Coast	0.0294	0.0957	0.0881	0.1108	0.1157	0.9207	0.9029	0.8718	0.8639	0.46
Jamaica	0.0441	0.1455	0.1747	0.1258	0.1055	0.8229	0.7490	0.7372	0.8193	0.82
Japan	0.1191	0.2464	0.2393	0.2595	0.2512	0.7484	0.5491	0.4415	0.3475	1.03
Kenya	0.0413	0.1268	0.1361	0.1347	0.1167	0.5415	0.9460	0.9294	0.9115	0.47
Korea	0.0702	0.1842	0.1337	0.2027	0.2156	0.8807	0.8501	0.7799	0.7427	0.94
Luxembourg	0.0651	0.1944	0.2067	0.1885	0.1749	0.2863	0.1603	0.0843	0.0800	1.25
Madagascar	0.0222	0.0481	0.0490	0.0494	0.0487	0.9217	0.9322	0.9382	0.9449	0.52
Malawi	0.0382	0.0935	0.0999	0.1035	0.0998	0.9628	0.9617	0.9522	0.9550	0.63
Malaysia	0.0549	0.1878	0.1581	0.2186	0.2313	0.7953	0.7654	0.7203	0.6436	0.86
Mali	0.0417	0.0267	0.0296	0.0279	0.0257	0.9478	0.9660	0.9615	0.9562	0.10
Mexico	0.0287	0.1687	0.1638	0.1765	0.1778	0.5821	0.5154	0.4563	0.4277	0.80
Morocco	0.0365	0.0540	0.0451	0.0681	0.0755	0.8405	0.7700	0.7545	0.7553	0.47
Netherlands	0.0675	0.1781	0.2030	0.1794	0.1564	0.3605	0.2175	0.1043	0.0871	1.05
Nigeria	0.0535	0.0842	0.0589	0.1118	0.1259	0.8579	0.8853	0.8709	0.8742	0.36
Norway	0.0696	0.2199	0.2262	0.2247	0.2183	0.3755	0.3285	0.2334	0.1562	1.14
Pakistan	0.0263	0.0880	0.0880	0.0880	0.0880	0.9180	0.8944	0.9012	0.8877	0.30
Panama	0.0368	0.2212	0.2424	0.2365	0.2097	0.8015	0.7475	0.7129	0.6806	0.96
Paraguay	0.0254	0.1011	0.0732	0.1191	0.1359	0.8458	0.8502	0.8253	0.7428	0.98
Peru	0.0240	0.0933	0.1027	0.0871	0.0836	0.7406	0.6787	0.6409	0.6048	0.83
Philippines	0.0423	0.0874	0.0996	0.0974	0.0996	0.8747	0.8409	0.8225	0.8225	0.85
Portugal	0.0672	0.1571	0.1571	0.1563	0.1450	0.8033	0.7200	0.6500	0.6525	1.31
Senegal	0.0177	0.0807	0.0811	0.0812	0.0740	0.8884	0.9021	0.9060	0.9183	0.27
Spain	0.0399	0.1305	0.1466	0.1320	0.1313	0.6613	0.4402	0.3177	0.3207	1.10
Sri Lanka	0.0156	0.1352	0.1275	0.1459	0.1535	0.8555	0.8828	0.8866	0.8632	0.95
Tanzania	0.0897	0.0940	0.0826	0.1042	0.0980	0.9762	0.9731	0.9704	0.9672	0.28
Thailand	0.0377	0.1412	0.1347	0.1347	0.1347	0.9174	0.9011	0.8896	0.8672	0.83
Tunisia	0.0485	0.0972	0.0875	0.1011	0.1100	0.7838	0.7677	0.7025	0.6768	0.66
U.K.	0.0633	0.1132	0.1225	0.1141	0.1048	0.4307	0.4201	0.3587	0.3325	0.95
U.S.	0.0760	0.1356	0.1342	0.1358	0.1321	0.8000	0.8000	0.8000	0.8000	1.18
Uruguay	0.0177	0.1154	0.0796	0.1174	0.1295	0.5782	0.6311	0.6038	0.5381	1.11
Venezuela	0.0509	0.0780	0.0565	0.0985	0.1136	0.4974	0.4409	0.2503	0.3376	1.00
Zambia	0.0574	0.2012	0.2865	0.1984	0.1491	0.8695	0.8837	0.8809	0.8176	0.48
Zimbabwe	0.0693	0.1257	0.1453	0.1159	0.1032	0.8875	0.8990	0.8790	0.8821	0.98

Country	Sec. Educ 1960	Government Consumption	Assassination	Revolutions	Manufacturing Share	Public Investment	Real Exch Rate	WDR Dem Index	Survey Exch Rate Policy	Survey Net Protection
Argentina	0.32	0.09	2.19	0.73	0.2211	0.0496	0.2240	2.43		
Austria	0.5	0.16	0.00	0.00	0.2979	0.0361	0.1066		57.5	63.8
Belgium	0.69	0.13	0.00	0.00	0.2478	0.0316	0.1774		69.1	68.2
Bolivia	0.12	0.18	0.23	0.85	0.1831	0.0119	-0.4677	2.29		
Botswana	0.01	0.26	0.00	0.00	0.0477		-0.2787		52.6	47.1
Brazil	0.11	0.14	0.08	0.08	0.2535		-0.5044	1.86		
Cameroon	0.02	0.19	0.00	0.08		0.0180	0.0210	1.57		
Canada	0.52	0.14	0.08	0.00	0.1928	0.0293	-0.0545		60.6	53.1
Chile	0.24	0.19	0.46	0.15	0.2155	0.0529	-0.5315	2.43		
Colombia	0.12	0.11	0.38	0.04	0.2238		-0.8548	1.71		
Costa Rica	0.21	0.21	0.00	0.00	0.2197	0.0184	-0.3452			
Denmark	0.65	0.20	0.00	0.00	0.1721	0.0344	0.2527		57.6	67
Dominican Republic	0.07	0.12	0.23	0.23		0.0066	0.4636			
Ecuador	0.12	0.16	0.00	0.35	0.1816	0.0104	-0.5258			
El Salvador	0.11	0.19	1.81	0.46		0.0238	-0.6425			
Ethiopia	0.01	0.17	0.46	0.69	0.0986		-0.9019	1.86		
Finland	0.74	0.14	0.00	0.00	0.2514	0.0448	3.2107		64.5	62.5
France	0.46	0.13	0.35	0.00	0.2902	0.0333	0.1524		52.9	64
Germany	0.53	0.16	0.19	0.08	0.3265	0.0348	0.2709		63.6	73.2
Greece	0.41	0.14	0.12	0.15	0.1882	0.0151	-0.3512		44.2	57
Guatemala	0.07	0.08	2.85	0.38	0.1665	0.0202	-0.5888			
Honduras	0.08	0.15	0.04	0.15	0.1429	0.0079	0.4740			
Hong Kong	0.24	0.04	0.00	0.00		0.0329	-0.2999		82.8	75.4
India	0.2	0.21	0.85	0.12	0.1392		-1.0103	1.86	56.6	44
Indonesia	0.06	0.12	0.12	0.23	0.1526	0.0428	-0.7357	1.86	66.7	44.8
Ireland	0.35	0.17	0.08	0.06	0.0858	0.0374	-0.0500		72.2	46.1
Israel	0.48	0.35	0.08	0.00		0.0230	-0.1817			
Italy	0.34	0.15	1.38	0.04	0.3156	0.0327	-0.1104		52.4	53.2
Ivory Coast	0.02	0.21	0.00	0.00		0.0273	0.1232	2.14		
Jamaica	0.43	0.17	0.21	0.00	0.1565		-0.2030	2.29		
Japan	0.74	0.09	0.23	0.00	0.2926	0.0560	-0.0087		49.1	58.8
Kenya	0.02	0.23	0.11	0.05	0.1076	0.0335	-0.5428	1.71		
Korea	0.27	0.16	0.12	0.31	0.2830		-0.6726	1.57	31	49
Luxembourg	0.29	0.10	0.00	0.00	0.2845	0.0426	0.1381		66.1	66.2
Madagascar	0.04	0.18	0.00	0.08	0.1998		-0.4562			
Malawi	0.01	0.26	0.05	0.00	0.1168		-0.7918	1.14		
Malaysia	0.19	0.15	0.04	0.04	0.1998		-0.6643	1.57	78	56.5
Mali	0.01	0.29	0.00	0.19			-0.3821			
Mexico	0.11	0.08	0.12	0.00	0.2498		-0.5185	1.86	46.9	58.8
Morocco	0.05	0.18	0.04	0.08	0.1718		-0.2680			
Netherlands	0.58	0.13	0.00	0.08	0.2574	0.0350	0.1820		70.9	67.8
Nigeria	0.03	0.11	0.08	0.42	0.0722	0.0192	0.1848	2.71		
Norway	0.53	0.18	0.00	0.08	0.1581	0.0506	0.2373		46.3	54.2
Palau	0.11	0.17	0.31	0.23	0.0047		-1.1217	2.29		
Panama	0.29	0.25	0.08	0.12	0.1043	0.0199	-0.3754			
Paraguay	0.11	0.12	0.04	0.08	0.1759	0.0599	-0.2856			
Peru	0.15	0.15	0.15	0.15	0.2500		-0.7234	2.29		
Philippines	0.26	0.17	0.73	0.46	0.2504	0.0338	-0.8533	1.57		
Portugal	0.2	0.16	0.00	0.23	0.3042	0.0467	-0.4096		54.2	53.2
Senegal	0.03	0.27	0.08	0.04	0.2307	0.0210	-0.3579	2.29		
Spain	0.23	0.10	1.58	0.08	0.3179	0.0187	-0.1903		47	55.3
Sri Lanka	0.27	0.25	0.08	0.08	0.2003	-0.0314	-1.3792	1.86		
Tanzania	0.02	0.31	0.05	0.05			0.2887		247	
Thailand	0.12	0.12	0.04	0.31	0.2069		0.9596	1.43	68.3	55
Tunisia	0.12	0.17	0.04	0.00	0.1179	0.0366	-0.3034	1.57		
UK	0.67	0.22	0.35	0.19	0.2351	0.0299	0.0015		47.6	64.9
US	0.86	0.16	0.50	0.00	0.2405	0.0203	0.0000		65.1	62.1
Uruguay	0.37	0.16	0.19	0.00	0.2005	0.0144	-0.5078	2.29		
Venezuela	0.21	0.11	0.12	0.31	0.1801		-0.1823			
Zambia	0.01	0.32	0.00	0.05		0.0100	-0.1886			
Zimbabwe	0.06	0.17	0.37	0.32	0.2329	0.0250	-0.1817			

Country	Survey Trade Legation	Barbone Openness	Transport Share 60-85	Structures Share 60-85	Elec Mach Share 60-85	Non-EI Mach Share 60-85	Jones Eff Pro Rate Dummy	Equipment X Equipment	Equipment X 1960 Gap	Equipment X 1975 Gap
Argentina			0.0086	0.2271	0.0625	0.0189	1	0.0005	0.0130	0.0115
Austria	60	0.024	0.0215	0.1043	0.0245	0.0746	0	0.0098	0.0576	0.0312
Belgium	66.4	0.427	0.0230	0.1522	0.0232	0.0452	0	0.0047	0.0291	0.0110
Bolivia			0.0054	0.0971	0.0039	0.0128	0	0.0003	0.0144	0.0135
Botswana			0.0241	0.1250	0.0588	0.0712	-	0.0172	0.1241	0.1144
Brazil	46.5		0.0191	0.1619	0.0136	0.0510	1	0.0042	0.0549	0.0440
Cameroon			0.0272	0.0613	0.0069	0.0346	0	0.0017	0.0387	0.0379
Canada	68.4	0.013	0.0254	0.1401	0.0237	0.0535	0	0.0060	0.0138	0.0050
Chile			0.0138	0.3205	0.0020	0.0134	1	0.0002	0.0083	0.0094
Colombia			0.0125	0.1481	0.0125	0.0104	1	0.0005	0.0176	0.0159
Costa Rica			0.0210	0.0748	0.0074	0.0359	-	0.0019	0.0305	0.0281
Denmark	59.5	-0.277	0.0273	0.1708	0.0117	0.0571	0	0.0047	0.0280	0.0228
Dominican Republic			0.0065	0.1403	0.0065	0.0256	-	0.0010	0.0266	0.0245
Ecuador			0.0153	0.2351	0.0017	0.0284	1	0.0009	0.0249	0.0221
El Salvador			0.0141	0.0436	0.0043	0.0181	-	0.0005	0.0188	0.0183
Ethiopia			0.0089	0.0219	0.0019	0.0183	1	0.0004	0.0208	0.0208
Finland	64.5	-0.121	0.0148	0.2276	0.0210	0.0996	0	0.0145	0.0674	0.0447
France	49	-0.19	0.0305	0.1646	0.0190	0.0689	0	0.0077	0.0414	0.0161
Germany	72.7	0.043	0.0307	0.1810	0.0285	0.0604	0	0.0079	0.0408	0.0231
Greece	38.8	-0.256	0.0255	0.2278	0.0114	0.0542	-	0.0043	0.0519	0.0381
Guatemala			0.0085	0.0339	0.0065	0.0319	-	0.0015	0.0303	0.0286
Honduras			0.0206	0.0748	0.0071	0.0375	-	0.0020	0.0395	0.0390
Hong Kong	84.6		0.0218	0.1143	0.0306	0.0461	0	0.0059	0.0573	0.0444
India	46.3		0.0094	0.1372	0.0091	0.0187	1	0.0008	0.0260	0.0260
Indonesia	54.3		0.0028	0.1151	0.0006	0.0215	1	0.0005	0.0204	0.0201
Ireland	62.9	0.055	0.0303	0.1589	0.0090	0.0724	0	0.0066	0.0526	0.0408
Israel			0.0108	0.1749	0.0114	0.0997	1	0.0124	0.0758	0.0485
Italy	48.9	-0.031	0.0273	0.1780	0.0214	0.0469	-	0.0047	0.0371	0.0188
Ivory Coast			0.0242	0.0715	0.0047	0.0198	1	0.0006	0.0224	0.0212
Jamaica			0.0340	0.1116	0.0138	0.0471	1	0.0037	0.0501	0.0449
Japan	61	0.086	0.0355	0.2313	0.0471	0.0750	0	0.0150	0.0918	0.0540
Korea	81.6		0.0240	0.0911	0.0103	0.0359	1	0.0021	0.0435	0.0430
Kuwait			0.0297	0.1389	0.0112	0.0445	0	0.0031	0.0490	0.0434
Luxembourg	66.4		0.0246	0.1619	0.0203	0.0508	0	0.0051	0.0204	0.0080
Madagascar			0.0053	0.0427	0.0017	0.0202	-	0.0005	0.0202	0.0206
Malawi			0.0123	0.0782	0.0081	0.0279	-	0.0013	0.0347	0.0343
Malaysia	66.5		0.0128	0.1751	0.0056	0.0389	0	0.0020	0.0350	0.0321
Mali			0.0094	0.0172	0.0041	0.0392	-	0.0019	0.0411	0.0417
Mexico	50.8		0.0145	0.1542	0.0087	0.0185	0	0.0007	0.0161	0.0124
Morocco			0.0153	0.0386	0.0045	0.0215	-	0.0007	0.0219	0.0197
Netherlands	70.8	0.033	0.0313	0.1554	0.0224	0.0554	0	0.0061	0.0281	0.0081
Nigeria			0.0162	0.0680	0.0122	0.0236	1	0.0013	0.0307	0.0312
Norway	50.5	0.229	0.0317	0.1459	0.0158	0.0543	0	0.0049	0.0263	0.0164
Pakistan			0.0066	0.0773	0.0034	0.0228	1	0.0007	0.0241	0.0227
Panama			0.0207	0.2072	0.0107	0.0282	-	0.0015	0.0311	0.0277
Paraguay			0.0135	0.0723	0.0075	0.0115	-	0.0004	0.0160	0.0157
Peru			0.0055	0.0858	0.0040	0.0227	1	0.0007	0.0198	0.0171
Philippines			0.0155	0.0795	0.0109	0.0336	1	0.0020	0.0389	0.0374
Portugal	46.3	0.056	0.0260	0.1312	0.0135	0.0593	-	0.0053	0.0585	0.0474
Senegal			0.0081	0.0726	0.0039	0.0155	1	0.0004	0.0172	0.0175
Spain	50.8	-0.197	0.0183	0.1375	0.0120	0.0277	0	0.0016	0.0262	0.0126
Sri Lanka			0.0083	0.1477	0.0023	0.0114	1	0.0002	0.0118	0.0122
Tanzania			0.0209	0.0730	0.0160	0.0790	1	0.0074	0.0840	0.0835
Thailand	61.7		0.0221	0.1191	0.0080	0.0315	1	0.0016	0.0363	0.0352
Turkey			0.0239	0.0733	0.0102	0.0326	1	0.0018	0.0336	0.0301
U.K.	61.4	0.087	0.0290	0.0846	0.0181	0.0513	0	0.0048	0.0299	0.0249
U.S.	51.5	-0.027	0.0288	0.1309	0.0262	0.0500	0	0.0058	0.0000	0.0000
Uruguay			0.0046	0.1021	0.0015	0.0140	1	0.0002	0.0089	0.0093
Venezuela			0.0148	0.0680	0.0084	0.0254	-	0.0012	0.0169	0.0085
Zambia			0.0446	0.1058	0.0207	0.0496	-	0.0049	0.0611	0.0619
Zimbabwe			0.0264	0.0993	0.0165	0.0678	-	0.0071	0.0749	0.0741

Country	Equipment X Outward 63-73	Equipment X Outward 73-85	Investment Share 60-85	Investment Share 60-75	Investment Share 70-85	Investment Share 75-85	"Orthog'zed" Equip. Price	"Orthog'zed" Equip. Price	"Orthog'zed" Other Price	"Orthog'zed" Other Price	National Savings Rate
Argentina	0.0214	0.0214	0.25	0.2584	0.2568	0.2458	0.0801	0.2084	-0.2779	-0.5544	16
Austria			0.23	0.2327	0.2423	0.2369	-0.0607	-0.0732	0.2241	0.2405	27.5
Belgium			0.23	0.2482	0.2261	0.2144	0.0438	0.0141	-0.0410	0.0315	21
Bolivia	0.0333	0.0167	0.13	0.1482	0.1305	0.1180		0.2914		-0.4399	9.5
Botswana			0.28	0.2493	0.3777	0.3443		0.7429		0.0266	-13
Brazil	0.1938	0.1938	0.23	0.2489	0.2311	0.2185		0.1136		-0.1732	22.5
Cameroon	0.1244	0.0820	0.13	0.1091	0.1454	0.1578		0.0229		0.0840	13.5
Canada			0.23	0.2384	0.2303	0.2273	0.0003	-0.1113	0.0480	0.2438	24
Chile	0.0154	0.0462	0.3	0.3000	0.3000	0.3000	0.5788	0.6917	-0.8478	-1.0945	18.5
Colombia	0.0486	0.0457	0.18	0.1850	0.1759	0.1719		0.4718		-0.3163	21.5
Costa Rica	0.1300	0.0867	0.15	0.1425	0.1550	0.1540	-0.0823	0.0994	0.3798	-0.0022	13.5
Denmark			0.27	0.2901	0.2547	0.2295	-0.3719	-0.3754	-0.0582	-0.0621	16.5
Dominican Republic	0.0321	0.0321	0.17	0.1836	0.2069	0.2133		0.2038		-0.2229	6
Ecuador			0.24	0.2387	0.2559	0.2582		0.3390		-0.4543	14
El Salvador	0.0447	0.0447	0.08	0.0781	0.0825	0.0835		0.1837		0.3628	10
Ethiopia	0.0212	0.0212	0.05	0.5528	0.0522	0.8530		-0.3337		0.6186	7.5
Finland			0.37	0.3972	0.3582	0.3352	-0.4253	-0.4061	-0.1942	-0.2561	25.5
France			0.26	0.2703	0.2641	0.2504	0.0552	0.0278	-0.0877	-0.0228	23.5
Germany			0.29	0.3058	0.2680	0.2525	-0.0471	0.0719	-0.1182	-0.0675	21.5
Greece			0.29	0.3108	0.2955	0.2895		-0.2588		-0.2040	11.5
Guatemala	0.1151	0.0788	0.09	0.8535	0.0918	0.0922		0.2537		0.3074	8.5
Honduras	0.0992	0.0992	0.14	0.1359	0.1415	0.1418		0.0081		0.0232	14
Hong Kong	0.3069	0.3069	0.2	0.1904	0.1986	0.2103	-0.1740	0.1008	0.6751	0.5069	30
India	0.0278	0.0278	0.17	0.1695	0.1783	0.1801		0.1850		-0.2729	19
Indonesia	0.0662	0.0441	0.14	0.1070	0.1732	0.1877		0.1407		-0.6417	18.5
Ireland			0.26	0.2402	0.2861	0.2859		0.2418	-0.0073	-0.0368	22
Israel			0.29	0.3160	0.2704	0.2440	-0.2482	-0.2626	0.1278	0.1321	13
Italy			0.25	0.2878	0.2348	0.2195	0.1554	0.1220	-0.0673	0.0036	22.5
Ivory Coast	0.0729	0.0486	0.12	0.1105	0.1389	0.1451		-0.0715		0.0425	24
Jamaica			0.2084	0.2478	0.1785	0.1497		-0.3601		0.0387	21
Japan			0.38	0.3529	0.3827	0.3713	-0.5446	-0.5577	0.0042	0.0033	33
Kenya	0.0925	0.0925	0.17	0.1827	0.1763	0.1591		-0.1647		0.0038	17.5
Korea	0.2226	0.2226	0.22	0.1758	0.2774	0.2962		-0.2624		-0.1222	23
Luxembourg			0.27	0.2829	0.2578	0.2458	0.1354	0.1085	0.0459	0.1243	7
Madagascar	0.0438	0.0219	0.07	0.7135	0.0719	0.0708		0.1173		0.4988	5.5
Malawi			0.13	0.1388	0.1431	0.1289		-0.1484		0.3478	6
Malaysia	0.1337	0.1337	0.2302923	0.1956	0.2704	0.2862		-0.0160		-0.4518	30.5
Mal			0.07	0.7763	0.0732	0.0674		-0.1561		0.6447	2.5
Mexico	0.0545	0.0545	0.1959269	0.1903	0.2051	0.2065	0.4405	0.3814	-0.3051	-0.2221	18
Morocco			0.08	0.6682	0.1010	0.1120		0.1457		0.6165	13
Netherlands			0.26	0.2919	0.2446	0.2096	0.1242	0.0960	0.9009	0.0789	19
Nigeria	0.0718	0.0358	0.12	0.8389	0.1583	0.1784		-0.6457		0.0071	18
Norway			0.29	0.2983	0.2963	0.2878	0.1273	0.0555	0.0477	0.1648	28
Pakistan	0.0263	0.0525	0.12	0.1200	0.1143	0.0012		0.1536		0.1509	12
Panama			0.26	0.3029	0.2789	0.2465		0.0219		-0.3058	16
Paraguay			0.12	0.8689	0.1414	0.1613		0.1818		0.0324	16
Peru	0.0287	0.0287	0.12	0.1321	0.1120	0.1078	0.3225	0.5270	0.1808	-0.2464	27
Philippines	0.0890	0.0890	0.15	0.1500	0.1419	0.0948		0.2158		0.3807	18.5
Portugal			0.23	0.2300	0.2287	0.2122		-0.0700		0.1263	19
Senegal	0.0386	0.0386	0.	0.1005	0.1006	0.0918		0.2278		0.3023	7
Spain			0.18	0.1904	0.1722	0.1610	0.0270	0.0263	-0.0253	-0.0027	23
Sri Lanka	0.0138	0.0275	0.15	0.1454	0.1606	0.1611		0.8287		-0.2225	13
Tanzania	0.0860	0.0860	0.18	0.1775	0.1995	0.1877		-0.6098		-0.1315	5
Thailand	0.1186	0.1186	0.1807538	0.1774	0.1724	0.1869		-0.1148		-0.0054	22.5
Tunisia	0.0854	0.1285	0.14	0.1261	0.1456	0.1585		0.1986		0.4952	17
U.K.			0.18	0.1973	0.1765	0.1640	-0.0788	-0.0829	0.1688	0.1621	19
U.S.			0.21	0.2112	0.2132	0.2113	0.0991	0.0644	-0.0285	0.0773	15.5
Uruguay	0.0155	0.0464	0.12	0.9074	0.1332	0.1572	0.2996	0.3111	-0.1371	-0.2101	14.5
Venezuela			0.11	0.8181	0.1427	0.1645	0.1772	0.2002	0.4154	0.3458	29.5
Zambia	0.0702	0.0702	0.32	0.4221	0.2680	0.1737		-0.4218		-0.0702	36
Zimbabwe			0.21	0.2428	0.1937	0.1724		-0.3464		-0.1368	22.5

Country	Exchange Rate Distort.	Manufac. Price Distort.	Capital Price Distort.	Labor Price Distort.	Distortion Ranking	Outward Oriented 63-73	Outward Oriented 73-85
Argentina	3	2	3	1	23	1	1
Austria							
Belgium							
Bolivia	3	2	3	1	21	2	1
Botswana							
Brazil	1	2	3	1	14	3	3
Cameroon	1	1	2	2	3	3	2
Canada							
Chile	3	1	3	3	24	1	3
Colombia	1	2	2	1	9	3	2
Costa Rica						3	2
Denmark							
Dominican Republic						1	1
Ecuador							
El Salvador						2	2
Ethiopia	2	3	1	1	10	1	1
Finland							
France							
Germany							
Greece							
Guatemala						3	2
Honduras						2	2
Hong Kong						4	4
India	1	3	2	2	12	1	1
Indonesia	2	2	2	1	11	3	2
Ireland							
Israel							
Italy							
Ivory Coast	1	2	2	3	16	3	2
Jamaica	2	2	3	3	19		
Japan							
Kenya	1	3	2	2	8	2	2
Korea	1	1	2	1	4	4	4
Luxembourg							
Madagascar						2	1
Malawi	1	1	2	1	1		
Malaysia	1	1	2	2	5	3	3
Malí							
Mexico	1	1	3	2	15	2	2
Morocco							
Netherlands							
Nigeria	3	2	3	3	26	2	1
Norway							
Pakistan	2	3	2	3	18	1	2
Panama							
Paraguay							
Peru	1	3	3	2	22	1	1
Philippines	1	2	2	1	6	2	2
Portugal							
Senegal	2	2	2	2	17	2	2
Spain							
Sri Lanka	1	2	2	3	13	1	2
Tanzania	1	3	3	3	25	1	1
Thailand	1	2	1	1	2	3	3
Tunisia	1	2	2	1	7	2	3
UK							
US							
Uruguay	3	3	3	1	20	1	3
Venezuela							
Zambia						1	1
Zimbabwe							