Introduction

a) DEFINITION
• Defining “competitiveness” at the country level
• The principle of comparative advantage
• Determinants of competitiveness

b) MEASUREMENT

Competitiveness: definition

For a firm, competitiveness usually refers to a zero sum game with competitors.

The environment in which this competition takes place is local, regional, national, international.

Competition among firms can be for market shares: Coke can only gain mkt. share at the expenses of Pepsi.

A firm can go bankrupt.
Competitiveness: definition

Has it the same meaning for countries?

First, here the environment is (by definition) only international.

Second, do countries compete on international mkt.?
No! This is a typical Mercantilist misunderstanding.
Paul Krugman and many others have criticized this approach.
At the country level what matters is the concept of comparative advantage (see later).

Competitiveness: definition

If Italian firms in the textile and clothing business are loosing out to Chinese, Indian firms this means that Italy is loosing its comparative advantage in this sector.
Italian economy doesn’t go bankrupt (even if some Italian firms will), but the Italian economy undergoes an industrial restructuring and will move resources in to new sectors of comparative advantage.
During last century the United Kingdom has been a clear example of this restructuring (textile- coal- steel- financial services...).

Competitiveness: definition

Many commentators, especially during the ’90’s have nonetheless adopted the Mercantilist approach and have described international competition as an head to head match (cfr. much of the debate in the US during the ’80s wrt. the Japanese success; now similar attitude is adopted for Chinese and Indian competition).
One policy corollary of this approach is the use of protectionist measures.
Competitiveness: definition

Should we throw away this concept when referred to a country? This should be the logical consequence.

However, it is still commonly utilized. Hence two meanings can be identified:

• The mercantilist one (see above)
• The “acceptable” one

Competitiveness: definition

Various authors (Porter etc.) / institutions (EU Commission, OECD Secretariat, WEF, IMD etc.) have adopted a different and acceptable definition

• “Competitiveness is understood to mean high and rising standards of living of a nation with lowest possible level involuntary unemployment, on a sustainable basis”. (European Commission)

Competitiveness: definition

• The similar OECD definition: it refers to the ability of a country to “produce goods which meet the test of international mkts while simultaneously maintaining and expanding the real income of its people over the long term”.

• Another: our main definition of competitiveness has been “the set of institutions and economic policies supportive of high rates of economic growth in the medium term.” (Porter, Sachs and Warner, 2001, for the WEF Report)
The focal point of these definitions is the absolute economic growth of a country (not economic growth of a country relative to another one). So whenever you will find the term “country competitiveness” read “country economic growth”. As a consequence one of the most important determinants of country competitiveness (read: “real per capita income growth”) is the evolution of its absolute productivity.

International trade doesn’t have necessarily anything to do with it. If one country manage to obtain high productivity in autarky (because of the past investment in human capital, the existence of the appropriate incentive system in the economy etc.) this country will have high standard of living (this obviously doesn’t mean that trade is not important in increasing domestic productivity…….).

Competitiveness at the country level doesn’t imply rivalry among country as it is the case at the firm level.

“In defining competitiveness we are not claiming that one country’s competitiveness means another country lack of competitiveness” (Jeffrey Sachs 2001, when he collaborated with WEF).
Competitiveness: definition

One easy way to understand the difference between the direct determinants of trade and those of per capita income is to introduce the concept of comparative advantage via the simplest model of international trade:

the Ricardian trade model.

The Ricardian trade model

For our purposes the major messages arising from this model are:

- Trade is determined by comparative advantages and it is a positive sum game from the countries’ point of view
- Per capita income is determined by absolute advantages (labour productivity in this model)

Competitiveness: from Ricardo to Porter

Another trade model by Hecksher and Ohlin (H-O) is structured around the comparative advantage set up, but with a richer set of elements describing the economy than the Ricardian one.

In this model, comparative advantages are generated by the interplay of country relative factor abundances and industry factor intensities.

Factor endowments play a role also in the Porter’s Diamond. This is a much less rigorous, but much richer model than the HO one.
Competitiveness: Porter’s Diamond

- The Real Effective Exchange Rate
- The rate of growth of per capita income
- Synthetic indices

MEASUREMENT

The Real Effective Exchange Rate (REER)

At the firm level, for a product we can distinguish:
- price competitiveness: this is determined by production costs, the profit margin and the exchange rate
- non-price competitiveness: this involves design of product, quality, post-sale services etc.
The Real Effective Exchange Rate (REER)

At the country level there is an analogy for price competitiveness. This can be thought as a measure of average price competitiveness of the domestically produced products.

As a consequence, this measure gives a summary view of the average price competitiveness of a country’s products.

(it is not a measure of country competitiveness in the Mercantilist meaning)

The name of this measure for the bilateral case is: Real Exchange Rate (RER):

\[ \text{RER} = \frac{P}{P^*} \times E \]

where: \( P \) = domestic price level; \( P^* \) = foreign price level; \( E \) = nominal exchange rate (price of domestic currency in units of foreign currency).

(note the link between RER and Purchasing Power Parity Law)

The Real Effective Exchange Rate (REER)

A more utilized measure takes into account the average price competitiveness of a country products with respect to a large number of countries. It is the Real Effective Exchange Rate (REER):

\[ \text{REER} = \text{weighted average of bilateral RER} \]

Where the weights take into account the relevance of a country as an export mkt and/or import mkt for the country of reference.
The Real Effective Exchange Rate (REER)

Computation of REER can be different due to:
- Number of trading partner countries
- Weighting scheme adopted: simple or double weighting
- Aggregator: usually arithmetic or geometric weighted average
- Type of price adopted: GDP deflator, consumer prices, producer prices, unit labour costs

[memo: ULC = cost of labour per unit of output produced = (W/LP), where W = total labour compensation per hour worked; LP = labour productivity]

The Real Effective Exchange Rate (REER)

An application:
Italian products have lost considerably price competitiveness in the last 10 years. Is this loss due to the introduction of the Euro?

Analysis: Let's utilise the Italian REER based on unit labour costs in the manufacturing sector compared to that other leading European countries
(source: Price and Competitiveness, EU Commission).

The Real Effective Exchange Rate (REER)

Graphs showing changes in REER over time, source: EC, Price and cost competitiveness, Second Quarter 2007.
The Real Effective Exchange Rate (REER)

This is not due to the Euro (at least not directly): both France and Germany experience a much better evolution.

memo: the REER utilized is based on Unit Labour Cost which depends on labour compensation (+) and on labour productivity (-)

During this period total labour compensation in Italy had a moderate evolution. On the contrary, a sharp deceleration of labour productivity growth has taken place in Italy.

The Real Effective Exchange Rate (REER)

HOURLY LABOUR PRODUCTIVITY
Total Industry (volume indices 1995=100)

The Real Effective Exchange Rate (REER)

FIGURE 8B: Productivity growth rates in G-7 countries

Source: Author’s analysis of OECD GDP and NBER data.
Economic growth

A different measure of country competitiveness is the rate of growth of the economy (in absolute and/or per capita terms). This measure is more in line with the “acceptable” definitions of country competitiveness.

An application:
the relative slow rate of growth of the European economy with respect to that of the US especially after the second half of the '90s.

Economic growth

After the WW II Europe converged to the US both in terms of GDP per capita and in terms of labour productivity (= GDP per hour worked).

This catching-up pattern experienced two major breaks in the last 30 years:
- Break 1: GDP per capita convergence ended after 1975
- Break 2: labour productivity convergence was reversed after 1995

Economic growth: the two breaks in convergence
Economic growth

There are two different interpretations for break 1:

a) The glass is half empty (Sapir Report)

b) The glass is half full (Blanchard)

Economic growth

- Half empty

UE experienced:

*strong convergence in* GDP per capita for 2 decades and a half

*weak convergence* in the '70s

*divergence* after the first half of the '90s

EU GDP per capita in 1970 and in 2000 is the 70% of the US one

Economic growth

- Half full

This is true, but it is valid only for output per capita.

The picture is much less negative when we consider output per hour worked. EU is approx 90% of the US one.

The difference is due to the fact that European employees work less hours during the year.
Economic growth

\[ \Delta \% (\text{GDP/Pop}) = - \Delta \% (\text{GDP/Hours}) + \Delta \% (\text{Hours/Pop}) \]

GDP per capita growth =
Hourly labour productivity growth +
Hour worked per capita growth

The difference is due to the fact the European employee work a smaller number of hours per year wrt to US citizens.

\[ \Delta \% (\text{GDP/Pop}) = \Delta \% (\text{GDP/Hours}) + \Delta \% (\text{Hours/Pop}) \]

• Half full (continues)

for example, between 1970 and 2000 the number of hours worked per person decreased by 23% in France and increased by 26% in the US

The Europeans have "decided" to increase leisure rather than income…

But this is not the only explanation available

GDP per capita: expanded decomposition

source: Gomez-Salvador, Musso, Stocker, Turunen (ECB, October 2006)
Economic growth

- Blanchard’s explanation focuses on the second term on the right (however, it’s decline explains only one third of the decline hours per capita)

Other explanations:
- Prescott (2004): all decline in hours per capita was caused by higher labour taxes in Europe
- Ljungqvist-Sargent (2006): European welfare system increases unemployment and reduces labour force participation
- Alesina, Glaeser, Sacerdote (2006): decline in hours is mainly due to the political pressure by trade unions and left-wing parties to reduce hours and lower the retirement age

But in the last 10 years European performance in terms of hourly labour productivity has not been good (break 2)…….

……probably because of the slower diffusion of information technologies and management practices matter!

Economic growth

Labour Productivity (GDP per hour worked) in 1999 US$
A third way to measure is to create an index on the basis of many variables. The chosen variables are usually thought to influence economic growth. In the last 10 years a proper industry of these measures has emerged. The two most famous indices are those contained in the Global Competitiveness Report by the World Economic Forum (WEF) and The World Competitiveness Yearbook by IMD.

**Synthetic measures**

I concentrate on the WEF production (choice independent of any value judgement!). This year ranking has come out on October the 31st, so...

In this report they generate 2 major rankings. One based on the Global Competitiveness Index and the other on the Business Competitiveness Index.

These indices are a weighted average of other indices, which are themselves weighted averages of publicly available hard data and information provided in the Forum’s Executive Opinion Survey.
The Global Competitiveness Index (GCI) is intended to measure factors that contribute to driving productivity and competitiveness. It is composed of 3 pillars:
- Basic requirements sub-index (institutions, infrastructure, macroeconomy, health and primary education)
- Efficiency enhancers sub-index (higher education and training, market efficiency, technological readiness)
- Innovation and sophistication factors sub-index (business sophistication and innovation)

**THE RANKING**

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**Synthetic measures**

Professor Xavier Sala-i-Martin (Columbia University) comments on GCI

The Business Competitive Index complements the previous one focusing on the sophistication of the operating practices and strategies of companies and the quality of the microeconomic business environment in which a nation’s company compete.

Professor Michael Porter (MIT) comments on BCI