

Working Paper No. 15-06

## International Trade and Internal Migr

# International Trade and Internal Migration with Labor Market Distortions: Theory and Evidence from China

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Job Market Paper, this version: October 18, 2015

## Abstract

This paper discusses how globalization affects welfare by reallocating labor across sectors and space when factor markets are distorted. It incorporates a traditional agriculture sector into the trade literature with heterogeneous firms, matching frictions and multiple asymmetric regions in terms of their geographical locations. The model predicts that a reduction in trade impediments reallocates market share towards more productive producers, encourages firms to post more vacancies, and induces workers to migrate towards the manufacturing sector and towards the coastal regions. Therefore, the economy gains from trade through increase in productivity, expansion of the manufacturing sector, and reallocation of labor across locations. In addition, by comparing the decentralized competitive equilibrium with the socially optimal solution, I show that falls in trade barriers exacerbate existing distortions caused by matching frictions but decrease misallocation of labor across sectors and space. This implies potential gains from trade through increase in labor market efficiency. The empirical evidence supports the main theoretical implications. I find that rising export exposure explains more than 50% of the decline in agriculture employment share between 2000 and 2010 in China. Moreover, compared with prefectures at the 25th percentile of export exposure growth, the migrants share in prefectures at the 75th percentile increased by 11.66 percentage points more during this period.

JEL Codes: F12, F13, F14, O18, O19

Key Words: gains from trade, labor market distortions, internal migration, structural change

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# 1 Introduction

Factor markets inefficiencies are prevalent and have been widely studied in the economic development literature. Numerous studies have shown that labor allocation plays a significant role in explaining cross-country variation in total factor productivity (TFP) and total income (Gollin et al., 2002; Hsieh and Klenow, 2009; Vollrath, 2009; Duarte and Restuccia, 2010). Yet, one feature shared by most models of trade-induced structural change is that they abstract from changes in distortions of factor markets and concentrate on the benefits through expansion of sectors with comparative advantages. The goal of this paper is to go beyond this channel of gains from trade and discuss the welfare enforcement effects of international trade through increasing factor markets efficiency.

In this paper I incorporate three different types of labor market distortions in a unified framework. First, I consider the inefficiency within the manufacturing sector caused by two central market failures in the matching model: congestion externalities and appropriability problems. When the appropriability and congestion problems do not balance each other, the competitive equilibrium involves either too many or too few vacancies. Second, the model includes misallocation of labor between the agriculture sector and the manufacturing sector due to the sharing rule of wages within family farms. I assume that the supply price of migrants is the value of the average product in the agriculture sector, rather than the marginal product. This mechanism of determining wages is common in developing countries where factor markets are absent, resulting in too many workers in the agriculture sector. Third, there is misallocation of factors across space due to frictions of internal trade costs. In contrast with the existing literature treating each country as a point in space, the distribution of economic activities across space is uneven in this paper. Decrease in trade costs exacerbates the first type of distortion as it has larger impact on the number of vacancies in the planner's problem than in the decentralized problem. Meanwhile, the second type of distortion is mitigated when trade induces some members in family farms to leave and makes the rest receive their full marginal product. The model also predicts that the trade-induced migration across space generates welfare gains by reallocating population towards regions which participate in the global market more.

An important contribution of this paper is to investigate all three mechanisms above within the standard international trade framework of monopolistic competition heterogeneous firms, so that I can separate out the impact of changes in labor market distortions from the total gains from trade. A general-equilibrium model is developed to bring together

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<sup>1</sup>See Restuccia and Rogerson (2013) for a literature review.

<sup>2</sup>The discussion of these two problems goes back to Hosios (1990). The appropriability problem arises when firms only internalize a part of the value of the match created by its vacancy, while the social planner considers the whole social value of a job. It leads to too few vacancies. The congestion externality exists because firms only care about the average probability at which a vacancy is filled, while the social planner makes its decision according to the marginal effects of an additional vacancy. This leads to too many vacancies. Since this paper takes a dynamic setting, the conditions that generate the optimality of the equilibrium is not exactly the same as in Hosios (1990).

the dual economy structure, trade between and within countries, structural change across sectors, and factor mobility across space. In particular, this paper considers multiple regions partitioned into two countries. Regions are distinguished from each other by differences in shipping costs. There are two sectors within each region: the agriculture sector and the manufacturing sector. Goods are assumed to be mobile between sectors, regions, and countries, but factors move only between sectors and regions within the same country. Labor is fully employed in the agriculture sector and gets average product as their income, while unemployment generated by the search frictions exists in the manufacturing sector and acts as the equilibrating mechanism between labor markets across sectors.

The model is first analyzed for a special case with symmetric regions. I show labor migrating across space under this assumption. The assumption is then relaxed to account for the gains from trade through labor reallocation across space. I show that the model yields implications consistent with several stylized facts about China, a country featured with large reforms in openness policy, serious factor misallocation across sector and space (Brandt et al., 2013; Tombe and Zhu, 2015), and large domestic trade cost (Poncet, 2005). First, there are higher shares of employment in the non-agriculture activities in the coastal cities. Second, there are large migration flows from the interior to the China's coastline. Third, there is a dramatic shift of employment from agriculture towards other sectors, as well as growing spatial inequalities in the last couple of decades. Specifically, the model predicts that within each region, a reduction in trade impediments raises the average productivity as in Melitz (2003). Firms post more vacancies, which makes it more valuable for workers to search jobs in the manufacturing sector. As a consequence, workers migrate from the agriculture sector to the manufacturing sector, with an increase in wages in both urban and rural sectors. In addition, reductions in international trade barriers have larger impacts on the labor market at locations with geographical advantages, inducing spatial movements of labor from the interior regions to regions closer to the global market.

With the model calibrated to China's economy, I decompose the welfare gains from trade with counterfactual analysis into four channels: increase in market share of the more efficient firms in the manufacturing sector, increase in vacancy-unemployment ratio in the manufacturing sector, reallocation of labor from rural to urban, and migration flows towards the ports. The results show that although the change within the manufacturing sector plays an important role in explaining the welfare gain from trade, the reallocation of labor across sectors and space contributes around 40% of the total welfare increase. I then separate out the impact of changes in labor market efficiency from the total gains from trade. By comparing the decentralized competitive equilibrium with the first-best labor market conditions, I show that decreasing trade barriers exacerbates within sector inefficiency but raises across-sector allocative efficiency. The total revenue in the calibrated economy converges to its first-best value as trade cost falls. This suggests that opening to trade can impact welfare through changes in the labor market efficiency.

The main theoretical implications are examined with China’s census data in 1990, 2000, and 2010. My empirical analysis follows studies using micro level data to evaluate local effects of trade (Edmonds et al. 2007, Kovak 2013, Autor, 2013) and exploits the fact that cities in China vary in their composition of employment across industries and tariff changes vary across industries. The empirical evidence supports the main predictions of the theoretical model that a reduction in variable trade costs reduces size of labor force in the agricultural sector and induces inter-regional labor migration. In particular, in the district that experience the average rising export exposure, the increase in export explains more than 50 percent of the decline in the employment share in agriculture during 2000-2010. Additionally, compared with prefectures at the 25th percentile of export exposure growth, the migrants share in prefectures at the 75th percentile increased by 11.3 percentage points more during this period. Moreover, the effects of export exposure decrease over distance to the coastline. Using firm level data from the Annual Survey of Industrial Production, I also provide empirical support of the differentiation in trade effects on regional average productivity, which is the central mechanism of the model.

The work in this paper builds on several strands of existing literature. It relates closely to the literature on trade and structural change. Reduction in trade cost induces expansion in sectors with comparative advantage due to differences in technology, relative factor endowments, or institutional quality. A more recent strand of theoretical literature examines how institutional frictions affect the implications of trade for labor market reallocation (Cuñat and Melitz, 2012; Kambourov, 2009; Helpman and Itzhakovi, 2010; Davis and Harrigan, 2011). This work, however, has largely focused on the composition of economic status silent on the efficiency of the division of labor markets between sectors. In contrast with the existing literature, the model in this paper is built in the dual economy framework which is characterized with between-sector distortions. Individuals earn their average product in the agriculture sector and make migration decisions according to the expected values of searching jobs in the manufacturing sector, following the influential work in Harris and Todaro (1970). This set up is used to capture the welfare enhancement effects of trade through alleviating labor markets distortion across sectors.

This paper also connects with models investigating the impact of international trade on internal geographical labor mobility. A common used theoretical framework in this strand of literature is the new economic geography model, which explains the importance of region’s access to markets and the agglomeration of economic activities. However, only a small number of papers have explicitly incorporating regional heterogeneity within a country, such as Allen and Arkolakis (2013), Cosar and Fajgelbaum (2013), Redding (2012), and Tombe and Zhu (2015). My main departure from these papers is that it allows for incomplete specialization at each location and examines the structural transformation within each region. In addition,

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<sup>3</sup>There is also a large strand of literature empirically investigating labor reallocation induced by trade opening. See, for example, Wacziarg and Wallack (2004), Uy et al. (2012) and McCaig and Pavcnik (2013)



## 2 Motivating stylized facts

As shown in Figure 1, since the opening policy in 1978, China has experienced a sharp increase in the export of GDP ratio, from 4.1% in 1978 to 24.11% in 2013, with the agriculture employment share dropped from 70% in 1978 to 34.3% in 2012. Data from the National Rural Fixed-point Survey shows that the average share of migrants out of total rural labor force rose from 15.45% in 2000 to 30.12% in 2009. In addition, the number of inter-provincial migrants increased from 42.1 million to 85.8 million during 2000-2010 according to the population census in 2000 and 2010. Meanwhile, these changes are not equally distributed across all regions in China. There are two main stylized facts manifested in the population census of the spatial pattern of these changes that motivate the analysis in this paper.

First, the employment share in non-agriculture sector is higher in coastal cities than that in most interior regions (Figure 2 Panel A). Prefectures with more than 10 million population above the age of 15 employed in the non-agriculture sector are all located in the two major coastal megacity regions, the Pearl River Delta and the Yangtze River Delta. Moreover, given the initial employment share, the coastal area experienced a sharper decrease in the agriculture employment share during 2000-2010 (Figure 2 Panel B). Prefectures





at location  $i$ . The indirect utility of the representative consumer is

$$V_i = E_i + \frac{1}{\sigma} \ln P_i^{-1} + \frac{H_i}{N_i} \quad (2)$$

here  $E_i$  refers to the total income. Falls in trade barriers can increase welfare at location  $i$  either by raising total income or reducing the price index.

### 3.1.2 Labor markets

Whether a particular firm is hiring. Workers are hired by firms with a matching technology. As commonly assumed in the search and matching literature, the probability that a vacancy is filled can be expressed as  $q(\theta_i)$ , where  $\theta_i$  is the vacancy-unemployment rate and represents the labor market tightness in the manufacturing sector.  $q(\theta_i)$  is decreasing in  $\theta_i$ . Unemployed workers are hired at the rate  $x(\theta_i) = \theta_i q(\theta_i)$ , which is an increasing function of  $\theta_i$ . Before the beginning of the next period, each pair of match is destroyed with probability  $\delta$  due to match-specific shocks.

Once the matching technology brings together firms and workers successfully, wage  $w_{Mi}$  is decided through Nash-bargaining. The surplus from successful matches is split between workers and the firm to solve:

$$\max_{w_{Mi}} (E_i(\theta_i) - U_i) \left( \frac{\beta J_i(l; \theta_i)}{\beta l} \right)^{\alpha} ; \quad 0 \leq w_{Mi} \leq 1 \quad (5)$$

where  $J_i(l; \theta_i)$  is the asset value of a firm with productivity  $\theta_i$  and  $l$  workers, to be defined below.  $\beta J_i(l; \theta_i) = \beta l$  measures the firm's surplus by hiring an additional worker.  $\alpha$  shows the bargaining power of the worker.  $E_i(\theta_i)$  is the present value of being employed by a firm with productivity  $\theta_i$ , and it satisfies the following Bellman equations:

$$(1 + r)E_i(\theta_i) = w_{Mi} + [(1 - \delta) \max\{E_i^0(\theta_i); B_i^0\} + \beta l^0]$$

$$(1 + r)U_i = (1 - x(\theta_i)^0) B_i^0 + (1 - x(\theta_i)) \max\{E_i^0(\theta_i); X_i^0\} \quad (6)$$

where  $\delta$  is the actual separation rate of each firm-worker match. The above equations imply that  $(1 + r)E_i(\theta_i)$  depends on the wage rate in each period and the probability at which the current employment status continues. The same holds for  $(1 + r)U_i$ .

market with the probability  $\theta_i$ . Firms at location  $i$  bear fixed cost  $f_{ij}$  for sales to location  $j$ .

Assume the cost of posing a vacancy is  $c$ . The producer maximizes its market value by solving

$$J_i(l_i) = \max_{V_i} \frac{1}{1+r} R_i(h_i) - w_{Mi}(l_i) - cV_i - f_{ii} + \sum_{j \in I} l_{ij} f_{ij} + (1-\theta_i) J_i(l_i^0)$$

s.t.  $l_i^0 = (1-\theta_i)l_i +$

### 3.2.1 Optimal vacancy post and wage bargaining result

As proved in the Appendix, the first order condition of the firm's problem in (7) yields the optimal hiring rule of a firm in the steady state as

$$\frac{\partial R(l; \theta)}{\partial l} = w_{Mi}(l; \theta) + \frac{c}{q(\theta_i)} \frac{r + \dots}{1} + \frac{\partial w_{Mi}(l; \theta)}{\partial l} \quad (8)$$

This equation differs from the solution in a friction-free market with the consideration of the expected cost to hire extra workers. Additionally, reinserting the first order condition for vacancy posting into the bargaining rule and plugging in the relations in equation ( ), we obtain the relationship between  $\theta_i$  and  $w_{Mi}$  as

$$w_{Mi} = rU_i + \frac{r + \dots}{1} \frac{c}{q(\theta_i)} \quad (9)$$

with  $rU_i = \frac{1}{1 - \dots} \theta_i c$ . From equation (9), we can see that the manufacturing wage is a function of labor market tightness  $\theta_i$  and it's independent of firms' productivity levels. This is due to the assumption that the posting cost are the same across firms. Additionally, wage is increasing in the market tightness. Larger  $\theta_i$  means lower probability of successful match, which indicates higher expected costs of hiring new workers. This implies that increases in  $\theta_i$  raise marginal costs and reduce firm's profits. This is the same as the conclusion in Felbermayer et al. (2011).

### 3.2.2 Equilibrium in goods markets

Substituting the expression of wage (9) into equation (8), firm's optimal hiring rule can be rewritten as

$$\frac{\partial R(l; \theta)}{\partial l} = \frac{1}{1 - \dots} \left[ \theta_i c + \frac{r + \dots}{1} \frac{c}{q(\theta_i)} \right] \quad (10)$$

here  $\dots = \frac{1}{1 - \dots}$ . Define  $a(\theta_i) = \frac{\partial R(l; \theta)}{\partial l}$ . Since  $q(\theta_i)$  is decreasing in  $\theta_i$ ,  $a(\theta_i)$  is an increasing function in  $\theta_i$ . Substituting the expression of  $a(\theta_i)$  into the zero cutoff condition, the productivity thresholds are given by

$$\begin{aligned} \theta_{ii} &= B f_{ii} a(\theta_i) Y_i \\ \theta_{ij} &= B f_{ij} \theta_{ij} a(\theta_i) Y_j \end{aligned} \quad (11)$$

here  $B = \left( \frac{1+r}{1 - \dots} \right)^{-1}$ . Therefore, for any pair of locations  $i$  and  $j$  the productivity cutoffs satisfy

$$\frac{\theta_{ii}}{\theta_{ji}} = \left( \frac{f_{ii}}{f_{ji}} \right)^{-1} \theta_{ij} \left( \frac{a_i(\theta_i)}{a_j(\theta_j)} \right) \quad (12)$$

<sup>10</sup>See Appendix A for more details.

Equation (12) implies that the cutoffs depend on the relative size of marginal revenues at the equilibrium, which are influenced by the labor market conditions. In addition, as proved in Appendix A, the free entry condition can be simplified as

$$\sum_j \frac{1}{\mu_{ij}} f_{ij} \left[ \left( \frac{w_i}{w_j} \right)^{\frac{1}{\sigma_{ij}}} - 1 \right] dG(\theta) = \frac{r + \tau}{1 + r} f_{ei}; i = 1; 2 \dots K \quad (13)$$

Relation (12) and (13) derive  $K \times K$  functions, which can be used to pin down  $\mu_{ij}$  as functions of  $w_i$  and  $w_j$  ( $j = 1; 2 \dots K$ ). Once the productivity thresholds are determined, we can get the consumption level of  $Y_i$  with equation (11). Additionally, total expenditure in the differentiated sector equals total revenues of all firms serving demand in this sector, which determines the entry rate of new firms as

$$Y_i = \frac{1 + r}{1} \frac{1}{1} f_{ej} \sum_j \frac{1}{\mu_{ij}} f_{ji} \left( \frac{w_i}{w_j} \right)^{\frac{1}{\sigma_{ji}}} dG(\theta); i = 1; 2 \dots K \quad (14)$$

With these  $K$  functions we can write  $M_{ei}$  as function of  $w_i$  and  $w_j$  ( $j = 1; 2 \dots K$ ) as well.

### 3.2.3 Equilibrium in labor markets

Analogous to the Harris and Todaro (1970) model, the mobility equilibrium condition requires that staying in the rural sector has the equal value as migrating to the urban sector and searching for urban job as an unemployment worker, i.e.  $W_r = U_r$ . Therefore, the wage and labor

the flow-in employment is the same as the flow-out employment. Therefore,

$$\frac{x(i)}{x(i) + N_{Mi}} = L_{Mi} \quad (17)$$

here  $L_{Mi}$  is determined by

$$L_{Mi} = \frac{M_{ei}}{1+r} \frac{1}{1} \frac{1}{a_i} \sum_j f_{ij} \left( \frac{1}{a_j} \right)^{\alpha_j} dG(\alpha_j)$$

Equation (15) and (17) depend only on  $N_{Mi}$  and  $x(i)$  if we take the total labor at each location  $i$  as given. Therefore, these two equations can be used to pin down the value of  $N_{Mi}$  and  $x(i)$ . As proved in Appendix A, there exists a unique solution. Note that in contrast with Helpman and Itskhoki (2010) in which labor market tightness is constant,  $x(i)$

here  $\beta_i = \frac{f_i}{\tau_i}$   $\frac{1}{\tau_i} dG(\tau_i)$ ;  $i = d; x$ . The sign of coefficients in (18) implies the following lemma.

**Lemma 1.** Assume all locations are symmetric. As in Melitz (2003), a reduction in trade







the higher income offsets the loss of firm's entr . This mechanism is absent in Helpman and

labor market tightness and labor allocation across sectors are determined b

$$\frac{\partial R(I; \cdot)}{\partial I} = \frac{1}{c} + \frac{r}{q(I)}$$

$$F^Q(N_A) = \frac{c' + \frac{\partial R(I; \cdot)}{\partial I} \frac{x(I)}{r}}{r + x(I)} \quad (19)$$

here  $\frac{\partial R(I; \cdot)}{\partial I}$  is the elasticity of  $x(I)$  with respect to





distance of each district to China's coastline mitigates the potential bias in the estimated impacts of tariff.

The baseline specification used in this section is

$$y_{dt} = \alpha_t + \beta \text{Export}_{dt} + \gamma_d + \epsilon_{dt} \quad (21)$$

here  $\mathbf{d}$  denotes district at the prefecture level and  $\mathbf{t}$  denotes time (2000, 2010).  $y_{dt}$  is the variable of our concern, such as the agriculture employment share, in-migration share and regional productivity.  $\text{Export}_{dt}$  is the measure of prefecture  $\mathbf{d}$ 's exports exposure at time  $\mathbf{t}$ , constructed in the way that is described with more details in the next section.  $\epsilon_{dt}$

## 4.2 Data

This section describes two principal sources of data used in the subsequent analysis: the national Population Census and the Annual Survey of Industrial Production.

### 4.2.1 National Population Census (1990, 2000, 2010)

The sector employment data and migration data, which are used to construct the dependent variables in regressions, come from the fifth and sixth national population census conducted in 2000 and 2010 by the China's National Bureau of Statistics (NBS). It covers 2283 administrative units at the county level. Data on total population, registered household population, employed population by sectors, total population above 15 years old, stock of migrants of different types, and urban and rural population are aggregated to the prefecture level for analysis in the next section. The agriculture employment share is defined as the proportion of agriculture employment in total population above 15. Migrants in the census refer to people staying in one county other than their registered residence (**Hukou**) and have left their registered residence for more than 6 months. Only information on the stock of in-migrants is available. The absolute volume of migrants is not comparable across prefectures, so I use the ratio of in-migrants to the **Hukou** population to measure the attractiveness of each

### 4.2.3 Other data

The prefecture-level control variables are constructed using data from the China City Statistics Year Book (2000, 2010) and the China County Economic Statistical Yearbook (2000,



employment for the calculation of both  $\Delta \text{Export}_{d2000}$  and  $\Delta \text{Export}_{d2010}$  so that the change in the employment composition over time does not affect the measure of district export exposure. Therefore, the first-differenced form of  $\Delta \text{Export}_{dt}$  is

$$\Delta \text{Export}_{dt} = \sum_i \left( \frac{\Delta \text{EX}_{it}}{\text{Employ}_{i2000}} - \frac{\text{Employ}_{id2000}}{\text{Employ}_{d2000}} \right) \quad (24)$$

To address the potential endogeneity problem of  $\Delta \text{Export}_{dt}$  in equation (23), I employ the tariff cut as the instrument, which is constructed as

$$\Delta \text{Tariff}_{dt} = \sum_i \left( \frac{\Delta \ln(1 + \tau_{it})}{\text{Employ}_{i1990}} - \frac{\text{Employ}_{id1990}}{\text{Employ}_{d1990}} \right)$$

where  $\Delta \ln(1 + \tau_{it})$  presents the log difference of other countries' tariffs for import from China during 2000-2010. This measure of foreign tariff cut is exogenous in the sense that it is the result of other countries trade policy and is unlikely to be influenced by the structural change in China. It is also unlikely to influence the structural change and migration within China through channels other than export. In addition, it uses employment from 1990 to address the possibility that the contemporaneous employment in equation (24) is affected by the anticipated China's trade policy changes. Figure (9) reveals strong positive correlation between the change in regional export exposure and the change in the foreign tariff change.

### 4.3.2 Measures of regional manufacturing productivity

The regional manufacturing productivity used in this paper is defined as the weighted aggregate TFP in each prefecture

$$\text{Pr}_{dt} = \sum_i s_{idt} \ln \text{TFP}_{it}$$

where  $s_{idt}$  is the plant  $i$ 's share of industry output at district  $d$ , and  $\ln \text{TFP}_{idt}$  is the log form of plant-level TFP constructed using the approach following Pavcnik (2002). Specifically, the Cobb-Douglas production function:

$$\ln y_{it} = \alpha_0 + \alpha_1 \ln w_{it} + \alpha_2 \ln m_{it} + \alpha_3 \ln k_{it} + \epsilon_{it} \quad (25)$$

here  $\hat{\alpha}_i$  ( $i=1,2,3$ ) are estimated coefficients in equation (25). Appendix D provides more details of the estimation procedure. Table 5 shows the estimated coefficients in equation (25) and average  $\ln \mathbf{TFP}$  in each main industry. There is large variation of the input coefficients across industries. Additionally, we could see a steady increase in the measured  $\mathbf{TFP}$  across years.

## 4.4 Main findings

### 4.4.1 Basic results

Table presents the primary estimates of the effects on increase in export on the agriculture employment share and migration patterns. Each column reports a different version of equa-

#### 4.4.2 Heterogeneity in the trade effects

The model predicts that the effects of trade cost reduction on structural change decline over distance to the coastline. To test this prediction, I divide China into four bins based on the Euclidian distance of each cities to China's coastline and estimate the modification of equation (23):

$$y_d = \alpha + \sum_{b=1}^4 \beta_b (4 \text{ Export}_d \cdot D_b) + \sum_{b=2}^4 \gamma_b D_b + \delta_1 X_d + \delta_2 Y_{d;2000} + \epsilon_d \quad (2)$$

here  $D_b$  are dummies which takes the value of 1 when a prefecture belongs to the distance bin  $b$ . Results are presented in Table . The effect of the increase in the export exposure on the agriculture employment share is largest in the distance bin 150-300km, here the point estimate is around -0.0 for both the OLS and 2SLS estimations. It then decreases over distance to the coastline, which supports the theoretical implication of the heterogeneity in the effects of international trade.  $\delta_1$  is smaller than  $\delta_2$ , but this is not inconsistent with the model, since both the first and second distance bins belong to the coastal area, while the second bin is closer to the interior region than the first one and associated with lower migrating cost for migrant workers.

I also run the 2SLS estimates of equation (23) for four distance bins separately. The point estimates of interests is still largest in the second distance bin but not statistically significant. Results are reported in column 3 to column 4 in Table 7.

#### 4.4.3 Trade effects on manufacturing productivity

The underlying mechanism of the theoretical model is the productivity increase in the manufacturing sector induced by the trade impediments reduction. Employing the same identification strategy used for the analysis of labor mobility across space and sectors, I get significantly positive coefficient on the export exposure index. The value in column (2) of Table 8 suggests that an average increase in average employment-weighted export exposure (from 0.354 to 1.7 ) raises the value of  $\ln TFP$  by 0.04, while the average increase in the regional weighted average productivity ( $\ln TFP$ ) is 0.09.

The estimated effects of export on productivity by distance distribution are presented in column (3) and (4) in Table 8. The effect is more than two times larger in the second distance bin, here the estimate is 0.0939, than in the last distance bin. The magnitude of coefficients on the interaction term is not monotonically increasing across distance, which is not perfectly consistent with the model. However, the effect of the increase in export exposure is statistically significant only in the first two distance bins, implying that the effects in regional further than 300 kilometers away from China's coastline are not precisely estimated.

## 4.5 Robustness checks

In this section, I discuss several robustness checks of the empirical results presented in Table 8. The first concern is the unit of analysis. As stated before, analysis with local markets requires labor to be “sufficiently immobile” across regions, otherwise labor migration smooths out price variations caused by difference in trade exposure. Therefore, in the regression of immigration ratio, the magnitude of the export exposure coefficient is expected to decrease if the unit of analysis is changed from prefecture to county. However, the model predicts that regions with export increase would experience larger change in the agriculture employment in the case when migration is allowed than that in the case without interregional migration. Therefore, the effects of export exposure would be overestimated when we use a more detailed unit of analysis. Table 9 presents the results. Compared with Table 8, we can see that both coefficients are more statistically significant due to the increase in sample size, while their magnitudes move towards the direction as predicted.

I next turn to results from regressions with additional controls or alternative measure of openness. I only present results estimated with the IV method. The first column in Table 10 discusses factors in the agriculture sector that pushing migrants towards the manufacturing sector. Pushing factors discussed intensively in the literature includes low productivity, poor economic conditions, exhaustion of natural resources, and mechanization of certain processes reduce labor requirement in rural areas. Column (1) presents the results of the regression with rural population density, production of grains per capita and agriculture machines owned by each household. The incorporation of additional controls into the regression does not change our main results. Column (2) presents the results with import exposure per worker as additional controls. The point estimates are quite similar as that in Table 8.

The next two columns examine the issue with alternative measures of international trade exposure. Column (3) uses the gross export, which includes both exports and re-exports, as the main explanator variable. Both the magnitude and statistical significance remain unchanged. The last column, however, shows that net-export, the difference between exports and imports, does not have significant impact on migration across space and sectors. This is not inconsistent with the model, since import might have opposite effects on firms’ behavior compared with exports. In addition, the instrument is weak in predicting the

raises the average productivity. As a consequence, firms post more vacancies and workers migrate from the rural sector to the urban sector. In addition, reductions in international trade impediments have larger impacts on the labor market at locations with geographical advantages, inducing spatial movements of labor towards regions closer to the global market. Therefore, the economy gains from trade through increase in productivity, expansion of the manufacturing sector, and reallocation of labor across locations. Empirical evidence with China's population census data further confirms the theoretical implications.

In addition, by comparing the decentralized competitive equilibrium with the social optimal solution, I show that falls in trade barriers exacerbate the existing distortions caused by matching frictions but decrease the misallocation of labor across sectors and space. Trade can significantly reduce labor market distortions if between-sector distortions are quite large. It implies a potential channel through which the economy can gain from trade. It also suggests important policy implications that subsidies to encourage firms to search for workers more insensitively can offset part of the downside of trade liberalization.

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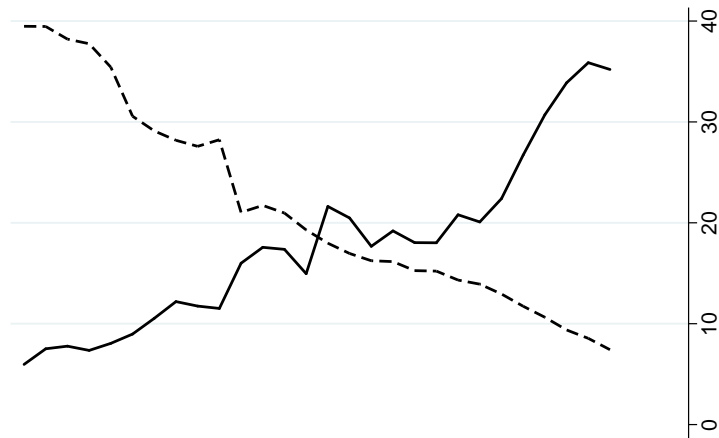
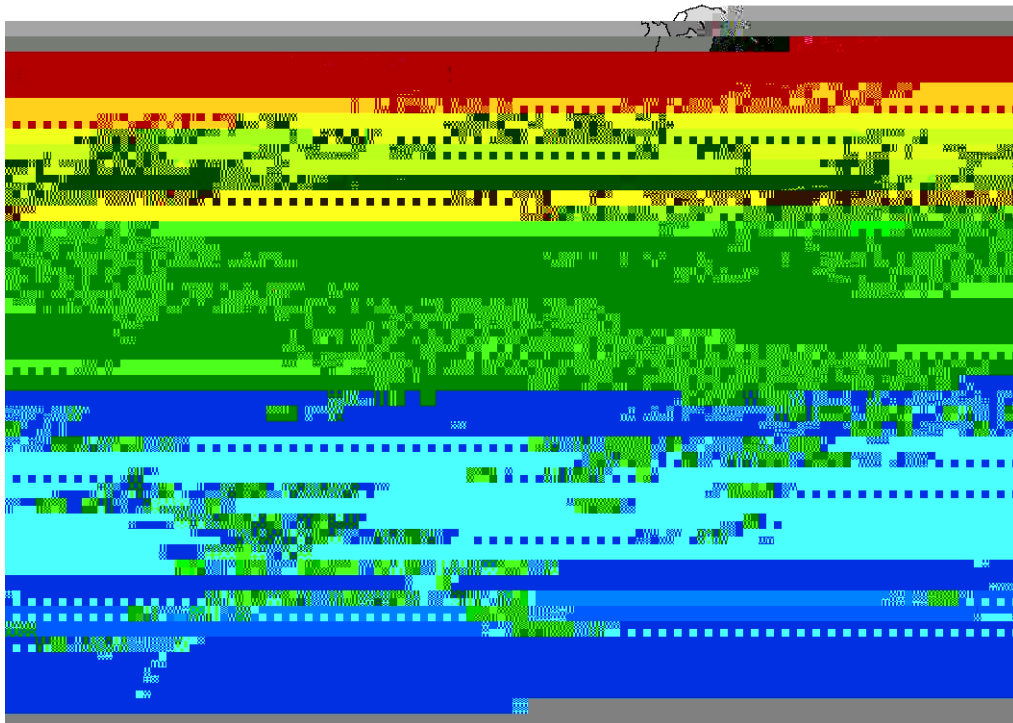


Figure 1: Agriculture employment share and export share during 1978-2008



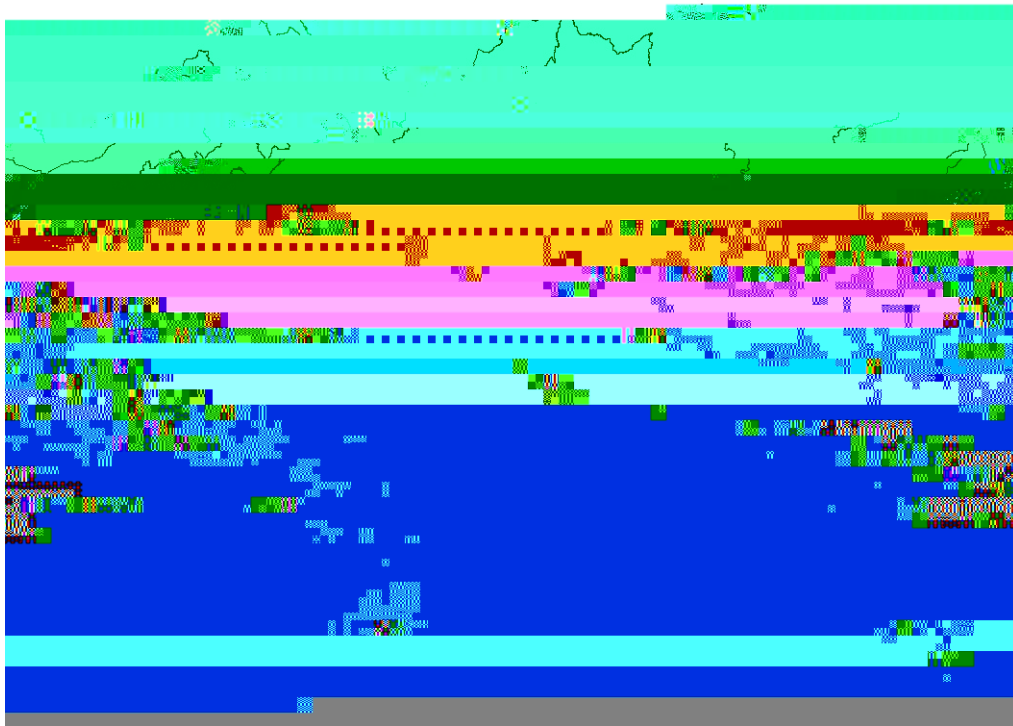
(a) Share of non-agriculture sector employment



(b) Change in non-agriculture employment share during 2000-2010

Source: See main text; N/A=data is not available

Figure 2: Share of non-agriculture employment in 2010



(a) 20 largest inter-province migration flows



(b) Share of inter-province migration

Source: See main text; N/A=data is not available

Figure 3: Share of Inflow and outflow population in 2010

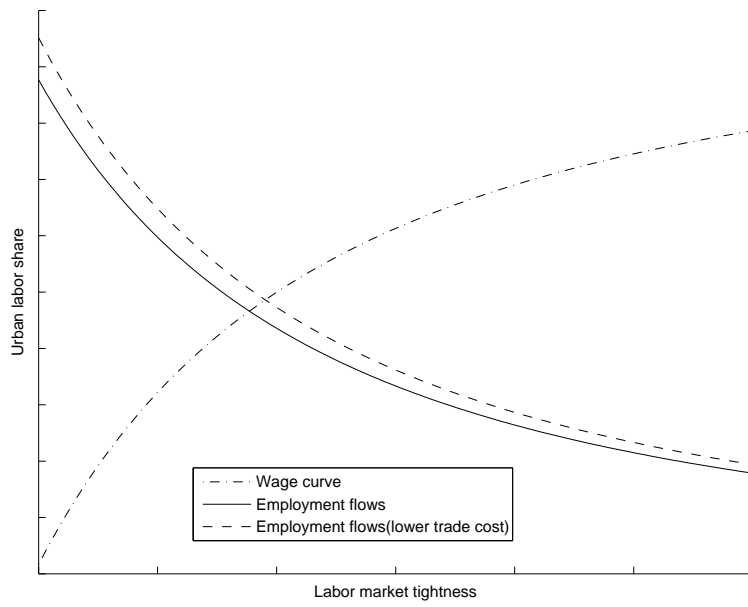
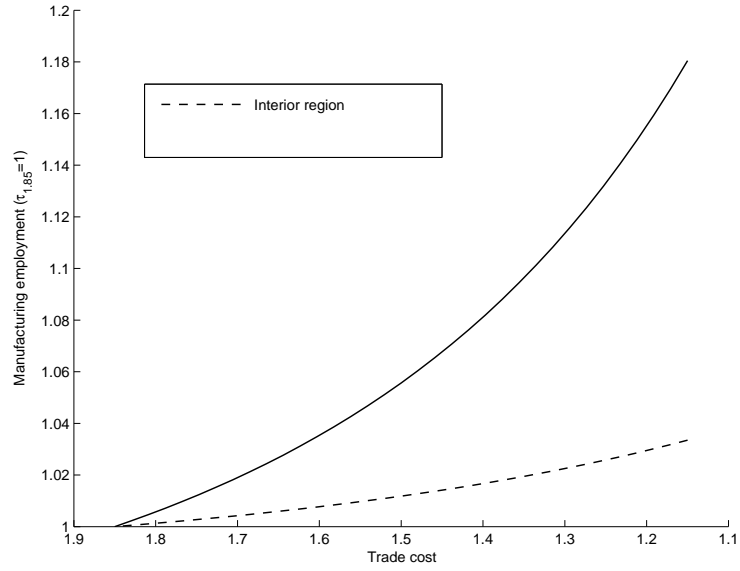
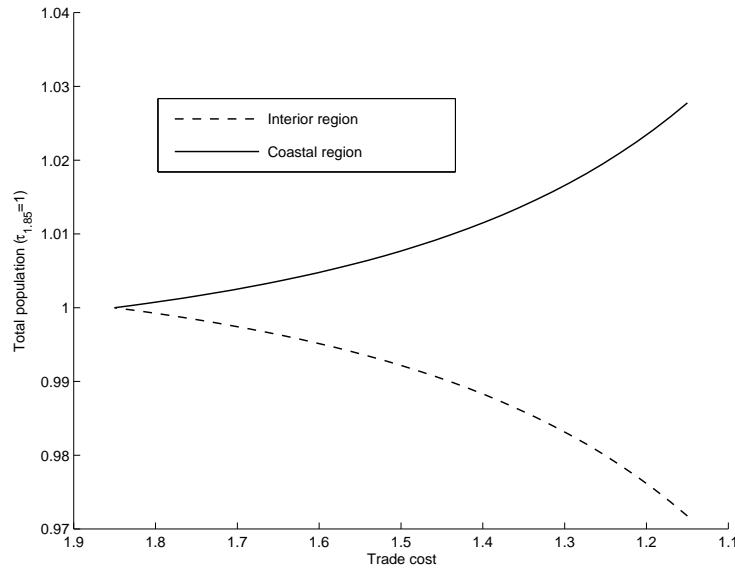


Figure 4: Effects of trade cost reduction in symmetric regions

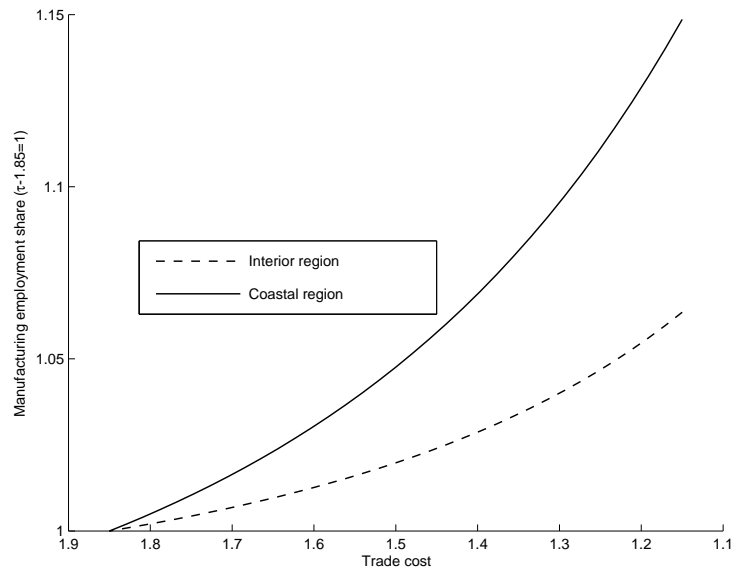


(a) International Trade cost and total regional urban employment



(b) International trade cost and total regional population change

Figure 5: Effects of trade cost reduction with asymmetric regions



(c) International trade cost and urban labor share

Figure 5: Effects of trade cost reduction with asymmetric regions (continue)

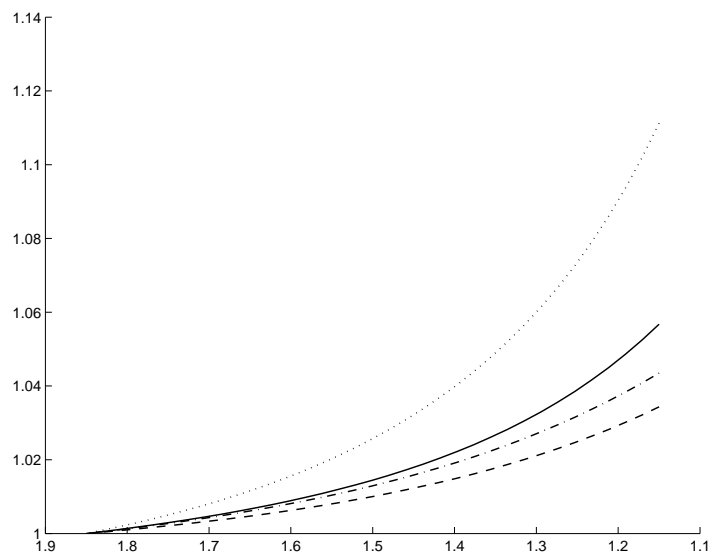
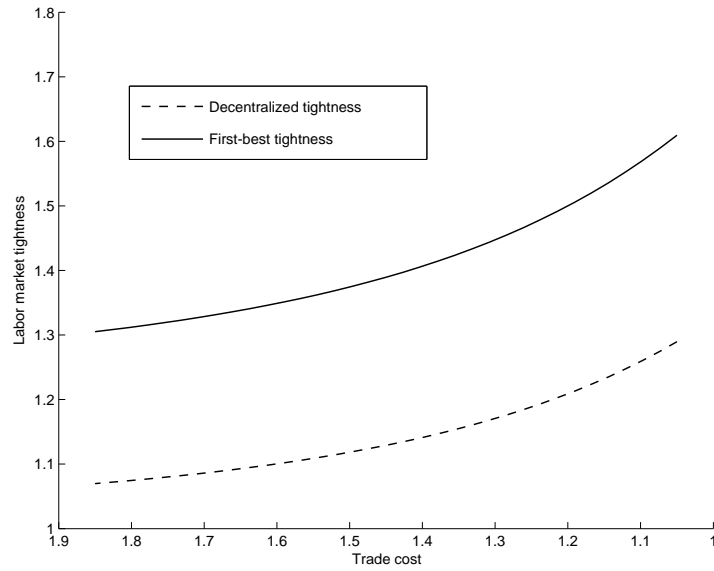
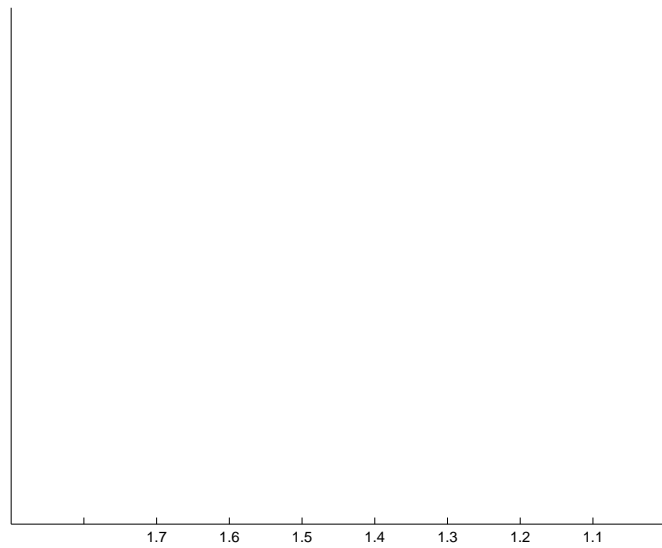


Figure 6: Decomposition of the welfare gains from trade

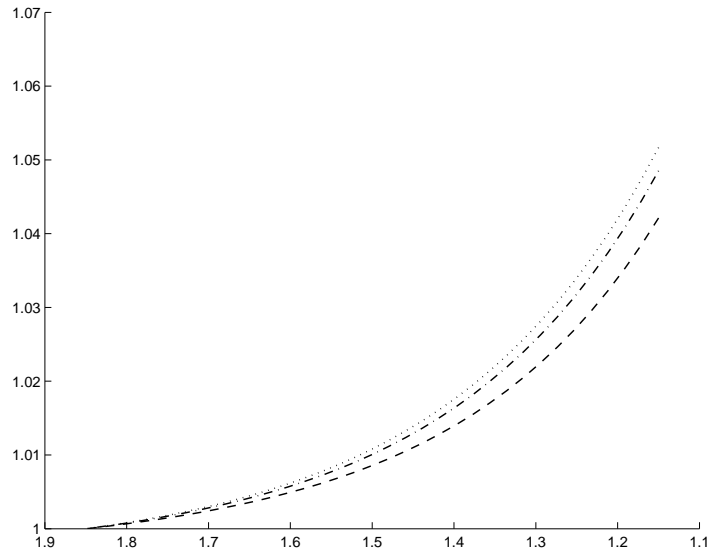


(a) Trade cost and labor market tightness

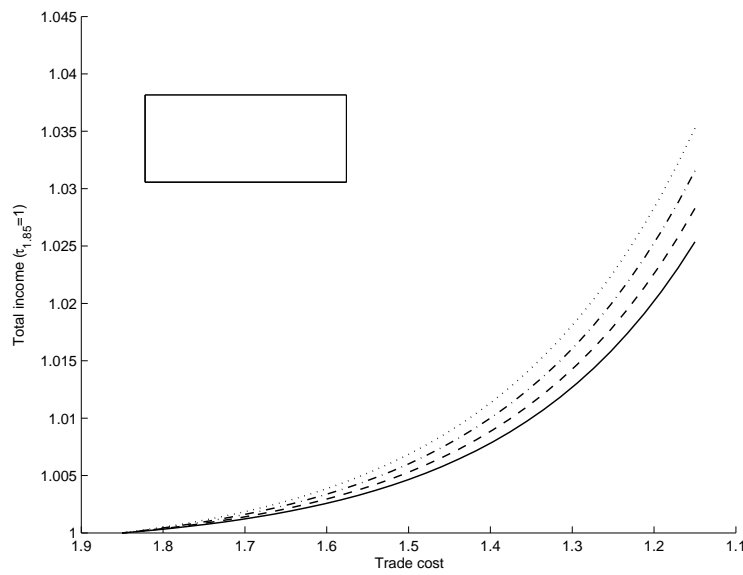


(b) Trade cost and manufacturing employment share

Figure 7: The decentralized competitive equilibrium and social optimal solution



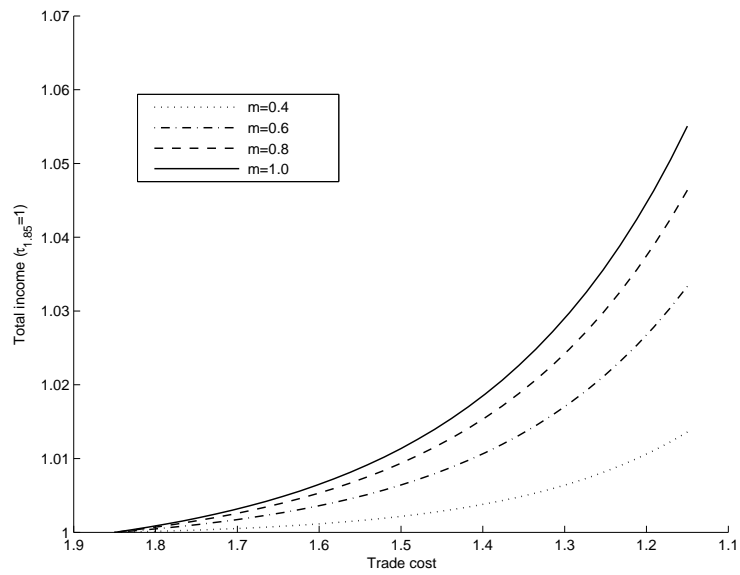
(a) Different values of labor elasticity in the agriculture production function



(b) Different values of vacancy posting cost

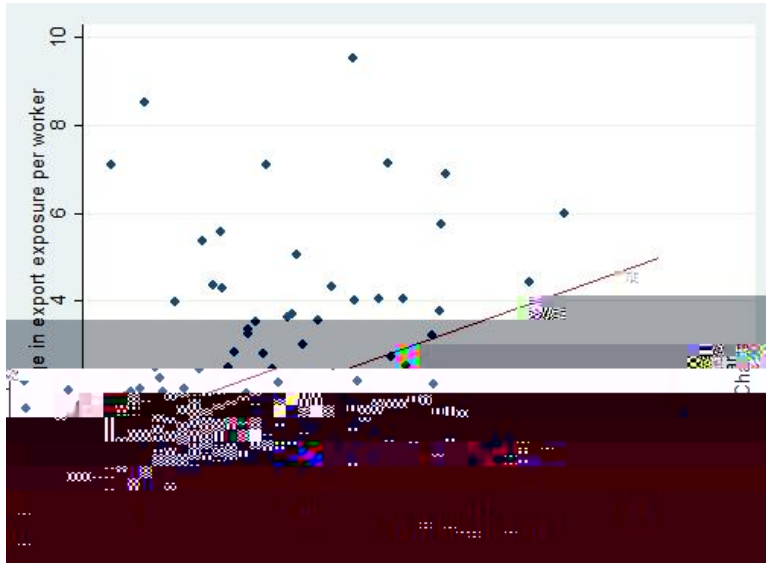
Figure 8: The welfare gains from trade and labor market distortions



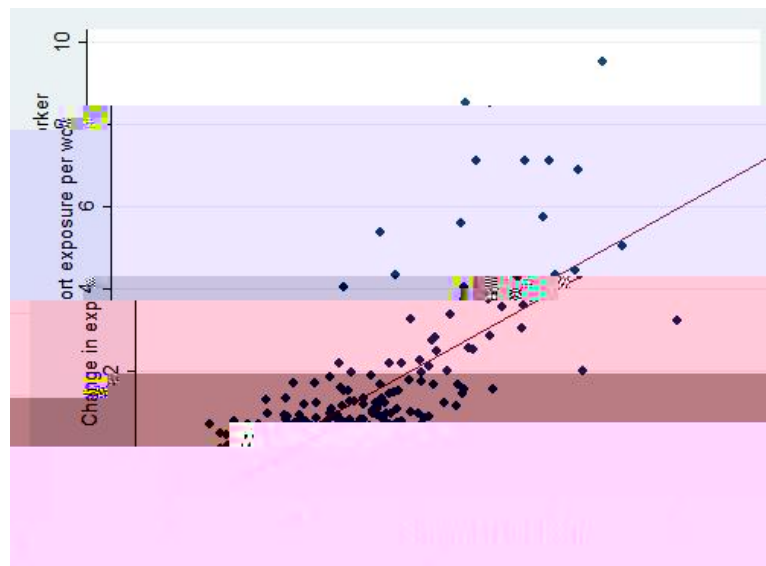


(c) Different values of matching efficiency

Figure 8: The welfare gains from trade and labor market distortions (continue)



(a) First Stage: Change in export exposure and foreign tari



(b) Change in export exposure and Predicted values

Figure 9: The prediction power of the instrument variable

Table 1: Calibration-parameter values

Parameter	Definition	Value	Source/Target
	Elasticity of substitution	4	Bernard et al. (2003)
<b>c</b>	Cost of hiring	1.4	1.1 times monthly wage (Felbermayer et al., 2011)
	Parameter in the utility function	0.7	$0 < \alpha < 1$
	Decay of productivity distribution	3.2	$\sigma > 1$ to ensure that the variance of the sales distribution is finite
<b>s</b>	Actual rate of job separation	0.07	Unemployment rate around 11% (Giles et al., 2005)
<b>m</b>	Scale of matching function	0.	labor market tightness 0.9-1.1 (Xiao, 2013)
	Wage bargaining power	0.5	Standard
	Rate of firm exit	0.01	Felbermayer et al. (2011)
<b>r</b>	Monthly discount rate	0.42	5% annual interest rate
<b>N</b>	Total population size	2	normalization
<b>H</b>	Local amenity shared by workers	1	normalization

Table 2: Simulation results of main variables

International trade cost	1.15	1.45	1.85	1.15	1.45	1.85
	Interior region			Coastal region		
Domestic sale productivity threshold	4.5001	4.3249	4.244	4.5781	4.393	4.27
International sale productivity threshold	.9	8.93	11.124	.7052	8.324	10.182
Urban labor	0.4193	0.3719	0.3289	0.523	0.4277	0.355
Total population	0.9577	0.9805	0.9904	1.0423	1.0195	1.009
Urban labor share	43.79	37.93	33.21	50.50	41.95	35.5
Vacancy-unemployment rate	1.1774	0.919	0.810	1.2439	1.0008	0.8335
Unemployment rate	9.71	10.3	11.47	9.47	10.44	11.33

Table 3: Gains from trade and changes in distortions

Decrease in the trade cost (initial $\tau=1.85$ )	0.2	0.4	0.	0.8
Change in manufacturing employment share ( % )	7.14	1 .2	30.80	48.20
Change in first-best manufacturing employment share( % )	2.7	.19	11.43	17.42
Gains from efficiency increase	4.37	10.07	19.37	30.78
Change in $\tau$ ( % )	2.30	5.53	11.51	20.54
Change in first-best $\tau$ ( % )	2.71	.4	13.27	23.32
Gains from efficiency increase	-0.41	-0.93	-1.75	-2.77
Relative total revenue (competitive/first-best) ( % )	92.29	92.74	93.50	94.49
Change in tax on $w$				

Table 5: Estimates of Olle -Pakes TFP b industr

Industr	Labor	Materials	Capital	lnTFP1998	lnTFP2000	lnTFP2002	lnTFP2005
13	0.0533	0.8783	0.039	0.489	0.58	0.241	0.244
14	0.023	0.9048	0.0307	0.3791	0.429	0.4137	0.5119
15	0.0883	0.8815	0.0358	0.4334	0.439	0.444	0.579
17	0.05	0.8801	0.0254	0.5183	0.535	0.571	0.417
18	0.1115	0.819	0.0391	0.427	0.579	0.437	0.7755
19	0.093	0.875	0.03	0.5383	0.5458	0.5492	0.15
20	0.1451	0.8105	0.0523	0.4833	0.7484	0.7073	1.0753
21	0.1034	0.883	0.0299	0.4991	0.479	0.5382	0.75
22	0.0731	0.8811	0.0242	0.5083	0.5488	0.5749	0.7735
23	0.105	0.885	0.0425	0.329	0.387	0.4049	0.253
24	0.092	0.8531	0.0329	0.5599	0.518	0.549	0.703
25	0.0374	0.8837	0.0282	0.9	0.474	0.7204	0.5323
2	0.0789	0.8533	0.038	0.5297	0.581	0.088	0.388
27	0.099	0.8358	0.0589	0.4143	0.4979	0.529	0.7385
29	0.08	0.8459	0.053	0.294	0.339	0.4042	0.5537
30	0.0954	0.8352	0.041	0.5301	0.5324	0.	0.8543
31	0.077	0.8723	0.0328	0.437	0.5243	0.5347	0.7778
32	0.043	0.9019	0.0314	0.4333	0.494	0.498	0.4529
33	0.04	0.8735	0.0204	0.09	0.8	0.7487	0.743
34	0.0777	0.84	0.047	0.5314	0.5384	0.5747	0.221
35	0.074	0.8734	0.03	0.432	0.4505	0.499	0.5779
3	0.0887	0.878	0.0302	0.395	0.4402	0.419	0.5981
37	0.1002	0.844	0.0314	0.4551	0.4944	0.5299	0.419
39	0.0751	0.823	0.0387	0.5335	0.585	0.5808	0.5915
40	0.143	0.8237	0.038	0.5982	0.47	0.27	0.9054
41	0.120	0.83	0.038	0.5494	0.132	0.498	0.8315
42	0.0703	0.87	0.0225	0.85	0.734	0.7531	0.8095

Notes: The Chinese industries are classified as: (13) food processing; (14) food manufacturing; (15) beverage; (17) textiles; (18) apparel; (19) leather, fur, feather products; (20) wood processing and wood, bamboo and palm fiber products manufacturing; (21) furniture; (22) paper and paper products; (23) printing and reproduction of recording media; (24) education and sporting goods; (25) petroleum and nuclear fuel processing; (26) chemicals and chemical products; (27) medicines; (28) chemicals; (29) rubber; (30) plastic; (31) non-metallic minerals; (32) ferrous metal smelting and rolling processing; (33) non-ferrous metal smelting and rolling processing; (34) fabricated metal; (35) general machinery; (36) special machinery; (37) transportation equipment; (39) electrical machinery; (40) communications equipment, computers and other electronic equipment; (41) instrumentation and o

Table : The effects of export exposure on migration across sectors and space

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OLS	2SLS
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Table 9: The effects of export exposure on migration across sectors and space(count level)

	(1)	(2)	(3)	(4)
Dependent Variable	4 Agriculture share		4 Migrants ratio	
	OLS	2SLS	OLS	2SLS
4 Export exposure per worker	-0.010 ** (0.00440)	-0.0492** (0.0247)	0.0230*** (0.00590)	0.0503*** (0.0185)
Constant	0.0553 (0.0448)	0.229** (0.0985)	-0.0178* (0.00932)	-0.0387* (0.0229)
Agriculture share 2000	o	Yes	o	Yes
4 Prefecture controls	o	Yes	o	Yes
Region dummies	Yes	Yes	Yes	Yes
Distance to coastline	Yes	Yes	Yes	Yes
Observations	1,730	1, 31	1,730	1, 31
R-squared	0.334	0.253	0.297	0.227

Note: Standard errors in parentheses are cluster in region.  
 [\*]  $p < 0.05$ , [\*\*]  $p < 0.01$ , [\*\*\*]  $p < 0.001$

Table 10: Robustness checks

	(1)	(2)	(3)	(4)
	A. 4 Agriculture share			
4 Export exposure per worker	-0.0432* (0.0223)	-0.0424* (0.0228)	-0.0458* (0.0244)	-0.012 (0.0124)
Constant	0.222** (0.105)	0.304*** (0.0714)	0.320*** (0.097)	0.17 ** (0.0730)
Agriculture share 2000	o	Yes	o	Yes
4 Prefecture controls	o	Yes	o	Yes
Region dummies	Yes	Yes	Yes	Yes
Distance to coastline	Yes	Yes	Yes	Yes
Observations	259	228	238	213
R-squared	0.493	0.90	0.475	0.590
	B. 4 Migrants ratio			
4 Export exposure per worker	0.138** (0.057)	0.105** (0.0414)	0.109** (0.0471)	0.0493 (0.031)
Constant	-0.00 (0.0588)	-0.0717** (0.035)	-0.0703* (0.033)	-0.0939* (0.0548)
Migrants ratio 2000	o	Yes	o	Yes
4 Prefecture controls	o	Yes	o	Yes
Region dummies	Yes	Yes	Yes	Yes
Distance to coastline	Yes	Yes	Yes	Yes
Observations	259	228	238	213
R-squared	0.13	0.881	0.109	0.853

Note: Standard errors in parentheses are cluster in region.  
 [\*]  $p < 0.05$ , [\*\*]  $p < 0.01$ , [\*\*\*]  $p < 0.001$

## Appendix

### A. Solve the model

Equation (1) implies that  $y_{ij} = \varphi_{ij}^{-1} y_{ii} \left(\frac{Y_i}{Y_j}\right)^{\varphi_{ij}-1}$ , given  $\rho_{ij} = \varphi_{ij} \rho_{ii}$ . Therefore, the general form of total revenues of a firm  $i$ th productivity reads

$$R_i(\cdot) = h_i(\cdot) Y_i^{\frac{1}{\varphi_i}} + \sum_{j \in i} l_{ij}(\cdot) \varphi_{ij}^{-1} Y_j^{\frac{1}{\varphi_j}-1} \quad (27)$$

Following Felbermayer et al. (2011), the first condition of dynamic problem in equation (7) leads to

$$\frac{\partial R_i(l; \cdot)}{\partial l} = \frac{c}{q(\varphi_i)} \frac{r + \cdot}{1} + w_i(l; \cdot) + \frac{\partial w(l; \cdot)}{\partial l} l \quad (28)$$

Therefore,

$$\frac{\partial J_i(l; \cdot)}{\partial l} = \frac{1}{r + \cdot} \frac{\partial R_i(l; \cdot)}{\partial l} - w_i(l; \cdot) - \frac{\partial w(l; \cdot)}{\partial l} l \quad (29)$$

Additionally, solving the problem in (5) yields

$$(1 - \cdot)[E_i(l; \cdot) - U_i] = \frac{\partial J_i(l; \cdot)}{\partial l} \quad (30)$$

while in steady state the equations in ( ) can be written as

$$\begin{aligned} rE_i(l; \cdot) &= w_i(l; \cdot) - [E_i(l; \cdot) - U_i] \\ rU_i &= \cdot q(\varphi_i)[E_i(l; \cdot) - U_i] \end{aligned} \quad (31)$$

Combining equation (30) with (31) leads to

$$\frac{\partial J_i(l; \cdot)}{\partial l} = \frac{1}{r + \cdot} \frac{1}{r + \cdot} (w_i(l; \cdot) - rU_i)$$

Substituting this expression into the left hand side of equation (29) and solving the the differentiate equation,  $w_i(l; \cdot)$  can be written as

$$w_i = (1 - \cdot)rU_i + \frac{\partial R_i(l; \cdot)}{\partial l} \quad (32)$$

Take derivative of equation (32) with respect to  $l$ , we obtain

$$\frac{\partial w(l; \cdot)}{\partial l} l = \frac{1}{r + \cdot} \frac{\partial R_i(l; \cdot)}{\partial l}$$

Reinserting it into equation (28) gives

$$w_i(l; \cdot) = \frac{\partial R(l; \cdot)}{\partial l} \left( \frac{r + c}{1} \right) \frac{c}{q'(l_i)} \quad (33)$$

Combined with equation (32), the above equation yields the expression of wage

$$w_i(l; \cdot) = rU_i + \frac{r + c}{1} \frac{c}{q'(l_i)}$$

which is equation (9) in the main text.

With the wage curve in equation (9) and the relation between  $R_i(l; \cdot)$  and  $w$  as shown in equation (33), we have

$$a'(l_i) = \frac{1}{1} \frac{1}{1} \left[ r_i c + \frac{r + c}{q'(l_i)} \right]$$

Let  $l_{ii}(\cdot)$  and  $l_{ij}(\cdot)$  denote the employment for domestic and export sales to market  $j$  respectively. With the expression of  $R_i(l; \cdot)$  in equation (27) and the optimal allocation rule between the employment for domestic sale and export sales, we can solve for

$$\begin{aligned} l_{ii} &= \frac{1}{1} Y_i \frac{1}{1} \frac{1}{1} a'(l_i) \frac{1}{1} \\ l_{ij} &= \frac{1}{1} Y_j \frac{1}{1} \frac{1}{1} a'(l_i) \frac{1}{1} \end{aligned} \quad (34)$$

have  $\frac{R_{ij}(1)}{R_{ij}(2)} = \left(\frac{1}{2}\right)^{i-j}$ . Combined with equation (3), this condition implies

$$R_{ij}(\cdot) = \left( \frac{1}{2} \right)^{i-j} R_{ij}(2)$$

### C. The planner's problem

The planner's problem is to maximize total net revenue by choosing the appropriate number of vacancies posted by firms in the manufacturing sector and allocating workers across firms and sectors. The corresponding Bellman equation is

$$V(L; D) = \max_{\{l; N_A\}} \frac{1}{1+r} \int_0^1 R(l; \theta) dG(\theta) + F(N_A) - c'D + V(L^0; D^0)$$

$$\text{s.t.} \quad \int_0^1 l(\theta) dG(\theta) = L$$

$$L^0 = (1 - x')L + x'D$$

$$D = (N - N_A - D) + (1 - x')D$$

here  $L$  is the total employment in the manufacturing sector and  $D$  is the total unemployment. The first order conditions leads to equal marginal product across firms and the total