

Automation and Job Polarization: On the Decline of Middling Occupations in Europe

Vahagn Jerbashian*

Abstract

Using data from 10 Western European countries, I provide evidence that the fall in prices of information technologies (IT) is associated with a lower share of employment in middle wage occupations and a higher share of employment in high wage occupations. The decline in IT prices has no robust effect on the share of employment in the lowest paid occupations. Similar results hold within gender and age groups, with notable differences in these groups. For instance, the share of employment in high wage occupations among males has increased less than among females with the fall in IT prices. A rationale for such a result is that men are more productive in medium wage occupations than females because of hard motor skills (brawn).

Keywords: Job Polarization; Information Technologies; Gender; Age

JEL classification: J23; J24; O33

*University of Barcelona and CERGE-EI. Correspondence address: Avenue Diagonal 696, 08034 Barcelona, Spain. E-mail: vahagn.jerbashian@ub.edu. Phone: +34934034890.

CERGE-EI, a joint workplace of Charles University and the Economics Institute of the Czech Academy of Sciences. Address: Politických veznu 7, 110 00 Prague, Czech Republic.

1 Introduction

For quite some time, the consensus has been that most of the recent technological changes have been skill-biased, complementing high-skill workers and substituting for low-skill workers (see, e.g., Katz and Autor, 1999). However, skill-biased technological change alone cannot explain a prominent and relatively recent phenomenon: the decline in the share of middle wage occupations relative to high and low wage occupations. Goos and Manning (2007) call this phenomenon “job polarization.”

One of the main hypotheses put forward for job polarization is that recent technologies, such as the computers, substitute for routine tasks. These tasks tend to be readily automatable and are usually performed by middle wage occupations, such as stationary-plant operators. They complement nonroutine cognitive tasks, which are usually performed by high wage occupations, such as managers. In turn, the rise of employment in highly paid occupations increases the demand for nonroutine manual tasks, which are usually performed by low wage occupations, such as personal services (see, e.g., Autor, Levy, and Murnane, 2003, Autor and Dorn, 2013, Mazzolari and Ragusa, 2013).

In this paper, I empirically investigate the effect of the rapid fall in prices of information technologies (IT) on industries’ demand for high, middle and low wage occupations using a difference-in-differences framework in the spirit of Rajan and Zingales (1998). More specifically, I ask whether the fall in prices of information technologies has affected the demand for high, middle and low wage occupations more in industries which depend more on IT compared to industries which depend less. I use industry- and country-level data from 10 Western European countries and 1993-2007 period to establish the results.

I find that the share of employment in middling occupations has declined and the share of employment in high wage occupations has increased with the fall in IT prices. I find no systematic evidence that the fall in IT prices affects the share of employment in the lowest paid occupations. Similar results hold within gender and age groups. These findings provide support for the hypothesis put forward for explaining job polarization. They are broadly in line with and complement the results of Autor et al. (2003), Autor and Dorn (2013), Acemoglu and Autor (2011), and Goos, Manning, and Salomons (2014),

among others.

I also find that there are differences in gender and age groups, which is a novelty relative to these papers. The fall in IT prices has increased (reduced) the share of employment in high (medium) wage occupations among males less than among females. It has increased (reduced) the share of employment in high (medium) wage occupations among old workers less than among young and medium-age workers. These results are robust to a wide range of specification checks and alternative identifying assumptions.

A possible common explanation for these results is that the efficiency (advantage) of performing tasks in medium wage occupations varies with gender and age. For example, males tend to be more endowed with hard motor skills (brawn) than females, and these skills are usually important in many of the medium wage manufacturing occupations. The adoption and use of information technologies would then reduce employment in medium wage occupations and increase employment in high wage occupations among males less than among females. In turn, information technologies will have a lower effect on the share of employment in medium and high wage occupations among old if workers accumulate routine-skills more than other types of skills as they age (see, for arguments supporting this conjecture, Autor and Dorn, 2009). I do not attempt to test these hypotheses in this paper given its scope and the available data. All in all, these results highlight the role of gender and age group in job polarization and suggest a need for a more nuanced view on the labor market effects of recent technological changes.

Job polarization is a global phenomenon. Goos and Manning (2007), Goos, Manning, and Salomons (2009), Goos et al. (2014) and Adermon and Gustavsson (2015) provide comprehensive evidence for it for Western European countries and Autor, Katz, and Kearney (2006, 2008), Acemoglu and Autor (2011) and Autor and Dorn (2013) for the US. Recent technological changes are thought to be one of the primary causes of job polarization, and a growing number of papers offer evidence corroborating this view. Using US data, Autor et al. (2003) show that the use of IT is associated with reduced employment in middle wage (routine) occupations within industries. Autor and Dorn (2013) show that, in the US, the growth of workplace computer use has been faster in

areas which had initially high proportions of routine workers. Goos et al. (2014) show that during the period of 1993-2010 employment has declined in routine task intensive occupations in 16 Western European countries.

The polarization of employment is also mirrored in closely linked education-level groups. Acemoglu and Autor (2011) show that in the US the demand for workers with high- and low-levels of education has increased relative to the demand for workers with medium-level of education. Using data from 11 OECD countries, Michaels, Natraj, and van Reenen (2014) provide evidence that industries with faster growth in information and communication technologies have increased the demand for highly educated workers at the expense of middle-educated, with almost no effect on low-educated workers.

A few recent papers independently explore the differences in the trends of polarization across genders using US data (e.g., Cerina, Moro, and Rendall, 2016, Cortes, Jaimovich, and Siu, 2016). Cerina et al. (2016) document that job polarization is more prevalent among females than among males. The results of the current study suggest that the fall in prices of information technologies can be one of the rationales of their finding.¹

The findings of this study complement the results of these papers. An innovation of this study is its identification strategy. I use the assignment of occupations into task/wage groups by Goos et al. (2014) to compute employment in occupation groups with different task contents and utilize a difference-in-differences framework *à la* Rajan and Zingales (1998). In this framework, I employ the variation of IT prices over time and the industry-level variation of dependence on IT, which allows me to explicitly take into account the technological side of the effect of the fall in IT prices on employment. I provide international evidence corroborating the hypothesis for job polarization. By exploring differences in gender and age groups, I also uncover some more concealed features of the effects of recent technological changes on labor markets in Europe.

The next section describes a simple model to motivate the empirical test. The third section offers the empirical specification, and describes the data and its sources. The fourth section summarizes the results. The last section concludes.

¹These results also support a view held by, for example, the World Bank and the UN that IT can empower women.

2 Theoretical Background

A fall in IT prices would increase demand for nonroutine cognitive (abstract) task intensive occupations and reduce demand for routine task intensive occupations more in industries which depend more on information technologies. I present a simple model to show explicitly how such an inference can hold and to set the stage for the empirical analysis. The model bears a resemblance to the models of Acemoglu and Autor (2011) and Autor and Dorn (2013).

The producers use abstract and routine task inputs, T_A and T_R , and information technologies, IT , to produce homogenous goods, Y . They have a CES production technology, which is given by

$$Y = \left(\alpha_{IT} IT^{\frac{\varepsilon-1}{\varepsilon}} + \alpha_{T_R} T_R^{\frac{\varepsilon-1}{\varepsilon}} \right)^{\frac{\varepsilon}{\varepsilon-1} \alpha} T_A^{1-\alpha}, \quad (1)$$

where $\alpha_{IT} > 0$, $\alpha_{T_R} > 0$, $\alpha \in (0, 1)$, and $\varepsilon > 1$. In the production of Y , α_{IT} measures the relative importance of IT and a higher α_{IT} implies higher share of compensation for IT . In this sense, it measures the technological dependence on IT . In turn, ε is the elasticity of substitution between routine tasks and information technologies, and the elasticity of substitution between abstract tasks and information technologies is equal to 1, by construction. Since $\varepsilon > 1$, information technologies are more complementary to abstract tasks than to routine tasks.²

The usual profit maximization implies the following conditions

$$IT = \alpha \frac{\alpha_{IT} IT^{\frac{\varepsilon-1}{\varepsilon}}}{\alpha_{IT} IT^{\frac{\varepsilon-1}{\varepsilon}} + \alpha_{T_R} T_R^{\frac{\varepsilon-1}{\varepsilon}}} \frac{1}{p_{IT}} Y, \quad (2)$$

$$T_R = \alpha \frac{\alpha_{T_R} T_R^{\frac{\varepsilon-1}{\varepsilon}}}{\alpha_{IT} IT^{\frac{\varepsilon-1}{\varepsilon}} + \alpha_{T_R} T_R^{\frac{\varepsilon-1}{\varepsilon}}} \frac{1}{p_{T_R}} Y, \quad (3)$$

$$T_A = (1 - \alpha) \frac{1}{p_{T_A}} Y, \quad (4)$$

where p_{IT} , p_{T_R} , and p_{T_A} are the prices of information technologies and task inputs, and

²An alternative formulation for (1) assumes that $\varepsilon < 1$ and changes the places of T_R and T_A . I prefer this formulation because it delivers seemingly appealing explanations for the documented differences in demographic groups.

the price of Y is normalized to 1.

I assume that p_{IT} , p_{T_R} , and p_{T_A} are determined at country level. This implies that the derivative of the demand for T_A relative to T_R with respect to p_{IT} and the change of the absolute value of that derivative with α_{IT} are given by

$$\frac{\partial T_A/T_R}{\partial p_{IT}} = \frac{\varepsilon - 1}{\varepsilon} \frac{1 - \alpha}{\alpha} \frac{p_{T_R}}{p_{T_A}} \frac{\alpha_{IT} IT^{\frac{\varepsilon-1}{\varepsilon}}}{\alpha_{T_R} T_R^{\frac{\varepsilon-1}{\varepsilon}}} \frac{\partial \ln IT}{\partial p_{IT}}, \quad (5)$$

and

$$\frac{\partial}{\partial \alpha_{IT}} \left| \frac{\partial T_A/T_R}{\partial p_{IT}} \right| = \frac{1}{\alpha_{IT}} \left| \frac{\partial T_A/T_R}{\partial p_{IT}} \right|. \quad (6)$$

It is straightforward to show that $\partial \ln IT / \partial p_{IT}$ is negative. Therefore, the decline in p_{IT} increases the demand for T_A more than the demand for T_R when $\varepsilon > 1$, according to equation (5). According to equation (6), in a country, the demand for T_A relative to T_R would increase more in industries with higher α_{IT} than in industries with lower α_{IT} with the decline in p_{IT} in such a case. This means that T_A increases and T_R declines with the fall of p_{IT} if employment in Y is fixed and these changes are larger in industries with a larger α_{IT} .

It can be shown that such differential changes can also hold within gender and age groups incorporating these demand functions in a simple Ricardian model. To do so, I assume that workers are endowed with labor hours, which need to be converted into abstract and routine tasks in order to earn market income. I assume that the conversion function of task $k = T_A, T_R$ is given by $\alpha_{L,k} (u_k L)^\gamma$, where $\alpha_{L,k} > 0$, u_k is the share of labor hours L converted to task k , and $\gamma \in (0, 1)$.³ This setup implies that the supply of abstract tasks relative to the supply of routine tasks is given by

$$\frac{p_{T_A}}{p_{T_R}} = \frac{\alpha_{L,T_R} (u_{T_R} L)^{\gamma-1}}{\alpha_{L,T_A} (u_{T_A} L)^{\gamma-1}}, \quad (7)$$

³Parameters α_{L,T_A} and α_{L,T_R} can admit a range of interpretations since they can represent both supply and demand side factors.

and the share of employment in abstract tasks is given by

$$\frac{u_{T_A}}{1 - u_{T_A}} = \frac{1 - \alpha}{\alpha} \left(\frac{\alpha_{IT} IT^{\frac{\epsilon-1}{\epsilon}}}{\alpha_{T_R} \{ \alpha_{L,T_R} [(1 - u_{T_A}) L]^{\gamma} \}^{\frac{\epsilon-1}{\epsilon}}} + 1 \right). \quad (8)$$

It is straightforward to show that in this model economy a fall in p_{IT} increases the share of employment in abstract tasks u_{T_A} and it has a stronger effect in industries which have a higher α_{IT} . However, this differential effect of the fall in p_{IT} on u_{T_A} (and u_{T_R}) is weaker in groups which have a higher efficiency in converting labor hours into routine tasks α_{L,T_R} :

$$\frac{\partial}{\partial \alpha_{L,T_R}} \frac{\partial}{\partial \alpha_{IT}} \left| \frac{\partial u_{T_A}}{\partial p_{IT}} \right| < 0. \quad (9)$$

The differential changes in T_A and T_R in industries which depend more on IT than in industries which depend less on IT should be observed in the data as differential changes in the employment in high and medium wage occupations which perform these tasks. I look exactly for such disparities and differential changes in the empirical specification.

3 Empirical Methodology and Data

I start with estimating the effect of the rapid fall in IT prices on employment shares in high, middle and low wage occupations. Let $\text{Employment Share}_{c,i,t}$ be the share of employment in one of the occupation groups, country c , industry i , and year t and IT Price be the measure for the price of information technologies (p_{IT}). Assuming that I have a measure of industries' technological dependence on IT, I estimate the following specification for each occupation group:

$$\begin{aligned} \text{Employment Share}_{c,i,t} &= \beta \left[\text{Industry } i\text{'s Dependence on IT}_i \times (1/\text{IT Price})_{c,t} \right] \quad (10) \\ &+ \sum_c \sum_i \zeta_{c,i} + \sum_c \sum_t \xi_{c,t} + \eta_{c,i,t}, \end{aligned}$$

where ζ and ξ are country-industry and country-year fixed effects, and η is an error term. The parameter of interest is β . It is identified from the temporal variation of IT prices

and the variation of technological dependence on IT across industries.⁴

An advantage of this test is that it alleviates the endogeneity concerns because of omitted country- and industry-level variables. For example, country-industry and country-year fixed effects alleviate the potentially confounding effects of regulatory and discriminatory practices which affect the demand and supply of these tasks. These fixed effects also alleviate the potentially confounding effects of trends in relative wage rates. Admittedly, however, this test might not fully reveal the effects of the fall in the price of information technologies on employment shares if there are economy-wide changes that are not different across industries. In such a case, this test can be also viewed as a test of whether industry-level differences exist.

The data for employment in high, medium and low wage occupations in industries are from the harmonized, individual-level EU Labour Force Survey (ELFS). Occupations have ISCO-88 coding and are at 2- and 3-digit aggregation levels in this database, and industries are 1-digit NACE Rev. 1. I use sample weights, and the assignment of occupations into high, medium and low wage groups by Goos et al. (2014), to compute the number of (usual) weekly hours worked in these occupation groups in each sample industry, country, and year. I derive employment shares from the number of hours worked.

Goos et al. (2014) also use ELFS data and exclude from the sample some of the occupations and industries because of sample imperfections and potentially large state involvement. These occupations and industries are also excluded from the analysis in this paper. Moreover, similarly to Goos et al. (2014), I use 2-digit aggregation level for occupations throughout the analysis.

Given data availability, the analysis of this paper focuses on 10 Western European countries and the period between 1993 and 2007. The list of sample countries and the sample period for each country are offered in Table 1. Table 2 offers the averages of employment shares in high, medium and low wage occupations in sample industries in

⁴This study utilizes the temporal variation of IT prices since that allows it to focus on significant and omnipresent advances of IT.

Panel A.⁵ Overall, services industries tend to have higher shares of employment in high and low wage occupations and a lower share of employment in middle wage occupations as compared to manufacturing industries.

I also retrieve information from the ELFS database on gender and age. The data for age are in five year bands, and the minimum age is 17. I restrict the maximum age to 62 and create three age groups: young (younger than 32), middle-age (between 32 and 47), and old (older than 47). I compute the number of hours worked in each of these categories for all occupation group-industry cells in sample countries and years. Table 3 offers basic statistics for the employment shares in high, medium and low wage occupations within each of these categories. The data reveal seemingly intuitive patterns. On average, men work more in high wage occupations and less in low wage occupations than women, which can contribute to the aggregate wage gap. The share of employment in high wage occupations is higher and the share of employment in low wage occupations is lower among medium-age and old workers than among young workers.

The data for information technologies are from the EU KLEMS database (O'Mahony and Timmer, 2009). I use the share of IT capital compensation in industrial value added to construct a proxy for industries' dependence on information technologies. This proxy needs to identify the technological differences across industries (i.e., α_{IT}). I follow Rajan and Zingales (1998) and use data from US industries to accomplish this. The measure for industries' dependence on information technologies (IT Dependence) is defined as the share of IT capital compensation in industrial value added in US industries, averaged over the period of 1993-2007.

The motivation for using data from US industries is that these industries are the world leaders in terms of investments in IT and the level of IT capital. Therefore, the confounding variation in the share of IT capital compensation in industrial value added because of differences in factor input levels is likely to be the smallest in US industries according to equation (2), given that $\varepsilon > 1$. To test this and the validity of this measure,

⁵Table 6 in the Data Appendix offers the assignment of occupations into high, medium and low wage groups. Table 14 in the Online Appendix - Tables and Figures offers the shares of employment in sample occupations and industries. Figure 4 in the Online Appendix - Tables and Figures illustrates the trends of employment shares in high, medium and low wage occupations.

I exploit time and industry variation in the share of IT capital compensation in US industries over the period 1993-2007 and the variation of the share of IT capital compensation in industries in the sample European countries. I also utilize the fact that there have been large investments in IT over this period. The industry-level variation of the share of IT capital compensation in US industries accounts for more than 90 percent of the total variation. Moreover, the share of IT capital compensation in US industries firmly correlates with the share of IT capital compensation in the industries of the sample European countries. These observations suggest that the dependence measure used in this paper is likely to identify the technological differences across industries but not the variation in factor input levels.⁶

I also need a measure for the price of information technologies, p_{IT} . To construct it, I obtain the price of investments in information technologies in industries of sample countries from the EU KLEMS database. Following the model, I normalize it with the price of value added in each industry. The price of investments in information technologies, as well as its normalized counterpart, display a large variation over time, relatively little country-level variation, and almost no industry-level variation. The over time variation can be largely attributed to the significant innovations in IT that occurred over the sample years in the US and to the rise of IT production in Asia and, in particular, in China. The country-level variation is likely to be stemming from regulations that affect the access to and adoption of IT. In turn, the near absence of industry-level variation suggests that the law of one price holds in sample countries. I average the price of investments in IT relative to the price of value added across industries, in sample countries and years, and use that average as the measure of the price of information technologies, p_{IT} .

In the estimations of the baseline specification (10), I use the inverse of this measure. According to the theoretical model, β is then expected to be positive for high wage occupations and negative for medium wage occupations as p_{IT} declines and its inverse increases.

⁶The measure of dependence used in this paper firmly correlates with similar measures used in the literature (see, e.g., Chen, Niebel, and Saam, 2016, Jerbashian and Kochanova, 2016, 2017). I perform a range of robustness checks for it in the Online Appendix - Further Robustness Checks and Results.

Table 1 offers basic statistics for the price of information technologies in Panel *A*. The price of information technologies has fallen everywhere.⁷ Panel *B* of Table 1 reports the correlation of the measure of dependence with the share of IT capital compensation in industrial value added in the sample European countries. Panel *B* of Table 2 reports the values of the dependence measure in sample industries. Table 6 in the Data Appendix offers the detailed descriptions of all measures used in this paper.

It is worth to outline the interpretation of the coefficient of interest, β . Roughly speaking, the difference-in-differences estimator in the specification (10) splits the sample into four groups according to the magnitude of the fall in prices of information technologies and the dependence on these technologies. For each year, these four groups are composed of the industry-country pairs with high fall in prices and high dependence (HF&HD), industry-country pairs with high fall in prices and low dependence (HF&LD), pairs with low fall in prices and high dependence (LF&HD), and pairs with low fall in prices and low dependence (LF&LD). The coefficient β , in this respect, represents the difference in the trends of employment in occupation groups between HF&HD industry-country pairs relative to HF&LD industry-country pairs and LF&HD pairs relative to LF&LD pairs. It is positive (negative) for an occupation group if employment in that group grows at a higher (lower) rate in HF&HD industry-country pairs relative to HF&LD industry-country pairs than in LF&HD pairs relative to LF&LD pairs.

I take the residuals from a regression of the share of employment in an occupation group on country-industry and country-year dummies to illustrate the existence of such differential trends. Panels *A* and *B* of Figure 1 show that there are such disparities in employment trends for high and medium wage occupations. These panels show that employment has increased (declined) more rapidly in high (medium) wage occupations in industries with high IT dependence relative to industries with low IT dependence, with the fall in IT prices.⁸ Panel *C* of Figure 1 shows that there are almost no apparent differential trends in low wage occupations. Moreover, there seem to be no trends at

⁷I average the price of information technologies across sample countries and illustrate its trend over time in Figure 5 in the Online Appendix - Tables and Figures.

⁸The differences in trends in medium wage occupations are slightly less pronounced than in high wage occupations. This is confirmed in estimation results.

all for low wage occupations, which suggests that, on average, employment in low wage occupations is likely to be not affected by the fall in IT prices, at least directly.⁹

4 Results

Panel *A* of Table 4 presents the results from the estimation of the specification (10) for the shares of employment in high, medium and low wage occupations. The estimates of the coefficient β are significant and positive for the share of high wage occupations and negative for the share of medium wage occupations. These estimates imply that the fall in the price of information technologies is associated with higher demand for high wage occupations and lower demand for medium wage occupations. Conversely, the estimate of the coefficient β is not significant for the share of employment in low wage occupations. This suggests that, on average, information technologies are not likely to have direct effects on the share of employment in low wage occupations.

One way to compute the magnitude of these results is as follows. I take the countries and years where IT prices are the lowest and the highest and compute the difference between the levels of the inverse of IT prices for them. Further, I take the industries that rank the highest and the lowest in terms of the level of dependence on IT and compute the difference between dependence levels. Finally, I compute

$$\hat{\beta} \times \Delta 1/\text{IT Price} \times \Delta \text{IT Dependence},$$

where Δ stands for the difference operator. Focusing on statistically significant estimates of β , the computed effect for the share of high wage occupations is 0.183 and -0.179 for medium wage occupations. These numbers correspond to the effect of moving from the pair of country-year with the highest IT price to the pair with the lowest IT price in the highest dependence industry relative to the lowest dependence industry. They suggest that the fall in IT price has economically large and significant effect on employment

⁹Figures 2 and 3 in the Online Appendix - Tables and Figures offer similar evidence for employment shares in high, medium and low wage occupations in gender and age groups.

shares in high and medium wage occupations, at least relative to the means of these shares, which are 0.389 and 0.387. These are of course the largest in-sample effects of the fall in IT prices according to the estimations.

I also estimate the specification (10) for the shares of employment in high, medium and low wage occupations within each gender and age group. The results are reported in Panels *B-F* of Table 4. They are broadly consistent with the results for the shares of employment in occupation groups in Panel *A*, with some notable differences. The fall in IT prices has increased (reduced) the share of employment in high (medium) wage occupations among women by about 50 percent more than among men according to Panels *B* and *C* of Table 4. It has increased (reduced) the share of employment in high (medium) wage occupations among old workers by about 50 percent less than among young and among medium-age workers, according to Panels *D-F*. These differences are economically large. They are also statistically significant for genders and for age groups in medium wage occupations at least at the 10% level according to the standard t-test. The differences are at the border line of statistical significance for age groups in high wage occupations.

A possible and common interpretation of these results is that the efficiency (advantage) of performing tasks in medium wage occupation groups varies with gender and age. For example, males tend to be better endowed with hard motor skills (brawn) than females and these skills are commonly more important in many of the medium wage occupations. The adoption and use of information technologies would then reduce employment in medium wage occupations and increase employment in high wage occupations among males less than among females. In turn, information technologies will have a lower effect on the share of employment in high and medium wage occupations among old if workers accumulate routine-skills more than other types of skills as they age (i.e., if $\alpha_{L,TR}$ increases with age).¹⁰

¹⁰These hypotheses are a useful place to start. Testing them is out of the scope of this paper.

4.1 Further Results and Robustness Checks

The demand for IT is a potential source of reverse causality if industries' employment of different tasks affect it. Country-industry and country-year fixed effects in the specification (10) are likely to alleviate such reverse causality concerns given the sources of variation in IT prices. Nevertheless, I attempt to further circumvent the reverse causality concerns in two ways. Industries with the heaviest use of information technologies are the plausible candidates that affect prices of information technologies. In Panel *A* of Table 5, I exclude industries which have expenditures on IT higher than the 75 percentile of the distribution of IT expenditures across industries in each country and year. I also attempt to circumvent the reverse causality problem using the prices of communication technologies (CT Price), such as telephones and other communication infrastructure, as an instrumental variable. The prices of communication technologies have fallen in recent decades similarly to IT prices. This fall is mainly driven by the same technological change and growth of production in Asia as for information technologies. Communication technologies, however, are not likely to be directly related to employment in abstract and routine task requiring occupations because communication technologies are not evident complements or substitutes for these tasks. The data for the prices of communication technologies are from the EU KLEMS database. Panel *B* of Table 5 presents the results when I instrument IT Price using the prices of communication technologies. In both cases, the estimated coefficients are close to those in Panel *A* of Table 4.

Omitted variables can be another source of endogeneity. It could be that the effects that the estimates in Panel *A* of Table 4 identify are not because of the fall in IT prices, but rather because of changes in the prices of new physical capital goods (see, e.g., Krusell, Ohanian, Ríos-Rull, and Violante, 2000). The movements in the prices of new physical capital goods could be the result of an ongoing investment specific technological change and could cause changes in the demand for physical capital and employment.

To test this hypothesis, I construct an industry-level measure for dependence on physical capital (net of information technology capital) and a country-year-level measure for the price of physical capital. The data for these measures are from the EU KLEMS

database, and these measures are constructed in much similar way as the measures of dependence on IT (see Table 6 in the Data Appendix for details). I add to the specification (10) an interaction term between the measure of dependence of industries on physical capital and the inverse of the price of physical capital. Panel *C* of Table 5 reports the results. The coefficient on the interaction term between IT Dependence and 1/IT Price is very close to the coefficient reported in Panel *A* of Table 4. The coefficient on the interaction term between dependence on physical capital and the price of physical capital is significant for the shares of employment in high and medium wage occupations and has the same sign as the coefficient on the main interaction term. These results suggest that more ubiquitous processes, such as changes in the prices of physical capital, affect the share of employment in high and medium wage occupations and this is over and above the effects of information technologies.¹¹

According to the theoretical model, the parameter which measures the relative importance of routine tasks in value added, α_{TR} , should be important for the analysis similarly to α_{IT} . It can be easily shown from equation (5) that the fall in IT prices increases (reduces) the demand for abstract (routine) tasks more in industries with a low α_{TR} than in industries with a high α_{TR} . A supplementary test of whether the fall in IT prices has affected employment in high, medium and low wage occupations utilizes this variation. The proxy for α_{TR} can be constructed similarly to the proxy for α_{IT} . Ideally, I need data for wages in routine intensive occupations in order to construct such a proxy. However, there are no data for wages in the ELFS database.

I use wage compensation of medium education-level (skill) employees obtained from the EU KLEMS database as a proxy for the wages in routine intensive occupations. This can be a valid proxy because routine intensive occupations are the middle wage occupations and medium skill/education-level employment has the highest share in these occupations according to Michaels et al. (2014).¹² I measure α_{TR} using the share of

¹¹The changes in the prices of physical capital can lead to a structural changes in the economy. In this respect, these results provide supporting evidence to several recent studies, which link job polarization and structural changes in the economy (e.g., Bárány and Siegel, 2015).

¹²Table 13 reports the pairwise correlations between wage compensations of high-, medium- and low-skill (education-level) employees relative to value added and employment shares in high, medium and low wage occupations. These correlations suggest that there is an intuitive correspondence between the

compensation of medium education-level employees out of value added in US industries, averaged over the period of 1993-2007. I add the interaction of this share with the inverse of IT Price to the specification (10). Panel *D* of Table 5 reports the results from this exercise. The results for the main interaction term are close to the main results in each regression. In turn, as expected, the estimated coefficient on this additional interaction term has a sign opposite to the sign of the main interaction term.

In the specification (10), country-year fixed effects will not fully capture the trends in relative wage rates if these vary among industries. Such a variation can be expected to be weak according to Kambourov and Manovskii (2009). However, it can confound the identification of β if the interaction term is correlated with it. In order to alleviate these concerns, I include in the specification (10) industry group-year dummies and present the results in Panel *E* of Table 5. I also add to the specification (10) the shares of wage compensation of medium- and low-skill employees out of value added. The data for these variables are from the EU KLEMS database. Panel *F* of Table 5 reports the results. In both cases, the results are very similar to the main results suggesting that this is not likely to be a major concern.

The Online Appendix - Further Robustness Checks and Results provides additional robustness check exercises and results. I also perform all of these robustness checks for the shares of employment in high, medium and low wage occupations among gender and age groups. The main results for these shares stay unaffected. For brevity, these robustness check results are not reported.

5 Conclusions

I use evidence from 10 Western European countries and the assignment of occupations into high, medium and low wage groups by Goos et al. (2014) and find that the share of employment in high wage occupations has increased with the fall in IT prices. The share of employment in middle wage occupations has declined with the fall in IT prices. In turn, I find no systematic evidence that the fall in IT prices affects the share of employment in wages of these skill and wage groups.

the lowest paid occupations and that similar results hold within gender and age groups. These results corroborate the polarization hypothesis.

I find certain important differences in gender and age groups, however. The fall in IT prices has increased (reduced) the share of employment in high (medium) wage occupations among males by about 50 percent less than among females. It has increased (reduced) the share of employment in high (medium) wage occupations among old workers by about 50 percent less than among young and medium-age workers. A possible common explanation for such results is that the efficiency (advantage) of performing tasks specific to medium wage occupations varies with gender and age. All in all, these results suggest a need for a more nuanced view on the labor market effects of recent technological changes.

6 Tables and Figures

Table 1: Sample Countries, IT Price and Correlations of IT Dependence

Country	Sample Period	<i>A. Basic Statistics for IT Price</i>					<i>B. Correlations</i>
		Mean	SD	Min	Max	Δ IT Price	IT Dependence
Austria	1995-2007	0.350	0.276	0.102	1.000	-0.087	0.617
Denmark	1993-2007	0.453	0.444	0.083	1.435	-0.114	0.595
Finland	1997-2007	0.218	0.149	0.077	0.562	-0.061	0.921
Germany	1993-2007	0.538	0.411	0.094	1.376	-0.094	0.786
Italy	1993-2007	0.451	0.438	0.083	1.404	-0.107	0.936
Netherlands	1993-2007	0.464	0.438	0.102	1.430	-0.107	0.975
Portugal	1993-2007	0.358	0.286	0.120	1.000	-0.088	0.609
Spain	1993-2007	0.496	0.385	0.127	1.280	-0.090	0.914
Sweden	1997-2007	0.545	0.230	0.228	0.849	-0.059	0.909
UK	1993-2007	0.490	0.408	0.105	1.249	-0.091	0.916

Note: Columns 1-2 of this table list sample countries and period. Panel *A* offers basic statistics for the price of information technologies (IT Price). Column 5 of Panel *A* offers the average change in IT Price over the sample period in each country (Δ IT Price). Panel *B* offers the pairwise correlations of the measure of dependence on information technologies (IT Dependence) and the shares of IT capital compensation in the industries of the sample of European countries. All correlations are significant at least at the 10% level. See Table 6 in the Data Appendix for complete descriptions and sources of variables.

Table 2: Average Employment Shares in Sample Industries and IT Dependence

Industry Name	A. Average Employment Shares				B. IT Dependence	
	Industry Code	Obs	High Wage	Medium Wage	Low Wage	Value of IT Dependence
Manufacturing	D	140	0.274	0.639	0.087	0.012
Electricity, Gas and Water Supply	E	140	0.390	0.549	0.061	0.010
Construction	F	140	0.176	0.736	0.088	0.004
Wholesale and Retail Trade; Repair of Goods	G	140	0.368	0.289	0.343	0.018
Hotels and Restaurants	H	140	0.279	0.071	0.650	0.004
Transport, Storage, and Communication	I	140	0.234	0.659	0.107	0.019
Financial Intermediation	J	140	0.567	0.414	0.020	0.057
Real Estate, Renting, and Business Activities	K	140	0.639	0.201	0.160	0.016
Health and Social Work	N	140	0.538	0.096	0.366	0.007
Other Community and Personal Service Activities	O	140	0.427	0.211	0.362	0.006

Note: Panel A of this table offers the averages of employment shares in high, medium and low wage occupations in sample industries. Averages are taken across sample countries and period. Panel B offers the values of the measure of dependence on information technologies (IT Dependence) in sample industries. Similarly to Goos et al. (2014), industries Agriculture, Hunting, and Fishing (NACE A-B), Mining and Quarrying (NACE C), Public Administration; Social Security (NACE L), Education (NACE M), and Extra-territorial Organizations and Bodies (NACE Q) are excluded from the analysis. I also exclude from the analysis Households with Employed Persons (NACE P) industry because there is no data for it in the EU KLEMIS database. See Table 6 in the Data Appendix for complete descriptions and sources of variables.

Table 3: Shares of Employment in High, Medium and Low Wage Occupations within Gender and Age Groups

Occupation Group	A. Share within Genders						B. Share within Age Groups					
	Gender	Obs	Mean	SD	Min	Max	Age Group	Obs	Mean	SD	Min	Max
High Wage	Male	1392	0.440	0.212	0.038	0.954	Young	1359	0.295	0.182	0.013	0.899
Medium Wage		1392	0.381	0.255	0.002	0.838		1359	0.421	0.265	0.017	0.936
Low Wage		1392	0.179	0.171	0.000	0.907		1359	0.284	0.248	0.001	0.929
High Wage	Female	1386	0.355	0.145	0.0329	0.846	Medium	1383	0.422	0.188	0.040	0.941
Medium Wage		1386	0.371	0.225	0.015	0.863	Age	1383	0.373	0.246	0.009	0.844
Low Wage		1386	0.274	0.231	0.002	0.937		1383	0.205	0.192	0.002	0.919
High Wage							Old	1396	0.423	0.172	0.045	0.906
Medium Wage								1396	0.372	0.241	0.008	0.830
Low Wage								1396	0.206	0.181	0.002	0.920

Note: This table offers basic statistics for the shares of employment in high, medium and low wage occupations within gender and age groups in sample industries, countries and time. There are three age groups: young (between 17 and 32), medium-age (between 32 and 47), and old (between 47 and 62). See Table 6 in the Data Appendix for complete descriptions and sources of variables.

Table 4: Results for Employment Shares in High, Medium and Low Wage Occupations and within Genders and Age Groups

	(1)	(2)	(3)	(1)	(2)	(3)	(1)	(2)	(3)
	High Wage	Medium Wage	Low Wage	High Wage	Medium Wage	Low Wage	High Wage	Medium Wage	Low Wage
<i>A. All</i>									
IT Dependence	0.217***	-0.212***	-0.005	0.156***	-0.152***	-0.004	0.235***	-0.237***	0.001
× 1/IT Price	(0.026)	(0.022)	(0.017)	(0.028)	(0.028)	(0.020)	(0.034)	(0.033)	(0.019)
Obs	1,360	1,360	1,360	1,352	1,352	1,352	1,347	1,347	1,347
R2 (Partial)	0.083	0.122	0.000	0.040	0.054	0.000	0.050	0.062	0.000
<i>B. Within Males</i>									
<i>C. Within Females</i>									
<i>D. Within Young</i>									
IT Dependence	0.220***	-0.220***	0.000	0.235***	-0.232***	-0.004	0.160***	-0.133***	-0.028
× 1/IT Price	(0.038)	(0.041)	(0.020)	(0.033)	(0.031)	(0.019)	(0.034)	(0.026)	(0.025)
Obs	1,319	1,319	1,319	1,343	1,343	1,343	1,356	1,356	1,356
R2 (Partial)	0.051	0.059	0.000	0.061	0.088	0.000	0.030	0.037	0.001
<i>E. Within Medium-Age</i>									
<i>F. Within Old</i>									

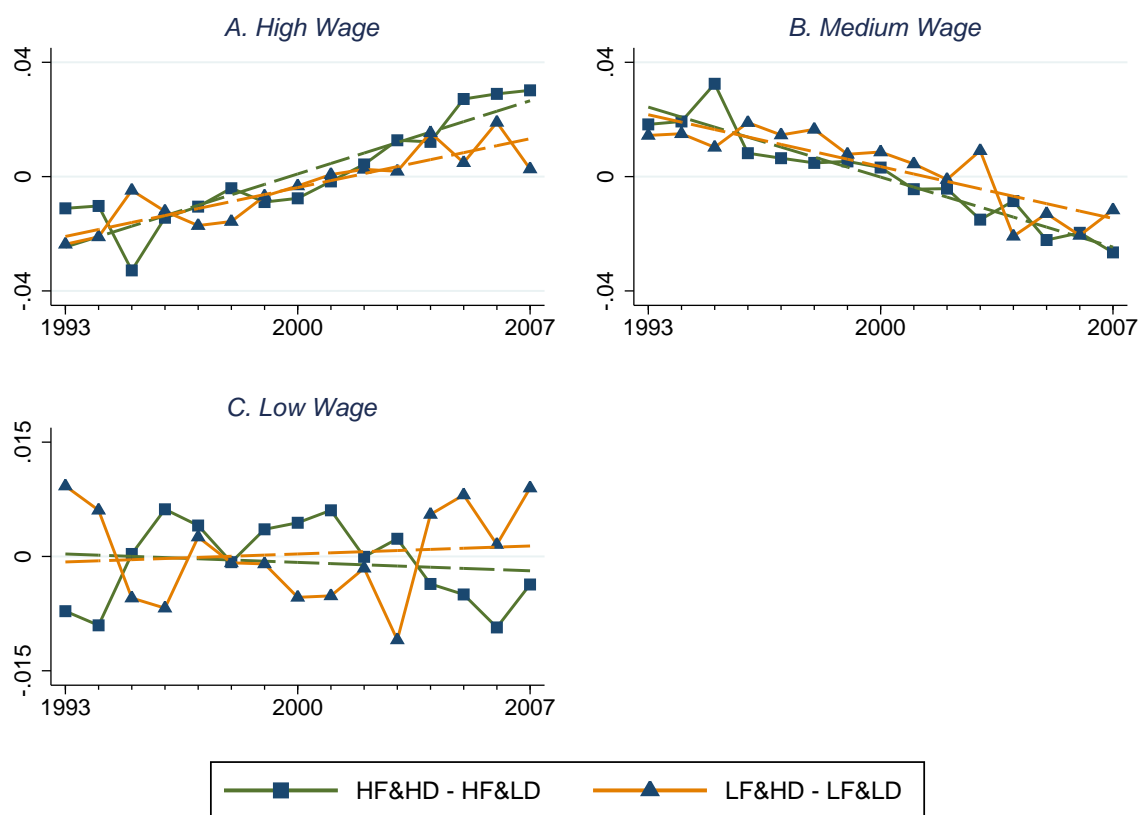
Note: This table offers the results from the estimation of the specification (10) for the shares of employment in high, medium and low wage occupations in sample industries. In Panel A, dependent variables are the shares of employment. In Panels B and C, dependent variables are the shares of employment in high, medium and low wage occupations within males and females, respectively. In Panels D, E, and F, dependent variables are the shares of employment in high, medium and low wage occupations within young, medium-age, and old workers (in employment hours), respectively. See Table 6 in the Data Appendix for complete descriptions and sources of variables. All regressions include country-industry and country-year dummies and use the least squares estimation method. Standard errors are in parentheses. Standard errors are bootstrapped and two-way clustered at industry- and country-year-level. R2 (Partial) is the R-squared of the model where country-industry and country-year dummies have been partialled out. *** indicates significance at the 1% level, ** at the 5% level and * at the 10% level

Table 5: Further Results - Sample Restrictions, Instrumental Variables and Additional Variables

	(1)	(2)	(3)	(1)	(2)	(3)	(1)	(2)	(3)
	High Wage	Medium Wage	Low Wage	High Wage	Medium Wage	Low Wage	High Wage	Medium Wage	Low Wage
<i>A. W/o High IT Compensation Industries</i>									
IT Dependence	0.395*** (0.057)	-0.416*** (0.060)	0.021 (0.044)	0.220*** (0.029)	-0.202*** (0.028)	-0.018 (0.016)	0.215*** (0.026)	-0.210*** (0.024)	-0.005 (0.018)
Capital Dependence							0.190* (0.108)	-0.178* (0.100)	-0.012 (0.070)
Obs	963	963	963	1,360	1,360	1,360	1,360	1,360	1,360
R2 (Partial)	0.083	0.151	0.000	0.083	0.122	-0.000	0.086	0.126	0.000
<i>B. Instrumental Variables</i>									
<i>C. Capital Dependence</i>									
<i>D. Medium-Skill Dependence</i>									
IT Dependence	0.171*** (0.030)	-0.161*** (0.026)	-0.010 (0.018)	0.187*** (0.033)	-0.196*** (0.027)	0.010 (0.024)	0.305*** (0.043)	-0.275*** (0.035)	-0.030 (0.032)
Medium-Skill Dependence	-0.012*** (0.003)	0.013*** (0.003)	-0.001 (0.002)						
Medium Skill Wage Rate							-0.028 (0.088)	0.138*** (0.046)	-0.109 (0.069)
Low Skill Wage Rate							-0.085 (0.143)	0.196*** (0.088)	-0.111 (0.106)
Obs	1,360	1,360	1,360	1,360	1,360	1,360	980	980	980
R2 (Partial)	0.102	0.158	0.000	0.037	0.065	0.000	0.107	0.176	0.006
<i>E. Industry Group \times Year Dummies</i>									
<i>F. Medium- and Low-Skill Wage Rates</i>									

Note: This table offers the results from the estimation of the specification (10) for the shares of employment in high, medium and low wage occupations. The dependent variable is employment share in the corresponding occupation group within industry-country-year cells. Panel A offers the results for a sample which, in each sample country and year, excludes industries that have IT compensation higher than the 75 percentile of the distribution of IT compensation across industries. Panel B offers the results from the estimation of the specification (10) where the interaction term is instrumented using the interaction between IT Dependence and the inverse of the price of communication technologies (CT Price). The first stage F statistic is highly significant [$F(1, 9) = 84.40, p < 0.000$]. Panels C-F augment the specification (10) with additional variables. Panel C adds to the specification (10) the interaction between the inverse of non-IT capital price (Capital Price) and the dependence of industries on non-IT capital (Capital Dependence). Panel D adds to the specification (10) the interaction between 1/IT Price and Medium-Skill Dependence, which is a proxy for α_{TR} . Panel E adds industry group dummies to the specification (10). There are 5 groups of sample 1-digit NACE industries: (1) D and E; (2) F and G; (3) H and I; (4) J and K; and (5) N and O. Panel F adds to the specification (10) the shares of wage compensation of medium- and low-skill employees out of value added (Medium-Skill Wage Rate and Low-Skill Wage Rate). The estimation method is 2 stage GMM in Panel B and least squares in the remaining panels. Standard errors are in parentheses. Standard errors are bootstrapped and two-way clustered at industry- and country-year-level. R2 (Partial) is the R-squared of the model where country-industry and country-year dummies have been partialled out. *** indicates significance at the 1% level, ** at the 5% level and * at the 10% level

Figure 1: Employment Shares in High, Medium and Low Wage Occupations in High and Low IT Dependence Industries



Note: This figure illustrates the differences in the trends of employment shares of high, medium and low wage occupations in industry-country pairs with high and low fall in IT prices and high and low IT dependence. The curves with square tick symbols are the difference between the employment shares in industries with high IT Dependence and industries with low IT Dependence among countries and years where and when the fall in IT Price is relatively high (HF&HD - HF&LD). The curves with triangle tick symbols are the difference between the employment shares in industries with high IT Dependence and industries with low IT Dependence among countries and years where and when the fall in IT Price is relatively low (LF&HD - LF&LD). The employment shares in this figure are the residuals from an OLS regression of employment shares on country-industry and country-year dummies. In each of the four groups, these shares are averaged over countries and industries. An industry has high (low) dependence on IT if its IT Dependence is above (below) the median IT Dependence across industries. For a given year, the fall in IT Price in a country-year pair is relatively high (low) if the fall in IT Price (relative to its previous level) in that pair is lower (higher) than the median change in IT Price across countries in that year. It is sufficient to compare to the change because IT Price has declined everywhere. See Table 6 in the Data Appendix for complete descriptions and sources of variables and for the assignment of occupations into high, medium and low wage groups.

A Data Appendix

Table 6: Definitions and Sources of Variables

Variable Name	Definition and Source
Capital Dependence	The share of non-IT capital compensation out of value added in US industries, averaged over the period of 1993-2007. Source: EU KLEMS.
Capital Price	The price of investments in physical capital relative to the price of value added in sample industries. It is averaged across industries, within countries and years. All prices are normalized to 1 in 1995. I use the inverse of this measure in estimations. Source: EU KLEMS.
CT Price	The price of investments in communication technologies relative to the price of value added in sample industries. It is averaged across industries, within countries and years. All prices are normalized to 1 in 1995. I use the inverse of this measure in estimations. Source: EU KLEMS.
IT Dependence	The share of IT capital compensation out of value added in US industries, averaged over the period of 1993-2007. Source: Author's calculations using data from EU KLEMS.
IT Price	The price of investments in information technologies relative to the price of value added in sample industries (p_{IT}). It is averaged across industries, within countries and years. All prices are normalized to 1 in 1995. I use the inverse of this measure in estimations. Source: EU KLEMS.
Medium-Skill Dependence	The share of medium-skill/educated workers' wage compensation out of value added in US industries, averaged over the period of 1993-2007. Medium-skill/educated workers have education level 3-4 of ISCED-97, which corresponds to secondary to post-secondary and non-tertiary education. Source: EU KLEMS.
Medium-Skill Wage Rate	The share of medium-skill/educated workers' wage compensation out of value added in the industries of the sample Western European countries. Medium-skill/educated workers have education level 3-4 of ISCED-97, which corresponds to secondary to post-secondary and non-tertiary education. Source: EU KLEMS.

Table 6 – (Continued)

Variable Name	Definition and Source
Low-Skill Wage Rate	The share of low-skill/educated workers' wage compensation out of value added in the industries of the sample Western European countries. Low-skill/educated workers have education level 0-2 of ISCED-97, which corresponds to pre-primary to lower-secondary education. Source: EU KLEMS.
Group	Description
Age Group	There are three age groups: young (between 17 and 32), medium-age (between 32 and 47) and old (between 47 and 62).
High IT Compensation Industries	The industries that have IT compensation higher than the 75 percentile of the distribution of IT compensation across industries within each sample country and year. Source: EU KLEMS.
Occupation (Wage) Group	Occupations are grouped into three wage groups: high, medium and low wage. High wage occupations are ISCO-88 12, 13, 21, 22, 24, 31, 32 and 34. Medium wage occupations are ISCO-88 41, 42, 71, 72, 73, 74, 81, 82 and 83. Low wage occupations are ISCO-88 51, 52, 91 and 93. See Table 14 in the Online Appendix - Tables and Figures for occupation names. Source: Goos et al. (2014).

Data Sources: December 2015 release of the EU Labour Force Survey database; March 2011 update of November 2009 release of the EU KLEMS database (and March 2008 release of the EU KLEMS database for Portugal).

Industry Sample (NACE rev. 1): D, E, F, G, H, I, J, K, N, and O.

Acknowledgements

I would like to thank Matias Cortes, John S. Earle, Randall K. Filer, Štěpán Jurajda, Anna Kochanová, Tobias Kretschmer, and participants at the 31st Annual Conference of the European Society for Population Economics in Glasgow (2017), the Catalan Economic Society Conference in Barcelona (2017), the Workshop on Labour Economics in Trier (2017), the IZA BB Seminar in Bonn (2016), and the Armenian Economic Association Meetings in Yerevan (2016) for thoughtful comments. I gratefully acknowledge the financial support from the Spanish Ministry of Education and Science through grant ECO2015-66701-R, from the Generalitat of Catalonia through grant 2014SGR493, and from the Grant Agency of the Czech Republic through project P402/12/G097. All errors remain my own.

References

- Acemoglu, D. and D. H. Autor (2011). Skills, tasks and technologies: Implications for employment and earnings. In O. C. Ashenfelter and D. Card (Eds.), *Handbook of Labor Economics*, Volume 4b, pp. 1043–1171. North-Holland: Elsevier B.V.
- Adermon, A. and M. Gustavsson (2015). Job polarization and task-biased technological change: Evidence from Sweden, 1975–2005. *Scandinavian Journal of Economics* 117(3), 878–917.
- Autor, D. and D. Dorn (2009). This job is “getting old”: Measuring changes in job opportunities using occupational age structure. *American Economic Review: Papers & Proceedings* 99(2), 45–51.
- Autor, D. H. and D. Dorn (2013). The growth of low skill service jobs and the polarization of the U.S. labor market. *American Economic Review* 103(5), 1553–1597.
- Autor, D. H., D. Dorn, and G. H. Hanson (2015). Untangling trade and technology: Evidence from local labour markets. *Economic Journal* 125(584), 621–646.
- Autor, D. H., L. F. Katz, and M. S. Kearney (2006). The polarization of the US labor market. *American Economic Review* 96(2), 189–194.

- Autor, D. H., L. F. Katz, and M. S. Kearney (2008). Trends in US wage inequality: Revising the revisionists. *Review of Economics and Statistics* 90(2), 300–323.
- Autor, D. H., F. Levy, and R. J. Murnane (2003). The skill content of recent technological change: An empirical exploration. *Quarterly Journal of Economics* 118(4), 1279–1333.
- Bárány, Z. L. and C. Siegel (2015). Job polarization and structural change. Mimeo.
- Cerina, F., A. Moro, and M. Rendall (2016). Employment polarization, structural change and women. Mimeo.
- Chen, W., T. Niebel, and M. Saam (2016). Are intangibles more productive in ICT-intensive industries? Evidence from EU countries. *Telecommunications Policy* 40(5), 471–484.
- Cortes, G. M., N. Jaimovich, and H. E. Siu (2016). The end of men? Gender differences in the high-skill labor market since 1980. Mimeo.
- Goos, M. and A. Manning (2007). Lousy and lovely jobs: The rising polarization of work in Britain. *Review of Economics and Statistics* 89(1), 118–133.
- Goos, M., A. Manning, and A. Salomons (2009). Job polarization in Europe. *American Economic Review: Papers & Proceedings* 99(2), 58–63.
- Goos, M., A. Manning, and A. Salomons (2014). Explaining job polarization: Routine-biased technological change and offshoring. *American Economic Review* 104(8), 2509–2526.
- Jerbashian, V. and A. Kochanova (2016). The impact of doing business regulations on investments in ICT. *Empirical Economics* 50(3), 991–1008.
- Jerbashian, V. and A. Kochanova (2017). The impact of telecommunication technologies on competition in services and goods markets: Empirical evidence. *Scandinavian Journal of Economics* 119(3), 628–655.
- Kambourov, G. and I. Manovskii (2009). Occupational specificity of human capital. *International Economic Review* 50(1), 63–115.
- Katz, L. F. and D. H. Autor (1999). Changes in the wage structure and earnings inequality. In O. C. Ashenfelter and D. Card (Eds.), *Handbook of Labor Economics*, Volume 3a, pp. 1463–1555. North-Holland: Elsevier B.V.

- Krusell, P., L. E. Ohanian, J.-V. Ríos-Rull, and G. L. Violante (2000). Capital-skill complementarity and inequality: A macroeconomic analysis. *Econometrica* 68(5), 1029–1053.
- Mazzolari, F. and G. Ragusa (2013). Spillovers from high-skill consumption to low-skill labor markets. *Review of Economics and Statistics* 95(1), 74–86.
- Michaels, G., A. Natraj, and J. van Reenen (2014). Has ICT polarized skill demand? Evidence from eleven countries over twenty-five years. *Review of Economics and Statistics* 96(1), 60–77.
- O’Mahony, M. and M. P. Timmer (2009). Output, input and productivity measures at the industry level: The EU KLEMS database. *Economic Journal* 119(538), F374–F403.
- Rajan, R. G. and L. Zingales (1998). Financial dependence and growth. *American Economic Review* 88(3), 559–586.

B Online Appendix - Further Robustness Checks and Results

This section presents the results from further robustness check exercises. It also offers additional results. I conduct robustness checks with respect to the sample of years, industries and countries, identifying assumptions and measures.

Figure 1 suggests that there can be differences in the trends of employment before and after 2001. I estimate the specification (10) restricting sample period to 1993-2001 and present the results in Panel *A* of Table 7. Import competition can matter for employment shares in high, medium and low wage occupations (Autor, Dorn, and Hanson, 2015). Panel *B* of Table 7 reports the results when I exclude from the sample Manufacturing, the tradable industry. All of these results are qualitatively no different from the main results offered in Panel *A* of Table 4.

The measure of IT dependence is defined as the share of IT capital compensation in US industries out of value added, averaged over the sample period. Around 90 percent of the variation in the share of IT capital compensation in US industries is at industry level according to Table 10. Therefore, this measure is likely to identify technological differences across industries. However, this measure of dependence would be valid for the current exercise if US industries are technologically similar to the industries of the sample Western European countries. This seems to be the case according to the correlations reported in Table 1.

In order to alleviate potential concerns, I use data from the sample Western European countries to construct an alternative measure of dependence on information technologies, IT Dependence EU. IT Dependence EU is defined as the share of IT capital compensation out of value added in industries of the sample Western European countries, averaged over the sample countries and period. The correlation between this measure and the main measure of dependence is 0.944.¹³ I estimate the specification (10) with this measure and report the results in Panel *A* of Table 8. These are qualitatively no different from the

¹³According to Table 11, industry-level variation explains more than 50 percent of the variation of the share of IT compensation out of value added in industries of the sample Western European countries.

main results.

According to equation (2), industry-level variation in factor input levels can affect the values of IT Dependence. This can bias the coefficient on the interaction term in the specification (10) in a non-trivial manner. In order to alleviate potential concerns, I make use of the fact that it is sufficient to have a correct ranking of industries according to their dependence on IT. Chen et al. (2016) and Jerbashian and Kochanova (2016, 2017) utilize similar measures of dependence on information and communication technologies, and rank correlations of IT Dependence with their measures are very high. I rank sample industries according to the value of IT Dependence using positive, equidistant weights which sum to one. I call this ranking IT Dependence RW and use it as a measure of dependence in the specification (10). The results with this measure reaffirm the main results and are reported in Panel *B* of Table 8.

I use the prices of information technologies to analyze the effects of recent technological changes on employment. This involves trade-offs. The prices of information technologies are usually better measured and constructed under less strict assumptions than the series of capital, for example. The variation of prices is more likely to reflect exogenous technical changes than the variation in investment and capital series because the latter entail an additional margin of decision making. However, the series of prices of information technologies might not fully reflect the actual adoption of information technologies. In Panel *C* of Table 8, I use real investments in IT relative to real value added in sample industries (IT Investments), instead of $1/\text{IT Price}$, in order to alleviate such concerns.¹⁴ The estimate on the interaction term is significant and positive for the share of employment in high wage occupations. It is negative for the share of employment in medium wage occupations. These results corroborate the hypothesis for job polarization suggesting that, as investments in IT have grown, industries which depend more on IT have increased (reduced) the demand for high (medium) wage occupations more than industries which depend less.

¹⁴The correlation between IT Investments and the price of information technologies relative to the price of value added (IT Price Ind) is -0.381 and is significant at the 1% level. IT Price Ind has large temporal variation, relatively small variation across countries, and almost no variation across industries according to Table 12.

Left-hand side variables in all regressions are shares and are between 0 and 1. I estimate the specification (10) using Tobit with $(0, 1)$ censoring. Panel *A* of Table 9 summarizes the results. These are almost identical to the main results.

I also estimate the specification (10) for all NACE 1-digit industries for which there are data in the ELFS and EU KLEMS databases. Panel *B* of Table 9 reports the results, which are very close to the main results.

B.A Not Reported Robustness Checks and Results

I continue performing robustness checks, but do not report the results for brevity. Offshoring can matter for employment shares according to Goos et al. (2014), although its effect in industries with different levels of dependence on IT is not *a priori* clear. To check whether offshoring can affect the results, I exclude from the analysis occupations which have offshorability score higher than the 75th percentile of offshorability index offered by Goos et al. (2014). Excluding these occupations does not have any significant effect on the results.

In the main text, I compute employment shares in industry-occupation pairs using (usual) weekly hours worked. I have checked that the results are robust to using the number of persons employed instead of the number of hours.

The possible changes of employment in manual tasks are disregarded in equation (6). As a robustness check, I compute industry-level employment as a sum of employment in high and medium wage occupations and compute employment shares in industry-occupation pairs using this measure of employment. The results which I obtain are very similar to the main results for high and medium wage occupations.

An alternative way of measuring the dependence on IT uses the share of IT compensation of the industries of the sample Western European countries and allows it to vary across years and countries. Another alternative measure predicts IT Dependence EU using the measure identified with US data, IT Dependence. I use these alternative measures and obtain results very similar to the main results. I also obtain reaffirming results when I use the main dependence measure on information and communication technologies of Chen et al. (2016).

A flexible way of controlling for possible trends and differences in initial values is to include the lagged dependent variable in the regression. I do so and obtain results which are qualitatively similar to the main results.¹⁵

In the main text, the coefficient of interest β is identified from within country temporal variation of 1/IT Price and industry-level variation of IT Dependence. As a robustness check, I disregard country-level variation taking the averages of the shares of employment and 1/IT Price across countries and estimating a version of specification (10) with industry and year dummies. I obtain results which are similar to the main results, though the inference regarding the differences across genders is somewhat weaker. I also estimate the specification (10) with a full set of industry-year dummies instead of industry group-year dummies as in Panel *E* of Table 5. In this exercise, β is identified from within industry, country, and year variation, which disregards the significant and omnipresent advances of information technologies over time. I obtain results which are qualitatively similar to the main results, though the estimates of β are insignificant and relatively small. The estimates of β become significant and very close to the main results when I drop from the sample Southern European countries Italy, Portugal, and Spain, which have very rigid labor and product markets.

There can be problems with the kinkiness of the data which can be observed for some occupation groups. I fit third order polynomials on the shares of employment in each occupation group-industry-country triple using time variation. I use these polynomials in the estimation of the specification (10). The results that I obtain are similar to the main results. I also drop the first and the last percentiles of the distribution of employment shares in each country. Again, the results are close to the main results.

The number of observations has a small variation in samples which I use for estimations for gender and age groups. I check that all the results hold in case the samples are restricted to be equal.

I use the March 2011 update of the November 2009 release of the EU KLEMS database for all countries except Portugal. For Portugal, I use the March 2008 release of the EU

¹⁵This exercise might be taken with caution because of the fixed effects estimation and the resulting mechanical endogeneity of the lagged dependent variable.

KLEMS database. I exclude Portugal from the sample of countries and obtain results which are similar to the main results. In the ELFS and EU KLEMS databases there is information for the Czech Republic and Slovenia. I include these countries in the analysis. This does not effect the results.

I use all the available temporal variation in order to identify β . This allows to fully utilize the significant and omnipresent advances in information technologies over the sample period. I also attempt to estimate β using long differences. I take the differences between sample initial and end values in industry-country pairs in the specification (10) and estimate it for those differences including industry-fixed effects in it. This exercise provides estimates of β which have the same sign as the main estimates, but are not statistically significant. A reason for this is that taking long differences reduces the number of observations by about 10 times.

I perform all these robustness checks for the shares of employment in high, medium and low wage occupations within gender and age groups. I obtain results which are similar to the main findings.

There have been country-level changes in employment composition of genders and age groups in high, medium and low wage occupations. Such compositional changes can confound the results if they are more pronounced in industries with higher α_{IT} and are not because of the fall in IT Price, but are correlated with it. To rule out such an explanation, I include an interaction of Industry Dependence and the country-level share of employment in the corresponding occupation group among gender and age groups in the specification (10). I obtain results which are qualitatively similar to the main findings.

Trends in female labor supply can confound the results for that group. I obtain estimates of β , which are very similar to the estimates in Panel *C* of Table 4, when I estimate the specification (10) using data for the year 2000 and after. In this period, trends in female labor supply are much less pronounced. Cerina et al. (2016) show that polarization trends in female labor supply are more pronounced among married females than among not married females. I check that the estimates of β are very close the estimates in Panel *C* of Table 4, when I estimate the specification (10) for married, as

well as not married, females.

There can be differences in intensive and extensive margins of adjustment of employment among males and females. The EU LFS database is a repeated cross-section, and one way to check this tests whether the results are different from the main results in Panels *B* and *C* of Table 4 among young males and among young females (age from 17 to 32). I find that the results for young males and among young females are not different from the main results.

Education-level Groups

I retrieve information from the ELFS database on the levels of education to check that the results for within education-level groups are similar to the main results in Panel *A* of Table 4. There are three levels of education in this database: pre-primary to lower-secondary (low; ISCED-97 0-2), secondary to post-secondary and non-tertiary (medium; ISCED-97 3-4) and tertiary (high; ISCED-97 5-6). I compute the number of hours worked in each of these education-level groups for all occupation group-industry cells in sample countries and years and the share of employment in high, medium and low wage occupations within these groups.

I estimate the specification (10) for the shares of employment in high, medium and low wage occupations within education-level groups. Similarly to the main results, the fall in IT prices has increased (reduced) the share of employment in high (medium) wage occupations and has had no robust effect on the share of employment in low wage occupations within these groups. Moreover, the effect of the fall in IT prices on employment shares of medium-educated workers in high and medium wage occupations is about twice as much as on employment shares among highly educated and low-educated workers.

Michaels et al. (2014) argue that medium-educated (medium-skill) workers tend to be the most specialized in routine intensive tasks. Their argument suggests that medium-educated workers have the highest α_{TR} . Admittedly, it might seem somewhat surprising then that the fall in IT prices has had a larger effect on medium-educated workers from the lens of the theoretical model presented in the main text. This suggests that the

theoretical model of this paper might not be very well applicable for explaining differences in the results for low-, medium- and highly educated workers and can warrant a further investigation.

The results from all not reported robustness checks are available upon request.

C Online Appendix - Tables and Figures

Table 7: Robustness Checks - Sample Restrictions

	High Wage	Medium Wage	Low Wage	High Wage	Medium Wage	Low Wage
	<i>A. Sample Period Till 2001</i>			<i>B. W/o Tradeable Industries</i>		
	(1)	(2)	(3)	(1)	(2)	(3)
IT Dependence × 1/IT Price	0.211*** (0.062)	-0.170*** (0.060)	-0.041 (0.032)	0.217*** (0.026)	-0.213*** (0.025)	-0.004 (0.018)
Obs	780	780	780	1,224	1,224	1,224
R2 (Partial)	0.035	0.031	0.002	0.087	0.133	0.000

Note: This table offers the results from the estimation of the specification (10) for the shares of employment in high, medium and low wage occupations. The dependent variable is employment share in the corresponding occupation group within industry-country-year cells. Panel *A* offers the results from the estimation of the specification (10) where years after 2001 are excluded from the sample. In Panel *A*, IT Dependence is defined as the share of IT capital compensation out of value added in US industries, averaged over 1993-2001. In Panel *B*, tradeable industries (Manufacturing, NACE D) are excluded from the sample. See Table 6 in the Data Appendix for complete descriptions and sources of variables. All regressions include country-industry and country-year dummies and use the least squares estimation method. Standard errors are in parentheses. Standard errors are bootstrapped and two-way clustered at industry- and country-year-level. R2 (Partial) is the R-squared of the model where country-industry and country-year dummies have been partialled out. *** indicates significance at the 1% level, ** at the 5% level, and * at the 10% level.

Table 8: Robustness Checks - Measures for Industry Dependence and IT Investments

	A. <i>IT Dependence EU</i>			B. <i>IT Dependence RW</i>			C. <i>IT Investments</i>		
	High Wage	Medium Wage	Low Wage	High Wage	Medium Wage	Low Wage	High Wage	Medium Wage	Low Wage
IT Dependence EU	(1)	(2)	(3)	(1)	(2)	(3)	(1)	(2)	(3)
× 1/IT Price	0.278*** (0.034)	-0.246*** (0.033)	-0.031 (0.024)						
IT Dependence RW				0.053*** (0.008)	-0.059*** (0.006)	0.006 (0.007)			
× 1/IT Price							11.656*** (1.499)	-11.758*** (1.454)	0.102 (1.041)
IT Dependence							-0.035 (0.053)	0.147*** (0.038)	-0.113*** (0.038)
× IT Investments									
IT Investments									
Obs	1,360	1,360	1,360	1,360	1,360	1,360	1,360	1,360	1,360
R2 (Partial)	0.068	0.082	0.001	0.061	0.116	0.001	0.051	0.066	0.009

Note: This table offers the results from the estimation of the specification (10) for the shares of employment in high, medium and low wage occupations. The dependent variable is employment share in the corresponding occupation group within industry-country-year cells. Panels *A* and *B* offer the results from the estimation of the specification (10) where I use alternative measures for dependence on information technologies. In Panel *A*, I use IT Dependence EU, which is defined as the share of IT capital compensation in industries of the sample Western European countries, averaged over the sample countries and period. In Panel *B*, I use IT Dependence RW. This measure is the ranking of industries according to their values of IT Dependence which uses positive, equidistant weights summing to one. In Panel *C*, I use the ratio of real IT investments and value added in industries of sample countries (IT Investments) in the interaction term, instead of 1/IT Price. See Table 6 in the Data Appendix and Table 15 for complete descriptions and sources of variables. All regressions include country-industry and country-year dummies and use the least squares estimation method. Standard errors are in parentheses. Standard errors are bootstrapped and two-way clustered at industry- and country-year-level. R2 (Partial) is the R-squared of the model where country-industry and country-year dummies have been partialled out. *** indicates significance at the 1% level, ** at the 5% level, and * at the 10% level.

Table 9: Robustness Checks - Tobit and All Industries

	High Wage	Medium Wage	Low Wage	High Wage	Medium Wage	Low Wage
	<i>A. Tobit</i>			<i>B. All Industries</i>		
	(1)	(2)	(3)	(1)	(2)	(3)
IT Dependence × 1/IT Price	0.217*** (0.025)	-0.212*** (0.025)	-0.005 (0.018)	0.204*** (0.029)	-0.207*** (0.024)	0.003 (0.015)
Obs	1,360	1,360	1,360	1,895	1,895	1,895
R2 (Partial)				0.040	0.057	0.000

Note: This table offers the results from the estimation of the specification (10) for the shares of employment in high, medium and low wage occupations. The dependent variable is employment share in the corresponding occupation group within industry-country-year cells. Panel *A* offers the results from the estimation of the specification (10) using Tobit with (0, 1) censoring. In Panel *B*, I add Agriculture, Hunting, and Fishing (NACE A-B), Mining and Quarrying (NACE C), Public Administration; Social Security (NACE L), Education (NACE M), and Extra-territorial Organizations and Bodies (NACE Q) to the sample of industries. See Table 6 in the Data Appendix and Table 15 for complete descriptions and sources of variables. All regressions include country-industry and country-year dummies. Standard errors are in parentheses. Standard errors are clustered at industry-level in Panel *A*. The estimation method is least squares in Panel *B*, and standard errors are bootstrapped and two-way clustered at industry- and country-year-level. R2 (Partial) is the R-squared of the model where country-industry and country-year dummies have been partialled out. *** indicates significance at the 1% level, ** at the 5% level, and * at the 10% level.

Table 10: ANOVA for the Share of IT Compensation in US Industries

Source	Partial SS	df	MS
Total	0.037	149	0.000
Industry	0.033	9	0.004
Year	0.001	14	0.000
Industry × Year	0.002	126	0.000

Note: This table reports the results from an ANOVA exercise for the share of IT compensation of US industries out of value added. The variation in the data are at industry-year level, and I perform ANOVA along each of these dimensions. The number of observations is 150, RMSE = 0.

Table 11: ANOVA for the Share of IT Compensation in Industries of Sample Countries

Source	Partial SS	df	MS
Total	0.290	1359	0.000
Industry	0.150	9	0.017
Country	0.042	9	0.005
Industry \times Country	0.062	81	0.001
Year	0.005	14	0.000
Year \times Industry	0.008	126	0.000
Year \times Country	0.005	112	0.000
Year \times Industry \times Country	0.018	1008	0.000

Note: This table reports the results from an ANOVA exercise for the share of IT compensation in industries of the sample Western European countries out of value added. The variation in the data are at industry-country-year level, and I perform ANOVA along each of these dimensions. The number of observations is 1360, RMSE = 0.

Table 12: ANOVA for IT Price Ind

Source	Partial SS	df	MS
Total	186.631	1359	0.137
Industry	0.498	9	0.055
Country	9.717	9	1.080
Industry \times Country	0.656	81	0.008
Year	170.876	14	12.205
Year \times Industry	0.278	126	0.002
Year \times Country	2.865	112	0.026
Year \times Industry \times Country	0.555	1008	0.001

Note: This table reports the results from an ANOVA exercise for the price of information technologies relative to the price of value added (IT Price Ind). All prices are normalized to 1 in 1995. The variation in the data are at industry-country-year level, and I perform ANOVA along each of these dimensions. The number of observations is 1360, RMSE = 0. See Table 6 in the Data Appendix and Table 15 for complete descriptions and sources of variables.

Table 13: Correlations between Wage Rates and Employment Shares

	1	2	3	4	5
1. High-Skill Wage Rate					
2. Medium-Skill Wage Rate	-0.690				
3. Low-Skill Wage Rate	-0.061	-0.680			
4. Employment Share in High Wage Occupations	0.548	-0.149	-0.350		
5. Employment Share in Medium Wage Occupations	-0.325	0.144	0.130	-0.576	
6. Employment Share in Low Wage Occupations	-0.078	-0.047	0.144	-0.170	-0.708

Note: This table reports pairwise correlations for wage compensations of high-, medium-, and low-skill (education-level) employees relative to value added and employment shares in high, medium and low wage occupations. The variation in the data are at industry-country-year level. All correlations are significant at least at the 10% significance level.

Table 14: Employment Shares of Occupations in Industries

Occupation Name and Wage Group	Code	Industry Code									
		D	E	F	G	H	I	J	K	N	O
<i>High Wage Occupations</i>											
Corporate Managers	12	0.067	0.069	0.044	0.071	0.068	0.047	0.105	0.070	0.022	0.046
Physical, Mathematical, and Engineering Science Professionals	21	0.041	0.080	0.029	0.010	0.001	0.022	0.034	0.141	0.004	0.011
Life Science and Health Professionals	22	0.002	0.005	0.000	0.007	0.001	0.001	0.002	0.009	0.183	0.004
Other Professionals	24	0.023	0.032	0.005	0.012	0.005	0.017	0.066	0.134	0.039	0.171
General Managers	13	0.022	0.011	0.036	0.132	0.187	0.030	0.015	0.037	0.006	0.036
Physical and Engineering Science Associate Professionals	31	0.062	0.129	0.045	0.017	0.003	0.059	0.022	0.105	0.013	0.037
Other Associate Professionals	34	0.052	0.073	0.019	0.112	0.020	0.060	0.324	0.139	0.054	0.112
Life Science and Health Associate Professionals	32	0.004	0.006	0.001	0.011	0.003	0.001	0.001	0.006	0.217	0.013
<i>Medium Wage Occupations</i>											
Stationary-plant and Related Operators	81	0.040	0.073	0.003	0.002	0.001	0.002	0.002	0.003	0.001	0.005
Metal, Machinery, and Related Trades Workers	72	0.160	0.180	0.055	0.090	0.003	0.050	0.003	0.017	0.004	0.014
Drivers and Mobile-plant Operators	83	0.028	0.022	0.058	0.028	0.005	0.365	0.003	0.009	0.007	0.028
Office Clerks	41	0.080	0.135	0.039	0.095	0.017	0.181	0.232	0.130	0.058	0.097
Precision, Handicraft, Printing, and Related Trades Workers	73	0.033	0.008	0.002	0.005	0.000	0.001	0.001	0.005	0.003	0.003
Extraction and Building Trades Workers	71	0.033	0.103	0.566	0.015	0.005	0.006	0.002	0.019	0.005	0.015
Customer Services Clerks	42	0.003	0.026	0.002	0.024	0.028	0.053	0.175	0.013	0.015	0.029
Machine Operators and Assemblers	82	0.160	0.013	0.007	0.009	0.003	0.002	0.001	0.006	0.003	0.017
Other Craft and Related Trades Workers	74	0.102	0.003	0.007	0.023	0.014	0.002	0.001	0.002	0.003	0.005
<i>Low Wage Occupations</i>											
Labourers in Mining, Construction, Manufacturing, and Transport	93	0.056	0.023	0.081	0.035	0.005	0.038	0.001	0.009	0.006	0.015
Personal and Protective Services Workers	51	0.005	0.010	0.001	0.010	0.500	0.033	0.005	0.029	0.300	0.221
Models, Salespersons, and Demonstrators	52	0.013	0.006	0.002	0.272	0.023	0.006	0.002	0.008	0.001	0.009
Sales and Services Elementary Occupations	91	0.013	0.030	0.005	0.026	0.124	0.030	0.014	0.114	0.059	0.118

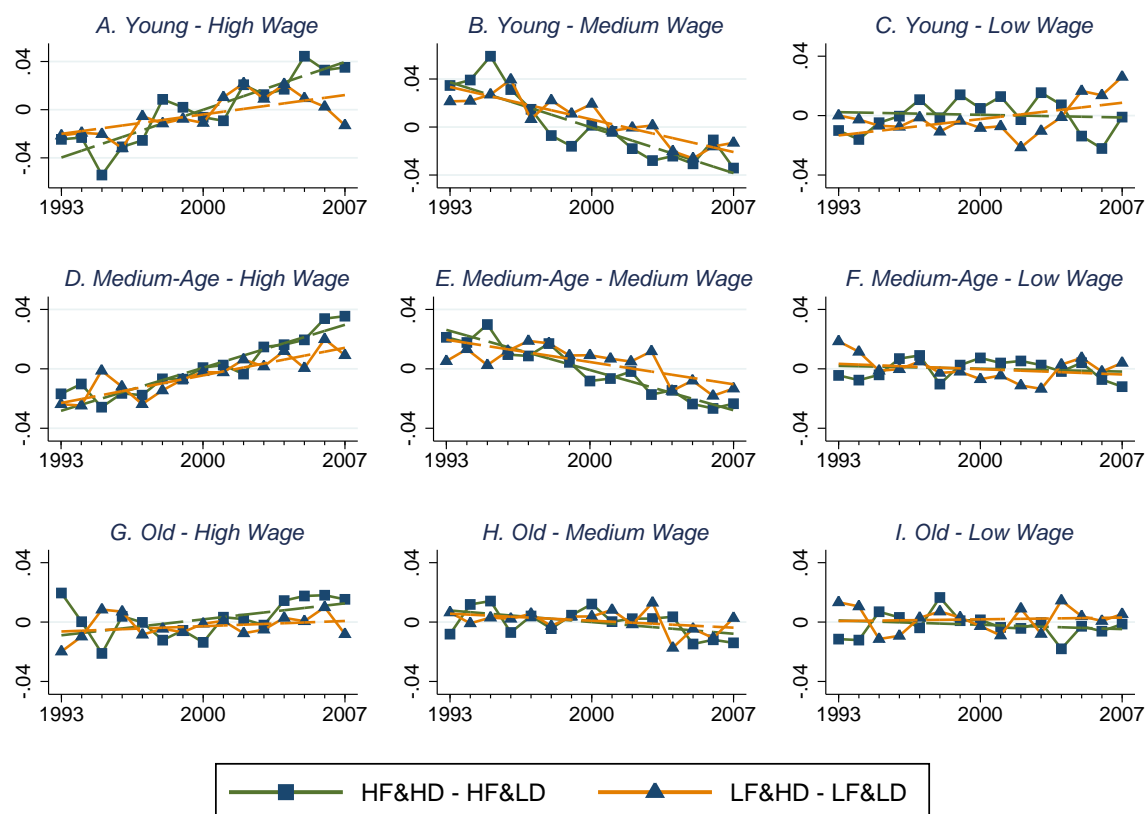
Note: This table offers the shares of employment in each 2-digit ISCO-88 occupation and groups of high, medium and low wage occupations in sample industries. These shares are averaged over sample countries and years. Occupations are ordered by their mean wage in accordance with Table 1 of Goos et al. (2014). Similarly to Goos et al. (2014), the analysis excludes NACE industries A-B, C, L, M, and Q and occupations Legislators and Senior Officials (ISCO-88 11); Teaching Professionals and Teaching Associate Professionals (ISCO-88 23 and 33); Skilled Agricultural and Fishery Workers (ISCO-88 61); and Agricultural, Fishery and Related Laborers (ISCO-88 92). I also exclude from the analysis industry Households with Employed Persons (NACE P) because there is no data for it in the EU KLEMS database.

Figure 2: Employment Shares in High, Medium and Low Wage Occupations in High and Low IT Dependence Industries within Genders



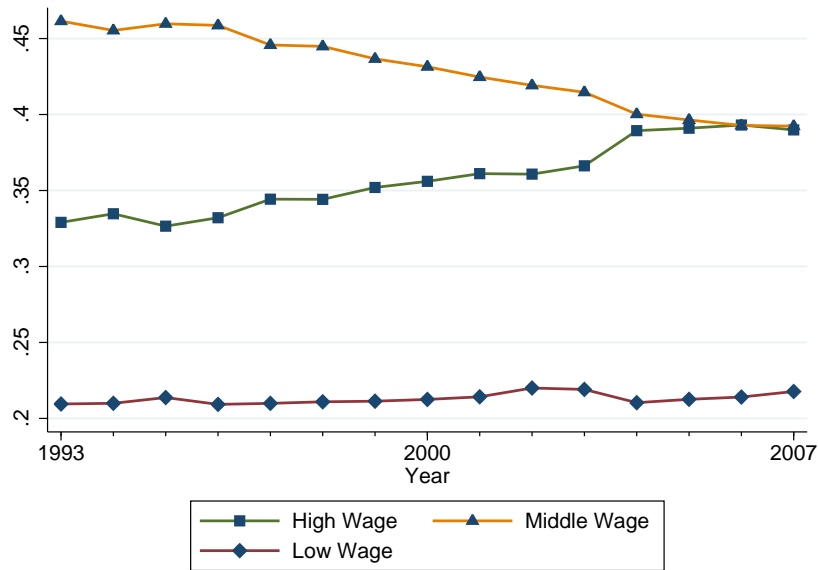
Note: This figure illustrates the differences in the trends of employment shares of high, medium and low wage occupations within genders in industry-country pairs with high and low fall in IT prices and high and low IT dependence. The curves with square tick symbols are the difference between the employment shares within genders in industries with high IT Dependence and industries with low IT Dependence among countries and years where and when the fall in IT Price is relatively high (HF&HD - HF&LD). The curves with triangle tick symbols are the difference between the employment shares within genders in industries with high IT Dependence and industries with low IT Dependence among countries and years where and when the fall in IT Price is relatively low (LF&HD - LF&LD). The employment shares in this figure are the residuals from an OLS regression of employment shares on country-industry and country-year dummies. In each of the four groups, these shares are averaged over countries and industries. An industry has high (low) dependence on IT if its IT Dependence is above (below) the median IT Dependence across industries. For a given year, the fall in IT Price in a country-year pair is relatively high (low) if the fall in IT Price (relative to its previous level) in that pair is lower (higher) than the median change in IT Price across countries in that year. It is sufficient to compare to the change because IT Price has declined everywhere. See Table 6 in the Data Appendix for complete descriptions and sources of variables. See Table 6 in the Data Appendix for the assignment of occupations into high, medium and low wage groups.

Figure 3: Employment Shares in High, Medium and Low Wage Occupations in High and Low IT Dependence Industries within Age Groups



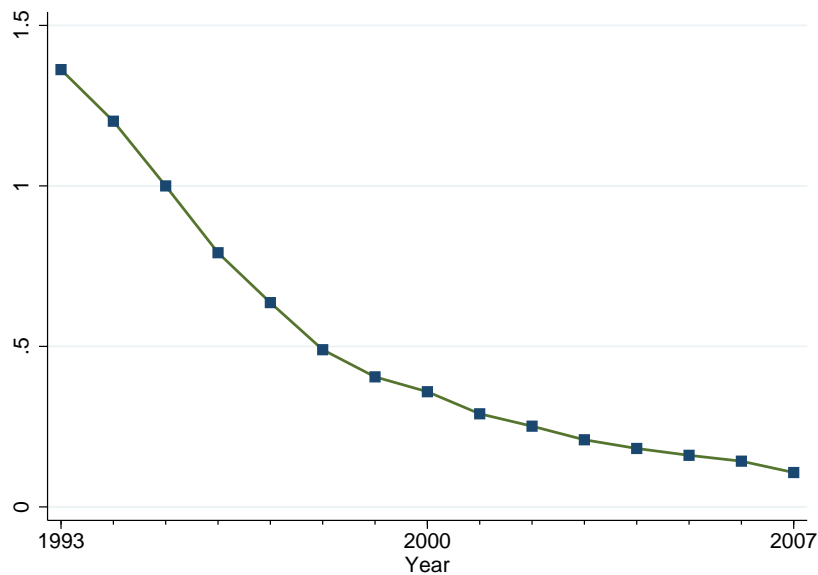
Note: This figure illustrates the differences in the trends of employment shares of high, medium and low wage occupations within age groups in industry-country pairs with high and low fall in IT prices and high and low IT dependence. The curves with square tick symbols are the difference between the employment shares within age groups in industries with high IT Dependence and industries with low IT Dependence among countries and years where and when the fall in IT Price is relatively high (HF&HD - HF&LD). The curves with triangle tick symbols are the difference between the employment shares within age groups in industries with high IT Dependence and industries with low IT Dependence among countries and years where and when the fall in IT Price is relatively low (LF&HD - LF&LD). The employment shares in this figure are the residuals from an OLS regression of employment shares on country-industry and country-year dummies. In each of the four groups, these shares are averaged over countries and industries. An industry has high (low) dependence on IT if its IT Dependence is above (below) the median IT Dependence across industries. For a given year, the fall in IT Price in a country-year pair is relatively high (low) if the fall in IT Price (relative to its previous level) in that pair is lower (higher) than the median change in IT Price across countries in that year. It is sufficient to compare to the change because IT Price has declined everywhere. See Table 6 in the Data Appendix for complete descriptions and sources of variables. See Table 6 in the Data Appendix for the assignment of occupations into high, medium and low wage groups.

Figure 4: Employment Shares in High, Medium and Low Wage Occupations in Sample Countries



Note: This figure illustrates the trends in the shares of employment in high, medium and low wage occupation groups. These employment shares are averaged over the sample countries. See Table 6 in the Data Appendix for the assignment of occupations into high, medium and low wage groups.

Figure 5: The Price of Information Technologies (IT Price)



Note: This figure illustrates the evolution of the price of information technologies relative to the price of value added p_{IT} (IT Price). This relative price is averaged across countries. See Table 6 in the Data Appendix for complete descriptions and sources of variables.

Table 15: Additional Definitions and Sources of Variables

Variable Name	Definition and Source
IT Dependence EU	The share of IT capital compensation out of value added in the industries of sample Western European countries, averaged over sample countries and period. Source: Author's calculations using data from EU KLEMS.
IT Dependence RW	I rank sample industries according to their values of IT Dependence using positive, equidistant weights which sum to one. IT Dependence RW is this ranking. Source: Author's calculations using data from EU KLEMS.
IT Price Ind	The price of investments in information technologies relative to the price of value added in sample industries. In contrast to IT Price, this measure is not averaged across industries, within countries and years. All prices are normalized to 1 in 1995. I use the inverse of this measure in estimations. Source: EU KLEMS.
IT Investments	The ratio of real investments in information technologies and real value added in sample industries. Source: EU KLEMS.