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Who is afraid of capital mobility? On labor taxation and the level of public services in an open economy

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Abstract: This paper deals with the impact of international capital mobility on labor taxes and the size of the public sector. It employs a model of the labor market, where national trade unions are able to set wages above the competitive level. In a closed economy, a higher labor tax raises wage demands of the unions and thus increases the distortion on the labor market. With perfect international capital mobility, competition between trade unions leads to full employment, irrespective of the labor tax rate. The distorting effect of the labor tax vanishes and governments are able to increase the supplied quantity of public services to the first best level.

Keywords: Capital Mobility, Labor Taxation

JEL-Classification: F 20, J 38, J 51

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1. Introduction[1]

There seems to exist the widespread concern that international capital mobility threatens national welfare states, as governments may find it increasingly difficult to finance public services and redistributional policies with taxes. With respect to capital taxation, this effect is well documented in the literature (see Devereux, 1995, for a survey). Capital owners may escape from a source based capital tax by shifting their capital to countries with a lower tax burden. This capital outflow raises the marginal costs of public services; as a consequence, the equilibrium level of public services declines.

A large part of public services is not financed with taxes on capital but with taxes or contributions based on the factor labor. This paper deals with the consequences of international capital mobility for these labor tax financed public services. There are mainly two reasons why a tax on labor may affect the international allocation of capital. First, a labor tax may influence the individual choice on labor supply where households substitute between labor income and leisure. With a positive wage elasticity of labor supply, a labor tax reduces the supplied quantity of labor. This effect leads to a declining marginal productivity of capital and therefore causes capital outflows. As the wage level decreases with these capital outflows, the households further reduce their supplied quantity of labor. Then the marginal costs of public funds are higher with international capital mobility than in a closed economy. Consequently, the level of public services may decline (see Bucovetsky, Wilson, 1991).[2]

The second reason, why capital mobility may affect the level of public services with labor taxation can be found on labor markets where wages are set by collective bargaining between trade unions and employers.[3] With collective bargaining, a part of the labor tax burden may be shifted onto the employers by specifying a higher wage rate. In this case, a labor tax increases unemployment, as the aggregate wage level further deviates from the competitive level. Capital

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[2] As Eggert (1997) has shown, this result will no longer hold, if the governments are able to raise a residence based capital tax in addition to the labor tax.

[3] Centralized bargainig seems to be especially important with respect to the European labor markets. Siebert (1997) provides a detailed description of the institutional characteristics of the labor markets in Europe.

mobility may be presumed to worsen these unemployment effects of labor taxation, as an increasing wage level causes capital outflows and thus further reduces the aggregate employment level. Then the optimal level of public services would have to decline as a consequence of international capital mobility. Lejour, Verbon (1996) formalize this view in a model where the government chooses the level of contributions to an unemployment insurance.

However, the view that labor taxation is more distortionary in an open economy than in a closed economy neglects the influence of capital mobility on wage demands of the trade unions.[4] International capital mobility has been shown to affect trade unions' wage demands fundamentally (Lorz, 1993, 1997). With constant returns to scale and perfect capital mobility, wage competition between trade unions leads to full employment as the equilibrium wages decline to the competitive level.[5] In this paper, we show that a tax on labor ceases to be distortionary in an open economy where it may be distortionary without wage competition. In this model, the equilibrium level of public services increases with the international mobility of capital: In an open economy, public services can be financed by a non-distortionary labor tax where in a closed economy an increasing level of public services causes additional unemployment.

The paper is organized as follows. Section 2 introduces the basic model of this paper and derives equilibrium wages and labor taxes for a closed economy. Section 3 discusses the role of capital mobility and derives the essential results of this paper. Section 4 presents some simulation results to make our theoretical findings more transparent. Section 5 summarizes the paper.

2. The Closed Economy

The capital stock is assumed to be fixed in a closed economy. Capital owners then cannot evade high wages set by domestic unions. In order to simplify our analysis, we assume capital and commodity markets are perfectly competitive whereas a national trade union monopolizes the labor market. A single aggregate production function represents production of firms. The

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[4] In Lejour, Verbon (1996), for example, unions regard the invested capital stock as fixed.

[5] A similar result has been derived by Gabszewicz, van Ypersele (1996) for the case where governments set minimum wages with capital mobility. A symmetric equilibrium in their model also implies a minimum wage at the full employment level.

national trade union sets the wage rate for the whole economy. The government sets a tax on labor income. Both, the union and the government are aware that their policies affect the total performance of the economy. Since the union bundles the interests of the workforce and the government represents the aggregate welfare of the economy, there is scope for a strategic conflict between both. In order to model this conflict in a game-theoretic framework, we assume that all parties move according to a certain mover structure. This game will result in substantially different outcomes in a closed and in an open economy.

The game in a closed economy comprises three stages: In the first stage, the government sets the tax rate t, in the second stage, the union sets the wage w, and in the third stage, firms demand labor input L. The game can be solved by backward induction. First, the optimal labor input is derived for a given w and t. We assume the following production function:

$$(1) \quad Y = F(L, K), \qquad F_L, F_K > 0, F_{LL}, F_{KK} < 0 \; F_{LK} > 0, \; F_{LL} F_{KK} - \left[F_{LK}\right]^2 \geq 0.$$

The term Y denotes output of the composite good, L and K denote labor and capital input. In a closed economy, capital cannot move across borders, but is fixed in production, i.e. $K = \overline{K}$. The price of the aggregate good is set to one. Labor input is derived by the condition that the real wage rate should not exceed the marginal productivity of labor and that labor input can not exceed the given total workforce $\overline{L}$.

$$(2) \quad F_L \geq w, \; \overline{L} \geq L, \qquad \left[F_L - w\right]\left[\overline{L} - L\right] = 0.$$

In an interior equilibrium with unemployment, the wage rate equals the marginal productivity of labor. A changing wage rate then affects the equilibrium employment level according to the following equation:

$$(3) \quad L_w = \frac{1}{F_{LL}} < 0 \qquad \text{for } \overline{L} > L.$$

Equation (3) also gives the effects of an increasing wage rate at the highest full employment wage level, the competitive wage $w^c \equiv F_L(\overline{L}, \overline{K})$. Labor demand thus decreases with the wage rate.

The union is assumed to maximize the sum of income of the employed workforce and the assistance paid for the unemployed workforce. This objective function is equivalent to the

expected income of all workers, as long as each worker faces the same probability of becoming unemployed.[6]

$$(4) \qquad U(w) = [1 - t]w L(w) + \underline{w}\big[\overline{L} - L(w)\big].$$

The term t denotes the constant tax rate on labor income; $\underline{w}$ denotes the assistance paid to an unemployed household. The number of unemployed households equals $\overline{L} - L$. The union is aware that labor input depends on the wage level according to (2). Assume $\underline{w} < w^c[1 - t]$ holds. Then the union is better off by choosing the competitive wage than by full unemployment. A situation with full unemployment therefore can be excluded. If the whole workforce is employed, the union will be able to set the wage such that marginal productivity meets the wage exactly. Specifying a lower wage would not increase employment but would decrease the wage income for the employed. Hence, any rational policy of the union does not specify a wage which falls short of the competitive wage. Maximization of the union's utility leads to (5):

$$(5) \qquad [1 - t]\big[L + w L_w\big] - \underline{w} L_w \le 0, \quad w \ge w^c.$$
$$\qquad \big[w - w^c\big]\big\{[1 - t]\big[L + w L_w\big] - \underline{w} L_w\big\} = 0.$$

We assume the sufficient conditions for a utility maximum are satisfied by (5). According to (5) the union maximizes its utility either by setting the competitive wage or by setting a wage which implies unemployment. In order to face a relevant problem, we assume the optimal policy of the union in a closed economy implies unemployment. A necessary condition for an interior solution of (5) is given by $L + w L_w < 0$ at the equilibrium wage. The elasticity of labor demand thus has to exceed the value of one. If this condition were not satisfied, the union would benefit by raising the wage rate. Given that an interior solution exists, we may use (5) to determine the wage response to an increasing tax rate:

$$(6) \qquad w_t = \frac{L + w L_w}{U_{ww}} > 0.$$

Since U_{ww} is negative for a utility maximum, the wage demanded by the union increases with the tax rate. In an interior solution, the union sets higher wages in response to a higher tax rate. A higher tax rate thereby leads to higher unemployment in this model.[7]

Given the wage effects of an increasing labor tax, we now turn to the first stage of the game, the determination of the equilibrium tax rate. The tax is raised for two purposes in this model: On the one hand, the government has to finance the benefits $\underline{w}$ for the unemployed. On the other hand, the government provides a public service G. For example, think of G as social security benefits for old or disabled people.[8] The objective function of the government is given by the sum of the union's utility, the income $\pi \equiv F(\overline{K}, L) - wL$ of the capital owners and the utility $V(G)$ arising from the public service G:

$$(7) \qquad \Omega[G, t] = U(w(t)) + \pi(w(t)) + V(G), \qquad V_G > 0, \qquad V_{GG} < 0.$$

The government sets the tax rate $t \in [0, \bar{t}]$, $\bar{t} < 1 - \underline{w}/w^r$, before the union sets the wage. The wage reaction of the union thus depends on this tax specification. The expenditures for the public service and for the unemployment benefits must not exceed the tax revenues and the supply of the public service must not be negative:

$$(8) \qquad t \, w(t) L(w(t)) - G - \underline{w}[\overline{L} - L(w(t))] \geq 0, \qquad G \geq 0.$$

Since the marginal utility of the public service is positive for all levels of G, the government sets the budget constraint equal to zero in every case. Then, one may rewrite the objective function (7) as a function of t only:

$$(9) \qquad \Omega(t) = V(t \, w \, L(w(t)) - \underline{w}[\overline{L} - L(w(t))]) + U(w(t)) + \pi(w(t)).$$

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[7] This wage increasing effect of labor taxes does not necessarily hold for other specifications of the union's objective function. See for example Hersoug (1984) or Holmlund (1989). Then the government would not face a trade-off between higher tax revenues and higher employment even in a closed economy.

[8] For simplicity, these services are not included in the union's objective function. Including them presumably would not fundamentally affect the results for the wage setting subgame as long as the workforce is not the only beneficiary of the public service but has to bear their full costs in terms of labor taxes.

Increasing the tax rate has two different effects in a closed economy: First, it increases the tax for the employed workforce and thereby increases the supply of the public good. Second, it increases the wage demanded by the union. The second effect lowers employment and thereby lowers tax revenues and increases the assistance necessary to support the unemployed workforce. We assume for the remainder of this section the government realizes an interior solution with $G > 0$. Hence, there will be some scope for providing the public good in a closed economy, if the government pursues its optimal policy. Under these assumptions, one may use the envelope theorem, i.e. $U_w = 0$, $\pi_t = 0$, in order to derive the first order condition for the optimal tax rate:

$$(10) \quad V_G \cdot \left\{ wL + t\left[L + wL_w\right]w_t + \underline{w} L_w w_t \right\} - wL - L w_t = 0 .$$

In order to discuss (10), let us compare it with the case of an undistorted labor market: With a competitive labor market, the optimal policy would maximize $\tilde{\Omega} \equiv F(\overline{K}, \overline{L}) + V(G) - G$, leading to $V_G = 1$. Since $L_w < 0$ and $L + wL_w < 0$, the level of the public good provided by the government is lower for $w_t > 0$ than with a competitive labor market. This result can be explained by the three effects of a tax induced wage increase on the government's objectives: First, higher wages imply a lower aggregate labor income and thus lower tax revenues. Second, with higher unemployment, larger assistance payments are necessary to support the unemployed workforce. Third, higher wages decrease the income of the capital owners. All these effects let the aggregate welfare in a closed economy fall short of the welfare with no distortions on the labor market.

4.   The open economy

The setting in an open economy is identical to that in a closed economy except that capital and the aggregate consumption good are internationally mobile. In this setting, a union has to take into account that a certain change in wages will result in capital reallocations which may affect its utility. The capital allocation across countries depends on the wages set by all national unions. Each national union is still in the position to monopolize the domestic labor market, but it now plays a strategic game with the unions abroad and not only with the government. The game in the open economy consists of the three following stages: In the first stage, all governments simultaneously set labor taxes, in the second stage, all unions simultaneously set

wages, and in the third stage, the capital owners allocate their capital and decide about their labor demand.

We assume capital can be transferred without any costs from one country to another, and we employ a model with two tradables, capital and the production good. If capital is employed abroad, it is assumed that the capital owners will not move. Thus, we model a situation, where capital is traded in exchange for the aggregate consumption good. International trade leads to a maximization of world production. This result in mind, the behavior of capital owners can be determined by assuming that capital owners maximize world production minus wage costs subject to given wages, which are set by the national unions. The restraints for this maximization problem are given by the maximum employment level in each country j ($j=1...N$) and by the given world capital stock $\overline{K}^w$:

$$(11) \quad \max_{L^j, K^j} \sum_j \left\{ F^j\left(L^j, K^j\right) - w^j L^j \right\}, \qquad \text{s.t.} \qquad \sum_j K^j = \overline{K}^w, \ L^j \le \overline{L}^j.$$

One may solve this maximization problem by employing a Langrange function. This function Φ and the necessary conditions for a maximum are given by (12) for $L^j > 0$:[9]

$$(12) \quad \Phi\left(K^j, L^j, \lambda^j, r\right) := \sum_j \left\{ F^j\left(K^j, L^j\right) - w^j L^j \right\} + r\left\{ \overline{K}^w - \sum_j K^j \right\} + \sum_j \lambda^j \left\{ \overline{L}^j - L^j \right\},$$

$$\Phi_{L^j} = F_L^j - w^j - \lambda^j = 0, \qquad \Phi_{K^j} = F_K^j - r = 0, \qquad \Phi_r = 0,$$

$$\lambda^j \ge 0, \qquad \Phi_{\lambda^j} \ge 0, \qquad \lambda \Phi_{\lambda^j} = 0.$$

In (12), the shadow prices of the national labor supply restraints are denoted by λ. This shadow price will be strictly positive, if capital owners like to employ more workforce in this country but the workforce of this country is already fully employed. As it is never rational for a union to set a wage below the competitive wage, we restrict our attention to outcomes for

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[9] As in the closed country, the case $L^j = 0$ can be neglected, because unions do not choose such wages in equilibrium.

which all λ^j are zero. The term r denotes the shadow price of the world capital supply. It is equal to the world interest rate.[10]

We now turn to the solution of the second stage of the game, the equilibrium wage rate. This solution is described by the following two lemmas which hold under a certain restriction specified by (13).

(13) $\left[1 - t_j\right]\left[L^{j^*} + w^{q^*} L_{wj}^{j^*}\right] - \underline{w} L_{wj}^{j^*} \leq 0,$ with

$$L_{wj}^{j^*} = \left[F_{LL}^j - \frac{\left[F_{LK}^j\right]^2}{F_{KK}^j + \frac{1}{\sum_{i\neq j}\left[F_{KK}^i\right]^{-1}}}\right]^{-1} ,$$

Equation (13) gives the marginal utility for union j of increasing the wage rate given competitive wages in all countries. If this marginal utility is negative or zero, the competitive wage will be a best response to the competitive wages set by all other unions. In order to distinguish labor demand and wages in an international setting from the closed economy, these terms are denoted by a star in this section. Equation (13) differs from (3), because labor demand does not only depend on the wage level but also on the level of invested capital. Compared to (3), the labor demand reaction to changed wages in (13) consists of two effects: the first effect is similar to the effect in the closed economy and is given by the second derivative of the production function with respect to labor. This effect is due to the marginal productivity changes for a given domestic capital stock. The second effect adds to the first effect in an open economy but is absent in a closed economy. This effect is due to the attractiveness of the country for internationally mobile capital.

The reaction of labor demand to a changed wage increases with a rising number of countries. Hence, (13) will be met more likely, if the number of countries increases. Lemma 1 specifies that the vector of competitive wages will be a perfect equilibrium, if (13) holds.

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[10] For symmetric countries, the competitive wage with international capital mobility equals the competitive wage in a closed country. For asymmetric countries, however, this need not be the case.

[11] The term L_{wj}^j denotes the right-hand limit of the differential quotient.

Lemma 1:   *Assume the objective function of each union j is strictly concave in w^j for $w^j \geq w^{cj^*}$ and $w^{-j} = w^{c-j^*}$. If (13) holds for all j countries, all unions will set the competitive wage in a perfect pure strategy equilibrium.*

Proof:

As already shown, no national union sets a wage below the competitive wage. Hence, $w^{j^*} \geq w^{cj^*}$ for all countries. If (13) holds for all unions, it will not pay for a single union to increase its wage unilaterally. We use (12) to determine the effects of a unilateral increase in wages on labor and capital demand:

(14) $F_{LL}^j dL^j + F_{LK}^j dK^j - dw^j - d\lambda^j = 0$,

(15) $F_{LK}^j dL^j + F_{KK}^j dK^j - dr = 0$.

Both equations hold for each country j and give the first differential of the condition for optimal labor and capital input. Let the wage increasing country be denoted by k, and all other countries be denoted by $-k$. At the level of competitive wages, λ^{-k} is equal to zero, and an increasing K^{-k} will raise λ^{-k} to a strictly positive value. Hence, for all countries $-k$ the following equations hold:

(16) $F_{LK}^{-k} dK^{-k} - d\lambda^{-k} = 0$,

(17) $F_{KK}^{-k} dK^{-k} - dr = 0$,   for $dK^{-k} \geq 0$.

The case is different for the country where the wage is increased. A higher wage means less labor demand and less attracted capital. Since λ^k is zero at the competitive wage, less labor does leave λ^k on its zero level. This gives:

(18) $F_{LL}^k dL^k + F_{LK}^k dK^k - dw^k = 0$,

(19) $F_{LK}^k dL^k + F_{KK}^k dK^k - dr = 0$,   for $dL^k \leq 0, dK^k \leq 0$.

The marginal capital imports must add to zero:

(20) $\sum_j dK^j = 0$.

Substitution of (17) into (20) gives a relationship between dr and dK^k. Using this result to substitute dr in (19) gives a relationship between dL^k and dK^k. Finally, (18) may be made use of to determine the relationship between dL^k and dw^k. This relationship is given by $L^{j*}_{w^j_+}$ in (13) with k substituted for j. ■

Lemma 1 is valid for all production functions satisfying the assumptions in (1). An equilibrium in the wage setting subgame thus will exist for the competitive wage vector, if (13) is satisfied. For a linear-homogenous production function, the competitive wage vector is the only possible equilibrium with international capital mobility. This result, formally stated and proved in lemma 2, can be explained as follows: A linear-homogenous production function implies a unique relationship between the marginal productivity of capital and the marginal productivity of labor. The world interest rate equals the marginal productivity of capital. Thus, it determines the marginal productivity of labor in all countries. Suppose, wages are above the competitive level and are equal to the marginal productivity of labor in all countries. Then there is at least one country with unemployment. If the union in this country lowers its wage demands marginally, then the unchanged marginal productivity of labor will exceed the wage rate in this country. Such a strategy is always beneficial for the union, as unemployment will completely vanish in its country. There can not exist an equilibrium with wages above the competitive level.

Lemma 2: *If the production function is linear-homogenous in all countries, the only perfect equilibrium in pure strategies that may exist specifies that all unions set the competitive wage.*

Proof: As already noted, in equilibrium $\lambda^j = 0$, $j=1...N$, has to hold. A wage $w^k < w^{kc*}$ thus can not be an equilibrium strategy of any country k. It remains to show that a wage $w^k > w^{ck*}$ also can not be part of an equilibrium with linear-homogenous production functions. Suppose in one or several countries, the wage rate was above the competitive level and $L^k < \overline{L}^k$. Because of $\lambda^j = 0$, $F_L^j = w^j$ and $F_K^j = r$. With linear-homogenous production functions, there exists a unique relationship $F_K^j = \psi^i\left(F_L^j\right)$, resp. $F_L^j = \phi^i\left(F_K^j\right)$ with $\psi^{'i}(\cdot) < 0$, resp. $\phi^{'i}(\cdot) < 0$

for all j.[12] A given w^{-k} determines $F_K^{-k} = \psi^{-k}(w^{-k})$. This determines $F_K^k = \psi^{-k}(w^{-k})$ and $F_L^k = \phi^k(\psi^{-k}(w^{-k}))$. For any $\widetilde{w}^k < \phi^k(\psi^{-k}(w^{-k}))$, $\lambda^k > 0$ and therefore $L^k(\widetilde{w}^k, w^{-k}) = \overline{L}^k$. Because $U^k(w^k, L^k)$ is continuos in w^k and monotonically increasing in L^k, there exists a $\widetilde{w}^k < w^k$, with $U^k(\widetilde{w}^k, \overline{L}^k) > U^k(w^k, L^k(w^k, w^{-k}))$. Thus, any $w^k > w^{kc^*}$ can not be an equilibrium strategy. $\blacksquare$

According to Lemma 2, the only equilibrium that may exist for a linear-homogenous production function implies full employment in all countries. Equation (13) specifies the condition for which such an equilibrium exists.[13] As already mentioned, the existence condition is more likely to be met, the larger the number of countries is. With a linear-homogenous production function, the existence condition will always be met, if the number of countries becomes sufficiently large: For the number of countries approaching infinity, the sum term in (13) approaches minus infinity. The effect of a marginally increasing wage rate on labor demand then can be written as follows:

$$(21) \qquad \lim_{N \to \infty} L_{w_i^j}^{j*} = \left[F_{LL}^j - \frac{\left[F_{LK}^j\right]^2}{F_{KK}^j} \right]^{-1}$$

Since a linear-homogenous production function implies $F_{LL}^j F_{KK}^j = \left[F_{LK}^j\right]^2$, the labor demand reaction approaches minus infinity in the limit. Then the existence condition in (13) is satisfied in every case.

We now turn to the salient result of our paper. According to the Lemmas 1 and 2, capital mobility will imply a pure-strategy equilibrium in which all unions set the competitive wage, if

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[12] A linear-homogenous production function can be written as $F(K, L) \equiv Lf(k)$, with $k \equiv K/L$. Thus, $F_K = f'(k)$ and $F_L = f(k) - kf'(k)$. Inverting F_K and inserting the result in F_L then gives $\phi(\cdot)$. Inverting $\phi(\cdot)$ gives $\varphi(\cdot)$. The total differential of F_K and F_L gives the following relationship: $dF_L/dF_K = -k < 0$.

[13] Lemmas 1 and 2 are valid for symmetric as well as asymmetric countries. This extends the results of Lorz (1993, 1997) where symmetry has been assumed at the outset.

(13) is valid and the production function is linear-homogeneous. Hence, we find that capital mobility enables the governments to pursue their first best policy. This result is stated in the following proposition.

Proposition: *Assume the production function is linear-homogenous in all countries and condition (13) is satisfied for all* $t^j \in [0, \bar{t}^j]$. *Then a unique labor tax equilibrium exists. The equilibrium labor tax* t^{j^*} *implies* $V_G^j(t^{j^*} w^{cj^*} \bar{L}^j) = 1$ *for all countries j.*

Proof: There will exist a unique equilibrium of the wage competition subgame at the competitive wage level, if condition (13) is satisfied. Thus $L^j = \bar{L}^j$ and $w^j = w^{cj^*}$ irrespective of the tax rate. Maximization of (9) then will give $V_G^j(t^{j^*} w^{cj^*} \bar{L}^j) = 1$ as necessary and sufficient condition for the optimal tax rate in any country j. ■

The labor tax equilibrium described in the proposition is the only possible equilibrium leading to a pure strategy equilibrium in the subsequent wage competition subgame. The wages are then at the competitive level in all countries. According to the proposition, this equilibrium will exist and will be unique, if condition (13) is satisfied for all tax rates from which the governments may choose. As shown in (21), condition (13) is satisfied for a sufficiently large number of countries. For a small number of countries, however, equation (13) may be violated for some $t^j \in [0, \bar{t}^j]$. In this case, union j will randomize over possible wages for certain high labor taxes. Since we have not assumed symmetric countries, it might pay for a potentially capital-importing country to set such a high tax in order to induce a high expected wage. A high expected wage may benefit the country because it decreases the expected r and thereby improves the expected terms of trade of this capital-importing country. If (13) holds for all tax rates, this possibility can be excluded. Our proposition states that the government then will pursue its first best policy. Compared to the closed economy in which the government has to take into account the distortionary effects of labor taxes, it is now able to provide the optimal level of the public good.

Two effects determine the impact of international capital mobility and wage competition on the equilibrium labor tax rate. The first is the effect of wage competition on the public budget for a given level of public services; the other is the changing level of public services. For the first effect, assume G remained at the closed economy level after introducing capital mobility. Since

wage competition leads to full employment, no tax revenues are needed to finance unemploy-
ment benefits. In addition, international capital mobility and wage competition affect aggregate
labor income. With an increasing labor income as a consequence of wage competition, the tax
revenues increase for a given tax rate. The tax rate can be lowered then without hurting the
budget constraint. The second effect is given by the increasing level of public spending. With a
given wage and employment level, this effect causes the labor tax rate to increase. The overall
effect of capital mobility on labor taxes is therefore indeterminate.

In this model, international capital mobility leads to an increasing aggregate welfare, as given
by the government objective function in all countries. This result can be shown as follows: The
objective function of the government can be written as follows for a linear-homogenous pro-
duction function:

$$(22) \quad \Omega^j = F^j\left(K^j, \overline{L}^j\right) + r\left[\overline{K}^j - K^j\right] + V^j\left(G^j\right) - G^j.$$

Equation (22) denotes the objective function of the government in an open economy. In a
closed economy with no labor market distortions, the objective function would be given by
(23):

$$(23) \quad \tilde{\Omega}^j = F^j\left(\overline{K}^j, \overline{L}^j\right) + V^j\left(G^j\right) - G^j.$$

The following function η denotes the difference between Ω and $\tilde{\Omega}$:

$$(24) \quad \eta = \int_0^{K^j}\left[F_K^j\left(\kappa, \overline{L}^j\right) - r\right]d\kappa - \int_0^{\overline{K}^j}\left[F_K^j\left(\kappa, \overline{L}^j\right) - r\right]d\kappa$$

A country will import capital, if the marginal productivity of capital under autarky is higher
than r. On the contrary, a country will export capital, if the marginal productivity of capital
under autarky is lower than r. In both cases, the difference between Ω and $\tilde{\Omega}$ exceeds zero.
Aggregate welfare in an open economy with trade unions then exceeds aggregate welfare in a
closed economy with an undistorted labor market. The distortion on the labor market leads to
a declining aggregate welfare in a closed economy. Thus, international capital mobility raises
aggregate welfare.

Three reasons lie behind the welfare effects of capital mobility: First, wage competition be-
tween the unions completely eliminates unemployment. Thus, for a given capital stock, aggre-

gate production increases in all countries. The capital stock, however, is not exogenously given, but is allocated according to the comparative advantage of the countries. If countries are not symmetric, this capital reallocation will further increase aggregate gross factor income in all countries. This second reason for welfare gains is given by (24). The third reason comes from the undistorted supply of public services.

To derive the welfare effects for the different household groups, assume all countries are symmetric. Then the comparative advantage effect on the distribution of factor incomes vanishes and the analysis can focus on the effects of wage competition and the tax adjustment. The income of capital owners and the welfare of beneficiaries of the public service clearly increase with international capital mobility. In addition, even an increasing welfare for the workforce can not be excluded: On the one hand, the wage rate declines for a given tax rate which reduces the aggregate welfare of the workforce. On the other hand, the labor tax changes with the introduction of capital mobility. If the labor tax increases, then the aggregate income of the workforce will further decline. However, a declining tax rate will increase the income of the workforce of the unions for a given wage rate. The tax effect may even outweigh the effect of the declining wage rate on the income of the workforce. Then the union's utility increases. In this case, all household groups benefit from the introduction of capital mobility.

4. Simulation Results

The last section has demonstrated that aggregate welfare of each country will be maximized with perfect capital mobility. However, the results with respect to the union's utility and the tax rate remain ambiguous. In order to shed some more light on possible changes of these terms, we have simulated a specified model employing a constant elasticity production function and an exponential function which measures the benefits of the public service. In order to make the computations as simple as possible, we have also assumed all countries are symmetric with respect to production technology, endowments and preferences for the public service. Because of this symmetry assumption, capital mobility will lead to full employment at a zero trade equilibrium so that the competitive wage in the closed economy also gives the competitive wage in an open economy. The production function and endowments are given by (25):

(25) $\quad Y = \left[\alpha L^{-\rho} + [1-\alpha]K^{-\rho} \right]^{-1/\rho}, \ \overline{K} = 1, \ \overline{L} = 1, \ \alpha = 0.7, \ \rho = 2 \,.$

Assuming ρ to be equal to 2 implies that the share of labor income increases with the wage demanded by the union. With a capital and labor endowment of unity, the competitive wage is $\alpha = 0.7$ and the corresponding capital income is $1 - \alpha = 0.3$.

The objective function of the government is given by (26):

(26) $\quad \Omega = wL[1 - t] + \underline{w}[\overline{L} - L] + r\overline{K} + [1 - e^{-\gamma G}], \; \underline{w} = 0.35$.

The specific representation of the function $V(G)$ has the property $V_{GG}/V_G = -\gamma$. Hence, γ measures the concavity of the utility arising from the public good. The following table summarizes the simulation results for three different levels of γ.

Table 1: Simulation results for $\gamma = \{2, 10, 20\}$

γ		2	10	20
Optimal tax in	closed economy	0.234	0.399	0.386
	open economy	0.495	0.329	0.214
Wage in	closed economy	0.910	0.966	0.961
	open economy	0.700	0.700	0.700
Employment in	closed economy	0.682	0.597	0.605
	open economy	1.000	1.000	1.000
Union's utility in	closed economy	0.587	0.488	0.495
	open economy	0.353	0.47	0.55
Capital income in	closed economy	0.124	0.088	0.091
	open economy	0.300	0.300	0.300
Public service in	closed economy	0.034	0.089	0.086
	open economy	0.347	0.230	0.150
Aggregate utility in	closed economy	0.776	1.164	1.407
	open economy	1.153	1.670	1.800

As shown in table 1, the absence of capital mobility causes high unemployment in this specification. Additionally, the tax in the open economy may be higher ($\gamma = 2$) or lower than in the closed economy ($\gamma = 10$, $\gamma = 20$). For $\gamma = 20$ even the union gains from capital mobility, because the tax is reduced so substantially that the labor income net of taxes is increased. The

lower the non-distorted level of public services, the higher are the chances that not only capital owners and beneficiaries of the public service but also the unions gain from capital mobility.

5. Summary

Our paper has demonstrated that capital mobility may enable a government to pursue its first best expenditure policy. For a linear-homogeneous production function, the vector of competitive wages is the only possible pure strategy equilibrium in the wage competition subgame. Hence, capital mobility implies full employment in all countries. This result is due to the weakened power of unions competing for internationally mobile capital.

The effects of international trade union competition, however, do not imply a similar tax competition result. Instead, the governments set labor taxes to maximize the net benefits of public services - given net wages above the assistance level for the necessary taxes and given a sufficiently large number of countries. The reason is that capital mobility already forces the unions to the competitive wage level. Then the shadow costs of public services no longer contain the effects on wage demands by the unions. Contrary to conventional wisdom, capital mobility does not imply a collapse of the welfare state in our model but ensures the highest possible social welfare.

In our model, aggregate welfare is increased by capital mobility in each country. Both, capital owners and beneficiaries of public services benefit from capital mobility. Only the unions may be afraid of capital mobility. But as our simulations have shown, this needs not necessarily be the case. If the optimal level of public services is sufficiently small in an open economy, the unions may also gain from capital mobility, because tax cuts may overcompensate for the decrease in wages. These tax cuts are possible because no assistance has to be paid for the unemployed workforce. In this case, nobody needs to be afraid of capital mobility.

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