



# Labor market flexibility and the real exchange rate



Qingyuan Du<sup>a,\*</sup>, Qing Liu<sup>b,1</sup>

<sup>a</sup> Department of Economics, Monash University, 900 Dandenong Road, Building H, Room 4.49, Caulfield East, 3145, Australia

<sup>b</sup> School of Economics and Management, Tsinghua University, Beijing, 10084, China

## HIGHLIGHTS

- We analyze how labor market flexibility affects the real exchange rate (RER).
- A more flexible labor market leads to a lower RER.
- Changes in labor market conditions can yield significant changes in the RER.

## ARTICLE INFO

### Article history:

Received 16 June 2015

Received in revised form

11 August 2015

Accepted 13 August 2015

Available online 21 August 2015

### JEL classification:

F3

F4

J3

### Keywords:

Real exchange rate

Labor market rigidity

Labor re-allocation

## ABSTRACT

This paper studies how labor market flexibility can affect the real exchange rate. Both theoretically and empirically, we find that a more flexible (rigid) labor market is associated with a lower (higher) real exchange rate.

© 2015 Elsevier B.V. All rights reserved.

## 1. Introduction

The real exchange rate, one of the most important relative prices, has caused many debates in the world. To our knowledge, the current understandings of the determinant of the real exchange rate are far from complete. None of the papers in the literature have considered the role of labor market conditions. In this paper, we aim at filling this void and analyzing how labor market flexibilities can affect the real exchange rate.

We first build a theoretical model to analyze the relationship between labor market flexibility and the real exchange rate. In presence of the firm-level shocks, a country with a flexible labor

market can reallocate labor across firms more easily than a country with a rigid labor market. This implies that more productive firms can take larger market shares. As a result, the country with a flexible labor market is associated with a higher average productivity, which in turn leads to a lower final good price and hence, a lower real exchange rate.

Using two measures for the labor market flexibilities (one from Global Competitiveness Report and the other from Doing Business Report (see [Tables 1](#) and [2](#))), we provide cross-country empirical support to our theory. How important is the effect of labor market flexibility on the real exchange rate? As an application from our regression results, we consider one experiment: if a country with a rigid labor market such as Portugal improves its labor market flexibility to the level of Hong Kong (an economy with a flexible labor market), while keeping everything else constant, its real exchange rate will decline by around 15%–20%.

The rest of the paper is organized as follows. In [Section 2](#), we build a model to illustrate the mechanism through which a more flexible labor market is associated with a lower real exchange

\* Corresponding author. Tel.: +61 3 99034702.

E-mail addresses: [qingyuan.du@monash.edu](mailto:qingyuan.du@monash.edu) (Q. Du), [liuqing@sem.tsinghua.edu.cn](mailto:liuqing@sem.tsinghua.edu.cn) (Q. Liu).

<sup>1</sup> Tel.: +86 10 62773994.

**Table 1**  
Ten countries with the most flexible labor markets.

| Country       | GCR index | Country          | DBR index |
|---------------|-----------|------------------|-----------|
| Denmark       | 6         | Singapore        | 100       |
| Singapore     | 5.8       | Hong Kong        | 100       |
| Switzerland   | 5.5       | United States    | 100       |
| Georgia       | 5.4       | Maldives         | 100       |
| Hong Kong     | 5.4       | Marshall Islands | 100       |
| Kazakhstan    | 5.4       | Australia        | 97        |
| United States | 5.4       | Canada           | 96        |
| Iceland       | 5.3       | Jamaica          | 96        |
| Azerbaijan    | 5.2       | Palau            | 96        |
| Nigeria       | 5.2       | Georgia          | 93        |

**Table 2**  
Ten countries with the most rigid labor markets.

| Country      | GCR index | Country               | DBR index |
|--------------|-----------|-----------------------|-----------|
| Italy        | 2.1       | Congo, the Dem Rep    | 22        |
| Suriname     | 2.1       | Guinea-Bissau         | 23        |
| Venezuela    | 2.1       | Niger                 | 23        |
| Namibia      | 2.2       | Venezuela             | 24        |
| Germany      | 2.3       | Bolivia               | 26        |
| South Africa | 2.3       | Central African Rep   | 27        |
| Bolivia      | 2.5       | Congo                 | 31        |
| France       | 2.5       | Tanzania              | 33        |
| Portugal     | 2.5       | Sao Tome and Principe | 33        |
| Zimbabwe     | 2.5       | Equatorial Guinea     | 34        |

rate. Section 3 presents the empirical evidence. Section 4 provides concluding remarks.

## 2. Model

We consider a small open economy Home which is endowed with  $L$  units of labor. Assume that labor is internationally immobile. For simplicity, we do not assume any dynamics in the model.<sup>2</sup> Consumers spend all their incomes on a final good. The final consumption good consists of two parts: tradable and non-tradable

$$C = \frac{C_T^\gamma C_N^{1-\gamma}}{\gamma^\gamma (1-\gamma)^{1-\gamma}} \quad (2.1)$$

where  $C_T$  and  $C_N$  denote the aggregate tradable and non-tradable good indices, respectively. We normalize the aggregate world tradable good price to be one. The national CPI is

$$P = P_N^{1-\gamma}. \quad (2.2)$$

The final tradable good is produced by a continuum of intermediate tradable goods from producers all over the world. For an intermediate tradable good producer  $i$  in Home, the demand curve is

$$y_T^D(i) = \xi (p_T(i))^{-\varepsilon_T} \quad (2.3)$$

where  $\xi$  is a constant which captures the world demand conditions and  $y_T^D(i)$  represents the individual demand for firm  $i$ 's good in the tradable good sector.<sup>3</sup>  $\varepsilon_T (> 1)$  denotes the elasticity of substitution between any tradable intermediate goods. Every intermediate tradable good producer uses a linear technology

$$y_T^S(i) = e^{\pi_T^i} L_T(i) \quad (2.4)$$

where  $\pi_T^i$  represents the productivity shock and  $y_T^S(i)$  represents firm  $i$ 's supply in the tradable good sector. In this paper, we assume

<sup>2</sup> We consider the equilibrium in our model as the long-run steady state in a dynamic model.

<sup>3</sup> This assumption means that the rest of world is in an equilibrium, therefore, the aggregate demand is a constant.

that  $\pi_T$  is drawn from an i.i.d. distribution with mean 0 and variance  $\sigma_T^2$ , and we use  $G_T(\cdot)$  denote its distribution function.

The final non-tradable good in Home is produced by a continuum of intermediate goods according to the technology

$$C_N = \left[ \int_0^1 y_N(j)^{\frac{\varepsilon_N-1}{\varepsilon_N}} dj \right]^{\frac{\varepsilon_N}{\varepsilon_N-1}} \quad (2.5)$$

where intermediate goods are gross substitutes, i.e.,  $\varepsilon_N > 1$ . In this case, the demand for each intermediate good  $j$  ( $y_N^D(j)$ ) is

$$y_N^D(j) = \left( \frac{p_N(j)}{P_N} \right)^{-\varepsilon_N} C_N. \quad (2.6)$$

For simplicity, we also assume that each non-tradable intermediate good is produced with labor only:

$$y_N^S(j) = e^{\pi_N^j} L_N(j) \quad (2.7)$$

where  $\pi_N^j$  is another stochastic term with mean 0 and variance  $\sigma_N^2$ , and  $y_N^S(j)$  represents firm  $j$ 's supply in the non-tradable good sector. We use  $G_N(\cdot)$  denote the distribution function of  $\pi_N^j$ .

In equilibrium, markets clear in both tradable and non-tradable good sectors,  $y_T^D(i) = y_T^S(i)$  and  $y_N^D(j) = y_N^S(j)$ .

### 2.1. Flexible labor market

We first analyze one extreme case that Home has a fully flexible labor market. Similar to Cunat and Melitz (2012), in this case, all markets are competitive, the determination of all prices and the allocation of all resources take place after the realization of  $\pi$ . This captures the idea that a flexible economy can costlessly reallocate resources towards their most efficient use. For simplicity, we assume *ex ante* free entry in both tradable and non-tradable intermediate good sectors. Then, all intermediate good producers earn zero profits. As a result, for firm  $i$  in the tradable good sector and firm  $j$  in the non-tradable good sector, prices are

$$p_T^{flex}(i) = \frac{w^{flex}}{e^{\pi_T^i}} \quad \text{and} \quad p_N^{flex}(j) = \frac{w^{flex}}{e^{\pi_N^j}} \quad (2.8)$$

where  $w^{flex}$  denotes the equilibrium wage rate in Home.

For simplicity, we assume  $\varepsilon_T = \varepsilon_N \equiv \varepsilon > 1$  and  $G_T = G_N \equiv G$  in the rest of this paper.<sup>4</sup> Then the aggregate price index for the non-tradable good is

$$P_N^{flex} = \left[ \int_{-\infty}^{+\infty} \left( \frac{w^{flex}}{e^\pi} \right)^{1-\varepsilon} dG(\pi) \right]^{\frac{1}{1-\varepsilon}}. \quad (2.9)$$

In online Appendix A, we can show that

$$P_N^{flex} = \left( P_N^{flex} \right)^{1-\gamma} = \left( \frac{\xi}{\gamma L} \right)^{\frac{1-\gamma}{\varepsilon}} \left( \frac{1}{\tilde{\pi}} \right)^{\frac{1-\gamma}{\varepsilon}} \quad (2.10)$$

where

$$\tilde{\pi} = \left[ \int_{-\infty}^{+\infty} e^{\pi(\varepsilon-1)} dG(\pi) \right]^{\frac{1}{\varepsilon-1}}$$

represents the aggregate productivity level among all intermediate good producers in the non-tradable good sector when the labor market is fully flexible.

<sup>4</sup> Relaxing this assumption does not change any of the qualitative results.

Download English Version:

<https://daneshyari.com/en/article/5058546>

Download Persian Version:

<https://daneshyari.com/article/5058546>

[Daneshyari.com](https://daneshyari.com)