

Global Growth Opportunities and Market Integration

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Abstract

We propose an exogenous measure of a country's growth opportunities by interacting the country's local industry mix with global price to earnings (PE) ratios. First, we find that these exogenous growth opportunities strongly predict future changes in real GDP and investment in a large panel of countries. This relation is strongest in countries that have liberalized their capital accounts, equity markets, and banking systems. Second, we re-examine the link between financial development, external finance dependence, investor protection, capital allocation, and growth. We find that financial development, external finance dependence, and investor protection measures are much less important in aligning growth opportunities with growth than is capital market openness. Third, we formulate new tests of market integration and segmentation. Under integration, the difference between a country's local PE ratio and its global counterpart should not predict relative growth, but the difference between its exogenous global PE ratio and the world market PE ratio should predict relative growth.

KEYWORDS: Growth Opportunities, Market Integration, Finance and Growth, Financing Constraints, Capital Allocation, Capital Account Openness, Financial Liberalization, Industry Mix, GDP Growth, Investment Growth.

1 Introduction

In a perfectly integrated world economy, capital should be invested where it expects to earn the highest risk-adjusted return. Much of the research on real variables and quantities is strongly at odds with the notion of global integration. For example, in their classic study of 16 developed countries, Feldstein and Horioka (1980) found that domestic saving rates explain over 90% of the variation in investment rates. Because the Feldstein and Horioka sample ends in 1974, it does not reflect the considerable progress towards globalization in the 1970s and 1980s. However, Obstfeld and Rogoff (2000) continue to find a high correlation between domestic investment and savings for the 1990-97 period, both for the OECD countries and a group of mid-income emerging countries. Apart from a home bias in real investments, research has documented a home bias in trade. Even controlling for tariffs, a country is much more likely to trade within its own borders than with neighboring countries.¹ There is also a well-documented home asset bias. Despite uncontroversial diversification benefits, there is a strong preference for investing in domestic securities.²

While the case for imperfect integration is strong when using real/quantity variables, it is more mixed when using prices and returns. For example, Harvey (1991) finds evidence that a global version of the capital asset pricing model (CAPM) cannot be rejected in almost all developed country equity markets (with Japan as the exception). For emerging markets, Bekaert and Harvey (1995, 2000) provide sharper evidence against the hypothesis of global equity market integration.

The benefits of increasing globalization are now being questioned even though its welfare benefits may be large (see Lewis (1999) for the latter and Rodrik (1998) and Stiglitz (2000) for the former). We add a new perspective to the literature. Our research proposes a simple measure of country-specific growth opportunities based on two rather non-controversial assumptions. First, the growth potential of a country is largely reflected in the growth potential of its mix of industries. Second, price earnings (PE) ratios contain information about growth opportunities. If markets are globally integrated, we can measure a country's growth opportunities by using the price earnings ratios of global industry portfolios weighted by the country's industrial mix. This perspective

¹See, for example, McCallum (1995) and Helliwell (1998).

²See, for example, French and Poterba (1991), Tesar and Werner (1995), Baxter and Jermann (1997), and Lewis (1999).

potentially offers a number of useful economic insights.

First, for each country in the world, it permits the construction of an *exogenous* growth opportunities measure that does not use local price information. Such a measure should prove useful in numerous empirical studies seeking to avoid endogeneity problems. One example is the study by Bekaert, Harvey and Lundblad (2005), which examines the effect of equity market liberalization on economic growth. If countries liberalize when growth opportunities are abundant, regressions of future growth on a liberalization indicator suffer from a severe endogeneity problem. Measures of growth opportunities that use local price information are problematic because they may either reflect “exogenous” growth opportunities or better growth prospects induced by the liberalization decision. For the exogenous growth opportunities measure to be useful, it must actually predict growth. That is, countries that happen to have a high concentration of high *PE* industries (measured by global *PE*'s) should grow faster than average. We find that they do.

Second, our framework can be employed to shed new light on the link between financial development, capital allocation, and growth (see Levine (2004) for a survey). Research by Rajan and Zingales (1998), Wurgler (2000), and La Porta et al. (2000) stress the role of financial development in relaxing external finance constraints and improved investor protection as the critical growth channels. However, recent work by Fisman and Love (2004a,b) suggests that financial development simply better aligns industry growth opportunities with actual growth. We test this hypothesis directly in a panel framework, in contrast to the purely cross-sectional approach followed in the existing literature. Moreover, the literature implicitly ignores the role of international capital flows. We also investigate how important financial openness is for aligning growth opportunities with growth. If financial openness is effective, countries that have liberalized their capital accounts, equity markets, or banking sectors, should display a closer association between growth opportunities and future real activity.

Third, our measure can be used in formal tests of market integration that bridge research on real quantities with research on price-based variables. When growth opportunities are competitively priced and exploited in internationally integrated markets, industry *PE*'s should be equalized (barring risk differences) across countries. Consequently, under the null of market integration, the difference between a country's industry weighted global *PE* ratio and the world market *PE* ratio should predict future real GDP growth relative to world growth. Conversely, the difference

between a country's global and local PE ratio should not predict growth in excess of world growth. We investigate how these integration tests depend on measured degrees of financial openness.

The remainder of the paper is organized as follows. Section two motivates our growth opportunities measure using a simple present value model, details its construction, its link with market integration, and provides some summary statistics. The third section investigates whether our growth opportunities measures indeed predict GDP and investment growth, contrasting the predictive performance of local with global measures. In the fourth section, we compare the different roles of financial openness, financial development, external finance dependence, investor protection, and political risk in aligning growth opportunities with growth. The fifth section formulates and conducts our test of market integration. Some concluding remarks are offered in the final section.

2 Measuring Growth Opportunities

2.1 *Growth opportunities, market integration, and economic growth*

Holding a number of factors such as risk constant, higher price earnings ratios indicate high growth opportunities. Others have proposed different proxies for growth opportunities. The corporate finance literature often uses market to book value as a proxy for Tobin's Q and a measure of investment opportunities (see e.g. Smith and Watts (1992), Booth et al. (2001), and Allayannis et al. (2003)). Fisman and Love (2003) and Gupta and Yuan (2004) use historical sales growth of U.S. industries as a measure of growth opportunities. In contrast to sales growth, PE has the advantage of being forward looking.

Economic integration implies that industry growth opportunities share a common component across countries. Hence, one source of local GDP growth relative to world GDP growth is the weighting of industries within a particular country. If all available growth opportunities are competitively priced and exploited in world capital markets, a country's PE ratio for a particular industry should be correlated with its world counterpart. We build on this intuition to formally derive an exogenous measure of a country's growth opportunities. The model implies that a country with a large concentration in high PE (high growth opportunity) industries should grow faster than the world.

Let (logarithmic) earnings growth be denoted by $\Delta \ln(Earn_t)$ and let countries and industries be indexed by i and j , respectively. Assume

$$\Delta \ln(Earn_{i,j,t}) = GO_{w,j,t-1} + \epsilon_{i,j,t}, \quad (1)$$

where $GO_{w,j,t-1}$ represents the stochastic growth opportunity for each industry j which does not depend on the country to which the industry belongs. In contrast, $\epsilon_{i,j,t}$ is a country and industry specific earnings growth disturbance. Because it has no persistence, it is not priced. The assumption in (1) is strong and goes beyond financial market integration. Essentially, we assume economic integration to imply that industry earnings growth processes share a common component across countries. It is conceivable that non-tradable and regulated sectors in financially and even reasonably economically integrated countries still face priced country-specific growth opportunities. We investigate this possibility in Section 3.3. Similarly, any imperfections in goods markets through trade restrictions, taxes, and market power or labor market frictions may lead to exploitable local growth opportunities. Conversely, it is conceivable that even when financial markets are closed, foreign direct investment (FDI) flows induce common components in earnings growth across countries.

The discount rate process for each industry ($\delta_{i,j,t}$) is an affine function of the world discount rate ($\delta_{w,t}$), as would be true in a financially integrated market:

$$\delta_{i,j,t} = r_f(1 - \beta_{i,j}) + \beta_{i,j}\delta_{w,t}, \quad (2)$$

where $\beta_{i,j}$ represents the exposure to systematic risk for industry j in country i and r_f is the risk free rate, assumed constant over time. In addition, suppose that

$$\beta_{i,j} = \beta_j. \quad (3)$$

That is, industry systematic risk is the same across integrated countries. Of course, this assumption does not hold if there are leverage differences across countries.

For quite general dynamics for δ_w and $GO_{w,j}$, but with normally distributed shocks, Appendix A derives (in closed-form) the *PE* ratio as an infinite sum of exponentiated affine functions of the current realizations of the growth opportunity (with a positive sign) and the discount rate (with a negative sign).

While the resulting expression is unwieldy, it can be linearized to yield:

$$pe_{i,j,t} = \bar{a}_{i,j} + \bar{b}_{i,j}\delta_{w,t} + \bar{c}_j GO_{w,j,t}, \quad (4)$$

where pe is the log PE ratio. Under full integration, $\bar{b}_{i,j} = \bar{b}_j$, and \bar{c}_j does not depend on country i because of the assumption in (1). Why do certain countries grow faster than the average? In a fully integrated world, there are only two channels of growth for a particular country: luck (the error term) and an industry composition that differs from the world's. These assumptions also imply that industry PE ratios are similar across countries as they are determined primarily by global factors.³

Global industry PE ratios therefore contain the same information about industry growth opportunities in a given country as local PE ratios. As a consequence, as local and global industry PE ratios move together, the difference between them should contain no information about the country's future economic performance relative to the world economy. In contrast, this is not true when markets are not fully integrated and growth opportunities are not priced globally (but locally). That is, the link between our growth opportunities measures and future growth can lead to a test of market integration.

Let PE_i denote the vector of industry PE ratios in country i and PE_w the vector of world industry PE ratios. Similarly, define country and world industry weights by IW_i and IW_w , respectively. Combining these vectors for country i , we define local growth opportunities (LGO) and global growth opportunities (GGO):

$$LGO_{i,t} = \ln[IW'_{i,t}PE_{i,t}] \quad (5)$$

$$GGO_{i,t} = \ln[IW'_{i,t}PE_{w,t}]. \quad (6)$$

In integrated markets, LGO and GGO reflect the same information and should hence both predict economic growth in country i . Furthermore, the difference between the two measures, which we call local excess growth opportunities ($LEGO$), should be constant and should therefore have no

³There is a country-specific intercept that comes from volatility terms and a potentially country-specific component to the discount rate, but the time variation in the PE ratio is driven by global factors. However, if there are systematic leverage differences across countries, PE ratios across countries will react differently to changes in global discount rates.

predictive power for relative economic growth. If markets are not fully integrated, though, *LGO* and *GGO* will display different temporal behavior and *LEGO* should predict economic growth in country i in excess of world economic growth. In other words, under our auxiliary assumptions, the hypothesis of no predictability constitutes a market integration hypothesis.

If, on the other hand, we start from the hypothesis that markets are completely segmented, we do not expect global industry *PE* ratios to contain information about local growth opportunities. Hence, *GGO* should not necessarily predict economic growth in country i . Moreover, let's define the difference between *GGO* and its world counterpart (*WGO*) as:

$$GEGO_{i,t} = GGO_{i,t} - WGO_t \quad (7)$$

where

$$WGO_t = \ln[IW'_{w,t}PE_{w,t}]. \quad (8)$$

Under the null of market segmentation, *GEGO* should not predict relative growth in country i as global prices contain no information about exploitable growth opportunities. If the hypothesis of market segmentation is incorrect, *GEGO* should predict economic growth in country i relative to world economic growth, because it reflects the difference between local and global industry composition. Under the above assumptions of market integration, this difference should be the only measure predicting relative growth. Predictive regressions of future relative economic growth onto *GEGO* allow us therefore to also test the hypothesis of market segmentation. Table I summarizes the proposed measures of growth opportunities as well as their ability to predict economic growth under different assumptions and Table II describes the variables used in our study.

2.2 *Constructing the growth opportunities measures*

We construct the measures of growth opportunities discussed above for a sample of 50 countries, listed in Appendix Table AI.

We approximate *LGO* with the log of the market *PE* ratio of a given country. We use monthly *PE* ratios from Datastream as the primary source. A few countries in our sample are not covered by Datastream and we use *PE* ratios from S&P/IFC's Emerging Markets Data Base (EMDB) instead. For Italy, Norway, Spain, and Sweden, we use *PE* ratios from MSCI to exploit the longer time series compared to Datastream.

For the construction of our exogenous measure of growth opportunities, GGO , we require global industry PE ratios as well as country-specific industry weights. We obtain monthly global industry PE ratios for 35 industrial sectors with 101 sub-sectors from Datastream. We construct two alternative sets of annual country-specific industry weights: the first uses equity market capitalization, lagged one year,⁴ and the second uses a measure of value added to construct relative weights. Most of the results in the paper are based on the market capitalization weights. For 21 of our 50 countries, our measure simply uses the Datastream data to calculate the market capitalization of a country's industries relative to the country's total stock market capitalization for 35 industries. For the remaining 29 countries, we use the SIC industry groups used by EMDB to determine a vector of industry weights. The local weights for these SIC industry groups are matched with the Datastream price earning ratios by linking the Datastream sub-sectors to the corresponding local market industry structure.⁵ Note that the use of lagged market capitalization weights implies that the GGO measure does not add up to the market PE ratios as usually defined by most data sets. These measures typically divide aggregate market capitalization by aggregate earnings which corresponds to use current earnings to weight industry-specific PE ratios. Unfortunately, such weights are too erratic to be of much use. We checked one alternative weighting scheme that is very closely related: We use lagged market capitalization to weight earnings yields and then invert the weighted sum to obtain a price-earnings measure. All of our results are robust to this alternative weighting scheme.

As a robustness check, we also present results based on the alternative value-added weighting.⁶ We use value added data from the UNIDO Industrial Statistics Database which covers 28 manufacturing industries in a large number of countries. The weight of an industry in a given country is determined by the industry-specific value added relative to the total value added of the manufacturing sector in that country. We again match the Datastream price earnings ratios to

⁴Note that the weights in LGO are not lagged. While our results are robust to the use of lagged weights, the use of lagged weights also implies the use of local industry-specific PE ratios, which often take on extreme values.

⁵An alternative way to merge the two industry classifications is to link the SIC industry structure used by EMDB to the 35 Datastream industries sectors to create a uniform vector of weights across all countries in our sample. This alternative method yields very similar growth opportunities measures.

⁶A full set of results based upon the value-added weighting is available upon request.

the 28 manufacturing industries used by UNIDO.⁷

Finally, *WGO* is constructed in the same way as *GGO*, using global industry *PE* ratios and lagged global industry market capitalization from Datastream. Appendix B provides much more detail about the construction of all measures of growth opportunities.

Our tests may have low power when discount rate changes dominate the variation of the *PE* ratios. Therefore, we create an alternative measure by removing a 60-month moving average from the standard measure. For example, we define *LGO_MA* as:

$$LGO_MA_{i,t} = LGO_{i,t} - \frac{1}{60} \sum_{s=t-60}^{t-1} LGO_{i,s} \quad (9)$$

The relative measure is less likely to be dominated by discount rate changes, if discount rates are more persistent than growth opportunities, for which there is some empirical evidence. *GGO_MA*, *LEGO_MA*, and *GEGO_MA* are calculated analogously.

While some of our growth opportunities measures are available at a monthly frequency from as early as January 1973 until December 2002, the starting points for measures using local *PE* ratios vary across the 50 countries and other macro variables are available only at an annual frequency. Therefore, we only use the December values of our growth opportunities measures from 1980 until 2002. In addition to the complete set of the 50 countries, we study the subset of 17 developed countries for which we are able to construct *LGO* and *LEGO* for all years between 1980 and 2002. We also consider a subset of 30 emerging market countries for which the *LGO* and *LEGO* time series are of varied length. Table II provides a summary of the construction of all the variables and the data sources.

2.3 Comparing the growth opportunities measures

Table III contains summary statistics for our growth opportunities measures. Panel A presents summary statistics for our unadjusted growth opportunities measures, averaged over different country groups and per country. The measure of local growth opportunities, *LGO*, is based on local *PE* ratios. Not surprisingly, it exhibits substantial time-series variation. It exhibits substantial cross-sectional variation as well, having values less than 2.0 for Zimbabwe, Jamaica, Israel, and

⁷In a related application, Almeida and Wolfenzon (2004) use the UNIDO weights and world industry measures of external financing needs, to construct an exogenous measure of a country's external financing needs.

Côte d’Ivoire, but higher than 3.0 for Italy and Japan. *GGO*, our measure of exogenous growth opportunities, shows lower dispersion than *LGO*. When comparing the sample of developed countries to the emerging market sample, we find little difference in the means and standard deviations of *LGO* and *GGO*. *LEGO*, the industry-weighted difference between information contained in local and global *PE* ratios, is on average higher in developed countries (-0.208) than in emerging market countries (-0.494). Similarly, *GEGO* has a higher mean in the sample of developed countries (-0.041 vs. -0.075), possibly reflecting a more favorable industrial composition in developed countries. The variability of *LEGO* and *GEGO* is lower in the sample of developed countries than in the sample of emerging market countries, where countries such as Kenya and Israel have very high standard deviations. The same statistics for the exogenous growth opportunities measure based on the value-added weights (*GGO(VA)*) produce similar findings.

Panel B reports the identical set of summary statistics for the adjusted growth measures, that is the original measures less a 60-month moving average. With the exception of *LGO_MA*, the same pattern as in Panel A emerges. *LGO_MA* appears to be lower and more volatile in emerging market countries compared to developed countries. Remember, though, that the availability of local *PE* ratios is limited for emerging countries, so that the summary statistics for measures of local growth opportunities are not directly comparable across the two samples.

Panel C presents correlations between the different unadjusted as well as adjusted measures of growth opportunities. In both cases, the correlations between *LGO* and *WGO* and *LGO* and *GGO* are substantially higher for developed countries than for emerging market countries. For several countries, including Brazil, Israel, and Venezuela, the correlations are negative. The correlation between *GGO* and *WGO* is high for all countries, confirming that changes in *GGO* are mainly driven by changes in the global *PE* ratios rather than by slowly evolving industry weights. The final column reports the time series correlation between our market capitalization based measure of exogenous growth opportunities and the alternative measure that uses value-added weights. In case of the unadjusted growth opportunities measure, the correlation is, on average, 0.79 and never falls below 0.56. Tunisia has the lowest correlation.

Finally, Panel D reports the number of local stocks available to derive a country’s industry structure as well as the main industries in each market. Our sample includes well established stock markets in both the developed (US, UK, Switzerland) and developing markets (South Africa,

Malaysia) and vice versa. Because the level of stock market development may affect the representativeness of our industry weights for the whole economy, the robustness check using the value-added weights becomes even more important. The top three industries represent typically more than 50% of total market capitalization and in over 35% of the countries the banking sector is the top industry. The second most prominent industry is oil and gas, finishing first in 15% of the cases.

To investigate a potential trend towards increased international integration over the past 20 years, Figure 1 shows the evolution of the average absolute value of *LEGO*, i.e. the distance between *LGO* and *GGO* for the sample of developed countries. While noisy, there appears to be a downward trend in the annual sample average, consistent with increasing market integration. Still using only observations from developed countries, we run a regression of the absolute value of *LEGO* onto a (country-specific) constant and a time trend. We find a negative (-0.0076) and highly significant trend coefficient (standard error: 0.0018), confirming a reduction in the distance between *LGO* and *GGO* for our sample of developed countries.

We expect local and global measures of growth opportunities to converge when countries become more integrated, but we have no such prior with respect to *GEGO* (the difference between *GGO* and its world counterpart (*WGO*)). Figure 2 shows that for developed as well as emerging market countries the average absolute value of *GEGO* seems to have decreased slightly over time up until about 1996.

One possible source of variation of *GEGO* are the changes in a country's industrial composition relative to the world over time. To explore this further, we measure the difference between a country's industrial composition and the world's industrial composition. For each developed country, we calculate the average absolute value of the differences between the country's industry weights and the world's industry weights for each year. Figure 3 shows that differences between local and world industrial composition have decreased over time.⁸ For some countries this process is more pronounced. For example, the industrial composition of the Austrian economy has moved substantially closer to the world's industrial composition. On the other hand, the relative industrial composition of the U.S. remained stable. Given its economic weight in the world economy, this is, of course, not surprising. Importantly, the figure shows that on average a country's industrial composition differs substantially from the world's industrial composition. Under the null of

⁸See Carrieri, Errunza, and Sarikissian (2004) for a similar result.

market integration, cross-sectional variation in this composition is the only factor that explains cross country growth differences.

3 Do Growth Opportunities Predict Growth?

3.1 *Econometric framework*

The first regressions we consider are

$$y_{i,t+k,k} = \alpha_{i,0} + \alpha_{i,1,t}LGO_MA_{i,t} + \eta_{i,t+k,k} \quad (10)$$

$$y_{i,t+k,k} = \alpha_{i,0} + \alpha_{i,1,t}GGO_MA_{i,t} + \eta_{i,t+k,k} \quad (11)$$

where $y_{i,t+k,k}$ is the k -year average growth rate of either real per capita gross domestic product or investment for country i . We run similar experiments using $LGO_{i,t}$ and $GGO_{i,t}$ as the regressors.⁹ We follow the convention in the growth literature employing $k = 5$ to minimize the influence of higher frequency business cycles in our sample. We maximize the time-series content of our estimates by using overlapping five-year periods.

We include country specific fixed effects, $\alpha_{i,0}$, consistent with the model in Section 2, to capture cross-sectional heterogeneity and potentially omitted variables. Regressions (10) and (11) both test whether our growth opportunities measures indeed predict growth. In Sections 3.2 and 3.3, these tests are carried out under the assumption that $\alpha_{i,1,t}$ is constant across time and across countries. However, the GGO -measure should only predict growth in integrated markets. Therefore, in Section 3.4 we model the slope coefficient $\alpha_{i,1,t}$ as a linear function of various measures of openness, with the parameters constrained to be identical in the cross-section. That is we let

$$\alpha_{i,1,t} = \alpha + \beta Open_{i,t} \quad (12)$$

where $Open_{i,t}$ indicates capital account, equity market, or banking sector openness. We employ the pooled time-series, cross-sectional (panel) Generalized Method of Moments estimator pre-

⁹We also consider a risk-adjusted growth opportunities measure. We regress each global industry PE ratio onto the conditional world market variance, estimated as a GARCH(1,1) model, and then take the intercept and residual as the risk-adjusted PE ratio. Combining these *adjusted* global industry PE ratios with the corresponding industry weights, we obtain a risk-adjusted growth opportunities measure for each country. The evidence (not reported) is qualitatively unchanged.

sented in Bekaert, Harvey, and Lundblad (2001). Standard errors are constructed to account for cross-sectional heteroskedasticity and the overlapping nature of the growth shocks, $\eta_{i,t+k,k}$. This estimator looks like an instrumental variable estimator but it reduces to pooled OLS under simplifying assumptions on the weighting matrix.

3.2 *Local growth opportunities*

Table IV (Panel A) presents estimates for $\alpha_{i,1}$ in regression (10) for each of our three samples (fixed effects are not reported) for both GDP and investment growth. We use both *LGO* and *LGO_MA*. Unfortunately, the time-series history on local market *PE* ratios is limited (see Appendix Table AI); hence, we report estimates for an unbalanced panel, maximizing the sample history for each country.

Overall, country-specific growth opportunities, as measured by local *PE* ratios, are informative about future economic activity. For example, the estimates for all countries suggest that, on average, a one standard deviation increase in local growth opportunities, that is an increase of 0.396 in *LGO_MA*, is associated with a 17 and 60 basis point increase in annual output and investment growth, respectively. The estimated effect is somewhat more pronounced for the developed markets than the general case (all countries), but in both cases highly statistically significant.

For the emerging markets, the association is positive, but weak economically and not uniformly significant. There are many possible reasons for this apart from a true lack of predictive information. First, our sample histories are more limited for emerging markets. Second, our tests may have less power for emerging markets because other factors, such as political risk or structural changes (market reforms for instance) may be relatively more important in driving *PE* ratios than growth opportunities. Finally, the stock market in these countries is generally smaller and less representative of the total economy compared to developed markets.

To explore further the idea that country-specific stock market characteristics may affect the predictive impact of local *PE* ratios, in Table IV (Panel B) we repeat the regression, interacting the *LGO* measures with several country-specific variables. For example, certain markets may have more regulated sectors, making the market's *PE* ratio less reflective of growth opportunities for these countries. When we interact the *LGO* measure with the proportion of the market

capitalization accounted for by industries less likely subject to regulation (see Appendix Table AIII for details), we find a positive and significant interaction effect for the *LGO* measure but not for the *LGO_MA* measure. We also interact the *LGO* measure with equity market turnover, an indicator of the liquidity and perhaps efficiency of the local stock market, but do not find the expected positive interaction effect. Finally, the local *PE* ratios may represent a cross-sectional heterogeneous and time-varying mix of local and global prices because of the presence of ADRs. For example, ADRs have been more prevalent in Latin-America than in South-East Asia and ADRs were of much less importance earlier in the sample. Given that local prices partially reflect a corporate governance, segmentation, and illiquidity discount, while ADR prices do not, the total *PE* ratio may be not very informative about growth opportunities. We use the Levine and Schmukler (2003) measure of the degree of internationalization of different stock markets measured as the market capitalization of firms that cross list, issue ADRs or GDRs, or raise capital in international markets relative to total equity market capitalization.¹⁰ Unfortunately, these data are only available from 1989. When we interact the *LGO* measures with the ADR measure, the constant term in $\alpha_{i,1,t}$ is positive and significant but the interaction term is negative, albeit not always statistically significant. When we extend the Levine and Schmukler data on internationalization to the full sample using country-specific information in the trend towards internationalization, we find similar results (not reported).

We conclude that local *PE* ratios house information about future growth opportunities, but their information content is limited for emerging markets, partially due to limitations in the data set and partially because local *PE* ratios are confounded by country-specific factors.

3.3 Global (*exogenous*) growth opportunities

In Table V (first two lines), we test whether exogenous growth opportunities predict real GDP and investment growth. Recall that *GGO* and *GGO_MA* reflect the industrial composition within each country in accordance with the growth opportunities available to those industries in the global market. In this case, we obtain estimates for a full balanced panel across all three samples. Overall, the global growth opportunities measure appears to be a strong, robust, and significant predictor

¹⁰We thank Sergio Schmukler for making these data available to us.

of future output and investment growth in all samples. For example, the estimates for all countries suggest that, on average, a one standard deviation increase in global growth opportunities, that is an increase of 0.198 in *GGO_MA*, is associated with a 28 and 78 basis point increase in annual output and investment growth, respectively. For the developed markets, the predictive power of the global measure is slightly weaker than the local measure (see Table IV) for the level measures but stronger for the measures with a past moving average removed.

For emerging markets, the predictive power of the global measure is significantly better than the local measure, especially for investment growth, with the coefficients always statistically significantly different from zero. Consequently, even though emerging markets may be segmented from global capital markets, local *PE* ratios in emerging markets do a poorer job predicting future growth opportunities than global *PE* ratios.

Panel A contains three pieces of additional information. First, we conduct a robustness analysis investigating the importance of particular industries. Second, we consider the impact of an alternative industry weighting scheme. Third, we consider a third grouping of countries - the European Union.

It is conceivable that our results are driven by a few influential industries. For example, as we mention earlier, oil and gas is one of the most important industries and may be particularly internationally integrated as its performance depends upon global commodity prices. To rule out such a possibility, we repeat our analysis 35 times, each time removing one industry from the weighting scheme. For our largest sample, the brackets in Table V (Panel A) report the minimum and maximum coefficients obtained from this exercise. The robustness of our results is evident.¹¹

Local market capitalization data may not be fully representative of a country's real activity, for instance, they may be biased towards industries more likely to chose equity financing in bank-oriented economies. Therefore, for manufacturing industries we create industry weights using the value added information from the UNIDO Industrial Statistics Database. For the developed markets, this strengthens the predictive power of the level measures, but weakens the predictive power of the MA-measures. The growth opportunities measures continue to strongly predict future growth. For emerging markets, where perhaps we would have expected the stock market

¹¹As an alternative, we also interacted the *GGO* measure with the weight of the oil and gas industry in each country, finding insignificant results.

based weights to be least informative, the value-added measures actually show somewhat less but still overall strong predictive power for future growth. In future tables, we focus on the market capitalization based measures of exogenous growth opportunities. The evidence for the value-added measures is similar and is available upon request.

We also investigate a subset of countries from the European Union (plus Norway and Switzerland), which represent a relatively well-integrated set of countries where global growth opportunities should be particularly relevant for future growth. We find that the coefficients for the EU countries are very similar to what we find for developed countries.

In Panel B, we explore whether the predictability depends on three local factors. We only do this for the “All Countries” sample. First, we exclude regulated industries in the construction of *GGO*. Appendix Table AIII lists those industries we view as likely regulated. Regulated industries are presumably less capable of exploiting global growth opportunities. We indeed find that the predictability is stronger when attention is restricted to unregulated industries, but the change in coefficients is rather minor. Second, we look at a subset of tradable industries. Appendix Table AIII again lists those industries we view as potentially non-tradable. We expect tradable sectors to have a stronger link to the global economy and our growth opportunities measures to work better for this set of industries. Panel B reveals that, while the predictive power remains very strong, it is not overall stronger than for the full set of industries.

Finally, many countries went through a process of privatization of state owned enterprises (SOEs), see Megginson and Netter (2001) for details. Given that state-owned companies are typically in industries such as mining that depend on global commodity prices and because they may represent a large part of the real economy, the degree of privatization that took place may affect the predictive power of the global growth opportunities measures. Rather than using privatization activity directly, we use the percent of economic activity accounted for by state-owned enterprises. Consequently, this variable is negatively correlated with the degree of privatizations and is available in panel for 34 countries. When we interact the growth opportunities measure with this variable, we find highly significant and positive coefficients on the direct effect, and negative interaction coefficients as expected. However, the interaction coefficients are not statistically significantly different from zero. When we use an alternative SOE measure which reflects the proportion of workforce employed by SOEs (not reported), we do find significant interaction

effects, but this measure is only available for 17 countries.

One last experiment we conduct is to verify that the predictive power of our measure remains significant when we include year dummies or the log of the world market *PE* ratio (*WGO*). We find that both measures (equity market capitalization and value-added based) are still informative about a country's future growth, discounting the possibility that their predictive power reflects a world wide wealth effect.

3.4 *The effects of financial sector openness*

Many of the countries in our sample have undergone regulatory reforms that may have implications for the ability of industries to capitalize on the growth opportunities available to them. In particular, we focus on the liberalization of the capital account, equity market, and banking sector. Countries which are closed to foreign investors typically also restrict the ability of their firms to raise capital abroad, preventing them from exploiting growth opportunities available to comparable industries in the global market. Consequently, we expect growth opportunities to more strongly predict future growth in more financially open markets.

Capital account openness

The first panel in Table VI presents estimates of the interaction between general capital account openness and exogenous growth opportunities in predicting future growth. The relation between growth and capital account liberalization is itself controversial. Rodrik (1998), Edison et al. (2002) claim that there is no correlation between capital account liberalization and growth prospects, whereas Edwards (2001), Bekaert, Harvey, and Lundblad (2005), and Quinn and Toyoda (2001) document a positive relation. Arteta, Eichengreen, and Wyplosz (2003) conduct robustness experiments using different measures of openness and conclude that the relation between growth and capital account openness is fragile. We focus on our largest sample to maximize the cross-sectional variation in our openness measures.

Our measures of capital account openness are based on the IMF's Annual Report on Exchange Arrangements and Exchange Restrictions (AREAER). The first is an indicator variable that takes on a value of zero if the country has at least one restriction in the restrictions on payments for the capital account transactions category. The second measure, developed by Quinn (1997) and Quinn

and Toyoda (2001), attempts to measure the degree of capital account openness; the measure is scored from 0 to 4, in half integer units, with a 4 representing a fully open economy. We transform Quinn's measure into a 0 to 1 scale. The measure is available for 48 of the 50 countries in our broadest sample.

For both the IMF and Quinn measures of capital account openness, we find that the coefficient on the interaction between *GGO_MA* and the associated capital account openness indicator is positive in all cases. However, the interaction coefficient is never statistically significant at the 5% level.

Equity market liberalization

In Panel B of Table VI, we explore the interaction effect between the exogenous growth opportunities measure, *GGO_MA*, and indicators of equity market liberalization.

Our first measure, the official equity market liberalization indicator, is based on Bekaert and Harvey's (2005) detailed chronology of important financial, economic, and political events in many developing countries. The variable takes the value of one when it is possible for foreign portfolio investors to own the equity of a particular country and zero otherwise. Industrialized countries, such as the United States, are assumed to be fully liberalized throughout our sample. Our second measure uses data on foreign ownership restrictions to measure the degree of equity market openness. Following Bekaert (1995) and Edison and Warnock (2003), the measure is based upon the ratio of the market capitalization of the S&P/IFC investable to the S&P/IFC global indices in each country. The S&P/IFC's global stock index seeks to represent the local stock market whereas the investable index corrects the market capitalization for foreign ownership restrictions. Hence, a ratio of one means that all of the stocks in the local market are available to foreigners. Accordingly, $\alpha_{i,1,t}$ is a linear function of either the 0/1 indicator associated with official equity market liberalization or the continuous measure on the $[0,1]$ interval capturing the degree of equity market openness.

In contrast to the evidence for general capital account liberalization presented above, the link between growth opportunities and future output and investment growth is much stronger in economies that permit greater access to their equity markets. The interaction coefficient (β) is always statistically significant, both for the official equity market liberalization indicator and

the liberalization intensity. The coefficient on the direct effect of growth opportunities (α) is still positive, but no longer significant. This evidence suggests that there is a strong association between the ability to exploit global growth opportunities and the degree of foreign investor access to the domestic equity market. Because it has been documented that both GDP growth (see Bekaert, Harvey, and Lundblad (2001, 2005)) and investment growth (see Bekaert and Harvey (2000) and Henry (2000)) increase post-liberalization, we also estimated a regression allowing for a direct liberalization effect. These regressions yield similar results to the ones reported below.

We also use the degree of stock market internationalization variable created by Levine and Schmukler (2003) as an indicator of equity market openness. While the interaction effects are again positive, they are not statistically significant (not reported).¹²

Banking openness

Finally, in Panel C of Table VI, we introduce a 0/1 indicator variable that captures periods when foreign banks are allowed to enter the domestic market either through the establishment of branches or subsidiaries or through the acquisition of local banks. Using a variety of sources, we have been able to determine important regulatory changes affecting foreign banks in 41 of our 50 countries over the past 23 years. The regression involving this new indicator therefore reflects a slightly smaller sample. The foreign banking openness indicator is equal to zero unless foreign banks have access to the domestic banking market through the establishment of branches or subsidiaries or through the acquisition of local banks (for details see Table II and Appendix Table AII). While recent studies have explored the impact of foreign banks on the efficiency and stability of the local banking sector (e.g. Claessens, Demirgüç-Kunt, and Huizinga (2001)), our indicator variable is related to the regulatory environment foreign banks face with respect to establishing or expanding their operations in a local market. We also construct a first sign indicator that changes from zero to one when a country takes substantial first steps to improve access for foreign banks. Appendix Table AII lists the year of the banking liberalization for each of the 41 countries.

Similar to the equity market liberalization effect, there is a strong association between the opening of the banking sector to foreign banks and the ability to exploit exogenous growth opportunities. The interaction coefficients between both of the banking liberalization indicators and

¹²Note that the sample here started in 1989.

growth opportunities are always positive and statistically significant.

4 Capital Allocation and Growth Opportunities

Apart from capital controls, there are many other country characteristics that may effectively segment markets, or prevent aligning growth opportunities with actual growth. In fact, until recently the growth literature seems to have largely ignored the potentially important role of financial openness. Instead, an extensive literature documents a significant relationship between domestic banking development (e.g. King and Levine (1993)) or stock market development (e.g. Atje and Jovanovic (1989)) and economic growth. As Fisman and Love (2004b) point out, the most obvious channel through which financial development would promote growth is through its role in allocating resources to its most productive uses. In the language of this paper, financial development helps align growth opportunities with growth. However, an influential paper of Rajan and Zingales (1998) has instead stressed the importance of external finance constraints as the mechanism through which financial development promotes growth: industries heavily dependent on external finance grow faster in more financially developed countries. Interestingly, both articles assume a form of market segmentation to allow domestic financial development to play an important role in the inter-sectoral allocation of resources. As Bekaert, Harvey, and Lundblad (2005) point out, financial openness promotes financial development, so that the market segmentation assumption may effectively ignore an important channel for allocative efficiency. In Section 4.1, we use our empirical framework to revisit this debate.

La Porta et al. (1997) have emphasized the importance of investor protection and, more generally, the quality of institutions and the legal environment as sources for cross-country differences in financial development. In Section 4.2, we use our panel set-up to directly test the importance of investor protection in helping align growth opportunities with actual growth. We show that investor protection per se is less important than more general measures of political risk, specifically the components of political risk which may be of particular importance for foreign direct investment.

4.1 *Financial Development, External Finance Dependence, and Growth*

Panel A of Table VII considers interaction effects with three important measures of domestic financial development: the ratio of private credit to GDP (banking development), equity market turnover and the ratio of equity market capitalization to GDP (both measures of equity market development). The coefficient on the interaction with the private credit ratio enters positively for both output and investment growth, and is significant at the 10% and 5% levels for each, respectively. However, the coefficients on turnover and size are actually negative in three of the four cases presented, but statistically insignificant for both output and investment growth in all cases. Together, this evidence suggests that domestic banking development is important for exploiting growth opportunities, but stock market development is not. This stands in contrast to the evidence presented above on stock market *openness*.

Interestingly, this finding directly confirms the idea in Fisman and Love (2004b). They postulate that the relation between actual growth in an industry in a particular country and its growth opportunities should be stronger depending on the level of financial development in the country. They test this hypothesis without measuring growth opportunities by investigating the correlation of industry growth rates across countries. They find that countries have correlated intersectoral growth rates only if both countries have high private bank credit to GDP ratios. Other measures of financial development do not yield significant results.

The Fisman-Love test assumes the existence of globally correlated shocks, but ignores the presence of international capital flows. It is conceivable that international flows are the mechanism behind the correlation in cross-country sectoral growth rates not that these countries simply have well functioning financial markets. Panel C (left side) in Table VII provides some exploratory analysis of this issue. We split up our observations into four groups. First, we sort observations into below or above median financial development, using the private credit to GDP ratio, then into financially open and closed using the official equity market openness indicator. We regress GDP and investment growth on our measure of growth opportunities interacted with an indicator variable for each of the four groups. The results strongly support the idea that it is openness that drives the alignment of growth opportunities with growth, not financial development. Even in market with poor financial development, the interaction coefficient is highly significant as long

as the country has an open equity market. The GDP growth interaction coefficients are at least twice as large for open versus closed equity markets. Not surprisingly, a Wald test strongly rejects the equality of the open versus closed coefficients. The coefficients for low versus high financial development, conditioning on open or closed markets, do not even uniformly suggest a better alignment of growth opportunities with growth for the highly developed markets, making a Wald test meaningless.

The Fisman-Love article casts doubt on the results by Rajan and Zingales (1998), who stressed the role of external finance dependence. We obtained the industry-specific time-invariant measures of external finance dependence (the amount of investments not financed internally) and investment intensity (the ratio of investments to property, plant, and equipment) from Rajan and Zingales. These variables are based on U.S. data and available only for manufacturing industries (see Rajan and Zingales (1998) for details). Using time-varying industry weights measured as an industry's relative value added in a given country, we construct aggregate measures of external finance dependence and investment intensity.

Panel B in Table VII provides a simple interaction analysis of the growth opportunities measure with these country-specific Rajan-Zingales measures. The interaction is positive and statistically significant at the 5% level for investment and at the 6% level for GDP growth. But this interaction effect appears inconsistent with the Rajan-Zingales hypothesis, as it implies that countries with a higher weight in industries that are heavily dependent on external finance manage to better align growth opportunities with growth. However, it is conceivable that industries which require much external finance are better represented in countries with well developed financial markets. This is exactly the claim made and supported by Fisman and Love (2004a). Apart from the debate between Rajan-Zingales and Fisman-Love on what is the critical channel in the finance-growth nexus, our research provides an additional reason to consider an analysis that differentiates between financial development and external finance dependence.

The middle panel in Panel C in Table VII segregates the sample by level of external finance dependence and financial development. That is, we sort each observation into below or above median financial development as well as into below or above median external finance dependence. This yields four categories of observations depending on the level of financial development and external finance dependence. The results are somewhat mixed. In three of four comparisons,

there are higher interaction coefficients for countries with high external finance dependence than for countries with low external finance dependence, controlling for the degree of financial development. It is not the case that in countries with high external finance dependence, growth opportunities are better aligned with actual growth in countries with better financial development (compare the two last lines). The Wald tests are not reported in three out of four cases because the comparisons do not yield a robust difference in signs across the two realizations of the conditioning variable. For GDP growth rates, countries with relatively low external finance dependence show a significantly smaller interaction coefficient than countries with high external finance dependence, with the effect mostly driven by the countries with low financial development. All these results are largely inconsistent with the results in Rajan and Zingales (1998). Of course, we have aggregated industries into countries, and this aggregation may exacerbate the problem that external finance dependence should affect the industry mix of a country. Moreover, the division of countries over the four bins shows a distinct positive correlation between financial development and external finance dependence. In fact, the cross-sectional correlation between average external finance dependence and average private credit to GDP is 0.61 for the sample.

It is conceivable that financial openness is again the most important omitted variable. In the right panel of Panel C in Table VII, we explicitly consider this possibility. The results here are very sharp. Conditioning on financial openness, there is no significant difference between the alignment effects of high or low external finance dependent countries. However, there is a strong and statistically significant difference between the alignment effects of open and closed countries, conditional on the degree of external finance dependence.¹³ There is a caveat however. It is also the case that financial openness and external finance dependence are correlated. In particular, there are very few countries in the high external finance dependence-closed equity markets category.

We conclude that the important debate regarding the role of external finance constraints and financial development in promoting growth has ignored an important channel for realizing growth opportunities, namely the degree of financial openness.

¹³Gupta and Yuan (2004) claim that the growth effects of equity market liberalization primarily take place in the externally dependent industries. Our results may be consistent with what they find, but confirming this would require high-quality panel data on external financial dependence.

4.2 *Investor Protection, Political Risk, and Growth*

We can directly investigate the effect of investor protection on the ability to exploit growth opportunities by interacting our growth opportunities measure with a measure of investor protection. One of the major advantages of our framework is the panel setup, but unfortunately most measures of investor protection or the quality of (legal) institutions have no time dimension. We therefore use two measures obtained from the International Country Risk Guide's (ICRG) political risk ratings, Law and Order and a broader measure of the Quality of Institutions that we compiled out of the ICRG political risk sub-components, reflecting corruption, law and order, and bureaucratic quality (see Table II). We also consider a 0/1 indicator that takes a value one after the first insider trading prosecution in each country (see Bhattacharya and Daouk (2002)). Panel A in Table VIII shows that investor protection itself does not seem to better align growth opportunities with growth. The highest t -statistic (1.70) occurs for the investment growth equation in relation to Law and Order.

Shleifer and Wolfenzon (2002) suggest that improvements in investor protection have very different effects in open and closed economies. In particular, entrepreneurs suffer less from an improvement in investor protection under perfect capital mobility than under segmentation. Their analysis also predicts that entrepreneurs will be more opposed to improvements in investor protection where capital markets are closed to capital flows. Within our framework, their model would predict a significant interaction effect of investor protection with growth opportunities in *open* economies. In Panel B of Table VIII, we repeat the sub-group analysis of Panel C Table VII for the Law and Order variable. We find that the marginal effect of improved Law and Order in aligning growth opportunities with growth is insignificantly different from zero. Again, openness is more important both economically and statistically; with, conditional on the level of investor protection, open economies displaying interaction coefficients about 2.5 to three times larger as closed economies. Note that investor protection is likely to be priced and reflected in country-specific PE ratios (see La Porta et al. (1997) and Albuquerque and Wang (2004)). However, our analysis in Table VIII uses an *exogenous* growth opportunities measure, so it is not influenced by any country-specific factors.

Finally, we note that the Law and Order and Quality of Institutions measures are part of the

ICRG's political risk rating. Political risk may effectively segment capital markets (see Bekaert (1995)). It is well known that some institutional investors have guidelines that prohibit them from investing in the equity markets of certain risky countries. For example, CalPERS, the largest U.S. pension fund, has a Permissible Country Program, which explicitly weights political risk in determining whether a country is a permissible investment. Similarly, high levels of political risk may discourage foreign direct investment. In Panel C of Table VIII, we consider the overall ICRG political risk rating - a composite of twelve subindices ranging from political conditions, the quality of institutions, socioeconomic conditions and conflict - and a measure of the investment profile in each country. The investment profile reflects the risk of expropriation, contract viability, payment delays, and the ability to repatriate profits. This measure is most closely correlated with political risks relevant for FDI.

The evidence suggests that high values for the political risk and the investment profile indices (larger numbers denote improved conditions) are associated with a significantly greater ability to exploit exogenous growth opportunities. The overall positive coefficient of the political risk rating is not due to the quality of institutions variable (in Panel A), but rather to those aspects of the legal and regulatory environment that directly relate to the stability and security of inward investment. Our analysis indirectly reveals the importance of international capital flows in aligning growth opportunities with growth.

5 Growth Opportunities and Market Integration

5.1 *Econometric framework*

In Table V, we presented evidence that exogenous growth opportunities predict future output and investment growth. Table VI shows that the degree of predictability increases with equity market and banking sector openness. In this section, we link this predictability to tests of market integration. First, we explore whether the differential between local and exogenous growth opportunities predicts future growth in excess of world growth. Under full market integration, this should not be the case. That is, we test the null of market integration. Second, we explore whether the differential between exogenous and world average growth opportunities predicts future excess growth. In integrated markets, countries that contain high (low) *PE* ratio industries should grow at a faster

(slower) rate than the rest of the world. In other words, we test the null of market segmentation.

Concretely, the regressions we consider are

$$y_{i,t+k,k} - y_{w,t+k,k} = \alpha_{i,0} + \alpha_{i,1,t}LEGO_MA_{i,t} + \eta_{i,t+k,k} \quad (13)$$

$$y_{i,t+k,k} - y_{w,t+k,k} = \alpha_{i,0} + \alpha_{i,1,t}GEGO_MA_{i,t} + \eta_{i,t+k,k}, \quad (14)$$

where $y_{i,t+k,k} - y_{w,t+k,k}$ is the k -year average growth rate of either real per capita gross domestic product or investment for country i in excess of the “world” counterpart. $LEGO_MA_{i,t}$ ($= LGO_MA_{i,t} - GGO_MA_{i,t}$) is the difference between local and exogenous growth opportunities, and $GEGO_MA_{i,t}$ ($= GGO_MA_{i,t} - WGO_MA_t$) is the difference between exogenous growth opportunities and the growth opportunities measure for the world market. We focus on our largest sample of 50 countries in order to maximize both the cross-sectional and time-series information in our sample. Moreover, we use the interaction effects between excess exogenous growth opportunities and our openness measures to formulate our tests for either fully integrated or fully segmented countries, as in equation (12). Again, $Open_{i,t}$ indicates capital account, equity market, or banking sector openness. This is likely to lead to more powerful tests than dividing countries into developed and emerging markets because that division mixes financially open and closed countries in both sub-samples. For example, according to the IMF capital control measure, Denmark had a closed capital account before 1988, whereas Malaysia had overall open capital markets throughout the sample until the late 1990’s. By making our tests depend on the “de jure” degree of financial openness, we essentially verify whether de jure and de facto openness (“integration”) coincide. It is well known that for many reasons, see e.g. the discussion in Bekaert and Harvey (1995), they may not.

5.2 The null of market integration

The three panels in Table IX correspond to different measures of openness as in Table VI. With the $LEGO_MA$ measure, we expect the interaction effect (β) to be negative. $LEGO_MA$ should not predict growth or investment when markets are fully integrated. The interaction effect is always negative for both of our capital account openness measures (Panel A) and for the banking openness measures (Panel C). This is true for both investment and output growth, but only the investment growth results are statistically significant. The null of market integration is formally rejected for

closed countries at the 5% level in three of the four cases for investment growth (in Panels A and C). Overall, and for investment growth in particular, the constant term (α) and the interaction term (β) in $\alpha_{i,1,t}$ are of about the same magnitude and the constant term is significantly positive in three out of the four investment growth cases. For the GDP growth regressions, it is positive but not significantly different from zero. As a result, we fail to reject market integration for open countries (null hypothesis: $\alpha + \beta = 0$) in every single case. Hence, for open countries *LEGO_MA* does not predict relative growth, but for closed countries it does. For the binary equity openness measure, there are no significant coefficients, and some coefficients have the wrong sign.

5.3 The null of market segmentation

In Table X, we present evidence for the alternative regression (14) using *exogenous* growth opportunities in excess of their world counterpart. In this regression, we explore the degree to which country-specific industrial composition (relative to the world) predicts *excess* output and investment growth (relative to the world). If a country has an industrial base tilted towards high *PE* industries in the global market, it should grow faster than the world average. That is, integrated countries can only grow faster than the world through an industrial composition geared towards high growth opportunities. In a regression over all countries (not reported), *GEGO_MA* comes in highly significantly for both GDP and investment growth.

If de jure and de facto integration coincide, *GEGO_MA* should predict relative growth for relatively open countries, but not necessarily for closed countries. The results in Table X are qualitatively consistent with this hypothesis. With the exception of the capital account openness measure (IMF), the constant terms (α) are not statistically different from zero. Consequently, we reject the null of market segmentation for closed countries in only two out of twelve cases. While the interaction effects (β) themselves fail to be statistically significant, the combined effect for integrated countries ($\alpha + \beta$) is almost always statistically significant. We reject the null of segmentation for open countries in eleven out of twelve cases. This happens even though the interaction effect is negative in three cases. Clearly, there is a relation between our broad concept of integration and de jure financial openness, but it is not perfect.

6 Conclusions

Our research proposes a simple measure of country-specific growth opportunities based on price to earnings (PE) ratios determined in global stock markets. To do so, we combine information about a country's industrial composition and the growth opportunities contained in global PE ratios that each of these industries face. Importantly, we find that this measure of *exogenous* growth opportunities predicts future output and investment growth.

To allow for the possibility of a time-varying, country-specific ability to exploit global growth opportunities, we interact our measure of global growth opportunities with a number of measures capturing varying degrees of openness such as capital account, equity market, and banking sector liberalizations. Importantly, we find evidence that suggests a greater likelihood of market integration in more open economies; however, the evidence is not entirely uniform across openness measures and the relevant coefficients are not always statistically significant.

Of course, there is a large list of factors that may effectively segment or help integrate countries into the world economy. In our research, we investigate measures of financial development, external finance dependence, investor protection, and political risk. Banking development, as in Fisman and Love (2004b), shows a significant interaction effect with growth opportunities. Our results also suggest that the existing literature is omitting a critically relevant variable. Financial market openness seems a more important determinant of the ability to exploit growth opportunities than is financial development or external finance dependence. In future work, we plan to investigate whether international capital in the form of FDI and portfolio flows indeed “follows” growth opportunities. This research may usefully complement recent work by Baker, Foley, and Wurgler (2004), who have argued that FDI is mostly driven by cheap capital in source countries.

We consider tests of market integration and segmentation. First, if growth opportunities are indeed globally priced and exploited, the difference between local and global price-earnings ratios should not predict the relative growth performance of a country. The null of market integration is only rejected for segmented countries using the investment growth regressions. Second, in integrated markets, the difference in industrial composition relative to the world multiplied with world price earnings ratios should be a main driver of relative growth, as it should be the countries with the high PE ratio industries that capture the highest growth rates. We mostly reject the null

of market segmentation for integrated countries, but the results also reveal that de jure and de facto openness are not always synonymous. In future work, we attempt to measure the effective degree of integration and its determinants.

7 Appendix A: Price-Earnings Ratios and Growth Opportunities

We consider a simple present value model under the null of financial market integration. We begin by defining log earnings growth, $\Delta \ln(Earn_t)$, with $Earn_t$ the earnings level, in country i , industry j as:

$$\Delta \ln(Earn_{i,j,t}) = \gamma_{i,j} GO_{w,j,t-1} + \epsilon_{i,j,t}. \quad (15)$$

Earnings growth is affected by world-wide growth opportunities in industry j , defined as $GO_{w,j,t}$ and an idiosyncratic noise term which we assume to be $N(0, \sigma_{i,j}^2)$. In the solution presented above, we assume $\gamma_{i,j} = 1$, but we provide the more general solution below. Growth opportunities themselves follow a persistent stochastic process:

$$GO_{w,j,t} = \mu_j + \varphi_j GO_{w,j,t-1} + \epsilon_{w,j,t}. \quad (16)$$

We assume $\epsilon_{w,j,t} \sim N(0, \sigma_{w,j}^2)$.

Under the hypothesis of market integration, the discount rate for each industry in each country is simply a multiple of the world discount rate:

$$\delta_{i,j,t} = r_f(1 - \beta_{i,j}) + \beta_{i,j} \delta_{w,t}. \quad (17)$$

The constant term, with r_f equal to the risk free rate, arises because the discount rates are *total* not *excess* discount rates. An equation like (17) would follow from a logarithmic version of the standard world CAPM. The world discount rate process follows:

$$\delta_{w,t} = d_w + \phi_w \delta_{w,t-1} + \eta_{w,t}, \quad (18)$$

with $\eta_{w,t} \sim N(0, s_w^2)$. An important assumption is that under the null of market integration, industries in different countries face the same discount rate; that is,

$$\beta_{i,j} = \beta_j. \quad (19)$$

Suppose that each industry pays out all earnings, $Earn_t$, each period, then the valuation of the industry under (15)-(18) is:

$$V_{i,j,t} = E_t \left[\sum_{k=1}^{\infty} \exp\left(-\sum_{\ell=0}^{k-1} \delta_{i,j,t+\ell}\right) Earn_{i,j,t+k} \right]. \quad (20)$$

Given that we model earnings growth as in equation (15), the earnings process is non-stationary. We must scale the current valuation by earnings, and impose a transversality condition to obtain a solution:

$$\begin{aligned} PE_{i,j,t} = \frac{V_{i,j,t}}{Earn_{i,j,t}} &= E_t \left[\sum_{k=1}^{\infty} \exp\left(\sum_{\ell=0}^{k-1} -\delta_{i,j,t+\ell} + \Delta \ln(Earn_{i,j,t+1+\ell})\right) \right] \\ &= \sum_{k=1}^{\infty} Q_{i,j,k,t}. \end{aligned} \quad (21)$$

Note that for $k = 1$,

$$\begin{aligned} Q_{i,j,1,t} &= E_t[\exp(-\delta_{i,j,t} + \Delta \ln(Earn_{i,j,t+1}))] \\ &= \exp(-r_f(1 - \beta_{i,j}) - \beta_{i,j}\delta_{w,t} + \gamma_{i,j}GO_{w,j,t} - \frac{1}{2}\sigma_{i,j}^2). \end{aligned} \quad (22)$$

We conjecture

$$Q_{i,j,k,t} = \exp(a_{i,j,k} + b_{i,j,k}\delta_{w,t} + c_{i,j,k}GO_{w,j,t}). \quad (23)$$

Although a full closed-form solution can be found, for our purposes it suffices to characterize the recursive equations describing the $a_{i,j,k}$, $b_{i,j,k}$, and $c_{i,j,k}$ coefficients.

$$\begin{aligned} Q_{i,j,k+1,t} &= E_t[\exp(\sum_{\ell=0}^k -\delta_{i,j,t+\ell} + \Delta \ln(Earn_{i,j,t+1+\ell}))] \\ &= E_t[\exp(-\delta_{i,j,t} + \Delta \ln(Earn_{i,j,t+1})) \cdot \exp(\sum_{\ell=0}^{k-1} -\delta_{i,j,t+1+\ell} + \Delta \ln(Earn_{i,j,t+2+\ell}))] \\ &= E_t[\exp(-\delta_{i,j,t} + \Delta \ln(Earn_{i,j,t+1}) + a_{i,j,k} + b_{i,j,k}\delta_{w,t+1} + c_{i,j,k}GO_{w,j,t+1})]. \end{aligned} \quad (24)$$

Consequently,

$$\begin{aligned} &\exp(a_{i,j,k+1} + b_{i,j,k+1}\delta_{w,t} + c_{i,j,k+1}GO_{w,j,t}) \\ &= \exp\{a_{i,j,k} + b_{i,j,k}d_w + c_{i,j,k}\mu_j - r_f(1 - \beta_{i,j}) - \frac{1}{2}(\sigma_{i,j}^2 + b_{i,j,k}^2s_w^2 + c_{i,j,k}^2\sigma_{w,j}^2) \\ &\quad + (\gamma_{i,j} + c_{i,j,k}\varphi_j)GO_{w,j,t} + (-\beta_{i,j} + b_{i,j,k}\phi_w)\delta_{w,t}\}. \end{aligned} \quad (25)$$

Hence, matching coefficients, we find:

$$a_{i,j,k+1} = a_{i,j,k} - r_f(1 - \beta_{i,j}) + b_{i,j,k}d_w + c_{i,j,k}\mu_j - \frac{1}{2}(\sigma_{i,j}^2 + b_{i,j,k}^2s_w^2 + c_{i,j,k}^2\sigma_{w,j}^2) \quad (26)$$

$$b_{i,j,k+1} = -\beta_{i,j} + b_{i,j,k}\phi_w \quad (27)$$

$$c_{i,j,k+1} = \gamma_{i,j} + c_{i,j,k}\varphi_j. \quad (28)$$

$$(29)$$

In (19) we assume under the hypothesis of market integration that industries in different countries face the same discount rate. Hence, we can write $b_{i,j,k+1} = b_{j,k+1}$. Also, the country dependence in growth opportunities hinges entirely on $\gamma_{i,j}$. We assume that in a fully integrated world:

$$\gamma_{i,j} = \gamma_j = 1. \quad (30)$$

That is, earnings growth in a particular industry should not depend on the country in which the industry is located. If that is the case, it is logical to assume that γ_j is 1 because growth opportunities are industry specific. Bringing everything together, we find that the price earnings ratio for a particular industry in a particular country can be written as:

$$PE_{i,j,t} = \sum_{k=1}^{\infty} \exp(a_{i,j,k} + b_{j,k}\delta_{w,t} + c_{j,k}GO_{w,j,t}) \quad (31)$$

An improvement in growth opportunities revises price earnings ratios for the industry upward everywhere in the world, and the change in the PE ratio is larger when $GO_{w,j,t}$ is more persistent. Similarly, a reduction in the world discount rate increases the PE ratio with the magnitude of the response depending upon the persistence of the discount rate process and the beta of the industry. Equation (31) can be linearized around the mean values for $\delta_{w,t}$ and $GO_{w,j,t}$ leading to the expression in the text (4).

8 Appendix B: Constructing Measures of Growth Opportunities

Data availability provided, we construct measures of growth opportunities at a monthly frequency from January 1973 to December 2002. For the main results in Sections 3 through 5 of this paper, though, we focus on the December values of our measures of growth opportunities between 1980 and 1997.

Local Growth Opportunities

We approximate LGO with the log of the market PE ratio of a given country. We collect market PE ratios from Datastream for the last day of each month. Thirteen of our 50 countries are not covered by Datastream and we use PE ratios from Standard & Poor’s/IFC Emerging Markets Data Base (EMDB) instead. For Italy, Norway, Spain, and Sweden, we use data from MSCI to exploit the longer time series compared to Datastream. In a few cases, we encounter negative PE ratios. We replace those by the maximum PE ratio observed up to that point. The latter is in no case larger than 100. Table AI reports for each country which data are used to construct LGO and in which month the coverage begins.

Exogenous Global Growth Opportunities

GGO as defined in (6) is the log of the inner product of the vector of global industry PE ratios and the vector of country-specific industry weights. While Datastream is the only source for the global industry PE ratios (monthly frequency), we use different sources to derive country-specific industry weights (annual frequency), in particular we use Datastream as well as EMDB to derive an industry’s relative market capitalization, our principal measure of industry-weights, and UNIDO data to derive an industry’s relative value added (VA), an alternative measure of industry-weights. For each of these measures, technical appendices that describe how we match the different industry classifications are available upon request.

Market capitalization based industry weights

For 21 out of the 50 countries in our sample we combine lagged market values for 35 industrial sectors covered by Datastream with the corresponding global PE ratios for the same 35 industries,¹⁴ that is the market capitalizations reflect information as of December 31 of the previous year with respect to the information contained in the PE ratios.¹⁵

For the remaining 29 countries, we derive industry weights from lagged market capitalization data reported by EMDB. EMDB employs the 2-digit SIC classification. To combine these industry weights with the global industry PE ratios from Datastream, we link the 101 industrial sub-sectors from Datastream to 82 SIC groups, obtaining global PE ratios for each SIC group.¹⁶

¹⁴Datastream uses the FTSE industry classification with 35 industrial sectors (level 4 in Datastream) and 101 sub-sectors (level 5 in Datastream). For a detailed description see “FTSE Global Classification System”, available at <http://www.ftse.com>.

¹⁵If $t = \text{May } 1985$ and $GGO_{i,t} = \ln[IW'_{i,t-1} PE_{w,t}]$, the industry weights, $IW_{i,t-1}$, reflect the industrial composition in country i as of December 31, 1984, while the global industry PE ratios, $PE_{w,t}$, reflect information as of May 31, 1985. The only exceptions to this rule are 1973, where the industry weights are as of December 31, 1973, and cases where the Datastream country coverage starts after 1973. If Datastream coverage for a specific country starts after 1973, we use the earliest available observation for the previous years without observations. See Appendix Table AI for details.

¹⁶For the Datastream sub-sector “Mortgage Finance” we replace the PE ratio between December 1981 and Febru-

Whenever more than one Datastream sub-sector is included in an SIC group, we calculate the weighted average of the PE ratios of the entering sub-sectors using the sub-sectors' market values as of December 31 of the same year. Industry weights again reflect information as of December 31 of the previous year with respect to the information contained in the PE ratios.¹⁷

Value added (VA) based industry weights

As an alternative to the market capitalization based weights, we also derive industry weights from an industry's relative value added. We obtain annual value added data for 28 manufacturing industries, classified according to the 3-digit ISIC (rev. 2) system, from the UNIDO Industrial Statistics Database starting in 1973. Since the UNIDO database contains information only on the manufacturing sector, industry weights are calculated relative to the value added of the manufacturing sector. To combine these industry weights with the global industry PE ratios from Datastream, we link 39 (manufacturing) of the 101 industrial sub-sectors from Datastream to the 28 ISIC manufacturing industries, obtaining global PE ratios for each ISIC group. Whenever more than one Datastream sub-sector is included in an ISIC group, we calculate the weighted average of the PE ratios of the entering sub-sectors using the sub-sectors' market values as of December 31 of the same year. Value added based industry weights reflect information as of the same year with respect to the information contained in the PE ratios.¹⁸

World Growth Opportunities

WGO as defined in (8) is the log of the inner product of the vector of global industry PE ratios and the vector of global industry weights. We use the same vector of global PE ratios from Datastream as in the construction of GGO . Global industry weights are based on relative world market capitalization. As with the market capitalization based measure of global growth opportunities, we again use lagged industry weights.

Measures of Excess Growth Opportunities

For the construction of $LEGO$ and $GEGO$ we use the market capitalization based measure of global growth opportunities, GGO . We construct $LEGO$ by subtracting GGO from LGO , and $GEGO$ by subtracting WGO from GGO .

ary 1983 by the PE ratio of the industrial sector "Sp. and Other Finance" (after adjusting its level appropriately), as the original PE ratio takes on extreme values of up to 1,976.

¹⁷The only exceptions to this rule are the years 1973 through 1975, where the industry weights are as of December 31, 1975, cases where EMDB country coverage starts after 1975, and values for 2002 where the industry weights are as of December 31, 2000. If EMDB coverage for a specific country starts after 1975, we use the earliest available observation for the previous years without observations. Since EMDB coverage of Portugal ends in 1998, we use the 1998 industry structure from 1999 to 2002. See Appendix Table AI for details.

¹⁸The only exceptions to this rule are cases where UNIDO country coverage is missing. If UNIDO coverage for a specific country starts after 1973, we again use the earliest available observation for the previous years without observations. If UNIDO coverage for a specific country is interrupted, we use the last available observations. Since UNIDO coverage ends in 1998, we use the 1998 industry structure from 1998 to 2002. See Appendix Table AI for details.

9 References

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Table I

Predictive Power of Growth Opportunities Measures in Integrated and Segmented Markets

For each growth opportunity measure, we state its ability to predict economic growth under the two opposing assumptions of market integration and segmentation.

Definition	Predicting Economic Growth	
	<i>Market Integration</i>	<i>Market Segmentation</i>
LGO is a local measure of country-specific growth opportunities. LGO is the weighted sum of a country's industry PE ratios. The weights are the relative capitalization of industries within the country. It is expressed in logs.	LGO predicts economic growth independently from the degree of market integration.	
GGO is a global measure of growth opportunities, i.e. country-specific growth opportunities implied by the global market. GGO is the weighted sum of global industry PE ratios. The weights are determined by relative market capitalization or relative value added (VA). It is expressed in logs.	GGO predicts economic growth, since LGO and GGO move closely together.	GGO does not predict economic growth, since global PE ratios are not relevant for local markets.
LEGO is a local measure of country-specific growth opportunities in excess of global growth opportunities. LEGO is the difference between LGO and GGO.	LEGO does not predict economic growth in excess of world growth.	LEGO predicts economic growth in excess of world economic growth. Local and global PE ratios contain different information.
GEGO is a global measure of country-specific growth opportunities in excess of world growth opportunities. GEGO is the difference between GGO and WGO. GEGO is different from zero when a country's industry composition differs from the world's industry composition.	GEGO predicts economic growth in excess of world economic growth. Differences in industry composition are the only factors leading to differences in economic growth.	GEGO does not predict economic growth, since global PE ratios are not relevant for local markets.

Table II
Description of the Variables

Table II describes all variables used in the paper. All data are employed at the annual frequency.

Variable	Description
LGO and LGO_MA	LGO and LGO_MA are local measures of country-specific growth opportunities. LGO is the log of a country's market PE ratio. LGO_MA is LGO less a 60-month moving average. For sample II (17 developed countries), both variables are available from 1980 through 2002. For the other countries, starting points vary. For details see Appendix B. Source: <i>Datastream, S&P/IFC's Emerging Markets Data Base, MSCI</i>
GGO and GGO_MA	GGO and GGO_MA are global measures of country-specific growth opportunities. GGO is the log of the inner product of the vector of global industry PE ratios and the vector of country-specific industry weights. Country-specific industry weights are determined by relative equity market capitalization. We also investigate an alternative set of weights based on the relative value added (VA) of the manufacturing industries in a country. GGO_MA is GGO less a 60-month moving average. Available for all 50 countries from 1980 through 2002. See Appendix B for details. Source: <i>Datastream, S&P/IFC's Emerging Markets Data Base, UNIDO Industrial Statistics Database</i>
LEGO and LEGO_MA	LEGO and LEGO_MA are local measures of country-specific growth opportunities in excess of global growth opportunities. LEGO is the difference between LGO and GGO. LEGO_MA is LEGO less a 60-month moving average. For sample II (17 developed countries) both variables are available from 1980 through 2002. For other countries, starting points vary. See Appendix B for details.
GEGO and GEGO_MA	GEGO and GEGO_MA are global measures of country-specific growth opportunities in excess of world growth opportunities. GEGO is the difference between GGO and its world counterpart (WGO). GEGO_MA is GEGO less a 60-month moving average. Available for all 50 countries from 1980 through 2002. See Appendix B for details. Source: <i>Datastream, S&P/IFC's Emerging Markets Data Base</i>
GGO_MA (unregulated industries) and GGO_MA (tradable industries)	In Appendix Table AIII, we define certain industries as likely regulated or non tradable. In the construction of GGO_MA (unregulated industries) and GGO_MA (tradable industries), we omit those industries, while renormalizing the equity market based weights of the included industries appropriately. Source: <i>Datastream, S&P/IFC's Emerging Markets Data Base</i>
Share of unregulated industries	The Share of unregulated industries represents the equity market capitalization of those industries that we do not classify as regulated (see Appendix Table AIII for details) relative to total equity market capitalization. Source: <i>Datastream, S&P/IFC's Emerging Markets Data Base</i>
Gross domestic product (GDP) growth	Growth of real per capita gross domestic product. Available for all countries from 1980 through 2002. Source: <i>World Bank Development Indicators CD-ROM</i>
Investment growth	Growth of real per capita gross fixed capital formation, which includes land improvements (fences, ditches, drains, and so on), plant, machinery, and equipment purchases; and the construction of roads, railways, and the like, including schools, offices, hospitals, private residential dwellings, and commercial and industrial buildings. Available for all countries from 1980 through 2002. Source: <i>World Bank Development Indicators CD-ROM</i>
SOE Economic activity/GDP	Economic activity of state-owned enterprises (SOE) divided by GDP is the value added accounted for by state-owned enterprises relative to GDP. The variable is available for 34 countries. Source: <i>World Bank Development Indicators CD-ROM</i>
SOE Employment/total employment	Employment by state-owned enterprises (SOE) divided by total employment is the number of full-time state enterprise employees relative to total formal sector employment. The variable is available for 17 countries. Source: <i>World Bank Development Indicators CD-ROM</i>
External Finance Dependence	Rajan and Zingales (1998) use US firm level data from the 1980's to construct a time-invariant industry-specific measure of external finance dependence, based on the amount of investments not financed internally. Using time-varying country-specific industry weights, we combine their data to form a measure of aggregate external finance dependence for each year between 1980 and 2002 and each country in our sample.
<i>Measures of Openness</i>	
IMF Capital account open indicator	We measure capital account openness by employing the IMF's <i>Annual Report on Exchange Arrangements and Exchange Restrictions</i> (AREAER). This publication reports six categories of information. The capital account liberalization indicator takes on a value of zero if the country has at least one restriction in the "restrictions on payments for the capital account transaction"
Quinn Capital account openness indicator	Quinn's (1997) capital account openness measure is also created from the text of the annual volume published by the International Monetary Fund (IMF), <i>Exchange Arrangements and Exchange Restrictions</i> . Rather than the indicator constructed by the IMF that takes a 1 if any restriction is in place, Quinn's openness measure is scored 0-4, in half integer units, with 4 representing a fully open economy. The measure hence facilitates a more nuanced view of capital account openness, and is available for 48 countries in our study. We transform the measure into a 0 to 1 scale.

Table II - Continued

Variable	Description
Official equity market openness indicator	Corresponding to a date of formal regulatory change after which foreign investors officially have the opportunity to invest in domestic equity securities. Official openness dates are based on Bekaert and Harvey (2005) <i>A Chronology of Important Financial, Economic and Political Events in Emerging Markets</i> , http://www.duke.edu/~charvey/chronology.htm . This chronology is based on over 50 different source materials. A condensed version of the chronology, along with the selection of dates for a number of countries appears in Bekaert and Harvey (2000). We have extended their official openness dates to include Japan, New Zealand, and Spain. For the liberalizing countries, the associated official openness indicator takes a value of one when the equity market is officially liberalized and thereafter, and zero otherwise. For the remaining countries, fully segmented countries are assumed to have an indicator value of zero, and fully liberalized countries are assumed to have an indicator value of one. These dates appear in Appendix Table AII.
Intensity equity market openness indicator	Following Bekaert (1995) and Edison and Warnock (2003), the intensity measure is based on the ratio of the market capitalization of the constituent firms comprising the IFC Investable index to those that comprise the IFC Global index for each country. The IFC Global index, subject to some exclusion restrictions, is designed to represent the overall market portfolio for each country, whereas the IFC Investable index is designed to represent a portfolio of domestic equities that are available to foreign investors. A ratio of one means that all of the stocks are available to foreign investors. Fully segmented countries have an intensity measure of zero, and fully liberalized countries have an intensity measure of one.
Foreign banking openness indicator	Using a variety of sources (e.g. National Treatment Study, Fitch Ratings Country Reports, interviews with local regulatory bodies), we determine in which years foreign banks have access to the domestic banking market through the establishment of branches or subsidiaries or through the acquisition of local banks. Unless foreign banks are allowed to enter a local market, we consider a country closed with respect to foreign banks, yielding a Foreign banking openness indicator equal to zero. The indicator is equal to one if foreign banks have access to a local market. We also construct a First Sign indicator that changes from zero to one when a country takes substantial first steps to improve access for foreign banks. Both indicator variables are available for 41 countries. Banking openness dates appear in Appendix Table AII.
<i>Financial Development and Political Risk</i>	
Equity market turnover	The ratio of equity market value traded to the market capitalization. The variable is available for 50 countries from 1980 through 2002. Source: <i>S&P's Emerging Markets Data Base</i>
ADR	ADR represents the proportion of equity market capitalization represented by firms that cross list, issue ADRs or GDRs, or raise capital in international markets relative to total equity market capitalization. The variable is available from 1989. Source: <i>Levine and Schmukler (2003)</i>
Private credit/GDP	Private credit divided by gross domestic product. Credit to private sector refers to financial resources provided to the private sector, such as through loans, purchases of non-equity securities, and trade credits and other accounts receivable that establish a claim for repayment. Available for all countries from 1980 through 2002. Source: <i>World Bank Development Indicators</i> CD-ROM
Equity market size	The ratio of equity market value capitalization to GDP. The variable is available for 50 countries from 1980 through 2002. Source: <i>S&P's Emerging Markets Data Base</i>
Quality of Institutions	The sum of the International Country Risk Guide (ICRG) Political Risk subcomponents: Corruption, Law and Order, and Bureaucratic Quality. Source: Various issues of the <i>International Country Risk Guide</i>
Law and Order	ICRG political risk sub-component. ICRG assesses Law and Order separately, with each sub-component comprising zero to three points. The Law sub-component is an assessment of the strength and impartiality of the legal system, while the Order sub-component is an assessment of popular observance of the law. Thus, a country can enjoy a high rating (3.0) in terms of its judicial system, but a low rating (1.0) if the law is ignored for a political aim. Source: Various issues of the <i>International Country Risk Guide</i>
Insider trading law indicator	Bhattacharya and Daouk (2002) document the first prosecution of insider trading laws. The indicator variable takes the value of one following the the insider trading law's first prosecution.
Political risk rating	The political risk rating indicator which ranges between 0 (high risk) and 100 (low risk). The risk rating is a combination of 12 subcomponents. The data are available from 1984 through 2002. For each country, we backfill the 1984 value to 1980. Source: Various issues of the <i>International Country Risk Guide</i>
Investment Profile	ICRG political risk sub-component (12% weight). This is a measure of the government's attitude to inward investment. The investment profile is determined by PRS's assessment of three sub-components: (i) risk of expropriation or contract viability; (ii) payment delays; and (iii) repatriation of profits. Each sub-component is scored on a scale from zero (very high risk) to four (very low risk). Source: Various issues of the <i>International Country Risk Guide</i>

Table III - Panel A
Summary Statistics: LGO, GGO, LEGO, and GEGO, 1980 - 2002 - Annual Frequency

Panel A presents summary statistics for the unadjusted growth opportunities measures, averaged over different country groups and per country. LGO is the log of a country's market price to earnings ratio. Data are not available for all years, see Appendix Table AI for details. GGO is the log of the product of country-specific industry weights (reflecting the industry's relative market capitalization) and global industry PE ratios. GGO (VA) is the log of the product of country-specific industry weights (reflecting the industry's relative value added) and global industry PE ratios. Data are available for all years. LEGO is LGO - GGO. GEGO is GGO - WGO, the world counterpart to GGO. I, II, and III refer to samples of all 50, 17 developed, and 30 emerging economies. World refers to the global stock market index as covered by Datastream.

Sample	Country	Mean					Standard Deviation				
		LGO	GGO	GGO (VA)	LEGO	GEGO	LGO	GGO	GGO (VA)	LEGO	GEGO
	World	2.986	-	-	-	-	0.313	-	-	-	-
I	All Countries	2.661	2.932	3.017	-0.339	-0.054	0.544	0.295	0.244	0.523	0.160
II	Developed	2.737	2.945	3.049	-0.208	-0.041	0.469	0.288	0.250	0.369	0.138
III	Emerging	2.543	2.911	2.992	-0.494	-0.075	0.583	0.298	0.233	0.599	0.165
I, III	Argentina	2.979	2.911	2.973	-0.142	-0.075	0.796	0.348	0.232	0.850	0.093
I, II	Australia	2.695	2.899	3.036	-0.203	-0.087	0.341	0.315	0.239	0.200	0.090
I, II	Austria	2.838	2.905	3.074	-0.068	-0.081	0.253	0.229	0.254	0.320	0.180
I, III	Bangladesh	2.470	3.031	3.004	-0.651	0.045	0.682	0.165	0.167	0.711	0.194
I, II	Belgium	2.513	2.940	3.042	-0.428	-0.046	0.303	0.222	0.246	0.182	0.194
I, III	Brazil	2.206	2.821	3.037	-0.963	-0.165	0.072	0.412	0.260	0.338	0.148
I, II	Canada	2.756	2.963	3.017	-0.207	-0.023	0.312	0.305	0.244	0.200	0.102
I, III	Chile	2.680	2.900	3.029	-0.381	-0.086	0.463	0.285	0.287	0.418	0.090
I, III	Colombia	2.109	2.847	2.998	-0.858	-0.139	0.567	0.248	0.224	0.555	0.141
I, III	Cote d'Ivoire	1.986	2.903	2.923	-1.152	-0.083	0.347	0.325	0.225	0.395	0.087
I, II	Denmark	2.722	3.059	3.023	-0.338	0.073	0.438	0.234	0.252	0.377	0.125
I, III	Egypt	2.209	2.973	3.023	-0.885	-0.013	0.377	0.221	0.197	0.418	0.151
I	Finland	2.626	3.077	3.044	-0.614	0.091	0.569	0.376	0.284	0.432	0.202
I, II	France	2.563	2.928	3.029	-0.366	-0.057	0.323	0.305	0.245	0.127	0.055
I, II	Germany	2.811	2.912	3.059	-0.101	-0.074	0.242	0.275	0.260	0.211	0.067
I, III	Greece	2.629	2.921	3.030	-0.446	-0.065	0.403	0.347	0.201	0.314	0.128
I, III	India	2.663	3.110	3.080	-0.530	0.124	0.623	0.248	0.231	0.613	0.142
I, III	Indonesia	2.740	3.002	3.036	-0.352	0.016	0.376	0.236	0.258	0.373	0.150
I, II	Ireland	2.473	2.913	3.057	-0.440	-0.073	0.429	0.270	0.287	0.258	0.155
I, III	Israel	1.842	2.972	3.073	-1.333	-0.014	1.053	0.298	0.249	1.172	0.064
I	Italy	3.193	2.908	3.072	0.180	-0.078	0.752	0.277	0.235	0.710	0.099
I, III	Jamaica	1.918	2.905	2.942	-1.221	-0.081	0.251	0.345	0.291	0.456	0.107
I, II	Japan	3.746	3.021	3.090	0.724	0.035	0.382	0.254	0.255	0.218	0.091
I, III	Jordan	2.651	2.819	2.891	-0.329	-0.167	0.245	0.335	0.242	0.256	0.193
I, III	Kenya	2.735	2.823	2.971	-0.107	-0.163	1.634	0.228	0.219	1.716	0.196
I, III	Korea, South	2.814	3.068	3.076	-0.382	0.082	0.464	0.282	0.247	0.460	0.100
I, III	Malaysia	2.985	2.910	3.047	-0.065	-0.076	0.306	0.291	0.285	0.268	0.122
I, III	Mexico	2.538	2.924	3.038	-0.605	-0.062	0.113	0.348	0.240	0.252	0.091
I, III	Morocco	2.671	2.992	2.962	-0.296	0.006	0.294	0.180	0.167	0.192	0.265
I, II	Netherlands	2.539	2.947	3.034	-0.407	-0.039	0.438	0.217	0.246	0.257	0.138
I	New Zealand	2.648	3.121	3.008	-0.488	0.135	0.316	0.179	0.238	0.245	0.231
I, III	Nigeria	2.134	2.884	3.040	-0.899	-0.102	0.362	0.296	0.244	0.377	0.100
I, II	Norway	2.578	2.855	3.036	-0.277	-0.131	0.616	0.340	0.247	0.499	0.109
I, III	Pakistan	2.529	2.942	2.997	-0.552	-0.044	0.547	0.322	0.214	0.547	0.064
I, III	Philippines	2.840	2.862	2.985	-0.209	-0.124	0.417	0.352	0.248	0.365	0.103
I, III	Portugal	2.803	2.908	3.018	-0.223	-0.078	0.287	0.276	0.198	0.277	0.111
I, II	Singapore	2.983	3.003	3.110	-0.020	0.017	0.248	0.316	0.306	0.374	0.114
I, II, III	South Africa	2.470	2.741	3.040	-0.271	-0.245	0.372	0.342	0.243	0.181	0.156
I	Spain	2.630	2.836	3.030	-0.206	-0.150	0.368	0.325	0.227	0.318	0.142
I, III	Sri Lanka	2.402	2.862	2.858	-0.583	-0.124	0.508	0.222	0.237	0.530	0.141
I, II	Sweden	2.733	3.041	3.067	-0.308	0.055	0.507	0.277	0.269	0.298	0.075
I, II	Switzerland	2.691	3.005	3.049	-0.313	0.019	0.311	0.278	0.243	0.220	0.121
I, III	Thailand	2.684	2.899	2.990	-0.351	-0.086	0.507	0.293	0.216	0.491	0.097
I, III	Trinidad and Tobago	2.686	2.796	2.877	-0.186	-0.190	0.142	0.287	0.259	0.217	0.178
I, III	Tunisia	2.536	2.851	2.980	-0.392	-0.135	0.358	0.238	0.211	0.434	0.202
I, III	Turkey	2.708	2.990	2.990	-0.304	0.004	0.516	0.271	0.242	0.481	0.260
I, II	United Kingdom	2.638	2.959	3.052	-0.321	-0.027	0.336	0.263	0.250	0.148	0.073
I, II	United States	2.777	2.976	3.046	-0.200	-0.010	0.393	0.345	0.252	0.136	0.064
I, III	Venezuela	2.823	2.899	2.936	-0.217	-0.087	0.354	0.275	0.260	0.411	0.110
I, III	Zimbabwe	1.927	2.852	3.033	-1.078	-0.134	0.519	0.321	0.218	0.505	0.166

Table III - Panel B

Summary Statistics: LGO_MA, GGO_MA, LEGO_MA, and GEGO_MA, 1980 - 2002 - Annual Frequency

Panel B presents summary statistics for the moving average adjusted growth opportunities measures, averaged over different country groups and per country. LGO_MA is LGO less a 60-month moving average. Data are not available for all years, see Appendix Table AI for details. GGO_MA is GGO less a 60-month moving average. GGO_MA (VA) is GGO (VA) less a 60-month moving average. Data are available for all years. LEGO_MA is LEGO less a 60-month moving average. GEGO_MA is GEGO less a 60-month moving average. I, II, and III refer to samples of all 50, 17 developed, and 30 emerging economies. World refers to the global stock market index as covered by Datastream. A * indicates that LGO_MA and LEGO_MA have no annual observations.

Sample	Country	Mean					Standard Deviation				
		LGO_MA	GGO_MA	GGO_MA (VA)	LEGO_MA	GEGO_MA	LGO_MA	GGO_MA	GGO_MA (VA)	LEGO_MA	GEGO_MA
	World	0.093	-	-	-	-	0.197	-	-	-	-
I	All Countries	0.036	0.071	0.060	-0.016	-0.021	0.396	0.198	0.207	0.381	0.112
II	Developed	0.057	0.072	0.076	-0.016	-0.020	0.281	0.192	0.205	0.239	0.100
III	Emerging	-0.004	0.071	0.051	-0.022	-0.022	0.506	0.200	0.197	0.519	0.117
I, III	Argentina	-0.096	0.072	0.059	-0.077	-0.021	0.395	0.232	0.187	0.470	0.092
I, II	Australia	0.075	0.082	0.067	-0.007	-0.011	0.200	0.220	0.223	0.184	0.101
I, II	Austria	-0.049	0.045	0.070	-0.094	-0.047	0.246	0.190	0.229	0.309	0.134
I, III	Bangladesh	-0.438	0.030	0.003	-0.271	-0.062	0.178	0.161	0.177	0.289	0.097
I, II	Belgium	0.008	0.034	0.056	-0.026	-0.058	0.242	0.193	0.226	0.161	0.124
I, III	Brazil	-*	0.095	0.055	-*	0.002	-*	0.239	0.262	-*	0.127
I, II	Canada	0.081	0.086	0.073	-0.005	-0.007	0.272	0.238	0.213	0.217	0.110
I, III	Chile	0.070	0.084	0.073	0.068	-0.009	0.299	0.172	0.314	0.316	0.090
I, III	Colombia	-0.105	0.056	0.047	-0.107	-0.037	0.315	0.178	0.178	0.444	0.113
I, III	Cote d'Ivoire	-0.100	0.093	0.052	-0.050	0.001	0.015	0.173	0.158	0.272	0.084
I, II	Denmark	0.094	0.061	0.078	0.034	-0.032	0.337	0.166	0.169	0.354	0.083
I, III	Egypt	-0.402	0.055	0.025	-0.373	-0.037	0.004	0.181	0.199	0.299	0.102
I	Finland	0.227	0.102	0.082	0.104	0.009	0.487	0.242	0.229	0.401	0.174
I, II	France	0.086	0.086	0.073	0.000	-0.007	0.229	0.170	0.200	0.120	0.055
I, II	Germany	0.056	0.086	0.078	-0.030	-0.007	0.241	0.181	0.215	0.162	0.057
I, III	Greece	0.072	0.091	0.044	0.037	-0.002	0.458	0.246	0.191	0.261	0.137
I, III	India	-0.287	0.059	0.040	-0.288	-0.033	0.219	0.227	0.249	0.212	0.096
I, III	Indonesia	-0.288	0.057	0.066	-0.298	-0.036	0.279	0.213	0.229	0.370	0.075
I, II	Ireland	0.080	0.067	0.089	0.012	-0.025	0.270	0.204	0.166	0.200	0.136
I, III	Israel	-0.863	0.093	0.080	-0.981	0.001	0.630	0.185	0.187	0.819	0.066
I	Italy	-0.054	0.086	0.062	-0.059	-0.007	0.912	0.193	0.225	0.871	0.084
I, III	Jamaica	0.130	0.086	0.047	0.319	-0.007	0.234	0.225	0.286	0.477	0.109
I, II	Japan	0.072	0.078	0.077	-0.006	-0.015	0.282	0.193	0.223	0.204	0.059
I, III	Jordan	0.074	0.073	0.055	0.092	-0.020	0.238	0.255	0.172	0.238	0.181
I, III	Kenya	2.108	0.049	0.065	2.264	-0.043	2.832	0.168	0.148	2.928	0.129
I, III	Korea, South	-0.100	0.091	0.060	-0.160	-0.002	0.509	0.183	0.228	0.374	0.093
I, III	Malaysia	-0.073	0.067	0.090	-0.077	-0.026	0.337	0.193	0.210	0.262	0.105
I, III	Mexico	0.090	0.094	0.060	0.041	0.002	0.135	0.180	0.241	0.266	0.072
I, III	Morocco	-0.409	0.003	0.029	-0.213	-0.090	0.072	0.185	0.157	0.034	0.142
I, II	Netherlands	0.084	0.030	0.077	0.055	-0.063	0.240	0.171	0.201	0.128	0.103
I	New Zealand	0.084	0.010	0.073	0.059	-0.082	0.243	0.199	0.179	0.193	0.120
I, III	Nigeria	0.158	0.065	0.034	0.154	-0.028	0.240	0.173	0.160	0.323	0.094
I, II	Norway	-0.054	0.081	0.077	-0.135	-0.012	0.565	0.213	0.227	0.538	0.097
I, III	Pakistan	0.101	0.091	0.023	0.030	-0.001	0.665	0.187	0.204	0.689	0.051
I, III	Philippines	0.079	0.093	0.072	0.038	0.000	0.444	0.187	0.198	0.412	0.096
I, III	Portugal	-0.016	0.076	0.042	-0.022	-0.017	0.389	0.186	0.190	0.391	0.090
I, II	Singapore	-0.031	0.082	0.103	-0.113	-0.010	0.252	0.218	0.207	0.245	0.094
I, II, III	South Africa	0.053	0.080	0.055	-0.027	-0.013	0.302	0.211	0.239	0.170	0.163
I	Spain	0.037	0.077	0.062	-0.049	-0.015	0.304	0.224	0.207	0.235	0.135
I, III	Sri Lanka	0.002	0.058	0.034	0.011	-0.035	0.589	0.146	0.147	0.749	0.100
I, II	Sweden	0.112	0.084	0.085	0.028	-0.009	0.357	0.201	0.229	0.246	0.059
I, II	Switzerland	0.088	0.081	0.075	0.007	-0.012	0.150	0.179	0.258	0.174	0.123
I, III	Thailand	0.000	0.083	0.043	-0.046	-0.009	0.596	0.206	0.160	0.548	0.096
I, III	Trinidad and Tobago	-0.111	0.061	0.070	0.049	-0.032	0.182	0.225	0.180	0.348	0.142
I, III	Tunisia	-0.285	0.072	0.040	-0.247	-0.021	0.063	0.199	0.229	0.257	0.158
I, III	Turkey	0.178	0.061	0.032	0.211	-0.032	0.455	0.288	0.231	0.451	0.196
I, II	United Kingdom	0.095	0.068	0.074	0.028	-0.025	0.181	0.164	0.194	0.117	0.064
I, II	United States	0.118	0.102	0.083	0.017	0.009	0.160	0.180	0.197	0.122	0.038
I, III	Venezuela	-0.024	0.082	0.052	-0.107	-0.011	0.323	0.200	0.236	0.430	0.094
I, III	Zimbabwe	0.060	0.061	0.042	0.039	-0.031	0.464	0.215	0.204	0.449	0.170

Table III - Panel C
Summary Statistics: Correlations between Measures of Growth Opportunities, 1980 - 2002 -
Annual Frequency

Panel C presents correlations between the different measures of local and global growth opportunities. For a definition of the different measures, please see Panel A and B. I, II, and III refer to samples of all 50, 17 developed, and 30 emerging economies. A * indicates that LGO_MA has two or less annual observations.

Sample	Country	Growth Opportunities					Growth Opportunities with MA-Adjustment				
		LGO, WGO	LGO, GGO	LGO, GGO (VA)	GGO, WGO	GGO, GGO (VA)	LGO, WGO	LGO, GGO	LGO, GGO (VA)	GGO, WGO	GGO, GGO (VA)
I	All Countries	0.239	0.317	0.333	0.859	0.785	0.246	0.323	0.320	0.837	0.735
II	Developed	0.549	0.619	0.570	0.894	0.821	0.482	0.545	0.502	0.865	0.776
III	Emerging	0.037	0.109	0.092	0.851	0.779	0.011	0.117	0.117	0.824	0.732
I, III	Argentina	-0.245	-0.140	-0.096	0.966	0.906	0.000	0.046	0.061	0.921	0.793
I, II	Australia	0.810	0.818	0.698	0.959	0.886	0.517	0.622	0.543	0.889	0.834
I, II	Austria	-0.067	0.121	-0.021	0.824	0.737	-0.015	0.013	0.028	0.760	0.674
I, III	Bangladesh	-0.386	-0.097	0.316	0.847	0.817	*	*	*	0.872	0.893
I, II	Belgium	0.789	0.802	0.750	0.790	0.839	0.690	0.749	0.572	0.798	0.806
I, III	Brazil	-0.740	-0.662	-0.745	0.953	0.650	*	*	*	0.847	0.599
I, II	Canada	0.714	0.791	0.874	0.946	0.949	0.424	0.647	0.806	0.888	0.914
I, III	Chile	0.350	0.436	0.566	0.960	0.617	0.148	0.190	0.510	0.888	0.714
I, III	Colombia	-0.193	0.205	0.178	0.899	0.922	-0.600	-0.863	-0.733	0.822	0.857
I, III	Cote d'Ivoire	0.189	0.061	0.384	0.964	0.863	*	*	*	0.905	0.626
I, II	Denmark	0.590	0.511	0.612	0.936	0.876	0.204	0.145	0.227	0.908	0.767
I, III	Egypt	0.527	-0.089	0.698	0.897	0.823	*	*	*	0.859	0.847
I	Finland	0.820	0.654	0.587	0.844	0.854	0.836	0.570	0.526	0.704	0.774
I, II	France	0.889	0.920	0.859	0.985	0.915	0.783	0.860	0.721	0.965	0.870
I, II	Germany	0.659	0.675	0.741	0.982	0.908	0.714	0.740	0.775	0.958	0.844
I, III	Greece	0.669	0.640	0.450	0.930	0.780	0.781	0.920	0.787	0.832	0.640
I, III	India	0.188	0.219	0.301	0.897	0.889	0.442	0.548	0.645	0.907	0.933
I, III	Indonesia	-0.082	0.282	-0.006	0.888	0.901	-0.052	-0.001	-0.054	0.937	0.896
I, II	Ireland	0.897	0.823	0.901	0.869	0.812	0.682	0.676	0.691	0.772	0.712
I, III	Israel	-0.467	-0.603	-0.442	0.980	0.919	-0.652	-0.717	-0.585	0.942	0.815
I	Italy	0.261	0.364	0.495	0.951	0.793	0.234	0.327	0.556	0.907	0.745
I, III	Jamaica	-0.928	-0.911	-0.670	0.951	0.682	*	*	*	0.875	0.608
I, II	Japan	0.852	0.841	0.719	0.969	0.934	0.717	0.692	0.535	0.955	0.912
I, III	Jordan	0.378	0.258	0.522	0.825	0.791	0.097	0.287	0.384	0.706	0.591
I, III	Kenya	-0.457	-0.813	-0.691	0.782	0.802	*	*	*	0.762	0.772
I, III	Korea, South	0.321	0.244	0.389	0.949	0.850	0.730	0.755	0.764	0.882	0.822
I, III	Malaysia	0.032	0.486	0.006	0.920	0.802	0.384	0.649	0.564	0.855	0.688
I, III	Mexico	-0.082	0.041	-0.407	0.967	0.714	-0.258	-0.134	-0.509	0.930	0.769
I, III	Morocco	0.438	0.889	0.664	0.536	0.692	*	*	*	0.725	0.801
I, II	Netherlands	0.918	0.909	0.851	0.927	0.864	0.754	0.858	0.604	0.851	0.709
I	New Zealand	0.614	0.643	0.817	0.683	0.725	0.443	0.635	0.599	0.816	0.838
I, III	Nigeria	0.279	0.064	0.270	0.947	0.937	-0.362	-0.376	-0.329	0.878	0.852
I, II	Norway	0.568	0.589	0.658	0.948	0.811	0.342	0.309	0.357	0.891	0.705
I, III	Pakistan	0.173	0.211	0.305	0.980	0.736	0.067	0.057	0.440	0.966	0.750
I, III	Philippines	0.292	0.512	0.485	0.959	0.842	0.138	0.379	0.320	0.876	0.654
I, III	Portugal	0.294	0.330	0.068	0.937	0.819	0.117	0.202	0.004	0.890	0.788
I, II	Singapore	0.141	0.138	0.129	0.935	0.844	0.619	0.463	0.663	0.901	0.794
I, II, III	South Africa	0.665	0.874	0.654	0.890	0.778	0.386	0.838	0.518	0.684	0.788
I	Spain	0.656	0.586	0.406	0.902	0.734	0.710	0.653	0.614	0.803	0.526
I, III	Sri Lanka	-0.312	-0.010	-0.261	0.916	0.957	-0.656	-0.873	-0.909	0.869	0.833
I, II	Sweden	0.828	0.872	0.890	0.976	0.923	0.638	0.748	0.785	0.956	0.863
I, II	Switzerland	0.735	0.727	0.628	0.923	0.750	0.283	0.455	0.075	0.789	0.457
I, III	Thailand	0.235	0.259	0.440	0.951	0.897	0.313	0.414	0.471	0.887	0.808
I, III	Trinidad and Tobago	-0.472	-0.123	-0.284	0.828	0.783	*	*	*	0.781	0.628
I, III	Tunisia	-0.212	-0.490	0.179	0.763	0.560	*	*	*	0.679	0.424
I, III	Turkey	0.293	0.365	0.334	0.612	0.874	-0.056	0.203	0.161	0.735	0.903
I, II	United Kingdom	0.912	0.906	0.857	0.983	0.903	0.760	0.775	0.708	0.953	0.816
I, II	United States	0.882	0.940	0.841	0.986	0.913	0.673	0.747	0.653	0.984	0.821
I, III	Venezuela	-0.140	-0.135	-0.013	0.938	0.783	-0.337	-0.302	-0.320	0.887	0.676
I, III	Zimbabwe	0.269	0.244	-0.086	0.863	0.812	0.017	0.271	0.136	0.665	0.736

Table III - Panel D
Local Stock Markets, 1980 - 2002 - Annual Frequency

Panel D presents information on the number of local stocks used to determine a country's industry structure as well as on the three most important industries. For data from S&P/IFC's Emerging Markets Data Base (EMDB), we report the average number of stocks over the sample period. For the Datastream data, such detail is not available. For these markets, we report the approximate number of stocks per country as reported by Datastream. Datastream covers about 80 to 85% of the market capitalization. See Appendix Table AI for details. The industry composition information is based on the average industry weights (IW) over the sample period. The industries refer to the FTSE Global Classification System employed by Datastream.

		Equity Market Capitalization based Industry Composition				
Sample	Country	Number of Stocks Used	Top 3 Industries Market Share	Industry 1	Industry 2	Industry 3
I	All Countries	5,832	0.598	-	-	-
II	Developed	4,370	0.538	-	-	-
III	Emerging	1,152	0.628	-	-	-
I, III	Argentina	25	0.723	Oil & Gas	Food Prod. & Proc.	Beverages
I, II	Australia	160	0.590	Mining	Banks	Construction & Build.
I, II	Austria	50	0.625	Insurance	Banks	Construction & Build.
I, III	Bangladesh	51	0.454	Hhold Goods & Textiles	Construction & Build.	Tobacco
I, II	Belgium	90	0.601	Electricity	Banks	Invest. Companies
I, III	Brazil	56	0.637	Banks	Oil & Gas	Mining
I, II	Canada	250	0.434	Oil & Gas	Banks	IT Hardware
I, III	Chile	33	0.575	Forestry & Paper	Food Prod. & Proc.	Electricity
I, III	Colombia	22	0.592	Banks	Construction & Build.	Beverages
I, III	Cote d'Ivoire	11	0.652	Food Prod. & Proc.	Banks	Tobacco
I, II	Denmark	50	0.595	Transport	Banks	Pharmaceuticals
I, III	Egypt	59	0.524	Construction & Build.	Banks	Real Estate
I	Finland	50	0.766	Health	IT Hardware	Forestry & Paper
I, II	France	200	0.326	Oil & Gas	Div. Industries	Construction & Build.
I, II	Germany	200	0.407	Banks	Insurance	Chemicals
I, III	Greece	30	0.784	Banks	Construction & Build.	Hhold Goods & Textiles
I, III	India	72	0.535	Hhold Goods & Textiles	Steel & Other Metals	Engineer. & Machinery
I, III	Indonesia	59	0.549	Construction & Build.	Banks	Tobacco
I, II	Ireland	50	0.776	Banks	Construction & Build.	Food Prod. & Proc.
I, III	Israel	49	0.670	Div. Industries	Banks	Chemicals
I	Italy	160	0.593	Insurance	Banks	Telecommunication
I, III	Jamaica	20	0.610	Banks	Media & Entertainment	Telecommunication
I, II	Japan	1,000	0.324	Banks	Electr. Equipment	Automobiles & Parts
I, III	Jordan	25	0.857	Banks	Oil & Gas	Mining
I, III	Kenya	17	0.623	Banks	Food Prod. & Proc.	Construction & Build.
I, III	Korea, South	87	0.462	Construction & Build.	Banks	Oil & Gas
I, III	Malaysia	87	0.587	Banks	Div. Industries	Food Prod. & Proc.
I, III	Mexico	49	0.525	Div. Industries	General Retailers	Construction & Build.
I, III	Morocco	17	0.621	Banks	Real Estate	Invest. Companies
I, II	Netherlands	130	0.580	Oil & Gas	Invest. Companies	Food Prod. & Proc.
I	New Zealand	50	0.662	Invest. Companies	Beverages	Telecommunication
I, III	Nigeria	23	0.555	Beverages	Food Prod. & Proc.	Banks
I, II	Norway	50	0.712	Oil & Gas	Transport	Engineer. & Machinery
I, III	Pakistan	56	0.429	Oil & Gas	Hhold Goods & Textiles	Electricity
I, III	Philippines	36	0.591	Mining	Food Prod. & Proc.	Beverages
I, III	Portugal	24	0.592	Banks	Div. Industries	Media & Entertainment
I, II	Singapore	100	0.607	Banks	Real Estate	Transport
I, II, III	South Africa	70	0.753	Mining	Div. Industries	Banks
I	Spain	120	0.689	Banks	Electricity	Telecommunication
I, III	Sri Lanka	42	0.550	Div. Industries	Banks	Food Prod. & Proc.
I, II	Sweden	70	0.576	IT Hardware	Banks	Engineer. & Machinery
I, II	Switzerland	350	0.622	Pharmaceuticals	Food Prod. & Proc.	Banks
I, III	Thailand	38	0.741	Banks	Construction & Build.	Speciality Finance
I, III	Trinidad and Tobago	11	0.836	Banks	Div. Industries	Construction & Build.
I, III	Tunisia	14	0.917	Banks	Speciality Finance	Support Services
I, III	Turkey	36	0.536	Banks	Steel & Other Metals	Automobiles & Parts
I, II	United Kingdom	550	0.324	Oil & Gas	Banks	Telecommunication
I, II	United States	1,000	0.289	Oil & Gas	IT Hardware	Telecommunication
I, III	Venezuela	15	0.681	Banks	Construction & Build.	Electricity
I, III	Zimbabwe	16	0.666	Mining	Food Prod. & Proc.	Div. Industries

Table IV
Growth Predictability Using Local Measures of Growth Opportunities, 1980-2002

The samples included reflect 50 (all), 17 (developed), and 30 (emerging) countries detailed in Table III. The dependent variables are either the 5-year average growth rate of real per capita gross domestic product or investment. We include in the regressions, but do not report, country fixed effects. We report the coefficient on the lagged growth opportunities measure. In Panel A, we measure local growth opportunities (LGO). For the full sample and the emerging markets, these regressions are unbalanced based on data availability. In Panel B, we interact LGO with country characteristics. The Share of Unregulated Industries represents the equity market capitalization of those industries that we classify as unregulated (see Appendix Table AIII for details) relative to total equity market capitalization. Turnover indicates the ratio of equity market value traded to the market capitalization and is from S&P's Emerging Stock Markets Factbook. ADR represents the market capitalization of "internationalized" firms relative to total equity market capitalization and is from Levine and Schmukler (2003). N denotes the number of country-years. The weighting matrix we employ in our GMM estimation corrects for cross-sectional heteroskedasticity. A * indicates statistical significance at the 5% level. All standard errors in parentheses account for the overlapping nature of the data.

Panel A: Local Growth Opportunities

	Annual real GDP growth (5-year horizon)			Annual real investment growth (5-year horizon)		
	All Countries	Developed	Emerging	All Countries	Developed	Emerging
LGO	0.0026*	0.0072*	0.0017*	0.0071*	0.0256*	0.0001
	(0.0004)	(0.0013)	(0.0006)	(0.0017)	(0.0044)	(0.0042)
N =	551	306	211	551	306	211
LGO_MA	0.0043*	0.0097*	0.0040	0.0154*	0.0279*	0.0118
	(0.0001)	(0.0018)	(0.0125)	(0.0040)	(0.0062)	(0.0075)
N =	415	306	95	415	306	95

Panel B: Local Growth Opportunities and Country Characteristics (All Countries)

	Annual real GDP growth (5-year horizon)			Annual real investment growth (5-year horizon)		
	Share of Unregulated Industries	Turnover	ADR (starting in 1989)	Share of Unregulated Industries	Turnover	ADR (starting in 1989)
LGO	-0.0028	0.0035*	0.0042*	-0.0059	0.0070	0.0104
	(0.0019)	(0.0013)	(0.0016)	(0.0064)	(0.0042)	(0.0054)
LGO x Country Characteristic	0.0105*	-0.0021*	-0.0051*	0.0198*	-0.0061*	-0.0135
	(0.0030)	(0.0009)	(0.0022)	(0.0099)	(0.0029)	(0.0072)
N =	551	551	333	551	551	333

Table V
Growth Predictability Using Global Measures of Growth Opportunities, 1980-2002

The samples included reflect 50 (all), 17 (developed), 16 (EU plus Norway and Switzerland), and 30 (emerging) countries detailed in Table III. The dependent variables are either the 5-year average growth rate of real per capita gross domestic product or investment. We include in the regressions, but do not report, country fixed effects. We report the coefficient on the lagged growth opportunities measure. In Panel A, we use the unadjusted as well as the moving average adjusted measure of global growth opportunities. In brackets, we report the minimum and maximum values from a robustness analysis where we repeat our analysis 35 times, each time removing one industry from the weighting scheme. We also report evidence for the alternative value added (VA) industry weights. In Panel B, we focus on those industries that we do not classify as regulated or non tradable (see Appendix Table AIII for details). We also interact GGO_MA with the value added of state owned enterprises (SOE) relative to GDP. N denotes the number of country-years. The weighting matrix we employ in our GMM estimation corrects for cross-sectional heteroskedasticity. A * indicates statistical significance at the 5% level. All standard errors in parentheses account for the overlapping nature of the data.

Panel A: Exogenous (Implied) Global Growth Opportunities

	Annual real GDP growth (5-year horizon)				Annual real investment growth (5-year horizon)			
	All Countries	Developed	EU Countries	Emerging	All Countries	Developed	EU Countries	Emerging
GGO	0.0070* (0.0019)	0.0033 (0.0026)	0.0027 (0.0032)	0.0131* (0.0026)	0.0408* (0.0060)	0.0211* (0.0085)	0.0203* (0.0093)	0.0704* (0.0080)
	[0.0055, 0.0072]				[0.0358, 0.0408]			
GGO_MA	0.0142* (0.0023)	0.0163* (0.0031)	0.0191* (0.0033)	0.0106* (0.0035)	0.0397* (0.0071)	0.0489* (0.0102)	0.0568* (0.0107)	0.0223 (0.0112)
	[0.0119, 0.0147]				[0.0356, 0.0406]			
GGO (VA)	0.0081* (0.0017)	0.0061* (0.0023)	0.0068* (0.0027)	0.0117* (0.0027)	0.0347* (0.0055)	0.0252* (0.0072)	0.0284* (0.0075)	0.0552* (0.0089)
GGO_MA (VA)	0.0101* (0.0018)	0.0114* (0.0024)	0.0123* (0.0017)	0.0056 (0.0030)	0.0235* (0.0056)	0.0345* (0.0075)	0.0371* (0.0056)	0.0052 (0.0088)
N =	900	306	288	540	900	306	288	540

Panel B: Global Growth Opportunities and Country Characteristics (All Countries)

	Annual real GDP growth (5-year horizon)			Annual real investment growth (5-year horizon)		
	GGO_MA (Unregulated Industries)	GGO_MA (Tradable Industries)	SOE economic activity/GDP (34 countries)	GGO_MA (Unregulated Industries)	GGO_MA (Tradable Industries)	SOE economic activity/GDP (34 countries)
GGO_MA	0.0148* (0.0023)	0.0118* (0.0021)	0.0229* (0.0050)	0.0323* (0.0077)	0.0274* (0.0068)	0.0691* (0.0191)
GGO_MA x Country Characteristic	-	-	-0.0526 (0.0419)	-	-	-0.2462 (0.1587)
N =	900	900	612	900	900	612

Table VI
Exogenous Growth Opportunities and Openness
Annual Average Real GDP and Investment Growth (Five-year horizon), 1980-2002

The sample includes 50 developed and emerging countries detailed in Table III. The dependent variables are either the 5-year average growth rate of real per capita gross domestic product or investment. We include in the regressions, but do not report, country fixed effects. We measure exogenous growth opportunities as GGO_MA. We report the coefficient on the growth opportunities measure and interaction terms with 1) a 0/1 indicator of capital account openness from the IMF, 2) a continuous measure of the degree of capital account openness from Quinn (only 48 countries are available), 3) the official equity market openness indicator from Bekaert, Harvey and Lundblad (2005), 4) the degree of equity market openness (investability), and 5) two indicators of banking sector openness (given data limitations, this regression covers only 41 countries). N denotes the number of country-years. The weighting matrix we employ in our GMM estimation corrects for cross-sectional heteroskedasticity. A * indicates statistical significance at the 5% level. All standard errors in parentheses account for the overlapping nature of the data.

Panel A: Capital Account Openness			Panel B: Equity Market Openness			Panel C: Banking Sector Openness		
	<u>GDP</u>	<u>Investment</u>		<u>GDP</u>	<u>Investment</u>		<u>GDP</u>	<u>Investment</u>
GGO_MA	0.0123* (0.0029)	0.0325* (0.0084)	GGO_MA	0.0061 (0.0037)	0.0143 (0.0120)	GGO_MA	0.0074 (0.0042)	0.0171 (0.0116)
GGO_MA x Capital Account Openness (IMF)	0.0032 (0.0044)	0.0183 (0.0137)	GGO_MA x Official Equity Market Openness	0.0122* (0.0044)	0.0372* (0.0141)	GGO_MA x Banking Sector Openness	0.0118* (0.0048)	0.0419* (0.0145)
	N=900			N=900			N=738	
GGO_MA	0.0060 (0.0053)	0.0167 (0.0171)	GGO_MA	0.0063 (0.0037)	0.0118 (0.0113)	GGO_MA	0.0072 (0.0049)	0.0071 (0.0130)
GGO_MA x Capital Account Degree of Openness (Quinn)	0.0105 (0.0074)	0.0343 (0.0242)	GGO_MA x Equity Market Degree of Openness	0.0127* (0.0045)	0.0439* (0.0142)	GGO_MA x Banking Sector Openness (First Sign)	0.0107* (0.0053)	0.0475* (0.0147)
	N=864			N=900			N=738	

Table VII
Exogenous Growth Opportunities, Financial Development, and External Finance Dependence
Annual Average Real GDP and Investment Growth (Five-year horizon), 1980-2002

The sample includes 50 developed and emerging countries detailed in Table III. The dependent variables are either the five-year average growth rate of real per capita gross domestic product or investment. We include in the regressions, but do not report, country fixed effects. We measure exogenous growth opportunities as GGO_MA. We report the coefficient on the growth opportunities measure and interaction terms with financial development (Panel A): 1) the ratio of private credit to GDP, 2) equity market turnover, 3) the ratio of equity market capitalization to GDP; Investment Intensity and External Finance Dependence (Panel B): 1) the ratio of investments to property, plant, and equipment (Investment Intensity) 2) the amount of investments not financed internally (External Finance Dependence). In Panel C, we interact the growth opportunities measure with four indicators constructed by grouping all country-years into one of four boxes. The interaction variables are as follows: an indicator that takes a value of one when the variable (private credit or external finance dependence) is below the median and the equity market is closed or private credit is below the median, and zero otherwise; an indicator that takes the value of one when the variable is below the median and the equity market is open or private credit is above the median, and zero otherwise; an indicator that takes the value of one if the variable is above the median and the equity market is closed or private credit is below the median, and zero otherwise; and finally, an indicator that takes the value of one if the variable is above the median and the equity market is open or private credit is above the median, and zero otherwise. N denotes the number of country-years. We include chi-squared statistics for two sets of Wald tests: 1) the first evaluates whether the first and second and the third and fourth coefficients are equal; 2) the second evaluates whether the first and third and second and fourth coefficients are equal. ** and * indicate significance at the 1% and 5% levels, respectively. The weighting matrix we employ in our GMM estimation corrects for cross-sectional heteroskedasticity. All standard errors in parentheses account for the overlapping nature of the data.

Panel A: Financial Development (N = 900)			Panel B: Investment Intensity and External Finance Dependence (N = 900)			Panel C: Openness, Financial Development, and External Finance Dependence (N = 900)		
	<u>GDP</u>	<u>Investment</u>		<u>GDP</u>	<u>Investment</u>		<u>GDP</u>	<u>Investment</u>
GGO_MA	0.0067 (0.0042)	0.0114 (0.0126)	GGO_MA	-0.0344 (0.0272)	-0.1477 (0.0890)	Low Private Credit/Closed Equity Market	0.0063 (0.0041)	0.0074 (0.0124)
GGO_MA x Private Credit	0.0116 (0.0060)	0.0408* (0.0166)	GGO_MA x Investment Intensity	0.1678 (0.0928)	0.6507* (0.3075)	Low Private Credit/Open Equity Market	0.0220* (0.0040)	0.0537* (0.0142)
GGO_MA	0.0167* (0.0027)	0.0488* (0.0089)	GGO_MA	0.0014 (0.0069)	-0.0080 (0.0233)	High Private Credit/Closed Equity Market	0.0063 (0.0066)	0.0374 (0.0262)
GGO_MA x Equity Market Turnover	-0.0084 (0.0053)	-0.0307 (0.0191)	GGO_MA x External Finance Dependence	0.0430 (0.0216)	0.1580* (0.0758)	High Private Credit/Open Equity Market	0.0152* (0.0029)	0.0489* (0.0089)
GGO_MA	0.0142* (0.0027)	0.0378* (0.0082)				<i>Wald Tests:</i>		
GGO_MA x Equity Market Size	-0.0021 (0.0064)	0.0054 (0.0194)				Closed versus Open	15.17**	10.17**
						Low versus High Private Credit	-	-
						Low Ext. Fin. Dep. versus High Ext. Fin. Dep.	6.47*	-
						Low Ext. Fin. Dep./Low Private Credit	0.0113* (0.0036)	0.0187 (0.0107)
						Low Ext. Fin. Dep./High Private Credit	0.0133* (0.0056)	0.0574* (0.0132)
						High Ext. Fin. Dep./Low Private Credit	0.0208* (0.0044)	0.0675* (0.0171)
						High Ext. Fin. Dep./High Private Credit	0.0137* (0.0031)	0.0391* (0.0103)
						<i>Wald Tests:</i>		
						Closed versus Open	9.59**	8.89*
						Low Ext. Fin. Dep. versus High Ext. Fin. Dep.	0.24	0.48

Table VIII
Exogenous Growth Opportunities, Investor Protection, and Political Risk
Annual Average Real GDP and Investment Growth (Five-year horizon), 1980-2002

The sample includes 50 developed and emerging countries detailed in Table III. The dependent variables are either the 5-year average growth rate of real per capita gross domestic product or investment. We include in the regressions, but do not report, country fixed effects. We measure exogenous growth opportunities as GGO_MA. We report the coefficient on the growth opportunities measure and interaction terms with investor protection measures (Panel A): 1) the Law and Order index from ICRG, 2) the quality of institutions index, 3) the Insider Trading Prosecution indicator from Bhattacharya and Daouk (2002); Political Risk (Panel C): (1) the political risk index from ICRG, (2) the investment profile index from ICRG. In Panel B, we interact the growth opportunities measure with four indicators constructed by grouping all country-years into one of four boxes. The interaction variables are as follows: an indicator that takes a value of one when the law and order index from ICRG is below the median and the equity market is closed, and zero otherwise; an indicator that takes the value of one when the law and order index from ICRG is below the median and the equity market is open, and zero otherwise; an indicator that takes the value of one if the law and order index from ICRG is above the median and the equity market is closed, and zero otherwise; and finally, an indicator that takes the value of one if the law and order index from ICRG is above the median and the equity market is open, and zero otherwise. N denotes the number of country-years. We include chi-squared statistics for two sets of Wald tests: 1) the first evaluates whether the first and second and the third and fourth coefficients are equal; 2) the second evaluates whether the first and third and second and fourth coefficients are equal. ** and * indicate significance at the 1% and 5% levels, respectively. The weighting matrix we employ in our GMM estimation corrects for cross-sectional heteroskedasticity. All standard errors in parentheses account for the overlapping nature of the data.

Panel A: Investor Protection (N = 900)			Panel C: Political Risk (N = 900)		
	GDP	Investment		GDP	Investment
GGO_MA	0.0079 (0.0060)	0.0070 (0.0203)	GGO_MA	-0.0064 (0.0091)	-0.0212 (0.0291)
GGO_MA x Law and Order (ICRG)	0.0084 (0.0075)	0.0429 (0.0252)	GGO_MA x Political Risk (ICRG)	0.0289* (0.0124)	0.0850* (0.0394)
GGO_MA	0.0096 (0.0074)	0.0133 (0.0230)	GGO_MA	0.0002 (0.0071)	-0.2092* (0.0231)
GGO_MA x Quality of Institutions (ICRG)	0.0060 (0.0093)	0.0350 (0.0291)	GGO_MA x Investment Profile (ICRG)	0.0226 (0.0115)	0.0968* (0.0366)
GGO_MA	0.0143* (0.0023)	0.0402* (0.0072)			
GGO_MA x Insider Trading Prosecution	-0.0016 (0.0057)	-0.0026 (0.0183)			
Panel B: Openness and Law and Order (N = 900)					
	GDP	Investment			
Low Law and Order/Closed Equity Market	0.0062 (0.0038)	0.0134 (0.0122)			
Low Law and Order/Open Equity Market	0.0173* (0.0058)	0.0367* (0.0177)			
High Law and Order/Closed Equity Market	0.0073 (0.0187)	0.0167 (0.0522)			
High Law and Order/Open Equity Market	0.0183* (0.0026)	0.0544* (0.0086)			
<i>Wald Tests:</i>					
Closed versus Open	6.10*	1.47			
Low versus High Law and Order	0.02	0.40			

Table IX
Null of Market Integration

Annual Average Excess Real GDP and Investment Growth (Five-year horizon), 1980-2002

This sample includes 50 developed and emerging countries detailed in Table III. The dependent variables are either the 5-year average growth rate of real per capita gross domestic product or investment in excess of the total world counterpart. We include in the regressions, but do not report, country fixed effects. We measure excess local growth opportunities as LEGO_MA, the difference between local and exogenous growth opportunities (LGO_MA-GGO_MA). We report the coefficient on the growth opportunities measure and interaction terms with 1) a 0/1 indicator of capital account openness from the IMF, 2) a continuous measure of the degree of capital account openness from Quinn (only 48 countries are available), 3) official equity market openness from Bekaert, Harvey and Lundblad (2005), 4) the degree of equity market openness (investability), and 5) two indicators of banking sector openness (only 41 countries are available). We also report Wald tests on the null hypotheses of market integration: $\alpha = 0$ for closed countries or $\alpha + \beta = 0$ for open countries. N denotes the number of country-years. The weighting matrix we employ in our GMM estimation corrects for cross-sectional heteroskedasticity. A * denotes statistical significance at the 5% level. All standard errors in parentheses account for the overlapping nature of the data.

Panel A: Capital Account Openness

		GDP	Investment			GDP	Investment
LEGO_MA	(α)	0.0019 (0.0013)	0.0160* (0.0033)	LEGO_MA	(α)	0.0056 (0.0034)	0.0502* (0.0146)
LEGO_MA x Capital Account Openness (IMF)	(β)	-0.0019 (0.0016)	-0.0189* (0.0056)	LEGO_MA x Capital Account Degree of Openness (Quinn)	(β)	-0.0051 (0.0039)	-0.0530* (0.0174)
N = 415				N = 408			
<i>Wald Tests:</i>				<i>Wald Tests:</i>			
Closed Countries ($\alpha=0$)		2.01	23.51*	Closed Countries ($\alpha=0$)		2.63	11.82*
Open Countries ($\alpha+\beta=0$)		0.00	0.41	Open Countries ($\alpha+\beta=0$)		0.05	0.09

Panel B: Equity Market Openness

		GDP	Investment			GDP	Investment
LEGO_MA	(α)	-0.0029 (0.0081)	-0.0165 (0.0248)	LEGO_MA	(α)	-0.0003 (0.0033)	0.0194 (0.0147)
LEGO_MA x Official Equity Market Openness	(β)	0.0040 (0.0082)	0.0227 (0.0250)	LEGO_MA x Equity Market Degree of Openness	(β)	0.0015 (0.0036)	-0.0158 (0.0156)
N = 415				N = 415			
<i>Wald Tests:</i>				<i>Wald Tests:</i>			
Closed Countries ($\alpha=0$)		0.13	0.44	Closed Countries ($\alpha=0$)		0.01	1.75
Open Countries ($\alpha+\beta=0$)		1.24	2.73	Open Countries ($\alpha+\beta=0$)		0.70	0.44

Panel C: Banking Sector Openness

		GDP	Investment			GDP	Investment
LEGO_MA	(α)	0.0023 (0.0020)	0.0172 (0.0107)	LEGO_MA	(α)	0.0028 (0.0038)	0.0342* (0.0121)
LEGO_MA x Banking Sector Openness	(β)	-0.0009 (0.0023)	-0.0182* (0.0040)	LEGO_MA x Banking Sector Openness (First Sign)	(β)	-0.0007 (0.0040)	-0.0294* (0.0127)
N = 394				N = 394			
<i>Wald Tests:</i>				<i>Wald Tests:</i>			
Closed Countries ($\alpha=0$)		1.34	2.60	Closed Countries ($\alpha=0$)		0.54	8.00*
Open Countries ($\alpha+\beta=0$)		0.40	0.01	Open Countries ($\alpha+\beta=0$)		0.27	1.63

Table X
Null of Market Segmentation

Annual Average Excess Real GDP and Investment Growth (Five-year horizon), 1980-2002

This sample includes 50 developed and emerging countries detailed in Table III. The dependent variables are either the 5-year average growth rate of real per capita gross domestic product or investment in excess of the total world counterpart. We include in the regressions, but do not report, country fixed effects. We measure excess exogenous growth opportunities as GEGO_MA, the difference between exogenous and total world growth opportunities (GGO_MA-WGO_MA). We report the coefficient on the growth opportunities measure and interaction terms with 1) a 0/1 indicator of capital account openness from the IMF, 2) a continuous measure of the degree of capital account openness from Quinn (only 48 countries are available), 3) official equity market openness from Bekaert, Harvey and Lundblad (2005), 4) the degree of equity market openness (investability), and 5) two indicators of banking sector openness (only 41 countries are available). We also report Wald tests on the null hypotheses of market segmentation: $\alpha = 0$ for closed countries or $\alpha + \beta = 0$ for open countries. N denotes the number of country-years. The weighting matrix we employ in our GMM estimation corrects for cross-sectional heteroskedasticity. A * indicates statistical significance at the 5% level. All standard errors in parentheses account for the overlapping nature of the data.

Panel A: Capital Account Openness

		GDP	Investment			GDP	Investment
GEGO_MA	(α)	0.0099*	0.0267*	GEGO_MA	(α)	0.0081	0.0420
		(0.0041)	(0.0134)			(0.0090)	(0.0308)
GEGO_MA x Capital Account Openness (IMF)	(β)	0.0012	0.0026	GEGO_MA x Capital Account Degree of Openness (Quinn)	(β)	0.0026	-0.0238
		(0.0067)	(0.0197)			(0.0127)	(0.0407)
N = 900				N = 864			
<i>Wald Tests:</i>				<i>Wald Tests:</i>			
Closed Countries ($\alpha=0$)		5.64*	3.95*	Closed Countries ($\alpha=0$)		0.82	1.86
Open Countries ($\alpha+\beta=0$)		4.37*	4.14*	Open Countries ($\alpha+\beta=0$)		3.92*	1.39

Panel B: Equity Market Openness

		GDP	Investment			GDP	Investment
GEGO_MA	(α)	0.0022	0.0360	GEGO_MA	(α)	0.0058	0.0333
		(0.0059)	(0.0193)			(0.0061)	(0.0191)
GEGO_MA x Official Equity Market Openness	(β)	0.0124	-0.0133	GEGO_MA x Equity Market Degree of Openness	(β)	0.0075	-0.0090
		(0.0071)	(0.0223)			(0.0075)	(0.0227)
N = 900				N = 900			
<i>Wald Tests:</i>				<i>Wald Tests:</i>			
Closed Countries ($\alpha=0$)		0.15	3.50	Closed Countries ($\alpha=0$)		0.93	3.05
Open Countries ($\alpha+\beta=0$)		13.65*	4.08*	Open Countries ($\alpha+\beta=0$)		10.79*	4.35*

Panel C: Banking Sector Openness

		GDP	Investment			GDP	Investment
GEGO_MA	(α)	0.0060	0.0190	GEGO_MA	(α)	-0.0006	-0.0050
		(0.0071)	(0.0190)			(0.0086)	(0.0241)
GEGO_MA x Banking Sector Openness	(β)	0.0074	0.0050	GEGO_MA x Banking Sector Openness (First Sign)	(β)	0.0145	0.0332
		(0.0081)	(0.0226)			(0.0093)	(0.0266)
N = 738				N = 738			
<i>Wald Tests:</i>				<i>Wald Tests:</i>			
Closed Countries ($\alpha=0$)		0.72	1.00	Closed Countries ($\alpha=0$)		0.00	0.04
Open Countries ($\alpha+\beta=0$)		12.05*	3.90*	Open Countries ($\alpha+\beta=0$)		14.13*	6.31*

Figure 1: Sample Average of Absolute Value of LEGO

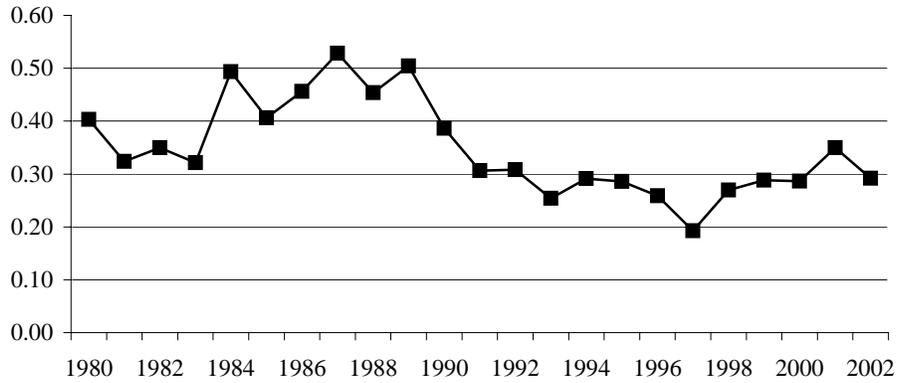


Figure 1. Sample average of absolute value of LEGO. The graph shows the cross-sectional average of the December value of the absolute value of LEGO for each year between 1980 and 2002 for developed countries (■).

Figure 2: Sample Average of Absolute Value of GEGO

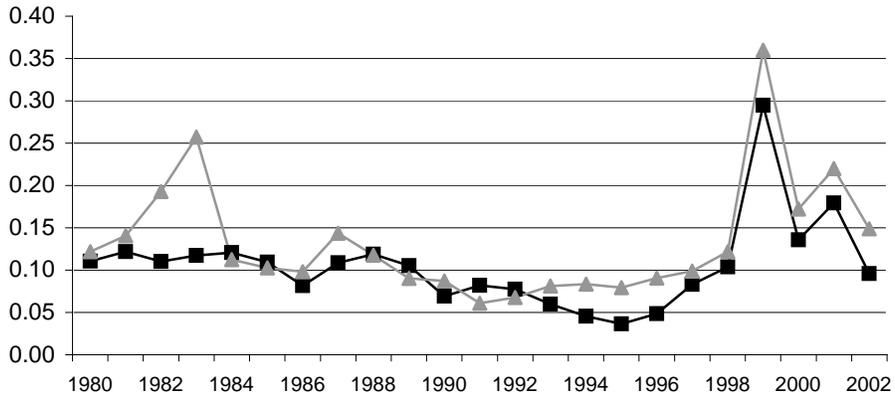


Figure 2. Sample average of absolute value of GEGO. For each sample, the graph shows the cross-sectional average of the absolute value of GEGO for each year between 1980 and 2002. ■ denotes developed countries, ▲ denotes emerging countries

Figure 3: Average Absolute Difference between Local and Global Industry Weights

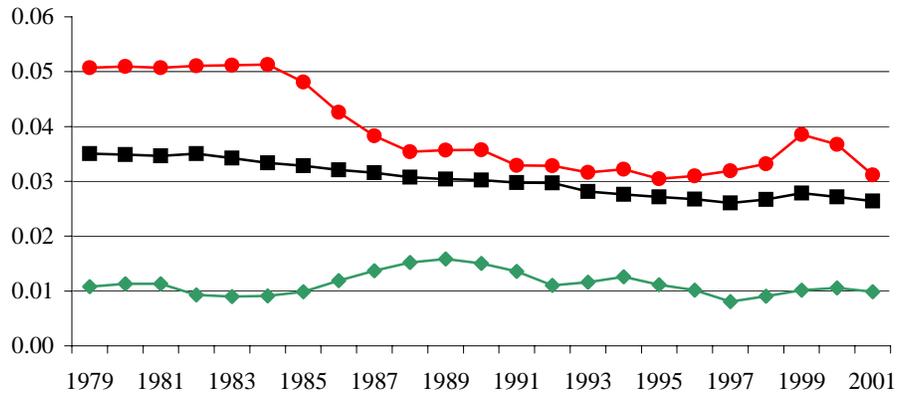


Figure 3. Average absolute difference between local and global industry weights. For each country, the average absolute value of the differences between the country-specific industry weights (based on relative market capitalization) and the world industry weights is calculated across all 35 industries for each year between 1979 and 2001. For the sample of developed countries, ■ denotes the average value across developed countries. ● denotes Austria and ◆ the U.S.A.

Appendix Table AI

Sample Composition and Data Sources

For the construction of LGO, market PE ratios from Datastream (preferred source), S&P/IFC's Emerging Markets Data Base (EMDB), and MSCI are used. The table shows which source is used and the first month for which data are available. For the construction of GGO, industry weights (IW) are obtained from S&P/IFC's Emerging Markets Data Base (EMDB) (preferred source) and Datastream. The table reports which source is used and since which year market values are available. For the construction of GGO (VA), value-added based industry weights (IW) are obtained from the UNIDO Industrial Statistics Database. The table reports since which year value added data are available.

Sample Composition		LGO: Sources and Availability of PE			GGO: Sources and Availability of Industry Weights (IW)		
Sample	Country	Datastream available since	EMDB available since	MSCI available since	Datastream Annual IW start in	EMDB Annual IW start in	UNIDO Annual IW start in
	World	Jan-73			-	-	-
I, III	Argentina	Jul-91				1983	1983
I, II	Australia	Jan-73			1973		1973
I, II	Austria	Jan-73			1973		1973
I, III	Bangladesh		Jan-96			1996	1973
I, II	Belgium	Jan-73			1973		1973
I, III	Brazil	May-99				1981	1990
I, II	Canada	Jan-73			1973		1973
I, III	Chile	Jul-89				1975	1973
I, III	Colombia	Feb-93				1984	1973
I, III	Cote d'Ivoire		Jan-96			1996	1973
I, II	Denmark	Jan-73			1973		1973
I, III	Egypt		Jan-96			1996	1973
I	Finland	Mar-88			1987		1973
I, II	France	Jan-73			1973		1973
I, II	Germany	Jan-73			1973		1973
I, III	Greece	Jan-90				1975	1973
I, III	India	Jan-90				1975	1973
I, III	Indonesia	Jan-91				1989	1973
I, II	Ireland	Jan-73			1973		1973
I, III	Israel	Jan-93				1997	1973
I	Italy			Apr-84	1973		1973
I, III	Jamaica		Jan-96			1996	1973
I, II	Japan	Jan-73			1973		1973
I, III	Jordan		Jul-86			1978	1973
I, III	Kenya		Jan-96			1996	1973
I, III	Korea, South	Jan-88				1975	1973
I, III	Malaysia	Jan-86				1984	1973
I, III	Mexico	Jul-90				1975	1973
I, III	Morocco		Jan-96			1996	1973
I, II	Netherlands	Jan-73			1973		1973
I	New Zealand	Jan-88			1988		1973
I, III	Nigeria		Sep-86			1984	1973
I, II	Norway			Jan-73	1980		1973
I, III	Pakistan		Apr-86			1984	1973
I, III	Philippines	Sep-87				1984	1973
I, III	Portugal	Jan-90				1986	1973
I, II	Singapore	Jan-73			1973		1973
I, II, III	South Africa	Jan-73			1973		1973
I	Spain			Jan-80	1987		1973
I, III	Sri Lanka		Jan-93			1992	1973
I, II	Sweden			Jan-73	1982		1973
I, II	Switzerland	Jan-73			1973		1986
I, III	Thailand	Jan-87				1975	1973
I, III	Trinidad and Tobago		Jan-96			1996	1973
I, III	Tunisia		Jan-96			1996	1973
I, III	Turkey	Apr-90				1986	1973
I, II	United Kingdom	Jan-73			1973		1973
I, II	United States	Jan-73			1973		1973
I, III	Venezuela	Mar-92				1984	1973
I, III	Zimbabwe		Jan-86			1975	1973

Appendix Table AII Dating Openness

The official equity market openness dates are based on Bekaert and Harvey (2005). Banking openness dates and "First Sign" dates are defined in Table II. Note that foreign banks could not enter the Argentinean banking market between 1984 and 1993. n/a indicates information for the country is not available. All other countries are considered fully open from 1980-2002.

Country	Official Equity Market Openness Year	Banking Openness Year	Banking Openness "First Sign" Year
Argentina	1989	1980 - 1983, 1994	1980 - 1983, 1994
Bangladesh	1991	n/a	n/a
Brazil	1991	1995	1995
Chile	1992	1998	1998
Colombia	1991	1990	1990
Cote d'Ivoire	1995	n/a	n/a
Egypt	1992	1993	1993
Greece	1987	1992	1987
India	1992	closed	1992
Indonesia	1989	1999	1988
Israel	1993	open	open
Jamaica	1991	n/a	n/a
Japan	1983	1985	1985
Jordan	1995	n/a	n/a
Kenya	1995	open	open
Korea	1992	1998	1982
Malaysia	1988	closed	closed
Mexico	1989	1994	1991
Morocco	1988	n/a	n/a
New Zealand	1987	1987	1987
Nigeria	1995	n/a	n/a
Pakistan	1991	closed	1994
Philippines	1991	2000	1994
Portugal	1986	1984	1984
South Africa	1996	open	open
Spain	1985	open	open
Sri Lanka	1991	1998	1988
Thailand	1987	closed	1997
Trinidad & Tobago	1997	n/a	n/a
Tunisia	1995	n/a	n/a
Turkey	1989	open	open
Venezuela	1990	1994	1994
Zimbabwe	1993	n/a	n/a

Appendix Table AIII
Regulated & Non-Tradable Industries

Among the 35 industrial sectors used by Datastream, we identify those that are likely regulated or non-tradable. We consider the remaining industries unregulated or tradable.

Industry	Regulated	Non-Tradable
Mining	-	-
Oil and Gas	-	-
Chemicals	-	-
Construction and Building Materials	-	Non-Tradable
Forestry and Paper	-	-
Steel and Other Metals	Regulated	-
Aerospace and Defense	Regulated	-
Diversified Industrials	-	-
Electronic and Electrical Equipment	-	-
Engineering and Machinery	-	-
Automobiles and Parts	-	-
Household Goods and Textiles	-	-
Beverages	-	-
Food Producers and Processors	Regulated	-
Health	Regulated	Non-Tradable
Personal Care and Household Products	-	-
Pharmaceuticals and Biotechnology	Regulated	-
Tobacco	Regulated	-
General Retailers	-	Non-Tradable
Leisure and Hotels	-	Non-Tradable
Media and Entertainment	-	Non-Tradable
Support Services	-	Non-Tradable
Transport	Regulated	-
Food and Drug Retailers	-	Non-Tradable
Telecommunication Services	Regulated	Non-Tradable
Electricity	Regulated	Non-Tradable
Utilities - Other	Regulated	Non-Tradable
Banks	Regulated	Non-Tradable
Insurance	Regulated	Non-Tradable
Life Assurance	Regulated	Non-Tradable
Investment Companies	-	-
Real Estate	-	Non-Tradable
Speciality and Other Finance	Regulated	Non-Tradable
Information Technology Hardware	-	-
Software and Computer Services	-	-