



Globalisation and Inter-occupational Inequality: Empirical Evidence from OECD Countries

Arne Bigsten¹ and Farzana Munshi²

¹Department of Economics, University of Gothenburg, Sweden and ²Department of Economics, BRAC University, Dhaka, Bangladesh

1. INTRODUCTION

OCCUPATIONAL wage inequality has increased in many developed countries in the last two decades. Hence, there has been a growing debate whether globalisation has contributed to the increase in wage inequality in these countries (see Slaughter and Swagel, 1997; Slaughter, 1999; Milanovic and Squire, 2005). According to the standard Heckscher–Ohlin–Samuelson (H-O-S) model (Samuelson, 1953), increased trade should increase occupational wage inequality in developed countries.

Analyses of globalisation and wage inequality have historically been limited to single-country analysis, since there have been no generally accepted comparable data on occupational wages across countries.¹ However, recently, the Occupational Wages around the World (OWW) database that includes both cross-sectional and time series observations became available.² The OWW is a huge country-occupation-time matrix containing wages for 164 occupations in more than 150 countries for the 1983–2003 period.

In this paper, we explore how increasing trade and capital flows affect inter-occupational wage inequality in a panel of 15 OECD countries by using the OWW. Compared to previous studies, we cover a more recent period when capital flows have played an increasingly important role in the globalisation process. We measure occupational wage inequality (or the wage gap) as the ratio of wages of skilled to unskilled workers. Occupations are classified as skilled or unskilled depending on educational attainment, which follows the International Standard Classification of Occupations 1988 (ISCO-1988). The empirical results are based on fixed effects regressions.

The results are mixed: openness to trade is found to have a significant inequality increasing effect in poorer OECD countries (which is in accordance with the H-O-S prediction), while the effect is the reverse (although not significant) at higher levels of income. We do not find any significant impact of increased openness to capital on occupational wage inequality.

The remainder of the paper proceeds as follows. Section 2 presents a brief review of standard theory and relevant empirical literature on globalisation and occupational wage

We wish to thank Dick Durevall, Karolina Ekholm, Måns Söderbom, Remco Oostendorp and seminar participants at the University of Gothenburg, Sweden, Wilfred Laurier University, Canada, and Imperial College, London, for helpful comments on this paper. Financial grants from the Wallander-Hedelius Foundation are gratefully acknowledged. The usual disclaimers apply.

¹A few studies analysing the impact of globalisation on wage inequality across countries have obtained evidence contrary to the predictions of the H-O-S theory (Majid, 2004; Milanovic and Squire, 2005).

²The data set can be accessed at <http://www.nber.com>.

inequality. Section 3 presents a description of the econometric model and data used in the paper. Section 4 presents the econometric analysis and the results, and Section 5 concludes.

2. GLOBALISATION AND OCCUPATIONAL WAGE INEQUALITY

The standard model used to investigate the effects of openness to trade on wage inequality is the H-O-S model, which is based on some quite restrictive assumptions.³ However, the simple prediction of the model is intuitive and widely used in empirical studies to analyse the distributional effects of greater openness to trade. According to the model, unskilled labour-abundant developing countries will tend to specialise and export unskilled labour-intensive products, while skilled labour-abundant and capital-endowed developed countries will specialise in and export skilled labour-intensive and capital-intensive products. Thus, increased trade, via the Stolper–Samuelson effect (Stolper and Samuelson, 1941), should raise the wages of unskilled workers in developing countries and the wages of skilled workers in developed countries. Hence, the model predicts a reduction in wage inequality in developing countries and *vice versa* in developed countries.

One example of the restrictive assumptions of the H-O-S model is the immobility of capital between countries, although trade liberalisation is often accompanied by policies targeted to liberalise capital markets. In fact, the increased capital flows that began in the 1990s are along with trade playing an increasingly important role in the globalisation process. The empirical evidence so far provides mixed results with regard to the impact of increased trade and capital flows on wage inequality (Slaughter and Swagel, 1997; Schott, 2001).

Capital is expected to flow to capital-scarce developing countries where the marginal product of capital is high (Mundell, 1957). Feenstra and Hanson (1995) develop a theoretical model to show that a flow of capital from the north (a rich country) to the south (a poor country) raises the relative wage of skilled workers in both. Depending on the nature of foreign investment and level of development of the recipient country, wage inequality may either increase (see Taylor and Drifford, 2000; for evidence on the UK) or decrease (see Haddad and Harrison, 1993; for evidence on Morocco).⁴ To the extent that capital inflows are correlated with technical progress, one may presume that capital is complementary to skilled labour and will tend to increase the wage gap. A large number of studies have pointed to skilled-biased technological change, linked to openness to trade and capital as an important factor causing wage inequality to rise (see Pavcnik, 2003). Another channel through which globalisation may affect wage inequality is the recent increase in outsourcing or trade in intermediate goods and services. Feenstra and Hanson (1999) find that in the 1979–90 period, outsourcing was responsible for 17.5 to 40 per cent of the increase in the relative wages of US non-production workers.

Although the Gini coefficient is commonly used as a measure of income inequality (see Barro, 2000; Dollar and Kraay, 2002), its use in cross-country analysis is problematic since the coverage of income sources tends to differ across countries. To avoid this problem, more recent studies have instead used wage inequality as a measure of income inequality (e.g. Te Velde and Morrissey, 2004; Milanovic and Squire, 2005). In general, wages constitute the

³See Goldberg and Goldbeg and Pavcnik (2007) for a discussion on this.

⁴See Slaughter (2002) for a discussion on several channels through which FDI can stimulate the demand for skilled workers.

major portion of the incomes of individuals, and hence, income and wage inequality tend to move in the same direction. Only a few studies have used the OWW database to analyse the impact of globalisation on wage inequality (Majid, 2004; Te Velde and Morrisey, 2004; Milanovic and Squire, 2005). Milanovic and Squire (2005) obtain weak evidence of reduced levels of inequality in rich countries and increased levels in poor countries in the 1984–99 periods. Majid (2004) also gets similar results.

3. ECONOMETRIC MODEL AND DATA

The general specification of the empirical model is as follows, where the dependent variable, relative wage, is explained by openness to trade, openness to capital and *GDP per capita*.

$$\begin{aligned} W_{it} = & \alpha_2 TRA_{it} + \alpha_3 CAP_{it} + \alpha_4 GDP_{it} + \alpha_5 TRA_{it}GDP_{it} \\ & + \alpha_6 CAP_{it}GDP_{it} + \theta_t + \eta_i + \mu_{it}. \end{aligned} \quad (1)$$

where W_{it} denotes the log of the ratio of skilled to unskilled wages in country i at time t . This ratio is the measure of inter-occupational wage inequality. The variables TRA_{it} and CAP_{it} denote measures of openness to trade and openness to capital, respectively. The coefficient of TRA_{it} is expected to have a positive sign for developed countries, while the coefficient of CAP_{it} may have a positive or negative sign. The variable GDP_{it} denotes log of *GDP per capita*, used here as a proxy for the level of development. The two interaction terms, $TRA_{it}GDP_{it}$ and $CAP_{it}GDP_{it}$, denote the logarithms of the interaction between *GDP per capita* and openness to trade and the interaction between *GDP per capita* and openness to capital, respectively. Finally, θ_t is a time effect, η_i is a country fixed effect which takes care of unobservable time-invariant heterogeneity across countries, and μ_{it} is the overall error term where i indexes individual countries in a cross-section and t indexes time.

a. Inter-occupational Wage Inequality

The International Labor Organization (ILO) has conducted a survey since 1924, called the ‘October Inquiry’, to collect data on wages by occupation across countries. However, the data lack comparability across occupations and countries, since different countries report wages differently. While some countries report national data, others report data from major cities or urban areas, and while some countries report national averages of earnings, some report minimum wages or collectively bargained wages. Moreover, while some report multiple wage figures, others report only monthly, weekly or daily wages. In addition, some countries report wages separately for males and females, while others report them together. The number of reported occupations also varies across countries and years.⁵

Fortunately, Freeman and Oostendorp (2000) have standardised the ILO October Inquiry data into the previously described OWW, where wages are reported as monthly averages for males in national currencies. In the OWW, wage data are available for the 24 high-income OECD nations.⁶ However, only 15 of the 24 are used in the analysis. The other nine

⁵For a detailed description of the heterogeneity in October Inquiry data and the standardised procedure, see Freeman and Oostendorp (2000).

⁶Countries are classified according to the World Development Indicator 2006. The countries included in this study are reported in Table A3 in the Appendix.

were excluded for various reasons: occupational wages are not reported in the OWW for Switzerland, Greece and Spain, and data are available for only one year for France and Luxembourg and for only two years for Ireland. No skilled occupational wages are reported for the chosen occupations in this study for Belgium and Iceland, and for Japan, there is only one recorded unskilled occupational wage throughout the period.

The data used are an unbalanced panel. Countries with data for at least two occupations in each of the skilled and unskilled categories for at least three consecutive years are included. As suggested by Freeman and Oostendorp (2000), we have used the base calibration with county-specific uniform weighting to get the nominal wages for the occupations. The occupations are classified as either skilled (19 occupations) or unskilled (15 occupations) according to the skill levels used in ISCO-88. The ISCO-88 uses education categories with reference to the International Standard Classification of Education 1976 (ISCED 76) to approximate skill levels.⁷ Following this, an unskilled worker is at the first ISCO skill level (major group 9: elementary occupations). This corresponds to ISCED category 1 which comprises primary education. Skilled workers are at the fourth ISCO skill level (major group 2: professional) which corresponds to ISCED categories 6 and 7, which comprises a university or postgraduate university degree or equivalent. A list of skilled and unskilled occupations with the corresponding ISCO-88 codes used in this paper is reported in Tables A1 and A2 in the Appendix. Inter-occupational wage inequality is measured by the ratio of wages of skilled to unskilled workers for the same occupations in all countries.⁸

b. Explanatory Variables

Fully satisfactory measures of openness to trade and openness to capital are not available. Reduced tariffs and non-tariff barriers generally indicate reduced trade protection, but these policy variables (particularly the non-tariff barriers) are difficult to obtain and apply. The most commonly used proxies for measuring the consequences of trade policies are the outcome-based measures exports and imports, or the sum of them as a percentage of GDP. An increase in the ratio over time is taken to indicate increased openness to trade. The limitation of these measures is obvious; an increase in the ratio can be influenced by other factors used in the empirical analysis, thus creating an endogeneity problem. Still, we use ‘import as a percentage of GDP’ as a proxy to measure openness to trade (openness).⁹ The data for openness are obtained from World Development Indicators 2006.

Previous empirical studies have used foreign direct investment (FDI), that is, either FDI inflows or FDI stock as a percentage of GDP, as a proxy for openness to capital. FDI inflow is the sum of equity capital, reinvested earnings and intra-company loans, whereas FDI stock is the sum of FDI inflows over a period of time. The FDI stock should be a better indicator

⁷However, in ISCO-88, skills necessary to perform a job can also be acquired by informal training and experience. For instance, the second skill level (e.g. skilled agricultural or fishery workers/plant and machine operator) corresponds to the ISCED categories 2 and 3, which comprise the first and second stages of secondary education. Following ISCO-88, on-the-job training may supplement this education.

⁸Te Velde and Morrissey (2004) use a similar measure of wage inequality. However, they define relative wage as the ratio of the wages of skilled to low-skilled workers where low-skilled workers correspond to first and second ISCO skill levels.

⁹As a robustness check of our empirical results, we have also used trade as a percentage of GDP to proxy openness to trade. The main results (not reported) are qualitatively same.

TABLE 1
Descriptive Statistics

<i>Variables (in Logarithms)</i>	<i>Mean</i>	<i>Standard Deviation</i>	<i>N</i>
Relative wage (ratio of skilled to unskilled wage)	0.59	0.213	207
Real GDP <i>per capita</i>	9.93	0.286	222
Imports as a percentage of GDP (openness)	3.29	0.344	222
Foreign direct investment stock as a percentage of GDP (FDI)	2.24	0.761	222

of the long-run impact of FDI than the commonly used FDI inflow, so we use FDI stock as a percentage of GDP as a proxy for openness to capital.¹⁰

Globalisation may impact skilled and unskilled wages differently depending on a country's level of development. There are huge differences in GDP *per capita* (an indicator of level of development) between the countries in the sample. To investigate whether the impact of openness varies by GDP *per capita*, the empirical analysis includes two interaction variables – openness to trade interacted with GDP *per capita* and FDI interacted with GDP *per capita*.¹¹ Table 1 presents descriptive statistics.

c. Short-run Impact of Globalisation on Wage Inequality

The past level of wage inequality is an important determinant of current wage inequality since current wages most likely depend on past wages. Therefore, we include the lagged dependent variable as an explanatory variable in equation (1) yielding:

$$W_{it} = \alpha_1 W_{i,t-1} + \alpha_2 TRA_{it} + \alpha_3 CAP_{it} + \alpha_4 GDP_{it} + \alpha_5 TRA_{it}GDP_{it} \\ + \alpha_6 CAP_{it}GDP_{it} + \theta_t + \eta_i + \mu_{it}. \quad (2)$$

The variable $W_{i,t-1}$ denotes a one-period lag of the dependent variable. Allowing dynamics creates endogeneity problem; by performing a Hausman test (Hausman, 1978), we find support for this. This implies that random effects and OLS estimators will provide inconsistent estimates. However, fixed effects (FE) or first-differenced (FD) estimators can provide consistent estimation by transforming the equation to eliminate this source of inconsistency. The FE estimator is consistent in the case of large T panels (see Judson and Owen, 1999; Bond, 2002). We have a fairly large T panel ($T = 21$) but the missing values make the average T smaller than 21.¹² Therefore, we use the first-differenced two-stage least squares estimator (2SLS) proposed by Anderson and Hsiao (1981, 1982). The first-differencing transformation eliminates the country fixed effects from the model:

¹⁰Te Velde and Morrisey (2004) have used this proxy for openness to capital. The data are available at <http://www.unctad.org/fdistatistics>.

¹¹GDP *per capita* is in constant 2000 international dollars, which is obtained from the Penn World Table 6.2.

¹²Judson and Owen (1999) show that the bias of a FE estimator for dynamic models can be up to 20 per cent even when $T = 30$.

$$\begin{aligned}\Delta W_{it} = & \alpha_1 \Delta W_{i,t-1} + \alpha_2 \Delta TRA_{it} + \alpha_3 \Delta CAP_{it} + \alpha_4 \Delta GDP_{it} + \alpha_5 \Delta TRA_{it}GDP_{it} \\ & + \alpha_6 \Delta CAP_{it}GDP_{it} + \Delta \theta_t + \Delta \mu_{it}.\end{aligned}\quad (2)$$

The 2SLS is used to estimate equation (3) where two-period lag of the dependent variable is used as instrument for $\Delta W_{i,t-1}$.

4. RESULTS

The results for estimating equation (3) are presented in Table 2. The coefficient for the openness to trade variable is positive and significant at the 5 per cent level, while the coefficient for the interaction term between openness to trade and *GDP per capita* is found to be negative and significant. We have evaluated how the impact varies with the level of *GDP per capita* (see Figure 1) and find that the effect of increased openness to trade increases inequality significantly at lower levels of *per capita* income, while the effect is insignificant at higher levels of income.

We thus get the theoretically predicted effect of openness to trade among poorer OECD countries, but this effect peters out as *per capita* incomes increase. The question is why we do not get the predicted effect among the bulk of the OECD countries. One possible explanation is that although trade-induced specialisation may have increased the demand for skilled labour, the increase in the supply of skilled labour may have been fast enough to counter or even reverse its effect on relative wages.¹³ Alternatively, one might hypothesise that offshore outsourcing by firms of OECD countries can explain the tendency towards a decrease in wage inequality at higher levels of income. For example, Ekholm and Ulltveit-Moe (2007) find

TABLE 2
Openness and Occupational Wage Inequality

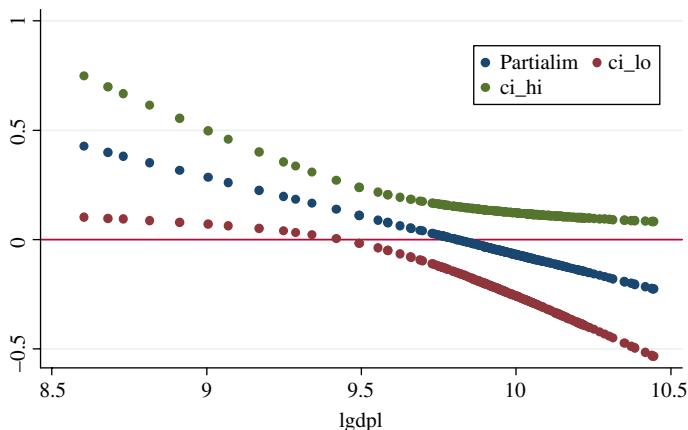
<i>Dependent Variable: Relative Wage</i>	<i>Coefficients</i>
Lagged relative wage	0.415** (2.72)
Openness	3.469** (2.27)
FDI	-0.259 (0.23)
GDP <i>per capita</i>	0.696 (1.43)
Openness \times GDP <i>per capita</i>	-0.353** (2.21)
FDI \times GDP <i>per capita</i>	0.023 (0.20)
No. of observations	170

Notes:

- (i) All variables are in logarithms. Absolute value of *t* statistic is shown in parentheses. Linear time trend and constant are included in the regression.
- (ii) **denotes statistical significance at the 5% level.

¹³The discussion of overeducation in Europe gives some support for this notion. See McGuinness (2006) for a review of evidence.

FIGURE 1
Impact of Openness on Wage Inequality



Note:

Partialim = partial impact; Ci_lo = 95% confidence interval lower bound; Ci_hi = 95% confidence interval higher bound. Lgdp1 = log GDP *per capita*.

evidence for a decrease in wage premium due to outsourcing in the US. Firms can reduce costs by outsourcing skilled jobs (such as accountants and computer programmers) to low-wage countries. This can decrease the number of skilled jobs and reduce the wage rate of skilled workers. Many unskilled jobs, on the other hand, for example, in the service sector cannot be outsourced and their demands (and wages) remain more or less unchanged in those firms.¹⁴

We do not find any statistically significant coefficient on the openness to capital variable and its interaction with the GDP *per capita*, implying that the impact of increased FDI on occupational wage inequality is low at all levels of development within developed countries. This would seem to indicate that the FDI in developed countries is not necessarily complementary to skilled labour.

5. CONCLUSIONS

By analysing data for 34 occupations across 15 OECD countries spanning the periods 1983–2003, we provide some empirical evidence on the impact of globalisation on inter-occupational wage inequality. Two-stage least squares is used to estimate a dynamic model where occupational wage inequality (measured by the ratio of skilled to unskilled wages) is explained by openness to trade, openness to capital and the level of economic development.

Our empirical findings suggest that openness to trade increased wage inequality at lower levels of income (within the OECD), but that there was no significant effect at higher levels of income. Instead there has been a decreasing trend in occupational wage inequality between skilled and unskilled workers in the richer OECD countries, which potentially explains the

¹⁴Kratena (2010) finds that for two of the three European countries he studied (Austria and Denmark), high-skilled labour is a substitute for imported intermediates, which indicates that international outsourcing also substitutes high-skilled labour. This tends to hold back skilled wages.

latter result. One possibility is that the supply of skilled workers has been so rapid that it has negated the trade effect. Alternatively, it could be the effect of the increased outsourcing of skilled jobs. Or it could be due to the fact that trade flows are not of a sufficient magnitude to effect the relative wages in the richest countries. The increased openness to capital flows, as measured by FDI, had no significant impact on occupational wage inequality at any level of development.

REFERENCES

- Anderson, T. W. and C. Hsiao (1981), 'Estimation of Dynamic Models With Error Components', *Journal of the American Statistical Association*, **76**, 375, 598–606.
- Anderson, T. W. and C. Hsiao (1982), 'Formulation and Estimation of Dynamic Models Using Panel Data', *Journal of Econometrics*, **18**, 1, 47–82.
- Barro, R. J. (2000), 'Inequality and Growth in a Panel of Countries', *Journal of Economic Growth*, **5**, 1, 5–32.
- Bond, S. (2002), 'Dynamic Panel Data Models: A Guide to Micro Data Methods and Practice', cemmap working paper CWP09/02 (London: The Institute for Fiscal Studies, UCL).
- Dollar, D. and A. Kraay (2002), 'Growth is Good for the Poor', *Journal of Economic Growth*, **7**, 3, 195–225.
- Ekholm, K. and K. H. Ulltveit-Moe (2007), 'A new Look at Offshoring and Inequality: Specialization Versus Competition', Discussion Paper 6402 (London: CEPR).
- Feenstra, R. C. and G. H. Hanson (1995), 'Foreign Investment, Outsourcing and Relative Wages', Working Paper 5121 (Cambridge, MA: NBER).
- Feenstra, R. C. and G. H. Hanson (1999), 'The Impact of Outsourcing and High-technology Capital on Wages: Estimates for the United States, 1979–1990', *Quarterly Journal of Economics*, **114**, 3, 907–41.
- Freeman, R. B. and R. H. Oostendorp (2000), 'Wages Around the World: Pay Across Occupations and Countries', Working Paper 8058 (Cambridge, MA: NBER).
- Goldberg, P. and N. Pavcnik (2007), 'Distributional Effects of Globalization in Developing Countries', *Journal of Economic Literature*, **45**, 1, 39–82.
- Haddad, M. and A. Harrison (1993), 'Are There Positive Spillovers From Direct Foreign Investment? Evidence From Panel Data for Morocco', *Journal of Development Economics*, **42**, 1, 51–74.
- Hausman, J. A. (1978), 'Specification Tests in Econometrics', *Econometrica*, **46**, 6, 1251–71.
- Judson, R. A. and A. L. Owen (1999), 'Estimating Dynamic Panel Data Models: A Guide for Macroeconomists', *Economics Letters*, **65**, 1, 9–15.
- Kratena, K. (2010), 'International Outsourcing and the Demand for Skills', *Empirica*, **37**, 1, 65–85.
- Majid, N. (2004), 'What is the Effect of Trade Openness on Wages?', Employment Strategy Papers 2004/18 (Geneva: ILO).
- McGuinness, S. (2006), 'Overeducation in the Labour Market', *Journal of Economic Surveys*, **20**, 3, 387–418.
- Milanovic, B. and L. Squire (2005), 'Does Tariff Liberalization Increase Wage Inequality? Some Empirical Evidence', Working Paper 11046 (Cambridge, MA: NBER).
- Mundell, R. A. (1957), 'International Trade and Factor Mobility', *American Economic Review*, **47**, 3, 321–35.
- Pavcnik, N. (2003), 'What Explains Skill Upgrading in Less Developed Countries?', *Journal of Development Economics*, **71**, 2, 311–28.
- Samuelson, P. A. (1953), 'Prices of Factors and Goods in General Equilibrium', *Review of Economic Studies*, **21**, 1, 1–20.
- Schott, P. (2001), 'Across-product Versus Within-product Specialization in International Trade', *Quarterly Journal of Economics*, **119**, 2, 647–78.
- Slaughter, M. J. (1999), 'Globalisation and Wages: A Tale of Two Perspectives', *The World Economy*, **22**, 5, 609–29.
- Slaughter, M. J. (2002), 'Skill Upgrading in Developing Countries: Has Inward Foreign Direct Investment Played a Role?', Working paper No. 192 (Paris: OECD Development Centre).
- Slaughter, M. J. and P. Swagel (1997), 'The Effect of Globalization on Wages in the Advanced Economies', Working Paper 97/43 (New York: IMF).

- Stolper, W. and P. A. Samuelson (1941), 'Protection and Real Wages', *Review of Economic Studies*, **9**, 1, 51–68.
- Taylor, K. and N. Driffield (2000), 'Wage Dispersion and the Role of Multinationals: Evidence From UK Plant Data', Paper presented at the International Economic Association Conference on Globalization and Labor Markets, University of Nottingham.
- Te Velde, D. W. and O. Morrisey (2004), 'Foreign Direct Investment, Skills and Wage Inequality in East Asia', *Journal of the Asia Pacific Economy*, **9**, 3, 348–69.

APPENDIX A
OCCUPATIONS AND COUNTRY LISTS

TABLE A1
Skilled Occupations

# From ILO OI	Occupation	ISCO-88 Code
11	Coal mining engineer	2147
14	Petroleum and natural gas engineer	2147
44	Journalist	2451
52	Chemical engineer	2146
61	Occupational health nurse	2230
76	Power distribution and transmission engineer	2143
129	Accountant	2411
133	Computer programmer in insurance	2132
138	Computer programmer in public administration	2132
145	Mathematics teacher (third level)	2310
146	Teacher in languages and literature (third level)	2310
147	Teacher in languages and literature (second level)	2320
148	Mathematics teacher (second level)	2320
149	Technical education teacher (second level)	2320
150	First-level education teacher	2331
151	Kindergarten teacher	2331
152	General physician	2221
153	Dentist (general)	2222
154	Professional nurse	2230

TABLE A2
Unskilled Occupations

# From ILO OI	Occupation	ISCO-88 Code
13	Underground helper, loader in coal mining	9311
21	Hand packer	9322
28	Labourer in textiles	9322
51	Labourer in printing, publishing and allied industries	9322
56	Labourer in manufacturing of industrial chemicals	9322
58	Hand packer in manufacture of other chemical products	9322
59	Labourer in manufacture of other chemical products	9322
70	Labourer in manufacturing in machinery	9322
80	Labourer in electric light and power	9322
90	Labourer in construction	9312/9313

TABLE A2 *Continued*

# From ILO OI	Occupation	ISCO-88 Code
100	Room attendant or chambermaid	9132
104	Railway vehicle loader	9333
117	Dockworker	9333
123	Aircraft loader	9333
144	Refuse collector	9161

TABLE A3
List of Countries (15)

Australia	Netherlands
Austria	New Zealand
Canada	Norway
Denmark	Portugal
Finland	Sweden
Germany	UK
Italy	US
Korea, Rep.	