# ©creative <br> <br> ccommons <br> <br> ccommons <br> $\begin{array}{lllllllllll}\text { C } & \mathrm{O} & \mathrm{M} & \mathrm{M} & \mathrm{O} & \mathrm{N} & \mathrm{S} & \mathrm{D} & \mathrm{E} & \mathrm{E} & \mathrm{D}\end{array}$ 

## 저작자표시 2.0 대한민국

이용자는 아래의 조건을 따르는 경우에 한하여 자유롭게

- 이 저작물을 복제, 배포, 전송, 전시, 공연 및 방송할 수 있습니다.
- 이차적 저작물을 작성할 수 있습니다.
- 이 저작물을 영리 목적으로 이용할 수 있습니다.

다음과 같은 조건을 따라야 합니다:

저작자표시. 귀하는 원저작자를 표시하여야 합니다.

- 귀하는, 이 저작물의 재이용이나 배포의 경우, 이 저작물에 적용된 이용허락조건 을 명확하게 나타내어야 합니다.
- 저작권자로부터 별도의 허가를 받으면 이러한 조건들은 적용되지 않습니다.

저작권법에 따른 이용자의 권리는 위의 내용에 의하여 영향을 받지 않습니다.

이것은 이용허락규약(Legal Code)을 이해하기 쉽게 요약한 것입니다.

$$
\text { Disclaimer } \square
$$

## C)Collection

# Currency Manipulator： <br> China＇s FX Policy Response to <br> US－China Trade Imbalance 

환율조작국：<br>미중 무역 불균형에 대한 중국의 FX 정책 대응

2020 年 8 月

서울大學校 國際大學院
國際學科 國際地域學專攻
진저밍

# Master's Thesis of International Studies 

# Currency Manipulator: <br> China's FX Policy Response to <br> US-China Trade Imbalance 

August 2020

Graduate School of International Studies Seoul National University Area Studies Major

Jin Zeming


#### Abstract

Using the measurement model and empirical analysis, this paper analyses whether there is a statistically dependent relationship between USD-CNY exchange rate and trade imbalance and discusses the influence degree and direction between RMB exchange rate and US-China trade deficit. The imbalances between the exchange rate of RMB and US-China trade have been a hot issue. During 2003-2019, USDCNY exchange rate exhibits a trend in appreciation, meanwhile, the US-China trade imbalances also significantly expand. This paper adopts Ordinary Least Square, Augment Dickey-Fuller test, and Granger causality test to do research, reaching the following conclusions: 1. The USD-CNY exchange rate presents a digitally negative relationship with US-China trade imbalances. This phenomenon means that when the RMB's exchange rate appreciates, the US-China trade deficit will expand. This conclusion is contrary to the opinion which is America can ease their US-China trade deficit when the RMB's exchange rate appreciate. 2. The huge imbalances between RMB's exchange rate and US-China trade have multiple causes, such as US GDP, PCE, GPDI, and GCEGI, etc. The elasticity in which these factors impact on US-China trade is greater than the impact caused by the RMB's exchange rate. It is unreasonable to purely focus on the exchange rate of RMB.


3. There exists a one-way causality between the exchange rate of RMB and USChina trade.
4. Product Competitiveness is the main reason of trade imbalance.

Keywords: USD-CNY exchange rate; US-China trade deficit; Product

## Competitiveness

Student Number: 2016-25454

## Table of Contents

Chapter 1. Introduction ..... 1
1.1 Research Background and Significance ..... 1
1.2 US Foreign Trade Balance. ..... 7
1.3 USD-CNY Exchange rate and US-China Trade Imbalance ..... 9
Chapter 2. Is China Really a Currency Manipulator? ..... 12
2.1 Literature Review ..... 12
2.2 Modeling ..... 20
2.3 Regression. ..... 23
2.4 Interpretation. ..... 27
2.5 Product competitiveness and Trade Balance ..... 33
Chapter 3. Conclusion ..... 42
3.1 Summary ..... 42
3.2 Contributions. ..... 43
3.3 Limitations. ..... 44
Bibliographies ..... 46
Appendixes ..... 50
〈국문 초록> ..... 62

## Chapter 1. Introduction

### 1.1 Research Background and Significance

Since the reform and opening up in 1978, China's economic system has gradually changed from plan-led to market-led. Due to the cost advantages, Chinese commodities rapidly gained a leading position in the world trade market. In recent years, China's rapidly growing balance of payments surplus has become the target of accusations by western developed countries represented by the United States to defend their trade deficits. The depreciation of the exchange rate benefits the country's exports is the consensus of practice in the international community. Western developed countries believe that the RMB exchange rate is undervalued, and there are many calls for the RMB exchange rate to appreciate.

In October 2018, the U.S. Treasury Department released in the first half of 2018 the international economic and exchange rate policy report that the main U.S. trading partners did not manipulate the exchange rate to gain unequal trade advantages, including China. This is the fourth time since Trump assumed the presidency of the United States that the United States has determined that China has not manipulated the exchange rate, but it has still included China and the other six countries on the exchange rate policy test list.

Since March 2018, China and the United States have continually upgraded the "trade war" through additional tariffs. The United States imposes tariffs on commodities exported by China's steel, aluminum foil, machinery, medicine, and
other industries, and threatens to raise tax rates in just a few months. China responded by imposing tariffs on goods imported from industries such as the US automobile, chemical industry, aircraft, and soybeans. On the other hand, the economic and trade consultations between the two sides are continuing, and a consensus was reached in Washington on taking effective measures to substantially reduce the US trade deficit with China. But in the future, the United States issued a strategic statement contrary to the Washington consensus and continued to increase the list of Chinese goods subject to tariffs. As of the writing of this paper, there is still no clear direction as to where the US-China trade war will go.

Overall, the RMB exchange rate issue has become an important and controversial topic in US-China relations. In recent years, the exchange rate of RMB against the US dollar has shown a complex development trend. From 2001 to 2004, the USDCNY exchange rate contained highly stable.

From 2005 to 2010, the renminbi exchange rate generally developed in a rapid appreciation trend, and only remained stable from 2009 to 2010. From 2010 to 2014, the renminbi exchange rate developed in a trend of volatile appreciation. Although it depreciated slightly in certain periods, it continued to break through the previous highs and reached the highest point in the observation period at the beginning and the end of 2014.

From 2015 to 2017, the RMB exchange rate first depreciated and then increased, and its depreciation range reached about $12 \%$. Although the RMB exchange rate has resumed appreciation since the second quarter of 2017, it has not yet dropped back
to its highest point in the previous period. At the same time, the US trade deficit with China continued to increase rapidly. Since 2001, the U.S. trade deficit with China has surpassed \$ 100 billion and exceeded \$ 350 billion. It has maintained growth every year except 2009 and has maintained a high of US \$ 300 billion for six years. Although the US Treasury Department has not officially listed China as a "currency manipulator," US-China trade frictions continue to increase.

After Trump took office, the confrontation between the US and China on the RMB exchange rate and the US-China "trade war" has become one of the core issues of world political and economic concern. The western developed countries represented by the United States continue to accuse the RMB exchange rate of being undervalued. The demand for the RMB to appreciate to reduce the country's trade deficit with China continues to be heard.

In the past 19 years, the absolute value of US exports to China has increased by 111.187 billion US dollars, an increase of $579.63 \%$. In general, except for the years of systemic global trade weakness and weak recovery caused by the international financial crisis, US exports to China have shown an upward trend. Figure 1-2 reflects the changes in US trade imports from China.

Figure 1-1, Figure 1-2 and Figure 1-3, drawn according to Table 1-1, intuitively reflect the trend of these trade changes during the 19 years. Figure 1-1 reflects the changes in US trade exports to China.

Figure 1-1. US Export Index (2002-2019)


Data Source: https://www.census.gov/foreign-trade/balance/c5700.html

As can be seen from Figure 1-1, U.S. exports to China have maintained a growing trend since 2003, and the growth rate has been accelerating according to the slope. From 2008 to 2010 and from 2014 to 2016, US exports to China remained stable and fell slightly, but the gap was not large. In 2003, US exports to China amounted to 19.1 billion USD, while in 2019 this figure increased dramatically to 130.3 billion USD.

In the past 19 years, the absolute value of US exports to China has increased by 111.1 billion US dollars, an increase of $579.63 \%$. In general, except for the years of systemic global trade weakness and weak recovery caused by the international financial crisis, US exports to China have shown an upward trend. Figure 1-2 reflects the changes in US trade imports from China.

As can be seen from Figure 1-2, since 2003, US imports from China have maintained a growing trend. In 2009 and 2016, US imports from China fell slightly, but the gap was not large. In 2003, the US import trade volume from China was \$ 102.2 billion, while in 2019 the US import trade volume from China was \$ 505.5 billion. The absolute value of U.S. imports from China increased by $\$ 40.3$ billion in 17 years, an increase of about $394.33 \%$, which is lower than the increase in U.S. exports to China in ten years.

Generally speaking, the time for the US imports from China to coincide with the decline in US exports to China is basically due to the impact of the global economy. These two figures show that from the standpoint of the United States, the absolute value of both its exports to China and its imports from China increased significantly, reflecting the US-China trade. The continuous closeness and deepening of China also reflect that the two largest economies in the world are still severely affected by global systemic risks.

Figure 1-2. US Import Index (2001-2019)


Data Source: https://www.census.gov/foreign-trade/balance/c5700.html

Combining Figure 1-1 and Figure 1-2, it can be seen that U.S. imports from China have far exceeded U.S. exports to China over the years, so U.S. trade with China has been in a deficit from 2001 to 2019. Figure 1-3 reflects this situation.

Figure 1-3. Combined US- China Trade Details (2001-2019)


Data Source: https://www.census.gov/foreign-trade/balance/c5700.html The trade deficit reflected in Figure 1-3 is represented by a line chart, that is, Figure 1-4. It can be clearly seen that the US trade deficit with China has maintained growth except for 2009 and 2016. In 2001, the US trade deficit with China was $\$ 830.9$ billion, while in 2019 this figure became $\$ 375.2$ billion.

In 19 years, it increased by $\$ 292.1$ billion, an increase of about $351.56 \%$. For the United States, the increase in the US trade deficit with China over the past 19 years has exceeded the increase in the US deficit with any economy other than China.

Figure 1-4. US-China Trade Balance (2001-2019)


Data Source: https://www.census.gov/foreign-trade/balance/c5700.html

### 1.2 US Foreign Trade Balance

Table 1-2, which is based on data extracted from the website of the US Census Bureau, shows the balance of trade exports, trade imports, and US trade balances between the United States and major trading partners in 2019. The main trading partners include Germany, United Kingdom, Belgium, the Netherlands, China, Japan, South Korea, India, Saudi Arabia, Canada, Mexico, and other close neighbors of the United States, almost covering the world's most important economies. Among them, the five countries of China, Japan, Germany, South Korea, and India were all included in the exchange rate policy monitoring list in the first half of the 2018 international economic and exchange rate policy report released by the US Treasury in October 17, 2018.

Figure 1-5. US Trade Balance with Partners (2019)


Data Source: https://www.census.gov/foreign-trade/balance/index.html\#

From Figure 1-5, it can be seen that the US-China trade deficit in 2019 far exceeded that of the U.S. and other major trading partners. The U.S. trade deficit with Mexico, the second-largest deficit country, was only $\$ 71.0$ billion, while the US-China trade deficit The amount is as high as $\$ 375.2$ billion, the US-China trade deficit exceeds the US-Mexico trade deficit of $\$ 304.1$ billion.

The US-China trade deficit not only far exceeds the US-Mexico trade deficit, but also exceeds the sum of the above-mentioned trade deficits of the ten countries except China. In terms of volume, China is the largest trading partner of the United States and a trading partner that has a decisive influence on the US trade balance.

### 1.3 USD-CNY Exchange rate and US-China Trade Imbalance

The data extracted from the website of the State Administration of Foreign Exchange and China Currency Network are used to make Table 1-3, which is a summary table of the monthly rate of USD-CNY from 2003 to 2019, using the direct price method and obtaining the average value of the RMB exchange rate each year.

Figure 1-6 shows the average exchange rate of RMB against the US dollar from 2003 to 2019 in the form of a line chart.

It can be seen from the figure that from 2003 to 2005, the exchange rate of the RMB against the US dollar has remained highly stable. Since 2005, the slope of the line chart has changed significantly, and the RMB has appreciated rapidly against the US dollar. After 2009, the rate of appreciation declined, while maintaining the trend of appreciation but basically stable.

From 2015, the RMB first decreased and then increased, and its impairment rate reached about $12 \%$. Although the renminbi exchange rate has resumed appreciation from the second quarter of 2019, it has not yet dropped back to the highest point in the previous period. During the 17 years, the RMB exchange rate has appreciated by about 22.54\% against the US dollar. In April 2018, although the United States did not replace China as a currency manipulator, China is still subject to monitoring.

Figure 1-6. USD-CNY Exchange Rate (2003-2019)


Data Source: http://www.safe.gov.cn/wps/portal/sy/tjsj_hlzjj_inquire http://www.chinamoney.com.cn/fe/Channel/17383

Comparing Figure 1-4 and Figure 1-6, while the USD-CNY exchange rate contained stable from 2003 to 2005, and US-China trade deficit continued to increase and accelerated after 2005, as reflected in the change in the slope of the curve.

During the accelerated appreciation of RMB from 2005 to 2008, while the US trade imbalance with China continued to increase, the growth rate decreased slightly, the accelerated appreciation of the renminbi exchange rate during this period also related to the timing of China's exchange rate reform in 2005.

However, when the RMB maintained its appreciation trend from 2009 to 2010, the US trade deficit with China showed a V-shaped change, and both the drop and the rebound were very obvious. From 2010 to 2015, the renminbi continued to appreciate, while the US-China trade balance continued to increase, keeping up.

Since 2016, the renminbi has depreciated slightly, and the U.S. trade deficit with China has shown a V-shaped change. Both the drop and the rebound have been very obvious.

The exchange rate of RMB against the US dollar and the US trade deficit shows a trend of development in stages. Overall, there isn't a significant correlation. However, there is a certain positive correlation in certain time intervals. Therefore, that is hard to determine it has an inherent statistical dependence between the two from the surface trend or not.

## Chapter 2．Is China Really a Currency Manipulator？

## 2．1 Literature Review

## 2．1．1 Was RMB underestimated？

One of the contents of the Washington Consensus reached in 1989 is to adopt a competitive exchange rate system，which essentially requires the exchange rate liberalization．The Washington Consensus pointed out that an exchange rate higher than its equilibrium state may mean an external imbalance，while the exchange rate lower than the equilibrium state will lead to an internal imbalance．The final result of the exchange rate deviation from equilibrium will be high inflation，which will hurt harm economic growth（Ba Shusong，2010）${ }^{1}$ ．

John Williamson（2006）${ }^{2}$ believes that with domestic trade as a starting point， countries need a unified currency exchange rate system．The exchange rate should be sufficiently competitive to stimulate the rapid growth of non－traditional sectors and ensure that these export sectors will also remain competitive in the future．

Huang Yiping（2010）${ }^{3}$ refuted Paul Krugman＇s research conclusions from various aspects．He believes that the rapid appreciation of the RMB will destroy the global economy．Paul Krugman＇s ${ }^{4}$ research is unreasonable．Huang Yiping＇s view is that if

[^0]the Chinese government responds to Paul Krugman＇s substantial appreciation of the renminbi，the global economy will not only be $1.5 \%$ higher than the current growth level but may decline by $1.5 \%$ from the current level．He pointed out that investment bank Goldman Sachs used a world－wide exchange rate equilibrium model for testing． The result was that the RMB was undervalued by only about $15 \%$ ．He believed that the RMB was moderately undervalued．

In 2009，Hu Zuliu pointed out that Paul Krugman＇s views on the RMB exchange rate are extreme．At the same time，he believes that to make China＇s economy develop better，China should adopt a more flexible exchange rate policy，which can make China＇s economic development avoid sharp fluctuations and real asset price bubbles．

Lin Yifu ${ }^{1}$ has repeatedly expressed his views on the RMB exchange rate．In 2005， he felt that the RMB was undervalued by a small amount，but only by about $5 \%$ ．In 2007，Lin Yifu stated that the RMB did not deviate significantly from its equilibrium exchange rate，so there was no room for substantial growth．In 2009，Lin Yifu firmly rejected the practice of renminbi forced appreciation to balance the world economy． He believes that the appreciation of the RMB will stifle the recovery of the global economy．The appreciation of the renminbi will actually raise the price of Chinese exports，which will curb US consumer demand．

Since most of China＇s goods exported to the United States are not produced in the United States，the appreciation of the RMB will not reduce the US trade deficit with

[^1]China．Therefore，American consumers need to pay more for imported goods，even if they do not buy Chinese goods，they will buy goods from other countries．

In 2011，Yang Liu ${ }^{1}$ proposed that the valuation of the RMB exchange rate differed widely from 1998 to 2003，and it was difficult to find an explanation in academic theory．He believes that western countries such as Japan and the United States are accustomed to proceed from their own perspectives or intentions and face the RMB exchange rate with a politicized attitude．In 2017，Lin Yifu stated that he did not support the full liberalization of the RMB capital account．Regarding the phenomenon of an abnormal flow of RMB funds in China at that time，Lin Yifu pointed out that there has been a consensus in the industry that the RMB capital account should be managed as necessary，and from the perspective of the real economy，the RMB should appreciate in the long run．

The United Nations Conference on Trade and Development published a research report in Switzerland in January 2011，which pointed out that the cumulative effective appreciation of the renminbi＇s real effective exchange rate in unit labor costs since 1995 has been close to $100 \%$ ，and the current currency value has not been underestimated；

The actual effective exchange rate of the RMB has been calculated by the consumer price index since 1995．The cumulative appreciation has been close to $30 \%$ ．

[^2]The research group of the of Tianjin University（2010）${ }^{1}$ demonstrated from various aspects that the RMB exchange rate was not underestimated．They believe that after the outbreak of the global financial crisis in 2008，China＇s development momentum is good on a macro level，but China＇s own form of trade is also changing at the same time，especially in terms of import volume and speed．

The research team collected statistical data from 37 countries in the whole year of 2009，of which about $40 \%$ of the country＇s exports to China reflected the growth trend．Eurozone exports to China，which were severely impacted by the European debt crisis，only fell by about $15.3 \%$ ，higher than the overall Eurozone exports of about $5 \%$ ．For the United States，the world＇s largest economy，its overall exports fell by $17 \%$ ，but US exports to China fell by only $0.22 \%$ ，far higher than its overall export decline．

China is not only an important export destination for Asian countries such as South Korea and Japan but also a major export destination for countries such as the European Union and the United States．This actual situation is very different from the view that some officials and scholars believe that the current RMB exchange rate is undervalued or even greatly undervalued．

In addition，after the outbreak of the world financial crisis in 2008，China suffered from systemic risks such as shrinking global trade and depreciation of major currencies，and its exports declined significantly．This phenomenon also reveals

[^3]whether the imbalance of RMB exchange rate has little effect on China＇s export changes．If the RMB exchange rate is indeed undervalued，China can benefit from it．

But within two months of the crisis，China＇s export growth has rapidly dropped from $20 \%$ to minus $30 \%$ ，with a decline of $50 \%$ ，which can be described as a cliff－ like decline．The research group also pointed out that the RMB exchange rate is overvalued if it refers to a basket of currencies．

2．1．2 If RMB appreciates，the trade deficit could be solved？
In international finance，the doctrine of exchange rate affecting the balance of payments mainly includes elastic analysis，currency analysis，and absorption analysis．What these doctrines have in common is that although the premise of recognizing exchange rate depreciation to improve a country＇s trade balance is very complicated，they basically agree that trade balances can be changed due to exchange rate depreciation（Ba Shusong，2010）

Shen Guobing（2005）${ }^{1}$ used data from 1994 to $2002^{2}$ for empirical results．The results show that there is no stable relationship between the nominal or real RMB exchange rate and the US－China trade balance．The empirical results using monthly data from 1998 to 2003 show that there is no long－term and stable cointegration relationship between the RMB exchange rate and the US－China trade balance．

[^4]Therefore，Shen Guobing believes that it is impossible to determine whether the changes in the RMB exchange rate will affect the trade balance．The US－China trade deficit cannot be adjusted solely by changes in the RMB exchange rate．

The theory of RMB appreciation is not only an economic issue but also an international political issue．Naturally，changes in the RMB exchange rate cannot solve the trade deficit between China and the United States．He Liping，Fan Yanhui， and Fan Xiaohang（2006）combined time trend variables to empirically examine the potential relationship between the ratio of the US current account deficit to GDP and the real effective exchange rate index of the US dollar from 1980 to 2004.

The empirical results show that since 1990，the role of exchange rate variables and time trend variables has been on the rise and fall，the role of exchange rate variables has decreased significantly，and the role of time trend variables has become more significant．This result indicates that there is a possibility that the relationship between the US dollar exchange rate and the US current account balance is clearly different from that described in general theory．Their view is that it is difficult for the appreciation of the renminbi to help the US adjust its balance of payments deficit． Similarly，the reduction of the US current account deficit cannot be carried out through the devaluation of the US dollar．

Xiao Geng（2007）${ }^{1}$ believes that the US unilateral attention to the RMB exchange rate adjustment mechanism has no effect on improving China＇s trade imbalance．

[^5]Xiao Geng pointed out that China and other Asian countries have a special problem of coexistence of labor surplus and capital surplus.

China's per capita wealth stock is not high, but China can in fact send excess capital to countries with large capital stocks such as the United States, thereby providing financing support for excessive consumption by countries with large capital stocks such as the United States. This is an essential issue that really needs attention. The RMB exchange rate issue will divert people's attention and make people ignore the essence.

Based on international price competition, Wang Sheng and Li Saijun (2009) established a research framework for the exchange rate transmission effect of RMB and used this framework to empirically study the degree of exchange rate transmission of Chinese export prices to the United States. Their empirical research using vector error correction models and cointegration techniques concluded that China's export prices to the United States are greatly affected by international price competition, and the exchange rate of the RMB exchange rate is not high.

Therefore, the appreciation of the RMB to improve the effectiveness of the USChina trade imbalance policy will be greatly weakened by the incomplete exchange rate transmission weakening the effect of expenditure transfer. Paul Krugman $(2010)^{1}$ called on the US government to take tougher measures against China, and Ronald McKinnon (2010) ${ }^{2}$ expressly opposed this view.

[^6]The research group of Tianjin University (2010) believes that it is untenable to equate the trade surplus with the undervalued RMB exchange rate. The research group pointed out that the key to US-China trade imbalances stems from many economic problems of the United States itself, such as the unequal status of USChina trade, the low domestic saving rate of the United States, and the US dollar as the main international reserve currency, rather than directly from the RMB exchange rate. This view is similar to Ronald McKinnon's.

The research group also believes that one of the important reasons for the USChina trade imbalance is that the two countries have not adopted a unified statistical method when measuring the actual trade situation. US statistics may greatly overestimate the imbalance between the two countries. The US overestimation can be reflected from four perspectives:

The first is that there are differences in import and export statistical standards that prevent the value of exports and imports from being accurately estimated. The second is that the US has ignored the value-added factors. The third is that the US did not consider service trade in its statistics, and only included merchandise trade. Finally, a large proportion of Chinese goods are re-exported to central and north America and south America through the US as an intermediary. It is unreasonable for the US to include this part of re-exports in China's exports to the United States. The research group believes that the processing trade surplus is the main reason for China's trade surplus.

In general, domestic scholars have used different econometric models and statistical methods for many years to study the RMB exchange rate and US-China trade issues from various perspectives. The research conclusions of domestic scholars are mostly that the exchange rate fluctuation of the RMB has a weak effect on the trade imbalance between the two countries. The trade deficit of the US is more derived from the US's own economy or expansion needs. At the same time, some scholars believe that the impact of the RMB exchange rate change on the trade between the two countries is different in the short and long term. The general conclusion is that the long-term impact is more serious than the short-term.

In general, China's exchange rate level coincides with economic fundamentals. China does not deliberately suppress the RMB exchange rate and use it to compete for exports. So China is obviously not a currency manipulator.

### 2.2 Modeling

### 2.2.1 Models review

Based on the theoretical conclusion above, I will use the data for empirical analysis. Over the years, there are many theories that explain the impact of exchange rate changes on the trade balance. The most popular ones are Marshall-Lerner condition, J- Curve effect, and Absorption Analysis.

The current situation in which changes in a country's exchange rate affects the country's balance of payments can be simply understood as follows: under the direct pricing method, if the country's exchange rate falls, it means that the foreign
currency depreciates and the local currency appreciates. The appreciation of the local currency will cause the relative price of domestic commodities to rise and suppress exports, but at the same time, the depreciation of foreign currencies also means that the relative price of foreign commodities will fall, which will benefit domestic imports.

Of course, this mechanism of exchange rate changes affecting the balance of payments will have a certain time lag, that is, the J curve effect, and it is also constrained by factors such as the elasticity of demand for import and export commodities and the sensitivity to exchange rate changes. Secondly, changes in imports and exports caused by the appreciation of the local currency may further affect the country's industrial transfer, adjustment, and upgrades, which in turn will adversely affect the country's foreign trade product structure. Third, the appreciation of the local currency also directly affects a country's foreign exchange reserves.

To sum up, exchange rate changes can directly or indirectly affect the balance of payments through a variety of channels. This mechanism of influence is difficult to be generalized due to various factors such as time and flexibility. The balance of payments is not determined solely by the exchange rate. It is also directly affected by factors such as the economic structure and product competitiveness of the two countries. The focus of this article will be the impact of exchange rates on national revenue and expenditure.
2.2.2 Models contribution

First, from a macroeconomic perspective, $\quad G D P=C+I+G+N X \rightarrow N X=G D P$
$-C-I-G$
trade deficit is directly related to consumption, investment, and government spending.

There is an inextricable link between consumption and international trade. Consumption is a prerequisite for international trade. For a trader, only when there is a demand for the traded commodity, he will decide to conduct or continue to trade. Traders will not be interested in this commodity trade if no one comes to consume it. International trade is a way to achieve and expand consumption. Commodities consumed by consumers can come from domestic production on the one hand and foreign production, on the other hand, this must go through international trade. It is precise because of this interdependent relationship between them that determines the mutual influence between consumption and international trade.

As the two major factors driving economic growth, investment and consumption must maintain an appropriate balance in the economic operation. This is because consumer demand and investment demand are mutually constrained and determined by each other. Under the condition that the total amount of regional funds is generally stable, the growth of investment demand is constrained by the growth of consumer demand. Under the market economy, the growth of investment demand is ultimately realized by the growth of consumer demand. Investment demand provides goods for consumer demand. Supported by consumer demand, the new production capacity formed by investment demand will be a lot of waste. Whether it is solely driven by
investment demand or economic growth by consumer demand, it is impossible to continue.

And government spending also affects investment and consumption. For example, If an increase in government spending or a decrease in tax revenues leads to a deficit that is financed by increased borrowing, then the borrowing can increase interest rates, leading to a reduction in private investment.

Based on eliminating seasonal and irregular variables and performing stationarity tests on variables, I will use the ordinary least squares to estimate the statistical dependence of the dependent variables and independent variables. At the same time, I will verify whether there is Granger causality between the RMB exchange rate and the US-China trade deficit.

### 2.3 Regression

This article involves ordinary least square, augment Dickey-Fuller test, and Granger causality test.

$$
\begin{equation*}
\mathcal{Q}=\sum_{i=1}^{n}\left(Y i-Y i^{\prime}\right)^{\wedge} 2 \tag{a}
\end{equation*}
$$

The ADF test is a method of unit root test. It is expanded based on the DF test and is completed by the following three models:

Model 1:
$\Delta X t=\delta X t-1+\sum_{i=1}^{m} \beta i \Delta X t-i+\epsilon t$
(b)

Model 2:

$$
\begin{equation*}
\Delta X t=\alpha+\delta X t-1+\sum_{i=1}^{m} \beta i \Delta X t-i+\epsilon t \tag{c}
\end{equation*}
$$

Model 3:

$$
\begin{equation*}
\Delta X t=\alpha+\beta t+\delta X t-1+\sum_{i=1}^{m} \beta i \Delta X t-i+\epsilon t \tag{d}
\end{equation*}
$$

Cointegration is a statistical representation of this equilibrium relationship, assuming that the long-term stable equilibrium relationship between X and Y is described as follows:

$$
\begin{align*}
& Y t=\alpha 0+\alpha 1 X t+\mu t  \tag{e}\\
& \mu t=Y t-\alpha 0-\alpha 1 X t \tag{f}
\end{align*}
$$

The linear combination is called an $I(0)$ sequence, at which time the variables $X$ and Y are cointegrated.

The basic step of Granger causality test is to estimate the following regression equation for two variables Y and X :

$$
\begin{equation*}
Y t=\sum_{i=1}^{m} \alpha i X t-i+\sum_{i=1}^{m} \beta i Y t-i+\mu 1 t \tag{g}
\end{equation*}
$$

$$
X t=\sum_{i=1}^{m} \lambda i Y t-i+\sum_{i=1}^{m} \delta i X t-i+\mu 2 t
$$

(h)

Table 2-1 and Table 2-2 are the original data required for empirical analysis
Table 2-3 is a summary table of monthly RMB-dollar median prices from 2003 to 2019

Table 2-1 shows the monthly US trade deficit with China from 2003 to 2019
Table 2-2 shows that from 2003 to 2019, GDP, PCE, GPDI, and GCEGI are government consumption expenditures and investments.

The source of the data for the RMB-USD median price is the website of the State Administration of Foreign Exchange and China Currency Network. The renminbi exchange rates used in this paper are all nominal exchange rates. Compared with the real exchange rate, the nominal exchange rate is more affected by the reform of the exchange rate formation mechanism and macroeconomic policy tools, and it is more conducive to reflecting the direct effect of exchange rate changes on the trade balance.

The data source of the US trade deficit with China is from the website of the US Bureau of Statistics.

The source of US domestic production, consumption, and investment data is the US Department of Commerce website. Since Table 2-2 is quarterly data, the monthly data of Table 2-3 and Table 2-1 are integrated into quarterly data for unified measurement, and then made tables 2-3 and 2-4. I adopted the Census X12 seasonal adjustment method to Table 2-2, 2-3, and adjust the data in Table 2-4.

The purpose of the seasonal adjustment method is to remove seasonal and irregular changing factors from the original time series is to obtain the potential trend-cycle component of the original time series.

The trend-cycle component can more objectively reflect the development law of economic time series without being disturbed by seasonal changes.

The Census X 12 method is based on the $\mathrm{X}-11$ seasonal adjustment method proposed by the US Census Bureau in 1965, and adopts the following four model forms:
(1) Multiplication mode

$$
\begin{equation*}
Y t=T C t * S t * I t \tag{j}
\end{equation*}
$$

(2)Addition mode

$$
\begin{equation*}
Y t=T C t+S t * I t \tag{k}
\end{equation*}
$$

(3)Logarithmic addition mode

$$
\begin{equation*}
\log (Y t)=\log (T C t)+\log (S t)+\log (I t) \tag{m}
\end{equation*}
$$

(4) Pseudo-logarithmic addition mode $Y t=T C t *(S t+I t-1)$
t represents the year, $\mathrm{Y}, \mathrm{TC}, \mathrm{S}$, and J represent the original time series, trend-cycle components, seasonal change factors, and irregular change factors, respectively.

The above model expands the sequence through prediction and reverse speculation, and decomposes Yt into TCt, St, It.

Currently, the multiplication model is the most widely used among the above four models. This time, I used the multiplication model for empirical data. The adjusted data are shown in Table 2-5, Table 2-6, and Table 2-7.

The quarterly adjusted quarterly RMB exchange rate data trend of Census X12 is similar to Figure 2-6 and has also experienced super stable, rapid appreciation, shock
appreciation, and slight depreciation. The average value of the RMB exchange rate in the fourth quarter of 2017 increased by about $20 \%$ compared with the average value in the first quarter of 2003. The Census X12 quarterly adjusted US-China trade deficit data trend is similar to Figures 3-4. It also declined slightly in 20011 and 2018, but overall it is still expanding rapidly.

The average value of the U.S.-China trade deficit in the fourth quarter of 2019 increased from the average value in the first quarter of 2003 by approximately $361.74 \%$. In the fourth quarter of 2019 , the US GDP, household consumption expenditure, domestic private investment, government consumption expenditure, and investment data increased by approximately $36.65 \%, 44.48 \%, 31.52 \%$, and $14.52 \%$, respectively. From the data for the first quarter of 2003. And from 2003 to 2019, although the above data declined slightly in individual periods, the decline was not large. All of this reflects that the domestic demand in the United States has been expanding for 17 years.

### 2.4 Interpretation

### 2.4.1 OLS

In this paper, statistical software Eviews10 is used as an analysis tool Firstly, discuss whether there is a statistical dependence between the variables:

$$
\begin{align*}
& L O G(T D)=C(1)+C(2) * L O G(E R)+C(3) * L O G(G D P)+C(4) * L O G(P C E) \\
+ & C(5) * L O G(G P D I)+C(6) * L O G(G C E G I)+c \tag{p}
\end{align*}
$$

Table 2-8. Explanation of Variables in Multiple Linear Regression Model

| Variable | Variable property | Meaning |
| :---: | :---: | :---: |
| TD | Dependent Variables | US-China Trade Balance |
| ER | Independent Variables | USD-CNY Exchange Rate |
| GDP | Independent Variables | US GDP |
| PCE | Independent Variables | US PCE |
| GPDI | Independent Variables | US GPDI |
| GCEGI | Independent Variables | US GCEGI |
| $\mathrm{C}(1)$ | Constant Term |  |
| $\mathrm{C}(2)-\mathrm{C}(6)$ | Explanatory Variable Coefficient |  |
| c | Random error term |  |

Note: The original unit of the dependent variable and the other independent variables except the average exchange rate of RMB against the US dollar is one million US dollars. To improve the accuracy of the model, the logarithm of the dependent variable and the independent variable are both taken.

In order to reduce the effect of multicollinearity of the explanatory variables on the regression results, and at the same time ensure that both the explained variables and the explanatory variables are stationary time series, the logarithmic first-order difference of the above variables has an economic meaning of the rate of change of the above variables. The ADF test is performed on the variable after taking the logarithm and first-order difference, and the results are as follows,

Table 2-9. Variable ADF Test Results

| Variable | ADF Statistics | Critical value at <br> $1 \%$ significance <br> level | Critical value at <br> $5 \%$ significance <br> level | Critical value at <br> $10 \%$ significance <br> level |
| :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: |
| TD | -6.130154 | -3.533204 | -2.90621 | -2.590628 |
| ER | -3.357691 | -3.542097 | -2.910019 | -2.592645 |
| GDP | -4.612453 | -3.533204 | -2.90621 | -2.590628 |
| PCE | -2.768079 | -3.534868 | -2.906923 | -2.591006 |
| GPDI | -4.37353 | -3.533204 | -2.90621 | -2.590628 |
| GCEGI | -2.384017 | -3.534868 | -2.906923 | -2.591006 |

According to the ADF test results, variables above have no unit root at a $90 \%$ confidence level, which is a stationary time series. The logarithmic and first-order difference variables are used to obtain the following regression results through Eviews10:

Table 2-10. Empirical Results of Multiple Linear Regression Model

| Statistical indicators | Data |
| :---: | :---: |
| Coefficient C(2) | -0.662794 |
| Coefficient C(3) | -8.066319 |
| Coefficient C(4) | 1.677168 |
| Coefficient C(5) | 2.202691 |
| Coefficient C(6) | 6.775972 |
| T Test Statistics-C(2) | -1.509164 |
| T Test Statistics-C(3) | -3.536586 |
| T Test Statistics-C(4) | 5.409007 |
| T Test Statistics-C(5) | 2.719435 |
| T Test Statistics-C(6) | 3.665742 |
| coefficient of determination -R^2 | 0.430696 |
| Adjusted Coefficient of Determination | 0.384032 |
| Dubin Watson Statistics -DW | 1.915984 |
| F Test Statistics | 9.229673 |

The regression results show that $\mathrm{C}(2)$ and C (3) are negative, indicating that the change in the RMB exchange rate is negatively correlated with changes in US GDP and changes in the US trade deficit with China.

C (4), C (5), and C (6) are positive, indicating that the changes in US household consumption expenditures and government consumption expenditures are positively correlated with changes in domestic private investment and changes in the US trade deficit with China.

The $T$ test statistics of the independent variables LOG (ER), LOG (GDP), LOG (PCE), LOG (GPDI), and LOG (GCEGI) are significant at a $90 \%$ confidence level, that is, they pass the variable significance test.

The F test statistic of the equation is significant at a $90 \%$ confidence level, that is, it passes the significance test of the overall linearity of the equation.

The Durbin-Watson stat of the model is 1.915984 .
From the Figure, (du) $<$ (DW statistical value) $<(4-\mathrm{du})$
$(\mathrm{Du})$ is approximately equal to 1.61 , so there is no first-order autocorrelation in the model.

The autocorrelation coefficients, partial autocorrelation coefficients and correlation graphs of the model residual sequence are as follows:

Figure 2-1. Multivariate Linear Regression Model Residual Sequence Correlation Diagram

| Autocorrelation | Partial Correlation | AC | PAC | Q-Stat | Prob |
| :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: |
| 1 \| 1 | 111 | $1-0.017$ | -0.017 | 0.0204 | 0.886 |
| 11 | 11 | 20.047 | 0.047 | 0.1786 | 0.915 |
|  | $\square$ | 30.195 | 0.197 | 2.9139 | 0.405 |
| 15 | 15 | $4-0.091$ | -0.088 | 3.5185 | 0.475 |
| 1. | 15 | $5-0.042$ | -0.067 | 3.6489 | 0.601 |
| 1 |  | $6 \quad 0.242$ | 0.224 | 8.0880 | 0.232 |
| 1 - | 1 1 | 70.146 | 0.212 | 9.7354 | 0.204 |
| 1 - | 1 | 80.127 | 0.131 | 10.991 | 0.202 |
| 1 | 1 1 | 90.142 | 0.038 | 12.589 | 0.182 |
| 1 | 11 | $10 \quad 0.042$ | 0.016 | 12.735 | 0.239 |
| 1 - | 1 1 | 110.116 | 0.155 | 13.850 | 0.241 |
| 15 | 181 | $12-0.062$ | -0.094 | 14.178 | 0.290 |
|  | $1 \square$ | $13-0.039$ | -0.145 | 14.307 | 0.353 |
| 1 1 | 15 | 140.013 | -0.121 | 14.321 | 0.426 |
| 1 1 | 1 1 | 150.059 | 0.050 | 14.633 | 0.478 |
| 1 1 | 11 | 160.013 | -0.015 | 14.648 | 0.551 |
| -1 | 111 | 170.153 | 0.037 | 16.817 | 0.467 |
| 1 صا | 1 ص1 | 180.172 | 0.158 | 19.616 | 0.355 |
|  | 15 | 19-0.110 | -0.060 | 20.792 | 0.348 |
| 101 | 1. | 20-0.102 | -0.150 | 21.806 | 0.351 |
| 1 | 101 | $21-0.011$ | -0.047 | 21.817 | 0.410 |
| 1 c | 1 1 | $22-0.062$ | 0.047 | 22.216 | 0.447 |
| 11 | 111 | $23-0.003$ | 0.025 | 22.216 | 0.507 |
| 1 صا | 1 | $24 \quad 0.173$ | 0.039 | 25.426 | 0.383 |
|  | 1 | 250.007 | -0.038 | 25.432 | 0.438 |
| 101 | 15 | 26-0.117 | -0.146 | 26.975 | 0.411 |
| 1 | 18 | $27-0.033$ | -0.063 | 27.102 | 0.458 |
| ' $\square_{1}$ | $1 \square$ | $28-0.136$ | -0.105 | 29.286 | 0.398 |

This shows that the model does not have a high-order sequence correlation.
Carrying out the White heteroscedasticity test on the model can obtain the F test statistic of 0.663375 , and the corresponding P value is 0.8398 , that is, the model has no heteroscedasticity.

The model's coefficient of determination and the adjusted coefficient of determination are 0.430696 and 0.384032 .

Considering that the model is an explanatory model and the logarithm of the variables is a first-order difference at the same time, the coefficient of determination and the coefficient of adjustment after adjustment is within a reasonable range.

### 2.4.2 ADF Test and Granger Causality Test

By conducting the ADF unit root and cointegration test on the seasonally adjusted quarterly RMB exchange rate time series and the quarterly US-China trade deficit time series, I found that the two series above are second-order single integers. That is, the two pairs of sequences are of the same order and have a cointegration relationship. So I can test whether the above two sequences have Granger causality.

Table 2-11. ADF Test Result

| Variable | ADF Statistics | Critical value at <br> $1 \%$ significance <br> level | Critical value at <br> $5 \%$ significance <br> level | Critical value at <br> $10 \%$ significance <br> level |
| :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: |
| TD | -3.803033 | -3.540198 | -2.909206 | -2.592215 |
| ER | -3.256423 | -3.533204 | -2.90621 | -2.590628 |

Table 2-12. Johansen Cointegration Test Results

| Null hypothesis | Trace Statistics | $5 \%$ threshold | Max-Eigen <br> Statistic | $5 \%$ threshold |
| :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: |
| no cointegration <br> relationship | 48.15064 | 15.49471 | 37.781 | 14.2646 |
| At most one <br> cointegration <br> relationship | 10.36964 | 3.841466 | 10.36964 | 3.841466 |

The number of lag periods is very sensitive to the Granger causality test. When the Granger causality test does not change with the number of lag periods and maintains certain stability, the Granger causality test can be determined according to the test results. The seasonally adjusted quarterly RMB exchange rate time series and the quarterly US-China trade deficit are tested separately from lag period 1 to lag period 2. The results are as follows:

Table 2-13. Granger Causality Test Results

| Null hypothesis | F Statistics | P value of lag <br> phase I | F Statistics | P value of lag <br> phase II |
| :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: |
| US trade deficit <br> with China <br> changes is not <br> Granger reasons <br> for USD-CNY <br> exchange rate <br> changes | 2.64946 | 0.1085 | 3.44066 | 0.0384 |
| USD-CNY <br> exchange rate <br> changes is not <br> Granger reasons <br> for US trade <br> deficit with China <br> changes | 0.30718 | 0.5813 | 0.75455 | 0.4746 |

Test results above show that USD-CNY exchange rate changes are not Granger reasons for the US trade deficit with China changes. While the US trade deficit with China changes is Granger reasons for USD-CNY exchange rate changes.

### 2.5 Product competitiveness and Trade Balance

Personally, I see product competitiveness as the core reason for the US-China trade gap.

### 2.5.1 US- China Trade Products Structure

First of all, judging from the actual data classification, the trade between China and the United States has some outstanding features in terms of commodity structure. Based on the general analysis ideas, the characteristics of the two countries in the trade commodity structure are mainly reflected in the strong complementarity.

Specifically, the reasons for this complementarity are mainly based on the differences in resource endowments and differences in the density of factors, etc., resulting in differences in economic development, development stages, industrial structure, demand characteristics, consumption levels, etc. The flow between different regions has resulted in the complementary presentation of commodity structures in trade.

This complementarity of commodity structure in trade specifically includes several aspects:

First, it is the complementarity of resource endowments and factors. Regarding resource endowments and factor markets, the gap between China and the United States is relatively large. According to Professor Lin Yifu's point of view, China has comparative advantages in labor-intensive and resource-intensive industries. This is due to China's better natural resource endowments and cheap and sufficient labor resources.

The United States is the world's top power, with obvious advantages in all aspects. Compared with China, the United States has a comparative advantage in terms of software elements, especially in high-tech, capital, management, etc. The
accumulation of soft resource endowments has led to its structural characteristics of import and export products in international trade.

Secondly, it is the complementarity of the industrial structure. Since the founding of the People's Republic of China, China has been exploring an economic development path with Chinese characteristics. From the reform and opening up in 1978 to the present, China has been continuously and limitedly devoted to the development of key industries that are at stake in the national economy and people's livelihood based on its own economic development foundation and social characteristics.

First, solve the main contradictions, develop key industries to improve water conservancy, energy, transportation, and other industries. And continue to lead in the fields of machinery, electronics, petrochemicals, construction, automobiles, hightech, etc., forming a connection between the three major industries.

Therefore, in the course of development, in different historical periods, the import and export structure of China and the United States actually reflected the changes in the industrial structure of the two countries, which is a direct manifestation of industrial policy and economic orientation in the field of foreign trade.

Finally, it is the complementarity of the market structure. The explanation for the formation of international trade is the economic exchanges caused by differences in resource endowments. The United States is the world's largest power, with outstanding strength in all aspects. Its necessary production expansion and the global
profit-seeking of massive capital require them to use every resource in the world to tap the value of economic growth.

China also is the largest developing country in the world, with the largest population in the world, a broad base industry audience, the rapid development of emerging industries, the world's largest consumer market, and the largest potential industrial consumer market in the future. Many countries will develop the Chinese market as an important strategy.

In other words, in terms of the market, what we thought was a large population base and a weak foundation, but now it has become an advantage. Coupled with China's rapid economic growth in recent decades, the economic and trade exchanges between China and the United States, and even all other countries, are long-term equilibrium evolution of the regional supply and demand market. These complex economic and trade exchanges reflect the uniqueness of China's market situation. That is, the Chinese market has effectively achieved resource complementarity and supply-demand balance with other countries promoted common prosperity, and achieved mutual benefit and win-win results.

From the specific product structure of the US-China trade, corresponding to the above structural analysis of the US-China trade, China currently exports a large number of labor-intensive products such as footwear, toys, and clothing to the United States. This also matches the industrial structure and economic characteristics of the two countries.

Among them, textiles and apparel, resource products, and light industrial products are the categories with a large proportion of China's exports. U.S. exports to China are mainly concentrated in technology-intensive and capital-intensive industries, such as automobiles, machinery, aircraft, electronic information, and other products, in addition to a small amount of cotton, fertilizer, wheat, wood, paper, metal, and minerals, etc., and a very limited number of technology transfers.

### 2.5.2 Cause analysis

First, the internal structure of the US economy is unbalanced. The U.S. economy is highly developed, residents and sectors have strong spending power, low willingness to save, and solidified consumption habits. Therefore, assuming that the U.S. economy is sluggish but does not hinder the overall consumption capacity and purchasing power of its country, what its domestic economy cannot provide, only can turn to imports or foreign investment.

At the same time, the United States has already crossed the stages of primary processing and low-level manufacturing. At present, the domestic real economy and the virtual economy are seriously unbalanced. The labor force and industrial development stage do not support the development of extreme physical manufacturing, so some of its domestic necessities must also be imported from abroad to meet demand.

Although China is the main exporter of such commodities in the United States, the exchange rate elasticity of labor-intensive products has increased in recent years. China's labor force advantage is no longer in the past, and China does not have an
absolute substitute production capacity for such products. The large selection of products of the same type and the same utility and the already limited profit margin of labor-intensive products are also affected to a certain extent by the appreciation of the RMB.

In this case, the RMB appreciates, the US and China may still have a surplus in some product areas, although this surplus is shrinking, so the RMB exchange rate will not be the main cause of the US-China trade surplus, even if it has an impact, the United States can control the degree of trade surplus based on its own characteristics and options.

Second, China's industrial structure has been continuously upgraded. With the continuous changes in the world pattern, the process of global integration is accelerating, and the integration of the industrial chain is gradually deepening. After years of development of the primary industry, China has gradually entered the highend manufacturing industry, and the high-end smart manufacturing industry has developed vigorously and made progress.

In recent years, China's international positioning and division of labor have quietly changed, gradually shifting from elementary to intermediate and advanced. In addition to primary industrial manufacturing and processing trade, China has gradually emerged in the export of manufactured products in the mid-to-high-end sector, and the proportion of capital-intensive and technology-intensive products has risen. This change will also bring a significant trade surplus effect after the development stage is upgraded.

Third, the US's special trade strategy. As a superpower, the United States focuses on ecological construction internally and has perfect environmental protection laws. It advocates the use of external resources and the least environmental cost to achieve economic development and people's prosperity.

Therefore, industries that have a direct impact on the environment and have a strong environmental and ecological negative externality are restricted to the United States within the region, and they advocate substitution by directly importing finished products. And China is in a critical period of industrial restructuring, highend manufacturing and environmental protection are our aspects of concern.

But generally speaking, the driving force for pursuing benefits is still greater than the demand for environmental protection, and it is also the pillar of GDP in some regions. Therefore, China's exports to the United States are still very large, which seems acceptable to both parties. The United States not only saves its own resources by importing large amounts but also prioritizes the development of its own high-tech industries and maximizes the "resource conversion benefits". Therefore, the trade balance of this type of product is large in US income elasticity but not significant in the exchange rate.

Fourth, the key elements of US trade barriers. An important part of the US-China trade deficit is daily commodities. In addition, manufacturing commodities on the one hand are the products with the highest proportion of China's surplus, and on the other hand, are the products with the highest share of the US export to China, mainly high-tech machinery.

It can be seen that my country's import demand is mainly concentrated on producing technologically advanced products. China is in the primary stage of socialist development. High-tech and technological innovation have been striving forward, but it is far behind the United States. There is still a large number of hightech products imported, technical support, and patent demand.

The United States leads the world in the comprehensive strength of high-tech R\&D and application. In order to protect its own interests, maintain its competitive advantages between countries, and even involve certain political purposes, it will naturally restrict the export of high-tech products, technologies, and patents to China. In particular, advanced technology and equipment that are urgently needed for China's economic development.

Successive U.S. government hawks have always advocated restricting China, and have also thrown out the "China threat theory," believing that high-tech exports will threaten U.S. national security and break U.S. technological superiority. Of course, high-tech products are also exported in China, but the level is not enough, and the volume is not large. In the case of strict export blockages in the United States, there is naturally a corresponding trade surplus, and technology-intensive products are usually capital-intensive products, and the unit price of the product relatively high, the US restrictions will also have a magnifying effect on its overall trade deficit with China.

Fifth, FDI transfer surplus. Foreign direct investment also has a great impact on the trade surplus. In 2016, my country's actually utilized foreign capital was $\$ 125$ billion, a 140-fold increase from 1983.

In the past three decades, with the rise of China's economy, the opportunities for economic development have been paid attention to and deepened by global investors. China has become one of the countries with the most FDI. The survey results show that from 2017 to 2019, China is not only the most important source of investment for cross-border investment but also the best investment destination after the United States, which is clearly ahead of other economies.

The main reason for FDI flowing into China is that China has experienced a long development phase with OEM and primary processing roles in the development process. Other Asian countries, such as South Korea and Japan, have developed more than China. There is a need for upgrading the internal industrial structure, so natural labor-intensive industries will be transferred to China to do this, which is also in line with the actual situation of China's corresponding development stage.

However, the main purpose of these FDI flows into China is not to promote technological development, but to use China's cheap labor to build factories for production and export the manufactured products to the United States and other countries. Since the United States uses the method of trade statistics of origin exports, this part of the trade balance should belong to east Asian countries is counted as China's export balance, and the trade surplus created by FDI accounts for an increasing proportion of China's total surplus.

## Chapter 3. Conclusion

### 3.1 Summary

Through the results of multiple linear regression and Granger causality test, the following conclusions could be drawn:

1. The exchange rate of RMB against the US dollar has a negative correlation with the US trade deficit with China. That is, as the exchange rate of RMB against the US dollar continues to decline, the US trade deficit with China will continue to increase.

This statistically negative correlation means that the appreciation of the renminbi against the US dollar will widen the US trade deficit with China, which is contrary to the view that the US has consistently demanded that the appreciation of the renminbi ease the huge trade deficit.

The reason may be that the balance of trade depends on the combined role of imports and exports.

From a macro perspective, the appreciation of the renminbi will indeed impact traditional products with low added value and traditional industries dominated by labor-intensive enterprises. But at the same time, it will force China's industrial transfer, adjustment, and upgrade in a market-oriented manner.

Microscopically, the appreciation of the renminbi also helps Chinese companies to obtain better resources, technology, and knowledge, which in turn promotes the improvement of Chinese companies' productivity and product competitiveness and expands exports.

In addition, some Chinese products, such as photovoltaic modules, have a relatively stable share in the world market and have obvious price advantages. The appreciation of the renminbi, while slightly increasing the terminal selling price, can also enable companies to reduce anti-dumping or anti-dumping against Chinese products in western countries. Subsidies review pressure, thus solidifying the export share.
2. The results of multiple linear regression show that there are many reasons for the huge US trade deficit with China. The US GDP, PCE, GPDI, and GCEGI all have huge impacts on the US trade deficit with China. The elasticity of the deficit is greater than the elasticity of the USD-CNY exchange rate with respect to the USChina trade deficit. Therefore, aside from other possible reasons, it is unreasonable to simply blame the US-China trade deficit on the USD-CNY exchange rate.
3. Granger causality test results show that the change in the RMB exchange rate during the two lags is not the Granger cause of the change in the US trade deficit with China. While The change in the US trade deficit with China is the Granger reason for the change in the RMB exchange rate.

### 3.2 Contributions

Based on the growing US-China trade war, this paper reviews the development trend of the RMB exchange rate and the US-China trade deficit from 2001 to 2019 and uses the ordinary least squares estimation method and Granger causality test to
analyze the RMB exchange rate and the statistical dependence of the US-China trade deficit.

On January 15, China and the United States formally signed the first-stage economic and trade agreement. Two days before, on January 13, the US Treasury Department released a semi-annual report on the macroeconomic and foreign exchange policies of major US trading partners. The report said that the recognition of China as a "currency manipulator" was canceled, but China was still on the watch list. This also verifies the accuracy of my conclusion.

Recently, there are a lot of researches on the US-China trade deficit and USD-CNY exchange rate, but this article selects PCE, GPDI, GCEGI in the model construction based on the previous literature empirical research ideas, and the monthly and quarterly data from 2001 to 2019 are used as explanatory variables.

Also, one of the conclusions of this article is that the appreciation of the renminbi against the US dollar will make the US-China trade deficit widen, contrary to the view that the US has consistently demanded that the appreciation of the renminbi alleviate the huge trade deficit. This article gives preliminary thoughts on the reasons that may lead to this conclusion.

### 3.3 Limitations

There are two main limitations of data in my article.

First, the statistical calibers of China and the United States are different. There are different standards and standards in the statistics of foreign trade between China and the United States, which leads to great controversy on trade surplus and deficit data. Most of the goods exported by our country are not directly delivered, but need to be re-exported in the middle, which leads to statistical errors. In addition, customs work principles and differences in quotation methods are also the reasons for the differences in trade data.

Second, due to the limited data sources and unreliable authenticity, I did not choose various data from China. This is essential in more in-depth research.

## Bibliographies

1．Groenewold，N．\＆He，L．The US－China trade imbalance：Will revaluing the RMB help（much）？［J］．Economics Letters，2007，96（1）：0－132．
2．McKinnon，R．\＆Schnabl，G．Exchange Rate and financial repression：The conflicted emergence of the RMB as an international currency［J］．China \＆World Economy，2014，22（03）：1－35．
3．McKinnon，R．\＆Schnabl，G．China and its Dollar exchange rate：A worldwide stabilising influence？［J］．The World Economy，2012，35（6）：667－693．
4．McKinnon，R．China＇s Exchange Rate appreciation in the light of the earlier Japanese experience［J］．Pacific Economic Review，2006，11（3）：287－298．
5．Mckinnon．R．\＆Schnabl，G．The case for stabilizing China＇s Exchange Rate： Setting the stage for fiscal expansion［J］．China \＆World Economy，2010，17（1）： 1－32．
6．Rodrik，D．Making room for China in the world economy［J］．Comparative Economic \＆Social Systems，2010，100（2）：89－93．
7．Rodrik，D．The real exchange rate and economic growth［J］．Brookings Papers on Economic Activity，2009，2008（2）：365－412．
8．Stiglitz，J．E．，Ocampo，J．，Spiegel，S．，et al．Open Economy Complications［J］．Stability with Growth，2006：87－105．
9．Tyers，R．，Bain，I．\＆Bu，Y．China＇s equilibrium real exchange rate：A counterfactual analysis［J］．Pacific Economic Review，2010，13（1）：17－39．
10．Thorbecke，W．，\＆Smith，G．How would an appreciation of the renminbi and other east asian currencies affect China＇s exports？［J］．Review of International Economics，2010，18（1）：95－108．
11．Thorbecke，W．，The effect of exchange rate changes on trade in east Asia［J］． Journal of International Commerce，Economics and Policy，2011，2（01）：85－ 102.

12．Wolf，M．Notes on Equilibrium Exchange Rates：January 2010［J］．Policy Briefs，2010，2（4）：381－383．
13．Williamson，J．The strange history of the Washington consensus［J］．Journal of Post Keynesian Economics，2004，27（2）：195－206．
14．Krugman，P．Will there be a Dollar crisis？［J］．Economic Policy，2007，22（7）： 435－467．
15．安辉，黄万阳，人民币汇率水平和波动对国际贸易的影响—基于中美和中日的实证研究［J］．金融研究，2009，10：83－93．
16．巴曙松，王志峰，当前人民币汇率争议及汇率形成机制改革方向：文献综述［J］．浙江金融，2010，8：7－9．
17．陈宗义，人民币汇率对中国长期贸易顺差的影响性分析——基于 TVP－VAR模型的实证检验［J］．统计与信息论坛，2012，27（2）：62－66．
18．戴世宏，人民币汇率与中日贸易收支实证研究［J］．金融研究，2006，6： 150－158．

19．丁志杰，严影和丁玥，人民币汇率市场化改革四十年：进程，经验与展望［J］．管理世界，2018，10：24－32．
20．冯明，刘庆和刘淳，人民币汇率重要吗？——中美双边贸易影响因素的实证分析［J］．投资研究，2012，6：3－15．
21．冯宗宪，李祥发，中美经济因素，人民币实际汇率波动与中美双边贸易差额研究［J］．国际经贸探索，2013，29（7）：4－15．
22．谷宇，高铁梅和付学文，国际资本流动背景下人民币汇率的均衡水平及短期波动［J］．金融研究，2008，5：1－13．
23．谷宇，郭苏莹，异质预期视角下汇率沟通对人民币汇率预期的影响机制及效应分析——基于彭博调查数据的经验研究［J］．经济科学，2018，6：31－ 43.

24．高善文，中美贸易战的汇率影响［J］．清华金融评论，2018，12：71－72．
25．高伟刚，蓝天，人民币实际汇率及其波动对中美进出口贸易影响的实证研究——基于 VAR 模型和 VEC 模型的分析［J］．现代管理科学，2013， 3：59－61．
26．国家发展改革委经济研究所课题组，经济学界和国际金融机构对人民币汇率的看法［J］．中国物价，2005，10：49－54．
27．高铁梅，计量经济分析方法与建模［M］．北京：清华大学出版社，2005：31－ 32
28．管涛，货币供应与汇率：中国＂货币超发＂必然导致人民币贬值吗？［J］．金融研究，2018．12：19－35．
29．黄益平，冷静思辨人民币汇率［J］．中国经贸，2010，4：55－56．
30．黄珊珊，汇率与贸易收支关系的研究综述［J］．经济师，2009，9：47，49．
31．黄泽民，世界经济大变局背景下的人民币汇率展望 $[\mathrm{J}]$ 。金融经济学研究，2018，6（33）：3－9．
32．黄基伟，于中釷，中美贸易逆差与人民币升值的悖论研究［J］．国际贸易问题，2011，3：140－149．
33．贺力平，范言慧和范小航，美元汇率与美国国际收支平衡：变动的关系和初步解释［J］．金融研究，2006，7：1－12．
34．贺力平，人民币汇率与近年来中国经常账户顺差［J］．金融研究，2008，3： 13－27．
35．贺刚，人民币汇率严重低估了吗［J］．国际金融研究，2012，2：4－15．
36．金雪军，王义中，理解人民币汇率的均衡，失调，波动与调整［J］．经济研究，2008，1：46－59．
37．李子奈，潘文卿，计量经济学［M］．北京：高等教育出版社，2005：330－ 331，356－358．
38．李海菠，人民币实际汇率与中国对外贸易的关系—基于 1973－2001 年数据的实证分析［J］．世界经济研究，2003，7：62－67．

39．李朋林，唐珺，人民币汇率波动与中美商品贸易相关性实证研究——基于2006年－2018 年中美商品贸易的经验数据［J］．投资研究，2018，10：21－ 30.

40．李宏彬，马弘和熊艳艳等，人民币汇率对企业进出口贸易的影响——来自中国企业的实证研究［J］．金融研究，2011，2：1－16．
41．王凯，庞震和潘颖，人民币实际汇率波动对中国贸易影响的实证分析［J］．金融理论与实践，2011，1：52－56．
42．李皓，章冬梅，人民币实际汇率及波动率对中美贸易的影响——基于协整检验和ECM 的实证分析［J］．经济问题，2011，2：58－62．
43．刘洋，陈守东和吴萍，中美双边贸易汇率弹性与收入弹性的新变化 ———基于TVP－VECM 时变协整模型［J］．经济问题探索，2018，10：163－170．
44．林毅夫，关于人民币汇率问题的思考与政策建议［J］．世界经济，2007，3：3－ 12.

45．麦金农，邹至庄，国际著名学者关于人民币升值是非评说［J］．国际经济评论，2005，12：5－9．
46．马萍，刘兰和雷茵，人民币汇率与我国国际收支关系的理论和实证研究 $[\mathrm{J}]$ ．商场现代化，2014，9：161－162．
47．彭红枫，罗宁欣和李鹤然，人民币中间价定价机制改革效果评估与展望 $[\mathrm{J}]$ ．世界经济研究，2018，11：29－43．
48．潘家栋，人民币汇率变动对出口持续时间的影响：以中美农产品出口为例 ［J］．国际经贸探索，2018，9：97－111．
49．任云鹏，高琦，人民币汇率与贸易收支关系的实证分析［J］．商场现代化， 2007，12：389－390．
50．沈国兵，美中贸易收支与人民币汇率关系：实证分析［J］．当代财经， 2005，1：43－47．
51．沈国兵，杨毅，人民币实际有效汇率与中国贸易收支关系—1990－2004 月度数据分析［J］．经济研究，2005，5：11－16．
52．上海财经大学高等研究院课题组，人民币汇率走势判断［J］．中国经济报告，2018，11：81－82。
53．天大研究院课题组，王元龙，破解人民币汇率难题的应对之策——兼评人民币汇率低估论［J］．经济研究参考，2010，42：4－12．
54．温建东，邹佳洪，人民币汇率水平评估［J］．经济参考研究，2015，44：71－ 78.

55．王胜，李赛君，国际价格竞争与人民币汇率传递的实证研究［J］．金融研究，2009，5：9－21．
56．王泽填，姚洋，人民币均衡汇率估计［J］．金融研究，2008，12：22－36．
57．王乃嘉，杨剑啸和姜奕玖，人民币汇率体制改革进程与展望 $[\mathrm{J}]$ 。征信 2018，11：84－87．

58．王戎婧，程京京和郭雯，汇率是影响中美贸易的决定因素吗？——基于 VAR 模型的经验研究［J］．金融理论探索，2018，4：29－40．
59．伍德里奇，计量经济学导论：现代观点［M］．北京，中国人民大学出版社， 2003.
60．肖奎喜，廖文秀，人民币汇率，出口贸易结构与中美贸易收支——基于 SITC 标准产业数据的实证分析［J］．国际经贸探索，2012，28（12）：60－72．
61．项后军，潘锡泉，人民币汇率真的被低估了吗？［J］．统计研究，2010，8： 21－32．
62．夏凡，人民币汇率形成机制改革与金融风险防范［J］．当代经济，2018，24： 13－15．
63．谢博婕，西村友作和门明，中美贸易失衡与人民币汇率＂操纵＂——基于汇率与贸易收支关系的实证研究 $[J]$ ．经济与管理，2013，9：43－48．
64．肖耿，从结构与制度视角解释中国汇率政策和外部经济失衡［J］．经济与管理，2007，7－8：16－22．
65．叶永刚，胡利琴和黄斌，人民币实际有效汇率和对外贸易收支的关系—中美和中日双边贸易收支的实证研究［J］．金融研究，2006，4：1－11．
66．杨帆，汇率战：中美大国博弈的新阶段——兼驳克鲁格曼关于人民币汇率的言论［J］．福建论坛：人文社会科学版，2010，5：4－7．
67．杨珺晖，人民币汇率与中美贸易结构——基于 HS 分类数据的实证研究 ［J］．经济问题探索，2016，2：134－143．
68．杨雪峰，人民币汇率对我国出口影响的实证研究［J］．世界经济研究，2013， 6：40－44．
69．叶亚飞，石建勋，人民币汇率是否被低估？——基于 BEER 模型的实证研究［J］．当代经济管理，2017，2：86－93．
70．伊相巸，刘东坡，人民币名义均衡汇率估计——基于时变常数模型的实证分析［J］．经济与管理评论，2019，2：128－137
71．张斌，关于人民币汇率改革折衷方案的主要观点［J］．农村金融研究，2010， 2：7－8．
72．张云，李秀珍和唐海燕，人民币贬值和升值的贸易效应一致吗？：基于 ARDL 误差校正方法的检验与比较［J］．世界经济研究，2017，11：52－64．
73．赵先立，何砚，人民币汇率争议进程与升值压力的基本面分析［J］．太平洋学报，2013，4：63－70．
74．赵先立，人民币实际汇率决定与失调的新视角——基于 NOEM 框架［J］．经济评论，
75．朱孟楠，曹春玉，中美贸易战与汇率制度选择——基于动态随机一般均衡模型的政策模拟实验［J］．财贸研究，2019，2：46－63．

## Appendixes

Table 1-1 US-China Trade Balance (2003-2019) (billion USD)

| Year | 2003 | 2004 | 2005 | 2006 | 2007 | 2008 |
| :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: |
| US <br> Export | 28.4 | 34.4 | 41.2 | 53.7 | 62.9 | 69.7 |
| US <br> Import | 152.4 | 196.7 | 243.5 | 287.8 | 321.4 | 337.8 |
| Balance | 124.1 | 162.3 | 202.3 | 234.1 | 258.5 | 268.0 |
| Year | 2009 | 2010 | 2011 | 2012 | 2013 | 2014 |
| US <br> Export | 69.5 | 91.9 | 104.1 | 110.5 | 121.7 | 123.7 |
| US <br> Import | 296.4 | 365.0 | 399.4 | 425.6 | 440.4 | 468.5 |
| Balance | 226.9 | 273.0 | 295.2 | 315.1 | 318.7 | 344.8 |
| Year | 2015 | 2016 | 2017 | 2018 | 2019 |  |
| US <br> Export | 115.9 | 115.6 | 130.4 | 120.1 | 106.6 |  |
| US <br> Import | 483.2 | 462.6 | 505.6 | 539.7 | 452.2 |  |
| Balance | 367.3 | 347.0 | 375.2 | 419.5 | 345.6 |  |

Data Source: https://www.census.gov/foreign-trade/balance/c5700.html

Table 1-2. Basic Conditions of Trade Revenue and Expenditure of the United States and Major Trading Partners in 2019 (billion USD)

| Trade <br> Partners | Germany | Japan | Mexico | Canada | UK |
| :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: |
| US export | 53.5 | 67.7 | 243.0 | 282.4 | 563.3 |
| US import | 117.7 | 136.5 | 314.0 | 300.0 | 530.7 |
| Trade <br> balance | 64.3 | 68.8 | 71.1 | 17.6 | -32.5 |
| Korea | India | Belgium | Netherland | Saudi <br> Arabia | China |
| 48276.06 | 25.7 | 29.9 | 42.2 | 16.3 | 130.4 |
| $71,164.10$ | 48.6 | 15.1 | 17.7 | 18.9 | 505.6 |
| 22888.04 | 22.9 | -14.8 | -24.5 | 02.6 | 375.2 |

Data Source: https://www.census.gov/foreign-trade/balance/c5700.html

Table 2-1. US-China Trade Balance (2003-2019) (billion USD)

| Year | 2003 | 2004 | 2005 | 2006 | 2007 | 2008 | 2009 | 2010 | 2011 |
| :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: |
| January | 9.3 | 11.5 | 15.3 | 18.0 | 21.3 | 20.6 | 20.6 | 18.3 | 23.4 |
| February | 7.6 | 8.3 | 13.9 | 13.8 | 18.5 | 18.4 | 14.2 | 16.5 | 18.9 |
| March | 7.7 | 10.4 | 12.8 | 15.7 | 17.3 | 16.1 | 15.6 | 16.9 | 18.0 |
| April | 9.4 | 12.0 | 14.9 | 17.2 | 19.5 | 20.3 | 16.8 | 19.3 | 21.6 |
| May | 9.9 | 12.2 | 15.8 | 17.9 | 20.2 | 21.4 | 17.5 | 22.3 | 24.9 |
| June | 10.0 | 14.1 | 17.6 | 19.7 | 21.5 | 21.7 | 18.4 | 26.1 | 26.5 |
| July | 11.4 | 14.9 | 17.7 | 19.8 | 23.9 | 25.0 | 20.4 | 25.9 | 27.0 |
| August | 11.7 | 15.4 | 18.7 | 22.1 | 22.9 | 25.6 | 20.3 | 28.2 | 29.0 |
| September | 12.7 | 15.6 | 20.1 | 23.1 | 24.1 | 27.8 | 22.1 | 28.1 | 28.0 |
| October | 13.7 | 16.8 | 20.5 | 24.5 | 26.0 | 27.9 | 22.7 | 25.7 | 28.1 |
| November | 10.8 | 16.7 | 18.6 | 23.2 | 24.2 | 23.1 | 20.2 | 25.1 | 26.8 |
| December | 9.9 | 14.2 | 16.3 | 19.1 | 19.1 | 20.0 | 18.1 | 20.7 | 23.1 |
| Year | 2012 | 2013 | 2014 | 2015 | 2016 | 2017 | 2018 | 2019 |  |
| January | 26.1 | 27.8 | 28.1 | 29.1 | 28.9 | 31.4 | 35.9 | 34.5 |  |
| February | 19.3 | 23.6 | 20.9 | 22.8 | 28.0 | 23.1 | 29.3 | 24.8 |  |
| March | 21.6 | 17.8 | 20.5 | 31.3 | 20.9 | 24.5 | 25.7 | 20.7 |  |
| April | 24.5 | 24.2 | 27.4 | 26.8 | 24.3 | 27.7 | 27.8 | 26.9 |  |
| May | 26.0 | 27.9 | 29.0 | 30.3 | 29.0 | 31.9 | 33.5 | 30.2 |  |
| June | 27.5 | 26.7 | 30.3 | 31.8 | 29.7 | 32.6 | 33.8 | 30.0 |  |
| July | 29.4 | 30.1 | 31.0 | 31.7 | 30.3 | 33.6 | 37.0 | 32.8 |  |
| August | 28.7 | 29.8 | 30.5 | 35.0 | 33.8 | 35.0 | 38.6 | 31.8 |  |
| September | 29.1 | 30.6 | 35.8 | 36.3 | 32.5 | 34.5 | 40.3 | 31.6 |  |
| October | 29.4 | 28.7 | 32.7 | 33.0 | 31.2 | 35.2 | 43.1 | 31.3 |  |
| November | 29.0 | 27.1 | 30.4 | 31.3 | 30.6 | 35.4 | 37.9 | 26.4 |  |
| December | 24.5 | 24.5 | 28.2 | 27.9 | 27.7 | 30.8 | 36.8 | 24.8 |  |

Data Source: https://www.census.gov/foreign-trade/balance/c5700.html

Table 2-2. US GDP, PCE, GPDI, GCEGI (2003-2019)

| Million USD | Gross domestic product | Personal consumption expenditures | Gross private domestic investment | Government consumption expenditures and gross investment |
| :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: |
| 2003.1 | 3,160.821 | 2,079.851 | 571.315 | 636.568 |
| 2003.2 | 3,177.576 | 2,085.190 | 569.265 | 649.101 |
| 2003.3 | 3,167.527 | 2,092.812 | 559.148 | 648.646 |
| 2003.4 | 3,176.317 | 2,124.783 | 531.720 | 658.092 |
| 2004.1 | 3,205.565 | 2,131.145 | 550.694 | 667.818 |
| 2004.2 | 3,223.251 | 2,142.032 | 556.229 | 674.219 |
| 2004.3 | 3,238.942 | 2,157.011 | 556.153 | 679.440 |
| 2004.4 | 3,241.004 | 2,168.588 | 555.164 | 684.286 |
| 2005.1 | 3,257.792 | 2,178.132 | 559.869 | 682.073 |
| 2005.2 | 3,288.022 | 2,202.377 | 562.821 | 692.805 |
| 2005.3 | 3,343.089 | 2,234.847 | 582.723 | 692.810 |
| 2005.4 | 3,382.178 | 2,252.204 | 603.285 | 696.581 |
| 2006.1 | 3,401.627 | 2,274.104 | 603.632 | 698.484 |
| 2006.2 | 3,426.562 | 2,288.867 | 625.217 | 702.481 |
| 2006.3 | 3,487.594 | 2,334.459 | 647.654 | 702.057 |
| 2006.4 | 3,524.770 | 2,352.306 | 666.090 | 703.523 |
| 2007.1 | 3,543.174 | 2,377.863 | 657.627 | 704.736 |
| 2007.2 | 3,572.939 | 2,396.308 | 664.466 | 710.243 |
| 2007.3 | 3,593.360 | 2,405.335 | 684.410 | 707.676 |
| 2007.4 | 3,636.530 | 2,432.306 | 693.457 | 713.374 |
| 2008.1 | 3,647.396 | 2,445.256 | 688.929 | 716.031 |
| 2008.2 | 3,650.658 | 2,459.527 | 681.900 | 717.607 |
| 2008.3 | 3,679.233 | 2,484.602 | 665.758 | 722.271 |
| 2008.4 | 3,681.506 | 2,497.664 | 659.632 | 720.686 |
| 2009.1 | 3,709.666 | 2,506.151 | 668.675 | 726.759 |
| 2009.2 | 3,734.617 | 2,517.290 | 664.530 | 732.012 |
| 2009.3 | 3,747.946 | 2,520.450 | 651.303 | 734.953 |
| 2009.4 | 3,722.363 | 2,515.242 | 629.368 | 737.997 |
| 2010.1 | 3,740.839 | 2,519.485 | 618.156 | 743.745 |
| 2010.2 | 3,722.911 | 2,501.274 | 600.943 | 754.040 |
| 2010.3 | 3,644.246 | 2,471.181 | 547.510 | 758.971 |
| 2010.4 | 3,593.755 | 2,462.708 | 484.420 | 760.136 |
| 2011.1 | 3,588.890 | 2,451.594 | 455.137 | 774.000 |
| 2011.2 | 3,600.619 | 2,466.466 | 451.170 | 778.250 |
| 2011.3 | 3,635.475 | 2,466.201 | 487.388 | 776.706 |
| 2011.4 | 3,651.211 | 2,479.422 | 503.225 | 771.070 |


| 2012.1 | $3,686.483$ | $2,499.597$ | 529.227 | 776.552 |
| :--- | :--- | :--- | :--- | :--- |
| 2012.2 | $3,711.365$ | $2,515.771$ | 546.426 | 775.883 |
| 2012.4 | $3,734.750$ | $2,541.532$ | 541.536 | 767.881 |
| 2013.1 | $3,720.325$ | $2,554.281$ | 531.479 | 753.054 |
| 2012.2 | $3,747.389$ | $2,559.419$ | 551.993 | 752.249 |
| 2013.3 | $3,755.287$ | $2,570.559$ | 553.506 | 747.502 |
| 2013.4 | $3,797.564$ | $2,579.194$ | 593.436 | 744.570 |
| 2014.1 | $3,822.759$ | $2,594.756$ | 607.399 | 740.929 |
| 2014.2 | $3,840.604$ | $2,599.158$ | 622.286 | 737.345 |
| 2014.3 | $3,845.201$ | $2,606.030$ | 620.505 | 735.214 |
| 2014.4 | $3,846.064$ | $2,613.301$ | 615.547 | 728.067 |
| 2015.1 | $3,872.970$ | $2,625.575$ | 635.762 | 720.144 |
| 2015.2 | $3,880.390$ | $2,630.982$ | 643.572 | 716.558 |
| 2015.3 | $3,910.334$ | $2,643.284$ | 664.196 | 712.989 |
| 2015.4 | $3,948.482$ | $2,665.556$ | 673.010 | 707.863 |
| 2016.1 | $3,939.393$ | $2,678.346$ | 663.127 | 706.800 |
| 2016.2 | $3,983.956$ | $2,701.279$ | 687.657 | 708.667 |
| 2016.3 | $4,034.878$ | $2,727.466$ | 706.611 | 712.377 |
| 2016.4 | $4,055.056$ | $2,761.306$ | 704.335 | 711.260 |
| 2017.1 | $4,087.493$ | $2,786.322$ | 726.357 | 713.932 |
| 2017.2 | $4,115.222$ | $2,806.987$ | 727.824 | 719.971 |
| 2017.3 | $4,131.897$ | $2,826.142$ | 731.377 | 722.063 |
| 2017.4 | $4,136.905$ | $2,844.818$ | 719.798 | 722.560 |
| 2018.1 | $4,142.893$ | $2,857.637$ | 712.460 | 725.797 |
| 2018.2 | $4,165.879$ | $2,884.432$ | 707.559 | 724.083 |
| 2018.3 | $4,194.537$ | $2,904.525$ | 711.812 | 724.984 |
| 2018.4 | $4,212.855$ | $2,925.530$ | 726.430 | 725.296 |
| 2019.1 | $4,225.810$ | $2,939.510$ | 724.249 | 724.157 |
| 2019.2 | $4,257.771$ | $2,963.240$ | 731.169 | 723.808 |
| 2019.3 | $4,290.974$ | $2,979.144$ | 744.134 | 724.991 |
| 2019.4 | $4,321.624$ | $3,008.807$ | 752.763 | 730.379 |
| $D \mathrm{~S}$ |  |  |  |  |
| 2 |  |  |  |  |

Data Source: http://www.bea.gov/

Table 2-3. USD-CNY Quarter Exchange Rate (2003-2019)
(100USD/CNY)

| Year | 2003 | 2004 | 2005 | 2006 | 2007 | 2008 | 2009 | 2010 | 2011 |
| :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: |
| 1st Quarter | 827.71 | 827.7 | 827.65 | 805.04 | 776.11 | 716.1 | 683.6 | 682.69 | 658.4 |
| 2ndQuarter | 827.7 | 827.69 | 827.65 | 801.25 | 767.6 | 695.67 | 682.96 | 682.34 | 650.19 |
| 3rd Quarter | 827.71 | 827.67 | 814.1 | 796.7 | 756.05 | 683.99 | 683.1 | 677.13 | 641.79 |
| 4th Quarter | 827.69 | 827.65 | 808.29 | 786.41 | 743.07 | 683.42 | 682.76 | 666.02 | 634.18 |
| Year | 2012 | 2013 | 2014 | 2015 | 2016 | 2017 | 2018 | 2019 |  |
| 1st Quarter | 630.83 | 627.91 | 611.76 | 613.73 | 653.01 | 688.54 | 634.25 | 674.47 |  |
| 2ndQuarter | 630.69 | 620.53 | 615.82 | 612.02 | 653.17 | 685.64 | 639.87 | 680.76 |  |
| 3rd Quarter | 633.45 | 616.74 | 615.68 | 626.38 | 666.54 | 666.75 | 681.15 | 700.59 |  |
| 4th Quarter | 629.99 | 613.08 | 613.7 | 638.76 | 683.33 | 660.94 | 691.85 | 704.92 |  |

Data Source: http://www.bea.gov/

Table 2-4. US-China Quarter Trade Balance (2013-2019)

| Year | 2003 | 2004 | 2005 | 2006 | 2007 | 2008 | 2009 | 2010 | 2011 |
| :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: |
| 1st Quarter | 24.6 | 30.2 | 42.0 | 47.5 | 57.1 | 55.2 | 50.4 | 51.7 | 60.3 |
| 2ndQuarter | 29.3 | 38.4 | 48.3 | 54.8 | 61.2 | 63.4 | 52.7 | 67.7 | 73.0 |
| 3rd Quarter | 35.8 | 46.0 | 56.5 | 65.0 | 70.9 | 78.5 | 62.8 | 82.2 | 84.0 |
| 4th Quarter | 34.4 | 47.7 | 55.4 | 66.8 | 69.3 | 71.0 | 61.0 | 71.4 | 78.0 |
| Year | 2012 | 2013 | 2014 | 2015 | 2016 | 2017 | 2018 | 2019 |  |
| 1st Quarter | 67.0 | 69.2 | 69.5 | 83.2 | 77.9 | 78.9 | 90.8 | 80.0 |  |
| 2ndQuarter | 78.0 | 78.7 | 86.7 | 89.0 | 83.0 | 92.2 | 95.1 | 87.1 |  |
| 3rd Quarter | 87.2 | 90.5 | 97.3 | 103.0 | 96.7 | 103.1 | 115.9 | 96.2 |  |
| 4th Quarter | 82.9 | 80.3 | 91.3 | 92.2 | 89.5 | 101.4 | 117.8 | 82.4 |  |

Data Source: http://www.bea.gov/

Table 2-5. USD-CNY Quarter Exchange Rate after Census X12 (2003-2019)

| Year | 2003 | 2004 | 2005 | 2006 | 2007 | 2008 | 2009 | 2010 | 2011 |
| :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: |
| 1st Quarter | 827.64 | 827.6 | 827.62 | 827.66 | 827.69 | 805.14 | 776.26 | 716.28 | 683.81 |
| 2ndQuarter | 827.6 | 827.54 | 827.5 | 827.49 | 827.54 | 801.26 | 767.72 | 695.78 | 683.02 |
| 3rd <br> Quarter | 827.75 | 827.72 | 827.66 | 827.52 | 813.91 | 796.54 | 755.87 | 683.79 | 682.77 |
| 4th <br> Quarter | 827.84 | 827.95 | 828.03 | 827.97 | 808.44 | 786.36 | 742.95 | 683.36 | 682.93 |
| Year | 2012 | 2013 | 2014 | 2015 | 2016 | 2017 | 2018 | 2019 |  |
| 1st Quarter | 682.82 | 658.53 | 630.78 | 627.48 | 610.77 | 612.25 | 651.02 | 686.18 |  |
| 2ndQuarter | 682.39 | 650.23 | 631.02 | 621.4 | 617.39 | 614.1 | 655.82 | 688.73 |  |
| 3rd <br> Quarter | 676.62 | 641.15 | 632.78 | 616.31 | 615.63 | 626.8 | 667.33 | 667.63 |  |
| 4th <br> Quarter | 666.41 | 634.68 | 630.37 | 613.06 | 613.16 | 637.7 | 681.85 | 659.31 |  |

Data Source: Table 2-3

Table 2-6. US-China Quarter Trade Balance after Census X12 (2003-2019)

| Year | 2003 | 2004 | 2005 | 2006 | 2007 | 2008 | 2009 | 2010 | 2011 |
| :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: |
| 1st Quarter | 21.3 | 22.4 | 28.9 | 35.2 | 48.5 | 54.8 | 66.3 | 65.0 | 60.0 |
| 2ndQuarter | 19.6 | 24.8 | 30.1 | 39.5 | 50.0 | 57.1 | 64.3 | 66.6 | 54.8 |
| 3rd Quarter | 21.2 | 26.9 | 31.8 | 41.2 | 51.0 | 58.7 | 63.4 | 69.2 | 55.0 |
| 4th Quarter | 20.9 | 28.2 | 32.8 | 45.3 | 52.2 | 62.3 | 64.5 | 66.5 | 58.0 |
| Year | 2012 | 2013 | 2014 | 2015 | 2016 | 2017 | 2018 | 2019 |  |
| 1st Quarter | 61.8 | 71.5 | 78.8 | 80.5 | 80.2 | 95.0 | 88.5 | 89.6 |  |
| 2ndQuarter | 69.4 | 73.9 | 78.3 | 79.2 | 87.5 | 90.5 | 84.5 | 94.0 |  |
| 3rd Quarter | 72.0 | 74.1 | 77.5 | 80.6 | 86.8 | 91.9 | 86.7 | 92.7 |  |
| 4th Quarter | 68.8 | 75.9 | 81.0 | 78.7 | 89.7 | 90.4 | 87.3 | 98.6 |  |

Data Source: Table 2-4

Table 2-7. US GDP, PCE, GPDI, GCEGI after Census X12 (2003-2019)

|  | Gross domestic <br> product | Personal <br> consumption <br> expenditures | Gross private <br> domestic <br> investment | Government <br> consumption <br> expenditures and <br> gross investment |
| :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: |
| 2003.1 | $3,162.0$ | $2,080.7$ | 571.8 | 637.9 |
| 2003.2 | $3,179.2$ | $2,087.0$ | 569.1 | 647.2 |
| 2003.3 | $3,164.7$ | $2,091.1$ | 558.8 | 649.3 |
| 2003.4 | $3,176.5$ | $2,124.0$ | 531.9 | 658.1 |


| 2004.1 | 3,206.4 | 2,131.9 | 551.0 | 669.1 |
| :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: |
| 2004.2 | 3,225.0 | 2,143.6 | 556.2 | 672.5 |
| 2004.3 | 3,236.4 | 2,155.5 | 555.8 | 679.8 |
| 2004.4 | 3,241.2 | 2,167.8 | 555.1 | 684.5 |
| 2005.1 | 3,258.0 | 2,178.9 | 560.5 | 683.1 |
| 2005.2 | 3,290.1 | 2,203.7 | 562.8 | 691.5 |
| 2005.3 | 3,341.2 | 2,233.5 | 582.1 | 692.6 |
| 2005.4 | 3,381.5 | 2,251.6 | 602.9 | 696.9 |
| 2006.1 | 3,401.6 | 2,274.9 | 604.9 | 699.5 |
| 2006.2 | 3,429.0 | 2,289.9 | 625.2 | 701.6 |
| 2006.3 | 3,456.6 | 2,309.3 | 634.1 | 704.5 |
| 2006.4 | 3,485.6 | 2,334.1 | 646.5 | 702.5 |
| 2007.1 | 3,525.8 | 2,353.2 | 668.2 | 704.5 |
| 2007.2 | 3,545.1 | 2,378.6 | 657.9 | 704.4 |
| 2007.3 | 3,572.5 | 2,395.0 | 663.6 | 709.0 |
| 2007.4 | 3,589.7 | 2,405.3 | 682.3 | 708.0 |
| 2008.1 | 3,639.6 | 2,433.0 | 696.4 | 714.7 |
| 2008.2 | 3,648.4 | 2,445.8 | 689.4 | 715.8 |
| 2008.3 | 3,650.3 | 2,458.4 | 681.0 | 716.0 |
| 2008.4 | 3,674.2 | 2,484.7 | 662.9 | 722.5 |
| 2009.1 | 3,687.0 | 2,498.1 | 663.2 | 722.4 |
| 2009.2 | 3,709.5 | 2,506.5 | 668.9 | 726.7 |
| 2009.3 | 3,734.3 | 2,516.6 | 663.4 | 730.2 |
| 2009.4 | 3,741.5 | 2,520.6 | 648.5 | 734.8 |
| 2010.1 | 3,730.4 | 2,515.3 | 633.2 | 740.4 |
| 2010.2 | 3,739.7 | 2,519.7 | 618.2 | 743.4 |
| 2010.3 | 3,722.5 | 2,501.0 | 599.7 | 752.1 |
| 2010.4 | 3,637.1 | 2,471.4 | 545.2 | 758.5 |
| 2011.1 | 3,603.0 | 2,462.3 | 487.7 | 763.1 |
| 2011.2 | 3,587.1 | 2,451.8 | 455.0 | 773.5 |
| 2011.3 | 3,600.2 | 2,466.6 | 449.8 | 776.1 |
| 2011.4 | 3,628.6 | 2,466.2 | 485.7 | 776.2 |
| 2012.1 | 3,660.3 | 2,479.0 | 506.8 | 774.3 |
| 2012.2 | 3,684.7 | 2,499.9 | 529.1 | 776.0 |
| 2012.4 | 3,710.9 | 2,516.0 | 544.3 | 773.8 |
| 2013.1 | 3,728.5 | 2,541.3 | 539.8 | 767.5 |
| 2012.2 | 3,728.2 | 2,554.0 | 535.5 | 755.9 |
| 2013.3 | 3,746.2 | 2,559.8 | 551.9 | 751.8 |
| 2013.4 | 3,754.3 | 2,570.8 | 551.2 | 745.5 |
| 2014.1 | 3,792.6 | 2,578.8 | 591.7 | 744.4 |
| 2014.2 | 3,829.6 | 2,594.5 | 611.7 | 743.4 |
| 2014.3 | 3,842.6 | 2,612.6 | 613.8 | 711.5 |
| 2014.4 | 3,842.6 | 2,612.6 | 613.8 | 728.2 |


| 2015.1 | $3,879.1$ | $2,625.5$ | 639.9 | 721.9 |
| :--- | :--- | :--- | :--- | :--- |
| 2015.2 | $3,880.3$ | $2,631.3$ | 643.8 | 716.2 |
| 2015.3 | $3,906.6$ | $2,644.1$ | 661.5 | 711.5 |
| 2015.4 | $3,946.6$ | $2,664.3$ | 671.6 | 708.2 |
| 2016.1 | $3,945.3$ | $2,678.4$ | 666.9 | 708.0 |
| 2016.2 | $3,984.2$ | $2,701.6$ | 687.9 | 708.4 |
| 2016.3 | $4,029.7$ | $2,728.6$ | 703.7 | 711.1 |
| 2016.4 | $4,053.8$ | $2,759.6$ | 703.5 | 711.7 |
| 2017.1 | $4,094.1$ | $2,786.7$ | 729.8 | 714.8 |
| 2017.2 | $4,115.7$ | $2,807.2$ | 728.2 | 719.9 |
| 2017.3 | $4,125.4$ | $2,827.3$ | 728.3 | 721.0 |
| 2017.4 | $4,136.1$ | $2,842.8$ | 719.3 | 722.9 |
| 2018.1 | $4,150.2$ | $2,858.4$ | 715.3 | 726.6 |
| 2018.2 | $4,166.0$ | $2,884.5$ | 708.3 | 724.0 |
| 2018.3 | $4,187.8$ | $2,905.8$ | 708.8 | 724.1 |
| 2018.4 | $4,211.9$ | $2,923.1$ | 725.9 | 725.5 |
| 2019.1 | $4,233.5$ | $2,940.8$ | 726.9 | 724.8 |
| 2019.2 | $4,257.7$ | $2,963.0$ | 732.3 | 723.8 |
| 2019.3 | $4,284.1$ | $2,980.5$ | 741.0 | 724.2 |
| 2019.4 | $4,320.9$ | $3,006.2$ | 752.0 | 730.5 |

Data Source: Table 2-2

| Dependent Variable: T |  | Method: Least Squares |  |  |
| :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: |
| Date: 03/21/20 Time: 17:18 |  | Sample (adjusted): 2003Q2 2019Q4 |  |  |
| Included observations: 67 after adjustments |  |  |  |  |
| Variable | Coefficient | Std. Error | t-Statistic | Prob. |
| C | 0.009648 | 0.007752 | 1.244580 | 0.2180 |
| E | -0.662794 | 0.439180 | -1.509164 | 0.1364 |
| A | -8.066319 | 2.280821 | -3.536586 | 0.0008 |
| PI | 1.677168 | 0.310069 | 5.409007 | 0.0000 |
| GCI | 2.202691 | 0.809981 | 2.719435 | 0.0085 |
| PC | 6.775972 | 1.848459 | 3.665742 | 0.0005 |
| R -squared | 0.430696 | Mean dependent var | 0.022835 |  |
| Adjusted R-squared | 0.384032 | S.D. dependent var | 0.045675 |  |
| S.E. of regression | 0.035847 | Akaike info criterion | -3.733813 |  |
| Sum squared resid | 0.078387 | Schwarz criterion | -3.536378 |  |
| Log likelihood | 131.0827 | Hannan-Quinn criter. | -3.655688 |  |
| F-statistic | 9.229673 | Durbin-Watson stat | 1.915984 |  |
| $\operatorname{Prob}(\mathrm{F}-$ statistic) | 0.000001 |  |  |  |


| Heteroskedasticity Test: White |  |  |  |  |
| :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: |
| F-statistic | 0.663375 | Prob. F(20,46) | 0.8398 |  |
| Obs*R-squared | 14.99847 | Prob. Chi- | 0.7765 |  |
| Scaled explained | 12.29251 | Prob. Chi- | 0.9056 |  |
| Test Equation: |  | Dependent Variable: RESID^2 |  |  |
| Method: Least Squares |  | Date: 04/04/20 Time: 13:09 |  |  |
| Sample: 2003Q2 2019Q4 |  | Included observations: 67 |  |  |
| Variable | Coefficient | Std. Error | t-Statistic | Prob. |
| C | 0.000318 | 0.001023 | 0.310553 | 0.7575 |
| E^2 | -1.287686 | 1.615192 | -0.797234 | 0.4294 |
| E*A | -9.830515 | 20.45569 | -0.480576 | 0.6331 |
| E*PI | 1.255703 | 2.501623 | 0.501955 | 0.6181 |
| E*GCI | 8.041779 | 7.408302 | 1.085509 | 0.2834 |
| E*PC | 10.96367 | 18.58844 | 0.589811 | 0.5582 |
| E | -0.051677 | 0.065956 | -0.783517 | 0.4373 |
| A^2 | -74.91195 | 65.08307 | -1.151021 | 0.2557 |
| A*PI | 17.68701 | 15.99086 | 1.106070 | 0.2744 |
| A*GCI | 38.74124 | 33.69171 | 1.149875 | 0.2561 |
| A*PC | 126.9987 | 103.2270 | 1.230286 | 0.2248 |
| A | -0.256576 | 0.312998 | -0.819738 | 0.4166 |
| PI^2 | -0.954125 | 1.024276 | -0.931512 | 0.3565 |
| PI*GCI | -6.773403 | 5.028805 | -1.346921 | 0.1846 |
| PI*PC | -17.05556 | 10.16694 | -1.677550 | 0.1002 |
| PI | 0.033495 | 0.039752 | 0.842588 | 0.4038 |
| GCI^2 | -1.247865 | 7.405096 | -0.168514 | 0.8669 |


| GCI*PC | -52.00028 | 24.57043 | -2.116377 | 0.0398 |
| :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: |
| GCI | 0.248343 | 0.102332 | 2.426834 | 0.0192 |
| PC^2 | -62.69016 | 49.61796 | -1.263457 | 0.2128 |
| PC | 0.417784 | 0.372210 | 1.122441 | 0.2675 |
| R-squared | 0.223858 | Mean dependent | 0.001170 |  |
| Adjusted R-squared | -0.113595 | S.D. dependent var | 0.001658 |  |
| S.E. of regression | 0.001749 | Akaike info | -9.608440 |  |
| Sum squared resid | 0.000141 | Schwarz criterion | -8.917417 |  |
| Log likelihood | 342.8827 | Hannan-Quinn | -9.335001 |  |
| F-statistic | 0.663375 | Durbin-Watson stat | 2.002812 |  |
| Prob(F-statistic) | 0.839832 |  |  |  |


| Pairwise Granger Causality Tests |  |  |  |
| :--- | :--- | :--- | :--- |
| Date: $04 / 05 / 20$ |  |  |  |
| Sample: 2003Q1 2019Q4 |  |  |  |
| Lags: 1 | Obs | F-Statistic | Prob. |
| Null Hypothesis: | 67 | 2.05 |  |
| TD_SA does not Granger Cause ER_SA |  | 0.30718 | 0.5813 |
| ER_SA does not Granger Cause TD_SA |  |  | 0.1085 |


| Pairwise Granger Causality Tests |  |  |  |
| :--- | :--- | :--- | :--- |
| Date: $04 / 05 / 20$ | Time: $10: 06$ |  |  |
| Sample: 2003Q1 2019Q4 |  |  |  |
| Lags: 2 | Obs | F-Statistic | Prob. |
| Null Hypothesis: | 66 | 3.44066 | 0.0384 |
| TD_SA does not Granger Cause ER_SA | 0.75455 | 0.4746 |  |
| ER_SA does not Granger Cause TD_SA |  |  |  |

## 〈국문 초록>

## 환율조작국: 미중 무역 불균형에 대한 중국의 FX 정책 대응

본 논문은 측정 모텔과 경험적 분석을 사용하여 USD-CNY 환율과 무역 적자 사이의 통계적 의존 관계가 있는지 분석하고 환율과 미-중 무역 적자 사이의 영향 정도와 방향에 대해 논의합니다. 미-중 무역은 뜨거운 이슈로 2001-2019 년 사이에 USD-CNY 환율은 상승 추세를 보이며, 한편 미-중 무역 불균형도 크게 확대되었습니다. 본 논문은 Ordinary Least Square, Augment Dickey-Fuller Test 와 Granger Causality Test 를 사용하여 주로 아래 결론을 도달 하였다:

1. USD-CNY 환율은 미-중 무역 불균형과 부정적인 관계를 나타냅니다. 이 현상은 CNY 환율이 감사 될 때 미국-중국 무역 적자가 확대 될 것이라는 것을 의미합니다. 이 결론은 미국의 인민폐 환율이 감사되면 미중 무역 적자를 완화 할수 있다는 의견과 상반됩니다..
2. USD-CNY 환율과 미중 무역의 불균형은 미국 GDP, PCE, GPDI, GCEGI 등 여러 가지 원인이 있다. 이러한 요인들이 미중 무역에 대한 영향은 인민폐의 환율에만 초점을 맞추는 것은 부당합니다.
3. $\mathrm{USD}-\mathrm{CNY}$ 환율과 미중 무역 간에는 일방적 인 인과 관계가 존재합니다.
4. 제품 경쟁력은 무역 불균형의 주요 원인입니다.

주요어: USD-CNY 환율, 미-중 무역, 제품 경쟁력.
학번: 2016-25454


[^0]:    ${ }^{1}$ 巴曙松，王志峰，当前人民币汇率争议及汇率形成机制改革方向：文献综述 $[\mathrm{J}]$ ．浙江金融，2010，8：7－9．
    ${ }^{2}$ Williamson，J．The strange history of the Washington consensus［J］．Journal of Post Keynesian Economics，2004，27（2）：195－206．
    ${ }^{3}$ 黄益平，冷静思辨人民币汇率［J］．中国经贸，2010，4：55－56．
    ${ }^{4}$ Krugman，P．Will there be a Dollar crisis？［J］．Economic Policy，2007，22（7）：435－467．

[^1]:    ${ }^{1}$ 林毅夫，关于人民币汇率问题的思考与政策建议［J］．世界经济，2007，3：3－12．

[^2]:    ${ }^{1}$ 刘洋，陈守东和吴萍，中美双边贸易汇率弹性与收入弹性的新变化——基于 TVP－ VECM 时变协整模型 $[J]$ ．经济问题探索，2018，10：163－170．

[^3]:    ${ }^{1}$ 天大研究院课题组，王元龙，破解人民币汇率难题的应对之策——兼评人民币汇率低估论［J］．经济研究参考，2010，42：4－12．

[^4]:    ${ }^{1}$ 沈国兵，美中贸易收支与人民币汇率关系：实证分析［J］．当代财经，2005，1：43－ 47.
    ${ }^{2}$ 沈国兵，杨毅，人民币实际有效汇率与中国贸易收支关系—1990－2004 月度数据分析［J］．经济研究，2005，5：11－16．

[^5]:    ${ }^{1}$ 肖耿，从结构与制度视角解释中国汇率政策和外部经济失衡［J］．经济与管理，2007， 7－8：16－22．

[^6]:    ${ }^{1}$ Krugman, P. Will there be a Dollar crisis?[J].Economic Policy,2007,22(7): 435-467.
    ${ }^{2}$ Mckinnon.R. \& Schnabl,G. The case for stabilizing China's Exchange Rate: Setting the stage for fiscal expansion[J].China \& World Economy,2010,17(1): 1-32.

