

# Lecture 10: Trade and Monopolistic Competition

## 14.581: International Economics I

Pol Antràs

Harvard & MIT

Spring 2007

Cite as: Pol Antràs, course materials for 14.581 International Economics I, Spring 2007. MIT OpenCourseWare (<http://ocw.mit.edu/>), Massachusetts Institute of Technology. Downloaded on [DD Month YYYY].

# Introduction

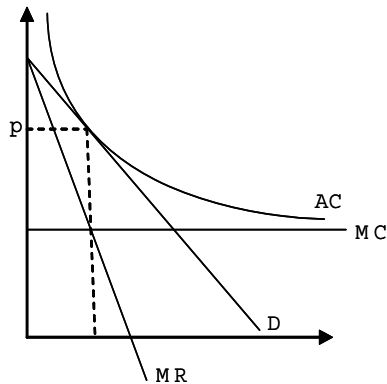
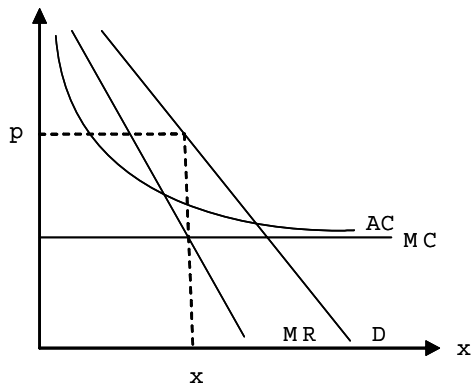
- In the last lecture, we developed a model in which increasing returns and imperfect competition was sufficient to generate two-way flows in identical products. Some caveats:
  - the microfoundations of such approach have been questioned;
  - it is not clear what the model has to say about the size of two-way flows as a function of country characteristics;
  - observed two-way intraindustry trade flows are concentrated in sectors where output is not homogenous (see Balassa, 1964);
- In this lecture, we will discuss models that place product differentiation at center stage.
  - even within industries, firms may produce differentiated varieties of the industry's output;
  - if consumers value “variety” or there is heterogenous tastes over varieties, on aggregate several varieties will be consumed;
  - with increasing returns to scale, production of an individual variety will be concentrated in a given location;
- These features will lead to intra-industry trade, and as we'll see can also generate large volumes of trade between similar countries.

Cite as: Pol Antras, course materials for 14.581 International Economics I, Spring 2007. MIT OpenCourseWare (<http://ocw.mit.edu/>), Massachusetts Institute of Technology. Downloaded on [DD Month YYYY].

# Monopolistic Competition

- As in the previous lecture, the presence of internal economies of scale will imply a departure from the perfect competition paradigm.
- In order to minimize this departure, the literature has considered a particular form of competition, due to Chamberlain (1933), called monopolistic competition. Its distinctive features are:
  - ① Each firm has some market power in the sense that it faces a downward sloping demand curve;
  - ② There is a large number of firms so that a price change by a *single* firm has no effect on the level of demand faced by the rest of the firms;
  - ③ There is free entry so that firms' profits are driven down to zero.
- Note that price direct price competition in a given variety would lead to marginal cost pricing and negative profits
  - so a firm has no incentive to exactly duplicate an existing brand.

# Free Entry at Work



Cite as: Pol Antràs, course materials for 14.581 International Economics I, Spring 2007. MIT OpenCourseWare (<http://ocw.mit.edu/>), Massachusetts Institute of Technology. Downloaded on [DD Month YYYY].

# Product Differentiation

- Where does the downward sloping demand come from?
- Several approaches to product differentiation have been proposed. The most popular one is the “love-for-variety” approach of Dixit and Stiglitz (1977).
- Let there be  $I$  sectors or goods and denote by  $\Omega_i$  the set of varieties of good  $i$ ; denote by  $\omega_i \in \Omega_i$  a particular variety.
- Preferences of a representative consumer are of the form

$$U = U[u_1(\cdot), u_2(\cdot), \dots, u_I(\cdot)]$$

with

$$u_i = u_i(C_{i1}, C_{i2}, \dots, C_{i\omega}, \dots, C_{in})$$

- We will assume both  $U(\cdot)$  and  $u_i(\cdot)$  are increasing in its arguments and homothetic.
- Particularly example: constant-elasticity of substitution (CES) case with a continuum of varieties:

$$u_i = \left[ \int_0^{n_i} x_i(\omega)^{\alpha_i} d\omega \right]^{1/\alpha_i}, \quad 0 < \alpha < 1, \quad (1)$$

# Product Differentiation (cted.)

- The elasticity of substitution across varieties is then constant and given by  $\sigma_i = 1 / (1 - \alpha_i)$ .
  - as  $\alpha_i \rightarrow 1$ ,  $\sigma_i \rightarrow \infty$  and varieties become perfect substitutes ( $u_i$  linear in  $x_i(\omega)$ );
  - as  $\alpha_i \rightarrow 0$ ,  $\sigma_i \rightarrow 1$  and we go to the Cobb-Douglas case;
  - $\alpha_i < 0$  is ruled out for reasons that will become clear.
- Notice the “love-for-variety” feature. Under perfect symmetry,  $x_i(\omega) = x_i$  for all  $\omega$ , and

$$u_i = n_i^{1/\alpha_i} x_i = n_i^{(1-\alpha_i)/\alpha_i} \cdot \underbrace{(n_i x_i)}_{\text{“real” spending}} .$$

- Aside: the approach has also been used in production theory to argue that producers may prefer a larger variety of inputs (e.g., more specialized inputs) because they yield higher productivity.
- How do you solve this demand system? If  $U(\cdot)$  is weakly separable, then two-stage problem:
  - ① choose  $x_i(\omega)$ 's to maximize  $u_i$  subject to  $\int_0^{n_i} p_i(\omega) x_i(\omega) d\omega \leq E_i$ ;
  - ② choose  $E_i$  to maximize  $U(\cdot)$  subject to  $\sum_{i=1}^I E_i \leq E$ .

# An Example: Krugman (1980)

- Krugman (1980) considers a model in which, on the demand side, consumers have identical preferences as in (1) over varieties in a single sector.
- Technology is similar to that in Brander and Krugman (1983):
  - there is a constant marginal cost of production equal to  $1/\varphi$  units of the unique factor of production, labor;
  - there is a fixed cost of production  $f$  in terms of labor.
- Market structure in the single sector is characterized by monopolistic competition with a continuum of firms of endogenous measure  $n$ .
- Solving the utility maximization problem yields demand for each variety:

$$x_i(\omega) = \frac{E}{P} \left( \frac{p(\omega)}{P} \right)^{-\sigma}, \quad (2)$$

where

$$P = \left[ \int_0^n p^{1-\sigma}(\omega) d\omega \right]^{1/(1-\sigma)} \quad (3)$$

is the ideal price index (minimum cost of obtaining one unit of utility).

# Krugman (1980): Closed-Economy Equilibrium

- Each firm maximizes profits  $\pi(\omega) = p(\omega)x(\omega) - (1/\varphi)wx(\omega) - wf$  subject to (2).
- Because firms take  $E$  and  $P$  as given (continuum assumption), we get the standard constant-markup pricing formula of a monopolist facing a constant price elasticity demand:

$$p(\omega) = \frac{\sigma}{\sigma - 1} \frac{w}{\varphi}.$$

- Now we can write the free-entry (or zero-profit) condition as  $\frac{1}{\sigma}p(\omega)x(\omega) = wf$ , or simply:

$$x(\omega) = (\sigma - 1) f \varphi. \quad (4)$$

- Labor market clearing implies, however, that  $(f + x/\varphi)n = L$  and thus we can conclude that

$$n = \frac{L}{\sigma f}.$$

- Scale Effects: Note that large economies produce more varieties and thus achieve higher welfare levels.

# Krugman (1980): Open-Economy Equilibrium

- Now suppose that the world consists of two economies,  $H$  and  $F$ , identical in all respects except for population size:  $L^H, L^F$ .
- Given constant mark-up pricing, notice that free entry will still imply that, for any variety,  $x(\omega)$  is given by (4).
- Goods market clearing thus requires that all varieties be demanded in the same amount, which in light of (2) requires  $w^H = w^F$  (FPE).
- Using the labor market clearing conditions one can show that

$$n^k = \frac{L^k}{\sigma f}.$$

- Note that Home consumes a fraction  $L^H / (L^H + L^F)$  of the world's production of **all** varieties (two-way intraindustry trade).
- Welfare is now

$$U = (\sigma - 1) f \left( \frac{L^H + L^F}{\sigma f} \right)^{\sigma/(\sigma-1)},$$

and thus increases with trade.

# General Model: Integrated Equilibrium

- Helpman and Krugman (1985) show how to embed IRS, monopolistic competition, and product differentiation in a standard multi-sector, multi-factor model.
- Consider first the equilibrium conditions for the integrated equilibrium:

- Free-entry into the industry drives the price down to average cost:

$$p_i = c_i(\bar{w}, \bar{x}_i) \quad \text{for all } i \quad (5)$$

where

$$\bar{x}_i = \frac{\bar{X}_i}{\bar{n}_i} \quad \text{for all } i. \quad (6)$$

- Optimal pricing by the monopolist yields

$$\frac{p_i}{MR_i(\bar{p}, \bar{n})} \equiv R_i(\bar{p}, \bar{n}) = \theta_i(\bar{w}, \bar{x}_i) \equiv \frac{c_i(\bar{w}, \bar{x}_i)}{\partial C_i(\bar{w}, \bar{x}_i) / \partial x_i} \quad \text{for all } i. \quad (7)$$

- Factor-market clearing requires:

$$\sum_{i \in I} a_{ji}(\bar{w}, \bar{x}_i) \cdot \bar{X}_i = \bar{V}_j \quad \text{for all } j. \quad (8)$$

- While goods-clearing imposes

$$\alpha_i(\bar{p}, \bar{n}) = \frac{\bar{p}_i \bar{X}_i}{\sum_{i' \in I} (\bar{p}_{i'} \bar{X}_{i'})} \quad \text{for any } i. \quad (9)$$

# General Model: Integrated Equilibrium (cted.)

- When preferences are CES,  $R_i(\cdot)$  is a constant, while when  $C_i(\cdot)$  is homothetic,  $\theta_i(\cdot)$  is only a function of  $\bar{x}_i$  (see eq. 4 above).
- We can now define the FPE set in a manner identical to Lecture 6.

$$FPE = \left\{ \left( V^1, V^2, \dots, V^K \right) \mid \exists \lambda_i^k \geq 0, \sum_{k \in K} \lambda_i^k = 1 \text{ for all } i \right. \\ \left. \text{such that } V^k = \sum_{i \in I} \lambda_i^k \bar{V}_i \text{ for all countries } k \right\}$$

- Replication of the integrated equilibrium requires that each variety is produced in only one country (because of IRS).
  - but with a continuum of varieties, this does not place any further constraints on the FPE set (with a discrete number of varieties the FPE set becomes a set of measure 0).
- The pattern of trade continues to be generally indeterminate (actually, more so now), but Vanek equation continues to hold within the FPE set.
- So what have we gained? We are now able to say something about:
  - the bilateral volume of trade;
  - the composition of trade (intraindustry vs. interindustry).
- We will explore this in more detail in the next lecture.

# Introducing Transportations Costs

- Let us now go back to the  $1 \times 1 \times 2$  model of Krugman (1980), but assume now that there are iceberg transport costs of exporting.

- Profits of a firm at Home are now

$$\pi^H(\omega) = \left[ p^{H,H}(\omega) - (1/\varphi)w \right] x^{H,H}(\omega) + \left[ p^{H,F}(\omega) - \tau(1/\varphi)w \right] x^{H,F}(\omega)$$

- Because the elasticity of demand is unaffected by trade barriers, both domestic and export prices will be a constant markup  $\sigma / (\sigma - 1)$  over marginal cost

- with the marginal cost being  $\tau$  times higher for exporting.

- But then we can write the free-entry condition as

$$\frac{1}{\sigma} p^{H,H}(\omega) x^{H,H}(\omega) + \frac{\tau}{\sigma} p^{H,H}(\omega) x^{H,F}(\omega) = w^H f,$$

or simply

$$x^{H,H} + \tau x^{H,F} = (\sigma - 1) f \varphi. \quad (10)$$

- Labor market clearing requires however that

$$n^H \left( f + x^{H,H} / \varphi + \tau x^{H,F} / \varphi \right) = L^H.$$

# The Home Market Effect

- Using (10) and generalizing to the case of Foreign implies

$$n^k = L^k / \sigma f \quad \text{for } k = H, F. \quad (11)$$

- This is what we had before. The equilibrium is however distinct in an important way: we no longer have FPE.
- To see this, note that trade balance implies

$$n^H \tau \rho^{H,H} x^{H,F} = n^F \tau \rho^{F,F} x^{F,H} \quad (12)$$

- Now using (2) and (11) and manipulating, we also obtain

$$\frac{n^H \rho^{H,H} x^{H,F}}{n^F \rho^{F,F} x^{F,H}} = \frac{\left( L^H / L^F \right) \left( w^H / w^F \right)^{1-\sigma} + \tau^{1-\sigma}}{1 + \left( L^H / L^F \right) \left( \tau w^H / w^F \right)^{1-\sigma}} \left( w^H / w^F \right)^{-\sigma}.$$

- Let  $\rho \equiv \tau^{1-\sigma} < 1$ ,  $\lambda \equiv L^H / L^F$  and  $\vartheta \equiv w^H / w^F$ , then equilibrium requires

$$1 = \frac{\lambda (\vartheta)^{1-\sigma} + \rho}{1 + \lambda \rho (\vartheta)^{1-\sigma}} (\vartheta)^{-\sigma}.$$

- But for  $\lambda > 1$ , this can only hold if  $\vartheta > 1$ . The larger country has the larger wage (more attractive location to set up shop  $\implies$  higher  $L^d$ ).

# Home Market Effect

- In the example above, transport costs generated wage differences across countries, but no “home market effect”:
  - country  $k$ 's share of world varieties = country  $k$ 's share of world population.
- Now consider a variant of the model in which there is a second sector producing a numeraire homogenous good one-to-one with labor.
  - suppose good is produced everywhere so we have  $w^k = 1$  for  $k = H, F$ .
- Working with the demand function (2) and the price index (3), one can show (see HK, pp. 206-07) that

$$\frac{n^H}{n^F} = \begin{cases} 0 & \text{if } \lambda \leq \rho \\ \frac{\lambda - \rho}{1 - \lambda \rho} & \text{if } 1/\rho \geq \lambda \geq \rho \\ +\infty & \text{if } \lambda \geq 1/\rho \end{cases} .$$

- So  $n^H/n^F > \lambda$  if and only if  $\lambda > 1$  (the larger market attracts a disproportionate share of the IRS sector).
  - in addition,  $\partial \left( \frac{\lambda - \rho}{1 - \lambda \rho} \right) / \partial \lambda > 1$  (see Davis and Weinstein, 2003, for evidence).
- Davis (1998) shows however that the assumption of the freely tradable homogenous good is important.

# Final Remarks

- In the next lecture we will study the implication of monopolistic competition models for the structure of trade flows.
- It is important to note, however, that these models also qualify other important trade theorems:
  - Stolper-Samuelson no longer holds, in the sense that it may well be the case that all factors gain from trade (if love-for variety effect outweighs standard effect).
- Also, we have focused on love-for-variety in consumption, but we can reinterpret the model as one of love-for-variety in production:
  - welfare gains from trade are now related to productivity improvements, rather than utility gains from variety.