

**AN INPUT-OUTPUT ANALYSIS OF THE RELATIONSHIPS
BETWEEN COMMUNICATIONS AND TRAVEL
FOR INDUSTRY**

Final Report

Taihyeong Lee

Department of Civil and Environmental Engineering
and
Institute of Transportation Studies
University of California
Davis, California
phone: 530-754-5450 fax: 530-752-6572
thlee@ucdavis.edu

and

Patricia L. Mokhtarian

Department of Civil and Environmental Engineering
and
Institute of Transportation Studies
University of California
Davis, California
phone: 530-752-7062 fax: 530-752-7872
plmokhtarian@ucdavis.edu

July 2004

TABLE OF CONTENTS

LIST OF TABLES	iii
LIST OF FIGURES	iii
EXECUTIVE SUMMARY	iv
CHAPTER 1. INTRODUCTION.....	1
CHAPTER 2. INTRODUCTION TO INPUT-OUTPUT ANALYSIS AND ITS APPLICATION TO THIS STUDY.....	6
2.1 CONCEPT OF THE INPUT-OUTPUT METHODOLOGY	6
2.2 REVIEW OF SELECTED INPUT-OUTPUT LITERATURE.....	8
2.3 APPLICATION OF INPUT-OUTPUT ANALYSIS TO THIS STUDY.....	10
CHAPTER 3. DATA COLLECTION AND MANIPULATION.....	12
3.1 DATA COLLECTION	12
3.2 DATA MANIPULATION.....	18
3.2.1 Conversion from Paper Tables to Electronic Files	18
3.2.2 Industry Classification	20
3.2.3 Four Scenarios Based on the Aggregation Level.....	24
3.2.4 Selected Industry Categories for Analyses	26
CHAPTER 4. METHODOLOGICAL APPROACH.....	27
4.1 COLUMN NORMALIZATION OF THE I-O ACCOUNTS	27
4.2 ECONOMIC CONTRIBUTION-BASED WEIGHT (ECBW)	28
4.3 INTERPRETATION OF CORRELATION COEFFICIENTS.....	30
CHAPTER 5. HYPOTHESES AND RESULTS.....	32
5.1 HYPOTHESES	32
5.2 RESULTS.....	35
5.3 LIMITATIONS OF THIS STUDY	42
CHAPTER 6. CONCLUSIONS AND DIRECTIONS FOR FURTHER RESEARCH	44
REFERENCES.....	48
APPENDICES	53
APPENDIX A. DETAILED DESCRIPTION AND COMPARISON FOR CLASSIFICATION OF INDUSTRIES IN 1997	54
APPENDIX B. COMPARISON OF INDUSTRY CATEGORIES BY USING NAICS AND SIC FOR UNCLEAR CATEGORIES FOR CLASSIFICATION OF INDUSTRIES IN 1997 BENCHMARK I-O ACCOUNTS	57
APPENDIX C. SCHEMATIC DIAGRAM FOR SPREADSHEETS IN EXCEL (SAMPLE YEAR 1992).....	59
APPENDIX D. THE ECBWs OF SCENARIOS 2 THROUGH 4 FOR THE TEN BENCHMARK YEARS (1947-1997)	60
APPENDIX E. GRAPHS OF SPEARMAN CORRELATIONS (1947 - 1997)	63

LIST OF TABLES

Table ES- 1. Definition of Each Category	viii
Table ES- 2. Numbers of Significant ($p=0.2$) Positive and Negative Spearman Correlations ...	viii
Table 3- 1. Description of Input-Output Accounts Collection	14
Table 3- 2. Variation of Classification of Industries	16
Table 3- 3. Number of Pages of Hardcopy Material to be Converted	19
Table 3- 4. Estimated Correction and Confirmation Time Calculated Using Error Rate Distribution	20
Table 3- 5. Classification of Industries in the Input-Output Accounts	22
Table 3- 6. Number of Industry Categories in Each Scenario, for the Ten Benchmark Years....	25
Table 5- 1. Examples of Potential Relationships between Transportation and Communications (Substitution).....	33
Table 5- 2. Examples of Potential Relationships between Transportation and Communications (Complementarity).....	34
Table 5- 3. Definition of Each Category.....	39
Table 5- 4. Numbers of Significant ($p=0.2$) Positive and Negative Spearman Correlations.....	39

LIST OF FIGURES

Figure ES- 1. Spearman Correlations from Direct Coefficients Matrix, 1947-1997 Benchmark Years	ix
Figure 2- 1. Schematic Showing the Cross-Sectional Correlation between Transportation and Communications across Industries	11
Figure 3- 1. Selected Pairwise Correlations of Industry Categories of Transportation and Communications	26
Figure 4- 1. Schematic of Sub-industries Comprising a Main Industry	28
Figure 5- 1. Spearman Correlations from Direct Coefficients Matrix, 1947-1997 Benchmark Years	37
Figure 6- 1. Schematic Showing the Industry-Specific Correlations between Transportation and Communications Taken Over Time.....	47

EXECUTIVE SUMMARY

Overview

Numerous public policies have been promulgated on the assumption that telecommunications will be a useful trip reduction instrument. However, many scholars have suggested that the predominant effect of telecommunications may be complementarity – increasing travel. Although short-term, disaggregate studies of single applications such as telecommuting have tended to find a substitution effect, more comprehensive studies, on the aggregate scale, are needed. One of the few such studies used input-output analysis to examine relationships between transportation and communication input intensities across 44 industry classes in Europe for 1980, and found strong evidence of complementarity. The present study has applied a similar methodology to the input-output accounts for the US across multiple points in time.

Specifically, this study applied the input-output analysis technique developed by Leontief in 1936 to analyze the relationship between transportation and communications as industrial inputs in the U.S. Generally, input-output analysis offers a static view of the structural relationships, expressed purely in monetary terms, among the different sectors of an economy for a certain period of time. We analyzed correlations between transportation and communications using the input coefficients of transportation and communications in the input-output table (direct coefficients matrix). Positive correlation coefficients indicate complementarity: industries that require a lot of transportation inputs also tend to require a lot of communications inputs, and conversely. Negative correlation coefficients imply substitution.

Ten benchmark I-O accounts (between 1947 and 1997, inclusive) were collected, which are prepared using the most detailed data sources available, generally the economic censuses. Trying to find the best balance between highly disaggregated industry classifications (which may exhibit a lot of random noise that would obscure the pattern of interest) and highly aggregated ones (which contain such a small number of cases that it may also be hard to identify underlying relationships), we created four scenarios reflecting different levels of aggregation across sub-industries. Scenario 1 is the most disaggregate level (containing 79-131 categories, depending

on year), while Scenario 4 is the most aggregate categorization, containing just the nine top-level industries. We analyzed correlations for five selected pairs of transportation and communications industry categories: the manufacturing pair (i.e., transportation manufacturing correlated with communications manufacturing), the utilities pair, the two manufacturing-utilities pairs, and the overall pair (all transportation manufacturing and utilities correlated with all communications manufacturing and utilities).

In this study the Spearman correlation is used, which is a nonparametric correlation measure. Since the input-output coefficients are not normally distributed, the Pearson correlation coefficients are not strictly appropriate. Using Spearman correlations, we conducted a cross-sectional analysis for each time period, and compared results across time based on the five sets of correlations between transportation and communications. Thus, 200 correlation coefficients in all are computed in this study (five sets for each of four scenarios for each of 10 benchmark years).

Key Results

These 200 correlations are plotted in Figure ES-1, and summarized in Tables ES-1 & ES-2. These summaries exhibit several interesting patterns. Since Scenario 1 is the most disaggregate level available for all 10 benchmark years, and the other scenarios are aggregated to varying degrees, Scenario 1 is the scenario closest to the level of the individual actors (companies). With that in mind, concentrating on Scenario 1 demonstrates a pattern of predominant complementarity for the manufacturing pair (10×11) and substitution for the utilities pair (13×14). For the other pairs, we see complementarity between transportation manufacturing and communications utilities (10×14) and substitution between transportation utilities and communications manufacturing (13×11) as well as between transportation and communications overall (30×31), although the first and last of those results are somewhat weakly based on only four significant correlations out of 10.

Closer scrutiny of Scenario 1 in Figure ES-1 reveals another striking pattern. For all five comparison pairs, the 1987 benchmark year marks a break of some kind with the preceding benchmark year. For the manufacturing pair (10×11), the 1987 correlation is substantially higher

than those of the adjacent benchmark years, and appears to mimic the peak-and-decline cycle observed to start 15 years earlier in 1972. For the utilities pair (13×14), transportation utilities – communications manufacturing pair (13×11), and “all” pair (30×31), 1987 marks the first positive (and strongly significant) correlation in the entire series (following seven that are either significant negative or essentially zero), with the remaining two correlations essentially zero. The picture for the transportation manufacturing – communications utilities pair (10×14) is slightly more complex (with a significantly positive correlation in 1963 as well as in the final two benchmark years), but shows a similar pattern in which 1987 has the first positive and significant correlation following a string of (four) negative or zero ones.

Whether the positive spikes at 1987 represent a long-term structural shift from substitution to complementarity or an anomalous year in a pattern that is returning to negative (or zero) is difficult to tell from the limited information in the following years. Certainly, it will be critical to examine the results for the 2002 benchmark year once they become available. For now, it must simply be stated that the dominant findings of substitution for the latter three of the five category pairs for Scenario 1 may be a historical artifact that is changing, since the single significant positive correlation in each of those three cases in the most recent year (1987) for which a coefficient in the series is significant.

This study has two main limitations. First, the relationships observed using a monetary basis may differ substantially from those based on measures of actual activity (such as volumes of communication or distance traveled). Second, we are identifying associations between communications and transportation inputs demanded, but that does not say anything about whether one actually causes the need for the other. However, there are a number of ways in which a causal relationship could plausibly occur (several examples are provided in the full report), so it is reasonable to expect the observed associations to have at least some causal foundation. Thus, despite these limitations, we believe the study offers a more informed view of the extent to which it is realistic to expect telecommunications to substitute for travel, at least in the industrial context, which constitutes a sizable proportion of the total demand for telecommunications and transportation. It further offers provocative insight into possible structural changes in the economic rela-

tionships between transportation and communications inputs to industry, beginning to be noticeable around 1987.

There are a number of fruitful directions for further research, including replication using the total input coefficients (accounting for an industry's indirect demand for communication and transportation, through its demand for other inputs that require them), using I-O accounts for the year 2002 as soon as they become available, using the even more disaggregate I-O accounts available electronically from 1982 onward, and analyzing industry specific correlations taken over time.

Table ES- 1. Definition of Each Category

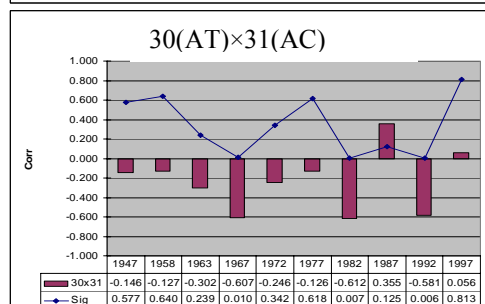
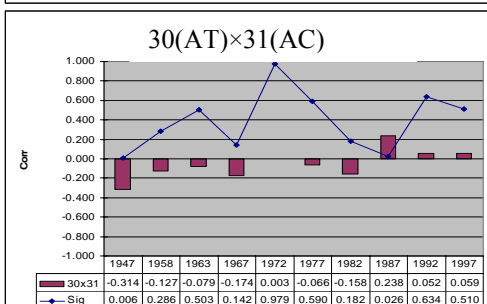
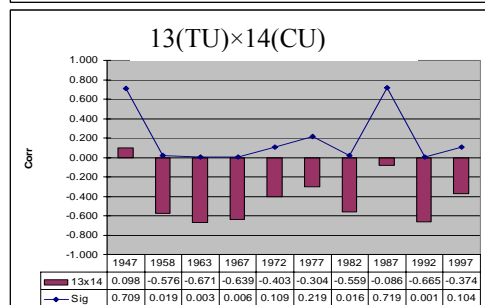
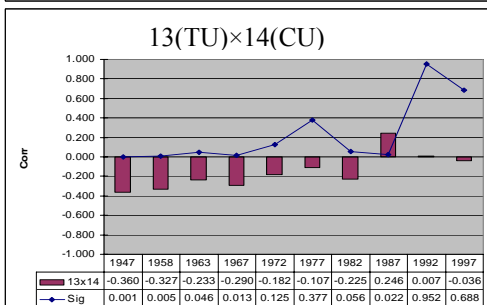
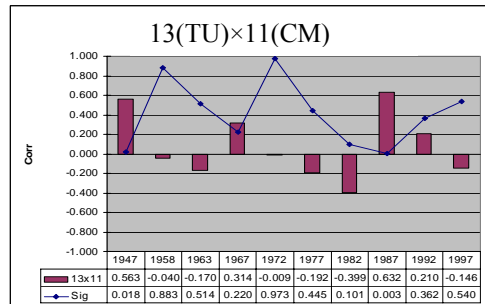
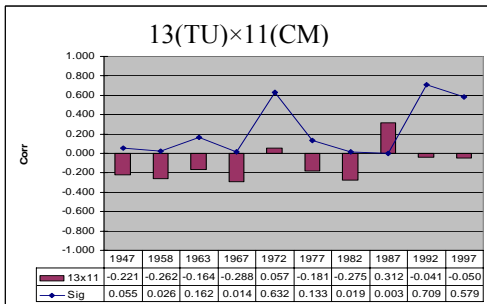
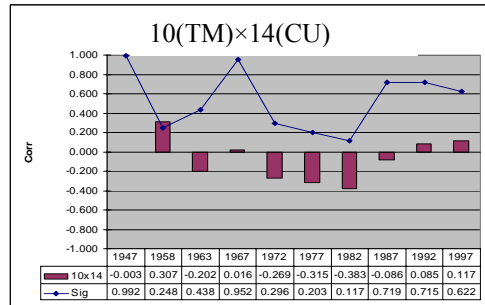
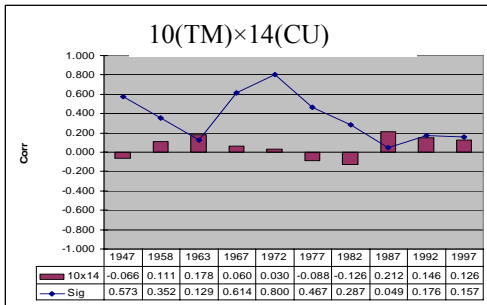
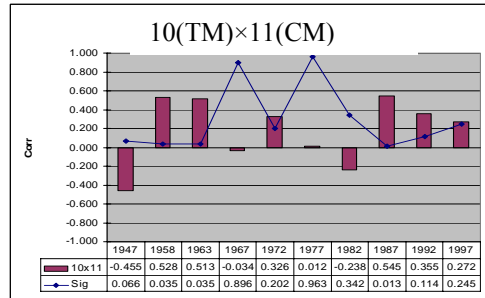
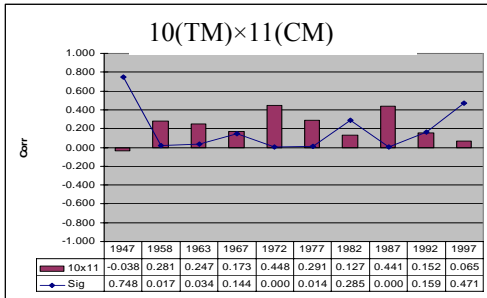
No.	Definition
10	Transportation Manufacturing
11	Communications Manufacturing
13	Transportation Utilities
14	Communications Utilities
30	All Transportation Manufacturing and Utilities (10+13)
31	All Communications Manufacturing and Utilities (11+14)

Table ES- 2. Numbers of Significant ($p=0.2$) Positive and Negative Spearman Correlations

Category Pairs		Scenario 1	Scenario 2	Scenario 3	Scenario 4	Total
10×11	+	7	5	8	7	27
	-	0	1	0	0	1
10×14	+	4	0	0	0	4
	-	0	2	3	1	6
13×11	+	1	3	3	5	12
	-	6	1	0	0	7
13×14	+	1	0	0	0	1
	-	6	7	8	3	24
30×31	+	1	1	2	1	5
	-	3	3	3	0	9

Notes: Scenario 1: The most disaggregate level (79-131 categories); Scenario 2: More aggregate level (18-29 categories); Scenario 3: Next most aggregate level (13 categories); Scenario 4: The most aggregate level (9 top-level categories).

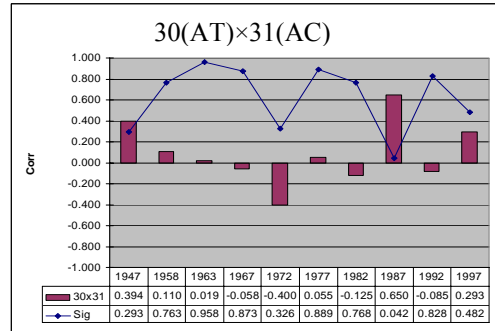
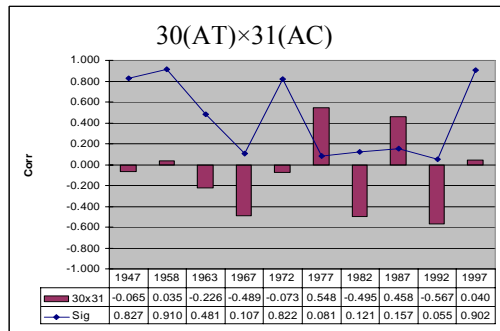
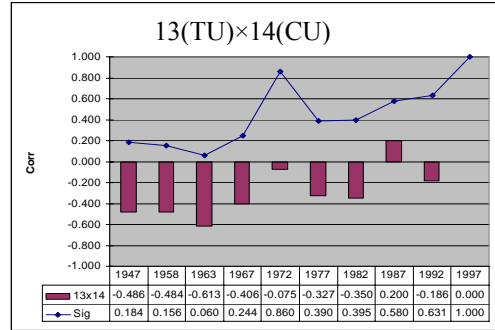
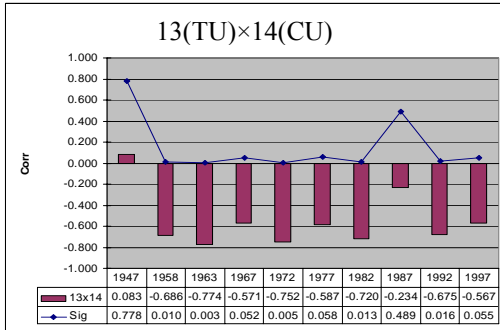
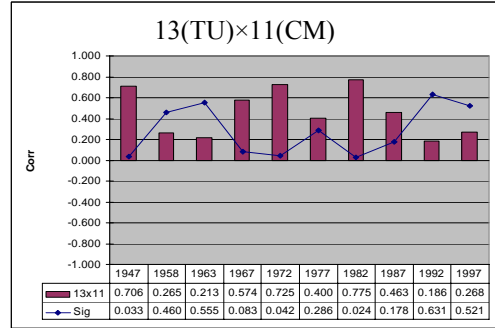
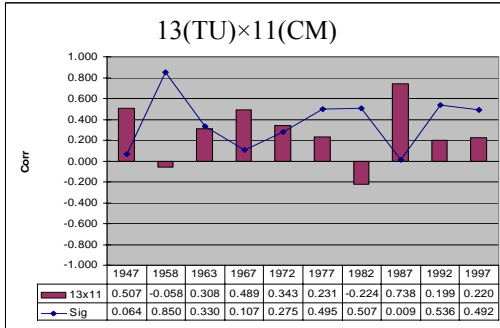
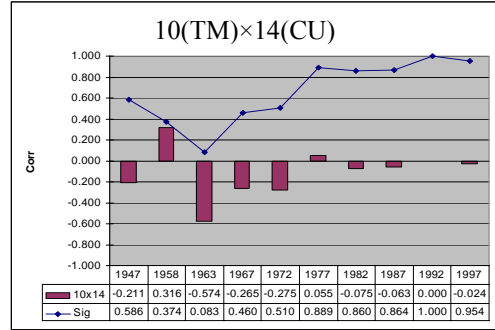
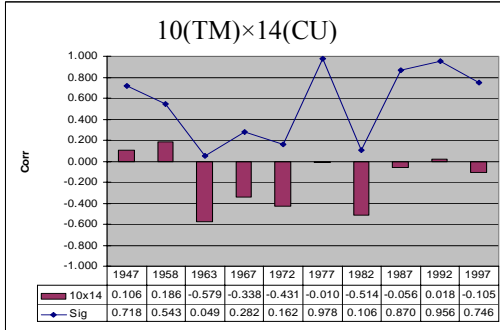
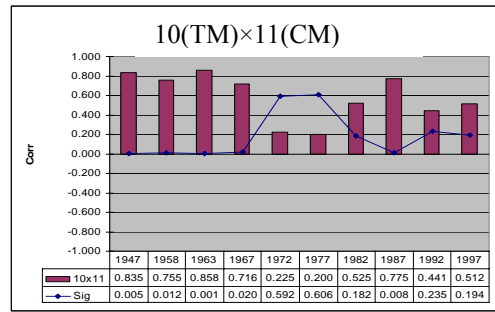
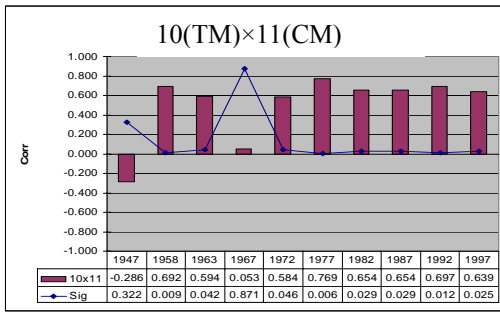
**Figure ES- 1. Spearman Correlations from Direct Coefficients Matrix, 1947-1997
Benchmark Years**



a. Scenario 1: The Most Disaggregate Scenario (79-131 categories)

b. Scenario 2: More Aggregate Scenario (18-29 categories)

Note: TM(10): Transportation Manufacturing; CM(11): Communications Manufacturing; TU(13): Transportation Utilities; CU(14): Communications Utilities; AT(30): All Transportation; CT(31): All Communications



c. Scenario 3: Next Most Aggregate Scenario (13 categories)

d. Scenario 4: The Most Aggregate Scenario (9 categories)

Note: TM(10): Transportation Manufacturing; CM(11): Communications Manufacturing; TU(13): Transportation Utilities; CU(14): Communications Utilities; AT(30): All Transportation; CT(31): All Communications

CHAPTER 1. INTRODUCTION

Investigation of the relationship between telecommunications and travel has been a fertile area of research for many years. More than four decades ago, Owen (1962) focused on the potential of telecommunications to replace travel, and noted that "... with the development of telegraph, telephone, radio, and television, communications no longer depend on transportation and are often an effective substitute" (p. 412). This expectation ultimately led to the establishment of several telecommuting programs, and empirical evaluations of those programs (e.g., Hamer *et al.*, 1991; Quaid and Lagerberg, 1992; Roads and Traffic Authority, 1995; Mokhtarian *et al.*, 1995) seemed to support the substitution prospect. While empirical evidence for other telecommunications applications was far more scarce, it was similarly expected that teleconferencing, teleshopping, distance learning, and other such services would also replace travel. In the meantime, however, some scholars (e.g., Albertson, 1977; Salomon, 1985; Mokhtarian, 1990, 2002; Niles, 1994) began to point out that substitution was not the only possible impact of telecommunications on transportation. In particular, it was argued that a very likely impact would be the generation of more travel, or complementarity. This effect could arise in two kinds of ways, which the literature (Salomon, 1986) labels enhancement and efficiency.

- Enhancement refers to a direct impact of one mode of communication (e.g., telecommunications) on the demand for another mode (e.g., travel). For example, the increasing ease of electronically obtaining information about interesting locations, activities, and people could stimulate the demand for travel to visit those locations or people and engage in those activities (Pierce, 1977; Gottman, 1983; Couclelis, 1999).
- Efficiency refers to the use of one mode (e.g., telecommunications) to improve the operation of another mode (e.g., the transportation network). The effect on demand is indirect in this case, by increasing the effective supply of transportation and hence, by lowering its (generalized) cost, making travel more attractive and thus increasing the demand for it.

Based partly on the favorable empirical results mentioned above, and partly on the optimism and opportunism endemic to public sector decision-making, a number of public policies have been promulgated on the assumption that telecommunications will be a useful trip reduction

instrument (e.g., Gordon, 1992, 1993, 1996; Castaneda, 1999; Joice, 2000). However, it has been suggested (Mokhtarian and Meenakshisundaram, 1999; Mokhtarian, 2002) that the empirical findings in support of substitution may be a consequence of the short-term, disaggregate, narrow focus of the typical telecommuting (or other application) evaluation, and that when the focus is broadened to examine all communications across the entire population over a period of time, it is more likely that a complementarity effect will emerge. Certainly, any plot of the aggregate amounts of communications and travel over time, at practically any geographic level (e.g., Grubler, 1989), illustrates that overall, they continue to rise together.

Given the favor with which telecommunications is viewed as a transportation demand management tool, it is important to better understand the nature of its relationship with travel, in order to determine whether the optimism about its substitution potential is misplaced. In particular, it seems vital to move beyond the small-scale evaluations of single applications such as telecommuting, to a more complete view of telecommunications activity in general. Such studies could be conducted at either the disaggregate or the aggregate level, and each approach has its advantages (Mokhtarian and Salomon, 2002): disaggregate studies have the potential to offer more insight into behavior-based causal relationships, whereas aggregate studies can offer a more comprehensive scope. The current study takes an aggregate approach.

Only a few aggregate studies have been conducted to date on this question. Selvanathan and Selvanathan (1994) examined three sectors of consumer demand, namely private transportation, public transportation, and communications, using a simultaneous equation system for consumer demand calibrated with annual consumption expenditures and population time series data (1960-1986) for the United Kingdom and Australia. They found that all three have pairwise relationships of substitution. Noting that industry accounts for 2/3 of total expenditures on transportation and communications, Plaut (1997) utilized input-output analysis¹ to investigate the relationships between communications and transportation as inputs to 44 different industry groups (including communications and transportation themselves) for nine countries of the European Commission in the year 1980. For all nine countries, she found generally positive correlations across

¹ Input-output analysis was first developed by Leontief (1936), and is widely used in planning processes in many countries. It is also used to investigate interrelationships among industries, and is commonly employed at national as well as regional levels. This approach is explained more fully in Chapter 2.

industries. That is, for the 44 industry groups overall, when communications inputs were high, transportation inputs also tended to be high, and conversely. She concluded that there was a complementary² relationship between communication and travel, at least for the industrial context.

Later, Plaut (1999) investigated the relationship between communications and transportation in Israel (in 1988), Canada (in 1991) and the United States (year not clearly specified). Her findings include complementary relationships for all the countries analyzed in the paper, although the format of the I-O accounts is different since each country uses a different set of industry categories. Therefore, both the number and content of industry categories corresponding to transportation and communications are not exactly the same across countries.

Thus, only one of these studies (Plaut, 1999) investigates (to some extent) the relationships for the case of the U.S., as part of an international comparison of Israel, Canada, the U.S. and Europe. However, the study analyzes only one year for the U.S., which is not specified. Further, with respect to the methodological approach, the study seems to be inconsistent (to some extent) in terms of comparing results across countries. For most countries, Plaut uses the Spearman correlation as the indicator of the relationship between transportation and communications inputs. The Spearman correlation is more appropriate than the more usual Pearson correlation because the Spearman correlation is a nonparametric measure. It compares the rank orders of the intensity of uses of both transportation and communications across industry branches, and makes no assumptions about the distribution of data, which is important since input-output coefficients are not normally distributed as use of the Pearson correlation requires. For the United States alone, however, the Pearson correlation is inexplicably used.

The purpose of this study is to explore the aggregate relationships between transportation and communications as industrial inputs in the U.S., using input-output accounts provided by the Bureau of Economic Analysis (BEA) in the U.S. Department of Commerce, and to compare results across time as well as across various scenarios that are based on the level of aggregation.

² As Plaut points out, this is a use of the term that technically differs from its conventional definition in microeconomics, but one that is similar in concept: an increase in the demand for one good is associated with an increase in the demand for the complementary good.

This study extends Plaut's work in several important ways. First, this study analyzes U.S. input-output tables for ten points in time within the period from 1947 to 1997. The years comprise the ten benchmark years for the I-O accounts for the U.S. economy during that period. The benchmark I-O accounts, which are published by the U.S. Department of Commerce, provide comprehensive accounting of the production of goods and services of each industry and commodity (Lawson *et al.*, 2002). The benchmark I-O accounts are now published every five years, with some exceptions in the early years, i.e., 1947, 1958, 1963, 1967, 1972, 1977, 1982, 1987, 1992, and 1997.

The attention to the temporal dimension, an aspect not addressed by Plaut, enables us to explore how economy-wide correlations (that is, correlations of communication and transportation input intensities across all industries) change over time. It provides insight into how the expansion of information technologies over time might be affecting the relative needs for communications versus transportation as industrial inputs (in particular, the 1980 European, 1988 Israeli, 1991 Canadian, and presumably the United States data studied by Plaut predate considerable development in the telecommunications industry, which may be facilitating greater substitution for transportation or stimulating greater complementarity).

Second, this study examines relationships not only between transportation and communications as utilities, as Plaut did, but also between transportation and communications manufacturing, and between manufacturing and utilities, which Plaut did not do. Specifically, interrelationships among six industry categories are analyzed in this study: (1) transportation manufacturing, (2) communications manufacturing, (3) transportation utilities, (4) communications utilities, (5) all transportation manufacturing and utilities (categories (1) + (3)), and (6) all communications manufacturing and utilities (categories (2) + (4)).

Third, the economic contribution-based weight (ECBW) is introduced in this study, which is applied to each I-O coefficient of the corresponding industry. That is, all I-O coefficients are weighted depending on the economic contribution of the output industry to the U.S. economy. Application of the ECBW results in more economically realistic relationships between

transportation and communications, compared to the unweighted correlation which gives each output industry equal weight regardless of its size.

This report is organized as follows. Chapter 2 presents an introduction to input-output analysis and its application to this study. Chapter 3 discusses the data collection regarding I-O accounts and manipulation of the data for analyses. Chapter 4 outlines the methodological approach for this study. Chapter 5 presents some potential specific relationships between transportation and communications, the empirical findings of this study, and its main limitations. Finally, conclusions and potential further studies are discussed in Chapter 6.

CHAPTER 2. INTRODUCTION TO INPUT-OUTPUT ANALYSIS AND ITS APPLICATION TO THIS STUDY

The first section of this chapter introduces the fundamental methodological concepts of input-output analysis, including the “direct coefficient matrix” and “total coefficient matrix”. In Section 2.2, several studies involving I-O analysis are briefly reviewed. The application of input-output analysis to this study is described in Section 2.3, including the presentation of table templates that illustrate what we are analyzing in this study.

2.1 Concept of the Input-Output Methodology

Input-output analysis was first introduced by Wassily Leontief (1936), and is widely used as a quantitative model for national and regional economic analysis. In general terms, input-output analysis offers a static view of the structural relationships among the different sectors of an economy (typically national, or regional) for a certain period of time, generally a year. It is emphasized that these relationships are expressed purely in monetary terms.

The input-output accounts consist of five basic tables: (i) make, (ii) use, (iii) commodity-by-industry direct requirements, (iv) commodity-by-commodity total requirements, and (v) industry-by-commodity total requirements. The *make table* (industry by commodity) presents the value in producers’ prices of each commodity produced by each industry. The row total for industry *i* constitutes the monetary value of industry *i*’s output across all commodities, and the column total constitutes the total value of the production of commodity *j* across all industries. The *use table* shows the value in producers’ prices of each commodity used by each industry or by each final user. The *commodity-by-industry direct requirements table* provides the input coefficients (i.e., the fractional amount of a dollar) for each commodity that an industry requires to produce a dollar of output. The *commodity-by-commodity total requirements table* shows the monetary value of the input amounts of each commodity *i* that are directly and indirectly required to deliver a dollar of commodity *j* to final users. The column total constitutes the dollar value across all commodity outputs required to deliver a dollar of commodity *j*, and is referred to as the *total commodity output multiplier* (e.g., it may require \$2.50 of all commodities added together

to deliver \$1 of commodity j to final users). Finally, the *industry-by-commodity total requirements table* presents input coefficients for the output from each industry i , which are directly and indirectly required to deliver a dollar of a commodity j to final users. The column total of this table constitutes the dollar value across all industry outputs required to deliver a dollar of commodity j , and is called the *total industry output multiplier*. Tables (iv) and (v) are similar, except that Table (iv) includes “non-comparable imports” that are not included in Table (v). Nevertheless, even though the output required to deliver a dollar of commodity to final users might include both imported and domestic commodities, the multipliers produced by both tables represent the output required as if all of the commodity were produced domestically. To the extent that commodities are imported, the multipliers will overstate the effect on the domestic economy of increasing the dollar-valued amounts of a given commodity delivered to final users.

The analysis in this study focuses on the direct coefficient matrix (commodity-by-industry), Table (iii). The direct coefficient matrix is derived from the following equation:

$$a_{ij} = \frac{X_{ij}}{X_j} \quad (2.1)$$

where a_{ij} is the input coefficient of the direct coefficient matrix, X_{ij} is the monetary value of inputs from sector i to sector j , and X_j is the monetary value of the gross output of sector j . Thus, the i - j th coefficient represents the monetary value of inputs from sector i that is required to produce a dollar of gross output in sector j . The input coefficients explain the producing structure of each industry, which implies an interrelationship among industries.

There are several basic assumptions in the input-output model:

- 1) Industrial output is homogeneous. This implies that every good produced by a certain industry has no quality distinction, and is regarded as equal and homogeneous.
- 2) For all industries, returns to scale are constant. This means that if the output produced by a certain industry were to increase or decrease by x percent, the inputs required by that industry also rise or fall by the same percentage.

- 3) Fixed production-function processes. This implies that all companies within a certain industry produce goods or services in the same way, i.e., requiring the same proportions of each input.
- 4) The technological nature of the input-output relationships is uniform. This means that no technological improvement is generated at least during the analysis period.

Of course, each of these assumptions is a simplification of a more complex reality.

2.2 Review of Selected Input-Output Literature

Many studies using I-O analysis in various fields have been implemented. More specifically, numerous studies have explored aspects of technological change using input-output analysis. However, the use of input-output methodological approaches in the transportation field is relatively limited. We focus mainly on those studies that address technological changes or have transportation applications.

After the groundbreaking contribution of Leontief (1936) in developing input-output methodologies, input-output tools have been widely utilized not only in planning processes (Sand, 1988; Szymer, 1986), but also in policy design (Baumol and Wolff, 1994). Further, the I-O model is used at the regional as well as the national level. Isard (1951) proposed the application of interregional and regional input-output analysis to reveal economic relations between and within two regions.

In the meantime, the basic I-O model was extended to the study of production technology in recent years. Studies in numerous fields have been conducted, such as the investment impact on productivity for the United Kingdom through the construction of the investment matrix (Gossling, 1975), and the impact of technological change (Miller *et al.*, 1989; Leontief, 1986). Duchin (1989) examined structural change in the U.S. economy, and suggested that the dynamic input-output model can be a good approach for analyzing the future economic implications of technological change. Blair and Wyckoff (1989) noted structural changes in the U.S. economy resulting from changes in final demand. Kanemitsu and Ohnishi (1989) concluded that production costs and prices of goods have been reduced by technological change in the Japanese

economy from 1970 to 1980. Leontief (1986) investigated the model's application to analysis of new patterns of technological change in the structure of the U.S. economy.

For the transportation industry in particular, Ferguson (1976) explored the inputs to the production of commercial air transportation in the U.S. in the years 1939 and 1947. The study investigated the correlations of other airline investments (other flight equipment (y); and property and equipment other than flight equipment (z)) with aircraft (x), and concluded there is a rigid complementary relation between aircraft (x) and other airline investments (y and z) since the coefficient of correlation in both cases is very high ($R_{x,y}$: 0.917, $R_{x,z}$: 0.911). Polenske (1974 and 1980) examined the transportation sector using I-O analysis. She conducted an interindustry I-O analysis to estimate the impact and economic forecasts of the transportation industry, and to explore regulatory changes. Further, Polenske advised a multiregional I-O approach to estimate the requirements of the transportation industry. Recently, a random-utility-based multiregional input-output (RUBMRIO) model has been introduced to explore the properties of solutions to many integrated land use-transportation models (Zhao and Kockelman, 2004).

In addition to the work of Plaut cited in the Introduction, some I-O studies of information and communications technology (ICT) are relevant. Uno (1989) found that information-based services became an important input for the service and manufacturing sectors, and that large amounts of industrial outputs are forwarded to service sectors. Finally, Saunders *et al.* (1994) pointed out that using input-output analysis to identify the relationship between telecommunications and economic activity might have potential problems: 1) lack of proper weighting by the proportions of total communications consumption by each industrial sector (for example, although the service and agriculture sectors consume 50% and 1% of all communications services, respectively, both sectors are treated as a single group without any weighting in the analysis) and 2) an inherent conceptual deficiency in the input-output approach (because the monetary value of transactions may not indicate the actual level of activities). We return to these limitations of I-O analysis later in this report (see Section 5.3).

2.3 Application of Input-Output Analysis to This Study

This section briefly presents the application of input-output analysis to this study. The direct coefficient matrix discussed in the previous section is used to analyze the relationship between transportation and communications. The major application of input-output analysis to this study is a cross-sectional analysis for each time period, comparing results based on correlations between transportation and communications across multiple points in time.

Let A_{Tjt} be the input coefficient (direct) of transportation for output industry j in year t , and similarly for A_{Cjt} for communications (“ T ” and “ C ” are generic indicators referring to transportation and communications; in application they could refer to transportation or communications utilities, manufacturing, or both). That is, for the direct table, A_{Tjt} is the dollar value of transportation required to produce one dollar of output of industry j in year t . $\underline{A}_{T\bullet t}$ and $\underline{A}_{C\bullet t}$ are the vectors of coefficients across industries for a given year.

To analyze correlations between transportation and communications using the direct coefficient matrix, the input coefficients of transportation and communications in the input-output matrix are utilized.

As shown in Figure 2-1, the basic indicator of interest to this study is:

$$Corr_j(\underline{A}_{T\bullet t}, \underline{A}_{C\bullet t}), \quad (2.2)$$

where $\underline{A}_{T\bullet t}$ is the transportation input coefficient vector across industries for time period t , $\underline{A}_{C\bullet t}$ is the communications input coefficient vector across industries for time period t , and $Corr_j$ means correlation across industry js . Thus, this analysis addresses the question: for a given year, what is the correlation across industries in the demand for transportation and communications? A positive correlation indicates complementarity (industries that require a lot of transportation also tend to require a lot of communications, and conversely); a negative correlation indicates substitution. We produce these cross-sectional correlations for each of the ten benchmark years between 1947 and 1997, and compare them across time. In Chapter 5 we present some examples

illustrating potential relationships between transportation and communications for specific subcategories (utilities and manufacturing).

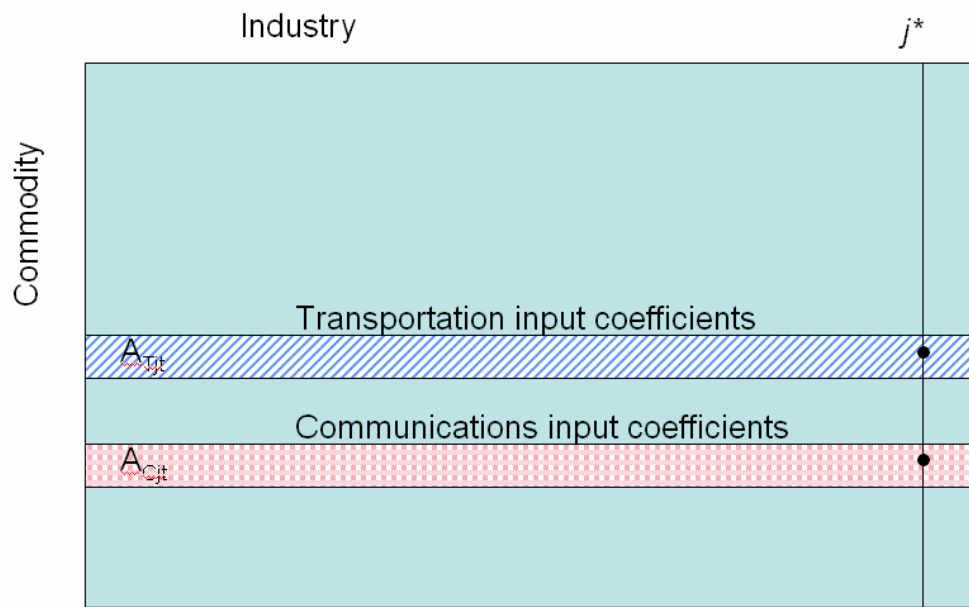


Figure 2- 1. Schematic Showing the Cross-Sectional Correlation between Transportation and Communications across Industries

CHAPTER 3. DATA COLLECTION AND MANIPULATION

This chapter explains how the input-output data set was collected and manipulated for use in this study. Section 3.1 discusses the collection of data related to the benchmark input-output accounts. Section 3.2 explains several ways in which the data in each table were manipulated for the analyses of this study.

3.1 Data Collection

Input-output matrices for the U.S. economy are available on the Internet (see www.bea.doc.gov/bea/dn2/home/i-o.htm) for the years 1982, 1987, 1992, 1996, 1997, 1998, and 1999. The I-O matrices fall into two different categories, benchmark and annual accounts. The benchmark I-O accounts are normally published every 5 years, whereas the annual accounts are extended and supplemented from the benchmark I-O accounts to fill in the remaining years (U.S. DOC, 1998). The website provides four benchmark I-O matrices as electronic files (spreadsheet or text types): 1982, 1987, 1992, and 1997. The annual I-O data sets from 1996 to 1999 are also available on the website. The older data are available only in paper-based versions published by the U.S. Department of Commerce.

A benchmark table is prepared using the most detailed data sources available, generally the economic censuses. Beginning in 1967, a benchmark I-O table has been prepared every 5 years to coincide with the quinquennial Economic Census. An annual table is an updated version of a previous benchmark table, using the current year data for output, and using the benchmark year interindustry relationships. For example, annual tables 1996-1999 are updated versions of the 1992 benchmark table, and the earlier 1961 table is also an updated version of the 1958 benchmark table. Furthermore, annual tables are published at a less detailed level, usually around 90 industries compared to the 400-500 industries in the benchmark tables. Due to these superior qualities of benchmark tables, and since an annual analysis is not necessary, we focused this study on the benchmark tables. We collected benchmark data that were published before 1982 from paper-based publications (*Survey of Current Business*, U.S. Department of

Commerce). Altogether, benchmark tables have been published for the following years: 1947, 1958, 1963, 1967, 1972, 1977, 1982, 1987, 1992, and 1997. The latest benchmark table, for 1997, was published in December of 2002.

The paper-based benchmark I-O data sets (U.S. DOC, 1965, 1969, 1970, 1974, 1979, 1984) had to be converted into electronic files for the analysis. A detailed description of the conversion procedure is presented in Section 3.2.1 of this chapter. The tables are based on a 97-industry classification, except for 1997 which has a 134-industry classification. For some parts of the analysis, we aggregated industries into coarser industry groups based, for example, on Standard Industrial Classification (SIC) codes. Four scenarios regarding the aggregation of data are presented in Section 3.2.2.

Table 3-1 briefly summarizes the status of the benchmark I-O tables that were collected from the BEA website³ and from the paper-based published versions. Moreover, the table also includes the annual I-O accounts (1961, 1981, 1982, 1983, 1984, 1996, 1997, and 1998) that were collected.

The classification of industries is not the same across the years. So, it is important to document the variations in the classification of industries to confirm whether the data for each industry should be adjusted for the analyses or not. Table 3-2 explains the variations in classification of industries across the years. Some industry categories are consolidated, or divided over time. We take the classification of the year 1967 to compare the classification of industries for each year group. For convenience of explanation, the three year groups are named Year Group 1 (1947-1967), 2 (1972-1982), and 3 (1987-1992), respectively. Furthermore, the table contains three categories of changes: “Consolidation,” “Division” and “Title changed”. In the “Consolidation” category, industries are consolidated from two industries to one industry (e.g., Industries #5 and #6 are consolidated from 1987). In the “Division” category, single industries are divided into two to five industries (e.g., Industry #65 (Transportation Utilities) is divided into five detailed industry categories). The detailed description and comparison for classification of industries in 1997 is presented in Appendix A.

³ <http://www.bea.doc.gov>

Table 3- 1. Description of Input-Output Accounts Collection

Reference Year	Pub. Year, Mo.	Status	Tables	Note	Year of Classification system ³
1947 (B) ¹	1970, Mar.	Hard Copy & Converted E-file	A. Interindustry Transactions B. Direct Requirements Per Dollar of Gross Output C. Total Requirements Per Dollar of Delivery to Final Demand	Got hard copy from Univ. of Illinois at Urbana Champaign	1947
1958 (B)	1965, Sep.	Hard Copy & Converted E-file	Same as above		1947
1961 (A) ² (1958 B)	1968, Jul.	Hard Copy	Same as above	Got hard copy from UC Berkeley	1947
1963 (B)	1969, Nov.	Hard Copy & Converted E-file	Same as above		1947
1967 (B)	1974, Feb.	Hard Copy & Converted E-file	Same as above		1947
1972 (B)	1979, Feb.	Hard Copy & Converted E-file	1. The Make of Commodities by Industries 2. The Use of Industries by Commodities 3. Commodity-by-Industry Direct Requirements 4. Commodity-by-Commodity Total Requirements 5. Industry-by-Commodity Total Requirements		1972
1977 (B)	1984, May	Hard Copy & Converted E-file	Same as year 1972		1972

Table 3- 1. — Continued.

	1981 (A) (1977 B)	1987, Jan.	Hard Copy	#1 and #2 (Make and Use Tables Only)		1972
1 9 8 2	<i>Hardcopy:</i> 1982 (A) (1977 B)	1988, Apr. (hard copy)	Hard Copy	Hard Copy: #1 and #2		1972
	<i>E-file:</i> 1982 (B)		Electronic File	E-file: #1 - #5 (text file)	E-file type: text file & spreadsheet file (transformed from text file using Matlab)	1972
	1983 (A) (1977 B)	1989, Feb.	Hard Copy	#1 and #2		1972
	1984 (A) (1977 B)	1989, Nov.	Hard Copy	#1 and #2		1972
	1987 (B)		Electronic File	Same as year 1972	E-file type: spreadsheet	1987
	1992 (B)		Electronic File	Same as year 1972	E-file type: spreadsheet	1987
	1996 (A) (1992 B)		Electronic File	Same as year 1972	E-file type: spreadsheet	1987
1 9 9 7	1997 (A) (1992 B)		Electronic File	Same as year 1972	E-file type: spreadsheet	1987
	1997 (B)				E-file type: text file & spreadsheet file (Redefinition)	1997
	1998 (A) (1992 B)		Electronic File	Same as year 1972	E-file type: spreadsheet	1987

Notes:

¹“(B)” in Reference Year means that the year has benchmark I-O tables.

²“(A)” in Reference Year means that the year has “Annual update” I-O tables. “(1958 B)” means that the annual data is updated from the 1958 benchmark.

³ Year of Classification System refers to the last time the industry classification system was updated. For example, the 1967 accounts still used the classification system of 1947, whereas the 1972 accounts revised the industry categories.

Table 3- 2. Variation of Classification of Industries ¹

	Year 1947 - 1967 (Group 1)	Year 1972 -1982 (Group 2)	Year 1987 - 1992 (Group 3)
Consolidation	[05, 06], [09, 10], [20, 21], [22, 23], [33, 34] and [44, 45].	Same as 1947-1967	Consolidated [05+06], [09+10], [20+21], [22+23], [33+34] and [44+45].
Division ²	26, 27, 29, 59, 65, 68, 69, 70, 71, 72, 73, 77	Same as 1947-1967	[26 → 26a, b], [27 → 27a, b], [29 → 29a, b], [59 → 59a, b], [65 → 65a, b, c, d, e], [68 → 68a, b, c], [69 → 69a, b], [70 → 70a, b], [71 → 71a, b], [72 → 72a, b], [73 → 73a, b, c, d] and [77 → 77a, b]
Title changed ³	59: Motor vehicles and equipment <i>59.01: Truck and bus bodies</i> <i>59.02: Truck trailers</i> <i>59.03: Motor vehicles and parts</i>	Same as 1947-1967	59a: Motor vehicles (passenger car and trucks) (“Motor vehicles” part of 59.03) 59b: identical with sum of 59.01, 59.02 and 59.03 (“parts” part only) (1967)
	73: Business services <i>73.01: Miscellaneous business services</i> <i>73.02: Advertising</i> <i>73.03: Miscellaneous professional services</i>	73: Business and professional services, except medical	73a: Computer and data processing services, including own-account software (73.0104 of 1972) 73b: Legal, engineering, accounting, and related services (73.0301-73.0303 of 1972) 73c: identical with 73.01 plus 73.03 (1967) 73d: identical with 73.02 (1967)
	74: Research and development (No data for year 1963 and 1967)	74: Eating and drinking places	74: Eating and drinking places
	80: Gross imports of goods and services	80: Noncomparable imports	80: Noncomparable imports
	81: Business travel, entertainment and gifts 82: Office supplies	Disappeared	Disappeared

¹ Based on the classification of year 1967.

² Refer to the tables of classification.

³ Minor word changes were not considered.

Table 3- 2. — Continued

	Year 1947 - 1967 (Group 1)	Year 1972 -1982 (Group 2)	Year 1987 - 1992 (Group 3)
Title changed	83: Scrap and secondhand goods	Changed to 81	Changed to 81
	84: Government industry	Changed to 82	Changed to 82
	85: Rest of the world industry	Changed to 83	Changed to 83
	86: Household industry	Changed to 84	Changed to 84
	None	85 (new): Inventory valuation adjustment	85 (new): Inventory valuation adjustment

Note: 1) Data availability in years 1947 and 1958: from Industry #1 to Industry #82 are available for both direct and total requirements tables (i.e., none of the data for Industries # 83 to #86 are available in 1947 and 1958).

2) Data availability in years 1963 and 1967: except for Industry #74, direct coefficients are available for Industry #1 to Industry #83, and total coefficients are available for Industry #1 to Industry #82 (i.e., none of the data for Industry #74 and from Industries #84 to #86 are available in 1963; none of the data for Industry #74 and Industries #83 to #86 are available in 1967).

Furthermore, some titles of industries are changed with division, as noted in Year Group 3 (e.g., Industry #59: Motor vehicles and equipment is changed into #59A: Motor vehicles [passenger cars and trucks] and #59B: Truck and bus bodies, trailers, and motor vehicle parts). In the case of Industry #74 (Research and Development), it has data only for years 1947 and 1958, and no data for years 1963 and 1967, then it disappears from Year Group 2. But a new Industry #74 (Eating and drinking places) appears from year 1972. Also, Industries #81 (Business travel, entertainment and gifts) and #82 (Office supplies) disappear from Year Group 2. In the case of #85 from Year Group 2, a new title was created (Inventory valuation adjustment).

Although the classification of industries is a little inconsistent, all of the changes are relatively minor, occurring within the major category (one of the nine industry categories). Therefore, there is no big problem for comparing industry categories across years from 1947 to 1992. In the meantime, the classification of industries in 1997 has been changed into a new classification format which is based on the NAICS (North American Industry Classification System). So, the comparison of industry categories using NAICS and SIC (Standard Industrial Classification) for unclear categories is presented in Appendix B, not only to clarify whether industry categories of the two classification systems are comparable with each other or not, but also to determine how unclear industry categories based on NAICS can be changed to industry categories based on SIC if the specific category of NAICS is not apparently matched to one in the SIC system.

3.2 Data Manipulation

For implementing our correlation analyses, the original tables needed to be manipulated. Three types of manipulation were conducted. Section 3.2.1 describes the conversion from paper to electronic. Section 3.2.2 discusses the classification of industries, focusing particularly on transportation and communications. Section 3.2.3 introduces four scenarios based on various levels of aggregation of industries that we analyzed throughout the study. In Section 3.2.4, the pairs of transportation and communications sub-industries selected for analysis are presented.

3.2.1 Conversion from Paper Tables to Electronic Files

Since the data sets that could only be collected in hard copy form (the six benchmark years from

1947 to 1977) had to be converted to electronic files, the following steps were implemented.

- Step 1: Photocopy all the tables of direct and total input-output coefficients.
- Step 2: Scan all the tables that were photocopied in Step 1, using Adobe Photoshop with the scanner.
- Step 3: Save all the tables in “tif” format.
- Step 4: Convert the scanned files into spreadsheet-type files using the OCR (Optical Character Recognition) software OmniPage Pro version 12.
- Step 5: Confirm the data set and correct if necessary.

Table 3-3 shows the number of pages of hardcopy material that were converted into electronic files. The page numbers in the table are the original pages in the applicable *Survey of Current Business* published by the U.S. Department of Commerce.

Table 3- 3. Number of Pages of Hardcopy Material to be Converted

Year	Direct Requirements Table	Total Requirements Table	Number of Pages
1977	pp. 63, 64, 65, 66, 67	pp. 73, 74, 75, 76, 77	10
1972	pp. 57, 58 ,59, 60, 61	pp. 67, 68, 69, 70, 71	10
1967	pp. 44, 45, 46, 47, 48, 49	pp. 50, 51, 52, 53, 54, 55	12
1963	pp. 36, 37, 38, 39, 40, 41	pp. 42, 43, 44, 45, 46, 47	12
1958	pp. 40, 41, 42, 43, 44	pp. 45, 46, 47, 48, 49	10
1947	pp. 21, 22, 23, 24, 25, 26, 27, 28, 29	pp. 30, 31, 32, 33, 34, 35, 36, 37, 38	18

Total: 72

In the process of conversion (Step 4), since the accuracy of the OCR translation was not perfect, a confirmation process was needed for every I-O table. Several undergraduate students were hired to check the data set, after an interview and a test designed to assess their accuracy and attention to detail. The assistants initially worked by themselves, i.e., one assistant identified the cells with errors, and corrected the cells one by one on the spreadsheet. Then another assistant double-checked not only the corrected cells but the cells without errors. Thus, all errors on each page were corrected by one assistant, and checked by someone else. For the final confirmation,

we randomly selected more than 30% of the cells, and confirmed their accuracy. Table 3-4 presents the distribution of error rates (percent of all cells on the page that had initial translation errors), with the estimated correction/checking time per page. In all, about 164 person-hours were required to complete the correction and checking process.

Table 3- 4. Estimated Correction and Confirmation Time Calculated Using Error Rate Distribution

Proportion of Cells with Errors	# of Pages	Time per Page (min)	Estimated Time (min)
0-5%	10	100	1000
6-10%	15	110	1650
11-20%	20	130	2600
21-30%	12	150	1800
31-40%	5	165	825
41-50%	5	185	925
More than 50%	5	200	1000
Total	72		9800

3.2.2 Industry Classification

There are nine aggregate industry categories in the input-output accounts. Among those categories, the manufacturing sector (#4) and the transportation, communications, and utilities sector (#5) have transportation and communications components. This study focuses on these sectors (#4 and #5), and more finely classifies the industries corresponding to both transportation and communications. Table 3-5 presents the original nine major industry categories, followed by the subcategories defined for our purposes. The manufacturing sector (#4) is divided into three categories (#10, #11 and #12 in our sequential numbering system): #10 (All Transportation Manufacturing), #11 (All Communications Manufacturing), and #12 (Manufacturing except Transportation and Communications). The transportation, communications, and utilities sector (#5) can also be classified into three categories: #13 (All Transportation Utilities), #14 (All Communications Utilities), and #15 (Utilities except Transportation and Communications). We refer to the transportation and communications manufacturing and utilities industries (i.e. #10, #11, #13, and #14) as “selected categories.”

The lower portion of the table lists the exact groups comprising each of the selected categories, for three different time periods: (1) 1987 and 1992 benchmark, (2) 1997 benchmark, and (3) 1947 through 1982 benchmark. For example, category #10, Transportation Manufacturing, is composed of five industry groups: #16 (Motor vehicles: passenger cars and trucks), #17 (Truck and bus bodies, trailers, and motor vehicles parts), #18 (Aircraft and parts), #19 (Other transportation equipment), and #20 (Petroleum refining and related products).

Finally, categories #30 and #31 constitute the aggregate (manufacturing plus utilities) categories for transportation and communications, respectively: #30 (All Transportation Manufacturing and Utilities, #10 + #13), and #31 (All Communications Manufacturing and Utilities, #11 + #14).

For more than sixty years, the Standard Industrial Classification (SIC) system constituted the basic typology of industries in the U.S. economy, so that the classification of industries in I-O accounts was also based on the SIC system. However, as mentioned in the previous section, the classification of industries in the I-O accounts of 1997 (and onward, when they become available) is based on the North American Industry Classification System (NAICS). Lawson *et al.* (2002, pp. 19-20) note the major changes in the 1997 benchmark I-O accounts. Specifically, the NAICS “provides the accounts with a more relevant system for classifying industries, especially for services, than its predecessor Standard Industrial Classification (SIC) system, which originated in the 1930s. As a result, the 1997 benchmark accounts provide greater detail on service industries—including those in the new sector ‘information,’ which accounted for 4.4 percent of total value added.”

Table 3- 5. — Continued

		(1) 1987 and 1992 Benchmark		(2) 1997 Benchmark (Redefined by using NAICS)		
23	65A	Railroads and related services; passenger ground transportation		23A	4820 Rail transportation	
				23B	4850 Transit and ground passenger transportation	
24	B	Motor freight transportation and warehousing		24A	4840 Trucking transportation	
				24B	4930 Warehousing and storage	
25	C	Water transportation		25	4830 Water transportation	
26	D	Air transportation		26	4810 Air transportation	
27	E	Pipelines, freight forwarders, and related services		27A	4860 Pipeline transportation	
				27B	48A0 Scenic and sightseeing transportation and support activities for transportation	
				27C	4920 Couriers and messengers	
				27D	5615 Travel arrangement and reservation services	
28	66	Communications, except radio and TV		28	5133 Telecommunications	
29	67	Radio and TV broadcasting		29A	5131 Radio and television broadcasting	
				29B	5132 Cable networks and program distribution	
30	All Transportation Manufacturing and Utilities		10+13	30	All Transportation Manufacturing and Utilities	10+13
31	All Communications Manufacturing and Utilities		11+14	31	All Communications Manufacturing and Utilities	11+14
(3) 1947 through 1982 Benchmark						
16+17	59	Motor Vehicles and Equipment				
18	60	Aircraft and parts				
19	61	Other transportation equipment				
20	31	Petroleum Refining and Related Products				
21	51	Computer and office equipment				
22	56	Audio, video, and communication equipment				
23~27	65	Transportation and Warehousing				
28	66	Communications, except radio and TV				
29	67	Radio and TV broadcasting				
30	All Transportations Manufacturing and Utilities		10+13			
31	All Communications Manufacturing and Utilities		11+14			

3.2.3 Four Scenarios Based on the Aggregation Level

An important decision in the analysis is the level of aggregation over which to take the correlation – i.e. the number of industries J , or the number of elements in the row vectors of Figure 2-1. The more disaggregate the industry classification (i.e. the larger J), the more that random variation at the “micro” level may obscure general tendencies; on the other hand, a very aggregate classification (small J) may combine so many industries, and result in such a small number of cases, that it is also difficult to detect underlying relationships.

This analysis will experiment with different levels of aggregation to identify what influence that has on the results. At one extreme, we retain the industries in their (nearly) most disaggregate form, ranging from 79 to 131 depending on year. At the other extreme, we analyze just the nine top-level industry categories. In between, we analyze two scenarios distinguished by how finely the transportation and communications industries are disaggregated, keeping the remaining industries in their most aggregate form. Thus, we have:

- Scenario 1: The most disaggregated data set is used (79-131 categories).
- Scenario 2: 18 aggregated industries are used from 1947 to 1982, 23 aggregated industries are used from 1987 to 1997.
- Scenario 3: 13 aggregated industries are used.
- Scenario 4: The most aggregated 9 industries are used.

Table 3-6 summarizes the data available for the ten benchmark years for four analysis scenarios. The number in each cell is the number of industry categories used for that scenario. Appendix C shows the schematic diagram for spreadsheets in MS Excel using sample year 1992, which explains how selected industry categories were calculated by using direct input-output coefficients from Scenario 1 to Scenario 4.

Table 3- 6. Number of Industry Categories in Each Scenario, for the Ten Benchmark Years

Scenario		1947	1958	1963	1967	1972	1977	1982	1987	1992	1997
Scenario 1	Direct	82 by 82	82 by 82	83 by 83	83 by 83	81 by 79	81 by 79	81 by 79	97 by 94	97 by 94	134 by 131
	Total	82 by 82	82 by 82	82 by 82	82 by 82	79 by 79	79 by 79	79 by 79	94 by 97	94 by 97	131 by 134
Scenario 2		18	18	18	18	18	18	18	23	23	29
Scenario 3		13	13	13	13	13	13	13	13	13	13
Scenario 4		9	9	9	9	9	9	9	9	9	9

- Note 1) The numbers in each cell are the number of industry categories used for that scenario.
 2) Years 1947 and 1958: Do not include Industry #83 (Scrap, Used & Secondhand Goods).
 3) Years 1963 and 1967: There is no Industry #74 (Research and Development) in both direct and total table, and there is no Industry #83 in the total table.
 4) For years 1987 and 1992, the last four rows (Industries #82, #83, #84, and #85) and the last three columns (Industries #82, #84, and #85) are entirely zero, and included in the direct table. Three columns (Industries #80, #81, and #83; entirely zero) are included in the total table.

The category numbers below correspond to those in Table 3-5.

Scenario 1: All industries (the most disaggregate case)

Scenario 2: 18 industries: 1 2 3 16+17 18 19 20 21 22 12 23+24+25+26+27 28 29 15 6 7 8 9

23 industries: 1 2 3 16 17 18 19 20 21 22 12 23 24 25 26 27 28 29 15 6 7 8 9

Scenario 3: 13 industries: 1 2 3 10 11 12 13 14 15 6 7 8 9

Scenario 4: 9 industries: 1 2 3 4 5 6 7 8 9

3.2.4 Selected Industry Categories for Analyses

The direct I-O accounts are manipulated to obtain the correlation coefficients among five pairs of the following six selected categories:

- Selected Category #10: All Transportation Manufacturing (16+17+18+19+20)
- Selected Category #11: All Communications Manufacturing (21+22)
- Selected Category #13: All Transportation Utilities (23+24+25+26+27)
- Selected Category #14: All Communications Utilities (28+29)
- Selected Category #30: All Transportation Manufacturing and Utilities (10+13)
- Selected Category #31: All Communications Manufacturing and Utilities (11+14)

Specifically, as shown in Figure 3-1, we analyze the pairwise correlations of each transportation sub-category with each communications sub-category, and the two overall categories, namely Corr (#10, #11), Corr (#10, #14), Corr (#11, #13), Corr (#13, #14), and Corr (#30, #31). Plaut (1999), by contrast, only analyzed Corr (#13, #14) for one year.

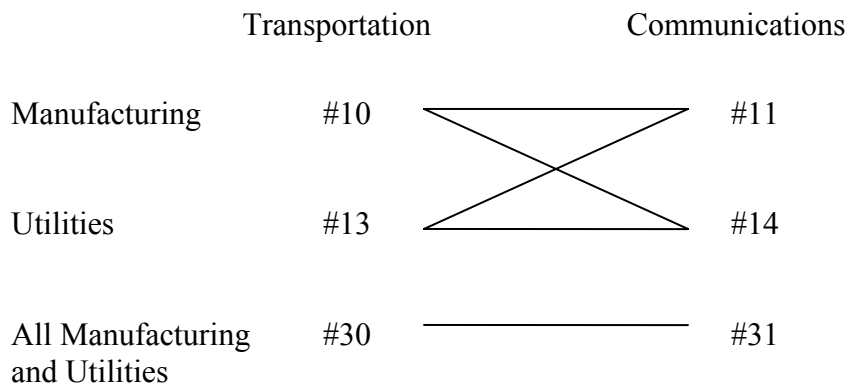


Figure 3- 1. Selected Pairwise Correlations of Industry Categories of Transportation and Communications

CHAPTER 4. METHODOLOGICAL APPROACH

This chapter describes several key aspects of the analysis methodology. Section 4.1 explains the column normalization of the I-O accounts, which is needed for creating the aggregated Scenarios 2, 3, and 4. Section 4.2 introduces the weighting factors named ECBWs (Economic Contribution-Based Weights), which are applied to every I-O account to weight each industry according to its economic contribution. Section 4.3 discusses the Spearman correlation coefficient, and how it is interpreted.

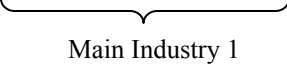
4.1 Column Normalization of the I-O Accounts

As discussed in Section 3.2.3, the aggregated Scenarios 2, 3, and 4 are created to consolidate the industries other than transportation and communications, while examining both finer and coarser levels of the industries corresponding to transportation and communications. As presented in Table 3-5, there are nine top-level industries, which are numbered from 1 to 9 in the table. So, Scenario 4 is the most aggregate among the four scenarios, consisting of just the nine main industries. Scenarios 2 and 3 are created to see the difference between finer and coarser aggregation of the transportation and communications sub-industries of Industries #4 and #5 in the table, holding the other industries at the top-most level of aggregation. These particular scenarios are created and analyzed to investigate whether changing the level of aggregation produces different patterns of relationship between transportation and communications.

As shown in Figure 4-1, suppose that in Scenario 1, $J=94$ and $j = 1, 2, 3, 4$ indexes the sub-industries of main industry 1 (Agriculture, Forestry, and Fisheries). Then, since $a_{Tj} = \$$ value of T needed to produce \$1 of output in sub-industry j , $\sum_{j=1}^4 a_{Tj} = \$$ value of T needed to produce \$4 of output in the Agriculture, Forestry, and Fisheries industry. It can easily be seen that the aggregation process will distort the “unit” interpretation of the input coefficients (especially since each main industry comprises a different number of sub-industries), unless it is corrected.

T	a_{T1}	a_{T2}	a_{T3}	a_{T4}	...

C	a_{C1}	a_{C2}	a_{C3}	a_{C4}	...



Main Industry 1

Figure 4- 1. Schematic of Sub-industries Comprising a Main Industry

Thus, the aggregate coefficients are normalized by dividing them by the number of sub-industries being aggregated, so that each normalized coefficient a_{ij} still represents the \$ value of industry i needed to produce \$1 of output from (aggregated) industry j .

4.2 Economic Contribution-Based Weight (ECBW)

Although the unit interpretation of the input coefficient is important in many conventional applications of I-O analysis, it is problematic in our context of investigating the relationship between transportation and communications across industries. The reason is that we would like for the resulting correlation to give us an economy-wide picture of the general relationship between transportation and communications. But the unit interpretation of the individual a_{ij} s distorts that picture by giving each industry j equal weight in the correlation (i.e., by being tied to \$1 of output in industry j), regardless of whether j constitutes an enormous portion of the overall economy, or a tiny one. To correct this, we need to weight each input coefficient by the dollar value of the contribution of the “receiving” industry (j) to the overall economy.

Thus, this study introduces the economic contribution-based weight (ECBW) that is applied to each I-O coefficient of the corresponding industry. The ECBW is created by using the total value of production of each industry. Since the Make table of the I-O accounts provides the

monetary value (in millions of dollars at producers' prices) of production of each commodity (column) by each industry (row), the row-sum is the total value of production (across all commodities) of each industry. Thus, the proportion of total economic production attributable to

industry j is $\frac{X_j}{\sum_{j'=1}^N X_{j'}}$,

where j : Industry index

X_j : Total value of production of industry j (j th row-sum of the Make table)

N : Number of industries contributing non-zero production to the economy.

Since the standard error of the test statistic decreases with increasing sample size, artificially inflating the sample size would artificially improve the precision of the estimated correlations, making it easier to find statistical significance when in fact there was none. Thus, to preserve the validity of the statistical tests, applying the weights should ideally leave the overall sample size unchanged. That is, the sum of the ECBWs should be equal to N , the number of industries contributing non-zero weight. Accordingly, we initially weighted each output industry j by

$$ECBW_j = \frac{X_j}{\sum_{j'=1}^N X_{j'}} \times N, \quad (4.1)$$

so that $\sum_{j=1}^N ECBW_j = N$. For example, in Scenario 1, the sum of the ECBWs was equal to 93 (=N) in 1992. For Scenarios 2, 3, and 4 the sums of the ECBWs were 23 (for 1987 through 1997; see Table 3-6 for other years), 13, and 9, respectively. Using the "Weight Cases" option in SPSS, the j th economic contribution-based weight is applied to the j th element of the T and C I-O coefficient vectors. The ECBWs obtained in this way, of Scenarios 2 through 4 for the ten benchmark years (1947-1997), are shown in Appendix D.

This approach proved to pose a problem, however. The weights need to be integer-valued, so SPSS rounds them up or down to the nearest integer before applying them (and then simply replicates the observation that integer number of times in the calculation). This reduced the precision of the weights considerably, and in particular, weights less than 0.5 were rounded

down to zero, removing those industries from the calculation entirely. Multiplying the ECBWs by a large constant, e.g. 100, would eliminate that problem, but would render the statistical tests of significance of the correlations invalid, as mentioned above. Arguably, the original approach is a reasonable first-order approximation to computing the correlation, since industries with relatively small contributions to the economy would in any case contribute little to the calculation. In fact, comparisons of the values of the correlations computed both ways (with weights calculated from equation (4.1) and with weights 100 times those) found no differences in sign for statistically significant correlations. Thus, we believe that the more reliable hypothesis-testing properties of the original approach makes it preferable, and those are the results presented in Section 5.2.

4.3 Interpretation of Correlation Coefficients

The “Spearman correlation analysis” module of the statistical analysis software package SPSS (Version 11.0) produces the correlation coefficients, with p-values, for the five combinations described in Section 3.2.4, across the ten benchmark years and four scenarios that are based on the aggregation levels mentioned in Section 3.2.3. Therefore, the statistically significant correlation coefficients of each combination, which can be positive or negative, can be used for examining the relationships between transportation and communications. In view of the relatively small number of cases over which the correlation is taken here (9 for Scenario 4; 13, 18-29, and 81-131 for Scenarios 3, 2, and 1, respectively), we take a p-value less than or equal to 0.2 as indicating a statistically significant relationship. Although this is a more relaxed criterion than usual, it is still within the bounds of acceptable practice. For example, in the context of estimating the coefficients of discrete choice models, a t-statistic cutoff of 1.0 (in magnitude) or higher has been recommended (Horowitz *et al.*, 1986), which roughly corresponds to a p-value of 0.3. Our standard of 0.2 still gives an overwhelming (80%) probability of being right when the null hypothesis of no correlation is rejected, and allows us more readily to see broad patterns in the data.

Following Plaut (1997), we use the Spearman correlation rather than the Pearson correlation in this analysis. The Spearman correlation is a nonparametric correlation measure. Since the input-output coefficients are not normally distributed, the Pearson correlation coefficient is not strictly appropriate. In our context, the equation of the Spearman rank correlation is

$$r_s = \frac{\sum (R_{jC} - \bar{R}_C)(R_{jT} - \bar{R}_T)}{\sqrt{\sum (R_{jC} - \bar{R}_C)^2 \sum (R_{jT} - \bar{R}_T)^2}}, \quad (5.2)$$

where R_{jC} is the rank of the j th element of the vector $\underline{A}_{C \bullet i}$, R_{jT} is the rank of the j th element of the vector $\underline{A}_{T \bullet i}$ ($R_{jC}, R_{jT} \in \{1, 2, \dots, J\}$), \bar{R}_C is the mean of the ranks R_{jC} ($\bar{R}_C = \frac{\sum_{j=1}^J R_{jC}}{J}$) and \bar{R}_T is the mean of the ranks R_{jT} . Here, the smallest value in the vector gets rank #1, and the largest value in the vector gets rank #J.

An above-average rank R_{jC} means that industry j requires a relatively large communications input, compared to the average industry. Thus, the interpretation of the Spearman correlation coefficient is similar to that of the Pearson coefficient, except based on ranks rather than the original values: if, when R_{jC} is above average ($R_{jC} > \bar{R}_C$), R_{jT} tends to be as well (or if when R_{jC} is below average, R_{jT} tends to be as well), the numerator and hence r_s will be positive. Conversely, if, when R_{jC} tends to be above average R_{jT} tends to be below average, then the numerator and hence r_s will be negative.

In this study, a Spearman correlation coefficient can indicate two different relationships, complementarity and substitution. If the correlation coefficient is positive, it implies that the relationship between the two categories is complementarity because the two inputs tend to be used together. For example, the more (or the less) industries require transportation utilities, the more (or the less) industries require communications utilities. On the other hand, if a correlation coefficient is negative, it means the relationship between the two inputs is substitution: industries that require more of the one tend to require less of the other.

CHAPTER 5. HYPOTHESES AND RESULTS

We have referred throughout this report to the possible relationships between transportation and communications, particularly substitution and complementarity. Before turning to the results of this study, it is useful to bring some concreteness to those potential relationships, by suggesting specific ways in which substitution and complementarity might occur for the industrial inputs of transportation and communications. Thus, in Section 5.1 of this chapter, we provide prospective examples of each type of relationship. In Section 5.2 we present the results of the cross-sectional analysis using the direct coefficients matrix. Section 5.3 briefly describes the limitations of this analysis.

5.1 Hypotheses

As indicated earlier, in this study we analyze transportation and communications manufacturing inputs as well as utilities inputs. Each transportation category could be related to each communications category, for four possible relationships. Since each relationship could be either substitution or complementarity (if there is a significant relationship at all), there are eight types of relationships that might underlie the empirical results. Tables 5-1 and 5-2 provide examples of relationships, to illustrate the mechanisms that might be at work within industries (see, e.g., Niles, 1994). All of these relationships are plausible, and so it is reasonable to hypothesize that either substitution or complementarity might be the outcome in any given case. We might also see shifts over time, as one or another of the particular mechanisms becomes stronger.

Since the data analyzed in this study span a 50-year time period (from 1947 to 1997), to put the examples of Tables 5-1 and 5-2 in context it is useful to review some key milestones in the development of telecommunications technologies:⁴

- Electrical telegraph: A system that uses electric signals to transmit written messages without the physical transport of letters. The British “needle” telegraph was in use by 1830, but the first practical electrical telegraph system (including the “Morse Code” for transmission) was developed in 1844 by Samuel Morse and Alfred Vail.

⁴ www.encyclopedia.thefreedictionary.com and www.blinkenlights.com, accessed May 19, 2004.

Table 5- 1. Examples of Potential Relationships between Transportation and Communications (Substitution)

Impacts on Examples	Transportation		Communications	
	Manufacturing	Utilities	Manufacturing	Utilities
Substitution				
Fax, email replacing physical delivery of documents	Less gasoline	Less use of delivery services	More fax equipment and computers	More use of phone service
Telephone, videoconferencing replacing physical passenger travel	Less gasoline, fewer company cars	Less air travel	More videoconferencing and network equipment	More use of phone service
Newspaper contents transmitted by satellite and printed locally rather than physically shipped long distances	Less gasoline, smaller company fleets	Less use of freight transporters	More computers, satellites	More use of satellite and other network services
Remote sensing devices replacing human data collection	Less gasoline		More remote sensing terminals, network equipment	More use of communications services
Information-sharing enabled by ICT permitting more freight load consolidation and efficient routing	Less gasoline, fewer delivery vehicles	Less use of delivery services	More computers, network equipment	More use of communications services

- Telephone: Although Alexander Graham Bell is widely associated with the origin of the telephone in 1876, the Italian inventor Antonio Meucci is officially credited with its invention in 1849. Telephone is still the most popular and widely used communications technology, which transmits speech as well as data by means of electric signals.
- Fax: Referring to a means of transferring photocopies (or “facsimiles”) of documents over the telephone network, the original technology was invented in 1929 by Rudolf Hell, although it did not become popular until the 1980s.
- Email: Electronic mail started in 1965, which actually predates the Internet. Email was an essential tool in building the Internet. It has become increasingly popular from the late 1980s onward, and is used for routine communications by many if not most American adults today.
- PC: The first personal computer was the “Apple I”, introduced in 1976. In 2001, about 56.5 percent of the U.S. households had personal computers (U.S. DOC, 2002).

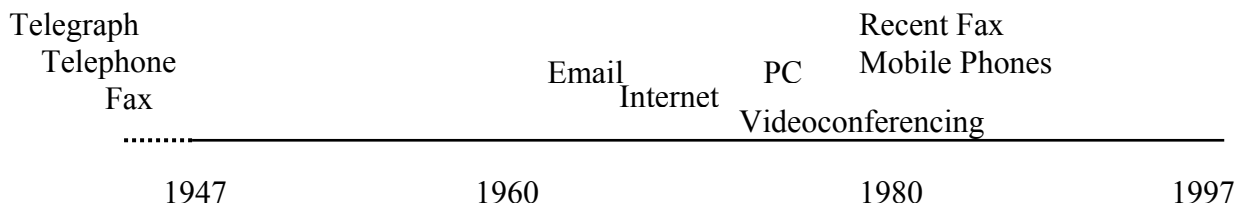
Table 5- 2. Examples of Potential Relationships between Transportation and Communications (Complementarity)

Impacts on Examples	Transportation		Communications	
	Manufacturing	Utilities	Manufacturing	Utilities
Complementarity				
ICT permits decentralization of organizations (e.g. detachment of back office functions), increasing travel between dispersed sites	More gasoline, more transportation vehicles	More use of transport services	More ICT equipment	More use of communication services
Increasingly global markets involving both more international business travel and more communications	More gasoline, airplanes	More use of air transport services	More ICT equipment	More use of communication services
Global supply chains requiring components produced from around the world	More gasoline	More use of transport (ground, air, and marine) services	More phone, fax, and computer equipment	More use of phone and Internet services
Establishing and operating factory in developing country where labor is cheaper		More use of transport (air or marine) services	More phone, fax, and communications equipment	More use of phone and Internet services
Increased demand for “just-in-time” deliveries made possible by ICTs results in <i>less</i> efficient deliveries and less full loads	More gasoline	More use of delivery services		More use of ICT services
Increased efficiency permitted by ICTs frees time for more business travel	More gasoline	More air travel, more freight transport services needed as business expands	More communications equipment needed as business expands	More use of ICT services as business expands
ICTs improve the operations efficiency of the transportation network, decreasing the effective cost of travel and therefore increasing its demand	More gasoline, transportation vehicles	More use of transport services	More ICT equipment	More use of ICT services

- Internet: The core network technology was built in 1969 as the ARPANET (Advanced Research Projects Agency Network) of the U.S. Department of Defense. On January 1, 1983, the ARPANET changed its core networking protocols from NCP (Network

Control Program) to TCP/IP (Transmission Control Protocol), launching today's Internet. The worldwide web (WWW), which is the hypertext system that operates over the Internet, was released in 1991. About 50.5 percent of the U.S. households in 2001 had Internet connections (U.S. DOC, 2002).

- Mobile phone: The technology for wireless voice communications beyond the short-range has existed since the 1950s. However, mobile phones started becoming popular in the 1980s with the introduction of “cellular phones”.
- Videoconferencing: Videoconferencing uses the public telephone network, a dedicated private telecommunications network, or, most recently, the Internet to transmit visual images (up to full motion real-time video) among meeting participants in different physical locations. Videoconferencing technology has been commercially available since about the late 1970s (U.S. DOC, 1977). It has undergone considerable improvement since the 1980s, but its adoption and use remain somewhat limited even today.



5.2 Results

This section describes the results of the cross-sectional analysis of the direct tables. Recall that the direct input coefficient represents the dollar amount of commodity i directly required by industry j to produce a dollar of its output. This coefficient can be taken from the “commodity-by-industry direct coefficient matrix” table of the input-output accounts (industries and commodities constitute essentially the same categories; the term used depends on the particular emphasis of the context). We compute the Spearman (non-distributional) correlations between direct coefficients, A_{Tjt} and A_{Cjt} , over j , to conduct a cross-sectional analysis for each time period t . Furthermore, we compare results across time based on the five sets of correlations described in Section 3.2.4, for Scenarios 1-4. Consequently, 200 correlation coefficients in all are computed in this study (5 correlations / year \times 10 years \times 4 scenarios).

Figures 5-1a through d graphically show the Spearman correlation coefficients, together with their significance levels (p-values), for the four scenarios representing different levels of industry aggregation. Each figure contains five comparison graphs along the ten benchmark years⁵. The correlation coefficients fall between -1 and 1. As explained in previous chapters, if the value is negative, the relationship between transportation and communications constitutes substitution. If the value is positive, the relationship represents complementarity. P-values fall between 0 and 1; if the p-value is close to zero, the coefficient is statistically significant, meaning statistically different from zero. For example, if the p-value is 0.098, we are 90.2% sure of being right if we reject the null hypothesis of no correlation.

Table 5-4 summarizes the numbers of significant positive and negative Spearman correlations for each of the five sets of correlations (i.e. 10x11, 10x14, 13x11, 13x14, and 30x31; refer to Table 5-3) and each of the four scenarios (ranging from the most disaggregate to the most aggregate groupings of industries). Of course, the number of significant coefficients varies according to the significance level chosen. Here, because of our small sample size and the exploratory nature of our study, we use the relatively generous 80% confidence level (corresponding to $p = 0.2$) as our threshold for significance.

Table 5-4 summarizes the numbers of significant positive and negative Spearman correlations for each of the five sets of correlations (i.e. 10x11, 10x14, 13x11, 13x14, and 30x31; refer to Table 5-3) and each of the four scenarios (ranging from the most disaggregate to the most aggregate groupings of industries). Of course, the number of significant coefficients varies according to the significance level chosen. Here, because of our small sample size and the exploratory nature of our study, we use the relatively generous 80% confidence level (corresponding to $p = 0.2$) as our threshold for significance.

⁵ These figures show all ten benchmark years on one graph, one graph for each comparison pair, grouped by scenario. To facilitate other analyses, Figures 1-10 of Appendix E present one graph for each comparison pair, with all four scenarios on one graph, grouped by year; and Figures 11-15 present one graph for each year, with all four scenarios on one graph, grouped by comparison pair.

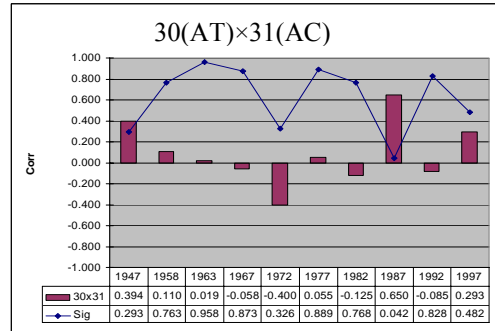
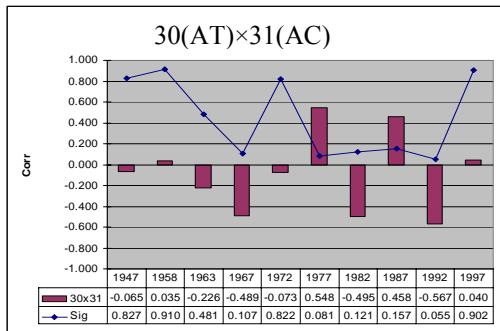
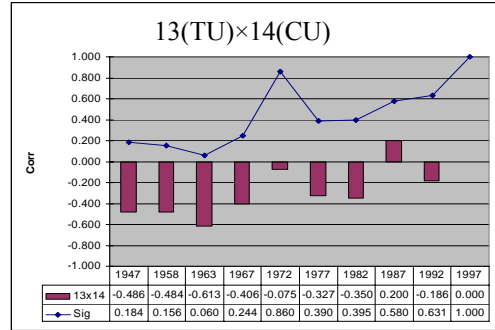
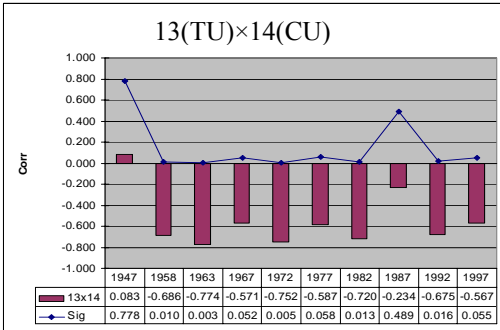
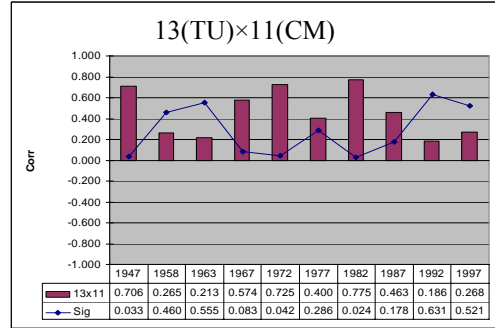
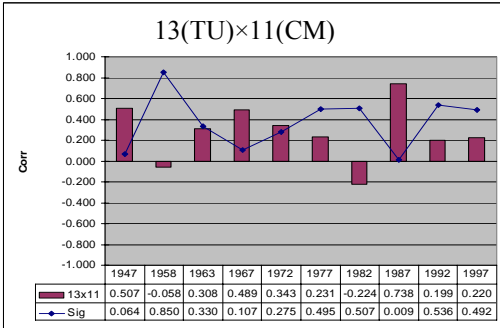
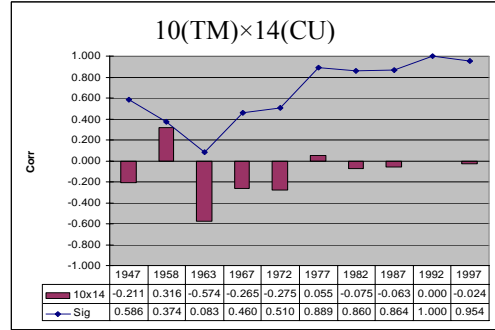
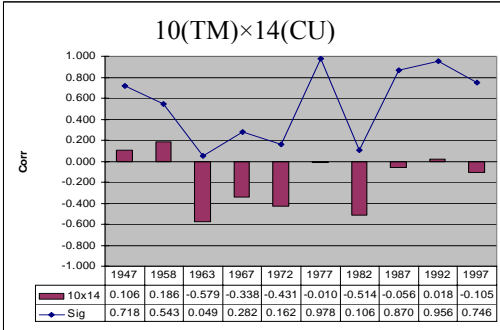
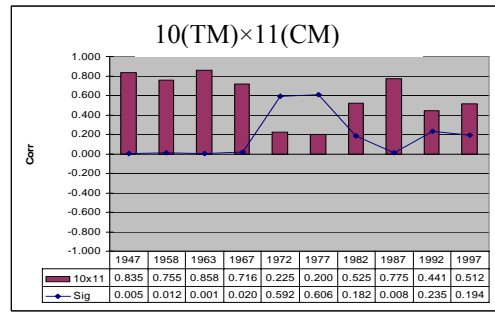
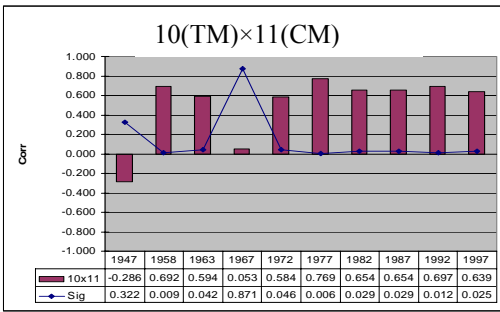
**Figure 5- 1. Spearman Correlations from Direct Coefficients Matrix, 1947-1997
Benchmark Years**



a. Scenario 1: The Most Disaggregate Scenario (79-131 categories)

b. Scenario 2: More Aggregate Scenario (18-29 categories)

Note: TM(10): Transportation Manufacturing; CM(11): Communications Manufacturing; TU(13): Transportation Utilities; CU(14): Communications Utilities; AT(30): All Transportation; CT(31): All Communications



c. Scenario 3: Next Most Aggregate Scenario (13 categories)

d. Scenario 4: The Most Aggregate Scenario (9 categories)

Note: TM(10): Transportation Manufacturing; CM(11): Communications Manufacturing; TU(13): Transportation Utilities; CU(14): Communications Utilities; AT(30): All Transportation; CT(31): All Communications

Table 5- 3. Definition of Each Category

No.	Definition
10	Transportation Manufacturing
11	Communications Manufacturing
13	Transportation Utilities
14	Communications Utilities
30	All Transportation Manufacturing and Utilities (10+13)
31	All Communications Manufacturing and Utilities (11+14)

Table 5- 4. Numbers of Significant (p=0.2) Positive and Negative Spearman Correlations

Category Pairs		Scenario 1	Scenario 2	Scenario 3	Scenario 4	Total
10×11	+	7	5	8	7	27
	-	0	1	0	0	1
10×14	+	4	0	0	0	4
	-	0	2	3	1	6
13×11	+	1	3	3	5	12
	-	6	1	0	0	7
13×14	+	1	0	0	0	1
	-	6	7	8	3	24
30×31	+	1	1	2	1	5
	-	3	3	3	0	9

Notes: Scenario 1: The most disaggregate level (79-131 categories); Scenario 2: More aggregate level (18-29 categories); Scenario 3: Next most aggregate level (13 categories); Scenario 4: The most aggregate level (9 top-level categories). Each scenario-category pair combination has ten correlations, one for each benchmark year, for a total of 40 correlations per category pair. Thus, the number of insignificant correlations can be deduced by subtraction in each case (e.g., 12 for the 10×11 pair, 30 for 10×14, and so on).

The transportation manufacturing and communications utility pair (10×14) and transportation utility and communications manufacturing pair (13×11) present mixed patterns (as can also be seen in Figure 5-1), with relatively fewer significant correlations overall, and a closer balance between positive and negative correlations for those that *are* significant. This result might be expected since the potential relationships in Section 5.1 include both substitution and complementarity. In other words, since either sign is plausible, it is not surprising that effects in each direction could frequently cancel and that significance in both directions can be found. Thus, our assessment of this result would be “mixed effects” rather than “no effects”.

Furthermore, the relationship (30×31) between all transportation manufacturing and utilities (30) and all communications manufacturing and utilities (31) presents a similarly indistinct pattern,

with many insignificant correlations and mixed signs for those that are significant. Given the results for the constituent industries described above, this is not surprising. Although the pattern is not strong due to the large number (65%) of insignificant results, the number of negative values (9) does outweigh the number of positive values (5), which could be interpreted to mean that the overall relationship between transportation and communications might be closer to substitution — at least from 1947 to 1997.

Finally, it is important to compare the aggregate and disaggregate results to see whether there is coherence across the four scenarios. As shown in the four figures and in Table 5-4, the manufacturing pair (10×11) and utility pair (13×14) seem to have consistent patterns except for two significant values that have signs opposite to the rest: the significant negative correlation in 1947 on Scenario 2 of 10×11 (Figure 5-1b) and the significant positive correlation in 1987 on Scenario 1 of 13×14 (Figure 5-1a).

However, the mixed pairs, 10×14 and 13×11, demonstrate different kinds of patterns compared with the manufacturing pair (10×11) or the utility pair (13×14). As shown in the graphs and the table, the dominant sign of the correlations reverses when moving from Scenario 1 to Scenario 4. In the 10×14 pair, the significant values are positive in Scenario 1 while there are only negative significant values in Scenarios 2, 3, and 4. The coefficients for the most disaggregate level (Scenario 1) are also smaller than those for the more aggregate levels (Scenarios 2, 3, and 4). For the 13×11 pair, on the contrary, all but one of the significant correlations are negative in Scenario 1 while all but one are positive in Scenarios 2, 3, and 4. Similar to 10×14, however, the coefficients for the most disaggregate level (Scenario 1) are smaller than those of the aggregate levels (Scenarios 2, 3, and 4).

These results suggest that an ecological fallacy is at work since there is an observable difference (sign and coefficient) between the disaggregate and aggregate scenarios. It is preferable to focus on Scenario 1 since, as the most disaggregate, it is the scenario closest to the level of the individual actors (single companies). With that in mind, revisiting Table 5-4 and concentrating on Scenario 1 reinforces the findings of predominant complementarity for the manufacturing pair (10×11) and substitution for the utilities pair (13×14). We also see clearer pictures of

complementarity between transportation manufacturing and communications utilities (10×14), and substitution between transportation utilities and communications manufacturing (13×11) as well as transportation and communications overall (30×31) (although the first and last of those results are somewhat weakly based on only four significant correlations out of 10).

Closer scrutiny of Scenario 1 in Figure 5-1a reveals another striking pattern. For all five comparison pairs, the 1987 benchmark year marks a break of some kind with the preceding benchmark year. For the manufacturing pair (10×11), the 1987 correlation is substantially higher than those of the adjacent benchmark years, and appears to mimic the peak-and-decline cycle observed to start 15 years earlier in 1972. For the utilities pair (13×14), transportation utilities – communications manufacturing pair (13×11), and “all” pair (30×31), 1987 marks the first positive (and strongly significant) correlation in the entire series (following seven that are either significantly negative or essentially zero), with the remaining two correlations essentially zero. The picture for the transportation manufacturing – communications utilities pair (10×14) is slightly more complex (with a significantly positive correlation in 1963 as well as in the final two benchmark years), but shows a similar pattern in which 1987 has the first positive and significant correlation following a string of (four) negative or zero ones.

Whether the positive spikes at 1987 represent a long-term structural shift from substitution to complementarity or an anomalous year in a pattern that is returning to negative (or zero) is difficult to tell from the limited information in the following years. Certainly, it will be critical to examine the results for the 2002 benchmark year once they become available. For now, it must simply be stated that the dominant findings of substitution for the latter three of the five category pairs for Scenario 1 may be a historical artifact that is changing, since the single significant positive correlation in each of those three cases is the most recent year (1987) for which a coefficient in the series is significant. This observation also makes our findings for the utilities pair (13×14) somewhat more compatible with Plaut’s finding of complementarity, although we do see a significant negative correlation for the preceding benchmark year – 1982, the closest year to Plaut’s analysis of European data (1980) finding the opposite. Plaut (1997) found complementarity between transportation utilities and communications utilities which was quite significant (at the 1% level), for almost all countries within the EC.

5.3 *Limitations of This Study*

In Chapter 2, we cited Saunders *et al.* (1994) as saying that there are two potential problems when we use input-output analysis to examine the relationship between telecommunications and economic activity. The first potential problem is the lack of proper weighting for each industrial sector, and the second one is the inherent conceptual deficiency in the input-output approach. In Section 4.2 we introduced the Economic Contribution-Based Weight (ECBW) to properly weight each industrial sector. That is, we weight each input coefficient by the dollar value of the contribution of the “receiving” industry (j) to the overall economy. Therefore, the first potential problem can be solved by using the ECBWs. However, the second problem is still a limitation of this study.

Specifically, the issue is that input coefficients are based on monetary values (dollars of input) rather than activity levels *per se* (e.g., vehicle-miles traveled, or quantity of information communicated). So the indication, for example, that it requires \$ x of commodity i (say transportation) to produce one dollar of output for industry j , does not say anything directly about the level of activity (say vehicle-miles traveled) involved for commodity i . This is unfortunate, since the interest of transportation planners, for example, is more in measures of actual transportation activity (i.e. reducing physical congestion on the network) than in economic measures. To the extent that dollars per unit of activity changes over time, simply looking at dollars can be misleading. For example, an industry spending similar amounts of money on telecommunications and transportation inputs over time may be obtaining increasingly higher “quantities” of telecommunications than of transportation, if the unit price of telecommunications is falling relative to that of transportation (as some evidence suggests that it is).

A second important limitation of this study is that the Spearman correlation is strictly a measure of association, and does not speak directly to true causality. That is, just knowing that the amounts of communications and transportation inputs demanded tend to be high or low together, does not say anything about whether one actually *causes* the need for the other, or whether there is some third variable operating more or less separately on both. Nevertheless, even identifying associations, especially any that appear to be stable across a number of years of major change in

the communications industry, will be of interest, and of course such associations are at least a necessary, if not a sufficient, condition to establish causality.

Despite these limitations, this study has provided new insight into the long-term relationships between telecommunications and travel, particularly for industry. These results are of interest (among others) to policymakers and planners who are considering, or may consider, telecommunications as a transportation demand management policy tool.

CHAPTER 6. CONCLUSIONS AND DIRECTIONS FOR FURTHER RESEARCH

This study applied input-output analysis (Leontief, 1936) to analyze the relationship between transportation and communications as industrial inputs in the U.S. Generally, input-output analysis offers a static view of the structural relationships, expressed purely in monetary terms, among the different sectors of an economy for a certain period of time. We analyzed correlations between transportation and communications using the input coefficients of transportation and communications in the input-output table (direct coefficient matrix). Positive correlation coefficients indicate complementarity: industries that require a lot of transportation inputs also tend to require a lot of communications inputs, and conversely. Negative correlation coefficients imply substitution.

Ten benchmark I-O accounts (between 1947 and 1997, inclusive) were collected, which are prepared using the most detailed data sources available, generally the economic censuses. Trying to find the best balance between highly disaggregated industry classifications (which may exhibit a lot of random noise that would obscure the patterns of interest) and highly aggregated ones (which contain such a small number of cases that it may also be hard to identify underlying relationships), we created four scenarios reflecting different levels of aggregation across sub-industries. Scenario 1 is the most disaggregate level (containing 79-131 categories, depending on year), while Scenario 4 is the most aggregate categorization, containing just the nine top-level industries. We analyzed correlations for five selected pairs of transportation and communications industry categories: the manufacturing pair (i.e., transportation manufacturing correlated with communications manufacturing), the utilities pair, the two manufacturing-utilities pairs, and the overall pair (all transportation manufacturing and utilities correlated with all communications manufacturing and utilities).

In this study the Spearman correlation is used, which is a nonparametric correlation measure. Since the input-output coefficients are not normally distributed, the Pearson correlation coefficient is not strictly appropriate. Using Spearman correlations, we conducted a cross-sectional analysis for each time period, and compared results across time based on the five sets

of correlations between transportation and communications. Thus, 200 correlation coefficients in all are computed in this study.

In Chapter 5 we provided hypothetical examples of each type of relationship (substitution and complementarity for each combination of transportation and communications). Empirically, Table 5-4 and Figure 5-1 exhibited several interesting patterns. Since Scenario 1 is the most disaggregate level, and the other scenarios represent successively higher levels of aggregation, Scenario 1 is the scenario closest to the level of the individual actors. With that in mind, concentrating on Scenario 1 leads to the findings of predominant complementarity for the manufacturing pair (10×11) and substitution for the utilities pair (13×14). For the two manufacturing-utilities pairs, and the overall pair (all transportation manufacturing and utilities correlation with all communications manufacturing and utilities), we also see clear pictures of complementarity between transportation manufacturing and communications utilities (10×14) and substitution between transportation utilities and communications manufacturing (13×11) as well as transportation and communications overall (30×31) although the first and last of those results are somewhat weakly based on only four significant correlations out of 10.

This study has two main limitations. First, the input coefficients from the I-O accounts are calculated using the monetary values of each industry, and the relationships observed using a monetary basis may differ substantially from those based on measures of actual activity (such as volumes of communication or distance traveled). Second, we are identifying associations between communications and transportation inputs demanded, but that does not say anything about whether one actually causes the need for the other. However, the examples in Section 5.1 illustrate some ways in which a causal relationship could occur, so it is plausible to expect the observed associations to have at least some causal foundation. Nevertheless there are a number of fruitful directions for further research, including replication using total input coefficients, using I-O accounts for the year 2002 as soon as they become available, using disaggregate I-O accounts available from 1982 onward, and industry-specific correlations taken over time.

First, it is important to replicate this analysis for the total input coefficients, since the direct and total relationships could differ substantially. The total input coefficients were collected together

with the direct input coefficients from 1947 to 1997 (ten benchmark years). Second, it is also critical to incorporate the I-O accounts for the year 2002 as soon as they become available. This study used the benchmark I-O data from 1947 to 1997, the latest year available so far. Extending the analysis to the benchmark data for 2002 will help us understand the recent trends in the relationships between transportation and communications. As we saw in Figure 5-1, there are some unclear and insignificant results especially for the latest years (1992 and 1997). For example, the 13×11 (transportation utilities and communications manufacturing) and 13×14 (transportation utilities and communications utilities) category pairs in Scenario 1 show correlation coefficients that are close to zero for those two years. Adding the results for 2002 will help us determine whether correlations are remaining flat (perhaps due to counteracting influences canceling), shifting from substitution to complementarity (as was apparently begun in 1987), or randomly bouncing back to negative (substitution).

Third, in view of our finding that results systematically differ by level of disaggregation (i.e., by scenario), it would be desirable to use the most disaggregate I-O accounts available, from 1982 onward. This study used the 82-131 industry categories as the most disaggregate classification (Scenario 1), which is available for all ten benchmark years (1947 through 1997). However, we can get even more detailed data sets, which include about 500 industry categories, from the BEA website as electronic files (text version) from 1982 onward. Although the disaggregate data sets include only four benchmark years (1982, 1987, 1992, and 1997), those data sets might allow us to analyze more accurate relationships than those of this study, by further reducing the ecological errors caused by category aggregation.

Finally, it is of interest to analyze industry-specific correlations taken over time. It is possible to calculate Spearman correlations across time for each industry, i.e. correlations over t between A_{Tjt} and A_{Cjt} , for each j (see Figure 6-1). In doing so it is important to test for, and if necessary correct for, auto-correlation across time, although the multi-year span between benchmark tables may considerably attenuate any auto-correlations. The results would visually illustrate how the relationships between transportation and communications differ across industries at various levels of aggregation. In analyzing these industry-specific correlations, the Producer Price Index (PPI) should be applied to each year because the input-output coefficients are developed based

on current monetary values. That is, one could create input-output coefficients in “constant dollars,” converted from the “current dollar” input-output coefficients, because current dollars could mask substantial changes over time in the buying power for each input. For example, if \$1 purchased much less transportation over time while \$1 purchased much more communications (as is essentially the case), an apparently equal and stable ratio would hide sizable changes in the relative amounts of each input demanded over time.

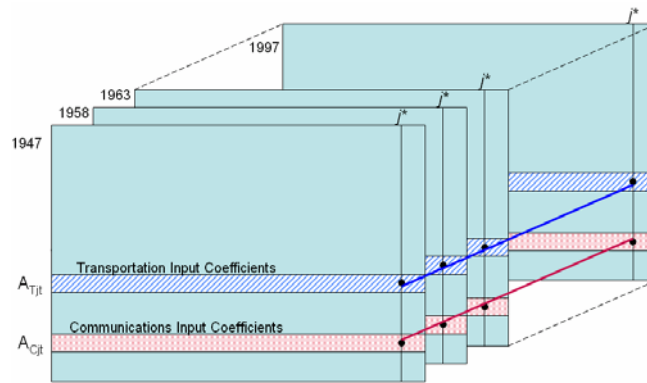


Figure 6- 1. Schematic Showing the Industry-Specific Correlations between Transportation and Communications Taken Over Time

REFERENCES

- Albertson, Lesley A. (1977) Telecommunications as a travel substitute: Some psychological, organizational, and social aspects. *Journal of Communication* **27**(2), 32-43.
- Baumol, William J. and Edward N. Wolff (1994) A key role for input-output analysis in policy design. *Regional Science and Urban Economics* **24**, 93-114.
- Blair, Peter D. and Andrew W. Wyckoff (1989) The changing structure of the U.S. economy: An input-output analysis. In Ronald E. Miller, Karen R. Polenske and Adam Z. Rose, ed., *Frontiers of Input-Output Analysis*. New York: Oxford University Press, 293-307.
- Castaneda, Ruben (1999) Glendening signs measure to promote teleworking. *Washington Post* (May 26), M10.
- Couclelis, Helen (1999) From sustainable transportation to sustainable accessibility: Can we avoid a new 'tragedy of the commons'? In D. Janelle and D. Hodge, eds., *Information, Place, and Cyberspace: Issues in Accessibility*. Berlin: Springer-Verlag.
- Duchin, Faye (1989) An input-output approach to analyzing the future economic implications of technological change. In Ronald E. Miller, Karen R. Polenske and Adam Z. Rose, ed., *Frontiers of Input-Output Analysis*. New York: Oxford University Press, 281-292.
- Ferguson, Allen R. (1976) Commercial air transportation in the United States. In Chapter 11, Wassily Leontief, ed., *Studies in the Structure of the American Economy*. New York: International Arts and Science Press, 421-447.
- Gordon, Gil (1992) Trip-reduction legislation signed into law in New Jersey. *Telecommuting Review: The Gordon Report* (May), 3.
- Gordon, Gil (1993) Georgia Legislature passes commuter efficiency resolution. *Telecommuting Review: The Gordon Report* (May), 3.
- Gordon, Gil (1996) Arizona deals with pollution by mandating telecommuting in government agencies. *Telecommuting Review* **13**(10) (October), 12-13.
- Gossling, W. F., ed. (1975) *Capital Coefficients and Dynamic Input-Output Models*. London: Input-Output Publishing Company.
- Gottmann, Jean (1983) Urban settlements and telecommunications. *Ekistics* **50**, 411-416.
- Grubler, A. (1989) *The Rise and Fall of Infrastructures: Dynamics of Evolution and Technological Change in Transport*. Heidelberg: Physica Verlag.
- Hamer, Rebecca, Eric Kroes, and Harry van Ooststroom (1991) Teleworking in the Netherlands: An evaluation of changes in travel behaviour. *Transportation* **18**, 365-382.

Horowitz, Joel L., Frank S. Koppelman and Steven R. Lerman (1986) *A Self-Instructing Course in Disaggregate Mode Choice Modeling*. Publication No. IA-11-0006, U.S. Department of Transportation, Urban Mass Transportation Administration, Washington, DC.

Isard, Walter (1951) Interregional and regional input-output analysis: A model of space economy. *Review of Economics and Statistics* **33(4)**, 318-328.

Joice, Wendell (2000) Federal telework topics. In *Telework: The New Workplace of the 21st Century*. United States Department of Labor, Washington, DC, 155-167. Available at www.dol.gov/dol/asp/public/telework/main.htm.

Kanemitsu, Hideo and Hiroshi Ohnishi (1989) An input-output analysis of technological changes in the Japanese economy: 1970-1980. In Ronald E. Miller, Karen R. Polenske and Adam Z. Rose, ed., *Frontiers of Input-Output Analysis*. New York: Oxford University Press, 308-323.

Lawson, Ann M., Kurt S. Bersani, Mahnaz Fahim-Nader, and Jiemin Guo (2002) Benchmark input-output accounts of the United States, 1997. In *Survey of Current Business*. United States Department of Commerce, Washington, DC, December, 19-109.

Leontief, Wassily W. (1936) Quantitative input and output relations in the economic systems of the United States. *Review of Economics and Statistics* **18(3)**, 105-125.

Leontief, Wassily W. (1986) *Input-Output Economics*, Second Edition. New York: Oxford University Press.

Miller, Ronald E., Karen R. Polenske and Adam Z. Rose, eds. (1989) *Frontiers of Input-Output Analysis*. New York: Oxford University Press.

Mokhtarian, Patricia L. (1990) A typology of relationships between telecommunications and transportation. *Transportation Research A* **24A(3)**, 231-242.

Mokhtarian, Patricia L. (2002) Telecommunications and travel: The case for complementarity. *Journal of Industrial Ecology* **6(2)**, 43-57.

Mokhtarian, Patricia L. and Ravikumar Meenakshisundaram (1999) Beyond tele-substitution: Disaggregate longitudinal structural equations modeling of communication impacts. *Transportation Research C* **7(1)**, 33-52.

Mokhtarian, Patricia L. and Ilan Salomon (2002) Emerging travel patterns: Do telecommunications make a difference? Chapter 7 in Hani S. Mahmassani, ed., *In Perpetual Motion: Travel Behaviour Research Opportunities and Application Challenges*. Oxford, UK: Pergamon Press/Elsevier, 143-179.

- Mokhtarian, Patricia L., Susan L. Handy and Ilan Salomon (1995) Methodological issues in the estimation of travel, energy, and air quality impacts of telecommuting. *Transportation Research A* **29A(4)**, 283-302.
- Niles, John (1994) *Beyond Telecommuting: A New Paradigm for the Effect of Telecommunications on Travel*. Prepared for the U.S. Department of Energy, Offices of Energy Research and Scientific Computing, Washington, DC 20585, Report No. DOE/ER-0626, September. Available from NTIS, and on the Web at <http://www.lbl.gov/ICSD/Niles>.
- Owen, Wilfred (1962) Transportation and technology. *The American Economic Review* **52(2)** (May), 405-413.
- Pierce, John R. (1977) The telephone and society in the past 100 years. Chapter 7 in Ithiel de Sola Pool, ed., *The Social Impact of the Telephone*. Cambridge, MA: MIT Press, 159-195.
- Plaut, Pnina O. (1997) Transportation-communications relationships in industry. *Transportation Research A* **31A(6)**, 419-429.
- Plaut, Pnina O. (1999) Do telecommunications reduce industrial uses of transportation? An international comparative analysis among Israel, North America and Europe. *World Transport Policy & Practice* **5(4)**, 42-49.
- Polenske, Karen R. (1974) Interregional analysis of U.S. commodity freight shipments. DOT Report Number 3, Massachusetts Institute of Technology, manuscript.
- Polenske, Karen R. (1980) *The U.S. Multiregional I-O Accounts and Model*. Lexington, MA: Heath and Co.
- Quaid, M. and B. Lagerberg (1992) *Puget Sound Telecommuting Demonstration: Executive Summary*. Program Research, Washington State Energy Office, Olympia, Washington.
- Roads and Traffic Authority (RTA) of NSW (1995) *Report on Travel Impacts: RTA Teleworking Pilot Project*. Network Development Branch, RTA, Surry Hills, New South Wales, Australia.
- Salomon, Ilan (1985) Telecommunications and travel: Substitution or modified mobility? *Journal of Transport Economics and Policy* (September), 219-235.
- Salomon, Ilan (1986) Telecommunications and travel relationships: A review. *Transportation Research A* **20A(3)**, 223-238.
- Sand, P. (1988) The use of impact tables for policy applications of input-output models. In Ciaschini, Maurizio, ed., *Input-Output Analysis: Current Developments*. London: Chapman and Hall.

Saunders, Robert J., Jeremy J. Warford and Bjorn Wellenius (1994) *Telecommunications and Economic Development*, 2nd ed. Baltimore, MD: The Johns Hopkins University Press.

Selvanathan, E. A. and Saroja Selvanathan (1994) The demand for transport and communication in the United Kingdom and Australia. *Transportation Research B* **28B(1)**, 1-9.

Szymer, J. (1986) Measuring connectedness of input-output models. *Environment and Planning A* **18**, 107-121.

United States Department of Commerce (1998) *Benchmark Input-Output Accounts of the United States, 1992*. U.S. DOC Bureau of Economic Analysis, September. Available on the Internet at <http://www.bea.doc.gov/bea/articles/NATIONAL/Inputout/Meth/io1992.pdf>, accessed December 15, 2002.

United States Department of Commerce / Office of Business Economics (1970) *The Input-Output Structure of the United States Economy: 1947*, published in March 1970.

United States Department of Commerce / Office of Business Economics (1965) The Transactions Table of the 1958 Input-Output Study and Revised Direct and Total Requirements Data, *Survey of Current Business* (September) **45(9)**, 33-49.

United States Department of Commerce / Office of Business Economics (1969) Input-Output structure of the U.S. Economy: 1963, *Survey of Current Business* (November) **49(11)**, 16-47.

United States Department of Commerce / Bureau of Economic Analysis (1974) The Input-Output structure of the U.S. Economy: 1967, *Survey of Current Business* (February) **54(2)**, 24-56.

United States Department of Commerce / National Technical Information Service (1977) *Technology Assessment of Telecommunications/Transportation Interactions*. Volume 1. Introduction, Scenario Development, and Policy Analysis. Prepared for the National Science Foundation, Washington, DC, Report No. PB-272 694, May.

United States Department of Commerce / Bureau of Economic Analysis (1979) Input-Output structure of the U.S. Economy: 1972, *Survey of Current Business* (February) **59(2)**, 34-71.

United States Department of Commerce / Bureau of Economic Analysis (1984) The Input-Output structure of the U.S. Economy: 1977, *Survey of Current Business* (May) **64(5)**, 42-77.

United States Department of Commerce (2002) *A Nation Online: How American Are Expanding Their Use of the Internet*. Economics and Statistics Administration, National Telecommunications and Information Administration, Available at www.ntia.doc.gov/ntiahome/dn/Nation_Online.pdf, accessed February 15, 2004.

Uno, Kimio (1989) *Measurement of Services in an Input-Output Framework*. Amsterdam: North-Holland.

Zhao, Yong and Kara M. Kockelman (2004) The random-utility-based multiregional input-output model: Solution existence and uniqueness. *Transportation Research B* **38B(9)**, 789-807.

URL (Uniform Resource Locator)

<http://www.bea.doc.gov/bea/dn2/home/i-o.htm>, accessed from October 1, 2002 to September 30, 2003.

<http://www.encyclopedia.thefreedictionary.com>, Accessed May 19, 2004.

<http://www.blinkenlights.com>, Accessed May 19, 2004.

APPENDICES

- A. Detailed Description and Comparison for Classification of Industries in 1997
- B. Comparison of Industry Categories by using NAICS and SIC for Unclear Categories for Classification of Industries in 1997 Benchmark I-O Accounts
- C. Schematic Diagram for Spreadsheets in Excel (sample year 1992)
- D. The ECBWs of Scenarios 2 through 4 for the Ten Benchmark Years (1947-1997)
- E. Graphs of Spearman Correlations (1947-1997)

Appendix A. Detailed Description and Comparison for Classification of Industries in 1997

1947	1972	1987	Ind. Cat.	1997	1997	Title	Industry
2	2	2	1	1110	Crop production	Agriculture, Forestry, Fishing and Hunting	1
1	1	1	1	1120	Animal production		1
3*	3*	3*	1	1130	Forestry and logging		1
3*	3*	3*	1	1140	Fishing, hunting and trapping		1
4	4	4	1	1150	Agriculture and forestry support activities		1
8	8	8	2	2110	Oil and gas extraction	Mining	2
7	7	7	2	2121	Coal mining		2
5 and 6	5 and 6	5+6	2	2122	Metal ores mining		2
9	9	9+10	2	2123	Nonmetallic mineral mining and quarrying		2
7 and 8	7 and 8	7 and 8	2	2130	Support activities for mining		2
68*	68*	68A	5	2211	Power generation and supply	Utilities	2
68*	68*	68B	5	2212	Natural gas distribution		2
68*	68*	68C	5	2213	Water, sewage and other systems		2
11*	11*	11*	3	2301	New residential construction	Construction	2
11*	11*	11*	3	2302	New nonresidential construction		2
12	12	12	3	2303	Maintenance and repair construction		2
14*	14*	14*	4	3110	Food manufacturing	Manufacturing	3
14*	14*	14*	4	3121	Beverage manufacturing		3
15	15	15	4	3122	Tobacco manufacturing		3
16	16	16	4	3130	Textile mills		3
17 and 19	17 and 19	17 and 19	4	3140	Textile product mills		3
18	18	18	4	3150	Apparel manufacturing		3
33 and 34	33 and 34	33+34	4	3160	Leather and allied product manufacturing		3
20 and 21	20 and 21	20+21	4	3210	Wood product manufacturing		3
24*and 25	24*and 25	24*and 25	4	3221	Pulp, paper, and paperboard mills		3
24*	24*	24*	4	3222	Converted paper product manufacturing		3
26*	26*	26B	4	3230	Printing and related support activities		3
31	31	31	4	3240	Petroleum and coal products manufacturing		3
27*	27*	27A*	4	3251	Basic chemical manufacturing		3
28	28	28	4	3252	Resin, rubber, and artificial fibers manufacturing		3
27*	27*	27B	4	3253	Agricultural chemical manufacturing		3
29*	29*	29A	4	3254	Pharmaceutical and medicine manufacturing		3
30	30	30	4	3255	Paint, coating, and adhesive manufacturing		3
29*	29*	29B	4	3256	Soap, cleaning compound, and toiletry manufacturing		3
27*	27*	27A*	4	3259	Other chemical product and preparation manufacturing		3
32	32	32	4	3260	Plastics and rubber products manufacturing		3
36	36	36	4	3270	Nonmetallic mineral product manufacturing		3
37*	37*	37*	4	331A	Iron and steel mills and manufacturing from purchased steel		3
38	38	38	4	331B	Nonferrous metal production and processing		3
37*	37*	37*	4	3315	Foundries		3
41	41	41	4	3321	Forging and stamping		3
42*	42*	42*	4	3322	Cutlery and handtool manufacturing		3
40*	40*	40*	4	3323	Architectural and structural metals manufacturing		3
39and 40*	39and 40*	39and 40*	4	3324	Boiler, tank, and shipping container manufacturing		3
13	13	13	4	332A	Ordnance and accessories manufacturing		3
42*	42*	42*	4	332B	Other fabricated metal product manufacturing		3
44 and 45	44 and 45	44+45	4	3331	Agriculture, construction, and mining machinery		3
48	48	48	4	3332	Industrial machinery manufacturing		3
50 and 52*	50 and 52*	50 and 52*	4	3333	Commercial and service industry machinery		3
52*	52*	52*	4	3334	HVAC and commercial refrigeration equipment		3
47	47	47	4	3335	Metalworking machinery manufacturing		3
43 and 49*	43 and 49*	43 and 49*	4	3336	Turbine and power transmission equipment manufacturing		3
46and 49*	46and 49*	46and 49*	4	3339	Other general purpose machinery manufacturing		3
51	51	51	20	3341	Computer and peripheral equipment manufacturing		3
56	56	56	21	334A	Audio, video, and communications equipment manufacturing		3
57*	57*	57*	4	3344	Semiconductor and electronic component manufacturing		3
57*	57*	57*	4	3345	Electronic instrument manufacturing		3
58*	58*	58*	4	3346	Magnetic media manufacturing and reproducing		3
55	55	55	4	3351	Electric lighting equipment manufacturing		3
54	54	54	4	3352	Household appliance manufacturing		3
53	53	53	4	3353	Electrical equipment manufacturing		3
58*	58*	58*	4	3359	Other electrical equipment and component machinery		3
59*	59*	59A	16	3361	Motor vehicle manufacturing		3
59*	59*	59B	17	336A	Motor vehicle body, trailer, and parts manufacturing		3
60*	60*	60*	18	3364	Aerospace product and parts manufacturing		3
61	61	61	19	336B	Other transportation equipment manufacturing		3
22 and 23	22 and 23	22+23	4	3370	Furniture and related product manufacturing		3
62 and 63	62 and 63	62 and 63	4	3391	Medical equipment and supplies manufacturing		3
64	64	64	4	3399	Other miscellaneous manufacturing		3

69*	69*	69A	6	4200	Wholesale trade	Wholesale Trade	4
69*	69*	69B	6	4A00	Retail trade	Retail Trade	4
65*	65*	65D	25	4810	Air transportation	Transportation and Warehousing, Excluding Postal Service	4
65*	65*	65A*	22A	4820	Rail transportation		4
65*	65*	65C	24	4830	Water transportation		4
65*	65*	65B*	23A	4840	Truck transportation		4
65*	65*	65A*	22B	4850	Transit and ground passenger transportation		4
65*	65*	65E*	26A	4860	Pipeline transportation		4
65*	65*	65A*	26B	48A0	Scenic and sightseeing transportation and support activities for transportation		4
65*	65*	65E*	26C	4920	Couriers and messengers		4
65*	65*	65B*	23B	4930	Warehousing and storage		4
26*	26*	26A	4	5111	Newspaper, book, and directory publishers	Information	5
73*	73*	73A*	8	5112	Software publishers		5
76*	76*	76*	8	5120	Motion picture and sound recording industries		5
67*	67*	67*	28A	5131	Radio and television broadcasting		5
67*	67*	67*	28B	5132	Cable networks and program distribution		5
66*	66*	66*	27A	5133	Telecommunications		5
73*	73*	73C*	8	5141	Information services		5
73*	73*	73A*	8	5142	Data processing services		5
70*	70*	70A*	7	52A0	Monetary authorities, credit intermediation and related activities	Finance and Insurance	5
70*	70*	70A*	7	5230	Securities, commodity contracts, investments		5
70*	70*	70B	7	5240	Insurance carriers and related activities		5
70*	70*	70A*	7	5250	Funds, trusts, and other financial vehicles		5
71*	71*	71B	7	5310	Real estate	Real Estate and Rental and Leasing	5
71*	71*	71A	7	S008	Owner-occupied dwellings		S
75*	75*	75*	8	5321	Automotive equipment rental and leasing		5
76*	76*	76*	8	532A	Consumer goods and general rental centers		5
73*	73*	73C*	8	5324	Machinery and equipment rental and leasing		5
70*	70*	70A*	7	5330	Lessors of nonfinancial intangible assets		5
73*	73*	73B*	8	5411	Legal services	Professional and Technical Services	5
73*	73*	73B*	8	5412	Accounting and bookkeeping services		5
73*	73*	73B*	8	5413	Architectural and engineering services		5
73*	73*	73C*	8	5414	Specialized design services		5
73*	73*	73A*	8	5415	Computer systems design and related services		5
73*	73*	73C*	8	5416	Management and technical consulting services		5
74	73*	73C*	8	5417	Scientific research and development services		5
73*	73*	73D	8	5418	Advertising and related services		5
73*	73*	73C*	8	5419	Other professional and technical services		5
73*	73*	73C*	8	5500	Management of companies and enterprises	Management of Companies and Enterprises	5
73*	73*	73C*	8	5613	Employment services		5
65*	65*	65E*	26D	5615	Travel arrangement and reservation services		5
73*	73*	73C*	8	561A	All other administrative and support services		5
68	68	68C	15	5620	Waste management and remediation services		5
77*	77*	77B*	8	6100	Educational services	Educational Services	6
77*	77*	77A*	8	6210	Ambulatory health care services	Health Care and Social Assistance	6
77*	77*	77A*	8	6220	Hospitals		6
77*	77*	77A*	8	6230	Nursing and residential care facilities		6
77*	77*	77B*	8	6240	Social assistance		6
76*	76*	76*	8	71A0	Performing arts, spectator sports, museums, zoos, and parks	Arts, Entertainment, and Recreation	7
76*	76*	76*	8	7130	Amusements, gambling, and recreation		7
72*	72*	72A	8	7210	Accommodation	Accommodation and Food Services	7
69*	74	74	8	7220	Food services and drinking places		7
75*	75*	75*	8	8111	Automotive repair and maintenance	Other Services, Except Public Administration	8
72*	72*	72B*	8	811A	Electronic, commercial, and household goods repair		8
72*	72*	72B*	8	8120	Personal and laundry services		8
77*	77*	77B*	8	813A	Religious, grantmaking and giving, and social advocacy organizations		8
77*	77*	77B*	8	813B	Civic, social, professional and similar organizations		8
86	84	84	9	8140	Private households		8
78	78	78	9	S001	Federal Government enterprises	Government Industries	S
79*	79*	79*	9	S002	State and local government enterprises		S
84	82	82	9	S005	General government industry		S
80*	80	80	9	S003	Noncomparable imports	Special Industries	S
83	81	81	9	S004	Scrap, used, and secondhand goods		S
85	83	83	9	S006	Rest of the world adjustment to final uses		S
82#	85	85	9	S007	Inventory valuation adjustment		S
	88	88		V001	Compensation of employees	Value Added	V
	89	89		V002	Indirect business tax and nontax liability		V
	90	90		V003	Other value added		V
	91	91		F010	Personal consumption expenditures	Final Uses	F
	92	92		F020	Private fixed investment		F
	93	93		F030	Change in private inventories		F
	94	94		F040	Exports of goods and services		F
80*	95	95		F050	Imports of goods and services		F
	96*	96*		F06C	Federal government consumption expenditures, national defense		F

	96*	96*		F06I	Federal government gross investment, national defense		F
	97*	97*		F07C	Federal government consumption expenditures, nondefense		F
	97*	97*		F07I	Federal government gross investment, nondefense		F
	98*	98*		F08C	State and local government consumption expenditure, education		F
	98*	98*		F08I	State and local government gross investment, education		F
	99*	99*		F09C	State and local government consumption expenditures, other		F
	99*	99*		F09I	State and local government gross investment, other		F

Note: 1) Column "Industry" means the first digit I-O industry number in the 1997 benchmark Input-Output Accounts

S explains government or special industries

V explains value added

F explains final uses

2) In 1987, 68A, 68B, and 68C do not have corresponding industry classification in 1997

68A: Electric services (utilities)

68B: Gas production and distribution (utilities)

68C: Water and sanitary services

3) In 1972, 10 and 68 do not have corresponding industry classification in 1997

4) In 1967, 10, 68, 81, and 82 do not have corresponding industry classification in 1997

5) Shaded area means that there is no obvious corresponding industry

6) *: This category also exists in the other cell within the column.

7) #: There is no correspondence with the industry category in 1997, but it might be included in this industry category.

8) In the industry category number, "+*" is included in the original I-O number in 1987. The "and" means both two industries are correspondent with this industry category in 1997.

Appendix B. Comparison of Industry Categories by using NAICS and SIC for Unclear Categories for Classification of Industries in 1997 Benchmark I-O Accounts

 : Need to Change
Comp. : Comparable between NAICS and SIC

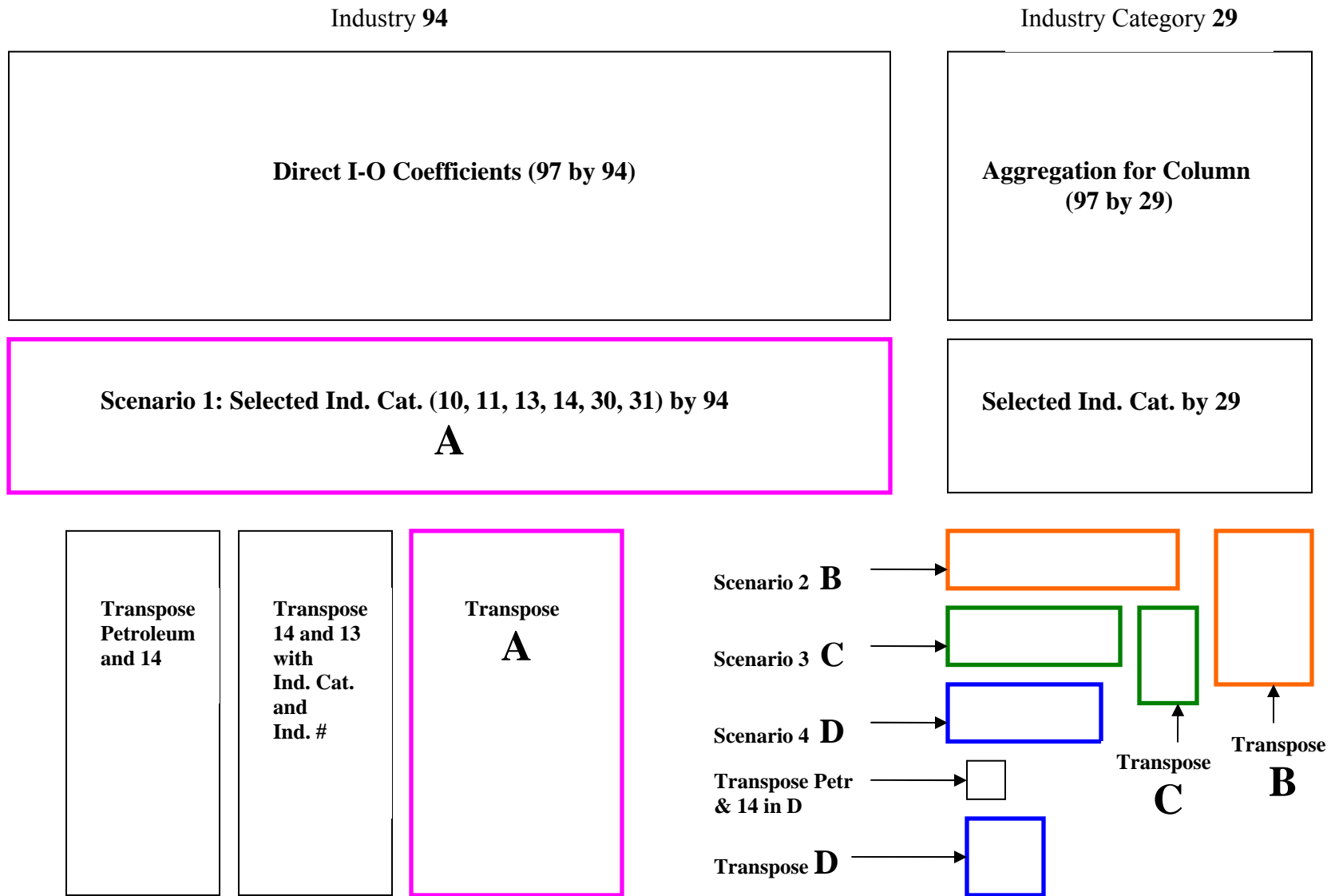
Seq. #	1997	NAICS	Comparability	SIC	1992	Current Ind. Cat.	Proposed Ind. Cat.
1	2130	213111	Comp.	1381	8	2	2
		213112	Almost Comp.	1382, 1389	8		
		213113	Comp.	1241	7		
		213114	Almost Comp.	1081	5+6		
		213115	Not Comp.	1481	9+10		
2	5112	511210	Comp.	7372	73A	4	8
3	5141	519110	N/A	7383	73C	27B	8
		519120	N/A	7829, 8231	76, 77B		
		519190	N/A	7389			
4	532A	532210	Not Comp.	7359			
		532220	Not Comp.	7299, 7819			
		532230	Comp.	7841	76	8	8
		532291	Not Comp.	7352			
		532292	Not Comp.	7999			
		532299	Not Comp.	7359			
		532310	Not Comp.	7359			
5	5330	533110	Almost Comp.	6792, 6794	70A	8	7
6	5415	541511	Comp.	7371	73A	8	8
		541512	Not Comp.	7373, 7379	73 (1947)		
		541513	Comp.	7376	73A		
		541519	Not Comp.	7379			
7	5417	541710	Comp.	3721, 3724 3728, 3761 3764, 3769 8731, 8733	60 73C	8	8
		561510	Comp.	4724	65E	26D	26D
		561520	Comp.	4725			
		561591	Not Comp.	7389			
9	5620	561599	Not Comp.	4729, 7389 7922, 7999 8699			
		562111	Not Comp.	4212	65B	9	15
		562112	Not Comp.	4212			
		562119	Not Comp.	4212			
		562211	Not Comp.	4953	68C		
		562212	Not Comp.	4953			
		562213	Not Comp.	4953			
		562219	Not Comp.	4953			
		562910	Not Comp.	1799, 4959			
		562920	Not Comp.	4953			
		562991	Not Comp.	7359, 7699	73C		

		562998	Not Comp.	4959, 7699			
10	7220	722110	Not Comp.	5812	74	8	8
		722211	Not Comp.	5812	69 (1947)		
		722212	Not Comp.	5812			
		722213	Not Comp.	5461, 5812			
		722310	Not Comp.	4789, 5812			
		722320	Not Comp.	5812			
		722330	Not Comp.	5963			
		722410	Comp.	5813			
11	S003	N/A				9	9
	S007	N/A				9	9

Source: <http://landview.census.gov/epcd/naics02/N02TOS87.HTM>

Correspondence Tables: 2002 NAICS Matched to 1987 SIC

Appendix C. Schematic Diagram for Spreadsheets in Excel (sample year 1992)



Appendix D. The ECBWs of Scenarios 2 through 4 for the Ten Benchmark Years (1947-1997)

As mentioned in Chapter 4, there are four scenarios according to the aggregation level of industry classifications. The following tables present the ECBWs for Scenarios 2 through 4 across the corresponding industry categories (the ECBWs for Scenario 1 are omitted due to space restrictions). The industry categories for each scenario are explained in Table 4-6, and the structure of the ECBWs is the same as that of each scenario since the ECBWs are applied to each I-O coefficient of the corresponding industry. The first row of each scenario contains the numeric label of each industry category. The values in the second rows of each scenario in 1947 are calculated by adding the ECBWs of Scenario 1 across the industries comprising each cell (the sum of the ECBWs is 80). The values of the third rows of each scenario are recalculated by using the second rows, so that the sum of the values of the third rows is 18, 13, and 9, respectively (for S2, S3, and S4) in 1947. This has the effect of calculating the correlation coefficients on the appropriate sample size (e.g., it should be 9 for S4, not 80), while weighting each industry in the correlation proportionally to its overall monetary contribution to the economy.

1947

S2	1	2	3	16+17	18	19	20	21	22	12	23-27	28	29	15	6	7	8	9	Sum
	14.55579	3.16608	2.56260	1.69144	0.20103	0.20173	1.70144	0.03721	0.22663	31.92199	4.39842	0.53855	0.14275	1.33142	4.50838	5.34548	4.27083	3.19825	80.00000
	3.2750519	0.712368	0.576585	0.380573	0.0452307	0.0453885	0.382824	0.0083711	0.0509912	7.1824471	0.9896451	0.1211741	0.03211859	0.299569	1.014386	1.202733	0.960937	0.719606	18.00000
S3	1	2	3	10	11	12	13	14	15	6	7	8	9						
	14.55579	3.16608	2.56260	3.79563	0.26383	31.92199	4.39842	0.68130	1.33142	4.50838	5.34548	4.27083	3.19825						80.00000
	2.3653152	0.514488	0.416423	0.6167896	0.0428728	5.1873229	0.7147437	0.1107114	0.2163553	0.7326121	0.8686405	0.6940102	0.51971556						13.00000
S4	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	8	9										
	14.55579	3.16608	2.56260	35.98145	6.41114	4.50838	5.34548	4.27083	3.19825										80.00000
	1.6375259	0.356184	0.288293	4.0479129	0.7212534	0.507193	0.6013665	0.4804686	0.3598031										9.00000

1958

S2	1	2	3	16+17	18	19	20	21	22	12	23-27	28	29	15	6	7	8	9	Sum
	8.13332	3.22235	2.30181	1.76660	1.02921	0.17779	1.693233	0.16633	0.38607	32.31022	3.81744	0.84976	0.28461	2.09945	5.10502	6.39647	5.73707	5.52324	81.00000
	1.8074047	0.716079	0.511514	0.3925784	0.2287131	0.0395084	0.376274	0.0369621	0.0857931	7.1800487	0.8483208	0.1888352	0.06324623	0.466544	1.134448	1.421438	1.274904	1.227388	18.00000
S3	1	2	3	10	11	12	13	14	15	6	7	8	9						
	8.13332	3.22235	2.30181	4.66683	0.55240	32.31022	3.81744	1.13437	2.09945	5.10502	6.39647	5.73707	5.52324						81.00000
	1.3053479	0.517168	0.369427	0.7489978	0.0886565	5.1855907	0.6126762	0.1820588	0.3369482	0.8193239	1.0265944	0.9207642	0.88644855						13.00000
S4	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	8	9										
	8.13332	3.22235	2.30181	37.52945	7.05126	5.10502	6.39647	5.73707	5.52324										81.00000
	0.9037024	0.358039	0.255757	4.1699389	0.7834729	0.5672242	0.7107192	0.6374522	0.6136938										9.00000

1963

S2	1	2	3	16+17	18	19	20	21	22	12	23~27	28	29	15	6	7	8	9	Sum
	7.12198	2.87381	2.18076	2.29852	0.74657	0.15896	1.7211765	0.19137	0.45577	32.75016	3.59281	0.98839	0.33201	2.51467	4.70189	6.48539	6.00131	5.88444	81.00000
	1.582662	0.639624	0.484614	0.5107821	0.1659048	0.0353252	0.3824837	0.0425272	0.1012831	7.2778133	0.7984025	0.21964215	0.073779	0.558817	1.044864	1.441198	1.333625	1.307653	18.00000
S3	1	2	3	10	11	12	13	14	15	6	7	8	9						
	7.12198	2.87381	2.18076	4.92523	0.64715	32.75016	3.59281	1.32039	2.51467	4.70189	6.48539	6.00131	5.88444						81.00000
	1.143034	0.461229	0.349999	0.7904691	0.1038629	5.2561985	0.576624	0.2119152	0.4035897	0.7546243	1.0408652	0.96317391	0.944416						13.00000
S4	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	8	9										
	7.12198	2.87381	2.18076	38.32254	7.42788	4.70189	6.48539	6.00131	5.88444										81.00000
	0.791331	0.319312	0.242307	4.2580596	0.82532	0.5224322	0.720599	0.6668127	0.6538264										9.00000

1967

S2	1	2	3	16+17	18	19	20	21	22	12	23~27	28	29	15	6	7	8	9	Sum
	6.08712	2.62595	1.97672	1.72740	0.80416	0.14924	1.575593	0.18532	0.40314	33.02791	3.59376	1.03182	0.35477	2.38713	4.75314	6.78404	7.20964	6.32315	81.00000
	1.352693	0.583545	0.439272	0.3838666	0.1787025	0.0331638	0.3501318	0.0411818	0.0895871	7.3395364	0.7986132	0.22929225	0.078839	0.530473	1.056254	1.507565	1.602141	1.405144	18.00000
S3	1	2	3	10	11	12	13	14	15	6	7	8	9						
	6.08712	2.62595	1.97672	4.25639	0.58846	33.02791	3.59376	1.38659	2.38713	4.75314	6.78404	7.20964	6.32315						81.00000
	0.976945	0.421449	0.317252	0.6831245	0.0944441	5.3007763	0.5767762	0.2225389	0.3831191	0.7628498	1.0887969	1.15710214	1.014826						13.00000
S4	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	8	9										
	6.08712	2.62595	1.97672	37.87276	7.36747	4.75314	6.78404	7.20964	6.32315										81.00000
	0.676346	0.291772	0.219636	4.2080849	0.8186083	0.5281268	0.7537824	0.8010707	0.7025721										9.00000

1972

S2	1	2	3	16+17	18	19	20	21	22	12	23~27	28	29	15	6	7	8	9	Sum
	3.37409	1.22118	6.67125	2.62103	0.68466	0.51393	1.2635746	0.32376	0.72223	24.46233	3.00527	1.26856	0.18137	2.01539	8.69620	10.14633	10.84088	0.98796	79.00000
	0.768779	0.278243	1.5200323	0.5971968	0.1559975	0.1170988	0.2879031	0.0737682	0.1645592	5.573696	0.6847462	0.28903854	0.041325	0.459202	1.981413	2.311823	2.470073	0.225105	18.00000
S3	1	2	3	10	11	12	13	14	15	6	7	8	9						
	3.37409	1.22118	6.67125	5.08319	1.04599	24.46233	3.00527	1.44993	2.01539	8.69620	10.14633	10.84088	0.98796						79.00000
	0.55523	0.200953	1.0978011	0.836475	0.1721254	4.0254471	0.4945389	0.2385961	0.3316457	1.4310208	1.66965	1.78394169	0.162576						13.00000
S4	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	8	9										
	3.37409	1.22118	6.67125	30.59152	6.47059	8.69620	10.14633	10.84088	0.98796										79.00000
	0.38439	0.139121	0.7600162	3.4851098	0.7371559	0.9907067	1.1559115	1.2350366	0.1125524										9.00000

1977

S2	1	2	3	16+17	18	19	20	21	22	12	23~27	28	29	15	6	7	8	9	Sum
	2.96982	1.78723	6.05434	2.69547	0.60412	0.49565	2.265103	0.36172	0.66143	23.95146	2.89073	1.21087	0.19400	2.41858	8.80501	9.27983	11.38172	0.97292	79.00000
	0.676667	0.407217	1.3794694	0.6141581	0.1376474	0.1129318	0.5160994	0.0824183	0.1507045	5.4572941	0.6586471	0.27589492	0.044202	0.55107	2.006204	2.114392	2.593304	0.221678	18.00000
S3	1	2	3	10	11	12	13	14	15	6	7	8	9						
	2.96982	1.78723	6.05434	6.06034	1.02315	23.95146	2.89073	1.40487	2.41858	8.80501	9.27983	11.38172	0.97292						79.00000
	0.488704	0.294101	0.9962834	0.9972709	0.1683665	3.9413791	0.4756896	0.2311811	0.3979948	1.4489254	1.5270612	1.87294156	0.16101						13.00000
S4	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	8	9										
	2.96982	1.78723	6.05434	31.03495	6.71418	8.80501	9.27983	11.38172	0.97292										79.00000
	0.338334	0.203609	0.6897347	3.5356268	0.7649069	1.0031022	1.0571962	1.2966519	0.1108391										9.00000

1982

S2	1	2	3	16+17	18	19	20	21	22	12	23~27	28	29	15	6	7	8	9	Sum
	2.77774	2.73825	6.23796	1.58143	0.83078	0.37765	2.9385815	0.57856	0.75819	20.46179	2.79234	1.36634	0.22341	3.14732	8.20318	10.17642	12.70617	1.10389	79.00000
	0.632903	0.623904	1.4213066	0.3603255	0.1892923	0.0860478	0.6695502	0.1318234	0.1727532	4.662179	0.6362292	0.31131724	0.050903	0.717111	1.869079	2.318679	2.895078	0.251519	18.00000
S3	1	2	3	10	11	12	13	14	15	6	7	8	9						
	2.77774	2.73825	6.23796	5.72845	1.33675	20.46179	2.79234	1.58974	3.14732	8.20318	10.17642	12.70617	1.10389						79.00000
	0.457096	0.450597	1.0264992	0.9426558	0.219972	3.3671293	0.4594988	0.2616036	0.5179132	1.3498906	1.6746013	2.09088944	0.181653						13.00000
S4	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	8	9										
	2.77774	2.73825	6.23796	27.52699	7.52940	8.20318	10.17642	12.70617	1.10389										79.00000
	0.316451	0.311952	0.7106533	3.1359857	0.85778	0.9345396	1.1593394	1.4475388	0.1257597										9.00000

1987

S2	1	2	3	16	17	18	19	20	21	22	12	23	24	25	26	27	28	29	15	6	7	8	9	Sum	
	2.31940	1.47265	7.03969	15.2571	0.78485	0.93429	0.27396	1.56844	0.63501	0.46300	21.82698	0.49439	1.32071	0.27363	0.86746	0.29473	1.83300	0.33441	2.40243	9.60650	13.25183	16.97481	6.50210	93.00000	
	0.573616	0.364204	1.741	0.377325	0.194102	0.231062	0.0677538	0.387893	0.157045	0.114506	5.398069	0.122267	0.32663	0.0676719	0.21453	0.07289	0.45332	0.0827	0.59415	2.3758	3.27733	4.19807	1.60805	23.00000	
S3	1	2	3	10	11	12	13	14	15	6	7	8	9												
	2.31940	1.47265	7.03969	5.08725	1.09801	21.82698	3.25093	2.16741	2.40243	9.60650	13.25183	16.97481	6.50210											93.00000	
	0.324217	0.205854	0.984043	0.71112	0.153486	3.051083	0.4544306	0.302372	0.335824	1.342844	1.852406	2.372823	0.9089											13.00000	
S4	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	8	9																
	2.31940	1.47265	7.03969	28.01223	7.82077	9.60650	13.25183	16.97481	6.50210																93.00000
	0.224458	0.142515	0.681261	2.710861	0.756849	0.929662	1.2824352	1.642724	0.629236																9.00000

1992

S2	1	2	3	16	17	18	19	20	21	22	12	23	24	25	26	27	28	29	15	6	7	8	9	Sum	
	2.04225	1.34668	5.83755	1.29531	0.68973	0.87399	0.25779	1.25209	0.54930	0.44817	19.99442	0.47910	1.43464	0.27876	0.80896	0.28887	1.78817	0.25228	2.43396	9.37927	14.21926	19.14154	7.90798	93.00000	
	0.505073	0.333051	1.443694	0.320344	0.170579	0.216149	0.0637552	0.309657	0.13585	0.110838	4.944857	0.118497	0.3548	0.0689406	0.20007	0.07144	0.44224	0.06239	0.60192	2.3196	3.51659	4.73393	1.95574	23.00000	
S3	1	2	3	10	11	12	13	14	15	6	7	8	9												
	2.04225	1.34668	5.83755	4.36892	0.93748	19.99442	3.29033	2.04046	2.43396	9.37927	14.21926	19.14154	7.90798											93.00000	
	0.285476	0.188246	0.816001	0.610709	0.139432	2.794919	0.4599385	0.285225	0.340218	1.31108	1.987639	2.875699	1.10542											13.00000	
S4	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	8	9																
	2.04225	1.34668	5.83755	25.36082	7.76465	9.37927	14.21926	19.14154	7.90798																93.00000
	0.197637	0.130324	0.564924	2.454273	0.751418	0.907671	1.3760578	1.852407	0.765289																9.00000

1997

S2	1	2	3	16	17	18	19	20	21	22	12	23	24	25	26	27	28	29	15	6	7	8	9	Sum	
	2.52553	1.48649	5.90717	1.94262	1.73825	1.03419	0.29211	1.53709	0.89742	0.79428	26.15384	0.59031	1.73012	0.21673	1.05437	1.21125	2.54556	0.77482	2.91050	13.86249	21.48717	29.98440	10.32330	131.00000	
	0.443413	0.260987	1.037136	0.341070	0.305188	0.181575	0.051286	0.269870	0.157563	0.139453	4.591896	0.103642	0.303762	0.038052	0.185119	0.212663	0.446931	0.136037	0.511004	13.86249	21.48717	29.98440	10.32330	131.00000	
S3	1	2	3	10	11	12	13	14	15	6	7	8	9												
	2.52553	1.48649	5.90717	6.54424	1.69170	26.15384	4.80278	3.32038	2.91050	13.86249	21.48717	29.98440	10.32330											131.00000	
	0.25062	0.14751	0.58621	0.64943	0.16788	2.59542	0.47661	0.32960	0.28883	1.37567	2.13231	2.97555	1.02445											13.00000	
S4	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	8	9																
	2.52553	1.48649	5.90717	34.38979	11.03367	13.86249	21.48717	29.98440	10.32330																131.00000
	0.173509	0.102125	0.405836	2.362657	0.758038	0.952385	1.476218	2.059997	0.709234																9.00000

Appendix E. Graphs of Spearman Correlations (1947 - 1997)

Table of Contents

1. Figures 1 - 10: Correlations for each year (50 graphs: 10x11, 10x14, 13x11, 13x14, and 30x31 for each year, with each graph showing the four scenarios)
2. Figures 11 - 15: Correlations for each pair (the same 50 graphs, showing the ten benchmark-year progression for each pair at a time)

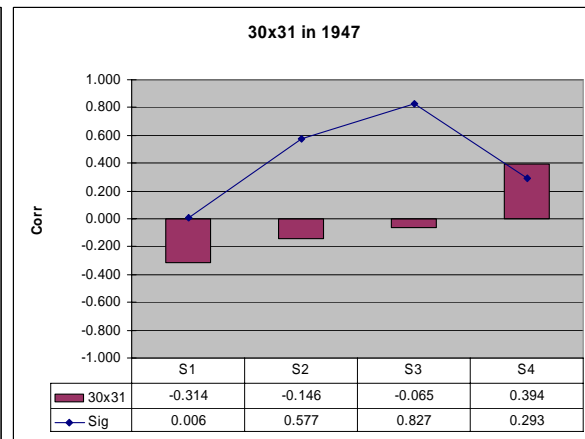
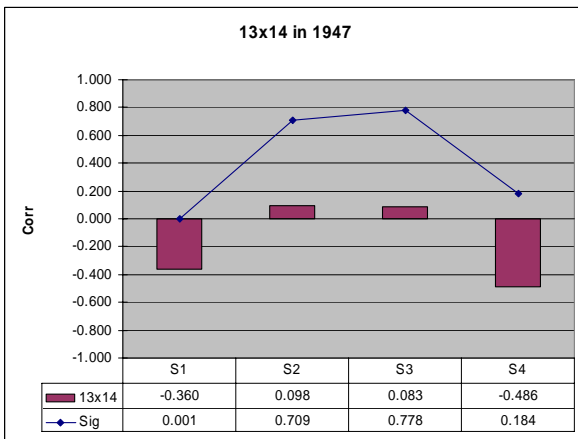
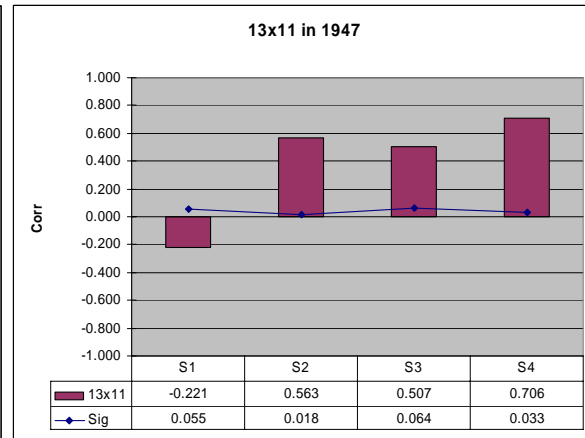
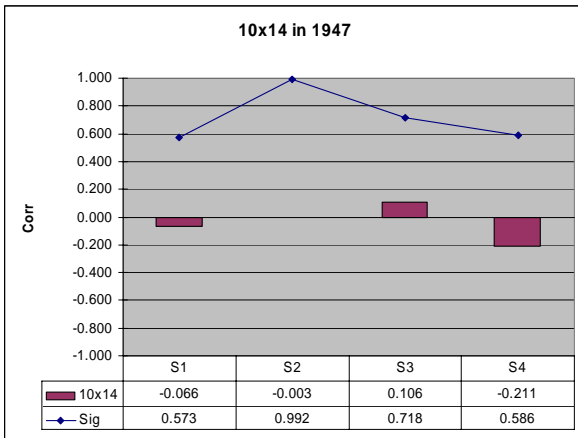
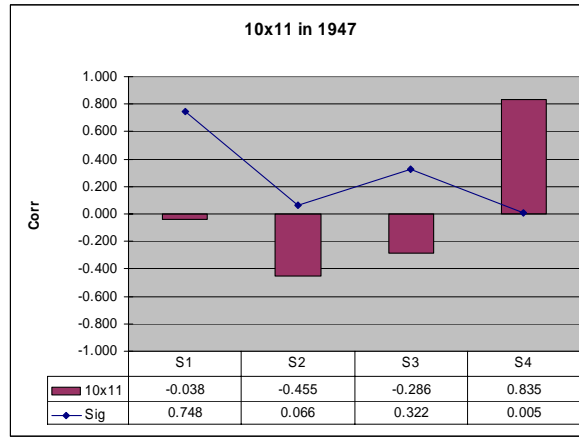


Figure 1. Spearman Correlations in 1947

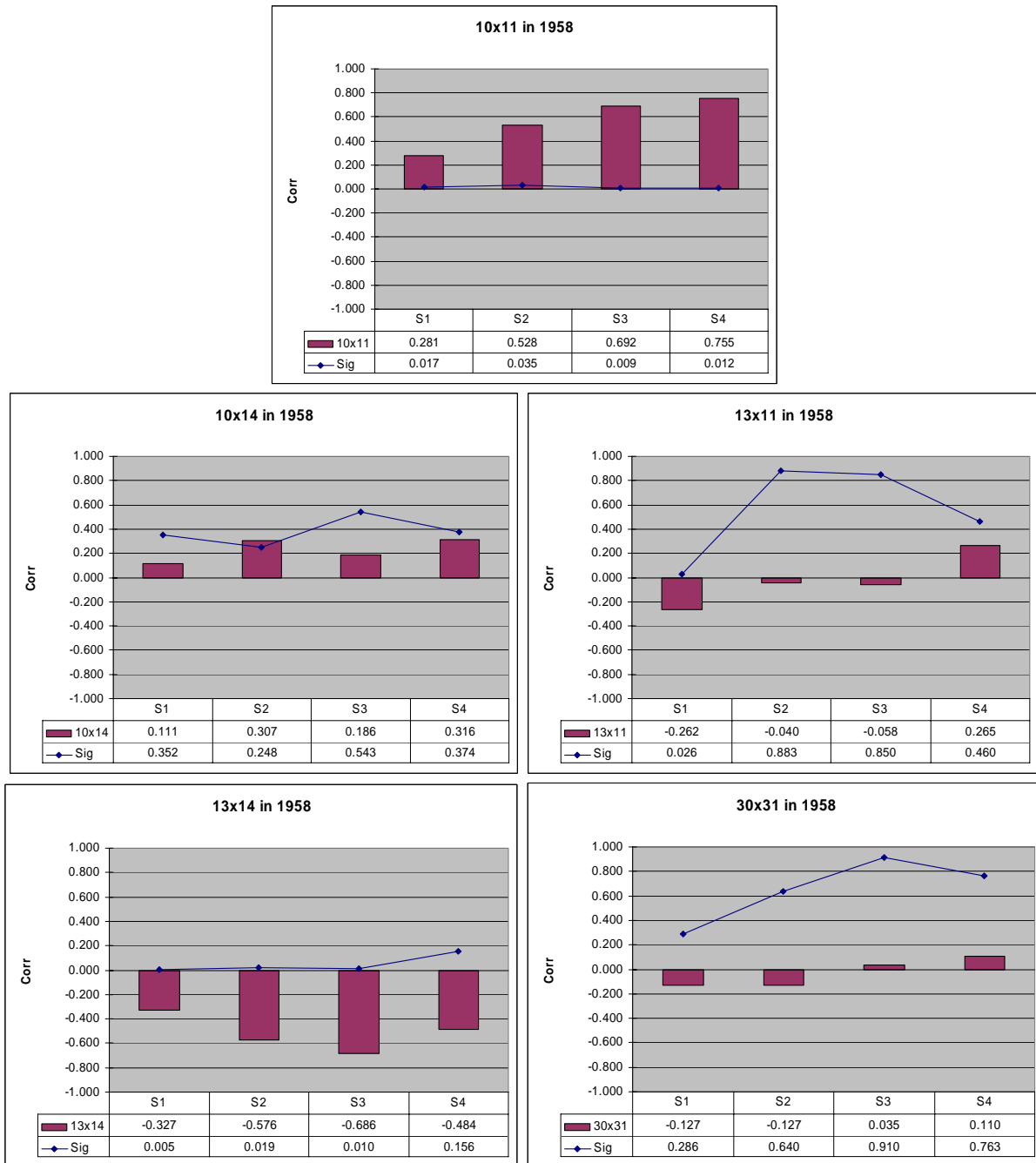


Figure 2. Spearman Correlations in 1958

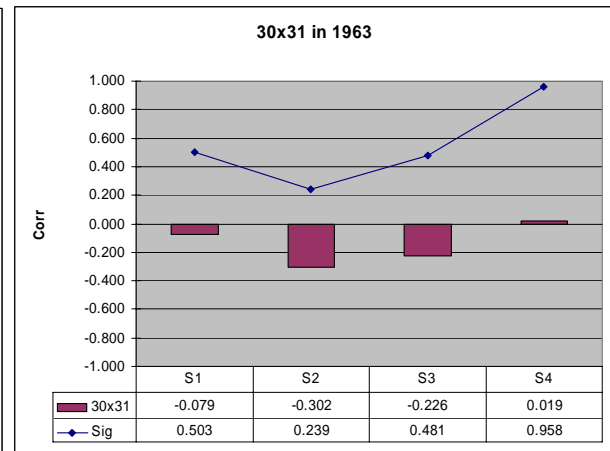
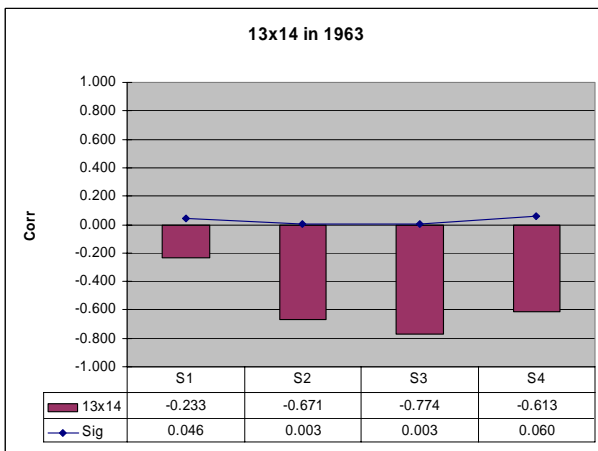
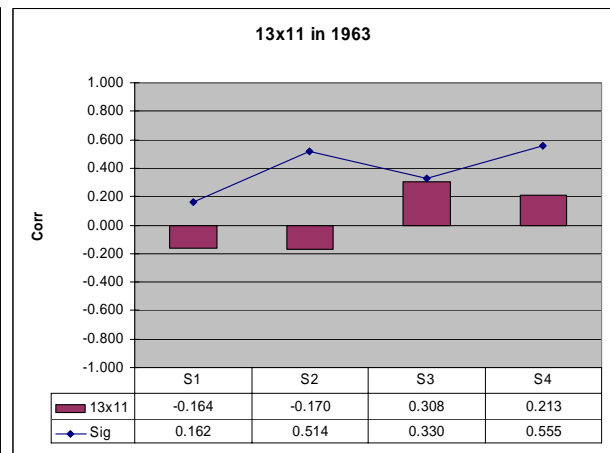
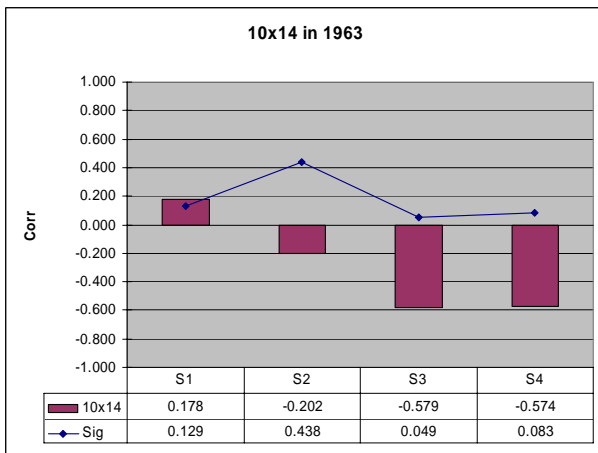
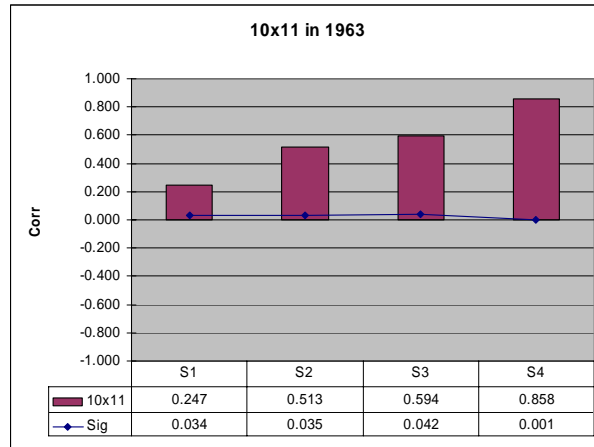


Figure 3. Spearman Correlations in 1963

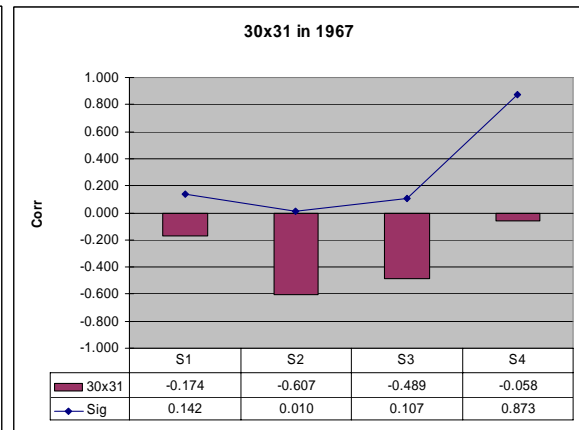
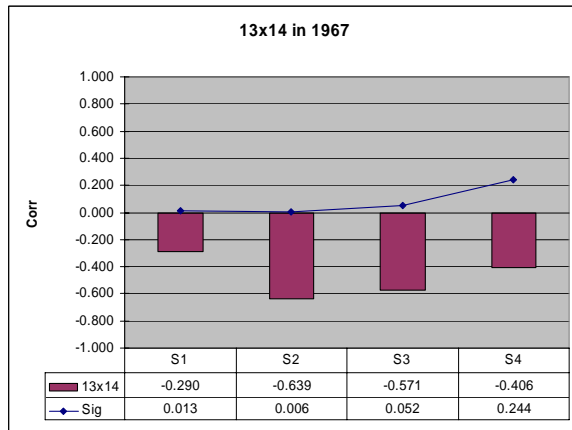
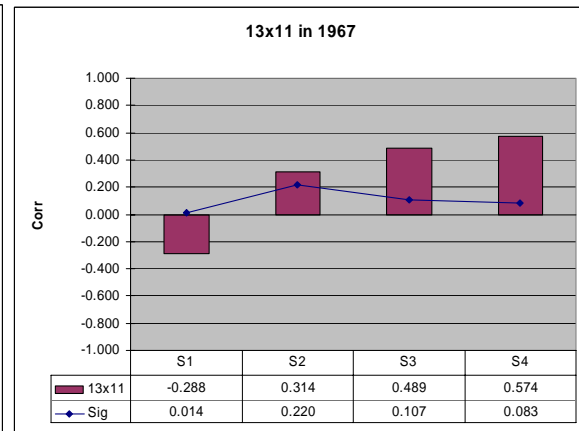
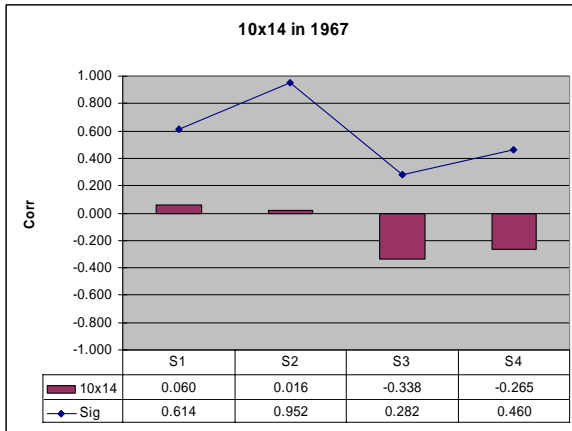
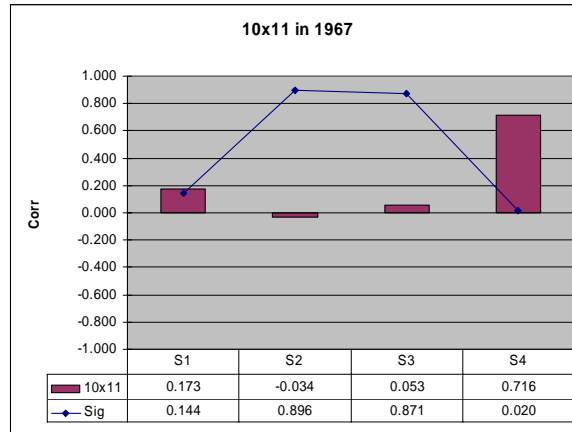


Figure 4. Spearman Correlations in 1967

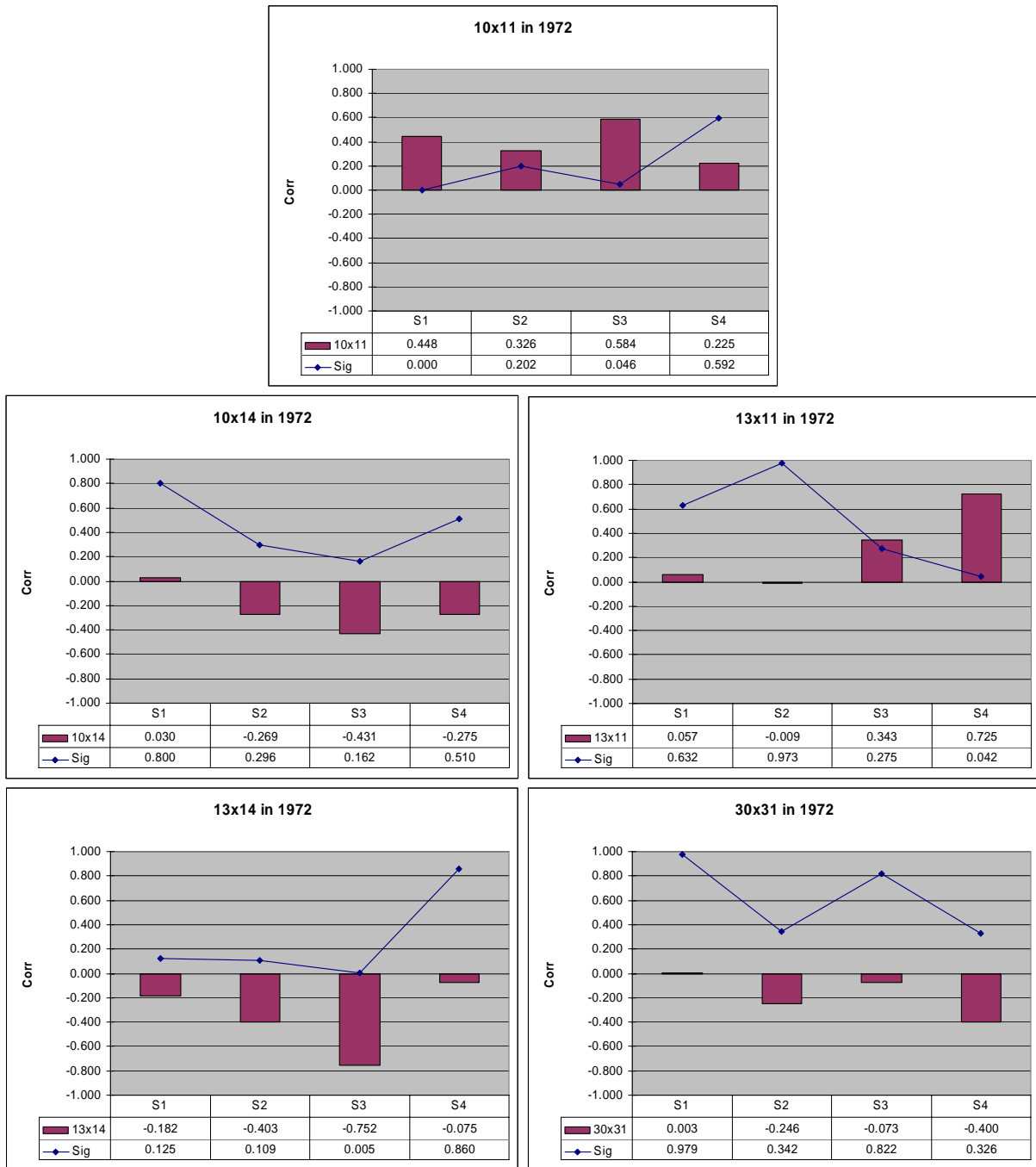


Figure 5. Spearman Correlations in 1972

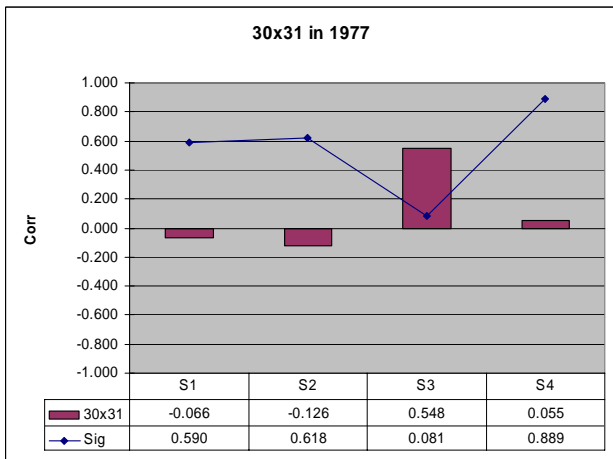
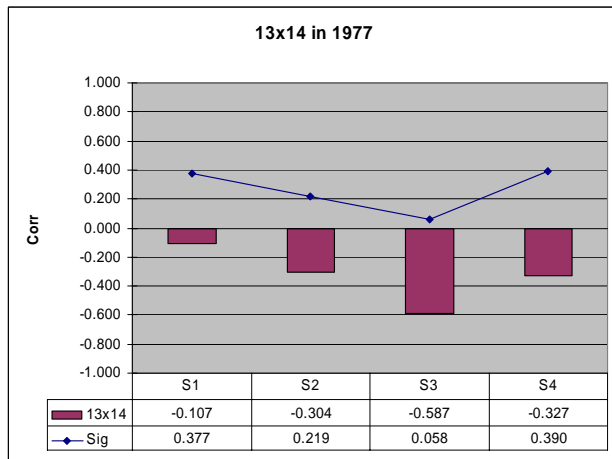
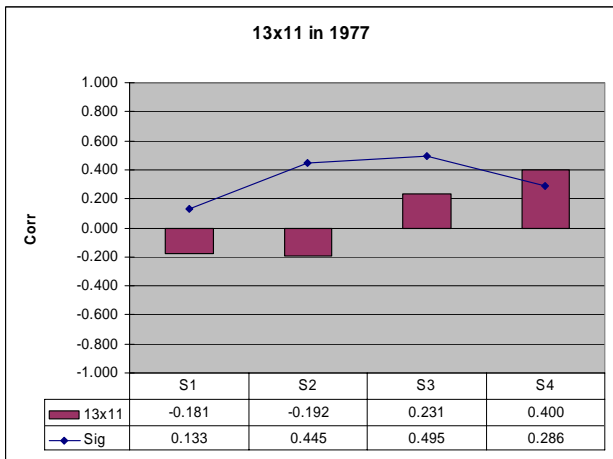
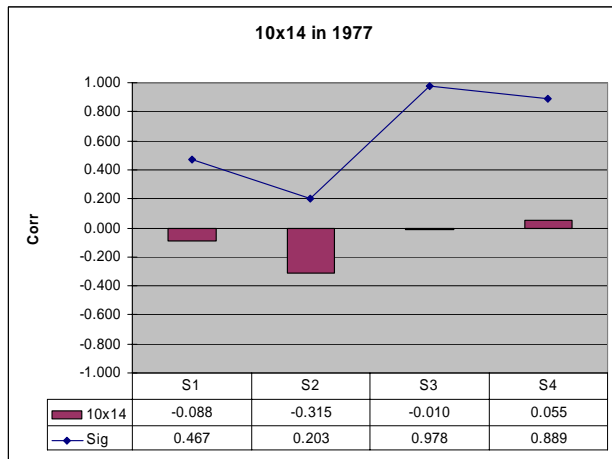
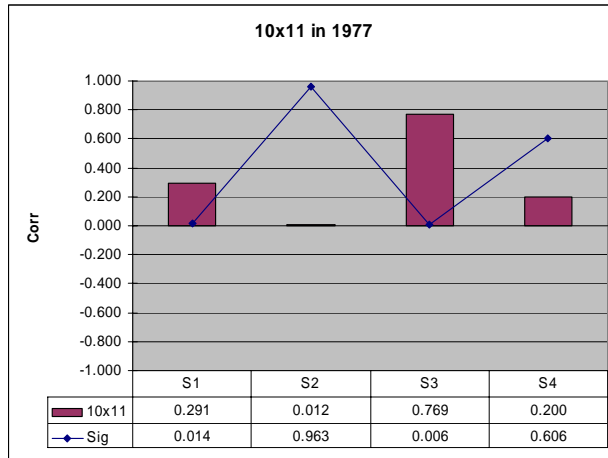


Figure 6. Spearman Correlations in 1977

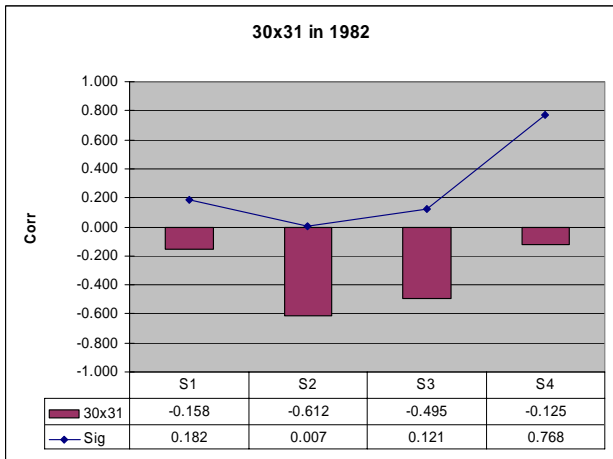
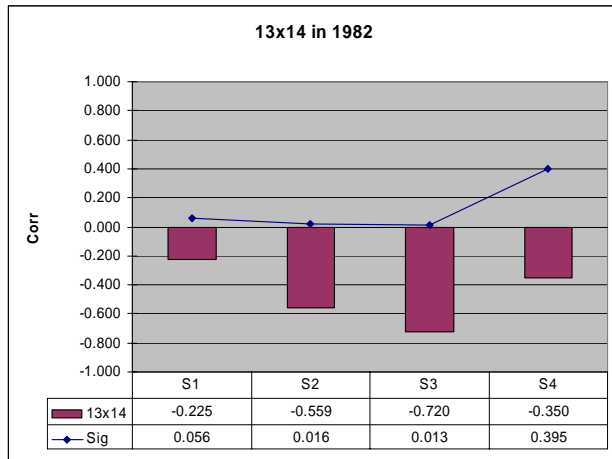
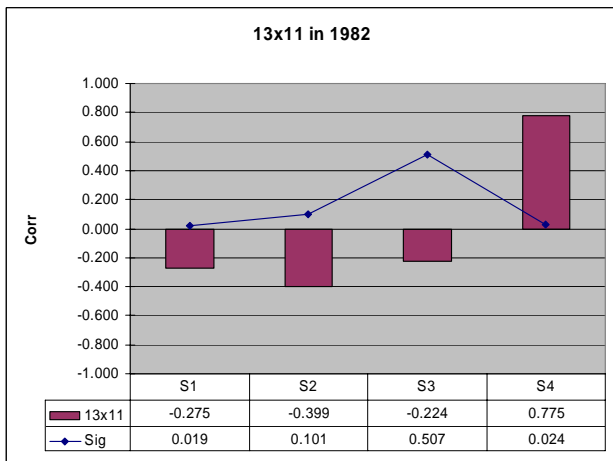
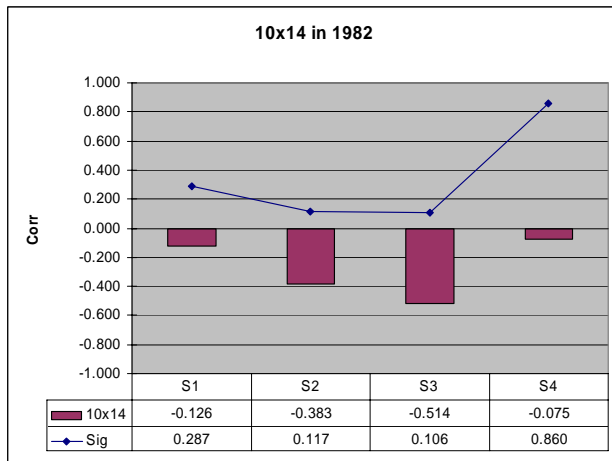
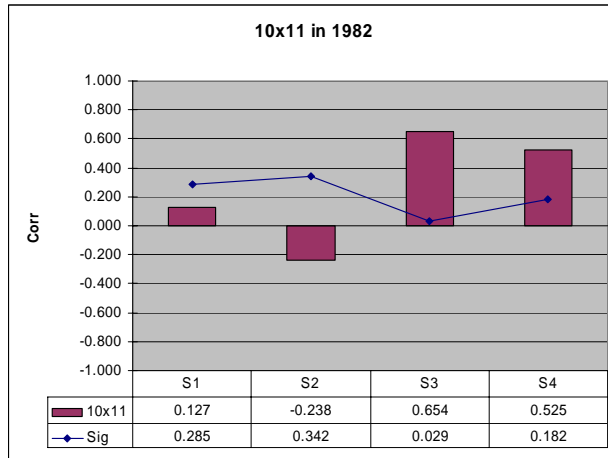


Figure 7. Spearman Correlations in 1982

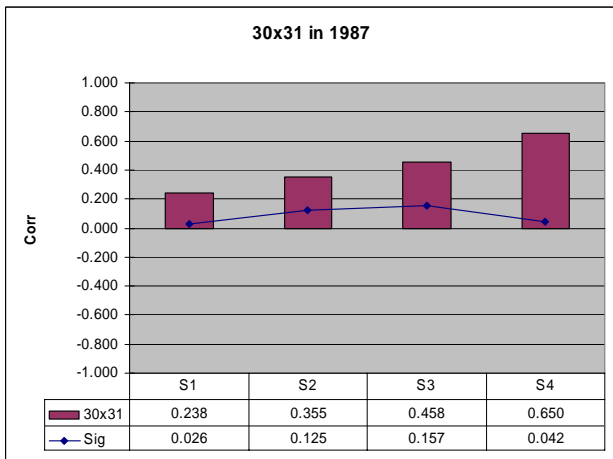
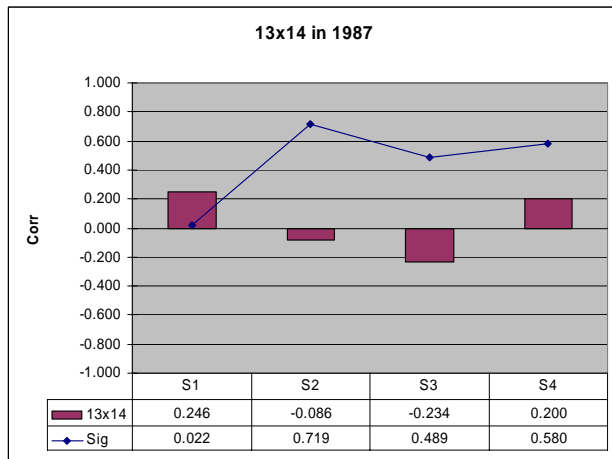
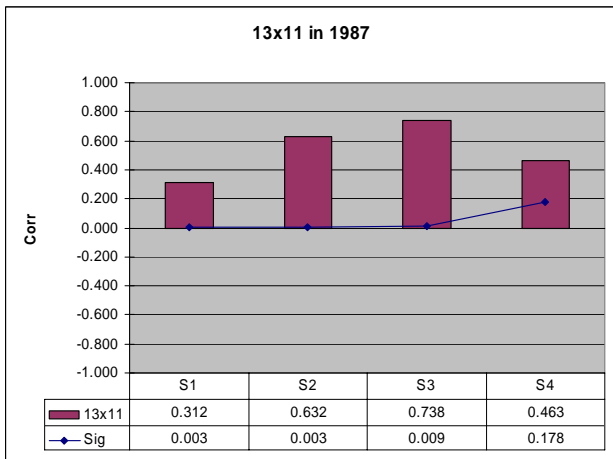
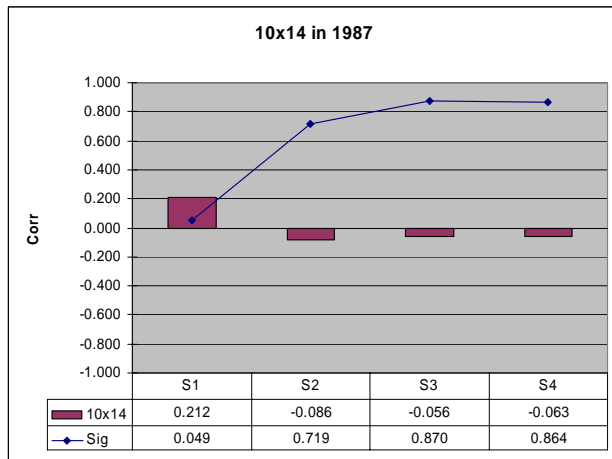
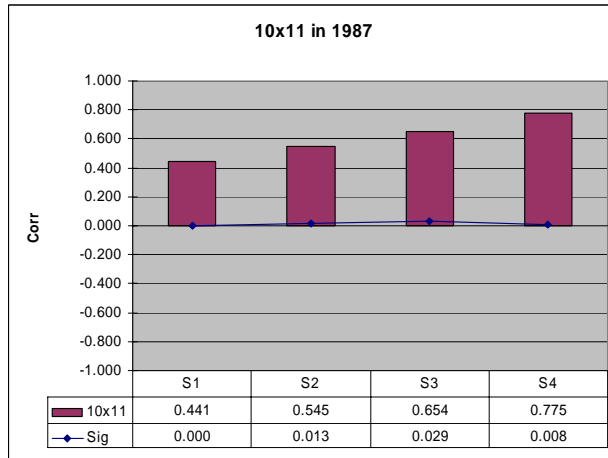


Figure 8. Spearman Correlations in 1987

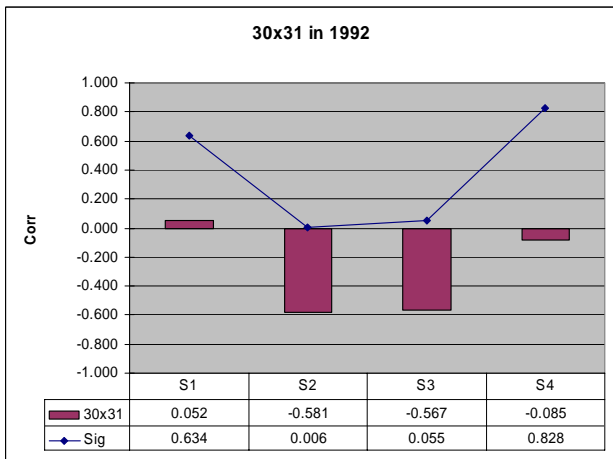
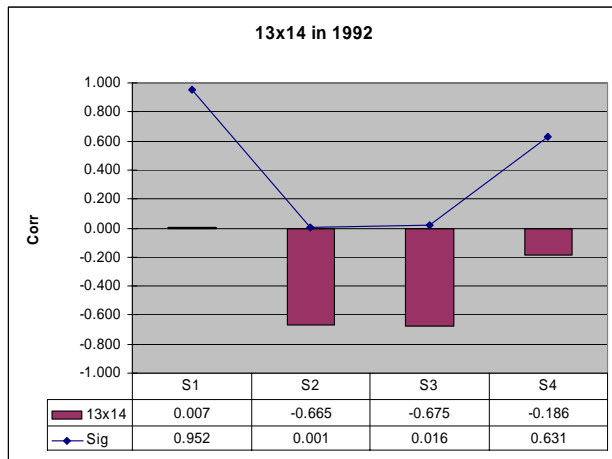
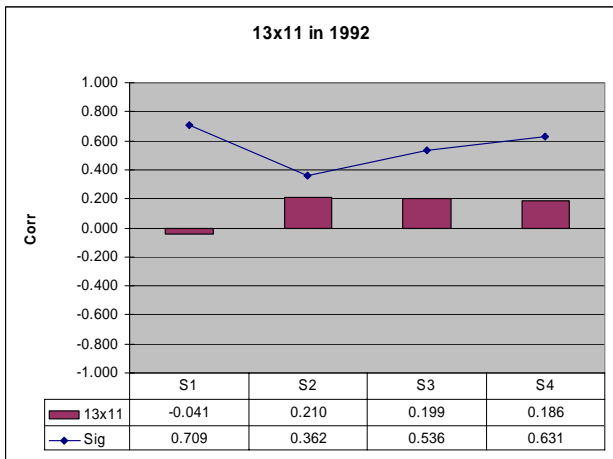
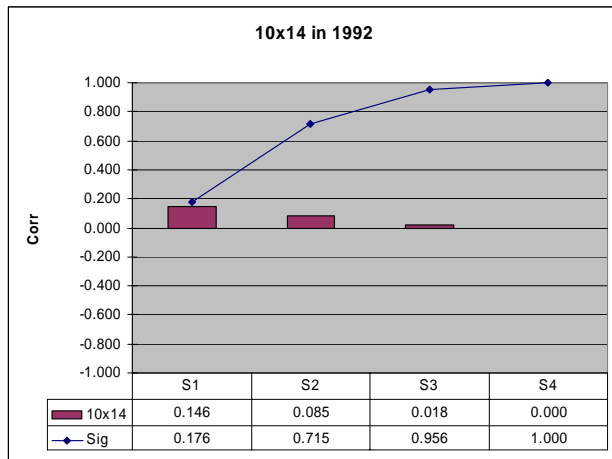
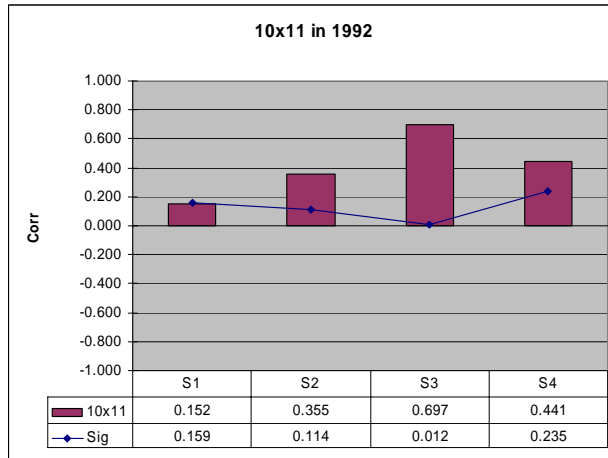


Figure 9. Spearman Correlations in 1992

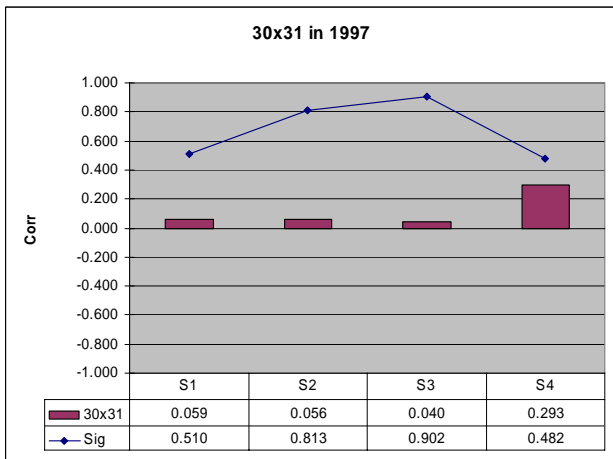
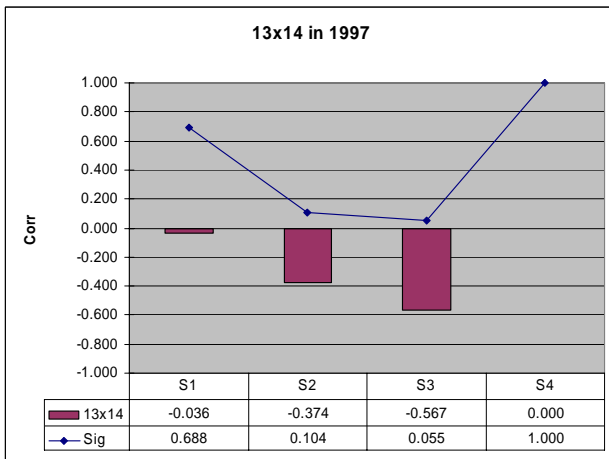
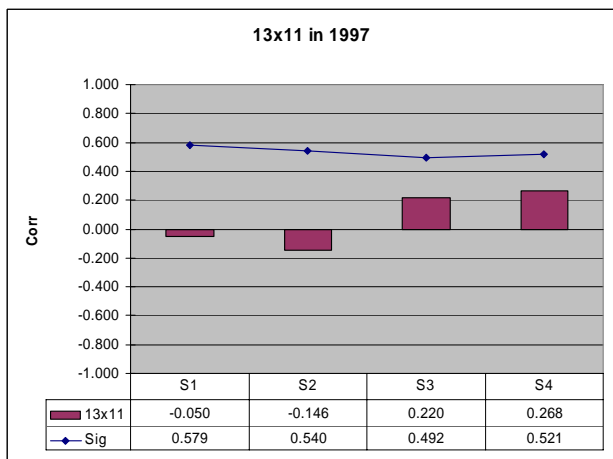
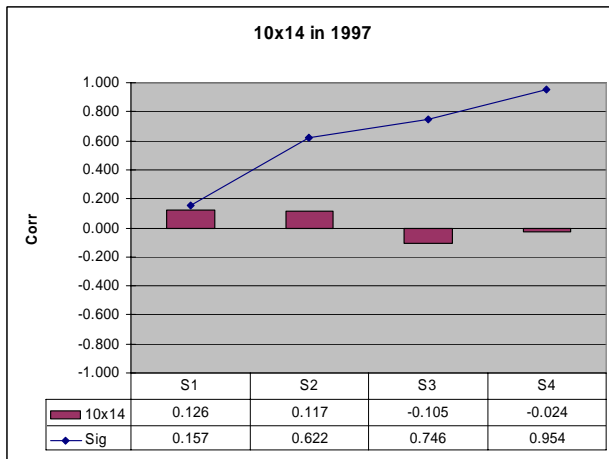
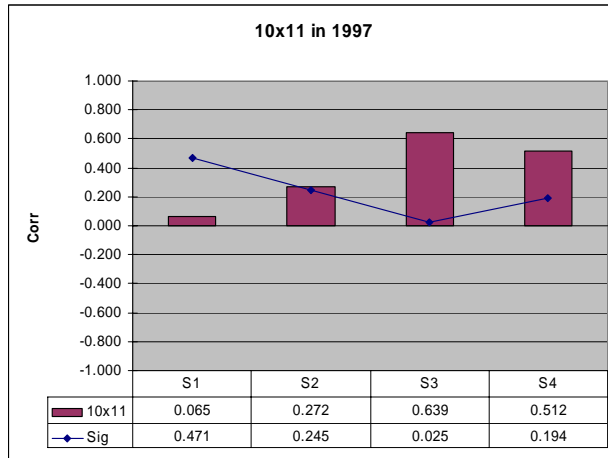


Figure 10. Spearman Correlations in 1997

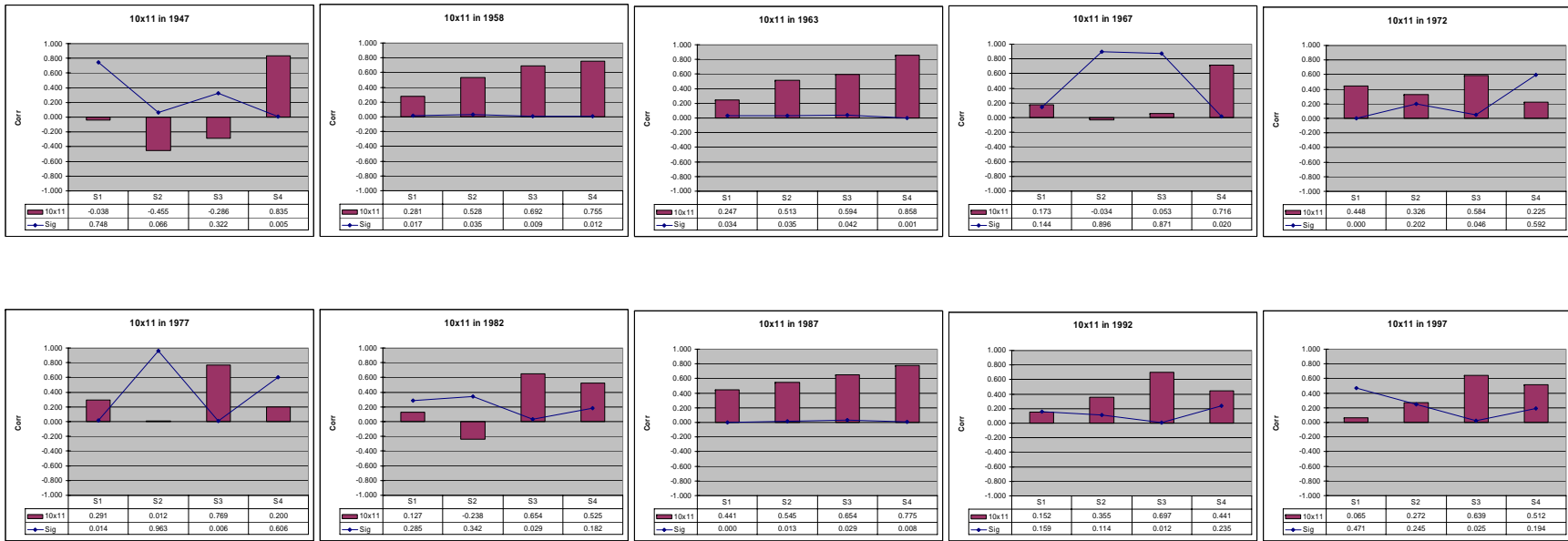


Figure 11. Spearman Correlations of 10x11 for 10 years ('47-'97)

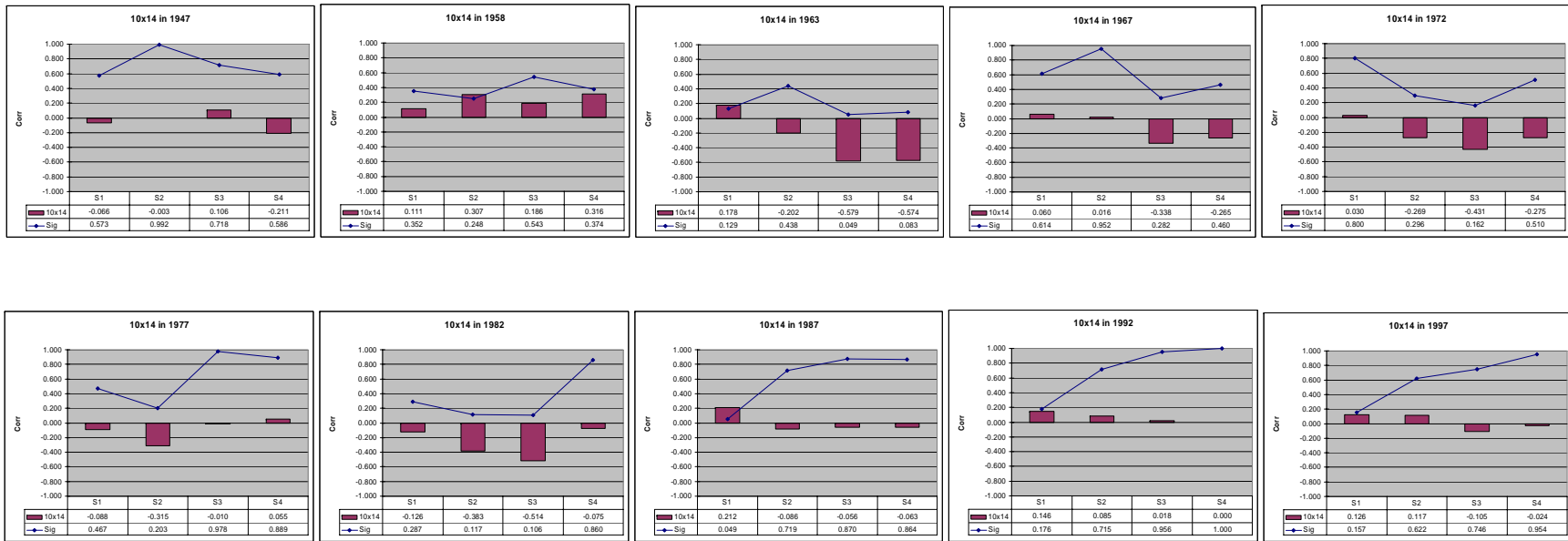


Figure 12. Spearman Correlations of 10x14 for 10 years ('47-'97)

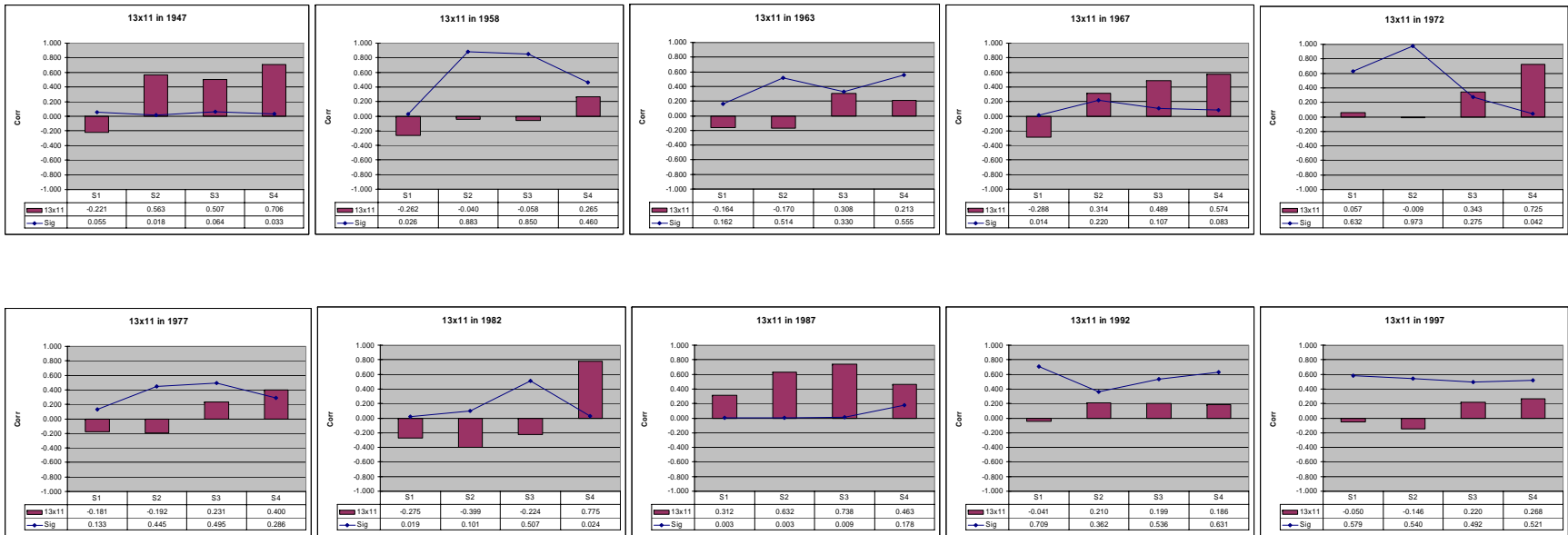


Figure 13. Spearman Correlations of 13x11 for 10 years ('47-'97)

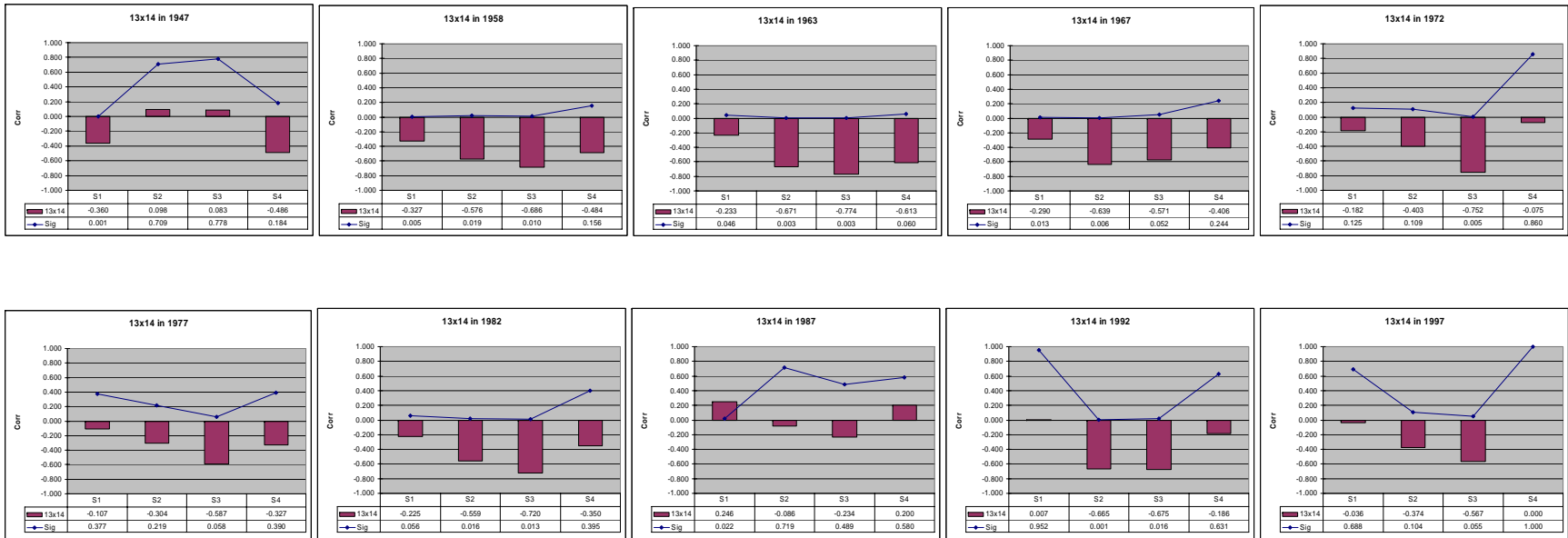


Figure 14. Spearman Correlations of 13x14 for 10 years ('47-'97)

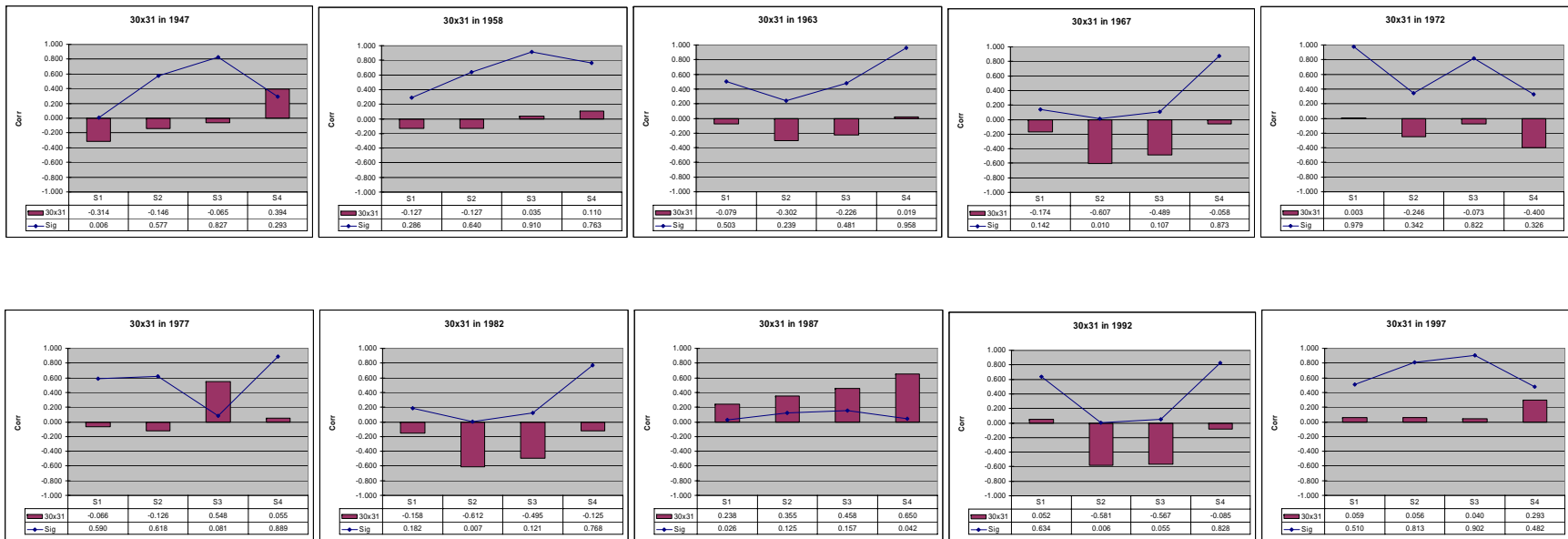


Figure 15. Spearman Correlations of 30x31 for 10 years ('47-'97)

