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Is Trade Good or Bad for the Environment? Sorting Out the Causality

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<u>Abstract</u>

We seek to contribute to the debate over globalization and the environment by asking: What is the effect of trade on a country's environment, for a given level of GDP? We take specific account of the endogeneity of trade, using exogenous geographic determinants of trade as instrumental variables. We find that trade tends to reduce three measures of air pollution. Statistical significance is high for concentrations of SO₂, moderate for NO₂, and lacking for particulate matter. While results for other environmental measures are not as encouraging, there is little evidence that trade has a detrimental effect on the environment.

Keywords: Openness, Growth, pollution, Kuznets, instrumental, variable, causality, simultaneity.

JEL Classification: F18

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Is Trade Good or Bad for the Environment? Sorting Out the Causality

1: Introduction

Opponents of globalization often fear the adverse effects of trade on environmental quality. Should they? In this short empirical paper, we use cross-country data to show that there is little evidence that openness increases air pollution, holding other things (such as income) constant. Our modest and incremental contribution to the literature is to take special care to account for the fact that income, trade, and environmental quality are determined simultaneously.¹

The simultaneity issue is potentially important. As Figure 1 shows, a rough inverse correlation between SO2 concentrations and trade is visible.² Eiras and Schaeffer (2001, p. 4), for example, find: "In countries with an open economy, the average environmental sustainability score is more than 30 percent higher than the scores of countries with moderately open economies, and almost twice as high as those of countries with closed economies." Does this mean that trade is good for the environment? Not necessarily. Causality could run in other directions. The observed correlation might be a result of the Porter hypothesis -- which claims that environmental regulation stimulates productivity -- together with the positive effect of income on trade. Or it might be because democracy leads to higher levels of environmental regulation, and democracy is causally intertwined with income and trade.

The central focus of the paper is to estimate the effect of trade on the environment *for a given level of income per capita*. This is an interesting question for two reasons. First, it is the most fundamental question for policy. If it is established that trade has an adverse effect on the environment solely because openness raise countries' incomes, which in turn damages the

environment, few would conclude that we should try to turn back the clock on globalization. Not many would choose deliberate self-impoverishment as a means to a clean environment.

The question is also interesting because, although the topic is the subject of a rapidly growing area of research, the answer is not settled. Indeed, the effect of trade on the environment is theoretically ambiguous.³

Many believe that openness harms the environment. Most widely discussed is the *race to the bottom hypothesis*, which says that open countries in general adopt looser standards of environmental regulation, out of fear of a loss in international competitiveness. Alternatively, poor open countries may act as pollution havens, adopting lax environmental standards to attract multinational corporations and export pollution-intensive goods.⁴

But less widely recognized is the possibility of an effect in the opposite direction, which we call the *gains from trade hypothesis*. If trade raises income, it allows countries to attain more of what they want, which includes environmental goods as well as more conventional output. Openness could have a positive effect on environmental quality (even for a given level of GDP per capita) for a number of reasons. First, trade can spur managerial and technological innovation, which can have positive effects on both the economy and the environment. Second, multinational corporations tend to bring clean state-of-the-art production techniques from high-standard source countries of origin to host countries. Third is the international ratcheting up of environmental standards through heightened public awareness.⁵ While some environmental gains might tend to occur with any increase in income, whether taking place in an open economy or not, others may be more likely when associated with international trade and investment.⁶ Whether the race to the bottom effect in practice dominates the gains from trade effect is an empirical question.⁷

Our paper is part of a larger literature; a number of studies have sought to isolate the independent effect of openness on the environment. In addition to those already mentioned, Lucas, et al. (1992), study the toxic intensity implied by the composition of manufacturing output in a sample of 80 countries, and find that a high degree of trade distorting policies increased pollution in rapidly growing countries.⁸ Harbaugh, Levinson, and Wilson (2000) report in passing a beneficial effect of trade on the environment, after controlling for income. Dean (2002) finds a detrimental direct of liberalization for a given level of income, via the terms of trade, though this is outweighed by a beneficial indirect effect via income.⁹ Antweiler, Copeland and Taylor (2001) and Copeland and Taylor (2003) represent an extensive body of theory and empirical research explicitly focused on the effects of trade on the environment. They conclude that trade liberalization that raises the scale of economic activity by 1 per cent works to raise SO₂ concentrations by ¼ to ½ % via the scale channel, but that the accompanying technique channel reduces concentrations by 1 ¼ to 1 ½%, so that the overall effect is beneficial.

Antweiler, et al, point out that endogeneity could be a potential weakness of their work; and a number of authors have sought to address some aspects of endogeneity.¹⁰ But the existing research does not directly address the problem that trade may be simultaneously determined with income and environmental outcomes. Allowing for the endogeneity of trade and income is the main new contribution of this paper.

2: Methodology

We turn directly to the empirics.

Equation to be estimated

We estimate the following cross-country equation:

$$EnvDam_{i} = \varphi_{0} + \varphi_{1} \ln(y / pop_{1})_{90,i} + \varphi_{2} \ln(y / pop_{2})_{90,i}^{2} + \beta([X + M] / Y)_{90,i} + \varphi_{3}(Polity)_{90,i} + \varphi_{4} \ln(LandArea / pop)_{90,i} + e_{i}$$

where:

- *EnvDam_i* is one of three measures of environmental damage for country *i*,
- $\{\phi_i\}$ is a set of control coefficients,
- $ln(y/pop)_{90,i}$ represents the natural logarithm of 1990 real GDP per capita for country *i*,
- (X + M)/Y represents the ratio of nominal exports and imports to GDP ("openness"),
- Polity is a measure of how democratic (vs. autocratic) is the structure of the government,
- *LandArea/pop* is a measure of per capita land area, and
- *e* is a residual representing other causes of environmental damage.

The coefficient of interest to us is β , the partial effect of openness on environmental degradation.

Income plays a strong role in determining environmental outcomes. We incorporate into our analysis -- without relying on -- the "environmental Kuznets curve" (EKC). This is a U-shaped relationship between income per capita and certain types of pollution, brought to attention by the World Bank (1992) and Grossman and Krueger (1993, 1995). Growth increases air and water pollution at the initial stages of industrialization, but later on can reduce pollution given the right institutions, as countries become rich enough to pay to clean up their environments. The EKC hypothesis predicts that the coefficient on the squared income term is negative, so that the pollution curve eventually turns down.¹¹

The market does not address externalities left to itself. Higher income is unlikely to result in an improved environmental regulation absent appropriate political institutions. Thus it is important to control also for the latter, which we do by including *polity* in our equation.

Addressing endogeneity

The endogeneity of trade is a familiar problem from the empirical literature on openness and growth.¹² What is needed is a good instrumental variable, which is exogenous yet highly correlated with trade. The gravity model of bilateral trade offers a solution. It states that trade between a pair of countries is determined, positively, by country size (GDP, population, and land area) and, negatively, by distance between the countries in question (physical distance as well as cultural distance in the form of, e.g., difference languages). Geographical variables are plausibly exogenous. Yet when aggregated across all bilateral trading partners, these variables are highly correlated with a country's overall trade, and thus make good instrumental variables, as first noted by Frankel and Romer (1999). Thus we construct an instrumental variable for openness by aggregating up across a country's partners the prediction of a gravity equation that explains trade with distance, population, language, land border, land area, and landlocked status.

We use a cross-country approach, thus choosing not to follow Grossman and Krueger (1993) and Antweiler et al (2001) in using panel data. We realize that a pure cross-section approach means that we cannot control for unobservable heterogeneity. But our key instrument is driven by cross-country geographical variation, which does not change over time, so there seems little advantage for us in a panel study.

Income per capita too is endogenous. Both trade and environmental regulation may affect income.¹⁴ We thus use a second set of instrumental variables for income, taken from the

growth literature. These include: lagged income (thus we incorporate the conditional convergence hypothesis), population size, and rates of investment and human capital formation (the factor accumulation variables familiar from neoclassical growth equations).

Data

We focus on results for three 1990 measures of air pollution, all measured as concentrations in micrograms per cubic meter (simply averaged across a country's measuring stations and cities, in cases where more than one observation was available):

- SO₂: mean sulphur dioxide,
- NO₂: mean nitrogen dioxide, and
- PM: mean total suspended particulate matter.

We have also looked at four other measures of environmental quality:

- CO₂: Industrial carbon dioxide emissions per capita, in metric tons
- Deforestation: average annual percentage change, 1990-95
- Energy depletion: "genuine savings" as a percentage of GDP¹⁵, and
- Rural Clean Water Access: as percentage of rural population, 1990-1996.

Of these seven, the three measures of local air pollution – SO_2 , NO_2 , and particulates –are the most relevant. CO_2 is a purely global externality, and unlikely to be addressed by regulation at the national level. Deforestation and energy depletion are not measures of pollution, and measuring them involves some serious problems of composition and data reliability, as does water access. Still, it seems worthwhile to look as well at these broader measures of environmental quality.

Per capita income is defined as 1990 GDP per capita (measured in real PPP-adjusted dollars), taken from the Penn World Table 5.6. The Penn World Table also supplies our measure

of openness. Polity ranges from -10 ("strongly autocratic") to +10 (strongly democratic), and is taken from the Polity IV project. Land area is taken from the CIA's website and is intended to allow for the likelihood that population density leads to environmental degradation (for a given level of per capita income). Descriptive statistics are included in an appendix table, and simple scatterplots are portrayed in the appendix figure.

3: Results

Table 1 reports our key estimation results, where the dependent variable is represented in turn by the three measures of air pollution. The three columns at the left of the table are the OLS estimates, while the IV estimates are on the right.

The estimated effect of the polity variable on pollution is always negative, suggesting that improved governance has a beneficial effect. It is generally significant statistically. The same is true of land area per capita, evidence that population density has an adverse effect on pollution.

Of greater interest is the relationship with per capita income. The estimated coefficient on the quadratic term is negative for all three measures of air pollution, confirming the EKC hypothesis: after a certain point (recorded at the bottom of the table as "income peak"), growth reduces these environmental indicators. Statistically, it is highly significant in the case of SO_2 and NO_2 , and moderately so in the case of PM.

Our central interest is β , the coefficient on openness. The OLS estimate is negative for all three kinds of air pollution – insignificantly so for PM, moderately significant for NO₂, and highly significant for SO₂. Apparently any adverse "race to the bottom" effect on air pollution is outweighed by a positive "gains from trade" effect.

The main contribution of this paper is to address the possibility that these apparent effects may be the spurious results of simultaneity. The right part of the table reports instrumental

variables estimates, where the gravity-derived prediction of openness is the instrument for trade and the factor accumulation variables are the instruments for income. The IV results are generally similar to the OLS results, though with somewhat diminished significance levels in some cases. The EKC is still there for all three pollutants, and the coefficient on openness is negative for all three pollution measures. As in the OLS results, statistical significance is high for SO₂, moderate for NO₂, and lacking for particulates.

As an alternative to our quadratic functional form for the EKC, we have also tried a three-segment spline, with "knots" at the .33 and .66 percentiles of the logarithm of per capita income. Results are comparable, and are reported in the working paper.¹⁶

Results for Other Environmental Measures

Air pollution is only one kind of measure of environmental quality. We also produced analogous estimates for other measures of environmental degradation.

Table 2 reports our OLS and IV estimates of β for carbon dioxide, deforestation, energy depletion, and access to clean water.¹⁷

Beneficial OLS effects of openness show up only for energy depletion and clean water access (an increase in clean water access indicates a beneficial environmental effect, the reverse of the other six indicators), and are of borderline statistical significance. The case that would give an environmentalist the greatest concern is CO_2 . The coefficient on openness is positive and of moderate significance. This result could be viewed as one piece of evidence supporting the idea that the free-rider problem inhibits individual countries from curbing emissions of greenhouse gases on their own.¹⁸ CO₂ is a purely global externality, so there is no reason to expect individual countries to address it without some mechanism of international cooperation.

When instrumental variables are used, the detrimental effect of openness on carbon dioxide emissions loses all significance, while the apparently beneficial effect on energy depletion becomes significant at the 10% level. On the other hand, the beneficial OLS effect on water access disappears. Evidently the use of instrumental variables to correct for simultaneity can make an important difference to some results.

To summarize: the results are generally supportive of the environmental Kuznets curve, and of the positive effect of democracy on environmental quality. More importantly, there is some evidence that openness reduces air pollution and little evidence that openness causes significant environmental degradation, other things equal. The most important exception is carbon dioxide.

Do Some Countries Have a "Comparative Advantage" in Pollution?

We also test the "pollution haven" hypothesis according to which economic integration results in some open countries exporting pollution to others, even if there is no systematic effect on the world environment in the aggregate.

One version of the hypothesis is that open countries that have a particularly high demand for environmental quality – rich countries – specialize in products that can be produced cleanly, letting poor open countries produce and sell the products that require pollution. This hypothesis can be readily tested by adding the interaction of openness and income per capita to our equation. If rich countries take advantage of trade by transferring the location of pollutioncreating activities to poor countries, the interaction between openness and income should have a negative effect on pollution. When we tried this, the coefficient on the interactive term was insignificant for most of the seven environmental measures. The exceptions are particulates and

SO₂. With either OLS or IV estimation, openness interacted with income has a positive effect on these two types of pollution, opposite of that predicted by the standard pollution haven hypothesis.¹⁹

A second version of the pollution haven hypothesis is that countries endowed with a high supply of environmental quality – e.g., those with high land area per capita – become pollution havens, exporting dirty goods to more densely populated countries. We tested this by adding the product of openness and land area per capita. Again, signs were divided between negative and positive, and the coefficients were usually insignificant. The only two cases with significant interaction coefficients (IV for particulates, and OLS for CO_2) have the "wrong" sign, suggesting that more sparsely populated countries have lower emissions than they otherwise would, not higher. Again, there is no evidence supporting the pollution haven hypothesis.

A third possible source of "comparative advantage" derives from traditional trade theory. If some countries have a comparative advantage in capital-intensive sectors such as mining or heavy manufacturing, and these sectors produce comparatively more pollution, then trade may lead to an increase in pollution among the capital-endowed countries and a decrease among the labor-endowed countries.²⁰ We tested this version by including interactive terms defined as openness times the country's capital/labor ratio. The signs are mixed, and standard errors large; the interactive term is not statistically significant.

To summarize: there is no evidence that poor, land-abundant, or capital-abundant countries use trade to exploit a comparative advantage in pollution. The only cases where the coefficient on the interactive term appears significant are of the wrong sign. The details of estimates for all three versions of the pollution haven hypothesis are available in the working paper version of this paper.

4: Conclusions

Trade can have several sorts of effects on the environment. In this short paper, we have modeled the effect of trade on the environment, controlling for income and other relevant factors. The primary contribution of the paper is to address the endogeneity of income and especially trade, the latter by means of instrumental variables drawn from the gravity model. While the use of instrumental variables did not radically reverse the results of earlier OLS studies, it could have; and it did make a substantive difference to the estimates in some cases.

We have found that trade appears to have a beneficial effect on some measures of environmental quality, though not all, ceteris paribus. The effect is particularly beneficial for some measures of air pollution, such as SO₂. Our examination of seven different measures of environmental quality provides little evidence that trade has a detrimental effect overall. We reject the hypothesis of an international race to the bottom driven by trade. There is also no evidence for the pollution haven hypothesis, which claims that trade encourages some countries to specialize in dirtier environments.

Other evidence shows that trade promotes economic growth.²¹ Thus trade also has an indirect effect on the environment. Given the environmental Kuznets curve, at low levels of income this effect increases pollution, but at high levels reduces it.

The major example where trade and growth might have the detrimental effects feared by environmentalists is carbon dioxide. Greenhouse gases are global externalities, and there is no reason to expect individual countries to be able to address them in the absence of an international agreement.

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Table 1:	Ξ	erminants of Air Pollution	Concentrations
		, ,	

	OLS	OLS	OLS	IV	IV	IV
	NO ₂	SO ₂	PM	NO ₂	SO ₂	РМ
Trade / GDP	29	31	37	33	23	31
	(.17)	(.08)	(.34)	(.19)	(.10)	(.41)
Log real GDP per capita	409	287	567	461	296	681
	(122)	(119)	(336)	(199)	(140)	(412)
Log real GDP p/c	-22.8	-16.6	-35.6	-25.6	-17.1	-42.0
squared	(6.9)	(6.8)	(19.1)	(10.9)	(7.7)	(23.2)
Polity	-3.20	-6.58	-6.70	-3.77	-6.41	-7.78
-	(1.47)	(2.05)	(3.42)	(1.37)	(2.27)	(4.07)
Log of Area per capita	-5.94	-2.92	-13.0	-6.14	-1.54	-12.6
	(5.93)	(1.39)	(6.29)	(6.43)	(1.96)	(6.84)
Observations	36	41	38	35	40	37
\mathbb{R}^2	.16	.68	.62	.18	.67	.63
Income Peak	\$7665	\$5770	\$2882	\$8015	\$5637	\$3353

Cross-country estimation across countries in 1990.

(Robust standard errors in parentheses.)

Regressands are averages per cubic meter. Intercept included but not reported.

Instrument for trade constructed by aggregating predicted bilateral gravity equation of trade on: distance, population, area, and dummies for language, land border, and landlocked status. Instruments for income (and square) constructed from regression of income on: lagged income, population, openness, investment, population growth, and primary and second school enrollments.

Table 2: Effect of Openness on = her Types of Environmental Degradation

	OLS	IV
~~~	016	0.00
$CO_2$	.016	.000
	(.008)	(.010)
Deforestation	.002	.001
	(.003)	(.004)
Energy Depletion	014	034
	(.009)	(.020)
Rural Clean	.111	067
Water Access	(.078)	(.266)

Estimation across countries in 1990.

(Robust standard errors in parentheses.)

Income, income squared, polity score, log area per capita, and intercept were included in the regression, but are not reported here, to save space.



Figure 1: SO2 versus measure of openness to trade

# **E** ble A1: Descriptive Statistics

	Obs.	Mean	Standard	Min	Max
			Deviation		
$NO_2$	42	55.4	39.5	5	248
$SO_2$	48	31.9	35.9	1	209
Particulate Matter	44	103.1	84.8	9	368.9
CO ₂	147	4.1	6.0	.0	31.3
Deforestation	137	.5	1.2	-2.7	7.2
Energy Depletion	144	4.7	12.7	0	104.3
<b>Rural Clean Water Access</b>	70	7.5	5.5	.2	26.9
Trade / GDP	113	73	49	13	373
Log real GDP per capita	113	8.0	1.1	6.0	9.8
Polity	133	.8	7.7	-10	10
Log of Area per capita	112	3.0	1.5	-1.8	6.6



Appendix tables Results for interaction of income and trade (with income in quadratic form).

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cited in published paper, but not reported there

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• * . * This differs from pa4c in that interactions of openness with income p/c .  $\star$  and land area are added (the interaction with K/L is in pa4ac) . ' . * This STATA program estimates a set of equations for: . * a) income; . * b) openness; and . * c) pollution. . * This program uses IV and OLS methods. . .  $\star$  The new baseline uses quadratics, not a spline for income. . * . * First interaction: with GDP p/c . * Add the interactions to the benchmark equation . OLS then IV. . * CO2 . * . reg co2perc inc incsq pwtopen intery polity lareapc, robust Number of obs = Regression with robust standard errors 100 F(6, 93) = 40.99Prob > F = 0.0000 R-squared = 0.7659 Root MSE = 2.3632 _____ Robust _____ co2perc | Coef. Std. Err. t P>|t| _____+____+______ inc | -17.54647 4.202776 -4.17 0.000 incsq | 1.247794 .2689828 4.64 0.000 pwtopen | -.1171033 .0728187 -1.61 0.111 intery | .0152322 .0089684 1.70 0.093 polity | -.0021871 .0295169 -0.07 0.941 pwtopen | -.1171033 
 lareapc
 .2897612
 .1886449
 1.54
 0.128

 _cons
 61.60089
 16.40485
 3.76
 0.000
 _____ _____ . test inc incsq (1) inc = 0 (2) incsq = 0 F(2, 93) = 14.32Prob > F = 0.0000. * Income Peak 1131.1588 ivreg co2perc (inc incsq pwtopen = elhsfs incf incfsq) intery polity lareapc, robust IV (2SLS) regression with robust standard errors Number of obs = 96 F(6, 89) = 24.50Prob > F = 0.0000R-squared = 0.5760 Root MSE = 2.8579 Root MSE _____ Robust co2perc | Coef. Std. Err. t P>|t| _____ _____ inc | -20.42214 8.420988 -2.43 0.017

incsq | 1.688672 .7398712 2.28 0.025 pwtopen | .4165342 .5465228 0.76 0.448 intery | -.0468285 .0616196 -0.76 0.449 polity | -.136495 .1089114 -1.25 0.213 lareapc | -.4210369 .7030166 -0.60 0.551 __cons | 56.35638 21.74199 2.59 0.011 _____ _____ Instrumented: inc incsq pwtopen Instruments: intery polity lareapc elhsfs incf incfsq _____ _____ _____ . test inc incsg (1) inc = 0 (2) incsq = 0 F(2, 89) = 3.06 Prob > F = 0.0518. * Income Peak 422.7599 • * . * Deforestation . reg defp inc incsq pwtopen intery polity lareapc, robust 96 Regression with robust standard errors F( 6, 89) = 7.65Prob > F = 0.0000Number of obs = R-squared = 0.2538 Root MSE = 1.1267 _____ Robust - I Coef. Std. Err. defp | t P>|t| _____ inc | 4.379583 1.332433 3.29 0.001 

 incsq
 -.3014252
 .0816164
 -3.69
 0.000

 pwtopen
 .0268688
 .0288845
 0.93
 0.355

 intery
 -.0028982
 .0031489
 -0.92
 0.360

 polity
 .0330982
 .0294806
 1.12
 0.265

 lareapc
 -.1405813
 .0881114
 -1.60
 0.114

 _cons
 -14.57958
 5.434964
 -2.68
 0.009

 <del>_</del>_____ . test inc incsq (1) inc = 0 (2) incsq = 0 F(2, 89) = 9.1 Prob > F = 0.0002. * Income Peak 1429.0891 ivreg defp (inc incsq pwtopen = elhsfs incf incfsq) intery polity lareapc, robust IV (2SLS) regression with robust standard errors Number of obs = 92 F(6, 85) = 2.98 Prob > F = 0.0108 R-squared = 1.958 Root MSE Robust Coef. Std. Err. t P>|t| defp | _____ inc | .9473862 11.67173 0.08 0.935 incsq | .0808805 1.134537 0.07 0.943 pwtopen | .4140609 .9814517 0.42 0.674 intery | -.0468629 .1116816 -0.42 0.676 intery | -.0468629 .1116816 -0.42 0.676 polity | -.0222205 .1338221 -0.17 0.869 lareapc | -.5637075 1.232651 -0.46 0.649 _cons | -12.55295 20.86813 -0.60 0.549 Instrumented: inc incsq pwtopen Instruments: intery polity lareapc elhsfs incf incfsq . test inc incsq (1) inc = 0 (2) incsg = 0 F(2, 85) = 0.85Prob > F = 0.4313

. * Income Peak .00286067

. *
. * Energy Depletion
. *
. reg enrdam inc incsq pwtopen intery polity lareapc, robust

Regression wit	h robust stand	lard error.	s		Number of ob F( 6, 91 Prob > F R-squared Root MSE	s = ) = = =	98 3.22 0.0065 0.1679 6.8478
 enrdam	Coef.	Robust Std. Err.	t	P> t			
inc   incsq   pwtopen   intery   polity   lareapc   cons	38.16656 -2.206049 .024658 0044884 4570515 .2441835 -157.3793	9.120849 .5253217 .105582 .0119176 .1708018 .4866501 38.71899	4.18 -4.20 0.23 -0.38 -2.68 0.50 -4.06	0.000 0.000 0.816 0.707 0.009 0.617 0.000			
. test inc inc	esq (1) ir	nc = 0	(2) inc	sq = 0			
F( 2,	91) = 8.	82	Pr	ob > F	= 0.0003		
. * Income Pea	.k 5712.609						
ivreg enrdam (	inc incsq pwto	open = elh	sfs incf i	ncfsq)	intery polity	lar	eapc, robust
IV (2SLS) regr	ression with ro	obust stan	dard error	S	Number of ob. F( 6, 86 Prob > F R-squared Root MSE	s = ) = = =	93 0.94 0.4741 13.47
enrdam	Coef.	Robust Std. Err.		P> t			
inc   incsq   pwtopen   intery   polity   lareapc   cons	11.48796 .6232899 2.69875 3082474 8342795 -2.79859 -131.4493	53.26458 4.809828 3.787932 .4290995 .5914198 5.125422 124.399	0.22 0.13 0.71 -0.72 -1.41 -0.55 -1.06	0.830 0.897 0.478 0.474 0.162 0.586 0.294			
Instrumented: Instruments:	inc incsq pwt intery polity	open / lareapc	elhsfs inc	f incfs	q		
. test inc inc F( 2,	esq (1) ir 86) = 2.	ac = 0 30	(2) inc Pr	sq = 0 ob > F	= 0.1063		
. * Income Pea	.00009948						
. * . * NO2 . * . reg no2m inc	: incsq pwtoper	n intery p	olity lare	apc, ro	bust		
Regression wit	h robust stand	lard error	S		Number of ob. F( 6, 29 Prob > F R-squared Root MSE	s = ) = = =	36 2.63 0.0370 0.1574 41.111
no2m	Coef.	Robust Std. Err.	t	P> t			

inc	422.3331	171.3873	2.46	0.020		
incsq	-23./3463	10.48264	-2.26	0.031		
pwcopen	7230931	5.321800	-0.14	0.893		
nolity	-3 200483	1 171712	-2 17	0.930		
lareanc	-5 929677	6 017269	-0 99	0.000		
cons	-1746.937	670.61	-2.60	0.014		
test inc inc	sq (1)	inc = 0	(2) ii	ncsq = 0		
F(2,	29) =	1.82		Prob >	F = 0.0155	
* Income Pea	k 7309.	.8672				
vreg no2m (in	c incsq pwtop	oen = elhsfs	incf ind	cfsq) in	tery polity larea	apc, robust
V (2SLS) regr	ession with 1	cobust stand	lard erro	rs	Number of obs =	35
					F(6, 28) =	7.61
					Prob > F =	0.0001
					R-squared =	0.2287
					Root MSE =	38.595
		Robust				
no2m	Coef.	Std. Err.	t	P> t		
inc	645 1652	237 6681	2 71	0 011		
incsa	-37.44308	14.49659	-2.58	0.015		
pwtopen	-6.302414	6.453029	-0.98	0.337		
interv	6321251	6943821	0.90	0.330		
nolity	-4 348285	1 010762	-4 30	0.070		
larcang	-7 102611	6 072446	-4.30	0.000		
Iareapc	-7.102011	0.0/2440	-1.17	0.232		
	-2011.300	951.1994	=2.75	0.010		
nstrumented: nstruments:	inc incsq pv intery polit	vtopen zy lareapc e	lhsfs ind	cf incfs	q	
test inc inc: F( 2,	sq (1) =	inc = 0 ( 2 1.22	) incsq P:	= 0 rob > F	= 0.0250	
* Income Pea	k 5515.286	55				
*						
* Sulfur Dio:	xide					
*						
reg sulfdm i	nc incsq pwto	open intery	polity la	areapc,	robust	
egression wit	n robust star	ndard errors			Number of obs =	41
					F(6, 34) =	7.97
					Prob > F =	0.0000
					R-squared =	0.7103
					Root MSE =	22.181
		Robust				
sulfdm	Coef.	Std. Err.	t	P> t		
+ inc !	372 9109	142 1192	2 62	0 013		
	-22 60124	4 306773	_2.02	0.011		
Tucsd	-22.0UI34	0.330//3	-2.09	0.011		
pwtopen	-3.559056	1.653811	-2.15	0.039		
intery	.3531279	.1/53988	2.01	0.052		
polity	-6.301547	1.927016	-3.27	0.002		
lareapc	-1.813289	1.711337	-1.06	0.297		
_cons	-1405.922	581.1829	-2.42	0.021		
test inc inc			(2) in	$rac{1}{2}$		
F( 2,	34) = 4	1.12	(2) 110	Prob > F	· = 0.0249	
* Income Pea	k 3826.0	5707				
		_				
vreg sulfdm (	inc incsq pwt	copen = elhs	ts incf :	incfsq)	intery polity la	reapc, rob
V (2SLS) regr	ession with m	cobust stand	lard erro:	rs	Number of obs =	40

					F( 6, Prob > F R-squared Root MSE	33) = = = =	7.04 0.0001 0.6920 23.207
sulfdm	Coef.	Robust Std. Err.	t	P> t			
inc incsq pwtopen intery polity lareapc _cons	513.4604 -31.61047 -7.005777 .7217778 -6.518679 -1.443263 -1929.897	210.9468 12.99536 4.380388 .4694786 1.92014 2.194518 829.4044	2.43 -2.43 -1.60 1.54 -3.39 -0.66 -2.33	0.021 0.021 0.119 0.134 0.002 0.515 0.026			
Instrumented: Instruments:	inc incsq p intery poli	wtopen ty lareapc el	lhsfs inc	f incfs	q		
. test inc inc F( 2,	csq (1) 33) =	inc = 0 ( 2.97	2) incs P	q = 0 rob > F	= 0.065	54	
. * Income Pea	ak 3366	.6849					
. * . * Suspended . *	Particles						
. reg suspm in	nc incsq pwto	pen intery po	olity lar	eapc, r	obust		
Regression wit	ch robust sta	ndard errors			Number of F( 6, Prob > F R-squared Root MSE	obs = 31) = = =	38 11.10 0.0000 0.6582 57.823
suspm	Coef.	Robust Std. Err.	t	P> t			_
inc incsq pwtopen intery polity lareapc _cons	645.4215 -42.93882 -8.707592 .9440587 -7.081393 -10.76527 -2124.038	307.3769 18.05398 5.128309 .5607545 3.042012 5.808484 1301.286	2.10 -2.38 -1.70 1.68 -2.33 -1.85 -1.63	0.044 0.024 0.100 0.102 0.027 0.073 0.113			_
. test inc inc F( 2,	csq (1) 31) =	inc = 0 ( 2) 5.76	incsq Pr	= 0 ob > F	= 0.0075	) )	
. * Income Pea	ak 1836.4596						
ivreg suspm (i	inc incsq pwt	open = elhsf:	s incf in	cfsq) i	ntery polit	y lar	eapc, robust
IV (2SLS) regn	ression with	robust standa	ard error	S	Number of F( 6, Prob > F R-squared Root MSE	obs = 30) = = =	37 9.48 0.0000 0.6767 56.411
suspm	Coef.	Robust Std. Err.	<b>-</b> t	P> t			
inc incsq pwtopen intery polity lareapc _cons	729.4699 -46.52108 -6.292212 .643468 -8.003363 -12.6961 -2559.111	354.8551 20.75041 4.968944 .5587868 3.546252 6.64475 1497.714	2.06 -2.24 -1.27 1.15 -2.26 -1.91 -1.71	0.049 0.033 0.215 0.259 0.031 0.066 0.098			

Instrumented: inc incsq pwtopen Instruments: intery polity lareapc elhsfs incf incfsq _____ ----------. test inc incsq (1) inc = 0 (2) incsq = 0 F(2, 30) = 4.41 Prob > F = Prob > F = 0.0209. * Income Peak 2540.7345 . * Rural access to clean water . reg ruralan inc incsg pwtopen intery polity lareapc, robust Regression with robust standard errors Number of obs = 57  $\begin{array}{rcl} F(6, 50) &=& 24.82\\ Prob > F &=& 0.0000\\ R-squared &=& 0.5979 \end{array}$ = 18.331 Root MSE _____ 1 Robust ruralan | Coef. Std. Err. t P>|t| _____+____ inc | -80.11559 37.75428 -2.12 0.039 incsq | 6.037585 2.284809 2.64 0.011 pwtopen | .2180824 .6526446 0.33 0.740 intery | -.0138015 .0830803 -0.17 0.869 polity | -.319822 .5417517 -0.59 0.558 lareapc | -9.560386 2.22958 -4.29 0.000 __cons | 330.8272 156.158 2.12 0.039 _____ . test inc incsq (1) inc = 0 (2) incsq = 0 F(2, 50) = 9.31F(2, 50) = 9.31Prob > F = 0.0004. * Income Peak 761.08012 . ivreg ruralan (inc incsq pwtopen = elhsfs incf incfsq) intery polity lareapc, robust IV (2SLS) regression with robust standard errors Number of obs = 55  $\begin{array}{rcl} F( & 6, & 48) &= & 0.17\\ Prob > F &= & 0.9835\\ R-squared &= & . \end{array}$ = 128.67 Root MSE _____ Robust Coef. Std. Err. t P>|t| ruralan | _____+ inc | -636.2494 6635.896 -0.10 0.924 incsq | 60.59561 649.4644 0.09 0.926 pwtopen | 47.396 560.3881 0.08 0.933 

 m.copent
 47.330
 500.3881
 0.08
 0.933

 intery
 -5.878212
 69.57319
 -0.08
 0.933

 polity
 .5363244
 10.07493
 0.05
 0.958

 lareapc
 -68.44781
 706.2894
 -0.10
 0.923

 _cons
 1409.271
 12966.68
 0.11
 0.914

 Instrumented: inc incsq pwtopen Instruments: intery polity lareapc elhsfs incf incfsq _____ . test inc incsq (1) inc = 0 (2) incsq = 0 F(2, 48) =0.02 Prob > F = 0.9849190.55917 . * Income Peak

* * * * * * * * *

Results for interaction of capital/labor and trade (with income in quadratic form). cited in R.Ec.Stat. paper

. * Benchmark as of 8-12-02. OLS then IV. . * CO2 • * . req co2perc inc incsq pwtopen interkl polity lareapc, robust Regression with robust standard errors Number of obs = 55 F(6, 48) = 35.18= 0.0000= 0.7753Prob > F R-squared = 2.6282 Root MSE Robust Coef. Std. Err. co2perc | t P>|t| inc | -14.71954 7.755569 -1.90 0.064 incsq | 1.071597 .5011547 2.14 0.038 wtopen | -.004053 .0195242 -0.21 0.836 pwtopen | 1.08e-06 8.05e-07 1.34 0.187 interkl | polity | -.0095203 .0316964 -0.30 0.765 lareapc | .389474 .2660336 1.46 0.150 _cons | 49.80053 29.69287 1.68 0.100 _____ _____ .. test inc incs (1) inc = 0 (2) incsq = 0 F(2, 48) = 10.83Prob > F = 0.0001. * Income Peak 961.06426 . ivreg co2perc (inc incsq pwtopen = elhsfs incf incfsq) interkl polity lareapc, robust IV (2SLS) regression with robust standard errors Number of obs = 54 F(6, 47) = 32.59Prob > F = 0.0000 R-squared = 0.7898Root MSE = 2.1847 _____ Robust _____ co2perc | Coef. Std. Err. t P>|t| -----inc | -23.79231 8.417545 -2.83 0.007 incsq | 1.72546 .5370915 3.21 0.002 pwtopen | .0102742 .029771 0.35 0.732 interkl | -8.85e-07 8.31e-07 -1.07 0.292 polity | -.0272206 .0535811 -0.51 0.614 
 lareapc
 .3155784
 .2587464
 1.22
 0.229

 _cons
 80.65656
 32.46891
 2.48
 0.017
 Instrumented: inc incsq pwtopen Instruments: interkl polity lareapc elhsfs incf incfsq . test inc incsq (1) inc = 0 (2) incsq = 0 47) = 15.39 Prob > F = 0.0000F(2, . * Income Peak 986.81776 . . * Deforestation . reg defp inc incsq pwtopen interkl polity lareapc, robust Number of obs = Regression with robust standard errors 53 Number of obs = 53F(6, 46) = 6.41 Prob > F = 0.0001

					R-squared Root MSE	=	0.3085 1.3138
defp	Coef.	Robust Std. Err.		P> t			-
inc incsq pwtopen interkl polity lareapc cons	2.075818 1691247 .011594 -1.58e-07 .0262807 0103811 -5.331799	3.032319 .1790041 .0166507 3.11e-07 .0555139 .1037993 12.51526	0.68 -0.94 0.70 -0.51 0.47 -0.10 -0.43	0.497 0.350 0.490 0.614 0.638 0.921 0.672			
. test inc inc ( 1) inc = ( ( 2) incsq = F( 2,	csq ) = 0 46) = 4	.30		Prob	> F = 0.019	94	
. * Income Pea	ak 462	.63861					
. ivreg defp	(inc incsq pwt	open = elhs	fs incf i	.ncfsq)	interkl polity	/ la	reapc, robust
IV (2SLS) regi	ression with r	obust stand	ard erroi	s	Number of obs F( 6, 46) Prob > F R-squared Root MSE	5 = = = =	53 6.56 0.0000 0.1897 1.4222
defp	Coef.	Robust Std. Err.	t	P> t			
inc incsq pwtopen interkl polity lareapc cons	4.86595 3501681 0137896 1.94e-07 .0161798 1292735 -14.2882	3.105405 .185161 .0172789 3.17e-07 .0485191 .1589866 12.84746	1.57 -1.89 -0.80 0.61 0.33 -0.81 -1.11	0.124 0.065 0.429 0.543 0.740 0.420 0.272			
Instrumented: Instruments:	inc incsq pw interkl poli	topen ty lareapc	elhsfs ir	ncf incf	sq		
. test inc inc ( 1) inc = ( ( 2) incsq = F( 2,	csq ) = 0 46) = 4	.43	Prob	> F =	0.0173		
. * Income Pea	ak 1041.0	872					
<ul> <li>Milergy Der</li> <li>*</li> <li>reg enrdam i</li> </ul>	inc incsg pwtc	pen interkl	polity 1	areapc.	robust		
Regression wit	ch robust star	dard errors			Number of obs F( 6, 47) Prob > F R-squared Root MSE	6 = = = =	54 1.48 0.2046 0.1137 8.2247
enrdam	Coef.	Robust Std. Err.	t	P> t			
inc incsq pwtopen interkl polity	44.56219 -2.683721 0308318 1.09e-06 4912701	25.38554 1.491049 .021687 7.12e-07 .3470155	1.76 -1.80 -1.42 1.53 -1.42	0.086 0.078 0.162 0.132 0.163			

lareapc | .2660432 .6980511 0.38 0.705 _cons | -176.6527 106.6154 -1.66 0.104 _____ _____ . test inc incsq (1) inc = 0 (2) incsq = 0 F(2, 47) = 1.93Prob > F = 0.1560. * Income Peak 4033.1887 . ivreq enrdam (inc incsq pwtopen = elhsfs incf incfsq) interkl polity lareapc, robust IV (2SLS) regression with robust standard errors Number of obs = 54 F(6, 47) = 1.40 Prob > F = 0.2346R-squared = . = 8.842 Root MSE _____ | Robust enrdam | Coef. Std. Err. t P>|t| _____ inc | 71.4296 25.8882 2.76 0.008 incsq | -4.415733 1.612883 -2.74 0.009 pwtopen | -.1803119 .1230837 -1.46 0.150 interkl | 3.92e-06 2.73e-06 1.44 0.157 Instrumented: inc incsq pwtopen Instruments: interkl polity lareapc elhsfs incf incfsq . test inc incsq (1) inc = 0 (2) incsq = 0 F(2, 47) = 3.81Prob > F = 0.0293. * Income Peak 3255.43 • * . * NO2 . reg no2m inc incsq pwtopen interkl polity lareapc, robust Regression with robust standard errors Number of obs = 30 F(6, 23) = 1.94Prob > F = 0.1173 = 0.1879 = 43.042 R-squared Root MSE _____ Robust Coef. Std. Err. no2m | t P>|t| _____+ inc | 410.8601 187.9997 2.19 0.039 incsq | -22.73852 10.73772 -2.12 0.045 pwtopen | -.5173574 .4053085 -1.28 0.215 interkl | 4.71e-07 6.58e-06 0.07 0.944 polity | -2.728899 3.773059 -0.72 0.477 lareapc | -7.096475 6.678162 -1.06 0.299 _cons | -1717.05 808.8863 -2.12 0.045 -. test inc incsq (1) inc = 0 (2) incsq = 0 F(2, 23) = 2.73 Prob > F = 0.0861. * Income Peak 8387.1107 ivreg no2m (inc incsq pwtopen = elhsfs incf incfsq) interkl polity lareapc, robust IV (2SLS) regression with robust standard errors Number of obs = 30

					F( 6, 23) Prob > F R-squared Root MSE	$= 1.20 \\ = 0.3406 \\ = 0.1332 \\ = 44.468$	
no2m	Coef.	Robust Std. Err.	t	P> t			
inc incsq pwtopen interkl polity lareapc _cons	391.1198 -20.97587 .0783804 000011 -2.868655 -6.755789 -1698.544	381.1072 21.99281 .6106091 .0000114 4.96476 6.347687 1634.537	1.03 -0.95 0.13 -0.97 -0.58 -1.06 -1.04	0.315 0.350 0.899 0.344 0.569 0.298 0.310			
Instrumented: Instruments:	inc incsq pw interkl poli	topen ty lareapc e	elhsfs ir	ncf incf	sq		
. test inc inc ( 1) inc = ( ( 2) incsq =	csq ) = 0 F	c ( 2, 23)	= 1.	.87	Prob > F = C	.1775	
. * . * Sulfur Dic	oxide	0					
• * • reg sulfdm i	inc incsq pwto	pen interkl	polity ]	.areapc,	robust		
Regression wit	ch robust star	dard errors			Number of obs F( 6, 25) Prob > F R-squared Root MSE	$\begin{array}{rcrrrrrrrrrrrrrrrrrrrrrrrrrrrrrrrrrrr$	
sulfdm	Coef.	Robust Std. Err.	t	P> t			
inc incsq pwtopen interkl polity lareapc _cons	303.3421 -18.11208 3827739 3.92e-06 -1.730975 -3.323324 -1188.958	147.0133 8.846506 .2273838 4.04e-06 2.339441 1.480258 607.9216	2.06 -2.05 -1.68 0.97 -0.74 -2.25 -1.96	0.050 0.051 0.105 0.342 0.466 0.034 0.062			
. test inc inc ( 1) inc = ( ( 2) incsq = F( 2,	csq ) = 0 25) = 2	.26 Pro	bb > F =	0.12	50		
. * Income Pea	ak 4333.045	6					
. ivreg sulfdm	n (inc incsq p	wtopen = elł	nsfs incf	incfsq	) interkl polit	y lareapc,	robust
IV (2SLS) regi	ression with r	obust standa	ard erroi	îs.	Number of obs F( 6, 25) Prob > F R-squared Root MSE	= 32 = 3.66 = 0.0095 = 0.5088 = 15.842	
sulfdm	Coef.	Robust Std. Err.	<b>-</b>	P> t			
inc incsq pwtopen interkl polity	334.4655 -19.95198 3429395 3.54e-06 -1.486867	150.8396 9.01319 .2848613 4.79e-06 2.394407	2.22 -2.21 -1.20 0.74 -0.62	0.036 0.036 0.240 0.467 0.540			

lareapc | -3.205778 1.549381 -2.07 0.049 _cons | -1323.283 627.9271 -2.11 0.045 . _____ Instrumented: inc incsq pwtopen Instruments: interkl polity lareapc elhsfs incf incfsq . test inc incsq (1) inc = 0 (2) incsq = 0 F(2, 25) = 2.46Prob > F = 0.1059. * Income Peak 4366.7006 . * Suspended Particles . reg suspm inc incsq pwtopen interkl polity lareapc, robust Number of obs =30F(6, 23) =4Prob > F=0.0067R-squared= Regression with robust standard errors Root MSE = 56.432 _____ Robust Coef. Std. Err. t P>|t| suspm | _____ _____ _____ inc | 551.3948 508.8648 1.08 0.290 incsq | -35.79599 29.24197 -1.22 0.233 pwtopen |-.6467419.7005434-0.920.365interkl |9.64e-06.00001330.730.475polity |-2.3559897.672784-0.310.762 lareapc | -10.04963 5.408642 -1.86 0.076 _cons | -1889.7 2157.393 -0.88 0.390 _____ _____ . test inc incsq (1) inc = 0 (2) incsq = 0 F(2, 23) = 5.39 Prob > F = 0.01202212.5653 . * Income Peak ivreg suspm (inc incsq pwtopen = elhsfs incf incfsq) interkl polity lareapc, robust IV (2SLS) regression with robust standard errors Number of obs = 30 F(6, 23) = 3.93 $\begin{array}{rcl} Prob > F &= 0.0076 \\ R-squared &= 0.5400 \\ Root MSE &= 57.199 \end{array}$ _____ Robust suspm | Coef. Std. Err. t P>|t| _____ inc | 673.5513 612.294 1.10 0.283 incsq | -42.70518 35.24489 -1.21 0.238 pwtopen |-.2839184.9247932-0.310.762interkl |4.46e-06.00001920.230.818polity |-2.7685398.20899-0.340.739 lareapc | -9.277383 5.315844 -1.75 0.094 _cons | -2436.355 2587.462 -0.94 0.356 . ........... _____ Instrumented: inc incsq pwtopen Instruments: interkl polity lareapc elhsfs incf incfsq ------_____ . test inc incsq (1) inc = 0 (2) incsq = 0 F(2, 23) = 2.95Prob > F = 0.0722. * Income Peak 2659.9431

. * . * Rural access to clean water . * . reg ruralan inc incsq pwtopen interkl polity lareapc, robust

Regression wit	h robust stan	dard errors			Number of F( 6, Prob > F R-squared Root MSE	obs = 25) = = =	32 10.68 0.0000 0.6315 20.134
ruralan	Coef.	Robust Std. Err.	t	P> t			
inc   incsq   pwtopen   interkl   polity   lareapc   	-33.88171 2.889868 .0391187 3.71e-06 .1281525 -9.772383 165.3194	62.67165 3.786618 .214443 5.01e-06 .9003763 3.517579 255.6344	-0.54 0.76 0.18 0.74 0.14 -2.78 0.65	0.594 0.452 0.857 0.466 0.888 0.010 0.524			
. test inc inc: F( 2,	sq (1) 25) = 3	inc = 0 .61 Prob	b > F =	2) inc 0.042	sq = 0 0		
. * Income Pea	k 351.48	102					
. ivreg rurala: IV (2SLS) regr F	n (inc incsq ession with r ( 6, 25)	pwtopen = e obust standa = 9.87	lhsfs inc ard error Prob > R-squa Root M	cf incfs cs umber F ared ISE	<pre>q) interkl     of obs =</pre>	polity 32	lareapc,
ruralan	Coef.	Robust Std. Err.	t	P> t			
inc   incsq   pwtopen   interkl   polity   lareapc   _cons	30.25503 -1.3484 3831083 .0000108 1202621 -11.92875 -46.92236	78.07504 5.00639 .4671899 9.99e-06 .9388455 4.403313 283.4336	0.39 -0.27 -0.82 1.08 -0.13 -2.71 -0.17	0.702 0.790 0.420 0.289 0.899 0.012 0.870			
Instrumented: Instruments:	inc incsq pw interkl poli	topen ty lareapc (	elhsfs ir	ncf incf	sq		
. test inc inc: F( 2,	sq (1 25) = 1	) inc = 0 .00	Pro	(2) in bb > F =	csq = 0 0.3810		
. * Income Pea	k 74523.	099					
* * * * * * *	* * * *						

robust

#### Endnotes

¹ References in the wider debate on globalization and the environment are given in Frankel (2003).

² Appendix Figure A1 shows the graph for all three measures of air pollution used in this study. ³ One way to see the ambiguity is to distinguish three channels whereby trade, like any other determinant of real income, can affect the environment. The *scale* effect is the obvious channel whereby higher GDP leads to higher pollution. But in the language of, e.g., Copeland and Taylor (2003) and Grossman and Krueger (1993), there is also a *composition* effect (e.g., agriculture vs. manufacturing vs. services have different effects on the environment) and a *technique* effect (any given sector can use cleaner or dirtier techniques of production). The question is whether the latter two effects can outweigh the first. The literature is surveyed in Dean (1992, 2001).

⁴ It is important to emphasize a key difference between the race to the bottom hypothesis and the pollution haven hypothesis: while the former implies a negative effect on the overall world level of environmental regulation, the latter does not. Some countries may choose high environmental standards for their own production, and import from others goods that embody pollution. The second group can be said to exploit or develop a comparative advantage in pollution. The pollution haven hypothesis with respect to trade is tested toward the end of this paper. Jaffe, Peterson, Portney and Stavins (1995) survey the literature with regard to direct investment in the U.S..

⁵ References for these three interrelated hypotheses include Braithwaite and Drahos (2000),
Eskeland and Harrison (2002), Esty and Gentry (1997), Schmidheiny (1992), and Vogel (1995).

⁶ The environmental gains from trade, even for a given level of GDP per capita, would occur particularly if measured GDP does not adequately capture the increase in welfare arising from enhanced variety of consumption.

⁷ Notice in Figure 1 that the low-democracy countries tend to have higher SO2 pollution. Barrett and Graddy (2000) also find that an increase in civil and political freedoms significantly reduces some measures of pollution.

⁸ They use the Dollar index of trade distortion, a measure of relative prices, which has been heavily criticized by Rodriguez and Rodrik (2001).

⁹ Rodriguez and Rodrik (2001) also criticize her measure of trade distortion, the black market premium.

¹⁰ Levinson (1999) shows that controlling for endogeneity of environmental regulation can change results, in his study of hazardous waste trade. Dean (2002) treats income as endogenous in her study of the effect of trade liberalization on water pollution across Chinese provinces.
¹¹ While a number of studies have confirmed the EKC, especially for SO₂ and Particulate Matter, the results are not always favorable; e.g., Bradford, Schlieckert and Shore (2000) get mixed answers. Many more EKC references are available there, in Frankel (2002), or in the working paper version of the present study.

¹² Rodrik (1995) and Rodriguez and Rodrik (2001) are among those critical of previous studies on the grounds of simultaneity.

¹³ The usual presumption is that environmental regulation, by raising business costs, slows economic growth. But we should also consider the Porter Hypothesis, according to which a tightening of environmental regulation stimulates technological innovation and thereby raises productivity. (E.g., Porter and van der Linde, 1995.) ¹⁴ The usual presumption is that environmental regulation, by raising business costs, slows economic growth. On the other hand the Porter Hypothesis (in which a tightening of environmental regulation stimulates technological innovation and thereby raises productivity) has the opposite implication. See e.g., Porter and van der Linde, 1995.

¹⁵ Energy depletion is a measure computed for the World Bank's *World Development Indicators*. It is equal to the product of unit resource rents and the physical quantities of fossil fuel energy extracted (including coal, crude oil, and natural gas). Table 3.15, available at http://www.worldbank.org/data/wdi2001/pdfs/tab3_15.pdf, explains the data computations.

¹⁶ That is, it is estimated that increases in income in the low-income countries increase pollution, and in the high-income countries reduce it. The coefficient on openness is again negative for all three measures of air pollution.

¹⁷ In most cases, the effects of polity, area, and quadratic income -- not reported here, to save space -- go in the same direction as with the air pollution indicators; the EKC shows up highly significant for deforestation, energy depletion, and rural water access.

¹⁸ Further, the coefficient on quadratic income is positive and highly significant, while in the spline version income has a positive effect through all three segments in this case. This confirms others' findings of no EKC for CO₂.

¹⁹ The significance level for SO₂ is 5% under OLS and 10% under IV (and for PM is more marginal; all results available in a working paper). This is consistent with the finding of Antweiler, Copeland and Taylor (2001) that trade has a significantly less favorable effect on SO₂ emissions in rich countries than in poor countries. Their explanation is that, because rich countries have higher capital/labor ratios, the factor-based pollution-haven effect -- the third hypothesis, considered below -- tends to outweigh the income-based pollution-haven effect.

²⁰ E.g., Copeland and Taylor (2003) and Grossman and Krueger (1993, 1995), who suggest that the overall effect might be a reduction of pollution in the aggregate, contrary to the popular view of "eco-dumping" in poor countries.

²¹ E.g., Frankel and Romer (1999), or Irwin and Tervio (2002), or the working paper version of this paper.