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GROWTH AND IECHNICAL PROGRESS IN THE SOCIALIST ENTERPRISES OF YUGOSLAVIA:

A COBB-DOUGLAS ANALYSIS USING EXTRANEOUS ESTIMATORS

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Note: Genter Discussion Papers are preliminary materials circulated to stimulate discussion and critical comment. References in publications to Discussion Papers should be cleared with the author to protect the tentative character of these papers.

This paper estimates the coefficients of a Solow type Cobb-Douglas function: the regression equation relates real value added to real capital, labor and a technological proxy variable, time. The model is applied to nineteen productive industries of the social sector of the Yugoslav economy, cross classified by five geographic regions. The estimates are to be used in two companion pieces that analyze the behavior of enterprises and sources of growth in Yugoslavia.

Econometric research of the past decade has made the statistical estimation of production functions less, not more credible. Much of the discussion here is concerned with two issues raised by these writings: simultaneous equation bias; and the instability of the estimates for different samples and estimators. The conclusion is reached that the amount of simultaneous equation bias present in the estimates is small, and that the estimates are highly stable with respect to the estimators but less stable with respect to the grouping basis and time period of the sample. The estimates themselves are judged to be economically meaningful measures of the Cobb-Douglas model that is assumed.

Three econometric innovations are employed. One is to use the multitable method of Yoel Haitovsky to obtain estimates of the capital and labor output elasticities. This is possible because for 1963 and 1964, cross-section data is available for the nineteen industries. The tables are for Yugoslavia, but not for the four sub-regions. The data groups all firms in each industry into twelve cells according to their size; separate tables are published for size as measured by fixed assets and by employment. Haitovsky's method uses the capital table to estimate the capital coefficient and the labor table to estimate the labor coefficient, and then corrects these estimates to remove the bias due to mis-specification.

Another innovation is to use a "reverse covariance" estimator and Haitovsky's method to demonstrate the unimportance of the simultaneous equation bias that arises from a correlation between labor and the stochastic term. "reverse covariance" estimator reverses the table subscripts in Haitovsky's method so that the capital table is used to estimate the labor coefficient and vice versa. It is an inefficient estimator, but one that is bias-free. Its counterpart, the "ordinary covariance" estimator that results from a standard application of Haitovsky's method, is efficient but subject to bias. A collation of the ordinary and reverse covariance estimates reveals that the estimates for the capital and labor coefficients are identical for both estimators for the aggregate economy and for its largest sub-sector, industry and mining. The common capital estimate for both industries is .13, the labor estimate is .89. It is argued that differences between the estimators for the seventeen remaining industries can be explained by sampling variation. conclusion is reached that simultaneous equation bias is not of practical importance, and therefore, on the basis of efficiency the ordinary coveriance estimator is deemed best.

The third innovation is to use the cross-section capital and labor estimates as extraneous estimators in the 1952-1964 time series analysis.

This leaves only the coefficient of neutral technical progress to be estimated from the time series. To extend the analysis to the five regions it is necessary to assume no regional variability in the capital and labor coefficients, thus permitting use of the Yugoslav cross-section capital and labor coefficients for all regions. Formally, this is not permissible. Statistical tests using data available only for industry and mining indicate that these coefficients do differ between regions. However, the differences are less important

values .13 and .89 mentioned above. The stability and magnitude of the regional coefficients of technical progress support the contention that extraneous estimators give meaningful results. For example, the regional technical progress coefficients for industry and mining are:

Yugoslavia		3.8%
North		3.7%
South		3.3%
	Serbia Proper	3.7%
	South less Serbia Proper	2.7%

Although not an innovation, the paper does derive and present, in the Appendix, production data not heretofore available. For five regions, for nineteen industries, for the years 1952 to 1966, four variables are given: employment, total fixed assets, equipment, and value added (social product). The last three are in constant 1966 prices and therefore benefit from the price rationalizations of the 1965 Reform. The most important new contribution of this data is the creation of constant price, regional series on value added for twelve branches of industry and mining. The capital series is unique in that empirically obtained estimates of length of life for plant and for employment are used as durability weights in the manner advocated by Haavelmo.

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PART I PROBLEMS OF SPECIFICATION AND IDENTIFICATION

Introduction

This paper provides a formal statistical analysis of the growth of real output among the socialist enterprises of Yugoslavia. According to the Cobb-Douglas model used, growth is explained by three factors: the mobilization of capital and labor, increasing returns to scale at the industry level, and disembodied technical progress. Temporarily, no cognizance is given to the changing quality of labor or capital, to non-neutral technical progress, or to structural shifts between the branches of the social sector. The objective is to see how successfully a statistical analysis of inputs and outputs can explain differences in cutput between regions, between industries, and overtime. Attention is restricted to the time period between the establishment of the New Economic Policy in 1952 and the Reform of 1965. Since this paper serves as a foundation for more economic and policy-oriented works under preparation, concentration centers on the statistical methodology and results rather than their economic interpretation.

Already we can imagine a scowl from econometricians, and a yawn from development economists. A quick summary of the major problems and our proposed solution is necessary to relax these countenances and preserve readers.

Work is currently under way on two companion pieces. The first is a Denison type analysis of the determinants of aggregate growth for all sectors. Since wages and prices cannot be relied upon to reflect marginal products, the productivities derived in this paper are a crucial input. The second is a theoretical and empirical microanalysis of enterprises behavior. How has the system of Workers Management contributed to the rapid growth of the Yugoslav economy? Again, this paper provides the foundation for the analysis.

Only a very brief search of the literature is needed to find eminently qualified critics of statistical production functions. Professor Edmund Malin-

••• the calculated regression is not a satisfactory estimate of the production function. It constitutes a purely artificial relation which depends on the correlations among the...error terms...just as much as on and . Statistical Methods of Econometrics (Chicago: Rand McNally, 1966), p. 519.

or, Professor Murray Brown:

The impossibility of identifying the estimates because of multicollinearity when using cross-section data has been touched on, with the conclusion that cross-section data is useless except for very limited purposes in the present context. However, there is also an identification problem because of multi-collinearity using time-series data. On the Theory and Measurement of Technological Change (Cambridge: Cambridge University Press, 1966), p. 126.

or finally, Sir John R. Hicks:

I cannot myself perceive that there is any economic sense in such a physical measure of the capital stock. It is futile to erect great edifices of theory, and of econometrics, upon it. The estimation of production functions—involving a distinction between accumulation of capital (in some such sense as this) and technical progress (residual technical progress)—seems therefore to me to be a vain endeavor. "The Measurement of Capital," a paper delivered at the International Statistical Conference, London, Summer of 1969, p. 11.

These criticisms are selected not only because of the excellent credentials of the authors but also because they describe the three problem areas that are most relevant to this study: (1) lack of identification due to simultaneous equation bias; (2) or to multi-collinearity; and (3) difficulties in the definition and estimation of the capital stock.

The greatest hurdle in making production function estimates credible to econometricians is the lack of identification due to simultaneous equation bias. One tour de force that can be performed is to incorporate simultaneous equation bias into one's theory thereby making it an effect we wish to measure rather than a "bias." Granted the purpose of our estimates, institutional

tain mechanisms of resource allocation into the aggregate parameters. Specifically, the distribution of management ability and the intra-industry investment allocation mechanism are effects which are built into our estimates of the cepital and labor coefficients. Effects of this type that are included in our estimates of the coefficients are consequently excluded from the measure of technical progress. The rationale for not including management and investment effects under the technical progress rubric are explained later in this section.

Even if the reader agrees to go along with us and like some of the things which cannot be changed, the problem of correcting what isn't liked remains: A model and an estimator are needed that will eliminate the unwanted portion of the bias. Our approach is to first specify a model which is appropriate to the Yugoslav economy, and define six different statistical estimators of the parameters of the model. Next, on a priori grounds these six estimators are crudely ranked in two ways: according to the possible biases that might affect them; and according to their expected efficiency. Finally, after the estimates are computed, select the most bias free estimator that meets a minimum efficiency standard. Anticipating the conclusion, the estimator which ranks highest (under a favored assumption it is completely bias free) and the estimator which ranks lowest on our bias scale but has maximum efficiency, give nearly identical results for aggregate sectors. Consequently, we conclude that simultaneous equation bias is not an important problem with the model used, and that considerations of efficiency may be allowed to determine the best overall estimator. We will treat the other two problems of production function estimation more briefly since, with respect to multi-collinearity, there is not much that can be said, and with respect to the capital stock a more detailed disucssion is given in the Appendix.

In a properly specified model, the deleterious effects of multi-collinearity reveal themselves in large standard errors for the coefficients. 2 However, Brown's concern (and that of the myriad scholars he cites) 3 is that the true values of capital, labor and output prescribed by our theory are so highly correlated in the data sample that the parameter estimates are really being fitted to perturbations in the data arising from short run disequilibria, monopoly imperfections, and so forth. Not being able to observe short run disequilibria, monopoly imperfections and similar phenomena, no real test of this assertion is possible. We would expect, however, that if the estimates were principally determined by such perturbations, the parameter estimates for different, independent, cross-section samples would be highly unstable. We do not feel our estimates show this degree of instability, but the reader may reserve judgment until the estimates are presented. There is no question but that multi-collinearity in the data is high. For example, from the Employment grouping in Table 2, the capital-labor correlation is .986, the capital-output .991, and labor-output .999.4 These high correlations are typical of the cross-section data and yet they do not cause destructive increases in the standard errors of the coefficients. Another statistic from Table 2 suggests the reason for this: while multi-collinearity is large, so too is the range of the capital-labor ratio (from a minimum value of 1.2 to a maximum of 5.2).

Thus the standard errors should give ample warning of the imprecision attaching to the estimates of the separate effects of X_2 and X_3 , when the two variables are highly correlated J. Johnston, Econometric Methods (New York: McGraw Hill, 1960), p. 20%.

³Brown, <u>op</u>. <u>cit</u>., p. 37_n.

The measure presented is computed from unweighted, per-firm data for the twelve size categories.

This great range of the ratio of the independent variables provides adequate information for the estimation of statistically significant coefficients.

Hopefully, the range is also sufficient to overcome the distorting effects of any systematic perturbations of the type mentioned by Brown. Like the cross-section data, the time-series also exhibits high multi-collinearity. In this case, however, the range is much smaller, and consequently we place as little emphasis as possible on the use of time-series to unscramble the competing effects of capital and labor.

While identification is the statistical hurdle most prominently hindering creditable estimates, the theoretical problem of greatest difficulty is how to measure capital's contribution to production. It is this difficulty that leads Professor Hicks to question the validity of any attempt to production function estimation similar to the type we propose. The more detailed questions of deflation and measurements of capital stock are relegated to Appendix C . At this point we are only concerned with the more overriding question of whether or not theoretical problems in the definition of capital and in the contribution of capital to production make it a "vain endeavor to construct statistical production functions." In a recent review of this literature, Israel M. Kerzner convincingly concludes that whether capital is to be treated as a flow of services or as a stock of goods whose very existence contributes to production with no diminishment of the stock's capability, depends on the time period of the analysis. Where the relevant time period is the planning horizon of the firm, all inputs must be considered variable so that a flow approach is the proper one. On the other hand, as we consider shorter and shorter time periods, more variables become fixed for the purpose of analysis and it

⁵An Essay on Capital (New York: August M. Kelley, 1966), particularly Chapter Two.

becomes appropriate to treat them as a stock which contributes to production simply by its presence. This latter approach is espoused by Trygve Haavelmo⁶ and adopted by us. In adopting the position that capital contributes to production simply by its presence rather than by providing a stream of services, we subject ourselves to Kerzner's criticism of this approach. Essentially it is that we neglect the question of multi-period planning which both generates the capital stock at the beginning of the year and which receives it at the termination of each year.

One of the principal difficulties in the Haavelmo model is the necessity of adjusting for differing durabilities of capital goods, a problem which is discussed in the capital stock Appendix C. It will suffice here to mention that we make no such attempt at adjustment in the cross-section data and consequently make the implicit assumption that the durability mix for the capital stock of firms in different size categories is all equal. In the time series data we make an explicit adjustment for the varying durabilities of equipment as opposed to structures.

Buttressed by these comments, we hope the reader will hold his skepticism in abeyance while the model and its statistical estimators are discussed in detail. Those more interested in results than method may skip the following section without great loss.

Data, Model, and Estimators

It is assumed that the real output of the enterprise depends on five inputs, three measureable and two not measureable: the former are the input of labor in man years, the input of capital goods measured in constant price

A study in the Theory of Investment (Chicago: University of Chicago Press. 1960).

dollars (and adjusted for differing durabilities), and intermediate inputs; the latter are the skill of management in combining the productive factors, and the state of technological knowledge. A visual introduction to these variables is given in equation (1.1) where Y, L, K and G denote the quantitatively observable variables—output, labor, capital and intermediate goods; and M and T represent the non-observable variables—management and technology. This overly abstract statement is intended to serve only as a peg for discussing some of the more general problems of production function estimation.

(1.1) Y = f(K, L, G: M, T)

Our first problem is aggregation. We begin with a description of the data generated by the disaggregate firm and discuss, step by step, the aggregations made by ourselves and the Federal Statistical Bureau of Yugoslavia (SZS). This somewhat round-about process serves to emphasize that the underlying data collection is done on an exhaustive basis covering all firms each year. Although the published variables and aggregates vary from year to year, they are generated by the same censal process. At times we are forced to splice together various series because the data for the entire population is not published annually. The underlying continuity of the censal process is important since it means we do not have such serious problems in comparing data from different time periods and different sectors as we would have if they were generated by differing sets of surveys and samples. What we have are various windows looking into the population of firms, the windows change their location through time, but they always continue to observe the complete population of firms without distortion.

Since 1958, individual firm data covering a multitude of variables including K., K and G are available to the SZS on an annual basis. For a few years this data is also available outside of Yugoslavia and can serve as the basis for making a completely disaggregate study. For reasons of cost and availability, our study does not utilize such data but instead relies on publicly available aggregates. The aggregation of firms into industries is an obvious first step. In this direction it is possible to obtain much of our data for a 41-sector breakdown of the economy. However, even this level of aggregation is too burdensome.

Table 1 describes how we aggregate the nine basic sectors of the economy into six, and how the twenty-two branches of industry and of mining are aggregated into twelve. This aggregation of firms into industries is not as destructive to information as it might appear since after 1962 we have available cross-sectional data on each of the industries. The cross-section data, described in more detail below, groups firms in each industry according to their size so that our aggregation ultimately produces the observable variables of (1.1) for each of nineteen industries (two aggregates and seventeen independent branches) cross-classified by 12 size categories. In the dimensions of geography, we use a 5-region aggregate. With respect to the temporal unit, although some of the data is available on a monthly basis, we are not sufficiently interested in short-term dynamics to attempt to utilize this information: the basic unit of analysis is the year. In summary, the first step in simplifying the data is to aggregate into 19 industrial branches, 12 size categories, 5 regions, and all in all, some 15 years. Obviously, this still leaves us with a need for much further simplification.

^{7 (1)} Yugoslavia; (2) North (Slovenia, Croatia and Vojvodina); (3) South (Bosnia and Hercegovina, Montenegro, Macedonia, Serbia proper, the Kosmet); (4) Serbia proper; (5) South less Serbia proper.

The greatest contribution to data simplicity, and the greatest loss to information occurs because the cross-section data does not become publicly available until 1962. At the time of this writing, a time series of the crosssection data by our nineteen sectors is available for 1962 through 1966. However, we will only be concerned with two years of this data: 1963 and 1964. The year 1962 was one of mini-recessions and the existence of excess capacity in many plants makes it ill-suited for supply analysis. The years 1965 and 1966 are beyond our temporal focus and, particularly in the later years also suffer from the fact that severe cut-backs in the rate of growth and transition problems associated with the reform of 1965 again cause low capacity and labor utilization to distort production relationships. A pilot study described below shows that the incorporation of years subsequent to 1964 does not improve the estimates. The lack of availability of size-classified data further restricts our attention to Yugoslavia as a whole. Only for the sector industry and mining is data available by size category and by republics. This breakdown for industry and mining does enable us to make trial tests of parameter stability over regions, but an extensive analysis of stability for all sectors is not possible.

What we are left with by these aggregations and data black-out are three basic sets of data: first, time-series data for the years 1952 to 1966 according to 19 economic sectors and 5 regions; second, for the 19 sectors, for Yugoslavia only, for the years 1963 and 1964 we have cross-section data where the cross-section grouping is according to the size of the firm with 12 levels being presented; third, for industry and mining alone, for 1963 and 1964, and also for 1965 through 1967 the same aforementioned cross-section data further presented according to Republics.

TABLE I

AGGREGATION OF PRODUCTIVE SOCIAL SECTOR ACTIVITIES:

ECONOMIC GROWTH CENTER AND RELATED TWO-DIGIT

YUGOSLAV CLASSIFICATIONS

EGC		YUG
000	Total Productive Sector	000
001	Industry & Mining	001
002	Agriculture & Fishing	002
003	Construction	004
004	Transport & Communications	005
005	Handcraft	302, CUE 007
006	Other (Forestry, Trade, and Utilities)	003, 006, 008
	INDUSTRY AND MINING	
111	Electricity	111
112	Coal and Coal Mining	112
113	Food, Drink, Tobacco	127, 129
114	Textiles and Clothing	124
115	Timber and Furniture	133
116	Paper Printing and Publishing	123, 128
117	Leather, Rubber and Footwear	125, 126
118	Stone, Clay and Glass	116, 121
119	Chemicals and Petroleum	113, 120
120	Metal Using	117, 119
121	Metal Making	114, 115
.122	Miscellaneous	118, 130, 131, 132

We initially focus attention on the terminal years 1963 and 1964 where the best data is available, analyze this period in detail, then use the results obtained from this benchmark to investigate the time path which brought the economy to this terminal point. A crucial step in the statistical analysis is to use the output elasticities obtained from the 1963-64 cross-section analysis as extraneous estimators for our analysis of technological change in the broader 1952 to 1962 period.

Equation (1.1) postulates a relationship between gross output and a set of inputs which include intermediate products. A significant simplification of the analysis is achieved by deleting intermediate products from the inputs and relating value added to capital, labor, and the non-observable variables. Table 1 presents evidence that suggests this constriction of the analysis does not have any serious effects on our appraisal of the sources of growth. This table presents for the total economy (social plus private sectors), the social sector, and industry and mining, the ratio of intermediate products consumed to value added. For each of these three sectors of the economy, but particularly for the first two, the change in this ratio between 1962 and 1964 is unimportant. In a more practical vein, although we do have current price time series data on intermediate goods (the variable G), no deflated series are currently available and the possible gain from creating such a series does not seem to be worth the work required.

The question of whether or not to include intermediate goods also arises in our analysis of the cross-section data. Since we mean to use this data to obtain extraneous estimators of output elasticities, there is the possibility that the omission of intermediate goods from the production relationship will be a mis-specification of the true model and consequently lead to

TABLE 2

RATIO OF MATERIAL EXPENDITURE TO VALUE ADDED (SOCIAL PRODUCT)*

SECTOR	1952	1959	1964
Total Economy	•95	1.05	. 96
Social Sector	•95	1.05	.96
Industry and Mining	1.15	.73	1.24

^{*} All underlying measures are in current prices and taken from SB 228 and SG 1966.

value added as a dependent variable, the inclusion of intermediate goods as an independent variable implies that these goods can be substituted for either capital or labor to obtain increases in value added. To our knowledge no empirical evidence on this question is available. In the Yugoslav cross-section data there is a tendency for the larger firms to have relatively high capital/labor, output/labor, and intermediate-good/labor ratios. This could mean that larger firms tend to substitute intermediate goods for labor thus biasing the coefficients of a model which excludes intermediate goods. Unfortunately, we do not have adequate data for making a rigorous test of this possibility. In all the work that follows we assume that the input of intermediate products does not influence the output of value added.

The next variable, one particularly important to the cross-section analysis, is management ability as denoted by the variable M in equation (1.1). Distinguishing technology, as represented by T, from the ability of management is an awkward definitional problem. For our purposes it will suffice to define managerial input as a class of decisions: specifically, those dealing with pricing, organization, finance, and product line decisions. These decisions are to be distinguished from the more purely technological ones concerning plant layout, production processes, etc. that relate machines and labor to output. While "management decisions" are made at all levels, they are concentrated in the Director and Workers' Council. This distinction is important because we argue that in under-developed countries the absence of a large stock of professional managers or an annual crop of business achool graduates means that the principal determinant of management capability is

⁸A brief survey of this literature is available in Murray Brown, op. cit., pp. 120-127.

where that management is currently employed. Not only is formal education without experience a relatively unimportant determinant of management capability, but also there is a small amount of management switching between enterprises. 9

Certainly, in the case where management is selected on the basis of political rather than economic considerations, we may attribute superior performance by management in the larger firms to the experience they get from running such firms.

But it is Workers' Management in Yugoslavia that is a more overriding reason for feeling that management capability is a non-transferable input. Since the top policy-making boards of the enterprise, the Workers' Council and the Board of Management, are elected on a rotational basis from among the workers, it can be argued that a correlation between the efficiency of management and the size of the firm is a direct consequence of that scale. Formally, we may express this association between management skill and the scale of operations by the functioning in (1.2). That is, we measure the scale of operations by the inputs capital and labor.

(1.2) M = g(K, L)

The consequence of this definition is that we attribute to the capital and labor inputs their role in improving management as well as their direct productive uses; therefore, it is implied that largeness is itself the source of management improvement, so that increases in scale provoke automatic increases in efficiency.

We do not know of any surveys that present data on the extent to which the recruiting of management is done internally. The ILO describes the formal requirements for "open competition," but also notes that these were often not successful because of the lack of qualified candidates. Workers Management in Yugoslavia (Geneva: 1962), p. 102, fr. 3. In the one relevant example cited by the ILO, a new director was internally promoted. Ibid., p. 115.

A related problem with a similar solution is posed by investment policies. Central planning of investment may result in the most efficient firms getting the largest allocation of investment funds so that efficient firms are large and inefficient firms small. This intra-industry efficiency of investment allocation is an effect that will be embodied in our production fruition estimates. 10 It is a bias if the sole objective is to estimate parameters for a representative individual firm. However, where we wish to measure sources of growth, it is permissible to consider the intra-industry investment allocation mechanism as an unchanging, "invisible hand." Consequently, parameter estimates incorporate the activities of both those economic agents who allocate intra-industry investment as well as those agents' management who determine production given the set of available resources. 11 For the 1952-1964 period, this former set of agents would include members of the National Bank, the Investment Bank. The effects of inter-industry allocation, or "investment strategy" and typically practices by a planning bureau are absent except in estimates for aggregate sectors.

A modified production relationship incorporating value added rather than gross output as the independent variable and removing intermediate goods management skill as inputs is given by equation (1.3) where Y denotes value added. The companion piece mentioned earlier adjusts for changes in the

(1.3) Y = h(K, L;T)

Where data or the individual firm is available Yair Mundlak describes how "management bias" may be removed by covariance analysis. See his "Estimation of Production and Behavioral Functions from a Combination of Cross-Section and Time-Series Data" Measurement in Economics: Studies in Mathematical Economics -- Econometrics in Memory of Yeguga Grunfeld (Stanford: Stanford University Press, 1963), p. 143. Since our cross-section data is grouped, this approach is not available.

This distinction between agents is advocated by Thomas Marschale, "On the Comparison of Centralized and Decentralized Economics," American Economic Review: Papers and Proceedings, May 1969, Vol. 50, No. 2.

length of the work week, the participation ratio for women, education, and other variables influencing labor input, but at this point we rely on a crude man-year definition of labor input. The capital variable is based upon the purchase cost to the enterprise, or accounting value before depreciation. The cross-section studies: in 1963 and 1964 benefit from a revalorization of all capital goods in Yugoslavia in 1962 which sought to adjust their book value to current market prices, but no attempt is made to deflate the 1963 and 1964 increments in the capital stock in constant dollars, nor is there any attempt to weigh the various equipment and structural components according to durabilities. However, as discussed in the data appendix, the time series of capital stock does correct for durabilitie and price change. We now turn to the question of functional forms.

While a great variety of functional forms are potentially available for this analysis we consider only two as serious contenders: a conventional Cobb-Douglas type function with disembodied technological progress as introduced by Solow; and a CES production function of the form fitted by Martin L. Weitzman to the Soviet economy. We conclude in favor of a Cobb-Douglas function.

This is important since Weitzman's objective is similar to ours, and centers its focus on the same time period. The most important factor leading Weitzman to fit a CES rather than a Cobb-Douglas function is the rapid increase in the Soviet capital/labor ratio during the period from 1950 to 1966: it increased from a base of 100 in 1952, to 150 by 1959, and 286 by 1964. Clearly, capital/labor substitution is an important part of Soviet growth so that if the elasticity of substitution is mistakenly assumed to be unity, this

Martin L. Weitzman, "Soviet Postwar Economic Growth and Capital Labor Substitution," Cowles Foundation Discussion Paper No. 256, October 30, 1868.

specification error may have an important effect upon results. The situation in Yugoslavia is quite different. For the social sector the same capital/labor ratio with a base 1952 value of 100 actually declines to .94 by 1959, and increases only moderately to 1.20 by 1966. Therefore, due to the absence of capital/labor substitution the implicit assumption of the Cobb-Douglas function that the elasticity of substitution is unity cannot be of great importance to the analysis. For the briefer period 1952 to 1964, the unimportance of substitution becomes still clearer-the 1964 value is only 106. This does show, however, that between 1964 and 1966 the capital/labor ratio grew by 13 percentage points so that a model of the post-reform economy may require a CE3 function performed by Weitzman.

Equation (1.4) summarizes our description of the available data and our decision to incorporate it into a Cobb-Douglas type function. Data limitations impose that the cross-section variables referenced by the subscripts are available only for 1963 and 1964; and with the exception of industry and mining, we do not have these cross-sections available by regions. Two additional variables included in the data appendix but not included in relationship (1.4) are provided by a breakdown of the capital stock into its structures and equipment components. Since this subdivision is not available for the cross-section data it is simpler to omit it from the discussion at this time.

(1.4) $Y_{irts} = A_{irt}^{\alpha} K_{irts}^{\beta} L_{irts}$

refers to 19 industries of which two (the total for the social sector and the total for industry and mining) are obtained as aggregates of the others, so there are 17 independent industries.

¹³ The fact that Yugoslav social sector includes agriculture does not importantly distort these findings since the socialized part of agriculture is comparatively small and the capital/labor ratio in that branch has a movement similar to the aggregate social sector: 100 in 1951; .92 in 1959; and finally, 1.13 in 1966.

- refers to 5 regions of which two (Yugoslavia and the South) are obtained as aggregates, so there are 3 independent regions: North, Serbia Proper and South less Serbia Proper.
- t refers to the 13 years 1952 to 1964.
- and s refers to the 12 size of firm categories (defined either by employment, capital stock or output).

In addition to specifying a Cobb-Douglas function, (1.4) indicates that returns to scale, measured as the sum of α plus β , is a variable to be estimated from the data, and that both the capital and labor coefficients are allowed to vary by industry and by region. Different capital/labor coefficients for different industries is a specification that can hardly be questioned. Differing coefficients by regions, however, is a specification that may be unnecessary and one that we can and do test for.

All estimates are based upon the assumption that technical progress is neutral and disembodied. Consequently, there are no time subscripts to either alpha or beta. Besides being neutral and disembodied, we often will find it useful to assume that technological progress, as indicated by equation (1.5), is smooth and exponential in its occurrence.

(1.5) $A_{irt} = Exp (\lambda_{irt})$

Before beginning a discussion of the stochastic specifications of the regressions, it is necessary to briefly consider the broader sets of simultaneous equations from which we have lifted the production relationship (1.4).

The identification question was introduced earlier with the quotations from Professors Malinvaud and Brown. It was argued that in a study such as ours with limited objectives, it is possible to partially dodge the issue by accepting certain types of bias as being desirable. Management bias is an example of this. Beyond these effects there are many other sources of

appropriate model and estimator. Ideally, we need a theory of behavior for Yugoslav enterprises, a theory which will tell how available resources, the decentralized market system, workers management, and centrally influenced investment allocation determine the capital and labor inputs. Unfortunately, in our opinion, no such theory is currently available, nor does any seem possible without extensive investigations of empirical behavior. While we will make some conjectures, these are too tentative to serve as the basis for deriving a set of simultaneous equations that can serve econometric needs. Consequently, we instead concentrate upon single equation methods that are the least subject to errors of model specification.

Six single-equation estimators are tried. Some of these are completely bais-free if one grants their assumption. Generally, however, it is quite difficult to tell whether these assumptions are satisfied or not. For example, the use of lagged values of the independent variables as instrumental variables produces bias-free estimates if the lagged values are not correlated with the contemporary error term. It would seem that many of the transitory factors, such as weather which affect production in one year and produce a correlation between the error term and one of the input variables might not exist in subsequent years. On the other hand, one can also think of effects such as we have described for management and intra-industry investment allocation which would continue for long periods. While a variety of assumptions of this type underlie the different estimators, there is one assumption used by some of the estimators and not by others, that appears by us to be strongly justified by the realities of the Yugoslav economy. This is that the capital stock, save for the intra-industry investment allocation effect described above, is free of correlation with the error term.

This assumption of a zero correlation is based on two facts: first, investment is determined by the development plan and the intra-industry investment allocation mechanism, and not by the rate of interest. ¹⁴ Second, there is a substantial lag between the initiation of new investment products and the time when their output first comes on stream, This lag is usually estimated to be from three to four years in duration on the average. Consequently, changes in the capital stock this year are consequently decisions made some years ago, decisions that are not apt to be influenced by the size of the current error term. Mundlak supports this point of view even for capitalist economy by arguing that in a model using annual data, capital may be treated as a fixed factor. ¹⁵

Equation (1.6) gives the essential stochastic specifications:

(1.6)
$$E_{irts} = H_{irt} U_{irts}$$

The error term E is composed of two statistically independent components: the first term, H, measures those perturbations which are common to firms of all sizes, but which vary from year to year; and the second term, U, measures those perturbations which differ both from year to year, and from firm to firm. If the two variables H and U are uncorrelated with the inputs K and L, then estimates of alpha and beta are unbiased estimates of the theoretical concepts which we seek to measure. However, correlations between either of the two stochastic components and the inputs cause a biased parameter estimate. We shall call correlation between the inputs and H "temporal bias," and correlation

Given the substantial inflation of the past two decades, the State levy of less than six per cent on fixed assets, and the interest charge on borrowed funds are not sufficiently great to serve to ration investment funds.

¹⁵ Mundlak, <u>op</u>. <u>cit</u>., p. 146.

between the inputs and U "simultaneous equation bias." We next give a brief description of the theory underlying the various estimators used.

Change notation so that upper case letters denote natural logarithms, temporarily suppress the industry and region subscripts, and consider the relationship (1.4) and (1.6). We then have the following equations corresponding to (1.4) and (1.6):

(1.4a)
$$Y_{ts} = a_{ts} + \alpha K_{ts} + \beta K_{ts}$$

(1.6a)
$$E_{ts} = H_{t} + U_{ts}$$

Temporal bias, the H effect, may be eliminated by using "covariance estimates."16 A straightforward application of the covariance technique involves defining dummy time variables and estimating their coefficients which are unbiased estimates of \overline{H}_{+} . If one is not interested in knowing the values of H_{+} , but only in obtaining unbiased estimates of α and β , the same result may be obtained by defining the six variables of (1.4a) and (1.6a) as deviations from their annual means. Denoting annual deviates by lower case letters, we have, ATO ATO MAI PORONO ACON VI MAGRIERO NOMA $y_{ts} = Y_{ts} - Y_{t}$ for example,

$$y_{ts} = Y_{ts} - Y_{t}$$

where Y is a simple average taken over the 12 size categories. If we use the o la quinto de la calenta de cara de especia de la composición del composición de la composición de la composición del composición del composición de la composición de la composición del composición annual deviates

in (1.4a), then h is eliminated from (1.6a) and e equals uts.

This transformation, however, still does not remove the simultaneous equation bias which may be present if there is correlation between either k

¹⁶ For a discussion of the general theory of covariance estimators, see Henry Scheffe, The Analysis of Variance (New York: John Wiley & Son, 1959), pp. 192-220.

¹⁷ We are free to paramaterize our model so that $\Sigma h_t = h_{\bullet} = 0_{\bullet}$

or l_{ts} and u_{ts}. Given our inability to specify a simultaneous equation model, we instead use the single equation techniques of grouping and instrumental variables to ameliorate this effect. The consequences of grouping firms in the cross section data according to the size of employments or fixed assets is discussed later in Section II. The technique of instrumental variables and its derivatives is discussed next.

The instrumental variables used are the lagged values of the independent variables $k_{t-1,s}$ and $\ell_{t-1,s}$. The standard technique is treated in any of the textbooks on econometrics and needs no description here. In addition to the standard estimator, however, we also use a hybrid proposed by Mundlak which requires some explanation. The Mundlak estimator is a combination of three estimators: the ordinary least squares estimator obtained from (1.4a) and (1.6a), denoted by ($\overline{\alpha}$, $\overline{\beta}$); the covariance estimator denoted by ($\widehat{\alpha}$, $\widehat{\beta}$) and the instrumental variable estimator obtained by using $K_{t-1,s}$ and $K_{t-1,s}$

Defining the covariance matrix of the independent variables for the estimators by \bar{A} , \hat{A} and \hat{A} , we have:

$$\tilde{\mathbf{A}} = \begin{bmatrix} \mathbf{K}^{\dagger} \\ \mathbf{L}^{\dagger} \end{bmatrix} (\mathbf{K}, \mathbf{L}), \\
\tilde{\mathbf{A}} = \begin{bmatrix} \mathbf{k}^{\dagger} \\ \mathbf{k}^{\dagger} \end{bmatrix} (\mathbf{k}, \mathbf{L}), \\
\tilde{\mathbf{A}} = \begin{bmatrix} \mathbf{K}^{\dagger} - 1 \\ \mathbf{L}^{\dagger} - 1 \end{bmatrix} (\mathbf{K}, \mathbf{L}).$$

¹⁸ Ibid., pp. 160-163.

¹⁹ If one is willing to concede our argument that no correlation exists between capital and the error term, then only labor need be used as an instrument. Estimators using only one instrumental variable, labor, are called Type 1; estimators using two are called Type 2.

26

between the inputs and U "simultaneous equation bias." We next give a brief description of the theory underlying the various estimators used.

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$$y_{ts} = Y_{ts} - Y_{t}$$

where Y_t is a simple average taken over the 12 size categories. If we use the annual deviates

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This transformation, however, still does not remove the simultaneous equation bias which may be present if there is correlation between either kts

Henry Scheffe, The Analysis of Variance (New York: John Wiley & Son, 1959), pp. 192-220.

 $¹⁷_{\text{We}}$ are free to paramaterize our model so that $\Sigma h_t = h_* = 0$.

where Y, K, L, k, ℓ , K_{-1} , L_{-1} , are N x 1 vestors of observation. The corresponding least squares parameter estimates are then

$$\begin{bmatrix} \vec{\alpha} \\ \vec{\beta} \end{bmatrix} = \vec{A}^{-1} \begin{bmatrix} K' \\ L' \end{bmatrix} Y, \quad \underline{\text{Simple Least Squares Estimator}}$$

$$\begin{bmatrix} \hat{\alpha} \\ \hat{\beta} \end{bmatrix} = \hat{A}^{-1} \begin{bmatrix} k' \\ \ell' \end{bmatrix} Y, \quad \underline{\text{Covariance Estimator}}$$

$$\begin{bmatrix} \vec{\alpha} \\ \vec{\alpha} \\ \vec{\beta} \end{bmatrix} = \vec{A}^{-1} \begin{bmatrix} K' \\ -1 \\ L' \\ -1 \end{bmatrix} Y. \quad \underline{\text{Instrumental Variables Estimator,}}$$

$$\frac{\underline{\text{Type 2 (Both capital and labor used as instruments)}}$$

The Mundlak estimator
$$(\hat{\alpha}, \hat{\beta})$$
 is defined by
$$\begin{bmatrix} \hat{\alpha} \\ \hat{\alpha} \\ \hat{\beta} \end{bmatrix} = \hat{A}^{-1} \begin{bmatrix} K' - k' - K' - 1 \\ L' - L' - 1 \end{bmatrix}$$
Y. Mundlak Estimator, Type 2 where

where

$$\hat{\hat{A}} = \begin{bmatrix} K' - k' - K' - 1 \\ L' - \ell' - L' - 1 \end{bmatrix} \quad (K - k - K - 1, L - \ell - L - 1).$$

That is, the variables from (1.4a) and (1.6a) are corrected to remove both temporal and simultaneous equation bias, but they still utilize the full range of the original data, which is present in the simple least squares estimator.

Although not unbiased, the Mundlak estimators are consistent under the assumption of profit maximization if two conditions are satisfied: one is that temporal changes in the prices of capital or labor and output are not correlated with the time effects, $\Pi_{\mathbf{t}}$; and other is that changes in $\mathbf{H}_{\mathbf{t}}$ over time are independent of the level of H . Even if we grant profit maximization, can we really expect these two subsidiary conditions to hold? From sheer ignorance, agnosticism concerning the latter condition might be granted; however, the former conditions, particularly the presumed independence of the wage rate

and temporal effects, is not apt to be so easily obtained. One important contributor to H_t for the cross-section data is change in price of outputs (non-deflated output data is used). It is difficult to be confident that in either an Illyrian or Capitalistic Economy changes in wages are independent of changes in the price of outputs. These uncertainties must raise doubts about the Mundlak Estimator, both Type 1 and Type 2. These estimators are nevertheless included because they promise to be more efficient than other estimators with comparable bias. A less biased, less efficient estimator is discussed next.

One method of eliminating temporal and simultaneous equation bias is to use the combined estimator (α , β) which we call a covariance/instrumental estimator and which is given by

$$\begin{bmatrix} \lambda \\ \lambda \\ \beta \end{bmatrix} = \begin{bmatrix} \lambda \\ A^{-1} \\ \lambda \\ -1 \end{bmatrix}$$

$$\begin{bmatrix} k' \\ 2 \\ -1 \end{bmatrix}$$

where

While this estimator is unbiased, it loses efficiency because all the lower case variables, being mean deviates, have a smaller range of values than does the original data. The Mundlak estimator improves efficiency by utilizing the full range of the original data. With the exception of what we will call a Reverse Coveriance Estimator (described below on page 33), we have now introduced all the candidates.

How does the econometrician choose? The basic choice is between bias and efficiency, but even that choice is complicated by the existence of alternative model specifications; most importantly, should capital be assumed independent of the error term. Our very crude procedure is first, in advance of

computing the estimates, to rank the estimators according to their expected freedom from bias; second, define error measures that can be applied to the estimates to judge how well they meet other a priori conditions we impose; and third, search among the estimates to find one that has an acceptable combination of freedom from bias and error. It is to be expected that freedom from bias and freedom from error will be inversely related.

from bias both the simple least squares and instrumental variable estimators may be completely eliminated as unacceptable. These estimators do not eliminate the temporal bias, H_t. Since the cross section data is not price deflated, H_t will introduce significant bias unless some form of covariance estimator is used. We suggest the following ranking of the remaining estimators as a rough indicator of their freedom from bias: if we assume capital and the error terms are not correlated,

- A1. Reverse Covariance
- A2. Covariance/Instrumental, Type 1
- A3. Mundlak, Type 1
- A4. Covariance;

and if we assume capital and the error term are correlated,

- B1. Covariance/Instrumental, Type 2
- B2. Mundlak, Type 2
- B3. Covariance
- B4. Reverse Covariance.

No extended defense of these lists is planned or possible. Note, however that it would be unadmissably inefficient to use Type 2 estimators under the A classification, and it would introduce inadmissable bias to use Type 1 estimators under the B classification. For reasons already explained covariance/

instrumental is superior to Mundlak, and with some trepidation, we place covariance after Mundlak. The reason why reverse covariance dominates the A classification is explained later.

Having obtained a ranking on the criterion of minimum bias, we must. next define measures that indicate the extent to which an estimator violates the a priori side conditions we wish to impose. Violation of these side conditions may be taken as evidence that low efficiency and resulting high standard errors are at fault, or simply that an unacceptable degree of bias is present. The weakest such condition is that parameter values be positive, slightly stronger is the condition that they be both positive and statistically significant. A simple count of both these conditions over the 2 x 19 paramater estimates computed for each estimator provides the best measure. If one is willing to assume profit maximization and perfect competition, it is also meaningful to compute a coefficient of variation for the marginal products of each input for each estimator. High values of the coefficient of variation would be indicative of low efficiency in the estimator. We do compute coefficients of variation for two estimators, but more from curiosity than conviction. In summary, we seek the estimator that promises minimum bias, and which does not generate an unacceptable number of non-positive parameter estimates.

PART II

CROSS-SECTION ESTIMATES OF LABOR AND CAPITAL OUTPUT ELASTICITIES

INTRODUCTION

Our first task is to use the 1963 and 1964 cross-section data to estimate output elasticities for capital and labor. The objective is to obtain from this data unbiased, or at least consistent, estimates of output elasticities which will later be used as extraneous estimators in the time series analysis. A general discussion of the statistical model has been given. However, peculiarities of the grouped, cross-section data require modification of the estimators presented on pages 22 to 24 in order to increase efficiency. Toward that end consider equation (2.1):

(2.1)
$$Y_{its} = a_{its} + \alpha_i K_{its} + \beta_i L_{its} + H_{it} + U_{its}$$

where i = 1 ... 19; t = 1962, 1963, 1964; s = 1 ... 12. All of the variables are described earlier, but note that no attempt is made to estimate technological progress in this model. The shift parameter aits includes the effects not only of technological change, but also of annual changes in the prices of output, and in the prices of increments to the capital stock. It is an assumption of the analysis that equal output prices prevail for all firms in an industry. Actually, a somewhat less strict condition is sufficient: the average output price for all firms in each size group is the same. A similar condition is assumed for the price of increments to the capital stock. Although there was an extensive re-valorization of fixed assets in 1962, the 1963 and 1964 investments are in current prices. We must, therefore, presume that changes in the price of investment goods between 1962 and 1964 do not importantly disturb the distribution of the capital stock which is correctly

the different size categories all have the same ratio for equipment to structures so that the average length of life of capital goods for the different categories is the same.

To give the reader a better feel for the data, Table 3 presents for the year 1964 a sample of the data which we have available for each of the 19 industry aggregates defined in Table 1. The particular industry used in Table 3 is the most aggregate one available -- that for the total productive part of the social sector. The most notable feature of this data is that the same set of firms is available by two different groupings: one grouping according to the number of employees, and the other according to the value of fixed assets. (The Statistics are also available, grouped according to gross value added and net value added; however, as will shortly be demonstrated, this information is superfluous since we only need data grouped according to each of the independent variables of the analysis.) Another feature is that the data in the tables is a summation over all the firms in each size category; therefore, in order to convert these observations into the per firm measures of equation (2.1), it is necessary to divide each column of variables by the number of firms in that category. Since the number of firms varies from category to category, efficient least squares estimation requires, regardless of which estimator we use, that the estimates should be based upon a weighted regression with the weights being the square root of the number of firms. 20 Throughout the analysis of the cross-section data, the square root of the number of firms is used as a weight unless otherwise specified.

Edmund Malinvaud, Statistical Methods of Econometrics, (Chicago: Rand McNally & Co., 1966), pp. 242-246.

The existence of four sets of data according to four different grouping variables for the same industry and year presents at first glance a difficult decision—which grouping should be used. Fortunately, this question has been extensively investigated by Yoel Haitovsky. Haitovsky shows that when separate groupings are available by each of the independent variables it is more efficient to compute an estimate using all of the tables than to rely upon any one of them. This combined regression can be described in the following way: compute mis-specified, separate regressions of the dependent variable on each one of the independent variables separately, using only the table of data grouped according to that independent variable; then combine these mis-specified regressions with correction terms that remove the bias caused by the mis-specifications. Although it is not our intention to reproduce all of Haitovsky's derivation, it is necessary to outline his methods since we extend his work to include instrumental variables, Mundlak reverse, and covariance estimators.

Consider the simplified version of our regression problem given by equation (2.2). Lower case letters indicate that all variables are annual mean deviates so that there is no intercept term, we also assume that ε is independent of both of the inputs. Instead of first selecting one set of grouped data for fitting equation (2.2), we fit the two separate mis-specified regressions given by (2.3). The first equation of (2.3) is fitted to the data from the capital grouping only; henceforth we refer to this as grouping 1; and the second equation is fitted to the data from the employment grouping only;

Yoel Haitovsky, "Unbiased Multiple Regression Coefficients Estimated from One Way Classification Tables When the Cross Classifications are Unknown," The Journal of the American Statistical Association, Sept. 1966, Vol. 61, No. 315, pp. 720-728. This article is a revised version of Chapter 1 of the author's Ph.D. thesis presented to the Department of Economics, Harvard University.

henceforth grouping 2. Denoting the mis-specified estimates by bars, their least squares formula is given by (2.4). 22

Taking the expectations of $(\alpha\beta)$, we discover that they equal the unbiased estimates of the correctly specified covariance model (2.2), which we denote by $(\hat{\alpha}, \hat{\beta})$, plus an error bias term. This is expressed in (2.5). We may now substitute (2.4) into (2.5) and solve for the vector of unbiased estimates, thereby obtaining (2.6). Haitovsky obtains the variances of $(\hat{\alpha}, \hat{\beta})$ in a similar manner.

A simple extension of this procedure obtains instrumental variable estimators. In the case under consideration we use lagged values of capital and labor as instruments. If we denote the unbiased instrumental variable estimates corresponding to equation (2.1) by $(\hat{\alpha}, \hat{\beta})$ we have (2.7). The Mundlak estimator is obtained in a similar way, denoted by $(\hat{\alpha}, \hat{\beta})$ and presented in equation (2.8).

The reverse covariance estimator must still be defined. We do so by simply changing the table subscripts in equation (2.6). This means, in terms of (2.4), that we estimate the capital coefficient from the labor table, and the labor coefficient from the capital table. The reverse covariance estimator is obviously less efficient than the ordinary covariance estimator, but might it be less biased?

To answer this let (α^k, β^k) denote the reverse covariance estimator. Our earlier ranking of estimators implied that reverse covariance is most biasfree if it is assumed that capital and the error term are not correlated, while labor and the error term are correlated. To prove this assertion,

In these formulas, the 1 or the 2 after the summation sign ς indicates the Table, or equivalently, grouping basis, that is to be used in the summation. Thus we see that α is estimated solely from the data according to the first grouping, the capital basis, while β is estimated solely from the data according to the labor grouping.

calculate the expected value of the mis-specified regressions for both the ordinary and reverse covariance estimators. This is done in equation (2.9) where $(\bar{\alpha}, \bar{\beta})$ is the mis-specified ordinary covariance estimator, and $(\bar{\alpha}^*, \bar{\beta}^*)$ is its reverse covariance counterpart.

(2.2)
$$y_s = \alpha k_s + \beta k_s + E_s$$

(2.3)
$$y_s = \widehat{\alpha}k_s + E_{1s}$$

$$v_s = \widehat{\beta}l_s + E_{2s}$$

(2.4)
$$\tilde{\alpha} = \frac{\Sigma_1 v^k}{\Sigma_1 k^2}$$

$$\overline{\beta} = \frac{\Sigma_2 y \ell}{\Sigma_2 \ell^2}$$

(2.5)
$$\bar{\alpha} = \hat{\alpha} + \hat{\beta} \frac{\Sigma_1^{k\ell}}{\Sigma_1^{k\ell}}$$

$$\bar{\beta} = \hat{\alpha} \frac{\Sigma_2^{k\ell}}{\Sigma_2^{\ell}} + \hat{\beta}$$

(2.7)
$$\begin{bmatrix} \tilde{\alpha} \\ \tilde{\beta} \end{bmatrix} = \begin{bmatrix} \Sigma_1^{kk} - 1 & \Sigma_1^{kk} - 1 \\ \Sigma_2^{kk} - 1 & \Sigma_2^{kk} - 1 \end{bmatrix} \begin{bmatrix} \Sigma_1^{yk} - 1 \\ \Sigma_2^{yk} - 1 \end{bmatrix}$$

(2.8)
$$\begin{bmatrix} \hat{\hat{\alpha}} \\ \hat{\hat{\beta}} \end{bmatrix} \begin{bmatrix} \Sigma_{1}(K^{2}-k^{2}-KK_{-1}) \\ \Sigma_{2}(KL-k\ell-KL_{-1}) \end{bmatrix} \begin{bmatrix} \Sigma_{1}(LK-\ellk-LK_{-1}) \\ \Sigma_{2}(L^{2}-\ell^{2}-LL_{-1}) \end{bmatrix} \begin{bmatrix} \Sigma_{1}(YK-yk-YK_{-1}) \\ \Sigma_{2}(YL-y\ell-YL_{-1}) \end{bmatrix} \underbrace{\frac{\text{Mundlak}}{\text{Estimat}}}_{\frac{\text{Type 2}}{2}}$$

(2.9)
$$E(\overline{\alpha}) = \alpha + \beta \frac{\Sigma_1 k \ell}{\Sigma_1 k^2} \quad E\left(\frac{\Sigma_1 k F}{\Sigma_1 k^2}\right)$$

$$E(\beta) = \alpha \frac{\Sigma_2^{kl}}{\Sigma_2^{l^2}} + \beta + E\left(\frac{\Sigma_2^{lE}}{\Sigma_2^{l^2}}\right)$$

$$E(\alpha^*) = \alpha + \beta \frac{\Sigma_2 k \ell}{\Sigma_2 k^2} \qquad E\left(\frac{\Sigma_2 k \ell}{\Sigma_2 k^2}\right)$$

$$E(\beta^*) = \alpha \frac{\Sigma_1 k \ell}{\Sigma_1 \ell^2} + \beta + E \left(\frac{\Sigma_1 \ell E}{\Sigma_1 \ell^2} \right)$$

If we assume that capital and the error term are not correlated but that labor and the error term are correlated, this gives

$$E(\Sigma_1^{k\varepsilon}) = E(\Sigma_2^{k\varepsilon}) = 0,$$
and
$$E(\Sigma_2^{k\varepsilon}) \neq 0.$$

But what about $E(\Sigma_2 \ell \epsilon)$? While it might seem that the presumed correlation between ℓ and ϵ would make $E(\Sigma_1 \ell \epsilon) \neq 0$, this is not correct. When using grouped data, if the grouping variable is itself independent of the error term, it may serve as an instrument to purge any other variables in that table of correlation with ϵ . Immediately we see that all variables in the capital table, Table 1, are free of such correlation, and particularly $E(\Sigma_1 \ell \epsilon) = 0$. This means that under the assumptions

$$E(k\varepsilon) = 0$$

$$E(k\varepsilon) \neq 0,$$

the covariance estimator (2.6) is subject to simultaneous equation bias,

²³ See the discussion by Malinvaud, op. cit., pp. 242-246.

but the corresponding reverse covariance estimator obtained by reversing the table subscripts is free of bias. This is why the reverse covariance estimator heads the A ranking of estimators. Of course, the reverse covariance estimator is less efficient. 24

COMPARISON OF THE CROSS-SECTION ESTIMATES

We begin our inspection in Table 4 by looking at estimates computed for only two sectors of the economy: the total social sector, and industry and mining. These sectors are the largest in the economy and both are aggregates of other branches whose parameters are estimated. Restricting attention to these two sectors enables us to focus on the sensitivity of the estimates to several sources of variation, specifically: variations in the regression weights; variation in the years for which the regression is run; and variation in the number of cells in the different size groupings.

While certain elements of Table 4 are not available because of lack of data, other elements are purposely omitted because, at an early state it became apparent that some variants were so ill-behaved that they would not be contenders for ultimate selections. Consequently, limited resources forced their exclusion. For example, Part B of the Table which uses the number of firms as weights in the regressions has a number of empty cells because the arguments in favor of square root of the number of firms as weights made it clear that the latter would finally be selected. Our inclusion here of the number of firms as weights is done to test the sensitivity of the results to

²⁴A related bias-free estimator could be obtained by using ordinary covariance applied only to one table, the capital table. However, experiments not reported here revealed this estimator to be less attractive than the two table reverse covariance estimators described above.

					IABLE & TOTAL	SAMPLE CROSS-SEC L SOCIAL SECTOR, EMPLOYMENT BASIS	TABLE & SAMPLE CROSS-SECTION DATA TOTAL SOCIAL SECTOR, 1964 EMPLOYMENT BASIS	ON DATA				•			- Commercial 1
			Less								1001-	2001-	3001-	Over	الواديستو دخرين
	Unit of Measure	Total	than b Employces	7-15	16-29	30-60	61-125	126-250	251-500	501-1000	2000	3000	4050	Employees	• ••
Number of firms	No.	14870	1753	1788	1919	2578	2589	1831	1216	. 622	365	96	3¢	53	
Employment - annual average	thousands	2915	ហ	61	t 2	111	228	322	426	. 431	501	231	185	604	
Gross Fixed Assets (Revalorized in 1962)	bil. din.	8962	ω	. 53	62	198	477	785	1104	1147	1517	††8 ·	099	2132	* () S
Value Added (Current prices)	bil. din.	4857	10	27	09	162	351	534	688	705	838	423	306	746	
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	Unit or Measure	Total	mil.din.	1.5	2.5	2.5-5	5-15	15-50	50-150	150-500	1500	2000	15000	mil.dia.	_
. Number of firms	No.	14870	066	788	†9 †	803	1799	2941	2865	2187	1178	268	130	107	
. Employment - annual average	thousands	2915	7	7	φ	#	51	155	303	461	246	613	360	387	
Gross Fixed Assets (Revalorized in 1962)	bil. din.	8962	0.1	0.7	6	8	16	87	257	603	1005	1514	1515	3956	
Value Added (Cummant prices)	bil. din.	4857	7	œ	φ	17	ဗွ	211	427	701	856	1014	589	858	
									-				•		

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AGGREGATE ESTIMATES: 1963-64+

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otal Social Sector 12 Cells	Ф	0 0 0 0 0 0 0 0 0 0 0	80 44 80 80 50 80 44 80 80 50	
Total	ಶ	- 2110011 2100011	44444	
	Estimator	A. 1963-64 with Square Root Weights# 1. Reverse covariance: 1963-64 2. Covariance/Instrumental, Type 2 3. Covariance/Instrumental, Type 1 4. Kundlak, Type 2 5. Mundlak, Type 1 6. Covariance: 1963-64	B. 1963-64 with Firm Weights* 1. Faverse covariance: 1963-64 2. Covariance/Instrumental, Type 2 3. Covariance/Instrumental, Type 1 4. Kundlak, Type 2 5. Mundlak, Type 1 6a. Covariance: 1963-64 6b. Covariance: 1962-64	C. 1953-57 with Square Root. Weights* i. Roverse covariance: 1953-64 2. Covariance/Instrumental, Type 2 3. Covariance/Instrumental, Type 1 4. Mundlak, Type 2 5. Mundlak, Type 1 6 Covariance: 1953-64

Part B uses the number of firms per cell as a regression weight. Parts A and C use the square root of the number of firms.

+All covariance/instrumental and covariance parameters are significantly positive at a confidence level of .95. Standard errors of the estimates are not known for Mundlak estimators.

Consider first not the two input coefficients, but their sum, the scale coefficient. As would be expected, the scale coefficient shows greater stability than either of its components, α or β . Generally, all of the results from the 12-cell data show returns to scale very close to unity. Excluding Section C, the range of the scale coefficient for both industry and mining and the total social sector is from .99 to 1.04 with a median value around 1.01 or 1.02. These values are not statistically significantly different from unity to allow rejection of the hypothesis of constant returns to scale. In none of the results, however, is the scale coefficient forced to be unity; the presence of high multi-collinearity can cause this specification to explosively affect the estimates of the capital and labor coefficients. It is interesting that when square root weights are used, the 9-cell data consistently gives lower estimates of the scale coefficients. The difference in each case is exactly 3 percentage points. A much greater difference in the scale coefficients is found in the 9-cell, 1963-67 regional data using square root weights (Part C). Comparing this data with the 9-cell estimates from Section A, there is again a consistent difference, this time of 4 percentage points. We do not know why the 1963-67 data shows an important indication of decreasing returns to scale with a value of .95 but we would speculate that since this time period straddles the 1965 price reform it is possible that the rather dramatic changes in prices which occurred during that reform affected the large firms, which were under closer government surveillance, more negatively than it affected the small firms. If this is actually the case, it would explain the dramatic shift to decreasing returns to scale which is brought about by including the post-reform years. In any event, the significant alteration of the scale coefficient which occurs when we add these years validates our restricting attention to

only the pre-reform years, thus assuring a more homogeneous sample with respect to prices, institutions, and behavior.

The labor coefficient estimates are in the high .80's for all of the 12-cell data for either the total social sector of industry and mining. For the 9-cell data, however, it is substantially less, somewhere in the low .80's. Correspondingly, the capital coefficient, α , tends to lie in the low teens for the 12-cell data, and in the high teens for the 9-cell data. In Section C, the two capital coefficients according to the Mundlak estimators are slightly negative. The magnitude of these negative values suggests violation of the Mundlak assumptions in the longer time period rather than a distortion due to sampling. We now turn to a consideration of parameter sensitivity from the point of view of the estimators rather than the data sample.

Except for the Mundlak estimators whose variance is not known and for which two coefficients are negative, the other estimators all generate coefficients that are statistically significant and positive. In order to establish the importance or unimportance of the correlation between capital and the error term, we contrast the Type 1 and Type 2 estimates for the covariance/instrumental and Mundlak estimators. For these two estimators, the use of both capital and labor as instruments reduces the capital coefficient and raises the labor coefficient by from 1 to 4 points. This is a very consistent result. However, it should not be interpreted to mean that the introduction of capital as an instrumental variable has removed any significant bias, rather it is more likely that the consistent change of the parameters by a few points is due simply to the less-than-perfect correlation which exists between lagged capital and current capital. This causes labor to have a relatively more improved correlation with output than does capital. In any event, the differences are not large so that by selecting the Type 1 estimators we risk little.

At this point, along with the Type 2 estimators, we also discard the Mundlak estimators. The presence of the two negative capital coefficients indicates that the assumptions of that estimator are not met. If we compare the covariance/instrumental Type 1 estimators with either the ordinary covariance or reverse covariance estimators, we find that the former seems to yield a higher capital coefficient estimate and a lower labor estimate. Here again, this result can be explained by the less-than-perfect correlation which exists between lagged labor and current labor. This would cause the labor coefficient for the covariance/instrumental, Type 1 estimator to be smaller than that for either of the covariance estimators.

The most interesting comparison is between the covariance and the reverse covariance estimators. Under our preferred assumption that capital and the error term are not correlated, the reverse covariance estimator offers the best available means of removing bias caused by a correlation between labor and the error term. The reverse covariance estimator is superior in this respect to instrumental variable estimators because the latter cannot remove such correlations if the errors affecting the variables are associated through time. Therefore, a comparison of the covariance and the reverse covariance estimators provides our best method for judging the importance of the bias generated by a possible correlation between labor and the error term. The result is surprising.

There are four blocks of data for which the two estimators may be compared. For these four blocks, none of the parameter estimates differs by more than one percentage point, signifying that virtually identical results are achieved whether we use reverse covariance or covariance estimators. The conclusion must be that simultaneous equation bias resulting from a correlation between labor and the error term does not exist, at least not taken the assumptions of the model. This also means that there is no reason for further

considering the instrumental/covariance Type 1 estimators. The final comparison must be between reverse covariance, which has minimum bias, and ordinary covariance, which gives the same estimates for aggregate sectors but is more efficient. To select between these two we compare results for all nineteen sectors and five regions. First, however, a one-paragraph summary is given of the findings to this point.

The greatest economic import of Table 3 attaches to the consistency with which we find returns to scale of approximately unity. Typical values of the capital and labor coefficients are .15 and .85. This contrasts significantly with the .25 and .75 values that are typically asserted for western economies. Of course, this has little real meaning until we examine the marginal products and income share in Yugoslavia. The greatest statistical import of Table 3 is that the estimates are quite stable for the six estimators we try, and also for the various data samples used. The largest change in estimates occurs when we go from the 12-cell data to the 9-cell data which implies that consolidation of the extremes of the data may be dangerous. The similar results given by all the estimators, but particularly the nearly identical results for the ordinary and reverse covariance estimators is evidence that simultaneous equation bias is not important.

So far we have established that the reverse covariance estimator is apt to be most bias-free, but that in practice, for the large aggregate sectors, there is almost no difference in the estimates for reverse covariance and ordinary covariance. Since the ordinary covariance estimators are more efficient they would seem to be superior. Estimates for the nineteen sectors confirm this judgment. Table 5 presents the capital, labor and scale coefficients for three estimators; ordinary covariance; reverse covariance; and covariance/instrumental, Type 1. In those cases where an estimators is not significantly

TABLE 5

presented in parentheses. For the ordinary covariance estimator there is no coefficient in this table that is either negative or not significantly positive. In contrast, the reverse covariance estimator exhibits two negative values and four insignificantly positive values, while the covariance/instrumental, Type 1 estimator shows one negative value and one insignificantly positive value. One explanation of this is found in the standard errors of the coefficients.

Typically, the standard errors for ordinary covariance are two-thirds to one-half those for reverse covariance or instrumental/covariance.

In other regards, the conclusions of Table 4 hold for the disaggregate sectors of Table 5. Returns to scale are not importantly different from unity, although a number of the sub-branches of industry do show increasing returns to scale, particularly food, drink and tobacco (113), and metal making and using (120 and 121). The capital coefficient is again in the teens, although the high teens rather than the low teens seem to be more characteristic. And the labor coefficient is generally in the high 80's. Two industries show significant decreasing returns to scale: construction (003) and the miscellaneous sub-branch of industry (122). In both these cases, there are special circumstances at work and better estimates, described later, are presented in bold type.

The same data for industry and mining, but covering the five regions and presented in Table 6, shows similar results in all respects, except there are no negative or insignificantly positive values for either ordinary covariance or covariance/instrumental estimates. There is one negative and insignificantly

Tables for standard errors are not presented because the paper is already overburdened with statistical measures.

TABLE 6

REGIONAL ELASTICITY ESTIMATES
FOR INDUSTRY AND MINING*

Region	Covariance	Covariance/Instrumental,	al,	Ordi	Ordinary Covariance	lance	Reverse	se Covariance	ance .
	ಶ	Type 1 8	ر الالج	ಶ	Ø	art8	8	ಹ	ata
			Year	from 1963 to	o 1964			<u>.</u>	
Viscoslavia	٠ ص	.80	Çi. Ol	.15	48.	60.	.16	83	0 0
North	.17	98•	1.03	.10	6	1.03	80.	96*	1.04
South	ħ [.	. 80	116.	14.	. 81	• 62	.31	.62	. 93
Serbia Froper	•28	. 65	က တ	. 28	†9 •	.92	.27	99•	e 6
South less Serbia Proper	ਜ	.92	1.03	e 0	1.01	1.04	.05	66.	1.04
	•		Year	from 1963	to 1967		•		
Yugoslavia	4	₩	90	.10	. 85	\$6.	. H.	18 €	.95
North	.07	.92	66	.03	96.	თ თ	1.03	1.05	1.02
South	.15	.78	69.	다 다.	.83	π6 •	.16	•76	.92
Serbia Aroper	.18	.73	.91	.15	.76	. 91	.15	• 76	.91
South less Serbia Proper	თ F I	.79	හ ග	-1t	#8.	88	ស• ក	.82	.97

*All coefficients are significantly positive at a confidence level of .95. The covariance estimates for South less Serbia Froper for 1963-64, and the North for 1963-67, fail at the .975 level, however.

labor coefficients, all satisfy reasonably well the standardized description given above. A surprising feature of Table 6 is that for 1963-64, Serbia proper has a very low measure for the labor coefficient and for returns to scale. The statistics for Serbia proper do not look so anamolous in the longer 1963-1967 period both because the scale coefficient for all the other republics except Serbia Proper falls by 5 percentage points, and the Serbia proper capital coefficient loses 13 points while the labor coefficient gains 12 points. The outcome is that for the longer time period Serbia Proper is not so distinctly different from the other regions as it is for the 1963-64 period. The reason for this is not known.

In a pareto optimal economy the marginal products of labor and capital over sectors of the economy and regions are equal. A serious empirical application of this criterion involves many qualifications and modifications; nevertheless, a straightforward, naive comparison is not without merit. At the very least it can be an important indicator of unreasonable results. Table 7 presents the marginal products of capital and labor for the ordinary covariance estimator, and by way of contrast for the covariance/instrumental estimator.

Contrasting the two aggregates, the total social sector and industry and mining, we find a good deal more difference can be attributed to the sectoral classification than to the estimator used. For both estimators, the marginal product of capital is significantly greater for the total social sector than it is for industry and mining, while just the reverse is true of the marginal product of labor. Since the control of investments is the strongest instrument in the hands of central policy-makers, this result is consistent with the idea that industry and mining is a priority sector whose growth is made possible by the

TABLE 7

SECTORAL MARGINAL PRODUCT ESTIMATES

FOR 1963-64*

# # # # # # # # # # # # # # # # # # #			Covari	lance/ -	Ordin Covari	•
		<u> </u>	hPK.	HPL	MPK	MPL
Total Social Sector	(000)		.19	1.10	.15	1.15
Industry and Mining	(001)		.11	1.32	.10	1.34
Agriculture	(022)		.06	•94	.06	.95
Construction with size effect	(003)		.62	.81	.33	.96
Transportation & Communication	(0011)	ļ.	.10	1.12	•09	1.17
Handicrafts	(005)		.59	.7 9	.47	.83
Trade & Miscellaneous	(006)		.37	1.11	.35	1.13
Electricity	(111)		06	2.21	.06	2.22
Coal & Coal Mining	(112)		12	.7 6	.13	.74
Food, Drink & Tobacco	(113)		01	1.90	.07	1.75
Textiles & Clothing	(114)		.09	1.19	.15	1.10
Timber & Furniture	(115)		.24	.71	.23	.71
Paper, Printing & Publishing	(116)		.25	1.34	.25	1.35
Leather, Rubber & Footwear	(117)		.38	1.13	.25	1.26
Stone, Clay & Glass	(118)		.17	.83	.15	. 87
Chemicals & Petroleum	(119)		.37	1.83	.31	2.03
Metal Using	(120)		.19	1.36	.12	1.46
Metal Making	(121)		.13	1.32	.05	1.63
Miscellaneous	(122)		.09	1.34	.20	1.12
<pre>v = Coefficient of variation†</pre>			79.60	34:20	61.40	34.20

*Marginal Products are computed at the weighted geometric mean. The weights are the square root of the number of firms per cell.

†Computed from the 17 sectors 002 to 122 by the formula V = 100S/X where S is the sample standard deviation and \overline{X} is the sample mean.

infusion of large amounts of capital, so much capital that the rate of return is driven below what is available in other sectors. Later, in the section dealing with aggregation problems, the marginal product of capital for both of these two sectors is shown to be biased downward by the process of linear aggregation.

While significance statements are not available for the marginal products, a coefficient of variation can be used to measure the variability of the two estimators for the 17 disaggregate sectors. With a value of 34.2 the coefficient of variation for the marginal product of labor is identical for ordinary covariance and covariance/instrumental, but the coefficient of variation for the marginal products of capital is smaller for ordinary covariance, 61.4, than for covariance/instrumental, 79.6.

Similar data is given in Table 8 for regional marginal products. Again, the regional classification is a much more important determinant of marginal product than is the estimator. Another conclusion is that the marginal product of capital is lower in the North than in the South, while the converse is true for the marginal product of labor. For the marginal product of labor this is to be expected due to the immobility of labor. For the marginal product of capital, however, expectations are not so clear cut. On the one hand, greater efficiency in the North causes average output per unit of capital to be high, which raises marginal productivity; on the other hand, capital deepening has progressed further in the North-the capital/labor ratio is one-third larger than in the South--and this lowers marginal productivity. The fact that the measured product is lower for the North suggests that capital deepening has been carried beyond what is optimal. This conclusion is reversed in the

This conclusion conflicts with that of Dr. James Plummer who finds that capital is used more efficiently in the North than in the South. Our study agrees with his in concluding that some reallocation of labor from South to North would be desirable. James Plummer, "Interfirm Production Function Analysis of Yugoslav Industrial Resource Allocation," mineograph, Dec. 1969, p. 7.

TABLE 8

REGIONAL MARGINAL PRODUCT ESTIMATES
FOR INDUSTRY AND MINING

	Covariance/Inst		Covar	iance
Region	ирк	MPL	MPK	MPL
<u></u>	Years from 1963 to 196	54		
Yugoslavia	.14	1.21	.11	1.27
2 North	.13	1.37	.08	1.47
South	14	1.13	.13	1.14
Serbia Proper	.24	94	.25	.94
South less Serbia Proper	•07	1.24	.02	1.35
i Araba dayadan da bada	Years from 1963 to 196	<u>67</u>		est Patalik
Yugoslavia	.12	1.61	.08	1.69
North	•06	1.90	.02	1.99
South	.13	1.44	.10	1.53
Serbia Proper	.17	1.43	.15	1.49
South less Serbia Proper	.13	1.34	.10	1.43

1963-67 data, but this appears related to the price reforms of 1965.

The really anomolous aspect of Table 9 is the large marginal product of capital for Serbia Proper generated by the 1963-64 data. More than the elasticity measures, the marginal products indicate that this is due to unknown aberrations in the 1963-64 data. The longer 1963-67 period shows values for Serbia Proper that are more in line with our expectations. If the regressions were run only on the 1965-67 sub-sample, the results for Serbia Proper would be substantially closer to those for Yugoslavia as a whole. This leads to the conclusion that the marginal product of capital is low in the North and high in the South, while the converse is true of the marginal product of labor; and that the marginal product of capital and labor are about the same in Serbia Proper and the far South. Again, differences between the 1963-64 and 1963-67 results, weaken such conclusions.

PROBLEMS OF AGGREGATION

The use of several estimators and different data samples increases confidence in the stability of the findings. Similarly, disaggregation by economic sectors and regions can be viewed as a replication of the experiment, a replication that also increases confidence in the stability of the estimates and confirms the existence of a relatively small capital coefficient and returns to scale near unity. This replication by disaggregation, however, burdens us with two issues not yet considered. First, in the time series analysis that follows, great simplification could be achieved if the capital and labor coefficients for any industry were the same for all regions. This hypothesis is easily confirmed or rejected by a "t-test" on the regional differences of the estimates for industry and mining. Second, for industry and mining and

for the total social sector there are estimates for both the aggregates and their sub-aggregate components. This raises the question of whether or not the aggregate coefficients for capital or labor are unbiased functions of the sub-aggregate coefficients. If they are not, the difference is called "aggregation bias." We begin with the simpler issue mentioned first, the hypothesis of regional equality.

For industry and mining the nine-cell, regionally disaggregate data may be used to test the hypothesis of regional equality. This is an important and convenient hypothesis, and one that is at times forced upon us. From Table 6, the maximum difference (covariance estimator, 1963-64 data) for the capital coefficient is .25 obtained as the difference between $\hat{\alpha}_4 = .28$ and $\hat{\alpha}_5 = .03$. For the labor coefficient, the maximum difference is obtained for the same category and is .37. Assuming the statistical independence of parameters estimated for different regions, the standard errors are:

$$-s_{\alpha_4}^2 + \alpha_5^2 = .016$$

and

$$s\hat{\beta}_4 + \hat{\beta}_5 = .031$$

The respective "t-statistics" for capital and labor are 15.7 and 11.8. These values are so large we may be assured that a significant difference exists regardless of the problems of multiple comparisons and of serial correlations of the errors which overstate these "t-statistics". (The assumed independence of parameters may understate it.) Even the smaller differences that exist when we compare the North with the South, still generate "t-statistics" of 2.5

Our discussion of aggregation bias follows R.G.D. Allen, Mathematical Reconomics (New York: St. Martin's Press, 1957), pp. 694-724.

for capital and 3.7 for labor. With 30 degrees of freedom 28 the critical limits are 2.36 for a significance level of .025, and 2.75 for a significance level of .01. Thus, even the minimum differences tend to be significant. The hypothesis of a regional constancy in the coefficients must be rejected. We next test for aggregation bias.

Table 9 provides a comparison of two estimates of the output elasticities for the total social sector, and industry and mining: the first $(\hat{\alpha}, \hat{\beta})$, is the covariance estimate from Table 3; the second $(\overline{\alpha}, \overline{\beta})$, is obtained as a weighted sum of the sub-aggregates components of the two above sectors, also according to the covariance estimator. Since we reject the hypothesis of regional equality, we may also meaningfully compute the same statistics according to the three-region disaggregation (only for industry and mining, of course). What do these differences show? For the sectoral aggregation, the capital coefficients are importantly smaller by about twenty-five per cent for the "Direct Regression" in comparison to the "Weighted Sum"; and the labor coefficients are only slightly larger for the total social sector by about five percent. The same comparison for the regional aggregate shows the capital coefficient slightly larger for the "direct regression" than for the "weighted sum," and the labor coefficient slightly smaller. What economic interpretation may be given to these differences?

To give an economic interpretation to the difference between the linear estimates $(\hat{\alpha}, \hat{\beta})$ and the geometric estimates $(\overline{\alpha}, \overline{\beta})$, we make the simplifying

The degrees of freedom are computed on the basis of 18 observations per table (9 cells for 2 years) and six parameters for both tables (capital and labor, and four annual "shift" parameters, two per table). This gives 36-6=30 degrees of freedom; however, since the total number of firms is the same in both tables one cell is redundant so that the final outcome is 35-6=29 degrees of freedom.

The weights are the square roots of the average number of firms in the industry in any year. That is: $\begin{pmatrix} T & & \\ \Sigma & & N_{i.t}/T \end{pmatrix} 1/2$

TABLE

TEST FOR AGGREGATION BIAS IN ELASTICITIES

	Dir Regr	ect ession			ighted S b-Aggreg	
	ά.	ß	$\frac{\hat{\alpha} + \hat{\beta}}{\hat{\beta}}$	ā	B	α+β
Sectoral Aggregation (12-cell):		•		•		•
Total Social Sector (17 sub-aggregates)	.13	.89	1.02	.17	. 83	1.00
Industry and Mining (12 sub-aggregates)	.13	.89	1.02	.18	.87	1.05
Regional Aggregation (9-cell):			•		• •	t t
Industry and Mining •• (3 sub-aggregates)	.15	•8ti	. 99	.13	.87	1.00

assumption of constant returns to scale $(\hat{\alpha} + \hat{\beta} = \overline{\alpha} + \overline{\beta} = 1)$. On the basis of this assumption the production function may be expressed as,

(2.1)
$$Y^*_{is} = \alpha_i \quad k^*_{is}$$
)

and $\beta_i = 1 - \alpha_i$,

where $Y^*_{is} = Y_{is} - \ell_{is}$,

and $k^*_{is} = k_{is} - \ell_{is}$.

Consider the auxiliary regression.

(2.2)
$$k_{is}^* = \delta_{is} k_{s}^* + \lambda_{is}$$

where $k_{s}^* = \log(\Sigma_{i} K_{is}) - \log(\Sigma_{i} L_{is})$, λ_{is} is a stochastic term, and α_{is} is a parameters.

Equation (2.2) expresses how the sub-aggregate capital/labor ratios are related to the aggregate capital/labor ratio for any size category.

The question we ask is, suppose (2.1) expresses the true micro-production function, what relationship will then exist between the α_i of that equation and an aggregate α obtained by first summing each variable over all sectoral sub-aggregates? That is, an α obtained from

(2.3)
$$y^*_s = \sum_{i=1}^{r} y^*_{is} = \alpha \sum_{i=1}^{r} k^*_{is} + \varepsilon_s = \alpha k^*_s + \varepsilon_s$$

Substituting (2.2) into (2.1) and aggregating, we have

(2.4)
$$y *_{s} = \begin{pmatrix} \mathbf{I} \\ \Sigma & \alpha \\ \mathbf{i} & \delta_{\mathbf{i}s} \end{pmatrix} \quad k_{s} + \lambda_{s}$$

But (2.4) is of the same form as (2.3) so that a covariance estimator obtained from the former variables

(2.5)
$$\hat{\alpha} = \sum_{i=1}^{I} \hat{\alpha}_{i} \hat{\delta}_{is}$$

Since the statistical estimates of the scale coefficient for the total social sector and industry and mining differ from unity by only two percentage points, this specification is not arbitrary or misleading.

Furthermore, defining the "sum of sub-aggregates" estimate by $\frac{\mathbf{I}}{\alpha = \Sigma} \quad \hat{\mathbf{a}}_{\mathbf{i}} / \mathbf{I},$ $= \mathbf{i} = \mathbf{1}$

we finally obtain

(2.6)
$$\hat{\alpha} = \overline{\alpha} - I Cov (\hat{\alpha}_i, \hat{\delta}_{is}).$$

Equation (2.6) answers our original question. Where the "direct regression" estimate, $\hat{\alpha}$, is smaller than the "sum of sub-aggregates" estimate, $\frac{31}{\alpha}$, it implies that $\text{Cov}(\hat{\alpha}_i, \hat{\delta}_{is})$ is negative. Or, in more familiar terminology, it implies that industries with large capital coefficients have small capital/labor ratios; and also the obverse, industries with large labor coefficients have large capital/labor coefficients. For the regional estimates, there is a tendency for the opposite results but the magnitude is too small to be important. These results have little meaning, however since it is differences in marginal products that govern the flow of resources.

As revealed in Table 10, the marginal products of labor (MPL) shows no important bias for either sectoral or regional aggregation, and the marginal product of capital (MPK) shows none for regional aggregation. There is, nevertheless, one important case of aggregation bias. For both the total social sector and industry and mining, the "direct regression" yields a MPK that is significantly lower than that produced by the "weighted sum." Application of the aggregation theory in the paragraphs above provides an explanation with economic import. The fact that $\hat{\alpha}$ is smaller than $\overline{\alpha}$ implies that there is a positive correlation between the marginal products and the capital/labor ratios of different industries—industries with high MPK's

 $^{^{31}}$ We use a weighted sum in Table 8 to adjust for the fact that weighted regressions are used to obtain $\hat{\alpha}$ and $\hat{\alpha}_1$.

TABLE 10

TEST FOR AGGREGATION BIAS
IN MARGINAL PRODUCTS:

Sectoral Aggregation (12-cell):	Direct Regression MPK	MPL	Weighted Sub-Aggr MPK	
Total Social Sector (17 sub-aggregates)	.15	1.15	.23	1.13
<pre>Industry and Mining . (12 sub-aggregates)</pre>	. 10	1.34	.17	1.33
Regional Aggregation (9-cell):	•	•		•
Industry and Mining (3 sub-aggregates)	.11	1.27	.11	1.29

^{*} Marginal products are computed at the geometric mean of the cross-section data for 1963-64.

tend to have high capital/labor ratios. This is generally consistent with the view that profitability is an important criterion determining investment allocation in the Yugoslav economy.

SECTION III

TIME SERIES ESTIMATES OF NEUTRAL TECHNICAL PROGRESS: 1952 to 1964

The publicly available time series data is described in Section I.

Before this information can be used for production function analysis, considerable effort must be expended in aggregation, deflation and so forth. So that we may come directly to the results, the description of the steps taken and methods used is relegated to an Appendix. The Appendix also contains a complete publication of the resultant statistical series for value added, employment, total fixed capital and equipment. These series are presented for five regions and nineteen sectors for the years 1952 to 1966.

The time series counterpart of (2.4) is:

(3.1)
$$Y_{irt} = a_{ir} + \alpha_{ir}K_{irt} + \beta_{ir}L_{irt} + \lambda_{irt} + E_{irt}$$

where i = 1 ... 19 industries

 $r = 1 \dots 5$ regions, and

T or t = 1 ... 13 years from 1952 to 1964.

The variables Y, K and L are in logarithms, and T is in natural integer units. To satisfactorily estimate the neutral technical progress coefficient λ it is necessary to make the assumption

(3.2)
$$\alpha_{i1} = \alpha_{i2} \dots = \alpha_{i5} = \overline{\alpha}_{i}$$
and $\beta_{i1} = \beta_{i2} \dots = \beta_{i5} = \overline{\beta}_{i}$ for all i,

where α_i and β_i are the ordinary covariance estimates obtained from Table 5.

To estimate λ_{ir} we proceed in two steps: first, initial least squares estimates are computed for the coefficients of equation (3.1) without the benefit of the extraneous estimators utilized in assumption (3.2), and second, the capital and labor coefficients are restricted to the values prescribed by (3.2) and new estimates are computed for a_{ir} and a_{ir} .

The values of λ (1) obtained in step 1, and λ (2) obtained in step 2, are found in Table 11. Results are presented only for Yugoslavia as a whole. These results strongly favor the λ (2) coefficients which is based on the extraneous estimators and restricted regression. The large dispersion of λ (1), even including negative values, occurs because the corresponding unrestricted estimates of α and β are highly unstable (values that are negative or greater than 1.5 are common). The high multi-collinearity of the data together with varying amounts of underutilized capacity 33 in both the capital and labor measures makes it impossible to estimate all three coefficients with only time series. The estimates for λ (2) are much better. There are no negative values and the range, running 0.9 to 5.9 is not excessive.

Another test of the extraneous estimators is to compute how destructive assumption (3.2) is to the coefficient of multiple determination (R²). A comparison of columns three and four of Table 11 reveals that only for agriculture (002) is there a large drop when the extraneous estimators are used:

The same result is achieved by directly computing the single regression, $Y_{irt} - \frac{\alpha}{\alpha_i} \frac{K}{irt} - \frac{\alpha}{\beta_i} \frac{L}{irt} = a_{ir} + \lambda_{irt} + E_{irt}$. This, however, would not permit a test of assumption (3.2). The technique of "restricted least squares" is described in Goldberger, op. cit., pp. 256-258.

³³At this level of disaggregation there is little chance of calculating capacity utilization coefficients for capital, let alone labor. To our knowledge, no satisfactory data exists for making such computations, particularly in the early years.

SECTORAL ESTIMATES OF TECHNICAL PROGRESS

Amaziri (a.t. ta ya wa a . a . a . a		λ(1)	λ(2)	R ² (1)	R ² (2)	3 '
Total Social Sector	(000)	2.1	3.8	.995	.991	3.93
Industry & Mining	(001)	8,9	4.5	•999	.997	5.10
Agriculture & Fishing	(002)	-8.4	4.3	•979	.882	20.21
Construction	(003)	26.5	3.3	.884	.852	1.25
Transportation & Communication	ation (004)	7.5	5.0	.993	.984	4.86
Handicraft	(005)	9.3	2.1	.998	.981	31.00
Retail Trade & Other	.(006)	1.2	1.6	.995	.989	6.03
	(111)	7.2	5.2	. . •990	989	0.35
Coal & Coal Mining	(112)	5.6	4.2	983	.982	0.33
Food, Drink & Tobacco		12.1		.988	.942	16.49
· -	(114)	-1.7		997	.995	2.18
Textiles & Clothing Timber & Furniture	(115)	2.0	:	. 	.987	26.50
Paper, Printing & Publish	116)	10.6	" : :::::::::::::::::::::::::3.8.	:: ::::::::995	•992	- 2.71
± /		ц. 9	2.8	52000 r . 994	.993	0.86
Leather, Rubber & Footwee	(118)		4.2	T. 41 .995	.971	23.59
Stone, Clay & Glass	:(119)	•	5.83	271112 .999 , .	:998	6.43
Chemicals & Petroleum	(120)	•	3.9	.996	.994	1.67
Metal Using	(121)		5.9	•999	•993	27.94
Metal Making Miscellaneous	(122)	•	2.1	. 985	833	45.61

from .970 to .882. An F test of (3.2) is made for each industry. A value of T greater than the critical limit F.025 = 5.71 causes a rejection at a .025 significance level, of the hypothesis that (3.2) is a correct specification. For seven of the nineteen sectors with T values over ten, the hypothesis expressed by (3.2) is strongly rejected. For three others with values between five and six, acceptance or rejection is not clear cut. While a forceful acceptance of (3.2) is found for only one-half of the sectors, this is not a surprising or destructive outcome for the use of extraneous estimators. To the contrary, it is a rather strong outcome. As mentioned earlier, the unrestricted estimates contain many negative and otherwise unacceptable coefficients. When comparison is made between the extraneous estimators and any set of "reasonable" output elasticities, the difference in the squared error is small. For this reason, we argue that acceptance of (3.2) for one-half the sectors is a strong showing.

The ultimate test of the extraneous estimator hypothesis, however, must be the reasonableness of the technical progress coefficients they generate. Further evidence on this, in the form of regional estimates, is found in Table 12. For Yugoslavia and the North, all of the coefficients are positive but less than eight per cent. For the South, Scrbia Proper and the South less Serbia Proper, four sectors show at least one negative coefficient and three have at least one value greater than eight percent. With ninety-five

The test statistic is $\mathcal{F}=\frac{h-r}{q}$ $\frac{SSE(2)-SSE(1)}{SSE(1)}$ where SSE(2) and SSE(1) are the sum of the squared errors computed with and

where SSE(2) and SSE(1) are the sum of the squared errors computed with and without the specification (3.2),)? is the number of observations (13); r is the number of parameters estimated (4); and q is the number of extraneous restrictions imposed (2). Several critical limits are F.025 = 5.71, F.05 = 4.26 and F.10 = 3.01.

This is concluded on the basis of trial regressions using the parameter configuration (.50, .50) and (.25, .75).

TABLE 12

REGIONAL ESTIMATES OF TECHNICAL PROGRESS

(in per cent)

: : : : : : : : : : : : : : : : : : :		Yugo- slavia	North	South	Ser bia Proper	South less Scrbia Proper
Total Social Sector	(000)	3.8	3.7	3.3	3.7	2.7
Industry & Mining	(001)	4.5	3.9	4.9	5.0	4.6
Agriculture & Fishing	(002)	4.3	7.1	-1.4	-1.6	0.4
Construction	(003)	3.3	3.2	2.3	4.7	-0.6
Transportation & Communication	(004)	5.0	5.4	5.5	6.1	4.7
Handicrafts	(005)	2.1	0.7	2.0	2.1	1.8
Retail Trade and other	(006)	1.6	1.7	1.5	1.7	0.8
Electricity	(111)	5.2	1.8	12.4	12.6	12.5
Coal & Coal Mining	(112)	4.2	4.7	. 4.6	4.7	4.3
Food, Drink & Tobacco	(113)	0.9	2.3	-3.6	-3.2	-4.0
Textiles & Clothing	(114)	1.5	0.8	3. 9	2.2	9.2
Timber & Furniture	(115)	4.2	2.9	0.7	2.1	4.8
Paper, Printing & Publishing	(116)	3.8	2.8	5.4	2.7	13.2
Leather, Rubber & Footwear	(117)	2.8	3.1	1.9	1.2	5.9
Stone, Clay & Glass	. (118)	4.2	2.9	5.2	5.3	4.9
Chemicals & Petroleum	(119)	5.8	6.0	4.8	6.7	1.8
Netal Using	(120)	3.9	3.3	5.3	5.6	5.4
Metal Making	(121)	5.9	4.1	7.8	8.1	8.2
Miscellaneous	(122)	2.1	0.4	-2.4	0.5	-2.7

coefficients in all, these out liers are to be expected.

The footnote on page 52 relegates economic analysis to the companion papers which follow. Nevertheless, four observations and a generalization concerning technical progress are made. First, for the total social sector, the rate of neutral technical progress is between 2.7 and 3.7 for all of the regions of Yugoslavia. The North and Serbia Proper are both at the high end of this range and the South less Serbia Proper is at the low end. Second, for industry and mining, the pace of technical progress is quicker, but again it has a comparatively small range of 3.9 to 5.0, and this time the North is at the bottom of the range while Serbia Proper and the South less Serbia Proper are at the top. Third, for agriculture the range is much larger, 7.1 to -1.6, and this time the North is at the top while two southern regions are at the bottom. A scrutiny of the other large, one-digit sectors reveals only comparatively small regional variation. Four, for the branches of industry and mining, the southern regions do comparatively better versus the North in such non-agricultural, resource-oriented sectors as electricity (111), metal making (120) and metal using (121). The North, on the other hand, is superior in the consumer-oriented industries, food, drink and tobacco (113) and leather, rubber and footwear (117), on the high technology areas such as chemicals and petroleum (119).

The generalization is that the comparatively modest aggregate advantage of the North in dynamic efficiency is primarily due to its more marketoriented agriculture and food processing industries rather than advantages in
the area of heavy industry. In contrast, the southern regions show significant
superiority in the resource-oriented sectors (other than agriculture) and in
the processing industries associated with those resources.

The principal goal of this paper is to obtain disaggregate estimates of production function coefficient suitable for analyzing the growth of output in Yugoslavia. This goal is met. Having gone this far, however, we take one more step and measure, for the Yugoslav social sector as a whole, the contribution of resource mobilization, economies of scale, and neutral technical progress to output growth. Table 13 gives the rates of growth for output, inputs and the value of the scale coefficient. 36

The impressive growth rates of social sector enterprises is revealed here--value added in the social sector grows by nearly cen percent per year. This output growth, however, is matched by an equally impressive job of resource mobilization--capital and labor grow at over six percent per year. The resultant residual for technical progress approaches four percent. Roughly, we conclude that forty percent of output growth is due to technical progress and sixty percent to factor inputs. Since returns to scale are close to unity, its contribution is minimal. Similarly, since the rates of growth of capital and labor are nearly equal, the contribution of "capital deepening" is also slight.

There is a good deal of variability in these findings, but the explanation of growth in terms of "extensive development" with high rates of balanced resource mobilization and substantial technical progress is not contradicted.

If we could forget the large, comparatively stagnant private sector, output growth could even be described as balanced. A discussion of sectoral growth and development policies, however, is beyond the scope of this paper.

The rate of technical progress is from a least squares regression and is a continuous rate of growth; whereas, the rates of growth of capital, labor and output are annual compound rates of growth. For this reason, the elasticity weighted rate of resource growth plus the rate of technical progress is not necessarily equal to the rate of output growth. This is to be revised.

TABLE 13 RATES OF GROWTH AND RETURNS TO SCALE: 1952 to 1964 (in per cents)

		Employment*	Capital*	Weighted*† Inputs	Technical** Progress	Value* Added	Scale Coefficient
Total Social Sector	(000)	6.0	6.5	6.2	3.8	9.8	102
Industry & Mining	(001)	6.8	7.4	7.0	4.5	11.3	102
Agriculture & Fishing	(002)	7.2	8.0	7.1	4.3	8.7	98
Construction	(003)	4.0	9.3	5.0	3.3	7.0	93
Transportation & Communication	(004)	4.5	1.8	3.8	5.0	8.9	95
Handieraft	(005)	8.8	10.6	9.1	2.1	10.4	100
Retail Trade & Other	(006)	5.0	12.3	6.4	1.6	7.6	98
Electricity	(111)	7.0	9.4	7.8	5.2	13.7	101
Coal & Coal Mining	(112)	0.8	3.6	1.7	4.2	6.0	105
Food, Drink & Tobacco	(113)	8.0	7.8	9.1	0.9	9.4	114
Textiles & Clothing	(114)	7.8	6.8	8.1	1.5	9.6	106
Timber & Furniture	(115)	6.4	3.0	5.5	4.2	8.4	99
Paper, Printing & Publishing	(116)	9.6	12.8	9.8	3.8	13.4	97
Leather, Rubber & Footwear	(117)	7.9	7.2	8.6	2.8	11.4	110
Stone, Clay & Glass	(118)	5.8	5.7	6.3	4.2	9.8	109
Chemicals & Petroleum	(119)	9.5	10.2	10.3	5.8	15.4	106
	(120)	9.2	7.2	10.1	3.9	14.8	112
Metal Using	(121)	3.7	5.7	<u>i</u> 4.14	5.9	9.9	115
Metal Making	(122)	22.7	9.0	2.1	8.5	105	
Miscellaneous							

Annual Compound rate of growth from 1952 to 1964.

⁺ The weights are the ordinary covariance estimates from

^{**}Continuous compound rate of growth from least square regression.

DATA APPENDIX

Value added, employment and capital stock statistics are described in this appendix. Complete statistics for the years 1952-1966, for five regions, and 21 industries are presented at the end. For the reader who is already familiar with Yugoslav statistical sources or who is only interested in the broad outlines, a few sentences will suffice.

Value added, in constant 1966 dollars, is considered to be equivalent to the Yugoslav measure of "social product." Since official constant price series are not available for the branches of industry and mining, these missing series are estimated by the method of bi-proportional matrices. Employment is measured on an average annual basis and is taken directly from the publications of the Federal Statistical Bureau. Capital stock statistics are more complex. In addition to our standard sectoral and geographic disaggregation, we present a breakdown of fixed assets according to structures and equipment. The perpetual inventory method is used, and the base period is related to Ivo Vinsky's estimates after conversion to 1966 prices. A unique feature of the estimates is the use of durability weights for aggregating structures and equipment into total fixed assets.

The remaining pages are written for those who find this brief description insufficient.

SECTION A

VALUE ADDED

The Yugoslav concept of "social product" principally differs from "gross value added" in Western terminology because aggregate measures exclude value added originating in the service industries. Since, in this appendix. we only deal with productive (non-service) sectors of the economy, no problem is created by this discrepancy. The statistical yearbooks for 1964 through 1968 present social product in constant 1960 dinars by republics for the seven major economic sectors. For Yugoslavia as a whole, but not by republic, a further disaggregation into 22 sub-branches of industry is also available. Two transformations of this data are necessary: first, all series must be transformed from 1960 prices to 1966 prices; and second, constant price series must be estimated for our 12 branch disaggregation of industry and mining. conversion to 1966 prices is easily performed by multiplying each sector by the percentage increase in prices between those two years. While this procedure does not allow for intra-sectoral price changes, these can be expected to be relatively unimportant in comparison with the inter-sectoral changes. In particular, by shifting to the 1966 price base we benefit from the major rationalization of prices which occurred in the 1965 reform. This reform caused significant upward revision of agricultural and raw materials prices in comparison with producer goods.

The problem of estimating a constant 1966 price, regional series of social product for each of the 12 branches of industry and mining is resolved by applying the method of bi-proportional matrices. This method is available to us because the required data are available in current prices for each year, and the marginal totals for industry and mining and for the five regions are

available in both current and fixed 1966 prices. Thus, for each year we have a two-dimensional array of current price statistics (the rows being the 12 branches of industry and the columns being the five regions), whereas marginal totals in both current and fixed prices are available. What we wish to do is convert the elements of the two-dimensional table from current to 1966 price base.

In mathematically similar situations the method of bi-proportional matrices has been used in demographic analysis by Deming and Steffan and in up-dating input-output matrices by Bacharach. If we assume an independence of row and column effects, then the method of bi-proportional matrices has the characteristic that the derived cell estimates minimize the sum of the squared deviations of their final fixed price values from their original current price values. 3

In practice, rather than first aggregating republics into regions and aggregating the 22 Yugoslav sub-branches of industry into our 12 sub-branches, we perform the bi-proportional estimation for the more disaggregate data and performed the aggregation afterwards. Since the amount of price inflation in industrial branches was comparatively slight between 1952 and 1966, it is felt that with one exception no serious error was introduced by this procedure. For tobacco, where the product is definitely not homogeneous by regions and where different price trends exist for the various

^{1&}quot;On a Least Squares Adjustment of a Sampled Frequency Table When the Expected Marginal Totals are Know," Annals of Mathematical Statistics, Vol. XI (1940), pp. 427-444.

^{2&}quot;Estimating Non-negative Matrices from Marginal Data," <u>International</u> <u>Beonomic Review</u>, Vol. 6, No. 3 (Sept. 1965), pp. 294-310.

³D. Friedlander, "A Technique for Estimating a Contingency Table, Given the Marginal Totals and Some Supplementary Data," <u>Journal of the Royal Statistical Society</u>, CXXIV, Series A, Part 3 (1961), pp. 412-420.

products, an important error may be present. Tobacco, however, is the only one of the 22 branches for which this effect was pronounced.

SECTION B

EMPLOYMENT

Employment in the social sector by industries and republics from 1952 to 1963 is given in Statistical Bulletin 31C. Similar data for subsequent years is contained in the Statistical Yearbooks. From 1952 to 1955, the data in SB310 are obtained from monthly surveys of all firms in the social sector, and after 1955 from semi-annual surveys. Exclusions include apprentices, part time employed, overseas employed, etc. Since 1961 an alternate series obtained from the complex annual reports (KGI) is available. Except for agriculture, the difference between these two series is that the KGI series is based on a 12-period average while the SB310 series is based on a 2-period average. Also, SB310 gives more complete coverage to seasonal employment in agriculture.

In general, the data on employment in the social sector appears quite reliable. Coverage with respect to the number of firms is virtually exhaustive. The principal problem would seem to be the omission of "moonlighters" (included only once as their principal occupation), temporary agricultural workers, and "dead brigades." The latter term refers to fictitious or part-time workers who appear as full-time employees on payroll lists, principally in order to reduce the enterprise's taxes. The "brigades" presumably are included in the employment statistics but there are no published estimates of

Benjamin Ward, "The Firm in Illyria: Market Syndicalism", American Economic Review, Vol. 48, p. 584.

their magnitude. This study assumes their numbers are negligible and no adjustments are made in the employment data which are taken directly from \$88310 and since 1963 from the Statistical Yearbooks.

SECTION C

TIME SERIES DATA APPENDIX

PART I. ESTIMATION OF THE CAPITAL STOCK

Introduction

All firms in the social sector of the Yugoslav economy are required to report, in detail, the nature of their capital account transactions with the bank on whom credits are drawn. This provides the bank with a complete set of investment data distinguishing investments in inventory, equipment, and structures from other transactions of the enterprises. This data is published in highly disaggregate form, by three digit branches of the economy, republics and autonomous regions, private and social sectors (the private sector investments are obtained by much cruder estimates), and by technical types of investment (total, structures, equipment, and other), and provides an unusually sound statistical base for estimating capital stock according to the perpetual inventory method. The recent publication of this data by the Institute for Economic Investments in five volumes entitled Investments 1946-1966, and totaling over one thousand pages, makes a critical contribution to the underlying data block by converting all investments into 1966 prices. These statistics serve as the basis for our capital stock estimates.

Perhaps the most serious possible flaw in these statistics is that, by accident or design, the enterprises may understate reported investments by using bank credits granted for inventory financing to purchase fixed assets. During the years preceding the 1965 Reform, there are numerous allegations of this practice in the newspapers. Insofar as this erroneous reporting exists, it can be expected to dampen reported investments during periods of high demand accompanied by tight bank credits.

Our capital stock estimates are by no means the first for Yugoslavia. The investment data has been available for some years and has been imaginatively and painstakingly exploited by Dr. Ivo Vinski in a long series of publications analyzing the growth of Yugoslav capital stock. Vinski's work is based on the investment series described above. His estimates of the base period capital stock are derived from a detailed inventory of structures and equipment in the social sector made by the government in 1953. More recently, in 1962 and 1966, the government revalued the capital stock of enterprises. Among other things, this revalorization is designed to increase the value of capital assets upon which the firm must pay rent.

A partial list of the most important of Dr. Vinski's works on the Yugoslav capital stock may be helpful. The results of the 1953 census of fixed assets are presented in English in "National Wealth of Yugoslavia at the end of 1953," Income and Wealth, Series VIII (London: Bowes and Bowes, 1959), pages 160-192. These estimates for 1953 are extended to the Republics of Yugoslavia in the publication Prociena Nacionalnog Dogatstva po podrucjina Jugoslaviavije (Zagreb: Ekonomski Institut, 1959). Using the perpetual inventory method the regional estimates are then used to prepare capital stock estimates for the entire post war period in 1956 prices with the result. being presented in Procjena Rasta Fiksnih Fondova po Jugoslavenskin Republikana od 1946 do 1960 (Zagreb: Ekonomski Institut, 1965). More recently, a six sector breakdown for Yugoslavia as a whole is given in 1962 prices for the years 1944 to 1964 in the article "Rat Fiksnih Fondoya Jugoslavije od 1944 do 1964," Ekonomist, Broj for 1965, pp. 667-679. Estimates for the prewar period are also cvailable in "National Product and Fixed Assets in the Territory of Jugoslavia: 1909-1959," Income and Wealth, Series IX (London: Bowes and Bowes, 1961), pp. 206-233.

The 1962 revalorization of fixed assets serves as a basis for the capital stock series presented by Gojko Grdjic, "

These two sources of initial capital stock, the 1953 Survey which underlies Vinski's work, and the 1962 and 1966 revalorization, are both used by us to obtain our base year capital stock figures.

CONTRIBUTION OF THE NEW ESTIMATES

We believe that our estimates make two significant contributions to the existing capital stock figures, as well as a number of minor improvements. The two important contributions are: first, the use of durability weights when aggregating over equipment and structures; and second, the presentation of a disaggregate series of capital stock for the sub-branches of industry by regions and investment type. The need to weight equipment and structures by their respective durabilities arises because, even under idealized circumstances, the dollar cost of an investment good is not a satisfactory measure of that item's contribution to output. For example, assume there are two identical machines, A and B which produce one unit of output except that A has an average length of life of 10 years while machine B has an average length of life of one year. In a perfectly competitive economy which equalizes the discounted value of expected future receipts, the price of machine A will be ten times that of machine B. While dollar expenditure on each of the machines is a satisfactory measure of the cost of the investment goods, it is an inadequate measure of their contribution to current production. Specifically, a dollar of investment in machine B produces ten times the current output that a dollar investment in machine To properly aggregate machines with different life expectancies we must first weight the capital goods by their respective durabilities.

The proper procedure for doing this and the required assumptions are detailed by Haavelmo. 7

For practical reasons we distinguish only between two types of investments, structures and equipments. Each of these aggregates is assumed to have its own average length of life. Let K* denote the unweighted sum of the dollar value of structures, S, and equipment, E. This is the magnitude of fixed assets which the enterprise reports for accounting purposes and is the definition given in (1). In contrast, our measure of fixed assets, which utilizes the durability weights $C_{\bf i}^{\bf s}$ and $C_{\bf i}^{\bf e}$, is given by the variable K in equation (2). These weights depend upon the rate of interest, P;

(1)
$$K_{i}^{*} = S_{i} + E_{i}$$

(2) $K_{i} = S_{i} C_{i}^{S} + E_{i} C_{i}^{e}$
 $C_{i}^{S} = \frac{2 - e^{-pM}}{1 - e^{-pM}}e^{e}$
 $C_{i}^{e} = \frac{1 - e^{-pM}}{1 - e^{-pM}}e^{e}$

the average length of life of equipment $M_{\hat{i}}^{e}$; the average length of life of structures $M_{\hat{i}}^{s}$; and an arbitrary normalization coefficient \widetilde{M}_{\bullet} . Given

⁷Trygve Naavelmo, <u>A Study in the Theory of Investment</u> (Chicago: University of Chicago Press, 1960), pp. 97-102. See also the discussion of this topic in the context of investment functions by Svi Griliches, "Capital Stock in Investment Functions" in <u>Measurement in Economics</u>, Ed. Carl Christ and Others (Stanford: Stanford University Press, 1963), pp. 115-137.

The necessary assumptions concerning market equilibrium used by Haavelmo are: (1) that the rate of interest, P, is expected to remain constant over the life of investment goods; (2) that the annual deflated income from owning capital goods is expected to remain constant over their life; and (3) that the purchase value of capital goods is equal to their discounted future income stream. These are heady requirements, particularly for a Socialist economy, but in some ways they appear to be better satisfied for the unique blend of socialistic planning and enterprise decentralization that constitutes the Yugoslav economy than they would be for the typical capitalist economy. For example, at least in theory, the central planning of investments should eliminate many of the uncertainties that are associated with uncoordinated, independent investment decisions. These uncertainties cause investments in particular areas to have high rick premiums that raise the rate of interest which is to be used in discounting future receipt streams. Indeed, our estimation problems for the variable P are quite simple since: for the great majority of firms, an unchanging charge of 6% per annum was the lending rate of the Yugoslav government.

estimates of these four coefficients we may construct a capital stock series for the variables K whose usefulness in production function analysis is markedly superior to the variable K*. The magnitude of the differences in the coefficients C^S and C^e , and the significant differential in the rate of growth of S and E in the Yugoslav economy suggests that Haavelmo's conjecture that ..."It is my guess that such a procedure (conversion to an equalidurability basis), even if it is very rough and approximate, would be a definite improvement over the customary, but unfounded, method of measuring K simply as $S + E_*$ "

The second important contribution of our capital stock series is a disaggregation of industry into its sub-branches. Until this time, there has been no capital stock series available for these branches either for Yugoslavia as a whole or by regions. Our estimates, available by five regions, are presented for 12 branches of industry. These twelve branches represent an aggregation of the 22 branches available in the Yugoslav three digits classifications. The aggregation used is presented in Table 1. The regional disaggregation of capital stock into our five categories is particularly difficult to make since it requires a division of the Republic of Serbia into its components, the Uza Podruce, the Vojovdina, and the Kosmet. For time periods prior to 1952 there is very little data available for these autonomous regions. The above-mentioned publication of the IEI presents, for the first time publicly, investment data for these areas.

Among the minor improvements we would include the conversion of all of our series to 1966 prices. Vinski's regionally disaggregate data is

⁸<u>Ibid</u>., p. 101.

only available in 1966 prices and his most recent national data is in 1962 prices. Our use of the post-1965 reform prices embodies the rationalizations of the price system which is an important goal of that reform. Another distinctive feature, if not an unmixed improvement, is the use of exponential decay in estimating retirements. Vinski's capital stock estimates deduct a retirement component apparently based upon the assumption of a "one horse shay." That is, an item of capital with an expected average length of life M produces for exactly M years and then becomes totally obsolete and is replaced. In contrast, exponential decay assumes that, in each year a fraction of the still-existing capital stock is subject to replacement. While there is scant empirical evidence for choosing between these two assumptions, retirement according to exponential decay is considerably simpler for computational purposes and is more pleasing to our a priori intuition. Computational simplicity is achieved because retirements in any given period are a function only of the existing unretired capital stock and do not depend upon the time stream of past investments. We turn now from our discussion of what is new about our capital stock series to a more detailed discussion of the method used, and particularly of the major problems encountered.

PROBLEMS OF ESTIMATION

Estimation of capital stock according to the perpetual inventory method demands the availability of two sets of data: One for investments and the other for a base period measure of capital. In addition to these

A discussion of this is available in Haavelmo, <u>Ibid.</u>, p. 127, and in Griliches, <u>op. cit.</u>, p. 119. An empirical study of the importance of this assumption is given by Helen StoneTice, "Depreciation, Obsolescence, and the Measurement of the Aggregate Capital Stock of the United States, 1900-1962." The Review of Income and Wealth, Series 13, No. 2, June 1967, pp. 119-154.

two requirements and their attendant problems, our use of durability weights when aggregating structures and equipment means that we must somehow obtain estimates of the average lengths of life for these two types of investment. Since the IEI investment data described above is made to order for our purpose, no further discussion of this most critical item is required. Therefore, we concentrate our discussion on the estimates of base period capital stock, and the average length of life of equipment and structures. As a preliminary to these discussions equations (3) through (7) present the formulas used in computation. Equations (3) and (4) define the stock of structures and the retirement of structures as:

(3)
$$S_{ijt} = S_{ijt-1} + C_{i}^{s} l_{ijt}^{s} - R_{ijt}^{s}$$
, and

(4) $R_{ijt}^{s} = \frac{S_{ijt-1}}{M_{i}^{s}}$

Equations (5) and (6) define the stock of equipment and the retirement of equipment as:

(5)
$$E_{ijt} = E_{ijt-1} + C_i^e l_{ijt}^e - R_{ijt}^e$$
, and

(6)
$$R_{ijt}^e = \frac{E_{ijt-1}}{M_i^e}$$

Total capital stock is then obtained as the direct sum.

(7)
$$K_{ijt} = E_{ijt} + S_{ijt}$$

In the above, l_{ijt}^s and l_{ijt}^e refer to investment in structures and equipment, where i refers to industry, j to region, and t to time, and C_i^e and C_i^s are as defined in (1). A value of P of .06 and M of 21.1 is selected. The latter is the average length of life we estimate for the total capital stock in the productive part of the social sector of the economy.

THE PROBLEM OF AVERAGE LENGTH OF LIFE

Consider first the problem of estimating the average length of life of equipment and structures, Me and Ms. Lacking both a table describing the expected length of life of physical items of capital stock, as well as an enumeration of the various types of physical capital, we must instead use financial data on depreciation changes and the book value of fixed assets to infer these lengths of life or for each of the industry groups and for structures, equipment, and total capital. However, even using this indirect procedure, lack of data prohibits us from deriving regional estimates of each of these magnitudes. Actually, this may be an advantage since regional differences in depreciation rates may reflect differences in depreciation policy rather than differences in the durability of capital (A leading Yugoslavic economist suggests that during this period the southern republics are more inclined to underestimate depreciation in order to increase distributable earnings than are the northern republics who are more confident that contributions to the depreciation fund will ultimately become available to the enterprise itself so that such contributions are both a tax offset to current income and a source of future investment fund.) In any event, our application of national coefficients to the various republics presumes that the durability of capital goods does not vary regionally, at least not within the 10 sectors for which we make estimates. Our length of life estimates are based upon the fact that Yugoslav enterprises compute depreciation according to the straight line basis. 10

Dragomin Vojnic, <u>Investicije na Podrucju jugoslavije 1947-1950</u>, (Zagreb: Ekonomski Institut, 1960), p. 198.

According to this procedure depreciation in any year where an enterprise is computed as a simple fraction 1/M of the book value of all undepreciated assets. Given data on the book value of equipment and structures, and data on the annual flow of depreciation charges which are attributable to equipment and to structures, it is a simple matter to estimate M as the ratio of the book value of capital to the depreciation flow. In practice our data is an average for the years 1963, 1964 and 1965. The choice of these periods is predicated on the fact that the revalorization of capital at the end of 1962 provides a good initial point, that the second revalorization of capital in 1966 makes the incorporation of this and later years misleading, and that an average value over three years reduces noise. The sources of our data are given in a footnote to Table 2. The cited Statistical Bulletins are unusual in that they present the accumulated depreciation fund separately for equipment and structures, thus making it possible to estimate depreciation over the three year period as the difference between the end period depreciation fund in 1965 and the initial depreciation fund in 1962. A valid objective to this procedure is that it neglects that totally depreciated assets are constantly being removed from both the book value of fixed assets account and the depreciation fund account. While it would be possible to estimate the magnitude of these removals by using round estimates of M and then going back and obtaining a second round set of M corrected for this phenomena, it is not felt that this would alter the estimates sufficiently to justify the additional labors. complete set of average length of life estimates used in our durability aggregation are presented in Table 2. For the Total Productive Sector, an average length of life for both structures and equipment of 21.1 years

(15.9 years for equipment and 33.5 years for structures) appears to be a reasonable magnitude. For individual sectors, the high values for Transportation and Communication, and Handicraft appear proper, as does the low value for Construction, and Industry and Mining. The rather low, 16.4 estimate for Agriculture appears somewhat surprising to this author but it is not unreasonable. Our estimates for the sub-branches of industry present some difficulties since, in a few cases, removal of items from the depreciation fund does cause unduly small values for depreciation that result in unusually long lengths of life, in one case infinite. To correct for this we impose the restriction that MS be no greater than 50 years, and Me be no greater than 25 years. In the cases where these restrictions are imposed, the unconstrained values are given in parenthesis.

THE PROBLEM OF THE INITIAL CAPITAL STCCK

The most difficult problem is to obtain base year estimates of the capital stock. For the six major sectors of the economy there is no serious problem since we have Dr. Vinski's estimates for 1946 available by republics in 1956 prices. For these sectors only three adjustments are necessary: (1) use the implicit lEl investment price deflators to adjust to the 1966 price base; (2) separate the Uze Podruce and Vojvodina from the aggregate for Serbia in order to compute our North-South aggregates; and (3) remove estimates for the private sector from Vinski's totals which are for both the private and social sectors. The solution to the first problem is already stated, the solution to the second problem is identical to the method we used to estimate the branch data described

and private sector capital stock, uses estimates for agricultural and handicraft also developed by Vinski but which are not widely known. 11 Using Vinski's data it is possible to estimate an initial capital stock for any year since 1946. From one point of view the most satisfactory year would be 1953 since that is the date of the capital census from which Vinski obtains his estimates. Thus for 1953, his use of the one-horse-shay replacement assumption has no bearing on the estimates made for that single year. This is not true of other years. Nevertheless, this is not the base year which we choose for making our estimates. The reason for this we now explain.

The estimation of a base year capital stock value for the six major sectors may not be a problem, but the estimations of this variable for the twelve sub-branches of industry is. Consequently, our selection of a base year is designed to facilitate our estimation for the sub-branches. With respect to this problem there is no really satisfactory solution. However, there is one important factor which suggests that even substantial estimation errors for the base year 1946 may be unimportant to the value of the capital stock for the years after 1952 -- the years which are our principal concern. This factor is simply that, particularly in the branches of industry, investment growth is so great that by 1952 it swamps any errors which are made in the initial capital stock values for 1946. Our tactic then is to make very crude estimates for 1946 and rely on the rapid growth of investment until 1952 to make our errors unimportant. For this reason we elect to use 1946 as our base year for estimating the capital stock. The growth of investment after that date also tends to make the replacement error induced by using Vinski's estimates relatively unimportant.

¹¹ Ivo Vinski, Proc jera Rasta Fiksnih Fondova Jugoslavije od 1946 do

Estimation of capital stock for the branches of industry in 1946 is done by projecting backwards the average capital-output ratio for the years 1963. 1964 and 1965 to 1946, and multiplying this figure by estimates of output measured in 1966 prices for that year. This is an extremely crude procedure both because the capital-output ratio is not constant over the 20 year period and because adequate regional data on real output is not available for 1946, particularly not for the autonomous provinces. A partial solution to the problem of changing capital output ratios is obtained by forcing our total for industry in 1946 to be equal to Vinski's. This is equivalent to assuming that the decrease for all branches is the same as that for industry as a whole. The absence of satisfactory output statistics for the period before 1952 causes us to use indexes of real physical product as proxies for a true index of social product. Some measure of the crudeness of these two procedures may be obtained by comparing our unconstrained original estimates with the Vinski total for Yugoslav industry in 1946 (after adjustment to 1966 prices). Our original estimates are 62 % of the Vinski estimates for 1946. The fact that our estimates are below Vinski's is consistent of the observation that over the entire 20 year period the Yugoslav capital output ratio has fallen. Therefore, it is appropriate to look upon our correction of this figure to the Vinski total as a correction for the decrease in the capital-output ratio. Although we present our initial capital stock estimates for 1946 to the critical view of scholars, in order to emphasize the crudity of the early period estimates, we do not present capital stock estimates for the period 1947-1951. After 1952 it is judged that the errors of this estimation procedure become unimportant.

YUGOSLAV PRODUCTION STATISTICS: TOTAL PRODUCTIVE SECTO
1472056 1627113 1803176 1792242 193 82317 87094 91931 96161 10 37072 39359 42010 44285 4 21931 24087 26682 27002 3
1953 1954 1955 1956 770170 854313 943238 955001 1 41667 43355 45018 46718 19008 19770 20658 21624 11771 13231 14587 14866
1953 1954 1955 1956 701836 772795 859938 837241 40652 43738 46912 49445 18065 19590 21351 22663 10158 10855 12094 12137
SERBIA PROPER 1952 1953 1954 1955 1956 351455 376949 404924 462446 442498 15406 16525 17612 19209 20649 6683 7265 7802 8754 9535 74847 4610 5062 5596 5414
1953 1954 1955 1956 324937 367871 397492 394743 24084 26086 27663 28758 10757 11747 12558 13089 5550 5792 6499 6722

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	1966 333248 21111 12743 7660	1966 217363 13292 7963 5227	1966 115685 7819 4760 2432	1966 65965 3175 2013	1966- 49920 4644 2767 1155
	1965 312708 20279 12292 6362	1965 196357 12736 7632 4364	1965 116351 7543 4660 1997	1965 68961 3023 1917 1040	1965 47390 4520 2743 958
	1964 315639 19486 11768 6324	1964 195799 12272 7317 4549	11964 119640 7213 4451 1774	1964 72038 2897 1820 857	1964 47802 4317 2631 917
	1963 311223 17986 10807 5817	1963 195041 11313 6715 4258	1963 116182 6673 4092 1558	1963 70072 2671 1657 739	1963 46110 4001 2435 819
	1962 208332 16658 9980 5407	1962 198233 10339 6108 3852	1962 110099 6318 3872 1555	1962 69858 2545 1580 714	1962 #0241 3774 2292 840
10 1966	1961 327634 15442 9185 4654	1961 216679 9411 5474 3203	1961 110955 6031 5711	1961 71439 2432 1498 704	1961 39516 3598 2212 747
1952	1960 268783 14286 8414 4525	1960 172955 8754 5043 2528	1960 95828 5531 3372 1997	1960 58594 2285 1405 656	1960 37234 3247 1967 1341
STATISTICS. : AND FISHIN	1959 245164 12646 7352 4332	1959 7925 4645 . 2477	1959 90100 4721 2706 1855	1959 54962 2033 1195 530	3512 2688 1512 1325
PRODUCTION S'	212926 10551 5712 2713	132751 52751 6564 3538 1706	1958 80175 3987 2174	1958 47104 1783 1031 323	1958 33071 2204 1142 685
- a - 4	190488 190488 19163 1934 2420	1957 119447 5655 2747 1398	1957 71041 3508 1788 1022	1957 #1650 1582 874 282	1957 29391 1926 913
YUGOSLAV	1956 184642 8175 3697 1517	117851 5062 2248 877	1956 66791 3113 11449 640	1956 37862 1415 736 219	1956 28929 1698 713 421
	1955 175274 7651 3292 1839	1955 110474 4786 1989 943	1955 64800 2866 1303 895	1955 35323 1269 648 324	1955 29477 1597 655 571
	1954 150850 7404 3062 1803	1954 96417 4659 1863 1087	1954 54433 2745 1199 716	1954 29172 1199 587 237	1954 25261 1546 612 479
<u> </u>	133208 7250 2921 1849	1953 84065 4600 1787 982	A 1953 13 49143 10 2651 10 1134 19 867 PROPER	1953 27744 1165 561 212	1953 21399 1486 573 655
,•, -	1952 127660 7153 2874 2146	1952 80697 4633 1814 937	1952 46963 2520 1060 1209 SERBIA PR	1952 24408 1120 536 531	1952 22555 1400 524 628
	LABOR CAPITAL EGUIPMENT VALUE ADDED	LABOR S CAPITAL ECUIPMENT VALUE ADDED	LABOR CAPITAL EGUIPHENT VALUE ABDED SOUTH LESS SI	LABOR CAPITAL EQUIPMENT VALUE ANDED SERBIA PROPER	LABOR CAPITAL EQUIPMENT VALUE ADDED

YUGOSLAV PRODUCTION STATISTICS, 1952 TO 1966 INDUSTRY AND MINING

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196 500	83273 52295 35236	1966 698200 34986 21932 18797	1956 659800 46287 30363 16439	1966 332400 19587 12203 7743	1966 327400 28679 15158 8695
1.96 758	78314 48857 33118	15521 33603 20990 17483	1965 662255 44710 27867 15635	1965 331688 17966 11121 7356	1965 530575 26722 16723 8279
36 74	73949 45786 30575	1964 690750 32251 20022 16262	1964 627992 41698 25763 14313	1964 310118 16660 10290 6589	1964 1 317874 25014 15449 7723
221	67757 41213 26336	1963 644629 29763 18249 14315	1963 577331 37994 22964 12021	1963 287949 15420 9419 5540	1963 289382 22548 13520 6481
196 504	62416 37254 22783	1962 615211 27372 16571 12512	1962 549837 35044 20683 10271	1962 269945 14469 8709 4664	1962 273892 20548 11947 5606
96	57670 34108 21223	1961 599404 25167 15052 11702	1961 528271 32503 19057 9520	1961 258616 13609 8072 4314	1961 269653 18866 10957 5207
196 196	53164 31062 19867	1960 274074 23107 13656 10864	1950 497895 30057 17406 9002	1960 12627 7358 3953	1960 250450 17400 10019 5050
195 135	49416 28430 17481	1959 534746 21340 12390 9562	1959 456605 28076 16040 7918	1959 11738 6698 3482	1959 229207 16307 9311 4436
195 876	46918 26688 15649	1958 20199 20190 11581 8484	1958 425562 26728 15107 7165	1958 214736 11021 6186 3120	1958 210826- 15674- 8888- 4045-
1957	44890 25267 13983	1957 468334 19290 10922 7694	1957 387581 25600 14346 6068	197613 10395 10395 5758 2698	1957 189968 15170 8552 3390
	42815 23980 11918	1956 434951 18420 10358 6809	1956 353200 24396 13622 5109	1956 180340 9853 5452 2408	1956 172860 .14506 8132 2701
	40594 22574 10847	1955 415095 17754 9936 6409	1955 332999 22839 12638 4438	1955 169098 9090 4921 2107	1955 163901 13710 7678 2330
1954	37314 · 20587 9505	1954 377799 16554 9427 5678	1954 292836 20460 11160 3828	1954 146507 7906 4104 1815	1954 146229 12513 7015
19 53 591979	5081 3 15544 6511	1953 354244 15766 1624 5527	1953 207735 10047 9720 3254 0PER	1953 120598 7124 5035 1515	1953 120137 10080 6082 1739
1952	29773 36074 7587	1952 319598 34515 3113 4563	1952 18 282573 287 15257 19 8 7961 9 8 7561 9 8 7561 9	1952 122364 6230 3127 1454	1952 120209 3932 4789 1570
	CAPITAL FOUIPMENT VALUE ADDED	LASOR 1 CORP FACT CAST FACT CONTRIBUTE TO VALUE ADDED SOUTH	LARON CAPITAL CAPITAL CAPITAL VALUE ADDED SOUTH LESS SE	LABOR: FORPITAL FOUR PALLE FOUR ANDED VALUE ANDED SEREIA PROPER	LASOR CAPTTAL GOUIPHENT PALL

YUGOSLAV PRODUCTION STATISTICS. 1952 TO 1966

1966 290929 4405 3467 5639	5 4 7 5 5 5 5 5 5 5 5 5 5 5 5 5 5 5 5 5	1966 163279 2482 1993 3070	1966 73453 1258 1002 1262	1966 89826 1224 991 1608
1965 331337 4267 3360 5397	150777 150777 1865 1430 2466	1965 180560 2403 1930 2931	101365 101360 1139 1199 1199	1965 79200 1203 976 1733
1964 358791 4127 3246 5836	1964 168340 1801 1380 2603	1964 190451 2325 1866 3234	1964 111094 1169 929 1582	1964 79357 1157 937 1652
1963 330503 2645 2824 5164	. 1963 151806 1598 1220 2502	1963 178697 2047 1604 2662	1963 102219 1065 834 991	1963 76478 982 771 1671
1962 328250 3340 2578 4356	1962 145077 1432 1088 2091	1962 182173 1907 1490 2265	1962 105235 993 779 853	1962 76938 914 711
1961 335357 2365 2392 4379	1961 143626 1313 1002 2095	1961 191731 1772 1390 2284	1961 109634 901 717 869	1961 82097 872 673
316452 2776 2776 2120 3596	1960 132049 1196 904 1777	1960 184403 1580 1216 1820	1960 104781 815 637 792	1960 79622 765 579
274482 274482 2548 1919 2993	1959. 116396. 1086 811 1467	1959 158086 1461 1108 1526	1959 86475 765 592	1959 71611 696 516 866
264330 254330 2377 1758 2515	1958 110181 995 726 1204	1958. 154149. 1384 1032 1311	1958 81380 727 555 580	1958 72769 657 478 731
254643 2152 2152 2352 2352	1957 107472 883 621 1110	1957 147371 1269 930 1242	1957 85676 667 505 544	1957 61695 601 425 698
228891 1869 1869 1277 2009	1956 92059 722 462 928	1956 136832 1147 815	1956 79290 591 429 499	1956 57542 556 385 582
1955 305154 1804 1240 2759	1955 116689 696 450 1223	1955 188465 1108 789 1536	1955 112926 558 403 819	1955 75539 549 387 718
1954 288855 1696 1173 2982	1954 117365 654 427 1253	1954 171490 1041 747 1728	1954 95082 525 361 935	1954 76408 516 366 793
1953 255151 1528 1060 2681	1953 101671 582 378 1076	1953 154480 947 682 1605	PROPER 52 1953 59 91591 20 472 33 341 54 936	1953 62239 475 341 669
1952 217001 1299 677 2427	1952 8480 475 299 645	1952 132121 824 578 1582	KGIĄ 198 6018 429 229 86	1952 51962 404 285 719
LABOR CAPITAL GOUPMENT VALUE ADDED ROLTH	LABOR CAPITAL IGOIPAENT YALUE ADDED SOUTH	LAROR CAPITAL EGUIPMENT VALUE ADDED	SOUTH LESS SE LABOR CAPITAL EQUIPMENT VALUE ADDED	LABOR CAPITAL EQUIPMENT VALUE ANDED

YUGOSLAV PRODUCTION STATISTICS, 1952 TO 1966 TO 1966 TRANSPORT AND COMMUNICATION

1966	1966	1966	1966	1966
246600	133300	112700	56000	56700
40062	20536	19527	8277	11250
17219	9609	7610	3531	4079
7636	3940	3695	1506	2190
1965	1965	1965	1965	1965
250826	138443	112383	56690	55693
39029	20020	19009	8108	10902
16490	9151	7339	3406	3934
7205	3853	3352	1373	1979
1964 246300 38197 15949 6765	136227 19659 8835 3696	1964 110161 18538 7114 3069	1964 55130 8041 3328 1308	1964 55031 10498 3786 1762
231032 36633 15072 6295	129344 18865 8361 3406	101688 17767 17767 6711 2889	1963 51959 7854 3163 1188	1963 49729 9913 3528 1701
1962	1962	1962	1962	1962
223715	121631	102084	50631	51453
35813	18344	17469	7656	9813
14652	8090	6563	3056	3506
5860	3098	2762	1125	1637
1961 203161 34845 14164 5582	1961 111342 17856, 7828 2878	1961 96819 16989 6336	1961 47249 7379 2911 1085	1961 49570 9610 3425 1619
1960	1960	1960	1960	1960
195886	104588	91298	44144	47154
33694	17478	16216	6918	9299
13683	7597	6086	2757	3329
5352	2779	2573	1003	1570
1959	1959	1959	1959	1959
185183	99614	85569	40075	45494
32483	17064	15419	6411	9009
13166	7364	5802	2564	3239
4500	2395	2104	848	1256
1958 173039 31426 12631 4005	1958 93298 16609 7078 2212	1958 79741 14816 5553 1793	1958 37511 6037 2399 721	4258 8780 3155 1072
1957 160261 30671 12207 3630	1957 85135 16169 6816 2022	1957 75126 14502 5391 1608	1957 35465 5888 2336 658	39661 8614 3055 950
1956	1956	1956	1956	1956
152086	81181	70905	33842	37063
30149	16021	14129	5549	8579
11818	6698	5121	2109	3012
3163	1755	1408	603	805
1955	1955	1955	1955	1955
1953	85567	69762	33324	36438
29857	15891	13966	5348	8618
11639	6598	5041	2014	3026
3077	1641	1437	577	860
1954	1954	1954	1954	1954
144734	76105	68629	32126	36503
29813	15878	13935	5285	8650
11736	6593	5141	2033	3108
2598	1425	1173	469	704
1953	1953	1953	1953	1953
135575	71725	63550	29033	34817
29988	15958	14030	5514	8716
11993	6700	5293	2090	3203
2432	1231	1200	501	700
1952	1952	1952 1	1952	1952
139501	74103	65393 63	23632	30561
30166	15080	14085 14	5539	3747
12373	•6470	5503 5	2159	3343
2229	1145	1 1083 1	415	668
LABOR CAPITAL EQUIPMENT VALUE ADDED HORTH	LABOR CAPITAL EGUIPMENT VALUE ADDED	LABOR CAPITAL EGUIFBENT VALUE ADDED SOUTH LESS SE	LAGOR CAPITAL COUPMENT VALUE ADDED SERBIA PROPËR	LABOR CAPITAL EQUIPMENT VALUE ADDED

YUGOSLAV PRODÚCTION STATISTICS, 1952 TO 1966 :

	1966 177851	1926	3309		1966	90108	695	1904		1966	81743	608	512	14.05		ò	1966) (70.5	591	 - 		1966	90844	407	261	814	
1	1965 214605	80 -	30		- (004021	65	1913		-	20	754	467	1337			ついかまれ	`	100	602	!		1965	50 / 43	390	246	785	
	1964 220330	1693	3153		196	123625	608	1813		1964	96705	703	432	1340			1964	000	000	561	1	:	196	52615	371	233	779	
·	1963 209015	1511	2767		1963	11/10/	548	1598		196	90	618	373	1169			1965	100	047.	515	}		196	51493	N	0	ທ	
	1962 215683	36	2573		9	118825	၁င	N)	•	1962	85	558	330	1038		٠. (7967	Э (707	1 1 1 1 1 1 1 1 1 1 1 1 1 1 1 1 1 1 1		-	1962	52776	304	186	601	
	1961 213476	1235	2539		1961	119978	t' #	1538		9	49	501	σ	0	•	(1961	,	722	727	!	:	1961	49784	274	168.	559	
	1960	O 4	o ~	-	1960	107962	7 0 0 7	1366	·~ .	1960	^	450	265	903		ì	1961	† (200	392			1960	46313	250	153	511	
. <u>.</u>	1959 171568	955 773	2054		195	寸 u	βQ	1228		95	9	393	N	N		1	155	٦, ن	o (30.00	1	-	1959		224	134	664	
=•	1958 154435	ഗര	コオ		195	84763	0 0 0 0	1089		1958	69672	348	201.	756	_	1	700	+0+00	140	, OE		-	195	39268	0	S	ທ .	
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•	1956 120591	736	1417		1956	66914	- 40.0 - 71.0	873		1956	53677	300	174	244		1	1956	10622	711	000) I		1956	30690	183	108	N	
	1955 109685	701	1285	:	**	7690 9	0 T C	801		1955	48991	285	165	483		1	1955	C4777	106	0 0 0 0 0)		1955	26746	179	106	276	
•	1954 87683	660	1034	•	1954	5 0500	24C	657		1954	37183	268	. 155	376			1904	700/ 7 .	υ. υ. τ	15 0 15 0			1954	20182	173	102	217	
	1953	613	92.1		1953	45165	558 545	583		1953	34,179	255	149	336	OPER	1	~ ,,	12227) (2)	133)		1953	18950	168	100	204	
	1952 73796	592	550 878		1952	39760	340	506		1952	34036	243	140	372	LESS SERBIA PROPER		1952	00/01	ວ ! ສີ	4.33			1952	13306	163	6	714	
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YUGOSLAV PRODUCTION STATISTICS, 1952 TO 1966

TRADE AND OTHER

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-	ā — ii — ai	1966 275200 23134 5633 8904	1966 252500 23174 4952 7822	1966 128000 11694 2363 3229	1966 124000 11460 2588 4592
	1965 92484 92484 9205 15782	.1955. 262030 21358. 5355 8409	1965 241015 21126 4450 7373	1965 127278 10497 2096 3046	1965 113737 10629 2353 4327
	1964 500820 38129 8723 15261	1964 258251 19037 4768 8116	1964 242569 19092 3954 7145	1964 129761 9482 1846 2836	1964 112803 9611 2108 4259
	1963 32900 7347 13613	1963 240978 16428 4061 7239	1953 226901 16472 3286 6374	1963 123456 8393 1557 2621	1963 103445 8079 1729 3753
	468796 28369 6245 11989	1962 242438 14245 3499 6338	226358 14124 2746 5652	1962, 120245 7467 1303 2300	1962 106113 6658 6658 3351
	1961 440298 24427 5388 11519	223456. 12126. 3005 6015	1961 216842 12300 2332 7, 5504	1961 116987 6420 1108 2267	1961 99655 5880 1274 3236
	1960 380559 21312 4765 10710	1960 190534 10541 2646 5593	1960 190025 10771 2118 5116	1960, 103824 5559 957 2159	1960 86201 5212 1152 2957
	1959 348315 18441 4257 9487	1959 176509 9111 2370 4878	1959 171606 9330 1887 4609	1959 94316 4723 1865	1959 77490 4607 1023 2745
	1958 326345 16123 3902 6524	1958 162746 7956 2093 4480	1958 163599 8168 1809 4044	1959 89563 4072 1652	1958 75035 4095 931 2352
	333559 14137 3505 7989	1957 167790 6956 1846 4196	19571 165769 7181 1659	1957; 94158 3536 800	1957 71611 3645 859 2186
	1956 317881 12417 3083 6978	1956 162045 6056 1602 3624	1956 155836 6350 1482 3355	1956 88177 3124 743 1465	1956 67659 3236 739 1689
	1955 154719 5475 1440 3570	1955 309640 11324 2855 6875	1955 154921 5848 1415 3305	1955 89530 2838 709 1561	1955 65391 3010 706 1744
	1954 284356 10207 2414 6165	1954 136132 4913 1226 3131	1954 146224 55289 1188	1954 84936 2602 644 1447	63288 63288 2688 2688 544
	1953 275799 9125 2191 5738	1953 133300 4403 1105 2842	1953 142199 4722 1087 2896	1953 83754 8363 8363 1313	1953 58745 2559 498 1583
	1952 260676 3476 2009 5880	1952 135032 4135 1017 2951	1952 151644 4341 992 2929	ERETA PR 1952 79962 2217 525 525 1375	1952 51042 2124 467 1553
	LABOR CAUTIAL EGUIPBEMT VALUE ABOED	LANGR CANTAL ECHIPRENT VALUE ADDED SOUTH	LAUGH CATTFAL COUPPENT VELUE ANDED	SOUTH LESS SERVIA PROPER 1952 1 1952 1 1952 3 CAPTAL 2217 2 ECUIPMENT 2217 2 ECUIPMENT 525 VALUE APPED 1375 1	LASSOR CAPITAL EGGIPHENT VALUE ADDED

YUGOSLAV-PRODUCTION STATISTICS, 1952 TO 1966 COAL AND COAL MINING

CANACAL CASA CASA		•	•			
1962 1963 1954 1955 1956 1957 1958 1960 1961 1962 1963 1964 1965		1966 81100 6469 3830 1577	1966 24760 1839 957 502	196 640 463 237 107	196 620 172 93 75	196 020 280 194 32
1962 1963 1964 1965 1956 1967 1958 1960 1961 1962 1963 1964 1965 1964	•	00000	1965 26166 1818 932 492	196 744 444 273 111	196 673 167 79	196 071 277 132 32
1962 1954 1955 1956 1956 1956 1960 1960 1961 1962 1963 1964 1965		196 112 112 601 346 159	404 648 80	196 565 421 254 107	1983 1583 767	196 042 263 172 31
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		LASIOR CAPTAL CAPTAL CAPTAL CAPTAL VALUE, ADDLO	LANCH CAPITAL GAUT-WEINT VALUE ADDED	LANDE CANTIAL EGUIPAGNI VALUE ADDED	SOUTH LESS SE LALIOR CAPITAL ECUIPMENT VALUE ADDED SERBIA PROPER	LANDR CAPTAL ECUPAENT VALUE ADDED

YUGOSLAV PRODUCTION STATISTICS, 1952 TO 1966

1966 36000 17057 8834 2255	17200 6353 3409 1092	1966 18800 10704 5425 1163	1965 10403 4651 23461 6665	1966 8400 6023 3079 497
1965 36038 15842 8163 2131	1965 17450 5098 3258 1006	1965 18588 9743 4905 1125	1965 10363 4091 2041 597	1965 8285 8653 2865 527
1964 33688 14754 7698 2103	1964 16690 5814 3123 1029	1964 16998 8939 4575 1074	1964 9495 3546 1814 576	1964 7503 5393 2762 493
1963 32309 13594 7055 1945	1963 15806 5425 2937 995	1963 16503 8169 4128 950	1963 9289 3226 1674 519	1953 7214 4943 2454 431
1962 33512 12954 6709 1590	1962 16554 5187 2820 814	16958 16958 7768 3889	1962 8907 3103 1622 404	1962 8051 4664 2267 371
1961 30771 12212 6378 1459	1961 ·	1961 15344 7256 3645 704	1961 8465 2992 1569 372	1961 6879 4264 2076 332
1960 29101 11159 5801 1156	1960 14784 4541 2534 623	1960 14317 6618 3267, 533	1960 7863 2773 1434 313	1960 6454 3645 1833 220
1959 26275 10164 5165 1154	1959 13549 4037 2205 627	1959 12726 6127 2960 527	1959 6898 2575 1303 306	5828 5828 5858 2853
1958 23762 9398 4667 1051	1958 12141 3666 1979 598	1958 11621 5732 2687 453	1958 6305 2391 1166	1968 3316 1961 1961
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1956 20327 8335 3984 727	1956 10673 3101 1597 , 484	1956 9654 5234. 243	1956 4790 2201 1071 139	1956 4854 3033 1316 104
1955 17758 7675 3602 617	1955 10329 2837 1458	1955 7429 4838 2144 167	• 1955 3992 2004 925 104	1955 3437 2834 1219 63
1954 16123 6611 3046 530	1954 8975 2501 • 1261 391	1954 7148 4110 1785 140	1954 3374 1764 765	1954 3774 2407 1020 62
1953 14197 5650 2586 465	1953 7804 2204 1103 358	1953 3446 3446 1483 107	1953 3576 1481 649 57	1953 1963 1965 834 50
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LABOR CAPITAL FGUIPPENT VALUL ADDED	LABOR CAPITAL FOUPHENT YALUE ADDED. SOJTH	LALOR CAPITAL ESUIDSEUT VALUE AEUED SOUTH LESS SE	LABOR CAPITAL COUIPRENT VALUE ADUED SERVIA PROPER	LABOR CAPITAL FOURPAENT VALUE ASDED

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50500 2031 1214 1406 27700 799 527 666 21700 5057 5057 3258 71200 2976 1812 1846 31228 4675 2699 2924 76859 2839 1752 1550 30202 749 492 692 54369 1986 1147 1364 (27343 4699 2787 2739 52558 1893 1088 1164 74785 2806 1700 1555 8712 697 459 615 17811 4430 2619 2320 70222 2640 1602 1389 25037 653 428 463 47589 1790 1017 931 64183 2450 1489 1194 45843 1689 938 727 0026 4138 2426 1920 22236 603 388 337 (07071 3890 2251 1883 62859 2262 1360 44212 1628 891 746 1937 568 363 362 58659 2002 1187 1103 04268 3550 2013 1862 45599 1547 826 759 25113 543 543 334 411 24003 519 310 400 95160 3231 1806 1675 53926 1774 1034 972 41234 1457 771 704 90669 2984 1627 1619 50506 1650 935 827 40163 1334 692 791 24107 479 282 445 46172 1483 816 761 20500 417 248 361 34615 1208 627 690 80737 2690 1443 1451 31843 1069 539 651 74239 2382 1242 1291 42396 1313 703 641 19515 363 208 402 68455 2117 1102 1112 29199 965 486 584 6767 327 185 358 1955 1151 616 527 14070 309 171 314 24877 908 454 577 1250 1976 1022 1090 1954 1068 568 513 320.13 320.13 935 914 914 55,53 161 211 3164 842 424 471 9554 282 252 252 252 COULPMENT VALUE ADUED SCUTH LESS ECULPRENT VALUE ADDE LANOR CANITAL

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LABOR CAPITAL FOUTPACNI VALUE ARRED

SERBIA PROPER

VALUE ABUED

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YUGOSLAV PRODUCTION STATISTICS, 1952 TO 1966
TEXTILES AND CLOTHING

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1966 44682 1733 1219 907	1956 123300 2514 1745 2667	1966 44600 880 633 808	1966 90100 2667 1900 1774	1966 46100 1777 1267 969
1965 121717 2425 1671 2625	1965 207741 4993 3483 4152	1965 86024 2569 1912 1627	1965/7 415/2 035 593 720	1965 213400 5131 3645 4441
1964 195871 4805 3318 3947	1964 115996 2371 1623 2488	. 1964 79875 2434 1693 1459	,1964 37626 776 539 649	1964 42249 1658 1154 810
1963 181799 4399 2956 3527	1963 108940 2228 1499 2244	.1963 72859 2171 1457 1283	1963 35124 653 435 600	1963 37735 1508 1022 683
1962 3992 2655 3159	1962 103887 2083 1390 2099	1962 66855 1908 1246 1060	1962 31344 567 358 444	1962 35511 1342 887 616
1961 155044 3520 2296 2805	1961 96863 1887 1242 1881	1961 58181 1633 1054 924	1961 24840 469 289 351	1961 33341 1164 765 573
1960 146522 3054 1950 2713	.1960 93588 1711 1108	1960 52934 1323 842	1960 21792 391 245 296	1960 31142 932 597 491
. 1959 136513 2679 1699 2385	1959 89085 1597 1026	1959 47428 1081 672 672	1959 19499 330 206 252	1959 27929 7751 466 419
. 1958 128414 2552 1627 2204	1958 85123 1564 1002 1587	1958 43291 998 624 617	1958 17501 309 193 216	1958 25790 689 431 401
1957 115622 2444 1529 2051	1957 78169 1468 914 1535	1957 37453 977 615 516	1957 14573 290 182 165	1957 22680 687 433
1956 106429 2331 1435 1784	1956 73239 1407 869 1368	1956 33190 924 566 416	1956 12858 249 147	1956 20332 675 419 291
1955. 102440 2233 1400 1748	1955 71036 1397 870 1374	31404 31404 886 531 374	1955 12252 224 124 98	1955 19152 662 406 276
1954 87693 2207 1354 1510	1954 62045 1374 861 1203	1954 25648 853 493	1954 9791 195 110	1954 15857 638 383 283
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YUGOSLAV PRODUCTION STATISTICS, 1952 TO 1966
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YUGOSLAV PRODUCTION STATISTICS, 1952 TO 1966

PAPER PRINTING AND PUBLISHING

والمناف والمعارف المستعدد والمساويين	والأعامة ويساعه الجوارجيل	All the second of the second	Market Comment	1 1 1 1 1 1 1 1 1 1 1 1 1 1 1 1 1 1 1
1966 69900 4037 2834 2047	1966 36600 1783 1250 1099	1966 32600 2249 1584 948	1966 14600 544 372 344	1966 18000 1705 1211 605
1965 67240 3317 2650 1935	1965 36166 1693 1169 1054	1965 31772 2219 1481 880	1965 14004 498 341 321	1965 17763 1621 1140 559
1964 63537 3592 2479 1730	1964 34299. 1622 1167 920	1964 29238 1970 1372 810	1964 12599 458 314 308	1964 16639 1512 1058 502
1963 56721 3160 2146 1424	1953 30772 1425 939 755	1963 25949 1737 1208 670	1963 10964 390 266 272	1963 14985 1347 942 397
1962 54157 2651 1779 1290	1962 29454 1163 748 725	1962 24703 1438 1031 565	1962 10202 309 219 219	1962 14501 1179 352
1961 50943 2134 1431 1204	1961 27367 931 595 653	1961 23576 1203 836 552	1961 9878 254 178 194	1961 13698 13698 948 655 358
1960 45355 1868 1243	1960 25023 811 504 531	1960 20332 1057 739 525	1960 8190 220 156 179	1960 12142 837 503 346
.1959 40771 1626 1049 836	1959 22547 208 431 459	1959 18224 918 618 428	1959 7380 184 125	1959 10844 733 492 302
1958 36421 1476 935	1958 20821 649 392 434	1958 15600 827 544 338	1958 6551 170 115	1958 9049 657 429
1957 32200 1356 838 704	1957 19141 627 370 431	1957 13059 729 468 273	1957 5686 152 97	1957 7173 577 371 183
1956 29525 1229 749 627	1956 17396 593 346	1956 12129 636 403 229	1956 5704 138 63	1956 6425 499 320 157
1955 26432 1173 700 494	1955 15766 586 336 341	1955 10666 567 364 153	1955 4710 125 70 32	2995 4985 120
1954 23110 1080 642 370	1954 13975 552 318 249	1954 9135 528 324 121	1954 3602 116 64	19954 5533 411 260 93
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YUGOSLAV PRODUCIJON STATIŠTICS, 1952 TO 1966

مستشيم والتنظ مع المالية	مقع سنستقول ساهات الماهديان أأجراره كساوده	مجاد بكا معمورة بنيك ونيب ويتهاد معينينيتها		
1966 103100 4753 2929 1999	1956 51400 2221 1423 1000	1966 56700 2532 1506 999	1966 26400 1189 731 399	1986 30300 1342 775 601
1965 13019 4562 2800 1915	1955 54679 2174 1430 997	1965 58340 2388 1400 917	1965 26993 1137 691 381	1965 31347 1250 709 537
1964 109661 4599 2686 1816	1964 52553 2107 1356 979	1964 57103 2292 1330 838	1964 26450 1100 565 336	1964 30658 1191 665 502
1963 104676 4173 2524 1545	, 1963 49747 4991 1272 841	1963 54929 2182 1252 704	1963 26239 1062 634 294	1963 28690 1121 618 410
1962 107405 3965 2359 1355	1962 50926 1888 1191 742	1962 56480 2077 1169 613	1962 27249 1018 600 255	1962 29231 1059 568 358
1961 110101 3730 2193 1280	1961 52836 1787 1117 708	1961. 57265 1943 1076 572	1961 27272 954 549 549	1961 29993 969 526 340
1960 100550 3374 1952 1209	1960 . 5 1279 1619 990 698	1960 49271 1755 963 511	1960 23835 862 490 214	1960 25436 893 472 297
1959 93797 3110 1765 1070	1959 48995 1477 885 626	1959 44802 1633 880 444	1959 21093 816 458 189	23709 818 423 255
1958 90163 3004 1683 964	1958 47254 1395 817 535	1958 42909 1609 :866 430	1958 19492 806 449 156	23417 23417 803 417 274
1957 83454 2958 1653 875	1957 44822 1356 791 522	1957 38632 1602 352 352	1957 17290 805 449	1957 21342 797 412 229
1956 76700 2896 1614 740	1956 42754 1319 772 457	1956 33946 1577 843 283	1956 1514.7 800 442	. 1956 18799 777 401
1955 76962 2807 1557 724	1955 42559 1266. 736 472	1955 34403 1541 821 253	1955 15643 809 449	1955 18760 732 372 153
. 1954 69106 2656 1449 664	1954 39041 1196 605 447	1954 30065 1459 764 217	1954 14274 785 426	1954 15791 674 338
1953 2468 2468 1538 586	1953 55465 1111 537 393	1953 2001.7 1357 701	1983 1983 10011 739 394 88	1953 13595 13595 1367 165
 1952 55130 2134 1122 538	1952 30778 971 542 555	2952 27352 1163 163 183	1952 1952 1956 1956 536 533 87	1952 11796 527 248 96
LABOR CAPITAL EQUIPPENT VALUE ADDED	LASCR CAPITAL FOURPRENT VALUE ADDED SOUTH	LADON CAPITAL EGUIPMENT VALUE ADDED	SOUTH LESS SERE: A PROPER 1932 1 1932 1 CATTAL 636 12 536 12 537 601 PROPER 533 87 600 PP 600	LABOR CAPITAL CAPITAL CAPITAL VACUE ABBED

Listers of Tax				مسا <i>ل تحدد <u>سندا منه</u>ر</i>	The second secon	العالم الشاطية والمقسطيسية	المائد المسالة المستشارات
			1966 81300 9374 6348 3701	1956 46900 5813 3798 2561	1966 34400 3561 2550 1140	1966 14300 1595 1162 457	1966 20100 1965 1388 682
			1965 77275 8550 5809 3273	1955 44631 5400 3557 2184	1965 32594 3149 2252 1090	1965 13363 1312 965 413	1965 19231 1837 1286 677
		: ·	21964 21942 8130 5458 2717	1964 42536 8123 3336 1756	1964 29406 3006 2122 961	1964 11840 1210 887 340	1964 17566 1796 1235 621
		. , ~ - ,	1963 62113 7426 4931 2296	36644 4661 3015 1463	1963 25469 2765 1916 833	1963 10247 1090 798 260	1963 15222 1676 1118 573
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1066	4 .		1961 53578 5670 3677 1655	1961 31002 3408 2101 1044	1961 22576 2262 1576 612	1961 8532 1007 747 221	1961 14044 1255 829 391
	7224	Σ	1960 53124 4875 3084 1479	1960 31122 2815 1691 923	2002 2002 2060 1393 555	1960 7831 1004 713 195	1960 14171 1057 680 361
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	1.	CHEMI	1957 38271 4081 2463 926	1957 22070 2054 1142 597	1957 16201 2027 1321 329	1957 6746 1074 706 142	9455 9455 953 615 187
	YUGOSEAV		1956 34323 3904 2342 766	1956 20485 1926 1067 391	1956 13838 1978 1275 375	1956 6187 1015 661 219	1956 7651 962 614 156
	•		1955 31022 3686 2209 673	1955 19034 1922 1053 448	1955 11988 1765 1156	1955 5384 811 537 100	1955 6604 953 619 125
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1	•		LABOR CAPITAL ECUIPMENT VALUE ADDED	AL MENT ADDE D	SOUTH LABOR CAPITAL ECUIPMENT VALUE ADDED SOUTH LESS SER	LABOR CAPITAL EQUIPMENT VALUE ABDED SERBIA PROPER	LABOR CAPITAL EGUIPHENT VALUE ADDED

YUGOSLAV PRODUCTION STATISTICS

METAL USING

108800 1920 1347 2725 164900 4305 2905 3896 159300 5531 3661 3936 50500 3611 2514 1212 324200 9036 6766 7832 110595 1770 1244 2585 49597 3365 2318 1188 72573 4140 2779 3815 332765 9275 6342 7588 316221 8710 5911 7160 149702 4781 3283 3438 .05440 1617 1122 2488 44262 3164 2161 950 66519 3929 2628 3722 130403 4175 2782 2731 38013 2848 1965 730 92390 1327 877 2001 49012 •3502 2307 3116 7677 7677 5089 5847 36319 2529 1638 602 1957 1155 746 1716 121476 3683 2383 2318 256775 6853 4434 4916 35299 3170 2051 2598 119972 3208 2005 2213 25272 2171 1349 594 84700 1037 656 1619 20560 2922 1858 2565 50532 6130 3863 4777 33511 1925 1176 480 76694 965 613 1735 120441 2749 1717 10205 2891 1789 2215 1960 5639 3507 4547 28433 1786 1092 426 69840 918 580 1437 205487 5342 3299 3840 .07214 2638 1627 1978 98273 2704 1672 1863 1668 995 355 53051 894 551 1197 98229 2561 1566 1752 90739 2562 1557 1557 .89018 5123 3123 3304 67754 4833 2884 2815 78711 2377 1399 1249 24389 1524 869 307 54322 853 853 530 942 89043 2455 1485 1566 50795 807 499 744 20552 1371 768 231 . 1956 52653 4529 2680 2217 71347 2178 1266 975 31306 2351 1414 1242 48246 748 457 641 9003 1337 740 189 67249 2084 1197 830 5059 4405 2597 2017 7810 2321 1400 1186 16840 1282 699 176 42927 656 407 534 59767 1938 1106 710 29334 4174 2484 1774 69567 2236 1378 1064 56710 590 -579 469 51571 1750 1007 629 60369 2121 1316 901 14561 1160 029 160 **53** 1940 3871 2523 1530 32497 575 374 351 13790 965 519 124 34471 1982 1250 719 16687 1539 893 476 01158 3522 2143 VALUE ADDED COUIPMENT

CAPITAL EQUIPMENT

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YUGOSLAV PRODUCTION STATISTICS, 1952 TO 1966

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		1952 59106 6007 5007 3440 868	1952 19922 2155 1319 367	1952 39184 5052 2121 501 ERRIA PR(. • • • • • • • • • • • • • • • • • • •	<u></u>
		LABOR CAPITAL EQUIPMENT VALUE ADDED	< Σ _	NT. DOED FSS	LACOR CAPITAL EGUIPAENT VALUE ADDED	SERBIA PROPE LABOR CAPITAL EQUIPMENT VALUE ADDED

34000 2204 1870 26300 967 742 7700 1237 1128 3200 725 657 36241 2144 1841 3302 718 653 28245 913 712 7995 1232 1128 27767 845 667 8490 1208 3723 720 36257 2053 1780 28384 778 8841 1165 1082 37225 1942 1717 3729 709 654 3860 713 657 36740 1861 1655 27225 712 713 587 9515 1148 1069 36197 1728 1546 27525 660 549 8672 1069 3265 687 637 3112 615 7116 928 868 32519 1528 25403 600 501 30798 1288 1146 24,959 6634 7,322 7,324 6413 720 2404 483 445 2008 2006 2009 3009 29679 1136 1005 26830 925 805 2420 405 368 5984 612 560 20846 313 245 2254 418 382 8570 268 207 207 5869 560 513 4439. 828 720 1543 279 250 21747 546 448 7684 160 103 4063 385 345 20431 299 216 3864 190 154 16567 103 62 1370 . 90 62 9548 178 130 16329 52 36 3519 126 95 1264 47 18 3063 93 62 6197 51 35 972 43 15 9260 144 97 LABGR CAPITAL EQUIPMENT VALUE ADDED SERDIA PROPER LAMON CAPITAL FOUIPMENT VALUE ADDED VALUE ADDED VALUE ADDED SOUTH LESS LANOR CAPITAL EQUIPMENT LABOR CAPITAL EGUIPMENT SOUTH

4500 513 471 133

4693 513 475 135

4767 488 457 108

5112 456 428 102

5655 435 411 75

5407 382 360 63

4004 313 397 35

4136 257 257 242 61

4009 4009 4009 4009 6009

3564 208 193 50

3615 143 131 49

2520 106 95 49

2494 101 92

2255 79 76 76 38

2091 50 47 32

LAGOR CAPITAL CGUIPMENT - -