

Imperfect competition and intraindustry trade

Giovanni Marin

Department of Economics, Society, Politics Università degli Studi di Urbino 'Carlo Bo'

References for this lecture

- BBGV
 - Chapter 4, paragraphs 4.1, 4.2, 4.3, 4.4, 4.5, 4.6

Inter- vs intra-industry trade

- Inter-industry trade
 - Trade in different types of commodity
 - Country 1 exports (only) cloth, country 2 exports (only) steel

- Intra-industry trade
 - Similar trade within one broad product category
 - Both country 1 and country 2 export cars

Ricardo and HOS

 The Ricardo and HOS models only predict inter-industry trade

- This is due to four assumptions
 - Constant returns to scale
 - Perfect competition
 - Homogeneous commodities
 - Costless trade

Intra-industry trade in Ricardo and HOS models

- Within the <u>Ricardo model</u>, intra-industry trade would be unsutainable and market forces would induce countries to pursue full specialization in both production and export
- Within the <u>HOS model</u>, with the assumption of no trade cost, some intra-industry trade could still happen
 - The relatively labour-abundant country specializes in producing cloth
 - The country will also produce a certain amount of steel but also import a lot of steel from the other country
 - The labour-abundant country will be a net importer of steel
 - With no trade costs, it is indifferent (in equilibrium) to buy domestically produced steel or imported steel
 - The country could pPotentially export all its steel and re-import an even greater amount of steel → there is no reason to do that in the HOS model...

Measuring intra-industry trade

- There are statistical issues in measuring intraindustry trade
- Even very detailed classifications of commodities do not allow to distinguish goods that are not identical
- Section: 0 Food and live animals
- Division: <u>04</u> Cereals and cereal preparations
- Group: 048 Cereal preparations and preparations of flour or starch of fruits or vegetables
- Subgroup: <u>048.4</u> Bread, pastry, cakes, biscuits and other bakers' wares, whether or not containing cocoa in any proportion; communion wafers, empty cachets of a kind suitable for pharmaceutical use, sealing wafers, rice-paper and similar products
- Basic heading: 048.42 Sweet biscuits, waffles and wafers, gingerbread and the like

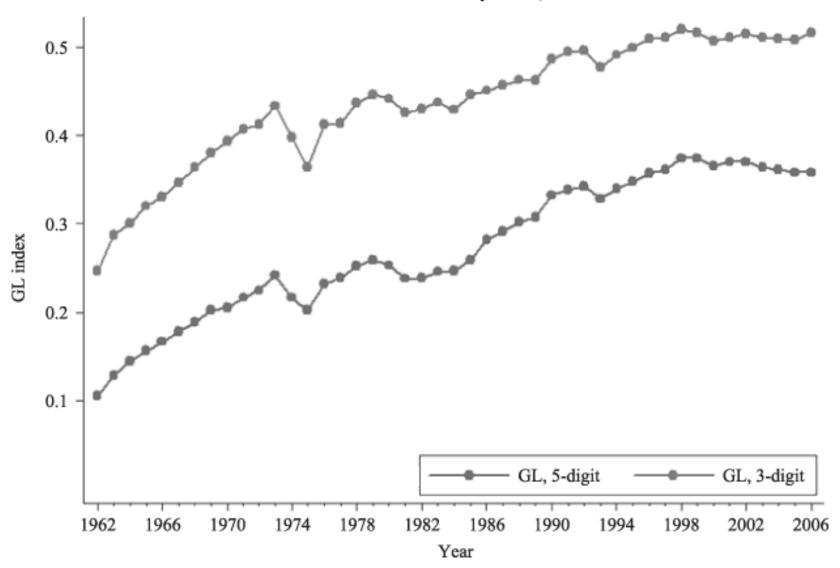
Intra-industry trade

- If, for a country, we observe both import and export of 'Sweet biscuits, waffles and wafers, gingerbread and the like', that is defined as intraindustry trade
- A synthetic indicator of the importance of intra-industry trade is the Grubel-Lloyd index (GL)
- For each sector and country, the index is defined as

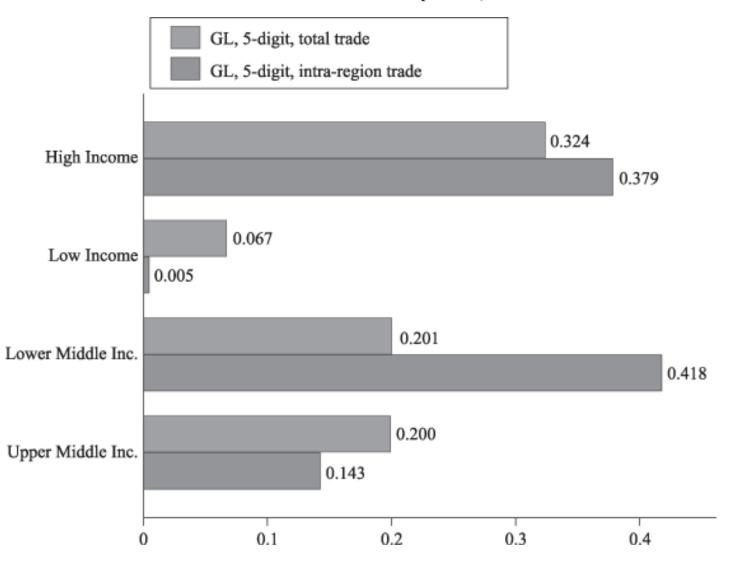
$$GL = 1 - \frac{|\text{Export - Import}|}{\text{Export + Import}}$$

- The index is equal to 1-1 = 0 if trade is unidirectional (i.e. if export>0 and import=0 or export=0 and import>0)
- The index is equal to 1-0 = 1 if export = import and both import and export are >0 → the country exports and imports the same amount of a specific commodity (e.g. Italy imports 6M€ of spaghetti and exports 6M€ of spaghetti)

An Account of Global Intra-industry Trade, 1962–2006



An Account of Global Intra-industry Trade, 1962–2006



Intra-industry trade by sector

Top ten sectors in terms of intra-industry trade			
Sector Name	% of World Trade	GL Index, 5-Digit	
ELEC PWR MACH, SWITCHGEAR	0.50188	0.527	
ARTICLES OF PLASTIC NES	0.09527	0.509	
POWER MACHINERY NON-ELEC	1.62557	0.499	
ELECTRO-MEDCL, XRAY EQUIP	0.05262	0.477	
PLASTIC MATERIALS ETC	1.65085	0.458	
ELECTR DISTRIBUTING MACH	0.26685	0.453	
SOAPS, CLEANING ETC PREPS	0.06767	0.434	
ELECTRICAL MACHINERY NES	10.49781	0.431	
METAL MANUFACTURES NES	1.83187	0.426	
MACHINES NES NONELECTRIC	14.58087	0.423	

Bottom ten sectors in terms of intra-industry trade

bottom ten sectors in terms of intra maasti y trade			
Sector Name	% of World Trade	GL Index, 5-Digit	
WHEAT ETC UNMILLED	0.02286	0.023	
COAL, COKE, BRIQUETTES	0.22438	0.017	
IRON ORE, CONCENTRATES	0.058	0.017	
RICE	0.01597	0.015	
NONFER BASE MTL ORE, CONC	0.41198	0.012	
CRUDE PETROLEUM, ETC	0.99246	0.01	
SILK	0.00094	0.009	
JUTE	0.00014	0.009	
COTTON	0.03397	0.008	
URANIUM, THORIUM ORE, CONC	0.00053	0	

Source: Brülhart (1999)

Intra-industry trade

 Intra-industry trade is high in highly 'differentiated' sectors

Intra-industry trade is high in sophisticated manufactured products

 Homogenous commodities (e.g. raw materials, agricultural products) show very little levels of intra-industry trade

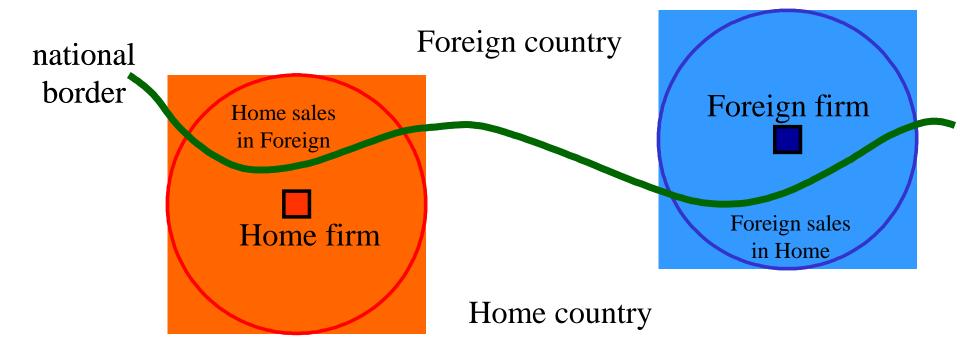
Reasons for intra-industry trade

- Transportation costs
- Climate differences
- Imperfect competition
- Non-homogeneous commodities

Transportation costs and intra-industry trade

- Assume that transportation costs for shipping a commodity (e.g. cement) are high (relative to its market value)
- If a customer is located near to a national border (or near to a port), it could be cheaper to import from foreign producers located just on the other side of the border than from domestic producers
- If this happen in both sides of the border, official trade data will record intra-industry trade

Figure 4.4 Intra-industry trade as a result of transportation costs



Climate differences

- The seasonality of agricultural products may drive intra-industry trade
- Oranges are picked-up in winter
 - December-February in the Northern hemisphere (e.g. Italy)
 - June-August in the Southern hemisphere (e.g. South America)
- Consumers of oranges in the Northern hemisphere will buy oranges in summer from countries in the Southern hemisphere
- Consumers of oranges in the Southern hemisphere will buy oranges in 'their' summer from countries in the Northern hemisphere
- Over the year, trade of oranges between Northern and Southern hemispheres goes in both directions

Imperfect competition

Perfect competition

Producers and consumers are price takers

Imperfect competition

Producers and/or consumers have some influence on prices

Monopoly or oligopoly

- Firms face a downward sloping demand
- P=f(Q) while in perfect competition P=P*

Measuring competition

- Markets with imperfect competition generally feature a small number of active firms
 - Number of firms
 - Market share of the largest firms (concentration ratios)
 - Herfindahl index (sum of squared market share)

However:

- Markets with few firms can be highly competitive if the threat of entry of new firm is substantial
- Markets with many colluding firms can feature very low competition

Imperfect competition and increasing returns to scale

- The main reason behind the presence of imperfect competition is the presence of increasing returns to scale within the firm (internal increasing returns to scale)
- Increasing returns to scale by doubling all inputs, output more than doubles
- Consequence → as firm's volume of production increases, the average costs of production fall
- Decreasing average costs are generally driven by the presence of fixed costs (that do not depend on the quantity that is produced)

Increasing returns to scale and entry

- Perfect competition (i.e. constant returns to scale)
 - If the market price is larger than the marginal cost (i.e. positive profits), new firms will enter the market and expand the supply up to the point in which profits are zero
 - Entry is 'costless' → no need to pay a fixed cost
 - Absence of fixed costs size of firms does not matter for firm's unit cost
- Increasing returns to scale
 - Even if incumbent firms make some positive profit, potential entrants might not decide to enter if expected profits are not large enough to cover the fixed cost of entry

Internal vs external increasing returns to scale

- Internal increasing returns to scale
 - Firm's average costs fall with the volume of output that is produced by the firm
 - Internal increasing returns to scale induce a market structure characterized by imperfect competition
- External increasing returns to scale
 - Firm's average costs fall with the volume of output that is produced by all firms in the industry
 - They are compatible with perfect competition

Monopoly

- Differently from firms in perfectly competitive markets, the monopolist faces a downward sloping demand function
- The monopolist is not price-taker
- The price is set by the monopolist

Profit maximization in monopoly

 The monopolist will maximize the following profit function:

$$\max_{\{Q\}} \pi = Q * P(Q) - C(Q)$$

- Where Q*P(Q) are total revenues and C(Q) are total costs
- Recall that revenues in perfectly competitive markets were Q*P and not Q*P(Q)

Profit maximization in monopoly

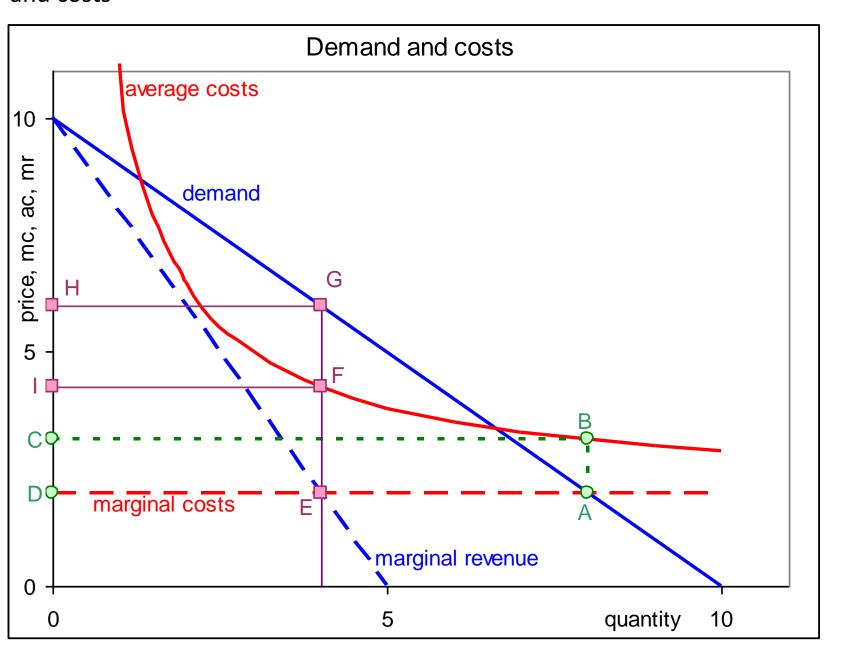
Profits are maximized when:

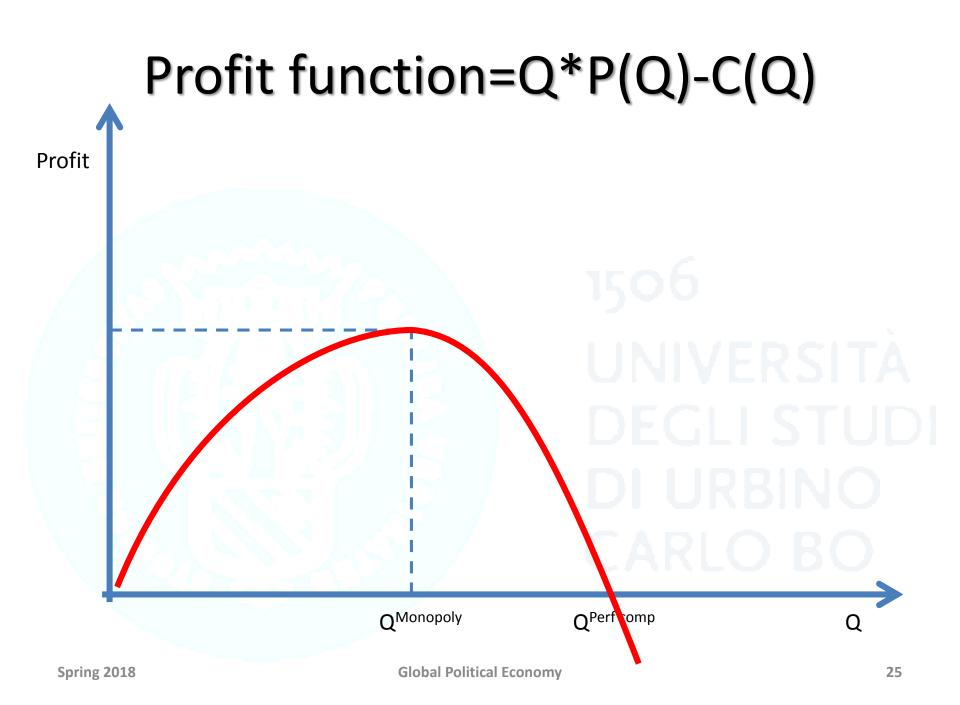
$$MR(Q) = MC(Q)$$

where:

$$MR(Q) = d[Q*P(Q)]/dQ = P(Q) + dP(Q)/dQ$$
$$MC(Q) = dC(Q)/dQ$$

Figure 4.2 Increasing returns to scale and perfect and imperfect competition, demand and costs





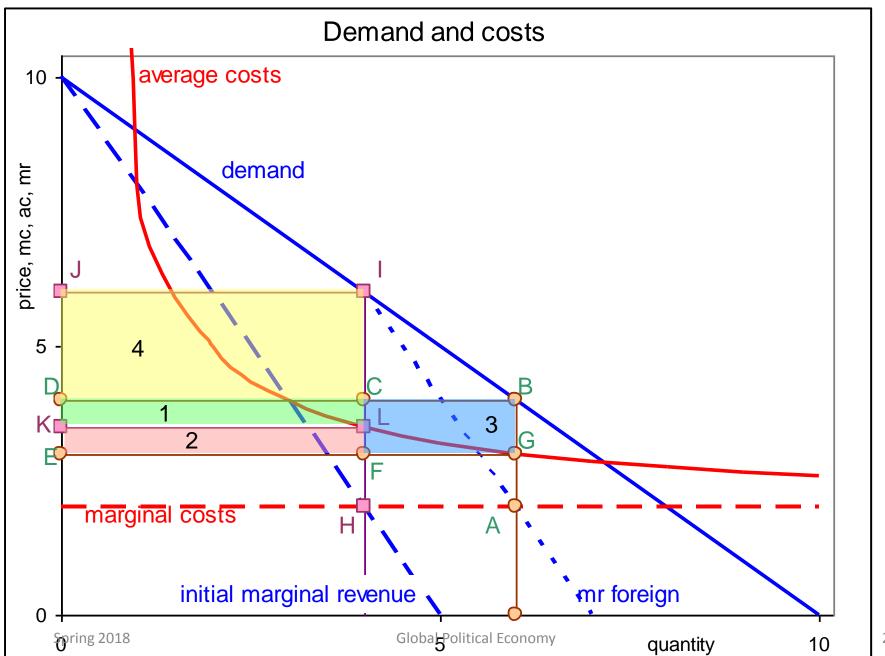
From autarchy to trade

- We assume that a specific homogeneous commodity is produced in monopoly in two countries, 1 and 2
- Monopolists in the two countries are identical → same cost structure
- In autarchy, each monopolists sets a price such that MR = MC

Trade

- Each monopolist can in principle serve both home and foreign markets
- The foreign firm assumes that the home firm will continue to produce the same quantity as before
- There is a residual demand abroad to be served

Figure 4.3 A trading equilibrium: monopoly versus duopoly, demand and costs



Trade and monopoly

- Opening a monopolistic market to trade:
 - Reduces the equilibrium price
 - Increases the equilibrium quantity
 - Increases welfare (consumers are better off)
 - Decreases profits (at home and abroad)
- Both firms have an incentive to enter each other's market
 - Firms think they can consolidate profits at Home and gain some extra profit in the Foreign market

From monopoly to monopolistic competition

- Pure monopolies seldom exist in practice
 - Natural monopolies are usually regulated by the government
 - If a firm tries to maintain a monopoly, anti-trust authorities kick-in to protect consumers
- Paul Krugman (1979) proposed a model of trade with monopolistic competition and product varieties to account for the role of economies of scale and imperfect competition

Non-homogeneos goods and monopolistic competition

- Assuming homogeneous / identical goods is a strong assumption
- Non-homogeneous goods (varieties) + increasing returns to scale → monopolistic competition
- Each producer is a monopolist in the production of a certain variety
- Varieties compete among each other as consumers are willing to substitute (to a certain degree) expensive varieties with cheaper varieties

Cars that cost about 20k-25k euro

Citroen Picasso





Fiat Panda 4x4



Honda Civic

Monopolistic competition

- Consumers love variety
 - They chose the variety that is closest to their 'ideal' variety
 - If a new variety is introduced on the market and it is closer to the 'ideal' variety than any other pre-existing variety, the consumer will shift its consumption to the new variety (if the price is the same for both varieties)
- Varieties compete among each other
 - If the 'ideal' variety for a consumer turns out to be too expensive, the consumer will shift to a cheaper similar variety

Monopolistic competition

- Producers are not price takers
 - Each producer is a monopolist in the production of a certain variety
 - For that variety, the producer faces a downward sloping demand function
 - Profit maximization → MC = MR
- Each firm takes the behaviour of other firms as given
 - The number of producers is sufficiently large
 - Each firm assumes that its competitors do not react if it lowers its price

Varieties

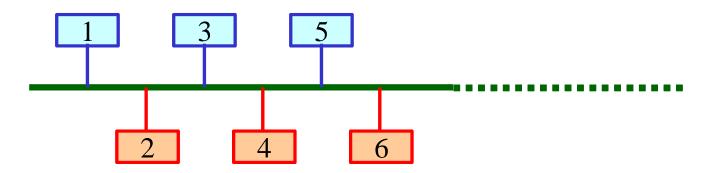
- In presence of increasing return to scale (i.e. fixed cost), producers in a country can only produce a limited number of varieties (n)
 - As the market size is limited at home, more varieties are not possible
 - If a new variety enters the market, the switch of consumers to this new variety will not allow to incumbent producers to cover fixed costs

Assumption

 Consumers are evenly distributed over a horizontal line that indicates the market area of a specific variety -> product characteristic line

Figure 4.5 The varieties approach of monopolistic competition

varieties in A

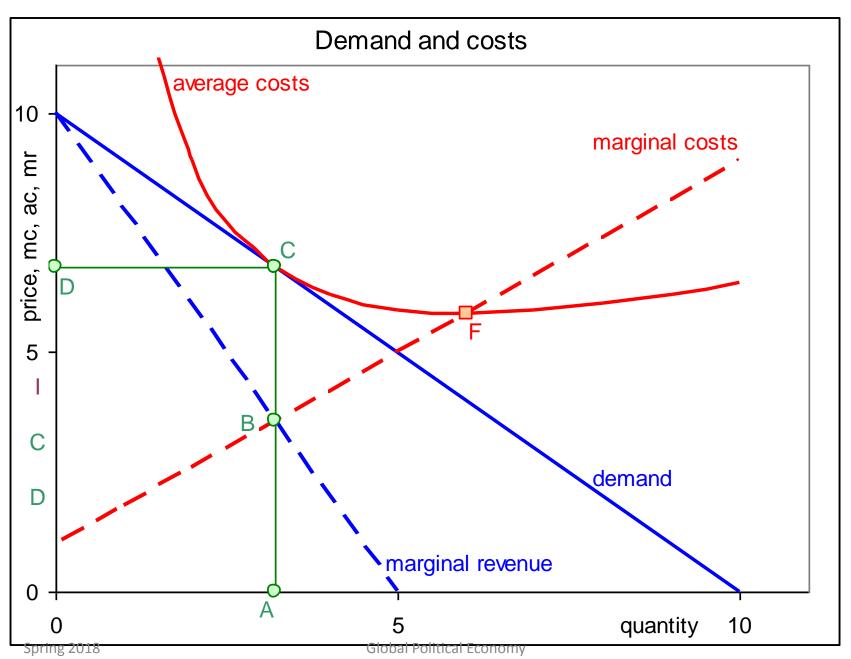


varieties in B

Monopolistic competition: entry and exit

- Free entry and exit give rise to a competitive pressure
- Entry of a new firm producing a new variety induces a switch of consumers from other varieties to the new variety
- Demand for other varieties shifts toward the origin
- As long as incumbent firms make positive profits (by equating MR=MC), new firms will enter the market
- Entry reduces profits of incumbent firms up to the point that profits shrink to zero and no new firm will enter the market
- Exit → if profits on the market are negative, some incumbent firms will exit the market → shift away from the origin of the demand for each variety and increase in profits up to zero

Figure 4.6 Monopolistic competition, demand and costs



37

Monopolistic competition

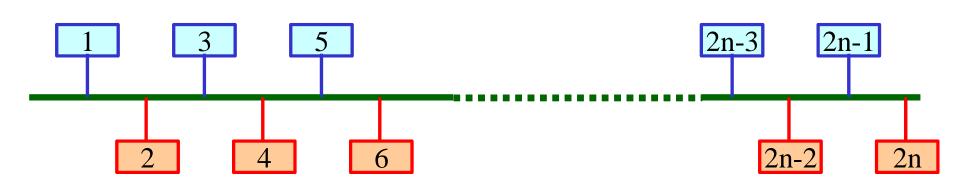
- In equilibrium, for each variety the market price will be equal to the average cost (but > MC)
- Profits are zero for all incumbent firms
- Condition → average cost function is tangent to the demand curve → price = average cost (Chamberlain, 1933)
- Economies of scale are not fully exploited (average costs are not at their minimum) → inefficiency?
- The large number of varieties benefits consumers that love variety

From autarchy to trade

- What happens when trade is allowed in a market with monopolistic competition?
- Costless trade is equivalent to assuming an increase in market size
- Competition effect prices go down both at home and abroad
- 'Love for variety' effect → consumers are happier because they have now access to a much larger number of varieties

Figure 4.5 The varieties approach of monopolistic competition

varieties in A

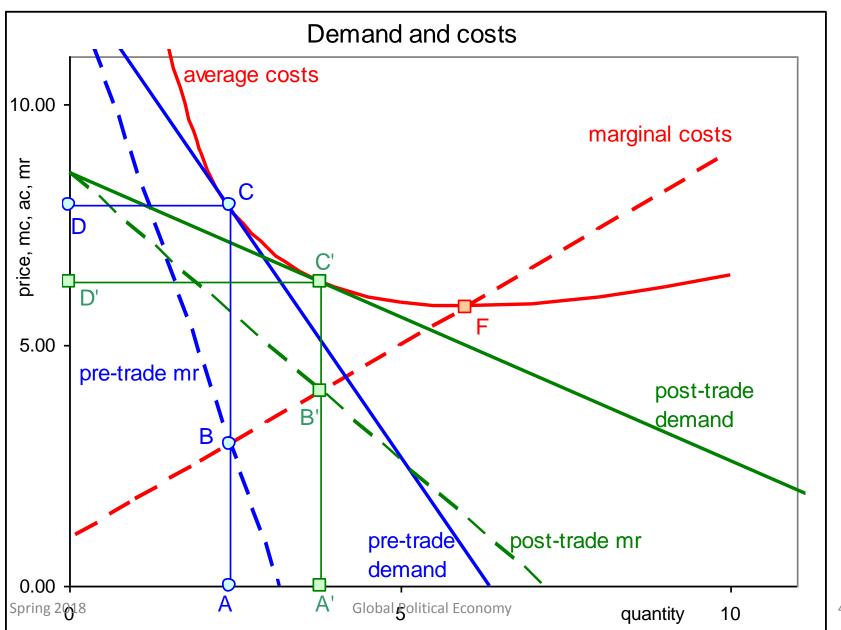


varieties in B

Trade with monopolistic competition

- Consumers can now potentially access 2*n varieties
- Some consumer may switch to a 'more ideal' variety than in autarchy
- Firms potentially double their market size but also lose half of their domestic consumers
- As the number of firms increases, also competition increases
 - The demand curve faced by each individual firm is now 'flatter' (more elastic)
 - Some firm will exit the market as a more elastic demand leads to negative profits (profits were already zero in autarchy)
- Monopolistic competition leads to two ways trade in similar commodities → intra-industry trade

Figure 4.7 Monopolistic competition and foreign trade pressure, demand and costs



Trade with monopolistic competition

- The number of varieties in equilibrium will be larger than n but lower than 2*n
- The competition effect, by increasing the elasticity of demand for each variety, induces a reduction in market prices
- Each producer, to obtain non-negative profits, needs to produce a larger quantity → better exploitation of economies of scale (than in autarchy)

Gains from trade

- Larger market size allows to exploit more efficiently the economies of scale
- With free entry, better exploitation of economies of scale induces a reduction in prices
- A larger market can sustain a larger number of varieties

 Affluent countries will be more likely to be engage in intra-industry trade

 Once basic needs are fulfilled by buying 'homogeneous' basic goods (e.g. wheat, cheap clothes, energy, etc), consumers buy more sophisticated (and differentiated) commodities

 Countries with different levels of development will also have different tastes

 This implies that varieties produced in one country are not suitable for consumers in another country

 Large countries can produce a larger number of varieties

 A large number of 'domestic' variety will also result in a substantial export of varieties

- Intra-industry trade is also expected to be high if:
 - The degree of product differentiation is high for a specific product (wheat vs cars)
 - Economies of scale are substantial

Implications of the model for firms' dynamics

- The 'competition effect' forces some variety (and firm) to exit the market
- In equilibrium, with trade, the number of varieties is lower than the sum of varieties in autarchy
- Selection effect → less efficient firms leave the market as competition pushed their profits below zero
- In presence of heterogeneous firms, trade:
 - Induces less efficient firms to leave the market
 - Results in an increase of the market share of the most efficient and productive firms
- Overall, trade improves productivity

Case study - The North American Auto Pact of 1964

- Before 1964, there were very high tariffs for importing cars both in Canada and the US to protect domestic producers of cars
- Both the US and Canada were 'autarchic' in the car market
- Producers in Canada were ultimately subsidiaries of US corporations (e.g. GM, Ford, etc)
- The Canadian car market was about 1/10 of the
 US car market

Case study - The North American Auto Pact of 1964

- US production plants were exploiting economies of scale in a better way than the Canadian ones
 - US production plants were 'dedicated' to a single model
 - Canadian production plants had to produce a
 portfolio of models as the Canadian market was not
 large enough to sustain 'dedicated' plants
- Labour productivity in Canadian plants was about 30 percent lower than the one of US plants

Case study - The North American Auto Pact of 1964

- US and Canada agreed in 1964 to establish a free trade area in automobiles → North American Auto Pact
- US multinationals reorganized their production by establishing 'dedicated' plants also in Canada
 - The number of 'varieties' produced in Canada decreased sharply (but not total production of cars and the number of varieties available to Canadian consumers)
 - Labour productivity of the Canadian car industry increased substantially and closed the gap with the US car industry