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ABSTRACT

Standard economic models that guide competition policy imply that demand increases should lead to more, not fewer firms. However, Sutton's (1991) model illustrates that in some cases, demand increases can catalyze competitive responses that bring about shake-outs. This paper provides empirical evidence of this effect in the 1960s-1980s hotel and motel industry, an industry where quality competition increasingly took the form of whether firms supplied outdoor recreational amenities such as swimming pools. We find that openings of new Interstate Highways are associated with increases in hotel employment, but decreases in the number of firms, in local areas. We further find that while highway construction is associated with increases in hotel employment in both warm and cold places, it only leads to fewer firms in warm places (where outdoor amenities were more valued by consumers). Finally, we find no evidence of this effect in other industries that serve highway travelers, gasoline retailing or restaurants, where quality competition is either less important or quality is supplied more through variable costs. We discuss the implications of these results for competition policy, and how they highlight the importance and challenge of distinguishing between "natural" and "market-power-driven" increases in concentration.

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I. Introduction

Shake-outs, episodes where the number of firms in an industry significantly decreases, are a common industry dynamic. While their details differ – some may be due simply to the exit of incumbent firms, while others may be due to a series of horizontal mergers – all lead to increases in market concentration. A long tradition in industrial organization and antitrust law associates increases in concentration with decreases in competition. Thus, what drives shake-outs is a key question in competition policy and its application to particular industries. In many standard models of competition, increases in demand (weakly) lead to more firms and thus decreases in concentration, and decreases in demand lead (weakly) to fewer firms and thus increases in concentration. These standard models suggest a potential screen for whether shake-outs are due to competitive factors, or reflect firms' attempts to obtain or increase market power: shake-outs due to demand decreases are likely due to competitive factors, but shake-outs that are associated with demand increases should be viewed with suspicion, since standard models do not imply that demand increases should lead to shake-outs. Increases in concentration across industries where demand is almost certainly increasing have led policy makers in the United States and the European Union to become concerned that "competition may be decreasing in many economic sectors" and that consumers would benefit from a more aggressive competition policy.¹

Important theoretical contributions by Shaked and Sutton (1987) and Sutton (1991) highlight the difficulty of utilizing simple rules of thumb for distinguishing between cases where shake-outs are due to "natural" competitive factors or firms' success in obtaining or increasing their market power, however. These models show that in industries where competition is in quality, and quality is produced with fixed costs, increases in demand can catalyze a competitive response that brings about shake-outs – higher demand can lead to *fewer* firms. Shake-outs can be due to competitive factors, and in fact can be initiated by increases in demand, even in industries where there are no new technologies that provide firms scale-related advantages.

This paper provides empirical evidence of this effect in the context of hotels and motels in the mid-to-late 20th century, where the completion of interstate highways across the United States increased demand in different non-urban areas at different times, and where an increasingly important element of quality competition took the form of whether firms supplied recreational amenities such as swimming pools. We first provide evidence that the completion of Interstate highways is associated greater local

¹ "Benefits of Competition and Indicators of Market Power," Council of Economic Advisers Issue Brief, April 2016.

demand for lodging, showing that it is associated with increases in hotel/motel employment. We then investigate how local industry structure adjusts to these shocks; we show that highway completion leads to fewer (but larger) hotels and motels. On average in our sample counties, the completion of highways leads to shakeouts.

We then provide evidence on whether the shake-outs in our sample are due to quality competition by examining whether this effect is stronger in warmer areas where the returns to investment in outdoor recreational amenities (i.e., swimming pools) are greater. We show that while the increase in employment in this industry is the same in warmer and cooler regions, highway completion only led to shakeouts in warmer regions. Finally, we provide further evidence on quality competition and changes in market structure by adopting a strategy similar to Berry and Waldfogel (2010). We investigate whether these effects appear also when looking at gas retailing or restaurants, industries where quality competition is either less important or quality is supplied primarily through variable costs rather than fixed costs. Unlike for hotels and motels, we find no evidence that highway completion is associated with shakeouts in these industries.

Our evidence connects to an important finding of Sutton (1991) that to our knowledge has not been investigated by the previous empirical literature: shakeouts – which in some cases could take the form of mergers or merger waves – can be catalyzed by increases in market size. The competitive responses that lead to shake-outs need not only be initiated by changes in the “technology” that produces quality (for example, in the case of consumer packaged goods, national television advertising in the 1950s and 1960s), but sometimes can be initiated simply by positive demand shocks. Firms’ incentives to grow – and in some cases to merge with other firms -- in response to demand increases need not be motivated by anticompetitive incentives, but rather may be motivated by increased incentives to compete more effectively on nonprice dimensions. Distinguishing between mergers that reflect changes in how firms compete, but not necessarily decreases in competition, and mergers that lead to decreases in competition is even more challenging than traditional models of competition – which posit that increases in demand should not lead to fewer firms – imply.

Our paper is related both to our own previous work (Campbell and Hubbard (2016), Mazzeo (2002a, 2002b)) on interstate highway openings and industry structure in gas retailing and competition and industry structure in rural hotel markets, respectively, and to several long literatures on the determinants of industry structure and its relationship to competition. Like Sutton (1991), it connects to the structure/conduct/performance paradigm of Bain (1956), subsequent critiques of this paradigm (Demsetz (1974)), and early game-theoretic models of imperfect competition and its connection to

industry structure (e.g., Spence (1976), Dixit and Stiglitz (1977), Salop (1979), Fudenberg and Tirole (1986)). Empirically, its investigation of the relationship between market size and market structure is similar in spirit to Bresnahan and Reiss (1990, 1991), Berry (1992), and Campbell and Hopenhayn (2005), though these earlier papers examine cross-sectional rather than time series relationships between market size and market structure. It is also closely related to the empirical studies that test propositions from Sutton (1991) (e.g., Ellickson (2007), George (2009), Berry and Waldfogel (2010)). Finally, it is related to several papers in urban economics and international trade that use the same interstate highway construction data that we use to examine interstate highway construction's broader effects (Chandra and Thompson (2000), Baum-Snow (2007), Michaels (2008)).

The rest of the paper is organized as follows. Section II describes the analytical framework, focusing particular on the relationship between market structure and market size. We discuss the conditions under which this relationship is non-monotonic, and increases in market size can lead to shake-outs. Section III describes general features and trends in the hotel and motel industry during the time period that is the focus of this study, the 1960s-1980s. The facts discussed in this section help frame our main empirical analysis, and rule out some potential explanations of why increases in demand might be associated with decreases in the number of firms during this time. Section IV describes our data, which are from County Business Patterns and the Department of Transportation's PR-511 file; the former describes the number and size distribution of hotels and motels, by year and county, and the latter reports the date that each segment of the United States' Interstate Highway System opened. Section V describes our empirical specifications and discusses our main results. Section VI concludes.

II. Market Size and Industry Structure

Our analytical framework draws from Shaked and Sutton (1987) and especially Sutton (1991). Sutton's (1991) theory focuses squarely on the relationship between market size and market structure and its connection to quality competition. He distinguishes between two types of industries. One is industries where sunk costs are exogenous. In these industries, production requires firms to incur fixed costs – for example, the set-up costs associated with a production plant – but firms have no incentive to incur such costs beyond what is necessary to produce. Investing further does not increase the real or perceived quality of firms' products. The other type of industry is where sunk costs are endogenous. In

these industries, firms can have an incentive to incur fixed costs beyond what is necessary to produce – for example because doing so increases their products’ real or perceived quality.²

Sutton’s central result is that the relationship between market size and market structure is different for these two types of industries. We depict this difference in Figure 1. In industries where sunk costs are exogenous, increases in market size create entry opportunities, and lead the equilibrium number of firms to (weakly) increase. More firms can fit in the market as market size increases. In these industries, fragmented outcomes where many firms serve a particular market are possible as market size becomes large. In contrast, in industries where sunk costs are endogenous, fragmentation is not an equilibrium outcome, even as market size becomes large. The reason for this is that as market size increases, firms’ incentives to incur additional fixed costs increase as well – the potential returns to incremental investments in quality are greater when market size is larger because such fixed investments can be applied to a larger customer base. Increases in this form of non-price competition serve to limit the number of viable firms, however. In equilibrium, firms must have higher variable profits in order to cover these increased fixed costs, and firms cannot achieve higher variable profits if the number of firms is large.

In his book, Sutton emphasizes two features of this central result. “The first is...[that] increases in market size do not lead to an indefinite fall in concentration. The second feature relates to the fact that the market size/market structure relationship is not even necessarily monotonic.” (Sutton (1991), p. 60) This non-monotonicity means that increases in market size can lead to shake-outs. Below we will provide evidence that this effect helps explain long-run historical changes in industry structure in the U.S. hotel/motel industry. Because this effect has not been the focus of the various empirical studies that have followed Sutton, we discuss it next in more detail.

Increases in market size can lead to shake-outs because industries can effectively shift from being “exogenous sunk cost industries” to “endogenous sunk cost industries” as market size increases. When market size is small (enough), no firm has an incentive to incur additional fixed costs that increase the quality of its offerings, even if no other firm has done so – the potential returns are low because the potential increase in a firm’s sales are low relative to the incremental fixed costs needed to increase quality. As long as this is true, the market size/market structure relationship is like that in exogenous sunk cost industries, and increases in market size will tend to lead to more firms. However, as market size increases, demand is great enough so that it becomes profitable for one firm to deviate and incur

² Sutton (1991) emphasizes advertising and research development expenditures as examples of endogenous sunk costs, but others have investigated how endogenous sunk costs arise from other dimensions of quality competition (for example, Ellickson (1997), Berry and Waldfogel (2010)).

additional fixed costs toward attracting additional customers. At this point, the competitive dynamics change and the market size/market structure relationship is no longer like that in exogenous sunk cost industries. Once firms begin to compete in this way – they compete on quality where quality is produced through fixed costs – fragmented outcomes that may have been possible even when market size was smaller are no longer equilibrium outcomes, and as market size increases further, the number of firms can decrease. (See Figure 1.) Increases in market size can lead to shakeouts because such increases can change an industry’s competitive dynamics. Such increases enhance firms’ incentives to engage in non-price competition, and a consequence of increased non-price competition can be that fewer firms can “fit in the market” (i.e., have variable profits that at least cover their fixed costs) than when market size was smaller and firms did not have as strong an incentive to compete in this way.

As Sutton and especially Berry and Waldfogel (2010) have emphasized, the fact that quality competition is in the form of fixed costs rather than variable costs is essential for Sutton’s central result. When quality competition takes the form of fixed costs, firms’ marginal costs are independent of their quality, and a high quality firm has low enough marginal costs so that it can successfully compete not only for quality-sensitive customers, but also for less-quality-sensitive customers. This means that increases in market size – even when these increases are only in more quality-sensitive customers – can nevertheless have competitive implications for incumbent firms that serve less-quality-sensitive customers. By increasing firms’ incentives to make fixed cost investments in their quality, increases in market size can enhance high-quality firms’ ability to compete for all customers, not just quality-sensitive customers. In contrast, when quality competition takes the form of variable costs, the competitive implications of increased quality competition are different. Increases in market size leads to more firms, and leads to a broader spectrum of quality produced in the market. High-quality firms’ marginal costs are higher than low-quality firms’ marginal costs, and this limits their ability to compete successfully for customers who are not quality-sensitive. Similar to the exogenous sunk cost case described above, increases in market size will tend to lead to more firms.³

III. Hotels and Motels: Basic Patterns

³ Berry and Waldfogel (2010) illustrate this difference by comparing the relationship between market size and the number and quality of newspapers (where quality is produced largely with fixed costs) and restaurants (where quality is produced largely with variable costs) in U.S. metropolitan areas. They find that as market size increases, the number of newspapers changes little but their quality increases. In contrast, they find as market size increases, both the number and variety of restaurants increases. They conclude that these patterns are consistent with the implications of Sutton’s model on the relationship between market size and product quality. Below, some of our empirical work will exploit a similar strategy to Berry and Waldfogel, as we contrast the relationships we uncover between market size and the number of firms in the hotel industry with those in the restaurant industry.

We begin by relating general trends in the U.S. hotel industry from the 1960s through the early 1990s, the period of our sample. These general trends come from published Census reports, including County Business Patterns and the Economic Census. Reports from the Economic Censuses provide key background facts because, although these generally only took place every five years, the surveys the Census sent to hotels and motels asked unusually detailed questions about hotels' and motels' characteristics. These background facts help shape our interpretations of our main analyses, which use data from County Business Patterns – which are annual and publicly available but do not contain detail about hotels' and motels' characteristics beyond their employment size.

Figure 2 shows basic trends in hotel employment, and the number and size of hotels and motels. The top panel shows that employment expanded in this industry during the 1960s, 1970s, and 1980s, increasing by 270% between 1964 and 1992. The bottom shows that much of this expansion came in the form of larger hotels and motels, rather than more hotels and motels. In fact, the number of hotels and motels decreased by 15% between 1964 and 1981, before recovering to its 1964 level in the late 1980s.⁴ In contrast, the average number of employees per hotel/motel steadily increased throughout this period. The average number of employees per hotel/motel in 1992 was about two-and-a-half times larger than in 1964.

These changes in averages mask changes in the composition of hotels and motels during this time. Figure 3 shows the distribution of establishments by number of guestrooms, and by whether they are hotels or motels, in 1963 and 1982. This figure shows an increase in the establishment share of motels relative to hotels, and particularly an increase in the share of larger motels during this time. For example, in 1963 only 7% of hotels and motels were motels with at least 50 rooms; in 1982, 28% were. In contrast, the share of hotels and motels with fewer than 25 rooms declined from 50% to 30% during this time. In sum, there was a shift from small motels and hotels to large motels during this time.

While hotels' and motels' primary service is lodging, many have restaurants and/or recreational facilities as amenities. Restaurants, however, were becoming less important relative to rooms as a source of revenues during this time. The top part of Table 1 reports that food and beverage sales made up 34% of hotels/motels' revenues in 1963. This figure fell to 26% in 1982.⁵ The bottom part of the table reports these shares, only including motels. The pattern is similar; the food and beverage revenue

⁴ This count only includes the number of hotels with positive numbers of employees. Including non-employer hotels in the analysis would lead the decrease to be greater.

⁵ The large increase in the share of revenues from "other" reflects increases in revenues from casinos. The right-most column reports the ratio of food and beverage revenues to room revenues; the fall in this ratio confirms that food and beverage revenues declined relative to room revenues during this time.

share fell from 22% to 19% during this time. Although motels were becoming larger during this time, there is no evidence a greater share of them had restaurants.

In contrast, recreational facilities, especially swimming pools, were becoming more common, especially in the south. Table 1 reports the share of hotels and motels with any recreational facility, and with a swimming pool and/or private beach. 30% of hotels and motels reported having some form of recreational facility in 1963; by far the most common recreational facility was a swimming pool. 23% of hotels and motels, and 28% of motels, reported that they had a swimming pool. This share increased significantly during our sample period. By 1972, over half of hotels and motels had either a swimming pool or private beach (mostly the former). The increase in the share of hotels and motels with a pool or private beach was larger in warmer states. Figure 4 plots the share of hotels and motels with a pool or beach in each state against the average temperature in the state. The share with a pool or beach is higher in warmer states in both 1963 and 1972, but the increase between 1963 and 1972 tended to be greater in warmer states – as indicated by 1972’s steeper regression line.

A well-known trend during this time period is the emergence of large motel chains, including most famously Holiday Inn. Figures from the Economic Census indicate that an increasing share of motels was affiliated with a chain during our sample period, and that chain-affiliated motels were much larger than unaffiliated motels. The share of motels that was chain-affiliated increased from 9% in 1967 to 18% in 1977, and chains’ share of motel revenues increased from 30% in 1967 to 48% in 1977.⁶ Most chains at the time were affiliations of independently-owned hotels and motels (e.g., Best Western, Quality Choice), and some of these were formally organized as franchised chains (e.g., Holiday Inn). Although some chains required individual outlets to meet specific standards (e.g., all Holiday Inns had pools, restaurants, and the “Great Sign” in front), most required them to meet less specific quality standards which did not require them to supply specific amenities such as pools or restaurants. Chains primarily allowed hotels and motels to capitalize on scale economies that extended *across* locations (e.g., brands, referral networks, procurement, sometimes business models), but some of their assets, including their brand name, also could have created scale economies at the level of the individual hotel or motel.

Figure 5 depicts the relationship between chains’ share of motel revenues in 1967 and 1977 and average temperature, by state. This figure shows that chains were more prevalent in warmer states than cooler states in both years. However, there is no evidence that the increase in chains’ share of receipts differed between warmer and cooler states – it increased by about 20 percentage points across

⁶ The growth in these shares then slowed; chains made up 21% of motels, and 45% of motel revenues in 1982.

the temperature spectrum. Whereas the share of hotels and motels with pools increased more in the south than in the north during our time period, the expansion of motel chains during this time was similar in the south and north.⁷

Our analysis focuses on the relationship between changes in the number and size distribution of hotels and motels and interstate highway openings. Figure 6 summarizes the timing of the opening of two-digit interstate highways between 1960 and 1982. About 15% of the mileage had opened by the end of 1960, 35% by the end of 1964, 75% by the end of 1971, and 97% by the end of 1982. Highway openings peaked in 1965 and 1966, remained at over 1000 miles per year through 1974, then dwindled thereafter. After 1983, fewer than 100 miles per year of new two-digit interstate highways were opened. Our data on hotels and motels extends through the early 1990s – allowing us to investigate long-run relationships between highway openings and industry structure – but the highway openings we exploit are mainly in the 1960s and early 1970s.

IV. Data

Our main data sources are the same as in Campbell and Hubbard (2016). We obtain county-level data on hotel employment, the total number of hotels, and the number of hotels in different employment-size categories from the Bureau of the Census' County Business Patterns, from 1964-1992.⁸ These data provide our main dependent variables, including the number and average employment size of hotels in U.S. counties.⁹

We restrict our analysis to smaller counties where traffic patterns are relatively uncomplicated, and where one would expect through traffic to be an important source of demand for hotels – and thus highway completion would be an economically important demand shock. Similar to Campbell and Hubbard (2016), we use only counties with one one- or two-digit Interstate highway and no three-digit interstates (which eliminates most large cities and counties where Interstates intersect), and further eliminate the few populous counties that remain by dropping those whose employment exceeded

⁷ Differences in the years in this Figure and Figure 4 reflect that the Economic Census' survey forms changed from year to year; the Census did not ask about chain affiliation until 1967, and did not ask about recreational facilities after 1972.

⁸ Hereafter, to simplify language, we will use the term "hotels" to mean "hotels and motels." County Business Patterns does not distinguish between the two.

⁹ Before 1974, the Census reported the number of firms operating hotels in each county, rather than the number of hotels. This has a small effect on our analysis because it is uncommon for firms to operate multiple hotels in the same county, in our sample counties. (It is much more common for a chain to have multiple hotels in a county which are operated by separate franchisees.) Below we describe how we account for this in our empirical framework. Here and throughout, we will use the word "hotels" rather than the phrase "firms operating hotels" to discuss this variable, even though the latter is more accurate before 1974.

200,000 in 1992. We further eliminate counties where the Interstate passes through but there is no exit. We conduct our analysis on a balanced panel of 227 counties which satisfy these criteria and for which we observe the number of hotels in each of our sample years.¹⁰

Along with data on hotels, we also collect analogous data on two other industries: “eating and drinking places” (“EDPs;” i.e., restaurants and bars) and “gasoline retailing.” We use these other data in “falsification exercises” to investigate the hypothesis that the relationships we observe between highway openings and changes in industry structure in hotels reflect competitive effects that one would expect to observe in the hotel industry but not these other industries.

We combine these data with highly detailed data on Interstate Highway openings. These come from the U.S. Department of Transportation’s “PR-511” file. We observe in these data the opening date of every mile of the Interstate Highway System. We calculate from these data the two key independent variables in our analysis. One is $csmi_{it}$, the cumulative share of interstate highway mileage in county i that was completed by the end of year t . Because highways are completed and opened in segments, it is typical for a part of a highway to be opened in a county, then the rest of it some time later. This variable allows us to assess the effects of highway openings in a county on the number and size of hotels in the same county. Our second key independent variable – the variable that turns out to be more important in our analysis -- is $ccsmi_{it}$, which is analogous to $csmi_{it}$ but calculated at the “corridor” level. The motivation for this variable is that traffic volumes, and thus potentially demand for hotels, in county i , would be affected not only by the highway completion in county i , but also highway completion in other counties in the same traffic corridor. For example, traffic volumes in Boone County, Missouri – which lies between Kansas City and St. Louis along Interstate 70, are not only affected by the completion of I-70 in Boone County, but also by the completion of I-70 in other counties between Kansas City and St. Louis. We therefore divide the Interstate Highway System into corridors (such as “Kansas City-St. Louis”) and calculate the share of Interstate Highway mileage completed in the corridor by the end of each year. This gives us $ccsmi_{it}$ for each county in the corridor.

Although the definition of corridors and construction of $ccsmi_{it}$ is discussed at length in the Appendix of Campbell and Hubbard (2016), it is worth discussing at some length here because it will play a major role in our analysis (in fact, more important than in this earlier paper). The Kansas City-St. Louis example that we describe above is one where corridor definition is straightforward; it is less straightforward in other cases.

¹⁰ The Census tended not to publish data for industry-counties with fewer than 100 employees during the 1960s and early 1970s, presumably to economize on printing costs. Our balanced panel tends not to include counties with very few hotels (unlike Mazzeo’s earlier work).

The first step in defining corridors is determining corridor endpoints (i.e., the nodes of the network). We found that one useful way of doing so is simply by looking at a map of the United States in a road atlas, and using the cities that are denoted in bold. These cities all have population of at least 100,000 people (as of 1996, the date of the map we used). In large metropolitan areas where both a central city and one or more surrounding cities have more than 100,000 population, the bolded city only generally includes the central city (e.g., Los Angeles, but not Pasadena). We then chose an important interstate highway junction as the exact beginning/endpoint of the corridor. In some cases highways do not end in cities (for example, they end at the Canadian border, or an east-west highway ends at the junction of a north-south highway); in these cases, the end of the highway served as the corridor endpoint.

The second step of the process is assigning highway segments to corridors. This is straightforward in cases such as Boone County where the highway is only part of one corridor but is more complicated in other cases, such as when there is a “fork in the road” between two corridor endpoints, or when highways merge and then separate. In such cases, the highway segments in the “trunks” are part of multiple corridors that involve different branches. For example, going west from Tucson, Arizona, Interstate 10 splits into two highways (Interstate 8, and the continuation of Interstate 10). The “trunk” between Tucson and this split is part of two corridors: Tucson-San Diego and Tucson-Phoenix. For counties along these trunks, we calculate a single corridor completion measure by first calculating the cumulative share of construction along each corridor, then weighting each of these corridors by the traffic volume on each of the branches, evaluated at a point as close as possible to the trunk.¹¹

Finally, we collect data on temperatures by county from the North America Land Data Assimilation System (NLDAS).¹² These report that average high and low temperatures in each of the counties in our sample, where the averages are taken from 1979-2010 over 14x14 kilometer regions that span each county. From this, we construct an “average temperature” variable for each county by simply taking the mean of the average high and low temperature. Average temperature ranges from about 40 degrees to about 75 degrees across the counties in our sample; the mean across counties is 55 degrees.

Basic Patterns In Our Sample

¹¹ For example, if the branch on the Tucson-Phoenix corridor had twice as much traffic as that on the Tucson-San Diego corridor, the former would receive a 2/3 weight and the latter a 1/3 weight.

¹² <https://wonder.cdc.gov/nasa-nldas.html>

Figure 7 depicts the counties in our sample, with average temperatures depicted on a scale ranging from blue to red. This figure shows that our counties come from all regions of the United States. Though none of these counties have large cities, many have smaller cities (e.g., Anniston, AL; Modesto, CA; New London, CT).

Figure 8 shows county-level employment at hotels in our sample counties. The top panel shows that on average, employment increased from around 300 in 1964 to over 600 in 1992. The bottom panel breaks out the coldest 25% and warmest 25% of counties in our sample, and normalizes employment in each of these two groups to their 1964 level. The trends in these two groups are similar to each other and similar to the average across our sample; total hotel employment slightly more than doubled during this time period. This suggests that the supply expansion during this time period was similar, irrespective of whether the county was in the north or south.

Figure 9 shows the average number of hotels in our sample counties. The top panel shows that this declined by 15-20% between 1964 and 1981, then rose by the same amount between 1981-1992. This pattern is similar to that in the national data we discussed above. The bottom panel shows that, unlike the patterns we reported in Figure 8 for employment at hotels, the changes in the number of hotels differ in cold and warm counties. The number of hotels increased during our sample by more than 20% in cold counties. It decreased by about 20% between 1964 and 1981 in warm counties, then recovered to close to its 1964 level by 1992. Figure 10 reports analogous patterns, normalizing the number of hotels by a county's employment; much of our regression analysis will use this measure, which normalizes by the size of the county. The top panel shows that, on average, the number of hotels per 1000 county employment declines by about one-half during our sample period; the bottom panel shows that this decline is greater in warm counties than cold counties.

Combined, Figures 8-10 provide evidence that although the supply expansion was similar in cold and warm counties during our sample period, industry structure evolved differently. There was a decline in the number of hotels in our warm counties, and an increase in our cold counties.

Figure 11 depicts interstate highway construction in our sample counties. In the top panel, the dashed line depicts yearly averages of $csmi_t$, the share of interstate highway mileage in the county that was completed by the end of year t . It indicates that, on average, about half of the mileage was completed by the end of 1964, about 80% by the end of 1971, and well over 90% by the end of 1980. The solid line depicts yearly averages of $ccsmi_t$, the share of interstate highway mileage in the county's *corridor* that was completed by the end of year t . This shows a similar pattern, but is lower than the dashed line in most of our sample period. Thus, highway construction in our sample counties was

generally earlier than construction in the rest of the county's corridor.¹³ In the bottom panel, we divide the counties in each year into three categories, according to whether construction is complete, in process, or has not yet begun. This shows that much of the time variation in $ccsmi_t$ is accounted for by counties where construction is already complete: thus, when we are measuring the effects of corridor completion on hotels in a county, we are generally picking up the effects of corridor completion in a county where the highway has already been finished. We interpret corridor completion as reductions in transportation costs that lead to increases in traffic and therefore demand for hotels; the variation that we are exploiting is, by and large, affecting changing traffic levels (and hotel demand) in our sample counties by lowering transportation costs through other counties (e.g., neighboring counties on the same corridor).

V. Results

Highway Construction and County Hotel Employment

We begin by presenting results where we relate county hotel employment to highway construction. We use autoregressive specifications that take the form:

$$y_{it} = \alpha_i + \mu_t + \lambda y_{i,t-1} + \beta x_{it} + \varepsilon_{it}$$

where y_{it} is $\ln(\text{county hotel employment})$, α_i includes county fixed effects, μ_t includes year fixed effects, and x_{it} includes highway opening variables. Depending on the specification, x_{it} includes the share of the highway corridor in which county i is located that is completed by the end of year t ("corridor completion") and/or the share of the highway in county i that is completed by the end of year t ("county completion"). Our estimates of β give the contemporaneous impact of highway openings on county hotel employment; $\beta/(1-\lambda)$ measures the long-run impact of highway openings on county hotel employment.

Table 2 reports our results. In the first column, x_{it} includes only corridor completion ($ccsmi_t$). The coefficient on this variable is positive and significant. Its magnitude indicates that the corridor completion is associated with an 8.4% contemporaneous increase in county hotel employment. Combined with the estimate on the AR term, it implies that corridor completion is associated with a 29.0% long-run increase in county hotel employment. These results are consistent with the hypothesis that highway completion is associated with increases in the demand for hotels in the counties in our sample. Although one effect that the completion of highways may have is to change the distribution of

¹³ Comparing these figures to those in Figure 6, highways in our sample counties also were completed somewhat earlier than two-digit interstate highways were in general. By the end of 1964, only 35% of two-digit interstate highway mileage was completed nationwide, while about 50% was completed in our counties.

demand from the counties in our sample to larger cities (by increasing travel speeds), this effect appears to be swamped by other effects (e.g., increased traffic volumes on the interstate through substitution from other state and US highways) that led to overall increases in demand for hotels in our sample counties.

The second column adds “county completion” ($csmi_t$) as an independent variable. Our coefficient estimate on this variable is small and statistically insignificant, while our coefficient estimate on “corridor completion” increases slightly. These results indicate that there is no evidence that highway openings in the county at hand have an impact on hotel employment in the county, apart from the fact that such openings increase corridor completion. In other words, what matters is corridor completion, and there is no special effect associated with county completion. Any effects of highway completion on demand for hotels have to do with corridor-level effects (such as increases in traffic volume), not effects associated with changes in traffic patterns in the county at hand.¹⁴

The third column explores this further by considering the impact of corridor completion on hotel employment in four distinct cases. We first identify cases where at least some of the corridor completion during the year was in the county at hand. We then consider circumstances where corridor completion was entirely outside of the county at hand, and distinguish among three cases: one where no construction had yet taken place in the county, another where construction was partially complete in the county (and thus traffic was forced to exit the highway in the county), and a third where construction was fully complete in the county. We then allow the effects of corridor construction to vary across these cases.

The results in this column indicate that corridor construction is associated with increases in county hotel employment in each of these four cases, and there is no evidence that the effects are statistically different. The first case is where corridor completion is in the county at hand: the coefficient is 0.090, which is nearly the same as the average effect across all cases reported in the first column. The second case is counties where no construction yet has taken place. The point estimate on this is much higher -- .214 -- but the standard error is high as well. The coefficients in the other two cases, counties where construction is partially and fully complete, are similar to that in the first case and the overall average. As noted above, and as indicated by the lower standard errors, cases where construction in the county is fully complete make up the bulk of our sample.

¹⁴ This result is different than what Campbell and Hubbard (2016) found for gas stations. There, the effect of highway completion on gas station employment and market structure was associated with completion of the highway in the county rather than the corridor.

Together, these results are consistent with the hypothesis that demand increases associated with highway completion are related to increased traffic volumes in the corridor, and not other potentially more localized effects. The effect of highway completion in county A on hotel employment in county B (another county on the same corridor) is no different than the effect of highway completion in county B on hotel employment in county B. Furthermore, the effect of highway completion in county A on county B exists both when the highway in county B is fully complete and when it has yet to be started, and the effect is not significantly different.

Highway Completion and Industry Structure in Hotels

Table 3 begins to show our main results, which relate highway completion to the number and size of hotels in a county. Our specifications are analogous to those in Campbell and Lapham (2004) and Campbell and Hubbard (2016): they are VARs where the dependent variables are the log of the number of hotels in county i in year t (normalized by total county employment in year t) and the log of the average employment size of hotels in county i in year t .¹⁵ These regressions have the same structure as the “county hotel employment” regressions we discuss above, but also include the lag of both dependent variables on the right hand side.

The first column shows the results of our base specification. The top panel shows the relationship between the number of hotels and highway completion. The coefficient on corridor completion is negative and significant: while we know from the previous table that corridor completion is associated with increases in hotel employment in a county (and thus increased demand), these results show that corridor completion is associated with *decreases* in the number of hotels. The coefficient estimates imply that the magnitude of the effects is substantial: completion of a highway corridor that cuts through a county is associated with about a 30% decrease in the number of hotels in the long run.

The bottom panel shows the relationship between highway completion and the average employment size of hotels. The coefficient estimate in the first column is positive and significant, and combined with the AR coefficients, indicates the effect of corridor completion on average hotel size is large – also on the order of 30%. Corridor completion, an event that appears to lead to increases in the demand for hotels, is associated with shakeouts in local hotel markets – fewer, but larger, hotels.

¹⁵ As discussed above our dependent variable changes from the number of employer firms operating hotels in county i in year t before 1974 to the number of hotels with positive employment in county i in year t thereafter. We control for the change in our dependent variable between 1973 and 1974 through year fixed effects, and by allowing our autoregressive terms to be different in 1974 (to allow the “transition matrix” to be different in this year).

The other two columns in this table are analogous to those in the county hotel employment in Table 2. Like in these other regressions, there is no evidence that these effects differ when corridor completion is in the county at hand, or differ by the extent to which the highway is completed in the county at hand. This fact shapes our interpretation of the relationship between highway completion and shakeouts. If our results only reflected that highway completion in county A led to a decline in the number of hotels in county A, then shakeouts associated with highway completion could reflect the impact that new highways have on industry structure through changes in local traffic patterns: for example, they could change local markets' competitive dynamics by making hotel locations near exits much desirable than other locations. However, we find that the effect of highway completion in county A leads to a similar decline in the number of hotels in county A and in other counties along the same corridor – including counties where the highway was completed years before. We therefore conclude that the relationship between highway completion and shakeouts is instead related to highway completion's effect on traffic levels, and thus demand for lodging in the county – an effect that would exist regardless of whether the highway was completed in the county at hand or in other counties on the same corridor.

Table 4 provides further detail. The CBP reports the number of hotels in various employment size categories; we collapse these into four: very small hotels (1-3 employees), small hotels (4-7 employees), medium hotels (8-19 employees) and large hotels (20 employees).¹⁶ We then run vector autoregressive specifications, using the number of hotels in these categories as the four dependent variables. The left side of Table 4 contains our base specification. The coefficient estimates indicate that the corridor completion is associated with a decrease in the number of very small hotels (slightly more than three hotels, on average) and an increase in the number of very large hotels (slightly more than two, on average). The decrease in the number of “very small” hotels is highly likely to understate the shakeout of small enterprises, because this analysis omits hotels with no employees – which we show above to be a non-negligible share of the market at the beginning of our time period. Given that highway completion is associated with a shakeout of hotels with 1-3 employees, it is highly likely that it is associated with a shakeout of hotels with no employees (those owned and run, for example, by a husband and wife team) as well.

The right side of the table allows the coefficient on corridor completion to differ across the four cases described above. As before, there is no evidence that the coefficients differ: the number of small hotels decreases, and the number of large firms increases, irrespective of whether the corridor

¹⁶ These categories change slightly starting in 1974; see the notes to Table 4.

completion was in the county at hand, and irrespective of how much of the highway in the county at hand had been completed.

Non-Price Competition and Shake-Outs: Is the Shakeout Greater in Warmer Places?

Summarizing, Tables 2-4 show our central empirical facts: the completion of highways leads hotel employment to increase, and leads to fewer but larger firms. The following two sections provide evidence on how these results reflect nonprice competition in this industry.

Our analytical framework above showed that, in a homogeneous good industry, increases in demand should not lead to shakeouts: the number of firms should (weakly) increase, not decrease. In a differentiated product market, however, the firms' competitive responses to positive demand shocks can lead the equilibrium number of firms to decrease. In particular, if there is vertical differentiation, and quality is produced with fixed costs, then demand increases can lead to the entry of scale-intensive high quality firms that can price low enough not only to attract customers with a high willingness to pay for quality, but also those with a lower willingness to pay for quality. This competitive response, in turn, can lead to the shake-out of smaller, low-quality firms and to a net decrease in the total number of firms.

Our discussion above described how one quality amenity that was becoming increasingly prevalent at U.S. hotels during our time period was a swimming pool. Supplying this amenity involved almost entirely fixed costs – the cost of supplying this amenity was the same, irrespective of how many guests would ultimately utilize it. However, the quality enhancement associated with this investment varied with the local climate – it was higher in warmer places because the pool was usable more months out of the year. If the shakeout associated with highway completion reflected non-price competition associated with swimming pools (or other less common outdoor amenities such as a playground or putting green), one would expect the shakeout to be greater in warmer places.

We test this proposition in Table 5 by interacting corridor completion with the average temperature in each of our sample counties.¹⁷ The top panel shows regressions where the dependent variable is (logged) county hotel employment, the number of hotels, and the average employment size of hotels. The interaction coefficient in the first column is essentially zero: the relationship between corridor completion and county hotel employment is just as strong in cold places as in warmer places. There is thus no evidence that highway completion leads to larger increases in demand for hotels in the warm counties in our sample than the cold counties in our sample. The coefficients in the second and

¹⁷ More precisely, we interact it with (temperature-55), so that the uninteracted coefficient corresponds to the effect of highway completion for the county in our sample with average temperature.

third columns show that the change in industry structure is very different. The interaction coefficient in the second column is negative, significant, and economically large. It implies that the shakeout associated with highway completion was much greater in warmer places. The magnitudes imply essentially no change in the number of hotels in our cooler counties (counties with an average temperature around 45 degrees), but large decrease – twice the average effect – in our warmer counties (counties with an average temperature of around 65 degrees). The interaction coefficient in the right column suggests that the increase in hotel size was also more pronounced in warmer counties than cooler counties, though the coefficient is not quite statistically different from zero using a test of size 0.05.

We show these results graphically in Figure 12. The top panel shows the relationship between corridor completion and county hotel employment. The long run effect more than 20%, and is not statistically different for cold and warm counties; if anything, the effect is larger for warmer counties. The bottom panel shows the relationship between corridor completion and the number of hotels. There is no effect in cold counties, but a large effect – on the order of a 40% decrease – in warm counties.

The bottom panel of Table 5 shows interaction specifications where the dependent variable is the number of hotels in different employment size categories. These results show are similar to those in the top panel, and imply that the decrease in very small hotels, and increase in large hotels, was much greater in our warmer counties than in our cooler counties. Figure 13 shows this graphically. In warm counties, there is an increase in the number of large hotels and a correspondingly larger decrease in the number of small hotels. In contrast, in cold counties, corridor completion has little effect on the number of hotels in any of these size categories. In particular, we find no evidence that corridor completion leads to more large hotels, or to a shake-out of very small hotels. The adjustment in industry structure was very different in warm places than cold places.

Together, these results provide support for the proposition that non-price competition in the form of fixed costs explains why highway completion led to a shakeout in the number of hotels. Our evidence indicates that highway completion led to increases in the demand for hotels in both cool and warm counties in our sample – in both North Dakota and Georgia. But it led to fewer, but larger, hotels only in the warm places, but not the cold places.

Above we emphasize one form of quality competition that would lead to shakeouts in the south but not in the north: investments in outdoor amenities. However, quality competition in the form of other fixed costs could, in principle, explain the patterns in our regression results as well. Suppose customers in warmer places are more brand-sensitive than customers in cooler places. Then increases

in quality competition in the form of investments in advertising or branding could lead to shake-outs, particularly in warmer places. The fact that motel chains are more prevalent in warmer places during our sample period is consistent with the hypothesis that customers' valuation of brands or perhaps consistency differs across regions. However, it is unlikely that increases in quality competition associated with investments that are particular to chains explain our results. If it did, one would expect that such competition would lead chains' share of revenues to increase more during this period in warmer than colder places. As we discuss above, and illustrate in Figure 5, this was not the case: the increase in chains' share of revenues was very similar in warmer and colder places. We therefore conclude that an increase in non-price competition in the form of outdoor amenities, especially swimming pools, is a more likely explanation for the patterns that we uncover.

Non-Price Competition: Do These Patterns Appear for Restaurants and Gas Stations?

In this section, we show results from analogous specifications that investigate relationships between highway completion and our main variables for two other industries: restaurants and gas retailing. As discussed in Berry and Waldfogel (2010), one would expect non-price competition in the form of fixed costs to be more limited in the case of restaurants, because quality tends to be supplied in the form of higher variable costs (for example, in better ingredients and/or higher levels of service). Similarly, quality competition among gas stations during the time of our sample – a time when full service was still common and gas stations did not have convenience stores attached -- generally involved variable costs (e.g., more attendants) rather than fixed costs. Therefore, even though highway completion likely increased local demand for restaurants and gas retailers, one would expect any changes in industry structure to be different. In particular, highway completion should not lead to shake-outs.

Tables 6 and 7 summarize our results for these two industries. Table 6 shows them for EDPs.¹⁸ The first column shows that corridor completion is associated with increases in restaurant employment, consistent with the proposition that it led to demand increases for restaurants in our sample, and that the effect is greater in warmer counties. In the second column, the dependent variable is the (normalized) number of EDPs. Unlike for hotels, we find no evidence of a relationship between corridor completion and the number of restaurants, and in particular no evidence of a shakeout. Table 7 provides analogous estimates for gas stations.¹⁹ The first column shows a positive and significant relationship between employment and corridor completion, but no evidence that this varies with county

¹⁸ This is SIC code 58, "eating and drinking places." It includes restaurants (including limited service restaurants such as McDonalds), cafeterias, and bars.

¹⁹ This is SIC code 554, "gasoline retailing."

temperature. In the second column, where the dependent variable is the number of gas stations, the coefficients are small and not statistically significant.

Figure 14 summarizes our cross industry comparison; on average, corridor completion is associated with a large decline in the number of hotels, but little if any change in the number of restaurants or gas stations. Consistent with the proposition that the shakeouts we document in hotels are associated with non-price completion in the form of fixed costs, we do not see similar shakeouts in other industries where highway completion led to demand increases, but where non-price competition in the form of fixed costs is muted.

VI. Conclusion

Economists and policy makers are interested in understanding both the causes and the consequences of concentrated industry structure. The appropriate response to industry consolidation may be different if it is precipitated by natural economic factors – firms optimally responding to competitive pressures and exogenous market changes – as opposed to clear anticompetitive motives. Indeed, theoretical models provide various explanations for why industry shakeouts may occur naturally.

In this paper, we have explored one somewhat counterintuitive explanation highlighted in Sutton (1991): that in certain circumstances, demand increases can catalyze shakeouts by initiating changes in an industry's competitive dynamics. In industries where product quality affects customer preferences – and in which investments in fixed costs are required for firms to increase their quality – consolidation may be caused by market size increases. Firms initially provide low quality when market size is small because there is not enough demand to offset the fixed cost investment. But as market size increases, one or more of the competitors will find it attractive to invest and their subsequent quality increase will shift market share their way. If enough share shifts from the low quality competitors, they may be forced to exit, resulting in an industry shakeout.

We document this phenomenon using data on non-urban hotels and motels in the second half of the 20th century. During this period, consumer demand for lodging increased substantially but the number of industry establishments did not. We examine a dataset consisting of counties through which an interstate highway passes. We take advantage of variation in the timing of when highways were completed to establish when demand increases happened in our counties. Demand is enhanced in a

county when the highway is completed not only within the county itself, but also within other counties along the same highway corridor.

Our empirical analysis shows that the number of hotels and motels decreases in these counties when highways are completed; demand increases are associated with shakeouts in these counties. Our hypothesis is that market size increases allow more hotels and motels to profitably invest in swimming pools for their properties, and when that fixed cost investment increases quality for consumers, consolidation ensues. Evidence consistent with our hypothesis comes from comparing geographic markets that have cold climates with ones that are warmer – the post-demand-increase consolidation happens only in counties where the weather is warm. We find no evidence that demand increases precipitate shakeouts in colder markets, where investments in swimming pools (or other outdoor amenities) do not increase consumers’ willingness to pay as much. We also find no evidence that demand increases associated with highway openings lead to shakeouts of restaurants or gas stations, where quality enhancements are less likely to be produced through fixed costs.

While we are only able to demonstrate this more benign, natural explanation for industry consolidation for a narrowly defined industry over a particular time period, we believe that the result may be more generalizable due to its close connection with the underlying theoretical result. Here, we take advantage of the unique features of highway construction to document discrete variation in the timing of demand increases; highway construction provides for an observable demand shock to certain industries, including the ones that we study here. Finding analogous observable demand shocks is always a challenge for dynamic industry structure studies and will need to be addressed in order to document this phenomenon elsewhere. Finally, it is worth noting that while the explanation for the shakeouts described here is more natural than the less-benign pursuit of market power, the welfare effects of such shakeouts are ambiguous. We make no conclusions about the welfare consequences of such shakeouts, even in the context that we examine. The remaining industry participants may charge higher prices, but consumers appreciate their higher quality offerings as well.

In closing, we emphasize an important normative implication of Sutton (1991) that our study illuminates: distinguishing between “natural” versus “market-power-driven” increases in concentration is difficult, and requires (at the very least) an assessment of whether increases in concentration are due to changes in firms’ incentives to compete on quality dimensions. Furthermore, policies that attempt to stem “natural” increases in concentration that are due to changes in firms’ incentives to compete on these dimensions run the risk of reducing rather than increasing competition. In cases where increases

in concentration are a manifestation of firms' competitive incentives, it is far from clear that preventing such increases should be a goal of competition policy.

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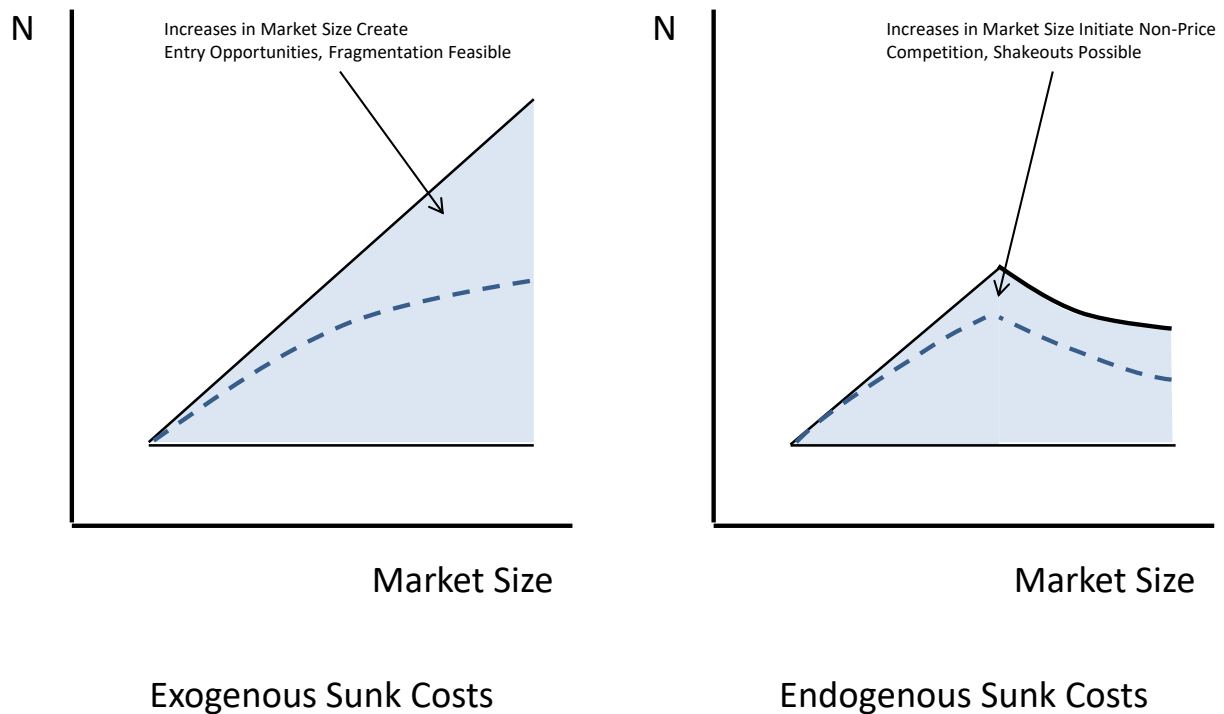
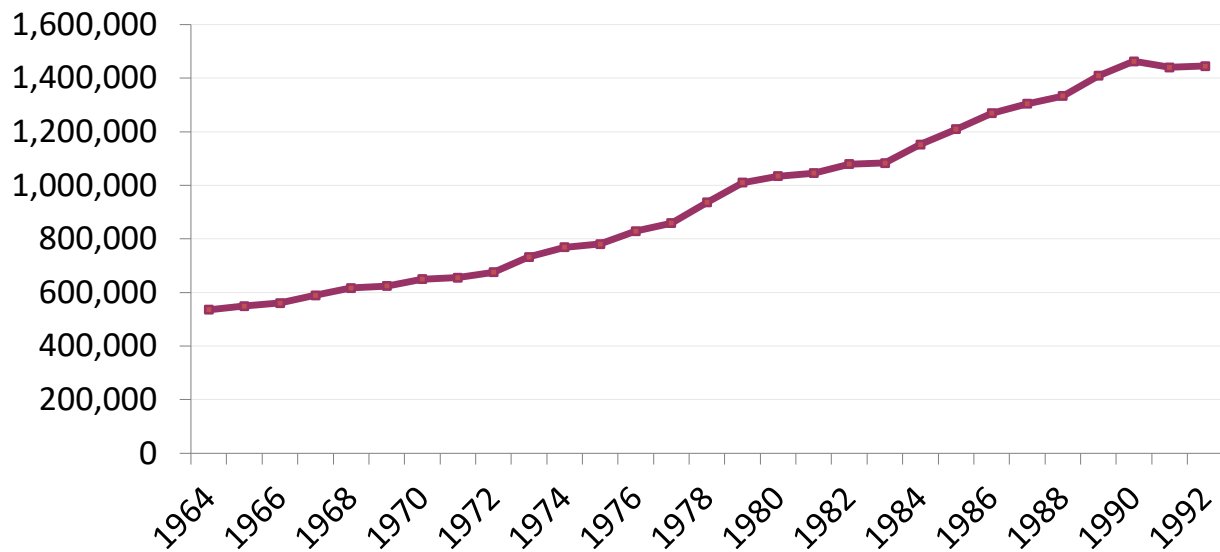


Figure 1. Sutton (1991). Increases in Market Size Can Lead to Shakeouts.

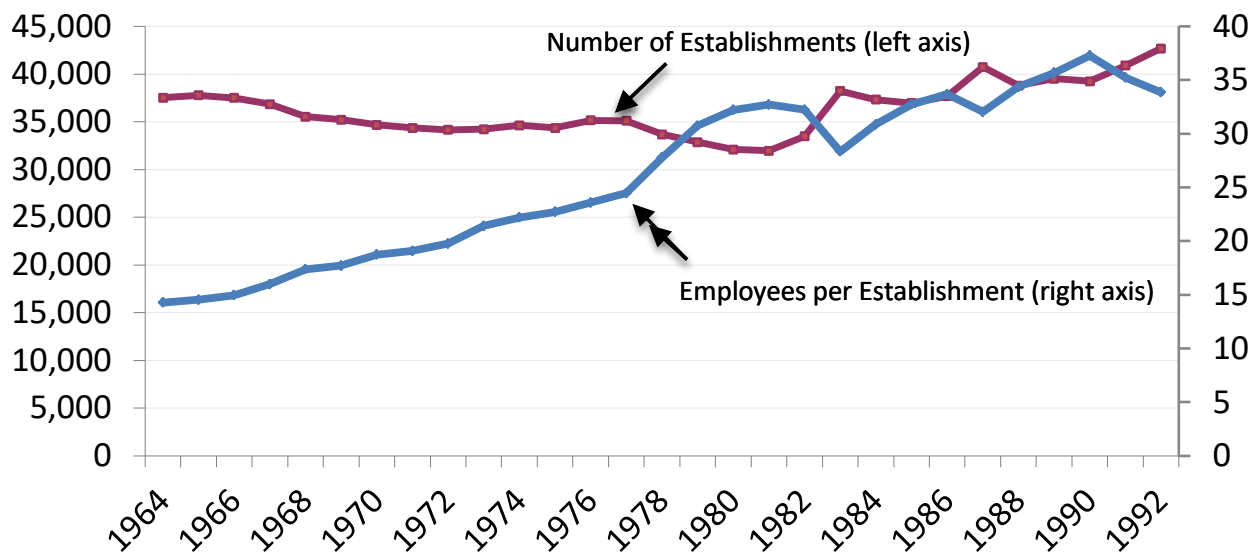
The shaded area in the left panel of this Figure illustrates feasible equilibrium outcomes in the case of “exogenous sunk costs;” as market size increases, fragmented outcomes (i.e., where N is high) become feasible. The shaded area in the right panel of this Figure illustrates feasible equilibrium outcomes in the case of “endogenous sunk costs;” here fragmented outcomes do not become possible as market size increases, and the equilibrium number of firms converges to a finite level. The dashed lines depict possible relationships between market size and the number of firms. The right panel illustrates that, under certain conditions, after some threshold where firms begin to compete on quality, the number of firms can decrease as market size increases.

Hotel/Motel Employment, 1964-1992



Source: County Business Patterns, various years.

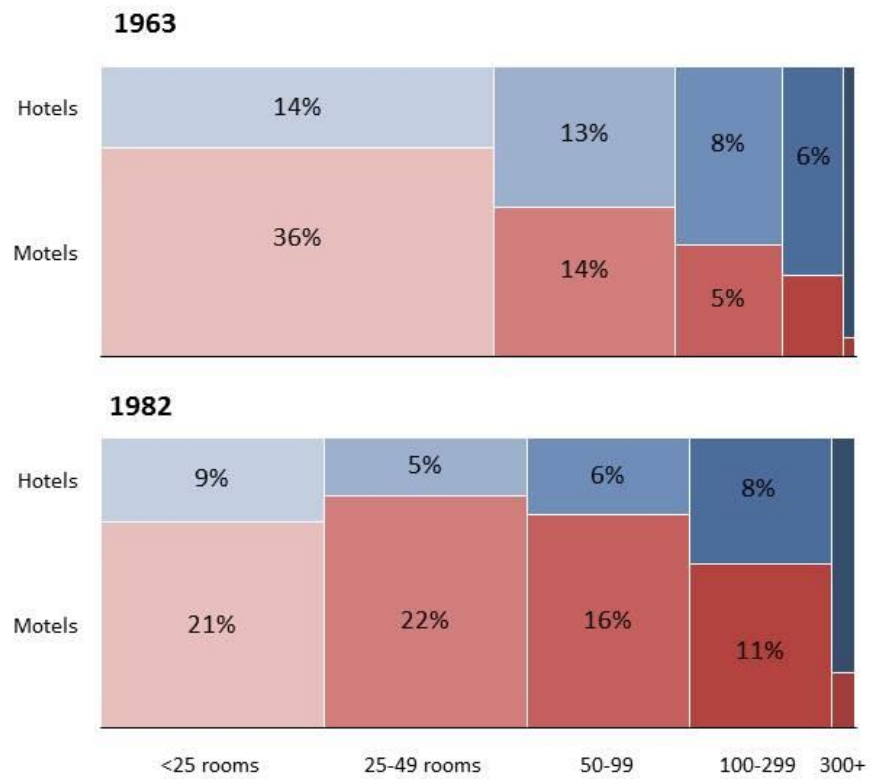
Number and Average Size of Hotels/Motels, 1964-1992



Source: County Business Patterns, various years.

Figure 2. Hotel/Motel Employment, and the Number and Size of Hotels/Motels. 1964-1992.

Establishment Shares of Hotels/Motels, by Number of Guestrooms



Source: Census of Services, 1963, 1982

Figure 3. Establishment Shares of Hotels/Motels, by Number of Guestrooms. 1963, 1982.

Sources of Revenues: Hotels and Motels

	Rooms	Food and Beverage	Other	Food and Bev/ Rooms
<i>Hotels and Motels</i>				
1963	61%	34%	5%	0.56
1982	59%	26%	15%	0.44
<i>Motels Only</i>				
1963	75%	22%	3%	0.29
1982	78%	19%	4%	0.24

Source: Census of Services, 1963, 1982.

"Motels" includes "motels" and "motor hotels" in 1963, and "motels," "motor hotels," and "tourist courts" in 1982. 1963 includes only hotels with 25 or more guestrooms and motels with 10 or more guestrooms; these hotels/motels made up over 97% of industry revenues.

Recreational Facilities: Hotels and Motels

	Share With....			
	Any Recreational Facility	Swimming Pool	Private Beach	Pool or Beach
<i>Hotels and Motels</i>				
1963	30%	23%	5%	
1967	37%	32%	7%	
1972				51%
<i>Motels Only</i>				
1963	32%	28%	4%	
1982	43%	38%	6%	
1972				55%

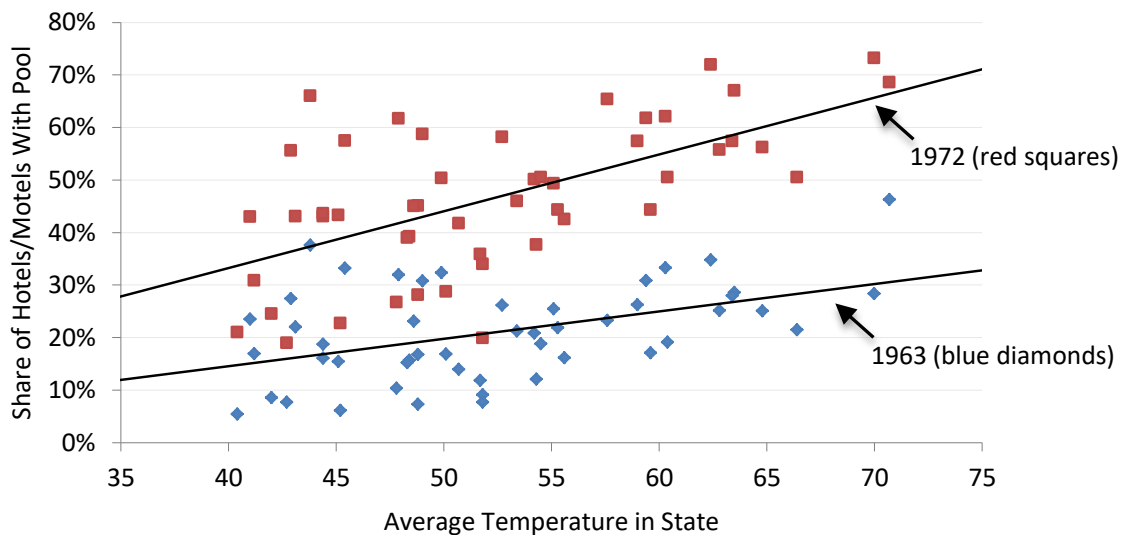
Source: Census of Services, 1963, 1967, 1972.

"Recreational Facility" includes swimming pool, boating, private beach, golf course, tennis court, horseback riding, and skiing.

"Motels" includes "Motels" and "Motor Hotels."

Table 1. Sources of Revenues, Recreational Facilities. Hotels and Motels, various years.

Share of Hotels/Motels With Pool or Beach, Temperature. 1963, 1972

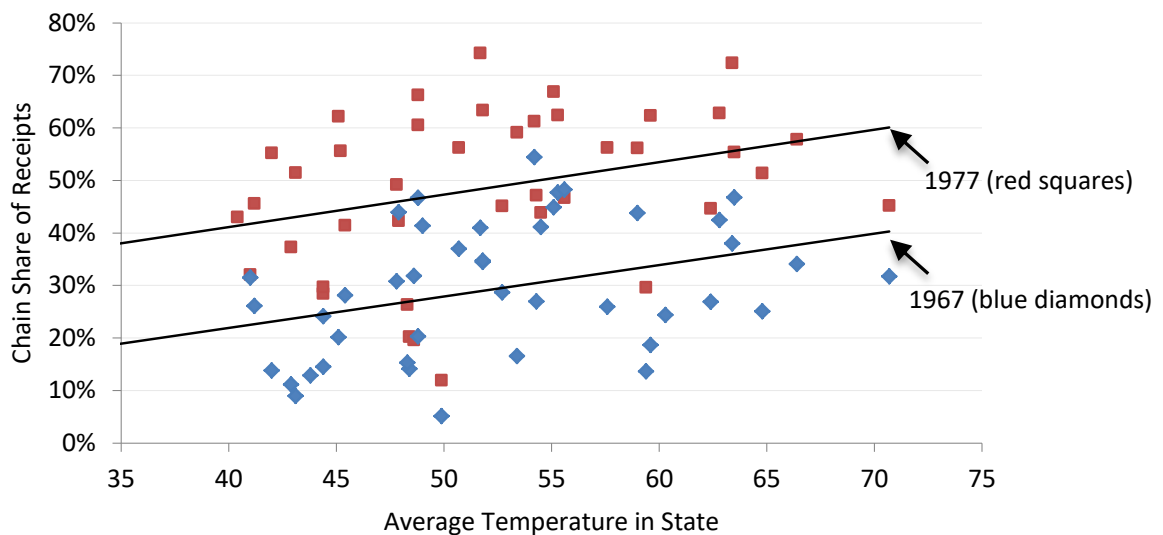


Sources: Census of Services, 1963, 1972.

<https://www.currentresults.com/Weather/US/average-annual-state-temperatures.php>

Figure 4. Share of Hotels/Motels With Pool or Beach, by Average State Temperature. 1963, 1972.

Chain Share of Motel Revenues: 1967, 1977.

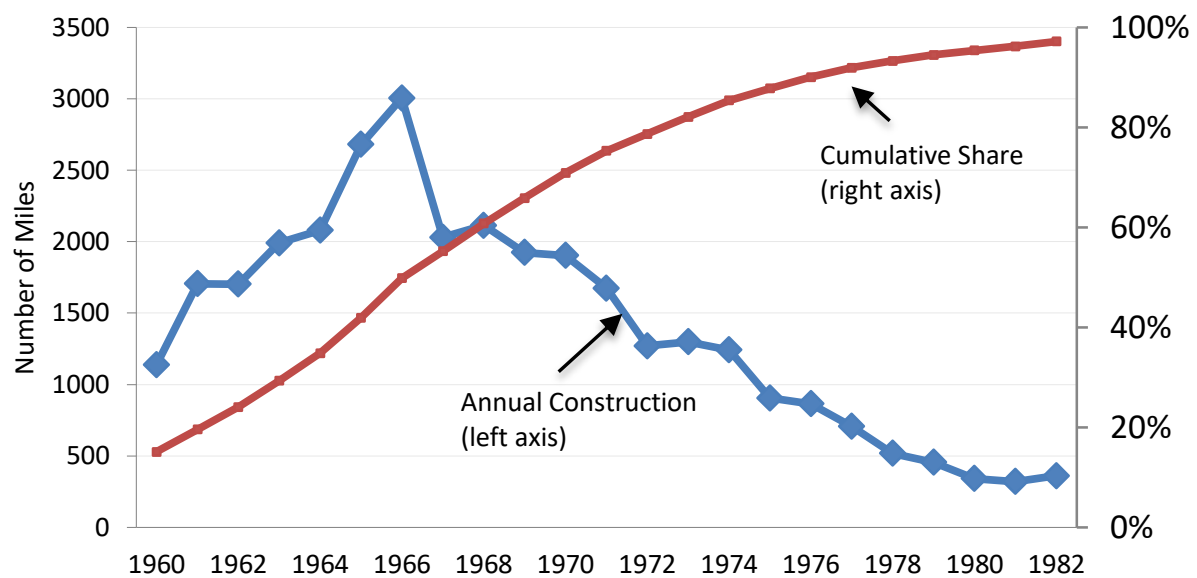


Sources: Census of Business, 1967; Census of Services, 1977.

<https://www.currentresults.com/Weather/US/average-annual-state-temperatures.php>

Figure 5. Chain Share of Motel Revenues: 1967, 1977

Two-Digit Interstate Highway Construction, 1960-1982



Source: PR-511, authors' calculation.

Figure 6. Two-Digit Interstate Highway Construction, 1960-1982.

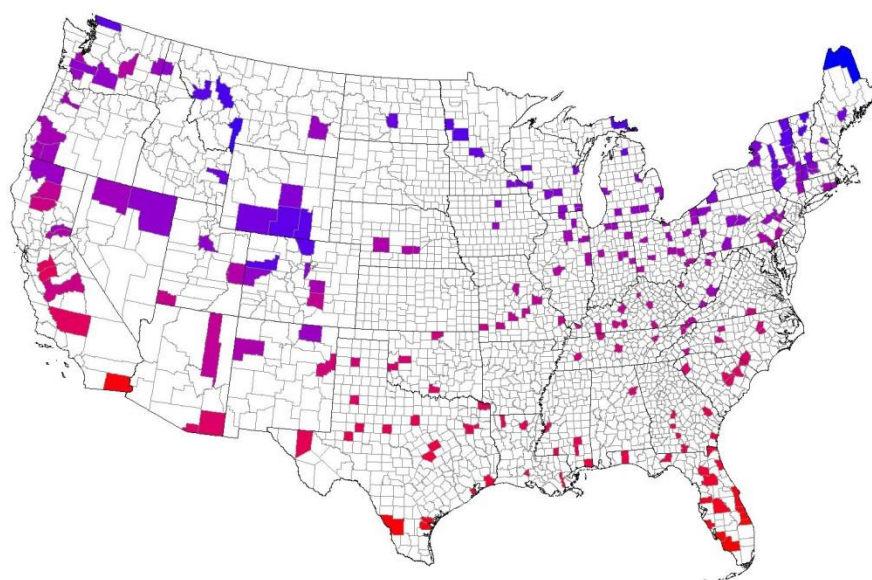
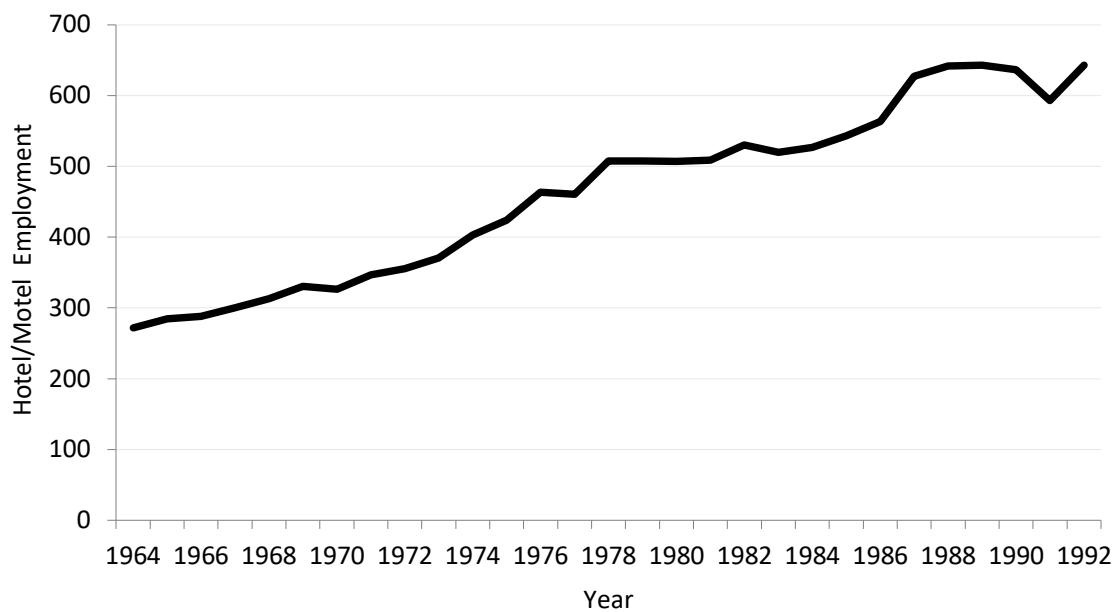


Figure 7. Sample Counties.

This map depicts the 227 counties in our sample. Warmer counties are indicated by red; cooler counties are indicated by blue.

Average Hotel/Motel Employment, Sample Counties



Average Hotel/Motel Employment, Sample Counties (1964=100)

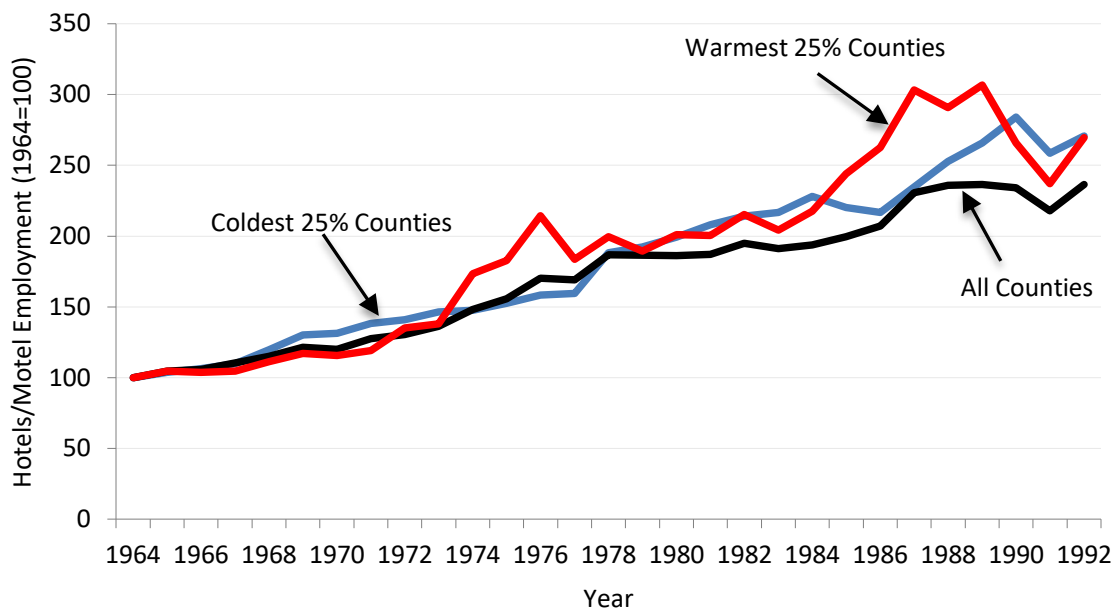
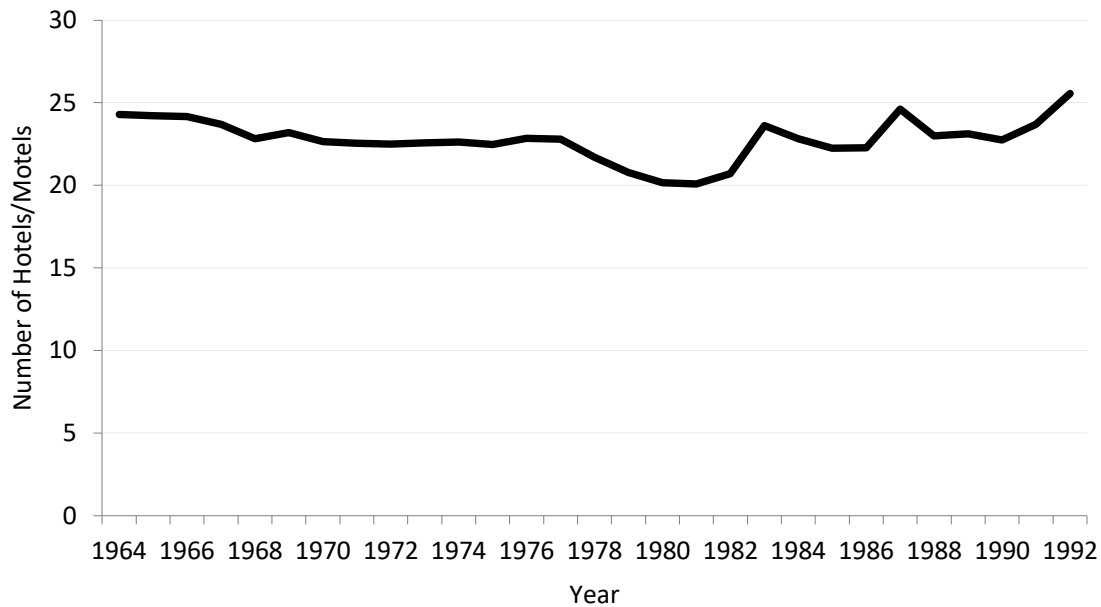


Figure 8. Average Employment, Sample Counties. 1964-1992.

Average Number of Hotels/Motels, Sample Counties



Average Number of Hotels/Motels, Sample Counties (1964=100)

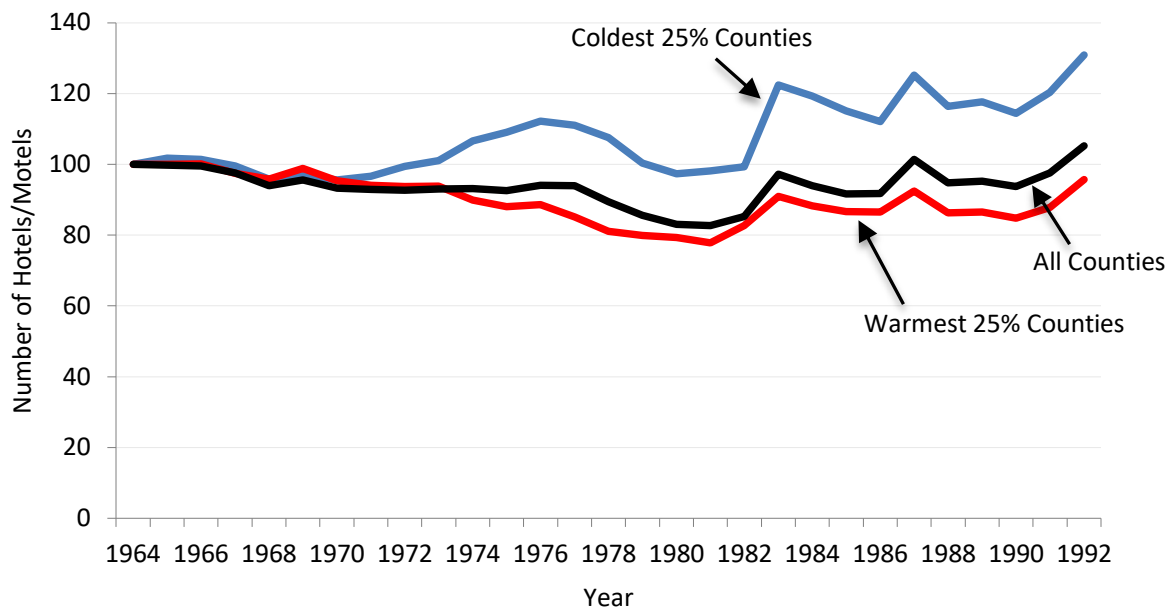
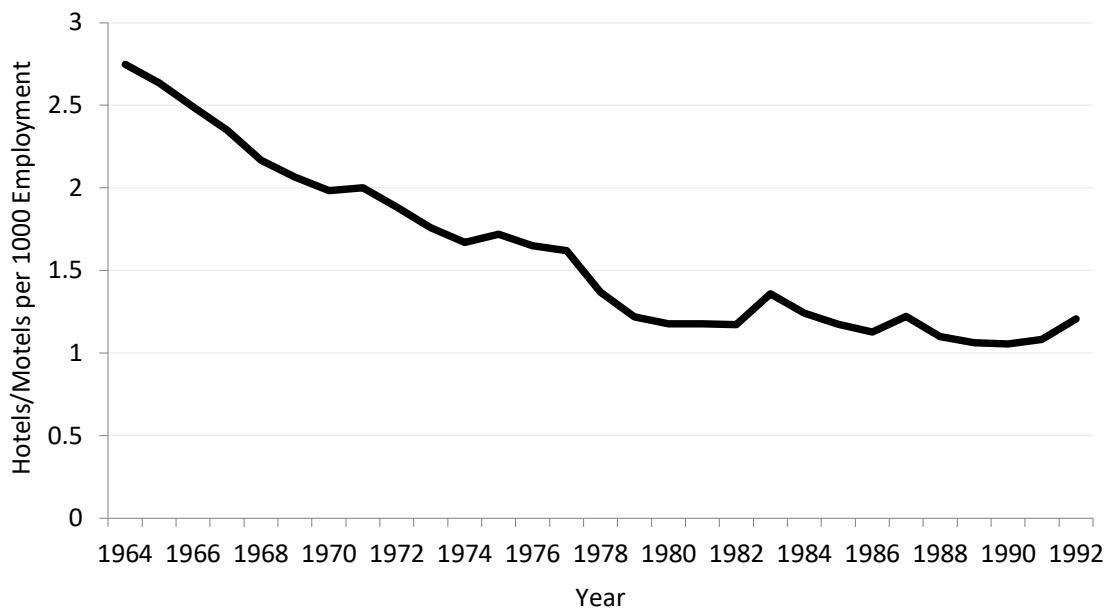


Figure 9. Average Number of Hotels/Motels, Sample Counties. 1964-1992.

Average Number of Hotels/Motels Per 1000 County Employment, Sample Counties



Average Number of Hotels/Motels Per 1000 County Employment, Sample Counties (1964=100)

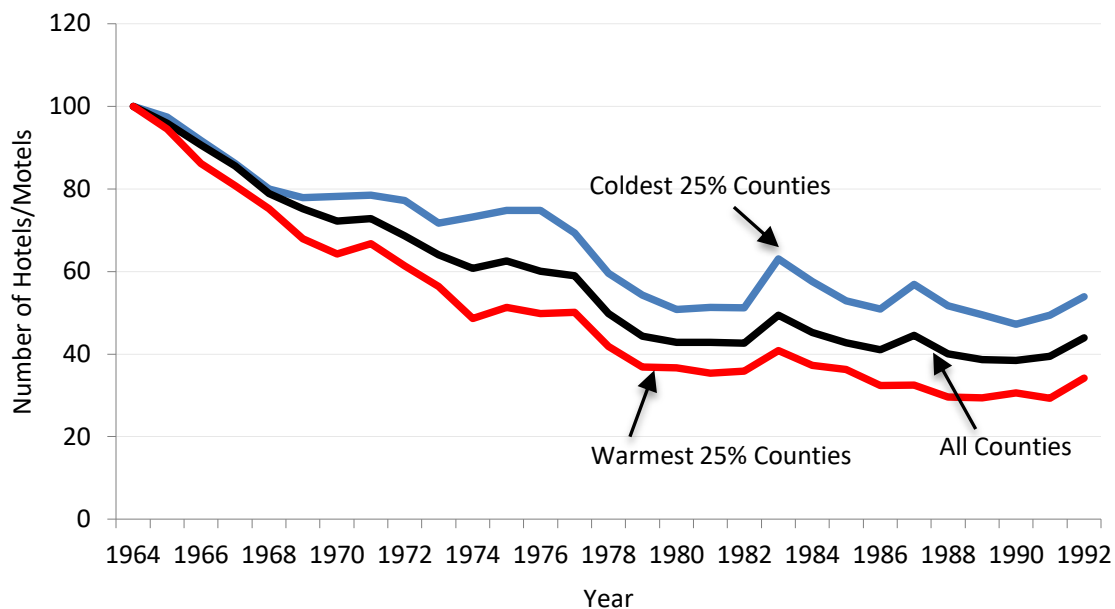
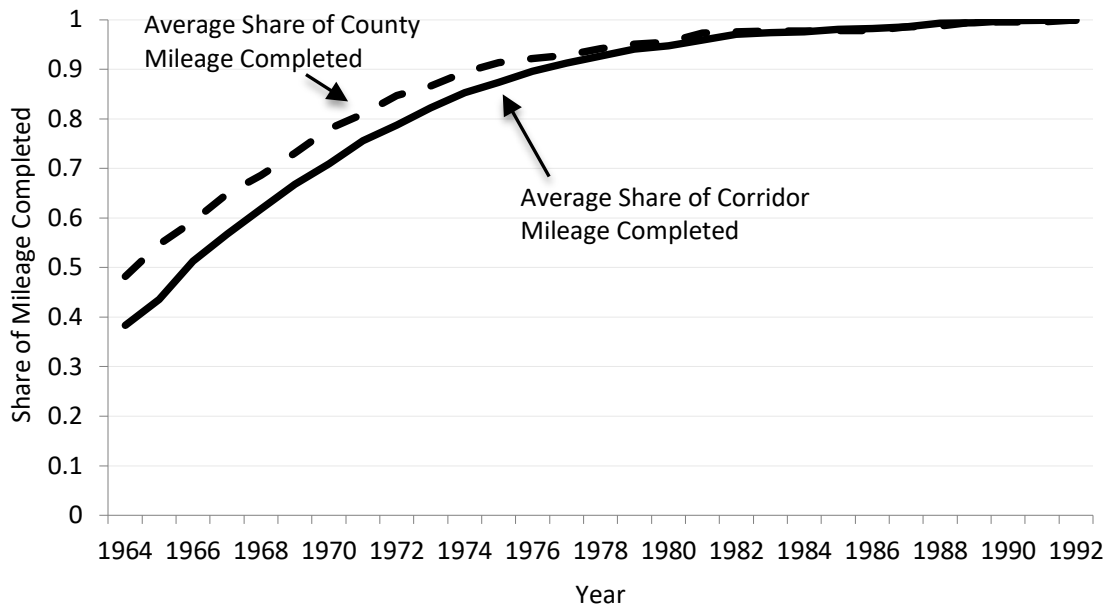


Figure 10. Average Number of Hotels/Motels Per 1000 County Employment, Sample Counties. 1964-1992.

Interstate Highway Construction, Sample Counties



Interstate Highway Construction, Sample Counties

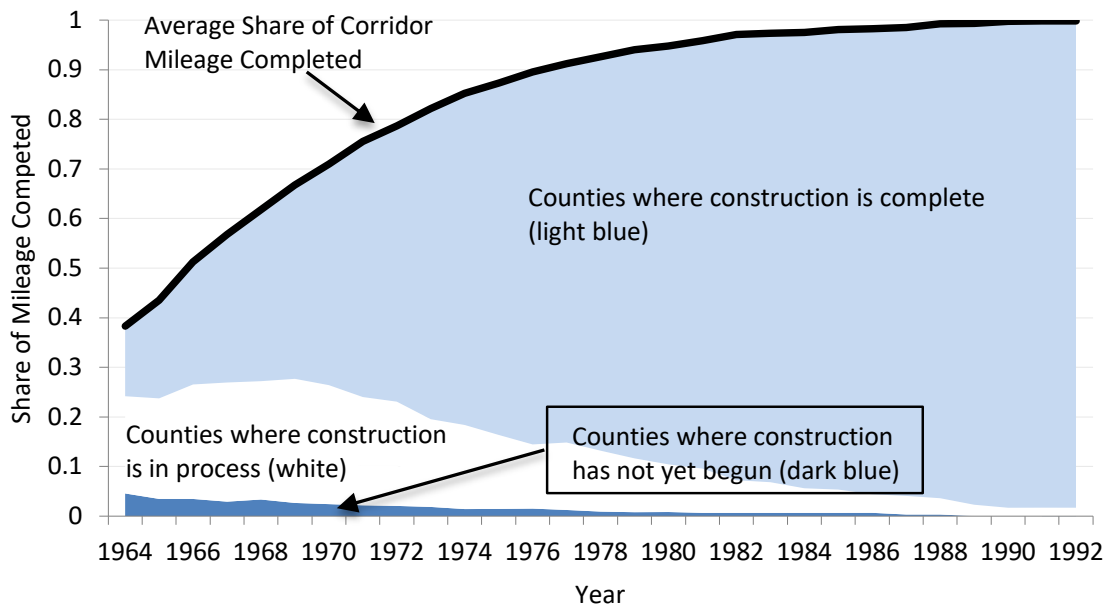


Figure 11. Interstate Highway Construction, Sample Counties.

Table 2
Regressions of County Hotel Employment on Corridor and County Highway Openings

Dependent Variable: $\ln(\text{County Hotel Employment})$

Sh(Corridor)	0.084 (0.028)	0.108 (0.035)	
Sh(County)		-0.029 (0.026)	
Sh (Corridor)*Dum(Corridor Construction in County)			0.090 (0.038)
Sh (Corridor)*Dum(All Corridor Construction Out of County) *Dum(No Construction Yet in County)			0.214 (0.075)
Sh (Corridor)*Dum(All Corridor Construction Out of County) *Dum(County Partially Complete)			0.077 (0.035)
Sh (Corridor)*Dum(All Corridor Construction Out of County) *Dum(County Fully Complete)			0.095 (0.028)
AR Term	0.710 (0.011)	0.710 (0.011)	0.709 (0.011)

These results are from county-level AR specifications that relate county hotel employment to Interstate Highway openings.

The specifications also include county and year fixed effects (not reported).

These results use all counties with non-missing reports for number of firms/establishments from 1964-1992, N=227.

Standard errors are in parentheses; bold indicates that the estimate is statistically significantly different zero using a test of size 0.05.

Table 3
Regressions of Number and Size of Hotels on Corridor Completion

Dependent Variable: $\ln(\text{Hotels}/(\text{County Employment} \times 1000))$

Sh(Corridor)	-0.068 (0.017)	-0.048 (0.021)	
Sh(County)		-0.024 (0.015)	
Sh (Corridor)*Dum(Corridor Construction in County)			-0.067 (0.023)
Sh (Corridor)*Dum(All Corridor Construction Out of County) *Dum(No Construction Yet in County)			-0.043 (0.045)
Sh (Corridor)*Dum(All Corridor Construction Out of County) *Dum(County Partially Complete)			-0.084 (0.021)
Sh (Corridor)*Dum(All Corridor Construction Out of County) *Dum(County Fully Complete)			-0.064 (0.017)
AR Term	0.774 (0.011)	0.772 (0.011)	0.774 (0.011)

Dependent Variable: $\ln(\text{Employment}/\text{Hotel})$

Sh(Corridor)	0.112 (0.028)	0.113 (0.035)	
Sh(County)		-0.002 (0.026)	
Sh (Corridor)*Dum(Corridor Construction in County)			0.110 (0.038)
Sh (Corridor)*Dum(All Corridor Construction Out of County) *Dum(No Construction Yet in County)			0.186 (0.074)
Sh (Corridor)*Dum(All Corridor Construction Out of County) *Dum(County Partially Complete)			0.101 (0.034)
Sh (Corridor)*Dum(All Corridor Construction Out of County) *Dum(County Fully Complete)			0.118 (0.029)
AR Term	0.631 (0.013)	0.631 (0.013)	0.630 (0.013)

"Hotels" are Census reporting units. Before 1974 this equals the number of firms (with positive employment) operating hotels in the county. Starting in 1973 this equals the number of hotels (with positive employment).

The specifications also include county and year fixed effects (not reported). We also allow the autoregressive coefficients to differ in year 1974 to accommodate the Census' change in reporting units between 1973 and 1974.

These results use all counties with non-missing reports for number of firms/establishments from 1964-1992, N=227. Standard errors are in parentheses; bold indicates that the estimate is statistically significantly different zero using a test of size 0.05.

Table 4
Regressions of Number of Hotels by Size Category on Corridor Highway Openings

By Status of Construction in the County

Dependent Variable	V. Small Hotels	Small Hotels	Med. Hotels	Large Hotels	V. Small Hotels	Small Hotels	Med. Hotels	Large Hotels
AR Term	0.744 (0.008)	0.444 (0.011)	0.510 (0.011)	0.734 (0.009)	0.744 (0.008)	0.443 (0.011)	0.508 (0.011)	0.733 (0.009)
Sh(Corridor)	-0.812 (0.272)	-0.063 (0.153)	0.169 (0.147)	0.568 (0.135)				
Sh (Corridor)*Dum(Corridor Construction in County)					-1.029 (0.365)	0.213 (0.205)	0.074 (0.197)	0.643 (0.181)
Sh (Corridor)*Dum(All Corridor Construction Out of County) *Dum(No Construction Yet in County)					-1.518 (0.681)	0.442 (0.383)	0.378 (0.369)	1.041 (0.339)
Sh (Corridor)*Dum(All Corridor Construction Out of County) *Dum(County Partially Complete)					-0.805 (0.334)	0.057 (0.188)	0.023 (0.181)	0.724 (0.167)
Sh (Corridor)*Dum(All Corridor Construction Out of County) *Dum(County Fully Complete)					-0.870 (0.276)	-0.030 (0.155)	0.195 (0.149)	0.592 (0.137)

These results are from county-level VAR specifications that relate the number of hotels in different size categories to Interstate Highway openings.

The specifications also include county and year fixed effects (not reported).

These results use all counties with non-missing reports for number of firms/establishments from 1964-1992, N=226.

Standard errors are in parentheses; bold indicates that the estimate is statistically significantly different zero using a test of size 0.05.

Very Small Hotels: 1-3 employees (before 1974), 1-4 employees (1974 on).

Small Hotels: 4-7 employees (before 1974), 5-9 employees (1974 on).

Medium Hotels: 8-19 employees (before 1974), 10-19 employees (1974 on).

Large Hotels: 20 or more employees.

Table 5
Interaction Effects with Temperature -- Hotels

<i>Dependent Variable:</i>	ln(County Hotel Employment)	ln(Hotels/ County Emp*1000)	ln(Employees/ Hotel)	
Sh(Corridor)	0.079 (0.029)	-0.048 (0.017)	0.089 (0.029)	
Sh(Corridor)*Temperature	0.001 (0.002)	-0.005 (0.001)	0.004 (0.002)	

<i>Dependent Variable:</i>	V. Small Hotels	Small Hotels	Med. Hotels	Large Hotels
Sh(Corridor)	-0.551 (0.281)	0.030 (0.159)	0.301 (0.152)	0.334 (0.139)
Sh(Corridor)*Temperature	-0.060 (0.017)	-0.021 (0.010)	-0.030 (0.009)	0.054 (0.008)

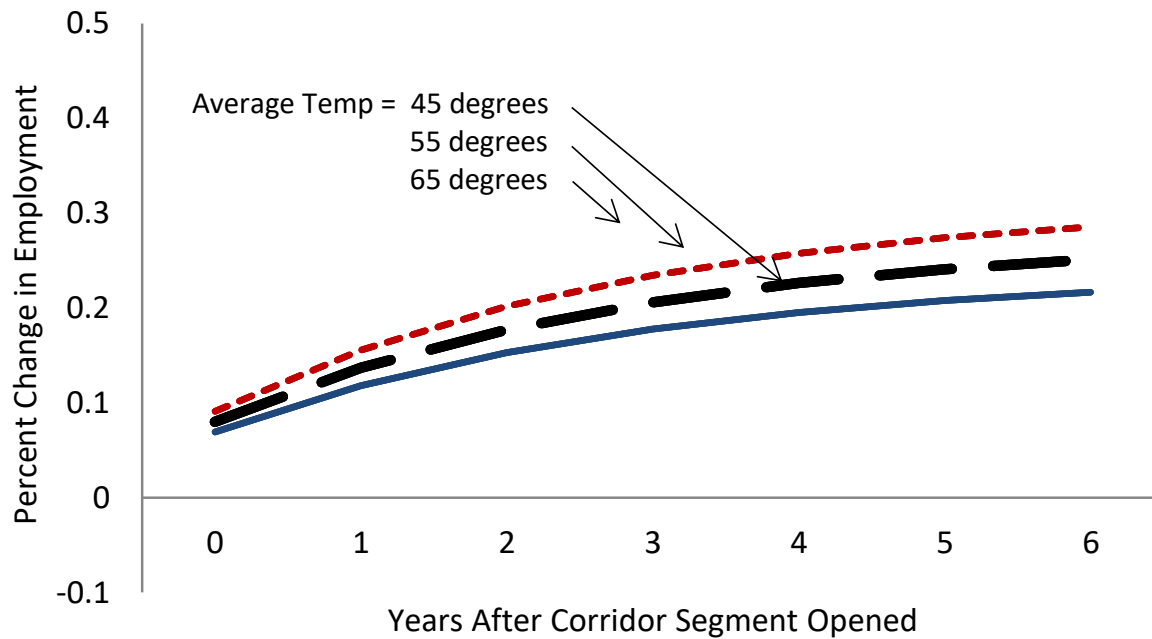
"Hotels" are Census reporting units. Before 1974 this equals the number of firms (with positive employment) operating hotels in the county. Starting in 1973 this equals the number of hotels (with positive employment).

The specifications also include county and year fixed effects (not reported). We also allow the autoregressive coefficients to differ in year 1974 to accommodate the Census' change in reporting units between 1973 and 1974.

These results use all counties with non-missing reports for number of firms/establishments from 1964-1992, N=227. Standard errors are in parentheses; bold indicates that the estimate is statistically significantly different zero using a test of size 0.05.

Very Small Hotels: 1-3 employees (before 1974), 1-4 employees (1974 on).
Small Hotels: 4-7 employees (before 1974), 5-9 employees (1974 on).
Medium Hotels: 8-19 employees (before 1974), 10-19 employees (1974 on).
Large Hotels: 20 or more employees.

Effect of Interstate Highway Openings on Hotel/Motel Employment



Effect of Interstate Highway Openings on the Number of Hotels/Motels

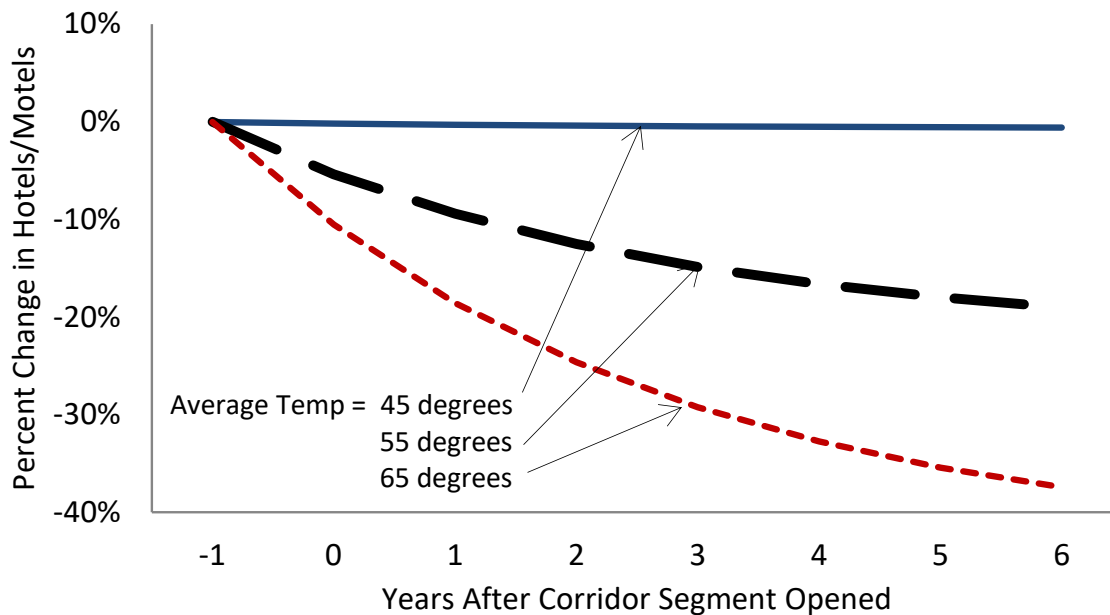
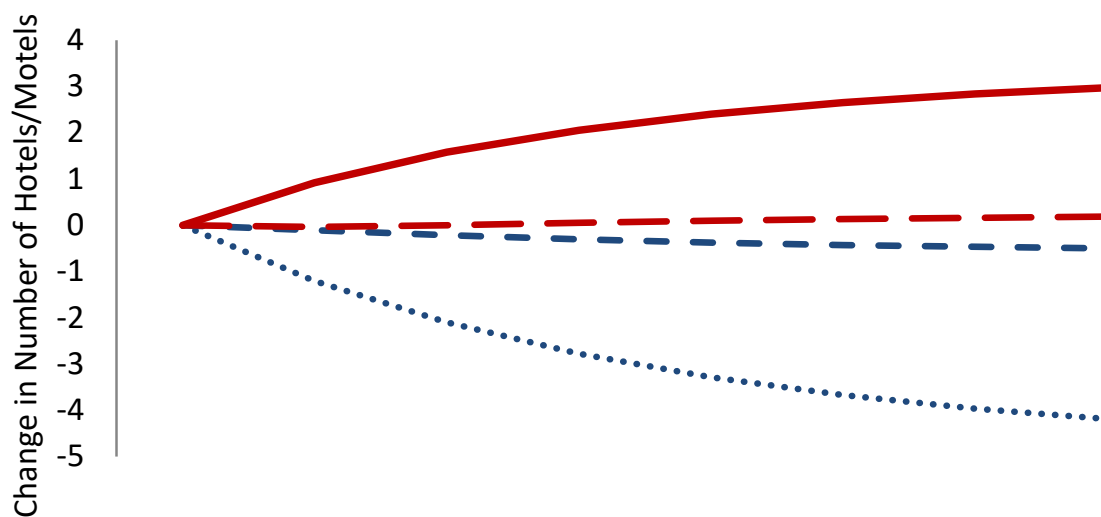


Figure 12. Interstate Highways Lead to Fewer Hotels/Motels in Warm Counties, but Not Cold Counties.

Estimated Effects -- 65 Degrees



Estimated Effects -- 45 Degrees

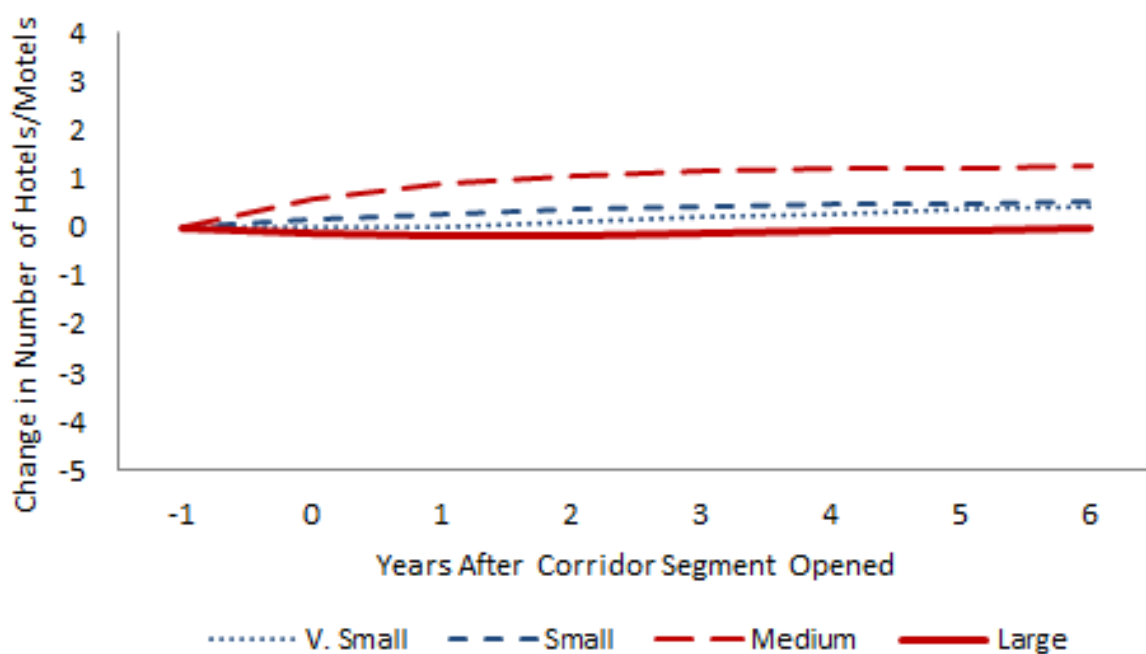


Figure 13. Effect of Highway Completion on Number of Hotels/Motels by Size Category, Temperature.

Table 6**Interaction Effects with Temperature -- Eating and Drinking Places**

<i>Dependent Variable:</i>	ln(County EDP Employment)	ln(EDPs/ County Emp*1000)	ln(Employees/ EDP)	
Sh(Corridor)	0.035 (0.012)	-0.001 (0.009)	0.003 (0.011)	
Sh(Corridor)*Temperature	0.004 (0.001)	0.000 (0.001)	0.001 (0.001)	

<i>Dependent Variable:</i>	V. Small EDPs	Small EDPs	Med. EDPs	Large EDPs
Sh(Corridor)	-0.355 (0.820)	0.880 (0.519)	0.329 (0.478)	-0.188 (0.458)
Sh(Corridor)*Temperature	0.047 (0.049)	-0.017 (0.031)	0.120 (0.029)	0.057 (0.027)

"EDPs" are Census reporting units. Before 1974 this equals the number of firms (with positive employment) operating restaurants or bars in the county. Starting in 1973 this equals the number of restaurants and bars (with positive employment).

The specifications also include county and year fixed effects (not reported). We also allow the autoregressive coefficients to differ in year 1974 to accommodate the Census' change in reporting units between 1973 and 1974.

These results use all counties with non-missing reports for number of firms/establishments from 1964-1992, N=226. Standard errors are in parentheses; bold indicates that the estimate is statistically significantly different zero using a test of size 0.05.

Very Small EDPs: 1-3 employees (before 1974), 1-4 employees (1974 on).
 Small EDPs: 4-7 employees (before 1974), 5-9 employees (1974 on).
 Medium EDPs: 8-19 employees (before 1974), 10-19 employees (1974 on).
 Large EDPs: 20 or more employees.

Table 7
Interaction Effects with Temperature -- Gas Stations

<i>Dependent Variable:</i>	ln(County Gas Employment)	ln(Gas Stations/ County Emp*1000)	ln(Employees/ Gas Station)	
Sh(Corridor)	0.031 (0.015)	-0.009 (0.011)	0.012 (0.014)	
Sh(Corridor)*Temperature	0.000 (0.001)	-0.001 (0.001)	-0.002 (0.001)	

<i>Dependent Variable:</i>	V. Small Stations	Small Stations	Med. Stations	Large Stations
Sh(Corridor)	1.001 (0.581)	-0.235 (0.428)	0.636 (0.253)	-0.001 (0.106)
Sh(Corridor)*Temperature	-0.093 (0.033)	-0.034 (0.024)	0.020 (0.015)	-0.003 (0.006)

"Gas Stations" are Census reporting units. Before 1974 this equals the number of firms (with positive employment) operating restaurants or bars in the county. Starting in 1973 this equals the number of restaurants and bars (with positive employment).

The specifications also include county and year fixed effects (not reported). We also allow the autoregressive coefficients to differ in year 1974 to accommodate the Census' change in reporting units between 1973 and 1974.

These results use all counties with non-missing reports for number of firms/establishments (for hotels) from 1964-1992, N=227. Standard errors are in parentheses; bold indicates that the estimate is statistically significantly different zero using a test of size 0.05.

Very Small EDPs: 1-3 employees (before 1974), 1-4 employees (1974 on).
Small EDPs: 4-7 employees (before 1974), 5-9 employees (1974 on).
Medium EDPs: 8-19 employees (before 1974), 10-19 employees (1974 on).
Large EDPs: 20 or more employees.

Effect of Interstate Highway Openings on the Number of Hotels/Motels, Gas Stations, and Restaurants/Bars

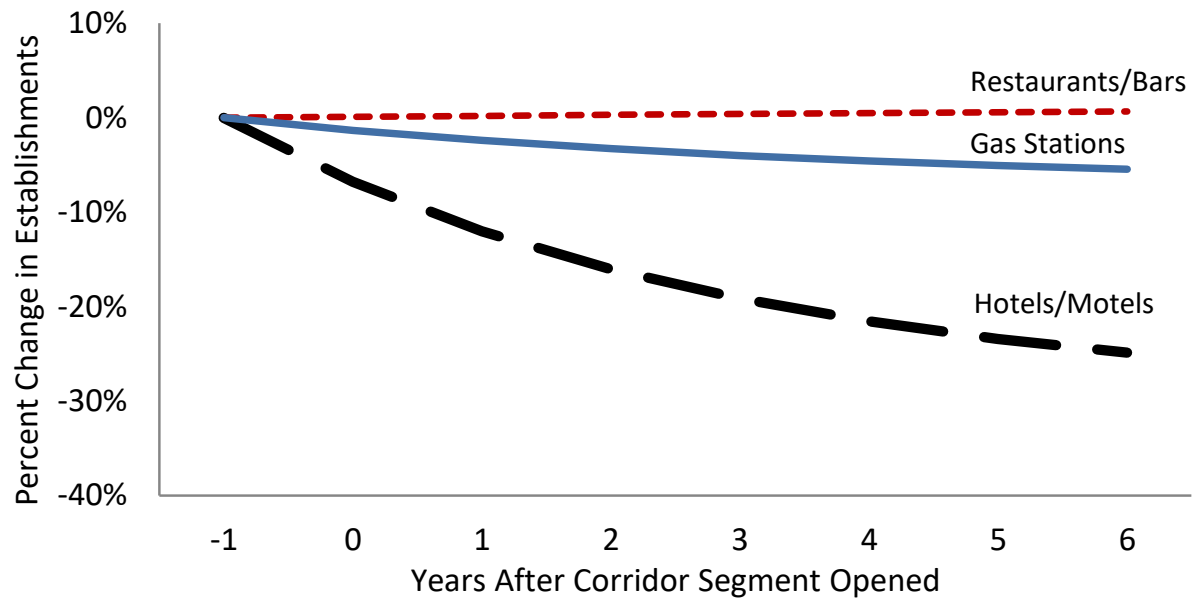


Figure 14. Effect of Interstate Highway Openings on the Number of Hotels/Motels, Gas Stations, and Restaurants/Bars