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“New” econometric evidence for the
Baldwin-Richardson (1972)/Miyagiwa (1991)
theoretical predictions in government procurement

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Abstract

Baldwin and Richardson (1972) and Miyagiwa (1991) laid out the conditions under which a home-bias in public procurement is rendered ineffective as a protectionist device. Since then there has been little empirical work on this subject. In this paper, we bridge this gap by building a new dataset from WTO notifications on domestic and foreign purchases by Japanese and Swiss governments at the sector level over 1990-2003 and use it to test the BRM theoretical predictions. Significantly, our empirical results support these theoretical predictions.

JEL classification: F10, F13, F14, H57

Key words: Government procurement, home-bias, Baldwin-Richardson (1972), GPA, Japan, Switzerland

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1 Introduction

The earliest work on the effects of a home-bias in public procurement has been the formal result derived by Baldwin (1970, 1984) and Baldwin and Richardson (1972). In a partial equilibrium perfectly competitive framework, when imported and domestic goods are perfect substitutes and when government demand for these goods is a fraction of domestic output, then a reduction in imports from the government is compensated by a corresponding increase in the imports of the private sector. Thus the effect of a home-bias in procurement on domestic output and imports is “neutralized” and discriminatory public procurement is rendered ineffective as a protectionist device. Miyagiwa (1991) extended this result to an oligopolistic set-up showing that the “crucial assumption” for the “neutrality proposition” (term coined by Brühlhart and Trionfetti, 2004) was perfect substitutability between imported and domestic goods. He also showed the result to be less clear-cut for differentiated goods.

Other theoretical work on this subject includes that by Chen (1995), Trionfetti (1997, 2001), Weichenrieder (2001) and Evenett and Hoekman (2005), but no empirical evidence. The part exception to this is the study by Francois et al. (1997), which compares public and private demand across 85 US industrial sectors and infers the ineffectiveness of home-bias from the “smallness” of public demand. Using EU data, Brühlhart and Trionfetti (2001, 2004) show that procurement home-bias matters for industrial location/specialization, but their focus is not the Baldwin-Richardson-Miyagiwa (BRM) theoretical predictions.

In this paper, we bridge the gap in this empirical literature by building a new dataset from WTO notifications on domestic and foreign purchases by Japanese and Swiss¹ governments at the sector level over 1990-2003 and use a different econometric approach to provide a *ceteris paribus* test of the BRM theoretical predictions. Significantly, our empirical results support these predictions.

2 Data

Procurement data are assembled from statistical submissions made by the Uruguay Round Agreement on Government Procurement (URGPA) signatories to the Committee on Government Procurement under Article XIX: 5 of the URGPA. Unfortunately, only Canada, the EC, Hong Kong, Japan, Norway and USA has submitted these data regularly since the

¹Our choice of countries is primarily determined by data availability. Both countries have submitted detailed procurement data sufficiently regularly over 1990-2003 (Japanese procurement data are missing for 1994-1996, the Swiss for 1992) and in a form amenable to econometric analysis.

Uruguay Round².

Even amongst the countries that have submitted these data, there are significant differences, both in terms of what is included and how it is included³, and the need for consistency has thus determined the choice of sample countries for this analysis. For both Japan and Switzerland, we consider all goods⁴ procured by central government entities included in Annex 1 of Appendix 1 of the URGPA; the sector descriptions are available in Table 1.

Government procurement rules at the WTO require that only contracts above a certain threshold⁵ value be subject to internationally competitive bidding. Article XIX: 5(b) of the URGPA requires submission of data on above-threshold procurement by sector according to the nationality of the winning supplier. This gives us both the value and the number of contracts supplied from abroad by sector.

Looking at these data averages by sector for both countries over 1990-2003 in Table 1, we see that Japanese goods procurement was concentrated in machinery; medical, scientific and photographic equipment; and telecom and electrical equipment (together accounting for 80.4% of total goods procurement), but apart from medical etc. equipment, market access was not high in any of these sectors either by value or number of contracts awarded. In the case of Switzerland, machinery; transport; and medical, scientific and photographic equipment were the three largest sectors accounting for 73.1% of total goods procurement over time and the propensity of Swiss governments to source from abroad was high in these sectors (as well as in agriculture; wood, paper; textiles; and telecom and electrical equipment).

<Insert Table 1 here>

We can use private sector import propensities to simulate public sector imports and then use the difference between simulated and actual levels of foreign procurement to derive a measure of the home-bias. Following Shingal (2011), we call this measure the Private-Public Purchase Differential (PPPD)⁶. Significantly, the fitted plot of PPPD against sectoral government

²Switzerland has not provided data beyond 2003. A snapshot of country procurement submissions is available at http://wto.org/english/tratop_e/gproc_e/gpstat_e.htm.

³For instance, Norway and the US employ a different classification system compared to the EC, Japan and Switzerland which makes it impossible to analyze data at the disaggregated sectoral level for the period under study. Canada provides no information on nationality of winning suppliers. Hong Kong's submissions until very recently have had restricted access.

⁴We exclude services from our analysis as IIP and price data required in our empirical analyses were unavailable for the services sectors.

⁵Thresholds differ depending on the type of procurement and on the level of government making the purchase.

⁶Formally, $PPPD_{kt} = \{[(M_{kt} - V_{kt}^f)/Y_{kt}] * ATV_{kt}\} - V_k^f$ where M_k = Sectoral total import value, V_k^f = Sectoral public import value, Y_k = Sectoral output, ATV_k = Sectoral above-threshold procurement value.

demand in Figure 1 also suggests that the magnitude of home-bias may have been greater in the large government demand sectors and in line with the Baldwin and Richardson (1972) result for such sectors, the effects of this home-bias are unlikely to be benign.

<Insert Figure 1 here>

3 Empirical model

The BRM results yield the following testable propositions:

Proposition 1 (neutrality proposition): When government demand in a sector as a share of domestic output is low and the procured good is homogeneous, then the sector’s total (public and private) imports are independent of the level of foreign procurement.

Formally, for the neutrality proposition to hold, $\frac{\partial M^P}{\partial M^G} = -1$ where M^G = public imports and M^P = private imports.

Now $\partial M^T = \partial M^G + \partial M^P$ so $\frac{\partial M^T}{\partial M^G} = 1 + \frac{\partial M^P}{\partial M^G} = 1 + (-1 \text{ from the neutrality proposition}) = 0$, where M^T = total imports.

Thus, for the neutrality proposition to hold $\frac{\partial M^T}{\partial M^G} = 0$.

Proposition 2: In large public demand sectors, a procurement home-bias results in a decline in total imports i.e. $\frac{\partial M^T}{\partial M^G} > 0$.

Proposition 3 (from Miyagiwa, 1991): When the procured good is differentiated, the relationship between total and public imports is ambiguous. However, assuming zero conjectural variations, if foreign firm demand is “sufficiently” convex and its total sales “sufficiently” large (Miyagiwa, 1991, pp. 1325), then $\frac{\partial M^T}{\partial M^G} < 0$ i.e. discriminatory public procurement can actually increase total imports.

We use an augmented import demand function (for instance see Warner and Kreinin, 1983) to test the BRM results empirically using the following estimation:

$$M_{kt}^T = \alpha_t + \alpha_k + \Omega_1 IIP_{kt} + \Omega_2 P_{kt}^M + \Omega_3 P_{kt}^d + \Omega_4 M_{kt}^G + \Omega_5 M^G \cdot size_{kt} + \Omega_6 M^G \cdot IIT_{kt} + \Omega_7 size_{kt} + \Omega_8 IIT_{kt} + \vartheta_{kt} \dots \dots \dots (1)$$

where “k” denotes the sector, M^T is the volume of total imports, IIP is the index of industrial production that proxies the impact of income on import demand, P^M is the unit value import

price (data on all three variables taken from Nicita and Olarreaga, 2007), P^d is the domestic price level (the Domestic Corporate Goods Price Index from the Bank of Japan and the Producer Price Index from Office Fédéral de la Statistique, Switzerland), M^G proxies the volume of public imports using the number of procurement contracts awarded to foreign firms⁷ (compiled from WTO-submitted data), unobserved sector-specific determinants are captured by sector-specific fixed effects (α_k) and economy-wide determinants are captured by year fixed effects (α_t).

To test for the theoretical predictions in BRM, we interact M^G with “size”, which is constructed sectorally as the share of total government demand in domestic output, and with “IIT”, which is the Grubel and Lloyd (1971) measure of intra-industry trade⁸, and serves as a proxy for the product differentiation within a sector and hence for the (in)substitutability between domestic and imported products.

Formally, $Size_k = \frac{TPV_k^A}{Y_k}$ where TPV_k^A = Sectoral measure of total public demand, Y_k = Sectoral output. Since the data reporting requirements of the URGPA require data on total procurement to be reported annually but not at the sectoral level, TPV^A is a constructed variable such that $TPV_{kt}^A = TPV_t \cdot \frac{ATV_{kt}}{\sum ATV_{kt}}$ where TPV = Total procurement value, ATV = Above-threshold procurement value. Thus, “ $size_k$ ” ≈ 0 would denote sectors where public demand was a fraction of domestic output.

The goods in the Japanese and Swiss procurement data are far more aggregated to enable their classification as homogeneous and differentiated on the basis of the Rauch (1999) classification. However, the IIT literature suggests that intra-industry trade is associated with product differentiation and *a la* Yang (1997) we therefore use the extent of IIT in a sector to proxy the extent of product differentiation in that sector. Thus, $IIT_k = 0$ would denote sectors with homogeneous goods implying perfect substitutability.

A priori, we expect Ω_1 and Ω_3 to be positive and Ω_2 to be negative. A statistically significant estimate of $\Omega_4 \approx 0$ or estimated Ω_4 statistically indifferent from zero would validate the neutrality proposition, with size and IIT as additional controls. With “size” as an additional control variable, a positive estimate of $(\Omega_4 + \Omega_5)$ significantly different from zero would validate Proposition 2. With “IIT” as an additional control, in line with Proposition 3, the expected sign of Ω_6 is ambiguous. But a statistically significant estimate of $(\Omega_4 + \Omega_6) \approx 0$ or estimated $(\Omega_4 + \Omega_6)$ statistically indifferent from zero would support the neutrality

⁷There are no data on the volume of public imports in the WTO submissions, but since we are dealing with high value above-threshold procurement, an increase in the number of contracts awarded to foreign firms must on average imply an increase in the volume of public imports.

⁸Formally, $IIT_k = 1 - [\text{abs}(X_k - M_k) / (X_k + M_k)]$ where X_k = Sectoral export value, M_k = Sectoral import value.

proposition for differentiated goods. Finally, with both “size” and “IIT” in a fully-specified equation (1), the overall estimate of $(\Omega_4 + \Omega_5 + \Omega_6)$ would depend on the relative magnitudes of Ω_5 and Ω_6 as well as the sign of the latter.

We found the dependent variable in equation (1) to be characterized by over-dispersion⁹ which rendered a log-linear OLS estimation biased. Given the scale-dependence of the negative binomial pseudo-maximum likelihood (PML) estimator (Bosquet and Boulhol, 2010), the Poisson-PML (PPML) was our preferred estimator. The adequacy of the PPML was also successfully tested using the Gauss Newton regression in Silva and Tenreyro (2006)¹⁰.

4 Results

Table 2 reports the results from estimating equation (1) on Japanese and Swiss data pooled together. Given that the Japanese economy has a larger government and is also less open than Switzerland¹¹, we estimate equation (1) on the pooled sample with country fixed effects¹². While we focus on results from the PPML estimation reported in columns VI-X, for the sake of comparison, we also report results from a standard log-linear OLS estimation in columns I-V. As a robustness check, we also replaced TPV_k^A with ATV_k in the definition of our “size” variable but found these (unreported) results to be robust to this change.

From Table 2 we see that the estimate of Ω_4 in specifications VIII through X is both economically and statistically indifferent from zero, which suggests that the neutrality proposition is validated by both “small” public demand and homogeneous goods sectors.

Estimated $(\Omega_4 + \Omega_5)$ is both economically and statistically different from zero (0.011 and 0.014 in specifications VIII and X, respectively), which supports Proposition 2 and suggests

⁹Over-dispersion in the raw data is due to unobserved heterogeneity (Greene, 1994); the description is used for data where the conditional variance exceeds the conditional mean. Formally this is tested by pitting the null of $Var(y|x) = E(y|x)$ against $Var(y|x) = E(y|x) + \alpha.E(y|x)^2$ where $\alpha > 0$ suggests over-dispersion. Following Cameron and Trivedi (2005), the null of $\alpha = 0$ against $\alpha > 0$ is the t-test of α obtained by running the auxiliary (no-constant) OLS regression $\frac{\{y - E(y|x)\}^2 - y}{E(y|x)} = \alpha.E(y|x) + \epsilon$ where $E(y|x)$ are the fitted values from estimating the Poisson model. The alternative of $\alpha > 0$ failed rejection conclusively (p-value=1).

¹⁰Formally, $\frac{\varepsilon^2}{\sqrt{E(y|x)}} = \gamma.\sqrt{E(y|x)} + \gamma(\lambda - 1).lnE(y|x).\sqrt{E(y|x)} + \xi$ is estimated using OLS, where $\varepsilon = y - E(y|x)$ and $E(y|x) = exp(x\beta)$ and the statistical significance of $\gamma.(\lambda - 1)$ is tested using a Eicker-White robust covariance matrix estimator. The null of $\gamma.(\lambda - 1) = 0$ (or $\lambda=1$ i.e. evidence for the PPML) failed rejection at the 5% level of significance (p-value = 0.066).

¹¹The average share of total government expenditure in GDP over 1990-2003 was almost 50% in Japan versus 37% in Switzerland, while the average share of trade in GDP in these economies was 19.2 and 74.6%, respectively, over the same period.

¹²Given that “sector” definition is consistent across the two countries, we do not include country-and-sector fixed effects. However, we also estimated equation (1) with country, sector and country-and-year fixed effects, but found these (unreported) results to be qualitatively similar.

that the effect of a procurement home-bias on total imports may not be neutralized in large public demand sectors. This finding holds even when we control for product differentiation within a sector, driving the overall non-zero estimate of $(\Omega_4 + \Omega_5 + \Omega_6)$ in the full-specification X.

Interestingly, estimates of $(\Omega_4 + \Omega_6)$ are found to be both economically and statistically indifferent from zero in both IX and X, which suggests that the neutrality proposition seems to hold for differentiated goods in our data¹³. Following Proposition 3, this last finding suggests that foreign suppliers to these markets may not have faced sufficiently convex demands and that they may have made insufficient total (public and private) sales to these countries in the differentiated sectors or that their conjectural variations may have been positive (Miyagiwa, 1991, pp. 1325).

<Insert Table 2 here>

To further examine these results at the country-level, we also estimated equation (1) on Japanese and Swiss data in separate regressions. The results from these, using the PPML estimator, are reported in Table 3. Though we do not find statistically significant evidence for Proposition 2 in these results for either country, we now find statistically significant evidence (though weak in the case of Japan) for the neutrality proposition for both homogeneous and differentiated goods (estimates of $\Omega_4 \approx 0$, $\Omega_4 + \Omega_6 \approx 0$ in columns IV and IX). This said, given the larger number of observations in the pooled sample, the results reported in Table 2 constitute a more robust test of the BRM theoretical predictions.

<Insert Table 3 here>

5 Conclusion

We provide new econometric evidence on the Baldwin and Richardson (1972)/Miyagiwa (1991) ineffectiveness proposition in public procurement. Our empirical result on the adverse effects of a procurement home-bias in large public demand sectors provides more support to the “preliminary evidence” (Trionfetti, 2000) in this literature on the impact of discriminatory procurement on trade flows and international specialisation. The result is also significant given the current economic stagnation in advanced economies and their well-documented home-bias in public purchase decisions during the recent crisis (Evenett, 2009a,b).

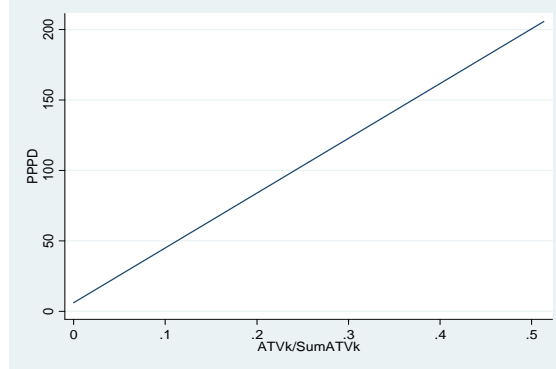
¹³The OLS estimates, on the other hand, refute all four propositions emanating from the BRM predictions.

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Figure 1: Home-bias v magnitude of government demand



Note: (1) The figure shows fitted values from a linear prediction (2) PPPD is a measure of the sectoral home-bias in public procurement; $ATV_k / \sum ATV$ is a measure of the relative magnitude of public demand by sector [“ATV” = Above-threshold procurement value] (3) Figure suggests a positive relationship between the sectoral magnitude of home-bias and that of government demand in both countries.

Table 1: Procurement and other data by sector (average 1990-2003)

Japan												
Sector	ATV	V^f	V^f/ATV	ATN	N^f	N^f/ATN	IIP	M^T	P^M	P^d	IIT	Size
Agriculture	0.7	0.2	25.8%	1.5	0.5	29.4%	99.1	14.0	1.5	97.9	0.13	0.000
Chemicals, pharma	215.2	72.6	33.8%	1761.1	498.3	28.3%	107.9	12.0	1.8	100.6	0.82	0.003
Plastic, rubber, leather	18.1	0.4	2.3%	33.0	0.5	1.4%	97.4	1.0	7.1	101.7	0.93	0.000
Wood, paper	198.7	8.6	4.3%	262.4	10.0	3.8%	92.1	13.0	0.7	101.5	0.37	0.005
Textiles	89.5	1.6	1.7%	139.3	2.5	1.8%	89.2	1.9	9.6	103.5	0.52	0.004
Stone, ceramic, glass	3.5	0.0	1.1%	9.1	0.2	2.0%	91.2	3.2	0.7	101.7	0.80	0.000
Iron & steel, non-fer metals	124.1	3.4	2.8%	158.2	6.5	4.1%	99.7	13.0	1.1	107.1	0.85	0.002
Machinery	2438.6	199.9	8.2%	1077.3	91.4	8.5%	98.5	1.1	20.2	101.4	0.48	0.018
Telecom & electrical equipment	881.9	58.8	6.7%	626.5	41.8	6.7%	119.5	15.0	21.8	111.4	0.51	0.006
Transport equipment	364.0	56.1	15.4%	351.2	31.1	8.9%	107.1	0.41	20.5	101.5	0.26	0.002
Medical, scientific, photographic equip	984.6	307.6	31.2%	2996.6	864.2	28.8%	108.1	0.15	101.4	101.1	0.70	0.050
Furniture	37.5	0.2	0.6%	100.7	0.9	0.9%	106.7	0.67	4.4	99.8	0.27	0.004
Switzerland												
Sector	ATV	V^f	V^f/ATV	ATN	N^f	N^f/ATN	IIP	M^T	P^M	P^d	IIT	Size
Agriculture	15.7	10.2	65.2%	29.1	21.2	72.8%	97.6	1.9	1.7	106.7	0.80	0.004
Chemicals, pharma	1.1	0.1	7.1%	2.5	0.4	15.6%	168.7	4.2	2.9	117.4	0.74	0.000
Plastic, rubber, leather	6.2	1.7	28.0%	9.5	1.4	14.6%	106.1	0.31	6.7	95.0	0.82	0.003
Wood, paper	3.2	1.7	52.6%	7.8	3.6	46.5%	100.6	2.5	1.0	100.9	0.80	0.003
Textiles	6.6	2.3	35.1%	16.5	5.8	35.3%	89.2	0.24	18.8	98.1	0.68	0.005
Stone, ceramic, glass	0.3	0.0	0.0%	1.9	0.0	0.0%	114.9	1.9	0.6	99.2	0.71	0.000
Iron & steel, non-fer metals	8.0	0.9	11.0%	12.8	1.5	12.0%	109.6	2.7	1.2	99.3	0.87	0.006
Machinery	112.6	82.1	72.9%	165.3	118.0	71.4%	109.6	0.52	20.2	96.8	0.80	0.010
Telecom & electrical equipment	13.4	5.5	41.0%	20.6	7.8	38.1%	106.6	0.21	27.8	96.8	0.97	0.002
Transport equipment	40.6	15.6	38.4%	35.6	13.9	39.1%	106.8	0.58	14.4	104.9	0.36	0.041
Medical, scientific, photographic equip	22.5	12.5	55.7%	33.8	21.4	63.2%	107.2	0.02	83.2	98.8	0.42	0.005
Furniture	10.2	2.9	28.2%	10.0	2.1	20.8%	100.1	0.31	4.8	97.1	0.48	0.007

Source: WTO (various years); Nicita & Olarreaga (2006); Bank of Japan (various years); Office Fédéral de la Statistique, Switzerland (various years); own calculations

Note: (1) “ATV” = Above-threshold procurement by value of contracts; “ V^f ” = Value of contracts awarded to foreign suppliers; “ATN” = Above-threshold procurement by number of contracts; “ N^f ” = Number of contracts awarded to foreign suppliers; rest of the variables are as defined in the paper (2) Units of measurement: ATV, V^f (real USD mn); ATN, N^f (units); IIP, P^M , P^d (indices); M^T (billion units); IIT, size (ratios)

Table 2: Results: Combined

	OLS log-linear (dependent variable: M^T)					PPML (dependent variable: M^T)				
	I	II	III	IV	V	VI	VII	VIII	IX	X
IP	1.061*** (0.249)	1.514*** (0.438)	1.723*** (0.432)	1.530*** (0.382)	1.655*** (0.371)	0.007*** (0.001)	0.006*** (0.001)	0.008*** (0.002)	0.006*** (0.001)	0.007*** (0.002)
P^M	-1.566*** (0.160)	-1.600*** (0.208)	-1.327*** (0.236)	-1.159*** (0.189)	-1.042*** (0.211)	-0.146*** (0.018)	-0.147*** (0.018)	-0.137*** (0.021)	-0.157*** (0.018)	-0.147*** (0.022)
P^d	1.732* (0.774)	2.934** (1.082)	3.529** (1.262)	3.127** (0.953)	2.953** (1.096)	0.010*** (0.002)	0.008*** (0.002)	0.011*** (0.002)	0.006* (0.003)	0.007** (0.003)
M^G		0.090* (0.039)	0.120* (0.054)	-0.259** (0.092)	-0.204# (0.113)		-0.000 (0.000)	0.000 (0.000)	0.002 (0.002)	0.003 (0.002)
Size			9.876** (2.932)		6.397* (2.629)			5.995** (2.136)		4.678# (2.489)
M^G .Size			-1.254 (0.845)		-0.396 (0.810)			0.011* (0.005)		0.011# (0.006)
IIT				-2.618*** (0.417)	-2.513*** (0.503)				-0.971*** (0.154)	-0.749*** (0.200)
M^G .IIT				0.626*** (0.124)	0.565*** (0.148)				-0.002 (0.002)	-0.003 (0.002)
Constant	10.456** (3.586)	2.240 (5.580)	-1.685 (6.359)	2.146 (4.774)	2.140 (5.536)	21.677*** (0.224)	21.957*** (0.300)	21.413*** (0.329)	22.428*** (0.344)	22.053*** (0.390)
# Observations	258	178	155	178	155	258	258	219	258	219
df_m	27	27	29	29	31	27	28	30	30	32
r2	0.918	0.926	0.939	0.941	0.949	0.963	0.964	0.968	0.959	0.962
Year fixed effects	Yes	Yes	Yes	Yes	Yes	Yes	Yes	Yes	Yes	Yes
Country fixed effects	Yes	Yes	Yes	Yes	Yes	Yes	Yes	Yes	Yes	Yes
Sector fixed effects	Yes	Yes	Yes	Yes	Yes	Yes	Yes	Yes	Yes	Yes

Note: (1) Legend: # $p < .1$; * $p < .05$; ** $p < .01$; *** $p < .001$ (2) Standard errors reported in brackets.

Table 3: Results: Japan v Switzerland

PPML	Japan (dependent variable: M^T)					Switzerland (dependent variable: M^T)				
	I	II	III	IV	V	VI	VII	VIII	IX	X
IIP	0.004# (0.002)	0.004 (0.002)	0.003 (0.002)	0.000 (0.002)	0.000 (0.002)	-0.001* (0.000)	-0.001# (0.000)	0.000 (0.000)	-0.001# (0.000)	0.000 (0.000)
P^M	-0.074*** (0.020)	-0.074*** (0.020)	-0.065** (0.020)	-0.052** (0.016)	-0.046** (0.016)	-0.026*** (0.007)	-0.030*** (0.008)	-0.032*** (0.007)	-0.029*** (0.007)	-0.032*** (0.007)
P^d	0.003 (0.003)	0.003 (0.003)	0.003 (0.003)	0.012** (0.004)	0.011** (0.004)	-0.003* (0.001)	-0.002# (0.001)	-0.005*** (0.002)	-0.002* (0.001)	-0.005** (0.002)
M^G		0.000 (0.000)	-0.000 (0.000)	0.004# (0.002)	0.003 (0.002)		0.001 (0.001)	0.001 (0.001)	-0.007** (0.002)	0.004 (0.008)
Size			19.017* (7.821)		12.345# (6.916)			-0.298 (0.341)		-0.310 (0.327)
M^G .Size			-0.006 (0.006)		-0.005 (0.004)			0.104 (0.090)		0.123 (0.085)
IIT				1.918*** (0.511)	1.837*** (0.516)				-0.063 (0.133)	0.005 (0.139)
M^G .IIT				-0.005# (0.003)	-0.004 (0.003)				0.010** (0.003)	-0.004 (0.010)
Constant	22.647*** (0.470)	22.644*** (0.491)	22.731*** (0.471)	21.801*** (0.488)	21.882*** (0.480)	21.655*** (0.160)	21.608*** (0.150)	21.738*** (0.155)	21.655*** (0.202)	21.728*** (0.221)
# Observations	120	120	120	120	120	138	138	99	138	99
df_m	23	24	26	26	28	26	27	26	29	28
r2	0.965	0.965	0.967	0.975	0.975	0.996	0.996	0.998	0.996	0.998
Year fixed effects	Yes	Yes	Yes	Yes	Yes	Yes	Yes	Yes	Yes	Yes
Sector fixed effects	Yes	Yes	Yes	Yes	Yes	Yes	Yes	Yes	Yes	Yes

Note: (1) Legend: # $p < .1$; * $p < .05$; ** $p < .01$; *** $p < .001$ (2) Standard errors reported in brackets.