INTERNATIONAL ECONOMICS

SIXTH EDITION

JAMES GERBER

International Economics

SIXTH EDITION

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International Economics

SIXTH EDITION

James Gerber
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BRIEF CONTENTS

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CONTENTS

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PREFACE

International Economics is designed for a one-semester course covering both the micro and macro components of international economics. The Sixth Edition continues the approach of the first five editions by offering a principles-level introduction to the core theories, together with policy analysis and the institutional and historical contexts of international economic relations. My goal is to make economic reasoning about the international economy accessible to a diverse group of students, including both economics majors and nonmajors. My intention is to present the consensus of economic opinion, when one exists, and to describe the differences when one does not. In general, however, economists are more often in agreement than not.

New to the Sixth Edition

This Sixth Edition of *International Economics* preserves the organization and coverage of the Fifth Edition and adds a number of updates and enhancements. New to this edition:

- All tables and graphs have been updated.
- Each chapter begins with a list of student learning outcomes.
- Chapter 3 has a new case study on the gains from trade that uses the historical example of Japan's opening in the nineteenth century.
- Chapter 4's discussion of off-shoring is extended by a new case study examining China's role in global supply chains for the Apple iPhone 3G.
- Chapter 5's discussions of intraindustry trade and industrial policies are streamlined, and the model of monopolistic competition is incorporated into the text instead of being left to the appendix.
- Chapter 5 also has a new case study on the WTO and developing countries.
- Chapter 7's discussion of tariff rates now includes data on China and is more focused on current tariff levels.
- Chapter 8 on labor and environmental standards has a new case study on global climate change.
- Chapter 10 now provides students with IMF estimates of the number of countries using each type of exchange rate system.
- Chapter 13 is refocused towards U.S. international economic relations, including NAFTA, but adds material on other trade agreements, including a new case study on preferential agreements such as the African Growth and Opportunity Act.

- Chapter 14 has less material on EU institutions and more on the gains from the Single Market Program, together with a new case study on the current problems in the euro area and the costs of monetary union.
- Chapter 17 examines the BRIC economies; the emphasis on China remains, but new material looks at the rise of the BRICs and their impact on the international economy.

Hallmarks of International Economics

Several features of *International Economics* distinguish it from the many excellent texts in the field:

- First, the approach is broader than the theoretical apparatus used by economists. Economic theory is covered and its mastery is essential, but most readers grasp theory more completely when it is presented along with real-world applications. To this end, I have supplemented economic theory with case studies and other content ranging from the role of economic institutions and the analysis of international economic policies to the recent history of the world economy.
- Second, the objective of covering both the micro and macro sides in a one-semester course necessitates paring back the coverage of theory in order to focus on the central concepts. As all instructors are aware, many theoretical topics are of secondary or tertiary importance, which can pose a problem for students who may lack the needed breadth and depth of understanding to rank topics by their relative importance.
- Third, *International Economics* provides richer historical and institutional detail than most other texts. This material illuminates the relationships between economic theory and policy, and between economics and the other social sciences.
- Fourth, I have organized Part 4 of the book into five chapters, each focused on a geographic area as follows: North America with emphasis on the United States, the European Union, Latin America, East Asia, and the BRIC economies. These chapters offer students the chance to broaden their understanding of world trends and to observe the intellectual power of economic theory in practice.

Flexibility of Organization

A text requires a fixed topical sequence because it must order the chapters one after another. This is a potential problem for some instructors, as there is a wide variety of preferences for the order in which topics are taught. The Sixth Edition strives for flexibility in allowing instructors to find their own preferred sequence.

Part 1 includes two introductory chapters that are designed to build vocabulary, develop historical perspective, and provide background information about the different international organizations and the roles they play in the world economy. Some instructors prefer to delve into the theory chapters immediately, reserving this material for later in the course. There is no loss of continuity with this approach.

Part 2 presents the micro side of international economics, while Part 3 covers the macro side. These two parts can easily be reversed in sequence if desired.

Part 2 includes six chapters that cover trade models (Chapters 3–5) and commercial policy (Chapters 6–8). A condensed treatment of this section could focus on the Ricardian model in Chapter 3, and the analysis of tariffs and quotas in Chapters 6 and 7. Chapter 8 on labor and environmental standards can stand on its own, although the preceding chapters deepen student understanding of the trade-offs.

Part 3 covers the balance of payments, exchange rates, open-economy macroeconomics, and international financial crises. Chapter 11 on open economy macroeconomics is optional. It is intended for students and instructors who want a review of macroeconomics, including the concepts of fiscal and monetary policy, in a context that includes current accounts and exchange rates. If Chapter 11 is omitted, Chapter 12 (financial crises) remains accessible as long as students have an understanding of the basic concepts of fiscal and monetary policy. Chapter 12 relies most heavily on Chapters 9 (balance of payments) and 10 (exchange rates and exchange rate systems).

Part 4 presents five chapters, each focused on a geographic area. These chapters use theory presented in Chapters 3–12 in a similar fashion to the economics discussion that students find in the business press, congressional testimonies, speeches, and other sources intended for a broad civic audience. Where necessary, concepts such as the real rate of exchange are briefly reviewed. One or more of these chapters can be moved forward to fit the needs of a particular course.

Supplementary Materials

The following supplementary resources are available to support teaching and learning.

Companion Website: www.pearsonhighered.com/gerber

- David Dieterle of Walsh College has prepared a Web-based PowerPoint presentation comprising lecture notes and all of the text's tables and figures.
- In recognition of the importance of the Internet as a source of timely information, the Companion Website offers Web links for each chapter of *International Economics*. These links, complete with descriptions of the content available at each site, provide easy access to relevant, current data sources.

Other Supplements

Laura Wolff of Southern Illinois University, Edwardsville, has revised the TestGen and brought it up to date with the text. The TestGen is available for download on the Instructor's Resource website. The Instructor's Manual is also available online as an additional resource. Finally, the CourseSmart eTextbook for the text is available through www.coursesmart.com. CourseSmart goes beyond traditional expectations, providing instant, online access to the textbooks and course materials you need at a lower cost to students. And, even as students save money, you can save time and hassle with a digital textbook that allows you to search the most relevant content at the very moment you need it. Whether it's evaluating textbooks or creating lecture notes to help students with difficult concepts, CourseSmart can make life a little easier. See how when you visit www.coursesmart.com/instructors.

MyEconLab

MyEconLab has been designed and refined with a single purpose in mind: to create those moments of understanding that transform the difficult into the clear and obvious. With comprehensive homework, quiz, test, and tutorial options, instructors can manage all their assessment needs in one program.

MyEconLab for *International Economics*, Sixth Edition offers the following resources for students and instructors:

- **All end-of-chapter questions** from the text are available in MyEconLab.
- **Personal study plans** are created for each individual student based on performance on assigned and sample exercises.
- **Instant tutorial feedback** on a student's problem and graphing responses to questions.
- **Interactive learning aids**, such as *Help Me Solve This* (a step-by-step tutorial), help the student right when they need it.
- **News articles** are available for classroom and assignment use. Up-to-date news articles and complementary discussion questions are posted weekly to bring today's news into the classroom and course.
- **Real-Time Data Analysis** These exercises allow instructors to assign problems that use up-to-the-minute data. Each RTDA exercise loads the appropriate and most currently available data from FRED, a comprehensive and up-to-date data set maintained by the Federal Reserve Bank of St. Louis. Exercises are graded based on that instance of data, and feedback is provided.
- **An enhanced Pearson eText** available within the online course materials and offline via an iPad app. The enhanced eText allows instructors and students to highlight, bookmark, and take notes.
- **Prebuilt courses** offer a turn-key way for instructors to create a course that includes prebuilt assignments distributed by chapter.
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I am deeply grateful to Noel Seibert, Emily Brodeur, Alison Eusden, and the MyEconLab team.

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PART 1

Introduction and Institutions

CHAPTER 1

The United States in a Global Economy

Learning Objectives

After studying Chapter 1, students will be able to:

- Explain how economists measure international economic integration.
- List the three types of evidence to support the idea that trade supports economic growth.
- Discuss the differences in international economic integration at the end of the nineteenth century and the current era.
- Describe the major themes of international economics.

Introduction: International Economic Integration

In August of 2007, a crisis erupted in the housing sector of the United States. At the time, few people realized that the subprime mortgage crisis would become a demonstration of international economic integration or that it would push the world economy to the brink of collapse. The crisis grew through the remainder of 2007 and into 2008, so that by the summer nearly all high-income economies were in deep distress. Contagion from the crisis spread like an epidemic as banks and other financial firms collapsed and solvent firms stopped lending. The scarcity of credit caused difficulties for businesses that could not find financing for their day-to-day operations while, at the same time, consumers cut back on their spending and businesses cut back on new investment. By the end of 2008, economies around the world were in recession, with the notable exceptions of China, India, and the major oil producers.

This episode is the most dramatic instance since the Great Depression of the 1930s of a crisis leading to severe economic recession in many countries around the world. It is, however, only one of several recent examples of crises spilling across national borders. The Russian Crisis of 1998–99, the Asian Crisis of 1997–98, the Mexican Crisis of 1994–95, the Latin American Debt Crisis of 1982–89, and a number of others caused major damage to financial systems, businesses, and households, both in the places where they originated and in many other countries.

The international integration of national economies has brought many benefits to nations across the globe, including technological innovation, less expensive products, and greater investment in regions where local capital is scarce, to name a few. But it has also made countries vulnerable to economic problems that have become more easily transmitted from one place to another. Given that the benefits and costs of international economic integration are surrounded by controversy, it is worth clarifying what we mean by the term *international economic integration,* or *globalization in the economic sphere*. To help us understand these forces better, a historical perspective is also useful.

Elements of International Economic Integration

Most people would agree that the major economies of the world are more integrated than at any time in history. Given our instantaneous communications, modern transportation, and relatively open trading systems, most goods can move from one country to another without major obstacles and at relatively low cost. For example, most cars today are made in fifteen or more countries after you consider where each part is made, where the advertising originates, who does the accounting, and who transports the components and the final product. Nevertheless, the proposition that today's economies are more integrated than at any other time in history is not simple to demonstrate. It is clear that our current wave of economic integration began in the 1950s, with the reduction of trade barriers after World War II. In the 1970s, many countries began to encourage financial integration by increasing the openness of their capital markets. The advent of the Internet in the 1990s, along with the other elements of the telecommunications revolution, pushed economic integration to new levels as multinational firms developed international production networks and markets became ever more tightly linked.

Today's global economy is not the first instance of a dramatic growth in economic ties between nations, however, as there was another important period between approximately 1870 and 1913. New technologies such as transatlantic cables, steam-powered ships, railroads, and many others led the way, much as they do today. For example, when the first permanent transatlantic cable was completed in 1866, the time it took for a New York businessperson to complete a financial transaction in London fell from approximately three weeks to one day, and by 1914 it had fallen to one minute as radio telephony became possible.

We have mostly forgotten about this earlier period of economic integration, and that makes it easier to overestimate integration today. Instantaneous communications and rapid transportation, together with the easy availability of foreign products, often cause us to lose sight of the fact that most of what we buy and sell never makes it out of our local or national markets. We rarely pause to think that haircuts, restaurant meals, gardens, health care, education, utilities, and many other goods and services are partially or wholly domestic products. In the United States, for example, about 82.3 percent of goods and services are produced domestically, with imports (17.7 percent) making up the remainder of what we consume (2011).

By comparison, in 1890 the United States made about 92 percent of its goods and services, a larger share than today, but not radically different.

The question as to whether we are more economically integrated today or in some period in the past is not only academic. Between the onset of World War I in 1914 and the end of World War II in 1945, the world economy suffered a series of human-made catastrophes that de-integrated national economies. Two world wars and a global depression caused most countries to close their borders to foreign goods, foreign capital, and foreign people. Since the end of World War II, many of the economic linkages between nations have served to repair the damage done during the first half of the twentieth century, but there is no reason to think that events might not cause a similar decoupling in the future.

Understanding international economic integration requires us to define what we mean by the term. Economists usually point to four criteria or measures for judging the degree of integration. These are trade flows, capital flows, people flows, and the similarity of prices in separate markets. The first three points are relatively self-explanatory, while the similarity of prices refers to the fact that integrated economies have price differences that are relatively small and are due mainly to differences in transportation costs. Goods that can move freely from a low-cost to a high-cost region should experience price convergence as goods move from where they are plentiful and cheap to where they are relatively scarcer and more expensive. All of these indicators—trade flows, factor (labor and capital) movements, and similarity of prices—are measures of the degree of international economic integration.

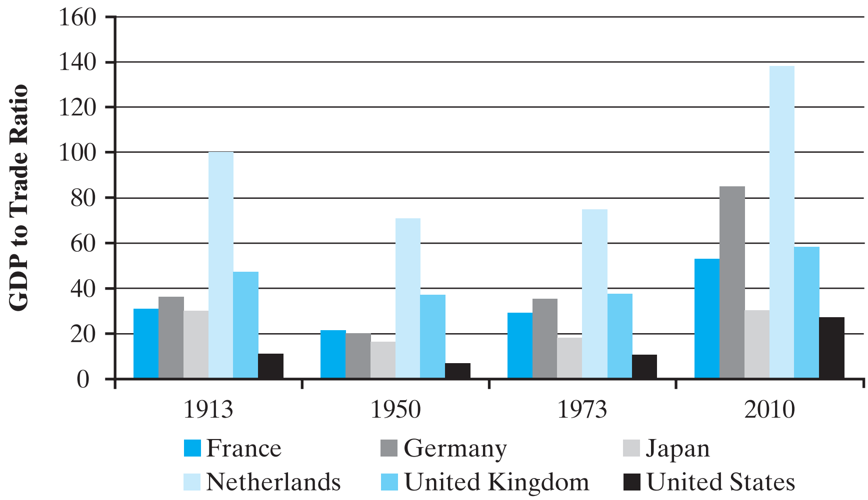
The Growth of World Trade

Since the end of World War II, world trade has grown much faster than world output. One way to show this is to estimate the ratio of exports by all countries to total production by all countries. In 1950, total world exports—which are the same as world imports—are estimated to have been 5.5 percent of world **gross domestic product (GDP)**, a measure of total production. Fifty-five years later, in 2005, they were 20.5 percent of world GDP, nearly four times more important relative to the size of the world economy. One measure of the importance of international trade in a nation's economy is the sum of exports plus imports, divided by the GDP. Specifically, it is the value of all final goods and services produced inside a nation during some period, usually one year. The **trade-to-GDP ratio** is represented as follows:

$$\text{Trade to GDP ratio} = (\text{Exports} + \text{Imports}) \div \text{GDP}$$

The ratio does not tell us about a country's trade policies and countries with higher ratios do not necessarily have lower barriers to trade, although that is one possibility. In general, large countries are less dependent on international trade because their firms can reach an optimal production size without having

FIGURE 1.1 **Trade-to-GDP Ratios for Six Countries, 1913–2010**



Source: Maddison, A. (1991). "Dynamic Forces in Capitalist Development" and The World Trade Organization, "Statistics Database: Trade Profiles." Note that 2010 is an average of 2008–2010.

to sell to foreign markets. Consequently, smaller countries tend to have higher ratios of trade-to-GDP.

Figure 1.1 shows the trade-to-GDP ratio for six countries between 1913 and 2010. The decline in trade between the onset of World War I and 1950 is clearly visible in each country, as is the subsequent increase after 1950. Another pattern shown in Figure 1.1 is the smaller ratios for the United States and Japan, which have the largest populations, and the much higher ratio for the Netherlands, which has the smallest population in the sample. In general, smaller countries trade more than larger ones since they cannot efficiently produce as wide a range of goods and must depend on trade to a greater extent. For example, if the Netherlands were to produce autos solely for its own market, it would lack economies of scale and could not produce at a competitive cost, whereas the U.S. market can absorb a large share of U.S. output. Hence, the trade-to-GDP ratio measures the relative importance of international trade in a nation's economy, but it does not provide any direct information about trade policy or trade barriers.

Figure 1.1 gives a historical overview of the decline and subsequent return of international trade after World War II, but it obscures important changes in the composition of trade flows from early in the twentieth century to those at the end of the century. Before World War I most trade consisted of agricultural commodities and raw materials, while current trade is primarily manufactured consumer goods and producer goods (machinery and equipment). Consequently, today's manufacturers are much more exposed to international competition than was the case in 1900. In addition, much of the growth of world trade since 1950 has been accomplished by multinational corporations. With production sites in multiple countries and inputs that pass back and forth between affiliates, multinational corporations have become dramatically important. This trend has been supported and encouraged by the telecommunications revolution and transportation improvements that have lowered the costs of coordinating operations physically separated by oceans and continents. And finally, it has also become possible to coordinate service operations such as accounting and data processing from a great distance. In sum, trade today is qualitatively different than in 1913, and the growth of the trade-to-GDP ratio since 1950 does not tell the whole story.

Capital and Labor Mobility

In addition to exports and imports, factor movements also are an indicator of economic integration. As national economies become more interdependent, labor and capital should move more easily across international boundaries. Labor, however, is less mobile internationally than it was in 1900. Consider, for example, that in 1890 approximately 14.5 percent of the U.S. population was foreign born, while in 2010, the figure was 12.9 percent. In 1900, many nations had open door immigration policies, and passport controls, immigration visas, and work permits were exceptions rather than rules. The movement of people was severely restricted by the two world wars and the Great Depression of the 1930s. In the 1920s, during the interwar period, the United States sharply restricted immigration with policies that lasted until the 1960s, when changes in immigration laws once again encouraged foreigners to migrate to the United States.

On the capital side, measurement is more difficult, since there are several ways to measure capital flows. The most basic distinction is between flows of financial capital representing paper assets such as stocks, bonds, currencies, and bank accounts, and flows of capital representing physical assets such as real estate, factories, and businesses. The latter type of capital flow is called **foreign direct investment (FDI)**. To some extent, the distinction between the two types of capital flows is immaterial because both represent shifts in wealth across national boundaries and both make one nation's savings available to another.

When we compare international capital flows today to a century ago, there are two points to keep in mind. First, savings and investment are highly correlated. That is, countries with high savings tend to have high rates of investment, and low savings is correlated with low investment. If there were a single world market in which capital flowed freely and easily, this would not necessarily be the case. Capital would flow from countries with abundant savings and capital to countries with low savings and capital, where it would find its highest returns. Second, a variety of technological improvements increased capital flows in the 1800s, as they are doing today. Transoceanic cables and radio telephony have already been mentioned, but capital flows also increased in the late 1800s because there were new investment opportunities such as national railroad networks and other infrastructure, both at home and abroad.

If we compare the size of capital flows today to the previous era of globalization, flows today are much larger but mainly because economies are larger. Relative to the size of economies, the differences are not great and may even favor the 1870 to 1913 period, depending on what is measured. Great Britain routinely invested 9 percent of its GDP abroad in the decades before 1913, and France, Germany, and the Netherlands were as high at times. For significant periods, Canada, Australia, and Argentina borrowed amounts that exceeded 10 percent of their GDP, a level of borrowing that sends up danger signals in the world economy today. In other words, it is hard to make the argument that national economies have a historically unprecedented level of international capital flows today.

While the relative quantity of capital flows today may not be that much different for many countries, there are some important qualitative differences. First, there are many more financial instruments available now than there were a century ago. These range from relatively mundane stocks and bonds to relatively exotic instruments such as derivatives, currency swaps, and others. By contrast, at the turn of the twentieth century there were many fewer companies listed on the world's stock exchanges and most international financial transactions involved the buying and selling of bonds.

A second difference today is the role of foreign exchange transactions. In 1900, countries had fixed exchange rates and firms in international trade or finance had less day-to-day risk from a sudden change in the value of a foreign currency. Many firms today spend significant resources to protect themselves from sudden shifts in currency values. Consequently, buying and selling assets denominated in foreign currencies is the largest component of international capital movements. For example, according to the Bank for International Settlements in Geneva, Switzerland, *daily* foreign exchange transactions in 2010 were equal to $3.98 *trillion*. In 1973, at the end of the last era of fixed exchange rates, they were $15 billion.

The third major difference in capital flows is that the costs of foreign financial transactions have fallen significantly. Economists refer to the costs of obtaining market information, negotiating an agreement, and enforcing the agreement as **transaction costs**. They are an important part of any business's costs, whether it is a purely domestic enterprise or a company involved in foreign markets. Due to sheer distance, as well as differences in culture, laws, and languages, transaction costs are often higher in international markets than in domestic ones. Today's lower transaction costs for foreign investment mean that it is less expensive to move capital across international boundaries.

The volatile movement of financial capital across international boundaries is often mistakenly regarded as a new feature of the international economy. Speculative excesses and overinvestment, followed by capital flight and bankruptcies, have occurred throughout the modern era, going back at least to the 1600s and probably earlier. U.S. and world history show a number of such cases. Financial crises are not a new phenomenon, nor have we learned how to avoid them—a fact driven home by the recent subprime mortgage crisis.

Features of Contemporary International Economic Relations

While international economic integration has been rapid, it does not appear to be historically unprecedented. The trade-to-GDP ratio is about 50 percent higher in the U.S. economy than it was in 1890, and manufacturers and service providers are more exposed to international forces. Labor is less mobile than in 1900 due to passport controls and work permits, but capital is more mobile and encompasses a larger variety of financial forms. Prices in many U.S. and foreign markets tend to be similar, although there are still significant differences. In quantitative terms, the differences between today and a hundred years ago may not be as great as many people imagine, but qualitatively, a number of additional features of the world economy separate the first decade of the twenty-first century from the first decade of the twentieth.

Deeper Integration High-income countries have low barriers to imports of manufactured goods. There are some exceptions (processed foodstuffs and apparel), but as a general rule import **tariffs** (taxes on imports) and other barriers such as **quotas** (quantitative restrictions on imports) are much less restrictive than they were in the middle of the twentieth century. As trade barriers came down during the second half of the twentieth century, two other trends began to intensify economic integration between countries. First, lower trade barriers exposed the fact that most countries have domestic policies that are obstacles to international trade. National regulations governing labor, environmental, and consumer safety standards; rules governing investment location and performance; rules defining fair and unfair competition; rules on government "buy-national" programs; and government support policies for specific industries—all have little impact on trade until formal trade barriers start to fall and trade volume increases. These policies were not implemented to protect domestic industries from foreign competition, and as long as tariffs were high and trade flows were limited, they did not matter much to trade relations. Once tariffs fell, however, many forms of domestic policies began to be viewed as barriers to increased trade. Economists sometimes refer to the reduction of tariffs and the elimination of quotas as **shallow integration** and negotiations over domestic policies that impact international trade as **deep integration**. Deep integration is much more contentious than shallow integration and much more difficult to accomplish since it involves domestic policy changes that align a country with rules that are created abroad, or at least negotiated with foreign powers.

A second noticeable trend over the last few decades is that technologically complicated goods such as smart phones and automobiles are made of components produced in more than one country and, consequently, labels such as

"Made in China" or "Made in the USA" are less and less meaningful. Low tariffs along with innovations in transportation and communication technologies have enabled firms to locate production of the different components of a sophisticated product in different countries. For example, the hardware for a 3G iPhone is produced in Germany, Korea, Japan, and the United States, and then it is assembled in China. The most valuable share of the hardware is made in Japan, but no one thinks of this device as a Japanese phone. In this case, as in many others, it is not accurate to say the product is made in one particular country since the parts come from all over, and the product is the result of a multinational effort involving firms and workers from many different countries.

These two trends raise new issues that are shaping the world economy in the twenty-first century. The first trend, greater interest in the consequences of different domestic policies, makes trade negotiations more difficult and creates widespread discussion of labor, environmental, and other standards that may affect trade flows. The second trend, greater participation in the production of a single product by firms in multiple countries, leads to concerns about the impact of trade on national economies, employment, and working conditions. National and international dialogues on these issues are a key feature of international economics in the twenty-first century.

Multilateral Organizations At the end of World War II, the United States, Great Britain, and their allies created a number of international organizations to maintain international economic and political stability. Although the architects of these organizations could not envision the challenges and issues they would confront over the next fifty years, the organizations were given significant flexibility, and they continue to play an important and growing role in managing the issues of shallow and deeper integration.

The International Monetary Fund (IMF), the World Bank, the General Agreement on Tariffs and Trade (GATT), the United Nations (UN), the World Trade Organization (the WTO began operation in 1995, but grew out of the GATT), and a host of smaller organizations have broad international participation. They serve as forums for discussing and establishing rules, as mediators of disputes, and as organizers of actions to resolve problems. All of these organizations are controversial and have come under increasing fire from critics who charge that they promote unsustainable economic policies or that they protect the interests of wealthy countries. Others argue that they are unnecessary foreign entanglements that severely limit the scope for national action (Chapter 2 examines this issue in detail). These organizations are attempts to create internationally acceptable rules for trade and commerce and to deal with potential disputes before they spill across international borders; they are an entirely new element in the international economy.

Regional Trade Agreements Agreements between groups of nations are not new. Free-trade agreements and other forms of preferential trade have