

TRADE ORIENTATION MEASUREMENT AND CONSEQUENCES

Holger C. Wolf*

ABSTRACT

New trade theory and endogenous growth models have revived the debate on the static and dynamic implications of trade orientation. Alas, a decade of models has produced more ambiguity than clarity, placing a premium on empirical work. Unfortunately, existing indices of trade orientation invite substantial criticism. In the first part of the paper we construct a new measure, based on the difference between actual trade and the trade levels predicted by a factor endowments model. In the second part, we use the index to examine the link between trade orientation and economic growth.

SÍNTESIS

La nueva teoría de comercio internacional y los modelos de crecimiento endógeno han revitalizado el debate sobre las consecuencias estáticas y dinámicas de la orientación del comercio internacional. Desafortunadamente, una década de modelos han dado lugar a mayor ambigüedad que claridad, lo que privilegia el trabajo empírico. Asimismo, los índices que existen sobre el enfoque, mayor o menor apertura y/o intervención, del comercio internacional concitan una crítica substantiva. En la primera parte de este trabajo, elaboramos una nueva medición, basada en la diferencia entre el comercio internacional real y los niveles de intercambio comercial internacional previstos en términos de un modelo de dotación de recursos. En la segunda parte, utilizamos el índice para examinar el vínculo entre la orientación del comercio internacional y el crecimiento económico.

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TRADE ORIENTATION: MEASUREMENT AND CONSEQUENCES*

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1. INTRODUCTION

Do outwardly oriented countries grow faster? Only half a decade ago, most mainstream economists would have answered in the affirmative. Since then, new trade theory and endogenous growth models have cast doubts on the classical predilection for free trade: temporary protection for industries with unexploited learning by doing potentials may yield permanent growth advantages; strategic subsidies may influence location choices with lock-in effects, liberalization between highly and less developed economies may enhance the growth potential of the richer at the expense of the poorer country *etcetera*.¹

The theoretical ambiguity motivates the continued attention devoted to empirical studies of the trade orientation-growth link. Yet measurement of trade orientation has proved surprisingly difficult: the indicators proposed to date exhibit low if not negative correlations, rendering an objective choice difficult: *"the hope that a reasonably straightforward (...) measure can produce a 'correct' ranking of countries has always been treated skeptically, and, disappointingly, rightly so"* (Pritchett 1991: 33).

In the first part of this paper we construct a new measure of trade orientation for the three years 1975, 1980 and 1985. The approach builds on earlier work:² trade orientation is measured as the deviation of actual trade from a hypothetical non-distorted level, specified here as the predicted value of a (broadly defined) relative factor endowment model. The value of the derived indicator depends critically on the ability of factor endowments to explain trade. Our results suggest that differences in relative endowments are indeed highly significant determinants of trade flows. Of course, lacking an objective measuring gauge, yet another distortion index would provide little value added. To achieve product

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¹ See Feenstra (1990), Grossman and Helpman (1991), Rivera-Batiz and Romer (1991a), Young (1991), *inter alia*.

² See in particular Leamer (1984, 1988).

and whether sizeable changes in the index have been associated with systematic changes in trade performance. In the second part of the paper, we employ the distortion index to examine the link between trade and growth.

2. MEASURING TRADE ORIENTATION

We begin with an overview of the approaches to measuring trade distortion and the existing literature. We then turn to a discussion of the approach used in this paper and a description of the data before presenting the estimation results.

2.1. Approaches to measuring trade distortion

Trade orientation indices fall into three broad groups: trade shares, direct measures of intervention and deviations of trade quantities and prices from some equilibrium level. All three approaches are subject to substantial criticism.³

A first rough estimator of trade orientation is provided by the unadjusted trade share $\frac{X + M}{GNP}$. Since the measure ignores country size and development stage

effects, it is likely to at best present a poor indicator of trade orientation. A variant of this approach hence adjusts for a set of relevant factors by using the residual of a regression of the unadjusted trade intensities on the postulated determinants as distortion estimate (e.g. Chenery and Syrquin (1989)). While an improvement, the measure suffers from the inherently arbitrary choice of controls and the lack of a measuring gauge for assessing whether the residuals truly reflect trade orientation or the orthogonal part of some further excluded determinants.

The second group focuses directly on measures taken to influence trade, including tariff rates, measures of non-tariff barriers, effective rates of protection and coverage ratios. Direct measures suffer from two fundamental problems, mismeasurement and aggregation bias. Actual intervention may bear little relation to published regulations: in the case of Brazil, the import weighted statutory tariff level at 40 percent far exceeds the collected share of 6 percent.⁴ Even if published and implemented measures would coincide, the interpretation of aggregate rates remains difficult: depending on the variability of tariff rates and demand and supply elasticities, equal average tariff rates or coverage ratios may entail starkly different allocative consequences. Furthermore, informal evidence

³ See e.g. Balassa and Balassa (1984), Bhagwati (1979, 1986), Bruton (1989), Corden (1987), Finger and Olechowski (1987), Leamer (1988), Singer (1987), Pritchett (1991).

⁴ World Bank (1990). Pritchett and Sethi (1992) find no evidence for a linear relation between legal and actual barriers in a detailed three country study.

entail starkly different allocative consequences. Furthermore, informal evidence suggests an increasing importance of 'soft', barriers, reducing the information content of explicitly externally oriented measures.

The third group of indices examines trade quantities and prices relative to some 'norm' to back out distortions. Price measures are based on the hypothesis that trade distortion alters prices so that a ranking of price deviations -conditional on structural factors- replicates the ranking of trade distortions (Agarwala (1983), Aitken (1992), Dollar (1992)). The alternative approach attempts to back out information about trade orientation from quantities (Leamer (1984, 1988)). If trade in the absence of distortion is explained by an observable set of factors, the residual of a regression of actual trade on these factors provides a proxy for the orthogonal part of the distortion.⁵

Interpreting price based measures raises the same aggregation problem encountered by direct measures: equal differences between domestic and world prices in different sectors are unlikely to have identical effects on factor allocations. Meaningful aggregation again requires knowledge of own and cross elasticities unlikely to be available. The last measure, by virtue of being based on actual allocation, avoids the aggregation problem but, being based on a particular researcher's preference for a particular 'correct' model, again has to confront the charge of arbitrariness.

While all three approaches thus suffer from significant shortcomings, estimating distortions based on the divergence of actual trade quantities from their undistorted level carries two significant advantages. First, as the non-distorted model needs to be estimated, the goodness of fit of this estimation provides a natural criterion to assess the quality of the index. Second, by directly focusing on the variable of ultimate interest, the approach cuts through the otherwise intractable aggregation problem plaguing the direct and price measures.

2.2. Evidence

The empirical literature on trade distortion has become quite sizeable, ranging from informal groupings (e.g. World Bank (1987)) to precise numerical estimates along the alternatives delineated above. As all of these measures attempt to capture trade orientation, one would expect a fair degree of positive correlation. Alas, the hope is misleading: *"alternative objective measures of outward orientation (...) are completely uncorrelated across countries"* (Pritchett (1991: 3)).

⁵ A related measure calculates the world production frontier and estimates distortion as the difference between the efficient tangency point and the actual production/trade pattern. (Skoorka (1991a, 1991b).)

Tables 1 to 3 provide some further information. We divided each of the most popular reported indices into five equal sized groups, ranked from the least distorted (1) to the most distorted (5). The results for overall trade and manufacturing are reported in Tables 1 and 2, ranked according to the overall mean. The visual impression suggests a wide disparity even on this highly aggregated level.⁶ Indeed, for one third out of the 118 countries reported, the maximum rank difference equals 4, i.e., the country has been classified *both* as belonging to the least *and* as belonging to the most distorted.⁷ A further forty three countries exhibit a maximum rank differential of three. In contrast, only two countries fall into the same category for all indices, with a further eleven exhibiting a difference of only one rank.

Table 3 reports the average rank difference from the mean of all indices, providing a metric for the distance of a measure from the average. Quite noticeably, the measures based on relative factor endowments are 'outlier' both in respect to overall and to manufactures trade. Of course, this does not permit a quality judgement by itself; potentially, the other measures could be consistently off. As Leamer himself argues, there are however good grounds to be skeptical regarding the interpretation of his openness measures. A particularly serious problem is posed by the much higher degree of disaggregation of trade flows compared to endowment data used in his analysis. As long as (physical and human) capital is not completely malleable between the trade categories within the time periods considered, regressions of disaggregated trade flows on aggregated inputs will yield gross underestimates of exports for those goods in which the country under consideration possesses specialized human and physical capital. The residuals would then proxy these excluded product specific factor inputs rather than trade orientation, rendering the measure inappropriate for assessing the trade orientation-growth linkage. Leamer (1988: 41) shares some of these doubts by concluding that *"As I examine these results, I am left with a feeling of skepticism [...] I see tastes (Japan's coffee), omitted resources (Iceland's fish), and historical accidents (Switzerland's watches). I am not sure that I see trade barriers"*.

In conclusion, then, the market for trade orientation indices has not yet produced a clear favorite. The policy-based measures are likely to miss a substantial part of the distortions, the model-based approaches to date suffer from interpretation difficulties endangering their usefulness as distortion measures. Where to go from here? One recently popular approach makes a virtue out of the lack of consistency, treating different estimators as largely independent

⁶ The disparity may be somewhat misleading as the indices comprise both measures of outright distortion and of outward orientation, which are typically but not always negatively related. However, leaving out measures 3 and 8 does not materially alter the picture of wide divergence.

⁷ South Korea provides a case in point, being a favorite example in arguments for liberal trade policies (World Bank (1987)) as well as for sophisticated intervention (Sachs (1987)).

information of various 'aspects' of distortion and suggesting that robustness of findings across alternative measures reveals the sturdiness of the examined link (Edwards (1991), Harrison (1991)). Given the wide variance in classification documented above, some skepticism towards this approach seems indicated: if results are invariant to whether the ASEAN countries are ranked as being among the most *or* as being among the least distorted, the finding may well be 'robust' yet one may question its interpretation.

TABLE 1
TRADE DISTORTION INDICES: OVERALL

	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	8	9	Mean
Malta	2			1	1					1.3
Papua New Guinea	1	1	1	2	2					1.4
South Africa				1	2					1.5
Korea	2	2	1	3	1	1			1	1.6
Singapore	1	1	1	1	2		1	2	4	1.6
Malaysia	1	1	1	1	2	1	1	4	3	1.7
Canada	1			1	2		4	1		1.8
Jordan	1	3	2	3	1				1	1.8
Saudi Arabia		1	1				5	1		2.0
Gambia	1			4	1					2.0
Togo	1			4	1					2.0
Taiwan				3	1					2.0
Thailand	3	4	2	1	1	1	2	3	2	2.1
Hong Kong	1	1	2	1	4		1	5		2.1
Nepal	4	2	1	1	3					2.2
Ireland	1			3	1		1	5		2.2
Iceland				3	2		2	2		2.3
Tunisia	3	3	4	2	2	1			1	2.3
Mexico	5	1	3	1	3	2			1	2.3
Kuwait	5	1	1							2.3
Mauritius				3	1				3	2.3
Mali	2			3	2					2.3
Costa Rica	2	4	1	1	4		2	4	1	2.4
Ivory Coast	1	2	2	5	1	3	1	4		2.4
Barbados	4	1	1	3	3					2.4
Sri Lanka	2	4	3	1	3	2	3	1	3	2.4
Indonesia	1	2	4	2	4	3	3	1	2	2.4
Chad				4	1					2.5
Norway	2			2	2		2	3	4	2.5
Spain				1	3		3	3		2.5
Burma				1	4					2.5
Israel				3	1		2	4		2.5
United States	2			1	1		4	4	3	2.5
Cameroon	1	4	2	5	1	1	5	1	3	2.6
Jamaica	1	1	2	4	4	4			2	2.6

Table 1 (cont.)

	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	8	9	Mean
Malawi	2	2	5	3	3	1			2	2.6
Ethiopia				2	4	2	4	1		2.6
Cyprus	4	2	3	2	2		4	2	2	2.6
Netherlands	1			2	3		1	5	4	2.7
Belgium	1			2	4		1	5	3	2.7
Fiji	3			2	2		4	1	4	2.7
Ecuador	2	4	3	3	4		4	1	1	2.8
Portugal	3			1	2		5	3		2.8
Haiti	2	1	3	3	5					2.8
Zimbabwe	3	2	5	5	1				1	2.8
United Kingdom	5			2	2		3	4	1	2.8
Senegal	2	3	2	4	2	4				2.8
Kenya	2	4	4	4	1	2				2.8
Morocco	3	4	3	3	2		3	2		2.9
Italy	5			1	1		2	5	4	3.0
Pakistan	3	5	4	1	2	4	3	3	2	3.0
Philippines	4	3	4	2	3	2	4	2	3	3.0
Austria				2	3		3	4	3	3.0
CAR	3	4	2	4	2					3.0
Bangladesh	4	5	3	1	3	5	4	1	1	3.0
Niger	3			5	1					3.0
Congo	1	3	5	5	1					3.0
Surinam	3	3		3	3					3.0
Guatemala	5	1	1	3	5					3.0
Algeria	2	2	4	5	3				2	3.0
Colombia	5	5	4	1	1	2	5	2	3	3.1
Turkey	4	5	4	2	3	3	2	3	2	3.1
India	2	5	4	2	3	3			3	3.1
Sweden	3			4	3		2	4	3	3.2
Dominican Republic	3			4	4		3	3	2	3.2
Venezuela	4	3	3	2	5				2	3.2
Madagascar	3	4	4	3	2					3.2
Benin	2	5	5	3	1					3.2
New Zealand	3			2	5		1	5		3.2
Oman	5	1	1	4	5					3.2
Trinidad and Tobago	5	4	3	2	5		1	5	1	3.3
Guyana	1	1	5	3	5				5	3.3
Botswana				4	2				4	3.3
Uruguay	5		2	1	4	4			4	3.3
Australia	3			4	1		5	2	5	3.3
Finland	4			3	2		2	4	5	3.3
Luxembourg				1	4				5	3.3
Brazil	3	5	3	2	3	3	5	3		3.4
Switzerland	4			4	2		2	5		3.4
Panama				4	2		5	2	4	3.4
Nicaragua	5			2	5		4	1		3.4
Zaire	2	2	3	5	5					3.4
Syria	4	3	5	1	4					3.4

Table 1 (cont.)

	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	8	9	Mean
Greece				3	3		4	2	5	3.4
Chile	5	2	2	2	3	5			5	3.4
Somalia		3	1	5	5					3.5
Swaziland				4	3					3.5
Paraguay	5	5	2	4	4				1	3.5
Germany (West)	4			2	4		2	5	4	3.5
France	5			2	3		3	4	4	3.5
Nigeria	2	2	2	5	5	5				3.5
Lesotho				3	4					3.5
Sudan	3	5	1	5	4					3.6
Burkina Faso	4	5	4	4	1					3.6
Peru	5	5	4	1	3	4	5	2		3.6
Honduras				4	5				2	3.7
Egypt	1	4	3	5	5	3	5	2	5	3.7
Zambia	2	3	5	5	3				4	3.7
Japan	5			3	2		3	4	5	3.7
Denmark	4			3	4		1	5	5	3.7
Uganda	3	2	5	4	5					3.8
Yemen	5	2	5	4	4					4.0
Burundi	3	3	5	5	4					4.0
Gabon				5	3					4.0
El Salvador	4			4	5		4	3		4.0
Argentina	5	4	2	3	5	5	5	3		4.0
Mauritania				5	3					4.0
Iran	5	5	5	2	4					4.2
Sierra Leone	4	2	5	5	5					4.2
Mozambique		3	5	4	5					4.3
Ghana	4	3	3	5	5	5			5	4.3
Tanzania	4	4	5	5	4	5				4.5
Iraq				4	5					4.5
Guinea				5	4					4.5
Liberia				5	4					4.5
Bolivia				5	5	4				4.7
Rwanda	4			5	5					4.7
Angola				5	5					5.0

Explanations:

- 1: Pritchett (1991): Trade Intensity Ratio.
- 2: UNCTAD (1988): Average Tariff Rate.
- 3: UNCTAD (1988): Coverage Ratio for NTB.
- 4: Dollar (1992): Price Level Distortion.
- 5: Dollar (1992): Price Level Variability.
- 6: World Bank (1987): Price Distortion.
- 7: Leamer (1988): Openness Indicator.
- 8: Leamer (1988): Distortion Indicator.
- 9: Skoorka (1991): Allocative Distortion.

TABLE 2

TRADE DISTORTION INDICES: MANUFACTURING

	1	2	3	4	5	Mean
Niger	1					1.0
Mali	1					1.0
Togo	1					1.0
Malta	1					1.0
Gambia	1					1.0
Papua New Guinea	2	1	1			1.3
Singapore	1	1	2	1	2	1.4
Saudi Arabia		1	1	3	1	1.5
Haiti	1	1	3			1.7
Korea	1	2	2			1.7
Nigeria	1	2	2			1.7
Hong Kong	1	1	1	1	5	1.8
Jordan	1	4	1			2.0
Jamaica	2	2	2			2.0
Malaysia	2	1	2	1	4	2.0
Somalia		3	1			2.0
Iceland				3	1	2.0
Barbados	3	1	2			2.0
Canada	1			4	1	2.0
Oman	4	1	1			2.0
Belgium	1			1	5	2.3
Mexico	4	1	2			2.3
Ireland	1			1	5	2.3
CAR	2	4	1			2.3
Senegal	3	3	1			2.3
Norway	2			2	3	2.3
Kuwait	5	1	1			2.3
Guyana	1	1	5			2.3
Zaire	2	2	3			2.3
Ivory Coast	2	2	2	2	4	2.4
Indonesia	1	2	4	4	1	2.4
Ethiopia				3	2	2.5
Costa Rica	2	4	1	3	3	2.6
Sri Lanka	3	4	2	3	1	2.6
Chile	5	2	1			2.7
Sudan	2	5	1			2.7
Algeria	2	2	4			2.7
Guatemala	5	1	2			2.7
Nepal	3	3	2			2.7
Sweden	2			2	4	2.7
Switzerland	2			1	5	2.7
Egypt	1	4	3	5	1	2.8
Cameroon	1	4	3	5	1	2.8
Netherlands	2			2	5	3.0
Israel				1	5	3.0
Austria				2	4	3.0

Table 2 (cont.)

	1	2	3	4	5	Mean
Congo	1	3	5			3.0
Malawi	2	2	5			3.0
Cyprus	4	2	3	4	2	3.0
Morocco	3	4	3	4	2	3.2
Philippines	4	3	4	3	2	3.2
Dominican Republic	3			5	2	3.3
Zambia	2	3	5			3.3
Uganda	4	1	5			3.3
Finland	4			2	4	3.3
Tunisia	3	3	4			3.3
Zimbabwe	3	2	5			3.3
Fiji	5			4	1	3.3
Ghana	4	3	3			3.3
Portugal	3			4	3	3.3
Venezuela	4	3	3			3.3
Kenya	2	4	4			3.3
Trinidad y Tobago	5	5	3	1	3	3.4
Thailand	4	4	2	4	3	3.4
Bangladesh	3	5	3	5	1	3.4
Pakistan	3	5	4	2	3	3.4
Ecuador	3	4	4	3	3	3.4
Panama				5	2	3.5
Greece				4	3	3.5
Uruguay	5		2			3.5
Mozambique		2	5			3.5
Turkey	4	5	4	2	3	3.6
El Salvador	4			5	2	3.7
Australia	4			5	2	3.7
India	2	5	4			3.7
United States	3			4	4	3.7
United Kingdom	4			3	4	3.7
Denmark	4			2	5	3.7
New Zealand	5			1	5	3.7
Germany (West)	4			2	5	3.7
Yemen	4	2	5			3.7
Japan	5			2	4	3.7
Paraguay	5	5	1			3.7
Syria	3	3	5			3.7
Madagascar	3	4	4			3.7
Burundi	3	3	5			3.7
Italy	5			1	5	3.7
Brazil	3	5	3	4	4	3.8
Colombia	5	5	4	3	2	3.8
Peru	5	5	3	5	1	3.8
Nicaragua	5			5	2	4.0
Spain				4	4	4.0
Surinam	5	3				4.0
Burkino Faso	3	5	4			4.0

Table 2 (cont.)

	1	2	3	4	5	Mean
Argentina	5	4	3	5	3	4.0
Benin	2	5	5			4.0
Rwanda	4					4.0
France	5			3	4	4.0
Tanzania	3	4	5			4.0
Sierra Leone	4	3	5			4.0
Iran	5	5	5			5.0

Explanations:

- 1: Pritchett (1991): Trade Intensity Ratio.
- 2: UNCTAD (1988): Average Tariff Rate.
- 3: UNCTAD (1988): Coverage Ratio for NTB.
- 4: Leamer (1988): Openness Indicator.
- 5: Leamer (1988): Distortion Indicator.

TABLE 3

TRADE DISTORTION INDICES: AVERAGE RANK DIFFERENCE FROM MEAN

Distortion Measures	Source	Total	Manu.
Price Distortion	World Bank (1987)	0.89	
Price Distortion (Var.)	Dollar (1992)	0.94	
Trade Intensity	Pritchett (1991)	0.97	0.82
Non-Tariff Barriers	Unctad (1988)	1.00	0.88
Price Distortion (Level)	Dollar (1992)	1.01	
Allocative Distortion	Skoorka (1991)	1.05	
Average Tariff Rate	Unctad (1988)	1.12	0.90
Trade Pattern (Openness)	Leamer (1988)	1.12	1.13
Trade Pattern (Distort)	Leamer (1988)	1.25	1.23

2.3. Calculating the trade orientation index

Our trade orientation measure is based on the distance between actual trade and the trade predicted by the 'true' model in the absence of distortions. Applying Ockham's razor, we select a generic variant of the relative factor endowment approach as our baseline model. While the basic approach corresponds to that used by Edward Leamer (1984, 1988), we extend the factor set and employ highly aggregated data both for the trade flows and for the endowment measures. Choosing a consistent level of aggregation sharply reduces the problem of mislabeling the effect of product specific factors as trade distortions. The gain comes not without cost, however, as higher aggregation

raises the possibility of mislabelling regimes employing offsetting distortions on a higher level of disaggregation as 'non-interventionist'.

If all relevant variables except trade distortion proxies have been included as explanatory variables, then the residuals of the model regressions can be directly employed as trade orientation measures. Specifically, let the true trade model be given by:

$$T_i = V_i\beta_0 + X_i\beta_1 + Y_i\beta_2 + u_i \quad (1)$$

X and V are vectors of observed and unobserved variables determining trade in the absence of distortions and $Y\beta_2$ equals the effect of trade distortions. The index of trade orientation is then defined as the difference between the actual level of trade and the estimated normal level:

$$PDP = [Y_i \beta_2] + [V_i \beta_0 + X_i (\beta_1 - b_1) + u_i] \quad (2)$$

where b_1 denotes the estimated coefficient vector. The informational value of the proxy is thus determined by the ratio of the two bracketed terms: excluded explanatory variables and high intrinsic noise limit the signal value of the index.

2.3.1. Data

Reflecting the focus of endogenous trade theory, the distortion index is based on trade in manufactures. The model is estimated separately for the years 1975, 1980 and 1985. The trade data are taken from the World Bank World Tables and are in 1980 dollars.

The quality of the distortion index depends crucially on obtaining a sufficiently comprehensive set of explanatory variables to yield a satisfactory fit to the trade model. Considerable care has therefore been devoted to constructing a set of endowment variables.⁸

1. **Capital Stock** data were obtained by accumulating annual gross investment from 1950 onwards, depreciating at 13.3 percent per annum. The exclusion of the 1950 level renders the measures somewhat problematic, however,

⁸ A more complete description and a complete listing of all variables used in the construction is available from the author.

since the earliest year used in the empirical work is 1975, the potential bias should be fairly minor.

2. **Human Capital** is proxied by the aggregate number of years of education received by the population separately for primary, secondary and tertiary education. The annual enrollment figures (equal to the total additional number of year of education obtained in that year) provide estimates for the gross investment in education of the specific type. The flows are again summed up from 1950 onwards, using the adult mortality rate as the discount factor.

3. **Labor Force** data refer to the economically active population and are available both on the aggregate level and by sector (agriculture, industry and services). The 1975 values were calculated by interpolating the 1970 and 1980 shares.

4. **Land Endowment** data were obtained separately for farmed land, pasture, forests and 'other' lands.

5. **Raw Materials and Minerals** Since endowment data are not available, we follow the standard procedure of using production, assumed to be proportional to the total endowment. For many countries the main resource endowment also provides a major export product. We hence forgo the use of dated resource endowments, instead employing *the average* production over the three sample years.

Tables 4 to 7 report the distribution of absolute and relative (scaled by the labor force) factor endowments, both in the aggregate and separately by the four development groups of the World Bank classification. A notable convergence trend for the human capital variables is apparent, predominantly reflecting a catchup of the initially human capital poor economies. Across types of human capital, tertiary education displays the most marked change, almost doubling over the ten year period. In marked contrast, the distribution of the capital to labor ratio remains largely unchanged over the period, implying a marked increase in the ratio of human to physical capital during the decade under consideration.

The results change quite markedly once different development levels are considered. Capital labor ratios for the high income economies are seen to be highly centered, while the distribution for low income economies reveals substantially more dispersion. The evidence for further convergence within groups over time is moderate, except for the low income economies. A remarkably similar picture emerges for the human capital to labor ratios. Again dispersion strongly decreases with the income level while dispersion across time within groups displays only limited decreases, except again for the low income economies.

TABLE 4

FACTOR ENDOWMENTS I: ABSOLUTE

Series	Year	No.obs.	Mean	St. Dev.	Minimum	Maximum	C.o.V.	Min:Max
Years of Primary Education	75	107	7.4E+07	1.9E+08	3.0E+05	1.4E+09	2.6	4695
	80	107	8.5E+07	2.1E+08	4.3E+05	1.5E+09	2.5	3438
	85	107	9.6E+07	2.4E+08	6.8E+05	1.7E+09	2.5	2441
Years of Secondary Education	75	93	2.3E+07	7.4E+07	6.2E+04	5.6E+08	3.2	8972
	80	93	2.8E+07	8.2E+07	1.1E+05	6.2E+08	3.0	5659
	85	93	3.3E+07	8.9E+07	1.7E+05	6.6E+08	2.7	4004
Years of Tertiary Education	75	101	2.7E+06	1.3E+07	1.5E+03	1.3E+08	4.9	86560
	80	101	3.9E+06	1.8E+07	4.4E+03	1.7E+08	4.7	40046
	85	101	5.2E+06	2.3E+07	7.6E+03	2.2E+08	4.4	28967
Total Labor Force	75	115	9.0E+03	2.5E+04	9.6E+01	2.4E+05	2.8	2536
	80	116	9.9E+03	2.8E+04	1.1E+02	2.7E+05	2.8	2527
	85	116	1.1E+04	3.1E+04	1.2E+02	2.9E+05	2.8	2506
Share in Agriculture	75	116	4.7E-01	2.9E-01	1.7E-02	9.3E-01	0.6	55
	80	116	4.5E-01	2.9E-01	1.6E-02	9.3E-01	0.6	58
	85	116	4.2E-01	2.9E-01	1.3E-02	9.2E-01	0.7	71
Share in Industry	75	116	2.0E-01	1.3E-01	1.0E-02	5.3E-01	0.6	51
	80	116	2.0E-01	1.2E-01	5.7E-03	5.1E-01	0.6	89
	85	116	2.0E-01	1.2E-01	2.7E-03	4.8E-01	0.6	180
Share in Services	75	116	3.2E-01	1.7E-01	4.7E-02	6.5E-01	0.5	14
	80	116	3.5E-01	1.8E-01	4.3E-02	6.9E-01	0.5	16
	85	116	3.8E-01	1.9E-01	3.9E-02	7.6E-01	0.5	20
Real Capital Stock	75	114	9.6E+10	3.2E+11	2.3E+08	2.8E+12	3.4	12463
	80	116	1.2E+11	3.8E+11	4.7E+08	3.3E+12	3.3	7076
	85	118	1.3E+11	4.3E+11	6.1E+08	3.8E+12	3.4	6227
Land								
- Total		115	7.9E+04	1.6E+05	3.2E+01	9.2E+05	2.1	28646
- Arable		115	9.1E+03	2.5E+04	2.0E+00	1.9E+05	2.8	94960
- Pasture		115	2.0E+04	5.1E+04	0.0E+00	4.3E+05	2.6	-
- Forest		115	2.5E+04	6.9E+04	0.0E+00	5.7E+05	2.8	-

TABLE 5

FACTOR ENDOWMENTS II: RELATIVE TO LABOR FORCE

Series	Year	No.obs.	Mean	St. Dev.	Minimum	Maximum	C.o.V.	Min:Max
Capital	75	111	9.4E+06	1.0E+07	1.2E+05	3.9E+07	1.11	314
	80	114	1.1E+07	1.1E+07	1.2E+05	3.8E+07	1.04	311
	85	116	1.1E+07	1.2E+07	1.7E+05	4.5E+07	1.07	261
Primary Education	75	105	8.1E+03	4.8E+03	4.7E+02	1.9E+04	0.59	40
	80	106	8.5E+03	4.6E+03	6.2E+02	1.9E+04	0.54	30
	85	106	8.8E+03	4.3E+03	8.6E+02	1.8E+04	0.48	21
Secondary Education	75	91	2.1E+03	2.0E+03	3.5E+01	7.8E+03	0.94	222
	80	92	2.5E+03	2.2E+03	7.0E+01	8.2E+03	0.85	117
	85	92	2.9E+03	2.2E+03	9.4E+01	8.6E+03	0.77	91
Tertiary Education	75	99	1.6E+02	2.1E+02	5.8E-01	1.3E+03	1.30	2291
	80	100	2.3E+02	2.7E+02	1.1E+00	1.6E+03	1.18	1473
	85	100	3.0E+02	3.3E+02	1.1E+00	1.9E+03	1.12	1759

TABLE 6

CAPITAL TO LABOR RATIOS BY DEVELOPMENT LEVEL

Series	Year	No.obs.	Mean	St. Dev.	Minimum	Maximum	C.o.V.	Min:Max
Low Income	75	28	8.8E+05	9.2E+05	1.2E+05	4.6E+06	1.04	37
	80	29	9.9E+05	8.8E+05	1.2E+05	3.9E+06	0.89	32
	85	29	1.0E+06	8.8E+05	1.7E+05	4.0E+06	0.89	23
Lower Middle Income	75	37	3.8E+06	2.5E+06	5.8E+05	1.1E+07	0.66	19
	80	38	4.4E+06	2.8E+06	6.9E+05	1.1E+07	0.63	16
	85	39	4.3E+06	2.9E+06	5.5E+05	1.2E+07	0.68	22
Upper Middle Income	75	25	1.3E+07	6.1E+06	4.9E+06	3.0E+07	0.46	6
	80	25	1.6E+07	5.8E+06	9.2E+06	3.2E+07	0.36	3
	85	25	1.7E+07	6.7E+06	9.6E+06	3.3E+07	0.40	3
High Income	75	18	2.8E+07	6.5E+06	1.6E+07	3.9E+07	0.23	2
	80	19	3.0E+07	6.0E+06	1.8E+07	3.8E+07	0.20	2
	85	19	3.0E+07	6.7E+06	1.7E+07	4.0E+07	0.23	2

Based on World Bank classification.

TABLE 7

HUMAN CAPITAL TO LABOR RATIOS BY DEVELOPMENT LEVEL

Series	Year	No.obs.	Mean	St. Dev.	Minimum	Maximum	C.o.V.	Min:Max
Primary Education								
Low Income	75	26	3.1E+03	2.9E+03	4.7E+02	1.5E+04	0.94	32
	80	26	3.5E+03	2.8E+03	6.2E+02	1.4E+04	0.79	23
	85	26	4.0E+03	2.8E+03	8.6E+02	1.5E+04	0.69	17
Lower Middle Income	75	37	7.9E+03	4.0E+03	9.5E+02	1.8E+04	0.51	19
	80	37	8.5E+03	3.7E+03	1.5E+03	1.7E+04	0.44	11
	85	37	9.9E+03	3.3E+03	2.1E+03	1.6E+04	0.37	7
Upper Middle Income	75	23	1.1E+04	3.6E+03	4.0E+03	1.9E+04	0.32	5
	80	23	1.2E+04	3.5E+03	4.8E+03	1.9E+04	0.30	4
	85	23	1.2E+04	3.2E+03	5.8E+03	1.8E+04	0.27	3
High Income	75	16	1.2E+04	1.8E+03	8.8E+03	1.6E+04	0.15	2
	80	17	1.2E+04	1.8E+03	9.0E+03	1.5E+04	0.15	2
	85	17	1.2E+04	1.7E+03	8.7E+03	1.5E+04	0.14	2
Secondary Education								
Low Income	75	19	3.0E+02	3.3E+02	3.5E+01	1.4E+03	1.11	40
	80	19	4.4E+02	4.4E+02	7.0E+01	1.9E+03	1.01	26
	85	19	6.2E+02	5.8E+02	9.4E+01	2.2E+03	0.94	24
Lower Middle Income	75	31	1.1E+03	8.9E+02	7.2E+01	3.0E+03	0.80	41
	80	31	1.5E+03	1.1E+03	1.7E+02	4.1E+03	0.74	24
	85	31	1.9E+03	1.3E+03	3.9E+02	4.9E+03	0.68	13
Upper Middle Income	75	22	2.6E+03	1.0E+03	3.3E+02	4.8E+03	0.41	14
	80	22	3.0E+03	1.0E+03	5.4E+02	5.0E+03	0.35	9
	85	22	3.5E+03	1.1E+03	8.1E+02	5.6E+03	0.30	7
High Income	75	16	5.3E+03	1.2E+03	3.5E+03	7.8E+03	0.22	2
	80	17	5.9E+03	1.2E+03	4.6E+03	8.2E+03	0.20	2
	85	17	6.3E+03	1.0E+03	4.8E+03	8.6E+03	0.17	2
Tertiary Education								
Low Income	75	24	1.1E+01	1.6E+01	5.8E-01	7.1E+01	1.49	123
	80	24	1.6E+01	2.4E+01	1.1E+00	1.1E+02	1.45	102
	85	24	2.4E+01	3.1E+01	1.1E+00	1.3E+02	1.30	122
Lower Middle Income	75	34	9.2E+01	1.0E+02	4.0E+00	4.4E+02	1.10	110
	80	34	1.4E+02	1.5E+02	1.0E+01	5.6E+02	1.06	54
	85	34	2.0E+02	2.0E+02	1.5E+01	7.2E+02	1.01	49
Upper Middle Income	75	22	2.2E+02	1.8E+02	6.5E+00	7.4E+02	0.81	114
	80	22	2.9E+02	2.3E+02	1.5E+01	9.3E+02	0.78	64
	85	22	3.8E+02	2.9E+02	3.3E+01	1.2E+03	0.76	35
High Income	75	16	4.2E+02	1.3E+02	2.8E+02	7.4E+02	0.31	3
	80	17	5.8E+02	1.5E+02	3.8E+02	9.3E+02	0.26	2
	85	17	7.3E+02	1.7E+02	4.9E+02	1.2E+03	0.23	2

TABLE 8

TRADE PATTERNS

Series	Year	No.obs.	Mean	St. Dev.	Minimum	Maximum	C.o.V.	Min:Max
Imports								
Total	75	105	1.3E+10	3.0E+10	8.0E+07	1.9E+11	2.4	2385
	80	105	1.6E+10	3.8E+10	1.3E+08	2.5E+11	2.4	1899
	85	105	1.8E+10	4.8E+10	1.2E+08	3.8E+11	2.7	3116
Fuels	75	105	2.7E+09	8.3E+09	1.4E+06	5.5E+10	3.1	39404
	80	105	4.0E+09	1.2E+10	3.4E+06	8.2E+10	3.0	24129
	85	105	3.5E+09	1.0E+10	3.6E+06	6.6E+10	2.9	18292
Non-Fuel Primary Products	75	105	3.0E+09	7.9E+09	2.2E+07	4.7E+10	2.7	2162
	80	105	3.2E+09	8.1E+09	1.8E+07	4.3E+10	2.5	2336
	85	105	3.2E+09	8.2E+09	2.1E+07	4.5E+10	2.6	2142
Manufactured Goods	75	105	6.9E+09	1.5E+10	5.1E+07	1.0E+11	2.2	2007
	80	105	8.9E+09	2.0E+10	1.0E+08	1.3E+11	2.2	1237
	85	105	1.1E+10	3.2E+10	4.3E+07	2.7E+11	2.8	6351
Services	75	105	2.9E+09	7.3E+09	2.0E+07	4.2E+10	2.5	2113
	80	105	3.6E+09	8.0E+09	3.8E+07	4.4E+10	2.3	1176
	85	105	4.0E+09	9.4E+09	2.6E+07	6.1E+10	2.3	2380
Exports								
Total	75	105	1.2E+10	2.7E+10	1.9E+07	1.6E+11	2.3	8502
	80	105	1.5E+10	3.6E+10	2.3E+10	2.2E+11	2.4	9598
	85	105	1.7E+10	4.0E+10	2.5E+07	2.4E+11	2.3	9581
Fuels	75	96	2.8E+09	9.5E+04	5.6E+04	8.2E+10	3.4	-
	80	96	3.3E+09	1.2E+10	1.0E+04	1.1E+11	3.6	-
	85	95	2.7E+09	5.7E+09	1.1E+03	3.0E+10	2.1	-
Non-Fuel Primary products	75	104	2.5E+09	5.1E+09	1.7E+07	4.0E+10	2.1	2334
	80	104	3.2E+09	7.5E+09	3.0E+07	6.1E+10	2.3	2074
	85	104	3.5E+09	7.4E+09	2.0E+07	5.4E+10	2.1	2726
Manufactured Goods	75	104	6.6E+09	2.1E+10	3.0E+05	1.2E+11	3.1	410738
	80	104	9.3E+09	2.8E+10	1.0E+06	1.7E+11	3.0	159071
	85	104	1.2E+10	3.3E+10	4.0E+05	2.2E+11	2.9	539212
Services	75	105	2.6E+09	6.1E+09	5.8E+06	3.3E+10	2.4	5621
	80	105	3.3E+09	7.9E+09	9.9E+06	4.3E+10	2.4	4332
	85	105	3.9E+09	9.0E+09	1.4E+07	4.6E+10	2.3	3205

TABLE 9

TRADE PER WORKER BY DEVELOPMENT LEVEL

Series	Year	No.obs.	Mean	St. Dev.	Minimum	Maximum	C.o.V.	Min:Max
Exports								
Low Income	75	25	1.1E+05	9.1E+04	1.6E+04	4.2E+05	0.82	26
	80	25	1.2E+05	9.5E+04	1.8E+04	4.3E+05	0.82	24
	85	25	9.9E+04	6.8E+04	1.9E+04	2.6E+05	0.68	14
Lower Middle Income	75	37	6.7E+05	4.5E+05	1.4E+04	2.1E+06	0.67	148
	80	37	6.8E+05	4.0E+05	1.5E+04	1.6E+06	0.59	102
	85	37	6.7E+05	4.7E+05	3.5E+04	2.2E+06	0.69	64
Upper Middle Income	75	22	2.9E+06	3.5E+06	2.9E+05	1.3E+07	1.19	44
	80	22	3.5E+06	4.0E+06	4.5E+05	1.7E+07	1.13	38
	85	22	3.8E+06	4.4E+06	5.1E+05	2.0E+07	1.18	40
High Income	75	18	4.9E+06	2.7E+06	1.0E+06	1.2E+07	0.55	12
	80	18	6.0E+06	2.9E+06	1.6E+06	1.4E+07	0.49	8
	85	18	7.1E+06	3.3E+06	2.3E+06	1.5E+07	0.46	6
Imports								
Low Income	75	25	1.6E+05	1.0E+05	3.3E+04	4.4E+05	0.64	13
	80	25	1.9E+05	1.3E+05	4.1E+04	5.7E+05	0.68	14
	85	25	1.6E+05	9.6E+04	5.0E+04	4.0E+05	0.61	8
Lower Middle Income	75	37	8.9E+05	6.1E+05	2.0E+05	2.5E+06	0.69	13
	80	37	9.6E+05	6.9E+05	2.5E+05	3.7E+06	0.72	15
	85	37	7.9E+05	6.6E+05	1.9E+05	3.8E+06	0.84	20
Upper Middle Income	75	22	3.6E+06	3.9E+06	5.9E+05	1.7E+07	1.09	29
	80	22	4.0E+06	4.6E+06	5.6E+05	2.1E+07	1.13	38
	85	22	3.9E+06	5.2E+06	3.2E+05	2.4E+07	1.32	73
High Income	75	18	5.9E+06	2.6E+06	2.2E+06	1.2E+07	0.45	5
	80	18	6.7E+06	3.1E+06	2.5E+06	1.4E+07	0.46	6
	85	18	6.7E+06	2.7E+06	2.5E+06	1.3E+07	0.41	5

Based on World Bank Classification.

Tables 8 and 9 report the same statistics for trade variables, including total trade and four subgroups, (1) non-fuel primary products, (2) fuels, (3) manufactures and (4) services. Absolute trade displays little change in dispersion

with the exception of fuel export. Turning to trade per worker, the high income economies again display the smallest variation, with the middle income group displaying the most variability. On this aggregate level, the evidence -convergent endowments but equally dispersed trade- thus appears to support the view that models of intra-industry trade assume increasing importance with advancing development.⁹

2.3.2. Regression Analysis

We now turn to the regression analysis. In going beyond the two factor, two good, two country model, the theoretically implied signs of the HOS model depend non-trivially on relative factor intensities.¹⁰ Lacking information on these, we do not impose a priori restriction on the coefficients but rather let the data choose the sign pattern minimizing the unexplained variance.

Tables 10 and 11 report the result of the regressions of manufacturing imports and exports on ten resources, three human capital variables, the physical capital stock, four land variables and the share of industry in GDP as a proxy for infrastructure. All variables are scaled by the labor force.

The regression results suggest that variations in endowments explain a high fraction of the variation in per worker trade, with R²s between 0.8 and 0.84 for exports and between 0.61 and 0.67 for imports. Exclusion tests on endowment groups are generally rejected. The explanatory power appears stable over time, suggesting that on this aggregate level relative factor endowments models provide a reasonably satisfactory fit.

⁹ See Helpman and Krugman (1986) and Lowe (1991).
¹⁰ Deardorff (1983), Leamer (1984).

TABLE 10

TRADE REGRESSIONS: MANUFACTURING EXPORTS

Expl. Variable	1975		1980		1985	
	Coefficient	t-Stat.	Coefficient	t-Stat.	Coefficient	t-Stat
Constant	106013	0.43	315400	1.12	631315	1.23
Bauxite	187135	0.82	429671	1.35	563409	0.89
Cooper	-172944	0.12	864479	0.85	2679046	0.68
Petroleum	-8429	0.70	-68819	1.59	-91672	2.75
Tin	-8633738	0.17	-73986345	0.76	-188123786	1.28
Sulphur	-3918747	2.21	-7628163	2.57	-11933709	2.67
Nickel	113733660	2.56	202127276	2.91	292735084	2.62
Phosphate	-134821	1.63	-162667	1.04	-172528	0.80
Manganese	-182425	1.04	-287540	1.84	-268325	0.63
Iron	-217574	1.95	-248757	2.07	-388652	1.34
Lead	15355522	1.47	33920778	2.24	55215152	2.03
Primary Edu.	-123856	4.31	-174973	4.82	-195631	2.96
Secondary Edu.	-80769	0.94	-325349	1.53	-290362	1.77
Tertiary Edu.	-1241790	2.31	-1013225	1.21	-782819	1.09
Capital	0.1115	7.19	0.1586	5.65	0.2019	7.13
Total Land	5613	0.45	7776	0.11	10193	0.31
Arable Land	-146013	1.36	-578496	2.44	-675340	2.33
Pasture Land	-38720	2.09	-58339	1.52	-96102	2.03
Forest Land	7638	0.40	36314	1.19	56447	1.15
Labor Share in Industry	6251985	4.91	11357937	5.32	10120781	4.52
R ²	0.84		0.80		0.80	
No. of Observation	73		75		75	
Degrees of Freedom	53		55		55	
Mean of Dep. Var.	742712		1089484		1355921	
Standard Error	603642		1013480		1250378	
F-Test for Exclusion of						
- Endowments	2.00*		3.11**		3.26**	
- Education	13.91**		13.92**		11.51**	
- Land	2.68*		4.65**		4.64**	

* (**): Significant at 5 (1) percent level.

TABLE 11

TRADE REGRESSIONS: MANUFACTURING IMPORTS

Expl. Variable	1975		1980		1985	
	Coefficient	t-Stat.	Coefficient	t-Stat.	Coefficient	t-Stat
Constant	152373	0.40	108669	0.19	397174	0.61
Bauxite	-194479	0.40	-166730	0.26	229834	0.28
Copper	-2005539	0.58	-879981	0.22	-441066	0.08
Petroleum	15431	3.29	-21790	0.65	-57918	1.37
Tin	-22517346	0.25	-36166016	0.25	-109489152	0.58
Sulphur	-3617783	1.22	-6614150	1.42	-8495567	1.50
Nickel	148935959	2.41	178002319	1.53	249408863	1.76
Phosphate	40204	0.24	-13337	0.06	58804	0.21
Manganese	-107118	0.42	-251605	0.56	-103719	0.19
Iron	-31096	0.04	-80045	0.27	43955	0.11
Lead	19285656	0.90	42592196	1.54	48518477	1.40
Primary Edu.	28618	0.38	-22974	0.32	-56406	0.67
Secondary Edu.	-362466	2.02	-412689	2.07	-379274	1.82
Tertiary Edu.	-1488810	1.32	-1943487	1.93	-764864	0.84
Capital	0.1527	4.69	0.1682	4.62	0.1911	5.34
Total Land	16134	0.35	28691	0.89	33512	0.82
Arable Land	-337161	1.38	-657822	2.28	.787400	2.14
Pasture Land	-57986	1.48	-75379	1.55	-110127	1.84
Forest Land	-6697	0.18	-3443	0.06	21881	0.35
Labor Share in Industry	4146638	1.56	9098724	3.23	7381093	2.60
R ²	0.61		0.66		0.67	
No. of Observation	73		75		76	
Degrees of Freedom	53		55		56	
Mean of Dep. Var.	1430078		1602373		1684395	
Standar Error	1299047		1423294		1587387	
F-Test for Exclusion of						
- Endowments	0.49		0.69		1.01	
- Education	2.29		4.95**		3.64*	
- Land	1.54		2.60*		2.93*	

*(**): Significant at 5 (1) percent level.

2.4. The trade orientation index

The residual of the trade regression, scaled by the dependent variable, provides a natural estimate of trade distortion. Tables 12 and 13 report the rankings for 1975, 1980 and 1985. To control for cyclical factors, the countries are ordered according to the *average* rank over the three years. Rank 1 denotes the country with the largest exports and imports relative to the model's prediction.

The index suggests that most OECD economies export and import roughly the predicted amount as indicated by their middle ranks. Japan forms the exception, both exporting and in particular importing less than predicted by relative factor endowments. The same pattern is observed for Korea, while Hong Kong and Singapore, two countries often cited for their liberal trade policies, are among the third of countries exporting and importing most relative to the predicted levels.

Lacking a quality measuring gauge, yet another entrant to the already crowded market of distortion indices would provide little value added. We therefore now present a number of indirect 'quality checks' for the index. Specifically, we examine three criteria. First, if the index indeed represents trade orientation rather than noise, the estimated ranks should display substantial stability for most countries. Second, for those countries exhibiting a fall (rise) of their rank, indicating increased (decreased) outward orientation, a particularly strong increase (decrease) in trade growth should be observed. Thirdly, the index should match independently identified episodes of strong trade liberalization.

A visual glance at the Table reveals a fair degree of time persistence of the rankings: for 65 percent of all countries the maximum rank difference over the three years falls short of 10 ranks. Figures 1 and 2 plot the change in rank between 1975 and 1985 against the growth rate of exports and imports over that period. The predicted negative correlation is present in both cases, with a decline of twenty ranks being associated with a 1 percent higher growth rate of exports. Choksi et al. (1991) have identified strong liberalization episodes. Table 14 lists these episodes, along with the change in the trade orientation index. On the export side, four of the five countries have seen a substantial fall in their ranking, consistent with increased exports in the wake of successful reforms. On the import side, two of the countries, Argentina and Spain, saw a substantial fall in their rank, consistent with increased imports, while the other three countries approximately maintained their previous ranking.

The proposed index thus satisfies the three intuitive criteria of (1) overall stability over time most countries, (2) matching between independently identified strong liberalizations and movements in the index and (3) negative correlations between rank changes and trade growth. We now employ the index to examine the link between trade orientation and growth.

TABLE 12

TRADE ORIENTATION RANKING: EXPORTS

	1975	1980	1985
Rwanda	1	1	1
Madagascar	3	4	2
Zambia	4	2	5
Lesotho	2	6	4
Sudan	10	3	3
Paraguay	5	8	6
Cameroon	8	5	7
Togo	9	9	8
Senegal	13	7	9
Philippines	6	11	12
Venezuela	16	12	11
Uruguay	14	15	14
Thailand	11	14	21
Jordan	17	17	19
Fiji	21	16	18
Mauritius	19	22	22
Barbados	33	18	20
Egypt	37	19	16
Nicaragua	50	13	13
Singapore	24	24	29
United Kingdom	27	28	28
Canada	30	27	27
Gabon	25	25	34
Kenya	51	21	15
Hong Kong	31	30	26
Ireland	28	29	31
Switzerland	29	31	30
United States	23	23	46
Jamaica	35	33	25
Costa Rica	20	42	32
Malawi	7	20	69
Syria	15	26	56
Germany	32	34	33
Norway	26	36	40
Korea	22	41	42
Australia	36	32	38
Spain	48	40	23
Malta	34	35	44
Malaysia	40	37	36
Denmark	39	39	35
Finland	41	38	37

Table 12 (cont.)

	1975	1980	1985
Tunisia	18	47	52
France	38	44	45
Israel	44	45	39
Italy	42	46	41
Botswana	43	43	43
Congo	60	48	24
Argentina	59	58	17
Ecuador	68	57	10
Trinidad	47	49	47
Niger	70	10	72
Japan	49	53	50
New Zealand	55	52	48
Cyprus	56	51	51
Portugal	53	56	49
Somalia	12	74	74
Tanzania	46	54	62
Greece	54	55	53
Haiti	52	59	55
Ivory Coast	45	62	61
Honduras	58	60	60
Morocco	57	65	59
Panama	62	50	70
Turkey	65	67	54
Mexico	63	66	58
Peru	69	61	57
Chile	61	64	64
Colombia	64	63	65
CAR	67	68	67
Zaire	66	70	71
Indonesia	74	71	63
Burkina Faso	75	69	66
Nigeria	72	72	68
Ghana	71	73	73
Ethiopia	73	75	75

TABLE 13

TRADE ORIENTATION RANKING: IMPORTS

	1975	1980	1985
Madagascar	1	1	1
Zambia	3	3	2
Senegal	4	2	3
Sudan	6	4	4
Cameroon	8	6	5
Paraguay	5	7	8
Philippin	12	5	7
Uruguay	7	12	6
Barbados	9	10	11
Singapore	11	15	17
Lesotho	27	9	9
Nicaragua	21	11	13
Panamá	19	17	16
Syria	10	18	29
Ireland	15	19	24
Hong Kong	20	24	18
Denmark	17	25	21
Norway	16	23	26
Costa Rica	14	20	31
Togo	44	13	12
Canada	26	22	27
United Kingdom	32	28	19
Jordan	38	21	20
Jamaica	30	31	23
Mauritius	23	40	22
New Zealand	25	29	32
Venezuela	34	33	25
Burkina F	74	8	10
Malta	24	27	43
Switzerland	37	26	33
Malaysia	28	32	36
United States	41	16	41
Fiji	36	34	28
Cyprus	40	30	30
Israel	22	43	37
Gabon	31	36	38
Egypt	50	41	15
Australia	29	35	42
Ivory Coast	13	37	56
Somalia	2	58	50
Finland	33	39	45

Table 13 (cont.)

	1975	1980	1985
Tunisia	18	47	54
Trinidad	35	42	46
Botswana	39	44	44
Ecuador	55	38	34
Argentina	62	53	14
Rwanda	66	14	57
Nigeria	54	45	39
France	46	46	47
Honduras	45	50	48
Germany	48	48	49
Congo	63	49	35
Greece	42	52	55
Spain	53	56	40
Tanzania	49	51	58
Korea	47	60	52
Thailand	60	54	51
Italy	57	55	53
Ghana	43	66	62
Portugal	56	61	59
Malawi	51	57	68
Chile	68	59	61
Turkey	58	71	60
Morocco	52	69	69
Kenya	64	62	65
Peru	59	67	66
Mexico	70	63	64
Colombia	71	65	63
Haiti	69	64	67
CAR	61	70	75
Ethiopia	65	73	71
Niger	73	68	72
Zaire	67	75	74
Indonesia	75	72	70
Japan	72	74	73

FIGURE 1

EXPORT LIBERALIZATION AND EXPORT GROWTH
(Export Growth = 2.89 - 0.051*dRank)

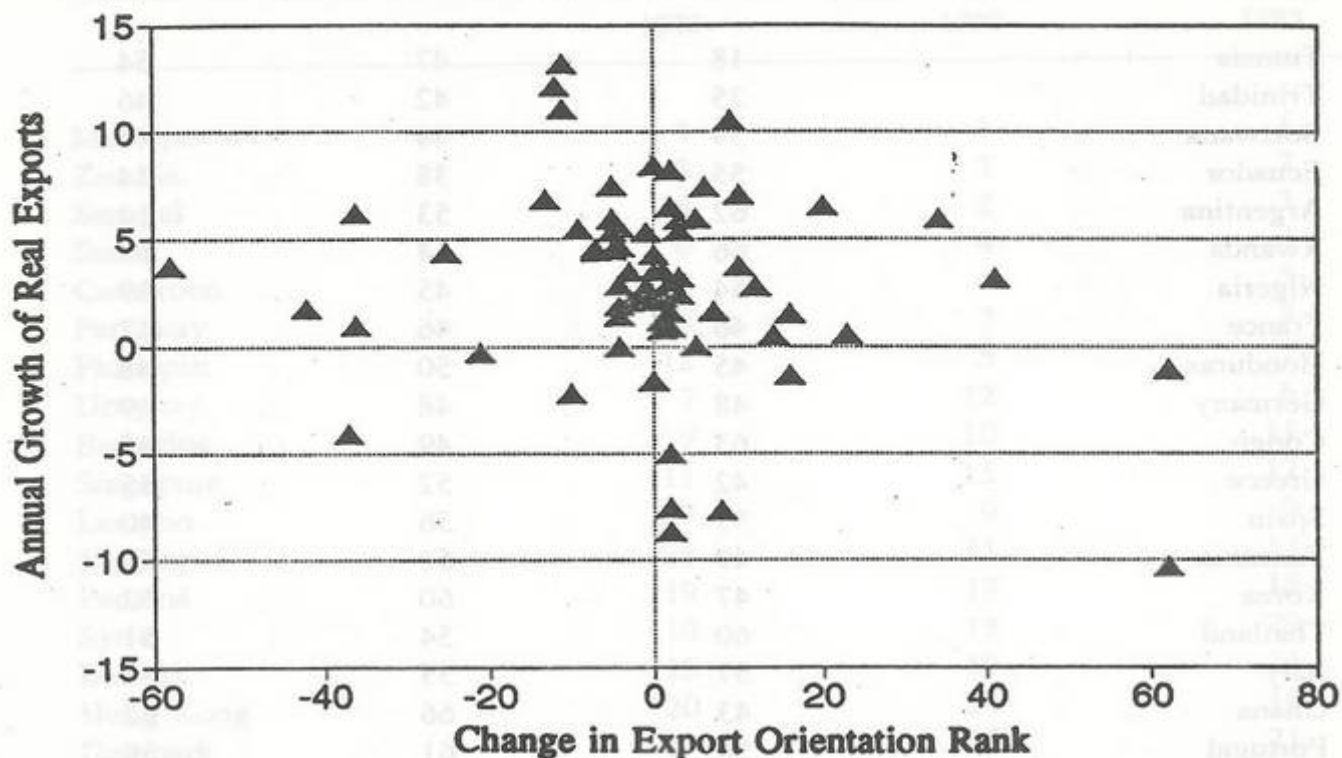


FIGURE 2

IMPORT LIBERALIZATION AND IMPORT GROWTH
(Import Growth = 1.02 - 0.008*dRank)

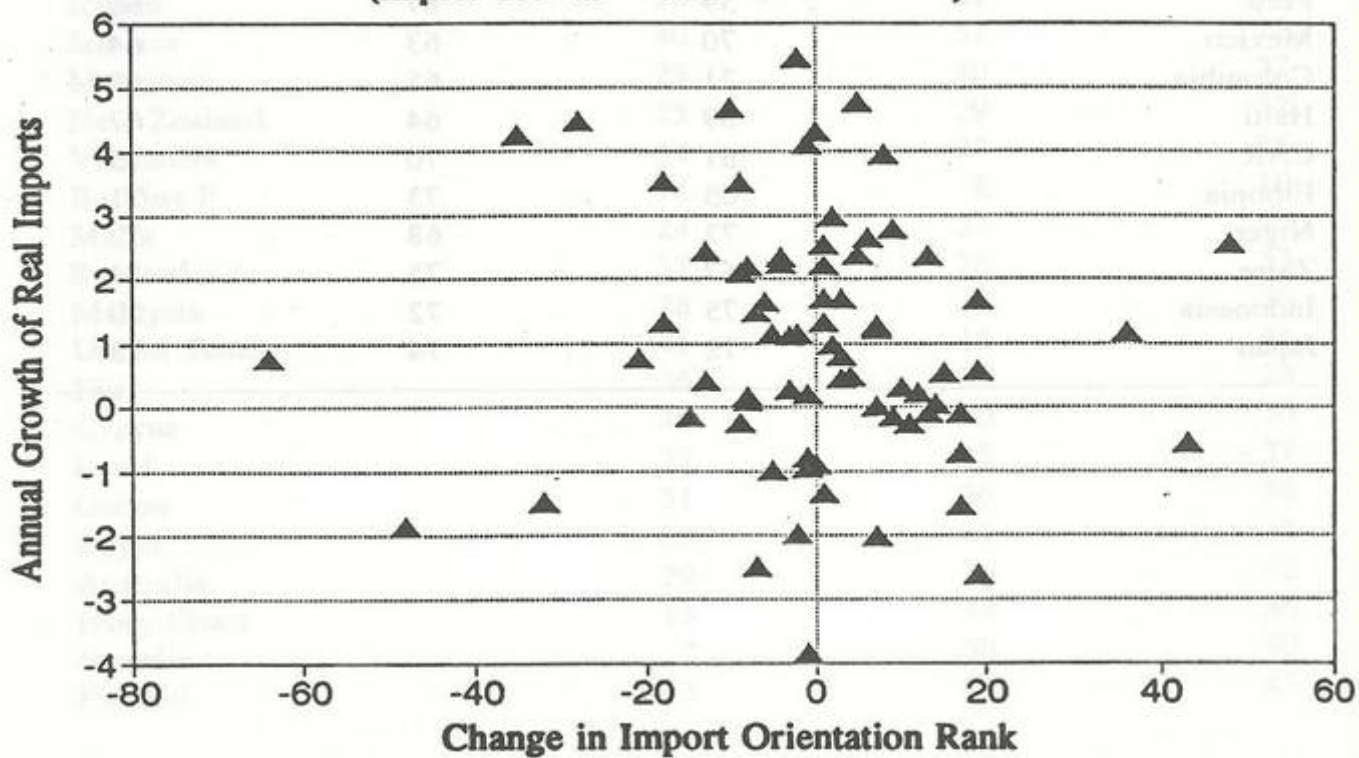


TABLE 14

CONSISTENCY WITH KNOWN LIBERALIZATION EPISODES

Country		Change in Rank
Argentina	-42	-48
Chile	+4	-7
Peru	-12	+7
Spain	-25	-13
Turkey	-11	+2

Source: Choksi et al. (1991), p. 33.

3. TRADE ORIENTATION AND GROWTH

The pendulum in the long ranging debate on the relative merits of outwardly versus inwardly oriented development strategies has lately swung decisively in favor of outward orientation. The 1987 World Bank Development Report, devoted to trade, advised without qualifications that *"countries should move toward the adoption of an outward-oriented trade strategy. Such a strategy means removing the bias against exports, replacing quantitative restrictions with tariffs and adopting more realistic exchange rates"*.¹¹ In like vein, the near uniform prescription for the post-socialist transition economies of Eastern Europe has stressed trade liberalization as a key reform step.

The firmness of the policy prescription is based on a slender -and increasingly undermined- theoretical underpinning. New trade theory and endogenous growth models are casting doubts on the classical predilection for free trade: temporary protection for industries with unexploited learning by doing potentials may yield permanent growth advantages; strategic subsidies may influence location choices with lock-in effects, liberalization between highly and less developed economies may enhance the growth potential of the richer at the expense of the poorer country, *etc.* At present, theory thus fails to offer a consensus view on the merits of outward versus inward-oriented growth strategies, placing a premium on empirical analysis. We now turn to a brief discussion of the theory before presenting our econometric results.

¹¹ World Bank, World Development Report 1987, page 4. See also Balassa (1985a, b, 1986, 1989), Bhagwati (1986), Choksi et al. (1991), Dornbusch (1992), Edwards (1992), Michaeli et al. (1991) Riedel (1988) *inter alia*.

3.1. Trade and growth: theory

Traditional neoclassical growth models predict a level but not a growth rate effect of trade liberalization. While a range of informal arguments for a positive link between trade liberalization and growth have been proposed, emphasizing a reduction in X-inefficiency and rent seeking activities, stimulated competition, access to improved inputs, increased market access, *etc.*, these informal arguments remained theoretically unappealing until the advent of new growth theory in the late eighties. The latter class of models in general *do* predict a growth rate effect of liberalization, however, no general presumption in favor of a positive effect has emerged.

Conceptually, changes in trade orientation may cause changes in the growth rate either by affecting the rate of growth of technological knowledge, or by altering the rate of accumulation of production factor. In the basic endogenous growth model, removing trade distortions in a single good world is equivalent to integrating two previously autarkic economies. With increasing returns in production or R & D, the increased market size and increased stock of human capital results in a higher growth rate reflecting either higher investment, greater availability of intermediate inputs or increased innovation. The basic integration effect is reinforced by the elimination of duplication effort in R&D as information flows more freely, yielding an unambiguous positive growth rate effect of trade liberalization.

The simple conclusion changes however once the single good assumption is abandoned. Heterogeneity in goods and differential skills in innovation may lead to shifts in specialization patterns with potential adverse growth effects possibly outweighing the *integration* and *redundancy* effects.¹² Grossman and Helpman (1990, 1991) and Young (1991) provide two illustrative examples. The first set of papers focuses on the allocation of effort to R&D -the growth machine-between two economies. Starting from a position in which both the initially poorer country ('South') and the initially richer country ('North') engage in both production and R&D trade liberalization typically facilitates the copying of blueprints in the 'South', leading to a reallocation of resources towards production in the 'South' and towards R&D in the 'North', with an increased growth rate for both South and North in most scenarios.

As Young (1991) demonstrates, the pro-trade result however depends crucially on the ability of the South to participate in the extra growth created by increased Northern research and development. In his model, based on heterogeneity in goods with respect to learning by doing potentials, trade liberalization may lead to specialization of the South in 'mature' goods with almost exhausted learning

¹² See e.g. Krugman (1987), Rodrick (1992), Rivera-Batiz and Romer (1991a,b).

by doing potentials, *reducing* the post-liberalization growth rate. In like vein, protection can increase growth in models of the Grossman-Helpman type if it stimulates investment in the research intensive sectors due to higher expected returns.¹³

The profusion of theoretical arguments suggests that the search for a single invariant link between trade orientation and growth thus may be misguided: the effect of trade orientation may well depend on the structural characteristics of the economy and the precise format of the liberalization effort.

3.2. Trade and growth: evidence

To date, the richness of theoretical models has only found a limited reflection in empirical work which predominantly continues to search for an invariant link between trade and growth.¹⁴ The results of empirical studies continue to be mixed.¹⁵

We begin our examination of the link between trade-orientation and growth on a similarly aggregate level before turning to informal tests of some of the novel hypotheses advocated by the endogenous growth literature. The distortion indices used throughout (Orientation) is the ratio of the residual from the regression of trade on endowments to the trade variable, i.e., the percentage by which endowments under or overpredict trade.

Column 2 in Table 15 reports the regression results for the entire sample. The per capita growth rate of output is regressed on the initial level, the years of primary and secondary education per worker, the savings rate and the two trade orientation proxies. Initial per capital output enters negatively and within the predicted numerical range. Higher human capital levels are associated with higher growth rates, as is a higher savings rate. Increased export orientation enters positively, increased import orientation negatively; at two tailed significance levels of 17 and 24 percent.

Column two instead uses dummies for the sign patterns of the export and import orientation variables for the levels. Relative to outward orientation for both exports and imports, inward orientation on exports lowers the growth rate by 0.99 percent per year while inward orientation on imports reduces the growth

¹³ See also Rodrick (1989, 1992).

¹⁴ General overviews of the trade growth literature can be found in Bhagwati (1987), Bliss (1989), Diaz-Alejandro (1975), Evans (1989) and the World Development Report of 1987 and 1991.

¹⁵ See Agosin (1991), Banuri (1990) Dollar (1992), Edwards (1989, 1991, 1992) and Harrison (1991) for recent analyses.

rate by 0.4 percent per year. Inward orientation for both imports and exports reduces the growth rate by 0.75 percent.

TABLE 15
GROWTH REGRESSIONS

	All Countries			
	Coeff.	t-Stat.	Coeff.	t-Stat.
Constant	-0.0365	3.31	-0.0311	
1975 Output per worker	-0.0108	1.83	-0.0106	
Education				
- Primary	0.0009	0.95	0.0007	
- Secondary	0.0049	1.85	0.0048	
Savings	0.1839	4.01	0.1900	
Export	2.4E-05	0.46		
Import	-0.0005	0.30		
Positive X			-0.0044	0.55
Negative M				
Negative X			-0.0075	1.15
Negative M				
Negative X			-0.0099	0.95
Positive M				
R ²	0.32		0.34	
No. of Observations	73		73	
Degrees of Freedom	66		65	
Mean of Dep. Var.	0.013		0.013	
Standard Error	0.023		0.023	

Table 16 disaggregates by development level, using the World Bank classification.¹⁶ The results display considerable disparity. Intra-group

¹⁶ Group 1: Least developed countries, Group 2 and 3 Lower and Upper Middle Income, Group 4: Industrialized Countries.

convergence appears considerably weaker than inter-group convergence. Primary education becomes more important with development while secondary education exerts the strongest influence on growth for the lower middle income group. Domestic savings rates are of increasing importance for the three lower groups but play a lesser role for the industrialized world.

TABLE 16

GROWTH REGRESSIONS

	Group 1		Group 2		Group 3		Group 4	
	Coef.	t-Stat.	Coef.	t-Stat.	Coef.	t-Stat.	Coef	t-Stat.
Constant	0.0095	0.32	-0.0154	0.78	-0.0282	0.64	-0.0311	0.58
1975 Output per worker	0.0064	0.28	-0.0281	2.30	-0.0194	1.13	0.0022	0.16
Education								
- Primary	-0.0065	1.79	-0.0008	0.36	-0.0017	0.82	0.0018	0.90
- Secondary	-0.0108	0.60	0.0184	2.01	0.0096	1.27	0.0025	0.95
Savings	0.0250	0.21	0.1000	1.25	0.3033	2.51	0.0484	1.03
Export	4.5E-05	0.89	0.0001	1.40	0.0019	0.66	0.0067	1.52
Import	-0.0019	1.04	-0.0050	1.28	-0.0004	0.04	-0.0031	1.28
R ²	0.60		0.41		0.53		0.55	
No. of Observations	13		26		19		14	
Degrees of Freedom	6		19		12		7	
Mean of Dep. Var.	-0.012		0.013		0.023		0.022	
Standard Error	0.017		0.023		0.026		0.008	

The trade orientation variables have gained significance relative to the overall regressions. For all four subsamples, increased export orientation raises growth rates, with a coefficient increasing in the development level. In contrast, an increased import orientation lowers uniformly lowers growth rates. For the two lower income groups, an equal percentage increase in exports and imports reduces the growth rate, while for the two upper income groups, a positive net effect emerges.

4. CONCLUSION

The paper constructs a new measure of trade distortion based on the deviation of actual exports and imports of manufactures from the levels predicted from a relative factor endowments model. The constructed index is shown to pass a number of intuitive checks. The paper then examines the trade growth link. The results indicate that countries with exports levels exceeding and import levels falling short of predicted levels enjoy the highest growth rates.

Table 1. Trade Distortion Regressions

Variable	Group 1				Group 2				Group 3			
	Coef.	SE	t-stat	Prob.	Coef.	SE	t-stat	Prob.	Coef.	SE	t-stat	Prob.
Imports	1.04	0.000	1.04	0.000	1.28	0.004	1.28	0.004	0.94	0.001	0.94	0.001
Exports	-4.25	0.000	-4.25	0.000	-1.40	0.009	-1.40	0.009	0.66	0.000	0.66	0.000
Savings	0.025	0.000	0.025	0.000	0.000	0.000	0.000	0.000	0.000	0.000	0.000	0.000
Human Capital	0.010	0.000	0.010	0.000	0.000	0.000	0.000	0.000	0.000	0.000	0.000	0.000
Government	0.000	0.000	0.000	0.000	0.000	0.000	0.000	0.000	0.000	0.000	0.000	0.000
Constant	0.000	0.000	0.000	0.000	0.000	0.000	0.000	0.000	0.000	0.000	0.000	0.000
Observations	12											
Mean of Dep. Var.	0.012											
Standard Error	0.012											
R ²	0.000											
F-statistic	0.000											
Prob > F	0.000											
Mean of Square	0.000											
Adjusted R ²	0.000											
Mean of Vars	0.000											
Standard Error	0.000											

The trade orientation variable has gained significance relative to the previous regressions. For all four subsamples, increased export orientation raises growth rates, with a coefficient increase in the development level. In contrast, an increase in import orientation lowers growth rates. For the two lower income groups, an equal percentage increase in exports and imports reduces the growth rate, while for the two upper income groups, a positive net effect emerges.

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