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ZEROS, QUALITY AND SPACE:
TRADE THEORY AND TRADE EVIDENCE

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ABSTRACT

Product-level data on bilateral U.S. exports exhibit two strong patterns. First, most potential export flows are not present, and the incidence of these "export zeros" is strongly correlated with distance and importing country size. Second, export unit values are positively related to distance. We show that every well-known multi-good general equilibrium trade model is inconsistent with at least some of these facts. We also offer direct statistical evidence of the importance of trade costs in explaining zeros, using the long-term decline in the relative cost of air shipment to identify a difference-in-differences estimator. To match these facts, we propose a new version of the heterogeneous-firms trade model pioneered by Melitz (2003). In our model, high quality firms are the most competitive, with heterogeneous quality increasing with firms' heterogeneous cost.

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1. INTRODUCTION

The gravity equation relates bilateral trade volumes to distance and country size. Countless gravity equations have been estimated, usually with “good” results, and trade theorists have proposed various theoretical explanations for gravity’s success¹. However, the many potential explanations for the success of the gravity equation make it a problematic tool for discriminating among trade models².

As a matter of arithmetic, the value of trade depends on the number of goods traded, the amount of each good that is shipped, and the prices they are sold for. Most studies of trade volumes have not distinguished among these three factors. In this paper we show that focusing on how the number of traded goods and their prices differ as a function of trade costs and market size turns out to be very informative about the ability of trade theory to match trade data.

We establish some new facts about product-level U.S. trade. First, most potential export flows are not present, and the incidence of these “export zeros” is strongly correlated with distance and importing country size. Second, export unit values are positively related to distance and negatively related to market size. We show that every well-known multi-good general equilibrium trade model is inconsistent with at least some of these facts. We also offer direct statistical evidence of the importance of fixed costs in explaining export zeros, using the long-term decline in the cost of air shipment to identify a difference-in-differences estimator.

We conclude the paper with a new version of the heterogeneous-firms trade model pioneered by Melitz (2003). Our model maintains the core structure of Melitz, which shows how heterogeneity in firms’ exogenous productivity leads to a market structure where only the most productive firms export. Unlike Melitz, however, firms in our model differ both in marginal cost and the quality of their goods, with higher quality goods being both more costly and more profitable. Our model’s predictions are borne out by the facts established in our data analysis.

Plan of paper

In section 2 we generate testable predictions concerning the spatial pattern of trade flows and prices. The predictions come from three multi-good general equilibrium models that are representative

¹ See Harrigan (2003) for a review.

² An important exception to this principle is Feenstra, Markusen, and Rose (2001), who show and test how different trade models imply different variations on the gravity model. Our paper is similar in approach, though different in focus.

of a wide swath of mainstream trade theory – one based purely on comparative advantage (Eaton and Kortum 2002), one based purely on monopolistic competition (a multi-country Helpman-Krugman (1985) model with trade costs), and one based on monopolistic competition with heterogeneous firms and fixed market-entry costs (a multi-country version of the Melitz (2003) model). These models predict very different spatial patterns of zeros, i.e. the impact of country size and bilateral distance on the likelihood of two nations trading a particular product. They also generate divergent predictions on how observed trade prices should vary with bilateral distance and country size.

Section 3 confronts the theoretical predictions elucidated in Section 2 with highly disaggregated U.S. data on bilateral trade flows and unit values. On the quantity side, we focus on the pattern of zeros in product-level, bilateral trade data since this data contains information that is both rich and relatively unexploited³. Another advantage of focusing on zeros (the extensive margin) rather than volumes of positive flows (the intensive margin), is that it allows us to avoid issues such as the indeterminacy of trade flows at the product level in comparative advantage theory and the lack of data on firms' cost functions. On the price side, we focus on bilateral, product-specific f.o.b. unit values. When it comes to empirically confronting the theoretical implications of changes in trade costs, we exploit the fact that air shipping costs have fallen much faster than the surface shipping costs in recent decades. This opens the door to a difference-in-difference strategy since our data includes product-level information on air-versus-surface shipping modes.

All three models fail to explain the broad outlines of the data along at least one dimension. The best performance is turned in by the heterogeneous-firms trade (HFT) model based on Melitz (2003). However, this model fails to account for the spatial pattern of trade prices, in particular the fact that average unit values clearly increase with distance while the HFT model predicts that they should decrease with distance. Section 4 therefore presents a new model in which firms compete on the basis of heterogeneous quality as well as unit costs, with high quality being associated with high prices. Since a nation's high-quality/high-price goods are the most competitive, they more easily overcome distance-related trade costs so the average price of goods in distant markets tends to be higher.

³ We are not the first to exploit zeros. Haveman and Hummels (2004) is similar in spirit to our paper, although they focus on import zeros. Feenstra and Rose (2000) and Besedes and Prusa (2006a, 2006b) have looked at time-series variation in product level zeros to test trade models.

2. ZEROS AND PRICES IN THEORY

This section derives testable hypotheses concerning the spatial pattern of zeros and trade prices in models that represent a broad swath of trade theory. In the three models selected, trade is driven by: 1) comparative advantage, 2) monopolistic competition, and 3) monopolistic competition with heterogeneous firms.

The models we study share some assumptions and notation. There are C countries and a continuum of goods. Preferences are given by the indirect CES function,

$$U = \frac{E}{P}, \quad P \equiv \left(\int_{i \in \Theta} p_i^{1-\sigma} di \right)^{\frac{1}{1-\sigma}}, \quad \sigma > 1. \quad (1)$$

where E is nominal expenditure, p_i is the price of variety i , and Θ is a set of available varieties.

Transport costs are assumed to be of the iceberg form, with $\tau_{od} \geq 1$ representing the amount of a good which must be shipped from nation- o to nation- d for one unit to arrive (o stands for “origin”, and d stands for “destination”). All the models assume just one factor of production in fixed supply, labor, which is paid a wage w .

2.1. Comparative advantage: Eaton-Kortum

Economists have been thinking about the effects of trade costs on trade in homogeneous goods since Ricardo, but we had to wait for Eaton and Kortum (2002) to get a clear, rigorous, and flexible account of how distance affects bilateral trade in a competitive general equilibrium trade model. Appendix 1 presents and solves a slightly simplified Eaton-Kortum model (EK for short) explicitly. Here we provide intuition for the EK model’s predictions on the spatial pattern of zeros and prices.

Countries in the EK model compete head-to-head in every market on the basis of c.i.f. prices, with the low-price supplier capturing the whole market⁴. This “winner takes all” form of competition means that the importing country buys each good from only one source. As usual in Ricardian models, the competitiveness of a country’s goods in a particular market depends upon the exporting country’s technology, wage and bilateral trade costs – all relative to those of its competitors. A key novelty of the EK model is the way it describes each nation’s technology. The EK model does not explicitly specify each nation’s vector of unit-labor input coefficients (the a ’s in Ricardian notation). Rather it views the

⁴ c.i.f. and f.o.b. stand for “cost, insurance, and freight” and “free on board”, respectively, i.e. the price with and without transport costs. Without domestic sales taxes, c.i.f. and f.o.b. correspond to the consumer and producer prices respectively.

national vectors of a 's as the result of a stochastic technology-generation process – much like the one used later by Melitz (2003). Denoting the producing nation as nation- o (' o ' for origin), and the unit labor coefficient for a typical good- j as $a_o(j)$, each $a_o(j)$ is an independent draw from the cumulative distribution function (cdf)⁵

$$F_o[a] = 1 - e^{-T_o a^\theta}, \quad a, T_o \geq 0, \quad \theta > 1, \quad o = 1, \dots, N \quad (2)$$

where $T_o > 0$ is the nation-specific parameter that reflects the nation's absolute advantage, and N is the number of nations.

Equation (2) makes it possible to calculate the probability that a particular nation has a comparative advantage in a particular market in a typical good. Since the $a_o(j)$'s for all nations are random variables, determining comparative advantage becomes a problem in applied statistics. Perfect competition implies that nation- o will offer good- j in destination nation- d at a price of $p_{od}(j) = \tau_{od} w_o a_o(j)$ where w_o is nation- o 's wage. As the appendix shows, this implies that the distribution of prices in typical market- d in equilibrium is

$$G_d[p] = 1 - \exp[-\Delta_d p^\theta]; \quad \Delta_d \equiv \sum_{c=1}^N T_{id}, \quad T_{cd} \equiv \frac{T_c}{(w_c \tau_{cd})^\theta} \quad (3)$$

Given (3) and (2), the probability that origin nation- o has comparative advantage in destination nation- d for any product is⁶

$$\pi_{od} = \frac{T_{od}}{\Delta_d} \quad (4)$$

This probability, which is the key to characterizing the spatial pattern of zeros in the EK model, reflects the relative competitiveness of nation- o 's goods in market- d . Namely, T_{od} is inversely related to o 's average unit-labor cost for goods delivered to market- d , so π_{od} is something like the ratio of o 's average unit-labor cost to that of all its competitors in market- d .⁷

⁵ EK work with $z=1/a$, so their cdf is $\exp(-T/z^\theta)$.

⁶ Technology draws are independent across goods, so this is valid for all goods. See the appendix for details.

⁷ Nation- o 's unit-labor cost, averaged over all goods with (2), for goods delivered to d is $\tau_{od} w_o / T^{1/\theta}$; this equals $1/(T_{od})^\theta$.

The EK model does not yield closed-form solutions for equilibrium wages, so a closed form solution for π_{od} is unavailable. We can, however, link the T_{od} 's to observable variables by employing the market clearing conditions for all nations (see appendix for details). In particular, wages must adjust to the point where every nation can sell all its output and this implies

$$\pi_{od} = Y_o \left(\frac{P_d}{\tau_{od}} \right)^\theta \left(\frac{1}{Y_d P_d^\theta + \sum_{c \neq d} Y_c (P_c / \tau_{oc})^\theta} \right) \quad (5)$$

where the Y 's are nations' total nominal output (GDP), the P 's are nations' price indices from (1), and the set of the continuum of goods $\Theta = [0,1]$. While this is not a closed form solution, the export probability is expressed in terms of endogenous variables for which we have data or proxies.

2.1.1. Predicted spatial pattern of zeros and trade prices in the Eaton-Kortum model

Equation (5) gives the sensible prediction that the probability of o successfully competing in market- d is decreasing in bilateral transport costs. The incidence of export zeros (that is, products exported to at least one but not all potential markets) should be increasing in distance if distance is correlated with trade costs, and import zeros (products imported from at least one potential source but not all) should predominate since each importer buys each good from just one supplier.

For tractability, the EK model assumes that iceberg trade costs are the same for all goods that travel from o to d . Harrigan (2006) shows that allowing for heterogeneity in trade costs across goods in a simplified version of EK introduces a further role for relative trade costs to influence comparative advantage. For our purposes here, the main interest of Harrigan (2006) is the result that a fall in variable trade costs for a subset of goods leads to an increase in the probability that they will be successfully exported.

The role of market size in determining the probability of exporting can also be studied with (5). The bigger is market- d , as measured by its GDP Y_d , the smaller is the probability that o successfully sells in d . There are two elements to the intuition of this result. Large countries must sell a lot so they need, on average, low unit-labor-costs (as measured by w_o^θ/T_o) and this means that large nations are often their own low-cost supplier. The second is that there are no fixed market-entry (i.e. beachhead) costs, so that an exporter will supply all markets where it has the lowest c.i.f. price regardless of how tiny those markets might be. Expression (5) also predicts that nation- d imports more goods from larger exporters, with size measured by Y_o .

The EK model makes extremely simple predictions for the spatial distribution of import prices. The distribution of prices inside nation- d is given by (3) and each exporting nation has a constant probability of being the supplier of any given good. Consequently, the c.i.f. price of nation- o 's exports to nation- d is just a random sample from (3), which means (3) also describes the distribution of import prices for every exporting nation. The average c.i.f. price of goods imported from every partner should be identical and related to nation- d price index by (see appendix for details)

$$p_{od}^e = P_d \left(\frac{\Gamma[(1-\sigma+\theta)/\theta]}{\Gamma[(1+\theta)/\theta]} \right) \quad (6)$$

where $\Gamma[.]$ is the Gamma function. Since trade costs are fully passed on under perfection competition, the average bilateral export (f.o.b.) price, p_{od}^e / τ_{od} , should be increasing in the destination nation's price index and declining in bilateral distance.

2.1.2. Extensions and modifications of the Eaton-Kortum model

The EK model is a multi-country Ricardian model with trade costs. In all Ricardian models, the locus of competition is within each destination nation. This means that exporters must meet the competitive demands in each nation if they are to export successfully. Given this basic structure, the prediction of equal average import prices from all source nations is quite robust. Putting it differently, highly competitive nations export a wider range of goods than less competitive nations but the average import price of their goods does not vary with exporter's competitiveness, size or distance from the importing market. Staying in the Ricardian-Walrasian framework limits the range of modifications and extensions, so most extensions and modifications of the EK model lead to quite similar spatial predictions for zeros and prices.

One important extension of EK is Bernard, Eaton, Jensen and Kortum (2003). This model introduces imperfect competition into the EK framework with the low-cost firm in each market engaging in limit pricing. Limit pricing ties the market price to the marginal cost of the second-best firm, rather than the first-best as in EK. However with randomly generated technology, the outcome for the spatial pattern of zeros and prices is qualitatively unaltered.

Eaton, Kortum and Kramarz (2005) modify the EK framework model further, and the resulting model is completely out of the Walrasian framework. The paper introduces monopolistic competition (thus deviating from perfect competition) and fixed market-entry, i.e. beachhead costs (thus deviating

from constant returns). Eaton, Kortum and Kramarz (2005) is thus best thought of as an HFT model, which we consider in Section 2.3.

2.1.3. Summary of empirical implications of the Eaton-Kortum model

We conclude this section with a recap of what the EK model predicts about zeros and prices across space.

Export zeros The probability that exporter- o sends a good to destination- d is decreasing in the distance between o and d , and also decreasing in the size of d . A fall in trade costs reduces the incidence of zeros.

Export prices Considering a single product sold by o in multiple destinations d , the f.o.b price is decreasing in the distance between o and d , and unrelated to the size of d .

2.2. Monopolistic competition

Monopolistic competition (MC) models constitute another major strand in trade theory. The particular MC model that we focus on, like the Eaton-Kortum model, has N countries, iceberg trade costs and a single factor of production L . The trade structure, however, is starkly different. Because of the love-of-variety in demand, every good is consumed in every country and the same f.o.b. prices are charged to every market. Goods are produced under conditions of increasing returns and Dixit-Stiglitz monopolistic competition. Firms are homogenous in that they all face the same unit-labor requirement, a . The model is very standard, so we will move quickly (see Appendix for details).

Dixit-Stiglitz competition implies that ‘mill pricing’ is optimal, i.e. firms charge the same f.o.b. export price regardless of destination, passing the iceberg trade cost fully on to consumers. With mill pricing and CES demand, the value of bilateral exports for each good is

$$v_{od} = \phi_{od} \left(\frac{w_o a}{1-1/\sigma} \right)^{1-\sigma} B_d; \quad \phi_{od} \equiv \tau_{od}^{1-\sigma} \in [0,1], \quad B_d \equiv \frac{w_d L_d}{P_d^{1-\sigma}}. \quad (7)$$

where v_{od} is the value of bilateral exports for a typical good, ϕ_{od} reflects the ‘freeness’ of bilateral trade (ϕ ranges from zero when τ is prohibitive to unity under costless trade, i.e. $\tau = 1$), B_d is the per-firm demand-shifter in market- d , and P_d is as in (5), with Θ being the set of goods sold in d .

2.2.1. Spatial pattern of zeros and prices in the monopolistic competition model

Consumers in the MC model buy some of every variety with a finite price, so there should be no zeros in exporters' bilateral trade matrices: if a good is exported to one country it is exported to all. The size of the export market has no bearing on this prediction, since in the absence of fixed market entry costs firms find it profitable to sell even in tiny markets.

The MC model also has sharp predictions for the spatial pattern of trade prices. Mill pricing is optimal, so the f.o.b. export price for all destinations should be identical. Since trade costs are passed fully on to consumers, the c.i.f. import prices should increase with bilateral distance but there should be no connection between market size and pricing (f.o.b. or c.i.f.).

2.2.2. Extensions and modifications of the monopolistic competition model

The core elements of the MC model are imperfect competition, increasing returns and homogenous firms. Since imperfect competition can take many forms, many variants of the standard MC model are possible. The general formula for optimal pricing under monopolistic competition sets consumer price to $\frac{\sigma \tau_{od}}{1 - \varepsilon_d^{-1}}$, where ε_d is the perceived elasticity of demand in market- d . Different frameworks link ε_d to various parameters. Under Dixit-Stiglitz monopolistic competition, ε_d equals σ . Under the Ottaviano, Tabuchi and Thisse (2002) monopolistic competition framework firms face linear demand, so ε_d rises as firms move up the demand curve. This means that the markup falls as greater trade cost drive consumption down. In other words, producers absorb some of the trade costs, so the f.o.b. export prices should be lower for more distant markets. Linear demand also implies that there is a choke-price for consumers and thus trade partners that have sufficiently high bilateral trade costs will export nothing to each other. A corollary is that a fall in trade costs will reduced the incidence of zeros. Finally, if demand curves are sufficiently convex, higher bilateral trade costs raise the markup and this implies that f.o.b. prices can rise with distance. Because this degree of convexity implies a counterfactual more-than-full pass-through of cost shocks (e.g., more than 100% exchange rate pass-through) such demand structures are not typically viewed as part of the standard MC model.

Likewise, many forms of increasing returns are possible. The no-zeros prediction of the standard MC model stems from the fact that consumers buy some of every good provided only that prices are finite. If in addition to iceberg trade costs, one assumes that there are beachhead costs (i.e. fixed market entry costs), then nation- o sell its varieties to nation- d only if bilateral trade is sufficiently

free. With the Ottaviano et. al. framework, the predicted pattern of zeros is very stark. Nation- o 's export matrix has either no zero with respect to nation- d , or all zeros.

2.2.3. Summary of empirical implications of monopolistic competition model

We conclude this section with a recap of what the monopolistic competition model predicts about zeros and prices across space. We consider both the baseline model with CES preferences as well as the Ottaviano et. al. model with linear demand.

Export zeros The baseline model predicts zero zeros: if an exporter- o sends a good to any destination- d it will send the good to all destinations. With linear demand, the probability of a zero is increasing in the distance between o and d , but unrelated to the size of d . A fall in trade costs will reduce the probability of zeros with linear demand.

Export prices Considering a single product sold by o in multiple destinations, the baseline model predicts no variation in f.o.b export prices. With linear demand, the f.o.b price is decreasing in the distance between o and d , and unrelated to the size of d .

2.3. A multi-nation asymmetric heterogeneous firms trade model

One of the beauties of the original Melitz (2003) heterogeneous firms trade (HFT) model is that it provides a clean and convincing story about why some products are not exported at all. But since Melitz (2003) works with two or more symmetric countries, it can not address the spatial pattern of export zeros or export prices. Here we develop a multi-country HFT model with asymmetric countries and arbitrary trade costs to generate testable hypotheses concerning zeros and prices.

The HFT model we work with embraces all of the features of the baseline monopolistic competition model and adds in two new elements – fixed market-entry (beachhead) costs and heterogeneous marginal costs at the firm level. Firm-level heterogeneity is introduced – as in the Eaton-Kortum model – via a stochastic technology-generation process. When a firm pays its set-up cost F_I it simultaneously draws a unit labor coefficient from the Pareto distribution,⁸

⁸The HFT model is easily solved with an exponential cdf like (2), but (8) is more traditional and can be justified by reference to data on the U.S. firm size distribution (Axtell, 2001). This formulation of randomness differs trivially from Melitz, who, like EK, works firm-level efficiency (i.e. $1/a$).

$$G[a] = \left(\frac{a}{a_0} \right)^\kappa; \quad \kappa > 1, \quad 0 \leq a \leq a_0 \quad (8)$$

After seeing its' a , the firm decides how many markets to enter. As in the MC model, Dixit-Stiglitz competition means that a firm's optimal price is proportional to its marginal cost, its operating profit is proportional to its revenue, and its revenue is inversely proportional to its relative price. Thus a firm that draws a relatively high marginal cost earns little if it does produce. If this amount is insufficient to cover the beachhead cost in any market, the firm never produces. Firms that draw lower marginal costs may find it profitable to enter some markets (especially their local market where the absence of trade costs provides them with a relative cost advantage). More generally, each export market has a threshold marginal cost for every origin nation, i.e. a maximum marginal cost that yields operating profit sufficient to cover the beachhead cost. Using (7), the cut-off conditions that define the bilateral maximum-marginal-cost thresholds a_{od} are⁹

$$\phi_{od} B_d w_o a_{od}^{1-\sigma} = f; \quad f \equiv \sigma F (1 - 1/\sigma)^{1-\sigma}$$

so

$$w_o a_{od} = \frac{1}{\tau_{od}} \left(\frac{B_d}{f} \right)^{\frac{1}{\sigma-1}} \quad (9)$$

for all nations.

In Melitz' original model with symmetric countries, the additional assumption of the Pareto distribution for marginal cost makes it possible to obtain analytical solutions for all the endogenous variables, including wages and per-firm demands (Baldwin (2005)). With asymmetric countries solution is more difficult. The approach taken by Helpman, Melitz, and Yeaple (2004) is to assume the existence of a costlessly traded constant returns numeraire sector¹⁰. If all countries produce the numeraire good in equilibrium (which parameter restrictions can guarantee), then wages are equalized across countries and the per-firm demand levels B_d are independent of market size (see appendix). This

⁹ Here we have chosen units (without loss of generality) such that $a_0=1$. We also assume the regularity condition $\kappa > \sigma - 1$, and that beachhead costs are the same everywhere for notational simplicity.

¹⁰ This solution approach has also been taken by Demidova (2006) and Falvey, Greenaway, and Yu (2006) in their analyses of a two-country asymmetric HFT model.

has the counterfactual implication that, controlling for distance, a given exporting firm has the same level of sales in every market. The economics behind this result is that larger markets attract greater numbers of entrants, which reduces demand levels facing every firm below what they would be in the absence of entry. In equilibrium, entry exactly offsets country size differences, so that demand levels for a given firm are the same regardless of which market they sell in.

An alternative solution procedure is to dispense with the assumption of a costlessly traded equilibrium and to analyze Melitz' original model with the single change of allowing for differences in country size. As we show in the appendix, it is not possible to solve this model analytically, but numerical simulation is straightforward. We show that larger countries have larger per-firm demands, and as a result any given firm sells more to larger countries than to smaller ones (controlling for trade costs). The mechanism is that larger countries have endogenously higher nominal wages, which leads to less entry than there would be if wages were equalized. A way to see the contrast between the two solutions is to note that incipient entry raises the demand for labor in the larger country, but that this has different effects depending on the behavior of wages. When wages are fixed by the numeraire sector, all the adjustment takes place through entry. Without the numeraire sector, part of the adjustment comes through higher nominal wages in the larger country, which dampens entry and consequently leaves per-firm demand higher in the larger country.

2.3.1. Asymmetric HFT's spatial pattern of zeros and prices

The spatial pattern of zeros comes from the cut-off thresholds. The probability that a firm producing variety- j with marginal costs $w_o a_o(j)$ will exports to nation- d is the probability that its marginal cost is less than the threshold defined in (9), namely

$$\Pr \left\{ w_o a_o(j) < \frac{1}{\tau_{od}} \left(\frac{B_d}{f^\beta} \right)^{1/\kappa} \right\} = \frac{B_d}{\tau_{od}^\kappa f^\beta} \quad (10)$$

where we used (8) to evaluate the likelihood. In our empirics, we only have data on products that are actually exported to at least one market so it is useful to derive the expression for the conditional probability, i.e. the probability that firm h exports to market j given that it exports to at least one market. This conditional probability of exports from o to d by typical firm j is

$$\frac{\tau_{od}^{-\kappa} B_d}{\min_{i \neq o} \tau_{oi}^{-\kappa} B_i} \quad (11)$$

Since we work with data for a single exporting nation, the denominator here will be a constant for all products. Thus the probability that an exporting firm exports to a given market is predicted to decline as the distance to that market increases, and increase as the market size rises. A fall in variable trade costs increases the marginal cost cutoff for profitable exporting, and hence reduces the probability of export zeros.

The spatial pattern of prices in the asymmetric HFT model is also simple to derive. We consider both the export (f.o.b.) price for a particular good exported to several markets, and the average export (f.o.b.) price for all varieties exported by a particular nation. Because the model relies on Dixit-Stiglitz monopolistic competition, mill pricing is optimal for every firm, so the f.o.b. export price of each good exported should be identical for all destinations. In particular, the export price for any given good should be unrelated to bilateral distance and unrelated to the size of the exporting and importing nations. However, the range of goods exported does depend on bilateral distance and size, so the average bilateral f.o.b. export price will differ systematically. The cut-off conditions (9) imply that the weighted average of the f.o.b. prices of all varieties exported from nation- o to nation- d , \bar{p}_{od} , is

$$\bar{p}_{od} = \int_0^{a_{od}} \left(\frac{\tau_{od} w_o a}{1 - 1/\sigma} \right)^{1-\sigma} dG(a_{od} | a \leq a_{oo})$$

Using (8) to evaluate the integral and eliminating the cutoff a_{od} using (9), this becomes

$$\bar{p}_{od} = \frac{\delta_o}{\tau_{od}^\kappa} \left(\frac{B_d}{f} \right)^{\frac{1+\kappa-\sigma}{\sigma-1}} \quad (12)$$

where δ_o is a function of parameters and country o variables only. Equation (12) implies that the relative average export price to any two markets c and d from a single origin o depends only on relative distance from o and relative market size:

$$\frac{\bar{p}_{od}}{\bar{p}_{oc}} = \left(\frac{\tau_{oc}}{\tau_{od}} \right)^\kappa \left(\frac{B_d}{B_c} \right)^{\frac{\kappa+\sigma-1}{\sigma-1}}$$

The logic of (12) is that since the cut-off marginal cost, a_{od} , falls with bilateral distance and increases with market size, the average export price of nation- o varieties to nation- d should be decreasing in distance and increasing in the size of the export market. The intuition is that the cheapest goods are the most competitive in this model, so they travel the furthest.

2.3.2. Extensions and modifications of the asymmetric HFT model

The asymmetric HFT model, like the monopolistic competition model, has imperfect competition and increasing returns as core elements. As noted above, there are many different forms of imperfect competition and scale economies. The other core elements of the HFT model are beachhead costs or choke-prices (these explain why not all varieties are sold in all markets) and heterogeneous marginal costs (these explain why some nation- o firms can sell in a market but others cannot). This suggests three dimensions along which HFT models can vary: market structure, source of scale economies, and source of heterogeneity.

For example, Eaton, Kortum, and Kramarz (2005) present a model that incorporates beachhead and iceberg costs in a setting that nests the Ricardian framework of Eaton-Kortum (2002) and Bernard et al (2003) with the monopolistic competition approach of Melitz (2003). Eaton et. al. does not include set-up costs since firms' are endowed with a technology draw. Another difference is that they work with a technology-generating function from the exponential family. Demidova (2005) and Falvey, Greenaway and Yu (2006) allow for technological asymmetry among nations but embrace Dixit-Stiglitz competition with icebergs, beachhead and set-up costs. Yeaple (2005) assumes the source of the heterogeneous marginal costs stems from workers who are endowed with heterogeneous productivity; he works with Dixit-Stiglitz monopolistic competition with icebergs and beachhead costs. As these models all involve Dixit-Stiglitz monopolistic competition, icebergs and beachhead costs, their spatial predictions for zeros and price are qualitatively in line with the model laid out above.

Melitz and Ottaviano (2005) work with the Ottaviano, Tabuchi, and Thisse (2002) monopolistic competition framework with linear demands. The implied choke-price substitutes for beachhead costs in shutting off the trade of high-cost varieties. The Melitz-Ottaviano prediction for the spatial pattern of zeros matches that of the asymmetric HFT model with respect to bilateral distance, but not with respect to market size. As our appendix illustrates, the cut-off marginal cost in Melitz-Ottaviano is tied to the y-axis intercept of the linear residual demand curve facing a typical firm. More intense competition

lowers this intercept (this is how pure profits are eliminated in the model) and thus the cut-off (a_{od} in our notation) falls with the degree of competition. Since large nations always have more intense competition from local varieties, Melitz-Ottaviano predicts that large countries should have lower cut-offs, controlling for the nation's remoteness. In other words, Melitz-Ottaviano predicts a *positive* relationship between the size of the partner nation and the number of zeros in an exporter's matrix of bilateral, product-level exports. As far as the spatial pattern of prices is concerned, Melitz-Ottaviano predict that export prices should decline with the market's distance and with market size, a result which follows from the result that the cutoffs are declining in distance and market size.

2.3.3. Summary of empirical implications of asymmetric HFT model

We conclude this section with a recap of what the asymmetric HFT model predicts about zeros and prices across space. We consider both the baseline model with CES preferences as well as the Melitz-Ottaviano et. al. model with linear demand.

Export zeros The probability of an export zero is increasing in bilateral distance. The effect of market size on the probability of an export zero is negative in the baseline model, and positive in the Melitz-Ottaviano variant. A decline in trade costs reduces the incidence of zeros.

Export prices Considering a single product sold by o in multiple destinations, the f.o.b price is decreasing in the distance between o and d . The effect of market size on average f.o.b. price is positive in the baseline model, and negative in the Melitz-Ottaviano variant.

3. ZEROS AND PRICES IN TRADE DATA

The models described in the previous section all make predictions about detailed trade data in a many country world. These predictions are collected for easy reference in the first five rows of Table 1. To evaluate these predictions, we use the most detailed possible data on imports and exports – the trade data collected by the U.S. Customs Service and made available on CD-ROM.

For both U.S. imports and U.S. exports, the Census reports data for all trading partners classified by the 10-digit Harmonized System (HS). For each country-HS10 record, Census reports value, quantity, and shipping mode. In addition, the import data include shipping costs and tariff

charges. Our data analysis also includes information on distance and various macro variables, which come from the Penn-World Tables.

The Census data are censored from below, which means that very small trade flows are not reported. For imports, the cut-off is \$250, so the smallest value of trade reported is \$251. For exports, the cut-off is 10 times higher, at \$2500. This relatively high censoring level for exports is a potential problem, since there may be many economically meaningful export relationships which are inappropriately coded as nonexistent. One hint that this problem is not too prevalent comes from the import data, where only 0.8% of the non-zero trade flows are between \$250 and \$2500.

3.1. How many zeros?

We define a zero as a trade flow which could have occurred but did not. For exports, a zero occurs when the U.S. exports an HS10 product to at least one country but not all. The interpretation of an export zero is simple, since they are defined only for goods actually produced. For imports, a zero is an HS10 good which is imported from at least one country but not all. The interpretation of an import zero is not as simple; they may be defined in cases when the country in question does not even produce the good (the U.S. has zero imports of bananas from Canada, for example).

The incidence of zeros in U.S. trade in 2005 is reported in Table 2. The United States imported in nearly 17,000 different 10-digit HTS categories from 228 countries, for a total of over 3.8 million potential trade flows. Over 90% of these potential trade flows are zeros. The median number of supplier countries was 12, with a quarter of goods being supplied by at least 23 countries. Only 5% of goods have a unique supplier. In principle this pattern of imports is consistent with a homogeneous goods model, since if we define a good narrowly enough it will have just one supplier (“red wine from France”). However, the large number of suppliers for the majority of narrowly defined goods seems instead to be suggestive of product differentiation¹¹. This well-known phenomenon is part of what motivated the development of monopolistic competition trade models.

Zeros are almost as common in the export data as in the import data. Table 2 shows that in 2005 the U.S. exported 8,880 10-digit goods to 230 different destinations, for a total of more than 2 million potential trade flows. Of these, 82% are zeros. Unlike the import zeros these have an unambiguous interpretation, since a zero is defined only if a good is exported to at least one country, which

¹¹ The largest number of trading partners for any product is 125, for product 6204.52.2020, “Women’s trousers and breeches, of cotton, not knitted or crocheted”. This is not a homogeneous goods category.

necessarily means the good is produced in the U.S. The median number of export markets is 35, with a quarter of goods exported to at least 59 markets. Only 1% of products are sent to a unique partner.

Many of the 230 places that the U.S. trades with are tiny to the point of insignificance (Andorra, Falkland Islands, Nauru, Pitcairn, Vatican City, and the like). Restricting attention to the 100 large countries for which we have at least some macroeconomic data reduces the incidence of zeros somewhat (86% for imports, 70% for exports), but does not fundamentally change the message that zeros predominate.

The predominance of export zeros is at odds with the “zero zeros” prediction of the baseline monopolistic competition model with CES preferences discussed in Section 2. Thus even before we proceed to formal statistical analysis we conclude that this model is a non-starter.

3.2. Export zeros across space

The gravity equation offers a flexible and ubiquitous statistical explanation for the aggregate volume of trade between countries. The basic logic of the gravity equation is simplicity itself: bilateral trade volumes depend positively on country size and negatively on distance. Here we adopt the gravity approach to explain not the *volume* of trade but rather its *incidence*. This descriptive statistical exercise is intended to help us understand the pattern of export zeros summarized in Table 2.

We focus on U.S. export zeros because of their unambiguous interpretation as products which the U.S. produces and ships to at least one, but not all, countries. Extending the gravity logic suggests that exports should be more likely the larger the production of the good, the larger the export market, and the shorter the distance the good would have to travel. We have no information on production volumes by good, so we focus on within-product variation across export partners. The statistical model we estimate is

$$\Pr(z_{ic} = 0) = F\left(\alpha_i + \beta_1 \log d_c + \beta_2 \log Y_c + \beta_3 \log \frac{Y_c}{L_c}\right)$$

where

$z_{ic} = 1$ if zero exports of product i from the U.S. to country c .

α_i = intercept for product i .

d_c = distance from U.S. to country c .

Y_c = real GDP of country c .

L_c = labor force in country c .

and F is a probability distribution function. There is no particular reason to expect the relationship to be linear, so we allow the relationship between zeros and distance to be a step function and also include GDP per worker (aggregate productivity) as a control. The distance step function is specified by looking for natural dividing points in the raw distance data, and the countries in each category are listed in Table 3. As indicated in Table 2, the dimensions of the data in 2005 are 8,880 HS10 products and 100 countries. As is well known, fixed effects logit and probit estimators are not consistent when the number of effects is large. As a consequence, we estimate two other statistical models, the linear probability and random effects logit models, with results reported in Table 3.

The first two columns of Table 4 report the results of the linear probability model. The coefficients have the simple interpretation as marginal effects on the probability of a good being exported to a particular country, conditional on being exported to at least one country. The excluded distance category of 0 kilometers includes the United States and Canada. For nearby countries distance has no statistically significant effect on zeros, an effect which jumps to about 0.33 for distances greater than 4000km. Country size also has a very large effect, with a 10% increase in real GDP of the importing country lowering the probability of a zero by 8 percentage points. The importer's aggregate productivity also has a large effect, with a 10% increase raising the probability of trade by more than 5 percentage points. Except for the aggregate productivity effect the sign of the estimated effects is not surprising, but it is useful to see how large the magnitudes are.¹² The within R^2 of 0.28 is quite high by the standards of cross-section regressions. The results are very similar for the sample restricted to HS codes that belong to SITC 6 (manufactured goods), 7 (machinery and transport equipment), and 8 (miscellaneous manufactures).

The final two columns of Table 4 report marginal effects from the random effects logit. There are two strong technical assumptions behind these computations which give reasons to be skeptical of the results: first, the assumption that the random product effects are orthogonal to country characteristics is a strong one which can be rejected statistically, and second, the covariance matrix estimator doesn't permit clustering errors by country (which amounts to assuming that errors for each

¹² The large effect of aggregate productivity may be related to the mechanism recently studied by Choi, Hummels and Xiang (2006).

export market are independent across goods). In any event, the marginal effects from the logit are broadly consistent with the coefficients of the linear probability model, which suggests that the functional form assumption of the former model doesn't do too much violence to the data. As with the linear probability model, splitting the sample does not change much.

While in many respects not surprising, *the results of Table 4 are not consistent with most of the models summarized in Table 1*. Only the heterogeneous firm model with CES preferences is consistent with the positive market size and negative distance effects identified in the data.

3.3. Export unit values across space

We now turn to a descriptive analysis of export unit values. The statistical model is very similar to the previous section, with within-product variation in unit values regressed on distance, market size, and aggregate productivity of the importing country:

$$p_{ic} = \alpha_i + \beta_1 \log d_c + \beta_2 \log Y_c + \beta_3 \log \frac{Y_c}{L_c} + \varepsilon_{ic}$$

where p_{ic} is the log of the f.o.b. average unit value of product i shipped to country c . The product fixed effect controls both for the average unit value of products (industrial diamonds vs. peanuts) and differences in units (kilos vs. bushels) across products. Because this analysis uses only non-zero export observations, the sample size is much smaller than in the previous section, and the panel is highly unbalanced because the incidence of zeros varies widely across products.

The most common definition of units in the U.S. export data unit is a simple count, with the second most common being weight in kilograms (some records report two unit definitions, in which case the second unit is almost always kilos). Other units include bushels, barrels, square meters, grams, and the like. While the product fixed effects sweep out differences in units across products, there may still be a difficulty in comparing the effects of distance and market size on unit values not in common units. To address this concern, we run the regression above on the subset of data for which kilograms are the unit, so that unit value is simply the value/weight ratio.

Product level unit values are notoriously noisy indicators of prices, particularly for very small trade flows. To make sure that our results are not overly influenced by noisy and economically unimportant observations we trim the estimation sample in two ways. The first trim is to discard all export flows of less than \$10,000, which eliminates the smallest 7% of observations. Our second trim is

to look only at flows where the data reports a count (as in, “number of cars” or “dozens of pairs of socks”), and to discard all observations with a count of one. Since there are almost no products where both a count and kilos are reported, we do not analyze this subset of data.

Table 5 reports the results of our export unit value regressions. A striking message is that *distance has a very large positive effect on unit values*. For manufactured goods, compared to the excluded Canada/Mexico category, small distances (less than 4000km) increase unit values by 16 log points, while larger distances increases unit values by 60-70 log points, which is a factor of about 2. For goods where units are reported in kilos, so that unit value is also value/weight, the effect of small distance is somewhat larger at 26 log points, while the effect of larger distances is about the same as for manufactured goods. For the subset of goods where units are a count, and the count is greater than 1, results are broadly similar.

Table 5 also shows that market size has a small but statistically significant negative effect on export unit values of manufactured goods, with an elasticity of -0.06 when small values are excluded. This effect is also apparent when nonmanufactured goods are pooled with manufactured goods. For goods measured in kilos the effect is zero when small values are excluded. The effect of aggregate productivity is fragile: there is a small positive effect when the sample is restricted to products measured in kilos, while it is either zero and or small and negative in other sub samples.

The strong positive relationship between export unit values and distance seen in Table 5 is inconsistent with *all* of the models presented in section 2. The baseline monopolistic competition model predict a zero relationship, while the other models predict a negative relationship between export unit values and distance, the exact opposite of what shows up so strongly in the data. Only the Melitz-Ottaviano model is consistent with the negative market size effect on prices.

3.4. Variable trade costs and zeros

Table 3 shows conclusively that zeros are increasing in distance. If variable trade costs are increasing in distance, then this result is consistent with all of the models except the baseline monopolistic competition model, which is a bit of a straw man in light of Table 2. Nonetheless, the evidence of Table 3 is only indirect, since it does not include direct measures of trade costs. In this section we use more direct evidence on falling variable trade costs to confirm their importance in explaining zeros.

Shipping costs are probably the largest component of variable trade costs (other components include the cost of insurance and the interest cost of goods in transit). While most observers take it for granted that shipping costs have fallen dramatically since World War II, hard data is surprisingly difficult to come by and the trends are ambiguous when the data is analyzed (Hummels, 1999). However, there is no doubt that the relative cost of air shipment has declined precipitously. Hummels (1999) shows the decline in air shipment costs to 1993, though Hummels' data (as he notes) is not a price index. Since 1990, the U.S. Bureau of Labor Statistics has been collecting price indices on the transport costs borne by U.S. imports. Figure 1 uses this data to illustrate that between 1990 and 2005, the relative price of air to ocean liner shipping for U.S. imports fell by nearly 40%, continuing the trend documented by Hummels (1999). As illustrated in the figure, this drop in the relative price of air shipment is partly due to the increasing nominal cost of ocean liner shipping, and partly due to a drop in the nominal price of air shipment. Micco and Serebrisky (2006) show that the drop in air shipment rates is partly due to economic policy: the United States implemented a series of "Open Skies Agreements" between 1990 and 2003 which reduced nominal air transport costs by 9%. There is no comparable data on the price of shipping by train and truck, modes used exclusively on imports from Canada and Mexico. The BLS also reports a price index for air freight on exports, but does not report a price index for ocean liner shipping on exports. Not surprisingly, there is no trend in the relative price of air shipping for imports and exports. In what follows we assume that the trend illustrated in Figure 1 holds for exports as well.

The fall in the relative price of air shipment since 1990 implies that products shipped by air saw a fall in their variable trade costs compared to products shipped by ocean liner. This has direct implications for the incidence of export zeros: export zeros should have disappeared more often for air shipped than for surface shipped goods. We test this implication with a simple but powerful differences-in-differences empirical strategy.

The data used in this section is 6-digit HS U.S. exports for 1990 and 2005. We use HS6 rather than the more disaggregated HS10 data of the previous sections because HS10 definitions change frequently, making an accurate match of products over 15 years impossible.¹³

¹³ Even using HS6 data we had to discard about 20% of exports by value because of matching problems, mainly having to do with differences in units over time

Consider export zeros in 1990. By 2005, some of these zeros have disappeared for various reasons. Conditional on a good being exported, firms choose the optimal shipment mode, and those who choose to ship by air benefit from the falling cost of air shipment. If the theory prediction is correct, then new export flows in 2005 will be more likely when they are shipped by air. Define

x_{ict} = exports of product i to country c in year t .

z_{ict} = 1 if $x_{ict} > 0$, 0 otherwise.

a_{ict} = 1 if exports shipped by air, 0 otherwise

y_{ic} = 1 if ($z_{ic1990} = 0$ and $z_{ic2005} = 1$), 0 otherwise

The variable y_{ic} is an indicator of a new trade flow starting sometime between 1990 and 2005: there were no exports in 1990, and positive exports in 2005. Note that $y_{ic} = 0$ for three distinct reasons:

- a. ($z_{ic1990} = 0$ and $z_{ic2005} = 0$) export in both years
- b. ($z_{ic1990} = 1$ and $z_{ic2005} = 1$) export in neither year
- c. ($z_{ic1990} = 1$ and $z_{ic2005} = 0$) export in 1990 but not in 2005

An empirical model to explain y_{ic} is

$$\Pr(y_{ic} = 1) = F(\alpha_i + \alpha_c + \beta a_{ic2005})$$

where F is the normal or logistic cdf, and the α 's are country and product fixed effects. That is, the probability of a new export depends on country and product effects and the shipment mode in 2005. Note that since a_{ic2005} is undefined if $z_{ic2005} = 0$, the statistical model includes observations only on active trade flows in 2005, and compares the characteristics of new flows ($y_{ic} = 1$) versus old flows ($y_{ic} = 0$). Under the null $\beta = 0$: the new flows are more likely to be sent by air.

Table 6 summarizes the data. There were nearly 200,000 non-zero HS6 export flows in 2005, of which more than 40% were zeros in 1990. Of these “new” trade flows, 39% were shipped by air, compared to 34% shipped by air among “old” flows. Thus there is a 5 percentage point difference in the likelihood of air shipment for new flows.

Given all the other changes in the global economy since 1990, Table 6 is certainly not definitive evidence of the importance of falling variable trade costs in explaining disappearing export zeros. Table 7 reports estimates of the dichotomous probability model above. For technical reasons it is not

possible to estimate two-way logit or probit fixed effects models with product indicators, so the first three rows of the Table report results with country effects only. The final row of the Table is the most interesting, since it includes country and product fixed effects. The effect of air shipment is precisely estimated: exports shipped by air in 2005 are 2.5 percentage points more likely to be new. This is a substantial effect compared to the overall share of new exports in 2005 (42 percent), so that the air shipment dummy accounts for almost 6 percent of new trade flows in 2005.

We conclude from this section that higher variable trade costs increase the incidence of export zeros.

4. TRADE WITH HETEROGENEOUS QUALITY

The empirical evidence presented above has a clear message: the Melitz (2003) model extended to multiple asymmetric countries does a good job of explaining export zeros, but can not explain spatial variation in prices. By contrast, the predictions of the Eaton-Kortum, monopolistic competition, and Melitz-Ottaviano models are inconsistent with both zeros and spatial price variation. In this section we build a model that has the virtues of the asymmetric HFT model without this vice. Since firms compete on the basis of quality as well as price in the model, we refer to it as the quality heterogeneous firms model, QHFT for short¹⁴. In supposing that firms compete on quality as well as price, we follow a number of important recent papers, including Schott (2004), Hummels and Klenow (2005), and Hallak (2006) among others.

Most of the assumptions and notation are as in section 2.3 above. There are two main changes – one on the demand side – consumers now care about quality – and one on the supply side – firms produce varieties of different quality. More precisely, consumers regard some varieties as superior to others. This superiority could be regarded purely as a matter of taste, but we will interpret superiority as a matter of “quality.” The utility function is

¹⁴ A recent paper, Helble and Okubo (2006), independently develops a different model of trade with heterogeneous quality.

$$U = \left(\int_{i \in \Theta} (c_i q_i)^{1-1/\sigma} di \right)^{1/(1-1/\sigma)}; \quad \sigma > 1 \quad (13)$$

where c and q are the quantity and quality of a typical variety and Θ is the set of consumed varieties. The corresponding expenditure function for nation- d is

$$p_d(j)c_d(j) = \left(\frac{p_d(j)}{q(j)} \right)^{1-\sigma} B_d; \quad P_d \equiv \left(\int_{j \in \Theta} \left(\frac{p_d(j)}{q(j)} \right)^{1-\sigma} dj \right)^{1/(1-\sigma)} \quad (14)$$

where $p(j)/q(j)$ has the interpretation of a quality-adjusted price of good- j , P is the CES index of quality-adjusted prices, and Θ the set of consumed varieties; B_d is defined as above. The standard CES preferences are a special case of (14) with $q(j)=1$, for all j .

As in the standard HFT model, manufacturing firms draw their a from a random distribution after paying a fixed innovation cost of F_I units of labor. In the QHFT model, however, high costs are not all bad news, for higher quality is assumed to be come with higher marginal cost. In particular

$$q(j) = (a(j))^{1+\theta}, \quad \theta > -1 \quad (15)$$

where $1 + \theta$ is the ‘quality elasticity’, namely the extent to which higher marginal costs are related to higher quality (setting $\theta = -1$ reduces this to the standard HFT model).

At the time it chooses prices, the typical firm takes its quality and marginal cost as given, so the standard Dixit-Stiglitz results apply. Mill-pricing with a constant mark-up, $\sigma/(\sigma-1)$, is optimal for all firms in all markets and this means that operating profit is a constant fraction, $1/\sigma$, of firm revenue market by market. Using (15) in (14), operating profit for a typical nation- o firm selling in nation- d is

$$\left(\frac{w_o a(j)}{1-1/\sigma} \right)^{\theta(1-\sigma)} \frac{B_d}{\sigma} \quad (16)$$

The only difference between this and the corresponding expression for profits without quality differences is the θ in the exponent. Plainly, the properties of this model crucially depend on how elastic quality is with respect to marginal cost. For $\theta \in [-1, 0)$, quality increases slowly with cost and the optimal quality-adjusted consumer price, namely $\phi_{od} (w_o a)^{-\theta}$, increases with cost. In this case, a firm’s revenue and operating profit fall with its marginal cost. For $\theta > 0$, by contrast, quality increases

quickly enough with cost so that the quality-adjusted price falls as a rises, so higher a 's are associated with higher operating profit. Henceforth we focus on the $\theta > 0$ case because, as the empirics above suggested, it is the case that is most consistent with the data.

With (16), the cut-off condition for selling to typical market- d is $\phi_{od} (w_o a_{od})^{\theta(1-\sigma)} B_d = f$,

which can be rewritten as

$$w_o a_{od} = \left[\frac{\phi_{od} B_d}{f} \right]^{\frac{1}{\theta(\sigma-1)}} \quad (17)$$

Assuming $\theta > 0$, this tells us that only firms with sufficiently high-price/high-quality goods find it worthwhile to sell to distant markets. This is the *opposite* of Melitz (2003) and all other HFT models. In standard HFT models, competition depends only on price, so it is the lowest priced goods that make it to the most distant markets. In the QHFT model, competition depends on quality-adjusted prices and with $\theta > 0$, the most competitive varieties are high-price/high-quality. This means that distance selects for high-priced varieties rather than low-priced variety as in the HFT model.

4.1. Quality HFT's spatial pattern of zeros and prices

The spatial pattern of zeros in the QHFT model conforms to those of the HFT model, as a comparison of the cut-off conditions of the two models, (9) and (17), reveals. The key, new implication has to do with the relationship between prices and distance. Since a high price indicates high competitiveness (quality-adjusted price falls as the price rises), the marginal cost thresholds are increasing in distance, rather than decreasing as in the HFT model. Given that mill pricing is optimal, this means that both landed (c.i.f.) and shipping (f.o.b.) prices increases with the distance between trade partners. (See the Appendix for the exact relationship.)

Thus, average f.o.b. prices are increasing in distance. This is consistent with the evidence presented in Section 3. Finally, we note that the logic of the model is that average f.o.b. *quality-adjusted* prices are decreasing in distance, but since the data report only average unit values this is not a testable implication. Equation (17) also implies that the relationship between average f.o.b. prices and market size is decreasing, the opposite of the relationship given by (12) in the baseline asymmetric HFT model. The reason for the different prediction is that as export market size increases lower quality firms will find it profitable to enter, which lowers average f.o.b. price in larger markets.

We summarize the quality HFT model's predictions as

Export zeros The probability of an export zero is increasing in bilateral distance, and decreasing in market size.

Export prices Considering a single product sold by o in multiple destinations, the f.o.b price is increasing in the distance between o and d . The effect of market size on average f.o.b. price is negative in the baseline model.

These predictions are noted in the last line of Table 2. Once again, the QHFT model is the only one that we considered which matches the findings of the data analysis in Section 3.

5. CONCLUDING REMARKS

This paper has shown that existing models of bilateral trade all fail to explain key features of the product-level data. In particular, the well-known models of Eaton and Kortum (2002), Melitz (2003) and Helpman and Krugman (1985) all fail to match at least some of the following facts, which we document using product-level U.S. trade data:

- Most products are exported to only a few destinations.
- The incidence of these “export zeros” is positively related to distance and negatively related to market size.
- The average unit value of exports is positively related to distance.

We also show that falling air shipment costs are related to the disappearance of export zeros.

We finish the paper by proposing a modification to Melitz' (2003) model which fits all of the facts just summarized. In this new model, firms compete on quality as well as price, and differ in their relative location.

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Table 1 - Summary of model predictions

	Pr(export zero)		f.o.b. export price	
	distance	importer size	distance	importer size
Eaton-Kortum	+	+	-	0
Monopolistic competition, CES	n/a	n/a	0	0
Monopolistic competition, linear demand	+	0	-	0
Heterogeneous firms, CES	+	-	-	+
Heterogeneous firms, linear demand	+	+	-	-
Heterogeneous firms, quality competition	+	-	+	-

Notes to Table 1 The first five rows of the table summarize the theoretical comparative static predictions discussed in Section 2, with the last row giving the predictions of the model that we develop in Section 4. The six models under discussion are listed in the first column. Each entry reports the effect of an increase in distance or importer size on the probability of an export zero or f.o.b. export price. An export zero is defined to occur when a country exports a good to one country but not all.

Table 2 - Incidence of zeros in U.S. trade, 2005

	Imports	Exports
<i>all countries</i>		
Trading partners	228	230
HS10 products	16,843	8,880
partners × products	3,840,204	2,042,400
percent zeros	92.6	82.2
<i>100 largest countries</i>		
HS10 products	16,843	8,880
partners × products	1,684,300	888,000
percent zeros	85.5	70.0

Table 3 - Countries classified by distance from United States

country	km	country	km	country	km	country	km
Canada	0	Mexico	0	7800-14000km			
1-4000km				Burkina.Faso	7908	Japan	10910
Jamaica	2326	Costa.Rica	3300	Bulgaria	7920	China	11154
DominicanRep	2376	Venezuela	3317	Romania	7985	Korea	11174
Belize	2670	Panama	3341	Chile	8079	Pakistan	11389
Honduras	2936	Barbados	3345	Niger	8146	Yemen	11450
El.Salvador	3049	TrinidadTobago	3501	Cote.D'Ivour	8175	Ethiopia	11530
Guatemala	3110	Colombia	3829	Greece	8261	Rwanda	11629
Nicaragua	3115			Argentina	8402	Burundi	11670
4000-7800km				Uruguay	8488	Uganda	11679
Ecuador	4357	Gambia	6535	Ghana	8488	India	12051
Iceland	4518	Switzerland	6607	Togo	8572	Kenya	12152
Ireland	5448	Sweden	6641	Benin	8669	Nepal	12396
Peru	5671	Guinea.Bissau	6730	Turkey	8733	Zambia	12400
Portugal	5742	Brazil	6799	Nigeria	8737	South.Africa	12723
United.Kingdom	5904	Algeria	6800	Chad	9351	Tanzania	12759
Spain	6096	Finland	6938	Egypt	9358	Malawi	12781
Morocco	6109	Guinea	7050	Syria	9445	Zimbabwe	12835
France	6169	Austria	7130	Israel	9452	Bangladesh	12943
Netherlands	6198	Poland	7183	Jordan	9540	Hong.Kong	13129
Belgium-Lux	6221	Italy	7222	Cameroon	9622	Mozambique	13428
Bolivia	6235	Mali	7328	Gabon	9686	Comoros	13442
Norway	6238	Hungary	7344	Iran	10190	Philippines	13793
Senegal	6379	Tunisia	7347	Congo	10515		
Germany	6406	Paraguay	7421	over 14000km			
Denmark	6518			New.Zealand	14098	Mauritius	15224
				Thailand	14169	Malaysia	15350
				Madagascar	14291	Australia	15958
				Sri.Lanka	14402	Indonesia	16371
				Seychelles	15095		

Table 4 - Statistical determinants of non-zero U.S. exports, 2005

	<u>linear probability model</u>		<u>random effects probit model</u>	
	coefficient	t-statistic	marginal eff.	t-statistic
<i>full sample</i>				
1 < km ≤ 4000	-0.079	-1.34	0.040	9.74
4000 < km ≤ 7800	-0.335	-5.90	-0.238	-67.6
7800 < km ≤ 14000	-0.341	-5.41	-0.273	-65.4
14000 < km	-0.316	-4.74	-0.160	-63.5
landlocked	-0.017	-0.63	-0.036	-21.4
log real GDP	0.080	10.8	0.101	90.9
log real GDP/worker	0.054	3.92	0.087	80.9
<i>manufactured goods only</i>				
1 < km ≤ 4000	-0.021	-0.33	0.072	11.3
4000 < km ≤ 7800	-0.295	-4.75	-0.268	-56.3
7800 < km ≤ 14000	-0.311	-4.55	-0.311	-55.1
14000 < km	-0.287	-3.86	-0.196	-55.1
landlocked	-0.018	-0.65	-0.041	-17.6
log real GDP	0.086	11.3	0.121	87.9
log real GDP/worker	0.062	4.13	0.103	75.8

Notes to Table 4: Dependent variable is indicator for non-zero exports of HS10 products. Independent variables are characteristics of U.S. export destinations. Estimator for linear probability model is OLS, with HS10 product fixed effects and errors clustered by country. Estimator for random effects probit is maximum likelihood, with product random effects and errors *not* clustered by country. Panel dimensions are 8,800 products and 100 countries for full sample, 5,834 products and 100 countries for manufactured goods only sample. R^2 within = 0.28 for linear probability model in the full sample, R^2 within = 0.31 in manufactured goods only sample.

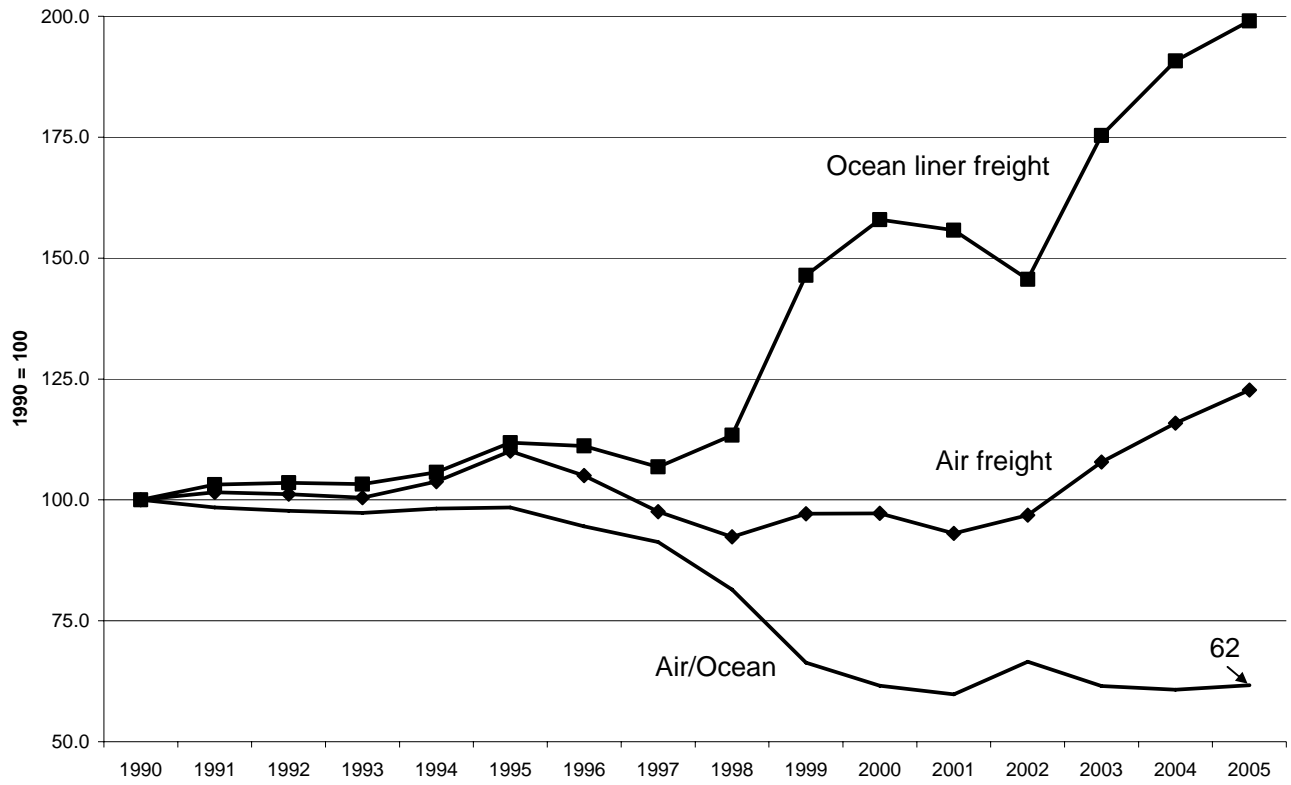
Table 5 - Statistical determinants of U.S. export unit values, 2005

	<i>unrestricted sample</i>			<i>value ≥ \$10,000</i>			<i>number ≥ 2</i>	
	<i>all</i>	<i>manuf.</i>	<i>kilos</i>	<i>all</i>	<i>manuf.</i>	<i>kilos</i>	<i>all</i>	<i>manuf.</i>
1 < km ≤ 4000	0.182	0.160	0.263	0.185	0.161	0.273	0.207	0.209
	<i>2.51</i>	<i>1.64</i>	<i>4.66</i>	<i>2.63</i>	<i>1.65</i>	<i>5.41</i>	<i>1.78</i>	<i>1.81</i>
4000 < km ≤ 7800	0.664	0.713	0.687	0.608	0.665	0.600	0.774	0.777
	<i>12.2</i>	<i>9.01</i>	<i>19.1</i>	<i>11.8</i>	<i>8.64</i>	<i>19.4</i>	<i>7.77</i>	<i>7.85</i>
7800 < km ≤ 14000	0.594	0.647	0.614	0.547	0.612	0.535	0.688	0.690
	<i>10.2</i>	<i>7.65</i>	<i>17.8</i>	<i>9.90</i>	<i>7.43</i>	<i>19.1</i>	<i>6.37</i>	<i>6.42</i>
14000 < km	0.584	0.651	0.606	0.523	0.591	0.527	0.683	0.686
	<i>10.3</i>	<i>7.48</i>	<i>15.2</i>	<i>9.91</i>	<i>7.14</i>	<i>13.1</i>	<i>5.91</i>	<i>5.93</i>
landlocked	0.098	0.032	0.250	0.117	0.057	0.252	-0.060	-0.060
	<i>1.03</i>	<i>0.34</i>	<i>2.73</i>	<i>1.19</i>	<i>0.56</i>	<i>2.76</i>	<i>-0.52</i>	<i>-0.52</i>
log real GDP	-0.063	-0.076	-0.029	-0.047	-0.062	-0.004	-0.098	-0.098
	<i>-4.65</i>	<i>-4.63</i>	<i>-2.54</i>	<i>-3.56</i>	<i>-3.79</i>	<i>0.34</i>	<i>-4.97</i>	<i>-5.00</i>
log real GDP/ worker	-0.007	-0.043	0.093	0.006	-0.030	0.111	-0.110	-0.109
	<i>-0.26</i>	<i>-1.25</i>	<i>3.95</i>	<i>0.23</i>	<i>-0.89</i>	<i>5.38</i>	<i>-2.64</i>	<i>-2.62</i>
R ² within	0.028	0.029	0.047	0.027	0.029	0.052	0.029	0.029
num. products	7,880	4,908	4,626	7,831	4,886	4,582	2,370	2,322
number of obs	218,025	150,077	112,537	181,020	123,547	92,085	87,902	87,268

Notes to Table 5: Dependent variable is log unit value of exports by HS10 product and export destination. Independent variables are characteristics of export destinations. Estimator is OLS, with HS10 product fixed effects and errors clustered by country. *t*-statistics in *italics*. See text for discussion of different subsamples.

Figure 1

Freight price indices, US imports



Source: Bureau of labor Statistics, authors' calculations.

Table 6 - Air shipment and export zeros, 1990 to 2005

	number (%)	% air shipped 2005
exports > 0 in 2005, of which	197,959 (100)	36
old: exports > 0 in 1990	114,185 (58)	34
new: exports = 0 in 1990	83,774 (42)	39

Notes to Table 6: Data is count of non-zero HS6 export flows in 2005, subdivided into “old” and “new” export flows, where “old” is defined as a non-zero flow in 1990 and “new” is a zero flow in 1990

Table 7 - Probability models for air shipment and export zeros, 1990 to 2005

	coefficient on air indicator	marginal effect
all models include country fixed effects		
Probit	0.0262 <i>3.73</i>	0.01
Logit	0.0447 <i>3.79</i>	0.01
Linear	0.00798 <i>3.79</i>	0.008
Linear, product fixed effects	0.0246 <i>10.74</i>	0.025

Notes to Table 7: Dependent variable is indicator for new trade flow in 2005, independent variable is indicator for air shipment in 1995. Robust *t*-statistics are in *italics*. Sample size is 197,959 for the linear probability models, and 186,635 for the probit and logit models (the difference arises because the logit and probit models drop the 46 countries for which there is no variation across goods in the dependent variable).