mediate imports and outward FDI and affects all sectors and skill groups with the potential exception of service sectors in the case of FDI. The negative effect of globalisation does not result from the increase of the migrant share of the labour force – on the contrary migration has a positive effect in Austria which points to the fact that migrant workers are complementary to domestic workers.

5.2 Technology

Our technology variables aim to capture the effect of skill-biased technological change on the wage share. We fail to find evidence for the mainstream hypothesis that technological change will decrease the wage share of low skilled workers and increase it for high skilled workers.[55] Indeed for Austria technological change embodied in the accumulation of ICT capital exercises a negative effect on workers in both the skilled and unskilled industries, although the effect is not robust in all samples. This finding is in line with the development of the wage share in Austria which shows a negative trend for all skill groups for manufacturing and service sectors alike, while the share of ICT capital also increased across all sectors. Curiously, the share of non-ICT capital has a positive effect on the wage share in most specifications, highlighting its labour augmenting nature, while it becomes insignificant in some other specifications. Again, no structural difference can be seen for the effect on high or low skilled industries.

A further interesting highlight of our findings indicate that ICT and non-ICT capital services become insignificant when included in an estimation with country-level financialisation variables, while some of our financialisation variables are significant for manufacturing industries applying the within estimator. The results also hold for estimations in first differences especially with respect to ICT capital, the main measure for skill-biased technological change.[56] This result appears to be similar to EC (2007) who report that variables for technological change are not robust to the inclusion of time effects. Our country-level variables are similar to period fixed effects given that they are the same across sectors and differ by year, but they carry much more specific information than a general time effect. Stockhammer (2015) also find that financial globalisation is the main driver of the wage share based on panel data estimations using country level (not sectoral) data. However, these results can only be seen as indicative and require further analysis, preferably with measures of financialisation at the level of disaggregation of the dependent variable, which can be done only using firm level data as in Guschanski and Onaran (forthcoming). Interestingly, we obtain the same effect when we use wages and salaries as a ratio to value added as a dependent variable. This alternative dependent variable, which is equal to our wage share excluding social security contribu-

tion paid by employers to employees, is a better measure of primary market distribution since it excludes secondary distribution.

5.3 Country-level variables

With regard to the control variables, union density has a positive effect on the wage share in specification (3) – indeed it is highly significant and renders the effect of intermediate import penetration insignificant. The effect of union density is however not robust at the 1-digit level in specification (6).[57] The result is confirmed for sub-pools of manufacturing industries. However, given that the variable is measured at the country level, the reliability of the estimation results by sub-pools is questionable. In order to obtain at least indicative results with union density measured at the sectoral level we performed robustness tests with union density measured at the sector level regardless of our concerns about its reliability as mentioned in section 3. In general results for sectoral union density confirm the results for country-level union density. The positive but not robust impact of union density is generally driven by all sector and skill groups. Furthermore, we experimented with adjusted bargaining as an alternative measure for workers bargaining power. However, given that bargaining coverage stayed at a constant level since the 1970s in Austria the variable created multicollinearity with our fixed effects and we had to drop it.

Social government spending turns out to be insignificant or positive for almost all specifications with the exception of estimations for the high skilled manufacturing sectors only where we find an unexpected negative sign for specifications (7) and (8). Nevertheless, like union density, social government spending becomes insignificant for most estimations in first differences, while it is positive for service sectors.

Since there are no measures of financialisation at the sectoral level we can only use country-level variables among which household debt and financial payments appear to have a robust negative effect, albeit mostly for estimations in first differences. This finding is robust to the application of different samples, although the highest statistical significance is achieved for the high-skilled manufacturing sector. Similarly we find a negative effect of household debt for the manufacturing sector for the estimations in levels, in both low and high skilled manufacturing sectors alike. Given that lower income workers might be credit constrained and that the recent surge in household debt was mainly driven by the upper-middle class this result seems plausible. It is not entirely clear, however, why workers in the high-skilled manufacturing sector should be stronger affected by household debt than workers in the high skilled service sector.

Our specification (8) reflects the argument that personal income inequality is an indicator of the command over resources and power relations,