

The Buyer Margins of Firms' Exports*

Jeronimo Carballo

University of Colorado Boulder

Gianmarco I.P. Ottaviano

LSE, University of Bologna, CEP and CEPR

Christian Volpe Martincus

Inter-American Development Bank

April 2016

Abstract

We use detailed data on exporters from Costa Rica, Ecuador and Uruguay as well as on their buyers to show that aggregate exports are disproportionately driven by few multi-buyers exporters whose foreign sales of any product are in turn accounted for by few dominant buyers. We propose an analytically solvable multi-country model of endogenous selection in which dominant exporters, dominant products and dominant buyers emerge in parallel as multi-product sellers with heterogeneous technologies compete for buyers with heterogeneous needs. The model not only provides an explanation of the existence of dominant buyers but also makes specific predictions on how the relative importance of dominant buyers should vary across export destinations depending on their market size and accessibility. We show that these predictions are borne out by our data.

Keywords: Firm heterogeneity, taste heterogeneity, import-export relations, competition, selection.

J.E.L. Classification: F12, F14.

*We thank Alejandro Graziano for excellent research assistance. We are grateful to Antonio Accetturo, Facundo Albornoz, Pamela Bombarda, Ines Buono, Swati Dhingra, Virginia di Nino, Marco Grazzi, Elhanan Helpman, Miklos Koren, Marc Melitz, Pierre Picard, Jacques Thisse, Jim Tybout as well as participants to several workshops and seminars for helpful comments and suggestions. The views and interpretations in this paper are strictly those of the authors and should not be attributed to the Inter-American Development Bank, its executive directors, or its member countries.

1 Introduction

Few firms engage in exporting. Most of those that do sell only a small number of products to a small number of buyers in a small number of destinations. However, the small group of exporters selling a lot of products to a lot of buyers in a lot of destinations accounts for a dominant share of aggregate exports. Analogously, only a small fraction of dominant products accounts for the bulk of sales by any of those dominant exporters, and only a small fraction of dominant buyers accounts for the bulk of their exports of any given product to any destination. While the facts concerning dominant exporters and dominant products are well known (see, e.g., Bernard et al., 2007; Mayer and Ottaviano, 2007; Bernard et al., 2012; Mayer et al., 2014), those on dominant buyers have so far remained largely unexplored.¹

We document these new facts using detailed information on exporters from Costa Rica, Ecuador and Uruguay as well as on their buyers. As explaining the existence of dominant buyers calls for new theories in which heterogeneous sellers interact with heterogeneous buyers, we then propose a simple analytically solvable multi-country model of endogenous selection in which dominant exporters, dominant products and dominant buyers emerge in parallel as multi-product sellers with heterogeneous technologies compete for buyers with heterogeneous needs. The model not only provides an explanation of the existence of dominant buyers but also makes specific predictions on how the relative importance of dominant buyers should vary across destinations depending on their market size and geography. We finally show that these predictions are indeed borne out by our data.

In so doing, we make two distinct contributions to the theory and the empirics of international trade with heterogeneous firms. As for theory, on the demand side our model introduces buyer heterogeneity by merging the ‘representative consumer approach’ to product differentiation (Chamberlin, 1933; Spence, 1976; Dixit and Stiglitz, 1977) with the ‘address (or characteristics) approach’ (Hotelling, 1929; Lancaster, 1966 and 1979).² Whereas the former is the current standard in international trade theory, the latter is more popular in industrial organization, with very few applications to international trade since early works by Lancaster (1980) and Helpman (1981).³ As in the representative approach, consumers demand varieties of a horizontally differentiated product (‘love of variety’). However, as in the address approach, they prefer different versions of those varieties. In particular, taste heterogeneity is introduced by assuming that different versions of the same variety can be described as points in a characteristics space. Consumer preferences are defined over all potential versions, and each consumer has her own ideal version (‘address’) in the characteristics space. Aggregate preferences for within-variety diversity arise from the dispersion of ideal points over the characteristics space and, for a given price vector, a version’s demand is defined by

¹We discuss the related literature below.

²See Anderson et al. (1991) for a discussion of the pros and cons of different approaches to product differentiation.

³See, e.g., Casella and Rauch (2002), Rauch and Casella (2003) and Rauch and Trindade (2003).

the mass of consumers preferring that version over the others. In particular, for each variety there is a measure of ideal versions that, in the wake of Salop (1979), are located around a circle with consumers uniformly distributed along the circle. However, unlike Hotelling (1929) and Salop (1979) but similar to Capozza and Van Order (1978), a consumer can buy a variable amount of her ideal version of each differentiated variety as long as this is available in her ideal version. Due to love of variety, the consumer demands all and only varieties available in her ideal version.⁴ A crucial feature of our model that drives its empirically relevant comparative statics is that demand exhibits variable elasticity as in Ottaviano et al (2002).

On the supply side, firms are monopolistically competitive. Following Mayer et al (2014), we assume that each firm first chooses in which country to enter as well as which variety and which version of that variety to produce. This defines its ‘core variety’ and the ‘core version’ of that variety. Then, again upon entry, the firm randomly draws its efficiency in producing that version. This defines the firm’s ‘core competence’. After having discovered its core competence, the firm may also decide to produce non-core varieties, serve non-core customers or export to foreign markets but in all three cases it faces additional costs of ‘proliferation’, ‘adaptation’ or ‘exportation’ respectively. This implies that in equilibrium more efficient firms produce more varieties, serve more customers and export to more destinations. Moreover, the number of varieties sold and customers served as well as the distribution of sales across varieties sold and customer served change across destinations depending on the toughness of local competition. In particular, tougher competition forces firms to sell fewer varieties. These are the ones closer to the ‘core variety’ for which the proliferation cost is lower. In addition, due to variable demand elasticity, tougher competition makes firms skew the sales of the varieties they keep on producing towards the core ones. Analogously, tougher competition also forces firms to focus on their ‘core versions’, hence on their ‘core buyers’, for which the adaptation cost is lower. Due to variable elasticity, it also makes firms skew their sale towards the core buyers. While the predictions on varieties are the same as in Mayer et al (2014), those on buyers are novel. These are the predictions we bring to the data.

As for the empirics of international trade, our paper contributes to an emerging literature that has started to examine the extensive and intensive margins of exports along the buyer dimension. Modelling marketing costs and distinguishing the cost needed to reach the first customer from the one needed to reach additional customers, Arkolakis (2010) exploits the US-Mexico NAFTA liberalization episode

⁴Helpman (1981) adopts a ‘pure’ address model. There is only one differentiated product and the fact that a consumer has her own ideal version of that product rules out ‘love for variety’ across versions. Anderson, de Palma and Thisse (1991) determine the formal conditions under which address (and discrete choice) models can give rise to aggregate ‘love for variety’ across versions of the same product when individual preferences for ideal versions are aggregated at the product level. In this respect, though our demand system violates those conditions, our approach could be interpreted as capturing the idea of an intermediate level of aggregation between the individual consumer and the product market as in the marketing literature since Smith (1956).

to argue that exports growth materialized through increases not only in the number of exporters ('new firm margin') but also and more importantly through the number of their customers ('new consumer margin'). In so doing, he uses disaggregated product data rather than buyer information.⁵ Blum et al. (2010 and 2012), Eaton et al. (2013) and Monarch (2014) do make use of data that identify the buyers, but for different purposes than ours. In particular, Blum et al. (2010 and 2012) use data on Chilean exporters and matched Colombian importers to motivate their model of trade intermediaries. Eaton et al. (2013) use customs data on the relationships Colombian firms have with their US buyers to quantify several types of trade costs and learning effects exploring their impacts on aggregate export dynamics. Monarch (2014) utilizes data on US importers and their Chinese exporters to uncover the frictions associated with changing exporting partners. Closer to our paper, Bernard et al. (2013) use export information from Norway to study the impact of foreign buyers' size heterogeneity on aggregate trade elasticity.⁶ However, differently from our paper, their analysis does not deepen the investigation of the firm-product level and does not cover the distributions of sales across buyers.⁷

Also related to our analysis are a number of recent studies that examine the relationships between buyers and sellers in given pairs of countries within specific sectors. Macchiavello (2010) exploits data on trade relationships between Chilean wine exporters and UK wine distributors to show how the age and the order of these relationships relate to prices, survival rates, marketing costs, and distributor characteristics.⁸ Using transaction-level export data from Mexico, Sugita et al. (2014) analyze how US and Mexican firms match in the textile and apparel sectors. Kamal and Sundaram (2014) exploit customs data on transactions between US importers and Bangladeshi exporters along with information on the geographic location of the latter to investigate whether business networks among trading firms - as proxied by geographical proximity - affect exporter-importer matches. All these papers, however, do not investigate how the cross-country variation in the toughness of competition affects the distribution of firm export sales across

⁵In Arkolakis (2010) consumers with identical tastes may end up consuming different CES bundles of differentiated varieties due to imperfect marketing penetration. In particular, a consumer buys a good only if she is aware of its existence, and becomes aware of its existence only if she observes a costly ad posted by its producer. The producer serves the market only if it is profitable to incur the marginal cost to reach at least one consumer and then incurs an increasing marginal penetration cost to access additional consumers. Assuming that the marketing technology exhibits increasing returns to scale with respect to population size but decreasing returns to scale with respect to the number of consumers reached, the model is used to reconcile the positive relationship between entry and market size with the existence of many small producers.

⁶Some of our findings concur with those reported by Bernard et al. (2013) for Norwegian exporters.

⁷Our paper is also related to McCalman (2016) that introduces demand side heterogeneity by relaxing the assumption of homotheticity and therefore allowing to expenditure shares to depend on buyers income level in addition to relative prices.

⁸In the same vein, Macchiavello and Morjaria (2014) provide evidence on the importance of reputation in buyer-seller relationships based on data from the Kenyan rose export sector.

buyers, which is the key focus of our analysis.

The rest of the paper is organized as follows. After introducing the dataset, Section 2 presents our facts on dominant buyers and multi-buyer exporters. Section 3 introduces the model and derives its predictions on how the importance of dominant buyers is affected by the toughness of competition. Section 4 brings these predictions to the data. Section 5 concludes.

2 Exporters and Buyers

Aggregate exports are concentrated in the hands of few dominant exporters selling several products to several markets (see, e.g., Bernard et al, 2007; Mayer and Ottaviano, 2007) and a small fraction of dominant products accounts for the bulk of sales of any of those dominant exporters (see, e.g., Mayer et al, 2014). In this section, we show that exporters with a large pool of foreign buyers are a crucial component of the group of dominant exporters.

In so doing, we rely on three datasets consisting of highly disaggregated annual firm export data for three different countries, Costa Rica, Ecuador and Uruguay, over the period 2005-2008. These customs data are reported at the exporter-product-country-importer level, providing information on the value and the quantity (weight) shipped of each product (6-digit HS level) by each exporter to each importer in each destination country.⁹ They virtually cover the whole population of exporting firms for our three countries.¹⁰

2.1 Buyers in International Trade

A snapshot of our dataset is presented in Table 1. This table reports aggregate export indicators for the three countries over our sample period. In 2008, Uruguay had more than 2,000 exporters that sold approximately 3,000 products to approximately 12,000 buyers in 160 countries for almost USD6 billion. In Ecuador, a larger number of exporting firms, 4000, sold a similar total number of products to a comparable number of buyers in a slightly smaller set of destinations for USD19 billion. Finally, in Costa Rica, 2,700 exporters sold around 4,000 products to 14,000 buyers in 143 countries to generate total foreign sales over USD8.5 billion. The role buyers in aggregate exports can be examined by extending the approach proposed by Arkolakis and Muendler (2011) to include the *buyer scope*. Thus,

⁹Original data are reported at the HS-10 digit level. We have aggregated these data to a common HS-6 digit level to ensure consistency across countries and over time.

¹⁰In the case of Costa Rica, the sum of the exports of the firms in our database amounts on average to approximately 90% of the country's total merchandise exports as reported by the Central Bank of Costa Rica, with the difference being explained by exports of Gold Coffee, which due to administrative reasons were registered separately, and by the absence of data on the importers' identity for a few exporters. As for Ecuador, only a minor portion of oil exports is not included. Regarding Uruguay, the discrepancy of our data with those from the Statistical Office never exceeds 1% over the period under analysis.

total exports X from county h to country l can be decomposed as follows:

$$X_{hl} = N_{hl}^* \times \underbrace{\frac{G_l^h(\psi_h, p)}{N_{hl}^*}}_{\text{Product Scope}} \times \underbrace{\frac{G_l^h(\psi_h, p, \varphi_l)}{G_l^h(\psi_h, p)}}_{\text{Buyers Scope}} \times \underbrace{\frac{X_{hl}}{G_l^h(\psi_h, p, \varphi_l)}}_{\text{Intensive Margin}}$$

where N_{hl}^* is the number of firms exporting from country h to destination l , $G_l(\psi_h, p)$ is the total number of unique exporter (ψ_h) and product (p) combinations from country h to country l and $G_l^h(\psi_h, p, \varphi_l)$ is the total number of unique exporter, product and buyer (φ_l) combinations from country h to country l . The *product scope* is defined as $ProdScp = G_l(\psi_h, p)/N_{hl}^*$ while the *buyer scope* is $BuyScp = G_l(\psi_h, p, \varphi_l)/G_l(\psi_h, p)$. Both scopes are equal or greater than one. Product scope captures the additional exports due to the fact that the average number of products to a given destination is greater than one. Similarly, the buyer scope measures the additional exports associated with firms having on average more than one buyer within a destination-product combination.

Table 2 presents the results of this decomposition. According to the cross-section decomposition in the pooled sample, the intensive margin accounts for 47.4% while the extensive margin represents 52.6% of the countries' 2005 total exports after the introduction of the buyer margin. The buyer scope represents around 4.5% of these total exports, and ranges between 3.9% (Ecuador) and 6.2% (Uruguay) for the different countries. This magnitude is remarkable because we are only allowing the buyer margin to contribute at the firm-product level (within a destination). Moreover, the buyer scope is bigger than the product scope for two of our three sample countries. The same pattern prevails when the decomposition is performed over time (2005-2008). In this case, the buyer scope is responsible for 2.8%-6.8% of the change in total exports and, as a consequence, has a contribution that is consistently larger than that of the product scope.

Table 3 describes the distribution of export outcomes across firms in the three sample countries with an emphasis on the role of buyers. For parsimony, we focus on 2005 but similar patterns emerge for all years in the sample. We consider the following export outcomes: the numbers of buyers, destinations and products; the numbers of buyers per destination and per product; average exports per buyer, per destination and per product; and average exports per destination-product-buyer. For each outcome the first five columns report key percentiles while the sixth reports the average. The table shows that the median (average) Costa Rican exporter sells 2 (5.9) products to 2 (6.9) buyers in 2 (2.9) countries for USD35,000. The median (average) Ecuadorian exporter sells 1 (3.2) products to 1 (4.9) buyers in 1 (2.3) countries for USD28,000; numbers for the median (average) Uruguayan exporter are very similar. Importantly, the percentiles reveal that most exporters trade with a limited number of foreign buyers and only few of them serve a wide range of buyers: while exporters in the top decile serve more than ten buyers in all three countries, at least half of the exporters serves no more than two buyers.

This concentration in the distribution of the number of buyers across firms can be visualized with the help of Figures 1 and 2. These figures depict the

cumulative distributions of exporters over the number of buyers for each country in our sample as well as at different aggregation levels pooling across these countries, respectively. Figure 1 shows that single-buyer firms represent between 40% to 57% of exporters across the exporting countries in our sample and that these cumulative distribution functions are very similar across these countries. Figure 2 reveals that concentration is more pronounced at finer levels of disaggregation. More specifically, around 40% of the exporters sell to just one foreign buyer when all destination countries and products are pooled together. This percentage rises to around 60% for firm-destination combinations and to around 80% for firm-destination-product destination. The latter implies that 20% of these narrowly defined firm-market combinations correspond to cases with more than one buyer.

Introducing foreign buyers into the picture allows us to explore how firms with multiple buyers distribute their export sales across them. In order to do this, we plot the distribution of the share of the main or dominant buyer, i.e. the most important foreign buyer for each firm at the relevant aggregation level, in Figures 3 and 4. Consistently with our results on the distribution of the number of buyers, the cumulative distributions of exporters over the share of the main buyer indicate that this buyer accounts for a large fraction, and sometimes for the whole foreign sales of a relatively large number of exporters in all three countries (Figure 3), especially at the firm-destination and firm-destination-product levels (Figure 4). Even for the exporting firms with several buyers, their main buyer plays an important role: for exporters in the top decile in terms of the number of foreign buyers -which have more than 12 of them-, the average share of their main buyer ranges between 32% and 40%.

2.2 Multi-Buyer Exporters

While single-buyer exporters are an overwhelming majority of the total number of exporters, the few firms that sell several products to several buyers in several destinations account for large shares of aggregate exports. This can be seen comparing the percentage of exporters and aggregate exports (Figure 5) - from Costa Rica, Ecuador, and Uruguay - that are accounted for by either single-buyer or multi-buyer exporters. The percentage share of exporters that have multiple buyers never exceed 30%, whereas the fraction of exporters that have a single single can reach almost 80% (Figure 5). In contrast, the percentage share of single-buyer exporters in aggregate foreign sales is always below 20%, whereas that of multi-buyer exporters an reach almost 90% (Figure 5). In short, multi-buyers firms account for a small fraction of the number of exporters but a large fraction of aggregate exports.

This dominance of multi-buyer exporters can be assessed more precisely by regressing firms' total exports on a binary indicator that takes the value of 1 if the exporter is multi-buyer in at least one product-destination combination and 0 otherwise along with extensive margin variables (i.e. the numbers of destination-product combinations and buyers) and different sets of fixed effects as controls.

This binary indicator captures the conditional ‘export premium’ of being multi-buyer. The estimation results are reported in Table 4. The estimated coefficient on the multi-buyer indicator is positive and significant and similar across our exporting countries, both in the cross section (2005) and when pooling over our sample years (2005-2008). Specifically, in the first case, the estimate implies that multi-buyer firms export between 70% and 165% more than single-buyer firms. This multi-buyer export premium is remarkable given that we control for the number of markets and the number of buyers that firms serve in the estimation. In the second case, the estimate suggests that exports of multi-buyer firms grow on average 13% more than those of their single-buyer counterparts.¹¹

3 A Model of Multi-Buyer Exporters

Explaining the evidence presented in the previous section calls for a model that features heterogeneous multi-product sellers serving heterogeneous buyers in various destination countries. In order to better highlight the interaction between sellers’ and buyers’ heterogeneity, we start presenting the conceptual framework in closed economy. We will then extend it to the open economy where also countries’ heterogeneity will come into play.

3.1 Buyer Heterogeneity

There are L consumers with preferences defined over a homogeneous good and a continuum of horizontally differentiated *varieties* indexed by $i \in I$. Each consumer is endowed with a unit of labor that she inelastically supplies to the market so that L represents not only the mass of consumers but also total labor supplied. Each consumer is also endowed with \bar{y} units of the homogeneous good. Each variety comes itself in *versions* with different characteristics and consumers differ in terms of their tastes for these versions.

Taste heterogeneity across consumers is introduced by assuming that a variety’s versions can be described as points (‘addresses’) in a characteristics space. Each consumer has an ‘ideal’ version of the variety and derives utility only from the consumption of that version. Hence, if her ideal version is not available, the consumer does not demand the variety at all. The consumer’s tastes are then defined by the set of ideal versions she demands of the different varieties. Specifically, we consider a consumer z whose set of ideal versions is $I_z \subset I$. Her utility

¹¹Additional tables reporting our estimates of the multi-buyer premium when controlling separately for the number of products and the number of destinations (instead of the number of product-destination pairs) as well as those obtained when changing the level of aggregation to firm-country are available from the authors’ upon request. In these tables the multi-buyer premium remains positive and significant and qualitatively similar to the estimates in Table 4. These tables are also available upon request.

function is given by

$$U_z = y_z + \alpha \int_{i \in I_z} q_z(i) di - \frac{\gamma}{2} \int_{i \in I_z} [q_z(i)]^2 di - \frac{\eta}{2} \left[\int_{i \in I_z} q_z(i) di \right]^2 \quad (1)$$

where y_z is consumption of the homogeneous good, $q_z(i)$ is consumption of a variety i with a version in I_z , $\gamma > 0$ measures ‘love for variety’, $\alpha > 0$ and $\eta > 0$ measure the preference for the differentiated good with respect to the homogeneous good. The initial endowment \bar{y} of the homogeneous good is assumed to be large enough for its equilibrium consumption to be strictly positive.

The characteristics space of a variety’s versions is assumed to be represented by a circle C with each point along C corresponding to the ideal version (‘address’) of some consumer. The circle has circumference 1 and consumers are uniformly distributed around it so that there are L consumers sharing any given ideal version. Versions are indexed in a clockwise manner starting from noon and arranged across varieties so that consumer z ’s ideal version of any variety is indexed z with $z \in [0, 1]$. The right hand panel of Figure 6 provides a visual representation of the characteristics space C_i for a given variety i with version z indexed clockwise from noon 0 to midnight 1. The left hand panel provides, instead, a visual representation of the entire product space I , emphasizing varieties h , i and j , each with its own circular characteristics space, as well as consumer z ’s address and ideal set I_z .¹²

3.2 Seller Heterogeneity

Labor is the only input. It can be employed in the production of the homogeneous good by a perfectly competitive sector facing constant returns to scale with unit labor requirement equal to 1. This good is chosen as numeraire and its price is set to one by choice of units. The assumptions on technology and market structure then imply that also the wage is equal to 1.

Labor can also be employed in the production of the differentiated varieties by a monopolistically competitive sector. In this sector there is a large mass of potential entrants. Each of them can produce multiple varieties and multiple versions of these varieties but it has first to develop a ‘core version’ of a ‘core variety’ together with its production process. This requires sinking an entry cost f targeted at a specific address z of a specific variety i in the characteristics space, i.e. at a specific point $(i, z) \in I$. Only after sinking this cost, the entrant discovers the marginal cost c associated with the core version z of its core variety i . This cost is determined as the realization of a random draw from a continuous distribution with cumulative density

¹²As Helpman (1981) we model the direct interaction between heterogenous consumers and heterogenous final producers. A similar logic can be extended to the case in which the interaction between heterogenous consumers and heterogenous final producers is mediated by intermediaries. See Helpman (1985) for additional details.

$$G(c) = \left(\frac{c}{c_M}\right)^k, \quad c \in [0, c_M] \quad (2)$$

This corresponds to the case in which marginal productivity $1/c$ is Pareto distributed with shape parameter $k \geq 1$ over the support $[1/c_M, \infty)$.¹³ As k rises, density is skewed towards the upper bound of the support c_M .

The marginal cost draw c for the core version of its core variety defines the entrant's 'core competence'. However, once c has been drawn, the entrant may also decide to offer a countable set of non-core varieties as well as countable sets of non-core versions of its core and non-core varieties.¹⁴ This faces, however, additional costs as it draws the entrant away from its core competence. The ensuing loss of efficiency is modelled in terms of a 'competence ladder'. Specifically, let $n = \{0, \dots, \infty\}$ index the countable varieties the entrant may decide to produce in increasing order of distance from its core variety (indexed $n = 0$) in the product space I . Then, let $m \in [0, 1]$ index the versions of a variety the entrant may decide to produce in increasing order of their clockwise arc distance from the core version along the circle C , with $m = 0$ denoting the core version and $m = 1$ denoting the farthest version away from the core one.¹⁵ Finally, let $v^n(m, c)$ denote the marginal cost of version m of variety n for the entrant with core marginal cost c . Falling efficiency as the entrant moves away from its core competence can be captured by assuming that $v^n(m, c)$ is an increasing function of both n and m . For analytical convenience, we assume $v^n(m, c) = e^{\omega n + \vartheta m} c$ where $\omega > 0$ and $\vartheta > 0$ respectively measure the difficulty of introducing additional varieties and versions of these varieties as the entrant moves away from its core competence. We will refer to ω as the 'proliferation cost' associated with broadening the range of varieties and to ϑ as the 'adaptation cost' associated with broadening the range of versions.¹⁶

3.3 Seller Selection

The assumptions on preferences and technology imply that the equilibrium of the model is symmetric in that at all addresses in the characteristics space all entrants

¹³The distributional assumption (2) yields, up to an additive shift, a Pareto distribution for firm size and product sales that fits empirical patterns well. See Mayer, Melitz and Ottaviano (2014).

¹⁴Countability implies that the entrant may produce only a zero-measure subset of varieties. As in Mayer, Melitz and Ottaviano (2014), this is imposed to remove cannibalization among varieties as well as strategic interaction among entrants, thus preserving a monopolistically competitive environment no matter how many varieties each entrant produces.

¹⁵Although m is a continuous variable, cannibalization is not an issue within variety as its different versions do not compete for the same consumers (who demand only their ideal version). See Dhingra (2012) for a study of cannibalization effects in a demand system similar to ours. The implications of abstracting from those effects are also discussed in Mayer et al (2014).

¹⁶The model embeds Mayer et al (2014) when ϑ goes to infinity and serving non-core customers bears no differential cost. It also embeds Melitz and Ottaviano (2008) when, in addition, ω goes to infinity and producing non-core products is prohibitively expensive.

and producers face the same demand conditions, and all consumers face the same supply conditions.¹⁷ There are, however, differences across consumers in terms of the specific versions they consume of the available varieties, and difference across producers in terms of the varieties and versions they supply.

Specifically, on the demand side, due to symmetry the measure of the set I_z of varieties available at any given address z is the same for every $z \in [0, 1]$ and we denote this common measure by N . Utility maximization then implies that also the inverse demand of a variety i is the same at all addresses $z \in [0, 1]$ and equals

$$p(i) = \alpha - \gamma q(i) - \eta Q \quad (3)$$

where $q(i)$ is the quantity demanded of variety i , $p(i)$ is its price, and $Q = \int_0^N q(i) di$ is the total quantity demanded of all varieties at any given address. As there are L consumers at each address, their combined demand is

$$Q(i) = Lq(i) = L \left[\frac{\alpha}{\eta N + \gamma} - \frac{p(i)}{\gamma} + \frac{\eta N}{\eta N + \gamma} \bar{p} \right] \quad (4)$$

where $\bar{p} = (1/N) \int_0^N p(i) di$ is the average price of all varieties available at any given address. For variety i to be demanded at all at any given address, price must be low enough to satisfy

$$p(i) \leq \frac{1}{\eta N + \gamma} (\gamma \alpha + \eta N \bar{p}) \equiv p_{\max} \quad (5)$$

where $p_{\max} \leq \alpha$ represents the price level at which demand (4) at the address is driven to zero ('choke price'). Lower p_{\max} implies higher price elasticity of demand and this may be driven by a larger measure ('number') of varieties available at the address or by their lower average price \bar{p} .

On the supply side, the profit an entrant with core marginal cost c earns from version m of its variety n is then maximized for output level equal to

$$q^n(m, c) = \frac{L}{2\gamma} (p_{\max} - e^{\omega n + \vartheta m} c) \quad (6)$$

with corresponding price, markup, revenue and profit

$$p^n(m, c) = \frac{1}{2} (p_{\max} + e^{\omega n + \vartheta m} c) \quad (7)$$

$$\mu^n(m, c) = \frac{1}{2} (p_{\max} - e^{\omega n + \vartheta m} c) \quad (8)$$

$$r^n(m, c) = \frac{L}{4\gamma} \left[(p_{\max})^2 - (e^{\omega n + \vartheta m} c)^2 \right] \quad (9)$$

¹⁷We impose symmetry early on to streamline the presentation. A detailed discussion of how symmetry emerges in equilibrium can be found in Carballo et al (2013).

$$\pi^n(m, c) = \frac{L}{4\gamma} (p_{\max} - e^{\omega n + \vartheta m} c)^2 \quad (10)$$

The entrant will produce at all only if it can make non-negative profit at least on the core version of its core variety ($m = n = 0$). Given (10), this is the case if and only if $ce^{\omega n + \vartheta m} \leq p_{\max}$ for $n = m = 0$, i.e. if and only if $c \leq p_{\max}$. Accordingly, the ‘choke price’ (5) determines a threshold that the core marginal cost c must not exceed for the firm to be able to sell at least the core version of its core variety. We call this threshold the ‘cutoff cost’ and we denote it by c_D . We then have $c_D = p_{\max}$ and thus

$$c_D = \frac{1}{\eta N + \gamma} (\gamma \alpha + \eta N \bar{p}) \quad (11)$$

where we have used the definition in (5). By (11), the cutoff cost at any given address decreases with the number of varieties available at the address while it increases with their average price.

3.4 Buyer Range and Buyer Mix

As long as its core marginal cost c does not exceed c_D , the entrant may also decide to supply additional non-core varieties (indexed $n > 0$). However, it will supply only those from which non-negative profit can be earned at least on their core version (indexed $m = 0$). Given (10), these are varieties such that $n \leq n(c)$ where

$$n(c) = \max \{n \mid ce^{\omega n} \leq c_D\} + 1 \quad (12)$$

is the entrant’s ‘product range’. By (12), the product range decreases with the adaptation cost ω while it increases with the cutoff cost c_D . It also decreases with the firm’s core marginal cost c so that lower cost producers have a wider product range.

Of the varieties in this product range the firm will again produce only versions generating non-negative profit. For a given $n \leq n(c)$, (10) implies that these are versions such that $m \leq m(c, n)$ where

$$m(c, n) = \frac{1}{\vartheta} \left[\ln \left(\frac{c_D}{c} \right) - \omega n \right] \quad (13)$$

is the variety’s ‘buyer range’. By (13), for a given variety, the buyer range decreases with the proliferation cost ω and the adaptation cost ϑ while it increases with the cutoff cost c_D . It also decreases with the core marginal cost c and distance n from the core so that lower cost producers and, for each producer, varieties closer to the core have a wider buyer range.

Analogously, we call ‘product mix’ and ‘buyer mix’ of a producer the distributions of performance measures across its product and buyer ranges respectively. Due to the ‘competence ladder’, these distributions are not uniform. In particular, results (6)-(10) imply that lower marginal cost $e^{\omega n + \vartheta m} c$ is associated

with lower price as well as larger output, revenue, markup and profit. Hence, lower cost producers (lower c) quote lower prices, command larger markups, and achieve larger output, revenue and profit for the core version of the core variety ($m = n = 0$). Moreover, for any producer, version m is cheaper, sells more and is more profitable for varieties closer to the core variety (lower n). Lastly, for variety n of any producer, versions closer to the core version (lower m) are cheaper, sell more and are more profitable. This generates a ranking in performance across a producer's varieties and the versions of each variety it supplies, which maps into a ranking of customers whereby 'core buyers' (who purchase core versions of core varieties) absorb more output, account for larger revenue and generate more profit for the producer than non-core buyers. These differences between buyers are larger when the core cutoff cost is smaller as (6), (9) and (10) imply that $q^n(m, c)/q^n(m', c)$, $r^n(m, c)/r^n(m', c)$ and $\pi^n(m, c)/\pi^n(m', c)$ are decreasing functions of c_D for $m < m'$ and given n : the negative impact of tougher competition on output, revenue and profit is less severe for versions closer to the producer's core competence. Analogously, for given m , the negative impact of tougher competition (smaller c_D) on output, revenue and profit is less severe for varieties closer to the producer's core competence.

A final implication of results (6), (9), (10), (12) and (13) is that lower cost producers (lower c) are bigger in terms of output, larger in terms of revenue, more profitable, and have richer product and buyer ranges.

3.5 Free Entry Equilibrium

Due to free entry, in equilibrium the expected profit for an entrant at any address has to match the sunk entry cost. Due to symmetry, this requires

$$\sum_{n=0}^{\infty} \left\{ \int_0^1 \left[\int_0^{c_D e^{-\omega n - \vartheta m}} \pi^n(m, c) dG(c) \right] dm \right\} = f \quad (14)$$

where, anticipating the cost cutoff c_D , the term between square brackets is the (ex ante) profit an entrant expects to earn on version m of variety n ; the terms between curly brackets is the (ex ante) profit an entrant expects to earn on all versions of variety n ; and the outer integral gives the (ex ante) profit an entrant expects to make from all versions of all varieties. Due to the law of large numbers, these (ex ante) expected values equal the (ex post) average realizations.

Given (2) and (10), equation (14) can be solved for the unique equilibrium core cutoff cost value

$$c_D^* \equiv \left(\Theta \frac{\gamma \Phi}{L \Omega} \right)^{\frac{1}{k+2}} \quad (15)$$

with

$$\Phi \equiv 2(k+2)(k+1)(c_M)^k f, \quad \Theta \equiv \frac{1 - e^{-k\vartheta}}{k\vartheta}, \quad \Omega \equiv \frac{1}{1 - e^{-k\omega}}$$

These bundling parameters can be interpreted as follows. As it increases with the entry cost f and the highest possible marginal cost draw c_M , $\Phi > 0$ measures the

technological barriers to efficient entry. As it decreases in the proliferation cost ω , $\Omega \geq 1$ measures the ease of proliferation through the introduction of non-core varieties. In equilibrium the average number of varieties per producer equals Ω . As it decreases in the adaptation cost ϑ , $\Theta \in (0, 1)$ measures the ease of adaptation through customized non-core versions of any given variety. In equilibrium the average share of consumers per variety equals Θ .¹⁸ Expression (15) then shows that higher entry barriers as well as higher proliferation and adaptation costs increase the equilibrium cost cutoff c_D^* whereas larger market size (higher L) and stronger ‘love of variety’ (lower γ) reduce c_D^* .¹⁹

Note that, when adaptation is costless ($\vartheta = 0$), consumer heterogeneity is immaterial ($\Theta = 1$) and (15) becomes the cutoff cost expression in the multi-product firm model by Mayer et al (2014). When, in addition, the introduction of non-core varieties is prohibitively costly (infinite ω), producers supply only core products ($\Omega = 1$) and (15) boils down to the analogous expression in the single-product model by Melitz and Ottaviano (2008). For infinite ω and positive ϑ , consumer heterogeneity is not immaterial but only single-product firms are active and only some of them sell to all consumers.²⁰

To complete the characterization of the equilibrium, we also have to determine the number of producers N that sell to any given consumer. By symmetry, this is also the number of producers whose core competence coincides with the consumer’s address in the characteristics space. To determine N , we use $G_D^n(m, c) \equiv G(c)/G(c_D e^{-\omega n - \vartheta m})$ to denote the conditional core marginal cost distribution of producers having the core version of their variety n at distance m from the consumer’s ideal version of that variety:

$$G_D^n(m, c) = [c / (c_D e^{-\omega n - \vartheta m})]^k .$$

Then (7) can be used together with $p_{\max} = c_D$ to write the price of the consumer’s ideal version bought from one of those producers as

$$p^n(m, c) = \frac{1}{2} (c_D + e^{\omega n + \vartheta m} c) .$$

The average price the consumer pays can thus be rewritten as

$$\bar{p} \equiv \int_0^1 \left[\int_0^{c_D e^{-\omega n - \vartheta m}} p^n(m, c) dG_D^n(m, c) \right] dm = \frac{2k + 1}{2(k + 1)} c_D$$

which, due to symmetry, is the same for all varieties. Finally, substituting this result in (5) together with $p_{\max} = c_D$ allows us to solve the resulting equation for

¹⁸From this viewpoint, in the terminology of Arkolakis (2010) Θ would be called average ‘market penetration’.

¹⁹ Ω and Θ also decrease in k . As with larger k firms with high marginal production costs become more frequent, both the average number of varieties per firm and the average share of consumers per variety fall.

²⁰Even a small cost of adaptation is enough to prevent some firms (the least productive ones) from serving all consumers: $\Theta < 1$ for $\vartheta > 0$.

the number of sellers per consumer, which in equilibrium becomes

$$N^* = \frac{2(k+1)\gamma}{\eta} \frac{\alpha - c_D^*}{c_D^*} \quad (16)$$

This is also the equilibrium number of producers with core competence coinciding with any consumer's address in the characteristics space while the associated number of entrants is $N_E^* = G(c_D^*)N^* = (c_D^*/c_M)^k N^*$.

Finally, the unique equilibrium core cutoff cost (15) also uniquely determines welfare as measure by indirect utility

$$U^* = 1 + \frac{1}{2\eta} (\alpha - c_D^*) \left(\alpha - \frac{k+1}{k+2} c_D^* \right) \quad (17)$$

As this is a decreasing function of c_D^* , a reduction in the equilibrium core cutoff cost leads to higher welfare. This is due to lower price as lower cutoff cost prevents higher cost firms from selling and forces firms that eventually sell to retrench towards their core competence. The resulting tougher selection of sellers, products and buyers allows for savings in terms of proliferation costs and also adaptation costs as the average distance between buyers' and firms' addresses is smaller.

3.6 Open Economy

In the open economy consumers have different addresses not only in the characteristics space but also in the geographical space. Specifically, consider an arbitrary number of countries, indexed $l = 1, \dots, J$, each of them replicating the structure of the closed economy discussed so far. Countries differ in terms of size and geography. We use L_l to denote the population ('size') of country l and $\tau_{hl} > 1$ to denote the 'iceberg' trade cost for exports from country h to country l . Internal trade is, instead, free ($\tau_{ll} = 1$). This implies that, for a producer in country h with core marginal cost c , the *delivered* marginal cost of selling version m of variety n to a consumer in country l is $\tau_{hl} e^{\omega n + \vartheta m} c$.

Exploiting again within-country symmetry, let p_l denote the price threshold for positive demand by any consumer in country l . Then, the 'choke price' for the consumer is

$$p_l = \frac{1}{\eta N_l + \gamma} (\gamma \alpha + \eta N_l \bar{p}_l), \quad (18)$$

where N_l is the number of (domestic and foreign) sellers to the consumer in country l while \bar{p}_l is their average (delivered) price. Assuming market segmentation, the profit a producer in country h makes by selling version m of variety n to consumers in country l is

$$\pi_{hl}^n(m, c) = \frac{L_l}{4\gamma} (c_{hl} - e^{\omega n + \vartheta m} c)^2, \quad (19)$$

where $c_{hl} = p_l/\tau_{hl}$ is the cost cutoff for positive sales from h to l . As the producer sells only if profit is non-negative, its product range in country l is

$$n_{hl}(c) = \max \{n \mid \tau_{hl}e^{\omega n}c \leq c_{ll}\} + 1$$

where, due to free internal trade, $c_{ll} = p_l$ is the cost cutoff for domestic sales in country l . Analogously, its buyer range in country l is

$$m_{hl}(c, n) = \frac{1}{\vartheta} \left[\ln \left(\frac{c_{ll}}{\tau_{hl}c} \right) - \omega n \right].$$

Hence, both the product range and the buyer range are decreasing functions of the trade cost. This implies that, all the rest given, only producers with low enough core marginal cost export, supplying more varieties and serving more consumers in the domestic than in the export markets.

Also the product mix and the buyer mix are affected by the trade cost. Output sold and associated revenue for version m of variety n evaluate to

$$q_{hl}^n(m, c) = \frac{L_l}{2\gamma} (c_{ll} - \tau_{hl}e^{\omega n + \vartheta m}c) \quad (20)$$

and

$$r_{hl}^n(m, c) = \frac{L_l}{4\gamma} \left[(c_{ll})^2 - (\tau_{hl}e^{\omega n + \vartheta m}c)^2 \right] \quad (21)$$

respectively while profit equals

$$\pi_{hl}^n(m, c) = \frac{L_l}{4\gamma} (c_{ll} - \tau_{hl}e^{\omega n + \vartheta m}c)^2$$

As these expressions decrease as c_{ll} decreases and at a faster rate for larger n and m , ceteris paribus both the product mix and the buyer mix are more skewed in countries with lower domestic cutoff cost. As in the closed economy, the negative impact of tougher competition on output, revenue and profit is less severe for varieties and versions closer to the producer's core competence.

Due to free entry, expected profits of entrants have to be zero in equilibrium. Given (2) and (19), this implies

$$\sum_{l=1}^J \rho_{hl} L_l c_{ll}^{k+2} = \Theta \frac{\gamma \Phi}{\Omega} \quad h = 1, \dots, J. \quad (22)$$

where $\rho_{hl} \equiv \tau_{hl}^{-k} < 1$ is a measure of the 'freeness' of trade from country h to country l that varies inversely with the trade cost τ_{hl} . The free entry conditions (22) yield a system of J equations that can be solved for the equilibrium domestic cutoff costs in the J countries using Cramer's rule. The resulting equilibrium domestic cutoff for country l is

$$c_{ll}^* \equiv \left(\Theta \frac{\gamma \phi}{L_l \Omega} \frac{\sum_{h=1}^J |C_{hl}|}{|\mathcal{P}|} \right)^{\frac{1}{k+2}} \quad (23)$$

where $|\mathcal{P}|$ is the determinant of the trade freeness matrix

$$\mathcal{P} \equiv \begin{pmatrix} 1 & \rho_{12} & \cdots & \rho_{1M} \\ \rho_{21} & 1 & \cdots & \rho_{2M} \\ \vdots & \vdots & \ddots & \vdots \\ \rho_{M1} & \rho_{M2} & \cdots & 1 \end{pmatrix}$$

and $|C_{hl}|$ is the cofactor of its ρ_{hl} element. Expression (23) shows that, as in the closed economy, domestic cutoffs are determined by local market size: ceteris paribus the domestic cutoff cost is lower in a larger country. However, cross-country differences in cutoffs also arise from differences in $\sum_{h=1}^J |C_{hl}| / |\mathcal{P}|$, which is an inverse measure of geographical centrality ('market accessibility'). Thus, ceteris paribus central countries have lower domestic cutoff cost.²¹ For sellers, lower cutoff cost leads to more skewed product and buyer mix.

As in the closed economy, (18) can be used to relate the core cutoff cost with the mass of variants sold to each consumer in country l :

$$N_l^* = \frac{2(k+1)\gamma}{\eta} \frac{\alpha - c_{il}^*}{c_{il}^*}. \quad (24)$$

Then, given a positive mass of entrants $N_{E,h}^*$ in country h , there will be $N_{hl}^* = G(c_{hl}^*)N_{E,h}^* = G(c_{il}^*/\tau_{hl})N_{E,h}^*$ producers in h selling on average Ω varieties to a fraction Θ of consumers in country l . Once the domestic cost cutoff and the number of sellers in each country are obtained from (23) and (24) respectively, the corresponding mass of entrants can be found solving the system $N_l^* = \sum_{h=1}^J N_{hl}^*$ for $h = 1, \dots, J$.

Finally, the domestic cutoff in each country also uniquely determines its welfare as measured by indirect utility

$$U_l^* = 1 + \frac{1}{2\eta} (\alpha - c_{il}^*) \left(\alpha - \frac{k+1}{k+2} c_{il}^* \right) \quad (25)$$

As U_l^* is a decreasing function of c_{il}^* , central countries benefiting from a large local market enjoy higher welfare than peripheral countries with a small local market. As in the closed economy, welfare gains arise from lower price as lower cutoff cost prevents higher cost firms from selling and forces the remaining sellers to refocus on their core competence. Tougher selection of sellers, products and buyers saves on proliferation and adaptation costs as the average distance between buyers' and firms' addresses falls.

4 Toughness of Competition and Sales Concentration: Empirical Evidence

The model developed in the previous section is consistent with the empirical findings highlighted in Section 2. It also generates additional predictions on how the

²¹When trade costs are prohibitively large, (23) boils down to the closed economy result (15).

importance of dominant buyers is affected by the toughness of competition in the destination countries. In this section we precisely estimate these relationships, thereby contrasting such implications of our theoretical model with the data.

4.1 Linking Theory and Empirics

In order to evaluate whether the relationships between toughness of competition and sales concentration uncovered in the model are present in the data, we first need to be more precise about these relationships. To do this, first consider a variety n exported from country h to country l by a firm with core marginal cost c and two buyers of the variety in country l with ‘addresses’ m and $m' > m$ so that the former buyer is closer to the firm’s core competence. By (21), the export sales ratio between the two buyers is

$$\frac{r_{hl}^n(m, c)}{r_{hl}^n(m', c)} = \frac{x^2 - (\tau y)^2}{x^2 - (\tau z)^2} = \frac{(c_U)^2 - (\tau_{hl} e^{\omega n + \vartheta m} c)^2}{(c_U)^2 - (\tau_{hl} e^{\omega n + \vartheta m'} c)^2} > 1 \quad (26)$$

as the exporter raises more revenue from the core buyer than from the non-core buyer. Moreover, the elasticity of the export sales ratio to the cutoff cost evaluates to

$$\frac{\partial \ln \left(\frac{r_{hl}^n(m, c)}{r_{hl}^n(m', c)} \right)}{\partial \ln c_U} = - \frac{2 (c_U \tau_{hl} e^{\omega n} c)^2 (e^{2\vartheta m'} - e^{2\vartheta m})}{\prod_{m \in \{m, m'\}} [(c_U)^2 - (\tau_{hl} e^{\omega n + \vartheta m} c)^2]} < 0 \quad (27)$$

where the sign is granted by $m < m'$. Accordingly, tougher competition (lower c_U) raises the export sales ratio.²²

As (27) holds for any m and any $m' > m$, it has several parallel implications for the exporter’s buyer mix that we can test with our data at the exporter-product-country level. First, if m is the main buyer and m' is any other buyer, then (27) implies that tougher competition increases the dominant or main buyer’s sales share. Second, if m is the most important buyer and m' is the least important one, then (27) implies that tougher competition increases the export sales ratio between these two buyers. Third, if m and m' map all buyers, then (27) implies that tougher competition increases the concentration and the coefficient of variation export sales across buyers. Hence (27) provides us with several testable implications regarding the relationship between the toughness of competition and the share of the dominant buyer, and, more generally, with the sales concentration. Moreover, these variables related to the sales distribution across buyers can be easily computed from our data.

The main challenge in testing these predictions is how to capture the ‘toughness of competition’ across destination countries. To tackle this issue we rely on

²²We prefer not to emphasize the effect of trade barriers/enhancers τ_{hl} on the buyer mix of exporters as this comparative statics result is very sensitive to the specification for the trade cost across different versions of the same variety. Mayer et al. (2014) make the same point with respect to core and non-core varieties.

the model’s association of lower c_{li} with larger market size and better market accessibility. Then, as our model embeds Mayer et al (2014) as a special case, we can follow their strategy proxying market size by GDP and market accessibility in two ways. On one hand, for each exporter we use the number of firms from our three countries that export the same HS2-product to the same destination of the exporter. On the other hand, we use ‘freeness of trade’ with the destination as measured by a country-HS2-level indicator. This indicator corresponds to the contribution of the barriers/enhancers of trade as obtained by estimating a standard gravity equation (in logs) with both exporter and importer fixed effects using worldwide bilateral trade data at the HS2 digit-level and purging the trade flows from these fixed effects. In the robustness section, we consider alternative measures of toughness of competition.

Econometrically, we test our hypothesis of the positive relationship between toughness of competition and concentration in the sales by estimating the following specification:

$$\begin{aligned} \ln \text{concentration}_{iknhl}(t) = & \beta_1 \ln \text{toughness of competition}_{kl}(t) & (28) \\ & + \beta_2 \text{trade costs}_{hl} + \lambda_{in}(t) + \varepsilon_{inhl}(t) \end{aligned}$$

where i indexes the firm; h and l are the origin and destination country, respectively; n is the product and k is the industry; and t denotes the year. Note that we introduce firm-product-year fixed effects through λ_{int} in order to control for time-varying unobserved factors such as firm productivity and firm-product competences.

We choose the share of the main buyer for firm i in destination l and product n as our baseline measure of the skewness of the buyer mix. We do so because this measure exists for the entire support of the distribution of the number of buyers. In contrast, some of the other potential measures, such as the ratio of the sales to the main buyer to the sales to other buyers, are only computable for those flows with more than one buyer. Moreover, we normalize the share of the main buyer with the share that each buyer would have if export sales were evenly distributed across all buyers. The reason is that this normalized measure captures that the same main buyer share implies different degrees of concentration depending on the firms’ number of buyers. Hence the minimum value for the normalized share of the main buyer is now one when the firm has only one buyer. Figure 7 presents non-parametric estimates of the distribution of the main buyer share normalized in logs, both for each exporting country and when pooling them together. This figure highlights, as expected, the concentration of firms’ exports with a unique buyer and, in addition, the similarity of these distributions across our sample countries.

As mentioned above, our baseline measures of toughness of competition are GDP in destination l , freeness of trade in industry k in destination l , and number of exporters from our sample countries in industry k in destination l . Based on our testable implications, we expect that these measures of toughness of competition have a positive impact on the normalized main buyer share. Finally, we

proxy trade costs by standard gravity variables such as distance and indicators of contiguity and trade agreements between pairs of countries.

4.2 Results

Table 5 shows estimates of (28), using the normalized main buyer shares as dependent variable and the baseline measures of toughness of competition as main explanatory variables, obtained on pooled export flows from Costa Rica, Ecuador and Uruguay over the period 2005-2008.²³ In all specifications, we include firm-product-year fixed effects to account for firm-product factors that vary over time and we clustered standard errors at firm-country-product. In Column (1) only the three key covariates are considered: GDP, number of exporters and freeness of trade. All estimated coefficients are highly significant and have the predicted positive sign. In Column (2) we introduce GDP per capita to control for taste differences across countries tied to product quality and consumer income. The estimated coefficient on this new variable is not statistically significant and those of GDP, number of exporters, and freeness of trade are unaffected. In Column (3) we include the battery of bilateral gravity controls and drop freeness of trade to avoid collinearity. The estimated coefficients on GDP remains positive and significant. Thus, the results reported in Table 5 provide empirical support to the testable predictions derived from our theoretical model.

Next, we exploit that we have data for three different countries to evaluate these predictions in each of them. Table 6 presents the results from these exporting country-specific estimations. These results indicate that toughness of competition has a positive and significant effect on sales concentration in each of our sample countries. There is some heterogeneity in the impact of toughness of competition across countries, though. Freeness of trade has the strongest impact in Uruguay, while the number of exporters has the largest effect in Costa Rica.

In Table 7 we estimate variants of Equation (28) that incorporate different sets of conditioning fixed effects. Our more demanding specification includes firm-product-year and origin-destination-year fixed effects, which allows us to control not only for time-varying firm-product factors but also for time-varying origin-destination factors such as average transport costs or tariffs. In all specifications, toughness of competition, as measured by GDP, freeness of trade, and number of exporters, has a positive effect on the normalized main buyer share, even under the most demanding set of fixed effects. Note that (origin-)destination-year fixed effects directly absorb the influence of several of the covariates that belong to initial specification including GDP, distance, contiguity, and trade agreements.

In addition, we re-estimate our baseline specification using alternative clustering of standard errors to account for potential correlation across different dimensions in our data. In particular, we cluster standard errors by firm-destination,

²³Results are qualitatively the same when we use the non-normalized share. They are also qualitatively similar when we use the share of the dominant buyer rather than its log. These results are available from the authors upon request.

firm, destination-year, and destination. The results of these alternative specifications are reported in Table 8. These results corroborate that toughness of competition has a positive and significant effect on the normalized main buyer share. To summarize, our theoretical model predicts that firms will concentrate their sales on their main buyer as competition increases. This prediction finds empirical support when toughness of competition is captured through GDP, freeness of trade, and number of exporters.

4.3 Robustness

In this subsection, we further evaluate this testable implication by performing several exercises that check the robustness of our results to changes in our estimation strategy. First, we consider alternative measures of toughness of competition. In our baseline specification, we proxy toughness of competition using GDP, the number of exporters in a given destination-HS 2 digit combination, and freeness of trade. Here we use six different variants of the latter: (i) the number of sourcing countries in the each destination-HS 6 digit product combination; (ii) the number of exporters of our sample countries, Costa Rica, Ecuador, and Uruguay, in each destination-HS 6 digit product combination; (iii) the number of exporters of Chile, Colombia, and Mexico, in each destination-HS 2 digit product combination, as computed from official customs data obtained for those countries; (iv) the number of exporters of Chile, Colombia, and Mexico, in each destination-HS 6 digit product combination; (v) the number of exporters of Chile, Colombia, Costa Rica, Ecuador, Mexico, and Uruguay, in each destination-HS 2 digit product combination; and (vi) the number of exporters of Chile, Colombia, Costa Rica, Ecuador, Mexico, and Uruguay, in each destination-HS 6 digit product combination. The results of re-estimating Equation (28) with these alternative competition indicators are presented in Columns (1) and (2) to (7) of Table 9, respectively. All these results confirm our main finding that tougher competition is associated with a higher concentration of sales across buyers.

Second, we consider alternative measures of the sales concentration. Based on our discussion in Sub-section 4.1., some natural different concentration measures are: the export sales ratio of the most important buyer to the least important buyer (B1/BL); the Herfindahl Index of export sales' concentration (HI), and the coefficient of variation of export sales (CV). Table 10 reports estimates of (28) when using these three alternative dependent variables. As expected, these estimation results confirm that toughness of competition leads to more concentration of sales towards the main buyer.

Third, so far we estimated impact of toughness of competition on the concentration of sales' values. However, using Equation (20), we can show that $\partial \ln \left(\frac{q_{hi}^n(m,c)}{q_{hi}^n(m',c)} \right) / \partial \ln c_{li} < 0$ where m correspond to the core buyer, so that the same relationship should also hold in terms of quantities. Thus, toughness of competition should have a positive effect on total quantity concentration. Accordingly, we re-estimate our baseline specification and variants thereof based on

the alternative concentration measures using quantity sold instead of their values. Table 11 reports these estimation results, which suggest that competition is also associated with increased concentration when this is measured in terms of quantities.

Fourth, another legitimate concern would be that some of our results are driven by other factors that affect the distribution of sales across buyers such as vertical integration among firms, trade intermediaries, or flows that have only one buyer, among others. We therefore proceed to re-estimate Equation (28) on samples that (i) exclude export flows that correspond to vertically integrated firms as identified using information from the WorldBase dataset (see Alfaro and Cheng , 2012); (ii) exclude products for which intermediaries are more prevalent as determined based on data from Ahn et al (2011) (i.e., products with share of intermediaries above the median are dropped); and (iii) exclude export flows with a single buyer. The results of estimating our main specification in these alternative samples are presented in Table 12. Estimates confirm that toughness of competition increases the normalized main buyer share even after removing observations affected by those potential issues. As a last step, we combine all these restrictions on our sample. Also in this case, toughness of competition has positive and significant effect on sales concentration.

Finally, results are also similar when: we change the aggregation level to firm-destination instead of firm-destination-product; we exclude flows associated with trade on capital and intermediate goods and with trade on consumer goods; and we include country-year random effects to control for within destination-correlation (Wooldridge, 2006).²⁴

5 Conclusion

We have used detailed data on exporters from Costa Rica, Ecuador and Uruguay as well as on their buyers to show that aggregate exports are disproportionately driven by few multi-buyers exporters whose foreign sales of any product are in turn accounted for by few dominant buyers. We have then proposed an analytically solvable multi-country model of endogenous selection in which dominant exporters, dominant products and dominant buyers emerge in parallel as multi-product sellers with heterogeneous technologies (i.e., with different ‘core competences’ in specific product varieties and in specific versions of those varieties) compete for buyers with heterogeneous needs (i.e. with different ‘ideal versions’ of specific product varieties). We have shown that the model makes specific predictions on how the relative importance of dominant buyers should vary across export destinations depending on the toughness of their competitive environment as determined by market size and market accessibility. We have finally shown that our data provide empirical support to these predictions.

In addition to its positive predictions, our model has interesting normative

²⁴A set of tables with these robustness checks are available from the authors upon request.

implications. In particular, in the model tougher competition raises welfare as it allows for a better match between consumers' ideal versions and firms' core competences. To better understand how this welfare effect materializes, it is useful to compare our model with the one by Helpman (1981) when larger market size drives tougher competition. In Helpman's model there is no firm heterogeneity, there is only one differentiated product and consumers are continuously and uniformly distributed along the circle representing the characteristics space of that product. Due to increasing returns to scale, firms come in a discrete number, each supplying its unique version of the product. Hence, available versions occupy a zero measure subset of the circle, along which they are distributed at equidistant points. This implies that the probability a consumer finds a perfect match for her ideal version is zero and she has to make do with the closest available version, suffering a utility loss that increases with the distance of that version from her ideal one. However, as in a larger market there are more firms, the reciprocal distances between available versions are shorter and, thus, the average distance between a consumer's ideal version and the closest available version is shorter too. This reduces the average mismatch and the associated utility loss. Moreover, due to increasing returns, the larger market also offers lower prices for available variants. On both counts, average utility is higher in a larger market.²⁵

Differently, in our model a consumer demands several differentiated varieties, has an ideal version of each differentiated variety and does not consume any other version (i.e. the utility loss associated with the consumption of any non-ideal version is prohibitive). On the production side, firms are heterogeneous and each of them has its own core version of the varieties it supplies. This core version corresponds to the ideal version of some consumers and can also be transformed in the ideal versions of other consumers by paying an additional adaptation cost that increases with the distance between the firm's core version and those other consumers' ideal versions. As the market gets larger, more firms enter and produce. The resulting tougher competition forces producers to focus on their core versions. Consumers whose ideal versions were initially further away from the firms' core versions are not served anymore and the corresponding varieties disappear from their consumption baskets. This welfare loss in terms of product variety is, however, compensated by new varieties supplied by new firms. Due to within-product selection, the distance between the core and ideal versions of the new products is shorter than the distance between the core and ideal versions of disappeared varieties. Tougher competition also reduces prices thanks to the compression of markups, to the selection of firms, varieties and versions, and to the reallocation

²⁵In address models the mismatch between buyers and sellers arises from the impossibility for the latter to exactly cover all the heterogeneous needs of the former due to limited resources. The mechanism is different in search models where buyers and sellers cannot instantly find a good trading partner and have to go through a costly search process balancing the loss of delaying trade against the option value of trying again and maybe finding a better match. In search models a larger market can provide higher welfare in the presence of 'thick market externalities', due for instance to increasing returns to scale in the matching function. See, for example, Eaton et al., 2013, for a recent search model applied to importer-exporter relations; Antras and Yeaple, 2014, for a survey stressing the make-or-buy decisions of multinationals.

of expenditure shares towards core versions. For all these reasons, average utility grows with the toughness of competition as market size increases.²⁶

In this respect our findings also speak to the recent literature on measuring the welfare gains from trade with heterogeneous agents (see, e.g., Arkolakis et al, 2012; Costinot and Rodriguez-Clare, 2014; Melitz and Redding, 2015) as this literature has so far typically focused on models in which sellers are heterogeneous but buyers are not.

References

- [1] Ahn, JaeBin, Amit K. Khandelwal, and Shang-Jin Wei. (2011). The Role of Intermediaries in Facilitating Trade. *Journal of International Economics*, 84(1), 73-85.
- [2] Anderson, Simon P., Andre De Palma, and Jacques-Francois Thisse (1991) *Discrete Choice and Product Differentiation*, MIT Press.
- [3] Antras, Pol, and Stephen R. Yeaple (2014) Multinational Firms and the Structure of International Trade, in Helpman Elhanan, Rogoff Kenneth and Gita Gopinath, eds., *Handbook of International Economics*. Vol. 4, Elsevier, pp. 55-130.
- [4] Arkolakis, Costas (2010) Market Penetration Costs and the New Consumers Margin in International Trade, *Journal of Political Economy* 118, pp. 1151-1199.
- [5] Arkolakis, Costas, Arnaud Costinot and Andres Rodriguez-Clare (2012), New Trade Models, Same Old Gains?, *American Economic Review* 102, pp. 94-130.
- [6] Bernard, Andrew B. and J. Bradford Jensen (1999) Exceptional Exporter Performance: Cause, Effect, or Both?, *Journal of International Economics* 47, pp. 1-25.
- [7] Bernard, Andrew B., J. Bradford Jensen, Stephen J. Redding and Peter K. Schott (2007) Firms in International Trade, *Journal of Economic Perspectives* 21, pp. 105-130.
- [8] Bernard, Andrew B., J. Bradford Jensen and Peter K. Schott (2009) Importers, Exporters and Multinationals: A Portrait of Firms in the U.S. that Trade Goods, in *Producer Dynamics: New Evidence from Micro Data*, National Bureau of Economic Research, Cambridge MA, pp. 513-552.

²⁶If horizontally differentiated intermediates were introduced as in Helpman (1985), another reason why welfare would be higher when competition is tougher would be that it would allow intermediate and final producers to be better matched.

- [9] Bernard, Andrew B., J. Bradford Jensen, Stephen J. Redding and Peter K. Schott (2010) Intrafirm Trade and Product Contractibility, *American Economic Review* 100, pp. 444-48.
- [10] Bernard, Andrew B., J. Bradford Jensen, Stephen J. Redding and Peter K. Schott (2012) The Empirics of Firm Heterogeneity and International Trade, *Annual Review of Economics*, 4, 283-313, 2012.
- [11] Bernard, Andrew B., Jonathan Eaton, J. Bradford Jensen and Samuel Kortum (2003) Plants and Productivity in International Trade, *American Economic Review* 93, pp. 1268-1290.
- [12] Bernard, Andrew B., Marco Grazzi and Chiara Tomasi (2011) Intermediaries in International Trade: Direct versus indirect modes of export, NBER WP No. 17711.
- [13] Bernard, Andrew B., Andreas Moxnes and Karen Helene Ulltveit-Moe (2013) Two-Sided Heterogeneity and Trade, Dartmouth College, mimeo.
- [14] Blum, Bernardo, Sebastian Claro and Ignatius Horstmann (2010) Facts and Figures on Intermediated Trade, *American Economic Review* 100, pp. 419-423.
- [15] Blum, Bernardo, Sebastian Claro and Ignatius Horstmann (2012) Import Intermediaries and Trade: Theory and Evidence, University of Toronto, mimeo.
- [16] Casella, Alessandra and James E. Rauch (2002) Anonymous Market and Group Ties in International Trade, *Journal of International Economics* 58, pp. 19-47.
- [17] Capozza, Dennis R. and Robert Van Order (1978) A Generalized Model of Spatial Competition, *American Economic Review* 68, pp. 896-908.
- [18] Chamberlin, Edward (1933) *The theory of monopolistic competition*, Cambridge, Mass, Harvard University.
- [19] Clerides, Sofronis K., Saul Lach and James Tybout (1998) Is Learning By Exporting Important? Micro-Dynamic Evidence From Colombia, Mexico, And Morocco, *Quarterly Journal of Economics* 113, pp. 903-947.
- [20] Corcos, Gregory, Delphine Irac, Giordano Mion, and Thierry Verdier (2009) The determinants of intra-firm trade, Paris School of Economics, mimeo.
- [21] Costinot, Arnaud and Andres Rodriguez-Clare (2014) Trade Theory with Numbers: Quantifying the Consequences of Globalization, in Helpman Elhanan, Rogoff Kenneth and Gita Gopinath, eds., *Handbook of International Economics*. Vol. 4, Elsevier, pp. 197-261.
- [22] Dhingra, Swati (2012) Trading Away Wide Brands for Cheap Brands, *American Economic Review*, forthcoming.

- [23] Dixit, Avinash K. and Joseph E. Stiglitz (1977) Monopolistic Competition and Optimum Product Diversity, *American Economic Review* 67, pp. 297–308.
- [24] Eaton, Jonathan, Samuel Kortum and Francis Kramarz (2011) An Anatomy of International Trade: Evidence From French Firms, *Econometrica* 79, pp. 1453–1498
- [25] Eaton, Jonathan, Marcela Eslava, Maurice Kugler and James Tybout (2007) Export Dynamics in Colombia: Firm-Level Evidence, NBER Working Paper No. 13531.
- [26] Eaton, Jonathan, Marcela Eslava, David Jinkins, C.J. Krizan and James Tybout (2013) A Search and Learning Model of Export Dynamics, Penn State University, mimeo.
- [27] Harrigan, James, Xiangjun Ma and Victor Shlychkov (2011) Export Prices of U.S. Firms, NBER Working Paper No. 17706.
- [28] Head, Keith and Thierry Mayer (2013) Gravity Equations: Workhorse, Toolkit, and Cookbook, in Helpman Elhanan, Rogoff Kenneth and Gita Gopinath, eds., *Handbook of International Economics*. Vol. 4, Elsevier, forthcoming.
- [29] Helpman, Elhanan (1981) International Trade in the Presence of Product Differentiation, Economies of Scale and Monopolistic Competition: A Chamberlin-Heckscher-Ohlin approach, *Journal of International Economics* 11, pp. 305-340.
- [30] Helpman, Elhanan (1985) International Trade in Differentiated Middle Products, in K.G.Jungenfelt and D.Hague, eds., *Structural Adjustment in Developed Open Economies*, Macmillan.
- [31] Hotelling, Harold (1929) Stability in competition, *Economic Journal* 39, pp. 41-57.
- [32] Hummels, David and Peter J. Klenow (2005) The Variety and Quality of a Nation’s Exports, *American Economic Review* 95, pp. 704-723.
- [33] Kamal, F. and Sundaram, A., 2014. Buyer-Seller Relationships in International Trade: Do Your Neighbors Matter? US Census Bureau, mimeo.
- [34] Lancaster, Kelvin J. (1966) A New Approach to Consumer Theory, *Journal of Political Economy* 74, pp. 132-157.
- [35] Lancaster, Kelvin J. (1979) *Variety, Equity and Efficiency*, Columbia University Press.
- [36] Lancaster, Kelvin J. (1980) Intra-Industry Trade under Perfect Monopolistic Competition, *Journal of International Economics* 10, pp. 151-175.

- [37] Macchiavello, R., 2010. Development Uncorked: Reputation Acquisition in the New Market for Chilean Wines in the UK. Warwick University, mimeo.
- [38] Macchiavello, R. and Morjaria, A., 2014. The Value of Relationships: Evidence from a Supply Shock to Kenyan Rose Exports. Warwick University, mimeo.
- [39] Manova, Kalina and Zhiwei Zhang (2012) Export Prices across Firms and Destinations, *Quarterly Journal of Economics* 127, pp. 379-436.
- [40] Manski, Charles F. (1977) The Structure of Random Utility Models, *Theory and Decision* 8, pp. 229-254.
- [41] Mayer, Thierry, Marc J. Melitz, and Gianmarco I.P. Ottaviano (2011) Market Size, Competition, and the Product Mix of Exporters, *American Economic Review*, forthcoming.
- [42] McCalman, Phillip (2016) International Trade, Income Distribution and Welfare. University of Melbourne, mimeo.
- [43] McFadden, Daniel (1974) Conditional Logit Analysis of Qualitative Choice Behavior, in P. Zarembka, ed., *Frontiers in Econometrics*, Academic Press, pp. 105-142.
- [44] Melitz, Marc J. and Gianmarco I.P. Ottaviano (2008) Market Size, Trade, and Productivity, *Review of Economic Studies* 75, pp. 295-316.
- [45] Monarch, R., 2014. It's Not You, It's Me: Breakups in U.S.-China Trade Relationships. Federal Reserve Board, mimeo.
- [46] Melitz, Marc J. and Stephen Redding (2015) New Trade Models, New Welfare Implications, *American Economic Review* 105, pp. 1105-1146.
- [47] Ottaviano, Gianmarco I.P., Takatoshi Tabuchi, and Jacques-Francois Thisse (2002) Agglomeration and Trade Revisited, *International Economic Review* 43, pp. 409-436.
- [48] Rauch, James E. (1999) Networks versus Markets in International Trade, *Journal of International Economics* 48, pp. 7-35.
- [49] Rauch, James E. and Alessandra Casella (2003) Overcoming Informational Barriers to International Resource Allocation: Prices and Ties, *Economic Journal* 113, pp. 21-42.
- [50] Rauch, James E. and Vitor Trindade (2003) Information, International Substitutability, and Globalization, *American Economic Review* 93, pp. 775-791.
- [51] Redding, Stephen and Anthony J. Venables (2004), Economic Geography and International Inequality, *Journal of International Economics* 62, pp. 53-82.

- [52] Roberts, Mark J. and James R. Tybout (1997) The Decision to Export in Colombia: An Empirical Model of Entry with Sunk Costs, *American Economic Review* 87, pp. 545-564.
- [53] Salop, Steven C. (1979) Monopolistic Competition with Outside Goods, *Bell Journal of Economics* 10, pp. 141–156.
- [54] Smith, Wendell R. (1956) Product Differentiation and Market Segmentation as Alternative Marketing Strategies, *Journal of Marketing* 21, pp. 3-8.
- [55] Spence, Michael (1976) Product Selection, Fixed Costs, and Monopolistic Competition, *Review of Economic Studies* 43, pp. 217-235.
- [56] Sugita, Y.; Teshima, K.; and Seira, E., 2014. Assortative Matching of Exporters and Importers. ITAM, mimeo
- [57] Wooldridge, Jeffrey (2002) *Econometric Analysis of Cross Section and Panel Data*, MIT Press.
- [58] Wooldridge, Jeffrey (2006) Cluster sample methods in applied econometrics: An extended analysis, Michigan State University, mimeo.

Tables

Table 1

Aggregate Export Indicators 2005-2008						
Costa Rica						
Year	Total Exports	Number of Exporters	Number of Destinations	Number of Products	Number of Buyers	
2005	5,794	2,667	138	3,737	13,257	
2006	6,960	2,808	133	4,039	14,387	
2007	8,276	2,896	150	4,253	15,020	
2008	8,678	2,753	143	4,117	14,705	
Ecuador						
Year	Total Exports	Number of Exporters	Number of Destinations	Number of Products	Number of Buyers	
2005	9,265	2,223	127	2,238	8,769	
2006	12,400	3,052	143	2,579	11,311	
2007	12,817	3,370	147	3,081	11,782	
2008	19,494	3,962	151	3,086	12,243	
Uruguay						
Year	Total Exports	Number of Exporters	Number of Destinations	Number of Products	Number of Buyers	
2005	3,420	1,940	140	2,873	11,034	
2006	3,984	1,997	149	2,874	11,829	
2007	4,515	2,088	154	2,872	12,071	
2008	5,969	2,130	160	3,039	11,959	

Source: Authors' calculations based on data from PROCOMER, SENAE, and DNA.
The table reports aggregate statistics for each country in our sample over the period 2005-2008.
Exports are in thousands of U.S. dollars.

Table 2

Decomposition of Bilateral Trade Flows				
2005				
	All	Costa Rica	Ecuador	Uruguay
Firm	0.436*** (0.022)	0.439*** (0.024)	0.385*** (0.042)	0.550*** (0.021)
Product Scope	0.049*** (0.005)	0.069*** (0.008)	0.028*** (0.010)	0.0610*** (0.010)
Buyer Scope	0.045*** (0.003)	0.041*** (0.005)	0.038*** (0.004)	0.062*** (0.008)
Intensive Margin	0.470*** (0.017)	0.450*** (0.020)	0.548*** (0.026)	0.327*** (0.027)
Country Fixed Effects	Yes	No	No	No
Observations	403	137	126	140
2005-2008				
	All	Costa Rica	Ecuador	Uruguay
Firm	0.156*** (0.022)	0.195*** (0.048)	0.107*** (0.025)	0.214*** (0.023)
Product Scope	0.0213*** (0.007)	0.027* (0.014)	0.019** (0.011)	0.009 (0.011)
Buyer Scope	0.031*** (0.004)	0.028*** (0.007)	0.028*** (0.005)	0.0678*** (0.009)
Intensive Margin	0.791*** (0.011)	0.749*** (0.020)	0.845*** (0.019)	0.727*** (0.020)
Country Fixed Effects	No	Yes	Yes	Yes
Country Pair Fixed Effects	Yes	No	No	No
Year Fixed Effects	Yes	Yes	Yes	Yes
Observations	1,726	560	564	602

Source: Authors' calculations based on data from PROCOMER, SENA, and DNA.

The table reports estimates of the equations: (1) $\ln M_{hl} = \alpha_0 + \alpha_1 \ln X_{hl} + \gamma_c + \varepsilon_{hl}$ for a given year (here 2005) and (2) $\ln M_{hlt} = \alpha_0 + \alpha_1 \ln X_{hlt} + \delta_{hl} + \tau_t + \mu_{hlt}$ for the entire sample period (2005-2008), where M corresponds to the following export margins: the number of exporting firms, the products scope, the buyers scope, and average exports per exporting firm, product and buyer that actually register trade. γ_c is a set of exporting country fixed effects, δ_{hl} is a set of country-pair fixed effects, and τ_t denotes year fixed effects.

Robust standard errors are reported below the estimated coefficients in the left panel (2005) and standard errors clustered by country-pair are reported below the estimated coefficients in the right panel (2005-2008).

*** $p < 0.01$, ** $p < 0.05$, * $p < 0.10$

Table 3

Distribution of Outcomes across Exporters 2005						
Costa Rica						
	10	25	50	75	90	Average
Total Exports	1.20	5.55	34.55	321.52	2155.41	2172.65
Number of Buyers	1.00	1.00	2.00	6.00	14.00	6.89
Number of Destinations	1.00	1.00	2.00	3.00	6.00	2.91
Number of Products	1.00	1.00	2.00	6.00	14.00	5.89
Number of Buyers per Destination	1.00	1.00	1.00	2.00	3.00	1.81
Number of Buyers per Product	1.00	1.00	1.17	2.33	4.50	2.34
Average Exports per Buyer	0.90	3.39	13.77	67.66	283.63	169.73
per Destination	1.01	4.17	19.28	121.91	559.64	346.34
per Product	0.63	2.61	12.55	85.07	490.87	276.57
per Destination, Product and Buyer	0.55	2.15	8.23	38.41	170.37	92.15
Ecuador						
	10	25	50	75	90	Average
Total Exports	0.00	2.60	27.90	259.17	2758.71	4167.96
Number of Buyers	1.00	1.00	1.00	4.00	12.00	4.85
Number of Destinations	1.00	1.00	1.00	2.00	5.00	2.25
Number of Products	1.00	1.00	1.00	3.00	7.00	3.24
Number of Buyers per Destination	1.00	1.00	1.00	2.00	3.00	1.71
Number of Buyers per Product	1.00	1.00	1.00	2.00	5.00	2.52
Average Exports per Buyer	0.00	2.30	17.14	81.75	337.87	353.56
per Destination	0.00	2.50	23.24	141.22	758.23	777.02
per Product	0.00	1.50	15.24	126.03	917.76	1987.56
per Destination, Product and Buyer	0.00	1.36	11.73	60.00	233.01	288.86
Uruguay						
	10	25	50	75	90	Average
Total Exports	1.49	4.88	27.68	242.53	1763.42	1762.67
Number of Buyers	1.00	1.00	1.00	4.00	13.00	6.91
Number of Destinations	1.00	1.00	1.00	3.00	7.00	2.89
Number of Products	1.00	1.00	2.00	4.00	10.00	4.39
Number of Buyers per Destination	1.00	1.00	1.00	1.56	3.00	1.60
Number of Buyers per Product	1.00	1.00	1.00	2.00	4.35	2.18
Average Exports per Buyer	1.38	4.00	16.07	60.24	228.83	138.15
per Destination	1.41	4.20	19.24	101.07	494.51	264.67
per Product	0.86	2.95	14.04	87.51	464.58	308.24
per Destination, Product and Buyer	0.79	2.56	10.62	42.43	157.81	99.04

Source: Authors' calculations based on data from PROCOMER, SENAE, and DNA.

The table reports summaries statistics where 10, 25, 50, 75 and 90 denotes the percentile of each variable. Exports are in thousands of U.S. dollars.

Table 4

Multi-Buyer Premia				
Sample: Firm Level				
2005				
	All	Costa Rica	Ecuador	Uruguay
Multi-Buyer Premium	1.163*** (0.099)	0.805*** (0.116)	1.648*** (0.248)	0.761*** (0.130)
Number of Destination-Products	0.745*** (0.043)	0.739*** (0.053)	1.285*** (0.103)	0.327*** (0.055)
Number of Buyers	1.172*** (0.057)	0.892*** (0.069)	1.416*** (0.140)	1.405*** (0.074)
Base Fixed Effects	Yes	No	No	No
Year Fixed Effects	No	No	No	No
R2	0.459	0.501	0.430	0.594
Observations	6,829	2,667	2,223	1,939
2005-2008				
	All	Costa Rica	Ecuador	Uruguay
Multi-Buyer Premium	0.131*** (0.023)	0.129*** (0.036)	0.144*** (0.041)	0.110** (0.044)
Number of Destination-Products	0.604*** (0.017)	0.683*** (0.027)	0.601*** (0.030)	0.465*** (0.034)
Number of Buyers	0.643*** (0.022)	0.592*** (0.035)	0.623*** (0.039)	0.763*** (0.044)
Base Fixed Effects	Yes	No	No	No
Firm Fixed Effects	Yes	Yes	Yes	Yes
Year Fixed Effects	Yes	Yes	Yes	Yes
R2	0.964	0.940	0.975	0.954
Observations	31,876	11,124	12,607	8,145

Source: Authors' calculations based on data from PROCOMER, SENA, and DNA.

The table reports estimates of the multi-buyer premium where the dependent variable is firm i total exports in year t ; the Multi-Buyer Premium is a binary indicator that takes the value of one if the firm has a firm-destination-product export flow with more than one buyer in year t and zero otherwise. The number of destination-products is the total number of unique destination-product combinations in year t for firm i and the number of buyers is simply the total number of buyers of firm i 's products.

Robust standard errors are reported below the estimated coefficients.

*** $p < 0.01$, ** $p < 0.05$, * $p < 0.10$

Table 5

The Effect of Competition on Sales Concentration				
Sample: All Exporting Countries, 2005-2008				
	(1)	(2)	(3)	(4)
GDP	0.023*** (0.002)	0.024*** (0.002)	0.053*** (0.001)	0.054*** (0.002)
Number of Exporters	0.080*** (0.003)	0.080*** (0.003)		
Freeness of Trade	0.020*** (0.001)	0.020*** (0.001)		
GDP per capita		-0.005 (0.003)		-0.004 (0.003)
Distance			-0.078*** (0.004)	-0.077*** (0.004)
Contiguity			0.034*** (0.006)	0.034*** (0.006)
RTA			0.045*** (0.006)	0.043*** (0.006)
Firm-Product-Year FE	Yes	Yes	Yes	Yes
Adjusted R2	0.421	0.421	0.402	0.402
Observations	233,175	233,175	233,175	233,175

Source: Authors' calculations based on data from PROCOMER, SENA, and DNA.

The table reports estimates of (28) for all products. The dependent variable is the normalized main buyer share in sales of product n from firm i in country h to destination l in year t . Number of Exporters: Number of other firms from the three sample countries (Costa Rica, Ecuador, and Uruguay) exporting the same HS-2 product to the same destination in the same year. Freeness of trade denotes a country-HS2-level measure obtained by estimating a standard gravity equation (in logs) with both exporter and importer fixed effects using worldwide bilateral trade data at the HS2 digit-level and purging the trade flows from these fixed effects. See A for details on the other explanatory variables.

Standard errors clustered by firm-country-product are reported below the estimated coefficients.

*** $p < 0.01$, ** $p < 0.05$, * $p < 0.10$

Table 6

The Effect of Competition on Sales Concentration						
Sample: All Exporting Countries, 2005-2008						
	Costa Rica		Ecuador		Uruguay	
	(1)	(2)	(3)	(4)	(5)	(6)
GDP	0.010*** (0.003)	0.051*** (0.003)	0.029*** (0.003)	0.056*** (0.002)	0.046*** (0.003)	0.061*** (0.002)
Number of Exporters	0.125*** (0.005)		0.066*** (0.004)		0.047*** (0.004)	
Freeness of Trade	0.007*** (0.002)		0.013*** (0.002)		0.026*** (0.001)	
Distance		-0.124*** (0.007)		-0.066*** (0.006)		-0.045*** (0.008)
Contiguity		0.042*** (0.008)		0.021 (0.017)		0.034* (0.018)
RTA		0.070*** (0.007)		-0.002 (0.015)		0.048*** (0.016)
Firm-Product-Year FE	Yes	Yes	Yes	Yes	Yes	Yes
Adjusted R2	0.460	0.442	0.398	0.381	0.378	0.363
Observations	108,977	108,977	71,526	71,526	54,114	54,114

Source: Authors' calculations based on data from PROCOMER, SENAE, and DNA.

The table reports estimates of (28) for each exporting country in our sample when all products are considered. The dependent variable is the normalized main buyer share in sales of product n from firm i in country h to destination l in year t . Number of Exporters: Number of other firms from the three sample countries (Costa Rica, Ecuador, and Uruguay) exporting the same HS-2 product to the same destination in the same year. Freeness of trade denotes a country-HS2-level measure obtained by estimating a standard gravity equation (in logs) with both exporter and importer fixed effects using worldwide bilateral trade data at the HS2 digit-level and purging the trade flows from these fixed effects. See A for details on the other explanatory variables.

Standard errors clustered by firm-country-product are reported below the estimated coefficients.

*** $p < 0.01$, ** $p < 0.05$, * $p < 0.10$

Table 7

The Effect of Competition on Sales Concentration Sample: All Exporting Countries, 2005-2008 Robustness: Alternative Specifications						
	(1)	(2)	(3)	(4)	(5)	(6)
GDP	0.016*** (0.001)	0.017*** (0.001)				
Number of Exporters	0.048*** (0.002)	0.051*** (0.002)	0.040*** (0.002)	0.043*** (0.003)	0.071*** (0.004)	0.067*** (0.004)
Freeness of Trade	0.013*** (0.001)	0.014*** (0.001)	0.019*** (0.001)	0.012*** (0.003)	0.032*** (0.001)	0.028*** (0.005)
Firm-Year FE	Yes	Yes	Yes	Yes	No	No
Product-Year FE	Yes	No	Yes	No	No	No
Origin-Product-Year FE	No	Yes	No	Yes	No	No
Destination-Year FE	No	No	Yes	No	Yes	No
Origin-Destination-Year FE	No	No	No	Yes	No	Yes
Firm-Product-Year FE	No	No	No	No	Yes	Yes
Adjusted R2	0.323	0.347	0.330	0.362	0.434	0.446
Observations	233,175	233,175	233,175	233,175	233,175	233,175

Source: Authors' calculations based on data from PROCOMER, SENA, and DNA.

The table reports estimates of alternative specifications of (28) for all products. The dependent variable is the normalized main buyer share in sales of product n from firm i in country h to destination l in year t . Number of Exporters: Number of other firms from the three sample countries (Costa Rica, Ecuador, and Uruguay) exporting the same HS-2 product to the same destination in the same year. Freeness of trade denotes a country-HS2-level measure obtained by estimating a standard gravity equation (in logs) with both exporter and importer fixed effects using worldwide bilateral trade data at the HS2 digit-level and purging the trade flows from these fixed effects. See A for details on the other explanatory variables. See A for more details on the other explanatory variables.

Standard errors clustered by firm-country-product are reported below the estimated coefficients.

*** $p < 0.01$, ** $p < 0.05$, * $p < 0.10$

Table 8

The Effect of Competition on Sales Concentration								
Sample: All Exporting Countries, 2005-2008								
Robustness: Alternative Clustering								
	(1)	(2)	(3)	(4)	(5)	(6)	(7)	(8)
GDP	0.023*** (0.003)	0.023*** (0.003)	0.023*** (0.003)	0.023*** (0.005)	0.053*** (0.003)	0.053*** (0.003)	0.053*** (0.005)	0.053*** (0.010)
Number of Exporters	0.080*** (0.005)	0.080*** (0.005)	0.080*** (0.007)	0.080*** (0.013)				
Freeness of Trade	0.020*** (0.001)	0.020*** (0.002)	0.020*** (0.002)	0.020*** (0.003)				
Distance					-0.078*** (0.007)	-0.078*** (0.006)	-0.078*** (0.015)	-0.078*** (0.028)
Contiguity					0.034*** (0.011)	0.034*** (0.011)	0.034* (0.018)	0.034 (0.034)
RTA					0.045*** (0.011)	0.045*** (0.012)	0.045*** (0.016)	0.045** (0.021)
Firm-Destination Cluster	Yes	No	No	No	Yes	No	No	No
Firm Cluster	No	Yes	No	No	No	Yes	No	No
Destination-Year Cluster	No	No	Yes	No	No	No	Yes	No
Destination Cluster	No	No	No	Yes	No	No	No	Yes
Firm-Product-Year FE	Yes	Yes	Yes	Yes	Yes	Yes	Yes	Yes
Adjusted R2	0.421	0.421	0.421	0.421	0.402	0.402	0.402	0.402
Observations	233,175	233,175	233,175	233,175	233,175	233,175	233,175	233,175

Source: Authors' calculations based on data from PROCOMER, SENA, and DNA.

The table reports estimates of (28) for all products. The dependent variable is the normalized main buyer share in sales of product n from firm i in country h to destination l in year t . Number of Exporters: Number of other firms from the three sample countries (Costa Rica, Ecuador, and Uruguay) exporting the same HS-2 product to the same destination in the same year. Freeness of trade denotes a country-HS2-level measure obtained by estimating a standard gravity equation (in logs) with both exporter and importer fixed effects using worldwide bilateral trade data at the HS2 digit-level and purging the trade flows from these fixed effects. See A for details on the other explanatory variables.

Standard errors clustered as indicated are reported below the estimated coefficients.

*** $p < 0.01$, ** $p < 0.05$, * $p < 0.10$

Table 9

The Effect of Competition on Sales Concentration							
Sample: All Exporting Countries, 2005-2008							
Robustness: Alternative Competition Measures							
	Countries	HS 2			HS 6		
	(1)	(2)	(3)	(4)	(5)	(6)	(7)
GDP	0.044*** (0.002)	0.023*** (0.002)	0.024*** (0.002)	0.020*** (0.002)	0.027*** (0.001)	0.029*** (0.001)	0.024*** (0.001)
Sourcing Countries	0.048*** (0.005)						
Freeness of Trade	0.037*** (0.001)	0.020*** (0.001)	0.029*** (0.001)	0.027*** (0.001)	0.023*** (0.001)	0.032*** (0.001)	0.030*** (0.001)
Exporters I		0.080*** (0.003)			0.115*** (0.003)		
Exporter II			0.045*** (0.002)			0.048*** (0.002)	
Exporter III				0.056*** (0.002)			0.058*** (0.002)
Firm-Product-Year FE	Yes	Yes	Yes	Yes	Yes	Yes	Yes
Adjusted R2	0.408	0.421	0.412	0.415	0.431	0.413	0.419
Observations	233,175	233,175	233,175	233,175	233,175	233,175	233,175

Source: Authors' calculations based on data from PROCOMER, SENA, and DNA.

The table reports estimates of variants of (28) for all products. The dependent variable is the normalized main buyer share in sales of product n from firm i in country h to destination l in year t . Sourcing Countries denotes the number of countries that export product n to destination l in year t . Number of Exporters I: Number of other firms from the three sample countries, Costa Rica, Ecuador, and Uruguay, that export product n aggregated at level indicated by the column label to destination l in year t . Number of Exporters II: Number of firms from Chile, Colombia, and Mexico that export product n aggregated at level indicated by the column label to destination l in year t . Number of Exporters III: Number of firms from Costa Rica, Chile, Colombia, Ecuador, Mexico, and Uruguay that export product n aggregated at level indicated by the column label to destination l in year t . Freeness of trade denotes a country-HS2-level measure obtained by estimating a standard gravity equation (in logs) with both exporter and importer fixed effects using worldwide bilateral trade data at the HS2 digit-level and purging the trade flows from these fixed effects. See A for details on the other explanatory variables.

Standard errors clustered by firm-country-product are reported below the estimated coefficients.

*** $p < 0.01$, ** $p < 0.05$, * $p < 0.10$

Table 10

The Effect of Competition on Sales Concentration						
Sample: All Exporting Countries, 2005-2008						
Robustness: Alternative Concentration Measures						
	HI		CV		B1/BL	
	(1)	(2)	(3)	(4)	(5)	(6)
GDP	0.017*** (0.002)	0.040*** (0.001)	0.173*** (0.014)	0.253*** (0.012)	0.096*** (0.006)	0.217*** (0.006)
Number of Exporters	0.061*** (0.002)		0.252*** (0.023)		0.331*** (0.011)	
Freeness of Trade	0.017*** (0.001)		0.041*** (0.008)		0.078*** (0.004)	
Distance		-0.067*** (0.004)		-0.141*** (0.029)		-0.316*** (0.015)
Contiguity		0.024*** (0.006)		0.064 (0.051)		0.087*** (0.025)
RTA		0.030*** (0.006)		0.121*** (0.046)		0.195*** (0.023)
Firm-Product-Year FE	Yes	Yes	Yes	Yes	Yes	Yes
Adjusted R2	0.410	0.398	0.744	0.741	0.405	0.387
Observations	233,175	233,175	52,170	52,170	52,170	52,170

Source: Authors' calculations based on data from PROCOMER, SENA, and DNA.

The table reports estimates of variants of (28) for all products. The dependent variable is one of the following measures of concentration of sales of product n from firm i in country h to destination l in year t across their buyers: the ratio of the sales to the main buyer to the sales to the least important buyer (B1/BL), the Herfindahl Index (HI), and the coefficient variation (CV). Number of Exporters: Number of other firms from the three sample countries (Costa Rica, Ecuador, and Uruguay) exporting the same HS-2 product to the same destination in the same year. Freeness of trade denotes a country-HS2-level measure obtained by estimating a standard gravity equation (in logs) with both exporter and importer fixed effects using worldwide bilateral trade data at the HS2 digit-level and purging the trade flows from these fixed effects. See A for details on the other explanatory variables.

Standard errors clustered by firm-country-product are reported below the estimated coefficients.

*** $p < 0.01$, ** $p < 0.05$, * $p < 0.10$

Table 11

The Effect of Competition on Sales Concentration								
Sample: All Exporting Countries, 2005-2008								
Robustness: Weight Concentration Measures								
	NMBS		HI		CV		B1/BL	
	(1)	(2)	(3)	(4)	(5)	(6)	(7)	(8)
GDP	0.023*** (0.002)	0.053*** (0.001)	0.017*** (0.002)	0.040*** (0.001)	0.168*** (0.014)	0.248*** (0.012)	0.091*** (0.006)	0.209*** (0.006)
Number of Exporters	0.080*** (0.003)		0.060*** (0.002)		0.257*** (0.023)		0.323*** (0.010)	
Freeness of Trade	0.021*** (0.001)		0.017*** (0.001)		0.050*** (0.008)		0.079*** (0.004)	
Distance		-0.079*** (0.004)		-0.065*** (0.004)		-0.180*** (0.030)		-0.314*** (0.015)
Contiguity		0.034*** (0.006)		0.024*** (0.006)		0.040 (0.052)		0.107*** (0.024)
RTA		0.045*** (0.006)		0.030*** (0.006)		0.126*** (0.047)		0.182*** (0.023)
Firm-Product-Year FE	Yes	Yes	Yes	Yes	Yes	Yes	Yes	Yes
Adjusted R2	0.421	0.402	0.408	0.396	0.845	0.843	0.408	0.390
Observations	233,175	233,175	233,175	233,175	52,170	52,170	52,170	52,170

Source: Authors' calculations based on data from PROCOMER, SENA, and DNA.

The table reports estimates of variants of (28) for all products. The dependent variable is one of the following measures of concentration of the quantities (weight) sold of product n by firm i in country h to destination l in year t across their buyers: the normalized main buyer share (NMBS), the ratio of the sales to the main buyer to the sales to the least important buyer (B1/BL), the Herfindahl Index (HI), and the coefficient variation (CV). Number of Exporters: Number of other firms from the three sample countries (Costa Rica, Ecuador, and Uruguay) exporting the same HS-2 product to the same destination in the same year. Freeness of trade denotes a country-HS2-level measure obtained by estimating a standard gravity equation (in logs) with both exporter and importer fixed effects using worldwide bilateral trade data at the HS2 digit-level and purging the trade flows from these fixed effects. See A for details on the other explanatory variables.

Standard errors clustered by firm-country-product are reported below the estimated coefficients.

*** $p < 0.01$, ** $p < 0.05$, * $p < 0.10$

Table 12

The Effect of Competition on Sales Concentration								
Sample: All Exporting Countries, 2005-2008								
Robustness: Alternative Samples								
	Nb2		Non-Vi		Non-Intmd		All	
	(1)	(2)	(3)	(4)	(5)	(6)	(7)	(8)
GDP	0.041*** (0.003)	0.074*** (0.003)	0.023*** (0.002)	0.051*** (0.001)	0.016*** (0.002)	0.049*** (0.002)	0.036*** (0.005)	0.068*** (0.005)
Number of Exporters	0.104*** (0.007)		0.077*** (0.002)		0.091*** (0.004)		0.106*** (0.010)	
Freeness of Trade	0.022*** (0.002)		0.021*** (0.001)		0.018*** (0.001)		0.023*** (0.003)	
Distance		-0.070*** (0.008)		-0.074*** (0.004)		-0.077*** (0.005)		-0.059*** (0.011)
Contiguity		0.038*** (0.014)		0.039*** (0.006)		0.042*** (0.008)		0.063*** (0.018)
RTA		0.057*** (0.012)		0.040*** (0.006)		0.056*** (0.007)		0.088*** (0.015)
Firm-Product-Year FE	Yes	Yes	Yes	Yes	Yes	Yes	Yes	Yes
Adjusted R2	0.447	0.427	0.422	0.403	0.428	0.407	0.450	0.432
Observations	52,170	52,170	228,276	228,276	134,852	134,852	27,479	27,479

Source: Authors' calculations based on data from PROCOMER, SENAE, and DNA.

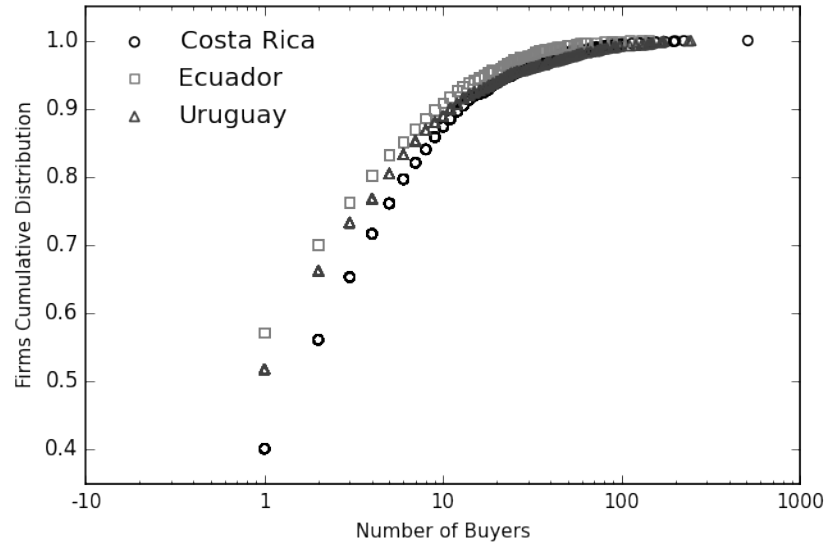
The table reports estimates of (28) for all products as obtained on three alternative samples: (i) export flows with at least two buyers at firm-destination-product level (Nb2), (ii) export flows that are not among (vertically) related companies (Non-VI), (iii) exports flows in HS2 sectors where share of intermediaries is below the median according to results from Ahn et al (2011) (Non-Intmd), and (iv) combining all (i) to (iii) restrictions (All). The dependent variable is the normalized main buyer share in sales of product n from firm i in country h to destination l in year t . Number of Exporters: Number of other firms from the three sample countries (Costa Rica, Ecuador, and Uruguay) exporting the same HS-2 product to the same destination in the same year. Freeness of trade denotes a country-HS2-level measure obtained by estimating a standard gravity equation (in logs) with both exporter and importer fixed effects using worldwide bilateral trade data at the HS2 digit-level and purging the trade flows from these fixed effects. See A for more details on the explanatory variables.

Standard errors clustered by firm-country-product are reported below the estimated coefficients.

*** $p < 0.01$, ** $p < 0.05$, * $p < 0.10$

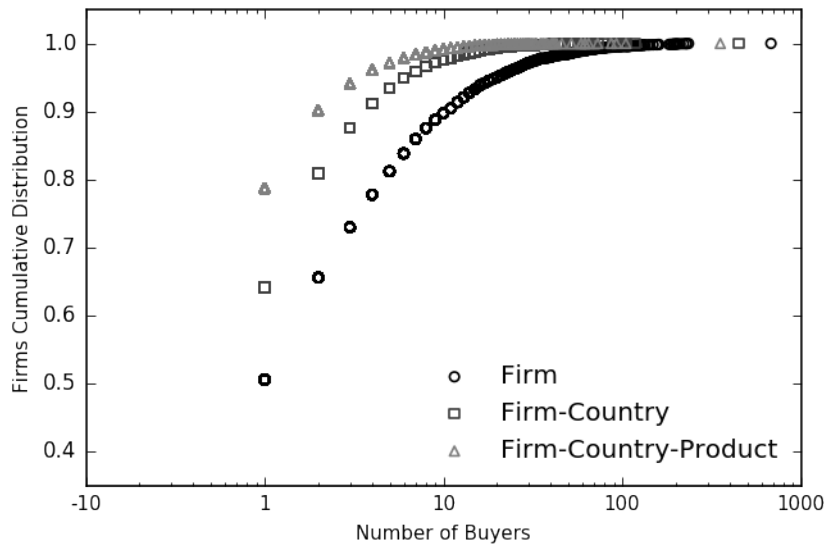
Figures

Figure 1: Number of Buyers Cumulative Distribution



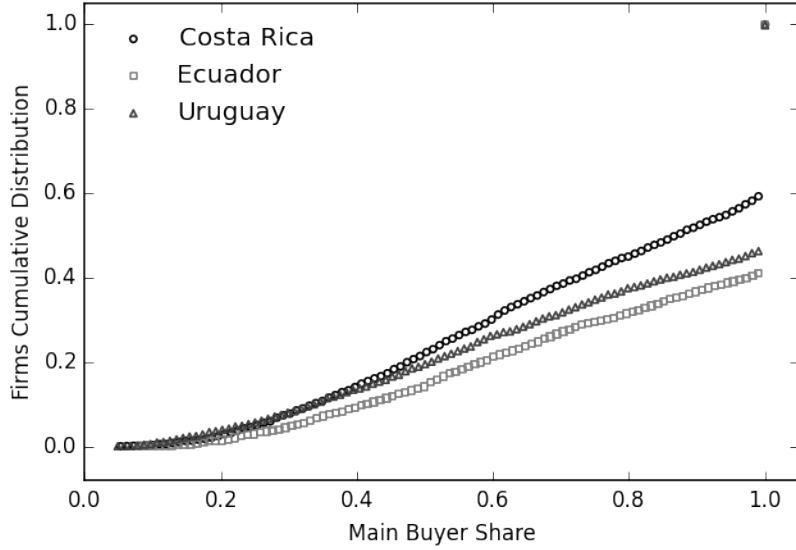
Source: Authors' calculations based on data from PROCOMER, SENA, and DNA.

Figure 2: Number of Buyers Cumulative Distribution - Aggregation



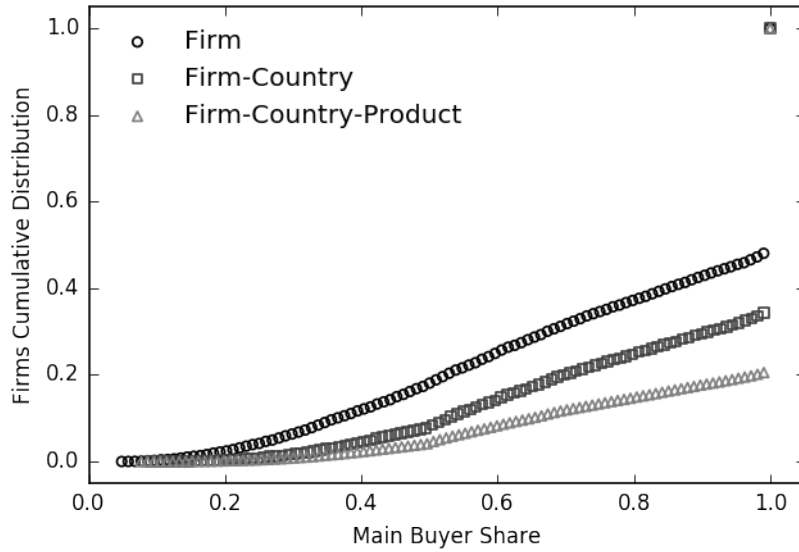
Source: Authors' calculations based on data from PROCOMER, SENA, and DNA.

Figure 3: Main Buyer Share Cumulative Distribution



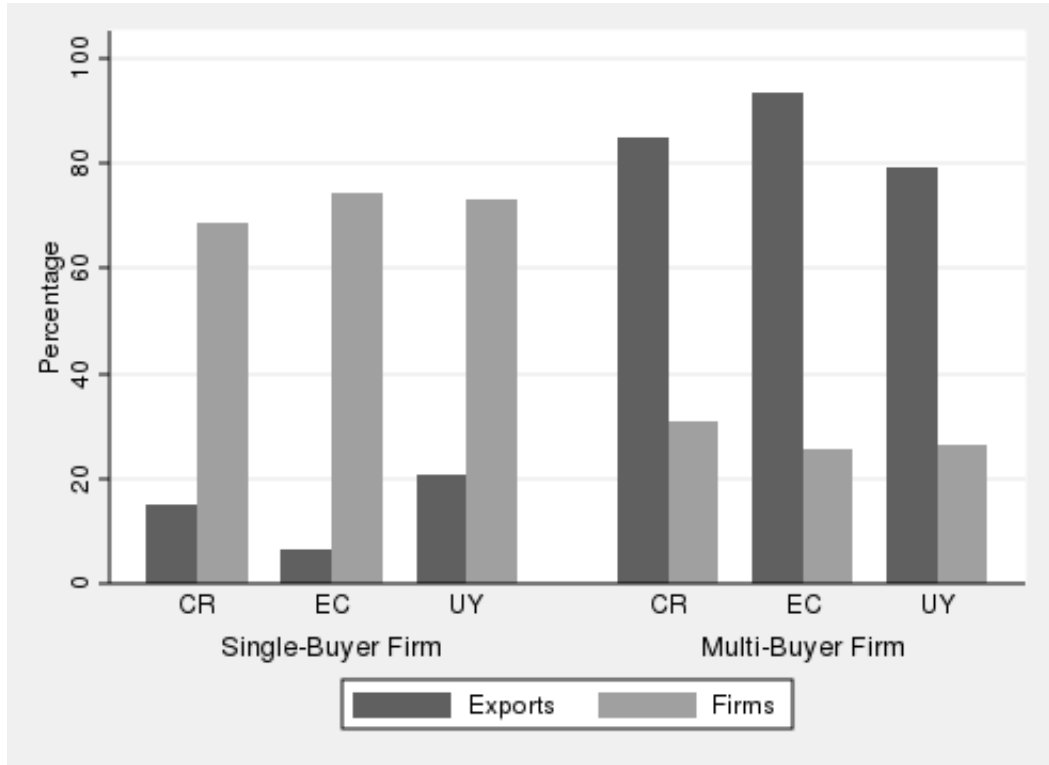
Source: Authors' calculations based on data from PROCOMER, SENA, and DNA.

Figure 4: Main Buyer Share Cumulative Distribution - Aggregation



Source: Authors' calculations based on data from PROCOMER, SENA, and DNA.

Figure 5: Multi-Buyers and Export and Firms Participation



Source: Authors' calculations based on data from PROCOMER, SENAE, and DNA.

Figure 6: The Product Space with Taste Heterogeneity

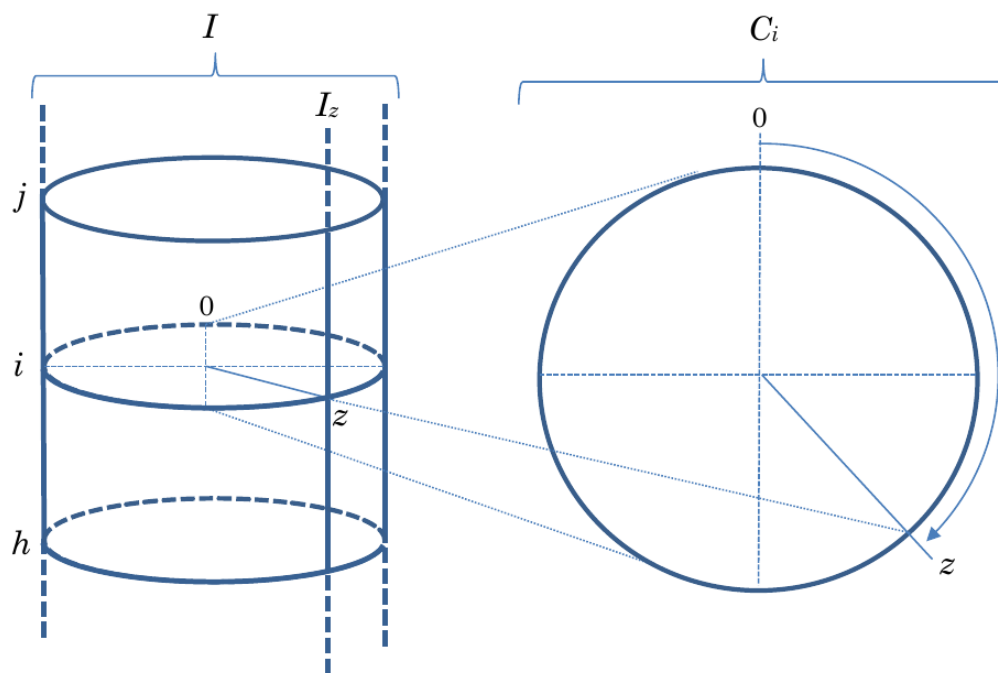
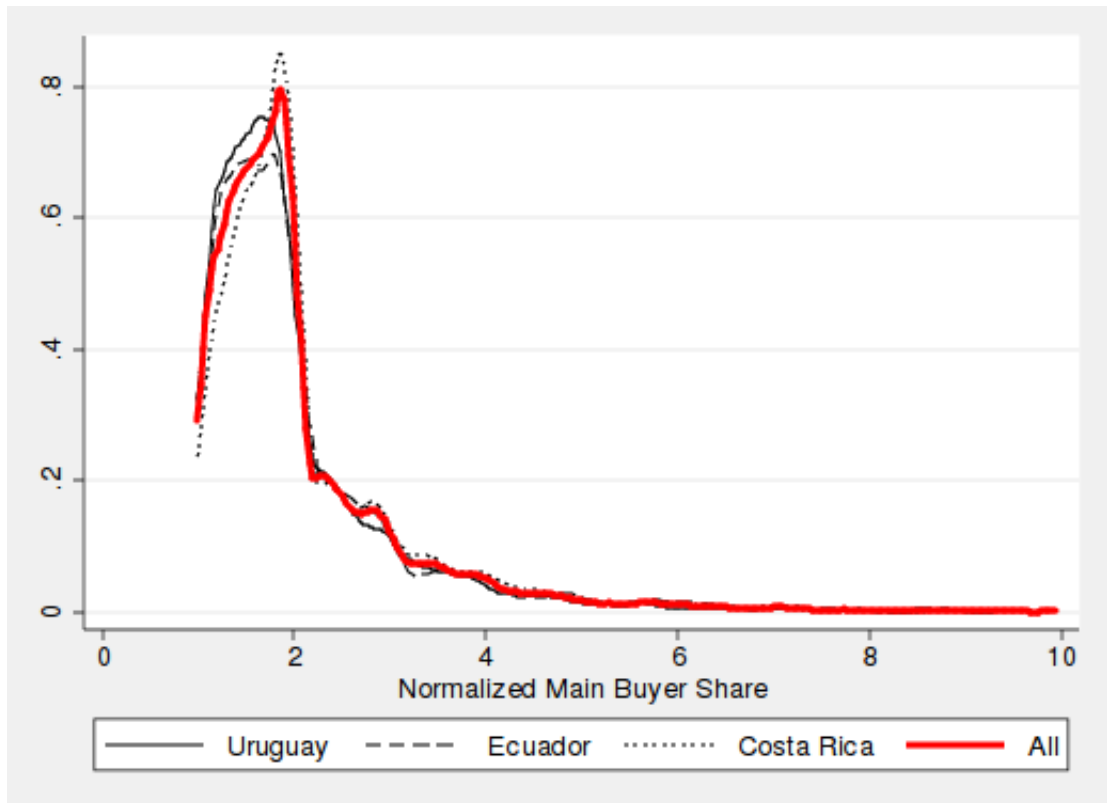


Figure 7: Distribution of Normalized Main Buyer Share



Source: Authors' calculations based on data from PROCOMER, SENA, and DNA.

A Appendix - Data

A.1 Buyer Data

The buyers of every single export transaction in our sample countries are recorded in the respective customs export declaration. Since this information is not numerically coded, we proceeded to homogenize it before computing both the number of buyers and their shares for each firm-destination-product-year combination. In so doing, we first standardized common character strings in the buyer names. Second, we use probabilistic linking of buyers name combined with a clerical review of all matched-pairs and unmatched observations.

A.2 Explanatory Variables

The definition and source of the explanatory variables are as follows:

- GDP: GDP PPP in common currency and constant prices, from the World Bank's World Development Indicators.
- Distance: Distance between the countries' capital cities, from CEPII.
- GDP per capita: GDP PPP per capita in common currency and constant prices from the World Bank's World Development Indicators.
- Contiguity: Binary indicator that takes the value of one if countries share a border, from CEPII.
- RTA: Binary indicator that takes the value of one if trading countries have a trade agreement, from CEPII and WTO.
- Number of Exporters (Baseline): Number of other firms from the three sample countries, Costa Rica, Ecuador, and Uruguay, exporting the same HS-2 product to the same destination in the same year, from our dataset.
- Number of Exporters (Alternative 1): Number of other firms from the three sample countries, Costa Rica, Ecuador, and Uruguay, exporting the same HS-6 product to the same destination in the same year, from our dataset.
- Number of Exporters (Alternative 2): Number of firms from Chile, Colombia, and Mexico exporting the same HS-2 product to the same destination in the same year, from a complementary dataset.
- Number of Exporters (Alternative 3): Number of firms from Chile, Colombia, and Mexico exporting the same HS-6 product to the same destination in the same year, from a complementary database.
- Number of Exporters (Alternative 4): Number of other firms from the three sample countries, Costa Rica, Ecuador, and Uruguay, and Chile, Colombia, and Mexico exporting the same HS-2 product to the same destination in the same year, from our dataset and a complementary database.

- Number of Exporters (Alternative 5): Number of other firms from the three sample countries, Costa Rica, Ecuador, and Uruguay, and Chile, Colombia, and Mexico exporting the same HS-6 product to the same destination in the same year, from our dataset and a complementary database.
- Sourcing Countries denotes the number of countries that export the same product to the same destination, from COMTRADE data.
- Freeness of Trade: HS2-country level freeness of trade indicators computed from gravity equation estimates as explained in Mayer et al, 2014, from COMTRADE data.