

# DOES TRADE THEORY EXPLAIN A COUNTRY'S TERMS OF TRADE?

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## ABSTRACT

Changes in a country's terms of trade have a direct impact on its welfare. Improving terms of trade enable a country to buy more imports for the same amount of exports. Decreasing terms of trade, on the other hand, cut a nation's purchasing power on international markets. Because of these welfare implications, analyses of the terms of trade have a long and distinguished history in economics. However, the extensive attention given to the topic has produced few empirical studies that explain the movements of the terms with a structural model that relates them to their determinants in the real economy. In fact, classic hypotheses such as the one by Bhagwati-Johnson, have never been put to a test. This gap in the literature leaves crucial questions unaddressed, for example: To what extent can a country influence its terms of trade? How does increasing output due to factor accumulation or technological progress affect the terms of trade? And hence, are worsening terms of trade the price to be paid for economic expansion?

In the present paper we explicitly link the analysis of the terms of trade to a core question in international trade: How is production distributed internationally, and what determines that distribution? Different views on the distribution of production generate very different hypotheses about how terms of trade will evolve. (1) In a world in which countries produce different goods, output growth will worsen a country's terms of trade. (2) However, in a diversified world, in which all countries are able to produce the same products, changes of the terms of trade critically depend on the export or import bias of the expansion. We test the first hypothesis as we model a world with complete specialization. We contrast the analysis with a model of a diversified economy for which we take to the data the famous Bhagwati-Johnson hypothesis about sector-biased economic growth and how it affects a country's terms of trade.

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## Introduction

Why a country's terms of trade change and how they change are important questions. It is generally recognized that movements in a country's terms of trade are critical for its economic welfare. Improving terms of trade due to higher export or lower import prices allow a country to sell its export goods for more imports on international markets. Decreasing terms of trade, on the other hand, lower its international purchasing power. Given these direct welfare implications, it is not surprising that analyses and hypotheses concerning the terms of trade have a long history in economics. From the classical economists to Prebisch and Singer, particular attention has been given to the terms of trade between primary commodities and manufacturing that are critical for developing countries.<sup>2</sup> Also the current trade and wages debate hinges on the terms of trade. It is investigated whether growing trade with low-wage countries decreases the price of our unskilled-labor intensive imports vis-à-vis our skilled-labor intensive exports. And if so, whether this widens the skilled-unskilled wage gap in developed countries.

Despite the considerable attention economists have given to the terms of trade, there are hardly any empirical studies, except for CGE models, that go beyond time series analyses and that empirically relate the terms of trade to more fundamental factors such as productivity increase, factor accumulation, etc.<sup>3, 4 5</sup> This gap is an important shortcoming

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Purdue were helpful. William Prince from the World Bank graciously provided the terms of trade data. All remaining errors are ours.

<sup>2</sup> See Hadass and Williamson (2001) for the classical debate and the literature in the wake of the Prebisch-Singer hypothesis.

<sup>3</sup> To a large extent, this lack of attention is due to the fact that most of the empirical literature makes the convenient assumption that countries are small. Because of this assumption, the terms of trade are exogenous and a country does not affect its own terms of trade. Alternatively, the literature studies the effect of exogenous terms of trade shocks. Probably best known are Easterly et al. (1993) and Barro and Sala-i-Martin (1995) who include countries' terms of trade in growth regressions. Mendoza (1996) also

in the research, since investigating the links between the real side of the economy and the terms of trade opens up crucial questions, for example: How are factor accumulation and output expansion related to a country's terms of trade? To what extent can countries affect their own terms of trade? And, are deteriorating terms of trade the price to be paid for increased output? In this paper we address this gap in the research and provide a framework for the empirical study of the real side determinants of the terms of trade.

From a theoretical point of view, terms of trade movements critically depend on the distribution of world production. When countries do not produce the same homogenous products, most theories predict that output growth due to technological progress or factor accumulation will worsen a country's terms of trade. This result is clearly observed in the Ricardian model by Dornbusch, Fischer and Samuelson (1977), its adaptation by Krugman (1985), a Heckscher-Ohlin model with complete specialization, or whenever the Armington (1969) assumption is used to distinguish goods by country of origin. The intuition for declining terms of trade is straightforward. To sell additional output on world markets, all else equal, a country has to lower its export price. Alternatively, if more output means more income and higher import demand, import prices will rise. However intuitive this result is, it is not a generally valid one

The classic papers by Bhagwati (1958,1969) and Johnson (1958) emphasize that output expansion has an ambiguous impact on the terms of trade when countries produce the same set of goods.<sup>6</sup> In particular, Bhagwati and Johnson study exporting countries that also produce the goods that they import. In their analysis, export-biased growth worsens a

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includes the variance of the terms of trade. In studies of the determinants of the real exchange, the terms of trade are often included as an exogenous explanatory variable, see De Gregorio and Wolf (1994) for relevant literature.

<sup>4</sup>There is an extensive literature on purchasing power parity and the law of one price that is reviewed in Froot and Rogoff (1995). The part of the literature that relies on structural models is dominated by the debate over the cross-country and intertemporal differences between traded and non-traded goods prices and how these explain the movements of the real exchange rate. This debate goes back to the Balassa (1964) and Samuelson (1964) hypothesis. Only in rare cases is any distinction made between the traded goods price of exports and imports as in De Gregorio and Wolf, 1994. In these rare instances, countries are by assumption small and the terms of trade are exogenous.

<sup>5</sup> CGE studies such as Brown (1987) find that trade liberalizations are dominated by terms of trade effects.

<sup>6</sup> Findlay and Grubert (1959) study how various kinds of technological progress will affect the terms of trade. See also Findlay (1984).

country's terms of trade. Import-biased growth, on the other hand, may actually improve the terms of trade, because it increases the goods that the country tends to import relative to the ones it exports. In other words, both the sectoral composition of growth and the cross-country distribution of production are critical for the terms of trade. Interestingly enough, this Bhagwati-Johnson alternative hypothesis has received virtually no attention in the empirical literature.<sup>7</sup> This is surprising since an important part of the empirical trade literature assumes that countries produce the same goods, see Trefler (1995), Harrigan (1997) and others. In fact, one of the central questions in international trade is currently to what extent countries produce the same goods, including Schott (1998), Debaere and Demiroglu (1998), Davis and Weinstein (2000) and others.<sup>8</sup> In addition, import-biased growth seems plausible. The newly industrialized countries in East Asia industrialized in record pace and increasingly produced the products they initially imported. The same probably happens, albeit at a slower pace, in countries such as Spain or Mexico.

In this paper we propose a global framework to study the terms of trade. For all goods, we model world demand and supply and construct countries' terms of trade as an index of the equilibrium prices that are set on world markets. In the empirical analysis we will then relate these terms of trade indices to the changing world demand for and supply of each country's export and import goods. This global approach explicitly links the terms of trade to the current debate about international specialization of production. In particular, we investigate the terms of trade under two alternative scenarios. First, we assume that all countries produce different goods. Second, we model the world as a diversified economy in which all countries produce the same goods. This yields the exact setting that we need to study the Bhagwati-Johnson hypothesis. Moreover, by modeling the terms of trade as an index of prices that are set at the world level, we equalize world

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<sup>7</sup> The argument that the Bhagwati prediction of import-biased growth is not very relevant in today's world, since it would imply less not more trade ignores a global trend toward free trade.

<sup>8</sup> Schott (1998), Debaere and Demiroglu (1998), Debaere (2001a), Davis and Weinstein (2000) and Harrigan and Zakrajsik (2000) use the framework of the Heckscher-Ohlin model. Their research question can be summarized with the question: Is there one cone of diversification or are there more? Helpman

demand and world supply, without making balanced trade the focus of the analysis, which is important in a world with persistent trade imbalances. In our model, the terms of trade are not by assumption this major force that balances trade and that equalizes a country's import demand with the rest of the world's demand for its exports.

The global approach that we take distinguishes our study from Krugman (1989) and Acemoglu and Ventura (2001), which are two of the few studies that explain the terms of trade with a structural model. Both studies focus on the balanced trade condition, however. Krugman (1989) investigates for manufacturing in nine OECD countries whether faster growing countries avoid deteriorating terms of trade because their import demand elasticity is lower than the elasticity of world demand for their exports. Acemoglu and Ventura (2001) study for the world as a whole whether the overall terms of trade equalize the export demand of faster growing countries to the import demand in the slower growing rest of the world, controlling for demand changes due to increasing varieties. There is an explicitly dynamic model in which the terms of trade are critical to maintain a stable world income distribution. Note in addition that both studies assume that countries produce different sets of goods, which leaves little room for the Bhagwati-Johnson hypothesis and which de-emphasizes the importance of the sectoral distribution of production for the terms of trade. Different from Acemoglu and Ventura (2001) we impose less structure on the intertemporal dimension and gear our setup towards an empirical analysis that makes the use of panel data techniques possible.

Note that we assume that the world markets are integrated, in the sense of Goldberg and Knetter (1997): Geography or nationality does not have systematic effects on transactions prices for otherwise identical products (except for, of course, the marginal cost of moving a good from one location to another). We know that the latter assumption does not hold in reality. There are deviations from purchasing power parity in the short run and maybe in the medium and long run (Froot and Rogoff, 1995). There is also micro-evidence of cross-country deviations from the law of one price (Goldberg and Knetter, 1997). Admitting to a certain degree of market segmentation does not preclude, however, that relative prices may follow changing world supply and demand. In fact, we

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(1987), Hummels and Levinsohn (1995), Evenett and Keller (2001) and Debaere (2001b), on the other

will exactly be able to determine to what extent global conditions do affect a country's prices. Moreover, in the empirical implementation, we correct for deviations from PPP to filter some of the short-run volatility due to exchange rate fluctuations, which Engel and Rogers (1995,1996) analyzed in their study of the deviations of the law of one price. We also relate distance to the predictions of the terms of trade theories. In doing so, we explicitly address Engel and Rogers' hypothesis that distance weakens the equalizing forces of price arbitrage and accounts for deviations from the law of one price.

Finally, our study faces the challenge of any intertemporal or cross-country study that measures production at the aggregate or at the industry level. We measure output quantities without any explicit indication of changing quality or increasing/decreasing varieties. As Krugman (1989) noted, an increase in aggregate or industry output that is accompanied by the creation of new products should not have a negative impact on the terms of trade.<sup>9</sup> In the empirical implementation we will investigate whether indeed more intra-industry trade (and the more likely creation new varieties) in varieties mitigates the impact of output on the terms of trade. We also proxy for changing preferences that should also capture changing quality or varieties.<sup>10</sup>

Our empirical evidence suggests that neither the perfect specialization approach to the terms of trade nor the analysis of the terms in the context of a diversified economy can provide an explanation for terms of trade movements of a relatively big sample of countries. However, we uncover a systematic pattern in the rejections of the theory that is in line with Engel and Rogers' (1996) analysis. Especially for the perfect specialization approach, we find fairly robust evidence in support among countries that are reasonably close to the world markets. Among these close countries, an increase in output leads to a drop in the terms of trade, holding all else equal. At the same time, there is weaker evidence for a feedback on the terms of trade from the the world supply of all the export

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hand, test the complete specialization models of "new" trade theory.

<sup>9</sup> In a recent study, Hummels and Klenow (2001) develop a measure for extensive (more varieties) versus intensive (more of the same varieties/goods) expansion. They relate these measures to country size to study how well the data capture the predictions of various variety models and what these imply for the impact of changing supply on the terms of trade. They find most support for Krugman (1980).

and the import-competing goods that multiple countries produce, which is in line with the Bhagwati Johnson hypothesis.

The paper is structured as follows. In the first section we derive the terms of trade equation for a world of specialization in which countries produce different sets of goods. We present the estimation equation and we address some econometric issues. In the second section we derive the test equation for a diversified economy in which all countries produce the same goods. In section three we discuss the data that we use and how we construct these. The next section focuses on the empirical results and their interpretation. In this section we address alternative hypotheses and the relation between geography and the terms of trade. We relax some of the constraints of the test specification and relate the empirical results to varying intra-industry trade and changing quality. In section five we conclude.

## **1. Terms of Trade in a World of Complete Specialization.**

How the terms of trade change critically depends on the extent to which countries produce the same set of goods. In this section we study a world of complete specialization, in which countries produce different goods and in which by definition all output expansion is export biased. Here, technological progress and factor accumulation should negatively affect a country's terms of trade. In a world in which all countries produce a different good, the world supply of a good is identical to the supply of one particular country.<sup>11</sup> As noted, various models deliver this type of complete specialization. We use the Armington (1969) assumption that differentiates goods by country of origin.

### A. Theoretical Setup

Preferences are defined by a CES utility function for country  $j$ .

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<sup>10</sup> Feenstra (1994) shows how changing preferences in a CES setting capture also changing quality or changing varieties.

$$(1) \quad U_j = [\mathbf{S}_i(\mathbf{b}_i c_{ij}^{(s-1)/s})]^{s/(s-1)}$$

, where  $c_{ij}$  is country  $j$ 's consumption of country  $i$ 's good, and  $\mathbf{s}$  is the elasticity of substitution between goods. Consumers in country  $j$  maximize utility subject to  $\mathbf{S}_i p_{ij} c_{ij} = y_j$ , which yields country  $j$ 's nominal demand for country  $i$ 's product in equation (2). Note that we introduce an element of geography by allowing for iceberg transportation costs  $t_{ij}$ , so that  $p_{ij} = p_i t_{ij}$  ( $t_{ij} > 1$ ).

$$(2) \quad c_{ij} = \mathbf{b}_i p_i^{-s} t_{ij}^{-s} y_j / P_j^{1-s}$$

, with  $P_j^I = [\mathbf{S}_i \mathbf{b}_i p_i^{1-s} t_{ij}^{1-s}]^{1/(1-s)}$ , the aggregate price index of country  $j$ .

Summing over all countries  $j$  (including  $i$ ), one obtains the total world demand for the product of country  $i$ . In equilibrium this world demand equals world supply  $X_i$ , which in turn amounts to country  $i$ 's total production. After some rewriting, we obtain an expression for the price of country  $i$ 's good,  $p_i$ , that is at the same time its export price,  $P_i^X$ .<sup>12</sup>

$$(3) \quad p_i = P_i^X = X_i^{-1/s} \mathbf{b}_i^{1/s} [\mathbf{S}_j t_{ij}^{-s} y_j / (P_j^I)^{1-s}]^{1/s}$$

We model production with Cobb Douglas. A country's production depends on its total factor supplies and its productivity  $A_i$  that differs internationally. We consider the factors, capital, labor and human capital. There is no international factor mobility.

$$(4) \quad X_i = A_i K_i^{g^0} L_i^{g^1} H_i^{g^2} \text{ with } \mathbf{S}_i \mathbf{g}^i = 1$$

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<sup>11</sup> Alternatively, all domestic goods are perfect substitutes.

<sup>12</sup> We ignore that  $p_i$  is also part of  $P_j$ .



The equations (3) and (4) describe for each good how the world equilibrium price is determined. Since we want to derive an index of the terms of trade, we transform the demand equation (3). For each good that country  $i$  imports, there exists such an equation. Define  $q_{ki}^M$  as the fraction of  $i$ 's total imports that is imported from country  $k$  -- For notational convenience we use  $k$  to denote all countries from which  $i$  imports.<sup>13</sup> Then, raise for each import good the left and right-hand side of the price equation to the  $q_{ki}^M$  power. (Note that  $\sum_k q_{ki}^M = 1$ ) After multiplying the left-hand sides and the right-hand sides of the demand equations for all import goods  $k$  with each other, we obtain an expression for the index of the import prices of country  $i$ ,  $P_i^M$ ; we also suppress the subscripts of  $q_{ki}^M$ .

$$(5) \quad P_i^M = \prod_k p_k^{q_{ki}^M} = \prod_k X_k^{-1/s} q_{ki}^M \prod_k b_k^{q_{ki}^M} [(\sum_j t_{kj}^{-s} y_j / (P_j^I)^{1-s})^{1/s} q_{ki}^M]$$

We finally obtain an expression for an index of country  $i$ 's terms of trade,  $T_i$ , by dividing a country's export price by its import prices and by taking a logarithmic transformation.<sup>14</sup>

$$(6) \quad \ln (P_i^X / P_i^M) = \ln (T_i) = 1/s \ln (\mathbf{b}_i / \prod_k \mathbf{b}_k^{q_{ki}^M}) - 1/s \ln X_i + 1/s \ln \prod_k X_k^{q_{ki}^M} \\ - 1/s \ln MP_i$$

$$, \text{ where } MP_i = \prod_k [(\sum_j t_{kj}^{-s} y_j / (P_j^I)^{1-s})^{1/s} q_{ki}^M] / [(\sum_j t_{ij}^{-s} y_j / (P_j^I)^{1-s})^{1/s}]$$

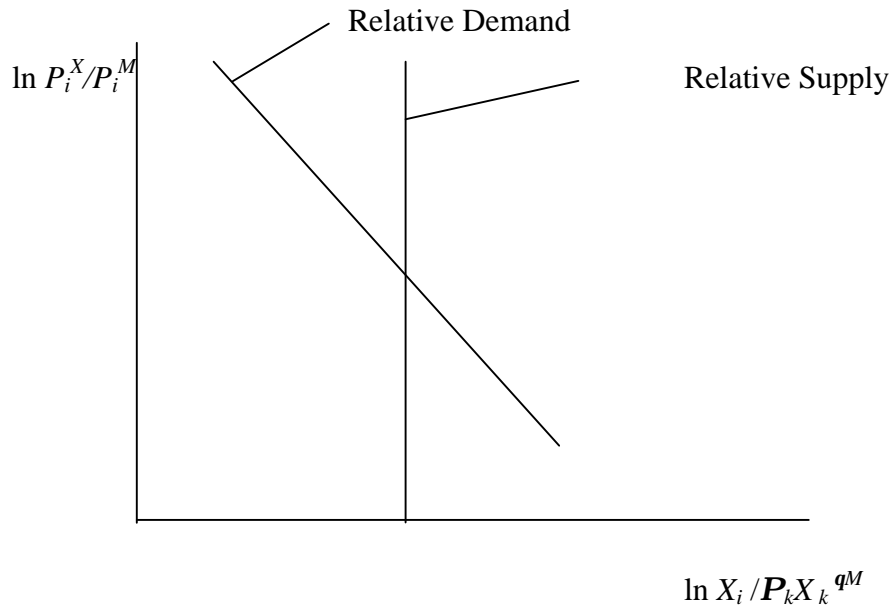
Expression (6) is a relative demand equation that we will want to estimate. The equation involves the demand for domestically produced export goods versus foreign import goods. It characterizes the index of a country's terms of trade as determined by the preferences for the foreign versus the domestic goods, a term measuring the market potential of foreign versus domestic goods and the amount of import versus export goods

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<sup>13</sup> To be explicit in this context, ' $j$ ' stands for "the other countries" and  $k$  for 'the countries from which  $i$  imports'. This distinction is important in equation (5) and (6).

<sup>14</sup>For notational convenience we treat the import prices free of transportation costs. We could rewrite equation (6) with transportation costs, using  $p_{ij} = p_i t_{ij}$ . This would result in a country-specific term in (6).

available. Note that equation (6) can be viewed as one equation of a relative demand - relative supply system that determines the terms of trade. Note that such a system is by assumption recursive because a country's supply, and hence its relative supply schedule, is independent of the terms of trade. (The figure below depicts the relative demand and supply schedule that we face.)<sup>15</sup>



Note that the relative demand equation (6) predicts, with  $\mathbf{s}$  positive that an increase in a country's own output, holding all else constant, should worsen its terms of trade and so should an increase in the market potential abroad.

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<sup>15</sup> For comparison, we report the totally differentiated balance of trade condition from which the test equation in Krugman (1989) and Acemoglu and Ventura (2001) is derived. Johnson (1955)'s totally differentiated balanced trade condition on which Krugman (1989) relies:  $\mathbf{p}_t = -1 / (\mathbf{s}_x + \mathbf{s}_y - 1) \cdot [\mathbf{z}_x x_t - \mathbf{z}_m g_t]$ , where  $\mathbf{p}_t$  stands for the growth rate of the terms of trade,  $\mathbf{s}_x$  and  $\mathbf{s}_y$  respectively are the elasticity of the demand for exports and imports,  $\mathbf{z}_x$  and  $\mathbf{z}_m$  the income elasticity of the demand for exports and imports,  $g_t$  stands for a country's income growth,  $x_t$  the income growth in the rest of the world. Acemoglu and Ventura (2001)'s differentiated balanced trade condition:  $\mathbf{p}_t = -1 / (\mathbf{s} - 1) \cdot [g_t - x_t] + \mathbf{D} \ln \mathbf{m}$ , where  $\mathbf{p}_t$  stands for the growth rate of the terms of trade,  $g_t$  stands for a country's income growth,  $x_t$  the steady state growth that is the same across all countries and  $\mu_t$  the change in varieties.

## B Regression Specification

Our aim is to estimate the relative demand equation (6) as a single equation from a system of relative demand and relative supply. As can be seen, the estimation equation follows directly from the theory.

$$(7) \quad \ln T_{it} = J_{0i} + J_1 \ln X_{it} + J_2 \ln P_{\setminus i} X_{jt}^{qM} + J_3 \ln MP_{it} + e_{it}$$

In a world of complete specialization, we expect a negative elasticity  $J_1$  with respect to its own and a positive  $J_2$  with respect to the rest of the world's output. Note that it is assumed that the import shares  $qM$  do not change over time, which is not uncommon for a price index. It should be noted that the pattern of countries' major importers is relatively stable anyway. Moreover, keeping import shares constant avoids any concerns about endogeneity, since the shares are exogenous to whatever happens in any period other than the base year.

As discussed in the theory section, the terms of trade are determined where relative supply and relative demand meet. In the relative demand equations, the terms of trade are a function of the relative supplies, relative market potential and tastes. Supply, and hence relative supply, is a function of given country endowments and technology and as such independent of a country's terms of trade. In other words, there is a recursive aspect to our setup. Therefore, in theory, OLS yields unbiased estimates of each single equation of the relative supply-demand system, when we have appropriate proxies for tastes and market potential and in the absence of any correlation between output shocks and the error in the terms of trade regression. Since any correlation between  $e_{it}$  and output shocks, for example because taste shocks are correlated with technology shocks, misidentifies the demand equation, we propose a two stage least square procedure. We instrument for output with the predicted values of the following panel regression that estimates the production side of the model that we discussed earlier. The fairly strong correlation between  $X_{it}$  and the predicted value should add to the quality of the instruments.

$$(8) \quad \ln X_{it} = \alpha_t + \alpha_i + \beta_1 \ln K_{it} + \beta_2 \ln L_{it} + \beta_3 \ln H_{it} + \mathbf{m}_t$$

, where trend  $\alpha_t$  and country-specific effect  $\alpha_i$  capture differences in technology across countries and over time.

Even though a country's output is not determined by the terms of trade in the theoretical framework that we propose, one may wonder whether the terms of trade could not affect output through capital accumulation. The latter would create a correlation between  $\mathbf{e}_{it}$  and shocks to output and invalidate the chosen instruments. In particular, there is a body of work that links either the mean or the variance of a country's terms of trade to its savings behavior and hence to capital accumulation. Moreover, this literature is supported by growth regressions that show the significant impact of the average and the variance of the terms of trade on economic growth.<sup>16</sup> The framework that we propose takes care of such concerns, since any link through capital accumulation between the variance or the mean of  $\mathbf{e}_{it}$  and a country's output will be picked up by the country specific-effect  $\alpha_i$  in the output equation.<sup>17</sup>

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<sup>16</sup> See Mendoza (1996)

<sup>17</sup> We report the following illustrative regression results to address concerns about the relation between the terms of trade and the capital stock. As noted, because of the fixed effect, a relation between the variance or the mean of the terms of trade and the capital stock does not affect the validity of the instruments -- a contemporaneous relation, however, does. We relate a country's capital stock to variables that could affect savings behavior. We choose population and the composition of the population. (Population also controls for size.) In a cross-country regression of our capital stock on population that includes the variance and the average of the terms of trade we find a significant impact for both the variance and the mean. (POP = population, human = proxy for composition of population, ratio of educated versus low-educated fraction of the population) -- the coefficient on avgtot is of the wrong sign :

$$\ln K_i = \text{constant} + 1 \ln POP_i - 5.7 \ln \text{vartot}_i - 0.18 \ln \text{avgtot}_i \quad R^2 \text{ 57.5, obs: 51}$$

(t,6.2)            (t,-2.7)            (t,-2.3)

$$\ln K_i = \text{constant} + 0.97 \ln POP_i + 0.48 \text{human}_i - 3.6 \ln \text{vartot}_i - 0.1 \ln \text{avgtot}_i \quad R^2 \text{ 57.5, obs: 51}$$

(t,7.5)            (t,5.1)            (t,-2.7)            (t,-1.6)

In a fixed effect regression of countries' capital stock on country-specific fixed effects, countries' population POP and the composition of their population, human, we do not find a significant impact of the terms of trade on the capital stock. (Remember that the variance and mean of the capital stock are part of the fixed effects.)

This leaves us with the question how to proxy for market potential and tastes. As one remembers from the theory section, the market potential term,  $MP_i$ , contains income and is therefore bound to be correlated with the error term  $e_{it}$ . Therefore, we propose to instrument for income with the predicted country output from the supply regression. We propose population that is commonly used in the gravity equation literature as an alternative measure. We will proxy for transportation costs with distance. Note that we take the size of countries into account. We treat countries like circles and discount a country's output by the radius of its surface. To construct the market potential variables we assume that the elasticity of substitution is 2. The taste variables disappear into the fixed effect, which implies that tastes stay the same.

### 3. Terms of Trade in a World of Incomplete Specialization

To study the Bhagwati-Johnson prediction of the terms of trade, we investigate a diversified world economy in which exporting countries also produce import-competing goods.<sup>18</sup> To model the production side, we rely on the theory of comparative advantage and what it implies for the international distribution of production.

As noted, the effect on the terms of trade critically depends on the export or import bias in the output expansion. A bias towards exports induces a deterioration of a country's terms of trade, because it increases the relative supply of the goods the country exports relative to the ones it imports. Alternatively, import bias may improve its terms of trade. In a world in which many countries produce the same goods that are perfect substitutes, what ultimately determines a country's terms of trade is the world equilibrium

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$$\ln K_{it} = \text{country effects} + 2.2 \ln POP_{it} + .019 \ln tot_{it} \quad \text{obs:969, R2: 68.3}$$

(t,39)                      (t,0.6)

$$\ln K_{it} = \text{country effects} + 1.8 \ln POP_{it} + 0.7 \text{human}_{it} + .005 \ln tot_{it} \quad \text{obs:969, R2: 68.5}$$

(t,27.7)                      (t,11.2)                      (t,0.015)

<sup>18</sup> In terms of the recent literature on international specialization, it is assumed that all OECD countries lie in one and the same cone.

and whether, from the point of view of a specific country, this world equilibrium is biased towards its export or its import goods. Therefore, it is critical to appropriately identify world demand and world supply for individual goods. In a diversified world economy, the world supply of a product is no longer identical to the production of one country. Instead it amounts to total amount of what all countries produce in given sectors.

### A. Theoretical Setup

We characterize the consumers' preferences with a CES utility function. In all countries consumers consume the same goods. Since all countries  $i$  produce the same set of goods, the subscript  $z$  refers to a particular sector instead of to a particular country. For now, we do not introduce bilateral transportation costs.

$$(9) \quad c_{zi} = \mathbf{b}_z p_z^{-s} y_i / P_i^{1-s}$$

, with  $P_i^I = [\mathbf{S}_z \mathbf{b}_z p_z^{1-s}]^{1/(1-s)}$ , the aggregate price index of country  $I$ .

From equation (9) we derive the terms of trade equation, following the same procedure as before. There are two critical differences, however. The world production of good  $z$ ,  $X_z$ , now amounts to the sum of the  $X_{zi}$ 's across all countries of the world,  $X_z = \mathbf{S}_i X_{zi}$ . Also, because a country now exports in various sectors, we have to construct an index of the export prices in the same way that we built an import price index. The demand (price) equations for the export goods are taken to the  $\mathbf{q}_{zi}^{X \text{ th}}$  power, whereas the import demand (price) equations are taken to the  $\mathbf{q}_{zi}^{M \text{ th}}$  power. With some algebra, we obtain an expression for the terms of trade of a country in an incompletely specialized world.

$$(10) \quad \ln T_i = 1/s \ln (\mathbf{P}_z \mathbf{b}_z^{q^X} / \mathbf{P}_z \mathbf{b}_z^{q^M}) - 1/s \ln \mathbf{P}_z X_z^{q^X} + 1/s \ln \mathbf{P}_z X_z^{q^M}$$

We determine sectoral production starting from comparative advantage. The following equation has been a basic equation in studies about the international allocation of production and the Rybczynski effect. It relates sectoral output  $X_{zi}$  to a country's factor endowments, typically capital, various types of labor and land. This factor endowments driven model of production, as it is called in the literature, is applied and modified in Leamer (1984,1987), Harrigan (1995), Bernstein and Weinstein (1998) and Schott (2000).<sup>19</sup>

$$(11) \quad X_{zi} = g_{Kz} K_{it} + g_{L1z} L_{1i} + g_{L2z} L_{2i} + g_{Lz} LA_i$$

To derive equation (11) one typically assumes factor price equalization. One can relax this condition by allowing for factor-augmenting productivity differences as in Trefler (1995). Note that the  $g$ 's are sometimes referred to in the literature as the Rybczynski derivatives; they are a function of technology and prices that we specify in the discussion of the empirical implementation.

## B. Regression Specification

Our baseline fixed effect regression is based on equation (10).

$$(12) \quad \ln(T)_{it} = J_0 + J_1 \ln P_z X_{zi}^{q^X - q^M} + e_{it}$$

In an imperfectly specialized world, we expect a negative coefficient on  $J_1$ . In that case, from the perspective of country  $i$ , there is either export bias in the world economy ( $P_z X_z^{q^X - q^M}$  increases over time), or there is import bias ( $P_z X_z^{q^X - q^M}$  decreases over time). Regression (13) is perhaps the most interesting specification, since it disentangles the

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<sup>19</sup> Indeterminacy because there are more goods than factors is, for the empirical implementation, no problem with international as opposed to regional data, cf. Hanson and Slaughter (1999) and Bernstein and Weinstein (1998). Note that we will implement this model for the OECD countries that have relatively similar endowments so that the existence of multiple cones should not be a primary concern.

impact on the terms of trade from the world expansion among its export goods from that among its import goods.  $J_1$  should be negative and  $J_2$  positive.

$$(13) \quad \ln T_{it} = J_0 + J_1 \ln P_z X_{zt}^{qX} + J_2 \ln P_z X_{zt}^{qM} + e_{it}$$

Some of the concerns addressed in the previous section arise also in the estimation of the present equation. Even though the theoretical setup does not impose that the relative supply is independent of terms of trade, our empirical implementation will de facto imply just that. We use a two-stage least squares procedure to instrument for  $X_{it}$ . We take the predicted values from the panel regression of a country's sectoral output  $X_{it}$  on its exogenous endowments and we sum these predicted values across countries, i.e.  $X_{it}^{\wedge} = \sum_z X_{zit}^{\wedge}$ . We make use of two types of capital, four types of labor and arable land -- we discuss the data sources in the next section.

$$(14) \quad X_{zit} = a_i + a_z + g_{1z} K_{1it} + g_{2z} K_{2it} + g_{3z} L_{1it} + g_{4z} L_{2it} + g_{5z} L_{3it} + g_{6z} L_{4it} + g_{7z} LA_{it} + m_{zit}$$

Regression (14) of course has a striking resemblance to the endowment-driven output model. To be internally consistent, we have to slightly modify the theoretical setup. In particular, we follow Leamer (1987,1984) and assume Leontief technology. This assumption makes the  $g_z$  coefficients of the output equation a function of technology and not of prices. Therefore, the  $g_z$  coefficients that are estimated as constants do not imply that prices do not change, which would be inconsistent with studying changing terms of trade altogether. Note that Leontief technology relaxes the factor price equalization requirement. Even though the assumption that prices do not affect sectoral output may seem strong at first, one should keep in mind that we study yearly observations, which is a relatively short adjustment span with less than perfect cross-sectoral mobility in reality.

The quality of the instruments depends, of course, on the extent to which these are correlated with  $X_{zi}$ . To increase that correlation, we address some of the shortcomings of the endowment-driven model as Harrigan (1995) identified them. Since there are



differences in factor productivity across countries, we introduce factor productivity corrections for labor and land. In particular we will relate the factor productivity to the US productivity in the beginning of our sample. In doing so, we will implicitly allow for technological change to take place in the specification. Note also that the instruments that we use are the sum of the predicted sectoral output of all countries, an average that should track actual world sectoral output reasonably well.

Finally, as before, any effect through the mean or the variance of the terms of trade on savings and hence on investment and capital should be neutralized by introducing country- specific fixed effects in the endowment-driven model. As we argue below, because of the fairly drastic changes in the sectoral import and export structure we allow the trade shares that we use to construct the export and import supply variables to change over time. To avoid any endogeneity we take the lagged values of these shares.

### **3. The Data Requirements**

#### a. Terms of trade

We study the world of complete specialization at the country level. Our analysis of the incomplete specialization case is mainly based on countries' manufacturing sectors due to data limitations. To construct an index of a country's overall terms of trade and its terms of trade in manufacturing we rely on price indices from the World Bank's World Tables (1991), which has been the data source for Baxter and Kouparitsas (2000), Mendoza (1996) and Acemoglu and Ventura (2001). The World Tables provides for over one hundred countries' overall export price and import price between 1970 and 1988. In addition, export price indices for overall manufacturing (SITC categories 5, 6, 7 and 8, except for code 68), fuels (SITC categories 3) and non-fuel commodities (SITC categories 0,1, 2 and 4) are provided. Import prices for these three categories are not available, however. Baxter and Kouparitsas (2000) provide a very good analysis of the variability of these various price indices across categories and sectors.<sup>20</sup> Note that all the price indices are based on dollar denominated unit value calculations.

For the case of complete specialization we use two different measures of the terms of trade -- the difference will turn out to be negligible from an empirical perspective. On the one hand, we directly take the ratio of the overall export and import price from the World Tables. The disadvantage of this measure is, of course, that it also reflects changing prices of trade with third countries -- countries that are not part of the 51 countries for which we also have output and endowment data. To compensate for this disadvantage we construct a terms of trade index that is consistent with the set of countries that we use in our dataset. Following Baxter and Kouparitsas (2000), we construct for each country its aggregate import price  $P_{it}^M$ . We combine the export prices of the other 50 countries from which a country imports with the shares of these countries in total imports to construct a fixed-base geometric-means price index. We hold the import shares fixed for 1985, which is the base year of all our variables in which by definition real and nominal shares are the same. We note that changing the year of the weights to the real import shares of 1975 for example, hardly makes any difference, which is mostly due to the relative stability of countries' major import partners.

$$(15) \quad P_{it}^M = \mathbf{P}_j P_{jt}^{q_{ij}0}$$

, where  $q_{ij}0$  is the fraction of country  $i$ 's imports that come from country  $j$  in the base year 0. We discuss the sources of the bilateral trade shares under c.

For the incomplete specialization case, we follow a parallel strategy. Ideally, one would combine the export or import prices for the various manufacturing sectors into a terms of trade index. However, the World Tables only provide a country's export price in manufacturing and a sectoral breakdown for a wide variety of countries is not readily

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<sup>20</sup> From the variance decomposition of the terms of trade in Baxter and Kouparitsas (2000) we know that the variation of export vs. import prices in manufacturing is responsible for about half the variation in the overall terms of trade in developed countries. In developing countries the variability of the manufacturing terms of trade accounts for about 40 percent of the overall variability of the terms of trade. Also, the terms of trade tend to be more volatile for developing countries compared to developed countries.

available.<sup>21</sup> Consequently, we construct the same fixed-base geometric means import price index as in (15). This time, however, we rely on the bilateral import shares in total manufacturing for our 18 countries. In other words,  $q_{ij0}$  in the terms of trade formula will represent the share of country  $j$ 's goods in total manufacturing imports of country  $i$  in base year  $0$ .

Finally, we also introduce a PPP-corrected measure of the terms of trade, since the latter are based on dollar-denominated unit values. Using PPP-values and exchange rates from either the World Bank or the Penn World Tables (The difference does not matter for our estimation.), we multiply countries export prices with which we construct the terms of trade with the ratio of PPP over the exchange rate. Clearly, should the exchange rates follow purchasing power parity, the ratio is one and no correction is made.

#### b. Factor supplies and Output Predictions

To instrument for output, we need output predictions at the country and at the sectoral level for 1970-1988. To obtain these predictions, we use sectoral and aggregate output data and data of country endowments. For the incomplete specialization case, we rely on the factor endowments of Harrigan (1997). We use two types of capital from the Penn World Tables, population from Penn World and four categories of schooling from Barro and Lee (1993). Arable land is taken from the FAO. Sectoral gross output for 25 manufacturing sectors in 18 countries is drawn from the OECD STAN database. (Since the World Bank price data for manufacturing do not contain fuels, we drop the sectors Petroleum and Refining from the dataset.) We deflate sectoral output by sectoral value added prices from the OECD STAN data, for lack of gross output prices and use PPP values instead of nominal exchange rates. In Table 1 and 2, more details on the data sources are provided.

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<sup>21</sup> We will be able to use these prices in a separate study that specifically tries to explain the US terms of trade movements.

In Table 3 we present panel regressions for the endowment-driven sectoral output model as estimated by Harrigan (1995). Note that we adjust the labor and endowment factors for productivity differences with respect to the US in 1970 to improve the predictive power. In other words, we multiply them by  $Y_{ict}/Y_{us,1970}$ . We correct for heteroskedasticity that may arise and allow for an AR1 component in the error term. All regressions contain country specific effects. We take the predictions of sectoral output to construct the predicted value of world output in a sector,  $X_{it}^{\wedge} = S_i X_{zit}^{\wedge}$ .

For the complete specialization case, we use capital, population and human capital data. We aggregate durable goods and nonresidential capital from the Penn World data. To construct the human capital measure, we take the ratio of the sum of the two categories of highest educated to the lowest educated people. The aggregate output data for 51 countries are taken from the Penn World Tables in PPP values. Table 1 discusses the data sources for the complete specialization case in detail.

The predicted values of a country's real output are obtained from the following fixed effect production regression. We suppress the coefficients of the 51 country specific effects.

$$(8) \quad \ln X_{it} = -13.6 + 0.01t + \mathbf{a}_i + 0.24 \ln K_{it} + 0.37 \ln L_{it} + 0.06 \ln H_{it} + \mathbf{m}_t$$

(t,-5.1) (t,7.3)            (t, 9.8)    (t,6.5)    (t,3.1)

n: 969 R<sup>2</sup>:

### c. Trade shares

Trade data enter the analysis in two ways. We need them to construct our price indices and our output measures.

We extract the bilateral import shares of our 51 countries and the bilateral import shares in total manufacturing of our 18 countries from Feenstra et al. (1997). Table 5A and B

report these data for 1985, which is the base year of all our indices and real values. When calculating 1975 shares we deflate trade flows with the export and import price indices from the World Bank. Table 4 provides the sectoral export and import shares for the 18 OECD countries -- we provide them at the two-digit level, even though we use 25 three-digit sectors in the implementation. Note that these data are based on the OECD STAN data and reported in ISIC categories by the OECD. For Korea these data are not available from the OECD. We therefore take the data from Feenstra (1997) and concord the SITC classification of the trade data with the industrial ISIC classification, as suggested by the trade-production concordance that is available from Haveman's website. The year of the reported data is 1985.

Note that we face a particular challenge in the diversified economy case. As noted for the complete specialization case, the import shares of the major trading partners are relatively stable, so that changing the year for the trade shares that we use as weights in the price and output index hardly matters. In the incomplete specialization case, however, this is not the case. To determine world export and import supply, export and import shares are of critical importance. However, there are dramatic changes in these over time, so that it is not advisable to keep the export and import shares fixed. For example, for countries such as Japan or Spain the rough correlation between the sectoral net-export positions in 1970 and 1988 is a mere 61 and 66 percent. If one correlates sectoral export and import shares between these same years (and takes the average), one obtains for countries such as Korea and Greece a rough correlation of only 66 and 73 percent.<sup>22</sup> We therefore allow the sectoral import shares with which we weight output to change over time. To avoid any endogeneity in the regression, we will use the export and import shares of the previous year. Moreover, changing sectoral shares should be a better match with the terms of trade index that is based on overall manufacturing export prices that allow for changing sectoral composition. Since we have no sectoral deflators for our 25 manufacturing sectors across 18 countries we have to restrict ourselves to nominal trade shares -- in the

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<sup>22</sup> Note that the average correlation of net-exports and for export and imports in the other 14 OECD countries is respectively 90 and 92 percent.

empirical implementation we check the robustness of the results with the sample of the fourteen countries whose sectoral trade shares are subject to less change. In this case we will use the 1985 trade shares.

#### d. Bilateral distance

In the complete specialization case, we introduce an element of geography on the demand side. To construct the market potential measures, we need bilateral distance. We take the values from Jon Haveman's website. Table 6 A and B provide the bilateral distance matrix. Since we also want to account for country size, we take the radius of a country's surface to proxy for its internal distance. One finds these distance measures in Table 6 C. Country surfaces are taken from the *CIA Factbook*.

### **4. Estimation Results**

As the estimates in the first two columns of Table 7 illustrate, it is hard to argue that the complete or the incomplete specialization approach to the terms of trade presents an overarching explanation of the actual terms of trade movements. In the first two columns of the table we present the estimates of the fixed effect regressions that are based on equation (7) for the perfect specialization case and based on the equations (12) and (13) for the diversified world economy. For the total group of 51 countries, the signs are the opposite of what the theory predicts in a specialized world economy. In the complete specialization case, the world supply of the export good is identical to the output of one country. The estimates show that an increase in the supply of a country's (export) good versus the import goods produced in the rest of the world has a positive (yet insignificant) effect on the terms of trade and so does an increase in the relative market potential. Separating the (domestic) supply of the export good from the foreign supply of the import goods only confirms this sign pattern. Let's now turn to the lower part of Table 7 that presents the results for 18 countries with which we investigate the incomplete specialization case. Note that the world supply of the export good no longer is identical to one country's output. This variable measures for each country the world output in its

export sectors. The world supply of the import good is evidently the world output in each country's import sector. As the first two columns indicate we the estimated coefficients are insignificant at the 90 or 95 percent level and of the right sign. An increase in the world supply of a country's export goods relative to its import goods does not have a negative impact on the terms of trade. Moreover, if one takes the long-term differences of all variables (not reported), one finds little support for the predicted relationship between output and terms of trade for either theory: The signs are either wrong or insignificant.

In what follows we explore alternative hypotheses about why the results are as disappointing as they are. We explore whether there is a systematic aspect to the failures of the theory -- and we will provide some evidence that there probably is. We investigate whether the rejection is obtained across different sub-groups of countries and whether there is a geographical explanation for the poor results. We subsequently adjust or relax the test specification. We enrich the supply and demand side as we proxy for changes in quality and introduce Engel curves. We also investigate the link between the performance of the model and the extent of intra-industry trade. Finally, we study the impact on the estimates of transforming the data and correcting for deviations from PPP.

We take the hypothesis that Engel and Rogers (1995,1996) put forward to explain failures of the law of one price as a starting point and investigate whether they help explain the obtained results. In Engel and Rogers' view, the extent to which markets are integrated or segmented --i.e. the extent to which people pay the same price for identical products or, in our case, the extent to which prices for similar products are subject to the same market forces -- depends on the distance between markets. The further markets are apart, the more segmented these markets tend to be and the weaker the forces of arbitrage are to align goods prices. In other words, with increasing distance there should be more room for different price movements for similar goods.

We investigate whether distance affects how terms of trade relate to output changes. Of course, in a multicountry world, it is critical to find an appropriate measure for

“distance”. We take the market potential measure that we defined earlier and that tells us how far or how close a country is to the world market compared to the other countries.<sup>23</sup> If a country is small and surrounded by other high-income countries (take the Netherlands) its market potential will be high compared to that of the rest of the world. The further a country lies from the mass of the world economy (e.g. Australia) or the larger (less dense) the country is in surface, the smaller is its market potential.

We have ranked all our 51 and all our 18 countries according to “closeness” to world markets, using the average of our market potential measure. In the upper part of Table 8 we have split the 51 countries in three equal groups of 17 that are either close, moderately close and far from the world markets. For each of the groups we run the proposed fixed effect regression. We obtain results that are strikingly different across groups. The further groups exemplify the same pattern that rejected the theory in Table 7 when we ran the regression for the total group of 51. For the closer 17 countries, however, we find support for the hypothesis of complete specialization. An increase in a country’s output (i.e. the world output of the its export good) leads to a drop in a country’s terms of trade, whereas an increase in the output of (the import goods of) the rest of the world has exactly the opposite effect. In addition, an increase in the relative demand for the goods of other countries leads as expected to a drop in our terms of trade. Note that the first two signs are maintained when we use population, yet significance on the relative population variable is lost, which is probably a function of the limited variation in the population variable. As can be seen in Table 9, a similar pattern emerges for the incomplete specialization case. The nine closer countries provide some support for the Bhagwati-Johnson hypothesis. For these countries we are not able to reject the model of incomplete specialization. An increase in the world supply of a country’s output good compared to the world supply of the import good tends to worsen the terms of trade. If one separates the export and import goods, one notices that the impact of the import good is of the right sign, yet not significant. The countries that are further removed, as before, clearly reject the predictions.

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<sup>23</sup> Hanson (1998) operationalized market potential in a study of the US. Redding (2001) subsequently



It is not inconceivable that it takes some time for prices to adjust. As in Harrigan (1997) we therefore introduce the lagged dependent variable. To avoid any inconsistent and downward biased estimates of the coefficient on the lagged, as noted in Hsiao (1986), we use the two-period lag of the dependent variable to instrument for the lagged dependent variable. Note that the sign pattern is remarkably robust. Including the lagged dependent variable in the regressions for the close economies for either of the two theories, we see in the lower part of Table 8 and 9 that the signs of the output variables do not change. (When separating export from import good in the diversified economy, neither of the coefficients is significant at the 90 percent level.) Note that in virtually all other cases (not reported) the only significant variable is the lag of the terms of trade variable.

As noted, an alternative explanation for what drives the terms of trade is provided by Krugman (1989): When output expansion results in the production of more varieties, there need not be any adverse effect on the terms of trade. Hummels and Klenow, 2001, explore this idea by constructing measures of extensive and intensive output increase and by relating these measures to the predictions of various models. They note that the Armington model only captures the idea of "more of the same" and does not take into account the existence of new varieties. The question arises, whether we can relate the failure of the model predictions to the extent to which there is intra-industry trade. (We implicitly assume that there has to be sufficient mass of intra-industry trade, if new goods are thought to play a critical role in determining the terms of trade of a country.)<sup>24</sup> We split the sample in three equal groups after having ranked countries according to their Grubel Lloyd index (GL). In doing so, we implicitly assume that a higher GL (more intra-industry trade) also makes it more likely that new goods determine terms of trade. The results that we obtain are mixed. As predicted by Krugman, for the high GL countries, there is no significant impact of a country's output on the terms of trade. For the very low

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applied it to explain cross-country differences in per capita GDP.

<sup>24</sup> We also assume that  $X^A$  is a reasonable proxy for the aggregate of the total output of varieties that are being produced in the imperfect competition model that Krugman (1980) develops.

GL countries, with hardly any intra-industry trade, however, we obtain a similar result. No significant impact of a country's output on the terms of trade.

One could argue that the poor overall results that we obtain are probably due to missing variables. It could be argued that preferences between goods may have changed in the almost twenty years that we study, which would contradict our assumption that the  $\mathbf{b}$ 's of the CES utility function stay the same.<sup>25</sup> We introduce an Engel-curve type relation as we link each good, and hence each  $\mathbf{b}_z$ , to per capita GDP in the world,  $\mathbf{b}_{zt} = (Y_{wt}/L_{wt})^{fz}$ . The latter adds another term,  $\mathbf{q}_{4i} (Y_{wt}/L_{wt})$ , with a country-specific coefficient to the regression.<sup>26</sup> As can be seen from Table 11 the fixed effect regressions with the extra term for changing preferences yield coefficients on the world supply of the export and the world supply of the import goods that have the right (but insignificant) sign. (We do not report the 18 country specific coefficient on world per capita income.) When we break down the sample according to closeness, we get the same sign pattern as before. There is support for the imperfect specialization world among the closer countries and not among the ones that are further off. (Again, the impact of the world output of the export good is significant, whereas the one of the import good is not.)

Note that one could also let the preferences of the complete specialization case change over time. For example one can explicitly relate the amount that countries spend on country  $i$ 's product to  $i$ 's productivity that is approximated by (predicted) output per unit of labor, i.e.  $\mathbf{b}_{it} = \mathbf{g}(X_{it}/L_{it})$ . A possible interpretation would be that higher productivity signals higher quality of goods and therefore it might also triggers higher demand. Since the first term of equation (6) is for each country a different combination of  $\mathbf{b}$ 's, it can be rewritten as a country-specific constant and  $\mathbf{J}_4 [\mathbf{P}_k(X_{kt}/L_{kt})^{qM} / (X_{it}/L_{it})]$ . Introducing this term does not significantly alter the result as can be seen in Table 8.

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<sup>25</sup> Feenstra (1994) shows how changing preferences in a CES setting capture also changing quality or changing varieties.

<sup>26</sup> Deardorff (2001) puts structure on the  $\mathbf{b}_i$ 's in a similar fashion. Note that the results are similar if one were to use the each country's per capita income, proxied for by (predicted) output over population.

Concerns could also arise with respect to the production side. The imperfect specialization regression only contains the world supply of a country's export goods and the world supply of country's import goods and in no way controls for what happens to a country's output or how a country's size might change with respect to the other countries. To address this issue, we introduce the ratio of a country's own output to that of the rest of the world, weighted by import shares -- this is exactly for our 18 countries the variable that is used in the complete specialization case. (We take the predicted value of country's output based on the output regression of the previous case.) The attractive part about introducing this variable is that it helps nest, to a certain extent, the imperfect and perfect specialization case. If the world were for close countries truly a diversified economy, a country's size or the extent of its expansion with respect to the rest of the world should not matter, so the coefficient should be zero. Alternatively, to the extent that the world would be completely specialized, the output of the export and import good should be insignificant.

As the estimation results in the bottom part of Table 9 (regression 3) illustrate, however, the relative size of a country and how it changes does matter in the regression. The coefficient on the ratio of the relative supply of a country's export and import goods is not significant at the 95 percent level, whereas the relative size variable is and has the sign that is consistent with the perfect specialization model. (If one enters the world export and import goods variables separately, the signs are even reversed.)

One may wonder what it exactly implies that distance affects whether or not prices respond in the way predicted by the theory. It could be, for example, that countries can differentiate their export price and charge further countries prices that differ from the ones predicted by the perfect competition models. Note that is hard to confirm this conjecture in our analysis, especially when we use a terms of trade measure that is based on export prices. (This measure assumes that all countries are charged the same price.) A possible scenario in this particular instance is that countries can charge a different price in

the domestic vs. in the foreign market. Our results would then suggest that the closer countries differentiate between the domestic and the foreign market to a lesser extent, so that the predictions of perfect competition models about the relation between total (i.e. for export and domestic consumption) production and the export and import prices are better borne out by the data.

Finally, we investigate the estimation results by varying the measure that we used for the terms of trade. As illustrated in Table 12, the estimates for the complete specialization case do not change as we use the overall terms of trade measure from the World Tables that includes trade with all countries of the world instead of our terms of trade for 51 countries. Also changing the year of fixed real import shares weights does not significantly affect the outcome. Note, however, that when we use fixed real import shares of 1985 to construct the output measures for the 14 countries for which these change the least, we cannot confirm the previous results for the imperfect specialization case. (We drop Japan, Korea, Greece and Spain.)<sup>27</sup> This suggests that either the effects from the world supply of the import and export goods in the incomplete specialization case are not that strong or that they are fairly sensitive to the changing shares that are used.

There may be an additional concern about the data. The prices from the World Tables are expressed as dollar unit values. It is well known that purchasing power parity does not hold at every moment in time -- prices of goods differ when expressed in the same currency. Engel and Rogers' analysis suggests that exchange rate movements combined with price stickiness are a potential cause for the deviations from the law of one price. In what follows, we propose to correct the terms of trade for deviations from PPP. (In the data section we discussed the correction procedure.)

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<sup>27</sup> As noted before, we use two criteria to measure the change in the trade shares: the rough correlation between the sectoral net-export position between 1970 and 1988 (esp. low on this score are Spain and Japan with 61 and 65 percent) and the average of the change in the export and the import share between 1970 and 1988 (esp. low on this score are Korea and Greece with 66 and 73 percent).

In the last two columns of Table 7 we present estimates of the complete and the incomplete specialization case in which we have corrected the terms of trade measure for any deviations between a country's exchange rate and its PPP-value. For complete specialization, it turns out that the PPP-correction improves the estimates somewhat. The relative world supply variables now have the right sign -- the market potential measure is insignificant, however. Note that if one breaks the data in the previous three categories of closest, less close and furthest, we also notice an improvement for the furthest group -- no change occurs for the middle group. (The relative demand variables still have the wrong sign.) This evidence suggests that the deviations from PPP may well be one of the reasons why the terms of trade, as we observe them, do not follow the pattern as predicted by the complete specialization model. For the imperfect specialization case, PPP-corrections improve the support for the theory somewhat in that it tends to improve the significance (with right signs) among the closer countries.

## **Conclusion**

In the present paper we have taken a global approach in which we relate the terms of trade as an index of world prices to changes in the relative demand for and supply of a country's export and import goods. We have related the discussion of the terms of trade movements to the debate of the international distribution of production, since output expansion due to factor accumulation or technological change has very different effects in a diversified world economy compared to a world in which countries produce different goods. In the latter case, an expansion should worsen a country's terms of trade. In a diversified economy, as pointed by Bhagwati-Johnson, the terms of trade movements ultimately depend on the export or import bias of the changing world supply.

The empirical evidence that we present suggests that neither of the two approaches provides an accurate description of actual terms of trade movements. We explore possible explanations for this failure as we explore alternative hypotheses. We find that the

closeness to the world markets is critical for both theories. We do find empirical support for both theories among those countries that are closest and whose markets are probably most closely integrated. This results relates to Engel and Rogers' (1996) hypotheses that distance and borders are critical for the presence or absence of market integration/segmentation and the violation of the law of one price. In other words, both theories highlight a particular aspect of terms of trade movements for close economies. Indeed, an individual country expansion has a negative impact on its terms of trade. However, the sectoral composition of the world economy and how it changes (biased towards a country's export or import goods) also determines a country's terms of trade. The latter provides some support for the celebrated Bhagwati-Johnson hypothesis.

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Figure 1

Overall vs Manufacturing Terms of Trade

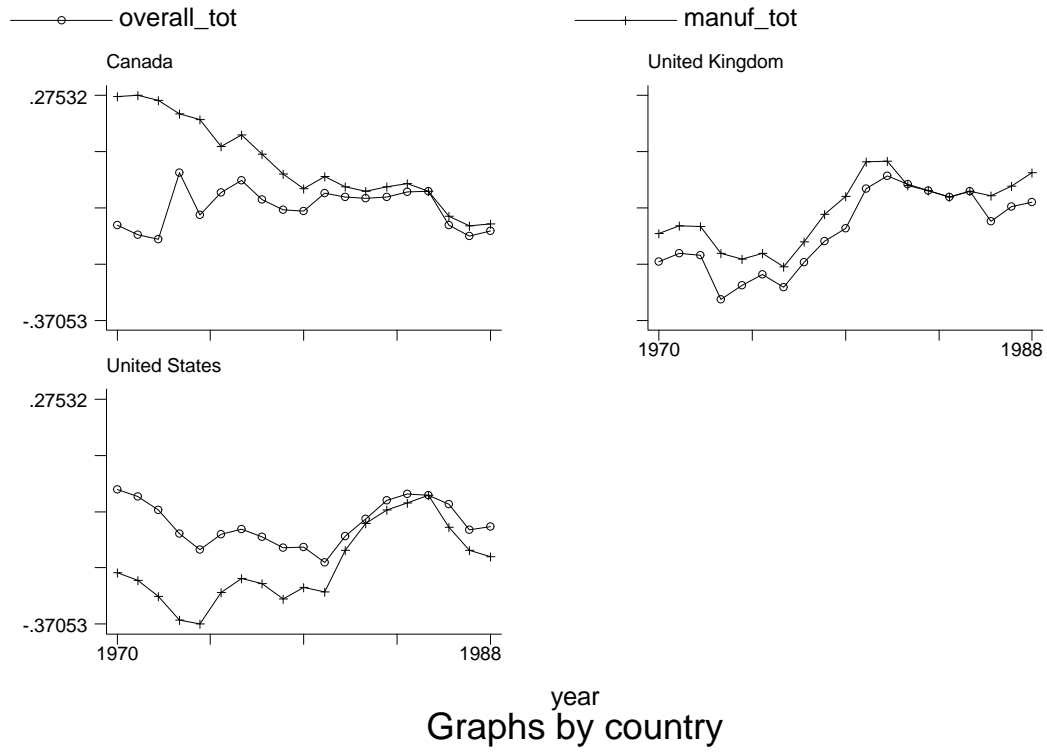
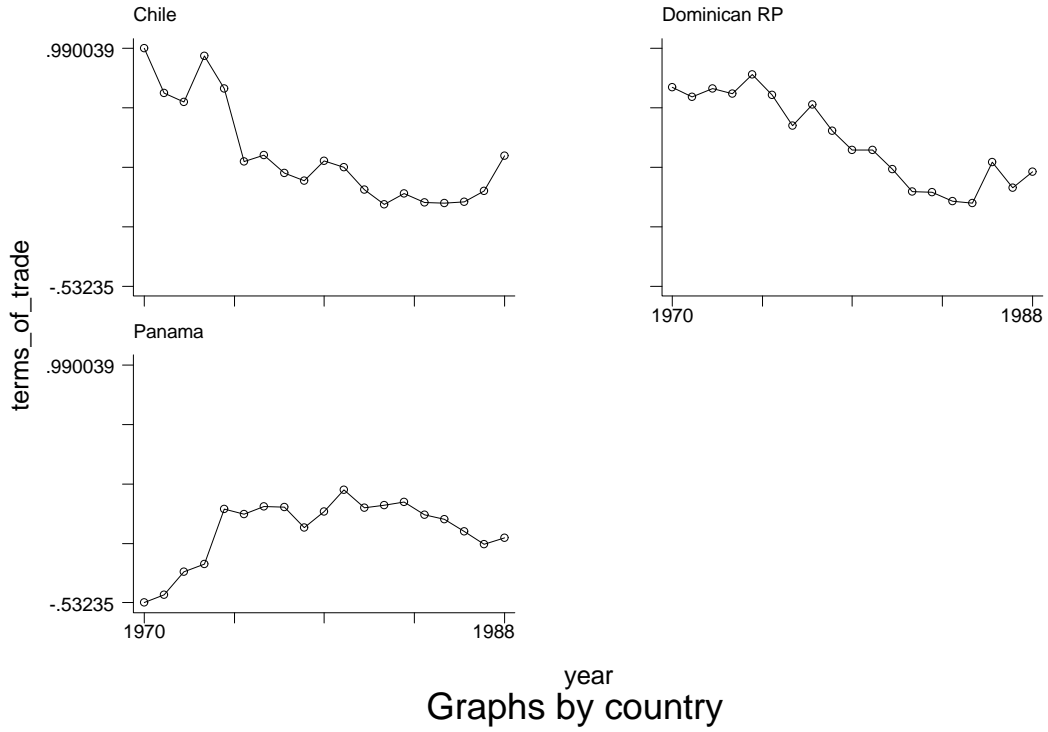


Figure 2  
Terms of Trade



**Table 1**  
**Endowment and Production Data: Complete Specialization**

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<i>Years:</i>	1970 - 1988
<i>Countries:</i>	Argentina, Australia, Austria, Belgium, Bolivia, Canada, Chile, Colombia, Denmark, Dominican RP, Ecuador, Finland, France, Germany, Greece, Guatemala, Honduras, Hong Kong, Iceland, India, Ireland, Israel, Italy, Jamaica, Japan, Kenya, Korea RP, Malawi, Mauritius, Mexico, Nepal, Netherlands, New Zealand, Norway, Panama, Paraguay, Peru, Philippines, Portugal, Sierra Leone, Spain, Sri Lanka, Sweden, Switzerland, Thailand, Turkey, United Kingdom, USA, Venezuela, Zambia, Zimbabwe (51 countries)
<i>Real GDP:</i>	Real GDP: Penn-World Tables 5.6 (PWT 5.6)
<i>Capital:</i>	PWT 5.6 Sum of (1) durable goods capital, and (2) nonresidential construction capital
<i>Labor :</i>	PWT 5.6 Total Population
<i>Human Capital:</i>	Barro and Lee (1993) Ratio of population with at least secondary education over population with at most primary education.
<i>Distance:</i>	Bilateral distance between capital cities ( kilometers), from Jon Haveman's website ( <a href="http://www.macalester.edu/research/economics/PAGE/HAVEMAN">http://www.macalester.edu/research/economics/PAGE/HAVEMAN</a> )
<i>Internal Distance:</i>	CIA, The World Factbook 2001 ( <a href="http://www.cia.gov/cia/publications/factbook/index.html">www.cia.gov/cia/publications/factbook/index.html</a> )

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**Table 2**  
**Endowment and Production Data: Incomplete Specialization**

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<i>Years:</i>	1970 - 1988	
<i>OECD countries:</i>	Australia, Austria, Canada, Denmark, Finland, France, Germany, Greece, Italy, Japan, Korea RP, Netherlands, Norway, Portugal, Spain, Sweden, United Kingdom, USA	
<i>Production:</i>	Gross industry output, three-digit ISIC Revision 2 from OECD STAN. ISIC 353, Petroleum Refineries, ISIC 354, Petroleum & Coal Products, and ISIC 390, Other Manufacturing, are excluded.	
<i>Food</i>	311/2	Food
	313	Beverages
	314	Tobacco
<i>Apparel</i>	321	Textiles
	322	Wearing Apparel
	323	Leather & Products
	324	Footwear
<i>Products of Wood</i>	331	Wood Products
	332	Furnitures & Fixtures
<i>Paper</i>	341	Paper & Products
	342	Printing & Publishing
<i>Chemicals</i>	351	Industrial Chemicals
	352	Other Chemicals
	355	Rubber Products
	356	Plastic Products, nec
<i>Glass</i>	361	Pottery, China etc
	362	Glass & Products
	369	Non-Metallic Products, nec
<i>Metals</i>	371	Iron & Steel
	372	Non-Ferrous Metals
<i>Machinery</i>	381	Metal Products
	382	Non-Electrical Machinery
	383	Electrical Machinery
	384	Transport Equipment
	385	Professional Goods
<i>Real GDP:</i>	Real GDP: Penn-World Tables 5.6 (PWT 5.6)	
<i>Capital:</i>	PWT 5.6 (1) Capital 1: Durable goods capital (2) Capital 2: Nonresidential construction capital	
<i>Labor :</i>	PWT 5.6 / Barro and Lee (1993) (1) Labor 1: No Schooling + Primary School Attained (2) Labor 2: Primary School Complete + Secondary School Attained (3) Labor 3: Secondary School Complete + Higher School Attained (4) Labor 4: Higher School Complete The educational classification for 1970, 1975, 1980, 1985, and 1990 comes from Barro and Lee (1993), intervening years are interpolated. The population data are from PWT 5.6	
<i>Land:</i>	Arable land from Food and Agriculture Organization of the United Nations ( <a href="http://www.fao.org">http://www.fao.org</a> )	

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**Table 3**  
**Endowment-driven output model, Estimates of equation (14)**  
(Heteroskedasticity correction and AR1)

	coeff	t-stat	coeff	t-stat	coeff	t-stat	coeff	t-stat
	<i>Food 311/2</i>		<i>Beverages 313</i>		<i>Tobacco 314</i>		<i>Textiles 321</i>	
Capital 1	1.4	0.04	9.2	1.6	-16.5	-2.7	-25.9	-1.5
Capital 2	48	1.6	6.1	1.1	15.8	2.7	25.2	1.6
Labor 1	25856	0.9	3173	0.7	5679	1	21646	1.5
Labor 2	-65915	-3	-9832	-2.6	-11564	-2.9	-10625	-0.9
Labor 3	77217	2.7	13792	2.7	18505	2.3	2569	0.2
Labor 4	-182718	-1.8	-39693	-2	-63513	-3.1	-5617	0.174
Land	1300963	5.9	134022	3.5	60315	1.4	441548	3.9
	<i>Wearing Apparel 322</i>		<i>Leather &amp; Products 323</i>		<i>Footwear 324</i>		<i>Wood Products 331</i>	
Capital 1	-23.4	-3.1	-7.5	-3	-4.9	-1.2	-5.1	-0.8
Capital 2	20.6	2.9	6.6	2.8	2.6	0.7	5.9	6.9
Labor 1	3804	0.9	1246	0.6	7201	2	243	0.04
Labor 2	-4262	-0.9	-151	-0.1	-1372	-0.5	-2921	0.7
Labor 3	-1826	-0.3	-1576	-0.7	1011	0.3	-10172	-1.8
Labor 4	16712	0.6	2849	0.3	-8295	-0.6	35596	1.8
Land	276183	5.5	40749	2.4	24086	0.9	371715	8.5
	<i>Furniture &amp; Fixtures 332</i>		<i>Paper &amp; Products 341</i>		<i>Printing &amp; Publishing 342</i>		<i>Industrial Chemicals 351</i>	
Capital 1	-6.4	-1.6	-24	-2.9	28	3.5	-26	-1.8
Capital 2	8.62	2.3	39	5.3	-10	-1.4	51	3.8
Labor 1	88501	2.5	2471	0.4	-2377	-0.3	-4565	-0.3
Labor 2	-5432	-2.1	-10904	-2.1	-4353	-0.8	-19434	-2.1
Labor 3	41962	1.2	1320	0.18	-50556	0.7	7976	0.6
Labor 4	-9136	-0.7	17309	0.6	18022	0.7	24810	0.5
Land	270001	9.9	382819	6.6	330326	6.1	595453	5.7
	<i>Other Chemicals 352</i>		<i>Rubber Products 355</i>		<i>Plastic Products, nec 356</i>		<i>Pottery, China etc 361</i>	
Capital 1	12.1	1.2	-8.5	-2.6	17	3.1	0.7	-0.4
Capital 2	15	1.5	11.3	3.8	4.2	0.9	24.5	1.6
Labor 1	7010	0.8	-4073	1.4	4341	0.9	10401	0.7
Labor 2	-5200	-0.8	-329	-0.2	-5668	-1.7	-10337	-0.9
Labor 3	-11219	-1.2	-8317	-2.8	-4606	-0.9	8132	0.5
Labor 4	558827	1.6	183298	1.8	298925	1.7	-27220	-0.5
Land	380639	5.1	156158	6.7	328087	8.2	772786	6.7
	<i>Glass &amp; Products 362</i>		<i>Non-Metallic Products 369</i>		<i>Iron &amp; Steel 371</i>		<i>Non-Ferrous Metals 372</i>	
Capital 1	-0.1	-0.05	-2.1	-0.3	-44	-1.4	-121	-1.7
Capital 2	4.5	2.9	12.6	1.9	46	1.4	26	3.4
Labor 1	-103	-0.7	-935	-1.6	-3064	-1	-1143	-1.3
Labor 2	131	0.9	1010	1.8	3590	1.2	1327	1.6
Labor 3	-109	0.6	-147	-2	-1488	-1.2	374	0.3
Labor 4	-354	-0.5	-5232	-1.9	-18452	-1.3	-5361	-1.3
Land	503	1.4	2075	1.4	-1511	-0.2	-859	-0.4

Table 3 Continued

			coeff		t-stat		coeff		t-stat		coeff		t-stat	
	<i>Metal Products 381</i>		<i>Non-Electrical Machinery 382</i>		<i>Electrical Machinery 383</i>		<i>Transport Equipment 384</i>							
Capital 1	33	2.1	120	3.8	135	3.9	30	0.8						
Capital 2	11.5	0.7	5.9	0.2	39.2	1.1	111	3.1						
Labor 1	-748	-0.4	-896	-0.3	-567	-0.7	-1667	0.4						
Labor 2	299	0.2	-411	-0.12	-252	-0.8	2693	0.7						
Labor 3	206	6.1	243	0.1	-1296	-0.4	-57	-0.01						
Labor 4	-3306	0.4	-4373	-0.3	-1238	-0.1	-0.27122	-1.5						
Land	2445	0.6	8851	1.1	6033	0.7	15909	-1.6						
	<i>Professional Goods 385</i>													
Capital 1	75.8	13												
Capital 2	-36	-6.4												
Labor 1	538	0.5												
Labor 2	-1134	-1.1												
Labor 3	727	0.6												
Labor 4	-361	-0.1												
Land	-861	0.6												

## Note:

- (1) Capital 1: Durable goods capital, PWT 5.6
- (2) Capital 2: Nonresidential construction capital, PWT 5.6
- (3) Labor 1: No Schooling + Primary School Attained, PWT 5.6 / Barro and Lee (1993)
- (4) Labor 2: Primary School Complete + Secondary School Attained, PWT 5.6 / Barro and Lee(1993)
- (5) Labor 3: Secondary School Complete + Higher School Attained, PWT 5.6 / Barro and Lee(1993)
- (6) Labor 4: Higher School Complete, PWT 5.6 / Barro and Lee (1993)
- (7) Land: Arable land, FAO

**Table 4**  
**Industry share in Total Manufacturing Exports and Imports, 1985**

		Food	Apparel	Wood	Paper	Chemicals	Glass	Metals	Machinery
Australia	Exp	0.371	0.086	0.019	0.011	0.050	0.004	0.342	0.116
	Imp	0.050	0.089	0.025	0.052	0.152	0.021	0.025	0.584
Austria	Exp	0.037	0.109	0.048	0.076	0.137	0.040	0.123	0.431
	Imp	0.054	0.122	0.030	0.049	0.174	0.023	0.069	0.479
Canada	Exp	0.054	0.010	0.071	0.124	0.085	0.007	0.075	0.573
	Imp	0.041	0.051	0.010	0.030	0.098	0.014	0.040	0.717
Denmark	Exp	0.314	0.067	0.057	0.025	0.132	0.015	0.027	0.363
	Imp	0.111	0.096	0.038	0.056	0.182	0.017	0.081	0.419
Finland	Exp	0.030	0.070	0.084	0.326	0.081	0.010	0.083	0.317
	Imp	0.050	0.096	0.015	0.024	0.193	0.018	0.079	0.525
France	Exp	0.119	0.072	0.012	0.029	0.208	0.024	0.087	0.450
	Imp	0.111	0.101	0.025	0.049	0.190	0.021	0.082	0.422
Germany	Exp	0.053	0.055	0.014	0.029	0.184	0.018	0.077	0.570
	Imp	0.104	0.138	0.024	0.044	0.176	0.019	0.094	0.401
Greece	Exp	0.242	0.370	0.005	0.012	0.079	0.069	0.153	0.071
	Imp	0.164	0.120	0.014	0.037	0.160	0.016	0.080	0.408
Italy	Exp	0.063	0.211	0.032	0.020	0.143	0.041	0.062	0.429
	Imp	0.160	0.093	0.019	0.035	0.195	0.015	0.084	0.399
Japan	Exp	0.008	0.032	0.001	0.008	0.086	0.013	0.087	0.765
	Imp	0.189	0.127	0.045	0.036	0.190	0.011	0.122	0.281
Korea*	Exp	0.012	0.066	0.003	0.010	0.101	0.014	0.203	0.591
	Imp	0.262	0.109	0.057	0.039	0.139	0.009	0.099	0.286
Netherlands	Exp	0.233	0.055	0.010	0.034	0.285	0.012	0.062	0.308
	Imp	0.130	0.099	0.030	0.048	0.193	0.019	0.064	0.416
Norway	Exp	0.112	0.019	0.016	0.094	0.143	0.007	0.249	0.361
	Imp	0.041	0.105	0.043	0.038	0.117	0.020	0.099	0.538
Portugal	Exp	0.096	0.384	0.068	0.076	0.089	0.034	0.031	0.221
	Imp	0.098	0.136	0.004	0.027	0.219	0.012	0.094	0.410
Spain	Exp	0.109	0.113	0.020	0.038	0.145	0.038	0.149	0.388
	Imp	0.100	0.047	0.018	0.038	0.207	0.016	0.068	0.506
Sweden	Exp	0.024	0.028	0.067	0.154	0.090	0.012	0.091	0.534
	Imp	0.060	0.101	0.019	0.027	0.173	0.019	0.078	0.523
U.K	Exp	0.076	0.059	0.007	0.028	0.213	0.017	0.059	0.540
	Imp	0.115	0.091	0.032	0.055	0.149	0.013	0.061	0.484
USA	Exp	0.078	0.031	0.011	0.032	0.155	0.009	0.021	0.662
	Imp	0.061	0.105	0.033	0.033	0.095	0.017	0.070	0.586

Note: Each cell gives an industry's share in a country's total manufacturing exports and imports in 1985.

Source: OECD STAN database

\* In the case of Korea, shares computed from Feenstra et al. (1997)





**Table 5A**  
**Bilateral shares of total manufacturing imports**

	Aus.	Austria	Canada	Den.	Finland	France	Ger.	Greece	Italy	Japan	Korea	Neth.	Norway	Por.	Spain	Swe.	U.K	USA	
Australia		0.0009	0.0041	0.0059	0.0044	0.0072	0.006	0.0065	0.0108	0.1326	0.0538	0.0051	0.0047	0.0109	0.0026	0.009	0.0106	0.0094	
Austria	0.0046		0.0021	0.0132	0.0179	0.01	0.0498	0.0167	0.0316	0.0037	0.0026	0.0093	0.0128	0.0103	0.0142	0.0121	0.0102	0.0037	
Canada	0.0295	0.0052		0.0044	0.0107	0.0098	0.0112	0.0046	0.0096	0.0934	0.0338	0.0093	0.0201	0.0125	0.0071	0.0068	0.0252	0.3204	
Denmark	0.0061	0.0086	0.0025		0.0403	0.0107	0.0263	0.0178	0.015	0.0108	0.004	0.0142	0.0806	0.0098	0.0856	0.0092	0.0279	0.0079	
Finland	0.0081	0.0069	0.0022	0.0392		0.008	0.0128	0.01	0.0062	0.0042	0.0035	0.0102	0.0428	0.0084	0.0772	0.007	0.0199	0.004	
France	0.0291	0.0506	0.0154	0.0569	0.0541		0.1478	0.1076	0.2267	0.0253	0.0279	0.1079	0.0452	0.1409	0.0642	0.1905	0.1102	0.04	
Germany	0.0909	0.5956	0.028	0.2727	0.2342	0.2947		0.2744	0.301	0.0571	0.0446	0.3483	0.1802	0.1915	0.2194	0.2044	0.211	0.0871	
Greece	0.0017	0.004	0.0005	0.0023	0.0023	0.0056	0.0092		0.0112	0.001	0.0009	0.0037	0.0011	0.001	0.0017	0.0025	0.0042	0.0017	
Italy	0.0432	0.1163	0.0142	0.0454	0.0531	0.1583	0.1273	0.1847		0.02	0.0126	0.0518	0.0378	0.0889	0.0402	0.0865	0.0728	0.0445	
Japan	0.3067	0.0404	0.0659	0.0485	0.0745	0.0386	0.0668	0.0925	0.0278		0.4089	0.036	0.0616	0.0432	0.0552	0.0566	0.0639	0.3073	
Korea	0.0223	0.0052	0.0181	0.0047	0.0048	0.0055	0.01	0.033	0.0041	0.094		0.0071	0.0363	0.0029	0.0095	0.0045	0.0117	0.0503	
Netherlands	0.0177	0.0428	0.0063	0.0711	0.0519	0.0987	0.2003	0.0925	0.0902	0.0087	0.0117		0.0459	0.0592	0.054	0.0449	0.1034	0.0183	
Norway	0.0031	0.0094	0.0011	0.0564	0.0394	0.0188	0.034	0.0041	0.0052	0.0057	0.0096	0.0236		0.0135	0.0751	0.008	0.0744	0.0046	
Portugal	0.0013	0.0052	0.0009	0.0081	0.0103	0.0104	0.0081	0.002	0.0051	0.001	0.0009	0.0078	0.0083		0.0098	0.0141	0.0108	0.0024	
Spain	0.0059	0.0079	0.0036	0.0119	0.0138	0.0565	0.0246	0.0194	0.0353	0.0067	0.0026	0.0252	0.0108	0.1103		0.0237	0.0284	0.0114	
Sweden	0.0248	0.0253	0.0075	0.1681	0.1978	0.0227	0.0359	0.017	0.0218	0.0085	0.0106	0.0311	0.2217	0.0233	0.0129		0.0402	0.0166	
U.K	0.1021	0.035	0.0337	0.1225	0.1178	0.1419	0.1321	0.0661	0.0961	0.0283	0.0305	0.1776	0.1198	0.1286	0.1803	0.134		0.0704	
USA	0.303	0.0406	0.7939	0.0687	0.0726	0.1028	0.0978	0.0512	0.1021	0.4989	0.3415	0.1318	0.0704	0.145	0.0909	0.1865	0.1751		
Total	1	1	1	1	1	1	1	1	1	1	1	1	1	1	1	1	1	1	1

Note: Year 1985; source: Feenstra et al. (1997)





**Table 6A**  
**Bilateral Distance between capital cities (kilometers)**

	Aus.	Aut.	Can.	Den.	Fin.	Fra.	Ger.	Gre.	Italy	Jap.	Kor.	Neth.	Nor.	Por.	Spa.	Swe.	UK	US
Australia		15936	16123	16057	15233	16943	16557	15224	16239	7966	8430	16648	15998	18074	17593	15632	17004	15958
Austria			6574	871	1442	1036	727	1284	765	9140	8284	935	1354	2300	1810	1244	1236	7130
Canada				5913	6278	5652	5857	7753	6735	10327	10521	5639	5604	5392	5698	5999	5367	734
Denmark					885	1028	660	2138	1533	8700	7948	622	485	2480	2075	522	957	6518
Finland						1912	1532	2471	2205	7826	7063	1505	789	3365	2953	399	1824	6938
France							400	2100	1108	9723	8975	428	1343	1454	1055	1544	341	6169
Germany								1932	1066	9357	8590	235	1048	1845	1421	1182	511	6406
Greece									1053	9518	8525	2164	2609	2854	2370	2411	2393	8261
Italy										9867	8977	1295	2009	1863	1363	1978	1434	7222
Japan											1158	9300	8414	11155	10775	8180	9570	10910
Korea												8566	7724	10428	10006	7440	8867	11174
Netherlands													916	1864	1483	1126	359	6198
Norway														2741	2392	416	1156	6238
Portugal															504	2990	1586	5742
Spain																2595	1433	6641
Sweden																	1265	6096
U.K																		5904
USA																		

Source: Jon Haveman's website







**Table 6C**  
**Internal Distance**

Country name	Internal Distance	Country name	Internal Distance
ARGENTINA	938	KOREA RP	177
AUSTRALIA	1564	MALAWI	194
AUSTRIA	163	MAURITIUS	24
BELGIUM-LUX.	99	MEXICO	792
BOLIVIA	591	NEPAL	212
CANADA	1782	NETHERLANDS	115
CHILE	491	NEW ZEALAND	292
COLOMBIA	602	NORWAY	321
DENMARK	117	PANAMA	158
DOMINICAN RP	125	PARAGUAY	360
ECUADOR	300	PERU	640
FINLAND	328	PHILIPPINES	309
FRANCE	417	PORTUGAL	171
GERMANY	337	SIERRA LEONE	151
GREECE	205	SPAIN	401
GUATEMALA	186	SRI LANKA	145
HONDURAS	189	SWEDEN	378
HONG KONG	19	SWITZERLAND	115
ICELAND	181	THAILAND	404
INDIA	1023	TURKEY	498
IRELAND	150	UNITED KINGDOM	279
ISRAEL	81	USA	1751
ITALY	310	VENEZUELA	539
JAMAICA	59	ZAMBIA	489
JAPAN	347	ZIMBABWE	112
KENYA	431		

Source: CIA, The World Factbook 2001



**Table 7**  
**Fixed effect regressions for Complete and Incomplete Specialization**

A. Complete Specialization (equation 7)

	Dependent variable: Terms of Trade		Dependent variable: Terms of Trade, PPP adjusted	
	(1)	(2)	(3)	(4)
Output of Export vs Import goods	0.16 (0.9)		-1.55 (-3)	
World Output of Export good		0.37 (2)		-1.51 (-3.2)
World Output of Import goods		-0.57 (-2.9)		1.47 (2.8)
Relative Market Potential	2.5 (3.9)	1.8 (2.8)	1.7 (1.1)	1.5 (0.96)
within R2	0.03	0.04	0.05	0.05
Observations	969	969	969	969

B. Incomplete Specialization (equation 12 and 13)

	Dependent variable: Terms of Trade		Dependent variable: Terms of Trade, PPP adjusted	
	(1)	(2)	(3)	(4)
Output of Export vs Import goods	0.03 (0.4)		-0.09 (-0.9)	
World Output of Export goods		0.02 (0.3)		-0.11 (-1.2)
World Output of Import goods		-0.1 (-1.4)		0.08 (-6.8)
within R2	0.001	0.02	0.01	0.06
Observations	342	342	342	342

Note: t-statistics in parentheses.

**Table 8**  
**Fixed effect regressions for Complete Specialization**  
**(for subsamples with varying distance to world market)**

	Dependent variable: Terms of Trade			Dependent variable: Terms of Trade, PPP adjusted		
	Closest	Medium	Furthest	Closest	Medium	Furthest
World Output of Export good	-1.67 (-8.1)	1.16 (2.6)	0.52 (1.7)	-1.53 (-6.8)	1.3 (3.5)	-2.4 (-1.9)
World Output of Import goods	1.53 (7.1)	-1.21 (-2.6)	-1.14 (-3.8)	1.26 (4.8)	-1.7 (-4.3)	3.9 (3.1)
Relative Market Potential	-1.3 (-2.8)	3.2 (1.7)	-0.06 (-0.03)	0.28 (0.5)	7.5 (4.7)	15.5 (2.2)
within R2	0.33	0.02	0.14	0.42	0.22	0.07
Observations	323	323	323	323	323	323

Notes:

(1) Data set is classified into three categories according to closeness, measured by relative market potential.

(2) t-statistics in parentheses.

**In the case of closest countries:**

	Dep. variable: Terms of Trade	
	(1)	(2)
World Output of Export good	-0.95 (-4.5)	-1.64 (-8.13)
World Output of Import goods	0.87 (3.9)	1.51 (7)
Relative Market Potential	-0.98 (-2.2)	-0.67 (-1.3)
Lagged terms of trade	0.49 (9.6)	
Relative per Capita Income		-0.19 (-3.07)
within R2	0.52	0.35
Observations	306	323

Notes: t-statistics in parentheses

**Table 9**  
**Fixed effect regressions for Incomplete Specialization**  
**(for subsamples with varying distance to world market)**

	Dependent variable: Terms of Trade				Dependent variable: TOT, PPP adjusted			
	Closest		Furthest		Closest		Furthest	
	(1)	(2)	(3)	(4)	(5)	(6)	(7)	(8)
Output of Export vs Import goods	-0.29 (-2.7)		0.19 (2)		-0.63 (-4.6)		0.2 (1.5)	
World Output of Export goods		-0.16 (-1.8)		0.19 (2)		-0.62 (-4.3)		0.1 (0.1)
World Output of Import goods		0.04 (0.4)		-0.18 (-1.9)		0.61 (3.6)		-0.3 (-2.4)
within R2	0.04	0.09	0.02	0.02	0.12	0.11	0.006	0.11
Observations	171	171	171	171	171	171	171	171

Notes:

- (1) Data set is classified into two categories according to closeness, measured by relative market potential.  
(2) t-statistics in parentheses.

**In the case of closest countries:**

	Dependent variable: Terms of Trade			
	(1)	(2)	(3)	(4)
Output of Export vs Import goods	-0.16 (2)		-0.16 (-1.1)	
World Output of Export goods		-0.14 (-1.6)		0.13 (1)
World Output of Import Goods		0.07 (0.7)		-0.27 (-1.9)
Lagged terms of trade	0.56 (8.2)	0.53 (7.2)		
Own Output vs Rest of World			-0.81 (-2.1)	-0.84 (-3.2)
within R2	0.36	0.37	0.16	0.16
Observations	153	153	171	171

Notes: t-statistics in parentheses

**Table 10**  
**Fixed effect regressions for Complete Specialization**  
**(for subsamples with varying Grubel-Lloyd index)**

	Dependent variable: Terms of Trade		
	High GL	Medium GL	Low GL
World Output of Export good	0.12 (0.4)	2.5 (6.2)	-0.06 (-0.2)
World Output of Import goods	-0.16 (-0.6)	-2.9 (-6.5)	-0.4 (-1.4)
Relative Market Potential	1.8 (2.6)	2.4 (2.0)	0.37 (0.4)
within R2	0.04	0.11	0.25
Observations	323	323	323

Notes: t-statistics in parentheses

**Table 11**  
**Regression for Incomplete Specialization**  
**with country-specific coefficient on world per capita income\***

	Dependent variable: Terms of Trade		Dependent variable: Terms of Trade, PPP adjusted	
	(1)	(2)	(3)	(4)
Output of Export vs Import goods		0.009 (0.15)		-0.14 (-1.4)
World Output of Export goods	0.004 (0.07)		-0.16 (-1.6)	
World Output of Import goods	-0.09 (-1.3)		-0.06 (-0.5)	
within R2	0.43	0.42	0.3	0.29
Observations	342	342	342	342

Notes: (1) \* We do not report the 50 coefficients on world per capita income  
(2) t-statistics in parentheses.

**For Closest and Furthest countries:**

	Dependent variable: Terms of Trade				Dependent variable: TOT, PPP adjusted			
	Closest		Furthest		Closest		Furthest	
	(1)	(2)	(3)	(4)	(5)	(6)	(7)	(8)
Output of Export vs Import goods		-0.17 (-1.8)		0.18 (1.9)		-0.67 (-4.5)		0.16 (0.1)
World Output of Export goods	-0.27 (-2.7)		0.17 (1.8)		-0.7 (-4.4)		-0.02 (-0.03)	
World Output of Import goods	-0.14 (-0.9)		-0.18 (-1.9)		0.6 (2.4)		-0.32 (-2.3)	
within R2	0.44	0.42	0.41	0.44	0.37	0.36	0.37	0.28
Observations	171	171	171	171	171	171	171	171

Notes: t-statistics in parentheses

**Table 12**  
**Robustness: Fixed effect regressions**  
**(for subsamples with varying distance to world market)**

A. Complete Specialization

	Dep. variable: Terms of Trade with real value shares of 1975				Dep. variable: Overall Terms of Trade from World Bank			
	all countries	Closest	Medium	Furthest	all countries	Closest	Medium	Furthest
	(1)	(2)	(3)	(4)	(5)	(6)	(7)	(8)
World Output of Export good	0.3 (1.7)	-1.4 (-6.8)	0.94 (2.1)	0.36 (1.3)	0.18 (0.9)	-1.3 (-4.7)	0.78 (1.7)	-0.04 (-0.15)
World Output of Import goods in 1975	-0.55 (-2.8)	1.2 (5.7)	-1 (-2.2)	-0.99 (-3.5)	-0.75 (-3.5)	0.83 (2.8)	-1.2 (-2.5)	-0.88 (-2.7)
Relative Market Potential	1.7 (2.7)	-0.9 (-1.9)	2.4 (1.1)	0.22 (0.1)	1.3 (1.9)	-0.5 (-0.7)	-0.49 (-0.2)	-0.53 (-0.3)
within R2	0.07	0.32	0.02	0.22	0.21	0.43	0.07	0.4
Observations	969	323	323	323	969	323	323	323

B. Incomplete Specialization,

75% of sample, 1985 shares, countries whose trade shares  
change the least between 1970-1988

	Dep. variable: Terms of Trade	
	Closest	Furthest
World Output of Export goods	0.81 (2.9)	-0.2 (-5.7)
World Output of Import goods	-0.6 (-2.6)	2 (-5.5)
within R2	0.07	0.23
Observations	133	133

Notes:

- (1) \*not in sample: Korea, Japan and Spain and Greece.  
(2) t-statistics in parentheses.