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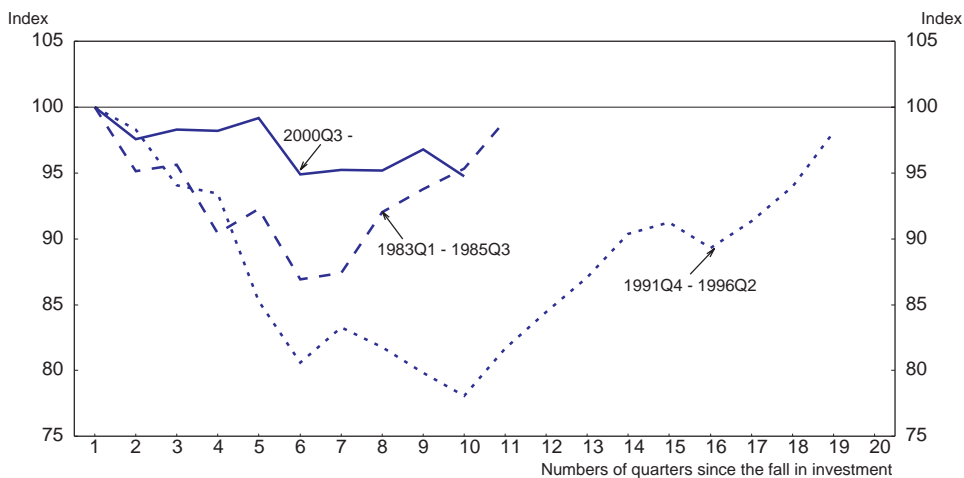
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Annex I
Supporting material

Figure A1. Investment cycles¹



1. Investment in machinery and equipment.
Source: OECD.

Table A1. **Balance of payments**
Million euros

	1998	1999	2000	2001	2002		
					Q1	Q2	Q3
Trade balance	-18 480	-28 585	-37 778	-35 265	-25 136	-32 247	-36 650
(As a % of GDP)	-3.5	-5.1	-6.2	-5.4	-3.7	-4.7	-5.2
Non-factor services (excluding tourism)	-2 689	-3 726	-3 539	-2 833	-3 133	-1 494	-1 743
Tourism	22 315	25 250	27 782	29 971	20 377	29 124	37 506
Net investment income	-6 751	-8 904	-8 985	-10 655	-12 390	-10 387	-16 566
Net current transfers	3 006	2 853	1 528	1 836	8 937	-2 294	5 099
Current balance	-2 598	-13 112	-20 992	-16 947	-11 344	-17 299	-12 355
(As a % of GDP)	-0.5	-2.3	-3.4	-2.6	-1.7	-2.5	-1.8
Capital balance	5 680	6 552	5 181	5 556	6 967	8 959	7 652
Financial balance (net change) ¹	-105	15 800	21 300	18 827	22 644	14 185	15 797
Assets (net change)	67 162	84 367	139 732	66 740	61 296	120 635	52 390
Spanish investment abroad							
Direct	17 002	39 501	59 344	31 072	10 520	22 633	19 086
Portfolio and financial derivatives	41 521	43 816	63 025	49 185	46 339	55 105	14 913
Other investment ² and reserve assets	8 639	1 051	17 363	-13 517	4 438	42 897	18 391
Liabilities (net change)	67 057	100 167	161 032	85 567	83 940	134 820	68 186
Foreign investment in Spain							
Direct ³	10 592	14 791	40 728	24 340	27 776	15 826	11 829
Portfolio ⁴	15 400	42 688	63 644	30 838	31 176	34 830	41 186
Other investment ²	41 065	42 688	56 659	30 389	24 989	84 164	15 172
Errors and omissions (net)	-2 977	-4 682	-5 488	-7 436	-18 267	-5 845	-11 094
<i>Memorandum items:</i>							
Terms of trade, goods and services (% change)	0.0	-0.3	-2.2	2.1	-0.7	1.6	-0.2
As a % of GDP							
Foreign direct investment in Spain	2.0	2.6	6.7	3.7	4.1	2.3	1.7
Direct investment abroad	3.2	7.0	9.7	4.8	1.6	3.3	2.7
Net direct investment	1.2	4.4	3.1	1.0	-2.6	1.0	1.0

1. Changes in financial assets and liabilities are both net of repayments. Financial derivatives have been included in the change in financial assets although they are obtained as the balance of assets less liabilities.

2. Mainly loans, deposits and repo operations.

3. Does not include direct investment in listed shares but includes portfolio investment in non-listed shares.

4. Includes direct investment in listed shares but does not include portfolio investment in non-listed shares.

Source: Bank of Spain and OECD.

Table A2. **Inflation decomposition: comparison between Spain and the euro area**
Year-on-year percentage change

	Average 1994-99	2000	2001	2002 ¹	2002 S2
A. Spain					
GDP deflator ²	3.3	3.5	4.2	4.4	4.7
Labour cost ³	2.6	3.7	4.2	4.3	4.3
Wages	3.3	3.7	4.1	4.3	4.5
Productivity	1.1	0.7	0.3	0.6	0.5
Employee ratio ⁴	0.4	0.7	0.4	0.5	0.4
Net indirect taxes	6.9	3.9	1.9	2.3	3.1
Profits	3.4	3.1	4.8	5.1	5.5
Real wages	-0.1	0.6	0.8	0.7	0.7
B. Euro area					
GDP deflator ²	2.0	1.3	2.4	2.3	2.2
Labour cost ³	1.1	1.5	2.8	2.5	2.2
Wages	2.2	2.4	2.6	2.8	3.1
Productivity	1.4	1.2	0.0	0.4	0.9
Employee ratio ⁴	0.2	0.4	0.3	0.2	0.0
Net indirect taxes	4.6	0.3	0.4	2.8	3.1
Profits	2.6	1.4	2.4	1.8	2.0
Real wages	0.0	0.2	0.2	0.7	0.9
C. Difference					
GDP deflator ²	1.3	2.2	1.8	2.1	2.4
Labour cost ³	1.5	2.2	1.3	1.7	2.1
Wages	1.0	1.4	1.5	1.5	1.4
Productivity	-0.2	-0.5	0.3	0.2	-0.4
Employee ratio ⁴	0.2	0.3	0.1	0.4	0.3
Net indirect taxes	2.2	3.6	1.5	-0.5	-0.0
Profits	0.8	1.7	2.4	3.3	3.5
Real wages	-0.1	0.3	0.6	0.0	-0.2

1. OECD estimates.

2. The breakdown of inflation (measured by the GDP deflator) is obtained using the following accounting identity:

$$\frac{\text{GDP}}{\text{GDP volume}} = \frac{\text{Total compensation of employees}}{\text{GDP volume}} + \frac{\text{Net indirect taxes}}{\text{GDP volume}} + \frac{\text{Profits}}{\text{GDP volume}}$$

The first term represents the total labour cost in the economy, the second term represents the costs linked to net indirect taxes and the final term (defined as a residual of the identity) represents the contributions of profits and other revenues.

3. Wages less productivity plus the ratio of employees/total employment.

4. Ratio of employees to total employment.

Source: OECD calculations based on national accounts data.

Table A3. **Greenhouse gas emissions and sectoral indicators**
Annual average percentage change, 1990-99¹

	Total level in 1999 ²	Total emissions	CO ₂ emissions				Indicators per unit of GDP	
			Per kilowatt hour of electricity	Manufacturing, per unit of industrial production	Residential, per unit of private consumption	Road transport, per vehicle	Electricity use	Industrial output
Spain	371	2.9	0.1	-1.5	1.9	-0.2	1.0	-0.4
France	549	-0.1	-2.8	-1.5	-1.2	0.1	0.8	-0.2
Germany	994	-2.3	-2.2	-2.7	-5.0	-2.6	-1.7	-0.9
Greece	124	1.9	-1.7	-1.6	8.0	-1.1	1.8	-1.4
Italy	540	0.4	-1.6	-1.8	0.4	0.4	0.8	-0.4
Portugal	86	3.1	0.6	1.2	1.9	-0.4	2.0	-1.2
United Kingdom	647	-1.5	-4.7	-1.7	-0.7	-0.2	-0.7	-1.6
United States	6 830	1.2	0.2	-5.3	-2.3	1.1	-0.8	1.2
OECD ³	14 257	0.5	-0.7	-3.1	-1.6	0.1	-0.3	0.1
OECD excluding USA ³	7 428	0.0	-1.8	-2.0	-1.1	-0.6	0.0	-0.6
European Union	4 048	-0.4	-2.4	-2.2	-2.0	-0.6	-0.2	-0.5

1. 1990-98 for road transport CO₂ emissions. 1991-99 for German CO₂ emissions.

2. In million tonnes CO₂ equivalent.

3. The OECD total covers 27 countries.

Source: Greenhouse gas national submissions to the United Nations Framework Convention on Climate Change (UNFCCC), national sources and UNFCCC; carbon dioxide data from the International Energy Agency; industrial production and private consumption from OECD.

*Annex II***The decentralisation and financing reform of autonomous communities and local authorities**

With the transfer of health service provision to several autonomous communities in 2002, the decentralisation of the biggest spending items was complete, making Spain one of the most decentralised OECD countries (Table 10). The autonomous communities, created in 1979, now manage one-third of consolidated public expenditure and employ more than twice as many civil servants as central government (excluding social security). Health spending apart, the regions' main responsibilities concern the social services (excluding contributory pensions), active labour market policy, education, culture and some public infrastructure. This further decentralisation was accompanied by a reform of the financing method which had been in force since 1997 in 15 of the 17 communities subject to the common scheme.¹ The new system is designed, like its predecessor, to increase the regions' self-sufficiency and fiscal responsibility. It does, however, make good the main shortcomings of the previous system and its validity is not limited to five years, in contrast with the system in force up until now. It thus broadens the field of regional tax receipts and makes them more stable. Previously they were excessively dependent on fluctuations in personal income tax. More importantly, and in conjunction with the increased fiscal responsibility of the regions, the reform extended the communities' tax powers and abolishes the State guarantee which ensured that their main tax resource increased by at least as much as GDP.

The regional financing relies now mainly of fiscal revenues complemented by unconditional transfers. This system also includes a set of conditional transfers reinforcing the solidarity between communities. In order to set up this new financing system, the authorities began by calculating the needs of the communities as a whole, making a distinction between three types of expenditure: general purposes (including education), health and social services. The breakdown between the regions was determined on the basis of their demographic and geographic diversity and differences in per capita income in the base year (1999). In the case of medical services, minimum spending standards were set on the basis of the 1999 level and the future growth of the State's tax revenue. To finance the spending, which is determined as explained above, the regions now have tax revenues based on a broad basket of taxes including 35 per cent of VAT, one-third of the personal income tax and 40 per cent of the excise duties on alcoholic beverages, tobacco and fuel oils collected within their territory. The basket also includes taxes on electricity, on certain forms of transport and "retroceded" taxes (on wealth, inheritance and donations, gambling and stamp duties).² Total tax receipts account for some 65 per cent of the regions' resources, as against 29 per cent under the previous system. The State guarantee, ensuring a minimum increase in these receipts equal to that of nominal GDP, is now only temporary (up to 2004) and partial (applying only to additional resources linked to health-related responsibilities). On top of these resources, which are not earmarked, are transfers which safeguard solidarity between the

regions. These transfers are partly unconditional (*Fondo de Suficiencia*) and are designed to offset the discrepancy (positive or negative) between each Community's spending responsibilities and its fiscal revenues.³ The regions also receive conditional transfers so that they can guarantee a minimum provision of health and education services throughout the territory (*Asignaciones de nivelación*) and correct regional economic imbalances (*Fondo de compensación interterritorial*). The share of these conditional transfers has been reduced to less than 2 per cent of total receipts, compared to about 45 per cent under the previous system.

The reform also extends the communities' powers with regard to most of the taxes they collect. This is true in particular of personal income tax, with the regions now free to amend the scales (as long as they do not touch the number of brackets and the tax remains equally progressive) and adjust the scale of housing-related tax allowances. This is also the case of wealth and inheritance taxes, with the Communities having total control over tax rates and extensive powers with regard to tax allowances. On the other hand, VAT and excise duties on tobacco, mineral oils and alcohol totally escape the Communities' powers because of the norms set by the European Union in this area and the inherent difficulties that different VAT rates inside a country would create. Regions can, however, adjust fuel oil taxes through the regional part of the Tax on Retail Sales of Certain Mineral Oils to finance environmental and public health programmes, as the Community of Madrid recently decided. They are also more closely involved in tax management, collecting certain taxes directly (special taxes on fuel oils and transport) and taking part in the management of those they do not collect but which have an impact on their resources.

As mentioned in the main text, by the way it has been organised, decentralisation to the regions has the potential to improve the incentives for greater efficiency in public finance management, while maintaining sound fiscal control through the simultaneous application of the fiscal stability law. However, the efficiency gains would be strengthened by a widening of the use of benchmarking and a public management more oriented towards the outputs or outcomes and with greater co-ordination among regions. It is also important to recognise that, despite the planned equalisation mechanisms, it is difficult to predict the impact on trends in wealth differentials between regions with the introduction of extensive tax competition with a tax-sharing system. All in all, in view of the complexity of the new system and the uncertainty surrounding its actual use, a mechanism for assessing the reform ought to be programmed within a few years' time in order to correct any possible defects in its application.

Following decentralisation to the Communities, a reform of the local authority financing system was also launched. This is warranted for two main reasons: first, the need, in the wake of the adoption of the fiscal stability law, to increase the municipalities' fiscal responsibility, as was done in the case of the communities; second, the need to remedy certain shortcomings in the local taxation system. The three main local taxes, which affect real estate, business activity and motor vehicles, have rigid tax bases, which often depend on administrative decisions that make them costly to manage. Moreover, the tax on business activities (IAE) affects companies without taking account of their income or wealth, poses equity problems and affects incentives to recruit and invest.⁴ To remedy these difficulties, a reform has been adopted which will be implemented progressively in 2003-04. It abolishes the IAE for about 95 per cent of taxpayers by exempting small firms and individual carrying out professional or economic activities (with total net turnover of less than EUR 1 million) and those recently set up. Local taxation, over which the municipalities will have more extensive powers, is also being modernised: the incentives that are unfavourable towards employment for firms still liable to the IAE are to be abolished; in fact, the reduction in the IAE on small firms is partly offset by an increase in this tax which is now levied on the incomes of large and medium-sized companies; the municipalities will have more leeway to differentiate between the property tax applying to firms and to households, reduce that imposed on large families and

increase that applying to vacant housing; by applying tax exemptions, they will also be able to encourage the production and use of the least polluting forms of renewable energy. Lastly, local authorities' resources, which will be at least equal to those currently at their disposal, in the case of municipalities with fewer than 75 000 inhabitants, will be supplemented by the transfer of part of State taxes (income tax, VAT and excise duties) and additional transfers linked to the rise in central government tax revenues.⁵

Apart from reforming local authority financing, discussions have also started on reforming their responsibilities (*Pacto local*). The share of municipality spending in total public expenditure, which has remained stable at between 13 and 15 per cent for 20 years, is smaller than in other OECD countries, including federal countries, which has prompted calls for these authorities' powers to be stepped up (Table 10). It is important to realise, however, that there are advantages and drawbacks to extending their powers. While perhaps desirable, increasing local powers involves identifying those areas which might generate efficiency gains without impairing budgetary control. An international comparison shows that local authorities in Spain account for a share of education, health and welfare spending that is smaller than the OECD average (Table A4). However, a detailed assessment of both the benefits and also the costs involved in any transfer of responsibility is necessary because of the possible losses of scale economies or the existence of geographic externalities (spillover effects). Local authorities in Spain are numerous (8 000) and small in size (85 per cent of municipalities have fewer than 5 000 inhabitants). Without a high degree of inter-communal co-operation, many cannot take on the responsibility of providing services with high fixed costs or requiring specialised staff. Also, decentralising certain services such as health care and social services could cause problems relating to co-ordination with other policies such as hospital management or active labour market policy which will no doubt continue to be regionally administered for scale economies reasons. Decentralising basic education provision to the local level would no doubt cause fewer difficulties, and it would enable municipalities to better take into account the specific needs and preferences of the population and would encourage innovation in educational methods. In view of the centralised management

Table A4. **Local governments' expenditure by function**
In per cent of total local governments' expenditure

	Education	Health	Social security and welfare	Housing and community amenities	Total
Spain (1997)	4.2	2.6	4.9	22.7	34.5
Canada (2000)	41.6	1.2	7.3	5.5	55.6
Denmark (2000)	12.3	16.1	57.5	0.9	86.8
France (1993)	19.6	2.3	17.7	24.1	63.7
Germany (1996)	13.0	14.5	24.6	15.3	67.4
Ireland (1997)	11.3	45.5	5.2	14.9	76.8
Netherlands (1997) ¹	17.9	2.6	22.6	20.0	63.1
Switzerland (1999)	22.8	18.3	14.7	8.4	64.2
United Kingdom (1998)	28.7	0.0	32.5	5.4	66.7
United States (1999)	43.9	8.7	7.6	2.3	62.5
Non-weighted average	23.5	12.1	21.1	10.7	67.4

1. Provincial and local governments.

Source: IMF, *Government Finance Statistics Yearbook*, 2001.

of curricula in Spain, decentralising basic education would not discourage labour mobility.⁶ It could, however, give rise to equity problems between wealthy and less wealthy authorities, which would need to be resolved. Decentralising this competence, which is currently covered by the Communities, would also necessitate an equivalent transfer of resources in order to guarantee the local authorities' financial self-sufficiency.

Notes

1. The last two regions, the Basque Country and Navarra, are covered by a specific financing system (OECD, 2000) which the reform has barely altered. The system was extended indefinitely.
2. The communities may also raise taxes and user charges on regional utilities.
3. The amount of transfers received or disbursed by the communities was set for the base year 1999. The increase in these transfers in future years will be linked to the total tax receipts of central government (the case of transfers received by one region) or regional government (if the transfers are paid by the region).
4. The IAE is the second most important municipality tax, representing 20 per cent of local tax receipts (0.3 per cent of GDP) and affecting all companies, whether or not they are making profits. It is based on fixed elements such as the number of employees, the size of the municipality and the surface area of the premises. Its parameters vary according to the type of activity and their location (including in the same town). It depends little on economic activity (Poveda and Sánchez, 2002).
5. Small municipalities will be financed by their own tax receipts and by State transfers allocated on the basis of their population size, tax effort and taxation possibilities.
6. There will be *a priori* no obstacle to the geographic mobility of people because their children can continue the same curriculum in another region.

*Annex III***Main measures of the personal income tax reform**

- The number of tax brackets is reduced from 6 to 5. The top marginal rate is set now at 45 per cent (previously 48 per cent), and the lowest rate at 15 per cent (previously 18 per cent).
- The general tax allowance for net labour income, which is based on a non-linear formula, is raised by 16.67 per cent for those who earn less than EUR 8 200 per year, and by 6.6 per cent for those who earn more than EUR 13 000.
- To encourage participation of older workers, the general income allowance will be doubled for those older than 65 who continue working.
- In order to foster mobility of unemployed workers, the general net labour income allowance will be doubled during two years for those unemployed who accept a job in a different municipality.
- Mothers who work will receive a tax rebate of EUR 100 per month during three years from the moment a new child is born or adopted. This rebate can also be received in advance in monthly payments.
- The flat rate for capital gains is reduced from 18 to 15 per cent, in line with the reduction of the lowest marginal rate.
- The deduction for labour income, income from economic activities and income on capital held for more than two years is raised from 30 to 40 per cent.
- To foster competition among mutual funds, capital gains from such investments will not be taxed when changing funds.
- The ceiling of tax-exempted contributions to private pension funds is raised by 11 per cent (to EUR 8 000 per year).
- Contributions to a new type of insurance contract (*Planes de previsión asegurados*) that provide pension income at a guaranteed interest rate will also be tax-exempted up to EUR 8 000 per year.
- To favour the supply of rental housing, a new tax allowance of 50 per cent of net rental income for owners who offer residential dwellings for rent is introduced. There will be deductions for all types of expenses (including 3 per cent for depreciation).
- The special regime for small self-employed and unincorporated businesses (*sistema de módulos*), which is based on special parameters rather than on profits, is subject to the respect of two new conditions. Businesses whose purchases of intermediate goods are above the threshold of 300 000 euros per year, or those whose activity falls outside the geographic application of the tax (exporters and importers), will not benefit from this special regime.

- Family allowances are raised, and extended to new family situations. Deductions for children range from EUR 1 400 per year for the first child to EUR 2 300 for the fourth, while the additional reduction for children younger than 3 is four folded (to EUR 1 200). The deduction for old-age dependants is raised by 33 per cent if they are older than 65, and a new reduction of EUR 1 000 is introduced for social care, without the need of justifying the expenses. Tax allowances for the disabled are also raised.
- Several measures are introduced to facilitate tax filing and the calculation of withholding tax.

Annex IV

Rental supply and demand incentives

The existence of an adequate rental market depends on the incentives affecting household demand, *i.e.* relative rental costs compared with the costs of buying a home, and also on the supply of these housing services, *i.e.* the return on rental investment as compared with alternatives, *e.g.* financial investment. To show what role these incentives play in the case of Spain, a small model has been built to calculate the effect of a decision to rent rather than buy one's home on household wealth. The model compares the amount of assets accumulated by a household depending on the housing solution it opts for.

The model developed for this analysis relies on the following assumptions:*

- *Characteristics of the house purchased:* the price of the house considered amounts to EUR 96 162, corresponding to a medium-category house. In addition, real property prices are assumed to rise by 2 per cent per year, which is close to its trend since 1990.
- *House purchase conditions:* it is assumed that the buyer borrows the total amount of capital required to acquire the house, including the costs and taxes associated with the transaction, which are estimated at 9 per cent of the house price. To simplify the analysis, the buyer is supposed to take out a fixed-interest rate loan, with a nominal rate of 5½ per cent or 3½ per cent in real terms.
- *Rental conditions:* initially, the level of the rent is set such that the rate of return on rental investment is the same as for alternative forms of investment, *e.g.* financial investment, with a return of 5 per cent (3 per cent in real terms). The annual rent level is hence set at EUR 4 800 the first year. It is indexed on inflation, which is supposed to rise by an annual rate of 2 per cent during the following years.

In the case of a household buying a home, the value of its wealth in a given year is calculated as the difference between the sales price of the property and the capital still to be repaid. This estimated wealth takes into account the cost related to anticipated repayment of the capital borrowed (estimated at 2 per cent of its value). It also includes the cumulative amount of tax relief attached to the purchase. These aids, which are granted without any means test, with a ceiling of EUR 1 803, decrease after two years, falling to EUR 1 578 from the third year onwards. In the case considered, the tax relief attached to house purchased represents 97 per cent of the ceilings.

In the case of a household renting a home, its wealth is calculated as its stock of saving, assuming that the household systematically invests on the financial market, the surplus being equal to the difference between the rent paid and the costs if it had bought. These costs include loan repayments but also the property tax (IBI, based on a cadastral value representing half of the actual value of the house and an average tax rate of 1 per cent). The nominal rate of return

* A comparable analysis to the one carried out here is presented in San Martín (2000), with similar conclusions.

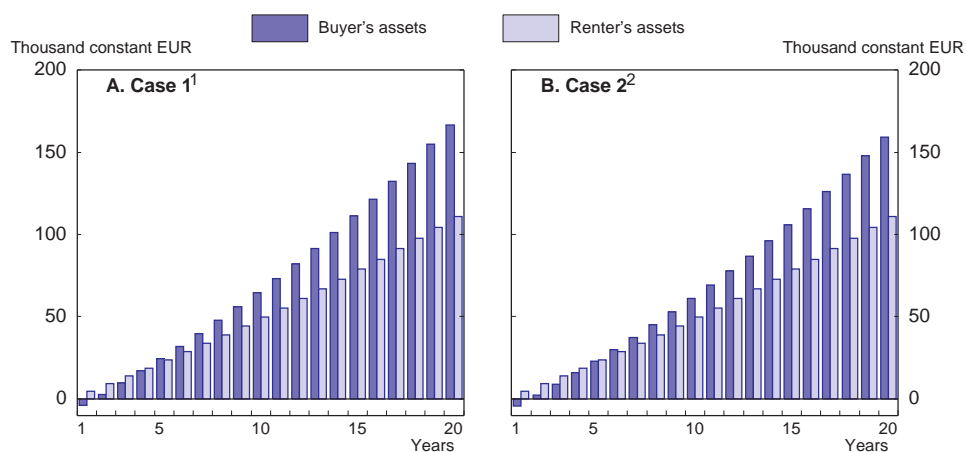
of this saving is assumed to be 5 per cent, while account is taken of the tax on the lessee's income from saving (15 per cent) and the index-linking of rents.

As indicated in the main text, buying one's home is a much better option than renting if the average rental price provides a return comparable to that on financial investments. The assets built up by the buyer exceed those of the lessee by the third year and are on average 50 per cent greater on a discounted basis (with an actualisation rate of 3 per cent, Figure 21). The higher the rate of inflation, the greater the incentive to buy because of the decline in the real cost of repaying the loan, whereas rents are index-linked. With a 3 per cent inflation rate, the average difference between the buyer's assets and the lessee's reaches 70 per cent on a discounted basis. Moreover, if the real housing prices increase by 1 percentage point to 3 per cent a year, the wealth gap between the buyer and the lessee rise by 10 percentage points to 60 per cent. On the other hand, if the cost of the property increases, incentives to buy are smaller because tax relief is capped.

The lack of incentives for rental demand is likely to induce a reduction in rental prices. With a trend rise in property prices and tax allowances in favour of owners, a 40 per cent fall in rents is needed to achieve equilibrium between the incentives to rent and to buy one's home implying a stronger rental demand. However, that sort of fall in rents would imply a considerable decline in the return on rental investment compared with alternative forms of investment, and this would prevent the expansion of rental supply. Recent tax incentives granted to lessees included in the 2003 personal income tax reform aims at strengthening the profitability of rental house investments, which is limited by relatively low rents.

If expectations as to real property prices could be stabilised, the advantage of buying rather than renting accommodation would decline because of the narrowing of the difference between the value of the buyer's cumulative assets and those of the lessee. In this case, the buyer's assets exceed the lessee's as of the sixth year and the average differential in favour of the buyer is close to 20 per cent (Figure A2). Eliminating the tax allowances encouraging

Figure A2. **Wealth developments linked to housing purchase/rental**



1. No tax subsidies for the buyer and an annual appreciation of the property of 2% in real terms.

2. Tax subsidies for the buyer and no appreciation of the property in real terms.

Source: OECD.

the purchase of property, would also reduce the incentives in favour of home purchasing. The buyer's assets exceed the lessee's as of the fourth year and the average differential in favour of the buyer is close to 30 per cent (Figure A2).

Abolishing tax allowances encouraging the purchase of property, coupled with the stabilisation of expectations as regards real property prices, would balance the incentives to buy and to rent accommodation, while at the same time maintaining attractive returns on rental investment. In this case, the buyer's cumulative assets would not exceed those of the lessee until the fourteenth year and the differential in favour of buying would on average be eliminated over the period as a whole (Figure 21).

Annex V

The effect of employment shifts on labour productivity growth and the contribution of immigration of non-EU foreigners

Methodology

The growth accounting exercise is based on the following equation, where Y is GDP, L total employment, and L_i employment in sector i:

$$(Y/L)^t = \sum_i (Y_i/L_i)^t * (L_i/L)^t$$

$$\text{or } P^t = \sum_i P_i^t * S_i^t,$$

where P is productivity and S_i the share of sector i in total employment.

The change in productivity over n periods can be decomposed as:

$$\begin{aligned} P^t - P^{t-n} &= \sum_i P_i^t * S_i^t - \sum_i P_i^{t-n} * S_i^{t-n} \\ &= \sum_i (P_i^t - P_i^{t-n}) * S_i^{t-n} + \sum_i P_i^t * S_i^t - \sum_i P_i^t * S_i^{t-n} \\ &= \sum_i (P_i^t - P_i^{t-n}) * S_i^{t-n} + \sum_i P_i^t * (S_i^t - S_i^{t-n}) \end{aligned}$$

The first term of the last line represents the contribution of individual sectors' labour productivity growth to total labour productivity (the "within" effect), and the second term measures the contribution of shifts in employment shares among sectors with differing productivity levels. The effect of immigration can then be isolated by calculating what would have been the changes in employment shares with no immigration.

Data and assumptions

The period considered runs from the first quarter of 1995 to the second quarter of 2002. GDP at constant 1995 prices and employment from the national accounts were used to calculate the level of productivity per full-time equivalent job.

The sectors considered are the following: agriculture, energy, industry, construction, low productivity services where immigrants often work (trade and repair, hotels and restaurants, domestic services) and other services.

Non-EU foreign employment is taken from the work permit statistics for 1995 and from the social security registers for 2002 (checking that the two sources did not significantly differ

in periods where both are available, *i.e.* 1999 and 2000). From these data, the change in sectoral shares attributable to immigration was calculated, and applied to the national account employment figures. Table A5 displays some of the data and the results.

Shifts in sectoral employment are estimated to have slowed down labour productivity growth by about 0.23 percentage points per year. If there had been no immigration between 1995 and 2002, the shift effect would have been negligible, *i.e.* annual labour productivity growth would have declined by only 0.02 percentage point.

Table A5. **The effect of employment shifts on labour productivity growth and the contribution of immigration**
1995 – Q2 2002

		Total	Agriculture	Energy	Industry	Construction	Services with immigration	Other services
Productivity level in 1995	(1)	8.4	8.4	32.3	8.6	7.0	6.6	9.8
Change in productivity level 1995-2002	(2)	0.4	0.9	16.6	0.3	-0.3	0.2	0.4
Employment share in 1995	(3)	100	8.0	1.1	18.5	9.4	24.6	38.4
Change in employment share 1995-2002	(4)	0	-1.9	-0.3	-0.3	1.8	0.9	-0.3
Change in employment share without immigration	(5)	0	-2.1	-0.1	-0.1	1.8	0.6	-0.2
Within effect	= (3) * (2)	0.49	0.07	0.18	0.05	-0.03	0.05	0.17
Shift effect	= (1 + 2) * (4)	-0.13	-0.11	-0.15	-0.02	0.12	0.06	-0.03
Shift effect without immigration	= (1 + 2) * (5)	-0.01	-0.12	-0.03	-0.01	0.12	0.04	-0.02
Shift effect in annual percentage point of labour productivity growth		-0.23						
Shift effect without immigration in annual percentage point of labour productivity growth		-0.02						

Source: OECD calculations based on national accounts, social security registry and work permits to foreigners.

*Annex VI***Calendar of main economic events****2001****May**

The ECB cuts interest rates by 0.25 points to 4.5 per cent.

July

The University Law is approved by the government.

August

The ECB cuts interest rates by 0.25 points to 4.25 per cent.

September

After the September 11 attacks in New York, the ECB lowers its key interest rate by 0.5 points to 3.75 per cent.

October

Gas liberalisation continues with the partial sale of the natural gas contract with Algeria's Sonatrach to competitors of the incumbent operator, Gas Natural.

November

The ECB lowers its key interest rate by 0.5 points to 3.25 per cent.

December

The government issues a decree allowing for retirement after age 65 and introducing some incentives to postpone retirement.

2002

January

The 2002 budget enters into force, accompanied by a new financial regime for autonomous communities. The tax powers of the regions are widened, while the transfer of competencies on health policy is finished.

March

The EU summit of Barcelona approves, among other measures, investment in cross-frontier interconnections of the electricity network.

April

The CMT imposes a reduction of the lease price of the local loop on Telefónica.

May

A decree is issued that reforms the unemployment insurance system. It includes a clarification of eligibility conditions for receiving benefits, a phasing out of the special unemployment subsidies for temporary agricultural workers in Andalusia and Extremadura and the suppression of the payment of wages between a lay-off and the tribunal decision on its adequacy.

The two Satellite TV companies, *Sogecable* and *Vía Digital*, announce their intention to merge.

July

The prime minister appoints a new government.

The Law on Education Quality is approved by the government.

Publication of the new census, which puts the Spanish population at 40.8 million, 2 million more than in the previous census of 1991.

September

The government announces a package of measures for improving competition in telecommunications, including a modification of the price cap of Telefónica.

October

Some elements of the unemployment insurance reform of March are modified, softening the eligibility conditions for benefits.

The *Prestige* oil tanker sinks off the Galician coast.

November

The Financial Law is approved by Parliament, affecting a wide range of issues such as accountancy and transparency rules for firms and regulation of savings banks.

A reform of the financing system of municipalities is launched by the government, including the suppression of the tax for business activities (IAE) for small firms.

The government issues, for approval, a draft law on co-ordination and quality of the health system.

December

The ECB lowers its key interest rate by 0.5 points to 2.75 per cent.

The EU Economic Council approves a reform of the Common Fisheries Policy.

The budget for 2003 is approved, including a reform of the personal income tax which reduces marginal rates, increases some tax allowances and introduces incentives to seek work for some groups of workers.

A new method for calculating electricity tariffs is approved by the government, which should provide a stable framework until 2010.

2003

January

The final stage of the liberalisation of electricity and gas markets enters into force, with choice of provider for all consumers.

The Budget Stability Law enters into force.

The reform of the special regime for agricultural workers of March is complemented with transition benefits during six years for those who cannot enter the system.

A national wage agreement is reached for 2003 between the social partners, recommending wage increases of 3.1 per cent.

March

A new law for "Health Co-ordination and Quality" was approved by the Parliament.

Glossary of acronyms

ADSL	Asymmetric digital subscriber line
ALMP	Active labour market policy
BBVA	<i>Banco Bilbao Vizcaya Argentaria</i>
BIS	Bank for International Settlements
CAP	Common agricultural policy
CES	<i>Consejo Económico y Social</i> (Economic and social council)
CLH	Transportation monopoly
CMT	<i>Comisión del Mercado de las Telecomunicaciones</i> (telecommunications sector regulator)
CPI	Consumer price index
EC	European Commission
ECB	European Central Bank
EMU	European Monetary Union
EPA	Labour force survey
ESA	European System of Integrated Economic Accounts
EU	European Union
EUR	Euro
Eurostat	European Union Statistical Institute
FAO	Food and Agricultural Organisation
FORCEM	Foundation for the training of workers
GDP	Gross domestic product
GHG	Greenhouse gas
GRECO	<i>Programa Global de Regulación y Coordinación de la Extranjería y la Inmigración en España</i> (Global Programme to Regulate and Co-ordinate Foreign Residents' Affairs and Immigration in Spain)
IAE	<i>Impuesto de actividades económicas</i> (tax on business activities)
IEA	International Energy Agency
IBI	<i>Impuesto sobre bienes inmuebles</i> (real estate tax)
ICAC	<i>Instituto de Contabilidad y Auditoría de Cuentas</i> (Institute for Accounting and Auditing)
ICES	International Council for the Exploration of the Sea
ICID	International Commission on Irrigation and Drainage
ICT	Information and Communication Technology
IMF	International Monetary Fund
IMSERSO	<i>Instituto de Inmigración y Servicios Sociales</i> (national agency for migration and social services)
INE	<i>Instituto Nacional de Estadística</i> (National Statistics Institute)
INEM	<i>Instituto Nacional de Empleo</i> (National Agency for Employment)

INSALUD	<i>Instituto Nacional de la Salud</i> (National Health Institute)
NAIRU	Non-accelerating inflation rate of unemployment
NGO	Non-governmental organisation
OPA	<i>Oferta pública de adquisición</i> (take-over bid)
PER	<i>Plan de Empleo Rural</i> (special unemployment and investment regime for seasonal agricultural workers in Andalusia and Extremadura)
PES	Public employment service
PISA	Programme for International Student Assessment
PPP	Purchasing power parity
R&D	Research and Development
SCP	Stability and Convergence Programmes
SDC	<i>Servicio de Defensa de la Competencia</i> (Competition Service)
SME	Small and medium-sized enterprise
TDC	<i>Tribunal de Defensa de la Competencia</i> (Competition Tribunal)
UA	Unemployment assistance
UI	Unemployment insurance
UMTS	Universal Mobile Telephone Systems (third generation mobile telephone systems)
UNDP	United Nations Development Programme
UNFCCC	United Nations Framework Convention on Climate Change
USD	United States dollar
VAT	Value added tax

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BASIC STATISTICS OF SPAIN (2002)

THE LAND

Area (1 000 km ²):		Major cities (thousand inhabitants):	
Total	506.0	Madrid	3 017
Cultivated (1998)	185.1	Barcelona	1 527
		Valencia	762
		Seville	704

THE PEOPLE

In thousands:		Employment (thousands)	16 258
Population	41 838	Employment by sector (% of total):	
Net natural increase (2001)	45	Agriculture	5.9
Net migration (2001)	247	Industry	19.4
Number of inhabitants per km ²	82.7	Construction	11.8
		Services	62.9

PRODUCTION

Gross domestic product (GDP):		Gross fixed capital investment:	
Billion EUR	694	% of GDP	25.4
Per head (US\$)	15 631	Per head (US\$)	3 973

THE GOVERNMENT

% of GDP:		Composition of Parliament	
Consumption	17.6	(No. of seats, March 2000):	350
Revenue	38.5	Popular Party (PP)	182
Deficit	-0.1	Spanish Labour Socialist Party (PSOE)	125
Fixed investment (% of gross fixed capital formation)	13.1	Convergence and Union (CIU)	15
		Izquierda Unida (IU)	8
		Basque Nationalist Party (PNV)	7
		Other	13
		Next general elections: March 2004	

FOREIGN TRADE

Exports of goods and services (% of GDP)	28.5	Imports of goods and services (% of GDP)	30.0
Exports as a % of total goods exports:		Imports as a % of total goods imports:	
Foodstuffs	12.5	Foodstuffs	6.6
Other consumer goods	28.8	Other consumer goods	20.9
Energy	2.0	Energy	10.7
Other intermediate goods	44.6	Other intermediate goods	46.0
Capital goods	12.2	Capital goods	15.8

THE CURRENCY

Monetary unit: Euro		Currency units per US\$, average of daily figures:	
		Year 2002	1.0611
		February 2003	0.9276

Note: An international comparison of certain basic statistics is given in an annex table.

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The economic situation and policies of Spain were reviewed by the Committee on 24 February 2003. The draft report was then revised in the light of the discussions and given final approval as the agreed report of the whole Committee on 27 March 2003.

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The Secretariat's draft report was prepared for the Committee by Claude Giorno, Miguel Jimenez, Douglas Sutherland and Ann Vourc'h under the supervision of Peter Hoeller.

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