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International Trade and Within-sector Wage Inequality: the Case of South Korea

Siwook Lee*1

This paper studies which factors contributed to the changes in wage inequality in Korean manufacturing over the last three decades. By adopting Akerman et al. (2013)'s decomposition method, we examine the relative importance of withinsector and between-sector wage variations in Korean manufacturing over the period of 1980-2012. Our analytic results confirm that within-sector wage variation explains the lion's share of overall wage inequality. Taking such finding into account, we estimate the impacts of international trade, skilled-biased technological change and labor market conditions on within-sector wage inequality in Korea. Our estimation results suggest that there was a structural change in determinants of wage inequality before and after the mid-1990s. The influence of international trade mainly through heightened import competition on wage dispersion became relatively more conspicuous over the last two decades.

JEL Classification: F14, F16, J33, O33

Keywords: Wage Inequality, International Trade, FDI, Technological Change,

Skill-intensity

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I. Introduction

Globalization and rising wage inequality are nowadays buzzwords in the international community. Since the second half of the 20th century an accelerated pace of globalization has been witnessed, which substantially altered the competitive landscape among nations and firms. At the same time, rising wage inequality has recently become a rather common feature for many countries in the world, regardless of their individual development stage. This coincidence has led to extensive research efforts on the relationship between globalization and wage inequality.

Among various facets of globalization, international trade has taken center stage in the economics literature that studied the impact of globalization on labor market outcomes. Neoclassical trade theory, such as the Heckscher-Ohlin model and the specific–factors models, has served for a long time as a core analytic framework to examine the distributional consequences of international trade.

According to the standard Heckscher-Ohlin model, for example, each country tends to export the goods that use intensively the factor of production it has in abundance, and the abundant factor used intensively in the production of those goods gains from trade, while the scarce factor loses from trade. Therefore if skilled-labor is an abundant factor, then cross-border trade would increase the real earnings of skilled-labor and decrease those of unskilled-labor, given an increase in the relative price of skilled-intensive goods (Stolper-Samuelson theorem). Consequently, the relative wage of skilled labor to unskilled counterpart tends to increase as a result of international trade.

While neoclassical trade theory remains impeccable from a theoretical point of view, there has been growing concern that it conflicts with various stylized facts regarding the trade-inequality nexus. One of the most puzzling facts is widespread evidence of increasing within-industry wage inequality. Under an assumption of free factor mobility across industries, neoclassical trade theory emphasizes the trade-induced wage inequality between occupations and industries. However, the recent studies suggest that much of overall wage inequality stems from within- sector and/or within-occupation wage variations, and even from wage differentials among workers with similar observable characteristics (Lawrence and Slaughter; 1993, Akerman et al; 2013, Helpman et al.; 2016).

² Given these observations, the current literature proposes a number of new theoretical frameworks linking international trade with wage dispersion within sectors and occupations, related to firm heterogeneity, task trade and incomplete contractions. Please refer to Harrison et al

Another puzzling fact that challenges neoclassical trade theory is that the rise in wage inequality has been observed in both developed and developing economies. The Heckscher-Ohlin model predicts that the relative wage of skilled-labor to unskilled-labor would fall in less developed countries. In reality, however, the evolution patterns of inequality within developing countries as they open up to trade are at odds with the Heckscher-Ohlin predictions (Berman et al.; 1998, Goldberg and Pacvnik, 2007; Feenstra, 2008).

Finally, many studies, especially back in the mid-1990s, found that the impact of international trade on wage inequality could be relatively minor. Feenstra and Hanson (1996, 1997) resuscitate the trade-inequality nexus by emphasizing offshoring activities abroad and their impacts on the domestic economy. Indeed, a substantial part of the increases in international trade since 1990s has been associated closely with a rapid expansion of global production networks. Under a Heckscher-Ohlin framework with a continuum of goods, Feenstra and Hanson (1996, 1997) convincingly show that offshoring activities substantially increase the relative demand for skilled-labor not only in developed countries but also in developing countries.

Taken aforementioned recent developments in the trade literature into account, this paper investigates the major factors contributed to within-industry wage differentials in Korean manufacturing for the period between 1980 and 2012. Especially we examine the relative importance of international trade, skilled-biased technological change and labor market conditions on within-sector wage inequality. As for the effect of trade on wage structure, we employ various trade indicators such as trade openness, FDI intensities, and offshoring measures à la Feenstra and Hanson (1997).

There are a number of reasons why Korean experience is particularly interesting for identifying the globalization-inequality nexus. First of all, Korea has gone through rapid economic development since 1960s, during which international trade has been an important driver. Empirical evidence on trade-induced wage inequality for developed countries, notably the United States, has often been criticized due to the small volume of trade compared to the overall economic size (Krugman; 1995). Korea is certainly not the case since its trade intensity, the ratio of trade volume relative to GDP, has been steadily increased from 21.4% in 1962 to 95.9% in 2014, reaching at 110.0% in 2011.

Second, the pattern of wage inequality in Korea reveals a "U" shaped change, declining during the 1970-80s and first half of the 1990s, and increasing afterward. The decreasing trend in wage inequality at the early stage of economic development when skilled-labor had been a relatively scare factor is seemingly consistent with the Heckscher-Ohlin prediction. On the other hand,

examining rising wage inequality after the mid-1990s is also quite interesting since during this period the contribution of net exports to GDP has been even much larger than before and foreign outsourcing has rapidly expanded.

Last but not the least, the increase in the college premium, often found in advanced economies, has not been observed for the Korean case. Interestingly, the monthly wages for workers whose educational background is at most high-school drop-out have experienced the highest wage growth over the last three decades, while the wage increase for university graduates or over has been the most modest. As depicted in Figure 1, the wage of university-educated workers relative to that of non-workers of other education background declined dramatically over 1980 to the mid-1990s. One of the primary reasons for this trend is a relatively rapid expansion of secondary and tertiary education, so that the growing demand for skilled labor was matched by a concurrent massive increase in its supply.

// Figure 1 around here //

There have been several studies that examine the sources of the changes in inequality of Korea. According to Fields and Yoo (2000), for example, the most important factors in explaining the change in income inequality during 1976-1993 are years of education, industry, occupation and potential experience. Kang and Yun (2008) find that changes in wage structure explains virtually all of the changes in wage inequality, while changes in the distribution of worker's characteristics and those in occupational or industrial composition are turned out to be insignificant factors. Likewise Kim (2005) examines how overall wage structure has responded to changing labor supplies between 1978 and 2002. He finds the importance of changes in educational and age distributions of labor supply in the determination of wage inequality.

Mah (2003) and Sato and Fukushige (2009) examine the relevance of the Kuznets inverted-U hypothesis that income inequality grows at the early stage of economic development and then declines during later stages. While Mah (2003) shows weak evidence on the Kuznets hypothesis, Sato and Fukushige (2009)'s findings do not support for it for the case of Korea. In addition, Sato and Fukushige suggest that international trade reduces income inequality both in the short-run and long-run and capital market opening contributes to rising income inequality.

On the other hand, Kwack (2010) finds that wage inequality is related negatively to the relative supply of skilled labor and positively to the capital-to-GDP ratio and export intensity. He argues that trade openness, proxied by the

ratio of exports of goods and services to GDP, is one of the factors for shifting up the relative demand for skilled labor.

More recently, Jeon et al. (2013) studies the influence of trade and offshoring on the skill premium using Korean labor panel data. Their results indicate a positive linkage between skill premium and trade/foreign outsourcing. Finally, by employing an error correction model over 1992- 2011, Kang (2014) investigates the effect of trade openness and FDI on income distribution. He finds that income inequality is reduced as trade openness increases, but deteriorated as both inward and outward FDI flows increase. Therefore, as far as the trade impact on inequality is concerned, evidence for the Korean case seems to be also mixed.

This paper contains a number of distinct features relative to the existing literature on the trade-inequality nexus of Korea. First of all, following the recent developments in the trade literature, we examine the impact of trade on within-industry wage inequality, rather than on overall wage inequality. By adopting Akerman et al. (2013)'s decomposition method, this paper confirms that within-sector wage variation explains most of overall wage inequality in Korean manufacturing.

Second, one of the shortcomings in previous studies on the relationship between trade and inequality of Korea is lack of appropriate controls for labor market conditions in estimation. Evidently, Korea has experienced dynamic changes in labor market environments, including rapid improvement in education attainment, worker's composition, ageing population and so on over the last several decades. Without careful control for these changes, therefore, the marginal impact of globalization on wage inequality could not be properly estimated. We also explicitly include skill-biased technological progress as a control variable in estimation.³

The rest of this paper is organized as follows. The next section provides a brief description of data construction and empirical strategies adopted in this study. In Section III, we present our estimation results on wage inequality decomposition \dot{a} la Akerman et al. (2013) and on the determinants of within-sector wage variations. And the final section concludes.

³ Katz and Murphy (1992), for example, argue that the majority of shifts in relative labor demand toward skilled workers over the last decades occurred within sectors, and these within-sector shifts are likely to reflect skill-biased technological changes.

II. Data and Empirical Strategy

1. Data and Variable Construction

Our empirical analysis draws upon several data sources, including the Korean Occupational Wage Survey, Asia KLEMS data, Korean Input/Output Tables, and the UN Comtrade database. First of all, using the Korean Occupational Wage Survey (OWS hereafter), we extract wage inequality measures for the period of 1980-2012. The OWS is an annual business establishment conducted since 1970 by Korea's Ministry of Employment and Labor. The surveyed establishments are selected by adopting a stratified random sampling method among those employing at least ten workers.⁴ The sample size is between 400,000 and 500,000 workers per year.

The OWS contains detailed information on individual worker's occupation, industry, wages, region, and other individual characteristics such as age, sex, education, experience, and marital status. It includes about 150 occupations and 60 manufacturing industries based on an ISIC 3-digit level. It has covered all sectors until 1986 and excluded agriculture, forestry, hunting, and fishing sectors afterward.⁵

In this paper, we adopt the variance of logged-value for hourly wage rates as our measure of inequality, using the OWS dataset. Wage includes base salary, overtime pay and bonuses. We convert nominal wage rates into real ones by using wholesale price index.

Industry-level control variables regarding labor market conditions and technology come from Asia KLEMS dataset. In regression estimation, we restrict our attention to manufacturing sector. Asia KLEMS dataset comprises a total of 32 sectors, of which 12 of them are manufacturing sectors. Given data structure, we aggregate these into 10 manufacturing sectors and we use this classification in estimation: these are (1) Food, Beverages and Tobacco, (2) Textiles, Textile, Leather and Footwear, (3) Wood, Pulp, Paper, Printing and Publishing, (4) Refined Petroleum, Chemicals, Rubber and Plastics, (5) Other Non-metallic Mineral, (6) Basic Metals and Fabricated Metal, (7) Machinery, nec, (8) Electrical and Optical Equipment, (9) Transport Equipment, (10)

⁴ From 1999, the OWS expands the surveyed establishments into those employing 5 workers or more. In estimation, we restrict to workers who belong to companies of 10 workers or more for consistency.

⁵ The OWS excludes temporary workers, the self-employed and unemployed. Consequently, it is quite plausible that wage inequality measures from this data would understate the reality.

Manufacturing, nec. Therefore, we use a total of 330 observations over 1980-2012 in regression estimation.

Using Asia KLEMS data, we include the following three variables to control for labor market conditions in regression. First, we take the share of hours worked by high-skilled workers in total hours worked as a measure for the relative supply of skilled labor. Given the observation that there exist nonnegligible wage differentials between male workers and female counterparts, we include the share in total hours worked by female workers in estimation. Likewise, workers' age structure is also considered by including the share of hours worked by workers aged 50 and over.

In addition, the existing empirical research consistently reports that skill-biased technological change is a major source of rising inequality. Taking this into account, we take the logged value of ICT capital services per hour worked as a proxy for skill-biased technological change.

As for trade-related variables foe each sector, we consider the ratio of trade volume (or exports and/or imports) to value-added, the share of inward and outward FDI flows relative to value-added, import penetration ratio, and offshoring measures à la Feenstra and Hanson (1999). Trade data come from the UN Comtrade database, inward FDI flows from the Ministry of Trade, Industry and Energy, and outward FDI from Korean EXIM Bank database. Asia KLEMS data contain sectorial level value-added. Differences in currency nomination are adjusted by using yearly average foreign exchange rates.

Feenstra and Hanson (1999) define the offshoring measure by the industrial share of intermediate inputs that are imported; that is, for an industry k purchasing inputs j , it is defined as

Offshoring_k =
$$\frac{\sum_{j} (\text{industry } k \text{ purchase of good } j) \left(\frac{\text{imports of good } j}{\text{total domestic consumption of good } j} \right)}{\sum_{j} (\text{industry } k \text{ purchase of good } j)}$$

(1)

where domestic consumption is measures as gross production + imports - exports.

We obtain industrial export and import data from the UN Comtrade data, and gross output from Asia KLEMS. Information on sectorial purchase of intermediate inputs is calculated using Korean I/O tables in various years. For years that I/O tables do not exist, we apply an I/O table of the closest year

⁶ KLEMS data define skill level based on education attainment. High-skilled workers are those who finished at least university/college programs.

instead. Those years are 1989, 199-92, 1994, 1996-97, 1999, 2001-02 and 2004.

2. Decomposition of Wage Inequality

Having the inequality measure in hand, we first explore the sources of wage inequality by decomposing overall wage inequality into within- and betweengroup components. Specifically, we adopt Akerman et al. (2013)'s decomposition method in the following;

$$\frac{1}{N_t} \sum_{i} \left(w_{it} - \overline{w_t} \right) = \frac{1}{N_t} \sum_{l} \sum_{i \in l} \left(w_{it} - \overline{w_{lt}} \right) + \frac{1}{N_t} \sum_{l} N_{lt} \left(\overline{w_{lt}} - \overline{w_t} \right) \tag{2}$$

where $\frac{w_{it}}{w_{lt}}$ denotes an individual worker i's the log wage level at time t, while $\frac{w_{lt}}{w_{lt}}$ and $\frac{w_{t}}{w_{t}}$ are the average log wage within a group l and the overall average log wage, respectively. N denotes the number of workers. Finally, we define groups by sectors, occupations, education levels, occupation-education levels, sector-occupation, sector-education levels, and sector-occupation-education levels. Using Swedish employer-employee data, Akerman et al. (2013) show a substantial contribution for wage inequality within groups.

3. Determinants of Within-sector Wage Variations

Given the importance of within-sector wage variations to explain over wage inequality, we then examine the impact of international trade on within-sector wage variations, using a balanced panel of 10 Korean manufacturing sectors over 1980-2012.

Specifically, we pursue regression estimations based on the following specifications:

$$Var(wage)_{kt} = \alpha + \beta \Sigma_{kt} + \gamma SBTC_{kt} + \theta \Psi_{kt} + \nu \Gamma + \varepsilon_{kt}$$
(3)

where $Var(wage)_{kt}$ is the variance of the logged value of the monthly average real wage rates for an industry k at time t. Σ_{kt} denotes a vector of traderelated variables, such as trade intensity, FDI intensity, and offshoring measures defined in Equation (1). $SBTC_{kt}$ stands for skill-biased technological change,

which is proxied by the logged value of ICT capital services per hour worked, as aforementioned. Ψ_{kt} is a vector of labor market variables, including the relative supply of skilled workers, the share of female workers and that of aged workers in total hours worked. Finally, T denotes a vector of time dummies.

III. Empirical Results

1. Importance of Within-group Wage Variations

Figure 2 shows the trends in overall, within-sector and between-sector wage variations in Korean manufacturing for the period of 1980-2012.⁷ The first observation is that the trend of overall wage inequality over time shows a "U" shaped pattern; overall wage inequality tends to decrease over 1980- 1994, and then rise afterward. According to this figure, wage was more unequal in the 1980s than in the 2000s. It is also interesting that wage inequality was sizably reduced during the late 1980s when labor movements became active and widespread. And rising wage dispersion in the late 199s was to some extent coincided with the Asian Financial Crisis of 1997.

Second, within-sector wage variations explain most of overall wage inequality, which is consistent with Akerman et al. (2013)'s finding on Swedish data. And the contribution of within-sector variations to overall inequality increases over time. As a matter of fact, for the period of 1980-1994 when wage inequality declined, around 84.2% of the level of wage inequality is within-sector. The contribution of within-sector increased up to 90.8% on average over 1995-2012.

// Figure 2 around here //

We also apply Akerman et al. (2013)'s decomposition method to different types of groups, depending on sectors, education levels and occupations. The results are reported in Table 1.

// Table 1 around here //

⁷ We'd like to report that either the inclusion of non-manufacturing sectors into analysis, the expansion of the sample period over 1970s, or even the usage of more disaggregate industrial classification does not change the qualitative results presented in this section.

As shown in Table 1, no matter how groups are defined, within-group variations explain at least more than a half of overall wage inequality in Korean manufacturing sector. More importantly, the contribution of within-group variations has increased over time. For example, around 52.4% of the level of wage inequality is within sector-occupation-education groups over 1980-1994, and it has increased up to 71.1% for the period of 1995-2012. The bottom part of Table 1 presents the contribution of within occupation-education wage variations by each sector. Again, growing importance of within-group wage variations is confirmed again. Overall, these findings imply that it becomes more and more critical to explore the underlying mechanisms of within-group variations, to better understand inequality issues.

2. Trade-Inequality Nexus: Estimation Results

In this section, we discuss the relative importance of international trade, skilled-biased technological change and labor market conditions on within-sector wage inequality, basing on our estimation results. Before discussing regression results, let's look at descriptive statistics for variables in estimation, which is presented in Table 2. We selected 4 years' data from 1982 to 2012 with a 10-years interval for each, in order to observe a medium-term evolution of each indicator.

// Table 2 around here //

As depicted in Figure 2, within-sector variations show a "U" shaped pattern over time, just like overall wage variations. Trade intensity seems to follow a similar path during the sampling years. To see it more clearly, we present the trends of trade-related variables over the sample period in Figure 3.

// Figure 3 around here //

Both export intensity and import intensity declined until the mid-1990s and then rebounded afterwards. A drastic surge of export intensity in the late-1990s was due to the temporary impact from the Asian Financial Crisis. On the other hand, FDI intensities- both inward and outward – have steadily grown over time. In case of offshoring, we can hardly see a clear time-series pattern from Figure 3, but a more detailed look for the whole sample indicates that offshoring by

Korean manufacturing – the share of intermediate inputs that are imported - had remained around 25~30% until the early 2000s and then started to expand afterward.

On the other hand, ICT usage in manufacturing sector has been accelerating over time. Among labor market variables, the relative supply of skilled labor – the share of hours worked by high-skilled workers in total hours worked – has expanded substantially, from 4.8% in 1982 to 22.3% in 2012. In addition, the share ratio of hours worked by workers of 50 years-old or over has also increased impressively. On the other hand, interestingly, the share of female workers in total hours in the manufacturing sector has declined, from 34.7% in 1982 to 24.4% in 2012.

Table 3 reports our regression estimation results for the whole sampling years, using Random Effect model (RE model hereafter), Fixed Effect model (FE model hereafter) and System GMM model based on Equation (2).

// Table 3 around here //

According to RE model estimation results, wage variations within sectors are decreased as the ratio of export volume to value-added increases. On the other hand, FE model estimation results indicate an exactly opposite relationship between them. In addition, the impact of import intensity on within-sector wage variation is turned out to be positive and strongly significant in FE model. By carrying out the Hausman test, we find that FE estimation is clearly preferable to RE one.

Finally, in order to control for endogeneity issues, we also employ the System GMM model developed by Blundell and Bond (1998) and report the results in the last column of Table 3.8 Our analytic results largely confirm the influence of import competition on rising within-sector wage inequality. The estimated coefficients on import intensity are negative with a strong statistical significance for both FE and System GMM estimations, which are preferred models in empirical perspective.

These findings are consistent with theoretical implications from Melitz (2003) and other recent heterogeneous-firm models. According to Melitz (2003), higher import intensity poses heightened competitive pressure in the domestic market, and result in a reallocation of resources toward more productive firm. During

⁸ According to the Sargan test result the null hypothesis of over-identifying restrictions is rejected, but the Hansen test does not reject it for the same data. Taking into consideration that heteroskedasticity may result in incorrect rejection by the Sargan test and thus Hansen test is more robust than the other, we could pursue the System GMM estimation here.

this process, overall wage inequality could arise due to wage dispersion between firms. Using Brazilian employer-employee data, Helpman et al. (2016) recently confirm such mechanism.

On the other hand, our System GMM estimation results suggest that higher export intensity would reduce within-sector wage inequality. These results are somewhat puzzling at a first glance, but we could expect differential impacts between export and import channels. For example, Baggs et al. (2002) provide empirical evidence that heightened import competition would raise the probability that low productivity firms exit out of market, which is largely consistent with Melitz (2003). At the same time, they find that enhanced export opportunities through trade liberalization influence productivity in the reverse direction and thus the survival probability for low productivity firms could in fact increases. If export opportunities allow these firms that were paying lower wages to increase the wage they offer, then wage inequality could be possibly reduced.

Going back to Table 3, foreign direct investments and offshoring are turned out to be, at least yet, not much important determinants for within-sector wage dispersion in Korean manufacturing. Even though FDI intensities- both inward and outward – tend to improve over time, they still remain at low levels so that they may not have a substantial impact on wage variation so far.

On the other hand, estimation results suggest that skilled-biased technological progress – proxied by the logged value of ICT capital services per hour worked in estimation – is apparently the most consistent and robust factor for explaining within-sector wage dispersion.

As aforementioned, wage dispersion in Korean manufacturing has evolved with "U" shaped pattern. In this respect, we examine further whether there existed some structural changes in determinants of wage inequality before and after the mid-1990s. Specifically, we employ the Chow test to determine whether data for the entire period should be pooled together or be estimated separately. The test results strongly reject the null hypothesis that the coefficients estimated over the periods of 1980-1994 are equal to those over the later periods. As a result, then we run regression analyses, separately for two distinct periods, 1980-1994 and 1995-2012, and report our analytic results in Table 4.

// Table 4 around here //

Our analytic results indicate that different types of trade-related activities generally do not explain much of within-sector wage variations for the period of 1980-1994. Most of the estimated coefficients on trade-related variables turned

out to be statistically insignificant, regardless of empirical specifications. We also find that skill-biased technological change is not a major determinant of wage dispersion either.

On the other hand, for the period after the mid-1990s, estimated results presented in Table 4 are largely matched with those in Table 3. They suggest that wage inequality rises as import competition becomes more intense, and skill-biased technological change is arguably one of the most influential factors in shaping within-sector wage dispersion. In addition, estimation results suggest that a rapid increase of skilled workers into labor market during this period contributed to reducing wage inequality, although we fail to get it from System GMM estimation. Another noticeable observation from estimation is a possible negative relationship between that outward direct investment and wage dispersion.

Finally, unlike our initial presumption, we could not find any statistical meaning impacts of workers' ageing structure on within-sector wage dispersion since mid-1990s. Related to this, Chang and Lee (2013) recently show that, among the effects of within-group inequality, the increase in income inequality within working-age households explains the majority of the inequality, while the proportional change in elderly households would be of second importance.

V. Concluding Remarks

Taking recent new developments in trade literature into account, this paper empirically investigates the relative importance of international trade, skilled-biased technological change and labor market conditions on within-sector wage inequality, focusing on Korean manufacturing for the period between 1980 and 2012.

First of all we find that wage dispersion in Korean manufacturing has evolved with a "U" shaped pattern; it had declined until the mid-1990s and then bound back afterward. In addition, this paper reports that within-sector wage variations explain most of overall wage inequality, which is consistent with Akerman et al. (2013), and the contribution of within-sector variations to overall inequality is even increasing further over time. The same observations could be found when we re-do similar analysis to within-occupation and/or within-education group wage dispersion.

Furthermore, our analytic results confirm the importance of import competition on rising within-sector wage inequality in our most preferred estimation models. These findings are largely in line with recent heterogeneous-firm models, such as Melitz (2003) and Helpman et al. (2016).

Overall, this paper highlights the necessity to further scrutinize within-group wage dispersion, both theoretically and empirically. The current literature proposes a number of channels through which trade activities affect within-sector wage inequality, including firm heterogeneity, incomplete contracting, and task offshoring among many others (Harrison, McLaren and McMillan, 2011; Helpmand et al., 2016). Exploring the underlying mechanisms of within-group wage variations in further details would be critical to better understand overall inequality issues.

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[Table 1] Contribution of Within-group Component to overall Wage Inequality

	1980-1994	1995-2012	B-A
Within Sector	(A) 84.2%	(B) 90.8%	6.6%p
Within Occupation	71.3%	84.5%	13.2%p
Within Education Group	70.6%	85.4%	14.8%p
Within Occupation-Education	62.6%	80.4%	17.9%p
Within Sector-Education	60.7%	76.5%	15.8%p
Within Sector-Occupation	57.1%	75.4%	18.3%p
Within Sector-Education-Occupation	52.4%	71.1%	18.7%p
By Sector (Within Occupation-Education)			
Food, Beverages and Tobacco,	63.8%	77.8%	14.0%p
Textiles, Textile, Leather and Footwear	59.5%	69.7%	10.2%p
Wood, Paper, Printing and Publishing	59.9%	78.2%	18.3%
Petroleum, Chemicals, Rubber & Plastics	58.9%	82.2%	23.3%
Other Non-metallic Mineral	67.2%	79.6%	12.3%
Basic Metals and Fabricated Metal	72.6%	85.5%	12.8%p
Machinery, nec	68.6%	83.1%	14.5%p
Electrical and Optical Equipment	55.9%	70.5%	14.6%
Transport Equipment	74.1%	90.0%	15.9%
Manufacturing, nec	67.1%	81.1%	14.0%

Note: The figures are simple averages over the period in focus. Data include 10 manufacturing sectors, 4 types of education level (High-school drop-outs or less, High-school graduates, College graduates, and University graduates or more), and 4 types of occupations.

[Table 2] Descriptive Statistics for Selected Years

	1982	1992	2002	2012
Within sector Wood	.3335	.2222	.2557	.2828
Within-sector Wage Variations	(.0706)	(.0518)	(.0610)	
variations	(.0700)	(.0316)	(.0010)	(.0328)
Export Intensity	1.9856	1.3152	1.5066	1.5283
1	(2.9822)	(1.5975)	(1.4162)	(.9046)
Import Intensity	1.5549	1.1598	1.2801	1.6420
	(1.4956)	(1.1665)	(.9662)	(1.1613)
FDI Intensity	.0091	.0089	.0400	.0422
	(.8800.)	(.0091)	(.0745)	(.0848)
ODI Intensity	.0002	.0100	.0240	.0301
	(.0005)	(.0091)	(.0178)	(.0200)
Offshoring	.2798	.3863	.2531	.3074
	(.1158)	(.2070)	(.0968)	(.1039)
ICT Services per Hour Worked	2.0913	5.5315	7.1334	7.3113
(SBTC, log-value)	(1.2122)	(1.0739)	(.9800)	(1.1697)
Relative Supply of	.0476	.0875	.1265	.2228
Skilled Labor	(.0137)	(.0268)	(.0445)	(.0613)
Female Worker Share	.3474	.3017	.2632	.2435
in Total Hours Worked	(.1581)	(.1419)	(.1224)	(.1197)
Aged Worker Share	.1077	.1627	.2780	.3506
(50 years old or over)	(.0282)	(.0446)	(.0441)	(.0700)
in Total Hours Worked				

Note: Main figures are each year's mean values for the variables included in estimation, and figures in the parentheses are their standard deviations.

[Table 3] Regression Results I: Whole Sample (1980-2012)

	Random Effect	Fixed Effect	System GMM
Export/Value-added	0046***	.0069***	0171***
	(.0017)	(.0026)	(.0042)
Import/Value-added	0088*	.0175***	.0218***
_	(.0045)	(.0055)	(.0067)
FDI/Value-added	0095	0176	0391
	(.0463)	(.0426)	(.0264)
ODI/Value-added	0714	.0523	0081
	(.0664)	(.0552)	(.0334)
Offshoring	.0485	1158***	0285
	(.0402)	(.0426)	(.0354)
SBTC	.0292***	.0121**	.0145*
	(.0027)	(.0052)	(.0084)
Skilled Labor	.0271	0056	0430*
Supply	(.0194)	(.0197)	(.0227)
Female share	.1144***	1056	.1393
	(.0197)	(.0966)	(.1522)
Aging	.0017	0009	0010
	(.0023)	(.0020)	(.0017)
Constant	.0012	.3562***	.2810***
	(.0477)	(.0443)	(.0569)
R- Squared			
Overall	.6571	.1916	
Within	.5524	.6209	
Between	.8072	.0737	

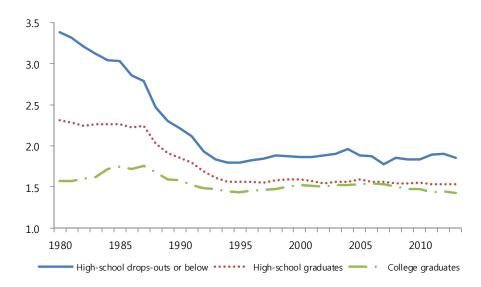
Year dummies are not reported but included in the regressions. *, ** and *** indicate that the estimated coefficients are significant at the 10%, 5% and 1% level, respectively.

[Table 4] Regression Results II: Sub-samples

		ample I -1994)	Sub-sat (1995-	
	Fixed	System	Fixed	System
	Effect	GMM	Effect	GMM
Export/Value-added	.0055	0031	.0021	0063
	(.0038)	(.0069)	(.0046)	(.0062)
Import/Value-added	.0085	.0049	.0110*	.0278***
	(.0097)	(.0096)	(.006)	(.0106)
FDI/Value-added	0627	.0005	0317	0316
	(.2270)	(.1849)	(.0346)	(.0267)
ODI/Value-added	.0523 (.0454)	.0251 (.0344)	1372 (.1565)	3274** (.1391)
Offshoring	1158	0369	.0178	.0552
	(.0468)	(.0422)	(.0738)	(.0691)
SBTC	.0121	.0027	.0114**	.0337***
	(.0130)	(.0140)	(.0053)	(.0093)
Skilled Labor	0056	3182	0578***	.0142
Supply	(.1850)	(.2078)	(.0185)	(.0157)
Female share	0216	.2032	.5268***	.0060
	(.3078)	(.3712)	(.1585)	(.1457)
Aging	1473***	2879***	0006	0019
	(.0534)	(.0621)	(.0018)	(.0016)
Constant	.3362*** (.0443)	.3525*** (.1153)	.1667** (.0757)	-0380 (.0791)
R- Squared Overall Within Between	.3483 .7951 .0484		.4159 .6844 .3474	

Note: Year dummies are not reported but included in the regressions. *, ** and *** indicate that the estimated coefficients are significant at the 10%, 5% and 1% level, respectively.

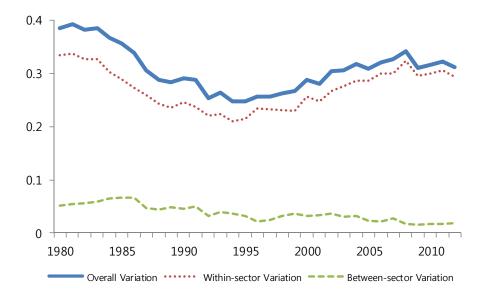
[Figure 1] Trend of Relative Wages by Education Group



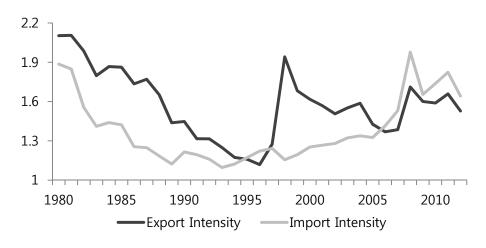
Note: Each figure represents the ratio of the monthly average wage for university graduates or over relative to each education group.

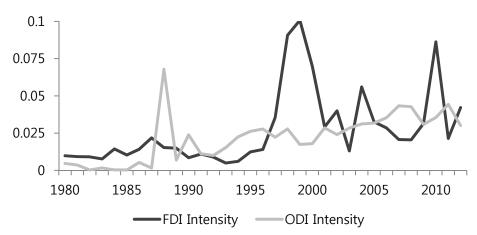
Source: The Ministry of Employment and Labor, Korea

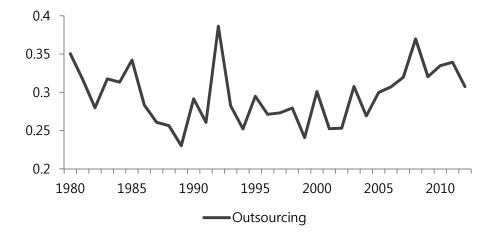
[Figure 2] Decomposition of Wage Inequality in Korean Manufacturing



[Figure 3] Trends of Trade-related Variables for the Sample Period







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