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## High-growth countries are more efficient in using their capital investment

Table 2. Investment rate and its efficiency in developing countries, 1971-1992

Country grouping and item	1971-1981	1982-1992	1971-1992
<b>Developing countries</b>			
GDP growth	5.7	4.2	5.0
Investment rate	21.7	21.7	21.7
Incremental capital-output ratio	3.2	3.7	3.2
Inverse of capital-output ratio	0.31	0.27	0.31
<b>High-growth countries</b>			
GDP growth	7.1	6.9	7.0
Investment rate	22.2	25.6	23.8
Incremental capital-output ratio	2.4	2.9	2.5
Inverse of capital-output ratio	0.42	0.34	0.40
<b>Medium-growth countries</b>			
GDP growth	5.3	2.8	4.1
Investment rate	21.3	19.6	20.5
Incremental capital-output ratio	3.6	3.7	3.4
Inverse of capital-output ratio	0.28	0.27	0.29
<b>Low-growth countries</b>			
GDP growth	3.0	0.6	1.8
Investment rate	21.7	17.4	19.6
Incremental capital-output ratio	4.6	6.6	4.9
Inverse of capital-output ratio	0.22	0.15	0.20

Source: *World Economic Outlook* (Washington, D.C., International Monetary Fund, May 1993).

Hence, there is a justification for Governments not only to encourage higher investment rates, but also to ensure that scarce investment resources are used efficiently. The efficiency of both private and public investment is influenced by the broader policy environment in which they operate. Constraints on new firms competing in the existing market, relative price misalignment, mandatory credit-allocation schemes and excessive controls and licensing requirements on investment all contribute to a lowering of the rate of return on investment, and hence a decline in its efficiency. The adoption of a low-protection trade regime and the encouragement of domestic market deregulation can have a significant impact by increasing competitive pressures on domestic enterprises to improve their efficiency and to achieve internationally competitive performance standards.<sup>1, 2</sup> On the other hand, outward-looking policies could also promote investment efficiency, as exemplified by the experience of countries in East Asia, including, more recently, China. Meanwhile, conditions favourable to the development of technological capabilities and human resources can also promote productivity growth and investment efficiency, as discussed in the sections below.

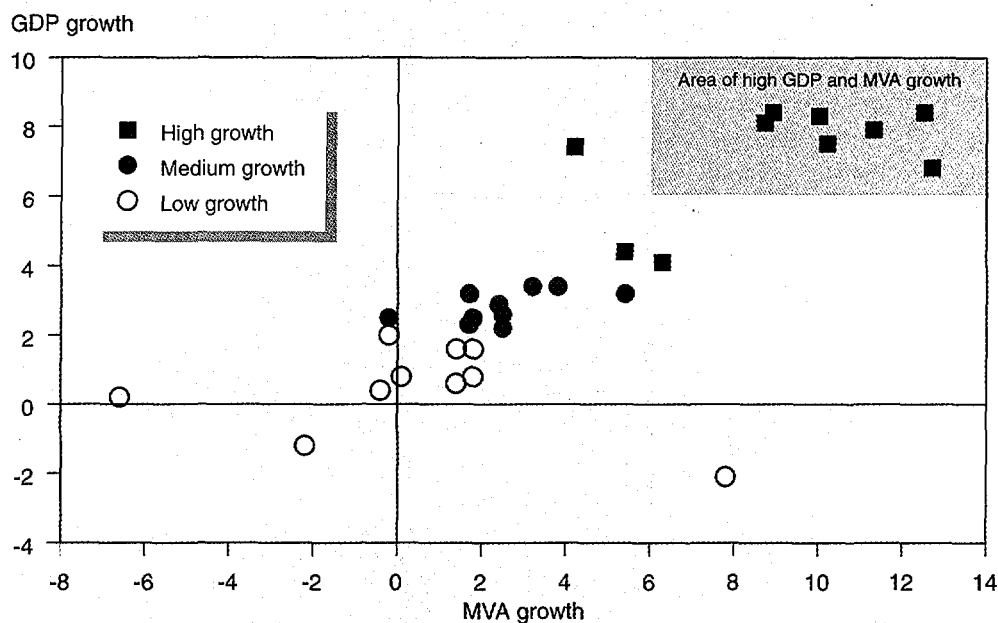
## Type of investment

*Does the sectoral allocation of investment affect economic growth?* In particular, does industrial investment yield higher social returns than other forms of investment? Should Governments and international agencies be concerned about the size of the manufacturing sector and its relative contribution to national income? There is an important tradition in economics that would give an affirmative answer to the foregoing questions. That manufacturing is an engine of growth role is supported by the statistical relationship between the growth of manufacturing and the growth of national income. Fast-growing economies tend to have a relatively rapid rate of manufacturing growth and, conversely, slow-growing economies tend to have a slow rate of manufacturing growth (see figure 2).

According to a long-held view, a dynamic relationship exists between the growth of manufacturing output and the growth of productivity, which is attributed to learning by doing and technological improvements. There are two additional arguments that attach special importance to the growth of the manufacturing sector. The first

## Manufacturing plays a significant role in economic growth

Figure 2. Average rates of GDP and MVA growth in selected countries, 1970-1995 (Percentage)



Source: UNIDO database.

Note: Countries were divided into three equal groups, classified as high-growth, medium-growth and low-growth on the basis of their ranking in GDP during the period 1970-1995. Each point on the graph represents the average rates of GDP growth and investment of a selected country within each group.

relates to the symbiotic relationship between the manufacturing and service sectors. The service sector depends heavily on the size and rate of growth of the manufacturing sector, and the pace of industrial growth generates demand in the service sector. The second argument relates to the links between manufacturing output and exports. Expanding trade in manufactured products increases the availability of more specialized intermediate inputs and machinery from trading partners. In addition, it gives the domestic economy access to many types of productive knowledge not embodied in material inputs. The extent of international trade in manufactured products therefore affects the rate of productivity growth and the overall rate of growth of the economy.\*

\*P. M. Romer, "Two strategies for economic development using ideas and producing ideas", *Proceedings of the World Bank Annual Conference on Development Economics: Supplement to World Bank Economic Review* (Washington, D.C., World Bank, 1992), pp. 63-92, emphasizes the importance of the transmission of ideas.

*Is investing in physical capital sufficient to sustain growth?* A further direction for empirical investigation has been to examine whether the composition of investment makes a difference to growth performance. The simplistic notion that capital accumulation alone is sufficient to guarantee long-term growth has often been challenged. Sustained growth depends on human capital and technological knowledge as well as on the accumulation of physical capital. If the concept of capital is broadened to include human capital—that is, the knowledge and skills embodied in the workforce—and the investment made in expanding the stock of human capital is added to investment in physical capital (see box 2), then the empirical evidence shows a much stronger relationship between investment (physical and human) and economic growth.

A recent study shows that in the high-growth economies of East Asia, roughly two thirds of growth during the period 1960-1985 can be explained by a combination of investments in physical and human capital; the remaining one third is a residual, at least some of which is due to technical change that can be attributed to the growth

of technological capital.\* The study also shows that 34 per cent of the difference in predicted growth rates between the high-growth group in East Asia and the countries of Latin America is due to higher rates of physical investment, while 38 per cent of the growth difference is due to higher investment in human capital. On the other hand, differences in human capital are the predominant factor in explaining the growth difference between Africa and the high-growth countries of East Asia. In such comparisons, however, many of the differences remain unexplained. The analysis fails to

reflect particular aspects of economies in Latin America and sub-Saharan Africa that contribute to a poor growth performance, which is likely to be, at least in part, the result of government policy in those regions.

There is a close relationship between the accumulation of physical capital and technological change. If productivity growth is related to the accumulation of physical—and human—capital, and is thereby made endogenous, then the increase in capital will at the same time contribute to technical progress. Empirical evidence has confirmed the close correlation between investment and technological progress, which, together, show a strong interrelationship with economic growth (see box 3).

\*These results are reported in World Bank, *The East Asian Miracle: Economic Growth and Public Policy*, World Bank Policy Research Report (Washington, D.C., 1993), table 1.9.

## Investment in human capital and technology needs to be considered

### Box 2. Definition of investment

A simple definition of investment is expenditure for purposes other than immediate consumption. It is helpful, however, to distinguish between different forms of investment, which can have different growth effects. Three separate categories fall under the broad definition of investment:

- (a) Additions to physical capital, which can, in turn, be subdivided into equipment and structures;
- (b) Additions to human capital primarily through expenditure on education;
- (c) Additions to technological capital in the form of expenditure on research and development.

## Technological change affects the investment rate and hence growth

### Box 3. Investment, technical progress and output growth

The rate of technological change, or innovation, is undoubtedly an important factor affecting the rate of investment, as most technological innovation is in new machinery and equipment. Clearly, the separation customarily made in the neoclassical growth model *à la* Solow between investment and innovation is artificial.<sup>a</sup>

A number of recent empirical studies for testing the endogenous growth theory reveal the interrelationship between technical progress and investment. For example, it has been suggested that the simultaneous movement of investment ratios and growth rates observed in the cross-country data sets may be largely caused by the action of a third factor, namely, technological innovation.<sup>b</sup> There is also a close correlation between technological progress and investment shown by a positive and statistically significant correlation between total factor productivity growth and the ratio of investment in equipment to GDP for a large sample of developing countries.<sup>c</sup> An extremely high rate of productive investment in new capital goods embodying advanced, often imported, technology has been critical for successful transformation and upgrading of the newly industrializing economies (NIEs) of East Asia, where late industrialization has been proceeding through learning and adaptation of foreign technology.

<sup>a</sup>Klaus Schmidt-Hebbel, Luis Servén and Andrés Solimano, "Savings and investment: paradigms, puzzles and policies", *The World Bank Research Observer*, vol. 11, No. 1 (1996), pp. 87-117, and Yilmaz Akyuz and Charles Gore, "The investment-profits menu in East Asian industrialization", *World Development*, vol. 24, No. 3 (1996), pp. 461-470.

<sup>b</sup>Robert G. King and Ross Levine, "Capital fundamentalism, economic development and economic growth", *Carnegie-Rochester Conference Series on Public Policy*, No. 40 (June 1994), pp. 259-300.

<sup>c</sup>J. Bradford De Long and Lawrence H. Summers, "How strongly do developing economies benefit from equipment investment?", *Journal of Monetary Economics*, No. 32 (1993), pp. 395-414.

*What type of physical investment matters?* It has been argued that physical investment in equipment is considerably more important in growth terms than the equivalent investment in buildings. The premise is based on an external benefit whereby returns to society from investment in equipment are judged to exceed those to individual investors as a result of the transfer of knowledge and learning that accompany such investment. If the investment in equipment of one firm embodies new technology, other unrelated firms can benefit from the spread of knowledge arising from that investment. The argument in favour of the special role of investment in equipment says nothing directly about whether the equipment involved should be locally produced or imported. It does stress the need to keep down the relative price of machinery and equipment in order to allow savings to go further and purchase a greater quantity of equipment, which can be interpreted as an argument against protecting domestic producers of equipment, even in the presence of important external benefits from local production.

Although the hypothesis that investment in equipment plays a special role in growth is controversial, with empirical evidence both for and against it, the theory is in line with the interpretation of many economic historians concerning the critical role of investment in equipment in the long-term growth of currently industrialized economies and high-growth NIEs of East Asia.\*

*Does public investment drive out private investment?* Recent studies have emphasized the differential effect of public and private investment on growth.<sup>3,4,5</sup> That is partly due to the increasing role that private investment has played in economic development over the past decades as a result of the rapid trend towards liberalization of the world economy. In industrialized countries, the major share of investment, as conventionally measured, comes from the private sector. In recent years, approximately 20 per cent of GDP has been invested in those countries, less than one fifth of which has been public sector investment.<sup>6</sup> The proportion of investment accounted for by the public sector is more variable in developing countries, depending on the size of the public sector and the level of development. In countries such as Chile or Thailand, the public sector share of investment is similar to that in industrialized countries. On the other hand, it may exceed 50 per cent in countries such as India and those in sub-Saharan Africa (see table 3).<sup>7,8</sup>

\*The case was put by J. Bradford De Long and Lawrence H. Summers, "How strongly do developing economies benefit from equipment investment?", *Journal of Monetary Economics*, vol. 32, No. 3 (1993), pp. 395-414.

### Private investment accounts for an increasing share of total investment in many developing countries

Table 3. Investment by region, weighted averages, 1970-1994 (Percentage of GDP)

Region and type of investment	1970-1979	1980-1989	1990-1994
<b>East Asia</b>			
Private	18.0	19.4	25.5
Public	6.6	8.2	8.5
Total	24.6	27.6	34.0
<b>Latin America</b>			
Private	13.2	14.1	14.7
Public	6.8	6.3	5.4
Total	20.0	20.4	20.1
<b>Sub-Saharan Africa</b>			
Private	12.2	9.8	10.0
Public	13.6	9.5	6.3
Total	25.8	19.3	16.3

Source: International Finance Corporation, *Trends in Private Investment in Developing Countries, 1990-1994*, Discussion Paper No. 28 (Washington, D.C., 1995).

Different types of public investment are likely to have different effects on private investment and overall growth. For example, public investment in basic infrastructure, such as roads, ports and telecommunications, which support private investment projects, is likely to have a major impact on growth and could attract private investment, whereas public investment in industrial and commercial projects, where public enterprises compete with private firms, may discourage private investment and have a less favourable impact on growth.

Direct public sector investment in physical and human capital formation may also be needed to overcome market failure. In East Asia and elsewhere, investment in human capital formation to create an educated and skilled workforce has contributed significantly to growth. In the low-income countries of Africa and South Asia, market failure is widespread and investment in the private sector constrained. In such circumstances, public investment in infrastructure can act as a powerful catalyst to investment in the private sector and growth. It is noteworthy, however, that in recent years there has also been increasing participation by the private sector in the development of physical and human capital in developing countries.

*Does foreign direct investment have a differential effect on growth as compared with investment*

of domestic resources?\*

Worldwide flows of FDI have increased dramatically in recent years. FDI is a composite bundle of assets, covering resources for investment, transfer of technology and other so-called intangible assets. The revival of interest in capital accumulation and economic growth has encouraged research into the channels through which FDI might be expected to promote economic growth. Since FDI is a composite of capital, know-how and technology, its impact on growth is multiple. The various effects can be both positive and negative.

Positive effects arise mainly through transfer of technology and other intangible assets, such as skills and know-how, which lead to improved efficiency in the use of resources and increased productivity. Through capital accumulation, FDI can enhance growth by encouraging the incorporation of new inputs and technologies into production in the recipient country. Through transfers of knowledge, FDI is expected to improve existing labour training and the acquisition and diffusion of skills as well as to introduce new management practices and organizational arrangements. Negative economic effects can arise from FDI if the market power of the transnational corporation allows it to generate abnormally high profits and transfer them abroad, rather than reinvest them in the local economy.

There is a substantial body of evidence to show that the productivity of transnational corporations is superior to that of domestic firms. Likewise, numerous empirical studies confirm the presence in host countries of spillover effects from transnational corporations that create benefits for the local economy. Transnational corporations can also assist domestic exporters in gaining access to international markets and building linkages with international networks. On the whole, the evidence seems to support the view that FDI tends to have net positive effects on the economy of the host country in terms of productivity and efficiency gains.

Do such gains translate into higher long-term economic growth? \*\* Here again, recent empirical evidence suggests that the contribution of FDI to growth in developing countries is positive, although the effectiveness of FDI in promoting

growth is dependent on the type of trade regime in place in the host country. FDI under a regime of open trade is likely to promote growth. That can be explained by the higher rate of technical innovation and spillover benefits associated with FDI as opposed to domestic investment.

## Key determinants of investment: some policy concerns

If the growth of manufacturing and the growth of national income are intrinsically linked, the crucial policy question is how best can the expansion of manufacturing be stimulated. Given the links between investment and economic growth, a similar relationship should hold between manufacturing investment and growth. In the following analysis, therefore, the focus will be on manufacturing investment as a means of stimulating manufacturing growth.

In all countries, investment in manufacturing is subject to sharp fluctuations, largely owing to the complex interrelationship between income and investment, whereby investment is both a cause of and a response to changes in income. The obvious reasons for investment decisions are reasonably well understood, although the precise underlying factors may be more difficult to disentangle.

### *Investment-profit nexus*

If the aim is to maximize long-term profits, then a firm will decide to invest if the investment adds more to revenue than to costs. Since the focus is on the long term, the discounted stream of future revenue should therefore exceed the discounted stream of future costs, both revenue and costs being discounted at an interest rate that reflects the cost of funds to the firm. Under such conditions, the investment must add to the net worth of the firm and technically can be said to have a positive net present value. Hence, factors that raise expected long-run revenue, reduce expected long-run costs or lower the expected interest rate on funds will have a positive effect on investment.

On the cost side, shortages of skilled labour or particular material inputs are likely to cause either cost increases or shortfalls in production. Some shortages might be remedied by a change of policy coupled with adjustments in the overall policy framework. Removal of barriers to labour mobility, in the form of wage controls or an active State-run training programme, may assist in dealing with the issue of skill shortages. Similarly, if scarce material imports are available abroad but not

\*E. M. Graham, *Foreign Direct Investment in the World Economy*, IMF Working Paper (Washington, D.C., International Monetary Fund, June 1995), pp. 120-135, summarizes the recent evidence on this issue.

\*\*E. Borensztein, J. De Gregorio and J.-W. Lee, *How does Foreign Direct Investment Affect Economic Growth?*, IMF Working Paper (Washington, D.C., International Monetary Fund, 1994), concentrates on the impact of FDI on growth, as does V. N. Balasubramanyam, M. Salisu and D. Sapsford, "Foreign direct investment and growth", *Economic Journal*, vol. 106, No. 434 (January 1996), pp. 92-105.

domestically, liberalization of import controls can promote fuller utilization of capacity. Fluctuations in exchange rates will have an impact on costs as well as revenue, and will be significant where imports are a high proportion of either investment or operating costs. Tax policy can also be influential, since taxes on inputs raise costs to investors and taxes on profits reduce the net revenue accruing from an investment.

Most countries currently have some form of investment incentive programme designed to encourage investment by reducing the tax burden on firms. Tax concessions are the most commonly encountered investment incentives. They can take a variety of forms and can be automatic or discretionary, general or selective, temporary or permanent. Recent empirical literature examines the impact of specific types of tax incentive commonly used in developing countries.<sup>9</sup> Preferential corporate tax rates are found to be a poor instrument for promoting new investment because the tax concession is not directly related to the volume of new investment. The granting of tax holidays creates the additional problem of encouraging the shift of taxable income into the firm during the holiday period. Investment tax credits for research and development (R & D) and the acquisition of equipment embodying advanced technologies have been found empirically to be more effective.<sup>10</sup>

Some of the most obvious influences on revenue consist in responses to economic policy. The growth of demand in a particular market may be strongly influenced by the wider macroeconomic environment, so that deflationary fiscal and monetary policies leading to a contraction of real disposable incomes will reduce current demand. Hence, if low current demand influences expected future demand, an investment would be postponed. Similarly, an inappropriate exchange rate policy in the form of an overvalued rate for the local currency can give an inadequate incentive to manufacturing investment because of the obstacle it creates for achieving price competitiveness in export markets.

Surveys of manufacturing have often revealed that the rate of return that investors require to justify their new investment is considerably higher than prevailing real interest rates.\* Anecdotal evidence suggests that required real rates of return

\*For example, a figure of between 17 per cent and 20 per cent in normal terms is reported in the United Kingdom of Great Britain and Northern Ireland, which is equivalent to a real return of more than 15 per cent. See S. Bond and T. Jenkinson, "The assessment: investment performance and policy", *Oxford Review of Economic Policy*, vol. 12, No. 2 (1996). For an example of a survey of investors' intentions in a developing country, Nepal, see R. Chitrakar, *Foreign Investment and Technology Transfer in Developing Countries* (Avebury, Aldershot, 1994).

are even higher, at levels of 20 per cent or more, in developing countries and economies in transition. Such high returns are normally rationalized as a risk premium, given the uncertainty attached to manufacturing investment, particularly in low-income economies.

Table 4 provides a regional comparison of the average rates of return on manufacturing investment by corporations in the United States of America from 1980 to 1993. The figures indicate that, on average, manufacturing investment in developing countries recorded a higher return compared with that in industrialized countries during the period, providing an incentive for foreign investment by industrialized countries. During the 1980s, Asia was the most profitable regional location and Latin America the least profitable. During the early 1990s, however, the profitability of Latin America improved, while that of Asia declined considerably.

### Manufacturing investment in developing countries provides higher returns compared with that in industrialized countries

Table 4. Rates of return on foreign manufacturing investment for United States corporations, 1980-1993 (Average annual percentage returns)<sup>a</sup>

Region or country grouping	1980-1993	1985-1989	1990-1993
Africa	16.7	23.3	16.1
Asia	20.8	24.0	18.2
Latin America	13.1	15.4	17.4
Industrialized countries	13.0	17.5	13.1

Source: United Nations Conference on Trade and Development, *World Investment Report 1995* (Geneva, 1996).

<sup>a</sup>Returns are presumed to be net of local tax.

### Uncertainties depress investment

In addition to the investment-profit nexus, instability can also depress investment because of the heightened uncertainty that it creates (see box 4). Sources of uncertainty relevant to investment decisions are diverse. They include uncertainty regarding such matters as the demand for and prices of output, interest rates and the real exchange rate, tax policies, the political and social situation and the credibility of policy reforms. Adequate levels of manufacturing investment will not be forthcoming in an environment of high and fluctuating inflation, where nominal interest rates are high and where exchange rates are either unstable

or significantly overvalued. As evidence of this, the strong investment performance of the economies of East Asia during the period since 1980 can be compared with that of many economies in Latin America, where macroeconomic instability provides a key to explaining the much weaker investment performance in the region.

Certainly, the investment pause—the weak and delayed investment observed in the aftermath of adjustment programmes in developing countries—can be explained by the problem of the credibility of policies, as well as by the difficulties of maintaining macroeconomic stability on a sustainable course. The credibility problem can pose a major

constraint on fixed investment in reforming economies. Unless investors are fully convinced that reforms are permanent, their concern that reforms may be reversed will become a key consideration in their investment decisions,<sup>11,12</sup> because the possibility of policy reversal increases the option value of waiting before undertaking investment projects. When reform policies are perceived as unsustainable or as only short-term measures in the light of the marked social costs involved, the time horizons of decisions made by investors may be substantially shortened. This may be the chief obstacle to eliciting the desired responses of the private sector to policies of economic reform.<sup>11</sup>

### Investors prefer to wait and see in an environment of high uncertainty

#### Box 4. Theory of investment under uncertainty

The intrinsically volatile nature of private investment is well recognized in any conventional Keynesian investment function, since an investor's expectation of future income streams from investment introduces an uncertainty as a key factor affecting investment decisions. However, a recent, rapidly growing body of literature on investment makes the powerful investment-deterrent effect of uncertainty a focal point of analysis.<sup>a</sup> The new theory is built on the following distinctive characteristics surrounding fixed investment decisions:<sup>b</sup>

- (a) Investment decisions inevitably have to face uncertainty about future returns and costs. At best, investors can attach subjective probabilities to the possible outcomes;<sup>c</sup>
- (b) Most fixed capital investments are partly or completely irreversible: the initial cost of investment is at least partly sunk. Hence, an investment decision is a choice to incur a sunk cost;
- (c) Investors can control the timing of investment and postpone it in order to acquire more information about the future. They have the option of delaying the investment.

In light of the partial or complete irreversibility of capital investments, investors have an incentive to postpone commitments and wait for new information. The option value of waiting can be considerable, especially in a highly uncertain environment. According to such an option-based investment model, the optimal investment policy should balance the value of waiting for new information with the cost of postponing the investment in terms of foregone returns. The anticipated return must exceed the purchase and installation cost by an amount equal to the value of keeping the option alive.

The critical threshold that must be reached by the expected returns required to trigger investment is influenced by uncertainty and irreversibility. If volatility increases, the profitability threshold for investment will also rise. Under such conditions, firms will be more reluctant to invest, in order to avoid being caught with too much capital should the future turn out to be worse than expected. Hence, the new approach concludes that uncertainty and instability may be seriously harmful to fixed investment decisions, and that changes in uncertainty may have a strong effect on aggregate demand.

A number of studies have confirmed that high levels of uncertainty and instability severely deter private investment. An increase in the volatility of interest rates reduces investment, while sunk costs of entry may discourage firms from moving into export activities that would appear profitable in the light of the current level of the real exchange rate. Therefore, the volatility of the variables may have a more important effect on investment than do their actual levels. Focusing on the effects of credibility, Ibarra shows that the estimated path of the probability of reversal of reform explains the slump in private investment following trade liberalization during the late 1980s in Mexico.<sup>d</sup>

Other studies also confirm that macroeconomic instability, measured by the volatility of the terms of trade, levels of inflation, the real exchange rate etc., has a visible adverse effect on private investment, and that private investment is profoundly affected by political and social instability, measured by the degree of income inequality, rapid government turnover or indicators of enforcement of property rights.

The policy implications of the new literature on the theory of investment under uncertainty can be far-reaching in relation to the pace and sequence of reform policies. For example, the theory suggests



that if the timing of investment is affected by uncertainty, ensuring the stability and predictability of the policy environment can assume pivotal importance in restoring the confidence needed to encourage private investment, rather than just changing price levels and policy incentives.

<sup>a</sup>Avnish K. Dixit and Robert S. Pindyck, *Investment under Uncertainty* (Princeton, N.J., Princeton University Press, 1994); Klaus Schmidt-Hebbel, Luis Servén and Andrés Solimano, "Savings and investment: paradigms, puzzles and policies", *The World Bank Research Observer*, vol. 11, No. 1 (1996), pp. 87-117; Luis Servén and Andrés Solimano, eds., *Striving for Growth after Adjustment: the Role of Capital Formation* (Washington, D.C., World Bank, 1993); Luis Servén, "Irreversibility, uncertainty and private investment: analytical issues and some lessons for Africa", paper presented at the African Economic Research Consortium Workshop, Nairobi, May 1996; Pasquale Scaramozzino, "Investment irreversibility and finance constraints", *Oxford Bulletin of Economics and Statistics* (forthcoming, 1997).

<sup>b</sup>Dixit and Pindyck, op. cit.

<sup>c</sup>Here, it is useful to make a clear distinction between the two interrelated concepts used in finance and investment literature: uncertainty and risk. For risk, the distribution of outcomes may be summarized by a probability distribution. In contrast, with uncertainty, no probability distribution can be attached to the expectation of an outcome. Risks can be managed, to the extent they can be quantified and anticipated with a known degree of probability. Thus, Servén and Solimano (*Striving for Growth after Adjustment* . . . , p.106) have noted that: "The effect of uncertainty is independent of investors' risk preferences or the extent to which risks may be diversifiable. Investors may be risk-neutral and their risks diversifiable, but investment would still be hostage to the perceived degree of uncertainty."

<sup>d</sup>Luis Alberto Ibarra, "Credibility of trade policy reform and investment: the Mexican experience", *Journal of Development Economics*, vol. 47 (1995), pp. 39-60.

The impact of uncertainty may be most relevant to investment in the manufacturing sector, where sunk costs of entry and exit are generally high. In particular, the deterrence of the investment by the resulting prevalence of short-term considerations can be most acutely felt in more skill- and knowledge-intensive industries for which the learning and gestation period is longer. Thus, the perception that reforms may be unsustainable may have a particularly adverse long-term effect on industrialization and diversification, as is the case in Ghana (see box 5).<sup>13</sup>

In general, investors face a choice between irreversible fixed investment and more liquid assets. Faced with investment irreversibility and doubts about policy, they are likely to exercise an option to wait. As a result, a revival of private investment is hard to stimulate. Since the sustainability of a reform programme depends on its ability to generate sufficient fixed investment, the economy could remain trapped in a situation of perpetual low investment. Lack of sufficient investments may further delay growth, increase social hardship and ultimately force the reversal of the reforms, confirming the initial scepticism of investors.

## High uncertainties affect manufacturing investment

### Box 5. Impact of uncertainty on the investment performance of Ghana

The case of Ghana provides a striking example of the poor response of private investment to reforms. During the reform years of 1985 to 1991, Ghana "had made great strides in creating a positive environment for increased investments and exports. The foreign exchange regime is favourable, and while the investment climate is not perfect, it has improved significantly."<sup>a</sup> Despite the progress in policy reforms, the response of the private sector has been poor compared with the expectations of the Government and donor agencies. "In the reform year, new private investments fell well below planned targets, and capacity utilization of existing firms remained low. By 1990 the manufacturing sector (which is mainly private) utilized only 37 per cent of its capacity after rising from less than 20 per cent in 1983. Low investment in the manufacturing sector is also reflected in the fact that during 1984-1991, the manufacturing sector contribution to GDP averaged only 9 per cent, compared to the peak figure of 20 per cent in 1976. At its lowest point, in 1983, its contribution was 7 per cent."<sup>b</sup>

Aryeetey (1994) explains such a situation in the context of the theory of principal and agent, that is, Government and the private investor, respectively. An agent has to make an investment decision in an environment of high uncertainty, where the policy credibility with regard to the sustainability of reforms in the medium to long term is a main source of anxiety. In such an environment, the agent chooses to put capital into short-term assets in sectors of the economy with relatively lower sunk costs

**Box 5. (continued)**

and shorter turnover periods, such as trading, rather than into long-term physical investments. Consequently, the distributive trade subsector becomes a booming sector. Instead of embarking on a steady path towards industrialization and diversification, "Ghana has become a nation of traders. There have been newspaper reports of investors obtaining international loans to import inputs for their manufacturing plants with public guarantees and then diverting these to import finished consumer items for retailing."<sup>c</sup>

<sup>a</sup>*Trade and Investment Project Document* (Washington, D.C., United States Agency for International Development, 1992) cited in Ernest Aryeetey, "Private investment under uncertainty in Ghana", *World Development*, vol. 22, No. 8 (1994), pp. 1211-1221.

<sup>b</sup>*Ibid.*

<sup>c</sup>*Ibid.*

**Notes**

<sup>1</sup>C. Kirkpatrick, "Does trade liberalization assist third world industrial development?", *International Review of Applied Economics*, vol. 9 (1995), pp. 22-41.

<sup>2</sup>J. Sachs and A. Warner, "Economic reform and the process of global integration", *Brookings Papers on Economic Activity*, No. 1 (1995).

<sup>3</sup>Luis Servén and A. Andres Solimano, eds., *Striving for Growth after Adjustment: the Role of Capital Formation* (Washington, D.C., World Bank, 1993).

<sup>4</sup>R. Ram, "Productivity of public and private investment in developing countries: a broad international perspective", *World Development*, vol. 24, No. 8 (1996), pp. 1371-1378.

<sup>5</sup>W. Easterly and S. Rebelo, "Fiscal policy and economic growth: an empirical investigation", *Journal of Monetary Economics*, vol. 32, No. 3 (1993), pp. 417-458.

<sup>6</sup>International Monetary Fund, "Saving in a growing world economy", *World Economic Outlook* (Washington, D.C., May 1995), pp. 67-89.

<sup>7</sup>David Goldsbrough and others, *Reinvigorating Growth in Developing Countries*, International Monetary

Fund Occasional Paper 139 (Washington, D.C., International Monetary Fund, July 1996).

<sup>8</sup>World Bank, *Adjustment in Africa: Reforms, Results, and the Road Ahead* (New York, Oxford University Press, 1994).

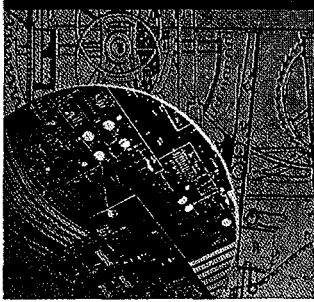
<sup>9</sup>Klaus Schmidt-Hebbel, Luis Servén and Andres Solimano, "Saving and investment: paradigms, puzzles and policies", *World Bank Research Observer*, vol. 11, No. 1 (1996), pp. 61-86.

<sup>10</sup>J. M. Mintz, "Corporate tax holidays and investment", *World Bank Economic Review*, vol. 4 (1990), pp. 81-102.

<sup>11</sup>Dani Rodrick, "Policy uncertainty and private investment in developing countries", *Journal of Development Economics*, No. 36 (October 1991), pp. 229-242.

<sup>12</sup>Luis Servén, "Irreversibility, uncertainty and private investment: analytical issues and some lessons for Africa", paper presented at the African Economic Research Consortium Workshop, Nairobi, May 1996.

<sup>13</sup>Ernest Aryeetey, "Private investment under uncertainty in Ghana", *World Development*, vol. 22, No. 8 (1994), pp. 1211-1221.



# 2

## Global industrial change: the role of investment

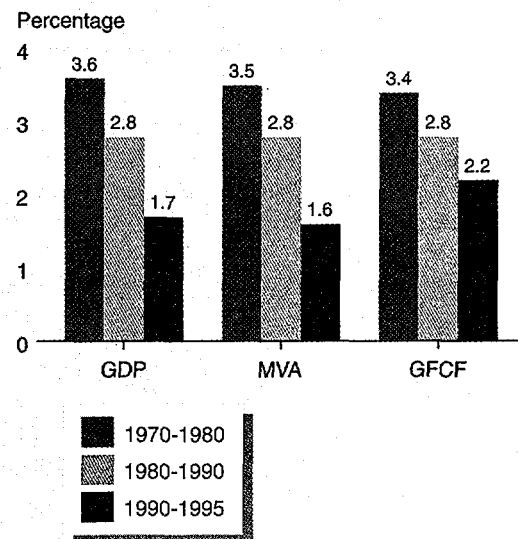
One of the main features of global economic development over the past two and a half decades has been the prolonged sluggishness of average world GDP growth. After expanding strongly at approximately 5 per cent per year during the post-war golden age of unparalleled prosperity from 1950 to 1973,<sup>1</sup> the world economy overheated in the early 1970s because of mounting inflationary pressures. The oil price rises instituted by the Organization of Petroleum Exporting Countries (OPEC) in 1974 marked the beginning of a prolonged period of economic downturn, which persisted into the 1990s. The average annual rate of growth of GDP fell steadily from 3.6 per cent during the 1970s to 2.8 per cent and 1.7 per cent respectively during the 1980s and the first half of the 1990s (see figure 3).

In industrialized countries, the annual GDP growth dropped by almost half, from 3.2 per cent during the 1970s to 1.7 per cent during 1990-1996. The fall was even sharper for economies in transition, many of which are still facing considerable problems in their reform process. In those economies, a positive growth rate of 5.4 per cent during the 1970s was quickly reversed into a negative rate of -8.2 per cent during the 1990s. In contrast, the decline in developing countries as a whole was less severe with average GDP growth declining from 5.7 per cent to 4.9 per cent during the period. At the same time, growth in developing countries as a whole outpaced that of industrialized countries and economies in transition.

Capital formation contributed to a high percentage of world economic growth during the golden age, a period characterized by considerable growth in manufacturing, as many developing countries aggressively pursued industrialization as a strategy for rapid socio-economic development. For many countries, however, the growth of capital formation and manufacturing declined rapidly from the early 1970s in tandem with the period of slower world economic growth. Growth of world gross fixed capital formation and MVA fell steadily

### Investment and manufacturing growth fell steadily between 1970 and 1995

Figure 3. Growth rates of world GDP, MVA and GFCF, 1970-1995



Source: UNIDO database.

Note: GFCF denotes gross fixed capital formation.

from 3.4 per cent and 3.5 per cent per year, respectively, during the 1970s to 2.2 per cent and 1.6 per cent per year, respectively, during the first half of the 1990s, while their respective contributions to GDP growth\* also dropped from 21.7 per cent and 23.4 per cent to 17.4 per cent and 19.3 per cent during the same period.

Such trends in aggregate performance masked vast differences in economic and industrial performance among various developing countries and economies in transition. While many countries

\*The contribution to GDP growth is calculated by multiplying the respective growth rates of developing countries by their share in GDP at the base year. The percentage share of the contribution is the ratio of the contribution to GDP growth expressed as a percentage.

experienced declining economic growth linked to decreasing investment and falling MVA growth rates, a number, notably in East and South-East Asia, were still able to sustain robust growth supported by high rates of investment and

industrialization. The sections below offer some insights into the pattern of economic growth, particularly in investment and manufacturing, in developing countries and economies in transition from 1970 to 1995.

## DEVELOPING COUNTRIES

In developing countries, economic performance over the last 25 years has been influenced by several external shocks, including two oil crises, an economic slowdown in the industrialized countries, a sharp drop in the terms of trade, a sharp rise in real interest rates on a global level in the 1980s and external payment problems (see

box 6). The annual GDP growth in developing countries slowed from 5.7 per cent during the 1970s to 3.5 per cent during the 1980s. It then gathered momentum, growing at a rate of 4.7 per cent per annum during the 1990s, as structural adjustment programmes were established (see table 5).

### Developing countries felt severe repercussions of external shocks in the 1980s

#### Box 6. External shocks and the debt crisis in the 1980s

The world economy experienced a turbulent period of uncertainty during the 1980s, the major changes being:

(a) The surge in oil prices during 1979, which raised world petroleum prices by more than 100 per cent from 1978 to 1980, and by a total of 150 per cent from 1978 to 1981;

(b) A restrictive monetary policy on the part of the industrialized countries to contain the inflationary impact of the rise in oil prices that raised the London Interbank Offered Rate for dollar-denominated credits from just over 10 per cent in 1979 to 19 per cent in 1981;

(c) A major decline in the trade in non-oil goods of developing countries, caused by the recession, mainly during the period 1981-1982;

(d) The unfavourable effects of the above-mentioned developments, which combined to undermine the credit standing of many of the countries affected and brought the supply of foreign bank credit to an abrupt halt.

The period from 1974 to 1982 was characterized by large capital flows. The surge in oil prices during the periods 1973-1974 and 1979-1980 generated a massive increase in foreign exchange earnings on the part of the oil-exporting countries, which many of them were unable to absorb domestically. At the same time, many industrialized countries sought to offset the resulting inflationary pressures by pursuing restrictive domestic policies which limited their absorption of capital flows from the oil exporters. A large number of developing countries were able, therefore, to increase their foreign borrowing to a significant extent, often on relatively favourable terms.

The severe external shocks of the 1980s forced developing countries to make adjustments, both by limiting demand and by significant restructuring, in order to increase export competitiveness. Permanent restructuring is, however, a time-consuming process, while external payments crises require immediate attention. As most developing countries lacked sufficient foreign exchange to absorb the external shocks, they were forced to reduce macroeconomic growth and implement particularly severe import cutbacks. Still worse, they tended to make adjustments by cutting investment more deeply than consumption.

More importantly, many developing countries were forced to make a sharp reduction in the import of industrial intermediate goods and capital goods in response to mounting current account deficits. As most developing countries were at an embryonic stage of development and were so highly dependent on the import of capital goods and basic industrial goods, a reduction in import capacity tended to depress manufacturing output.

Source: J. J. Polak, *Financial Policies and Development* (Paris, Organisation for Economic Co-operation and Development, 1989).

## Growth of investment has surpassed that of consumption in the 1990s

Table 5. Main sources of growth in developing countries, 1970-1995  
(Percentage)

Type of growth and sector	Average growth rate				Share of contribution to GDP growth			
	1970-1980	1980-1990	1990-1995	1970-1995	1970-1980	1980-1990	1990-1995	1970-1995
GDP	5.7	3.5	4.7	4.6	100	100	100	100
Government consumption	8.1	2.0	3.5	4.7	20.5	10.5	11.4	14.7
Private consumption	5.5	3.6	5.3	4.7	60.6	63.3	69.5	63.9
Gross fixed capital formation	7.8	1.9	6.9	5.2	30.7	14.9	34.0	25.4
Agriculture	2.7	3.4	2.4	2.9	10.5	16.0	8.2	13.9
Manufacturing	6.8	4.6	6.9	5.9	21.3	26.0	32.1	22.9
Services	6.3	3.6	4.5	4.9	50.3	49.4	46.4	47.6

Source: UNIDO database.

Note: The sum of supply and demand components is not equal to 100 per cent, because the external sector on the demand side and the mining and construction sectors on the supply side are not included.

Growth was widespread during the 1970s, but a series of external shocks since the early 1980s, notably the 1982 debt crisis, revealed vast differences in the ability of various regions to sustain growth. Countries in Asia were, in general, more successful at handling external shocks, while those in Africa and in Latin America and the Caribbean failed to regain their past record of high growth performance, which was reflected in a decline in per capita income.

Investment has been the engine of growth in developing countries, where, in contrast to industrialized countries, aggregate growth in recent decades has been quelled by high investment demand. During the last 25 years, gross fixed capital formation contributed approximately one quarter of GDP growth in developing countries, with the average growth rate exceeding that of private and government consumption. Developing countries also spent a higher percentage of GDP on investment compared with industrialized countries, the rate of investment rising from 23 per cent in 1970 to approximately 26 per cent in 1995 (see figure 4).

Investment growth in developing countries was strongest during the 1970s when it was boosted by a sharp rise in oil prices and aggressive government-led industrialization programmes. It was also stimulated by the easy availability of external financing during a period of high liquidity in oil money. The growth rate fell sharply after the debt crisis, however, to an annual average of 1.9 per cent during the 1980s, as external sources of investment finance dried up. Growth recovered to 6.9 per cent during the 1990s, boosted by strong growth in Asia and recovery in Latin America as structural adjustment programmes helped to restore investor confidence. Meanwhile, private con-

sumption was maintained at a rate of 65 per cent after the debt crisis, while government consumption fell from its high of approximately 20 per cent in 1982 to 14 per cent by 1995, in tandem with the increasing pace of liberalization and privatization.

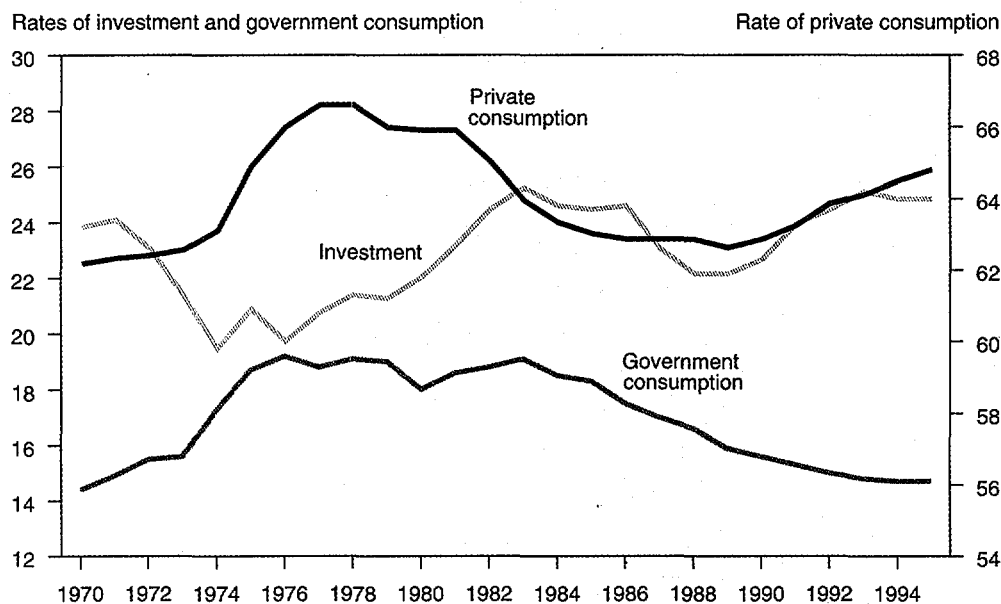
In manufacturing, developing countries on the whole have made good progress over the past two and a half decades. The share of manufacturing in the GDP of developing countries rose from 17.6 per cent in 1970 to 24.1 per cent by 1995, thus effectively overtaking the share of manufacturing in the GDP of industrialized countries. The increase in the growth of manufacturing exceeded growth increases in both agriculture and services throughout the period, and the contribution of manufacturing to GDP growth increased from 21.3 per cent during the 1970s to 32.1 per cent during the first half of the 1990s. Growth was well supported by strong external demand, with the export of manufactured goods growing at 9.3 per cent annually during the period.

Over the years, developing countries as a whole have gradually been moving towards an industrial structure that is based on higher-technology industries rather than dominated by labour-intensive, resource-based low-technology industries.\* In 1970, low-technology textiles and petroleum were

\*Since rapid technological change has given a new dimension to the classification of industries according to technological content, the analysis contained in the present chapter is based on a broad classification at the three-digit level of the International Standard Industrial Classification of All Economic Activities (ISIC) (see the technical notes included in the statistical annex to the present *Global Report*). Low-technology industries include traditional labour-intensive industries, while high-technology industries refer to industries producing non-electrical machinery, electrical machinery and scientific and professional goods.

## Average rate of investment in developing countries has recovered during the 1990s

Figure 4. Rates of investment and consumption in developing countries, 1970-1995  
(Percentage of GDP)



Source: UNIDO database.

Note: Investment is defined as gross fixed capital formation.

among the top three manufacturing industries. They have now been replaced by higher-technology industries, such as electrical machinery and transport equipment, as a result of strong growth in those industries, notably in East and South-East Asia. Manufacturing industries in developing countries have also diversified over the years. High-technology industries have registered the strongest growth, at 6.9 per cent per annum, raising their share of MVA from 11.4 per cent in 1970 to 17.1 per cent in 1994.

### Latin America and the Caribbean

The road to higher economic growth in Latin America and the Caribbean has not been easy during the last two and a half decades, especially during the 1980s. In common with most other developing regions, Latin America and the Caribbean has been vulnerable to the external shocks mentioned above. Unlike some other developing regions, however, it has not been as successful in implementing the adjustments required to respond to such shocks and other barriers to growth. As a result, the region has not been able to sustain the

high growth that it enjoyed during the golden age. Annual GDP growth fell sharply from 5.5 per cent during the 1970s to 1.1 per cent during the 1980s, before recovering to 3 per cent during the first half of the 1990s (see table 6). On average, the annual GDP growth has been lower in Latin America and the Caribbean than the aggregate average growth of the GDP of developing countries during the same period. The per capita income of the region has declined steadily over the years and, by the early 1990s, was overtaken by that of East and South-East Asia, excluding China.

### Investment undermined by uncertainties

The slower GDP growth of the region during the period from 1970 to 1995 coincided with a time of falling investment. During the 1970s, the region had the highest rate of investment of all developing countries, with investment accounting for more than 28 per cent of GDP. That pattern changed markedly, however, as a result of the 1982 debt crisis (see figure 5). Many Governments in the region responded to the debt crisis by curtailing investment rather than consumption, which resulted in structural weaknesses that impeded

## External shocks caused investment growth to fall steeply during the 1980s

Table 6. Main sources of growth in Latin America and the Caribbean, 1970-1995 (Percentage)

Type of growth and sector	Average growth rate				Share of contribution to GDP growth			
	1970-1980	1980-1990	1990-1995	1970-1995	1970-1980	1980-1990	1990-1995	1970-1995
GDP	5.5	1.1	3.0	3.2	100	100	100	100
Government consumption	5.9	0.8	1.6	3.0	13.4	9.4	6.5	11.4
Private consumption	5.2	1.2	3.9	3.3	64.7	71.9	86.6	70.3
Gross fixed capital formation	6.1	(3.2)	4.3	1.9	30.1	(80.9)	26.4	16.0
Agriculture	3.1	1.9	1.7	2.3	6.1	14.0	5.3	7.8
Manufacturing	5.5	0.4	2.2	2.8	25.2	9.1	17.4	21.6
Services	6.1	1.4	3.5	3.7	58.2	69.7	66.1	59.7

Source: UNIDO database.

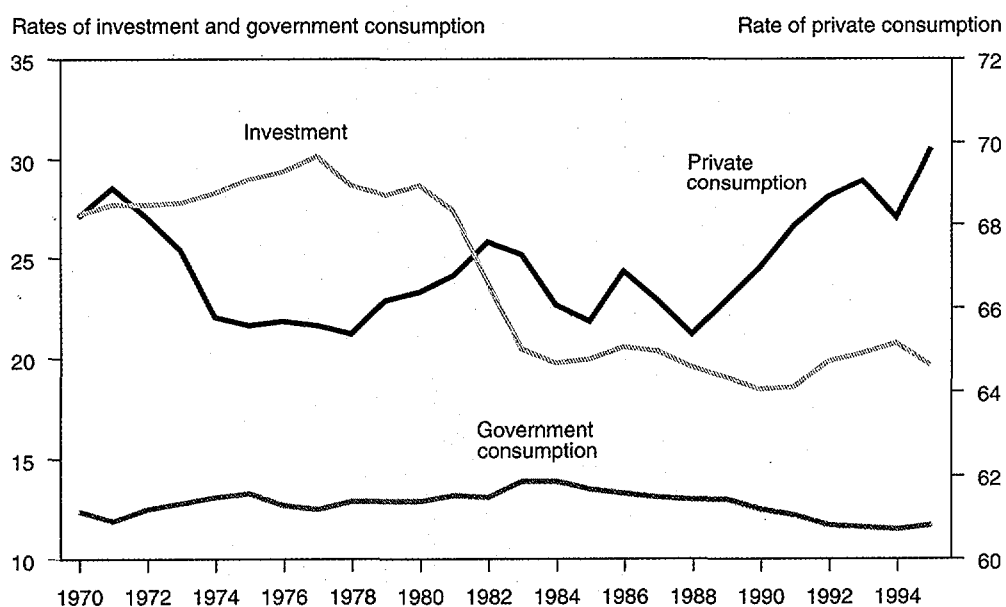
Note: The sum of supply and demand components is not equal to 100 per cent, because the external sector on the demand side and the mining and construction sectors on the supply side are not included.

sustainable long-term growth. Annual investment contracted by 4.5 per cent during the period from 1982 to 1985 in the wake of the crisis, while private consumption and government consumption rose by 0.6 per cent and 2.1 per cent respectively

during the same period. The rate of investment has also fallen sharply to about 20 per cent since 1982, while the rate of private consumption, seemingly unaffected by the crisis, rose steadily to 77 per cent by 1995.

## Rate of investment in Latin America and the Caribbean is still lower than during the 1970s

Figure 5. Rates of investment and consumption in Latin America and the Caribbean, 1970-1995 (Percentage of GDP)



Source: UNIDO database.

Note: Investment is defined as gross fixed capital formation.

Since the early 1990s, investment demand in Latin America and the Caribbean has recovered strongly, stimulated by regional integration programmes, such as the North American Free Trade Agreement (NAFTA) and the Mercado Común del Sur (Southern Cone Common Market), by restored foreign confidence after the implementation of a series of economic reform measures, by the increasing pace of privatization and by the implementation of strategies to boost exports. During the early 1990s, investment growth exceeded growth in private and government consumption, while the rate of investment increased from 18.6 per cent in 1991 to 20.7 per cent in 1994. In early 1995, financial problems re-emerged in Mexico, resulting in the dramatic withdrawal of foreign capital from the region. This had a spillover effect into other countries in the region, especially Argentina, and also led to a sharp contraction in investment in the region. Structural reforms since 1995, however, have restored confidence among foreign investors, as reflected in rising FDI inflows.

The contribution of exports to the GDP of the region increased gradually over the period. Although the share of exports in the GDP of the region increased from 13 per cent in 1970 to 19 per cent in 1995, it was still lower than the aggregate average of developing countries, reflecting the relative isolation of the region from the global economy. The contribution of exports to GDP growth was also offset by the high rate of imports, which exceeded exports throughout the period,

except from 1983 to 1992. The persistence of that trend was the main cause of both the debt crisis in the 1980s and the financial instability in Mexico in 1995.

### *Services grow, manufacturing declines*

The region has experienced a declining rate of manufacturing during the last 25 years. MVA grew at a lower rate than services, its share in GDP falling steadily from 25.0 per cent to 22.7 per cent. By contrast, the share of services in GDP rose by 6.1 percentage points to 58.4 per cent by 1995. The contribution of manufacturing to GDP growth also dropped from 25.2 per cent to 17.3 per cent. At the same time, the share of the region in the MVA of developing countries continued to decline. In 1970, the region accounted for slightly more than half of the MVA of developing countries but, by 1995, its share had gone down to approximately one quarter.

The region has been slow in restructuring its industries towards high-technology areas during the last 25 years. Unlike countries in East and South-East Asia, its industries are still dominated by labour-intensive, resource-based, low-technology industries, which accounted for slightly more than 60 per cent of the MVA of the region in 1994. Although medium-technology industries, especially those related to the natural resources of the region, such as petrochemicals, made modest progress by increasing their share of MVA to 26.5 per cent in 1994 from 18.8 per cent in 1970, the MVA share

## **Investment in high-technology industries is small and falling**

Table 7. Investment composition in selected countries in Latin America, 1970-1994

Country	Type of industry	Share of manufacturing investment			
		1970	1980	1990	1994
Bolivia	Low-technology	97.9	91.6	91.9	91.2
	Medium-technology	1.9	6.4	7.8	5.7
	High-technology	—	1.7	0.2	2.6
Chile	Low-technology	81.1	91.2	81.5	78.7
	Medium-technology	14.2	6.4	13.1	18.3
	High-technology	4.7	2.2	5.3	2.7
Colombia	Low-technology	86.2	73.2	73.9	76.0
	Medium-technology	9.5	20.8	20.5	19.2
	High-technology	3.6	5.0	4.8	4.4
Peru	Low-technology	73.0	69.1	81.0	72.2
	Medium-technology	18.6	22.6	9.1	22.9
	High-technology	5.5	7.2	4.9	2.4
Venezuela	Low-technology	84.4	81.4	84.2	88.4
	Medium-technology	13.1	14.1	12.1	9.2
	High-technology	2.1	4.2	3.5	2.3

Source: UNIDO database.

Note: Industries are classified as low-, medium- and high-technology industries and other manufacturing industries.



of high-technology industries remained unsatisfactory at a stable rate of approximately 12 per cent throughout the period. That figure was lower than the average for developing countries in general.

The industrial structure of Latin America and the Caribbean was reflected in the pattern of manufacturing investment in selected countries of the region (see table 7). For countries such as Bolivia, Chile, Colombia, Peru and Venezuela, high-technology industries accounted for a much smaller, falling percentage of total manufacturing investment, less than 5 per cent on average, compared with that of low-technology industries, which accounted for at least 70 per cent of total manufacturing investment.

### *Need to restore investment rate to sustain long-term growth*

The Latin America and the Caribbean region faces the challenge of restoring its economic growth and enhancing its international competitiveness against a background of rapid globalization. There is an urgent need for the region to bring about a sustained reversal in its declining investment rate. Greater emphasis needs to be placed on the role of investment in economic development rather than consumption. While it is impor-

tant that living standards should be maintained, if consumption continues to take priority over investment, the result will be unsustainable growth, which will not only reduce future consumption but may give rise to serious social problems. In restoring the investment rate, policy planners must ensure high investment efficiency in order to enhance the competitiveness of the region.

Another challenge facing the region is the need for diversification of its manufacturing and export bases. Progress in that direction, to date, has been modest. In the face of rapid technological development and growing competition, however, a move into high-technology, high-value-added industries is imperative. A larger proportion of new investment, therefore, needs to be channelled efficiently into high-technology and export-oriented industries (see box 7). There is also a need for the region to continue to implement reform and liberalization measures. Greater emphasis should be placed on the private sector and foreign investment, and investment should also be increased in the development of technological resources and human capital. An environment conducive to investment and macroeconomic stability are two important prerequisites for successful industrial restructuring and the establishment of higher value-added industries.

## **New investment needs to support export-oriented industrialization**

### **Box 7. The export drive of Latin America: the key role of investment**

In recent years, Latin American countries have increased their exports substantially from \$92 billion in 1985 to \$155 billion in 1994. During the same period, manufactured exports rose from \$22 billion to \$87 billion. Although the improvement in export performance in many countries was due, initially, to a decrease in domestic demand, investment has been required to sustain export growth, particularly in countries where domestic demand has recovered and there has been an improvement in the exchange rate. While systematic information on investments aimed at increasing the export-supply capability of the region is not yet available, there is a large body of evidence to suggest that such investments have been substantial, particularly in the manufacturing sector.

Among some of the most visible cases of export-oriented investment in the industrial sector are investments in large commodity producers: soya-bean processing in Argentina, paper pulp in Brazil and Chile, and steel and glassware in Mexico.

In addition to such instances of large-scale industrial investment, however, there is an abundance of regional export-oriented industrial investment that is much harder to depict statistically than investment in large commodity-processing plants. Such industrial investment is the main form of investment taking place in manufacturing firms in most Latin American countries, as those firms try to upgrade their production capability to improve competitiveness, particularly in export markets. Such investments have been made, for example, in printing firms in Chile, food-processing plants in Mexico and in many other industrial branches in the countries of the region.

It is in Mexico that the most obvious examples of substantial export-oriented investment are to be found. Thanks to that type of investment, the current export structure of Mexico is strikingly different from that of 1980, when oil accounted for 60.9 per cent of exports and other leading export products were mainly agricultural. While oil remained the main export product of Mexico in 1994 with a 10.9 per cent share of total exports, the next nine leading export items were all manufactured goods, such as automobiles, insulated wire and cable, televisions, engines and products with a high-technology content, such as electronic equipment and vehicle parts. In 1995, the share of manufactured goods in the

**Box 7 (continued)**

total exports of the country was 73 per cent, excluding goods from export-processing zones. Such a performance could not have been achieved without significant investment in export capability. It is also a striking performance for a country in a region where 50 per cent of exports in 1994, including those from Mexico, were mainly primary products. A large share of export-oriented investment in Mexico has come from transnational corporations, particularly the automobile industry, which has localized production in the country to be close to its main market, the United States. That trend became even stronger after the signing of NAFTA. Investments by transnational corporations, however, do not wholly explain the transformation of the Mexican economy into an export-oriented manufacturing economy. Investments in many firms throughout the country also contributed to the transformation, as Mexican firms took the decision to upgrade, both to cope with changes in the domestic market and to break into export markets.

Export-oriented investment by Mexican firms was strongly backed by support from the Banco Nacional de Comercio Exterior (BANCOMEXT), the export bank of Mexico. BANCOMEXT provided over \$14 billion in 1994, both in direct financial support and in collateral, to more than 1,900 exporting firms. The bank also has special programmes that allow firms with the potential to become exporters to invest in establishing an export-supply capability. That is one example of what Latin American countries can do to encourage investment in export-oriented manufacturing firms.

*Source:* Carla Macario, *Experiencias Exitosas de Exportación: Las Principales Lecciones de Brasil, Chile, Colombia y México* (Successful export experiences: the main lessons from Brazil, Chile, Colombia and Mexico) (Santiago de Chile, Economic Commission for Latin America and the Caribbean, 1996).

**Sub-Saharan Africa**

Since the early 1970s, the discouraging rate of economic growth in sub-Saharan Africa has become a source of increasing concern, not only because of the inherent waste of resources, but also because of the social and political problems associated with slow growth. The average annual rate of GDP growth in the region from 1970 to 1995, 2.4 per cent, was the lowest in the developing world. Growth in GDP has fallen to well below the average annual population growth of the region since the mid-1970s, resulting in a drop in real per capita income and a widening income gap relative to other developing regions.

**Lowest investment rate among developing countries**

The region of sub-Saharan Africa had a good investment record during the 1970s. Spurred by high commodity and oil prices, gross fixed capital formation grew at 4.3 per cent annually, which was well above the average GDP growth rate for the region (see table 8). The sharp fall in commodity prices during the 1980s, however, revealed the extreme vulnerability of the region and structural weaknesses associated with investment. Past investment demand in the region was met largely by high import levels, financed externally, and from export earnings. Regional export earnings, on the other hand, were highly dependent on a narrow base of commodities and trading partners. Oil, for example, accounted for more than 40 per cent of the exports of the region during the period from

1970 to 1995, and many countries depended heavily on just one or two commodities for their foreign exchange earnings.

Europe accounted for more than 50 per cent of the total exports of the region. Fluctuations in commodity and oil prices, as well as the weaker economic performance of Europe, had a considerable influence on the investment performance of the region. Moreover, domestic savings rates were low.

As a result, during the 1980s, when commodity prices fell and the economic performance of industrialized countries, particularly those in western Europe, slowed sharply, external payment problems emerged. The response of the region was similar to that of Latin America. In an attempt to secure additional resources to service its debts, sub-Saharan Africa sought to improve its trade balance by reducing investment and imports. The curtailment of imports, which comprised a large proportion of capital goods and raw materials used as inputs for investment and production, led to a decline in industrial production and infrastructure development, hampering further investment growth.

Investment growth fell sharply to below zero in the 1980s and 1990s. The share of investment in a declining GDP also fell during the period, with the rate of investment spending dropping from a high of 27 per cent during the mid-1970s to 15 per cent by 1995, making it the lowest among the developing regions (see figure 6). By contrast, spending on private consumption and public consumption was among the highest in the developing world, accounting for a relatively stable share of more than 75 per cent and 14 per cent of the GDP of the region respectively during the same period.

## Contribution of investment to GDP growth has been negative over the past 15 years

Table 8. Main sources of growth in sub-Saharan Africa, 1970-1995  
(Percentage)

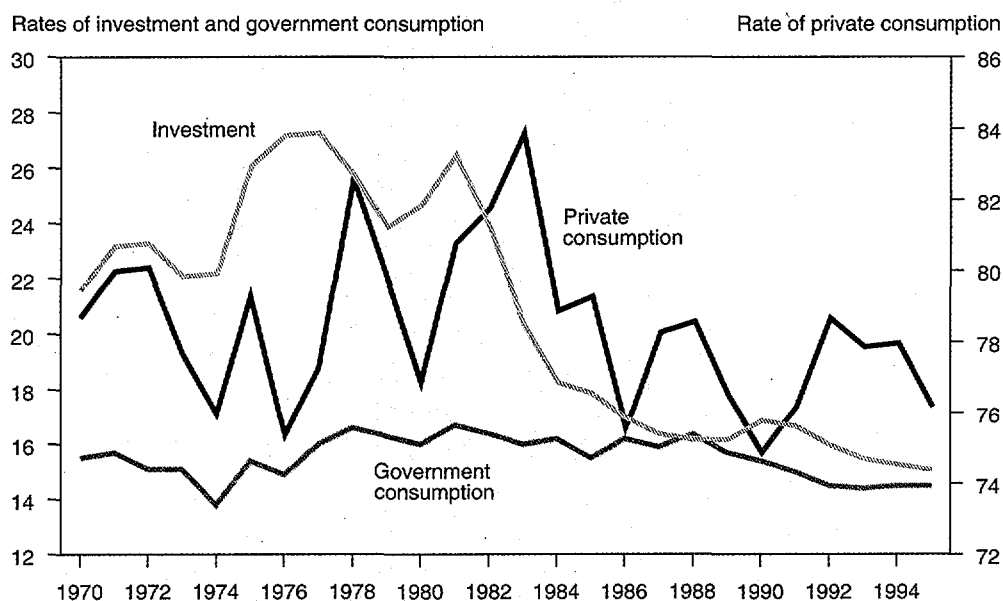
Type of growth and sector	Average growth rate				Share of contribution to GDP growth			
	1970-1980	1980-1990	1990-1995	1970-1995	1970-1980	1980-1990	1990-1995	1970-1995
GDP	2.9	2.3	1.6	2.4	100	100	100	100
Government consumption	3.2	1.9	0.4	2.1	17.1	13.5	3.4	13.7
Private consumption	2.7	2.0	2.0	2.3	72.2	68.2	90.2	74.4
Gross fixed capital formation	4.3	-1.5	-0.6	1.0	31.8	-16.6	-6.3	8.6
Agriculture	0.3	1.6	1.1	1.0	3.5	21.7	19.4	16.0
Manufacturing	2.1	2.3	0.2	1.8	7.8	10.4	1.1	8.2
Services	5.1	4.3	2.2	4.2	52.3	70.1	61.6	52.6

Source: UNIDO database.

Note: The sum of supply and demand components is not equal to 100 per cent, because the external sector on the demand side and the mining and construction sectors on the supply side are not included.

## Rate of investment in sub-Saharan Africa has declined steadily since the early 1980s

Figure 6. Rates of investment and consumption in sub-Saharan Africa, 1970-1995  
(Percentage of GDP)



Source: UNIDO database.

Note: Investment is defined as gross fixed capital formation.

### Negligible contribution from manufacturing

The modest role played by manufacturing in the economic development of sub-Saharan Africa was reflected in its small and declining share of GDP.

Manufacturing accounted for only 11.2 per cent of the GDP of the region in 1970 and had dropped to 9.7 per cent by 1995. The rate of growth of MVA was lower than the average GDP growth of the region during the period. In 1970, the region accounted for less than 5 per cent of the MVA of

## Low-technology industries account for the largest investment share

Table 9. Investment composition for selected countries in sub-Saharan Africa, 1970-1994 (Percentage)

Country	Type of industry	Share of manufacturing investment			
		1970	1980	1990	1994
Cameroon	Low-technology	51.9	30.8	94.5	83.6
	Medium-technology	43.7	65.5	3.9	14.8
	High-technology	4.2	2.5	1.6	1.4
Kenya	Low-technology	92.1	75.8	62.7	58.8
	Medium-technology	5.5	21.9	25.9	23.5
	High-technology	1.6	2.1	7.3	12.1
Nigeria	Low-technology	83.6	74.4	68.8	73.8
	Medium-technology	14.3	23.0	28.5	23.5
	High-technology	1.0	2.5	2.7	2.7
United Republic of Tanzania	Low-technology	79.0	82.5	83.4	87.9
	Medium-technology	11.9	13.3	14.7	10.4
	High-technology	6.4	3.9	1.3	1.2
Zambia	Low-technology	47.3	51.6	71.0	84.2
	Medium-technology	46.8	45.7	23.9	11.7
	High-technology	5.4	2.5	5.1	4.2
Zimbabwe	Low-technology	76.2	81.2	75.3	85.8
	Medium-technology	19.0	13.6	13.1	10.9
	High-technology	4.2	4.3	5.6	3.0

Source: UNIDO database.

Note: Industries are classified as low-, medium- and high-technology industries and other manufacturing industries.

all developing countries, but by 1994, it had dropped sharply to 1.8 per cent. Meanwhile, agriculture, which had been the mainstay of the economy of the region, recorded the same pattern of growth. The share of agriculture in GDP dropped from 39.8 per cent in 1970 to 27.9 per cent in 1995, while the share of agriculture among all developing countries fell from 13.7 per cent to 8.5 per cent. By contrast, the service sector grew at a buoyant annual rate of 4.2 per cent during the period, well above the average GDP growth rate of the region. By 1995, the share of the service sector in GDP had risen to 46.6 per cent from 30.2 per cent in 1970.

Sub-Saharan Africa is still very much dominated by labour-intensive, resource-based, low-technology industries. Manufacturing continues to be narrowly focused on the primary processing of locally produced agricultural and mineral commodities, which have lower income elasticities in international markets. In 1970, low-technology food processing, beverage and textile industries were the three largest manufacturing industries, accounting for a combined share of 45.4 per cent of GDP. In 1994, these industries continued to be the top three manufacturing industries, with a combined share of 43.7 per cent of GDP, suggesting that progress made so far in broadening the manufacturing base of the region had been disappointing.

Moreover, high-technology industries accounted for less than 3.6 per cent and 0.7 per cent of the MVA of the region and of developing countries respectively during the period (see table 9).

The industrial investment pattern of the region corresponds to its industrial structure, with low-technology industries accounting for a much larger share of total manufacturing investment. In selected countries where data were available, the average share of investment spending in low-technology industries exceeded 85 per cent during the first half of the 1990s, while the average share of investment spending in high-technology industries was less than 3 per cent. The exception was Kenya, where the investment share in high-technology industries rose steadily from 2.1 per cent in 1980 to 12.1 per cent in 1994. Kenya is also one of the few countries in the region able to sustain high economic growth.

### *Investment needed in agro-based manufacturing*

Among the myriad problems faced by the region are mounting poverty, overdependence for export earnings on a small number of agricultural commodities, a small and narrow manufacturing base, high population growth, low savings and investment rates, low human capital development, high

debt servicing, poor infrastructure and structural rigidities, as well as political instability in many countries.

Widespread poverty and a high burden of debt have led to lower consumption demand and lower savings and investment rates, which, in turn, have hindered growth and reduced productivity. There is a need to remove those constraints to growth in order to break the vicious circle of low savings, low investment and low income. In this regard, the assistance of the international community will help to speed up the process. The challenge is to accelerate and sustain economic growth within the region at a higher pace than population growth, which averaged from 2.5 per cent to 3 per cent annually during the period from 1980 to 1995. That could be achieved only by raising the investment rate of the region. It has been estimated that the region would need to invest at least 13 per cent of GDP just to maintain its existing capital stock.<sup>2</sup> The current rate of investment of approximately 15 per cent is, therefore, unlikely to be sufficient to boost economic growth to a higher level than population growth.

Such an investment strategy should be combined with a strategy that promotes industrial development, strong structural adjustment programmes, political stability and higher investment in human capital. Progress towards regional integration, especially with South Africa, will help to stimulate investment. The industrial priority of the

region should be to boost manufacturing and build a diversified and efficient manufacturing base. Given the current stage of economic development and the existing production structures within the region, faster manufacturing growth would have to be built initially on labour-intensive, low-technology industries closely linked to agriculture, so that initial comparative advantages could be gained in a relatively short time (see box 8).

On this basis, UNIDO has, in partnership with its African development partners, sponsored and launched the Alliance for Africa's Industrialization (AAI), which aims at fostering a sustainable industrial base in the region. The main feature of AAI is that it ensures African ownership with direct involvement of African development partners in the conceptualization and operational aspects of AAI. Programmes within the framework of AAI are initially focused on linking industry with agriculture and on mobilizing private investment for industrial development.

In time, the region will have to face the challenge of broadening and deepening its manufacturing base and expanding into skill-intensive industries with higher income elasticities in the international market.<sup>3</sup> This would require technological capabilities to be upgraded and human capital to be developed. Greater involvement in investment by foreign investors and the domestic private sector would help to quicken the process.

### Low-technology industrialization can be a platform to high technology

#### Box 8. Should developing countries pursue technology upgrading?

Despite the tendency to see advanced technology as the key to industrial development, labour- and resource-intensive production also plays an important role in industrial development. First, production based on exploitation of sources of immediate comparative advantages, such as abundant labour or natural resources, has characterized the economic history of all countries that have subsequently established strong positions in manufactured exports. Secondly, for most developing countries that are still to enter international trade in manufactured goods in a sustained way and that are technologically weak, there is no real alternative. Thirdly, there are important complementarities between low- and high-productivity growth paths. Export markets built initially on technologically unsophisticated products can provide the foreign exchange needed to sustain investment in more sophisticated goods. The rate of acquiring new skills and improving productivity in more sophisticated goods increases in direct proportion to the rate of investment in them. Low-technology exports must therefore be regarded as an essential part of any strategy of skills acquisition and technology upgrading. Fourthly, it is important to establish a strong base of low-technology exports as a hedge against the risks that may be associated with a shift to higher-technology production. Fifthly, low-productivity exports create more employment per unit of output. In periods when international trade grows slowly, unlike the past 20 years or so, that may be an important consideration in terms of income distribution. The only drawback may be that low-productivity manufacturing often requires wages to be held down to maintain competitiveness.

When countries have built up commercial experience in the export of technologically unsophisticated manufactured goods, as well as technological capabilities in the production and service sectors, a shift to higher-productivity exports may become desirable. Such a shift is described as technology upgrading. Technology upgrading has four key advantages:

**Box 8 (continued)**

(a) First, if exports of technologically unsophisticated manufactured goods are successful, countries will ultimately have to face the need to introduce higher-productivity technologies. It is not clear to what extent the shift would be mediated by the market alone;

(b) Secondly, technology upgrading allows a real wage increase, without necessarily diminishing the share of profits in value added. This helps to preserve investment incentives and, provided the aggregate level of employment is maintained by sufficient growth in export demand, it also has positive implications for income distribution. The shift to higher productivity and higher-wage production may displace women workers, but the development of service-sector employment can counter-balance the negative effect on the gender division of labour;

(c) Thirdly, technology upgrading enables a shift towards products with a higher income elasticity of demand in the markets of industrialized countries, and thus helps to maintain export demand;

(d) Fourthly, technology upgrading makes it possible for a country to respond to competition from lower-wage economies. Upgrading allows a country to increase its market share in goods that are more technologically sophisticated, while leaving room for lower-wage economies to increase their market share in basic manufactured goods. It would thus appear to be in the collective interest to encourage exporters that are already successful to upgrade.

Source: C. M. Cooper, "Technology, manufactured exports and competitiveness", background paper for the UNIDO Global Forum on Industry, Perspective for 2000 and Beyond, held at New Delhi from 16 to 18 October 1995.

**North Africa and western Asia**

From 1979 to 1995, the pattern of aggregate economic growth of North Africa and western Asia has correlated closely with the movement of oil prices. That is hardly surprising, as the region possesses approximately 60 per cent of the oil reserves and approximately 20 per cent of the natural gas reserves of the world. A large share of the domestic income of the region derives from the extraction and processing of oil and gas. The share of mining in GDP ranged between 40 and 54 per cent during the period, while oil revenues accounted for about 80 per cent of total export earnings and government revenues.

In tandem with the trend in oil prices, the GDP of the region grew at 6.3 per cent annually during the 1970s, but fell 1.4 per cent during the 1990s (see table 10). Annual per capita income growth fell from 3.5 per cent to -1 per cent during the period, below that of Latin America and the Caribbean since the oil price fall in 1986.

**Investment tied to oil prices**

In North Africa, annual investment grew at 10.4 per cent during the 1970s, buoyed by a sharp rise in oil prices. Much of the investment went into expanding the production capacity of oil and oil-related industries. During the 1980s, when oil

**Investment cut reduced in favour of consumption as a response to debt crisis**

Table 10. Main sources of growth in North Africa and western Asia, 1970-1995 (Percentage)

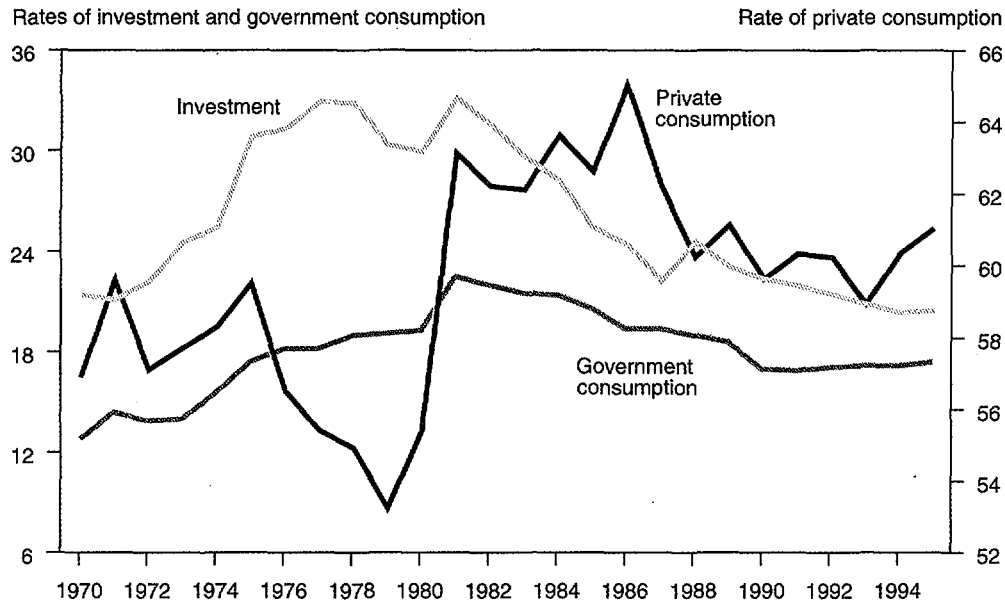
Type of growth and sector	Average growth rate				Share of contribution to GDP growth			
	1970-1980	1980-1990	1990-1995	1970-1995	1970-1980	1980-1990	1990-1995	1970-1995
GDP	6.3	1.1	1.4	3.2				
Government consumption	10.4	1.9	1.0	5.1	21.1	32.3	15.3	20.1
Private consumption	6.9	3.3	1.9	4.4	50.1	142.8	83.6	63.3
Gross fixed capital formation	11.2	(0.6)	2.6	4.6	29.4	-13.6	40.8	23.8
Agriculture	3.6	2.9	1.7	2.9	9.3	32.2	18.1	14.7
Manufacturing	7.7	5.2	3.6	5.9	9.5	41.8	34.2	14.3
Services	6.8	0.8	1.2	3.2	54.2	36.6	44.4	50.6

Source: UNIDO database.

Note: The sum of supply and demand components is not equal to 100 per cent, because the external sector on the demand side and the mining and construction sectors on the supply side are not included.

### Investment pattern in North Africa follows oil price movements

Figure 7. Rates of investment and consumption in North Africa, 1970-1995  
(Percentage of GDP)



Source: UNIDO database.

Note: Investment is defined as gross fixed capital formation.

prices fell, annual investment demand contracted by 0.4 per cent, before recovering to grow at 0.4 per cent per annum from 1990 to 1995. The rate of investment similarly dropped from a high of 33 per cent at the end of the 1970s to 20.4 per cent in 1995, close to the level it had attained before the first energy crisis in 1973 (see figure 7). On the other hand, the rate of government consumption and private consumption increased from 13.1 per cent and 55.6 per cent respectively in 1970 to 18 per cent and 58.2 per cent respectively in 1995, although all those rates were lower than those of the early 1980s.

A similar growth pattern was recorded in western Asia during the period. GDP slowed from 6.3 per cent annually during the 1970s to 0.5 per cent during the 1990s, while the investment rate fell from a high of 30 per cent during the early 1980s to approximately 24 per cent by 1995 (see figure 8). During the period, the rate of private consumption and government consumption increased from some 41 per cent and 23 per cent to 64 per cent and 31 per cent, respectively, giving western Asia the highest rate of government consumption in comparison with other developing countries.

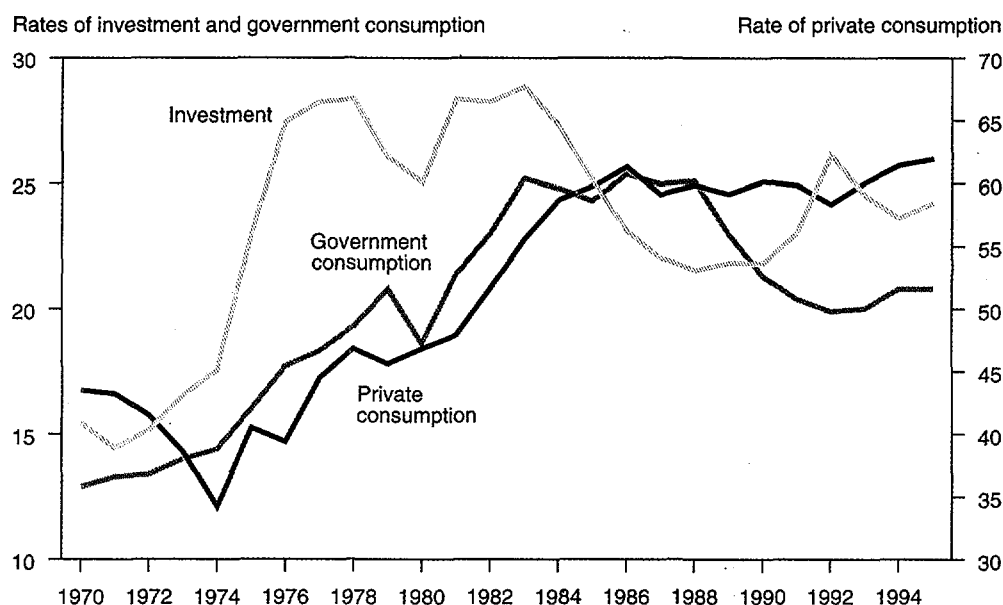
### Dependence on oil

Over the past decades, the growth of manufacturing in North Africa and western Asia as a whole has exceeded that of both agriculture and services, as well as average GDP growth of the region. Growth was centered mainly in oil-related industries, however, which were vulnerable to fluctuations in oil prices. Growth fell steadily from 7.7 per cent during the 1970s to 3.5 per cent during the 1990s. Although the share of manufacturing in GDP rose consistently from 8 per cent in 1980 to 15 per cent in 1995, the increase was mainly at the expense of a declining mining sector. In comparison with other developing countries, industry in North Africa and western Asia has made limited progress during the last 25 years. The share of the region in the MVA of developing countries has stayed relatively stable, ranging between 7.8 per cent and 9 per cent during the period.

In 1970, petroleum refining was the largest industry in the region, accounting for approximately 16 per cent of total MVA. Petroleum refining maintained its leading position throughout the

### Much of the investment in western Asia goes into oil and oil-related industries

Figure 8. Rates of investment and consumption in western Asia, 1970-1995  
(Percentage of GDP)



Source: UNIDO database.

Note: Investment is defined as gross fixed capital formation.

1980s and 1990s, although its share had receded to approximately 12 per cent by 1994. Industry as a whole benefited from high investment rates in this sector, following the sharp rise in oil prices, with MVA growing by 7.6 per cent annually during the 1970s. With the sharp drop in oil prices in 1986, however, growth began to slow down. Between 1970 and 1994, petroleum refining contributed approximately 13 per cent to the MVA growth of the region, compared with 11 per cent and 9 per cent for the food and textile industries, respectively.

In terms of technological progress, the share of high-technology industries in the MVA of the region rose from 4.6 per cent in 1970 to 8.2 per cent in 1994. The percentage share of the region in the total MVA of high-technology industries among all developing countries, however, was relatively low, ranging between 3.4 per cent and 5.2 per cent during the period. That trend corresponded to the investment pattern of major countries in the region (see table 11). In contrast with western Asian countries, such as the Islamic Republic of Iran and Turkey, which spent approximately 10 per cent of their total manufacturing investment on high-technology industries during

the 1990s, North African countries such as Egypt, Morocco and Tunisia spent only between 4 per cent and 6 per cent of their investment in that category of industries.

#### *Need to diversify investment and manufacturing*

Over the past decade, investment has been concentrated in the expansion of capacity in oil and oil-related industries in North Africa and western Asia. Extreme regional dependence on non-sustainable natural resources, such as oil, calls into question the ability of the region to sustain long-term growth, as the continued extraction of natural resources depletes the primary capital asset of the region, reducing future flows of income and thus consumption. In order to secure future income levels, once oil reserves are exhausted, a sufficiently large share of national income must be saved and invested in non-oil assets.

As has been the case with investment, manufacturing activities in North Africa and western Asia have remained at a relatively low level and have been concentrated in the oil and oil-related industries. Progress in diversifying the manufacturing



### Western Asian countries spent more than North African countries on high-technology industries

Table 11. Investment composition for selected countries in North Africa and western Asia, 1970-1994 (Percentage)

Country	Type of industry	Share of manufacturing investment			
		1970	1980	1990	1994
Egypt	Low-technology	64.1	83.2	73.2	54.7
	Medium-technology	27.0	13.6	23.0	30.8
	High-technology	8.6	3.2	3.7	6.1
Iran (Islamic Republic of)	Low-technology	60.3	62.2	68.4	76.0
	Medium-technology	31.4	10.4	18.5	13.9
	High-technology	8.2	27.4	12.4	9.9
Morocco	Low-technology	88.0	85.6	75.9	87.4
	Medium-technology	8.1	8.9	19.1	9.3
	High-technology	3.4	5.3	4.9	3.2
Tunisia	Low-technology	85.3	82.9	82.9	82.5
	Medium-technology	11.6	14.6	8.8	10.1
	High-technology	1.3	1.9	7.1	5.7
Turkey	Low-technology	63.9	64.8	74.0	68.2
	Medium-technology	25.3	26.9	18.0	21.6
	High-technology	10.5	8.3	7.8	8.7

Source: UNIDO database.

Note: Industries are classified as low-, medium- and high-technology industries and other manufacturing industries.

base of the region has so far been slow, and investment has been driven largely by the public sector with limited, but growing, participation by the private sector. FDI inflows have declined since the 1980s, and represented less than 5 per cent of the total inflows into the developing countries in 1995. In order to enhance long-term growth, the region would need to increase investment, particularly in high-technology industries, sustain economic reforms, increase savings rates and encourage the participation of private and foreign investors by increasing the pace of privatization. Credible reform policies need to be implemented in order to sustain FDI flows.

### South Asia

The region of South Asia was relatively insulated from the external shocks of the 1980s, reflecting its lower degree of openness to the global economy than other regions. That, in turn, caused other, negative effects on the local economy. Growth was slow by the standards of developing countries, and domestic industries were less competitive in the world market. The gradual economic liberalization of the 1980s gave momentum to regional growth in GDP, which climbed from 3.3 per cent per annum during the 1970s to 5.3 per cent during the 1980s (see table 12). During the period 1990-1991, economic perform-

ance was, however, adversely affected by the crisis in the region of the Persian Gulf and the recession in industrialized countries. Balance-of-payments problems emerged during the period, aggravated by the sharp fall in the level of remittances from South Asians working in the States of the Persian Gulf, as well as by the cost of evacuating them from the zone of conflict during the hostilities in the Persian Gulf in early 1991. Subsequently, the economic growth of the region received a boost from further reforms, especially in India, and GDP growth surged sharply, supported by a large inflow of FDI.

### Liberalization boosts investment

During the past 25 years, the economic performance of the region has been determined by higher rates of growth in government consumption and investment spending, the growth rate of both having outstripped that of private consumption. During the same period, the proportion of investment and government consumption in GDP rose steadily from 17 per cent and 8.4 per cent to 23 and 11.5 per cent, respectively (see figure 9). In particular, the rate of investment has surged since 1993, as FDI inflows increased in response to the liberalization efforts in the region. By contrast, spending rates for private consumption fell from 71.4 per cent to 63.5 per cent during the same 25-year period.

## Contribution of private consumption to GDP growth declines steadily

Table 12. Main sources of growth in South Asia, 1970-1995  
(Percentage)

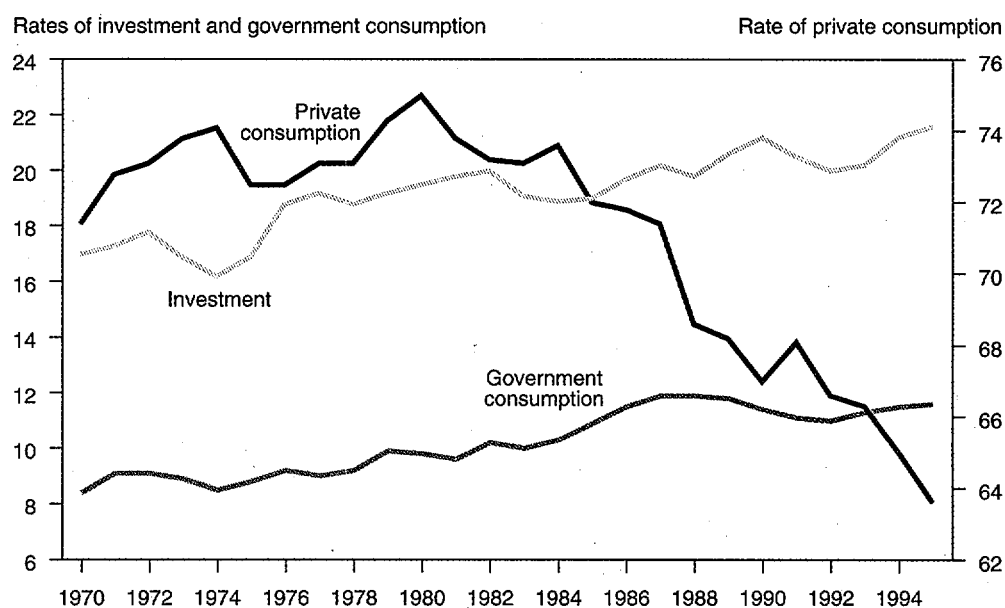
Type of growth and sector	Average growth rate				Share of contribution to GDP growth			
	1970-1980	1980-1990	1990-1995	1970-1995	1970-1980	1980-1990	1990-1995	1970-1995
GDP	3.3	5.3	4.5	4.3	100	100	100	100
Government consumption	4.9	6.9	4.8	5.7	12.4	12.7	12.2	11.0
Private consumption	3.8	4.1	3.4	3.9	82.4	58.3	50.8	63.5
Gross fixed capital formation	4.8	6.2	4.9	5.4	24.4	22.7	23.3	21.0
Agriculture	1.9	3.2	3.3	2.7	23.6	22.4	22.1	26.2
Manufacturing	4.3	6.9	4.6	5.4	15.5	17.2	15.9	15.0
Services	4.3	6.2	5.1	5.2	49.4	49.4	52.7	46.1

Source: UNIDO database.

Note: The sum of supply and demand components is not equal to 100 per cent, because the external sector on the demand side and the mining and construction sectors on the supply side are not included.

## Rate of investment in South Asia has surged in recent years as a result of liberalization

Figure 9. Rates of investment and consumption in South Asia, 1970-1995  
(Percentage of GDP)



Source: UNIDO database.

Note: Investment is defined as gross fixed capital formation.

The contribution from the external sector has increased sharply during the 1990s, led by a growth in Indian exports. The annual exports of the region grew by 10.9 per cent during the first half of the 1990s, compared with 6.4 per cent during the 1970s. The share of annual exports in

GDP increased similarly, from 5.4 per cent in 1970 to 12.3 per cent in 1995, compared with 7.6 per cent and 12.8 per cent for imports over the same period. Despite impressive growth, the share of exports of South Asia remained modest, compared with that of other developing regions.

### Manufacturing-led growth

Manufacturing benefited from reforms in industrial and foreign investment policies initiated by major South-East Asian countries at different times since the beginning of the 1980s. The fruits of the reform of the industrial sector have been particularly evident in recent years, with MVA growth surging by more than 8 per cent since 1994, compared with an annual average of 4.3 per cent during the 1970s. In line with higher growth, the share of manufacturing in GDP increased from 12.2 per cent in 1970 to 15.3 per cent in 1994. That was at the expense of agriculture, which dropped from 42.1 per cent to 28.5 per cent during the same period.

Over the years, the region made some progress in diversifying its industrial base and upgrading its technological capability. The MVA share of low-technology industry fell from 67 per cent in 1970 to 57.4 per cent in 1994, while that of medium- and high-technology industries rose correspondingly. The top three industries in 1970 were low-technology textiles, food-processing and iron-and-steel industries, which, together, accounted for a 41.6 per cent share in MVA. In 1994, the medium-technology, industrial chemicals industry replaced iron and steel among the top three industries, and the combined MVA share of the three industries fell to 32 per cent. Diversification, however, appears to be towards medium-technology industries rather than high-technology industries. During the period from 1980 to 1994, the MVA share of high-technology industries increased only marginally from 13.5 per cent to 14.2 per cent, which is lower than the average figure for developing countries in general.

The investment pattern of major countries in the region, such as India and Pakistan, shows a different picture (see table 13). While the share of investment in high-technology industries in those countries remained relatively low, investment in low-technology industries increased at the expense of medium-technology industries. With MVA growth for medium-technology industries having been buoyant during the period, investment data suggest that the growth in medium-technology industries has been increasingly derived from increases in productivity.

### Investment in infrastructure is crucial

Economic deregulation and liberalization have brought buoyant economic growth to South Asia in recent years, with the large domestic market of the region, the well-established legal system, the strong engineering base and the large English-speaking labour force continuing to attract foreign investment.<sup>4</sup>

The region has also been able to exploit its comparative advantage in labour-intensive industries and to compete with some success in international markets on the basis of cost rather than quality. Low-value-added products, such as textiles, still dominate a large percentage of both the MVA and the exports of the region. As liberalization continues and tariff rates fall, many domestic industries will face mounting competitive pressure from imports. At the same time, globalization has changed the notion of international competition, with traditional price-based competitiveness being replaced by competitiveness based on technological capability. The region thus faces the challenge

### Low- and medium-technology industries take the majority of manufacturing investment

Table 13. Investment composition in selected countries in South Asia, 1970-1994 (Percentage)

Country	Type of industry	Share of manufacturing investment			
		1970	1980	1990	1994
India	Low-technology	56.1	63.4	62.0	64.5
	Medium-technology	33.5	26.0	26.0	23.4
	High-technology	10.1	10.5	11.7	11.9
Pakistan	Low-technology	75.9	60.6	80.8	81.6
	Medium-technology	16.5	35.4	13.7	12.6
	High-technology	4.6	3.6	5.1	5.7
Sri Lanka	Low-technology	82.3	50.0	85.1	74.8
	Medium-technology	11.0	46.0	13.8	20.1
	High-technology	4.8	3.2	0.7	2.6

Source: UNIDO database.

Note: Industries are classified as low-, medium- and high-technology industries and other manufacturing industries.

of enhancing its industrial competitiveness through more diversified and more efficient export-oriented industrial structures. That will require new investments in export-oriented industries, in upgrading of both technological capability and human capital, and in the development of efficient physical infrastructure. There is also a need to promote participation by the private sector and to sustain FDI inflows into the country.

### East and South-East Asia

Over the past 25 years, the region has recorded what has often been called a miraculous economic performance. Annual GDP grew strongly at 7.4 per cent during the period from 1970 to 1995, well in excess of both the average world rate of 2.9 per cent and the average rate for developing countries of 4.6 per cent (see table 14). Superior growth performance raised the per capita income of some countries, especially the Asian NIEs, to a level comparable with that of industrialized countries, and the region has become a model that many developing countries hope to emulate.

Numerous reasons have been put forward to explain the impressive economic performance of the region, particularly that of the Asian NIEs. Those include high levels of education, diversification of the export base, high savings rates, sound macroeconomic management and, most strikingly, the unusually high rates of investment and industrialization.

#### Investment stimulates growth

From 1970 to 1995, investment in the region grew at an annual compound rate of 9.5 per cent,

which is considerably higher than that of industrialized countries and developing countries in general. Growth was stimulated by the expansion of international trade, rapid technological change and rapid growth of FDI. As a result, the rate of investment spending in the region rose from 20 per cent to 33 per cent of GDP during the period (see figure 10). The increase in the rate of investment was in direct contrast to the rate of consumption in both the private sector and the public sector, with spending on consumption, as a percentage of GDP, falling from respectively 61.7 per cent and 14.2 per cent in 1970 to 54.5 per cent and 11 per cent in 1995. Against a background of growing GDP, the decline in consumption helped to bolster savings, which, in turn, were mobilized to finance the high investment demand of the region.

Undisturbed by the external shocks affecting many other developing regions, the exports of East and South-East Asia grew at a double-digit rate during the period. Manufactured goods constituted a large percentage of exports, growing at a rate of 11.5 per cent per annum during the period. On average, the external sector has been able to provide a net positive contribution to GDP growth, with exports outstripping imports since the 1980s.

#### Impact of manufacturing on GDP

From 1970 to 1995, manufacturing was the key contributor to growth in the region, increasing at an annual average rate of 9.4 per cent, compared with 8 per cent and 2.8 per cent for services and agriculture. The share of manufacturing in the GDP of the region surged from 17.2 per cent in 1970 to 26.9 per cent in 1994, while the share of manufacturing in the GDP of developing countries

### Investment contributed to increasing the growth rate of GDP

Table 14. Main sources of growth in East and South-East Asia, 1970-1995 (Percentage)

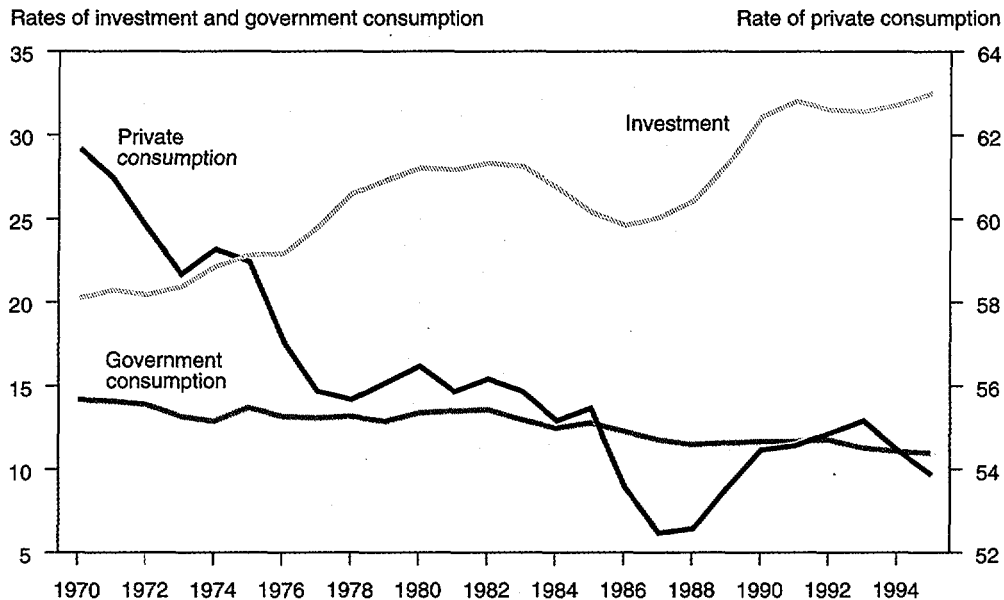
Type of growth and sector	Average growth rate				Share of contribution to GDP growth			
	1970-1980	1980-1990	1990-1995	1970-1995	1970-1980	1980-1990	1990-1995	1970-1995
GDP	8.0	7.1	6.9	7.4	100	100	100	100
Government consumption	7.4	5.7	5.5	6.3	13.1	10.7	9.4	12.1
Private consumption	7.1	6.7	6.7	6.9	54.4	53.4	52.8	56.9
Gross fixed capital formation	11.6	8.2	7.9	9.5	29.3	32.5	35.5	25.9
Agriculture	3.1	2.8	2.3	2.8	9.4	6.0	3.4	9.3
Manufacturing	11.4	8.5	7.4	9.4	24.4	28.1	28.6	21.8
Services	8.4	7.9	7.5	8.0	47.6	52.1	54.8	49.0

Source: UNIDO database.

Note: The sum of supply and demand components is not equal to 100 per cent, because the external sector on the demand side and the mining and construction sectors on the supply side are not included.

### Rate of investment in East and South-East Asia has soared, while rates of consumption have fallen

Figure 10. Rates of investment and consumption in East and South-East Asia, 1970-1995  
(Percentage of GDP)



Source: UNIDO database.

Note: Investment is defined as gross fixed capital formation.

more than doubled during the same period. The contribution of manufacturing to GDP growth in the region also increased from 24.4 per cent during the 1970s to 28.6 per cent during the first half of the 1990s, while the contribution of agriculture dropped from 9.4 per cent to 3.4 per cent. In tandem with manufacturing, the service sector enjoyed buoyant growth. The share of services in GDP rose to 31.9 per cent from 20.3 per cent, while the contribution of services to GDP growth rose from 47.6 per cent to 54.8 per cent.

The region underwent significant structural orientation towards high-technology industries during the period. In 1970, low-technology industries accounted for 67 per cent of the MVA of the region, while high-technology industries accounted for approximately 11.2 per cent. By 1994, the share of low-technology industries had dropped to 53.6 per cent, while that of high-technology industries had more than doubled to 22.8 per cent. The achievements of high-technology industries can be viewed from a wider perspective. In 1970, the share of the region in low-, medium- and high-technology industries in the total MVA of developing countries were at about the same level,

approximately 14 per cent. By 1994, the respective shares of those industries in regional MVA had risen to 33.2 per cent, 25.6 per cent and 48.4 per cent respectively, suggesting a higher pace of growth in high-technology industries.

The impressive growth of high-technology industries was supported by a correspondingly high rate of investment in those industries. The average proportion of investment spending channelled into high-technology industries in Hong Kong, the Republic of Korea and Singapore, for example, rose from 17.2 per cent, 5.1 per cent and 11.1 per cent respectively during the 1970s to 24.8 per cent, 25.3 per cent and 48.8 per cent respectively during the first half of the 1990s. That was at the expense of the falling share in investment spending of low-technology industries (see table 15). The rates given for the first half of the 1990s are comparable with, if not greater than, those of industrialized countries. Among the countries of the Association of South-East Asian Nations (ASEAN), high-growth Malaysia spent about one third of manufacturing investment on high-technology industries in 1994, compared with 16.7 per cent for the low-growth Philippines.

### High proportion of manufacturing investment channelled into high-technology industries in Asian NIEs

Table 15. Investment composition in selected countries and areas in East and South-East Asia, 1970-1994 (Percentage)

Country/territory	Type of industry	Share of manufacturing investment			
		1970	1980	1990	1994
Hong Kong	Low-technology	48.9	61.2	56.9	55.9
	Medium-technology	30.3	14.7	10.5	15.5
	High-technology	17.2	21.9	30.3	24.8
Indonesia	Low-technology	77.1	76.5	76.5	67.1
	Medium-technology	21.7	18.8	18.2	25.9
	High-technology	1.1	4.3	4.6	6.4
Malaysia	Low-technology	67.0	60.7	43.6	42.6
	Medium-technology	18.1	17.6	17.3	23.2
	High-technology	13.7	21.2	38.5	33.8
Philippines	Low-technology	87.3	70.0	67.5	66.5
	Medium-technology	7.8	22.8	16.7	15.9
	High-technology	4.8	6.9	15.4	16.7
Republic of Korea	Low-technology	75.3	55.2	51.9	43.2
	Medium-technology	16.4	33.7	28.1	30.9
	High-technology	5.1	10.7	19.1	25.3
Singapore	Low-technology	72.6	56.8	35.1	32.8
	Medium-technology	14.3	14.2	16.2	17.6
	High-technology	11.1	27.6	47.6	48.8

Source: UNIDO database.

Note: Industries are classified as low-, medium- and high-technology industries and other manufacturing industries.

#### *East and South-East Asia must invest in technological capabilities*

The region of East and South-East Asia comprises a diverse group of economies at varying stages of economic development. On the one hand, it contains approximately 17 per cent of the total number of least developed countries (LDCs) in the world and, on the other, it has many rapidly industrializing countries, some of which have attained a per capita income level similar to that of industrialized countries.

Growth fundamentals in the Asian NIEs remained strong despite occasional cyclical slowdowns, such as the slump in electronics exports in 1996. Domestic demand and growing intra-regional trade, which have been fuelled by years of buoyant regional economic performance, both helped to support growth. The NIEs of the region, however, face increasing competition in international markets from many developing countries, notably those of ASEAN and China. The investment rate of NIEs will be threatened by rising consumption rates as living standards improve. The NIEs also face the challenge of maintaining their market position by increasing productivity against a background of rising business costs and increasing environmental pressures.

On the other hand, the ASEAN countries, plagued by concerns over current account deficits

and overheating economies in recent years, face a different set of challenges, with doubts about macroeconomic stabilization undoubtedly affecting future investment demand, in particular FDI inflows. Measures to remove capacity constraints by restraining demand and encouraging investment in infrastructure projects are, however, currently in hand, and they will pave the way for sustainable long-term growth. Moreover, there is a need for ASEAN countries to enhance their international competitiveness by investing in the broadening and deepening of their technological capability and human capital.

#### *China*

Since the institution of economic reforms in 1978, the performance of China has been extraordinary. The GDP of the country has grown with increasing vigour, rising from 5.9 per cent annually during the 1970s to 8.8 per cent during the 1980s, before surging to 11.4 per cent during the first half of the 1990s (see table 16). By 1995, China had more than doubled its GDP share, accounting for approximately 14 per cent of the GDP share of developing countries during the year. Average per capita income in China has risen by 6.5 per cent annually in real terms during the last 25 years.

## Investment is gaining priority over consumption

Table 16. Main sources of growth in China, 1970-1995  
(Percentage)

Type of growth and sector	Average growth rate				Share of contribution to GDP growth			
	1970-1980	1980-1990	1990-1995	1970-1995	1970-1980	1980-1990	1990-1995	1970-1995
GDP	5.9	8.8	11.4	8.1	100	100	100	100
Government consumption	10.0	10.0	13.5	10.7	12.7	12.5	14.5	9.9
Private consumption	6.3	8.1	13.9	8.5	55.2	49.3	61.3	54.0
Gross fixed capital formation	7.0	8.8	18.2	9.9	27.6	25.6	41.0	28.2
Agriculture	4.9	8.4	3.7	6.1	26.2	27.3	8.9	23.3
Manufacturing	8.3	8.3	16.9	10.0	39.9	33.4	50.4	34.8
Services	3.5	10.1	8.7	7.1	17.6	27.2	20.5	26.2

Source: UNIDO database.

Note: The sum of supply and demand components is not equal to 100 per cent, because the external sector on the demand side and the mining and construction sectors on the supply side are not included.

### Investment rate of China highest of all developing countries

Rapid economic growth in China has been supported by a high investment rate and buoyant export performance. Investment was required for modernizing and restructuring the economy after the 1978 reforms. The average rate of investment spending rose from 30 per cent during the mid-1980s to 40 per cent in 1995, stimulated by decentralization in both the investment system and the economic system, by rapid expansion of non-State-owned enterprises, by high domestic savings and by large inflows of FDI (see figure 11). An outstanding feature of the change in demand structure was the correlation between the sharp increase in investment and the declining trend in private consumption, with gains in investment being made at the expense of consumption, as in the case of Asian NIEs. During the period from the mid-1980s to 1995, the rate of spending on private consumption fell from 51 per cent to 46 per cent, while the rate of government spending declined from 14 per cent to 13 per cent. As in the case of the Asian NIEs, the drop in the rate of consumption led to higher savings, which were used to finance increased investment.

A further driving force in the economy has been extremely rapid export growth. Total exports grew at 17.8 per cent per year from 1970 to 1995, well above the average growth rate of world exports. That impressive performance was supported by equally strong exports of manufactured goods, which surged by 18 per cent annually during the period. As a result of such a performance, China is now in the same class as the countries with the highest growth in exports, such as the Asian NIEs, Malaysia and Thailand.

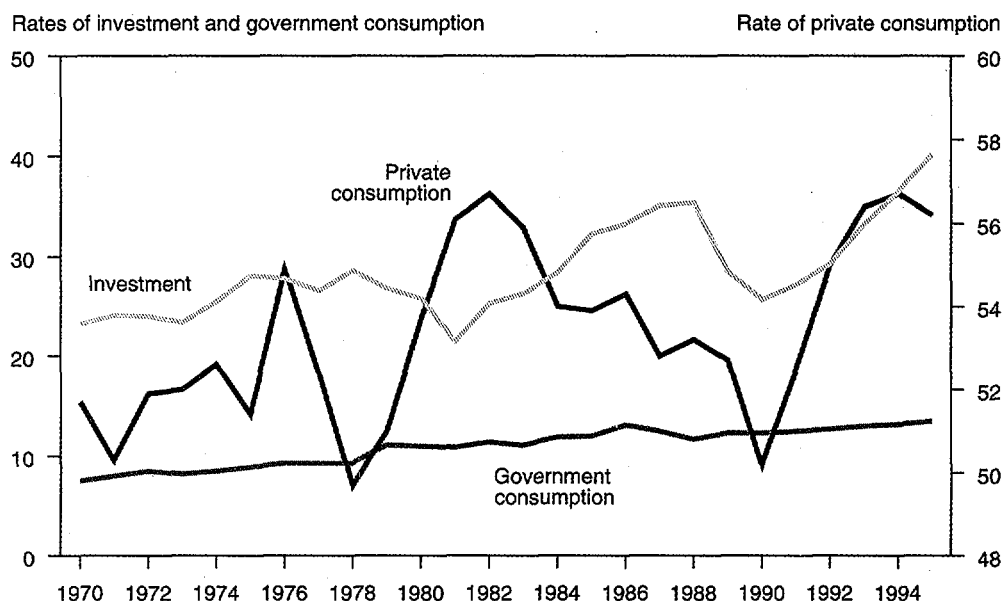
### High-technology industries of China losing ground to those of East and South-East Asia

The economic structure of China has also undergone considerable change since the reform process. Rapid growth in manufacturing has meant a growth in MVA which, at 10.6 per cent, has annually outstripped that of average GDP growth. After the reforms, manufacturing emerged as the most important industrial sector, with the share of manufacturing in GDP rising from 24 per cent in 1970 to 43 per cent in 1995. In the same year, the share of manufacturing in GDP in developing countries rose from 9 per cent to 25 per cent. Agriculture and services also grew annually at 6.1 per cent and 7.6 per cent respectively during the period, but their share of GDP fell from 33 per cent and 32.5 per cent to 19.8 per cent and 28.8 per cent respectively.

Before the reforms, the industrial structure of China was similar to that of other centrally planned economies, such as those of central Europe and the former Union of Soviet Socialist Republics, with a high investment concentration in heavy industries and considerable neglect of light industries. The pattern changed considerably after the reform process. In contrast to the State-owned heavy industries, small- and medium-scale industries, many of which belonged to collective town and village enterprises, and to a lesser extent, private firms, have enjoyed rapid growth since the reforms (see box 9). The sharp growth in those industries contributed greatly to the success of the reforms, by helping successfully to bridge the gap in demand for consumer goods, both from domestic sources and from export markets.

## Rate of investment in China is one of the highest in the world

Figure 11. Rates of investment and consumption in China, 1970-1995  
(Percentage of GDP)



Source: UNIDO database.

Note: Investment is defined as gross fixed capital formation.

## There are many types of non-State enterprises

### Box 9. The non-State industrial sector of China

There are six tiers of government in China: central, provincial, prefectural or municipal, county or district, township and village. Enterprises under the direct authority of the central Government or of provincial governments are considered State-owned; all others are considered to be in the non-State sector. Non-State enterprises are, in turn, classified into three main types: collectives, individual businesses and other enterprises.

Collectives can be urban or rural, depending on their affiliation. Enterprises affiliated to a district government under a municipality or a county are regarded as large urban collectives. Those affiliated to a neighbourhood are labelled small collectives. Urban cooperatives are also included in the category of urban collectives. Rural collectives include township and village enterprises and rural cooperatives. Collectives are distinct from State-owned enterprises in that they are not managed by, nor do they report to, the industrial ministries or bureaux or the representatives of such bodies. Collectives operate largely in a market-based environment. From the point of view of ownership, collectives are regarded as publicly owned because, in principle, their ownership is shared by the community. Many are, however, private enterprises because they are basically partnerships hiring several employees from the local community. That is particularly true of cooperatives. The dividing line between collectives and private enterprises is thus becoming increasingly blurred.

The remaining categories of the non-State sector make up what is officially regarded as the private sector. An individual business is defined as a business that is owned by a household or an individual, and employs no more than seven people. The category of other enterprises consists of private enterprises owned by a household or an individual and employing more than seven workers, of foreign enterprises and of joint ventures.

Source: International Monetary Fund, *China at the Threshold of Market Economy*, Occasional Paper No. 107 (Washington, D.C., September 1993).



If classified by technological content, the composition of industries remained relatively stable from 1970 to 1994, although both low- and medium-technology industries grew at a slightly higher rate than that of high-technology industries (see table 17). The aggregate data, however, masked the structural changes within each category of industry. For example, within the high-technology industries, an 8.4 percentage point drop in the MVA share of non-electrical machinery during the period was mainly offset by a 7.5 percentage point gain in the MVA share of electrical machinery. Similarly, the drop in textiles, which is in the category of low-technology industries, was buffered by increases in food, beverages, tobacco and wearing apparel.

Compared with other developing countries, the share of China in low-technology industries increased by five percentage points during the period at the expense of a sharp decline in the same sector in Latin America and the Caribbean. On the other hand, China lost to East and South-East Asia approximately seven percentage points of the share of developing countries in MVA. The poorer performance in high-technology industries was reflected in the investment pattern of China, which reveals that investment spending in high-technology industries dropped sharply from more than 30 per cent of the total manufacturing investment before the reform period to less than 10 per cent during the first half of the 1990s. By contrast, investment spending on low-technology industries increased from 45 per cent during the 1970s to 80 per cent during the 1990s.

### *Sustaining the investment rate through quality improvement*

Following a sharp rise in investment linked to rapid economic growth, the rate of investment of China has reached a very high level and is difficult to improve further. In the short term, the urgent need to improve the physical infrastructure and develop the regions in the interior of the country may help to sustain the investment rate. In the face of the efforts of the Government to cool the overheating economy by imposing a restrictive fiscal and monetary policy, however, it is imperative for future growth that the quality or efficiency of investment should be improved. Although the investment efficiency of the State-owned enterprises leaves much to be desired, there is unlikely to be any radical reform of the sector in the near term.<sup>5</sup> Improvements in efficiency are therefore likely to come from the rapidly growing non-State industries.

Another challenge facing China is the need for the technological capability of the country to be upgraded so as to keep pace with change. With the high-technology industries of China accounting for a declining share of investment among developing countries, more investment must be channelled into those industries and into building technological capabilities to reverse the trend. As foreign investment brings new technology and production methods, it is important for the country to maintain an attractive investment climate. Macroeconomic stabilization and reforms must, therefore, continue, so that any uncertainties likely to adversely affect FDI inflows can be reduced.

### **Low-technology industries still account for an increasing share of manufacturing investment**

Table 17. Investment composition in China, 1970-1994 (Percentage)

Type of industry	Share of manufacturing investment			
	1970	1980	1990	1994
Low-technology	45.2	55.1	74.2	79.9
Medium-technology	9.7	16.8	11.8	8.5
High-technology	38.5	23.9	10.5	8.9

Source: UNIDO database.

## ECONOMIES IN TRANSITION

The process of moving from a centrally planned economy to a market economy in central and eastern Europe and in the States that emerged from the former Soviet Union has proved to be a long and difficult one. Reforms in those countries, unlike those in China, have been accompanied by sharp falls in both output and demand, resulting in a corresponding drop in real income levels and living standards. After more than five years of reform, many countries, notably the Russian Federation and other member States of the Commonwealth of Independent States (CIS), are still struggling economically and have a contracting GDP.

During the 1970s, as many of the economies of the region, especially the former Soviet Union, were large oil exporters, the region benefited from higher oil prices, with GDP growing at a buoyant rate of 5.3 per cent annually, above the world average (see figure 12). Structural weaknesses and inefficiency emerged during the 1980s, however, even before the transition to a market economy began, and that led to a deceleration in GDP growth to an annual average of 2 per cent. Growth plunged further to -9.8 per cent during

the 1990s, following the onset of transition in the late 1980s.

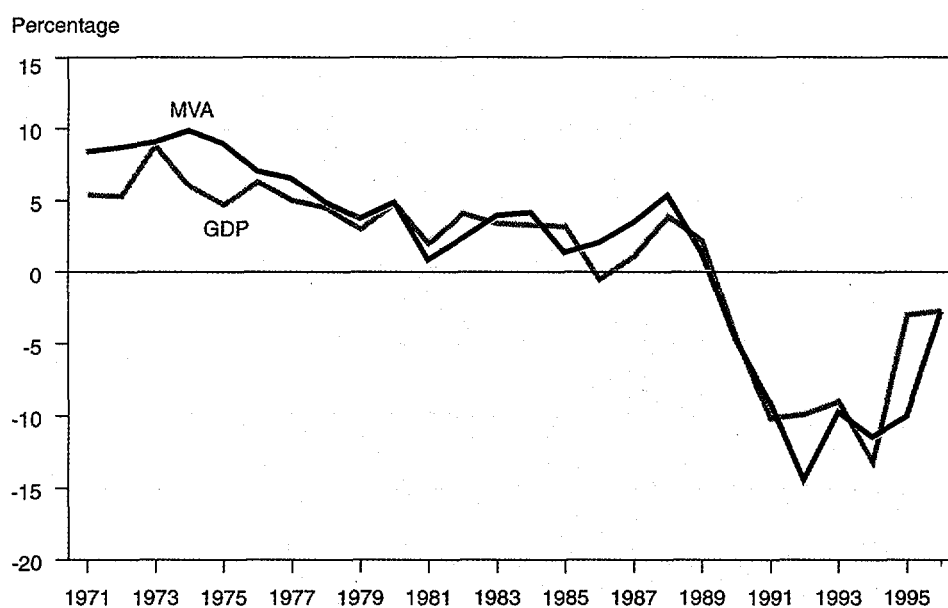
*Investment collapses*

Under the planned economy, the demand structure of the region remained relatively stable with greater emphasis being placed on investment. The investment rate was relatively high by world standards. Indeed, the average rate for the former Soviet Union was over 30 per cent during the period from 1980 to 1989.<sup>6</sup> Capital investment was, however, determined centrally by planners, and decisions were taken on the basis of quantitative targets without due consideration being given to the prevailing market conditions. As a result, there was widespread inefficiency in the use of investment resources.

During the early years of transition, the investment rates of the economies in transition contracted considerably in line with the sharp fall in GDP. In many countries of the region, the fall in investment was much more severe than the fall in consumption. As a result, the rate of investment in

**GDP growth in the economies in transition fell sharply at the outset of reform**

Figure 12. Growth rates of GDP and MVA in the economies in transition, 1970-1996



Source: UNIDO database.

### Investment rate recovered in more advanced economies in transition

Table 18. Investment rate in selected economies in transition, 1989-1995  
(Percentage of GDP)

Country	Type of investment	1989	1990	1991	1992	1993	1994	1995
Albania	Government	..	..	6.0	4.0	8.0	8.0	10.0
	Non-government	..	..	0	1.0	6.0	7.0	9.0
Bulgaria	Domestic	32.9	25.6	22.6	19.9	14.2	14.6	15.2
	Private	1.5	0.9	0.6	0.4	3.1	3.4	3.7
	State-sector	31.4	24.7	22.0	19.5	11.0	11.2	11.5
Czech Republic	Domestic	26.8	28.6	29.9	24.0	17.0	20.4	22.1
	Private	1.1	1.5	2.8	3.3	4.1	6.1	6.7
	State-sector	25.7	27.1	27.1	20.7	12.9	14.3	15.4
Hungary	Domestic	26.1	24.0	20.8	19.5	23.1	22.9	23.4
	Private	9.8	6.6	8.4	9.7	7.4	6.7	6.7
	State-sector	16.3	17.4	12.4	10.2	15.7	16.2	16.7
Poland	Government	4.0	3.6	4.1	3.7	3.4	3.2	3.6
	Non-government	24.7	23.9	15.8	11.4	13.0	13.4	13.8
Romania	Domestic	25.8	30.2	28.0	32.3	30.1	28.7	27.2
	Private	..	3.8	4.1	4.8	4.9	5.4	5.8
	State-sector	25.8	26.4	23.9	27.5	25.2	23.3	21.4
Russian Federation	Gross	..	30.1	36.3	34.3	31.3	28.9	..
Slovakia	Government	..	..	..	..	4.1	4.2	4.8
	Non-government	..	..	..	..	17.7	12.9	14.1

Source: *World Economic and Social Survey 1996* (United Nations publication, Sales No. E.96.II.C.1).

those countries fell sharply to below 20 per cent during the first two years of reform but has since recovered (see table 18). The sharp decline in the investment rate occurred despite the urgent need for massive new investment to restructure the economy and modernize outdated capital stock.

Several factors explain the sharp fall in the investment rate of the region. First, the production of consumer goods contracted sharply, as demand was adversely affected by a considerable drop in real incomes and purchasing power. The situation was further aggravated by the preference of consumers for imported goods, which became readily available with the introduction of currency convertibility and import liberalization. The production of capital goods was also reduced by the collapse of State procurement and a reduction in military expenditure following the end of the arms race. Secondly, the move to a market economy meant a large reduction in traditional State investment. Public investment was further affected by the collapse in budgetary revenues. Thirdly, there was an adverse impact on the balance of trade of oil-importing countries in the region, as oil subsidies were removed and trade in oil and other oil-related raw materials began to move closer to world market prices. This happened at a time when industries needed restructuring to gear them towards energy-saving methods of production. Fourthly, external demand was affected by the loss

of traditional markets following the break-up of the trade relations of the former Council for Mutual Economic Assistance (CMEA), one of the effects of which was to reduce the importance of the former Soviet Union as a major market for the countries of central and eastern Europe.

#### *Damping down manufacturing*

The process of transition has strongly influenced the sectoral allocation of investment. Investment in agriculture has continued to fall in many countries of the region, with the exception of Kazakstan and Slovenia. In some countries such as Kyrgyzstan, Latvia, Lithuania and Romania, investment in agriculture has fallen by more than 10 per cent.<sup>7</sup> Investment in industry has also suffered during the transition process. From 1989 to 1993, the share of industry in total investment fell in 13 of the 16 countries of the region for which data are available, the most affected being Slovenia, with a fall of 9.9 per cent, and the Russian Federation and Slovakia, both with a fall of 7.5 per cent.

By contrast, the service industries, as a group, registered large investment gains. That was not surprising, since, because of the inherent structural patterns of the centrally planned economies, the base investment figure for the sector was very low. Among the subsectors of the service industry,

however, there were significant differences in investment performance. Trade, for example, was a clear beneficiary of increased investment, partly because of its strength in the development of the private sector and partly because of its relatively low capital-intensiveness. Increases in investment share were also recorded in transport and telecommunications in most countries.

During the era of the planned economy, the industrial structure of the region was biased towards the production of capital goods, while production of consumer goods was neglected. As a result, the current share of high-technology industries in GDP is relatively strong by world standards, having increased from 20.4 per cent in 1970 to about 24 per cent in 1990. During the transition process, the share remained relatively stable although, in absolute terms, MVA declined considerably. Manufacturing investment data for selected countries in the region show a mixed pattern (see table 19). Since the reforms, decreases in high-technology investment have been recorded in many economies in transition such as the Czech Republic, Slovakia and the former Soviet Union. That suggests that there has been a shift to consumer goods in response to the sharp rise in

demand for such goods in those economies since the reforms.

### *Restoring investment rates, capacity utilization and investment efficiency*

The investment rate in the region has been recovering in recent years, although it is still much lower than the levels reached during the period prior to the reforms and the levels of developing countries in general. To gain comparative advantage, more investment needs to be channelled into replacing the large proportion of capital stocks made obsolete by rapid changes in technologies and demand patterns. There is also a need to improve the rate of capacity utilization of productive assets, currently averaging less than 70 per cent. Obsolete machinery and lack of demand for the goods produced partly explain the large margin of idle capacity. Nevertheless, there is still a substantial proportion of unexplained idle capacity that could be utilized to increase output without increasing investment.

Apart from the volume of investment, efficiency of investment is another issue of considerable

## Surge in investment in low-technology industries in the former Soviet Union

Table 19. Investment composition in selected economies in transition, 1970-1994 (Percentage)

Country	Type of industry	Share of manufacturing investment			
		1970	1980	1990	1994
Former Czechoslovakia <sup>a</sup>	Low-technology	62.3	59.0	52.6	46.5
	Medium-technology	21.3	19.3	22.3	34.4
	High-technology	15.2	20.8	23.3	17.0
Hungary	Low-technology	59.5	61.6	62.3	61.8
	Medium-technology	23.5	19.5	24.9	23.6
	High-technology	15.0	16.7	11.7	14.0
Poland	Low-technology	58.4	53.0	58.7	66.9
	Medium-technology	24.0	20.7	29.3	19.9
	High-technology	17.3	25.8	11.3	12.2
Romania	Low-technology	56.7	50.0	61.7	68.1
	Medium-technology	20.7	26.1	17.6	14.4
	High-technology	19.6	21.8	17.3	5.6
Slovenia	Low-technology	99.3	86.3	55.3	46.6
	Medium-technology	0.2	4.0	28.1	39.3
	High-technology	0.4	8.8	16.5	13.7
Former Soviet Union <sup>b</sup>	Low-technology	53.9	48.1	49.4	61.4
	Medium-technology	17.7	17.6	12.3	5.9
	High-technology	21.1	26.8	29.0	21.6

Source: UNIDO database.

Note: Industries are classified as low-, medium-, high-technology industries and other manufacturing industries.

<sup>a</sup>Data for the Czech Republic and Slovakia are combined in the totals for 1994.

<sup>b</sup>CIS countries since 1992.

importance for economies in transition. Experience indicates that a high level of investment is a necessary, but not a sufficient, condition for fast economic growth. The composition and quality of investment, together with human capital development and technological know-how, are also critical. Investment is particularly urgent because of the competition the region faces as a result of increasing economic liberalization. New investment must be more responsive to market needs and directed to the development of infrastructure, technological capability and human resources. Increasing the pace of privatization will not only help to attract investment resources from both domestic and foreign private investors, but also raise investment efficiency.

Another challenge facing the region is its ability to reduce the uncertainties and instabilities inherent in the reform process. Too much uncertainty will impede progress towards increasing investment. Attempts to stabilize the economy at the macroeconomic level must continue to restore the creditworthiness of the region in order to attract a sustainable level of FDI inflows.

#### Notes

<sup>1</sup>Angus Maddison, *Monitoring the World Economy, 1820-1999*, Development Centre Studies (Paris, Organisation for Economic Co-operation and Development, 1995), p. 73.

<sup>2</sup>International Finance Corporation, *Trends in Private Investment in Developing Countries 1990-1994*, Discussion Paper No. 28 (Washington, D.C., 1995).

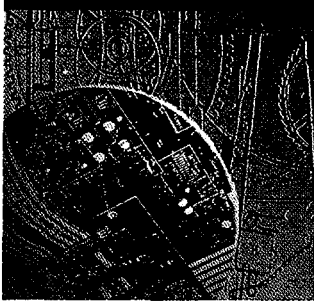
<sup>3</sup>United Nations Industrial Development Organization, *Industrial Development: Global Report 1996* (Vienna, Oxford University Press, 1996), chap. 2.

<sup>4</sup>C. P. Oman, D. H. Brooks and C. Foy, *Investing in Asia* (Paris, Organisation for Economic Co-operation and Development, 1997).

<sup>5</sup>Organisation for Economic Co-operation and Development, "From reform to growth: China and other countries in transition in Asia and central and eastern Europe", Development Centre document, Chung H. Lee and Helmut Reisen, eds. (Paris, 1994).

<sup>6</sup>*World Economic and Social Survey 1996* (United Nations publication, Sales No. E.96.II.C.1).

<sup>7</sup>European Bank for Reconstruction and Development, *Transition Report 1995: Investment and Enterprise Development* (London, 1995).



# 3

## *Financing industrial investment*

### Overview

World investment demand is expected to rise in the years ahead. For developing countries, it is estimated that, within a decade, investment could rise in absolute terms by nearly 50 per cent compared with the estimated level in 1994, while in the economies in transition, investment demand is expected to rise by 5 per cent or more annually over the next 10 years.<sup>1</sup>

Measures to boost investment will not succeed if the required financing, which comes from savings (see box 10), is not available. The projected increase in the global demand for investment, therefore, raises some doubts as to whether it can be matched by the likely increases on the supply side. As much of the increase will need to come from domestic sources, the mobilization of savings has become a crucial policy concern.

Effective mobilization of domestic savings will promote the efficient utilization of such resources as well as increase the volume of financial resources for investment purposes. In that respect, a number of lessons can be drawn from different groups of countries. First, raising public savings by fiscal consolidation and discipline is an effective way to raise the overall level of savings. Secondly, strengthening the banking system and non-bank financial institutions increases confidence in the financial system, and hence encourages private savings. An efficient financial system will also help to increase the efficiency of resource allocation. Thirdly, positive real interest rates accompanied by other elements of a stable macroeconomic environment can contribute to higher corporate and household savings. Finally, income growth has a positive impact on savings.

### **An increase in investment must be met by an increase in savings**

#### **Box 10. Definitions of savings**

Most definitions view savings as a residual concept involving the amount of output of an economy that is not consumed but is used to generate income in future. All economic agents both save and invest. Their investment intentions are independent of their plans to save. As a consequence, some economic agents usually save more than they invest, while others have to complement their own savings with the savings of others to meet their investment plans. Financial markets channel savings into investment, and they bring demand for capital and supply of capital into equilibrium through interest rates.

The concept of savings distinguishes between private savings, generated by households and enterprises, and public savings. Households typically contribute by far the largest share to aggregate savings. In contrast to households, which are net providers of financial resources to enterprises and the public sector in practically all economies, enterprises usually spend much of their savings from retained profits. With regard to government savings, fiscal policy is of prime importance. It encompasses revenue measures, particularly taxation, as well as expenditure measures, both of which determine the overall net savings of a Government.

Another distinction can be made between domestic and national savings. The former incorporates savings that are generated by national and foreign entities domestically, that is, in a particular country, while the concept of national savings includes savings generated by national entities in the home country and abroad. Domestic savings, therefore, do not take into account the outcome of two flows that are important for many countries: the flow of savings generated by nationals working abroad who

**Box 10 (continued)**

repatriate part of their savings; and the flow of interest payments on foreign debt and of profits on foreign investments. Countries in which national savings exceed domestic savings tend to be countries with a considerable inflow of remittances, while countries in which domestic savings exceed national savings are usually countries with obligations to make high interest payments or experiencing a high outflow of profits from foreign investment.

In contrast to domestic or national savings, foreign savings are savings that have been generated in other countries by economic agents who are not nationals of the country importing the savings and who make those savings available for investment in that country.

*Source:* Economic and Social Commission for Asia and the Pacific, "Industrial finance in Asia and the Pacific" (Bangkok, March 1996), part one.

Financial institutions play a critical role in mobilizing domestic financial resources from savers to investors. The precise role of the financial institutions depends, however, on the stage of development of the financial sector. In the early stage, the sector is dominated by banks, while financial markets and non-bank financial institutions play a more prominent role at a later stage. The process of evolving from a barter system to a money economy is clearly confirmed by different characteristic patterns observed in the financial sector of countries at different levels of economic development. In low-income developing countries and in economies in transition, the intermediation role of the financial sector is still rather limited, as suggested by various international indicators of financial deepening, and the financial sector is strongly dominated by banks. On the other hand, the financial sector in more advanced developing economies has deepened and broadened significantly over the past decade, following increases in the activities of both the banking sector and the rapidly developing non-bank financial institutions, especially stock markets. Some of the more advanced developing economies, including Chile, Malaysia, Republic of Korea, South Africa, Taiwan Province of China and Thailand, now have banks and markets as developed, if not as mature, as those of some industrialized countries.

For industrial investment, loans from the domestic banking sector are by far the most important source of formal financing in a large majority of developing countries and in all economies in transition. Lending to firms in the industrial sector usually accounts for between a quarter and one third of total bank lending, making that sector the most important borrower in many countries. Banks tend to prefer lending to large, well-established industrial enterprises, while lending to small firms and entrepreneurs is either very limited or even non-existent. Because of macroeconomic considerations and an aversion to risk linked with efforts to contain losses from bad debts, banks

have generally concentrated on short-term loans for working capital.

Demand for long-term financial resources has been increasingly met by domestic equity markets in a growing number of middle- and high-income economies. For the time being, those markets are of importance only for large enterprises. In Chile, Malaysia, Mexico, Republic of Korea, Taiwan Province of China and Thailand, for example, equity issues financed more than one third of the increase in net assets of large firms during the second half of the 1980s and early 1990s.<sup>2</sup> Industry continues to be either the largest of the major players, or at least one of the top two or three, in emerging stock markets, although in recent years its relative importance, measured as a share in total market capitalization, has declined as compared with that of utilities and financial institutions. With the liberalization of international capital flows, foreigners are becoming increasingly important investors in emerging stock markets.\*

Domestic savings are often insufficient to finance the investment needs of developing countries, in particular those with low incomes. Foreign savings thus represent an alternative source of accumulation of investment. The distinctive quality of foreign financial sources enables them to make a contribution to economic development that goes well beyond their purely financial function.\*\* By bridging the gap between savings and investment, capital inflows also help to meet the need for foreign exchange. That is particularly important in less developed economies, which are usually highly

\*The term emerging stock market applies to any stock market in a developing country or an economy in transition.

\*\*Capital flows to developing countries and economies in transition can be divided into two main groups, private flows and official development finance. Official development finance includes official development assistance and official non-concessional loans, both coming either from direct bilateral channels or through multilateral financial institutions. Private capital flows include FDI and portfolio equity investment, both of which are non-debt-creating flows, and bank lending and bond financing, which are the major debt-creating flows.

dependent on imports for domestic investment. In addition, foreign capital inflows, especially in the form of FDI, are usually accompanied by new technology, better management practices and improved access to foreign markets, as discussed in chapter 1 above, all of which are scarce in many developing countries and economies in transition.

Despite the advantages, only a small proportion of investment is financed from foreign sources because of the preference for domestic savings and investment, the limited mobility of international capital and other factors. During the period 1990-1995, foreign financing met, on average, 5.8 per cent of the total financial needs of developing countries, and less in the case of the economies in transition. Similar proportions are projected for the years to come.<sup>3</sup>

Total financial flows to developing countries and economies in transition increased dramatically during the past decade as a result of the policy reforms introduced in the late 1980s and continued in the first half of 1990s. With official flows stagnating, the surge in total inflows has come almost entirely from private sources. A sound macroeconomic framework, effectively regulated and supervised banking and stock markets and strong economic prospects have caused foreign investors to take a more positive view of the creditworthiness and viability of developing countries and economies in transition, and have thus contributed to large private capital flows to those countries and economies. The bulk of the flows, however, have gone to middle-income countries, the only exceptions being the two large low-income countries, China and India, and 12 countries have received some 80 per cent of the total inflows.<sup>4</sup>

Among the various foreign sources of industrial investment, equity financing has become by far the most important. Industry continues to be the major destination of flows of both FDI and portfolio equity investment into developing countries and economies in transition, although it is losing some ground to services and economic infrastructure. It is estimated that in 1995 alone, some \$50 billion (in net terms) was channelled into industry in developing countries and economies in transition through FDI, and manufacturing accounted for more than one half of total FDI flows to some major recipient countries, including China, Hungary, Indonesia, Mexico, Poland, Republic of Korea and Thailand. In addition to FDI, industrial companies in developing countries and economies in transition have also tapped resources on the international equity market. Since that market is accessible only to large and well-established companies, the volume of international equity

issues by firms in developing countries and economies in transition remains rather low. In 1996, for example, industrial companies in those economies raised some \$5 billion on the international equity market.

In contrast to foreign equity financing, whereby resources are almost exclusively used for corporate financing, a significant part of foreign debt financing, especially of bond financing, goes to sovereign borrowers to finance deficits in the balance of payments. Firms in the industrial sector in developing countries and economies in transition are active players on both the foreign equity and debt financing markets, access to which is restricted to industrial companies in a relatively small number of those countries and economies which are deemed to be creditworthy. The sector, which participates in between a quarter and one third of total international bank lending to the countries and economies concerned, raised, in 1996, international bank credits amounting to an estimated \$20 billion to \$30 billion. In the same year, it raised about half of the amount on the international bond market.

With access to foreign savings from private sources being limited to a relatively small number of middle-income developing countries and economies in transition, the majority of low-income countries remain largely dependent on official flows to meet the need for foreign capital. Although industry has never been a major recipient of financing from those sources, its share in such financing has been declining in recent years. Stagnation in total aid flows and changed priorities for aid allocation seem to be the main explanations for the decline in bilateral aid commitments for industry to less than \$1 billion in 1995, or less than 2 per cent of total bilateral aid. At the same time, the importance of industrial projects is also diminishing for multilateral financial institutions as their non-project lending is increasing and as a growing number of countries have turned to international capital markets for industrial financing. It is estimated that projects in the industrial sector account, on average, for less than 5 per cent of the total loan commitments of those institutions, whereas a decade ago the share of such projects was at least twice as high.

As the decline in official flows is expected to continue in the future, it is of the utmost importance for government authorities in low-income economies to strengthen their efforts in the mobilization of domestic savings by creating a sound framework for macroeconomic policy. Such a framework would also facilitate inflows of private sector capital, and, together with improved management of aid, increase the capacity of a country to use foreign aid effectively.



## Regional trends in national savings

During the past 25 years, world savings rates—savings as a proportion of output—have declined, coinciding with a period of declining rates of investment. From a peak of 25 per cent in 1974, the world savings rate declined to an annual average of 22.4 per cent for the period 1982-1989, and remained at practically the same level during the period 1990-1995 (see table 20). The level of world savings during the 1990s has therefore been on average more than two percentage points less than that of two decades ago.

### Industrialized countries

As roughly one half of total world savings is generated by industrialized countries, savings trends in those countries have a strong impact on

the total supply of world financial resources available for investment. In industrialized countries, savings rates have declined steadily since the beginning of the 1970s, dropping from an average of 23 per cent of GDP for the period 1974-1981 to below 20 per cent during the first half of the 1990s. In 1993, their savings rate fell to its lowest level of 18.9 per cent, before recovering slightly during the following two years mainly as a result of the improved fiscal performance of many industrialized countries. Most of the industrialized countries have savings rates of between 18 and 27 per cent, with the exception of the United Kingdom and the United States, which have rates of about 15 per cent, and Japan, which has a rate of more than 30 per cent.

Breaking down the national savings data of industrialized countries reveals significant differences between savings trends in the private and public sectors. Savings in the private sector, usually analysed in industrialized countries within the

## World savings and investment rates have declined in recent decades

Table 20. National savings and total investment by region, 1974-1995

Economic grouping and item	Percentage of GDP		
	1974-1981	1982-1989	1990-1995
World			
Savings	24.9	22.4	22.5
Investment	24.7	23.3	23.5
Industrialized countries			
Savings	23.1	21.0	19.9
Investment	23.2	21.5	20.4
Developing countries <sup>a</sup>			
Savings	26.6	22.7	25.7
Investment	25.9	24.5	27.4
Africa			
Savings	29.0	17.6	17.6
Investment	31.9	22.4	20.7
Asia			
Savings	26.5	27.2	31.4
Investment	25.7	28.1	32.2
Middle East <sup>b</sup>			
Savings	35.4	18.0	19.9
Investment	25.4	22.3	23.3
Western hemisphere			
Savings	20.6	19.4	18.2
Investment	24.0	20.1	20.4
Economies in transition			
Savings	..	..	25.6
Investment	..	..	26.8

Source: International Monetary Fund, *World Economic Outlook: October 1996* (Washington, D.C., 1996).

Notes: Country group averages are weighted by GDP valued at purchasing power parities as a share of total world GDP.

<sup>a</sup>Excluding economies in transition.

<sup>b</sup>Including Cyprus, Egypt, Libyan Arab Jamahiriya, Malta and Turkey.

framework of a general life-cycle model,\* remained relatively stable at approximately 20 per cent between the early 1970s and the late 1980s. Virtually all the decline in aggregate savings therefore took place in the public sector, especially in government savings. While the 1980s saw a sharp drop in government savings in many industrialized countries, the beginning of the 1990s was characterized by some fiscal improvements, although the situation subsequently worsened.

### ***Developing countries***

In contrast to the steady decline in national savings in industrialized countries since the early

\*The model suggests that individuals borrow and save in order to smooth their consumption over time on the basis of their anticipated lifetime income. Under the model, the behaviour of the private sector with regard to saving is directly influenced by its assessment of how the future pattern of income and consumption will be affected by government policy. Another important implication of the model is that savings rates change systematically over the lifetime of an individual. The larger the proportion of income that goes to the labour force, the higher the national savings rate. The life-cycle model predicts that the savings rate declines as the retired proportion of the population increases.

1970s, savings rates in developing countries, which account for about 45 per cent of world savings, have gone through two contrasting periods. During the period 1974-1989, the national savings rates of developing countries fell from an average of nearly 27 per cent (1974-1981) to 23 per cent (1982-1989). From the mid-1980s, the average rate increased steadily to 25.7 per cent by the first half of the 1990s. As a consequence, savings currently represent a significantly higher proportion of GDP in developing countries than in most industrialized countries. The boost in the savings of developing countries has been due almost exclusively to increases in Asian countries, while savings rates have stagnated in Africa or declined in Latin America.

In Asia, savings rates not only are very high, averaging 31 per cent during the 1990s, but have been continuously rising during the last two decades, in sharp contrast to savings rates in industrialized countries and other developing regions, which have been less than 20 per cent. The high savings rate may be explained by a variety of inter-related factors, which, though of varying importance in individual economies, are unique to the region (see box 11).

## **Consumption restraints and government intervention contribute to high savings in Asia**

### **Box 11. Specific features of high savings rates in Asia**

#### *Cultural value of savings*

The prevailing ideologies, religions and philosophies in East Asia have traditionally put a high value on personal savings. In particular, the Chinese and Japanese have always saved, if only to provide for their old age, emergencies caused by natural disasters (such as floods and earthquakes), sickness etc. in the absence of government assistance. The tendency to save led at an early stage to the establishment of savings schemes and institutions. It also helped Governments to impose mandatory savings schemes and fostered the development of a financial system. Other cultural aspects of savings in Asia include intergenerational transfers, attitudes to risk and uncertainty, as well as, at least in the beginning, the absence of consumer goods.

#### *Government-imposed mandatory savings schemes*

The cultural preference for savings has made it relatively easy for Governments to boost domestic savings through the establishment of mandatory savings schemes such as the provident funds in Malaysia and Singapore, as well as of government savings banks and postal savings schemes in various countries. In particular, the Central Provident Fund in Singapore has proved to be a major instrument in the mobilization and allocation of savings.

#### *Restraints on domestic consumption*

East and South-East Asian economies have been able to grow thanks to restraints on domestic consumption, which were initially based on the relative absence of consumer goods and the bias towards savings. Governments have also curbed consumption to control balance-of-payment deficits through excise and value added taxes.

Source: "Regional perspective on industrial investment: East, South-East and South Asia", contribution of the Economic and Social Commission for Asia and the Pacific.

Savings rates are especially high in East and South-East Asia. In 1996, for example, China, Indonesia, Malaysia, Republic of Korea and Thailand had rates of more than 35 per cent of GDP, with that of Singapore reaching 56 per cent.<sup>5</sup> The ability of those countries to generate high rates of domestic savings was one of the determining factors in their achieving sustained and impressive rates of industrial growth. The factors stimulating the flow of savings have included: the pursuit of a broadly market-based strategy of industrial development, supported by strong and consistent public policy, especially price stability; the maintenance of positive real interest rates; and the development of the financial sector. As incomes have grown and financial deepening proceeded, the supply of financial resources has tended to disappear as a constraint on industrial development. Although the financial sector in those countries has always been less open to internal and external competition, high rates of financial savings as well as the targeting of those savings on key industries have provided a basis for guiding sectoral policies within the overall framework of a strategy of market-based industrial development.<sup>6</sup>

In South Asia, although savings rates have increased since the 1980s, they continue to be low, particularly in countries such as Bangladesh and Nepal, both of which are resource-poor countries. In 1996, their respective savings rates were only 5.8 and 10 per cent. Low per capita income, severe distortions of the capital market, costly financial intermediation, and institutional weaknesses in policy support and implementation have led to insufficient growth in the supply of investment resources, with a debilitating effect on the creation of a competitive industrial base. A general lack of focus on the development of key and profitable manufacturing industries has contributed to the emergence of a weak economic base from which only limited financial resources could be mobilized. As incomes have begun to rise and more rational choices are being made in allocating investment resources, there are indications that the resource situation in those countries will improve, with more favourable consequences for industrial development.<sup>7</sup>

In contrast to the positive savings trends in Asian economies, Latin America suffered a decline in national savings rates during the early 1990s. The average rate for the region as a whole fell by more than three percentage points, from 22.4 per cent for the period 1987-1989 to 18.5 per cent during 1992-1993. Although it recovered to 19.1 per cent during 1994-1995, it is still well below the rates registered before the external debt crisis arose.<sup>8</sup> The general decline in national savings is attributable to a drastic decline in private

savings—triggered by the rapid growth in consumption by the private sector—in almost all the countries within the region. Meanwhile, public savings have increased as a result of the significantly stronger fiscal position of many Latin American countries, although national savings rates vary widely from country to country. In six of them, including Brazil, Chile and some States of Central America, savings rates averaged more than 20 per cent during the first half of the 1990s while in another eight countries, including Panama and Peru, the rates were less than 15 per cent.<sup>9</sup>

Africa has traditionally been the developing region with the lowest savings rate as a proportion of GDP. During the first half of the 1990s, the rate declined, from 18.5 per cent in 1991 to 15.4 per cent in 1993, but then recovered from those losses in the following two years. In 1995, Africa registered its highest savings rate for years, 19.1 per cent. Though still low compared with that of Asian economies, the increase in savings has been an integral part of the marked overall improvements in the economic performance of Africa in the last two years. In 1995, the combined GDP of Africa rose by 3 per cent and recovery continued in 1996, with the growth rate expected to average 5.3 per cent. The improvement in growth stems largely from favourable commodity prices and good weather, which led to a rise in agricultural output.<sup>10</sup>

Although no data are available on the sectoral structure of national savings, it is fairly safe to assume that both public and private savings have been rising. Such a rise in public savings would be reflected in significantly reduced fiscal imbalances. Whereas in 1993 the aggregate government budget deficit in Africa still accounted for 8.5 per cent of total GDP, by 1995 the deficit had been more than halved, to 3.8 per cent, with further declines expected in the years to come. During that period, Nigeria, for example, reversed its record deficit of 17.4 per cent into a surplus of 0.4 per cent.<sup>11</sup>

There are other developments that bode well for private savings in Africa. In the past, activity in the private sector was strongly impeded by a wide range of structural, legal, administrative and other institutional constraints in virtually all countries of the region. Those impediments, combined with the impact of external shocks, especially declining terms of trade and debt-servicing problems, have contributed to the declines in real per capita income, and consequently to reduced private savings. In recent years, however, as part of their structural adjustment programmes, many African countries have implemented measures designed to overcome those impediments and stimulate the

development of the private sector. Although the range and effectiveness of reform measures have varied from country to country, they have usually included the reduction of inflation rates, the introduction of more realistic exchange rates, the liberalization of trade and systems of exchange, as well as restructuring of the public sector, greater private-sector participation in the economy, development of the financial sector and fiscal reform.

### ***Economies in transition***

The transition of countries of central and eastern Europe from centrally planned to market economies has been accompanied by dramatic changes in the volume and structure of national savings. Before the transition, those countries had extremely high savings rates, often approaching 30 per cent of GDP. Their rates were much higher than those of industrialized countries and above the average savings rates of developing countries as a whole. High savings rates were a reflection of the high levels of inefficient centrally planned investments required to boost declining growth rates. In terms of structure, the bulk of capital was accumulated by enterprises, while household savings were relatively low compared with those in market economies.<sup>12</sup>

During the early stages of transition, the savings rate for the region as a whole declined by more than a quarter, from 30.4 per cent in 1991 to 21.4 per cent in 1995. The sharp decline in aggregate savings during the early years of transition may be attributed to the following two factors: the reduction in enterprise savings as a result of the fall in corporate profits caused by the deep recession and the measures of price liberalization introduced as part of the reform process; and the decline in government savings resulting from a combination of reduced revenues and increased expenditures on social security transfers and servicing of the external debt. Although household savings as a proportion of GDP recovered from their lowest point, the increase was not sufficient to offset the decline in enterprise and government savings.

As the transition proceeds, economic recovery and enterprise restructuring are expected to result in the increased profitability of enterprises. Fiscal stabilization measures have already paved the way towards reducing government budget deficits and increasing government savings, and growing income should result in higher household savings. National savings rates in the region are therefore expected to rise, a prospect already confirmed to some extent by the experience of some countries in the more advanced stages of transition.

### **Domestic funding alternatives for industrial investment**

Since the mid-1980s, the mobilization of savings for investment in productive assets has emerged as a priority concern in the development programmes of practically all developing countries. For economies in transition, such efforts have become pressing since the beginning of reform in 1990. Faced with a drastic decline in output and a reduced inflow of foreign resources, those economies have little option but to intensify their efforts to mobilize domestic resources for development. While development alone requires vast amounts of investment capital, large-scale technological development and industrial restructuring have contributed to an even higher demand for investment finance.<sup>13</sup>

There are several other explanations for the renewed interest in the mobilization of domestic resources in developing countries and economies in transition. First, the experiences of rapidly growing Asian economies clearly demonstrate that high domestic savings and investment rates are crucial for sustained and robust economic growth. The importance of domestic savings for growth has been further reinforced by systematic evidence from some industrialized countries, especially Japan. Secondly, in all countries, with the exception of some low-income countries in sub-Saharan Africa, investment has been financed mainly from domestic resources. Thirdly, too much dependence on external capital can subject economies to an undesirable degree of foreign control. For example, portfolio investment inflows may have a negative impact on domestic monetary policy, while overborrowing from commercial banks may lead to a debt crisis and net capital outflows.

The mobilization of domestic financial resources is a multifunctional process that facilitates development through its contribution in the following two main areas: increasing the volume of savings; and enhancing the efficiency of financial intermediation between savers and investors.

The mobilization of domestic resources is a complex long-term process in which all economic agents, including households, the corporate sector and the Government, have their role to play. It is important to ensure that such a process is given priority attention not only in government programmes, but also in the actual implementation of the policy measures required, and that the public at large is made aware of both the benefits of savings and the measures introduced to boost savings. All the measures adopted, though they might be radically different, should have one common objective—the stimulation of savings, which is in turn affected by many factors (see box 12).

## Savings patterns differ between different regions of the world

### Box 12. Determinants of domestic savings

There is an extensive literature on the determinants of savings. In general, two fundamentally different theories can be identified. According to the life-cycle theory, savings result from a choice between present and future consumption. That view is based on the intertemporal smoothing of consumption with interest rates, a key mechanism by which savings and investment are balanced. The income theory establishes a close link between income and consumption, the residual being savings. According to that theory, consumption and consequently savings are determined by current income patterns, with interest rates having a reduced effect on the balance between savings and investment. There have been attempts to reconcile the two theories by viewing permanent income as the driving force in the consumption process.<sup>a</sup>

The discussion of the determinants of national savings is still very much open. A wide range of variables that affect savings have been identified, but the relationship between them is often theoretically and empirically inconclusive. Although most determinants of savings are universal, they have a different importance for various groups of countries. Demographic factors, particularly an increased population of dependent elderly persons, are perceived as key determinants of private savings rates in industrialized countries. Some studies have played down the importance of demographic changes as a major contributor to falling private savings rates in those countries during the 1980s, but with regard to the long term, there seems to be much wider consensus on the issue.<sup>b</sup>

In the developing world, private savings are influenced by other determinants. A low level of per capita income is the main reason why household savings may be essentially zero in countries that are at, or close to, subsistence levels of income. In addition to a low propensity to save, low-income countries are typically characterized by other patterns unfavourable to the mobilization of private savings, such as a shorter life expectancy than in industrialized countries, uncertainty regarding the macroeconomic environment, underdeveloped financial markets and lack of confidence in the banking sector.

Savings in economies in transition have some specific characteristics not observed in other regions. Under central planning, public savings—comprising government savings and savings of State-owned enterprises—contributed the lion's share to aggregate savings, while the relative importance of private savings was almost marginal. As there were practically no private enterprises, private corporate savings did not really exist. In addition, household savings were highly depressed, as there was little incentive to save because of the absence of many types of consumer goods and virtually guaranteed employment and State provision of social services, including pensions.<sup>c</sup>

<sup>a</sup>International Monetary Fund, *World Economic Outlook: May 1995* (Washington, D.C., 1995).

<sup>b</sup>Robert Vos, "Prospects of financial flows to developing countries in the 1990s: the global macroeconomic trade-offs", in *International Monetary and Financial Issues for the 1990s* (New York, United Nations, 1993), vol. II.

<sup>c</sup>European Bank for Reconstruction and Development, *Transition Report 1996* (London, 1996).

For the mobilization of household savings, which contribute by far the largest share to aggregate savings, macroeconomic stability is crucial. Higher household savings can be generated through a variety of means, including maintenance of low inflation, real positive interest rates on savings, discouragement of non-essential personal consumption, fair income distribution through taxation, sound employment policies aimed at producing goods in demand at home and abroad and curbs on capital flight. A liberal foreign exchange regime, market-determined interest rates and sound and stable legal and financial systems are also essential to boost personal savings.

In contrast to households, enterprises usually spend much of their savings from retained earnings. Enterprises nevertheless have some scope for mobilization of savings, especially through internal financial management. Corporate savings may be

boosted by appropriate government measures, such as tax incentives on corporate profits, if those profits are used for new investments. Governments can also influence the price at which companies borrow money, but changes in interest rates have, as already discussed, an offsetting effect on different segments of national savings.

Fiscal policy is of prime importance to government savings. It encompasses measures designed to raise revenue, particularly taxation, as well as expenditure measures. Rationalizing government spending involves a whole set of policy measures that many developing countries have applied in recent years to reduce budget deficits. Prudent fiscal policy is also aimed at preventing the Government from running up an unsustainably high public debt. The experiences of countries in central and eastern Europe clearly confirm that point.<sup>14</sup>

The shortage of savings is a result not only of a lack of capital, but also of weaknesses in the intermediation between savers and investors. In many cases, a low volume of savings is accompanied by a poor performance of financial institutions in the mobilization of savings in a form that permits intermediation, and by problems in the efficient allocation of those savings to the most productive uses. While high levels of domestic savings are commendable, they are not an end in themselves, and only assume importance if utilized properly and efficiently. In that regard, financial institutions play an essential role. They are expected to attract savings from households and the corporate sector by offering a wide range of safe financial assets with competitive returns. The integrity and stability of the financial institutions has to be maintained by ensuring that savings are lent to only creditworthy investors and consumers. The experiences of Asian countries show that some financial institutions, notably those in the public sector and postal savings schemes geared to mobilizing small savings, have been able to generate large pools of investment resources.<sup>15</sup> Some countries in the region, such as Singapore, have generated substantial savings through mandatory savings schemes, while others have opted for contractual savings schemes. Such schemes—especially life-insurance and pension funds—are also playing an increasingly important role in Latin America and economies in transition.

The experience of many developing countries also suggests that a well-functioning financial sector can help to mobilize domestic financial resources and promote efficiency in their allocation. That conclusion is borne out by data on financial intermediation. While in low-income African countries, the ratio of broad money to GDP was only about 0.25 during the period 1984-1992, in the newly industrializing economies of Asia that ratio was more than 0.70. Though part of the difference can be explained by varying stages of economic development, the other part reflects differences in government policies related to development of the financial sector. Typically, the financial policies of low-income countries are characterized by the maintenance of artificially low interest rates. During the period 1984-1993, for example, average real interest rates in the group of low-growth countries was -2.8 per cent, in contrast to the positive rate of 2.9 per cent in the group of high-growth countries.<sup>16</sup>

### **Bank financing**

In many developing countries and economies in transition, banks are typically the only major

source of formal financing for industrial investment, since capital markets are underdeveloped and do not therefore provide alternative financial instruments. In addition to ensuring the intermediation of national savings between lenders and savers, banks typically have many other roles to play in developing countries and economies in transition. They are very often the only institutions producing the information necessary for intermediation, providing the portfolio diversification necessary for risk reduction, and helping to monitor corporate governance.

Figure 13 provides information on the importance of banks as intermediators between savers and investors for 14 developing countries in Asia and Latin America. Although all of the countries concerned have already established capital markets and their activity has been quickly growing, banks continue to play a dominant role as financial intermediators in most of them. In only three—Chile, Malaysia and Republic of Korea—was the share of the banks in total financial intermediation less than 65 per cent of the total in 1994, while in another nine of them, the share was 80 per cent or more. No data are available for other developing countries and economies in transition. However, since in most of the countries capital markets and non-banking financial institutions have either not yet been established or are of negligible importance, it is fairly safe to estimate that in most of them the bank intermediation ratio is very close to 100 per cent.

While the banks are important for developing countries and economies in transition, they are also at the hub of economic and financial activity in industrialized countries. They are different from other financial institutions, in that they are an important factor in the implementation of monetary policy. Banks continue to be a major funding source in many industrialized countries, if not for all sectors of the economy, then at least for small and medium-sized companies. Moreover, practically all economic sectors depend on banks for short-term loans.

### *Profile of bank financing*

No empirical data for a reasonably large number of countries are available to serve as a basis for a comprehensive analysis of the sectoral allocation of bank credits in developing countries and economies in transition, and of the maturity aspects and the size of loans provided to industry. Nevertheless, on the basis of fragmentary data for individual countries and small groups of countries, some general patterns can be discerned.

First, industry accounts for a significant proportion of total bank credits in developing countries

and economies in transition, although the degree of preponderance varies from country to country, reflecting differences in the importance of industry in the economies concerned. Industry accounted for between 22 and 26 per cent of total bank commitments in Brazil, Egypt, Malaysia and Thailand. In Bangladesh and the Czech Republic, its share was 32 per cent and 35 per cent respectively.<sup>17</sup> Industry consumed by far the largest share of total bank credits in the former centrally planned economies, at least partly because industry typically accounted for a much higher proportion of total output—about 50 per cent—than in most other economies. Since the beginning of the transition process, lending to enterprises, many of them in the industrial sector, has declined drastically in the economies concerned, mainly because of the imposition of hard budgetary constraints on loss-making State-owned enterprises.<sup>18</sup>

Secondly, macroeconomic considerations and a general attitude of risk aversion linked with efforts to contain losses from bad debts have led commercial banks in many developing countries and

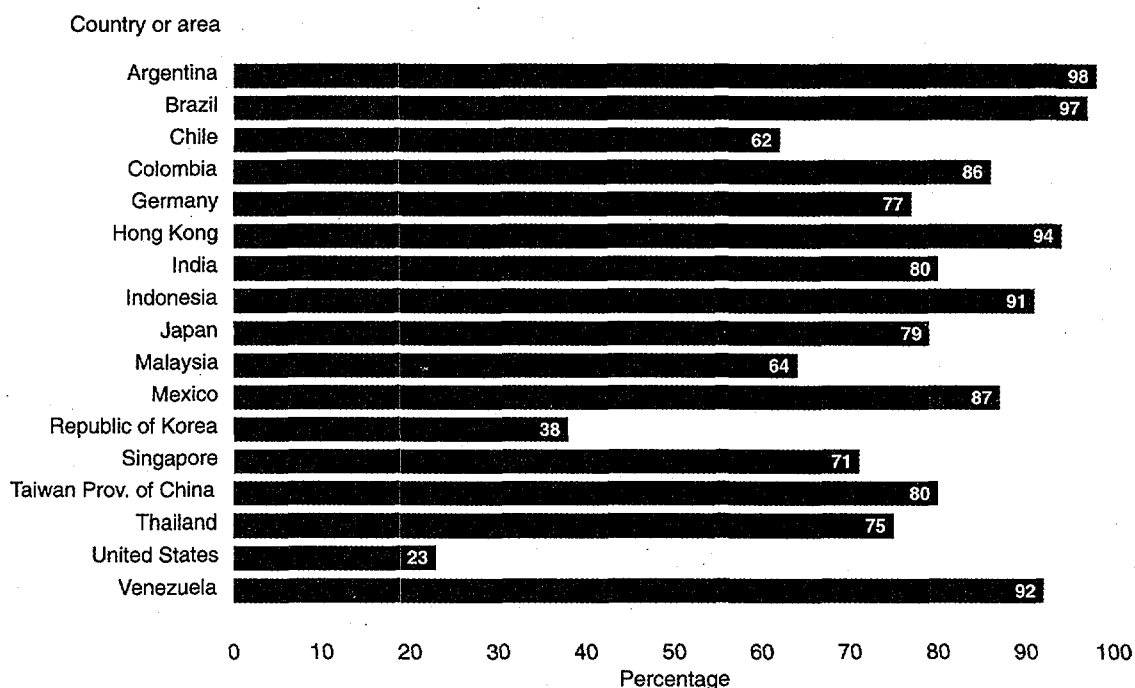
economies in transition to concentrate their lending operations on short-term loans for working capital. In five States of central Europe, for example, short-term loans constitute about one half of the total stock of the banking sector, while flow figures indicate that new loans made to enterprises are increasingly on a short-term basis.<sup>19</sup> Short-term loans also make up the bulk of bank lending in sub-Saharan Africa.\* The short-term character of loans is mainly due to the short-term nature of deposits and the uncertain macroeconomic environment in those countries.

Thirdly, banks in many developing countries and economies in transition are characterized by a high concentration of their portfolio of loans in existing customers, primarily large and medium-

\*A survey of 200 large and small manufacturing enterprises in each of five countries, Cameroon, Ghana, Kenya, United Republic of Tanzania and Zimbabwe, revealed a virtual absence of medium- and long-term debt instruments required for investment financing. See Tyler Biggs and Srivastara Pradeep, *Structural Aspects of Manufacturing in Sub-Saharan Africa*, World Bank Discussion Paper No. 346 (Washington, D.C., World Bank, 1996), pp. 6-9.

### Banks continue to play a dominant role as financial intermediators

Figure 13. Share of banks in financial intermediation<sup>a</sup> in selected countries and areas, 1994



Source: Bank for International Settlements, cited in "The road to financial integration: private capital flows to developing countries", World Bank internal document (Washington, D.C., World Bank, 1997).

<sup>a</sup> Assets of banks as a percentage of the total assets of banks and non-bank financial institutions.

sized companies, while the access of small enterprises and individual entrepreneurs to bank loans is either very limited or denied. Banks are reluctant to lend to the latter group of potential clients because they view such operations as highly risky and costly. Moreover, a majority of entrepreneurs and small enterprises are unable to provide the collateral usually required by banks. In circumstances where a limited number of small entrepreneurs have established access to formal financial institutions, the vast majority is dependent on costly informal arrangements.

### *Impact of the health of the banking sector on macroeconomic stability*

Although the financial sector in developing countries and economies in transition tends to be dominated by banks to a larger extent than in industrialized countries, the soundness of banking systems is usually more precarious in developing countries and economies in transition. Weaknesses in their banking systems, characterized by thin and concentrated markets, a high proportion of non-performing loans and substantial operating costs, typically result in wide spreads between lending and deposit rates. Although spreads in

interest rates differ significantly from country to country, they are generally at least twice as high in developing countries and economies in transition as in industrialized countries. Wide spreads have adverse effects on the allocation of credits, since potentially viable projects may not be funded at all, or their financing may be delayed, while high lending rates may trigger large-scale liquidity problems for borrowers. The consequence in either case might be to create serious impediments to economic growth or to increase the severity of an economic downturn.

Deregulation of financial systems in developing countries and economies in transition has been accompanied by large increases in inflows of foreign capital through the intermediation of domestic banks, thus demonstrating the importance of a healthy financial system for maintaining overall macroeconomic stability. Since banks play a more dominant role in financial intermediation in those countries and economies, the soundness of their banking system is even more important than that of the banking system in industrialized countries. It is therefore important for policy makers in developing countries and economies in transition to deal with the fragility of the banking system as a matter of the highest priority (see box 13).

## **Impact of banking reform remains limited**

### **Box 13. Reform of the financial system in economies of transition**

In the centrally planned economies, the banking system, consisting of the State central bank and specialized banks controlled by the central bank, constituted practically the whole of the financial system, since there was virtually no securities market and the only non-bank financial institutions were a few State insurance companies. Banks under such a system were largely passive, since they only served as a channel for transferring State funds to enterprises. They were not required to assess the creditworthiness of clients, since funds for State-owned enterprises were automatically generated when needed by firms to meet the production targets established by the authorities under the central plan.

The transition to a market economy has completely transformed the role of the banking system in the countries of central and eastern Europe. Banks have been forced to operate as professional bankers, and not as mere passive distributors of credits. Like banks in market economies, they are required to be active partners in meeting the financial needs of their clients and to adhere to established performance criteria under the regulations governing capital adequacy and the new accounting rules regarding provisions for bad debts. The transformation of the banking system has a number of distinguishing features, including the following:

(a) *Highly concentrated banking markets.* The top five banks in Belarus, Czech Republic, Hungary, Poland, Romania, Slovakia, Slovenia and Ukraine accounted for between 63 and 79 per cent of the market in 1994.<sup>a</sup> Those high shares, a direct legacy of the pretransition period, reflect the continued dominance of State banks or former State banks;

(b) *Bad debts.* Before the transition, banks were typically engaged in lending at favourable terms to enterprises in financial difficulty. In many countries, Governments pressed banks to make direct loans to inefficient State-owned companies, and the banks operated without adequate supervision. The adoption of tight fiscal policies aimed at reducing inflation has subsequently revealed significant weaknesses in bank balance sheets. Non-performing loans have been found to account for a large portion of bank portfolios in the three more advanced economies in transition. The situation is even



**Box 13 (continued)**

more difficult in other economies in transition. In the Baltic States, the Russian Federation and other CIS States, for example, estimates of the ratio of non-performing loans to total loans range between 14 and 65 per cent;<sup>b</sup>

(c) *High transaction costs.* The high level of non-performing debts has compelled banks in many economies in transition to maintain wide margins between lending and deposit rates. In more advanced economies in transition, spreads range between 4 per cent in Slovakia and 13 per cent in Estonia. In most industrialized countries, margins are approximately 3 per cent.<sup>b</sup> The high transaction costs of banks are also due to operating expenses, which, because of the lower efficiency of the banking system, are typically twice as high as in industrialized countries.

Banks in central and eastern Europe have also found it difficult to expand their balance in real terms because of the lack of staff with experience in credit and risk analysis, the lack of a banking culture that emphasizes the need for cooperation with enterprises and the lack of information concerning the financial position or creditworthiness of enterprises and owners. Despite all those problems, some economies in transition have made considerable progress in transforming their banking systems through a combination of policy measures. In addition to the creation of a two-tier banking system and the liberalization of interest rates, government policies have usually included regulatory reform, recapitalization and privatization of State-owned banks and the establishment of new private banks. Countries in the region differ greatly in the relative importance assigned to each of the three policy areas.

Although many economies in transition have pursued a comprehensive strategy designed to transform their banking system, the available data indicate that the role of the banking system in intermediation is still very limited, if broad money as a percentage of GDP is taken as an indicator of financial depth. Although the ratio of 26 per cent in 1995 for the economies in transition as a group is above the corresponding ratio for the least developed countries, it is still well below the ratio of 102 per cent for high-growth developing economies and the 68 per cent recorded by the industrialized countries. Moreover, the average value for the economies in transition fails to reflect the marked differences between more advanced economies in transition, mainly those in central and eastern Europe, with a ratio of 47 per cent, and less advanced economies in transition, mainly CIS States, with a ratio of only 17 per cent.<sup>b</sup>

<sup>a</sup>European Bank for Reconstruction and Development, *Transition Report 1995* (London, 1995).

<sup>b</sup>International Monetary Fund, *World Economic Outlook: October 1996* (Washington, D.C., 1996).

**Capital markets**

Capital markets are another source of financing for industrial investment, through the issuing of bonds on primary markets for corporate debt or financial instruments on domestic equity markets. Although equity markets have evolved to become an important source of corporate financing in a growing number of developing countries and economies in transition, the development of bond markets is of much more recent origin. A lack of well-established institutional investors and other infrastructure has not allowed bond financing to play a more prominent role in the corporate financing of those countries and economies. The available information indicates that bonds issued by corporations on domestic bond markets of developing countries reached an average annual level of between \$4 billion and \$7 billion during the period 1988-1992.<sup>20</sup> Though the volume of bonds issued on those markets has increased in recent years, it has not changed the main structural characteristic of capital markets in developing countries and economies in transition, namely a

strong concentration of activities on equity markets. The section below focuses on the development of the equity market as a source of finance for industrial investment.

**Rapid expansion of stock markets**

While the importance of the banking system to national economic development has long been recognized, the contribution of the stock market has been less obvious. Each of them provides different types of financial services, but both mobilize savings and contribute to their more effective allocation. Credit markets complement rather than substitute for stock markets. As economies and enterprises mature, the roles of the market change, from simple debt financing with non-tradable instruments for all firms through equity financing of larger firms to debt and equity financing for large and small firms.<sup>21</sup>

As financial intermediators, stock markets are responsible for a growing proportion of total savings in many of the more advanced developing countries, particularly in East Asia, despite the

continued growth of bank deposits in practically all developing countries and economies in transition. In Malaysia and Thailand, for example, equity markets accounted for respectively 79 per cent and 56 per cent of total savings in 1994, while in Chile they accounted for 80 per cent.<sup>22</sup> Stock markets provide an important source of investment capital in many other countries as well, particularly for large enterprises.

Over the last 10 years, stock markets have been expanding rapidly in many developing countries, and since the early 1990s, a similar trend has been observed in a number of economies in transition. The combined market capitalization, that is, the value of the shares quoted on the market at market price, of 60 emerging markets increased from less than \$240 billion in 1986 to nearly \$1,900 billion in 1995 (see table 21). Since their growth has been much stronger than the increase in the combined capitalization of industrialized countries during the same period, emerging markets now account for more than 10 per cent of total world market capitalization, compared with 3.6 per cent in 1986.<sup>23</sup> Although stock markets in industrialized countries, such as Germany, Japan, United Kingdom and United States are still significantly larger, market capitalization in some of the developing countries and economies in transition now approaches that of many industrialized countries. For example, the size of equity markets in Chile, Malaysia, Philippines and Thailand, measured by the ratio of market capitalization to GDP, already exceeded that of the United States in 1994.<sup>24</sup>

In tandem with the rise in market capitalization, the volume of stocks traded in emerging markets increased from \$83 billion in 1986 to \$1,033 billion in 1995. The turnover ratio of emerging markets, representing the value of total shares traded as a proportion of market capitalization, also rose from 35 per cent in 1986 to 55 per cent

in 1995, indicating their increased liquidity, that is, the ability to buy and sell securities easily.<sup>25</sup>

### *Industrial firms as important players on emerging stock markets*

The importance of stock markets as sources for financing industrial investment can be gauged from their share in the overall market using an indicator such as the Global Index of the International Finance Corporation (IFC), which covers a representative sample of all stocks listed on emerging markets.\* Although their relative importance has been declining, manufacturing firms have dominated the stock market in developing countries and economies in transition. Of all the stocks included in the IFC Global Index, manufacturing firms accounted for 44 per cent of the total market capitalization in 1989, although their share had dropped to 33 per cent by 1995.<sup>26</sup> Manufacturing continues to be the sector with the largest market share in 12 of 26 developing countries and economies in transition, followed by finance and insurance, which constitute the most important sector in eight economies, by transportation, communications and utilities, the leading sector in four, and mining, the leading sector in two (see table 22). The general pattern, however, conceals significant differences between different economies, as shown in figure 14. In some, such as India and Indonesia, manufacturing firms continue to account for more than 70 per cent of total stock-market capitalization. In others, including Argentina, Jordan, Malaysia, Peru, Portugal, South Africa, Sri Lanka and Thailand, their share had fallen to 25 per cent or less by 1995.

\*The IFC Global Index includes 1,590 stocks from 27 developing countries and economies in transition. Market capitalization of those stocks was equivalent to 57 per cent of the total market capitalization of developing countries and economies in transition in 1994 (International Finance Corporation, *Emerging Stock Market Factbook*, 1996 (Washington, D.C., 1996)).

## **Stock markets have been expanding rapidly in developing countries and economies in transition**

Table 21. Stock market growth in developing countries and economies in transition, 1986-1995

Item	Emerging markets		Developed markets		World	
	1986	1995	1986	1995	1986	1995
Market capitalization (billions of dollars)	239	1 896	6 276	15 892	6 515	17 788
Number of listed domestic companies	9 618	19 397	18 555	19 467	28 173	38 864
Trading volume (billions of dollars)	83	1 033	3 491	10 633	3 574	11 666
Trading volume as a proportion of market capitalization (percentage)	35	55	56	67	55	66

Source: International Finance Corporation, *Emerging Stock Market Factbook*, 1996 (Washington, D.C., 1996), pp. 16-23.

## Manufacturing is a dominant sector in emerging stock markets

Table 22. Industry concentration in the IFC Global Composite Index, end-1995

Market	Sector with the largest share of market capitalization	Sector share of market capitalization (percentage)
<b>Africa, Europe and Middle East</b>		
Greece	Manufacturing	44.2
Hungary	Manufacturing	48.1
Jordan	Finance, insurance and real estate	63.7
Nigeria	Manufacturing	66.9
Poland	Finance, insurance and real estate	48.0
Portugal	Finance, insurance and real estate	54.1
South Africa	Mining	26.2
Turkey	Manufacturing	58.1
Zimbabwe	Finance, insurance and real estate	38.5
<b>Latin America</b>		
Argentina	Mining	39.9
Brazil	Transportation, communications and utilities	48.6
Chile	Transportation, communications and utilities	49.1
Colombia	Manufacturing	54.3
Mexico	Manufacturing	29.7
Peru	Transportation, communications and utilities	43.2
Venezuela	Manufacturing	42.5
<b>East Asia</b>		
China	Manufacturing	49.1
Philippines	Finance, insurance and real estate	46.6
Republic of Korea	Manufacturing	47.2
Taiwan Province of China	Finance, insurance and real estate	47.3
<b>South Asia</b>		
India	Manufacturing	77.7
Indonesia	Manufacturing	71.6
Malaysia	Transportation, communications and utilities	24.8
Pakistan	Manufacturing	60.7
Sri Lanka	Finance, insurance and real estate	48.4
Thailand	Finance, insurance and real estate	46.5
IFC Global Composite Index	Manufacturing	33.4

Source: International Finance Corporation, *Emerging Stock Market Factbook, 1996* (Washington, D.C., 1996), p. 65.

### *Factors influencing the growth of emerging stock markets*

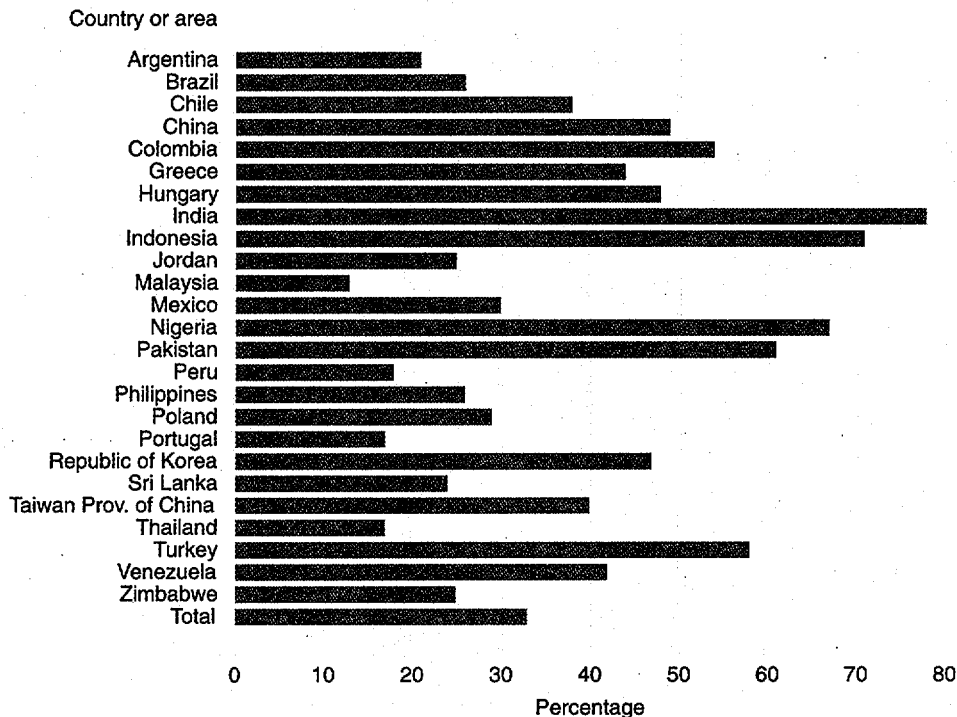
The growth of emerging stock markets has been encouraged by wide-ranging policies of macroeconomic and structural reform, of both a legislative and economic nature, in many developing countries and economies in transition. Those policies, accompanied by declining fiscal deficits and inflation, realistic and stable exchange rates and improved economic incentives, have provided an environment in which the domestic private sector has begun to flourish. The process of privatization has further promoted activity on the stock market by expanding the supply of shares. Moreover, as Governments have liberalized or even eliminated restrictions on capital flow, improved

information on listed shares and strengthened the protection of investors, emerging markets have become increasingly interesting for foreign investors.

Two other key factors that attract foreign investment in emerging stock markets are higher profits and better risk diversification. Investments in those markets have generated higher yields than investments in traditional markets, even with adjustments for greater risk. Investors from industrialized countries also benefit from a diversification of their portfolios, since returns on emerging markets appear not to be closely correlated with those on the markets of industrialized countries. Several observers have attributed the surge of the early 1990s in equity investment in developing countries to a fall in United States interest rates during the period

### Importance of stock markets as a source of financial investment varies among developing countries

Figure 14. Importance of manufacturing in the IFC Global Composite Index, end 1995  
(Percentage of market capitalization)



Source: Calculated on the basis of data contained in *Emerging Stock Markets Factbook, 1996* (Washington, D.C., International Finance Corporation, 1996).

1989-1993. But to attribute that growth mainly to lower United States interest rates ignores the fact that liberalization had only just made such investment practicable in many countries.

#### **Financial systems and industrialization**

How well have different financial systems performed in relation to investment finance? What are the most appropriate systems for promoting industrial development based on a secure supply of savings with long maturity periods?

Unlike the financial needs of working capital and trading activities, fixed investment in manufacturing for industrial development requires long-term funding and large commitments of investible funds. At an early stage of economic development, because of the prevalence of short-term liability and the limited maturity transformation in financial systems, long-term financial provisions are generally few relative to the need to finance capital-intensive fixed investment. The relative scarcity of long-term finance is one of the most commonly

observed examples of incomplete markets, a condition arising from market failures in the financing of economic development.\*

#### *The capital market as a source of long-term financing*

One of the measures frequently adopted in the past to overcome the shortage of long-term finance in developing countries was a supply-side approach, whereby specialized institutions such as development finance institutions were created for fixed investment.<sup>27</sup> In recent years, however, with the demise of development finance institutions, capital markets have been increasingly seen as a credible alternative source of long-term investment financing. Indeed, in the light of the mismatching

\*A missing insurance market for a high level of risk is another well-known example of incomplete markets (Juro Teranishi, "Market failures and government failures: a conceptual framework and Japan's experience", background paper for the Conference on Market and Government: Foe or Friends?, International Conference on the World Economy in Transition, held at Hitotsubashi University, Tokyo, in February 1996).

maturities of financial assets and the shortage of long-term finance, many policy makers have turned to the development of the capital market to channel long-term funds into the productive sectors, while the banking system provides short-term finance to investors.

The capital market allows banks and other financial institutions such as pension funds and life insurance companies to absorb investment through the sale of long-term financial assets to households, either directly or via pension funds or insurance. Hence, an active and broad-based capital market can alleviate the acute shortage of term loans and equity financing, and transform and lengthen credit maturities as well as reduce the credit risks inherent in transactions between individuals.

Specialization, therefore, is possible.<sup>28</sup> In an efficient capital market, stocks are often used to finance very risky and highly productive projects, while banks, because of the non-contingent nature of bank loans, finance investments that are more secure and that yield lower revenues.\*

By providing efficient and transparent price indicators and liquidity in the secondary market for equities and bonds, the capital market can be used for the vigorous arbitrage of the portfolios of bondholders and shareholders.\*\* A developed secondary market can induce those investors with a preference for short-term liquid assets to participate in markets for long-term securities and bonds, in the knowledge that those long-term assets can be easily disposed of on the secondary markets. Only under those conditions can the maturity transformation take place. Capital markets can thus be seen as a means of allowing the speedy allocation of assets and portfolios to the public and of facilitating their diversification, thus injecting a higher degree of competition into the financial system.

In recent years, the need for a broad-based capital market has been increasingly debated in the context of privatization programmes. For many, it appears that successful privatization and development of the capital market are mutually reinforcing.\*\*\* In particular, privatization through

\*The non-contingent nature of bank loans allows successful investors to keep any profits that are left and failed investors to transfer their losses to the banks.

\*\*According to the hypothesis of efficient markets, share prices on stock markets always fully reflect all available information about economic fundamentals. In practice, however, that hypothesis is often rejected even for highly developed markets.

\*\*\*Adam and others (1992) critically review this proposition. They argue that while privatization can make a major contribution to the deepening of equity markets, a positive outcome from the concurrent implementation of privatization programmes and development of the capital market is by no means automatically assured. See Christopher S. Adam, William P. Cavendish and Percy S. Mistry, *Adjusting Privatization: Case Studies from Developing Countries* (London, James Curry Publishing, 1992).

capital markets is preferred to divestiture through direct sales as a mechanism for ensuring more efficient mobilization of resources, equitable distribution of assets, greater transparency in matters of policy and better monitoring of performance.<sup>29</sup>

Because of the perceived benefits, the development of capital markets has become an essential component of structural adjustment programmes. Capital markets, however, take time to develop and mature, and often fail to perform many of the functions ascribed to them in the short term. The paucity of financial instruments and potential investors inhibits development of the market. In many countries, long-dated government securities and bonds tend to be placed outside the market with quasi-public institutions and held to maturity. In most cases, the market in corporate bonds and other private stocks is at a very early stage of development in economies where the public sector has hitherto dominated. Many family-owned indigenous enterprises are understandably reluctant to go public. Tax policy in favour of deposit income over dividends is also seen as impeding a transfer from a bank-based financial system to a system based on the capital market.

The development of functioning markets requires not just a broadening of the range of instruments and an increase in the number of market players, but more extensive trading to allow for realistic portfolio adjustment and risk management. It also demands more effective management of monetary and fiscal policy together with a stable macroeconomic environment. Financial markets, like any other markets, can only develop if the environment is sufficiently stable and predictable for investors to assess price information accurately and take calculated risks. If markets are subject to extreme variability in supply and demand, prices will be unable to transmit information efficiently; where markets have few players and few counters, then prices do not convey real opportunity costs and values; and where markets are volatile, effective risk management is constrained.

The failure of markets to provide for term lending must be examined in the context of the above-mentioned constraints and not simply with a view to creating additional instruments. Hence, the sustained development of the markets requires a system that is capable of reducing risks. An appropriate regulatory and supervisory framework should also be in place to prevent damaging practices such as insider trading or illegal takeovers and mergers.

### *Are capital markets a relevant source of investment financing for low-income countries?*

With regard to the sequencing of the development of the financial sector, many argue that the capital market could achieve its full potential only at a later stage of economic development.<sup>30</sup> It has been suggested that the relative importance of bank-based finance and capital-market-based finance in economic development is related to the life cycle of firms and economies.<sup>31</sup> In their early years of existence when screening and monitoring are important, and before establishing a reputation, firms are heavily dependent on bank finance. Later, as economies and firms mature and problems of asymmetry of information become less pronounced, bank finance dwindles in importance relative to capital markets, which take on an increasing proportion of corporate risk.

In view of the historical evolution of financial systems referred to above, it is unrealistic to expect discernable benefits from development of the capital market in the immediate future for many low-income developing countries. Underdeveloped

capital markets are not capable of assessing and reducing risks. They cannot be expected to provide significant sources of new capital. Moreover, banking institutions often play a major role as providers of liquidity in the initial stages of development of capital markets. Meanwhile, bank finance is expected to remain the major source of external financing of investment for some years to come. As policies are introduced to encourage capital markets, improvement in the operations of banking institutions should be given due attention so that economies could eventually benefit from the advantages of both bank-based and capital-market-based finance.\* Sound and dynamic banking and financial institutions are essential for the development of capital markets (see box 14).

\*Blommestein and Spencer argue that instituting investment funds—a hybrid of the banking system and capital markets—may be a practical way forward for economies in transition, which typically face conditions such as a shortage of domestic savings, rudimentary capital markets and an inadequate capacity for evaluating risks (Hans J. Blommestein and Michael G. Spencer, *The Role of Financial Institutions in the Transition to a Market Economy* (Washington, D.C., International Monetary Fund, 1993)).

## **Financial sector of Latin America is still dominated by banks**

### **Box 14. Financial liberalization in Latin America**

Unlike in some Asian countries, where non-bank financial institutions have already become a highly important part of the financial sector, in Latin America, the sector is still heavily dominated by banks. Nevertheless, non-bank institutions, especially stock markets, are gaining in importance, and represent the most dynamic part of the financial sector in many countries of the region.

Until the mid-1980s, countries of the region were characterized by the following forms of Government intervention in the banking sector:<sup>a</sup>

(a) *Administrative control of interest rates.* Governments of many Latin American countries have opted for controlled interest rates as an instrument to increase investment and accelerate growth, as well as to reduce the costs of public sector borrowing and thus ease the pressure of budget deficits. In circumstances of high inflation, interest rates have often been negative in real terms. During the period 1978-1988, for example, interest rates were highly negative in many countries, including Argentina, Brazil, Mexico and Peru;

(b) *Directed credit programmes.* Such programmes, operated through a number of mechanisms, such as specialized development banks and direct loans from central banks, were intended to serve a number of objectives, including the provision of credit to small and medium-sized entrepreneurs with no or weak access to regular bank financing;

(c) *Requirement to maintain a high bank reserve.* Such a requirement has often been established to tighten the monetary supply and reduce monetary pressures;

(d) *State ownership of commercial and development banks.* Such banks have been the institutional mechanism for implementing targeted credit programmes.

For Latin America, the external debt crisis of the early 1980s opened a period of severe macro-economic stabilization accompanied by structural reforms, an integral part of which was the reform of the financial sector. In most countries in the region, reforms began in the late 1980s. The only exceptions were Argentina, Chile and Uruguay, where reforms were initiated in the 1970s, and Mexico, which embarked on the reform of its financial sector in 1985.

**Box 14 (continued)**

By and large, reforms of the financial sector included liberalization measures to eliminate the control of interest rates, to dismantle directed credit programmes, to reduce reserve requirements and to privatize or liquidate State-owned banks. Additional measures have usually included improved regulation of banks and capital markets as well as measures aimed at increasing the independence of central banks. By 1996, the region had almost completely liberalized its interest rates. In 23 of 26 countries, deposit rates of commercial banks are currently determined by the market, while lending rates of commercial banks are freely determined in 19 countries. In addition, no countries increased the funding of their directed credit programmes in real terms, none allowed commercial bank supervision to deteriorate significantly, and none permitted their central bank to become less independent during the period between 1988 and mid-1996.<sup>a</sup>

<sup>a</sup>International Development Bank, *Economic and Social Progress in Latin America: 1989 Report* (Washington, D.C., Johns Hopkins University Press, 1996).

Recent literature on corporate finance suggests, however, that the superiority of bank-based indirect finance over capital-market-based direct finance may be more permanent, regardless of the stage of financial development, largely because of a more efficient mode of corporate governance of banks. Thus, it has been argued that when resources for investment are provided by a large number of savers, financial intermediaries can economize on fixed costs of collecting information about investors and supply external finance more efficiently. Such a result would require that the costs of providing appropriate incentives for intermediaries to act in the interest of savers do not outweigh the reduction in costs that would result from delegating the collection of information to the intermediaries.<sup>32</sup>

### Direct access to foreign sources of funding for the industrial sector

If capital inflows are considered from a purely financial point of view, the importance of foreign savings are found to be very limited, as suggested by table 23. For example, the share of total investment of developing countries financed by foreign savings during the period 1982-1989 was 7.3 per cent, which represented only 1.8 per cent of their total GDP for that period. During the first half of the 1990s, both ratios declined to 5.8 and 1.6 per cent respectively. For the economies in transition, the inflows were even lower.

#### Foreign capital accounts for a small percentage of GDP and of total investment in developing countries and economies in transition

Table 23. Net capital inflows as a proportion of GDP and total investment, 1982-1995 (Percentage)

<i>Economic grouping, region</i>	1982-1989	1990-1995	1990	1991	1992	1993	1994	1995
<i>A. As percentage of GDP</i>								
Developing countries	-1.8	-1.6	-0.5	-1.7	-1.6	-2.9	-1.4	-1.6
Africa	-4.8	-3.1	-0.9	-2.4	-3.6	-4.0	-3.8	-3.9
Asia	-1.0	-0.8	-0.3	—	-0.4	-2.0	-0.7	-1.4
Europe and Middle East	-4.3	-3.4	-1.4	-8.9	-3.7	-5.6	0.2	-0.8
Western hemisphere	-2.2	-2.2	-0.3	-1.4	-2.7	-3.4	-3.0	-1.9
Economies in transition	—	-1.2	-1.3	-0.7	-2.4	-0.8	-0.9	-1.3
<i>B. As percentage of total investment</i>								
Developing countries	7.3	5.8	1.9	6.5	5.9	10.2	5.0	5.6
Africa	21.4	15.0	4.7	11.5	17.1	20.7	18.2	17.0
Asia	3.6	2.5	1.0	—	1.3	5.9	2.1	4.1
Europe and Middle East	19.3	14.6	6.1	37.1	14.9	23.3	—	3.5
Western hemisphere	3.5	10.8	1.5	7.2	13.1	16.4	14.5	9.5
Economies in transition	—	4.5	4.5	2.3	8.1	3.2	3.9	5.7

Source: Calculated from International Monetary Fund, *World Economic Outlook: October 1996* (Washington, D.C., 1996), pp. 237-240.

Among developing countries, the dependence on foreign savings is highest in Africa. As a whole, more than 17 per cent of the investment in the region was financed by foreign savings during the period 1992-1995. In many African countries, the share could be as high as two thirds of total investment.<sup>33</sup> In other developing countries, a lower dependence on foreign capital was evident in regions with a stronger capacity for domestic savings. In Asia, for example, foreign capital financed an average of only 2.5 per cent in its total investment during the period 1990-1995. Some East Asian economies, such as Hong Kong, Taiwan Province of China and especially Singapore, have consistently had savings surpluses since the early 1980s, while others in South Asia still rely heavily on foreign inflows to bridge the gap between savings and investment.<sup>34</sup> In Latin America, foreign savings play an increasing role in financing investment, as reflected in their rising share in total investments, which increased from approximately 7 per cent in 1991 to an average level of more than 13 per cent during the period 1992-1995.

Despite the small percentage deployed for financing investment, foreign savings play a critical role in the economic development of many developing countries, especially the low-income ones. External capital inflows can assist in financing domestic investment, thereby helping countries that may be trapped in conditions of low growth and low savings to invest more and boost economic growth. They can also help countries to adjust to economic shocks—either internal, such as harvest failure, or external, such as changes in world commodity prices. Inflows may also improve access to world markets for goods, and thereby support a reorientation of trade policies from import substitution to export promotion, as has occurred in the Republic of Korea and Taiwan Province of China.

The question is whether foreign savings complement domestic savings and thus promote growth by increasing aggregate savings or whether they substitute for domestic savings that have been used for increasing consumption. Empirical evidence on the issue is inconclusive. Some studies confirm a negative relationship between domestic and foreign savings in certain developing countries. Evidence, for example, suggests that about 40 per cent of foreign aid goes into increased consumption rather than investment. A similar conclusion can be drawn from the recent experience with capital inflows into Latin America. In Asia, however, foreign savings have been accompanied by growing national savings and investment rates.<sup>35</sup>

During the past decade, the pattern of foreign capital inflows into developing countries and economies in transition has changed. Unlike most

of the 1980s, when financial flows to developing countries and economies in transition were strongly depressed because of the external debt crisis, the first half of the 1990s has been characterized by more than a doubling of the inflow of financial resources into those countries and economies (see table 24). The increase in net aggregate resource inflows has been accompanied by substantial changes in their structure. The most striking structural change is that virtually all growth in financial flows has come from private sources. Following the surge of private capital into East Asia and Latin America, financing from those sources almost quadrupled during the period 1990-1995 for developing countries and economies in transition as a group, while the volume of official development flows remained more or less stagnant in nominal terms. As a consequence, their share, as a proportion of the total net inflows, declined from 57 to 28 per cent during the period. Nevertheless, they still account for about a half of total net flows to North Africa, South Asia and western Asia. Representing almost 80 per cent of total inflows, official flows continue to be especially important for low-income countries in sub-Saharan Africa.

Another feature of the foreign capital inflows is the shift from bank to non-bank debt financing. Commercial banks have lost their importance in providing financial resources to developing countries. While in 1980, that is, before the debt crisis, commercial banks accounted for more than one third of the total net flows to developing countries, a decade later, their share had fallen to less than 2 per cent. In the following years, borrowing from banks revived somewhat, to 7 per cent of total flows in 1995, but it has been increasingly concentrated on short-term trade finance and on private project finance on a limited-recourse basis.

The shift away from bank financing has been accompanied by a change in the structure of bank lending. During the 1970s and 1980s, bank credits were raised almost exclusively by sovereign borrowers and in the form of general-purpose financing. General-obligation debt is usually low-cost, involves substantial control by the borrower and entails little risk-sharing between lenders and borrowers. During the 1990s, however, more and more bank lending is occurring in the form of project financing on a limited-recourse basis. Under that form of debt financing, in which risks are shared among project sponsors, creditors have to rely primarily on the cash flow of the project for debt servicing.

In addition to bonds, equity financing is the other large and growing private source of finance for developing countries and economies in transition. While in 1990 FDI and portfolio equity



investments accounted for less than one third of total capital flows to those countries and economies, in 1995 their share increased to almost a half. Those non-bank sources of financing have flourished because of a combination of several

factors. Some of them, such as improved macro-economic stability, are of a more general character and have stimulated both forms of financing, while others have been more important either for FDI or for portfolio equity investment.

### Net foreign capital inflows into developing countries have risen sharply

Table 24. Net external capital inflows into developing countries  
(Billions of dollars)

<i>Economic grouping, region and type of inflow</i>	1980	1990	1991	1992	1993	1994	1995
<b>All developing countries<sup>a</sup></b>							
Private	53.3	44.0	61.6	100.3	154.2	158.8	167.1
Foreign direct investment	5.1	25.0	35.0	46.6	63.3	80.1	90.3
Commercial bank lending	32.2	1.7	2.5	13.8	-4.9	9.2	17.1
Other <sup>b</sup>	13.4	10.6	3.7	12.6	6.9	2.4	4.0
Portfolio debt	2.6	3.0	12.8	13.2	38.3	32.2	33.7
Portfolio equity	—	3.7	7.6	14.1	45.6	34.9	22.0
Official development finance	35.1	57.9	65.5	55.0	53.0	48.6	64.2
Total net capital inflows	88.4	101.9	127.1	155.3	207.2	207.4	231.3
<b>East Asia and the Pacific</b>							
Private	8.9	20.5	26.2	44.7	62.9	78.3	98.0
Foreign direct investment	1.3	11.0	13.9	21.7	37.9	43.0	53.7
Commercial bank lending	5.0	4.7	6.0	8.8	-3.9	3.4	..
Other <sup>b</sup>	2.4	2.3	1.9	6.3	2.3	5.1	..
Portfolio debt	0.2	0.2	3.3	2.8	8.5	13.2	..
Portfolio equity	—	2.3	1.1	5.1	18.1	12.6	12.2
Official development finance	4.3	8.4	8.4	8.7	10.3	8.0	10.3
Total net capital inflows	13.2	28.9	34.6	53.4	73.2	85.3	108.3
<b>Europe and central Asia<sup>a</sup></b>							
Private	11.9	8.2	7.0	21.6	25.0	15.6	17.3
Foreign direct investment	0.7	2.1	4.4	6.3	8.3	8.4	12.5
Commercial bank lending	6.2	-5.4	-6.3	0.6	0.4	-1.0	..
Other <sup>b</sup>	5.0	7.9	4.4	8.7	4.2	0.6	..
Portfolio debt	—	3.4	4.6	6.0	11.9	5.7	..
Portfolio equity	—	0.2	—	0.1	0.2	1.9	1.6
Official development finance	3.4	6.9	16.2	12.6	12.2	11.2	9.4
Total net capital inflows	15.3	15.1	23.2	34.2	37.2	26.8	26.7
<b>Latin America and the Caribbean</b>							
Private	24.5	12.2	22.6	30.3	58.7	49.6	34.0
Foreign direct investment	6.2	7.8	12.6	14.5	15.7	20.8	17.8
Commercial bank lending	16.5	2.9	1.9	4.8	-0.1	5.5	..
Other <sup>b</sup>	1.1	0.3	-1.9	-1.9	-1.9	-2.5	..
Portfolio debt	0.8	0.1	4.1	4.8	19.8	12.7	..
Portfolio equity	—	1.1	6.2	8.2	25.2	13.2	6.2
Official development finance	5.4	9.3	7.7	4.1	5.5	1.5	14.8
Total net capital inflows	29.9	21.5	30.3	34.4	64.2	51.1	48.8
<b>Middle East and North Africa</b>							
Private	-1.2	0.5	2.2	0.3	3.7	4.1	7.1
Foreign direct investment	-3.3	2.8	1.8	2.1	3.8	3.7	2.1
Commercial bank lending	0.2	-1.4	1.7	-0.2	-1.4	1.8	..
Other <sup>b</sup>	1.8	-0.7	-1.1	-1.3	2.2	-1.1	..
Portfolio debt	—	-0.2	-0.1	-0.2	-0.8	-0.4	..
Portfolio equity	—	—	—	—	—	0.1	0.1
Official development finance	9.5	9.4	9.3	7.2	5.4	6.2	6.3
Total net capital inflows	8.3	9.9	11.5	7.5	9.1	10.3	13.4

<i>Economic grouping, region and type of inflow</i>	1980	1990	1991	1992	1993	1994	1995
<b>South Asia</b>							
Private	1.3	2.4	2.1	2.9	4.7	7.4	6.0
Foreign direct investment	0.2	0.5	0.5	0.6	0.8	1.2	2.1
Commercial bank lending	1.0	1.7	0.2	1.8	0.9	-0.7	..
Other <sup>b</sup>	0.1	-0.2	0.1	0.3	0.5	0.4	..
Portfolio debt	—	0.3	1.4	-0.2	0.5	0.2	..
Portfolio equity	—	0.1	—	0.4	2.0	6.2	1.4
Official development finance	5.3	7.0	8.8	6.4	5.4	6.4	6.4
Total net capital inflows	6.6	9.4	10.9	9.3	10.1	13.8	12.4
<b>Sub-Saharan Africa</b>							
Private	7.9	0.2	1.0	0.3	-0.8	4.7	4.9
Foreign direct investment	—	0.9	1.8	1.5	1.8	3.0	2.2
Commercial bank lending	3.2	-0.7	-0.4	-2.1	-0.7	0.1	..
Other <sup>b</sup>	3.1	1.0	0.3	0.6	-0.4	—	..
Portfolio debt	1.5	-0.9	-0.6	0.1	-1.6	0.8	..
Portfolio equity	—	—	—	0.1	0.1	0.9	0.5
Official development finance	7.2	16.9	15.3	16.0	14.3	15.4	17.2
Total net capital inflows	15.1	17.1	16.3	16.3	13.5	20.1	22.1

Source: Calculated from World Bank, *World Debt Tables 1996* (Washington, D.C., 1996).

<sup>a</sup>The *World Debt Tables* include economies in transition as well as Greece, Republic of Korea, South Africa and Turkey as developing countries, but not Portugal or Taiwan Province of China.

<sup>b</sup>Includes credits from manufacturers, exporters and other suppliers of goods and bank credits covered by a guarantee of an export credit agency. Non-guaranteed debt for 1980 is not allocated between bank loans and bonds, and thus is assumed to consist wholly of bank loans.

### Foreign direct investment

FDI constitutes a relatively stable element of international private capital flows that is insulated from short-term and cyclical pressures, since it primarily reflects the long-term strategies of transnational corporations. For developing countries and economies in transition, FDI has become not only the single largest source of net capital inflow, but also the only source showing a continued upward trend. The volume of FDI flows into those countries and economies almost tripled between 1990 and 1995. As a result, the share of developing countries in global inflows of FDI rose from 21 per cent during the period 1988-1992 to 32 per cent in 1995, while that of economies in transition increased from 0.8 to 3.8 per cent.<sup>36</sup>

The main feature of FDI in developing countries and economies in transition is its highly concentrated flow into a few of them. In 1995, almost 80 per cent of such FDI went to no more than 12 countries, with China accounting for more than 40 per cent of total inflows (see table 25). Of the 12, nine were middle-income economies, including Indonesia, Malaysia and Thailand in Asia, Argentina, Brazil, Chile and Mexico in Latin America, and Hungary and Poland, two economies in transition in central and eastern Europe. With the exception of China, low-income countries are virtually excluded from world FDI flows, accounting

for less than 5 per cent of the total of such flows into developing countries in 1995.<sup>37</sup>

### Sectoral distribution of inflows of foreign direct investment

The sectoral structure of FDI inflows differs considerably among developing countries. In low-income countries, FDI is mostly resource-based, with petroleum- and mineral-producing countries, such as Angola, Nigeria, Gabon and Ghana, attracting the largest amount. By contrast, the manufacturing sector continued to attract the bulk of FDI in Asian countries, although during the 1990s the flows are generally shifting away from the manufacturing and resource-based sectors to service industries, such as telecommunications, transport, banking and public utilities. The strong bias of FDI towards the manufacturing sector in Asia is mainly due to the large-scale relocation of production facilities by Japan into the region.

In Latin America, the bulk of recent FDI inflows has been directed to the purchase of existing companies through privatization programmes. In 1990, for example, investments associated with privatization accounted for \$2.5 billion, equivalent to 28 per cent of total FDI inflows into the region.<sup>38</sup> If infrastructure-related FDI is excluded, manufacturing seems to constitute the largest share of total FDI in many countries of the region. For example,

two thirds of FDI flows into Mexico in 1993 went to manufacturing, particularly to the automotive industry, while in Colombia, the proportion was around 40 per cent during the period 1990-1994.<sup>39</sup>

In the economies in transition, foreign investment in greenfield projects are slowly gaining in importance, especially in countries where positive GDP growth has resumed. About one half of the accumulated FDI in those economies is concentrated in manufacturing, including engineering, automobile production and the chemical industry. During the first years of transition, most of the investment in the manufacturing sector was made in industries operating at above-average levels of technological productivity and efficiency. As a consequence, many large companies that were in urgent need of technological and managerial transformation failed to attract potential foreign investors. More recently, however, foreign investors have started to express interest in a broader segment of industrial firms.<sup>40</sup>

### *Major concerns about foreign direct investment*

Despite the growing importance of FDI as a source of investment finance, concerns have been raised about the net benefits of FDI to host economies. The benefits may come in the form of improved use of resources as a result of the transfer of capital, technology and human skills to subsidiary or affiliated companies. Through linkages with foreign companies, local partners, suppliers

and distribution and service companies can become more efficient. The affiliate may have easier access than local companies to foreign markets through trade with other companies in the parent group or through the sales network and marketing efforts of the parent company. The presence of the affiliate may force local rivals to become more competitive, and the training and know-how provided may benefit other businesses when its staff moves on to other employment.

The main concern about FDI is that transnational corporations will use their market power to generate huge profits that benefit their shareholders rather than the host economy. If local competitors are driven out of business, the growth of industry in a country could be impeded, especially if a foreign company subsequently pulls out. The potential for earning immense profits is increased if local prices are controlled rather than determined by the market, thus giving the transnational corporation access to local resources at below the internationally prevailing price. Subsidies and other incentives to investment represent added costs to the host country. Because of concern about exploitation by large companies, many developing countries restricted or prevented FDI before the 1980s.

Empirical evidence is overwhelmingly positive with regard to both the direct benefits of FDI in improving technical efficiency and its spillover effects. There is also evidence that, except for very poor countries, which lack a minimum threshold stock of human capital, FDI contributes more to growth than domestic investment in developing

## Foreign direct investment is concentrated in Asia and Latin America

Table 25. Net FDI in developing countries and economies in transition, selected years (Billions of dollars)

<i>Economic grouping and region</i>	<i>1990</i>	<i>1993</i>	<i>1994</i>	<i>1995</i>
All developing countries	25.0	68.3	80.1	90.3
East Asia and the Pacific	11.0	37.9	43.0	53.7
Europe and Central Asia	2.1	8.3	8.4	12.5
Latin America and the Caribbean	7.8	15.7	20.8	17.8
Middle East and North Africa	2.8	3.8	3.7	2.1
South Asia	0.5	0.8	1.2	2.0
Sub-Saharan Africa	0.9	1.8	3.0	2.2
Low-income countries	5.5	31.8	39.4	42.6
of which:				
China	3.5	27.5	33.8	38.0
Middle-income countries	19.5	36.5	40.7	47.7
Percentage share of top 12 countries	68.0	81.2	76.0	79.2

Source: World Bank, *World Debt Tables 1996* (Washington, D.C., 1996), p. 17.

countries, because it involves the transfer of technology and leads to a more than proportionate increase in total investment. Other evidence, however, shows that FDI is only beneficial in stable, open economies in which prices and capital flows are not distorted by government intervention. In more managed economies, by reducing total investment and growth, it could be counter-productive.<sup>41</sup>

### Portfolio equity investment

The growth of portfolio equity investment (PEI) in developing countries has been explosive since the end of the 1980s, fuelled mainly by the rapid liberalization of the financial sector in many developing countries. It has also been boosted by the strategy of portfolio diversification increasingly applied by large investors in many industrialized countries, by low interest rates in those countries, and by significantly improved macroeconomic fundamentals in many developing countries and economies in transition. In addition, investors in portfolio equity have been attracted by higher yields than typically achieved with investment in domestic stocks. As a result, during the period 1990-1993, the volume of PEI rose more than tenfold to become the fastest-growing component of private capital inflows into developing countries and economies in transition (see table 26). In 1993, PEI was also the second most important source of private capital for those countries and economies (see table 24). During 1994-1995, however, PEI fell drastically to a level less than half of that reached in the peak year.

Developments in 1994 and 1995 confirmed that FDI and PEI, as the two forms of non-debt-

creating flows, differ significantly, although they are driven by many of the same forces such as globalization, financial integration and improved macroeconomic conditions in recipient countries. Unlike FDI, PEI is characterized by much greater susceptibility to cyclical factors and contagion effects. Unlike FDI, PEI is traded on liquid markets, thus enabling investors to move funds quickly between markets in different countries.

Flows of PEI like those of FDI, are available to a very limited number of developing countries and economies in transition. Only 10 countries—all in either Asia or Latin America—accounted for 85 per cent of total flows of PEI in 1994 and an estimated 80 per cent in 1995. Flows are also highly concentrated in middle-income countries with access to international markets, although some low-income countries, such as Bangladesh, China, Ghana, India and Pakistan, have raised some finance through PEI.<sup>42</sup>

PEI flows to emerging markets have two main forms, namely international equity issues and direct purchases in local markets. In 1994 and 1995, around half of total PEI was made in the form of international equity issues. Industry usually accounts for between one third and a half of the total placements, the remainder being distributed between financial institutions and public utilities, mainly telecommunications and energy producers. In 1995, the largest issuers in the industrial sector of emerging markets included conglomerates from the Republic of Korea, such as Samsung Electronics and Pohang Iron and Steel Co., as well as Petronas of Malaysia and the Jilin Chemical Industrial Company of China.<sup>43</sup> Made either directly or through equity funds, direct purchases by foreigners in local stock markets accounted for

### Portfolio equity investment peaked in 1993

Table 26. Portfolio equity flows to developing countries and economies in transition, 1989-1995 (Millions of dollars)

Region	1989	1990	1991	1992	1993	1994	1995 <sup>a</sup>
East Asia and the Pacific	2 623	2 268	1 049	5 102	18 107	12 613	12 230
Europe and Central Asia	71	235	0	65	191	1 934	1 590
Latin America and the Caribbean	434	1 099	6 228	8 229	25 149	13 159	6 200
Middle East and North Africa	—	—	—	—	—	106	85
South Asia	168	105	23	380	2 025	6 223	1 430
Sub-Saharan Africa	—	—	—	144	144	860	465
All developing countries	3 372	3 743	7 552	14 057	45 615	34 895	22 000

Source: World Bank, *World Debt Tables 1996* (Washington, D.C., 1996), p. 102.

<sup>a</sup>Preliminary data.

another half of total PEI in emerging markets in 1994 and 1995. Similar to equity issues, they were highly concentrated in Asia and Latin America.

### *Potential problems with portfolio equity investment*

If foreign investment is desirable, why do capital controls continue to be so popular in many developing countries? The main concern about PEI is that it may be destabilizing. A sudden large inflow could cause both an appreciation of the exchange rate and inflation. The desire to prevent such an appreciation in the face of substantial net capital inflows has typically led to very active intervention by the central bank and rapid increases in international reserves.<sup>44</sup>

Inflows may also be undesirable if the financial sector is underdeveloped, in which case it could allocate funds inefficiently, or if funds are used to finance an inefficient public sector. A large outflow could cause a depreciation of the currency and increase the perceived risk of investment; the 1994 currency crisis in Mexico is an obvious example of such a problem. Accordingly, there is a general consensus in the literature on sequencing of economic reform that the capital account should be liberalized last.<sup>45</sup>

The view that portfolio investors have no interest in controlling or managing companies and generally seek stakes that are small enough to sell easily is part of what worries critics of stock markets. On the other hand, professional investors of all types generally maintain a large proportion of their portfolio in long-term core holdings of large company shares, and those holdings do not suddenly change, even in a falling market.

Empirical studies have found no evidence that growth in foreign portfolio investment causes increased volatility in emerging stock markets.<sup>46-50</sup> Volatility did increase in a number of markets in East Asia and Latin America after internal financial liberalization, but that occurred in the 1970s or early 1980s, well before the surge in foreign portfolio investment.<sup>51</sup> Yet doubts remain. Foreign portfolio investment tends to be concentrated in a few shares in each market and, given such a concentration, any collective behaviour on the part of mutual funds can have a considerable effect on the prices of the shares concerned. The high degree of volatility of Hong Kong and the contagion effect of the 1994 crisis in Mexico are attributed in part to the behaviour of mutual funds.<sup>52</sup> It is likely, however, that the higher proportion of trading by individual domestic investors in emerging markets is the primary reason for the greater volatility of those markets.<sup>53</sup>

### **Commercial bank lending**

Since the second half of the 1970s, when commercial bank lending was by far the single most important source of external funds for developing countries and the centrally planned economies of central and eastern Europe, its relative importance has been drastically reduced. As a proportion of total net capital flows into those countries and economies, bank financing reached an all-time peak of 36 per cent in 1980, but dropped sharply during the international debt crisis of the early 1980s, when debt-servicing problems associated with numerous debt restructurings reduced the access of many developing countries to bank resources. The only exceptions were some Asian countries that retained stable credit ratings, and therefore continued to have easy access to loans from the international banking community. At the end of the decade and during the early 1990s, several large debtors among developing countries and economies in transition, especially those in Latin America and eastern Europe, normalized their relationship with foreign creditors. Banks then started to express renewed interest in lending to the countries concerned.

Despite the renewed access of developing countries and economies in transition to commercial bank lending, such lending has never regained its pre-1980 importance. Net borrowing—disbursements minus principal repayments—from banks increased from an annual average of \$2.1 billion for the period 1990-1991 to \$13.2 billion for 1994-1995, but as a proportion of total net inflows into those economies, they accounted for only 7 per cent in 1995, a small fraction of the pre-1980 level. Marginalization of bank lending within total net capital inflows into those countries and economies has, therefore, been caused not only by the international debt crisis of the 1980s, but by several other factors of a more long-term and structural nature, such as supply and demand.

On the supply side, banks were faced during the second half of the 1980s with the requirements set by the Basel Accord on international banking supervision, adopted in 1988 by the Paris Club,\* and lending to developing countries has been discouraged by stricter provisions for loss loans. On the other hand, demand for bank credits has not been very high, since many sovereign and non-sovereign borrowers have established access to other sources of financing, especially to equity financing and international bond markets. Growing interest in issuing bonds has evoked a positive response by investors, as an increasing number of

\*The Paris Club consists of the following major industrialized countries: Belgium, Canada, France, Germany, Italy, Japan, Netherlands, Sweden, United Kingdom and United States.

bonds issued by developing countries and economies in transition have obtained ratings of either investment grade or close to investment grade. As a result, those countries and economies increased their bond issues tenfold between 1990 and 1995.

In 1995, in an environment of sharply reduced confidence in the bond market in the wake of the Mexican financial crisis, developing countries and economies in transition once again turned to the syndicated loan market. High demand was met by the increased willingness of major banks to risk exposure. In 1996, however, loans declined to \$77.5 billion, representing a drop of \$25.4 billion from the previous year, as borrowers regained interest in bond financing (see table 27). Nearly two thirds of the total was loaned to the private sector, the remainder going to the public sector. Accounting for less than 5 per cent of the total, sovereign borrowers represented a marginal segment of the market.

### *Distribution of commercial bank lending*

Like other forms of private flows to developing countries and economies in transition, commercial

bank lending is strongly concentrated in middle-income economies, mainly in Asia, but also in central and eastern Europe and in Latin America. Among the low-income countries, only a few large, creditworthy borrowers have access to commercial bank lending. Altogether, companies, banks, public utilities and other entities in more than 50 developing countries and economies in transition tapped the international loan market in 1996. Therefore, because of the unacceptably high risks associated with individual countries, the loan market continues to be entirely or almost entirely closed to more than a half of all developing countries and economies in transition and their industrial companies.

Industrial enterprises are among major borrowers on international loan markets, with an estimated share of between one fourth and one third of total loan commitments to developing countries and economies in transition. Table 28 provides basic information on a selected number of bank credits raised by industrial companies in developing countries and economies in transition in the first half of 1996. Although the list is incomplete, two interesting features may be observed. First, industrial companies in 21 countries raised

## Bond issues increased while loan issues fell in 1996

Table 27. Loan and bond issues, by types of borrower, 1994, 1995 and 1996  
(Millions of dollars)

Region and type of borrower	Loan issues			Bond issues		
	1994	1995	1996	1994	1995	1996
All developing countries	72 780	102 911	77 547	50 129	47 749	72 977
Private	32 110	51 075	46 844	21 010	15 473	21 614
East Asia and the Pacific	20 685	28 447	26 843	8 604	6 516	7 420
Europe and central Asia	1 645	5 344	5 904	1 598	541	546
Latin America	6 434	11 621	8 135	10 097	7 746	12 567
Middle East and North Africa	468	657	477	--	50	160
South Asia	1 857	2 400	1 697	636	520	672
Sub-Saharan Africa	1 022	2 606	3 788	75	100	250
Sovereign	10 604	7 284	3 548	17 156	24 253	41 082
East Asia and the Pacific	4 074	1 727	790	2 399	569	3 459
Europe and central Asia	2 585	1 666	541	9 115	10 204	8 919
Latin America	585	2 914	352	3 572	12 105	27 345
Middle East and North Africa	3 048	205	750	400	879	428
South Asia	283	361	701	150	--	150
Sub-Saharan Africa	28	411	415	1 520	496	782
Other public	30 066	44 552	27 155	11 963	8 023	10 281
East Asia and the Pacific	14 568	18 077	7 726	6 599	3 083	4 042
Europe and central Asia	6 692	6 759	6 973	1 062	1 501	180
Latin America	4 838	5 660	7 186	4 003	2 731	5 449
Middle East and North Africa	1 246	8 067	671	--	50	250
South Asia	2 411	3 339	3 335	300	262	220
Sub-Saharan Africa	311	2 649	1 264	--	396	140

Source: *Financial Flows and the Developing Countries: A World Bank Quarterly* (Washington, D.C., World Bank, various issues).

financial resources directly on international loan markets. Nine of them were in Asia (China, India, Indonesia, Malaysia, Pakistan, Singapore, Thailand, Republic of Korea and Viet Nam), six in Latin America (Argentina, Brazil, Chile, Colombia, Mexico and Peru), three in Africa (Ghana, South Africa and Zambia), two in central Europe (Czech

Republic and Slovakia) and one in western Asia (Saudi Arabia). Secondly, the size of individual loans varied from less than \$5 million to more than \$200 million, with smaller credits being allocated to various manufacturing branches and larger ones being concentrated in oil and mineral-extracting activities.

### More Asian companies secure their credit requirements from international commercial banks

Table 28. Selected commercial bank credits to manufacturing enterprises in developing countries and economies in transition, January-June 1996 (Millions of dollars)

Country	Company	Amount
Argentina	Yacimientos Petrolíferos Fiscales	130.0
Brazil	Bahia Sul Celulose SA	55.0
	Petroleo Brasileiro SA	250.0
	Petroleo Brasileiro SA	100.0
Chile	Compania Minera Carmen de Andacollo	57.0
	Empresa Nacional de Minera	75.0
China	Anyang Henan Color Picture Tube Glass Bulb Co.	71.3
	Sinochem International Oil (Hong Kong) Co. Ltd.	45.0
	Unitex Glass Co. Ltd.	10.0
Colombia	Empresa Colombiana de Petroleos	5.3
Czech Republic	Czech Refinery Company	100.0
Ghana	Ashanti Goldfields Company Ltd.	185.0
	Teberebie Goldfields Ltd.	8.4
India	Indian Oil Corporation Ltd.	45.0
	SIV Industries Ltd.	9.0
	Indian Petrochemical Corp. Ltd.	75.0
	Steel Authority of India Ltd.	45.0
Indonesia	PT International Nickel Indonesia	421.5
	PT Indo Aluminium Intikarsa Industri	8.0
	PT Keramika Indonesia Asosiasi	9.8
	PT Indah Piat Pulp and Paper Corp.	5.6
Malaysia	Tan Chong Motor Holdings Berhad	59.3
	Amsteel Mills Sendirian Berhad	180.0
	Petroliam Nasional Berhad	149.8
Mexico	Coca-Cola Femsa SA de CV	165.0
	Embotelladores Mexicanos de Pepsi Cola SA de CV	35.0
Pakistan	Oil & Gas Development Corp.	30.0
Peru	Cerveceria Backus y Johnston SA	50.0
Republic of Korea	Tongyang Cement Corp.	4.5
	Korea Zinc Corporation	19.5
	Ssangyong Refining Co. Ltd.	10.0
	LG Engineering Corp. Ltd.	45.0
	Samsung Electronics Co. Ltd.	155.0
	Hyundai Precision & Industry Corp.	10.2
	Hyosung Corp.	6.2
	Orion Hanel Picture Tube Corp. Ltd.	7.5
	Samsung Electronics Co. Ltd.	125.0
	OCI Chemical Corp.	40.0
Saudi Arabia	Saudi Cable Company	30.0
	Saudi Aramco Mobile Refining	225.0
Singapore	Flextronics Singapore Pte. Ltd.	20.0
Slovakia	Slovnaft AS	50.0
South Africa	Caltex Oil	100.0

Country	Company	Amount
Thailand	Siam Motor Company Ltd.	45.0
	Bangchak Petroleum Company	120.0
	Siam Strip Mill pcl.	120.0
	Delta Electronics pcl.	75.0
	Siam Guardian Glass Co. Ltd.	48.0
	Phoenix Pulp & Paper Co. Ltd.	30.0
	Siam Cement Co. Ltd.	15.0
	Rayong Olefins Co.	150.0
Viet Nam	Posilama Steel Structure Co. Ltd.	11.8
	Hai Van Cement Co.	7.8
Zambia	Zambia Consolidated Copper Mines Ltd.	50.0

Source: Capital DATA Loanware (database of Capital DATA Ltd.).

### Portfolio debt financing

In contrast to bank lending, the issuing of bonds in international capital markets has become an increasingly important component of capital flows in recent years. While in 1986, portfolio debt flows, with a volume of less than \$1 billion, accounted for less than 1 per cent of total net capital inflows into developing countries and economies in transition, in 1995, the share rose to 15 per cent of total inflows and almost two thirds of total debt-creating inflows. After slight declines in 1994 and 1995, resulting from increases in the United States interest rate in early 1994 and the Mexican crisis at the end of that year, the market quickly recovered from those setbacks. In 1996, developing countries and economies in transition raised a record amount of \$73 billion, up 53 per cent compared with the level reached in the previous year (see table 27). In relation to the total bond issuance in international capital markets, the share of developing countries and economies in transition rose from 2.8 per cent in 1990 to at least 10 per cent per year since 1993.

The marked increase in bond issues during the period 1990-1996 can be attributed to two sets of factors. First, the considerable improvement in the economic fundamentals of a large number of developing countries and economies in transition led to a rise in their credit ratings, with several of them achieving a high rating as a potential investment location. Ratings assigned by one or more major specialized institutions is a *de facto* precondition for a prospective borrower, be it a company, bank or a sovereign State, to penetrate the international bond market successfully. Access to that market is even more restricted than to the international loan market. In 1995 and 1996, entities from 30 to 35 developing countries and economies in transition participated in the international bond market, and all but a few bonds were issued by entities from States with a country risk assigned to them.

Secondly, there has been a significant broadening of the investor base to include more active participation by major institutional investors in providing financing not only to bond issuers from Asian countries, but also to potential borrowers from a wider range of countries. The entrance of those investors into markets for the papers of developing countries and economies in transition greatly enlarges the potential pool of resources that could be tapped by those countries, particularly those with a high rating as a potential investment location.

### Profile of borrowers

There are significant differences between the profile of borrowers on the international markets for debt financing. In contrast to the international market for syndicated loans, the international bond market is strongly dominated by sovereign issuers. In 1996, more than a half of all bond issues were made by sovereign States. Therefore, the scope for issues made by private and public entities was rather limited. The most important segment of non-sovereign issuers is made up of banks and financial institutions. In 1996, they accounted for roughly a quarter of total issues, while the remaining quarter was fairly evenly distributed between issuers from the utilities sector and industrial enterprises.

The international bond market is highly selective. It provides access to only an extremely small number of large, well-established industrial companies from creditworthy developing countries. As table 29 shows, industrial enterprises from only 12 developing countries, all in Asia and Latin America, raised resources directly on the international bond market in 1996. Many of the issues were equivalent to \$100 million and more. Access to the market is, therefore, not only practically denied to all industrial firms from less creditworthy developing countries and economies in transition, but also to small and medium-sized companies from countries that represent an acceptable country risk.



### International bond market is highly selective, granting access primarily to large companies

Table 29. Selected bond issues made by industrial enterprises from developing countries and economies in transition in 1996

Country	Company	Amount (millions of dollars or units of the specified currency)
Argentina	Industrias Metalúrgicas Pescarmona SAIC	75.0
	Bridas Corporation	100.0
	Yacimientos Petrolíferos Fiscales	300 000.0 lire
Brazil	OPP Petroquímica	125.0
	Companhia Vale do Rio Doce	300.0
	Metalurgica Gerdau SA	130.0
	Cementos Caue	20.0
	Aracruz Celulose	80.0
	Bahia Sul Celulose SA	100.0
	Klabin Fabricadora de Papel e Celulose	70.0
	Companhia Siderurgica Nacional	160.0
	Companhia Siderurgica Nacional	150.0
	Ceval Alimentos SA	100.0
	Companhia Acos Especiais Itabira	150.0
	Petroleo Brasileiro SA	125.0
	Petroleo Brasileiro SA	250.0
	OPP Petroquímica	100.0
	Ford Brazil Ltda.	300.0
Alcoa Aluminio Brazil	400.0	
Petroleo Brasileiro SA	150.0	
Brunei	Sinar Mas Multiartha	60.0
Chile	Industria Azucarera Nacional	40.0
	Sociedad Quimica I Mineras SA	200.0
India	ICICI Industrial Credit & Investment Corp.	150.0
	Reliance Industries Ltd.	100.0
	Reliance Industries Ltd.	100.0
	Reliance Industries Ltd.	100.0
Indonesia	Indah Kiat Pulp & Paper Corp.	100.0
	Wijaya Karya	100 000.0 rupiahs
Malaysia	Rex Industry Berhad	11.0 Swiss francs
	Petroleum Nasional Berhad	14 000.0 yen
	Hong Loeng Industries Berhad	90.0
	Petroleum Nasional Berhad	600.0
	Petroleum Nasional Berhad	800.0
Mexico	Petroleum Nasional Berhad	500.0
	Empresas La Moderna SA de CV	125.0
	Petroleos Mexicanos	300 000.0 lire
	Panamerican Beverages, Inc.	150.0
	Petroleos Mexicanos	300.0
	Bufete Industries	100.0
	Cemex SA	300.0
	Cemex SA	300.0
	Grupo Industrial Durango	250.0
	Petroleos Mexicanos	300.0
Coca-Cola Femsa	200.0	
Paraguay	Grupo Empresarial Fenix SA	100.0
Republic of Korea	Samsung Electronics	187.0
	Daewoo Corporation	150.0
	Samsung Electronics Co.	150.0
Thailand	Thai Cars	250.0
	Thai Petrochemical Industry	3 000.0 baht
	TPI Polene	6 000.0 yen

Source: *Financial Flows and the Developing Countries: A World Bank Quarterly* (Washington, D.C., World Bank, various issues).

### Official development assistance\*

During the 1970s and 1980s, foreign aid came from three major sources, OECD, OPEC and CMEA countries, and grew steadily in real terms. During the 1990s, however, the level of aid declined in real terms, primarily as a result of budget restrictions in most donor countries. Apart from budgetary problems in donor countries, several other factors contributed to the decline in official development assistance (ODA). The poor economic performance of many traditional aid recipients, especially in sub-Saharan Africa, has increased scepticism about the effectiveness of aid. In addition, several donor countries have curtailed their ODA programmes in order to restrain any further growth in the debt burden of aid recipients. Finally, inflows of private capital, especially into several dynamic economies in East Asia and Latin America, has led to the misperception that less ODA is needed, since countries are increasingly able to meet their development needs by using other sources of financing.

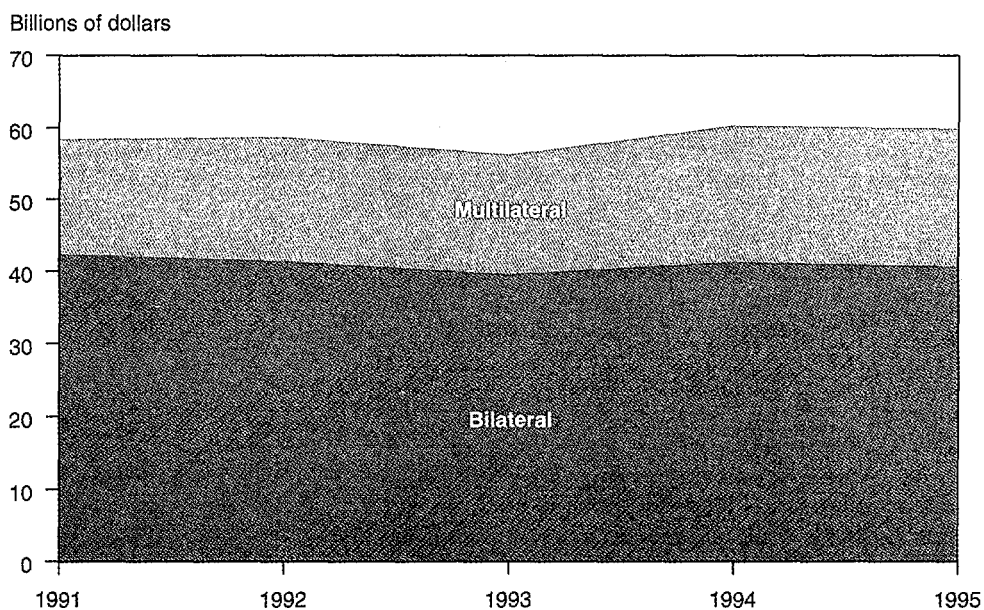
\*Official development assistance includes grants and concessional loans from Governments and multilateral organizations.

In 1995, ODA disbursements to developing countries were at the level of \$60.1 billion, slightly down from the 1994 nominal volume, roughly two thirds of which came from bilateral and one third from multilateral sources (see figure 15). As a consequence, ODA fell to just 0.27 per cent of the GNP of industrialized countries, the lowest level since the United Nations adopted the target of 0.7 per cent. There are, however, exceptions, such as Denmark, Norway and Netherlands, which continue to contribute more than 0.8 per cent of their GNP, while Japan has, since 1992, established itself as the largest aid donor in the world.<sup>54</sup>

Falling levels of foreign aid flows in real terms during the 1990s have been accompanied by a growing demand for financing from that source, as a result not only of new claimants in central and eastern Europe, but also of a number of pressing needs. The early years of the decade saw an upsurge in regional and intraregional conflicts leading to significantly higher expenditures by donors for emergency relief and refugees. Donations for those purposes, from both bilateral and multilateral sources, picked up in 1994, when they amounted to more than \$6 billion. In the following year, donor expenditures on humanitarian emergencies receded to a level of about \$5 billion, which was equivalent to some 8 per cent of total ODA.<sup>55</sup>

#### Bilateral sources constitute a larger share of total official development assistance

Figure 15. Net ODA flows to developing countries, 1991-1995



Source: Development Corporation: 1996 Report (Paris, OECD, 1997).

### Beneficiaries of foreign aid

ODA is being increasingly spent on projects concerned with social infrastructure. Assistance to education, health, water supply and sanitation accounted for 27 per cent of bilateral and 25 per cent of multilateral ODA commitments in 1994.<sup>56</sup> Increased flows into such projects are due to a growing understanding on the part of donors that they will assist in removing bottlenecks to social and economic development. At the same time, the projects are in areas where domestic resources are often inadequate and where return for private capital appears to be unattractive.

The industrial sector, together with the economic infrastructure and agriculture, has been negatively affected by sectoral shifts in foreign aid. Although industry has never been a major recipient of foreign aid, it did receive more than 10 per cent of total ODA flows into developing countries during the 1970s. During the 1980s and especially the 1990s, its share fell dramatically. In 1994, for example, aid to industry accounted for less than 2 per cent of total bilateral aid and less than 6 per cent of ODA provided by multilateral institutions.<sup>57</sup> The difference can be explained by the fact that multilateral institutions provide aid financing almost exclusively for projects and programmes in

social and economic infrastructure and productive sectors, while bilateral donors use a significant proportion of their aid resources, around one fifth in recent years, for debt relief operations as well as for natural disasters or other emergencies.

Total bilateral aid commitments for industrial sector projects in developing countries more than halved during the period 1991-1995, from \$1,718 million to \$820 million. Consequently, its share in total commitments declined from 3.7 to 1.9 per cent (see table 30). Major recipients of industrial aid are low-income and lower-medium-income countries. Flows to those countries account for some 90 per cent of total bilateral aid to the industrial sector, being highly concentrated in a handful of recipients. In 1995, for example, there were only 12 developing countries with industrial aid commitments of more than \$10 million each. Three of them—Bangladesh, China and Indonesia—received as much as 45 per cent in total bilateral aid to that sector. In the same year, however, bilateral aid to the industrial sector of about a half of all developing countries was either nil or less than \$1 million. Financial aid to industry is also of marginal importance for most of the economies in transition. As a group, they received \$34.2 million in 1995, equivalent to less than 0.5 per cent of total bilateral aid flows to all economies in transition.<sup>58</sup>

### Bilateral official development assistance to the industrial sector fell sharply

Table 30. Bilateral ODA commitments to developing countries by region, 1991 and 1995

Region	Industry, mining and construction		Total		Percentage of total	
	1991 (millions of dollars)	1995 (millions of dollars)	1991 (millions of dollars)	1995 (millions of dollars)	1991	1995
<b>Africa</b>						
North of Sahara	96.7	37.7	8 849.5	2 984.5	11.4	1.3
South of Sahara	232.5	71.5	8 626.6	8 167.5	2.7	0.9
<b>America</b>						
Central and North America	20.8	25.6	2 694.9	2 166.9	0.8	1.2
South America	17.5	53.2	2 406.1	2 524.3	0.7	2.1
<b>Asia</b>						
Central and South Asia	481.6	161.6	4 772.9	5 293.4	10.1	3.1
East Asia	757.8	405.3	8 903.3	12 539.7	8.8	3.2
Europe	27.2	10.7	2 183.1	1 290.5	1.3	0.8
Middle East	53.5	18.9	5 992.2	2 880.6	0.9	0.7
Oceania	10.8	12.0	403.5	507.0	2.7	2.4
<b>TOTAL</b>	<b>1 718.2</b>	<b>819.9</b>	<b>45 904.6</b>	<b>42 180.3</b>	<b>3.7</b>	<b>1.9</b>

Source: OECD, *Geographical Distribution of Financial Flows* (Paris, 1997), pp. 222-231.

### *What future for ODA flows?*

During the era of the cold war, ODA was frequently used to support strategic interests and to promote the trade of major aid donors. The end of that era was accompanied by several other aid-related developments, including the decline in the aid budgets of donor countries and their reorientation for new uses, the disappearance of aid flows from non-OECD countries, the emergence of new claimants from central and eastern Europe, a loss of confidence in the capacity of some international organizations to deliver assistance, growing concern about the effectiveness of aid and the surge in private capital inflows. Those considerations have led major donors to reconsider the nature and purpose of their foreign assistance programmes. Among recipient countries, too, there is a growing understanding that the rationale and structure of former approaches to ODA may need certain adjustments.

Most donor countries see the current changing environment for aid as an opportunity for a re-definition and revitalization of their ODA policies. Several major components of the new policies have attracted growing support in those countries, one of them being the tendency to restrict financial assistance to traditional aid destinations, including projects in the industrial sector. Three of the new policy components focus on the following principles:<sup>59</sup>

(a) *The rationale for aid.* In contrast to previous times, when ODA was concentrated on economic growth, it should now be aimed at reaching other objectives, such as the promotion of democracy, the reduction of military spending and the strengthening of institutions;

(b) *The governing framework.* An approach based on partnership, with clearly defined rights and responsibilities and with mutual accountability, should be established;

(c) *The guidelines for resource allocation.* ODA flows should go primarily to the poorest countries, and they should have a clear focus on poverty reduction.

On the basis of the above-mentioned principles, donor countries should reduce the tying of aid as a form of protectionism, and more importantly, they should explore ways of reversing the negative trend in aid flows of recent years. As far as recipient countries are concerned, the authorities should concentrate their policy measures on increasing their capacity to use foreign assistance efficiently through sound macroeconomic policy and effective management of aid.

### *Official non-concessional flows*

Under the heading of official non-concessional flows, two main groups of capital flows may be distinguished, consisting of multilateral and bilateral loans. The latter group is composed of the following two subgroups: export credits extended either directly by the public sector or by the private sector, if supported by an official guarantee; and other official bilateral financing, including transactions such as the rescue package for Mexico in 1995.

#### *Rapid growth in export credits*

The increase in non-concessional flows during the 1990s was almost entirely due to the strong recovery of export credits, which exporters use primarily to finance their export of capital goods and equipment. In 1994 alone, export credit agencies increased their lending to developing countries and economies in transition by more than \$40 billion, from an estimated \$380 billion to approximately \$420 billion. The increase in export credit is partly attributable to arrangements made in the context of debt reschedulings by the Paris Club, but its most important source has been the increase in new credit commitments. That trend has been driven by the resurgence of import demand by many developing countries and economies in transition, by their improved creditworthiness and by more aggressive export promotion for capital goods in some industrialized countries. New export credit commitments to developing countries and economies in transition rose from \$24 billion in 1988 to between \$60 billion and \$70 billion a year during the period 1991-1993, and to a level of \$90 billion in the following year.<sup>60</sup>

The overall increase in new export credit commitments masks substantial variations between countries. Commitments to large low-income but creditworthy countries, such as China, India, Indonesia and Russian Federation, have sharply increased. Export credits became increasingly available to other developing countries and economies in transition that have recently gained access to international capital markets. However, for the vast majority of low-income developing countries, especially the heavily indebted ones, that source of financing has remained practically closed. In 1994, commitments to those countries were estimated at approximately \$1 billion.

#### *Lower credits to industry from multilateral development banks*

Like export credits, non-concessional lending by multilateral financial institutions is mainly demand-

driven. The maturing loan portfolios of most multilateral development banks, together with the increasing reliance of many creditworthy countries in Asia, Latin America and central and eastern Europe on private debt and non-debt creating flows, resulted in a significant decline in non-concessional multilateral lending during the 1990s. Its total net volume was reduced from an annual average of \$8.5 billion for the period 1990-1991 to an average of \$4 billion annually for the period 1994-1995. In 1995, the largest net flows came from IFC, IDB and the Asian Development Bank, each of them providing between \$1.1 billion and \$1.6 billion. The International Bank for Reconstruction and Development (IBRD) received more money, amounting to \$0.5 billion, by way of repayment of interest and principal than it advanced in new loan commitments. The contribution of IBRD to the cash flow of its borrowers was, therefore, already negative.<sup>61</sup>

The financing of projects in the industrial sector has always been an integral part of the multilateral lending activity of development banks. By the end of the 1980s, those projects typically accounted for more than 10 per cent of their total commitments. During the 1990s, however, the relative importance of industrial projects in the lending of multilateral development banks has been drastically reduced (see table 31). In IBRD, the largest of

such institutions, industrial projects accounted for only 1.5 per cent of total new credits in 1995, whereas in 1988 their share was still 14 per cent. Similar trends can be observed in regional development banks. Even IFC, the only multilateral financial institution that provides financial resources exclusively to the private sector, has significantly reduced its relative commitments to industry during the 1990s.

There are two main reasons for the reduced importance of industry in the total commitments of multilateral development banks. First, most of those institutions have significantly reduced their project financing, as they have increasingly embarked on non-project lending. Secondly, countries with access to international capital markets have switched to private-sector financing for commercially viable industrial projects. As developing countries gain access to international capital markets, the rationale for providing non-concessional official financing diminishes. That form of financing will nevertheless continue to play an important role in countries with no access or limited access to private capital markets. There are also countries, such as China and India, where, despite their high credit rating, a majority of the population is still poor, and for which a mixture of non-concessional and concessional finance continues to be appropriate.<sup>62</sup>

### Lending by multilateral sources to the industrial sector has also fallen sharply

Table 31. Total loan commitments and commitments to industry by various multilateral financial institutions, selected years

<i>Institution</i>	<i>Year or period</i>	<i>Industrial sector (millions of dollars)</i>	<i>Total (millions of dollars)</i>	<i>Share of industry in total (percentage)</i>
African Development Bank	1993	587	2 518	23.3
Asian Development Bank	1991-1993 <sup>a</sup>	257 <sup>b</sup>	4 621	5.6
European Bank for Reconstruction and Development	1994	254 <sup>c</sup>	2 409	10.5
IBRD	1988	2 063	14 762	14.0
IBRD	1995	217	14 656	1.5
IDB	1961-1992 <sup>d</sup>	6 317 <sup>e</sup>	56 770	11.1
IDB	1995	310	7 304	4.2
IFC	1990	803	2 201	36.5
IFC	1996	2 107	8 118	26.0

Source: Annual reports of the institutions concerned.

<sup>a</sup>Three-year moving average.

<sup>b</sup>Industry and non-fuel minerals.

<sup>c</sup>Manufacturing and extractive industries.

<sup>d</sup>Cumulative loans.

<sup>e</sup>Industry, mining and tourism.

## Notes

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<sup>3</sup>Qureshi, op. cit., p. 10.

<sup>4</sup>World Bank, *World Debt Tables 1996* (Washington, D.C., 1996), p. 11.

<sup>5</sup>S.A.M. Nuruzzaman, "Role of finance in industrial development: some perspectives from the Asia and Pacific region", paper presented at the Expert Group Meeting on the Global Report 1997, held at Vienna, 21-22 October 1996, p. 7.

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<sup>24</sup>World Bank, "The road to financial integration . . .", chap. 6, p. 4.

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<sup>56</sup>Ibid., pp. A45-A46.

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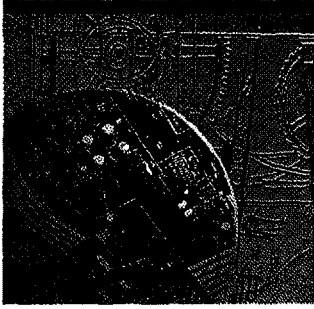
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# 4

## *Raising finance for small enterprise development*

MSEs are viewed increasingly as an important vehicle for meeting both the growth and equity objectives of developing economies. Small-scale industry, being labour-intensive, is believed to be able to provide more employment and earning opportunities for unskilled workers. As unskilled workers may often be underemployed or unemployed, small-scale industry, therefore, contributes towards reducing poverty and inequality. Research in six developing countries shows that, collectively, small establishments account for most industrial employment. That may be true of many countries, if not most.<sup>1</sup> In developing countries, particularly in LDCs, much manufacturing employment is found in rural areas (see figure 16).

MSEs also tend to be geographically more dispersed than larger enterprises and can thus contribute to the promotion of a more balanced development process. They have the ability to accelerate rural industrialization by forging linkages between the more organized industrial sector in the urban areas and the rural manufacturing enterprises that often produce a variety of inputs for industries located in urban areas. In this way, MSEs also provide employment for a large section of the rural population, especially in the off-season, thus smoothing out variations in rural incomes and consumption.

MSEs can contribute considerably to industrial growth by promoting the development of a more diversified industrial structure. In many developing countries, the share of MSEs in total MVA is relatively high. In Malaysia, for example, MSEs constitute the majority of all industrial establishments, accounting for at least one half of industrial employment and value added.<sup>2</sup> In Singapore, MSEs in manufacturing, commerce and the service sector constitute approximately 87 per cent of businesses, contributing 42 per cent of employment, 25 per cent of value added and 16 per cent of direct exports.<sup>3</sup> MSEs provide a significant proportion of the inputs of large-scale enterprises in many developing countries. Policies aimed at stimulating MSE development can also provide further stimulus for growth in agriculture, as

MSEs usually have strong linkages with agriculture. By utilizing local resources, MSEs produce important backward and forward linkages, ensure employment stability and save valuable foreign exchange by providing substitutes for imports.

MSEs typically produce goods and services at highly competitive prices. They utilize labour and capital more efficiently than large enterprises, which tend to be monopolistic or oligopolistic and charge prices that can be significantly higher than the marginal costs of production. There is also evidence that, in general, MSEs not only are more efficient users of resources, but are more profitable compared with larger-scale enterprises.\* MSEs can therefore create jobs for a relatively lower level of investment and are particularly suitable for an economy with a surplus of low-skilled labour. Increasingly, MSEs are viewed as important contributors to the export sector, directly or indirectly contributing to foreign exchange earnings in many developing countries. Rapid technological growth has added a new dimension to the role of MSEs in export markets. The contribution of MSEs to exports has been significant in an increasing number of developing countries, notably in East and South-East Asia. Technological growth has also boosted the economic viability of MSEs by increasing the importance of economies of scope, thus permitting MSEs to gain at the international level both from their flexibility and their ability to specialize (see box 15).

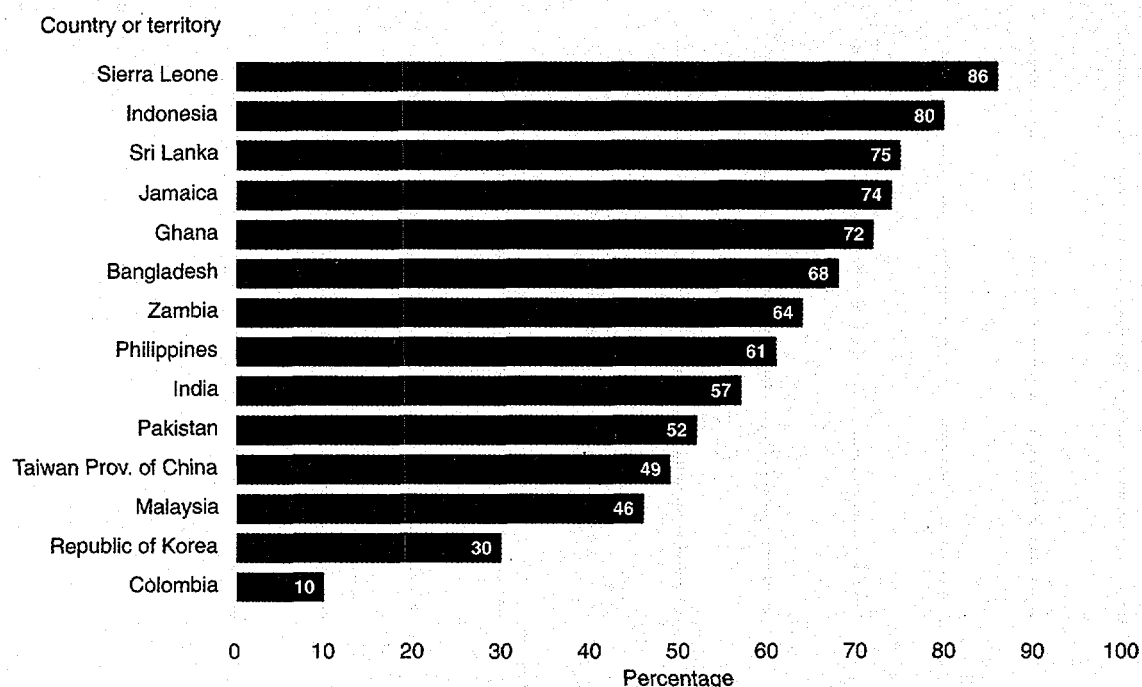
The increasing focus on small enterprises in discussions about development policy results from the general acceptance that the private sector is the

\*I.M.D. Little, "Small manufacturing enterprises in developing countries", *World Bank Economic Review*, vol. 1, No. 2 (1987), p. 205, however, argues that whether or not small industrial establishments improve social welfare depends on whether such establishments use inputs more efficiently than larger enterprises, and if they do, whether this results in both a net increase in output and an increase in demand for unskilled labour. As far as efficiency is concerned, the author refutes the case for policy interventions in favour of small enterprises, as "small firms are not reliably more labour-intensive than their larger counterparts; nor are they consistently more technically efficient in their use of resources".



## Manufacturing accounts for a large proportion of rural employment

Figure 16. Percentage of manufacturing employment in rural areas<sup>a</sup> of selected countries and territories



Source: Carl Liedholm and Donald Mead, "Small-scale industries in developing countries: empirical evidence and policy implications", International Development Paper No. 9 (East Lansing, Michigan, Michigan State University, 1987).

Note: Data based on studies conducted during the period 1970-1985.

<sup>a</sup>Rural areas are defined as localities with less than 20,000 inhabitants.

leading growth sector.<sup>4</sup> MSEs are a major force in the private sector, and have shown great innovative capabilities in many developing countries. They are often viewed as a seedbed for entrepreneurs.

### Growth dynamics of microenterprises and small enterprises

The performance of MSEs is by no means uniform throughout the developing world. MSEs do, however, exhibit common characteristics in many developing countries (see box 16). They are located in both rural and urban areas. The majority

of MSEs in rural areas are those organized as sole proprietorships, with fewer than five workers. Proprietors and family workers generally form the mainstay of the small-industry labour force. Many proprietors and employees work part-time in industrial activities, often combining this work with farming, as farming and non-farming manufacturing activities are often complementary within the agricultural production cycle. In some countries, particularly those in West Africa, apprentice labour is an important factor in MSE employment, while hired labour is in the minority. The average wages paid to hired workers in MSEs are significantly lower, usually by approximately 50 per cent, than wages paid to comparable hired workers in large-scale enterprises.

## Technological growth has boosted economic viability of MSEs

### Box 15. Impact of technological changes on MSEs

For a variety of reasons, the last two decades have seen the steady re-emergence of MSEs. The technological revolution of recent years has reduced the importance of economies of scale in mass production. Not only has there been a growth in demand for differentiated products and for speciality niche products, but there has also been a definite shift towards the flexible manufacturing systems that are the domain of smaller rather than large-production enterprises. That tendency has been encouraged by the expansion of computerization and networking, by the internationalization of production and trade, by management technology that emphasizes cost reduction, zero defects, minimal inventories and the rapid turnover of funds. Knowledge- and skill-intensive industrialization is replacing material- and energy-intensive industrial development.

The technological, managerial and information revolutions of the 1980s and the 1990s have given a tremendous boost to knowledge- and information-based manufacturing, marketing and servicing. Typically, the cost of manufacturing is only 25 per cent of the end-user price. New technologies emphasize external economies of scale and scope which are provided by the networking of production. As networking of production does not necessarily require large individual operations, it is well suited to MSEs. Computerization enables a quicker response to changes in smaller-lot production or batch production than is possible in mass production. Recent developments in cybernetics and communications are opening up new cost-effective possibilities for decentralized production that are designed to exploit economies of scope, rather than the traditional economies of scale.

Both scientific progress and economic efficiency have come to depend on the widespread use of microprocessors. Microprocessors have brought about a technological revolution, affecting manufacturing methods and the organization of enterprises in developed countries in such a way as to favour small-scale production. The essential elements of flexible manufacturing systems include inter-firm cooperation to establish agglomerations or clusters of related manufacturing in industrial districts, work-

ing in competition yet in cooperation, building relationships between small and large enterprises and promoting networking and collective efficiency. The development of clusters and agglomerations of enterprises in regional towns to meet regional and local consumer demand is considered important in providing potential for the growth of small industry. The development of town and village enterprises in small and medium-sized towns in China during the 1980s led to considerable industrial growth. In regional development, small enterprises operate in niches, serve small specialized or local markets, utilize local labour and resources and often make specialized and non-standard products, thereby offering opportunities for flexible manufacturing systems.

Thus, it would appear that there are both technological and social reasons for the revival of interest in MSEs. One of the technological reasons is the increasing importance of knowledge- and skill-intensive industrialization as opposed to material- and energy-intensive industrialization. The social reasons include the need to generate more employment, particularly through self-employment ventures, the growing emphasis on niche demand or individualized consumer preferences, the importance attached to the quality of life of workers and the trend towards decentralized work centres.

According to Peter Drucker:<sup>a</sup> "Business tomorrow will follow two new rules. One, to move work to where people are, rather than people to where the work is. Two, to farm out activities that do not offer opportunities for advancement into fairly senior management and professional positions." Drucker adds: "Many middle-sized and even small businesses will have to become active in the world economy." This will be part of the process whereby businesses become integrated into the world economy by forming alliances. "Corporate size will by the end of the coming decade (1990s) have become a strategic decision", says Drucker. "Neither 'big is better' nor 'small is beautiful' makes much sense; size follows function ...".

<sup>a</sup>Peter Drucker's 1990s", *The Economist*, 21 October 1989, p. 28.

One-person firms often constitute over half the MSEs in a given area. Many operate as "job-shops", producing on demand for customers, and undertaking few marketing or management activities. This is often interpreted as an indication of the existence of

a substantial amount of excess capacity in the firm. A significant number of small enterprises are engaged in the handicraft, garment and food-related industries and have female owners. The activity of much of this small-scale industry is tied to local

## MSEs are found in both urban and rural areas

### Box 16. Characteristics of MSEs

MSEs have the following common characteristics:

- (a) The small entrepreneur usually works and produces for the local market;
- (b) Most small enterprises are run solely by the owners themselves and by members of their family, though, in many cases, part-time workers are also employed;
- (c) Women account for a relatively high proportion of owners or workers in the small-enterprise sector;
- (d) Personal savings or family money provide the primary source of capital for the establishment of small enterprises:

- (e) Access to formal channels for credit and other forms of support is either minimal or non-existent;

- (f) Most microenterprises and small enterprises keep incomplete and inadequate accounts;

- (g) Small businesses are usually not officially registered and seldom pay regular taxes;

- (h) Employees often work excessively long hours and, in many cases, have to endure sub-standard working conditions.

Source: Ministry of Foreign Affairs of the Netherlands, *Small-scale Enterprise*, Policy document No. 3 (The Hague, undated).

markets, as a result of household demand for light consumer goods, by backward and forward production linkages with agriculture and large-scale industry, and sometimes by more systematic subcontracting arrangements.

### Pattern of growth

In most developing countries, MSEs are a dynamic sector. At any given moment, not only are existing firms expanding and contracting, but many new firms are being created and others are disappearing. In absolute terms, MSEs are increasing in almost all developing countries.<sup>1</sup> The growth in the number of firms appears to be highest in enterprises with from 2 to 9 workers and from 10 to 49 workers and lowest in one-person enterprises. In some countries, in fact, the number of one-person firms, which are often found to be of only marginal economic viability, is declining.

Microenterprises typically start life as a one-person operation. The death or closure rates of such firms is highest in the first three years of operation. After three years, however, the chances of survival of these enterprises increase markedly. Furthermore, if firms expand, they tend to do so in spurts occurring after the third or fourth year of life. The number of firms graduating from the microenterprise seedbed to become more complex, modern, small or medium-sized enterprises, however, is not high.

As shown in table 32, in six out of seven countries, the majority of modern small and medium-sized manufacturing firms did not graduate from the microenterprise seedbed, but started out with 11 employees or more. Moreover, the graduation rates

for African countries are substantially lower than those for the countries of Asia and Latin America. In Asia and Latin America, one half or more of modern small and medium-sized firms had expanded by increasing their size, while in African countries, there was not such a high proportion of graduates. The percentage of small and medium-sized firms originating as microfirms is, however, higher in western Africa than in eastern and central Africa.

The expansion and sophistication of an MSE, as far as both its level of organization and management and technological capabilities are concerned, also depend on the level of economic and industrial development of the country in which it is located.\* At the early stages of development, small enterprises are predominantly craft-based and located mainly in rural areas to meet local demand. At later stages of development, such enterprises grow into or are replaced by modern small enterprises with a larger market potential and higher quality products. Many of those small modern enterprises have gained experience of exporting directly to international markets. At the most advanced level of development, as in industrialized countries, small enterprises are generally replaced by medium-sized and large enterprises to reap the benefits of economies of scale.<sup>5</sup> In some developed countries, there has, to some extent, been a reversal in that trend, with MSEs re-emerging as important players in a post-Fordist industrial era, characterized by flexible specialization.

\*A positive correlation between the size of the enterprise and its stage of industrialization is not universal, as the experiences of Italy and Japan have shown. In those countries, small enterprises continued to play an important role in industrial development. See Ministry of Foreign Affairs of the Netherlands, *Small-Scale Enterprise*, Policy document No. 3 (The Hague, undated).

## Low graduation rate for MSEs in Africa

Table 32. Origin of modern small and medium-sized private manufacturing firms<sup>a</sup>

Region and country	Year	Number of firms	Number of workers per firm	Percentage starting as microenterprise <sup>b</sup>	Percentage starting above microenterprise level <sup>c</sup>
<b>Africa</b>					
Botswana	1982	20	11-200	20.0	80.0
Nigeria	1985	64	11-200	43.7	56.3
Northern Nigeria	1989	59	11-200	42.0	58.0
Rwanda	1987	28	30-870	10.7	89.3
Sierra Leone	1975	42	11-200	30.1	69.9
<b>Asia</b>					
India	1979	244	11-200	65.6	34.4
Philippines	1978	47	11-200	48.9	51.1
<b>Latin America</b>					
Colombia <sup>d</sup>	1978	76	11-200	50.0	50.0

Source: C. Liedholm, "Small-microenterprise dynamics and the evolving role of finance" in *Small Enterprises and Changing Policies*, A.K.J. Helmsing and Th. Kolstee., eds. (London, Intermediate Technology Publications, 1993).

<sup>a</sup>With 11 employees or more.

<sup>b</sup>With fewer than 11 employees.

<sup>c</sup>With 11 employees or more.

<sup>d</sup>Including metalworking establishments only.

### Barriers to the growth of MSEs

As mentioned, the graduation rate of MSEs in many developing countries remains very low. According to an analysis based on field surveys conducted in the leather industry of Sri Lanka and the furniture industry of the United Republic of Tanzania, some of the major factors hindering the growth or causing the actual demise of microenterprises are regulatory constraints; restrictions on physical, technical and marketing inputs; and cost and other financial pressures.<sup>6</sup> Such problems are often aggravated by a lack of support institutions geared to the MSE sector, as well as by a built-in bias of both policy and existing institutions towards large-scale industries.

Regulatory constraints include the burden placed on entrepreneurial activities by unfavourable tax regimes, the bureaucratic procedures encountered in dealing with government agencies, limited access to proper industrial accommodation and disadvantageous labour regulations. Because of the high demands imposed by taxation and other regulatory measures in some countries, there is no incentive for firms to expand. In countries such as the United Republic of Tanzania where regulation is very strict, the bureaucratic burden involved in the licensing and taxation of enterprises poses a substantial financial deterrent to the establishment and expansion of all enterprises.

Constraints on physical inputs include lack of availability of raw materials and other input materials, as well as lack of equipment and spare parts. The limited availability and high cost of material inputs often constitute a significant obstacle to expansion, although they do tend to be sector-specific. On the demand side, MSEs in many developing countries are often handicapped by low purchasing power. Access to markets is also made more difficult by poor roads, transportation and communications.

In surveys carried out in the field, technical, managerial and marketing constraints are usually evaluated by entrepreneurs in relation to existing markets, rather than as obstacles to future expansion, and are thus, in relation to those markets, rated as low priorities. In reality, however, the greatest curb on growth may be the difficulty of penetrating new markets. For MSEs to expand and graduate to the next stage of development, marketing and management skills are key resources, in which small enterprises are conspicuously deficient.

Most small-enterprise surveys conducted in developing countries report that lack of access to credit represents a strong restriction on the expansion of small-scale industrial establishments,<sup>7</sup> with the proprietors themselves typically perceiving financing as their most pressing input constraint.<sup>1</sup> Financial constraints reported by these surveys usually take the form of lack of access to credit and the high cost of borrowing.

## Financial needs and stages of development of microenterprises and small enterprises

It is well known that different types of enterprises have significantly differing needs as far as concerns the type of financial services they require and the difficulties they face in gaining access to finance. As the firm grows, the size and composition of its financial requirements change. In particular, the relative importance of fixed and working capital and the size of each will change as the firm matures and grows. That evolution affects not only the relative importance of formal and informal sources of finance, but also the relative contribution to the development of the firm of various types of information financing arrangements.

At the same time, development of the financial sector is closely linked to real sector development; thus, as the real sector develops and there is a demand for new types of financial services, the financial sector evolves to respond to that demand.<sup>8</sup> The financial structure of an economy evolves as a result of the interaction between supply and demand, at the same time as its enterprises develop (see box 17).<sup>9</sup> The

parallel evolution of the financial and real sectors, however, is neither synchronized nor in equilibrium at each stage of the development of an enterprise. Supply and demand are rarely in balance. Indeed, the gap between supply and demand is known to be most pronounced in the case of MSEs.<sup>10</sup>

### *External finance is seldom used during the start-up period*

In most developing countries surveyed, the actual amount of capital required by a microenterprise or small-scale individual firm during the start-up period is usually modest. The amount of start-up capital required for a small-scale firm in relation to average per capita income, however, is by no means insignificant; in Bangladesh, for example, it amounts to six times the national per capita income. While demand is mainly for fixed capital, the complementary need for working capital tends to be underestimated by entrepreneurs at the start-up stage. Moreover, while a lack of capital is perceived by business proprietors to be the most pressing problem at start-up, a lack of business experience, together with the other constraints discussed above, may also prove detrimental.

**The efficiency of the financial system is critically dependent on the use of new technologies**

#### **Box 17. Financial systems and enterprise development**

Gertler and Rose<sup>a</sup> analyse the two key aspects of the symbiotic relationship between finance and growth that determine the relative efficiency of a financial system and its dynamic evolution: the premium paid for external finance and the net worth of the borrower. The former refers to the additional premium that must be paid by the borrower for loans and insurance policies that are not procured by collateral, because of the problems of acquiring information about borrowers and of contract enforcement. The latter is defined as the sum of the net liquid assets and the collateral value of the illiquid assets of the borrower. That amount consists not only of tangible physical assets, but any future earnings that the borrower can credibly offer as collateral. Thus, the accumulated net worth of the borrower depends both on past earnings and future prospects. The development of the real sector, therefore, leads to increasing net worth on the part of the borrower and "tends to reduce the premium attached to external finance, which in turn serves to stimulate further development".<sup>b</sup> The premium for external finance is thus inversely related to the net worth of the borrower, and those two factors jointly determine the level of investment that can be granted.

The two-way interactive relationship between finance and growth links the evolution of the financial structure of an economy to the changing financial needs of a firm over its life cycle. Thus, as self-financing develops into external financing, there is development of intermediation by banking institutions, development of securities markets for direct credit and transfer of funds, increased access to world capital markets and, finally, a narrowing of the spread between lending rates and deposit rates, along with a rise in the riskless rate. As part of such an evolutionary process, the development of financial intermediation is critically dependent on improvements in monitoring, evaluation and enforcement techniques, as such improvements should reduce the premium on external finance and, hence, reduce the spread between lending rates and deposit rates, which is a barometer of the efficiency of the financial system.

<sup>a</sup>Mark Gertler and Andrew Rose, "Finance, growth and public policy", in *Financial Reforms: Theory and Experience*, Gerard Caprio Jr., Izak Atiyas and James Hanson, eds. (Cambridge, Cambridge University Press, 1994).

<sup>b</sup>Ibid., p. 32.

In general, almost all the fixed capital required by the microenterprise at start-up is acquired from personal savings or family sources, such as gifts from relatives or friends, the proportion varying according to the size of the enterprise. Data from a survey carried out in Ghana show that the savings of enterprise owners were used as the main source of start-up financing in 71 per cent of microenterprises, 67 per cent of small-scale enterprises and only 50 per cent of medium-sized firms.<sup>11</sup> The second most important source of start-up capital for MSEs, after the savings of owners, were gifts from family members. A similar pattern was found in many developing countries, where such sources of finance accounted for between 90 per cent and 95 per cent of the original capitalization of the enterprise.<sup>12</sup>

Credit is rarely used to start an MSE, as such enterprises generally lack a track record to convince lenders of their reliability. Of the firms surveyed in Ghana, only 1 per cent of microenterprises and 10 per cent of small enterprises had access to bank loans at start-up. A further 10 per cent, mainly small and medium-sized enterprise, utilized supplier credit in the start-up phase. Neither formal nor informal sources of external finance played a significant role in the start-up of microenterprises.

Once operations have begun and production is expanding, there will be a higher demand for working capital, both in absolute terms as well as in relation to fixed capital, because of increasing diversification in production inputs and the lengthening of production and sales cycles. At this stage, there will tend to be an increased utilization, rather than an expansion, of the fixed start-up capital.\* The difficulty of obtaining adequate working capital has been more frequently cited as a problem for rapidly growing microenterprises than for rapidly growing modern small firms.<sup>12</sup>

The requirement for working capital is met initially from the internal cash flow resources and retained profits of the firm. As the enterprise expands, however, internal sources of finance increasingly become insufficient. There are some external financing options available to meet the growing requirement for working capital. Initially, working capital is provided as informal, short-term finance, such as advances from customers and suppliers, and from trade credits. Informal financing can be developed into a steady source of financing through subcontracting mechanisms or readily available trade credit, as in Asia. In Africa, however, where working capital

is also financed from internal sources, informal financing arrangements are often used only for a one-off transaction or for a short-term contract, neither of which are usually regarded as secure foundations for a business. In both Asia and Africa, there is only rare recourse to moneylenders to raise working capital for a period of just a few days.

Overdrafts and bank loans are a popular and much safer method of raising working capital for larger enterprises with an established track record. That is not the case for MSEs. For example, bank loans, usually overdrafts granted on a roll-over basis, are used to finance working capital by as many as 25 per cent of medium-sized firms, but by only 3 per cent of microenterprises.

### ***Access to external finance becomes critical at the expansion stage***

The transformation of a microenterprise into a more complex, modern small-scale enterprise is typically accompanied by a sudden, sharp jump in demand for fixed capital in relation to working capital. While supplier credit and subcontracting arrangements are possible methods of financing fixed capital, informal financing of that kind is usually better suited to providing short-term working capital. At this stage of development, therefore, access to other sources of external finance, in particular to the formal financial markets, becomes critical if the need of the firm for both fixed and working capital is to be met.

The above analysis suggests that, in many developing countries, the scale and growth of the operations of an enterprise are, at present, largely determined by the size of available internal funds at each stage of its development. While the availability of external finance increases as the firm grows in size, internal finance is the principal source of funding for the formation, consolidation and expansion of an enterprise. Many small enterprises do manage to finance rapid growth from their own resources and from equity capital raised from relatives and friends. A lack of external finance at a critical phase of development, however, could be detrimental to the growth of microenterprises and small-scale enterprises with otherwise good potential and prospects.

The current pattern of financing also points to the need for lending institutions to provide adequate instruments and facilities to encourage savings. Furthermore, surveys conducted in developing countries, in particular sub-Saharan Africa, demonstrate that if an enterprise cannot adequately finance its own requirement for working capital, the day-to-day operation of the enterprise may be jeopardized, which may explain the high mortality rate of

\*The increased utilization is by no means inevitable. Many microenterprises and small enterprises operate with a substantial amount of excess capacity. Thus, in Ghana, Steel and Webster, report that 86 per cent of enterprises operated at 50 per cent or less of total capacity. See William F. Steel and Leila Webster, *Small Enterprises under Adjustment in Ghana*, World Bank Technical Paper No. 138, Industry and Finance Series (Washington, C.D., World Bank, June 1991).

microenterprises and small-scale enterprises in that region. In such circumstances, enterprises utilize their retained profits to finance working capital in order to survive, instead of ploughing profits back into the business to expand capacity. For that reason, it is difficult for an enterprise to transform itself from a microenterprise or smaller-sized enterprise into a larger unit.

Furthermore, while informal financing arrangements have often been perceived as instruments that are both flexible and versatile, they do not form part of an integrated funding strategy and cannot adequately respond to the gaps in short-term and long-term funding that may occur at certain critical stages in the evolution of the firm. Indeed, informally organized entities, such as local communities, while able to support commerce and trade, cannot mobilize industrial capital, as this requires appropriate formal institutions to be in place.<sup>13</sup>

### ***Innovative financial services programmes***

It should be noted that, in recent years, several successful and innovative financial services programmes have been created to assist in microenterprise development, for instance, a scheme instituted by Badan Kredit Kecamatan (BKK) in Indonesia.<sup>14</sup> Such schemes have been able to reduce the inherent risk in providing credit to small borrowers by bringing peer group pressure and other social pressures to bear on the borrower, by allowing unconventional forms of collateral to be provided to encourage the timely repayment of short-term loans for working capital, and by imposing relatively high commercial interest rates sufficient to cover the cost of credit. Peer pressure and group dynamics in particular are used, not only as a way of reducing the costs of providing microfinance, but as a mechanism to ensure a high rate of repayment without the need for formal collateral.

Financial programmes of this type have resulted in a number of other successful practices. These include the establishment of savings schemes as providers of short-term liquidity and as long-term reserves of emergency liquidity; ensuring continuity in the availability of financial services through the provision of small, increasing repeat loans and the organization of borrower groups; and allowing for fungibility of money. Such practices are akin to those used to good effect in the informal financial sector to minimize credit screening, to monitor and enforce loan contracts and to reduce the risk of default.

Indeed, if the risk of lending to small borrowers were reduced using the approaches outlined above, the risk cost of default, which forms part of the costs of any transaction, could fall significantly. If such approaches are adopted and implemented by non-

governmental organizations or formal banking institutions, however, the cost of another component of the transaction, namely the administrative costs, could increase. If administrative costs were to increase significantly, many commercial and development banks would find it difficult to make the adjustments necessary to accommodate such innovative approaches in the short term, without recourse either to internal cross-subsidies or externally funded subsidies.

It is not surprising that many such innovative programmes remain heavily dependent on subsidies and require a constant injection of donor funds. Programmes operating in sub-Saharan Africa, for example, have incurred particularly high costs.

Partly to address such high costs and partly to improve the financial viability of lending programmes, many innovative programmes typically adopt the minimalist approach to granting credit for small enterprises development, the alternative being the integrated approach, whereby financial services, technical assistance and training are tied to loans.

A critical shortcoming of the minimalist approach is its inability to provide loans large enough to permit an enterprise to graduate from the small to medium level. For example, in sub-Saharan Africa, the Presidential Trust Fund for Self-Reliance, which has adopted the minimalist Grameen Bank model, granted 4.3 million Tanzanian Shillings (T Sh) in loans at a cost of T Sh 5.6 million in 1991. As at June 1992, it had granted T Sh 9.6 million in loans, which yielded interest of T Sh 0.99 million against an operating cost of T Sh 7.7 million. Revenue from savings is reported to have been only T Sh 1.01 million.<sup>15</sup>

It should be noted, however, that the minimalist approach may be appropriate if programmes are to deal with the specific expansion phase of very small enterprises and microenterprises when their requirement is for repeat financing of working capital. Enterprises in both the formation and transformation phases often require more integrated assistance than minimalist programmes can provide to overcome other obstacles to development. Those minimalist programmes that are regarded as successful have been effective for the most part in providing small injections of working capital.<sup>16</sup> They are not geared to catering for the expansion and graduation needs of enterprises. In order for minimalist programmes to assist enterprise development as far as the graduation stage, they should ideally provide various financing options, such as linking microenterprise programmes to formal financial institutions, or they must themselves develop formal institutions that are capable of providing a comprehensive set of financial services, including deposit-taking and credit provision. BanCoSol in Bolivia is a well-known example of a minimalist programme that has transformed itself into a bank and upgraded its operations.

### ***Lack of access to credit hinders growth of microenterprises and small enterprises***

Although financial pressures are often cited as the most significant brake on the growth of MSEs, it is important to distinguish between the demand for working capital and the demand for fixed capital. Entrepreneurs typically perceive their requirement for capital as a requirement for working capital rather than for fixed capital. Small-scale enterprises tend to experience difficulties in meeting working capital requirements for carrying out day-to-day operations. Yet, working capital shortages are often the symptom of another problem such as an inadequate supply of other inputs or managerial inefficiencies. For example, the effects of producing the wrong product for the wrong market at the wrong price are first felt in cash-flow problems.

There is also a tendency in surveys for entrepreneurs to overstate their financial problems, while it

could be other problems, such as weak demand, supply problems or poor management, which are the real cause of their liquidity problems and lack of creditworthiness. On the other hand, additional working capital loans can have a negative impact on enterprise performance if the problems of management capacity, fixed assets or technology are not also addressed.<sup>17</sup>

Nevertheless, there are many enterprises experiencing a growth in demand that warrants expansion beyond the limits imposed by the self-financing approach. Lack of access to credit does curtail the ability of some MSEs to explore highly profitable opportunities, and the growth of the MSE sector could be accelerated if external financing were more readily available (see box 18). Survey data from fieldwork conducted in Ghana, for example, indicate that, in Africa, there are approximately two applications for bank loans by MSEs for each one awarded, and this ratio increases to 3 to 1 for microenterprises.<sup>11</sup> The

### **MSEs face numerous barriers in accessing credits**

#### **Box 18. Why small enterprises have difficulty in obtaining credit from institutional sources**

The difficulties faced by enterprises in obtaining credit from institutional sources may be attributed to the following factors:

(a) Lending to small enterprises is perceived as risky. The uncertainties of such businesses and their high mortality rate, as well as their vulnerability to market changes and economic fluctuations, make banks reluctant to lend to them. Somewhere between 20 per cent and 50 per cent of small businesses in the United States fail in the first few years of operation. A survey of small businesses in the Philippines revealed similar results. Some studies have shown, however, that small-scale entrepreneurs may take greater pains to repay their loans in anticipation of access to increased future borrowing but, in the final analysis, most small enterprises depend on a single owner-manager, and this makes them more vulnerable than larger enterprises to unforeseen events;

(b) Running parallel with the reluctance of banks to lend to small enterprises is the reluctance of those enterprises to borrow from banks. The costly administrative formalities involved in obtaining bank financing is a formidable deterrent for small enterprises. Some proprietors lack the formal education to cope with bureaucracy and for others, the difficulties of complying with the conditions set by those institutions for advancing credit are compounded by logistical problems and pressures of time. In many cases, quite apart from bearing the costs involved in numerous visits to various lending

institutions, potential borrowers also have to pay for the preparation of accounts. Such transaction costs can be prohibitive for the small borrower;

(c) There is a distinct bias on the part of the banks in favour of large corporations. In many cases, there are links in directorship, ownership and various common financial dealings between banks and large financial institutions, which automatically makes directing finance to such borrowers more likely;

(d) The administrative costs of lending to small enterprises is high, which reduces the profitability of the lending institutions. According to a World Bank study conducted in the Philippines in 1978, the administrative costs of handling large loans was between 0.3 per cent and 0.5 per cent of the total of the loan, while such costs rose to between 2.6 per cent and 2.7 per cent on loans to small enterprises. Most subsequent studies have found that the administrative costs of lending to even small organized business are between 4 per cent and 5 per cent of the loan total. One institution in Latin America, the Corporación Financiera Popular of Colombia, which lent exclusively to small and medium-sized enterprises, had administrative costs of over 7 per cent, even without lending to the very smallest microenterprises;

(e) Usually small borrowers are unable to provide the collateral and other security that the lending institutions demand before approving loans.



evidence also suggests that microenterprises and small-scale enterprises received loans for much smaller amounts than they requested. The lack of credit for the purchase of capital equipment was cited as a critical brake on business expansion by 37 per cent of respondents in the sample.

The above-mentioned statistics confirm the sizeable gap between the supply of and demand for enterprise finance. The gap is at least partly due to the problems of inaccurate information or the costs of acquiring information, the high perceived risk, the transaction costs and the problems of enforcing repayment associated with lending to MSEs.

As far as banks are concerned, avoiding the provision of credit to high-risk businesses may be consistent with a prudent lending strategy. Credit is usually intended and packaged by banks for large, well-established, modern businesses with good cash flow. Banks find it easier and more profitable to deal with their segment of the market, as risk is minimal and transaction costs are lower.\* Their own management structures are also most suited to doing the majority of their business with relatively large corporate entities. Consequently, potential borrowers without the right track record and unable to produce collateral have to look elsewhere for financial assistance.

When the real reason for the difficulties encountered by banks in dealing with small-scale businesses is sought, a distinction must be made between the low financial incentives involved in servicing small enterprise clients and the lack of administrative procedures available to do so.<sup>18</sup> While banks often comment that there are not enough bankable MSE projects, the real reason for that may lie in the cost of processing applications and the poor financial incentive involved in developing new small clients. In the banking system of many countries, competitive pressure in the banking system, whereby several banks with a widespread distribution compete for new clients at the local level, is lacking. Furthermore, bank managers are given few discretionary powers and have few incentives to make small loans.

On the other hand, a recent study reveals that MSEs in sub-Saharan Africa make very little use of what informal finance is available, apart from start-up capital lent by family and friends.<sup>19</sup> For example, 8 per cent of entrepreneurs responding to the survey conducted in Ghana had sought a loan from a moneylender and 3 per cent had approached a *susu* operator for a similar facility.\*\* Considering the rela-

tively large number of applications for bank loans by small enterprises that are rejected, those statistics indicate little spillover of unsatisfied demand into the informal segments of the financial market. That is partly due to the narrow specialization of each segment of the informal financial sector and partly attributable to the nature of the financial products and instruments that they provide, for instance the relatively high interest rates, the short repayment periods and the limited size of loans available. Informal sources of finance are thus less appropriate for regular business transactions than for consumer or emergency purposes. Many firms viewed borrowing from informal commercial sources as a last resort rather than a preferred means of obtaining regular finance.

### **Financial systems for microenterprises and small enterprises in high-growth and low-growth regions**

There are a number of critical differences between the fast-growing economies of Asia and the stagnant economies of the sub-Saharan region with respect both to the evolution of the formal and informal financial sectors and the way in which financial systems have responded to demand for financial services by MSEs in the two regions (see box 19).<sup>20</sup>

#### ***Greater linkages between formal and informal finance in Asia***

In some successful Asian countries, a relatively high degree of integration has taken place within the financial system and efficiency of intermediation in the system as a whole has gradually increased. An informal financial sector that is as diverse as it is dynamic continues to form part of such thriving financial systems with specialized financial services being provided by each sector.<sup>21</sup> While, theoretically, there will always be scope for an informal credit market if it can improve on formal sector transaction costs and if it can intermediate funds that would not otherwise have been intermediated, such financial dualism is likely to become less pronounced as the formal sector itself is progressively liberalized, as the costs of formal sector transactions decrease and as the capital markets become more sophisticated.<sup>22</sup>

The integrated financial system carries over into both the supply and demand sections of the economy. The two sections have a variety of interchangeable credit needs in the middle range of a whole spectrum of credit markets and credit uses.

\*This perception is not valid in the case of large, unprofitable State enterprises. The low quality of bank portfolios has often been attributable to the fact that credit has been directed to parastatal organizations that have proved to be very costly clients.

\*\*Under this method of informal financing, popular in Ghana, a loan is raised by contributions, or *susu*, from private individuals who form a type of syndicate. The *susu* operator organizes the loan by collecting contributions, and receives a small payment for his work. Repayment is based on trust.

## Informal finance is based on personal relationships

### Box 19. Differences between formal and informal finance

In general, informal finance consists of small, short-term transactions, based on personal relationships. Such arrangements are flexible, adapted to economic change, often innovative, involve low transaction costs for both lender and borrower and result in high loan recovery rates. Most informal loans are flanked on the basis of the creditworthiness of the borrower, and some elements of the informal system also process a substantial amount of savings. Perhaps most importantly, informal transactions usually take place close to where clients live, shop or work.

In contrast, the formal financial sector usually handles larger and longer-term transactions, often on a quite impersonal basis. Banking procedures are usually fairly inflexible, adapt slowly, involve substantial amounts of paperwork, result in sizable transaction costs to borrowers and are sometimes associated with loan recovery problems. Formal loans are often financed, in the case of government-sponsored credit programmes at least, largely on the basis of loan targets and credit needs, and deposit mobilization may be largely ignored. In most cases, formal finance is transacted in the office of the financial intermediary, and this imposes additional transaction costs on the client.

Source: D. W. Adam and D. A. Fitchett, *Informal Finance in Low-Income Countries* (Boulder, Colorado, Westview Press, 1992).

Within this range, depending on the lending and borrowing rates available, each sector encroaches on the market share of the other. At either end of the spectrum, however, each sector utilizes a number of markets that cannot be utilized by the other and that are therefore complementary.<sup>22</sup> The financial system as a whole has become more competitive in East Asian countries, as the range of overlapping between sections has expanded. Where overlapping demand exists, there are also spillover effects from the formal segments of the economy into the informal segments, and vice versa.

Furthermore, evidence is emerging from empirical studies that informal finance can be an important source of working capital for microenterprises and smallholders. For example, in India, the Republic of Korea and Thailand, manufacturing firms that are normally clients of the formal sector have found informal credit provision an important source of funds for working capital and, in some cases, for fixed investment.<sup>22</sup> The share of the informal sector in financial transactions in such countries is estimated to be substantial, far exceeding that of the formal sector of many countries.<sup>23</sup> Informal credit markets provide as much as half of all rural credit and a significant part of urban credit in Asian developing countries,<sup>22</sup> with the share of informal credit in total credit varying from approximately one third to

approximately three quarters.<sup>24</sup> A study, carried out by OECD, estimates that the share of informal credit in total rural credit may range from 30 per cent to more than 80 per cent.<sup>25</sup>

Decentralization of lending can facilitate the screening and monitoring of loans and can reduce the total intermediation costs of the economy, resulting in increased investment efficiency, notably in economies where financial markets have inadequate information systems.<sup>26</sup> The high opportunity cost of investment funds, determined by informal market rates, has kept the efficiency of aggregate investment high in East Asia. This has deterred entrepreneurs from making low-yield investments, even when they had access to cheap bank funds. The development of a dualistic financial system, with the formal sector servicing "full-information" borrowers\* and the informal sector servicing "information-intensive" borrowers,\*\* has helped credit intermediaries to allocate funds to "information-intensive" borrowers more efficiently and at a lower cost than if all resources for investment had been channelled through the banks of the formal sector.

Efficiency in intermediation in the segmented financial market of Taiwan Province of China appears to have been predicated on conditions that not only stimulated the growth and expansion of each segment, but also encouraged development of actual

\*Peter J. Montiel, Pierre-Richard Agenor and Nadeem Ul Haque, *Informal Financial Markets in Developing Countries: A Macroeconomic Analysis* (Oxford, Blackwell, 1993), report one of the survey results, that indicates that lending among firms to ease mutual short-term cash-flow problems in India is estimated to be equivalent to between 13 per cent and 25 per cent of the total amount of bank credit extended to industry.

\*If enough information exists for potential lenders to make an informed decision about lending to a certain enterprise, then that enterprise is known as a full-information borrower.

\*\*If a great deal of information needs to be provided before the risks of lending to a certain enterprise can be evaluated, then that enterprise is known as an information-intensive borrower.

linkages between the segments. First, the Government adopted a deliberate policy to encourage the development of an active informal sector as an efficient adjunct to regulated credit institutions.<sup>26</sup> Secondly, informal lenders have been active in developing innovative instruments for higher-risk projects that enable them to extend loans to borrowers without demanding real assets as collateral. While segments of the financial market were clearly demarcated as far as borrowers were concerned, formal credits were available indirectly through an extensive subcontracting system, whereby larger firms acted as de facto intermediaries, offering on-lending facilities, such as trade credits, to their subcontractors and suppliers. The use of market interlinkage and credit layering has been instrumental in the success of the manufacturing industry, and hence conducive to economic growth.

In other Asian economies, the interlinking of contracts across financial, trade and production transactions and credit layering have been used by informal lenders for risk management purposes in rural areas to improve data collection and contract enforcement. Informal lending operations with two-tier credit layering, involving trader lenders for commodity-based credit and farmer lenders for land-based credit, are used extensively in rural areas of the Philippines.<sup>27</sup> There are also numerous mechanisms by which funds flow between the formal and informal sectors in India, Indonesia, Malaysia, Philippines, Republic of Korea and Thailand.<sup>22</sup> A great deal of trade credit originating in the formal sector is being on-lent informally in those countries. For example, in the Philippines and Thailand, financial wholesalers borrow from the formal sector and retail the credit on an informal basis. In Malaysia and the Philippines, experimental schemes have been established whereby input and output dealers are used to on-lend informally. Such experiences in Asia suggest that market segmentation is not necessarily a sign of market inefficiency, nor is it a cause of inefficient intermediation. It has often served as a mechanism for linking MSEs and large firms and has thus facilitated the upgrading of the former. There is no missing middle ground in the corporate structure of the successful East Asian countries.

### ***The financial market in sub-Saharan Africa is fragmented***

Conditions in sub-Saharan Africa have been quite different from those prevailing in Asia.<sup>20</sup> While the informal sector has a larger share of credit provision and savings mobilization than the formal sector, when links between the different segments are weak, market segmentation and fragmentation have become a problem, severely restricting the flow of price and

policy information across the system.\* The formal and informal sectors often form almost separate financial enclaves. This type of market segmentation is detrimental to the efficient functioning of the financial system. In such an environment, not only is it impossible to overcome the weakness of each sector, but the comparative advantages of different sectors are also not fully exploited to allow efficient specialization to take place. As a result, the potential capacity of the system, as far as the development of enterprises is concerned, remains unused.

Despite large-scale reforms of the private sectors, most banking institutions in sub-Saharan Africa have not yet developed the capacity for risk management. Instead, they continue to operate in an extremely restricted environment, with an underdeveloped infrastructure which does not support the market and a poor information base. Under such conditions, banks have either developed an overcautious policy of asset management, resulting either in a credit squeeze, as in Ghana and Malawi, or a deterioration in their own net worth through imprudent asset management, as in Nigeria and the United Republic of Tanzania. Banks continue to lend mostly to traditional, large, established customers and to avoid lending to MSEs. In spite of liberalization and the attempts to introduce greater financial competition, therefore, it is evident that formal financial instruments have not become more accessible to a wide cross-section of the real economy.

In contrast to the disappointing way in which formal institutions have responded during the period of economic reforms since the early 1980s, the informal financial sector has invariably responded in a dynamic way to the increased demand for financial services and has grown to accommodate it. Certainly, the recent growth of the informal financial sector appears to contradict the theory of parallel markets—according to which the growth of the informal sector is a result of excessive Government control. Instead, informal finance has responded to the growing financial requirements of the informal segment of the real sector, a sector that has been stimulated by the greater trading and commercial opportunities arising in a more liberal political and economic climate.

\*The very nature of informal finance makes it difficult to reach a reliable estimate of the informal finance relative to formal finance. The prevalence of informal finance in countries in sub-Saharan Africa not included in the sample studied by Nissanke and Aryeetey (Machiko Nissanke and Ernst Aryeetey, *Financial Integration and Development in Sub-Saharan Africa*, report prepared for the Africa Technical Department of the World Bank (London, Routledge, forthcoming)) is supported by numerous estimates. According to the African Development Bank in Cameroon, for example, 70 per cent of the population participates in the informal financial sector, and informal sector saving is estimated to be more than 50 per cent of the total saving of the country. It is estimated that over 80 per cent of smallholders in Zimbabwe have access to informal credit, while in Zambia, an estimated 80 per cent or more of the urban population participates in the informal financial sector.

Despite the dynamism displayed by some informal financial units, their liabilities are smaller, being limited to taking deposits either from specific groups of people or in the form of surplus income earned by a lender from other activities. Savings cycles in the informal sector are typically short, with weekly and fortnightly contributions very popular in group schemes operating among traders, market women and other self-employed people. Savings facilities are used primarily to keep deposits secure, and savings are returned to the depositors as soon as possible. Savings mobilization and credit allocation are often separate undertakings in the informal sector. Thus, although the potential of informal units as mobilizers of deposits is well acknowledged, informal units have never been seen to have a key role in financial intermediation in the region. The effective lending rates charged by commercial informal lenders are often too high to allow those funds to be used as a regular source of working capital. While many informal segments have grown in response to the demand for their services, they will face difficulties if they wish to move beyond their particular sphere of specialization.

Clearly both the formal and informal segments of the financial system serve a distinct clientele and a narrow niche in the market. How the boundaries of each specification are demarcated will be determined by the way in which individual lenders address the problems of gaps in information and by the way in which they contain risks and transaction costs. The conflicting information available about lenders that has come to light during the screening of loan applications and the monitoring and enforcement of contracts has led not only to varying perceptions of the risks involved in lending to MSEs, but also to varying transaction costs.

Informal agents are generally more effective at screening small loans. They can often rely on a relatively accurate community information base. In particular, many informal lenders, in attempting to minimize the cost of administering loans, tend to attach more importance to loan screening than to loan monitoring and contract enforcement. This suggests a considerable appreciation by informal lenders of the problems of selecting unsuitable clients during the screening process. The various methods of client selection used by informal lenders effectively reduce the risk of dealing with small borrowers who are considered high-risk by formal lenders. Significantly, the current range of financial products offered by the informal sector does not meet the requirements of small business either. Informal finance is used solely for immediate consumption or, more rarely, as working capital for small owner-operated businesses with few prospects of expansion.

In many respects, informal units enjoy considerable advantages as far as access to information and the costs of transactions are concerned. Financial

systems as a whole, however, have failed to capitalize effectively on those advantages and there has been an absence of functional linkages. Instead, each segment appears to struggle with its individual operational constraints.

Direct institutional linkages, both between and within different segments of financial markets, are rare. There are direct deposit links between banks and informal agents and associations. The savings of informal agents, however, are held in the form of non-interest bearing, on-demand deposits for safe-keeping. They are thus seldom intermediated for investment, because of conservative asset management on the part of the banks.

There are also few direct linkages in credit allocation between banks and traditional informal operators. Indirect market links between the different segments of the financial markets are also weak, and there is an extremely narrow range of overlapping demand for financial services. Neither complementarity nor competition are generally observed in relationships between financial markets in sub-Saharan Africa. De facto financial intermediation, which involves the on-lending of formal funds by large enterprises to smaller subcontractors, has not been observed on anything like the scale found in some Asian countries. This appears to be the result of the limited scope of backward and forward linkages in real sector activities in sub-Saharan Africa. Nor has extensive credit layering in the provision of wholesale and retail services been reported. With few linkages and interactions between segments, the scope for sharing of information has been limited. A mechanism for risk pooling and risk sharing across segments is thus also absent.

As a result, financial units in sub-Saharan Africa specialize in a very narrow range of financial products. Not only, therefore, do financial markets become too fragmented to allow risk-adjusted returns to converge, but considerable gaps in financial services have also emerged. The financing gaps absorb all potential borrowers who either fail to meet the lending criteria of various existing lenders or who find their products unattractive. The group is too large to be financed by informal lenders and, at the same time, too small to interest formal lenders.

The gaps are particularly detrimental to enterprise development in manufacturing industry. If African economies are to change their orientation from trade and commerce towards directly productive investments, improved availability of term funds is desirable. Private investment in many countries suffers from a mismatch between the short-term nature of most deposits and the longer-term requirements for productive investment. There is an identifiable credit gap that particularly affects MSEs. The financial gap in question probably corresponds closely to the "missing middle" discussed extensively in the literature on enterprise development in Africa.

## Government role in increasing finance for microenterprises and small enterprises

Many Governments, recognizing the importance of adequate financing to the development of MSEs, have taken steps to encourage lending institutions to provide credit to MSEs on more liberal terms. Under the most common scheme for the granting of subsidized loans to MSEs, loans are made from a special small-business fund and refinanced by the Central Bank at a very low rate of interest to compensate the lending bank for the high risk and the costs of subsidies involved in making the loan.

One of the results of that policy has been the creation of excess demand for financing. Faced with such a situation, financial institutions have been forced to ration the credit at their disposal, generally in favour of large industries. Subsidized interest rates may also produce overcapitalization and the diversion of credit, and this may contribute to the ineffective use of resources or even the failure of MSEs. Moreover, if concessionary interest rates result in lower interest rates for deposits, they may discourage savings and introduce distortions into the financial system. Governments have thus gradually accepted the need to eliminate subsidized interest rates and there has been a move towards positive, real interest rates in many developing countries. It has become generally accepted, with a few exceptions, that lending to MSEs should be at prevailing commercial rates.

Raising of interest rates, however, has neither stimulated savings nor increased investment efficiency. MSEs in liberalized financial systems continue to remain credit-starved. On the other hand, credit subsidization has had markedly positive effects for several decades in China, Japan, Republic of Korea and Taiwan Province of China. This would suggest that raising or lowering interest rates alone is not enough to stimulate investment in MSEs. What is required is the linking of credit provision to the development of an institutional mechanism to support and monitor the performance of MSEs.

Some countries have tried to overcome the reluctance of commercial banks to lend to MSEs by issuing government directives obliging commercial banks to allot a specific minimum percentage of their lending to small enterprises. In India, for instance, it was directed that 40 per cent of all bank loans should go to designated priority sectors, of which 12.5 per cent were small-scale industries. Other countries have also followed that practice. It is perhaps less well-known that the Republic of Korea required commercial banks to allocate 35 per cent of their incremental loan portfolios to MSEs every year. Other Asian countries, such as Indonesia

and Malaysia, have also issued instructions to commercial banks to direct a fixed percentage of their lending to MSEs or small businesses owned by members of the indigenous population.

The use of mandatory lending quotas, as fixed percentages of the loan portfolio or as absolute amounts, does have some merit, but lending quotas should be judged in the context of the general financial environment and the extent to which the quota system can be monitored. There is always a danger that targeted lending can produce undesirable distortions in the working of the financial sector by preventing banks from obtaining adequate returns on their investments. On the other hand, targeted credit can have outstanding results, as has been the case in China, Republic of Korea and Taiwan Province of China.

There must be some equity stake on risk capital invested by entrepreneurs themselves in their enterprise together, possibly, with capital from other sources. In most lending schemes for small enterprises, loans usually cover not more than approximately 70 per cent of the cost of a project, which means that 30 per cent of the cost will have to be produced as equity by the small business owner.

Apart from the equity provided by the entrepreneur, risk capital is made available in some countries through equity financing organizations or venture capital groups. Venture capital companies have existed in industrialized countries for some time now, particularly in Australia, Canada, Japan, United Kingdom and other western European countries and the United States. Such companies, which generally have minority investments in high-technology projects with high growth potential in the developed countries, carry out very careful screening of ventures before investing.

Providing credit on liberal terms is not, in itself, an adequate form of assistance to MSEs in developing countries. It is essential that any special financing measures, introduced by the Government, be linked to provision of advice, business counselling, training and follow-up services. In that connection, a number of other measures directed towards relieving the financial burden on MSEs have been introduced by Governments, small-industry promotion agencies and major industries, including:

- (a) Development of infrastructure and building of industrial estates to allow rental of workshops to small-scale industrialists;
- (b) Establishment of common service facilities, such as maintenance centres, central tool rooms and training centres;
- (c) Government assistance in marketing the products of MSEs, such as preferential pricing and orderly systems for products manufactured exclusively or partially in the MSE sector;

(d) Government assistance in enabling the bulk import of essential raw materials by State corporations and the distribution of such materials in smaller quantities not only to alleviate the problems associated with imports, especially of small quantities, but also to eliminate the need for stockpiling on the part of MSEs.

Another way of helping may be to encourage non-governmental organizations to act as intermediaries between smaller borrowers and the banks, in an effort to reduce the cost of transactions. Non-governmental organizations themselves, may sometimes become involved in direct lending to small enterprises. Non-financial support provided by non-governmental organizations, or possibly by small-business promotion agencies, financed out of public funds, may sometimes include assistance with the screening of borrowers and improving the supervision of loans. Non-governmental organizations can reduce transaction costs by helping borrowers to prepare business plans and complete loan application forms more fully, which will speed up the approval process of the banks.

### **Special schemes for financing microenterprises and small enterprises: a few examples**

The foregoing sections identified the financial, physical and policy restrictions constituting critical impediments to the development of small enterprises and also outlined some government initiatives in providing financial assistance to MSEs. The section below provides a few examples of special financing schemes for MSEs.

#### ***Malaysia: credit guarantee scheme aimed at reducing risks of lending to microenterprises and small enterprises***

In 1972, as part of the overall strategy of adopting a more proactive approach to development under its New Economic Policy, the Government of Malaysia established the Credit Guarantee Corporation (CGC) and followed this up by issuing specific guidelines requiring commercial banks and finance companies to channel a set proportion of their total outstanding loans to priority sectors, including MSEs (see box 20). The general business sector in Malaysia typically comprises wholesale and retail outlets, small construction firms and hawkers and petty traders.

The guarantee schemes aimed at reducing the risks of lending to MSEs, by sharing any losses with

the lending banks, should a borrower default on a loan. The banks were responsible for processing and evaluating the loan application. Once approved, the application was submitted by the bank to CGC for further evaluation. Penalties were levied on individual banks for non-compliance with targets. The guidelines also incorporated an obligation to assist the indigenous Malay or *bumiputra* community. Since the establishment of CGC, MSEs have accounted for 55 per cent of the total number of loans granted and approximately 30 per cent of the value of loans.

Since 1972, four main facilities have been offered by CGC: the General Guarantee Scheme, which operated from 1972 to 1981; the Special Loan Scheme, which operated from 1981 to 1988; the Principal Guarantee Scheme, which operated from 1989 to 1994; and the New Principal Guarantee Scheme, which has been in operation since 1994.

The introduction of each new scheme has resulted in an increase in the number and value of loans granted, but momentum has not been sustained (see table 33). In 1989, CGC decided to phase out the semi-dominant General Guarantee Scheme and the declining Special Loan Scheme and replace them with the Principal Guarantee Scheme. Compared with previous schemes, the Principal Guarantee Scheme offered support to large firms with net assets or shareholder funds of up to 500,000 ringgit (M\$), a higher limit on credit facilities of M\$ 500,000 and an increased guarantee, typically 70 per cent of the value of the loans, up from 60 per cent in prior schemes.

The interest rate was fixed initially at 1.5 per cent above base lending rate, whereas until 1987, the rates of interest charged on CGC loans were fixed and very low. The new margin more accurately reflected the risks inherent in lending to small and medium-sized enterprises and allowed the banks to earn a reasonable return while meeting the quotas. It is significant that the supply of loans from the Principal Guarantee Scheme slowed down sharply when interest rates were capped at 9 per cent by Bank Negara for most of 1991 and for the first part of 1992. The guarantee premium was set at 0.5 per cent of the guaranteed portion of the facility, compared with 0.5 per cent of the value of the loan under the SLS.

Other schemes operated by CGC since 1986 include schemes aimed at hawkers and petty traders and their trade associations. Since 1986, over 13,000 guarantees to that group have been approved, involving loans with an average value of only M\$ 2,600 amounting to a total of M\$ 59.7 million. While the schemes have been of modest value, they appear to have played a key role in shaping the perceptions of CGC among bankers.

## The role of self-financing in MSEs in Malaysia declines as the firm becomes more established

### Box 20. Sources of funds for Malaysian MSEs

A majority of MSEs used their own funds to provide 50 per cent or more of the capital required to start the business. In approximately 7 per cent of firms, help in providing more than 50 per cent of capital required for start-up was received from friends or relatives. A similar level of assistance was received by only 11.3 per cent of firms from commercial banks and by 1.3 per cent of firms from non-bank financial institutions and government agencies. As MSEs became more established, however, the role of commercial banks as a funding source becomes more important.

Funding sources of MSEs in Malaysia at start-up and in 1985

Funding sources as percentage of total requirements	Initial year of operation (percentage of firms)	1985 (percentage of firms)
Own funds		
Less than 50 per cent	27.1	36.3
50 per cent or more	72.9	63.6
Parents and relatives		
Less than 50 per cent	96.0	99.4
50 per cent or more	4.0	0.6
Friends and acquaintances		
Less than 50 per cent	96.7	100.0
50 per cent or more	3.3	--
Non-bank institutions and Government agencies		
Less than 50 per cent	98.7	99.4
50 per cent or more	1.3	0.6
Commercial banks		
Less than 50 per cent	88.7	75.3
50 per cent or more	11.3	24.2

Source: Saha Dhevan Meyanathan, ed., *Industrial Structures and the Development of Small and Medium Enterprises Linkages: Examples from East Asia*, Economic Development Institute Seminar Series (Washington, D.C., World Bank, 1994).

Note: Number of firms surveyed in initial year of operation: 151; number of firms surveyed in 1985: 162.

A number of problems were associated with the implementation of the scheme, in particular the following:

(a) The partnership between the CGC and the banking system did not work well. From the perspective of the commercial banks, claims procedures under the CGC guarantee cover took several years, the rejection rate of claims was high, and thus the lending to small and medium-sized enterprises remained risky. Approximately half the banks failed to comply with set targets over the two-year period ending March 1993;

(b) The guarantee of CGC, which reduced the risk of the bank, also reduced the incentives for the banks to evaluate, supervise and collect loans in an effective manner. Consequently, banks often monitored the guaranteed loan less thoroughly than normal loans, resulting in more loan failures. Gradually,

because of the high rate of default, banks became sceptical about the guarantee cover provided by CGC;

(c) Being essentially profit-motivated, banks were not, as such, concerned with meeting social objectives. As participation in the scheme was viewed by banks as a social cost, they were reluctant to push lending beyond the required minimum;

(d) The total reliance of CGC on commercial banks resulted in a failure to market the scheme effectively, with the actual clients of the banks knowing little about the CGC schemes.

The poor performance of the CGC scheme in Malaysia clearly demonstrates that both penalties for default and incentives for repayment need to be built into a system operating within a decentralized institutional set-up.

## Performance of Malaysian CGC undermined by problems of implementation

Table 33. CGC number and value of approved loans, 1980-1994

Year	Types of loans							
	GGS (number)	GGS (millions of M\$)	SLS (number)	SLS (millions of M\$)	PGS (number)	PGS (millions of M\$)	New PGS (number)	New PGS (millions of M\$)
1980	6 103	124.3	—	—	—	—	—	—
1981	1 148	25.8	17 161	498.2	—	—	—	—
1982	294	9.7	16 664	519.3	—	—	—	—
1983	236	7.2	10 327	298.3	—	—	—	—
1984	150	4.0	7 841	208.2	—	—	—	—
1985	77	2.7	5 295	140.0	—	—	—	—
1986	40	1.8	4 560	122.5	—	—	—	—
1987	33	1.3	3 346	75.2	—	—	—	—
1988	20	0.7	2 450	49.8	—	—	—	—
1989	5	0.3	1 032	21.4	1 638	78.5	—	—
1990	—	—	—	—	5 641	—	—	—
1991	—	—	—	—	3 349	206.3	—	—
1992	—	—	—	—	2 180	174.7	—	—
1993	—	—	—	—	2 302	205.8	—	—
1994 (2 months)	—	—	—	—	352	32.0	—	—
1994 (10 months)	—	—	—	—	—	—	3 146	530.1

Source: Grahame Boococo and Mohammed Shariff, "Loan guarantee schemes for SMEs—the experience in Malaysia", *Small Enterprise Development*, vol. 7, No. 2 (June 1996).

Note: GGS: General Guarantee Scheme; PGS: Principal Guarantee Scheme; SLS: Special Loan Scheme.

### Indonesia: credit schemes with built-in repayment incentives perform better

The Small Enterprises Development Program or the Credit for Small Investment (Kredit Investasi Kecil)/Permanent Working Capital Scheme (Kredit Modal Kerja Permanent) (KIK/KMKP), launched in Indonesia in 1973, was the major subsidized credit scheme in the country until it was converted into the unsubsidized Small Enterprises Credit Scheme (Kredit Usaha Kecil) (KUK) in January 1990. The aim of KIK/KMKP was to help small, indigenous enterprises, including small enterprises and cottage industries, to obtain subsidized credit for investment and working capital. Eligibility for credit from KIK/KMKP, and also from KUK, was restricted to small firms where at least 75 per cent of the capital was owned by pribumi or indigenous Indonesians, or where at least 50 per cent of the members of the board of management were pribumi Indonesians.

Most of the funds for the KIK/KMKP and KUK schemes came from Bank Indonesia, which also coordinated the implementation of the schemes. Additional funding was provided by the World Bank, while the European Economic Community provided support in the form of training, staff development and other technical assistance. The actual provision of credit was handled through the five State-owned commercial banks of Indonesia, the Indonesia Development Bank, all the regional development banks (Bank Pembangunan Daerah) and 14 private banks

which, during the mid-1980s, had more than 1,000 branch offices throughout Indonesia. The KIK/KMKP and KUK credits were provided not only to small indigenous manufacturing enterprises, but also to small enterprises operating in other sectors, including agriculture, quarrying and mining, construction, transport and commerce.

Within the manufacturing sector, the main target of the KIK/KMKP and KUK schemes were small manufacturing enterprises. Although cottage industries also qualified for the credits, their capital requirements were often too low for them to be able to absorb the size of credits offered under the KIK/KMKP and KUK schemes. A study by the Netherlands Economic Institute indicated that, as far as investment, value added and employment were concerned, the subsidized credit scheme generally yielded favourable results for small enterprises, particularly those operating in the manufacturing sector. A major objective of the KIK/KMKP and KUK scheme, however, was not achieved, namely the generation of a sustainable alternative source of credit for small enterprises, including small manufacturing firms. Problems with arrears and collection of repayments drove the default rate up to approximately 27 per cent, thus endangering the sustainability of the schemes. It was observed that the high default rate and serious collection problems were mainly due to inadequate staff training, unofficial payments, mismanagement of funds, inadequate penalties for default and too few incentives for the bank staff to make the collections.<sup>28</sup>



Another scheme, the Kredit Usaha Pedesaan (KUPEDES) programme, began as a general rural savings programme aimed, like the KIK/KMKP and KUK schemes, at promoting the development of small business. Whereas, under the subsidized KIK/KMKP and KUK schemes, credits were offered at an annualized rate of interest of approximately 12 per cent, under the KUPEDES scheme, credits were offered at the much higher rate of 32 per cent. The KIK/KMKP, KUK and KUPEDES programmes were administered by one of the State-owned commercial banks, Bank Rakyat Indonesia (BRI).

While the KIK/KMKP and KUK schemes had been beset by a high default rate, under the KUPEDES scheme, which had a considerably higher interest rate, loan repayments were collected much more successfully, as indicated by the very low default rate of only 2 per cent to 3 per cent. The superior performance of the KUPEDES scheme, as far as the collection of loan repayments was concerned, can probably be attributed to the more appropriate system of incentives included in the programme. The KUPEDES credits were handled by BRI staff at the subdistrict and village levels, while the KIK/KMKP and KUK schemes were administered by BRI branches at higher local government levels. Although the BRI staff at lower-level branches were, in general, less skilled and less experienced than staff at the higher-level branches, they received a 10 per cent bonus on profits, which may have accounted, to some extent, for the greater success of the KUPEDES scheme. Similarly, the system of penalties instituted under the KUPEDES scheme, whereby the subdistrict or village branches of the BRI were required to absorb the cost of bad loans, could also have accounted for the greater success of the scheme. By way of comparison, under the KIK/KMKP and KUK schemes, 75 per cent of each loan was covered by a State-owned credit insurance company, Indonesian Credit Insurance Ltd., which was established to promote bank lending to small enterprises with insufficient collateral, a practice which led to problems of moral hazard.

### ***Allied Bank of Pakistan: a success story is terminated***

The Allied Bank of Pakistan is the fifth largest commercial bank in Pakistan with assets in excess of US\$ 1 billion. Employees own 51 per cent of the shares of the Bank while 49 per cent of the shares are held by the Government. The Allied Bank of Pakistan is the only employee-owned bank in South Asia.

In 1992, on the personal initiative of the bank president, the Unorganized Sector Financing Scheme was launched. The Scheme had the following characteristics:

(a) Some 14 special credit offices were set up throughout Pakistan with special officers appointed to select small businesses for financing and to monitor and support them throughout the life of the loan;

(b) Financing was to be extended in the form of both long-term credits and working capital for manufacturers and traders that had been in business for at least two years and required finance to upgrade production or expand the business;

(c) Personal guarantees were accepted as collateral and recoveries were made on a quarterly basis;

(d) The Scheme was not subsidized;

(e) Loans, in the range of US\$ 1,500 to US\$ 2,000 per person were provided on a commercial basis and could be extended for from 1 to 5 years;

(f) No credit lines were sought or obtained from the Government of Pakistan, the World Bank or any other agency. The Allied Bank lent entirely from its own funds.

During the period from January 1993 to March 1995 over 1,000 loans had been made. Recovery remained at 100 per cent throughout the period and savings equivalent to 80 per cent of credit were realized under the Scheme. In March 1995, the president of the Allied Bank was dismissed for political reasons. The new management took no interest in the Scheme and it collapsed in 1996.

### ***The Linked Guarantee Programme: an example of a bridge between large and small enterprises in the Republic of Korea***

The Linked Guarantee Programme in the Republic of Korea has come to play an important role in providing capital to small and medium-sized enterprises, and in fostering cooperation between large corporations on the one hand and small and medium-sized enterprises on the other.

The Korea Credit Guarantee Fund (KCGF) was founded on 1 June 1976 in pursuance of the Credit Guarantee Fund Act. The aim of the fund was to make financing more easily available to smaller firms by underwriting the corporate obligations of competitive and well-managed enterprises that did not have sufficient tangible collateral. Capitalization of KCGF is from both Government subsidies and contributions from financial institutions. Among the functions of KCGF are a credit guarantee service and a credit information service, as well as managerial and technical assistance to small and medium-sized enterprises. The most important of those functions is a comprehensive underwriting system on a per transaction or continuous basis of the loans, bonds,

leases, notes and bills of exchange, tax liabilities and executor contracts of mainly small and medium-sized companies. As of the end of 1990, the total capital of KCGF had reached 62 billion won (W) or US\$ 869 million, while the total outstanding liabilities of small and medium-sized enterprises had reached W 5,192 billion or US\$ 7,252 million.

One of the most successful programmes of KCGF is the Linked Guarantee Programme devised in 1984 to develop further cooperation between major manufacturing corporations and small and medium-sized enterprises. An indication of the success of the programme, reflected in the increasing number of clients and guarantees issued between 1986 and 1990 is provided in table 34.

### Rapid growth of the KCGF scheme in the Republic of Korea

Table 34. Linked Guarantee Programme of KCGF (Millions of dollars)

Year	Outstanding guaranteed obligations	Number of borrowers	Number of major manufacturers
End 1986	42	209	6
End 1988	268	1 245	34
End 1990	487	1 756	40

Source: World Association for Small and Medium Enterprises.

It is worth noting that most of the guarantees under the programme have been made without the benefit of joint guarantees on the part of the major manufacturers. Another indicator of the success of the Linked Guarantees Programme is that the default rate of borrowers participating in the programme is less than half the overall default rate of the total obligations guaranteed by KCGF. In the five-year period from 1987 to 1992, the overall default rate of all obligations guaranteed by KCGF was 3.3 per cent, while that of the obligations of the Linked Guarantee Programme was only 1.2 per cent. A similar performance has been noted for the period from 1992 to 1997.

### *Ecuador: financial liberalization directs credit to larger, more efficient firms<sup>29</sup>*

Evidence from Ecuador suggests that the adjustment process, which took place after financial liberalization in 1985, was particularly severe for small firms that produced mainly for the domestic market and benefited from subsidies and protection.

Microenterprises also saw their profits decrease substantially, while medium-sized and large firms fared better.

Until 1985 interest rates in Ecuador were fixed by the Government at a low level, and the real cost of credit was negative. Moreover, subsidized credit, directed to specific groups of small companies or export activities, played a very important role in the economy. Small industry, for example, had access to special subsidized credit lines, such as the Fund for Small Industry and Handicraft, backed by refinancing from the Corporación Financiera Nacional, and the Fondos Financieros, supported by rediscount lines at the Central Bank. Exporting firms had access to cheap credit through the Fund for Export Promotion. The Fund for Small Industry and Handicraft was judged to be a well-administered programme with high rates of collection. Since part of the credit given to microenterprises and small enterprises was at subsidized rates, the average nominal cost of debt to those firms, i.e. the total interest payments divided by the total stock of debt, was 7.5 per cent and 9 per cent of the respective stock of debt of microenterprises and small enterprises, while medium-sized and large firms were paying 10.9 per cent and 15.4 per cent, respectively.

The situation changed significantly after financial liberalization, when there was an overall process of adjustment of the financial structure leading to a reduction of leverage. The adjustment was particularly severe for small firms whose leverage was reduced from 1.403 to 0.883 in the period from 1986 to 1988. The degree of leverage of medium-sized and large firms also substantially decreased. Data suggest that financial resources were redistributed from small and medium-sized firms to large firms. The share of total credit of large firms increased from 57.3 per cent to 67 per cent, that of medium-sized firms fell from 32.4 per cent to 24 per cent and that of microenterprises and small firms dropped from 6.6 per cent to 5.9 per cent and from 3.6 per cent to 2.9 per cent respectively. In the final analysis, it appears that liberalization helped to direct credit to larger, more established, and more efficient firms. Moreover, since information asymmetries remain, credit continues to flow to larger, more established firms that are less likely to suffer from such asymmetries.

### Conclusion

The MSE sector has an important role to play in most developing countries. The growth of the sector strengthens linkages throughout the economy, stimulates employment and improves the pattern of income and asset distribution.

The critical issue is to identify the factors that can ensure the graduation of MSEs into medium-sized enterprises. If that graduation occurs, MSEs are gradually absorbed into the industrial system, developing subcontracting links with major enterprises and benefiting from enterprise-level transfers of technology. If graduation does not occur, the industrial system remains fractured and MSEs basically become a means of averting starvation among the poorer population.

A key restriction on the graduation of MSEs is their lack of access to finance. Here, there is a marked difference between the experience of the countries of East Asia and those of sub-Saharan Africa. In East Asia, the formal and informal financial systems represent different ends of a continuum and are well integrated. Credit layering and financial subcontracting by major manufacturers are common and there is access to credit at realistic rates for the MSE sector. In sub-Saharan Africa, the formal and informal financial sectors are worlds apart. The comparative advantages of the two sectors are not efficiently exploited and MSEs remain credit-starved.

Government policy has an important role to play in stimulating the growth of investment in the MSE sector. Credit subsidization has proved effective in China, Japan, Republic of Korea and Taiwan Province of China. It has failed in many other developing countries and areas. The provision of credit should be linked to the creation of an institutional structure to support and monitor the performance of MSEs. The provision of technological and managerial support, in particular, is crucial.

Over the last two decades, Governments have encouraged the growth of special credit programmes directed at MSEs. Such programmes have been successful in Indonesia and the Republic of Korea. They have increased MSE graduation, promoted inter-enterprise linkages and proved commercially viable and self-sustaining. The case study of the Allied Bank of Pakistan, referred to above, shows, however, that managerial support at the highest level is essential for the success of such special credit programmes.

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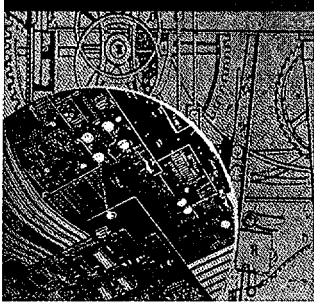
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# 5

## *Government policy in promoting investment*

In most developing countries and economies in transition, a dynamic manufacturing sector is essential for rapid growth in GDP. The sustained growth of the manufacturing capacity of a country depends on three processes that are interlinked. First, new investments, in the form of accumulated human and physical capital, must be directed into industry in an efficient manner. Secondly, savings must grow at a fast enough rate to allow existing capital stock to be replenished and new investments to be financed. Thirdly, dependable and efficient financial institutions must be in place to mobilize savings and put them to productive use in financing activities with an above-average rate of social return.

During the past few decades, Governments of developing countries have worked actively to stimulate investment, especially in import-substituting industries. In recent years, however, a reaction against State intervention in support of investment has been detected in political ideology and also in practical concerns expressed about the effectiveness of such involvement. That reaction partly mirrors the ending of the cold war era and the easing of some of the more repressive aspects of State power, especially in Asia, Latin America and the economies in transition. It also partly reflects a recognition of the impact of the increasing globalization of the international economy and the declining capacity of the State to limit the influence of external factors on domestic investment and economic activity in general.

### **A role for government**

In an increasingly integrated global economy, the sustained expansion of manufacturing investment is likely to be led in most economies by the private sector. Nonetheless, the role of public policy in the growth of investment remains significant. Governments are responsible for economic coordination and for taking the lead in strengthening economic activities that bring wider benefits than those that are simply reflected in the profits of investors. In most

developed countries, the markets play the dominant role in allocating resources, but there is still a role for an interventionist policy that focuses on those sectors of the economy where markets are imperfect, incomplete or absent.

Examples of such market failures are many. Perhaps one of the most important is the absence of information needed to induce private firms to make long-term financial commitments to projects that have potentially high rates of return but that require long gestation periods. Market failures are also evident in the lack of access of small businessmen to institutional credit and the fact that firms lack information about export opportunities and sources of efficient technology. Moreover, the absence of efficient systems for training and human capital development in most developing countries explains the inability of local industry to take full advantage of the services offered by universities and publicly funded training institutes. In all those areas the State has a legitimate policy role to play in support of industry.

Moreover, the market cannot replace the State, nor will a coherent policy be an automatic or spontaneous consequence of the dismantling of interventionism. The private industrial sector needs a regulatory framework and consistent policy support in a growing number of areas where the continued availability of public goods is essential to its future success. That is especially true in the least developed countries where markets are weak or non-existent, as such countries can be easily ignored or dominated by global economic forces. Increasing the capacity of the State to formulate and implement policies to accelerate industrial development should remain a matter of concern, especially as trickle-down of economic growth works only slowly and an appropriate policy intervention can both compensate for market failure and encourage unequal economies to converge. Indeed, new theories on growth suggest that policy factors are a major influence on economic performance.<sup>1</sup>

Successful interventionist policies have usually enhanced growth and prosperity, and have not

produced a negative, restrictive or harmful impact on development. In many economies, the interaction between government policy and industrial dynamism will remain a crucial determinant of capital accumulation. The private sector can commit itself to long-term economic development if the government has the capacity to formulate and implement credible policies and, if necessary, to take on an entrepreneurial role to expand normal production capacity.

### ***Government as entrepreneur***

During the period from 1950 to 1980, there was widespread support for government intervention to promote investment in manufacturing for two main reasons. First, there was a need to alter the internal terms of trade so that resources could be channelled to industry rather than to agriculture. Secondly, credit needed to be directed to specific sectors and subsectors of manufacturing at rates of interest that were below market rates. Such policies were pursued both by the successful East Asian economies and by the less successful economies of Latin America, South Asia and sub-Saharan Africa.

The effects of such policy interventions were usually quite varied. In Latin America, for example, intervention often resulted in excessive restrictions and controls. Such a situation proved to be counter-productive, not only because it resulted in accelerated inflation, but also because it caused worsening patterns of income distribution and falling rates of real human and physical capital accumulation. From 1960 to 1985, macroeconomic volatility is estimated to have reduced the investment rate of the region by five percentage points of GDP relative to the figure that would have been expected had Latin America experienced the same economic volatility as industrialized countries over the same period.

Similarly, in many countries of sub-Saharan Africa, the commercial viability of investment was often ignored both by donor agencies and Governments. Financial institutions failed to mobilize savings into productive use. They did not develop the capacity for risk assessment and monitoring of loan portfolios. The setting of interest rates by Governments also discouraged banks from investing in information technology, so crucial to the development of financial systems.

On the other hand, government intervention in countries of East and South-East Asia led to an impressive rate of growth, supported by high capital accumulation and rapid industrialization. In East Asia, Governments invested in industry through public enterprises, provided subsidized credit to selected enterprises and manipulated intersectoral terms of trade. The crucial difference between the role of the

State in East Asia and other regions of the developing world is that East Asia has been concerned not only with the strengthening and development of the market. For example, in contrast to the macroeconomic distortions frequently prevailing elsewhere in the world, East Asian countries have consistently succeeded in sustaining stable currencies and positive real interest rates, in actively promoting exports and in maintaining a low level of inflation.

More importantly, East Asian countries succeeded in targeting a strategic set of economic activities, the development of which propelled their economies to a higher level. They specialized in activities based on their existing comparative advantage, while developing a capacity to upgrade their international competitiveness. By doing so, they were able to move from specialization in labour-intensive activities to specialization in technology-intensive activities over a relatively short period of time—typically less than one generation.

In the countries of East Asia, government policies have played a major role in the process of capital accumulation by pushing profits well beyond those that could have been attained under free market conditions.<sup>2</sup> Policies were designed and implemented to promote the investment-profits nexus, whereby the dynamic interaction created between profits and investment made profits simultaneously an incentive for investment, a source of investment and a result of investment. Higher investment, in turn, raised profits by enhancing rates of capital utilization and improving the pace of productivity. Thus, incentives to save and invest increased in tandem with the pace of technological progress and the accumulation of profits. In that way, the Asian NIEs were able not only to avoid the pitfalls of non-profit-based investment, practised in the former Soviet Union, but also the phenomenon of profits without investment, practised in parts of Latin America. The quest for profit and the use of profit to accelerate growth in investment is one of the hallmarks of the entrepreneurial State.

Governments in East Asia are often referred to as the ultimate entrepreneurs because of their ability to identify not only sound investment priorities, but also projects built on strategic vision. Those Governments have utilized a wide range of policy instruments to create and sustain a strategic allocation of sectoral resources over a period of time. The objective of such policies has been to create comparative advantages in the light of strategically targeted growth factors. East Asian Governments have often been ready to underwrite the risks associated with investing in new industries during an initial learning phase. The State has thus deliberately reduced investment risks by adopting a policy whereby the Government shared the risks associated with potentially high-return projects.

By applying such policies, the State has changed relative prices to create profitable investment opportunities.<sup>3</sup> To promote productivity, however, the distribution of scarce resources has been linked to an incentive system that is performance-related, with the performance of firms usually being measured by their contribution to the growth of exports. This has not only promoted industrialization, and enabled the economy to catch up more quickly with more advanced industrialized economies, but it has also exposed the firms in question to the free competition of international markets.

### **Government as manager**

While the States of East Asia have proved to be successful entrepreneurs, not all States have the resources required to play such a role. A crucial factor governing State intervention is the capacity of the State to support and influence the processes of industrial development. Policy measures are not the only factors that determine success or failure. In many cases, the outcome and effectiveness of policies depend on the manner and the context in which they were implemented. The environment in which an economic policy is implemented varies enormously from country to country as far as human capital, technological capabilities, the operation of market institutions, the structure of civil and political institutions and the relationship between government and business are concerned. A realistic policy is one that can be implemented smoothly within its own specific macroeconomic environment.

The fact that very few economic policies can be applied in all conditions and in all circumstances should also be taken into account. Policies should be designed in the light of conditions prevailing at the time. In that respect, the high degree of flexibility and adaptability shown by policy makers in the more successful Asian countries is illuminating. Many countries of East and South-East Asia have switched efficiently from a policy of liberalization to reinstating substantial controls in line with changing circumstances and conditions.<sup>4</sup> The experiences of those countries confirm that the appropriateness of intervention depends critically on the capacity of the Government to implement policies successfully. Measures to strengthen public administration should thus be one of the highest priorities in any programme of policy reform.

Priority should be given to the building of institutional and social capacity so that economic policies can be implemented effectively. Weaknesses in capacity may often bring about the implementation of ineffective policies, a situation which always causes more difficulties, more complications and more

expense than problems at the policy design stage. Such a situation results from attempts to implement economic policies amid problems such as political uncertainty, lack of information and conflicts with existing vested interests. Effective implementation, on the other hand, is the result of several factors, in particular the following: government policies backed by social consensus; transparency and fairness in the rules of the economic game; the quality of government policies; and responsiveness and accountability of those actions. Such factors show the importance of improving both the quality and the extent of the participation of the private and public sectors in the design and implementation of economic policy.

While it is relatively easy, when designing policy, to follow trends that have already proved successful, it is much more difficult to follow trends when implementing policy because the consequences of putting it into practice cannot be foreseen. State institutions, for example, may have to resolve the dilemma of how to avoid damaging interference from vested interests. Many Latin American countries, for example, have a long history of populism and extreme social inequality, while newly independent African States have come into being after a populist struggle against colonialism. The system of political patronage and the interests of factional groups have often tended to take precedence over economic rationality both in Latin America and in Africa. Incoming regimes have often been quick to distribute State patronage to supporters in the form of cheap credit, government contracts and exclusive trade licences, rather than expanding the national wealth.

As the opposite extreme, East Asian States were more socially autonomous, and their high rates of economic growth provided early legitimacy for State dominance in the elaboration of economic policy. Rapid growth generated surplus resources in the form of higher corporate savings, which eased the introduction of painful adjustment policies, such as the switch from import substitution to export promotion. In Latin America and Africa, on the other hand, the State bureaucracy rarely had sufficient capacity or legitimacy to manage a shift in its policy of industrial investment. That was achieved only after the destabilization of the macroeconomic environment in the 1980s and the severe debt crisis and inflation that ensued.<sup>5</sup> Even then, State intervention came only when demanded by external multilateral agencies (see box 21).

In an economy with even a moderately developed industrial structure, a series of changes in many components of the economy is required if there is to be a major transformation in the economic structure, whether that be a move away from import substitution to export orientation, or from a

## Only through capital accumulation and investment can Africa boost its growth

### Box 21. Macroeconomic stabilization and industrial development in Africa

Africa has lagged behind in terms of its share both of global MVA and global trade in manufactured goods. While some developing countries in other regions have experienced robust industrial growth and rising exports of manufactured goods, industrialization in Africa, in terms of the contribution of the manufacturing sector to GDP and the level of investment in industry, has generally stagnated or declined.

With the lowest ratio of capital stock to population, Africa has but limited scope for production, and its manufacturing capabilities and degree of diversification are similarly restricted. Only through capital accumulation and investment can Africa boost its capacity for growth, expand its participation in the world economy and reduce its vulnerability to external shocks.

African economies have been undergoing a radical transformation linked to adjustment measures undertaken by African Governments, with significant changes in policy, institutional parameters and resource allocation. The process of change has had a major impact on the conditions governing product markets, domestic factor markets, credit allocation and capital flows, giving rise to various crucial questions that demand attention, including the following:

- (a) To what extent have the changes led to improved efficiency?
- (b) What responses have the policy changes evoked from the supply side?
- (c) What have been the implications for the sectoral allocation of resources and the diversification of manufacturing?

In addition to measures designed to stabilize the macroeconomic environment, several countries have adopted policies for promoting liberalization,

including the restructuring of parastatals, privatization, reforms of the civil service, dismantling of State marketing boards and liberalization of the financial sector. Countries differ in the degree of success achieved in implementing those measures, delays having been experienced in connection with privatization and reform of the civil service. In trade policy, several countries have removed quantitative restrictions and reduced the level of and variation in tariffs.

In most instances, the response from the supply side has been weak, thus demonstrating that constraints on African production are also related to other factors. In the manufacturing sector, the initial result of the changes introduced has been a contraction in MVA. Import competition, the increased cost of borrowing and reduced domestic demand have led to the closure of firms and loss of manufacturing capacity.

The MVA share of GDP declined in most African countries during the period 1980-1994. The higher GDP growth recorded in 1995 and 1996 was mainly due to improved commodity prices, but it has not yet made an impact on the manufacturing sector in most countries of the region. Stabilization packages have been introduced on the assumption that allocative inefficiencies constrain output growth, but that assumption is not sustained by the evidence, at least as far as the manufacturing sector is concerned. In order to accelerate the pace of industrialization in Africa, there is a need for proactive industrial policies designed to stimulate investment and for an incentive system capable of generating and rewarding entrepreneurial talent. Such a need is clearly recognized in the programmes undertaken within the framework of the Alliance for Africa's Industrialization sponsored by UNIDO.

Source: African Development Bank, 1996.

predominantly State-owned industry to privatized industry. Changes are likely to be more effective where they are part of a coherent strategic vision. One of the major features of the fast-growing States of East Asia, compared with other regions of the developing world, at least during the 1960s and 1970s, was the type of relationship that existed between government and business. Officials charged with implementing policy not only enjoyed a degree of autonomy but were also insulated from interest-group politics, a very different state of affairs from

that prevailing in much of Africa and Latin America.\* Semi-autonomous institutions within Government in the Republic of Korea and Taiwan Province of

\*Chalmers Johnson, *MITI and the Japanese Miracle: The Growth of Industrial Policy, 1925-1975 and Late Industrialization* (Stanford, California, Stanford University Press, 1982). Johnson drew particular attention to the autonomy granted to officials in Japan. The analysis is extended to the Republic of Korea and Taiwan Province of China in Chalmers Johnson, "Political institutions and economic development: the business-government relationship in Japan, South Korea and Taiwan" in *The Political Economy of the New Asian Industrialism*, Fred Deyo, ed. (Ithaca, New York, Cornell University Press, 1987).



China, created to coordinate and regulate the developing economic structure, have also helped to keep the implementation of policy focused on growth.

### **Credible policies**

Good policy must be both feasible and credible. If a policy is credible it will be easier to implement. If a policy lacks credibility, especially in economies in transition, the confidence of investors will be undermined. Investors, before making firm commitments, must believe that policies will be implemented effectively and that Governments will abide by their policies. Some aspects of policy reform programmes, therefore, may need to be significantly reassessed, particularly in relation to their pace, sequence and timing. Although the maintenance of macroeconomic stability has long been recognized as important for investment and growth, there is mounting evidence to suggest that such a principle is not yet firmly entrenched in many countries with economies in transition. In Latin America and sub-Saharan Africa, for example, economies undergoing structural adjustments have experienced persistent macroeconomic instability, because of the frequent and sizeable external shocks<sup>6, 7</sup> to the economy that have made it so difficult to put the budget of the public sector on a sound footing.

Increasing instability in the macroeconomic environment and in socio-political conditions is evident in a large number of countries. When measures of stabilization and adjustment are sudden and drastic, there may often be a significant social backlash and even severe economic consequences, at least in the short term. When introduced within proper preparatory measures, liberalization policies, applied in strong doses and in the wrong sequence, have often destabilized economic conditions, and have sometimes proved unsustainable in the medium term. The immediate effects of adjustments that are appropriately sequenced and introduced gradually may be modest. Their objectives however are more realistic and more attainable, as such reform measures avoid the dramatic fluctuations in income and asset distribution that can precipitate political and social unrest. If policy uncertainties are reduced, and the Government also has credibility, the result will be a credible and predictable set of microeconomic incentives that can be expected to last into the near future and thus attract private investors.

### **Policy options: towards investment-led industrial development**

A defined government policy in the economic sphere is important because it establishes the frame-

work within which firms function. At the same time, in an increasingly competitive and globalized world economy, firms must be free to adjust flexibly and efficiently to take advantage of new opportunities. In that context, there are several areas of policy where governments in developing countries and economies in transition can help to shape and sustain an investment climate that is conducive to growth.

### **Macroeconomic and industry-specific policies**

*Macroeconomic policies.* If investment and savings are to be stimulated, the macroeconomic policy of the Government must encourage growth. In particular, reductions in public investment must be avoided, and incentives both to invest and to save must be built into fiscal policies. The sustainable growth of investment also depends on achieving low domestic inflation and stabilizing real exchange rates without imposing a credit squeeze on the public or private sector.

While globalization offers limited choices as far as macroeconomic policy is concerned, there is still scope for channelling funds into activities with a high social rate of return and with the potential to increase productivity, such as subsidizing industrial research and development and financing the development of infrastructure, including the provision of temporary protection for such activities. Macroeconomic policy must be concerned with holding down the price of investment goods, for failure to do so would make it difficult to convert financial capital into physical capital, with important implications for the policy on interest rates. As happened in Argentina, Brazil, Paraguay and Uruguay during the late 1970s and early 1980s, the sudden and nearly complete deregulation of financial markets could have disastrous consequences for the industrial sector. Sustainable macroeconomic policies of expansion are also desirable, since growth in demand has a critical role in stimulating investment. Demand likewise generates domestic savings, as much by raising hopes about the state of the economy as by encouraging income growth.

The aim of macroeconomic policy must be to ensure that the level of output achieved by the economy is commensurate with its potential. Therefore, an increase in capacity utilization becomes a central concern because of the growth in revenue and private savings that such an increase would normally entail. Stimulating output and enhancing the capacity for production involves increasing the level of both foreign exchange holdings and national savings and building up the capacity for deficit financing. Wage-led growth, which is constrained by the existence of surplus labour in a typical developing

country, can be a means of stimulating output if the current level is significantly below capacity. In such cases, the achievement of productivity gains in the form of higher levels of output usually requires expanding exports, as the East Asian experience has shown.

*Technological development.* In the area of technological development, macroeconomic policies can help to attract investment in building up the technological capacity of companies. Policies must be designed to reduce supply-side constraints. Making technological information quickly and cheaply available and facilitating the development of managerial and organizational skills in absorbing new technologies is of considerable importance. Of even greater importance are efforts to upgrade national technological capabilities. At the country level, capabilities can be grouped in the following three strongly interlinked categories: physical investment, human capital and technological effort. If physical capital is accumulated without the skills or technology needed to operate it efficiently, it will not develop adequately; or if formal skills are created but not combined with technological effort, there will be no substantial increase in efficiency. Physical investment is a basic requirement, since, without plant and equipment, industry could not exist, but it is the efficiency with which the capital is utilized that is crucial.

In the 1970s and 1980s, it was common for Governments of developing countries to pass complex laws and regulations to control the terms under which technology transfers took place. While the screening of contractual agreements may have led to improved licensing conditions and prevented the abuse of royalty fees as a transfer pricing mechanism, such attempts at control ignored the dynamics of investor strategies. Furthermore, the policies applied rarely took into account the capacity of the workforce to assimilate new technology. At present, the emphasis of policy has become more realistic, the focus being on the effective transfer of technology through the development of highly trained manpower and advanced infrastructure with the capacity to absorb and use new technology, those assets being made available to investors, both local and foreign. The key policy issue is to ensure that technology is used as efficiently as possible, rather than controlling the flow of technology transfer. Clearly the absorption capacity of different economies varies considerably; policies must be based on a realistic assessment of that capacity and of how it can be developed at least cost.

In general terms, policy instruments that are designed to encourage technology transfer do so by creating an attractive investment environment, for which the following three essential elements are required:

(a) Educational and training institutions for developing a local workforce with the appropriate professional and technical skills;

(b) A general business environment that rewards risk-taking and innovation, including supportive financial institutions, regulatory procedures for testing new products and manufacturing facilities and strong linkages between universities and enterprises;

(c) A legal and regulatory infrastructure that protects intellectual property rights.

Government initiatives such as the provision of factory and laboratory infrastructure before start-up and the creation of specialized agencies to foster linkages between firms and educational and scientific institutions can be very successful, provided adequate resources are available. For example, during the 1970s and 1980s, the former Scottish Development Agency conducted very successful promotion campaigns in the United States and Japan, coupled with generous financial incentives, to attract investment by foreign electronics companies. Malaysia, Republic of Korea and Singapore have established science parks to attract advanced research and production facilities by providing links with public research centres as well as fostering linkages between local firms and foreign affiliates. Since not all countries have the necessary resources, government initiatives must be well focused and their feasibility carefully studied. A regional initiative based on the pooling of scarce resources could make a significant impact. The Bolivar Programme for Industrial Technological Integration, Innovation and Industrial Competitiveness, for example, is financed by the Inter-American Development Bank.

*Development of human capital.* High rates of growth and investment are dependent on the efficiency with which capital is deployed. As the World Bank notes with respect to the high-performing Asian economies, "between 60 and 90 per cent of their output growth derives from accumulation of physical and human capital. Productivity change has been higher than in other developing economies and is important to the East Asian success story. But it is not the dominant factor".<sup>8</sup> The key factor has been the efficient combination of human and physical capital that drives capital accumulation and growth. Foreign investors possess specific skills in developing that combination under the appropriate initial conditions, including the existence, in particular, of a local workforce with pre-employment education matching the needs of foreign investors.

The development of human technological capabilities requires investment both in general education, which is especially important at early levels of industrialization and for least developed countries, and in technical training, including on-the-job

training. However, rapid rates of technological change and increases in complexity and specialization mean that public education can only aim at meeting the general training needs of manufacturing industry. More specialized on-the-job training must be promoted by enterprises on the basis of a more flexible division of labour between the public and the private sector, including the opening-up of training facilities in the private sector to local enterprises, so that state-of-the-art skills can be passed on to local suppliers and consumers. By building linkages with local firms, foreign investors will be able to improve the efficiency of the local supply network, while the domestic economy will benefit from the assimilation of both modern management practices and technology. An increase in technological capabilities requires the use of financial resources that can be generated through the development of an efficient system of financial intermediation.

### **Financial policies**

*Impact of financial liberalization.* During the 1980s and 1990s, Governments of developing countries have come under strong economic and political pressure to liberalize financial markets. International financial institutions have been especially active in seeking to reduce the role of government in credit allocation and to open financial markets to greater foreign participation. The agreements reached in 1994 in the Uruguay Round of multilateral trade negotiations in GATT envisaged the phasing-out of

all trade-related investment measures by 2000 in developing countries.\* The internationalization of financial markets in some developing countries has led to a spectacular increase in foreign portfolio investment, although that trend has not been without its attendant problems, most notably in Mexico during the period 1994-1995. In most other countries, progress has been gradual, halting and at times chaotic or inappropriate. Chile was one of the first countries to undertake sweeping experiments in liberalization, but it was nearly disastrous to initiate such a process before the Chilean economic miracle of the 1980s (see box 22).

Financial liberalization in least developed countries has usually not had a positive impact on the market for long-term loans. Interest rates have gone up without a noticeable increase in domestic savings or in the efficiency of investment allocation. The imposition of prudential regulations on the financial sector often makes long-term lending an unattractive option for commercial banks. Development finance institutions in many countries, especially poorer African countries, have all but collapsed under the weight of portfolios containing a large share of bad debts. The auctioning of government debt has driven up interest rates and reduced the amount of finance available for corporate investment.

Even in the apparently successful Asian countries, the results of financial liberalization have been disappointing. It has been argued that financial reform,

\*Least developed countries have an additional two years to phase out those restrictions.

## **Initial stage of financial liberalization in Chile resulted in a near disaster**

### **Box 22. Financial liberalization in Chile**

The process of financial liberalization is fraught with dangers. Perhaps the best-known example of a liberalization programme that nearly resulted in economic disaster was the reform programme introduced in Chile during the period 1974-1975. The reformers failed to take steps to control the potential increase in the concentration of both industry and finance and, in particular, to prevent the formation of large conglomerates with integrated financial and manufacturing activities. Instead, the privatization of the banking sector decreed by the Government in 1975 created an opportunity for the emergence of a new set of conglomerates spanning both manufacturing and the financial services sector. When interest rates were liberalized, manufacturing concerns brought pressure to bear on affiliated banks to obtain credit, which was then used to speculate on real estate and stock prices. Portfolios of bank loans became increasingly concentrated in related companies. Transactions on capital accounts were also progressively liberalized under the government programme. When speculative investments began to fail, non-performing loans built up very rapidly, and the whole banking system verged on collapse. The Government then had to step in during the crisis of 1982 to renationalize companies and refinance insolvent banks. Unusually, and in contrast to conditions in many poorer developing countries, the Chilean authorities had the regulatory capacity to prevent the banking crisis, but chose not to do so primarily for radical, free-market ideological reasons. Despite the debt crisis and the short-term introduction of controls on external financial transactions, the authorities were subsequently able to stimulate a more broadly based export boom.

whether comprehensive and sweeping or measured and gradual, does not seem to have made any significant difference to savings and investment in the liberalized economies.<sup>9</sup> Liberalization, in the form of increased competitiveness of the banking system, has delivered no discernible benefits, neither through the availability of long-term finance and credit, nor through the reduction of intermediation costs. Furthermore, the quality of bank portfolios has uniformly deteriorated and the proportion of non-performing loans has risen because of high and volatile interest rates in relation to real returns on capital.

Indeed, it has become increasingly clear that financial liberalization will not be sufficient on its own to promote development of the financial sector and economic growth.<sup>10</sup> Efficient markets and financial institutions are needed, and policies to strengthen institutions and markets must be an integral part of the development of the financial sector. Moreover, much recent literature on financial systems questions the wisdom of liberalization itself. Deregulation of the financial system can be successful only in countries that have achieved a high degree of fiscal discipline, low inflation and macroeconomic stability.<sup>11</sup> In the case of Latin American countries, financial liberalization in the face of a poor fiscal position continues to be a major factor in accelerating inflation and instability.<sup>12</sup>

A consensus has emerged that macroeconomic stability and adequate financial supervision and regulation is necessary for successful liberalization.<sup>13</sup> In addition, liberalization programmes need realistic timetables, within which financial reform can be designed. Recent literature points to the need for careful planning of the sequence and timing of financial liberalization, as well as to the importance of its coordination with macroeconomic conditions and other stabilization and adjustment policies. Thus, it can be argued that financial reforms should encompass wide-ranging measures of institution-building in both financial and non-financial sectors, before embarking upon, or in parallel to, a shift from a policy of restriction to one of liberalization of the financial market.

*Areas for government intervention.* Policy intervention in financial markets remains important because liberalization measures have depressed domestic savings and failed to stimulate private investment. The key issue regarding intervention concerns the proper role of government in influencing the allocation of funds for investment. In the liberalization process, credits directed to priority projects have been drastically reduced. There are two reasons, however, one theoretical and the other empirical, why it may be inappropriate to dismiss the case for directed credit completely. On theoretical grounds, it has been pointed out that even in a liberalized

financial market, banks or other financial institutions will still ration funds administratively among potential borrowers, rather than simply raise interest rates until supply and demand for credit are equal. Because of a lack of information, banks cannot know the true probability of loans being repaid; they therefore form judgements based on the security and creditworthiness of borrowers and allocate funds accordingly. Thus, there is the possibility that projects with high risks, but potentially high economic returns, will not be financed.<sup>14</sup> If banks are unwilling to fund relatively risky but high-return projects, then the theoretical case for intervention to direct credit to priority areas should be reconsidered.

There is strong evidence that directed credit has worked effectively in the East Asian context, primarily in Japan, Republic of Korea and Taiwan Province of China, where Governments used the financial system to restructure the manufacturing sector in favour of technologically dynamic, export-oriented activities.<sup>8</sup> In those economies, Governments helped to create financial markets and institutions, closely regulated them and directed credit to some industries and away from others. Scarce credits were often modestly subsidized and awarded for good export performance, for example, through fiscal incentives.<sup>15</sup> The establishment of financial regulations and the subsidizing of credit proved powerful stimuli for investment in manufacturing industry. Those economies achieved strong financial growth, indicating a significant real flow of domestic funds as loans for new investment. One of the consequences was that the cost of investment goods to manufacturing industry was low compared with the cost in other developing countries. Some of the distinctive features of directed credit in those economies suggest how such a system should be applied.

Another important government initiative in financial policy consists in supporting the development of the banking system and of financial intermediation, thus stimulating growth of the capital market. Successful bond and stock markets depend on a well-established banking system. The initial concern must be with the integration of formal and informal financial sectors, as well as with the achievement of a significant increase in the size of the average bank in order for large economies of scale to exist in the banking industry. The development and expansion of the banking system should not, however, be at the cost of the regulatory framework. The accumulation of uncollectible debt in several African and Latin American countries has been the principle cause of the collapse of long-term lending institutions. Financial regulations can be effective only if they are supported by an adequate legal framework for ensuring contract compliance and recovery.

A closer relationship between financiers and industrialists can sometimes be an efficient means of

self-regulation of the system of industrial financing. Such a relationship can take the form of universal banking, developed in Belgium and Germany, or the main banking system developed in Japan (see box 23). The essence of both systems is the presence of financiers on the boards of industrial companies and their participation in corporate decision-making. Such arrangements have often proved to offer a more appropriate institutional framework for industrial financing than the "arms-length" Anglo-Saxon model.<sup>16</sup>

While the banking sector has been facing difficulties, capital markets have experienced rapid growth in several developing countries in Africa, Asia and Latin America. For instance, there has been very rapid growth of portfolio investment in some countries, and the development of a sound public policy with respect to growth of capital markets is clearly required.<sup>17</sup> Meanwhile, inefficiency is typically high in emerging markets, and auditing disclosure requirements have in some cases been less than satisfactory.<sup>18</sup> Despite such inefficiencies, capital controls are being dismantled, making the management policies applied to reserves and interest rates more difficult. Liberalization is depressing domestic savings and increasing investment volatility in developing countries.<sup>19</sup> Improving the efficiency of capital markets should, therefore, be a key concern for liberalizing Governments. Measures for increasing efficiency in the operation of the capital market include the following:

- (a) Increasing the information available to the corporate sector;
- (b) Developing a system of incentives for increasing market liquidity, especially for shares in small companies;
- (c) Improving the efficiency of settlements and registration;

(d) Improving the enforcement capacity of regulatory agencies;

(e) Protection of the interests of shareholders;

(f) Ensuring harmony and consistency of taxation policies relevant to the capital market.

While the development of capital markets is advantageous, it does not ensure that costs associated with financial liberalization can be fully offset by improving the efficiency of money and capital markets. The case for restricting and directing foreign capital flows to desired sectors and firms has been borne out by the cautious policy of the Republic of Korea towards foreign investment. This has been an important factor in enabling it to avoid investment volatility and foreign exchange crises.

Another important disjunction in financial systems, especially in developing countries, is the lack of integration between formal and informal markets. The vast majority of microenterprises remain credit-starved and fail to graduate to the level of medium-scale enterprises, since they have no access to capital markets or to financial institutions. Their development into formal, middle-sized status is critically constrained by the absence of institutional finance. Promoting the integration of the formal and informal financial sector and encouraging competitiveness among institutions operating at the lower end of financial markets should be a major aim of government policy in sub-Saharan Africa. Equally important are measures to stimulate savings at the microenterprise level and the absorption of those savings into productive manufacturing investment. A critical weakness of micro-credit schemes such as that of the Grameen Bank discussed in chapter 4 is their overdependence on subsidies. Policies can be developed to phase out subsidies and introduce a fully commercialized, self-reliant credit programme.<sup>20</sup>

### State support of the main banking system is extensive in Japan

#### Box 23. Main banking system of Japan

The main banking system played a role of crucial importance to investment growth in Japan by creating mechanisms for maturity transformation and mobilization of long-term finance. State support to the main banking system was extensive, and the State closely monitored its performance. Public institutions offered technical support and information. The sharing of risk between banks, firms and public institutions was also common, playing a vital part in capital accumulation and the growth of long-term investment.<sup>a</sup> The growth of systems of universal banking and main banking can be particularly effective in less developed countries, such as those in sub-Saharan Africa, characterized by a mismatch between the liquidity position of banks and maturity structures required by investors. In such a situation, banks have excess liquidity, but the institutional structure for lending on a long-term basis has collapsed. In the absence of a functional inter-bank market, the risk associated with long-term loans becomes excessive.

<sup>a</sup>C. Mayer, "New issues in corporate finance", *European Economic Review*, vol. 32 (1988), pp. 1167-1189.

### **Foreign investment policies**

Governments also have an important role to play in stimulating foreign investment inflows and in utilizing such investment efficiently. Political stability, a macroeconomic environment conducive to development of the private sector and a potential for economic growth are vital for attracting stable, long-term foreign investment. While effective policies in the host country are a necessary precondition for attracting foreign capital inflows, such policies may not be sufficient. The most important determinants of foreign investment appear to be individual investors, who are largely beyond the control of the host Government. Nevertheless, an improved macroeconomic framework and, consequently, the increased creditworthiness of the host country have an important influence on the decisions of investors regarding the location and size of their overseas investment.

Foreign investment comes in many forms and the needs of investors vary significantly. The priorities of a transnational corporation establishing a new manufacturing facility on a greenfield site are likely to be substantially different from those of an investor taking over an existing venture. If a local partner in a joint venture is involved, the need for assistance in negotiating with the State bureaucracy will be substantially reduced. Establishing a full-scale manufacturing plant is more complex than establishing a plant that assembles products using imported components.

While, on average, the overseas subsidiaries of transnational corporations often outperform local rivals, national agencies for the promotion of foreign investment should still scrutinize all proposals. At any given time, only a limited number of foreign investments are likely to offer good products and technology promoted by competent managers and entrepreneurs. Since the wider spillover benefits to be obtained through linkages with local suppliers, distributors and customers take time to materialize, it is important to attract investors with a strong home market position and a cash flow sufficient to support the new investment. Likewise, any benefits from improvements in the efficiency of competitor domestic firms only emerge over time. Evidence of a well-established international customer base, experience in undertaking new overseas investment and a focused management approach to international operations should all be taken into consideration in negotiating with foreign investors. Government authorities should also seek independent evidence as to the financial status and integrity of foreign investors.

Perhaps of greatest concern to policy makers in developing countries is the creation of a business environment in which the positive effects of technology transfer and the benefits of other intangibles

such as modern management systems—including marketing, accounting and quality assurance systems—are efficiently transferred. Without those inputs and the resulting productivity growth, opportunities to invest in the domestic market will be reduced, with a concomitant outflow of dividends. Moreover, without a minimum threshold of human capital and efficient infrastructure, together with an economic policy conducive to growth and a regulatory framework that makes the cost of doing business internationally competitive, FDI is unlikely to be beneficial to the domestic economy.\*

Host countries can introduce specific policy measures to foster FDI inflows and thus to strengthen their competitiveness. Internationalization of corporate investment, accompanied by rapid technological change, demands substantial investment by the host country in economic infrastructure, especially transport and communications. Host countries should encourage training in order to ensure a sufficient supply of qualified workers, for which there is a growing demand among companies operating internationally. In that context, a flexible labour market, based on an appropriate policy concerning the employment of expatriates, is important. Provision should also be made for the establishment of an infrastructure linking the public and the private sector in research and education, thus making the country attractive for knowledge-intensive, high-value-added industries.

Besides the macroeconomic environment, legal, foreign exchange, regulatory and institutional issues are crucial factors affecting foreign capital inflows, particularly FDI. As a general rule, FDI is aided by a legal system that provides enterprises with sufficient freedom to operate and develop activities, subject to certain well-defined and transparent regulations. The system should ensure equal treatment for foreign investors and provide for free transfer of profits and dividends as well as free repatriation of capital. Protection against expropriation is another major concern of foreign investors. They should be able to expect that expropriation would occur only in accordance with clearly defined legal procedures, without discrimination and against payment of appropriate compensation reflecting market values.

Experience shows that liberalization of the financial sector and a foreign exchange regime that affords ready access to foreign exchange tend to promote FDI inflows. FDI can also be stimulated by policy measures aimed at reducing institutional

\*The composition of FDI flows to developing countries is strongly biased towards manufacturing. That is due partly to the comparative advantage of manufacturing, but it also reflects the considerable levels of protection in the service sector. Barriers remain particularly strong in banking and financial services, notably in many rapidly industrializing East Asian economies likely to benefit most from deregulated and competitive financial markets.

problems ranging from overbureaucratic operational procedures to the presence of too many uncoordinated regulatory institutions. On the other hand, special FDI incentives, such as tax concessions, investment allowances and subsidized credits have often proved to be unnecessary for attracting FDI, since they may make it more difficult for the host country to achieve other development objectives.<sup>21</sup>

Other policy measures that Governments of host countries can take to stimulate FDI inflow include treaties for bilateral investment protection and avoidance of double taxation, as well as improvement of programmes of investment promotion for the country as a whole. Investment incentives must also be carefully targeted.

If a country or region is to avoid a waste of resources in investment promotion (see box 24), it is essential that the responsible agency should analyse the investment decision-making processes of potential foreign investors and target promotional efforts accordingly. That is most likely to be effective where a firm is already considering making an investment in a particular region of the world.<sup>22</sup> The choice of region is determined by the internal decision-making processes of transnational corporations and their assessment of their strategic objectives. Investors share similar concerns with domestic enterprises and seek similar objectives, including long-term shareholder profits, increased market share, prospects for market growth, freedom to make investment decisions commensurate with business priorities and security in the local community. It is highly unlikely that a country will be able to persuade a transnational corporation to consider making an investment without prior strategic analysis. Therefore, national investment promotion agencies need to carry out careful research to identify what kinds of firms are likely candidates and what types of investment they will bring. In many cases, especially in the economies in transition, the objective may be to

encourage foreign companies to participate as strategic investors in the privatization of former State-owned enterprises.

It must be stressed that a heavy dependence on foreign capital inflows entails service costs. Liberalization of the financial market at the global level means that when local banks choose to borrow heavily abroad to lend in the domestic market they are directly exposed both to foreign exchange risks and to the commercial risks associated with lending in the domestic market. If it is in a single direction, the cumulative risk may be considerable, so that a sudden shift in the domestic economy can produce potentially catastrophic consequences, as occurred in Chile in 1982. While access to foreign markets gives Governments, banks and private enterprises a greater range of instruments for investment and risk management, it also opens up potentially larger systemic risks.

It is easy enough to advise countries and individual investors, that as they become more closely integrated into global capital markets, they must learn to manage international market risks. Unfortunately, learning the hard way about the relationship between risk and investment yield can be a costly exercise if a substantial portion of the national assets of a country are involved. Governments have a responsibility to oversee capital flows where financial markets are still maturing, in order to help manage the exposure of a country to external markets and forestall the threat of systemic crises.<sup>23</sup>

### ***Development of market-supporting infrastructure***

Of crucial importance both for attracting foreign capital inflows and for stimulating domestic savings and investment is the development of market infrastructure. Many problems facing developing

## **Promoting a favourable image is an important step in investment promotion activities**

### **Box 24. Three main types of investment promotion activities**

Investment promotion activities can be divided into the following three main types:

- (a) Promoting the image of a country within the investment community;
- (b) Attracting investment directly;
- (c) Providing supporting services to prospective and current investors.

Developing a promotion strategy for foreign investment must take into account the decision-making processes of prospective investors. First, an investor develops a generally favourable image of a particular country or region, often influenced by the activities of competitor firms. Few companies are first movers. Then, the investor begins actively to appraise the investment and, finally, is assisted by the host Government in bringing the investment to fruition.

countries and economies in transition in their attempts to attract private investment stem from weaknesses inherent in market-supporting infrastructure. For example, the inadequacy of institutions that support the financial system, such as the legal infrastructure, affects the costs and risks associated with the enforcement of contracts. In turn, the ease with which contracts can be enforced influences both the willingness of lenders to enter into financial agreements and the type of security they are willing to accept. Where the legal system is weak, it is common for formal lenders to insist on a clear title to landed property or other assets for collateral. In addition, the ability of the financial sector to offset the risk of default will be limited by the absence of a well-functioning insurance market and by the absence of markets for the sale of confiscated collateral. Thus, in low-income countries, the need for collateral may exclude many otherwise creditworthy small-scale borrowers, especially where land tenure is not legally explicit.

Problems arising from the lack of economic information are also likely to be very pronounced in low-income countries. If such information is scarce, and information-gathering costly, the information gap between would-be borrowers and potential lenders becomes severe. Paucity of information in developing countries can precipitate market segmentation by increasing the cost of acquiring reliable information on both systemic and non-systemic risks for formal institutions. Informal financial agents are forced to rely on localized and personalized information, which hinders their development into full-scale intermediaries.

Inadequate bank regulation and supervision has propagated financial mismanagement and poor portfolio performance, which may raise the perceived risk for term lending to small enterprises. In such a situation, reforms of the financial sector can influence banks to overcome management weakness and to diversify portfolios, but the response may be slow.

All the above-mentioned factors in combination have given rise to structural bottlenecks impeding the efficient functioning of financial markets in many low-income countries. Inadequate market-support infrastructure has discouraged innovation and perpetuated the internal shortcomings of financial institutions. Even when there is no ceiling on interest rates or excess demand for loans, it may not be viable to lend to certain categories of borrowers, such as microenterprises and small and medium-sized enterprises, if costs and risks exceed those for known, lower-risk clients. In such situations, information about future prospects may be highly uncertain, especially if the economic structure is vulnerable to external shocks. In the absence of credible predictions, reliable information and appropriate financial

instruments, perceived risk may be abnormally high for term lending, especially to small-scale borrowers.

Therefore, a fundamental long-term institutional need is to strengthen market-supporting infrastructure. Enhancing the information capital base would reduce the cost of acquiring reliable information on risks for credit assessment. That can be achieved by the following means:

- (a) Developing a general economy-wide information network;
- (b) Increasing the transparency of public institutions as well as listed companies, at both national and local levels;
- (c) Developing agreed accounting and auditing systems and financial markets.

Establishing and strengthening the legal infrastructure is another critical requirement for the efficient functioning of market-based economies. A sound legal infrastructure lowers the costs and risks associated with contract enforcement, thereby reducing the risk perception of lenders and the premium for external finance. That could, in the long run, encourage formal financial institutions to lend to dynamic microenterprises and small and medium-sized enterprises. Such measures would involve, for example, the legalization of property and contract rights as well as the introduction of special commercial laws and enforcement mechanisms. Commercial law should delineate the rights, responsibilities and nature of liability for firms, managers and shareholders. Enforcement institutions such as courts should be autonomous, removed from political influence, empowered to enforce the law and capable of carrying out sanctions.<sup>24</sup>

Finally, recent empirical studies emphasize the strong complementarity between, on the one hand, public investment in basic infrastructure such as ports, roads, telecommunications and human capital and, on the other hand, private investment and output growth (see chapter 1).<sup>25</sup> Stabilization policies requiring a contraction in aggregate demand should not involve deep reductions in public investment, for such reductions would jeopardize the above-mentioned complementarity and impede economic development and the industrialization process.

## Conclusion

In an era in which manufacturing resources and capabilities are becoming more dispersed and the power of Governments to influence the locational decisions of enterprises is declining, it is difficult to assign a definitive role to the State in promoting investment in manufacturing. The health of the



financial system is crucial to guaranteeing efficient allocation of available resources. However, liberalizing the financial sector too early can have disastrous consequences. Inadequate banking reforms that leave banks undercapitalized, with poorly managed and weakly performing loan portfolios and staff unable to assess commercial risk, can threaten the stability of the entire financial system. A strong system of banking supervision is essential, as well as the creation of effective institutions to regulate financial markets.

The East Asian experience suggests that if the fundamentals are right and the State plays an entrepreneurial role, the prospects for growth are favourable. In particular, shifting the allocation of domestic resources from consumption to savings and investment ought to be the most important policy objective of Governments that wish to raise standards of living as well as rates of economic growth, productivity and technological innovation. Higher productivity growth and technological innovation will generate more resources for financing industrial restructuring and vocational retraining, thereby increasing political support for economic liberalization.

At the same time, it is of the utmost importance to bear in mind that there is no single optimal policy stance that is applicable to all countries at all levels of development. A simple replication of policies that have worked well in specific conditions in one country or another may not create the same results in others. Each developing country has its own circumstances, experiences, institutions and history, which should be taken into account in designing its macro-economic and financial systems, its institutional framework and its industrial policy regimes.

## Notes

<sup>1</sup>G. Mankiw, *The Growth of Nature*, Brookings Paper No. 1 (Brookings Institution, Washington, D.C., 1995), pp. 275-325.

<sup>2</sup>Yilmaz Akyuz and Charles Gore, "The investment-profits nexus in East Asian industrialization", *World Development*, vol. 24, No. 3 (1996), pp. 461-470.

<sup>3</sup>Alice Amsden, *Asia's Next Giant: South Korea and Late Industrialization* (New York, Oxford University Press, 1989).

<sup>4</sup>David C. Cole and James S. Duesenberry, "Financial Systems", in *Development in Asia and Africa: Legacies and Opportunities*, D. L. Lindauer and M. Roemer, eds. (Cambridge, Massachusetts, Harvard University Press, 1994).

<sup>5</sup>F. G. Adams and I. Davis, "The role of policy in economic development: comparisons of the East and Southeast Asian and Latin American experience", *Asian-Pacific Economic Literature*, vol. 8 (1994).

<sup>6</sup>Gabriel Palma, *Whatever Happened to Latin America's Savings? Comparing Latin American and East-Asian*

*Savings Performances*, UNCTAD Study Paper No. 6 (Geneva, UNCTAD, 1996).

<sup>7</sup>Machiko Nissanke and Ernest Aryeetey, *Financial Integration and Development in Sub-Saharan Africa*, report prepared for the Africa Technical Department of the World Bank (Washington, D.C., World Bank, 1995).

<sup>8</sup>World Bank, *The East Asian Miracle: Economic Growth and Public Policy*, World Bank Policy Research Report (Washington, D.C., 1993).

<sup>9</sup>Cho Yoon Je and Deena Khatkhate, *Lessons of Financial Liberalization in Asia: Comparative Study*, World Bank Discussion Papers (Washington, D.C., 1989).

<sup>10</sup>Paul Collier and Colin Mayer, "The assessment: financial liberalization, financial systems, and economic growth", *Oxford Review of Economic Policy*, vol. 5, No. 4 (1989).

<sup>11</sup>Joaquin Cottani and Domingo Cavallo, "Financial reform and liberalization", in *Policymaking in the Open Economy*, EDI Series in Economic Development, Rudiger Dornbusch, ed. (New York, Oxford University Press for the World Bank, 1993).

<sup>12</sup>Rudiger Dornbusch and Alejandro Reynoso, "Financial reform and liberalization" in Rudiger Dornbusch ed. *Policymaking in the Open Economy: Concepts and Case Studies in Economic Performance*, EDI Series in Economic Development (New York, Oxford University Press for the World Bank, 1993).

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<sup>14</sup>Joseph Stiglitz and Andrew Weiss, "Credit rationing in markets with imperfect information", *American Economic Review*, vol. 71, No. 3 (1981).

<sup>15</sup>Joseph Stiglitz and Marilou Uy, "Financial markets, public policy, and the East Asian miracle", *World Bank Research Observer* (August 1996), pp. 248-276.

<sup>16</sup>R. Levine and S. Zerves, *Capital Control Liberalization and Stock Market Development*, World Bank Research Paper No. 1622 (Washington, D.C., World Bank, 1996).

<sup>17</sup>A. Singh, *Corporate Financial Patterns in Industrializing Economies*, International Finance Corporation Technology Paper No. 2 (Washington, D.C., International Finance Corporation, 1995).

<sup>18</sup>Stiglitz and Weiss, loc. cit.

<sup>19</sup>C. Harvey, "The risk exposure of emerging equity markets", *World Bank Economic Review*, vol. 9 (1995), pp. 19-50.

<sup>20</sup>J. A. Ansari, "Outline of a microenterprise credit programme for Pakistan", *Journal of the Institute of Bankers in Pakistan*, vol. 17, No. 2 (1994), pp. 73-104.

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<sup>22</sup>L. T. Wells and A. G. Wint, *Marketing a Country: Promotion as a Tool for Attracting Foreign Investment*, International Finance Corporation Occasional Paper No. 1 (Washington, D.C., International Finance Corporation, 1990).

<sup>23</sup>World Bank, *Managing Capital Flows in East Asia* (Washington, D.C., 1996).

<sup>24</sup>Hans J. Blommestein and Michael G. Spencer, *The Role of Financial Institutions in the Transition to a Market Economy* (Washington, D.C., International Monetary Fund, 1993).

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# STATISTICAL ANNEX:

## *world industry development indicators*

### Technical notes

1. The sources for the country tables contained in the present annex are as follows:

(a) UNIDO consolidated database of industrial statistics;

(b) National accounts statistics from the United Nations Statistics Division (UNSD) (all entries followed by <sup>na</sup>) supplemented by other sources (listed in note 9 below);

(c) Population figures from United Nations demographic statistics and the *United Nations Monthly Bulletin of Statistics*;

(d) Estimates of GDP and MVA by UNIDO, Studies and Research Branch, MVA having been based on national accounts statistics for 28 industrial sectors.

2. All values are in millions of United States dollars at current prices, except where otherwise indicated. Official exchange rates have been applied in general to generate dollar values. For selected countries and periods a correction factor was calculated to compensate for temporary overvaluation of the national currency (Afghanistan, Argentina, Brazil, Chile, Dominican Republic, El Salvador, Egypt, Ghana, Guatemala, Honduras, Iran (Islamic Republic of), Mexico, Nicaragua, Nigeria, Paraguay, Peru, Sierra Leone, Sudan, Syrian Arab Republic, Trinidad and Tobago, Uganda and Uruguay). The correction was made by adapting exchange rates to the reported inflation rates.

3. Exchange rates for Hungary, Poland and Romania are average market (principal) rates as reported by the International Monetary Fund in its *International Financial Statistics*.

4. Figures followed by <sup>c</sup> are in 1990 constant prices.

5. There are three parts to the annex. The first part comprises world maps and graphs which show the regional economic and industrial structure, distribution of the MVA share in GDP, MVA and GDP growth and structural change. The second part consists of full-page reports on 117 countries and areas for which more complete data are available. This is a subset of the sample of 135 countries and areas used to derive the estimates of MVA for 28 industrial sectors. Each page contains graphs on

the industrial structure and annual growth rates of GDP and MVA, described in notes 8 to 13 below, as well as graphs of GDP per capita, MVA shares in GDP, the industrial production index and tabular data, described in notes 14 to 23 below.

6. The third part of the annex consists of short tables for each of the remaining countries.

7. Industries are broadly classified into the following four categories based on the three-digit classification of the International Standard Industrial Classification of all Economic Activities (ISIC):

(a) Low-technology industries: ISIC 311-342, ISIC 353-354 and ISIC 361-381;

(b) Medium-technology industries: ISIC 351-352, ISIC 355-356 and ISIC 384;

(c) High-technology industries: ISIC 382-385;

(d) Other manufacturing: ISIC 390.

8. The diagram of industrial structure is based on the value added in 1990 deflated prices. In general, the GDP-deflator is used for the conversion. If no GDP deflator was available, the consumer price deflator has been used. A bar chart shows, unless otherwise stated, the five-year average sectoral share in the total value added of manufacturing, contrasted with a needle plot of the five-year average growth rates of the corresponding sector. The importance of the sector in manufacturing is thus contrasted with its growth performance.

9. GDP and MVA growth rates are mainly based on data supplied by UNSD. However, when no UNSD figure was reported, a figure was taken from one of the following sources:

(a) National statistical institute of the country concerned;

(b) United Nations regional economic commission for the country concerned;

(c) *International Financial Statistics* (Washington, D.C., International Monetary Fund);

(d) *National Accounts, Detailed Tables* (Paris, Organisation for Economic Co-operation and Development), vol. II;

(e) *World Outlook and Quarterly Economic Review* (London, Economist Intelligence Unit);

(f) *World Tables* (Washington, D.C., World Bank);

(g) *Economic Forecast* (Amsterdam, North-Holland);

(h) Asian Development Bank;

(i) African Development Bank.

10. Otherwise, the figure is estimated on the basis of statistical analysis and other ad hoc information, including various periodicals and newspapers.

11. Estimates of growth rates for each country were made using:

(a) The long-term trend in GDP;

(b) The cyclical deviations from that trend;

(c) When it proved significant, GDP in another country or a group of other countries.

12. Growth rates of aggregate MVA (from national accounts) were estimated on the basis of regression techniques establishing a relationship between MVA and GDP. Five different types of regression are tested for this purpose. The relationship producing the best *ex post* forecasting figures was finally selected.

13. Estimates of sectoral MVA for each country were based on regression equations containing GDP, aggregate MVA, lagged MVA of the sector concerned and production indices as independent variables. Regressions are performed using deflated sectoral MVA values. Results are then reconverted into current dollar figures. Again, various sources and UNIDO estimates were used to improve the coverage of the data. The estimates are based on the estimated contribution of two components: (a) the dependence of the sector on the overall economic situation in the country concerned, expressed in terms of GDP or MVA; and (b) the sector-specific time behaviour expressed in terms of a lag structure of the value added of the sector.

14. Two figures are reported for MVA. One is based on the national income accounts definition and the other on the industrial census definition. The main differences are as follows:

(a) Included in the national income accounts figure but not in the industrial census figure is the activity of establishments with less than some specified number of employees, typically 5 or 10, but the number is not fixed for all countries;

(b) In the industrial census, each establishment is considered to be either industrial or non-industrial, and all activities for the establishment are similarly classified, whereas in the national income accounting framework, output is classified as industrial depending on the nature of the product.

15. The industrial census data include the receipts for, and exclude the costs of, non-industrial activities. For further information, see *International Recommendations for Industrial Statistics*, Statistical Papers, Series M, No. 48, Rev. 1 (United Nations publication, Sales No. E.83.XVII.8).

16. The figures under the item "profitability" are defined as follows:

Intermediate input =  $100 \cdot (\text{gross output} - \text{value added}) / \text{gross output}$

Wages and salaries =  $100 \cdot (\text{wages and salaries}) / \text{gross output}$

Operating surplus =  $100 \cdot (\text{value added} - \text{wages and salaries}) / \text{gross output}$ .

17. The items "profitability" and "productivity" are averages across all industrial sectors, except that only those sectors were included for which all the required data (gross output, value added, wages and salaries and employment) were available. Whenever available, the number of persons engaged was used for the calculation, otherwise the number of employees was used.

18. For the calculation of the structural indices, value added figures in 1990 deflated prices were used.

19. The measure for structural change,  $S$ , is defined by:

$$S = \frac{\sum_i |s_i(t) - s_i(t-5)|}{2}$$

where  $s_i(t)$  is the share of the  $i$ -th branch in total MVA in the year  $t$ . It sums up the absolute values of sectoral changes in the share of total MVA over a five-year period across all sectors and then divides the sum in half.

20. An index  $S$  of 100 per cent means a complete reversal of the structure, while an index of 50 per cent would mean that exactly half of the industry has relocated in terms of MVA.

21. The item "MVA growth rate per unit of structural change" is the growth rate of real value added for every percentage point of structural change during the five-year periods. It relates MVA growth to structural change.

22. The degree of specialization is defined as follows:

$$h = 100 \cdot \left( 1 + \frac{\sum_i s_i \cdot \ln s_i}{h_{\max}} \right)$$

where  $s_i$  is defined as above,  $h_{\max} = \ln$  (number of sectors) and  $\ln$  is the natural logarithm.

23. If the shares of all sectors are equal, the degree of specialization equals 0. If only one sector exists, the value is 100.

24. The indicators used are as follows:

/c in 1990 constant prices

/na value originating from national accounts statistics

*italic* values estimated by UNIDO, Research and Publications Division, Studies and Research Branch

.. no value available

- value is less than half a unit

25. Questions concerning the preparation of data may be directed via E-mail to: gmargreiter@unido.org

## Regional classification of countries and territories

<i>Country or territory</i>	<i>Region</i>	<i>Page</i>
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ALGERIA	North Africa and western Asia	130
ARGENTINA	Latin America and the Caribbean	131
ARMENIA	European and central Asian transition economies	132
AUSTRALIA	Other developed economies	133
AUSTRIA	Western Europe	134
AZERBAIJAN	European and central Asian transition economies	244
BAHAMAS	Latin America and the Caribbean	244
BAHRAIN	North Africa and western Asia	244
BANGLADESH	South Asia	135
BARBADOS	Latin America and the Caribbean	136
BELARUS	European and central Asian transition economies	244
BELGIUM	Western Europe	137
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BENIN	Sub-Saharan Africa (excluding South Africa)	245
BERMUDA	North America	245
BHUTAN	South Asia	245
BOLIVIA	Latin America and the Caribbean	138
BOSNIA AND HERZEGOVINA	European and central Asian transition economies	245
BOTSWANA	Sub-Saharan Africa (excluding South Africa)	139
BRAZIL	Latin America and the Caribbean	140
BRUNEI DARUSSALAM	East and South-East Asia and Oceania	245
BULGARIA	European and central Asian transition economies	141
BURKINA FASO	Sub-Saharan Africa (excluding South Africa)	142
BURUNDI	Sub-Saharan Africa (excluding South Africa)	143
CAMEROON	Sub-Saharan Africa (excluding South Africa)	144
CANADA	North America	145
CAPE VERDE	Sub-Saharan Africa (excluding South Africa)	245
CENTRAL AFRICAN REPUBLIC	Sub-Saharan Africa (excluding South Africa)	146
CHAD	Sub-Saharan Africa (excluding South Africa)	246
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CHINA	East Asian transition economies	148
COLOMBIA	Latin America and the Caribbean	149
CONGO	Sub-Saharan Africa (excluding South Africa)	150
COSTA RICA	Latin America and the Caribbean	151
CÔTE D'IVOIRE	Sub-Saharan Africa (excluding South Africa)	152
CROATIA	European and central Asian transition economies	153
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CYPRUS	North Africa and western Asia	155
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DENMARK	Western Europe	157
DJIBOUTI	Sub-Saharan Africa (excluding South Africa)	246
DOMINICAN REPUBLIC	Latin America and the Caribbean	246
ECUADOR	Latin America and the Caribbean	158
EGYPT	North Africa and western Asia	159
EL SALVADOR	Latin America and the Caribbean	160
EQUATORIAL GUINEA	Sub-Saharan Africa (excluding South Africa)	246
ESTONIA	European and central Asian transition economies	246
ETHIOPIA (INCLUDING ERITREA)	Sub-Saharan Africa (excluding South Africa)	161
FIJI	East and South-East Asia and Oceania	162
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FRENCH GUIANA	Latin America and the Caribbean	247
FRENCH POLYNESIA	East and South-East Asia and Oceania	247
GABON	Sub-Saharan Africa (excluding South Africa)	165
GAMBIA	Sub-Saharan Africa (excluding South Africa)	166

<i>Country or territory</i>	<i>Region</i>	<i>Page</i>
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GERMANY		
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GUATEMALA	Latin America and the Caribbean	170
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GUINEA-BISSAU	Sub-Saharan Africa (excluding South Africa)	248
GUYANA	Latin America and the Caribbean	248
HAITI	Latin America and the Caribbean	248
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KYRGYZSTAN	European and central Asian transition economies	248
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LATVIA	European and central Asian transition economies	187
LESOTHO	Sub-Saharan Africa (excluding South Africa)	188
LIBERIA	Sub-Saharan Africa (excluding South Africa)	249
LIBYAN ARAB JAMAHIRIYA	North Africa and western Asia	189
LITHUANIA	European and central Asian transition economies	249
LUXEMBOURG	Western Europe	190
MACAO	East and South-East Asia and Oceania	191
MADAGASCAR	Sub-Saharan Africa (excluding South Africa)	192
MALAWI	Sub-Saharan Africa (excluding South Africa)	193
MALAYSIA	East and South-East Asia and Oceania	194
MALI	Sub-Saharan Africa (excluding South Africa)	249
MALTA	Western Europe	195
MARTINIQUE	Latin America and the Caribbean	249
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MAURITIUS	Sub-Saharan Africa (excluding South Africa)	249
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MOROCCO	North Africa and western Asia	197
MOZAMBIQUE	Sub-Saharan Africa (excluding South Africa)	250
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NAMIBIA	Sub-Saharan Africa (excluding South Africa)	250
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NETHERLANDS	Western Europe	199
NEW ZEALAND	Other developed economies	200
NEW CALEDONIA	East and South-East Asia and Oceania	250
NICARAGUA	Latin America and the Caribbean	201

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NIGERIA	Sub-Saharan Africa (excluding South Africa)	203
NORWAY	Western Europe	204
OMAN	North Africa and western Asia	251
PAKISTAN	South Asia	205
PANAMA	Latin America and the Caribbean	206
PAPUA NEW GUINEA	East and South-East Asia and Oceania	251
PARAGUAY	Latin America and the Caribbean	207
PERU	Latin America and the Caribbean	208
PHILIPPINES	East and South-East Asia and Oceania	209
POLAND	European and central Asian transition economies	210
PORTUGAL	Western Europe	211
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REPUBLIC OF KOREA	East and South-East Asia and Oceania	213
REPUBLIC OF MOLDOVA	European and central Asian transition economies	251
REUNION	Sub-Saharan Africa (excluding South Africa)	251
ROMANIA	European and central Asian transition economies	214
RUSSIAN FEDERATION	European and central Asian transition economies	215
RWANDA	Sub-Saharan Africa (excluding South Africa)	251
SAMOA	East and South-East Asia and Oceania	252
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SUDAN	Sub-Saharan Africa (excluding South Africa)	252
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SWAZILAND	Sub-Saharan Africa (excluding South Africa)	224
SWEDEN	Western Europe	225
SWITZERLAND	Western Europe	226
SYRIAN ARAB REPUBLIC	North Africa and western Asia	227
TAIWAN PROVINCE OF CHINA	East and South-East Asia and Oceania	228
TAJIKISTAN	European and central Asian transition economies	253
THAILAND	East and South-East Asia and Oceania	229
THE FORMER YUGOSLAV REPUBLIC OF MACEDONIA	European and central Asian transition economies	230
TOGO	Sub-Saharan Africa (excluding South Africa)	231
TONGA	East and South-East Asia and Oceania	253
TRINIDAD AND TOBAGO	Latin America and the Caribbean	232
TUNISIA	North Africa and western Asia	233
TURKEY	North Africa and western Asia	234
TURKMENISTAN	European and central Asian transition economies	253
TUVALU	East and South-East Asia and Oceania	253
UGANDA	Sub-Saharan Africa (excluding South Africa)	253
UKRAINE	European and central Asian transition economies	235
UNITED ARAB EMIRATES	North Africa and western Asia	254
UNITED KINGDOM OF GREAT BRITAIN AND NORTHERN IRELAND	Western Europe	236
UNITED REPUBLIC OF TANZANIA	Sub-Saharan Africa (excluding South Africa)	237
UNITED STATES OF AMERICA	North America	238
URUGUAY	Latin America and the Caribbean	239
UZBEKISTAN	European and central Asian transition economies	254
VANUATU	East and South-East Asia and Oceania	254

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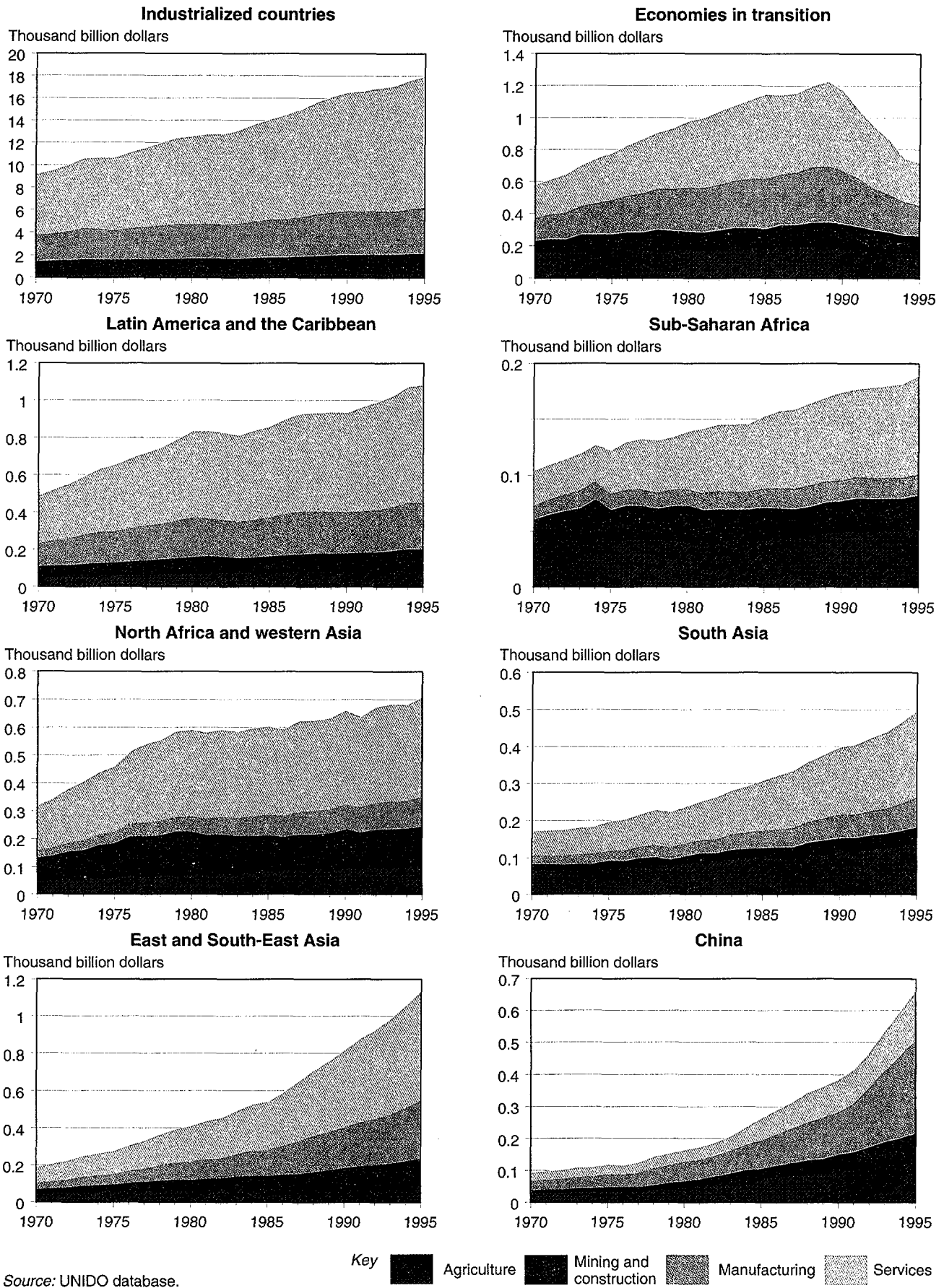
<i>Country or territory</i>	<i>Region</i>	<i>Page</i>
VENEZUELA	Latin America and the Caribbean	240
VIET NAM	East Asian transition economies	254
YUGOSLAVIA (SERBIA, MONTENEGRO)	European and central Asian transition economies	241
ZAIRE <sup>a</sup>	Sub-Saharan Africa (excluding South Africa)	254
ZAMBIA	Sub-Saharan Africa (excluding South Africa)	242
ZIMBABWE	Sub-Saharan Africa (excluding South Africa)	243

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<sup>a</sup>The official designation of Zaire was changed to Democratic Republic of the Congo in May 1997.



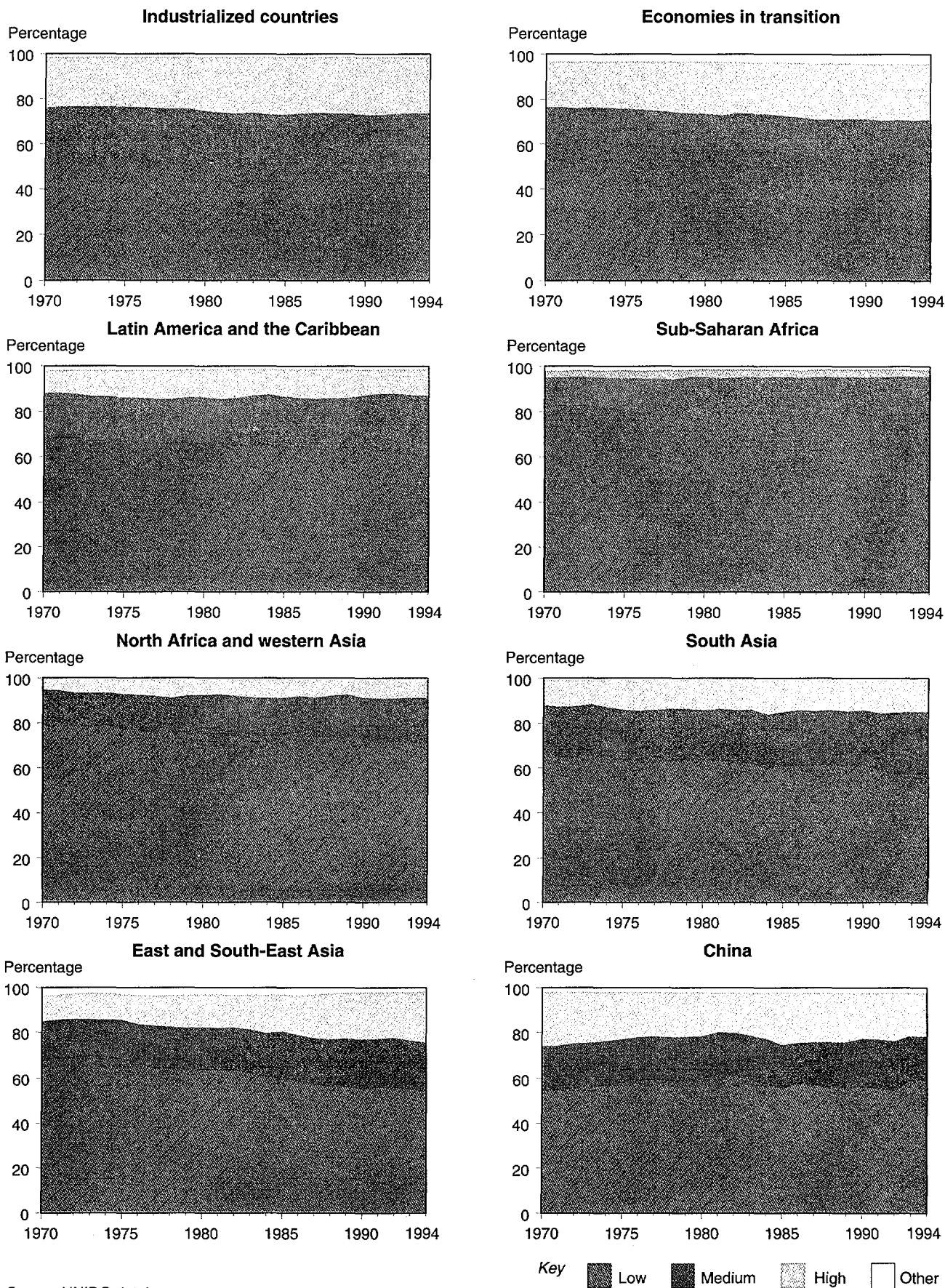
**Figure A.1. Economic structure of regions and country groupings, 1970-1995**



Source: UNIDO database.

Note: All figures are in constant 1990 US dollars.

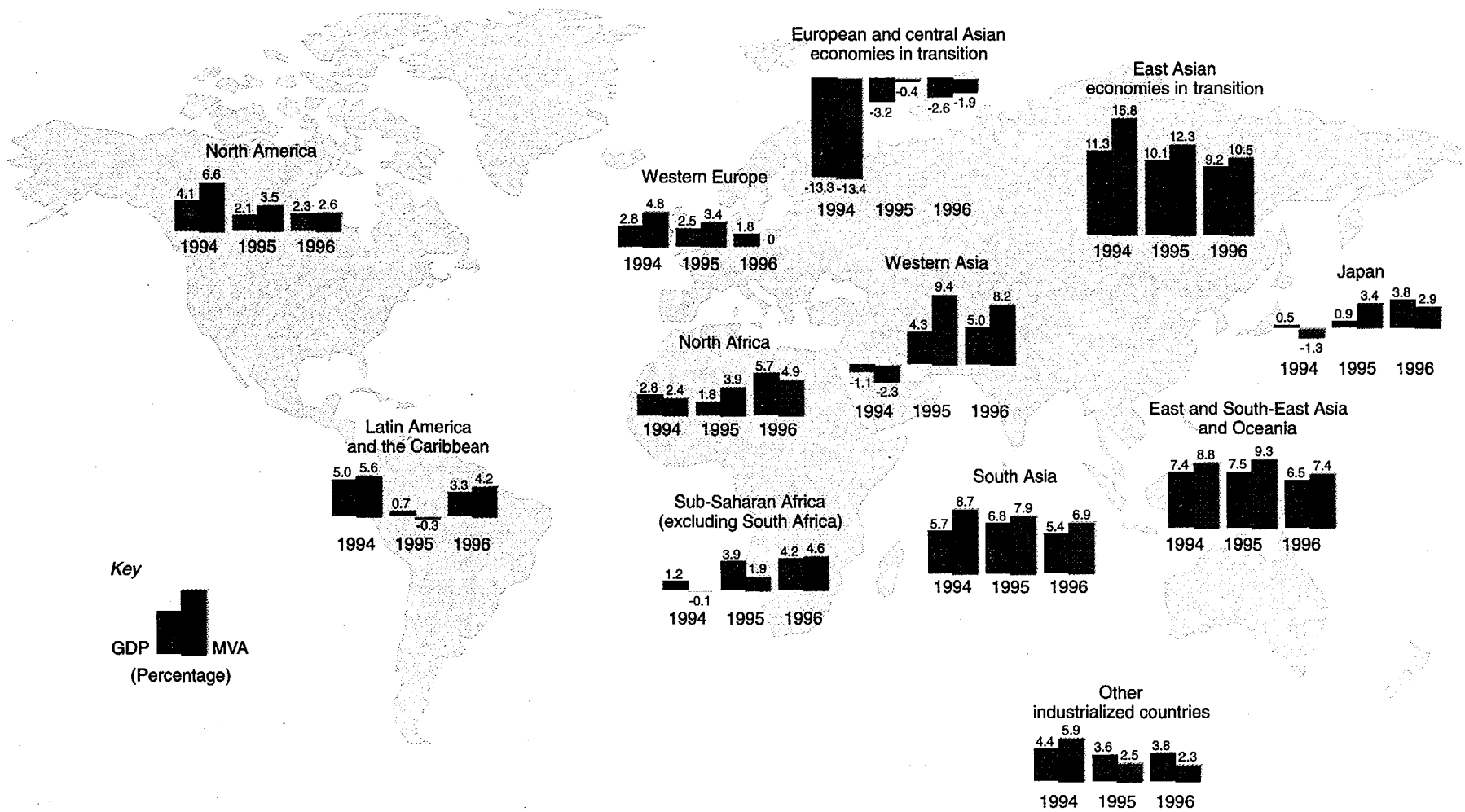
**Figure A.2. Industry structure of regions and country groupings, based on technological content, 1970-1994**



Source: UNIDO database.

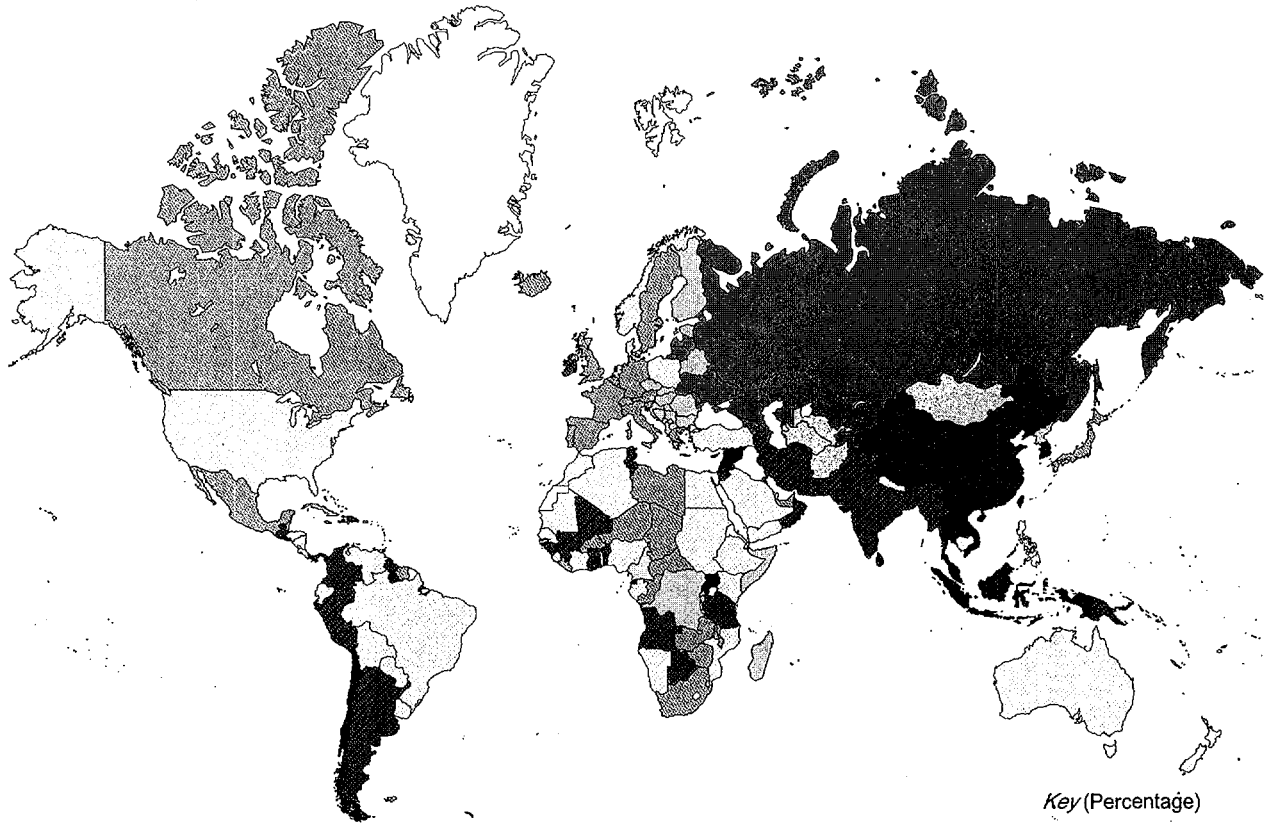
Note: See "Technical notes" for classification method.

**Figure A.3. Growth rates of GDP and MVA by region, 1994-1996**



Source: UNIDO database.

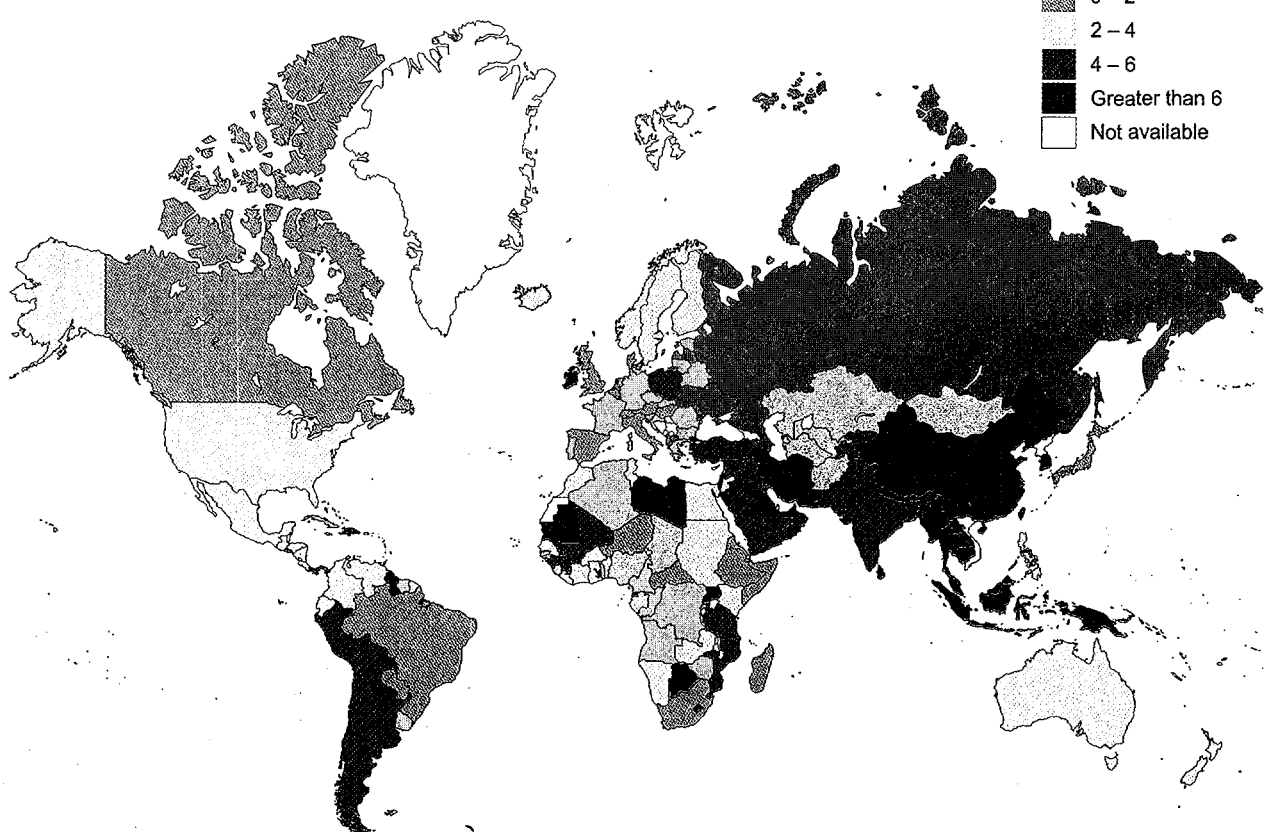
Figure A.4. Average GDP growth rates, by country or territory, 1990-1996



Key (Percentage)

- Less than -10
- -10 - 0
- 0 - 2
- 2 - 4
- 4 - 6
- Greater than 6
- Not available

Figure A.5. Average MVA growth rates, by country or territory, 1990-1996



Source: UNIDO database.

Figure A.6. Average MVA share in GDP, by country or territory, 1990-1996

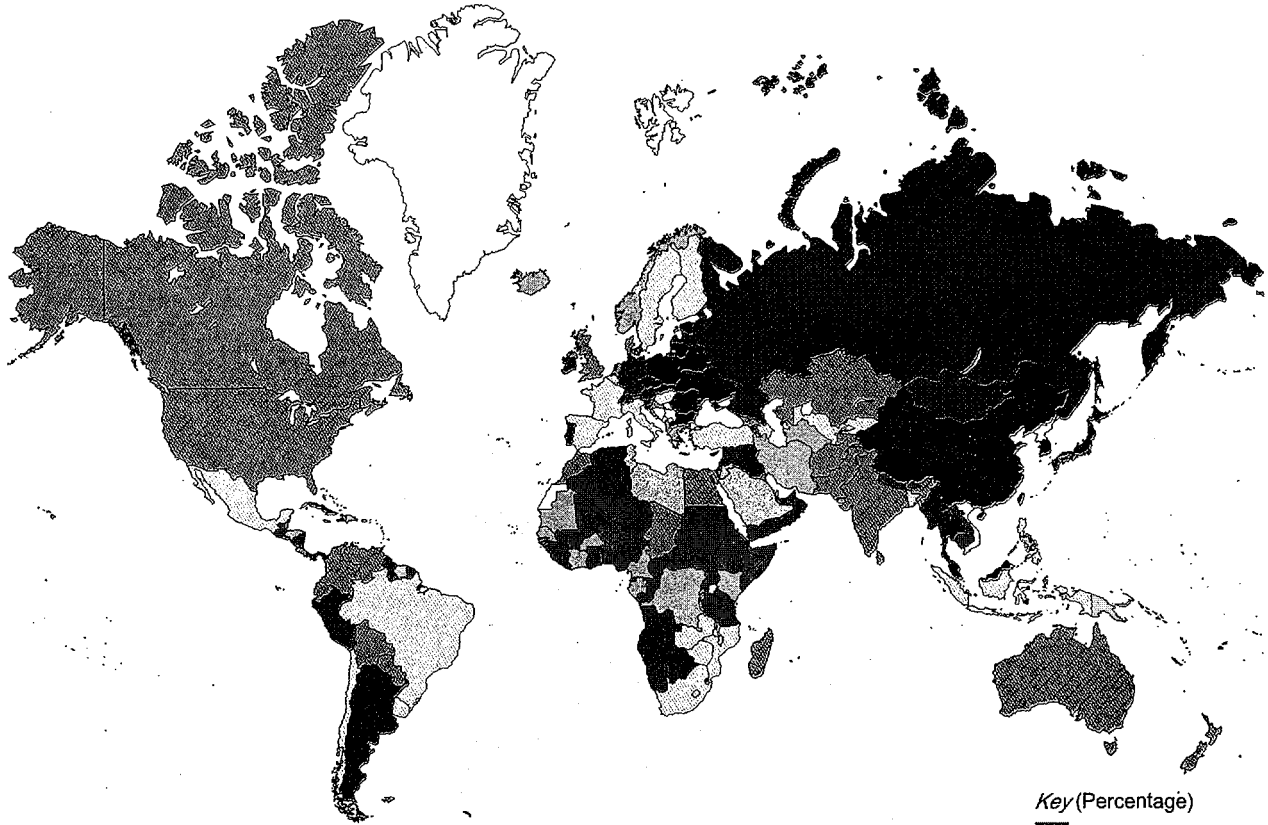
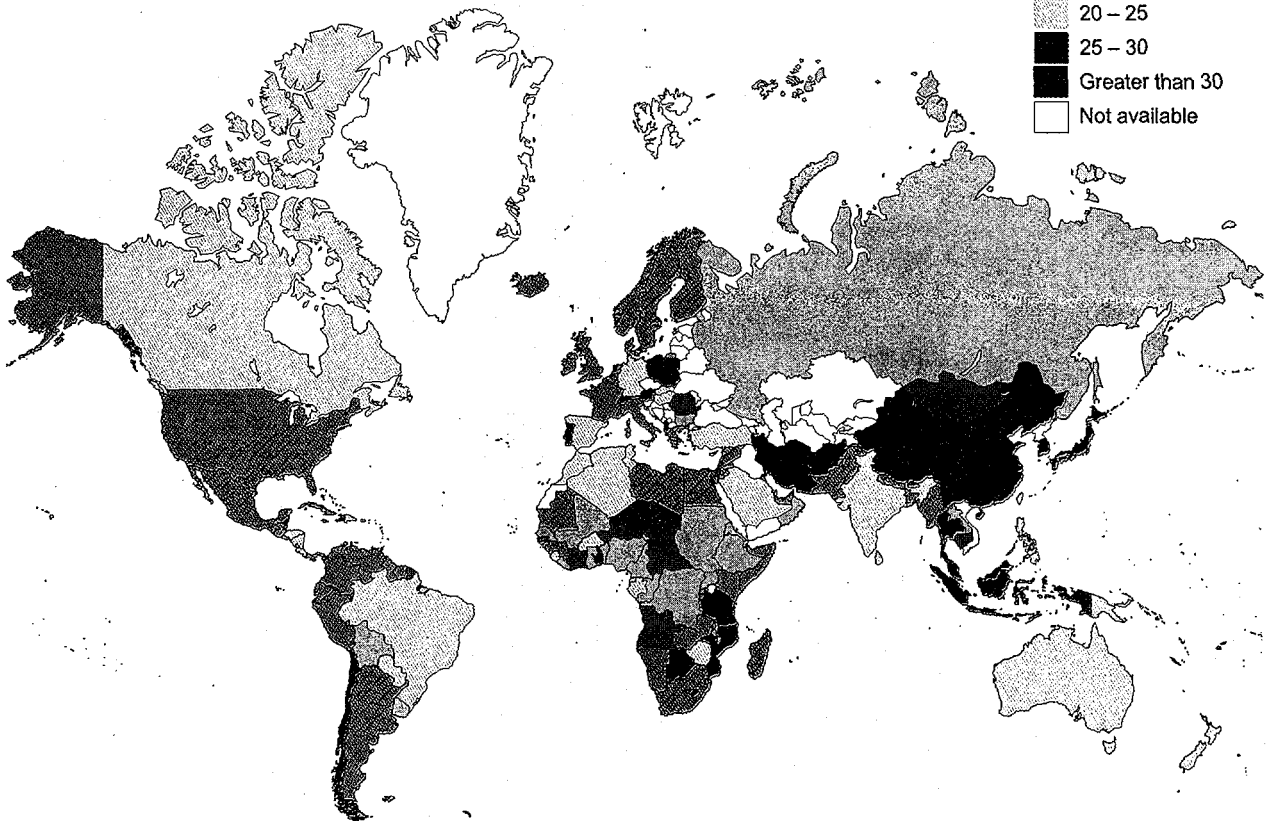


Figure A.7. Average investment rates, by country or territory, 1990-1996



Source: UNIDO database.

Figure A.8. Structural change in industry, by country or territory, 1984-1994

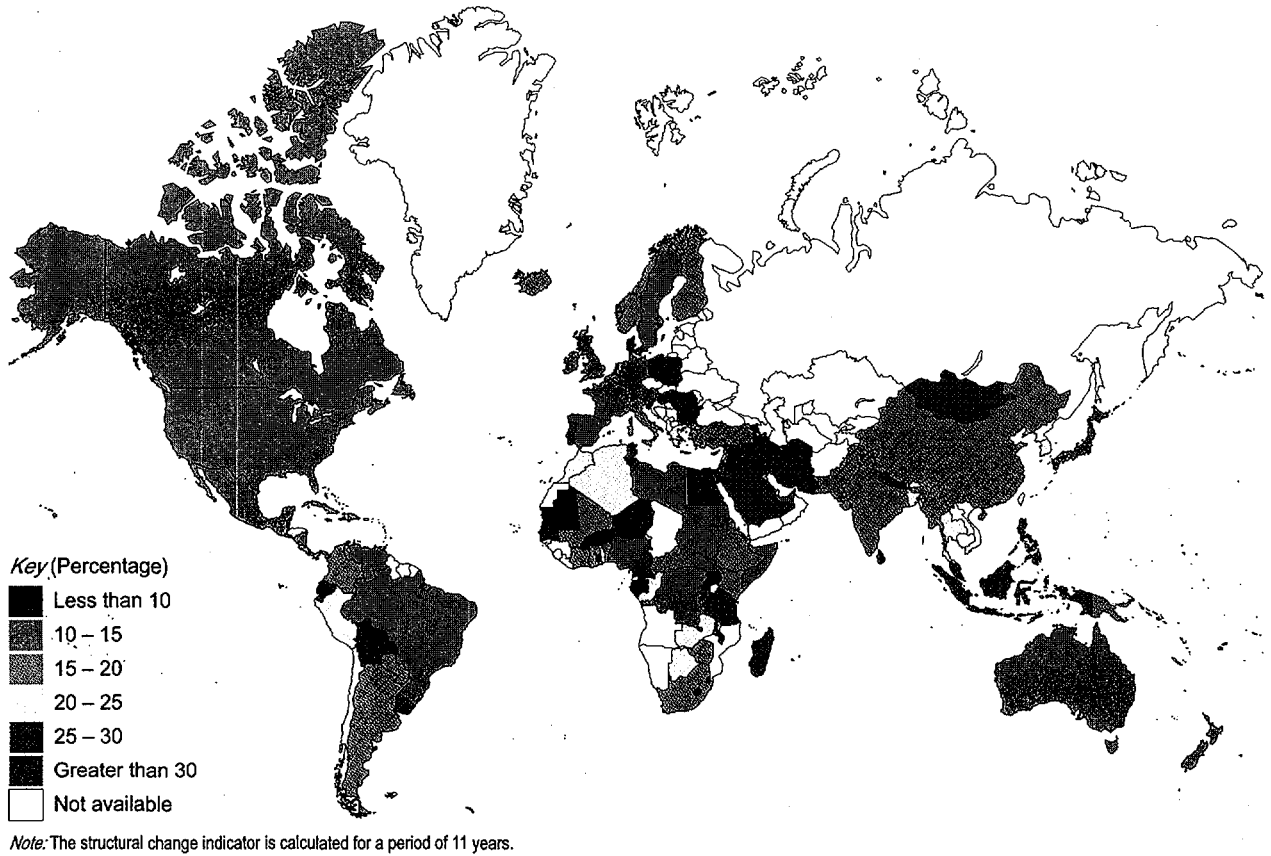
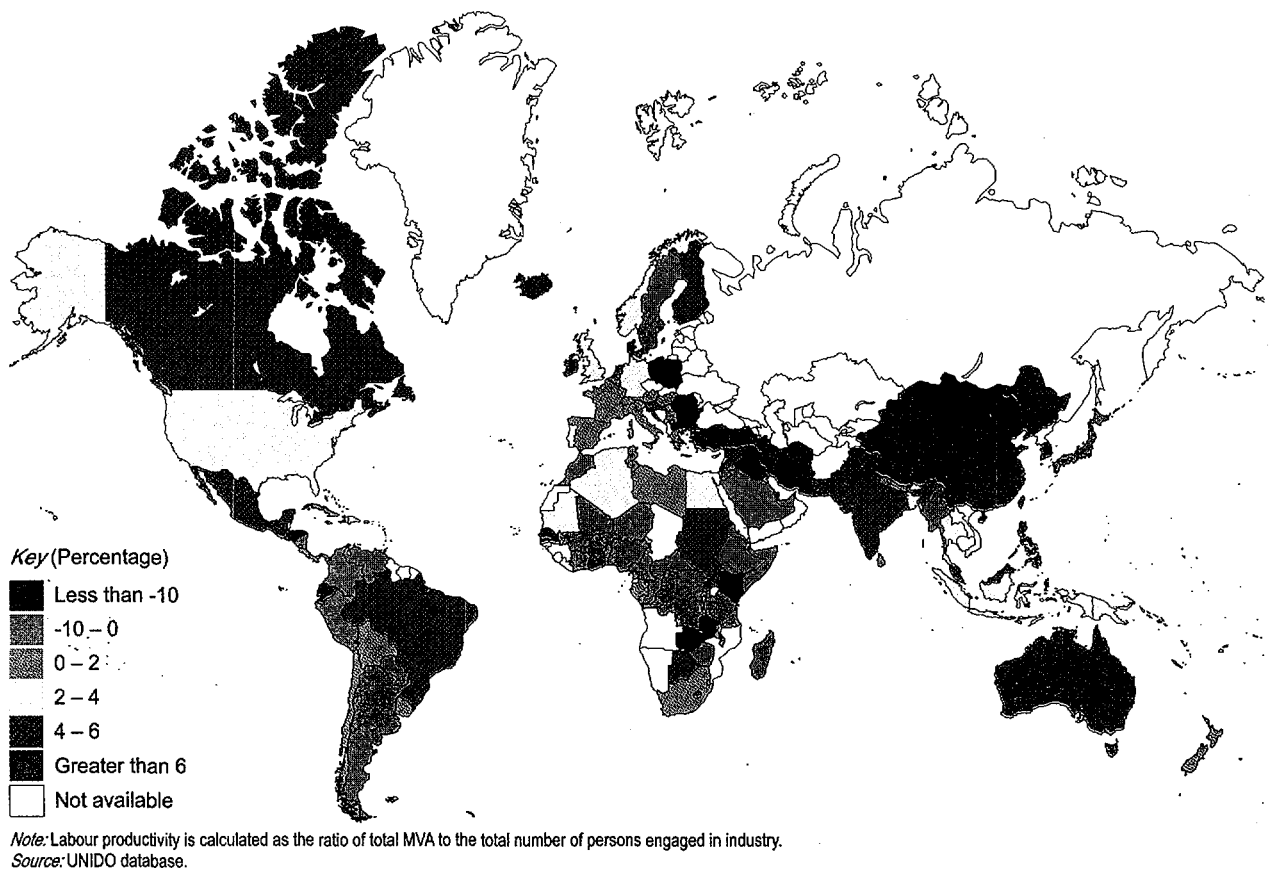
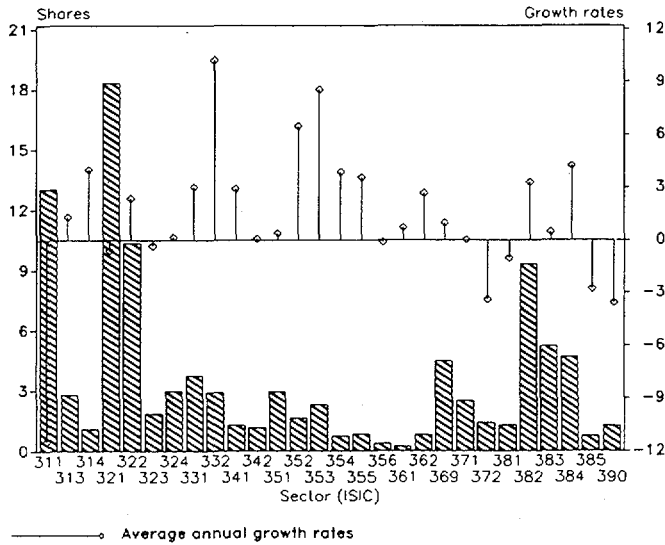


Figure A.9. Average labour productivity growth in industry, by country or territory, 1990-1994

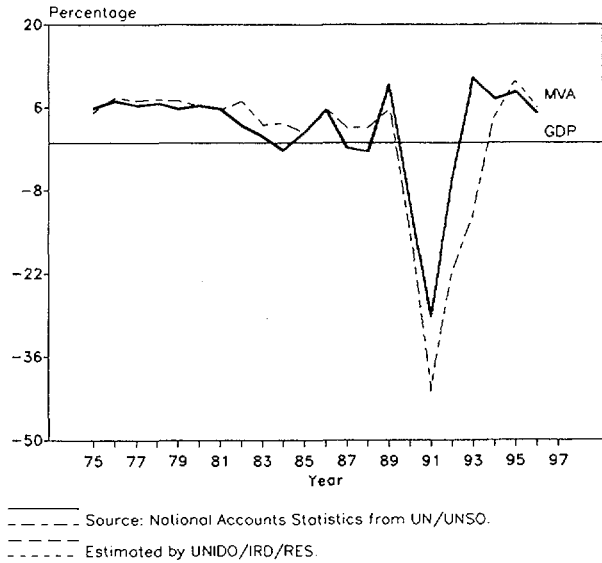


ALBANIA

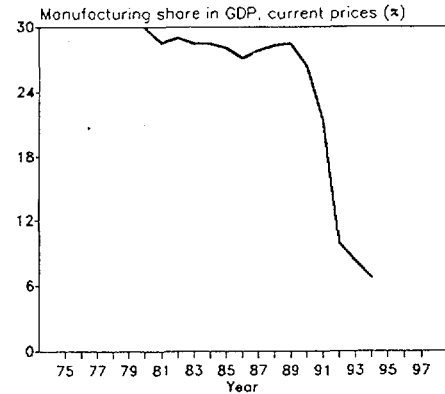
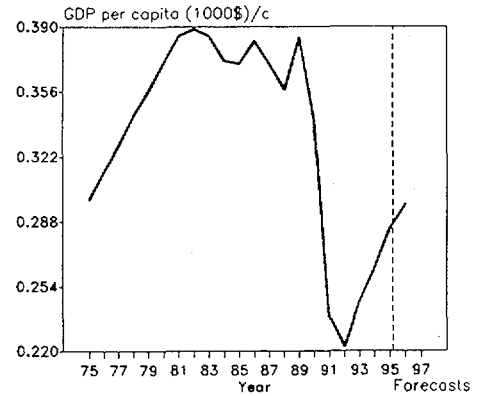
Average sectoral shares in Total Value Added and average annual sectoral growth rates, 1990-1996 (Percentage)



Annual growth rates of GDP and MVA (Constant 1990 prices)



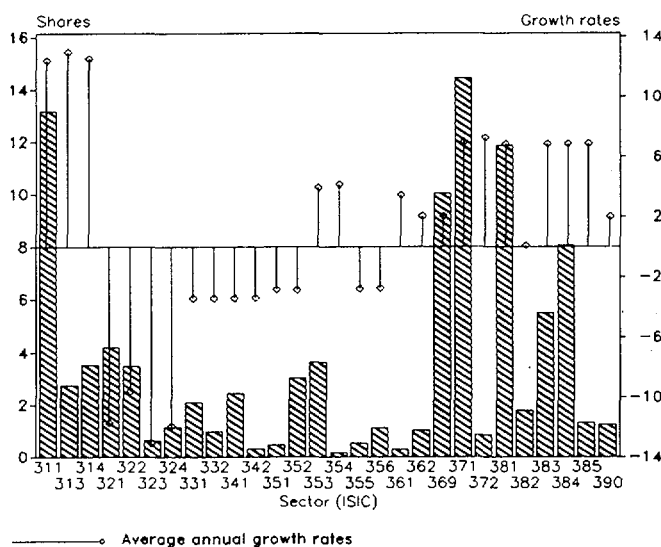
	1980	1985	1990	1995
<b>GDP:</b> <sup>na</sup> (millions of 1990-dollars)	992	1 098	1 121	963
Per capita <sup>na</sup> (1990-dollars)	371	371	341	285
Manufacturing share <sup>na</sup> (%) (current factor prices)	29.9	28.0	26.3	..
<b>MANUFACTURING:</b>				
Value added <sup>na</sup> (millions of 1990-dollars)	245	298	285	135
Industrial production index (1990=100)	..	..	..	..
Value added (millions of dollars)	597	677	305	500
Gross output (millions of dollars)	..	..	..	..
Employment (thousands)	171	232	252	67
<b>-PROFITABILITY: (in percent of gross output)</b>				
Intermediate input (%)	..	..	..	..
Wages and salaries including supplements (%)	..	..	..	..
Gross operating surplus and net taxes (%)	..	..	..	..
<b>-PRODUCTIVITY: (dollars)</b>				
Gross output per worker	..	..	..	..
Value added per worker	3 205	2 718	1 192	7 188
Average wage (including supplements)	894	952	437	620
<b>-STRUCTURAL INDICES:</b>				
Structural change indicator (5-year period, %)	5.32	4.69	5.73	8.61
as a percentage of 1970-1975 structural change	100	88	108	162
MVA growth rate per unit of structural change	4.10	2.89	0.86	-0.58
Degree of specialization	16.5	18.1	17.9	14.3
<b>-VALUE ADDED: (millions of dollars)</b>				
311/2 Food products	116	156	60	46
313 Beverages	22	21	8	13
314 Tobacco products	10	8	3	5
321 Textiles	101	105	55	92
322 Wearing apparel	44	53	28	55
323 Leather and fur products	8	11	6	9
324 Footwear	15	19	9	15
331 Wood and wood products	21	22	10	20
332 Furniture and fixtures	13	14	6	17
341 Paper and paper products	6	7	4	7
342 Printing and publishing	7	7	3	6
351 Industrial chemicals	20	19	9	15
352 Other chemical products	9	9	4	9
353 Petroleum refineries	10	11	5	13
354 Miscellaneous petroleum and coal products	3	4	2	4
355 Rubber products	4	5	2	5
356 Plastic products	3	3	1	2
361 Pottery, china and earthenware	1	1	1	1
362 Glass and glass products	2	2	2	4
369 Other non-metal mineral products	23	23	13	23
371 Iron and steel	14	15	8	13
372 Non-ferrous metals	10	10	5	6
381 Metal products	9	10	4	6
382 Non-electrical machinery	52	57	25	50
383 Electrical machinery	29	35	15	27
384 Transport equipment	27	29	12	26
385 Professional and scientific equipment	4	5	2	3
390 Other manufacturing industries	13	16	4	6



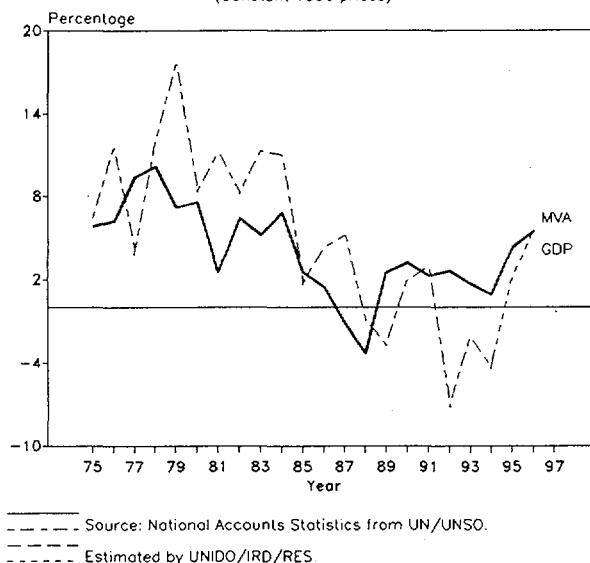
For sources, footnotes and comments see "Technical notes" at the beginning of this Annex.

ALGERIA

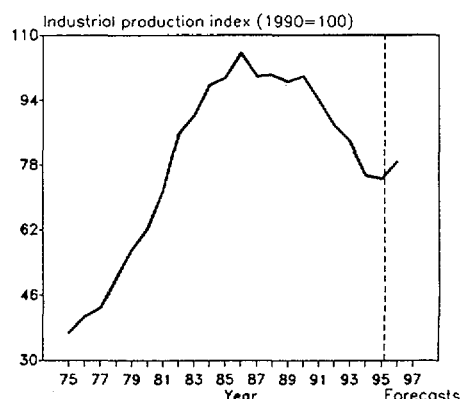
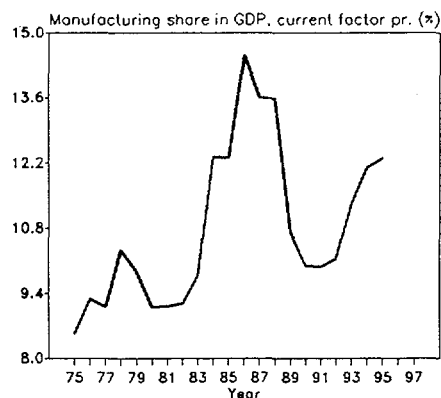
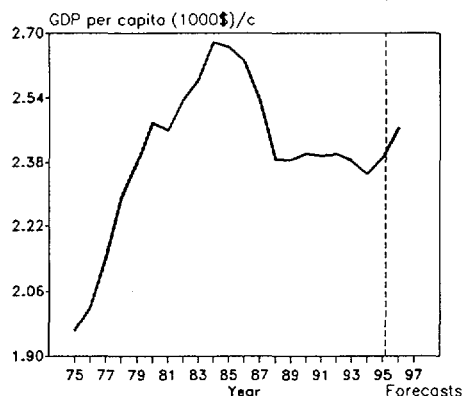
Average sectoral shares in total Value Added and average annual sectoral growth rates, 1990-1996 (Percentage)



Annual growth rates of GDP and MVA (Constant 1990 prices)



	1980	1985	1990	1995
GDP: <sup>na</sup> (millions of 1990-dollars)	46 438	58 340	59 902	67 258
Per capita <sup>na</sup> (1990-dollars)	2 478	2 665	2 402	2 393
Manufacturing share <sup>na</sup> (%) (current factor prices)	9.1	12.3	10.0	12.3
<b>MANUFACTURING:</b>				
Value added <sup>na</sup> (millions of 1990-dollars)	3 520	5 311	5 710	5 200
Industrial production index (1990=100)	62	100	100	75
Value added (millions of dollars)	3 644	6 515	5 556	4 147
Gross output (millions of dollars)	9 023	14 579	12 773	9 365
Employment (thousands)	312	420	435	436
<b>-PROFITABILITY: (in percent of gross output)</b>				
Intermediate input (%)	60	55	56	56
Wages and salaries including supplements (%)	22	24	19	16
Gross operating surplus and net taxes (%)	18	21	24	28
<b>-PRODUCTIVITY: (dollars)</b>				
Gross output per worker	28 928	34 739	29 371	21 501
Value added per worker	11 682	15 525	12 776	9 524
Average wage (including supplements)	6 380	8 175	5 581	3 516
<b>-STRUCTURAL INDICES:</b>				
Structural change indicator (5-year period, %) as a percentage of 1970-1975 structural change	9.26	10.55	9.54	12.67
MVA growth rate perer unit of structural change	4.04	5.16	2.32	0.37
Degree of specialization	14.4	13.7	12.8	18.0
<b>-VALUE ADDED: (millions of dollars)</b>				
311/2 Food products	655	811	481	624
313 Beverages	135	167	99	131
314 Tobacco products	176	218	129	168
321 Textiles	282	529	414	116
322 Wearing apparel	227	426	333	108
323 Leather and fur products	57	71	71	17
324 Footwear	100	123	124	32
331 Wood and wood products	109	171	159	79
332 Furniture and fixtures	51	80	75	37
341 Paper and paper products	129	199	186	92
342 Printing and publishing	14	25	23	11
351 Industrial chemicals	14	27	32	15
352 Other chemical products	93	184	216	101
353 Petroleum refineries	83	165	194	151
354 Miscellaneous petroleum and coal products	4	8	9	7
355 Rubber products	17	33	39	18
356 Plastic products	34	67	79	37
361 Pottery, china and earthenware	10	17	17	12
362 Glass and glass products	36	61	62	40
369 Other non-metal mineral products	355	595	602	393
371 Iron and steel	323	777	698	633
372 Non-ferrous metals	19	45	41	37
381 Metal products	265	639	574	519
382 Non-electrical machinery	46	112	100	62
383 Electrical machinery	123	297	267	241
384 Transport equipment	181	435	390	353
385 Professional and scientific equipment	30	71	64	58
390 Other manufacturing industries	76	164	79	53

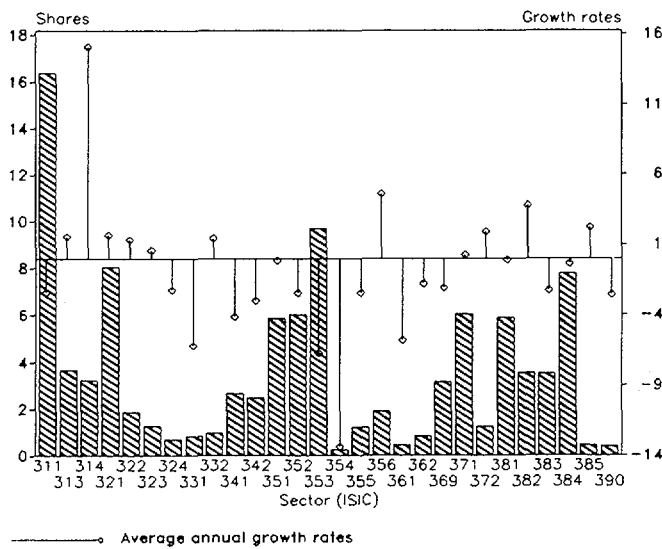


For sources, footnotes and comments see "Technical notes" at the beginning of this Annex.

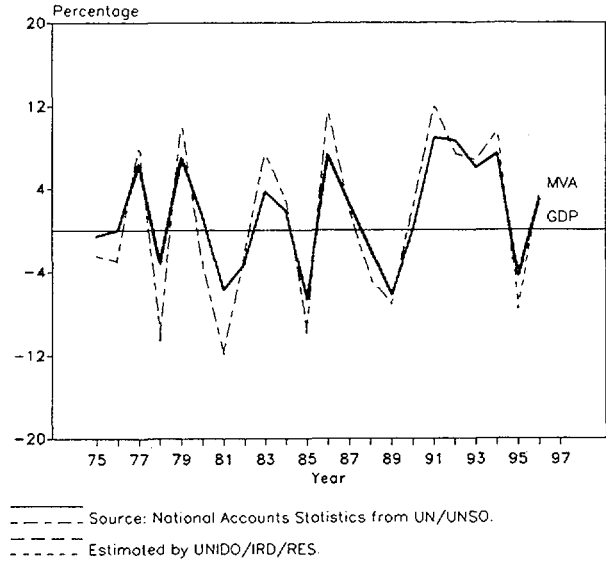


ARGENTINA

Average sectoral shares in total Value Added and average annual sectoral growth rates, 1990-1996 (Percentage)

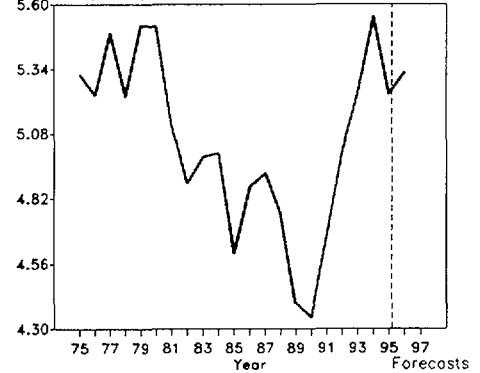


Annual growth rates of GDP and MVA (Constant 1990 prices)

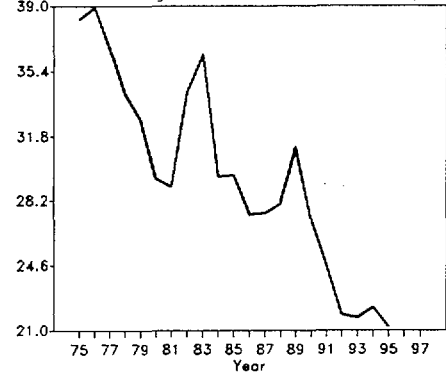


	1980	1985	1990	1995
<b>GDP:</b> <sup>na</sup> (millions of 1990-dollars)	154 860	139 450	141 353	182 129
Per capita <sup>na</sup> (1990-dollars)	5 512	4 602	4 346	5 238
Manufacturing share <sup>na</sup> (%) (current factor prices)	29.5	29.6	27.1	21.2
<b>MANUFACTURING:</b>				
Value added <sup>na</sup> (millions of 1990-dollars)	43 566	37 054	37 868	49 099
Industrial production index (1990=100)	125	104	100	133
Value added (millions of dollars)	24 511	28 891	28 729	51 975
Gross output (millions of dollars)	55 936	48 084	74 111	137 594
Employment (thousands)	1 346	1 174	942	857
<b>-PROFITABILITY: (in percent of gross output)</b>				
Intermediate input (%)	56	40	61	62
Wages and salaries including supplements (%)	10	11	9	9
Gross operating surplus and net taxes (%)	33	49	30	29
<b>-PRODUCTIVITY: (dollars)</b>				
Gross output per worker	41 553	34 798	78 687	133 728
Value added per worker	18 208	20 908	30 502	50 515
Average wage (including supplements)	4 302	4 411	6 767	14 501
<b>-STRUCTURAL INDICES:</b>				
Structural change indicator (5-year period, %) as a percentage of 1970-1975 structural change	5.79	8.36	9.17	7.47
MVA growth rate perer unit of structural change	2.22	-0.99	-2.41	-3.35
Degree of specialization	13.0	15.9	13.8	12.5
<b>-VALUE ADDED: (millions of dollars)</b>				
311/2 Food products	3 544	4 912	4 695	8 319
313 Beverages	703	942	932	1 948
314 Tobacco products	498	719	480	2 158
321 Textiles	1 703	1 832	2 209	4 582
322 Wearing apparel	919	558	492	949
323 Leather and fur products	284	350	336	654
324 Footwear	245	240	190	348
331 Wood and wood products	363	283	255	383
332 Furniture and fixtures	226	185	246	510
341 Paper and paper products	554	763	882	1 265
342 Printing and publishing	679	800	695	1 227
351 Industrial chemicals	914	1 367	1 844	3 352
352 Other chemical products	1 206	1 916	1 791	3 107
353 Petroleum refineries	3 647	5 120	3 642	4 319
354 Miscellaneous petroleum and coal products	86	121	122	93
355 Rubber products	331	327	368	593
356 Plastic products	424	485	436	1 123
361 Pottery, china and earthenware	189	130	156	195
362 Glass and glass products	199	153	249	426
369 Other non-metal mineral products	659	587	932	1 586
371 Iron and steel	900	1 239	1 651	3 165
372 Non-ferrous metals	235	257	305	649
381 Metal products	1 272	1 499	1 611	2 973
382 Non-electrical machinery	1 358	930	835	1 868
383 Electrical machinery	902	936	1 025	1 822
384 Transport equipment	2 289	2 054	2 140	3 946
385 Professional and scientific equipment	86	95	112	234
390 Other manufacturing industries	96	92	97	183

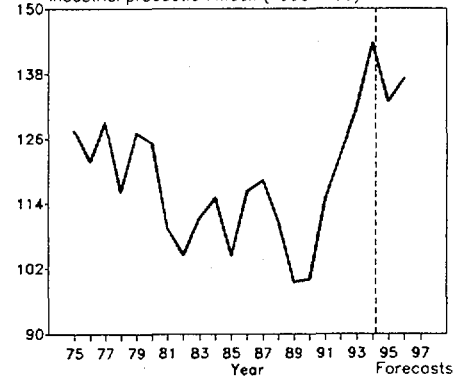
GDP per capita (1000\$)/c



Manufacturing share in GDP, current prices (%)



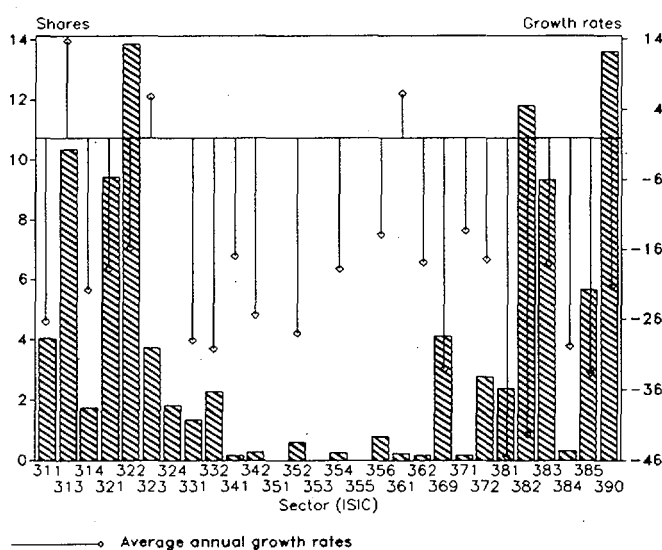
Industrial production index (1990=100)



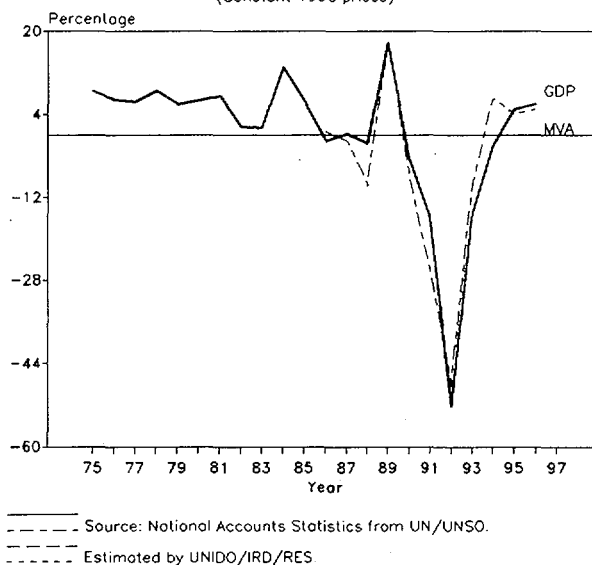
For sources, footnotes and comments see "Technical notes" at the beginning of this Annex.

## ARMENIA

Average sectoral shares in total Value Added and average annual sectoral growth rates, 1990-1996 (Percentage)

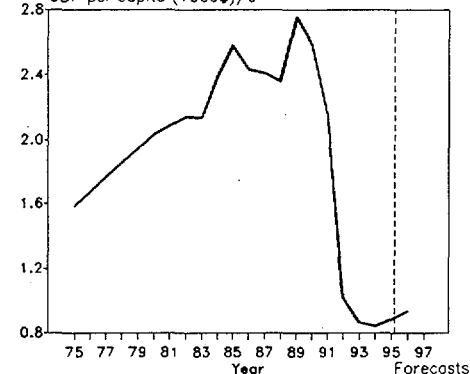


Annual growth rates of GDP and MVA (Constant 1990 prices)

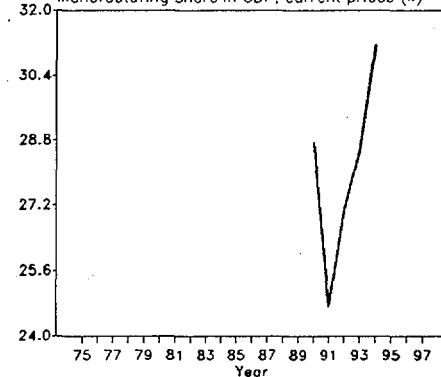


	1980	1985	1990	1995
GDP: <sup>na</sup> (millions of 1990-dollars)	6 254	8 340	9 153	3 213
Per capita <sup>na</sup> (1990-dollars)	2 036	2 580	2 586	885
Manufacturing share <sup>na</sup> (%) (current factor prices)	..	..	28.7	..
<b>MANUFACTURING:</b>				
Value added <sup>na</sup> (millions of 1990-dollars)	..	2 736	2 631	996
Industrial production index (1990=100)	..	..	..	..
Value added (millions of dollars)	1 513	1 242	1 085	734
Gross output (millions of dollars)	11 319	9 068	6 484	1 888
Employment (thousands)	247	411	354	267
<b>-PROFITABILITY: (in percent of gross output)</b>				
Intermediate input (%)	86	86	83	60
Wages and salaries including supplements (%)	12	14	16	28
Gross operating surplus and net taxes (%)	2	0	1	12
<b>-PRODUCTIVITY: (dollars)</b>				
Gross output per worker	28 183	21 976	18 294	7 066
Value added per worker	4 170	3 162	3 061	3 005
Average wage (including supplements)	3 741	3 074	2 946	2 173
<b>-STRUCTURAL INDICES:</b>				
Structural change indicator (5-year period, %) as a percentage of 1970-1975 structural change	5.55	9.32	15.43	29.57
MVA growth rate per unit of structural change	4.43	0.63	-0.02	-1.34
Degree of specialization	17.7	16.5	19.9	21.2
<b>-VALUE ADDED: (millions of dollars)</b>				
311/2 Food products	138	72	47	26
313 Beverages	16	38	18	122
314 Tobacco products	26	19	21	14
321 Textiles	102	99	93	78
322 Wearing apparel	147	131	120	124
323 Leather and fur products	27	46	7	32
324 Footwear	..	..	39	..
331 Wood and wood products	55	30	19	8
332 Furniture and fixtures	43	30	37	12
341 Paper and paper products	3	2	2	1
342 Printing and publishing	5	4	4	2
351 Industrial chemicals	37	27	-55	34
352 Other chemical products	12	8	8	4
353 Petroleum refineries	-	-	-	-
354 Miscellaneous petroleum and coal products	2	2	3	3
355 Rubber products	6	9	-11	1
356 Plastic products	10	10	-6	7
361 Pottery, china and earthenware	3	1	-	2
362 Glass and glass products	3	5	2	2
369 Other non-metal mineral products	88	58	67	17
371 Iron and steel	3	3	1	2
372 Non-ferrous metals	69	52	27	24
381 Metal products	53	39	58	4
382 Non-electrical machinery	271	180	246	25
383 Electrical machinery	108	109	90	78
384 Transport equipment	10	9	5	2
385 Professional and scientific equipment	110	84	105	25
390 Other manufacturing industries	169	175	127	84

GDP per capita (1000\$)/c



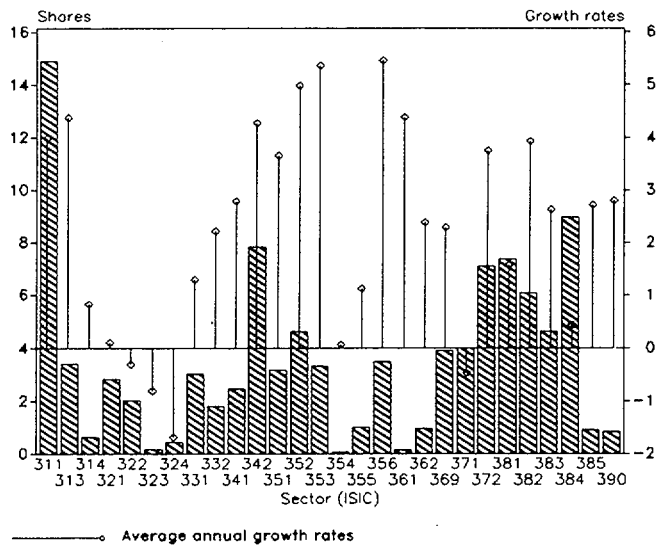
Manufacturing share in GDP, current prices (%)



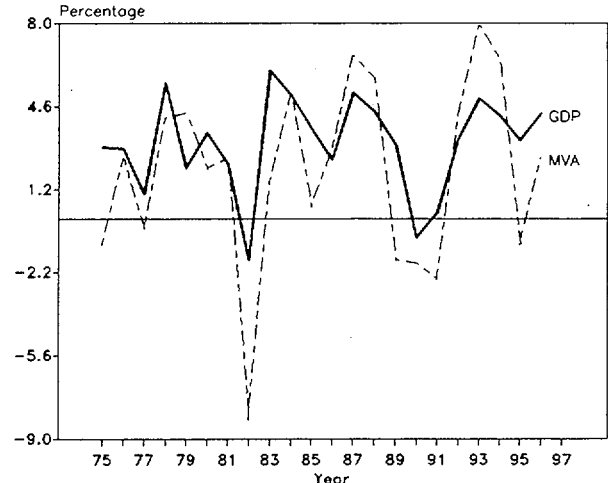
For sources, footnotes and comments see "Technical notes" at the beginning of this Annex.

AUSTRALIA

Average sectoral shares in total Value Added and average annual sectoral growth rates, 1990-1996 (Percentage)



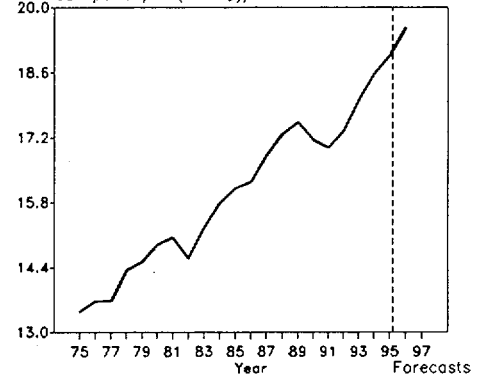
Annual growth rates of GDP and MVA (Constant 1990 prices)



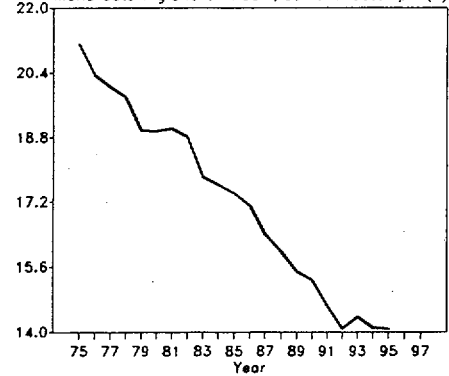
Source: National Accounts Statistics from UN/UNSO.  
 Estimated by UNIDO/IRD/RES.

	1980	1985	1990	1995
<b>GDP:</b> <sup>na</sup> (millions of 1990-dollars)	216 868	252 042	289 788	338 743
Per capita <sup>na</sup> (1990-dollars)	14 886	16 114	17 159	18 960
Manufacturing share <sup>na</sup> (%) (current factor prices)	19.0	17.4	15.3	14.1
<b>MANUFACTURING:</b>				
Value added <sup>na</sup> (millions of 1990-dollars)	39 619	39 959	44 683	51 647
Industrial production index (1990=100)	90	92	100	116
Value added (millions of dollars)	29 173	26 900	54 097	65 859
Gross output (millions of dollars)	75 474	69 330	128 983	142 806
Employment (thousands)	1 139	1 014	1 017	908
<b>-PROFITABILITY: (in percent of gross output)</b>				
Intermediate input (%)	61	61	58	54
Wages and salaries including supplements (%)	20	19	16	17
Gross operating surplus (%)	18	20	26	29
<b>-PRODUCTIVITY: (dollars)</b>				
Gross output per worker	65 402	67 785	125 117	157 330
Value added per worker	25 280	26 301	52 475	72 703
Average wage (including supplements)	13 356	12 977	20 719	26 180
<b>-STRUCTURAL INDICES:</b>				
Structural change indicator (5-year period, %) as a percentage of 1970-1975 structural change	3.74	4.19	4.57	4.36
MVA growth rate perer unit of structural change	1.29	0.40	2.70	4.51
Degree of specialization	11.1	11.1	11.4	11.8
<b>-VALUE ADDED: (millions of dollars)</b>				
311/2 Food products	3 993	3 764	7 647	9 981
313 Beverages	785	847	1 723	2 258
314 Tobacco products	248	179	365	406
321 Textiles	1 050	955	1 673	1 773
322 Wearing apparel	821	722	1 223	1 249
323 Leather and fur products	93	77	105	108
324 Footwear	223	205	279	266
331 Wood and wood products	1 052	1 028	1 728	1 938
332 Furniture and fixtures	505	507	1 032	1 192
341 Paper and paper products	744	704	1 302	1 589
342 Printing and publishing	1 818	2 131	4 058	5 252
351 Industrial chemicals	969	982	1 660	2 096
352 Other chemical products	1 186	1 191	2 291	3 118
353 Petroleum refineries	323	285	1 659	2 273
354 Miscellaneous petroleum and coal products	30	25	34	38
355 Rubber products	341	264	546	616
356 Plastic products	831	808	1 702	2 382
361 Pottery, china and earthenware	46	41	76	102
362 Glass and glass products	246	254	528	622
369 Other non-metal mineral products	1 183	1 085	2 170	2 557
371 Iron and steel	1 920	1 391	2 431	2 478
372 Non-ferrous metals	1 473	1 409	3 791	4 766
381 Metal products	2 467	2 040	4 215	4 840
382 Non-electrical machinery	2 091	1 575	3 070	4 054
383 Electrical machinery	1 351	1 329	2 466	3 006
384 Transport equipment	2 830	2 579	5 379	5 745
385 Professional and scientific equipment	290	279	498	598
390 Other manufacturing industries	263	246	445	544

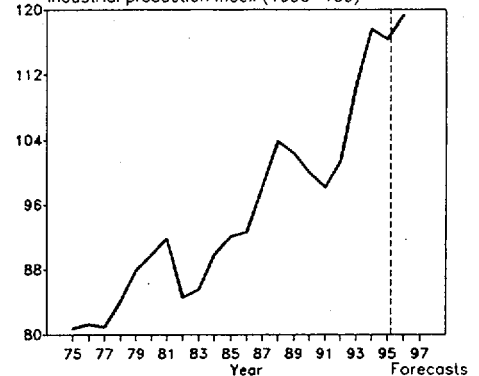
GDP per capita (1000\$/c)



Manufacturing share in GDP, current factor pr. (%)



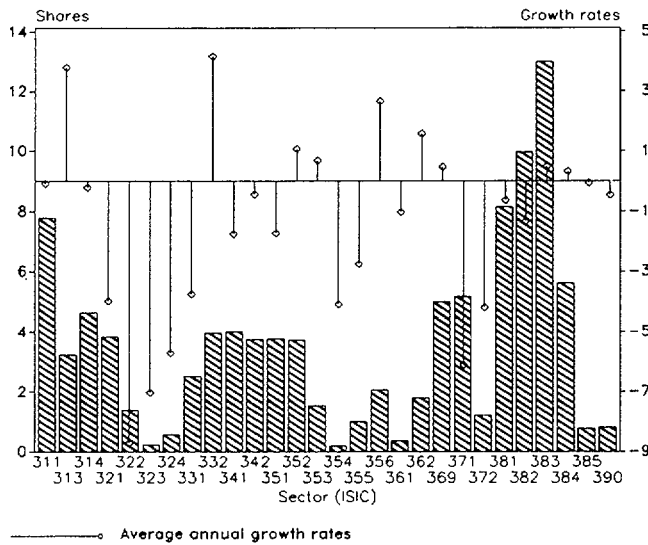
Industrial production index (1990=100)



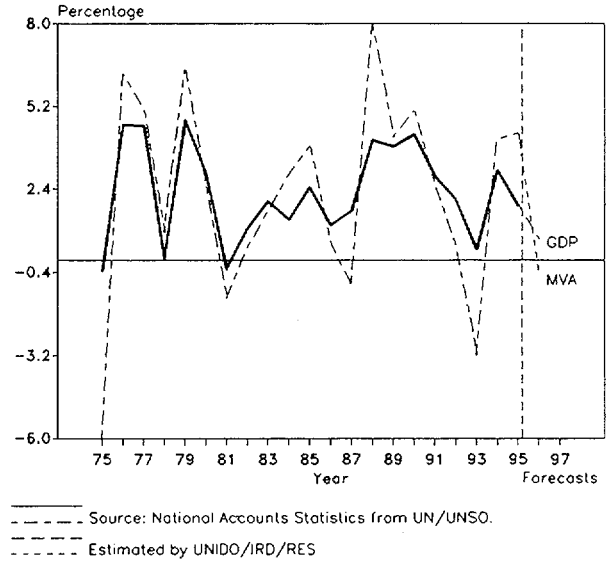
For sources, footnotes and comments see "Technical notes" at the beginning of this Annex.

AUSTRIA

Average sectoral shares in total Value Added and average annual sectoral growth rates, 1990-1996 (Percentage)

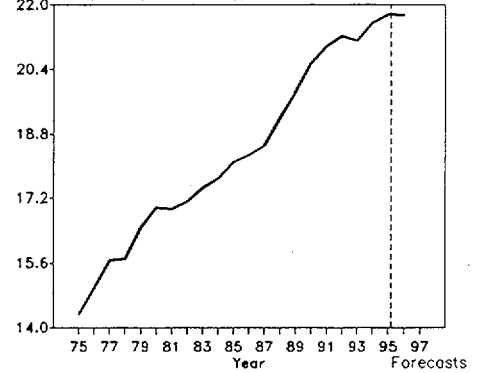


Annual growth rates of GDP and MVA (Constant 1990 prices)

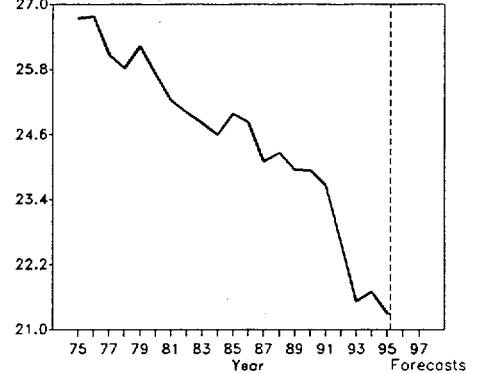


	1980	1985	1990	1995
<b>GDP:</b> <sup>na</sup> (millions of 1990-dollars)	128 101	136 747	158 427	175 079
Per capita <sup>na</sup> (1990-dollars)	16 969	18 093	20 562	21 762
Manufacturing share <sup>na</sup> (%) (current factor prices)	25.7	25.0	23.9	21.3
<b>MANUFACTURING:</b>				
Value added <sup>na</sup> (millions of 1990-dollars)	32 233	34 669	40 785	44 116
Industrial production index (1990=100)	76	83	100	109
Value added (millions of dollars)	15 949	13 394	31 318	40 693
Gross output (millions of dollars)	48 872	41 230	90 474	113 684
Employment (thousands)	699	654	642	559
<b>-PROFITABILITY: (in percent of gross output)</b>				
Intermediate input (%)	67	68	65	64
Wages and salaries including supplements (%)	24	23	23	18
Gross operating surplus and net taxes (%)	9	10	11	17
<b>-PRODUCTIVITY: (dollars)</b>				
Gross output per worker	69 500	62 508	139 901	200 063
Value added per worker	22 681	20 307	48 427	73 681
Average wage (including supplements)	16 754	14 288	33 021	37 567
<b>-STRUCTURAL INDICES:</b>				
Structural change indicator (5-year period, %) as a percentage of 1970-1975 structural change	7.14	5.55	5.10	5.44
MVA growth rate perer unit of structural change	1.26	1.60	1.70	0.78
Degree of specialization	9.7	9.9	10.3	10.8
<b>-VALUE ADDED: (millions of dollars)</b>				
311/2 Food products	1 240	1 073	2 302	3 079
313 Beverages	454	368	841	1 410
314 Tobacco products	807	725	1 417	1 883
321 Textiles	852	623	1 291	1 430
322 Wearing apparel	447	303	547	449
323 Leather and fur products	51	37	82	74
324 Footwear	209	146	213	207
331 Wood and wood products	192	298	879	962
332 Furniture and fixtures	539	407	994	1 710
341 Paper and paper products	631	500	1 333	1 650
342 Printing and publishing	624	513	1 163	1 525
351 Industrial chemicals	638	555	1 277	1 549
352 Other chemical products	534	398	1 070	1 532
353 Petroleum refineries	80	72	489	687
354 Miscellaneous petroleum and coal products	32	24	65	68
355 Rubber products	230	168	311	392
356 Plastic products	281	215	545	864
361 Pottery, china and earthenware	63	42	112	141
362 Glass and glass products	235	229	518	752
369 Other non-metal mineral products	815	652	1 473	2 055
371 Iron and steel	1 223	1 051	2 088	1 996
372 Non-ferrous metals	280	241	434	452
381 Metal products	1 283	942	2 534	3 350
382 Non-electrical machinery	1 656	1 400	3 292	4 096
383 Electrical machinery	1 579	1 430	3 926	5 450
384 Transport equipment	709	743	1 652	2 310
385 Professional and scientific equipment	130	115	222	297
390 Other manufacturing industries	136	123	249	322

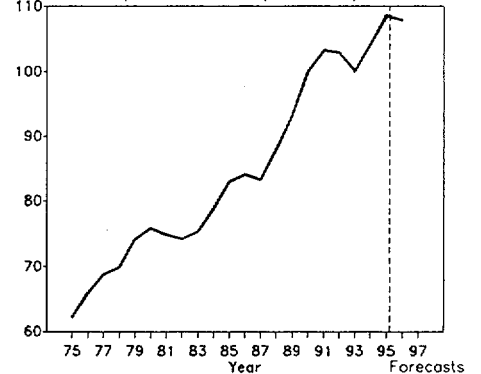
GDP per capita (1000\$/c)



Manufacturing share in GDP, current factor pr. (%)



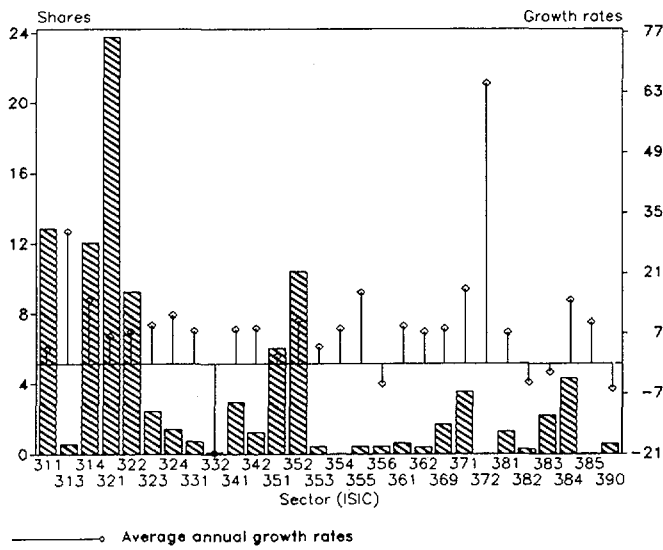
Industrial production index (1990=100)



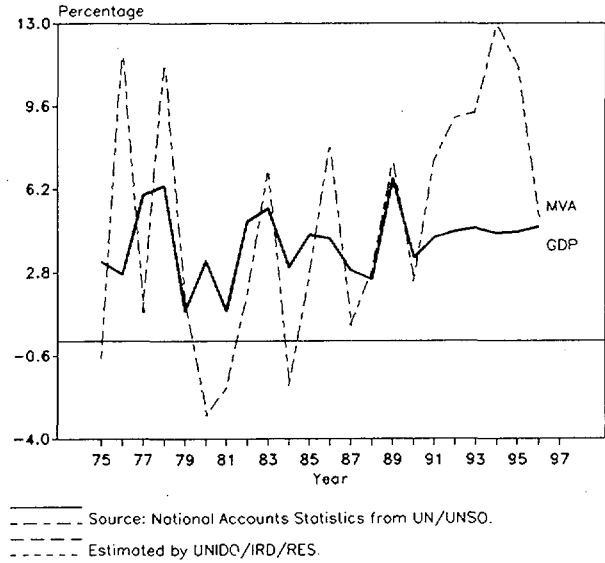
For sources, footnotes and comments see "Technical notes" at the beginning of this Annex.

BANGLADESH

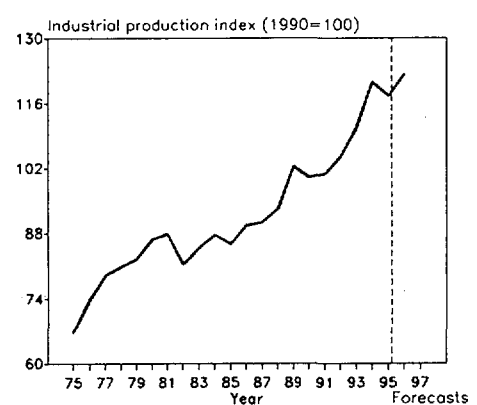
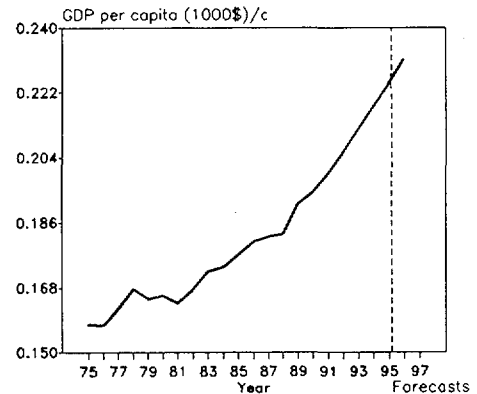
Average sectoral shares in total Value Added and average annual sectoral growth rates, 1990-1996 (Percentage)



Annual growth rates of GDP and MVA (Constant 1990 prices)



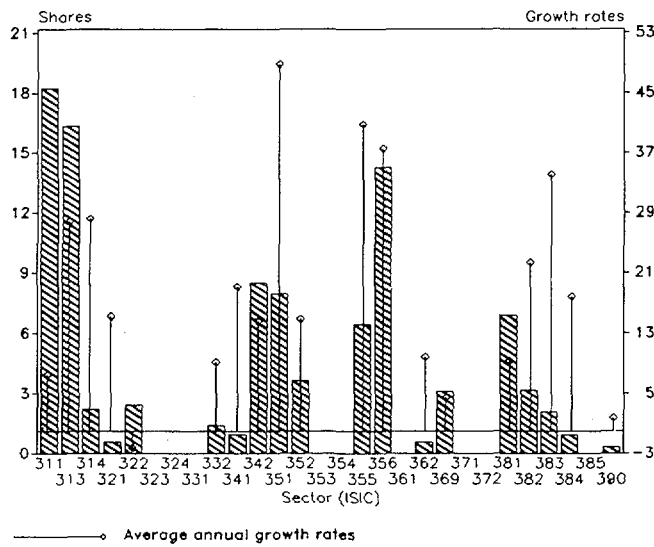
	1980	1985	1990	1995
GDP: <sup>na</sup> (millions of 1990-dollars)	14 636	17 610	21 336	26 503
Per capita <sup>na</sup> (1990-dollars)	166	177	194	224
Manufacturing share <sup>na</sup> (%) (current factor prices)	11.6	9.9	8.7	10.8
<b>MANUFACTURING:</b>				
Value added <sup>na</sup> (millions of 1990-dollars)	1 418	1 523	1 866	2 997
Industrial production index (1990=100)	87	86	100	118
Value added (millions of dollars)	834	863	1 759	2 740
Gross output (millions of dollars)	2 253	2 497	5 504	7 977
Employment (thousands)	412	469	1 028	1 347
<b>-PROFITABILITY: (in percent of gross output)</b>				
Intermediate input (%)	63	65	68	66
Wages and salaries including supplements (%)	12	10	16	12
Gross operating surplus and net taxes (%)	25	24	16	23
<b>-PRODUCTIVITY: (dollars)</b>				
Gross output per worker	5 466	5 191	4 418	5 145
Value added per worker	2 023	1 793	1 412	1 767
Average wage (including supplements)	639	557	859	690
<b>-STRUCTURAL INDICES:</b>				
Structural change indicator (5-year period, %) as a percentage of 1970-1975 structural change	14.31	16.43	19.43	14.49
MVA growth rate perer unit of structural change	100	115	136	101
Degree of specialization	3.73	4.89	1.89	3.94
Degree of specialization	36.0	25.3	24.9	24.8
<b>-VALUE ADDED: (millions of dollars)</b>				
311/2 Food products	78	98	265	331
313 Beverages	7	6	4	19
314 Tobacco products	111	109	153	347
321 Textiles	336	230	439	651
322 Wearing apparel	-	8	158	242
323 Leather and fur products	18	14	42	71
324 Footwear	4	10	21	40
331 Wood and wood products	3	10	14	21
332 Furniture and fixtures	1	2	6	2
341 Paper and paper products	23	19	53	84
342 Printing and publishing	6	8	23	36
351 Industrial chemicals	33	70	134	144
352 Other chemical products	97	85	166	297
353 Petroleum refineries	2	75	9	11
354 Miscellaneous petroleum and coal products	1	2	1	1
355 Rubber products	4	1	5	13
356 Plastic products	-	2	14	10
361 Pottery, china and earthenware	2	4	10	17
362 Glass and glass products	4	4	7	11
369 Other non-metal mineral products	14	7	31	49
371 Iron and steel	39	35	43	108
372 Non-ferrous metals	-	-	-	2
381 Metal products	9	13	22	34
382 Non-electrical machinery	4	17	7	6
383 Electrical machinery	19	18	60	52
384 Transport equipment	11	10	56	128
385 Professional and scientific equipment	-	-	-	1
390 Other manufacturing industries	8	7	18	13



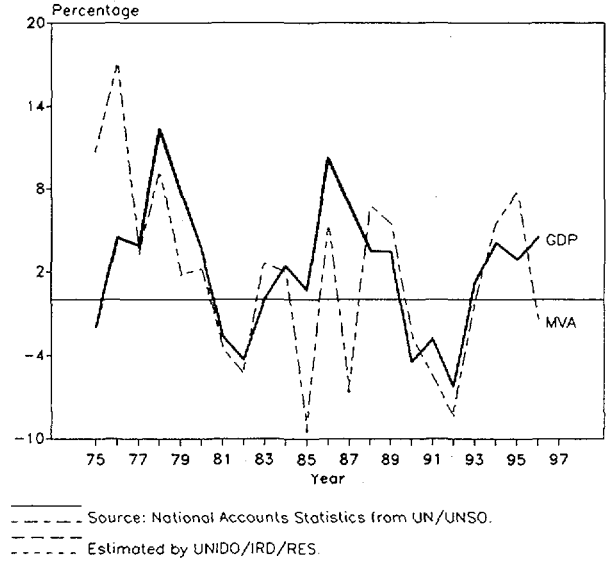
For sources, footnotes and comments see "Technical notes" at the beginning of this Annex.

BARBADOS

Average sectoral shares in total Value Added and average annual sectoral growth rates, 1990-1996 (Percentage)

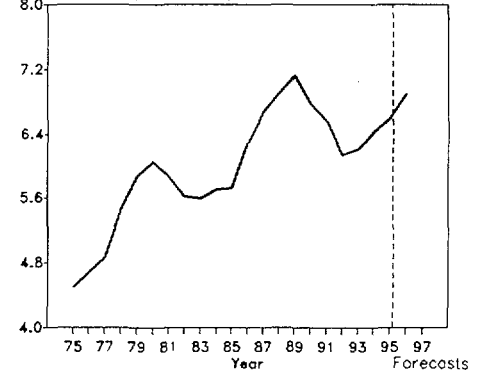


Annual growth rates of GDP and MVA (Constant 1990 prices)

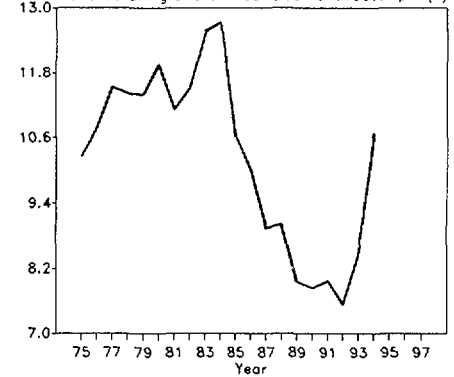


	1980	1985	1990	1995
<b>GDP:</b> <sup>na</sup> (millions of 1990-dollars)	1 506	1 447	1 743	1 722
Per capita <sup>na</sup> (1990-dollars)	6 048	5 720	6 783	6 599
Manufacturing share <sup>na</sup> (%) (current factor prices)	11.9	10.6	7.8	..
<b>MANUFACTURING:</b>				
Value added <sup>na</sup> (millions of 1990-dollars)	127	110	118	116
Industrial production index (1990=100)	101	91	100	102
Value added (millions of dollars)	53	90	95	289
Gross output (millions of dollars)	241	383	412	655
Employment (thousands)	8	9	7	8
<b>-PROFITABILITY: (in percent of gross output)</b>				
Intermediate input (%)	79	78	79	60
Wages and salaries including supplements (%)	14	18	16	17
Gross operating surplus and net taxes (%)	7	4	5	24
<b>-PRODUCTIVITY: (dollars)</b>				
Gross output per worker	32 555	43 420	64 073	81 967
Value added per worker	6 853	9 724	13 984	36 220
Average wage (including supplements)	4 510	8 079	10 023	12 899
<b>-STRUCTURAL INDICES:</b>				
Structural change indicator (5-year period, %) as a percentage of 1970-1975 structural change	11.45	15.66	21.91	26.32
MVA growth rate perer unit of structural change	0.11	0.77	0.11	2.86
Degree of specialization	14.6	16.2	20.4	15.8
<b>-VALUE ADDED: (millions of dollars)</b>				
311/2 Food products	12	25	30	52
313 Beverages	6	12	10	49
314 Tobacco products	1	2	1	7
321 Textiles	-	-	1	2
322 Wearing apparel	6	7	5	6
323 Leather and fur products	-	-	-	-
324 Footwear	-	-	-	-
331 Wood and wood products	-	-	-	-
332 Furniture and fixtures	1	2	2	4
341 Paper and paper products	-	1	1	3
342 Printing and publishing	4	8	10	24
351 Industrial chemicals	-	-	1	17
352 Other chemical products	1	3	4	12
353 Petroleum refineries	-	-	-	-
354 Miscellaneous petroleum and coal products	-	-	-	-
355 Rubber products	1	1	2	19
356 Plastic products	2	4	6	43
361 Pottery, china and earthenware	-	-	-	-
362 Glass and glass products	-	-	1	2
369 Other non-metal mineral products	3	-3	5	8
371 Iron and steel	-	-	-	-
372 Non-ferrous metals	-	-	-	-
381 Metal products	3	5	10	20
382 Non-electrical machinery	5	11	3	11
383 Electrical machinery	3	8	1	7
384 Transport equipment	1	2	1	3
385 Professional and scientific equipment	-	-	-	-
390 Other manufacturing industries	3	1	1	1

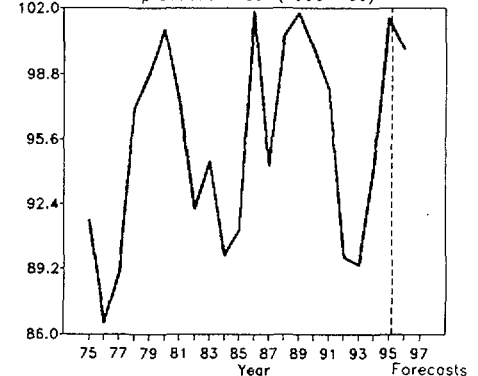
GDP per capita (1000\$)/c



Manufacturing share in GDP, current factor pr. (%)

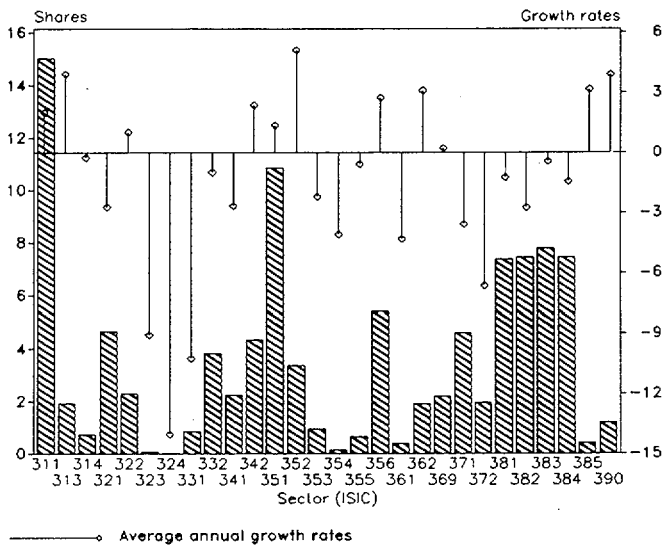


Industrial production index (1990=100)

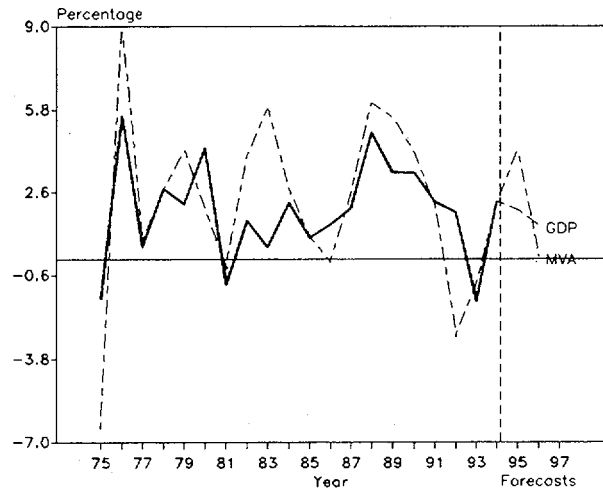


For sources, footnotes and comments see "Technical notes" at the beginning of this Annex.

Average sectoral shares in total Value Added and average annual sectoral growth rates, 1990-1996 (Percentage)



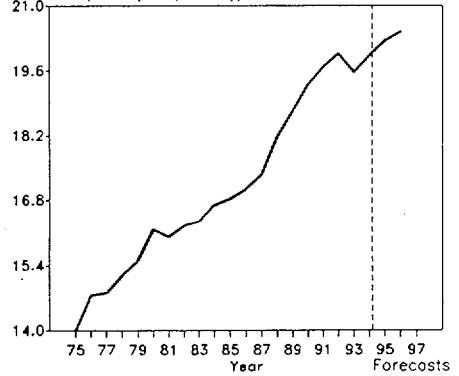
Annual growth rates of GDP and MVA (Constant 1990 prices)



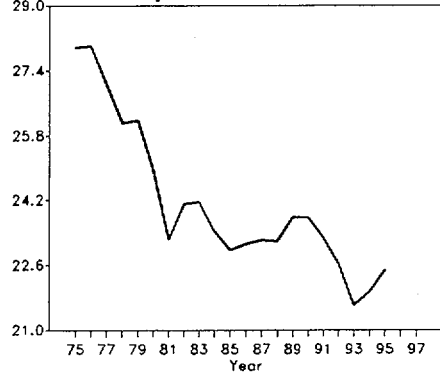
Source: National Accounts Statistics from UN/UNSO.  
 Estimated by UNIDO/IRD/RES.

	1980	1985	1990	1995
<b>GDP:</b> <sup>na</sup> (millions of 1990-dollars)	159 346	165 870	192 174	204 962
Per capita <sup>na</sup> (1990-dollars)	16 174	16 828	19 312	20 239
Manufacturing share <sup>na</sup> (%) (current factor prices)	25.0	23.0	23.8	22.5
<b>MANUFACTURING:</b>				
Value added <sup>na</sup> (millions of 1990-dollars)	32 018	36 333	43 280	45 096
Industrial production index (1990=100)	81	86	100	102
Value added (millions of dollars)	28 130	18 229	42 213	53 712
Gross output (millions of dollars)	94 373	67 088	166 598	188 897
Employment (thousands)	872	756	737	667
<b>-PROFITABILITY: (in percent of gross output)</b>				
Intermediate input (%)	70	73	75	72
Wages and salaries including supplements (%)	15	12	10	11
Gross operating surplus (%)	15	15	15	18
<b>-PRODUCTIVITY: (dollars)</b>				
Gross output per worker	102 512	83 644	212 995	266 054
Value added per worker	30 556	22 728	53 969	75 770
Average wage (including supplements)	16 066	10 604	22 719	30 430
<b>-STRUCTURAL INDICES:</b>				
Structural change indicator (5-year period, %) as a percentage of 1970-1975 structural change	6.37	6.47	6.72	6.07
MVA growth rate perer unit of structural change	1.18	0.20	0.87	0.96
Degree of specialization	12.5	14.5	13.5	14.2
<b>-VALUE ADDED: (millions of dollars)</b>				
311/2 Food products	3 991	2 863	5 814	8 265
313 Beverages	549	359	678	1 078
314 Tobacco products	199	123	310	387
321 Textiles	1 445	937	2 065	2 317
322 Wearing apparel	671	392	914	1 231
323 Leather and fur products	136	24	38	31
324 Footwear	67	11	18	10
331 Wood and wood products	226	131	503	335
332 Furniture and fixtures	1 123	614	1 613	1 960
341 Paper and paper products	612	441	1 042	1 155
342 Printing and publishing	926	602	1 677	2 458
351 Industrial chemicals	2 401	2 250	4 483	6 189
352 Other chemical products	665	467	1 199	2 026
353 Petroleum refineries	499	214	409	467
354 Miscellaneous petroleum and coal products	90	33	64	68
355 Rubber products	193	130	272	341
356 Plastic products	819	695	2 018	2 893
361 Pottery, china and earthenware	107	62	190	189
362 Glass and glass products	516	265	742	1 143
369 Other non-metal mineral products	654	331	851	1 111
371 Iron and steel	2 294	985	2 305	2 519
372 Non-ferrous metals	487	417	1 140	972
381 Metal products	2 071	1 206	3 190	3 826
382 Non-electrical machinery	2 490	1 605	3 458	3 812
383 Electrical machinery	2 303	1 430	3 360	4 210
384 Transport equipment	1 892	1 216	3 258	3 750
385 Professional and scientific equipment	170	102	159	244
390 Other manufacturing industries	537	325	444	721

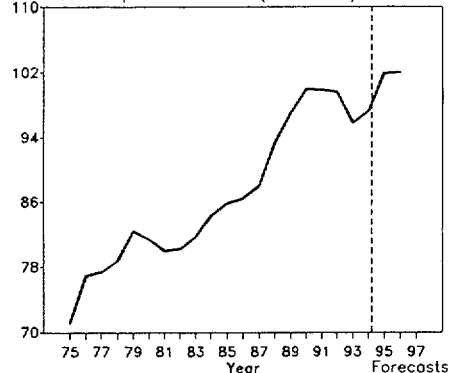
GDP per capita (1000\$)/c



Manufacturing share in GDP, current factor pr. (%)



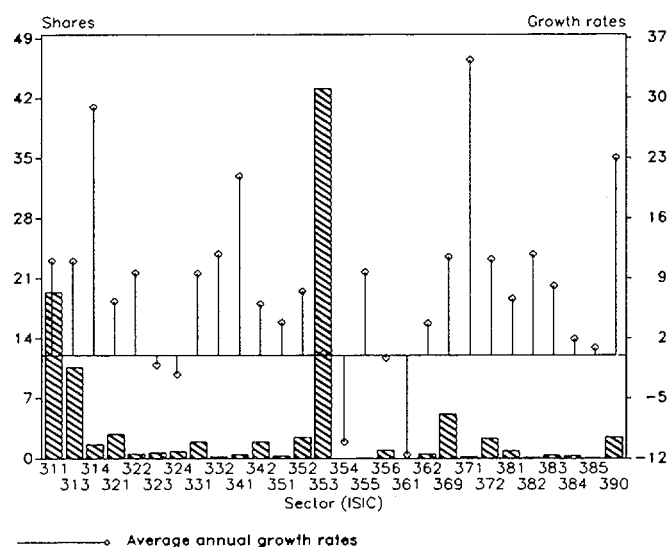
Industrial production index (1990=100)



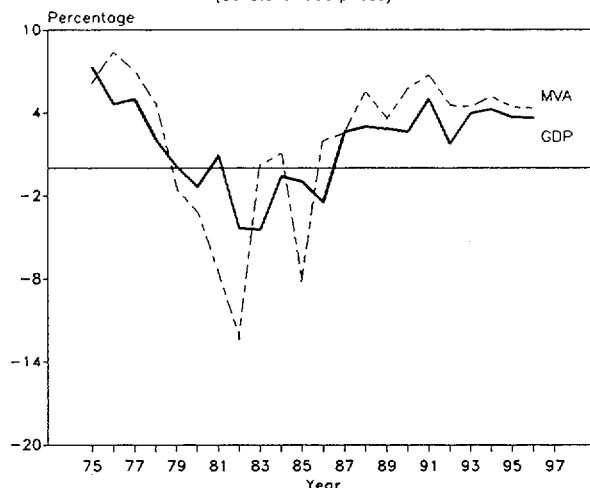
For sources, footnotes and comments see "Technical notes" at the beginning of this Annex.

## BOLIVIA

Average sectoral shares in total Value Added and average annual sectoral growth rates, 1990-1996 (Percentage)



Annual growth rates of GDP and MVA (Constant 1990 prices)

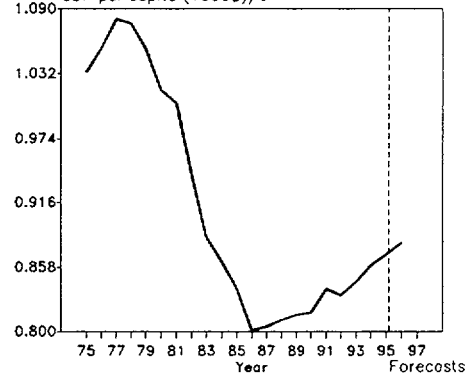


Source: National Accounts Statistics from UN/UNSO.  
 Estimated by UNIDO/IRD/RES

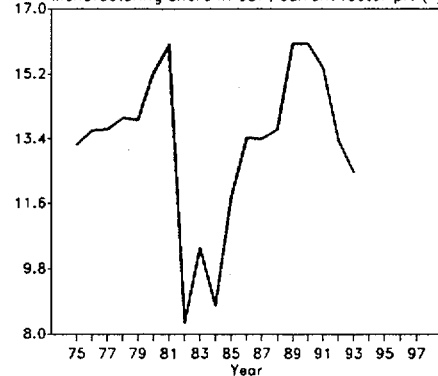
	1980	1985	1990	1995
<b>GDP:</b> <sup>na</sup> (millions of 1990-dollars)	5 445	4 943	5 373	6 448
Per capita <sup>na</sup> (1990-dollars)	1 017	839	817	870
Manufacturing share <sup>na</sup> (%) (current factor prices)	15.2	11.8	16.0	..
<b>MANUFACTURING:</b>				
Value added <sup>na</sup> (millions of 1990-dollars)	953	715	862	1 100
Industrial production index (1990=100)	117	87	100	118
Value added (millions of dollars)	619	394	640	981
Gross output (millions of dollars)	1 698	1 078	1 417	2 310
Employment (thousands)	43	28	28	36
<b>-PROFITABILITY:</b> (in percent of gross output)				
Intermediate input (%)	64	64	55	58
Wages and salaries including supplements (%)	8	6	6	6
Gross operating surplus and net taxes (%)	28	31	39	37
<b>-PRODUCTIVITY:</b> (dollars)				
Gross output per worker	38 348	38 228	38 597	49 820
Value added per worker	13 977	13 947	17 407	21 181
Average wage (including supplements)	3 147	2 129	3 149	3 844
<b>-STRUCTURAL INDICES:</b>				
Structural change indicator (5-year period, %)	20.53	31.15	43.96	31.63
as a percentage of 1970-1975 structural change	100	152	214	154
MVA growth rate per unit of structural change	4.23	1.15	0.18	1.66
Degree of specialization	26.0	40.5	46.2	37.6
<b>-VALUE ADDED:</b> (millions of dollars)				
311/2 Food products	93	193	104	210
313 Beverages	57	34	51	107
314 Tobacco products	21	4	5	25
321 Textiles	34	26	18	29
322 Wearing apparel	6	3	3	5
323 Leather and fur products	5	2	5	6
324 Footwear	24	14	8	7
331 Wood and wood products	15	5	11	21
332 Furniture and fixtures	2	1	1	2
341 Paper and paper products	-	1	1	4
342 Printing and publishing	14	9	12	18
351 Industrial chemicals	3	2	2	3
352 Other chemical products	16	11	15	25
353 Petroleum refineries	159	29	336	371
354 Miscellaneous petroleum and coal products	-	-	-	-
355 Rubber products	1	-	-	-
356 Plastic products	11	4	7	8
361 Pottery, china and earthenware	1	-	-	-
362 Glass and glass products	6	6	3	5
369 Other non-metal mineral products	21	28	29	59
371 Iron and steel	1	1	-	2
372 Non-ferrous metals	89	14	10	24
381 Metal products	14	4	5	8
382 Non-electrical machinery	16	-	1	1
383 Electrical machinery	3	1	2	4
384 Transport equipment	5	-	2	2
385 Professional and scientific equipment	1	1	1	1
390 Other manufacturing industries	2	-	8	31

For sources, footnotes and comments see "Technical notes" at the beginning of this Annex.

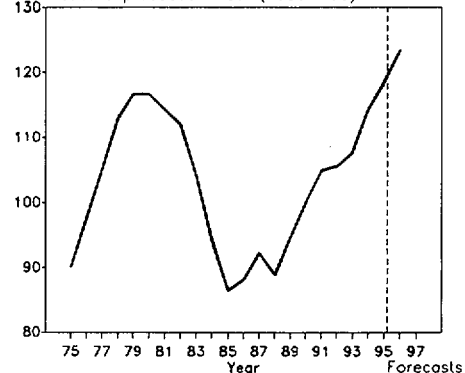
GDP per capita (1000\$)/c



Manufacturing share in GDP, current factor pr. (%)



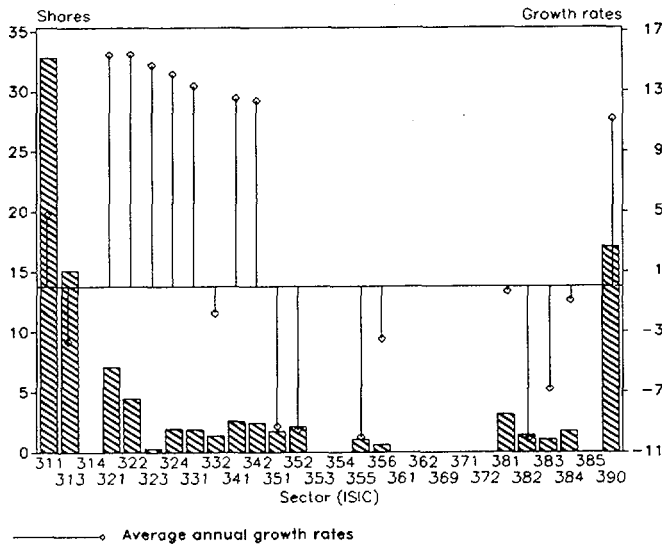
Industrial production index (1990=100)



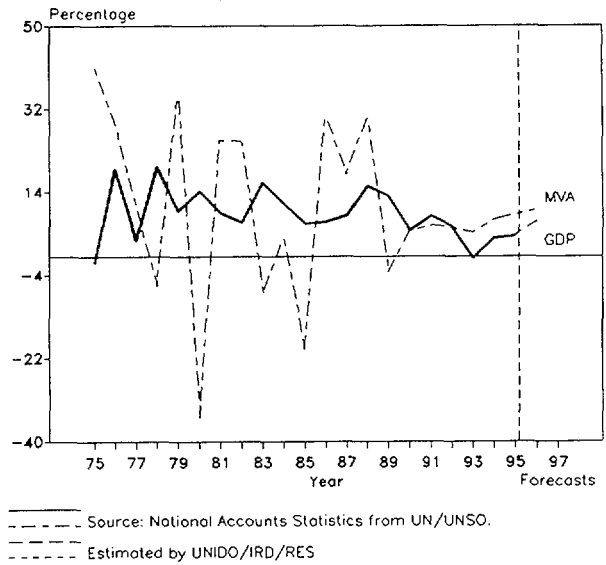


BOTSWANA

Average sectoral shares in total Value Added and average annual sectoral growth rates, 1990-1996 (Percentage)

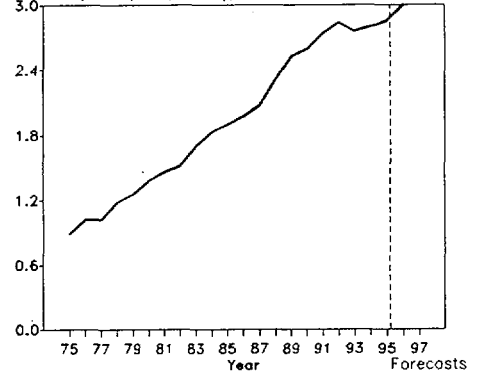


Annual growth rates of GDP and MVA (Constant 1990 prices)

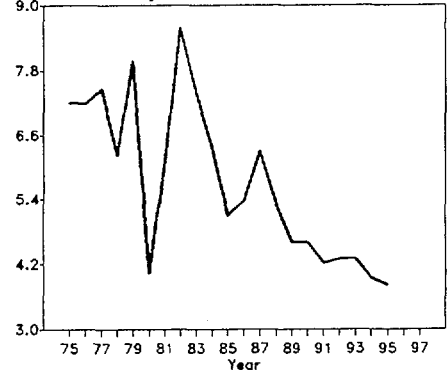


	1980	1985	1990	1995
GDP: <sup>na</sup> (millions of 1990-dollars)	1 252	2 042	3 296	4 138
Per capita <sup>na</sup> (1990-dollars)	1 381	1 896	2 591	2 854
Manufacturing share <sup>na</sup> (%) (current factor prices)	4.0	5.1	4.6	4.1
<b>MANUFACTURING:</b>				
Value added <sup>na</sup> (millions of 1990-dollars)	60	71	144	202
Industrial production index (1990=100)	45	62	100	140
Value added (millions of dollars)	41	46	146	212
Gross output (millions of dollars)	149	169	565	894
Employment (thousands)	5	10	24	24
<b>-PROFITABILITY: (in percent of gross output)</b>				
Intermediate input (%)	73	73	74	76
Wages and salaries including supplements (%)	14	11	10	12
Gross operating surplus (%)	14	16	16	12
<b>-PRODUCTIVITY: (dollars)</b>				
Gross output per worker	27 102	16 581	23 250	37 028
Value added per worker	7 445	4 518	5 997	8 768
Average wage (including supplements)	3 664	1 880	2 337	4 508
<b>-STRUCTURAL INDICES:</b>				
Structural change indicator (5-year period, %)	2.93	13.56	14.14	11.82
as a percentage of 1970-1975 structural change	100	462	482	403
MVA growth rate perer unit of structural change	11.65	2.56	5.48	4.69
Degree of specialization	33.5	26.7	24.4	26.3
<b>-VALUE ADDED: (millions of dollars)</b>				
311/2 Food products	13	14	46	69
313 Beverages	4	10	30	27
314 Tobacco products	-	-	-	-
321 Textiles	4	2	7	17
322 Wearing apparel	2	1	4	11
323 Leather and fur products	-	-	-	1
324 Footwear	1	-	2	5
331 Wood and wood products	-	-	2	5
332 Furniture and fixtures	-	-	3	3
341 Paper and paper products	-	1	3	6
342 Printing and publishing	-	1	3	6
351 Industrial chemicals	-	1	4	3
352 Other chemical products	-	1	5	3
353 Petroleum refineries	-	-	-	-
354 Miscellaneous petroleum and coal products	-	-	-	-
355 Rubber products	-	1	2	1
356 Plastic products	-	1	1	1
361 Pottery, china and earthenware	-	-	-	-
362 Glass and glass products	-	-	-	-
369 Other non-metal mineral products	-	-	-	-
371 Iron and steel	-	-	-	-
372 Non-ferrous metals	-	-	-	-
381 Metal products	1	2	5	5
382 Non-electrical machinery	1	1	3	2
383 Electrical machinery	-	1	2	2
384 Transport equipment	1	1	3	3
385 Professional and scientific equipment	-	-	-	-
390 Other manufacturing industries	12	8	20	42

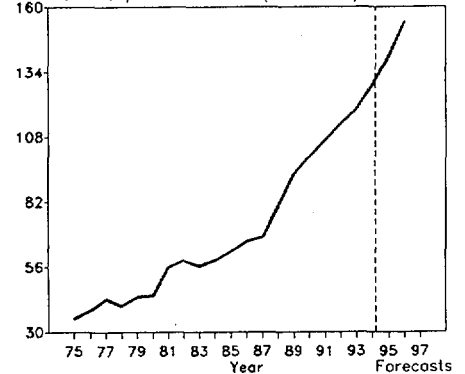
GDP per capita (1000\$)/c



Manufacturing share in GDP, current factor pr. (%)



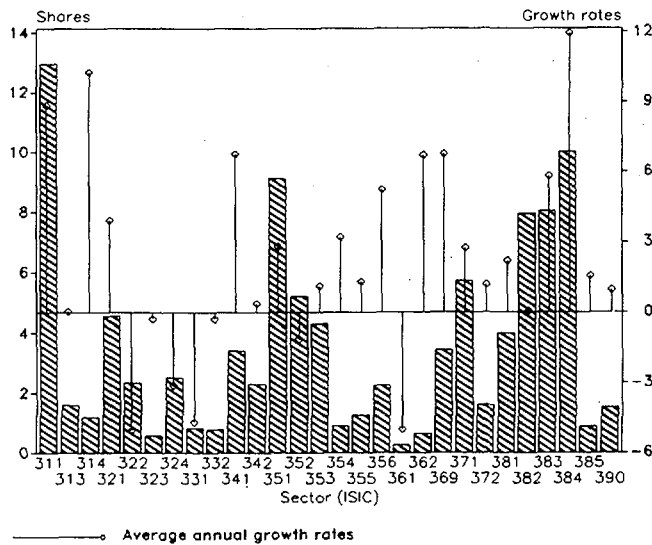
Industrial production index (1990=100)



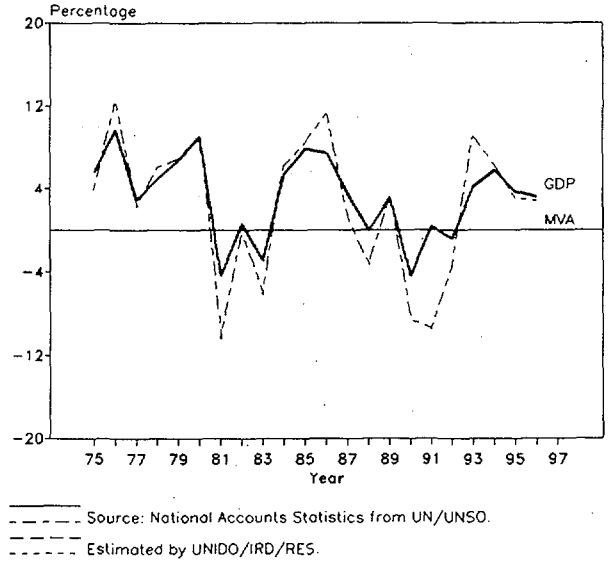
For sources, footnotes and comments see "Technical notes" at the beginning of this Annex.

**BRAZIL**

Average sectoral shares in total Value Added and average annual sectoral growth rates, 1990-1996 (Percentage)

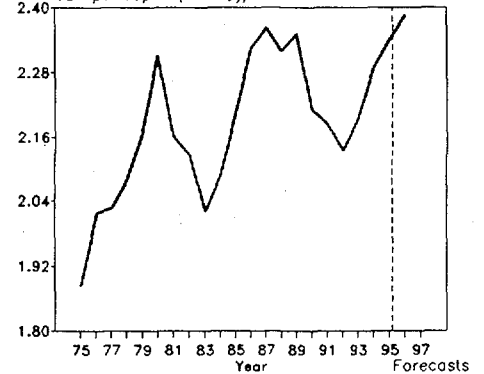


Annual growth rates of GDP and MVA (Constant 1990 prices)

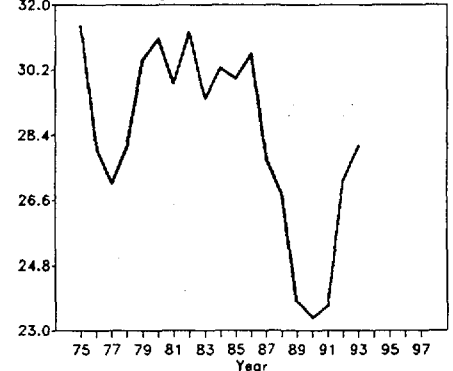


	1980	1985	1990	1995
<b>GDP:</b> <sup>na</sup> (millions of 1990-dollars)	281 181	298 348	327 129	372 178
Per capita <sup>na</sup> (1990-dollars)	2 311	2 206	2 210	2 341
Manufacturing share <sup>na</sup> (%) (current factor prices)	31.1	30.0	23.3	..
<b>MANUFACTURING:</b>				
Value added <sup>na</sup> (millions of 1990-dollars)	76 534	73 707	75 289	78 241
Industrial production index (1990=100)	98	99	100	111
Value added (millions of dollars)	71 700	77 082	85 189	277 242
Gross output (millions of dollars)	189 076	174 341	175 803	522 122
Employment (thousands)	5 562	5 501	4 688	4 816
<b>-PROFITABILITY: (in percent of gross output)</b>				
Intermediate input (%)	62	56	52	47
Wages and salaries including supplements (%)	10	9	11	12
Gross operating surplus and net taxes (%)	28	36	37	41
<b>-PRODUCTIVITY: (dollars)</b>				
Gross output per worker	33 993	31 692	37 131	107 588
Value added per worker	12 891	14 012	17 992	60 033
Average wage (including supplements)	3 400	2 756	4 230	12 599
<b>-STRUCTURAL INDICES:</b>				
Structural change indicator (5-year period, %)	8.01	8.81	8.68	8.41
as a percentage of 1970-1975 structural change	100	110	108	105
MVA growth rate perer unit of structural change	9.91	3.96	-0.04	-0.78
Degree of specialization	8.9	9.4	9.6	11.8
<b>-VALUE ADDED: (millions of dollars)</b>				
311/2 Food products	7 996	9 259	8 687	38 022
313 Beverages	1 375	957	1 388	3 839
314 Tobacco products	495	587	726	3 459
321 Textiles	4 860	4 586	3 862	12 850
322 Wearing apparel	2 307	2 639	3 166	6 011
323 Leather and fur products	309	464	587	1 519
324 Footwear	985	1 353	2 604	5 687
331 Wood and wood products	1 903	1 220	951	2 025
332 Furniture and fixtures	1 087	949	843	2 133
341 Paper and paper products	2 238	2 260	2 556	9 882
342 Printing and publishing	1 901	1 496	2 305	6 202
351 Industrial chemicals	3 428	6 384	8 039	24 753
352 Other chemical products	3 544	4 517	5 319	13 093
353 Petroleum refineries	3 075	3 726	4 081	11 454
354 Miscellaneous petroleum and coal products	1 216	718	792	2 476
355 Rubber products	941	1 420	1 059	3 118
356 Plastic products	1 994	1 742	1 847	6 578
361 Pottery, china and earthenware	200	844	249	509
362 Glass and glass products	558	525	466	1 813
369 Other non-metal mineral products	3 447	1 941	2 553	9 950
371 Iron and steel	4 128	4 927	5 198	15 845
372 Non-ferrous metals	1 115	1 564	1 496	4 106
381 Metal products	3 599	3 063	3 711	11 108
382 Non-electrical machinery	7 171	7 092	8 355	21 713
383 Electrical machinery	4 536	5 831	6 341	23 167
384 Transport equipment	5 625	4 954	5 652	29 405
385 Professional and scientific equipment	453	910	861	2 424
390 Other manufacturing industries	1 216	1 154	1 497	4 131

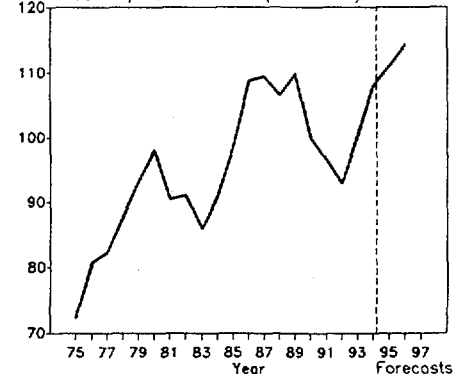
GDP per capita (1000\$/c)



Manufacturing share in GDP, current factor pr. (%)

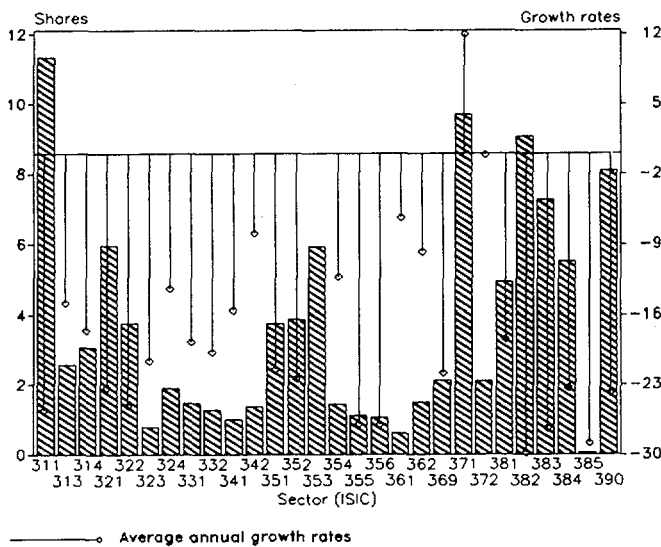


Industrial production index (1990=100)

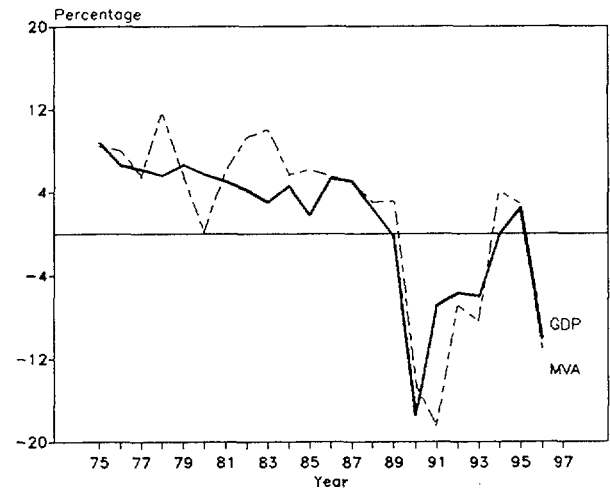


For sources, footnotes and comments see "Technical notes" at the beginning of this Annex.

Average sectoral shares in total Value Added and average annual sectoral growth rates, 1990-1996 (Percentage)

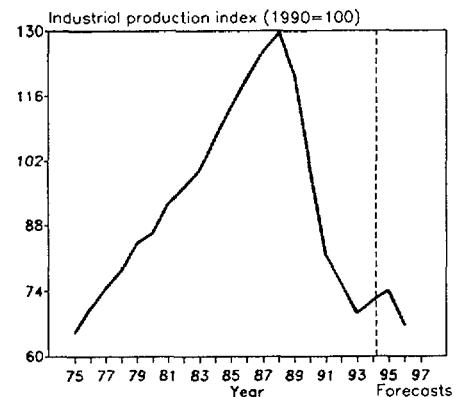
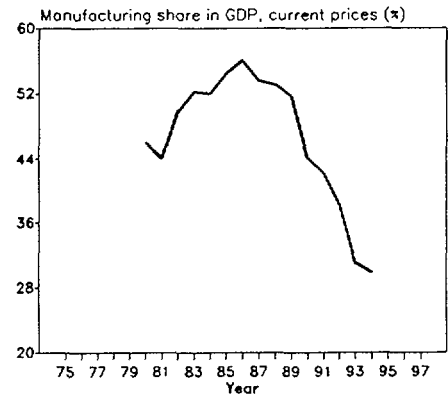
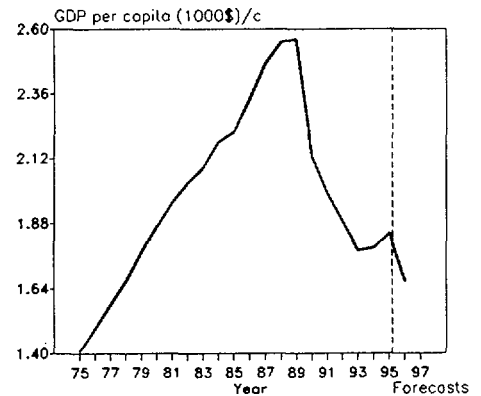


Annual growth rates of GDP and MVA (Constant 1990 prices)



Source: National Accounts Statistics from UN/UNSO.  
 Estimated by UNIDO/IRD/RES.

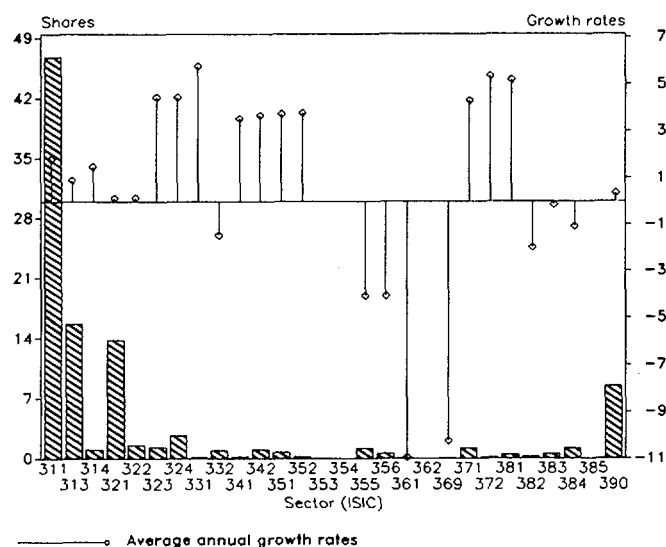
	1980	1985	1990	1995
<b>GDP:</b> <sup>na</sup> (millions of 1990-dollars)	16 571	19 885	18 543	15 685
Per capita <sup>na</sup> (1990-dollars)	1 870	2 219	2 127	1 843
Manufacturing share <sup>na</sup> (%) (current factor prices)	46.0	54.4	44.0	..
<b>MANUFACTURING:</b>				
Value added <sup>na</sup> (millions of 1990-dollars)	5 715	8 153	8 166	6 049
Industrial production index (1990=100)	86	114	100	74
Value added (millions of dollars)	11 771	20 759	10 227	5 498
Gross output (millions of dollars)	25 818	44 413	21 453	10 843
Employment (thousands)	1 217	1 256	1 320	694
<b>-PROFITABILITY: (in percent of gross output)</b>				
Intermediate input (%)	54	53	52	49
Wages and salaries including supplements (%)	8	7	9	9
Gross operating surplus and net taxes (%)	38	40	38	41
<b>-PRODUCTIVITY: (dollars)</b>				
Gross output per worker	21 221	35 355	16 252	15 613
Value added per worker	9 675	16 525	7 748	7 916
Average wage (including supplements)	1 635	2 451	1 527	1 458
<b>-STRUCTURAL INDICES:</b>				
Structural change indicator (5-year period, %) as a percentage of 1970-1975 structural change	15.59	14.79	5.46	15.86
MVA growth rate perer unit of structural change	100	95	35	102
Degree of specialization	5.98	5.19	2.29	-2.59
Degree of specialization	12.9	13.3	14.3	11.7
<b>-VALUE ADDED: (millions of dollars)</b>				
311/2 Food products	1 870	3 093	1 429	511
313 Beverages	308	504	230	184
314 Tobacco products	426	627	260	171
321 Textiles	904	1 421	760	324
322 Wearing apparel	517	967	518	192
323 Leather and fur products	84	179	91	48
324 Footwear	156	332	169	149
331 Wood and wood products	248	384	142	86
332 Furniture and fixtures	233	365	137	77
341 Paper and paper products	119	186	84	64
342 Printing and publishing	83	146	86	109
351 Industrial chemicals	404	671	264	104
352 Other chemical products	291	585	292	107
353 Petroleum refineries	..	..	..	..
354 Miscellaneous petroleum and coal products	126	179	93	89
355 Rubber products	227	350	134	39
356 Plastic products	110	234	123	31
361 Pottery, china and earthenware	45	63	38	52
362 Glass and glass products	121	178	109	123
369 Other non-metal mineral products	469	685	242	116
371 Iron and steel	447	636	285	1 020
372 Non-ferrous metals	189	342	105	217
381 Metal products	484	946	529	326
382 Non-electrical machinery	1 656	2 924	1 443	361
383 Electrical machinery	743	1 585	968	297
384 Transport equipment	567	1 194	714	304
385 Professional and scientific equipment	6	14	8	2
390 Other manufacturing industries	937	1 967	974	396



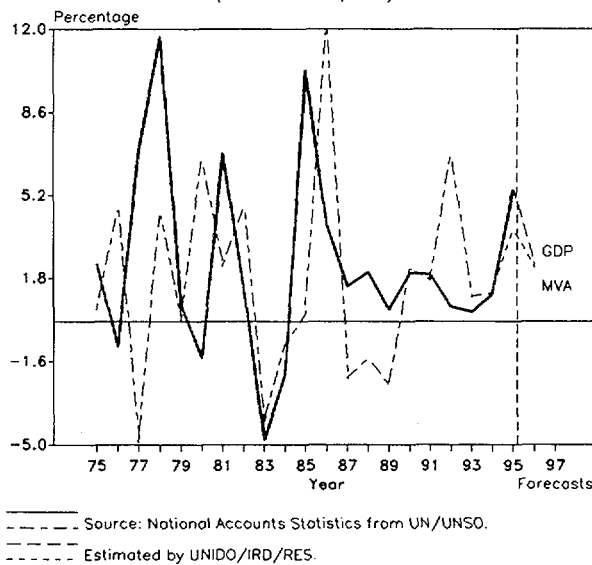
For sources, footnotes and comments see "Technical notes" at the beginning of this Annex.

**BURKINA FASO**

Average sectoral shares in total Value Added and average annual sectoral growth rates, 1990-1996 (Percentage)

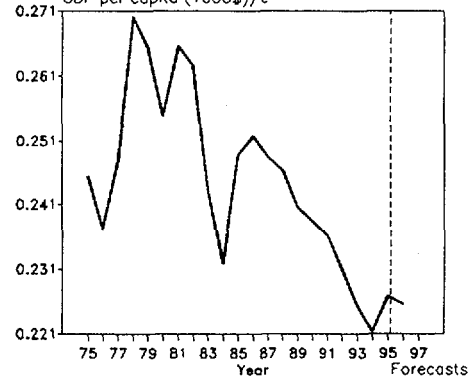


Annual growth rates of GDP and MVA (Constant 1990 prices)

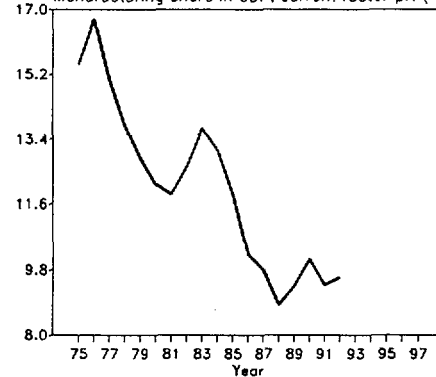


	1980	1985	1990	1995
<b>GDP:</b> <sup>na</sup> (millions of 1990-dollars)	1 760	1 962	2 165	2 376
Per capita <sup>na</sup> (1990-dollars)	255	249	238	227
Manufacturing share <sup>na</sup> (%) (current factor prices)	12.2	11.9	10.1	..
<b>MANUFACTURING:</b>				
Value added <sup>na</sup> (millions of 1990-dollars)	236	241	258	298
Industrial production index (1990=100)	85	92	100	102
Value added (millions of dollars)	144	123	206	162
Gross output (millions of dollars)	391	323	609	530
Employment (thousands)	8	9	9	10
<b>-PROFITABILITY: (in percent of gross output)</b>				
Intermediate input (%)	63	62	66	69
Wages and salaries including supplements (%)	8	7	8	8
Gross operating surplus (%)	28	31	26	23
<b>-PRODUCTIVITY: (dollars)</b>				
Gross output per worker	47 326	36 551	64 282	51 817
Value added per worker	17 465	13 949	21 768	15 869
Average wage (including supplements)	4 021	2 664	4 920	4 050
<b>-STRUCTURAL INDICES:</b>				
Structural change indicator (5-year period, %) as a percentage of 1970-1975 structural change	8.07	7.51	4.81	2.23
MVA growth rate perer unit of structural change	1.73	1.75	2.90	2.30
Degree of specialization	36.8	42.1	42.0	42.6
<b>-VALUE ADDED: (millions of dollars)</b>				
311/2 Food products	55	56	94	76
313 Beverages	29	20	32	25
314 Tobacco products	1	1	2	2
321 Textiles	20	18	31	22
322 Wearing apparel	2	2	3	2
323 Leather and fur products	2	1	2	2
324 Footwear	3	3	5	5
331 Wood and wood products	-	-	-	-
332 Furniture and fixtures	2	2	2	2
341 Paper and paper products	-	-	-	-
342 Printing and publishing	1	1	2	2
351 Industrial chemicals	1	1	1	1
352 Other chemical products	-	-	-	-
353 Petroleum refineries	-	-	-	-
354 Miscellaneous petroleum and coal products	-	-	-	-
355 Rubber products	4	2	3	2
356 Plastic products	2	1	1	1
361 Pottery, china and earthenware	-	-	-	-
362 Glass and glass products	-	-	-	-
369 Other non-metal mineral products	-	-	-	-
371 Iron and steel	1	1	2	2
372 Non-ferrous metals	-	-	-	-
381 Metal products	1	-	1	1
382 Non-electrical machinery	1	-	1	-
383 Electrical machinery	1	1	1	1
384 Transport equipment	3	1	3	2
385 Professional and scientific equipment	-	-	-	-
390 Other manufacturing industries	12	11	18	13

GDP per capita (1000\$)/c



Manufacturing share in GDP, current factor pr. (%)



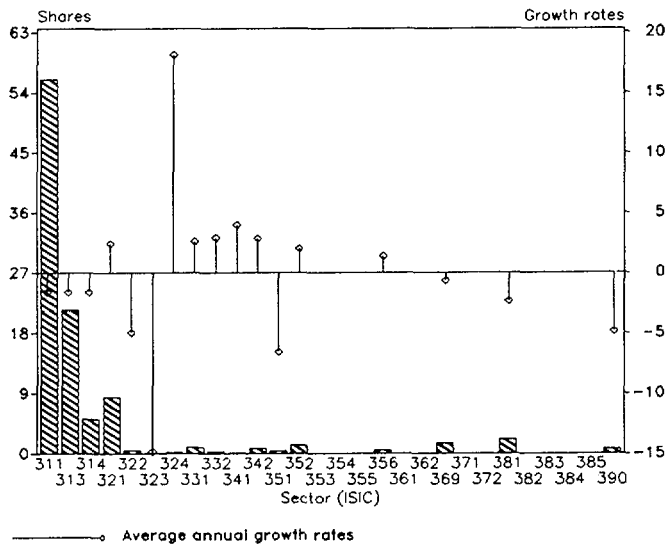
Industrial production index (1990=100)



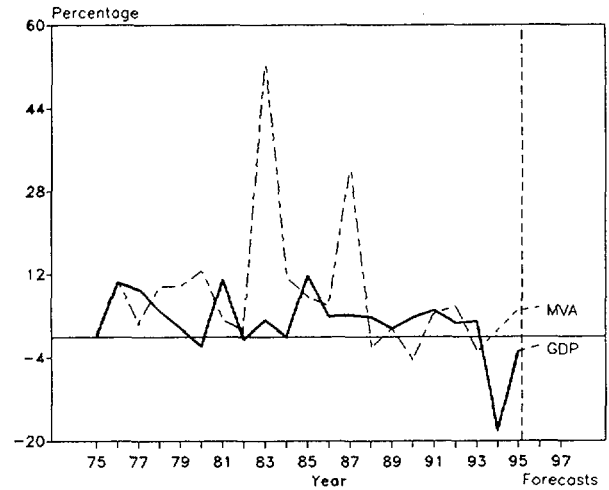
For sources, footnotes and comments see "Technical notes" at the beginning of this Annex.

BURUNDI

Average sectoral shares in total Value Added and average annual sectoral growth rates, 1990-1996 (Percentage)

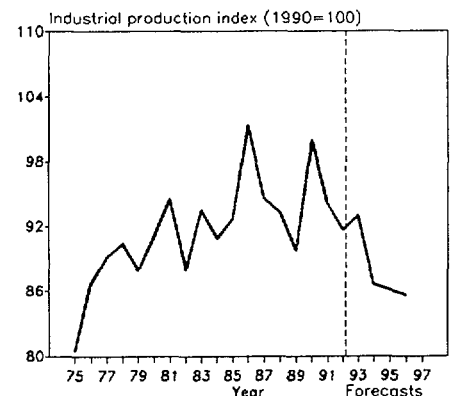
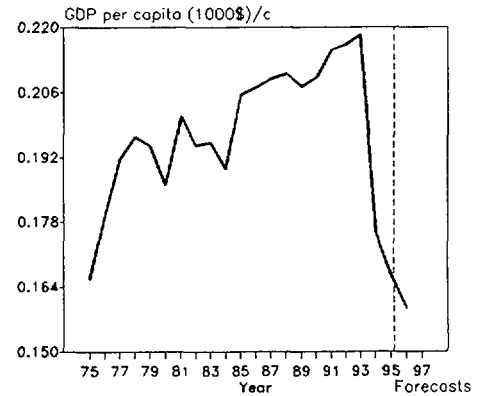


Annual growth rates of GDP and MVA (Constant 1990 prices)



Source: National Accounts Statistics from UN/UNSO.  
 Estimated by UNIDO/IRD/RES.

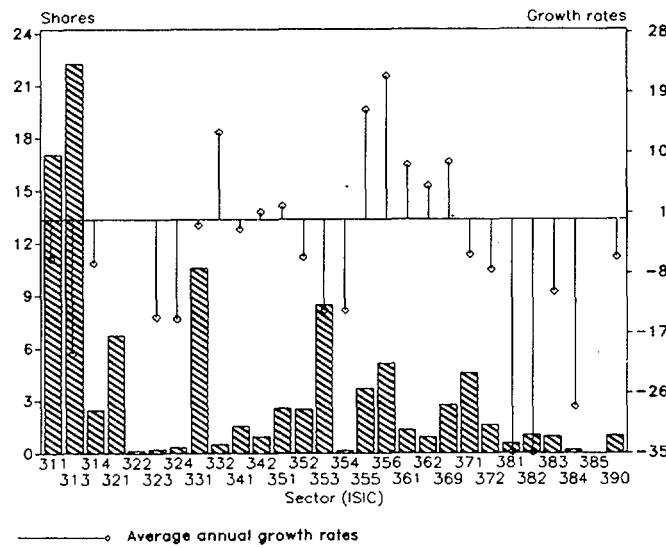
	1980	1985	1990	1995
<b>GDP:</b> <sup>na</sup> (millions of 1990-dollars)	768	976	1 148	1 010
Per capita <sup>na</sup> (1990-dollars)	186	206	209	167
Manufacturing share <sup>na</sup> (%) (current factor prices)	9.0	13.2	16.8	12.6
<b>MANUFACTURING:</b>				
Value added <sup>na</sup> (millions of 1990-dollars)	76	143	189	213
Industrial production index (1990=100)	91	93	100	86
Value added (millions of dollars)	56	97	105	117
Gross output (millions of dollars)	95	191	209	221
Employment (thousands)	3	5	7	8
<b>-PROFITABILITY: (in percent of gross output)</b>				
Intermediate input (%)	41	49	50	47
Wages and salaries including supplements (%)	9	8	10	12
Gross operating surplus and net taxes (%)	51	43	40	41
<b>-PRODUCTIVITY: (dollars)</b>				
Gross output per worker	27 640	38 750	31 824	27 074
Value added per worker	16 370	19 987	16 048	14 582
Average wage (including supplements)	2 357	3 188	3 303	3 143
<b>-STRUCTURAL INDICES:</b>				
Structural change indicator (5-year period, %) as a percentage of 1970-1975 structural change	19.31	16.94	6.89	3.08
MVA growth rate perer unit of structural change	1.43	2.95	4.64	1.23
Degree of specialization	41.2	48.7	49.3	49.3
<b>-VALUE ADDED: (millions of dollars)</b>				
311/2 Food products	30	53	59	64
313 Beverages	11	20	23	25
314 Tobacco products	3	5	5	6
321 Textiles	2	9	9	11
322 Wearing apparel	3	1	1	-
323 Leather and fur products	1	-	-	-
324 Footwear	-	-	-	-
331 Wood and wood products	-	-	1	1
332 Furniture and fixtures	-	-	-	-
341 Paper and paper products	-	-	-	-
342 Printing and publishing	1	1	1	1
351 Industrial chemicals	1	1	-	-
352 Other chemical products	-	1	1	2
353 Petroleum refineries	-	-	-	-
354 Miscellaneous petroleum and coal products	-	-	-	-
355 Rubber products	-	-	-	-
356 Plastic products	-	1	-	1
361 Pottery, china and earthenware	-	-	-	-
362 Glass and glass products	-	-	-	-
369 Other non-metal mineral products	1	2	2	2
371 Iron and steel	-	-	-	-
372 Non-ferrous metals	-	-	-	-
381 Metal products	2	3	2	3
382 Non-electrical machinery	-	-	-	-
383 Electrical machinery	-	-	-	-
384 Transport equipment	-	-	-	-
385 Professional and scientific equipment	-	-	-	-
390 Other manufacturing industries	-	-	1	1



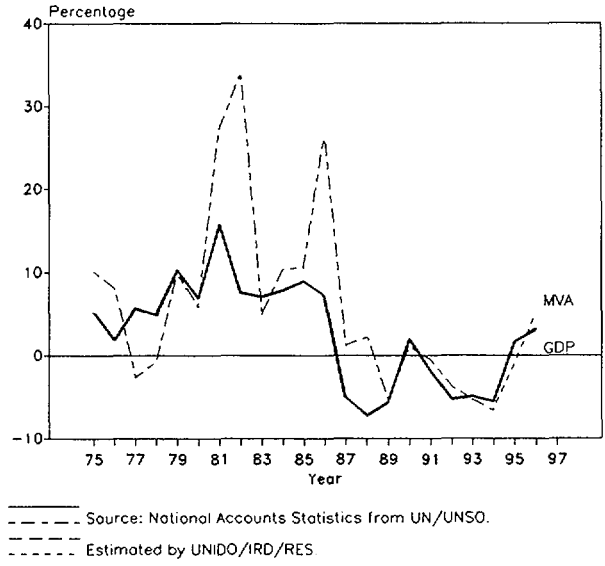
For sources, footnotes and comments see "Technical notes" at the beginning of this Annex.

CAMEROON

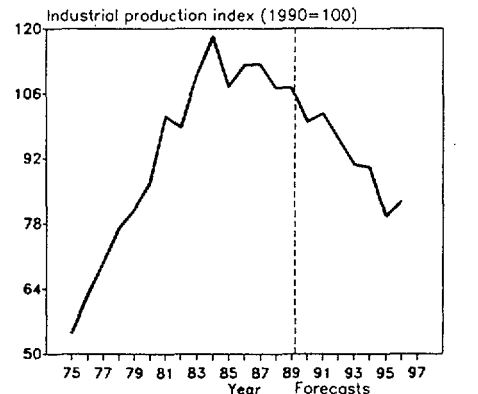
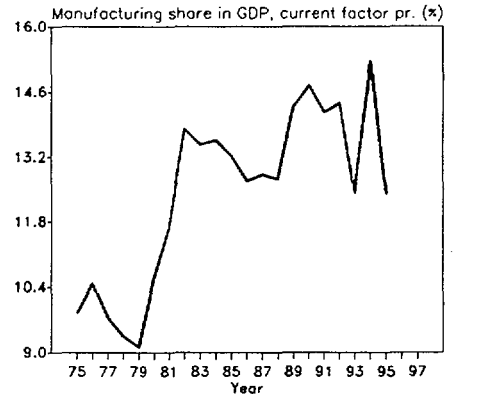
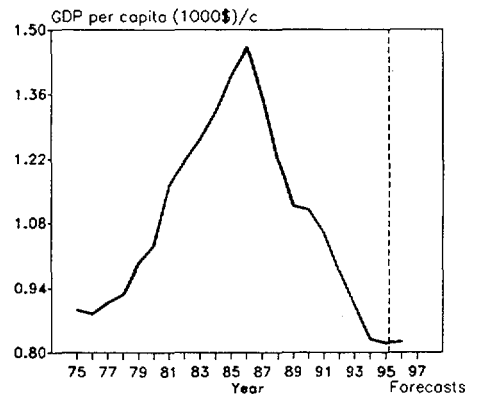
Average sectoral shares in total Value Added and average annual sectoral growth rates, 1990-1996 (Percentage)



Annual growth rates of GDP and MVA (Constant 1990 prices)

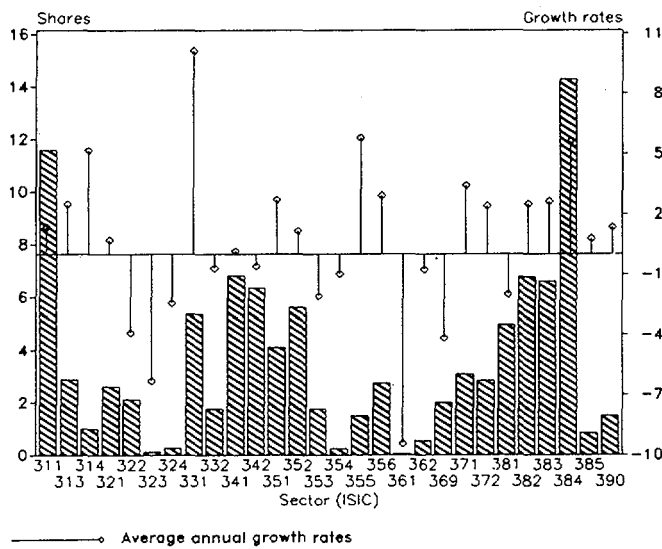


	1980	1985	1990	1995
<b>GDP:</b> <sup>na</sup> (millions of 1990-dollars)	8 936	13 991	12 735	10 826
Per capita <sup>na</sup> (1990-dollars)	1 032	1 402	1 109	821
Manufacturing share <sup>na</sup> (%) (current factor prices)	10.6	13.2	14.7	12.4
<b>MANUFACTURING:</b>				
Value added <sup>na</sup> (millions of 1990-dollars)	660	1 432	1 781	1 488
Industrial production index (1990=100)	87	108	100	80
Value added (millions of dollars)	692	665	826	539
Gross output (millions of dollars)	1 708	1 450	2 530	1 796
Employment (thousands)	51	66	50	51
<b>-PROFITABILITY: (in percent of gross output)</b>				
Intermediate input (%)	60	55	67	70
Wages and salaries including supplements (%)	14	15	15	10
Gross operating surplus and net taxes (%)	26	30	18	20
<b>-PRODUCTIVITY: (dollars)</b>				
Gross output per worker	33 434	21 925	50 106	35 032
Value added per worker	13 583	9 906	16 324	10 505
Average wage (including supplements)	4 794	3 295	7 281	3 471
<b>-STRUCTURAL INDICES:</b>				
Structural change indicator (5-year period, %) as a percentage of 1970-1975 structural change	25.22	19.77	22.65	37.15
MVA growth rate perer unit of structural change	100	78	90	147
Degree of specialization	2.17	2.32	-0.06	-0.58
Degree of specialization	24.3	23.5	23.6	21.4
<b>-VALUE ADDED: (millions of dollars)</b>				
311/2 Food products	187	129	185	103
313 Beverages	183	177	294	56
314 Tobacco products	24	21	23	13
321 Textiles	36	51	-104	90
322 Wearing apparel	10	8	-9	2
323 Leather and fur products	7	3	3	1
324 Footwear	10	4	5	2
331 Wood and wood products	30	63	84	62
332 Furniture and fixtures	13	16	3	5
341 Paper and paper products	17	7	11	7
342 Printing and publishing	20	7	6	5
351 Industrial chemicals	10	19	17	15
352 Other chemical products	12	20	21	11
353 Petroleum refineries	-	10	112	35
354 Miscellaneous petroleum and coal products	-	-	2	1
355 Rubber products	2	5	12	23
356 Plastic products	16	16	14	34
361 Pottery, china and earthenware	6	5	8	10
362 Glass and glass products	4	4	6	6
369 Other non-metal mineral products	12	11	16	21
371 Iron and steel	24	29	38	22
372 Non-ferrous metals	19	24	15	7
381 Metal products	13	9	17	1
382 Non-electrical machinery	18	13	32	2
383 Electrical machinery	4	3	9	4
384 Transport equipment	3	6	3	-
385 Professional and scientific equipment	-	-	-	-
390 Other manufacturing industries	11	5	6	4

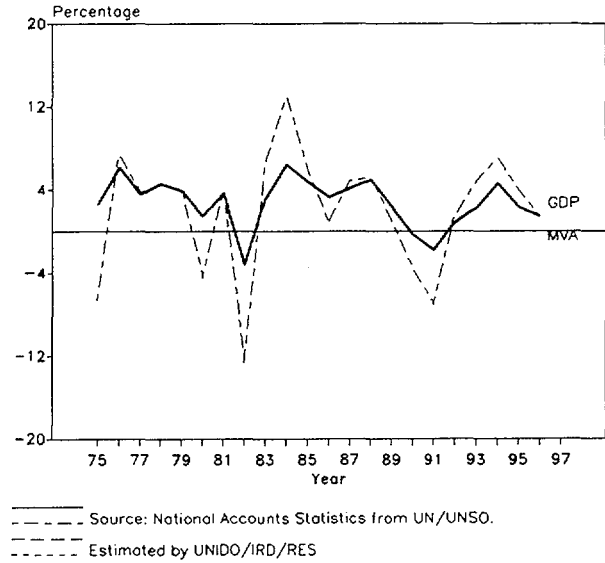


For sources, footnotes and comments see "Technical notes" at the beginning of this Annex.

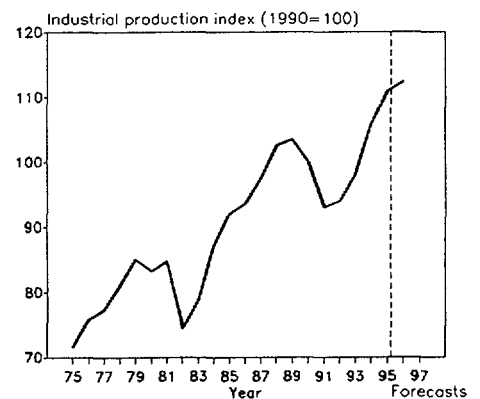
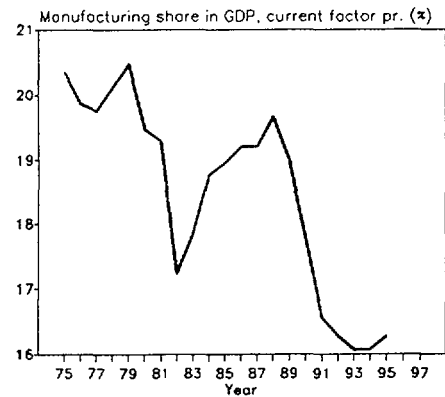
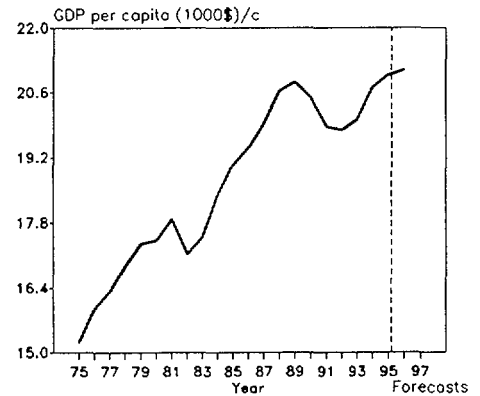
Average sectoral shares in total Value Added and average annual sectoral growth rates, 1990-1996 (Percentage)



Annual growth rates of GDP and MVA (Constant 1990 prices)



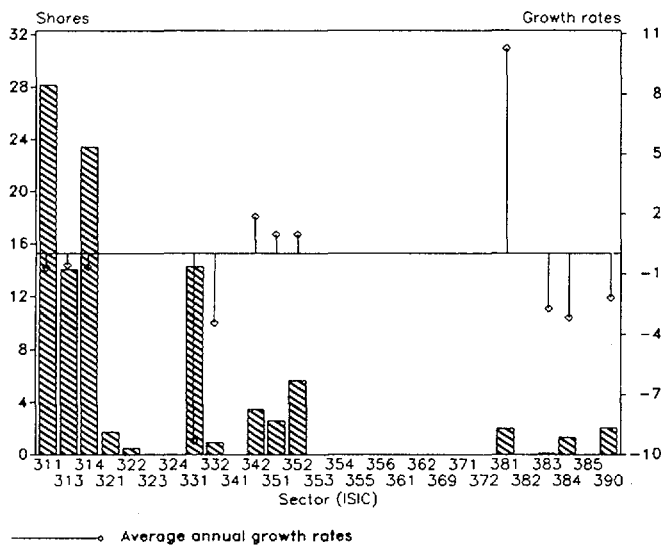
	1980	1985	1990	1995
<b>GDP:</b> <sup>na</sup> (millions of 1990-dollars)	428 362	494 240	569 433	616 867
Per capita <sup>na</sup> (1990-dollars)	17 418	19 052	20 490	20 980
Manufacturing share <sup>na</sup> (%) (current factor prices)	19.5	19.0	17.8	16.3
<b>MANUFACTURING:</b>				
Value added <sup>na</sup> (millions of 1990-dollars)	73 145	83 870	90 399	99 070
Industrial production index (1990=100)	83	92	100	111
Value added (millions of dollars)	59 803	74 209	112 195	119 348
Gross output (millions of dollars)	167 211	211 017	295 448	315 684
Employment (thousands)	1 853	1 765	1 867	1 681
<b>-PROFITABILITY: (in percent of gross output)</b>				
Intermediate input (%)	64	65	62	62
Wages and salaries including supplements (%)	17	16	17	15
Gross operating surplus and net taxes (%)	19	19	21	23
<b>-PRODUCTIVITY: (dollars)</b>				
Gross output per worker	89 995	119 306	158 104	180 485
Value added per worker	32 187	41 957	60 039	68 552
Average wage (including supplements)	15 296	19 168	27 543	28 001
<b>-STRUCTURAL INDICES:</b>				
Structural change indicator (5-year period, %) as a percentage of 1970-1975 structural change	4.03	5.96	6.09	5.58
MVA growth rate perer unit of structural change	100	148	151	139
Degree of specialization	5.66	2.28	1.08	1.52
Degree of specialization	10.3	11.0	11.5	12.7
<b>-VALUE ADDED: (millions of dollars)</b>				
311/2 Food products	6 142	8 001	12 701	12 939
313 Beverages	1 660	2 189	2 948	3 222
314 Tobacco products	479	608	977	1 247
321 Textiles	2 130	2 152	2 974	2 964
322 Wearing apparel	1 694	1 933	2 828	2 190
323 Leather and fur products	154	154	163	113
324 Footwear	299	344	334	288
331 Wood and wood products	2 968	3 236	4 465	7 503
332 Furniture and fixtures	1 044	1 332	2 245	2 020
341 Paper and paper products	5 714	5 410	8 750	8 341
342 Printing and publishing	3 054	4 517	7 871	6 930
351 Industrial chemicals	2 164	2 570	4 808	5 237
352 Other chemical products	2 421	3 755	6 256	6 275
353 Petroleum refineries	1 531	1 867	2 271	1 958
354 Miscellaneous petroleum and coal products	111	132	291	259
355 Rubber products	873	1 069	1 397	1 831
356 Plastic products	873	1 654	2 897	3 253
361 Pottery, china and earthenware	43	29	69	38
362 Glass and glass products	385	578	643	577
369 Other non-metal mineral products	1 497	1 713	2 803	2 115
371 Iron and steel	2 652	2 906	3 231	3 807
372 Non-ferrous metals	2 190	2 284	3 222	3 523
381 Metal products	4 414	4 363	6 454	5 492
382 Non-electrical machinery	3 952	4 912	7 576	8 248
383 Electrical machinery	3 849	4 531	7 465	7 939
384 Transport equipment	5 911	10 088	14 124	18 376
385 Professional and scientific equipment	667	659	926	929
390 Other manufacturing industries	932	1 223	1 706	1 735



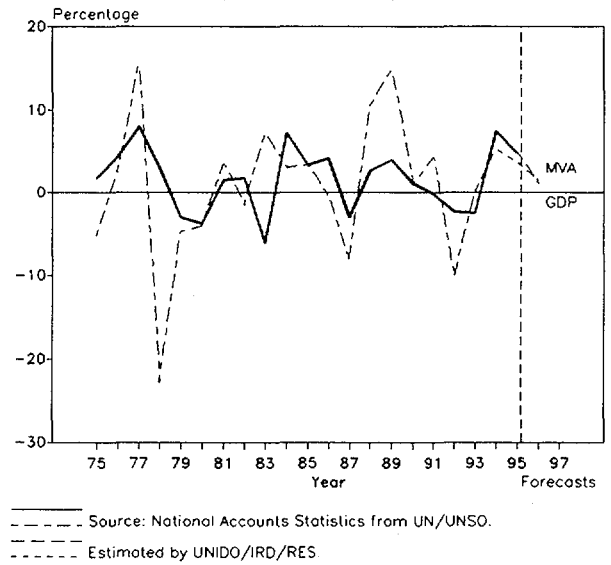
For sources, footnotes and comments see "Technical notes" at the beginning of this Annex.

CENTRAL AFRICAN REPUBLIC

Average sectoral shares in Total Value Added and average annual sectoral growth rates, 1990-1996 (Percentage)

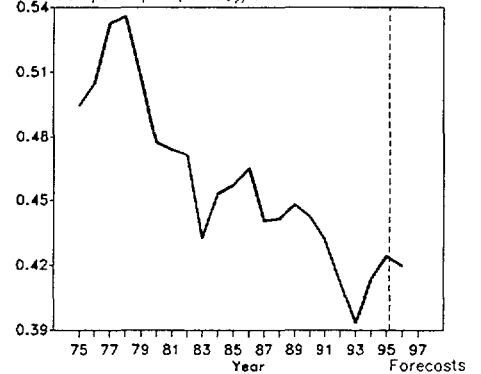


Annual growth rates of GDP and MVA (Constant 1990 prices)

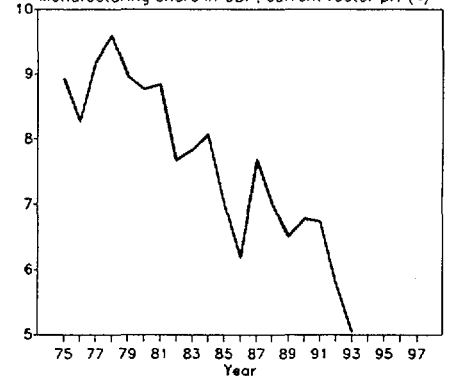


	1980	1985	1990	1995
GDP: <sup>na</sup> (millions of 1990-dollars)	1 104	1 187	1 296	1 388
Per capita <sup>na</sup> (1990-dollars)	477	457	442	424
Manufacturing share <sup>na</sup> (%) (current factor prices)	8.8	7.0	6.8	..
<b>MANUFACTURING:</b>				
Value added <sup>na</sup> (millions of 1990-dollars)	65	76	89	90
Industrial production index (1990=100)	104	109	100	102
Value added (millions of dollars)	35	33	62	36
Gross output (millions of dollars)	98	108	165	104
Employment (thousands)	6	8	5	4
<b>-PROFITABILITY: (in percent of gross output)</b>				
Intermediate input (%)	64	70	62	65
Wages and salaries including supplements (%)	16	18	15	18
Gross operating surplus and net taxes (%)	19	12	22	17
<b>-PRODUCTIVITY: (dollars)</b>				
Gross output per worker	16 613	13 858	30 521	22 122
Value added per worker	5 933	4 157	11 454	7 782
Average wage (including supplements)	2 703	2 428	4 654	4 640
<b>-STRUCTURAL INDICES:</b>				
Structural change indicator (5-year period, %) as a percentage of 1970-1975 structural change	16.37	22.74	17.13	10.90
MVA growth rate perer unit of structural change	-1.17	0.03	1.41	-0.47
Degree of specialization	23.2	27.1	26.0	20.9
<b>-VALUE ADDED: (millions of dollars)</b>				
311/2 Food products	5	8	15	10
313 Beverages	3	4	8	5
314 Tobacco products	4	6	13	8
321 Textiles	4	-	3	-
322 Wearing apparel	1	-	1	-
323 Leather and fur products	-	-	-	-
324 Footwear	-	-	-	-
331 Wood and wood products	11	8	12	5
332 Furniture and fixtures	-	1	1	1
341 Paper and paper products	-	-	-	-
342 Printing and publishing	1	2	3	2
351 Industrial chemicals	1	1	1	1
352 Other chemical products	2	1	3	2
353 Petroleum refineries	-	-	-	-
354 Miscellaneous petroleum and coal products	-	-	-	-
355 Rubber products	-	-	-	-
356 Plastic products	-	-	-	-
361 Pottery, china and earthenware	-	-	-	-
362 Glass and glass products	-	-	-	-
369 Other non-metal mineral products	-	-	-	-
371 Iron and steel	-	-	-	-
372 Non-ferrous metals	-	-	-	-
381 Metal products	1	-	-	1
382 Non-electrical machinery	-	-	-	-
383 Electrical machinery	-	-	-	-
384 Transport equipment	2	1	1	1
385 Professional and scientific equipment	-	-	-	-
390 Other manufacturing industries	-	1	1	1

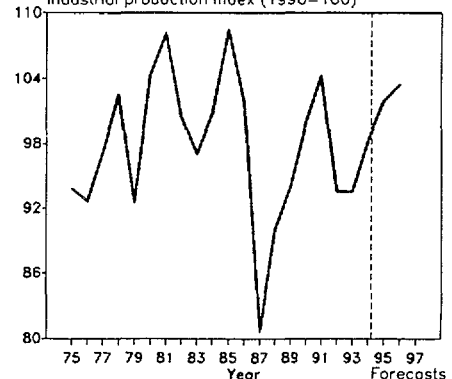
GDP per capita (1000\$)/c



Manufacturing share in GDP, current factor pr. (%)



Industrial production index (1990=100)

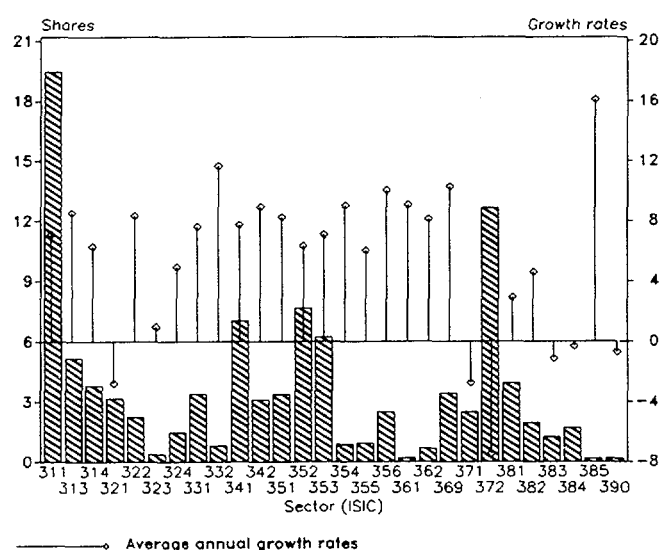


For sources, footnotes and comments see "Technical notes" at the beginning of this Annex.

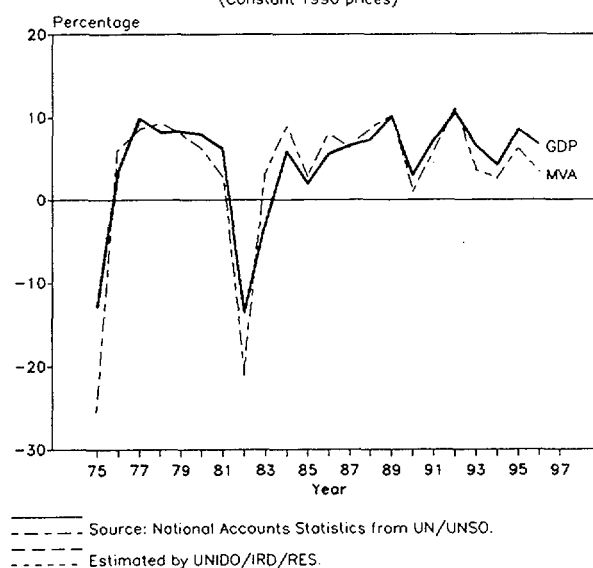


CHILE

Average sectoral shares in total Value Added and average annual sectoral growth rates, 1990-1996 (Percentage)



Annual growth rates of GDP and MVA (Constant 1990 prices)

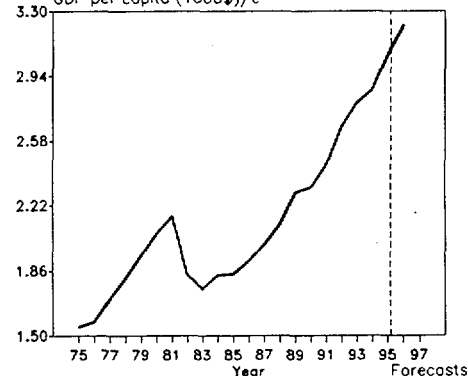


Source: National Accounts Statistics from UN/UNSO.  
 Estimated by UNIDO/IRD/RES.

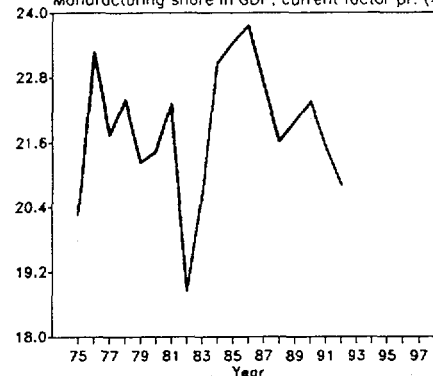
	1980	1985	1990	1995
<b>GDP:</b> <sup>na</sup> (millions of 1990-dollars)	23 029	22 181	30 387	43 522
Per capita <sup>na</sup> (1990-dollars)	2 066	1 841	2 320	3 063
Manufacturing share <sup>na</sup> (%) (current factor prices)	21.4	23.4	22.4	..
<b>MANUFACTURING:</b>				
Value added <sup>na</sup> (millions of 1990-dollars)	4 987	4 661	6 456	8 545
Industrial production index (1990=100)	81	79	100	131
Value added (millions of dollars)	4 991	4 713	8 757	15 929
Gross output (millions of dollars)	10 790	10 477	21 215	37 013
Employment (thousands)	206	185	298	344
<b>-PROFITABILITY:</b> (in percent of gross output)				
Intermediate input (%)	54	55	59	57
Wages and salaries including supplements (%)	9	6	7	9
Gross operating surplus and net taxes (%)	38	39	34	34
<b>-PRODUCTIVITY:</b> (dollars)				
Gross output per worker	51 994	56 380	70 919	107 243
Value added per worker	24 050	25 363	29 274	46 259
Average wage (including supplements)	4 444	3 499	4 861	9 322
<b>-STRUCTURAL INDICES:</b>				
Structural change indicator (5-year period, %) as a percentage of 1970-1975 structural change	17.60	13.61	10.02	10.76
MVA growth rate per unit of structural change	100	77	57	61
Degree of specialization	0.16	0.30	3.58	3.21
Degree of specialization	16.0	20.4	17.0	14.5
<b>-VALUE ADDED:</b> (millions of dollars)				
311/2 Food products	827	805	1 543	3 253
313 Beverages	289	177	374	854
314 Tobacco products	214	205	303	612
321 Textiles	234	162	333	430
322 Wearing apparel	111	83	163	383
323 Leather and fur products	22	18	37	61
324 Footwear	77	51	121	235
331 Wood and wood products	153	143	270	584
332 Furniture and fixtures	37	14	53	141
341 Paper and paper products	281	278	561	1 238
342 Printing and publishing	182	104	224	529
351 Industrial chemicals	55	94	247	555
352 Other chemical products	324	289	617	1 242
353 Petroleum refineries	184	277	480	1 000
354 Miscellaneous petroleum and coal products	27	47	69	161
355 Rubber products	60	49	72	153
356 Plastic products	50	63	178	459
361 Pottery, china and earthenware	14	9	9	22
362 Glass and glass products	38	27	51	118
369 Other non-metal mineral products	146	115	218	578
371 Iron and steel	188	226	284	359
372 Non-ferrous metals	965	1 175	1 716	1 555
381 Metal products	181	130	366	635
382 Non-electrical machinery	96	50	168	324
383 Electrical machinery	90	61	125	171
384 Transport equipment	127	50	153	227
385 Professional and scientific equipment	5	4	9	30
390 Other manufacturing industries	13	7	14	21

For sources, footnotes and comments see "Technical notes" at the beginning of this Annex.

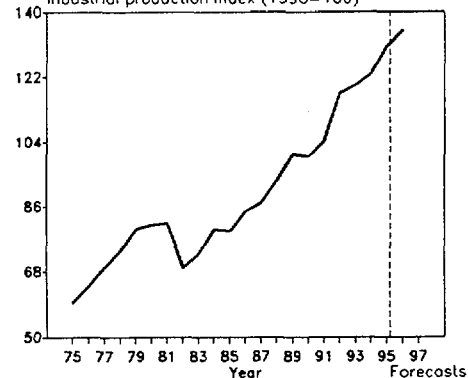
GDP per capita (1000\$)/c



Manufacturing share in GDP, current factor pr. (%)

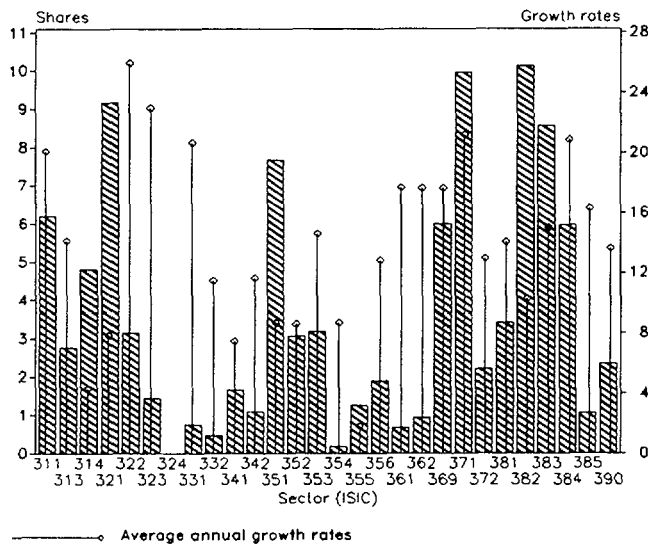


Industrial production index (1990=100)

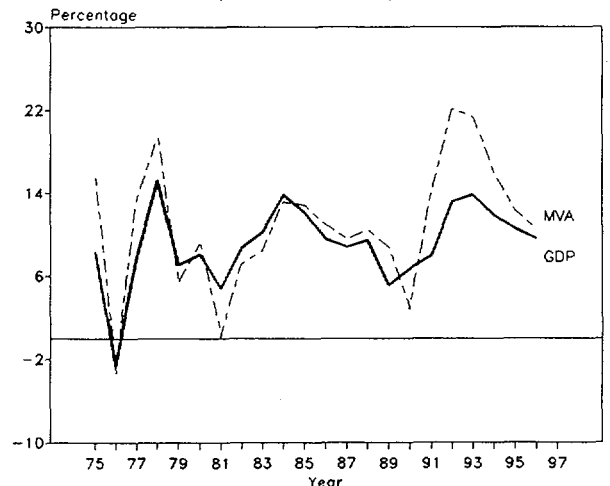


CHINA

Average sectoral shares in total Value Added and average annual sectoral growth rates, 1990-1996 (Percentage)

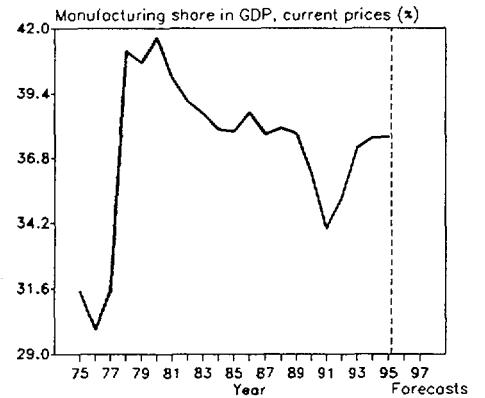
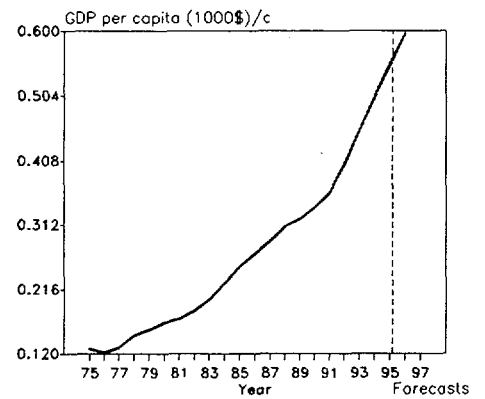


Annual growth rates of GDP and MVA (Constant 1990 prices)



Source: National Accounts Statistics from UN/UNSO.  
 Estimated by UNIDO/IRD/RES.

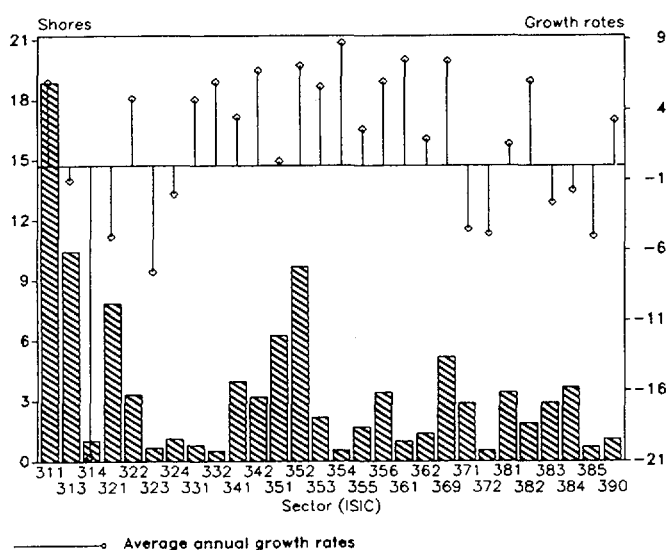
	1980	1985	1990	1995
<b>GDP:</b> <sup>na</sup> (millions of 1990-dollars)	163 088	261 693	382 748	658 625
Per capita <sup>na</sup> (1990-dollars)	166	249	337	549
Manufacturing share <sup>na</sup> (%) (current factor prices)	41.6	37.9	36.2	37.6
<b>MANUFACTURING:</b>				
Value added <sup>na</sup> (millions of 1990-dollars)	58 705	87 104	130 329	285 700
Industrial production index (1990=100)	..	..	..	..
Value added (millions of dollars)	88 577	78 380	90 259	186 952
Gross output (millions of dollars)	232 460	246 331	349 604	676 752
Employment (thousands)	24 390	39 957	53 165	55 994
<b>-PROFITABILITY: (in percent of gross output)</b>				
Intermediate input (%)	62	68	74	73
Wages and salaries including supplements (%)	6	5	5	4
Gross operating surplus and net taxes (%)	32	27	21	23
<b>-PRODUCTIVITY: (dollars)</b>				
Gross output per worker	9 531	6 017	6 574	12 444
Value added per worker	3 632	1 946	1 697	3 358
Average wage (including supplements)	548	286	319	504
<b>-STRUCTURAL INDICES:</b>				
Structural change indicator (5-year period, %) as a percentage of 1970-1975 structural change	5.24	7.85	8.61	9.61
MVA growth rate perer unit of structural change	100	150	164	183
Degree of specialization	3.68	4.04	3.15	5.73
Degree of specialization	12.6	10.8	10.8	10.2
<b>-VALUE ADDED: (millions of dollars)</b>				
311/2 Food products	3 764	3 433	4 489	12 849
313 Beverages	1 587	1 696	2 414	5 090
314 Tobacco products	3 545	3 999	6 220	8 017
321 Textiles	13 409	8 587	10 299	16 441
322 Wearing apparel	1 866 <sup>a</sup>	1 716 <sup>a</sup>	2 109 <sup>a</sup>	6 586 <sup>a</sup>
323 Leather and fur products	911	747	944	3 116
324 Footwear	- <sup>a</sup>	- <sup>a</sup>	- <sup>a</sup>	- <sup>a</sup>
331 Wood and wood products	751	591	502	1 533
332 Furniture and fixtures	653	514	455	877
341 Paper and paper products	1 929	1 532	1 949	2 918
342 Printing and publishing	1 042	960	1 036	1 916
351 Industrial chemicals	7 125	5 584	8 459	13 387
352 Other chemical products	2 924	2 292	3 372	5 331
353 Petroleum refineries	4 223	3 676	2 714	6 121
354 Miscellaneous petroleum and coal products	154	183	208	332
355 Rubber products	2 175	1 593	1 603	1 837
356 Plastic products	1 256	1 317	1 736	3 415
361 Pottery, china and earthenware	439	431	504	1 277
362 Glass and glass products	838	822	705	1 785
369 Other non-metal mineral products	4 425	4 340	4 524	11 450
371 Iron and steel	6 538	5 810	6 571	19 880
372 Non-ferrous metals	1 868	1 730	2 050	4 058
381 Metal products	4 861	2 582	2 946	6 544
382 Non-electrical machinery	13 418	10 941	10 116	17 779
383 Electrical machinery	3 216	6 458	7 445	16 422
384 Transport equipment	3 013	4 134	3 918	11 639
385 Professional and scientific equipment	810	1 021	843	1 990
390 Other manufacturing industries	1 838	1 691	2 125	4 363



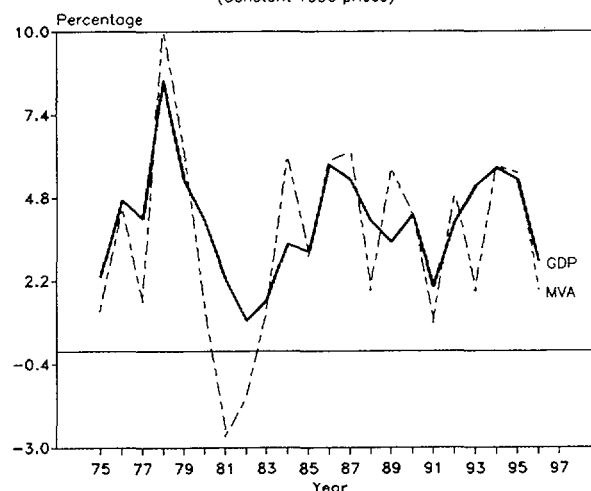
For sources, footnotes and comments see "Technical notes" at the beginning of this Annex.

COLOMBIA

Average sectoral shares in total Value Added and average annual sectoral growth rates, 1990-1996 (Percentage)



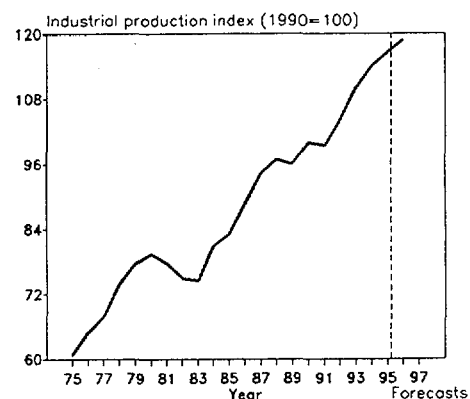
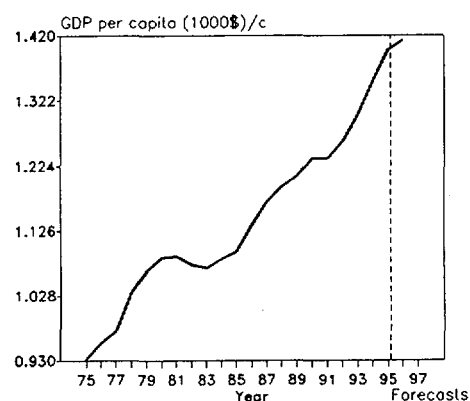
Annual growth rates of GDP and MVA (Constant 1990 prices)



Source: National Accounts Statistics from UN/UNSO.  
 Estimated by UNIDO/IRD/RES.

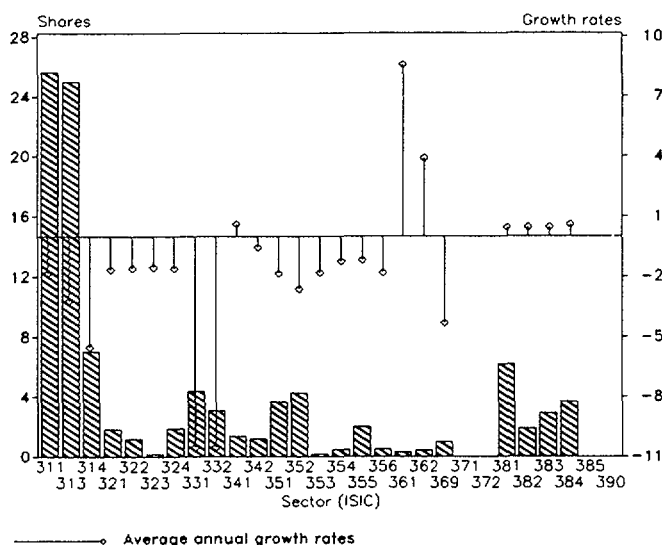
	1980	1985	1990	1995
<b>GDP:</b> <sup>na</sup> (millions of 1990-dollars)	28 799	32 184	40 274	50 074
Per capita <sup>na</sup> (1990-dollars)	1 086	1 094	1 236	1 398
Manufacturing share <sup>na</sup> (%) (current factor prices)	23.3	21.4	19.9	19.0
<b>MANUFACTURING:</b>				
Value added <sup>na</sup> (millions of 1990-dollars)	6 010	6 365	8 034	9 662
Industrial production index (1990=100)	79	83	100	117
Value added (millions of dollars)	7 131	6 711	7 882	14 601
Gross output (millions of dollars)	16 453	16 823	20 601	34 156
Employment (thousands)	508	440	489	602
<b>-PROFITABILITY: (in percent of gross output)</b>				
Intermediate input (%)	57	60	62	57
Wages and salaries including supplements (%)	8	7	6	8
Gross operating surplus and net taxes (%)	35	33	33	35
<b>-PRODUCTIVITY: (dollars)</b>				
Gross output per worker	31 860	37 635	41 526	50 929
Value added per worker	13 809	15 012	15 887	21 766
Average wage (including supplements)	2 583	2 709	2 359	4 356
<b>-STRUCTURAL INDICES:</b>				
Structural change indicator (5-year period, %) as a percentage of 1970-1975 structural change	9.62	11.67	9.69	9.44
MVA growth rate perer unit of structural change	100	121	101	98
Degree of specialization	4.13	1.91	2.02	2.46
Degree of specialization	14.6	14.7	13.0	14.7
<b>-VALUE ADDED: (millions of dollars)</b>				
311/2 Food products	951	1 166	1 306	3 006
313 Beverages	1 021	1 032	928	1 433
314 Tobacco products	160	224	173	71
321 Textiles	803	619	816	1 008
322 Wearing apparel	241	206	221	484
323 Leather and fur products	59	47	66	68
324 Footwear	50	54	100	142
331 Wood and wood products	50	46	54	117
332 Furniture and fixtures	34	29	38	88
341 Paper and paper products	227	274	301	605
342 Printing and publishing	185	180	213	515
351 Industrial chemicals	303	405	522	865
352 Other chemical products	419	457	597	1 448
353 Petroleum refineries	773	90	151	371
354 Miscellaneous petroleum and coal products	17	28	34	91
355 Rubber products	117	138	131	253
356 Plastic products	141	169	223	512
361 Pottery, china and earthenware	44	46	60	154
362 Glass and glass products	76	92	113	207
369 Other non-metal mineral products	232	264	338	849
371 Iron and steel	217	205	281	343
372 Non-ferrous metals	34	36	56	67
381 Metal products	260	242	279	503
382 Non-electrical machinery	120	114	124	289
383 Electrical machinery	244	211	271	372
384 Transport equipment	256	221	332	491
385 Professional and scientific equipment	26	38	70	80
390 Other manufacturing industries	72	78	84	166

For sources, footnotes and comments see "Technical notes" at the beginning of this Annex.

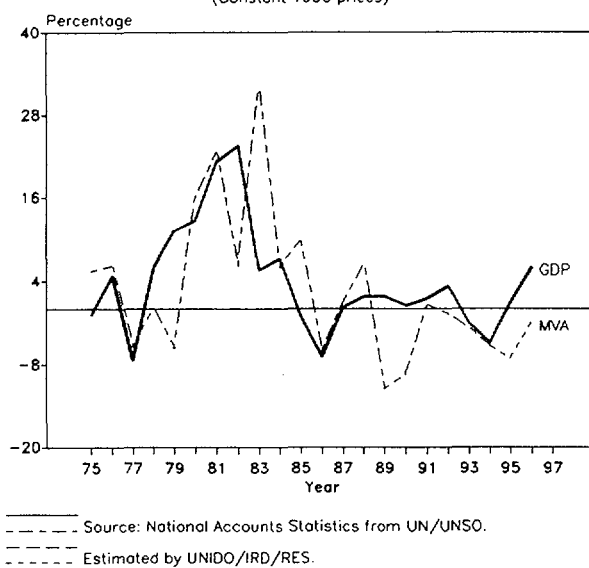


CONGO

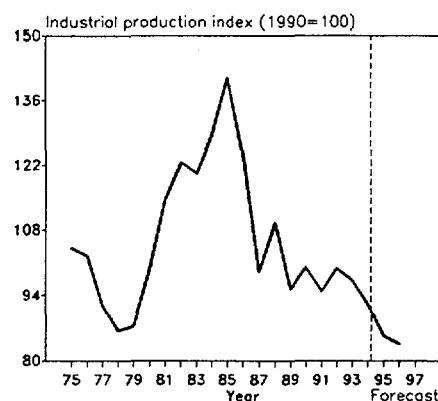
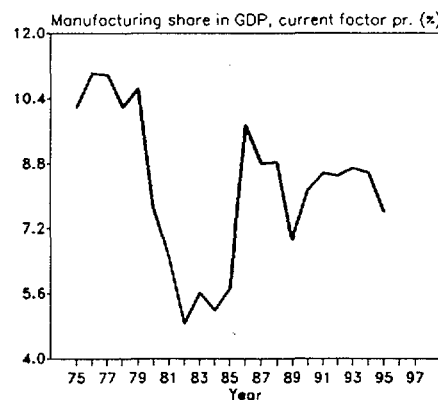
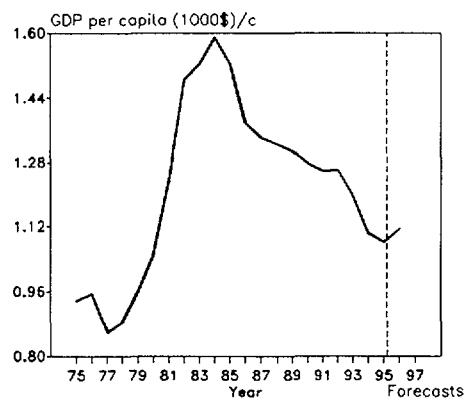
Average sectoral shares in total Value Added and average annual sectoral growth rates, 1990-1996 (Percentage)



Annual growth rates of GDP and MVA (Constant 1990 prices)



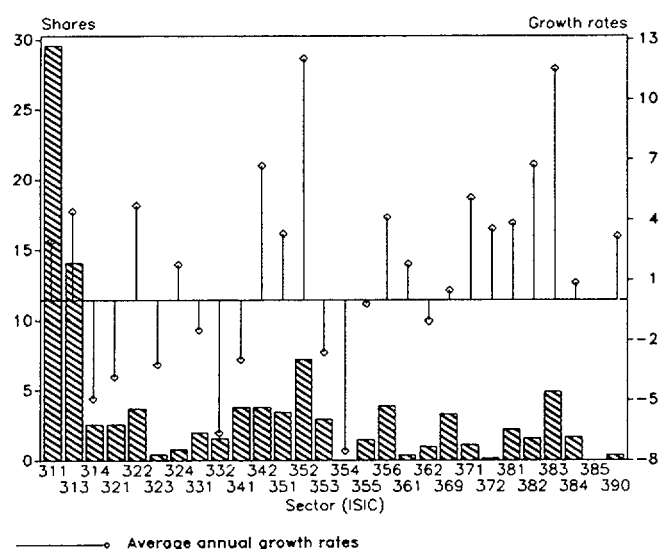
	1980	1985	1990	1995
GDP: <sup>na</sup> (millions of 1990-dollars)	1 751	2 936	2 851	2 805
Per capita <sup>na</sup> (1990-dollars)	1 049	1 526	1 277	1 082
Manufacturing share <sup>na</sup> (%) (current factor prices)	7.7	5.7	8.2	7.6
<b>MANUFACTURING:</b>				
Value added <sup>na</sup> (millions of 1990-dollars)	142	282	227	193
Industrial production index (1990=100)	100	141	100	85
Value added (millions of dollars)	61	54	90	86
Gross output (millions of dollars)	161	154	258	284
Employment (thousands)	6	9	7	8
<b>-PROFITABILITY: (in percent of gross output)</b>				
Intermediate input (%)	62	65	65	70
Wages and salaries including supplements (%)	13	17	15	14
Gross operating surplus and net taxes (%)	24	18	20	16
<b>-PRODUCTIVITY: (dollars)</b>				
Gross output per worker	13 279	17 546	34 345	36 910
Value added per worker	4 994	6 209	11 976	11 158
Average wage (including supplements)	3 398	3 032	5 234	5 302
<b>-STRUCTURAL INDICES:</b>				
Structural change indicator (5-year period, %) as a percentage of 1970-1975 structural change	14.21	12.03	13.30	11.92
MVA growth rate per unit of structural change	100	85	94	84
Degree of specialization	-1.16	-0.48	0.20	-0.93
Degree of specialization	16.2	17.9	25.1	24.7
<b>-VALUE ADDED: (millions of dollars)</b>				
311/2 Food products	11	10	22	23
313 Beverages	11	11	23	21
314 Tobacco products	3	3	7	6
321 Textiles	3	2	2	2
322 Wearing apparel	2	1	1	1
323 Leather and fur products	-	-	-	-
324 Footwear	3	2	2	2
331 Wood and wood products	5	5	5	3
332 Furniture and fixtures	3	3	3	2
341 Paper and paper products	1	-	1	1
342 Printing and publishing	1	-	1	1
351 Industrial chemicals	2	1	3	3
352 Other chemical products	3	2	4	4
353 Petroleum refineries	-	-	-	-
354 Miscellaneous petroleum and coal products	-	-	-	-
355 Rubber products	1	1	2	2
356 Plastic products	-	-	-	-
361 Pottery, china and earthenware	-	-	-	-
362 Glass and glass products	-	-	-	-
369 Other non-metal mineral products	1	2	1	1
371 Iron and steel	-	-	-	-
372 Non-ferrous metals	-	-	-	-
381 Metal products	4	4	5	6
382 Non-electrical machinery	1	1	2	2
383 Electrical machinery	2	2	2	3
384 Transport equipment	2	2	3	3
385 Professional and scientific equipment	-	-	-	-
390 Other manufacturing industries	-	-	-	-



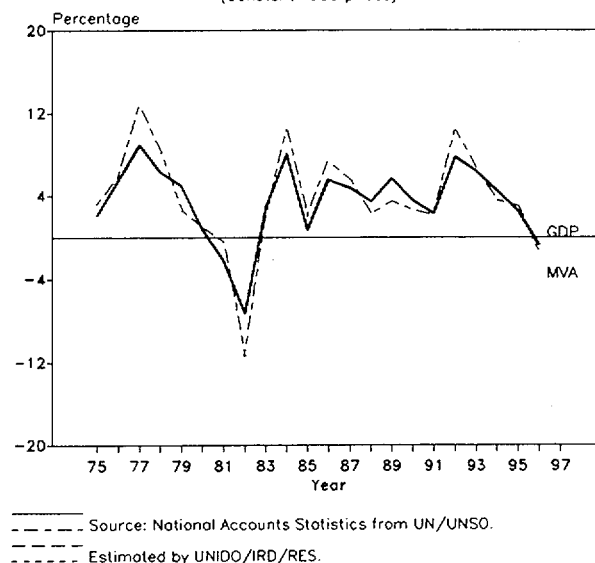
For sources, footnotes and comments see "Technical notes" at the beginning of this Annex.

## COSTA RICA

Average sectoral shares in total Value Added and average annual sectoral growth rates, 1990-1996 (Percentage)

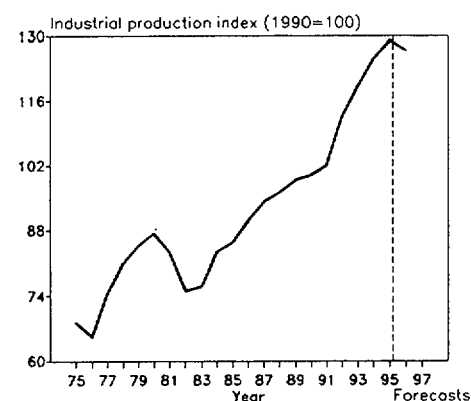
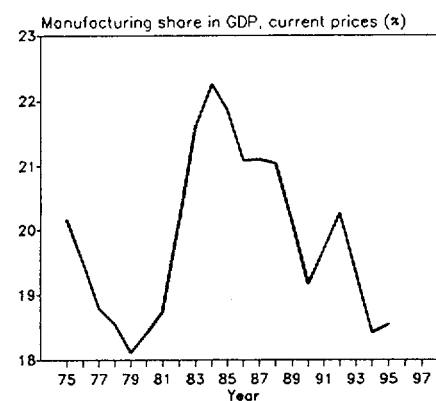
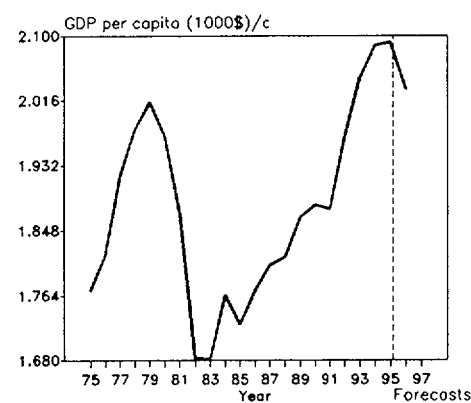


Annual growth rates of GDP and MVA (Constant 1990 prices)



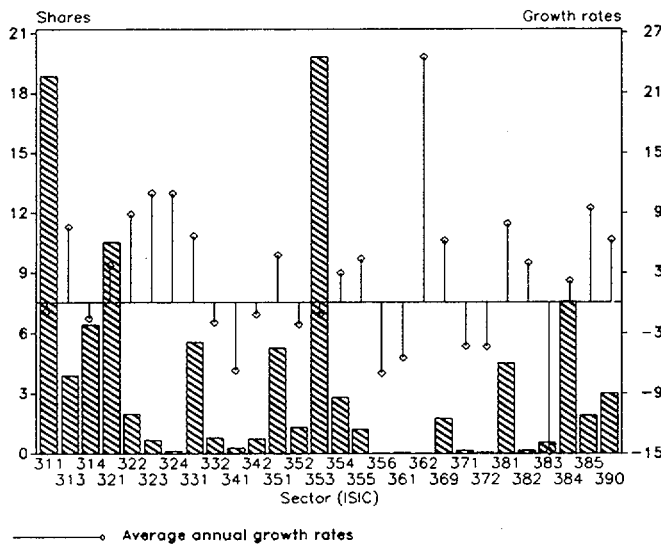
	1980.	1985	1990	1995
<b>GDP:</b> <sup>na</sup> (millions of 1990-dollars)	4 499	4 563	5 710	7 162
Per capita <sup>na</sup> (1990-dollars)	1 970	1 727	1 881	2 092
Manufacturing share <sup>na</sup> (%) (current factor prices)	18.4	21.9	19.2	18.5
<b>MANUFACTURING:</b>				
Value added <sup>na</sup> (millions of 1990-dollars)	882	892	1 095	1 400
Industrial production index (1990=100)	87	85	100	129
Value added (millions of dollars)	788	761	968	1 444
Gross output (millions of dollars)	2 743	2 466	3 197	4 897
Employment (thousands)	77	104	134	163
<b>-PROFITABILITY: (in percent of gross output)</b>				
Intermediate input (%)	71	69	70	71
Wages and salaries including supplements (%)	12	9	12	13
Gross operating surplus and net taxes (%)	17	22	19	17
<b>-PRODUCTIVITY: (dollars)</b>				
Gross output per worker	35 690	23 786	23 834	30 032
Value added per worker	13 803	7 341	7 217	8 872
Average wage (including supplements)	4 120	2 201	2 781	3 808
<b>-STRUCTURAL INDICES:</b>				
Structural change indicator (5-year period, %) as a percentage of 1970-1975 structural change	9.27	8.08	8.39	8.30
MVA growth rate per unit of structural change	100	87	91	90
Degree of specialization	3.15	2.67	1.98	1.63
Degree of specialization	20.4	20.7	20.1	21.5
<b>-VALUE ADDED: (millions of dollars)</b>				
311/2 Food products	241	247	292	424
313 Beverages	96	94	128	205
314 Tobacco products	24	28	31	29
321 Textiles	33	23	32	32
322 Wearing apparel	31	34	32	52
323 Leather and fur products	7	5	5	5
324 Footwear	10	9	8	11
331 Wood and wood products	30	25	22	26
332 Furniture and fixtures	26	14	21	18
341 Paper and paper products	20	22	45	47
342 Printing and publishing	18	21	34	57
351 Industrial chemicals	19	26	33	50
352 Other chemical products	40	42	50	124
353 Petroleum refineries	40	45	35	39
354 Miscellaneous petroleum and coal products	-	-	-	-
355 Rubber products	14	15	17	21
356 Plastic products	19	26	36	57
361 Pottery, china and earthenware	1	2	3	5
362 Glass and glass products	3	7	11	13
369 Other non-metal mineral products	25	19	36	47
371 Iron and steel	4	-	10	16
372 Non-ferrous metals	1	-	1	2
381 Metal products	18	12	20	33
382 Non-electrical machinery	8	10	13	24
383 Electrical machinery	25	21	33	79
384 Transport equipment	31	10	16	23
385 Professional and scientific equipment	-	-	-	-
390 Other manufacturing industries	2	3	4	6

For sources, footnotes and comments see "Technical notes" at the beginning of this Annex.

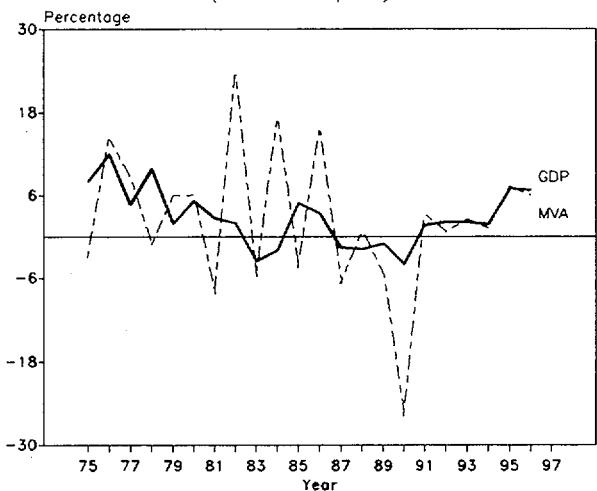


CÔTE D'IVOIRE

Average sectoral shares in total Value Added and average annual sectoral growth rates, 1990-1996 (Percentage)



Annual growth rates of GDP and MVA (Constant 1990 prices)

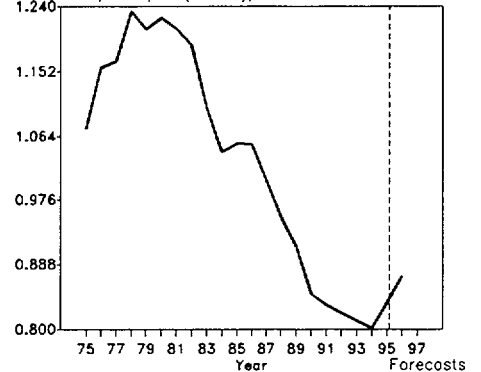


Source: National Accounts Statistics from UN/UNSO.  
Estimated by UNIDO/IRD/RES.

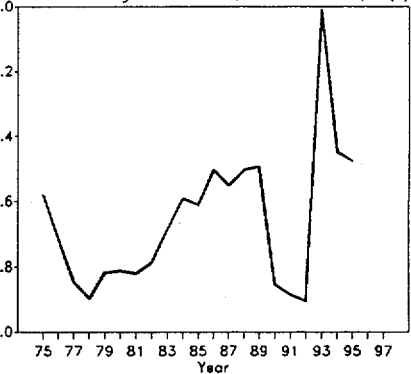
	1980	1985	1990	1995
<b>GDP:</b> <sup>na</sup> (millions of 1990-dollars)	10 033	10 425	9 899	11 437
Per capita <sup>na</sup> (1990-dollars)	1 224	1 055	847	835
Manufacturing share <sup>na</sup> (%) (current factor prices)	11.7	13.5	11.3	14.7
<b>MANUFACTURING:</b>				
Value added <sup>na</sup> (millions of 1990-dollars)	1 254	1 484	1 120	1 290
Industrial production index (1990=100)	182	120	100	108
Value added (millions of dollars)	1 273	924	2 065	1 395
Gross output (millions of dollars)	4 102	2 632	5 081	3 342
Employment (thousands)	67	55	53	60
<b>-PROFITABILITY:</b> (in percent of gross output)				
Intermediate input (%)	69	65	60	59
Wages and salaries including supplements (%)	9	10	8	9
Gross operating surplus and net taxes (%)	22	25	32	32
<b>-PRODUCTIVITY:</b> (dollars)				
Gross output per worker	61 068	47 530	92 586	52 064
Value added per worker	18 950	16 569	37 320	21 286
Average wage (including supplements)	5 904	4 719	7 494	4 926
<b>-STRUCTURAL INDICES:</b>				
Structural change indicator (5-year period, %) as a percentage of 1970-1975 structural change	8.90	13.18	12.03	8.92
MVA growth rate per unit of structural change	100	148	135	100
Degree of specialization	3.89	1.93	1.05	0.91
Degree of specialization	22.5	25.4	25.2	22.5
<b>-VALUE ADDED:</b> (millions of dollars)				
311/2 Food products	303	191	433	246
313 Beverages	75	38	66	60
314 Tobacco products	66	58	149	84
321 Textiles	169	113	206	152
322 Wearing apparel	8	13	33	31
323 Leather and fur products	6	8	9	10
324 Footwear	4	2	2	2
331 Wood and wood products	67	21	89	82
332 Furniture and fixtures	21	14	21	11
341 Paper and paper products	15	7	7	3
342 Printing and publishing	21	8	14	8
351 Industrial chemicals	38	34	100	77
352 Other chemical products	35	16	31	17
353 Petroleum refineries	166	193	459	267
354 Miscellaneous petroleum and coal products	15	21	51	40
355 Rubber products	4	4	22	18
356 Plastic products	2	1	1	-
361 Pottery, china and earthenware	11	1	2	1
362 Glass and glass products	-	-	-	-
369 Other non-metal mineral products	18	10	30	26
371 Iron and steel	5	2	5	2
372 Non-ferrous metals	3	1	2	1
381 Metal products	70	36	75	69
382 Non-electrical machinery	3	3	3	2
383 Electrical machinery	20	5	21	5
384 Transport equipment	106	88	151	106
385 Professional and scientific equipment	-	6	29	31
390 Other manufacturing industries	20	29	51	44

For sources, footnotes and comments see "Technical notes" at the beginning of this Annex.

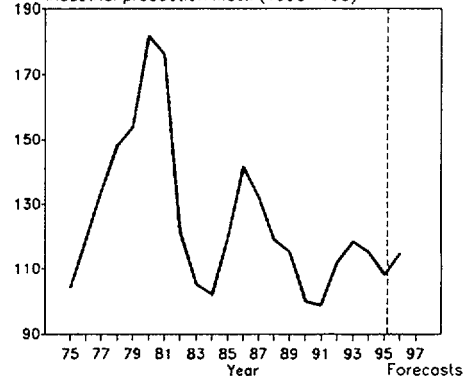
GDP per capita (1000\$)/c



Manufacturing share in GDP, current factor pr. (%)

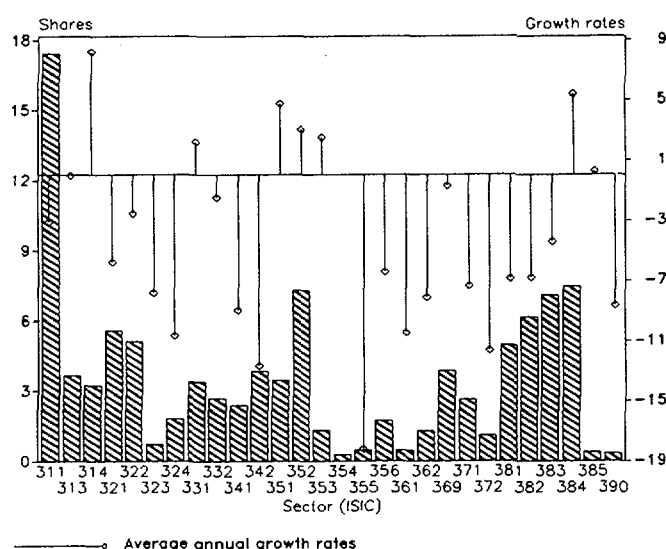


Industrial production index (1990=100)

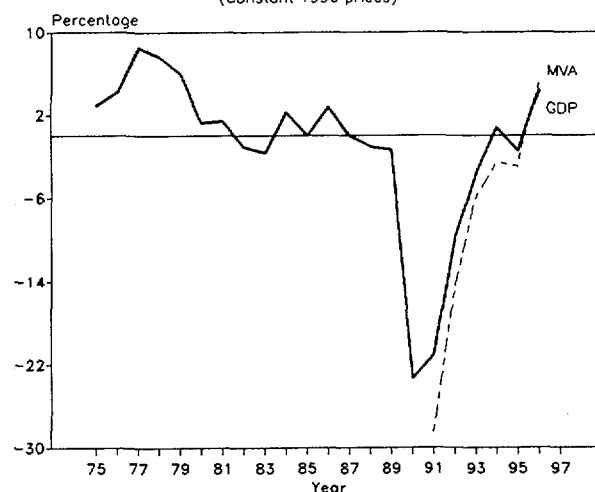


## CROATIA

Average sectoral shares in total Value Added and average annual sectoral growth rates, 1990-1996 (Percentage)



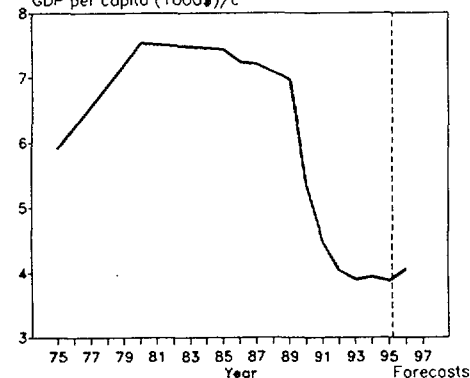
Annual growth rates of GDP and MVA (Constant 1990 prices)



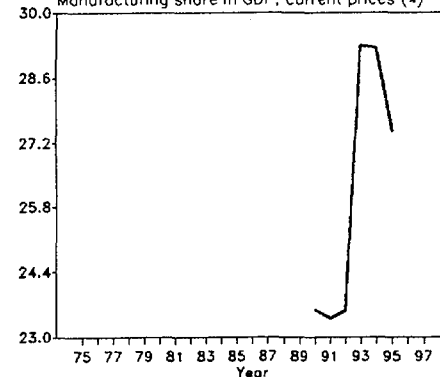
Source: National Accounts Statistics from UN/UNSO.  
 Estimated by UNIDO/IRD/RES.

	1980	1985	1990	1995
<b>GDP:</b> <sup>na</sup> (millions of 1990-dollars)	32 981	33 259	25 569	17 477
Per capita <sup>na</sup> (1990-dollars)	7 535	7 439	5 349	3 879
Manufacturing share <sup>na</sup> (%) (current factor prices)	..	..	23.6	27.4
<b>MANUFACTURING:</b>				
Value added <sup>na</sup> (millions of 1990-dollars)	..	..	5 321	2 888
Industrial production index (1990=100)	..	..	..	..
Value added (millions of dollars)	6 024	3 470	6 839	6 539
Gross output (millions of dollars)	23 620	12 059	17 207	15 085
Employment (thousands)	347	383	546	338
<b>-PROFITABILITY: (in percent of gross output)</b>				
Intermediate input (%)	74	71	60	57
Wages and salaries including supplements (%)	11	13	19	9
Gross operating surplus and net taxes (%)	15	16	21	35
<b>-PRODUCTIVITY: (dollars)</b>				
Gross output per worker	49 281	22 797	31 488	44 580
Value added per worker	12 726	6 614	12 515	19 323
Average wage (including supplements)	5 161	2 916	5 882	3 812
<b>-STRUCTURAL INDICES:</b>				
Structural change indicator (5-year period, %)	8.58	8.59	11.08	13.15
as a percentage of 1970-1975 structural change	100	100	129	153
MVA growth rate perer unit of structural change	6.21	4.01	-0.62	-1.81
Degree of specialization	9.8	9.9	9.8	11.8
<b>-VALUE ADDED: (millions of dollars)</b>				
311/2 Food products	831	398	1 153	1 132
313 Beverages	104	75	222	253
314 Tobacco products	62	40	124	234
321 Textiles	346	248	417	342
322 Wearing apparel	356	171	339	334
323 Leather and fur products	104	50	58	40
324 Footwear	173	122	181	100
331 Wood and wood products	142	111	186	242
332 Furniture and fixtures	196	96	171	179
341 Paper and paper products	177	86	203	134
342 Printing and publishing	296	142	394	194
351 Industrial chemicals	206	118	152	218
352 Other chemical products	247	118	380	524
353 Petroleum refineries	167	76	123	185
354 Miscellaneous petroleum and coal products	43	21	-2	22
355 Rubber products	87	43	63	21
356 Plastic products	131	65	135	104
361 Pottery, china and earthenware	26	18	45	26
362 Glass and glass products	69	33	105	73
369 Other non-metal mineral products	173	109	243	263
371 Iron and steel	142	113	229	169
372 Non-ferrous metals	58	38	106	57
381 Metal products	415	270	411	296
382 Non-electrical machinery	580	408	517	370
383 Electrical machinery	385	255	499	449
384 Transport equipment	465	224	339	537
385 Professional and scientific equipment	22	11	20	24
390 Other manufacturing industries	22	11	28	18

GDP per capita (1000\$)/c



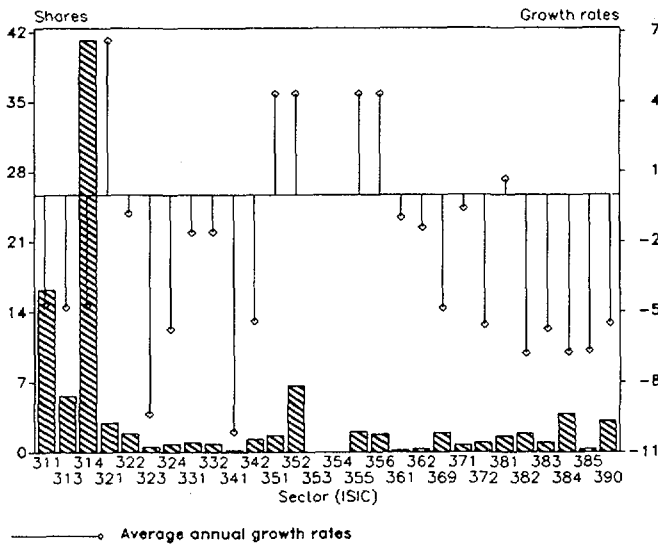
Manufacturing share in GDP, current prices (%)



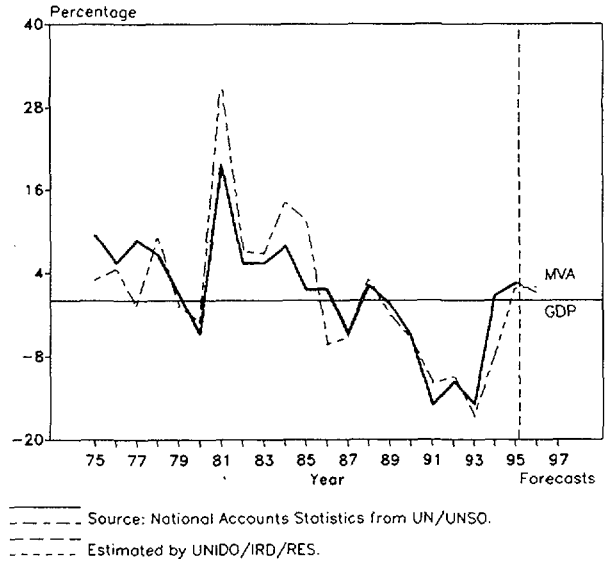
For sources, footnotes and comments see "Technical notes" at the beginning of this Annex.

CUBA

Average sectoral shares in total Value Added and average annual sectoral growth rates, 1990-1996 (Percentage)

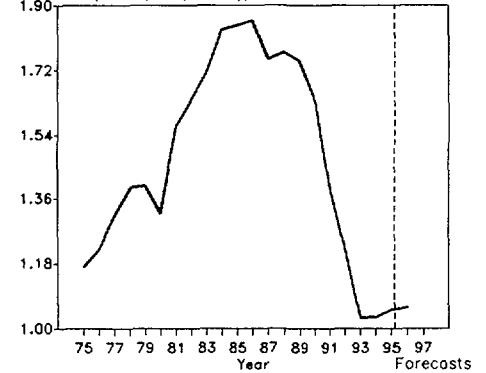


Annual growth rates of GDP and MVA (Constant 1990 prices)

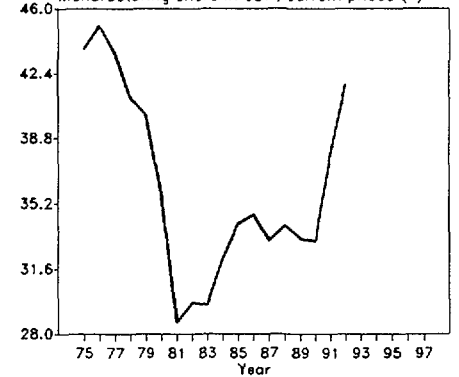


	1980	1985	1990	1995
<b>GDP:</b> <sup>na</sup> (millions of 1990-dollars)	12 800	18 664	17 453	11 520
Per capita <sup>na</sup> (1990-dollars)	1 318	1 845	1 642	1 051
Manufacturing share <sup>na</sup> (%) (current factor prices)	35.8	34.1	33.1	..
<b>MANUFACTURING:</b>				
Value added <sup>na</sup> (millions of 1990-dollars)	3 609	6 863	5 782	3 528
Industrial production index (1990=100)	79	110	100	68
Value added (millions of dollars)	4 909	5 148	5 935	4 077
Gross output (millions of dollars)	9 779	12 098	17 542	12 561
Employment (thousands)	501	654	701	668
<b>-PROFITABILITY: (in percent of gross output)</b>				
Intermediate input (%)	50	57	66	68
Wages and salaries including supplements (%)	13	14	13	14
Gross operating surplus and net taxes (%)	37	29	21	19
<b>-PRODUCTIVITY: (dollars)</b>				
Gross output per worker	19 527	18 488	25 031	18 805
Value added per worker	9 802	7 867	8 505	6 224
Average wage (including supplements)	2 620	2 528	3 193	2 618
<b>-STRUCTURAL INDICES:</b>				
Structural change indicator (5-year period, %) as a percentage of 1970-1975 structural change	7.51	9.84	9.16	7.73
MVA growth rate perer unit of structural change	0.09	1.82	1.48	-1.94
Degree of specialization	25.8	31.3	34.1	30.5
<b>-VALUE ADDED: (millions of dollars)</b>				
311/2 Food products	658	962	1 014	640
313 Beverages	247	275	352	221
314 Tobacco products	1 815	2 015	2 580	1 625
321 Textiles	51	41	119	145
322 Wearing apparel	147	98	94	76
323 Leather and fur products	53	32	33	17
324 Footwear	79	49	51	32
331 Wood and wood products	58	53	52	41
332 Furniture and fixtures	48	44	43	34
341 Paper and paper products	47	45	14	7
342 Printing and publishing	97	59	80	49
351 Industrial chemicals	81	55	71	78
352 Other chemical products	326	221	287	318
353 Petroleum refineries	..	..	..	..
354 Miscellaneous petroleum and coal products	..	..	..	..
355 Rubber products	100	68	87	97
356 Plastic products	87	59	76	84
361 Pottery, china and earthenware	8	6	8	7
362 Glass and glass products	17	13	19	14
369 Other non-metal mineral products	189	105	115	76
371 Iron and steel	27	44	37	29
372 Non-ferrous metals	41	48	61	37
381 Metal products	108	92	81	71
382 Non-electrical machinery	111	160	123	68
383 Electrical machinery	60	58	58	36
384 Transport equipment	235	334	257	142
385 Professional and scientific equipment	18	25	19	11
390 Other manufacturing industries	202	189	203	123

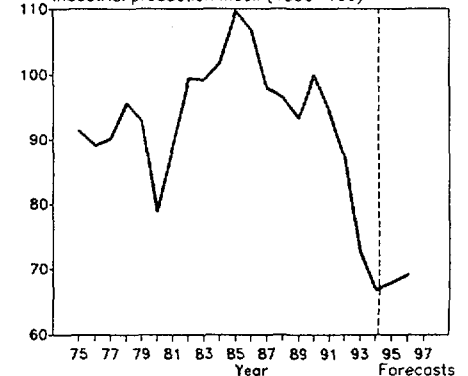
GDP per capita (1000\$/c)



Manufacturing share in GDP, current prices (%)



Industrial production index (1990=100)

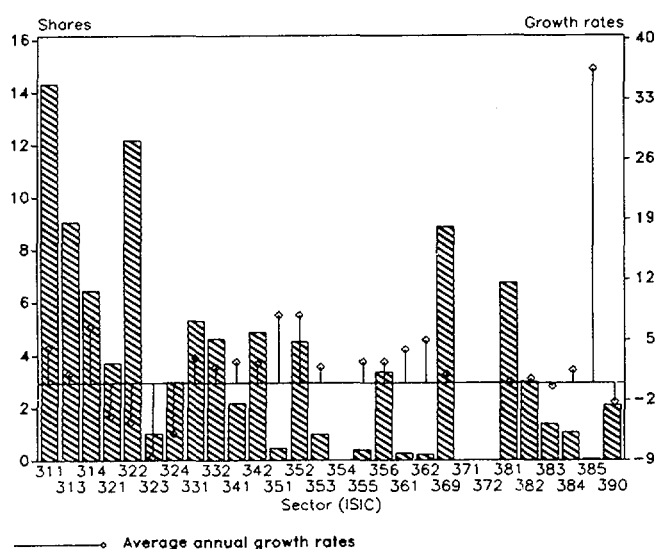


For sources, footnotes and comments see "Technical notes" at the beginning of this Annex.

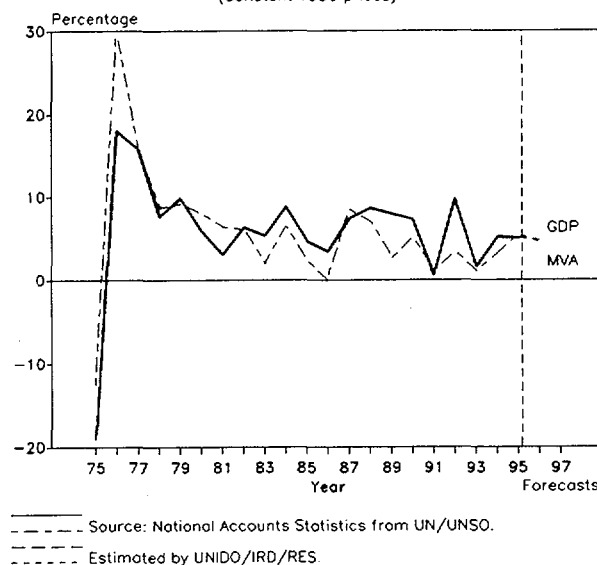


## CYPRUS

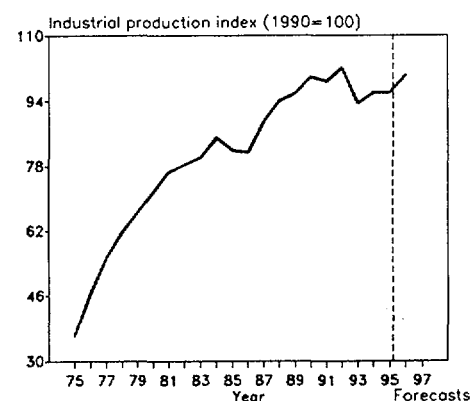
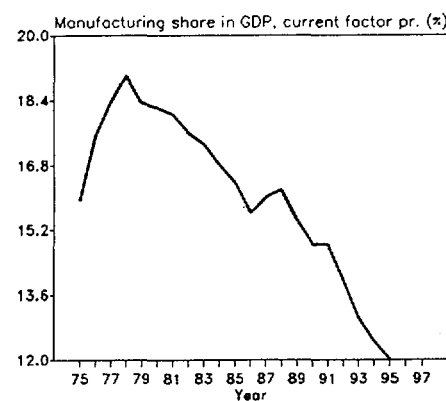
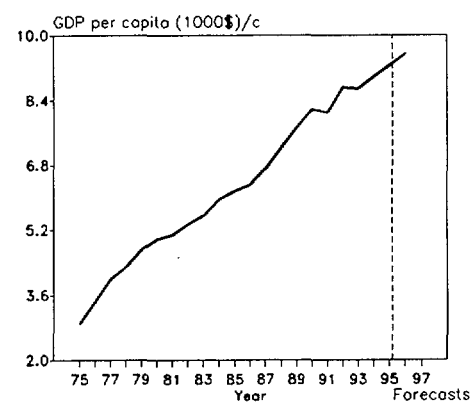
Average sectoral shares in total Value Added and average annual sectoral growth rates, 1990-1996 (Percentage)



Annual growth rates of GDP and MVA (Constant 1990 prices)



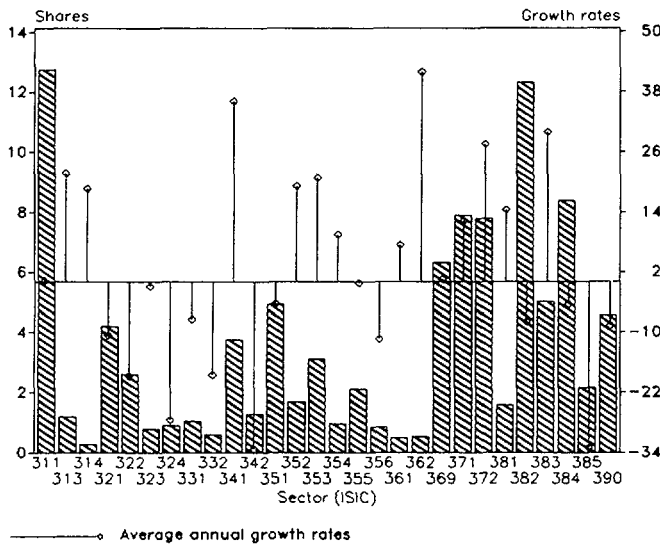
	1980	1985	1990	1995
<b>GDP:</b> <sup>na</sup> (millions of 1990-dollars)	3 035	3 989	5 574	6 896
Per capita <sup>na</sup> (1990-dollars)	4 967	6 166	8 184	9 256
Manufacturing share <sup>na</sup> (%) (current factor prices)	18.2	16.4	14.8	11.9
<b>MANUFACTURING:</b>				
Value added <sup>na</sup> (millions of 1990-dollars)	510	638	796	910
Industrial production index (1990=100)	71	82	100	96
Value added (millions of dollars)	406	378	792	1 018
Gross output (millions of dollars)	1 134	1 122	2 196	2 632
Employment (thousands)	34	39	43	40
<b>-PROFITABILITY: (in percent of gross output)</b>				
Intermediate input (%)	64	66	64	61
Wages and salaries including supplements (%)	15	18	19	19
Gross operating surplus and net taxes (%)	21	16	17	19
<b>-PRODUCTIVITY: (dollars)</b>				
Gross output per worker	29 417	25 804	46 057	59 850
Value added per worker	10 525	8 697	16 606	23 628
Average wage (including supplements)	5 062	5 143	9 738	12 733
<b>-STRUCTURAL INDICES:</b>				
Structural change indicator (5-year period, % as a percentage of 1970-1975 structural change)	13.84	13.72	8.69	7.51
MVA growth rate perer unit of structural change	5.98	6.63	2.95	2.36
Degree of specialization	11.3	11.7	13.3	13.2
<b>-VALUE ADDED: (millions of dollars)</b>				
311/2 Food products	42	49	101	155
313 Beverages	37	29	73	95
314 Tobacco products	36	26	41	72
321 Textiles	16	14	32	31
322 Wearing apparel	53	54	118	107
323 Leather and fur products	5	6	11	7
324 Footwear	21	19	30	25
331 Wood and wood products	19	23	39	56
332 Furniture and fixtures	17	22	36	49
341 Paper and paper products	11	8	17	24
342 Printing and publishing	15	18	37	51
351 Industrial chemicals	3	2	3	6
352 Other chemical products	12	12	28	52
353 Petroleum refineries	6	5	7	10
354 Miscellaneous petroleum and coal products	-	-	-	-
355 Rubber products	3	2	3	4
356 Plastic products	11	11	25	35
361 Pottery, china and earthenware	-	1	2	3
362 Glass and glass products	-	-	1	2
369 Other non-metal mineral products	44	24	69	90
371 Iron and steel	-	-	-	-
372 Non-ferrous metals	-	-	-	-
381 Metal products	23	26	55	67
382 Non-electrical machinery	11	12	24	30
383 Electrical machinery	5	6	12	14
384 Transport equipment	8	4	9	12
385 Professional and scientific equipment	-	-	-	1
390 Other manufacturing industries	7	7	19	20



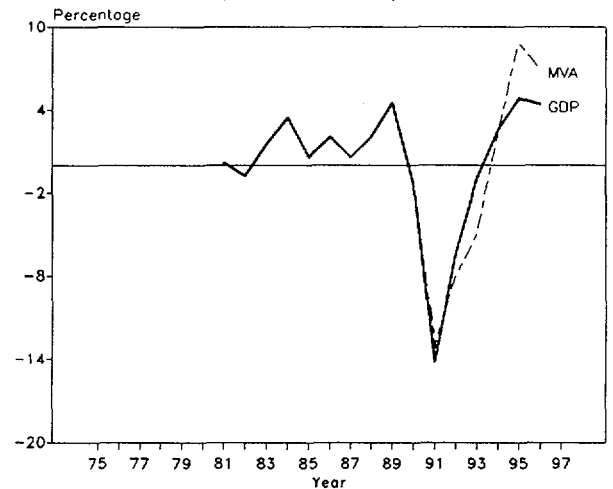
For sources, footnotes and comments see "Technical notes" at the beginning of this Annex.

CZECH REPUBLIC

Average sectoral shares in total Value Added and average annual sectoral growth rates, 1994-1995 (Percentage)



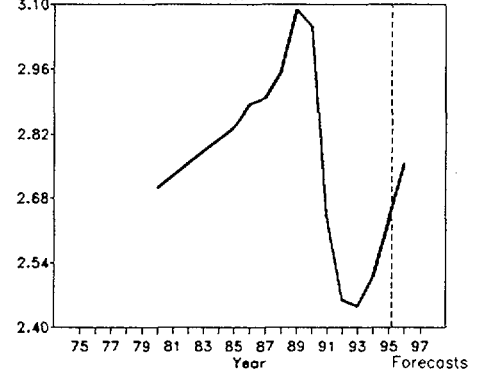
Annual growth rates of GDP and MVA (Constant 1990 prices)



Source: National Accounts Statistics from UN/UNSO.  
 Estimated by UNIDO/IRD/RES.

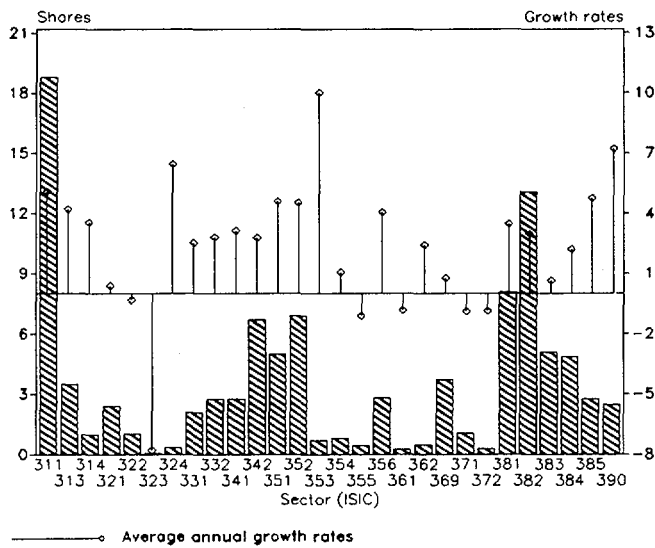
	1980	1985	1990	1995
<b>GDP:</b> <sup>na</sup> (millions of 1990-dollars)	27 790	29 214	31 604	27 050
Per capita <sup>na</sup> (1990-dollars)	2 703	2 835	3 051	2 636
Manufacturing share <sup>na</sup> (%) (current factor prices)	..	..	..	26.7
<b>MANUFACTURING:</b>				
Value added <sup>na</sup> (millions of 1990-dollars)	..	..	9 900	8 332
Industrial production index (1990=100)	..	..	..	..
Value added (millions of dollars)	..	..	..	9 849
Gross output (millions of dollars)	30 577	28 725	35 967	51 187
Employment (thousands)	1 274	1 124	1 577	1 237
<b>-PROFITABILITY: (in percent of gross output)</b>				
Intermediate input (%)	..	..	..	81
Wages and salaries including supplements (%)	..	..	..	8
Gross operating surplus and net taxes (%)	..	..	..	11
<b>-PRODUCTIVITY: (dollars)</b>				
Gross output per worker	16 176	17 265	22 807	41 383
Value added per worker	..	..	..	7 969
Average wage (including supplements)	2 499	2 178	2 223	3 217
<b>-STRUCTURAL INDICES:</b>				
Structural change indicator (5-year period, %) as a percentage of 1970-1975 structural change	..	..	..	..
MVA growth rate per unit of structural change	..	..	..	..
Degree of specialization	..	..	..	..
<b>-VALUE ADDED: (millions of dollars)</b>				
311/2 Food products	..	..	..	1 244
313 Beverages	..	..	..	127
314 Tobacco products	..	..	..	30
321 Textiles	..	..	..	386
322 Wearing apparel	..	..	..	227
323 Leather and fur products	..	..	..	77
324 Footwear	..	..	..	73
331 Wood and wood products	..	..	..	97
332 Furniture and fixtures	..	..	..	53
341 Paper and paper products	..	..	..	421
342 Printing and publishing	..	..	..	100
351 Industrial chemicals	..	..	..	469
352 Other chemical products	..	..	..	179
353 Petroleum refineries	..	..	..	333
354 Miscellaneous petroleum and coal products	..	..	..	98
355 Rubber products	..	..	..	205
356 Plastic products	..	..	..	77
361 Pottery, china and earthenware	..	..	..	49
362 Glass and glass products	..	..	..	61
369 Other non-metal mineral products	..	..	..	618
371 Iron and steel	..	..	..	813
372 Non-ferrous metals	..	..	..	851
381 Metal products	..	..	..	164
382 Non-electrical machinery	..	..	..	1 152
383 Electrical machinery	..	..	..	551
384 Transport equipment	..	..	..	800
385 Professional and scientific equipment	..	..	..	169
390 Other manufacturing industries	..	..	..	426

GDP per capita (1000\$/c)

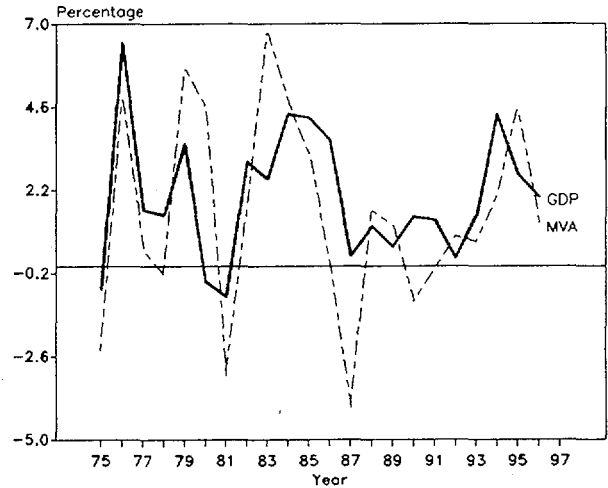


For sources, footnotes and comments see "Technical notes" at the beginning of this Annex.

Average sectoral shares in total Value Added and average annual sectoral growth rates, 1990-1996 (Percentage)

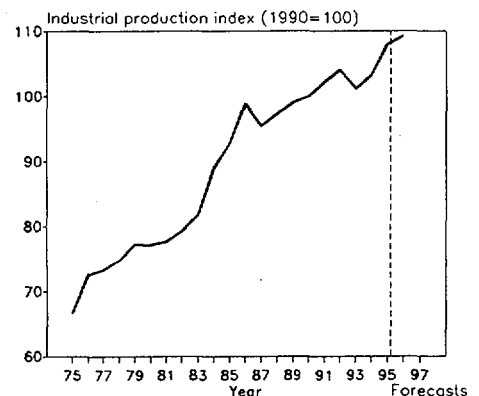
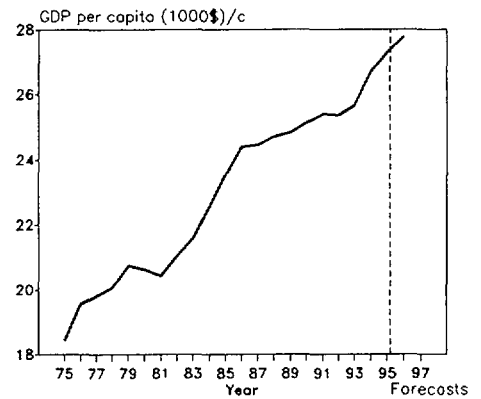


Annual growth rates of GDP and MVA (Constant 1990 prices)



Source: National Accounts Statistics from UN/UNSO.  
 Estimated by UNIDO/IRD/RES.

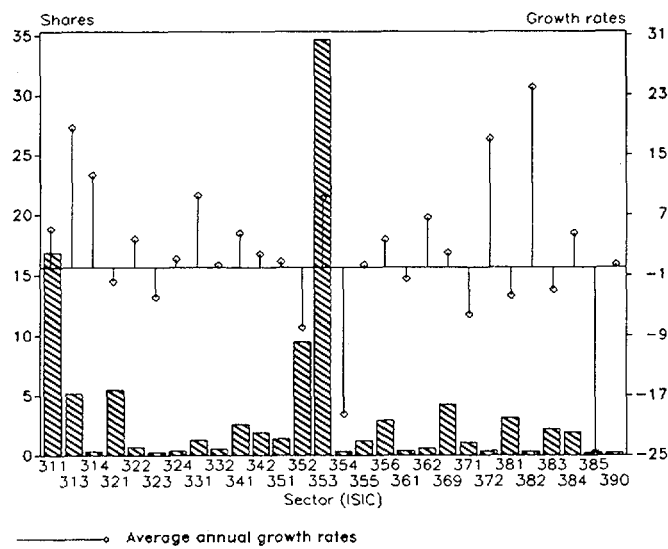
	1980	1985	1990	1995
<b>GDP:</b> <sup>na</sup> (millions of 1990-dollars)	105 634	120 375	129 116	142 616
Per capita <sup>na</sup> (1990-dollars)	20 619	23 538	25 120	27 305
Manufacturing share <sup>na</sup> (%) (current factor prices)	19.7	19.6	18.3	19.5
<b>MANUFACTURING:</b>				
Value added <sup>na</sup> (millions of 1990-dollars)	18 979	21 520	20 992	22 716
Industrial production index (1990=100)	77	93	100	108
Value added (millions of dollars)	11 944	10 451	22 988	33 560
Gross output (millions of dollars)	29 347	25 713	52 700	73 318
Employment (thousands)	381	405	511	508
<b>-PROFITABILITY: (in percent of gross output)</b>				
Intermediate input (%)	59	59	56	54
Wages and salaries including supplements (%)	26	24	28	27
Gross operating surplus (%)	15	17	15	19
<b>-PRODUCTIVITY: (dollars)</b>				
Gross output per worker	76 623	63 316	99 957	142 760
Value added per worker	31 187	25 734	43 602	66 544
Average wage (including supplements)	19 697	15 021	29 242	38 611
<b>-STRUCTURAL INDICES:</b>				
Structural change indicator (5-year period, %) as a percentage of 1970-1975 structural change	7.43	4.77	3.59	3.51
MVA growth rate per unit of structural change	0.64	3.04	2.66	3.66
Degree of specialization	14.8	15.1	15.1	15.9
<b>-VALUE ADDED: (millions of dollars)</b>				
311/2 Food products	2 232	1 925	4 072	6 471
313 Beverages	484	381	757	1 177
314 Tobacco products	108	95	203	304
321 Textiles	366	324	610	769
322 Wearing apparel	204	176	259	319
323 Leather and fur products	27	18	25	20
324 Footwear	55	38	65	118
331 Wood and wood products	252	193	486	682
332 Furniture and fixtures	271	305	642	910
341 Paper and paper products	300	262	628	911
342 Printing and publishing	845	675	1 592	2 242
351 Industrial chemicals	534	482	1 107	1 703
352 Other chemical products	604	599	1 537	2 359
353 Petroleum refineries	53	51	118	249
354 Miscellaneous petroleum and coal products	64	59	207	263
355 Rubber products	75	56	122	140
356 Plastic products	238	264	635	958
361 Pottery, china and earthenware	83	40	71	83
362 Glass and glass products	94	58	114	160
369 Other non-metal mineral products	568	432	941	1 208
371 Iron and steel	167	118	281	323
372 Non-ferrous metals	67	42	73	85
381 Metal products	825	798	1 837	2 703
382 Non-electrical machinery	1 616	1 387	3 050	4 338
383 Electrical machinery	703	622	1 319	1 654
384 Transport equipment	644	572	1 128	1 571
385 Professional and scientific equipment	275	294	622	959
390 Other manufacturing industries	192	185	489	880



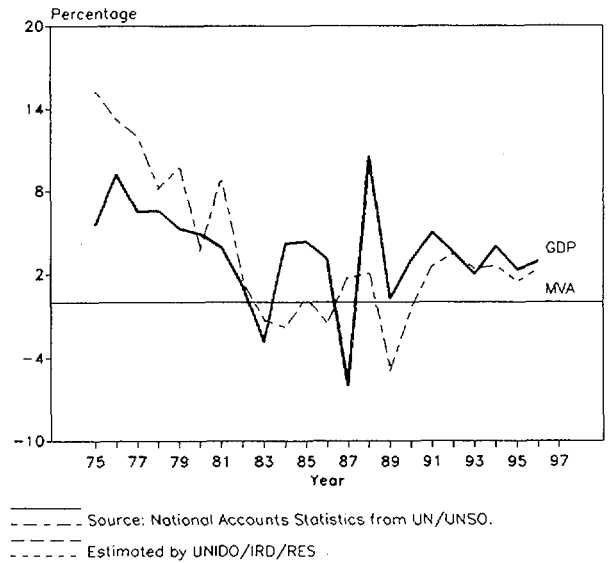
For sources, footnotes and comments see "Technical notes" at the beginning of this Annex.

ECUADOR

Average sectoral shares in total Value Added and average annual sectoral growth rates, 1990-1996 (Percentage)

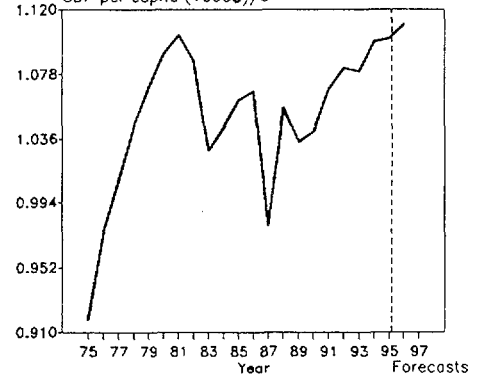


Annual growth rates of GDP and MVA (Constant 1990 prices)

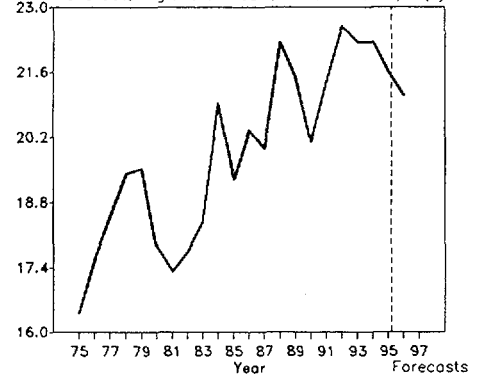


	1980	1985	1990	1995
<b>GDP:</b> <sup>na</sup> (millions of 1990-dollars)	8 690	9 657	10 686	12 622
Per capita <sup>na</sup> (1990-dollars)	1 092	1 061	1 041	1 101
Manufacturing share <sup>na</sup> (%) (current factor prices)	17.8	19.3	20.1	21.6
<b>MANUFACTURING:</b>				
Value added <sup>na</sup> (millions of 1990-dollars)	2 002	2 144	2 068	2 335
Industrial production index (1990=100)	74	84	100	139
Value added (millions of dollars)	1 289	1 322	1 196	2 447
Gross output (millions of dollars)	3 571	4 379	3 934	7 335
Employment (thousands)	112	97	112	117
<b>-PROFITABILITY: (in percent of gross output)</b>				
Intermediate input (%)	64	70	70	67
Wages and salaries including supplements (%)	16	13	9	4
Gross operating surplus and net taxes (%)	21	18	21	29
<b>-PRODUCTIVITY: (dollars)</b>				
Gross output per worker	31 623	45 072	35 083	62 269
Value added per worker	11 414	13 606	10 667	20 771
Average wage (including supplements)	4 976	5 677	3 137	2 774
<b>-STRUCTURAL INDICES:</b>				
Structural change indicator (5-year period, %) as a percentage of 1970-1975 structural change	11.22	11.99	20.04	20.87
MVA growth rate perer unit of structural change	5.13	1.67	0.73	1.83
Degree of specialization	17.2	16.7	27.5	33.6
<b>-VALUE ADDED: (millions of dollars)</b>				
311/2 Food products	294	328	228	486
313 Beverages	96	65	33	146
314 Tobacco products	46	17	1	5
321 Textiles	134	146	95	134
322 Wearing apparel	20	15	10	20
323 Leather and fur products	7	6	4	4
324 Footwear	6	7	6	9
331 Wood and wood products	35	18	16	42
332 Furniture and fixtures	28	23	9	14
341 Paper and paper products	42	41	34	68
342 Printing and publishing	40	35	27	46
351 Industrial chemicals	25	32	17	27
352 Other chemical products	90	76	75	75
353 Petroleum refineries	29	38	374	949
354 Miscellaneous petroleum and coal products	4	14	4	1
355 Rubber products	25	29	17	27
356 Plastic products	34	57	42	79
361 Pottery, china and earthenware	7	15	7	10
362 Glass and glass products	9	15	8	18
369 Other non-metal mineral products	100	101	60	102
371 Iron and steel	25	56	19	19
372 Non-ferrous metals	5	10	2	9
381 Metal products	93	78	44	52
382 Non-electrical machinery	4	7	3	16
383 Electrical machinery	59	58	32	40
384 Transport equipment	23	23	22	43
385 Professional and scientific equipment	2	9	3	1
390 Other manufacturing industries	7	5	3	5

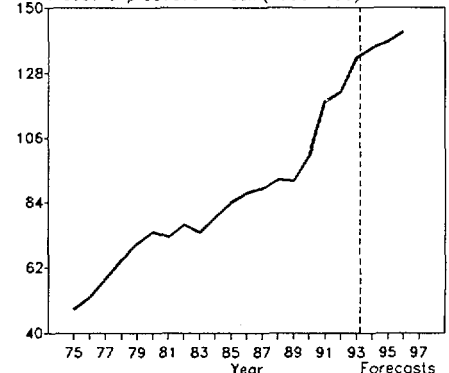
GDP per capita (1000\$)/c



Manufacturing share in GDP, current factor pr. (%)



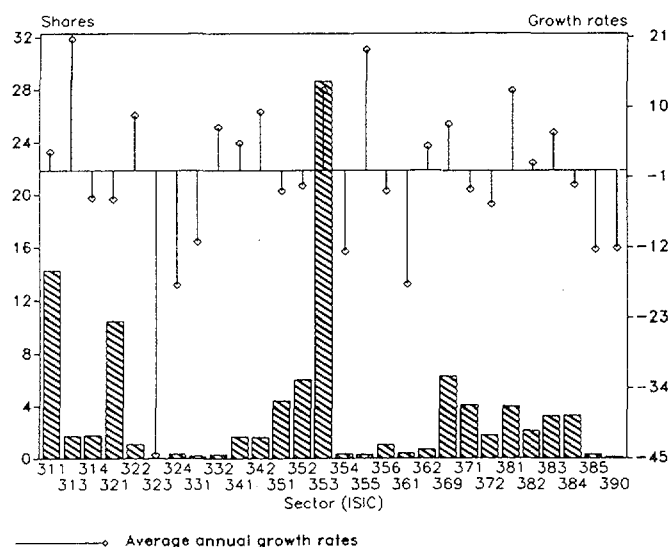
Industrial production index (1990=100)



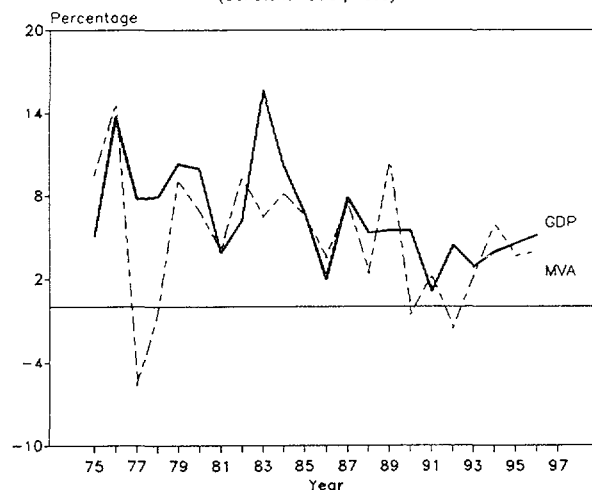
For sources, footnotes and comments see "Technical notes" at the beginning of this Annex.

## EGYPT

Average sectoral shares in total Value Added and average annual sectoral growth rates, 1990-1996 (Percentage)



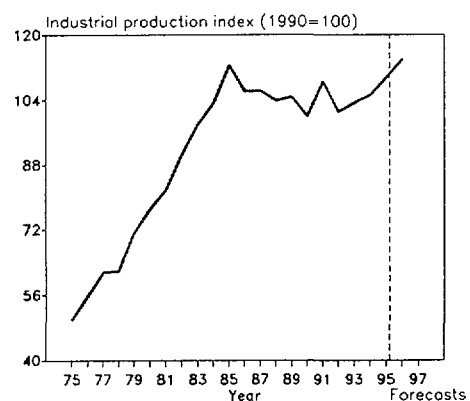
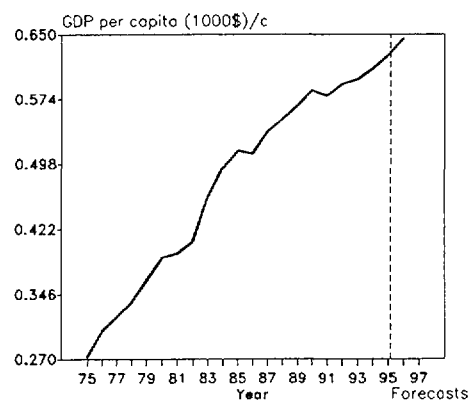
Annual growth rates of GDP and MVA (Constant 1990 prices)



Source: National Accounts Statistics from UN/UNSO.  
 Estimated by UNIDO/IRD/RES.

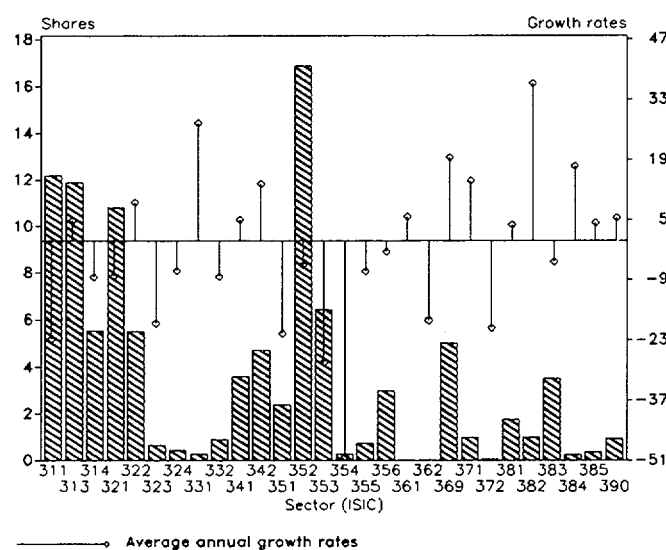
	1980	1985	1990	1995
<b>GDP:</b> <sup>na</sup> (millions of 1990-dollars)	17 008	25 536	32 907	38 842
Per capita <sup>na</sup> (1990-dollars)	389	513	584	626
Manufacturing share <sup>na</sup> (%) (current factor prices)	12.9	15.4	18.0	13.8
<b>MANUFACTURING:</b>				
Value added <sup>na</sup> (millions of 1990-dollars)	3 178	4 419	5 502	6 187
Industrial production index (1990=100)	77	113	100	110
Value added (millions of dollars)	1 769	2 938	4 498	7 864
Gross output (millions of dollars)	6 986	10 260	15 664	25 041
Employment (thousands)	868	907	1 077	1 117
<b>-PROFITABILITY: (in percent of gross output)</b>				
Intermediate input (%)	75	71	71	69
Wages and salaries including supplements (%)	17	18	12	9
Gross operating surplus and net taxes (%)	8	10	17	23
<b>-PRODUCTIVITY: (dollars)</b>				
Gross output per worker	7 984	11 232	14 550	22 416
Value added per worker	2 023	3 216	4 178	7 047
Average wage (including supplements)	1 360	2 058	1 756	1 971
<b>-STRUCTURAL INDICES:</b>				
Structural change indicator (5-year period, %)	11.36	17.07	23.50	21.58
as a percentage of 1970-1975 structural change	100	150	207	190
MVA growth rate per unit of structural change	3.23	1.42	1.13	0.98
Degree of specialization	22.6	15.0	21.3	26.6
<b>-VALUE ADDED: (millions of dollars)</b>				
311/2 Food products	308	421	712	1 217
313 Beverages	14	71	35	155
314 Tobacco products	21	131	100	117
321 Textiles	506	509	635	719
322 Wearing apparel	6	15	40	92
323 Leather and fur products	3	7	5	-
324 Footwear	22	9	17	8
331 Wood and wood products	9	24	13	8
332 Furniture and fixtures	7	19	10	21
341 Paper and paper products	42	76	63	118
342 Printing and publishing	39	101	57	141
351 Industrial chemicals	69	145	254	300
352 Other chemical products	87	205	365	459
353 Petroleum refineries	40	59	867	2 408
354 Miscellaneous petroleum and coal products	61	78	27	17
355 Rubber products	12	28	6	24
356 Plastic products	33	-21	54	63
361 Pottery, china and earthenware	6	12	47	20
362 Glass and glass products	17	22	31	57
369 Other non-metal mineral products	78	167	248	542
371 Iron and steel	88	98	235	280
372 Non-ferrous metals	64	279	132	128
381 Metal products	42	95	108	317
382 Non-electrical machinery	54	83	107	164
383 Electrical machinery	69	181	120	247
384 Transport equipment	65	106	178	221
385 Professional and scientific equipment	4	13	28	17
390 Other manufacturing industries	1	6	6	4

For sources, footnotes and comments see "Technical notes" at the beginning of this Annex.

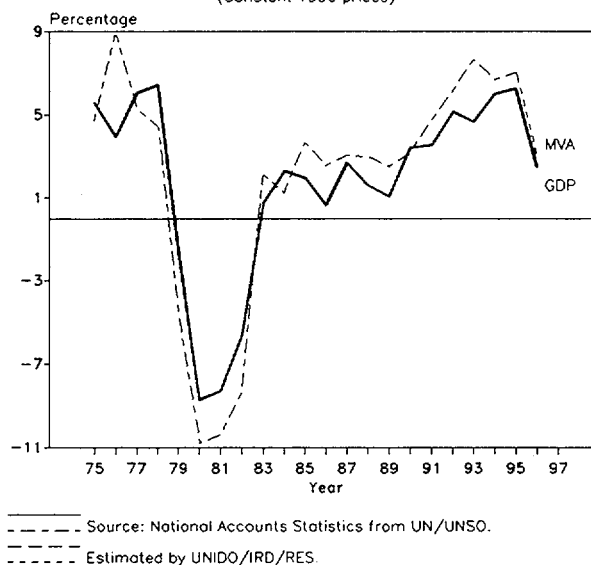


## EL SALVADOR

Average sectoral shares in total Value Added and average annual sectoral growth rates, 1990-1996 (Percentage)

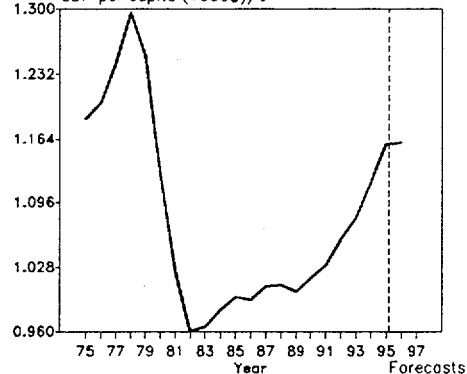


Annual growth rates of GDP and MVA (Constant 1990 prices)

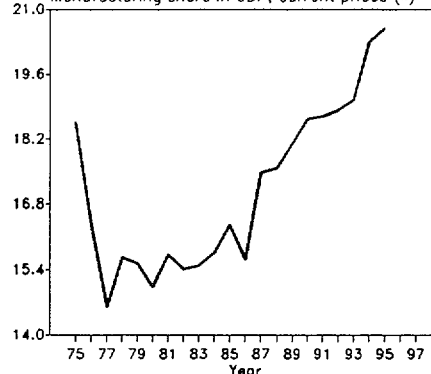


	1980	1985	1990	1995
<b>GDP:</b> <sup>na</sup> (millions of 1990-dollars)	5 119	4 660	5 113	6 561
Per capita <sup>na</sup> (1990-dollars)	1 126	997	1 016	1 159
Manufacturing share <sup>na</sup> (%) (current factor prices)	15.0	16.4	18.6	20.6
<b>MANUFACTURING:</b>				
Value added <sup>na</sup> (millions of 1990-dollars)	943	828	952	1 300
Industrial production index (1990=100)	123	90	100	137
Value added (millions of dollars)	448	393	544	687
Gross output (millions of dollars)	1 130	860	1 223	1 698
Employment (thousands)	39	25	26	54
<b>-PROFITABILITY: (in percent of gross output)</b>				
Intermediate input (%)	60	54	56	60
Wages and salaries including supplements (%)	15	12	10	15
Gross operating surplus and net taxes (%)	24	34	34	26
<b>-PRODUCTIVITY: (dollars)</b>				
Gross output per worker	28 857	34 129	46 433	31 673
Value added per worker	11 426	15 593	20 802	12 837
Average wage (including supplements)	4 376	3 991	4 968	4 646
<b>-STRUCTURAL INDICES:</b>				
Structural change indicator (5-year period, %)	19.26	21.78	14.56	21.17
as a percentage of 1970-1975 structural change	100	113	76	110
MVA growth rate per unit of structural change	1.05	-1.28	-1.02	-0.46
Degree of specialization	19.1	18.0	23.0	20.9
<b>-VALUE ADDED: (millions of dollars)</b>				
311/2 Food products	78	55	86	33
313 Beverages	63	59	63	124
314 Tobacco products	26	29	38	35
321 Textiles	62	40	72	71
322 Wearing apparel	16	10	18	50
323 Leather and fur products	5	5	5	2
324 Footwear	13	1	2	2
331 Wood and wood products	1	-	1	4
332 Furniture and fixtures	3	4	5	5
341 Paper and paper products	40	24	15	31
342 Printing and publishing	8	8	13	47
351 Industrial chemicals	4	7	19	7
352 Other chemical products	46	57	92	104
353 Petroleum refineries	14	20	42	9
354 Miscellaneous petroleum and coal products	2	-	2	-
355 Rubber products	4	3	4	4
356 Plastic products	13	15	16	21
361 Pottery, china and earthenware	-	-	-	-
362 Glass and glass products	-	-	-	-
369 Other non-metal mineral products	11	13	13	62
371 Iron and steel	9	7	3	12
372 Non-ferrous metals	1	1	-	-
381 Metal products	10	12	8	15
382 Non-electrical machinery	6	7	1	15
383 Electrical machinery	9	12	20	23
384 Transport equipment	1	-	1	2
385 Professional and scientific equipment	-	1	1	2
390 Other manufacturing industries	4	2	3	8

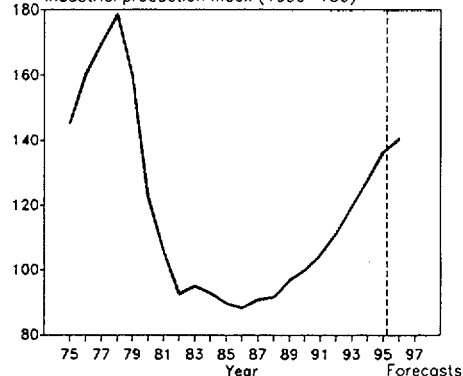
GDP per capita (1000\$)/c



Manufacturing share in GDP, current prices (%)

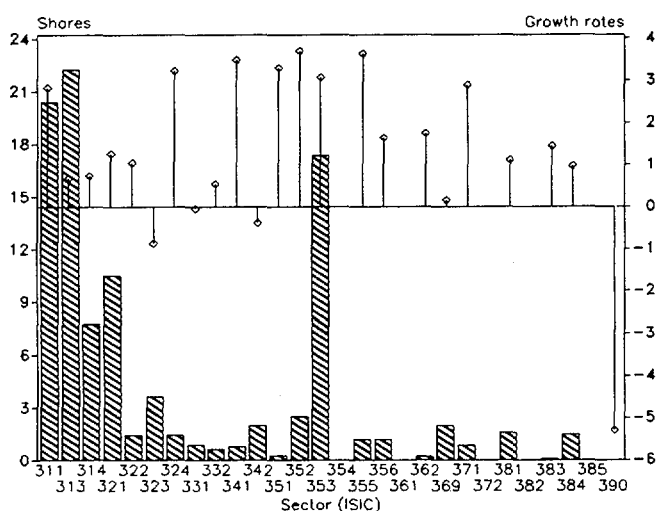


Industrial production index (1990=100)



For sources, footnotes and comments see "Technical notes" at the beginning of this Annex.

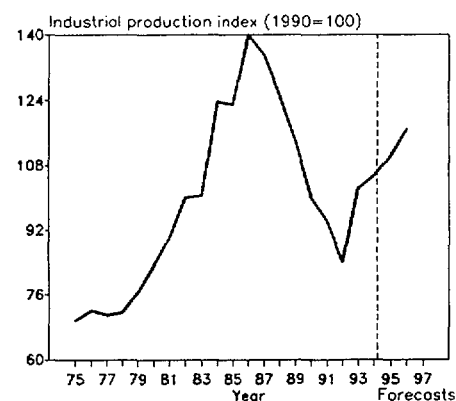
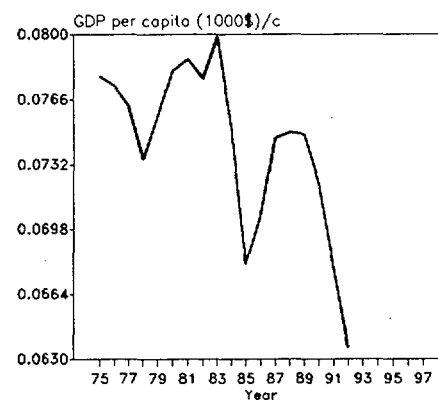
Average sectoral shares in total Value Added and average annual sectoral growth rates, 1990–1996 (Percentage)



— Average annual growth rates

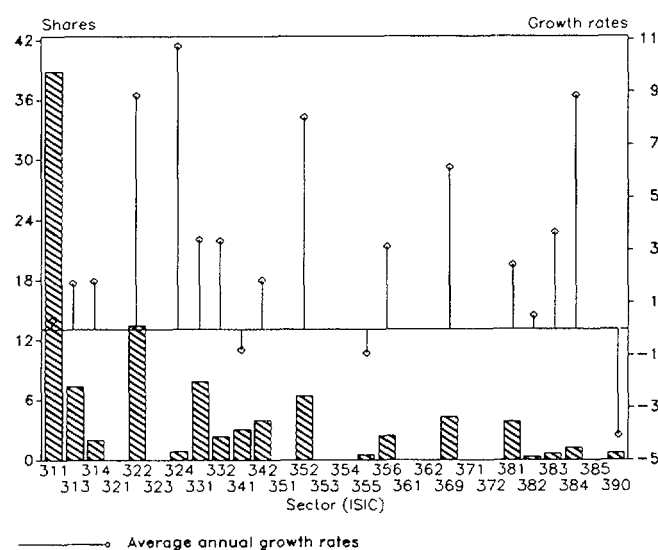
	1980	1985	1990	1992
GDP: <sup>na</sup> (millions of 1990-dollars)	3 028	2 983	3 681	3 449
Per capita <sup>na</sup> (1990-dollars)	78	68	72	64
Manufacturing share <sup>na</sup> (%) (current factor prices)	10.8	11.2	11.2	8.8
<b>MANUFACTURING:</b>				
Value added <sup>na</sup> (millions of 1990-dollars)	270	323	375	274
Industrial production index (1990=100)	83	123	100	84
Value added (millions of dollars)	273	311	516	485
Gross output (millions of dollars)	604	741	1 105	1 129
Employment (thousands)	77	88	103	95
<b>-PROFITABILITY: (in percent of gross output)</b>				
Intermediate input (%)	55	58	53	57
Wages and salaries including supplements (%)	8	9	9	8
Gross operating surplus and net taxes (%)	37	33	38	35
<b>-PRODUCTIVITY: (dollars)</b>				
Gross output per worker	7 859	8 385	10 748	11 696
Value added per worker	3 551	3 519	5 015	5 030
Average wage (including supplements)	642	718	974	971
<b>-STRUCTURAL INDICES:</b>				
Structural change indicator (5-year period, %) as a percentage of 1970-1975 structural change	11.57	15.90	14.93	11.41
MVA growth rate perer unit of structural change	3.44	1.06	1.44	1.05
Degree of specialization	25.8	21.7	26.4	27.0
<b>-VALUE ADDED: (millions of dollars)</b>				
311/2 Food products	66	61	101	98
313 Beverages	50	76	123	103
314 Tobacco products	18	19	43	36
321 Textiles	63	37	52	56
322 Wearing apparel	2	6	8	6
323 Leather and fur products	9	7	21	17
324 Footwear	6	5	7	7
331 Wood and wood products	5	3	5	5
332 Furniture and fixtures	1	2	3	3
341 Paper and paper products	5	5	4	3
342 Printing and publishing	6	9	11	9
351 Industrial chemicals	1	1	1	1
352 Other chemical products	8	11	12	12
353 Petroleum refineries	12	29	81	89
354 Miscellaneous petroleum and coal products	-	-	-	-
355 Rubber products	4	7	6	5
356 Plastic products	2	6	6	5
361 Pottery, china and earthenware	-	-	-	-
362 Glass and glass products	1	2	1	1
369 Other non-metal mineral products	5	10	11	10
371 Iron and steel	5	4	4	4
372 Non-ferrous metals	-	-	-	-
381 Metal products	4	7	9	7
382 Non-electrical machinery	-	-	-	-
383 Electrical machinery	-	-	-	-
384 Transport equipment	-	4	8	7
385 Professional and scientific equipment	-	-	-	-
390 Other manufacturing industries	-	-	-	-

For sources, footnotes and comments see "Technical notes" at the beginning of this Annex.

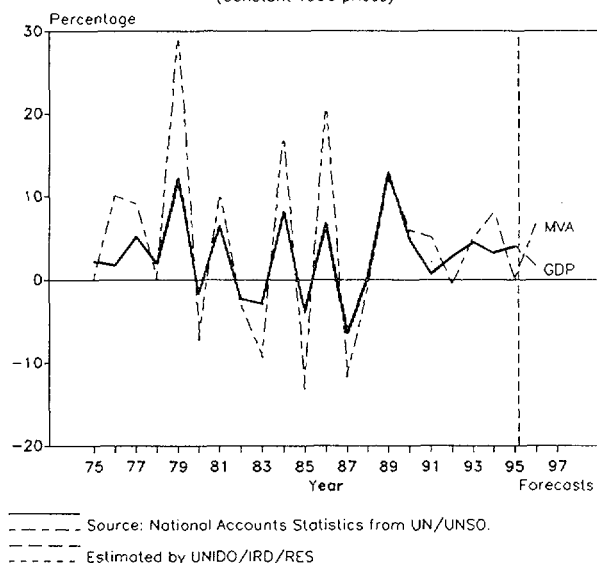


## FIJI

Average sectoral shares in total Value Added and average annual sectoral growth rates, 1990-1996 (Percentage)

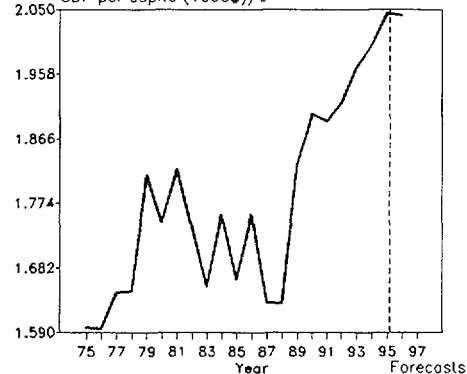


Annual growth rates of GDP and MVA (Constant 1990 prices)

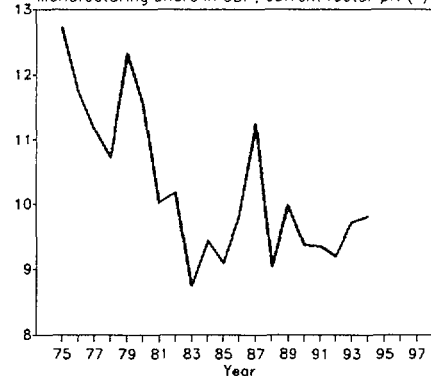


	1980	1985	1990	1995
GDP: <sup>na</sup> (millions of 1990-dollars)	1 107	1 164	1 381	1 603
Per capita <sup>na</sup> (1990-dollars)	1 747	1 665	1 902	2 045
Manufacturing share <sup>na</sup> (%) (current factor prices)	11.5	9.1	9.4	..
<b>MANUFACTURING:</b>				
Value added <sup>na</sup> (millions of 1990-dollars)	100	98	122	143
Industrial production index (1990=100)	90	88	100	108
Value added (millions of dollars)	121	90	142	204
Gross output (millions of dollars)	489	395	642	827
Employment (thousands)	13	13	21	16
<b>-PROFITABILITY: (in percent of gross output)</b>				
Intermediate input (%)	75	78	80	75
Wages and salaries including supplements (%)	11	13	11	10
Gross operating surplus and net taxes (%)	14	8	9	15
<b>-PRODUCTIVITY: (dollars)</b>				
Gross output per worker	37 145	28 850	30 433	45 092
Value added per worker	9 230	7 197	9 240	11 353
Average wage (including supplements)	4 114	3 992	3 253	5 274
<b>-STRUCTURAL INDICES:</b>				
Structural change indicator (5-year period, %)	9.91	13.07	14.43	9.54
as a percentage of 1970-1975 structural change	100	132	146	96
MVA growth rate per unit of structural change	3.58	-0.08	0.75	3.11
Degree of specialization	40.4	24.3	27.3	23.9
<b>-VALUE ADDED: (millions of dollars)</b>				
311/2 Food products	71	37	60	73
313 Beverages	6	7	11	15
314 Tobacco products	2	2	3	4
321 Textiles	-	-	-	-
322 Wearing apparel	2	4	16	31
323 Leather and fur products	-	-	-	-
324 Footwear	-	-	1	2
331 Wood and wood products	7	6	11	17
332 Furniture and fixtures	3	3	3	5
341 Paper and paper products	2	2	5	6
342 Printing and publishing	4	5	6	8
351 Industrial chemicals	-	-	-	-
352 Other chemical products	4	5	7	14
353 Petroleum refineries	-	-	-	-
354 Miscellaneous petroleum and coal products	-	-	-	-
355 Rubber products	1	1	1	1
356 Plastic products	2	2	3	5
361 Pottery, china and earthenware	-	-	-	-
362 Glass and glass products	-	-	-	-
369 Other non-metal mineral products	6	7 <sup>d</sup>	5 <sup>d</sup>	9
371 Iron and steel	-	- <sup>d</sup>	- <sup>d</sup>	..
372 Non-ferrous metals	-	-	-	-
381 Metal products	6	4	5	8
382 Non-electrical machinery	1	-	-	1
383 Electrical machinery	-	1	1	1
384 Transport equipment	4	3	1	3
385 Professional and scientific equipment	-	-	-	-
390 Other manufacturing industries	-	1	1	1

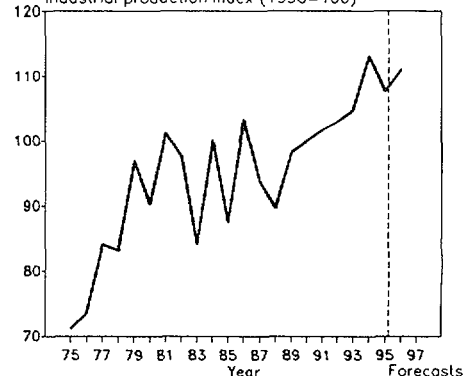
GDP per capita (1000\$/c)



Manufacturing share in GDP, current factor pr. (%)



Industrial production index (1990=100)

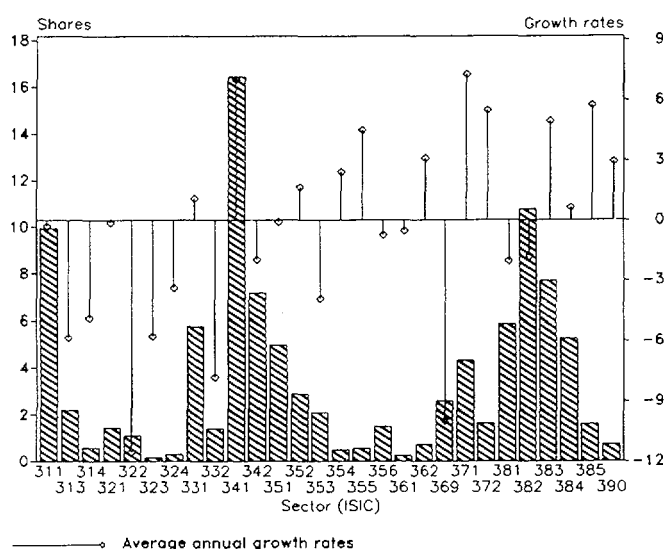


For sources, footnotes and comments see "Technical notes" at the beginning of this Annex.

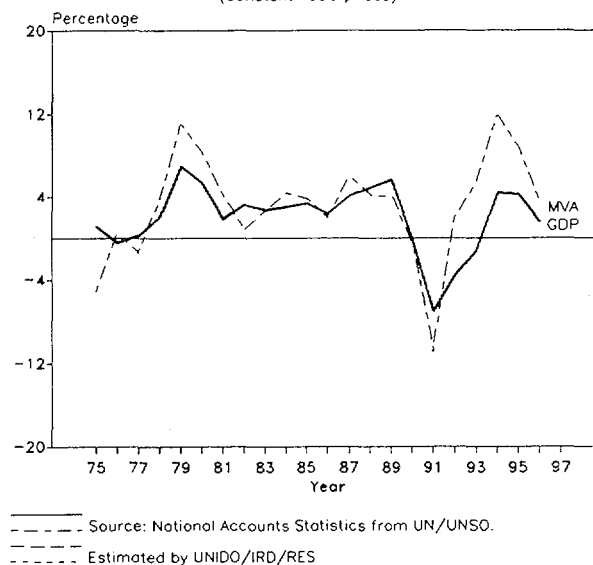


## FINLAND

Average sectoral shares in total Value Added and average annual sectoral growth rates, 1990-1996 (Percentage)



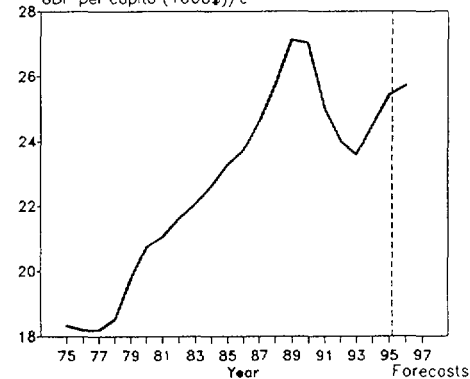
Annual growth rates of GDP and MVA (Constant 1990 prices)



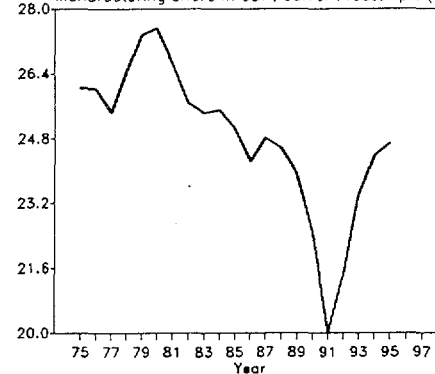
	1980	1985	1990	1995
<b>GDP:</b> <sup>na</sup> (millions of 1990-dollars)	99 188	114 084	134 788	129 925
Per capita <sup>na</sup> (1990-dollars)	20 751	23 273	27 033	25 441
Manufacturing share <sup>na</sup> (%) (current factor prices)	27.5	25.1	22.5	24.7
<b>MANUFACTURING:</b>				
Value added <sup>na</sup> (millions of 1990-dollars)	20 365	23 728	27 558	32 088
Industrial production index (1990=100)	77	89	100	116
Value added (millions of dollars)	14 343	13 594	26 981	27 206
Gross output (millions of dollars)	40 839	36 967	74 496	77 875
Employment (thousands)	531	496	432	349
<b>-PROFITABILITY: (in percent of gross output)</b>				
Intermediate input (%)	65	63	64	65
Wages and salaries including supplements (%)	19	20	21	14
Gross operating surplus and net taxes (%)	16	17	15	21
<b>-PRODUCTIVITY: (dollars)</b>				
Gross output per worker	76 435	74 030	171 493	209 180
Value added per worker	26 845	27 223	62 110	73 952
Average wage (including supplements)	14 694	14 599	36 724	31 331
<b>-STRUCTURAL INDICES:</b>				
Structural change indicator (5-year period, %) as a percentage of 1970-1975 structural change	9.30	8.04	7.62	9.15
MVA growth rate per unit of structural change	3.00	1.45	0.04	-0.02
Degree of specialization	13.3	13.8	13.8	16.2
<b>-VALUE ADDED: (millions of dollars)</b>				
311/2 Food products	1 402	1 413	2 576	2 442
313 Beverages	225	227	666	443
314 Tobacco products	46	57	177	127
321 Textiles	469	309	386	383
322 Wearing apparel	499	435	428	226
323 Leather and fur products	54	38	48	33
324 Footwear	134	106	93	75
331 Wood and wood products	1 196	652	1 578	1 744
332 Furniture and fixtures	257	215	515	315
341 Paper and paper products	2 088	1 845	3 603	5 166
342 Printing and publishing	1 080	1 222	2 113	1 797
351 Industrial chemicals	555	561	1 371	1 309
352 Other chemical products	349	371	707	745
353 Petroleum refineries	445	384	674	493
354 Miscellaneous petroleum and coal products	46	47	121	132
355 Rubber products	105	84	133	169
356 Plastic products	164	168	425	391
361 Pottery, china and earthenware	46	40	73	70
362 Glass and glass products	105	78	163	187
369 Other non-metal mineral products	434	434	1 053	556
371 Iron and steel	544	463	850	1 245
372 Non-ferrous metals	142	103	363	473
381 Metal products	756	768	1 759	1 491
382 Non-electrical machinery	1 469	1 618	3 355	2 843
383 Electrical machinery	694	764	1 832	2 313
384 Transport equipment	823	915	1 405	1 404
385 Professional and scientific equipment	110	166	344	448
390 Other manufacturing industries	107	112	168	188

For sources, footnotes and comments see "Technical notes" at the beginning of this Annex.

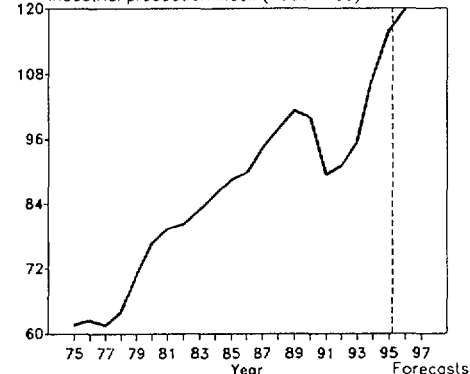
GDP per capita (1000\$/c)



Manufacturing share in GDP, current factor pr. (%)

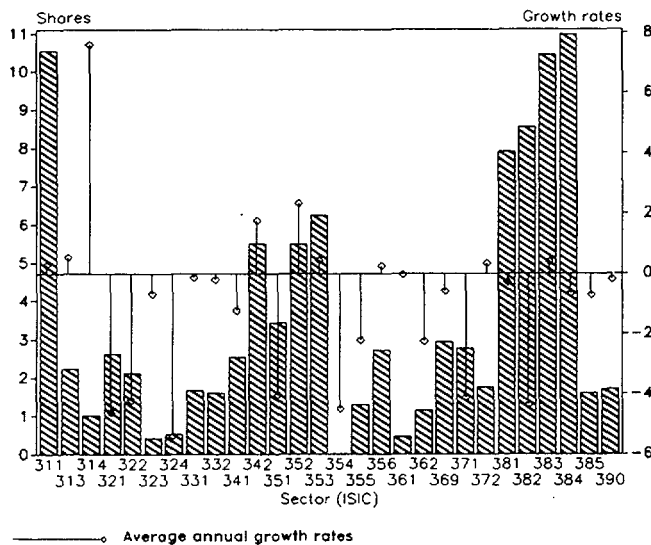


Industrial production index (1990=100)

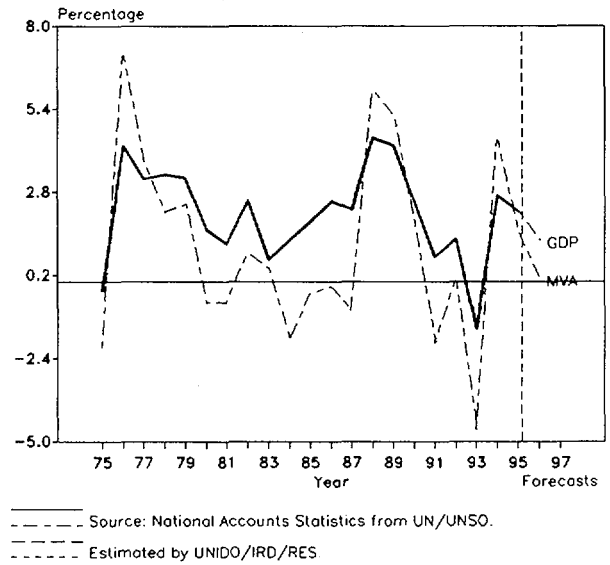


FRANCE

Average sectoral shares in total Value Added and average annual sectoral growth rates, 1990-1996 (Percentage)

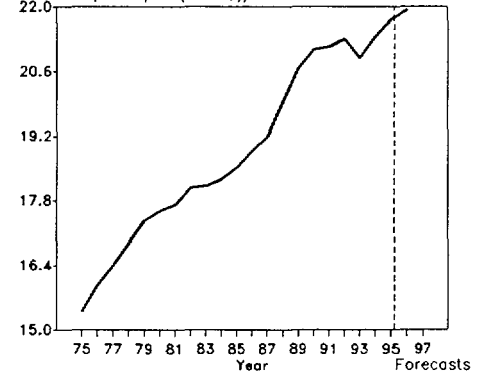


Annual growth rates of GDP and MVA (Constant 1990 prices)

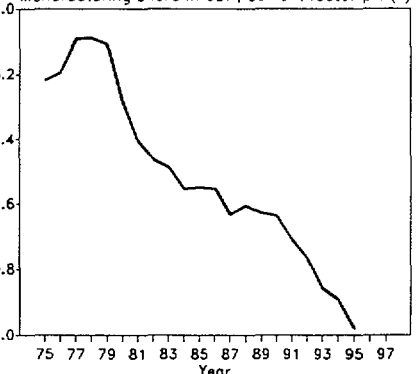


	1980	1985	1990	1995
GDP: <sup>na</sup> (millions of 1990-dollars)	947 029	1 021 247	1 195 498	1 262 755
Per capita <sup>na</sup> (1990-dollars)	17 577	18 511	21 078	21 733
Manufacturing share <sup>na</sup> (%) (current factor prices)	25.5	23.1	22.3	19.2
<b>MANUFACTURING:</b>				
Value added <sup>na</sup> (millions of 1990-dollars)	231 916	228 130	256 107	254 160
Industrial production index (1990=100)	94	88	100	99
Value added (millions of dollars)	161 513	115 506	257 307	297 536
Gross output (millions of dollars)	453 599	326 362	681 318	789 715
Employment (thousands)	5 197	4 583	4 390	3 874
<b>-PROFITABILITY: (in percent of gross output)</b>				
Intermediate input (%)	64	65	62	62
Wages and salaries including supplements (%)	24	23	22	22
Gross operating surplus and net taxes (%)	11	12	16	16
<b>-PRODUCTIVITY: (dollars)</b>				
Gross output per worker	83 243	67 775	148 196	194 935
Value added per worker	29 647	23 987	55 968	73 444
Average wage (including supplements)	21 336	16 797	34 529	44 682
<b>-STRUCTURAL INDICES:</b>				
Structural change indicator (5-year period, %)	4.74	4.61	5.23	4.74
as a percentage of 1970-1975 structural change	100	97	110	100
MVA growth rate perer unit of structural change	2.19	0.72	1.08	0.89
Degree of specialization	10.4	11.1	11.1	11.3
<b>-VALUE ADDED: (millions of dollars)</b>				
311/2 Food products	15 952	12 825	25 556	31 371
313 Beverages	3 486	2 268	5 382	6 711
314 Tobacco products	1 497	948	1 919	3 602
321 Textiles	6 130	4 239	7 666	7 263
322 Wearing apparel	4 742	3 104	5 807	5 491
323 Leather and fur products	757	527	1 130	1 341
324 Footwear	1 411	929	1 420	1 258
331 Wood and wood products	2 888	1 704	4 183	5 057
332 Furniture and fixtures	2 846	1 632	3 973	4 739
341 Paper and paper products	3 592	2 817	6 823	7 730
342 Printing and publishing	6 660	5 069	12 500	16 645
351 Industrial chemicals	6 462	4 669	10 873	10 247
352 Other chemical products	6 302	4 996	12 427	16 726
353 Petroleum refineries	9 973	8 127	15 129	18 876
354 Miscellaneous petroleum and coal products	69	31	56	53
355 Rubber products	2 483	1 544	3 341	3 526
356 Plastic products	3 083	2 415	6 663	8 045
361 Pottery, china and earthenware	650	490	1 145	1 379
362 Glass and glass products	2 170	1 365	3 090	3 333
369 Other non-metal mineral products	5 653	3 153	7 523	8 765
371 Iron and steel	6 741	3 788	8 434	8 373
372 Non-ferrous metals	2 479	2 340	4 534	5 586
381 Metal products	12 119	7 792	20 097	23 826
382 Non-electrical machinery	16 245	11 998	24 821	23 266
383 Electrical machinery	14 411	11 491	25 771	31 423
384 Transport equipment	17 733	11 316	28 618	33 076
385 Professional and scientific equipment	2 206	1 752	4 109	4 676
390 Other manufacturing industries	2 772	2 178	4 319	5 153

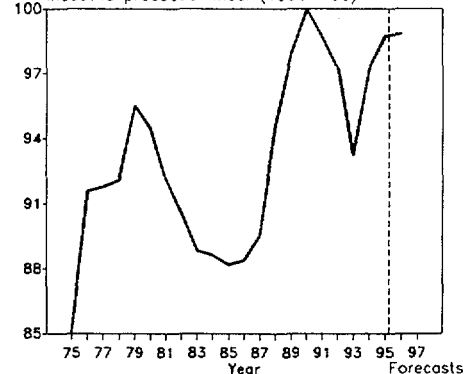
GDP per capita (1000\$/c)



Manufacturing share in GDP, current factor pr. (%)



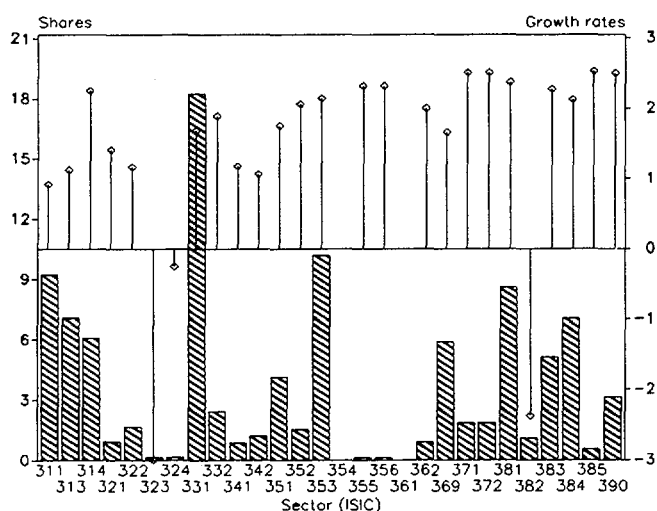
Industrial production index (1990=100)



For sources, footnotes and comments see "Technical notes" at the beginning of this Annex.

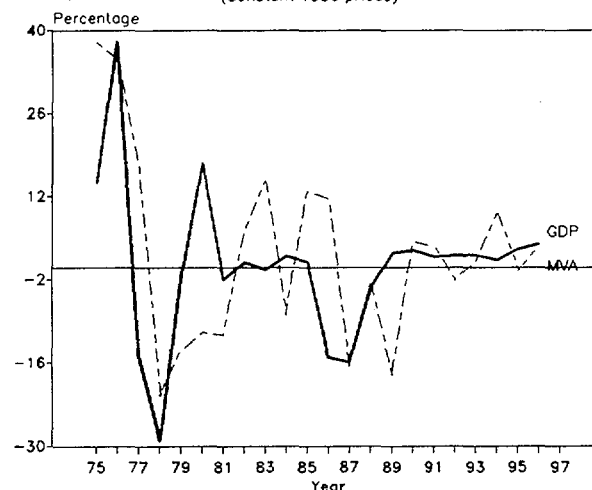
GABON

Average sectoral shares in total Value Added and average annual sectoral growth rates, 1990–1996 (Percentage)



— Average annual growth rates

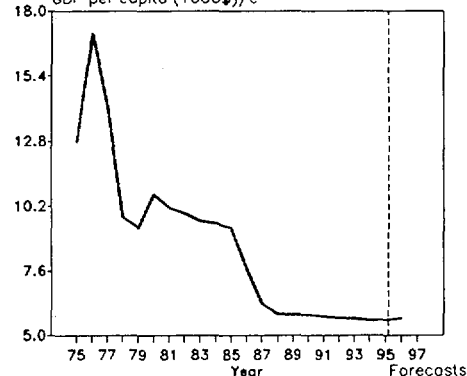
Annual growth rates of GDP and MVA (Constant 1990 prices)


 Source: National Accounts Statistics from UN/UNSO.  
 Estimated by UNIDO/IRD/RES.

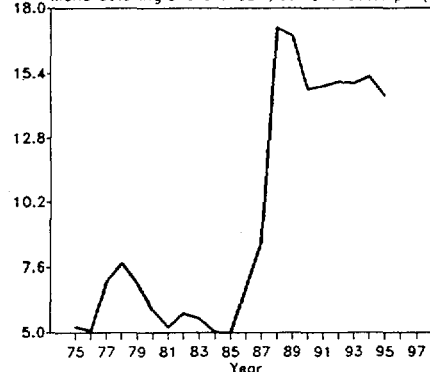
	1980	1985	1990	1995
<b>GDP:</b> <sup>na</sup> (millions of 1990-dollars)	7 369	7 484	5 456	6 058
Per capita <sup>na</sup> (1990-dollars)	10 664	9 320	5 835	5 630
Manufacturing share <sup>na</sup> (%) (current factor prices)	5.9	5.0	14.8	14.1
<b>MANUFACTURING:</b>				
Value added <sup>na</sup> (millions of 1990-dollars)	893	996	763	847
Industrial production index (1990=100)	82	108	100	111
Value added (millions of dollars)	224	189	282	243
Gross output (millions of dollars)	690	632	938	844
Employment (thousands)	18	18	16	17
<b>-PROFITABILITY: (in percent of gross output)</b>				
Intermediate input (%)	68	70	70	71
Wages and salaries including supplements (%)	16	17	19	20
Gross operating surplus and net taxes (%)	16	13	11	9
<b>-PRODUCTIVITY: (dollars)</b>				
Gross output per worker	38 481	35 533	59 523	49 899
Value added per worker	12 470	10 882	18 184	14 588
Average wage (including supplements)	6 283	6 094	11 567	10 059
<b>-STRUCTURAL INDICES:</b>				
Structural change indicator (5-year period, %) as a percentage of 1970-1975 structural change	20.11	15.06	9.42	2.04
MVA growth rate per unit of structural change	100	75	47	10
Degree of specialization	2.04	0.56	-0.24	-2.27
Degree of specialization	21.0	16.1	15.8	16.0
<b>-VALUE ADDED: (millions of dollars)</b>				
311/2 Food products	18	17	27	22
313 Beverages	19	13	20	17
314 Tobacco products	17	12	17	15
321 Textiles	3	2	3	2
322 Wearing apparel	5	3	5	4
323 Leather and fur products	1	-	1	-
324 Footwear	1	-	-	-
331 Wood and wood products	64	36	51	44
332 Furniture and fixtures	9	5	7	6
341 Paper and paper products	2	1	2	2
342 Printing and publishing	3	3	3	3
351 Industrial chemicals	6	7	12	10
352 Other chemical products	3	3	4	4
353 Petroleum refineries	18	18	28	25
354 Miscellaneous petroleum and coal products	-	-	-	-
355 Rubber products	-	-	-	-
356 Plastic products	-	-	-	-
361 Pottery, china and earthenware	-	-	-	-
362 Glass and glass products	1	2	2	2
369 Other non-metal mineral products	8	14	17	14
371 Iron and steel	3	3	5	5
372 Non-ferrous metals	3	3	5	5
381 Metal products	13	15	24	21
382 Non-electrical machinery	2	2	4	2
383 Electrical machinery	8	9	14	13
384 Transport equipment	11	13	20	17
385 Professional and scientific equipment	1	1	1	1
390 Other manufacturing industries	5	6	9	8

For sources, footnotes and comments see "Technical notes" at the beginning of this Annex.

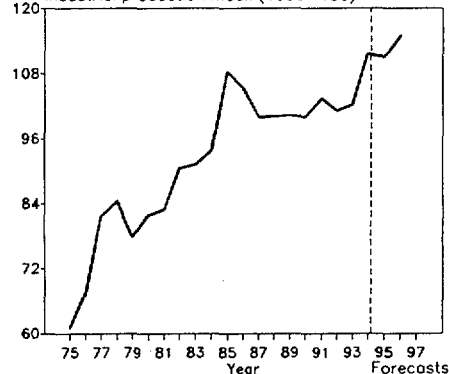
GDP per capita (1000\$)/c



Manufacturing share in GDP, current factor pr. (%)

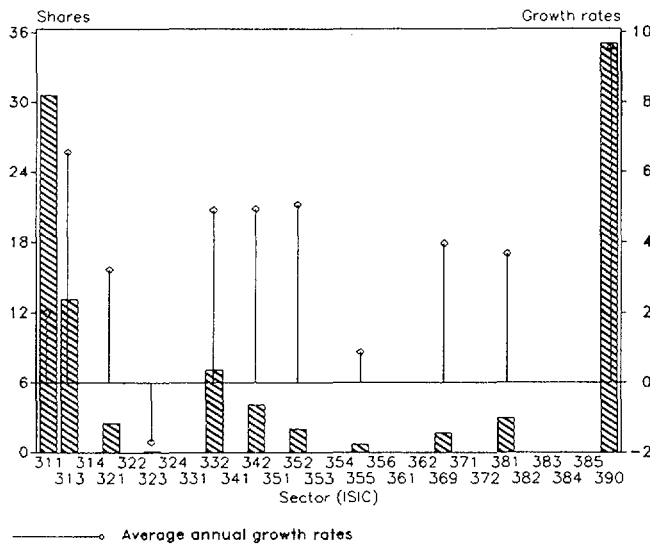


Industrial production index (1990=100)

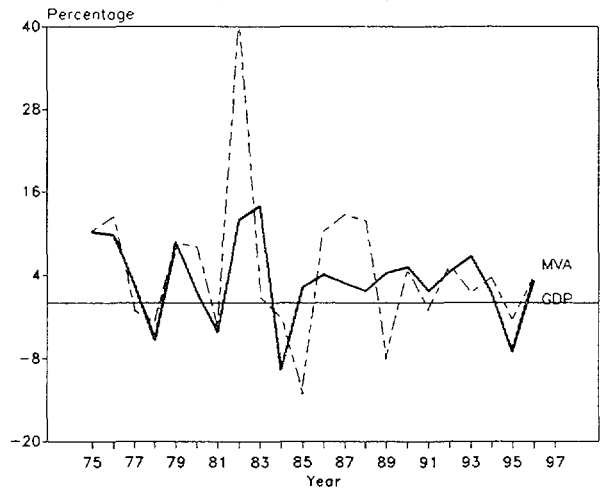


GAMBIA

Average sectoral shares in total Value Added and average annual sectoral growth rates, 1990-1996 (Percentage)



Annual growth rates of GDP and MVA (Constant 1990 prices)



Source: National Accounts Statistics from UN/UNSO.  
 Estimated by UNIDO/IRD/RES

	1980	1985	1990	1995
GDP: <sup>na</sup> (millions of 1990-dollars)	222	251	300	321
Per capita <sup>na</sup> (1990-dollars)	347	337	326	289
Manufacturing share <sup>na</sup> (%) (current factor prices)	3.6	8.9	5.4	..
<b>MANUFACTURING:</b>				
Value added <sup>na</sup> (millions of 1990-dollars)	11	13	17	18
Industrial production index (1990=100)	62	75	100	106
Value added (millions of dollars)	11	9	17	25
Gross output (millions of dollars)	30	41	59	82
Employment (thousands)	2	3	4	5
<b>PROFITABILITY: (in percent of gross output)</b>				
Intermediate input (%)	62	78	71	70
Wages and salaries including supplements (%)	10	7	8	8
Gross operating surplus and net taxes (%)	28	15	21	22
<b>PRODUCTIVITY: (dollars)</b>				
Gross output per worker	16 115	14 182	17 338	19 828
Value added per worker	6 094	3 242	5 474	9 414
Average wage (including supplements)	1 566	1 014	1 353	1 546
<b>STRUCTURAL INDICES:</b>				
Structural change indicator (5-year period, %)	33.57	45.70	21.01	10.10
as a percentage of 1970-1975 structural change	100	136	63	30
MVA growth rate per unit of structural change	2.06	1.36	1.00	3.63
Degree of specialization	36.7	32.5	29.1	30.7
<b>VALUE ADDED: (millions of dollars)</b>				
311/2 Food products	3	4	6	7
313 Beverages	1	1	2	3
314 Tobacco products	-	-	-	-
321 Textiles	-	-	-	1
322 Wearing apparel	-	-	-	-
323 Leather and fur products	-	-	-	-
324 Footwear	-	-	-	-
331 Wood and wood products	-	-	-	-
332 Furniture and fixtures	1	1	1	2
341 Paper and paper products	-	-	-	-
342 Printing and publishing	-	-	1	1
351 Industrial chemicals	-	-	-	-
352 Other chemical products	-	-	-	-
353 Petroleum refineries	-	-	-	-
354 Miscellaneous petroleum and coal products	-	-	-	-
355 Rubber products	-	-	-	-
356 Plastic products	-	-	-	-
361 Pottery, china and earthenware	-	-	-	-
362 Glass and glass products	-	-	-	-
369 Other non-metal mineral products	-	-	-	-
371 Iron and steel	-	-	-	-
372 Non-ferrous metals	-	-	-	-
381 Metal products	-	-	1	1
382 Non-electrical machinery	-	-	-	-
383 Electrical machinery	-	-	-	-
384 Transport equipment	-	-	-	-
385 Professional and scientific equipment	-	-	-	-
390 Other manufacturing industries	6	2	6	9

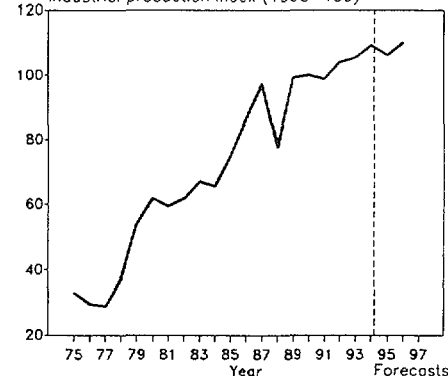
GDP per capita (1000\$/c)



Manufacturing share in GDP, current factor pr. (%)



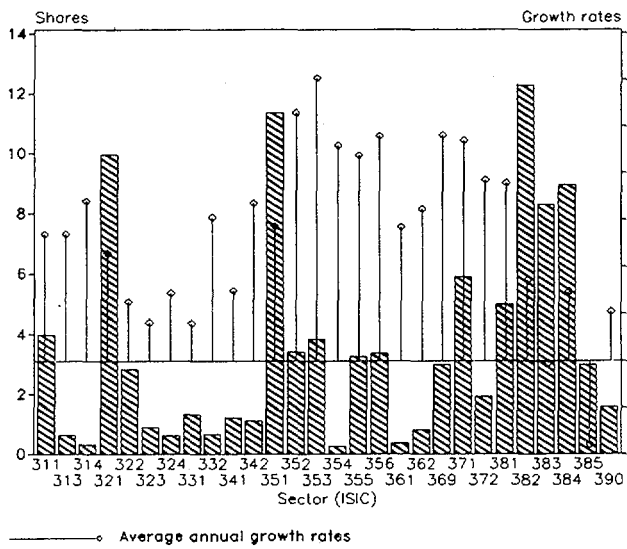
Industrial production index (1990=100)



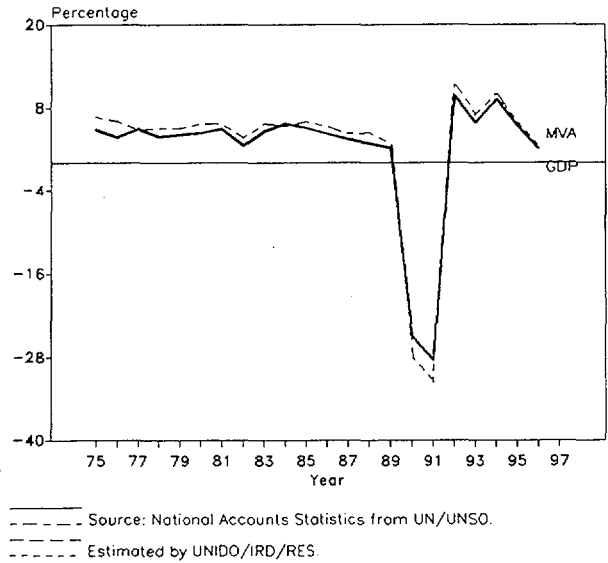
For sources, footnotes and comments see "Technical notes" at the beginning of this Annex.

GERMAN DEMOCRATIC REPUBLIC, FORMER

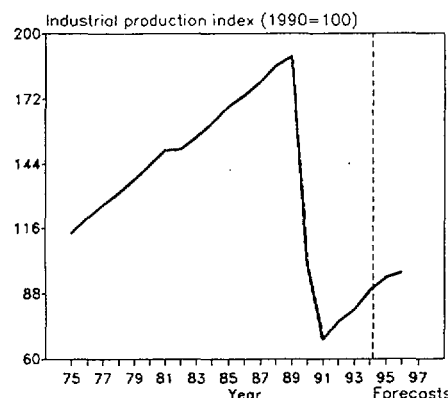
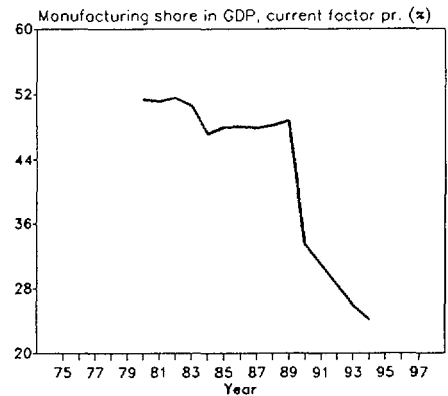
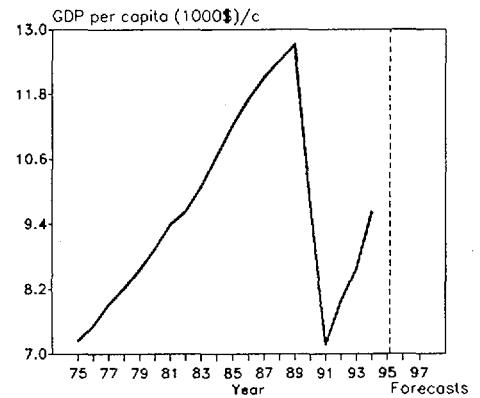
Average sectoral shares in total Value Added and average annual sectoral growth rates, 1990-1996 (Percentage)



Annual growth rates of GDP and MVA (Constant 1990 prices)



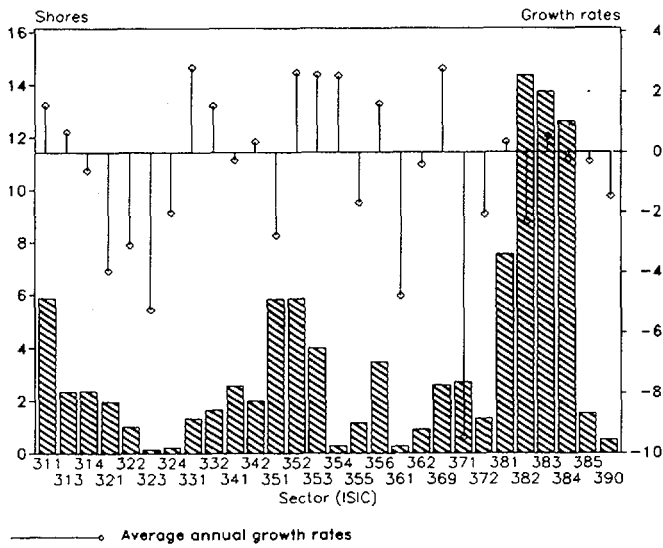
	1980	1985	1990	1995
<b>GDP:</b> <sup>na</sup> (millions of 1990-dollars)	149 748	186 903	158 586	151 494
Per capita <sup>na</sup> (1990-dollars)	8 947	11 229	9 759	..
Manufacturing share <sup>na</sup> (%) (current factor prices)	51.3	48.0	33.4	..
<b>MANUFACTURING:</b>				
Value added <sup>na</sup> (millions of 1990-dollars)	67 541	86 770	73 170	69 260
Industrial production index (1990=100)	144	169	100	95
Value added (millions of dollars)	70 096	85 842	82 081	122 909
Gross output (millions of dollars)	132 645	159 661	248 433	311 574
Employment (thousands)	2 895	2 988	3 018	1 007
<b>-PROFITABILITY: (in percent of gross output)</b>				
Intermediate input (%)	47	46	67	63
Wages and salaries including supplements (%)	15	9	10	11
Gross operating surplus and net taxes (%)	38	45	23	26
<b>-PRODUCTIVITY: (dollars)</b>				
Gross output per worker	45 819	53 434	77 467	128 597
Value added per worker	24 213	28 729	28 713	48 184
Average wage (including supplements)	6 771	4 836	8 473	36 140
<b>-STRUCTURAL INDICES:</b>				
Structural change indicator (5-year period, %) as a percentage of 1970-1975 structural change	3.36	7.64	10.01	6.21
MVA growth rate perer unit of structural change	9.98	7.57	2.09	-2.78
Degree of specialization	13.3	11.6	13.2	12.6
<b>-VALUE ADDED: (millions of dollars)</b>				
311/2 Food products	6 043	5 958	3 194	4 971
313 Beverages	1 040	1 025	503	785
314 Tobacco products	254	250	248	389
321 Textiles	6 276	8 477	8 355	12 303
322 Wearing apparel	2 199	2 626	2 476	3 463
323 Leather and fur products	839	988	805	1 103
324 Footwear	631	775	526	753
331 Wood and wood products	1 178	1 418	1 176	1 612
332 Furniture and fixtures	1 081	1 284	522	832
341 Paper and paper products	931	1 103	1 052	1 491
342 Printing and publishing	726	874	866	1 363
351 Industrial chemicals	4 899	8 840	9 284	14 116
352 Other chemical products	1 220	2 202	2 414	4 254
353 Petroleum refineries	2 853	5 149	2 785	4 924
354 Miscellaneous petroleum and coal products	141	253	187	310
355 Rubber products	1 430	2 579	2 476	4 113
356 Plastic products	1 528	2 755	2 507	4 257
361 Pottery, china and earthenware	232	288	279	429
362 Glass and glass products	473	559	637	997
369 Other non-metal mineral products	1 768	2 403	2 166	3 713
371 Iron and steel	2 651	4 704	4 332	7 365
372 Non-ferrous metals	884	1 570	1 485	2 399
381 Metal products	3 171	3 059	3 775	6 113
382 Non-electrical machinery	9 950	9 597	10 522	15 025
383 Electrical machinery	7 480	7 132	7 427	9 628
384 Transport equipment	6 898	6 651	7 736	10 907
385 Professional and scientific equipment	2 714	2 590	3 033	3 464
390 Other manufacturing industries	608	735	1 314	1 829



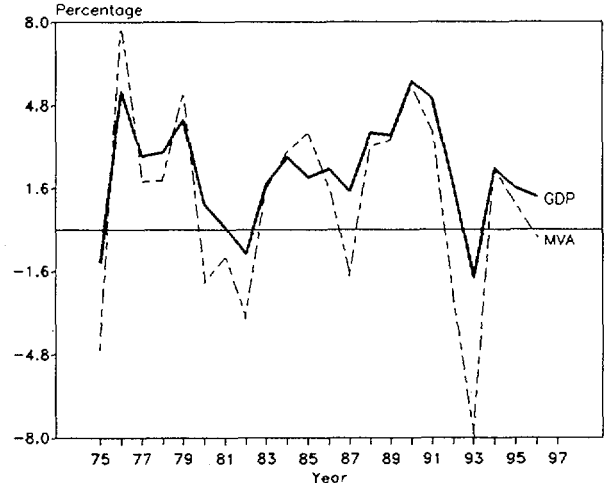
For sources, footnotes and comments see "Technical notes" at the beginning of this Annex.

GERMANY, FEDERAL REPUBLIC OF, FORMER

Average sectoral shares in total Value Added and average annual sectoral growth rates, 1990-1996 (Percentage)

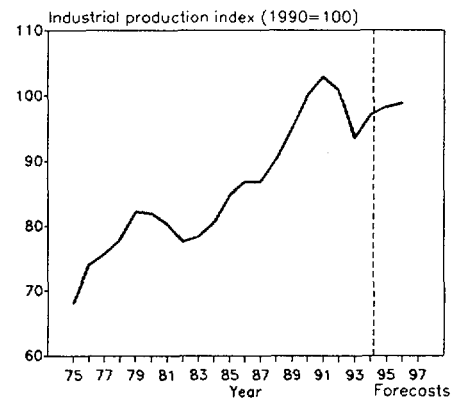
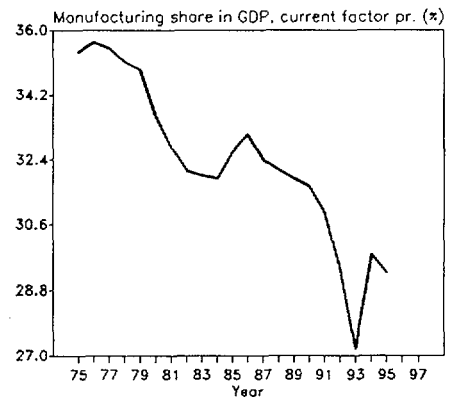
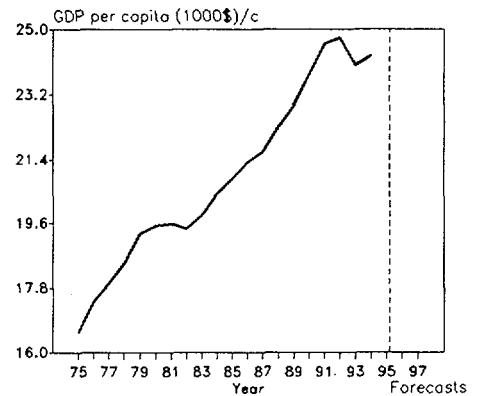


Annual growth rates of GDP and MVA (Constant 1990 prices)



Source: National Accounts Statistics from UN/UNSO.  
 Estimated by UNIDO/IRD/RES.

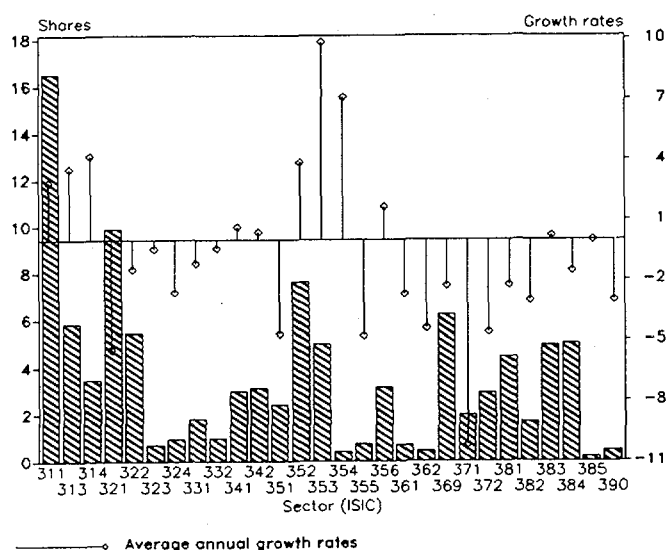
	1980	1985	1990	1995
<b>GDP:</b> <sup>na</sup> (millions of 1990-dollars)	1 202 214	1 272 512	1 501 516	1 638 364
Per capita <sup>na</sup> (1990-dollars)	19 527	20 852	23 747	..
Manufacturing share <sup>na</sup> (%) (current factor prices)	33.6	32.6	31.7	29.3
<b>MANUFACTURING:</b>				
Value added <sup>na</sup> (millions of 1990-dollars)	394 998	408 930	458 965	439 742
Industrial production index (1990=100)	82	85	100	98
Value added (millions of dollars)	265 588	223 253	535 541	685 411
Gross output (millions of dollars)	632 161	489 414	1 097 981	1 403 546
Employment (thousands)	7 229	6 616	7 120	6 679
<b>-PROFITABILITY: (in percent of gross output)</b>				
Intermediate input (%)	58	54	51	51
Wages and salaries including supplements (%)	26	24	25	21
Gross operating surplus and net taxes (%)	16	22	24	28
<b>-PRODUCTIVITY: (dollars)</b>				
Gross output per worker	87 448	73 973	154 211	208 286
Value added per worker	36 739	33 744	75 216	108 107
Average wage (including supplements)	22 606	17 563	38 487	43 166
<b>-STRUCTURAL INDICES:</b>				
Structural change indicator (5-year period, %)	4.23	7.86	7.55	4.33
as a percentage of 1970-1975 structural change	100	186	179	102
MVA growth rate perer unit of structural change	1.30	1.79	2.19	1.60
Degree of specialization	12.1	14.7	15.2	15.0
<b>-VALUE ADDED: (millions of dollars)</b>				
311/2 Food products	18 570	10 830	28 590	41 172
313 Beverages	6 452	5 047	11 911	16 307
314 Tobacco products	6 909	5 720	12 633	16 025
321 Textiles	6 964	5 526	11 849	12 527
322 Wearing apparel	4 934	2 803	5 887	6 524
323 Leather and fur products	935	501	944	942
324 Footwear	1 205	726	1 152	1 383
331 Wood and wood products	4 485	2 431	6 179	9 697
332 Furniture and fixtures	5 548	3 084	7 885	11 521
341 Paper and paper products	5 099	5 221	13 490	17 286
342 Printing and publishing	6 150	4 139	10 255	13 691
351 Industrial chemicals	13 944	16 570	35 537	39 657
352 Other chemical products	8 003	11 597	27 942	42 317
353 Petroleum refineries	14 637	9 425	18 335	28 357
354 Miscellaneous petroleum and coal products	990	701	1 323	2 027
355 Rubber products	3 201	2 880	6 414	7 652
356 Plastic products	6 095	5 638	17 313	24 637
361 Pottery, china and earthenware	1 304	671	1 555	1 610
362 Glass and glass products	2 492	1 917	4 791	6 088
369 Other non-metal mineral products	7 937	4 876	12 031	18 773
371 Iron and steel	18 872	9 538	19 205	14 966
372 Non-ferrous metals	2 508	3 412	7 733	8 874
381 Metal products	14 455	14 162	39 181	51 888
382 Non-electrical machinery	34 263	33 812	82 544	94 332
383 Electrical machinery	30 501	28 329	72 567	96 971
384 Transport equipment	31 232	29 078	67 434	86 219
385 Professional and scientific equipment	6 205	3 446	8 011	10 397
390 Other manufacturing industries	1 700	1 175	2 849	3 442



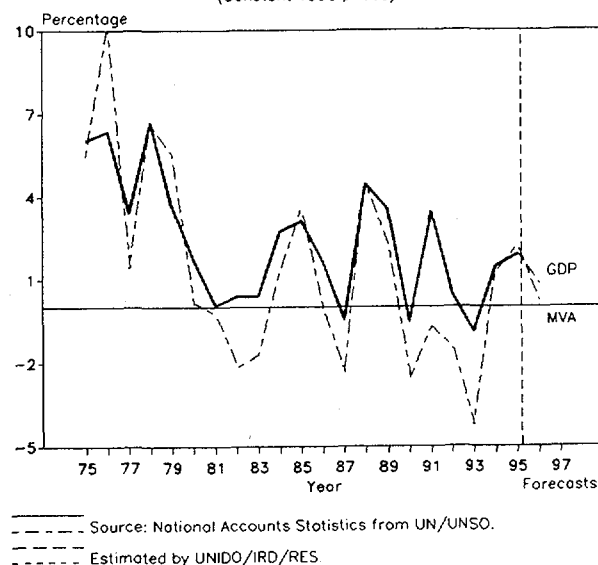
For sources, footnotes and comments see "Technical notes" at the beginning of this Annex.

## GREECE

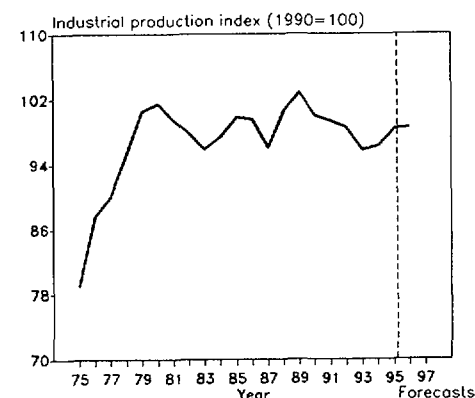
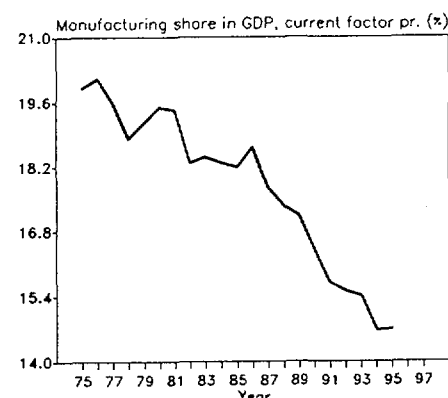
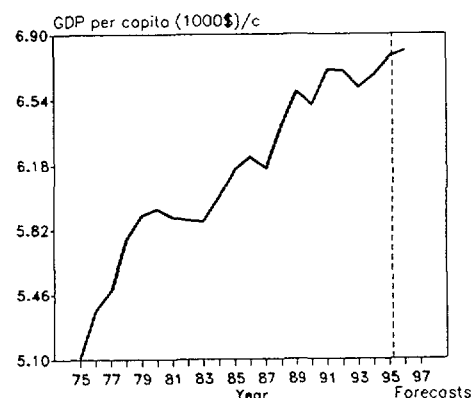
Average sectoral shares in total Value Added and average annual sectoral growth rates, 1990-1996 (Percentage)



Annual growth rates of GDP and MVA (Constant 1990 prices)



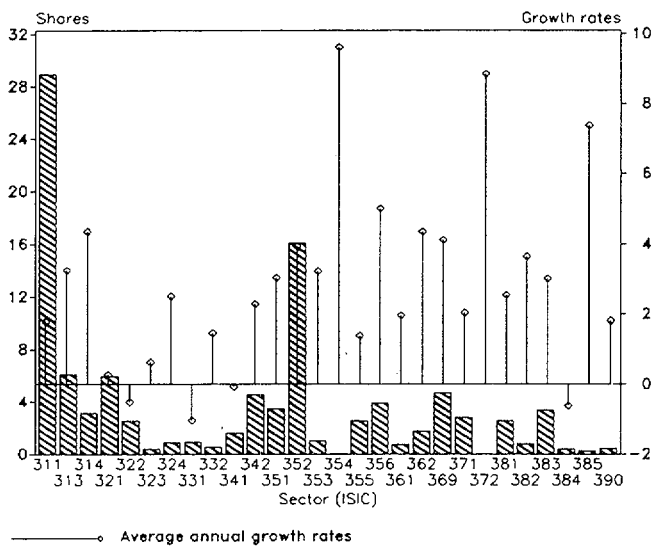
	1980	1985	1990	1995
<b>GDP:</b> <sup>na</sup> (millions of 1990-dollars)	57 233	61 161	66 532	70 820
Per capita <sup>na</sup> (1990-dollars)	5 935	6 157	6 510	6 774
Manufacturing share <sup>na</sup> (%) (current factor prices)	19.5	18.2	16.4	14.7
<b>MANUFACTURING:</b>				
Value added <sup>na</sup> (millions of 1990-dollars)	9 362	9 405	9 534	9 226
Industrial production index (1990=100)	101	100	100	98
Value added (millions of dollars)	6 129	4 644	9 371	12 114
Gross output (millions of dollars)	20 906	16 937	29 727	34 893
Employment (thousands)	378	352	346	313
<b>-PROFITABILITY: (in percent of gross output)</b>				
Intermediate input (%)	71	73	68	65
Wages and salaries including supplements (%)	14	15	17	13
Gross operating surplus (%)	15	12	15	21
<b>-PRODUCTIVITY: (dollars)</b>				
Gross output per worker	55 275	48 084	85 846	111 416
Value added per worker	16 204	13 185	27 062	38 765
Average wage (including supplements)	7 964	7 281	14 319	14 964
<b>-STRUCTURAL INDICES:</b>				
Structural change indicator (5-year period, %) as a percentage of 1970-1975 structural change	7.27	5.82	7.35	9.15
MVA growth rate perer unit of structural change	5.13	2.77	0.57	0.52
Degree of specialization	11.8	12.5	11.1	12.3
<b>-VALUE ADDED: (millions of dollars)</b>				
311/2 Food products	731	631	1 349	2 071
313 Beverages	233	217	474	747
314 Tobacco products	138	114	280	456
321 Textiles	987	762	1 109	1 064
322 Wearing apparel	283	235	552	652
323 Leather and fur products	46	38	68	86
324 Footwear	76	61	100	112
331 Wood and wood products	138	65	176	213
332 Furniture and fixtures	54	34	93	118
341 Paper and paper products	118	94	272	365
342 Printing and publishing	155	99	289	383
351 Industrial chemicals	180	192	290	282
352 Other chemical products	314	223	628	1 004
353 Petroleum refineries	152	140	295	672
354 Miscellaneous petroleum and coal products	31	19	27	53
355 Rubber products	58	44	84	81
356 Plastic products	186	109	276	397
361 Pottery, china and earthenware	61	43	73	82
362 Glass and glass products	49	23	49	50
369 Other non-metal mineral products	414	276	641	728
371 Iron and steel	200	153	280	205
372 Non-ferrous metals	245	184	347	341
381 Metal products	365	276	449	518
382 Non-electrical machinery	125	81	178	193
383 Electrical machinery	295	219	441	589
384 Transport equipment	453	268	488	579
385 Professional and scientific equipment	8	5	16	21
390 Other manufacturing industries	31	39	47	51



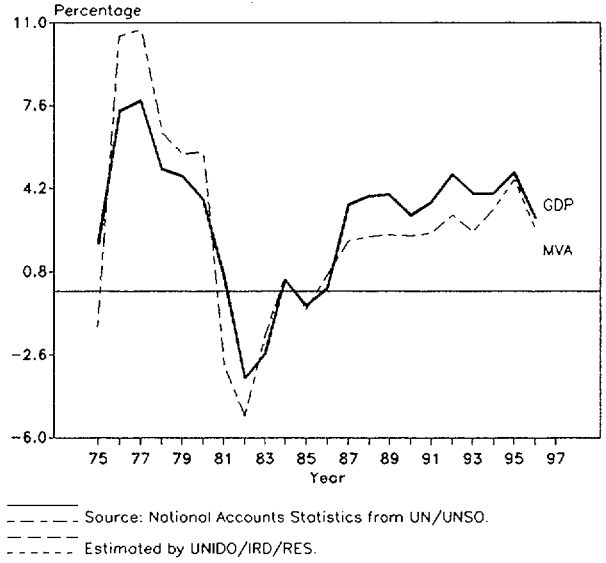
For sources, footnotes and comments see "Technical notes" at the beginning of this Annex.

**GUATEMALA**

Average sectoral shares in total Value Added and average annual sectoral growth rates, 1990-1996 (Percentage)

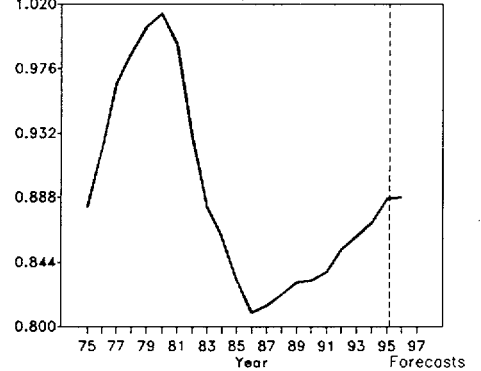


Annual growth rates of GDP and MVA (Constant 1990 prices)

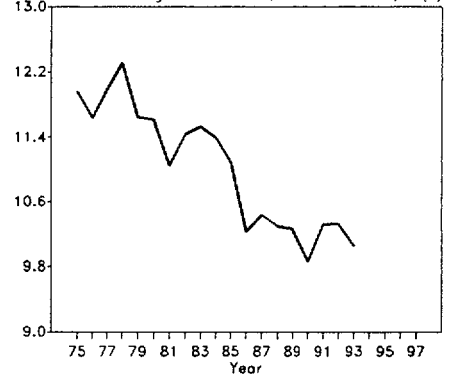


	1980	1985	1990	1995
<b>GDP:</b> <sup>na</sup> (millions of 1990-dollars)	7 012	6 627	7 650	9 423
Per capita <sup>na</sup> (1990-dollars)	1 014	832	832	887
Manufacturing share <sup>na</sup> (%) (current factor prices)	11.6	11.1	9.9	..
<b>MANUFACTURING:</b>				
Value added <sup>na</sup> (millions of 1990-dollars)	772	694	761	888
Industrial production index (1990=100)	108	91	100	117
Value added (millions of dollars)	794	907	848	1 468
Gross output (millions of dollars)	1 968	2 195	2 099	4 561
Employment (thousands)	82	73	95	97
<b>-PROFITABILITY:</b> (in percent of gross output)				
Intermediate input (%)	60	59	60	68
Wages and salaries including supplements (%)	10	10	8	5
Gross operating surplus and net taxes (%)	30	31	32	28
<b>-PRODUCTIVITY:</b> (dollars)				
Gross output per worker	23 189	28 305	20 321	47 234
Value added per worker	9 359	11 690	8 248	19 709
Average wage (including supplements)	2 477	3 079	1 816	2 141
<b>-STRUCTURAL INDICES:</b>				
Structural change indicator (5-year period, %) as a percentage of 1970-1975 structural change	11.46	11.76	9.23	5.87
MVA growth rate perer unit of structural change	3.26	0.45	1.50	4.26
Degree of specialization	20.4	24.5	23.2	22.9
<b>-VALUE ADDED:</b> (millions of dollars)				
311/2 Food products	204	276	254	421
313 Beverages	91	89	50	91
314 Tobacco products	14	15	24	46
321 Textiles	45	71	54	83
322 Wearing apparel	19	13	24	36
323 Leather and fur products	3	3	3	5
324 Footwear	15	13	7	12
331 Wood and wood products	10	7	8	12
332 Furniture and fixtures	4	3	4	7
341 Paper and paper products	19	21	15	22
342 Printing and publishing	34	34	38	66
351 Industrial chemicals	28	28	29	51
352 Other chemical products	110	121	130	241
353 Petroleum refineries	14	8	8	15
354 Miscellaneous petroleum and coal products	2	-	-	1
355 Rubber products	21	24	22	36
356 Plastic products	19	37	30	59
361 Pottery, china and earthenware	2	8	6	11
362 Glass and glass products	22	17	14	26
369 Other non-metal mineral products	34	41	38	71
371 Iron and steel	16	21	24	40
372 Non-ferrous metals	1	-	-	1
381 Metal products	23	23	21	37
382 Non-electrical machinery	6	4	6	12
383 Electrical machinery	25	19	28	50
384 Transport equipment	8	5	3	5
385 Professional and scientific equipment	1	1	2	3
390 Other manufacturing industries	4	3	4	6

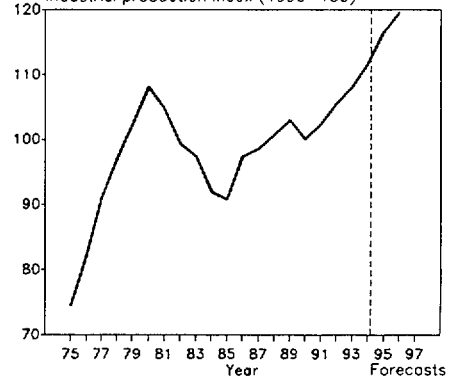
GDP per capita (1000\$)/c



Manufacturing share in GDP, current factor pr. (%)



Industrial production index (1990=100)

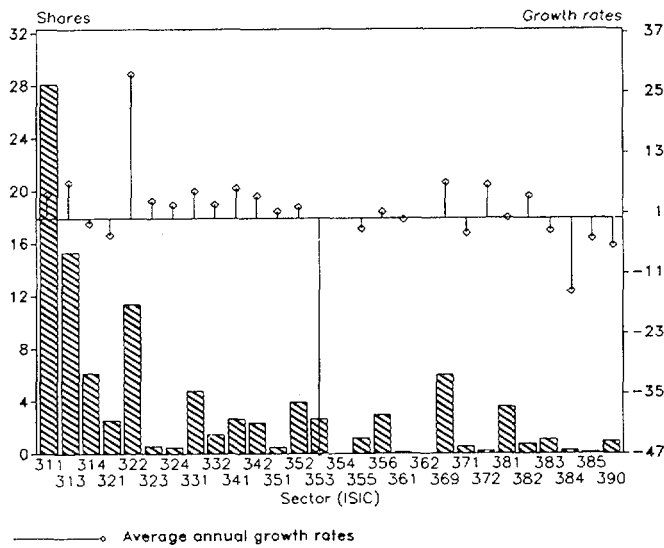


For sources, footnotes and comments see "Technical notes" at the beginning of this Annex.

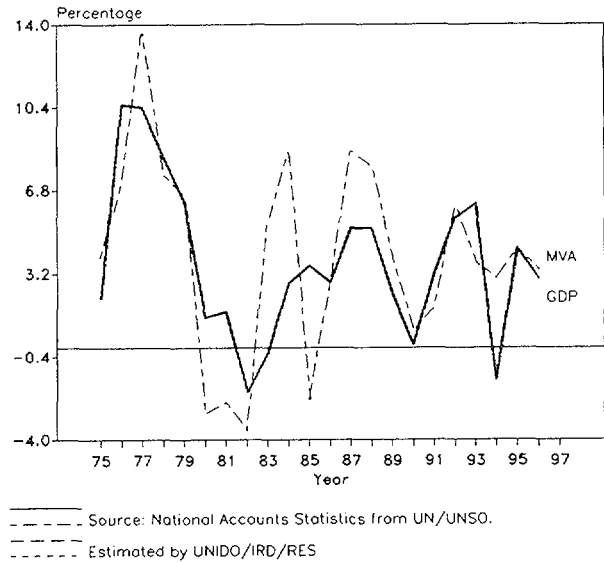


## HONDURAS

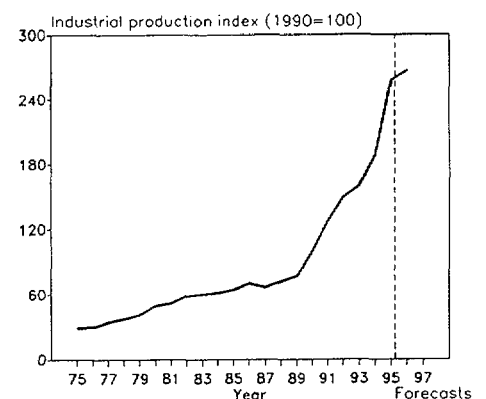
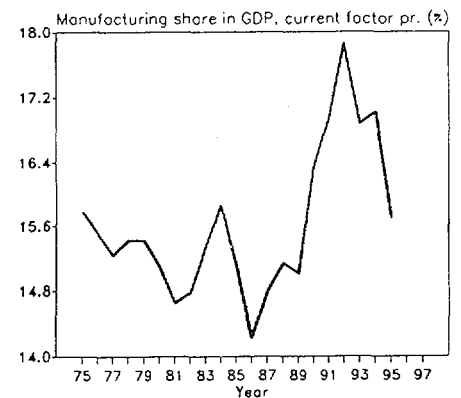
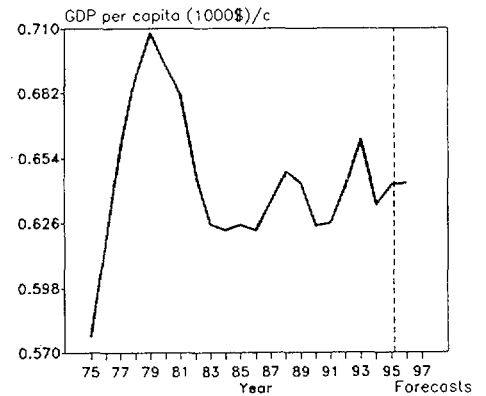
Average sectoral shares in total Value Added and average annual sectoral growth rates, 1990-1996 (Percentage)



Annual growth rates of GDP and MVA (Constant 1990 prices)



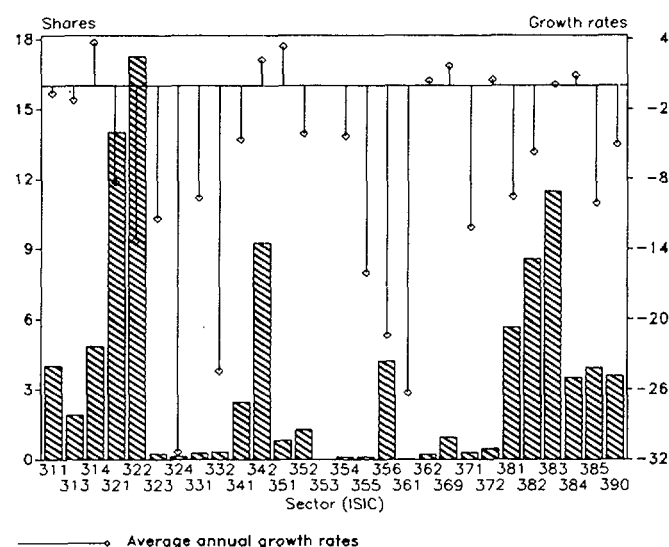
	1980	1985	1990	1995
<b>GDP:</b> <sup>na</sup> (millions of 1990-dollars)	2 476	2 617	3 049	3 632
Per capita <sup>na</sup> (1990-dollars)	694	625	625	642
Manufacturing share <sup>na</sup> (%) (current factor prices)	15.1	15.1	16.3	15.2
<b>MANUFACTURING:</b>				
Value added <sup>na</sup> (millions of 1990-dollars)	336	353	443	532
Industrial production index (1990=100)	50	64	100	258
Value added (millions of dollars)	289	498	466	577
Gross output (millions of dollars)	1 025	1 618	1 651	2 092
Employment (thousands)	58	64	79	140
<b>-PROFITABILITY: (in percent of gross output)</b>				
Intermediate input (%)	72	69	72	72
Wages and salaries including supplements (%)	11	13	11	12
Gross operating surplus and net taxes (%)	17	18	18	16
<b>-PRODUCTIVITY: (dollars)</b>				
Gross output per worker	16 916	25 279	20 996	11 947
Value added per worker	4 840	7 785	5 926	3 328
Average wage (including supplements)	2 015	3 219	2 239	1 747
<b>-STRUCTURAL INDICES:</b>				
Structural change indicator (5-year period, %)	8.16	8.81	7.26	11.08
as a percentage of 1970-1975 structural change	100	108	89	136
MVA growth rate perer unit of structural change	4.01	3.20	3.46	2.23
Degree of specialization	22.9	22.0	20.7	26.4
<b>-VALUE ADDED: (millions of dollars)</b>				
311/2 Food products	75	130	128	166
313 Beverages	53	78	59	87
314 Tobacco products	20	42	34	32
321 Textiles	13	14	16	13
322 Wearing apparel	9	17	20	82
323 Leather and fur products	3	2	3	3
324 Footwear	3	2	2	3
331 Wood and wood products	22	30	20	27
332 Furniture and fixtures	5	8	8	9
341 Paper and paper products	5	9	12	16
342 Printing and publishing	7	13	10	13
351 Industrial chemicals	1	2	2	3
352 Other chemical products	12	20	20	22
353 Petroleum refineries	13	38	39	1
354 Miscellaneous petroleum and coal products	-	-	-	-
355 Rubber products	5	8	7	6
356 Plastic products	9	18	16	16
361 Pottery, china and earthenware	-	-	1	-
362 Glass and glass products	-	-	-	-
369 Other non-metal mineral products	15	24	26	38
371 Iron and steel	1	2	4	3
372 Non-ferrous metals	1	1	1	1
381 Metal products	12	21	21	20
382 Non-electrical machinery	1	3	4	4
383 Electrical machinery	4	8	7	6
384 Transport equipment	-	2	2	1
385 Professional and scientific equipment	-	1	1	1
390 Other manufacturing industries	2	5	6	4



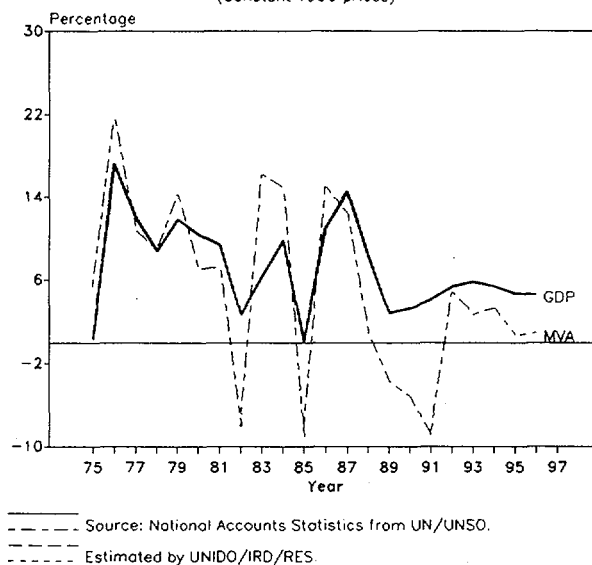
For sources, footnotes and comments see "Technical notes" at the beginning of this Annex.

## HONG KONG

Average sectoral shares in total Value Added and average annual sectoral growth rates, 1990-1996 (Percentage)

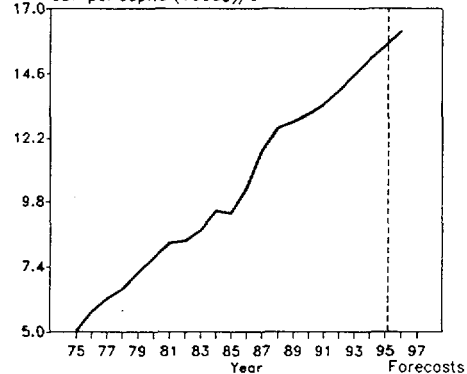


Annual growth rates of GDP and MVA (Constant 1990 prices)

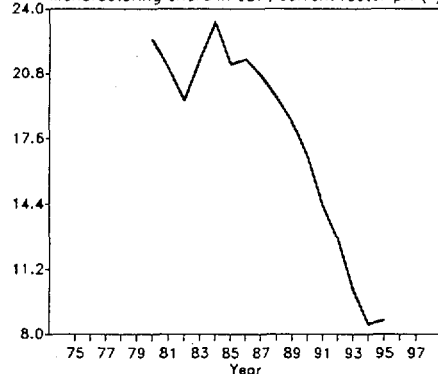


	1980	1985	1990	1995
GDP: <sup>na</sup> (millions of 1990-dollars)	38 887	51 057	74 686	95 619
Per capita <sup>na</sup> (1990-dollars)	7 717	9 356	13 091	15 616
Manufacturing share <sup>na</sup> (%) (current factor prices)	22.5	21.3	16.7	8.7
<b>MANUFACTURING:</b>				
Value added <sup>na</sup> (millions of 1990-dollars)	8 896	10 631	12 609	12 814
Industrial production index (1990=100)	56	73	100	100
Value added (millions of dollars)	7 343	6 582	12 034	12 759
Gross output (millions of dollars)	22 187	22 835	41 513	42 829
Employment (thousands)	937	908	763	425
<b>-PROFITABILITY: (in percent of gross output)</b>				
Intermediate input (%)	67	71	71	70
Wages and salaries including supplements (%)	18	19	17	15
Gross operating surplus and net taxes (%)	15	10	12	15
<b>-PRODUCTIVITY: (dollars)</b>				
Gross output per worker	23 686	25 140	54 430	100 778
Value added per worker	7 840	7 246	15 779	30 056
Average wage (including supplements)	4 238	4 808	9 161	15 314
<b>-STRUCTURAL INDICES:</b>				
Structural change indicator (5-year period, %) as a percentage of 1970-1975 structural change	11.24	8.75	9.40	13.72
MVA growth rate perer unit of structural change	5.88	4.69	0.84	-0.22
Degree of specialization	24.2	22.6	21.3	19.8
<b>-VALUE ADDED: (millions of dollars)</b>				
311/2 Food products	161	171	397	601
313 Beverages	99	125	200	291
314 Tobacco products	81	127	394	749
321 Textiles	1 027	964	1 801	1 643
322 Wearing apparel	1 920	1 594	2 455	1 724
323 Leather and fur products	43	26	38	30
324 Footwear	59	62	35	6
331 Wood and wood products	45	32	38	34
332 Furniture and fixtures	62	54	66	22
341 Paper and paper products	110	90	275	299
342 Printing and publishing	290	350	877	1 471
351 Industrial chemicals	40	36	64	119
352 Other chemical products	77	71	153	181
353 Petroleum refineries	-	-	-	-
354 Miscellaneous petroleum and coal products	-	-	13	16
355 Rubber products	29	17	16	10
356 Plastic products	563	612	759	313
361 Pottery, china and earthenware	5	3	6	2
362 Glass and glass products	10	17	19	31
369 Other non-metal mineral products	55	47	95	162
371 Iron and steel	31	17	44	33
372 Non-ferrous metals	35	20	40	62
381 Metal products	638	460	716	632
382 Non-electrical machinery	188	236	1 077	1 094
383 Electrical machinery	987	752	1 153	1 749
384 Transport equipment	176	157	333	523
385 Professional and scientific equipment	362	289	536	479
390 Other manufacturing industries	250	253	432	484

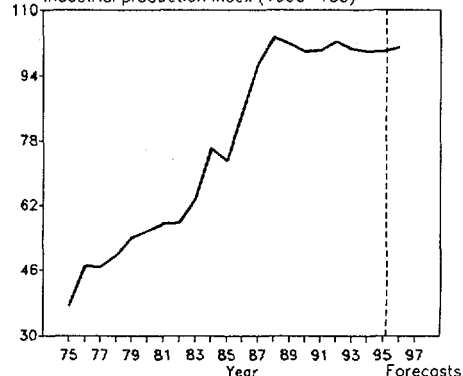
GDP per capita (1000\$/c)



Manufacturing share in GDP, current factor pr. (%)



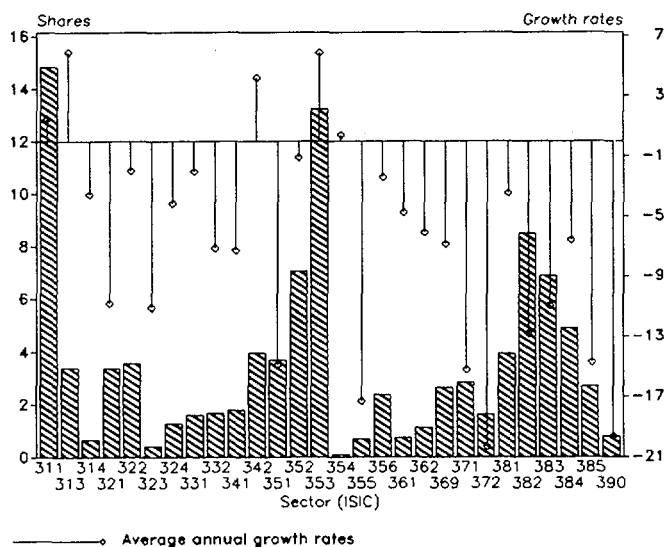
Industrial production index (1990=100)



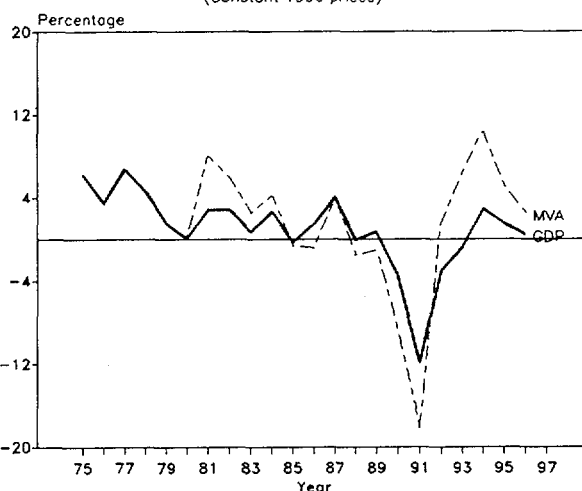
For sources, footnotes and comments see "Technical notes" at the beginning of this Annex.

## HUNGARY

Average sectoral shares in total Value Added and average annual sectoral growth rates, 1990-1996 (Percentage)



Annual growth rates of GDP and MVA (Constant 1990 prices)

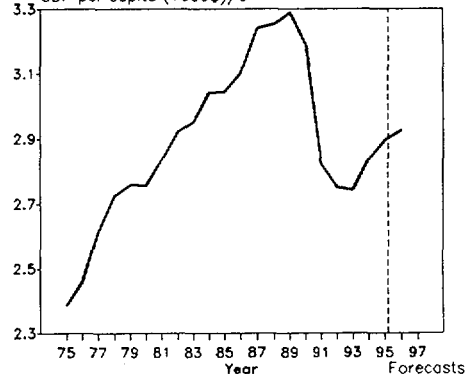


Source: National Accounts Statistics from UN/UNSO.  
Estimated by UNIDO/IRD/RES.

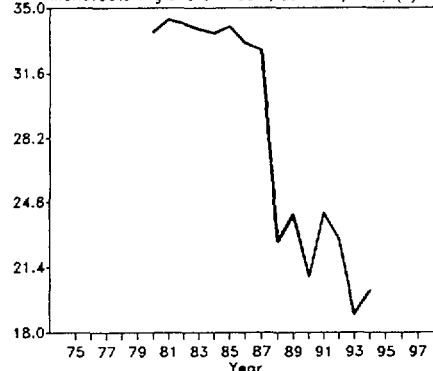
	1980	1985	1990	1995
<b>GDP:</b> <sup>na</sup> (millions of 1990-dollars)	29 517	32 206	33 055	29 270
Per capita <sup>na</sup> (1990-dollars)	2 757	3 044	3 189	2 896
Manufacturing share <sup>na</sup> (%) (current factor prices)	33.8	34.0	20.9	..
<b>MANUFACTURING:</b>				
Value added <sup>na</sup> (millions of 1990-dollars)	6 236	7 562	6 906	7 049
Industrial production index (1990=100)	98	108	100	86
Value added (millions of dollars)	5 907	5 356	7 744	8 487
Gross output (millions of dollars)	24 898	21 690	25 081	25 006
Employment (thousands)	1 384	1 278	1 117	741
<b>-PROFITABILITY: (in percent of gross output)</b>				
Intermediate input (%)	76	75	69	66
Wages and salaries including supplements (%)	8	8	11	12
Gross operating surplus and net taxes (%)	16	16	20	22
<b>-PRODUCTIVITY: (dollars)</b>				
Gross output per worker	17 990	16 972	22 454	33 713
Value added per worker	4 268	4 191	6 933	11 484
Average wage (including supplements)	1 437	1 403	2 495	4 065
<b>-STRUCTURAL INDICES:</b>				
Structural change indicator (5-year period, %)	6.12	9.85	14.35	17.44
as a percentage of 1970-1975 structural change	100	161	234	285
MVA growth rate per unit of structural change	1.05	-1.59	-0.27	-1.09
Degree of specialization	9.9	10.9	9.5	13.3
<b>-VALUE ADDED: (millions of dollars)</b>				
311/2 Food products	555	281	812	1 320
313 Beverages	83	107	170	353
314 Tobacco products	27	28	44	53
321 Textiles	353	325	320	259
322 Wearing apparel	194	158	233	299
323 Leather and fur products	48	39	40	32
324 Footwear	79	85	92	109
331 Wood and wood products	81	42	102	133
332 Furniture and fixtures	101	92	133	130
341 Paper and paper products	94	106	141	138
342 Printing and publishing	83	94	204	380
351 Industrial chemicals	417	320	441	266
352 Other chemical products	242	303	478	651
353 Petroleum refineries	153	193	590	1 242
354 Miscellaneous petroleum and coal products	2	2	5	8
355 Rubber products	55	71	92	41
356 Plastic products	61	80	165	213
361 Pottery, china and earthenware	57	46	59	67
362 Glass and glass products	70	71	89	94
369 Other non-metal mineral products	204	161	216	219
371 Iron and steel	370	200	368	202
372 Non-ferrous metals	215	54	274	97
381 Metal products	214	215	297	361
382 Non-electrical machinery	497	569	819	572
383 Electrical machinery	655	758	711	563
384 Transport equipment	486	507	420	445
385 Professional and scientific equipment	272	287	316	192
390 Other manufacturing industries	237	164	112	50

For sources, footnotes and comments see "Technical notes" at the beginning of this Annex.

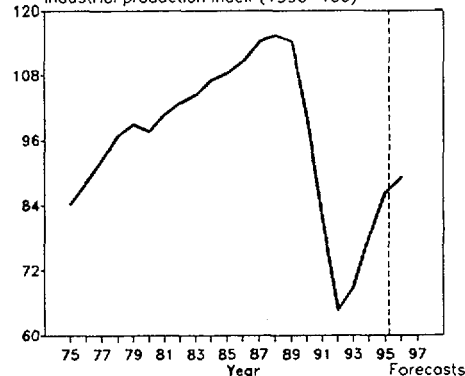
GDP per capita (1000\$/c)



Manufacturing share in GDP, current prices (%)

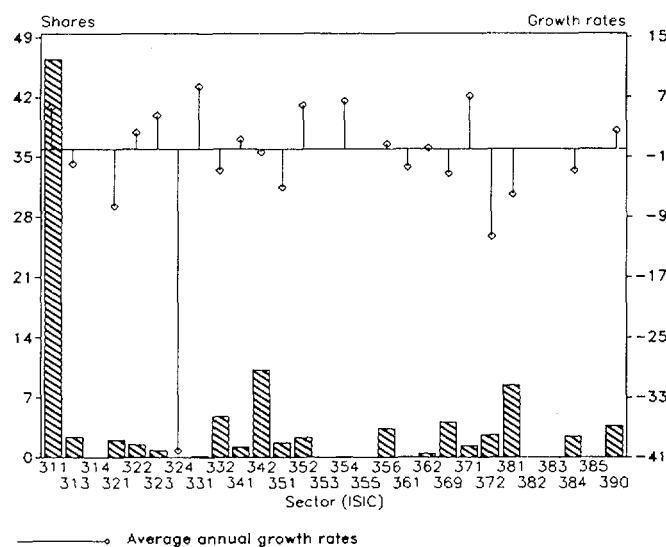


Industrial production index (1990=100)

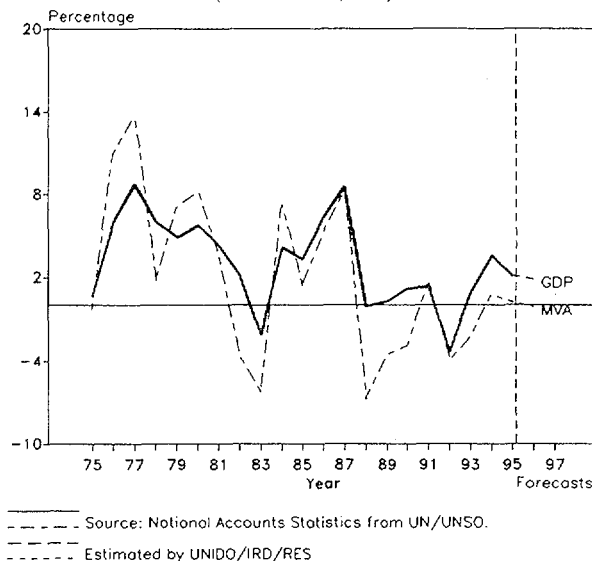


ICELAND

Average sectoral shares in total Value Added and average annual sectoral growth rates, 1990-1996 (Percentage)

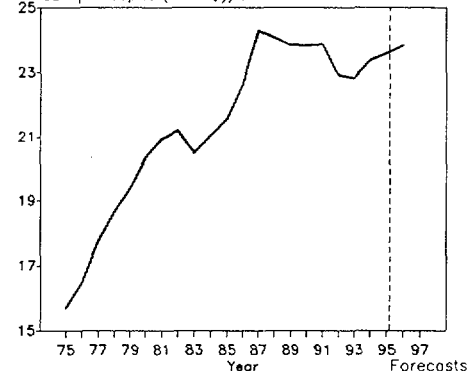


Annual growth rates of GDP and MVA (Constant 1990 prices)

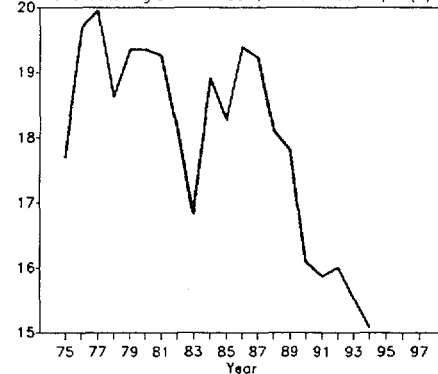


	1980	1985	1990	1995
GDP: <sup>na</sup> (millions of 1990-dollars)	4 640	5 201	6 080	6 347
Per capita <sup>na</sup> (1990-dollars)	20 349	21 581	23 844	23 595
Manufacturing share <sup>na</sup> (%) (current factor prices)	19.3	18.3	16.1	..
<b>MANUFACTURING:</b>				
Value added <sup>na</sup> (millions of 1990-dollars)	816	825	819	787
Industrial production index (1990=100)	107	108	100	96
Value added (millions of dollars)	518	429	755	869
Gross output (millions of dollars)	1 676	1 471	2 602	2 708
Employment (thousands)	28	30	22	21
<b>-PROFITABILITY: (in percent of gross output)</b>				
Intermediate input (%)	69	71	71	68
Wages and salaries including supplements (%)	25	22	22	21
Gross operating surplus and net taxes (%)	6	7	7	11
<b>-PRODUCTIVITY: (dollars)</b>				
Gross output per worker	61 052	51 071	111 991	128 743
Value added per worker	18 864	14 907	32 498	41 835
Average wage (including supplements)	15 021	11 345	25 775	29 327
<b>-STRUCTURAL INDICES:</b>				
Structural change indicator (5-year period, %) as a percentage of 1970-1975 structural change	11.30	13.57	9.74	11.12
MVA growth rate perer unit of structural change	2.18	0.30	-0.07	0.23
Degree of specialization	26.5	27.9	27.1	34.8
<b>-VALUE ADDED: (millions of dollars)</b>				
311/2 Food products	188	175	285	427
313 Beverages	11	10	21	19
314 Tobacco products	-	-	-	-
321 Textiles	23	17	21	15
322 Wearing apparel	15	10	10	13
323 Leather and fur products	6	6	5	7
324 Footwear	1	1	1	-
331 Wood and wood products	-	-	1	2
332 Furniture and fixtures	45	29	40	37
341 Paper and paper products	4	4	9	11
342 Printing and publishing	35	36	84	86
351 Industrial chemicals	8	7	17	13
352 Other chemical products	7	8	15	22
353 Petroleum refineries	-	-	-	-
354 Miscellaneous petroleum and coal products	-	-	-	-
355 Rubber products	-	-	-	-
356 Plastic products	11	11	27	30
361 Pottery, china and earthenware	1	-	1	1
362 Glass and glass products	3	3	4	4
369 Other non-metal mineral products	23	21	37	33
371 Iron and steel	6	11	9	15
372 Non-ferrous metals	39	13	36	18
381 Metal products	62	44	85	64
382 Non-electrical machinery	-	-	-	-
383 Electrical machinery	-	-	-	-
384 Transport equipment	21	13	20	19
385 Professional and scientific equipment	-	-	-	-
390 Other manufacturing industries	10	11	27	33

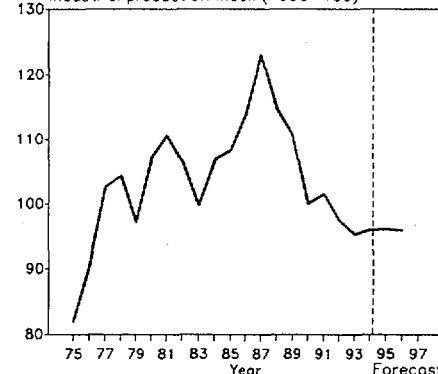
GDP per capita (1000\$/c)



Manufacturing share in GDP, current factor pr. (%)



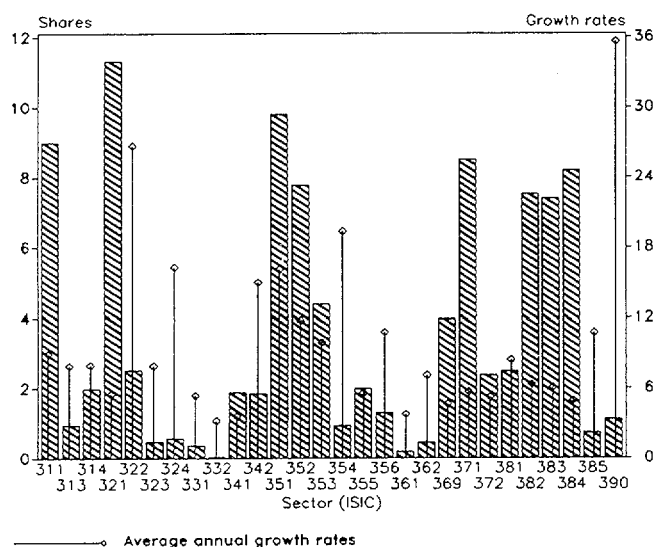
Industrial production index (1990=100)



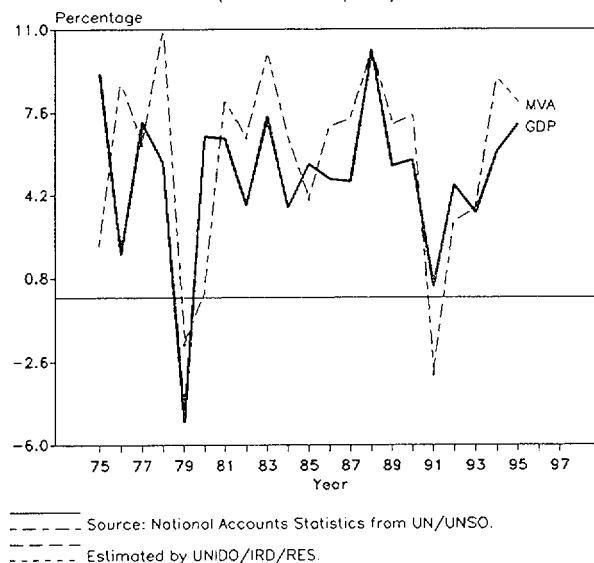
For sources, footnotes and comments see "Technical notes" at the beginning of this Annex.

## INDIA

Average sectoral shares in total Value Added and average annual sectoral growth rates, 1990-1996 (Percentage)

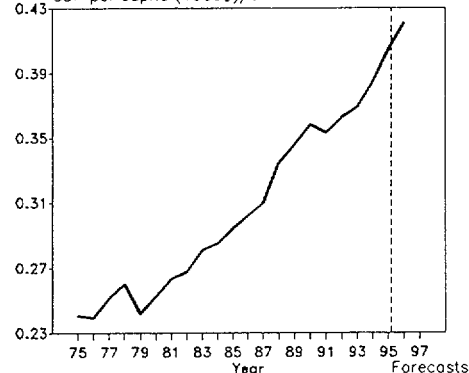


Annual growth rates of GDP and MVA (Constant 1990 prices)

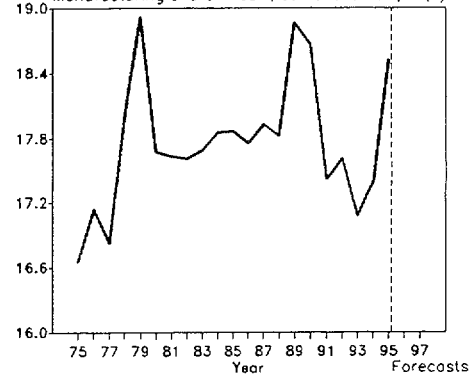


	1980	1985	1990	1995
<b>GDP:</b> <sup>na</sup> (millions of 1990-dollars)	174 018	226 008	304 687	376 218
Per capita <sup>na</sup> (1990-dollars)	253	294	358	405
Manufacturing share <sup>na</sup> (%) (current factor prices)	17.7	17.9	18.7	18.5
<b>MANUFACTURING:</b>				
Value added <sup>na</sup> (millions of 1990-dollars)	24 608	34 472	50 174	61 111
Industrial production index (1990=100)	55	73	100	125
Value added (millions of dollars)	13 086	15 526	25 097	34 381
Gross output (millions of dollars)	71 387	88 304	140 511	165 406
Employment (thousands)	6 992	6 578	7 299	8 412
<b>-PROFITABILITY: (in percent of gross output)</b>				
Intermediate input (%)	82	82	82	79
Wages and salaries including supplements (%)	11	10	8	6
Gross operating surplus (%)	8	8	10	14
<b>-PRODUCTIVITY: (dollars)</b>				
Gross output per worker	10 210	13 423	19 250	19 664
Value added per worker	1 872	2 360	3 438	4 096
Average wage (including supplements)	1 083	1 298	1 592	1 264
<b>-STRUCTURAL INDICES:</b>				
Structural change indicator (5-year period, %)	6.47	7.96	9.01	8.83
as a percentage of 1970-1975 structural change	100	123	139	137
MVA growth rate per unit of structural change	2.51	2.39	4.72	6.30
Degree of specialization	19.3	16.9	15.3	13.7
<b>-VALUE ADDED: (millions of dollars)</b>				
311/2 Food products	899	1 436	2 212	3 127
313 Beverages	99	135	246	314
314 Tobacco products	196	230	489	656
321 Textiles	2 642	2 135	3 264	3 877
322 Wearing apparel	62	87	316	1 042
323 Leather and fur products	48	52	123	158
324 Footwear	37	52	104	217
331 Wood and wood products	74	73	102	120
332 Furniture and fixtures	8	7	8	8
341 Paper and paper products	296	233	574	601
342 Printing and publishing	256	280	340	674
351 Industrial chemicals	778	1 200	1 833	3 649
352 Other chemical products	1 062	1 146	1 647	2 698
353 Petroleum refineries	203	344	1 072	1 576
354 Miscellaneous petroleum and coal products	151	152	146	355
355 Rubber products	234	363	566	657
356 Plastic products	93	166	297	454
361 Pottery, china and earthenware	47	27	53	57
362 Glass and glass products	67	101	111	142
369 Other non-metal mineral products	399	775	1 122	1 225
371 Iron and steel	1 489	1 790	2 551	3 017
372 Non-ferrous metals	81	115	654	726
381 Metal products	421	425	614	850
382 Non-electrical machinery	1 130	1 506	2 011	2 416
383 Electrical machinery	1 061	1 201	2 009	2 375
384 Transport equipment	1 088	1 231	2 374	2 664
385 Professional and scientific equipment	92	118	165	256
390 Other manufacturing industries	72	146	92	472

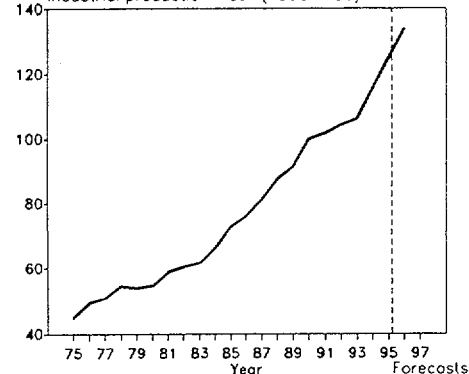
GDP per capita (1000\$/c)



Manufacturing share in GDP, current factor pr. (%)



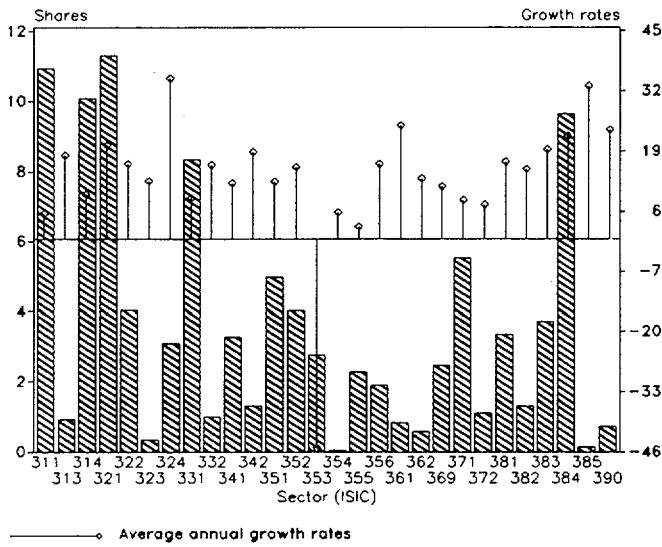
Industrial production index (1990=100)



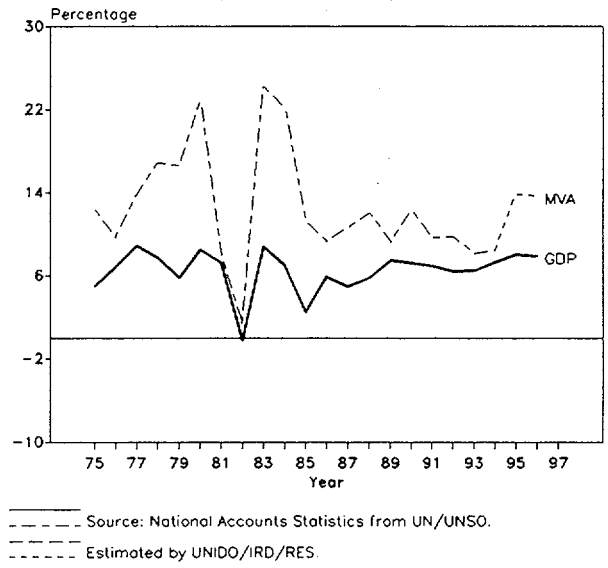
For sources, footnotes and comments see "Technical notes" at the beginning of this Annex.

INDONESIA

Average sectoral shares in total Value Added and average annual sectoral growth rates, 1990-1996 (Percentage)

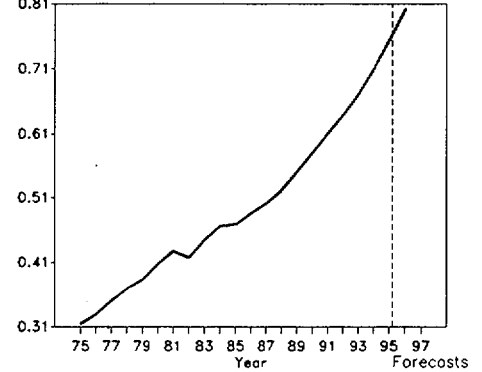


Annual growth rates of GDP and MVA (Constant 1990 prices)

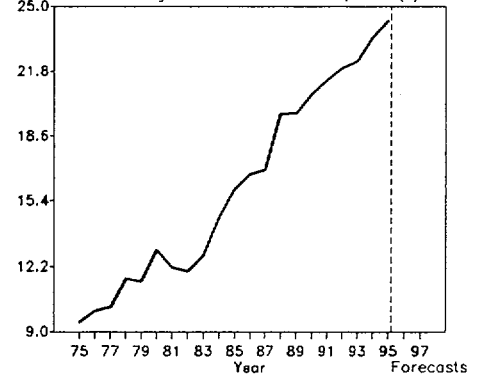


	1980	1985	1990	1995
GDP: <sup>na</sup> (millions of 1990-dollars)	61 467	78 380	106 141	149 015
Per capita <sup>na</sup> (1990-dollars)	407	468	581	755
Manufacturing share <sup>na</sup> (%) (current factor prices)	13.0	16.0	20.7	24.3
<b>MANUFACTURING:</b>				
Value added <sup>na</sup> (millions of 1990-dollars)	6 916	12 718	21 115	33 861
Industrial production index (1990=100)	55	62	100	159
Value added (millions of dollars)	4 372	8 104	14 832	32 698
Gross output (millions of dollars)	11 519	21 191	38 520	83 533
Employment (thousands)	963	1 673	2 649	4 078
<b>-PROFITABILITY: (in percent of gross output)</b>				
Intermediate input (%)	62	62	61	61
Wages and salaries including supplements (%)	7	8	5	5
Gross operating surplus and net taxes (%)	31	30	34	34
<b>-PRODUCTIVITY: (dollars)</b>				
Gross output per worker	11 880	12 574	14 458	20 472
Value added per worker	4 509	4 809	5 567	8 067
Average wage (including supplements)	838	1 011	715	1 021
<b>-STRUCTURAL INDICES:</b>				
Structural change indicator (5-year period, % as a percentage of 1970-1975 structural change)	22.08	16.55	15.79	17.84
MVA growth rate perer unit of structural change	3.55	5.67	6.72	5.21
Degree of specialization	21.2	17.7	14.4	14.1
<b>-VALUE ADDED: (millions of dollars)</b>				
311/2 Food products	376	870	1 910	2 906
313 Beverages	51	77	112	339
314 Tobacco products	649	741	1 732	3 372
321 Textiles	420	687	1 306	4 398
322 Wearing apparel	15	105	458	1 251
323 Leather and fur products	5	14	43	96
324 Footwear	26	31	189	1 245
331 Wood and wood products	239	612	1 382	2 551
332 Furniture and fixtures	6	18	117	319
341 Paper and paper products	43	110	477	1 053
342 Printing and publishing	51	92	150	467
351 Industrial chemicals	145	385	687	1 544
352 Other chemical products	241	430	535	1 417
353 Petroleum refineries	978	1 611	1 174	34
354 Miscellaneous petroleum and coal products	4	6	8	12
355 Rubber products	164	328	494	643
356 Plastic products	25	175	228	619
361 Pottery, china and earthenware	8	24	77	322
362 Glass and glass products	36	98	64	151
369 Other non-metal mineral products	200	262	374	797
371 Iron and steel	107	420	1 045	1 889
372 Non-ferrous metals	-	49	188	319
381 Metal products	118	278	402	1 135
382 Non-electrical machinery	53	76	171	437
383 Electrical machinery	180	246	403	1 303
384 Transport equipment	217	331	1 036	3 774
385 Professional and scientific equipment	2	4	10	62
390 Other manufacturing industries	13	24	61	242

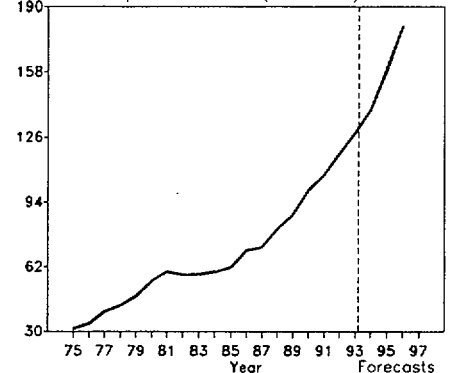
GDP per capita (1000\$)/c



Manufacturing share in GDP, current prices (%)



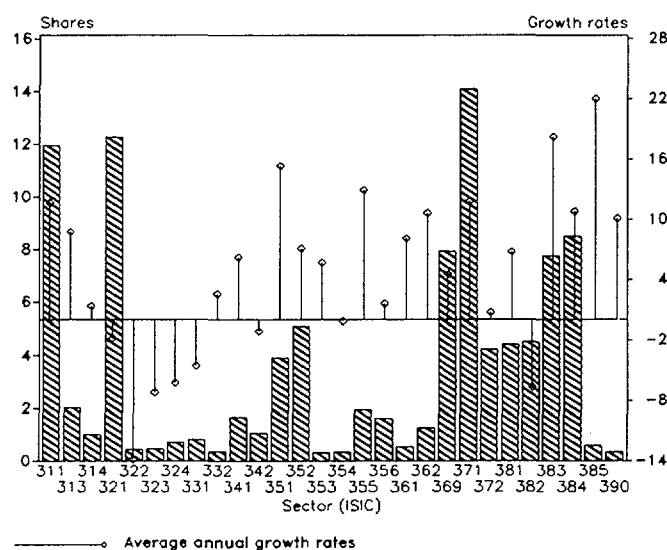
Industrial production index (1990=100)



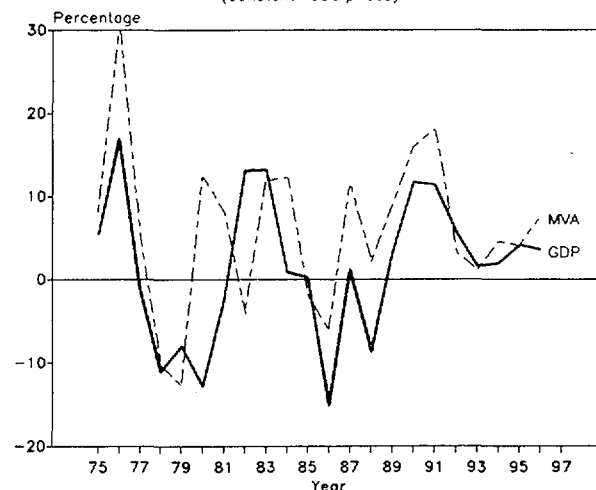
For sources, footnotes and comments see "Technical notes" at the beginning of this Annex.

## IRAN (ISLAMIC REPUBLIC OF)

Average sectoral shares in total Value Added and average annual sectoral growth rates, 1990-1996 (Percentage)

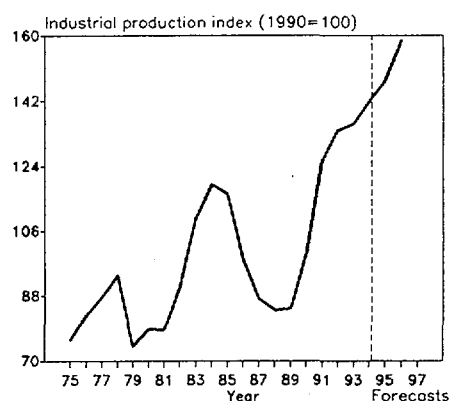
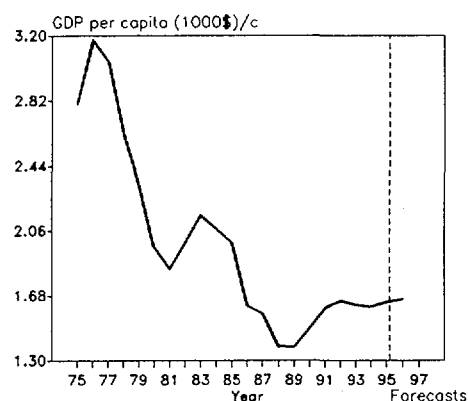


Annual growth rates of GDP and MVA (Constant 1990 prices)



Source: National Accounts Statistics from UN/UNSO.  
 Estimated by UNIDO/IRD/RES.

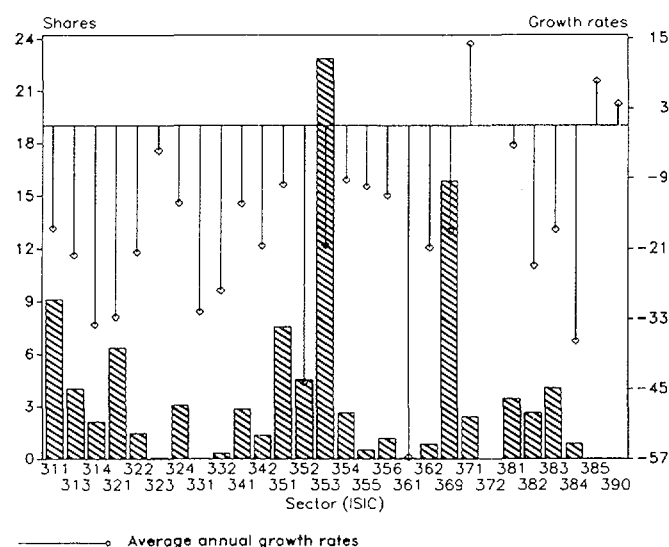
	1980	1985	1990	1995
<b>GDP:</b> <sup>na</sup> (millions of 1990-dollars)	77 089	97 385	88 173	112 095
Per capita <sup>na</sup> (1990-dollars)	1 964	1 991	1 489	1 640
Manufacturing share <sup>na</sup> (%) (current factor prices)	9.1	8.5	12.3	15.0
<b>MANUFACTURING:</b>				
Value added <sup>na</sup> (millions of 1990-dollars)	6 234	7 920	10 621	14 196
Industrial production index (1990=100)	79	116	100	148
Value added (millions of dollars)	8 186	5 374	7 994	9 147
Gross output (millions of dollars)	15 870	10 994	17 373	20 725
Employment (thousands)	470	611	653	647
<b>-PROFITABILITY: (in percent of gross output)</b>				
Intermediate input (%)	48	52	54	56
Wages and salaries including supplements (%)	29	28	15	16
Gross operating surplus and net taxes (%)	23	19	31	28
<b>-PRODUCTIVITY: (dollars)</b>				
Gross output per worker	33 756	17 161	26 007	31 040
Value added per worker	17 411	8 790	11 966	14 102
Average wage (including supplements)	9 668	4 893	3 925	5 278
<b>-STRUCTURAL INDICES:</b>				
Structural change indicator (5-year period, %) as a percentage of 1970-1975 structural change	20.59	20.08	16.52	16.93
MVA growth rate perer unit of structural change	1.38	0.83	1.08	1.75
Degree of specialization	20.3	15.9	15.9	17.1
<b>-VALUE ADDED: (millions of dollars)</b>				
311/2 Food products	930	553	737	1 170
313 Beverages	145	133	152	199
314 Tobacco products	190	46	82	77
321 Textiles	1 329	931	1 355	989
322 Wearing apparel	78	33	85	27
323 Leather and fur products	36	30	69	34
324 Footwear	100	71	85	50
331 Wood and wood products	68	52	108	64
332 Furniture and fixtures	33	21	32	30
341 Paper and paper products	135	115	130	152
342 Printing and publishing	80	42	114	86
351 Industrial chemicals	93	102	227	434
352 Other chemical products	278	266	412	490
353 Petroleum refineries	1 652	386	31	32
354 Miscellaneous petroleum and coal products	2	14	38	29
355 Rubber products	93	79	116	191
356 Plastic products	198	103	164	147
361 Pottery, china and earthenware	45	33	41	52
362 Glass and glass products	115	73	73	108
369 Other non-metal mineral products	819	601	688	703
371 Iron and steel	367	313	893	1 393
372 Non-ferrous metals	48	84	413	332
381 Metal products	319	244	338	411
382 Non-electrical machinery	208	277	724	368
383 Electrical machinery	391	329	332	716
384 Transport equipment	399	407	504	763
385 Professional and scientific equipment	24	24	23	60
390 Other manufacturing industries	11	12	28	40



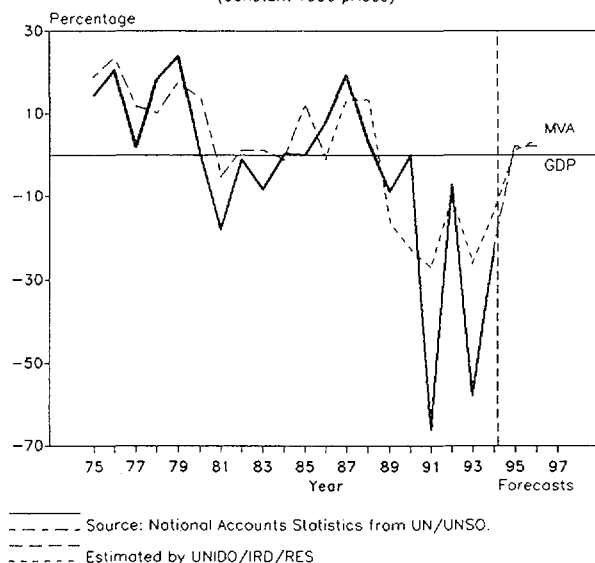
For sources, footnotes and comments see "Technical notes" at the beginning of this Annex.

## IRAQ

Average sectoral shares in total Value Added and average annual sectoral growth rates, 1990-1996 (Percentage)

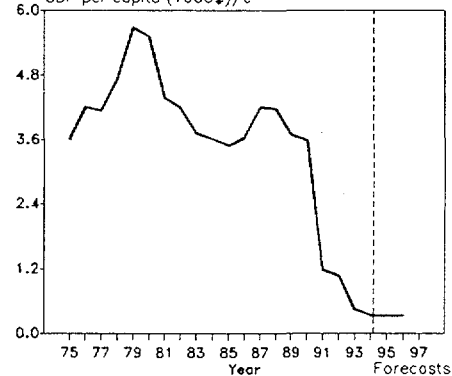


Annual growth rates of GDP and MVA (Constant 1990 prices)

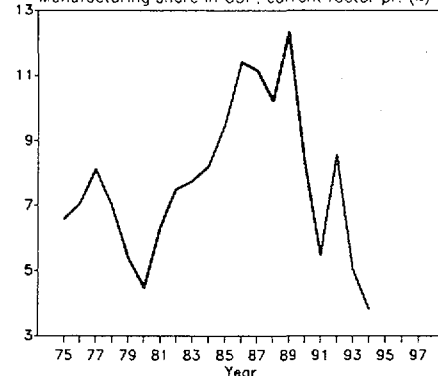


	1980	1985	1990	1995
GDP: <sup>na</sup> (millions of 1990-dollars)	71 810	53 524	64 898	6 761
Per capita <sup>na</sup> (1990-dollars)	5 521	3 494	3 590	336
Manufacturing share <sup>na</sup> (%) (current factor prices)	4.5	9.5	8.4	..
<b>MANUFACTURING:</b>				
Value added <sup>na</sup> (millions of 1990-dollars)	6 604	7 041	5 735	2 378
Industrial production index (1990=100)	78	81	100	56
Value added (millions of dollars)	2 095	3 676	3 623	567
Gross output (millions of dollars)	5 182	7 162	7 560	1 394
Employment (thousands)	177	174	133	118
<b>-PROFITABILITY: (in percent of gross output)</b>				
Intermediate input (%)	60	49	36	59
Wages and salaries including supplements (%)	13	13	64	15
Gross operating surplus (%)	28	39	-1	25
<b>-PRODUCTIVITY: (dollars)</b>				
Gross output per worker	29 252	41 091	6 611	11 640
Value added per worker	11 827	21 089	27 262	4 807
Average wage (including supplements)	3 700	5 242	3 552	1 808
<b>-STRUCTURAL INDICES:</b>				
Structural change indicator (5-year period, %) as a percentage of 1970-1975 structural change	23.40	17.57	11.47	14.14
MVA growth rate per unit of structural change	1.43	3.54	1.56	-2.85
Degree of specialization	19.7	24.2	23.2	22.6
<b>-VALUE ADDED: (millions of dollars)</b>				
311/2 Food products	183	396	306	56
313 Beverages	90	125	139	19
314 Tobacco products	107	140	125	7
321 Textiles	245	248	362	20
322 Wearing apparel	42	53	47	7
323 Leather and fur products	21	1	1	-
324 Footwear	18	81	70	20
331 Wood and wood products	1	1	1	-
332 Furniture and fixtures	10	13	14	1
341 Paper and paper products	49	52	78	20
342 Printing and publishing	29	33	50	8
351 Industrial chemicals	79	151	167	52
352 Other chemical products	200	389	362	6
353 Petroleum refineries	403	868	836	125
354 Miscellaneous petroleum and coal products	27	40	56	18
355 Rubber products	6	10	11	3
356 Plastic products	14	33	28	8
361 Pottery, china and earthenware	1	1	1	-
362 Glass and glass products	21	35	31	4
369 Other non-metal mineral products	190	565	557	103
371 Iron and steel	7	20	17	23
372 Non-ferrous metals	-	-	-	-
381 Metal products	53	47	56	27
382 Non-electrical machinery	162	149	111	13
383 Electrical machinery	121	185	139	25
384 Transport equipment	15	40	56	2
385 Professional and scientific equipment	1	-	-	-
390 Other manufacturing industries	1	-	-	-

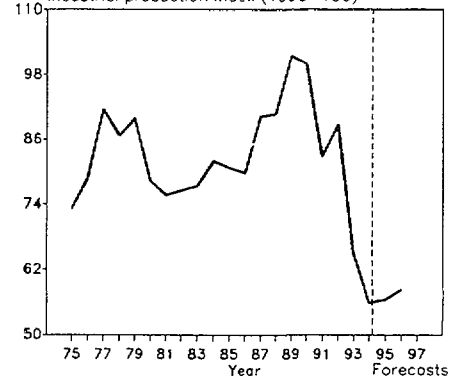
GDP per capita (1000\$/c)



Manufacturing share in GDP, current factor pr. (%)



Industrial production index (1990=100)

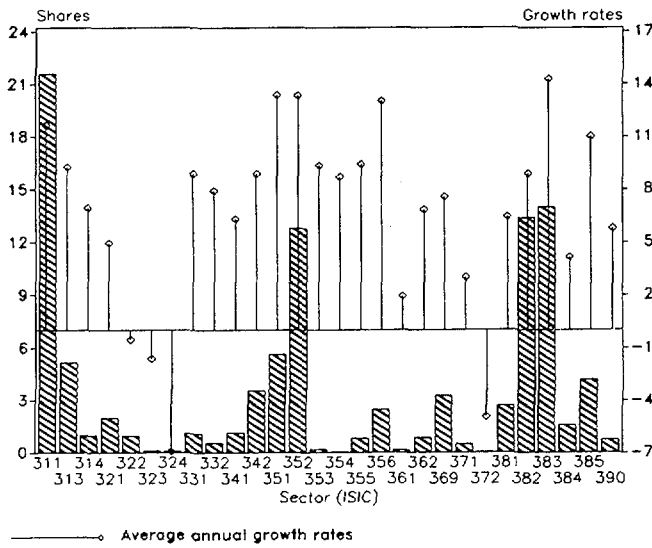


For sources, footnotes and comments see "Technical notes" at the beginning of this Annex.

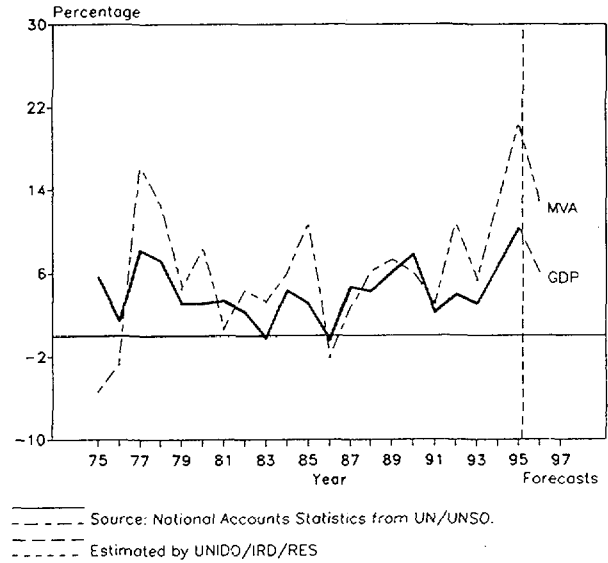


IRELAND

Average sectoral shares in total Value Added and average annual sectoral growth rates, 1990-1996 (Percentage)

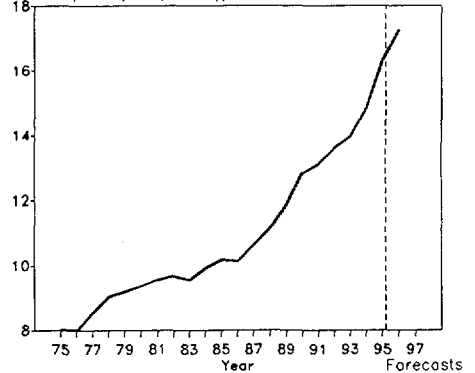


Annual growth rates of GDP and MVA (Constant 1990 prices)

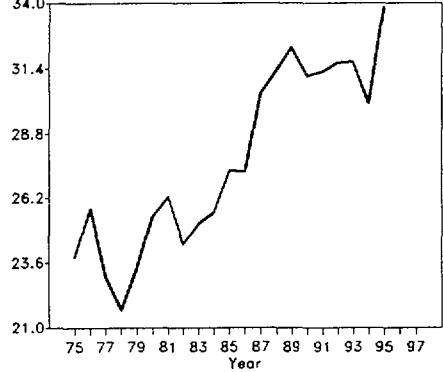


	1980	1985	1990	1995
<b>GDP:</b> <sup>na</sup> (millions of 1990-dollars)	31 870	36 144	44 930	57 942
Per capita <sup>na</sup> (1990-dollars)	9 371	10 176	12 826	16 340
Manufacturing share <sup>na</sup> (%) (current factor prices)	25.5	27.3	31.1	33.8
<b>MANUFACTURING:</b>				
Value added <sup>na</sup> (millions of 1990-dollars)	7 464	9 465	11 445	18 568
Industrial production index (1990=100)	56	69	100	161
Value added (millions of dollars)	5 700	5 995	15 013	26 493
Gross output (millions of dollars)	15 905	15 394	33 527	55 126
Employment (thousands)	225	186	194	213
<b>-PROFITABILITY: (in percent of gross output)</b>				
Intermediate input (%)	64	61	55	52
Wages and salaries including supplements (%)	17	14	14	11
Gross operating surplus (%)	19	25	31	38
<b>-PRODUCTIVITY: (dollars)</b>				
Gross output per worker	70 068	82 191	172 553	253 308
Value added per worker	25 112	32 008	77 266	126 335
Average wage (including supplements)	11 906	11 604	23 770	27 250
<b>-STRUCTURAL INDICES:</b>				
Structural change indicator (5-year period, %)	13.80	14.18	9.87	5.98
as a percentage of 1970-1975 structural change	100	103	72	43
MVA growth rate perer unit of structural change	2.70	2.01	2.80	8.11
Degree of specialization	15.8	19.6	21.9	24.8
<b>-VALUE ADDED: (millions of dollars)</b>				
311/2 Food products	1 264	1 194	3 068	5 736
313 Beverages	325	331	792	1 312
314 Tobacco products	83	83	166	249
321 Textiles	266	181	349	465
322 Wearing apparel	147	118	207	210
323 Leather and fur products	28	12	21	20
324 Footwear	42	22	19	14
331 Wood and wood products	93	66	170	280
332 Furniture and fixtures	59	40	86	138
341 Paper and paper products	105	75	190	273
342 Printing and publishing	265	219	561	921
351 Industrial chemicals	236	315	757	1 537
352 Other chemical products	536	715	1 718	3 480
353 Petroleum refineries	21	14	28	46
354 Miscellaneous petroleum and coal products	2	1	2	4
355 Rubber products	52	58	118	196
356 Plastic products	113	125	332	662
361 Pottery, china and earthenware	28	13	28	32
362 Glass and glass products	109	113	144	207
369 Other non-metal mineral products	322	260	560	835
371 Iron and steel	31	37	92	106
372 Non-ferrous metals	15	8	10	8
381 Metal products	335	216	469	663
382 Non-electrical machinery	449	854	2 235	3 544
383 Electrical machinery	337	512	1 840	3 884
384 Transport equipment	190	116	309	386
385 Professional and scientific equipment	168	261	611	1 107
390 Other manufacturing industries	79	39	132	177

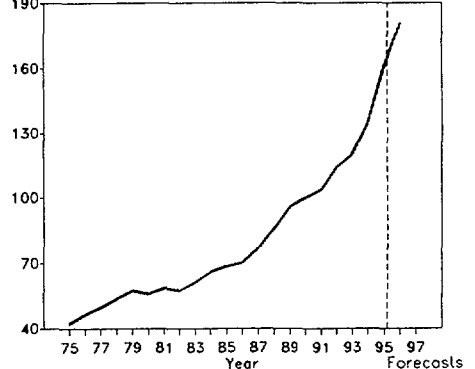
GDP per capita (1000\$/c)



Manufacturing share in GDP, current factor pr. (%)



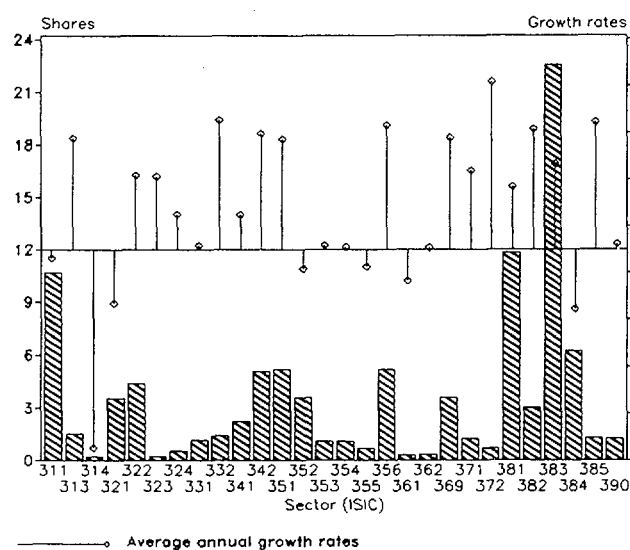
Industrial production index (1990=100)



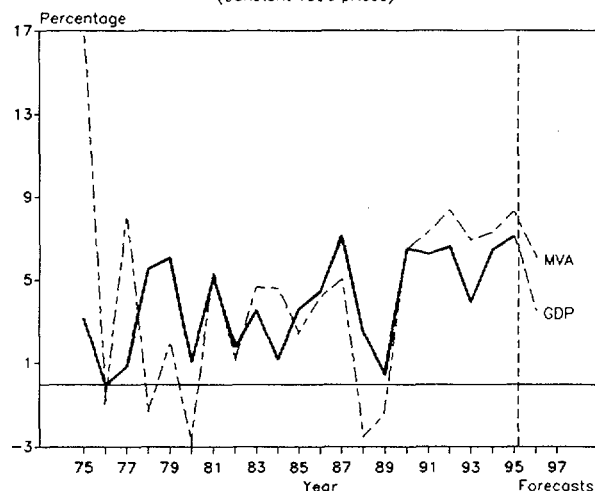
For sources, footnotes and comments see "Technical notes" at the beginning of this Annex.

## ISRAEL

Average sectoral shares in total Value Added and average annual sectoral growth rates, 1990-1996 (Percentage)



Annual growth rates of GDP and MVA (Constant 1990 prices)

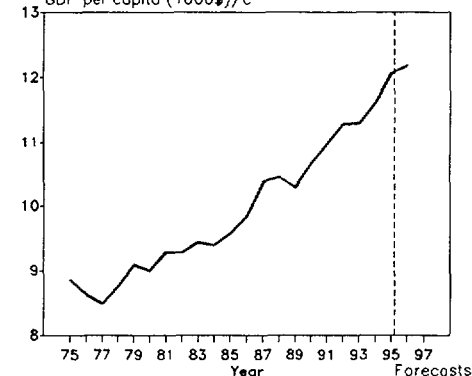


Source: National Accounts Statistics from UN/UNSO.

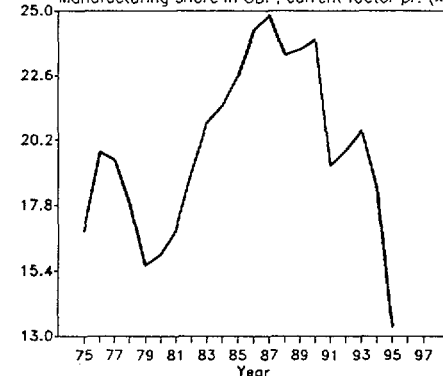
Estimated by UNIDO/IRD/RES.

	1980	1985	1990	1995
<b>GDP:</b> <sup>na</sup> (millions of 1990-dollars)	34 904	40 516	49 692	66 678
Per capita <sup>na</sup> (1990-dollars)	8 998	9 571	10 663	12 068
Manufacturing share <sup>na</sup> (%) (current factor prices)	16.0	22.6	23.9	13.3
<b>MANUFACTURING:</b>				
Value added <sup>na</sup> (millions of 1990-dollars)	6 303	7 513	8 394	12 110
Industrial production index (1990=100)	76	92	100	142
Value added (millions of dollars)	6 490	6 655	10 193	13 521
Gross output (millions of dollars)	14 332	16 351	24 574	38 974
Employment (thousands)	259	292	292	358
<b>-PROFITABILITY: (in percent of gross output)</b>				
Intermediate input (%)	55	59	59	65
Wages and salaries including supplements (%)	30	30	32	24
Gross operating surplus and net taxes (%)	15	11	10	11
<b>-PRODUCTIVITY: (dollars)</b>				
Gross output per worker	54 619	55 297	83 074	107 166
Value added per worker	24 733	22 506	34 461	37 180
Average wage (including supplements)	16 734	16 765	26 622	25 780
<b>-STRUCTURAL INDICES:</b>				
Structural change indicator (5-year period, %)	10.22	12.57	9.51	6.16
as a percentage of 1970-1975 structural change	100	123	93	60
MVA growth rate perer unit of structural change	4.49	2.06	-0.35	-0.22
Degree of specialization	14.8	18.3	18.0	17.8
<b>-VALUE ADDED: (millions of dollars)</b>				
311/2 Food products	706	748	1 221	1 394
313 Beverages	66	56	146	232
314 Tobacco products	24	10	33	24
321 Textiles	422	243	404	444
322 Wearing apparel	293	229	427	608
323 Leather and fur products	18	13	19	27
324 Footwear	38	42	55	68
331 Wood and wood products	112	78	116	147
332 Furniture and fixtures	90	81	131	211
341 Paper and paper products	150	135	241	302
342 Printing and publishing	184	227	470	740
351 Industrial chemicals	256	317	498	752
352 Other chemical products	250	241	420	450
353 Petroleum refineries	93	106	115	144
354 Miscellaneous petroleum and coal products	93	106	115	144
355 Rubber products	104	64	76	87
356 Plastic products	212	290	468	724
361 Pottery, china and earthenware	26	25	30	32
362 Glass and glass products	30	23	37	45
369 Other non-metal mineral products	239	143	306	483
371 Iron and steel	148	118	113	157
372 Non-ferrous metals	61	36	61	114
381 Metal products	1 060	967	1 228	1 623
382 Non-electrical machinery	245	224	279	448
383 Electrical machinery	831	1 415	2 200	3 061
384 Transport equipment	610	522	742	705
385 Professional and scientific equipment	66	129	125	195
390 Other manufacturing industries	63	67	120	158

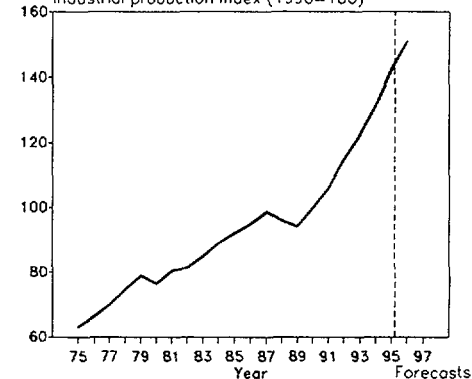
GDP per capita (1000\$)/c



Manufacturing share in GDP, current factor pr. (%)



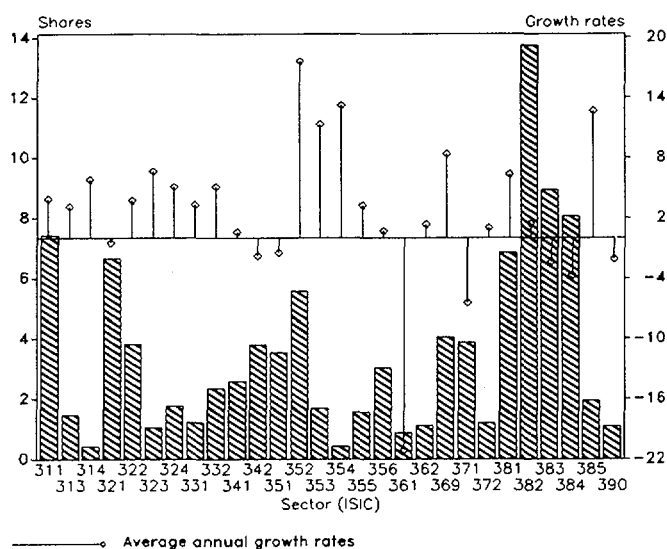
Industrial production index (1990=100)



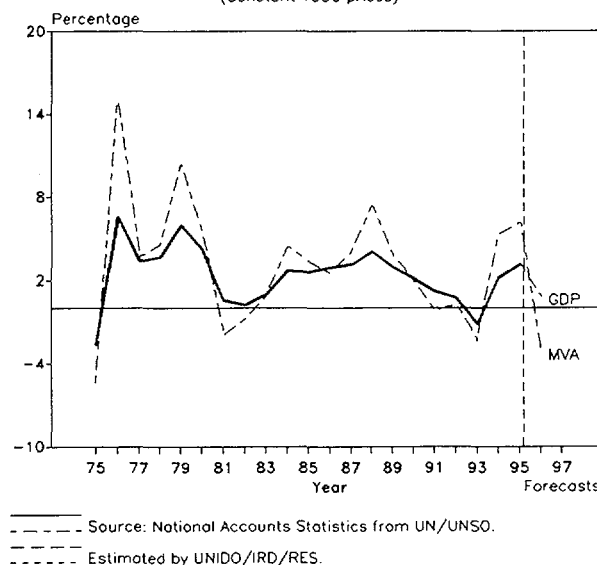
For sources, footnotes and comments see "Technical notes" at the beginning of this Annex.

## ITALY

Average sectoral shares in total Value Added and average annual sectoral growth rates, 1990-1996 (Percentage)

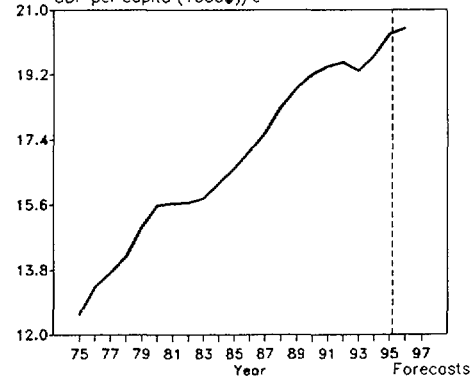


Annual growth rates of GDP and MVA (Constant 1990 prices)

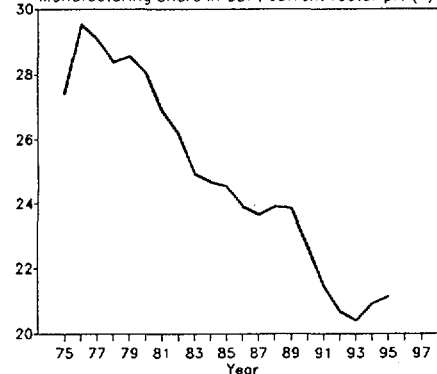


	1980	1985	1990	1995
<b>GDP:</b> <sup>na</sup> (millions of 1990-dollars)	879 689	942 953	1 095 122	1 162 623
Per capita <sup>na</sup> (1990-dollars)	15 588	16 610	19 205	20 324
Manufacturing share <sup>na</sup> (%) (current factor prices)	28.1	24.5	22.7	21.1
<b>MANUFACTURING:</b>				
Value added <sup>na</sup> (millions of 1990-dollars)	191 859	202 663	245 232	267 456
Industrial production index (1990=100)	90	85	100	101
Value added (millions of dollars)	97 032	64 726	144 733	156 300
Gross output (millions of dollars)	250 912	212 913	478 032	553 812
Employment (thousands)	3 333	2 875	2 757	2 830
<b>-PROFITABILITY: (in percent of gross output)</b>				
Intermediate input (%)	61	70	70	72
Wages and salaries including supplements (%)	21	18	27	18
Gross operating surplus and net taxes (%)	18	12	4	10
<b>-PRODUCTIVITY: (dollars)</b>				
Gross output per worker	74 433	73 115	170 315	191 448
Value added per worker	28 784	22 227	51 566	54 143
Average wage (including supplements)	15 647	13 630	46 298	35 051
<b>-STRUCTURAL INDICES:</b>				
Structural change indicator (5-year period, %)	5.30	5.87	7.91	9.12
as a percentage of 1970-1975 structural change	100	111	149	172
MVA growth rate per unit of structural change	4.58	-0.91	-1.38	0.84
Degree of specialization	10.2	10.9	11.0	9.6
<b>-VALUE ADDED: (millions of dollars)</b>				
311/2 Food products	6 362	3 618	9 599	11 291
313 Beverages	1 672	1 354	2 015	2 297
314 Tobacco products	307	224	556	747
321 Textiles	6 716	5 062	10 327	10 423
322 Wearing apparel	3 197	2 322	4 876	6 120
323 Leather and fur products	718	560	1 234	1 764
324 Footwear	1 495	1 260	2 231	2 912
331 Wood and wood products	1 318	786	1 616	1 986
332 Furniture and fixtures	1 936	1 257	2 900	3 812
341 Paper and paper products	2 260	1 661	3 878	4 236
342 Printing and publishing	3 017	2 271	6 171	5 358
351 Industrial chemicals	6 364	4 217	5 906	5 446
352 Other chemical products	4 058	2 473	3 974	9 938
353 Petroleum refineries	1 095	899	1 718	3 086
354 Miscellaneous petroleum and coal products	238	208	406	804
355 Rubber products	1 832	1 107	2 254	2 630
356 Plastic products	1 465	1 729	4 799	4 570
361 Pottery, china and earthenware	1 445	848	2 860	731
362 Glass and glass products	1 093	662	1 673	1 666
369 Other non-metal mineral products	4 143	2 338	4 299	6 572
371 Iron and steel	8 354	3 846	8 117	5 720
372 Non-ferrous metals	1 315	875	1 788	2 012
381 Metal products	5 687	3 405	8 014	11 131
382 Non-electrical machinery	9 326	8 914	20 330	21 607
383 Electrical machinery	8 435	5 813	14 990	12 601
384 Transport equipment	10 280	6 172	14 550	11 798
385 Professional and scientific equipment	2 032	550	1 761	3 406
390 Other manufacturing industries	871	297	1 890	1 626

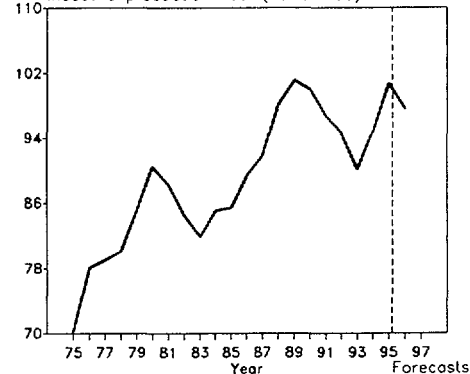
GDP per capita (1000\$/c)



Manufacturing share in GDP, current factor pr. (%)



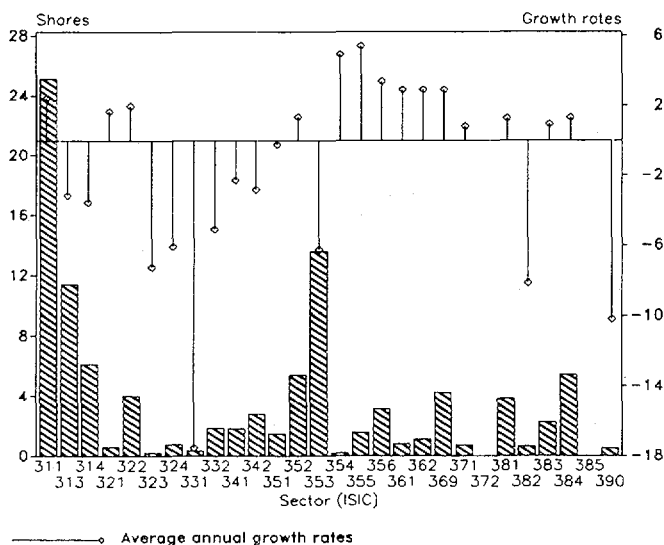
Industrial production index (1990=100)



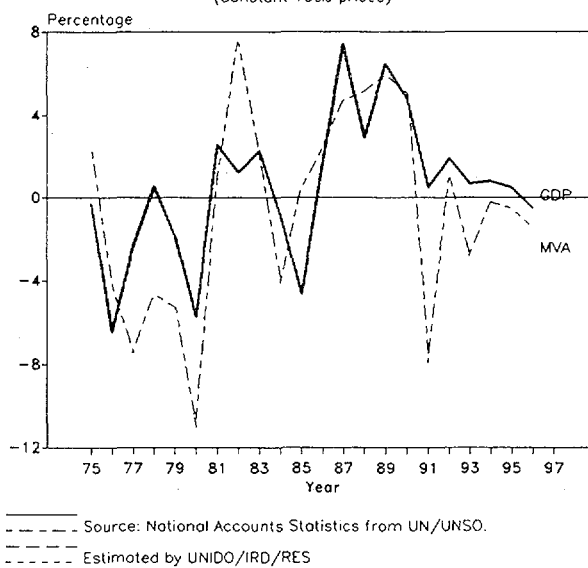
For sources, footnotes and comments see "Technical notes" at the beginning of this Annex.

JAMAICA

Average sectoral shares in total Value Added and average annual sectoral growth rates, 1990-1996 (Percentage)

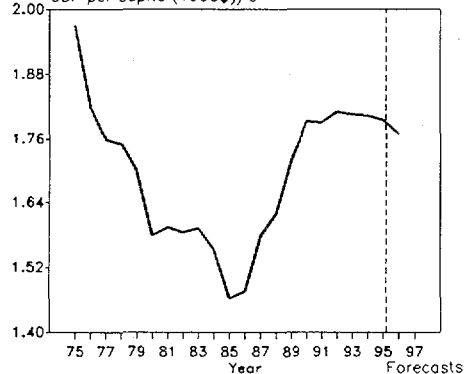


Annual growth rates of GDP and MVA (Constant 1990 prices)

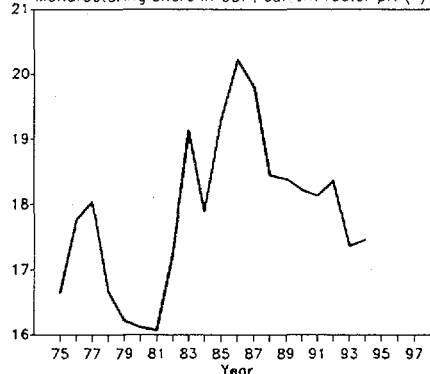


	1980	1985	1990	1995
<b>GDP:</b> <sup>na</sup> (millions of 1990-dollars)	3 369	3 382	4 242	4 432
Per capita <sup>na</sup> (1990-dollars)	1 579	1 464	1 793	1 796
Manufacturing share <sup>na</sup> (%) (current factor prices)	16.1	19.3	18.2	..
<b>MANUFACTURING:</b>				
Value added <sup>na</sup> (millions of 1990-dollars)	619	658	824	739
Industrial production index (1990=100)	137	111	100	107
Value added (millions of dollars)	441	363	831	847
Gross output (millions of dollars)	1 661	1 498	2 549	3 512
Employment (thousands)	44	54	65	63
<b>-PROFITABILITY:</b> (in percent of gross output)				
Intermediate input (%)	80	76	74	76
Wages and salaries including supplements (%)	11	10	10	10
Gross operating surplus and net taxes (%)	9	14	16	14
<b>-PRODUCTIVITY:</b> (dollars)				
Gross output per worker	48 137	27 761	42 749	56 156
Value added per worker	9 985	6 737	11 381	13 548
Average wage (including supplements)	5 378	2 783	4 442	5 510
<b>-STRUCTURAL INDICES:</b>				
Structural change indicator (5-year period, %)	9.20	11.77	9.76	9.48
as a percentage of 1970-1975 structural change	100	128	106	103
MVA growth rate per unit of structural change	-0.35	-0.67	4.04	2.83
Degree of specialization	17.8	17.8	20.4	20.3
<b>-VALUE ADDED:</b> (millions of dollars)				
311/2 Food products	78	73	182	223
313 Beverages	63	43	103	93
314 Tobacco products	61	40	56	50
321 Textiles	3	2	4	5
322 Wearing apparel	15	14	29	35
323 Leather and fur products	2	2	2	2
324 Footwear	8	4	7	6
331 Wood and wood products	3	2	5	2
332 Furniture and fixtures	12	10	19	15
341 Paper and paper products	8	8	16	15
342 Printing and publishing	13	12	25	23
351 Industrial chemicals	4	4	11	13
352 Other chemical products	22	25	42	48
353 Petroleum refineries	55	50	151	105
354 Miscellaneous petroleum and coal products	-	-	1	2
355 Rubber products	12	4	10	15
356 Plastic products	13	8	22	28
361 Pottery, china and earthenware	1	2	5	7
362 Glass and glass products	2	3	8	10
369 Other non-metal mineral products	8	11	29	38
371 Iron and steel	1	2	6	6
372 Non-ferrous metals	-	-	-	-
381 Metal products	10	13	28	33
382 Non-electrical machinery	11	3	6	4
383 Electrical machinery	7	7	17	20
384 Transport equipment	26	19	40	47
385 Professional and scientific equipment	-	-	-	-
390 Other manufacturing industries	4	3	6	4

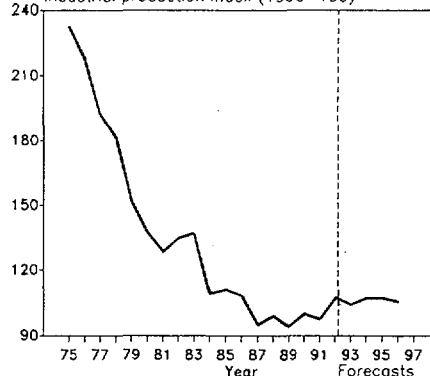
GDP per capita (1000\$/c)



Manufacturing share in GDP, current factor pr. (%)



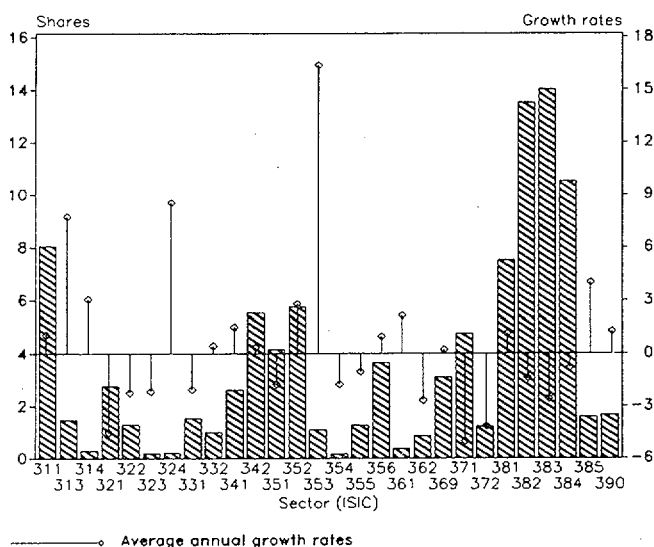
Industrial production index (1990=100)



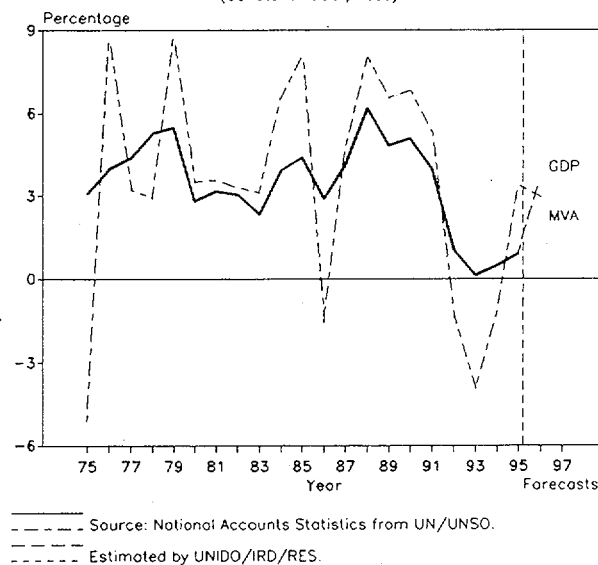
For sources, footnotes and comments see "Technical notes" at the beginning of this Annex.

## JAPAN

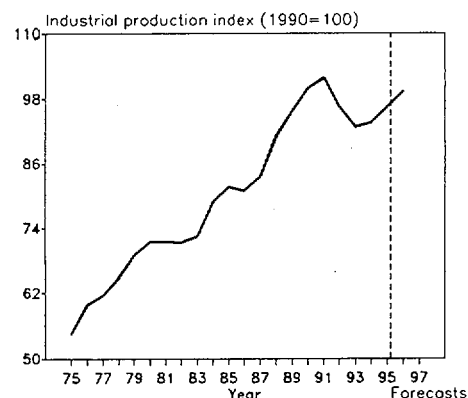
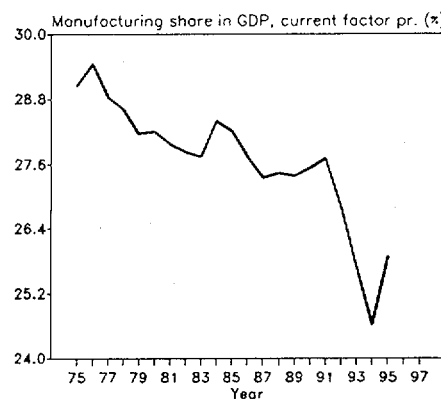
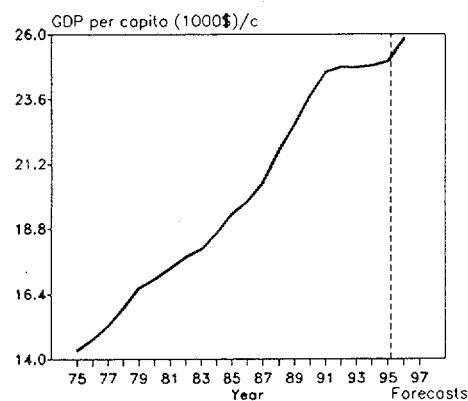
Average sectoral shares in total Value Added and average annual sectoral growth rates, 1990-1996 (Percentage)



Annual growth rates of GDP and MVA (Constant 1990 prices)



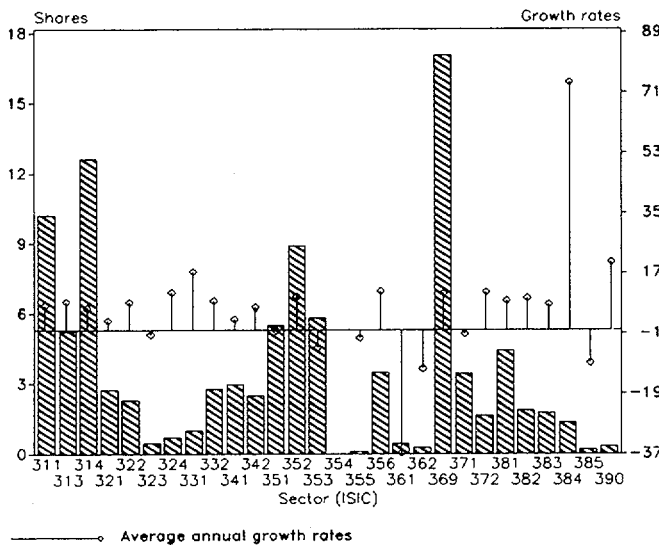
	1980	1985	1990	1995
<b>GDP:</b> <sup>na</sup> (millions of 1990-dollars)	1 981 279	2 338 590	2 932 088	3 127 999
Per capita <sup>na</sup> (1990-dollars)	16 962	19 353	23 734	25 010
Manufacturing share <sup>na</sup> (%) (current factor prices)	28.2	28.2	27.5	25.9
<b>MANUFACTURING:</b>				
Value added <sup>na</sup> (millions of 1990-dollars)	530 348	673 212	852 566	867 160
Industrial production index (1990=100)	72	82	100	97
Value added (millions of dollars)	339 234	412 505	891 767	1 365 523
Gross output (millions of dollars)	970 567	1 114 671	2 245 766	3 258 635
Employment (thousands)	10 253	10 652	11 172	10 474
<b>-PROFITABILITY: (in percent of gross output)</b>				
Intermediate input (%)	65	63	60	58
Wages and salaries including supplements (%)	12	13	13	15
Gross operating surplus and net taxes (%)	23	24	27	27
<b>-PRODUCTIVITY: (dollars)</b>				
Gross output per worker	88 443	102 310	201 017	308 627
Value added per worker	30 912	37 862	79 822	132 802
Average wage (including supplements)	11 522	13 644	26 368	46 638
<b>-STRUCTURAL INDICES:</b>				
Structural change indicator (5-year period, %) as a percentage of 1970-1975 structural change	5.99	6.39	5.61	4.57
MVA growth rate per unit of structural change	100	107	94	76
Degree of specialization	3.08	3.55	3.47	1.96
Degree of specialization	11.8	15.1	15.8	14.3
<b>-VALUE ADDED: (millions of dollars)</b>				
311/2 Food products	25 889	32 041	66 676	110 520
313 Beverages	5 015	5 303	10 305	25 449
314 Tobacco products	1 888	700	2 003	3 962
321 Textiles	15 436	15 259	27 046	33 629
322 Wearing apparel	5 156	5 622	11 921	16 495
323 Leather and fur products	886	977	1 865	2 614
324 Footwear	697	658	1 478	3 805
331 Wood and wood products	8 997	6 888	14 006	20 235
332 Furniture and fixtures	3 788	3 798	8 730	14 065
341 Paper and paper products	9 310	9 759	22 287	38 739
342 Printing and publishing	17 099	20 789	47 938	76 769
351 Industrial chemicals	13 809	16 811	38 076	54 306
352 Other chemical products	15 471	19 758	46 764	85 315
353 Petroleum refineries	6 620	4 595	4 841	19 146
354 Miscellaneous petroleum and coal products	1 063	713	1 540	2 312
355 Rubber products	4 150	5 077	11 403	16 846
356 Plastic products	9 478	13 570	30 796	50 978
361 Pottery, china and earthenware	1 623	1 627	2 984	5 415
362 Glass and glass products	2 876	4 029	8 467	11 388
369 Other non-metal mineral products	12 565	12 321	26 652	42 670
371 Iron and steel	26 444	25 224	48 539	57 823
372 Non-ferrous metals	7 458	5 236	11 976	15 062
381 Metal products	22 409	26 356	62 905	105 807
382 Non-electrical machinery	39 270	53 576	126 563	182 363
383 Electrical machinery	38 868	63 180	133 884	178 557
384 Transport equipment	32 107	45 158	95 594	142 745
385 Professional and scientific equipment	5 685	6 972	12 798	25 331
390 Other manufacturing industries	5 178	6 510	13 730	23 128



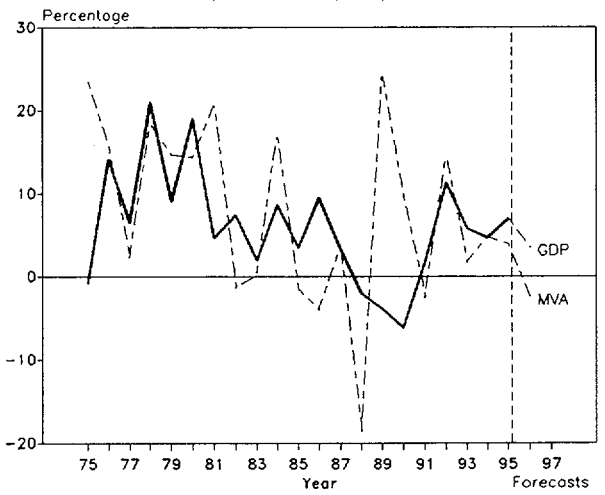
For sources, footnotes and comments see "Technical notes" at the beginning of this Annex.

JORDAN

Average sectoral shares in total Value Added and average annual sectoral growth rates, 1990-1996 (Percentage)

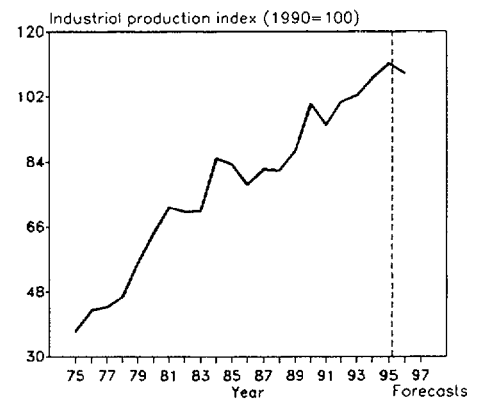
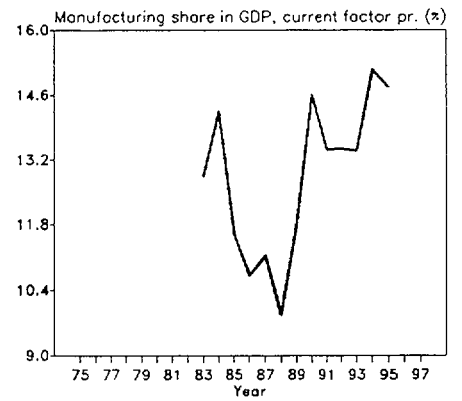
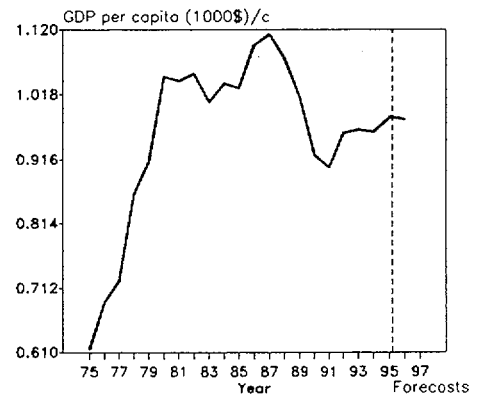


Annual growth rates of GDP and MVA (Constant 1990 prices)



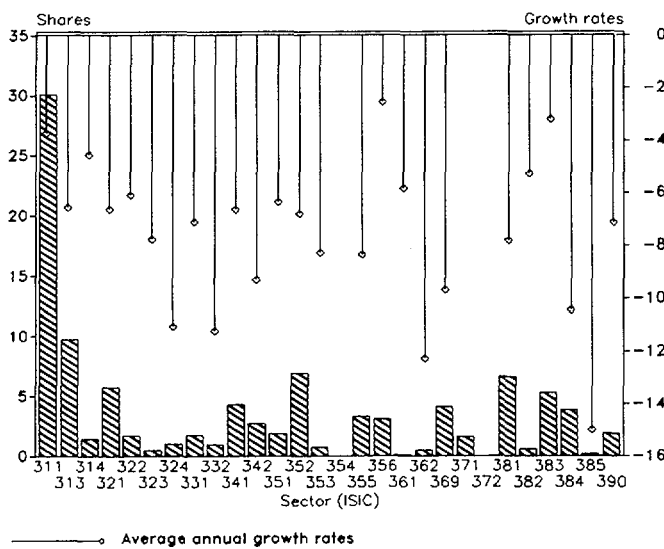
Source: National Accounts Statistics from UN/UNSO.  
Estimated by UNIDO/IRD/RES

	1980	1985	1990	1995
<b>GDP:</b> <sup>na</sup> (millions of 1990-dollars)	3 058	3 940	3 934	5 281
Per capita <sup>na</sup> (1990-dollars)	1 046	1 028	924	983
Manufacturing share <sup>na</sup> (%) (current factor prices)	..	11.6	14.6	14.4
<b>MANUFACTURING:</b>				
Value added <sup>na</sup> (millions of 1990-dollars)	349	477	520	641
Industrial production index (1990=100)	64	83	100	111
Value added (millions of dollars)	406	581	583	1 046
Gross output (millions of dollars)	917	1 997	1 846	3 690
Employment (thousands)	25	42	44	84
<b>-PROFITABILITY: (in percent of gross output)</b>				
Intermediate input (%)	56	71	68	72
Wages and salaries including supplements (%)	12	9	7	7
Gross operating surplus and net taxes (%)	32	20	25	22
<b>-PRODUCTIVITY: (dollars)</b>				
Gross output per worker	26 708	38 671	33 230	36 419
Value added per worker	11 819	11 243	10 489	10 487
Average wage (including supplements)	4 418	4 326	2 786	2 860
<b>-STRUCTURAL INDICES:</b>				
Structural change indicator (5-year period, %) as a percentage of 1970-1975 structural change	19.05	18.77	16.04	16.72
MVA growth rate perer unit of structural change	100	99	84	88
Degree of specialization	4.39	3.97	1.70	1.81
	19.5	21.1	15.3	15.7
<b>-VALUE ADDED: (millions of dollars)</b>				
311/2 Food products	24	48	58	116
313 Beverages	20	27	28	57
314 Tobacco products	50	92	75	136
321 Textiles	10	14	20	28
322 Wearing apparel	8	10	13	26
323 Leather and fur products	2	2	4	4
324 Footwear	8	8	3	8
331 Wood and wood products	7	7	4	12
332 Furniture and fixtures	11	11	14	28
341 Paper and paper products	9	9	20	31
342 Printing and publishing	7	11	12	23
351 Industrial chemicals	10	14	44	51
352 Other chemical products	20	28	42	87
353 Petroleum refineries	53	87	55	44
354 Miscellaneous petroleum and coal products	-	-	-	-
355 Rubber products	-	-	1	1
356 Plastic products	12	13	17	41
361 Pottery, china and earthenware	2	3	3	-
362 Glass and glass products	2	3	3	2
369 Other non-metal mineral products	98	123	85	184
371 Iron and steel	11	8	24	26
372 Non-ferrous metals	5	4	9	19
381 Metal products	27	31	23	48
382 Non-electrical machinery	2	4	9	20
383 Electrical machinery	2	2	11	23
384 Transport equipment	-	1	1	23
385 Professional and scientific equipment	-	-	2	1
390 Other manufacturing industries	7	23	2	5

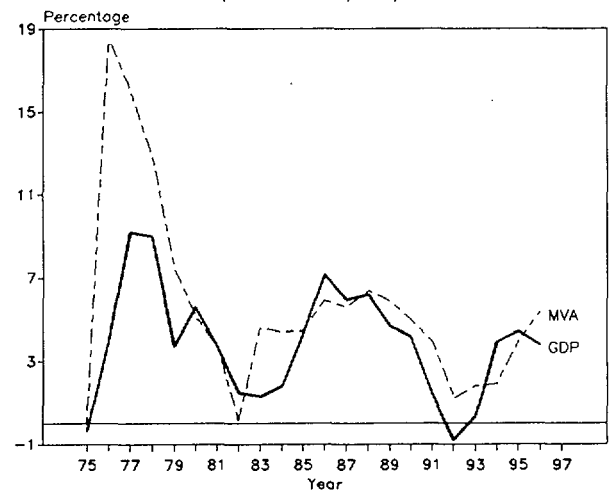


For sources, footnotes and comments see "Technical notes" at the beginning of this Annex.

Average sectoral shares in total Value Added and average annual sectoral growth rates, 1990-1996 (Percentage)



Annual growth rates of GDP and MVA (Constant 1990 prices)

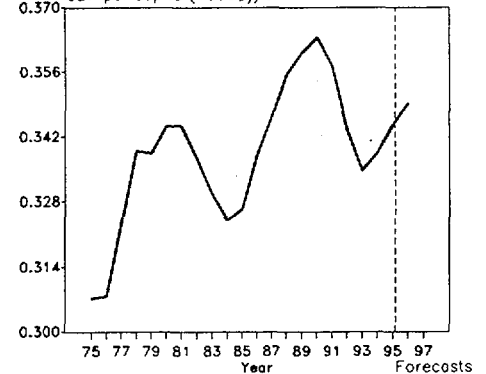


Source: National Accounts Statistics from UN/UNSO.  
 Estimated by UNIDO/IRD/RES.

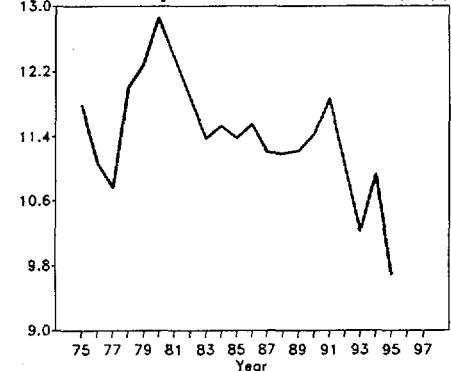
	1980	1985	1990	1995
<b>GDP:</b> <sup>na</sup> (millions of 1990-dollars)	5 726	6 488	8 532	9 351
Per capita <sup>na</sup> (1990-dollars)	344	327	363	344
Manufacturing share <sup>na</sup> (%) (current factor prices)	12.9	11.4	11.4	9.5
<b>MANUFACTURING:</b>				
Value added <sup>na</sup> (millions of 1990-dollars)	552	653	862	977
Industrial production index (1990=100)	74	79	100	109
Value added (millions of dollars)	744	670	921	814
Gross output (millions of dollars)	3 656	4 301	7 975	9 644
Employment (thousands)	143	163	188	199
<b>-PROFITABILITY: (in percent of gross output)</b>				
Intermediate input (%)	80	84	88	92
Wages and salaries including supplements (%)	9	7	4	3
Gross operating surplus and net taxes (%)	11	9	8	6
<b>-PRODUCTIVITY: (dollars)</b>				
Gross output per worker	25 544	26 428	42 491	48 488
Value added per worker	5 197	4 115	4 907	4 025
Average wage (including supplements)	2 269	1 795	1 605	1 251
<b>-STRUCTURAL INDICES:</b>				
Structural change indicator (5-year period, %)	10.54	9.80	9.33	7.24
as a percentage of 1970-1975 structural change	100	93	88	69
MVA growth rate per unit of structural change	4.94	1.59	1.26	-1.07
Degree of specialization	15.8	18.7	18.1	21.1
<b>-VALUE ADDED: (millions of dollars)</b>				
311/2 Food products	177	185	252	258
313 Beverages	65	72	90	78
314 Tobacco products	10	13	12	12
321 Textiles	59	40	55	47
322 Wearing apparel	17	19	16	13
323 Leather and fur products	6	3	4	3
324 Footwear	9	6	13	8
331 Wood and wood products	20	17	17	14
332 Furniture and fixtures	9	8	11	6
341 Paper and paper products	34	23	42	36
342 Printing and publishing	22	19	27	19
351 Industrial chemicals	25	16	17	15
352 Other chemical products	39	50	67	54
353 Petroleum refineries	15	6	7	6
354 Miscellaneous petroleum and coal products	-	-	-	-
355 Rubber products	25	27	33	25
356 Plastic products	14	13	24	27
361 Pottery, china and earthenware	1	-	1	1
362 Glass and glass products	3	4	5	3
369 Other non-metal mineral products	20	17	42	29
371 Iron and steel	12 <sup>a</sup>	6 <sup>a</sup>	12 <sup>a</sup>	14 <sup>a</sup>
372 Non-ferrous metals	- <sup>a</sup>	- <sup>a</sup>	- <sup>a</sup>	- <sup>a</sup>
381 Metal products	44	31	64	51
382 Non-electrical machinery	6	4	5	5
383 Electrical machinery	40	36	44	46
384 Transport equipment	64	43	39	28
385 Professional and scientific equipment	1	1	2	1
390 Other manufacturing industries	6	8	18	14

For sources, footnotes and comments see "Technical notes" at the beginning of this Annex.

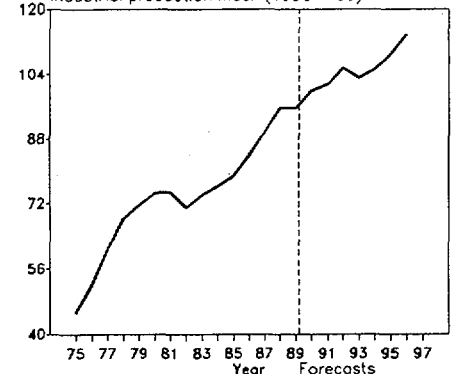
GDP per capita (1000\$)/c



Manufacturing share in GDP, current factor pr. (%)

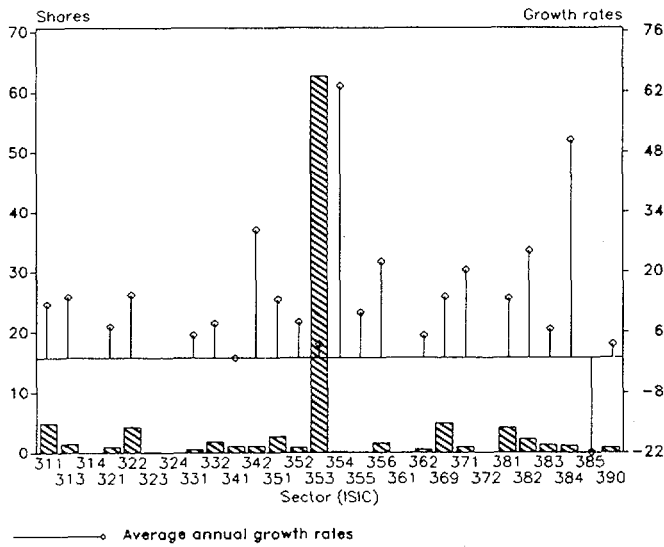


Industrial production index (1990=100)

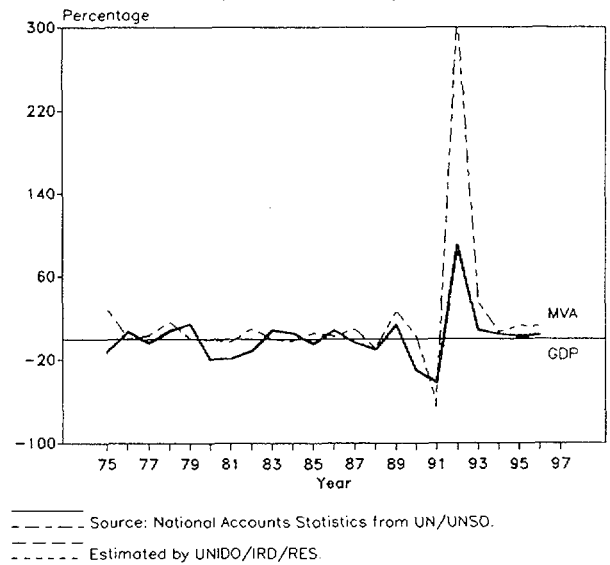


KUWAIT

Average sectoral shares in total Value Added and average annual sectoral growth rates, 1990-1996 (Percentage)

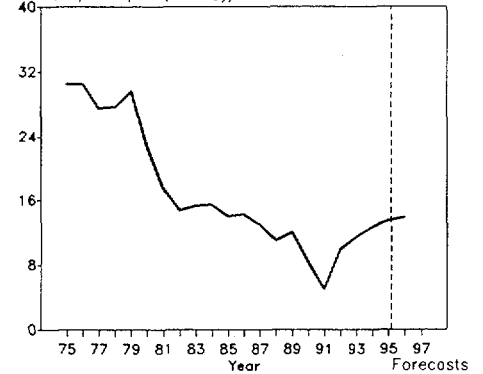


Annual growth rates of GDP and MVA (Constant 1990 prices)



	1980	1985	1990	1995
<b>GDP:</b> <sup>na</sup> (millions of 1990-dollars)	31 087	24 187	17 969	22 798
Per capita <sup>na</sup> (1990-dollars)	22 608	14 062	8 385	13 482
Manufacturing share <sup>na</sup> (%) (current factor prices)	5.6	5.9	11.9	10.3
<b>MANUFACTURING:</b>				
Value added <sup>na</sup> (millions of 1990-dollars)	1 608	1 717	2 151	4 733
Industrial production index (1990=100)	103	122	100	103
Value added (millions of dollars)	1 752	1 275	2 179	3 168
Gross output (millions of dollars)	6 218	7 435	5 531	7 106
Employment (thousands)	43	46	56	62
<b>-PROFITABILITY: (in percent of gross output)</b>				
Intermediate input (%)	72	83	61	55
Wages and salaries including supplements (%)	7	8	8	10
Gross operating surplus and net taxes (%)	21	9	31	34
<b>-PRODUCTIVITY: (dollars)</b>				
Gross output per worker	144 813	151 542	94 963	111 264
Value added per worker	40 798	25 988	37 394	49 619
Average wage (including supplements)	9 789	13 000	8 062	11 615
<b>-STRUCTURAL INDICES:</b>				
Structural change indicator (5-year period, %) as a percentage of 1970-1975 structural change	20.37	12.95	23.38	23.00
MVA growth rate perer unit of structural change	3.00	3.39	0.29	1.69
Degree of specialization	39.7	31.3	61.5	49.2
<b>-VALUE ADDED: (millions of dollars)</b>				
311/2 Food products	96	101	69	143
313 Beverages	20	31	21	46
314 Tobacco products	-	-	-	-
321 Textiles	7	8	16	24
322 Wearing apparel	84	75	54	125
323 Leather and fur products	-	-	-	4
324 Footwear	-	-	-	1
331 Wood and wood products	40	14	10	15
332 Furniture and fixtures	41	31	30	50
341 Paper and paper products	5	12	31	31
342 Printing and publishing	40	52	5	28
351 Industrial chemicals	118	56	43	102
352 Other chemical products	13	16	15	24
353 Petroleum refineries	915	561	1 652	2 010
354 Miscellaneous petroleum and coal products	1	1	-	7
355 Rubber products	5	7	2	3
356 Plastic products	24	24	16	55
361 Pottery, china and earthenware	2	-	-	-
362 Glass and glass products	2	4	12	17
369 Other non-metal mineral products	143	115	72	168
371 Iron and steel	7	14	11	33
372 Non-ferrous metals	-	-	-	-
381 Metal products	99	88	54	120
382 Non-electrical machinery	10	30	19	71
383 Electrical machinery	22	15	27	43
384 Transport equipment	45	12	2	27
385 Professional and scientific equipment	5	2	1	-
390 Other manufacturing industries	7	5	17	20

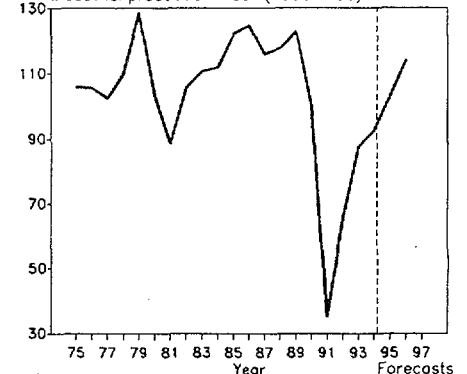
GDP per capita (1000\$)/c



Manufacturing share in GDP, current factor pr. (%)



Industrial production index (1990=100)

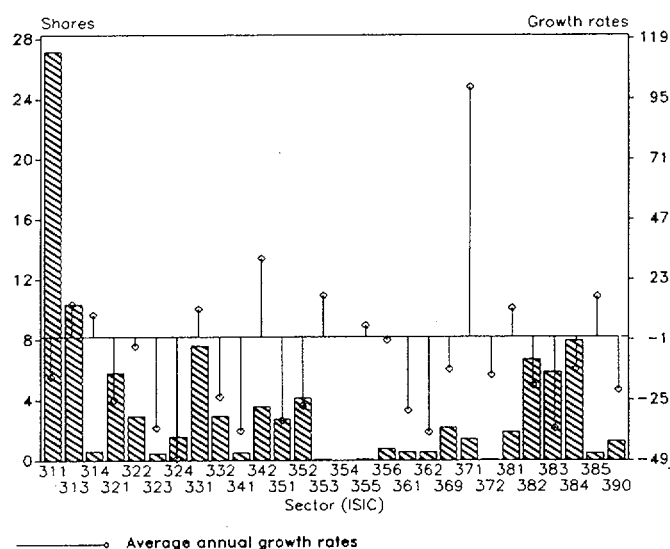


For sources, footnotes and comments see "Technical notes" at the beginning of this Annex.

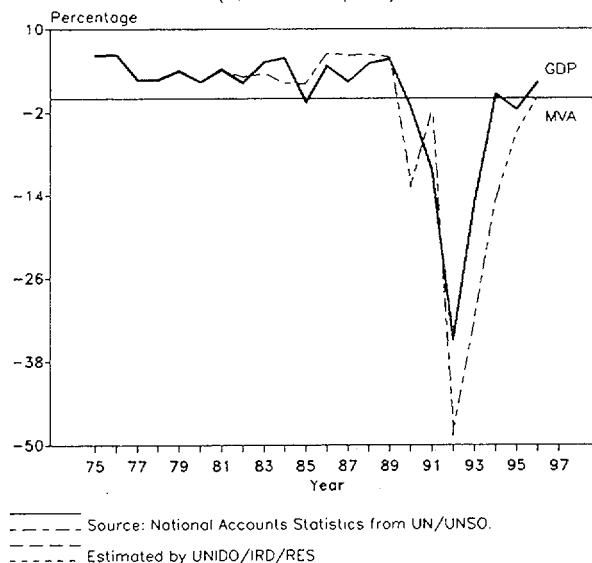


LATVIA

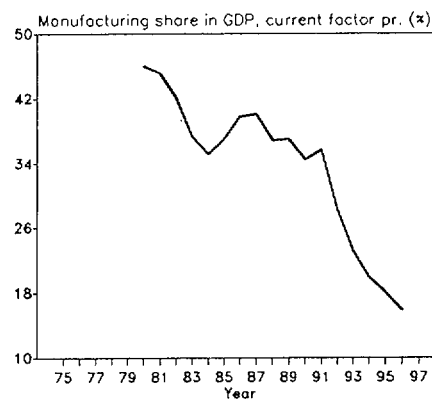
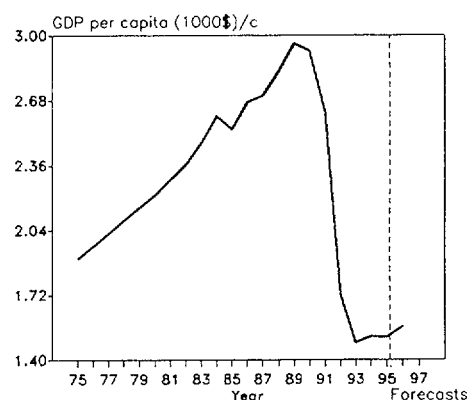
Average sectoral shares in total Value Added and average annual sectoral growth rates, 1993-1995 (Percentage)



Annual growth rates of GDP and MVA (Constant 1990 prices)



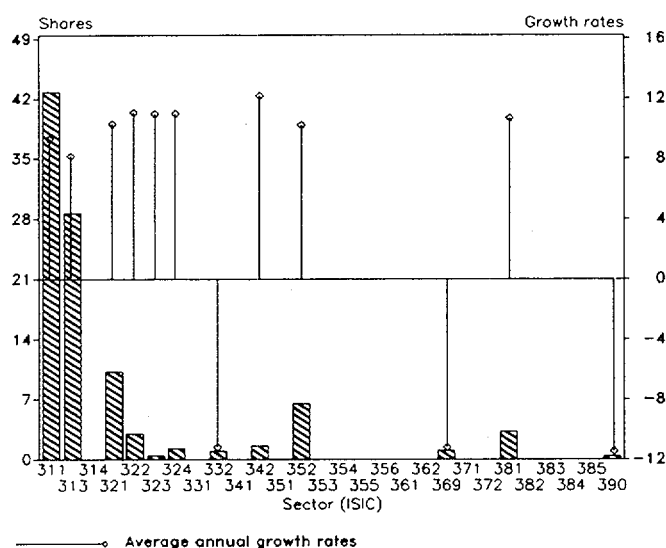
	1980	1985	1990	1995
GDP: <sup>na</sup> (millions of 1990-dollars)	5 617	6 632	7 805	3 836
Per capita <sup>na</sup> (1990-dollars)	2 217	2 538	2 923	1 513
Manufacturing share <sup>na</sup> (%) (current factor prices)	46.0	37.1	34.5	18.1
<b>MANUFACTURING:</b>				
Value added <sup>na</sup> (millions of 1990-dollars)	2 100	2 429	2 690	740
Industrial production index (1990=100)	..	..	..	..
Value added (millions of dollars)	..	..	..	828
Gross output (millions of dollars)	12 055	10 779	6 362	1 851
Employment (thousands)	531	422	346	154
<b>-PROFITABILITY: (in percent of gross output)</b>				
Intermediate input (%)	..	..	..	55
Wages and salaries including supplements (%)	..	..	..	11
Gross operating surplus and net taxes (%)	..	..	..	33
<b>-PRODUCTIVITY: (dollars)</b>				
Gross output per worker	22 632	25 490	18 413	12 035
Value added per worker	..	..	..	5 383
Average wage (including supplements)	2 713	3 001	2 330	1 357
<b>-STRUCTURAL INDICES:</b>				
Structural change indicator (5-year period, %)	..	..	..	..
as a percentage of 1970-1975 structural change	..	..	..	..
MVA growth rate perer unit of structural change	..	..	..	..
Degree of specialization	..	..	..	..
<b>-VALUE ADDED: (millions of dollars)</b>				
311/2 Food products	..	..	..	214
313 Beverages	..	..	..	109
314 Tobacco products	..	..	..	6
321 Textiles	..	..	..	40
322 Wearing apparel	..	..	..	26
323 Leather and fur products	..	..	..	3
324 Footwear	..	..	..	7
331 Wood and wood products	..	..	..	79
332 Furniture and fixtures	..	..	..	20
341 Paper and paper products	..	..	..	3
342 Printing and publishing	..	..	..	44
351 Industrial chemicals	..	..	..	18
352 Other chemical products	..	..	..	31
353 Petroleum refineries	..	..	..	1
354 Miscellaneous petroleum and coal products	..	..	..	..
355 Rubber products	..	..	..	1
356 Plastic products	..	..	..	7
361 Pottery, china and earthenware	..	..	..	3
362 Glass and glass products	..	..	..	3
369 Other non-metal mineral products	..	..	..	17
371 Iron and steel	..	..	..	12
372 Non-ferrous metals	..	..	..	1
381 Metal products	..	..	..	20
382 Non-electrical machinery	..	..	..	55
383 Electrical machinery	..	..	..	32
384 Transport equipment	..	..	..	64
385 Professional and scientific equipment	..	..	..	5
390 Other manufacturing industries	..	..	..	9



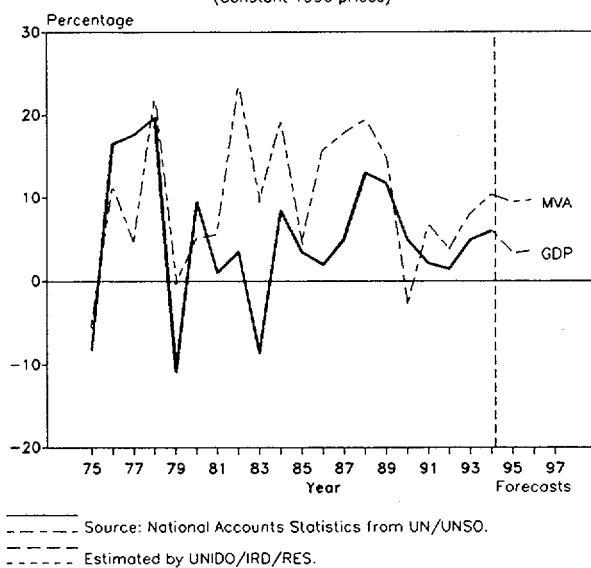
For sources, footnotes and comments see "Technical notes" at the beginning of this Annex.

LESOTHO

Average sectoral shares in total Value Added and average annual sectoral growth rates, 1990-1996 (Percentage)

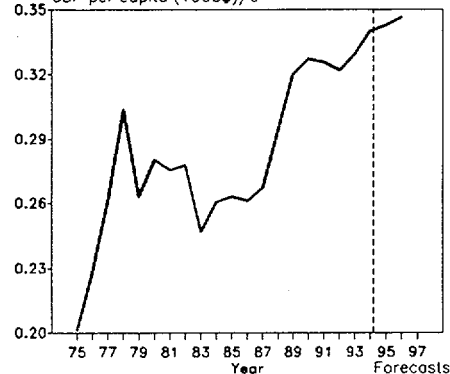


Annual growth rates of GDP and MVA (Constant 1990 prices)

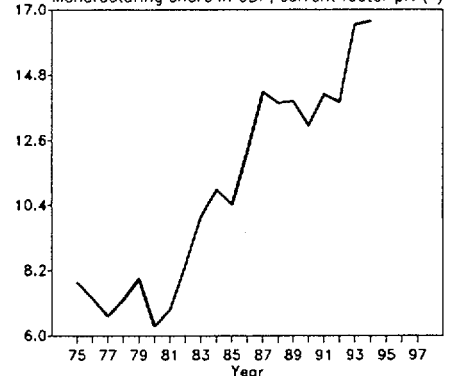


	1980	1985	1990	1995
GDP: <sup>na</sup> (millions of 1990-dollars)	383	411	584	695
Per capita <sup>na</sup> (1990-dollars)	280	263	327	343
Manufacturing share <sup>na</sup> (%) (current factor prices)	6.3	10.4	13.1	..
<b>MANUFACTURING:</b>				
Value added <sup>na</sup> (millions of 1990-dollars)	20	36	64	93
Industrial production index (1990=100)	27	63	100	149
Value added (millions of dollars)	14	22	68	134
Gross output (millions of dollars)	57	66	189	378
Employment (thousands)	4	7	19	18
<b>-PROFITABILITY: (in percent of gross output)</b>				
Intermediate input (%)	75	67	65	67
Wages and salaries including supplements (%)	6	9	6	6
Gross operating surplus and net taxes (%)	18	24	28	28
<b>-PRODUCTIVITY: (dollars)</b>				
Gross output per worker	13 616	9 778	10 162	20 697
Value added per worker	3 372	3 234	3 659	7 521
Average wage (including supplements)	949	1 039	1 369	3 391
<b>-STRUCTURAL INDICES:</b>				
Structural change indicator (5-year period, %) as a percentage of 1970-1975 structural change	12.25	10.38	5.39	2.25
MVA growth rate perer unit of structural change	100	85	44	18
Degree of specialization	2.13	7.58	17.67	23.72
Degree of specialization	33.2	34.1	34.4	36.3
<b>-VALUE ADDED: (millions of dollars)</b>				
311/2 Food products	6	9	29	58
313 Beverages	5	6	20	38
314 Tobacco products	..	..	..	..
321 Textiles	1	2	7	14
322 Wearing apparel	-	1	2	4
323 Leather and fur products	-	-	-	1
324 Footwear	-	-	1	2
331 Wood and wood products	..	..	..	..
332 Furniture and fixtures	-	-	1	1
341 Paper and paper products	..	..	..	..
342 Printing and publishing	-	-	1	2
351 Industrial chemicals	..	..	..	..
352 Other chemical products	1	1	4	9
353 Petroleum refineries	..	..	..	..
354 Miscellaneous petroleum and coal products	..	..	..	..
355 Rubber products	..	..	..	..
356 Plastic products	..	..	..	..
361 Pottery, china and earthenware	..	..	..	..
362 Glass and glass products	..	..	..	..
369 Other non-metal mineral products	-	-	1	1
371 Iron and steel	..	..	..	..
372 Non-ferrous metals	..	..	..	..
381 Metal products	1	1	2	4
382 Non-electrical machinery	..	..	..	..
383 Electrical machinery	..	..	..	..
384 Transport equipment	..	..	..	..
385 Professional and scientific equipment	..	..	..	..
390 Other manufacturing industries	-	-	-	-

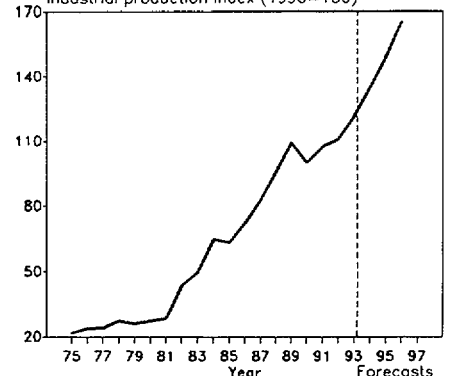
GDP per capita (1000\$)/c



Manufacturing share in GDP, current factor pr. (%)



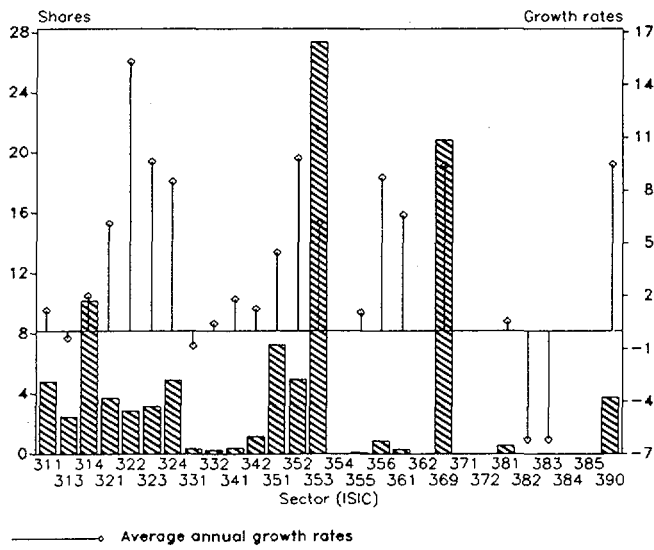
Industrial production index (1990=100)



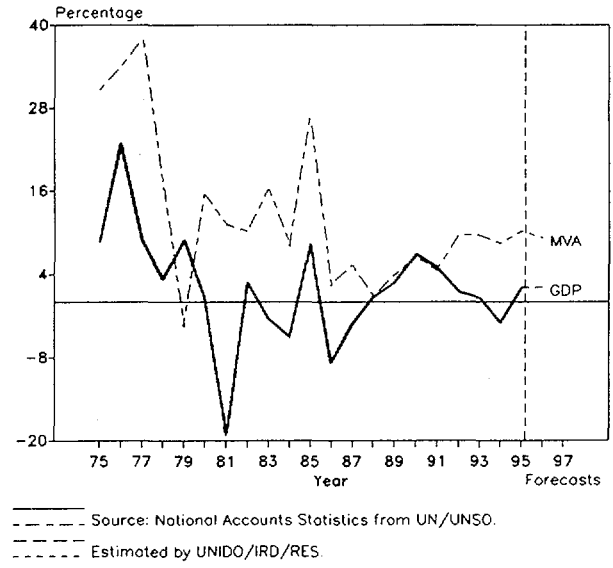
For sources, footnotes and comments see "Technical notes" at the beginning of this Annex.

LIBYAN ARAB JAMAHIRIYA

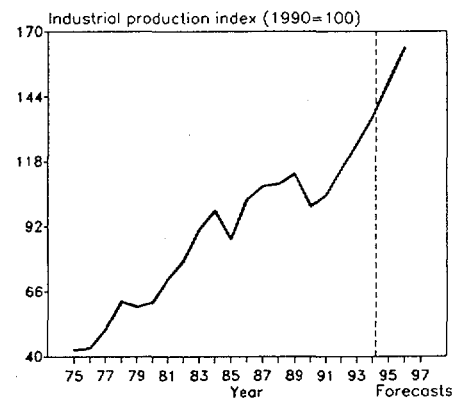
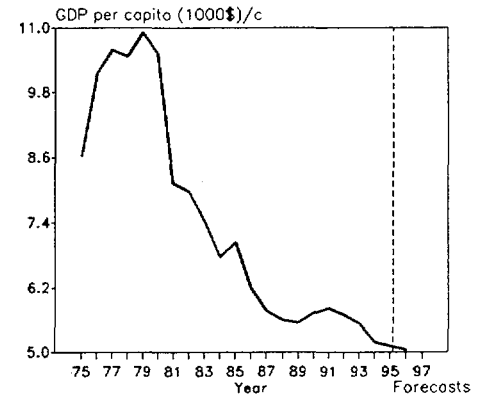
Average sectoral shares in total Value Added and average annual sectoral growth rates, 1990-1996 (Percentage)



Annual growth rates of GDP and MVA (Constant 1990 prices)



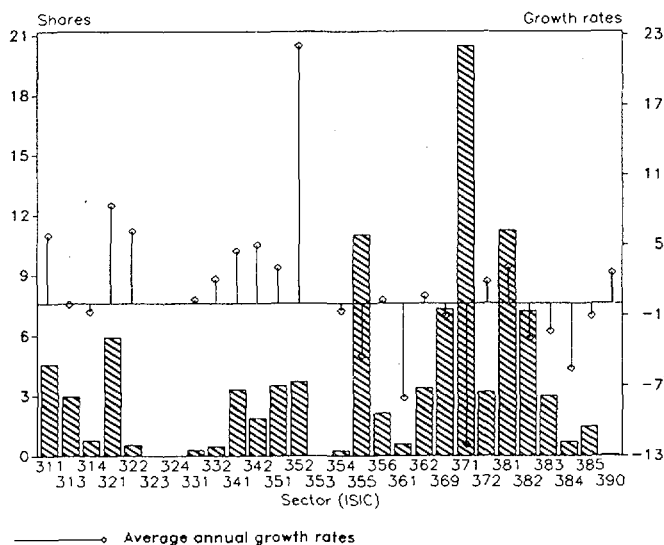
	1980	1985	1990	1995
<b>GDP:</b> <sup>na</sup> (millions of 1990-dollars)	31 992	26 663	26 078	27 664
Per capita <sup>na</sup> (1990-dollars)	10 513	7 043	5 738	5 116
Manufacturing share <sup>na</sup> (%) (current factor prices)	1.9	4.5	8.3	..
<b>MANUFACTURING:</b>				
Value added <sup>na</sup> (millions of 1990-dollars)	937	1 821	2 185	3 276
Industrial production index (1990=100)	62	87	100	150
Value added (millions of dollars)	358	541	693	857
Gross output (millions of dollars)	1 177	1 726	2 301	2 761
Employment (thousands)	18	23	26	33
<b>-PROFITABILITY: (in percent of gross output)</b>				
Intermediate input (%)	70	69	70	69
Wages and salaries including supplements (%)	13	13	12	12
Gross operating surplus and net taxes (%)	17	19	18	19
<b>-PRODUCTIVITY: (dollars)</b>				
Gross output per worker	64 186	75 484	85 187	80 602
Value added per worker	19 577	24 557	27 763	27 641
Average wage (including supplements)	8 327	9 620	10 187	9 856
<b>-STRUCTURAL INDICES:</b>				
Structural change indicator (5-year period, %) as a percentage of 1970-1975 structural change	24.39	24.47	8.08	6.74
MVA growth rate perer unit of structural change	1.40	0.93	3.31	4.28
Degree of specialization	18.9	23.0	25.9	26.3
<b>-VALUE ADDED: (millions of dollars)</b>				
311/2 Food products	35	37	38	37
313 Beverages	17	18	21	19
314 Tobacco products	55	73	79	81
321 Textiles	14	22	26	32
322 Wearing apparel	5	8	15	28
323 Leather and fur products	7	15	20	29
324 Footwear	14	25	32	44
331 Wood and wood products	3	4	3	3
332 Furniture and fixtures	2	2	2	2
341 Paper and paper products	3	3	3	3
342 Printing and publishing	-	8	9	9
351 Industrial chemicals	35	41	52	60
352 Other chemical products	21	33	31	45
353 Petroleum refineries	81	124	198	234
354 Miscellaneous petroleum and coal products	-	-	-	-
355 Rubber products	-	-	1	1
356 Plastic products	2	4	5	7
361 Pottery, china and earthenware	1	2	2	2
362 Glass and glass products	-	-	-	-
369 Other non-metal mineral products	51	99	131	187
371 Iron and steel	-	-	-	-
372 Non-ferrous metals	-	-	-	-
381 Metal products	3	5	4	4
382 Non-electrical machinery	-	-	-	-
383 Electrical machinery	-	-	-	-
384 Transport equipment	-	-	-	-
385 Professional and scientific equipment	-	-	-	-
390 Other manufacturing industries	9	18	23	34



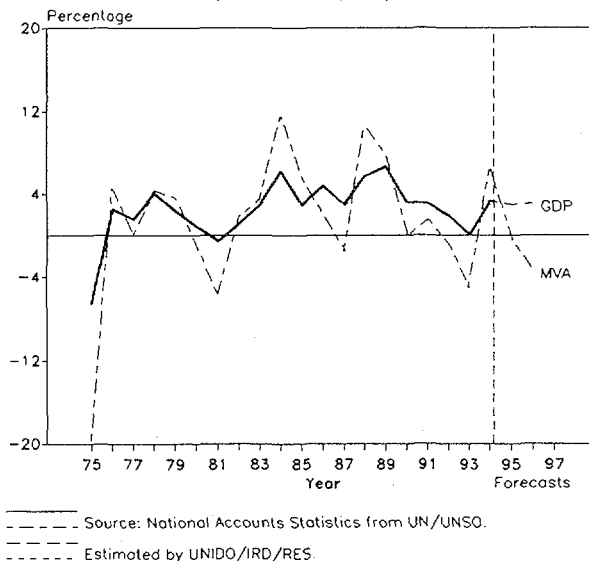
For sources, footnotes and comments see "Technical notes" at the beginning of this Annex.

LUXEMBOURG

Average sectoral shares in total Value Added and average annual sectoral growth rates, 1990-1996 (Percentage)

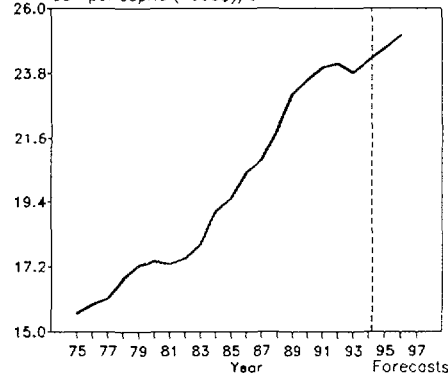


Annual growth rates of GDP and MVA (Constant 1990 prices)

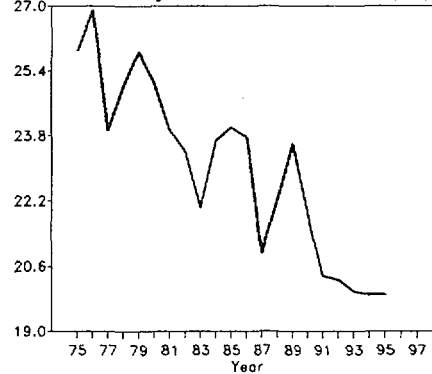


	1980	1985	1990	1995
GDP: <sup>na</sup> (millions of 1990-dollars)	6 329	7 164	8 989	10 033
Per capita <sup>na</sup> (1990-dollars)	17 386	19 520	23 594	24 650
Manufacturing share <sup>na</sup> (%) (current factor prices)	25.1	24.0	21.9	19.9
<b>MANUFACTURING:</b>				
Value added <sup>na</sup> (millions of 1990-dollars)	1 670	1 946	2 316	2 340
Industrial production index (1990=100)	69	84	100	102
Value added (millions of dollars)	1 168	944	2 130	2 459
Gross output (millions of dollars)	3 269	2 916	6 057	7 272
Employment (thousands)	38	37	36	34
<b>-PROFITABILITY: (in percent of gross output)</b>				
Intermediate input (%)	71	73	73	72
Wages and salaries including supplements (%)	26	18	18	18
Gross operating surplus and net taxes (%)	3	9	9	10
<b>-PRODUCTIVITY: (dollars)</b>				
Gross output per worker	92 439	84 771	196 286	213 982
Value added per worker	29 294	24 952	57 389	67 558
Average wage (including supplements)	23 530	15 415	34 185	41 841
<b>-STRUCTURAL INDICES:</b>				
Structural change indicator (5-year period, %) as a percentage of 1970-1975 structural change	9.73	10.82	13.41	15.51
MVA growth rate perer unit of structural change	-0.91	0.34	1.15	-0.04
Degree of specialization	39.2	33.0	21.6	14.2
<b>-VALUE ADDED: (millions of dollars)</b>				
311/2 Food products	31	33	67	118
313 Beverages	33	24	58	75
314 Tobacco products	9	6	15	19
321 Textiles	24	15	88	171
322 Wearing apparel	5	3	8	15
323 Leather and fur products	-	-	-	-
324 Footwear	-	-	-	-
331 Wood and wood products	2	3	6	8
332 Furniture and fixtures	2	3	8	12
341 Paper and paper products	21	21	56	90
342 Printing and publishing	11	11	31	52
351 Industrial chemicals	15	16	62	91
352 Other chemical products	3	8	28	117
353 Petroleum refineries	-	-	-	-
354 Miscellaneous petroleum and coal products	2	1	5	6
355 Rubber products	145	127	249	261
356 Plastic products	11	11	39	56
361 Pottery, china and earthenware	11	6	15	12
362 Glass and glass products	10	14	66	85
369 Other non-metal mineral products	50	40	154	184
371 Iron and steel	592	405	623	391
372 Non-ferrous metals	32	26	62	86
381 Metal products	24	78	210	300
382 Non-electrical machinery	98	63	158	178
383 Electrical machinery	19	19	71	77
384 Transport equipment	7	4	19	16
385 Professional and scientific equipment	10	7	32	37
390 Other manufacturing industries	-	-	1	2

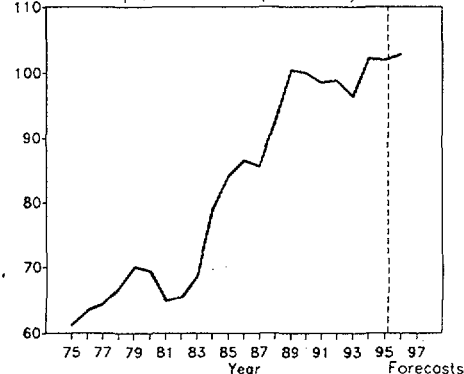
GDP per capita (1000\$/c)



Manufacturing share in GDP, current factor pr. (%)

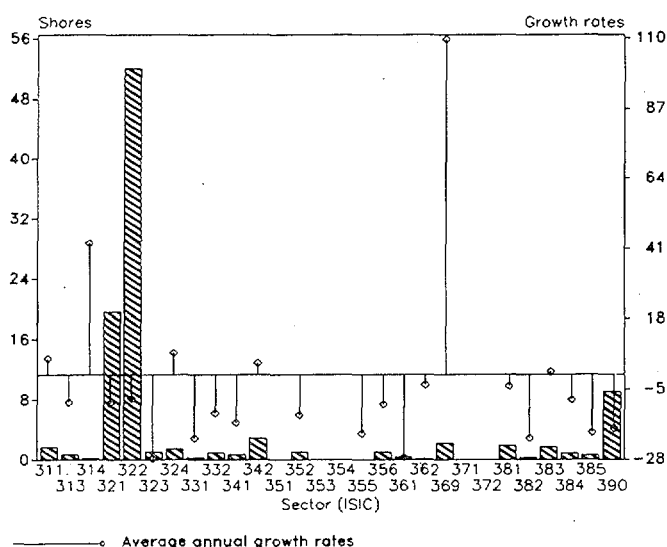


Industrial production index (1990=100)

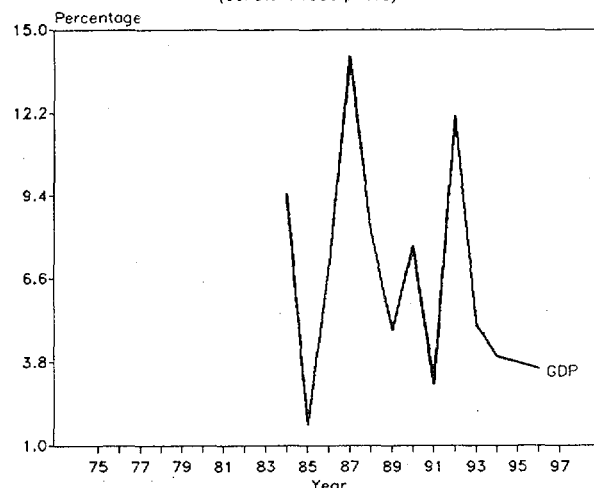


For sources, footnotes and comments see "Technical notes" at the beginning of this Annex.

Average sectoral shares in total Value Added and average annual sectoral growth rates, 1990-1996 (Percentage)

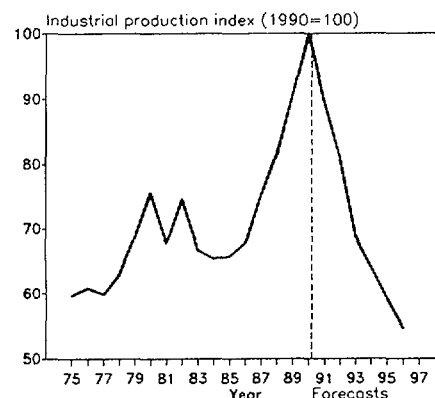
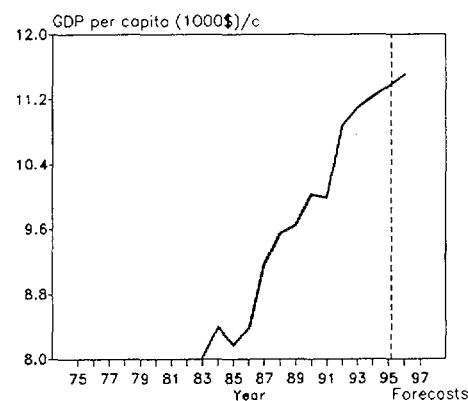


Annual growth rate of GDP (Constant 1990 prices)



Source: National Accounts Statistics from UN/UNSO.  
 Estimated by UNIDO/IRD/RES.

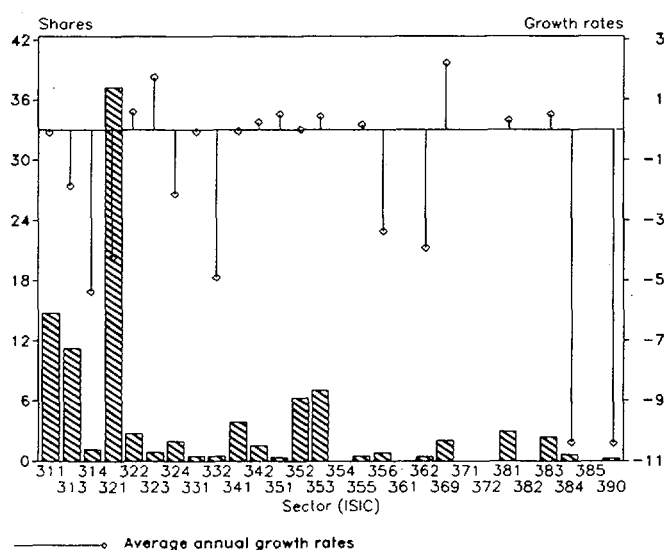
	1980	1985	1990	1995
<b>GDP:</b> <sup>na</sup> (millions of 1990-dollars)	..	2 502	3 731	4 887
Per capita <sup>na</sup> (1990-dollars)	..	8 176	10 029	11 364
Manufacturing share <sup>na</sup> (%) (current factor prices)	..	..	..	..
<b>MANUFACTURING:</b>				
Value added <sup>na</sup> (millions of 1990-dollars)	..	..	..	..
Industrial production index (1990=100)	76	66	100	59
Value added (millions of dollars)	127	225	470	450
Gross output (millions of dollars)	..	759	1 625	1 718
Employment (thousands)	46	59	63	44
<b>-PROFITABILITY: (in percent of gross output)</b>				
Intermediate input (%)	..	70	71	74
Wages and salaries including supplements (%)	..	17	16	15
Gross operating surplus and net taxes (%)	..	13	13	11
<b>-PRODUCTIVITY: (dollars)</b>				
Gross output per worker	..	12 557	25 090	37 966
Value added per worker	2 693	3 723	7 263	9 932
Average wage (including supplements)	..	2 113	4 155	5 901
<b>-STRUCTURAL INDICES:</b>				
Structural change indicator (5-year period, %) as a percentage of 1970-1975 structural change	19.69	21.94	14.73	10.70
MVA growth rate per unit of structural change	-0.93	0.04	2.39	1.09
Degree of specialization	43.2	45.4	45.7	43.4
<b>-VALUE ADDED: (millions of dollars)</b>				
311/2 Food products	1	3	6	11
313 Beverages	1	1	4	3
314 Tobacco products	-	-	-	2
321 Textiles	31	43	92	82
322 Wearing apparel	71	99	231	227
323 Leather and fur products	2	4	8	2
324 Footwear	-	1	5	10
331 Wood and wood products	1	1	2	1
332 Furniture and fixtures	1	2	5	3
341 Paper and paper products	1	2	4	2
342 Printing and publishing	4	3	9	16
351 Industrial chemicals	-	-	-	-
352 Other chemical products	-	1	6	4
353 Petroleum refineries	-	-	-	-
354 Miscellaneous petroleum and coal products	-	-	-	-
355 Rubber products	-	-	-	-
356 Plastic products	2	1	3	2
361 Pottery, china and earthenware	-	2	3	1
362 Glass and glass products	-	-	-	-
369 Other non-metal mineral products	-	-	-	23
371 Iron and steel	-	-	-	-
372 Non-ferrous metals	-	-	-	-
381 Metal products	1	1	8	9
382 Non-electrical machinery	-	-	1	1
383 Electrical machinery	2	8	7	11
384 Transport equipment	1	2	4	3
385 Professional and scientific equipment	1	3	4	2
390 Other manufacturing industries	6	46	68	34



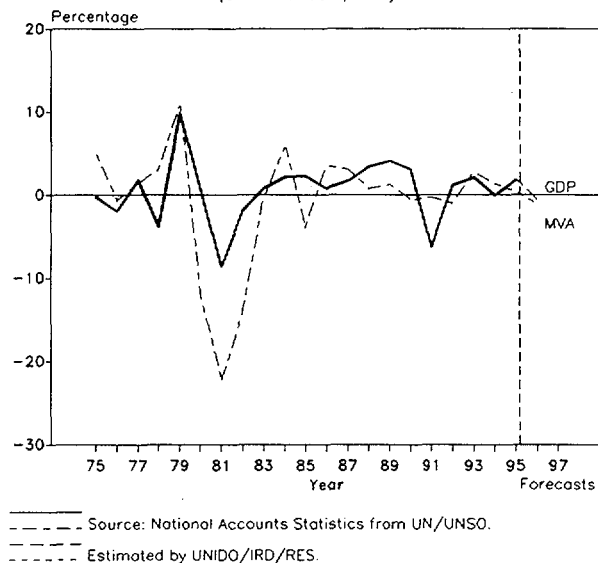
For sources, footnotes and comments see "Technical notes" at the beginning of this Annex.

## MADAGASCAR

Average sectoral shares in total Value Added and average annual sectoral growth rates, 1990-1996 (Percentage)

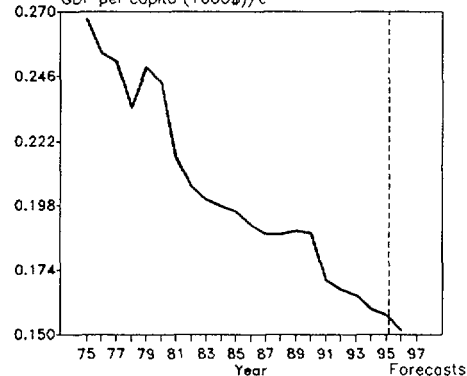


Annual growth rates of GDP and MVA (Constant 1990 prices)

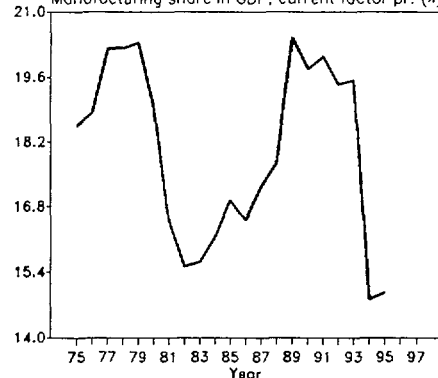


	1980	1985	1990	1995
GDP: <sup>na</sup> (millions of 1990-dollars)	2 211	2 089	2 376	2 339
Per capita <sup>na</sup> (1990-dollars)	244	196	188	157
Manufacturing share <sup>na</sup> (%) (current factor prices)	19.0	16.9	19.8	15.0
<b>MANUFACTURING:</b>				
Value added <sup>na</sup> (millions of 1990-dollars)	627	420	453	466
Industrial production index (1990=100)	121	87	100	76
Value added (millions of dollars)	221	132	142	127
Gross output (millions of dollars)	569	328	343	316
Employment (thousands)	41	47	46	50
<b>-PROFITABILITY: (in percent of gross output)</b>				
Intermediate input (%)	61	60	59	60
Wages and salaries including supplements (%)	15	16	13	13
Gross operating surplus and net taxes (%)	24	25	28	27
<b>-PRODUCTIVITY: (dollars)</b>				
Gross output per worker	14 005	6 872	7 456	6 339
Value added per worker	5 460	2 790	3 105	2 562
Average wage (including supplements)	2 083	1 099	988	837
<b>-STRUCTURAL INDICES:</b>				
Structural change indicator (5-year period, %) as a percentage of 1970-1975 structural change	17.92	24.85	31.77	19.52
MVA growth rate perer unit of structural change	0.11	-0.42	-0.09	0.22
Degree of specialization	22.4	24.2	31.3	28.1
<b>-VALUE ADDED: (millions of dollars)</b>				
311/2 Food products	23	45	19	19
313 Beverages	34	16	16	15
314 Tobacco products	3	3	2	1
321 Textiles	67	16	58	45
322 Wearing apparel	19	6	3	4
323 Leather and fur products	3	1	1	1
324 Footwear	8	5	3	2
331 Wood and wood products	2	1	1	1
332 Furniture and fixtures	2	-	1	1
341 Paper and paper products	4	3	5	5
342 Printing and publishing	6	2	2	2
351 Industrial chemicals	1	1	-	-
352 Other chemical products	10	11	8	8
353 Petroleum refineries	11	7	9	10
354 Miscellaneous petroleum and coal products	-	-	-	-
355 Rubber products	1	1	1	1
356 Plastic products	3	2	1	1
361 Pottery, china and earthenware	-	-	-	-
362 Glass and glass products	2	-	1	-
369 Other non-metal mineral products	2	1	2	3
371 Iron and steel	-	-	-	-
372 Non-ferrous metals	-	-	-	-
381 Metal products	9	5	4	4
382 Non-electrical machinery	-	-	-	-
383 Electrical machinery	3	3	3	3
384 Transport equipment	7	2	1	1
385 Professional and scientific equipment	-	-	-	-
390 Other manufacturing industries	2	1	-	-

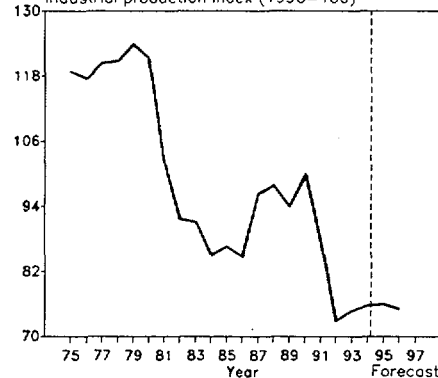
GDP per capita (1000\$)/c



Manufacturing share in GDP, current factor pr. (%)

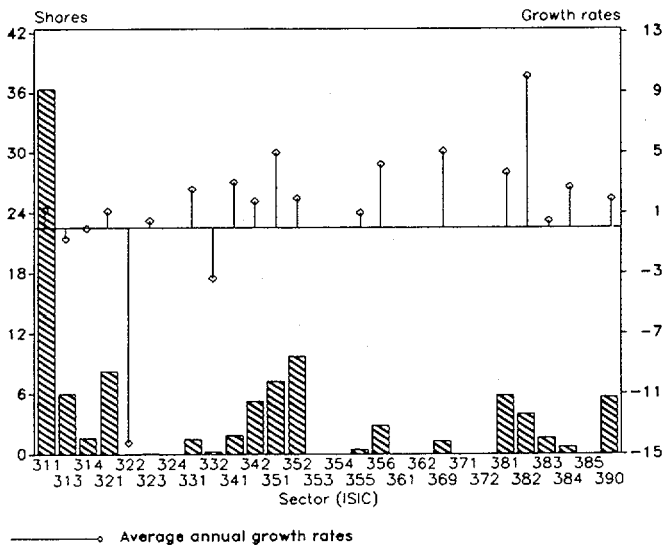


Industrial production index (1990=100)

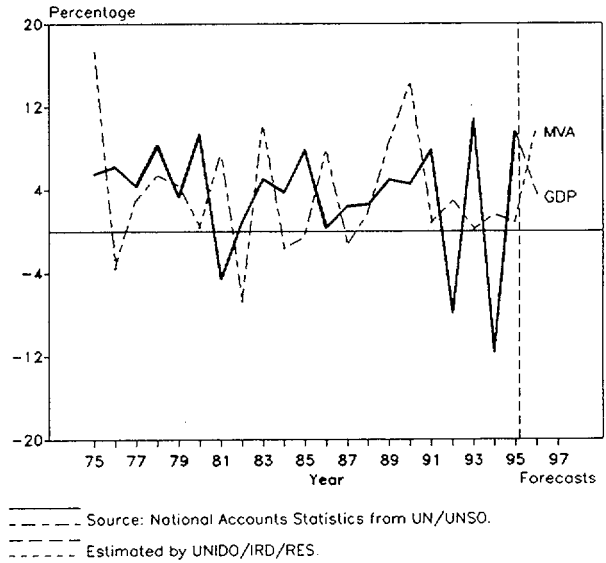


For sources, footnotes and comments see "Technical notes" at the beginning of this Annex.

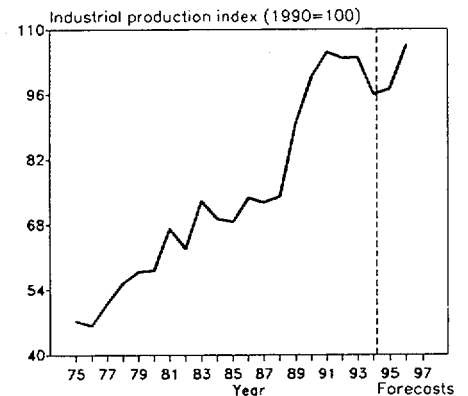
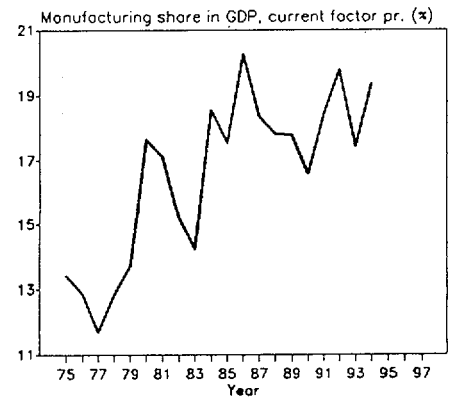
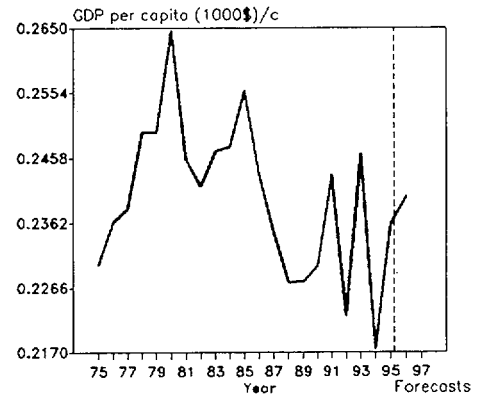
Average sectoral shares in total Value Added and average annual sectoral growth rates, 1990-1996 (Percentage)



Annual growth rates of GDP and MVA (Constant 1990 prices)



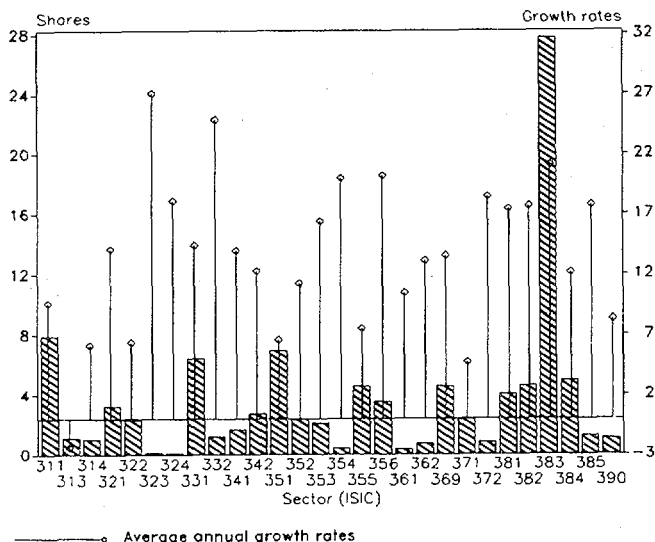
	1980	1985	1990	1995
<b>GDP:</b> <sup>na</sup> (millions of 1990-dollars)	1 636	1 853	2 145	2 283
Per capita <sup>na</sup> (1990-dollars)	265	256	230	236
Manufacturing share <sup>na</sup> (%) (current factor prices)	17.6	17.5	16.6	..
<b>MANUFACTURING:</b>				
Value added <sup>na</sup> (millions of 1990-dollars)	220	236	315	335
Industrial production index (1990=100)	58	69	100	97
Value added (millions of dollars)	123	90	193	153
Gross output (millions of dollars)	340	330	623	487
Employment (thousands)	39	31	25	28
<b>-PROFITABILITY: (in percent of gross output)</b>				
Intermediate input (%)	64	73	69	69
Wages and salaries including supplements (%)	12	10	9	9
Gross operating surplus and net taxes (%)	24	18	21	22
<b>-PRODUCTIVITY: (dollars)</b>				
Gross output per worker	8 783	10 745	23 908	16 833
Value added per worker	3 174	2 923	7 349	5 251
Average wage (including supplements)	1 046	1 035	2 318	1 627
<b>-STRUCTURAL INDICES:</b>				
Structural change indicator (5-year period, %) as a percentage of 1970-1975 structural change	20.15	30.15	32.46	16.43
MVA growth rate per unit of structural change	2.51	1.11	0.54	1.69
Degree of specialization	27.7	16.7	23.8	22.5
<b>-VALUE ADDED: (millions of dollars)</b>				
311/2 Food products	54	14	72	54
313 Beverages	8	7	13	9
314 Tobacco products	9	5	3	2
321 Textiles	12	14	16	12
322 Wearing apparel	2	1	-1	-
323 Leather and fur products	-	-	-	-
324 Footwear	1	3	..	..
331 Wood and wood products	2	2	3	2
332 Furniture and fixtures	1	1	1	-
341 Paper and paper products	2	2	3	3
342 Printing and publishing	8	6	10	8
351 Industrial chemicals	2	8	13	12
352 Other chemical products	5	14	19	15
353 Petroleum refineries	-	-	-	-
354 Miscellaneous petroleum and coal products	-	-	-	-
355 Rubber products	1	1	1	1
356 Plastic products	2	2	5	5
361 Pottery, china and earthenware	-	-	-	-
362 Glass and glass products	-	-	-	-
369 Other non-metal mineral products	3	1	2	2
371 Iron and steel	-	-	-	-
372 Non-ferrous metals	-	-	-	-
381 Metal products	6	6	11	9
382 Non-electrical machinery	-	1	6	7
383 Electrical machinery	5	1	3	2
384 Transport equipment	1	1	1	1
385 Professional and scientific equipment	-	-	-	-
390 Other manufacturing industries	-	-	11	9



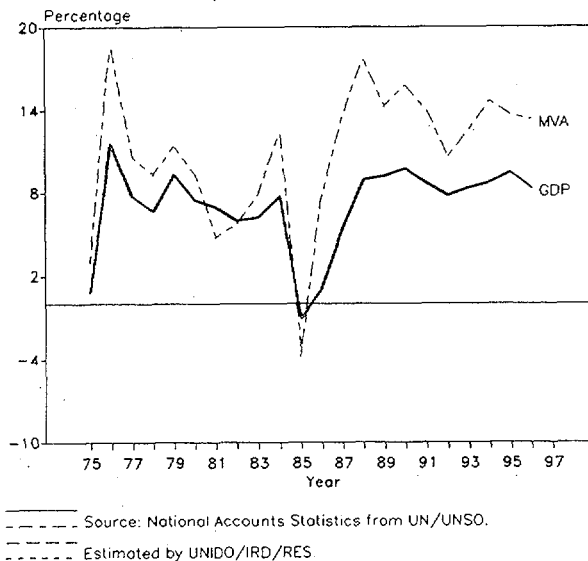
For sources, footnotes and comments see "Technical notes" at the beginning of this Annex.

**MALAYSIA**

Average sectoral shares in total Value Added and average annual sectoral growth rates, 1990-1996 (Percentage)

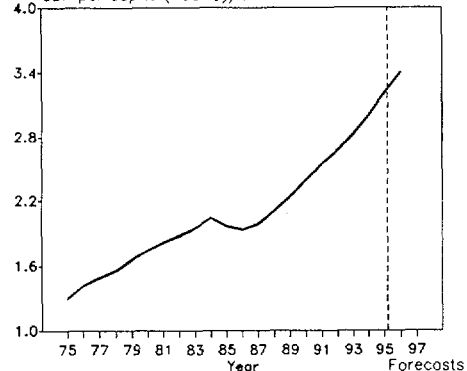


Annual growth rates of GDP and MVA (Constant 1990 prices)

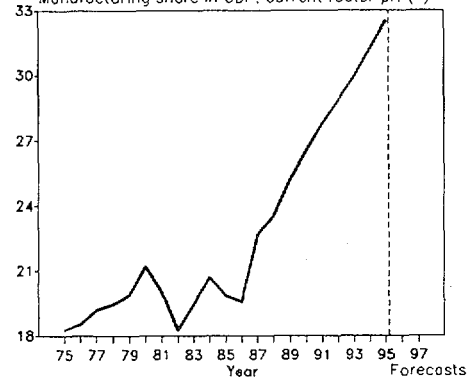


	1980	1985	1990	1995
<b>GDP:</b> <sup>na</sup> (millions of 1990-dollars)	23 989	30 784	42 822	64 688
Per capita <sup>na</sup> (1990-dollars)	1 743	1 964	2 393	3 212
Manufacturing share <sup>na</sup> (%) (current factor prices)	21.2	19.9	26.5	32.5
<b>MANUFACTURING:</b>				
Value added <sup>na</sup> (millions of 1990-dollars)	4 707	6 064	11 493	21 186
Industrial production index (1990=100)	46	53	100	200
Value added (millions of dollars)	3 624	4 879	9 068	23 831
Gross output (millions of dollars)	13 550	18 359	35 422	92 809
Employment (thousands)	456	473	831	1 299
<b>-PROFITABILITY: (in percent of gross output)</b>				
Intermediate input (%)	73	73	74	74
Wages and salaries including supplements (%)	8	9	8	7
Gross operating surplus (%)	19	18	18	19
<b>-PRODUCTIVITY: (dollars)</b>				
Gross output per worker	29 370	38 561	42 503	71 398
Value added per worker	8 067	10 249	10 881	18 475
Average wage (including supplements)	2 247	3 375	3 240	4 903
<b>-STRUCTURAL INDICES:</b>				
Structural change indicator (5-year period, %) as a percentage of 1970-1975 structural change	13.99	13.51	17.35	14.34
MVA growth rate perer unit of structural change	6.19	4.49	2.72	5.87
Degree of specialization	15.5	15.3	14.8	19.2
<b>-VALUE ADDED: (millions of dollars)</b>				
311/2 Food products	667	703	865	1 790
313 Beverages	106	122	201	206
314 Tobacco products	94	205	127	217
321 Textiles	185	133	297	774
322 Wearing apparel	67	100	280	478
323 Leather and fur products	3	2	6	32
324 Footwear	11	5	4	13
331 Wood and wood products	388	263	584	1 551
332 Furniture and fixtures	34	40	70	314
341 Paper and paper products	34	55	155	401
342 Printing and publishing	145	197	266	638
351 Industrial chemicals	79	616	748	1 298
352 Other chemical products	117	153	232	525
353 Petroleum refineries	115	136	199	589
354 Miscellaneous petroleum and coal products	2	21	32	115
355 Rubber products	295	250	528	977
356 Plastic products	69	92	261	922
361 Pottery, china and earthenware	10	13	36	77
362 Glass and glass products	24	23	73	180
369 Other non-metal mineral products	169	297	441	1 120
371 Iron and steel	79	153	287	448
372 Non-ferrous metals	39	35	63	204
381 Metal products	139	147	316	976
382 Non-electrical machinery	117	99	348	1 097
383 Electrical machinery	434	738	1 945	7 219
384 Transport equipment	153	211	494	1 156
385 Professional and scientific equipment	25	30	97	302
390 Other manufacturing industries	23	39	111	211

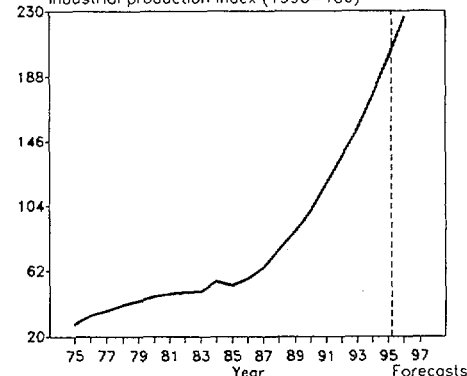
GDP per capita (1000\$)/c



Manufacturing share in GDP, current factor pr. (%)



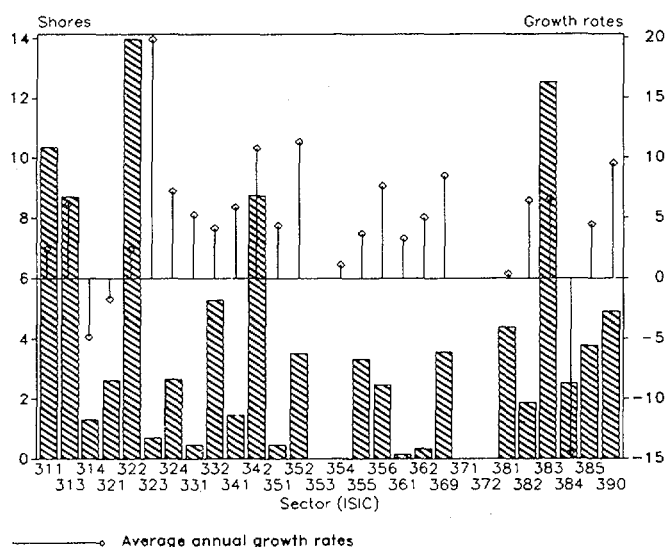
Industrial production index (1990=100)



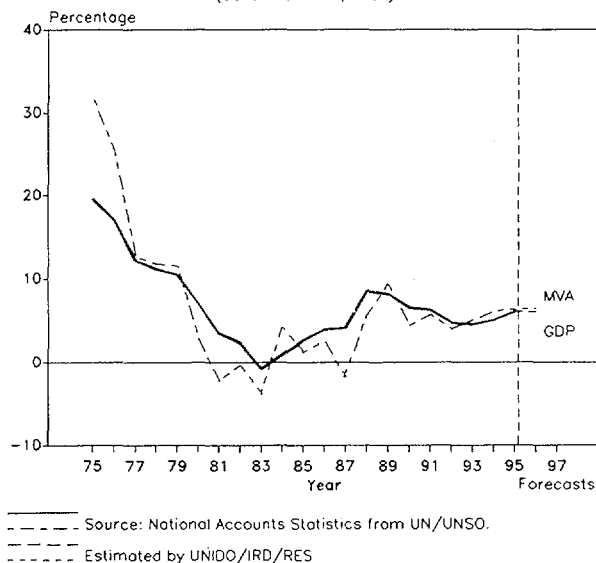
For sources, footnotes and comments see "Technical notes" at the beginning of this Annex.



Average sectoral shares in total Value Added and average annual sectoral growth rates, 1990-1996 (Percentage)



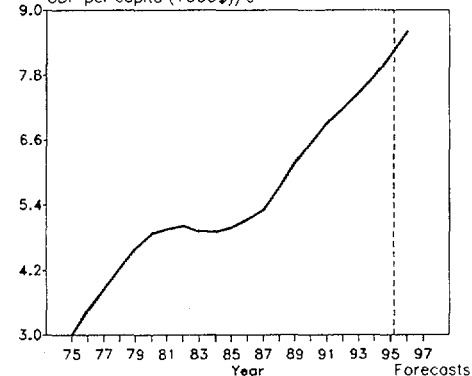
Annual growth rates of GDP and MVA (Constant 1990 prices)



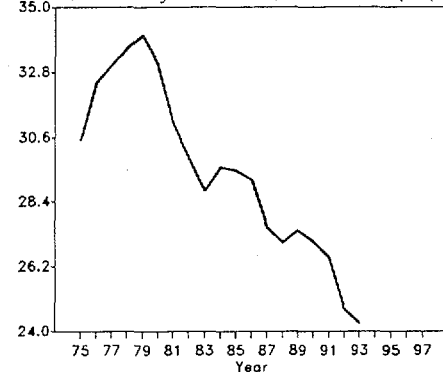
	1980	1985	1990	1995
<b>GDP:</b> <sup>na</sup> (millions of 1990-dollars)	1 577	1 715	2 318	3 000
Per capita <sup>na</sup> (1990-dollars)	4 866	4 987	6 547	8 173
Manufacturing share <sup>na</sup> (%) (current factor prices)	33.1	29.5	27.0	..
<b>MANUFACTURING:</b>				
Value added <sup>na</sup> (millions of 1990-dollars)	464	457	554	718
Industrial production index (1990=100)	72	75	100	146
Value added (millions of dollars)	302	265	511	661
Gross output (millions of dollars)	706	650	1 637	2 611
Employment (thousands)	29	26	27	28
<b>-PROFITABILITY: (in percent of gross output)</b>				
Intermediate input (%)	57	59	69	75
Wages and salaries including supplements (%)	23	22	17	13
Gross operating surplus and net taxes (%)	20	19	15	13
<b>-PRODUCTIVITY: (dollars)</b>				
Gross output per worker	23 265	24 271	58 341	88 220
Value added per worker	9 945	9 914	18 230	23 179
Average wage (including supplements)	5 653	5 561	10 150	11 943
<b>-STRUCTURAL INDICES:</b>				
Structural change indicator (5-year period, %) as a percentage of 1970-1975 structural change	22.05	12.71	13.78	11.56
MVA growth rate perer unit of structural change	3.97	3.37	0.88	1.91
Degree of specialization	18.3	17.7	13.6	13.8
<b>-VALUE ADDED: (millions of dollars)</b>				
311/2 Food products	20	25	56	65
313 Beverages	20	22	42	60
314 Tobacco products	8	8	9	7
321 Textiles	17	8	17	16
322 Wearing apparel	88	65	80	91
323 Leather and fur products	4	1	2	6
324 Footwear	8	9	12	19
331 Wood and wood products	2	1	2	3
332 Furniture and fixtures	14	9	28	35
341 Paper and paper products	2	3	7	10
342 Printing and publishing	22	17	34	61
351 Industrial chemicals	1	2	2	3
352 Other chemical products	5	6	14	25
353 Petroleum refineries	-	-	-	-
354 Miscellaneous petroleum and coal products	-	-	-	-
355 Rubber products	10	7	17	21
356 Plastic products	6	4	11	17
361 Pottery, china and earthenware	1	-	1	1
362 Glass and glass products	2	1	2	2
369 Other non-metal mineral products	6	7	15	24
371 Iron and steel	-	-	-	-
372 Non-ferrous metals	-	-	-	-
381 Metal products	14	10	26	26
382 Non-electrical machinery	5	8	8	12
383 Electrical machinery	22	31	61	88
384 Transport equipment	6	3	27	10
385 Professional and scientific equipment	12	12	19	24
390 Other manufacturing industries	8	5	21	35

For sources, footnotes and comments see "Technical notes" at the beginning of this Annex.

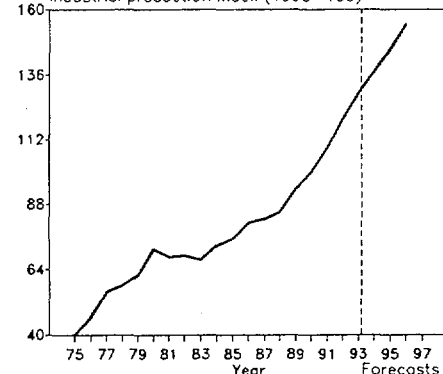
GDP per capita (1000\$)/c



Manufacturing share in GDP, current factor pr. (%)

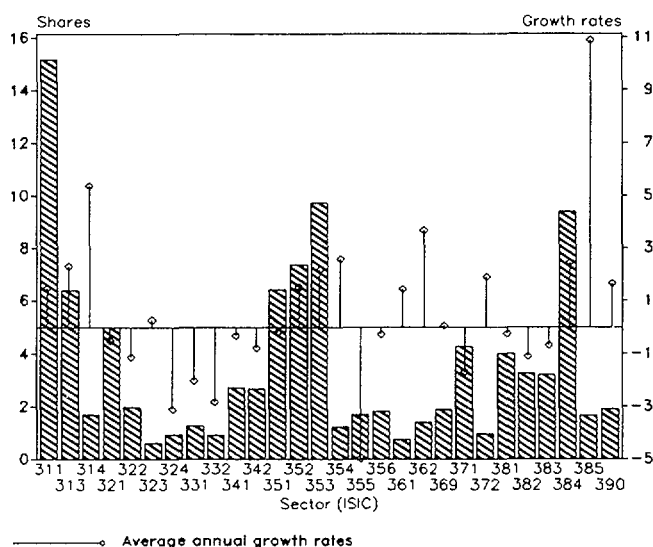


Industrial production index (1990=100)

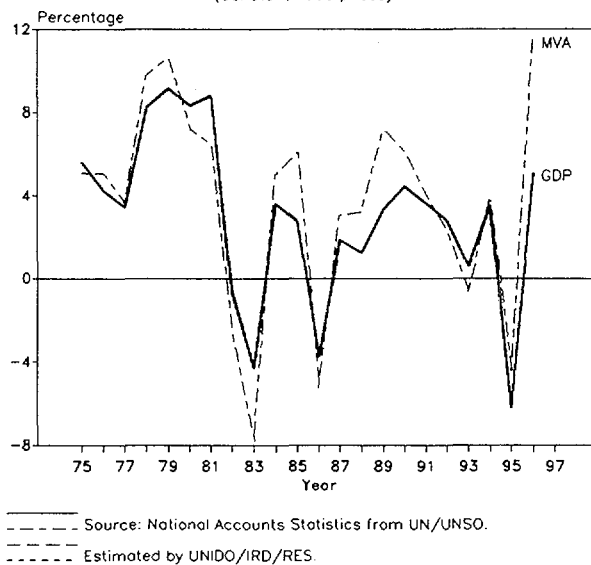


MEXICO

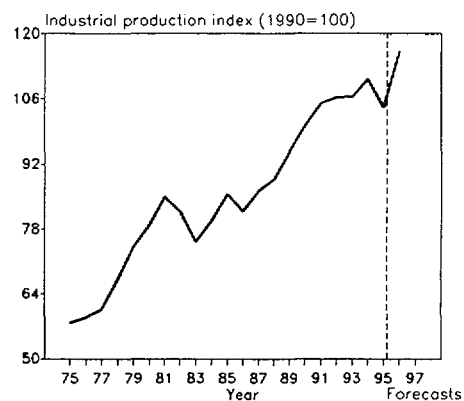
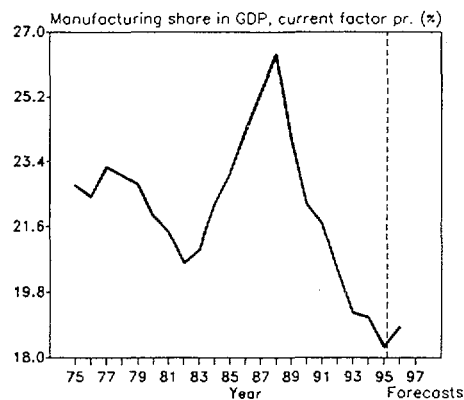
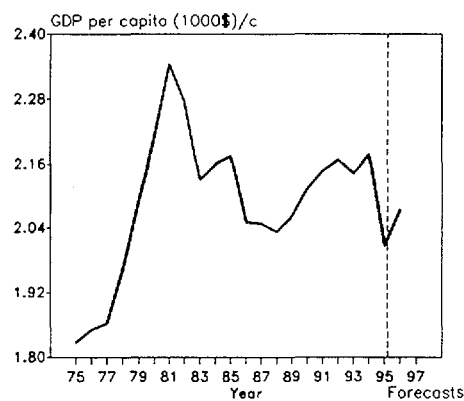
Average sectoral shares in total Value Added and average annual sectoral growth rates, 1990-1996 (Percentage)



Annual growth rates of GDP and MVA (Constant 1990 prices)

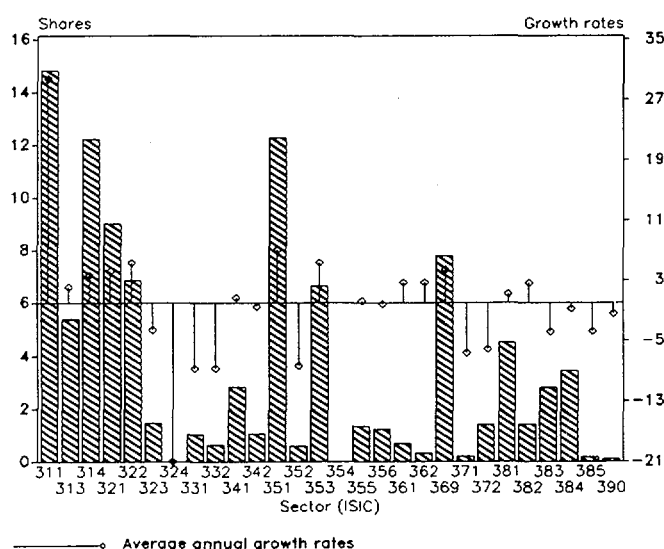


	1980	1985	1990	1995
<b>GDP:</b> <sup>na</sup> (millions of 1990-dollars)	149 105	164 127	175 839	182 964
Per capita <sup>na</sup> (1990-dollars)	2 207	2 175	2 113	2 007
Manufacturing share <sup>na</sup> (%) (current factor prices)	21.9	23.1	22.2	18.3
<b>MANUFACTURING:</b>				
Value added <sup>na</sup> (millions of 1990-dollars)	32 928	34 995	40 055	41 872
Industrial production index (1990=100)	79	86	100	104
Value added (millions of dollars)	43 048	46 373	41 416	54 750
Gross output (millions of dollars)	102 047	106 972	95 678	129 526
Employment (thousands)	2 417	2 314	2 145	1 893
<b>-PROFITABILITY: (in percent of gross output)</b>				
Intermediate input (%)	58	57	57	58
Wages and salaries including supplements (%)	14	9	9	7
Gross operating surplus and net taxes (%)	28	34	35	35
<b>-PRODUCTIVITY: (dollars)</b>				
Gross output per worker	42 221	46 227	44 602	68 057
Value added per worker	17 811	20 040	19 307	33 368
Average wage (including supplements)	5 846	4 192	3 872	5 080
<b>-STRUCTURAL INDICES:</b>				
Structural change indicator (5-year period, %) as a percentage of 1970-1975 structural change	5.06	7.88	6.85	4.43
MVA growth rate per unit of structural change	100	156	135	88
Degree of specialization	7.32	3.89	1.83	-0.36
Degree of specialization	8.9	9.6	10.4	10.9
<b>-VALUE ADDED: (millions of dollars)</b>				
311/2 Food products	6 989	7 015	6 240	8 405
313 Beverages	2 723	2 589	2 377	3 526
314 Tobacco products	623	740	571	1 017
321 Textiles	3 133	3 099	2 216	2 658
322 Wearing apparel	1 277	1 094	863	1 045
323 Leather and fur products	366	397	250	329
324 Footwear	845	658	414	463
331 Wood and wood products	919	786	609	675
332 Furniture and fixtures	784	498	407	459
341 Paper and paper products	1 189	1 180	1 196	1 463
342 Printing and publishing	1 050	1 250	1 192	1 401
351 Industrial chemicals	2 235	2 982	2 738	3 457
352 Other chemical products	2 235	2 562	2 972	4 006
353 Petroleum refineries	1 917	4 341	3 987	5 660
354 Miscellaneous petroleum and coal products	222	529	489	701
355 Rubber products	767	1 164	865	789
356 Plastic products	754	767	774	974
361 Pottery, china and earthenware	383	420	287	401
362 Glass and glass products	566	529	511	782
369 Other non-metal mineral products	1 464	1 113	752	949
371 Iron and steel	2 070	2 227	1 955	2 263
372 Non-ferrous metals	562	506	430	595
381 Metal products	1 961	1 849	1 718	2 112
382 Non-electrical machinery	2 074	1 643	1 463	1 703
383 Electrical machinery	1 900	1 635	1 374	1 678
384 Transport equipment	2 980	3 621	3 542	5 089
385 Professional and scientific equipment	305	381	485	1 112
390 Other manufacturing industries	754	798	738	1 040

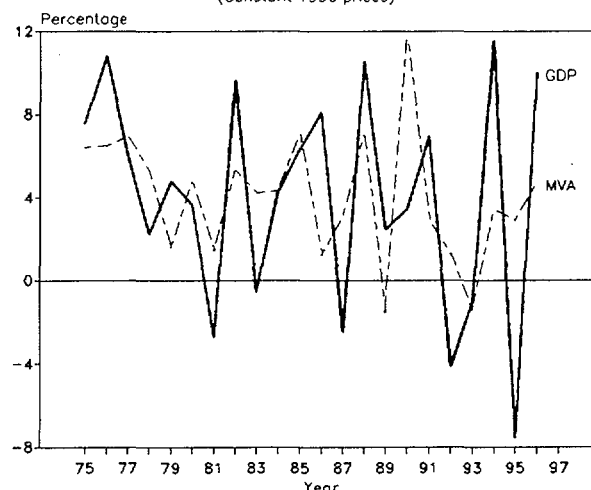


For sources, footnotes and comments see "Technical notes" at the beginning of this Annex.

Average sectoral shares in total Value Added and average annual sectoral growth rates, 1990-1996 (Percentage)



Annual growth rates of GDP and MVA (Constant 1990 prices)

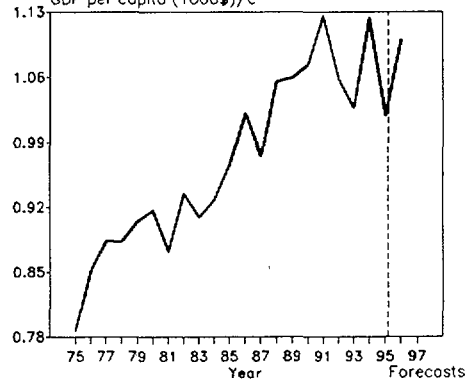


Source: National Accounts Statistics from UN/UNSO.  
 Estimated by UNIDO/IRD/RES.

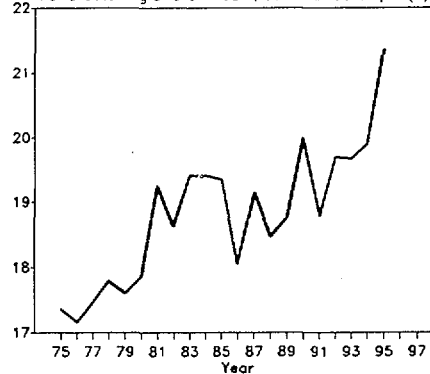
	1980	1985	1990	1995
<b>GDP:</b> <sup>na</sup> (millions of 1990-dollars)	17 776	20 900	25 826	27 027
Per capita <sup>na</sup> (1990-dollars)	917	965	1 074	1 019
Manufacturing share <sup>na</sup> (%) (current factor prices)	17.8	19.4	20.0	21.4
<b>MANUFACTURING:</b>				
Value added <sup>na</sup> (millions of 1990-dollars)	3 205	3 984	4 888	5 333
Industrial production index (1990=100)	82	88	100	107
Value added (millions of dollars)	1 485	1 399	3 289	5 485
Gross output (millions of dollars)	6 242	4 685	11 206	15 664
Employment (thousands)	176	227	307	454
<b>-PROFITABILITY: (in percent of gross output)</b>				
Intermediate input (%)	77	71	72	66
Wages and salaries including supplements (%)	13	12	11	12
Gross operating surplus and net taxes (%)	10	17	18	21
<b>-PRODUCTIVITY: (dollars)</b>				
Gross output per worker	33 920	19 779	35 272	33 570
Value added per worker	7 801	5 736	10 011	11 282
Average wage (including supplements)	4 363	2 434	3 774	4 144
<b>-STRUCTURAL INDICES:</b>				
Structural change indicator (5-year period, %)	10.70	14.63	13.75	11.51
as a percentage of 1970-1975 structural change	100	137	128	108
MVA growth rate per unit of structural change	3.01	2.50	3.76	3.55
Degree of specialization	12.8	14.9	14.0	18.9
<b>-VALUE ADDED: (millions of dollars)</b>				
311/2 Food products	130	110	144	838
313 Beverages	62	92	209	292
314 Tobacco products	38	150	423	677
321 Textiles	202	172	315	488
322 Wearing apparel	32	45	228	385
323 Leather and fur products	15	30	68	70
324 Footwear	24	-	-	-
331 Wood and wood products	30	25	49	41
332 Furniture and fixtures	19	16	30	25
341 Paper and paper products	64	64	151	186
342 Printing and publishing	26	19	43	52
351 Industrial chemicals	127	166	403	743
352 Other chemical products	97	13	30	24
353 Petroleum refineries	114	100	217	368
354 Miscellaneous petroleum and coal products	..	..	..	..
355 Rubber products	34	35	54	68
356 Plastic products	20	20	45	60
361 Pottery, china and earthenware	6	6	25	36
362 Glass and glass products	10	6	11	16
369 Other non-metal mineral products	154	92	264	429
371 Iron and steel	7	1	10	9
372 Non-ferrous metals	8	7	71	69
381 Metal products	110	96	166	220
382 Non-electrical machinery	30	23	49	68
383 Electrical machinery	61	56	132	138
384 Transport equipment	62	49	140	172
385 Professional and scientific equipment	1	3	7	7
390 Other manufacturing industries	2	1	4	4

For sources, footnotes and comments see "Technical notes" at the beginning of this Annex.

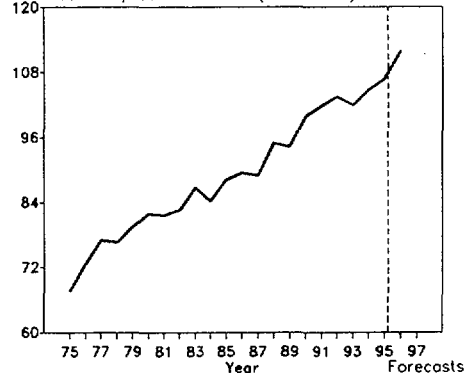
GDP per capita (1000\$)/c



Manufacturing share in GDP, current factor pr. (%)

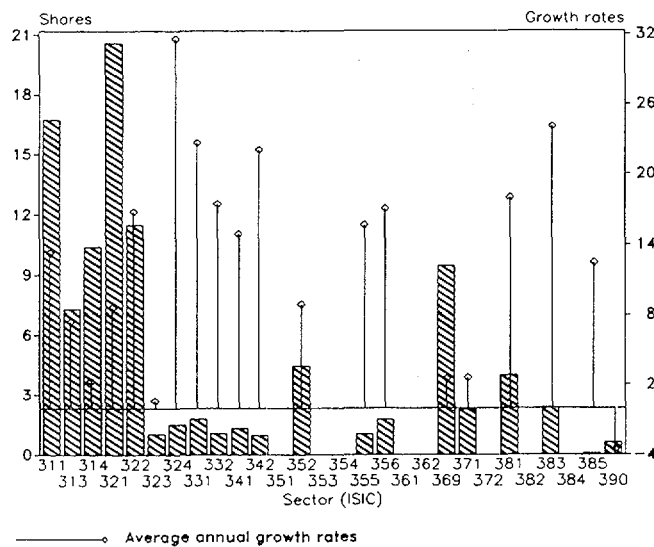


Industrial production index (1990=100)

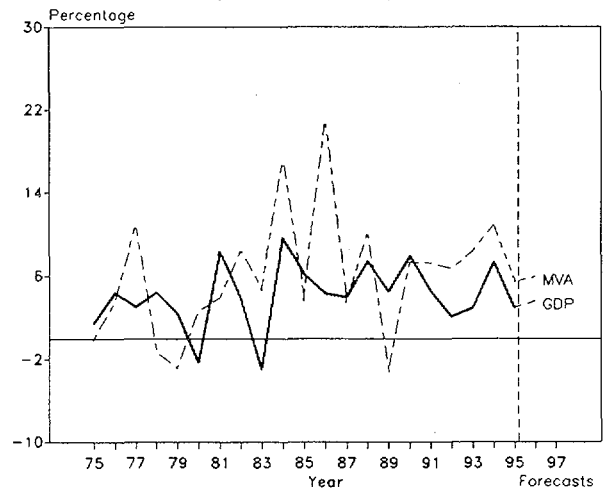


NEPAL

Average sectoral shares in total Value Added and average annual sectoral growth rates, 1990-1996 (Percentage)



Annual growth rates of GDP and MVA (Constant 1990 prices)

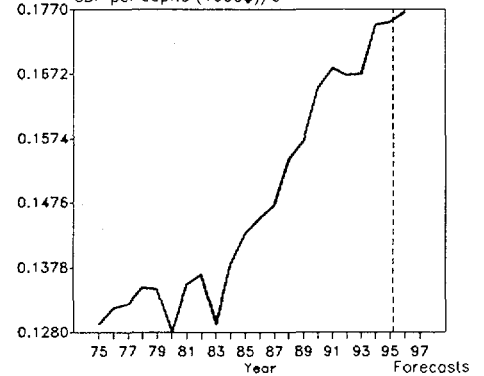


Source: National Accounts Statistics from UN/UNSO.  
Estimated by UNIDO/IRD/RES.

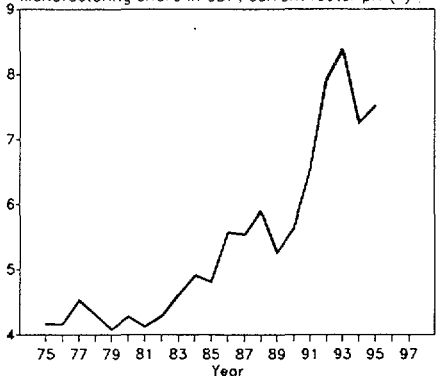
	1980	1985	1990	1995
GDP: <sup>na</sup> (millions of 1990-dollars)	1 858	2 359	3 099	3 756
Per capita <sup>na</sup> (1990-dollars)	128	143	165	175
Manufacturing share <sup>na</sup> (%) (current factor prices)	4.3	4.8	5.6	7.5
<b>MANUFACTURING:</b>				
Value added <sup>na</sup> (millions of 1990-dollars)	80	114	163	235
Industrial production index (1990=100)	60	92	100	144
Value added (millions of dollars)	83	100	269	421
Gross output (millions of dollars)	510	473	656	1 049
Employment (thousands)	56	78	156	239
<b>-PROFITABILITY: (in percent of gross output)</b>				
Intermediate input (%)	84	79	59	60
Wages and salaries including supplements (%)	3	4	10	9
Gross operating surplus and net taxes (%)	13	17	31	31
<b>-PRODUCTIVITY: (dollars)</b>				
Gross output per worker	8 609	5 737	4 067	4 045
Value added per worker	1 411	1 274	1 666	1 625
Average wage (including supplements)	295	236	400	399
<b>-STRUCTURAL INDICES:</b>				
Structural change indicator (5-year period, %) as a percentage of 1970-1975 structural change	7.43	19.47	24.11	17.75
MVA growth rate perer unit of structural change	100	262	325	239
Degree of specialization	2.44	0.98	3.51	6.00
Degree of specialization	33.7	26.1	20.5	17.5
<b>-VALUE ADDED: (millions of dollars)</b>				
311/2 Food products	35	32	38	74
313 Beverages	1	3	23	31
314 Tobacco products	14	15	40	41
321 Textiles	5	13	54	78
322 Wearing apparel	1	4	24	54
323 Leather and fur products	1	2	4	4
324 Footwear	-	-	1	7
331 Wood and wood products	2	2	3	8
332 Furniture and fixtures	4	1	2	4
341 Paper and paper products	-	1	3	6
342 Printing and publishing	1	2	2	5
351 Industrial chemicals	-	-	-	-
352 Other chemical products	2	5	13	20
353 Petroleum refineries	..	..	..	..
354 Miscellaneous petroleum and coal products	..	..	..	..
355 Rubber products	-	-	2	5
356 Plastic products	-	1	3	8
361 Pottery, china and earthenware	..	..	..	..
362 Glass and glass products	..	..	..	..
369 Other non-metal mineral products	3	12	34	35
371 Iron and steel	3	2	8	9
372 Non-ferrous metals	..	..	..	..
381 Metal products	1	3	8	19
382 Non-electrical machinery	..	..	..	..
383 Electrical machinery	1	1	4	12
384 Transport equipment	..	..	..	..
385 Professional and scientific equipment	-	-	-	-
390 Other manufacturing industries	9	1	3	2

For sources, footnotes and comments see "Technical notes" at the beginning of this Annex.

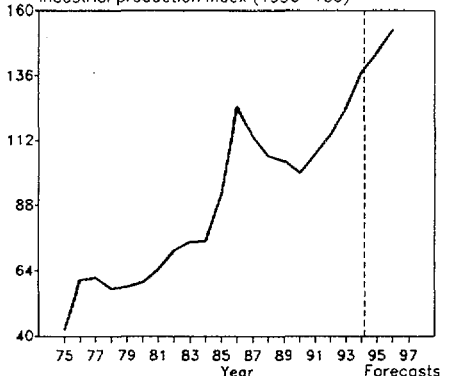
GDP per capita (1000\$)/c



Manufacturing share in GDP, current factor pr. (%)

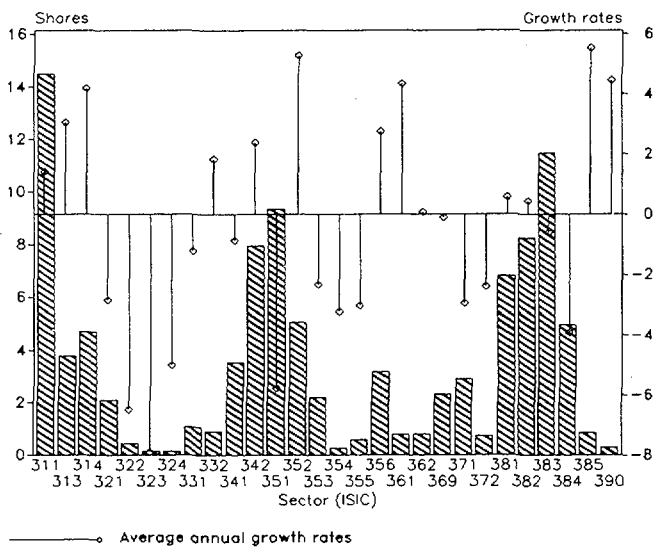


Industrial production index (1990=100)

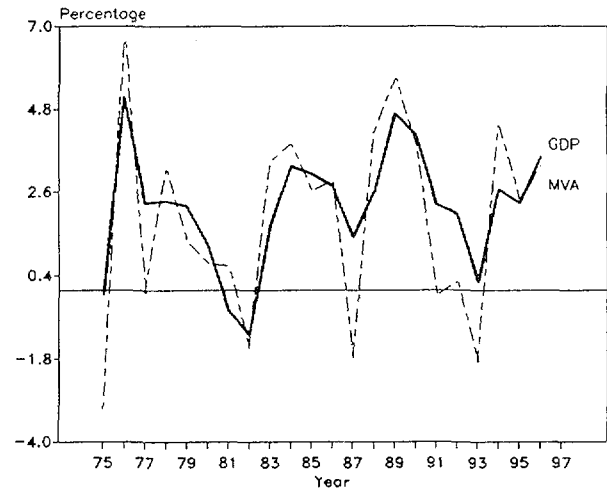


## NETHERLANDS

Average sectoral shares in total Value Added and average annual sectoral growth rates, 1990-1996 (Percentage)



Annual growth rates of GDP and MVA (Constant 1990 prices)

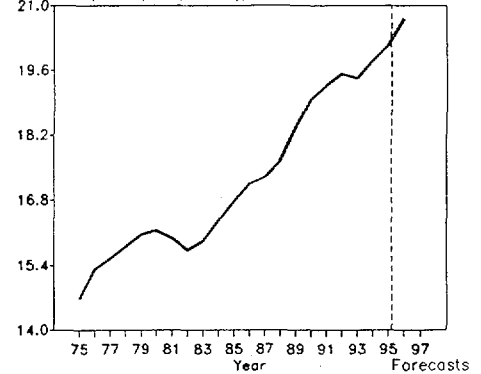


Source: National Accounts Statistics from UN/UNSO.

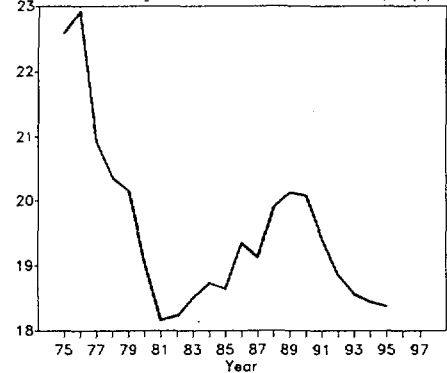
Estimated by UNIDO/IRD/RES

	1980	1985	1990	1995
GDP: <sup>na</sup> (millions of 1990-dollars)	228 472	243 292	283 525	311 472
Per capita <sup>na</sup> (1990-dollars)	16 153	16 788	18 962	20 118
Manufacturing share <sup>na</sup> (%) (current factor prices)	19.1	18.6	20.1	18.4
<b>MANUFACTURING:</b>				
Value added <sup>na</sup> (millions of 1990-dollars)	42 722	46 648	53 804	56 422
Industrial production index (1990=100)	77	86	100	107
Value added (millions of dollars)	29 080	20 595	44 818	56 417
Gross output (millions of dollars)	109 618	80 068	153 729	184 177
Employment (thousands)	944	797	780	701
<b>-PROFITABILITY: (in percent of gross output)</b>				
Intermediate input (%)	73	74	71	69
Wages and salaries including supplements (%)	20	21	19	16
Gross operating surplus and net taxes (%)	7	5	10	15
<b>-PRODUCTIVITY: (dollars)</b>				
Gross output per worker	110 019	87 824	157 892	260 794
Value added per worker	29 285	22 782	46 329	83 229
Average wage (including supplements)	23 135	21 037	37 835	41 230
<b>-STRUCTURAL INDICES:</b>				
Structural change indicator (5-year period, %) as a percentage of 1970-1975 structural change	5.56	8.78	7.91	5.27
MVA growth rate per unit of structural change	100	158	142	95
Degree of specialization	-0.74	-0.36	0.78	0.85
Degree of specialization	15.0	15.5	15.2	14.9
<b>-VALUE ADDED: (millions of dollars)</b>				
311/2 Food products	4 562	2 896	6 037	8 344
313 Beverages	654	737	1 500	2 252
314 Tobacco products	282	775	1 848	2 920
321 Textiles	734	463	1 002	1 117
322 Wearing apparel	372	134	234	217
323 Leather and fur products	68	34	70	59
324 Footwear	118	51	72	73
331 Wood and wood products	594	234	477	578
332 Furniture and fixtures	418	164	362	509
341 Paper and paper products	805	660	1 618	1 952
342 Printing and publishing	2 480	1 446	3 217	4 656
351 Industrial chemicals	2 263	2 436	5 592	4 826
352 Other chemical products	913	902	1 846	3 130
353 Petroleum refineries	533	521	1 095	1 195
354 Miscellaneous petroleum and coal products	101	55	131	138
355 Rubber products	156	139	284	300
356 Plastic products	472	466	1 305	1 865
361 Pottery, china and earthenware	134	77	304	493
362 Glass and glass products	245	145	358	457
369 Other non-metal mineral products	893	465	1 016	1 290
371 Iron and steel	882	793	1 484	1 573
372 Non-ferrous metals	371	215	341	380
381 Metal products	2 455	1 293	2 904	3 811
382 Non-electrical machinery	2 369	1 628	3 552	4 604
383 Electrical machinery	3 687	2 656	5 286	6 445
384 Transport equipment	1 927	1 015	2 464	2 524
385 Professional and scientific equipment	237	146	308	527
390 Other manufacturing industries	356	49	111	179

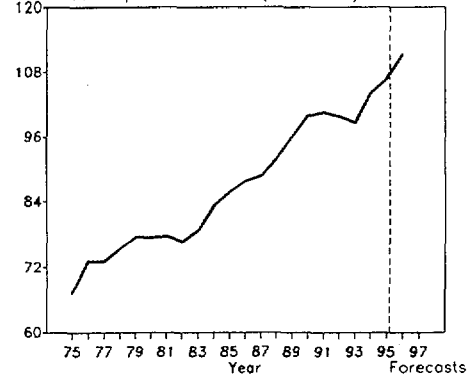
GDP per capita (1000\$)/c



Manufacturing share in GDP, current factor pr. (%)



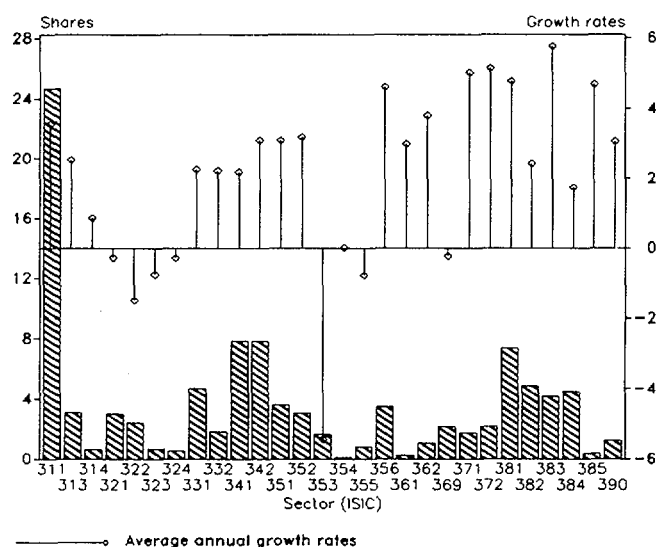
Industrial production index (1990=100)



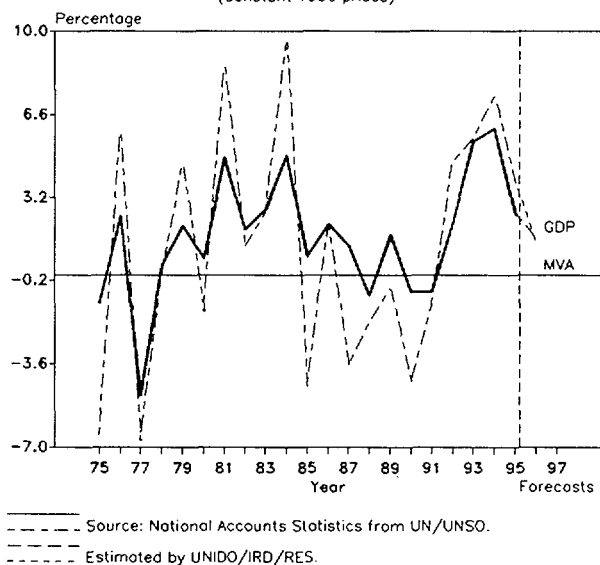
For sources, footnotes and comments see "Technical notes" at the beginning of this Annex.

## NEW ZEALAND

Average sectoral shares in total Value Added and average annual sectoral growth rates, 1990-1996 (Percentage)

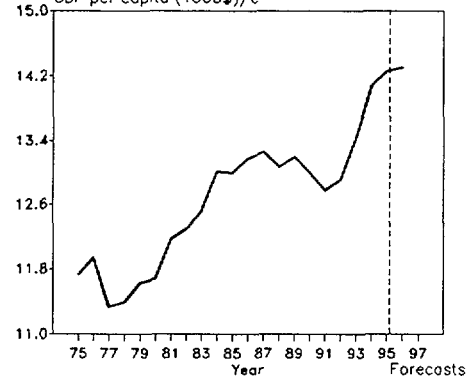


Annual growth rates of GDP and MVA (Constant 1990 prices)



	1980	1985	1990	1995
GDP: <sup>na</sup> (millions of 1990-dollars)	36 354	42 183	43 657	50 789
Per capita <sup>na</sup> (1990-dollars)	11 678	12 991	12 993	14 262
Manufacturing share <sup>na</sup> (%) (current factor prices)	21.7	20.7	18.2	18.9
<b>MANUFACTURING:</b>				
Value added <sup>na</sup> (millions of 1990-dollars)	7 086	8 335	7 636	9 283
Industrial production index (1990=100)	93	104	100	122
Value added (millions of dollars)	4 756	4 657	6 923	9 878
Gross output (millions of dollars)	14 790	15 399	23 433	33 635
Employment (thousands)	285	278	212	233
<b>-PROFITABILITY: (in percent of gross output)</b>				
Intermediate input (%)	68	70	70	71
Wages and salaries including supplements (%)	22	18	18	16
Gross operating surplus and net taxes (%)	10	12	12	13
<b>-PRODUCTIVITY: (dollars)</b>				
Gross output per worker	51 964	50 964	100 229	125 417
Value added per worker	16 711	15 414	29 611	37 594
Average wage (including supplements)	11 354	10 180	19 410	23 308
<b>-STRUCTURAL INDICES:</b>				
Structural change indicator (5-year period, %)	6.03	5.05	6.79	6.07
as a percentage of 1970-1975 structural change	100	84	113	101
MVA growth rate per unit of structural change	2.82	1.46	-0.89	-0.29
Degree of specialization	14.6	14.7	15.3	16.3
<b>-VALUE ADDED: (millions of dollars)</b>				
311/2 Food products	1 098	1 082	1 676	2 482
313 Beverages	110	93	216	301
314 Tobacco products	30	19	45	57
321 Textiles	222	193	232	284
322 Wearing apparel	185	170	202	225
323 Leather and fur products	45	46	54	63
324 Footwear	55	46	41	50
331 Wood and wood products	253	257	323	452
332 Furniture and fixtures	92	95	126	176
341 Paper and paper products	266	276	553	756
342 Printing and publishing	294	326	537	775
351 Industrial chemicals	140	134	249	357
352 Other chemical products	155	142	211	310
353 Petroleum refineries	26	-1	137	136
354 Miscellaneous petroleum and coal products	9	7	9	11
355 Rubber products	96	70	62	74
356 Plastic products	110	138	229	359
361 Pottery, china and earthenware	13	11	18	26
362 Glass and glass products	44	41	70	106
369 Other non-metal mineral products	114	127	169	207
371 Iron and steel	93	71	113	180
372 Non-ferrous metals	82	102	139	224
381 Metal products	371	404	480	761
382 Non-electrical machinery	235	264	340	474
383 Electrical machinery	239	200	260	439
384 Transport equipment	318	274	322	432
385 Professional and scientific equipment	14	20	24	37
390 Other manufacturing industries	45	48	86	124

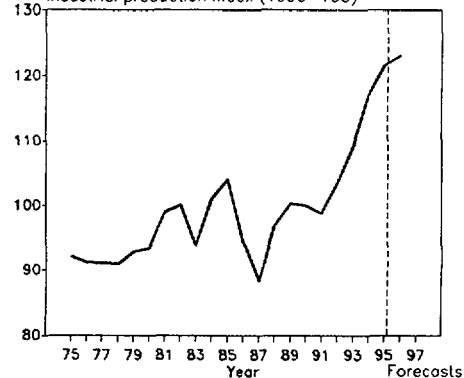
GDP per capita (1000\$)/c



Manufacturing share in GDP, current factor pr. (%)



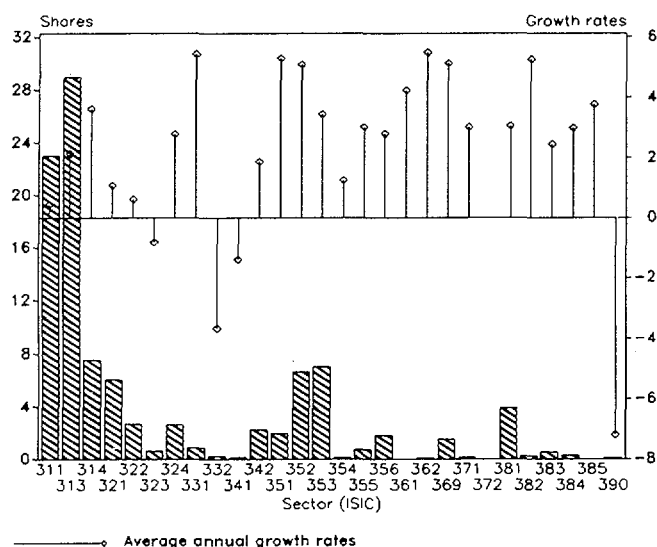
Industrial production index (1990=100)



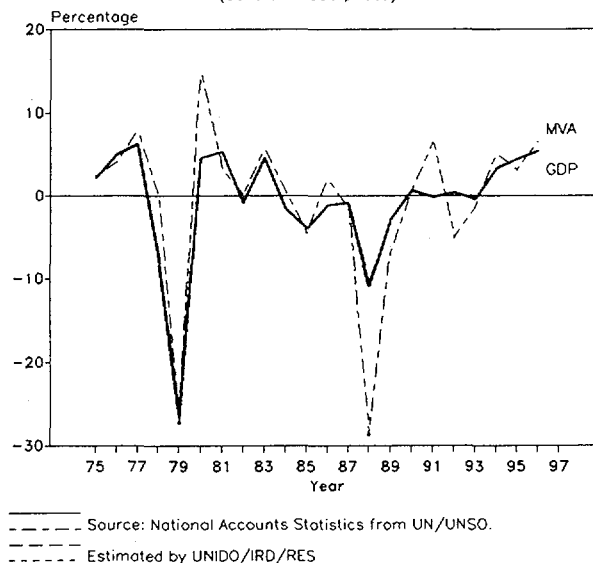
For sources, footnotes and comments see "Technical notes" at the beginning of this Annex.

## NICARAGUA

Average sectoral shares in total Value Added and average annual sectoral growth rates, 1990-1996 (Percentage)

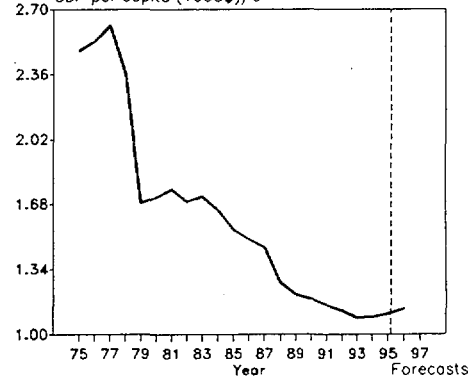


Annual growth rates of GDP and MVA (Constant 1990 prices)

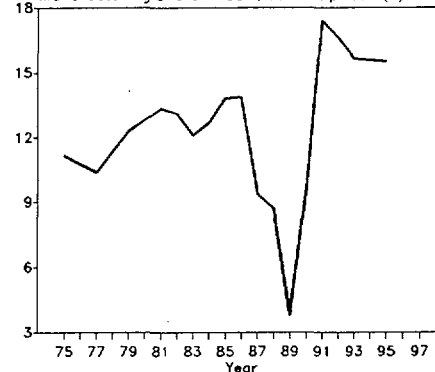


	1980	1985	1990	1995
GDP: <sup>na</sup> (millions of 1990-dollars)	4 788	4 951	4 232	4 563
Per capita <sup>na</sup> (1990-dollars)	1 716	1 546	1 186	1 107
Manufacturing share <sup>na</sup> (%) (current factor prices)	12.8	13.8	9.4	15.5
<b>MANUFACTURING:</b>				
Value added <sup>na</sup> (millions of 1990-dollars)	373	390	260	280
Industrial production index (1990=100)	105	107	100	108
Value added (millions of dollars)	242	982	1 606	700
Gross output (millions of dollars)	612	1 587	2 434	1 052
Employment (thousands)	34	39	47	59
<b>-PROFITABILITY: (in percent of gross output)</b>				
Intermediate input (%)	60	38	34	33
Wages and salaries including supplements (%)	12	10	11	12
Gross operating surplus and net taxes (%)	28	52	55	55
<b>-PRODUCTIVITY: (dollars)</b>				
Gross output per worker	18 017	38 009	48 250	16 676
Value added per worker	7 131	23 515	31 846	11 101
Average wage (including supplements)	2 078	4 152	5 750	2 085
<b>-STRUCTURAL INDICES:</b>				
Structural change indicator (5-year period, %)	18.18	22.25	11.41	4.85
as a percentage of 1970-1975 structural change	100	122	63	27
MVA growth rate per unit of structural change	0.20	-0.39	0.44	-0.46
Degree of specialization	27.7	29.6	31.4	31.5
<b>-VALUE ADDED: (millions of dollars)</b>				
311/2 Food products	52	268	392	157
313 Beverages	48	227	452	200
314 Tobacco products	28	64	118	55
321 Textiles	9	70	102	42
322 Wearing apparel	4	23	44	18
323 Leather and fur products	2	6	11	4
324 Footwear	4	27	42	19
331 Wood and wood products	3	10	13	7
332 Furniture and fixtures	1	4	4	1
341 Paper and paper products	1	3	3	1
342 Printing and publishing	4	22	36	16
351 Industrial chemicals	11	23	30	15
352 Other chemical products	14	56	100	49
353 Petroleum refineries	35	78	110	49
354 Miscellaneous petroleum and coal products	-	1	2	1
355 Rubber products	1	6	11	5
356 Plastic products	4	20	29	13
361 Pottery, china and earthenware	-	2	-	-
362 Glass and glass products	-	1	1	1
369 Other non-metal mineral products	7	17	23	11
371 Iron and steel	-	1	2	1
372 Non-ferrous metals	-	-	-	-
381 Metal products	9	40	62	28
382 Non-electrical machinery	-	3	4	2
383 Electrical machinery	1	5	8	4
384 Transport equipment	1	3	4	2
385 Professional and scientific equipment	1	-	-	-
390 Other manufacturing industries	-	2	2	1

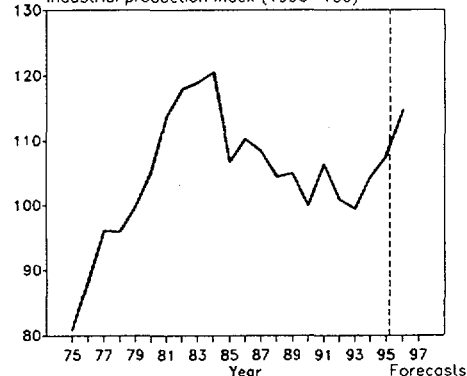
GDP per capita (1000\$)/c



Manufacturing share in GDP, current prices (%)



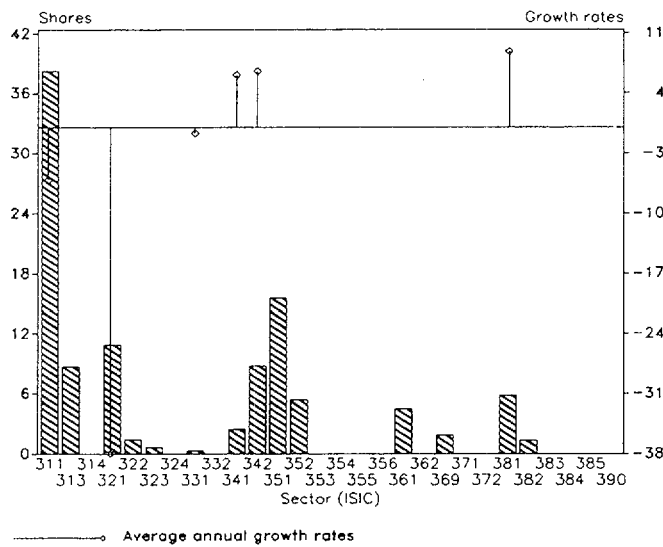
Industrial production index (1990=100)



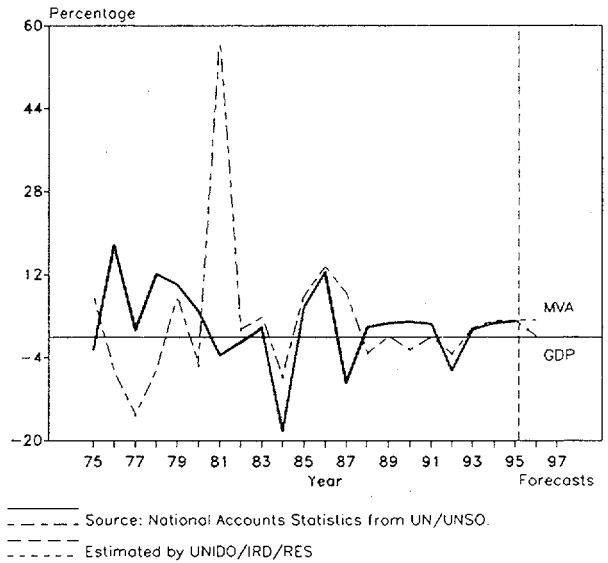
For sources, footnotes and comments see "Technical notes" at the beginning of this Annex.

**NIGER**

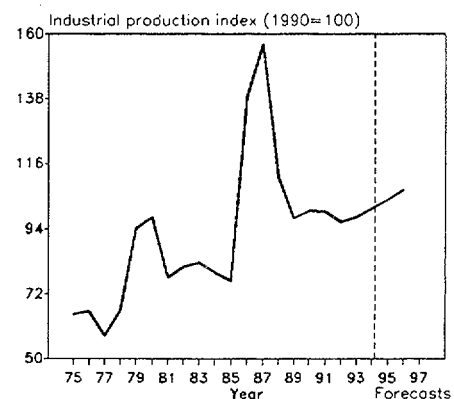
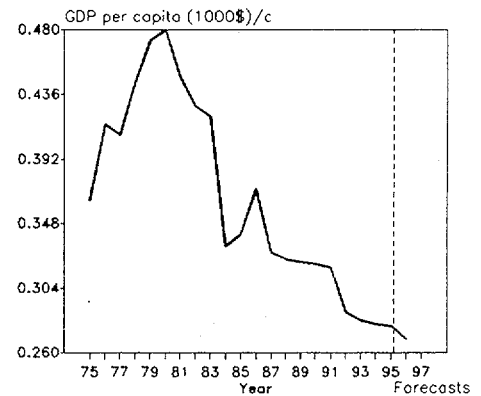
Average sectoral shares in total Value Added and average annual sectoral growth rates, 1990-1996 (Percentage)



Annual growth rates of GDP and MVA (Constant 1990 prices)



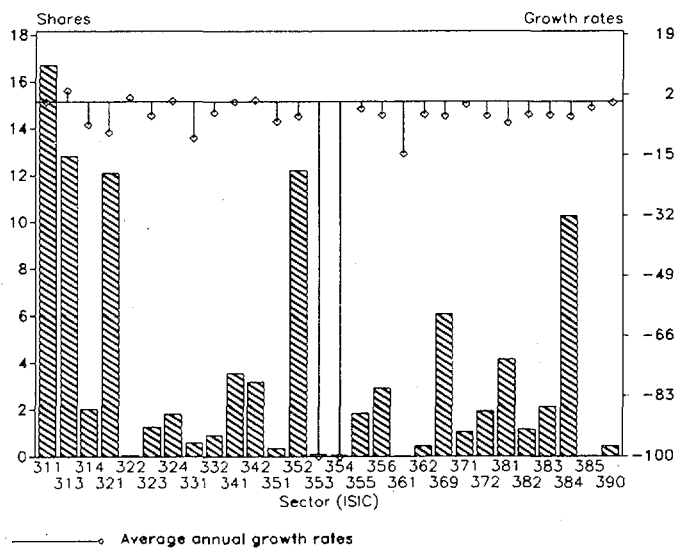
	1980	1985	1990	1995
GDP: <sup>na</sup> (millions of 1990-dollars)	2 680	2 251	2 481	2 548
Per capita <sup>na</sup> (1990-dollars)	480	341	321	278
Manufacturing share <sup>na</sup> (%) (current factor prices)	3.8	7.4	6.7	..
<b>MANUFACTURING:</b>				
Value added <sup>na</sup> (millions of 1990-dollars)	87	141	163	170
Industrial production index (1990=100)	98	76	100	104
Value added (millions of dollars)	31	21	27	21
Gross output (millions of dollars)	89	63	97	66
Employment (thousands)	2	3	2	2
<b>-PROFITABILITY: (in percent of gross output)</b>				
Intermediate input (%)	65	63	72	61
Wages and salaries including supplements (%)	15	14	6	16
Gross operating surplus and net taxes (%)	20	23	21	23
<b>-PRODUCTIVITY: (dollars)</b>				
Gross output per worker	43 564	22 429	71 121	22 621
Value added per worker	15 075	8 085	19 679	8 177
Average wage (including supplements)	6 537	2 996	3 935	2 774
<b>-STRUCTURAL INDICES:</b>				
Structural change indicator (5-year period, %) as a percentage of 1970-1975 structural change	13.57	17.24	31.50	48.21
MVA growth rate perer unit of structural change	2.34	1.47	-0.17	0.02
Degree of specialization	25.5	20.6	36.3	21.5
<b>-VALUE ADDED: (millions of dollars)</b>				
311/2 Food products	2	2	10 <sup>a</sup>	6
313 Beverages	7	6	- <sup>a</sup>	5
314 Tobacco products	..	..	- <sup>a</sup>	..
321 Textiles	6	5	8 <sup>b</sup>	..
322 Wearing apparel	1	1	- <sup>b</sup>	1
323 Leather and fur products	1	-	- <sup>b</sup>	..
324 Footwear	1	..	- <sup>b</sup>	..
331 Wood and wood products	..	..	- <sup>c</sup>	..
332 Furniture and fixtures	..	..	- <sup>c</sup>	..
341 Paper and paper products	..	..	1	1
342 Printing and publishing	2	1	2	2
351 Industrial chemicals	2	..	4 <sup>e</sup>	..
352 Other chemical products	3	3	- <sup>e</sup>	3
353 Petroleum refineries	..	..	- <sup>e</sup>	..
354 Miscellaneous petroleum and coal products	..	..	- <sup>e</sup>	..
355 Rubber products	..	..	- <sup>e</sup>	..
356 Plastic products	1	..	- <sup>e</sup>	..
361 Pottery, china and earthenware	..	..	1 <sup>f</sup>	..
362 Glass and glass products	..	..	- <sup>f</sup>	..
369 Other non-metal mineral products	2	1	- <sup>f</sup>	1
371 Iron and steel	..	..	..	..
372 Non-ferrous metals	..	..	..	..
381 Metal products	3	1	1 <sup>g</sup>	1
382 Non-electrical machinery	..	1	- <sup>g</sup>	1
383 Electrical machinery	..	..	- <sup>g</sup>	..
384 Transport equipment	..	..	- <sup>g</sup>	..
385 Professional and scientific equipment	..	..	- <sup>g</sup>	..
390 Other manufacturing industries	..	..	..	..



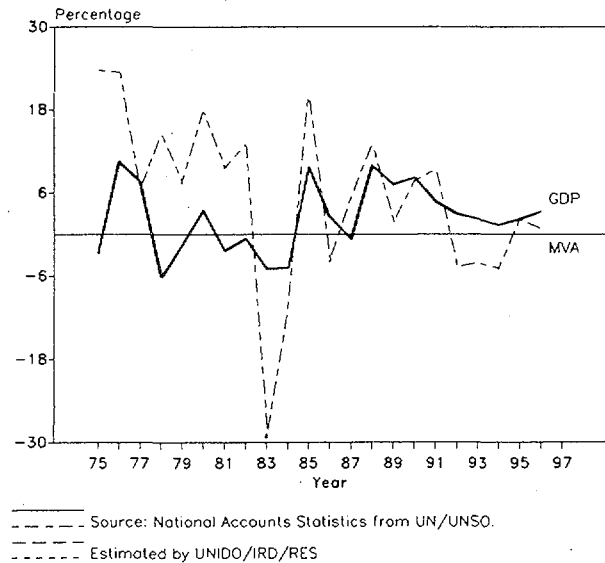
For sources, footnotes and comments see "Technical notes" at the beginning of this Annex.



Average sectoral shares in total Value Added and average annual sectoral growth rates, 1990-1996 (Percentage)

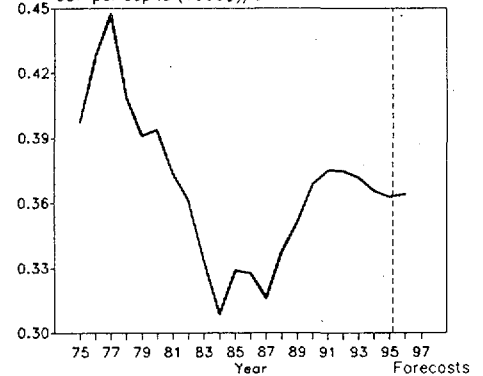


Annual growth rates of GDP and MVA (Constant 1990 prices)

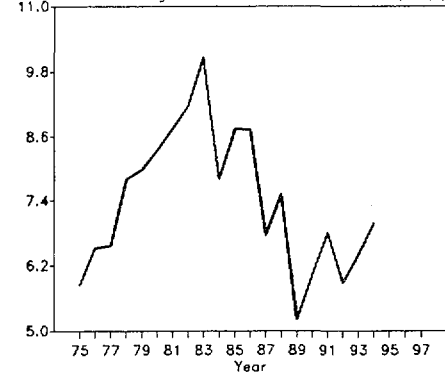


	1980	1985	1990	1995
<b>GDP:</b> <sup>na</sup> (millions of 1990-dollars)	28 357	27 329	35 462	40 510
Per capita <sup>na</sup> (1990-dollars)	394	329	369	363
Manufacturing share <sup>na</sup> (%) (current factor prices)	8.3	8.7	6.0	..
<b>MANUFACTURING:</b>				
Value added <sup>na</sup> (millions of 1990-dollars)	1 813	1 682	2 098	2 028
Industrial production index (1990=100)	144	100	100	97
Value added (millions of dollars)	2 422	1 726	3 682	7 884
Gross output (millions of dollars)	4 740	3 534	6 273	13 412
Employment (thousands)	432	336	405	448
<b>-PROFITABILITY:</b> (in percent of gross output)				
Intermediate input (%)	49	51	41	41
Wages and salaries including supplements (%)	11	10	9	10
Gross operating surplus and net taxes (%)	40	39	50	49
<b>-PRODUCTIVITY:</b> (dollars)				
Gross output per worker	10 238	9 899	14 487	28 365
Value added per worker	5 260	4 866	8 706	16 865
Average wage (including supplements)	1 226	1 014	1 416	2 975
<b>-STRUCTURAL INDICES:</b>				
Structural change indicator (5-year period, %)	27.00	27.44	13.57	6.16
as a percentage of 1970-1975 structural change	100	102	50	23
MVA growth rate per unit of structural change	2.94	1.57	0.83	3.52
Degree of specialization	18.5	18.5	20.6	20.9
<b>-VALUE ADDED:</b> (millions of dollars)				
311/2 Food products	149	251	566	1 390
313 Beverages	267	205	390	1 205
314 Tobacco products	96	52	83	148
321 Textiles	231	233	536	823
322 Wearing apparel	3	1	2	5
323 Leather and fur products	12	23	48	96
324 Footwear	12	28	61	152
331 Wood and wood products	88	14	26	39
332 Furniture and fixtures	56	14	34	70
341 Paper and paper products	38	51	121	296
342 Printing and publishing	75	45	106	266
351 Industrial chemicals	30	9	14	25
352 Other chemical products	265	213	463	925
353 Petroleum refineries	70	-6	9	1
354 Miscellaneous petroleum and coal products	9	-1	3	-
355 Rubber products	26	31	66	146
356 Plastic products	98	49	108	220
361 Pottery, china and earthenware	-	2	2	2
362 Glass and glass products	24	7	16	32
369 Other non-metal mineral products	87	106	230	460
371 Iron and steel	3	17	36	81
372 Non-ferrous metals	33	34	73	146
381 Metal products	140	92	166	295
382 Non-electrical machinery	23	19	42	87
383 Electrical machinery	46	36	79	160
384 Transport equipment	526	193	388	774
385 Professional and scientific equipment	-	-	-	1
390 Other manufacturing industries	13	6	15	37

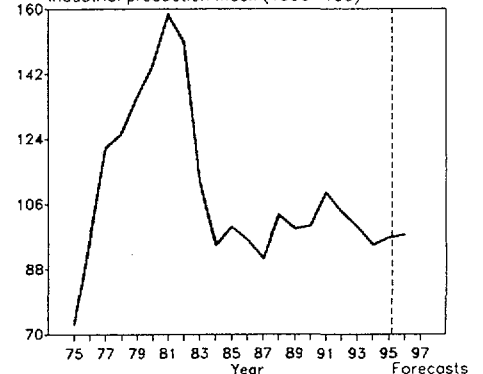
GDP per capita (1000\$/c)



Manufacturing share in GDP, current factor pr. (%)



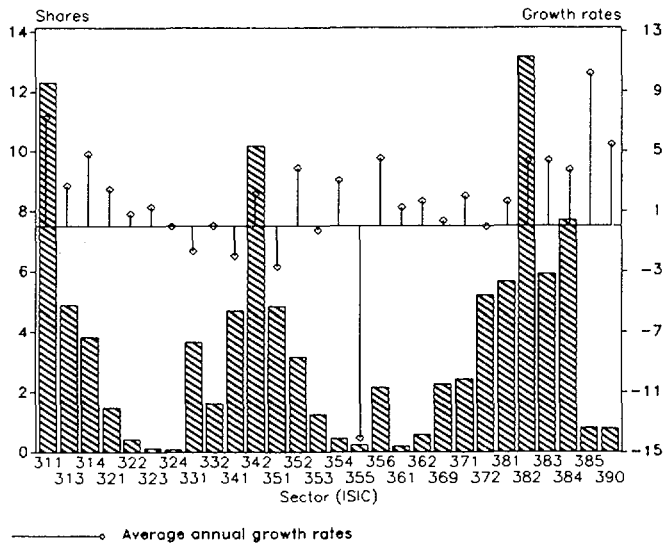
Industrial production index (1990=100)



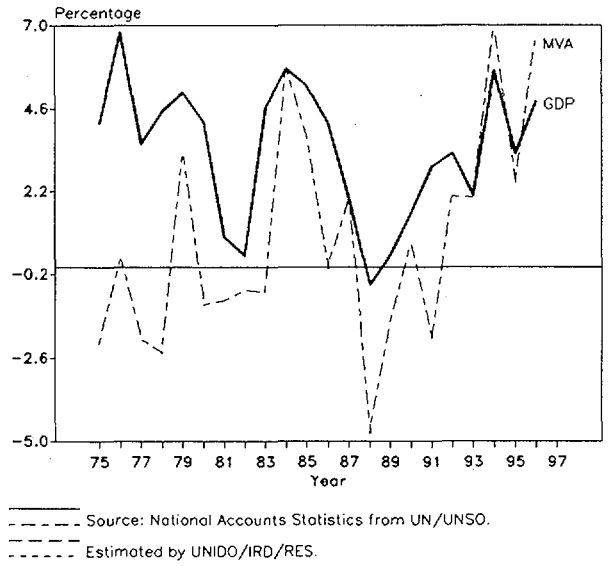
For sources, footnotes and comments see "Technical notes" at the beginning of this Annex.

NORWAY

Average sectoral shares in total Value Added and average annual sectoral growth rates, 1990-1996 (Percentage)

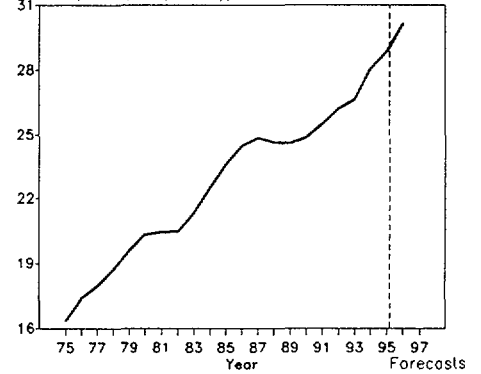


Annual growth rates of GDP and MVA (Constant 1990 prices)

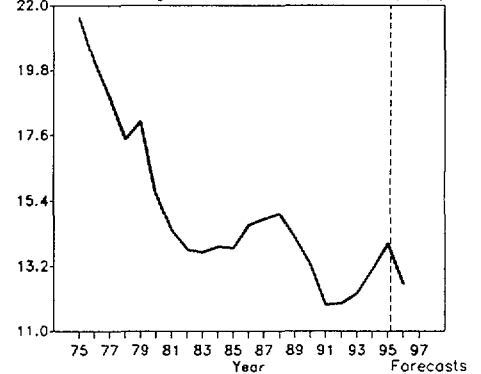


	1980	1985	1990	1995
GDP: <sup>na</sup> (millions of 1990-dollars)	83 082	97 949	105 524	125 035
Per capita <sup>na</sup> (1990-dollars)	20 333	23 585	24 882	28 863
Manufacturing share <sup>na</sup> (%) (current factor prices)	15.7	13.8	13.2	14.0
<b>MANUFACTURING:</b>				
Value added <sup>na</sup> (millions of 1990-dollars)	14 041	15 028	14 437	16 092
Industrial production index (1990=100)	95	99	100	110
Value added (millions of dollars)	9 339	7 660	13 504	16 422
Gross output (millions of dollars)	31 936	28 186	50 107	56 962
Employment (thousands)	354	312	271	255
<b>-PROFITABILITY: (in percent of gross output)</b>				
Intermediate input (%)	71	73	73	71
Wages and salaries including supplements (%)	21	20	19	20
Gross operating surplus and net taxes (%)	8	7	8	9
<b>-PRODUCTIVITY: (dollars)</b>				
Gross output per worker	89 656	89 774	184 331	216 892
Value added per worker	26 217	24 397	49 677	64 116
Average wage (including supplements)	19 129	17 852	35 540	43 972
<b>-STRUCTURAL INDICES:</b>				
Structural change indicator (5-year period, %) as a percentage of 1970-1975 structural change	9.19	8.90	8.92	7.17
MVA growth rate perer unit of structural change	0.29	-0.70	-0.70	0.30
Degree of specialization	12.2	13.2	12.9	14.2
<b>-VALUE ADDED: (millions of dollars)</b>				
311/2 Food products	908	633	1 307	2 137
313 Beverages	292	296	660	779
314 Tobacco products	168	220	478	659
321 Textiles	213	126	191	250
322 Wearing apparel	101	59	58	67
323 Leather and fur products	18	9	16	18
324 Footwear	24	10	11	13
331 Wood and wood products	587	366	619	584
332 Furniture and fixtures	196	165	236	255
341 Paper and paper products	452	400	787	721
342 Printing and publishing	668	717	1 381	1 674
351 Industrial chemicals	452	422	811	733
352 Other chemical products	227	183	393	539
353 Petroleum refineries	103	24	195	193
354 Miscellaneous petroleum and coal products	53	59	63	76
355 Rubber products	51	39	58	25
356 Plastic products	170	147	278	366
361 Pottery, china and earthenware	26	18	27	31
362 Glass and glass products	55	50	77	91
369 Other non-metal mineral products	281	215	361	366
371 Iron and steel	385	276	347	396
372 Non-ferrous metals	743	550	826	832
381 Metal products	595	465	784	912
382 Non-electrical machinery	933	1 079	1 590	2 121
383 Electrical machinery	547	498	751	1 004
384 Transport equipment	1 000	555	1 028	1 300
385 Professional and scientific equipment	32	39	82	148
390 Other manufacturing industries	59	42	89	133

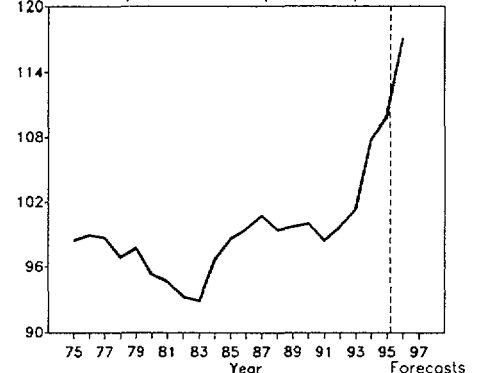
GDP per capita (1000\$)/c



Manufacturing share in GDP, current factor pr. (%)



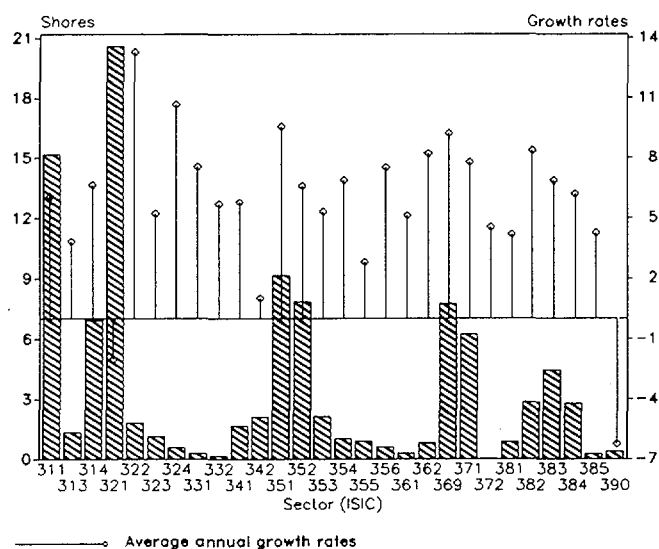
Industrial production index (1990=100)



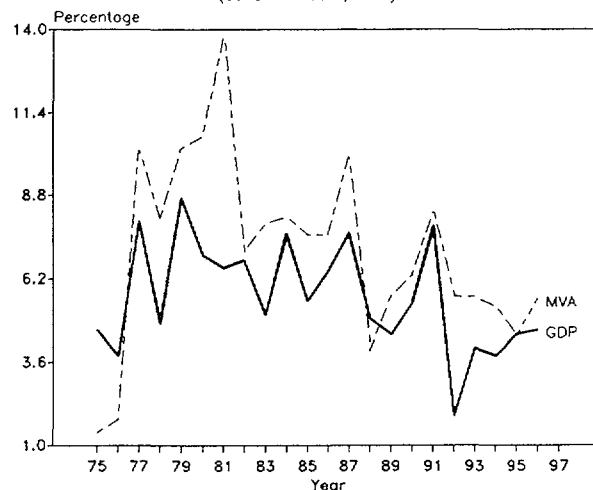
For sources, footnotes and comments see "Technical notes" at the beginning of this Annex.

## PAKISTAN

Average sectoral shares in total Value Added and average annual sectoral growth rates, 1990-1996 (Percentage)

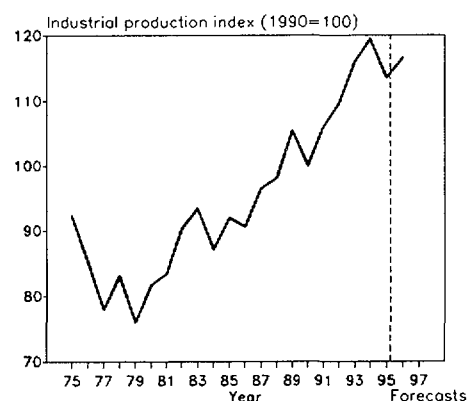
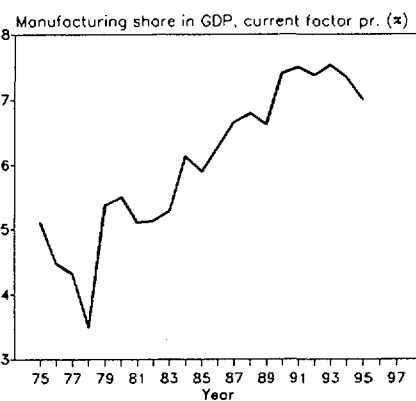
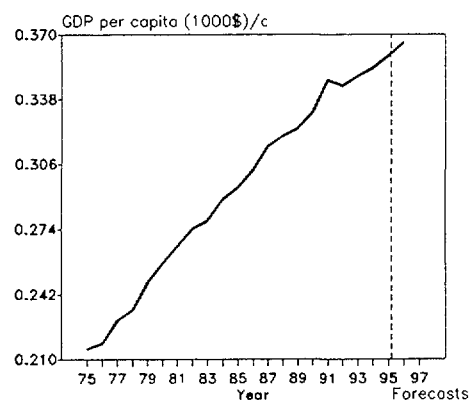


Annual growth rates of GDP and MVA (Constant 1990 prices)



Source: National Accounts Statistics from UN/UNSO.  
Estimated by UNIDO/IRD/RES.

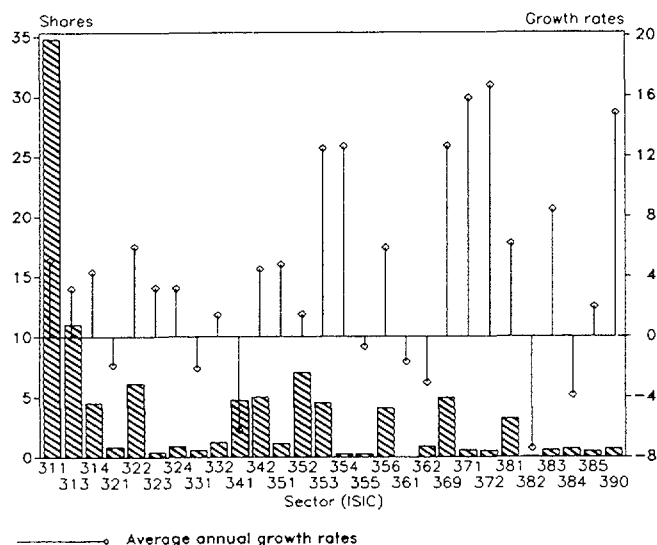
	1980	1985	1990	1995
<b>GDP:</b> <sup>na</sup> (millions of 1990-dollars)	21 959	29 792	39 464	48 936
Per capita <sup>na</sup> (1990-dollars)	257	294	331	359
Manufacturing share <sup>na</sup> (%) (current factor prices)	13.9	15.9	17.4	17.0
<b>MANUFACTURING:</b>				
Value added <sup>na</sup> (millions of 1990-dollars)	2 891	4 415	6 096	8 093
Industrial production index (1990=100)	82	92	100	114
Value added (millions of dollars)	2 423	3 236	5 114	7 550
Gross output (millions of dollars)	7 144	10 132	17 269	25 218
Employment (thousands)	452	493	622	614
<b>-PROFITABILITY: (in percent of gross output)</b>				
Intermediate input (%)	66	68	70	70
Wages and salaries including supplements (%)	7	6	7	7
Gross operating surplus and net taxes (%)	27	26	23	23
<b>-PRODUCTIVITY: (dollars)</b>				
Gross output per worker	14 606	20 482	27 702	39 359
Value added per worker	4 953	6 542	8 203	11 887
Average wage (including supplements)	1 122	1 323	1 965	2 925
<b>-STRUCTURAL INDICES:</b>				
Structural change indicator (5-year period, %) as a percentage of 1970-1975 structural change	12.92	13.02	14.56	12.99
MVA growth rate perer unit of structural change	2.07	2.45	3.50	3.16
Degree of specialization	23.2	23.5	23.4	20.0
<b>-VALUE ADDED: (millions of dollars)</b>				
311/2 Food products	431	580	719	1 145
313 Beverages	45	74	72	100
314 Tobacco products	300	372	325	534
321 Textiles	483	562	1 407	1 412
322 Wearing apparel	7	18	70	155
323 Leather and fur products	41	35	56	85
324 Footwear	4	3	23	47
331 Wood and wood products	4	9	14	23
332 Furniture and fixtures	3	6	8	13
341 Paper and paper products	29	33	80	126
342 Printing and publishing	24	36	116	137
351 Industrial chemicals	127	281	401	743
352 Other chemical products	156	230	368	599
353 Petroleum refineries	158	45	105	158
354 Miscellaneous petroleum and coal products	9	17	47	78
355 Rubber products	28	41	49	65
356 Plastic products	12	21	28	48
361 Pottery, china and earthenware	5	8	13	20
362 Glass and glass products	11	17	36	62
369 Other non-metal mineral products	171	199	339	624
371 Iron and steel	99	342	283	490
372 Non-ferrous metals	1	1	1	2
381 Metal products	38	33	44	64
382 Non-electrical machinery	43	80	129	227
383 Electrical machinery	78	98	210	344
384 Transport equipment	97	83	132	211
385 Professional and scientific equipment	6	6	12	17
390 Other manufacturing industries	11	11	27	22



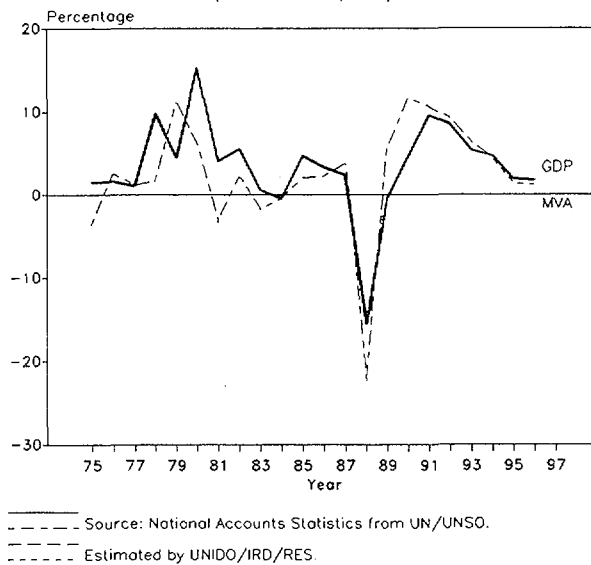
For sources, footnotes and comments see "Technical notes" at the beginning of this Annex.

PANAMA

Average sectoral shares in total Value Added and average annual sectoral growth rates, 1990-1996 (Percentage)

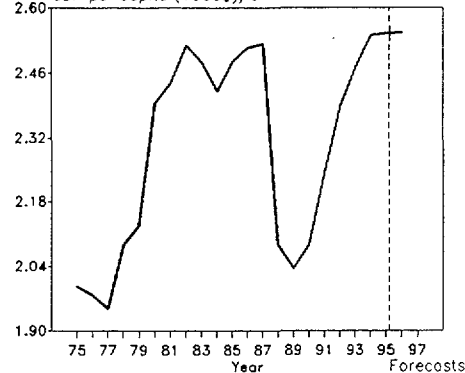


Annual growth rates of GDP and MVA (Constant 1990 prices)

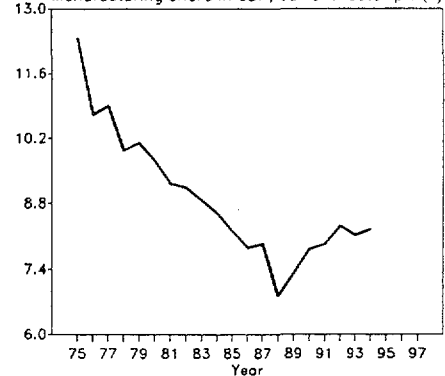


	1980	1985	1990	1995
GDP: <sup>na</sup> (millions of 1990-dollars)	4 672	5 383	5 009	6 699
Per capita <sup>na</sup> (1990-dollars)	2 396	2 484	2 089	2 546
Manufacturing share <sup>na</sup> (%) (current factor prices)	9.7	8.2	7.8	..
<b>MANUFACTURING:</b>				
Value added <sup>na</sup> (millions of 1990-dollars)	428	421	407	552
Industrial production index (1990=100)	97	102	100	134
Value added (millions of dollars)	477	551	591	798
Gross output (millions of dollars)	1 473	1 765	1 703	2 338
Employment (thousands)	31	36	37	44
<b>-PROFITABILITY: (in percent of gross output)</b>				
Intermediate input (%)	68	69	65	66
Wages and salaries including supplements (%)	9	13	13	12
Gross operating surplus and net taxes (%)	23	18	21	22
<b>-PRODUCTIVITY: (dollars)</b>				
Gross output per worker	46 753	48 678	46 202	52 559
Value added per worker	15 159	15 183	16 040	18 045
Average wage (including supplements)	4 241	6 270	6 133	6 204
<b>-STRUCTURAL INDICES:</b>				
Structural change indicator (5-year period, %) as a percentage of 1970-1975 structural change	13.97	10.30	10.12	8.79
MVA growth rate perer unit of structural change	2.10	0.94	0.17	1.85
Degree of specialization	24.2	23.2	27.7	28.1
<b>-VALUE ADDED: (millions of dollars)</b>				
311/2 Food products	155	171	205	289
313 Beverages	52	53	69	86
314 Tobacco products	26	30	27	36
321 Textiles	4	3	6	6
322 Wearing apparel	31	26	34	50
323 Leather and fur products	4	1	3	4
324 Footwear	7	9	5	7
331 Wood and wood products	8	7	4	4
332 Furniture and fixtures	8	11	7	9
341 Paper and paper products	20	33	48	34
342 Printing and publishing	22	29	29	40
351 Industrial chemicals	4	9	6	9
352 Other chemical products	26	42	42	49
353 Petroleum refineries	28	23	17	37
354 Miscellaneous petroleum and coal products	1	-	1	2
355 Rubber products	2	2	2	2
356 Plastic products	12	21	23	32
361 Pottery, china and earthenware	-	-	-	-
362 Glass and glass products	1	7	7	6
369 Other non-metal mineral products	31	26	19	41
371 Iron and steel	5	4	2	5
372 Non-ferrous metals	2	3	2	4
381 Metal products	19	20	17	27
382 Non-electrical machinery	1	1	1	-
383 Electrical machinery	3	4	3	5
384 Transport equipment	4	13	6	5
385 Professional and scientific equipment	1	2	3	4
390 Other manufacturing industries	1	3	2	6

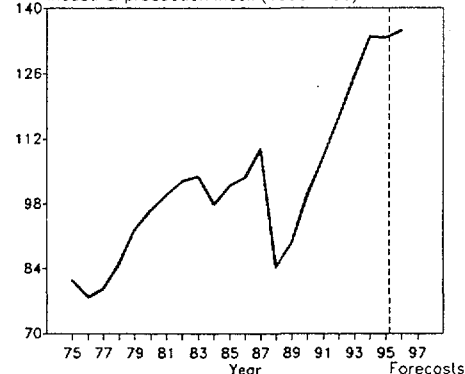
GDP per capita (1000\$)/c



Manufacturing share in GDP, current factor pr. (%)



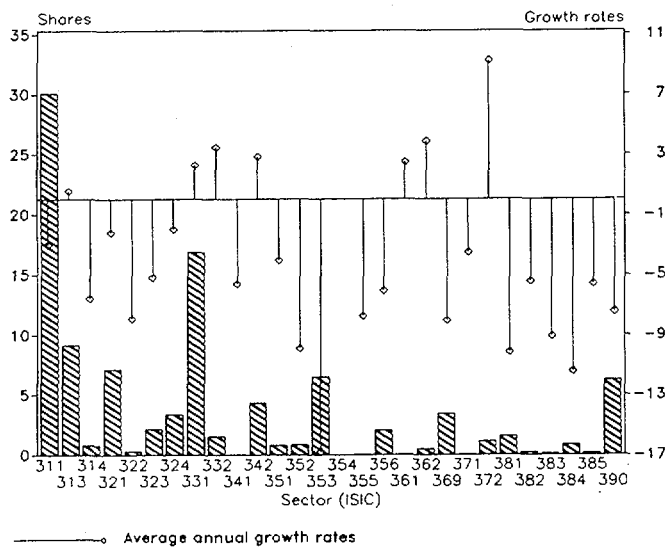
Industrial production index (1990=100)



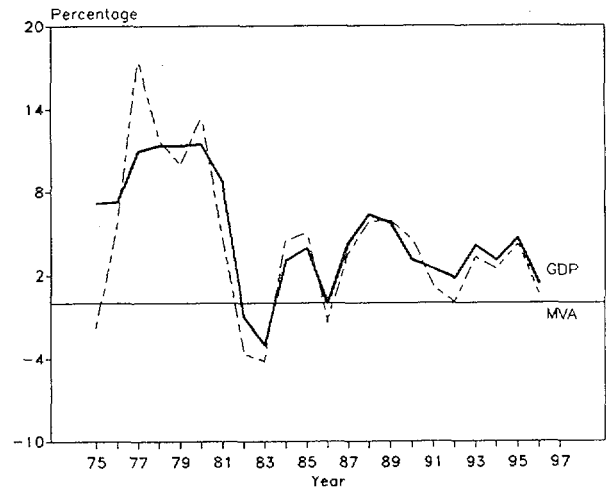
For sources, footnotes and comments see "Technical notes" at the beginning of this Annex.

## PARAGUAY

Average sectoral shares in Total Value Added and average annual sectoral growth rates, 1990-1996 (Percentage)

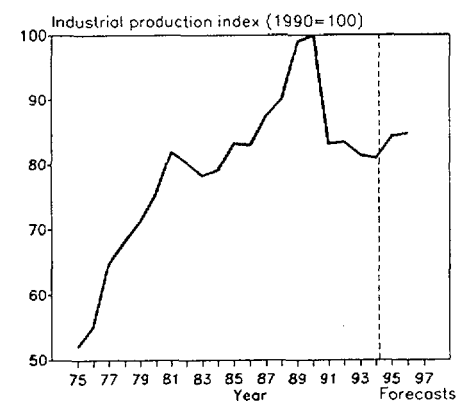
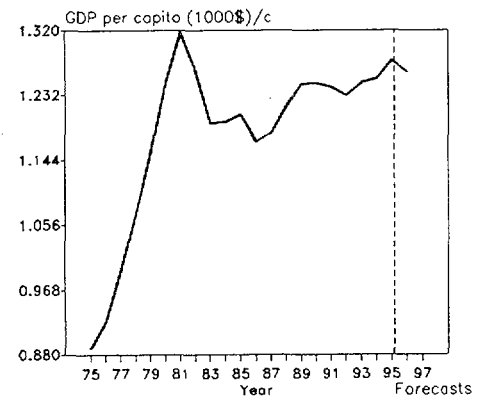


Annual growth rates of GDP and MVA (Constant 1990 prices)



— Source: National Accounts Statistics from UN/UNSO.  
 - - - - - Estimated by UNIDO/IRD/RES

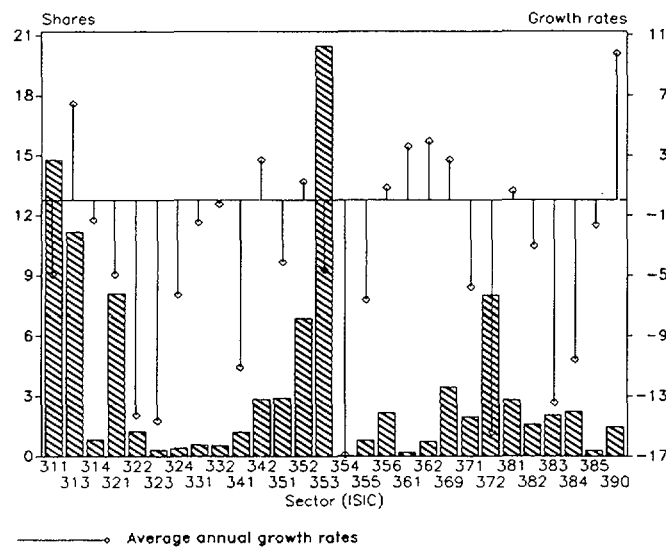
	1980	1985	1990	1995
<b>GDP:</b> <sup>na</sup> (millions of 1990-dollars)	3 887	4 350	5 265	6 174
Per capita <sup>na</sup> (1990-dollars)	1 248	1 205	1 248	1 279
Manufacturing share <sup>na</sup> (%) (current factor prices)	16.5	16.2	17.3	15.6
<b>MANUFACTURING:</b>				
Value added <sup>na</sup> (millions of 1990-dollars)	721	761	910	1 013
Industrial production index (1990=100)	75	83	100	84
Value added (millions of dollars)	575	661	769	904
Gross output (millions of dollars)	1 312	1 395	1 408	1 979
Employment (thousands)	143	129	156	166
<b>-PROFITABILITY: (in percent of gross output)</b>				
Intermediate input (%)	..	..	..	..
Wages and salaries including supplements (%)	..	..	..	..
Gross operating surplus and net taxes (%)	..	..	..	..
<b>-PRODUCTIVITY: (dollars)</b>				
Gross output per worker	9 131	10 788	8 911	11 695
Value added per worker	4 132	5 134	4 991	5 414
Average wage (including supplements)	..	..	..	..
<b>-STRUCTURAL INDICES:</b>				
Structural change indicator (5-year period, %)	14.45	14.32	10.54	8.94
as a percentage of 1970-1975 structural change	100	99	73	62
MVA growth rate perer unit of structural change	3.00	2.33	2.47	0.96
Degree of specialization	31.7	28.7	27.5	29.7
<b>-VALUE ADDED: (millions of dollars)</b>				
311/2 Food products	170	220	235	277
313 Beverages	43	56	62	90
314 Tobacco products	6	7	7	6
321 Textiles	44	42	54	67
322 Wearing apparel	2	3	3	3
323 Leather and fur products	7	14	16	17
324 Footwear	18	20	25	31
331 Wood and wood products	95	96	106	170
332 Furniture and fixtures	6	8	9	16
341 Paper and paper products	-	1	1	1
342 Printing and publishing	24	36	26	42
351 Industrial chemicals	4	6	6	7
352 Other chemical products	10	10	8	7
353 Petroleum refineries	94	51	68	39
354 Miscellaneous petroleum and coal products	-	-	-	-
355 Rubber products	-	-	-	-
356 Plastic products	6	16	18	17
361 Pottery, china and earthenware	-	-	-	-
362 Glass and glass products	1	2	3	5
369 Other non-metal mineral products	26	23	31	27
371 Iron and steel	-	-	-	-
372 Non-ferrous metals	1	4	6	12
381 Metal products	9	15	15	11
382 Non-electrical machinery	1	1	2	2
383 Electrical machinery	-	1	1	1
384 Transport equipment	5	10	8	6
385 Professional and scientific equipment	1	1	1	1
390 Other manufacturing industries	2	17	58	50



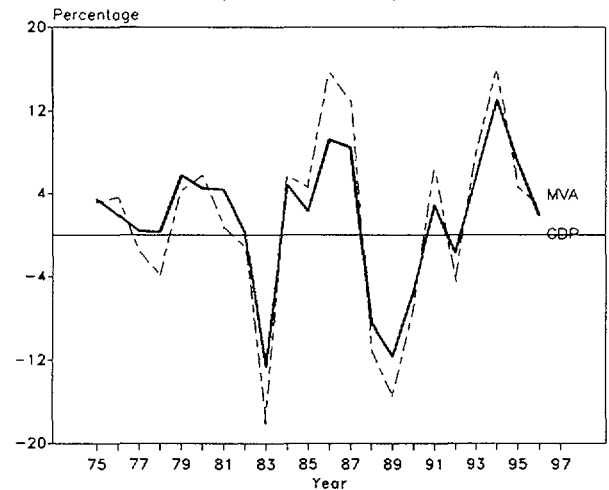
For sources, footnotes and comments see "Technical notes" at the beginning of this Annex.

PERU

Average sectoral shares in total Value Added and average annual sectoral growth rates, 1990-1996 (Percentage)



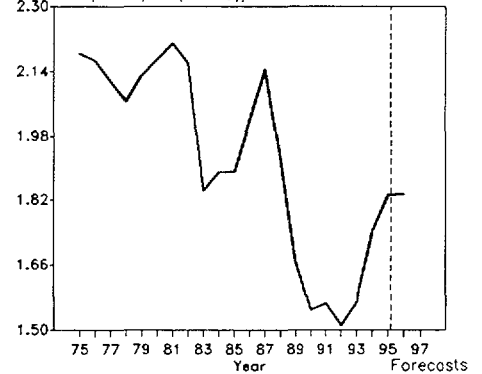
Annual growth rates of GDP and MVA (Constant 1990 prices)



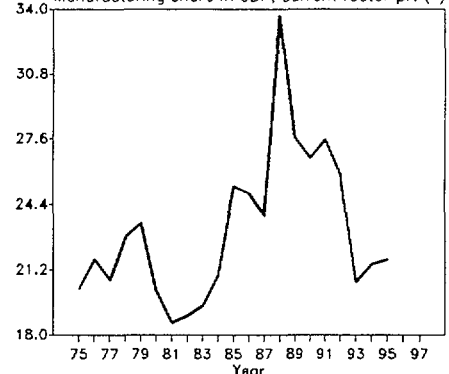
Source: National Accounts Statistics from UN/UNSO.  
 Estimated by UNIDO/IRD/RES.

	1980	1985	1990	1995
<b>GDP:</b> <sup>na</sup> (millions of 1990-dollars)	37 582	36 829	33 427	43 124
Per capita <sup>na</sup> (1990-dollars)	2 169	1 889	1 550	1 833
Manufacturing share <sup>na</sup> (%) (current factor prices)	20.2	25.3	26.7	21.7
<b>MANUFACTURING:</b>				
Value added <sup>na</sup> (millions of 1990-dollars)	11 958	10 758	9 745	12 861
Industrial production index (1990=100)	129	112	100	126
Value added (millions of dollars)	4 985	3 918	7 366	7 485
Gross output (millions of dollars)	12 977	9 573	14 186	18 185
Employment (thousands)	273	263	285	273
<b>-PROFITABILITY: (in percent of gross output)</b>				
Intermediate input (%)	62	59	48	59
Wages and salaries including supplements (%)	7	6	10	7
Gross operating surplus and net taxes (%)	32	35	42	34
<b>-PRODUCTIVITY: (dollars)</b>				
Gross output per worker	47 484	36 350	49 727	66 261
Value added per worker	18 242	14 877	25 821	27 318
Average wage (including supplements)	3 150	2 154	4 941	4 877
<b>-STRUCTURAL INDICES:</b>				
Structural change indicator (5-year period, %) as a percentage of 1970-1975 structural change	14.06	20.68	20.91	14.12
MVA growth rate per unit of structural change	100	147	149	100
Degree of specialization	1.99	0.13	-1.52	-2.67
Degree of specialization	12.7	21.3	19.5	19.6
<b>-VALUE ADDED: (millions of dollars)</b>				
311/2 Food products	767	402	1 077	1 109
313 Beverages	379	303	545	991
314 Tobacco products	84	61	59	66
321 Textiles	466	352	647	648
322 Wearing apparel	65	52	133	66
323 Leather and fur products	56	20	32	18
324 Footwear	41	20	26	27
331 Wood and wood products	81	32	39	43
332 Furniture and fixtures	42	19	30	40
341 Paper and paper products	156	77	135	86
342 Printing and publishing	100	80	151	238
351 Industrial chemicals	215	158	237	223
352 Other chemical products	289	193	427	577
353 Petroleum refineries	192	1 154	1 409	1 357
354 Miscellaneous petroleum and coal products	6	1	5	2
355 Rubber products	62	52	74	59
356 Plastic products	89	90	144	181
361 Pottery, china and earthenware	15	8	10	15
362 Glass and glass products	47	15	37	64
369 Other non-metal mineral products	129	113	204	300
371 Iron and steel	192	123	177	151
372 Non-ferrous metals	604	172	930	449
381 Metal products	188	113	180	233
382 Non-electrical machinery	156	58	116	116
383 Electrical machinery	211	111	235	118
384 Transport equipment	278	106	219	147
385 Professional and scientific equipment	14	10	21	23
390 Other manufacturing industries	58	25	66	138

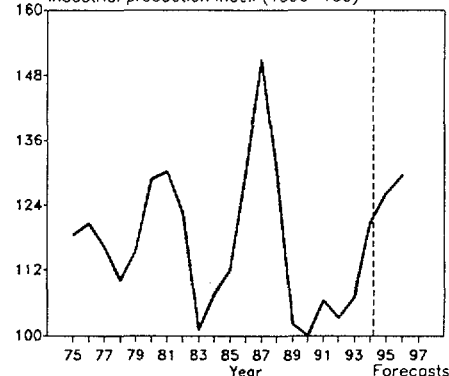
GDP per capita (1000\$/c)



Manufacturing share in GDP, current factor pr. (%)



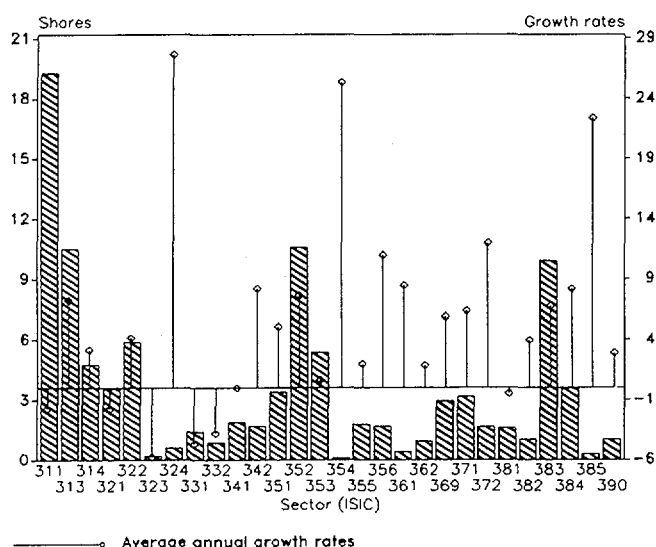
Industrial production index (1990=100)



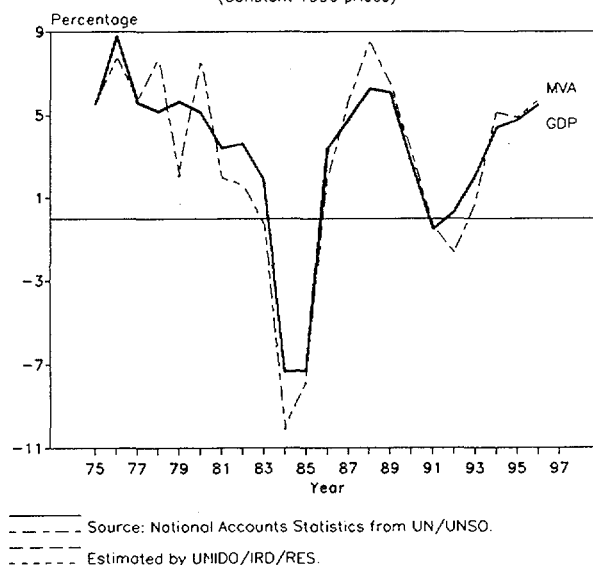
For sources, footnotes and comments see "Technical notes" at the beginning of this Annex.

## PHILIPPINES

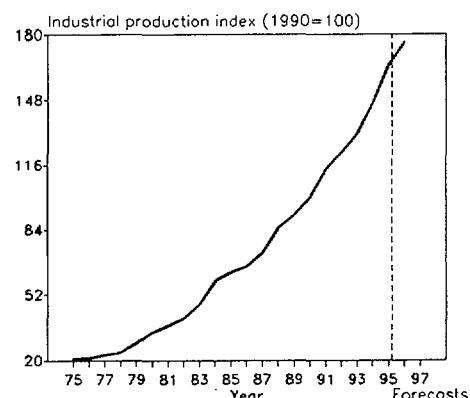
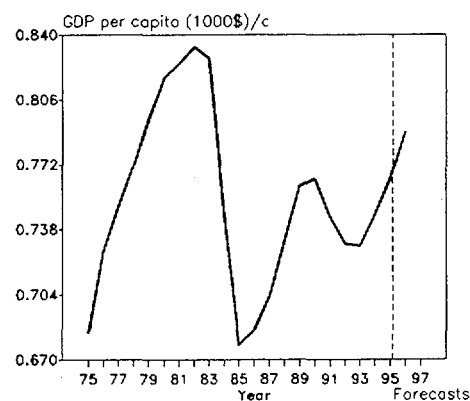
Average sectoral shares in total Value Added and average annual sectoral growth rates, 1990-1996 (Percentage)



Annual growth rates of GDP and MVA (Constant 1990 prices)



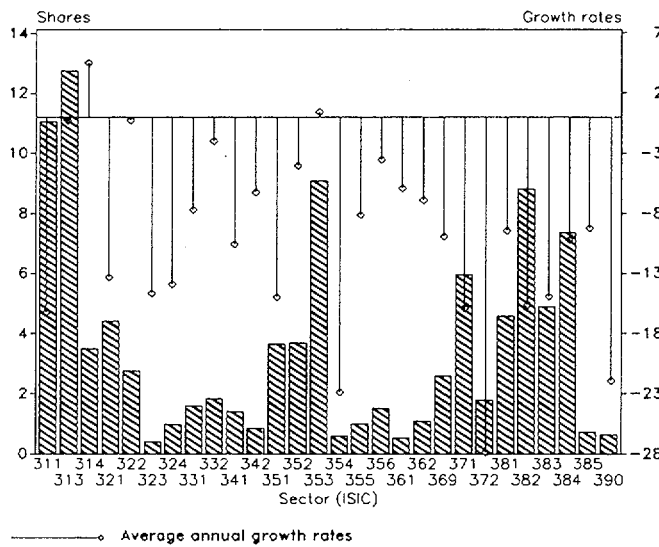
	1980	1985	1990	1995
<b>GDP:</b> <sup>na</sup> (millions of 1990-dollars)	39 508	37 054	46 473	51 820
Per capita <sup>na</sup> (1990-dollars)	818	678	765	764
Manufacturing share <sup>na</sup> (%) (current factor prices)	23.7	23.5	23.7	24.8
<b>MANUFACTURING:</b>				
Value added <sup>na</sup> (millions of 1990-dollars)	10 067	8 605	11 003	11 951
Industrial production index (1990=100)	34	63	100	165
Value added (millions of dollars)	4 861	3 448	8 852	15 779
Gross output (millions of dollars)	17 369	12 081	24 321	41 069
Employment (thousands)	949	619	1 109	997
<b>-PROFITABILITY: (in percent of gross output)</b>				
Intermediate input (%)	72	71	64	62
Wages and salaries including supplements (%)	6	6	8	8
Gross operating surplus and net taxes (%)	22	22	28	31
<b>-PRODUCTIVITY: (dollars)</b>				
Gross output per worker	16 263	19 369	19 805	40 848
Value added per worker	4 552	5 528	7 209	15 771
Average wage (including supplements)	1 127	1 257	1 802	3 151
<b>-STRUCTURAL INDICES:</b>				
Structural change indicator (5-year period, %) as a percentage of 1970-1975 structural change	15.56	22.56	24.48	16.96
MVA growth rate perer unit of structural change	100	145	157	109
Degree of specialization	2.00	-0.31	2.08	4.26
	14.4	22.0	18.3	16.1
<b>-VALUE ADDED: (millions of dollars)</b>				
311/2 Food products	969	658	2 206	2 934
313 Beverages	195	423	815	1 787
314 Tobacco products	309	209	420	739
321 Textiles	395	109	393	514
322 Wearing apparel	205	105	509	913
323 Leather and fur products	8	3	25	26
324 Footwear	13	9	18	117
331 Wood and wood products	229	86	164	180
332 Furniture and fixtures	75	22	103	116
341 Paper and paper products	128	97	184	264
342 Printing and publishing	89	46	125	297
351 Industrial chemicals	296	101	277	524
352 Other chemical products	389	205	767	1 735
353 Petroleum refineries	328	715	489	715
354 Miscellaneous petroleum and coal products	2	3	3	17
355 Rubber products	103	34	158	269
356 Plastic products	85	32	111	286
361 Pottery, china and earthenware	33	9	29	67
362 Glass and glass products	42	28	86	138
369 Other non-metal mineral products	63	60	240	491
371 Iron and steel	98	164	236	488
372 Non-ferrous metals	35	28	117	343
381 Metal products	127	49	156	228
382 Non-electrical machinery	98	31	84	152
383 Electrical machinery	260	156	775	1 607
384 Transport equipment	234	35	258	614
385 Professional and scientific equipment	5	5	11	56
390 Other manufacturing industries	49	28	93	161



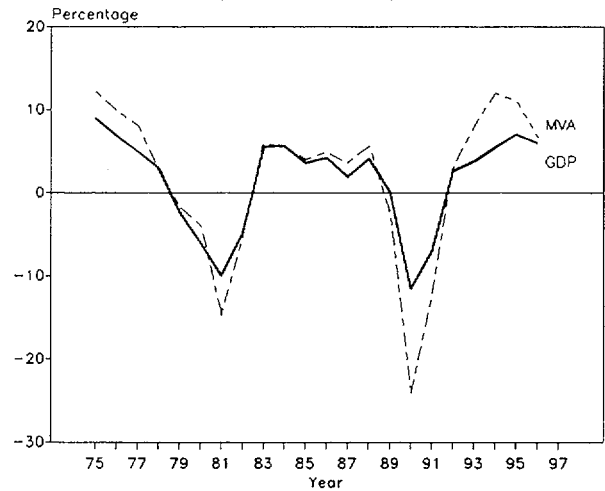
For sources, footnotes and comments see "Technical notes" at the beginning of this Annex.

POLAND

Average sectoral shares in total Value Added and average annual sectoral growth rates, 1990-1996 (Percentage)

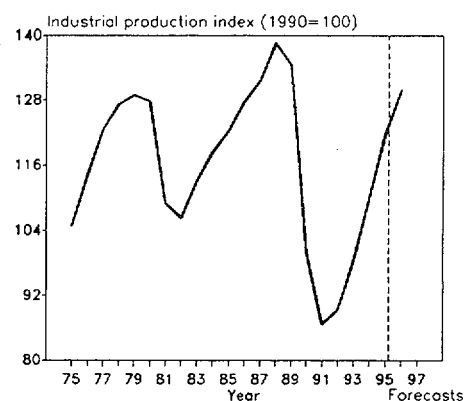
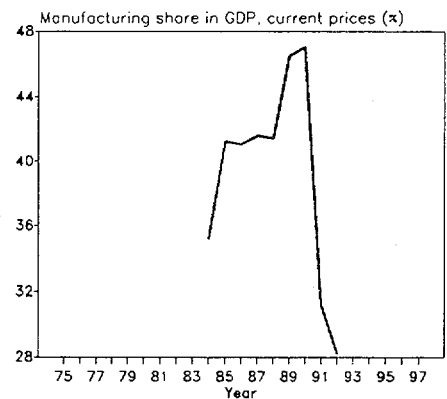
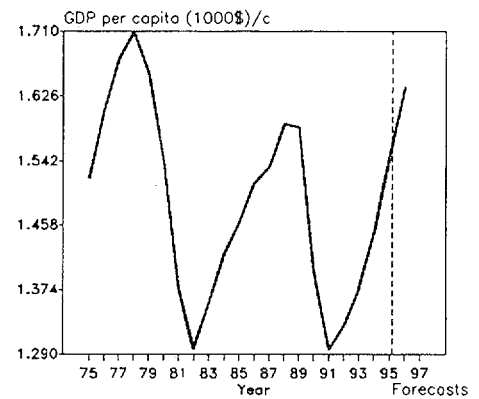


Annual growth rates of GDP and MVA (Constant 1990 prices)



Source: National Accounts Statistics from UN/UNSO.  
Estimated by UNIDO/IRD/RES.

	1980	1985	1990	1995
GDP: <sup>na</sup> (millions of 1990-dollars)	54 856	54 357	53 290	59 607
Per capita <sup>na</sup> (1990-dollars)	1 542	1 461	1 398	1 546
Manufacturing share <sup>na</sup> (%) (current factor prices)	..	41.2	47.0	..
<b>MANUFACTURING:</b>				
Value added <sup>na</sup> (millions of 1990-dollars)	31 971	29 768	25 072	30 102
Industrial production index (1990=100)	128	122	100	122
Value added (millions of dollars)	22 833	24 432	23 017	27 149
Gross output (millions of dollars)	55 597	54 448	46 092	70 975
Employment (thousands)	4 063	3 578	3 014	2 193
<b>-PROFITABILITY: (in percent of gross output)</b>				
Intermediate input (%)	59	55	50	62
Wages and salaries including supplements (%)	12	11	8	11
Gross operating surplus and net taxes (%)	30	34	42	28
<b>-PRODUCTIVITY: (dollars)</b>				
Gross output per worker	12 957	13 487	15 293	32 159
Value added per worker	5 321	6 052	7 637	12 305
Average wage (including supplements)	1 575	1 627	1 258	3 457
<b>-STRUCTURAL INDICES:</b>				
Structural change indicator (5-year period, %)	11.27	12.88	16.77	20.58
as a percentage of 1970-1975 structural change	100	114	149	183
MVA growth rate per unit of structural change	3.15	-1.21	-0.12	-0.51
Degree of specialization	11.7	14.4	11.3	12.3
<b>-VALUE ADDED: (millions of dollars)</b>				
311/2 Food products	- 889	144	2 595	2 392
313 Beverages	3 062	3 582	1 838	3 836
314 Tobacco products	636	74	379	1 132
321 Textiles	2 795	2 444	1 222	1 112
322 Wearing apparel	572	801	432	899
323 Leather and fur products	122	221	120	96
324 Footwear	403	430	263	225
331 Wood and wood products	423	434	325	448
332 Furniture and fixtures	491	500	307	574
341 Paper and paper products	224	269	348	385
342 Printing and publishing	154	208	166	238
351 Industrial chemicals	837	734	1 056	877
352 Other chemical products	961	644	649	1 132
353 Petroleum refineries	1 058	1 239	1 419	3 089
354 Miscellaneous petroleum and coal products	54	60	249	111
355 Rubber products	317	341	209	291
356 Plastic products	360	296	274	464
361 Pottery, china and earthenware	97	146	107	157
362 Glass and glass products	269	282	227	312
369 Other non-metal mineral products	335	634	602	693
371 Iron and steel	868	1 161	1 887	1 411
372 Non-ferrous metals	602	336	951	275
381 Metal products	1 343	1 347	1 081	1 255
382 Non-electrical machinery	3 263	3 360	2 604	2 060
383 Electrical machinery	1 558	1 801	1 420	1 214
384 Transport equipment	2 436	2 255	1 855	2 148
385 Professional and scientific equipment	244	251	173	200
390 Other manufacturing industries	237	438	258	121

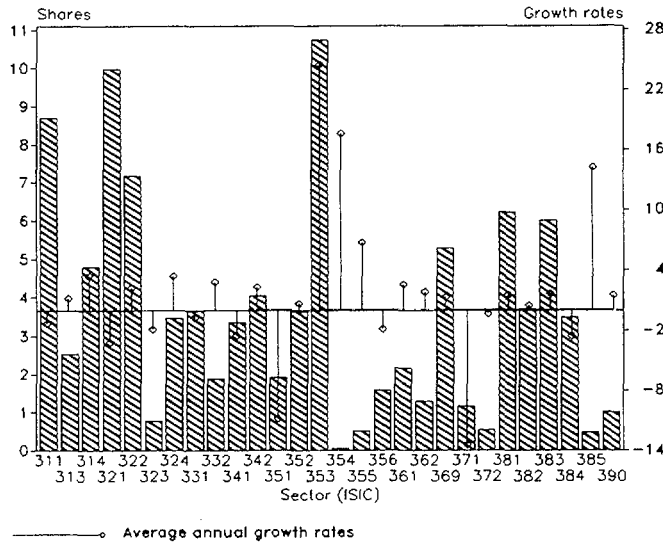


For sources, footnotes and comments see "Technical notes" at the beginning of this Annex.

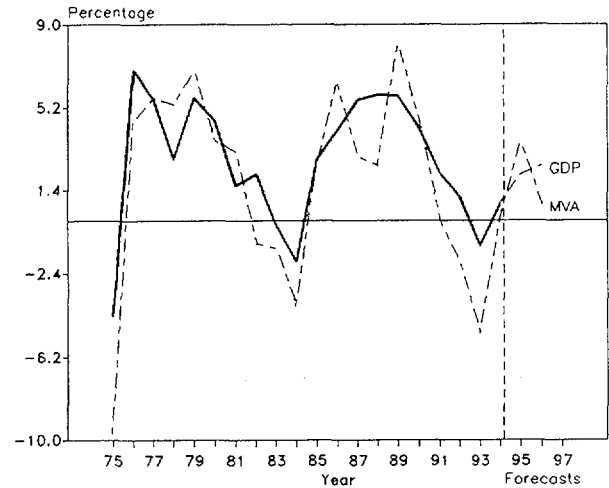


## PORTUGAL

Average sectoral shares in total Value Added and average annual sectoral growth rates, 1990-1996 (Percentage)



Annual growth rates of GDP and MVA (Constant 1990 prices)

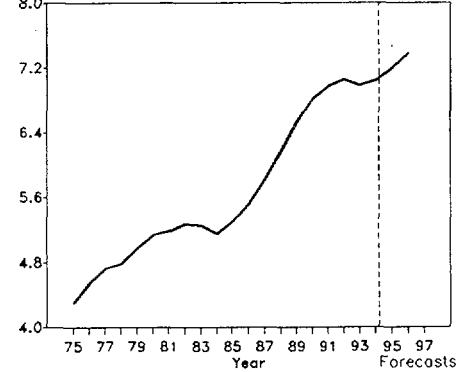


Source: National Accounts Statistics from UN/UNSO.  
 Estimated by UNIDO/IRD/RES.

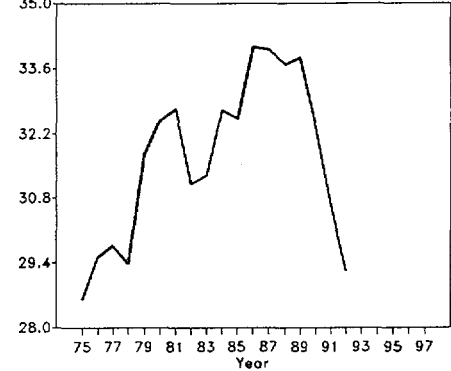
	1980	1985	1990	1995
GDP: <sup>na</sup> (millions of 1990-dollars)	50 202	52 468	67 271	70 630
Per capita <sup>na</sup> (1990-dollars)	5 140	5 298	6 816	7 196
Manufacturing share <sup>na</sup> (%) (current factor prices)	32.5	32.5	32.3	..
<b>MANUFACTURING:</b>				
Value added <sup>na</sup> (millions of 1990-dollars)	14 936	14 817	18 765	18 073
Industrial production index (1990=100)	78	83	100	97
Value added (millions of dollars)	5 602	4 108	13 609	20 211
Gross output (millions of dollars)	17 932	15 534	47 171	61 723
Employment (thousands)	680	622	489	421
<b>-PROFITABILITY: (in percent of gross output)</b>				
Intermediate input (%)	69	74	71	67
Wages and salaries including supplements (%)	17	14	10	8
Gross operating surplus and net taxes (%)	14	12	18	25
<b>-PRODUCTIVITY: (dollars)</b>				
Gross output per worker	25 887	24 566	46 392	63 026
Value added per worker	8 087	6 497	13 384	20 638
Average wage (including supplements)	4 541	3 490	10 129	11 118
<b>-STRUCTURAL INDICES:</b>				
Structural change indicator (5-year period, %)	8.83	10.17	14.08	13.11
as a percentage of 1970-1975 structural change	100	115	159	149
MVA growth rate per unit of structural change	4.23	1.80	1.26	1.94
Degree of specialization	11.2	10.3	8.8	10.3
<b>-VALUE ADDED: (millions of dollars)</b>				
311/2 Food products	544	475	1 305	1 641
313 Beverages	135	133	344	503
314 Tobacco products	64	93	592	952
321 Textiles	905	679	1 654	1 903
322 Wearing apparel	186	182	985	1 445
323 Leather and fur products	41	41	126	150
324 Footwear	86	86	452	738
331 Wood and wood products	325	150	532	698
332 Furniture and fixtures	106	30	233	359
341 Paper and paper products	274	276	577	701
342 Printing and publishing	180	140	523	805
351 Industrial chemicals	147	215	432	301
352 Other chemical products	224	190	481	682
353 Petroleum refineries	218	-18	591	2 747
354 Miscellaneous petroleum and coal products	1	-	3	11
355 Rubber products	58	45	54	109
356 Plastic products	128	87	237	293
361 Pottery, china and earthenware	80	67	291	447
362 Glass and glass products	87	53	173	265
369 Other non-metal mineral products	295	200	724	1 044
371 Iron and steel	207	98	273	162
372 Non-ferrous metals	33	26	81	109
381 Metal products	323	219	826	1 204
382 Non-electrical machinery	170	143	528	708
383 Electrical machinery	319	247	834	1 233
384 Transport equipment	428	222	583	697
385 Professional and scientific equipment	15	16	36	106
390 Other manufacturing industries	20	11	141	200

For sources, footnotes and comments see "Technical notes" at the beginning of this Annex.

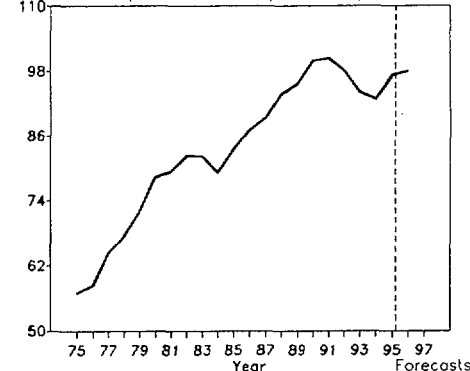
GDP per capita (1000\$)/c



Manufacturing share in GDP, current factor pr. (%)

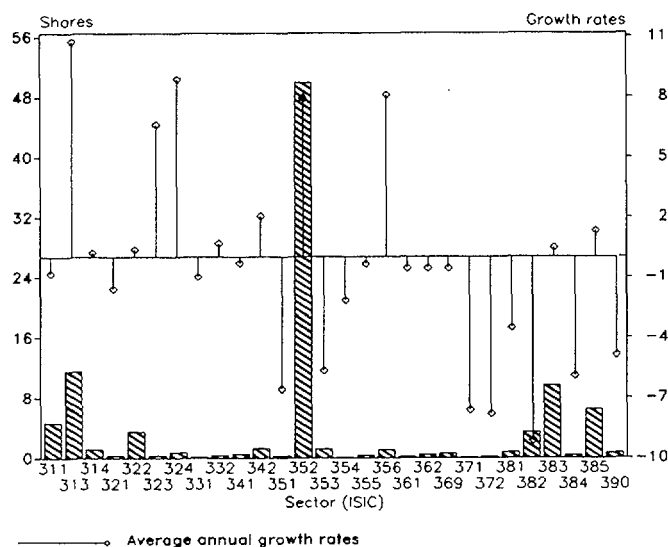


Industrial production index (1990=100)

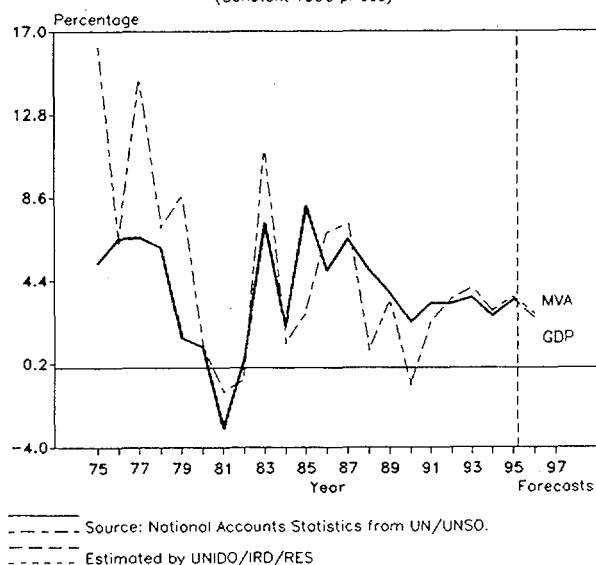


PUERTO RICO

Average sectoral shares in total Value Added and average annual sectoral growth rates, 1990-1996 (Percentage)

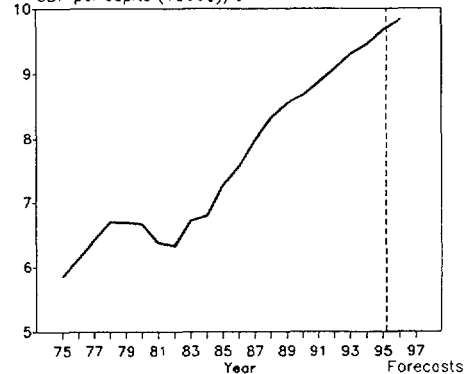


Annual growth rates of GDP and MVA (Constant 1990 prices)

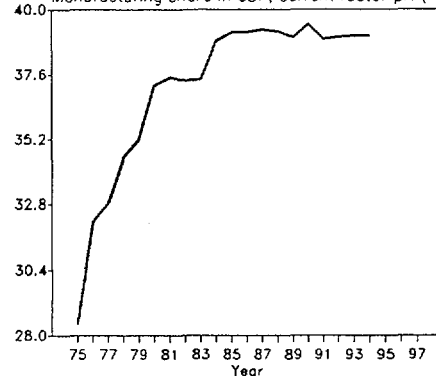


	1980	1985	1990	1995
<b>GDP:</b> <sup>na</sup> (millions of 1990-dollars)	21 300	24 583	30 604	35 824
Per capita <sup>na</sup> (1990-dollars)	6 663	7 277	8 675	9 679
Manufacturing share <sup>na</sup> (%) (current factor prices)	37.2	39.2	39.5	..
<b>MANUFACTURING:</b>				
Value added <sup>na</sup> (millions of 1990-dollars)	9 070	10 258	12 126	14 195
Industrial production index (1990=100)	67	76	100	126
Value added (millions of dollars)	5 976	7 968	12 126	17 675
Gross output (millions of dollars)	18 662	22 901	29 777	37 798
Employment (thousands)	155	149	129	123
<b>-PROFITABILITY: (in percent of gross output)</b>				
Intermediate input (%)	68	65	59	53
Wages and salaries including supplements (%)	8	9	10	10
Gross operating surplus and net taxes (%)	25	26	31	37
<b>-PRODUCTIVITY: (dollars)</b>				
Gross output per worker	120 663	153 923	193 356	259 883
Value added per worker	38 637	53 554	78 740	121 530
Average wage (including supplements)	9 109	13 499	23 196	30 047
<b>-STRUCTURAL INDICES:</b>				
Structural change indicator (5-year period, %) as a percentage of 1970-1975 structural change	9.81	8.75	8.50	10.39
MVA growth rate perer unit of structural change	1.29	1.76	2.67	2.77
Degree of specialization	29.8	32.3	37.2	44.9
<b>-VALUE ADDED: (millions of dollars)</b>				
311/2 Food products	405	485	673	733
313 Beverages	440	714	1 117	2 167
314 Tobacco products	122	143	171	200
321 Textiles	31	34	42	47
322 Wearing apparel	397	437	486	551
323 Leather and fur products	15	24	35	57
324 Footwear	58	64	78	138
331 Wood and wood products	15	15	19	21
332 Furniture and fixtures	26	29	40	49
341 Paper and paper products	51	56	66	80
342 Printing and publishing	57	86	164	207
351 Industrial chemicals	55	58	39	33
352 Other chemical products	1 817	2 849	5 334	9 239
353 Petroleum refineries	94	146	195	169
354 Miscellaneous petroleum and coal products	9	19	9	9
355 Rubber products	27	31	43	51
356 Plastic products	50	83	120	214
361 Pottery, china and earthenware	15	18	27	31
362 Glass and glass products	34	40	62	70
369 Other non-metal mineral products	48	57	87	98
371 Iron and steel	3	10	18	14
372 Non-ferrous metals	6	20	37	29
381 Metal products	81	93	116	112
382 Non-electrical machinery	534	502	668	455
383 Electrical machinery	1 027	1 246	1 409	1 669
384 Transport equipment	23	29	68	53
385 Professional and scientific equipment	438	582	889	1 080
390 Other manufacturing industries	98	98	113	101

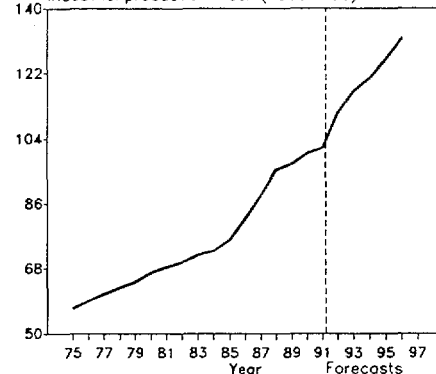
GDP per capita (1000\$)/c



Manufacturing share in GDP, current factor pr. (%)



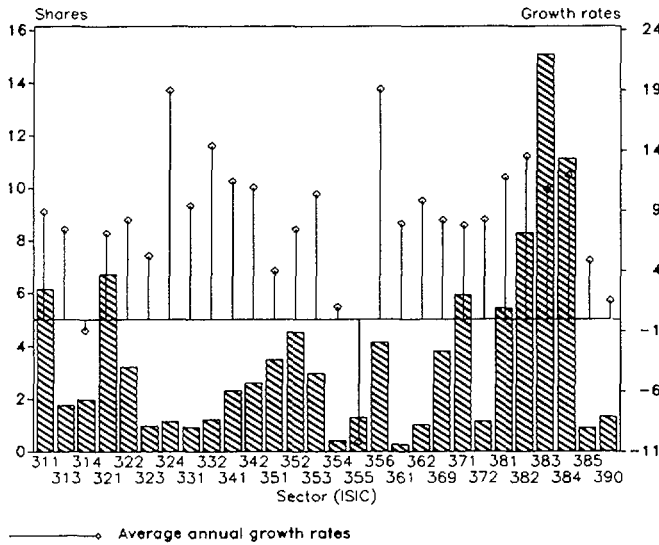
Industrial production index (1990=100)



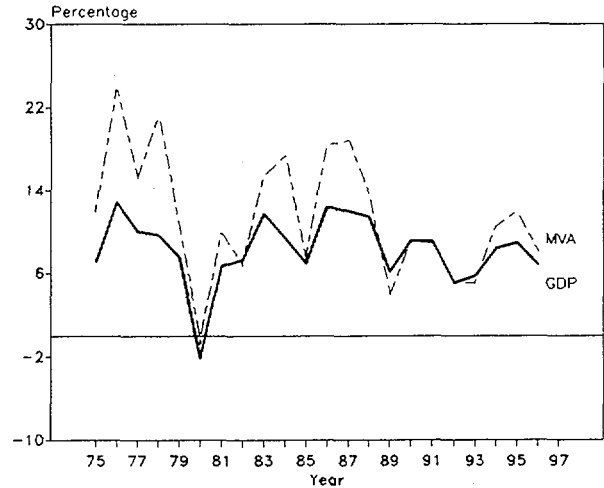
For sources, footnotes and comments see "Technical notes" at the beginning of this Annex.

REPUBLIC OF KOREA

Average sectoral shares in total Value Added and average annual sectoral growth rates, 1990-1996 (Percentage)



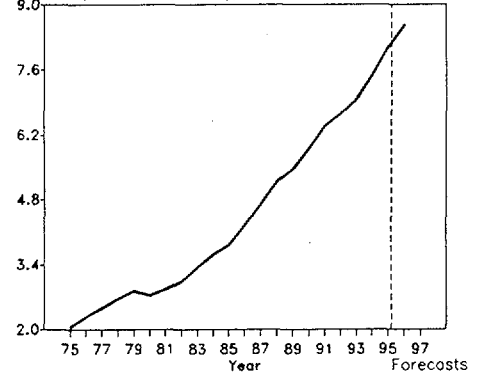
Annual growth rates of GDP and MVA (Constant 1990 prices)



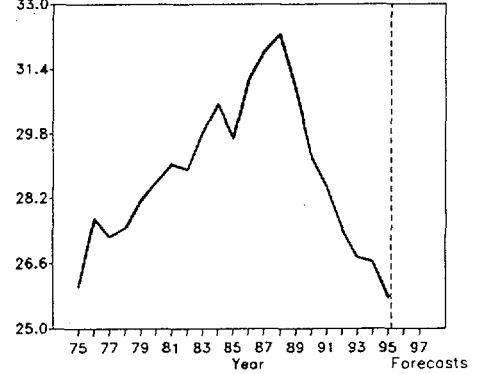
Source: National Accounts Statistics from UN/UNSO.  
 Estimated by UNIDO/IRD/RES

	1980	1985	1990	1995
<b>GDP:</b> <sup>na</sup> (millions of 1990-dollars)	104 146	155 956	253 672	363 191
Per capita <sup>na</sup> (1990-dollars)	2 732	3 822	5 917	8 087
Manufacturing share <sup>na</sup> (%) (current factor prices)	28.6	29.7	29.2	26.1
<b>MANUFACTURING:</b>				
Value added <sup>na</sup> (millions of 1990-dollars)	24 133	41 035	73 967	109 785
Industrial production index (1990=100)	36	60	100	142
Value added (millions of dollars)	19 520	30 731	100 209	196 400
Gross output (millions of dollars)	59 725	88 541	250 519	448 198
Employment (thousands)	2 015	2 395	2 958	2 985
<b>-PROFITABILITY: (in percent of gross output)</b>				
Intermediate input (%)	67	65	60	56
Wages and salaries including supplements (%)	10	9	11	11
Gross operating surplus and net taxes (%)	23	25	29	33
<b>-PRODUCTIVITY: (dollars)</b>				
Gross output per worker	29 206	36 314	82 959	146 227
Value added per worker	9 545	12 604	33 184	64 077
Average wage (including supplements)	2 837	3 476	9 353	16 435
<b>-STRUCTURAL INDICES:</b>				
Structural change indicator (5-year period, %) as a percentage of 1970-1975 structural change	12.58	11.30	10.04	8.74
MVA growth rate perer unit of structural change	7.34	5.94	8.41	9.37
Degree of specialization	9.1	9.5	10.4	12.3
<b>-VALUE ADDED: (millions of dollars)</b>				
311/2 Food products	1 526	2 048	6 047	11 726
313 Beverages	571	764	1 889	3 456
314 Tobacco products	1 143	1 442	2 794	3 020
321 Textiles	2 649	3 295	6 833	12 479
322 Wearing apparel	905	1 293	3 401	6 339
323 Leather and fur products	138	270	1 144	1 811
324 Footwear	112	211	594	1 891
331 Wood and wood products	239	262	876	1 774
332 Furniture and fixtures	100	203	972	2 441
341 Paper and paper products	426	682	2 123	4 631
342 Printing and publishing	440	732	2 531	5 329
351 Industrial chemicals	998	1 275	4 181	6 129
352 Other chemical products	1 016	1 422	4 926	8 702
353 Petroleum refineries	757	1 079	2 865	5 855
354 Miscellaneous petroleum and coal products	211	291	517	623
355 Rubber products	657	910	3 063	2 033
356 Plastic products	359	709	2 734	8 774
361 Pottery, china and earthenware	89	107	275	500
362 Glass and glass products	198	307	991	1 979
369 Other non-metal mineral products	838	1 065	3 697	6 872
371 Iron and steel	1 256	2 040	6 187	11 239
372 Non-ferrous metals	265	335	1 201	2 203
381 Metal products	635	1 237	5 145	11 258
382 Non-electrical machinery	672	1 453	7 004	16 853
383 Electrical machinery	1 587	3 621	15 066	31 789
384 Transport equipment	1 152	2 790	10 242	22 602
385 Professional and scientific equipment	214	290	1 144	1 756
390 Other manufacturing industries	367	598	1 769	2 335

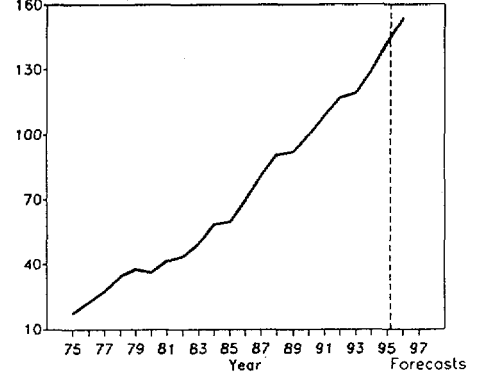
GDP per capita (1000\$)/c



Manufacturing share in GDP, current factor pr. (%)



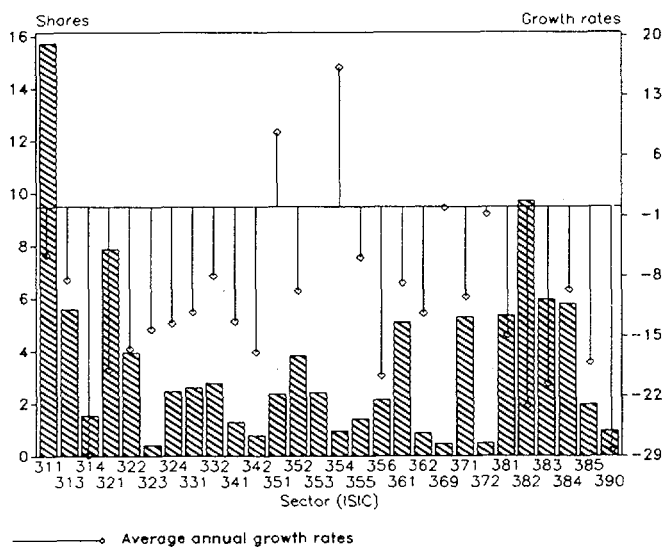
Industrial production index (1990=100)



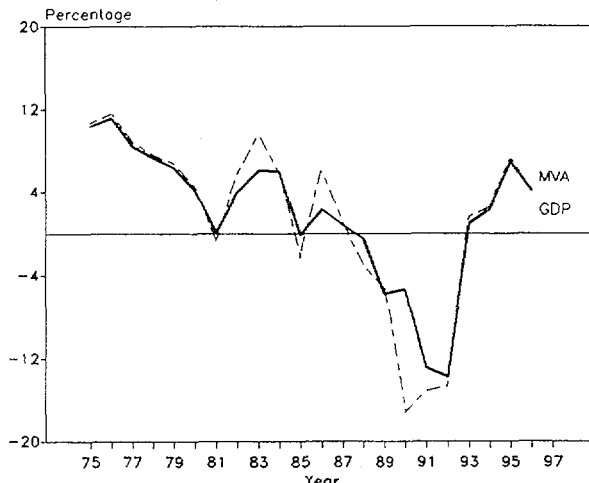
For sources, footnotes and comments see "Technical notes" at the beginning of this Annex.

ROMANIA

Average sectoral shares in total Value Added and average annual sectoral growth rates, 1990-1996 (Percentage)



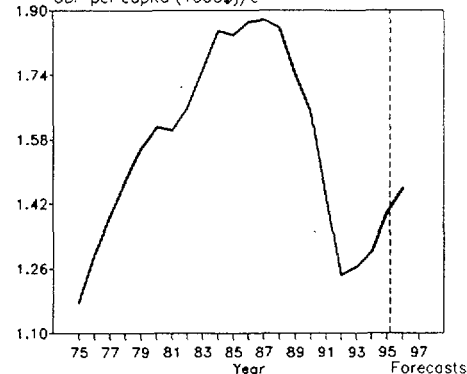
Annual growth rates of GDP and MVA (Constant 1990 prices)



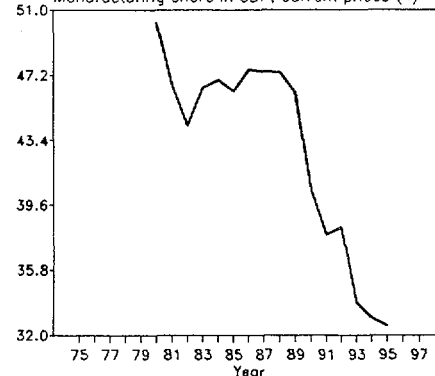
Source: National Accounts Statistics from UN/UNSO.  
 Estimated by UNIDO/IRD/RES

	1980	1985	1990	1995
<b>GDP:</b> <sup>na</sup> (millions of 1990-dollars)	35 767	41 786	38 244	31 753
Per capita <sup>na</sup> (1990-dollars)	1 611	1 839	1 648	1 397
Manufacturing share <sup>na</sup> (%) (current factor prices)	50.2	46.3	40.5	32.6
<b>MANUFACTURING:</b>				
Value added <sup>na</sup> (millions of 1990-dollars)	18 912	22 369	18 135	14 636
Industrial production index (1990=100)	91	106	100	72
Value added (millions of dollars)	9 091	16 778	14 047	8 606
Gross output (millions of dollars)	41 052	54 494	47 936	23 750
Employment (thousands)	2 800	2 945	3 451	2 471
<b>-PROFITABILITY: (in percent of gross output)</b>				
Intermediate input (%)	78	69	71	64
Wages and salaries including supplements (%)	9	10	12	11
Gross operating surplus and net taxes (%)	13	21	17	25
<b>-PRODUCTIVITY: (dollars)</b>				
Gross output per worker	14 647	18 499	13 219	9 230
Value added per worker	3 243	5 696	3 874	3 345
Average wage (including supplements)	1 352	1 861	1 725	1 078
<b>-STRUCTURAL INDICES:</b>				
Structural change indicator (5-year period, %) as a percentage of 1970-1975 structural change	12.92	12.31	17.06	23.18
MVA growth rate perer unit of structural change	4.35	2.67	1.09	-1.31
Degree of specialization	11.1	11.3	12.2	11.5
<b>-VALUE ADDED: (millions of dollars)</b>				
311/2 Food products	998	1 699	1 649	1 610
313 Beverages	665	770	642	570
314 Tobacco products	15	19	410	71
321 Textiles	469	1 259	1 449	570
322 Wearing apparel	290	761	691	324
323 Leather and fur products	124	287	67	35
324 Footwear	186	277	366	214
331 Wood and wood products	424	657	312	213
332 Furniture and fixtures	278	455	321	275
341 Paper and paper products	96	206	169	98
342 Printing and publishing	13	39	143	66
351 Industrial chemicals	382	538	111	265
352 Other chemical products	222	448	441	328
353 Petroleum refineries	354	515	- 134	316
354 Miscellaneous petroleum and coal products	44	62	36	133
355 Rubber products	188	271	129	137
356 Plastic products	45	136	397	145
361 Pottery, china and earthenware	11	44	571	439
362 Glass and glass products	72	152	120	74
369 Other non-metal mineral products	33	53	40	57
371 Iron and steel	597	978	651	463
372 Non-ferrous metals	278	353	22	36
381 Metal products	267	726	869	446
382 Non-electrical machinery	807	2 069	2 073	576
383 Electrical machinery	681	964	1 208	428
384 Transport equipment	737	1 371	704	522
385 Professional and scientific equipment	138	370	361	146
390 Other manufacturing industries	675	1 297	227	47

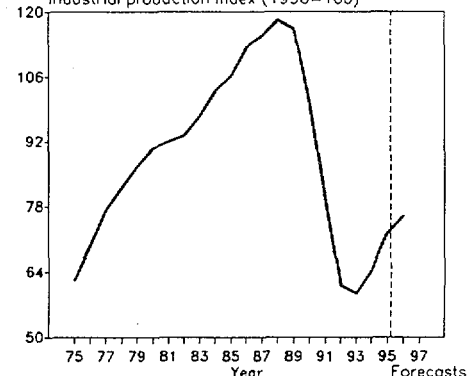
GDP per capita (1000\$)/c



Manufacturing share in GDP, current prices (%)



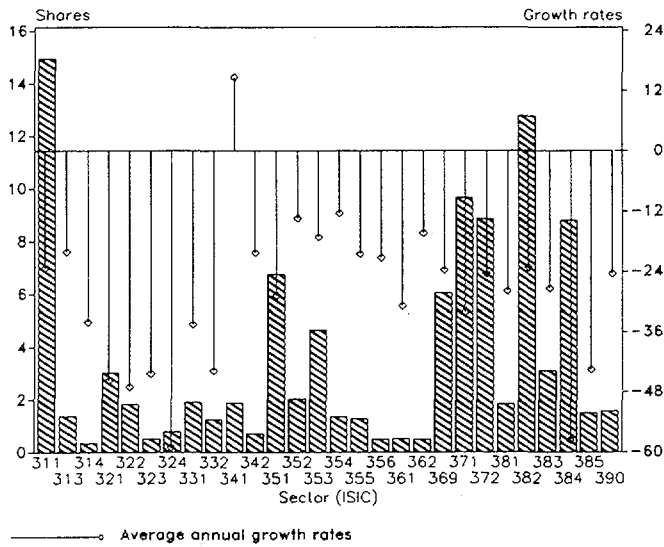
Industrial production index (1990=100)



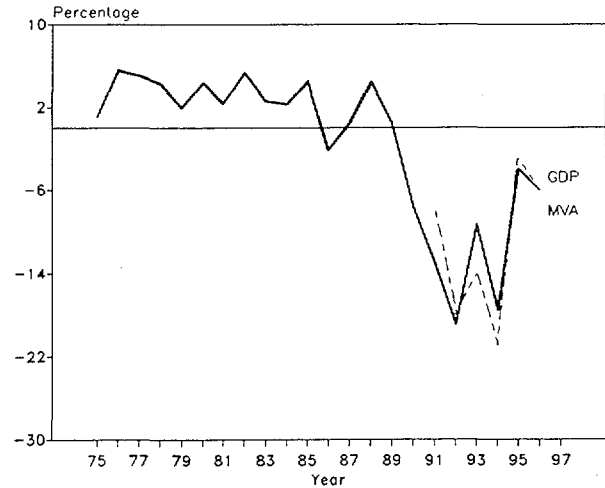
For sources, footnotes and comments see "Technical notes" at the beginning of this Annex.

RUSSIAN FEDERATION

Average sectoral shares in total Value Added and average annual sectoral growth rates, 1993-1995 (Percentage)



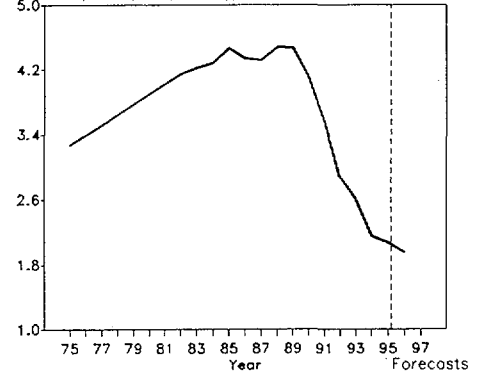
Annual growth rates of GDP and MVA (Constant 1990 prices)



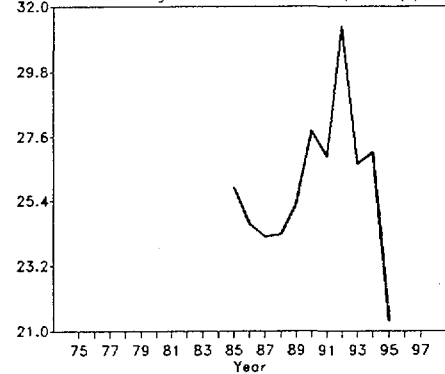
Source: National Accounts Statistics from UN/UNSO.  
 Estimated by UNIDO/IRD/RES.

	1980	1985	1990	1995
GDP: <sup>na</sup> (millions of 1990-dollars)	540 060	638 631	608 121	307 661
Per capita <sup>na</sup> (1990-dollars)	3 900	4 465	4 111	2 072
Manufacturing share <sup>na</sup> (%) (current factor prices)	..	25.9	27.8	21.3
<b>MANUFACTURING:</b>				
Value added <sup>na</sup> (millions of 1990-dollars)	..	..	169 135	84 097
Industrial production index (1990=100)	..	..	..	..
Value added (millions of dollars)	..	..	..	54 973
Gross output (millions of dollars)	..	..	413 285	148 065
Employment (thousands)	..	..	..	11 919
<b>-PROFITABILITY: (in percent of gross output)</b>				
Intermediate input (%)	..	..	..	63
Wages and salaries including supplements (%)	..	..	..	10
Gross operating surplus and net taxes (%)	..	..	..	27
<b>-PRODUCTIVITY: (dollars)</b>				
Gross output per worker	..	..	..	12 423
Value added per worker	..	..	..	4 612
Average wage (including supplements)	..	..	..	1 217
<b>-STRUCTURAL INDICES:</b>				
Structural change indicator (5-year period, %)	..	..	..	..
as a percentage of 1970-1975 structural change	..	..	..	..
MVA growth rate perer unit of structural change	..	..	..	..
Degree of specialization	..	..	..	..
<b>-VALUE ADDED: (millions of dollars)</b>				
311/2 Food products	..	..	..	8 772
313 Beverages	..	..	..	878
314 Tobacco products	..	..	..	185
321 Textiles	..	..	..	1 215
322 Wearing apparel	..	..	..	693
323 Leather and fur products	..	..	..	211
324 Footwear	..	..	..	203
331 Wood and wood products	..	..	..	962
332 Furniture and fixtures	..	..	..	519
341 Paper and paper products	..	..	..	1 834
342 Printing and publishing	..	..	..	429
351 Industrial chemicals	..	..	..	3 602
352 Other chemical products	..	..	..	1 368
353 Petroleum refineries	..	..	..	3 283
354 Miscellaneous petroleum and coal products	..	..	..	969
355 Rubber products	..	..	..	806
356 Plastic products	..	..	..	298
361 Pottery, china and earthenware	..	..	..	276
362 Glass and glass products	..	..	..	347
369 Other non-metal mineral products	..	..	..	3 529
371 Iron and steel	..	..	..	5 162
372 Non-ferrous metals	..	..	..	5 413
381 Metal products	..	..	..	1 030
382 Non-electrical machinery	..	..	..	7 592
383 Electrical machinery	..	..	..	1 842
384 Transport equipment	..	..	..	2 075
385 Professional and scientific equipment	..	..	..	568
390 Other manufacturing industries	..	..	..	911

GDP per capita (1000\$)/c



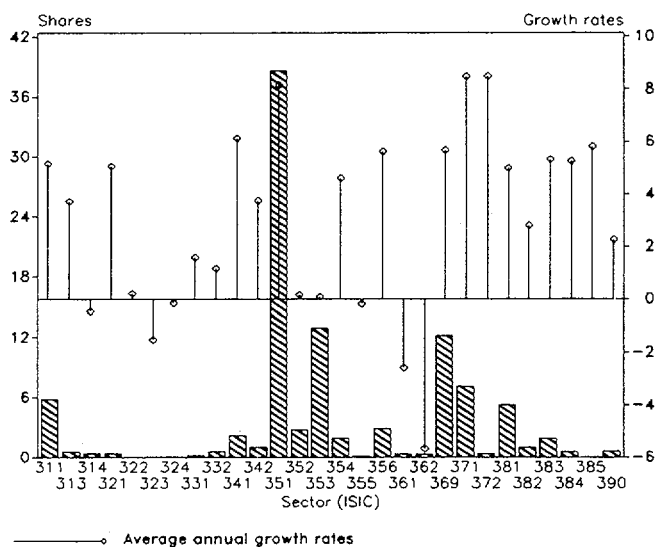
Manufacturing share in GDP, current prices (%)



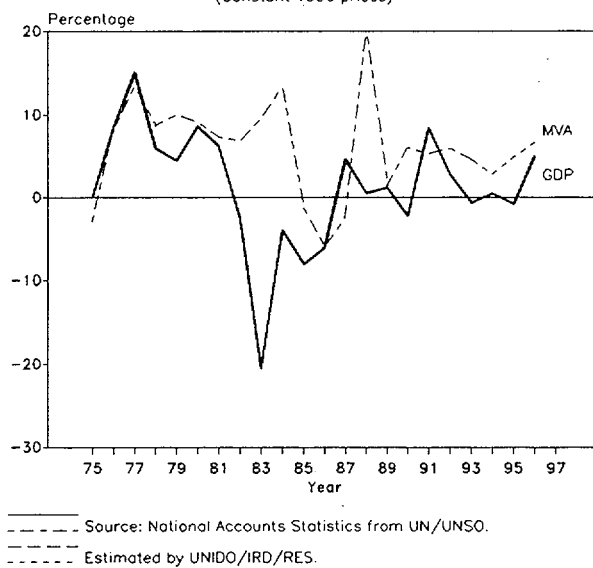
For sources, footnotes and comments see "Technical notes" at the beginning of this Annex.

SAUDI ARABIA

Average sectoral shares in total Value Added and average annual sectoral growth rates, 1990-1996 (Percentage)

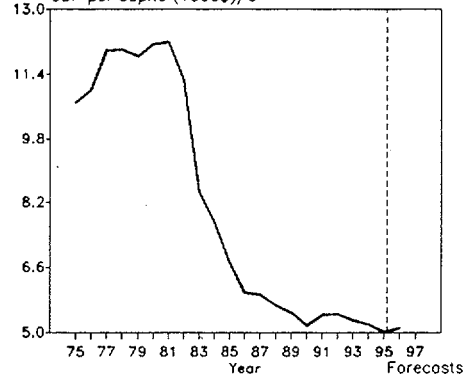


Annual growth rates of GDP and MVA (Constant 1990 prices)



	1980	1985	1990	1995
<b>GDP:</b> <sup>na</sup> (millions of 1990-dollars)	116 723	84 895	82 997	91 614
Per capita <sup>na</sup> (1990-dollars)	12 154	6 712	5 172	5 019
Manufacturing share <sup>na</sup> (%) (current factor prices)	5.0	7.0	9.7	..
<b>MANUFACTURING:</b>				
Value added <sup>na</sup> (millions of 1990-dollars)	4 829	6 756	7 962	9 986
Industrial production index (1990=100)	40	69	100	125
Value added (millions of dollars)	5 287	4 564	5 268	7 461
Gross output (millions of dollars)	10 401	13 479	17 710	29 407
Employment (thousands)	83	129	121	188
<b>-PROFITABILITY: (in percent of gross output)</b>				
Intermediate input (%)	..	..	..	..
Wages and salaries including supplements (%)	..	..	..	..
Gross operating surplus and net taxes (%)	..	..	..	..
<b>-PRODUCTIVITY: (dollars)</b>				
Gross output per worker	125 141	100 038	146 190	156 630
Value added per worker	74 006	33 958	43 957	39 790
Average wage (including supplements)	..	..	..	..
<b>-STRUCTURAL INDICES:</b>				
Structural change indicator (5-year period, %) as a percentage of 1970-1975 structural change	9.03	14.81	22.35	15.03
MVA growth rate per unit of structural change	100	164	247	166
Degree of specialization	5.25	1.60	0.34	1.57
Degree of specialization	46.3	35.4	33.1	35.7
<b>-VALUE ADDED: (millions of dollars)</b>				
311/2 Food products	267	286	300	431
313 Beverages	54	38	30	39
314 Tobacco products	41	28	23	23
321 Textiles	23	22	20	30
322 Wearing apparel	7	5	5	5
323 Leather and fur products	6	5	5	4
324 Footwear	2	1	1	1
331 Wood and wood products	11	9	9	11
332 Furniture and fixtures	45	34	35	41
341 Paper and paper products	68	86	110	162
342 Printing and publishing	48	51	56	75
351 Industrial chemicals	447	896	1 868	3 014
352 Other chemical products	153	150	161	175
353 Petroleum refineries	2 964	1 638	844	839
354 Miscellaneous petroleum and coal products	156	113	100	139
355 Rubber products	7	7	8	8
356 Plastic products	170	153	148	221
361 Pottery, china and earthenware	24	16	20	20
362 Glass and glass products	22	14	20	16
369 Other non-metal mineral products	505	571	619	907
371 Iron and steel	17	94	342	561
372 Non-ferrous metals	1	5	17	28
381 Metal products	129	186	289	394
382 Non-electrical machinery	29	41	63	76
383 Electrical machinery	47	67	105	147
384 Transport equipment	14	20	31	43
385 Professional and scientific equipment	1	1	2	3
390 Other manufacturing industries	29	28	38	46

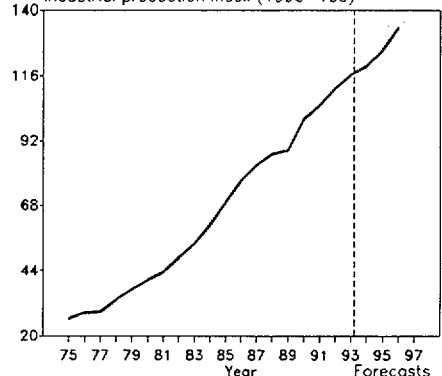
GDP per capita (1000\$/c)



Manufacturing share in GDP, current factor pr. (%)

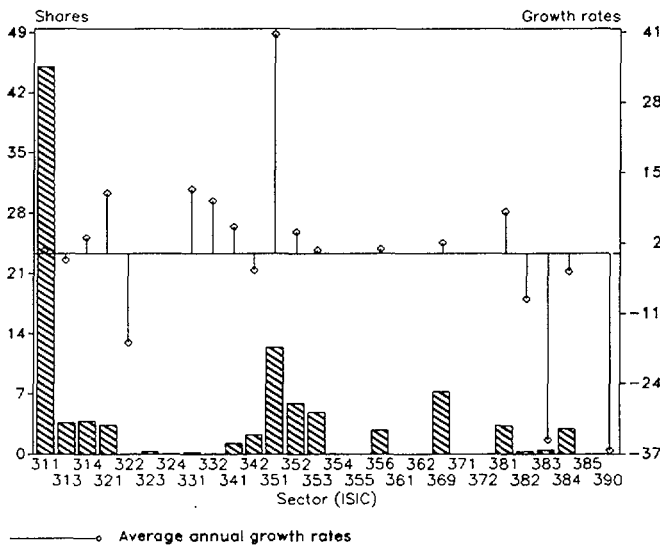


Industrial production index (1990=100)

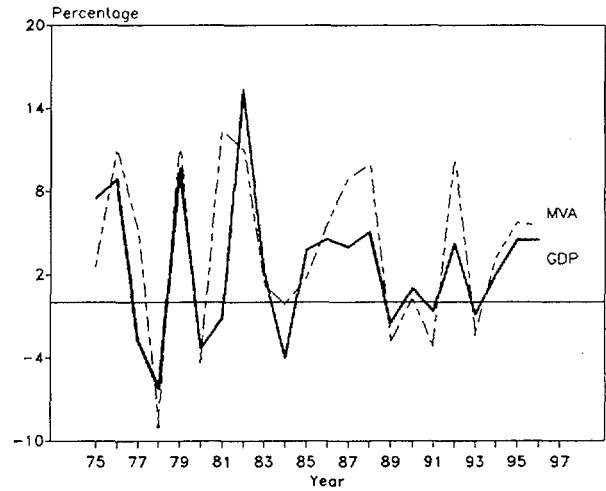


For sources, footnotes and comments see "Technical notes" at the beginning of this Annex.

Average sectoral shares in total Value Added and average annual sectoral growth rates, 1990-1996 (Percentage)

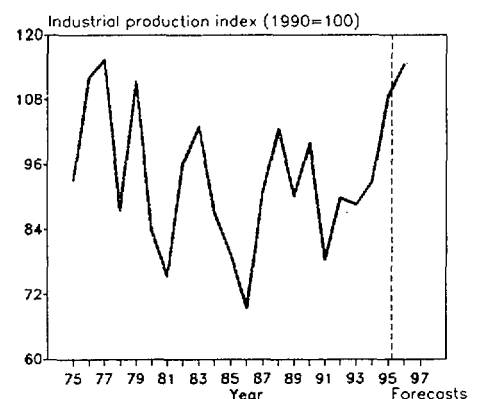
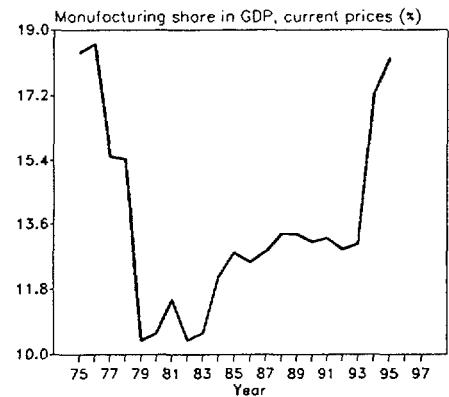
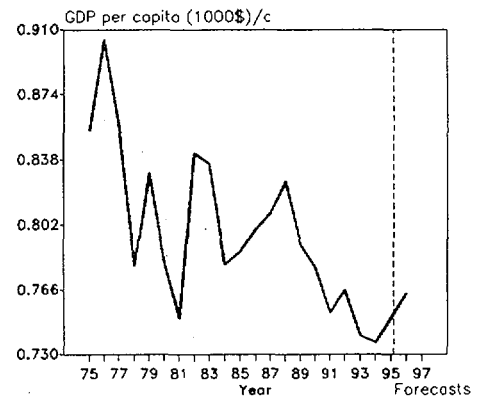


Annual growth rates of GDP and MVA (Constant 1990 prices)



Source: National Accounts Statistics from UN/UNSO.  
 Estimated by UNIDO/IRD/RES.

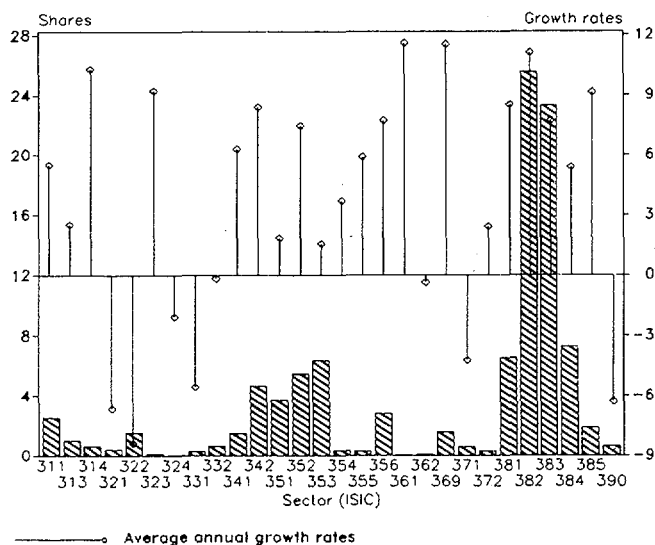
	1980	1985	1990	1995
<b>GDP:</b> <sup>na</sup> (millions of 1990-dollars)	4 326	5 019	5 703	6 237
Per capita <sup>na</sup> (1990-dollars)	781	787	778	750
Manufacturing share <sup>na</sup> (%) (current factor prices)	10.6	12.8	13.1	18.2
<b>MANUFACTURING:</b>				
Value added <sup>na</sup> (millions of 1990-dollars)	476	609	747	845
Industrial production index (1990=100)	84	79	100	109
Value added (millions of dollars)	266	268	421	398
Gross output (millions of dollars)	1 070	926	1 583	1 278
Employment (thousands)	32	30	32	29
<b>-PROFITABILITY: (in percent of gross output)</b>				
Intermediate input (%)	75	71	73	69
Wages and salaries including supplements (%)	10	11	10	8
Gross operating surplus and net taxes (%)	14	18	16	23
<b>-PRODUCTIVITY: (dollars)</b>				
Gross output per worker	33 812	18 247	48 738	42 802
Value added per worker	8 400	3 701	12 956	13 604
Average wage (including supplements)	3 508	3 298	5 056	3 584
<b>-STRUCTURAL INDICES:</b>				
Structural change indicator (5-year period, %)	12.32	14.73	23.47	22.21
as a percentage of 1970-1975 structural change	100	120	191	180
MVA growth rate perer unit of structural change	0.52	0.23	0.53	0.44
Degree of specialization	26.8	25.7	36.5	35.0
<b>-VALUE ADDED: (millions of dollars)</b>				
311/2 Food products	113	100	221	169
313 Beverages	12	8	17	11
314 Tobacco products	7	8	16	14
321 Textiles	33	23	13	17
322 Wearing apparel	10	7	-	-
323 Leather and fur products	5	4	-	4
324 Footwear	2	1	-	1
331 Wood and wood products	2	1	1	1
332 Furniture and fixtures	2	1	-	-
341 Paper and paper products	4	3	5	5
342 Printing and publishing	6	9	10	6
351 Industrial chemicals	16	18	13	70
352 Other chemical products	5	7	24	21
353 Petroleum refineries	18	-	27	22
354 Miscellaneous petroleum and coal products	-	-	-	-
355 Rubber products	-	2	-	-
356 Plastic products	-	6	11	9
361 Pottery, china and earthenware	-	-	-	-
362 Glass and glass products	-	-	-	-
369 Other non-metal mineral products	12	22	31	25
371 Iron and steel	-	-	-	-
372 Non-ferrous metals	-	-	-	-
381 Metal products	10	24	11	13
382 Non-electrical machinery	3	9	2	1
383 Electrical machinery	1	2	3	-
384 Transport equipment	5	13	17	10
385 Professional and scientific equipment	-	-	-	-
390 Other manufacturing industries	-	1	-	-



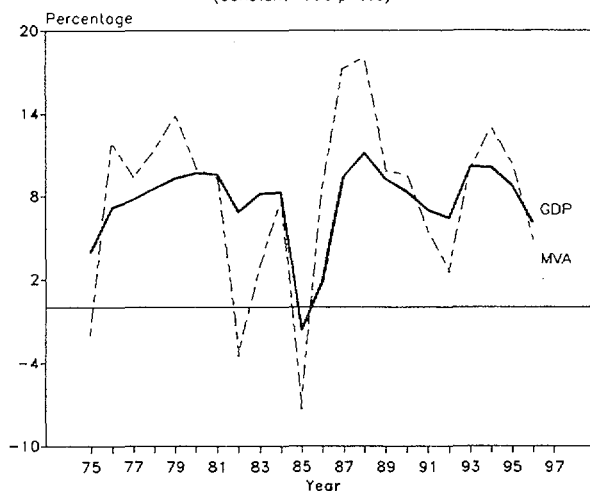
For sources, footnotes and comments see "Technical notes" at the beginning of this Annex.

SINGAPORE

Average sectoral shares in total Value Added and average annual sectoral growth rates, 1990-1996 (Percentage)



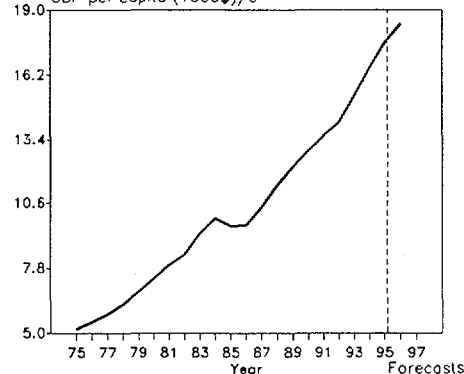
Annual growth rates of GDP and MVA (Constant 1990 prices)



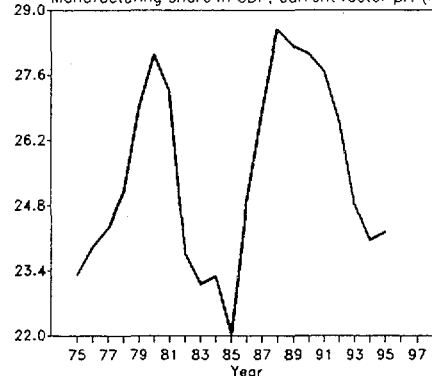
Source: National Accounts Statistics from UN/UNSO.  
 Estimated by UNIDO/IRD/RES.

	1980	1985	1990	1995
GDP: <sup>na</sup> (millions of 1990-dollars)	17 684	23 874	34 991	52 540
Per capita <sup>na</sup> (1990-dollars)	7 338	9 615	12 912	17 590
Manufacturing share <sup>na</sup> (%) (current factor prices)	28.0	22.0	28.0	24.1
<b>MANUFACTURING:</b>				
Value added <sup>na</sup> (millions of 1990-dollars)	5 311	5 738	10 343	15 299
Industrial production index (1990=100)	64	64	100	127
Value added (millions of dollars)	4 001	4 864	11 896	24 848
Gross output (millions of dollars)	15 278	17 575	39 345	79 733
Employment (thousands)	287	254	352	382
<b>-PROFITABILITY: (in percent of gross output)</b>				
Intermediate input (%)	74	72	70	69
Wages and salaries including supplements (%)	8	10	10	10
Gross operating surplus (%)	18	17	21	22
<b>-PRODUCTIVITY: (dollars)</b>				
Gross output per worker	53 196	69 187	111 880	208 585
Value added per worker	13 929	19 147	33 826	65 058
Average wage (including supplements)	4 139	7 235	10 786	20 104
<b>-STRUCTURAL INDICES:</b>				
Structural change indicator (5-year period, %) as a percentage of 1970-1975 structural change	14.06	13.60	17.43	12.90
MVA growth rate perer unit of structural change	100	97	124	92
Degree of specialization	7.22	4.18	2.55	4.91
Degree of specialization	22.0	24.0	25.7	29.9
<b>-VALUE ADDED: (millions of dollars)</b>				
311/2 Food products	121	180	322	629
313 Beverages	52	76	139	230
314 Tobacco products	25	35	64	168
321 Textiles	70	28	72	74
322 Wearing apparel	127	157	294	242
323 Leather and fur products	7	5	11	27
324 Footwear	9	5	9	12
331 Wood and wood products	84	43	55	59
332 Furniture and fixtures	40	61	89	133
341 Paper and paper products	45	82	189	376
342 Printing and publishing	128	229	514	1 175
351 Industrial chemicals	52	138	584	877
352 Other chemical products	143	267	600	1 277
353 Petroleum refineries	656	379	872	1 339
354 Miscellaneous petroleum and coal products	30	18	45	80
355 Rubber products	44	21	35	77
356 Plastic products	84	102	327	714
361 Pottery, china and earthenware	1	-	2	7
362 Glass and glass products	7	7	9	13
369 Other non-metal mineral products	82	140	149	410
371 Iron and steel	62	48	97	102
372 Non-ferrous metals	9	17	41	65
381 Metal products	206	298	730	1 650
382 Non-electrical machinery	319	370	2 737	6 805
383 Electrical machinery	950	1 538	2 707	5 991
384 Transport equipment	500	470	890	1 733
385 Professional and scientific equipment	80	89	200	474
390 Other manufacturing industries	69	58	114	111

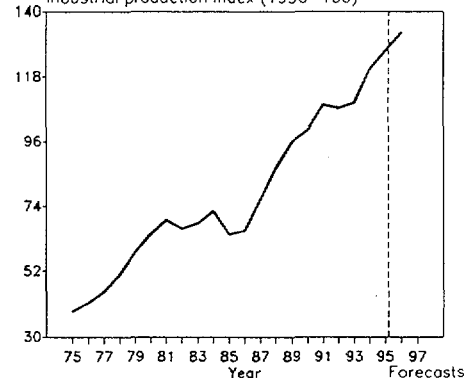
GDP per capita (1000\$)/c



Manufacturing share in GDP, current factor pr. (%)



Industrial production index (1990=100)

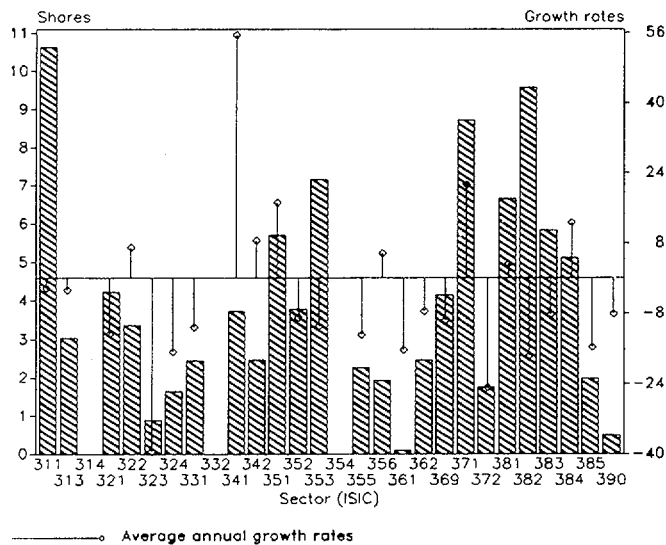


For sources, footnotes and comments see "Technical notes" at the beginning of this Annex.

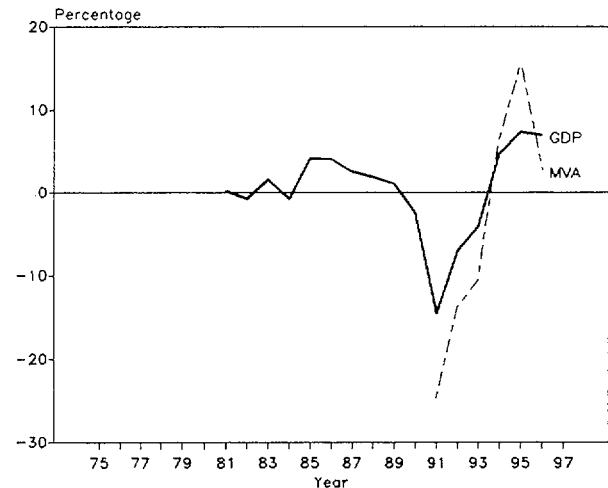


## SLOVAKIA

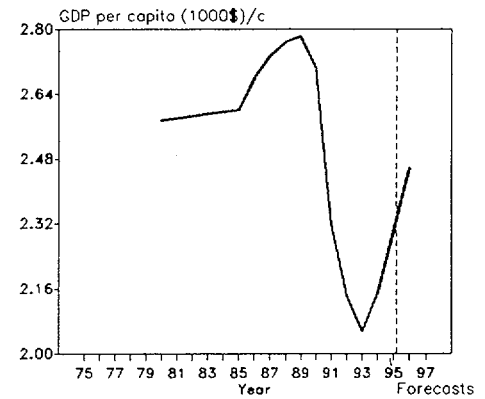
Average sectoral shares in total Value Added and average annual sectoral growth rates, 1993-1994 (Percentage)



Annual growth rates of GDP and MVA (Constant 1990 prices)



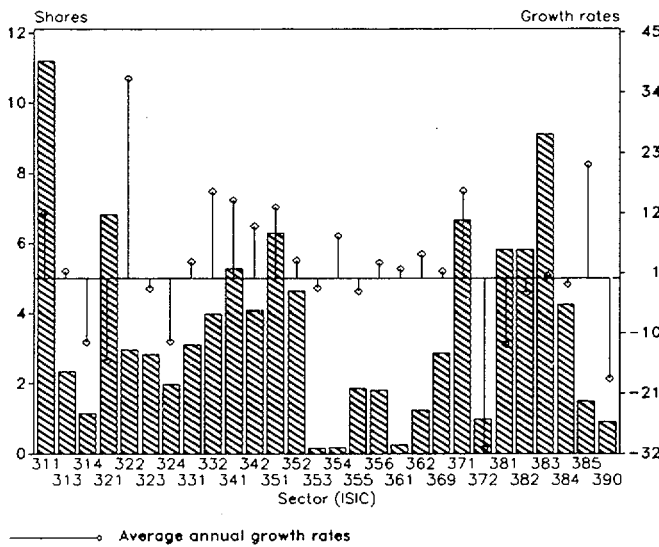
	1980	1985	1990	1994
GDP: <sup>na</sup> (millions of 1990-dollars)	12 814	13 370	14 323	11 441
Per capita <sup>na</sup> (1990-dollars)	2 575	2 601	2 702	2 149
Manufacturing share <sup>na</sup> (%) (current factor prices)	..	..	..	..
<b>MANUFACTURING:</b>				
Value added <sup>na</sup> (millions of 1990-dollars)	..	..	5 282	3 261
Industrial production index (1990=100)	..	..	..	..
Value added (millions of dollars)	..	..	..	2 690
Gross output (millions of dollars)	609	592	12 489	11 952
Employment (thousands)	120	123	617	445
<b>-PROFITABILITY: (in percent of gross output)</b>				
Intermediate input (%)	..	..	..	77
Wages and salaries including supplements (%)	..	..	..	9
Gross operating surplus and net taxes (%)	..	..	..	14
<b>-PRODUCTIVITY: (dollars)</b>				
Gross output per worker	14 386	13 600	20 240	26 862
Value added per worker	..	..	..	6 047
Average wage (including supplements)	1 752	1 638	1 679	2 327
<b>-STRUCTURAL INDICES:</b>				
Structural change indicator (5-year period, %) as a percentage of 1970-1975 structural change	..	..	..	..
MVA growth rate perer unit of structural change	..	..	..	..
Degree of specialization	..	..	..	..
<b>-VALUE ADDED: (millions of dollars)</b>				
311/2 Food products	..	..	..	285
313 Beverages	..	..	..	81
314 Tobacco products	..	..	..	..
321 Textiles	..	..	..	107
322 Wearing apparel	..	..	..	94
323 Leather and fur products	..	..	..	18
324 Footwear	..	..	..	41
331 Wood and wood products	..	..	..	62
332 Furniture and fixtures	..	..	..	..
341 Paper and paper products	..	..	..	123
342 Printing and publishing	..	..	..	69
351 Industrial chemicals	..	..	..	167
352 Other chemical products	..	..	..	98
353 Petroleum refineries	..	..	..	183
354 Miscellaneous petroleum and coal products	..	..	..	..
355 Rubber products	..	..	..	57
356 Plastic products	..	..	..	54
361 Pottery, china and earthenware	..	..	..	2
362 Glass and glass products	..	..	..	64
369 Other non-metal mineral products	..	..	..	107
371 Iron and steel	..	..	..	259
372 Non-ferrous metals	..	..	..	40
381 Metal products	..	..	..	183
382 Non-electrical machinery	..	..	..	235
383 Electrical machinery	..	..	..	151
384 Transport equipment	..	..	..	147
385 Professional and scientific equipment	..	..	..	49
390 Other manufacturing industries	..	..	..	13



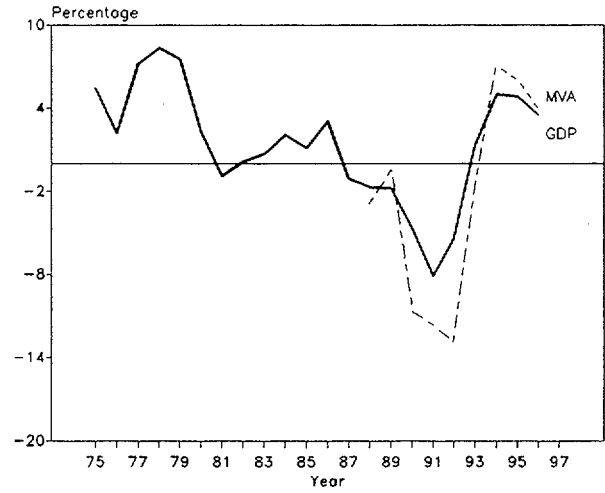
For sources, footnotes and comments see "Technical notes" at the beginning of this Annex.

SLOVENIA

Average sectoral shares in total Value Added and average annual sectoral growth rates, 1990-1996 (Percentage)



Annual growth rates of GDP and MVA (Constant 1990 prices)

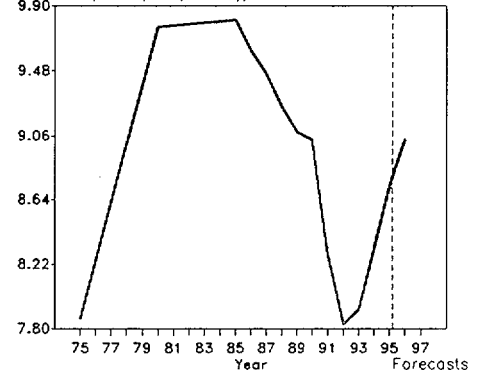


Source: National Accounts Statistics from UN/UNSO.  
 Estimated by UNIDO/IRD/RES.

	1980	1985	1990	1995
GDP: <sup>na</sup> (millions of 1990-dollars)	17 886	18 451	17 330	16 800
Per capita <sup>na</sup> (1990-dollars)	9 763	9 809	9 035	8 727
Manufacturing share <sup>na</sup> (%) (current factor prices)	40.9	40.9	33.3	26.7
<b>MANUFACTURING:</b>				
Value added <sup>na</sup> (millions of 1990-dollars)	..	..	5 157	4 407
Industrial production index (1990=100)	..	116	100	81
Value added (millions of dollars)	2 977	2 519	5 305	6 033
Gross output (millions of dollars)	22 178	10 859	15 774	16 665
Employment (thousands)	499	402	356	262
<b>-PROFITABILITY: (in percent of gross output)</b>				
Intermediate input (%)	85	77	66	64
Wages and salaries including supplements (%)	14	16	22	16
Gross operating surplus and net taxes (%)	1	7	12	20
<b>-PRODUCTIVITY: (dollars)</b>				
Gross output per worker	40 259	24 922	42 911	59 943
Value added per worker	7 129	5 916	14 418	22 181
Average wage (including supplements)	6 827	4 388	9 561	10 264
<b>-STRUCTURAL INDICES:</b>				
Structural change indicator (5-year period, %)	14.66	14.55	13.88	19.21
as a percentage of 1970-1975 structural change	100	99	95	131
MVA growth rate perer unit of structural change	-0.33	1.22	0.48	-0.05
Degree of specialization	16.1	24.7	9.8	10.8
<b>-VALUE ADDED: (millions of dollars)</b>				
311/2 Food products	186	150	426	762
313 Beverages	53	39	127	130
314 Tobacco products	14	7	52	27
321 Textiles	..	402	581	239
322 Wearing apparel	3	4	48	262
323 Leather and fur products	17	24	158	142
324 Footwear	40	32	138	71
331 Wood and wood products	99	95	193	198
332 Furniture and fixtures	50	64	157	323
341 Paper and paper products	121	102	173	406
342 Printing and publishing	..	72	159	238
351 Industrial chemicals	102	80	234	438
352 Other chemical products	96	72	251	291
353 Petroleum refineries	10	5	5	5
354 Miscellaneous petroleum and coal products	4	2	5	9
355 Rubber products	85	58	109	101
356 Plastic products	51	44	100	107
361 Pottery, china and earthenware	..	8	13	14
362 Glass and glass products	24	22	67	78
369 Other non-metal mineral products	82	68	171	168
371 Iron and steel	204	119	196	509
372 Non-ferrous metals	126	42	131	15
381 Metal products	467	264	504	251
382 Non-electrical machinery	540	261	349	322
383 Electrical machinery	308	297	546	534
384 Transport equipment	148	107	287	252
385 Professional and scientific equipment	8	10	40	115
390 Other manufacturing industries	138	66	85	27

For sources, footnotes and comments see "Technical notes" at the beginning of this Annex.

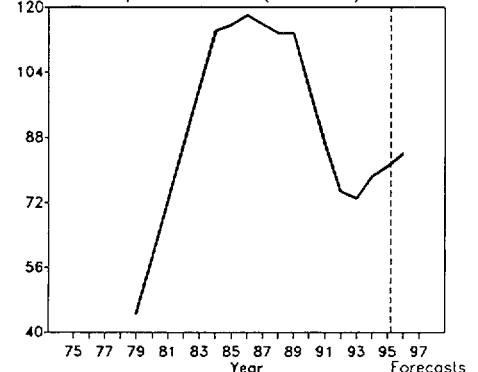
GDP per capita (1000\$)/c



Manufacturing share in GDP, current factor pr. (%)

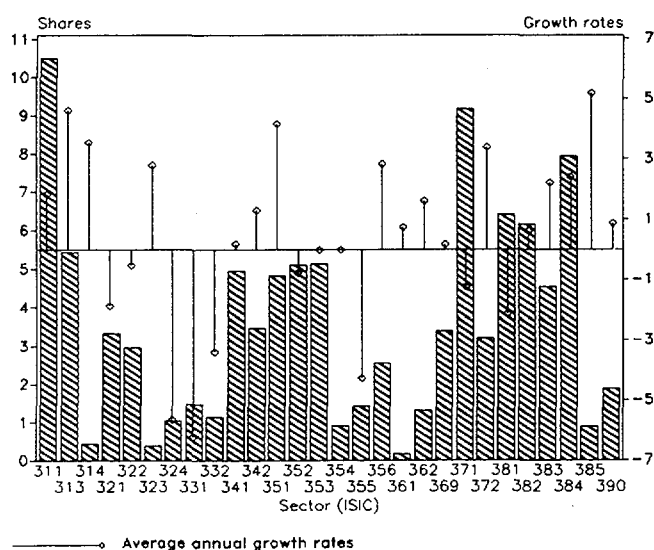


Industrial production index (1990=100)

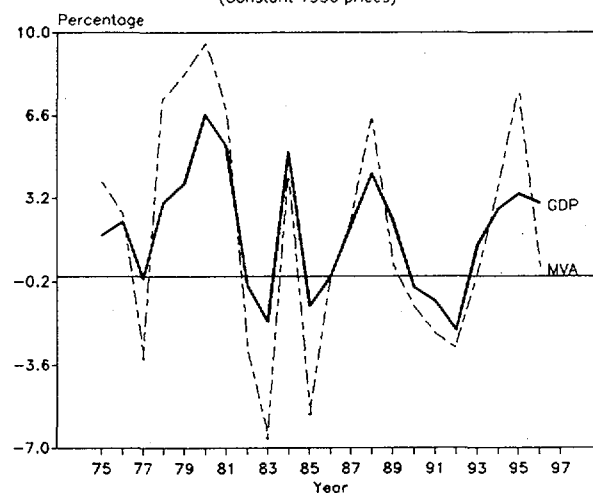


## SOUTH AFRICA

Average sectoral shares in total Value Added and average annual sectoral growth rates, 1990-1996 (Percentage)



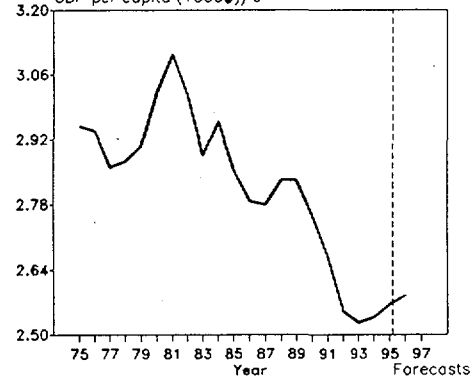
Annual growth rates of GDP and MVA (Constant 1990 prices)



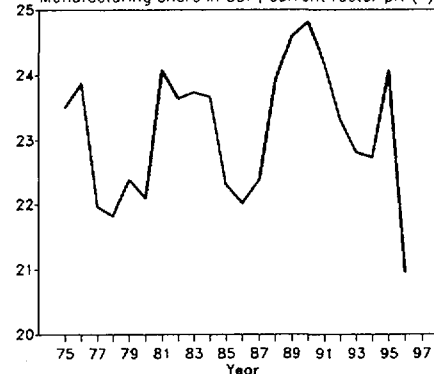
Source: National Accounts Statistics from UN/UNSO.  
Estimated by UNIDO/IRD/RES.

	1980	1985	1990	1995
GDP: <sup>na</sup> (millions of 1990-dollars)	88 156	94 292	102 167	106 403
Per capita <sup>na</sup> (1990-dollars)	3 022	2 854	2 756	2 566
Manufacturing share <sup>na</sup> (%) (current factor prices)	22.1	22.3	24.8	24.1
<b>MANUFACTURING:</b>				
Value added <sup>na</sup> (millions of 1990-dollars)	22 709	21 534	23 181	24 442
Industrial production index (1990=100)	91	93	100	103
Value added (millions of dollars)	17 866	12 409	23 181	29 071
Gross output (millions of dollars)	53 686	36 059	68 770	78 533
Employment (thousands)	1 392	1 422	1 525	1 432
<b>-PROFITABILITY: (in percent of gross output)</b>				
Intermediate input (%)	67	66	66	63
Wages and salaries including supplements (%)	16	18	17	18
Gross operating surplus (%)	17	17	17	19
<b>-PRODUCTIVITY: (dollars)</b>				
Gross output per worker	38 568	24 972	45 095	54 820
Value added per worker	12 835	8 629	15 201	20 303
Average wage (including supplements)	6 120	4 466	7 708	10 093
<b>-STRUCTURAL INDICES:</b>				
Structural change indicator (5-year period, %) as a percentage of 1970-1975 structural change	7.44	11.56	13.10	8.57
MVA growth rate per unit of structural change	100	155	176	115
Degree of specialization	1.99	1.41	0.75	0.92
Degree of specialization	10.7	9.2	8.4	8.8
<b>-VALUE ADDED: (millions of dollars)</b>				
311/2 Food products	1 626	1 277	2 220	3 028
313 Beverages	458	418	1 055	1 660
314 Tobacco products	111	108	83	126
321 Textiles	886	408	851	923
322 Wearing apparel	477	334	701	828
323 Leather and fur products	40	44	75	107
324 Footwear	152	113	316	272
331 Wood and wood products	213	190	469	387
332 Furniture and fixtures	219	138	307	306
341 Paper and paper products	591	471	1 208	1 466
342 Printing and publishing	549	392	763	990
351 Industrial chemicals	1 006	717	932	1 457
352 Other chemical products	639	1 047	1 255	1 424
353 Petroleum refineries	634	1 038	1 244	1 457
354 Miscellaneous petroleum and coal products	111	182	217	255
355 Rubber products	297	157	401	382
356 Plastic products	355	225	560	761
361 Pottery, china and earthenware	28	24	42	52
362 Glass and glass products	154	102	292	389
369 Other non-metal mineral products	754	481	794	993
371 Iron and steel	2 135	986	2 343	2 700
372 Non-ferrous metals	555	418	642	923
381 Metal products	1 576	860	1 697	1 825
382 Non-electrical machinery	1 351	805	1 432	1 819
383 Electrical machinery	1 229	607	970	1 369
384 Transport equipment	1 258	566	1 705	2 334
385 Professional and scientific equipment	49	54	160	263
390 Other manufacturing industries	415	246	448	575

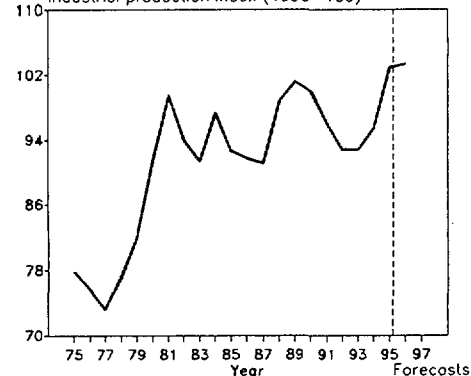
GDP per capita (1000\$)/c



Manufacturing share in GDP, current factor pr. (%)



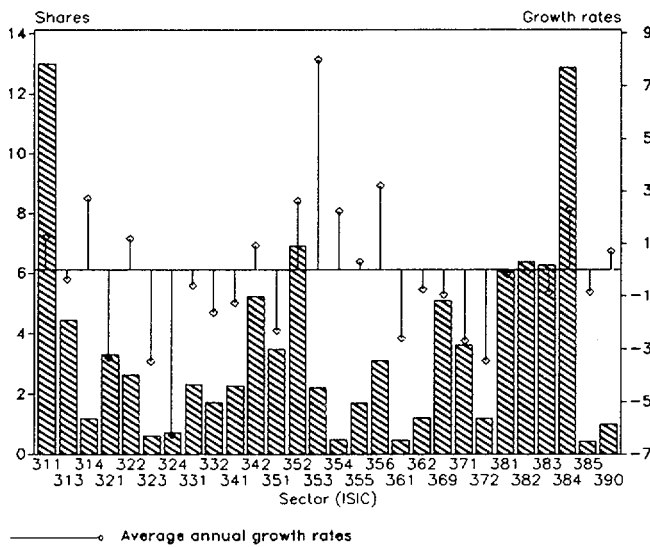
Industrial production index (1990=100)



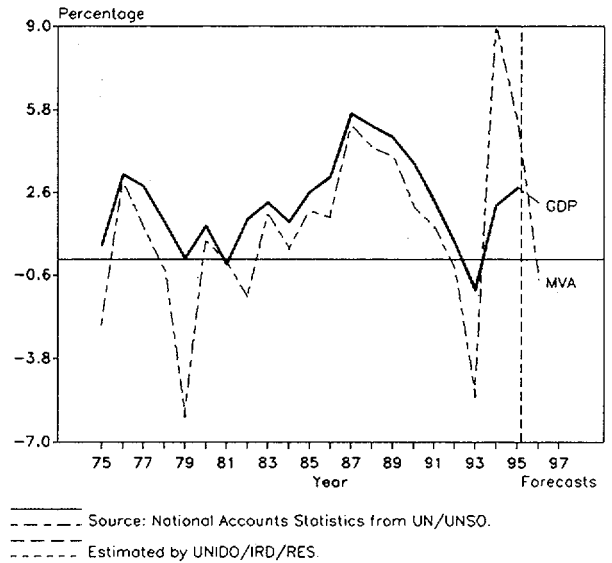
For sources, footnotes and comments see "Technical notes" at the beginning of this Annex.

SPAIN

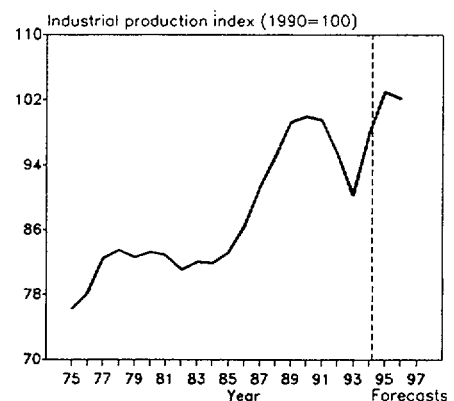
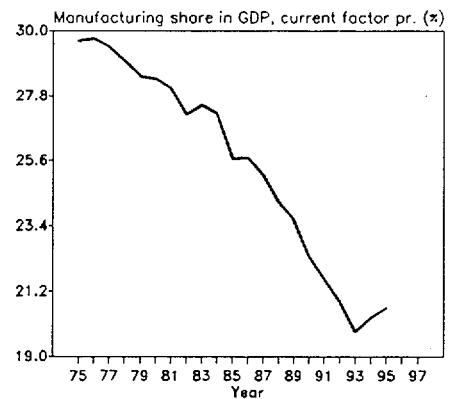
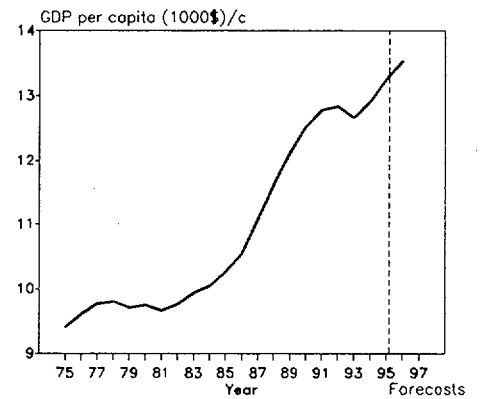
Average sectoral shares in total Value Added and average annual sectoral growth rates, 1990-1996 (Percentage)



Annual growth rates of GDP and MVA (Constant 1990 prices)



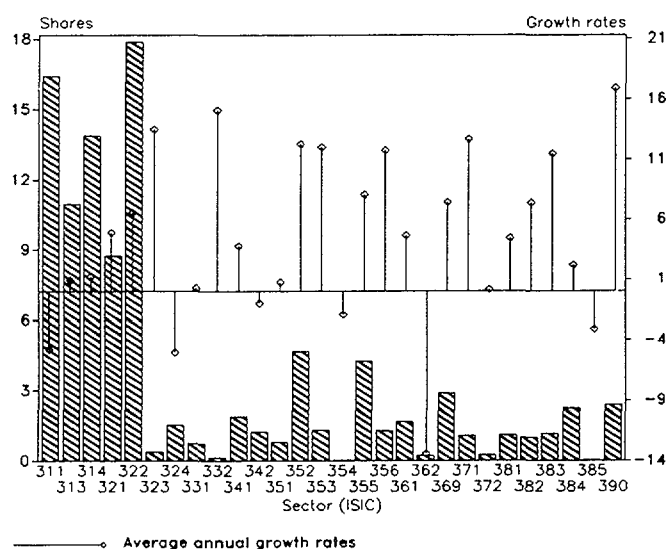
	1980	1985	1990	1995
GDP: <sup>na</sup> (millions of 1990-dollars)	365 986	394 916	491 957	525 324
Per capita <sup>na</sup> (1990-dollars)	9 749	10 264	12 527	13 257
Manufacturing share <sup>na</sup> (%) (current factor prices)	28.4	25.7	22.4	20.6
<b>MANUFACTURING:</b>				
Value added <sup>na</sup> (millions of 1990-dollars)	92 018	94 161	111 315	121 881
Industrial production index (1990=100)	83	83	100	103
Value added (millions of dollars)	51 944	33 139	87 679	95 386
Gross output (millions of dollars)	149 786	104 594	259 945	275 846
Employment (thousands)	2 383	1 793	1 907	1 774
<b>-PROFITABILITY: (in percent of gross output)</b>				
Intermediate input (%)	65	68	66	65
Wages and salaries including supplements (%)	20	17	18	14
Gross operating surplus (%)	14	15	16	21
<b>-PRODUCTIVITY: (dollars)</b>				
Gross output per worker	59 041	53 985	127 029	145 447
Value added per worker	20 475	17 112	42 847	50 296
Average wage (including supplements)	12 852	9 694	24 205	21 646
<b>-STRUCTURAL INDICES:</b>				
Structural change indicator (5-year period, %) as a percentage of 1970-1975 structural change	9.37	9.59	7.52	6.03
MVA growth rate perer unit of structural change	100	102	80	64
Degree of specialization	4.74	2.01	-0.03	1.17
Degree of specialization	8.4	8.5	10.1	10.9
<b>-VALUE ADDED: (millions of dollars)</b>				
311/2 Food products	5 665	4 193	10 773	12 194
313 Beverages	1 932	1 576	4 014	4 126
314 Tobacco products	649	471	912	1 132
321 Textiles	3 289	1 613	3 314	3 005
322 Wearing apparel	1 502	753	2 242	2 600
323 Leather and fur products	375	268	614	554
324 Footwear	810	415	781	591
331 Wood and wood products	1 258	707	2 164	2 175
332 Furniture and fixtures	1 262	617	1 534	1 523
341 Paper and paper products	1 278	947	2 101	2 124
342 Printing and publishing	1 506	1 198	4 403	4 901
351 Industrial chemicals	2 006	1 737	3 427	3 245
352 Other chemical products	2 506	1 923	5 609	6 913
353 Petroleum refineries	1 409	969	1 348	2 225
354 Miscellaneous petroleum and coal products	229	191	383	462
355 Rubber products	955	597	1 490	1 643
356 Plastic products	1 098	814	2 452	3 184
361 Pottery, china and earthenware	346	174	432	416
362 Glass and glass products	640	442	1 128	1 165
369 Other non-metal mineral products	2 522	1 617	4 797	4 937
371 Iron and steel	3 255	1 756	3 762	3 489
372 Non-ferrous metals	948	616	1 275	1 127
381 Metal products	3 720	2 044	5 437	5 875
382 Non-electrical machinery	3 595	2 226	5 745	5 952
383 Electrical machinery	3 669	2 064	5 978	6 130
384 Transport equipment	4 743	2 776	10 320	12 371
385 Professional and scientific equipment	205	122	375	384
390 Other manufacturing industries	573	316	870	944



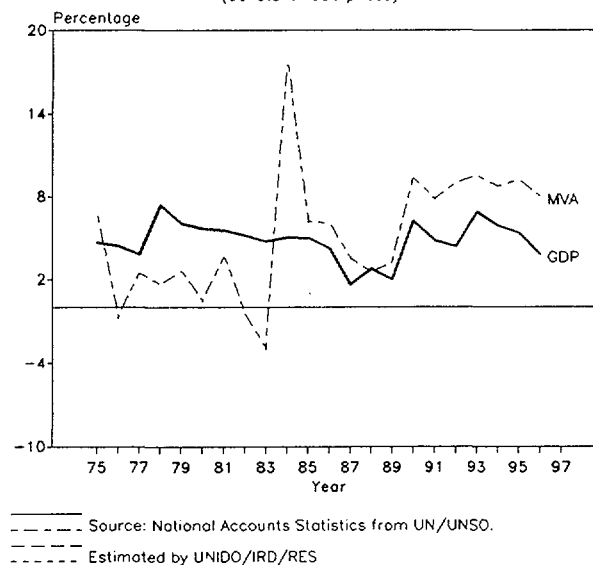
For sources, footnotes and comments see "Technical notes" at the beginning of this Annex.

SRI LANKA

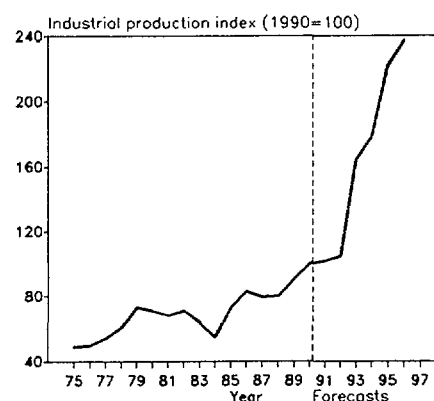
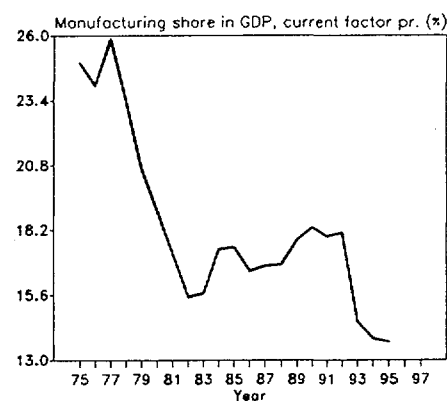
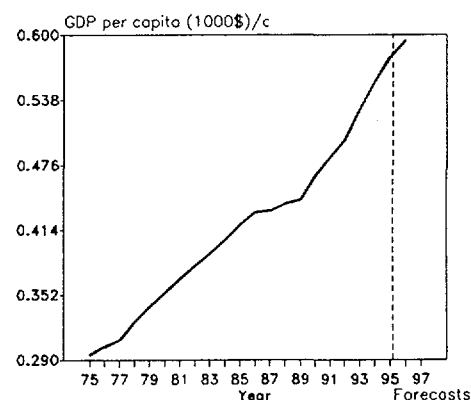
Average sectoral shares in total Value Added and average annual sectoral growth rates, 1990–1996 (Percentage)



Annual growth rates of GDP and MVA (Constant 1990 prices)



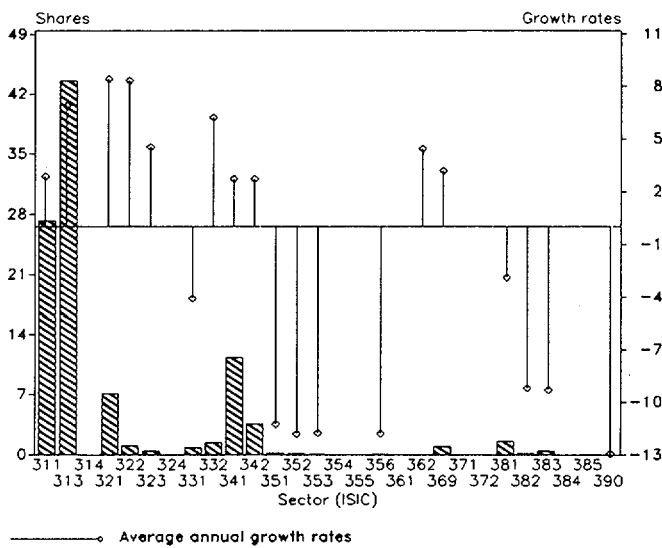
	1980	1985	1990	1995
<b>GDP:</b> <sup>na</sup> (millions of 1990-dollars)	5 242	6 725	7 935	10 359
Per capita <sup>na</sup> (1990-dollars)	354	419	465	578
Manufacturing share <sup>na</sup> (%) (current factor prices)	19.0	17.5	18.3	13.8
<b>MANUFACTURING:</b>				
Value added <sup>na</sup> (millions of 1990-dollars)	868	1 081	1 371	2 094
Industrial production index (1990=100)	71	73	100	222
Value added (millions of dollars)	375	597	1 017	1 495
Gross output (millions of dollars)	1 292	1 815	2 519	3 829
Employment (thousands)	195	211	283	334
<b>-PROFITABILITY: (in percent of gross output)</b>				
Intermediate input (%)	71	67	60	61
Wages and salaries including supplements (%)	6	6	7	8
Gross operating surplus and net taxes (%)	23	27	34	31
<b>-PRODUCTIVITY: (dollars)</b>				
Gross output per worker	6 636	8 599	8 910	11 448
Value added per worker	1 926	2 824	3 597	4 475
Average wage (including supplements)	407	529	606	936
<b>-STRUCTURAL INDICES:</b>				
Structural change indicator (5-year period, %)	21.40	20.78	20.69	16.65
as a percentage of 1970-1975 structural change	100	97	97	78
MVA growth rate perer unit of structural change	3.80	3.54	2.13	1.66
Degree of specialization	23.6	30.0	25.5	21.3
<b>-VALUE ADDED: (millions of dollars)</b>				
311/2 Food products	90	170	240	226
313 Beverages	8	33	118	174
314 Tobacco products	63	144	156	201
321 Textiles	27	47	82	134
322 Wearing apparel	12	32	142	257
323 Leather and fur products	1	2	3	7
324 Footwear	2	3	20	20
331 Wood and wood products	5	8	9	11
332 Furniture and fixtures	2	2	1	2
341 Paper and paper products	8	10	19	28
342 Printing and publishing	8	7	15	17
351 Industrial chemicals	6	5	10	12
352 Other chemical products	12	15	33	79
353 Petroleum refineries	55	22	10	25
354 Miscellaneous petroleum and coal products	-	-	-	-
355 Rubber products	14	30	35	68
356 Plastic products	4	4	9	21
361 Pottery, china and earthenware	4	6	17	26
362 Glass and glass products	2	2	4	2
369 Other non-metal mineral products	21	26	23	44
371 Iron and steel	3	3	8	18
372 Non-ferrous metals	2	1	3	3
381 Metal products	7	8	10	18
382 Non-electrical machinery	4	5	9	16
383 Electrical machinery	10	4	7	17
384 Transport equipment	4	2	25	33
385 Professional and scientific equipment	1	-	-	-
390 Other manufacturing industries	1	5	10	36



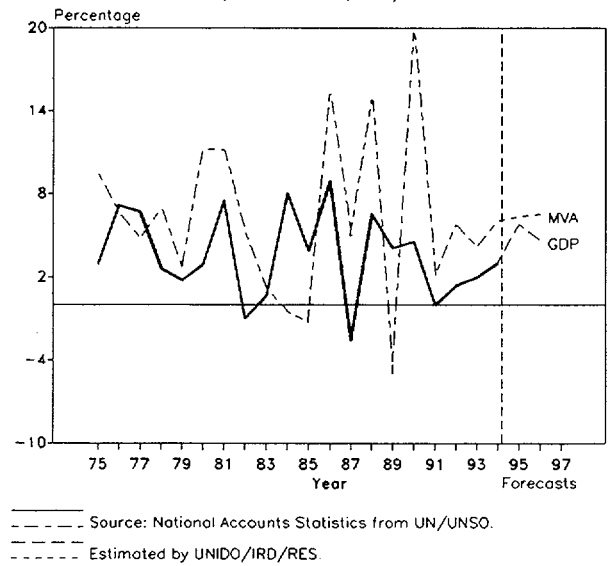
For sources, footnotes and comments see "Technical notes" at the beginning of this Annex.

SWAZILAND

Average sectoral shares in total Value Added and average annual sectoral growth rates, 1990-1996 (Percentage)

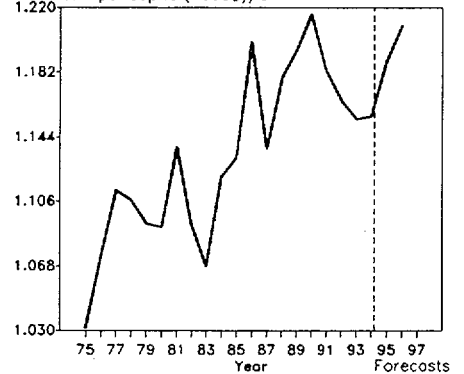


Annual growth rates of GDP and MVA (Constant 1990 prices)

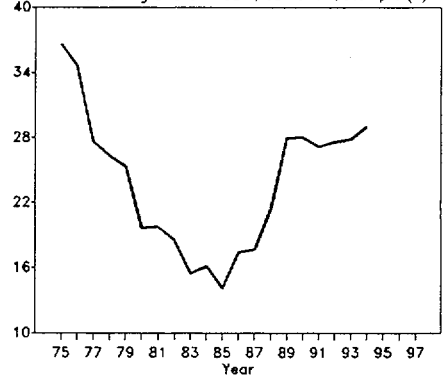


	1980	1985	1990	1995
<b>GDP:</b> <sup>na</sup> (millions of 1990-dollars)	611	735	905	1 019
Per capita <sup>na</sup> (1990-dollars)	1 091	1 132	1 216	1 189
Manufacturing share <sup>na</sup> (%) (current factor prices)	19.7	14.1	28.0	..
<b>MANUFACTURING:</b>				
Value added <sup>na</sup> (millions of 1990-dollars)	138	161	254	321
Industrial production index (1990=100)	72	85	100	117
Value added (millions of dollars)	104	49	252	411
Gross output (millions of dollars)	394	195	615	980
Employment (thousands)	11	12	20	25
<b>-PROFITABILITY:</b> (in percent of gross output)				
Intermediate input (%)	74	75	59	58
Wages and salaries including supplements (%)	11	12	11	10
Gross operating surplus (%)	16	13	30	32
<b>-PRODUCTIVITY:</b> (dollars)				
Gross output per worker	36 593	16 709	30 711	39 036
Value added per worker	9 650	4 166	12 561	17 957
Average wage (including supplements)	3 907	2 002	3 409	4 105
<b>-STRUCTURAL INDICES:</b>				
Structural change indicator (5-year period, %)	13.76	14.32	29.57	22.27
as a percentage of 1970-1975 structural change	100	104	215	162
MVA growth rate perer unit of structural change	3.27	-1.06	3.65	6.18
Degree of specialization	30.6	44.6	43.2	46.2
<b>-VALUE ADDED:</b> (millions of dollars)				
311/2 Food products	39	26	74	109
313 Beverages	4	3	101	184
314 Tobacco products	-	-	-	-
321 Textiles	2	1	16	31
322 Wearing apparel	-	-	2	4
323 Leather and fur products	-	-	1	2
324 Footwear	-	-	-	-
331 Wood and wood products	6	1	3	3
332 Furniture and fixtures	2	1	3	6
341 Paper and paper products	24	8	30	45
342 Printing and publishing	7	3	10	14
351 Industrial chemicals	3	-	1	1
352 Other chemical products	4	-	1	-
353 Petroleum refineries	2	-	-	-
354 Miscellaneous petroleum and coal products	-	-	-	-
355 Rubber products	-	-	-	-
356 Plastic products	1	-	-	-
361 Pottery, china and earthenware	-	-	-	-
362 Glass and glass products	-	-	-	-
369 Other non-metal mineral products	1	1	3	4
371 Iron and steel	-	-	-	-
372 Non-ferrous metals	-	-	-	-
381 Metal products	4	3	5	5
382 Non-electrical machinery	-	-	-	-
383 Electrical machinery	2	-	2	1
384 Transport equipment	-	-	-	-
385 Professional and scientific equipment	-	-	-	-
390 Other manufacturing industries	-	-	-	-

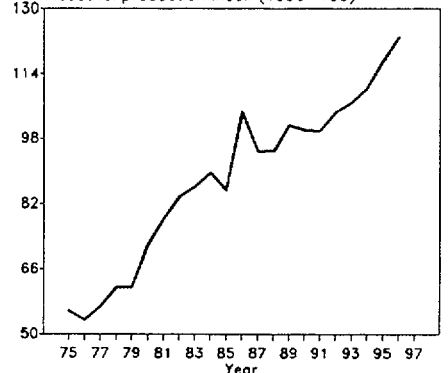
GDP per capita (1000\$)/c



Manufacturing share in GDP, current factor pr. (%)



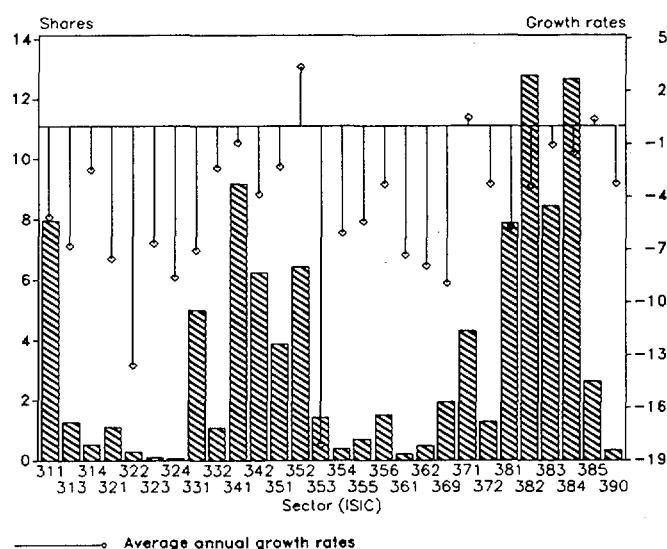
Industrial production index (1990=100)



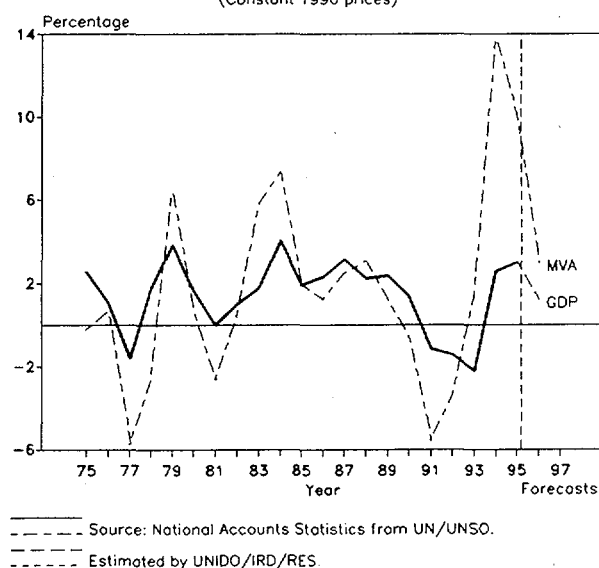
For sources, footnotes and comments see "Technical notes" at the beginning of this Annex.

SWEDEN

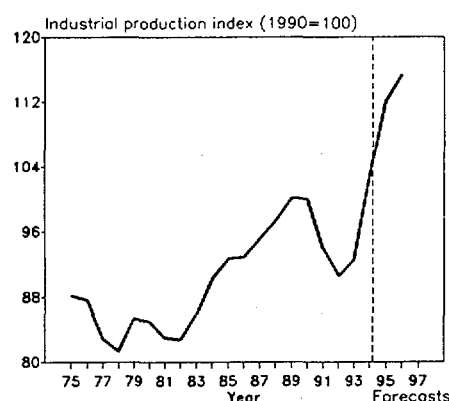
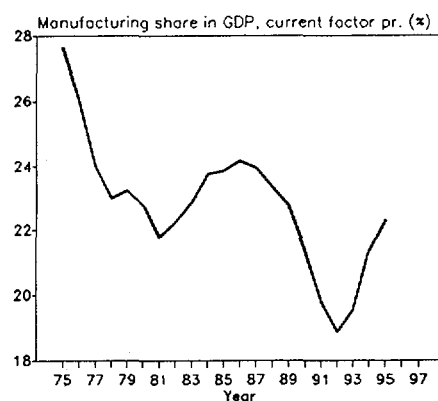
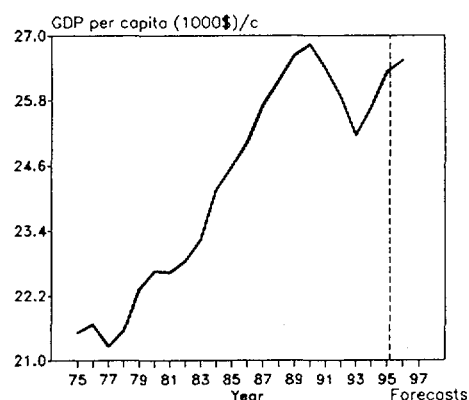
Average sectoral shares in total Value Added and average annual sectoral growth rates, 1990-1996 (Percentage)



Annual growth rates of GDP and MVA (Constant 1990 prices)



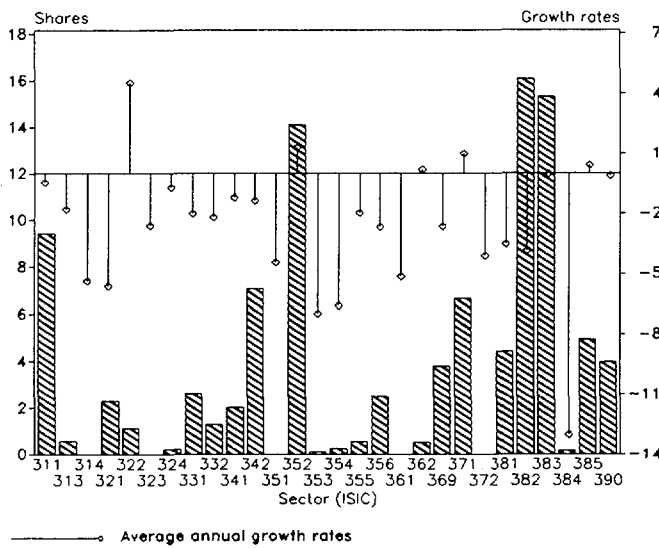
	1980	1985	1990	1995
GDP: <sup>na</sup> (millions of 1990-dollars)	188 302	205 213	229 748	231 341
Per capita <sup>na</sup> (1990-dollars)	22 660	24 576	26 843	26 325
Manufacturing share <sup>na</sup> (%) (current factor prices)	22.8	23.9	21.4	22.3
<b>MANUFACTURING:</b>				
Value added <sup>na</sup> (millions of 1990-dollars)	37 225	42 085	45 202	52 270
Industrial production index (1990=100)	85	93	100	112
Value added (millions of dollars)	30 905	24 486	51 429	42 500
Gross output (millions of dollars)	73 194	60 328	115 467	124 479
Employment (thousands)	853	768	719	601
<b>-PROFITABILITY: (in percent of gross output)</b>				
Intermediate input (%)	58	59	55	66
Wages and salaries including supplements (%)	18	15	16	14
Gross operating surplus (%)	24	26	29	20
<b>-PRODUCTIVITY: (dollars)</b>				
Gross output per worker	85 747	78 429	160 549	195 794
Value added per worker	36 206	31 833	71 509	67 393
Average wage (including supplements)	15 835	11 689	24 892	28 441
<b>-STRUCTURAL INDICES:</b>				
Structural change indicator (5-year period, %) as a percentage of 1970-1975 structural change	6.15	4.92	4.68	5.75
MVA growth rate per unit of structural change	100	80	76	94
Degree of specialization	0.87	-0.15	1.11	-1.37
Degree of specialization	15.4	16.1	15.5	17.1
<b>-VALUE ADDED: (millions of dollars)</b>				
311/2 Food products	2 719	2 107	4 249	3 139
313 Beverages	338	250	743	492
314 Tobacco products	104	108	257	219
321 Textiles	534	378	620	412
322 Wearing apparel	274	157	199	92
323 Leather and fur products	54	40	52	37
324 Footwear	61	24	27	17
331 Wood and wood products	2 102	1 154	3 046	2 048
332 Furniture and fixtures	452	285	551	462
341 Paper and paper products	2 596	2 230	4 524	4 128
342 Printing and publishing	1 842	1 517	3 158	2 534
351 Industrial chemicals	986	840	1 983	1 705
352 Other chemical products	1 246	1 091	2 544	2 994
353 Petroleum refineries	359	396	1 325	365
354 Miscellaneous petroleum and coal products	137	122	218	147
355 Rubber products	314	225	387	290
356 Plastic products	402	334	786	629
361 Pottery, china and earthenware	87	71	123	83
362 Glass and glass products	175	124	294	185
369 Other non-metal mineral products	801	510	1 129	673
371 Iron and steel	1 650	1 185	2 097	2 119
372 Non-ferrous metals	390	331	640	538
381 Metal products	2 598	2 049	4 448	3 209
382 Non-electrical machinery	3 936	3 185	6 226	5 165
383 Electrical machinery	2 570	2 132	4 021	3 754
384 Transport equipment	3 652	3 153	6 459	5 760
385 Professional and scientific equipment	371	401	1 166	1 173
390 Other manufacturing industries	154	86	157	132



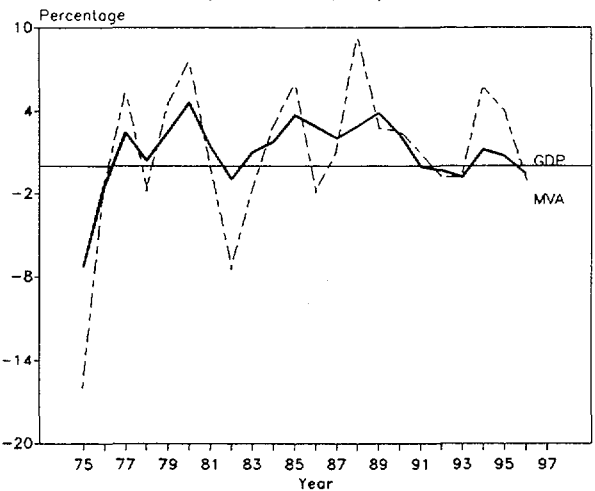
For sources, footnotes and comments see "Technical notes" at the beginning of this Annex.

SWITZERLAND

Average sectoral shares in total Value Added and average annual sectoral growth rates, 1990-1996 (Percentage)

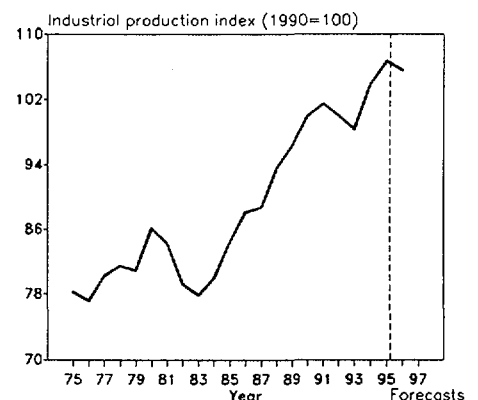
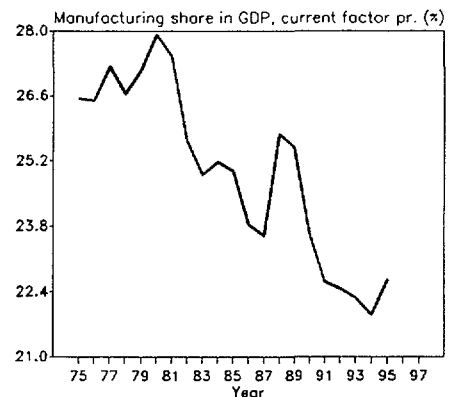
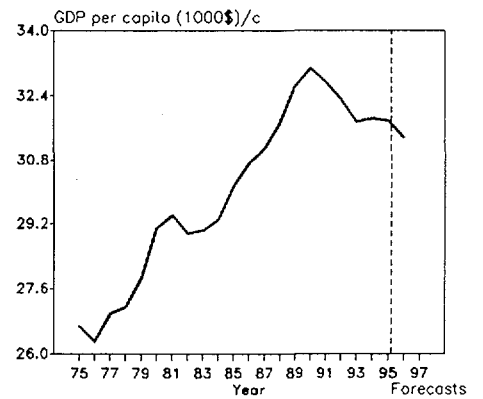


Annual growth rates of GDP and MVA (Constant 1990 prices)



Source: National Accounts Statistics from UN/UNSO.  
 Estimated by UNIDO/IRD/RES

	1980	1985	1990	1995
<b>GDP:</b> <sup>na</sup> (millions of 1990-dollars)	183 882	197 004	226 055	227 847
Per capita <sup>na</sup> (1990-dollars)	29 100	30 141	33 078	31 795
Manufacturing share <sup>na</sup> (%) (current factor prices)	27.9	25.0	23.7	22.7
<b>MANUFACTURING:</b>				
Value added <sup>na</sup> (millions of 1990-dollars)	49 121	48 483	55 235	60 153
Industrial production index (1990=100)	86	84	100	107
Value added (millions of dollars)	27 438	24 716	53 480	69 457
Gross output (millions of dollars)	69 529	62 788	141 040	179 768
Employment (thousands)	828	835	894	782
<b>-PROFITABILITY:</b> (in percent of gross output)				
Intermediate input (%)	..	..	..	..
Wages and salaries including supplements (%)	..	..	..	..
Gross operating surplus and net taxes (%)	..	..	..	..
<b>-PRODUCTIVITY:</b> (dollars)				
Gross output per worker	73 377	68 665	139 944	203 293
Value added per worker	40 009	37 654	59 848	88 809
Average wage (including supplements)	..	..	..	..
<b>-STRUCTURAL INDICES:</b>				
Structural change indicator (5-year period, %)	12.46	15.57	14.86	5.57
as a percentage of 1970-1975 structural change	100	125	119	45
MVA growth rate perer unit of structural change	-0.38	0.83	0.31	-0.14
Degree of specialization	11.6	21.4	22.6	22.7
<b>-VALUE ADDED:</b> (millions of dollars)				
311/2 Food products	2 905	2 628	4 782	6 472
313 Beverages	499	201	305	388
314 Tobacco products	292	-	-	-
321 Textiles	972	762	1 408	1 518
322 Wearing apparel	864	393	521	960
323 Leather and fur products	124	-	-	-
324 Footwear	324	109	128	153
331 Wood and wood products	1 078	732	1 471	1 802
332 Furniture and fixtures	707	373	733	898
341 Paper and paper products	624	598	1 080	1 406
342 Printing and publishing	1 471	1 772	3 888	5 005
351 Industrial chemicals	1 529	-	-	-
352 Other chemical products	1 331	2 454	6 776	10 372
353 Petroleum refineries	584	50	56	55
354 Miscellaneous petroleum and coal products	96	90	125	117
355 Rubber products	225	142	308	373
356 Plastic products	625	634	1 383	1 673
361 Pottery, china and earthenware	136	-	-	-
362 Glass and glass products	187	124	250	382
369 Other non-metal mineral products	651	889	2 142	2 477
371 Iron and steel	454	1 062	3 319	5 154
372 Non-ferrous metals	583	-	1	1
381 Metal products	1 921	1 265	2 525	2 933
382 Non-electrical machinery	3 775	4 533	9 221	10 269
383 Electrical machinery	2 859	3 814	8 476	10 752
384 Transport equipment	508	94	123	81
385 Professional and scientific equipment	1 976	1 209	2 443	3 462
390 Other manufacturing industries	138	788	2 017	2 755

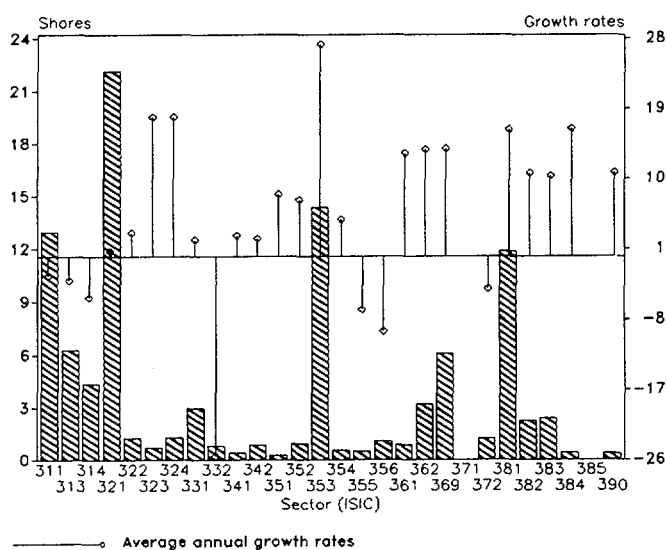


For sources, footnotes and comments see "Technical notes" at the beginning of this Annex.

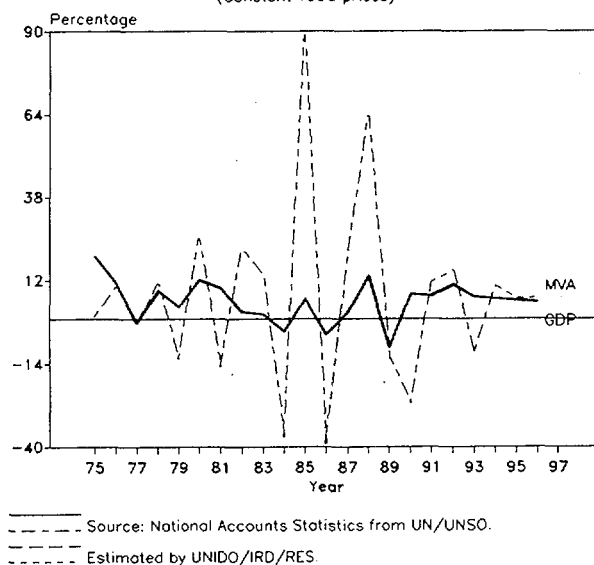


## SYRIAN ARAB REPUBLIC

Average sectoral shares in total Value Added and average annual sectoral growth rates, 1990-1996 (Percentage)



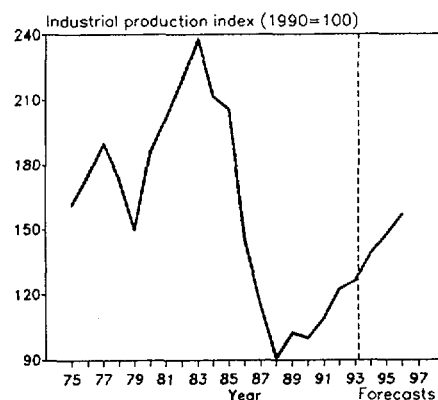
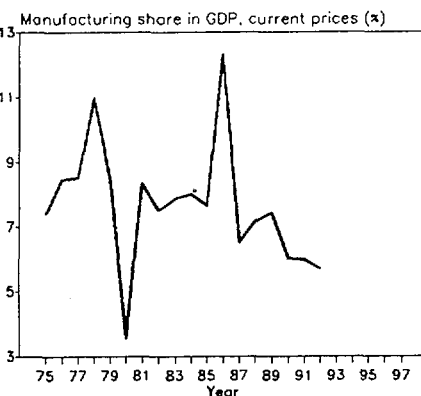
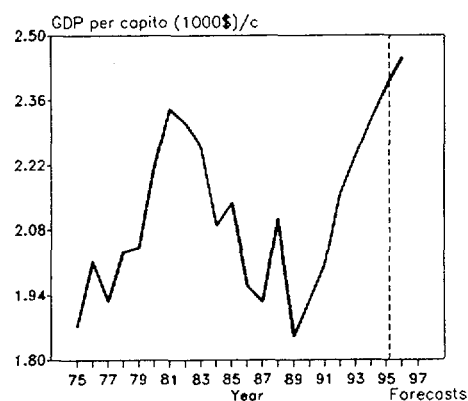
Annual growth rates of GDP and MVA (Constant 1990 prices)



Source: National Accounts Statistics from UN/UNSO.  
 Estimated by UNIDO/IRD/RES

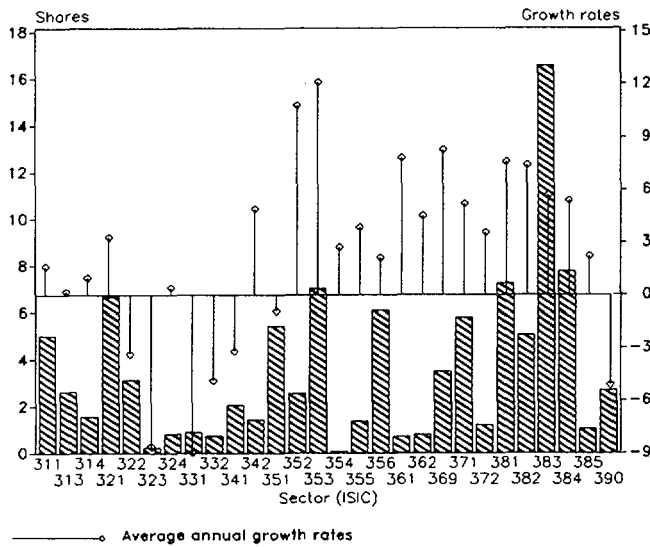
	1980	1985	1990	1995
<b>GDP:</b> <sup>na</sup> (millions of 1990-dollars)	19 255	22 232	23 904	33 960
Per capita <sup>na</sup> (1990-dollars)	2 212	2 138	1 930	2 391
Manufacturing share <sup>na</sup> (%) (current factor prices)	3.6	7.7	6.0	..
<b>MANUFACTURING:</b>				
Value added <sup>na</sup> (millions of 1990-dollars)	1 343	1 883	1 441	1 916
Industrial production index (1990=100)	186	206	100	148
Value added (millions of dollars)	522	966	1 743	3 805
Gross output (millions of dollars)	3 259	6 050	9 373	17 990
Employment (thousands)	195	104	100	98
<b>-PROFITABILITY: (in percent of gross output)</b>				
Intermediate input (%)	84	84	81	79
Wages and salaries including supplements (%)	9	7	5	5
Gross operating surplus (%)	7	9	14	17
<b>-PRODUCTIVITY: (dollars)</b>				
Gross output per worker	16 745	57 603	93 064	183 315
Value added per worker	2 681	9 104	17 325	38 844
Average wage (including supplements)	1 634	4 601	4 601	8 595
<b>-STRUCTURAL INDICES:</b>				
Structural change indicator (5-year period, %)	43.08	92.07	78.68	36.02
as a percentage of 1970-1975 structural change	100	214	183	84
MVA growth rate perer unit of structural change	0.36	0.00	0.43	0.80
Degree of specialization	-0.6	12.1	24.6	23.5
<b>-VALUE ADDED: (millions of dollars)</b>				
311/2 Food products	145	-16	326	456
313 Beverages	34	-5	161	220
314 Tobacco products	82	-7	122	146
321 Textiles	255	157	461	767
322 Wearing apparel	12	13	24	46
323 Leather and fur products	32	14	6	28
324 Footwear	57	25	11	51
331 Wood and wood products	40	50	49	85
332 Furniture and fixtures	63	46	27	8
341 Paper and paper products	3	8	8	16
342 Printing and publishing	5	16	18	32
351 Industrial chemicals	-9	5	4	9
352 Other chemical products	-57	27	14	33
353 Petroleum refineries	-204	133	95	633
354 Miscellaneous petroleum and coal products	-12	11	9	18
355 Rubber products	-33	19	12	12
356 Plastic products	-34	30	29	24
361 Pottery, china and earthenware	2	12	11	37
362 Glass and glass products	6	46	42	142
369 Other non-metal mineral products	21	114	79	269
371 Iron and steel	-	-	-	-
372 Non-ferrous metals	13	28	20	24
381 Metal products	66	131	140	534
382 Non-electrical machinery	13	31	31	92
383 Electrical machinery	11	49	33	93
384 Transport equipment	2	4	5	17
385 Professional and scientific equipment	-	-	-	-
390 Other manufacturing industries	8	23	5	13

For sources, footnotes and comments see "Technical notes" at the beginning of this Annex.

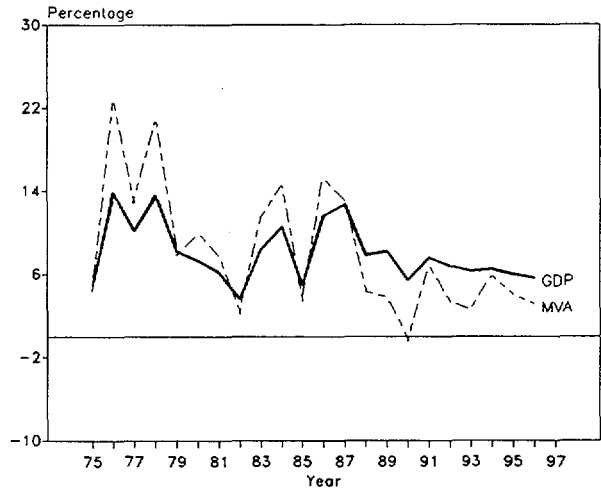


TAIWAN PROVINCE OF CHINA

Average sectoral shares in total Value Added and average annual sectoral growth rates, 1990-1996 (Percentage)



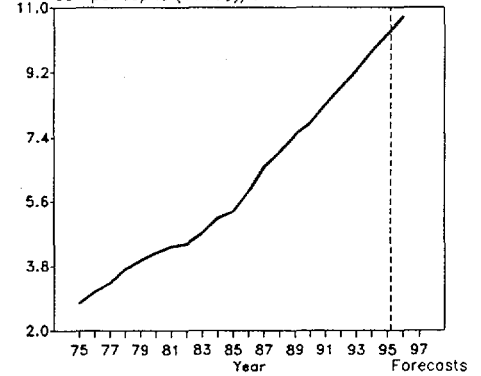
Annual growth rates of GDP and MVA (Constant 1990 prices)



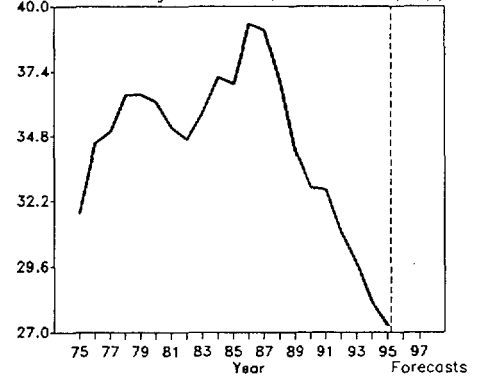
Source: National Accounts Statistics from UN/UNSO.  
 Estimated by UNIDO/IRD/RES.

	1980	1985	1990	1995
GDP: <sup>na</sup> (millions of 1990-dollars)	74 147	102 608	158 873	218 955
Per capita <sup>na</sup> (1990-dollars)	4 164	5 328	7 806	10 268
Manufacturing share <sup>na</sup> (%) (current factor prices)	36.2	36.9	32.7	27.3
<b>MANUFACTURING:</b>				
Value added <sup>na</sup> (millions of 1990-dollars)	26 048	37 761	52 916	65 697
Industrial production index (1990=100)	54	73	100	127
Value added (millions of dollars)	14 915	23 316	52 916	77 097
Gross output (millions of dollars)	55 374	75 673	167 929	226 813
Employment (thousands)	1 997	2 462	2 265	2 182
<b>-PROFITABILITY: (in percent of gross output)</b>				
Intermediate input (%)	73	69	68	66
Wages and salaries including supplements (%)	10	12	13	15
Gross operating surplus and net taxes (%)	17	18	18	19
<b>-PRODUCTIVITY: (dollars)</b>				
Gross output per worker	27 734	30 732	74 143	103 929
Value added per worker	7 470	9 469	23 363	35 327
Average wage (including supplements)	2 679	3 832	9 826	15 297
<b>-STRUCTURAL INDICES:</b>				
Structural change indicator (5-year period, %) as a percentage of 1970-1975 structural change	12.64	7.73	8.58	10.17
MVA growth rate perer unit of structural change	100	61	68	80
Degree of specialization	3.86	8.88	4.88	3.11
	9.5	9.8	10.8	12.8
<b>-VALUE ADDED: (millions of dollars)</b>				
311/2 Food products	971	1 709	2 911	3 734
313 Beverages	455	723	1 623	1 932
314 Tobacco products	413	519	885	1 130
321 Textiles	1 385	1 995	3 544	5 010
322 Wearing apparel	815	1 480	2 196	2 142
323 Leather and fur products	182	222	194	141
324 Footwear	65	223	487	578
331 Wood and wood products	316	394	677	511
332 Furniture and fixtures	119	228	487	460
341 Paper and paper products	469	655	1 372	1 388
342 Printing and publishing	219	258	745	1 124
351 Industrial chemicals	885	1 610	3 344	3 806
352 Other chemical products	197	363	1 088	2 181
353 Petroleum refineries	997	1 338	2 431	5 600
354 Miscellaneous petroleum and coal products	19	22	37	50
355 Rubber products	205	330	732	1 065
356 Plastic products	839	1 543	3 454	4 571
361 Pottery, china and earthenware	85	137	330	583
362 Glass and glass products	114	165	419	615
369 Other non-metal mineral products	484	575	1 588	2 911
371 Iron and steel	828	1 155	2 965	4 653
372 Non-ferrous metals	139	220	667	933
381 Metal products	582	1 028	3 391	5 886
382 Non-electrical machinery	431	710	2 360	4 089
383 Electrical machinery	1 794	2 852	8 432	13 398
384 Transport equipment	880	1 274	3 966	6 094
385 Professional and scientific equipment	190	292	590	777
390 Other manufacturing industries	838	1 297	1 999	1 737

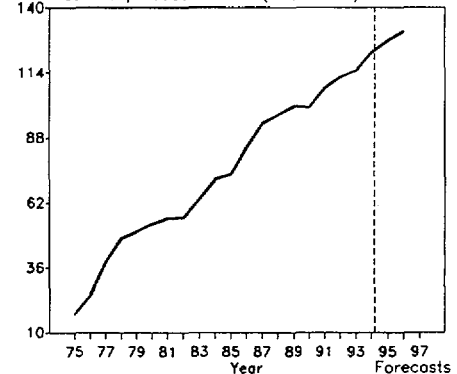
GDP per capita (1000\$/c)



Manufacturing share in GDP, current factor pr. (%)

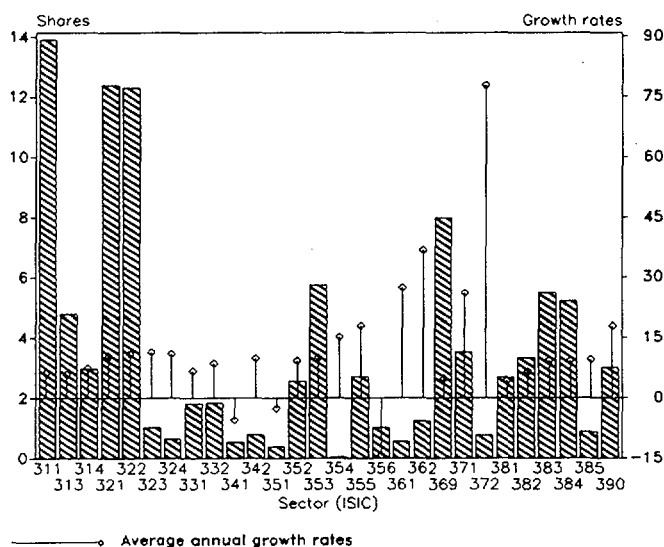


Industrial production index (1990=100)

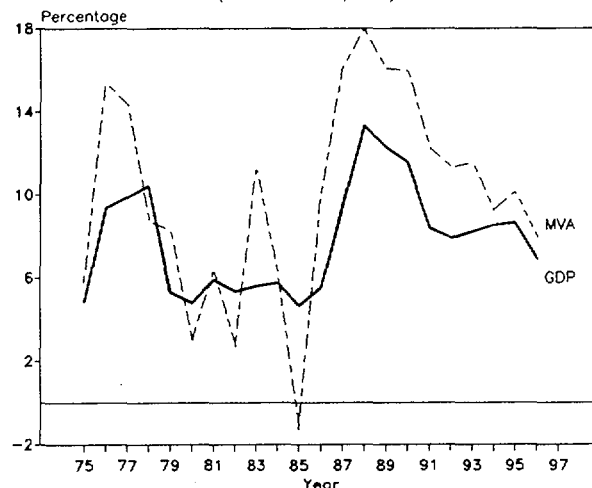


For sources, footnotes and comments see "Technical notes" at the beginning of this Annex.

Average sectoral shares in total Value Added and average annual sectoral growth rates, 1990-1996 (Percentage)



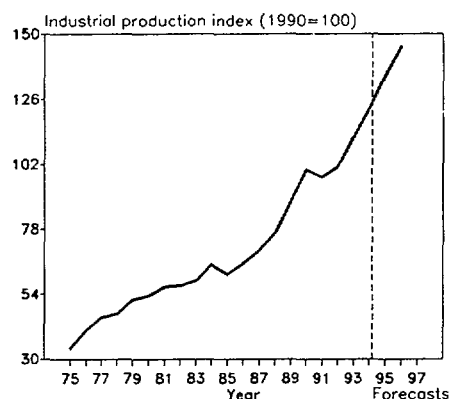
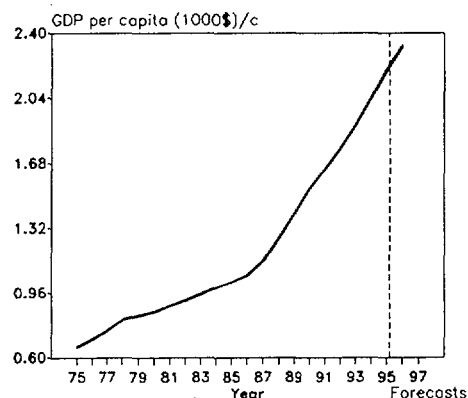
Annual growth rates of GDP and MVA (Constant 1990 prices)



Source: National Accounts Statistics from UN/UNSO.  
 Estimated by UNIDO/IRD/RES.

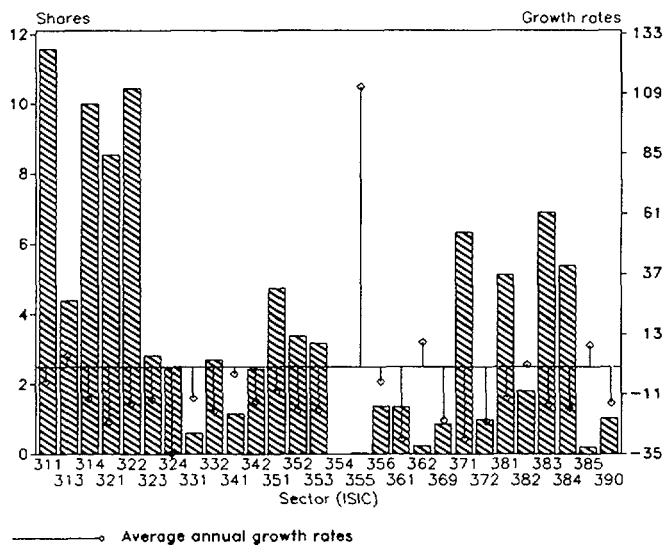
	1980	1985	1990	1995
<b>GDP:</b> <sup>na</sup> (millions of 1990-dollars)	40 042	52 204	85 640	127 867
Per capita <sup>na</sup> (1990-dollars)	857	1 021	1 541	2 195
Manufacturing share <sup>na</sup> (%) (current factor prices)	21.5	21.9	27.2	28.6
<b>MANUFACTURING:</b>				
Value added <sup>na</sup> (millions of 1990-dollars)	9 065	11 518	23 290	39 005
Industrial production index (1990=100)	53	61	100	135
Value added (millions of dollars)	9 028	10 078	26 935	54 862
Gross output (millions of dollars)	25 476	29 388	80 938	160 414
Employment (thousands)	738	1 096	1 738	2 068
<b>-PROFITABILITY: (in percent of gross output)</b>				
Intermediate input (%)	65	66	67	66
Wages and salaries including supplements (%)	7	9	7	7
Gross operating surplus and net taxes (%)	28	25	26	27
<b>-PRODUCTIVITY: (dollars)</b>				
Gross output per worker	15 683	15 122	40 425	58 577
Value added per worker	5 675	5 418	13 759	20 689
Average wage (including supplements)	2 513	2 395	3 486	5 389
<b>-STRUCTURAL INDICES:</b>				
Structural change indicator (5-year period, %) as a percentage of 1970-1975 structural change	9.31	10.04	13.66	14.00
MVA growth rate perer unit of structural change	5.55	3.31	4.25	5.51
Degree of specialization	15.8	16.8	15.4	14.0
<b>-VALUE ADDED: (millions of dollars)</b>				
311/2 Food products	2 039	2 274	4 077	7 341
313 Beverages	682	786	1 409	2 504
314 Tobacco products	375	470	843	1 603
321 Textiles	1 118	1 044	3 099	6 898
322 Wearing apparel	591	1 025	3 043	6 902
323 Leather and fur products	38	85	252	577
324 Footwear	47	54	160	363
331 Wood and wood products	244	180	528	972
332 Furniture and fixtures	132	173	508	1 021
341 Paper and paper products	213	120	281	251
342 Printing and publishing	110	161	203	440
351 Industrial chemicals	94	63	154	172
352 Other chemical products	245	238	665	1 401
353 Petroleum refineries	537	683	1 468	3 189
354 Miscellaneous petroleum and coal products	27	21	10	27
355 Rubber products	221	147	473	1 534
356 Plastic products	102	103	892	417
361 Pottery, china and earthenware	35	48	59	316
362 Glass and glass products	64	54	92	740
369 Other non-metal mineral products	267	424	2 769	4 347
371 Iron and steel	316	236	430	2 088
372 Non-ferrous metals	118	74	11	432
381 Metal products	226	208	868	1 407
382 Non-electrical machinery	168	243	1 014	1 792
383 Electrical machinery	340	355	1 484	3 050
384 Transport equipment	338	337	1 409	2 913
385 Professional and scientific equipment	26	56	235	489
390 Other manufacturing industries	314	414	498	1 679

For sources, footnotes and comments see "Technical notes" at the beginning of this Annex.

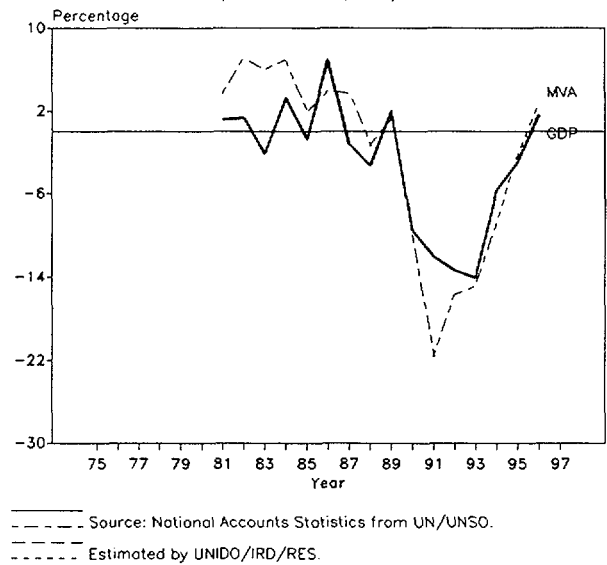


## THE FORMER YUGOSLAV REPUBLIC OF MACEDONIA

Average sectoral shares in total Value Added and average annual sectoral growth rates, 1990-1996 (Percentage)

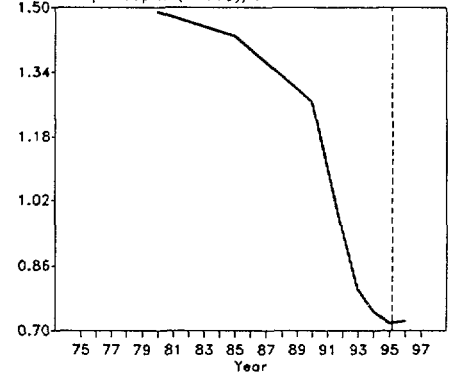


Annual growth rates of GDP and MVA (Constant 1990 prices)



	1980	1985	1990	1995
GDP: <sup>na</sup> (millions of 1990-dollars)	2 673	2 748	2 590	1 550
Per capita <sup>na</sup> (1990-dollars)	1 489	1 429	1 266	719
Manufacturing share <sup>na</sup> (%) (current factor prices)	..	..	..	..
<b>MANUFACTURING:</b>				
Value added <sup>na</sup> (millions of 1990-dollars)	1 478	1 892	1 822	906
Industrial production index (1990=100)	..	..	..	..
Value added (millions of dollars)	1 459	959	929	909
Gross output (millions of dollars)	5 217	2 881	2 206	2 044
Employment (thousands)	230	199	185	127
<b>-PROFITABILITY: (in percent of gross output)</b>				
Intermediate input (%)	72	67	58	56
Wages and salaries including supplements (%)	8	10	20	21
Gross operating surplus and net taxes (%)	20	24	22	23
<b>-PRODUCTIVITY: (dollars)</b>				
Gross output per worker	22 677	14 482	11 911	16 097
Value added per worker	6 422	4 844	5 016	7 157
Average wage (including supplements)	1 861	1 416	2 389	3 415
<b>-STRUCTURAL INDICES:</b>				
Structural change indicator (5-year period, %) as a percentage of 1970-1975 structural change	44.09	25.87	10.36	15.24
MVA growth rate perer unit of structural change	8.14	15.56	-1.20	-2.94
Degree of specialization	70.8	13.8	12.4	13.7
<b>-VALUE ADDED: (millions of dollars)</b>				
311/2 Food products	132	82	80	137
313 Beverages	33	23	24	81
314 Tobacco products	134	83	82	89
321 Textiles	108	102	82	43
322 Wearing apparel	232	141	106	96
323 Leather and fur products	34	22	20	21
324 Footwear	43	27	37	7
331 Wood and wood products	5	3	5	6
332 Furniture and fixtures	23	22	31	23
341 Paper and paper products	13	9	7	14
342 Printing and publishing	24	15	22	22
351 Industrial chemicals	89	55	46	61
352 Other chemical products	15	12	37	33
353 Petroleum refineries	56	36	42	34
354 Miscellaneous petroleum and coal products	-	-	-	-
355 Rubber products	2	-	-	1
356 Plastic products	29	15	9	17
361 Pottery, china and earthenware	44	16	16	6
362 Glass and glass products	4	3	1	4
369 Other non-metal mineral products	17	11	8	5
371 Iron and steel	169	63	83	30
372 Non-ferrous metals	5	3	8	4
381 Metal products	69	58	45	48
382 Non-electrical machinery	19	18	6	14
383 Electrical machinery	69	62	69	62
384 Transport equipment	80	66	52	41
385 Professional and scientific equipment	1	1	1	3
390 Other manufacturing industries	11	9	9	9

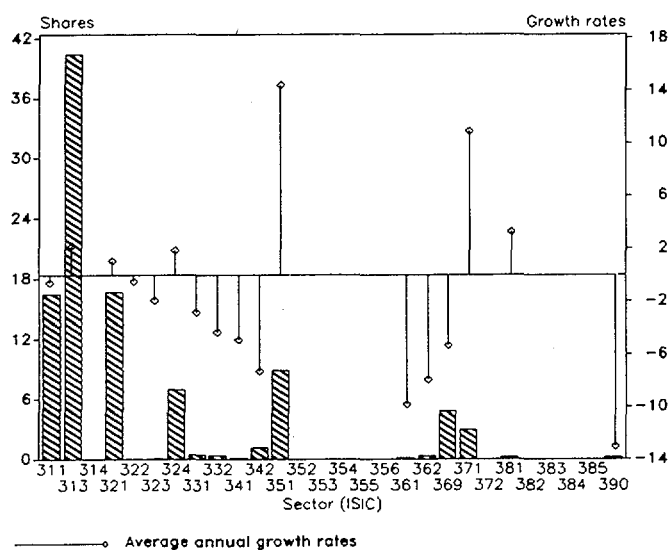
GDP per capita (1000\$)/c



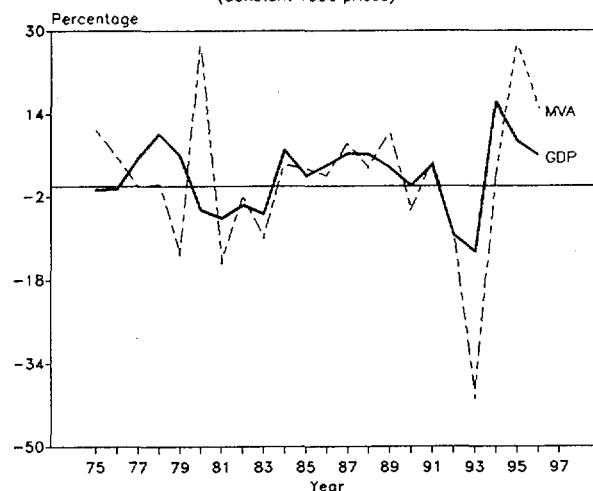
For sources, footnotes and comments see "Technical notes" at the beginning of this Annex.

TOGO

Average sectoral shares in total Value Added and average annual sectoral growth rates, 1990-1996 (Percentage)



Annual growth rates of GDP and MVA (Constant 1990 prices)

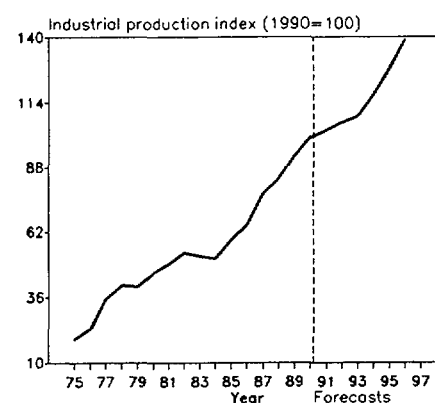
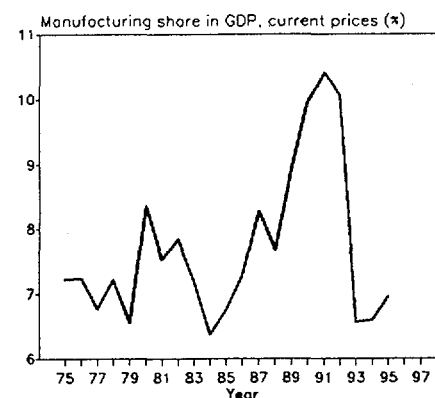
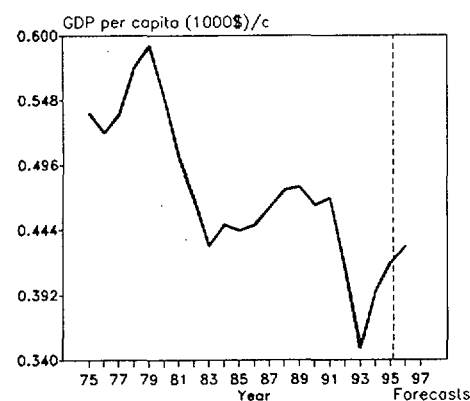


Source: National Accounts Statistics from UN/UNSO.

Estimated by UNIDO/IRD/RES.

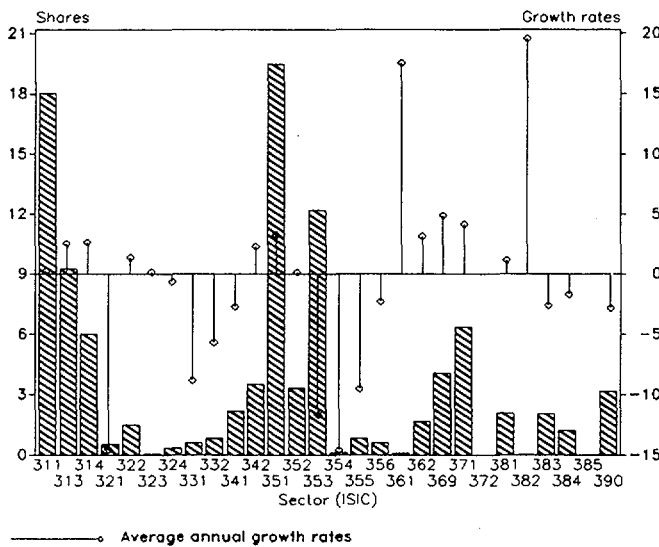
	1980	1985	1990	1995
<b>GDP:</b> <sup>na</sup> (millions of 1990-dollars)	1 438	1 343	1 636	1 706
Per capita <sup>na</sup> (1990-dollars)	550	444	464	418
Manufacturing share <sup>na</sup> (%) (current factor prices)	8.4	6.7	9.9	7.0
<b>MANUFACTURING:</b>				
Value added <sup>na</sup> (millions of 1990-dollars)	169	136	163	117
Industrial production index (1990=100)	46	59	100	127
Value added (millions of dollars)	52	38	67	59
Gross output (millions of dollars)	149	94	226	210
Employment (thousands)	5	5	5	5
<b>-PROFITABILITY: (in percent of gross output)</b>				
Intermediate input (%)	62	72	80	67
Wages and salaries including supplements (%)	14	12	14	19
Gross operating surplus and net taxes (%)	24	16	6	14
<b>-PRODUCTIVITY: (dollars)</b>				
Gross output per worker	27 608	21 738	52 521	44 560
Value added per worker	9 554	7 752	14 030	12 889
Average wage (including supplements)	3 356	2 976	8 459	7 705
<b>-STRUCTURAL INDICES:</b>				
Structural change indicator (5-year period, %) as a percentage of 1970-1975 structural change	33.09	24.17	19.25	9.35
MVA growth rate per unit of structural change	100	73	58	28
Degree of specialization	-0.28	0.75	-0.21	-0.02
Degree of specialization	25.2	38.0	37.5	37.7
<b>-VALUE ADDED: (millions of dollars)</b>				
311/2 Food products	4	11	12	9
313 Beverages	16	14	27	24
314 Tobacco products	..	..	..	..
321 Textiles	8	5	11	10
322 Wearing apparel	-	-	-	-
323 Leather and fur products	-	-	-	-
324 Footwear	6	2	5	4
331 Wood and wood products	1	-	-	-
332 Furniture and fixtures	-	-	-	-
341 Paper and paper products	-	-	-	-
342 Printing and publishing	3	1	1	1
351 Industrial chemicals	3	1	4	6
352 Other chemical products	..	..	..	..
353 Petroleum refineries	..	..	..	..
354 Miscellaneous petroleum and coal products	..	..	..	..
355 Rubber products	..	..	..	..
356 Plastic products	..	..	..	..
361 Pottery, china and earthenware	-	-	-	-
362 Glass and glass products	1	-	-	-
369 Other non-metal mineral products	6	2	4	2
371 Iron and steel	2	1	1	2
372 Non-ferrous metals	..	..	..	..
381 Metal products	1	-	-	-
382 Non-electrical machinery	..	..	..	..
383 Electrical machinery	..	..	..	..
384 Transport equipment	..	..	..	..
385 Professional and scientific equipment	..	..	..	..
390 Other manufacturing industries	-	-	-	-

For sources, footnotes and comments see "Technical notes" at the beginning of this Annex.

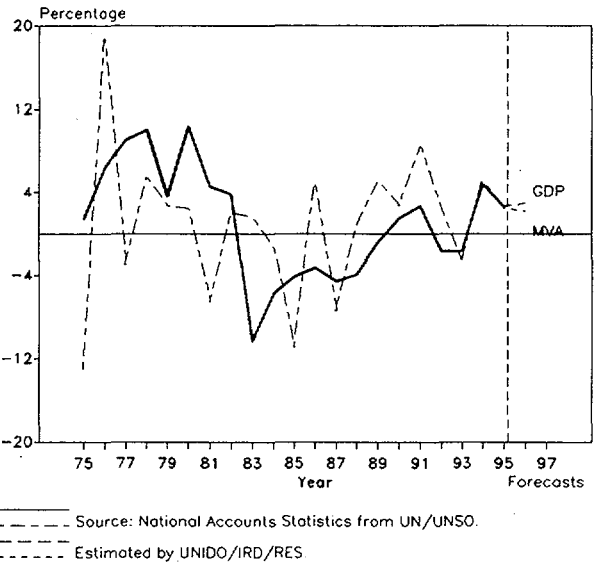


TRINIDAD AND TOBAGO

Average sectoral shares in total Value Added and average annual sectoral growth rates, 1990-1996 (Percentage)

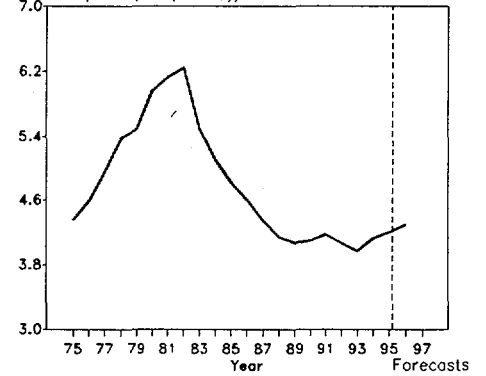


Annual growth rates of GDP and MVA (Constant 1990 prices)

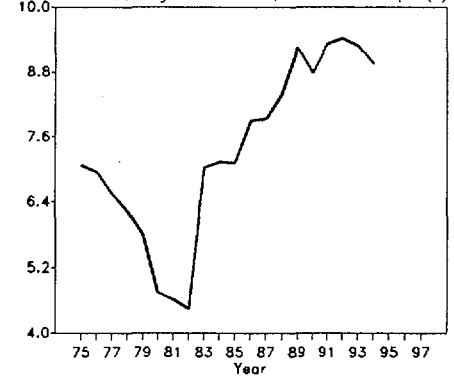


	1980	1985	1990	1995
GDP: <sup>na</sup> (millions of 1990-dollars)	6 452	5 677	5 068	5 410
Per capita <sup>na</sup> (1990-dollars)	5 963	4 819	4 100	4 203
Manufacturing share <sup>na</sup> (%) (current factor prices)	4.7	7.1	8.8	..
<b>MANUFACTURING:</b>				
Value added <sup>na</sup> (millions of 1990-dollars)	487	414	438	508
Industrial production index (1990=100)	189	114	100	106
Value added (millions of dollars)	492	387	683	643
Gross output (millions of dollars)	1 540	1 765	2 353	2 313
Employment (thousands)	44	34	38	41
<b>-PROFITABILITY: (in percent of gross output)</b>				
Intermediate input (%)	68	78	71	72
Wages and salaries including supplements (%)	17	18	13	11
Gross operating surplus and net taxes (%)	15	4	16	17
<b>-PRODUCTIVITY: (dollars)</b>				
Gross output per worker	34 757	52 667	62 038	56 086
Value added per worker	11 099	11 544	18 015	15 621
Average wage (including supplements)	6 003	9 488	8 224	6 334
<b>-STRUCTURAL INDICES:</b>				
Structural change indicator (5-year period, %) as a percentage of 1970-1975 structural change	8.07	25.51	40.34	25.54
MVA growth rate perer unit of structural change	1.32	-0.70	-0.09	0.63
Degree of specialization	28.3	18.0	21.6	21.9
<b>-VALUE ADDED: (millions of dollars)</b>				
311/2 Food products	67	95	114	112
313 Beverages	27	34	58	65
314 Tobacco products	14	35	36	41
321 Textiles	1	2	5	2
322 Wearing apparel	16	13	10	10
323 Leather and fur products	-	-	-	-
324 Footwear	4	5	3	2
331 Wood and wood products	6	4	5	3
332 Furniture and fixtures	9	7	7	5
341 Paper and paper products	9	14	17	14
342 Printing and publishing	13	19	21	23
351 Industrial chemicals	5	6	109	128
352 Other chemical products	12	10	23	22
353 Petroleum refineries	190	17	131	66
354 Miscellaneous petroleum and coal products	2	-	1	1
355 Rubber products	9	10	8	4
356 Plastic products	2	8	5	4
361 Pottery, china and earthenware	-	-	-	1
362 Glass and glass products	3	4	10	11
369 Other non-metal mineral products	23	31	23	29
371 Iron and steel	-	-	37	48
372 Non-ferrous metals	-	-	-	-
381 Metal products	26	11	14	14
382 Non-electrical machinery	13	-	-	-
383 Electrical machinery	3	13	15	12
384 Transport equipment	28	43	7	6
385 Professional and scientific equipment	-	6 <sup>b</sup>	..	..
390 Other manufacturing industries	8	- <sup>b</sup>	24	19

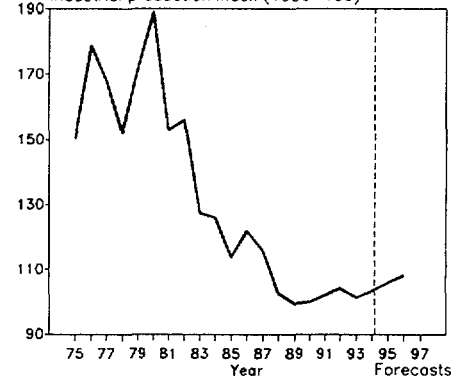
GDP per capita (1000\$)/c



Manufacturing share in GDP, current factor pr. (%)

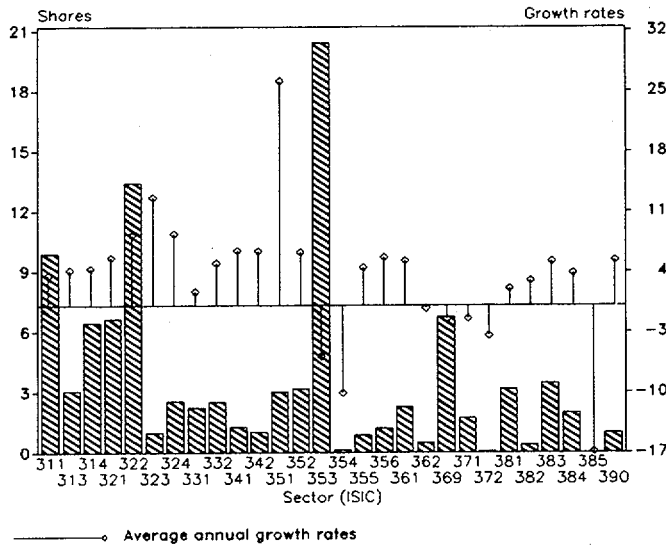


Industrial production index (1990=100)

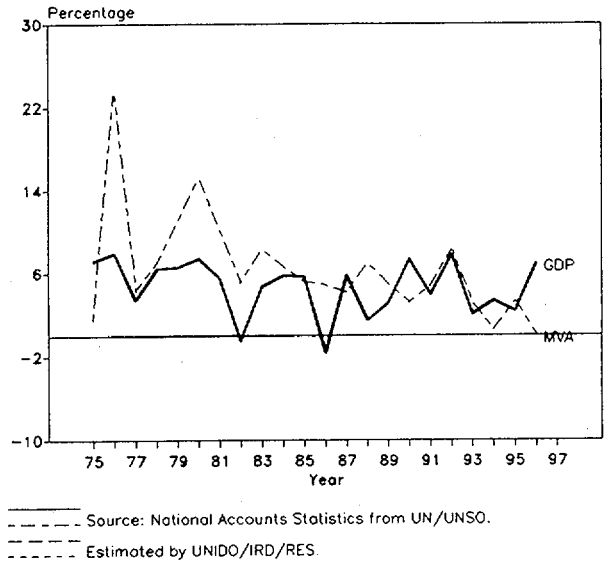


For sources, footnotes and comments see "Technical notes" at the beginning of this Annex.

Average sectoral shares in total Value Added and average annual sectoral growth rates, 1990-1996 (Percentage)

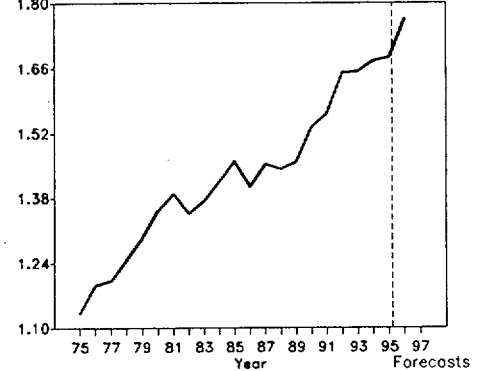


Annual growth rates of GDP and MVA (Constant 1990 prices)

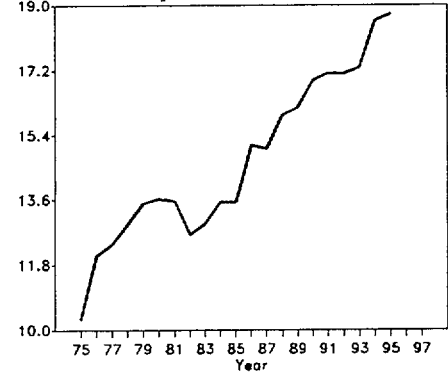


	1980	1985	1990	1995
GDP: <sup>na</sup> (millions of 1990-dollars)	8 720	10 709	12 513	15 127
Per capita <sup>na</sup> (1990-dollars)	1 352	1 460	1 533	1 683
Manufacturing share <sup>na</sup> (%) (current factor prices)	13.6	13.5	16.9	18.4
<b>MANUFACTURING:</b>				
Value added <sup>na</sup> (millions of 1990-dollars)	1 061	1 486	1 873	2 269
Industrial production index (1990=100)	76	89	100	105
Value added (millions of dollars)	939	924	3 304	4 781
Gross output (millions of dollars)	3 579	4 207	10 611	14 957
Employment (thousands)	125	161	200	274
<b>-PROFITABILITY: (in percent of gross output)</b>				
Intermediate input (%)	74	78	69	68
Wages and salaries including supplements (%)	12	11	9	10
Gross operating surplus and net taxes (%)	14	11	22	22
<b>-PRODUCTIVITY: (dollars)</b>				
Gross output per worker	28 669	26 030	52 891	54 677
Value added per worker	7 525	5 814	17 158	17 474
Average wage (including supplements)	3 499	2 905	5 023	5 658
<b>-STRUCTURAL INDICES:</b>				
Structural change indicator (5-year period, %)	13.75	14.85	18.37	18.45
as a percentage of 1970-1975 structural change	100	108	134	134
MVA growth rate perer unit of structural change	5.59	4.26	5.30	4.97
Degree of specialization	13.6	13.2	20.3	15.6
<b>-VALUE ADDED: (millions of dollars)</b>				
311/2 Food products	96	78	315	455
313 Beverages	49	46	92	149
314 Tobacco products	22	33	207	323
321 Textiles	55	61	196	334
322 Wearing apparel	92	94	380	720
323 Leather and fur products	6	6	23	55
324 Footwear	21	19	71	139
331 Wood and wood products	12	16	75	105
332 Furniture and fixtures	13	16	77	125
341 Paper and paper products	24	17	38	65
342 Printing and publishing	17	13	31	52
351 Industrial chemicals	57	46	39	199
352 Other chemical products	81	48	95	162
353 Petroleum refineries	13	87	866	763
354 Miscellaneous petroleum and coal products	-	1	6	4
355 Rubber products	8	8	28	43
356 Plastic products	18	17	35	62
361 Pottery, china and earthenware	11	11	67	109
362 Glass and glass products	7	5	16	20
369 Other non-metal mineral products	156	129	263	317
371 Iron and steel	45	48	69	80
372 Non-ferrous metals	8	4	2	2
381 Metal products	53	58	106	152
382 Non-electrical machinery	2	3	13	19
383 Electrical machinery	35	29	101	178
384 Transport equipment	30	27	60	95
385 Professional and scientific equipment	1	-	-	-
390 Other manufacturing industries	5	7	31	51

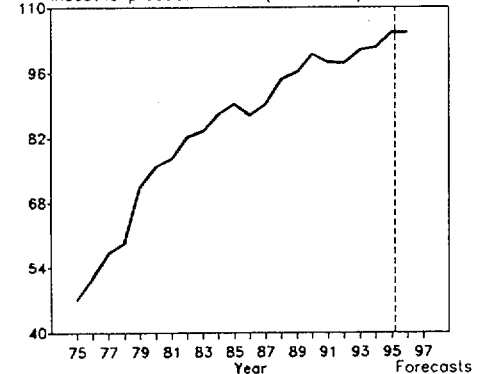
GDP per capita (1000\$)/c



Manufacturing share in GDP, current factor pr. (%)



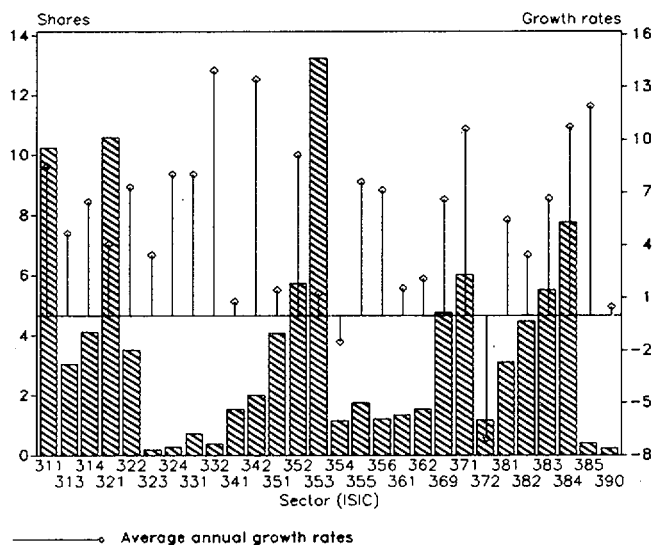
Industrial production index (1990=100)



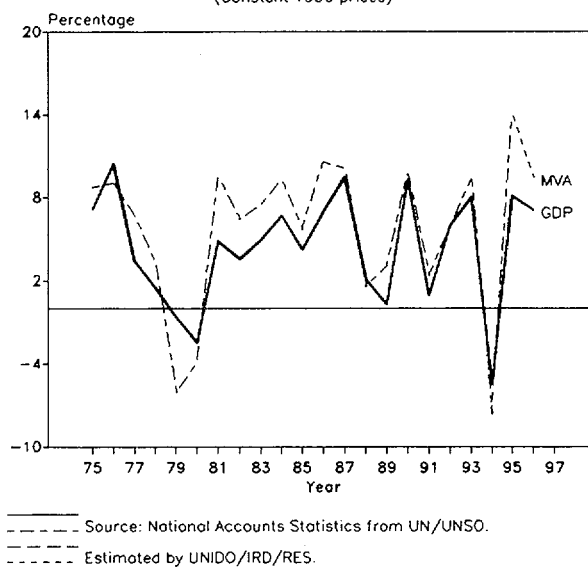
For sources, footnotes and comments see "Technical notes" at the beginning of this Annex.

TURKEY

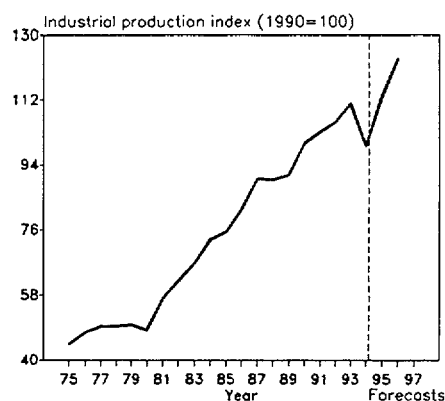
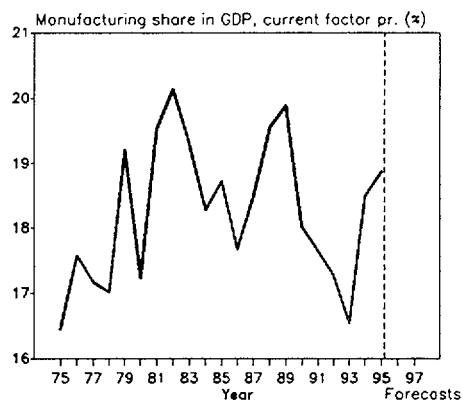
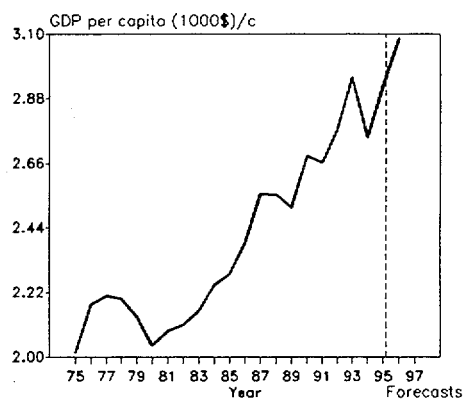
Average sectoral shares in total Value Added and average annual sectoral growth rates, 1990-1996 (Percentage)



Annual growth rates of GDP and MVA (Constant 1990 prices)



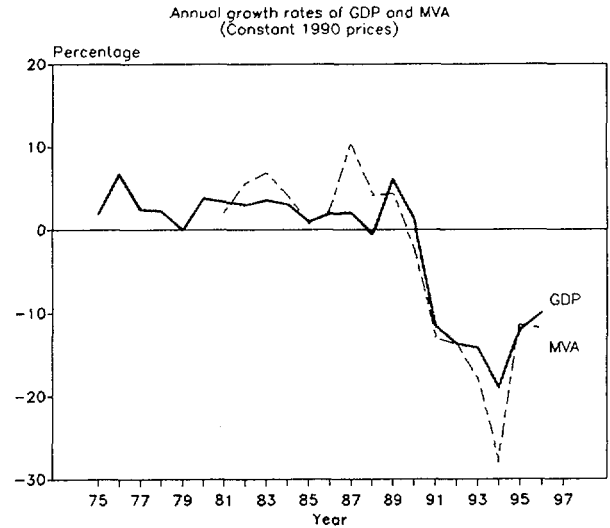
	1980	1985	1990	1995
<b>GDP:</b> <sup>na</sup> (millions of 1990-dollars)	90 677	114 976	150 679	177 970
Per capita <sup>na</sup> (1990-dollars)	2 041	2 284	2 686	2 925
Manufacturing share <sup>na</sup> (%) (current factor prices)	17.2	18.7	18.0	18.9
<b>MANUFACTURING:</b>				
Value added <sup>na</sup> (millions of 1990-dollars)	16 401	23 704	33 086	41 193
Industrial production index (1990=100)	48	75	100	113
Value added (millions of dollars)	10 837	10 448	28 866	37 733
Gross output (millions of dollars)	29 413	32 470	72 968	88 821
Employment (thousands)	787	844	976	915
<b>-PROFITABILITY: (in percent of gross output)</b>				
Intermediate input (%)	63	68	60	58
Wages and salaries including supplements (%)	16	10	12	9
Gross operating surplus and net taxes (%)	20	23	27	34
<b>-PRODUCTIVITY: (dollars)</b>				
Gross output per worker	36 960	38 378	74 731	90 992
Value added per worker	13 617	12 349	29 563	40 744
Average wage (including supplements)	6 142	3 717	9 016	8 571
<b>-STRUCTURAL INDICES:</b>				
Structural change indicator (5-year period, %)	10.26	9.75	9.86	9.19
as a percentage of 1970-1975 structural change	100	95	96	90
MVA growth rate per unit of structural change	3.87	3.13	4.74	4.83
Degree of specialization	14.3	13.8	12.4	12.3
<b>-VALUE ADDED: (millions of dollars)</b>				
311/2 Food products	1 185	973	2 545	3 944
313 Beverages	335	330	893	1 104
314 Tobacco products	467	877	1 168	1 606
321 Textiles	1 535	1 289	3 222	3 907
322 Wearing apparel	60	146	947	1 358
323 Leather and fur products	25	37	60	69
324 Footwear	33	22	69	103
331 Wood and wood products	118	64	187	280
332 Furniture and fixtures	16	55	81	166
341 Paper and paper products	205	241	559	557
342 Printing and publishing	97	133	434	871
351 Industrial chemicals	719	457	1 421	1 450
352 Other chemical products	387	394	1 449	2 301
353 Petroleum refineries	1 352	1 514	4 525	4 583
354 Miscellaneous petroleum and coal products	222	152	458	391
355 Rubber products	201	151	452	660
356 Plastic products	125	76	328	473
361 Pottery, china and earthenware	93	102	467	479
362 Glass and glass products	110	167	531	563
369 Other non-metal mineral products	535	428	1 365	1 886
371 Iron and steel	783	734	1 403	2 453
372 Non-ferrous metals	292	181	580	351
381 Metal products	395	344	904	1 178
382 Non-electrical machinery	506	456	1 423	1 652
383 Electrical machinery	463	531	1 482	2 059
384 Transport equipment	541	534	1 743	3 048
385 Professional and scientific equipment	8	9	87	161
390 Other manufacturing industries	28	48	84	81



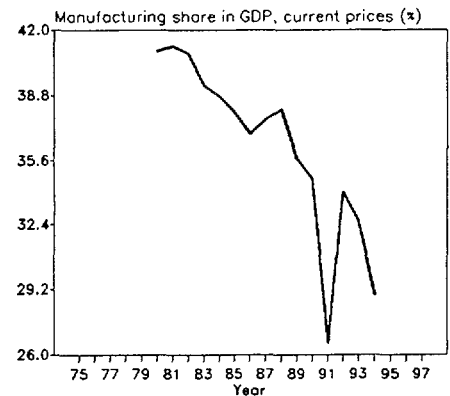
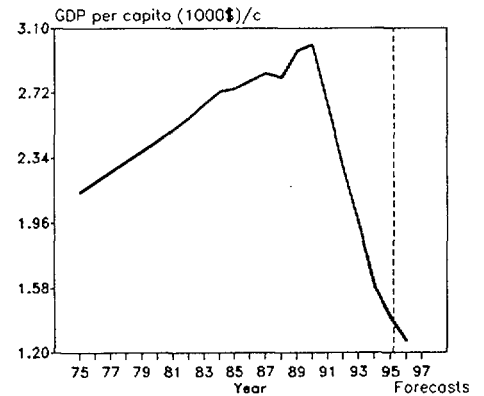
For sources, footnotes and comments see "Technical notes" at the beginning of this Annex.



## UKRAINE



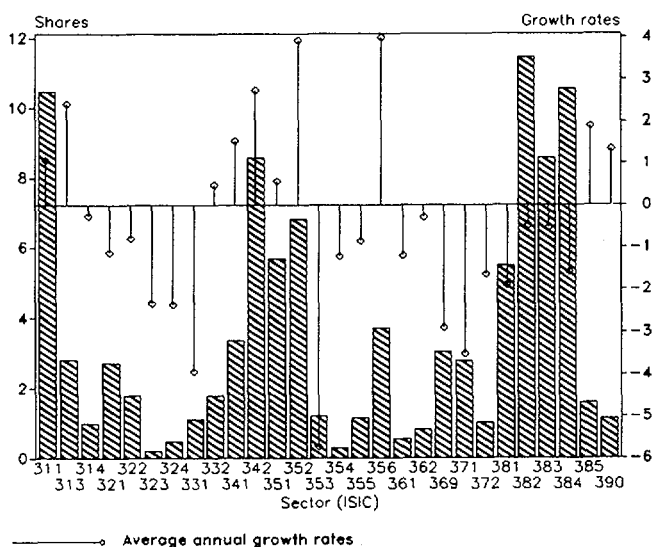
	1980	1985	1990	1995
<b>GDP:</b> <sup>na</sup> (millions of 1990-dollars)	121 758	139 789	155 591	72 643
Per capita <sup>na</sup> (1990-dollars)	2 437	2 746	3 001	1 404
Manufacturing share <sup>na</sup> (%) (current factor prices)	41.0	38.0	34.7	..
<b>MANUFACTURING:</b>				
Value added <sup>na</sup> (millions of 1990-dollars)	37 515	45 185	53 966	21 117
Industrial production index (1990=100)	..	..	..	..
Value added (millions of dollars)	..	..	..	..
Gross output (millions of dollars)	..	137 930	121 057	29 263
Employment (thousands)	6 098	5 568	4 987	3 670
<b>-PROFITABILITY: (in percent of gross output)</b>				
Intermediate input (%)	..	..	..	..
Wages and salaries including supplements (%)	..	..	..	..
Gross operating surplus and net taxes (%)	..	..	..	..
<b>-PRODUCTIVITY: (dollars)</b>				
Gross output per worker	..	24 376	23 994	7 911
Value added per worker	..	..	..	..
Average wage (including supplements)	..	2 730	2 801	487
<b>-STRUCTURAL INDICES:</b>				
Structural change indicator (5-year period, %) as a percentage of 1970-1975 structural change	..	..	..	..
MVA growth rate perer unit of structural change	..	..	..	..
Degree of specialization	..	..	..	..
<b>-VALUE ADDED: (millions of dollars)</b>				
311/2 Food products	..	..	..	..
313 Beverages	..	..	..	..
314 Tobacco products	..	..	..	..
321 Textiles	..	..	..	..
322 Wearing apparel	..	..	..	..
323 Leather and fur products	..	..	..	..
324 Footwear	..	..	..	..
331 Wood and wood products	..	..	..	..
332 Furniture and fixtures	..	..	..	..
341 Paper and paper products	..	..	..	..
342 Printing and publishing	..	..	..	..
351 Industrial chemicals	..	..	..	..
352 Other chemical products	..	..	..	..
353 Petroleum refineries	..	..	..	..
354 Miscellaneous petroleum and coal products	..	..	..	..
355 Rubber products	..	..	..	..
356 Plastic products	..	..	..	..
361 Pottery, china and earthenware	..	..	..	..
362 Glass and glass products	..	..	..	..
369 Other non-metal mineral products	..	..	..	..
371 Iron and steel	..	..	..	..
372 Non-ferrous metals	..	..	..	..
381 Metal products	..	..	..	..
382 Non-electrical machinery	..	..	..	..
383 Electrical machinery	..	..	..	..
384 Transport equipment	..	..	..	..
385 Professional and scientific equipment	..	..	..	..
390 Other manufacturing industries	..	..	..	..



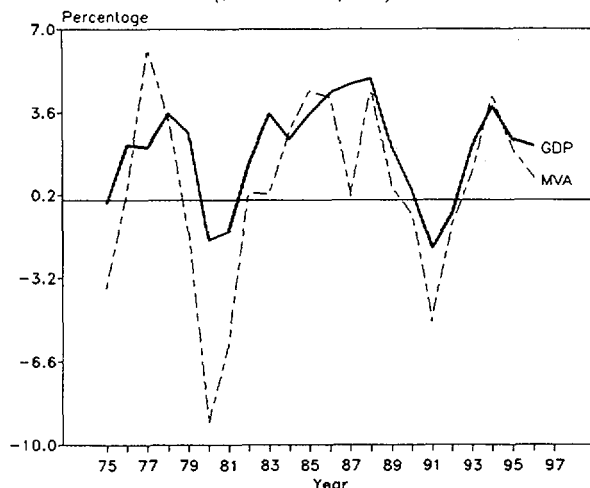
For sources, footnotes and comments see "Technical notes" at the beginning of this Annex.

UNITED KINGDOM OF GREAT BRITAIN AND NORTHERN IRELAND

Average sectoral shares in total Value Added and average annual sectoral growth rates, 1990-1996 (Percentage)



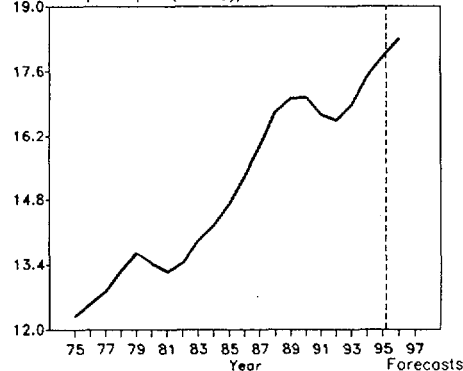
Annual growth rates of GDP and MVA (Constant 1990 prices)



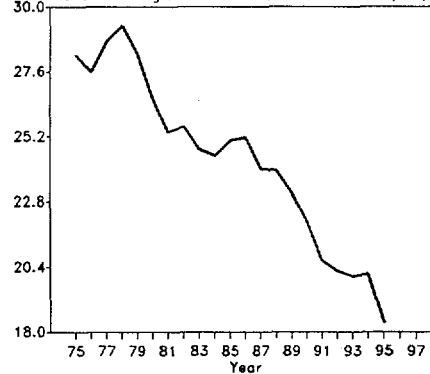
Source: National Accounts Statistics from UN/UNSO.  
 Estimated by UNIDO/IRD/RES.

	1980	1985	1990	1995
<b>GDP:</b> <sup>na</sup> (millions of 1990-dollars)	756 314	832 936	981 046	1 040 811
Per capita <sup>na</sup> (1990-dollars)	13 426	14 712	17 044	17 921
Manufacturing share <sup>na</sup> (%) (current factor prices)	26.7	25.1	22.1	18.4
<b>MANUFACTURING:</b>				
Value added <sup>na</sup> (millions of 1990-dollars)	183 633	186 202	202 486	204 491
Industrial production index (1990=100)	90	92	100	102
Value added (millions of dollars)	163 790	124 384	254 946	266 606
Gross output (millions of dollars)	400 930	306 225	579 854	621 025
Employment (thousands)	6 462	4 935	4 798	4 114
<b>-PROFITABILITY: (in percent of gross output)</b>				
Intermediate input (%)	59	59	56	57
Wages and salaries including supplements (%)	23	20	21	18
Gross operating surplus (%)	17	20	23	25
<b>-PRODUCTIVITY: (dollars)</b>				
Gross output per worker	61 483	61 368	119 533	144 114
Value added per worker	25 117	24 927	52 577	62 002
Average wage (including supplements)	14 579	12 520	25 249	27 017
<b>-STRUCTURAL INDICES:</b>				
Structural change indicator (5-year period, %) as a percentage of 1970-1975 structural change	5.10	5.79	4.34	4.31
MVA growth rate perer unit of structural change	0.27	-0.59	0.96	1.19
Degree of specialization	11.1	11.9	12.2	12.6
<b>-VALUE ADDED: (millions of dollars)</b>				
311/2 Food products	14 744	12 192	25 143	27 699
313 Beverages	5 419	3 554	6 643	7 760
314 Tobacco products	1 814	1 479	2 375	2 440
321 Textiles	5 419	3 917	7 036	7 044
322 Wearing apparel	3 395	2 633	4 679	4 702
323 Leather and fur products	558	376	536	502
324 Footwear	1 093	752	1 268	1 171
331 Wood and wood products	2 349	1 556	3 214	2 681
332 Furniture and fixtures	2 558	2 101	4 554	4 839
341 Paper and paper products	4 860	3 813	8 036	9 156
342 Printing and publishing	9 814	8 807	19 643	23 691
351 Industrial chemicals	8 233	7 328	14 179	15 311
352 Other chemical products	7 512	6 641	14 893	19 024
353 Petroleum refineries	4 512	1 712	4 429	3 143
354 Miscellaneous petroleum and coal products	721	428	750	738
355 Rubber products	2 349	1 505	3 018	3 041
356 Plastic products	3 698	3 087	8 250	10 588
361 Pottery, china and earthenware	977	765	1 464	1 414
362 Glass and glass products	1 442	960	2 089	2 150
369 Other non-metal mineral products	5 698	4 202	9 036	7 808
371 Iron and steel	5 860	4 345	8 089	6 999
372 Non-ferrous metals	2 581	1 505	2 786	2 681
381 Metal products	10 140	7 211	15 018	14 069
382 Non-electrical machinery	21 326	15 097	30 071	30 387
383 Electrical machinery	15 209	12 387	22 357	22 531
384 Transport equipment	17 512	12 931	28 946	27 552
385 Professional and scientific equipment	2 209	1 803	3 661	4 298
390 Other manufacturing industries	1 791	1 297	2 786	3 134

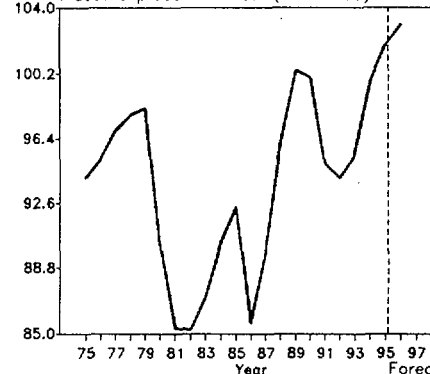
GDP per capita (1000\$/c)



Manufacturing share in GDP, current factor pr. (%)



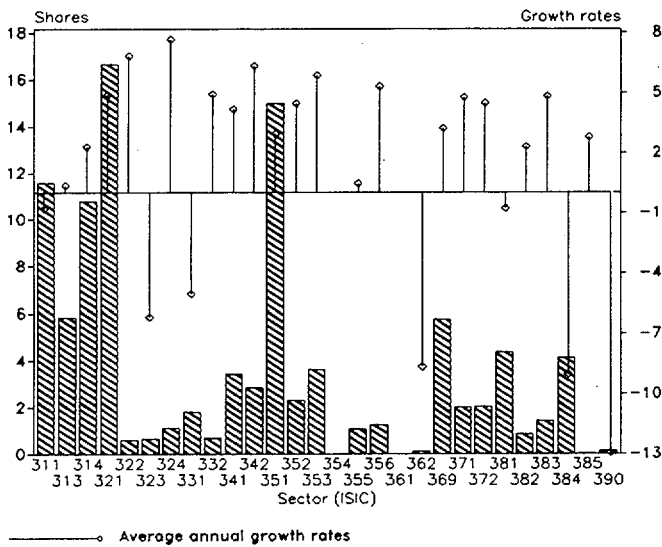
Industrial production index (1990=100)



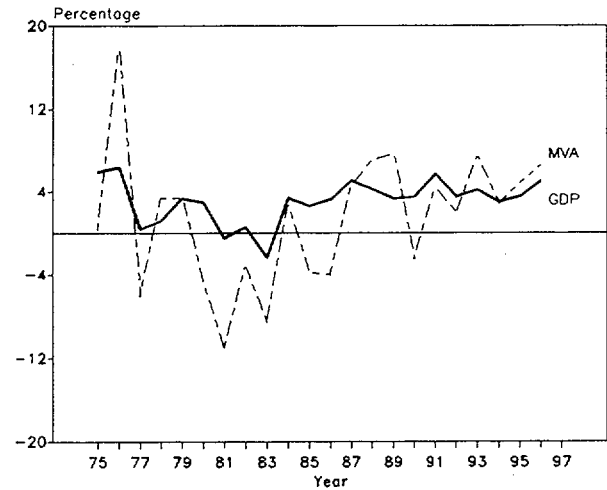
For sources, footnotes and comments see "Technical notes" at the beginning of this Annex.

UNITED REPUBLIC OF TANZANIA

Average sectoral shares in total Value Added and average annual sectoral growth rates, 1990-1996 (Percentage)



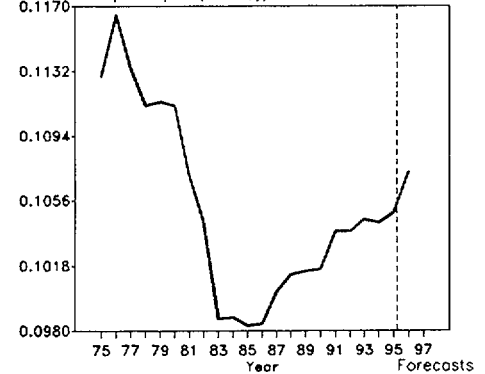
Annual growth rates of GDP and MVA (Constant 1990 prices)



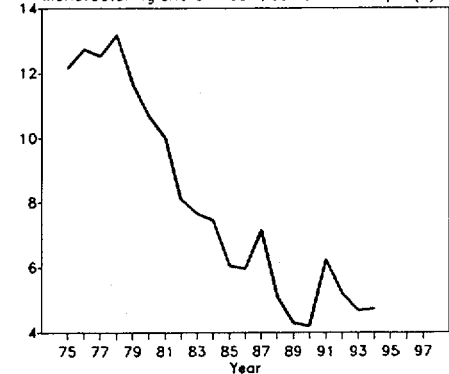
Source: National Accounts Statistics from UN/UNSO.  
 Estimated by UNIDO/IRD/RES.

	1980	1985	1990	1995
<b>GDP:</b> <sup>na</sup> (millions of 1990-dollars)	2 065	2 141	2 590	3 148
Per capita <sup>na</sup> (1990-dollars)	111	98	102	105
Manufacturing share <sup>na</sup> (%) (current factor prices)	10.7	6.1	4.2	..
<b>MANUFACTURING:</b>				
Value added <sup>na</sup> (millions of 1990-dollars)	108	83	94	115
Industrial production index (1990=100)	122	93	100	92
Value added (millions of dollars)	361	278	99	119
Gross output (millions of dollars)	1 266	1 145	458	532
Employment (thousands)	101	94	124	157
<b>-PROFITABILITY: (in percent of gross output)</b>				
Intermediate input (%)	71	76	78	78
Wages and salaries including supplements (%)	9	9	5	7
Gross operating surplus (%)	19	16	16	15
<b>-PRODUCTIVITY: (dollars)</b>				
Gross output per worker	12 457	12 141	3 681	3 380
Value added per worker	3 555	2 952	797	767
Average wage (including supplements)	1 174	1 042	202	238
<b>-STRUCTURAL INDICES:</b>				
Structural change indicator (5-year period, %)	15.63	16.80	19.71	14.31
as a percentage of 1970-1975 structural change	100	107	126	92
MVA growth rate perer unit of structural change	2.45	-0.02	-1.02	0.21
Degree of specialization	17.0	15.7	16.9	17.5
<b>-VALUE ADDED: (millions of dollars)</b>				
311/2 Food products	58	58	12	13
313 Beverages	14	21	6	7
314 Tobacco products	12	16	10	13
321 Textiles	95	43	15	21
322 Wearing apparel	10	4	1	1
323 Leather and fur products	7	4	1	1
324 Footwear	8	6	1	1
331 Wood and wood products	7	6	2	2
332 Furniture and fixtures	6	3	1	1
341 Paper and paper products	8	7	3	4
342 Printing and publishing	14	12	2	4
351 Industrial chemicals	11	9	14	18
352 Other chemical products	10	7	2	3
353 Petroleum refineries	15	10	3	5
354 Miscellaneous petroleum and coal products	-	-	-	-
355 Rubber products	11	11	1	1
356 Plastic products	8	2	1	2
361 Pottery, china and earthenware	-	-	-	-
362 Glass and glass products	-	-	-	-
369 Other non-metal mineral products	11	4	5	7
371 Iron and steel	2	6	2	2
372 Non-ferrous metals	4	5	2	3
381 Metal products	20	15	5	5
382 Non-electrical machinery	3	4	1	1
383 Electrical machinery	6	6	1	2
384 Transport equipment	19	19	6	4
385 Professional and scientific equipment	-	-	-	-
390 Other manufacturing industries	2	2	-	-

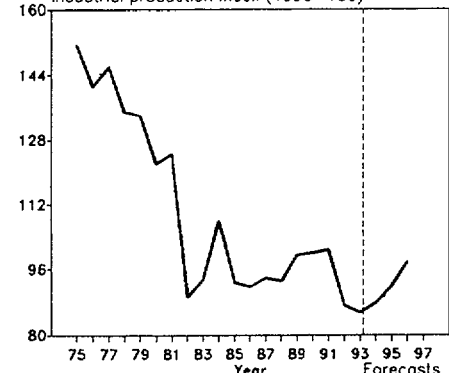
GDP per capita (1000\$/c)



Manufacturing share in GDP, current factor pr. (%)



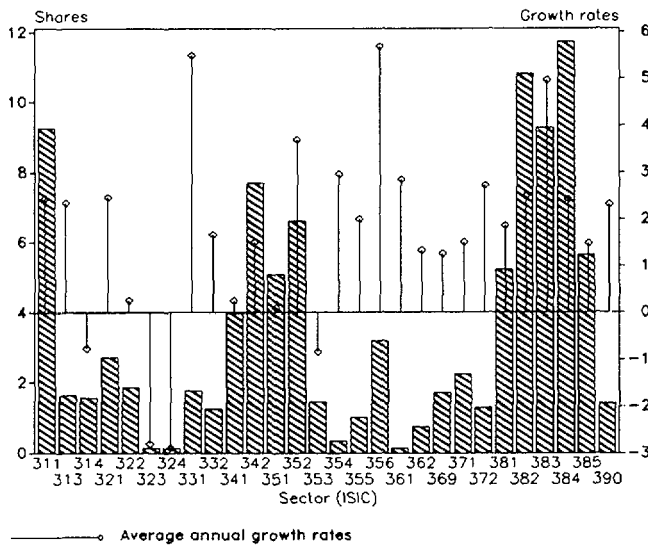
Industrial production index (1990=100)



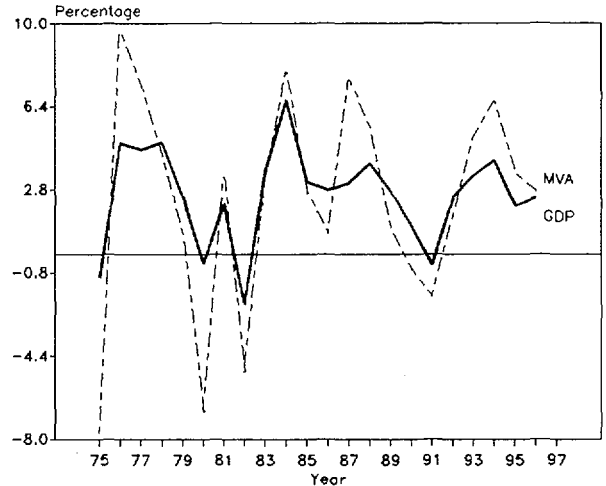
For sources, footnotes and comments see "Technical notes" at the beginning of this Annex.

UNITED STATES OF AMERICA

Average sectoral shares in total Value Added and average annual sectoral growth rates, 1990-1996 (Percentage)



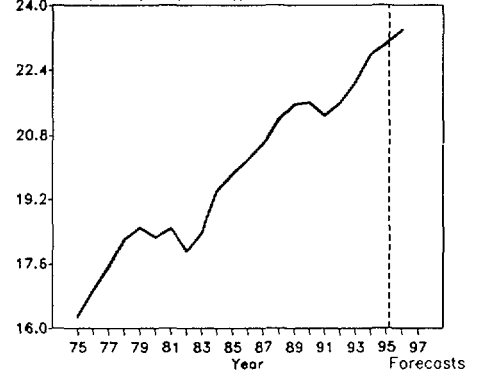
Annual growth rates of GDP and MVA (Constant 1990 prices)



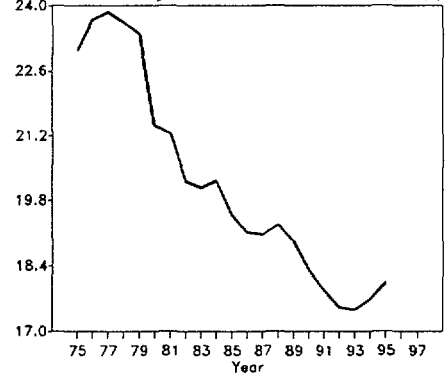
Source: National Accounts Statistics from UN/UNSO.  
 Estimated by UNIDO/IRD/RES.

	1980	1985	1990	1995
<b>GDP:</b> <sup>na</sup> (millions of 1990-dollars)	4 205 373	4 793 226	5 489 600	6 153 649
Per capita <sup>na</sup> (1990-dollars)	18 252	19 819	21 604	23 037
Manufacturing share <sup>na</sup> (%) (current factor prices)	21.4	19.5	18.3	18.0
<b>MANUFACTURING:</b>				
Value added <sup>na</sup> (millions of 1990-dollars)	802 211	898 454	1 032 100	1 192 843
Industrial production index (1990=100)	78	88	100	118
Value added (millions of dollars)	769 899	996 439	1 322 110	1 696 955
Gross output (millions of dollars)	1 857 094	2 266 693	2 861 330	3 539 604
Employment (thousands)	19 210	17 424	17 502	17 240
<b>-PROFITABILITY:</b> (in percent of gross output)				
Intermediate input (%)	59	56	54	52
Wages and salaries including supplements (%)	21	21	21	15
Gross operating surplus (%)	21	22	26	32
<b>-PRODUCTIVITY:</b> (dollars)				
Gross output per worker	96 673	130 090	163 486	202 793
Value added per worker	40 078	57 188	75 541	98 236
Average wage (including supplements)	20 044	27 953	33 565	31 803
<b>-STRUCTURAL INDICES:</b>				
Structural change indicator (5-year period, %) as a percentage of 1970-1975 structural change	4.61	6.75	7.35	4.67
MVA growth rate perer unit of structural change	100	146	159	101
Degree of specialization	3.20	1.72	0.86	2.50
Degree of specialization	11.9	13.5	12.3	12.8
<b>-VALUE ADDED:</b> (millions of dollars)				
311/2 Food products	63 460	87 970	119 830	154 049
313 Beverages	11 810	16 170	21 140	27 135
314 Tobacco products	6 160	11 890	22 560	23 693
321 Textiles	23 030	26 910	34 960	45 675
322 Wearing apparel	19 780	22 150	25 480	29 609
323 Leather and fur products	1 850	1 580	2 210	2 141
324 Footwear	2 950	2 470	2 320	2 301
331 Wood and wood products	12 970	15 390	20 830	31 991
332 Furniture and fixtures	9 840	13 250	16 910	20 984
341 Paper and paper products	29 790	40 390	57 200	65 083
342 Printing and publishing	44 390	73 050	103 180	124 873
351 Industrial chemicals	38 920	43 370	73 480	82 557
352 Other chemical products	35 530	54 290	81 770	112 538
353 Petroleum refineries	23 010	13 890	22 820	24 468
354 Miscellaneous petroleum and coal products	2 670	3 450	4 390	5 777
355 Rubber products	8 030	10 970	13 430	17 150
356 Plastic products	14 540	24 740	37 320	57 226
361 Pottery, china and earthenware	1 210	1 300	1 840	2 439
362 Glass and glass products	6 470	7 660	10 080	12 357
369 Other non-metal mineral products	16 300	19 890	23 980	29 040
371 Iron and steel	30 780	24 070	31 780	39 918
372 Non-ferrous metals	14 340	11 440	17 510	23 118
381 Metal products	53 180	61 810	70 360	89 158
382 Non-electrical machinery	102 760	115 550	145 060	188 929
383 Electrical machinery	74 850	111 230	112 400	170 719
384 Transport equipment	81 280	128 220	154 030	198 096
385 Professional and scientific equipment	27 940	40 280	76 520	91 882
390 Other manufacturing industries	12 060	13 060	18 720	24 055

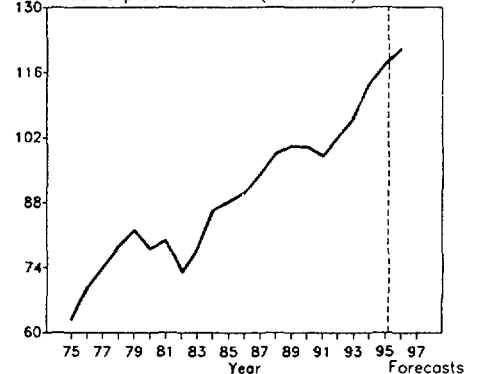
GDP per capita (1000\$/c)



Manufacturing share in GDP, current factor pr. (%)



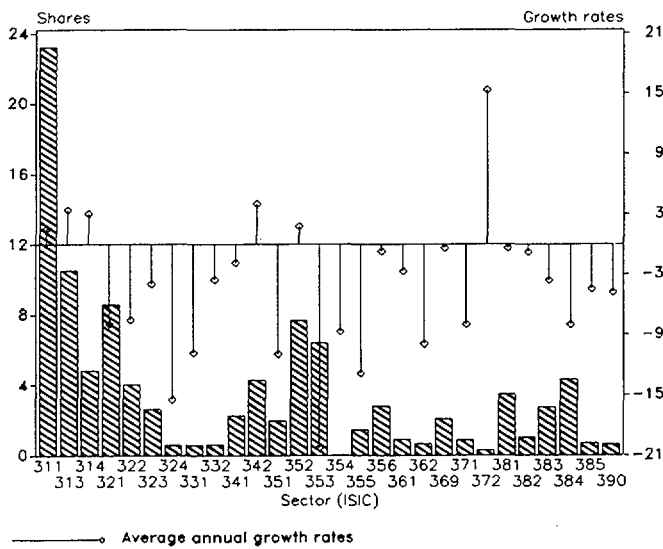
Industrial production index (1990=100)



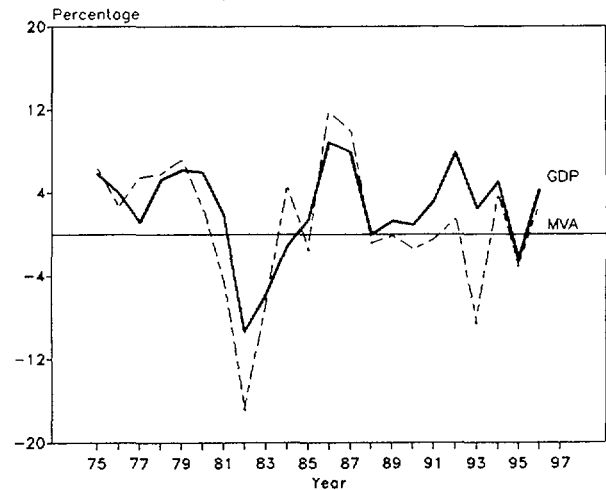
For sources, footnotes and comments see "Technical notes" at the beginning of this Annex.

## URUGUAY

Average sectoral shares in total Value Added and average annual sectoral growth rates, 1990-1996 (Percentage)



Annual growth rates of GDP and MVA (Constant 1990 prices)

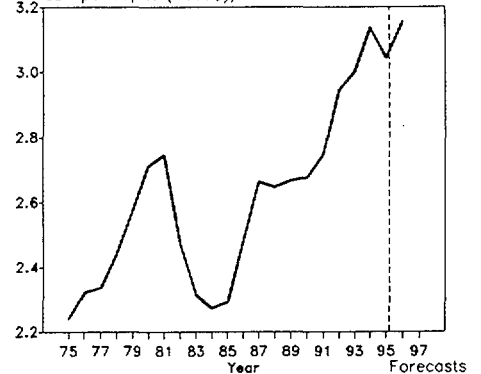


Source: National Accounts Statistics from UN/UNSO.  
 Estimated by UNIDO/IRD/RES.

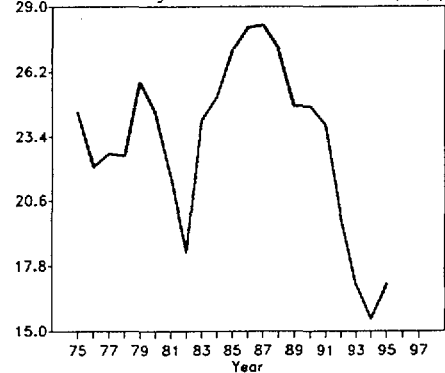
	1980	1985	1990	1995
GDP: <sup>na</sup> (millions of 1990-dollars)	7 905	6 897	8 281	9 693
Per capita <sup>na</sup> (1990-dollars)	2 713	2 293	2 677	3 042
Manufacturing share <sup>na</sup> (%) (current factor prices)	26.0	27.1	24.7	16.9
<b>MANUFACTURING:</b>				
Value added <sup>na</sup> (millions of 1990-dollars)	2 393	1 815	2 173	2 011
Industrial production index (1990=100)	116	85	100	98
Value added (millions of dollars)	1 286	1 337	2 379	3 833
Gross output (millions of dollars)	3 302	3 174	5 778	8 205
Employment (thousands)	160	122	168	132
<b>-PROFITABILITY: (in percent of gross output)</b>				
Intermediate input (%)	61	58	59	53
Wages and salaries including supplements (%)	13	9	10	11
Gross operating surplus and net taxes (%)	26	33	32	35
<b>-PRODUCTIVITY: (dollars)</b>				
Gross output per worker	20 456	26 023	34 428	61 984
Value added per worker	7 966	10 964	14 177	29 050
Average wage (including supplements)	2 635	2 442	3 280	7 121
<b>-STRUCTURAL INDICES:</b>				
Structural change indicator (5-year period, %) as a percentage of 1970-1975 structural change	13.82	15.46	14.56	14.67
MVA growth rate per unit of structural change	100	112	105	106
Degree of specialization	0.28	-0.15	0.75	-0.16
Degree of specialization	13.9	18.8	15.2	19.3
<b>-VALUE ADDED: (millions of dollars)</b>				
311/2 Food products	165	266	473	1 012
313 Beverages	104	92	181	426
314 Tobacco products	90	68	90	211
321 Textiles	109	137	235	281
322 Wearing apparel	59	43	111	131
323 Leather and fur products	31	76	67	96
324 Footwear	18	8	19	15
331 Wood and wood products	14	8	19	18
332 Furniture and fixtures	7	2	13	22
341 Paper and paper products	30	47	51	81
342 Printing and publishing	37	27	81	195
351 Industrial chemicals	20	26	68	66
352 Other chemical products	75	112	162	336
353 Petroleum refineries	192	194	239	109
354 Miscellaneous petroleum and coal products	2	4	1	2
355 Rubber products	40	34	58	51
356 Plastic products	24	25	65	117
361 Pottery, china and earthenware	13	7	20	33
362 Glass and glass products	14	7	21	22
369 Other non-metal mineral products	41	24	43	82
371 Iron and steel	10	14	31	36
372 Non-ferrous metals	3	3	3	14
381 Metal products	53	32	73	137
382 Non-electrical machinery	16	12	22	40
383 Electrical machinery	33	31	69	108
384 Transport equipment	78	32	129	141
385 Professional and scientific equipment	1	1	19	28
390 Other manufacturing industries	8	6	15	22

For sources, footnotes and comments see "Technical notes" at the beginning of this Annex.

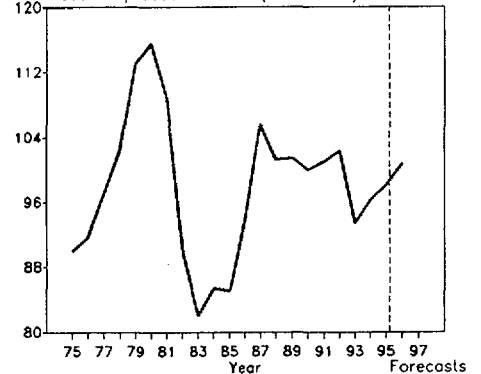
GDP per capita (1000\$)/c



Manufacturing share in GDP, current factor pr. (%)

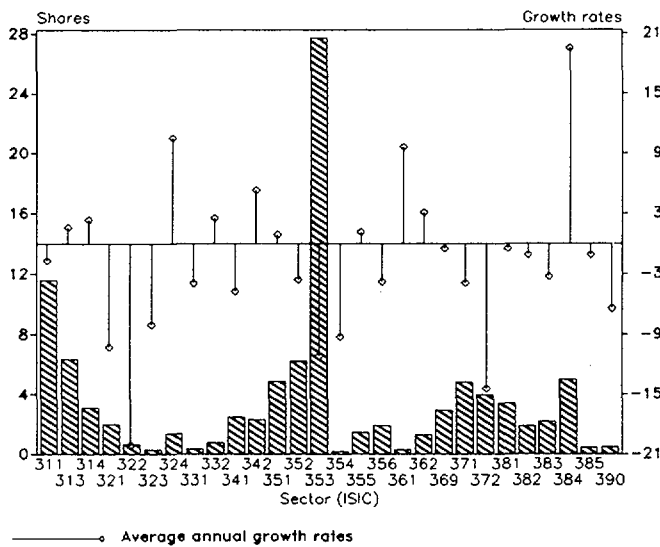


Industrial production index (1990=100)

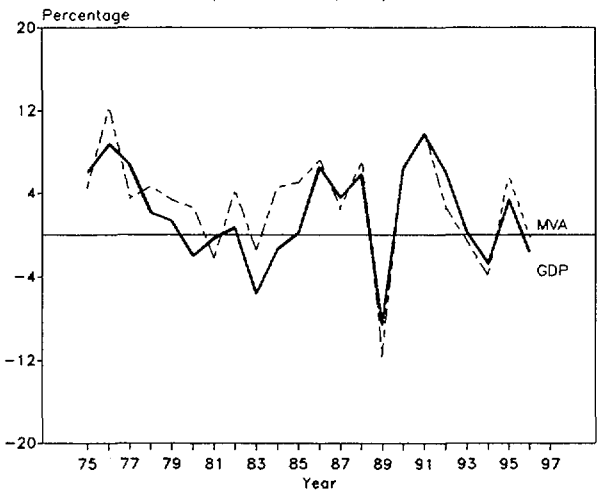


VENEZUELA

Average sectoral shares in total Value Added and average annual sectoral growth rates, 1990-1996 (Percentage)

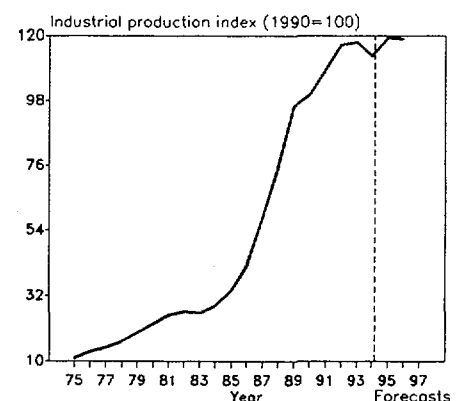
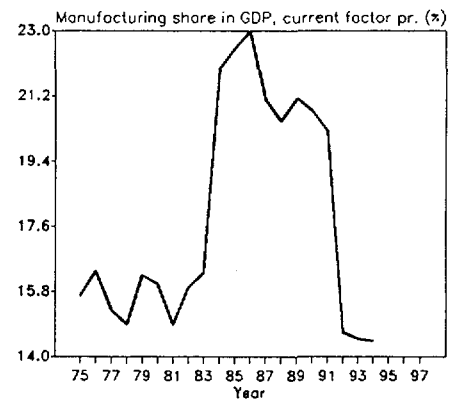
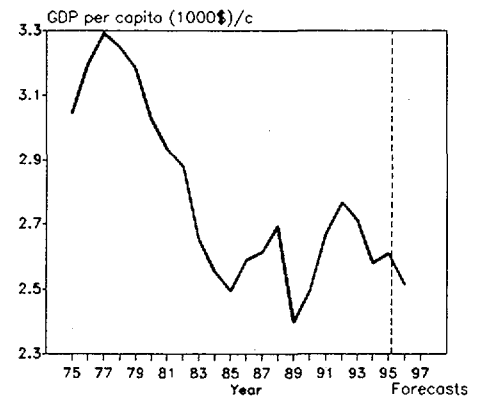


Annual growth rates of GDP and MVA (Constant 1990 prices)



Source: National Accounts Statistics from UN/UNSO.  
 Estimated by UNIDO/IRD/RES

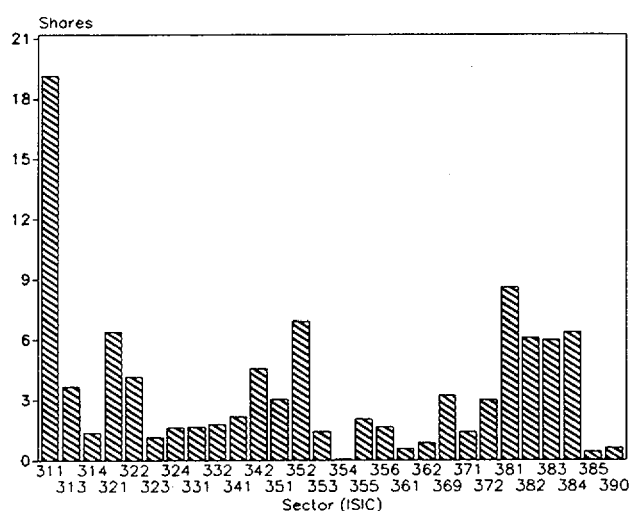
	1980	1985	1990	1995
GDP: <sup>na</sup> (millions of 1990-dollars)	45 668	42 763	48 598	57 014
Per capita <sup>na</sup> (1990-dollars)	3 026	2 495	2 492	2 610
Manufacturing share <sup>na</sup> (%) (current factor prices)	16.0	22.5	20.8	..
<b>MANUFACTURING:</b>				
Value added <sup>na</sup> (millions of 1990-dollars)	8 300	9 087	9 974	11 272
Industrial production index (1990=100)	23	34	100	119
Value added (millions of dollars)	14 461	14 071	12 175	15 309
Gross output (millions of dollars)	30 213	30 305	24 128	36 533
Employment (thousands)	426	406	464	462
<b>-PROFITABILITY: (in percent of gross output)</b>				
Intermediate input (%)	52	54	50	58
Wages and salaries including supplements (%)	15	13	9	9
Gross operating surplus and net taxes (%)	33	34	42	33
<b>-PRODUCTIVITY: (dollars)</b>				
Gross output per worker	67 966	71 154	51 776	78 889
Value added per worker	32 530	33 038	26 127	33 116
Average wage (including supplements)	10 358	9 495	4 651	6 742
<b>-STRUCTURAL INDICES:</b>				
Structural change indicator (5-year period, %)	13.35	9.99	12.63	17.11
as a percentage of 1970-1975 structural change	100	75	95	128
MVA growth rate per unit of structural change	6.16	2.59	0.55	-0.34
Degree of specialization	18.5	17.3	27.0	18.4
<b>-VALUE ADDED: (millions of dollars)</b>				
311/2 Food products	1 425	1 597	1 210	1 790
313 Beverages	953	836	583	1 071
314 Tobacco products	409	597	273	515
321 Textiles	430	505	291	257
322 Wearing apparel	348	359	160	57
323 Leather and fur products	57	58	40	39
324 Footwear	197	158	90	273
331 Wood and wood products	106	80	36	49
332 Furniture and fixtures	188	142	65	126
341 Paper and paper products	395	357	277	348
342 Printing and publishing	376	299	182	418
351 Industrial chemicals	325	498	443	767
352 Other chemical products	858	890	662	900
353 Petroleum refineries	4 222	3 634	4 734	3 955
354 Miscellaneous petroleum and coal products	25	30	19	18
355 Rubber products	151	188	139	244
356 Plastic products	394	348	215	279
361 Pottery, china and earthenware	60	39	18	52
362 Glass and glass products	137	132	109	219
369 Other non-metal mineral products	489	378	290	475
371 Iron and steel	651	855	498	642
372 Non-ferrous metals	256	447	788	563
381 Metal products	652	503	336	553
382 Non-electrical machinery	287	241	180	286
383 Electrical machinery	345	307	245	330
384 Transport equipment	605	486	198	960
385 Professional and scientific equipment	38	26	37	59
390 Other manufacturing industries	82	81	56	64



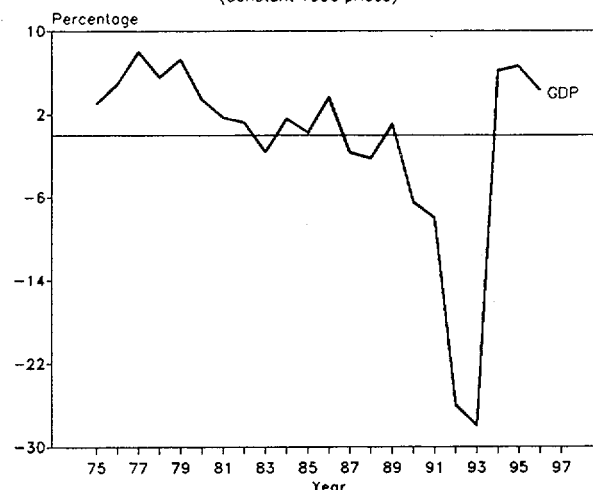
For sources, footnotes and comments see "Technical notes" at the beginning of this Annex.

## YUGOSLAVIA (SERBIA, MONTENEGRO)

Average sectoral shares in total Value Added, 1990-1996 (Percentage)

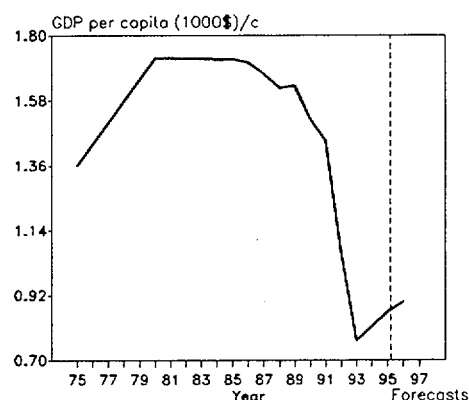


Annual growth rate of GDP (Constant 1990 prices)



Source: National Accounts Statistics from UN/UNSO.  
 Estimated by UNIDO/IRD/RES.

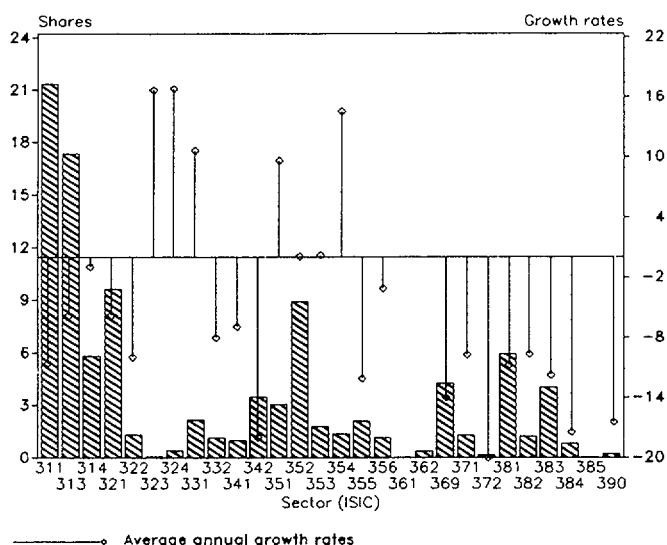
	1980	1985	1990	1995
GDP: <sup>na</sup> (millions of 1990-dollars)	16 421	16 946	15 976	8 865
Per capita <sup>na</sup> (1990-dollars)	1 725	1 721	1 517	865
Manufacturing share <sup>na</sup> (%) (current factor prices)	..	..	..	..
<b>MANUFACTURING:</b>				
Value added <sup>na</sup> (millions of 1990-dollars)	..	..	..	..
Industrial production index (1990=100)	..	..	..	..
Value added (millions of dollars)	12 600	8 259	5 417	2 834
Gross output (millions of dollars)	27 346	17 896	13 533	6 581
Employment (thousands)	991	1 002	957	808
<b>-PROFITABILITY: (in percent of gross output)</b>				
Intermediate input (%)	..	..	..	57
Wages and salaries including supplements (%)	..	..	..	10
Gross operating surplus and net taxes (%)	..	..	..	33
<b>-PRODUCTIVITY: (dollars)</b>				
Gross output per worker	27 589	17 850	14 045	8 146
Value added per worker	12 960	8 400	5 630	3 508
Average wage (including supplements)	..	..	..	794
<b>-STRUCTURAL INDICES:</b>				
Structural change indicator (5-year period, %)	1.95	1.30	5.25	11.98
as a percentage of 1970-1975 structural change	100	67	269	614
MVA growth rate per unit of structural change	29.33	22.69	-4.44	-6.32
Degree of specialization	14.0	13.7	12.7	12.3
<b>-VALUE ADDED: (millions of dollars)</b>				
311/2 Food products	2 193	1 434	931	548
313 Beverages	261	178	176	153
314 Tobacco products	74	52	51	114
321 Textiles	1 138	732	365	145
322 Wearing apparel	599	390	242	70
323 Leather and fur products	186	120	58	27
324 Footwear	380	242	99	30
331 Wood and wood products	191	125	81	47
332 Furniture and fixtures	242	157	91	51
341 Paper and paper products	179	120	84	82
342 Printing and publishing	226	173	283	139
351 Industrial chemicals	391	253	136	68
352 Other chemical products	553	364	241	213
353 Petroleum refineries	48	43	121	61
354 Miscellaneous petroleum and coal products	7	4	3	3
355 Rubber products	304	198	128	43
356 Plastic products	155	104	83	59
361 Pottery, china and earthenware	61	41	38	15
362 Glass and glass products	95	62	37	23
369 Other non-metal mineral products	320	213	171	104
371 Iron and steel	357	225	60	38
372 Non-ferrous metals	435	281	144	97
381 Metal products	1 309	851	515	242
382 Non-electrical machinery	1 030	668	406	122
383 Electrical machinery	904	585	335	177
384 Transport equipment	831	556	477	142
385 Professional and scientific equipment	69	45	26	10
390 Other manufacturing industries	61	41	35	13



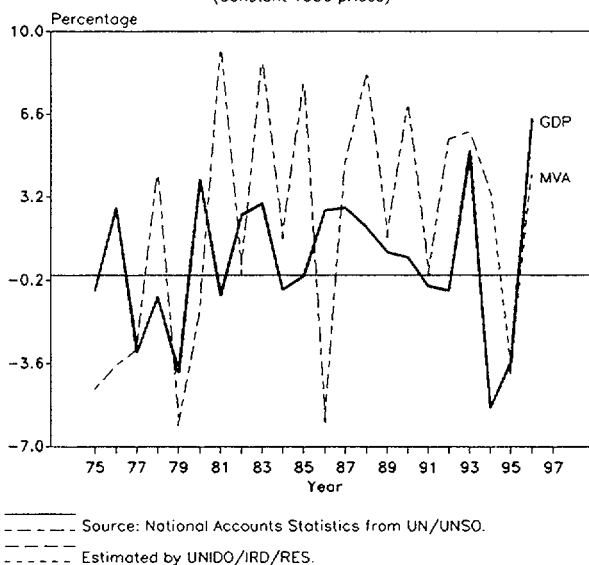
For sources, footnotes and comments see "Technical notes" at the beginning of this Annex.

ZAMBIA

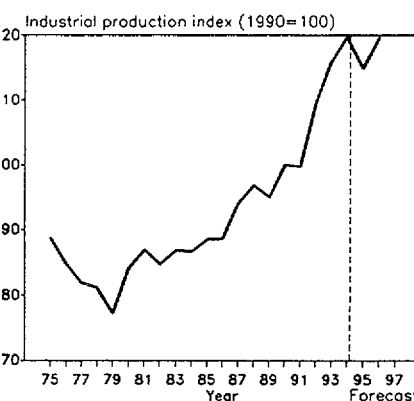
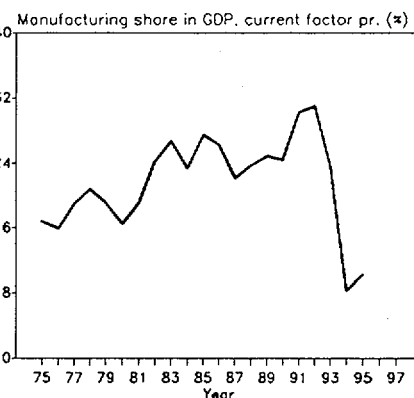
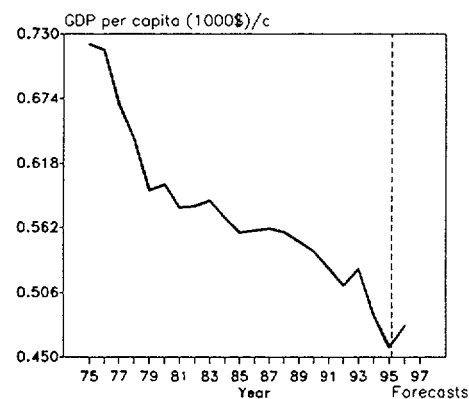
Average sectoral shares in total Value Added and average annual sectoral growth rates, 1990-1996 (Percentage)



Annual growth rates of GDP and MVA (Constant 1990 prices)



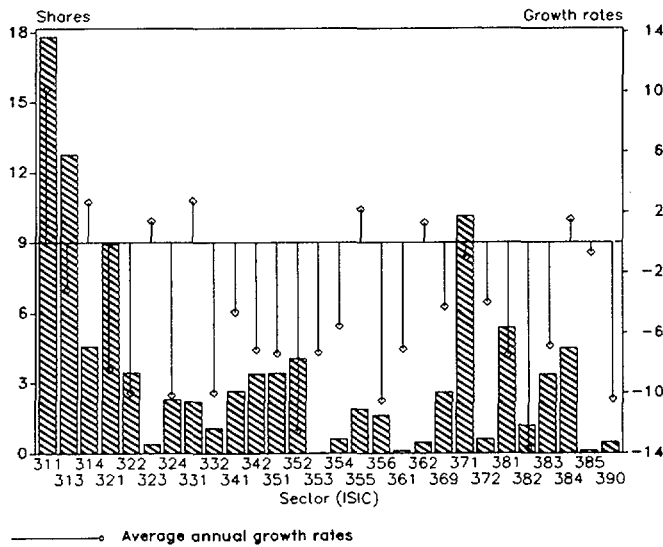
	1980	1985	1990	1995
GDP: <sup>na</sup> (millions of 1990-dollars)	3 438	3 575	3 910	3 710
Per capita <sup>na</sup> (1990-dollars)	599	558	541	459
Manufacturing share <sup>na</sup> (%) (current factor prices)	16.5	27.5	24.4	11.2
<b>MANUFACTURING:</b>				
Value added <sup>na</sup> (millions of 1990-dollars)	588	763	880	975
Industrial production index (1990=100)	84	89	100	115
Value added (millions of dollars)	780	520	655	450
Gross output (millions of dollars)	1 671	1 225	1 270	1 501
Employment (thousands)	59	61	68	53
<b>-PROFITABILITY: (in percent of gross output)</b>				
Intermediate input (%)	53	58	48	70
Wages and salaries including supplements (%)	11	12	9	12
Gross operating surplus and net taxes (%)	35	30	42	18
<b>-PRODUCTIVITY: (dollars)</b>				
Gross output per worker	28 231	20 150	18 766	28 004
Value added per worker	13 173	8 605	9 696	8 520
Average wage (including supplements)	3 245	2 492	1 767	3 429
<b>-STRUCTURAL INDICES:</b>				
Structural change indicator (5-year period, %) as a percentage of 1970-1975 structural change	10.66	8.62	15.04	18.71
MVA growth rate perer unit of structural change	100	81	141	176
Degree of specialization	5.04	0.23	-0.88	-1.89
Degree of specialization	17.9	18.2	21.7	19.4
<b>-VALUE ADDED: (millions of dollars)</b>				
311/2 Food products	92	66	158	86
313 Beverages	193	114	103	77
314 Tobacco products	58	32	28	30
321 Textiles	51	30	64	44
322 Wearing apparel	34	18	10	5
323 Leather and fur products	4	3	-	-
324 Footwear	15	9	1	3
331 Wood and wood products	8	8	8	15
332 Furniture and fixtures	12	9	8	5
341 Paper and paper products	15	7	6	4
342 Printing and publishing	17	13	32	10
351 Industrial chemicals	22	19	12	22
352 Other chemical products	47	45	45	47
353 Petroleum refineries	9	4	8	9
354 Miscellaneous petroleum and coal products	3	2	4	10
355 Rubber products	20	15	16	8
356 Plastic products	7	5	6	6
361 Pottery, china and earthenware	1	1	1	-
362 Glass and glass products	3	3	6	-1
369 Other non-metal mineral products	33	35	35	15
371 Iron and steel	10	6	8	6
372 Non-ferrous metals	2	1	1	-
381 Metal products	50	33	44	24
382 Non-electrical machinery	18	9	8	5
383 Electrical machinery	26	15	31	15
384 Transport equipment	28	17	8	3
385 Professional and scientific equipment	-	-	-	-
390 Other manufacturing industries	2	1	2	1



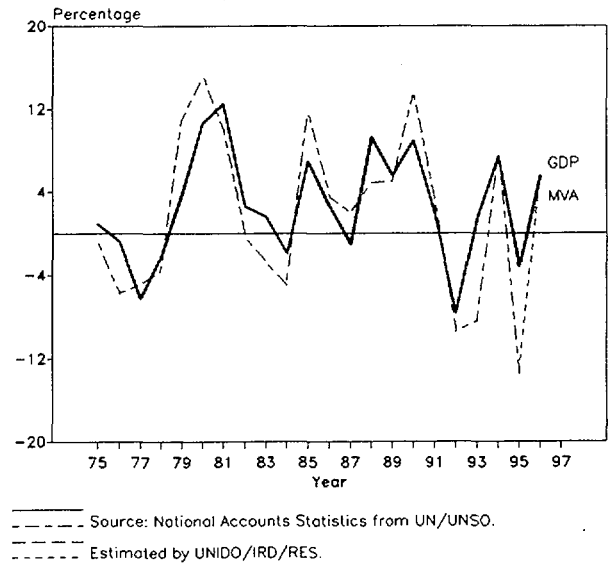
For sources, footnotes and comments see "Technical notes" at the beginning of this Annex.



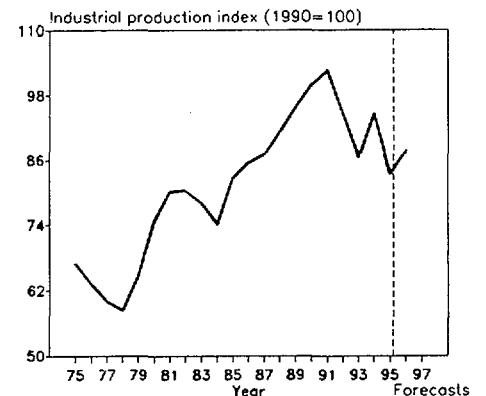
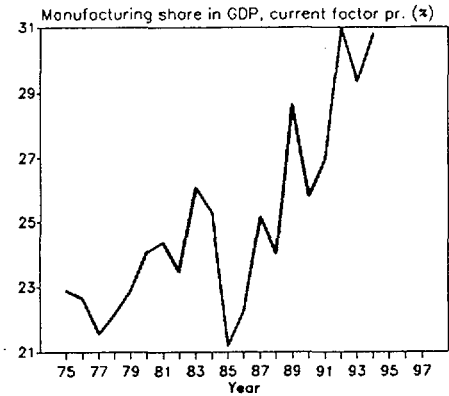
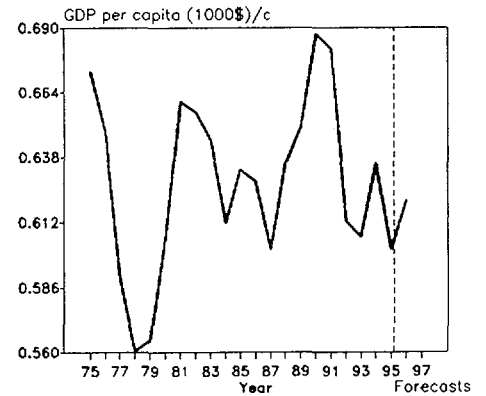
Average sectoral shares in total Value Added and average annual sectoral growth rates, 1990-1996 (Percentage)



Annual growth rates of GDP and MVA (Constant 1990 prices)



	1980	1985	1990	1995
<b>GDP:</b> <sup>na</sup> (millions of 1990-dollars)	4 315	5 311	6 776	6 727
Per capita <sup>na</sup> (1990-dollars)	606	633	688	601
Manufacturing share <sup>na</sup> (%) (current factor prices)	24.1	21.2	25.8	..
<b>MANUFACTURING:</b>				
Value added <sup>na</sup> (millions of 1990-dollars)	1 068	1 201	1 578	1 245
Industrial production index (1990=100)	75	83	100	83
Value added (millions of dollars)	1 480	1 278	2 229	1 670
Gross output (millions of dollars)	3 579	3 020	4 738	3 804
Employment (thousands)	161	163	184	170
<b>-PROFITABILITY: (in percent of gross output)</b>				
Intermediate input (%)	59	58	53	56
Wages and salaries including supplements (%)	17	18	15	12
Gross operating surplus (%)	24	25	32	32
<b>-PRODUCTIVITY: (dollars)</b>				
Gross output per worker	22 265	18 449	25 711	22 211
Value added per worker	9 205	7 808	12 095	9 755
Average wage (including supplements)	3 848	3 241	3 959	2 639
<b>-STRUCTURAL INDICES:</b>				
Structural change indicator (5-year period, %)	8.14	12.49	11.83	11.53
as a percentage of 1970-1975 structural change	100	153	145	142
MVA growth rate per unit of structural change	4.79	0.79	2.22	1.03
Degree of specialization	13.4	13.3	13.4	18.2
<b>-VALUE ADDED: (millions of dollars)</b>				
311/2 Food products	193	130	237	373
313 Beverages	92	189	302	216
314 Tobacco products	55	72	76	78
321 Textiles	147	114	255	136
322 Wearing apparel	70	55	102	51
323 Leather and fur products	4	4	7	7
324 Footwear	34	42	66	32
331 Wood and wood products	38	17	43	45
332 Furniture and fixtures	26	15	32	16
341 Paper and paper products	30	37	64	43
342 Printing and publishing	59	45	94	55
351 Industrial chemicals	58	67	98	56
352 Other chemical products	80	78	127	49
353 Petroleum refineries	-	1	1	-
354 Miscellaneous petroleum and coal products	7	8	16	10
355 Rubber products	30	24	37	37
356 Plastic products	25	37	47	21
361 Pottery, china and earthenware	3	2	3	1
362 Glass and glass products	9	5	9	9
369 Other non-metal mineral products	44	28	54	39
371 Iron and steel	194	105	184	155
372 Non-ferrous metals	10	9	13	9
381 Metal products	132	78	135	80
382 Non-electrical machinery	39	22	43	16
383 Electrical machinery	44	36	88	52
384 Transport equipment	38	48	81	77
385 Professional and scientific equipment	2	1	2	2
390 Other manufacturing industries	17	9	13	6



For sources, footnotes and comments see "Technical notes" at the beginning of this Annex.

AFGHANISTAN	1980	1985	1990	1993	1994	1995
GDP: <sup>na,c</sup> (in million 1990-dollars)	573	639	488	462	467	467
Growth rate (%) <sup>na,c</sup>	-3.72	0.27	-3.12	2.59	1.00	0.00
Per capita (in 1990-dollars) <sup>na,c</sup>	35.6	44.0	33.1	26.7	25.3	23.7
MVA: <sup>na,c</sup> (in million 1990-dollars)	144	156	103	88	86	88
Growth rate (%) <sup>na,c</sup>	-6.06	3.32	-10.34	-2.45	-1.41	1.55
Manufacturing share (%) <sup>na</sup>	18.5	19.2	21.2	..	..	..

AZERBAIJAN	1980	1985	1990	1993	1994	1995
GDP: <sup>na,c</sup> (in million 1990-dollars)	10 644	14 321	13 878	6 720	5 241	4 340
Growth rate (%) <sup>na,c</sup>	10.13	4.61	-9.79	-13.30	-22.01	-17.20
Per capita (in 1990-dollars) <sup>na,c</sup>	1 728.7	2 150.6	1 941.0	908.7	702.2	576.2
MVA: <sup>na,c</sup> (in million 1990-dollars)	1 982	2 511	2 361	1 583	1 187	1 038
Growth rate (%) <sup>na,c</sup>	..	6.51	-16.49	-12.63	-24.98	-12.58
Manufacturing share (%) <sup>na</sup>	..	..	17.0	22.5	22.5	..

BAHAMAS	1980	1985	1990	1993	1994	1995
GDP: <sup>na,c</sup> (in million 1990-dollars)	1 981	2 566	3 042	3 054	3 063	3 093
Growth rate (%) <sup>na,c</sup>	-3.56	13.53	4.82	2.68	0.30	1.00
Per capita (in 1990-dollars) <sup>na,c</sup>	9 433.7	11 062.0	11 929.4	11 351.8	11 178.1	11 087.6
MVA: <sup>na,c</sup> (in million 1990-dollars)	..	..	..	..	..	..
Growth rate (%) <sup>na,c</sup>	..	..	..	..	..	..
Manufacturing share (%) <sup>na</sup>	7.6	..	3.3	3.4	..	..

BAHRAIN	1980	1985	1990	1993	1994	1995
GDP: <sup>na,c</sup> (in million 1990-dollars)	3 739	3 607	4 032	4 624	4 601	4 702
Growth rate (%) <sup>na,c</sup>	2.58	-2.01	1.24	4.60	-0.50	2.20
Per capita (in 1990-dollars) <sup>na,c</sup>	10 773.9	8 732.9	8 229.5	8 707.7	8 457.1	8 441.4
MVA: <sup>na,c</sup> (in million 1990-dollars)	580	532	672	783	792	804
Growth rate (%) <sup>na,c</sup>	26.25	-16.14	5.23	5.39	1.17	1.55
Manufacturing share (%) <sup>na</sup>	14.8	8.5	15.4	16.5	16.5	..

BELARUS	1980	1985	1990	1993	1994	1995
GDP: <sup>na,c</sup> (in million 1990-dollars)	26 100	34 192	39 708	31 919	25 535	22 981
Growth rate (%) <sup>na,c</sup>	4.17	3.97	-1.40	-10.00	-20.00	-10.00
Per capita (in 1990-dollars) <sup>na,c</sup>	2 711.1	3 433.6	3 870.2	3 087.8	2 467.6	2 220.0
MVA: <sup>na,c</sup> (in million 1990-dollars)	5 439	7 207	10 340	10 258	8 279	7 901
Growth rate (%) <sup>na,c</sup>	..	5.09	7.54	0.36	-19.30	-4.56
Manufacturing share (%) <sup>na</sup>	..	..	36.2	29.8	11.4	..

BELIZE	1980	1985	1990	1993	1994	1995
GDP: <sup>na,c</sup> (in million 1990-dollars)	249	254	396	461	469	486
Growth rate (%) <sup>na,c</sup>	4.37	0.99	9.23	4.18	1.60	3.73
Per capita (in 1990-dollars) <sup>na,c</sup>	1 708.7	1 529.9	2 120.1	2 273.1	2 254.0	2 283.1
MVA: <sup>na,c</sup> (in million 1990-dollars)	44	42	53	58	59	60
Growth rate (%) <sup>na,c</sup>	14.91	0.93	5.60	-1.29	1.93	1.93
Manufacturing share (%) <sup>na</sup>	23.1	16.0	15.0	13.4	11.4	..

For sources, footnotes and comments see "Technical notes" at the beginning of this Annex.

BENIN	1980	1985	1990	1993	1994	1995
GDP: <sup>na,c</sup> (in million 1990-dollars)	1 340	1 740	1 845	2 079	2 179	2 316
Growth rate (%) <sup>na,c</sup>	9.42	7.53	3.00	3.24	4.80	6.30
Per capita (in 1990-dollars) <sup>na,c</sup>	367.3	432.3	393.9	406.8	414.3	428.2
MVA: <sup>na,c</sup> (in million 1990-dollars)	128	115	145	156	161	166
Growth rate (%) <sup>na,c</sup>	-4.38	11.84	0.57	2.69	3.04	3.62
Manufacturing share (%) <sup>na</sup>	9.6	8.2	8.2	8.2	7.8	..

BERMUDA	1980	1985	1990	1993	1994	1995
GDP: <sup>na,c</sup> (in million 1990-dollars)	1 556	1 563	1 635	1 635	1 676	1 709
Growth rate (%) <sup>na,c</sup>	2.51	6.69	-3.54	2.44	2.50	2.00
Per capita (in 1990-dollars) <sup>na,c</sup>	28 813.1	27 909.0	26 801.6	25 950.8	26 599.6	27 131.5
MVA: <sup>na,c</sup> (in million 1990-dollars)	161	156	163	163	167	170
Growth rate (%) <sup>na,c</sup>	4.52	2.80	-3.79	2.60	2.24	1.93
Manufacturing share (%) <sup>na</sup>	..	..	..	..	..	..

BHUTAN	1980	1985	1990	1993	1994	1995
GDP: <sup>na,c</sup> (in million 1990-dollars)	141	196	283	327	344	371
Growth rate (%) <sup>na,c</sup>	17.63	3.69	5.28	4.89	5.10	7.91
Per capita (in 1990-dollars) <sup>na,c</sup>	109.3	135.1	172.3	191.1	198.0	209.8
MVA: <sup>na,c</sup> (in million 1990-dollars)	5	11	23	31	32	36
Growth rate (%) <sup>na,c</sup>	35.25	12.19	15.98	4.07	2.90	12.22
Manufacturing share (%) <sup>na</sup>	3.2	5.3	8.1	10.8	10.8	..

BOSNIA AND HERZEGOVINA	1980	1985	1990	1993	1994	1995
GDP: <sup>na,c</sup> (in million 1990-dollars)	7 611	8 376	6 523	4 317	3 454	3 580
Growth rate (%) <sup>na,c</sup>	1.15	1.51	-23.20	-14.10	-20.00	3.67
Per capita (in 1990-dollars) <sup>na,c</sup>	1 944.5	2 031.9	1 459.2	1 140.6	952.0	1 003.2
MVA: <sup>na,c</sup> (in million 1990-dollars)	..	..	..	..	..	..
Growth rate (%) <sup>na,c</sup>	..	..	..	..	..	..
Manufacturing share (%) <sup>na</sup>	..	..	..	..	..	..

BRUNEI DARUSSALAM	1980	1985	1990	1993	1994	1995
GDP: <sup>na,c</sup> (in million 1990-dollars)	4 248	3 526	3 596	3 539	3 645	3 736
Growth rate (%) <sup>na,c</sup>	-7.00	-1.48	2.75	-4.06	3.00	2.50
Per capita (in 1990-dollars) <sup>na,c</sup>	22 009.3	15 813.0	13 991.9	12 684.6	12 745.4	12 751.9
MVA: <sup>na,c</sup> (in million 1990-dollars)	430	254	323	234	241	246
Growth rate (%) <sup>na,c</sup>	-8.35	-5.41	5.31	1.76	3.01	1.80
Manufacturing share (%) <sup>na</sup>	11.7	10.0	8.8	7.6	..	..

CAPE VERDE	1980	1985	1990	1993	1994	1995
GDP: <sup>na,c</sup> (in million 1990-dollars)	210	285	368	418	437	455
Growth rate (%) <sup>na,c</sup>	3.32	8.54	3.70	2.51	4.60	4.24
Per capita (in 1990-dollars) <sup>na,c</sup>	727.6	918.1	1 079.8	1 137.8	1 158.6	1 179.5
MVA: <sup>na,c</sup> (in million 1990-dollars)	12	18	21	38	40	43
Growth rate (%) <sup>na,c</sup>	7.14	36.12	6.21	32.59	5.96	7.26
Manufacturing share (%) <sup>na</sup>	4.8	5.8	6.1	5.8	..	..

For sources, footnotes and comments see "Technical notes" at the beginning of this Annex.

CHAD	1980	1985	1990	1993	1994	1995
GDP: <sup>na,c</sup> (in million 1990-dollars)	722	1 106	1 213	1 162	1 220	1 277
Growth rate (%) <sup>na,c</sup>	-7.40	21.90	-2.60	-2.90	5.00	4.70
Per capita (in 1990-dollars) <sup>na,c</sup>	161.2	220.3	218.5	193.8	198.0	201.6
MVA: <sup>na,c</sup> (in million 1990-dollars)	180	343	250	224	235	245
Growth rate (%) <sup>na,c</sup>	-12.00	-6.65	-38.78	-3.04	4.76	4.12
Manufacturing share (%) <sup>na</sup>	15.4	15.9	22.1	14.1	13.4	..

DEMOCRATIC PEOPLE'S REPUBLIC OF KOREA	1980	1985	1990	1993	1994	1995
GDP: <sup>na,c</sup> (in million 1990-dollars)	11 014	17 622	21 000	19 251	18 674	17 889
Growth rate (%) <sup>na,c</sup>	9.89	9.59	-3.70	-3.50	-3.00	-4.20
Per capita (in 1990-dollars) <sup>na,c</sup>	623.4	930.3	1 031.3	900.6	859.2	809.6
MVA: <sup>na,c</sup> (in million 1990-dollars)	..	..	..	..	..	..
Growth rate (%) <sup>na,c</sup>	..	..	..	..	..	..
Manufacturing share (%) <sup>na</sup>	..	..	..	..	..	..

DJIBOUTI	1980	1985	1990	1993	1994	1995
GDP: <sup>na,c</sup> (in million 1990-dollars)	353	346	418	437	439	434
Growth rate (%) <sup>na,c</sup>	4.72	1.59	4.03	2.75	0.50	-1.30
Per capita (in 1990-dollars) <sup>na,c</sup>	1 255.3	884.6	807.6	766.9	750.9	721.4
MVA: <sup>na,c</sup> (in million 1990-dollars)	15	14	17	18	18	19
Growth rate (%) <sup>na,c</sup>	4.08	1.51	6.78	2.54	2.35	1.72
Manufacturing share (%) <sup>na</sup>	..	4.7	4.8	4.5	..	..

DOMINICAN REPUBLIC	1980	1985	1990	1993	1994	1995
GDP: <sup>na,c</sup> (in million 1990-dollars)	5 946	6 419	7 080	7 953	8 298	8 694
Growth rate (%) <sup>na,c</sup>	6.05	-2.59	-5.41	2.99	4.34	4.77
Per capita (in 1990-dollars) <sup>na,c</sup>	1 043.7	1 006.8	995.8	1 054.4	1 079.9	1 111.3
MVA: <sup>na,c</sup> (in million 1990-dollars)	775	779	955	1 107	1 152	1 220
Growth rate (%) <sup>na,c</sup>	5.03	-5.21	-4.16	2.30	4.00	5.93
Manufacturing share (%) <sup>na</sup>	15.3	13.6	13.5	14.2	..	..

EQUATORIAL GUINEA	1980	1985	1990	1993	1994	1995
GDP: <sup>na,c</sup> (in million 1990-dollars)	116	131	145	159	173	192
Growth rate (%) <sup>na,c</sup>	-9.94	7.31	4.45	2.75	8.90	11.10
Per capita (in 1990-dollars) <sup>na,c</sup>	534.5	420.6	412.2	418.6	444.1	479.9
MVA: <sup>na,c</sup> (in million 1990-dollars)	2	3	2	3	3	3
Growth rate (%) <sup>na,c</sup>	-9.20	95.57	1.55	9.94	4.60	12.63
Manufacturing share (%) <sup>na</sup>	..	1.9	1.5	9.9	9.3	..

ESTONIA	1980	1985	1990	1993	1994	1995
GDP: <sup>na,c</sup> (in million 1990-dollars)	6 547	6 641	7 455	5 201	5 060	5 207
Growth rate (%) <sup>na,c</sup>	..	-8.70	-6.47	-7.80	-2.70	2.89
Per capita (in 1990-dollars) <sup>na,c</sup>	4 423.5	4 323.6	4 748.5	3 403.7	3 357.9	3 499.2
MVA: <sup>na,c</sup> (in million 1990-dollars)	2 621	2 937	2 985	2 097	2 040	2 069
Growth rate (%) <sup>na,c</sup>	..	0.38	-5.09	-7.80	-2.70	1.42
Manufacturing share (%) <sup>na</sup>	41.7	39.0	39.6	24.0	22.5	..

For sources, footnotes and comments see "Technical notes" at the beginning of this Annex.

FRENCH GUIANA	1980	1985	1990	1993	1994	1995
GDP: <sup>na,c</sup> (in million 1990-dollars)	353	629	1 103	1 130	1 139	1 199
Growth rate (%) <sup>na,c</sup>	0.00	14.78	10.74	0.00	0.82	5.25
Per capita (in 1990-dollars) <sup>na,c</sup>	5 184.8	6 909.2	9 427.3	8 372.2	8 081.5	8 158.8
MVA: <sup>na,c</sup> (in million 1990-dollars)	59	57	63	67	68	71
Growth rate (%) <sup>na,c</sup>	4.52	2.81	0.43	1.67	2.44	3.05
Manufacturing share (%) <sup>na</sup>	..	..	..	..	..	..

FRENCH POLYNESIA	1980	1985	1990	1993	1994	1995
GDP: <sup>na,c</sup> (in million 1990-dollars)	1 684	2 361	3 007	3 238	3 410	3 522
Growth rate (%) <sup>na,c</sup>	0.48	5.35	3.97	2.02	5.33	3.28
Per capita (in 1990-dollars) <sup>na,c</sup>	11 151.2	13 570.9	15 266.3	15 416.8	15 860.7	16 081.4
MVA: <sup>na,c</sup> (in million 1990-dollars)	120	202	219	250	263	273
Growth rate (%) <sup>na,c</sup>	1.77	8.27	5.22	5.72	5.35	3.61
Manufacturing share (%) <sup>na</sup>	6.6	8.5	7.3	..	..	..

GEORGIA	1980	1985	1990	1993	1994	1995
GDP: <sup>na,c</sup> (in million 1990-dollars)	9 775	14 421	14 132	3 732	2 612	2 675
Growth rate (%) <sup>na,c</sup>	4.56	12.66	-0.34	-39.10	-30.00	2.40
Per capita (in 1990-dollars) <sup>na,c</sup>	1 936.4	2 745.8	2 588.3	682.7	478.6	490.8
MVA: <sup>na,c</sup> (in million 1990-dollars)	2 121	3 317	2 706	757	492	500
Growth rate (%) <sup>na,c</sup>	..	15.67	-15.92	-39.92	-35.00	1.69
Manufacturing share (%) <sup>na</sup>	..	..	19.2	11.0	11.0	..

GHANA	1980	1985	1990	1993	1994	1995
GDP: <sup>na,c</sup> (in million 1990-dollars)	5 030	4 923	6 226	7 125	7 396	7 729
Growth rate (%) <sup>na,c</sup>	0.46	5.08	3.34	4.60	3.80	4.50
Per capita (in 1990-dollars) <sup>na,c</sup>	465.4	383.5	414.6	434.8	438.8	445.8
MVA: <sup>na,c</sup> (in million 1990-dollars)	541	433	575	566	583	612
Growth rate (%) <sup>na,c</sup>	-1.44	24.29	-3.84	2.30	3.00	5.06
Manufacturing share (%) <sup>na</sup>	7.8	11.5	9.3	8.8	8.8	..

GUADELOUPE	1980	1985	1990	1993	1994	1995
GDP: <sup>na,c</sup> (in million 1990-dollars)	1 676	1 706	2 200	2 208	2 273	2 363
Growth rate (%) <sup>na,c</sup>	-4.66	-0.76	3.14	2.69	2.94	3.97
Per capita (in 1990-dollars) <sup>na,c</sup>	5 125.0	4 805.7	5 626.6	5 371.7	5 436.8	5 572.6
MVA: <sup>na,c</sup> (in million 1990-dollars)	113	89	129	131	134	139
Growth rate (%) <sup>na,c</sup>	-5.16	11.54	3.22	3.83	2.45	3.58
Manufacturing share (%) <sup>na</sup>	6.3	4.9	5.4	..	..	..

GUINEA	1980	1985	1990	1993	1994	1995
GDP: <sup>na,c</sup> (in million 1990-dollars)	2 296	2 188	2 818	3 194	3 321	3 471
Growth rate (%) <sup>na,c</sup>	5.60	3.89	4.69	3.00	4.00	4.50
Per capita (in 1990-dollars) <sup>na,c</sup>	514.8	438.7	489.7	472.2	468.3	472.3
MVA: <sup>na,c</sup> (in million 1990-dollars)	61	62	100	116	122	130
Growth rate (%) <sup>na,c</sup>	2.70	3.33	5.07	5.03	5.90	6.34
Manufacturing share (%) <sup>na</sup>	..	..	3.6	4.7	4.6	..

For sources, footnotes and comments see "Technical notes" at the beginning of this Annex.

GUINEA-BISSAU	1980	1985	1990	1993	1994	1995
GDP: <sup>na,c</sup> (in million 1990-dollars)	39	43	55	60	64	67
Growth rate (%) <sup>na,c</sup>	-4.19	-3.50	3.30	2.85	6.90	4.40
Per capita (in 1990-dollars) <sup>na,c</sup>	48.7	49.1	56.7	58.1	60.9	62.3
MVA: <sup>na,c</sup> (in million 1990-dollars)	25	24	17	17	17	16
Growth rate (%) <sup>na,c</sup>	-5.09	-7.11	-1.53	3.95	-1.19	-1.15
Manufacturing share (%) <sup>na</sup>	17.7	16.2	30.3	8.0	8.0	..

GUYANA	1980	1985	1990	1993	1994	1995
GDP: <sup>na,c</sup> (in million 1990-dollars)	561	469	396	490	531	555
Growth rate (%) <sup>na,c</sup>	1.66	1.02	-10.10	8.23	8.50	4.50
Per capita (in 1990-dollars) <sup>na,c</sup>	739.6	591.1	498.4	602.5	647.4	669.2
MVA: <sup>na,c</sup> (in million 1990-dollars)	40	28	18	25	28	29
Growth rate (%) <sup>na,c</sup>	0.76	-3.13	-16.67	3.49	12.13	6.11
Manufacturing share (%) <sup>na</sup>	12.1	9.8	5.2	3.8	..	..

HAITI	1980	1985	1990	1993	1994	1995
GDP: <sup>na,c</sup> (in million 1990-dollars)	2 381	2 270	2 281	1 829	1 588	1 657
Growth rate (%) <sup>na,c</sup>	7.39	0.59	-0.14	-5.24	-13.19	4.38
Per capita (in 1990-dollars) <sup>na,c</sup>	444.7	387.3	352.4	266.6	227.1	232.6
MVA: <sup>na,c</sup> (in million 1990-dollars)	506	429	417	250	191	203
Growth rate (%) <sup>na,c</sup>	14.81	-0.84	2.41	-6.39	-23.61	5.99
Manufacturing share (%) <sup>na</sup>	19.1	17.6	19.5	10.8	10.8	..

KAZAKHSTAN	1980	1985	1990	1993	1994	1995
GDP: <sup>na,c</sup> (in million 1990-dollars)	21 683	28 636	39 831	27 591	20 693	18 852
Growth rate (%) <sup>na,c</sup>	3.76	6.15	15.53	-12.90	-25.00	-8.90
Per capita (in 1990-dollars) <sup>na,c</sup>	1 454.5	1 814.7	2 389.4	1 638.6	1 230.0	1 121.0
MVA: <sup>na,c</sup> (in million 1990-dollars)	3 882	5 107	5 497	4 382	3 155	2 886
Growth rate (%) <sup>na,c</sup>	..	6.15	-3.20	-14.80	-28.00	-8.52
Manufacturing share (%) <sup>na</sup>	..	..	13.8	17.0	..	..

KYRGYZSTAN	1980	1985	1990	1993	1994	1995
GDP: <sup>na,c</sup> (in million 1990-dollars)	6 524	8 750	11 173	7 341	5 432	5 068
Growth rate (%) <sup>na,c</sup>	2.96	-5.31	1.20	-16.00	-26.00	-6.70
Per capita (in 1990-dollars) <sup>na,c</sup>	1 803.8	2 192.9	2 545.2	1 648.6	1 219.4	1 136.4
MVA: <sup>na,c</sup> (in million 1990-dollars)	..	..	2 588	1 511	1 133	991
Growth rate (%) <sup>na,c</sup>	..	..	..	-24.93	-25.02	-12.50
Manufacturing share (%) <sup>na</sup>	..	..	23.2	24.9	..	..

LAO PEOPLE'S DEMOCRATIC REPUBLIC	1980	1985	1990	1993	1994	1995
GDP: <sup>na,c</sup> (in million 1990-dollars)	515	705	869	1 035	1 122	1 201
Growth rate (%) <sup>na,c</sup>	1.70	5.06	7.61	6.00	8.40	7.04
Per capita (in 1990-dollars) <sup>na,c</sup>	160.8	196.2	206.8	225.1	236.9	246.0
MVA: <sup>na,c</sup> (in million 1975-dollars)	23	31	37	49	53	57
Growth rate (%) <sup>na,c</sup>	7.94	3.85	9.96	8.10	8.50	7.66
Manufacturing share (%) <sup>na</sup>	..	..	..	13.4	13.4	..

For sources, footnotes and comments see "Technical notes" at the beginning of this Annex.

LIBERIA	1980	1985	1990	1993	1994	1995
GDP: <sup>na,c</sup> (in million 1990-dollars)	846	779	805	824	824	824
Growth rate (%) <sup>na,c</sup>	-6.29	-2.02	-1.99	0.00	0.00	0.00
Per capita (in 1990-dollars) <sup>na,c</sup>	451.2	354.1	312.6	372.2	389.1	388.3
MVA: <sup>na,c</sup> (in million 1990-dollars)	57	55	59	64	66	67
Growth rate (%) <sup>na,c</sup>	-21.21	-1.61	-2.98	2.01	3.60	1.76
Manufacturing share (%) <sup>na</sup>	9.5	6.6	7.9	..	..	..

LITHUANIA	1980	1985	1990	1993	1994	1995
GDP: <sup>na,c</sup> (in million 1990-dollars)	6 892	8 497	12 179	5 476	5 530	5 694
Growth rate (%) <sup>na,c</sup>	..	0.00	5.74	-17.14	0.99	2.97
Per capita (in 1990-dollars) <sup>na,c</sup>	2 007.5	2 368.8	3 281.8	1 459.8	1 477.0	1 524.1
MVA: <sup>na,c</sup> (in million 1990-dollars)	..	..	4 490	2 446	2 470	2 522
Growth rate (%) <sup>na,c</sup>	..	..	..	-16.98	0.99	2.10
Manufacturing share (%) <sup>na</sup>	37.8	35.2	35.4	46.8	..	..

MALI	1980	1985	1990	1993	1994	1995
GDP: <sup>na,c</sup> (in million 1990-dollars)	1 748	2 006	2 510	2 853	2 921	3 097
Growth rate (%) <sup>na,c</sup>	4.01	8.50	2.41	3.83	2.40	6.00
Per capita (in 1990-dollars) <sup>na,c</sup>	254.6	253.4	272.4	281.5	279.2	286.9
MVA: <sup>na,c</sup> (in million 1990-dollars)	86	160	196	222	233	248
Growth rate (%) <sup>na,c</sup>	1.58	4.37	-2.35	6.38	4.70	6.46
Manufacturing share (%) <sup>na</sup>	4.9	7.5	8.2	9.2	8.8	..

MARTINIQUE	1980	1985	1990	1993	1994	1995
GDP: <sup>na,c</sup> (in million 1990-dollars)	1 734	2 159	2 800	2 810	2 998	3 155
Growth rate (%) <sup>na,c</sup>	2.80	4.50	2.94	2.69	6.68	5.26
Per capita (in 1990-dollars) <sup>na,c</sup>	5 320.2	6 330.6	7 777.8	7 553.3	7 972.2	8 302.8
MVA: <sup>na,c</sup> (in million 1990-dollars)	113	159	256	153	167	177
Growth rate (%) <sup>na,c</sup>	-9.91	26.89	2.95	5.43	8.98	6.29
Manufacturing share (%) <sup>na</sup>	5.1	..	..	..	..	..

MAURITANIA	1980	1985	1990	1993	1994	1995
GDP: <sup>na,c</sup> (in million 1990-dollars)	878	875	1 052	1 161	1 215	1 271
Growth rate (%) <sup>na,c</sup>	0.70	3.35	3.50	3.00	4.60	4.60
Per capita (in 1990-dollars) <sup>na,c</sup>	566.4	495.2	525.1	537.4	548.0	558.8
MVA: <sup>na,c</sup> (in million 1990-dollars)	64	103	119	150	160	170
Growth rate (%) <sup>na,c</sup>	-1.43	22.44	18.98	6.19	6.51	6.36
Manufacturing share (%) <sup>na</sup>	5.6	12.8	12.9	11.1	..	..

MAURITIUS	1980	1985	1990	1993	1994	1995
GDP: <sup>na,c</sup> (in million 1990-dollars)	1 409	1 769	2 559	2 985	3 128	3 265
Growth rate (%) <sup>na,c</sup>	-10.06	6.88	7.15	5.50	4.80	4.39
Per capita (in 1990-dollars) <sup>na,c</sup>	1 458.8	1 741.6	2 421.0	2 735.8	2 833.3	2 923.3
MVA: <sup>na,c</sup> (in million 1990-dollars)	200	299	502	614	659	705
Growth rate (%) <sup>na,c</sup>	-7.03	15.27	7.72	10.00	7.29	7.01
Manufacturing share (%) <sup>na</sup>	15.0	20.3	23.1	20.8	20.8	..

For sources, footnotes and comments see "Technical notes" at the beginning of this Annex.

MONGOLIA	1980	1985	1990	1993	1994	1995
GDP: <sup>na,c</sup> (in million 1990-dollars)	1 139	1 587	1 869	1 476	1 525	1 618
Growth rate (%) <sup>na,c</sup>	3.43	6.19	-2.07	-1.60	3.30	6.10
Per capita (in 1990-dollars) <sup>na,c</sup>	684.7	831.3	843.3	623.8	631.6	656.8
MVA: <sup>na,c</sup> (in million 1990-dollars)	288	428	521	369	379	403
Growth rate (%) <sup>na,c</sup>	8.03	3.07	2.43	-4.61	2.82	6.20
Manufacturing share (%) <sup>na</sup>	24.2	26.6	27.9	..	..	..

MONTSERAT	1980	1985	1990	1993	1994	1995
GDP: <sup>na,c</sup> (in million 1990-dollars)	48	54	71	72	76	81
Growth rate (%) <sup>na,c</sup>	10.22	4.61	-10.89	2.84	6.62	6.62
Per capita (in 1990-dollars) <sup>na,c</sup>	4 016.4	4 884.3	6 464.6	6 500.5	6 931.2	7 390.4
MVA: <sup>na,c</sup> (in million 1990-dollars)	3	3	4	4	5	5
Growth rate (%) <sup>na,c</sup>	10.71	-0.12	-10.48	11.78	8.07	8.04
Manufacturing share (%) <sup>na</sup>	5.7	5.5	4.6	..	..	..

MOZAMBIQUE	1980	1985	1990	1993	1994	1995
GDP: <sup>na,c</sup> (in million 1990-dollars)	1 386	1 102	1 318	1 501	1 576	1 647
Growth rate (%) <sup>na,c</sup>	2.46	-8.82	1.90	8.84	5.00	4.50
Per capita (in 1990-dollars) <sup>na,c</sup>	114.6	81.4	92.9	94.1	94.7	95.4
MVA: <sup>na,c</sup> (in million 1990-dollars)	561	256	325	325	370	402
Growth rate (%) <sup>na,c</sup>	3.25	-13.87	-2.19	-0.11	13.84	8.75
Manufacturing share (%) <sup>na</sup>	33.1	14.9	..	..	..	..

MYANMAR	1980	1985	1990	1993	1994	1995
GDP: <sup>na,c</sup> (in million 1990-dollars)	21 156	26 701	23 969	27 889	29 789	32 701
Growth rate (%) <sup>na,c</sup>	7.91	2.85	2.82	6.00	6.81	9.78
Per capita (in 1990-dollars) <sup>na,c</sup>	625.5	711.2	579.6	640.1	672.1	725.0
MVA: <sup>na,c</sup> (in million 1990-dollars)	1 733	2 275	1 865	2 176	2 371	2 637
Growth rate (%) <sup>na,c</sup>	6.86	2.92	0.11	9.75	8.94	11.21
Manufacturing share (%) <sup>na</sup>	9.5	9.9	7.8	7.0	7.0	..

NAMIBIA	1980	1985	1990	1993	1994	1995
GDP: <sup>na,c</sup> (in million 1990-dollars)	1 944	1 891	2 129	2 390	2 519	2 585
Growth rate (%) <sup>na,c</sup>	0.18	0.19	0.01	-1.53	5.41	2.62
Per capita (in 1990-dollars) <sup>na,c</sup>	1 887.1	1 603.5	1 574.5	1 635.7	1 680.5	1 683.0
MVA: <sup>na,c</sup> (in million 1990-dollars)	63	80	113	125	128	133
Growth rate (%) <sup>na,c</sup>	-14.65	3.72	15.63	17.17	2.10	4.27
Manufacturing share (%) <sup>na</sup>	4.6	4.6	6.1	8.8	8.8	..

NEW CALEDONIA	1980	1985	1990	1993	1994	1995
GDP: <sup>na,c</sup> (in million 1990-dollars)	1 079	1 070	1 600	1 722	1 776	1 824
Growth rate (%) <sup>na,c</sup>	-0.40	4.51	-4.27	2.02	3.11	2.71
Per capita (in 1990-dollars) <sup>na,c</sup>	7 542.8	6 900.2	9 523.8	9 842.6	9 977.7	10 077.9
MVA: <sup>na,c</sup> (in million 1990-dollars)	98	79	112	124	125	127
Growth rate (%) <sup>na,c</sup>	-4.64	-1.05	-4.27	-0.75	1.31	1.36
Manufacturing share (%) <sup>na</sup>	5.8	4.7	..	..	..	..

For sources, footnotes and comments see "Technical notes" at the beginning of this Annex.



OMAN	1980	1985	1990	1993	1994	1995
GDP: <sup>na,c</sup> (in million 1990-dollars)	4 478	8 999	10 521	12 757	12 630	13 211
Growth rate (%) <sup>na,c</sup>	6.05	13.76	7.54	4.00	-1.00	4.60
Per capita (in 1990-dollars) <sup>na,c</sup>	3 962.5	6 315.3	5 894.3	6 287.6	5 968.8	5 985.9
MVA: <sup>na,c</sup> (in million 1990-dollars)	49	265	396	477	484	..
Growth rate (%) <sup>na,c</sup>	19.05	20.39	14.60	4.63	1.50	..
Manufacturing share (%) <sup>na</sup>	0.8	2.4	3.7	4.3	..	..

PAPUA NEW GUINEA	1980	1985	1990	1993	1994	1995
GDP: <sup>na,c</sup> (in million 1990-dollars)	2 826	3 016	3 221	4 514	4 672	4 448
Growth rate (%) <sup>na,c</sup>	-2.29	3.60	-3.00	14.44	3.50	-4.80
Per capita (in 1990-dollars) <sup>na,c</sup>	915.8	876.1	839.0	1 098.6	1 111.4	1 034.1
MVA: <sup>na,c</sup> (in million 1990-dollars)	411	458	388	531	589	593
Growth rate (%) <sup>na,c</sup>	-0.42	3.01	-22.77	9.34	10.94	0.58
Manufacturing share (%) <sup>na</sup>	7.5	11.0	12.4	8.8	8.8	..

QATAR	1980	1985	1990	1993	1994	1995
GDP: <sup>na,c</sup> (in million 1990-dollars)	6 006	6 221	7 360	8 012	7 971	8 035
Growth rate (%) <sup>na,c</sup>	7.10	-2.24	2.67	0.01	-0.50	0.80
Per capita (in 1990-dollars) <sup>na,c</sup>	26 227.3	17 376.7	15 176.2	15 173.4	14 816.9	14 662.9
MVA: <sup>na,c</sup> (in million 1990-dollars)	462	692	948	984	1 060	1 123
Growth rate (%) <sup>na,c</sup>	-12.51	2.96	4.17	0.44	7.79	5.88
Manufacturing share (%) <sup>na</sup>	3.3	7.8	12.7	11.0	11.2	..

REPUBLIC OF MOLDOVA	1980	1985	1990	1993	1994	1995
GDP: <sup>na,c</sup> (in million 1990-dollars)	7 206	8 506	11 975	7 018	4 913	4 765
Growth rate (%) <sup>na,c</sup>	1.48	-9.76	8.17	-14.80	-30.00	-3.00
Per capita (in 1990-dollars) <sup>na,c</sup>	1 796.5	2 018.5	2 746.4	1 588.8	1 109.5	1 074.0
MVA: <sup>na,c</sup> (in million 1990-dollars)	1 909	2 344	3 263	2 240	1 570	1 545
Growth rate (%) <sup>na,c</sup>	..	-4.60	19.59	-10.22	-29.92	-1.55
Manufacturing share (%) <sup>na</sup>	..	..	27.2	31.4	31.9	..

REUNION	1980	1985	1990	1993	1994	1995
GDP: <sup>na,c</sup> (in million 1990-dollars)	3 295	4 040	4 959	5 429	5 695	5 905
Growth rate (%) <sup>na,c</sup>	4.20	3.45	3.95	2.78	4.89	3.70
Per capita (in 1990-dollars) <sup>na,c</sup>	6 512.2	7 279.9	8 209.7	8 549.8	8 829.0	9 015.9
MVA: <sup>na,c</sup> (in million 1990-dollars)	329	409	520	520	542	563
Growth rate (%) <sup>na,c</sup>	13.91	11.41	12.79	3.81	4.32	3.86
Manufacturing share (%) <sup>na</sup>	9.0	8.3	..	..	..	..

RWANDA	1980	1985	1990	1993	1994	1995
GDP: <sup>na,c</sup> (in million 1990-dollars)	1 853	2 206	2 337	2 131	1 066	1 332
Growth rate (%) <sup>na,c</sup>	6.01	4.41	-2.00	-11.00	-50.00	25.00
Per capita (in 1990-dollars) <sup>na,c</sup>	359.0	364.5	336.0	375.4	201.2	257.0
MVA: <sup>na,c</sup> (in million 1990-dollars)	269	289	316	332	133	151
Growth rate (%) <sup>na,c</sup>	26.49	6.96	2.86	-0.02	-60.01	14.14
Manufacturing share (%) <sup>na</sup>	15.8	14.2	13.9	12.7	12.7	..

For sources, footnotes and comments see "Technical notes" at the beginning of this Annex.

SAMOA	1980	1985	1990	1993	1994	1995
GDP: <sup>na,c</sup> (in million 1990-dollars)	93	91	89	107	100	98
Growth rate (%) <sup>na,c</sup>	3.00	6.06	-4.63	3.33	-7.10	-1.84
Per capita (in 1990-dollars) <sup>na,c</sup>	597.8	579.2	557.5	662.9	612.0	593.5
MVA: <sup>na,c</sup> (in million 1990-dollars)	15	15	14	13	13	13
Growth rate (%) <sup>na,c</sup>	3.00	4.64	-4.69	2.86	-3.06	-1.42
Manufacturing share (%) <sup>na</sup>	4.8	14.0	..	..	..	..

SAO TOME AND PRINCIPE	1980	1985	1990	1993	1994	1995
GDP: <sup>na,c</sup> (in million 1990-dollars)	64	48	51	55	56	57
Growth rate (%) <sup>na,c</sup>	2.59	-1.60	3.80	2.75	1.30	2.60
Per capita (in 1990-dollars) <sup>na,c</sup>	686.1	448.8	427.4	434.6	430.1	431.3
MVA: <sup>na,c</sup> (in million 1990-dollars)	4	3	3	3	3	4
Growth rate (%) <sup>na,c</sup>	0.00	-8.70	5.18	12.02	1.31	3.41
Manufacturing share (%) <sup>na</sup>	9.1	9.9	6.2	6.7	..	..

SEYCHELLES	1980	1985	1990	1993	1994	1995
GDP: <sup>na,c</sup> (in million 1990-dollars)	260	279	369	410	398	401
Growth rate (%) <sup>na,c</sup>	-2.55	10.28	7.43	5.60	-3.00	1.00
Per capita (in 1990-dollars) <sup>na,c</sup>	4 119.5	4 298.3	5 265.5	5 691.8	5 445.4	5 499.9
MVA: <sup>na,c</sup> (in million 1990-dollars)	19	20	34	39	41	44
Growth rate (%) <sup>na,c</sup>	18.21	8.43	14.76	12.37	5.69	7.43
Manufacturing share (%) <sup>na</sup>	9.7	13.6	10.2	12.0	..	..

SIERRA LEONE	1980	1985	1990	1993	1994	1995
GDP: <sup>na,c</sup> (in million 1990-dollars)	445	487	547	497	498	484
Growth rate (%) <sup>na,c</sup>	2.91	8.53	2.50	-2.80	0.20	-2.80
Per capita (in 1990-dollars) <sup>na,c</sup>	137.6	135.8	136.8	121.6	120.7	115.4
MVA: <sup>na,c</sup> (in million 1990-dollars)	59	55	38	29	28	27
Growth rate (%) <sup>na,c</sup>	-4.88	-14.71	-7.06	-2.40	-2.77	-4.52
Manufacturing share (%) <sup>na</sup>	7.5	4.8	7.1	..	..	..

SOMALIA	1980	1985	1990	1993	1994	1995
GDP: <sup>na,c</sup> (in million 1990-dollars)	922	1 007	1 062	801	822	825
Growth rate (%) <sup>na,c</sup>	1.79	9.53	-2.22	-11.00	2.68	0.32
Per capita (in 1990-dollars) <sup>na,c</sup>	137.4	127.9	123.2	88.6	89.1	86.9
MVA: <sup>na,c</sup> (in million 1990-dollars)	39	32	41	40	42	42
Growth rate (%) <sup>na,c</sup>	9.17	7.56	-5.83	-5.00	3.66	1.68
Manufacturing share (%) <sup>na</sup>	4.7	4.9	3.8	..	..	..

SUDAN	1980	1985	1990	1993	1994	1995
GDP: <sup>na,c</sup> (in million 1990-dollars)	4 291	4 506	4 895	5 267	5 372	5 560
Growth rate (%) <sup>na,c</sup>	-3.41	-5.30	-1.51	-4.00	2.00	3.50
Per capita (in 1990-dollars) <sup>na,c</sup>	229.7	210.0	203.4	205.7	205.4	208.2
MVA: <sup>na,c</sup> (in million 1990-dollars)	441	429	438	511	519	532
Growth rate (%) <sup>na,c</sup>	-4.09	-2.73	-7.89	1.46	1.59	2.54
Manufacturing share (%) <sup>na</sup>	8.9	8.8	9.2	9.1	..	..

For sources, footnotes and comments see "Technical notes" at the beginning of this Annex.

SURINAME	1980	1985	1990	1993	1994	1995
GDP: <sup>na,c</sup> (in million 1990-dollars)	1 649	1 627	1 728	1 863	1 848	1 877
Growth rate (%) <sup>na,c</sup>	-8.57	2.00	0.03	0.00	-0.80	1.56
Per capita (in 1990-dollars) <sup>na,c</sup>	4 644.8	4 315.8	4 321.1	4 478.2	4 379.2	4 395.4
MVA: <sup>na,c</sup> (in million 1990-dollars)	275	220	208	206	207	204
Growth rate (%) <sup>na,c</sup>	-10.52	6.48	0.86	1.47	0.50	-1.53
Manufacturing share (%) <sup>na</sup>	17.6	12.5	12.3	14.2	..	..

TAJKISTAN	1980	1985	1990	1993	1994	1995
GDP: <sup>na,c</sup> (in million 1990-dollars)	4 785	6 338	6 938	3 394	2 986	2 616
Growth rate (%) <sup>na,c</sup>	6.68	7.24	4.41	-27.61	-12.02	-12.40
Per capita (in 1990-dollars) <sup>na,c</sup>	1 210.2	1 390.5	1 309.0	602.9	521.5	448.8
MVA: <sup>na,c</sup> (in million 1990-dollars)	..	..	1 028	599	414	358
Growth rate (%) <sup>na,c</sup>	..	..	..	-19.29	-30.78	-13.50
Manufacturing share (%) <sup>na</sup>	..	..	14.8	17.6	..	..

TONGA	1980	1985	1990	1993	1994	1995
GDP: <sup>na,c</sup> (in million 1990-dollars)	80	120	124	133	140	145
Growth rate (%) <sup>na,c</sup>	15.81	5.00	-3.70	2.19	4.70	3.95
Per capita (in 1990-dollars) <sup>na,c</sup>	869.1	1 318.0	1 289.0	1 359.8	1 423.8	1 480.0
MVA: <sup>na,c</sup> (in million 1990-dollars)	8	8	10	9	9	9
Growth rate (%) <sup>na,c</sup>	21.42	5.89	-7.06	5.74	0.30	3.25
Manufacturing share (%) <sup>na</sup>	6.1	8.2	..	..	..	..

TURKMENISTAN	1980	1985	1990	1993	1994	1995
GDP: <sup>na,c</sup> (in million 1990-dollars)	3 410	4 453	5 558	4 809	4 809	4 362
Growth rate (%) <sup>na,c</sup>	-2.31	1.33	5.38	-7.60	0.00	-9.30
Per capita (in 1990-dollars) <sup>na,c</sup>	1 190.8	1 380.9	1 514.5	1 228.5	1 203.9	1 070.5
MVA: <sup>na,c</sup> (in million 1990-dollars)	..	..	628	730	547	547
Growth rate (%) <sup>na,c</sup>	..	..	..	-4.94	-24.98	0.00
Manufacturing share (%) <sup>na</sup>	..	..	11.3	..	..	..

TUVALU	1980	1985	1990	1993	1994	1995
GDP: <sup>na,c</sup> (in million 1990-dollars)	7	5	6	7	7	7
Growth rate (%) <sup>na,c</sup>	..	0.00	0.00	0.00	2.60	2.36
Per capita (in 1990-dollars) <sup>na,c</sup>	878.1	683.0	693.9	780.6	800.9	737.8
MVA: <sup>na,c</sup> (in million 1990-dollars)	..	..	..	..	..	..
Growth rate (%) <sup>na,c</sup>	..	..	..	..	..	..
Manufacturing share (%) <sup>na</sup>	..	..	..	..	..	..

UGANDA	1980	1985	1990	1993	1994	1995
GDP: <sup>na,c</sup> (in million 1990-dollars)	2 092	2 498	3 253	3 832	4 234	4 656
Growth rate (%) <sup>na,c</sup>	-3.40	0.04	4.06	7.15	10.49	9.98
Per capita (in 1990-dollars) <sup>na,c</sup>	159.4	169.2	195.4	207.8	221.9	236.5
MVA: <sup>na,c</sup> (in million 1990-dollars)	113	117	164	223	263	303
Growth rate (%) <sup>na,c</sup>	6.10	-6.59	1.61	12.51	17.95	15.34
Manufacturing share (%) <sup>na</sup>	4.2	2.9	5.0	5.0	5.0	..

For sources, footnotes and comments see "Technical notes" at the beginning of this Annex.

UNITED ARAB EMIRATES	1980	1985	1990	1993	1994	1995
GDP: <sup>na,c</sup> (in million 1990-dollars)	32 826	29 954	33 653	35 331	34 978	35 608
Growth rate (%) <sup>na,c</sup>	26.42	-2.39	17.75	1.00	-1.00	1.80
Per capita (in 1990-dollars) <sup>na,c</sup>	32 340.7	19 299.9	17 518.6	16 808.5	16 216.1	16 112.1
MVA: <sup>na,c</sup> (in million 1990-dollars)	1 186	2 672	2 518	2 614	2 812	3 044
Growth rate (%) <sup>na,c</sup>	64.87	-2.20	5.38	1.50	7.55	8.24
Manufacturing share (%) <sup>na</sup>	3.7	9.0	7.3	8.4	8.4	..

UZBEKISTAN	1980	1985	1990	1993	1994	1995
GDP: <sup>na,c</sup> (in million 1990-dollars)	15 329	19 717	22 615	17 914	17 202	17 030
Growth rate (%) <sup>na,c</sup>	7.45	4.04	4.74	-2.40	-3.97	-1.00
Per capita (in 1990-dollars) <sup>na,c</sup>	961.9	1 088.6	1 101.6	819.1	770.8	748.2
MVA: <sup>na,c</sup> (in million 1990-dollars)	2 673	3 563	4 623	4 085	4 126	4 134
Growth rate (%) <sup>na,c</sup>	..	10.92	1.86	3.55	1.00	0.20
Manufacturing share (%) <sup>na</sup>	..	..	20.2	19.4	..	..

VANUATU	1980	1985	1990	1993	1994	1995
GDP: <sup>na,c</sup> (in million 1990-dollars)	93	141	154	167	171	177
Growth rate (%) <sup>na,c</sup>	-11.46	1.11	5.20	3.83	2.00	3.57
Per capita (in 1990-dollars) <sup>na,c</sup>	798.5	1 069.0	1 030.5	1 038.7	1 033.8	1 045.3
MVA: <sup>na,c</sup> (in million 1990-dollars)	2	5	9	12	13	14
Growth rate (%) <sup>na,c</sup>	-11.45	11.21	3.30	9.09	10.55	8.95
Manufacturing share (%) <sup>na</sup>	4.2	3.8	5.9	..	..	..

VIET NAM	1980	1985	1990	1993	1994	1995
GDP: <sup>na,c</sup> (in million 1990-dollars)	3 842	5 317	6 360	7 846	8 536	9 347
Growth rate (%) <sup>na,c</sup>	-4.81	6.20	5.05	7.50	8.80	9.50
Per capita (in 1990-dollars) <sup>na,c</sup>	71.5	88.8	95.4	110.6	117.9	126.7
MVA: <sup>na,c</sup> (in million 1990-dollars)	..	..	..	..	..	..
Growth rate (%) <sup>na,c</sup>	..	..	..	..	..	..
Manufacturing share (%) <sup>na</sup>	..	..	18.5	21.5	21.5	..

ZAIRE	1980	1985	1990	1993	1994	1995
GDP: <sup>na,c</sup> (in million 1990-dollars)	7 555	8 165	8 491	5 977	5 535	5 501
Growth rate (%) <sup>na,c</sup>	2.37	1.13	-2.44	-10.40	-7.40	-0.60
Per capita (in 1990-dollars) <sup>na,c</sup>	279.7	257.6	227.0	141.4	126.0	121.0
MVA: <sup>na,c</sup> (in million 1990-dollars)	900	1 058	955	630	565	559
Growth rate (%) <sup>na,c</sup>	3.52	5.80	-2.45	-11.49	-10.31	-1.07
Manufacturing share (%) <sup>na</sup>	14.5	9.9	11.2	..	..	..

For sources, footnotes and comments see "Technical notes" at the beginning of this Annex.

# Industrial Development

## GLOBAL REPORT 1997

The vigour of global economic expansion has been slowly diminishing in recent years. For many developing countries and economies in transition, per capita income has continued to fall, and poverty remains the single most important concern. Poverty eradication and the revitalization of world economic and industrial growth therefore require a renewed commitment and sense of urgency from policy planners. *Industrial Development Global Report 1997* addresses the challenge by focusing on the long-term dynamics of investment and economic growth. It thus emphasizes, as its central message, the crucial importance of economic growth, for which investment is a necessary condition.

Part one of *Global Report 1997* addresses the issues and challenges facing developing countries and economies in transition in their efforts to achieve the levels of investment required to ensure high economic growth. The role of industrial investment is examined from the perspective of global industrial change in different regions. The nexus between growth and investment is considered, the factors influencing the levels and efficiency of investment are highlighted and investment and manufacturing trends between 1970 and 1995 are analysed. The links between savings, investment and economic growth are investigated to determine the means of financing capital investment at the enterprise level and to find solutions to the problems faced by microenterprises and small enterprises in their efforts to expand. A special feature of *Global Report 1997* is the prominence given to government policies as an instrument for the promotion of investment, with particular emphasis on the need to tailor such policies to global and national conditions.

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