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by
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ORGANISATION FOR ECONOMIC CO-OPERATION AND DEVELOPMENT

# LABOUR PRODUCTIVITY LEVELS IN OECD COUNTRIES: ESTIMATES FOR MANUFACTURING AND SELECTED SERVICE SECTORS 

This paper provides estimates of labour productivity levels in OECD manufacturing, for 9 countries and 36 industrial sectors. It also provides an overview of some of the available evidence on cross-country productivity differences in the service sector. The paper uses industry-specific conversion factors to calculate productivity levels, based on available industry-of-origin studies and material from the expenditure approach to international comparisons. After a discussion of some methodological issues, the paper describes the estimation of manufacturing productivity levels in detail, while also referring to some other recent work on the issue. The variation in cross-country productivity levels appears to be quite large in the OECD area, suggesting that there may be scope for further productivity catch-up in many countries and many sectors.

## NIVEAU DE PRODUCTIVITÉ DU TRAVAIL DANS LES PAYS DE L'OCDE : ESTIMATIONS POUR LES INDUSTRIES MANUFACTURIÈRES ET CERTAINES BRANCHES DU SECTEUR TERTIAIRE

Cet article fournit les estimations des niveaux de la productivité du travail dans les industries manufacturières de l'OCDE, pour 9 pays et 36 secteurs industriels. Il fournit également une vue d'ensemble sur les signes manifestes de différences de productivité dans les secteurs des services entre ces pays. L'article utilise des facteurs de conversion propres à l'industrie pour calculer des niveaux de productivité, fondés sur les études disponibles relatives à l'approche sectorielle et la documentation issue de l'approche par la dépense pour les comparaisons internationales. Après avoir discuté de quelques problèmes méthodologiques, l'article décrit en détail l'estimation des niveaux de productivité dans les industries manufacturières, tout en renvoyant à quelques récents travaux sur le sujet. La comparaison des niveaux de productivité fait apparaître une dispersion assez grande dans la zone de l'OCDE, ce qui semble indiquer la possibilité pour beaucoup de pays et de secteurs d'un rattrapage supplémentaire en matière de productivité.

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# LABOUR PRODUCTIVITY LEVELS IN OECD COUNTRIES: ESTIMATES FOR MANUFACTURING AND SELECTED SERVICE SECTORS 

Dirk Pilat ${ }^{1}$

## 1. Introduction

Labour productivity is the most important determinant of a country's income level. Slow productivity growth limits the rate at which real incomes can improve and also increases the likelihood of conflicting demands concerning the distribution of income (Englander and Gurney, 1994). Comparisons of productivity growth are a standard tool of economic analysis, but comparisons of productivity levels are less frequently made, although they can indicate the relative standing of a country and yield useful insights in the potential for further productivity growth and catch-up.

At the level of total GDP, comparisons of labour productivity levels are quite simple to make. Estimates of GDP, population and employment are available for most countries, and the work of the International Comparisons Programme (ICP) has provided a set of purchasing power parities (PPPs) at the GDP level that are suitable for the conversion of total GDP to a common currency (e.g. OECD, 1992, 1996). An overview of income and productivity levels across the OECD area is provided in Table 1. ${ }^{2}$ The United States, Luxembourg and Switzerland have income levels substantially above the OECD average, whereas Greece, Mexico and Turkey are at the bottom of the OECD income range.

A country's level of income can be de-composed in a factor that indicates how many persons in each country work (the employment/population ratio) and a labour productivity term. As indicated in the second column of Table 1, the first ratio differs substantially among countries, with the United States, Japan, Luxembourg, Switzerland and the Scandinavian countries have a high proportion of the total population at work, whereas this ratio is very low in Spain and Turkey. ${ }^{3}$ The variation in labour productivity (GDP per person engaged) is also quite large across countries, however, with relatively high labour productivity levels being estimated for the United States, Italy, Belgium and Luxembourg and very low levels of labour productivity in Greece, Mexico, Portugal and Turkey. Adjusting for hours worked changes these cross-country patterns somewhat, as workers in several continental European countries work

1. I am grateful to Bart van Ark for providing me some of his data and helping with the basic material. Helpful comments were provided by Bart van Ark, Sveinbjorn Blöndal, Jørgen Elmeskov, Michael Feiner, Robert Ford, Joaquim Oliveira Martins, Stefano Scarpetta and Nick Vanston. I am indebted to Hervé Bource, Catherine Chapuis, Martine Levasseur, Brenda Livsey-Coates, Sandra Raymond and Jean-Philippe Spector for their assistance.
2. The information for the Czech Republic, Hungary and Poland was insufficient to make these calculations.
3. If calculated over the total population, the employment/population ratio also reflects demographic factors. To better reflect the utilisation of available labour resources, employment/population ratios are mostly calculated over the working-age (15-64) population [e.g. Employment Outlook (OECD, 1996a)].
only few annual hours. Consequently, labour productivity in these countries is higher in terms of GDP per hour worked than in terms of GDP per person employed. Among the OECD countries shown in Table 1, GDP per hour worked is the highest in the United States, Italy, Belgium and the Netherlands, and the lowest in Mexico.

Estimates of labour productivity levels for the economy as a whole do not provide insights in the sectoral composition of productivity. It is possible that countries are highly productive in one sector, but are among the laggards in another. Such differences are important in helping to determine in which sectors there may be scope for additional productivity growth and catch-up with other countries and in which sectors countries are likely to be near the productivity edge.

Productivity comparisons at the sectoral level are less simple to make than for the economy as a whole. The main problem that has to be confronted is the lack of appropriate sector-specific conversion factors. Exchange rates are not suitable, since they are strongly influenced by monetary phenomena, and in general do not reflect real price differences between countries. The PPP for total GDP is also not suitable, as it does not reflect the variation in price levels across sectors. In principle, industry-specific conversion factors are required that reflect price differentials across countries for the industry in question.

This paper addresses this issue, i.e. the comparison of sectoral output to a common currency, and provides some comparisons of productivity levels at the sectoral level. The next section discusses some methodological issues. Subsequently, detailed estimates of labour productivity levels in the manufacturing sector are presented, and some evidence on productivity differences in the service sector is also provided. The final section draws some conclusions.

## 2. Approaches to the measurement of productivity levels

### 2.1 The production approach

In principle, the appropriate conversion factors for productivity comparisons at the sectoral level need to be derived from a comparison of producer prices for specific goods. Such prices are sampled for most countries for the construction of the overall producer price index, but these data are generally confidential and not available for outside analysis. Another source of producer price information -- for manufactured products -- is the census of manufacturing industries. Most countries publish such a census, which shows production values and output quantities for a range of products, in principle allowing the comparison of producer prices and the derivation of appropriate conversion factors. This approach, the "industry-of-origin" or production approach, has been used in a range of studies, starting with some early work at OEEC (Paige and Bombach, 1959). Recently, most efforts in this area have been made by a group of researchers at the University of Groningen (Van Ark and Pilat, 1993; Pilat, 1994; Van Ark, 1995, 1996).

There are a number of problems involved in using the production approach:

- The "prices" derived from the manufacturing census relate to average prices or "unit values" (i.e. values divided by quantities). If a country is producing a wide range of qualities and varieties of a particular good, the "price" is rather crude for comparative purposes. In a crosscountry context, this may imply that quality differences between countries are not properly accounted for. This issue is less likely to be a problem for industries producing relatively homogeneous goods.
- Unit values are available only for a sample of goods, and can be compared among countries for an even smaller sample, partly because of confidentiality problems. In addition, the production structure of countries tends to be far less comparable than the consumption structure, implying that many industries can not be covered. Both problems imply that the unit values only cover part of the manufacturing sector, and that an aggregation procedure is required to cover manufacturing as a whole.
- The third major problem is double deflation. Comparisons of labour productivity or total factor productivity levels are generally based on value added by industry, which implies, in principle, that conversion measures for both output and intermediate input are required. In practice, conversion factors for intermediate input are very difficult to derive in a cross-country context. Most studies have therefore tended to apply the conversion factors at the producer level directly to value added (i.e. single deflation, see Van Ark, 1996).

The results of the production approach have been scrutinised in a number of studies. The results of a comparison for Germany, Japan and the United States (Van Ark and Pilat, 1993) were carefully checked by work at McKinsey (McKinsey, 1993; Baily and Gersbach, 1995; Gersbach and Van Ark, 1995). The McKinsey work profited from detailed knowledge by industry experts and firm-specific price information. Substantial changes were made to some price comparisons (mainly for investment goods), but price comparisons for more homogeneous products (iron and steel, beer) remained mostly unchanged. The overall perspective on Japanese and German productivity performance also changed little.

### 2.2 The use of expenditure PPPs for productivity comparisons

Although the production approach is theoretically the correct approach to sectoral productivity comparisons, it is, as indicated above, not without some measurement problems. Some authors have therefore used the more widely available price information on the expenditure side (Jorgenson and Kuroda, 1992). This type of information is available for all OECD Member countries at a fairly disaggregated level and new comparisons of this type are made on a regular basis. Extensive data sets are available for 1985 (OECD, 1987) and 1990 (OECD, 1992, 1993), and a new comparison for 1993 has been published recently (OECD, 1996). The 1990 price comparisons covered about 2500 goods and services, and detailed comparisons are available for about 220 "basic headings". The price comparisons are based on detailed product descriptions, which generally ensures a rather high quality of the price comparisons.

In principle, the price comparisons for basic headings can be "mapped" into an industrial classification for manufacturing (Annex Table 1), e.g. OECD's STAN database (OECD, 1995). The comparisons cover most goods produced in the following industries: beverages, tobacco, clothing, footwear, furniture, pharmaceutical products, toilet goods and investment goods (machinery and equipment), including passenger motor vehicles. The comparisons also cover some items in food products, textiles, printing and publishing, petroleum products, pottery and china, metal products and other manufacturing. However, these industries also include a large number of intermediate goods, that are not covered by the expenditure comparisons. The expenditure comparisons do not provide any price data for leather products, wood products, paper products, basic chemicals and basic metals.

There are five problems in using expenditure PPPs for sectoral productivity comparisons:

- Distribution and transport margins. PPPs on the expenditure side are based on comparisons of prices at the retail (for most consumer goods) or wholesale (for most investment goods) level.

This implies that distribution and transport margins are added to the producer price, and that cross-country differences in the size of these margins affect the measured producer price level.

- Indirect taxes less subsidies. Prices at the expenditure level include indirect taxes less subsidies, implying that differences in VAT and other indirect taxes (duties) across countries affect the measurement of the producer price level.
- International trade. International productivity comparisons should be based on the output produced in a country. However, part of this output is exported and not counted in comparisons of expenditure prices, while imported goods are taken into account in expenditure comparisons, but should be excluded for producer price comparisons.
- Intermediate goods. Expenditure comparisons only cover goods entering final consumption (see above). Intermediate goods, that form the bulk of output in many sectors of the economy, are not covered.
- Double deflation. Even after "peeling off" distribution margins and net indirect taxes, and after adjusting for international trade, the prices derived still refer to output only. No information is available on prices of intermediate goods that would allow double deflation.

Despite these problems, several studies have used expenditure PPPs, while often making crude adjustments for the first two or three problems. The fourth problem, that of intermediate goods, can not be addressed if only expenditure PPPs are used. Most studies of this type appear to use prices of goods related to intermediate goods to fill these gaps. The fifth problem, that of double deflation, is inherent to international comparisons on the production side and no satisfactory solution is available.

Providing data are available on the distribution margin ( $\delta$ ) by country (and preferably by sector), it is fairly simple to adjust for distribution margins (Hooper and Vrankovich, 1995). If the expenditure PPP between the country j and the United States in industry i is defined as:

$$
E P P P_{i j}=\frac{P E_{i j}}{P E_{i u s}}
$$

then the PPP adjusted for distribution margins is defined as:

$$
E P P P_{i j}^{m}=\frac{P E_{i j} /\left(1+\delta_{i j}\right)}{P E_{i u s} /\left(1+\delta_{i u s}\right)}
$$

This implies that if distribution margins in country j exceed those in the United States, the expenditure PPP adjusted for distribution margins will be below the unadjusted PPP.

A similar adjustment can be made for taxes and subsidies:

$$
E P P P_{i j}^{t}=\frac{1+\left(T_{i u s}-S_{i u s}\right) / V A_{i u s}}{1+\left(T_{i j}-S_{i j}\right) / V A_{i j}} * E P P P_{i j}^{m}
$$

where $T_{i j}$ and $S_{i j}$ indicate taxes collected from sector $i$ and subsidies received by sector $i$, respectively, in country j and $\mathrm{VA}_{\mathrm{ij}}$ is the value added of sector i in country j . If net indirect taxes are higher in country j than in the United States, this adjustment will tend to lower the observed price ratio.

An adjustment for international trade is less simple to make (Hooper and Vrankovich, 1995), as information on the price levels of exports, imports and domestic production is required. Although some simplifying assumptions can be made, no simple solution is available and many productivity comparisons based on expenditure PPPs (Jorgenson and Kuroda, 1992; Kuroda, 1996) have not addressed this problem.

### 2.3 Measuring productivity levels in service sectors

Much of the work on international productivity comparisons pertains to the manufacturing sector. The measurement of output in services is difficult enough at the national level, and volume series in many service sectors remain based on input-measurement (OECD, 1996b). The comparison of output and productivity across countries is confronted with even greater difficulties.

However, for some services, crude comparisons of productivity across countries are possible. For instance, in electricity, transport and communication, physical measures form a relatively sound basis to measure real output, and output can thus be easily compared across countries.

For some other services (e.g. distribution, construction) appropriate expenditure PPPs can be used to convert real output to a common currency, as prices of these services are only little influenced by trade and transport margins and international trade also plays a small role. However, for several service sectors, including many social and community services, output measurement remains a problem and international comparisons are still difficult to make.

## 3. Productivity levels on the basis of a mixed approach

### 3.1 The manufacturing sector

## Estimates of relative price levels

Where the measurement of productivity in manufacturing is concerned, it appears that there are advantages and disadvantages to both the production and expenditure approaches. The production approach has the merit of basing its price information directly on the producer price concept. This is in contrast to the expenditure approach, where a number of adjustments are required, potentially introducing substantial measurement errors. The production approach is also the only approach that allows the derivation of price information for intermediate goods. However, for investment goods the production approach tends to offer less information. In principle, detailed productivity comparisons might benefit from a mix of the two approaches. Price comparisons from the production approach might be used for industries producing homogeneous goods, and for industries where more detailed production-type comparisons have been made (e.g. the McKinsey studies). Expenditure-based price comparisons (properly adjusted) might be used for industries producing heterogeneous consumption or investment goods.

The choice of conversion factors can have a substantial impact on the measured productivity level in manufacturing. Table 2 shows some alternatives that have been used in the recent literature. The first column shows the PPP for total GDP. Some institutes, e.g. the Japan Productivity Center, have used this PPP for the conversion of sectoral value added. It is likely to be substantially biased for such comparisons, however, as the variation in price levels across sectors can be quite large, depending for instance on their exposure to international competition or the degree of domestic competition. The second column shows PPPs that are based on expenditure PPPs for manufactured goods, and that have been adjusted for trade and transport margins, taxes and subsidies and the impact of international trade (Hooper
and Vrankovich, 1995). These PPPs are quite a bit higher than those for total expenditure. As indicated above, they are likely to be biased as they exclude intermediate goods.

The third and fourth column show PPPs based on a pure industry-of-origin approach and PPPs from the mixed approach as used in this study (see below), respectively. The industry-of-origin PPPs are quite different from the expenditure-based PPPs, in particular for Japan. The PPPs from the mixed approach are in most cases somewhat higher than the industry-of-origin approach, although the difference is quite small in some cases. However, Table 2 only shows PPPs for total manufacturing and the variation at the sectoral level between the different approaches tends to be much larger.

For the reasons outlined above, this paper uses a mix of industry-of-origin and expenditure PPPs for the conversion of value added to a common currency. Detailed productivity comparisons could be made for nine countries (United States, Japan, Germany, France, United Kingdom, Canada, Australia, Netherlands and Sweden). The base (or benchmark) year for the comparison is 1987, as many industry-oforigin studies have used this year as the reference year. Industry-of-origin price comparisons for the nine countries (see source note to Annex Table 7) were used where possible, and could be applied in more than 65 per cent of all cases. These price ratios are all based on binary price comparisons between the United States and one other country ${ }^{4}$. Conversion factors from the McKinsey studies were used for Japan and Germany for those industries where these estimates were available (Gersbach and Van Ark, 1995).

For the other cases, expenditure PPPs, adjusted for net indirect tax rates and industry-specific distribution margins, were applied. ${ }^{5}$ The expenditure PPPs are based on the ICP comparison for 1985 (Annex Table 1), and are updated to 1987 using value added deflators by industry from OECD's STAN data-base. Subsequently, they are adjusted for industry-specific distribution margins and net indirect taxes. Distribution margins and net indirect taxes by industry are derived from country-specific input-output tables (Annex Table 2). Nevertheless, for about 20 cases no suitable PPP was available from either the production or expenditure side, or the basic data were inadequate, implying that no productivity level could be estimated.

1987 relative price levels for each industry are provided in Table A3. The Table indicates that for both the European countries and Japan, 1987 manufacturing price levels were on average substantially above US price levels. The relative price levels of Canada and Australia were -- on average -- almost identical to those in the United States. The variation in price levels across industries is considerable, however, particularly in Japan, and to a lesser degree also in France and the Netherlands.

[^0]5. The shaded figures in Table A3 are based on (adjusted) expenditure PPPs.

## Estimates of productivity levels

Following the derivation of the PPPs, the main problem for the estimation of productivity levels is the availability of a suitable and comparable data-base. The starting point for data collection was OECD's STAN database (OECD, 1995), and the industry detail presented in that database. However, the STAN database is closely linked to the national accounts of each country, which often implies that output and employment information are not derived from consistent data sources (Van Ark, 1996). In addition, since STAN is an estimated data-base, some of the industry data appeared to be implausible when compared across countries. For most countries, detailed information was therefore derived from national production censuses (Annex Tables 4 and 5). These sources have the advantage that output and employment information are based on the same source ${ }^{6}$. Furthermore, the industry detail available in production censuses often allows the reclassification of industries to achieve cross-country comparability. An adjustment for hours worked was based on the estimates of hours worked in the country-specific studies (Annex Table 6).

A first sample of evidence on the basis of the industry-of-origin approach is presented in Table 3. It presents estimates of absolute levels of labour productivity (value added per person engaged and per hour worked) in the manufacturing sector over the period 1960-95, based on the mixed approach for the nine countries mentioned above and on available industry-of-origin studies for the other countries. The average productivity performance of the United States continues to outrank that of the other major economies (Japan, Germany and France), although Japan in particular has made considerable productivity gains over the past decades. High labour productivity levels, in particular in terms of hours worked, are estimated for Belgium, Finland, the Netherlands and Sweden. Although substantially smaller than the first four economies, the manufacturing sectors in these countries are highly specialised and, apart from Sweden, relatively capital-intensive, leading to a very high level of labour productivity. In the middle of the OECD productivity range are a number of follower countries (the United Kingdom, Australia and Spain) with much lower productivity levels, although in particular the United Kingdom and Spain have made substantial progress over the past decades. Canada's productivity performance used to place it among the top performers, but its productivity level has fallen significantly over the past decade. The bottom range of productivity performance in Table 3 is made up by Mexico and Portugal, that are still quite far behind in productivity levels ${ }^{7}$. The Table also suggests that US productivity performance improved relative to many countries in the 1980s.

More detailed estimates of labour productivity levels, for selected manufacturing industries and on the basis of the mixed approach outlined above, are presented in Table 4. It shows benchmark estimates for 1987 and updated estimates for 1993. The countries included in the Table cover only a sample of
6. The production census data are discussed in more detail in the country-specific industry-of-origin studies quoted in Annex Table 7 and in Van Ark (1996). The detailed data on value added, employment and hours worked by industry are presented in Annex Tables 4 to 6.
7. Table 4 shows only estimates of labour productivity. However, the high share of labour compensation in total value added implies that labour productivity levels tend to be a reasonable approximation of TFP levels. TFP levels are more difficult to calculate as the measurement of real capital stocks across countries poses several methodological difficulties (Blades, 1993; Maddison, 1993). Annex Table 8 presents some estimates of capital intensity for detailed manufacturing industries, based on OECD estimates of capital stock by industry, whereas Annex Table 9 present some estimates of TFP levels. However, these data are far less reliable than estimates of labour productivity levels and should therefore be interpreted with care.
productivity experience within the $O E C D$, but their productivity performance is relatively well documented in a range of country-specific studies ${ }^{8}$. Table 4 suggests that the United States remains the productivity leader for total manufacturing, but also indicates that the leadership in particular manufacturing industries has become more diversified ${ }^{9}$. In 1987, the United States was the productivity leader in food products and electrical machinery, the Netherlands in textiles and chemical products, Japan in basic metal products and Sweden in metal products. In 1993, some of these relative positions had changed, with Swedish productivity performance in particular improving substantially. Furthermore, there appears to be a shared leadership in several industries, e.g. in food products (United States and the Netherlands) and in transport equipment (United States, Japan). The Table also shows that the intersectoral variation in productivity performance, as expressed in the coefficient of variation, is by far the largest in Japan. This indicates that whereas some industries in Japan are among the world productivity leaders, others are relatively far behind (McKinsey, 1993; Van Ark and Pilat, 1993).

More evidence on cross-country differences in labour productivity, although specific to individual countries, is available from a range of country-specific case studies, primarily those from the McKinsey Global Institute (McKinsey, 1993, 1994, 1995) and the National Institute of Economic and Social Research (Steedman and Wagner, 1989). These studies compared the productivity levels of two or more OECD countries for individual industries, and found large differences in performance across the OECD area. Table 5 shows some of the evidence for selected manufacturing industries in seven OECD countries. ${ }^{10}$ In food products, the United States is the undisputed productivity leader, with particularly Japan trailing far behind. In motor vehicles, Japan and the United States are the world productivity leaders, clearly outperforming the European countries. In computer equipment, there appear to be only small differences between the three countries for which data are available.

### 3.2 Estimates of productivity levels for service sectors

Tables 3 and 4 above indicate a wide variation in productivity performance in manufacturing sectors, both within countries and across countries. Given the low degree of international and domestic competition in several services, low productivity can be expected to be even more common there. Data constraints do not permit a thorough analysis for every service sector, however, although most of the available evidence points to a considerable cross-country variation in productivity levels (Table 6).

In electricity, labour productivity comparisons can be based on the quantity of electricity produced per person employed. Productivity differs widely between countries, with the United States, Japan, Canada and Norway having the highest productivity levels. Apart from Japan, these countries are


#### Abstract

8. The productivity estimates in Table 4 differ somewhat from those in the country-specific industry-oforigin studies quoted in Annex Table 7 because of two main methodological differences. First, the country-specific studies do not calculate PPPs for each separate industry separately, but generally apply the PPP of a comparable industry, whereas the current study applies expenditure-based PPPs to these industries. Second, the industry breakdown in the current study is more detailed than that of the country-specific studies, which affects the aggregate productivity estimate.


9. Table 4 presents results only for the largest sectors. More detailed estimates, for 35 manufacturing industries, are available in Annex Table 7.
10. The productivity estimates in Table 5 differ somewhat from those in Table 4 and Table A7, primarily due to some differences in the basic data. However, the main trust of the results tends to be the same.
characterised by favourable resource endowments, allowing the utilisation of abundant hydro-power. However, the variation in productivity is also quite large among the other countries.

Productivity comparisons in the distribution sector are often based on expenditure PPPs for goods (see Baily, 1993; Pilat, 1994), and can be based either on sales or value added per employee. Substantial differences in productivity performance exist within this sector, suggesting sizeable scope for efficiency improvement in several countries. The highest levels of labour productivity are estimated for the United States, France, Germany, Belgium and Luxembourg, whereas relatively low productivity levels are estimated for Japan, the United Kingdom and some of the low-income OECD economies. To some extent, differences in labour productivity in this sector are related to structural characteristics, such as land prices and population density, although regulatory factors also appear to contribute to differences in productivity performance (Høj, Kato and Pilat, 1996).

Comparisons of labour productivity in the construction sector can also be based on expenditure PPPs, as these include measures of the relative costs of construction projects across the OECD (OECD, 1996). Output and productivity in this sector are quite cyclical, however, implying that productivity differences may partly depend on the position of a country in the business cycle. There appears to be a considerable variation in labour productivity in this sector, with Portugal and Turkey having the lowest labour productivity levels among the OECD economies.

For the airline sector, productivity comparisons can be based on the number of passenger or ton kilometres flown. The available estimates indicate considerable differences in cost efficiency between countries. The highest cost levels tend to be found in continental Europe (including Ireland), and the lowest in Australia, the United States, the United Kingdom, Finland and New Zealand. Among the larger countries, the high costs levels of Japan and France stand out. To some extent, differences in cost efficiency reflect differences in stage length, with longer flights leading to lower costs.

In telecommunications, productivity can be calculated in several ways (OECD, 1995a). Two standard measures are revenue per employee (converted by PPPs) and mainlines per employee (Table 6). Both indicators suggest that productivity is relatively low in many of the smaller European countries. Among the large countries, productivity appears particularly low in the German telecommunications industry.

Some comparisons of productivity have also been made for postal services and railways. Output in these sectors can be based on physical measures. Unfortunately, some of the available material has a relatively historical character, implying that they are of little value for analytical purposes. Nevertheless, cross-country productivity differences appear quite large in these sectors as well.

Some evidence on productivity differences in services can also be drawn from more detailed industry-specific comparisons across countries (Baily, 1993; McKinsey, 1992, 1994, 1995; Table 5). These studies cover the experience of selected service industries in the United States, Japan, Germany, France, Italy, the United Kingdom, Spain and Sweden. On the whole, they confirm the existence of considerable slack in services in many countries and considerable variation in productivity performance across countries.

## 4. Concluding remarks

This paper has provided an overview of some recent evidence on cross-country productivity differences. In both manufacturing and services, the variation in productivity across countries is quite
large. In principle, this implies a substantial potential for further productivity growth in many countries. The great variation in productivity levels may also indicate that structural factors, such as regulation or openness to international competition, inhibit productivity growth in some sectors.

It remains important to decompose and interpret cross-country differences in productivity levels. If they are mostly due to natural or structural characteristics, e.g. as some of the variation in productivity in the electricity industry appears to be, the scope for catch-up across countries may be less than if productivity differences are due to an unexplored potential for growth.

This paper is among the first that has combined price material from both the production and the expenditure approach, to allow the comparison of productivity levels for detailed manufacturing industries. This approach can possibly be applied to a wider range of countries, as it allows to combine the advantages of both approaches.

Finally, this paper has looked primarily into differences in labour productivity, as capital stocks remain difficult to compare across countries. However, comparisons of total factor productivity differences remain important, as they can help to derive further insights in the scope for catch-up.

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Table 1: Income and Labour Productivity Levels in OECD Member Countries, 1994

|  | $\begin{gathered} \text { GDP per } \\ \text { Capita } \\ (\mathrm{OECD}=100) \end{gathered}$ | Employment/ <br> Population <br> Ratio, 1994 | GDP per <br> Person <br> Engaged $(\mathrm{OECD}=100)$ | Annual <br> Hours <br> Worked per Person |  | GDP per Hour Worked ( $\mathrm{OECD}=100$ ) |
| :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: |
| United States | 136.8 | 47.2 | 123.4 | 1,611 |  | 121.5 |
| Japan | 111.3 | 51.6 | 91.8 | 1,812 |  | 80.3 |
| Germany | 105.5 | 42.9 | 104.6 | 1,529 |  | 108.5 |
| France | 103.0 | 38.5 | 113.9 | 1,524 |  | 118.4 |
| Italy | 100.2 | 35.2 | 121.3 | 1,482 |  | 129.7 |
| United Kingdom | 94.7 | 43.8 | 92.0 | 1,498 |  | 97.4 |
| Canada | 109.4 | 45.4 | 102.5 | 1,676 |  | 97.0 |
| Australia | 98.6 | 44.5 | 94.2 | 1,657 |  | 90.2 |
| Austria | 108.4 | 43.0 | 107.4 | 1,576 | 1 | 108.0 |
| Belgium | 108.2 | 36.4 | 126.5 | 1,581 | 1 | 126.9 |
| Denmark | 110.2 | 47.5 | 98.9 | 1,638 | 1 | 95.7 |
| Finland | 86.9 | 39.8 | 93.1 | 1,654 |  | 89.2 |
| Greece | 60.7 | 36.3 | 71.1 | 1,720 | 1 | 65.5 |
| Iceland | 103.4 | 47.2 | 92.5 | n.a. |  | n.a. |
| Ireland | 81.6 | 34.3 | 101.2 | 1,700 | 1 | 94.4 |
| Luxembourg | 158.0 | 52.5 | 128.3 | n.a. |  | n.a. |
| Mexico | 38.8 | 34.9 | 47.4 | 2,079 |  | 36.1 |
| Netherlands | 99.7 | 38.5 | 110.3 | 1,321 |  | 132.4 |
| New Zealand | 87.1 | 44.2 | 83.9 | 1,851 | 2 | 71.9 |
| Norway | 117.8 | 46.9 | 107.0 | 1,462 |  | 116.0 |
| Portugal | 66.2 | 42.6 | 66.1 | 1,704 |  | 61.4 |
| Spain | 72.8 | 30.0 | 103.5 | 1,903 |  | 86.3 |
| Sweden | 93.4 | 44.7 | 89.0 | 1,563 |  | 90.3 |
| Switzerland | 128.4 | 54.0 | 101.2 | 1,647 |  | 97.5 |
| Turkey | 28.3 | 32.5 | 37.1 | n.a. |  | n.a. |
| OECD | 100.0 | 42.6 | 100.0 | 1,585 |  | 100.0 |

1) Hours worked are for 1992. 2) Hours worked are from 1996 Employment Outlook.

Source: GDP per capita and population based on OECD National Accounts - Main
Aggregates, 1960-1994, Paris, 1996; Employment from OECD Analytical Database;
Hours worked for 1992 from Maddison (1995), updated to 1994 with time series from 1996 Employment Outlook.

Table 2: Alternative conversion Factors for Manufacturing Output, 1990
(national currency units per US\$)

|  | Expenditure <br> PPP for Total <br> GDP | Expenditure PPP, <br> adjusted for <br> margins and <br> imports/exports | Industry-of- <br> Origin <br> PPP $^{1}$ | PPP from <br> Mixed <br> approach | Exchange <br> Rate |
| :--- | :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: |
|  |  |  |  |  |  |
| United States | 1.00 | 1.00 | 1.00 | 1.00 | 1.00 |
| Japan | 195.0 | 217.9 | 154.30 | 156.67 | 144.8 |
| Germany | 2.09 | 2.36 | 2.11 | 2.21 | 1.62 |
| France | 6.61 | 8.07 | 7.04 | 7.36 | 5.45 |
| Italy | 1421.0 | 2004.8 | n.a. | n.a. | 1198.1 |
| United Kingdom | 0.60 | 0.79 | 0.73 | 0.71 | 0.56 |
| Canada | 1.30 | 1.43 | 1.32 | 1.38 | 1.17 |
|  |  |  |  |  |  |
| Australia | 1.39 | n.a. | 1.56 | 1.51 | 1.28 |
| Netherlands | 2.16 | n.a. | 2.28 | 2.44 | 1.82 |
| Sweden | 9.34 | n.a. | 8.44 | 8.94 | 5.92 |

1) Industry of origin PPPs and PPPs from mixed approach are originally for 1987, but are updated with deflators for manufacturing value added to 1990 , to make them comparable with the other conversion factors.
Source: Expenditure PPPs are from OECD (1992); Adjusted expenditure PPPs are from Hooper and Vrankovich (1995); Industry-of-origin PPPs are from Van Ark (1996) and studies quoted in Annex Table 7, updated to 1990 with deflators for manufacturing GDP from OECD National Accounts, 1981-1993; PPPs from mixed approach are from Annex Table 3.

Table 3: Relative Labour Productivity Levels in Manufacturing, 1960-95, USA=100

|  | 1960 |  | 1973 |  | 1985 |  | 1995 (a) |  |
| :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: |
|  | Value <br> Added per <br> Person <br> Engaged | Value Added per Hour Worked | Value <br> Added per <br> Person <br> Engaged | Value Added per Hour Worked | Value Added per Person Engaged | Value Added per Hour Worked | Value Added per Person Engaged | Value Added per Hour Worked |
| United States | 100.0 | 100.0 | 100.0 | 100.0 | 100.0 | 100.0 | 100.0 | 100.0 |
| Japan | 25.1 | 19.2 | 55.4 | 48.5 | 78.2 | 68.8 | 74.8 | 72.8 |
| Germany | 60.6 | 56.0 | 72.5 | 76.1 | 75.6 | 86.4 | 63.1 | 81.4 |
| France | 47.5 | 45.9 | 66.0 | 70.0 | 72.3 | 85.8 | 70.1 | 85.1 |
| United Kingdom | 48.6 | 45.0 | 52.0 | 53.6 | 54.7 | 59.7 | 59.6 | 69.7 |
| Canada | 69.1 | 68.5 | 81.3 | 82.5 | 82.0 | 84.3 | 68.4 | 69.6 |
| Australia | 52.9 | 50.5 | 50.2 | 49.9 | 54.2 | 56.5 | 50.3 | 51.7 |
| Belgium | 45.3 | 45.6 | 60.7 | 70.9 | 83.1 | 106.4 | 81.1 | 104.7 |
| Finland | 49.2 | 45.9 | 54.4 | 58.3 | 63.9 | 71.9 | 82.8 | 100.8 |
| Mexico | 26.6 | 24.7 | 34.2 | 32.4 | 34.3 | 31.4 | n.a. | n.a. |
| The Netherlands | 52.8 | 50.8 | 76.8 | 88.2 | 85.8 | 107.1 | 73.7 | 96.5 |
| Portugal (b) | 15.7 | n.a. | 25.3 | n.a. | 23.9 | n.a. | 26.7 | n.a. |
| Spain (b) | 15.4 | 20.4 | 29.2 | 37.8 | 48.8 | 79.8 | 40.1 | 67.6 |
| Sweden | 48.5 | 49.8 | 66.0 | 79.6 | 68.3 | 87.3 | 75.4 | 90.3 |

Note: (a) Or latest available year.
(b) Portugal/USA and Spain/USA are inferential estimates, based on benchmark studies for Portugal/UK and Spain/UK. They are therefore not entirely comparable with the other estimates, but are reported here for completeness.
Source: Based on 1987 benchmark estimates from Table 4, updated with time series from Van Ark (1996) and BLS (1995). Benchmark estimates for Finland/USA, Belgium/USA and Mexico/USA are from Van Ark (1996). Benchmark estimate for Portugal/UK based on Peres Lopes (1994), for Spain/USA from Van Ark (1995a).

Table 4: Manufacturing Labour Productivity Levels in Major OECD Economies, 1987 and 1993
$(\text { Value Added per Hour Worked, Leader Country }=100)^{1}$

| STAN sectors | United | Japan | Germany | France | United <br> Kingdom | Canada | Australia | Nether- | Sweden |
| :--- | :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: |
| lands |  |  |  |  |  |  |  |  |  |

1. The productivity level of the leader country in each industry is indicated in bold.
2. The coefficient of variation is the standard deviation divided by the mean, expressed as a percentage. It is calculated over the 35 industries for which estimates are available (see Table A7).
3. Productivity levels for Germany are for 1992.

Source: Data for 1987 based on Table A7; 1993 updated from 1987 benchmark using output and employment series from OECD's STAN data-base. Hours worked for 1993 are only available for total manufacturing (BLS, 1995). Consequently, the trend in hours worked at the sectoral level is assumed to be identical to the trend for total manufacturing.

Table 5: Productivity Gaps in Case Studies, USA=100

|  | Manufacturing industries |  |  | Services |  |  |
| :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: |
|  | Food products ${ }^{1}$, 1990 | Motor vehicles \& equipment ${ }^{2}$, 1992 | Computers and parts ${ }^{3}$, 1990 | $\begin{gathered} \hline \text { Banking }^{4}, \\ 1992 \end{gathered}$ | $\begin{gathered} \text { Retailing }^{5}, \\ 1990 \end{gathered}$ | Construction ${ }^{6}$, 1990 |
| United States | 100.0 | 100.0 | 100.0 | 100.0 | 100.0 | 100.0 |
| Japan | 32.0 | 118.7 | 95.0 | n.a. | 44.0 | 66.0 |
| Germany | 70.0 | 58.5 | 89.0 | 55.0 | 89.0 | 91.0 |
| France | n.a. | 56.7 | n.a. | 50.0 | 87.0 | 93.0 |
| Spain | n.a. | 40.4 | n.a. | n.a. | 73.0 | 84.0 |
| Italy | n.a. | 39.8 | n.a. | 25.0 | n.a. | 91.0 |
| Sweden | 58.0 | 79.0 | n.a. | 66.0 | 84.0 | 77.0 |

Notes: (1) Value added per hour worked at industry PPPs. See McKinsey (1995).
(2) Value added per employee at industry PPPs. See McKinsey (1994). Productivity level for Sweden refers to passenger cars only.
(3) Value added per hour worked. See Baily and Gersbach (1995).
(4) Transactions per employee in payments and cash withdrawal. See McKinsey (1995).
(5) Value added per full-time equivalent employee in general merchandise retailing. See McKinsey (1995). Productivity level for Japan refers to 1987, see McKinsey (1994).
(6) Value added per employee. See McKinsey (1994).

Source: McKinsey Global Institute (1993, 1994, 1995); Baily and Gersbach (1995).

Table 6: Productivity and Efficiency in Selected Service Industries

|  | Electricity | Distribution |  | Construction | Airlines | Telecommu | ications | Postal Services | Railways |
| :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: |
|  | Gigawatthour per person engaged, 1993 | Distribution GDP per person engaged, 1990 (USA=100) | Retail sales per employee, 1990 (USA=100) | $\begin{aligned} & \text { Construction } \\ & \text { GDP per } \\ & \text { person } \\ & \text { engaged, 1990 } \\ & (\text { USA }=100) \end{aligned}$ | Operating expense per available tonne kilometre, 1993 (US\$) | Revenue per employee, 1992 (USA=100) | Mainlines <br> per 100 <br> inhabi- <br> tants, 1992 | Average technical efficiency, 1975-88 (a) | Average technical efficiency, 1986-88 (b) |
| United States | 8.2 | 100.0 | 100.0 | 100.0 | 0.45 | 100.0 | 56 | n.a. | n.a. |
| Japan | 6.3 | 60.3 | 70.7 | 79.7 | 0.84 | 80.6 | 46 | 0.797 | n.a. |
| Germany | 2.2 | 78.5 | 100.7 | 75.5 | 0.71 | 63.1 | 44 | 0.457 | 0.620 |
| France | 3.8 | 96.6 | 94.8 | 83.3 | 0.88 | 68.3 | 52 | 0.720 | 0.731 |
| Italy | 1.6 | 95.3 | 72.3 | 84.2 | 0.72 | 89.3 | 41 | 0.722 | 0.638 |
| United Kingdom | 2.2 | 59.5 | 77.6 | 62.0 | 0.43 | 68.9 | 45 | 0.850 | 0.746 |
| Canada | 5.5 | 58.4 | n.a. | 148.2 | 0.54 | 73.9 | 59 | n.a. | n.a. |
| Australia | 2.9 | 59.4 | 60.1 | 103.0 | 0.35 | 70.6 | 49 | 0.893 | n.a. |
| Austria | 1.8 | 86.8 | 73.4 | 99.4 | 1.08 | 77.9 | 44 | n.a. | 0.594 |
| Belgium | 3.2 | 105.0 | 94.1 | 90.1 | 1.04 | 58.6 | 43 | 0.600 | 0.630 |
| Denmark | 3.3 | 86.6 | 68.6 | 65.8 | 1.00 | 53.4 | 58 | 0.732 | 0.523 |
| Finland | 3.1 | 56.4 | 85.9 | 94.4 | 0.44 | 48.0 | 54 | 0.198 | 0.653 |
| Greece | 2.5 | 37.1 | 62.2 | n.a. | 0.47 | 36.9 | 44 | 0.387 | 0.564 |
| Iceland | n.a. | 38.3 | 75.1 | 69.1 | n.a. | 39.6 | 54 | n.a. | n.a. |
| Ireland | n.a. | 68.7 | 60.3 | n.a. | 1.46 | 52.7 | 31 | 0.355 | 0.731 |
| Luxembourg | n.a. | 101.3 | 130.1 | 61.6 | n.a. | 132.7 | 61 | 0.787 | 0.562 |
| Netherlands | 3.1 | 95.2 | 54.8 | 69.9 | 0.48 | 88.0 | 49 | 0.924 | 0.797 |
| New Zealand | 3.4 | 77.8 | 85.8 | n.a. | 0.44 | 65.2 | 44 | n.a. | n.a. |
| Norway | 8.0 | 42.3 | 92.9 | 68.5 | 1.10 | 52.2 | 53 | 0.630 | 0.516 |
| Portugal | 1.2 | 45.4 | 52.8 | 38.5 | 0.83 | 58.9 | 31 | n.a. | 0.692 |
| Spain | 3.3 | 77.6 | 45.7 | 86.8 | 0.66 | 74.2 | 40 | n.a. | 0.647 |
| Sweden | 5.6 | 66.4 | 86.9 | 75.2 | 1.01 | 50.4 | 68 | 0.755 | 0.662 |
| Switzerland | n.a. | 115.8 | 78.8 | n.a. | 0.75 | 100.1 | 61 | 0.574 | 0.736 |
| Turkey | n.a. | n.a. | n.a. | 49.1 | n.a. | 27.4 | 16 | n.a. | 0.769 |

a) Defined as output relative to inputs, where output is the sum of the number of letters delivered and the financial operations performed, and inputs include employees, number of motor vehicles and number of postal offices used (see Perelman and Pestieau (1994) for details.
b) See note (a). Output is the combination of gross hauled tonne-kilometres by freight trains and gross hauled tonne-kilometres by passenger trains. The inputs are: engines and railcars, employment, and electrified and non-electrified lines (see Pestieau (1993).
Source: Electricity based on OECD/IEA (1995) and national sources for employment; Distribution GDP per person based on OECD National Accounts and national sources, converted with 1990 PPP for expenditure on goods from OECD (1993); Retail sales per employee based on EC (1993) and national sources, converted with same PPP; Construction based on OECD National Accounts and national sources, converted with 1990 PPP for construction expenditure from OECD (1993); Airlines based on data provided by the Institute of Air Transport, Paris, for major airline companies; Telecommunications from OECD, Communications Outlook 1995, Paris; Postal services from Perelman and Pestieau (1994); Railways from Pestieau (1993).

ANNEX TABLES

Table A1: 1985 Expenditure PPPs for Goods
(National currency values per US dollar)

| STAN sectors | Japan | Germany | France | United <br> Kingdom | Canada | Australia | Nether- <br> lands | Sweden |
| :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: |
| Food Products | 296.8 | 2.42 | 7.53 | 0.56 | 1.27 | 0.98 | 2.55 | 10.90 |
| Beverages | 325.5 | 1.41 | 5.71 | 0.58 | 1.55 | 1.41 | 1.95 | 12.33 |
| Tobacco | 234.0 | 3.57 | 6.59 | 1.20 | 1.85 | 1.35 | 3.05 | 12.53 |
| Textiles | 257.6 | 2.47 | 7.91 | 0.60 | 0.96 | 1.29 | 2.63 | 8.04 |
| Clothing | 235.3 | 2.60 | 7.86 | 0.55 | 1.27 | 1.21 | 2.47 | 10.73 |
| Footwear | 208.8 | 2.40 | 7.52 | 0.53 | 1.60 | 1.44 | 2.41 | 9.90 |
| Furniture | 550.6 | 3.15 | 11.72 | 0.94 | 1.21 | 1.81 | 3.77 | 7.76 |
| Printing, publishing | 285.3 | 3.51 | 8.11 | 0.66 | 1.43 | 1.50 | 4.88 | 11.96 |
| Drugs and medicines | 93.1 | 1.86 | 2.27 | 0.27 | 1.20 | 0.54 | 1.88 | 3.44 |
| Chemical products, nec | 199.6 | 1.84 | 6.15 | 0.44 | 1.18 | 1.15 | 1.97 | 8.53 |
| Petroleum refineries | 411.3 | 4.21 | 17.17 | 1.18 | 1.74 | 1.79 | 5.55 | 13.77 |
| Pottery, china, etc. | 344.1 | 3.75 | 11.66 | 1.20 | 2.17 | 1.49 | 3.53 | 16.44 |
| Metal products | 198.3 | 2.05 | 5.73 | 0.46 | 1.03 | 0.76 | 2.03 | 4.93 |
| Office \& computing machinery | 483.2 | 4.07 | 15.50 | 1.34 | 1.96 | 2.13 | 4.95 | 15.03 |
| Machinery \& equipment, nec | 233.7 | 2.46 | 7.55 | 0.67 | 1.41 | 0.94 | 2.64 | 6.88 |
| Radio, tv \& comm. equipment | 211.3 | 2.28 | 6.05 | 0.39 | 1.33 | 1.05 | 2.45 | 8.85 |
| Electrical apparatus, nec | 224.6 | 2.50 | 8.19 | 0.63 | 1.45 | 1.25 | 2.67 | 7.22 |
| Shipbuilding \& repair | 242.4 | 2.82 | 9.55 | 0.92 | 1.80 | 1.45 | 3.31 | 15.02 |
| Railroad equipment | 191.5 | 3.30 | 12.30 | 1.13 | 2.37 | 1.44 | 3.21 | 14.45 |
| Motor vehicles | 198.4 | 2.21 | 7.03 | 0.73 | 1.14 | 1.44 | 2.67 | 7.42 |
| Motorcycles \& bicycles | 233.9 | 2.38 | n.a. | n.a. | 1.52 | 1.46 | n.a. | 14.80 |
| Aircraft | 367.3 | 2.95 | 9.95 | 0.99 | 1.35 | 1.32 | 3.39 | 13.37 |
| Transport equipment, nec | 212.9 | 2.87 | 8.92 | 0.73 | 1.18 | 1.05 | 3.39 | 10.07 |
| Professional goods | 358.9 | 3.28 | 11.89 | 0.56 | 2.03 | 2.00 | 3.82 | 8.51 |
| Other manufactured goods | 235.3 | 3.50 | 10.24 | 0.82 | 1.50 | 1.79 | 3.45 | 11.30 |
| All goods | 262.2 | 2.60 | 7.80 | 0.65 | 1.36 | 1.23 | 2.79 | 9.64 |
| 1985 Exchange Rate (national currency/US\$) | 238.5 | 2.94 | 8.99 | 0.78 | 1.37 | 1.43 | 3.32 | 8.60 |

Source: Based on background data for OECD (1987).

Table A2: Distribution Margins by Industry, Including Indirect Taxes

| STAN sectors | United | Japan, | Germany, | France, | United | Canada, | Australia, | Nether- | Sweden, |
| :--- | :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: |
|  | States, | $\mathbf{1 9 8 5}$ | $\mathbf{1 9 9 1}$ | $\mathbf{1 9 8 7}$ | Kingdom, | $\mathbf{1 9 9 0}$ | $\mathbf{1 9 8 6 - 8 7}$ | lands, |  |
|  | $\mathbf{1 9 8 7}$ |  |  |  |  | $\mathbf{1 9 8 9}$ |  |  |  |

Note: The distribution margin is the difference between final expenditure at purchaser prices and final expenditure at producer prices. The margins shown here are calculated as a percentage of final expenditure at purchaser prices for the United States, Japan, Australia and the Netherlands. For Germany, France, the United Kingdom, Canada and Sweden they are calculated over total demand, as it was not possible to distinguish between margins for goods entering final expenditure and goods for intermediate consumption and exports. This may lead to an underestimation of the distribution margin in these five countries, as the margin on intermediate consumption tends to be lower than that on final demand. Margins include adjustment for net indirect taxes, based on the same sources.
Source: Based on input-output tables as follows: United States from 1987 benchmark input-output table in BEA (1994); Japan from 1985 input-output table in Management and Coordination Agency (1990); Germany from Statistisches Bundesamt (1995); France from INSEE (1996); United Kingdom from CSO (1994); Canada from Statistics Canada (1994); Australia from ABS (1990); Netherlands from CBS (1992); Sweden based on SCB (1989).

Table A3: Relative Price Levels for Manufacturing Industries, Major OECD Economies, 1987
(Industry-specific Purchasing Power Parity divided by the Exchange Rate, United States=100)

| STAN sectors | Japan | Germany | France | United <br> Kingdom | Canada | Australia | Nether- <br> lands | Sweden |
| :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: |
| Food Products | 184.0 | 115.1 | 123.1 | 130.1 | 112.8 | 93.4 | 120.4 | 153.8 |
| Beverages | 153.1 | 132.4 | 145.4 | 96.1 | 134.1 | 85.5 | 108.1 | 152.8 |
| Tobacco | 78.3 | 67.2 | 94.4 | 77.8 | 74.7 | 47.6 | 64.2 | 67.2 |
| Textiles | 125.6 | 145.0 | 118.0 | 111.9 | 106.5 | 119.0 | 114.5 | 166.1 |
| Clothing | 123.9 | 161.7 | 169.2 | 113.2 | 105.7 | 110.5 | 124.4 | 153.3 |
| Leather Products | 144.4 | 123.6 | 111.6 | 94.1 | 91.6 | 127.3 | 96.2 | 132.3 |
| Footwear | 144.4 | 156.1 | 111.6 | 94.1 | 92.2 | 90.9 | 96.2 | 132.3 |
| Wood Products | 326.0 | 149.4 | 107.8 | 150.5 | 106.0 | 144.7 | 136.7 | 160.1 |
| Furniture | 390.3 | 188.4 | 197.0 | 154.4 | 92.8 | 115.4 | 198.1 | 131.7 |
| Paper Products | 130.0 | 125.6 | 124.1 | 171.1 | 101.3 | 126.1 | 113.0 | 112.9 |
| Printing, publishing | 171.7 | 235.6 | 161.9 | 105.7 | 124.1 | 94.0 | 250.2 | 188.5 |
| Industrial Chemicals | 184.7 | 142.4 | 139.9 | 103.6 | 97.3 | 93.1 | 101.7 | 122.4 |
| Drugs and medicines | 145.2 | 122.4 | 139.9 | 103.6 | 97.3 | 93.1 | 101.7 | 122.4 |
| Chemical products, nec | 145.2 | 122.4 | 139.9 | 103.6 | 97.3 | 93.1 | 101.7 | 122.4 |
| Petroleum refineries | 173.9 | 109.4 | 120.1 | 105.4 | 101.4 | 92.4 | 111.1 | 128.2 |
| Petroleum \& coal products | 173.9 | 109.4 | n.a. | 105.4 | 101.4 | n.a. | 111.1 | 128.2 |
| Rubber products | 86.6 | 128.9 | 97.5 | 89.9 | 92.9 | 87.8 | 101.7 | 103.0 |
| Plastic products | 184.7 | 142.4 | 139.9 | 89.9 | 97.3 | 93.1 | 101.7 | 122.4 |
| Pottery, china, etc. | 130.9 | 110.6 | 95.0 | 106.2 | 99.0 | 103.8 | 91.3 | 135.3 |
| Glass products | 130.9 | 135.9 | 95.0 | 106.2 | 99.0 | 103.8 | 91.3 | 135.3 |
| Non-metallic mineral products | 130.9 | 110.6 | 95.0 | 106.2 | 99.0 | 103.8 | 91.3 | 135.3 |
| Iron and steel | 100.7 | 104.4 | 125.1 | 103.9 | 97.1 | 104.9 | 142.6 | 111.2 |
| Non-ferrous metals | 160.8 | 122.7 | n.a. | 121.7 | 108.1 | 119.6 | n.a. | 130.0 |
| Metal products | 96.8 | 126.7 | 144.5 | 109.3 | 98.7 | 110.1 | 139.8 | 112.5 |
| Office \& computing machinery | 106.0 | 127.2 | 118.6 | 99.8 | 105.1 | 75.8 | 163.2 | 142.9 |
| Machinery \& equipment, nec | 101.7 | 136.7 | 118.6 | 99.8 | 105.1 | 75.8 | 163.2 | 142.9 |
| Radio, tv \& comm. equipment | 96.0 | 162.8 | 136.4 | 120.9 | 124.5 | 131.5 | 126.0 | 138.2 |
| Electrical apparatus, nec | 102.7 | 148.3 | 159.0 | 120.9 | 120.6 | 142.7 | 139.3 | 134.1 |
| Shipbuilding \& repair | 109.5 | 149.4 | 197.2 | 123.6 | 95.4 | 149.1 | 166.4 | 210.6 |
| Railroad equipment | 106.7 | 221.8 | 255.0 | 132.0 | 243.5 | 141.0 | n.a. | 266.0 |
| Motor vehicles | 82.9 | 112.8 | 89.0 | 100.0 | 92.1 | 79.7 | 112.8 | 122.4 |
| Motorcycles \& bicycles | 212.2 | 187.6 | n.a. | n.a. | n.a. | n.a. | n.a. | n.a. |
| Aircraft | 226.5 | 167.9 | 162.9 | 191.9 | 121.9 | 125.5 | 179.7 | 227.8 |
| Transport equipment, nec | n.a. | n.a. | n.a. | n.a. | n.a. | n.a. | n.a. | n.a. |
| Professional goods | 102.7 | 171.3 | 209.0 | 78.1 | n.a. | 130.2 | 181.4 | 149.5 |
| Other manufacturing | 183.1 | 186.6 | 217.3 | 133.5 | 99.0 | 114.0 | 162.0 | 201.0 |
| Total manufacturing | 121.9 | 128.4 | 125.5 | 113.1 | 104.7 | 100.7 | 122.3 | 134.2 |
| Exchange Rate (national currency/US\$) | 144.6 | 1.80 | 6.01 | 0.61 | 1.33 | 1.43 | 2.03 | 6.34 |
| Coefficient of variation ${ }^{1}$ | 43.1 | 24.0 | 29.0 | 21.6 | 25.3 | 21.6 | 30.1 | 26.2 |

1) The coefficient of variation is the standard deviation divided by the mean, expressed as a percentage.

Source: Figures in normal font are based on country-specific studies quoted in Table A7 or on the McKinsey studies as documented in Gersbach and Van Ark (1995); shaded figures are based on expenditure PPPs for 1985 from Table A1. These expenditure PPPs were updated to 1987 with sector-specific deflators from the STAN data-base (OECD, 1995) and subsequently adjusted for industry-specific distribution margins, inclusive of net indirect taxes (see Table A2).

Table A4: Census Value Added at Factor Cost by Industry, 1987

| STAN sectors | United <br> States <br> (million <br> US\$) | Japan <br> (billion <br> Yen) | Germany <br> (million <br> DM) | France ${ }^{1}$ <br> (million <br> Ffr) | United <br> Kingdom <br> (million <br> Pnd) | Canada <br> (million <br> Can\$) | Australia <br> (million <br> Aus\$) | Nether- <br> lands <br> (million <br> Dfl) | Sweden <br> (million <br> Kr .) |
| :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: |
| Food products | 1319 | 8181 | 36018 | 97439 | 11156 | 12810 | 6641 | 12262 | 21044 |
| Beverages | 3758 | 1733 | 12781 | 25850 | 3205 | 3168 | 1482 | 2319 | 3186 |
| Tobacco | 3641 | 270 | 3483 | 8782 | 1091 | 984 | 356 | 1483 | 1053 |
| Textiles | 438 | 3366 | 15928 | 39363 | 3339 | 2868 | 1858 | 2061 | 3720 |
| Clothing | 167 | 1984 | 9529 | 25616 | 2636 | 3381 | 1234 | 528 | 1525 |
| Leather products | 11 | 268 | 1433 | 3460 | 285 | 187 | 162 | 143 | 341 |
| Footwear | 13 | 170 | 1884 | 8524 | 736 | 473 | 356 | 188 | 226 |
| Wood products | 1510 | 1620 | 7369 | 10192 | 1671 | 6559 | 1692 | 1698 | 12812 |
| Furniture | 202 | 1515 | 9537 | 11120 | 1940 | 2207 | 912 | 1153 | 2888 |
| Paper products | 1387 | 2948 | 15832 | 34456 | 3714 | 11039 | 1407 | 3136 | 24307 |
| Printing, publishing | 994 | 5380 | 14027 | 54214 | 8261 | 7012 | 3836 | 6227 | 17843 |
| Industrial Chemicals | 2043 | 3831 | 49450 | 62413 | 4490 | 3831 | 1592 | 10100 | 10674 |
| Drugs and medicines | 144 | 3015 | 13626 | 31430 | 3279 | 2251 | 648 | 2039 | 7096 |
| Chemical products, nec | 472 | 3318 | 24338 | 45331 | 4935 | 4014 | 1567 | 5959 | 4328 |
| Petroleum refineries | 4583 | 1102 | 8027 | 13100 | 1590 | 1860 | 324 | 2938 | 3972 |
| Petroleum \& coal products | 53 | 238 | 222 | n.a. | 55 | 264 | 32 | 224 | 1144 |
| Rubber products | 391 | 1478 | 9186 | 21236 | 1398 | 1342 | 432 | 621 | 2350 |
| Plastic products | 1093 | 3484 | 19574 | 25811 | 3335 | 2429 | 1466 | 2245 | 3877 |
| Pottery, china, etc. | 46 | 506 | 3256 | 3856 | 834 | 291 | 80 | 339 | 730 |
| Glass products | 175 | 1036 | 6328 | 14817 | 1028 | 879 | 421 | 689 | 1615 |
| Non-metallic mineral products | 638 | 3229 | 13579 | 28895 | 3822 | 2993 | 1734 | 2181 | 5827 |
| Iron and steel | 1108 | 5385 | 26847 | 29657 | 3151 | 4774 | 2145 | 2309 | 9052 |
| Non-ferrous metals | 520 | 1857 | 10573 | 22508 | 1109 | 4738 | 2283 | 970 | 3721 |
| Metal products | 1602 | 6487 | 45529 | 70045 | 5588 | 7018 | 3578 | 6311 | 23105 |
| Office \& computing machinery | 400 | 2972 | 13846 | 37893 | 2226 | 1035 | 573 | 1015 | 3695 |
| Machinery \& equipment, nec | 1537 | 9457 | 87412 | 85392 | 12052 | 5647 | 1453 | 6347 | 28332 |
| Radio, tv \& comm. equipment | 783 | 7235 | 48818 | 63675 | 4678 | 4984 | 129 | 13558 | 13048 |
| Electrical apparatus, nec | 963 | 6388 | 42267 | 68926 | 6225 | 3717 | 2618 | 956 | 9408 |
| Shipbuilding \& repair | 65 | 892 | 2778 | 2660 | 1081 | 259 | 452 | 1392 | 2142 |
| Railroad equipment | 11 | 100 | 554 | 7258 | 249 | 570 | 601 | n.a. | 1161 |
| Motor vehicles | 4247 | 9099 | 80236 | 102195 | 6271 | 9188 | 2732 | 2008 | 23669 |
| Motorcycles \& bicycles | 3 | 170 | 515 | 2607 | 45 | n.a. | n.a. | 157 | 288 |
| Aircraft | 757 | 338 | 6082 | 46596 | 3964 | 2114 | 482 | 804 | 4467 |
| Transport equipment, nec | n.a. | 140 | 222 | n.a. | 49 | 267 | 16 | 124 | 227 |
| Professional goods | 788 | 2706 | 10729 | 15605 | 1582 | n.a. | 469 | 568 | 3559 |
| Other manufacturing | 294 | 1814 | 3938 | 15041 | 1407 | 3136 | 472 | 283 | 1310 |
| Total manufacturing | 36155 | 103711 | 655753 | 1135962 | 112475 | 118290 | 46234 | 95336 | 257740 |

[^1]Table A5: Census Employment by Industry, 1987

|  |  |  |  |  |  |  |  |  |  |
| :--- | :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: |
| STAN sectors | United | Japan | Germany | France ${ }^{1}$ | United | Canada | Australia | Nether- | Sweden |
|  | States |  |  |  | Kingdom |  | lands |  |  |
|  |  |  |  |  |  |  |  |  |  |

[^2]Table A6: Annual Hours Worked per Person Engaged, by Industry, 1987

| STAN sectors | United | Japan | Germany | France | United | Canada | Australia | Nether- | Sweden |
| :--- | :---: | :--- | :--- | :--- | :--- | :--- | :--- | :--- | :--- |
|  | States |  |  |  | Kingdom |  |  |  |  |

Source: Based on country-specific studies quoted in Table A7.

Table A7: Manufacturing Labour Productivity Levels in Major OECD Economies, 1987
$(\text { Value Added per Hour Worked, Leader Country }=100)^{1}$

| STAN sectors | United | Japan | Germany | France | United | Canada | Australia | Nether- | Sweden |
| :--- | :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: |
| States |  |  |  |  |  |  |  |  |  |
|  |  |  |  |  |  |  |  |  |  |

[^3]2) The coefficient of variation is the standard deviation divided by the mean, expressed as a percentage.

Source: Based on industry-specific conversion factors from Table A3. Value added, employment and hours worked from Tables A4-A6. Original industry-of-origin material as follows: Japan and Germany from Van Ark and Pilat (1993) and Gersbach and Van Ark (1995); France from Van Ark and Kouwenhoven (1994); United Kingdom from Van Ark (1992); Canada from de Jong (1996);

Netherlands from Kouwenhoven (1994); Australia from Prasada Rao, Shepherd and Pilat (1995); Sweden from Maliranta (1995).

Table A8: Capital Intensity in Manufacturing, Major OECD Economies, 1987
(Capital Stock per Person Engaged, Leader Country = 100)

| STAN sectors | United | Japan | Germany | France | United | Canada | Australia | Nether- | Sweden |
| :--- | :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: |
| lands |  |  |  |  |  |  |  |  |  |

Source: OECD calculations on the basis of capital stock and employment from STAN data-base (OECD, 1995). Capital stock was converted to 1985 US dollars by 1985 PPPs for gross capital formation (OECD, 1987).

Table A9: Total Factor Productivity Levels in Manufacturing, Major OECD Economies, 1987
$($ Leader Country $=100)$

| STAN sectors | United <br> States | Japan | Germany | France | United | Canada | Australia | Nether- | Sweden |
| :--- | :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: |
| lands |  |  |  |  |  |  |  |  |  |

Note: Productivity level of leader country is shaded.
Source: Derived from Tables A7 and A8, TFP is based on fixed factor shares ( 0.7 for labour, 0.3 for capital).

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[^0]:    4. Most industry-of-origin studies have taken the United States as the reference basis for productivity comparisons, partly because the United States is generally considered to be the productivity leader in manufacturing, and partly because the quality of its data. However, there are also studies (O'Mahony, 1992; Freudenberg and Ünal-Kesenci, 1994) that have taken a European country as the basis, e.g. Germany or the United Kingdom. The results from these various studies are generally not transitive, i.e. a comparison between two countries may not be consistent with a comparison through a third country. This issue is not addressed here, although recent studies have shown how transitive results can be derived (Pilat and Prasada Rao, 1996).
[^1]:    1) Data for France exclude enterprises with less than 20 employees. The binary comparison with the United States excludes these establishments for the United States as well.
    Source: Based on census data for each country. See Van Ark (1996) for details on the different manufacturing censuses.
[^2]:    1) Data for France exclude enterprises with less than 20 employees. The binary comparison with the United States excludes these establishments for the United States as well.
    Source: Based on census data for each country. See Van Ark (1996) for details on the different manufacturing censuses.
[^3]:    1) Productivity estimate for leader country is shaded.
