

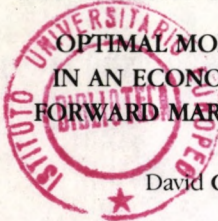
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OPTIMAL MONETARY POLICY  
IN AN ECONOMY WITHOUT A  
FORWARD MARKET FOR LABOUR

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Optimal Monetary Policy in an Economy without a  
Forward Market for Labour

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ABSTRACT

If markets are incomplete competitive equilibria may be inefficient. A market clearing, rational expectations, model with spot, but no forward, labour markets is constructed. An accommodating monetary policy stabilizes employment, Pareto dominating the fluctuating employment associated with a constant money stock. The optimal average rate of monetary growth and inflation is shown to be positive and increasing in the variance of the shocks. If policy is set sequentially by agents in each period the result is Pareto improving steady employment, but at a rate below the optimum, due to the inability to commit to future policies.





## 1. Introduction

In a market clearing economy, with a spot market for labour, rational agents may respond to shocks by changing their labour supply; unemployment during a recession may be rational. However, if futures markets existed for labour, risk adverse workers might well wish to sell their labour forward for a fixed income, risk neutral agents buying such contracts, accepting the risk of spot market fluctuations for the expected profits. The absence of such forward markets means that there may be a role for monetary policy; it can try to stabilize employment in the face of shocks.

Polemarchakis and Weiss (1977) show that if agents are unable to insure themselves before birth it may be possible to devise a monetary policy to provide this insurance ex post. The mechanism used by Polemarchakis and Weiss is a random monetary policy which prevents agents extracting information from price movements. Such a policy seems somewhat unnatural; the shock is the allocation of agents between markets and it is asking a lot for a macroeconomic tool, such as monetary policy, to overcome what is essentially a microeconomic problem.

Non-neutrality of monetary policy in market clearing, rational expectations, economies is easy to demonstrate, for example, Beenstock (1980), Pesaran (1984) and Marini (1985); the problem is to find a plausible role for such policies if the government has no informational advantages. Here the rationale for policy intervention is missing markets. Explicit futures markets for labour are not commonly observed. There are moral hazard problems in specifying such contracts, and it is unclear if they would be enforceable given the anti-slavery laws in many countries. The inefficiency associated with these missing markets may justify policy intervention.

An overlapping generations economy with aggregate supply shocks is investigated. The young observe an economy wide supply shock, the number of agents in the cohort, through its effect on the price level. Without monetary policy labour supply varies with the aggregate shock, since the shock affects the expected intertemporal terms of trade. Berger (1985) provides empirical evidence of the effect of cohort size on earnings.

The nonneutrality of monetary policy in the model is of the simplest possible type; money injections are lump sum and the expected inflation tax on money is distortionary. Since money is the only asset for transferring wealth between periods the expected inflation tax affects the labour supply decision. With a richer asset structure, as in Canning (1988) which allows money holding or investment in risky capital, the portfolio choice effect may be more important. Minford (1986) analyses a model in which demand for bonds, and the real rate of interest, varies with the inflation rate.

The model exhibits a short run Phillips' curve of the same type as that found in Lucas (1973); agents confuse price changes due to money shocks with price changes due to real shocks, though it is the expected intertemporal terms of trade rather than intermarket terms which affects supply decisions. The long run Phillips' curve in the model is upward sloping; expected inflation reduces the expected returns from working to earn money. Such upward sloping long run Phillips' curves are discussed by Friedman (1977), though he holds they will eventually become vertical as agents change the institutional arrangements of the economy.

A simple accommodating monetary policy is devised, money supply increasing in the previous period's price level, which stabilizes labour supply. Price shocks lead to expected money injections, which leave the expected intertemporal terms of trade unchanged. The average rate of money



growth and inflation is set as an increasing function of the variance of the inflation rate (which depends on the variance of the shocks), so as to have a labour supply effect which cancels out the effect of the price variance. Since agents are assumed to be more risk adverse to employment fluctuations than to fluctuations in consumption they prefer to live in an economy with stable employment.

While the monetary policy in the model is efficient and Pareto dominates the non-policy equilibrium in the ex ante sense, the employment fluctuations of the constant money stock model are Pareto efficient in the ex post sense. The monetary policy is what Muench (1977) calls equal treatment Pareto optimal (ET-PO), it maximizes the expected utility of each agent given that agents born in the same state get the same utility. Its ex ante viewpoint amounts to saying to an agent, "which economy would you rather be born in?", before the agent knows the shock. As Lucas (1977) points out, this may not be the appropriate question. Given that an agent has been born, and knows the shock which has occurred, imposing an insurance contract ex post may well make him worse off. Peled (1982) shows that a fixed money stock is constrained Pareto efficient where the constraint is that agents cannot trade before they know the realization of the state in which they are born.

A second situation is considered to avoid this problem. Agents are assumed to live for three periods, having no endowment or consumption in the first period. In the first period they do not know the size of their cohort and would like to sell their labour forward to avoid the risk of spot market price fluctuations. If such forward labour markets do not exist then the equilibrium with a fixed money stock is constrained Pareto inefficient. A monetary policy for period  $t+1$  can be devised which is Pareto improving for all three generations alive at period  $t-1$ , and has no effect on any other

generation. All three generations would vote for such a policy. The optimal policy in such a setting again stabilizes the employment rate.

While such a policy is Pareto improving employment is stabilized at a rate below the ET-PO allocation. The reason for this is that with sequential policy setting the young risk share with the middle aged. If they agree to work harder still this benefits the middle aged but any benefits to the young depend on the monetary policy agreed on in the next period. Without commitment working harder today gives the young no extra consumption tomorrow. In the ET-PO allocation the equal treatment property implies that if an agent agrees to work harder so will the next generation in a similar state, compensating the agent with higher consumption; the ET-PO criterion, if applied between periods, implicitly allows commitment.



## 2 The Micro Model

Consider an overlapping generations model in which agents live two periods. In the first period they are endowed with  $L$  units of labour, in the second they have no endowment. Labour can be consumed directly as leisure, or transformed, on a one for one basis, into a non storable consumption good. Agents transfer purchasing power from one period to the next by holding money. The utility function for an agent born in period  $t$  is

$$U(L_t, C_{t+1}) = -L_t^{1+\alpha} + C_{t+1}$$

where  $L_t$  is the agent's supply of labour in the first period of life and  $C_{t+1}$  is consumption in the second. I shall assume  $\alpha > 0$  so utility is increasing, and strictly concave, in leisure,  $(L - L_t)$ . Since agents can turn a unit of leisure into a unit of the consumption good they face the budget constraints

$$0 \leq L_t \leq L$$

$$C_{t+1}P_{t+1} \leq L_tP_t + A_{t+1}$$

where  $P_t$  is the price of the consumption good in period  $t$ , measured in money units and  $A_{t+1}$  is a lump sum money transfer from the government to the agent when old. The lump sum payment to the old seems to be the simplest, non-neutral, way of injecting money to the system. If transfers were proportional to cash balances the policy might have no real effects.

The government decides  $G_t$ , its total nominal expenditure in period  $t$ , before the price level  $P_t$  is determined. The old simply spend all their cash, both their savings and any transfer payments; it follows that the total demand for consumption goods in period  $t$ ,  $Y_t$  is given by

$$Y_t = (M_{t-1} + G_t)/P_t$$

where  $M_{t-1}$  is the money carried forward by the old. Since the government transfer is in money we can set  $M_t = M_{t-1} + G_t$  so that

$$Y_t = M_t / P_t$$

At time  $t$  the young choose between leisure and working to earn money to spend in  $t+1$ . They choose their labour supply  $L_t$  to maximize their expected utility, since  $P_{t+1}$  is uncertain. Performing this maximization yields

$$L_t^\alpha = (1+\alpha)^{-1} P_t E(P_{t+1}^{-1} | I_t)$$

where  $E$  is the expectation operator and  $I_t$  is the information available at time  $t$ . Note that, since utility is linear in consumption when old, the expected size of the transfer payment,  $A_{t+1}$ , has no effect on labour supply.

In order to generate real shocks it is assumed that the number of agents in each period,  $N_t$ , is a random variable with log-normal distribution, these shocks being independent. Total output in period  $t$  is given by

$$Y_t = N_t L_t$$

The shock  $N_t$  is not observed by individual agents or by government.

### 3 The Macro Model.

Taking the log of each variable in section two we can derive

$$e_t = y_n + b(p_t - E(p_{t+1} | I_t)) \quad (1)$$

$$y_t = e_t + n_t \quad (2)$$

$$y_t = m_t - p_t \quad (3)$$



where  $y_n$  is a constant,  $b = 1/\alpha$ , and the lower case letters are the natural logarithms of the upper case letters, except for  $e_t = \log L_t$ . The only difficulty occurs in taking the logarithm over the expectation operator, E. However, assuming that the conditional probability distribution over  $P_{t+1}$  given  $I_t$  is lognormal we have

$$\log E(P_{t+1}^{-1} | I_t) = -E(\log P_{t+1} | I_t) + 1/2 \delta^2$$

where  $\delta^2$  is the variance of the marginal distribution of  $p_{t+1} = \log P_{t+1}$ , given  $I_t$ , which has a normal distribution (e.g. see Johnson and Kotz (1970)). The zero inflation level of output per head is given by

$$y_n = (1/\alpha)(1/2 \delta^2 - \log(1+\alpha))$$

Since money is the only form of wealth holding, expected inflation worsens the terms of trade between leisure and consumption and leads households to reduce their labour supply.

We normalize the size of the population so that the  $n_t$ 's are independently distributed random variables with mean zero and variance  $\tau^2$ . In addition suppose the government chooses its expenditure pattern so that

$$m_t = m_{t-1} + g + s_t$$

where  $g$  is a constant rate of monetary growth and the  $s_t$ 's are independently distributed normal random variables with mean zero and variance  $\sigma^2$ . To do this we require that government spending in period  $t$  is given by

$$G_t = M_{t-1}(\exp(g + s_t) - 1)$$



Sometimes the transfer payments will be positive, sometimes negative, but agents are never called on to pay a lump sum exceeding their cash holdings.

Agents born in period  $t$  are given the history of the economy to date,  $H_t$ , consisting of the prices  $p_0, p_1, \dots, p_{t-1}$  and the previous money supply figures,  $m_0, m_1, \dots, m_{t-1}$ , and they also observe the current price level  $p_t$ . The information set is therefore  $I_t = (H_t, p_t)$ . Let  $q_t$  be the expected value of  $p_t$  given  $H_t$ . The difference between  $p_t$  and  $q_t$  will be due to period  $t$  shocks. The problem which agents face is that they do not know which part of any price shock comes from monetary factors, and is permanent, and which part comes from real factors, and is temporary.

Rewriting (1), (2) and (3) gives

$$p_t(1+b) = m_{t-1} + g - y_n + b E(p_{t+1} | I_t) + (s_t - n_t)$$

Suppose agents set  $E(p_{t+1} | H_t) = E(p_t | H_t) + g$ ; then it is easy to derive

$$q_t = m_{t-1} + g - (y_n - bg)$$

Expected monetary injections raise the expected price level directly, through their effect on nominal demand, and indirectly, through the depressing effect of anticipated inflation on aggregate supply. We also have

$$\begin{aligned} E(p_{t+1} | I_t) &= E(m_{t+1} | I_t) - E(y_{t+1} | I_t) \\ &= E(m_t | I_t) + g - E(y_{t+1} | I_t) \\ &= (m_{t-1} + g + E(s_t | I_t)) + g - (y_n - bg) \\ &= q_t + g + E(s_t | I_t) \end{aligned}$$

In order to forecast future prices agents must estimate the size of the current monetary shock,  $s_t$ . From the above equations we have

$$p_t (1+b) = q_t - bg + b(q_t + g + E(s_t | I_t)) + (s_t - n_t)$$

and so

$$p_t - q_t = b(1+b)^{-1} E(s_t | I_t) + (1+b)^{-1} (s_t - n_t)$$

If  $(s_t - n_t)$  is observable at time  $t$ , but  $s_t$  and  $n_t$  are not, agents will set

$$E(s_t | I_t) = (1 - \phi) (s_t - n_t)$$

$$E(n_t | I_t) = -\phi (s_t - n_t)$$

where  $\phi = \gamma^2 / (\sigma^2 + \gamma^2)$  is a measure of the relative proportion of the shock which comes from real sources. Substituting for  $E(s_t | I_t)$  we have

$$(s_t - n_t) = (p_t - q_t) (1 + b) (1 + b - b\phi)^{-1}$$

so if agents know the parameters of the model,  $b$  and  $\phi$ ,  $(s_t - n_t)$  is indeed observable as a function of  $(p_t - q_t)$ . One rational expectations solution of the system is given by

$$e_t = y_n - bg + \pi (s_t - n_t) \quad (4)$$

$$p_t - p_{t-1} = g + (1 - \pi)(s_t - n_t) + \pi s_{t-1} + (1 - \pi)n_{t-1} \quad (5)$$

where  $\pi = \phi b (1+b)^{-1}$ . Both real and nominal shocks affect that period's output and price level. However, in the long run, nominal shocks, being permanent, have a coefficient of one in the inflation equation, while real shocks have a coefficient of zero. For internal consistency we need to confirm that the two assumptions we made in the course of the analysis are correct; we require that the conditional distribution of  $p_{t+1}$  given  $I_t$  be lognormal, and that  $E(p_{t+1} | H_t) = E(p_t | H_t) + g$ . These conditions clearly hold.



The model set out in equations (1), (2) and (3) is almost identical to that of Lucas (1973), except that it is the intertemporal terms of trade, rather than the expected intermarket terms, which affects supply decisions, and the shocks are economy wide, rather than summing to zero across markets. Comparing the results in (4) and (5) with those found by Lucas it is clear that variations in real output per head and unanticipated inflation are still correlated; however there are two differences. Firstly, variations in output and the price level come from the real aggregate shock as well as the nominal money supply shock, secondly, there is no natural rate of output per head, the higher the average rate of inflation,  $g$ , the lower is average output. There is a long run trade off between inflation and output, though in the opposite direction to the short run trade off. As suggested by Friedman (1977) the long run Phillips' curve is positively sloped.

The equilibrium we have derived is of the usual type for a log-linear macro model. However, since our model is equivalent to an overlapping generations framework, in which there are typically a multiplicity of equilibria, we should expect non-uniqueness. Another equilibrium is given by

$$e_t = y_n - bg - b(1 + \alpha)^t + \pi(s_t - n_t)$$

$$p_t - p_{t-1} = g + (1 + \alpha)^t + (1 - \pi)(s_t - n_t) + \pi s_{t-1} + (1 - \pi)n_{t-1}$$

Prices go up at an ever increasing rate, even if the money supply is constant. The falling real demand for goods is matched by a falling level of output, brought about by the effect of inflation on supply. The difficulty of ruling out this type of equilibrium in models where money is the only store of value is discussed by Obstfeld and Rogoff (1983). In what follows I shall concentrate on the equilibrium given by (4) and (5), in which prices are proportional to the money supply.



#### 4. Ex Ante Efficiency and Monetary Policy.

We begin by considering an agent who is going to be born in the world but does not know in which state. I adopt Muench's (1977) notion of an equal treatment Pareto optimum. This implies that agents which experience the same state get the same payoff. Since the state of the system at time  $t$  is given by the number of old and the number of young agents in the economy at that time the allocation at time  $t$  depends only on  $(N_{t-1}, N_t)$ . An agent born at time  $t$  who experiences the state  $(N_{t-1}, N_t)$  when young, and the state  $(N_t, N_{t+1})$  when old, gets the utility

$$-L_t^{1+\alpha}(N_{t-1}, N_t) + L_{t+1}(N_t, N_{t+1}) N_{t+1}/N_t$$

since the labour supply of the  $N_{t+1}$  young in the period  $t+1$  is divided equally between the  $N_t$  old. In addition to agents in the same period being treated equally, the ET-PO criterion requires that the labour supply functions  $L_t$  and  $L_{t+1}$  are the same; the outcome depends only on state not on the time index.

The agent's expected utility, is given by

$$\int_{N_{t-1}} \int_{N_t} \int_{N_{t+1}} [-L_t^{1+\alpha}(N_{t-1}, N_t) + L(N_t, N_{t+1}) N_{t+1}/N_t]$$

$$h(N_{t-1}, N_t, N_{t+1}) dN_{t-1} dN_t dN_{t+1}$$

where  $h$  is the probability density function of experiencing the state  $(N_{t-1}, N_t, N_{t+1})$ . Let  $f$  be the probability density function of the lognormal distribution which determines population size in each period. I shall assume

that the ratio of probabilities of being born at time  $t$  in populations of size  $N$  and  $N'$  is given by

$$\frac{P(\text{born in state } N)}{P(\text{born in state } N')} = \frac{P(\text{born} \mid N_t = N) P(N)}{P(\text{born} \mid N_t = N') P(N')} = \frac{N f(N)}{N' f(N')}$$

The probability of being born in a given state is proportional to the population size in that state. Setting  $N' = 1$  we have

$$P(\text{born in state } N) = N f(N) (P(\text{born in state } 1) / f(1))$$

and  $P(\text{born in state } x \leq N) = \int_0^N x f(x) (P(\text{born in state } 1) / f(1))$

Since the agent must be born in some state the limit as  $N$  tends to infinity of this integral must be one. Hence

$$P(\text{born in state } 1) / f(1) = 1 / E(N)$$

and the probability density function on being born in a state with population size  $N$  is given by  $g(N)$  where

$$g(N) = N f(N) / E(N)$$

Since the probability of being born in a state is independent of the population sizes of the preceding and succeeding generations we have

$$h(N_{t-1}, N_t, N_{t+1}) = f(N_{t-1}) f(N_{t+1}) N_t f(N_t) / E(N_t)$$

Substituting this distribution into the expected utility we can derive expected utility maximizing labour supply at time  $t$

$$L^*(N_{t-1}, N_t) = L^* = (1 + \alpha)^{-1/\alpha}$$

given that  $E(N_{t+1}) = E(N_t)$ . Agents would like their labour supply to be state independent. This makes their consumption when old volatile; it is given by  $L^* N_{t+1} / N_t$ . Since they are risk adverse in labour supply when



young, and risk neutral in consumption when old, they prefer to undergo all the risk in their consumption.

Now consider the monetary economy set out above. Setting the money stock to be constant,  $M_t = M$ , so that all shocks are real we can derive

$$L_t = L^* (\exp(1/2 \delta^2))^{1/\alpha} N_t^{-1/(1+\alpha)}$$

When a population shock occurs the price level changes; high cohort size is associated with a low price for labour. Since the expected value of the next period's price level is independent of the current shock price changes affect the expected intertemporal terms of trade, and the labour supply decision. The variance of prices  $\delta^2$  in this case is given by  $(\alpha/(1+\alpha))^2 \gamma^2$ . Price variance depends on the variance of the real shocks, and the variance of future prices affects the current labour supply decision.

Clearly the equilibrium with the constant money stock is very different from the ex ante optimal allocation. However, consider the following monetary policy

$$m_{t+1} = e^* + p_t + g \quad (6)$$

We can consider this to be a sequence of nominal income targets, made up of a real target  $e^*$  and a price target of an increase in prices by the proportion  $g$ . With such a policy prices become a random walk with drift.

Incorporating (6) with (1), (2) and (3) we can solve the model directly. If the model does stabilize the employment rate at  $e^*$  agents will have the expectation  $E(y_{t+1} | I_t) = e^* + E(n_t | I_t) = e^*$  and so

$$\begin{aligned} E(p_{t+1} | I_t) &= E(m_{t+1} | I_t) - E(y_{t+1} | I_t) \\ &= p_t + g \end{aligned}$$

Substituting this into equation (1) gives



$$e_t = e^* = y_n - bg = (1/\alpha) (1/2 \delta^2 - \log(1+\alpha) - g)$$

$$\text{or } L_t = (\exp(1/2 \delta^2 - g))^{1/\alpha} (1+\alpha)^{-1/\alpha}$$

The target level of output per head and target inflation rate must be set jointly for consistency. Setting

$$g = 1/2 \delta^2 = 1/2 (\alpha / (1+\alpha))^2 \tau^2$$

gives

$$L_t = L^* = (1+\alpha)^{-1/\alpha}$$

the ex ante ET-PO allocation. The real shocks now affect the price level but not the employment rate.

The monetary policy does two things. Firstly, when agents see the price shock in period  $t$  they expect a monetary injection in period  $t+1$  to keep the expected intertemporal terms of trade unchanged. Price shocks are accommodated by monetary policy. The point is that it is not the price shock itself which disturbs the supply decision, but the expectation that it is temporary and will be reversed, the policy removes this expectation.

Secondly the average rate of monetary growth and inflation is set as an increasing function of price variability (and so indirectly of the variance of the shocks). Agents care both about the expected intertemporal terms of trade and the variance of these terms, when making supply decisions. The supply effect of a higher inflation rate can offset the effect of increased price variability. It has been argued that the variability of inflation may be an increasing function of the inflation rate (e.g. see Logue and Thomas (1976)); here it is argued that the optimal rule for Government may be to increase the inflation rate in response to a rise in the variance of the

price level. Note that the optimal average rate of growth of the money supply is always positive.

The simply active monetary policy set out in equation (6) can achieve the ET-PO allocation. It remains to be shown that this allocation Pareto dominates, ex ante, the allocation achieved by the fixed money stock rule. The expected utility of an agent in the economy with monetary policy is

$$\begin{aligned} & E(-L^*{}^{1+\alpha} + L^* (N_{t+1}/N_t)) \\ &= -L^*{}^{1+\alpha} + L^* \end{aligned}$$

where the expectation is taken relative to the probability density function  $h(N_{t-1}, N_t, N_{t+1})$  derived above. In the fixed money stock economy ex ante expected utility (again using the probability density function  $h$ ) is

$$\begin{aligned} & E(-L_t(N_t)^{1+\alpha} + L_{t+1}(N_{t+1}) (N_{t+1}/N_t)) \\ &= -L^*{}^{1+\alpha} (\exp(1/2 \delta^2))^{(1+\alpha)/\alpha} \exp(1/2 \gamma^2)^{-1} \\ & \quad + L^* (\exp(1/2 \delta^2))^{1/\alpha} E(N_{t+1}^{\alpha/(1+\alpha)}) \exp(1/2 \gamma^2)^{-1} \end{aligned}$$

since  $E(N_t) = \exp(1/2 \gamma^2)$ . Replacing the variance of prices  $\delta^2$  with  $(\alpha/(1+\alpha))^2 \gamma^2$ , and using the fact that for a lognormal distribution  $E(N^k) = E(N)^k$ , in the constant money stock world expected utility is given by

$$(-L^*{}^{1+\alpha} + L^*) (\exp(1/2 \gamma^2))^{-1/(1+\alpha)}$$

Providing  $\gamma^2 > 0$ , so the population shocks have non-zero variance, and  $\alpha > 0$ , so the agents' utility functions are strictly concave in leisure, the expected utility of being born in the fixed money stock economy is strictly less than from being born in the active policy economy.



### 5. Sequential Policy Setting.

In section four efficiency was considered from the point of view of an agent about to be born. If agents could vote before birth they would endorse an active monetary policy, but such voting is as implausible as pre-birth contingent claims markets.

Consider instead a model in which agents live three periods, the generation labelled  $t$  being born in period  $t-1$ . They have no endowment, and can not consume in  $t-1$ , they are merely waiting to work in period  $t$  and consume in  $t+1$  as set out in section two. An economy with a fixed money stock and recursive spot markets for labour is not constrained Pareto efficient in this setup. To achieve Pareto efficiency we would require a set of contingent claims markets in period  $t-1$ , for labour in period  $t$  contingent on the shock, so that the young could insure themselves with the middle aged.

Such contingent claims markets may be difficult to organize, indeed in many countries labour futures contracts are not legally binding. Suppose instead we offer the three generations alive in period  $t-1$  the choice between a constant money stock and monetary policy in period  $t+1$  which stabilizes the employment rate in period  $t$  at

$$L_t = L^* (\exp 1/2 \gamma^2)^{-1/(1+\kappa)}$$

In period  $t-1$  the value of  $N_{t-1}$  is common knowledge since it is revealed in the spot market price  $P_t$ . The young in period  $t-1$  do not know the value of  $N_t$ , their cohort size, but, given they have been born it is easy to construct their conditional probability distribution over  $N_t$ ; if the

probability of birth in period  $t-1$  is proportional to the cohort size we have the conditional probability given cohort size of  $g(N_t) = N_t f(N_t) / E(N_t)$ .

The active monetary policy in  $t+1$  does not affect generation  $t+1$  or any generation after this. The only effect is on the generations alive in period  $t-1$ . The policy increases the expected utility of the young in period  $t-1$  while the middle aged are indifferent, relative to the fixed money stock equilibrium. The middle aged experience the same expected intertemporal terms of trade as without the policy and so work equally hard in  $t-1$ , leaving the old in  $t-1$  indifferent between the policy and a constant money stock. The active policy is Pareto improving.

There are many policies which are Pareto efficient and which Pareto dominate a constant money stock. Their common feature is that they stabilize the employment rate for the young when they work in period  $t$ . The policy above is the lowest level of employment which is Pareto efficient and Pareto improving. Any rate up to

$$L_t = L^* (\exp 1/2 \gamma^2)^{-1/(1+\alpha)^2}$$

satisfies these conditions.

If the employment rate is stabilized at a level between these two extremes all three generations in  $t-1$  are better off in expected utility terms than under a fixed money stock; the young still gain from the stabilization of employment, the middle aged consume more when old, and their improved intertemporal terms of trade makes them work more in  $t-1$ , to the benefit of the old. If offered such a policy all three generations would vote for it and against a fixed money stock rule. If employment is stabilized at the lowest level all the gains go to the young, while at the highest level all the gains go to the old and middle aged.



With sequential voting for monetary policy employment is stabilized at a rate lower than in the ET-PO allocation. The problem is that if the young in  $t-1$  vote for a higher rate of employment they simply lose in expected utility terms since this has no effect on the outcome of the vote when they are middle aged, which determines their consumption when old. In the ET-PO equilibrium if an agent works harder so do those in the next period, by the equal treatment criterion, so agreeing to work harder may improve the agent's expected welfare. With sequential voting the agents share risks but cannot achieve outcomes which require commitment to future policies.

#### 6. Conclusion.

A model has been constructed in which the problem of missing futures markets for labour can be overcome by a systematic accommodating monetary policy. Large fluctuations in the employment rate due to shocks may be individually rational in a spot market but inefficient if forward markets are missing. It may be easier to stabilize employment and achieve an efficient allocation through a macroeconomic monetary policy than by attempting to introduce complete contingent forward labour markets.

In order to achieve an efficient allocation a planner must know that agents are more risk adverse with respect to employment than with respect to consumption; it is possible to construct the same macro-model as above with agents who are risk neutral in employment but risk adverse in consumption. Sequential voting over policies rules out commitment but reveals agents' preferences and may be necessary in the absence of a fully informed planner.

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