

The demand side of firm growth: Evidence from Mexico*

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Abstract: In order for firms to sell higher-priced or more products, they must convince customers of the value of their products. One potential barrier to growth is therefore the low priors potential customers have about product quality. We study this question in the context of the consumer goods industry in Mexico, where uncertainty about product quality is prevalent and consumers appear to be willing to pay a higher price for products carrying global brands. Leveraging precise consumption data, we show that domestic firms grow more through the growth of surviving goods than through the introduction of new goods, and that domestic goods have a slower and longer life-cycle than foreign goods. We also show that the extensive customer margin explains the majority of sales heterogeneity across firms, and further that for domestic firms the intensive customer-by-product margin matters more than the extensive products margin. Last, we show that the new customers of older domestic firms are poorer than the customers of new domestic products, a pattern that does not exist for foreign products. We rationalize these findings using a model of consumers choosing products in a context of certainty. The possibility of learning through others slows down the most price-sensitive customers from buying a new product, hurting products that have the most uncertainty. Last, we document the mechanisms behind this model by showing evidence of learning, evidence of the importance of the uncertainty margin, and evidence of the price-sensitivity.

JEL:

Keywords: quality uncertainty; international competition; consumer goods

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1 Introduction

A relatively understudied barrier to firm growth in developing countries is the absence of demand for more or improved products, as underlined in the review by [Verhoogen \(2020\)](#). Although globalization increases the size of the market firms potentially have access to¹, ultimately firms also depend on demand from middle-class consumers at home, as argued by [Goldberg and Reed \(2020\)](#). Moreover, the presence of large, high-income based firms in developing countries may limit the ability of domestic firms to access domestic customers². This paper documents that uncertainty about product quality may be an important friction leading to a demand bias for MNC products, limiting the ability of domestic firms to grow - and shows how increasing transparency could support the domestic sector.

A prevalent feature in developing countries is the absence or the lack of enforcement of quality regulation, which means customers cannot be certain they are buying a high-quality product or service. This is especially prevalent in experience goods such as foods or pharmaceuticals³ and is a growing concern in developing countries⁴. In a world where reputations are long and costly to establish ([Bai \(2018\)](#)), consumers view global brands as a credible signal of quality. In our setting: the Mexican consumer goods sector, although 42% of the population lives under the national poverty line, and global brands charge on average a 20% price premium, the aggregate market share of foreign firms is far above 50% for most product categories. While paying a higher price to access products that have a higher probability of being high-quality may be a rational individual decision for consumers, in the long term this bias further depletes the ability of small firms to establish reputations for high quality, and therefore their incentive to upgrade.

In this paper, we ask how important uncertainty about product quality is in explaining the differences in demand between domestic Mexican firms and MNCs operating in Mexico, which we call henceforth call “foreign firms”. We start by establishing a novel set of facts, leveraging a rich barcode-level dataset covering the universe of consumer-packaged goods in Mexico from 2010 to 2015. The firms we study are the firms that manufacture these consumer goods. Starting with manufacturer-level observations, we show that domestic firms grow relatively more through the growth of surviving products, as opposed to through the introduction of new products. At the product level, we show that for foreign firms, product sales grow for a short period after the introduction of the good and then decline for a long period, as demand is cannibalized by newer products of the same firm or “stolen” by other firms ([Argente et al. \(2019\)](#)). By contrast, Mexican products continue growing for a long time, suggesting they are able to retain demand or attract new demand.

Switching to a different decomposition of firm sales, we show that for both domestic firms and foreign firms, the key driver of sales growth is growth in the number of customers, by opposition to growth in the number of units sold to each customer or growth in the sales

¹Some recent papers have proposed strategies to give firms access to demand. For example, [Atkin et al. \(2017a\)](#) match rug makers in Egypt to importers in high-income countries.

²In the firm-to-firm sector, the presence of large buyers may help small domestic firms. [Hjort et al. \(2020\)](#) teach firms how to answer tender calls for large firms or governments.

³<https://www.who.int/news/item/19-07-2007-countries-urged-to-be-more-vigilant-about-food-safety>

⁴See for example the melanine-contamination scandal studied in [Bai et al. \(2019\)](#)

generated per unit. This fact helps us interpret the rapid demand depletion observed for foreign products as *customers* who were buying the goods when they are first released, being attracted to newer products from the same firm or from other firms as the products age. By contrast, the sustained demand observed for domestic products reflects either the persistence of the *customers* who first started buying the goods or the arrival of new *customers* purchasing the goods as they age. We further show that in order to grow their customer base, domestic firms depend relatively more on the intensive margin of product markets: growing the number of customers they sell each product to, as opposed to the extensive margin: growing the number of products they sell. This suggests that the first-order problem faced by domestic firms is not that their products do not match the taste of domestic customers, but potentially that they must overcome barriers to convince customers that they will appreciate each of their existing products.

Last, we show that the new customers of domestic products that have survived several quarters are poorer than the new customers buying domestic products who have just been released. By contrast, the new customers of foreign products that have survived several quarters are not different than the customers of these same foreign products when they were new. Together with the second fact about the domestic product life-cycle, this finding suggests that customers who face stricter constraints in their consumption decisions do not buy new domestic products immediately, but instead wait until these products survive a certain age before purchasing it.

We then propose a model of consumer decision that generates equilibrium outcomes matching these facts. In this model, consumers face uncertainty about product quality. Consumers who have a tighter budget constraints are less likely to experiment with a product of unknown quality, conditional on price. If it is possible to learn from others, there is a positive option value of waiting until other, less constrained individuals experiment with the product and reveal whether they liked it or not. This generates a delay in product adoption, hurting firms' profits. We show that increasing the mean and decreasing the variance of the prior about product quality (enforcing quality standards and increasing transparency) can increase welfare.

Last, we test for this uncertainty mechanism in three different ways. First, we show evidence of individual learning. We do this by measuring the importance of brand experience in explaining consumers' decisions about new products. We show that individual exposure to a brand is highly predictive of future purchases of goods from that brand. Moreover, this effect is higher for domestic brand than global brands, despite domestic brands being less successful on average. Second, we show evidence of the uncertainty margin. We do this by exploiting the heterogeneity in product types. For products for which uncertainty is more salient, such as infant formula, the product life-cycle resembles that of domestic products much more than that of foreign products. Third, we show that learning is more important for individuals who are more budget constrained: the predictive power of brand exposure is much higher for households in the lowest socio-economic category than households in any other category.

Section 2 describes the literature this paper aims to speak to. Section 3 describes the data and the setting. Section 4 discusses the five stylized facts we establish. Section 5 explains the conceptual framework we use to think about our results. Section 6 shows evidence of the mechanisms at work. Section 7 concludes.

2 Literature

The main contribution of this paper is to assess the role of uncertainty about product quality in accounting for the specific demand-side constraints faced by domestic firms in developing countries. This relates to a large literature studying asymmetric information and quality provision issues. Problems arise whenever sellers have more information than buyers ([Akerlof \(1970\)](#)): even when sellers know what the true quality of their production is (and they may not know the exact quality), they may be unable to convince the buyers and obtain a fair price for it.

When there is uncertainty on the price that will be obtained, [Sandmo \(1971\)](#) shows that sellers underprovide quality, worsening the problem. [Shapiro \(1983\)](#) shows that in a dynamic setting, if consumers learn about quality, it is possible to sustain different qualities in the market, sold at different prices which reflect different costs. Importantly, the sellers of high quality goods will charge more than their marginal cost, a premium which is proportional to the size of the informational friction and the time it takes for them to establish their reputation as a producer of high quality.

An important factor is therefore whether the sellers believe they can ultimately succeed. If the sellers know the buyers well and regularly contract with each other, “relational” contracts, without the intervention of a third party, can sustain high-value trade ([Macchiavello and Morjaria \(2015\)](#), [Macchiavello and Morjaria \(2019\)](#)). If buyers and sellers are far apart and are likely to never see each other again, this is more difficult ([Startz \(2016\)](#)). Relational contracts are not possible and low-quality equilibria are sometimes sustained until an outside intervention. In rural Uganda for example, misperceptions about anti-malarial drugs are widespread, allowing for the flourishing of low-quality counterfeit drugs. [Bjorkman Nyqvist et al. \(2012\)](#) experimentally introduce a low-price, high-quality anti-malarial drug promoted by an NGO, which ends up replacing the low-quality counterfeit drug prevalent at baseline. In most situations, however, higher-quality products are also more expensive, which can make it difficult for firms to convince customers that they are making the right decision.

Firms may try and overcome the lack of knowledge or the misperception of their products through marketing efforts. National or international brands and chains offer an alternative to direct relationship. [Bennett and Yin \(2019\)](#) study how a “high-productivity” pharmacy chain in India, marketing itself as a high-quality firm and consistently delivering high-quality medicine, lead to improved quality and cheaper prices at incumbent pharmacies. [Bronnenberg et al. \(2015\)](#) study the brand premium effect in over-the-counter drugs and grocery staples in the United States. Even in this presumably high-trust and high-transparency setting, the authors find that more informed shoppers (such as pharmacists for drugs, and chefs for groceries) are less likely to buy the branded product, suggesting that a sizable share of the brand premium is due to information frictions.

Using survey data on Pakistani soccer ball manufacturers, [Atkin et al. \(2017b\)](#) show that the firms who charge the highest markups are not necessarily the most productive ones, but the ones that exhort the most marketing efforts, for example by participating in international trade fairs. However, marketing efforts may sometimes be too costly. [Bai \(2018\)](#) tests experimentally whether a technology that could serve as a hard signal can help reduce asymmetric information in the watermelons market in China. She finds that although it does,

once she removes the subsidy all the firms revert back to the pooling equilibrium due to cost constraints. In a randomized controlled trial, [Hjort et al. \(2020\)](#) show that teaching firms marketing skills can expand the market they have access to, in particular towards large buyers, and thus enhance growth possibilities.

The trade literature has looked at the implications of the impact of marketing efforts on firms' ability to sell. [Arkolakis \(2010\)](#)' seminal paper shows that the convex cost of reaching additional customers in a given market can explain the puzzle that despite fixed costs to exporting in an additional country, many firms export small volumes in each destination. [Hottman et al. \(2016\)](#) show that it is a firm's "appeal", and not marginal cost, that drives the majority of differences between large and small firms, which is in part driven by high-appeal firms' ability to charge higher markups. [Afrouzi et al. \(2020\)](#) combine the same scanner data with cost data to show that this appeal is affected by spending on advertising and other non-production efforts. In a model of endogenous markup, they show that this spending may increase efficiency in the economy as it directs customers to the most productive firms. The empirical results of [Einav et al. \(2021\)](#), based on the visa credit card dataset, also support the importance of the customer margin. However, they suggest that if we assume constant markup, because firms must find customers, they spend rare resources on marketing, potentially diverting these resources from R&D efforts which could grow the economy more in the long term.

The internet may introduce cheaper marketing alternatives. [Chen and Wu \(2020\)](#) show that information frictions matter on ecommerce platforms and that online certification tools, while imperfect, may help SMEs sell. For example, they show that a seller displaying an extra "star" in their rating, a rounding effect, increases sales by 32% even when controlling for the true rating. They also show that information frictions increase with geographic and cultural distance between sellers and buyers. While e-commerce is still out of reach for many small firms in developing countries, it is an avenue for sustainable growth. In this paper, we study a market yet relatively untouched by the Internet, but which will be increasingly so: since the COVID-19 pandemic, X% of Mexican consumers have bought groceries online up from Y% before, increasing the value of online-specific marketing efforts.

Last, this paper contributes to understanding how trade, through the presence of MNCs, affects the welfare of consumers in developing countries. [Fajgelbaum and Khandelwal \(2016\)](#) show that trade is generally pro-poor because it decreases the price of goods that poor consumers spend relatively more on. However, using consumer survey data from India, in which consumption is observed at a more detailed level, [Atkin \(2013\)](#) shows that because preferences change slowly, trade-induced decreases in prices may not increase poor consumers' calories as much as one would expect. Using barcode-equivalent data from Mexico, [Atkin et al. \(2018\)](#) further show that the arrival of Walmart in new areas is relatively more beneficial for higher-income consumers, who demand the high-quality, high-price goods that Walmart supplies. None of these papers have access to the precise origin of the goods consumed, which may inform policymakers about the design of pro-poor trade policies.

[Atkin and Donaldson \(2015\)](#) have access to this information but only for a dozen goods across three countries. This exercise allows them to show that intra-national trade costs may explain why consumers in remote areas may have less access to trade-induced price decreases

than others. In our study, we have access to the universe of consumer-packaged goods consumed in Mexico and are therefore able to study how the presence of foreign firms influences the demand faced by domestic firms.

3 Data and Setting

In this section, we first introduce the two primary data sources that together allow us to study in detail the consumer goods sector in Mexico from January 2010 to December 2015. After describing each source in detail, we describe the relevant features of the market.

3.1 Data

The main source of data is a rotating household panel shared by Kantar World Panel⁵. Households are visited twice a week to obtain a complete consumption diary about all of the packaged goods purchased for at-home consumption. We observe between XXX and XXX households per month and a total of XXX unique households from all 32 states of Mexico⁶. The sample is designed to represent metropolitan areas (collection of municipalities) in Mexico with more than 50,000 individuals.

The panel provides information on all packaged goods purchases made over time. The data covers 11 consumer packaged goods except liquor and tobacco. We don't observe products purchased in bulk or by weight such as fresh fruits and vegetables, meat and fish, tortillas, etc. For each purchase, we observe the transaction date, the item description at the barcode level, the price, the units purchased, the type of the store where the purchase was made⁷, whether the product was subject to special promotions, and the payment method. Importantly for the rest of the paper, we also observe the name of the manufacturer of the good. For soft drinks purchases for example, the item description includes product characteristics such as whether the drink is a "diet" one or not, the flavor, the content size and the package type (e.g. can or plastic bottle). It would then indicate "Coca-Cola FEMSA" if the item was produced by the Coca-Cola subsidiary in Mexico.

The panel also contains economic, demographic and geographic information about each household. We observe these variables at the yearly level. They include information about household members' age, gender and occupation. We also observe households' assets such as appliances, dwelling characteristics and a socioeconomic status (SES), which is computed based on households' assets, the dwelling characteristics, the head of household education and purchasing power, as computed by the Mexican Association of Market Intelligence Agencies (AMAI)⁸. We observe five values for the SES. Geographic variables include the neighborhood of residence.

⁵Kantar World Panel is an international company that operates in more than 50 countries. They specialize in the collection of household consumption data for marketing and sales strategy purposes. For more information on the data-sharing agreement, see [Aguilar et al. \(2021\)](#).

⁶On average, households stay in the panel for XXX years. We observe XXX households on all 72 months.

⁷We observe the name of the retail chain if the purchase was made at a retail chain. If not, we observe whether the purchase was made in a store that does not belong to a chain or in an open-air market.

⁸See [AMAI's website](#) for more explanation

The second source of data is the yearly updated directory of private establishments (Directorio Estadístico Nacional de Unidades Económicas or DENU) conducted by the Mexican national statistical institute, INEGI. DENU was first created in 2010 based on the 2009 Economic Census. Since then, DENU has been used as a sampling frame for business surveys⁹. Although this dataset provides the exact addresses of all 5,101,405 establishments listed, the KWP dataset only has the name of the one firm, which may be multi-establishment. We therefore merge this name with either the given or the official name of an establishment in the administrative dataset, but cannot tell which establishment actually corresponds to each good.

The third source of data is the yearly updated register of foreign investment (Registro Nacional de Inversiones Extranjeras or RNIE) which is maintained by the Mexican Economic Secretary (Secretaría de Economía). Firms based in Mexico that receive foreign capital directly (as opposed to through stock) are listed there. We match the name of the manufacturers collected by Kantar with the names of firms listed in this list, which defines their status as a foreign firm and in the case of the latter gives us the origin of the foreign investment.

3.2 Descriptive Statistics

Households In Table 1, we compare the households in our dataset in 2010 to the households surveyed in the expenditure and income survey of households, ENIGH, conducted by the national statistical office, INEGI, in 2010. Households in the Kantar data appear to be better off than households in the ENIGH data. Looking at education, for example: 30 XXX% of the head of households in the Kantar data have completed a post-secondary degree, compared to only 26% of head of households in the survey data.

Goods We observe over 60,000 different products over 82 categories. For each product, we observe between one and seven characteristics such as brand, flavor, color, size, package size, package multiple, etc. This description is similarly precise as the one available in better known datasets such as Nielsen which report at the barcode level. In the baseline specification of the empirical analysis, we will refer to these goods defined by Kantar under a product identifier as “barcodes”.

Firms These barcodes are manufactured by over 4,000 XXXX different firms, over 90% receive no foreign direct investment. The few firms who do are much larger as shown in Figure A.1, which plots the distribution of annual total expenditure panelists made on each firm. Foreign firms also charge much higher prices and enjoy larger market shares than domestic firms. To show this, we run the following regressions within each product category:

$$y_{i,j,t} = \alpha + \beta \text{Foreign}_i + \gamma_{jt} + \delta_i + \epsilon_{i,j,t} \quad (1)$$

where we regress barcode i ’s price y observed in city j in month t on a dummy for whether the manufacturer is foreign or not and control for a set of city and time fixed effects γ_{jt} . We also include product characteristics.

⁹See a commentary from the American Statistical Association

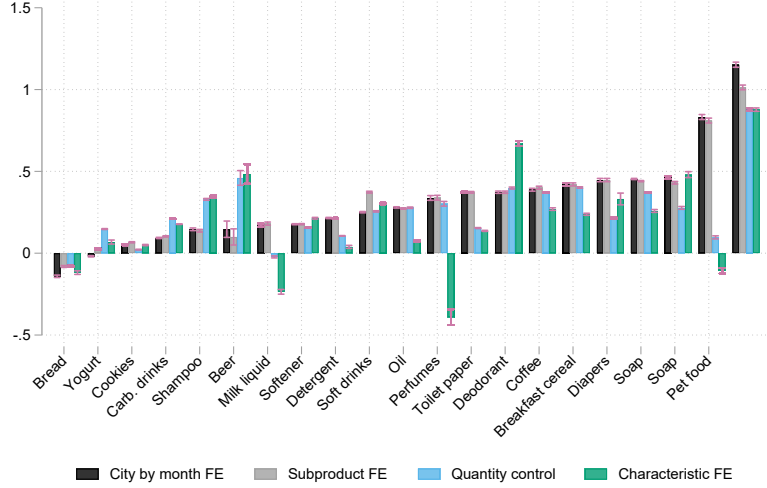


Figure 1: Foreign price premium

Figure 1 shows the Foreign coefficients β obtained for the largest 20 product categories, based on what characteristics are included as controls. In the baseline specification we only control for city and time fixed effects, while in the other regressions we control for product subcategory, size, and finally all the characteristics. Almost all the coefficients are positive, which we interpret as the “Foreign price premium”.

We run a similar regression for market shares in each product category:

$$y_{i,t} = \alpha + \beta \text{Foreign}_i + \gamma_t + \epsilon_{i,t} \quad (2)$$

except now i is a firm and t is a year. We look at market shares defined in terms of sales, volume, and quantity (typically leveraging the information given by KWP about the content of each unit, usually in milliliters or grams depending on the nature of the product - since here the analysis is within product categories, we don’t think there’s a risk of bias).

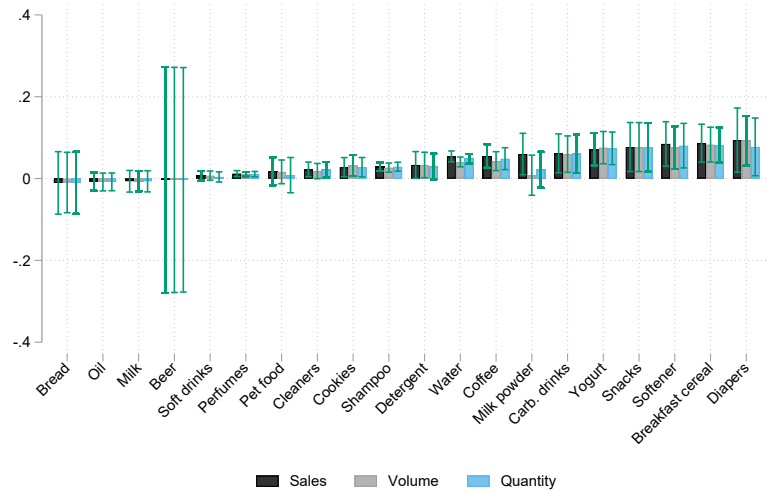


Figure 2: Foreign share premium

Figure 2 shows the Foreign coefficients β obtained for the largest 20 product categories. All but four coefficients are positive, which we interpret as the “Foreign share premium”. We point out the correlation between the negative coefficients observed for the sectors of milk, beer and bread with the existence of three Mexican MNCs in these sectors (Lala, Modelo and Bimbo respectively). The one for milk is further linked to the importance of a public establishment, LICONSA¹⁰, which sells milk to 18% of urban households.

New goods A large part of the empirical analysis relies on the identification of “new” goods in the dataset. In this paper, the definition of products is empirical. We define a product as new if it appears in the dataset more than a year after the start of the dataset (so January 2011) and if it has been introduced by a household who has been active in the dataset for more than a year. The rationale behind the latter part of the definition is that otherwise we could misclassify products as new when they are just rare, and interpret their *relative* introduction by a household who is new to the panel as an *absolute* introduction to the Mexican consumer goods market. We validate this data-driven definition by checking that new products referenced in the marketing firm The Market Think’s review¹¹ were indeed classified as new according to our definition. Although most products do not appear in our dataset, the ones that do were indeed classified as new. Examples include Coca-Cola’s Life drink and Nestle’s Oikos Greek-style yogurt. On average, 15% of firms’ product portfolio in a given year (starting in 2011) are classified as new. Domestic firms appear to introduce slightly more new goods than foreign firms, but this is mostly driven by one-good firms and when we condition on having more than one product at baseline, domestic firms appear to introduce slightly less new products than foreign firms, as illustrated in Table 2.

4 Stylized Facts

In this section, we leverage the rich data about consumer goods and establish a series of five novel facts about the dynamics of demand faced by domestic and multinational companies in Mexico.

4.1 Domestic firms grow relatively more through surviving goods

We follow Argente et al. (2019) who use scanner data to study the life-cycle of products in the United States. We propose to decompose a firm’s growth rate into the sum of a “new products” component and a “product life-cycle” component. It is possible to get the following approximation:

$$\Delta S_{i,t} = \underbrace{\Delta S_{i,t}^{old,survive} - \bar{S}_{i,t-1}^{old,exit}}_{product\ life-cycle} + \underbrace{n_{i,t}^{new} \times \bar{s}_{i,t}^{new}}_{new\ products} \quad (3)$$

where $\Delta S_{i,t}$ is the firm’s annual growth rate, and where the “product life-cycle” component is further decomposed in the annual growth rate of the aggregate sales of products that survived between year $t - 1$ and year t , $\Delta S_{i,t}^{old,survive}$, from which we subtract the share of sales that the products that exited between year $t - 1$ and t represented in the sales of the firm in year

¹⁰See Jiménez-Hernández and Seira (2021) for an assessment of government’s role in milk provision.

¹¹See <https://www.themarkethink.com/lanzamiento-de-productos/>

$t-1, \bar{S}_{i,t-1}^{old,exit}$. The “new products” component is the product of the rate of introduction of new products in the firm’s portfolio $n_{i,t}^{new}$ and the relative sales of new products compared to older products $\bar{s}_{i,t}^{new}$, obtained by taking the ratio of the average sales of a new product in year t to the average sales of a surviving product in year t .

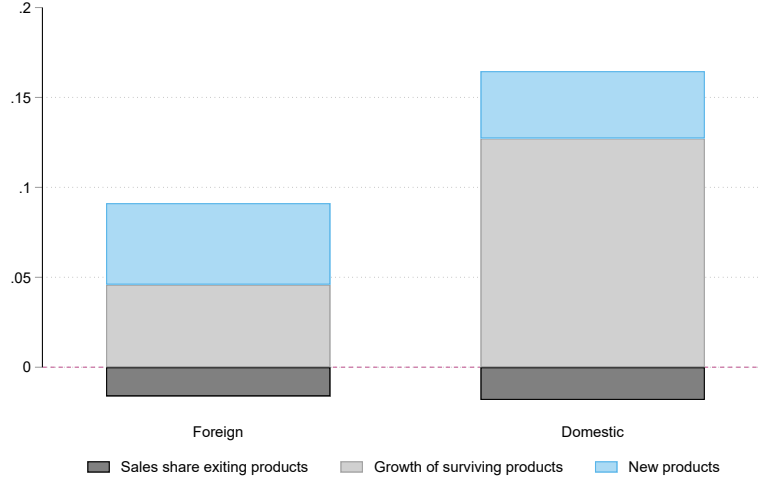


Figure 3: The extensive customer margin is key to firm growth

We find in Figure 3 that despite a higher absolute rate of introduction of new products, domestic firms have a similar rate of introduction of new products as foreign firms, when weighted by sales: many small firms only sell a new product in any given year, while it is less common for larger firms that typically sell several products, and there are many more small domestic firms than small foreign firms. In fact, when we condition on having sold more than 1 product in the year defining the “old products”, Table 2 illustrates that Mexican firms introduce relatively fewer products as a share of their total products. The relative sales component is similar, as is the share of exiting products. The difference driving the differential growth rates between domestic and foreign firms is almost entirely due to the higher growth rate of the surviving products for domestic firms, that are found to grow by 12% a year compared to 4% a year for foreign firms.

4.2 Domestic products have a slower life-cycle

We again follow Argente et al. (2019) and analyze the evolution of product-level sales over time. We estimate the following equation:

$$\log Y_{u,t} = \alpha + \sum_{a=1}^{14} \beta_a D_a + \lambda_{jt} + \theta_c + u_{u,t} \quad (4)$$

where u is a good observed in a certain quarter t , a is a potential age of the good in quarters (between 0 and 14, the mean age attained by products born between 2011Q1 and 2012Q2 and the maximum age reached by products born in 2012Q2 in the dataset). j is a product category and c is a cohort-quarter. We regress a good u ’s log sales in a quarter t on dummies for the

age of this product, product category interacted with quarter fixed effects, and cohort fixed effects (corrected following [Deaton \(1997\)](#)'s suggestion to avoid collinearity). We restrict the analysis to products born between 2011Q1 and 2012Q2, as the mean duration of a product is 14 quarters, which is the period that can be observed with products born in 2012Q2 until 2015Q4. We perform this regression separately for domestic and foreign products.

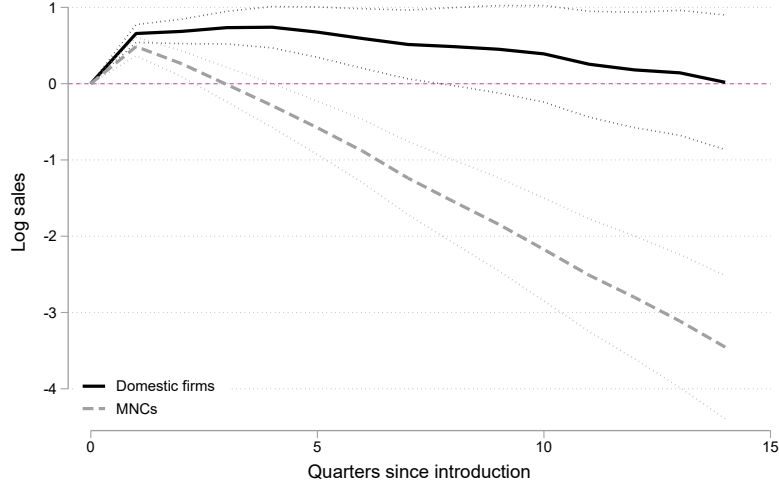


Figure 4: Product life-cycle

In [Figure 4](#), we plot the coefficients obtained on each of the 14 quarter-age dummies. The coefficients obtained for the products introduced by foreign firms are very similar to the ones obtained by [Argente et al. \(2019\)](#) in the United States scanner data: products are born and sell, they exit immediately or sell more, and then their sales decline for a long time until they exit. The authors attribute this to a constant arrival of products in the market, which means that after a while demand for the aging products is captured by newer products released by the same firm (cannibalization) or other firms' products (business stealing). By contrast, after a short period of increase the sales of products introduced by domestic firms decrease much more slowly, taking many more quarters to go back to the level of sales in the initial quarter of the product's life. This suggests that for domestic products, age is less of a negative force than for foreign products. While this may seem like an advantage for domestic products, they start off with much lower sales on average, so overall the lifetime total sales of the average domestic product are much lower than the lifetime total sales of the average foreign product. Moreover even for the same total lifetime sales, displacing sales later in time means that the present discounted values of domestic products is smaller.

A potential explanation for this phenomenon could be the endogenous timing of product retirement: if foreign firms decide to retire products later than domestic firms conditional on a sales trajectory, we would observe that conditional on surviving a set number of quarters, foreign average product sales decrease over time. Since the product duration is the same between foreign and domestic goods (14 quarters on average, 15 quarters median) it seems unlikely. We can further rule out this hypothesis by showing that the survival rate of foreign products is not different from that of domestic products as they age, as shown in [Appendix Figure A.2](#).

4.3 The extensive customer margin is key to firm growth

We now propose to decompose firm sales in a different manner. Here, we follow [Einav et al. \(2021\)](#) in studying the exact decomposition of a firm's sales:

$$\text{Sales} \equiv \text{Customers} \frac{\text{Quantity}}{\text{Customers}} \underbrace{\frac{\text{Sales}}{\text{Quantity}}}_{\text{Unit value}}$$

This equation can be interpreted in the following way: in order to double sales, firms may double their number of customers *ceteris paribus* - the extensive margin -, or they may double the number of items they sell to each customer *ceteris paribus* - an intensive margin, or they may double the monetary value obtained from each unit sold *ceteris paribus* - another intensive margin. Of course these variables are endogenous, but studying this decomposition in the data will help us understand what are the most accessible ways for firms in Mexico to grow sales. We then take the logs of each element:

$$\log(\text{Sales}) = \log(\text{Customers}) + \log(\text{Quantity per Customer}) + \log(\text{Unit value})$$

We perform three regressions, regressing each element in turn on the log of Sales.

$$\log(\text{Customers}_{it}) = \alpha + \beta_C \log(\text{Sales})_{it} + \gamma_i + \delta_t + \epsilon_{it} \quad (5a)$$

$$\log(\text{Quantity per Customer}_{it}) = \alpha + \beta_Q \log(\text{Sales})_{it} + \gamma_i + \delta_t + \epsilon_{it} \quad (5b)$$

$$\log(\text{Unit value}_{it}) = \alpha + \beta_U \log(\text{Sales})_{it} + \gamma_i + \delta_t + \epsilon_{it} \quad (5c)$$

where i is a firm and t is a year. We control for firm fixed effects (γ_i) and year fixed effects (δ_t) which means the coefficients are identified from the years in which firms grew faster than their own average. By construction,

$$\beta_C + \beta_Q + \beta_U \equiv 1$$

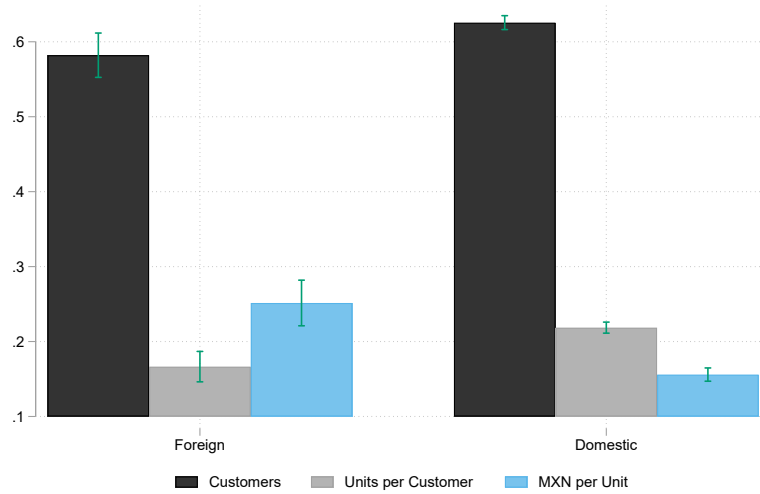


Figure 5: The extensive customer margin is by far the most important

The results are presented in Figure 5. Firms grow the fastest in the years when they acquire customers the fastest, as opposed to growing the number of units that each customer buys the fastest, or growing the monetary value of each unit the fastest. This is true for both domestic and foreign firms, it appears that for domestic firms, the customers margin seems slightly more important, while the value margin seems relatively less important than for foreign firms. Relating this finding to the last fact about the product life-cycle, we interpret the rapid decay of sales of products introduced by foreign firms as they age as *customers* being attracted to new products in the initial quarters of the life of a product, and *customers* being increasingly attracted away from these products and towards newer products from the same firm, or other or newer products from other firms. By contrast, the sustained sales of domestic products even after two years suggest that they are *acquiring new customers* as the products age.

This fact may vary a lot by industry. Because the regressions control for firm fixed effects, effectively comparing years in which firms grow faster than their own average, we are not excessively worried about industry variation. Nevertheless, we study this by taking the analysis to the firm-product category level. Appendix Figure A.3 shows that across the top 20 categories, the customer margin is the most important one in 19 categories, the only exception being perfume for which it makes sense that the price obtained per purchase would matter a lot. This finding confirms that this analysis is capturing an important dimension of how the firms we are studying grow.

4.4 The intensive customer per product margin is key to customer growth

Because the extensive customer margin appears to be so important according to the previous analysis, we turn to study the question of how to acquire more customers. To double their number of customers, firms may double the number of markets they are in *ceteris paribus* - the extensive margin, or double the customers they have within each market *ceteris paribus*: the intensive margin. Markets can be understood in several different ways: in terms of geography, distribution channels, or product. We focus on product markets, as an important question in the literature is whether firms looking to upgrade should increase their product scope in order to capture new customers who may not like the current products that the firm has in its portfolio. We look at the following exact decomposition:

$$\text{Customers} \equiv \text{Product Markets} \frac{\text{Customers}}{\text{Product Markets}}$$

which yields, taking logs

$$\log(\text{Customers}) = \log(\text{Product Markets}) + \log(\text{Customers per product markets})$$

We perform two regressions, regressing each element in turn on the log of Sales.

$$\log(\text{Product Markets})_{it} = \alpha + \beta_M \log(\text{Customers})_{it} + \gamma_i + \delta_t + \epsilon_{it} \quad (6a)$$

$$\log(\text{Customers per product markets})_{it} = \alpha + \beta_C \log(\text{Customers})_{it} + \gamma_i + \delta_t + \epsilon_{it} \quad (6b)$$

where γ_i are firm fixed effects and δ_t are year fixed effects. By construction

$$\beta_M + \beta_C \equiv 1$$

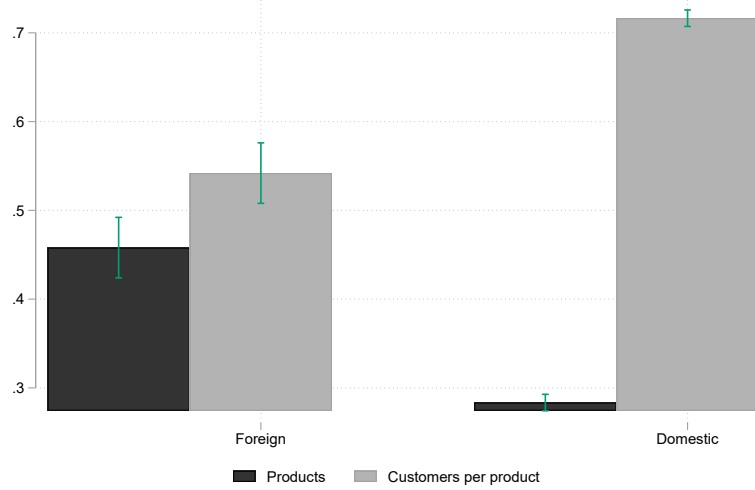


Figure 6: The intensive customer per product margin matters more for domestic firms

Figure 6 shows the coefficients obtained for domestic and foreign firms. For the latter, the two margins do not appear to be extremely different. By contrast, for domestic firms fast growth in the number of customers seems to come largely from the intensive margin, or the number of customers consuming each good the firm has in its portfolio. We interpret this as suggesting that successful domestic firms are relatively better at marketing their products, as opposed to better at introducing new products. This is coherent with the first two facts showing that for domestic firms, the growth of the sales of surviving goods is a strong determinant of firm-level sales growth, and that the products introduced by domestic firms acquire customers over time.

4.5 The new customers of older domestic products are poorer

The last fact we introduce looks at the characteristics of the new customers acquired by products as they age. We estimate the following equation:

$$\log Y_{u,t} = \alpha + \sum_{a=1} \beta_a D_a + \lambda_{jt} + \theta_c + u_{u,t} \quad (7)$$

where u is a good observed in a certain quarter t , a is a potential age of the good in quarters (between 0 and 14, the mean age attained by products born between 2011Q1 and 2012Q2 and the maximum age reached by products born in 2012Q2 in the dataset). j is a product category and c is a cohort-quarter. We regress the sales-weighted average annual expenditure of new customers of good u 's in quarter t on dummies for the age of this product, product category interacted with quarter fixed effects, and cohort fixed effects (corrected following [Deaton \(1997\)](#)'s suggestion to avoid collinearity). We restrict the analysis to products born between 2011Q1 and 2012Q2, as

the mean duration of a product is 14 quarters, which is the period that can be observed with products born in 2012Q2 until 2015Q4. We perform this regression separately for domestic and foreign products.

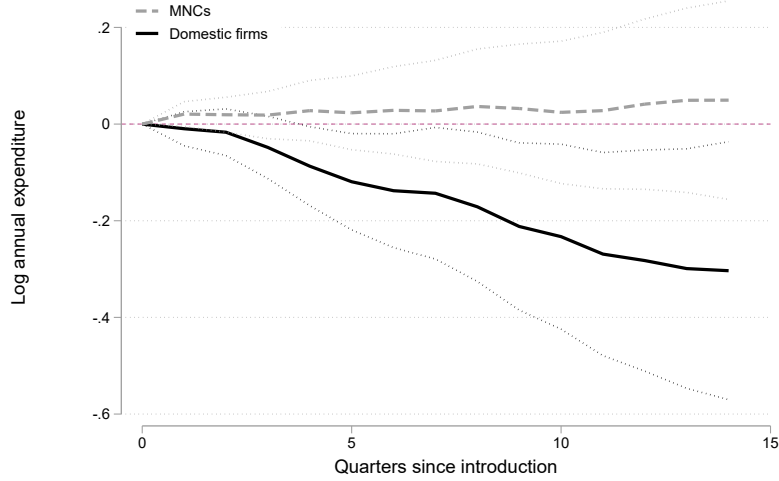


Figure 7: The new customers of older domestic products are poorer

Figure 7 shows the coefficients obtained on each of the 14 quarter-age dummies. The new customers who start buying a foreign product as it ages are not different from the customers who started buying the foreign product in the very first quarters of its existence. By contrast, the new customers who start buying a domestic product as it ages are significantly poorer than the customers who started consuming the same product in its initial quarters of existence. This fact suggests that the process by which domestic firms acquire demand is very different from the one foreign firms go through.

One may think that there is a supply-side explanation to this pattern. For example, if domestic products are distributed through specific stores and foreign products are distributed through other stores, it may be that there the distribution dynamics specific to each type of firm account for the divergence the new customers profile over time. Specifically, if domestic products are better able to go to more remote, and poorer areas, then the new customers they are getting are not arriving later because of learning but because the products were not available to them before. First, we find the same results as above once adding city fixed effects into the regression, which means that within cities, domestic products are increasingly being bought by poorer customers while foreign products are being bought by consumers of similar income. To study this further, we look at the characteristics of the geographical markets where each type of product is sold over time. We find that the new cities that start to buy products as products age are at first smaller, then as products age further they are of the same size. Importantly this trend is not different across domestic and foreign products, as shown in Appendix Figure A.4, leaving little room for the supply-side channel to drive the results.

5 Model

In this section we introduce a conceptual framework in which we highlight the hypothesis that uncertainty about product quality generates these facts.

5.1 Setup

In this model, agents are consumers faced with a new good of unknown quality x . x is a random variable from a known distribution with prior mean μ_0 . Agents choose whether to purchase the good or not, maximizing

$$u(\mu) = \max \{\mu - \beta_i p, 0\}$$

where β_i represents price-sensitivity. For simplicity, we suppose there are only two possible types of agents: $\beta_i \in \{\beta_L, \beta_H\}$ where $\beta_H > \beta_L$. There is a higher share of the market who is of the second type $\gamma_H = 1 - \gamma_L$. This game is dynamic. In each period, agents decide whether to purchase the good or not. If they purchase the good, they immediately learn the true quality x . They can then use this information to decide whether they will purchase the good in the next period. We call this learning through individual experimentation “individual learning”. Agents buy at most three times in a row (three times if they like the good, one time if they don’t). Agents may also learn through social observation: by looking at whether people who have tried the good continue to purchase it or not, they can update their belief about the quality of the good. We call this “social learning”.

5.2 Individual learning

Suppose that a period t no agent has purchased the good yet. Everyone has the same prior μ_t . Each agent decides whether

$$\mu_t - \beta_i p \leq 0$$

If one agent decides to purchase the good and not the other, it must mean that it is the agent with the lesser price-sensitivity β_L . She immediately learns the true quality x . However, the other agents don’t learn anything from observing this initial purchase. $\mu_{t+1} = \mu_t$.

5.3 Social learning

In the following period $t + 1$, the leader assesses whether

$$x - \beta_L p \leq 0$$

Upon observing this decision, the other agents learn whether

$$x \leq \beta_L p$$

and can update their belief accordingly:

$$\mu_{t+2} = \begin{cases} < \mu_{t+1} & \text{if } x < \beta_{LP} \\ \geq \mu_{t+1} & \text{if } x \geq \beta_{LP} \end{cases}$$

5.4 Sales trajectories

This model generates the following sales trajectory for a “successful” product $x > \beta_{HP}$, when $\mu_0 < x$ (“uncertainty”) and for when $\mu = x$ (“no uncertainty”), where each point represents the fixed effects of the product aging one quarter on its sales compared to the initial quarter.

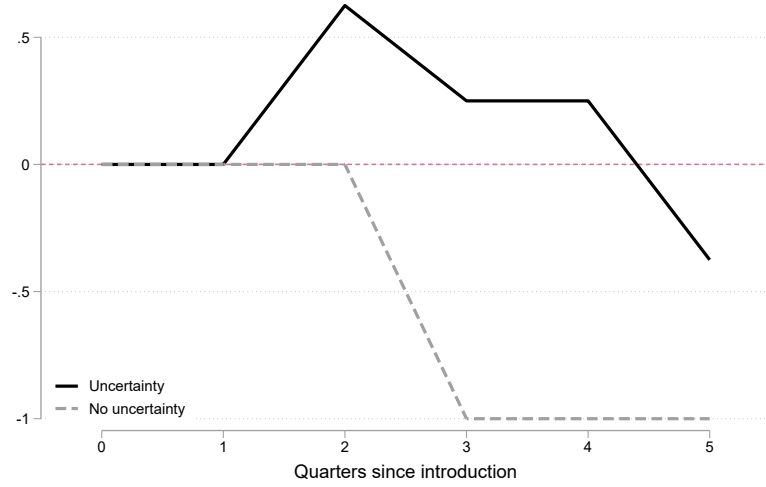


Figure 8: Sales trajectories when there is uncertainty or not

Figure 8 strongly resembles Figure 4 which plots the coefficient on the dummies for the age in quarters of the products in the data.

6 Mechanisms

In this section, we document the mechanisms described in the model. First, we will show that there is learning going on. Second, we will show that uncertainty about product quality bites by showing that the learning phenomenon is more important for goods for which quality uncertainty is more salient, or where the lack of quality might be more costly. Third and last, we will show that price-sensitivity plays an important role in how learning affects consumption.

6.1 Learning

We measure the influence of brands by looking at the probability that consumers purchase goods, depending on whether they have experience with the brand in the previous year. We estimate the following equation:

$$y_{i,jk,t} = \alpha + \beta y_{j,t-1} + \gamma D_j + \delta D_j \times y_{j,t-1} + d_i + \epsilon_{i,t} \quad (8)$$

where i is the consumer, k is the barcode, j is the brand, firm or country the barcode belongs to, and t is the year. We are particularly interested in β which measure the effect of the consumer's individual experience with the brand j at $t-1$ on subsequent consumption of existing or new barcodes from the same brand, at t . We are particularly interested in whether the influence of the brand depends on whether the brand is domestic, so we interact the dummy for previous experience with a dummy for Domestic, D_j and will look at the interaction coefficient δ . Although we cannot claim that exposure to a brand in year t is exogenous, since we can control for individual fixed effects d_i , we are arguably measuring the average influence of brands on dynamic consumption decisions controlling for supply-driven differential exposure of individuals to brands.

The results are described in Table 9. We find that previous experience with a barcode is predicted to raise the probability of the current barcode consumption by XX, *ceteris paribus*. Although the baseline probability to consume a domestic product is lower by XX, we find that the Domestic interaction coefficient is positive and significant, suggesting that households learn more from consuming domestic products than from consuming foreign products. Previous experience with barcodes from a given country, firm or brand are also predicted to raise the current consumption of a given barcode by XXX, XXX and XXX, respectively, *ceteris paribus*. Again, domestic firm or domestic brand experience is stronger than foreign brand experience.

One could argue that these effects are driven by consumer inertia and not learning. Unfortunately we cannot distinguish the effect of having been exposed to a brand from the effect of consuming the particular good, since if an individual consumes the good she has necessarily consumed the brand. Instead, we focus on new barcodes that appeared in the current year: for the only possible variation is in the previous brand exposure, not in habit formation. Columns (5) to (7) show that the above results hold for new barcodes, emphasizing the potential that collective reputations at the brand, firm and country level offer for domestic firms to increase their number of customers.

6.2 Importance of quality certainty

The previous subsection suggests that there is some form of learning going on. However, one may interpret this as learning about the match between one's taste and the particular product or brand, not necessarily about quality. We exploit heterogeneity in the importance of product quality across product categories to show that quality matters.

Quality matters more to some products than others. For food, low quality means that one may get sick, while for paper products and other household care or personal care products, low quality may have less dramatic implications. However, these products are also very different in terms of supply (different manufacturing processes, different supply chains, different competitive structures) and of demand (different frequency of purchase, different sets of preferences). Within food though, quality is more salient in some items than in others. For example, most people would agree that the safety of food being fed to babies and young children is relatively more important than the safety of other foods. We therefore study heterogeneity in the product life-cycle along these dimensions.

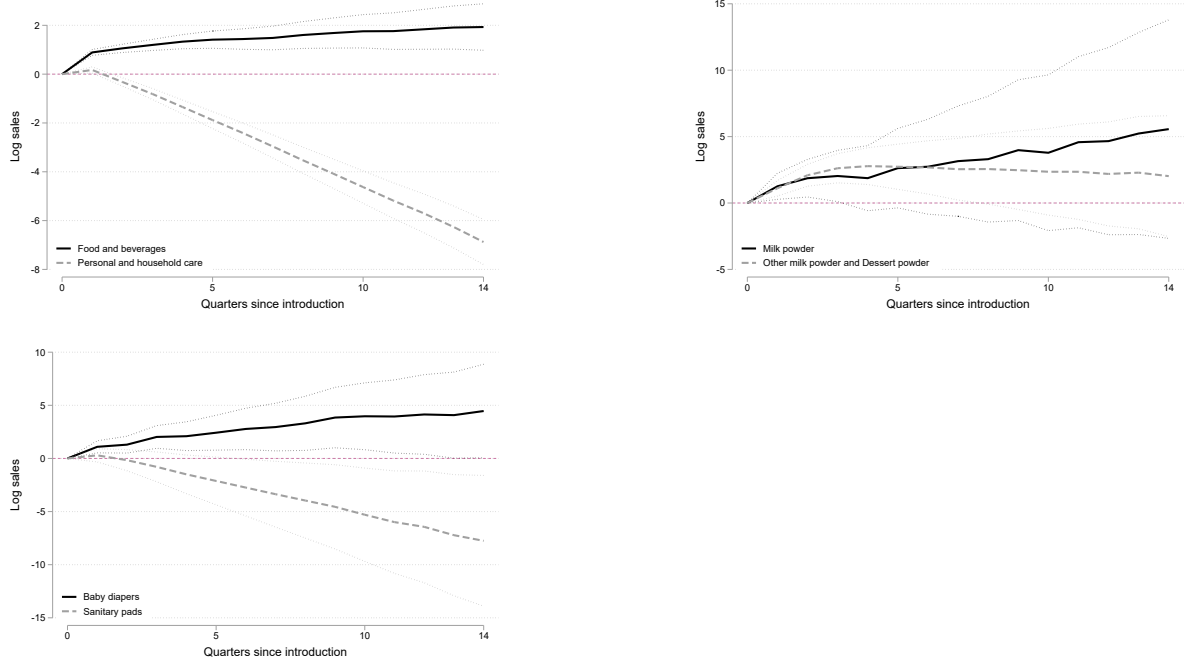


Figure 9: Product life-cycle by quality salience

The top-left panel of Figure 9 shows the product life-cycle of food products, contrasted with the product life-cycle of all other products. As predicted in the discussion above, food products have a slower and longer life-cycle which we attribute to the relatively higher importance of quality for these products. The bottom-left panel shows the life-cycle of non-food products that have similar manufacturing characteristics: baby diapers and sanitary pads. We claim that quality matters relatively more for baby diapers. Indeed, the life-cycle of baby diaper products is much slower and longer than for sanitary pads. Last, the top-right panel shows the life-cycle of food products that have similar characteristics: infant formula and other powders (non-infant milk or dessert). Again, we claim that quality certainty has a higher value for infant formula. Indeed, the life-cycle of infant formula products is slower and longer than for non-infant milk and other food powders.

6.3 Price sensibility

While the previous analysis suggests the importance of the information channel, it is not related to the fifth stylized fact showing that the new customers of domestic products as they age are poorer, which we interpreted in the model as coming from the price-sensitivity of some potential customers. We now show that more price-sensitive customers react more to exposure to brands. We repeat equation 8, separating each socio-economic category. In Figure 10 we show the coefficients obtained for each of the five socio-economic categories.

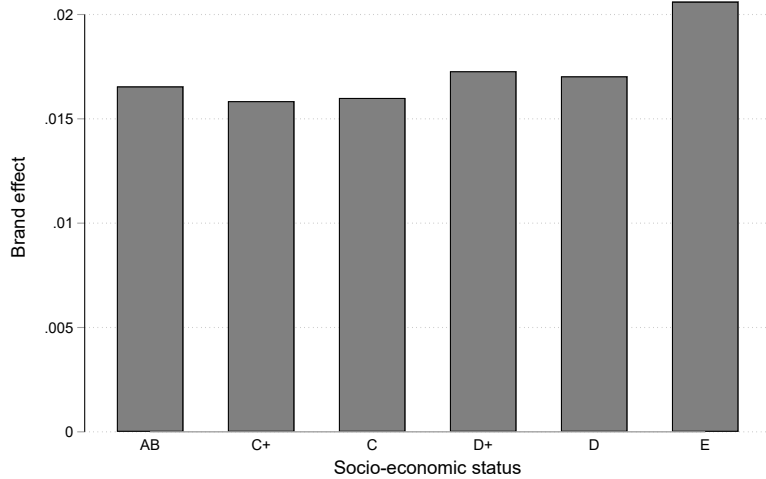


Figure 10: Previous exposure to brand coefficient by SES

We find that it is for the consumers in the lowest category that previous brand exposure matters the most and by far, confirming the model predictions that learning matters most for consumers with the lowest price-sensitivity.

7 Conclusion

Uncertainty about product quality may prevent consumers, particular consumers for whom it is costly to experiment, from purchasing products they don't know. This fundamental stickiness creates a demand barrier for young and small firms to grow. In this paper, we leverage barcode-level dataset covering the universe of consumer packaged goods available in Mexico between 2010 and 2015 to study this issue. In this setting, uncertainty about product quality is an important issue and it creates a large advantage to global brands, who dominate the market despite charging higher prices.

We show five new stylized facts: domestic firms grow relatively more through surviving goods as opposed to new goods than foreign firms. Domestic products sales start lower and grow slower than foreign products. Sales growth in the Mexican consumer goods sector is largely driven by the customer extensive margin. While this appears to be true for both domestic and foreign firms, for domestic firms customer growth is driven more by the intensive customer acquisition margin, within each product, as opposed to the extensive market acquisition margin, by adding products to the portfolio. Last, the new customers acquired by domestic products as they age are poorer than the initial customers who started purchasing the domestic products when it just came out, while the new customers of foreign products as they age are not different from the later customers.

We take these five facts to a stylized model showing that the presence of uncertainty about product quality leads price-sensitive customers to withhold from purchasing a new good, instead waiting to learn from others. We document that individual learning matters by showing that previous exposure to a brand, firm or country increases a consumers' probability to consumer a given barcode from that brand, firm or country, including when the barcode is new. This effect

is much stronger for goods for which uncertainty is more salient, and it is higher for consumers with the lowest socio-economic score or price-sensitivity. To conclude, efforts to get consumers to initiate a purchase could substantially increase profits for domestic firms.

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Tables

	ENIGH			KWP			Difference	
	mean	sd	N	mean	sd	N	diff	p
Number of household members	3.94	1.98	26942	4.37	1.83	8414	0.430	0.00
Number of women in household	2.03	1.27	26942	2.29	1.22	8414	0.267	0.00
Age head of household	48.32	15.62	26942	45.61	14.02	8412	-2.707	0.00
Finished primary	0.84	0.37	26942	0.96	0.20	8414	0.120	0.00
Finished secondary	0.35	0.48	26942	0.65	0.48	8414	0.307	0.00
Finished Post-secondary	0.26	0.44	26942	0.13	0.34	8414	-0.130	0.00
Works full time	0.75	0.44	26942	0.75	0.43	8414	0.006	0.24
Number of cars	0.53	0.80	26942	0.56	0.66	8414	0.030	0.00
Number of PCs	0.31	0.61	26942	0.33	0.47	8414	0.019	0.01
Access to Internet (0/1)	0.19	0.39	26942	0.24	0.42	8414	0.043	0.00
Number of color TVs	1.44	0.92	26942	1.87	0.98	8413	0.426	0.00
Number of fridges	0.83	0.43	26942	0.96	0.19	8412	0.135	0.00
Number of microwaves	0.42	0.51	26942	0.70	0.46	8414	0.287	0.00
Number of bedrooms	2.01	0.97	26385	2.20	0.97	8412	0.188	0.00
Debit or credit card (0/1)	0.21	0.41	26942	0.28	0.45	8414	0.070	0.00
Monthly expenditure (MXN)	1107.30	758.20	26942	1320.09	736.49	8414	212.796	0.00

Table 1: Household-level summary statistics, KWP vs ENIGH in 2010

	Share new products					
	(1)	(2)	(3)	(4)	(5)	(6)
Mexican	-0.027 (0.007)	-0.030 (0.007)	-0.020 (0.007)	-0.027 (0.007)	-0.029 (0.007)	-0.019 (0.007)
Firm sales		-0.005 (0.003)	-0.006 (0.004)		-0.005 (0.003)	-0.005 (0.004)
Number of varieties			0.031 (0.028)			0.029 (0.028)
Firm leader in category			-0.012 (0.015)			-0.011 (0.015)
Firm controls	No	No	No	Yes	Yes	Yes
Year FEs	No	No	No	Yes	Yes	Yes
Baseline share (foreign)	0.15	0.15	0.15	0.15	0.15	0.15
N	5820	5820	5820	5820	5820	5820
R2	0.00	0.00	0.08	0.01	0.01	0.09

Table 2: Firm-level new goods introduction rate

	All	Mexican	Foreign
Growth sales	0.11 (0.35)	0.14 (0.48)	0.08 (0.17)
Product Life Cycle Component	0.06	0.10	0.03
Growth of Surviving	0.08 (0.32)	0.12 (0.45)	0.04 (0.17)
Sales Share of Exit	-0.02 (0.04)	-0.02 (0.05)	-0.02 (0.04)
New Products Component	0.04	0.04	0.04
Entry Rate	0.16 (0.12)	0.16 (0.15)	0.16 (0.09)
Entrants Relative Sales	0.26 (0.28)	0.24 (0.31)	0.27 (0.26)
Obs	8885	8010	875

Table 3: Firm growth decomposition

	Log quarterly sales			
	Foreign	Domestic	Foreign	Domestic
Age=2 quarters	0.486 (0.062)	0.658 (0.060)	0.510 (0.063)	0.676 (0.061)
Age=3 quarters	0.263 (0.086)	0.685 (0.082)	0.304 (0.088)	0.705 (0.083)
Age=4 quarters	-0.011 (0.115)	0.735 (0.109)	0.055 (0.117)	0.762 (0.110)
Age=5 quarters	-0.286 (0.147)	0.741 (0.138)	-0.195 (0.149)	0.774 (0.140)
Age=6 quarters	-0.578 (0.179)	0.676 (0.168)	-0.470 (0.181)	0.712 (0.171)
Age=7 quarters	-0.885 (0.212)	0.592 (0.199)	-0.760 (0.214)	0.641 (0.202)
Age=8 quarters	-1.238 (0.245)	0.514 (0.230)	-1.090 (0.248)	0.562 (0.233)
Age=9 quarters	-1.544 (0.278)	0.486 (0.261)	-1.366 (0.281)	0.547 (0.265)
Age=10 quarters	-1.844 (0.311)	0.451 (0.292)	-1.636 (0.315)	0.520 (0.296)
Age=11 quarters	-2.173 (0.344)	0.391 (0.323)	-1.949 (0.348)	0.465 (0.327)
Age=12 quarters	-2.512 (0.377)	0.255 (0.354)	-2.269 (0.382)	0.344 (0.359)
Age=13 quarters	-2.801 (0.411)	0.181 (0.386)	-2.531 (0.416)	0.281 (0.391)
Age=14 quarters	-3.112 (0.445)	0.142 (0.418)	-2.827 (0.451)	0.243 (0.424)
Age=15 quarters	-3.454 (0.479)	0.018 (0.450)	-3.123 (0.485)	0.159 (0.456)
Product X Quarter FEs	Yes	Yes	Yes	Yes
Subproduct X Quarter FEs	No	No	Yes	Yes
Initial quarter mean	5.47	4.71	5.47	4.71
N	28911	27912	28625	27677
R2	0.17	0.21	0.21	0.24

Table 4: Barcode life-cycle: log sales

	Within firms across time			Across firms within time		
	Customers	Items per C	MXN per item	Customers	Items per C	MXN per item
Mexican firms	0.626 (0.005)	0.176 (0.003)	0.198 (0.005)	0.736 (0.003)	0.200 (0.002)	0.064 (0.003)
N	10934	10934	10934	12081	12081	12081
R2	0.97	0.90	0.86	0.81	0.43	0.03

	Within firms across time			Across firms within time		
	Customers	Items per C	MXN per item	Customers	Items per C	MXN per item
Foreign firms	0.582 (0.015)	0.141 (0.008)	0.277 (0.015)	0.795 (0.007)	0.205 (0.005)	0.000 (0.008)
N	1126	1126	1126	1157	1157	1157
R2	0.99	0.97	0.90	0.91	0.61	0.00

Table 5: Sales decomposition

	Within firms across time		Across firms within time	
	Products	Customers per P	Products	Customers per P
Mexican firms	0.284 (0.005)	0.716 (0.005)	0.474 (0.003)	0.526 (0.003)
N	11273	11273	12599	12599
R2	0.95	0.95	0.67	0.72
	Within firms across time		Across firms within time	
	Products	Customers per P	Products	Customers per P
Foreign firms	0.458 (0.017)	0.542 (0.017)	0.626 (0.008)	0.374 (0.008)
N	1150	1150	1186	1186
R2	0.98	0.96	0.82	0.63

Table 6: Customers decomposition

	Log average expenditure of new customers			
	Foreign	Domestic	Foreign	Domestic
Age=2 quarters	0.021 (0.013)	-0.010 (0.018)	0.019 (0.014)	-0.002 (0.019)
Age=3 quarters	0.019 (0.018)	-0.017 (0.025)	0.017 (0.019)	-0.004 (0.025)
Age=4 quarters	0.019 (0.025)	-0.048 (0.033)	0.017 (0.026)	-0.030 (0.034)
Age=5 quarters	0.028 (0.032)	-0.087 (0.042)	0.024 (0.033)	-0.063 (0.043)
Age=6 quarters	0.023 (0.039)	-0.119 (0.051)	0.016 (0.040)	-0.088 (0.052)
Age=7 quarters	0.028 (0.046)	-0.138 (0.060)	0.019 (0.048)	-0.103 (0.062)
Age=8 quarters	0.027 (0.053)	-0.143 (0.069)	0.023 (0.055)	-0.098 (0.071)
Age=9 quarters	0.036 (0.061)	-0.171 (0.079)	0.031 (0.063)	-0.121 (0.081)
Age=10 quarters	0.032 (0.068)	-0.212 (0.088)	0.025 (0.070)	-0.150 (0.090)
Age=11 quarters	0.024 (0.075)	-0.233 (0.098)	0.021 (0.078)	-0.167 (0.100)
Age=12 quarters	0.028 (0.083)	-0.269 (0.107)	0.022 (0.085)	-0.199 (0.110)
Age=13 quarters	0.041 (0.090)	-0.282 (0.117)	0.036 (0.093)	-0.197 (0.119)
Age=14 quarters	0.049 (0.097)	-0.299 (0.126)	0.039 (0.100)	-0.211 (0.129)
Age=15 quarters	0.050 (0.105)	-0.303 (0.136)	0.041 (0.108)	-0.205 (0.139)
Product X Quarter FEs	Yes	Yes	Yes	Yes
Subproduct X Quarter FEs	No	No	Yes	Yes
In mean	10.03	9.98	10.01	9.96
N	13054	8689	12749	8407
R2	0.17	0.17	0.22	0.20

Table 7: Barcode life-cycle: log sales-weighted average annual expenditure of new customers

	Log average expenditure of new customers			
	Foreign	Domestic	Foreign	Domestic
Age=2 quarters	0.060 (0.036)	-0.073 (0.046)	0.040 (0.038)	-0.047 (0.051)
Age=3 quarters	0.055 (0.049)	-0.060 (0.064)	0.021 (0.052)	0.013 (0.070)
Age=4 quarters	0.056 (0.065)	-0.021 (0.086)	0.008 (0.070)	0.085 (0.093)
Age=5 quarters	0.033 (0.083)	-0.045 (0.108)	-0.034 (0.088)	0.092 (0.118)
Age=6 quarters	0.022 (0.101)	-0.049 (0.132)	-0.043 (0.108)	0.127 (0.143)
Age=7 quarters	-0.008 (0.120)	-0.077 (0.155)	-0.106 (0.127)	0.122 (0.169)
Age=8 quarters	-0.049 (0.138)	-0.085 (0.179)	-0.153 (0.147)	0.164 (0.196)
Age=9 quarters	0.009 (0.157)	-0.094 (0.203)	-0.119 (0.167)	0.187 (0.222)
Age=10 quarters	-0.031 (0.176)	-0.082 (0.228)	-0.153 (0.187)	0.232 (0.248)
Age=11 quarters	-0.014 (0.194)	-0.159 (0.252)	-0.172 (0.207)	0.206 (0.274)
Age=12 quarters	-0.040 (0.213)	-0.234 (0.276)	-0.216 (0.227)	0.164 (0.301)
Age=13 quarters	-0.001 (0.232)	-0.223 (0.300)	-0.180 (0.247)	0.200 (0.328)
Age=14 quarters	0.019 (0.251)	-0.190 (0.325)	-0.157 (0.267)	0.270 (0.355)
Age=15 quarters	0.040 (0.271)	-0.282 (0.350)	-0.140 (0.288)	0.256 (0.382)
Product X Quarter FEs	Yes	Yes	Yes	Yes
Subproduct X Quarter FEs	No	No	Yes	Yes
In mean	10.04	10.00	9.95	9.91
N	2319	1489	2164	1370
R2	0.31	0.40	0.36	0.43

Table 8: Barcode life-cycle: log sales-weighted average annual expenditure of new customers in Mexico City

	Current barcode consumption						
	All barcodes				New barcodes		
	(1)	(2)	(3)	(4)	(5)	(6)	(7)
Domestic	-0.004 (0.000)	-0.002 (0.000)	-0.002 (0.000)	-0.004 (0.000)	-0.001 (0.000)	-0.000 (0.000)	-0.002 (0.000)
Previous consumption	0.310 (0.001)						
Previous consumption X Domestic	0.075 (0.001)						
Previous brand consumption		0.034 (0.000)			0.010 (0.000)		
Previous brand consumption X Domestic		0.015 (0.000)			0.004 (0.000)		
Previous firm consumption			0.020 (0.000)			0.006 (0.000)	
Previous firm consumption X Domestic			0.018 (0.000)			0.004 (0.000)	
Previous country consumption				0.013 (0.000)			0.003 (0.000)
Previous country consumption X Domestic				0.000 (.)			0.000 (.)
Hhd FEs	Yes	Yes	Yes	Yes	Yes	Yes	Yes
Control mean	0.013	0.007	0.005	0.008	0.004	0.003	0.004
N	3536160	5244456	5244456	5244456	1708296	1708296	1708296
R2	0.13	0.02	0.01	0.00	0.01	0.00	0.00

Table 9: Effect of previous barcode, brand, firm and country exposure on present consumption

Appendix Figures

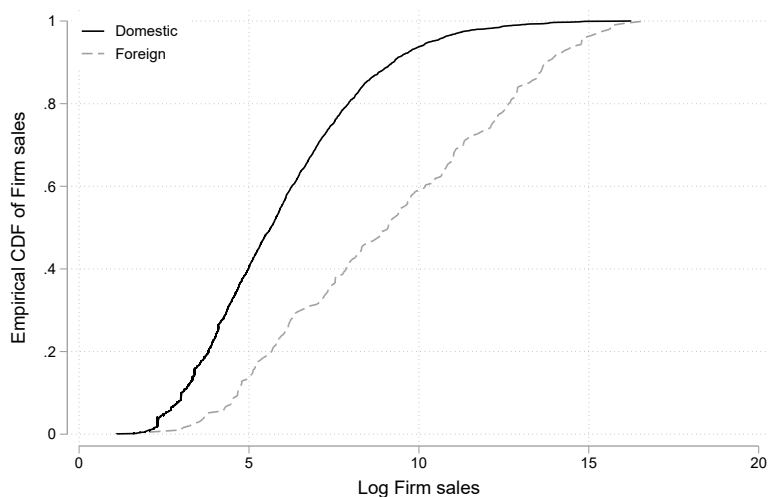


Figure A.1: Firm size distribution

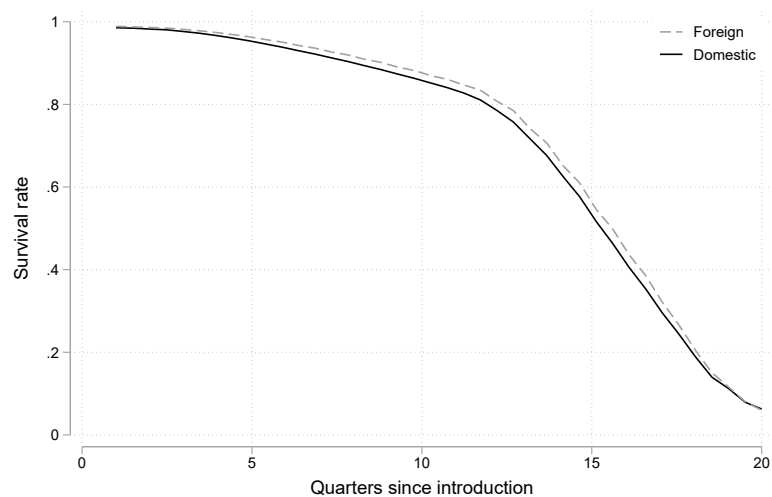


Figure A.2: Survival rate of foreign and domestic products, by quarter

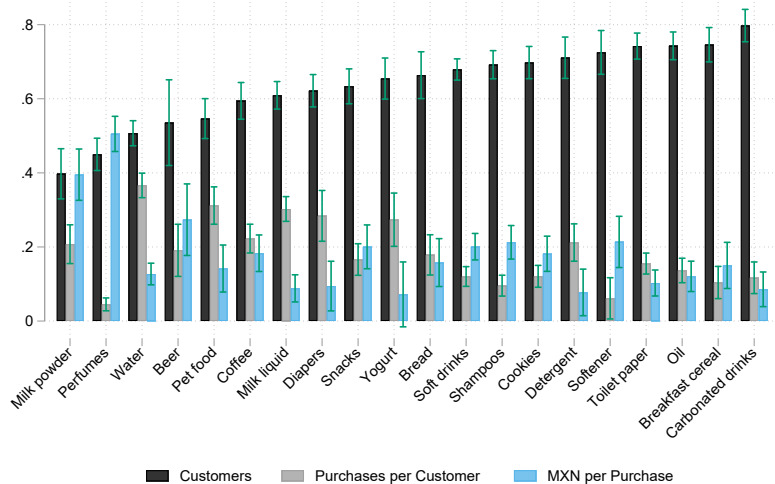


Figure A.3: Customer/Quantity/Value decomposition, by product category

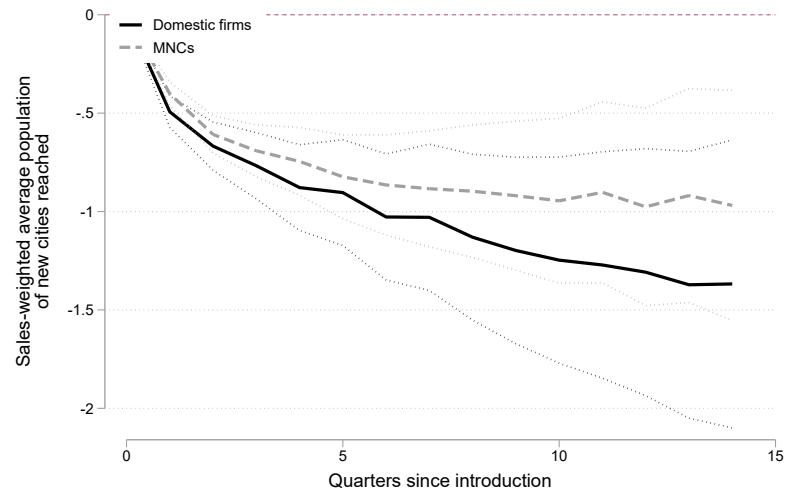


Figure A.4: New cities characteristics, by quarter and product type