

Labor reallocation during booms: The role of duration uncertainty^{*}

Marcos Sorá

University of Chicago

soramarcos@uchicago.edu

October 27, 2023

[Click here for the latest version](#)

Abstract

Temporary booms are recurrent in sectors as varied as commodities, construction, and tech. I study how uncertainty about the length of the boom shapes labor mobility across sectors during the boom phase. I build a model of sector-specific on-the-job human capital accumulation and show that workers can have risk-loving attitudes towards the duration of the boom. These can arise because there is an option value attached to working in these sectors: if the boom is short, the worker can switch out, while payoffs are high if the boom is long because of human capital accumulation. I use the model to study the effects of duration uncertainty during the boom in prices of mineral products during 2011-2018 in Australia, an exporter of mining products. I use the quantitative model to study a counterfactual perfect foresight economy in which the mining boom was temporary and duration known. I find that employment in mining would have been 8% higher and the relative wage in the sector significantly lower, indicating that labor supply was deterred by duration uncertainty in this case.

Key words: boom-bust dynamics, human capital, labor reallocation, uncertainty.

^{*}I am grateful to Esteban Rossi-Hansberg, Rodrigo Adão, Greg Kaplan and Fernando Álvarez for their guidance and support. I benefited from insightful comments and helpful suggestions from Ufuk Akcigit, Olivia Bordeu, Jonathan Dingel, Santiago Franco, Agustín Gutiérrez, Erik Hurst, Aleksei Oskolkov, Jeremy Pearce, Daniela Puggioni, Robert Shimer, Felix Tintelnot, Harald Uhlig and seminar participants at the University of Chicago and Banco de Mexico. I am indebted to the staff at the Australian Bureau of Statistics for their patience and availability. All errors are my own.

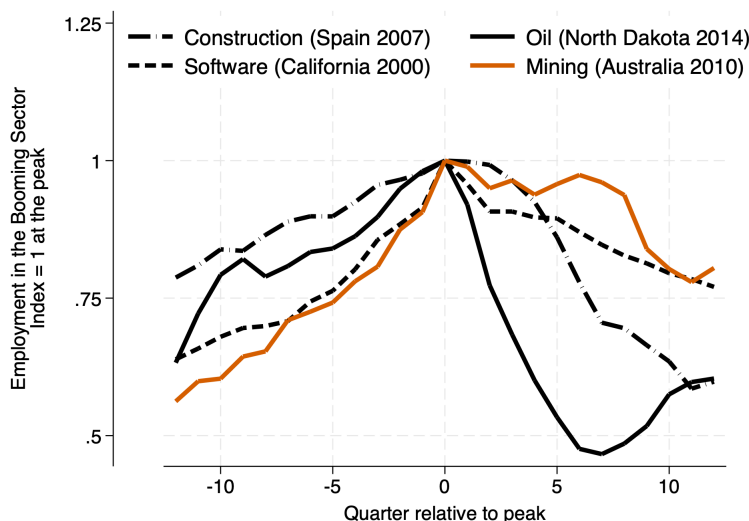
1 Introduction

Regime changes are pervasive in the economic and policy landscape: construction and tech booms end, protectionist trade policy turns liberal, commodity prices go from booms to busts. There is usually considerable uncertainty around when the regime will change and this can, by itself, affect economic outcomes. In the international context, uncertainty about the trade policy regime has been shown to affect firms' entry and exporting decisions (Handley and Limão, 2015; Pierce and Schott, 2016; Handley and Limão, 2022). The literature on trade and labor, on the other hand, has focused on how workers sort across sectors abstracting from the role of uncertainty about future regime changes (Artuç et al., 2010; Dix-Carneiro, 2014; Dix-Carneiro and Kovak, 2017, 2019; Caliendo et al., 2019; Traiberman, 2019). This paper fills this gap by studying the role of uncertainty about regime duration on workers' labor supply across sectors. I will focus on a commodity boom driven by a temporary increase in foreign demand.

While my focus is on a boom driven by an external shock, sectoral booms are broader phenomena. Arguably, something that all booms have in common is that workers rush into the booming sector considering that, when the boom eventually ends, these sectors will contract sharply. Figure 1 below shows the evolution of sectoral employment around the peak for some well-known examples of booms from sectors as varied as oil, tech, and construction (normalized to take value one at the peak). Clearly, contractions can be strong and fast when booms end: in the case of North Dakota, for example, employment in the oil industry dropped by more than half in a matter of quarters. Employment in mining in Australia, highlighted below and the focus of the empirical section of this paper, almost doubled in the years leading to 2010 as global demand for mineral products increased, and has since stabilized at a higher level than the pre-boom average. An advantage of focusing on a boom driven by external forces is that there is potentially more domestic uncertainty over its duration as opposed to sectoral booms caused, for example, by domestic policies.

The main goal of this paper is to understand how labor supply across sectors is affected by uncertainty about the boom's length. First, I tackle the question theoretically using a model of sector-specific human capital accumulation. The main insight is that workers can have risk-loving attitudes towards the boom's duration over a range of possible durations. Convexity arises because workers are continually optimizing and can decide to switch out of the booming sectors if the boom is short. If duration is long enough they will not switch out as this would imply losing the already accumulated human capital. This generates a kink around which the value function is convex. If the durations around the kink for workers who are marginally choosing the booming sectors are very likely, their discounted value would drop in the economy without uncertainty and labor supply into these sectors would be lower. Given that the effects of duration uncertainty are ambiguous, I proceed to study a particular boom. I estimate the

Figure 1: Sectoral employment dynamics during booms



Sources: *All employees: Mining and logging in North Dakota* and *All Employees: Information: Software Publishers in California* from FRED for both US series. *Empleo por ramas de actividad* from the Spanish statistical institute for Spain. *Employed persons by Industry division of the main job* from Australian Bureau of Statistics for Australia.

model using novel data from Australia during the recent global commodity boom (shown in Figure 2a). Then, I simulate a counterfactual perfect foresight economy in which the boom was temporary and duration known. I find that aggregate labor supply into the mining sector, the most affected by the boom in Australia, increases if there is no uncertainty. As suggested by the simple model, the responses are heterogeneous across workers: employment in mining decreases for middle-aged workers.

The simple model in the first part of the paper isolates how the value of being employed in a booming sector depends on the duration of the boom, the random variable over which workers form expectations when deciding where to work. The economy has two sectors, and the relative wage in one of them is booming at time zero. Relative wages in the sector will fall when the boom ends. Importantly, workers accumulate sector-specific human capital on-the-job in their sector of employment and lose it when they switch sectors. Under some conditions, I show that the discounted value of lifetime earnings for workers who sort into the booming sector is convex as a function of the boom's duration, leading to risk-loving attitudes. The intuition is the following. If the duration ends up being short, the worker will decide to switch out when the bust happens, cutting losses. On the other hand, if the duration is long enough she will optimally decide to stay even when the boom ends to avoid losing the accumulated human capital.¹ Convexity arises precisely around the duration that induces a change in behavior from

¹An analogy that can be drawn is with call options, where the value goes up when volatility increases (Dixit and Pindyck, 1994). Mulligan and Rubinstein (2008) use a similar analogy when explaining how selec-

leaving to staying in the sector upon the end of the boom, which will be different for different workers. For workers who are very productive in the booming sector, the experience of just a couple of years may be enough to induce them to stay. Less productive workers would require longer careers before doing so.

The model serves as a laboratory for the following thought experiment. If the boom was temporary but the duration known from the outset, who would sort into the booming sector? How is the labor allocation different compared to the economy with duration uncertainty? The model’s insight is that some workers in the economy ‘bet on the boom’, and their expected value in the sector is higher than if they had been assured that the boom would have a certain length. If these workers are the marginal workers, the economy without uncertainty would have a lower labor supply into the booming sector.

To study the question empirically, I focus on the commodity boom that started in the early 2000s and on its impact on the Australian labor market.² As shown in Figure 2a, starting in the early years of the century commodity prices increased and peaked around 2010. The boom in Australia, highlighted in orange, has been strong and long-lasting, still ongoing by 2019. It is generally agreed upon that one of the main drivers of this boom was growth and urbanization in China (IMF, 2016; WB, 2015). As shown in Figure 2b, the participation of China in global commodity imports increased dramatically during the period, especially for ores and metals. Australia is a key supplier of the latter, used intensively in construction as China urbanized and converged to a higher level of housing per-capita. Crucially, during this period there was considerable uncertainty about when demand from China would stabilize and the boom in metal prices come to an end.³ In Section 3, I provide more details on the context and how labor markets in Australia evolved broadly during the period. For the goal of this paper, this setting is an example of a large boom, driven by temporary forces, whose duration was unknown.

I build a quantitative model of sectoral choice à la Traiberman (2019) suited to the Australian context that I can use for my counterfactual analysis.⁴ Relative to the simple model, the quantitative model incorporates several realistic features that interact with risk-loving attitudes towards duration in a meaningful way. First, agents live finite lives. Old workers are less sensitive to increased uncertainty as they would not be able to benefit from long durations, which is

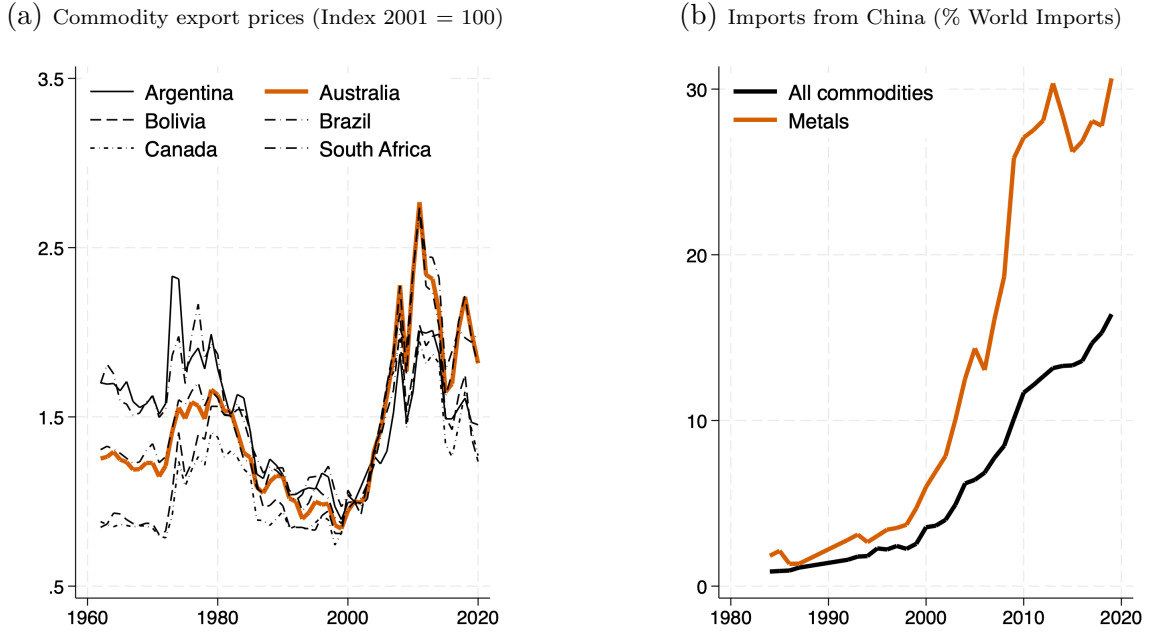
tion patterns across women change when labor market inequality increases. Their model does not incorporate dynamics.

²These episodes are important both for their cyclical recurrence and their impact on many economies around the world. In 2018, commodities represented more than 60% of exports in more than 100 countries (UNCTAD, 2021).

³This view can be found in several central bank reports from the period, especially when discussing the evolution of metal prices (Rayner and Bishop, 2013; Kruger et al., 2016).

⁴I mostly borrow from the model of human capital accumulation in Traiberman (2019). I do not include the occupation choice margin.

Figure 2: Commodity boom driven by growth in China



Sources: *Historical Commodity Export Price Index (Weighted by Ratio of Exports to Total Commodity Exports, Fixed Weights)* from the IMF for Figure 2a and *World Bank Open Data* for 2b.

key for risk-loving attitudes to arise. I also incorporate other determinants of labor income like age, education, and unobserved heterogeneity. Allowing for a richer set of determinants of labor income is important for correctly estimating the returns to on-the-job human capital accumulation.⁵ For example, if I did not allow for unobserved heterogeneity, part of the estimated returns to tenure would reflect selection of the type of workers that decide to spend longer periods in a sector. I aggregate sectors in the economy to a total of five: three of them tradable and two of them non-tradable. As I underscored in the discussion of the simple model, the nature of outside options when the boom ends is crucial to understanding workers' sensitivity to duration uncertainty. Other tradable goods may not bust when mining does, while non-tradable goods may be impacted by the end of the boom through a decrease in demand (Corden and Neary, 1982).

My empirical analysis leverages two types of data. I exploit financial data from one of the biggest mining firms in the world, based in Australia, to estimate the hazard rate for the end of the boom. Financial markets are a natural source to look at when estimating this parameter, given that asset prices are forward-looking. The estimated hazard rate varies between years, with a clear peak in 2015. This can be linked to the crash in the Chinese stock market which, in this context, cast doubts about the continuity of the real estate boom and should impact on

⁵This parameter is key for risk-loving attitudes to arise. See Lemma 1 in Section 2.

future price of mining products. My estimate implies that, from the perspective of 2011, the boom was expected to be over by 2015.

My second source is novel administrative micro-data that cover the universe of Australian workers in the formal sector between 2011 and 2018.⁶ I construct a panel of workers between 2011 and 2018 by linking data from tax returns across years and to the 2016 census.⁷ Given the size and detail of the dataset, I can construct transition matrices between sectors at a fine level of individual characteristics including sector-specific experience and education. I estimate the labor side of the model mostly following the approach in [Traiberman \(2019\)](#), who builds on methods original to the empirical industrial organization literature ([Rust, 1987](#); [Arcidiacono and Miller, 2011](#); [Scott, 2014](#)). A difference in the estimation stage of the model in my setting is that I only observe outcomes during the boom but agents in the model know the hazard rate for the end of the boom when making their decisions. The challenge then becomes how to disentangle between pure switching costs and counterfactual values in a sector if the boom ended. I tackle this issue by parameterizing the counterfactual changes in value in each sector. This last function appears, interacted with the hazard rate for the end of the boom, in the equation linking transition rates between sectors to pure switching costs.⁸

I use the estimated model to simulate my counterfactual of interest: a perfect foresight economy in which the boom’s duration is fixed to 2014 (its expected duration). The share of the population working in mining is 4% in the counterfactual, compared to 3.7% on average in the data. However, responses are heterogeneous by age. Young workers increase labor supply into mining the most, while middle-aged workers decrease theirs. Through the lens of the simple model, these workers could have been ‘betting on the boom’ and the expected value of the sector become lower once high durations were ruled out. In general equilibrium, of course, other variable also change. The wage in the mining sector, which is almost three times as large as the average wage in the data, drops to below the average wage in the counterfactual economy. Other sectors that grow in the counterfactual economy are agriculture and construction, while manufacturing shrinks.

Related literature. This paper contributes mainly to the literature on labor reallocation after shocks to labor demand that are localized in some sectors or regions, an important strand of which studied shocks to import competition ([Topalova, 2010](#); [Artuç et al., 2010](#); [Autor et al., 2013](#); [Dix-Carneiro and Kovak, 2017, 2019](#); [Caliendo et al., 2019](#)). Recent studies have argued that sector-specific human capital accumulated on-the-job is key to explain why labor reallocation can be slow and heterogeneous across workers ([Dix-Carneiro, 2014](#); [Traiberman, 2019](#)).

⁶An added advantage of focusing on Australia, among all commodity exporters, is that the coverage of this dataset is relatively high because labor informality is low. This is important to measure outside options correctly.

⁷The panel can be constructed starting in 2002, which I use to construct my variable of sector-specific experience. The rest of the analysis focuses on 2011-2018.

⁸This is discussed in detail in [Section 6](#). See [Scott \(2014\)](#) for a discussion.

Given these findings, the starting point in this paper is to assume sector-specific human capital acquired on-the-job. My contribution is to study a very different setting, the mining boom in Australia, in which boom-bust dynamics are salient and duration uncertainty arises as an additional driver of labor supply decisions. More broadly, as human capital is sector-specific in the model this paper relates to the study of specific-factor models of trade (Jones, 1971; Mussa, 1974; Matsuyama, 1992).

By incorporating uncertainty about the duration of a trade shock, this paper relates to a strand of the literature in trade that studied firms' responses to trade policy uncertainty. A series of papers focused on how Chinese firms' entry and exporting decisions during the 1990s were affected by uncertainty about how long the low-tariff regime in the US would last (Handley and Limão, 2015, 2017). Pierce and Schott (2016) study how the resolution of uncertainty about trade policy affected manufacturing employment through changes in labor demand. Other studies focus on other settings with trade policy uncertainty (Graziano et al., 2020). My contribution is to focus on how uncertainty matters for labor supply directly. At the conceptual level a key difference is that in the settings just mentioned, the problem of the firm is an irreversible investment problem, and uncertainty necessarily increases the value of waiting (Handley and Limão, 2022). In the context I study this is not necessarily so, as workers continually decide in which sector to work and accumulate human capital. The results in this paper indicate that the reduced-form results in Pierce and Schott (2016) reflect a mix of changes in labor demand and labor supply.

This paper also contributes to the varied literature on commodity cycles, particularly to studies focusing on the effects on workers, none of which studies the interaction between human capital accumulation and duration uncertainty (Kline, 2008; Adao, 2016; Benguria et al., 2021). At the macro level, a strand of the literature has concluded that commodity cycles are an important driver of business cycles in emerging economies (Fernández et al., 2017; Drechsel and Tenreyro, 2018). Another strand of the literature focuses instead on 'Dutch-disease' effects, whereby commodity booms can have a negative effect on long-term income (Corden and Neary, 1982; Allcott and Keniston, 2018). In all of these papers, a key ingredient is that factors can reallocate between tradable sectors. I focus precisely on this reallocation and highlight duration uncertainty as one of the elements that may be important to determine sectoral labor supply elasticities.

The rest of the paper is organized as follows. Section 2 presents a simple model that describes risk-loving attitudes towards duration uncertainty and how it can affect labor supply. Section 3 discusses the main features of the mining boom in Australia and why it is a good setting to study duration uncertainty. Section 4 presents the quantitative model. Section 5 introduces the data sources and Section 6 quantifies the model and discusses the main results. Section 7 shows the results of simulating a counterfactual economy in which there is no uncertainty about the

length of the mining boom in Australia. [Section 8](#) concludes.

2 A simple model

I present first a simple model to discuss the core mechanisms. I expand the model to perform the quantitative analysis in [Section 4](#). The economy is populated by a continuum of heterogeneous infinitely-lived agents indexed by their type θ , distributed according to density $g(\theta) : [\underline{\theta}, \bar{\theta}] \rightarrow \mathbb{R}$. Time is discrete. The economy is booming at period zero and the only random variable in the economy is τ , the date at which the boom ends. It is convenient to define the aggregate state as $b_t = \mathbb{I}[\tau > t]$. The economy is still booming if $b_t = 1$ and the boom is over if $b_t = 0$. The bust is an absorbing state in this model. I further assume that the hazard rate for the end of the boom, denoted by μ , is constant.

There are two sectors in the economy, $s = 0, 1$. Wages per unit of skill in sector one are high while the boom lasts and fall when the boom ends. Wages in sector zero, the outside sector, are normalized to one at all times and states of nature:

$$w_{0t} = 1 \quad \forall t, b_t \quad \text{and} \quad w_{1t}(b_t) = \begin{cases} \bar{w} > 1 & b_t = 1 \\ \underline{w} < 1 & b_t = 0 \end{cases} \quad \forall t. \quad (1)$$

The labor income that a worker earns in sector s at t depends on wages per unit of skill and the human capital she is able to supply to that sector, which will depend on her type θ and her tenure in that sector. Using $\vec{\Delta}_t = [\Delta_{0t} \ \Delta_{1t}]$ to denote a vector of sector-specific tenure at time t , labor income is given by

$$y_{st}(\theta, \vec{\Delta}_t, b_t) = w_{st}(b_t) H_{st}(\theta, \vec{\Delta}) = \begin{cases} \gamma_0^{\Delta_{0t}} & s = 0 \\ w_{1t}(b_t) \times \theta \times \gamma_1^{\Delta_{1t}} & s = 1 \end{cases} \quad \forall t. \quad (2)$$

The parameter γ_s measures the rate of human capital accumulation in sector s . I further assume that human capital depreciates fully if some time is spent in other sectors. That is, tenure drops to zero whenever a worker switches sectors, even if for one period. Using ℓ_t to denote the sector the worker chooses at t , tenure evolves as

$$\Delta'(\Delta_{st}, s_{t-1}, \ell_t) = \begin{cases} \Delta_{st} + 1 & \ell_t = s_{t-1} \\ 0 & \ell_t \neq s_{t-1}. \end{cases} \quad (3)$$

At any point in time a worker with state variables $\{\theta, \vec{\Delta}_t\}$ who was previously employed in sector s_{t-1} observes the state of the economy b_t and then decides where to work. Worker cannot save, the price of the consumption good is normalized to one in all periods, utility is linear, and

workers discount the future using discount factor β .⁹ Her problem can be written recursively as follows:

$$V(\theta, \vec{\Delta}_t, s_{t-1}, 0) = \max_{\ell_t \in \{0,1\}} \left\{ y_{\ell_t t}(\theta, \vec{\Delta}, 0) + \beta V(\theta, \vec{\Delta}'(\Delta_{st}, s_{t-1}, \ell_t), \ell_t, 0) \right\}.$$

$$V(\theta, \vec{\Delta}_t, s_{t-1}, 1) = \max_{\ell_t \in \{0,1\}} \left\{ y_{\ell_t t}(\theta, \vec{\Delta}, 1) + \beta \left[\mu V(\theta, \vec{\Delta}'(\Delta_{st}, s_{t-1}, \ell_t), \ell_t, 0) + (1 - \mu) V(\theta, \vec{\Delta}'(\Delta_{st}, s_{t-1}, \ell_t), \ell_t, 1) \right] \right\}.$$

Where the last argument in the value function is b_t . The first line describes the deterministic problem of the worker if the boom has ended. The second line describes the problem of the worker when the economy is booming and future values depend on the state of the economy at $t + 1$. With probability μ the economy will go from boom to bust.

At time zero workers are born without experience in any sector, draw their θ and must choose where to work. Because the economy is initially booming, $b_0 = 1$, their initial state can be assumed to be $\{\theta, \vec{0}, 0, 1\}$. The following theorem describes the optimal policies for a worker who decides to sort into Sector 1 initially.

THEOREM 1. For all θ such that $\ell_0(\{\theta, \vec{0}, 0, 1\}) = 1$ optimal strategies ℓ_t satisfy

- $\ell_t = 1$ if $b_t = 1$.
- $\ell_\tau \in \{0, 1\}$.
- $\ell_t = \ell_\tau \quad \forall t > \tau$.

Proof. See Appendix [Section A.1](#).

Theorem 1 states that the optimal strategy for workers that start in Sector 1 is to stay in the booming sector until the boom ends, re-optimize when it does, and then never switch again. As time goes by workers accumulate sector-specific human capital that they would lose if they changed sectors. If it was optimal to choose sector one initially, it has to remain optimal when the benefits go up.

When the boom ends at $t = \tau$, workers that start in Sector 1 have spent there τ consecutive periods. The economy is deterministic going forward, so they will choose sectors by comparing the discounted lifetime earnings in each of them, namely,

$$V(\theta, \tau, 1, 0) = \frac{w\theta\gamma_1^\tau}{1 - \beta\gamma_1} \leq \frac{1}{1 - \beta\gamma_0} = V(\theta, 0, 0, 0). \quad (4)$$

⁹To complete the model, good zero can be interpreted as the consumption and numeraire which is produced with linear technology so both wages and prices are one. Good one could be a tradable good also produced with linear technology, which is exported in exchange of good zero. Under this interpretation, \bar{w} would represent the world relative price of good one. The model in [Section 4](#) is a full general equilibrium dynamic model where world commodity prices are taken as given.

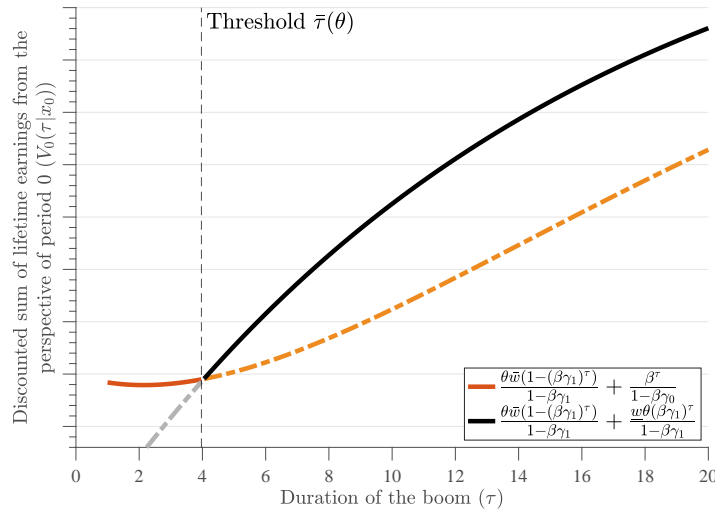
The worker chooses to stay in the booming sector if the left-hand side is greater than the right-hand side, switch if it was smaller, and would be indifferent between sectors if both are equal. I define $\bar{\tau}(\theta)$ as the lowest value of τ such that $\frac{w\theta\gamma_1^\tau}{1-\beta\gamma_1} \geq \frac{1}{1-\beta\gamma_0}$.

Because policy functions going forward follow such simple threshold rules, I can write the value from the perspective of period 0 as a function of the duration of the boom, τ . This is a random variable, but workers can anticipate their lifetime earnings conditional on any duration τ . Values are then given by

$$V_0(\tau|\theta, \vec{0}, 0, 1) = \begin{cases} \frac{\theta\bar{w}(1-(\beta\gamma_1)^\tau)}{1-\beta\gamma_1} + \frac{\beta^\tau}{1-\beta\gamma_0} & \tau < \bar{\tau}(\theta) \\ \frac{\theta\bar{w}(1-(\beta\gamma_1)^\tau)}{1-\beta\gamma_1} + \frac{w\theta(\beta\gamma_1)^\tau}{1-\beta\gamma_1} & \tau \geq \bar{\tau}(\theta). \end{cases} \quad (5)$$

The values in [equation \(5\)](#) reflect that workers recognize that for short durations they will find it optimal to switch sectors, but for long durations they will not. The first term of the sum is the same in both cases, reflecting that she will stay in the booming sector earning wages \bar{w} until the boom ends. Notice that, in the last term of the second line, the sum of human capital accumulated before the boom ended, γ_1^τ , appears, while it does not in the first line since human capital depreciates upon switching. For illustration, [Figure 3](#) presents [equation \(5\)](#) as a function of τ .¹⁰

Figure 3: Risk-loving attitudes towards duration around the kink $\bar{\tau}(\theta)$



Importantly, there is convexity around the kink $\bar{\tau}(\theta)$. The intuition is the following. If the duration of the boom ends up being short, the worker will decide to switch out when the bust happens, cutting losses. If she was constrained to stay in the booming sector, her value

¹⁰These figures use $\gamma_0 = 1.01, \gamma_1 = 1.04, \beta = 0.9, \underline{w} = 0.6, \bar{w} = 1.03$.

would be given by the dashed gray line, and there would be no kink. On the other hand, if the duration is long enough she will optimally decide to stay even when the boom ends to avoid losing the accumulated human capital. This is a relatively general feature of the environment. The following lemma states sufficient conditions for there to be convexity around the kink.

LEMMA 1. **If $\gamma_1 > 1$ and $\frac{\bar{w}}{w} \leq \left(\frac{1-\beta}{1-\beta\gamma_1}\right)^2$ then**

$$V_0(\bar{\tau}(\theta)) - V_0(\bar{\tau}(\theta) - 1) \geq V_0(\bar{\tau}(\theta) - 1) - V_0(\bar{\tau}(\theta) - 2). \quad (6)$$

Which implies that the value function is convex at $\bar{\tau}(\theta)$.

Proof. See Appendix [Section A.2](#).

Convexity around the kink is important because it implies that workers have risk-loving attitudes towards duration around $\bar{\tau}(\theta)$. If the process for the boom is such that durations close to the kink are very likely, duration uncertainty would in fact increase the ex-ante expected value of this worker.

Why does convexity around the kink arise? The crucial difference between an extra period of the boom at $\bar{\tau}(\theta) - 2$ and at $\bar{\tau}(\theta) - 1$ is that in the second case the extra period induces the worker to stay in the booming sector after the boom ends, which means she will carry the human capital accumulated during the boom years throughout her life. This experience increases the level and the returns to human capital accumulation going forward. At $\bar{\tau}(\theta) - 2$ an extra year of the boom doesn't induce this change in behavior.

The last requirement in the lemma, $\frac{\bar{w}}{w} \leq \left(\frac{1-\beta}{1-\beta\gamma_1}\right)^2$ is related to the model being in discrete time. The second difference between an extra period of the boom at $\bar{\tau}(\theta) - 2$ and at $\bar{\tau}(\theta) - 1$ is that in the first case, the worker enjoys an extra period of high wages \bar{w} closer to the initial period, when they are discounted less.

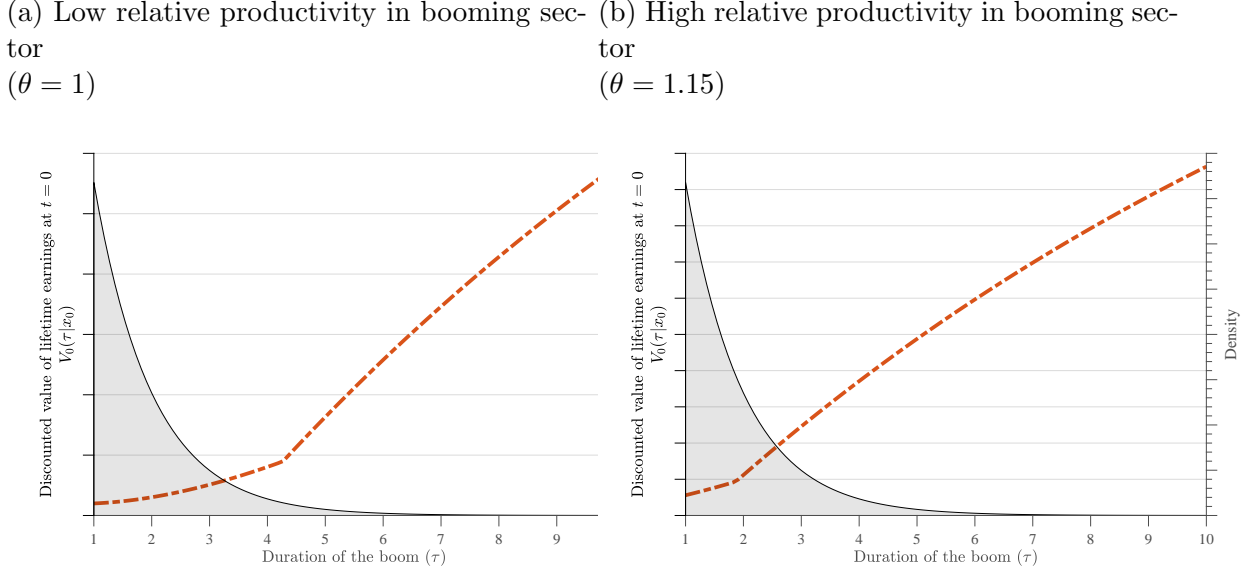
The convexity at the kink arises because the worker can switch out when durations are short. As Lemma 1 states, another important ingredient for convexity to arise is human capital accumulation. This is an important difference that makes this setting different from the one studied by the literature on trade policy uncertainty in which firms have to pay a cost of entry or exporting but being an older firm doesn't carry any extra benefits ([Pierce and Schott, 2016](#); [Handley and Limão, 2017](#)).

Because the position of the kink depends on θ but all workers face the same boom, the effects of duration uncertainty will be different for different workers. Figure 4a shows equation (5) overlapped with the density for the duration for a worker with low θ . Figure 4b shows the same graph for a worker with higher productivity in the booming sector, $\theta = 1.15$. Because the second worker is more productive in the booming sector, the duration starting at which he decides to optimally stay in the booming sector is shorter than for the first worker and the kink

occurs earlier. Given the density for the end of the boom, duration uncertainty is more likely to increase the ex-ante value for this worker than for the first worker.

The point at which the kink $\bar{\tau}$ happens depends not only on θ but also more generally on the rates of human capital accumulation, β and wages \underline{w}, \bar{w} .

Figure 4: Heterogeneous risk-loving attitudes for different workers



I now look at how workers with different θ decide which sector to go to initially. The value at birth of sorting into the booming sector is equal to the expected value of [equation \(5\)](#), where the expectation is taken over duration τ . The value of sorting into sector zero is equal to the discounted value of lifetime earnings if staying in sector zero forever.¹¹ Then, a worker of type θ sorts into sector one if the following inequality holds:

$$\ell_0(\theta, \vec{0}, 0, 1) = 1 \iff \mathbb{E}_\tau(V(\tau)) \geq \frac{1}{1 - \beta\gamma_0}$$

The solid lines in both panels of [Figure 5](#) show how different types θ sort across sectors in economies with low and high rates of human capital accumulation in the booming sector γ_1 . These lines are increasing in θ , as higher θ types have higher productivity in the booming sector. The solid line is also higher in the right panel, with higher rates of human capital accumulation in the booming sector than in the left panel. This translates into a higher labor supply in the booming sector at time-zero which is intuitive.

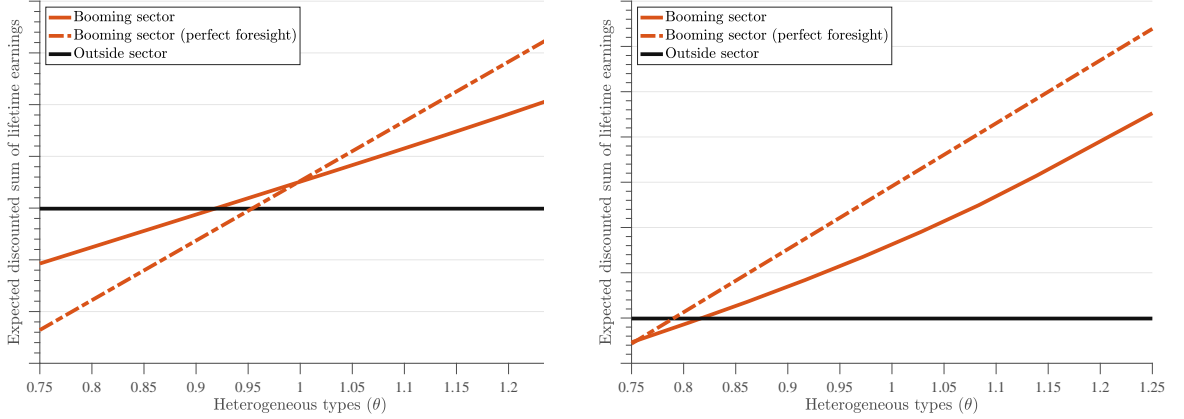
I now turn to the key counterfactual question I'm interested in which isolates the role of duration uncertainty. I compare the economy just described with a perfect foresight economy

¹¹The argument of why a worker never switches out of zero is analogous to the one for sector one but simpler because the sector is not affected directly by the end of the boom.

in which the duration of the boom is fixed and set to $\tau^{pf} = \frac{1}{\mu}$, which is the expected duration from the baseline economy. The dashed lines in both panels of Figure 5 show how the ex-ante value of sorting into the booming sector changes.

Figure 5: Aggregate effects of duration uncertainty on labor supply

- (a) Low rate of human capital accumulation ($\gamma_1 = 1.02$) (b) High rate of human capital accumulation ($\gamma_1 = 1.04$)



The first thing to notice is that the new curve rotates and can be below or above the solid line for different values of θ . This echoes the idea from Figure 4 that the kink will happen at different points for different workers, leading their expected value to react to duration uncertainty differently. In other words, the density of duration will fall on convex and concave areas of V for different workers. The second and main thing to notice is that labor supply in the booming sector can either increase or decrease once the economy has no uncertainty about duration. In the case shown in Figure 5a, workers close to the initial cut-off between sectors were benefiting from the possibility of long booms (in this sense ‘betting on the boom’). Once the duration is fixed and known in advance, they find it optimal to sort in the outside sector. Figure 5b shows how keeping all parameters the same except for a higher γ_1 , the effects of duration uncertainty on labor supply flip and become, in some sense, more intuitive. Duration uncertainty discourages entry in this case.

Importantly, the emergence of risk-loving attitudes towards duration doesn’t hinge on the assumption of linear utility, as long as the conditions in lemma 1 hold. To see this, consider that utility had been given by y_{st}^σ with $\sigma < 1$. The right-hand side of equation (2) for sector one, now interpreted as utility, would become: $u_{1t} = (w_{1t}\theta\gamma_1^{\Delta_{1t}})^\sigma = w_{1t}^\sigma\theta^\sigma(\gamma_1^\sigma)^{\Delta_{1t}}$. From here it follows that the problem would be equivalent to having started with these alternative definitions of wages, types, and rates of human capital accumulation (which would never fall below one if they initially were).

The key takeaway from this model is that if there is sector-specific human capital accumu-

lation both the qualitative and quantitative answer to the importance of duration uncertainty will depend on parameters, which will depend on the context. The economy could be in the left or the right panels in Figure 5. Now, I turn to describing the context I will focus on for the rest of the paper.

3 The mining boom in Australia

Rapid growth and urbanization in China in the early years of the century pushed up demand for commodities, which led to the highest commodity prices in decades (see Figure 2 in the introduction). The literature studying commodity super-cycles, which has identified historical periods of booms and busts, puts this episode at par with the industrial revolution in the UK, the US and post-war reconstruction in Europe in terms of its impact on commodity prices (Erten and Ocampo, 2013). From Figure 2a in the introduction it is clear that the latest boom started in the early 2000s and affected commodity exporters across the globe. The country in which I will focus, Australia, experienced a relatively strong boom compared to the other commodity exporters. In the quantitative model below I will focus on the years 2011-2018, when the boom was still ongoing.¹²

Although Australia produces many commodities, the boom was concentrated in the mining sector. Figure 6a below shows, in solid lines, the evolution in the export price of both mining and agricultural commodities in Australia, relative to the price of all other exports. In dashed lines, the same panel shows the growth in exported quantities of both types of commodities during the period, relative to non-commodity exports. Relative exports of mineral commodities from Australia increased substantially during this period, especially after 2005. Put together, these two figures show that the economy responded to an increase in the relative price of mining products as expected, by producing more of the tradable goods whose price went up. Given that the increase in exported quantities was focused on mining products, from now on I will refer to mining as the booming sector.

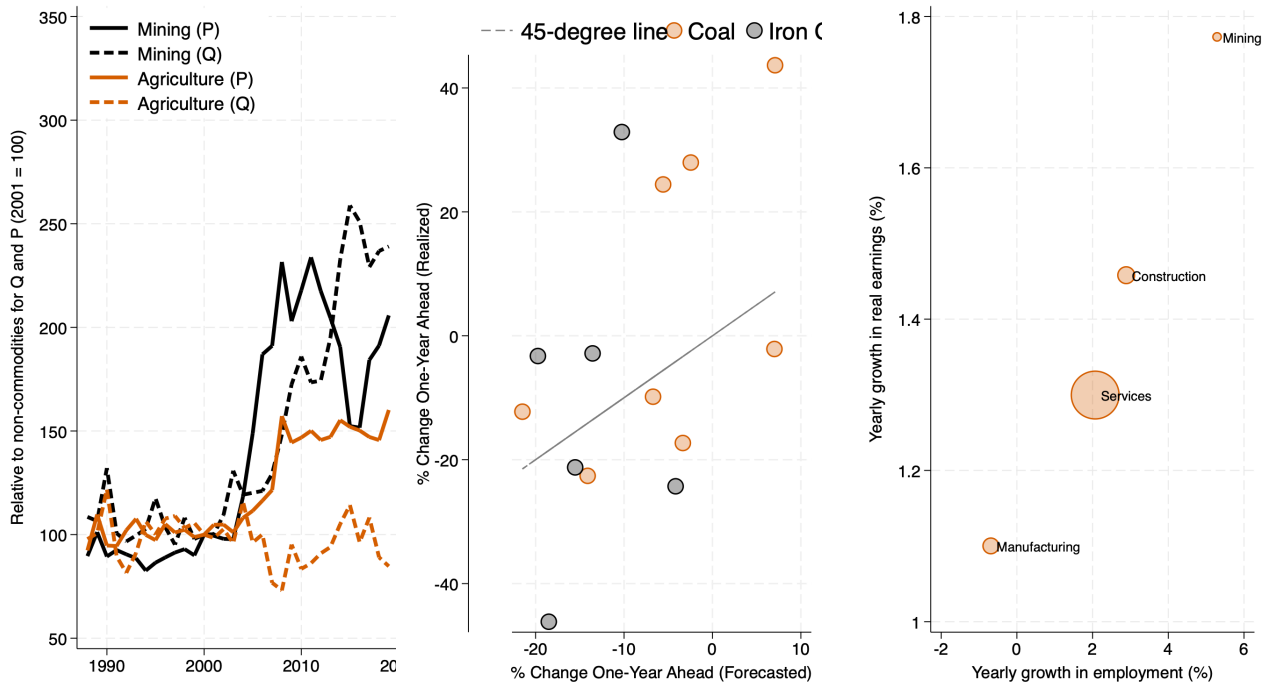
¹²This is partly because the country focuses on metals. In other commodities, the boom ended in the mid-2010s.

Figure 6: Exports, forecasts, and labor markets during the boom

(a) Relative export prices and relative exports

(b) Evolution of commodity prices and IMF forecasts (2011-2019)

(c) Changes between 1990-99 and 2010-19



Sources: Australian Bureau of Statistics (ABS) and IMF. The size of the bubbles in Figure 6c are proportional to the size of that sector between 2011 and 2018.

What drove the strong increase in Chinese demand for ores and metals, shown in Figure, 2b, and the subsequent increase in the price of mining products that Australia exported? A common answer is urbanization. Urban population in China increased from 26% of the total population in 1990 to 36% in 2000 and 49% in 2010.¹³ Moreover, reforms to the housing market in the late 1990s led to a boom in private construction and an increase in the quality and size of buildings that increased demand for inputs beyond what the urban population numbers suggest (Berkelmans and Wang, 2012). Due to the geographical proximity and the quality and quantity of its reserves, Australia became a key exporter of mineral products like iron ore and coal which are used for steel, an input to construction, during these years (Berkelmans and Wang, 2012). Between 2011 and 2019, approximately half of the mineral exports of Australia went to China.

In order to test the common view that the increase in export prices for Australia is driven by construction in China I collect data on construction activity in China and test how well it helps predict export prices of different goods in Australia. I find that an increase of 1% in constructed floor space started in China predicts a 0.45% increase in the export prices of mineral

¹³World Bank data accessed online.

and metal prices one year later, while there is no effect for either agricultural or manufactured goods. See Table 4 in the Appendix, [Section C.1](#). The temporary nature of the boom, as China would eventually converge to the new steady state housing stock, was perceived by key institutional actors in Australia and other commodity exporters and raised questions about how sustainable the boom would be.¹⁴ Consider the following quote from [Rayner and Bishop \(2013\)](#), two researchers from the Reserve Bank of Australia:

In terms of the path of the terms of trade, an important unknown is the extent to which the growth in the demand for commodities (...) might ease over the longer term as the emerging economies in Asia mature. For example, the rate of urbanisation in Asia, which has driven much of the demand for iron ore and coal, is expected to eventually slow and then stabilise...

Although temporary, the precise duration of the boom was not known ex-ante. To show this, Figure 6b shows IMF forecasts for the prices of coal and iron ore, key exports from Australia, between 2010 and 2018.¹⁵ The horizontal axis shows, for each year, the forecasted change in the price of iron ore and coal one year ahead, in percentage terms. The first thing to notice is that most values are negative: it was consistently expected that prices would fall. The vertical axis shows the realized variation in the price of the product one year ahead. The big gaps between forecasted and realized price changes suggest there was uncertainty about the evolution of prices. [Kulish and Rees \(2017\)](#) study the evolution of the terms of trade in Australia and conclude that most of the increase was temporary.

A potential caveat about studying this boom is that mining is capital-intensive, and doesn't employ many workers directly. However, it is important to consider that booms in the terms of trade translate to booms in demand for non-tradable goods. The textbook response in a small open economy when terms of trade increase are for both the booming sector and non-tradables to expand, while other tradable sectors shrink ([Corden and Neary, 1982](#)). Figure 6c shows that this is exactly what happened in Australia during the period.¹⁶ Employment and earnings in mining expanded jointly with services and construction while the other tradable sector, manufacturing, shrank in relative terms.

¹⁴A separate issue is whether growth in the Chinese real estate sector was also driven by speculative forces. For the goals of this paper, it doesn't matter; in either case, the phenomenon is essentially temporary.

¹⁵All data come from the October World Economic Outlook.

¹⁶This Figure draws from public data from ABS, which doesn't include wage data for Agriculture. Employment in services is likely to grow also for secular reasons common to all developed economies, but it is notable that earnings also increase fast in the sector.

4 Quantitative model

I extend the baseline model in [Section 2](#) by including realistic features so I can take it to the data from Australia between 2011 and 2018, which I describe in detail in the next section. The first difference is that I model boom-bust dynamics in world mining prices, instead of wages which are now endogenous. I will explain this first and, next, a small open economy environment with rich heterogeneity and forward-looking workers where the process of prices is taken as given.

4.1 World prices

There are three tradable goods in the world economy: agriculture, manufacturing, and mining. The prices of the mining good, p_t^M , can be written as a function of the underlying state $b_t \in \{0, 1\}$ and time, where $b_t = 1$ means that the mining boom is still ongoing:

ASSUMPTION 1. Mining prices are a function of the state b and time:

$$p_t^M(b_t) = \begin{cases} \underline{p}^M & b_t = 0 \\ \bar{p}_t^M & b_t = 1 \end{cases} \quad (7)$$

Where $\bar{p}_t^M > \underline{p}^M$. This assumption is analogous to the process for wages in [equation \(1\)](#) in the baseline model. Now, I allow for variation in prices between periods conditional on the state being a boom. An interesting extension of the model would be to allow for uncertainty about prices beyond the boom-bust comparison on which I focus.

I assume that the bust state is absorbing and the hazard rate μ_t can be time-varying, as summarized in [Assumption 2](#) below. This strong absorbing property is intended as an approximation to the fact that bust periods, especially for metals, have been long on average. [Erten and Ocampo \(2013\)](#) calculate them to last 20 years. This assumption will become relevant when I calibrate the hazard rate for the end of the boom from financial data, as I highlight below.

ASSUMPTION 2. The bust state is absorbing and the hazard rate for the end of the boom is given by:

$$\mathbb{P}_t[b_{t+1} = 0 | b_t] = \begin{cases} 1 & b_t = 0 \\ \mu_t & b_t = 1 \end{cases} \quad (8)$$

The history of shocks up to period t , h^t , is given by a sequence of $\{b_s\}_{s=0}^t$. I assume that

there is no uncertainty about the other tradable prices in the economy, manufacturing, and agricultural goods, but their prices may still vary between years. I use $\bar{p}_t, \underline{p}_t$ to refer to the vector of all tradable prices at time t if $b_t = 1, 0$ respectively.

4.2 Small open economy

Time is discrete and there is a constant mass of \bar{L} finitely lived workers who live up to age \bar{A} . When a generation dies, a new generation of equal size is born. The newborn agents are born unattached to any particular sector.

There are five sectors, three of which are tradable goods (manufacturing, mining, and agriculture) and two of which are non-tradable (construction and other services). The reasons to incorporate more than two sectors are twofold. First, modeling outside options of workers in the event of the mining bust is crucial, and the boom in agricultural goods need not finish when the mining boom ends. Second, as argued above, changes in terms of trade should also impact the demand for non-tradable goods so it's important to have a distinction between the two. I treat construction separately from other services because, during the period I study, there was a huge spike in construction investment and I want to be able to capture the dynamics of this investment process separately. I discuss this further below.

Labor supply. This part of the model builds directly on [Traiberman \(2019\)](#), except for the important difference that I don't incorporate occupations in the model. At the beginning of period t the state for worker i is $\omega_{it} = \{a_{it}, s_{it-1}, \Delta_{it}, e_i, \theta_i\}$, where a_{it} denotes their age, s_{it-1} the sector in which she worked in the previous period and Δ_{it} tenure, defined as the number of consecutive years of employment in the sector in which she was employed in period $t - 1$. Finally, e and θ capture time-invariant characteristics: $e \in \{low, medium, high\}$ denotes the maximum education level attained and $\theta \in \Theta$ captures unobserved heterogeneity. I classify workers with, at most, high school as low education, some vocational training as medium, and college or more as high education.

There are several reasons to account for a broader set of determinants of human capital than in the baseline model. First, as explained in [Section 2](#), the effects of duration uncertainty will be different for workers depending on their productivity in the booming sector, which could depend on their education and unobservables. Then, as explained with the help of the baseline model, correctly estimating the returns to human capital accumulation on-the-job is crucial. Allowing for other controls is important to attempt to control for selection in the type of workers who decide to stay for longer in a sector, which is why I allow for unobserved heterogeneity.

The labor income for worker i if she sorts into sector s after a history of shocks h^t is given by:

$$y_{it}(h^t)|s = \frac{w_s(h^t)}{P_t(h^t)} H_s(\underbrace{\omega_{it}}^{\text{Age, tenure, type}}, \underbrace{\zeta_{ist}}^{\text{Shock}}). \quad (9)$$

Where w_s is the sector-specific wage per efficiency unit of human capital and P_t denotes the price level, defined below. The second term, H_s , is the number of efficiency units of human capital that the worker is able to supply to a sector. The shock ζ is specific to s and is unobserved before the worker decides to sort into sector s . The role of this shock is to rationalize differences in income across workers conditioning on ω , s and will not play an important role in the analysis.

I now turn to specifying worker preferences. Utility, shown in [equation \(10\)](#), is the combination of real income y_{it} , an amenity value η_s and migration costs, both of which are modeled in terms of utility. A worker with characteristics ω_{it} that switches from $s_{i,t-1}$ to s_t pays utility cost $\tilde{C}(\omega_{it}, s_{i,t-1}, s_{it})$. All things considered, the flow utility of a worker with characteristics ω_{it} who sorts into s at period t can be written as:

$$U(\omega_{it}, s_{i,t-1}, s, h^t) = \mathbb{E}_\zeta[y_{it}(h^t)|s] + \underbrace{\eta_s}_{\text{Amenity}} + \underbrace{\tilde{C}(\omega_{it}, s_{i,t-1}, s_{it})}_{\text{Switching cost}}. \quad (10)$$

Timing works as follows. At the beginning of period t , worker i observes the aggregate history of aggregate shocks up to t , h^t . In this setting, and contrary to the baseline model, wages will be a function of the history of shocks and not only the current state. After the boom ends, equilibrium wages will move slowly towards the new steady state in a way that depends on the state of the economy when the boom ends so it's important to keep track of when the boom ended. As is standard in quantitative models, I also allow for sector-time-specific idiosyncratic shocks $\{\epsilon_{sit}\}$ that individual workers observe at the beginning of each period. After observing all of these, she makes her decision of where to work. Denoting by V_t and v_t her value before and after idiosyncratic shocks are realized:

$$v(s_{i,t-1}, \omega_{it}, h^t, \epsilon_{it}) = \max_{s' \in S} \left\{ U(\omega_{it}, s_{i,t-1}, s', h^t) + \rho \epsilon_{s'it} + \beta \mathbb{E}_t V_{t+1}(s', \omega', h^{t+1}) \right\} \quad (11)$$

$$V(s, \omega, h^t) = \int v_t(s, \omega, h^t, \epsilon) dG(\epsilon). \quad (12)$$

The first thing to notice in [equation \(11\)](#) is that idiosyncratic shocks are scaled by parameter ρ , which measures the importance of idiosyncratic factors relative to the fundamental reasons for moving between sectors. The expectation is taken with respect to b_{t+1} , as I discuss in detail below. The expected continuation value in [equation \(11\)](#) takes ω' , the future characteristics of the worker, as an argument. Age evolves mechanically by one, while education and unobserved type are constant. An interesting extension of the model would be to study how expectations about the duration of the shock affect education decisions, something which has been important

in other contexts (Atkin, 2016). Regarding the evolution of tenure, I make exactly the same assumption as in the baseline model:

$$ten_{i,t+1} = \begin{cases} ten_{it} + 1 & \text{if } s_{i,t-1} = s_{it} \\ 0 & \text{if } s_{i,t-1} \neq s_{it} \end{cases} \quad (13)$$

Whenever a worker switches sectors her tenure gets reset. The content of this assumption is twofold. As discussed in Section 2, the fact that human capital depreciates upon switching is at the heart of the economic mechanism by which workers may have risk-loving attitudes towards the duration of the boom. This particular functional form will prove useful in the estimation where, as discussed by Traiberman (2019), assuming that one period is enough for tenure to be reset is not crucial; what matters is that there are different decision paths that two identical workers can take after which their state variables are identical. Dix-Carneiro (2014) allows for human capital accumulated in one sector to be imperfectly transferred to other sectors as well. I exclude that possibility.

Preferences. Workers have Cobb-Douglass preferences over all goods in the economy:

$$u(C_1, \dots, C_S) = \prod_{s=1}^S C_s^{\gamma_s} \text{ with } \sum_s \gamma_s = 1$$

The price index, which already appeared in equation (9), will then be:

$$P_t = \prod_{s=1}^S \left(\frac{p_t^s}{\gamma_s} \right)^{\gamma_s}$$

Labor demand. Good s is produced by a representative firm with access to Cobb-Douglass technology:

$$Y_{st} = A_{st} K_{st}^{1-\alpha_S} H_{st}^{\alpha_S} \quad (14)$$

Where A and K capture productivity and capital in each sector and H is the sum of efficiency units of human capital across workers who sort into sector s at period t .

Capital. The aggregate stock of physical capital evolves according to:

$$K_{t+1} = (1 - \delta)K_t + I_t$$

Capital is perfectly mobile between sectors. I take the path of $\{I_t\}$ as exogenous and assume it consists of buildings only, so I_t enters as demand for the construction sector at t on top of construction for residential purposes from consumers. I discuss the implications of my assumption about the evolution of investment in the discussion section below.

Equilibrium. The path of $\{\mu_t\}_{t=0}^\infty$ and tradable prices $\bar{p}_t, \underline{p}_t$ are exogenous. An equilibrium is given by a path of non-tradable prices $\{p_t^s(h^t)\}_{t=0}^\infty$ for $s = \text{Construction, Other services}$ and rental price of capital $\{r_t^k(h^t)\}_{t=0}^\infty$ such that:

- Workers migration decisions are given by maximizing [equation \(11\)](#) at all h^t .
- Wages per efficiency unit of human capital equal the value of marginal productivity of human capital in all sectors:

$$w_t^s(h^t) = \left[\frac{p_t^s(h^t) A_s}{r_t^k(h^t)^{1-\alpha_s}} \Gamma^s \right]^{\frac{1}{\alpha_s}} \quad \forall h^t \quad (15)$$

Where Γ^s is a constant.¹⁷

- Markets for non-tradable sectors clear:

$$\begin{aligned} C_t^{\text{other services}}(h^t) &= Y_t^{\text{other services}}(h^t) \quad \forall h^t \\ C_t^{\text{const}}(h^t) + I_t &= Y_t^{\text{const}}(h^t) \quad \forall h^t \end{aligned}$$

- Trade is balanced nationally:

$$\sum_{s \in \mathcal{S}^T} p_t^s(h^t) C_t^s(h^t) = \sum_{s \in \mathcal{S}^T} p_t^s(h^t) Y_t^s(h^t) \quad \forall h^t$$

Discussion. Most of the elements in the model of labor supply are standard and build on [Dix-Carneiro \(2014\)](#) and [Traiberman \(2019\)](#). Compared to the baseline model, a key new ingredient is the fixed utility cost of moving sectors, \tilde{C} , which have been highlighted by the literature as drivers of labor reallocation on top of the opportunity cost which is the focus of the paper. Since the work of [Topalova \(2010\)](#) and [Autor et al. \(2013\)](#), costs of switching industries or regions have played a central role in our understanding of labor responses to shocks to labor demand like trade liberalizations. [Artuç et al. \(2010\)](#) estimated large costs of switching costs in a model without sector-specific human capital accumulation, while [Dix-Carneiro \(2014\)](#) and [Traiberman \(2019\)](#) incorporate human capital and find that estimate of pure migration costs \tilde{C} are reduced substantially.

The main new ingredient in my model of labor supply is in the expectation term in [equation \(11\)](#). By the law of iterated expectations, the continuation value for a worker with characteristics ω' who was employed in s' at t can be written as:

¹⁷ $\Gamma^s = \frac{\alpha_s}{(1-\alpha_s)} 1-\alpha_s + \frac{(1-\alpha_s)}{\alpha_s} \alpha_s$.

$$\mathbb{E}_t V_{t+1}(s', \omega', h^{t+1}) = \mu_t \mathbb{E}_t V_{t+1}(s', \omega', \{h^t, 0\}) + (1 - \mu_t) \mathbb{E}_t V_{t+1}(s', \omega', \{h^t, 1\}) \quad (16)$$

Equation (16) will have important implications when estimating the costs of switching sectors using data only from a booming period. The key challenge becomes disentangling between pure switching costs from unobserved changes in future value in the event of a bust (which are not observed).

Investment in physical capital is assumed to be exogenous. The reason to incorporate this element, despite its simplistic form, is the empirical relevance in the context. Investment was large, particularly in the early stages of the boom, which introduced a temporary increase in labor demand as mines and roads to the mines had to be built. Of course, investment could also be responding to duration uncertainty in interesting ways. To keep the model manageable, I abstract from this in the model.

Labor market frictions are assumed away, which makes the labor demand decisions by firms static. Kline (2008) suggests that sluggish adjustments in labor demand are important in the context of labor reallocation after oil shocks; more generally, introducing firing or search costs could be an important direction in which to extend the analysis. Clearly, in such a model firms would also react to changes in the expected duration of the shock. Such a model would also have unemployment, which is absent from my model.

5 Data sources

I rely on three types of data for the estimation and calibration: financial data, matched employer-employee data, and aggregate sectoral data from national accounts.

5.1 Financial data

I use data on one firm which is among the biggest mining firms in Australia and in the world. From now on I call this firm φ . From OptionMetrics, a large provider of data on financial instruments traded in US markets, I have data on stocks and put options on the stock of this firm. Data on dividends is publicly available.

In the OptionMetrics data I observe, at a daily frequency between March 2004 and December 2019, the best offer for put options of different horizons (T) and strike prices (K) on the stock of firm φ . These are American options, which means that the holder of the instrument can exercise the option at any time before time T .¹⁸ If the option gets exercised the holder sells a unit of the underlying stock for a price K . Clearly, these instruments gain in value whenever the expectations of the market value of the stock go down, especially when they are expected

¹⁸In comparison, European options can only be exercised at T .

to fall below K . This should make them particularly sensitive to changes in the probability of big events like the end of a commodity boom, which is why I choose to focus on them. In OptionMetrics I also observe the value of the stock of the firm underlying the option just described. Both put and stock values are denominated in dollars and traded in US markets.

I keep put options with a horizon of T close to one year. As the rest of the model will be estimated at an annual frequency I want to capture the probability that the boom is over ‘one year ahead’. Given the frequency at which I observe dividends, I keep the median half-yearly value across options with the same K . The number of observations with different strike prices in a particular semester varies. To have a stable number of observations per semester I keep three instruments with different strike prices per semester.

From public data, I observe the value of dividends per share at a semi-annual frequency. These values are also expressed in dollars.

Using F to denote the best offer for the options, S the value of the stock, and d the dividends per share, my data consists of observations of $\{d_t^\varphi, S_t^\varphi, \{F_t^\varphi(S_t^\varphi, T, K_i)\}_{i=1}^3\}$ for each semester between 2010h1 and 2019h2.

5.2 Labor data

My main source of data is a novel and rich collection of administrative datasets from Australia which combines the Multi-Agency Data Integration Project (MADIP) and the Business Longitudinal Data Environment (BLADE), both compiled and held by the Australian Bureau of Statistics (ABS). The first one has information on workers and the second on firms.

From MADIP I observe tax returns filed between 2010 and 2018, where both the worker and the plant of employment are identified with a code. Plants can be linked to firms using information from BLADE. Workers are identified with the same code across years and the different tax returns they may file in a given year. I use this identifier to construct a panel of workers where I keep the highest-paying job a worker had each year.

Firms in the data are classified into sectors according to the ANZSIC classifications, which are original to ABS. I aggregate sectors into 5 sectors following as closely as possible the classification in [Dix-Carneiro \(2014\)](#): agriculture and forestry (1.3% of the workers in my panel), mining (3.3%), manufacturing (6.2%), construction (5.9%) and other services (83%).¹⁹ The main difference in my classification is that I distinguish between agriculture and mining, given that the boom was focused on mining.²⁰

This panel can then be linked to the 2016 census, from which I recovered the education that each worker reported to have in 2016. This means that I can’t observe changes in education status. I classify workers into three education groups. The first group includes people with at

¹⁹The percentages represent my 2011-2018 sample.

²⁰See [Section 3](#).

most high school completed (41% of the workers in my panel); the second encompasses workers who have done courses shorter than two years above high school, which includes vocational training (23%); the third group encompasses everyone with a bachelor degree or higher (36%). Appendix [Section C.5](#) shows the joint distribution of workers across education-sector pairs.

5.3 National accounts

I collect data on value-added, exports, wage bills, and imports by sector from public sources. I aggregate them at the level of the same 5 sectors used in the rest of the paper. I also use the series of aggregate stock of capital. To be consistent with the model, I use the series of non-dwelling construction at constant prices.

6 Estimation

I calibrate the series of μ_t by matching the theoretical value of financial instruments, using standard formulas, to the financial data just described. To estimate the parameters of labor supply I will follow the approach in [Traiberman \(2019\)](#), who in turn follows a rich literature from industrial organization and labor economics ([Rust, 1987](#); [Lee and Wolpin, 2006](#); [Arcidiacono and Miller, 2011](#)).

6.1 Process for prices

The object of interest in this subsection is the hazard rate for the end of the boom, μ_t in [equation \(8\)](#). First I will describe how, under some assumptions about dividends, the theoretical value of stocks and options depends indirectly on μ . Then I explain the calibration and conclude by discussing my results.

6.1.1 The financial value of firm φ and the aggregate state

I assume that the dividends the firm pays in period t (in logs) are a linear function of the aggregate price index of mining products in period $t - 1$ (in logs) and an error term. Using a tilde to indicate that variables are in logs:

$$\tilde{d}_t^\varphi = \delta_0 + \delta_1 \tilde{p}_{t-1}^M + u_t \quad (17)$$

This reduced-form equation is intended to capture both how the profits of the firm react to the aggregate level of mining prices and the firm's decision to distribute part of those profits as dividends. The error term u_t is assumed to be normally distributed with standard deviation σ .

Conditional on a boom, \tilde{p}^M is assumed to follow an AR(1) process:

$$\tilde{p}_t^M = \rho_0 + \rho_1(\tilde{p}_{t-1}^M - \rho_0) + \nu_t \quad (18)$$

Where ν_t shocks are i.i.d with mean 0. The parameter ρ_1 measures persistence in deviation of prices around the mean for boom periods ρ_0 . If there is no boom, the price of mining products will be \tilde{p}^b , the log of \underline{p} in [equation \(7\)](#).

I estimate $\delta_0, \delta_1, \rho_0$ and ρ_1 from the half-yearly data for dividends and the price index of mining products from [Figure 6a](#).²¹ The forecast of future dividends (in levels) can be calculated by exploiting the fact that from [equation \(17\)](#), future dividends will be log-normally distributed.

$$\mathbb{E}_t[d_{t+1}|b_t = 1] = e^{\delta_0 + \delta_1 \tilde{p}_t^M + \frac{\sigma^2}{2}} \quad (19)$$

$$\mathbb{E}_t[d_{t+j}|b_t = 1] = \mathbb{P}[b_{t+j} = 1] e^{\delta_0 + \delta_1 [(\rho_0 + \rho_1^j (p_{t-1} - \rho_0) p_t^M + \frac{\sigma^2}{2}) + (1 - \mathbb{P}[b_{t+j} = 1]) \tilde{p}^b + \frac{\sigma^2}{2}]} \quad (20)$$

Notice that the probability that the boom is ongoing at $t + j$ is itself a function of the path of μ :

$$\mathbb{P}[b_{t+j} = 1] = \prod_{s=0}^{j-1} (1 - \mu_{t+s}) \quad (21)$$

I now turn to how the perspective of future commodity prices affects - through dividends - the value of different financial instruments ex-ante. The value of the stock S_t^φ equals the expected discounted sum of dividends:²²

$$S_t^\varphi(b_t) = \mathbb{E}_t \left[\sum_{s=t+1}^{\infty} M_{t,s}(b_s) d_s^\varphi \right] \quad (22)$$

Where $M_{t,s}$ is the stochastic discount factor between future state s and current t .

I now turn to American put options on the stock of this firm. As mentioned in [Section 5](#), these instruments allow the holder to sell the stock at some strike price K at any period before the termination date T . Their value when investors are risk neutral is given by:²³

²¹Figure [6a](#) plots the aggregate price index relative to non-commodities. For this calculation, I use the absolute level of the index for mining products.

²²See, for example, [Cochrane \(2005\)](#).

²³See, for example, [Dixit and Pindyck \(1994\)](#).

$$F_t^\varphi(S_t(b)^\varphi, T, K) = \begin{cases} \max\left\{\frac{(1-\mu_t)F_{t+1}^\varphi(S_{t+1}^\varphi(b=1), T, K) + \mu_t F_{t+1}^\varphi(S_{t+1}^\varphi(b=0), T, K)}{(1+r_t)}, K - S_t^\varphi, 0\right\} & t < T, b_t = 1 \\ \max\left\{\frac{F_{t+1}^\varphi(S_{t+1}^\varphi(b=0), T, K)}{(1+r_t)}, K - S_t^\varphi, 0\right\} & t < T, b_t = 0 \\ \max\{K - S_T, 0\} & t = T \end{cases} \quad (23)$$

Equation (23) reflects investors' optimal stopping time decision. The primitives μ will affect the evolution of F in a non-linear way.

6.1.2 Calibration

First I estimate $\delta_0, \delta_1, \rho_0$ and ρ_1 from half-yearly data on mining price indices and dividends using OLS. I obtain $\hat{\rho}_0 = 0.54, \hat{\rho}_1 = 0.68, \hat{\delta}_0 = 2.43, \hat{\delta}_1 = 2.33$. The standard deviation of the residuals in equation (17), which matters for equation (22), is $\hat{\sigma} = 0.3$.

I assume that stochastic discount factors can be parametrized as $M_{t,s} = \frac{\beta^{s-t} m_s(b_s)}{m_t(b_t)}$, with the interpretation that $m_s(b_s)$ is the marginal utility in period s if the state is b_s (Cochrane, 2005). I set $\beta = 0.96$, a standard value for the parameter.

I calibrate the values of $\{m_t(b_t = 1), m_t(b_t = 0), \mu_t\}_{t=2010H1}^T$ so as to minimize the distance between the time series and the model predicted values for these instruments, given by equation (22) and equation (23). Notice that I need to look for values up to a period T later than 2019H2.

6.1.3 Discussion

Figure 7a below shows the annualized results for μ_t . This can be interpreted as the calibrated probability that the boom ends in the following two semesters from the perspective of t .²⁴ The spike in late 2015 coincides with a stock market crash in China, which raised doubts about whether the whole Chinese economy was about to enter into a recession.²⁵ Moreover, as shown in the Appendix Section C.2, new residential housing started to grow below trend in late 2014, and by 2016 Kruger et al. (2016) suggested that the housing boom was over. However, construction quickly picked up by mid-2017 as the government in China provided stimulus to the real estate sector. This is reflected in the series for μ_t , which quickly goes back to its pre-2015 level.

²⁴ $\mu_t^{annual} = \mu_t + (1 - \mu_t)\mu_{t+1}$.

²⁵ The following piece of news from July 2015 in CNN is eloquent: *Fears of a downturn in China have already hammered the price of commodities like iron ore and copper this week. In the longer term, this could also hurt places like Australia, which supplies a lot of China's raw materials.* Link: <https://www.cnn.com/2015/07/08/asia/china-stocks-explainer/index.html>, accessed in August 2023.

6.1.4 Validation

Is this the right measure for workers? The quote, references and Figure 6b from Section 3 indicate that informed observers were aware of the temporary nature of the boom and consistently forecast prices to drop. A natural question is whether this estimate captures something that workers were aware of, as I will assume when I estimate the labor parameters of the model in the next sub-section. At the aggregate level, is there evidence of this? Do labor markets indeed respond to changes in the expected duration of the boom measured by μ ?

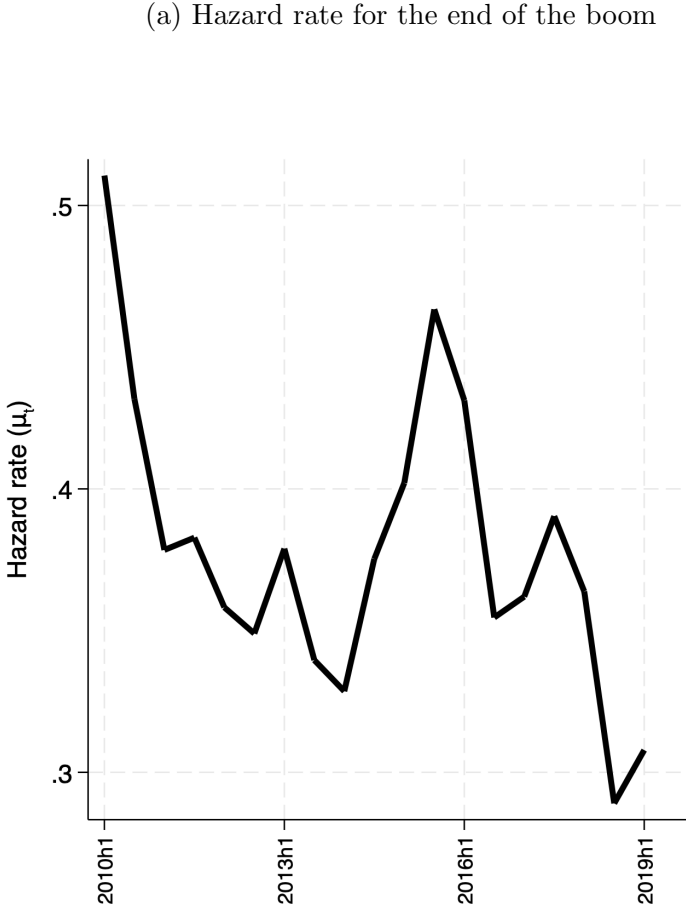
To address this, I compare how transition rates into mining react to changes in μ . Consider equation (24), where $Y_{i,t}$ takes value one if worker i is employed in mining in year t . In X I include controls like age, education, and the previous sector of employment. The last control is important if switching costs depend on both sectors of origin and destination. Because μ may be related to the level of prices themselves, I also include the level of prices for mining products, p^M .

$$Y_{i,t} = \alpha_0 + \alpha_1 p_{t-1}^M + \alpha_2 p_{t-2}^M + \alpha_3 \mu_{t-1} + \bar{\alpha} X_{it} + \epsilon_{it} \quad (24)$$

I lag the values of p and μ as, naturally, it takes time to switch sectors. I estimate this equation through OLS in the panel of workers described in Section 5 for the years 2011-2018. The first column in Table 7b shows that the estimate of α_3 is negative, as expected. Given that the baseline share of workers employed in mining is low, 3.7% on average between 2011 and 2018, the estimated effect is large.

The second column in Table 7b shows the results of estimating equation (24) allowing for interactions between μ_{t-1} and characteristics like age and education. I find that middle-aged workers are the most responsive to increases in μ . The differential effect is consistent with the mechanism posited in the paper: as younger workers have longer horizons, they should be more sensitive to changes in the expected duration of the boom, which is inversely related to μ . Notice that changes in μ affect the expected duration of the boom, not its uncertainty, and therefore can't be mapped directly with the counterfactual I'm interested in.

Figure 7: Hazard rate: estimate and validation



(b) Reduced-form relation between hazard rate and labor market outcomes

	Mining	Mining
p_{t-1}^M	0.000448 (0.000321)	0.000437 (0.000321)
p_{t-2}^M	-0.00185*** (0.000260)	-0.00185*** (0.000260)
μ_{t-1}	-0.0133*** (0.00370)	-0.00340 (0.00918)
Vocational $\times \mu_t$		-0.00911 (0.00878)
College $\times \mu_t$		0.00804 (0.00761)
Age 31-40 $\times \mu_t$		-0.0297*** (0.0105)
Age 41-50 $\times \mu_t$		-0.0214** (0.00976)
Age 51-60 $\times \mu_t$		0.000281 (0.00932)
Observations	681218	681218
Previous sector FE	Yes	Yes
Region FE	Yes	Yes
Year Trend	Yes	Yes

Standard errors in parentheses

6.2 Small open economy

6.2.1 Estimation

I make the following functional form assumptions about the determinants of human capital and the structure of migration costs between sectors, following [Traiberman \(2019\)](#).

Determinants of human capital. The relationship between human capital and individual characteristics is given by:

$$\log(H_s(\omega_{it}, \zeta_{it})) = \beta_1^s \times a_{it} + \beta_2^s \times a_{it}^2 + \beta_3^s \times \Delta_{it} + \beta_4^s \mathbb{I}[e = med] + \beta_5^s \mathbb{I}[e = high] + \log(\theta_{si}) + \zeta_{ist} \quad (25)$$

Notice that coefficients on age, tenure, education group, and unobserved heterogeneity are allowed to vary by sector. This functional form relating log income linearly to experience is standard and is analogous to the one in the baseline model.

If there was no unobservable heterogeneity (and given the timing assumption on ζ) [equation \(25\)](#) could be estimated by regressing log income on observables. As already discussed, allowing for some degree of unobserved heterogeneity alleviates the concern that the returns to tenure I will estimate reflect the selection of the workers that decide to stay in a sector. Following [Traiberman \(2019\)](#) I assume two types θ per education level.

To estimate the parameters in [equation \(25\)](#) I follow the expectation maximization approach ([Arcidiacono and Miller, 2011](#); [Scott, 2014](#)). The main idea is to estimate jointly the parameters of interest, β , as well as the probability that each worker i belongs to unobserved type $\theta \in \{1, \dots, 6\}$, $q_{i\theta}$. The estimates $\hat{\beta}^{ML}, \hat{q}_{i\theta}$ maximize the following likelihood, where the contribution of each agent i if she was of type θ , $\mathcal{L}_{i|\theta}$, are weighted by their individual $q_{i\theta}$. The conditional likelihood $\mathcal{L}_{i\theta}$ is the product of the likelihood that worker i earns income y conditional on being of type θ , and the probability that she chooses to be in that sector in period t . Using [equation \(25\)](#) and that $\zeta \sim N(0, 1)$, the first of these terms has a closed form. The second term is estimated from the data by regressing the probability of workers transitioning between sector pairs conditioning on observables through OLS. Formally:

$$\hat{\beta}^{ML}, \hat{q}_{i\theta} = \underset{i=1}{\overset{N}{\operatorname{argmax}}} \prod_{i=1}^N \prod_{\theta=1}^6 \hat{q}_{i\theta} \mathcal{L}_{i|\theta} \quad (26)$$

$$\mathcal{L}_{i|\theta} = \prod_{t=2011}^{2019} f(y_{it}(\omega_{it})|\beta, \theta) \pi(s_{it}|s_{i,t-1}, \theta) \quad (27)$$

Switching costs. I assume the cost of switching from sector s to s' for a worker with characteristics ω can be parametrized as follows:

$$\tilde{C}(\omega, s, s') = f(\omega)C(s, s')$$

Where:

$$\log(f(\omega_{it})) = \alpha_1 \times age_{it} + \alpha_2 \times age_{it}^2 \quad \log(C(s, s')) = \Gamma_o^s + \Gamma_d^s \quad (28)$$

The first component captures that it may be differentially costly for workers of different ages to switch sectors, as this involves learning new skills. The second function captures flexible ways in which it may be costly to both leave and enter a sector. Γ_o^s (Γ_d^s) indexes the utility cost paid by a worker when s is sector of origin (destination). Assuming this, instead of flexible $\Gamma_{ss'}$ for all pairs, reduces the number of parameters to be estimated.

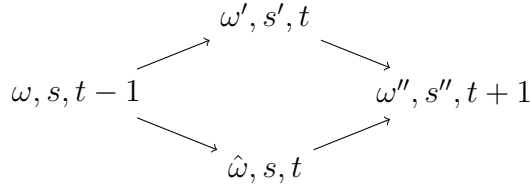
I assume that idiosyncratic shocks ϵ_{sit} are drawn from a Gumbel distribution. The value

of a worker who was employed in s at $t - 1$, if the boom is still ongoing at t can be written conditioning on any sector s' she could choose at t .²⁶

$$\begin{aligned} \frac{V_t(s, \omega, h^t)}{\rho} = & \gamma + \frac{w_{s't} \mathbb{E}_\zeta H_{s'}(\omega, \zeta_{s't}) - C(\omega, s, s')}{\rho} \\ & + \frac{\beta}{\rho} \left[\mu_t \mathbb{E}_t V_{t+1}(s', \omega', \{h^t, 0\}) + (1 - \mu_t) \mathbb{E}_t V_{t+1}(s', \omega', \{h^t, 1\}) \right] - \log(\pi_t(\omega, s, s')) \end{aligned} \quad (29)$$

Agents observe h^t before making decisions at t , so there is no expectation about current wages, only on the current ex-post shock ζ . On the right-hand side, I used the law of iterated expectations to write $\mathbb{E}_t[V_{t+1}]$ as the sum of the value conditional on the boom continuing at $t + 1$ and finishing by then. I could now iterate again on V_{t+1} choosing any particular action s'' at $t + 1$. It is particularly useful to consider the following trajectories:

Figure 8: Trajectories for worker with characteristics ω at t in estimated equation



For workers with the same characteristics ω I consider two trajectories: $s \rightarrow s' \rightarrow s''$ and $s \rightarrow s \rightarrow s''$ with $s'' \neq s \neq s'$. By [equation \(13\)](#), their human capital when they arrive at s'' will be the same, so their continuation value from $t + 2$ onwards will be the same. This can be used, after writing down [equation \(29\)](#) conditioning on both trajectories and taking differences, to net out continuation values and wages at $t + 2$ on both sides. After these steps, relegated to [Section A.3](#) in the Appendix, I end up with the following equation:

$$\begin{aligned} \log \left(\frac{\pi_t(\omega, s, s)}{\pi_t(\omega, s, s')} \right) + \beta \left[\mu_t (\mathbb{E}_t [\log(\tilde{\pi}_{t+1}(\hat{\omega}, s, s'')) - \log(\tilde{\pi}_{t+1}(\omega', s', s''))]) + \right. \\ \left. (1 - \mu_t) \mathbb{E}_t [\log(\pi_{t+1}(\hat{\omega}, s, s'')) - \log(\pi_{t+1}(\omega', s', s''))] \right] = Y_{s,s,t}^\omega - Y_{s,s',t}^\omega + \frac{\beta}{\rho} [f(\omega')C(s', s'') - f(\hat{\omega})C(s, s'')] \end{aligned} \quad (30)$$

Where $Y_{s,s',t}^\omega$ is the flow payoff of switching from s to s' at t for a worker with characteristics ω .²⁷ Transitions $\pi_{t+1}(\omega, s, s')$ and $\tilde{\pi}_{t+1}(\omega, s, s')$ represent transition rates between sector pairs s, s' for a worker with characteristics ω if the boom continues and ends at $t + 1$, respectively. The analogous equation in [Traiberman \(2019\)](#) looks like this with $\mu_t = 0$. [Traiberman \(2019\)](#) replaces $\mathbb{E}_t[\pi_{t+1}]$ with the observed π_{t+1} and an expectation error. He makes the assumption, standard

²⁶These steps are standard. See [Rust \(1987\)](#); [Arcidiacono and Miller \(2011\)](#).

²⁷ $\rho Y_{s,s',t}^\omega = w_{s't} \mathbb{E}_\zeta [H_{s'}(\omega, \zeta)] + \eta_s - f(\omega)C(s, s')$.

in the literature, that expectation errors are uncorrelated across periods. In my context, these assumptions on unconditional expectations are strong. As I only have data during the boom years, the expectation error involves μ_t and the gap between transition rates across regimes, on top of the error term.²⁸ For this reason, I make the following assumptions.

ASSUMPTION 3. Conditional expectations for transition probabilities are given by:

- $\mathbb{E}_t[\pi_{t+1}(\omega, s, s')|b_{t+1} = 1] = \pi_{t+1}(\omega, s, s') + u_{\omega, s, s', t}$, **with u uncorrelated across periods.**
- $\mathbb{E}_t[\pi_{t+1}(\omega, s, s')|b_{t+1} = 0] = p(\omega, t, s, s')$.

Where $p(\omega, t, s, s')$ is a polynomial of second order in age, tenure, year, interacted with sectors. See Appendix [Section A.3](#) for a complete specification of the polynomial.

The first item in Assumption 3 is equivalent to the assumption in [Traiberman \(2019\)](#) but for the conditional instead of the unconditional expectation. The second item states that to make expectations about how things would look in the event of the boom ending at $t + 1$ workers are less sophisticated and form expectations using a polynomial on age, sector pairs, and time. My assumptions are weaker in the sense that uncorrelated expectation errors are assumed only conditional on the boom. My assumptions is stronger in the sense that I'm imposing a functional form assumption on expectations in the bust state. I make this assumption to be able to deal with the problem computationally.

Using Assumption 3, [equation \(30\)](#) becomes:

$$\log\left(\frac{\pi_t(\omega, s, s')}{\pi_t(\omega, s, s')}\right) + \beta(1 - \mu_t) \log\left(\frac{\pi_{t+1}(\hat{\omega}, s, s'')}{\pi_{t+1}(\omega', s', s'')}\right) = \quad (32)$$

$$Y_{s, s, t}^\omega - Y_{s, s', t}^\omega + \frac{\beta}{\rho} [f(\omega')C(s', s'') - f(\hat{\omega})C(s, s'')] - \beta\mu_t [p(\hat{\omega}, t + 1, s, s'') - p(\omega', t + 1, s', s'')] + \tilde{u}_{s, s', t} \quad (33)$$

The left-hand side measures, appropriately weighting transition rates in both periods, how much more likely it is that a worker follows the s, s, s'' trajectory rather than s, s', s'' during two boom years. This gap depends on three terms: the flow utility in s versus s' at period t , which workers observe before deciding where to work; how much more costly it will be to leave s relative to leave s' in the future; and the drop in value in sector s relative to s' at $t + 1$ in

²⁸To see this:

$$\mathbb{E}_t[\pi_{t+1}] - \pi_{t+1} = \mu_t \tilde{\pi}_{t+1} + (1 - \mu) \pi_{t+1} - \pi_{t+1} = \mu_t (\tilde{\pi}_{t+1} - \pi_{t+1}). \quad (31)$$

. Where I've omitted arguments of π for simplicity.

the event of an end of the boom. The key challenge is to tell apart this drop in value from pure migration costs. The left-hand side is data and the right-hand side is, at this stage, only a function of the cost parameters in \tilde{C} . I estimate them by minimizing the gap between the two.

Labor shares and preferences. I calibrate labor and expenditure shares as follows:

$$\alpha_s = \frac{w_s H_s}{Y_s} \quad \gamma_s = \frac{Y_s + M_s - X_s}{\sum_{j \in \mathcal{S}} Y_j + M_j - X_j} \quad (34)$$

Where $w_s H_s$ and Y_s are labor compensation and gross value added by sector. M_s and X_s are exports and imports respectively. For these parameters I use aggregated data by industry from national accounts, which I then aggregate using my industry classifications. This procedure is similar to the one in [Caliendo et al. \(2018\)](#), except that I don't account for input-output linkages.

Productivities. The last parameters I need to calibrate are productivity parameters, A_{st} in [equation \(14\)](#). I use the structure of the model to back them out from the first-order condition of firms [equation \(15\)](#) and the market clearing conditions.

First I recover the wages per efficiency unit of human capital, w_{st} , from the sector-year fixed effects in the estimation of [equation \(9\)](#). I can also calculate the effective units of human capital that sort into each sector H_{st} , as I know the characteristics of all workers and have estimated the parameters in [equation \(9\)](#). For the observed allocation to be an equilibrium it has to be that the market for the two non-tradable goods and capital clear internally and that trade is balanced. I further assume that productivity is the same in all three tradable sectors. I calibrate the three productivity parameters and the rental cost of capital, r , such that the observed allocation is an equilibrium, as seen through the lens of the model.

6.2.2 Results

Returns to tenure. The first column of [Table 1](#) below shows the estimates of the returns to tenure. These estimates indicate that there is substantial on-the-job sector-specific human capital accumulation, and the rate at which it is accumulated differs between sectors. The second column of [Table 1](#) shows the returns to tenure estimated through OLS, without accounting for unobserved heterogeneity. Intuitively, the estimates would have been higher as they partly capture differential selection across workers who decide to stay in a sector.

Switching costs and amenities. The elements in the switching cost function [equation \(28\)](#) and amenities are hard to interpret as standalone objects. Following the literature, I calculate the non-pecuniary payoff that a worker with characteristics ω moving from s to s' would face and divide that by the income of that same worker upon switching:

Table 1: Returns to tenure in each sector

	β^{ten}	
	Expectation Maximization	OLS
Manufacturing	0.0774*** (0.001)	0.0865*** (0.002)
Mining	0.0836*** (0.002)	0.0719*** (0.003)
Agriculture	0.0358*** (0.003)	0.119*** (0.004)
Construction	0.0713*** (0.001)	0.0849*** (0.002)
Other services	0.086*** (0.000)	0.1095*** (0.001)
Standard errors in parentheses		

$$\frac{C(\omega, s, s') + \eta_{s'}}{w_{s't} H_{s'}(\omega)}$$

Then I sum across workers using transition shares $\pi_t(\omega, s, s')$ to weight the costs of moving for different workers. I do the calculations for year 2012, but results are similar for different years.

Table 2: Switching costs as a share of yearly income (weighted average)

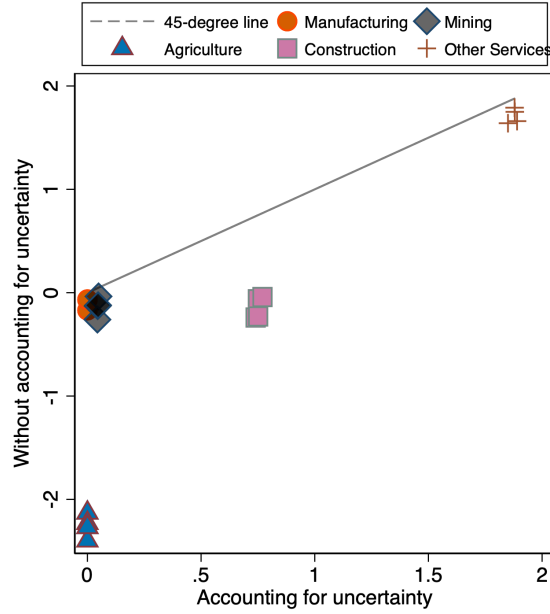
Origin	Destination				
	Manufacturing	Mining	Agriculture	Construction	Other Services
Manufacturing	0	0.045	5×10^{-7}	0.75	1.87
Mining	0	0.037	5.2×10^{-7}	0.74	1.89
Agriculture	0	0.044	4.01×10^{-7}	0.75	1.85
Construction	0	0.045	5.11×10^{-7}	0.54	1.88
Other Services	0	0.047	5.24×10^{-7}	0.77	1.26

The estimated costs are relatively low but in the ballpark of the estimates in [Traiberman \(2019\)](#) who estimates switching costs between occupations close to one year of income. Both the amenities and the cost of switching into manufacturing are normalized to zero, which is why the first column of [2](#) are zeros.

To capture the importance of accounting for uncertainty at the estimation stage I re-estimate [equation \(33\)](#) ignoring the last term on the right-hand side. [Figure 9](#) below compares the estimates in [Table 2](#) with what I would have obtained if I had ignored the uncertainty term.

The estimates of non-pecuniary costs and amenities of working in different sectors get substantially reduced. Interestingly, the effect is particularly strong for agriculture and construc-

Figure 9: Accounting for uncertainty matters for estimates of switching costs



tion.

Labor shares and preferences.

Table 3: Calibration

Sector	Labor share α	Expenditure share γ
Manufacturing	0.60	0.20
Mining	0.22	0.03
Agriculture	0.21	0.02
Construction	0.52	0.09
Other Services	0.72	0.66

These results are intuitive. Manufacturing and services are the most labor-intensive sectors, and agriculture and mining are the least. In terms of expenditure shares, most of the income goes to services and very little gets directly spent on agriculture and mining. This has to do with not incorporating input-output linkages in the model directly. Some agricultural inputs would be used to produce manufacturing products, for example.

7 Counterfactual analysis

I use the estimated model to simulate an economy in which there is no uncertainty about the path of prices, but there is still a temporary boom in mining. Mining prices are given by:

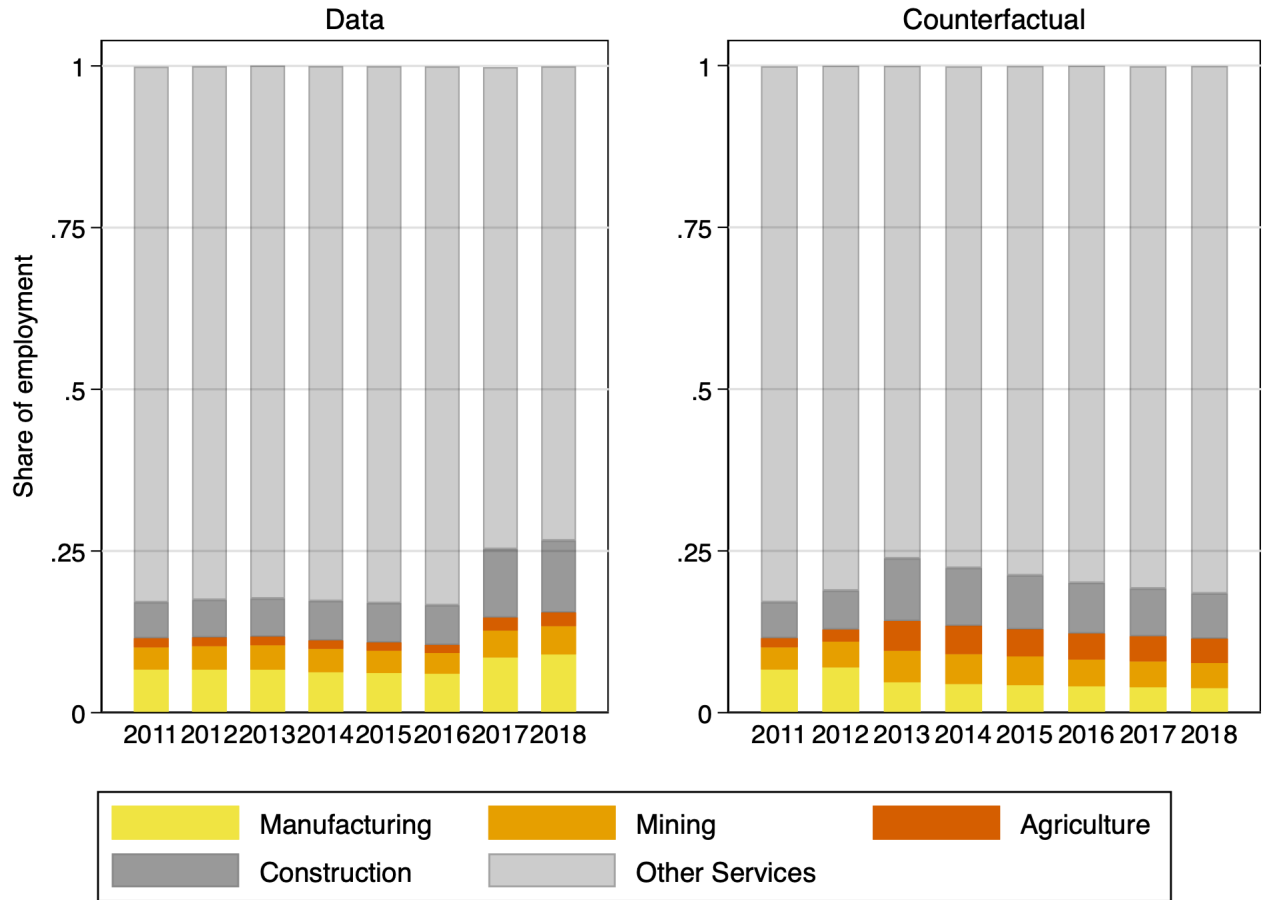
$$p_t^{M,cf} = \begin{cases} p_t^M & t < 2015 \\ \underline{p} & t \geq 2015 \end{cases}. \quad (35)$$

The end of the boom is dated in 2014, the expected duration derived from the calibrated hazard rate. Comparing the allocation of workers across sectors and relative wages in this economy to the data indicates whether stripping out uncertainty about duration increases or reduces labor supply into the booming sector in general equilibrium.

The nature of the counterfactual exercise is the same as the one in Figure 5 in the baseline model of Section 2. Fan et al. (2023) consider a similar exercise, which they call analyzing the effects of uncertainty ex-post. Alessandria et al. (2023) do a similar analysis when estimating the effect of uncertainty about trade policy for the intra-year dynamics of firms' imports from China before China's WTO accession.

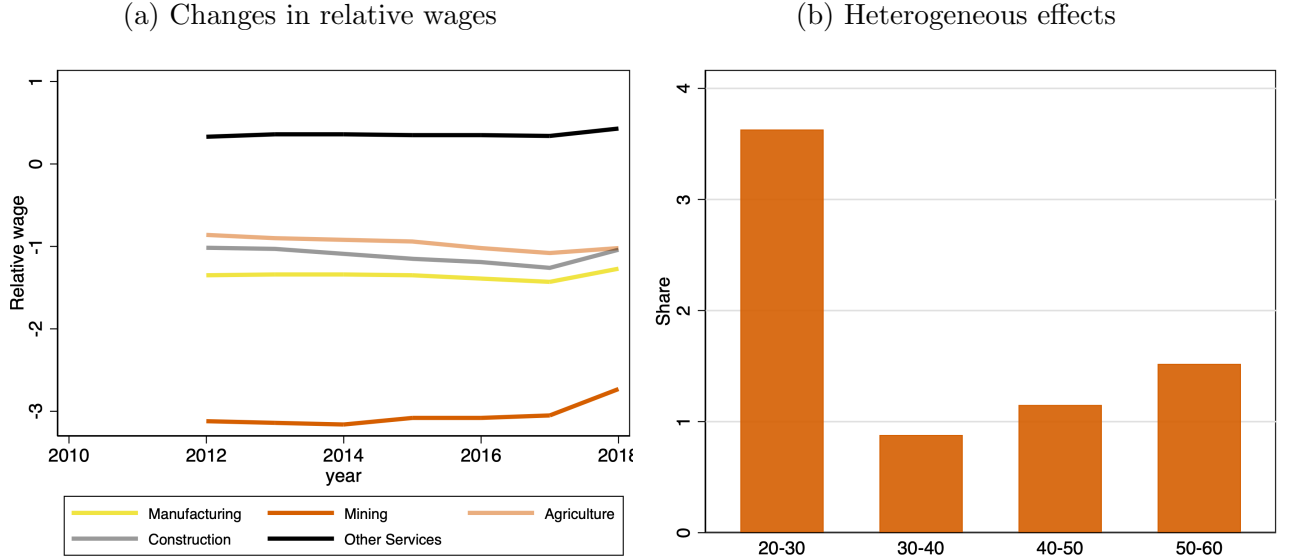
Figure 10 below compares employment across sectors in counterfactual without uncertainty to the data. Mining and agriculture grow substantially. The average share of workers employed in mining goes up to 4.0% compared to 3.7% in the baseline, an increase of 8.1%. The share of employment in agriculture goes up from 1.4% to 3.6%, more than doubling. The two sectors that lose employment are manufacturing, which drops from 6.9% to 4.4% and services, which drops marginally.

Figure 10: Difference between counterfactual and the data



To tell whether the driver of these changes in employment are changes in labor supply I now look at the wage in each sector, relative to a weighted average across sectors. The results are shown in Figure 11a below. The relative wage in mining is estimated to be three times the average wage in the data, while it's lower than the average wage in the counterfactual economy. From here I conclude that aggregate labor supply into mining increases in the counterfactual economy. Figure 11a shows how relative wages in the counterfactual economy compare to relative wages in the data for all sectors.

Figure 11: Counterfactual results



Heterogeneous effects. One main conclusion from the baseline model is that the effects of uncertainty about duration are different for different workers. One interesting dimension of heterogeneity is age. To study heterogeneity in general equilibrium I compare the number of workers sorting into mining in the counterfactual, relative to the data, by age groups. The results are shown in Figure 11b. Shutting off uncertainty about duration has a stronger effect on young workers: the number of them sorting into the sector more than triples. The smallest effects happen for middle-aged workers. For those in the 30 – 40 group labor supply into mining even declines. The model in Section 2 provides a lens to understand this differential effect for middle-aged workers.

8 Concluding remarks

Substantial attention has been paid to labor reallocation following persistent changes in sectoral labor demand coming, for example, from trade liberalization reforms or technological change. In this paper, I study labor reallocation during temporary booms focusing on a novel element that arises in this environment: uncertainty about how long the boom phase will last.

In the first part of the paper, I show that duration uncertainty interacts with labor supply decisions in an interesting way. I build a model with sector-specific on-the-job human capital accumulation, an ingredient found empirically relevant in other contexts (Dix-Carneiro, 2014; Traiberman, 2019). Through the lens of the model, I show that entrants into the booming sectors can have risk-loving attitudes towards the duration of the boom, and these are heterogeneous across workers.

In the second part I build and estimate a quantitative version of the baseline model and use it to study the importance of duration uncertainty during the recent mining boom in Australia, which was part of a broader boom in the prices of commodities that affected many economies (IMF, 2016; WB, 2015). Using the estimated version of the model I found that in this case the results go in the intuitive direction: duration uncertainty decreases aggregate labor supply into mining. However, the labor supply responses to uncertainty are heterogeneous across ages, and for a group of middle-aged workers, duration uncertainty had the opposite effect.

In this paper I tackled a positive question about the drivers of labor supply decisions during booms and, in the quantitative exercise, found support for the general framework from the first section. These results motivate normative questions. For example, what's the effectiveness of subsidies to reallocation into booming sectors in a context in which duration uncertainty plays a role? Or more broadly, how does uncertainty about the duration of certain policies - e.g: industrial policy - influence workers' decision to enter into the subsidized industries?

References

- Adao, R. (2016). Worker heterogeneity, wage inequality and international trade: theory and evidence from Brazil. Working Paper.
- Alessandria, G., Khan, S. Y., and Khederlarian, A. (2023). Taking Stock of Trade Policy Uncertainty: Evidence from China's Pre-WTO Accession.
- Allcott, H. and Keniston, D. (2018). Dutch Disease or Agglomeration? The Local Economic Effects of Natural Resource Booms in Modern America. The Review of Economic Studies, 85(2):695–731.
- Arcidiacono, P. and Miller, R. A. (2011). Conditional Choice Probability Estimation of Dynamic Discrete Choice Models With Unobserved Heterogeneity. Econometrica, 79(6):1823–1867. Number: 6.
- Artuç, E., Chaudhuri, S., and McLaren, J. (2010). Trade Shocks and Labor Adjustment: A Structural Empirical Approach. American Economic Review, 100(3):1008–1045. Number: 3.
- Atkin, D. (2016). Endogenous Skill Acquisition and Export Manufacturing in Mexico. American Economic Review, 106(8):2046–2085. Number: 8.
- Autor, D. H., Dorn, D., and Hanson, G. H. (2013). The China Syndrome: Local Labor Market Effects of Import Competition in the United States. American Economic Review, 103(6):2121–2168. Number: 6.

- Benguria, F., Saffie, F., and Urzua, S. (2021). The Transmission of Commodity Price Super-Cycles.
- Berkelmans, L. and Wang, H. (2012). Chinese Urban Residential Construction to 2040. Research Bank of Australia, (RDP 2012-04). Number: RDP 2012-04.
- Caliendo, L., Dvorkin, M., and Parro, F. (2019). Trade and Labor Market Dynamics: General Equilibrium Analysis of the China Trade Shock. Econometrica, 87(3):741–835. Number: 3.
- Caliendo, L., Parro, F., Rossi-Hansberg, E., and Sarte, P.-D. (2018). The Impact of Regional and Sectoral Productivity Changes on the U.S. Economy. The Review of Economic Studies, 85(4):2042–2096.
- Cochrane, J. (2005). Asset Pricing. Princeton University Press, Princeton.
- Corden, W. M. and Neary, J. P. (1982). Booming Sector and De-Industrialisation in a Small Open Economy. The Economic Journal, 92(368):825.
- Dix-Carneiro, R. (2014). Trade Liberalization and Labor Market Dynamics. Econometrica, 82(3):825–885. Number: 3.
- Dix-Carneiro, R. and Kovak, B. K. (2017). Trade Liberalization and Regional Dynamics. American Economic Review, 107(10):2908–2946. Number: 10.
- Dix-Carneiro, R. and Kovak, B. K. (2019). Margins of labor market adjustment to trade. Journal of International Economics, 117:125–142.
- Dixit, R. K. and Pindyck, R. S. (1994). Investment under Uncertainty. Princeton University Press.
- Drechsel, T. and Tenreyro, S. (2018). Commodity booms and busts in emerging economies. Journal of International Economics, 112:200–218.
- Erten, B. and Ocampo, J. A. (2013). Super Cycles of Commodity Prices Since the Mid-Nineteenth Century. World Development, 44:14–30.
- Fan, J., Hong, S., and Parro, F. (2023). Learning and Exepctations in Dynamic Spatial Economies.
- Fernández, A., Schmitt-Grohé, S., and Uribe, M. (2017). World shocks, world prices, and business cycles: An empirical investigation. Journal of International Economics, 108:S2–S14.
- Graziano, A. G., Handley, K., and Limão, N. (2020). Brexit Uncertainty: Trade Externalities beyond Europe. AEA Papers and Proceedings, 110:552–556.

- Handley, K. and Limão, N. (2015). Trade and Investment under Policy Uncertainty: Theory and Firm Evidence. American Economic Journal: Economic Policy, 7(4):189–222.
- Handley, K. and Limão, N. (2017). Policy Uncertainty, Trade, and Welfare: Theory and Evidence for China and the United States. American Economic Review, 107(9):2731–2783. Number: 9.
- Handley, K. and Limão, N. (2022). Trade Policy Uncertainty. Annual Review of Economics, 14(1):363–395.
- IMF (2016). China’s Footprint in Global Commodity Markets. INTERNATIONAL MONETARY FUND.
- Jones, R. (1971). A three-factor model in theory, trade and history. In Trade, Balance of Payments and Growth. North-Holland Publishing Company.
- Kline, P. (2008). Understanding Sectoral Labor Market Dynamics: An Equilibrium Analysis of the Oil and Gas Field Services Industry. Working Paper.
- Kruger, M., Mo, K., and Sawatzky, B. (2016). The Evolution of the Chinese Housing Market and Its Impact on Base Metal Prices. Publisher: Bank of Canada.
- Kulish, M. and Rees, D. M. (2017). Unprecedented changes in the terms of trade. Journal of International Economics, 108:351–367.
- Lee, D. and Wolpin, K. I. (2006). Intersectoral Labor Mobility and the Growth of the Service Sector. Econometrica, 74(1):1–46. Number: 1.
- Matsuyama, K. (1992). A Simple Model of Sectoral Adjustment. The Review of Economic Studies, 59(2):375.
- Mulligan, C. B. and Rubinstein, Y. (2008). Selection, Investment, and Women’s Relative Wages Over Time *. Quarterly Journal of Economics, 123(3):1061–1110.
- Mussa, M. (1974). Tariffs and the Distribution of Income: The Importance of Factor Specificity, Substitutability, and Intensity in the Short and Long Run. Journal of Political Economy, 82(6):1191–1203. Number: 6.
- Pierce, J. R. and Schott, P. K. (2016). The Surprisingly Swift Decline of US Manufacturing Employment. American Economic Review, 106(7):1632–1662. Number: 7.
- Rayner, V. and Bishop, J. (2013). Industry Dimensions of the Resource Boom: An Input-Output Analysis. Reserve Bank of Australia, (RDP 2013-02). Number: RDP 2013-02.

- Rust, J. (1987). Optimal Replacement of GMC Bus Engines: An Empirical Model of Harold Zurcher. Econometrica, 55(5):999. Number: 5.
- Scott, P. (2014). Dynamic Discrete Choice Estimations of Agricultural Land Use. (TSE-526). Number: TSE-526.
- Topalova, P. (2010). Factor Immobility and Regional Impacts of Trade Liberalization: Evidence on Poverty from India. American Economic Journal: Applied Economics, 2(4):1–41. Number: 4.
- Traiberman, S. (2019). Occupations and Import Competition: Evidence from Denmark. American Economic Review, 109(12):4260–4301. Number: 12.
- UNCTAD (2021). State of Commodity Dependence 2021. The State of Commodity Dependence. United Nations.
- WB (2015). How important are China and India in global commodity consumption? (July 2015).

9 Appendix

A Mathematical appendix

A.1 Proof of Theorem 1

Because $\ell_0 = 1$, the following inequality holds:

$$\bar{w}\theta + \beta \left[\mu V(\theta, [0, 1], 1, 0) + (1 - \mu)V(\theta, [0, 1], 1, 1) \right] \geq 1 + \beta \left[\mu V(\theta, [1, 0], 0, 1) + (1 - \mu)V(\theta, [1, 0], 0, 1) \right] \quad (36)$$

Assume there was $t' > 0$ such that $\ell_{t'} = 0$ and $\ell_t = 1 \forall t < t'$:

$$\bar{\theta}w\gamma_1^{t'} + \beta \left[\mu V(\theta, [0, t' + 1], 1, 0) + (1 - \mu)V(\theta, [0, t' + 1], 1, 1) \right] < 1 + \beta \left[\mu V(\theta, [1, 0], 0, 1) + (1 - \mu)V(\theta, [1, 0], 0, 1) \right] \quad (37)$$

Where the state inside the value function is $x_t = (\theta, [\Delta_0, \Delta_1], s_{t-1}, b_t)$. Because the right-hand side is the same, from [equation \(36\)](#) and [equation \(37\)](#) it follows that:

$$\bar{\theta}w\gamma_1^{t'} + \beta \left[\mu V(\theta, [0, t' + 1], 1, 0) + (1 - \mu)V(\theta, [0, t' + 1], 1, 1) \right] < \bar{w}\theta + \beta \left[\mu V(\theta, [0, 1], 1, 0) + (1 - \mu)V(\theta, [0, 1], 1, 1) \right]$$

Which is a contradiction if $\gamma_1 > 1$. As $\frac{\partial V}{\partial \Delta} \geq 0$, both elements on the sum on the left-hand side would be bigger than their counterparts on the right-hand side. This proves that it's never optimal to leave sector 1 if the boom is ongoing.

The last part of the theorem states that it's never optimal to wait until period $\tilde{t} > \tau$ before switching to sector 0. The only case which needs to be considered is one in which $\tilde{t} < \bar{\tau}$. In all cases with $\tilde{t} > \bar{\tau}$, by definition of $\bar{\tau}$, it will never be optimal to switch.

If at $\tau < \bar{t}$ it is optimal to wait until \bar{t} to switch the following inequality holds:

$$\frac{1}{1 - \beta\gamma_0} < \frac{\bar{w}\theta\gamma_1^{\bar{t}}(1 - (\beta\gamma_1)^{\bar{t}-\tau+1})}{1 - \beta\gamma_1} + \frac{\beta^{\bar{t}-\tau+1}}{1 - \beta\gamma_0} \quad (38)$$

From here it follows that at \tilde{t} it will also be optimal to wait $\tilde{t} - \tau$ periods more:

$$\frac{1}{1 - \beta\gamma_0} < \frac{\underline{w}\theta\gamma_1^\tau(1 - (\beta\gamma_1)^{\bar{t}-\tau+1})}{1 - \beta\gamma_1} + \frac{\beta^{\bar{t}-\tau+1}}{1 - \beta\gamma_0} < \frac{\underline{w}\theta\gamma_1^{\bar{t}}(1 - (\beta\gamma_1)^{\bar{t}-\tau+1})}{1 - \beta\gamma_1} + \frac{\beta^{\bar{t}-\tau+1}}{1 - \beta\gamma_0} \quad (39)$$

Then, waiting until $\bar{t} + (\bar{t} - \tau)$ has to be preferred than switching at $t = 0$:

$$\frac{1}{1 - \beta\gamma_0} < \frac{\underline{w}\theta\gamma_1^\tau(1 - (\beta\gamma_1)^{2(\bar{t}-\tau)+1})}{1 - \beta\gamma_1} + \frac{\beta^{2(\bar{t}-\tau)+1}}{1 - \beta\gamma_0} \quad (40)$$

The argument could be repeated infinitely until obtaining that it's preferred to wait indefinitely before switching:

$$\frac{1}{1 - \beta\gamma_0} < \frac{\underline{w}\theta\gamma_1^\tau}{1 - \beta\gamma_1} \quad (41)$$

Which contradicts that $\tau < \bar{\tau}$.

A.2 Proof of Lemma 1

There is a kink around $\bar{\tau}$ if the following inequality holds:

$$V_0(\bar{\tau}(\theta)) - V_0(\bar{\tau}(\theta) - 1) \geq V_0(\bar{\tau}(\theta) - 1) - V_0(\bar{\tau}(\theta) - 2) \quad (42)$$

$$\bar{w}\theta(\beta\gamma_1)^{T-1} + \frac{(\beta\gamma_1)^T \underline{w}\theta}{1 - \beta\gamma_1} - \frac{\beta^{T-1}}{1 - \beta\gamma_0} \geq \bar{w}\theta(\beta\gamma_1)^{T-2} + \frac{\beta^{T-1}}{1 - \beta\gamma_0} - \frac{\beta^{T-2}}{1 - \beta\gamma_0} \quad (43)$$

$$\bar{w}\theta(\beta\gamma_1)^{T-2}(1 - \beta\gamma_1) - \frac{(\beta\gamma_1)^T \underline{w}\theta}{1 - \beta\gamma_1} \leq \frac{\beta^{T-2}(1 - 2\beta)}{1 - \beta\gamma_0} \quad (44)$$

$$\bar{w}\theta(\gamma_1)^{T-2}(1 - \beta\gamma_1) - \frac{\beta^2(\gamma_1)^T \underline{w}\theta}{1 - \beta\gamma_1} \leq \frac{(1 - 2\beta)}{1 - \beta\gamma_0} \quad (45)$$

$$(46)$$

Because I'm looking at the kink $\tau = \bar{\tau}$, $\frac{\underline{w}\theta\gamma_1^\tau}{1 - \beta\gamma_1} = \frac{1}{1 - \beta\gamma_0}$ and the inequality becomes:

$$\bar{w}\theta(\gamma_1)^{T-2}(1 - \beta\gamma_1) \leq \frac{1 - 2\beta + \beta^2}{1 - \beta\gamma_0} \quad (47)$$

$$\frac{\bar{w}}{\underline{w}} \underline{w}\theta(\gamma_1)^{T-2}(1 - \beta\gamma_1) \leq \frac{1 - 2\beta + \beta^2}{1 - \beta\gamma_0} \quad (48)$$

Where in the last step I multiplied and divided by \underline{w} . For $\tau = 2$ the following inequality holds $\frac{\underline{w}\theta\gamma_1^{T-2}}{1 - \beta\gamma_1} < \frac{1}{1 - \beta\gamma_0}$. Then, it's enough for [equation \(48\)](#) to hold that the following holds:

$$\frac{\bar{w}}{\underline{w}} \theta(\gamma_1)^{T-2} (1 - \beta\gamma_1) \leq \frac{1 - 2\beta + \beta^2}{1 - \beta\gamma_0} \quad (49)$$

$$\frac{\bar{w}}{\underline{w}} \leq \frac{1 - 2\beta + \beta^2}{(1 - \beta\gamma_1)^2} = \left(\frac{1 - \beta}{1 - \beta\gamma_1} \right)^2 \quad (50)$$

Using that $\gamma_1 > 1$, the right-hand side is greater than one as long as $2 > \beta\gamma_1$. This last condition always holds, as $\beta\gamma_1 < 1$ for the problem to be well-defined. The right-hand side of the equation is the upper bound ω referred to in the main text.

A.3 Derivation of **equation (33)**

Variables with tilde indicate they correspond to the economy in which the boom ends at $t + 1$ and variables with double tilde correspond to the economy in which the boom ends at $t + 2$.

First trajectory. Start by the worker whose trajectory is $s \rightarrow s' \rightarrow s''$:

$$\frac{V_t(s, \omega)}{\rho} = \gamma + \frac{w_{s't} \mathbb{E}_\zeta H_{s'}(\omega, \zeta_{s't}) + \eta_{s'} - f(\omega)C(s, s')}{\rho} + \frac{\beta}{\rho} \left[\mu_t \mathbb{E}_t \tilde{V}_{t+1}(s', \omega') + (1 - \mu_t) \mathbb{E}_t V_{t+1}(s', \omega') \right] - \log(\pi_t(\omega, s, s')) \quad (51)$$

Now I re-write V_{t+1} and \tilde{V}_{t+1} conditioning on the worker choosing s'' in both cases:

$$\frac{V_{t+1}(s', \omega')}{\rho} = \gamma + \frac{w_{s''t+1} \mathbb{E}_\zeta H_{s''}(\omega', \zeta_{s''t+1}) + \eta_{s''} - f(\omega')C(s', s'')}{\rho} + \frac{\beta}{\rho} \left[\mu_{t+1} \mathbb{E}_{t+1} \tilde{\tilde{V}}_{t+2}(s'', \omega'') + (1 - \mu_{t+1}) V_{t+1}(s'', \omega'') \right] - \log(\pi_{t+1}(\omega', s', s'')) \quad (52)$$

$$\frac{\tilde{V}_{t+1}(s', \omega')}{\rho} = \gamma + \frac{\tilde{w}_{s''t+1} \mathbb{E}_\zeta H_{s''}(\omega', \zeta_{s''t+1}) + \eta_{s''} - f(\omega')C(s', s'')}{\rho} + \frac{\beta}{\rho} \left[\mathbb{E}_{t+1} \tilde{V}_{t+2}(s'', \omega'') \right] - \log(\tilde{\pi}_{t+1}(\omega', s', s'')) \quad (53)$$

Plugging **equation (52)** and **equation (53)** into **equation (51)**:

$$\frac{V_t(s, \omega)}{\rho} = \gamma + \frac{w_{s't} \mathbb{E}_\zeta H_{s'}(\omega, \zeta_{s't}) + \eta_{s'} - f(\omega)C(s, s')}{\rho} - \log(\pi_t(\omega, s, s')) \quad (54)$$

$$+ \beta \left[\gamma + \frac{(\mu_t \mathbb{E}_t \tilde{w}_{s''t+1} + (1 - \mu_t) \mathbb{E}_t w_{s''t+1}) \mathbb{E}_\zeta H_{s''}(\omega', \zeta_{s''t+1}) + \eta_{s''} - f(\omega')C(s', s'')}{\rho} \right] \quad (55)$$

$$+ \frac{\beta^2}{\rho} \left[\mu_t \mathbb{E}_{t+1} \tilde{V}_{t+2}(s'', \omega'') + (1 - \mu_t) \left(\mu_{t+1} \mathbb{E}_{t+1} \tilde{\tilde{V}}_{t+2}(s'', \omega'') + (1 - \mu_{t+1}) \mathbb{E}_{t+1} V_{t+2}(s'', \omega'') \right) \right] \quad (56)$$

$$- \beta \left[\mu_t \mathbb{E}_t [\log(\tilde{\pi}_{t+1}(\omega', s', s''))] + (1 - \mu_t) \mathbb{E}_t [\log(\pi_{t+1}(\omega', s', s''))] \right] \quad (57)$$

From the perspective of period t , both future wages in s' and s'' as well as future values and transition

rates are unknown, therefore have expectations. However, the future hazard rate μ_{t+1} is known. Also notice that terms like $\mathbb{E}_t[\tilde{\pi}]$ are a conditional expectation, as the future transition will be $\tilde{\pi}$ if the boom ends at $t + 1$.

Second trajectory. Consider the worker whose trajectory is $s \rightarrow s \rightarrow s''$. Let $\hat{\omega}$ denote the characteristics of this workers once she is at s at $t + 1$, which includes tenure going up by 1.

$$\frac{V_t(s, \omega)}{\rho} = \gamma + \frac{w_{st}\mathbb{E}_\zeta H_s(\omega, \zeta_{st}) + \eta_s - f(\omega)C(s, s)}{\rho} + \frac{\beta}{\rho} \left[\mu_t \mathbb{E}_t \tilde{V}_{t+1}(s, \hat{\omega}) + (1 - \mu_t) \mathbb{E}_t V_{t+1}(s, \hat{\omega}) \right] - \log(\pi_t(\omega, s, s)) \quad (58)$$

Again, now I re-write V_{t+1} and \tilde{V}_{t+1} conditioning on the worker choosing s'' in both cases:

$$\begin{aligned} \frac{V_{t+1}(s, \hat{\omega})}{\rho} &= \gamma + \frac{w_{s''t+1}\mathbb{E}_\zeta H_{s''}(\hat{\omega}, \zeta_{s''t+1}) + \eta_{s''} - f(\hat{\omega})C(s', s'')}{\rho} + \\ &\quad \frac{\beta}{\rho} \left[\mu_{t+1} \mathbb{E}_{t+1} \tilde{V}_{t+2}(s'', \omega'') + (1 - \mu_{t+1}) V_{t+1}(s'', \omega'') \right] - \log(\pi_{t+1}(\hat{\omega}, s', s'')) \end{aligned} \quad (59)$$

$$\frac{\tilde{V}_{t+1}(s', \hat{\omega})}{\rho} = \gamma + \frac{\tilde{w}_{s''t+1}\mathbb{E}_\zeta H_{s''}(\hat{\omega}, \zeta_{s''t+1}) + \eta_{s''} - f(\hat{\omega})C(s', s'')}{\rho} + \frac{\beta}{\rho} \left[\mathbb{E}_{t+1} \tilde{V}_{t+2}(s'', \omega'') \right] - \log(\tilde{\pi}_{t+1}(\hat{\omega}, s', s'')) \quad (60)$$

Plugging [equation \(59\)](#) and [equation \(60\)](#) into [equation \(58\)](#):

$$\frac{V_t(s, \omega)}{\rho} = \gamma + \frac{w_{st}\mathbb{E}_\zeta H_s(\omega, \zeta_{st}) + \eta_s - f(\omega)C(s, s)}{\rho} - \log(\pi_t(\omega, s, s)) \quad (61)$$

$$+ \beta \left[\gamma + \frac{(\mu_t \mathbb{E}_t \tilde{w}_{s''t+1} + (1 - \mu_t) \mathbb{E}_t w_{s''t+1}) \mathbb{E}_\zeta H_{s''}(\omega', \zeta_{s''t+1}) + \eta_{s''} - f(\omega')C(s', s'')}{\rho} \right] \quad (62)$$

$$+ \frac{\beta^2}{\rho} \left[\mu_t \mathbb{E}_{t+1} \tilde{V}_{t+2}(s'', \omega'') + (1 - \mu_t) \left(\mu_{t+1} \mathbb{E}_{t+1} \tilde{V}_{t+2}(s'', \omega'') + (1 - \mu_{t+1}) \mathbb{E}_{t+1} V_{t+2}(s'', \omega'') \right) \right] \quad (63)$$

$$- \beta \left[\mu_t \mathbb{E}_t [\log(\tilde{\pi}_{t+1}(\hat{\omega}, s, s''))] + (1 - \mu_t) \mathbb{E}_t [\log(\pi_{t+1}(\hat{\omega}', s, s''))] \right] \quad (64)$$

I can use the two expression for $V_t(s, \omega)$ in [equation \(54\)](#)-[equation \(61\)](#) to get rid of $V_t(s, \omega)$. Notice as well that [equation \(63\)](#) and [equation \(56\)](#) are identical, given that entering s'' is a renewal action and both workers lose tenure upon entering. This is the key step to get ride of future values from $t + 2$ onwards ([Scott, 2014](#); [Traiberman, 2019](#)).

This equation can be re-arranged to get:

$$\log\left(\frac{\pi_t(\omega, s, s)}{\pi_t(\omega, s, s')}\right) + \beta\left[\mu_t(\mathbb{E}_t[\log(\tilde{\pi}_{t+1}(\hat{\omega}, s, s'')) - \log(\tilde{\pi}_{t+1}(\omega', s', s''))]) + \right. \quad (65)$$

$$\left. (1 - \mu_t)\mathbb{E}_t[\log(\pi_{t+1}(\hat{\omega}, s, s'')) - \log(\pi_{t+1}(\omega', s', s''))]\right] = Y_{s,s',t}^\omega - Y_{s,s,t}^\omega + \frac{\beta}{\rho}[f(\omega')C(s', s'') - f(\hat{\omega})C(s, s'')] \quad (66)$$

Where $Y_{s,s,t}^\omega$ is the flow payoff of switching from s to s at t for a worker with characteristics ω . Using Assumption 3, this becomes:

$$\log\left(\frac{\pi_t(\omega, s, s)}{\pi_t(\omega, s, s')}\right) + \beta(1 - \mu_t)\log\left(\frac{\pi_{t+1}(\hat{\omega}, s, s'')}{\pi_{t+1}(\omega', s', s'')}\right) = \quad (67)$$

$$Y_{s,s,t}^\omega - Y_{s,s',t}^\omega + \frac{\beta}{\rho}[f(\omega')C(s', s'') - f(\hat{\omega})C(s, s'')] - \beta\mu_t[p(\hat{\omega}, t+1, s, s'') - p(\omega', t+1, s', s'')] \quad (68)$$

For the main text I use that $f(\omega') = f(\hat{\omega})$ so this term can be factored out. Then $C(s', s'') - C(s, s'') = \Gamma_o^{s'} - \Gamma_o^s$. The left-hand side of this equation is data, while the right-hand side combines μ , which I have already estimated at this stage, the predicted income for workers with characteristics as they affect the terms in Y , which I have also estimated at this stage and migration costs and p , which I estimate by minimizing the distance between both sides in this equation.

B Computational appendix

B.1 Implementing the expectation maximization approach

I start with

C Background and data appendix

C.1 Construction in China and export prices in Australia

The rise in the export prices of the main mineral products in Australia during 2001-2010 is usually attributed to the ramped up in demand from China for construction purposes.

In order to test the common view I collect data on construction activity in China and test how well it helps predict commodity prices of different goods. I retrieve quarterly export prices from the Australian Bureau of Statistics price index series. I retrieve data on Chinese economic activity from the website of the National Bureau of Statistics of China²⁹. As a proxy for future construction, I create a series of new construction started each month from the series *Flor space of real estate started this year accumulated*. In order to have another control of economic activity in China, I create a series of

²⁹Accessed September 23, 2022.

Table 4: Export prices in Australia and economic activity in China 2001-2019 (all variables in logs).

	(1)	(2)	(3)
	Minerals and Metals	Agriculture	Manufactures
Retail sales in China (lagged 1 year)	0.217 (0.383)	-0.00151 (0.161)	-0.0816 (0.319)
Construction started in China (lagged 1 year)	0.455 (0.108)	0.0317 (0.111)	-0.116 (0.0450)
Commodity-Year Observations	288	288	288
Within-R2	0.724	0.640	0.269
Commodity Yearly Trend	Yes	Yes	Yes
Commodity-Quarter FE	Yes	Yes	Yes

Standard errors in parentheses

For each column I keep 4 industries and run separate panel regressions. The industries are: (1): *Coal, coke and briquettes; Petroleum, petroleum products and related materials; Gas, natural and manufactures; Gold, non-monetary*, (2): *Meat and meat preparations; Dairy products and birds' eggs; Fish, crustaceans, molluscs and aquatic invertebrates and preparations thereof; Cereals and cereals preparations*, (3): *Leather, leather manufactures; Rubber manufactures; Paper, paperboard, and articles of paper pulp; Non-metallic mineral manufactures*.

monthly retail sales from the series *Total retail sales of consumer goods*. I aggregate these two series at the quarterly level.

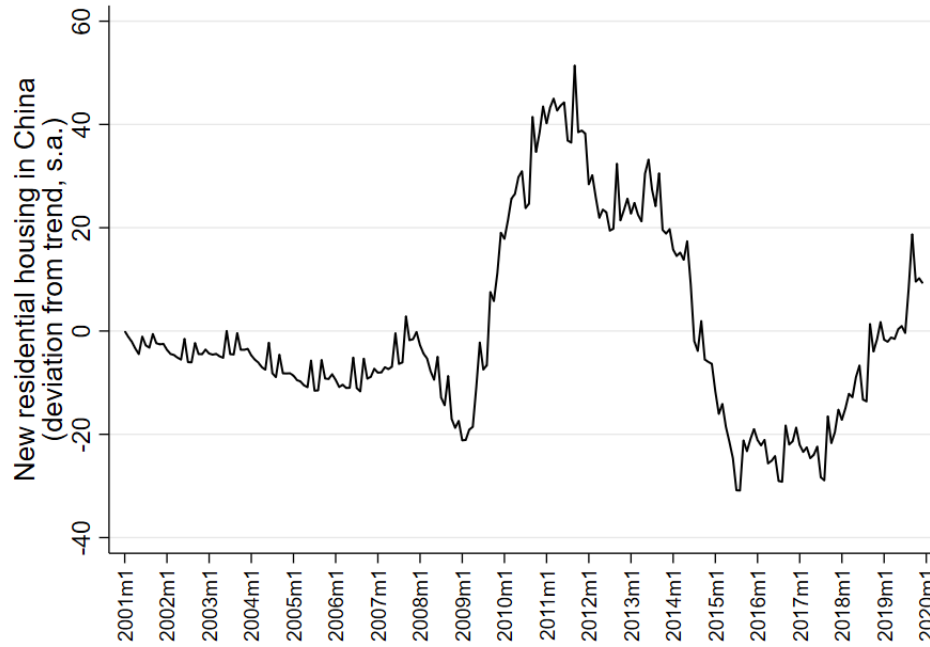
I first construct a panel with the quarterly export prices of mineral and metals and the two proxies for different aspects of economic activity in China. The panel regressions results in column 1 of Table 4 show that lagged construction floor space sold in China, which I take as a proxy for current construction levels, has a positive effect on future export prices. All variables are in logs, so the effect is quantitatively important. I include lagged retail sales in China as a control, which is not significant, to make sure I'm not picking up economic growth in China more generally.

The second and third columns of Table 4 repeat the exercise but keeping goods which are not usually associated with construction activity in China. Consistent with the common view, I find that construction in China doesn't impact agricultural prices and has a negative effect on manufacturing prices. Comparing the within R-squares between the three regressions also suggests that construction in China is a driver of metals and mineral prices, but not of other goods.

C.2 Time series of new residential housing in China

Using the same data as in the subsection above, Figure 12 plots the deviation of new residential buildings started in China from a linear trend. To smooth out seasonal variations I first calculated a moving average of the original series using 6 lags and 6 future values of the series. The key takeaway from this figure is that new building comes to a halt around the time of the financial crisis and around 2014.

Figure 12: New residential housing in China in Squared Meters (Millions)



C.3 Informality

These numbers come from the series *Share of employment outside formal sector - Annual*, downloaded from <https://ilostat.ilo.org/topics/informality/> in June 2023. Figure 13 below shows the national time series.

C.4 Options data: details and descriptive statistics

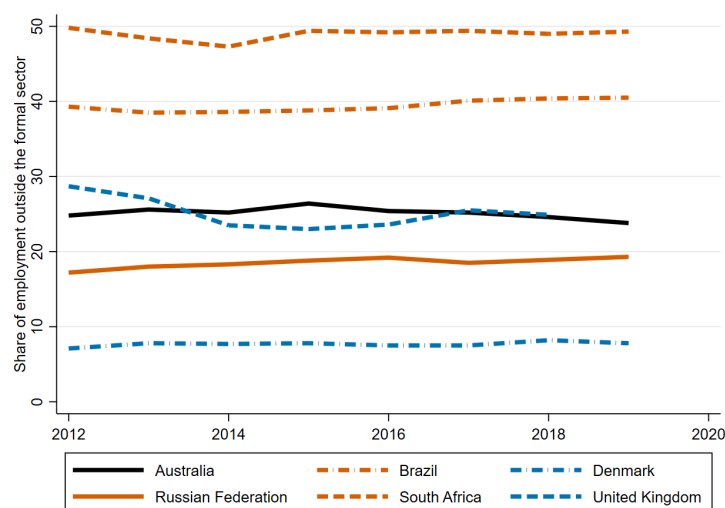
I start with a dataset where I observe, at a daily frequency, the best offer for put options of a horizon of approximately one year and three strike prices K per horizon.³⁰ I merge this with the value of the stock at that particular day. Within each month-strike price group I keep only the daily observation with the median value for the option in month-strike price. Finally, I merge this with data on the zero-coupon rate.

C.5 Panel of workers: details and descriptive statistics

Definition of education levels.

³⁰The median difference between the horizons in my data and 365 is 76. The 10th percentile is 11 and the 90th percentile is 139.

Figure 13: Share of employment outside formal sector



Group	Percentage of workers 2011-2019	Degrees
Group 1	41%	High school completed or less
Group 2	23%	Advanced Diploma
		Associate Degree
		Diploma
		Certificate I, II, III and IV Level
Group 3	36%	Higher Doctorate
		Doctorate by Research or Coursework
		Master Degree by Research or Coursework
		Graduate Diploma
		Graduate Qualifying or Preliminary
		Professional Specialist Qualification at Graduate Diploma Level
		Graduate Certificate
		Professional Specialist Qualification at Graduate Certificate Level
		Bachelor Degree

Joint distribution across sectors and education levels.

Education	Sector	Number of workers
1	1	44,323
2	1	18,332
3	1	16,462
1	2	24,964
2	2	9,702
3	2	7,611
1	3	11,308
2	3	2,959
3	3	2,412
1	4	42,529
2	4	22,509
3	4	9,134
1	5	393,199
2	5	230,403
3	5	426,847