TRADE AND TREES

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Abstract

Free trade is often criticized because it can cause resource depletion, such as deforestation in the tropics. The purpose of this paper is to explore how trade agreements can motivate environmental conservation. I first presents a dynamic model whereby the South (S) depletes to export the extracted units (timber) or the produce (beef) from land available after depletion. Because of the damages, the North benefits from liberalization only if the stock is already diminished. For that reason, S speeds up exploitation. All negative results are reversed if countries can negotiate a contingent trade agreement, where the gains-from-trade allocation, and thus the location on the Pareto frontier, is sensitive to the size of the remaining stock. In equilibrium, S conserves to maintain its favorable terms of trade, S conserves more than in autarky, and more when the gains from trade are large. The parties cannot commit to future policies, but they obtain the same outcome as if they could.

Key words: Exhaustible resources, deforestation, international trade, trade agreements, environmental conservation, renegotiation.
JEL: F18, F13, F55, Q56, Q37.

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I. Introduction

There has always been tension between proponents of international trade and environmental activists. The last few rounds of multilateral trade negotiations attracted tens of thousands of protesters and activists.[1] They requested that trade should be limited rather than liberalized. Trade negotiations have mostly proceeded bilaterally in recent years, but the tension has not weakened.[2]

For instance, in June, 2019, Brazil led the Mercosur trade bloc to conclude its largest trade agreement ever with the European Union. Two months later, Mercosur concluded an agreement with EFTA, and it has continued to negotiate with other potential trading partners such as Canada, the US, and Asian countries. The trade agreements will change Brazil's economy. Up to now, Brazil has been relatively closed; 80 percent of the meat it produces, for example, has been consumed domestically.[3] While the trade negotiations concluded, deforestation rates increased and the forest fires gained international media attention. Deforestation has continued to increase since that time, and it was even higher in 2020 than in 2019.[4] Consequently, critics argue that the treaty with the EU should not be ratified in its current form, and it is opposed by countries such as France, Germany, Netherlands, Belgium, Ireland, Austria, and Luxembourg.[5]

The tension between trade and environmental concerns is not unjustified: Trade motivates countries to specialize in their comparative advantages and, for many countries in the South, this specialization leads to resource exploitation and agricultural expansion. Consistent with this logic, several empirical investigations document that trade agreements do cause resource depletion, such as deforestation.[6] The damages are immensely costly for the society: Franklin and Pindyck (2018:166) distinguish between the Amazon's direct value, indirect value (as a carbon stock), option value (because of its biodiversity), and existence value, and sum the valuations to almost USD40,000 per hectare. In fear of a negative relationship, the World Bank (2019) has expressed concerns about how trade is liberalized.[7]

For these reasons, the world community is seeking alternative types of agreements - treaties with provisions or contingencies that may induce and motivate environmental conservation while, at the same time, allowing countries to exploit the gains from trade. *The Financial Times* writes, for example, that:

[1] For example, about the 1999 WTO negotiations in Seattle, *The New York Times* wrote (Oct. 13, 1999) that 50,000 demonstrators were expected and, underlying the protests, there "*is a fundamental disagreement about the proper role of the trade organization.*"

[2] When the Transatlantic Trade and Investment Partnership (TTIP) agreement was negotiated, protesters said they expected 250,000 demonstrators to turn out in Germany because "*TTIP threaten environmental and consumer protection*" (*The Guardian*, Sept. 17, 2016).

[3] *The Washington Post,* Aug. 27, 2019.

[4] See: http://www.inpe.br/

[5] On March 23, 2021, *Financial Times* concluded that "*the mood has turned sour and the prospects for ratification are fading.*" See: https://www.ft.com/content/e906b1b9-8749-467a-b445-36f2b0ee71de

[6] For papers verifying the connection between trade liberalization and deforestation in the tropics, see, for example, the analysis by Barbier (2000), or evidence provided by Faria et al. (2016), Pendrill et al. (2019), and Abman and Lundberg (2020).

[7] The World Bank (2019:8) states: "*...the expansion of livestock production in Brazil could increase deforestation. Only if these adverse impacts are addressed through appropriate spatial and environmental policies will trade integration be a pathway to development.*"

"Member states and the European Parliament are looking for trade concessions to be made conditional on compliance with a wider range of sustainable development criteria."[8]

More specifically, following the conclusion of the EU-Mercosur agreement, France and the Netherlands made a novel policy initiative in May, 2020: In a so-called "non-paper," they refer to the EU's traditional Trade and Sustainable Development (TSD) Chapter in trade agreements. They point to "*the lack of progress in compliance*" with these chapters, and they propose: "*Parties should introduce, where relevant, staged implementation of tariff reduction linked to the effective implementation of TSD provisions and clarify what conditions countries are expected to meet for these reductions, including the possibility of withdrawal of those specific tariff lines in the event of a breach of those provisions.*"

The non-paper is brief and specifies neither exactly how one can achieve staged implementation and withdrawal of tariff lines, nor the extent to which such a design may motivate conservation.[9]

The purpose of the present paper is to start an exploration of how such a contingent trade agreement (CTA) can motivate environmental conservation rather than exploitation.

I let the CTA take advantage of two facts. First, there is more than one Pareto optimal allocation of the gains from trade. For example: If one country has an import tariff, while another country does not, then terms-of-trade effects imply that the first country obtains more of the gains from trade. Second, the size of the resource stock is verifiable. Combining the two, the allocation of gains from trade can be contingent on the forest stock. I will not allow the parties to commit, or tie their hands, however: Countries cannot rely on punishments and plans that are not subgame perfect, or renegotiation proof. The CTA is simply allowing the parties to negotiate preliminary "default" tariffs that can depend on measurable aspects, such as the size of the remaining resource stock. The countries are free to renegotiate another set of tariffs at any time, if they benefit from that.

To explore whether such a CTA can motivate conservation, I first present a model that is intentionally designed so as to capture the negative interactions between free trade and conservation.

The model is dynamic and it includes the South (S), endowed with a depletable resource, and the North (N), preferring conservation. The resource can be oil or coal but, to fix ideas, I will refer to tropical forests. Although forests are in principle renewable resources, for practical purposes tropical forests are depletable because when the forest is logged, the land is converted to agriculture.

In the model, S can consume the extracted amount (e.g., the timber) and/or the produce (e.g., the beef) produced on the land that becomes available after exploitation. If instead of consuming timber and beef domestically S exports to N, S obtains higher prices. Thus, exploitation increases when a free trade

[8] Sept. 21, 2020. The article is available here: https://www.ft.com/content/b508b3b1-999f-4528-a0d2-f1b37f0e0b87
The UN is not satisfied with the current type of conditions. IPBES (2019, Ch 6:138) states: "*the potential of WTO and other free trade agreements and WTO regulations to contribute to conservation and sustainability is criticized... While other regional or bilateral free trade agreements such as NAFTA include environmental provisions, these have mostly been implemented in a narrow way and have not resulted in significantly raised levels of environmental protection... At the global level, WTO has started to discuss environmental provisions as part of the Doha negotiations since 2001, but negotiations were not successful and ended in 2016. Since then, bilateral trade agreements have increased in importance, as have the intensification of 'trade wars'.*"

[9] The non-paper is available here:
https://nl.ambafrance.org/Non-paper-from-the-Netherlands-and-France-on-trade-social-economic-effects-and

agreement (FTA) is signed. Nevertheless, an FTA is socially optimal if the remaining resource stock is already diminished, so that the additional damage to N, when the remaining stock is depleted, is less than the gains from trade. In other words: Trade causes depletion, and depletion leads to trade.

Anticipating the FTA that will be signed when the resource stock is diminished, S may face an additional incentive to exploit, even before the FTA is signed. This incentive, in turn, can persuade N to sign the agreement right away. The equilibrium might thus be that N and S sign the FTA, and the resource is depleted, even when the damages are larger than the gains from trade.

My main result is that all the negative results are reversed when countries can negotiate a CTA:

(1) While an FTA causes exploitation, the CTA motivates more conservation than in autarky.

(2) While an FTA is socially valuable if the remaining stock is small, the CTA is more valuable if the stock is large.

(3) While S is tempted to exploit to obtain a FTA, with a CTA, S conserves to preserve the most favorable terms of trade.

(4) The larger the gains from trade, the more is exploited under the FTA, but the more can be conserved with a CTA.

(5) When side transfers are facilitated by tariff adjustments, then N's equilibrium tariff increases or S's tariff decreases in the stock size with an FTA, but the reverse holds with a CTA.

Intuitively, S conserves if S obtains most of the gains from trade when the stock is large, but less of the gains when the stock is small. This condition requires that the North faces S's import tariff when the stock is large, but that S faces N's import tariff when the stock is small. As long as each allocation is on the Pareto frontier, it is renegotiation proof and any change will be vetoed by one of the parties. This CTA is not only feasible, and renegotiation-proof, but it is also the *equilibrium* agreement that N and S will sign as soon as the future (default) tariffs are allowed to depend on the stock size. The larger the total gains from trade are, the bigger is the cake that can be allocated to S as long as the stock is large, and the more can be conserved. If the tariffs can be accompanied by N's export subsidies (as in Grossman and Helpman, 1995), or import subsidies, then there is no limit to how large the effective transfer from N to S can be, and then the first best can be implemented.

The CTA is not only renegotiation proof; it can also be made robust to unilateral requests to renege on the treaty. Nevertheless, the equilibrium CTA implements the same outcome that N and S would have obtained had they been able to *commit* to a trade agreement that was conditional on the resource stock. Consequently, in this model, the optimal CTA is not an arbitrary design from which N and S can make further improvements: It implements the first-best outcome if export or import subsidies are available, and the second-best outcome if they are not.

When the CTA implements the second best, the results describe how much of the resource that potentially can be conserved by a CTA, as a function of the gains from trade and of other relevant parameters.

Literature. My basic model of trade and agreements draws on existing literature (see the surveys by Maggi, 2014; Bagwell and Staiger, 2016). For example, tariff reductions are motivated by the terms-of-trade effects of tariffs (as in Bagwell and Staiger, 2004 and 2011; Ludema and Mayda, 2013; Grossman, 2016). I permit transfers at the negotiation stage (Aghion et al., 2007; Maggi and Ossa, 2020), export subsidies (as in Grossman and Helpman, 1995), and renegotiation (Ludema, 2001; Maggi and Staiger, 2015).[10]

The literature on how trade and resource extraction are related goes back to Dasgupta et al. (1978), who study depletion rates in open economies.[11] In the traditional literature on trade and the environment, countries may reduce environmental standards to become competitive (Markusen, 1975) or to specialize in their comparative advantages: The South may have comparative advantage in environmentally damaging production because of policies (Pethig, 1976) or because of lower income levels (Copeland and Taylor, 1994).[12] If countries in the South struggle with an open-access problem, and are unable to control extraction rates, then trade can worsen the problem and cause depletion (Chichilnisky, 1994; Brander and Taylor, 1997 and 1998; Karp et al., 2001).

Below, I first illustrate the potential negative relationships between trade and conservation in a dynamic but highly tractable model. This model also uncovers the reverse relationship, from exploitation to trade, and how that relationship, in turn, can motivate further depletion. My primary contribution is to show that, even in this model, it is possible to reverse the negative relationships with a contingent trade agreement. This possibility is highly policy relevant because using explicit compensations in return for conservation is often problematic.[13] Other scholars have recommended trade sanctions (Barrett, 1997), border tax adjustments (Hoel, 1996; Elliott et al., 2010), and climate clubs (Nordhaus, 2015). The threats to limit trade are not effective (or renegotiation proof) when the resource is non-renewable, however: after the resource is exhausted, it is in everyone's interest to trade. The CTA, in contrast, is renegotiation proof because it exploits the fact that resource depletion is both irreversible and payoff relevant.

Of course, there are other reasons for believing that trade can benefit the environment. In particular, trade can raise income levels, and because of the environmental Kuznets curve, the outcome can be a

[10] The focus on terms-of-trade is normal in the shallow integration literature, but studies of deep integration also consider behind-the-border policies (Antras and Staiger, 2012), such as domestic regulation and product standards (Grossman et al. 2021), or concentrate on principles such as reciprocity and nondiscrimination (Bagwell and Staiger, 1999) to prevent bilateral opportunism through "concession erosion" (Bagwell and Staiger, 2016). In addition, countries might sign treaties to persuade firms to invest in new technologies (Matsuyama, 1990), to withstand pressure from lobbies (Maggi and Rodriguez-Clare, 1998), or to win elections (Battaglini and Harstad, 2020).

[11] Relatedly, Hillman and Van Long (1983) studied a country depleting a resource at the same time as it was importing extracted amounts from another country. If there is a (lower) risk of trade disruption, then the country conserves more (less) of its own resource. With a larger number of jurisdictions, depletion can be larger also because prices will be less sensitive to one's own supply (see Markusen, 1981, for the theoretical point, Burgess et al., 2012, for evidence when it comes to deforestation, and Harstad and Mideksa, 2017, for further on the theory).

[12] For this reason, trade can increase global pollution if income differences are large (Copeland and Taylor, 1995).

[13] Explicit compensations for conservation can, in some cases, be very effective (Souza-Rodrigues, 2019). However, IPBES (2019:54) reports that "*the literature is currently mixed on the success rates of forest carbon projects in general and REDD+ has faced a number of challenges.*" The challenges with this approach include liquidity constraints (Jayachandran, 2013), contractual externalities (Harstad and Mideksa, 2017), and that they lead to corruption and a worse selection of political candidates (Brollo et al., 2013). Furthermore, future payments may not be credible (Harstad, 2016) and they can motivate domestic counter-lobbying (Harstad, 2020).

cleaner environment (Antweiler et al., 2001; Copeland and Taylor, 2004). In addition, trade can lead to technology upgrading (Bustos, 2011) which, in turn, can lead to structural transformations and a diminished reliance on resource exploitation (Bustos et al., 2016). My contribution to this literature is show how, even when we abstract from these effects, trade agreements can be designed so as to motivate conservation.

The literature on issue linkages (surveyed by Maggi, 2016) typically considers structurally unrelated issues and that the parties can commit (Abrego et al., 2001; Horstmann et al., 2005). Here, trade and the environment are structurally linked, because exploitation raise the gains from trade, and the parties cannot commit. The two issues are structurally linked also in the model by Copeland (2000), but he analyzes linkages between a trade agreement and an environmental agreement, while I consider only a trade agreement and how it can influence conservation.[14]

The way in which conservation is achieved in this paper is inspired by how cooperation is achieved in dynamic games when the parties can renegotiate. For example, the standard grim-trigger strategy can motivate cooperation in repeated prisoner dilemma games but, if the parties should happen to end up in a punishment phase, they have an incentive to renegotiate and end the inefficient punishment. To make the punishment credible, one may need to require that the punishment payoffs continue to be on the Pareto frontier, although the payoff must be unattractive for the party that has defected (Mailath and Samuelson, 2006).[15] I combine this logic with the theory of issue linkages because, in my analysis, the Pareto frontier refers to various allocations of the gains from trade, while defection refers to resource depletion. The problem is intricate because the (ex post) Pareto frontier (i.e., the gains from trade) expands if the resource is depleted.

Outline. The next section presents the model of resource depletion and international trade. The model is simple and payoffs are linear functions – not because the simplicity is necessary for the results – but because it is sufficient. Section III derives five propositions: The first three show that trade causes depletion, and depletion causes trade, in every subgame-perfect equilibrium. To obtain sharper predictions, I then characterize the Markov-perfect equilibrium and the equilibrium tariff levels. The same model is employed in Section IV, where Corollary 1 states that all the negative findings are reversed with a CTA. In the robustness section, I show that the CTA can be robust to unilateral requests to renege on the treaty, that the main results hold if the six linearity assumptions are relaxed, and also if the "threat point" is not autarky, but that countries set tariffs noncooperative. Section VI discusses the empirical relevance of the results. All proofs are in the Appendix.

[14] Horn and Mavroidis (2014) speculate on the reasons for why environmental agreements and trade agreements are seldom linked in reality.

[15] Mailath and Samuelson (2006) provide a textbook treatment of cooperation in dynamic games and of renegotiation proofness (Section 4.6). In plain English, the problem is that "*should [the players] ever find themselves facing an inefficient continuation equilibrium, whether on or off the equilibrium path, they can renegotiate to achieve an efficient equilibrium*" (p. 122). Regarding the solution to this problem "*the key to constructing nontrivial renegotiation-proof equilibria is to select punishments that reward the player doing the punishing*" (p. 135).

II. The Model

The South. Let S be a country endowed with a resource stock that can be partly or fully depleted over time. At the beginning of time $t \in \{1, 2, ...\}$, the remaining resource stock is R_t, the part that has been exploited is X_t, and $R_0 = R_t + X_t$ is the original size of the stock. When S exploits $x_t \in [0, R_t]$,

$$R_{t+1} = R_t - x_t \text{ and } X_{t+1} = X_t + x_t.$$

S can benefit from R_t, X_t, and x_t. The resource can represent oil or coal but, to fix ideas, I refer to R_t as the remainder of the rainforest, X_t as the land that has already been logged and converted to agriculture, and the timber currently logged is proportional to x_t. For simplicity, S's agricultural produce (beef) equals its amount of converted land, X_t. In autarky, $\underline{a} \geq 0$ represents the (present-discounted) agricultural value of land, if $(1-\delta)\underline{a}$ measures S's *per-period* utility of the food produced per unit of land and $\delta \in (0,1)$ is the discount factor. In addition, $\underline{b} \geq 0$ is S's marginal benefit of the extracted units (timber), while c is the marginal cost of exploitation. The cost c may include the physical as well as the (present-discounted value of the) environmental cost to S when R_t is reduced by a unit. (I will distinguish between the two in Section V.B.)

If S stays in autarky forever, S is a single decision maker maximizing its continuation value:

$$V_S^{AUT}(R_t) \equiv \max_{x_t^{AUT} \in [0,R_t]} (1-\delta)(X_t + x_t)\underline{a} + \underline{b}x_t - cx_t + \delta V_S^{AUT}(R_{t+1}).$$

The linearity in x_t implies that the autarky choices are simple to characterize:

$$x_t^{AUT}(R_t) = \left\{ \begin{array}{l} 0 \text{ if } \underline{a} + \underline{b} \leq c \\ x_t \in [0, R_t] \text{ if } \underline{a} + \underline{b} = c \\ R_t \text{ if } \underline{a} + \underline{b} > c \end{array} \right\}. \tag{1}$$

The North. The North (N) is S's potential trading partner. Just like S, N can experience costs and benefits from the exploitation. In particular, N faces the damage $d > 0$ for each unit that is logged in country S. Equivalently, d represents N's marginal present-discounted value if a unit of the resource is conserved forever.

In addition, N's marginal value from beef is $(1-\delta)\overline{a}$. That is, $\overline{a}$ is N's present-discounted value of consuming a unit of S's agricultural products in every future period. In addition, N's marginal benefit from the extracted resource (timber) is $\overline{b}$.

If $\overline{a} \geq \underline{a}$, it is socially optimal that the beef (X_t) be exported to N, and if $\overline{b} \geq \underline{b}$, it is socially optimal that the timber (x_t) be exported to N. Both inequalities are assumed to hold weakly.[16]

I assume that the seller sets the price. (Section V.C considers the situation in which the buyer dictates the price: See Remark 6.) Thus, with a free trade agreement (FTA), S receives $(1-\delta)\overline{a}$ for each exported unit of beef in every period, and $\overline{b}$ for each unit of timber. To S, exploitation for trade is strictly beneficial if and only if $\overline{a} + \overline{b} > c$. Exploitation is socially inefficient because I assume:

$$\overline{a} + \overline{b} < c + d. \tag{2}$$

[16] This assumption is without loss of generality for the present analysis because if, for example, $\overline{a} < \underline{a}$, S's beef will not be exported and the realized gains from trade will be zero, i.e., the same as when $\overline{a} = \underline{a}$.

N benefits $e > 0$ from getting access to S's market. We can endogenize e as follows. Suppose that N has the capacity to export $\psi \geq 0$ units of machines in every period to S. If the citizens of S are willing to pay $\omega \geq 0$, and N's marginal production cost is $\kappa \in [0, \omega]$, then N charges ω and captures the export's entire present-discounted value $(\omega - \kappa)\psi/(1-\delta)$, henceforth defined as e.

We have a general-equilibrium model, and trade is balanced, if we introduce a numeraire good that can be used as a currency. For example, countries may trade cookies or labor services. For each country, the value parameters above are measured relative to the country's value of the numeraire.

The First Best. In every period t, the gains from trade are given by

$$(1-\delta)\,e + (1-\delta)\,(\overline{a} - \underline{a})\,(X_t + x_t) + \left(\overline{b} - \underline{b}\right) x_t > 0.$$

The first-best outcome is simply that the parties trade and that S conserves in every period (i.e., $x_t = 0$).

Timing of the Game. In each period, t, the parties first bargain whether to open up for trade, if they haven't opened up already. Second, S decides on $x_t \in [0, R_t]$. S is assumed to conserve whenever indifferent. Finally, trade and consumption take place.

The Bargaining Solution. Both countries must agree to open up for trade, but side transfers can be used if the countries agree on an FTA. Let $\alpha \in [0,1]$ measure S's share of the bargaining surplus while $1-\alpha$ measures N's share. This outcome follows, for instance, if we let the asymmetric Nash bargaining solution represent the outcome and α be S's bargaining strength. Alternatively, this allocation would follow from standard noncooperative bargaining games: Suppose, for example, that the bargaining stage in each period consists of a finite number of offers, with negligible discounting between the offers, and where S makes the final offer with probability α. The outcome of this noncooperative bargaining game is that N and S trade if the surplus is positive and S captures the fraction α of the surplus.

Section III.E explains how transfers can be facilitated by tariffs and subsidies, but also how the results survive without transfers.

Strategies and Equilibrium Concept. S's strategy is mapping from the set of histories to $x_t \in [0, R_t]$. N does not take any action: N must agree to trade, but N and S are simply sharing the gains from liberalization if the gains are positive. The below inefficiency results (Propositions 1–3) hold for *all* subgame-perfect equilibria (SPEs). The efficiency result in Section IV holds *despite* the restriction to Markov-perfect equilibria (MPEs). It is, at that stage, natural to focus on MPEs given the importance of the state variable R_t.

Linearities and Generalizations. The model is stylized and simple not because a simple model is necessary for the results below, but because it is sufficient. I assume that a trade agreement is binding for the parties, unless both agree on something else, but Section V.A verifies that the results hold for non-binding treaties, that is, when a country can unilaterally renege on the terms Section V.B replaces the constants above by concave or convex functions. Depletion rates are then more gradual – and realistic – but the main results emphasized below continue to hold. Finally, Section V.C shows why the results continue to hold if the default outcome is not autarky, but instead the Nash equilibrium when N and S set tariff levels.

III. Free Trade Agreements

The simple model above captures a basic mechanism for how trade and exploitation can be mutually dependent. Before characterizing the equilibrium in detail, it is useful to start with three results that hold for all SPEs.

III.A. Trade Causes Exploitation

With free trade forever, S is, as in autarky, a single decision maker maximizing its continuation value. Now, however, S faces an alternative to consuming the resource domestically. In autarky, S exploits $x_t^{AUT} > 0$ only if $\underline{a} + \underline{b} > c$. With trade, S exploits $x_t^{FTA} > 0$ also if $\overline{a} + \overline{b} > c$.

It follows that S exploits more with trade than in autarky.

Proposition 1. *Free trade causes depletion: In every SPE,*

$$\begin{aligned} x_t^{FTA} &= R_t \geq x_t^{AUT} = 0, \textit{ if} \\ c &\in \left[\underline{a} + \underline{b}, \overline{a} + \overline{b}\right). \end{aligned} \tag{3}$$

If $\overline{a} + \overline{b} \leq c$, *then* $x_t^{AUT} = x_t^{FTA} = 0$. *If* $\underline{a} + \underline{b} > c$, *then* $x_t^{AUT} = x_t^{FTA} = R_t$.

Proposition 1 implies that no SPE can implement the first best with an FTA and no exploitation.

It is easy to see that the equilibrium survives also if trade liberalization is reversible and must be decided on in every period. As soon as the parties trade in one period, S exploits by choosing $x_t = R_t$. Thereafter, when the resource is depleted, trade is unambiguously efficient in every period. A threat to not trade after depletion is not credible.[17]

III.B. Exploitation Causes Trade

With transfers at the negotiation stage, it is the sum of the two continuation values that determines whether an agreement is beneficial. By comparing the autarky payoffs following (1) and the FTA payoffs following Proposition 1, we can conclude that the benefit from an FTA can be negative if R_t is large. When (3) holds, the resource will be depleted with an FTA but not in autarky.

If R_t is already diminished, however, the additional damage is small and outweighed by the gains from trade. Thus, there exists a threshold, R^*, so that the FTA is socially valuable if $R_t \leq R^*$.

[17] If the transfers/tariffs can depend on the history, there exist SPEs in which N pays S in every period as long as S conserves, if just δ is sufficiently large. Such SPEs cease to exist if the transfer, as in this section, cannot be conditioned on S's action.

Proposition 2. *Suppose trade influences x_t (i.e., (3) holds). The social value of the FTA at time t decreases in R_t and it is positive if the gains from trade are large and R_t is small, i.e., if:*

$$\frac{e+(\overline{a}-\underline{a})R_0}{R_t} \geq c+d-\underline{a}-\overline{b} \Leftrightarrow \tag{4}$$

$$R_t \leq R^* \equiv \frac{e+(\overline{a}-\underline{a})R_0}{c+d-\underline{a}-\overline{b}}. \tag{5}$$

The proposition describes a second-best outcome: Given the inefficiency uncovered by Proposition 1, it is socially optimal with trade if and only if the resource has already been exploited so much that the remainder R_t is small and inequality (5) holds. In this case, the parties strictly benefit from trade, despite the fact that trade will motivate further exploitation.

This result generalizes the claim above that if $R_t = 0$, then trade liberalization is unambiguously beneficial for the countries.

For the inequality (5) to fail, $R_t > R^*$. For such a large R_t, the sum of payoffs is larger in autarky than with trade whenever autarky is necessary for conservation to take place, that is, under (3).

III.C. Exploit to Trade

In reality, the parties cannot commit to stay in autarky forever just because trade can cause depletion. If it should happen that the resource is exploited anyway, so that (5) holds, then N and S will find it optimal to trade.

S anticipates that if it exploits enough so that (5) holds, then it will be able to enjoy the gains from trade. Even if $\underline{a}+\underline{b}<c$, so that S finds it too costly to deplete the resource in autarky, this cost is worth paying if R_t is already small or if the gains from trade are large.

Proposition 3. *S is willing to exploit in order to obtain an FTA if the gains from trade are large or R_t is small, i.e., if:*

$$\frac{e+(\overline{a}-\underline{a})R_0}{R_t} > \frac{c-\underline{b}-\underline{a}}{\delta\alpha} \Leftrightarrow \tag{6}$$

$$R_t < \widehat{R} \equiv \delta\alpha\frac{e+(\overline{a}-\underline{a})R_0}{c-\underline{b}-\underline{a}} \text{ or } \underline{a}+\underline{b}>c.$$

This proposition implies that the second-best outcome, characterized by Proposition 2, cannot be sustained by any SPE. Even if the FTA is not socially valuable, because $R_t > R^*$, S can always obtain a larger continuation than in autarky if $R_t < \widehat{R}$, simply by first exploiting the resource and then trade.

As illustrated in Figure 1,

$$\widehat{R} > R^* \Leftrightarrow d > \widehat{d} \equiv \left(\frac{1}{\delta\alpha}-1\right)(c-\underline{b}-\underline{a})+\overline{b}-\underline{b}.$$

In region B, where $d > \widehat{d}$ and $R_t \in \left(R^*, \widehat{R}\right)$, trade and exploitation are socially suboptimal, but S is willing to deplete the resource if this is necessary to diminish the stock so much that the FTA becomes acceptable also to N.

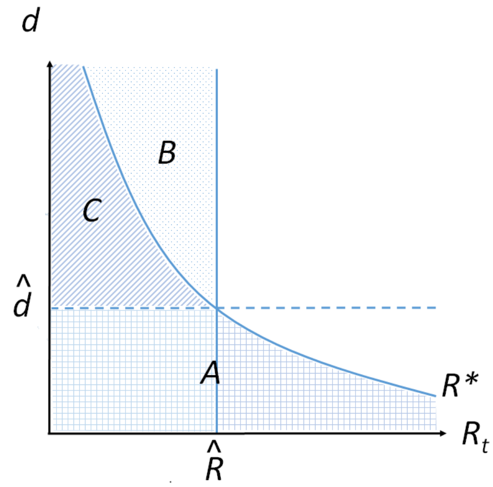

Figure 1: *An FTA is socially optimal if* $R_t < R^*$*, but S is willing to exploit to obtain one if* $R_t < \widehat{R}$*.*

Proposition 3 states that S is "willing" to exploit but, on the equilibrium path, N and S find it optimal to sign an FTA as soon as N expects that S will, in any case, exploit the resource.

Remark 1 on Exhaustibility and Irreversibility. The negative results from Proposition 2 and 3 follow because the resource is exhaustible and depletion irreversible. If, instead, R_t returned to R_0 after every period, or if the stock was not relevant, then N and S would lose from trade if $\overline{a} + \overline{b} < c + d$, and S would not be able to extract to obtain an FTA.

III.D. Equilibrium

The propositions above hold for every SPE. Proposition 1 states that the first best cannot be supported as an SPE. Proposition 2 describes the second best, given the inefficiency uncovered by Proposition 1, but Proposition 3 states that not even the second best can be supported as an SPE: There is no SPE without trade or exploitation if $R_t \in \left(R^*, \widehat{R}\right)$. There are multiple SPEs, but all of them lead to trade and exploitation.[18]

In games with stocks, it is common to pay special attention to Markov strategies that are functions of the stock. Maskin and Tirole (2001:192–193) write that MPEs "*prescribe the simplest form of behavior that is consistent with rationality*" while capturing the fact that "*bygones are bygones more completely than does the concept of subgame-perfect equilibrium.*" So, to offer a sharp characterization of the outcome, I henceforth characterize the MPE in pure and linear strategies. In the MPE, N and S sign the FTA if, and only if, either (4) or (6) holds (or both), i.e., in region A, B, and C in Figure 1.

The MPE also specifies S's action off the equilibrium path, that is, the threat point, or the default extraction level, x^D, that S will choose at the extraction stage if the parties have not signed an agreement.

[18] For example, there are SPEs in which N and S agree to trade at some future time, or in every Δ_t period, where Δ_t is so small that S prefers to conserve when there are fewer than Δ_t periods left.

PROPOSITION 4. *In equilibrium, the FTA is signed, and S exploits, if and only if the gains from trade are large or R_t is small:*

$$\text{if } d \leq \widehat{d}, \text{ the condition is } \frac{e + (\overline{a} - \underline{a}) R_0}{R_t} > c + d - \overline{b} - \underline{a} \text{ and the default outcome is } x^D = 0,$$

$$\text{if } d > \widehat{d}, \text{ the condition is } \frac{e + (\overline{a} - \underline{a}) R_0}{R_t} > \frac{c - \underline{b} - \underline{a}}{\delta\alpha} \text{ and the default outcome is } x^D = R_t \cdot \max\{\phi, 1\},$$

$$\text{where } \phi \equiv \frac{d - \widehat{d}}{c + d - \overline{b} - \underline{a} + \frac{\overline{b} - \underline{b}}{1-\delta}} = 1 - \frac{\frac{\overline{b} - \underline{b}}{1-\delta} + \frac{c - \underline{b} - \underline{a}}{\delta\alpha}}{c + d - \overline{b} - \underline{a} + \frac{\overline{b} - \underline{b}}{1-\delta}}.$$

In region A in Figure 1, $d < \widehat{d}$, and S is not willing to exploit in order to obtain an FTA when (4) fails. In this situation, N and S trade if and only if R_t is so small that (4) holds. Anticipating this, S's default extraction level is $x^D = 0$. This situation corresponds to the first case in the proposition.

In the second case, and in region B in Figure 1, N and S trade even if the FTA is socially suboptimal, because S will otherwise exploit in order to obtain an FTA later. In equilibrium, S exploits the fraction $\phi > 0$ of the remaining resource if N and S do not sign the FTA. Interestingly, the fraction ϕ is independent of R_t, and it increases in d.

In region C, R_t is even smaller, and both (4) and (6) hold. In this case, S would be willing to exploit R_t in order to obtain an FTA, but doing so is not necessary. After all, N and S jointly benefit from the FTA, even without that threat. In fact, N and S would negotiate an FTA and S would obtain the fraction α of the total surplus even if the default outcome were that S would not exploit. That surplus, it turns out, can be less than what S can obtain from *first* exploiting and *then* negotiating an FTA. The reason for why it can be less is that when the default outcome is $x^D = 0$, i.e., S does not exploit if N and S fail to sign an FTA at time t, then S must compensate N for the damages N faces given that the FTA, and only the FTA, will cause exploitation. If S, instead, exploits first, then the damage is sunk and no such compensation can be requested. The latter option is preferable to S when $d > \widehat{d}$. So, in region C, S is willing to exploit in order to obtain a *better* FTA. The default is not $x^D = 0$, but $x^D > 0$, and the larger x^D implies that S's bargaining position is so strong that S is willing to conserve some of the stock in anticipation of the agreement.

REMARK 2 ON INDIFFERENCE AND MIXED STRATEGIES. Because of the linear payoffs, an interior solution, with $\phi \in (0, 1)$, means that S is indifferent between exploitation and conservation. This indifference pins down S's payoff (since it must equal the payoff when S depletes). Since S's payoff equals a fraction α of the total surplus, S's indifference is also pinning down the total gains from signing the agreement and, with that, the equilibrium level of ϕ. If $\underline{a} + \underline{b} - c > 0$, S benefits from exploiting, even in autarky. For $\underline{a} + \underline{b} - c$ sufficiently large, $\phi \geq 1$, implying that S depletes the resource in the default outcome, that is, if N and S fail to sign the FTA. In addition to the MPE in linear strategies, there are also mixed-strategy MPEs in which $\phi \in [0, 1]$ measures the *probability* that S exploits R_t when the parties have not agreed, but the mixed-strategy equilibria are payoff-equivalent to the pure-strategy MPE, thanks to the linear payoffs.[19]

III.E. Transfers and Tariffs

The results above continue to hold, qualitatively, even if N and S cannot use transfers at the negotiation stage. For example, Proposition 1 remains unchanged, the inequality in Proposition 2 simplifies to $e/R_t \geq d$, and (6) in Proposition 3 is replaced by $(\overline{a} - \underline{a})\, R_0/R_t > c - \underline{a} - \underline{b}$.

But allowing for transfers seems reasonable when it comes to international trade agreements (Grossman and Helpman, 1995; Aghion et al., 2007; Maggi and Ossa, 2020). After all, the transfers do not need to be explicit monetary transfers. They can, alternatively, be facilitated by trading favors, such as when the EU demanded that Russia ratify the Kyoto Protocol in order to obtain the EU's support for Russia's entry into the WTO.[20] International politics are multidimensional and issue linkages like this are quite common.[21]

In addition, the transfers can take the form of tariff adjustments. In practice, there is a large set (i.e., an entire frontier) of Pareto-optimal agreements. After all, trade agreements are not necessarily completely "free" but instead are characterized by reduced tariffs. Reduced tariffs on S's exports benefit S but, because of the terms-of-trade effect, N may be harmed.

This terms-of-trade effect is easily captured in the above model given the inelastic supply that has been assumed. If $\tau_N \leq 1$ measures S's ad valorem import tariff on N's export, then consumers in S are willing to pay only the fraction $(1 - \tau_N)$ for N's goods, relative to how much they would have paid without any tariff. N will find it necessary (and optimal) to reduce the price by this fraction and, therefore, N loses and S gains when τ_N is increased.

A tariff (τ_S) in N on S's beef is similarly benefitting N but harming S. With both tariffs, the payoffs after signing the agreement become:

$$\begin{aligned} V_S^{FTA}(R_t, \overline{\tau}) &= \tau_N e + (1 - \tau_S)\, \overline{a} R_0 + \left(\overline{b} - c\right) R_t = V_S^{FTA}(R_t, 0) + \overline{\tau}, \text{ and} \\ V_N^{FTA}(R_t, \overline{\tau}) &= (1 - \tau_N)\, e + \tau_S \overline{a} R_0 - d R_t = V_N^{FTA}(R_t, 0) - \overline{\tau}, \text{ where} \\ \overline{\tau} &\equiv \tau_N e - \tau_S \overline{a} R_0. \end{aligned} \tag{7}$$

Note that $\overline{\tau}$ essentially represents a monetary transfer from N to S relative to what the two countries would have enjoyed if all tariffs were zero.[22]

[19] The intuition for why there are mixed-strategy MPEs is the following. If S is willing to deplete in order to obtain an FTA, then N and S benefit from signing an FTA right away, but if S can expect an FTA very soon, then S might prefer $x_t = 0$ because S earns more from exporting the timber than from consuming it domestically. This logic suggests (as is also proven in Harstad, 2016) that, in some cases, there might be no equilibrium in which $x_t = 0$ or $x_t = R_t$ and that instead S might randomize between these two actions. Thanks to the linear payoff functions, a mixed-strategy equilibrium corresponds to a pure-strategy equilibrium in which the default outcome, or threat point, is $x_t^D \in (0, R_t)$. Such an interior pure-strategy exploitation level is payoff equivalent to the mixed-strategy MPE, and it is also more realistic.

[20] https://www.nytimes.com/2004/05/21/international/russia-on-path-to-wto-signs-trade-deal-with-europe-2004052193084445303.html

[21] Aghion et al. (2007:3) refer to several examples and they conclude: "*We believe...that it is realistic to model trade negotiations as games with transferable utility, because the exchange of concessions on non-trade-related issues often serves the role of transfers that redistribute the gains from trade liberalization.*"

[22] To facilitate this transfer, there is no need for introducing tariffs on timber (x_t) also.

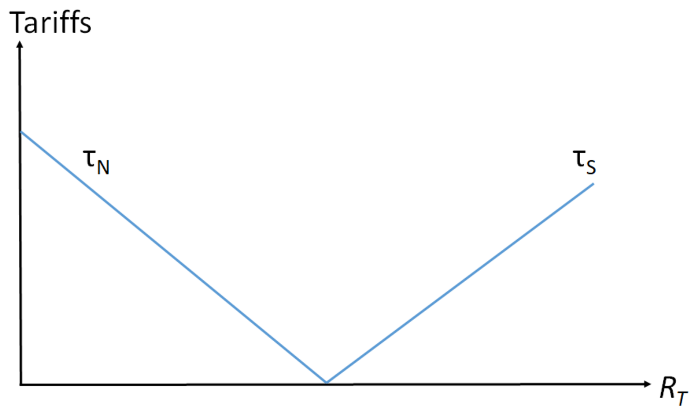

Figure 2: *In the FTA, the terms of trade are favorable to S if R is small.*

In the dynamic game above, the gains from trade include the gains from starting with the FTA at time t instead of at time $t+1$. In the meanwhile, N risks that S exploits x^D. The equilibrium level of x^D, or ϕ, is thus going to influence the negotiated transfer. This is evident in the next proposition, which presents the equilibrium transfer implemented by the tariffs.

PROPOSITION 5. *If N and S sign an FTA at time T, then τ_N is smaller or τ_S is larger if R_T is large:*

$$\overline{\tau}(R_T) = \alpha e - (1-\alpha)\Delta_a R_0 - R_T \cdot \left\{ \begin{array}{ll} \alpha d - (1-\alpha)\left(c - \underline{a} - \overline{b}\right) & \text{if } \phi < 0 \\ \overline{b} - \underline{b} + \left[c - \underline{b} - \underline{a}\right](1/\delta - 1) & \text{if } \phi \in [0,1] \\ \left(\overline{b} - \underline{b}\right)(1-\alpha) & \text{if } \phi > 1 \end{array} \right\}.$$

The comparative statics are interesting but intuitive. When N and S negotiate whether to sign the FTA, the equilibrium transfer from N to S will reflect the bargaining strength (α), the gains from trade, and the payoffs in the outside option (i.e., in autarky).

The larger R_T is, the larger is S's payoff from the FTA, but the smaller N's payoff is from the FTA when the FTA causes exploitation (i.e., when (3) holds). The equilibrium transfers or tariffs ensure that the parties will obtain comparable gains from the bilateral deal. It is thus intuitive that the transfer to S, $\overline{\tau} \equiv \tau_N e - \tau_S \overline{a} R_0$, must be strictly decreasing in R_T. Consequently, τ_N must decrease in R_T, or τ_S must increase in R_T (or both).

For the purpose of reallocating the gains, there is no need for both tariffs to be strictly positive, so we can, without loss of generality, let $\tau_N \tau_S = 0$. The corresponding tariffs are illustrated in Figure 2.

REMARK 3 ON DISTORTIONS AND CONSTRAINTS. To simplify, the reasoning above ignored any constraint on, or distortion because of the transfer. Here, there is no welfare loss associated with tariffs as long as the tariffs are so small that they do not change the traded quantity. But if there are no export subsidies, the producers in S are willing to export only if the tariff is limited, i.e., if $(1-\tau_S)\overline{a} \geq \underline{a}$. (There will be a similar constraint on τ_N.) With more realistic elasticities on the supply and demand functions, the welfare losses from the tariffs would be positive and continuous, but Section V.B explains how two-part tariffs can eliminate the distortions. The constraints on the tariffs and the welfare losses can also be ignored if the tariffs can be accompanied by export subsidies (as in Grossman and Helpman, 1995). If s_S is an ad valorem export subsidy in S, the producers in S are willing to export as long as $(1+s_S)(1-\tau_S)\overline{a} \geq \underline{a}$. The export subsidy is just a transfer within the country and it might not influence the countries' payoffs. With this subsidy, and with a similar export subsidy in N, there is no constraint on how large the tariffs or the transfer can be: the producers in country $i \in \{N, S\}$ will continue to export as long as there is no change in $(1+s_i)(1-\tau_i)$.[23] Alternatively, the transfers can be arbitrarily large if, instead of export subsidies, we permit import subsidies. N subsidizes imports if $\tau_S < 0$ and S subsidizes import if $\tau_N < 0$. Section IV.C discusses the consequences of prohibiting such subsidies, and Sections V.B and V.C discuss distortions because of the policy.

IV. Contingent Trade Agreements

IV.A. Feasibility

With transfers or tariffs, described in Section III.E, the gains from trade can be distributed in alternative ways. Once the parties have agreed to trade, and the gains are allocated according to some pair (τ_N, τ_S), then every such allocation is renegotiation proof in the following sense: any change in $\overline{\tau}$ will harm and thus be vetoed by (at least) one of the parties.

However, we may not want to impose the restriction that the equilibrium allocation of gains, or the pair (τ_N, τ_S), must be constant. This section permits the parties to negotiate tariffs that are functions not only of R_T at the time, T, when they negotiate, but also of every smaller $R_t \in [0, R_T]$ that is imaginable for future dates (even off the equilibrium path).

Definition: *A* CTA*, negotiated at time T, specifies tariffs* $\tau_S(R_t; R_T)$ *and* $\tau_N(R_t; R_T)$*, that can depend on the current* R_t *as well as on* R_T*, unless the parties agree on different tariffs.*

For every R_t, the agreement must give S at least the same payoff as S can obtain in autarky. In addition, the tariff functions must be renegotiation proof. This requirement rules out, for example, a punishment strategy in which S will no longer be able to export if R_t has been reduced. As observed above, if $R_t = 0$, it is always (ex post) better for N and S to trade. The agreement is renegotiation proof if the equilibrium payoff pair is on the Pareto frontier for every R_t that is feasible at $t > T$.

A challenge is that, even if there is no exploitation after the agreement is signed, the sum of the gains from trade is $e + (\overline{a} - \underline{a}) X_t$, increasing in X_t. Thus, the more that has been depleted, the larger are the gains from trade that can be shared. If S receives a constant fraction of this cake, it should not be surprising that S faces a strong incentive to exploit.

[23] As Grossman and Helpman (1995:683) write: "*if the home country were to increase its tariff on imports of some good and the foreign country increased its export subsidy by the same percentage amount, then the world price would fall so as to leave the domestic prices in each country unchanged.*"

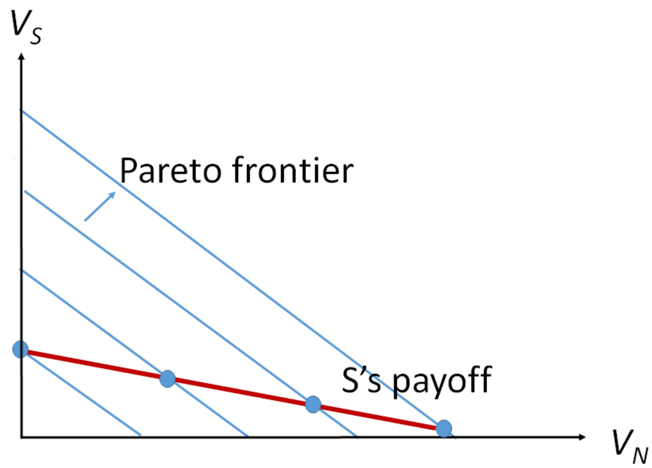

Figure 3: *When the resource is depleted, the Pareto frontier shifts, but S's payoff can decline.*

But it does not need to be this way. Even if the total gain increases, the gain allocated to S can decrease, as illustrated in Figure 3. This decrease is possible if S's tariff is a function that declines in the stock, while N's tariff is a function that increases in the stock, as in Figure 4. If $\overline{\tau}$ increases sufficiently fast in R_t, then S has an incentive to conserve rather than to exploit.

LEMMA 1. *S is willing to conserve and exploit $x_t = 0 \forall t \geq T, R_t \leq R_T$, if and only if:*

$$\begin{aligned} \partial \frac{\overline{\tau}(R_t; R_T)}{\partial R_t} &\geq \overline{a} + \underline{b} - c \ \forall R_t \leq R_T, \text{ where} \\ \overline{\tau}(R_t; R_T) &= \tau_N(R_t; R_T) e - \tau_S(R_t; R_T) \overline{a} X_t. \end{aligned} \tag{8}$$

Thus, the CTA can specify a rule that allocates the gains from trade to S as long as S conserves, and to N if S exploits its resource. When (8) holds, this reallocation of the gains occurs so fast when R_t is reduced that S is better off conserving than depleting the resource.

IV.B. Equilibrium: Implementing The First Best

The lemma states that it is *possible* to design an agreement that motivates conservation. The next result states that N and S will indeed sign such an agreement in equilibrium, as long as the tariffs are permitted to be a function of the remaining stock, R_t. The intuition for this statement is simply that conservation is socially efficient, and thus both N and S can benefit from an agreement that motivates conservation when the parties can use side transfers (e.g., tariffs). N and S will share the total surplus according to their respective bargaining strengths.

The following proposition describes the unique MPE ($\overline{\tau}$ and x^D) in pure strategies. The tariffs are written as a function of the stock that exists at the time of negotiations, R_T. If future stocks are different, then the tariffs will also change in line with (8). Because (8) can be respected by a continuum of functions,

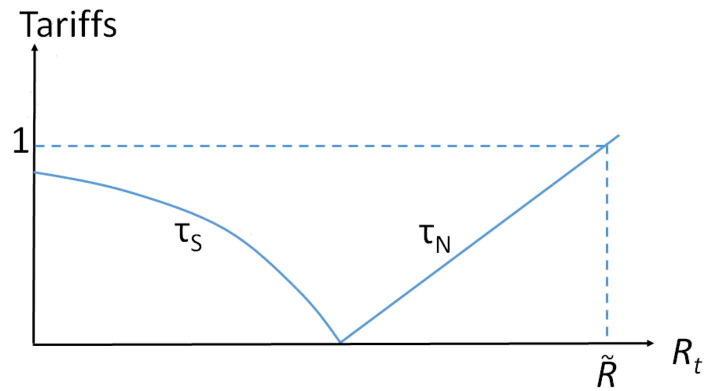

Figure 4: *In the CTA, the terms of trade are favorable to S if R is large.*

the proposition does not specify exactly how steeply the tariffs will change if (off the equilibrium path) S extracted rather than conserved.

Proposition 6. *Consider a subgame starting at time T without a CTA. In equilibrium, N and S sign a CTA and implement the first-best outcome with $x_t = 0 \forall t \geq T$. The tariffs respect (8) and:*

$$\overline{\tau}(R_T; R_T) = \left\{ \begin{array}{lll} \alpha e - (1-\alpha)(\overline{a} - \underline{a}) R_0 + (1-\alpha)(\overline{a} - \underline{a}) R_T & \text{and } x^D = 0 & \text{if } \varphi < 0 \\ \alpha e - (1-\alpha)(\overline{a} - \underline{a}) R_0 + \frac{a+b-c}{\delta} R_T + (\overline{a} - \underline{a}) R_T & \text{and } x^D = \varphi R_T & \text{if } \varphi \in (0,1) \\ \alpha e - (1-\alpha)(\overline{a} - \underline{a}) R_0 + [(1-\alpha)(\overline{a} + \underline{b} - c) + \alpha d] R_T & \text{and } x^D = R_T & \text{if } \varphi > 1 \end{array} \right\}$$

$$\text{where } \varphi \equiv \frac{\delta\alpha(\overline{a} - \underline{a}) + \underline{a} + \underline{b} - c}{\delta\alpha(\overline{a} - \underline{a}) + \delta\alpha\frac{d+c-\overline{a}-\underline{b}}{1-\delta}}.$$

Interestingly, $\overline{\tau}(R_T; R_T)$ increases in R_T. The intuition is that if R_T is large, then N's benefit from an agreement that leads to conservation is also large. The larger benefit to N implies that, at the bargaining stage, N will accept transfers to S, or will accept to face tariffs when exporting to S. Thus, $\overline{\tau}(\cdot)$ increases in both arguments. It is easy to verify that $\overline{\tau}(\cdot)$ permits (8) to hold for every $R_t \in [0, R_T]$.

It is always first best to conserve the entire resource in the simple model studied here. Full conservation is feasible by letting S obtain a large share of the gains from trade when R_t is large, but a smaller share when R_t is small. If R_T is very large, then the gain to S might need to be larger than the total gains from trade. In line with Remark 3, above, this situation is permitted but it requires τ_N to be so large that N must subsidize its export for the producers to be willing to sell, or that $\tau_S < 0$, so that N subsidizes import. When τ_N is accompanied by an export subsidy in country N, or N subsidizes import, then there is no limit to how large $\overline{\tau}$ can be, and there is no limit to how much one can conserve. N agrees to the large $\overline{\tau}$, in equilibrium, because it motivates conservation.

IV.C. Without Subsidies: The Second Best

Export subsidies are rarely used in practice, however, and they are generally prohibited by the WTO. When export and import subsidies cannot be used, then the transfer from N to S is limited by the

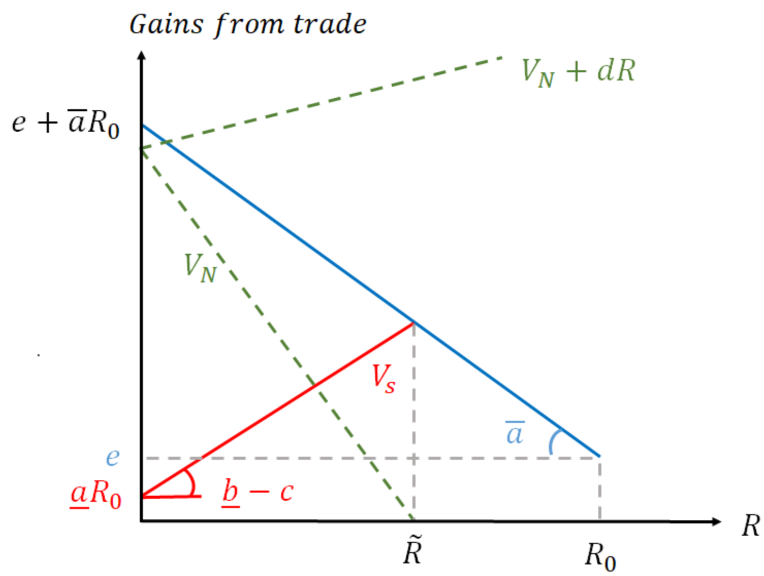

Figure 5: *The gains from trade (blue/solid) decrease in* R*, but to motivate conservation,* V_S *(red/solid) must increase in* R*. Thus, at most* $\widetilde{R}$ *can be conserved – when export subsidies cannot be used.*

magnitude of the gains from trade. These gains therefore limit how much S can be persuaded to conserve by simply being allocated the gains from trade. This limit is illustrated by the dotted line in Figure 4, and by the blue/decreasing solid line in Figure 5. The next result describes the upper boundary for how much it is possible to conserve without export and import subsidies.

Proposition 7. *Consider a subgame at* T *without a CTA. Suppose subsidies are not available and, for simplicity, that* $\alpha = 0$*. In equilibrium, N offers a CTA that S immediately accepts:*
(i) The tariffs are in line with Proposition 6 and $x_t = 0$ *for every* $t \geq T$ *if:*

$$\frac{e + (\overline{a} - \underline{a})\, R_0}{R_T} \geq \overline{a} + \underline{b} - c \Leftrightarrow \tag{9}$$
$$R_T \leq \widetilde{R} \equiv \frac{e + (\overline{a} - \underline{a})\, R_0}{\overline{a} + \underline{b} - c} \text{ or } \overline{a} + \underline{b} < c.$$

(ii) When (9) fails, i.e., $R_T > \widetilde{R} > 0$*, then, for every* $t \geq T$*,*

$$x_t = \left(R_t - \widetilde{R}\right)\gamma, \text{ where } \gamma \equiv \frac{\overline{a} + \underline{b} - c}{\overline{a} + \underline{b} - c + \frac{\overline{b} - \underline{b}}{1-\delta}} \in (0,1)\,, \tag{10}$$

and, on the equilibrium path $\tau_S = 0$ *and* $\tau_N = 1$*.*

Eq. (9) can be rewritten as:

$$\frac{e + (\overline{a} - \underline{a})\,(R_0 - R_T)}{R_T} \geq \underline{a} + \underline{b} - c.$$

With this reformulation, part (i) in Proposition 7 states that if $\underline{a} + \underline{b} < c$, so that S does not want to reduce R_t in autarky, then the CTA can always ensure that there is no further exploitation, even if export subsidies cannot be used. If $\underline{a}+\underline{b}>c$, so that S would exploit in autarky, then the CTA can still motivate conservation, so that $R_t \in (0,R_0)\,\forall t$, but the amount of resource conservation, $\widetilde{R}$, is limited by the value of trade.

In Figure 5, the blue/solid decreasing line illustrates that the revenue from trade is larger when R_t is small, but the red/solid upward-sloping line illustrates how V_S must vary with R_t to motivate conservation. When V_S is limited by the total revenue, conservation is limited to $\widetilde{R}$. Although N's gains from trade must, as a consequence, decrease in R_t (see V_N), also N is better off when R_t is large when the conservation value is taken into account (green/dotted increasing line).

Part (ii) of Proposition 7 states that if $R_T>\widetilde{R}>0$, the gains from trade are insufficient to motivate full conservation. The CTA can nevertheless be used to motivate a slower extraction rate. The speed at which S extracts can be reduced by allocating most of the gains from trade to S as long as S sticks to (10). If S exploits more, S will face higher tariffs. The larger are the gains from trade, $\overline{b}-\underline{b}$, the more it is possible to persuade S to conserve in each period.

A similar result holds if we face the restriction $\tau_N=0$, so that the best N can offer S is free trade, and so that tariffs will not be used on the equilibrium path. The constraint $\tau_N=0$ limits the cake available for S and thus the amount of the resource that can be conserved: (9) holds if just e is replaced by zero. If N cannot tax S's import, e.g., because S can export to a third country, then (9) holds if $(\overline{a}-\underline{a})$ is replaced by zero. Even in this case, N can offer e (i.e., $\tau_N>0$) to motivate conservation.

Remark 4 on α. If $\alpha>0$, the equilibrium x_t, when $R_T>\widetilde{R}$, is be larger than x_t described by (10). When $R_T>\widetilde{R}$, the level of α is thus not only affecting the distribution of surplus, but also efficiency: a larger α is less efficient because S, then, requests a CTA that tolerates faster extraction.

IV.D. Comparison to the FTA

It is interesting to note that the mechanisms of the CTA are fundamentally different from those associated with the FTA. While the FTA is associated with more resource exploitation, the CTA is associated with conservation. The main result of this paper is that the CTA overturns *all* the results established for FTAs in Section III.

Corollary 1. *With a CTA, Propositions 1–5 are overturned:*
(1) The agreement leads to more conservation than in autarky.
(2) The agreement is more valuable when R_T is large.
(3) S conserves to maintain the most attractive agreement.
(4) In equilibrium, S conserves when the gains from trade are large and R_t is small.
(5) τ_N strictly increases or τ_S strictly decreases (or both) in R_T as well as in R_t.

Part (1) reverses Proposition 1 because if there is any conservation in autarky (i.e., if $\underline{a}+\underline{b}<c$), then (9) always holds and the CTA ensures full conservation, even when export subsidies are not available. If $\underline{a}+\underline{b}>c$, there is no conservation in autarky, but the CTA can motivate conservation. Part (2) reverses

Proposition 2 because in addition to exploiting the gains from trade, the CTA is beneficial because it ensures that R_T is conserved. The larger this stock is, the larger is the benefit of the CTA. Part (3) is explained in Section IV.A. Part (4), reversing Proposition 4, follows when subsidies are unavailable: Then, Proposition 7 shows that S will exploit when R_t is large, but not when it is small, and the larger the gains from trade are, the more can be conserved. Part 5 follows when we compare Figures 2 and 4.

Remark 1 is also reversed.

Remark 5 on Exhaustibility and Irreversibility. The CTA can secure conservation *because* the resource is exhaustible. If, instead, R_t returned to R_0 in every period, or if R_t were not relevant, then it would not be credible that $\overline{\tau}$ would decrease if S extracted. If the anticipation of such a decrease could motivate S to conserve, then N would prefer to "restart the clock" after S had extracted. For this reason, the CTA would not be renegotiation proof if the resource were renewable.

Consequently, while the exhaustibility feature intensifies the conflict between trade and conservation under the FTA, it is this feature that makes the CTA effective and credible in motivating conservation.

IV.E. Comparison to Commitment

Above, the parties are not endowed with the ability to commit: The CTA tariffs have been required to be renegotiation proof. Nevertheless, Proposition 6 shows that the CTA can implement the first-best outcome. When subsidies cannot be used, Proposition 7 describes the amount that the CTA will conserve, in equilibrium. In this situation, one might wonder if there can be other designs that can be even better and that can motivate more conservation.

The answer to this question is no. Even if the parties could *commit* to policies that were conditioned on the resource stock and extraction levels, they would not be able to obtain higher payoffs than from the CTA, as long as export subsidies cannot be used. To prove this claim, it is sufficient to maximize the amount of conservation subject to the harshest punishment on S if S deviates from the plan. The harshest punishment is autarky. The autarky payoff is also what S obtains if S decides to *fully* deplete under the CTA, and full depletion is indeed a best response for S as long as *marginal* depletion (i.e., x_t marginally larger than (10)) is a best response.[24]

Proposition 8. *The CTAs described by Propositions 6 and 7 implement the same outcome, and secure the same payoffs, as N and S would have achieved if they could commit to future policies as a function of the history.*

This result is important because it suggests that the CTA is not simply a design that improves marginally on the FTA, and from which N and S might be able to make further improvements. Instead, the CTA here implements the best N and S can hope for, even if they could have committed, although the CTA does not require them to be endowed with an ability to commit.

[24] The last statement follows because S's payoff is linear in the size of the stock.

V. Robustness

The model is simple for pedagogical reasons, but the main results are robust and can be derived in more general models. While the previous subsection showed that the CTA implements the outcome under commitment, Section V.A shows how the CTA can be robust to unilateral requests to renege on the treaty. Section V.B relaxes all linearity assumptions, while Section V.C assumes that the default outcome is not autarky, but the noncooperative Nash equilibrium in tariffs.

V.A. Binding vs. Non-binding Agreements – and Implementation

So far, the CTA has been praised as renegotiation proof because it distributes all gains from trade and, therefore, no other agreement is weakly better for both parties and strictly better for one. Renegotiation proofness is a natural requirement for a treaty that is binding, that is, if the agreement binds each party unless both countries agree to renegotiate the terms. If the agreement is non-binding, however, an individual country is free to tear it apart. If a country does so, the parties will find it in their interests to agree on another Pareto optimal allocation where S captures the fraction α of the time t surplus relative to autarky. I will say that an agreement is "renege proof" if at no $t \geq T$ or $R_t \in [0, R_T]$, no party can strictly benefit from leaving the agreement (e.g., in order to negotiate a new one).[25]

The CTA, described above, can be renege proof as well as renegotiation proof. As mentioned after Proposition 6, $\overline{\tau}(R_T; R_T)$ increases in R_T. When the CTA leads to conservation, then N will pay S, in equilibrium, for the conservation benefits that N enjoys from the CTA. If, instead, S has already depleted the resource, then S will obtain less favorable terms of trade because N benefits less from the CTA. This fact is often sufficient to motivate S to conserve the resource.

Proposition 9. *Suppose N and S are free to renege on the CTA at any point in time.*
(i) Suppose export subsidies are available. If $c \notin (0, \alpha(\overline{a} - \underline{a}))$, *the equilibrium CTA is* $\overline{\tau}(R_t; R_T) = \overline{\tau}(R_t; R_t)$, *where* $\overline{\tau}(R_t; R_t)$ *is given by Proposition 6 if just* R_T *is replaced by the current* $R_t \leq R_T$. *If* $c \in (0, \alpha(\overline{a} - \underline{a}))$, *the equilibrium CTA is, instead:*

$$\overline{\tau}(R_t; R_t) = \alpha e - (1 - \alpha)(\overline{a} - \underline{a}) R_0 + (\overline{a} + \underline{b} - c) R_t. \tag{11}$$

In either case, the CTA implements the first best.
(ii) If export subsidies cannot be used, and $\alpha = 0$, *the equilibrium CTA is given by Proposition 7.*

When $\alpha \to 0$, it is always true that $c - \underline{a} - \underline{b} \notin (0, \alpha(\overline{a} - \underline{a}))$, and, thus, that the CTA characterized by Proposition 6 is renege proof. When N has all the bargaining power, it is intuitive that S cannot benefit

[25] In principle, it is not clear whether this threat of leaving the agreement should be taken seriously by the opponent. After all, the country reneging harms itself unless it soon wins the war of attrition it has just initiated. The credibility of this threat will depend on the details of the bargaining structure. This ambiguity has motivated a variety of definitions of renegotiation proofness that I do not intend to survey here. The above notion of renegotiation proofness is referred to as "the standard one" by Abreu et al. (1993) and Bergin and MacLeod (1993), and these authors propose concepts that are related to how I define renege proofness. Mailath and Samuelson (2006) review the early literature on this topic.

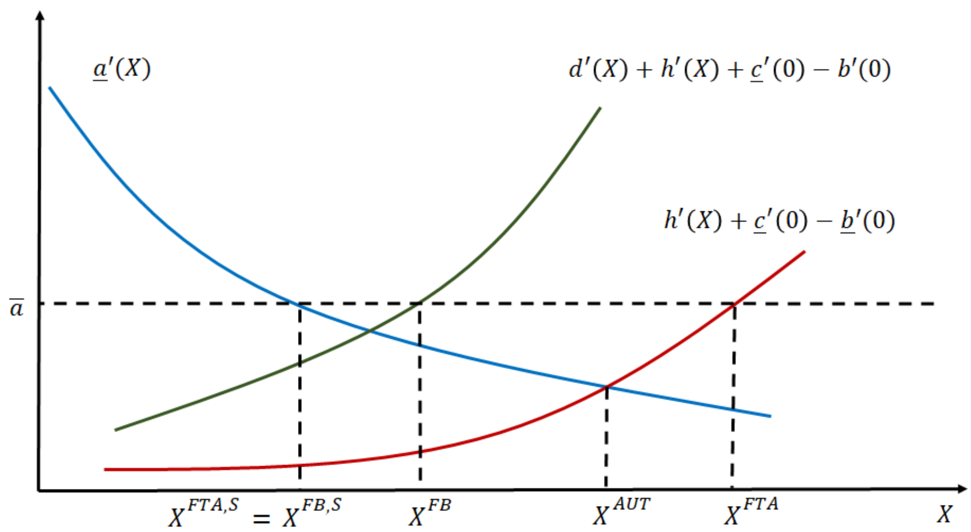

Figure 6: *The model can be generalized to non-linear functions and interior solutions.*

from reneging. The CTA described by Proposition 7, where $\alpha = 0$ was assumed, is thus always renege proof.

Implementation. When the CTA is renege proof, it is straightforward to implement. It is sufficient to let parties negotiate $\overline{\tau}(R_t; R_T)$ in period T, and allow either party renege on the agreement in any subsequent period. Therefore, it is sufficient that $\overline{\tau}(R_t; R_T)$ holds through period T, and that it is sensitive to the stock that is relevant at the consumption stage at time T, that is, $R_{T+1} = R_T + x_T$. The $\overline{\tau}$ for subsequent periods can be negotiated later.

V.B. Non-Linear Payoff Functions

The most striking simplification has been that the payoffs have been linear in all variables, but all these linearity assumptions can be relaxed. If $\underline{a}\left(X^S\right)$ and $\overline{a}\left(X^N\right)$ are concave functions of the beef consumed in S and N, respectively, then decisions and outcomes can be an interior rather than corner solutions. Similarly, let $\underline{b}\left(x^S\right)$ and $\overline{b}\left(x^N\right)$ be concave functions of the quantity of timber that is consumed in S and N. With an extraction cost $\underline{c}(x)$, that is convex in x, depletion is likely to be gradual rather than instantaneous.

N's damage, $d(X)$, is now a convex function of X, and S may also face a convex environmental harm function, $h(X)$. These damages measure the present-discounted harm when the accumulated extracted quantity is, and forever will be, X. Note that $h(X)$ and $\underline{c}(x)$ together replace the linear cx in the model above. There, it was immaterial whether c reflected the current physical extraction cost or the environmental damage (or the sum of them), but here it is sensible to distinguish between the two.

Figure 6 illustrates the steady-state levels of X in the first best, in autarky, and with free trade. For simplicity, the figure takes $\overline{a}$ as a constant, and applies the definition $b'(0) \equiv \max\left\{\underline{b}'(0), \overline{b}'(0)\right\}$.

The Appendix proves that the main result continues to hold with non-linear payoffs.[26] Deadweight losses and distortions because of tariffs can, once again, be avoided if the tariffs are accompanied with export subsidies. Without export subsidies, the distortions can be avoided if the tariff applies to the first $\chi_i > 0$ units of i's exported goods, but not for additional traded units, if just χ_i is set below the quantities that will be traded in equilibrium. With such two-stage tariff schedules, the tariffs will not influence the marginal decisions.

A crucial difference between the non-linear case and the linear model of Section II is that the non-linear model might lead to interior solutions for the variables. To focus on this difference, I henceforth presume that all solutions are interior.

Proposition 10. *Suppose $\underline{a}(\cdot)$, $\overline{a}(\cdot)$, $\underline{b}(\cdot)$, and $\overline{b}(\cdot)$ are concave functions, while $d(\cdot)$, $\underline{c}(\cdot)$ and $h(\cdot)$ are convex functions, as explained above. Resource depletion is gradual, but the steady state is as follows.*
(i) The resource stock is smaller with the free trade than in autarky:

$$R^{FTA} < R^{AUT}.$$

(ii) The resource is larger with a CTA than with an FTA:

$$R^{FTA} < R^{CTA}.$$

(iii) With export subsidies, $R^{CTA} = R^{FB}$. Without export subsidies, $R^{CTA} \in \left(R^{AUT}, R^{FB}\right]$ is conserved when $R^{AUT} < R^{FB}$. If $R^{CTA} < R^{FB}$, R^{CTA} increases with the gains from trade:

$$\frac{\partial R^{CTA}}{\partial e} > 0. \tag{12}$$

To complement (12), the Appendix shows that R^{CTA} also increases in the gains from trading beef. If N's marginal value is a constant, $\overline{a}$, then $\partial R^{CTA}/\partial \overline{a} > 0$.

In general, R^{AUT} and R^{FB} cannot be ranked because N's damage decreases but N's demand decreases the first-best X.[27] The intuition for the other statements is similar to the intuition in the basic model, explained above. Conservation is motivated by the CTA because gains from trade are allocated to S when R_t is large. The larger these gains are, the more the CTA can conserve.

In practice, the WTO prohibits export subsidies and we do not observe the two-step tariff schedule suggested above. Tariffs can then lead to inefficiency losses, but for small tariffs, the losses are smaller than the conservation benefit. Furthermore, a large τ_S is used only off the equilibrium path. Under that threat, even free trade ($\tau_N(R_T; R_T) = \tau_S(R_T; R_T) = 0$) can motivate S to conserve $R_T > R^{FTA}$. If $R^{FB} > R^{AUT}$, then $R^{CTA} > R^{AUT}$. When $R^{CTA} < R^{FB}$, it holds, as before, that the larger are the gains from trade, the more S is willing to conserve under the CTA.

[26] Propositions 2 and 3, however, might not necessarily hold. If the marginal environmental value of the stock increases dramatically when the stock is depleted, then Proposition 2, above, might be reversed: An FTA can then be less attractive when the stock is threatened.

[27] From the Appendix, one can show that $X^{FB} < X^{AUT}$ if $\overline{a}'\left(X^{FB,N}\right) - \underline{a}'\left(X^{AUT}\right) < d'\left(X^{FB}\right)$.

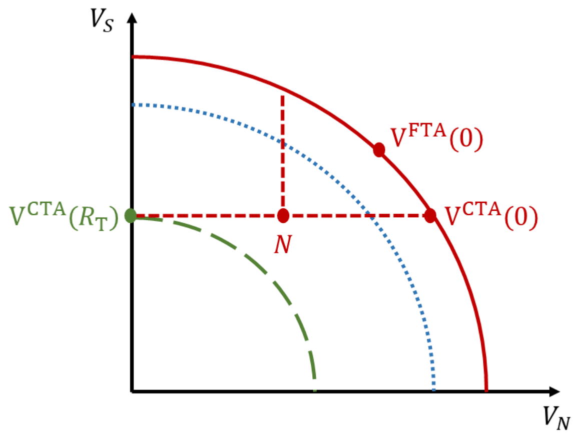

Figure 7: *The CTA can motivate conservation also if the default is the Nash equilibrium for tariffs (N).*

V.C. The Default Outcome: Autarky vs. Nash

So far, I assumed that if N and S do not sign a trade agreement, then they both face autarky. This section presents an analysis of an alternative assumption, namely one in which the default outcome is that N and S are both free to set the import tariffs that they want. The purpose of this analysis is to explain that the possibility to motivate conservation with a CTA holds, also in this case.

Suppose, first, that utility functions are nonlinear, as in the previous subsection. In this case, the Nash equilibrium for (τ_N, τ_S) is likely to lead to deadweight losses (see N in Figure 7). If both tariffs are reduced, the parties will obtain additional gains from trade (e.g., to V^{FTA}), but the additional gains can be allocated between N and S in alternative ways. As before, the challenge when designing a CTA is that the Pareto frontier expands when R_t is being depleted. The pair of default payoffs may also increase. Even though the gains from trade are smaller when $R_t = R_T$ (green/dashed line), the CTA can ensure that S obtains most of the gains as long as S conserves, while N obtains more of the gains from trade if $R_t = 0$.

With the linear utility functions considered in Sections II-IV, the Nash equilibrium for (τ_N, τ_S) is especially simple. To improve one's terms of trade, N raises the tariff that S faces until S is just indifferent between exporting and consuming beef at home: $\overline{a}(1-\tau_S) = \underline{a}$. In this way, N captures the gains from trading the beef (and, similarly, the timber), $(\overline{a} - \underline{a}) X_t + (\overline{b} - \underline{b}) x_t$. In a similar way, S raises τ_N and captures the entire value e, in addition to its autarky payoff.

Remark 6. This default outcome coincides with the default outcome that we would have if we assumed that the buyer, instead of the seller, dictated the price.

Note that the gains from trade are fully exhausted in this equilibrium, so signing a free-trade agreement is not a Pareto improvement. This result is both unrealistic and also implying that the analysis of the FTA, in Section III, will no longer hold. For both reasons, it seems more reasonable to consider autarky as the default outcome when we consider linear utility functions.

Also with this default, however, the main result of this paper continues to hold: The CTA, as it is defined in Section IV.A, will induce S to conserve more than if there is no agreement, and more if the gains from trade are large.

In this situation, the gains from signing the CTA is simply that S will conserve. The gains from trading beef and cars, included in the CTA's value in Section IV, will be realized even without the CTA.

If $\underline{a} + \underline{b} < c$, the first best outcome is implemented because S will conserve, even without the CTA.

If $\underline{a} + \underline{b} > c$, N and S will share the benefits of signing the CTA that is necessary to motivate conservation. A CTA may induce conservation if, as before, S obtains more of the gains from trade when R_t is large than when R_t is small.

The Appendix proves that the result in Proposition 6 continues to hold: N and S will, in equilibrium, negotiate preliminary tariff functions that both split the gains from conservation and that ensures that S will conserve. If export/import subsidies cannot be used, then there is a limit to how much the CTA can conserve. Larger gains from trade ($\overline{a} - \underline{a}$) motivates more conservation, just as in Proposition 7.

PROPOSITION 11. *Suppose that unless N and S have agreed on tariffs, the default outcome is that each country sets its import tariff noncooperatively. Consider: a subgame starting at time T without an agreement; the possibility to sign a CTA; and threshold*

$$d_N \equiv \overline{a} + \overline{b} - c + \frac{1-\delta}{\delta\alpha}\left(\underline{a} + \underline{b} - c\right).$$

(i) Suppose that export or import subsidies are available. In equilibrium, the outcome is first best, with $x_t = 0\ \forall t \geq T$. *Furthermore:*

If $\underline{a} + \underline{b} \leq c$, *no CTA is needed. Otherwise:*

If $d \geq d_N$, $\overline{\tau}\left(R_T, R_T\right) = e - \left(\overline{a} - \underline{a}\right) R_0 + \left(\overline{a} - \underline{a} + \frac{\underline{a} + \underline{b} - c}{\delta}\right) R_T$, *and* $\overline{\tau}$ *respects (8).*

If $d < d_N$, $\overline{\tau}\left(R_T, R_T\right) = e - \left(\overline{a} - \underline{a}\right) R_0 + \left[\overline{a} + \underline{b} - c + \alpha\left(c + d - \overline{a} - \overline{b}\right)\right] R_T$, *and* $\overline{\tau}$ *respects (8).*

(ii) Suppose subsidies are not available. In equilibrium, the outcome is in line with part (i)

if $\underline{a} + \underline{b} \leq c$,

if $d \geq d_N$ *and* $R_T \leq \dfrac{2\left(\overline{a} - \underline{a}\right)}{2\left(\overline{a} - \underline{a}\right) + \left(\underline{a} + \underline{b} - c\right)/\delta} R_0$, *or*

if $d < d_N$ *and* $R_T \leq \dfrac{2\left(\overline{a} - \underline{a}\right)}{2\left(\overline{a} - \underline{a}\right) + \left(\underline{a} + \underline{b} - c\right) + \alpha\left(c + d - \overline{a} - \overline{b}\right)} R_0$.

In this situation, the gains-from-trade parameter e does not influence how much conservation the CTA can motivate, because S obtains the value e also in the default outcome. The gains from trading beef, however, $\overline{a} - \underline{a}$, is obtained by N when tariffs are set noncooperatively. If these gains are larger, it is possible for N to transfer more of the gains from trade to S in return for conservation. For that reason, the CTA can as in Section IV, motivate more conservation if the gains from trade are large.

VI. Empirical Relevance

As explained in the Introduction, empirical evidence document that the ratification of regional trade agreements is correlated with high deforestation levels (see Footnote 6). Deforestation has many causes, and a growing demand for beef, soy, and other agricultural products is likely to raise the pressure on tropical forests. The basic model in this paper is consistent with a negative relationship between international trade and natural resource conservation. Not only can trade motivate deforestation, but deforestation leads to trade and this possibility can, in turn, motivate deforestation even before the trade agreement has been ratified.

The purpose of this paper is not, however, to prove that this relationship must necessarily be negative. On the contrary, the purpose is to illustrate that, even in such a grim situation in which the relationships are negative, it is possible to design an alternative trade agreement that motivates conservation instead of depletion. A contingent trade agreement, where the default allocation of gains from trade is contingent on the forest cover, motivates more conservation if the gains from trade are large. These results are important because they show that although trade is often associated with resource depletion, such as deforestation, it *must* not be so. Clever agreements exploit the gains from trade and use the gains to motivate conservation rather than exploitation. This possibility should be kept in mind by scholars studying trade and environmental problems, but also by policymakers, public officials, and activists who struggle with how to balance trade and conservation.

The CTA is politically and empirically relevant. In fact, the formalization of the CTA in this paper is an interpretation of the proposal by France and the Netherlands in May, 2020. In the non-paper, mentioned in the Introduction (p. 3), these European countries admit that the EU's sustainability requirements have failed to motivate trading partners to implement sustainable policies, and that the EU should consider staged implementation where tariff reductions can be reversed if sustainable policies are not being implemented. The non-paper is brief, and non-technical, however. The present analysis provides a first exploration of how such a contingent trade agreement might be implemented, and of how much conservation it might motivate. One conclusion has been that a larger resource stock can be conserved if the WTO allows for export subsidies, for instance.

The US is also seeking to use trade agreements to motivate forest conservation. Nigel Purvis, the former US climate negotiator, admits that trade is "*unintentionally creating a financial incentive for criminals to set fire to the Amazon and convert it into farmland.*" Nevertheless, "*meaningful environmental provisions in trade agreements*" could be the single most important way to curb deforestation, according to Bruce Babbitt. In January, 2021, Mr. Babbitt, leading a group of US climate leaders, outlined and submitted an "Amazon Protection Plan" to the new Biden Administration. The heart of the proposal involves making the avoidance of deforestation central to trade agreements.[28]

[28] My sources here, including the quotes of Mr. Purvis and Mr. Babbitt, are the following *New York Times* article from January 29, 2021:

CTAs are viable in practice: verifiable measures of forest cover are already available, thanks to satellite monitoring.[29] In India, the regional forest cover has, since 2015, been part of the central government's allocation of tax revenue to its 29 states (Busch and Mukherjee, 2018). Angelsen et al. (2018:51) elaborate on this policy and conclude that: "*This represents the first large-scale ecological fiscal transfers for forest cover, and could serve as a model for other countries.*" There are also reasons to believe that the contingency will motivate conservation in practice. Abman et al. (2021:3) study the empirical effects of environmental provisions in regional trade agreements and document that "*the inclusion of forest-related provisions has mitigated forest loss resulting from trade liberalization.*"

The model above is tractable and future research can generalize it in several directions. After all, the model has abstracted from politics and political constraints that must be respected for an agreement to be politically feasible. With lobbying, rent-seeking, elections, and legislative bargaining, the tariffs and subsidies will be influenced by many factors, beyond those studied here. These factors will be necessary to incorporate into the analysis in order to uncover how the CTA can be implemented effectively.

With new research along these lines, we will continue to learn how trade can be exploited so as to motivate – rather than to discourage – the highest degree of environmental conservation.

https://www.nytimes.com/2021/01/29/climate/biden-amazon-deforestation.html and also the webpage for the protection plan: https://climateprincipals.org/amazon-plan/

[29] As IPBES (2019, Ch. 6:56) states: "*The monitoring systems have been improved to the point of offering daily real-time data, constituting one of the most important tools for the fight against deforestation in Brazil.*"

Appendix

Proof of Proposition 1.

When $R_t = 0$, it is a best response for both parties to trade. When S obtains the fraction α of the total gains from trade in addition to S's autarky payoff, then:

$$\begin{aligned} V_S^{FTA}(0) &= V_S^{AUT}(0) + \alpha\left[e + (\overline{a} - \underline{a}) R_0\right] = \underline{a}R_0 + \alpha e + \alpha(\overline{a} - \underline{a}) R_0, \text{ because} \\ V_S^{AUT}(0) &= \underline{a}R_0. \end{aligned}$$

When $R_t > 0$ and the parties trade, then S solves:

$$V_S^{FTA}(R_t) \equiv \max_{x_t^{FTA} \in [0,R_t]} (1-\delta)(X_t + x_t)\overline{a} + \overline{b}x_t - cx_t + \delta V_S(R_{t+1}),$$

which implies, regardless of whether $V_S(R_{t+1}) = V_S^{FTA}(R_{t+1})$ or $V_S(R_{t+1}) = V_S^{AUT}(R_{t+1})$, that

$$x_t^{FTA}(R_t) = \left\{ \begin{array}{c} 0 \text{ if } \overline{a} + \overline{b} \leq c \\ x_t \in [0, R_t] \text{ if } \overline{a} + \overline{b} = c \\ R_t \text{ if } \overline{a} + \overline{b} > c \end{array} \right\}.$$

QED

Proof of Proposition 2.

When (3) holds, autarky leads to the total payoff $V^{AUT}(R_t) \equiv V_S^{AUT}(R_t) + V_N^{AUT}(R_t) = (R_0 - R_t)\underline{a}$, while the FTA leads to depletion and the total payoff

$$V^{FTA}(R_t) \equiv V_S^{FTA}(R_t) + V_N^{FTA}(R_t) = e + \overline{a}R_0 + \left(\overline{b} - c - d\right) R_t, \qquad (13)$$

which is larger if:

$$e + \overline{a}R_0 + \left(\overline{b} - c - d\right) R_t > (R_0 - R_t)\underline{a} \Leftrightarrow (4).$$

QED

Proof of Proposition 3.

Even if there is no trade at time t, S is strictly better off with $x_t = R_t$ than with $x_t = 0$ and autarky forever if:

$$(1-\delta) R_0\underline{a} + (\underline{b} - c) R_t + \delta V_S^{FTA}(0) > \underline{a}(R_0 - R_t) \Leftrightarrow (6).$$

QED

Proof of Proposition 4.

Trade equilibria. Consider, first, the situation in which N and S trade at every $R \leq R_t$.

The bargaining surplus. Let $x_t^D = \eta R_t$, with $\eta \in [0, 1]$, measure S's extraction after disagreement. (In principle, η can be a function of R_t.) The proof proceeds by deriving the fixed point where S's best response, given η, coincides with η.

Given η, if the parties have disagreed at t, but expect to agree at $t + 1$, the sum of disagreement payoffs is:

$$\begin{aligned} V^{DIS}(R_t) &= (1-\delta)(X_t + \eta R_t)\underline{a} - (c + d - \underline{b})\eta R_t + \delta V^{FTA}((1-\eta) R_t) \\ &= (1-\delta)(R_0 - R_t)\underline{a} - \left[(1-\delta)\left(c + d - \underline{a} - \overline{b}\right) + \left(\overline{b} - \underline{b}\right)\right]\eta R_t + \delta\left[e + \overline{a}R_0 + \left(\overline{b} - c - d\right) R_t\right]. \end{aligned}$$

The total gains from agreeing at t, (13), minus the above disagreement payoff, $V^{DIS}(R_t)$, is:

$$\begin{aligned} \Delta_R &= (1-\delta)\left[e + \overline{a}R_0 + \left(\overline{b} - c - d\right) R_t\right] - (1-\delta) X_t\underline{a} + \left[(1-\delta)\left(c + d - \underline{a} - \overline{b}\right) + \left(\overline{b} - \underline{b}\right)\right]\eta R_t \\ &= (1-\delta)\left[e + (\overline{a} - \underline{a}) R_0 + \left(\underline{a} + \overline{b} - c - d\right) R_t\right] + \left[(1-\delta)\left(c + d - \underline{a} - \overline{b}\right) + \left(\overline{b} - \underline{b}\right)\right]\eta R_t. \qquad (14) \end{aligned}$$

S's best response. Consider, first, the case in which $x_t^D = 0$ is among S's best responses. Even after disagreement at t, N and S will agree at $t+1$ and, then, S can expect S's default payoff plus the fraction α of (14):

$$V_S^{FTA}(R_t) = (1-\delta)\,\underline{a}X_t + \delta V_S^{FTA}(R_t) + \alpha\Delta_R = \underline{a}X_t + \alpha\frac{\Delta_R}{1-\delta}. \tag{15}$$

Thus, at the disagreement stage at time t, S's payoff is (when S conserves):

$$(1-\delta)\,\underline{a}X_t + \delta V_S^{FTA}(R_t) = \underline{a}X_t + \delta\alpha\frac{\Delta_R}{1-\delta}.$$

If, instead, S depletes, then S obtains:

$$\underline{a}X_t + (\underline{a}+\underline{b}-c)\,R_t + \delta\alpha\left[e + (\overline{a}-\underline{a})\,R_0\right].$$

By comparison, S is better off conserving if:

$$\begin{aligned}
\delta\alpha\frac{\Delta_R}{1-\delta} &\geq (\underline{a}+\underline{b}-c)\,R_t + \delta\alpha\left[e+(\overline{a}-\underline{a})\,R_0\right] \Leftrightarrow \\
\delta\alpha\left(\underline{a}+\overline{b}-c-d\right)R_t + \delta\alpha\left[\left(c+d-\underline{a}-\overline{b}\right)+\left(\frac{\overline{b}-\underline{b}}{1-\delta}\right)\right]\eta R_t &\geq (\underline{a}+\underline{b}-c)\,R_t \Leftrightarrow \\
\eta \geq \phi, \text{ where } \phi \equiv \frac{\underline{a}+\underline{b}-c-\delta\alpha\left(\underline{a}+\overline{b}-c-d\right)}{\delta\alpha\left[\left(c+d-\underline{a}-\overline{b}\right)+\left(\frac{\overline{b}-\underline{b}}{1-\delta}\right)\right]} &= \frac{c+d-\underline{a}-\overline{b}-\frac{c-\underline{a}-\underline{b}}{\delta\alpha}}{c+d-\underline{a}-\overline{b}+\frac{\overline{b}-\underline{b}}{1-\delta}}.
\end{aligned}$$

Consequently, at the disagreement stage, S's best response is to conserve if η is large, and to exploit if η is small. S's best response is a decreasing (step-)function of η and there is a unique fixed point.

The fixed point. If $\phi > 1$, it is never a best response for S to conserve because $\eta > \phi$ contradicts $\eta \in [0,1]$. In equilibrium, then, $\eta = 1$. If $\phi \leq 0$, it is always a best response to conserve because $\eta \geq \phi$ always holds: thus, $\eta = 0$. If $\phi \in (0,1]$, the fixed point is $\eta = \phi$.

Non-trade equilibria. Note that if $x^D > 0$, then S strictly benefits from agreeing at t, instead of disagreeing. When $\alpha \in (0,1)$, this requires that N, too, strictly benefits from agreeing at t, instead of agreeing at $t+1$. Consequently, there cannot be an equilibrium where N and S do not agree at t, if $x^D > 0$. Therefore, to end by considering equilibria in which N and S do not trade, it must be that $x^D = 0$. For this to be an equilibrium, it must be that (4) fails, so that N and S do not benefit from trading, and that (6) fails, so that S does not want to exploit in order to obtain an FTA. *QED*

Proof of Proposition 5.

When S is willing to conserve after a disagreement, S's payoff is given by (15). At the same time, S's payoff is also given by (7). The two are equal if:

$$\overline{\tau} + \overline{a}R_0 + \left(\overline{b}-c\right)R_t = \underline{a}X_t + \alpha\frac{\Delta_R}{1-\delta} \Leftrightarrow$$

$$\begin{aligned}
\overline{\tau} &= \left(c-\underline{a}-\overline{b}\right)R_t - (\overline{a}-\underline{a})\,R_0 \\
&\quad + \alpha\left[e + (\overline{a}-\underline{a})\,R_0 + \left(\underline{a}+\overline{b}-c-d\right)R_t + \left[c+d-\underline{a}-\overline{b}+\frac{\overline{b}-\underline{b}}{1-\delta}\right]\eta R_t\right] \\
&= \alpha e - (1-\alpha)(\overline{a}-\underline{a})\,R_0 - R_t\left[\alpha d - (1-\alpha)\left(c-\underline{a}-\overline{b}\right) - \alpha\eta\left[c+d-\underline{a}-\overline{b}+\frac{\overline{b}-\underline{b}}{1-\delta}\right]\right].
\end{aligned}$$

We have three cases to consider. If $\phi \leq 0$, $\eta = 0$, so:

$$\overline{\tau} = \alpha e - (1-\alpha)(\overline{a}-\underline{a})\,R_0 - R_t\left[\alpha d - (1-\alpha)\left(c-\underline{a}-\overline{b}\right)\right].$$

If $\phi = \frac{d-\widehat{d}}{c+d-\overline{b}-\underline{a}+\frac{\overline{b}-\underline{b}}{1-\delta}} \in (0,1]$, $\eta = \phi$, and then:

$$\begin{aligned}
\overline{\tau} &= \alpha e - (1-\alpha)(\overline{a}-\underline{a})\,R_0 - R_t\left[\alpha d - (1-\alpha)\left(c-\underline{a}-\overline{b}\right) - \alpha\left(d-\widehat{d}\right)\right] \\
&= \alpha e - (1-\alpha)(\overline{a}-\underline{a})\,R_0 - R_t\left[\frac{1-\delta}{\delta}(c-\underline{b}-\underline{a}) + \left(\overline{b}-\underline{b}\right)\right].
\end{aligned}$$

If $\phi > 1$, S's best response is $x^D = R_t$, so:

$$V_S^{FTA}(R_t) = \underline{a}R_0 + (\underline{b} - c)R_t + \alpha\left[e + (\overline{a} - \underline{a})R_0 + \overline{b} - \underline{b}\right].$$

This payoff equals (7) if:

$$\begin{aligned} \overline{\tau} + \overline{a}R_0 + \left(\overline{b} - c\right)R_t &= \underline{a}R_0 + (\underline{b} - c)R_t + \alpha\left[e + (\overline{a} - \underline{a})R_0 + \overline{b} - \underline{b}\right] \Leftrightarrow \\ \overline{\tau} &= \alpha e - (1-\alpha)(\overline{a} - \underline{a})R_0 - (1-\alpha)\left(\overline{b} - \underline{b}\right)R_t. \end{aligned}$$

QED

Proof of Lemma 1.

If N and S have signed the agreement, and S conserves at R_t, then S obtains:

$$V_S^{CTA}(R_t) = \overline{a}X_t + \overline{\tau}(R_t; R_T).$$

Alternatively, if S extracts x_t to enjoy $V_S^{CTA}(R_t - x_t)$, in addition to $(\underline{b} - c)x_t$, where $\overline{\tau}(R_t - x_t; R_T)$ depends on the new level of converted land, then S obtains:

$$V_S^{CTA}(R_t - x_t) + (\underline{b} - c)x_t,$$

which is worse if

$$V_S^{CTA}(R_t) - V_S^{CTA}(R_t - x_t) \geq (\underline{b} - c)x_t,$$

which always holds if and only if:

$$\partial\frac{V_S^{CTA}(R_t)}{\partial R_t} \geq \underline{b} - c, \tag{16}$$

and, note that with $\partial\frac{V_S^{CTA}(R_t)}{\partial R_t} = \partial\frac{\overline{\tau}(R_t;R_T)}{\partial R_t} - \overline{a}$, we obtain (8). Since $\overline{\tau}(0; R_T) \geq -(\overline{a} - \underline{a})R_0$, to respect that S benefits from trade, we can integrate over (8) to get:

$$\overline{\tau}(R_t; R_T) \geq (\overline{a} + \underline{b} - c)R_t - (\overline{a} - \underline{a})R_0. \tag{17}$$

QED

Proof of Proposition 6.

The bargaining surplus. Again, let $x_t^D = \eta R_t$, with $\eta \in [0,1]$, measure S's extraction after disagreement. (In principle, η can be a function of R_t.) The proof proceeds by deriving the fixed point where S's best response, given η, coincides with η.

If the parties have disagreed at T, but expect to agree at $T+1$, the sum of disagreement payoffs is:

$$\begin{aligned} V^{DIS}(R_T) &= (1-\delta)(X_T + \eta R_T)\underline{a} - (c + d - \underline{b})\eta R_T + \delta V^{CTA}((1-\eta)R_T) \\ &= (1-\delta)(X_T + \eta R_T)\underline{a} - (c + d - \underline{b})\eta R_T + \delta\left[e + \overline{a}(X_T + \eta R_T)\right]. \end{aligned}$$

The total gains from agreeing at T, $e + \overline{a}X_T$, minus the above disagreement payoff, $V^{DIS}(R_T)$, is:

$$\begin{aligned} \Delta_R &= (1-\delta)\left[e + (\overline{a} - \underline{a})X_T\right] - (1-\delta)\eta R_T\underline{a} + (c + d - \underline{b})\eta R_T - \delta\overline{a}\eta R_T \\ &= (1-\delta)\left[e + (\overline{a} - \underline{a})X_T\right] + (c + d - \underline{a} - \underline{b} - \delta(\overline{a} - \underline{a}))\eta R_T. \end{aligned} \tag{18}$$

S's best response. Consider, first, the case in which $x_t^D = 0$ is among S's best responses. Even after disagreement at T, N and S will agree at $T+1$ and, then, S can expect S's default payoff plus the fraction α of (18):

$$V_S^{CTA}(R_T) = (1-\delta)\underline{a}X_T + \delta V_S^{CTA}(R_T) + \alpha\Delta_R = \underline{a}X_T + \alpha\frac{\Delta_R}{1-\delta}. \tag{19}$$

Thus, after disagreeing at time T, S's payoff is (when S conserves):

$$(1-\delta)\underline{a}X_T + \delta V_S^{CTA}(R_T) = \underline{a}X_T + \delta\alpha\frac{\Delta_R}{1-\delta}.$$

If, instead, S depletes, then S obtains:

$$\underline{a}X_T + (\underline{a} + \underline{b} - c) R_T + \delta\alpha [e + (\overline{a} - \underline{a}) R_0].$$

By comparison, S is better off conserving if:

$$\begin{aligned} \delta\alpha \tfrac{\Delta_R}{1-\delta} &\geq (\underline{a} + \underline{b} - c) R_T + \delta\alpha [e + (\overline{a} - \underline{a}) R_0] \Leftrightarrow \\ -\delta\alpha (\overline{a} - \underline{a}) R_T + \delta\alpha \tfrac{(c+d-\underline{a}-\underline{b}-\delta(\overline{a}-\underline{a}))}{1-\delta} \eta R_T \geq & \quad (\underline{a} + \underline{b} - c) R_T \Leftrightarrow \\ \eta \geq \varphi, \text{ where } \varphi \equiv \tfrac{1-\delta}{\delta\alpha} \tfrac{\underline{a}+\underline{b}-c+\delta\alpha(\overline{a}-\underline{a})}{c+d-\underline{a}-\underline{b}-\delta(\overline{a}-\underline{a})}. \end{aligned}$$

Consequently, at the disagreement stage, S's best response is to conserve if η is large, and to exploit if η is small. S's best response is a decreasing (step-)function of η and there is a unique fixed point.

The fixed point. If $\varphi > 1$, it is never a best response for S to conserve because $\eta > \varphi$ would contradict $\eta \in [0, 1]$. In equilibrium, then, $\eta = 1$. If $\varphi \leq 0$, it is always a best response to conserve because $\eta \geq \varphi$ always holds: thus, $\eta = 0$. If $\varphi \in (0, 1]$, the fixed point is $\eta = \varphi$.

Tariffs. When S is willing to conserve after a disagreement, S's payoff is given by (19). At the same time, because the CTA motivates conservation, this payoff is also given by $\overline{a}X_T + \overline{\tau}$. The two are equal if:

$$\overline{a}X_T + \overline{\tau} = \underline{a}X_T + \alpha \frac{\Delta_R}{1-\delta} \Leftrightarrow \overline{\tau} = \alpha e - (1-\alpha)(\overline{a} - \underline{a}) X_T + \alpha \left(\frac{c + d - \underline{a} - \underline{b} - \delta (\overline{a} - \underline{a})}{1-\delta} \right) \eta R_T.$$

We have three cases to consider. If $\varphi \leq 0$, $\eta = 0$, so:

$$\overline{\tau} = \alpha e - (1-\alpha)(\overline{a} - \underline{a}) X_T.$$

If $\varphi \equiv \frac{1-\delta}{\delta\alpha} \frac{\underline{a}+\underline{b}-c+\delta\alpha(\overline{a}-\underline{a})}{c+d-\underline{a}-\underline{b}-\delta(\overline{a}-\underline{a})} \in (0, 1]$, $\eta = \varphi$, and then:

$$\overline{\tau} = \alpha e - (1-\alpha)(\overline{a} - \underline{a}) R_0 + \left[\frac{\underline{a} + \underline{b} - c}{\delta} + \overline{a} - \underline{a} \right] R_T.$$

If $\varphi > 1$, S's best response after disagreement is $x^D = R_t$, so:

$$V_S^{CTA}(R_T) = \underline{a}R_0 + (\underline{b} - c) R_T + \alpha [e + (\overline{a} - \underline{a}) X_T + (c + d - \underline{a} - \underline{b}) R_T].$$

This payoff equals $\overline{a}X_T + \overline{\tau}$ if:

$$\overline{\tau} = \alpha e - (1-\alpha)(\overline{a} - \underline{a}) R_0 + [\alpha d + (1-\alpha)(\overline{a} + \underline{b} - c)] R_T.$$

It is easy to check that, in all three cases, $\overline{\tau}$ satisfies (17) when $R_t = R_T$. This implies that with the above equilibrium $\overline{\tau}$, it is possible to find a function $\overline{\tau}(R_t; R_T)$ that satisfies (8) for every possible future $R_t \in [0, R_T]$. *QED*

Proof of Proposition 7.

(i) If $\alpha = 0$, N will minimize $V_S^{CTA}(R_T)$ s.t. the conditions that S conserves: i.e., (16), and that S accepts to trade, which requires $V_S^{CTA}(0) \geq \underline{a}R_0$. When these two bind:

$$V_S^{CTA}(R_T) = \underline{a}R_0 + (\underline{b} - c) R_T.$$

With the largest tariffs on e, and on x_t, and the lowest on S's beef, $V_S^{CTA}(R_T) \leq e + \overline{a}(R_0 - R_T)$, so:

$$\begin{aligned} \underline{a}R_0 + (\underline{b} - c) R_T &\leq e + \overline{a}(R_0 - R_T) \\ R_T &\leq \widetilde{R} \equiv \frac{e + (\overline{a} - \underline{a}) R_0}{\overline{a} + \underline{b} - c}. \end{aligned}$$

(ii) This part takes advantage of the fact that if the tariffs can depend on the current stock, they can depend on the previous stock, and thus also on the difference in the stocks (i.e., x_t). When $x(R_t)$ is tolerated by the agreement, then S's continuation value on the equilibrium path is:

$$V_S^{CTA}(R_t) = x(R_t)\left(\bar{b}(1-\tau_b)-c\right)+(1-\delta)(1-\tau_S)(X_t+x(R_t))\bar{a}+(1-\delta)\tau_N e+\delta V_S^{CTA}(R_t - x(R_t)),$$

where τ_b is the tariff on timber. When $\alpha = 0$, N ensures that any deviation leaves S with its autarky payoff, $\underline{a}R_0 + (\underline{b}-c)R_t$. N's problem is to minimize $x(R_t)$, subject to $V_S^{CTA}(R_t) \geq \underline{a}R_0 + (\underline{b}-c)R_t$. Thus, N sets $\tau_b = \tau_S = 0$ and $\tau_N = 1$, and $V_S^{CTA}(R) = V_S^{AUT}(R)$. With this, $x(R_t)$ is given by:

$$\underline{a}R_0 + (\underline{b}-c)R_t = x(R_t)\left(\bar{b}-c\right) + (1-\delta)(X_t + x(R_t))\bar{a} + (1-\delta)e + \delta\left(\underline{a}R_0 + (\underline{b}-c)(R_t - x(R_t))\right) \Leftrightarrow$$

$$\begin{aligned} x(R_t) &= \frac{\underline{a}R_0 + (\underline{b}-c)R_t - (1-\delta)X_t\bar{a} - (1-\delta)e - \delta\underline{a}R_0 - \delta(\underline{b}-c)R_t}{\bar{b}-c+(1-\delta)\bar{a}-\delta(\underline{b}-c)} \\ &= \frac{(\bar{a}+\underline{b}-c)R_t - (\bar{a}-\underline{a})R_0 - e}{\bar{a}+\underline{b}-c+\frac{\bar{b}-\underline{b}}{1-\delta}} = \left(R_t - \widetilde{R}\right)\frac{\bar{a}+\underline{b}-c}{\bar{a}+\underline{b}-c+\frac{\bar{b}-\underline{b}}{1-\delta}}. \end{aligned}$$

Note that, when the inequality binds, $x(R_t)$ approaches zero when $R_t \downarrow \widetilde{R}$. *QED*

Proof of Proposition 8.
The proof follows the reasoning in the text. *QED*

Proof of Proposition 9.
(i) If either party can walk away from the CTA and negotiate a new CTA, under the threat of autarky, then the equilibrium will be characterized by $\overline{\tau}(R_t; R_T) = \overline{\tau}(R_t; R_t)$, where $\overline{\tau}(R_t; R_t)$ is given by Proposition 6 (where R_T is replaced by the current $R_t \leq R_T$), if the CTA leads to conservation. This $\overline{\tau}(R_t; R_t)$ increases in R_t, and it might satisfy Lemma 1. If we compare the derivatives $\partial\overline{\tau}(R_T; R_T)/\partial R_T$ for the three cases in Proposition 6 with the requirement (8), it is easy to verify that (8) is satisfied whenever $c - \underline{a} - \underline{b} \notin (0, \alpha(\bar{a}-\underline{a}))$. In this case, therefore, the CTA $\overline{\tau}(R_t; R_T) = \overline{\tau}(R_t; R_t)$, where $\overline{\tau}(R_t; R_t)$ is given by Proposition 6, is both renegotiation proof and renege proof, and it is the equilibrium treaty when the parties negotiate. No party will ever want to renege on this CTA, not even off the equilibrium path. If $c - \underline{a} - \underline{b} \in (0, \alpha(\bar{a}-\underline{a}))$, then $\overline{\tau}(R_T; R_T)$, in Proposition 6, does not increase sufficiently fast in R_T to motivate conservation. When S can renege on the CTA, the CTA will be renege proof and it will motivate S to conserve only if $\overline{\tau}$ satisfies (8) for every $R_t \in [0, R_T]$. By integrating (8) from $R_t = 0$ to $R_t = R_T$, we can see that N must agree on the following $\overline{\tau}$:

$$\overline{\tau}(R_t; R_t) = \overline{\tau}(0; 0) + (\bar{a}+\underline{b}-c)R_t.$$

Further, for $\overline{\tau}(0; 0)$ to be renege proof, it must be given by Proposition 6 when $R_T = 0$. When we combine the two terms, we get (11).This CTA is renege proof, it implements the first best, and it is larger than the one in Proposition 6 if and only if $c - \underline{a} - \underline{b} \in (0, \alpha(\bar{a}-\underline{a}))$.

(ii) The CTA described by Proposition 7 is renege proof by construction because N has all bargaining power and must respect S's participation constraint at every $R_t \in [0, R_T]$. *QED*

Proof of Proposition 10.
In line with the text in Section V.B, $\underline{a}\left(X_t^S\right)$ and $\bar{a}\left(X_t^N\right)$ are S's and N's present-discounted value from forever consuming the produce X_t^S and X_t^N, respectively, where $X_t \equiv X_t^S + X_t^N$. Similarly, $\underline{b}\left(x_t^S\right)$ and $\bar{b}\left(x_t^N\right)$ are values of consuming the extracted quantities, where $x_t \equiv x_t^N + x_t^S$. In contrast to the linear model, it is now necessary to distinguish between S's extraction cost, $\underline{c}(x_t)$, and S's environmental harm, $h(X_{t+1})$. The damage for N is $d(X_{t+1})$.

(i) *Autarky.* In autarky, the first-order condition for the steady state is:

$$\underline{a}'\left(X^{AUT}\right) + \underline{b}'(0) = \underline{c}'(0) + h'\left(X^{AUT}\right), \tag{20}$$

and, because the second-order condition holds given the assumptions,

$$\underline{a}'(X) + \underline{b}'(0) < \underline{c}'(0) + h'(X) \text{ if } X > X^{AUT}. \tag{21}$$

S's steady-state payoff is $\underline{a}\left(R_0 - R^{AUT}\right) - h\left(R_0 - R^{AUT}\right)$.

FTA. With an FTA, the steady state is:

$$\begin{aligned} \underline{a}'\left(X^{FTA,S}\right) + \overline{a}'\left(X^{FTA,N}\right) + b'(0) &= \underline{c}'(0) + h'\left(X^{FTA}\right), \text{ where} \\ b'(0) &\equiv \max\left\{\underline{b}(0), \overline{b}'(0)\right\}, \end{aligned}$$

and where $\underline{a}'\left(X^{FTA,S}\right) = \overline{a}'\left(X^{FTA,N}\right)$, in equilibrium. It follows that $X^{FTA} > X^{AUT}$ as long as $\overline{a}'(0) > \underline{a}'\left(X^{FTA,S}\right)$. The latter inequality must hold if, in equilibrium, $X^{FTA,N} > 0$.

(ii) *First Best.* Note that when the first best is interior, then it requires:

$$\underline{a}'\left(X^{FB,S}\right) + \overline{a}'\left(X^{FB,N}\right) + b'(0) = \underline{c}'(0) + h'\left(X^{FB}\right) + d'\left(X^{FB}\right),$$

and $\underline{a}'\left(X^{FB,S}\right) = \overline{a}'\left(X^{FB,N}\right)$ when both $X^{FB,S} > 0$ and $X^{FB,N} > 0$. When we compare to free trade, we can see that $X^{FB} < X^{FTA}$ when $d'\left(X^{FB}\right) > 0$.

CTA. To simplify, the remainder of this proof limits attention to the case in which N has all the bargaining power: $\alpha = 0$.

Let $V_S^{CTA}(R_t)$ be S's continuation payoff with full conservation of R_t under the CTA. N's willingness to pay (i.e., the price in terms of the numeraire good) for beef is $\overline{a}'\left(X^{CTA,N}\right)$, and thus we can write

$$\begin{aligned} V_S^{CTA}(R_t) &= \underline{a}\left(X^{CTA,S}\right) + (1-\tau_S)\overline{a}'\left(X^{CTA,N}\right)X^{CTA,N} + \tau_N e - h\left(X^{CTA}\right), \\ &= \underline{a}\left(X^{CTA,S}\right) + \overline{a}'\left(X^{CTA,N}\right)X^{CTA,N} - h\left(X^{CTA}\right) + \overline{\tau}, \text{ where} \\ \overline{\tau} &= \tau_N e - \tau_S \overline{a}'\left(X^{CTA,N}\right)X^{CTA,N} \text{ and } X^{CTA,N} = R_0 - R_t - X^{CTA,S}. \end{aligned}$$

Extracting $x_t > 0$ is not beneficial to S if:

$$\begin{aligned} \arg\max_{x_t \in [0,R_t]} V_S^{CTA}(R_t - x_t) + \underline{b}(x_t) - \underline{c}(x_t) &= 0 \Rightarrow \\ \partial\frac{V_S^{CTA}(R_t)}{\partial R_t} \geq \underline{b}'(0) - \underline{c}'(0). \end{aligned} \tag{22}$$

When N offers a CTA that guarantees conservation of R^{CTA}, and $\alpha = 0$, then, for any R^{CTA}, N minimizes $\overline{\tau}$ or, equivalently, $V_S^{CTA}(R_t)$, subject to the incentive constraint, (22), and subject to S's participation constraint, $V_S^{CTA}(R_t) \geq V_S^{AUT}(R_t)$.[30]

When $R_t \leq R^{AUT}$, then S's participation constraint can bind, i.e., $V_S^{CTA}(R_t) = V_S^{AUT}(R_t)$, without violating the incentive constraint, (22): it follows from (21) that $\partial V_S^{AUT}(R_t)/\partial R_t = -\underline{a}'\left(X^{AUT}\right) + h'\left(X^{AUT}\right) > \underline{b}'(0) - \underline{c}'(0)$ when $R^t < R^{AUT}$. It also follows that R^{AUT} can be conserved by the CTA, if $X^{FB} < X^{AUT}$.

When $R_t > R^{AUT}$, however, (22) requires that $V_S^{CTA}(R_t) > V_S^{AUT}(R_t)$ when $R_t > R^{CTA}$. In particular:

$$\begin{aligned} V_S^{CTA}(R_t) &= V_S^{CTA}\left(R_t^{AUT}\right) + \int_{R^{AUT}}^{R_t} \partial\frac{V_S^{CTA}(R)}{\partial R}dR \geq V_S^{AUT}\left(R_t^{AUT}\right) + \int_{R^{AUT}}^{R_t} \underline{b}'(0) - \underline{c}'(0)\,dR \\ &= \underline{a}\left(X^{AUT}\right) + \left[\underline{b}'(0) - \underline{c}'(0)\right]\left(R_t - R^{AUT}\right). \end{aligned}$$

When $\alpha = 0$, the inequality will bind, and

$$V_S^{CTA}(R_t) = \underline{a}\left(X^{AUT}\right) - h\left(X^{AUT}\right) + \left[\underline{b}'(0) - \underline{c}'(0)\right]\left(R_t - R^{AUT}\right).$$

With this, any R_t can be conserved by the CTA if just $\overline{\tau}$ is sufficiently large. With (such) transfers at the bargaining stage, N and S will thus agree on a CTA in which $R^{CTA} = R^{FB}$, since the sum of payoffs is largest in the first-best outcome.

The required transfer is the following. The steady state payoff for S can be written as:

$$V_S^{CTA}(R_t) = \underline{a}\left(X^{CTA,S}\right) + \overline{a}'\left(X_N^{CTA}\right)X_N^{CTA} - h\left(X^{CTA}\right) + \overline{\tau}.$$

[30] Here, $V_S^{AUT}(R_t)$ reflects S's payoff in autarky and not simply in the autarky's steady state.

The two expressions for $V_S^{CTA}(R_t)$ are equal if and only if:

$$\begin{aligned}\overline{\tau} &= \underline{a}\left(X^{AUT}\right)+h\left(X^{CTA}\right)-h\left(X^{AUT}\right)+\left[\underline{b}'(0)-\underline{c}'(0)\right]\left(R_t-R^{AUT}\right) &(23)\\ &\quad -\underline{a}\left(R_0-R_t-X^{CTA,N}\right)-\overline{a}\left(X^{CTA,N}\right)\\ &= \underline{a}\left(X^{AUT}\right)+h\left(X^{CTA}\right)-h\left(X^{AUT}\right)+\left[\underline{b}'(0)-\underline{c}'(0)\right]\left(R_t-R^{AUT}\right) &(24)\\ &\quad -\underline{a}\left(X^{CTA,S}\right)-\overline{a}\left(R_0-R_t-X^{CTA,S}\right).\end{aligned}$$

(iii) From (23),

$$\begin{aligned}\frac{\partial\overline{\tau}}{\partial R^{CTA}} &= \underline{a}'\left(R_0-R_t-X^{CTA,N}\right)+\underline{b}'(0)-\underline{c}'(0)-h'\left(X^{CTA}\right)\\ &= \underline{a}'\left(X^{CTA,S}\right)+\underline{b}'(0)-\underline{c}'(0)-h'\left(X^{CTA}\right)>0 \text{ when } X^{CTA,S}<X^{AUT}. &(25)\end{aligned}$$

The last claim follows from (20) and (21). When export subsidies cannot be used, $\overline{\tau}\leq e$, and the largest R_t that can be conserved is given by $\overline{\tau}=e$. Combined with (25), we get:

$$\frac{\partial R^{CTA}}{\partial e}=\frac{1}{\underline{a}'\left(X^{CTA,S}\right)+\underline{b}'(0)-\underline{c}'(0)-h'\left(X^{CTA}\right)}>0.$$

In addition, when $\overline{a}$ is a constant, then we can differentiate (24) w.r.t. dR^{CTA} and $d\overline{a}$ to get:

$$\begin{aligned}-h'\left(X^{CTA}\right)dR^{CTA}+\left[\underline{b}'(0)-\underline{c}'(0)+\overline{a}\right]dR^{CTA}-\left(R_0-R^{CTA}-X^{CTA,S}\right)d\overline{a}=0 \Leftrightarrow\\ \frac{dR^{CTA}}{d\overline{a}}=\frac{R_0-R^{CTA}-X^{CTA,S}}{\overline{a}+\underline{b}'(0)-\underline{c}'(0)-h'\left(X^{CTA}\right)}=\frac{X^{CTA,N}}{\overline{a}+\underline{b}'(0)-\underline{c}'(0)-h'\left(X^{CTA}\right)}>0.\end{aligned}$$

QED

Proof of Proposition 11.

(i) When N and S set tariffs noncooperatively, the stage game Nash equilibrium is that N raises τ_S up to the point where:

$$(1-\tau_S)\,\overline{a}=\underline{a}.$$

A larger tariff would make exporting unprofitable for S. This tariff implies that N obtains the value $\tau_S\overline{a}=\overline{a}-\underline{a}$ for each unit imported from S.

For analoguous reasons, S captures the gain e when S sets τ_N noncooperatively.

To derive the equilibrium $\overline{\tau}$ under the CTA, and to check that it satisfies (17), we need to derive S's continuation value. To do this, consider the situation in which N and S have failed to reach an agreement. If, then, S depletes, S obtains: $\underline{a}X_T+(\underline{a}+\underline{b}-c)\,R_T+e$. If, instead, S conserves, S obtains:

$$(1-\delta)\left(\underline{a}X_T+e\right)+\delta V_S^{CTA}(R_T),$$

where $V_S^{CTA}(R_T)$ is, as before, measuring S's equilibrium continuation value. At the extraction stage, S is indifferent between the two payoffs (and willing to deplete any fraction) if:

$$V_S^{CTA}(R_T)=\underline{a}X_T+e+\frac{\underline{a}+\underline{b}-c}{\delta}R_T. \tag{26}$$

If $\underline{a}+\underline{b}<c$, S strictly prefers to conserve forever to obtain $\underline{a}X_T+e$. In this case, there is no need for the CTA because, in any case, S conserves and the gains from trade are exhausted.

The third possibility is that S strictly prefers to deplete. Under that default outcome, the bargaining outcome ensures that S obtains its outside option, $\underline{a}X_T+(\underline{a}+\underline{b}-c)\,R_T+e$, plus α multiplied with the total surplus of agreeing to the conservation-inducing CTA. This total surplus $\left(c+d-\overline{a}-\overline{b}\right)R_T$. Consequently, S's payoff amounts to:

$$V_{S,x=R}^{CTA}(R_T)=\underline{a}X_T+(\underline{a}+\underline{b}-c)\,R_T+e+\alpha\left(c+d-\overline{a}-\overline{b}\right)R_T. \tag{27}$$

At the extraction stage (if N and S have failed to reach an agreement), it is indeed better for S to deplete instead of waiting for (27) if:

$$\begin{aligned}
(1-\delta)\left(\underline{a}X_T+e\right)+\delta V^{CTA}_{S,x=R}\left(R_T\right) &< \underline{a}X_T+\left(\underline{a}+\underline{b}-c\right)R_T+e \Leftrightarrow \\
\delta\left[\left(\underline{a}+\underline{b}-c\right)R_T+\alpha\left(c+d-\overline{a}-\overline{b}\right)R_T\right] &< \left(\underline{a}+\underline{b}-c\right)R_T \Leftrightarrow \\
d &< d_N \equiv \overline{a}+\overline{b}-c+\frac{1-\delta}{\delta\alpha}\left(\underline{a}+\underline{b}-c\right).
\end{aligned}$$

So, when $d > d_N$, S would prefer to conserve if S were expected to deplete. In equilibrium, S depletes a fraction and obtains (26). This payoff equals $\overline{a}X_T+\overline{\tau}\left(R_T,R_T\right)$ when:

$$\overline{\tau}\left(R_T,R_T\right)=e+\left(\underline{a}+\underline{b}-c\right)R_T/\delta-\left(\overline{a}-\underline{a}\right)X_T=e-\left(\overline{a}-\underline{a}\right)R_0+\left(\overline{a}-\underline{a}+\frac{\underline{a}+\underline{b}-c}{\delta}\right)R_T.$$

When $d < d_N$, $x_t^D = R_t$ and S obtains $V^{CTA}_{S,x=R}\left(R_T\right)$. With the CTA, S's payoff must also equal $\overline{a}X_T+\overline{\tau}\left(R_T,R_T\right)$, implying:

$$\begin{aligned}
\overline{\tau}\left(R_T,R_T\right) &= \left(\underline{a}+\underline{b}-c\right)R_T+e+\alpha\left(c+d-\overline{a}-\overline{b}\right)R_T-\left(\overline{a}-\underline{a}\right)X_T \\
&= e-\left(\overline{a}-\underline{a}\right)R_0+\left[\overline{a}+\underline{b}-c+\alpha\left(c+d-\overline{a}-\overline{b}\right)\right]R_T.
\end{aligned}$$

For either case, it is easy to check that (17) is satisfied.

(ii) Without subsidies, $\overline{\tau}\leq e+\left(\overline{a}-\underline{a}\right)X_T$. When $d > d_N$, the implication is:

$$\begin{aligned}
e+\left(\underline{a}+\underline{b}-c\right)R_T/\delta-\left(\overline{a}-\underline{a}\right)X_T &\leq e+\left(\overline{a}-\underline{a}\right)X_T \Leftrightarrow \\
\left(\underline{a}+\underline{b}-c\right)R_T/\delta &\leq 2\left(\overline{a}-\underline{a}\right)X_T=2\left(\overline{a}-\underline{a}\right)\left(R_0-R_T\right) \Leftrightarrow \\
\left[\left(\underline{a}+\underline{b}-c\right)/\delta+2\left(\overline{a}-\underline{a}\right)\right]R_T &\leq 2\left(\overline{a}-\underline{a}\right)R_0 \Leftrightarrow \\
\frac{R_T}{R_0} &\leq \frac{2\left(\overline{a}-\underline{a}\right)}{\left(\underline{a}+\underline{b}-c\right)/\delta+2\left(\overline{a}-\underline{a}\right)}.
\end{aligned}$$

When $d < d_N$, $\overline{\tau}\leq e+\left(\overline{a}-\underline{a}\right)X_T$ implies:

$$\begin{aligned}
e-\left(\overline{a}-\underline{a}\right)R_0+\left[\overline{a}+\underline{b}-c+\alpha\left(c+d-\overline{a}-\overline{b}\right)\right]R_T &\leq e+\left(\overline{a}-\underline{a}\right)X_T \Leftrightarrow \\
\left[\left(\overline{a}-\underline{a}\right)+\overline{a}+\underline{b}-c+\alpha\left(c+d-\overline{a}-\overline{b}\right)\right]R_T &\leq 2\left(\overline{a}-\underline{a}\right)R_0 \Leftrightarrow
\end{aligned}$$

$$R_T\leq\frac{2\left(\overline{a}-\underline{a}\right)}{2\left(\overline{a}-\underline{a}\right)+\underline{a}+\underline{b}-c+\alpha\left(c+d-\overline{a}-\overline{b}\right)}R_0.$$

QED

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