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The Optimal Degree of Reciprocity in Tariff Reduction

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Abstract

This article clarifies the roles played by trade policy, in contrast with iceberg transport cost, in the popular setting of Melitz (2003), and characterizes the optimal reciprocal trade policy in such a setting. I show that import tariffs and iceberg transport cost are not equivalent in the strength of their trade-restricting effects and their welfare implications. With all the conflicting effects of import tariffs on welfare considered, the optimal degree of reciprocity in multilateral tariff reduction turns out to be free trade.

JEL Classification: F12, F13.
Key Words: Firm Heterogeneity, Reciprocal Trade Policy.

1 Introduction

This article clarifies the roles played by trade policy, in contrast with iceberg transport cost, in the popular setting of Melitz (2003), and characterizes the optimal reciprocal trade policy in such a setting. Import tariffs and iceberg transport cost were often taken to be equivalent in the literature following Melitz (2003), and trade liberalization was often modeled as a consequence of exogenous reduction in transport cost. This is contrary to the focus of trade liberalization in practice where trade policy plays a central role and its level is an object of negotiation.

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I show in the derivations below that import tariffs have a more severe trade-restricting effect than iceberg transport cost, such that the cutoff productivity level for firms to produce is lower and the cutoff productivity level for firms to export is higher. As a result, a larger mass of local firms (varieties) and a smaller mass of competing foreign firms (varieties) can survive with import tariffs than with iceberg transport cost.

The characterization of welfare also changes significantly when trade cost is represented by import tariffs instead of iceberg transport cost. In particular, one needs to take into account the nominal income change (via tariff revenues) in addition to the aggregate productivity (price) change as the tariff rate varies. Tariff revenues increase non-monotonically as the tariff increases above the free trade level, while the price decreases non-monotonically as the tariff decreases below the free trade level. The net effect of the two, however, has a unique maximum and the result below shows that free trade turns out to be the optimal reciprocal policy. This free trade result is nontrivial given the presence of imperfect competition and price markup on one hand (which tends to encourage the use of import tariffs) and the presence of endogenous intra-industry reallocations of market shares across firms of heterogeneous productivities on the other hand (which tends to encourage the use of import subsidies).

2 Model

In Melitz (2003), it is assumed that there are \((n + 1)\) symmetric countries, each with a population size \(L\). In each country, a representative consumer has a C.E.S. utility function with an exponent \(\rho\) over a continuum of goods. The set of goods produced are endogenously determined and are produced using labor alone. Wage is taken to be the numeraire. There is an unbounded mass of potential firms, who can choose to pay a fixed entry investment cost \(f_e\) to draw a productivity parameter \(\varphi\) from a common distribution \(g(\varphi)\) and decide whether to produce a good (variety). To produce a good, a firm has to pay a fixed overhead cost \(f\) and a constant marginal cost \(\frac{1}{\varphi}\). To export to each of the other \(n\) countries, a firm has to pay in addition a fixed trade cost \(f_x\), and take into account a variable iceberg transport cost; that is, \(\tau\) units of a good must be shipped in order for one unit to arrive at destination. If firms decide to produce, there is a probability \(\delta\) per period that they will be hit by bad shocks and exit the market. Given the above cost structure that applies every period,
firms calculate the expected profits of entry based on the productivity distribution $g(\varphi)$ and enter the market if the expected profits from all future periods cover the entry cost $f_e$. Equilibrium is characterized by the cutoff productivity level $\varphi^*$ for production, the cutoff productivity level $\varphi_x^*$ for firms to export, the mass $M$ of local varieties produced, and the mass $M_x$ of local varieties exported (or equivalently, the mass of imported varieties from each of the trading partners).

Let the setup be the same as in Melitz (2003), but let the variable trade cost be import tariffs instead of iceberg transport cost. Let $\tau$ denote one plus the ad valorem tariff rate. Given the C.E.S. preference, a firm with a productivity level $\varphi$ will charge a producer price $p_d = \frac{1}{\varphi}$, which is also the consumer price at home, but will charge a higher consumer price abroad $p_x = \frac{\tau}{\varphi}$ to reflect the import tariff. The firm sells a quantity $q_d = Q(p_d/P)^{-\sigma}$ and receives a revenue $r_d = p_d q_d = E(p_d/P)^{1-\sigma}$ in its home market, where $\sigma = \frac{1}{1-\rho}$ is the elasticity of substitution across goods that enter the utility function and equivalently the aggregate quantity index $Q$, $P$ is the associated aggregate price of the goods, and $E \equiv PQ$ is the corresponding aggregate expenditure. The firm, if it exports, sells a quantity $q_x = Q(p_x/P)^{-\sigma}$ and receives a revenue $r_x = p_d q_d = \tau^{-\sigma} r_d$ from each of the $n$ overseas markets. Let $\pi_d \equiv r_d - (f + q_d/\varphi)$ and $\pi_x \equiv r_x - (f_x + q_x/\varphi)$ denote the corresponding profits made from catering to the domestic market and from each of the $n$ overseas markets by the firm.

Comparing the above expressions with those in Melitz (2003), we could see that import tariffs differ from iceberg transport cost in two fundamental ways. First, recall that in the case of iceberg transport cost, an exporter receives an export revenue $p_x q_x$ from each of the $n$ overseas markets, which is higher compared with the export revenue $p_d q_d$ in the current case of import tariffs. To see why, note that the export revenue in the case of iceberg transport cost can be read in two ways: $p_x q_x = \tau p_d q_x$ (that is, for the consumer in the importing country, the consumer price of the imported good is effectively $p_x = \tau p_d$ for each unit of the good actually received) or $p_x q_x = p_d \tau q_x$ (that is, for the exporter, the producer price is $p_d$, but more units, $\tau q_x$, are produced than actually consumed, $q_x$). The exporting firm effectively sells the extra units of the good $(\tau - 1)q_x$ that melt away in transit to the consumer at the producer price $p_d$ and receives a revenue $p_d (\tau - 1) q_x$ for producing them. Thus, at the end of the day, the exporter does not bear the iceberg transport cost (although its sales volume $q_x$ is indirectly affected by the higher consumer price $p_x$); the importing country does. In the case of import tariffs, the exporting firm pays the tariff revenue $(\tau - 1)p_d q_x$ out of
its gross sales $p_x q_x$ and receives a net export revenue $p_d q_x$ from each of the $n$ overseas markets. Thus, exporters are affected more severely by import tariffs than iceberg transport cost by a factor of $\tau$ in terms of export revenues. As will be shown below, this difference leads to changes in the cutoff productivity level for export (as it takes a more productive firm in the case of import tariffs to make enough revenues to cover the cost of export) and in the cutoff productivity level for production, as well as in the mass of local and foreign varieties available.

Second, although both types of trade cost leads to a higher overseas consumer price $p_x$ (relative to $p_d$ in the domestic market for a given variety), in the case of import tariffs, the price premium is captured by the importing country as tariff revenues, and the country as a whole pays the same producer price $p_d$ as the home country of the producer; in the case of iceberg transport cost, the units of the good that melt away during the transit are lost to the importing country. Thus, with import tariffs, the welfare calculation changes, as tariff revenues now enter as an extra source of income in addition to the wage income. With import tariffs, the focus of welfare calculation also changes from a positive question (what is the impact on a country’s welfare as the level of transport cost changes following an exogenous technology shock) to a normative question (what is the optimal reciprocal tariff rate for countries to levy). With transport cost, $\tau$ is necessarily greater than one; with trade policy, $\tau$ could range from being less than one (an import subsidy), one (free trade), to greater than one (an import tariff).

The trade policy studied in this article corresponds to the multilateral, reciprocal, import policy that is agreed upon by countries and imposed simultaneously against each other. Although the export policy will not be analyzed, the equivalence of an export subsidy (tax) and an import subsidy (tariff) in the current setting is understood. In the current setting with symmetric countries, a country’s aggregate export revenue earned by its exporting firms is equal to its aggregate value of imports f.o.b. from its trading partners. Thus, countries by agreeing to levying a reciprocal import tariff $(\tau - 1)$, which discourages the quantity of imports and collects tariff revenues on the reduced import volume, is equivalent to levying a reciprocal export tax of the same magnitude, which reduces the quantity of exports and collects tax revenues from these reduced exports. Both discourage the volume of trade while generate tax revenues. Similarly, a reciprocal import subsidy is equivalent to a reciprocal export subsidy of the same magnitude. Thus, in this setting, it is sufficient to focus the
policy negotiations on just the imports or the exports. With this equivalence noted, the following discussions continue with the reference to the import tariff.

Following the characterization in Melitz (2003), let \( \bar{\varphi}(\varphi) = \frac{1}{1-G(\varphi)} \int_{\varphi}^{\infty} \xi^{\sigma-1} g(\xi) d\xi \), \( k(\varphi) = \frac{\bar{\varphi}(\varphi)/\varphi}{\varphi} - 1 \), and \( j(\varphi) = \frac{1 - G(\varphi)}{G(\varphi)} k(\varphi) \), where \( G(\varphi) \) is the cumulative distribution function corresponding to \( g(\varphi) \), \( \bar{\varphi}(\varphi) \) represents the weighted average of firm productivities above a cutoff level \( \varphi \), \( k(\varphi) \) the average firm profit derived from the domestic (overseas) market as a ratio of fixed overhead (export) cost, and \( j(\varphi) \) the corresponding unconditional expected profit. Note that \( j'(\varphi) = -\frac{1}{\varphi} (\sigma - 1) [1 - G(\varphi)] [k(\varphi) + 1] < 0 \), as shown in Melitz (2003). Firms with the productivity level \( \varphi^* \) and \( \varphi_x^* \) make just enough variable profits from the domestic market and overseas markets to cover the fixed overhead production cost and the fixed export cost, respectively: \( \pi_d(\varphi^*) = r_d(\varphi^*) / \sigma - f = 0 \), \( \pi_x = r_x(\varphi_x^*) / \sigma - f_x = 0 \). These define their relationship:

\[
\varphi_x^* = \tau^{\frac{1}{\sigma}} \left( f_x / f \right)^{\frac{1}{\sigma-1}} \varphi^*. \tag{1}
\]

It is assumed that \( \tau^\sigma f_x > f \) so that not all firms export, which is a weaker condition on the magnitude of trade cost than in Melitz (2003) by a factor of \( \tau \) for \( \tau > 1 \), the reason for such a difference being the same as mentioned above that exporting is more difficult with import tariffs than with iceberg transport cost. Free entry ensures that the expected profit of entry equals the entry cost, which leads to another condition on the cutoff productivity levels:

\[
f_j(\varphi^*) + n f_x j(\varphi_x^*) = \delta f_e, \tag{2}
\]

which is the same as in Melitz (2003). Thus, (1) and (2) determine the cutoff productivity levels \( \varphi^* \) and \( \varphi_x^* \). It is worth noting that the equilibrium lower cutoff productivity level \( \varphi^* \) will be lower and the export cutoff productivity level \( \varphi_x^* \) will be higher with import tariffs than with iceberg transport cost of the same magnitude, as illustrated in Figure 1. This is because (2) is the same in both cases depicting a negative relationship between the two cutoff productivity levels to maintain a constant expected profit of entry. On the other hand, (1) drawing a positive relationship between the two cutoff productivity levels in regard with their relative market shares has a higher positive slope with import tariffs than with iceberg transport cost. Thus, import tariffs harm exporters and protect local producers more than iceberg transport cost. The average firm profit for successful entrants \( \bar{\pi} = \delta f_e / [1 - G(\varphi^*)] \) is therefore lower
Figure 1: Relative magnitude of lower cutoff and export cutoff productivity levels with import tariffs and with iceberg transport cost

with import tariffs than with iceberg transport cost.

It is straightforward to verify that an increase in the import tariff has qualitatively similar effects as an increase in the iceberg transport cost on all the firm level variables such as $\varphi^*$, $\varphi_x^*$, domestic sales $r_d(\varphi)$ for $\varphi > \varphi^*$, and combined domestic and overseas sales $r_d(\varphi) + nr_x(\varphi)$ for $\varphi > \varphi_x^*$. For example, an increase in import tariffs will lower the survival cutoff productivity level but raises the bar for firms to export:

$$\frac{\partial \varphi^*}{\partial \tau} = -\frac{\sigma}{\sigma - 1} \frac{\varphi^*}{\tau} \frac{n f_x j'(\varphi^*_x)\varphi_x^*}{f j'(\varphi^*)\varphi^* + n f_x j'(\varphi^*_x)\varphi_x^*} < 0,$$

$$\frac{\partial \varphi_x^*}{\partial \tau} = -\frac{f j'(\varphi^*)}{n f_x j'(\varphi^*_x)} \frac{\partial \varphi^*}{\partial \tau} > 0.$$  

It also increases a firm’s domestic sales, lowers an exporter’s overseas sales, and overall decreases an exporter’s combined domestic and overseas sales: $\frac{\partial r_d(\varphi)}{\partial \tau} > 0$, and $\frac{\partial (r_d(\varphi) + nr_x(\varphi))}{\partial \tau} < 0$.

I now characterize the aggregate equilibrium. Let $R$ denote the aggregate firm revenue and $TR$ the aggregate tariff revenue. In equilibrium, a country’s aggregate expenditure $E = TR + R$ equals its aggregate income $TR + L$ (the aggregate firm profit $\Pi$ does not enter the aggregate income calculation separately, as with free entry, it is equal to the aggregate labor $L_e$ used for entry investment that is part of $L$). This
implies that $R = L$. The same condition appeared in Melitz (2003). However, bear in mind that in the case of import tariffs, the average firm profit is lower and the probability of export conditional on successful entry $p_x = [1 - G(\varphi^*_x)]/[1 - G(\varphi^*)]$ is lower; thus, the average firm revenue $\overline{r} = \sigma(\overline{\pi} + f + np_x f_x)$ is lower as well. As a result, a larger mass of local firms (goods) $M = R/\overline{r} = L/\overline{r}$ can be supported with import tariffs compared with iceberg transport cost. On the other hand, the mass of foreign varieties imported from each trading partner $M_x = p_x M = p_x R/\overline{r} = p_x L/\overline{r}$ is smaller with import tariffs than with iceberg transport cost, as both the unconditional probability of export $1 - G(\varphi^*_{x})$ and the conditional probability of export $p_x$ are lower.

The welfare per capita

$$W = \frac{Q}{L} = \frac{(R + TR)/P}{L} = (1 + TR/L)P^{-1}$$

(5)

reflects the real wage component $P^{-1}$ shown in Melitz (2003) and a new component representing the extra source of income from the transfer of tariff revenues $(TR/L)P^{-1}$ in real terms. Let us introduce some notations to characterize these welfare components. First, note that the portion of export sales in the aggregate firm revenue differ from Melitz (2003) by a factor of $\tau$:

$$R = M\overline{r}_d + nM_x\overline{r}_x$$

$$\equiv M \left( \frac{\overline{\varphi}}{\varphi^*} \right)^{\sigma - 1} r_d(\varphi^*) + nM_x \left( \frac{\overline{\varphi}_x}{\varphi^*} \right)^{\sigma - 1} r_x(\varphi^*_x)$$

$$= M \left( \frac{\overline{\varphi}}{\varphi^*} \right)^{\sigma - 1} r_d(\varphi^*) + nM_x \left( \frac{\overline{\varphi}_x}{\varphi^*} \right)^{\sigma - 1} \left( \frac{\varphi^*_t}{\varphi^*_x} \right)^{\sigma - 1} r_d(\varphi^*_x) \tau^{-\sigma}$$

$$= M \left( \frac{\overline{\varphi}}{\varphi^*} \right)^{\sigma - 1} r_d(\varphi^*) + nM_x \left( \frac{\overline{\varphi}_x}{\varphi^*} \right)^{\sigma - 1} r_d(\varphi^*_x) \tau^{-\sigma},$$

where $\overline{\varphi} \equiv \overline{\varphi}(\varphi^*)$ and $\overline{\varphi}_x \equiv \overline{\varphi}(\varphi^*_x)$. Let $M_t \equiv M + nM_x = (1 + np_x)M$ denote the total mass of varieties available in each country. Define $\overline{\varphi}_t^{\sigma - 1} \equiv [M\overline{\varphi}^{\sigma - 1} + nM_x(\overline{\varphi}_x/\tau)^{\sigma - 1}\tau^{-1}]/M_t$, where $\overline{\varphi}_t$ can be regarded as the weighted average productivity of all firms with their relative output shares as the weights (exporters with a productivity level $\varphi$ behave in overseas markets just like a local firm with a productivity level $\varphi/\tau$ in terms of pricing and output shares) and with the productivity of all exporters further down-weighted by a factor $\tau$ reflecting the part of overseas
sales paid to the importing country as tariffs and not captured as export revenues. It follows that

\[ R = M_t r_d(\bar{\varphi}_t) = L. \] (6)

Similarly note that,

\[ R + TR = M_t \bar{\tau}_d + nM_x \bar{\tau}_x + (\tau - 1)nM_x \bar{\tau}_x \]

\[ = M_t r_d(\bar{\varphi}_t), \] (7)

with \( \bar{\varphi}_t^{\sigma-1} \equiv \left[ M_t \bar{\varphi}_t^{\sigma-1} + nM_x (\bar{\varphi}_x / \tau)^{\sigma-1} \right] / M_t \), where \( \bar{\varphi}_t \) is the average productivity of all firms weighted by their relative output shares. In the case of iceberg transport cost, there is not such a distinction between (6) and (7); instead, it holds that \( R = M_t r_d(\bar{\varphi}_t) = L \) as seen in Melitz (2003). Next, one can verify that

\[ P = M_t^{1/\sigma} p_d(\bar{\varphi}_t), \] (8)

whose expressions are the same as in Melitz (2003), as transport cost and tariffs have the same effect on pricing behaviors of firms. Using (6), (7), and (8), we can show that

\[ 1 + TR/L = \left( \frac{\bar{\varphi}_t}{\bar{\varphi}_t} \right)^{\sigma-1}, \] (9)

\[ P^{-1} = \rho \left( \frac{L}{\sigma \bar{\varphi}_t} \right)^{1/\sigma} \left( \frac{\bar{\varphi}_t}{\bar{\varphi}_t} \right)^{\sigma^*}, \] (10)

\[ W = \rho \left( \frac{L}{\sigma \bar{\varphi}_t} \right)^{1/\sigma} \left( \frac{\bar{\varphi}_t}{\bar{\varphi}_t} \right)^{\sigma^*}. \] (11)

I now characterize the comparative statics of the income component and the price component of the welfare as the tariff rate changes. Given the definitions of \( \bar{\varphi}_t \) and \( \bar{\varphi}_t \), note that

\[ \left( \frac{\bar{\varphi}_t}{\bar{\varphi}_t} \right)^{\sigma-1} = \frac{1 + n p_x (\bar{\varphi}_x / \bar{\varphi})^{\sigma-1} \tau^{1-\sigma}}{1 + n p_x (\bar{\varphi}_x / \bar{\varphi})^{\sigma-1} \tau^{-\sigma}} = \frac{1 + n B \tau^{1-\sigma}}{1 + n B \tau^{-\sigma}}, \]

where \( B \equiv p_x (\bar{\varphi}_x / \bar{\varphi})^{\sigma-1} = \left[ \int_{\varphi_*}^{\infty} \varphi^{\sigma-1} g(\varphi)d\varphi \right] / \left[ \int_{\varphi_*}^{\infty} \varphi^{\sigma-1} g(\varphi)d\varphi \right] \), which is (roughly speaking) the aggregate productivity of exporting firms relative to that of all active
firms. Obviously, this decreases in the tariff rate \( \partial B / \partial \tau < 0 \), since fewer firms enter the export market and more firms enter the local market with a higher tariff, as shown in (3) and (4). It can be shown that

\[
\frac{\partial}{\partial \tau} \left( \frac{\tilde{\varphi}_t}{\tilde{\varphi}_t} \right)^{\sigma-1} = \left( \frac{\tilde{\varphi}_t}{\tilde{\varphi}_t} \right)^{\sigma-1} \left( \frac{nB \tau^{-\sigma}(1 + nB \tau^{-\sigma}) + \sigma nB \tau^{-\sigma -1}(1 - \tau) + n \tau^{-\sigma}(-\partial B / \partial \tau)(1 - \tau)}{(1 + nB \tau^{-\sigma})(1 + nB \tau^{-\sigma})} \right),
\]

which is positive for \( \tau \leq 1 \). Thus, the tariff rate that maximizes a country’s tariff revenue (and hence income) is positive. This income effect needs to be weighed against the effect of tariffs on the price level \( P \). It is not immediately clear whether a higher tariff will increase or decrease the aggregate price level. A higher tariff increases the consumer price of imports, but at the same time decreases the output shares (and hence the importance) of imports in the aggregate price index; on the other hand, a higher tariff also admits the survival of less productive firms who charge a higher price. It can be shown that the net effect of an increase in the import tariff above free trade will drive the overall price level up, which imposes a negative effect on welfare. To show this, first note that (3) can be re-expressed as \( \frac{\partial \varphi^*}{\partial \tau} \frac{1}{\varphi^*} = -\frac{\sigma}{\sigma - 1} \frac{nB \tau^{-\sigma -1}}{1 + nB \tau^{-\sigma}} \). Using this and (12), it follows that

\[
\frac{\partial P^{-1}}{\partial \tau} = P^{-1} \left( \frac{\partial (\tilde{\varphi}_t / \tilde{\varphi}_t)}{\partial \tau} \frac{1}{(\tilde{\varphi}_t / \tilde{\varphi}_t)} + \frac{\partial \varphi^*}{\partial \tau} \frac{1}{\varphi^*} \right)
= P^{-1} \frac{1}{\sigma - 1} \frac{(1 - \sigma)nB \tau^{-\sigma}(1 + nB \tau^{-\sigma}) + n \tau^{-\sigma}(-\partial B / \partial \tau)(1 - \tau)}{(1 + nB \tau^{-\sigma})(1 + nB \tau^{-\sigma})},
\]

which is negative for \( \tau \geq 1 \). Thus, starting from free trade, there is an incentive to impose an import tariff due to income consideration, but at the same time, there is an incentive to provide an import subsidy due to price consideration. The following derivations show how these two considerations work against each other at different levels of import tariff rates:

\[
\frac{\partial W}{\partial \tau} = W \left( \frac{\partial (1 + TR/L)}{\partial \tau} \frac{1}{1 + TR/L} + \frac{\partial P^{-1}}{\partial \tau} \frac{1}{P^{-1}} \right)
= W \frac{\sigma}{\sigma - 1} \frac{(\sigma - 1)nB \tau^{-\sigma -1}(1 - \tau) + n \tau^{-\sigma}(-\partial B / \partial \tau)(1 - \tau)}{(1 + nB \tau^{-\sigma})(1 + nB \tau^{-\sigma})},
\]
where the second equality follows by using the results in (12) and (13). Thus,

\[
\frac{\partial W}{\partial \tau} \geq 0 \iff \tau \leq 1,
\]

and the welfare per capita is maximized at the free trade level. By increasing the import tariff rate above the free trade level, the negative impact of a higher price level outweighs any potential positive impact on income through tariff revenues. Conversely, the negative impact of a lower national income by providing an import subsidy would outweigh any potential positive impact of a lower price level. The optimal reciprocal tariff rate that will maximize every country’s welfare turns out to be zero. This result is nontrivial given the fact that firms are heterogeneous in their productivities and trade policy may alter the composition of firms and hence the industry aggregate productivity. For example, it may be tempting to argue that a reciprocal import subsidy may be beneficial, as it raises the industry productivity by shifting market shares toward the more productive exporting firms and trimming the least productive firms. The result above demonstrates that the positive productivity effect, reflected in lower prices, of an import subsidy would be dominated by the subsidy cost. On the other hand, a frequently heard argument for an import tariff in a monopolistically competitive setting is the distortion introduced by the price markup: that domestic goods are bought at a price above their opportunity cost (i.e. the marginal cost of production), whereas imported goods are bought at a price equal to their opportunity cost (i.e. their offshore price). Such a distortion may be corrected with an import tariff by encouraging more consumption of local goods. The result above shows that such potential positive effects on welfare of an import tariff would be more than offset by its negative impact on the aggregate productivity. Thus, the old doctrine for reciprocal free trade generated from the classical paradigm of perfect competition with homogeneous goods holds true in a world with monopolistic competition and heterogeneous firms.

Jørgensen and Schröder (2005) also study the optimal reciprocal trade policy in a setting with heterogeneous firms. However, they model the firm heterogeneity in terms of fixed export cost rather than firm productivities. Firms are identical otherwise. Thus, the dynamic effects of trade policy on the industry aggregate productivity as emphasized here are absent in their framework. Contrary to the current result, they found that the optimal reciprocal import tariff rate is positive. This difference
may be explained by the fact that the negative impact of a positive import tariff on the aggregate productivity (and hence on the welfare level) is not taken into account in their framework.

Contrary to multilateral, reciprocal, trade policies, unilateral trade policies are another interesting question. This was studied by Demidova and Rodríguez-Clare (2007) in a small economy setting. Because of the small economy setting, asymmetric economic structures across countries are allowed; however, parametric assumptions have to be imposed to derive their results. It is unclear how trade policy and transport cost will compare in their framework. In any case, trade restrictions in their setting will not play a symmetric role as here on the importing and the exporting country, since the rest of the world’s expenditure, price level, and cost structure are taken to be fixed. They found that the optimal unilateral policy for a small economy is an import tariff, an export tax, or a consumption subsidy of the same magnitude. This lack of incentives to further lower the import tariff unilaterally to the free trade level may be explained by the lack of extra export revenues (and extra push to the aggregate productivity level) that would be generated if the tariff reduction were reciprocal.

3 Conclusion

As we allow trade cost to take on the meaning of trade policy barriers instead of iceberg transport cost, we see that most of the qualitative effects of trade restrictions on the firm-level variables hold true as they were proposed by Melitz (2003). This similarity probably explains the impressions that trade policy barriers are equivalent to iceberg transport cost. However, we also verify from the above analysis that they are not equivalent in the strength of their trade-restricting effects and of their welfare implications. With import tariffs, welfare includes an extra real tariff revenue component in addition to the real wage component. The variation of welfare with respect to tariff rates can be analyzed by studying the variation of the tariff revenue and the variation of the aggregate price level as the tariff rate changes. Derivations of these comparative statics are complicated by the fact that as the tariff rate varies, the cutoff productivity levels for production and for export and the mass of local and imported varieties all change at the same time, as was the case in Melitz (2003). They are further complicated by the fact that tariff revenues and the aggregate price level are nonlinear in tariff rates in different directions. However, as shown, these
derivations are analytically tractable and have sensible economic interpretations. In the end, the conflicting impacts on welfare via these components as the tariff rate varies sum up to a clear cut result that free trade is the best reciprocal policy.

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