

THE BEHAVIOUR OF THE OFFICIAL EXCHANGE RATE
IN GUYANA 1962-88

by

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INTRODUCTION

Since independence in 1966, there has been several developments with regard to the management and determination of the exchange rate in Guyana. A single fixed exchange rate was maintained and managed until 1987. Thereafter, experiments were conducted with dual or multiple exchange rates, and an independent free floating rate.

Significant policy changes in the exchange rate can be identified. The first change occurred in October 1975, when the alignment of the Guyana dollar moved from the British pound to the United States of America dollar, with an effective rate of US\$ 1.00 = G\$ 2.55. Since then the Guyana dollar has remained tied to the United States of America dollar with several adjustments.¹ The second important change occurred in 1984, when the Guyana dollar was linked to a basket of currencies and adjusted weekly against those currencies in the basket, with the rate of the Guyana dollar to the United States dollar being the intervention band (refer to note three). Third, an experiment was made to move away from the fixed exchange rate to a dual and free floating rate in 1987.²

Finally in 1990, along with the official exchange rate, the government permitted the establishment of an independent free floating rate by allowing the creation of the "Cambios". Simultaneously, the government permitted a system of multiple exchange rate regime, whereby only a few selected items were permitted to be traded at the official exchange rate. All others were to be traded at the "Cambios" or the independent free

floating rate.

These changes in policy, together with the recent movements in the exchange rate and its impact on domestic prices attracted much discussion, but little has been written on these issues. Themes (1989) has the only known publication, and he dealt with foreign currency in the black market. Two others, Danns (1990) and Glen (1984) have dealt with various aspects of the foreign exchange crisis and the parallel market and economic adjustment. But none of these have addressed the issue of the behaviour of the official exchange rate.

This paper investigates the factors which determines the foreign exchange rate in Guyana, between 1962-1988. It analyse and assess the influence of factors such as; domestic inflation, international inflation, balance of payments and a trend on the determination of the exchange rate. Although Guyana may be moving away from a policy of fixed exchange rate, this essay is important for policy because it analysed and reviewed for over two and a half decades the behaviour of the exchange rate. Evidence from this period may be useful as a guide to future policies as regards management of the foreign exchange rate regime.

THE FOREIGN EXCHANGE RATE

The foreign exchange rate is the relative price of two currencies, expressed as the amount of one currency paid to purchase a unit of the other one. An appreciation or rise in the

value of the currency occurs when the exchange rate (domestic currency units per unit of foreign currency) falls. Depreciation or fall occurs when the exchange rate (domestic currency units per unit of foreign currency) increases. A fixed exchange rate policy sets it at a value declared and maintained by active intervention of the central bank. It declares a central or par value at which it will act to maintain the value of its currency. ³ Countries with flexible or floating exchange rate allow their currency to float with changing market conditions. In this case there may not be an official rate. The central bank does not intervene in the foreign exchange market to influence the price of its money. The real exchange rate is the relative price of domestic and foreign goods. This rate is examined in detail below.

The exchange rate forms a link between domestic and international prices. If the domestic rate of inflation is higher than the international one and the exchange rate is unchanged, exports will become uncompetitive. Domestic output will fall, and exporting industries will become unprofitable. Imports will become cheaper relative to domestically produced goods, which may lead to increased imports. If a depreciation of the exchange rate is not implemented, then a deficit in the balance of payments may occur.

Exchange Rate Adjustments

The Guyana dollar floated with the Pound Sterling until October

1975. Thereafter it was linked to the US dollar. There were several adjustments to the exchange rate, the more important ones in 1975, 1981, 1984, 1987, 1989 and 1990 (Table 1-1). At the end of 1975 the rate was G\$ 2.55 to US\$ 1.00. In 1981 the rate was devalued to G\$ 3.00 to US\$ 1.00, in 1984 to G\$ 3.75 to US\$ 1.00, in 1987 to G\$10.00 to US\$ 1.00, in 1989 to G\$ 33.00 to US\$ 1.00 and in 1990 to G\$ 45.00 to US\$ 1.00. Since 1984, the currency was adjusted weekly against a basket of currencies, with the rate of the Guyana dollar to the US dollar being the intervention⁴ band. The basket of currencies consisted of the Pound Sterling, the German Mark, the Japanese Yen, the French Franc and the Dutch Guilder, each with equal weights. Since 1989 an independent free floating rate was introduced alongside the official fixed exchange rate. Commercial banks and independent traders are permitted to operate independent foreign exchange "Cambios" where the purchase and sale of foreign currencies are conducted.

The Real Exchange Rate

The real exchange rate indicates the degree of competitiveness of the economy. Changes in the real exchange rate were small (Table 1-2). But changes can be identified in three periods. The rate was below two up to 1967. Between 1968 and 1977 it rose from 2.1 to 2.9, then fell. In 1983 it fell again below two, but rose again to over 2 in 1987 and 1988. The real exchange rate is measured by the relationship below:

$$\text{Rer} = \frac{EI^*}{I}$$

Where Rer is the real exchange rate;

E is the exchange rate;

I^* is the international price level, and

I is the domestic price level.

The ratio indicates the degree of competitiveness; the higher its value the more competitive are exports and import substitutes. If $E I^*$ falls below I , consumers may switch their preferences to imported goods.

FACTORS AFFECTING EXCHANGE RATE MOVEMENTS

There are two basic approaches to explaining exchange rate movements, they are the absorption and the monetary approaches.

The Absorption Approach

The absorption approach examines the changing pattern of demand and supply of goods between different economies. Changes in this pattern can be as a result of changes in income elasticities of demand, different costs of production, technological progress or the discovery of new resources. The absorption approach focuses on the flow of goods and services. If excess domestic absorption exceeds output then the exchange rate should depreciate, or if output exceeds absorption, then the exchange rate would appreciate. In this case the emphasis is on the variables in the current account which will influence movements in the exchange rate. This approach is limited in a sense that it may not be able to predict extreme exchange rate volatility. They depend on information on the factors which determine changes in the demand and supply of goods and services, and these changes occur slowly.

The Monetary Approach

This approach focuses on the imbalance between the demand and supply of money, and its impact on domestic prices. The impact on domestic prices is linked by the theory of purchasing power parity (PPP).

Purchasing Power Parity

There are two relationships: absolute purchasing power parity and relative purchasing power parity theories of exchange rates. Absolute purchasing power parity is expressed as:

$$E = I/I^*$$

It states that the price level expressed in a single currency will be equal in all countries. Under fixed exchange rates it is assumed that the world has one currency. If there is a BOP disequilibrium, movements in money will take place. These changes will affect I and I^* . The LOOP as discussed in note three will hold. But when independent monetary policy is pursued by different countries, the purchasing power of different monies falls at different rates. The LOOP will no longer hold. The real exchange rate, would fall below unity as I rises faster than I^* , unless E increases. In this case exports and import substitutes will be uncompetitive. Competitiveness would remain constant if the exchange rate was determined by absolute purchasing power parity, where $E = I/I^*$. But this relationship will not always hold, since the real exchange rate will not always be unity and E can change also. Table 6-2 presents

E is the exchange rate;

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estimates of the ratios. Absolute purchasing power parity was fairly constant up to 1972. It fell between 1973 to 1977, then increased to over one between 1980 to 1984, and to over 2 between 1985 to 1987, rising to just under 4 in 1988. Relative purchasing power parity states that nominal exchange rates will change in a manner which maintains equilibrium real exchange rates, taking into account differential inflation. It is expressed as:

$$e = i - i^*$$

The rate of increase in the exchange rate equals the difference between the domestic and international inflation rates. The expression indicates that the difference in competitiveness in goods in different countries will determine supply and demand of currencies and influence exchange rate changes which will move goods price toward equality, if these prices are converted in a common currency. A country experiencing high inflation will have lower export volume, and a lower demand for its currency abroad. This would cause a reduction in the exchange rate to a level where competitiveness is restored. However purchasing power parity has several limiting assumptions:

- (1) It is assumed that there exists high substitutability between goods in different countries. If price rises in one country, purchasers will switch from expensive markets to cheaper sources of supply;
- (2) That there are no barriers to trade, so that buying from the cheapest source is possible;
- (3) It is implicitly assumed that all goods are traded. Although the price of substitutable traded goods may be equalized, this may not be true for non - tradeable goods.

Despite these limitations the PPP is a good measure of a country's competitiveness. It establishes the relationship between inflation and the exchange rate which arise from

arbitrage operations in the goods markets. Table 1-2 presents estimates of relative purchasing power parity. Having examined these concepts, an analysis of the determinants of the exchange rate is presented below.

Presentation of Exchange Rate Results

The analysis of the exchange rate were conducted in two groups of equations, and the results of estimation presented in Tables 1-R1 and 1-R2. In all the equations the following notation is observed.

T-Statistic is the student T statistic, between parenthesis.

\hat{R}^2 is the coefficient of determination, adjusted for degrees of freedom.

D.W. is the Durbin Watson Statistic.

N is the sample size.

Rho is λ coefficient of the first order autocorrelation of errors.

OLS is Ordinary Least Squares Method and

HILU is Hildreth - Lu - Search Method.

TABLE 1-R1 RESULTS FOR EXCHANGE RATE EQUATIONS

	(1.01)	(1.02)	(1.03)	(1.04)
Constant	2.087 (4.884)	2.003 (4.574)	2.033 (5.384)	1.994 (4.673)
Domestic Inflation	0.0229 (10.404)	0.023 (9.857)	0.021 (9.767)	0.023 (10.076)
International Inflation	-0.021 (-2.729)	-0.198 (-2.460)	-0.048 (-2.797)	-0.0196 (-2.504)
Balance of Payments	-0.0019 (-0.282)	-0.0015 (-0.226)	-0.0026 (-0.378)	----- (-----)
Time Trend	----- (-----)	----- (-----)	0.144 (1.687)	----- (-----)
R^2	0.896	0.882	0.915	0.887
D.W.	1.973	2.129	2.035	2.119
N	24	25	24	25
Rho	-0.100	-----	-0.200	-----
t-Statistic	-(0.492)	(-----)	(-1.000)	(-----)
Est. Method	HILU	OLS	HILU	OLS

Notes Table 1-R1 and 1R2.

(1) The dependent variable is the exchange rate, Guyana dollars per US dollar, period average.

(2) Domestic inflation is the Guyana consumer price index 1980 = 100.

(3) International inflation is the wholesale price index of the US 1980 = 100.

(4) Time is a time trend variable specified as 1 to 27, which stands the progressive deterioration of the public debt position, external debt position and debt service payments.

Sources

International Financial Statistics, IMF Yearbook 1985 and 1989.

TABLE 1-R2 RESULTS FOR EXCHANGE RATE EQUATIONS

	(1.01)	(1.02)	(1.03)	(1.04)
Lag. Dep.	0.279 (1.076)	----- (-----)	----- (-----)	----- (-----)
Constant	1.321 (1.829)	2.059 (3.979)	2.150 (7.611)	2.116 (5.432)
Domestic Inflation	----- (-----)	----- (-----)	0.0236 (13.659)	0.0226 (10.156)
Lagged domestic Inflation	0.023 (3.314)	0.032 (7.837)	----- (-----)	----- (-----)
International Inflation	-0.0167 (-1.464)	----- (-----)	----- (-----)	----- (-----)
Lagged Int. Inflation	----- (-----)	-0.029 (-2.606)	-0.056 (-0.731)	-0.053 (-3.243)
Balance of Payments	-0.001 (-0.134)	----- (-----)	----- (-----)	-0.022 (-0.360)
Lagged BOP	----- -----	0.000 0.000	----- -----	----- -----
Time	----- (-----)	----- (-----)	0.149 (2.726)	0.143 (1.991)
\hat{R}^2	0.820	0.837	0.949	0.906
D.W.	2.308	1.985	2.097	2.578
N	25	25	21	25
Rho	-----	-----	-0.4	-----
t-Statistic	(-----)	(-----)	(-2.138)	(-----)
Est. Method	OLS	OLS	H110	OLS

The first model consists of three equations and include the following explanatory variables: domestic inflation, a proxy for international inflation, the balance of payments and a time trend. The trend possibly stands for the progressive deterioration of the public debt position, external debt position and debt service payments. All these have been getting worse in the last two decades. Equations 1.01 and 1.02 have identical explanatory variables, where equation 1.01 is an improvement over equation 1.02 using the HILU method for testing for autocorrelation.

The model results are satisfactory, accounting for over 88% of the variation in the exchange rate as indicated in the \hat{R}^2 which ranges from 0.882 to 0.915. In the best fit (equation 1.03) the signs of domestic inflation and the trend variables are positive, whilst the signs for international inflation and the balance of payments are negative. All the signs are as expected. The trend, international and domestic inflation variables are statistically significant, while the balance of payments variable is insignificant. The coefficient of determination \hat{R}^2 is 0.915, and the Durbin Watson statistic is significant. With regard to other regressors, a model which excludes the trend (equation 1.01 and 1.02) reduces the reliability of the estimation, but the estimation of the other regressors remains at the same level of significance. A model which excludes both the trend and the balance of payments variables (equation 1.04) reduces the \hat{R}^2 from

0.915 to 0.887 with the other regressors remaining the same.

The first group of estimations indicate that the balance of payments does not impact significantly on the exchange rate, but that international and domestic inflation are more important variables in the relationship that seeks to provide an explanation for the exchange rate. The second model consists of four equations and their estimates are presented in Table 1-R2. These estimates report slightly improved results over those presented in Table 1-R1. The following explanatory variables were tested: the lagged dependent variable, the current and previous year's domestic inflation, the current and last year's international inflation, the current and once lagged balance of payments, a time trend and a constant term.

A model which includes the lagged dependent variable (equation 2.01), but excludes the time trend does not improve the significance of the balance of payments variables. Here the sign is negative. The lagged dependent variable is positive but its significance is weak, suggesting that the partial adjustment process may not be very important. However, lagged domestic and current international inflation are significant. In equation (2.02) the lagged dependent variable, current international inflation and the balance of payments are excluded, but lagged international inflation and lagged balance of payments are included. Here the reliability of the estimation improves slightly with \bar{R}^2 moving from 0.820 to 0.837. Estimates of lagged domestic inflation remains unchanged, but lagged international

inflation is statistically significant. The balance of payments variable deteriorates further. In equation (2.03), the trend and current domestic inflation variables are included, whilst the lagged domestic inflation and lagged balance of payments are excluded. This experiment improves \hat{R}^2 to 0.949. Here the trend and current domestic inflation are statistically significant, while the significance of the lagged international inflation is reduced. With regard to other regressors, a model which includes the balance of payments (equation 2.04) reduces the reliability of the estimation slightly, but results in improved significance for lagged international inflation. The balance of payments variable remains negative and insignificant, while the trend is positive and significant.

SUMMARY

These two groups of equations suggests that:

- (1) domestic inflation influences the exchange rate;
- (2) International inflation impacts inversely on the exchange rate;
- (3) the trend is positive and statistically significant;
- (4) the presence of a partial adjustment process is weak; and
- (5) there is no observable relationship between the exchange rate and the balance of payments. This suggests that the central bank did not change the exchange rate immediately when there were short run fluctuations in the balance of payments, indicating a very cautious attitude towards exchange rate changes.

The estimates are exploratory and provide possible explanations for the behaviour of the exchange rate. Despite domestic inflation was higher than international inflation in the 1980s, and government intervention in the foreign exchange market, change in the exchange rate did not respond to movements in the balance of payments. Consequently large movements in the balance of payments are observed (Table 1-3), consistent with a fixed exchange rate in a small open economy. It seems therefore, that the fixed exchange rate policy pursued was not efficiently managed, and may have a lot to answer for in relation to the rapid decline in the economy since the second half of the 1970s. This decline may be blamed upon this policy more than any other single economic factor. It should be borne in mind that there are high costs associated with a fixed exchange rate (if not efficiently managed) in an inflationary situation. In the presence of persistent balance of payments deficits, the policy

was to drain the level of reserves, and pursue a deferral of debt payment.⁹ In a low income country such as Guyana, the opportunity cost of holding large reserves may be high, especially if adequate resources of external financial assistance are accessible. These policies influenced capital movements (Table 1-3), and with debt payment deferral the public debt rose sharply, increasing from G\$1.3 billion in 1976 to G\$5.8 billion in 1983.¹⁰ Since then the debt position has worsened further.

With reserves and balance of payments getting worse in the 1980s, the central bank found it increasingly difficult to maintain effective control on the exchange rate. This may have influenced the decision to experiment with an independent free float of the Guyana dollar since March of this year. This is the subject for another presentation on the "Cambio" system by Professor C.Y. Thomas.

NOTES

1. A detailed account of all these changes are presented in Thomas, C.Y. (1989), table 9, except for the last change to have occurred in June 15, 1990 when the rate was moved from US\$ 1.00 = G\$ 33.00 to US\$ 1.00 = G\$ 45.00.

2. This experiment was conducted alongside the fixed exchange rate policy. In essence it permitted the commercial banks to purchase freely foreign currencies at a higher rate than the official exchange rate. Evidence of this attempt and the attempts to experiment with a dual rate are described in Thomas, C.Y. (1989), Page 160.

3. The Central Bank declares the intervention band. It intervenes if the exchange rate rises above or below the par value by more than a certain percent amount. Its intervention is to prevent the exchange rate from moving further away from the par value. Under a fixed exchange rate the Central Bank will use its stock of reserves either to raise or lower the quantity of money outstanding in order to maintain its price relative to another money (Parkin and Bade 1988, Chapter Six).

4. Although weekly adjustments are now being made to the foreign exchange rate, this is in relation only to the other currencies in the basket. The adjustment to the intervention band is made less frequently.

5. The theoretical position is consistent with the Law of One Price (LOOP). The LOOP states that there is a tendency for the price of similar goods to be the same in each country when these prices are converted to the same currency using a fixed exchange rate. The LOOP is expressed as:

*

$$I = EI$$

This implies that the real exchange rate is unity:

*

$$Rer = EI / I = 1$$

and therefore exports equal imports.

6. The capital account may be included also in this approach. But the emphasis is on the variables in the current account. The

capital account can be taken into consideration if an examination of the real sector of the economy is undertaken. For example, changes in the interest rate will affect capital flows. An increase in government expenditures financed by borrowing will increase the interest rate and will induce capital inflows (Bird 1987, Chapter Five).

7. The restrictive assumptions are fully explained in Bird (1987) Chapter five.

8. Arbitrage is the purchasing of a good at a low price and simultaneously agreeing to sell it for a higher price. In this process of exchange a profit is made, defined as:

$$(P_2 - P_1) / P_1$$

P₂ is the price that the good is sold at and P₁ is the price that the good is bought for. Arbitrage will continue until P₂ equals P₁. In this case the LOOP is a proposition concerning the effects of arbitrage, meaning that the process of arbitrage will compete away price differences between identical commodities. From this proposition the LOOP is important in determining inflation, the BOP and the exchange rate, through the PPP. Parkin and Bade (1988), Chapter 26 present a detailed discussion of these relationships.

9. Besides these policies the government pursued exchange rate controls and quantitative restrictions on trade as a deliberate balance of payments policy. These are adequately described in Danns, D. (1990) and Glen, L. (1984).

10. See Danns, D. (1988) for a full treatment of Guyana's debt problems.

TABLE 1-1 SELECTED NONETARY AGGREGATES, 1962-88

Years	(1)	(2)	(3)	(4)	(5)
1962	n.a.	n.a.	0.224	31.80	35.26
1963	0.019	0.171	0.312	32.40	35.15
1964	0.003	0.137	0.302	32.50	35.23
1965	0.028	0.063	0.281	33.40	35.93
1966	0.021	0.075	0.296	34.10	37.12
1967	0.029	0.120	0.296	35.10	37.20
1968	0.031	0.127	0.323	36.20	38.13
1969	0.011	0.105	0.337	36.60	39.61
1970	0.036	0.078	0.339	37.90	41.05
1971	0.011	0.164	0.380	38.30	42.42
1972	0.050	0.223	0.452	40.20	44.29
1973	0.075	0.173	0.485	43.20	50.11
1974	0.176	0.159	0.446	50.80	59.54
1975	0.077	0.411	0.529	54.70	65.04
1976	0.091	0.088	0.153	59.70	68.07
1977	0.082	0.230	0.612	64.60	72.23
1978	0.152	0.106	0.598	74.40	77.86
1979	0.179	0.071	0.547	87.70	87.62
1980	0.140	0.193	0.561	100.00	100.00
1981	0.247	0.161	0.499	124.00	109.13
1982	0.203	0.276	0.606	150.00	111.33
1983	0.133	0.211	0.716	169.90	112.73
1984	0.251	0.812	0.599	212.50	115.40
1985	0.151	0.192	0.537	244.5	114.8
1986	0.079	0.163	0.518	263.8	111.5
1987	0.287	0.535	0.394	339.6	114.3
1988	0.400	0.415	0.316	475.3	118.9

Notes Table 1-1

- (1) Rate of change in Consumer price index of Guyana, 1980=100.
- (2) Rate of change in money supply in Guyana (MG\$).
- (3) Ratio of money supply and gross domestic product.
- (4) Consumer price index, Guyana (1980=100).
- (5) Wholesale price index, USA (1980=100).

(4) Sources: International Financial Statistics, IMF Year Book 1985 and 1989; and Bank of Guyana Statistical Bulletin, 1989.

TABLE 1-2 SELECTED EXCHANGE RATE STATISTICS, 1962-89

Years	(1)	(2)	(3)	(4)	(5)	(6)
1962	1.7143	1.7128	n.a.	1.9008	0.90187	n.a.
1963	1.7143	1.7164	0.0000	1.8598	0.9217	0.0220
1964	1.7143	1.7204	0.0000	1.8583	0.9225	0.0008
1965	1.7143	1.7126	0.0000	1.8442	0.9296	0.0078
1966	1.7143	1.7203	0.0000	1.8661	0.9186	-0.0122
1967	1.7381	1.9984	0.0139	1.8421	0.9436	0.0272
1968	2.0000	2.0131	0.1507	2.1066	0.9494	0.0063
1969	2.0000	1.9994	0.0000	2.1615	0.9240	-0.0278
1970	2.0000	2.0053	0.0000	2.1662	0.9233	-0.0008
1971	1.9807	2.0417	-0.0097	2.1938	0.9029	-0.0228
1972	2.0873	2.2194	0.0538	2.2997	0.9077	0.0055
1973	2.1062	2.2232	0.0091	2.4431	0.8621	-0.0568
1974	2.2269	2.2190	0.0573	2.6100	0.8532	-0.0123
1975	2.3554	2.5500	0.0577	2.8006	0.8410	-0.0156
1976	2.5500	2.5500	0.0826	2.9075	0.8770	0.0448
1977	2.5500	2.5500	0.0000	2.8516	0.8942	0.0208
1978	2.5500	2.5500	0.0000	2.6686	0.9556	0.0739
1979	2.5500	2.5500	0.0000	2.5477	1.0009	0.0534
1980	2.5500	2.5500	0.0000	2.5500	1.0000	-0.0010
1981	2.8125	3.0000	0.1029	2.4613	1.1427	0.1557
1982	3.0000	3.0000	0.0667	2.2266	1.3474	0.1827
1983	3.0000	3.0000	0.0000	1.9905	1.5071	0.1201
1984	4.1500	3.832	0.3833	2.2537	1.8414	0.2271
1985	4.1500	3.832	0.3833	1.9486	2.1298	0.1558
1986	4.4000	4.272	0.0602	1.8597	2.3659	0.1077
1987	10.000	9.756	1.2727	3.3657	2.9711	0.2622
1988	10.000	10.000	0.000	2.5016	3.9975	0.3593
1989	27.250	33.000	1.725	n.a.	n.a.	n.a.

Notes Table 1-2

- (1) Exchange rate Guyana dollars to US dollar, period average.
- (2) Exchange rate Guyana dollars to US dollar, end of period.
- (3) Rate of change of exchange rate, calculated from column one.
- (4) Real exchange rate.
- (5) Absolute purchasing power parity.
- (6) Relative purchasing power parity.

Source International Financial Statistics, IMF Yearbooks 1985 & 1989.

TABLE 1-3 SELECTED PAYMENTS STATISTICS, 1962-88

Years	(1)	(2)	(3)	(4)	(5)	(6)
1962	15.09	n.a.	119.5	22.8	56,454	n.a.
1963	16.90	-161.89	128.6	26.5	59,502	1.810
1964	16.55	-179.25	127.9	23.3	60,816	-0.350
1965	20.12	-194.93	148.0	41.6	62,185	3.570
1966	16.90	-220.62	171.0	58.1	66,103	-3.220
1967	18.85	-233.65	187.6	63.5	61,404	1.950
1968	23.55	-204.70	198.5	72.7	62,212	4.700
1969	20.55	-232.30	229.7	87.8	70,563	-3.000
1970	20.40	-249.05	267.2	107.2	79,591	-0.150
1971	26.16	-260.54	436.2	144.6	145,898	5.760
1972	36.75	-261.91	499.6	189.4	157,600	10.590
1973	13.97	-317.88	637.6	289.0	151,400	-22.780
1974	62.57	-451.80	672.7	260.8	212,000	48.600
1975	100.50	-619.27	932.6	399.2	287,500	37.930
1976	27.28	-683.62	1320.4	620.6	363,800	-73.220
1977	22.98	-550.30	1548.2	834.1	404,400	14.300
1978	58.27	-513.81	1779.2	1000.1	438,700	35.290
1979	17.53	-622.24	2124.2	1270.9	507,100	-40.740
1980	12.70	-780.13	2565.8	1636.7	448,653	-1.830
1981	6.91	-751.79	3840.9	1779.2	660,000	-5.790
1982	10.56	-491.95	4857.2	2758.0	679,300	3.650
1983	6.49	-423.07	5918.2	3809.5	695,100	-4.070
1984	5.85	n.a.	6739.3	4906.2	690,412	-0.640
1985	6.47	n.a.	n.a.	5660.6	759,900	0.620
1986	9.00	n.a.	n.a.	6473.0	803,900	2.530
1987	8.43	n.a.	n.a.	10047.3	878,600	-0.570
1988	4.04	n.a.	n.a.	10432.8	882,272	-4.390

Notes Table 1-3

- (1) Reserves minus gold (NUS\$).
- (2) Capital movements (NUS\$).
- (3) Total public debt (MG\$).
- (4) Total internal debt (MG\$).
- (5) Total external debt (US\$ 000').
- (6) Balance of Payments (NUS\$).

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