Imperfect Competition, Compensating Differentials and Rent Sharing in the U.S. Labor Market

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Abstract

We quantify the importance of imperfect competition in the U.S. labor market by estimating the size of rents earned by American firms and workers from ongoing employment relationships. To this end, we construct a matched employer-employee panel data set by combining the universe of U.S. business and worker tax records for the period 2001-2015. Using this panel data, we identify and estimate an equilibrium model of the labor market with two-sided heterogeneity where workers view firms as imperfect substitutes because of heterogeneous preferences over non-wage job characteristics. The model allows us to draw inference about imperfect competition, compensating differentials and rent sharing. We also use the model to quantify the relevance of non-wage job characteristics and imperfect competition for inequality and tax policy, to assess the economic determinants of worker sorting, and to offer a unifying explanation of key empirical features of the U.S. labor market.

Keywords: Compensating differentials; firm effects; inequality; imperfect competition; monopsony; rent sharing; wage setting; worker sorting

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1 Introduction

How pervasive is imperfect competition in the labor market? Arguably, this question is really about the size of rents earned by employers and workers from ongoing employment relationships (Manning, 2011). In the textbook model of a competitive labor market, the law of one price holds and there should exist a single market compensation for a given quality of a worker, no matter which employer she works for. If labor markets are imperfectly competitive, however, the employer or worker or both may also earn rents from an existing employment relationship. If a worker gets rents, the loss of the current job makes the worker worse off—an identical job cannot be found at zero cost. If an employer gets rents, the employer will be worse off if a worker leaves—the marginal product is above the wage and worker replacement is costly.

To draw inference about imperfect competition in the labor market, it therefore seems natural to measure the size of rents earned by employers and workers. However, these rents are not directly observed, and recovering them from data has proven difficult for several reasons. One challenge is that observationally equivalent workers could be paid differentially because of unobserved skill differences, not imperfect competition (see e.g. Abowd et al., 1999; Gibbons et al., 2005). Another challenge is that observed wages may not necessarily reflect the full compensation that individuals receive from working in a given firm. Indeed, both survey data (e.g., Hamermesh, 1999; Pierce, 2001; Maestas et al., 2018) and experimental studies (e.g., Mas and Pallais, 2017; Wiswall and Zafar, 2017) suggest that workers may be willing to sacrifice higher wages for better non-wage job characteristics or amenities when making firm choices. Thus, firm-specific wage premiums could reflect unfavorable amenities, not imperfect competition.

The primary goal of our paper is to address these challenges and quantify the importance of imperfect competition in the U.S. labor market by estimating the size of rents earned by American firms and workers from ongoing employment relationships. To this end, we construct a matched employer-employee panel data set by combining the universe of U.S. business and worker tax records for the period 2001-2015. Using this panel data, we identify and estimate a model of the labor market that allows us to draw inference about imperfect competition, compensating differentials and rent sharing. We also use the model to quantify the relevance of non-wage job characteristics and imperfect competition for inequality and tax policy, to assess the economic determinants of worker sorting, and to offer a unifying explanation of key empirical features of the U.S. labor market.

In Section 2, we develop the equilibrium model of the labor market. This model builds on work by Rosen (1986), Boal and Ransom (1997), Bhaskar et al. (2002), Manning (2003), and Card et al. (2018). Competitive labor market theory requires firms to be wage takers so that labor supply to the individual firm is perfectly elastic. The evidence that idiosyncratic productivity shocks to a firm transmit to the earnings of its workers is at odds with this theory (see e.g. Guiso et al., 2005). To allow labor supply to be imperfectly elastic, we let employers compete with one another for workers who have heterogeneous preferences over amenities. Since we allow these amenities to be unobserved to the analyst, they can include a wide range of characteristics, such as distance of the firm from the worker’s home, flexibility in the work
schedules, the type of tasks performed, the effort required to perform these tasks, the social environment in the workplace, and so on.\footnote{There is limited empirical evidence on which non-wage characteristics matter the most. However, survey data from Maestas et al. (2018) point to the importance of flexibility in work schedules, the type of tasks performed, and the amount of effort required. The analysis of Marinescu and Rathelot (2018) suggests distance of the firm from the workers’ home may be important.}

The importance of workplace amenities has long been recognized in the theory of compensating differentials (Rosen, 1986). This is a theory of vertical differentiation: some employers offer better amenities than others. Employers that offer favorable amenities attract labor at lower than average wages, whereas employers offering unfavorable amenities pay premiums as offsetting compensation in order to attract labor. Our model combines this vertical differentiation with a horizontal employer differentiation: workers have different preferences over the same workplace amenities. As a result of this preference heterogeneity, the employer faces an upward sloping supply curve for labor, implying wages are an increasing function of firm size. We assume employers do not observe the idiosyncratic taste for amenities of any given worker. This information asymmetry implies employers cannot price discriminate with respect to workers’ reservation values. Instead, if a firm becomes more productive and thus wants to increase its size, the employer needs to offer higher wages to all workers of a given type. As a result, the equilibrium allocation of workers to firms creates surplus or rents to inframarginal workers.

The size of rents depends on the slope of the labor supply curve facing the firm. The steeper the labor supply curve, the more important amenities are for workers’ choices of firms as compared to wages. Therefore, imperfect competition as measured by rents increases in the progressivity of labor income taxes and in the variability of the idiosyncratic taste for amenities. However, the existence of rents does not imply the equilibrium allocation of workers is inefficient. In our model, the market allocation will be inefficient if the firms differ in wage-setting power, and, thus, in the ability to mark down wages relative to the marginal product of labor. To allow for such differences, we let workers view firms as closer substitutes in some markets than others. This structure on the workers’ preferences captures that workplace characteristics are likely to vary systematically across firms depending on location and industry.

In Section 3, we describe the business and worker tax records, which provides us with panel data on the outcomes and characteristics of U.S. firms and workers. The firm data contain information on revenues and expenditures on intermediate inputs as well as industry codes and geographical identifiers. We merge the firm data set with worker tax records, creating the matched employer-employee panel data. The key variables we draw from worker tax returns are the number of employees and their annual earnings at each employer.

In Section 4, we demonstrate how the model is identified from the data. To increase our confidence in the empirical findings from the model, we allow for rich unobserved heterogeneity across workers with respect to preferences and productivity and between firms in terms of technology and amenities. Even so, it is possible to prove identification of the parameters of interest given the panel data of workers and firms. For example, the rents earned by workers can be measured given data on earnings and the elasticity of the labor supply curve specific to the firm. These elasticities can be recovered from estimates of the pass-through of firm shocks.
to incumbent workers’ earnings. As another example, the correlation structure in a worker’s
taste for amenities can be identified by comparing estimates of the pass-through rates of shocks
specific to the firm versus common to the market. Estimates of worker effects, firm effects and
worker sorting allow us to recover the productivity of workers, the compensating differentials
due to the vertical differentiation of firms, and the extent to which preferences for amenities vary
by worker productivity. To determine whether productive workers and firms are complements,
we take advantage of the estimated interaction coefficients between worker and firm effects
recovered from changes in earnings when workers move between employers.

The model yields four key findings that we discuss in Section 6. First, there is a significant
amount of rents and imperfect competition in the U.S. labor market due to horizontal employer
differentiation. Workers are, on average, willing to pay 13 percent of their wages to stay in the
current jobs. Comparing these worker rents to those earned by employers suggests that total
rents are divided relatively equally between firms and workers. Second, the evidence of small firm
effects does not imply that labor markets are competitive or that rents are negligible. Instead,
firm effects are small because productive firms tend to have good amenities, which pushes
down the wages that these firms have to pay. As a result of these compensating differentials,
firms contribute much less to earnings inequality than what is predicted by the variance of
firm productivity only. Third, the primary reason why better workers are sorting into better
firms is production complementarities, not heterogeneous tastes for workplace amenities. These
complementarities are key to explain the significant inequality contribution from worker sorting.
Fourth, the monopsonistic labor market creates significant misallocation of workers to firms. We
estimate that a tax reform which would eliminate labor and tax wedges would increase total
welfare by 5 percent and total output by 3 percent.

The insights from our paper contribute to a large and growing literature on firms and labor
market inequality, reviewed in Card et al. (2018). A number of studies show that trends in
wage dispersion closely track trends in productivity dispersion across industries and workplaces
(Faggio et al., 2010; Dunne et al., 2004; Barth et al., 2016). While this correlation might reflect
that some of the productivity differences across firms spill over to wages, it could also be driven
by changes in the degree to which workers of different quality sort into different firms (see e.g.
Murphy and Topel, 1990; Gibbons and Katz, 1992; Abowd et al., 1999; Gibbons et al., 2005).
To address the sorting issue, a growing body of work has taken advantage of matched employer-
employee data. Some studies use this data to estimate the pass-through of changes in the value
added of a firm to the wages of its workers, while controlling for time-invariant firm and worker
heterogeneity. These studies typically report estimates of pass-through rates in the range of
0.05-0.20. We complement this work by providing evidence of the pass-through rates for a broad

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2See e.g. Guiso et al. (2005), Card et al. (2013), Card et al., 2018, Carlsson et al. (2016), Balke and Lamadon
(2020), and Friedrich et al. (2019). A concern with this approach is that measures of firm productivity may reflect
a number of factors. Some studies have therefore examined the pass-through of specific, observable changes. For
example, Van Reenen (1996) studies how innovation affects firms’ profit and workers’ wages. He also investigated
patents as a source of variation, but found them to be weakly correlated with profits. Building on this insight,
Kline et al. (2019) studies the incidence of patents that are predicted to be valuable. A related literature has
examined the wage and productivity effects of adoption of new technology in firms (see Akerman et al., 2015,
and the references therein).
A set of firms in the U.S. with a variety of empirical approaches, and by showing how the estimated pass-through of firm and market level shocks can be used to draw inferences about imperfect competition, rents, and allocative inefficiency.

Another set of studies use the matched employer-employee data to estimate the additive worker and firm effects wage model proposed by Abowd et al. (1999). We complement this work by extending the Abowd et al. (1999) model to allow for firm-worker interactions and time-varying firm effects, relating firm effects to compensating differentials due to the vertical differentiation of firms, inferring the extent to which preferences for amenities vary by worker productivity, and clarifying the contribution of firm productivity shocks to earnings inequality.

Our paper also relates to a literature that tries to measure the role of compensating differentials for wage-setting and earnings inequality. This literature is reviewed in Taber and Vejlin (2020) and Sorkin (2018). Much of the existing evidence comes from hedonic regressions of earnings on one or more observable non-wage characteristics of jobs, employers, or industries, interpreting the regression coefficients as the market prices of those amenities. Typical estimates of these coefficients are small in magnitude and sometimes of the wrong sign (Bonhomme and Jolivet, 2009). However, these estimates could be severely biased, either due to correlations between observed amenities and unobserved firm characteristics or because of assortative matching (on unobservables) between workers and firms (see e.g. the discussion in Ekeland et al., 2004). Several recent studies have used panel data in an attempt to address these concerns. Like us, Taber and Vejlin (2020), Lavetti and Schmutte (2017), and Sorkin (2018) take advantage of matched longitudinal employer-employee data to allow for unobserved heterogeneity across firms.

Our paper differs from the existing literature on compensating differentials in several ways. One important difference is that amenities, in our model, create both vertical and horizontal employer differentiation. The latter generates imperfect competition, wage-setting power and rents; the former acts as standard compensating differentials. By comparison, compensating differentials have typically been analyzed in models with perfect competition or search frictions (see e.g. Mortensen, 2003). Our paper also allows for ex-ante worker heterogeneity in productivity and preferences which generates sorting between firms and workers, in contrast to, for example, Sorkin (2018). Our estimates suggest that worker heterogeneity and sorting are empirically important features of the U.S. labor market which are necessary to take into account to understand the determinants of earnings inequality. By taking our model to the data, we are able to quantify the relative importance of amenities versus production complementarities for worker sorting and earnings inequality. Lastly, our paper differs in that we move beyond the impact of amenities on wages and worker sorting, examining also the implications for tax policy and allocative efficiency. In our model, wages are taxed but the (idiosyncratic taste for) ameni-

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3Song et al. (2018) and Sorkin (2018) provide estimates using the approach of Abowd et al. (1999) for the U.S. A recent literature addresses the concern that estimates of firm effects will be biased upward and estimates of worker sorting will be biased downward when using the approach of Abowd et al. (1999) due to limited worker mobility across firms. Our main estimates use the bias-correction approach of Bonhomme et al. (2019) while alternative bias-correction approaches by Andrews et al. (2008) and Kline et al. (2020) are considered in our Online Supplement. See Bonhomme et al. (2020) for a comparison of bias-correction procedures using data from various countries.
ties are not. Thus, progressive taxation on labor income may distort the worker’s decision of which firm and market to work in. We analyze, theoretically and empirically, the consequences of this distortion and how changes in the tax system may help improve the allocation of workers to firms.\footnote{Tax theory in the Mirrlees (1971) tradition generally assumes the labor markets are perfectly competitive. A notable exception is Cahuc and Laroque (2014) who develop a model for optimal taxation under monopsonistic markets. See also Powell and Shan (2012) and Powell (2012) who argue that marginal tax rates distort the relative value of amenities to wages. There is also a literature that considers tax design in situations with search frictions. See Yazici and Sleet (2017) and the references therein.}

2 Model of the labor market

This section develops a model of the labor market where employers compete with one another for workers who have heterogeneous preferences over non-wage job characteristics or amenities.

2.1 Agents, preferences and technology

The economy is composed of a large number of workers indexed by $i$ and a large set of firms indexed by $j = 1, \ldots, J$. Each firm belongs to a market $r(j)$. Let $J_r$ denote the set of firms in market $r$. We will rely on the approximation that firms employ many workers and that each market has many firms. For tractability, we assume that workers, firms and markets face exogenous birth-death processes which ensure stationarity in the productivity distributions of workers, firms and markets.

Worker productivity and preferences

Workers are heterogeneous both in preferences and productivity. Workers are characterized by a permanent skill $X_i$. In period $t$, worker $i$ with skill $X_i$ has the following preferences over alternative firms $j$ and earnings $W$:

$$u_{it}(j, W) = \log \tau W^\lambda + \log G_j(X_i) + \beta^{-1} \epsilon_{ijt}$$

where $G_j(X)$ denotes the value that workers of quality $X$ are expected to get from the amenities that firm $j$ offers, and $\epsilon_{ijt}$ denotes worker $i$’s idiosyncratic taste for the amenities of firm $j$. The parameters $(\tau, \lambda)$ describe the tax function that maps wages to income available for consumption. Subsection 5.3 shows that this parsimonious tax function well-approximates the US tax system.

This specification of preferences allows for the possibility that workers view firms as imperfect substitutes. Fixing worker quality $X$, the preference term $G_j(X)$ gives rise to vertical employer differentiation: some employers offer good amenities while other employers have bad amenities. Our preference specification combines this vertical differentiation with horizontal employer differentiation: workers are heterogeneous in their preferences over the same firm. This horizontal differentiation has two distinct sources. The first is that $G_j(X)$ varies freely across values of $X$. Thus, we permit systematic heterogeneity in the preferences for a given firm depending on the permanent component of worker productivity. The second is the idiosyncratic taste component $\epsilon_{ijt}$. The importance of this second source of horizontal differentiation is governed by the
parameter $\beta$, which tells us the variability across workers in the idiosyncratic taste for a given firm. Formally, this parameter is proportional to the inverse of the standard deviation of $\epsilon_{ijt}$ in log-dollars.

We assume that $(\epsilon_{i1t}, \ldots, \epsilon_{ijt}) \equiv \tilde{\epsilon}_{it} \sim \Xi(\tilde{\epsilon}_{it-1}, X_i)$ follows a Markov process with independent innovations across individuals with the same productivity $X$. This assumption does not imply strong restrictions on the copula (and, by extension, the patterns of mobility by worker quality) over time. We assume, however, that the (cross-sectional) distribution of $\tilde{\epsilon}_{it}$ has a nested logit structure in each period:

$$F(\tilde{\epsilon}_{it}) = \exp \left[ -\sum_r \left( \sum_{j \in J_r} e^{-\epsilon_{ijt} \rho_r} \right)^{\frac{1}{\rho_r}} \right].$$

This structure allows the preferences of a given worker to be correlated across alternatives within each nest. In the empirical analysis, we specify the nest as the combination of industry and region, and refer to it as a market. The parameter $\rho_r$ measures the degree of independence in a worker’s taste for the alternative firms within market $r$, i.e. $\rho_r = \sqrt{1 - \text{corr}(\epsilon_{ijt}, \epsilon_{ij't})}$ if $r(j) = r(j') = r$. Thus, $\rho_r = 0$ if each worker views firms within the same market as perfect substitutes, while $\rho_r = 1$ if the worker views these firms as completely independent alternatives.

**Firm productivity and technology**

Importantly, we let firms differ not only in workplace amenities but also in terms of productivity and technology. We start by introducing the total efficiency units of labor at the firm:

$$L_{jt} = \int X^{\theta_j} \cdot D_{jt}(X) dX,$$

where $X^{\theta_j}$ tells us the efficiency of a worker of quality $X$ in firm $j$. The component $D_{jt}(X)$ is the mass of workers with productivity $X$ demanded by the firm.

The revenues $Y_{jt}$ generated by firm $j$ in period $t$ is determined by the production function

$$Y_{jt} = A_{jt} L_{jt}^{1-\alpha_{r(j)}}$$

where $A_{jt}$ is the firm’s productivity (TFP), and $1 - \alpha_{r(j)}$ is the market-specific returns to scale that depends on the total efficiency units of labor (reflecting both the quality and quantity of labor). This specification of the revenue production function abstracts from capital, or equivalently, assumes that capital can be rented at some fixed price. However, the specification does not require the product market to be competitive. As shown in Online Appendix A.5, it is possible to derive the same specification of the revenue production function (and, by extension, labor demand) if firms have price-setting power in the product market.

It is useful to express the productivity component $A_{jt}$ as:

$$A_{jt} = \overline{A}_{r(j)t} \hat{A}_{jt} = \overline{P}_{r(j)} \overline{Z}_{r(j)t} \hat{P}_j \hat{Z}_{jt}$$

where $\overline{A}_{r(j)t}$, $\overline{P}_{r(j)}$, and $\overline{Z}_{r(j)t}$ represent the overall, the permanent and the time-varying components of productivity that are shared by all firms in market $r$, while $\hat{A}_{jt}$, $\hat{P}_j$ and $\hat{Z}_{jt}$ de-
note the overall, the permanent and the time-varying components that are specific to firm \( j \). Let \( W_{jt}(X) \) denote the wage that firm \( j \) offers to workers of quality \( X \) in period \( t \) and \( B_{jt} = \int W_{jt}(X)D_{jt}(X)dX \) denote the wage bill of the firm, i.e. the total sum of wages paid to its workers. The profit of the firm is then given by \( \Pi_{jt} = Y_{jt} - B_{jt} \).

### 2.2 Information, wages and equilibrium

We consider an environment where all labor is hired in a spot market and \( \epsilon_{ijt} \) is private information to the worker. Hence, the wage may depend on the worker’s attributes \( X \), but not her value of \( \epsilon_{ijt} \). Given the set of offered wages \( W_t = \{W_{jt}(X)\}_{j=1,...,J} \) by all firms, worker \( i \) chooses a firm \( j \) to maximize her utility \( u_{it} \) in each period:

\[
j(i,t) = \arg \max_j u_{it}(j, W_{jt}(X_i)).
\]  

(1)

We introduce a wage index at the level of the market \( r \) defined by:

\[
I_{rt}(X) = \left( \sum_{j \in J_r} \left( \tau^{1/\lambda} G_{j}(X)^{1/\lambda} W_{jt}(X) \right) \right)^{\lambda/\rho_{rj}}
\]

from which we can derive the probability that an individual of type \( X \) chooses to work at firm \( j \) given all offered wages in the economy:

\[
Pr[j(i,t)=j|X_t=X,W_t] = \frac{(I_{r(j)t}(X))^{\lambda\beta}}{\sum_{j' \in J_t} I_{r(j')t}(X)^{\lambda\beta}} \left( \frac{\tau^{1/\lambda} G_{j}(X)^{1/\lambda} W_{jt}(X)}{I_{r(j)t}(X)} \right)^{\lambda/\rho_{rj}}.
\]

We consider an equilibrium where the firm views itself as infinitesimal within the market.\(^5\) Thus, given the total mass of workers \( N \) and the stationary cross-sectional distributions of \( X \), \( M_X(X) \), employer \( j \) considers the following firm-specific labor supply curve when setting wages \( W_{jt}(X) \):

\[
S_{jt}(X,W) = NM_X(X) \frac{(I_{r(j)t}(X))^{\lambda\beta}}{\sum_{j' \in J_t} I_{r(j')t}(X)^{\lambda\beta}} \left( \frac{\tau^{1/\lambda} G_{j}(X)^{1/\lambda} W}{I_{r(j)t}(X)} \right)^{\lambda/\rho_{rj}}.
\]

This means the firm ignores the negligible effect of changing its own wages on the market level wage index \( I_{rt}(X) \). Then each firm chooses labor demand \( D_{jt}(X) \) by setting wages \( W_{jt}(X) \) for each type of worker \( X \) to maximize profits subject to labor supply \( S_{jt}(X,W) \):

\[
\Pi_{jt} = \max_{\{W_{jt}(X)\}_X} A_{jt} \left( \int X^{\theta_j} D_{jt}(X)dX \right)^{1-\alpha_{r(j)}} - \int W_{jt}(X)D_{jt}(X)dX
\]

s.t. \( D_{jt}(X)=S_{jt}(X,W_{jt}(X)) \) for all \( t,j,X \)

(3)

From this environment, the definition of equilibrium naturally follows:

**Definition 1.** Given firm characteristics \( (\alpha_{r(j)}, A_{jt}, \theta_j)_{j,t} \), worker distributions \( N, M_X(\cdot) \), preference parameters \( (\beta, \rho_r, G_j(\cdot)) \) and tax parameters \( (\lambda, \tau) \), we define the equilibrium as the

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\(^5\)See Berger et al. (2019) for an analysis of strategic interactions in the firms’ wage setting. See also Jarosch et al. (2019), who develop a search framework with large firms.
worker decisions $j(i,t)$, market level wage indices $I_{rt}(X)$, firm-specific labor supply curves $S_{jt}(X,W)$, wages $W_{jt}(X)$ and labor demand $D_{jt}(X)$ such that:

i. Workers choose firms that maximize their utility, as defined in equation (1).

ii. Firms choose labor demand $D_{jt}(X)$ by setting wages $W_{jt}(X)$ for each worker quality $X$ to maximize profits subject to the labor supply constraint $S_{jt}(X,W)$, as described in equation (3).

iii. The market level wage indices $I_{rt}(X)$ are generated from the workers’ optimal decisions $j(i,t)$, as described in equation (2).

In Lemma 2 in Online Appendix A.1, we show the uniqueness of the equilibrium which proves useful in the estimation of the model and is needed for the counterfactual analysis.

2.3 Sorting in equilibrium

To understand how workers may sort in our model, it is important to restrict the relationship between amenities $G_{j}(X)$, permanent productivity components $(\bar{P}_{r(j)}, \tilde{P}_{j})$, and technology $(\theta_{j}, \alpha_{r(j)})$. As a result, our model permits multiple sources of systematic sorting of worker quality and firm productivity in equilibrium.

One source of sorting is that we allow workers of different quality $X$ to be differentially productive across different firms $j$. In particular, if more productive firms have greater (lower) $\theta$ in the production function, the marginal product of high quality workers is relatively high (low) at more productive firms, so that worker quality and firm productivity are complements (substitutes) in production. Empirically, we will find evidence that more productive firms have greater $\theta$ and, therefore, conclude that worker quality is complementary with firm productivity. Thus, firms with high productivity offer relatively high wages to workers with high $X$, which contributes to a disproportionate employment of high ability workers in productive firms.

A second source of systematic worker sorting is captured by the amenity term $G_{j}(X)$ in the preference specification. This specification allows the valuation of the amenities of a given firm to vary freely across worker quality $X$, and it allows the valuation of amenities for a given worker quality $X$ to vary freely across firms. Empirically, we will find that productive firms tend to have better amenities, and that high ability workers tend to value amenities more than low ability workers. This contributes to a disproportionate employment of high quality workers in productive firms.

When assessing the sorting patterns, it is important to observe that our model does not imply that the most productive firms (either in terms of $A$ or $\theta$) hire all workers (in total or of a given quality $X$) in the economy. One reason for this is we find that the labor supply curve is upward-sloping ($\beta < \infty$), so the marginal cost of labor is increasing in the number of workers. Another reason is that we find that firms face diminishing returns to scale in labor ($1 - \alpha_{r} < 1$), which implies that the marginal product of labor is decreasing in the number of workers.

2.4 Structural equations

As shown in Proposition 1 in Online Appendix A.1, our model delivers the following structural equations for wages, value added and wage bill for firm $j \in J_r$: 

where we use lower case letters to denote logs (e.g. \( x \equiv \log X \)), \( c_r \) is a market-specific constant that is equal to \( \log \left( \frac{(1-\alpha_r)\lambda \beta / \rho_r}{1+\alpha_r \lambda \beta / \rho_r} \right) \), and \( h_j \) is the solution to a fixed point equation that involves all firms’ amenity terms (see Lemma 3 in Online Appendix A.1). These equations describe how the potential outcomes of workers and firms are determined, that is, they tell us the realization of \( w_j(x) \), \( b_j \), and \( y_j \) that would have been experienced had worker productivity \( x \), firm TFP \( \tilde{a} \) and market TFP \( \tilde{\pi} \) been exogenously set. Note that these potential outcomes depend on time implicitly through time variation in firm and market TFP.

The equations in (4)-(6) show that \( w_j(x, \tilde{\pi}, \tilde{a}) \), \( b_j(\tilde{\pi}, \tilde{a}) \), and \( y_j(\tilde{\pi}, \tilde{a}) \) depend on the same four components: the constant \( c_r \), the component of productivity that is specific to the firm \( \tilde{a} \), the component of productivity that is common to firms in the same market \( \tilde{\pi} \), and an amenity component \( h_j \). Comparing the wage equation to the other structural equations, we see that \( w_j(x, \tilde{\pi}, \tilde{a}) \) also depends on the worker’s own productivity \( x \). Moreover, workers with the same productivity are paid differentially depending on the firm-specific parameter \( \theta_j \). As expected, if a firm \( j \) becomes more productive (\( \tilde{a} \) or \( \tilde{\pi} \) increase) then \( y_j(\tilde{\pi}, \tilde{a}) \) increases. Because firm \( j \) has become more productive, it will demand more labor, raising \( w_j(x, \tilde{\pi}, \tilde{a}) \) and \( b_j(\tilde{\pi}, \tilde{a}) \).

Combining the structural equations (4)-(6), we also obtain the log efficiency units of labor,

\[
\ell_j(\tilde{a}, \tilde{\pi}) = h_j + \frac{\lambda \beta}{(1 + \alpha_r \lambda \beta)} \tilde{\pi} + \frac{\lambda \beta / \rho_r}{1 + \alpha_r \lambda \beta / \rho_r} \tilde{a}
\]

(7)

where \( h_j \) can be interpreted as the efficiency units of labor the firm would have if \( \tilde{a} \) and \( \tilde{\pi} \) were exogenously set to zero. This “TFP-neutral” notion of the total efficiency of labor depends on the quality and quantify of the workforce, which can be seen by decomposing \( h_j \) as,

\[
h_j = \log \mathbb{E}_{\tilde{\pi}_j} \left[ X_j^{\theta_j(i,t)} | j(i,t) = j \right] + \overline{G}_j
\]

The component \( \overline{G}_j \) is a weighted average of the \( X \)-specific amenities of firm \( j \). It captures the vertical differentiation of firms. All else equal, a greater \( \overline{G}_j \) raises the size of the firm, thus increasing its wage bill and value added. At the same time, better amenities push down the wages that these firms have to pay their workers, lowering \( w_j(x) \). The other component of \( h_j \) is the average quality of the workers in the firm \( \bar{x}_j \), reflecting sorting of workers to firms. If \( G_j(X) \) increases by the same rate for each \( X \) in a given firm \( j \), then \( \bar{G}_j \) increases while \( \bar{\pi}_j \) is unaffected. Hence, \( \bar{x}_j \) captures that some firms may have relatively good amenities for some worker types. All else equal, better co-workers raise the total labor efficiency of the firm’s workforce. With decreasing return to scale in labor \( (1 - \alpha_{r(j)} < 1) \), this also lowers the wages that firm \( j \) pays to a given worker.
Another important feature of the structural equations (4)-(6) is that they are log additive in the arguments $\theta_j, x_j, h_j, \bar{a}$. This log additivity is useful for several reasons. First, it makes it straightforward to quantify the relative importance of the determinants of worker and firm outcomes. Second, it forges a direct link between the structural wage equation and the fixed effect models discussed in Section 5.4. This link will help interpret the sources of variation in log earnings through the lens of the model. Third, it makes it possible to prove identification of the parameters of the model, as shown in Section 4.

2.5 Rents, compensating differentials, and allocative inefficiencies

We conclude the presentation of the model by defining the rents that workers and employers earn from ongoing employment relationships and explaining how these quantities relate to reservation wages, compensating differentials, and allocative inefficiencies.

Worker rents

In our model, rents are due to the idiosyncratic taste component $\epsilon_{ijt}$ that gives rise to horizontal differentiation of firms, upward sloping labor supply curves, and employer wage-setting power. We assumed that employers do not observe the idiosyncratic taste for amenities of any given worker. This information asymmetry implies that firms cannot price-discriminate with respect to workers’ reservation wages. As a result, the equilibrium allocation of workers to firms creates surpluses or rents for inframarginal workers, defined as the excess return over that required to change a decision, as in Rosen (1986). In our model, worker rents may exist at both the firm and the market level:

**Result 1.** We define the **firm level rents** of worker $i$, $R_{w}^{i}$, as the surplus she derives from being inframarginal at her current choice of firm. Given her equilibrium choice $j(i,t)$, $R_{w}^{i}$ is implicitly defined by:

$$u_{it}(j(i,t), W_{j(i,t),t}(X_i) - R_{w}^{i}) = \max_{j' \neq j(i,t)} u_{it}(j', W_{j',t}(X_i)).$$

As shown in Lemma 4 in Online Appendix A.2, expected worker rents at the firm level are:

$$\mathbb{E}[R_{w}^{i}|j(i,t)=j] = \frac{1}{1 + \lambda \beta / \rho_{r(j)}} \mathbb{E}[W_{jt}(X_i)|j(i,t)=j].$$

**Result 2.** We define the **market level rents** of worker $i$, $R_{wm}^{i}$, as the surplus derived from being inframarginal at her current choice of market. Given her equilibrium choice of market $r(j(i,t))$, $R_{wm}^{i}$ is implicitly defined by:

$$u_{it}(j(i,t), W_{j(i,t),t}(X_i) - R_{wm}^{i}) = \max_{j' | r(j') \neq r(j(i,t))} u_{it}(j', W_{j',t}(X_i)).$$

As shown in Lemma 4 in Online Appendix A.2, expected worker rents at the market level are:

$$\mathbb{E}[R_{wm}^{i}|j(i,t)=j] = \frac{1}{1 + \lambda \beta} \mathbb{E}[W_{jt}(X_i)|j(i,t)=j].$$
Market level rents exceed firm level rents whenever the next best firm is in the same market as the current choice of firm. If the preferences of a given worker are independent across firms within each market, then the next best firm will almost surely be in a different market. If, on the other hand, these preferences are correlated then there could well exist other firms within the same market that are close substitutes to the current firm. The next best firm may then be in the same market as the current choice of firm, in which case $R_{it}^{w}$ will exceed $R_{it}^{w}$.

To interpret the measure of firm level rents and link it to compensating differentials, it is useful to express $R_{it}^{w}$ in terms of reservation wages. The worker’s reservation wage for her current choice of firm is defined as the lowest wage at which she would be willing to continue working in this firm. Substituting in preferences in the above definition of $R_{it}^{w}$ for a worker whose current firm is $j$ and next best option is $j'$, it follows that:

$$
\log W_{j(t),t}^{j}(X_{i}) - \log \left(W_{j(t),t}^{j}(X_{i}) - R_{it}^{w}\right) = \log W_{j(t),t}^{j}(X_{i}) - \log W_{j',t}^{j'}(X_{i}) + \log \left(G_{j(t)}^{1/\lambda}(X_{i})e^{\frac{1}{\lambda}\epsilon_{j,j',t,t,X_{i}}} - G_{j'(t)}^{1/\lambda}(X_{i})e^{\frac{1}{\lambda}\epsilon_{j',j',t,t,X_{i}}}ight)
$$

The average worker choosing firm $j$ may be far from the margin of indifference and would maintain the same choice even if her current firm offered significantly lower wages. The same holds true for the average worker choosing any other firm. The difference between the reservation wage and the actual wage is the rent earned by a person at her current choice of firm.

**Compensating differentials**

By definition, marginal workers are indifferent between the current choice of firm and the next best option. They earn no rents as their reservation wages equal the actual wages paid by their current firms. By solving for reservation wages among marginal workers, it becomes clear that equilibrium wage differentials are informative about the preferences for amenities of these marginal workers. Another way of saying this is that the equilibrium allocation of workers to firms is such that utility gains (or losses) of marginal workers due to the amenities of their firms are exactly offset by wage differentials. Thus, wage differentials across firms for the same worker define the equalizing or compensating differentials:

**Result 3.** Consider worker $i$ of type $X$ whose current firm is $j$ and best outside option is $j'$ and who is marginal at the current firm (that is, $R_{it}^{w} = 0$). The **compensating differential** between $j$ and $j'$ for a worker of type $X$ is then defined as,

$$
CD_{j,j't}(X) = u_{it}(j',W_{jt}(X)) - u_{it}(j,W_{jt}(X)) = \log W_{j't}(X) - \log W_{jt}(X) = (\theta_{j'} - \theta_{j}) x + \psi_{j't} - \psi_{jt}
$$

where the second equality comes the fact that worker $i$ is marginal, and the last equality follows.
from equation (4) and defining the firm effect $\psi_{jt}$ as,

$$\psi_{jt} \equiv c_r - \alpha_r h_j + \frac{1}{1 + \alpha_r \lambda \beta^r_{r(j,t)}} + \frac{1}{1 + \alpha_r \lambda \beta^r_{r,j,t}} \tilde{a}_{jt} \quad (8)$$

For any two firms $j$ and $j'$, there exists a distribution of compensating differentials. This distribution arises because of differences in technology across firms. If $\theta_j$ does not vary across firms, there is only one compensating differential per employer. It is given by the firm effect $\psi_{jt}$, which is paid to all workers independent of their productivity.

**Employer rents**

The equilibrium allocation of workers to firms may also create surpluses or rents for employers. The employer rents arise because of the additional profit the firm can extract by taking advantage of its wage-setting power. To measure employer rents, we therefore compare the profit $\Pi_{jt}$ the firm actually earns to what it would have earned if the employer solved the firm’s problem under the assumption that the labor supply it faced was perfectly elastic. In other words, wages, profits and employment are such that $D_{pt}^{jt}(X)$ solves the firm’s profit maximization given $W_{pt}^{jt}(X)$:

$$\Pi_{jt}^{pt} = \max_{\{D_{pt}^{jt}(X)\}_X} A_{jt} \left( \int X^{\theta_{jt}} \cdot D_{jt}^{pt}(X) dX \right)^{1-\alpha_r(j,t)} - \int D_{jt}^{pt}(X) \cdot W_{jt}^{pt}(X) dX,$$

s.t. $S_{jt}(X,W_{jt}^{pt}(X))=D_{jt}^{pt}(X)$ for all $t,j,X$

The only difference in the firm’s problem in this counterfactual environment is that the firm does not take into account its wage-setting power through the upward-sloping labor supply curve. In other words, the firm behaves as if it faces a perfectly elastic labor supply curve, i.e. as if it was a “price taker”; thus the superscript pt. Similarly we define $W_{jt}^{ptm}(X)$, $D_{jt}^{ptm}(X)$, and $\Pi_{jt}^{ptm}$ as the equilibrium outcome when all firms in a market act as price takers.

**Result 4.** We define the employer rents at the firm level $R_{jt}^{f}$ and at market level $R_{jt}^{fm}$ as the additional profit that firm $j$ in market $r$ derives from the presence of inframarginal workers:

$$R_{jt}^{f} = \Pi_{jt} - \Pi_{jt}^{pt} = \left( 1 - \frac{\alpha_r (\rho_r + \lambda \beta)}{\rho_r + \alpha_r \lambda \beta} \left( \frac{\lambda \beta}{\rho_r + \lambda \beta} \right)^{\frac{(1-\alpha_r)\lambda \beta}{\rho_r + \alpha_r \lambda \beta}} \right) \Pi_{jt}$$

$$R_{jt}^{fm} = \Pi_{jt} - \Pi_{jt}^{ptm} = \left( 1 - \frac{\alpha_r (\rho_r + \lambda \beta)}{\rho_r + \alpha_r \lambda \beta} \left( \frac{\lambda \beta}{\rho_r + \lambda \beta} \right)^{\frac{(1-\alpha_r)\lambda \beta}{1+\alpha_r \lambda \beta}} \right) \Pi_{jt}$$

where the latter equality in each equation is shown in Lemmas 5 and 6 in Online Appendix A.3.

To understand how and why employer rents may differ at the firm and the market level, recall that $\rho_r$ measures the degree of independence in a worker’s taste for the alternative firms within market $r$. If $\rho_r = 1$, the worker views these firms as completely independent alternatives, and the rents at the firm level equals the rents at the market level. In contrast, if $\rho_r = 0$ then
each worker views firms within the same market as perfect substitutes. In this case, firms do
not get any rents from imperfect competition at either the firm or the market level. For values
of $\rho$ between 0 and 1, the rents at the market level will strictly exceed the rents at the firm level.

It is important to observe that $R_{jt}^f$ and $R_{jt}^{fm}$ do not necessarily represent ex-ante rents.
Suppose, for example, that each employer initially chooses the amenities offered to the workers
by deciding on the firm’s location, the working conditions, or both. Next, the employers compete
with one another for the workers who have heterogeneous preferences over the chosen amenities.
These heterogeneous preferences give rise to wage-setting power which employers can use to
extract additional profits or rents. Of course, the existence of such ex-post rents could simply
be returns to costly choices of amenities.

Empirically, it is difficult to credibly distinguish between ex-ante and ex-post employer rents.
It would require information (or assumptions) about how firms choose and pay for the amenities
offered to workers. Given our data, we are severely limited in the ability to distinguish between
ex-ante and ex-post rents. Instead, we assume firms are endowed with a fixed set of amenities,
or, more precisely, we restrict amenities to be fixed over the estimation window. It is important
to note what is not restricted under this assumption. First, it does not restrict whether or how
amenities $G_j(X)$ relate to the technology parameters $a_{r(j)}$, $\theta_j$ or the productivity components
$\hat{P}_j$, $T_{r(j)}$. Second, it neither imposes nor precludes that employers initially choose amenities to
maximize profits. Indeed, it is straightforward to show that permitting firms to initially choose
amenities would not affect any of our estimates. Nor would it matter for the interpretation of
any result other than whether $R_{jt}^f$ and $R_{jt}^{fm}$ should be viewed as ex-ante or ex-post rents.

Wedges and allocative inefficiencies

We conclude the model section by investigating the questions of whether and in what situations
the equilibrium allocation of workers to firms will be inefficient. We here present the key
results, and refer to Online Appendix A.4 for details and derivations. To draw conclusions about
allocative inefficiencies, we compare the allocation and outcomes in the monopsonistic labor
market to those that would arise in a competitive (Walrasian) labor market. By a competitive
market, we mean that there are no taxes ($\lambda = \tau = 1$) and that all firms act as price takers, as if
they faced perfectly elastic labor supply curves. This comparison allows us to draw inferences
about allocative inefficiencies within and between markets.

Within each market, there is a tax wedge that arises because $\lambda < 1$. It is the only source
of allocative inefficiency, distorting the worker’s ranking of firms in favor of those with better
amenities. As a result, firms with better amenities can hire workers at relatively low wages,
and, therefore, get too many workers as compared to the allocation in the competitive labor
market. Between markets, allocative inefficiencies may arise not only because of the tax wedge
but also due to differences in labor wedges across markets. To understand the latter source of
inefficiencies, consider the special case when $\lambda = 1$, $\beta > 0$ and $\rho_r$ is non-zero but the same across
all markets. In this case, taxes are proportional but there are still labor wedges and rents in
the economy. However, the labor wedges will be the same across all markets. As a consequence,
the monopsonistic market allocation of workers to firms is identical to the allocation one would
obtain in the competitive equilibrium. A corollary of this result is that tax wedges are the only source of allocative inefficiencies if one assumes a standard logit structure on the distribution of $\bar{\epsilon}_{it}$ (as in, for example, Card et al., 2018).

With the nested logit structure on the distribution of $\bar{\epsilon}_{it}$, allocative inefficiencies across markets may arise because $\rho_r$ can vary across markets, implying that workers may view firms as closer substitutes in some markets than others. This will create differences across markets in the wage-setting power of firms, and so in their abilities to mark down wages. Markets facing an elastic labor supply curve (i.e. low value of $\rho_r$) will have relatively high wages and, as a result, attract too many workers compared to the allocation in the competitive equilibrium. Progressive taxation will amplify any differences in $\rho_r$ across markets, leading to an even larger misallocation of workers to firms.

To improve the allocation of workers to firms, the government can change the tax system in two ways. First, a less progressive tax system (i.e. increase $\lambda$) may reduce the misallocation that arises from the tax wedge. Second, letting $\tau$ vary across markets may improve the allocation of workers by counteracting differences in the wage-setting power of firms. After estimating the parameters of the model, we perform counterfactuals that quantify the impacts of such tax reforms on the equilibrium allocation and outcomes, including earnings, output and welfare. In interpreting these results, it is important to note that we assume firms initially choose amenities $G_j(X)$, but do not change $G_j(X)$ in response to counterfactuals. With better data on, and an instrument for, amenities, it would be interesting to extend this analysis to allow for firms to adjust amenities in response to these counterfactuals.

3 Data sources and sample selection

3.1 Data sources

Our empirical analyses are based on a matched employer-employee panel data set with information on the characteristics and outcomes of U.S. workers and firms. This data is constructed by linking U.S. Treasury business tax filings with worker-level filings for the years 2001-2015. Below, we briefly describe data sources, sample selection, and key variables, while details about data construction and the definition of each of the variables are given in Online Appendix B.

Business tax returns include balance sheet and other information from Forms 1120 (C-corporations), 1120S (S-corporations), and 1065 (partnerships). The key variables that we draw on from the business tax filings are the firm’s employer identification number (EIN) and its value added, commuting zone, and industry code. Value added is the difference between receipts and the cost of goods sold. Commuting zone is constructed using the ZIP code of the firm’s business filing address. Industry is defined as the first two digits of the firm’s NAICS code. In our baseline specification, we define a market as the combination of an industry and a commuting zone, with alternative market definitions provided in sensitivity checks. We will occasionally aggregate these markets into “broad markets” according to the combination of Census regions (Midwest, Northeast, South, and West) and broad sectors (Goods and Services).

Earnings data are based on taxable remuneration for labor services reported on Form W-2
for direct employees and on Form 1099 for independent contractors. Earnings include wages and salaries, bonuses, tips, exercised stock options, and other sources of income deemed taxable by the IRS. These forms are filed by the firm on behalf of the worker and provide the firm-worker link. All monetary variables are expressed in 2015 dollars, adjusting for inflation using the CPI.

### 3.2 Sample selection

In each year, we start with all individuals aged 25–60 who are linked to at least one employer. Next, we define the worker’s firm as the EIN that pays her the greatest direct (W-2) earnings in that year. This definition of a firm conforms to previous research using the U.S. business tax records (see, e.g., Song et al., 2018). The EIN defines a corporate unit for tax and accounting purposes. It is a more aggregated concept than an establishment, which is the level of analysis considered in recent research on U.S. Census data (see, e.g., Barth et al., 2016), but a less aggregated concept than a parent corporation. As a robustness check, we investigated the sensitivity of the estimated firm wage premiums to restricting the sample to EINs that appear to have a single primary establishment. These are EINs for which the majority of workers live in the same commuting zone. It is reassuring to find that the estimated firm wage premiums do not materially change when we use this restricted sample.

Since we do not observe hours worked or a direct measure of full-time employment, we follow the literature by including only workers for whom annual earnings are above a minimum threshold (see, e.g., Song et al., 2018). In the baseline specification, this threshold is equal to $15,000 per year (in 2015 dollars), which is approximately what people would earn if they worked full-time at the federal minimum wage. As a robustness check presented in our Online Supplement, we investigate the sensitivity of our results to other choices of a minimum earnings threshold.\(^6\) We further restrict the sample to firms with non-missing value added, commuting zone, and industry. The full sample includes 447.5 (39.2) million annual observations on 89.6 (6.5) million unique workers (firms).

In parts of the analysis, we consider two distinct subsamples. The first subsample, which we refer to as the *stayers sample*, restricts the full sample to workers observed with the same employer for eight consecutive years. This restriction is needed to allow for a flexible specification of how the worker’s earnings evolve over time. Specifically, we omit the first and last years of these spells (to avoid concerns over workers exiting and entering employment during the year, confounding the measure of annual earnings) and analyze the remaining six-year spells. Furthermore, the stayers sample is restricted to employers that do not change commuting zone or industry during those eight years. Lastly, we restrict the stayers sample to firms with at least 10 such stayers and markets with at least 10 such firms, which helps to ensure sufficient sample size to perform the analyses at both the firm and the market level. The stayers sample includes 35.1 (6.5) million spells on 10.3 (1.5) million unique workers (firms).

The second subsample, which we refer to as the *movers sample*, restricts the full sample

---

\(^6\)As another robustness check, we have also performed this analysis with Norwegian administrative data in which hourly wages are observed. Reassuringly, we find broadly similar results using annual earnings or hourly wages.
to workers observed at multiple firms.\textsuperscript{7} That is, it is not the same EIN that pays the worker the greatest direct (W-2) earnings in all years. Following previous work, we also restrict the movers sample to firms with at least two movers. This restriction might help reduce limited mobility bias and makes it easier to compare the estimates of firm effects across methods (as the approach of Kline et al. 2020 requires at least two movers per firm).\textsuperscript{8} The movers sample includes 32.1 (3.6) million unique workers (firms).

Online Appendix Table A.1 compares the size of the baseline, the stayers, and the movers samples. Detailed summary statistics of these samples of linked firms and worker are given in Online Appendix Table A.2. The samples are broadly similar, both in the distribution of earnings but also in firm level variables such as value added, wage bill, size, and the distribution across regions and sectors. The most noticeable differences are that the stayers have, on average, somewhat higher earnings and tend to work in firms with higher value added.

4 Identification

We now describe how to take our model to the data, providing a formal identification argument while summarizing, in Online Appendix Table A.3, the parameters needed to recover a given quantity of interest and the moments used to identify these parameters. Our results reveal that many of these quantities do not require knowledge of all the structural parameters. Thus, some of our findings may be considered more reliable than others.

4.1 Rents of workers and employers

It follows from Results 1, 2 and 4 that the expected rents of workers and employers depend on the parameters \((\beta, \rho_r, \alpha_r)\) and the data \((Y_{it}, W_{it}, j_{it}, r_{it})\). Our identification argument therefore proceeds by showing how these parameters can be identified from the panel data on workers and firms. However, before we present the formal identification argument, it is useful to consider what one can and cannot identify directly from an ideal experiment. This consideration clarifies the necessary assumptions even with an ideal experiment and the additional ones needed in the absence of such an experiment.

Ideal experiment

To see how one may recover \((\beta, \rho_r, \alpha_r)\), consider the structural equations (4)-(6) that express value added \(y_j(\pi, \tilde{a})\) and wages \(w_j(x, \pi, \tilde{a})\) as functions of primitives that are fixed over time \(\Gamma = (\bar{p}_r, \bar{p}_j, g_j(x), x_i)\) and those that vary over time \((\pi, \tilde{a})\). Suppose we observed and were able to exogenously change both \(\tilde{a}\), the component of productivity that is specific to a firm, and \(\bar{a}\), the component of productivity that is common to all firms in a market. As evident from the structural equations (4)-(5), exogenous changes in \(\tilde{a}\) and \(\bar{a}\) affect both the firm’s value added

\textsuperscript{7}Note that, since workers who are not in the movers sample are not necessarily stayers for 8 consecutive years (e.g., due to a year in which earnings at the primary employer are below the full-time equivalence threshold, or aging in or out of the sample), the stayers sample is not the same as the non-movers sample.

\textsuperscript{8}See our Online Supplement for such a comparison and an analysis of limited mobility bias.
\( y_j(\tilde{a}, \tilde{a}) \) and the wages it offers to workers of a given quality \( w_j(x, \pi, \tilde{a}) \):

\[
\frac{\partial w_j(x, \pi, \tilde{a})}{\partial \tilde{a}} \left( \frac{\partial y_j(\pi, \tilde{a})}{\partial \tilde{a}} \right)^{-1} = \frac{1}{1 + \lambda \beta / \rho_r} \equiv \gamma_r \\
\frac{\partial w_j(x, \pi, \tilde{a})}{\partial \tilde{a}} \left( \frac{\partial y_j(\pi, \tilde{a})}{\partial \tilde{a}} \right)^{-1} = \frac{1}{1 + \lambda \beta} \equiv \Upsilon
\]

where we refer to \( \gamma_r \) and \( \Upsilon \) as the firm level and market level pass-through rates.

Since \( \lambda \) is a known (or pre-estimated) tax parameter, \( \beta \) and \( \rho_r(j) \) can be identified from these two equations. In this ideal experiment, the pass-through to \( w_j(x, \pi, \tilde{a}) \) of an \( \pi \) induced change in \( y_j(\pi, \tilde{a}) \) would identify \( \beta \). Given this parameter, the pass-through to \( w_j(x, \pi, \tilde{a}) \) of an \( \tilde{a} \) induced change in \( y_j(\tilde{a}, \tilde{a}) \) would identify \( \rho_r(j) \). Finally, equations (5)-(6) imply,

\[
E[y_{jt} - b_{jt} | j \in J_r] = -c_r = -\log(1 - \alpha_r) - \log \left( \frac{\lambda \beta / \rho_r}{1 + \lambda \beta / \rho_r} \right)
\]

Since \( E[y_{jt} - b_{jt} | j \in J_r] \) can be estimated directly from the data, and \( \lambda \) is known, it follows that \( \alpha_r \) is identified given \( (\beta, \rho_r) \), which are in turn identified from \( (\gamma_r, \Upsilon) \). Thus, the key challenge for identifying \( (\beta, \rho_r, \alpha_r) \) is to identify \( (\gamma_r, \Upsilon) \).

While it is not feasible to perform such an ideal experiment, it is possible to achieve identification of \( (\beta, \rho_r, \alpha_r) \) either by using the panel data to construct internal instruments or by finding external instruments.

**Identification using internal panel instruments**

In order to identify \( (\gamma_r, \Upsilon) \), our baseline specification relies on so-called “internal” instruments, i.e., instruments implied by model restrictions. To this end, we specify a process for the productivity shocks to firms. Suppose that firm productivity evolves as a unit root process at both the firm level and market level:

\[
\tilde{a}_{jt} = \tilde{p}_j + \tilde{z}_{jt}, \text{ where } \tilde{z}_{jt} = \tilde{z}_{jt-1} + \tilde{a}_{jt} \\
\pi_{rt} = \pi_r + \pi_{rt}, \text{ where } \pi_{rt} = \pi_{rt-1} + \pi_{rt}
\]

To ensure relevance of the internal instrument we first assume that such shocks are present:

**Assumption 1.a.** The variance of innovation shocks at the firm and market levels are strictly positive, \( \sigma_{\tilde{a},r}^2 > 0, \sigma_{\pi}^2 > 0 \).

We also allow for measurement error \( \nu_{jt} \) in the observed value added in the form of a transitory component with finite time dependence, i.e., \( y_{jt} = y_j(\pi_{r(j)t}, \tilde{a}_{jt}) + \nu_{jt} \). It is necessary to invoke some restrictions on the relationships between the primitives. Denoting the history of time-varying unobservables at time \( t \) by \( \Omega_t \equiv \{ \tilde{a}_{jt'}, \pi_{rt'}, \epsilon_{ijt'} \}_{i,j,r,t' \leq t} \), we assume the following:

**Assumption 1.b.** The value added measurement error terms \( \nu_{jt} \) are i) independent of \( \Omega_T \), \( E[\nu_{jt} | \Omega_T] = 0 \), and ii) have finite time dependence, \( E[\nu_{jt} \nu_{jt'} | \Omega_T] = 0 \) if \( |t - t'| \geq 2 \).

\(^9\)The assumption on the unit root process for productivity can be replaced by any process with persistence beyond the persistence of the measurement error in value added.
We also allow for measurement errors \( v_{it} \) in earnings, i.e., \( w_{it} = w_{j(i,t)}(x_i, \pi_{r(j,i,t)t}, \tilde{a}_{j(i,t)t}) + v_{it} \).

We then make the following assumption:

**Assumption 1.c.** The wage measurement error \( v_{it} \) is drawn independently of firm measurement error and \( \Omega_T, \mathbb{E}[v_{it}|\nu_{jT}, ..., \nu_{j1}, \Omega_T] = 0 \).

Under assumptions 1.b and 1.c, we derive in Online Appendix C.1 the following moment conditions which identify \((\gamma_r, \Upsilon)\):

\[
\mathbb{E} \left[ \Delta \tilde{y}_{jt} \left( \tilde{w}_{it+e} - \tilde{w}_{it-e'} - \gamma_r (\tilde{y}_{jt+e} - \tilde{y}_{jt-e'}) \right) | S_i=1, j(i)=j \in J_r \right] = 0 \quad (12)
\]

\[
\mathbb{E} \left[ \Delta \tilde{y}_{rt} \left( \tilde{w}_{rt+e} - \tilde{w}_{rt-e'} - \Upsilon (\tilde{y}_{rt+e} - \tilde{y}_{rt-e'}) \right) | S_i=1, j(i)=j \in J_r \right] = 0 \quad (13)
\]

for \( e \geq 2, e' \geq 3 \), where \( \overline{y}_{rt} = \mathbb{E}[y_{jt}|S_i=1, j(i)=j \in J_r] \) and \( \overline{w}_{rt} = \mathbb{E}[w_{it}|S_i=1, j(i)=j \in J_r] \) are market level means, \( \tilde{w}_{it} = w_{it} - \overline{w}_{rt} \) and \( \tilde{y}_{jt} = y_{jt} - \overline{y}_{rt} \) are deviations from market level means, and \( S_i=1 \) denotes a worker who does not change firms between \( t-e' \) and \( t+e \). These moment conditions are equivalent to regressions of long-differences in log earnings on long-differences in log value added, instrumented by short differences in log value added. In addition assumption 1.a ensures the rank condition and consequently the identifiability of these parameters.

It is important to observe what is and is not being restricted by assumptions 1.b and 1.c that deliver the internal instruments. First, these assumptions permit arbitrary correlation between the components of \( \Gamma \). Thus, our model allows for rich heterogeneity of both firms and workers, and systematic sorting of different workers into different firms. However, assumption 1.b implies that worker-specific innovations to productivity are independent across coworkers and orthogonal both to innovations to firm productivity and to idiosyncratic taste realizations. Moreover, worker-specific wage measurement error is independent of the choice of firm, and, thus, does not matter for worker mobility. This is key to identifying the pass-through rates of firm shocks by looking at changes over time in the earnings of incumbent workers.

**Identification using external instruments**

As a robustness check of the results based on the internal instruments, we will also be using “external” instruments, i.e., instruments based on data other than or external to the data generating process of our model. As explained in detail in Online Appendix C.2, the advantage of external instruments is that they allow us to relax the assumption on the joint process of amenities, firm productivity, and measurement error in value added. In particular, we can allow both firm-specific and market-specific amenities to vary over time as well as unrestricted dependence in the value added measurement error.

**4.2 Quality of workers and technology and amenities of firms**

To draw inferences about compensating differentials and the sources of wage inequality, we need to recover the quality of workers as well as the technology and amenities of firms. To do so, we start with equations (4) and (8), which show that the variation in log earnings can be decomposed into firm effects \((\psi_{jt})\), interactions between worker quality \((x)\) and firm complementarities \((\theta_j)\),
and the pass-through of productivity shocks from firms to workers. In this subsection, we
demonstrate how to use the observed changes in earnings for workers moving across firms to
separately identify each of these components. We next combine these results with equation (7)
and the parameters \((\beta, \rho, \alpha, \lambda)\) identified in the previous subsection to decompose the variation
in firm effects into the time-varying TFP components at the firm-level \((\tilde{a}_{jt})\) and the market-level
\((\bar{a}_{rt})\) as well as the amenity component \((h_j)\). Lastly, we use equations (10) and (11) to recover
the permanent components of TFP at the firm-level \((\tilde{p}_j)\) and market-level \((\bar{p}_r)\), respectively, as
well as the variances of TFP shocks at the firm-level \((\sigma^2_u)\) and market-level \((\sigma^2_u)\).

The first step of our identification argument is to recover the time-invariant firm-specific
earnings premium \(\psi_j\) as well as the firm-worker interaction parameters \(\theta_j\) using the earnings of
movers. To do so, we remove time-varying firm and market level components of earnings, which
allows us to express the expected earnings of worker \(i\) in firm \(j\) in terms of only \(x_i\), \(\psi_j\), and \(\theta_j\):

\[
E \left[ w_{it} - \left( \frac{1}{1 + \lambda \beta} (\bar{y}_{rt} - \bar{y}_{r1}) + \frac{\rho_r}{\rho_r + \lambda \beta} (\tilde{y}_{jt} - \tilde{y}_{j1}) \right) j(i, t) = j \in J_r \right] = \theta_j x_i + \psi_j \tag{14}
\]

where we refer to \(w_{it}^a\) as adjusted log earnings, and for \(j \in J_r\) we define the firm fixed effect as:

\[
\psi_j \equiv c_r - \alpha_r h_j + \frac{1}{1 + \lambda \beta} \bar{p}_r + \frac{\rho_r}{\rho_r + \lambda \beta} \bar{p}_j. \tag{15}
\]

This derivation is presented in Online Appendix C.4. The fixed effect \(\psi_j\) is the common wage
intercept in the firm that can be attributed to permanent productivity and amenities. The
structure of the adjusted log earnings equation (14) matches the model of earnings of Bonhomme et al. (2019).
As described in their paper, under the rank condition that workers moving to a
firm are not of the exact same quality as workers moving from the firm:

\[
E [x_i | j(i, t) = j, j(i, t+1) = j'] \neq E [x_i | j(i, t) = j', j(i, t+1) = j].
\]

Given \((\psi_j, \theta_j)\), \(x_i\) is identified from \(E \left[ \frac{w_{it}^a - \psi_j}{\theta_{j(i,t)}} \right] \). The estimates of \(x_i\) and \(\theta_j\) allow us to
construct the total efficiency units of labor for each firm, which together with the time varying
part of the wage premium at the firm give us a linear system of equations in \(h_j, \tilde{a}_{jt}\) and \(\bar{a}_{rt}\)
for each firm and time. Using the process assumptions on \(\tilde{a}_{jt}\) and \(\bar{a}_{rt}\) and the market level
normalization of \(p_j\), we can then identify \((\bar{p}_r, \bar{p}_j, \sigma^2_u, \sigma^2_u)\). See Online Appendix C.4 for details.

### 4.3 Amenities and worker preferences

To make inference about welfare and to perform counterfactuals, it is necessary to also recover
the preference terms \(G_j(X)\). This is done through a revealed preference argument: Holding
wages fixed, firms with favorable amenities (for a given type of worker) are able to attract more
workers (of that type). Conditional on wages, the size and composition of firms and markets
should therefore be informative about unobserved amenities.

We formalize this intuition in Lemma 8 in Online Appendix C.5, showing that \(G_j(X)\) can
be identified from data on the allocation of workers to firms and markets. Using the probability that workers choose to work for firm \( j \) conditional on selecting market \( r \), \( \Pr[j(i,t)=j|X,r=r(j)] \), we consider two firms \( j \) and \( j' \) in the same market \( r \). The differences in size and composition of these firms depend on the gaps in wages and amenities:

\[
\lambda ((\theta_j - \theta_{j'})x_i + \psi_j - \psi_{j'}) + \log G_j(X) - \log G_{j'}(X) = \frac{\rho_r}{\beta} \log \frac{\Pr[j(i,t)=j|X,r(j)=r]}{\Pr[j(i,t)=j'|X,r(j')=r]}
\]

where \( \rho_r/\beta \) is the inverse (pre-tax) firm-specific labor supply elasticity. Since both the wage gap and the within-market elasticity are already identified, we can recover the value of amenities up to a common market factor by comparing the size and composition of firms. Comparing firms across markets allows us to pin down the common market factor.

### 5 Estimation procedure, parameter estimates and fit

The estimation procedure follows closely the identification arguments laid out in Section 4 and summarized in Online Appendix Table A.3, mostly replacing the population moments with their sample counterparts. In the estimation, however, we impose a few additional restrictions on the heterogeneity of workers, firms and markets. These restrictions are not necessary for identification, but they help reduce the number of parameters to estimate. We now describe these restrictions before presenting the parameter estimates, assessing the fit of the model, and examining overidentifying restrictions.

#### 5.1 Empirical specification

We begin by restricting the market-specific parameters \( \alpha_r \) and \( \rho_r \) to be the same within broad markets (as defined in Section 3). The restriction on \( \alpha_r \) means the scale parameter can vary freely across, but not within, broad regions and sectors of the economy. The assumption on \( \rho_r \) restricts the nested logit structure of the preferences. Recall that the parameter \( \rho_r \) measures the degree of independence in a worker’s taste for alternative firms within the nest. We specified the nest as the combination of commuting zone and two-digit industry. We now restrict the parameter \( \rho_r \) to be the same for all nests within each broad market. As a result, labor wedges may vary across, but not within, broad regions and sectors. In Online Appendix Table A.5, we demonstrate that the estimates of \((\beta, \rho_r, \alpha_r)\) and rent shares are robust to alternative definitions of nests, such as states instead of commuting zones and three-digit rather than two-digit industries.

A second set of restrictions is that we draw the firm-specific components \( \theta_j \) and \( \psi_j \) from a discrete distribution. We follow Bonhomme et al. (2019) in using a two-step grouped fixed-effects estimation, which consists of a classification and an estimation step. In a first step, firms are classified into groups indexed by \( k \) based on the empirical earnings distribution using the k-means clustering algorithm. The k-means classification groups together firms whose earnings distributions are most similar.\(^{10}\) Then, in a second step, we estimate the parameters \( \theta_{k(j)} \) and

\(^{10}\)Here, we follow Bonhomme et al. (2019). Concretely, we use a weighted k-means algorithm with 100 randomly
In the baseline specification, we assume there exist 10 firm types. We view the assumption of discrete heterogeneity as a technique for dimensionality reduction in the estimation. It is reassuring to find that the estimates of firm effects do not change materially if we instead allow for 20, 30, 40 or 50 firm types (see our Online Supplement).

Lastly, we also make the following discreteness assumption for the systematic components of firm amenities:

\[ G_j(X) = G_{r(j)}G_{k(j)}(X), \]

where we define the firm class \( k(j) \) within market \( r \) using the classification discussed above interacted with the market. This multiplicative structure reduces the number of parameters we need to estimate while allowing for systematic differences in amenities across firms and markets \((G_j, G_{r(j)})\) and heterogeneous tastes according to the quality of the worker \( G_{k(j)}(X) \). As a result, amenities may still generate sorting of better workers to productive firms, and compensating differentials may still vary across firms, markets and workers, and heterogeneity in amenities. For estimation purposes, we take advantage of the derivations in Online Appendix C.5, which express the preference components \((G_{r(j)}G_{k(j)}(X))\) as functions of the size and composition of firms and markets. In this estimation of \( G_j(X) \), we discretize the distribution of \( X \) into 10 points of support by ranking the estimated values of \( X \) and evenly grouping workers into 10 bins. We also group markets into 10 different market types based on their realized empirical distribution of earnings, using the same k-means algorithm as discussed above.

### 5.2 Estimates of the pass-through rates

Before we present the estimates of the pass-through rates, it is useful to better understand the sources of the identification and to visually assess the underlying assumptions. To do so, recall that the estimating equations (12)-(13) include fixed effects for time, firm and market. Thus, we are effectively looking within markets and firms while eliminating common changes over time in the labor market or the economy more generally. In other words, the estimation of the pass-through is effectively done through difference-in-differences (DiD).

**Difference-in-difference interpretation of estimator**

To be concrete, consider first the DiD representation for the market level pass-through rate, \( \Upsilon \). Let \( \overline{y}_{rt} \) denote market level average log value added and \( \overline{w}_{rt} \) denote market level average log earnings for the sample of stayers in market \( r \). Suppose for simplicity the workers can be assigned to two groups of firms: one half has \( \Delta \overline{y}_{r(i)t} = +\delta \) and the other half has \( \Delta \overline{y}_{r(i)t} = -\delta \). Conditioning on stayers \( (S_i = 1) \) at firms in region \( r \) \((j(i), t) = j \in J_r\)), we have,

\[
\Upsilon = \frac{E[\overline{w}_{rt+e} - \overline{w}_{rt-e'}|+\delta] - E[\overline{w}_{rt+e} - \overline{w}_{rt-e'}|\delta]}{E[\overline{y}_{rt+e} - \overline{y}_{rt-e'}|+\delta] - E[\overline{y}_{rt+e} - \overline{y}_{rt-e'}|\delta]}
\]

where \( e \) is time relative to \( t \). Under an assumption of common underlying trends between the generated starting values. We use the firms’ empirical distributions of log earnings on a grid of 10 percentiles of the overall log-earnings distribution.
\[ \Delta \bar{y}_{rt} = +\delta \text{ and } \Delta \bar{y}_{rt} = -\delta \] groups, the numerator gives the market level treatment effect on log earnings, the denominator gives the market level treatment effect on log value added, and their ratio gives the elasticity of earnings with respect to value added at the market level, \( \Upsilon \).

In Figure 1, we visualize and assess the DiD strategy at the market level. The blue line in this figure is constructed as follows: In any given calendar year \( t \), we i) order markets according to the increase \( \Delta \bar{y}_{rt} \); ii) separate the firms at the median in the worker-weighted distribution of \( \Delta \bar{y}_{rt} \), letting the upper half constitute the treatment markets and the lower half the control markets; and iii) plot the differences in \( \bar{y}_{rt+e} \) between these two groups in period \( e = 0 \) as well as in the years before \( (e < 0) \) and after \( (e > 0) \). We perform these steps separately for various calendar years, weighting each market by the number of workers. The solid (dashed) blue line represents the difference in log value added (earnings) for the treatment and control markets.

By construction, the treatment and control groups differ in the value added growth from period \( t - 1 \) to period \( t \). On average, markets in the treatment group experience about 13 percentage points larger growth in value added as compared to markets in the control group. According to assumption 1.b, the growth in value added should be the sum of a permanent component and a transitory, mean-reverting component. Due to the transitory component, \( \Delta \bar{y}_{rt} \) could be correlated with \( \Delta \bar{y}_{rt+e} \) at \( e = -2, \ldots, 2 \). However, \( \Delta \bar{y}_{rt} \) should be orthogonal to \( \Delta \bar{y}_{rt+e} \) in the periods before \( e = -2 \) and after \( e = 2 \). Consistent with this orthogonality condition, the figure shows a very similar trend in log value added between the treatment and
control group at these periods. By similar reasoning, assumption 1.c implies that $\Delta y_{rt}$ should be orthogonal to $\Delta w_{rt + e}$ in the periods before $e = -2$ and after $e = 2$. Consistent with this orthogonality condition, the figure shows a very similar trend in log earnings between the treatment and control group at these periods. Reassuringly, markets that experienced large growth in value added in period 0 are no more or less likely to experience growth in value added or earnings in periods -6 to -3 or in periods 3 to 6.

The red lines of Figure 1 show how we obtain the firm level pass-through rate, $\gamma_r$. These lines are constructed using firm level deviations from market level averages. We plot value added deviations $\tilde{y}_{jt} \equiv y_{jt} - y_{rt}$ (solid line) and earnings deviations $\tilde{w}_{it} \equiv w_{it} - w_{rt}$ (dashed line), splitting firms into the treatment and control groups at the median in the distribution of $\Delta \tilde{y}_{jt}$ and weighting each firm by the number of workers. Reassuringly, we find that firms that experienced large growth in value added in period 0 are no more or less likely to experience growth in value added or earnings in periods -6 to -3 or in periods 3 to 6.

Estimates using internal instruments

The estimates in Table 1 complement the graphical evidence in Figure 1. In this table, we report the estimated pass-through rates and the implied labor supply elasticities at both the firm and market level. We directly implement the sample counterpart to equation (12) at the firm level under the assumption that measurement errors follow an MA(1) process ($e = 2, e' = 3$). We allow $\gamma_r$, and thus $\rho_r$, to vary by broad market, where a broad market is a set of markets. In practice, we consider eight broad markets defined by a Census region and goods versus services sectors (see Section 3). Similarly, we directly implement the sample counterpart to equation (13) to estimate $\Upsilon$.

In the first row of Panel A, we estimate that the average firm level pass-through rate $\gamma_r$ is about 0.13 with a standard error of about 0.01. This suggests that the earnings of incumbent workers increases by 1.3 percent if their firm experiences a 10 percent permanent increase in value added, controlling for common shocks in the market. The firm level pass-through rate implies a firm level (pre-tax) labor supply elasticity of about 6.5. This estimate implies that, holding all other firms’ wage offers fixed, a one percent increase in a firm’s wage offer increases that firm’s employment by 6.5 percent.\footnote{This estimate is at the upper end of the range of estimates found in a recent empirical literature. Card et al. (2018) pick 4 as the preferred value in their calibration exercise. A related literature using experimentally manipulated piece-rates for small tasks typically finds labor supply elasticities in the 2-6 range (Caldwell and...}

In the first row of Panel B, we estimate that the market level pass-through rate $\Upsilon$ is about 0.18 with a standard error of about 0.03. This suggests that the earnings of incumbent workers increases by 1.8 percent if all firms in their market experience a 10 percent permanent increase in value added. This finding highlights the importance of distinguishing between shocks that are specific to workers in a given firm versus those that are common to workers in a market. The market level pass-through rate implies a market level (pre-tax) labor supply elasticity of about 4.6. This estimate implies that, if all firms in a market increase their wage offers by one percent, each firm’s employment in the market increases by 4.6 percent.
Panel A. Firm-level Estimation

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Instrumental Variable</th>
<th>Passthrough ($E[\gamma_r]$)</th>
<th>Implied LS Elasticity</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Internal instrument:</td>
<td>0.13</td>
<td>6.52</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Lagged firm-level value added shock under MA(1) errors</td>
<td>(0.01)</td>
<td>(0.56)</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>External instrument:</td>
<td>0.14</td>
<td>6.02</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Procurement auction shock at firm-level</td>
<td>(0.05)</td>
<td>(1.75)</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Panel B. Market-level Estimation

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Instrumental Variable</th>
<th>Passthrough ($\Upsilon$)</th>
<th>Implied LS Elasticity</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Internal instrument:</td>
<td>0.18</td>
<td>4.57</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Lagged market-level value added shock under MA(1) errors</td>
<td>(0.03)</td>
<td>(0.80)</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>External instrument:</td>
<td>0.17</td>
<td>5.00</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Shift-share industry value added shock</td>
<td>(0.05)</td>
<td>(1.08)</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Table 1: Estimates of pass-through rates and labor supply elasticities

Notes: This table summarizes estimates of the pass-through rates and pre-tax labor supply (LS) elasticities when using internal or external instrumental variables. Panel A provides these estimates at the firm level, while Panel B provides these estimates at the market level.

In Online Appendix D.1, we provide a number of specification and robustness checks for the pass-through estimates using internal instruments. First, we show that the firm level and market level pass-through rates are not sensitive to using an MA(2) specification rather than an MA(1) specification for the transitory shock process, which is consistent with previous work (see e.g. Guiso et al. 2005; Friedrich et al. 2019). Second, when allowing for transitory shocks to value added to also pass-through to earnings, we find very small pass-through rates of transitory shocks while the pass-through rates for permanent shocks are not materially affected. Third, in Online Appendix Figure A.1, we explore robustness of the pass-through estimates across subsamples of workers, finding that the pass-through rates do not vary that much by the worker’s age, previous wage, gender, or tenure. Fourth, while value added is a natural measure of firm performance (see the discussion by Guiso et al. 2005), it is reassuring to find that the estimates of the pass-through rates are broadly similar if we measure firm performance by operating profits, earnings before interest, tax and depreciation (EBITD), or value added net of reported depreciation of capital. We also show that the estimated pass-through rates are in the same range as our baseline result if we exclude multinational corporations or exclude the largest firms.

Lastly, to compare with existing work (e.g., Guiso et al. 2005), we also consider estimating the restricted specification that imposes $\gamma_r = \Upsilon, \forall r$. In our model, this is equivalent to imposing $\rho_r = 1, \forall r$, so that idiosyncratic worker preferences over firms are uncorrelated within markets. The estimated pass-through rate is then 0.14, which is broadly similar to the existing literature which ignores the distinction between firm and market shocks.

Oehlsen, 2018; Dube et al., 2020; Sokolova and Sorensen, 2018).
Estimates using external instruments

Our analyses so far have relied on statistical processes of earnings and value added. An advantage of our approach is that it provides both a market level and a firm level instrument for each firm, allowing us to draw inference for the entire population. While we have provided a number of diagnostics and sensitivity checks which support our approach, the identifying assumptions remain debatable. To examine the sensitivity of our results to the assumptions on the statistical processes for value added and earnings—and thereby improve the quality and credibility of our analyses—we now provide complementary analyses based on external instruments.

To recover the firm level pass-through and labor supply elasticity, we take advantage of the same research design as Kroft et al. (2020), except we apply it to our estimation sample and parameters of interest. In particular, we examine how firms in the construction sector respond to a plausibly exogenous shift in product demand through a DiD design that compares first-time procurement auction winners to the firms that lose, both before and after the auction. Formally, we consider as the treated group the firms that win their first procurement auction in year \( c \) (“cohort”). The control group is the set of firms that have not won an auction before \( c \) and placed a bid at \( c \) but lost. Letting \( D_{j,c} \) denote an indicator for receiving the product demand shock in year \( c \) and considering each time period \( e = -4, ..., 4 \) relative to \( c \), we specify log mean earnings with the firm regression,

\[
\ln w_{j,c,e} = \sum_{e' = e}^{e} \mu_{c,e'} + \sum_{j' = j} \psi_{j',c} D_{j,c} \tau_{c,e'} + \nu_{j,c,e}
\]

We report the average across \( c \) of the estimated \( \tau_{c,e} \) parameters, which can be interpreted as the average treatment effect on the treated for those firms receiving an exogenous demand shock. We use the same regression model to estimate the effects of an exogenous demand shock on log value added. The ratio of the effects on log mean earnings and log value added is the pass-through rate. Using this external instrument, we find in the second row of Panel A in Table 1 a firm level pass-through rate of 0.14 and labor supply elasticity of about 6, which are very similar to our baseline estimates under assumptions 1.b-1.c.

In order to provide IV estimates of the market level pass-through and labor supply elasticity, we follow Bartik (1991) and Blanchard and Katz (1992) in constructing a shift-share instrument. Let \( cz \) denote a commuting zone and \( ind \) denote a 2-digit NAICS industry, and recall that a market is defined by the pair \((cz, ind)\) in our main specification. Let \( Y_{cz,ind,t} \) denote the total value added in the \((cz, ind)\) at time \( t \), and \( \bar{Y}_{ind,t} = \sum_{cz} Y_{cz,ind,t} \) denote aggregate industry value added. Then, the shift-share value added shock to the commuting zone is constructed as \( \sum_{ind} \frac{S_{cz,ind,t} \zeta_{ind,t}}{\bar{Y}_{ind,t}} \), where \( S_{cz,ind,t} = \frac{Y_{cz,ind,t}}{\sum_{cz} Y_{cz,ind,t}} \) is the exposure of the \( cz \) to a particular \( ind \) (the “share” component) and \( \zeta_{ind,t} = \log Y_{ind,t} - \log Y_{ind,t-\tau} \) is the log change in industry value added (the “shift” component). We measure the share component at the earliest period in the sample and follow the internal instrument specification by considering a three-year difference in the share component. Using this instrument, we find in the second row of Panel B in Table 1...
a market level pass-through rate of 0.17 and labor supply elasticity of about 5, which are very close to our baseline estimates under assumptions 1.b-1.c.

5.3 Estimates of the parameters needed to recover rents

Once we have estimates of firm level and market level pass-through rates \((\gamma_r, \Upsilon)\) and tax progressivity \(\lambda\), we can recover the model parameters \((\beta, \rho_r, \alpha_r)\) needed to identify rents. We begin by estimating the tax progressivity parameter \(\lambda\) as well as the proportional tax parameter \(\tau\) outside the model. In each year, we regress log net household income (earnings plus other income minus taxes) on log household gross income (earnings plus other income) for our sample. The construction of these income measures is detailed in Online Appendix B. The intercept from this regression gives us \(\tau\) while \(\lambda\) is identified from the slope coefficient. We estimate \(\tau\) of around 0.89 whereas \(\lambda\) is estimated to be about 0.92.\(^{12}\) In a proportional tax-transfer system, \(\lambda\) is equal to one and \((1 - \tau)\) is the proportional effective tax rate. By contrast, if \(0 < \lambda < 1\), then the marginal effective tax rate is increasing in earnings. Thus, our estimate indicates modest progressivity in the U.S. tax system. Online Appendix Figure A.2 shows how well our parsimonious tax function approximates the effective tax rates implicit in the complex U.S. tax-transfer system. Comparing predicted log net income from the regression to the observed log net income across the distribution of log gross income, we find this specification provides an excellent fit.

Armed with \(\lambda\), we can identify \((\beta, \rho_r, \alpha_r)\) using the pre-tax labor supply elasticities at the firm level and market level summarized in Table 1 and the equations in Section 4.1. We estimate the (post-tax) market level labor supply elasticity \(\beta\) to be 4.99. This finding suggests considerable variability across workers in the idiosyncratic tastes for firms. We estimate the average \(\rho_r\) across markets to be 0.70. This implies a substantial correlation of about 0.5 in the idiosyncratic tastes of workers across firms within the same industry and location. We estimate the average \(\alpha_r\) across markets to be 0.21. This indicates that returns to labor \(1 - \alpha_r\) are about 0.8 on average, consistent with modestly diminishing returns.

In Online Appendix Figure A.3(a), we report the estimates of (post-tax) firm level labor supply elasticities from the main specification. On average, this elasticity is about 7.3. Behind this average, however, there is important variation. Empirically, labor supply is most inelastic in the goods sector (which has lower rates of unionization) and more elastic in the Northeast (which has lower rates of right-to-work law coverage). These results are consistent with stronger institutions that favor workers being associated with less wage-setting power of firms. However, these are only correlational patterns and may not be given a causal interpretation.

In Online Appendix Table A.5, we demonstrate that the estimates of \((\beta, \rho_r, \alpha_r)\) as well as the rent shares are robust to various alternative market definitions. First, we demonstrate that \(\beta\) and the average rent shares are robust to shutting down broad market heterogeneity (that is, restricting \(\rho_r = \bar{\rho}\) and \(\alpha_r = \bar{\alpha}\)). Next, we demonstrate that the results are materially unchanged when, instead of NAICS two-digit codes, we define the industry to be more aggregated (NAICS supersectors) or less aggregated (NAICS three-digit). Lastly, we demonstrate that the results

\(^{12}\)These results mirror closely existing U.S. estimates of \(\tau\) and \(\lambda\) (Guner et al., 2014, Heathcote et al., 2017).
are materially unchanged when, instead of commuting zones, we define the geographic units to be more aggregated (states) or less aggregated (counties).

5.4 Worker heterogeneity, firm wage premiums and worker sorting

We estimate worker effects $x_i$, firm wage premiums $\psi_{jt(i)}$, and firm-worker interaction parameters $\theta_{j(i)}$ following closely Subsection 4.2. To do so, we first construct adjusted log earnings $w_{it}^a$ using equation (14) and the estimates of $(\beta, \rho_r, \alpha_r, \lambda)$ discussed in the previous subsection. Given the classification of firms into groups discussed above, we implement the estimating equations provided in Online Appendix C.4 on $w_{it}^a$ in order to recover $(\psi_{k(j)}, \theta_{k(j)})$ for each group $k$. Then, given $(\psi_k, \theta_k)$, we recover $x_i$ from equation (14), as described in Subsection 4.2.

Figure 2 summarizes the estimates (see our Online Supplement for further details). On the y-axis, we plot the predicted log earnings for each firm type using the equation $\psi_k + \theta_k x_q$, where each quantile in the distribution of worker types $x_q$ is presented as a separate line. On the x-axis, firm types are ordered in ascending order of mean log earnings. If $\psi_{k(j)}$ did not vary across firm types $k$, the typical worker would not experience an upward slope when moving from lower to higher firm types. We find a weakly positive slope, indicating some role for time-invariant firm fixed effects. If $\theta_{k(j)}$ did not vary across firm types, then the lines in this plot would have the same slope for lower and higher worker types. Instead, the results show clear evidence that higher worker types experience a more positive slope across firm types. As shown in Online Appendix C.4, the parameters governing nonlinearities are identified from comparing the gains from moving from a low to a high type of firm for workers of different quality. As evident from Figure 2, the gains from such a move are considerably larger for better workers.

For example, moving from the lowest to the highest type of firm increases earnings by 15, 47 and 80 percentage points for individuals at the 20, 50 and 80 percentiles of worker quality.

To compare and interpret the estimates of $x_i$, $\psi_{jt}$, and $\theta_j$, we re-arrange equation (14) so that we can decompose log earnings as,

$$w_{it} = \bar{\theta}(x_i - \bar{x}) + \psi_{j(i),t} + \theta_{j(i),t} + \psi_{j(i),t} + \theta_{j(i),t}(\psi_{j(i),t} - \bar{\psi}_{j(i),t}) + v_{it}$$

where $\bar{\theta} = \mathbb{E} [\theta_{j(i),t}]$ and $\bar{x} = \mathbb{E} [x_i]$. This equation decomposes the earnings of worker $i$ in period $t$ into four distinct components: $\bar{x}_i$ gives the direct effect of the quality of worker $i$ (evaluated at the average firm), $\psi_{j(i),t}$ is the firm premium, which is time varying due to the pass-through of value added shocks, $\theta_{j(i),t}$ represents the average effect of firm $j$ (evaluated at the average worker), $\theta_{j(i),t}$ captures the interaction effect between firm $j$ and worker $i$ quality, and $v_{it}$ is

---

13 In a preliminary step, we regress log-earnings on a full set of indicators for calendar years and a cubic polynomial in age, where we follow Card et al. (2018) in restricting the age profile to be flat at age 40. Thus, $w_{it}$ is log earnings net of age effects and common aggregate time trends. We verify that the two way fixed effect estimates are nearly identical if jointly estimating the age and year effects with the firm and worker fixed effects.

14 Note that $(\psi_{k(j)}, \theta_{k(j)})$ are estimated using the movers in the connected set of firms, while $x_i$ is estimated for both movers and non-movers in this connected set. Since $x_i$ is estimated using an average over time for a given worker, the estimated variance in $x_i$ may be upward-biased due to serial correlation in earnings measurement errors or finite sample bias. In our Online Supplement, we derive and estimate the bias in the estimated variance of $x_i$, for the case in which the error process is unit root plus MA(0), finding a small bias for our panel length.
Figure 2: Predicted log earnings from the estimated model

Notes: In this figure, we summarize the estimates of worker ability \( x_i \), time-invariant firm premiums \( \psi_{k(j)} \), and firm-worker interactions \( \theta_{k(j)} \), for 10 firm groups \( k \). On the y-axis, we plot the predicted log earnings for each firm type using the estimated equation \( \psi_k + \theta_k \cdot x_q \), where each quantile in the distribution of worker types \( x_q \) is presented as a separate line. On the x-axis, firm types are ordered in ascending order, where “lower” and “higher” types refer to low and high mean log earnings.

Using this representation, we obtain a variance decomposition of log earnings:

\[
Var(w_{it}) = \underbrace{Var[\tilde{x}_i]}_{\text{i) Worker Quality: 71.6\%}} + \underbrace{Var[\tilde{\psi}_{j(i,t)}]}_{\text{ii) Firm Effects: 4.3\%}} + 2\text{Cov}[\tilde{x}_i, \tilde{\psi}_{j(i,t)}] + \underbrace{Var[v_{it}]}_{\text{iv) Meas. Error: 10.0\%}} + \underbrace{Var[\tilde{\theta}_{j(i,t)}]}_{\text{iii) Sorting: 13.0\%}} + 2\text{Cov}[\tilde{x}_i, \tilde{\psi}_{j(i,t)}] + \underbrace{Var[\tilde{\psi}_{j(i,t),t}]}_{\text{v) Interactions: 0.9\%}} + 2\text{Cov}[\tilde{x}_i, \tilde{\psi}_{j(i,t),t}] + \underbrace{Var[\tilde{\psi}_{j(i,t),t}]}_{\text{vi) Time-varying Effects: 0.3\%}}
\]

The first conclusion is that the most important determinant of earnings inequality is worker quality, which explains about 72 percent of the variation in log earnings. The second conclusion is that firm fixed effects explain around 4 percent of the variation in log earnings, with a standard deviation of firm effects of about 0.12. In order to place the firm effect estimates in context, we compare them to the literature on the effects of job displacement. The majority of these studies focus on the US and find that long-run earnings losses from a job displacement are around 10-20 percent (see the survey by Couch and Placzek 2010).\(^{15}\) Thus, a job displacement has about the same effect on earnings as moving to a firm that is one standard deviation lower in the

\(^{15}\)For a recent example, Lachowska et al. (2020b) find hourly wage losses of 12 percent and earnings losses of 16 percent five years after a job displacement in data from Washington state.
bias-corrected firm effects distribution.

The third conclusion is that the US economy is characterized by strong sorting of high quality workers to high paying firms, with a correlation of 0.37 between worker and firm fixed effects. Indeed, sorting explains about three times as much of the variation in log earnings as firm fixed effects on their own. The fourth conclusion is that the dispersion of interaction effects across firms explains about 1 percent of earnings inequality.\footnote{Using a random effects approach, Woodcock (2015) also provides a decomposition with firm-worker interactions in the US. He also finds that interactions explain less variation than firm effects. However, the approach of Woodcock (2015) requires that match heterogeneity is purely idiosyncratic. By contrast, we find systematic deviations from the linear model in a way that is structurally related to other sources of heterogeneity, such as worker effects and firm effects.}\footnote{Similarly, Lachowska et al. (2020a) find that firm effects are highly persistent over time within firms when re-estimating firm effects on two-year intervals in data from Washington state.} The final conclusion is that the time-varying component of firm effects due to the pass-through of TFP shocks at the firm level and market level explains less than half of a percent of earnings inequality, indicating a small role for the pass-through of shocks in cross-sectional earnings inequality.\footnote{Note that firm effects are targeted directly, while the relationship between firm effects and size is not, so subfigure (b) in Online Appendix Figure A.4 is only untargeted in its relationship to firm size. The other subfigures are untargeted in both dimensions.}

In Online Appendix D.2, we discuss a number of specification checks. First, we consider estimating the model when excluding firm-worker interactions (imposing $\theta_j = \bar{\theta}$) or excluding time-varying effects (imposing $\gamma_r = \Upsilon = 0$). Second, we assess the degree of limited mobility bias in our data. Third, we consider increasing the number of groups in the k-means algorithm from the baseline value of 10 up to 50 in increments of 10, finding that the estimates are not sensitive to the number of groups. Fourth, we compare estimates for two distinct time periods, finding that the variance decomposition estimates change little over time. Fifth, we consider a number of checks on the reliability of the estimates of the interaction parameters $\theta_j$. These include a comparison between our estimates and the interaction effects that arise due to observed worker heterogeneity and a check against data on hourly wages instead of annual earnings.

5.5 Estimates of remaining parameters and overidentification checks

We conclude this section by discussing estimates of the remaining parameters. We recover TFP and amenity components $(\tilde{a}_{j,t}, \pi_{r,t}, h_j)$ from the estimates of $(x_i, \psi_j, \theta_j)$ using the approach explained in Subsection 4.2. Given estimated TFP and amenities, we can use them to construct predicted values of firm effects, value added, efficiency units of labor, and wage bill. In Online Appendix Figure A.4, we compare the observed and the predicted values of these variables in order to examine the model fit. We make this comparison separately according to the actual and predicted firm size.\footnote{Because these moments are not directly targeted in the model estimation, it is reassuring that the model fits them well.} As an overidentification check, in Online Appendix Figure A.5, we take advantage of the fact that there are two distinct methods to identify the amenity component $h_j$. One possibility is the baseline approach discussed in Subsection 4.2, which recovers it from the equation for firm wage premiums. Another possibility is to use the fixed-point definition of $h_j$ as a function of $(\tilde{P}_j, \overline{P}_r, G_j(X))$, as shown in Lemma 3 in Online Appendix A.1. This definition comes
Table 2: Estimates of rents and rent sharing (national averages)

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th></th>
<th>Rents and Rent-shares</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Firm-level</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td><strong>Workers’ Rents:</strong></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Per-worker Dollars</td>
<td>5,447 (395)</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Share of Earnings</td>
<td>13% (1%)</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td><strong>Firms’ Rents:</strong></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Per-worker Dollars</td>
<td>5,780 (1,547)</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Share of Profits</td>
<td>11% (3%)</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td><strong>Workers’ Share of Rents</strong></td>
<td>49% (4%)</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Notes: This table displays our main results on rents and rent-sharing. Standard errors are in parentheses and are estimated using 40 block bootstrap draws in which the block is taken to be the market.

from the equilibrium constraint of the model, which we do not directly use in the baseline estimation. Online Appendix Figure A.5 shows that the estimates of \( h_j \) we obtain from solving the equilibrium constraint of the model are very similar to the baseline estimates. This finding increases our confidence in the moment conditions implied by our economic model.

As another overidentification check, we combine the earnings equation (4) with the equation for the wage bill (6) (instead of value added (5)) to estimate the firm-specific labor supply elasticity using our internal instruments. This does not alter the conclusion that each firm is facing an economically and statistically significant upward-sloping labor supply curve. In other words, firms have considerable wage-setting power. In terms of magnitudes, we estimate a firm-specific labor supply elasticity above 6 based on value added changes and around 5 based on wage bill changes. Given the precision we have, however, one may want to be cautious in drawing strong conclusions about meaningful differences between these point estimates.

6 Empirical insights from the model

We now present the empirical insights from the estimated model. These insights require an explicit model of the labor market, and, thus, they may be susceptible to model misspecification. As shown in Section 4, however, many of the insights do not require knowledge of all the structural parameters. Thus, some of our findings may be considered more reliable than others. To make this clear, we first present the findings that rely on the least assumptions and then move to those that require additional restrictions on the functioning of the labor market.

6.1 Rents and labor wedges

Table 2 presents estimates of the size of rents earned by American firms and workers from ongoing employment relationships. We report national averages and refer to Online Appendix Table A.7 for the market-specific results.
We find evidence of a significant amount of rents and imperfect competition in the U.S. labor market due to horizontal employer differentiation. At the firm level, we estimate that workers are, on average, willing to pay 13 percent of their annual earnings to stay in their current jobs. This corresponds to about $5,400 per worker. By comparison, firms earn, on average, 11 percent of profits from rents (with profits being measured as value added minus the wage bill). This amounts to about $5,800 per worker in the firm. Thus, we conclude that firm level rents from imperfect competition in the labor market are split equally between employers and their workers.

At the market level, we estimate that rents are considerably larger than firm level rents. Workers are, on average, willing to pay about $7,300 (18 percent of their annual earnings) to avoid having to work for a firm in a different market, which is almost $1,900 more than they would pay to avoid having to work for a different firm in the same market. The relatively large market level rents reflect that firms within the same market are more likely to be close substitutes than firms in different markets. At the market level, rents are again split almost evenly between firms and their workers.

In order to place our estimate that a worker’s firm level rents amount to 13 percent of annual earnings in context, one may compare it to the literature on the effects of job displacement. The majority of these studies focus on the US and find that long-run earnings losses from a job displacement are around 10-20 percent (see the survey by Couch and Placzek 2010). For example, Lachowska et al. (2020b) find hourly wage losses of 12 percent and earnings losses of 16 percent five years after a job displacement in data from Washington state. Thus, the magnitude of firm rents due to imperfect competition is broadly comparable to estimates of wage loss due to job displacement.

In Online Appendix Figure A.3, we show that labor wedges are significant and vary substantially across markets. On average, the marginal revenue product of labor is 15 percent higher than the wage. Behind this average, however, there is important variation. Empirically, the labor wedges are most pronounced in the goods sector (which have higher values of $\rho_r$). In the Western region of the U.S., for example, the labor wedge is 6 percentage points larger for firms in the goods sector as compared to those in the service sectors.

### 6.2 Compensating differentials

The estimates of rents suggest the average American worker is far from the margin of indifference in her choice of firm, and would maintain the same choice even if her current firm offered significantly lower wages. In other words, the average worker considers amenities important to her choice of firm. This finding does not, however, imply marginal workers view the amenities of the current firm as much better or much worse than those offered by other firms. To gauge the preferences for amenities of marginal workers, we estimate average compensating differentials.

The estimates of the expected compensating differentials are displayed in Online Appendix Figure A.6. To estimate these quantities, we randomly draw two firms, $j$ and $j'$, from the overall distribution of firms (where each firm is drawn with probability proportional to its size). Using result 3, we compute the compensating differential between $j$ and $j'$ for a worker of given quality $x$ as $\psi_{j'} + x\theta_{j'} - \psi_j - x\theta_j$. We repeat this procedure for many draws of firms.
The solid horizontal line in Online Appendix Figure A.6 shows the mean absolute value of compensating differentials for marginal workers. For two randomly drawn firms, the one with worse amenities can be expected to pay an additional 18 percent in order to convince marginal workers (of average quality) to accept the job. There is, however, considerable heterogeneity in compensating differentials according to worker quality. The upward sloping solid line shows how the expected compensating differential varies with worker quality. For high quality workers (95th percentile in the national distribution), the expected compensating differential is as large as 30 percent. By comparison, marginal workers of low quality (5th percentile in the national distribution) require less than 10 percent additional pay to work in the firm with unfavorable amenities.

The dashed lines of Online Appendix Figure A.6 display the compensating differentials across firms within a market. To compute these quantities, we use the same procedure as above, except we now compare firms within each market. For two randomly drawn firms in the same market, the one with worse amenities can be expected to pay an additional 14 percent in order to convince marginal workers (of average quality) to accept the job. This suggests that three-quarters of compensating differentials reflect differences in amenities within, rather than between, markets.

6.3 The importance of amenities and productivity for firm effects

As evident from equation (8), variation in the firm effects $\psi_{jt}$ depends not only on the heterogeneity in firm amenities, but also on the differences in productivity across firms as well as the covariance between productivity and amenities within firms. The reason is that firms have wage-setting power, which generates a positive relationship between the firm’s productivity and the wages it pays. To quantify the importance of these sources, consider the decomposition,

$$ Var(\psi_{j(i,t),t}) = Var(c_r - \alpha_r h_{j(i,t)}) + Var\left(\frac{1}{1 + \alpha_r \lambda \beta} \tilde{a}_{r(i,t)} + \frac{1}{1 + \alpha_r \lambda \beta / \rho_r} \tilde{a}_{j(i,t),t}\right) $$

$$ + 2 Cov(c_r - \alpha_r h_{j(i,t)}), \frac{1}{1 + \alpha_r \lambda \beta} \tilde{a}_{r(i,t)} + \frac{1}{1 + \alpha_r \lambda \beta / \rho_r} \tilde{a}_{j(i,t),t} $$

These components can be broken down between and within broad markets and, within broad markets, further decomposed within and between markets.\(^{19}\)

The results from these decompositions are reported in Table 3.\(^{20}\) They suggest substantial variation in amenities and productivity across firms. Interpreted in isolation, this heterogeneity predicts a large inequality contribution from firm effects. However, productive firms tend to have good amenities, which act as compensating differentials and push wages down in productive firms. As a result, firm effects explain only a few percent of the overall variation in log earnings. For example, firm effects within detailed markets explain 3.1 percent of the variation in log earnings.

\(^{19}\)Recall that a broad market is a Census region interacted with a broad sector (goods or services), while a market is a commuting zone interacted with a 2-digit NAICS industry.

\(^{20}\)We find similar results qualitatively when using two way fixed effect estimation without bias-correction or firm-worker interactions. Thus, the results in Table 3 are robust to alternative estimation procedures.


<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th></th>
<th>Between Broad Markets</th>
<th>Within Broad Markets</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Between Detailed Markets</td>
<td>Within Detailed Markets</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Total</td>
<td>0.4%</td>
<td>2.0%</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Amenity Differences</td>
<td>16.0%</td>
<td>7.8%</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>TFP Differences</td>
<td>15.5%</td>
<td>11.9%</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Amenity-TFP Covariance</td>
<td>-31.1%</td>
<td>-17.7%</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td>-12.6%</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Table 3: Decomposition of the Variation in Firm Premiums

Notes: This table displays our estimates of the decomposition of time-varying firm premium variation in three levels: variation between broad markets, between detailed markets (within broad markets), and between firms (within detailed markets). Broad markets are defined as the combination of a Census region and broad sector, and detailed markets are defined as the combination of industry times commuting zone. We decompose the variation in time-varying firm premiums into the contributions from amenity differences, TFP differences, and the covariance between amenity and TFP differences. All components are expressed as shares of log earnings variation.

earnings, which is much less than predicted by the variances of firm productivity (8.6 percent) and amenities (7.1 percent).

The positive correlation between TFP and amenities gives a negative contribution to earnings inequality, as indicated by the negative terms reported in the last row of Table 3. Since labor supply is upward sloping, more productive firms must offer greater total compensation per worker than smaller firms to achieve their optimal size. Since TFP and amenities are positively correlated, high TFP firms disproportionately offer compensation through amenities rather than wages. Thus, earnings inequality would be even greater if amenities were uncorrelated with TFP, since high TFP firms would rely more heavily on paying higher wages instead of higher amenities.

6.4 Worker sorting

As summarized in Section 5.4 and discussed in greater detail in our Online Supplement, there is positive sorting between worker and firm fixed effects, which contributes to inequality in earnings. In Figure 3(a), we present the sorting of workers to firms in our data. In this figure, firm types are ordered along the x-axis in ascending order of mean log earnings. On the y-axis, we rank workers by their worker effects $\bar{x}_i$ and divide them into five equally sized quintile groups. The bars present the share of workers within each firm type belonging to each quintile group. Figure 3(a) reveals that the highest quality workers are vastly overrepresented at the highest paying firms. For example, in the lowest firm type, less than 10 percent of workers belong to the top quality quintile group. By contrast, in the highest firm type, about 60 percent of workers belong to the top group.

To build confidence in the estimated pattern of sorting, we exploit that there are two distinct methods to estimate sorting. One possibility is the baseline approach discussed in Subsection 4.2, which recovers worker and firm fixed effects from the equation for firm wage premiums (14) and uses the allocation of workers to firms observed in the data. Another possibility is to use the fixed-point definition of $h_j$ as a function of the estimated values of $(\tilde{P}_j, \bar{P}_r, G_j(X))$, as shown in
Figure 3: Actual and counterfactual composition of the workforce by firm types

Notes: In this figure, we first compare the baseline estimates of the worker quality composition by firm type from the equation for firm wage premiums (15) in subfigure (a) versus those estimated using the equilibrium constraint by solving the fixed-point definition of $h_j$ as a function of $(\tilde{P}_j, P_r, G_j(X))$, as shown in Lemma 3 in Online Appendix A.1 then simulating the allocation of worker quality to firm types using only estimated model parameters. This approach relies on the equilibrium constraint of the model, which we do not directly use in the baseline estimation. The results from this simulation are presented in Figure 3(b). The strong similarity between Figures 3(a) and 3(b) serves as an overidentification check that increases our confidence in the moment conditions implied by our economic model.

As discussed in Subsection 2.3, there are several possible reasons why better workers are overrepresented in higher paying firms. One possible reason is that productive firms have better amenities, and high ability workers may value amenities more than low ability workers. Another possible reason is complementarities in production, which incentivizes better workers to sort into productive firms. We now perform counterfactuals that help quantify the importance of these distinct reasons for sorting.

In the counterfactuals we consider, we reduce the heterogeneity across firms in amenities or production complementarities by replacing either $g_j(x)$ with $(1 - s) g_j(x) + s\overline{g}_j$ or $\theta_j$ with $(1 - s) \theta_j + s\overline{\theta}$, where $\overline{g}_j = \mathbb{E}_x[g_j(x)]$, $\overline{\theta} = \mathbb{E}[\theta_j]$, then re-simulate the equilibrium. Here, $s \in [0, 1]$ is the shrink rate with $s = 0$ corresponding to the baseline model. We report the quality of the workforce by firm type for the counterfactual economies with $s = \frac{1}{2}$ for either amenities (subfigure c) or production complementarities (subfigure d).
### Table 4: Consequences of Eliminating Tax and Labor Wedges

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th></th>
<th>Monopsonistic Labor Market</th>
<th>No Labor or Tax Wedges</th>
<th>Difference between (1) and (2)</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Log of Expected Output</td>
<td>log $E[Y_{jt}]$</td>
<td>11.38</td>
<td>11.41</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Total Welfare (log dollars)</td>
<td>12.16</td>
<td>12.21</td>
<td>0.05</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Sorting Correlation</td>
<td>$Cov(\psi_{jt}, x_i)$</td>
<td>0.44</td>
<td>0.47</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Labor Wedges</td>
<td>$1 + \frac{\rho_r}{\lambda}$</td>
<td>1.15</td>
<td>1.00</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Worker Rents (as share of earnings):</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Firm-level</td>
<td>$\frac{\rho_r}{1 + \frac{\rho_r}{\lambda}}$</td>
<td>13.3%</td>
<td>12.4%</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Market-level</td>
<td>$\frac{\rho_r}{1 + \frac{\rho_r}{\lambda}}$</td>
<td>18.0%</td>
<td>16.7%</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Notes: This table compares the monopsonistic labor market to a counterfactual economy which differs in two ways. First, we eliminate the tax wedge in the first order condition by setting the tax progressivity $(1 - \lambda)$ equal to zero. Second, we remove the labor wedges in the first order conditions of the firms by setting $\tau_r$ equal to the labor wedge $1 + \frac{\rho_r}{\lambda}$ in each market $r$. After changing these parameters of the model, we solve for the new equilibrium allocation and outcomes, including wages, output and welfare. Results are displayed for output, welfare, the sorting correlation, the mean labor wedge, and worker rents.

or production complementarities by replacing either $g_j(x)$ with $(1 - s) g_j(x) + s \bar{g}_j$ or $\theta_j$ with $(1 - s) \theta_j + s \bar{\theta}$, where $\bar{g}_j = E_x [g_j(x)]$, $\bar{\theta} = E [\theta_j]$. Here, $s \in [0, 1]$ is the shrink rate with $s = 0$ corresponding to the baseline model. By reducing the heterogeneity in production complementarities, we are effectively making amenities more important for the allocation of workers to firm (and vice versa). Keeping $\psi_{jt}$ fixed at baseline values ($s = 0$), we solve for the counterfactual allocation of workers to firms given the chosen counterfactual values of $g_j(x)$ or $\theta_j$.

Figures 3(c) and 3(d) illustrate the importance of amenities versus production complementarities for the sorting of workers to firms. Here, we solve the equilibrium counterfactual economies with $s = \frac{1}{2}$ for either amenities (subfigure c) or production complementarities (subfigure d). The results suggest that production complementarities are the key reason why better workers are sorting into higher paying firms. Online Appendix Figure A.7 complements these results by plotting estimates of $Corr(x_i, \psi_{j(i,t)})$ and $2Cov(x_i, \psi_{j(i,t)})$ for counterfactual economies with many values of $s$. These findings indicate that production complementarities are the driving force of the strong positive correlation between worker and firm effects and the significant inequality contribution from worker sorting.

### 6.5 Progressive taxation and allocative efficiency

As shown in Section 2.5, the government can improve the allocation of workers to firms in two ways. First, a less progressive tax system may reduce the misallocation that arise from the tax wedge. Second, letting the tax rates vary across markets may improve allocation by counteracting the differences in the wage-setting power of firms. We now use the estimated model to perform a counterfactual that quantifies the impacts of such a tax reform on the equilibrium allocation and outcomes, including wages, output and welfare.

The counterfactual we consider involves two changes to the monopsonistic labor market. First, we eliminate the tax wedge in the first order condition, which distorts the worker’s ranking...
of firms in favor of those with better amenities. This is done by setting the tax progressivity 
\((1 - \lambda)\) equal to zero. Second, we remove the labor wedges in the first order conditions of the 
firms. These wedges cause misallocation of workers across firms with different degrees of wage-
setting power. As proven in Lemma 7 in Online Appendix A.4, labor wedges can be eliminated 
by setting \(\tau_r\) equal to the labor wedge \(1 + \frac{\rho_r}{\lambda \beta}\) in each market \(r\). After changing these parameters 
of the model, we solve for the new equilibrium allocation and outcomes, including wages, output 
and welfare. For a set of wages \(\{W_{jt}(X)\}_{j,t}\) and a tax policy \((\lambda, \tau)\), we define the welfare as:

\[
W_t = E \left[ \max_j u_{jt} \left( j, (1 + \phi_t)\tau W_{jt}(X_i) \right) \right]
\]

where \(\phi_t\) is set so that profits and tax revenues are distributed among all the workers in pro-
portion to their earnings:

\[
\phi_t \cdot E [\tau W_{jt}(X_i)^\lambda] = \frac{1}{N} \sum_{jt} \Pi_{jt} + E \left[ W_j(X_i) - \tau W_j(X_i) \right],
\]

In other words, we redistribute profits and tax revenues in a non-distortionary way.

The result are presented in Table 4. They suggest the monopsonistic labor market creates 
significant misallocation of workers to firms. Eliminating labor and tax wedges increases total 
welfare by 5 percent and total output by 3 percent. When we decompose this change by 
performing the counterfactuals one at a time, we find that 4 percentage points of the welfare 
gains are due to eliminating the labor wedge while the remaining 1 percentage point is due to 
eliminating the tax wedge. We also find that removing these wedges would increase the sorting 
of better workers to higher paying firms and lower the rents that workers earn from ongoing 
employment relationships. When we decompose this change by performing the counterfactuals 
one at a time, we find that nearly all of the change in sorting is due to eliminating the tax 
wedge, with the labor wedge having a small impact on sorting.

In interpreting these results, it is important to recall that we assume firms initially may 
choose amenities \(g_j(x)\), but they do not change \(g_j(x)\) in in the counterfactuals. With better 
data on, and an instrument for, amenities, it would be interesting to extend this analysis to 
allow for firms to adjust amenities in response to these counterfactuals.

7 Conclusion

The goal of our paper was to quantify the importance of imperfect competition in the U.S. labor 
market by estimating the size of rents earned by American firms and workers from ongoing 
employment relationships. To this end, we constructed a matched employer-employee panel 
data set by combining the universe of U.S. business and worker tax records for the period 
2001-2015. Using this panel data, we identified and estimated an equilibrium model of the 
labor market with two-sided heterogeneity where workers view firms as imperfect substitutes 
because of heterogeneous preferences over non-wage job characteristics. The model allowed us 
to draw inference about imperfect competition, compensating differentials and rent sharing.
We also used the model to quantify the relevance of non-wage job characteristics and imperfect competition for inequality and tax policy, to assess the economic determinants of worker sorting, and to offer a unifying explanation of key empirical features of the U.S. labor market.

When considering the interpretation and generality of our study, we emphasize a few caveats and extensions. One of these is that we focus on distortions in the allocation of workers to firms and markets. However, tax and labor wedges may also distort the choices of whether and how much to work. Related, we do not consider unemployment, and, as a result, we are reluctant to draw conclusions about how imperfect competition matters for the impact of minimum wages. Doing so is an important but challenging task, as it requires identification of the value of non-employment and a non-linear supply curve. We also assume the labor market is a spot market and, thus, we are unable to analyze the role of long-term contracts and firm insurance against shocks.\(^{21}\) Furthermore, our structural model makes several simplifying assumptions, partly because of data availability but also to prove identification. For example, we abstract from observed heterogeneity in preferences and skills and, moreover, model individual behavior, and hence do not consider any interdependencies between spouses in the choices of whether and where to work.\(^{22}\) Moreover, we assume no mobility costs or search frictions, and we do not explicitly model human capital investments or work experience. While incorporating these features would be interesting, it would also present severe challenges to identification, especially if one allows for two-sided heterogeneity. Additionally, we focus on the wage setting power of firms, and the analyses do not incorporate that firms may have price-setting power in the product market. Extending the model to allow for both forms of imperfect competition and how they interact is an important avenue for future research.\(^{23}\) Lastly, we consider an equilibrium where each firm views itself as infinitesimal within the market. This assumption is motivated by the fact that very few firms in the U.S. have a large share of the local labor market (as measured by commuting zone). Thus, optimizing firms would essentially ignore the negligible effect of changing their own wages on the overall supply of workers to the market as a whole. However, if labor markets are sufficiently segmented (geographically or by industry), it is possible that strategic interactions can play an important role.\(^{24}\)

References


\(^{21}\) See Balke and Lamadon (2020) for a model and empirical analysis of long-term contracts and firm insurance.

\(^{22}\) Autor et al. (2019) and Blundell et al. (2016) estimate a life cycle model with two earners jointly making consumption and labor supply decisions. Their findings suggest an important role for consumption smoothing through household labor supply.

\(^{23}\) Kroft et al. (2020) analyze imperfect competition in both the labor and the product market in the U.S. construction industry.

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A Details on Model Solutions

A.1 Derivation of equilibrium wages

Given the nested logit preferences and a given set of wages $W_t = \{W_{jt}(X)\}_{j=1..J}$ we get that

$$
Pr[j(i,t)=j|X_i=X, W_t] = \frac{\left(\sum_{j'_t \in J_r(j)} (rG_{j'}(X))^{\beta/\rho r} W_{j't}(X)^{\lambda \beta/\rho r} \right)^{\rho r}}{\sum_r \left(\sum_{j'_t \in J_r} (rG_{j'}(X))^{\beta/\rho r} W_{j't}(X)^{\lambda \beta/\rho r} \right)^{\rho r}}
$$

and

$$
E[u_{it}|X_i = X, W_t] = \frac{1}{\beta} \left[ \log \left(\sum_r \left(\sum_{j'_t \in J_r} (rG_{j'}(X))^{\beta/\rho r} W_{j't}(X)^{\lambda \beta/\rho r} \right)^{\rho r}\right) + \overline{C} \right],
$$

where $\overline{C}$ is an unrecoverable constant. It is useful to introduce the following definition before stating the Lemmas:

$$
C_r \equiv (1 - \alpha_r)\lambda \beta/\rho r \frac{1 + \lambda \beta/\rho r}{1 + \lambda \beta/\rho r}.
$$

**Lemma 1.** Assume that firms believe they are strategically small. That is, in the firm first order condition, we impose that

$$
\frac{\partial I_{rt}(X)}{\partial W_{jt}(X)} = 0.
$$

We can then show that for firm $j$ in market $r$

$$
Y_{jt} = (A_{jt})^\frac{1+\lambda \beta/\rho r}{1-\alpha_r \lambda \beta/\rho r} (H_{jt})^{1-\alpha_r}, 
$$

$$
W_{jt}(X) = C_r X^\theta_j H_{jt}^{-\alpha_r} A_{jt}^\frac{1}{1-\alpha_r \lambda \beta/\rho r}, 
$$

$$
L_{jt} = H_{jt} A_{jt}^\frac{\lambda \beta/\rho r}{1-\alpha_r \lambda \beta/\rho r},
$$

where $H_{jt}$ is implicitly defined by

$$
H_{jt} \equiv \left( \int X^\theta_j (1+\lambda \beta/\rho r) K_{rt}(X) (rG_j(X))^{\beta/\rho r} C_r^{\lambda \beta/\rho r} dX \right)^{\frac{1}{1-\alpha_r \lambda \beta/\rho r}},
$$

1
and we define

$$K_{rt}(X) \equiv NM_X(X) \frac{(I_{rt}(X))^{\lambda \beta}}{\sum_{I'} I'_{rt}(X)^{\lambda \beta}} \left( \frac{1}{I_{rt}(X)} \right)^{\lambda \beta/\rho_r},$$

$$I_{rt}(X) \equiv \left( \sum_{J \in J_r} \left( \tau^{1/\lambda} G_j(X)^{1/\lambda} C_r X^\theta J A_{Jt} \left( \frac{Y_{Jt}}{A_{Jt}} \right)^{-\frac{\alpha_r}{1-\alpha_r}} \right)^{\lambda \beta/\rho_r} \right)^{\lambda \beta/\rho_r}.$$  

Proof. We start from the firm problem specified in the main text including the tax parameters. Using shorthand $r$ for $r(j)$, we have

$$\max_{\{W_{j}(X),D_{jt}(X)\}} A_{Jt} \left( \int X^\theta J D_{jt}(X) dX \right)^{1-\alpha_r} - \int W_{j}(X) D_{jt}(X) dX$$

s.t. $D_{jt}(X) = NM_X(X) \frac{(I_{rt}(X))^{\lambda \beta}}{\sum_{I'} I'_{rt}(X)^{\lambda \beta}} \left( G_j(X)^{1/\lambda} \frac{W_{jt}(X)}{I_{rt}(X)} \right)^{\lambda \beta/\rho_r}$

and defining:

$$K_{rt}(X) \equiv NM_X(X) \frac{I_{rt}(X)^{\lambda \beta}}{\sum_{I'} I'_{rt}(X)^{\lambda \beta}} \left( \frac{1}{I_{rt}(X)} \right)^{\lambda \beta/\rho_r}.$$  

We substitute in the labor supply function and take the first order condition with respect to $W_{jt}(X)$:

$$(1-\alpha_r) X^\theta J \left( \frac{\lambda \beta}{\rho_r} W_{jt}(X)^{\lambda \beta/\rho_r-1} + \frac{1}{K_{rt}(X)} \frac{\partial K_{rt}(X)}{\partial W_{jt}(X)} W_{jt}(X)^{\lambda \beta/\rho_r} \right) \tau^{\beta/\rho_r} G_j(X)^{\beta/\rho_r} A_{Jt} \left( \frac{Y_{Jt}}{A_{Jt}} \right)^{-\frac{\alpha_r}{1-\alpha_r}}$$

$$= \tau^{\beta/\rho_r} G_j(X)^{\beta/\rho_r} \left( (1 + \frac{\lambda \beta}{\rho_r}) W_{jt}(X)^{\lambda \beta/\rho_r} + \frac{1}{K_{rt}(X)} \frac{\partial K_{rt}(X)}{\partial W_{jt}(X)} W_{jt}(X)^{1+\lambda \beta/\rho_r} \right).$$

Under the assumption that $\frac{\partial K_{rt}(X)}{\partial W_{jt}(X)} = 0$, the FOC then simplifies to

$$\left( 1 + \frac{\lambda \beta}{\rho_r} \right) W_{jt}(X) = \frac{\lambda \beta}{\rho_r} (1 - \alpha_r) X^\theta J A_{Jt} \left( \frac{Y_{Jt}}{A_{Jt}} \right)^{-\frac{\alpha_r}{1-\alpha_r}},$$

or

$$W_{jt}(X) = C_r X^\theta J A_{Jt} \left( \frac{Y_{Jt}}{A_{Jt}} \right)^{-\frac{\alpha_r}{1-\alpha_r}}.$$  

Let’s then turn to the output of the firm,

$$Y_{jt}/A_{jt} = \left( \int X^\theta J K_{rt}(X) \tau G_j(X)^{\beta/\rho_r} W_{jt}(X)^{\lambda \beta/\rho_r} dX \right)^{1-\alpha_r}$$

$$= \left( \int \left( X^\theta J \right)^{1+\lambda \beta/\rho_r} K_{rt}(X) \tau G_j(X)^{\beta/\rho_r} (C_r A_{Jt})^{\lambda \beta/\rho_r} \left( \frac{Y_{Jt}}{A_{Jt}} \right)^{-\frac{\alpha_r \lambda \beta/\rho_r}{1-\alpha_r}} dX \right)^{1-\alpha_r}.$$
and so:

\[
(Y_{jt}/A_{jt})^{1+\alpha_r \lambda \beta / \rho_r} = \left( \int X^{\theta_j (1+\lambda \beta / \rho_r)} K_{rt} (X) (\tau G_j (X))^{\beta / \rho_r} C_r^{\lambda \beta / \rho_r} dX \right)^{1-\alpha_r} (A_{jt})^{1-(1-\alpha_r) \lambda \beta / \rho_r}.
\]

Introducing

\[
H_{jt} = \left( \int X^{\theta_j (1+\lambda \beta / \rho_r)} K_{rt} (X) (\tau G_j (X))^{\beta / \rho_r} C_r^{\lambda \beta / \rho_r} dX \right)^{1-1/(1+\alpha_r \lambda \beta / \rho_r)},
\]

this simplifies to

\[
(Y_{jt}/A_{jt})^{1+\alpha_r \lambda \beta / \rho_r} = (H_{jt})^{1-(1-\alpha_r) \lambda \beta / \rho_r} (A_{jt})^{(1-\alpha_r) \lambda \beta / \rho_r},
\]

\[
Y_{jt} = (A_{jt})^{1+\lambda \beta / \rho_r} (H_{jt})^{1-\alpha_r}.
\]

Then we get for the wage:

\[
W_{jt} (X) = C_r X^{\theta_j} A_{jt} \left( \frac{Y_{jt}}{A_{jt}} \right)^{-\alpha_r} = C_r X^{\theta_j} H_{jt}^{-\alpha_r} A_{jt}^{1-(1+\alpha_r \lambda \beta / \rho_r)}.
\]

In addition we have:

\[
L_{jt} = \int X^{\theta_j} K_{rt} (X) (\tau G_j (X))^{\beta / \rho_r} W_{jt} (X)^{\lambda \beta / \rho_r} dX = H_{jt}^{1+\alpha_r \lambda \beta / \rho_r - \alpha_r \lambda \beta / \rho_r} A_{jt}^{\lambda \beta / \rho_r} dX = H_{jt} A_{jt}^{1+\alpha_r \lambda \beta / \rho_r}.
\]

\[\square\]

**Lemma 2** (Uniqueness of \(H_{jt}\)). The firm and time-specific equilibrium constants \(H_{jt}\) are uniquely defined.

**Proof.** As we have established in Lemma 1, for firm \(j\) in market \(r\), \(H_{jt}\) solves the following...
system:

\[ \frac{H_{jt}}{J} = \left[ \sum_{r'} \left( \sum_{j' \in J_{r'}} \left( X^{\lambda \theta} \tau G_{j'}(X) C_r H_{j't}^{-\lambda} \right)^{\beta/\rho_{r'}} A_{j't}^{(\lambda \theta/\rho_{r'})^\lambda} \right) \right]^{-1} \]

\[ \times \left( \sum_{j' \in J_{r'}} \left( X^{\lambda \theta} \tau G_{j'}(X) C_r H_{j't}^{-\lambda} \right)^{\beta/\rho_{r'}} A_{j't}^{(\lambda \theta/\rho_{r'})^\lambda} \right)^{\rho_{r'} - 1} \]

\[ \times X^{\theta (1 + \lambda \beta/\rho_{r'})} (\tau G_{j}(X) C_r) \beta/\rho_{r'} \frac{N M_X(X) dX}{(1 + \lambda \beta/\rho_{r'})}, \]

where we replaced \( K_{rt}(X) \) and then \( I_{rt}(X) \) and finally \( Y_{jt} \) with their expressions in terms of \( H_{jt} \). To show uniqueness we are going to show that \( \frac{\tilde{H}_{jt}}{J} = \left( H_{jt} \right)^{\alpha_{r'}} \) is unique. Using \( \tilde{H}_t = (\tilde{H}_{1t}, ..., \tilde{H}_{Jt}) \), it solves the following fixed point expression:

\[ \tilde{H}_{jt} = \left[ \sum_{r'} \left( \sum_{j' \in J_{r'}} \left( X^{\lambda \theta} \tau G_{j'}(X) C_r H_{j't}^{-\lambda} \right)^{\beta/\rho_{r'}} A_{j't}^{(\lambda \theta/\rho_{r'})^\lambda} \right) \right]^{-1} \]

\[ \times \left( \sum_{j' \in J_{r'}} \left( X^{\lambda \theta} \tau G_{j'}(X) C_r H_{j't}^{-\lambda} \right)^{\beta/\rho_{r'}} A_{j't}^{(\lambda \theta/\rho_{r'})^\lambda} \right)^{\rho_{r'} - 1} \]

\[ \times X^{\theta (1 + \lambda \beta/\rho_{r'})} (\tau G_{j}(X) C_r) \beta/\rho_{r'} \frac{N M_X(X) dX}{(1 + \lambda \beta/\rho_{r'})}, \]

\[ \tilde{H}_t \]

We show that this expression satisfies the two conditions required to apply Theorem 1 of Kennan (2001). We first look at the common part to all \( j \) terms given by

\[ \tilde{\Gamma}_t(X, \tilde{H}_t) \equiv \left( \sum_{r'} \left( \sum_{j' \in J_{r'}} \left( X^{\lambda \theta} \tau G_{j'}(X) C_r H_{j't}^{-\lambda} \right)^{\beta/\rho_{r'}} A_{j't}^{(\lambda \theta/\rho_{r'})^\lambda} \right) \right)^{-1} \]

\[ \times \left( \sum_{j' \in J_{r'}} \left( X^{\lambda \theta} \tau G_{j'}(X) C_r H_{j't}^{-\lambda} \right)^{\beta/\rho_{r'}} A_{j't}^{(\lambda \theta/\rho_{r'})^\lambda} \right)^{\rho_{r'} - 1} \]

and we see that

\[ \tilde{\Gamma}_t(X, \mu \cdot \tilde{H}_t) = \left( \sum_{r'} \mu^{\lambda \beta} \left( \sum_{j' \in J_{r'}} \left( X^{\lambda \theta} \tau G_{j'}(X) C_r H_{j't}^{-\lambda} \right)^{\beta/\rho_{r'}} A_{j't}^{(\lambda \theta/\rho_{r'})^\lambda} \right) \right)^{-1} \]

\[ = \mu^{\lambda \beta} \tilde{\Gamma}_t(X, \tilde{H}_t). \]
Hence we get that

$$
\Gamma_{jt}(\mu \cdot \hat{H}_t) = \left[ \int X^{\theta_j(1+\lambda \beta/\rho_r)} \bar{\Gamma}_t(X, \mu \cdot \bar{H}_t) \left( \tau G_j(X) C_{\tau r}^\lambda \right)^{\beta/\rho_r} \right.
\times \left( \sum_{j' \in J_r} \left( X^{\lambda \theta_{j'}} \tau G_{j'}(X) \mu^{-\lambda} C_{\tau r}^\lambda \bar{H}_{j't}^\lambda \right)^{\beta/\rho_r} A_{j't}^{\lambda \beta/\rho_r} \right)^{\rho_r-1} N M_X(X) dX \right]^{1/\alpha_r \lambda \beta/\rho_r}.
$$

Then for any $0 < \mu < 1$, $r$ and $j \in J_r$, given $\bar{H}_t > 0$ such that $\bar{\Gamma}_t(\bar{H}_t) = \bar{H}_t$, where $\bar{\Gamma}_t(\cdot) \equiv (\Gamma_{1t}(\cdot), \ldots, \Gamma_{Jt}(\cdot))$, we have:

$$
\begin{align*}
\Gamma_{jt}(\mu \cdot \bar{H}_t) - \mu \cdot \bar{H}_t &= \mu^{\alpha_r \lambda \beta/\rho_r} \cdot \Gamma_{jt}(\bar{H}_t) - \mu \cdot \bar{H}_t \\
&= \mu^{\alpha_r \lambda \beta/\rho_r} \cdot \bar{H}_t - \mu \cdot \bar{H}_t \\
&= \mu \left( \frac{\alpha_r \lambda \beta/\rho_r}{\alpha_r \lambda \beta/\rho_r - 1} - 1 \right) \cdot \bar{H}_t \\
&> 0,
\end{align*}
$$

which means that we have shown that $\bar{\Gamma}_t(\bar{H}_t) - \bar{H}_t$ is strictly “radially quasi-concave”. The next step is to show monotonicity. Consider $\bar{H}_{1t}$ and $\bar{H}_{2t}$ such that for a given $j$ we have $\bar{H}_{1jt} = \bar{H}_{2jt}$ and $\bar{H}_{1jt'} \leq \bar{H}_{2jt'}$ for all other. Then we have that for all $j', t$, $X$ and $r' = r(j')$,

$$
\left( X^{\lambda \theta_{j'}} \tau G_{j'}(X) C_{\tau r'}^\lambda \bar{H}_{1j't}^\lambda \right)^{\beta/\rho_{r'}} A_{j't}^{\lambda \beta/\rho_{r'}} \geq \left( X^{\lambda \theta_{j'}} \tau G_{j'}(X) C_{\tau r'}^\lambda \bar{H}_{2j't}^\lambda \right)^{\beta/\rho_{r'}} A_{j't}^{\lambda \beta/\rho_{r'}}
$$

and for any $r'$:

$$
\sum_{j' \in J_r} \left( X^{\lambda \theta_{j'}} \tau G_{j'}(X) C_{\tau r'}^\lambda \bar{H}_{1j't}^\lambda \right)^{\beta/\rho_{r'}} A_{j't}^{\lambda \beta/\rho_{r'}} \geq \sum_{j' \in J_r} \left( X^{\lambda \theta_{j'}} \tau G_{j'}(X) C_{\tau r'}^\lambda \bar{H}_{2j't}^\lambda \right)^{\beta/\rho_{r'}} A_{j't}^{\lambda \beta/\rho_{r'}}.
$$

Hence, summing over $r'$ and taking it to the power of minus one, this implies that $\bar{\Gamma}_t(X, \bar{H}_{1t}) \leq \bar{\Gamma}_t(X, \bar{H}_{2t})$. 

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\( \bar{\Gamma}_t(X, \hat{H}_{2t}) \). Then, since \( \rho_r \leq 1 \) we also get that:

\[
\left( \sum_{j' \in J_r} \left( X^{\lambda \theta_{j'}} \tau G_{j'}(X) C_{r}^{\lambda} \hat{H}_{1j't}^{\lambda - \lambda} \right)^{\beta / \rho_r} A_{j't}^{\lambda \theta_{j'} / \rho_r} \right)^{\rho_r - 1} \leq \left( \sum_{j' \in J_r} \left( X^{\lambda \theta_{j'}} \tau G_{j'}(X) C_{r}^{\lambda} \hat{H}_{2j't}^{\lambda - \lambda} \right)^{\beta / \rho_r} A_{j't}^{\lambda \theta_{j'} / \rho_r} \right)^{\rho_r - 1}.
\]

Combining the last two results and observing that the third term in the expression for \( \Gamma_{jt}(\hat{H}_t) \) is the same for \( \hat{H}_{1t} \) and \( \hat{H}_{2t} \) gives us that:

\[
\Gamma_{jt}(\hat{H}_{2t}) \leq \Gamma_{jt}(\hat{H}_{2t})
\]

\[
\Gamma_{jt}(\hat{H}_{1t}) - \hat{H}_{1j't} \leq \Gamma_{jt}(\hat{H}_{2t}) - \hat{H}_{2j't}.
\]

Since the last inequality holds for all \( j \), we obtain the quasi-increasing property:

\[
\Gamma_{jt}(\hat{H}_{1t}) - \hat{H}_{1t} \leq \Gamma_{jt}(\hat{H}_{2t}) - \hat{H}_{2t}.
\]

The fact that the function is “radially quasi-concave” together with monotonicity gives uniqueness of the fixed point by the theorem in Kennan (2001). This means that \( \hat{H}_t \) is unique, and hence that \( \hat{H}_{jt} \) is unique and finally that \( H_{jt} \) is unique.

**Definition 2.** We consider a sequence of increasingly larger economies indexed by an increasing number of regions \( n^f \) where \( n^f_t = \kappa_r n^r \) for some fixed \( \kappa_r \). In this sequence of economies we assume that the amenities scale according to \( G_j(X) = \hat{G}_j(X) \left( n^f_{t(j)} \right)^{-\rho_r(j)/\beta} \) for some fixed \( \hat{G}_j(X) \). We also assume that the mass of workers grows according to \( N = n^f \cdot \bar{n}^f \cdot \bar{N} = n^f \cdot n^r \cdot \bar{\kappa} \cdot \hat{N} \), where \( \bar{n}^f \) is the average number of firms per region \( n^f_r \), and \( \bar{\kappa} \) is the average of \( \kappa_r \).

**Lemma 3.** Here we establish that the unique solution for \( H_{jt} \) in the limit of a sequence of growing economies is given by

\[
H_{jt} = H_j \cdot A_{jt}^{\lambda \theta / \rho_r (1 + \rho_r - 1)} / \left( \frac{1}{1 + \rho_r - 1} \right). 
\]
where $H_j$ solves the following fixed point:

$$H_j = \left( \int X^{\beta} \left( \frac{I_0(X)}{I_0(X)} \right)^{\lambda^{\beta/\rho}} \left( X^{\lambda^{\beta/\rho}} \tau \hat{G}_j(X)C_r^\lambda \right)^{\beta/\rho} \frac{\hat{N} M_X(X) dX}{1 + \frac{\lambda^{\beta/\rho}}{\rho}} \right)^{-1}$$

$I_0(X)^{\lambda^{\beta/\rho}} \equiv E_r \left[ \left( X^{\lambda^{\beta/\rho}} \tau \hat{G}_j(X)C_r^\lambda H_j^{\alpha/\lambda} \right)^{\beta/\rho} \right]$, $I_0(X)^{\lambda^{\beta/\rho}} \equiv E_r \left[ \left( X^{\lambda^{\beta/\rho}} \tau \hat{G}_j(X)C_r^\lambda \right)^{\beta/\rho} \frac{\hat{N} M_X(X) dX}{1 + \frac{\lambda^{\beta/\rho}}{\rho}} \right]$. 

Proof. Consider the expression for $H_{jt}$ from the beginning of Lemma 2:

$$H_{jt} = \left( \int \left( \sum_{j \in J_t} \left( \sum_{j' \in J_{j'}} \left( X^{\lambda^{\beta/\rho}} \tau \hat{G}_j(X)C_r^\lambda H_{jt}^{\alpha/\lambda} \right)^{\beta/\rho} \frac{\hat{N} M_X(X) dX}{1 + \frac{\lambda^{\beta/\rho}}{\rho}} \right)^{\beta/\rho} \right)^{-1}$$

Let’s introduce $n^r$ and $n_{f, \kappa^r}$, $\hat{G}_j(X) = \left( n_{f, \kappa^r}^{-1} G_j(X) \right)^{\beta/\rho} \hat{G}_j(X)$ and $\hat{N} = (n^r n^r \hat{N})^{-1} N :$ 

$$H_{jt} = \left( \int \left( \frac{1}{n^{r}} \sum_{j' \in J_{j'}} \left( \frac{1}{n_{f, \kappa^r}} \sum_{j' \in J_{j'}} \left( X^{\lambda^{\beta/\rho}} \tau \hat{G}_j(X)C_r^\lambda H_{jt}^{\alpha/\lambda} \right)^{\beta/\rho} \frac{\hat{N} M_X(X) dX}{1 + \frac{\lambda^{\beta/\rho}}{\rho}} \right)^{\beta/\rho} \right)^{-1}$$

As the economy grows large, i.e. as $n^r$ grows to infinity, we end up with the following expression:

$$H_{jt} = \left( \int \left( \frac{1}{n^{r}} \sum_{j' \in J_{j'}} \left( \frac{1}{n_{f, \kappa^r}} \sum_{j' \in J_{j'}} \left( X^{\lambda^{\beta/\rho}} \tau \hat{G}_j(X)C_r^\lambda H_{jt}^{\alpha/\lambda} \right)^{\beta/\rho} \frac{\hat{N} M_X(X) dX}{1 + \frac{\lambda^{\beta/\rho}}{\rho}} \right)^{\beta/\rho} \right)^{-1}$$

Next we show that $H_{jt}$ can indeed be expressed as stated in the Lemma. Let’s assume that
\[ H_{jt} = H_j \cdot A_{rt}^{0} \frac{\lambda\beta/\rho_r}{(1+\alpha_r\lambda\beta/\rho_r)} \] and show that it solves the problem. We first note that:

\[
\begin{align*}
\mathbb{E}_{j'\in J_r} \left[ \left( X^{\lambda\beta_j} \tau G_j(X) C_r^{\lambda} H_j^{-\alpha_r} \right)^{\beta/\rho_r} A_{jt}^{\lambda\beta_j/\rho_r} \right] \\
&= \mathbb{E}_{j'\in J_r} \left[ \left( X^{\lambda\beta_j} \tau \tilde{G}_j(X) C_r^{\lambda} H_j^{-\alpha_r} \right)^{\beta/\rho_r} \times A_{jt}^{-\alpha_r\lambda\beta_j/\rho_r} \right] \\
&= A_{rt}^{\lambda\beta_j/\rho_r} \mathbb{E}_{j'\in J_r} \left[ \left( X^{\lambda\beta_j} \tau \tilde{G}_j(X) C_r^{\lambda} H_j^{-\alpha_r} \right)^{\beta/\rho_r} \right] \\
&= A_{rt}^{\lambda\beta_j/\rho_r} I_{r0}(X)^{\lambda\beta_j/\rho_r},
\end{align*}
\]

where we used \( A_{jt} = \tilde{A}_{r(j)t} \tilde{A}_{jt} \). Hence

\[
\begin{align*}
H_{jt} &= \left[ \int \left( \mathbb{E}_{r'} \left[ A_{r't}^{\lambda\beta_j/\rho_r} I_{r0}(X)^{\lambda\beta_j} \right] \right)^{-1} \times \left( A_{rt}^{\lambda\beta_j/\rho_r} I_{r0}(X)^{\lambda\beta_j/\rho_r} \right)^{\rho_r-1} \right. \\
&\quad \times X^{\theta_j(1+\lambda\beta_j/\rho_r)} \left( \tau \tilde{G}_j(X) C_r^{\lambda} \right)^{\beta/\rho_r} \frac{\tilde{K}_r}{K_r} \tilde{N} M(X) dX \left[ \frac{1}{1+\alpha_r\lambda\beta_j/\rho_r} \right]^{\rho_r} \\
&= \left[ X^{\theta_j} \left( \frac{I_{r0}(X)}{I_{0}(X)} \right)^{\lambda\beta} \left( \frac{1}{I_{r0}(X)} \right)^{\lambda\beta_j/\rho_r} \frac{1}{1+\alpha_r\lambda\beta_j/\rho_r} \right] \left( X^{\lambda\beta_j} \tau \tilde{G}_j(X) C_r^{\lambda} \right)^{\beta/\rho_r} \frac{\tilde{K}_r}{K_r} \tilde{N} M(X) dX \right]^{\rho_r-1} \\
&= H_j \cdot A_{rt}^{\lambda\beta_j/\rho_r} \left( \frac{1}{1+\alpha_r\lambda\beta_j/\rho_r} \right)^{\rho_r-1},
\end{align*}
\]

where we used that \( H_j \) solves

\[
H_j = \left[ X^{\theta_j} \left( \frac{I_{r0}(X)}{I_{0}(X)} \right)^{\lambda\beta} \left( \frac{1}{I_{r0}(X)} \right)^{\lambda\beta_j/\rho_r} \frac{1}{1+\alpha_r\lambda\beta_j/\rho_r} \frac{1}{1+\alpha_r\lambda\beta_j/\rho_r} \frac{1}{1+\alpha_r\lambda\beta_j/\rho_r} \right]^{\rho_r-1} \left( \lambda\beta_j \right)^{1/(\lambda\beta)} \]

with

\[
I_{0}(X) \equiv \left( \mathbb{E}_{r'} \left[ A_{r't}^{\lambda\beta_j/\rho_r} I_{r0}(X)^{\lambda\beta_j} \right] \right)^{1/(\lambda\beta)}.
\]

We can then establish the final result.

**Proposition 1.** The wage equation is given by

\[
w_{jt}(x, \tilde{a}, \tilde{a}) = c_r + \theta_j x - \alpha_r h_j + \frac{1}{1+\alpha_r\lambda\beta/\rho_r} \tilde{a} + \frac{1}{1+\alpha_r\lambda\beta/\rho_r} \tilde{a},
\]

where

\[
h_j = \ell_{jt} - \frac{\lambda\beta/\rho_r}{1+\alpha_r\lambda\beta/\rho_r} \tilde{a}_{jt} - \frac{\lambda\beta}{1+\alpha_r\lambda\beta} \tilde{a}_{rt}.
\]
Proof. Recall $L_{jt} = H_{jt} A_{jt}^{\frac{\lambda \beta / \rho r}{\alpha r}}$ from Lemma 1 and $H_{jt} = H_{j} \cdot A_{jt}^{\frac{\lambda \beta / \rho r}{\alpha r}} (1 + \frac{\alpha r \lambda \beta}{\rho r})$ from Lemma 3. Then:

$$h_{jt} = \ell_{jt} - \frac{\lambda \beta / \rho r}{1 + \alpha r \lambda \beta / \rho r} \bar{a}_{jt} = \frac{(\rho r - 1) \lambda \beta / \rho r}{(1 + \alpha r \beta)(1 + \alpha r \lambda \beta / \rho r)} \bar{a}_{rt} + h_{j}.$$  

Hence, we get

$$h_{j} = \ell_{jt} - \frac{\lambda \beta / \rho r}{1 + \alpha r \lambda \beta / \rho r} \bar{a}_{jt} - \frac{\lambda \beta}{1 + \alpha r \lambda \beta} \bar{a}_{rt}$$

$$\ell_{jt} = h_{j} + \frac{\lambda \beta / \rho r}{1 + \alpha r \lambda \beta / \rho r} \bar{a}_{jt} + \frac{\lambda \beta}{1 + \alpha r \lambda \beta} \bar{a}_{rt}$$

$$\equiv \ell_{j}(\bar{a}_{rt}, \bar{a}_{jt}).$$

Next, we replace $H_{jt}$ and $A_{jt}$ in the expression for the wage from Lemma 1, $W_{jt}(X) = C_{r} X^{\theta_{j}} H_{jt}^{-\alpha_{r}} A_{jt}^{\frac{\lambda \beta / \rho r}{\alpha r}}$, to get

$$w_{jt}(x) = c_{r} + \theta_{j} x - \alpha_{r} h_{j} + \frac{1}{1 + \alpha r \lambda \beta / \rho r} \bar{a}_{jt} + \frac{1}{1 + \alpha r \lambda \beta} \bar{a}_{rt}$$

$$\equiv w_{j}(x, \bar{a}_{rt}, \bar{a}_{jt}).$$

Note that $w_{jt}(x)$ depends on time only through $\bar{a}_{rt}$ and $\bar{a}_{jt}$.

Corollary 1. The firm demand is given by:

$$D_{jt}(X) = \frac{N}{n^{r}} M_{X}(X) \left( \frac{I_{0}(X) \bar{A}_{jt}^{\frac{\lambda \beta / \rho r}{\alpha r}}}{I_{0}(X)} \right)^{\lambda \beta / \rho r} \left( \frac{\tau_{1/\lambda} G_{j}(X) \lambda \beta / \rho r}{I_{0}(X) \bar{A}_{jt}^{\frac{\lambda \beta / \rho r}{\alpha r}}} \right)^{\lambda \beta / \rho r}.$$  

Proof. As $n^{r}$ grows to infinity, we first note:

$$I_{r}(X)^{\lambda \beta / \rho r} = \sum_{j' \in J_{r}} \left( \tau_{1/\lambda} G_{j'}(X)^{1/\lambda} C_{r} X^{\theta_{j'}} A_{j't} \left( \frac{X^{\theta_{j'}} \tau \tilde{G}_{j'}(X) C_{r} X^{\theta_{j'}} A_{j't}}{\tilde{H}_{j't}} \right)^{\beta / \rho r} A_{j't}^{\lambda \beta / \rho r} \right)$$

$$= \bar{A}_{jt}^{\lambda \beta / \rho r} \frac{1}{n^{r}} \sum_{j' \in J_{r}} \left[ \left( X^{\theta_{j'}} \tau \tilde{G}_{j'}(X) C_{r} X^{\theta_{j'}} A_{j't}^{-\alpha_{r}} \right)^{\beta / \rho r} \tilde{A}_{jt}^{\lambda \beta / \rho r} \right]$$

$$= \bar{A}_{jt}^{\lambda \beta / \rho r} I_{r}(X)^{\lambda \beta / \rho r}$$

$$I_{r}(X) = \bar{A}_{jt}^{\lambda \beta / \rho r} I_{r}(X).$$
Firm demand can then be rewritten as:

\[
D_{jt}(X) = N M_X(X) \left( \frac{I_{r0}(X)A_{jt}^{\alpha r_{0},\lambda \alpha}}{I_0(X)} \right)^{\lambda \beta / \rho_r} \left( \frac{G_j(X)^{1/\lambda} W_{jt}(X)}{I_{rt}(X)} \right)^{\lambda \beta / \rho_r}
= N \frac{M_X(X)}{n^r} \left( \frac{I_{r0}(X)A_{jt}^{\alpha r_{0},\lambda \alpha}}{I_0(X)} \right)^{\lambda \beta / \rho_r} \left( \frac{\tau^{1/\lambda} G_j(X)^{1/\lambda} W_{jt}(X)}{I_{r0}(X)A_{jt}^{\alpha r_{0},\lambda \alpha}} \right)^{\lambda \beta / \rho_r}.
\]

We also derive the other quantities of the model.

**Corollary 2.** The value added and wage bills are given by

\[
y_j(\bar{a}, \bar{a}) = (1 - \alpha_r)h_j + \frac{1 + \lambda \beta}{1 + \alpha_r \lambda \beta} \bar{a} + \frac{1 + \lambda \beta / \rho_r}{1 + \alpha_r \lambda \beta / \rho_r} \bar{a}
\]

\[
b_j(\bar{a}, \bar{a}) = c_r + (1 - \alpha_r)h_j + \frac{1 + \lambda \beta}{1 + \alpha_r \lambda \beta} \bar{a} + \frac{1 + \lambda \beta / \rho_r}{1 + \alpha_r \lambda \beta / \rho_r} \bar{a}.
\]

**Proof.** We turn to expressing the value added at the firm:

\[
Y_{jt} = H_{jt}^{1 - \alpha_r} A_{jt}^{\alpha r_{0},\lambda \alpha / \rho_r}
= \left( H_{jt} \cdot \bar{A}_{jt}^{\alpha r_{0},\lambda \alpha / \rho_r} \right)^{1 - \alpha_r} \left( \bar{A}_{rt} A_{jt}^{\alpha r_{0},\lambda \alpha / \rho_r} \right)^{\alpha r_{0},\lambda \alpha / \rho_r}
\]

\[
y_{jt} = (1 - \alpha_r)h_j + \frac{1 + \lambda \beta}{1 + \alpha_r \lambda \beta} \bar{a} + \frac{1 + \lambda \beta / \rho_r}{1 + \alpha_r \lambda \beta / \rho_r} \bar{a}_{jt}
\]

and for the wage bill:

\[
B_{jt} = \int W_{jt}(X) D_{jt}(X) dX
= \int W_{jt}(X) \left( \frac{I_{r0}(X)A_{jt}^{\alpha r_{0},\lambda \alpha}}{I_0(X)} \right)^{\lambda \beta / \rho_r} \left( \frac{\tau^{1/\lambda} G_j(X)^{1/\lambda}}{I_{r0}(X)A_{jt}^{\alpha r_{0},\lambda \alpha}} \right)^{\lambda \beta / \rho_r} \left( W_{jt}(X) \right)^{\lambda \beta / \rho_r} \frac{N M_X(X)}{n^r} dX
\]

\[
= \int \left( \frac{I_{r0}(X)A_{jt}^{\alpha r_{0},\lambda \alpha}}{I_0(X)} \right)^{\lambda \beta / \rho_r} \left( \frac{\tau^{1/\lambda} G_j(X)^{1/\lambda}}{I_{r0}(X)A_{jt}^{\alpha r_{0},\lambda \alpha}} \right)^{\lambda \beta / \rho_r} \times \left( C_r X^\theta H_j^{-\alpha_r} \right)^{1 + \lambda \beta / \rho_r} \left( \bar{A}_{jt}^{\alpha r_{0},\lambda \alpha / \rho_r} \right)^{1 + \lambda \beta / \rho_r} \left( \bar{A}_{jt}^{\alpha r_{0},\lambda \alpha / \rho_r} \right)^{1 + \lambda \beta / \rho_r} n^r R N M_X(X) dX
\]

\[
b_{jt} = c_r + (1 - \alpha_r)h_j + \frac{1 + \lambda \beta}{1 + \alpha_r \lambda \beta} \bar{a}_{jt} + \frac{1 + \lambda \beta / \rho_r}{1 + \alpha_r \lambda \beta / \rho_r} \bar{a}_{jt}
\]

\[
= b_j(\bar{a}_{jt}, \bar{a}_{jt}).
\]
So, we get that:

\[ y_j(\bar{a}, \tilde{a}) - b_j(\bar{a}, \tilde{a}) = c_r. \]

Note that this gives us that the structural passthrough rate of the firm level shock is (with abuse of notation):

\[
\frac{\partial w_j(\bar{a}, \tilde{a})}{\partial \bar{a}} \cdot \left( \frac{\partial y_j(\bar{a}, \tilde{a})}{\partial \bar{a}} \right)^{-1} = \frac{1}{1 + \lambda \beta}
\]

\[
\frac{\partial w_j(\bar{a}, \tilde{a})}{\partial \tilde{a}} \cdot \left( \frac{\partial y_j(\bar{a}, \tilde{a})}{\partial \tilde{a}} \right)^{-1} = \frac{\rho_r}{\rho_r + \lambda \beta}.
\]

Corollary 3. Firm j worker composition does not depend on \( \bar{a} \) or \( \tilde{a} \).

Proof. Consider \( Pr[X|j,t] \):

\[
Pr[X|j,t] = \frac{Pr[X,j|t]/Pr[j|t]}{Pr[X]|j} = \int Pr[j|X',t] M_X(X')dX'
\]

\[
= \frac{1}{\int \frac{I_{0}(X')}{I_{0}(X)} \lambda^\beta \left( \frac{1}{I_{0}(X)} \right) \lambda^\beta/\rho_r \left( \tau G_j(X) W_{jt}(X)^\lambda \right)^{\beta/\rho_r} M_X(X)}
\]

\[
\int \frac{I_{0}(X')}{I_{0}(X)} \lambda^\beta \left( \frac{1}{I_{0}(X')} \right) \lambda^\beta/\rho_r \left( \tau G_j(X) W_{jt}(X)^\lambda \right)^{\beta/\rho_r} M_X(X')dX'
\]

\[
= \frac{\int \frac{I_{0}(X')}{I_{0}(X)} \lambda^\beta \left( \frac{1}{I_{0}(X')} \right) \lambda^\beta/\rho_r \left( X^{\lambda \theta} \tilde{G}(X') \right)^{\beta/\rho_r} M_X(X')dX'}{Pr[X|j]}
\]

A.2 Worker rents

Lemma 4. We establish that for workers of type \( X \) working at firm \( j \) in market \( r \) at time \( t \), the average firm level rent is given by \( \frac{W_{jt}(X)}{1 + \lambda \beta/\rho_r} \) and the average market level rent is given by \( \frac{W_{jt}(X)}{1 + \lambda \beta} \).

Proof. The average worker rent at the firm is defined as the difference between the worker’s willingness to accept \( W \) and the wage they actually get at firm \( j \) at time \( t \), denoted by \( W_{jt}(X) \). The supply curve \( S_{jt}(X,W) \) exactly defines the number of people willing to work at firm \( j \) at some given wage \( W \). Hence, the density of the willingness to accept among workers in firm \( j \) at time \( t \) at wage \( W_{jt}(X) \) is given by:

\[
1 \left| \frac{1}{S_{jt}(X,W_{jt}(X))} \frac{\partial S_{jt}(X,W)}{\partial W} \right.
\]
So we get the average value of the rent by taking the expectation with respect to that density

\[ R_{jt}^{w}(X) = \mathbb{E}[R_{jt}^{w} | j(i,t) = j, X_i = X] \]

\[ = \int_{0}^{W_{jt}(X)} (W_{jt}(X) - W) \frac{1}{S_{jt}(X,W_{jt}(X))} \frac{\partial S_{jt}(X,W)}{\partial W} dW \]

\[ = W_{jt}(X) \int_{0}^{1} (1 - \omega) \frac{1}{S_{jt}(X,W_{jt}(X))} \frac{\partial S_{jt}(X,\omega W_{jt}(X))}{\partial \omega} d\omega \]

\[ = W_{jt}(X) \int_{0}^{1} (1 - \omega) \frac{\partial \omega^{\lambda \beta/\rho_r}}{\partial \omega} d\omega \]

\[ = \frac{W_{jt}(X)}{1 + \lambda \beta/\rho_r}, \]

where the second to last step relies on the definition of \( S_{jt}(X,W) \) and the fact that we assume the presence of many firms in each market to show that \( S_{jt}(X,\omega W) = \omega^{\lambda \beta/\rho_r} S_{jt}(X,W) \). We can then take the average over the productivity levels \( X_i \) of the workers \( i \) in firm \( j \in J_r \) at time \( t \) to get:

\[ \mathbb{E}[R_{jt}^{w} | j(i,t) = j] = \mathbb{E}[R_{jt}^{w}(X_i) | j(i,t) = j] \]

\[ = \frac{1}{1 + \lambda \beta/\rho_r} \mathbb{E}[W_{jt}(X_i) | j(i,t) = j]. \]

Next we want to compute the integral of the market level supply curve for each worker of type \( X \). In contrast to the worker rent at the firm level, we want to shift the wages of all firms in a given market for a given individual. This means that we want to shift both the current firm \( j \) but also all other firms \( j' \) in market \( r \). Given the labor supply curve of firm \( j \), we integrate by scaling all wages in market \( r \) by \( \omega \) in \([0,1]\). More precisely, we consider the demand realized by the set of wages \( \{\omega^{1|j\in J_r} W_{jt}(X)\}_{jt} \) for a given market \( r \). The supply curve of firm \( j \) in this market as a function of the scaling factor \( \omega \) is then

\[ N \cdot M_X(X) \frac{ \left( \sum_{j' \in J_r} \left( \tau^{1/\lambda} G_{j'}(X)^{1/\lambda} \omega W_{j't}(X) \right)^{\lambda \beta/\rho_r} \right)^{\rho_r} }{ \sum_{r'} \left( \sum_{j' \in J_{r'}} \left( \tau^{1/\lambda} G_{j'}(X)^{1/\lambda} \omega W_{j't}(X) \right)^{\lambda \beta/\rho_{r'}} \right)^{\rho_{r'}} } \times \left( \frac{\tau^{1/\lambda} G_{j'}(X)^{1/\lambda} \omega W_{j't}(X)}{\sum_{j' \in J_r} \left( \tau^{1/\lambda} G_{j'}(X)^{1/\lambda} \omega W_{j't}(X) \right)^{\lambda \beta/\rho_r}} \right)^{\lambda \beta/\rho_r} \]

\[ = \omega^{\lambda \beta} S_{jt}(X, W_{jt}(X)), \]

where we also used the assumption that there are many markets in the first denominator. Hence, the density of the willingness to accept is given by

\[ \frac{1}{S_{jt}(X, W_{jt}(X))} \frac{\partial}{\partial \omega} [\omega^{\lambda \beta} S_{jt}(X, W_{jt}(X))] \]
and by the same logic as for the firm level we get

\[ R_{jt}^{wm}(X) = \mathbb{E}[R_{it}^{wm} | j(i, t) = j, X_i = X] = \frac{W_{jt}(X)}{1 + \lambda \beta}, \]

and can finally compute the market-level rent:

\[ \mathbb{E}[R_{jt}^{wm} | j(i, t) = j] = \mathbb{E}[R_{jt}^{wm}(X_i) | j(i, t) = j] = \frac{1}{1 + \lambda \beta} \mathbb{E}[W_{jt}(X_i) | j(i, t) = j]. \]

\[ \square \]

### A.3 Employer rents

#### Employer rents at the firm level

**Lemma 5.** We establish that the firm rent is given by

\[ R_f^j = \Pi_j - \Pi_{jt} = \left(1 - \frac{\alpha_r (1 + \lambda \beta / \rho_r)}{1 + \alpha_r \lambda \beta / \rho_r} \left(\frac{\lambda \beta / \rho_r}{1 + \lambda \beta / \rho_r}\right)^{-\frac{(1 - \alpha_r) \lambda \beta / \rho_r}{1 + \alpha_r \lambda \beta / \rho_r}}\right) \Pi_j. \]

**Proof.** The firm rent is defined as the difference between the profit that a firm would make if it was a price taker and the profit in equilibrium. To get the price-taker profit we maximize

\[ \Pi_{jt} = \max_{\{D_{jt}(X)\}} A_{jt} \left(\int X^{\theta_j} \cdot D_{jt}^{pt}(X) dX\right)^{1 - \alpha_r} - \int W_{jt}^{pt}(X) \cdot D_{jt}^{pt}(X) dX, \]

taking the wage \( W_{jt}^{pt}(X) \) as given, and then equate demand with the supply equation. The first order condition is

\[ (1 - \alpha_r) A_{jt} X^{\theta_j} \left(\frac{Y_{jt}^{pt}}{A_{jt}}\right)^{-\frac{\alpha_r}{1 - \alpha_r}} = W_{jt}^{pt}(X), \]

and the realized demand is given by

\[ D_{jt}^{pt}(X) = N \cdot M_X(X) \left(\frac{I_{jt}(X)}{I(X)}\right)^{\lambda \beta} \left(\tau^{1/\lambda} G_j(X)^{1/\lambda} \frac{W_{jt}^{pt}(X)}{I_{jt}(X)}\right)^{\lambda \beta / \rho_r}, \]

where we use \( I(X)^{\lambda \beta} \equiv \sum_r I_{r,t}(X)^{\lambda \beta} \), assumed constant due to the large number of markets.
We then get that

\[
\frac{Y_{jt}^{pt}}{A_{jt}} = \left( \int X^\theta_j \cdot D_{jt}^{pt}(X) dX \right)^{1-\alpha_r}
\]

\[
= \left( \int X^\theta_j \cdot \left( \frac{I_{rt}(X)}{I(X)} \right)^{\lambda \beta} (rG_j(X))^{\beta/\rho_r} \left( \frac{W_{jt}^{pt}(X)}{I_{rt}(X)} \right)^{\lambda \beta/\rho_r} \right. \left. \frac{NM_X(X) dX}{1-\alpha_r} \right)
\]

\[
= \left( \int X^\theta_j \cdot \left( \frac{I_{rt}(X)}{I(X)} \right)^{\lambda \beta} (rG_j(X))^{\beta/\rho_r} \left( \frac{C_{jt}^{pt} A_{jt} X^\theta_j}{I_{rt}(X)} \right) \left( \frac{Y_{jt}^{pt}}{A_{jt}} \right)^{-1-\alpha_r \lambda \beta/\rho_r} \right) \left( \frac{\lambda \beta}{1-\alpha_r} \right)^{1-\alpha_r} \frac{NM_X(X) dX}{1-\alpha_r}
\]

\[
= (A_{jt})^{(1-\alpha_r)\lambda \beta/\rho_r} \left( \frac{Y_{jt}^{pt}}{A_{jt}} \right)^{-1-\alpha_r \lambda \beta/\rho_r} \times \left( \int X^\theta_j \left( \frac{I_{rt}(X)}{I(X)} \right)^{\lambda \beta} (rG_j(X))^{\beta/\rho_r} \left( \frac{X^\theta_j C_{jt}^{pt} X^\theta_j}{I_{rt}(X)} \right)^{\lambda \beta/\rho_r} \right) \left( \frac{NM_X(X) dX}{1-\alpha_r} \right)
\]

\[
\left( \frac{Y_{jt}^{pt}}{A_{jt}} \right)^{1+\alpha_r \lambda \beta/\rho_r} = (C_{jt}^{pt} A_{jt})^{(1-\alpha_r)\lambda \beta/\rho_r} \left( \frac{C_{jt}^{pt}}{C_r} A_{jt} \right) H_{jt}^{(1-\alpha_r)(1+\alpha_r \lambda \beta/\rho_r)}
\]

\[
Y_{jt}^{pt} = \left( \frac{C_{jt}^{pt}}{C_r} \right)^{\lambda \beta/(1-\alpha_r) \lambda \beta/\rho_r} Y_{jt},
\]

which we replace to get the wage:

\[
W_{jt}^{pt}(X) = C_{jt}^{pt} A_{jt} X^\theta_j \left( \frac{Y_{jt}^{pt}}{A_{jt}} \right)^{-\alpha_r \lambda \beta/\rho_r}
\]

\[
= C_{jt}^{pt} A_{jt} X^\theta_j \left( \frac{C_{jt}^{pt}}{C_r} A_{jt} \right)^{-\alpha_r \lambda \beta/\rho_r} \left( \frac{C_{jt}^{pt}}{C_r} \right)^{\lambda \beta/(1-\alpha_r) \lambda \beta/\rho_r} H_{jt}^{-\alpha_r}
\]

\[
= \left( \frac{C_{jt}^{pt}}{C_r} \right)^{\lambda \beta/(1-\alpha_r) \lambda \beta/\rho_r} \cdot C_r A_{jt} X^\theta_j \left( \frac{C_{jt}^{pt}}{C_r} A_{jt} \right)^{-\alpha_r \lambda \beta/\rho_r} \left( \frac{C_{jt}^{pt}}{C_r} \right)^{\lambda \beta/(1-\alpha_r) \lambda \beta/\rho_r} H_{jt}^{-\alpha_r}
\]

\[
= \left( \frac{C_{jt}^{pt}}{C_r} \right)^{\lambda \beta/(1-\alpha_r) \lambda \beta/\rho_r} W_{jt}(X).
\]
Similarly, we can express demand as

\[ D^\text{pt}_{jt}(X) = \left( \frac{C^\text{pt}_r}{C_r} \right)^\frac{\lambda \beta / \rho_r}{1 + \alpha_r \lambda \beta / \rho_r} D_{jt}(X) \]

and the wage bill as:

\[ B^\text{pt}_{jt} = \int W^\text{pt}_{jt}(X) \cdot D^\text{pt}_{jt}(X) dX \]

\[ = \int \left( \frac{C^\text{pt}_r}{C_r} \right)^\frac{\lambda \beta / \rho_r}{1 + \alpha_r \lambda \beta / \rho_r} W_{jt}(X) \cdot \left( \frac{C^\text{pt}_r}{C_r} \right)^\frac{\lambda \beta / \rho_r}{1 + \alpha_r \lambda \beta / \rho_r} D_{jt}(X) dX \]

\[ = \left( \frac{C^\text{pt}_r}{C_r} \right)^\frac{\lambda \beta / \rho_r}{1 + \alpha_r \lambda \beta / \rho_r} B_{jt}. \]

Next, we recall \( Y_{jt} = A^\frac{1 + \lambda \beta / \rho_r}{1 + \alpha_r \lambda \beta / \rho_r} H^\frac{1}{1 - \alpha_r} \) and get that:

\[ B_{jt} = \int W_{jt}(X) \cdot D_{jt}(X) dX \]

\[ = \int X^\theta C_r H^{-\alpha_r} (A_{jt})^\frac{1}{1 + \alpha_r \lambda \beta / \rho_r} \cdot D_{jt}(X) dX \]

\[ = C_r H^{-\alpha_r} (A_{jt})^\frac{1}{1 + \alpha_r \lambda \beta / \rho_r} \left( \frac{Y_{jt}}{A_{jt}} \right)^\frac{1}{1 - \alpha_r} \]

\[ = C_r H^{-\alpha_r} (A_{jt})^\frac{1}{1 + \alpha_r \lambda \beta / \rho_r} H_{jt} (A_{jt})^\frac{\lambda \beta / \rho_r}{1 + \alpha_r \lambda \beta / \rho_r} \]

\[ = C_r Y_{jt}. \]

And similarly we get that \( B^\text{pt}_{jt} = C^\text{pt}_r Y^\text{pt}_{jt} \). Finally, we can show:

\[ \Pi_{jt} - \Pi^\text{pt}_{jt} = 1 - \frac{Y^\text{pt}_{jt} - B^\text{pt}_{jt}}{Y_{jt} - B_{jt}} \]

\[ = 1 - \frac{1 - C^\text{pt}_r}{1 - C_r} \left( \frac{C^\text{pt}_r}{C_r} \right)^\frac{\lambda \beta / \rho_r}{1 + \alpha_r \lambda \beta / \rho_r} \frac{(1 - \alpha_r) \lambda \beta / \rho_r}{1 + \alpha_r \lambda \beta / \rho_r} \]

\[ = 1 - \frac{\alpha_r (1 + \lambda \beta / \rho_r)}{1 + \alpha_r \lambda \beta / \rho_r} \left( \frac{\lambda \beta / \rho_r}{1 + \lambda \beta / \rho_r} \right)^\frac{(1 - \alpha_r) \lambda \beta / \rho_r}{1 + \alpha_r \lambda \beta / \rho_r} \]

\[ \Pi_{jt} - \Pi^\text{pt}_{jt} = \left( 1 - \frac{\alpha_r (1 + \lambda \beta / \rho_r)}{1 + \alpha_r \lambda \beta / \rho_r} \left( \frac{\lambda \beta / \rho_r}{1 + \lambda \beta / \rho_r} \right)^\frac{(1 - \alpha_r) \lambda \beta / \rho_r}{1 + \alpha_r \lambda \beta / \rho_r} \right) \Pi_{jt}. \]
Employer rents at the market level

Lemma 6. We establish that the market level rents for firm \( j \in J_r \) is given by

\[
R_{jt}^{fm} = \Pi_{jt} - \Pi_{jt}^{ptm} = \left(1 - \frac{\alpha_r (1 + \lambda \beta / \rho_r)}{1 + \alpha_r \lambda \beta / \rho_r} \left(\frac{\lambda \beta / \rho_r}{1 + \lambda \beta / \rho_r}\right)^{-\frac{(1-\alpha_r)\lambda \beta}{\lambda \beta + \rho_r}}\right) \Pi_{jt}.
\]

Proof. Here we consider the case where all firms in a given market are price takers. In this case we also get that the \( I_{rt}(X) \) change. The firm wage is still determined by the FOC:

\[
(1 - \alpha_r) A_{jt} X^\theta_j \left(\frac{W_{jt}^{ptm}}{A_{jt}}\right)^{-\frac{\alpha_r}{\alpha_r}} = W_{jt}^{ptm} (X).
\]

However, the labor supply curve is no longer the same as in equilibrium since all firms change their demand:

\[
S_{jt}^{ptm}(X, W) = N M_X (X) \left(\frac{I_{rt}^{ptm}(X)}{I(X)}\right)^{\lambda \beta} \left(G_j(X)^{1/\lambda} \frac{\tau^{1/\lambda} W}{I_{rt}^{ptm}(X)}\right)^{\lambda \beta / \rho_r},
\]

where

\[
I_{rt}^{ptm}(X) \equiv \left(\sum_{j' \in J_r} (\tau G_{j'}(X))^{\beta / \rho_r} \left(W_{jt}^{ptm}(X)\right)^{\lambda \beta / \rho_r}\right)^{\rho_r / (\lambda \beta)}.
\]
We insert these definitions into $Y_{j,t}^{ptm}$

\[
\frac{Y_{j,t}^{ptm}}{A_{j,t}} = \left( \int X^{\theta_j} \cdot D_{j,t}^{ptm}(X)dX \right)^{1-\alpha_r}
\]

\[
= \left( \int X^{\theta_j} \cdot \left( \frac{I_{rt}^{ptm}(X)}{I(X)} \right)^{\lambda \beta} \left( \frac{W_{j,t}^{ptm}(X)}{I_{rt}^{ptm}(X)} \right)^{\lambda \beta / \rho_r} \frac{NM_X(X)dX}{1-\alpha_r} \right)^{1-\alpha_r}
\]

\[
= \left( \int X^{\theta_j} \cdot \left( \frac{I_{rt}^{ptm}(X)}{I(X)} \right)^{\lambda \beta} \left( \frac{1-\alpha_r}{1-\alpha_r} \right)^{\lambda \beta / \rho_r} \frac{Y_{j,t}^{ptm}}{A_{j,t}} \frac{\lambda \beta / \rho_r}{NM_X(X)dX} \right)^{1-\alpha_r}
\]

\[
= \frac{Y_{j,t}^{ptm}}{A_{j,t}} \left( H_{j,t}^{ptm} \right)^{(1-\alpha_r)(1-\alpha_r)} \frac{Y_{j,t}^{ptm}}{A_{j,t}} \frac{\lambda \beta / \rho_r}{NM_X(X)dX}
\]

\[
Y_{j,t}^{ptm} = A_{j,t}^{(1-\alpha_r)\lambda \beta / \rho_r} \left( H_{j,t}^{ptm} \right)^{-1} A_{j,t}^{1-\alpha_r}
\]

and we get the wage equation:

\[
W_{j,t}^{ptm}(X) = C_{rt}^{ptm} X^{\theta_j} \left( H_{j,t}^{ptm} \right)^{-1} A_{j,t}^{1} A_{j,t}^{1-\alpha_r \lambda \beta / \rho_r}.
\]

As in the baseline equilibrium we are left with finding $H_{j,t}^{ptm}$ as a function of the market TFP and amenities:

\[
H_{j,t}^{ptm} = \left( \int X^{\theta_j} \cdot \left( \frac{I_{rt}^{ptm}(X)}{I(X)} \right)^{\lambda \beta} \left( \frac{C_{rt}^{ptm} X^{\theta_j}}{I_{rt}^{ptm}(X)} \right)^{\lambda \beta / \rho_r} \frac{NM_X(X)dX}{1-\alpha_r} \right)^{1-\alpha_r \lambda \beta / \rho_r}.
\]
Note first that

\[ I_{rt}^{ptm}(X) = \left(\sum_{j' \in J_r} (\tau G_{j'}(X))^{\beta/\rho_r} (W_{j't}^{ptm}(X))^{\lambda\beta/\rho_r} \right)_{\rho_r/\lambda} \]

\[ = \left(\sum_{j' \in J_r} (\tau G_{j'}(X))^{\beta/\rho_r} \left(C_r X^{\theta_j} \left(H_{j't}^{ptm}\right)^{\alpha_r} \right) \lambda\beta/\rho_r \right)_{\rho_r/\lambda(\tau G)} \]

\[ = \left(\frac{C_r}{\rho_r} \right) \left(\sum_{j' \in J_r} (\tau G_{j'}(X))^{\beta/\rho_r} \left(C_r X^{\theta_j} \left(H_{j't}^{ptm}\right)^{-\alpha_r} \right) \lambda\beta/\rho_r \right)_{\rho_r/\lambda(\tau G)} \]

and next we want to show that \( H_{jt}^{ptm} = \left(\frac{C_r}{\rho_r} \right)_{\frac{\lambda\beta}{\rho_r} \alpha_r \lambda}^{\frac{\lambda\beta}{\rho_r} \alpha_r \lambda} \sum_{j \in J_r} H_{jt} \). To see this we observe that \( \tilde{H}_{jt}^{ptm} \) solves a very similar fixed point to \( H_{jt} \). Indeed

\[ \tilde{H}_{jt}^{ptm} = \left( \int X^{\theta_j} \left( \frac{p_{j'jt}(X)}{I(X)} \right)^{\lambda\beta} (\tau G_{j'}(X))^{\beta/\rho_r} \left( \frac{C_r}{\rho_r} X^{\theta_j} \left(H_{j't}^{ptm}\right) \lambda\beta/\rho_r \right) N M X (X) dX \right)_{\frac{\alpha_r \lambda}{\rho_r} \lambda} \]

\[ = \left(\frac{C_r}{\rho_r} \right)_{\frac{\alpha_r \lambda}{\rho_r} \lambda}^{\frac{\alpha_r \lambda}{\rho_r} \lambda} \sum_{j \in J_r} \tilde{H}_{jt}^{ptm}, \]

where \( \Gamma_{jt}(\cdot) \) is the operator defined in Lemma 2, equation (19) that defines \( H_{jt} \) as a fixed point. For this operator we know that \( \Gamma_{jt}(\tilde{H}_{jt}) = \tilde{H}_{jt} \) is the unique fixed point. The next step is to check that \( \tilde{H}_{jt}^{ptm} \), defined such that its \( j \) component is \( \tilde{H}_{jt}^{ptm} = \left(\frac{C_r}{\rho_r} \right)_{\frac{\alpha_r \lambda}{\rho_r} \lambda}^{\frac{\alpha_r \lambda}{\rho_r} \lambda} \sum_{j \in J_r} \tilde{H}_{jt}^{ptm} \), is a fixed point of the same operator \( \Gamma_{jt}(\cdot) \).

\[ \Gamma_{jt}(\tilde{H}_{jt}) = \left(\frac{C_r}{\rho_r} \right)_{\frac{\alpha_r \lambda}{\rho_r} \lambda}^{\frac{\alpha_r \lambda}{\rho_r} \lambda} \sum_{j \in J_r} \tilde{H}_{jt}^{ptm} \]

\[ = \left(\frac{C_r}{\rho_r} \right)_{\frac{\alpha_r \lambda}{\rho_r} \lambda}^{\frac{\alpha_r \lambda}{\rho_r} \lambda} \sum_{j \in J_r} \tilde{H}_{jt}^{ptm} \]

\[ = \left(\frac{C_r}{\rho_r} \right)_{\frac{\alpha_r \lambda}{\rho_r} \lambda}^{\frac{\alpha_r \lambda}{\rho_r} \lambda} \sum_{j \in J_r} \tilde{H}_{jt}^{ptm} \]

\[ = \tilde{H}_{jt}^{ptm}, \]

hence \( \tilde{H}_{jt}^{ptm} = \tilde{H}_{jt} \) for all \( j \) and so we get that:

\[ H_{jt}^{ptm} = \left(\frac{C_r}{\rho_r} \right)_{\frac{\alpha_r \lambda}{\rho_r} \lambda}^{\frac{\alpha_r \lambda}{\rho_r} \lambda} \sum_{j \in J_r} H_{jt}. \]
So, we find for \( j \in J_r \) that

\[
W_{jt}^{ptm}(X) = C_r^p X^{\theta_j} (H_{jt}^{ptm})^{-\alpha_r} A_{jt}^{1 - \alpha_r / \lambda \beta / \rho_r} \\
= C_r^p X^{\theta_j} H_{jt}^{-\alpha_r} A_{jt}^{1 - \alpha_r / \lambda \beta / \rho_r} \left( \frac{C_r^p}{C_r} \right)^{-\frac{1}{\lambda \beta / \rho_r}} \\
= \left( \frac{C_r^p}{C_r} \right)^{\frac{1}{\lambda \beta / \rho_r}} W_{jt}(X)
\]

and then:

\[
I_{rt}^{ptm}(X) = \left( \sum_{j' \in J_r} \tau G_{j'}(X) \right)^{\beta / \rho} \left( W_{jt}^{ptm}(X) \right)^{\lambda \beta / \rho_r} \left( \frac{C_r}{C_r} \right)^{\lambda \beta / \rho_r} I_{rt}(X).
\]

Next, let us rewrite the realized demand:

\[
D_{jt}^{ptm}(X) = \left( \frac{I_{rt}^{ptm}(X)}{I(X)} \right)^{\lambda \beta} \left( \tau G_{j}(X) \right)^{\beta / \rho} \left( \frac{W_{jt}^{ptm}(X)}{I_{rt}^{ptm}(X)} \right)^{\lambda \beta / \rho_r} \\
= \left( \frac{C_r}{C_r} \right)^{\lambda \beta / \rho_r} \left( \frac{I_{rt}(X)}{I(X)} \right)^{\lambda \beta} \left( \tau G_{j}(X) \right)^{\beta / \rho} \left( \frac{W_{jt}(X)}{I_{rt}(X)} \right)^{\lambda \beta / \rho_r} \\
= \left( \frac{C_r}{C_r} \right)^{\lambda \beta / \rho_r} D_{jt}(X).
\]

We then go back and compute output and wage bills:

\[
Y_{jt}^{ptm} = A_{jt} \left( \int X^{\theta_j} \cdot D_{jt}^{ptm}(X) dX \right)^{1 - \alpha_r} \\
= \left( \frac{C_r}{C_r} \right)^{\frac{1 - \alpha_r}{\lambda \beta / \rho_r}} Y_{jt} \\
B_{jt}^{ptm} = \int W_{jt}^{ptm}(X) \cdot D_{jt}^{ptm}(X) dX \\
= C_r^p Y_{jt}^{ptm}.
\]
Finally, we establish that:

\[
\frac{\Pi_{jt} - \Pi_{jt}^{ptm}}{\Pi_{jt}} = 1 - \frac{\Pi_{jt}^{ptm} - B_{jt}^{ptm}}{Y_{jt} - B_{jt}}
\]

\[
= 1 - \frac{1 - C_{jt}^{pt} \left( \frac{C_{jt}^{pt}}{C_{r}} \right)^{\frac{(1-\alpha_{r}) \lambda \beta}{1 + \alpha_{r} \lambda \beta}}}{1 - C_{r}}
\]

\[
= 1 - \frac{\alpha_{r} (1 + \lambda \beta / \rho_{r})}{1 + \alpha_{r} \lambda \beta / \rho_{r}} \left( \frac{\lambda \beta / \rho_{r}}{1 + \lambda \beta / \rho_{r}} \right)^{\frac{(1-\alpha_{r}) \lambda \beta}{1 + \alpha_{r} \lambda \beta}}
\]

\[
\Pi_{jt} - \Pi_{jt}^{ptm} = \left( 1 - \frac{\alpha_{r} (1 + \lambda \beta / \rho_{r})}{1 + \alpha_{r} \lambda \beta / \rho_{r}} \left( \frac{\lambda \beta / \rho_{r}}{1 + \lambda \beta / \rho_{r}} \right)^{\frac{(1-\alpha_{r}) \lambda \beta}{1 + \alpha_{r} \lambda \beta}} \right) \Pi_{jt}.
\]

\[
A_{4} \text{ Walrasian Equilibrium, Wedges, Tax Policy, and Welfare}
\]

\textbf{Walrasian Equilibrium}

We consider an equilibrium as defined by a set of wages \( W_{jt}^{\varepsilon}(X) \) such that workers optimally choose where to work given these wages, and firms optimally choose labor demand, also taking these wages as given. In this equilibrium we make the tax system neutral \( \lambda = \tau = 1 \).

\[
\max_{\{D_{jt}(X)\}} A_{jt} \left( \int X^{\theta_{j}} D_{jt}(X)dX \right)^{1-\alpha_{r}} - \int W_{jt}^{\varepsilon}(X) D_{jt}(X)dX
\]

which gives the first order condition

\[
(1 - \alpha_{r}) X^{\theta_{j}} A_{jt} \left( \int X^{\theta_{j}} D_{jt}(X)dX \right)^{-\alpha_{r}} = W_{jt}^{\varepsilon}(X)
\]

or

\[
W_{jt}^{\varepsilon}(X) = \left( 1 - \alpha_{r} \right) X^{\theta_{j}} A_{jt} \left( \frac{Y_{jt}^{\varepsilon}}{A_{jt}} \right)^{-\frac{\alpha_{r}}{1-\alpha_{r}}}.
\]
We then solve for output

\[
\left( \frac{Y^c_{jt}}{A_{jt}} \right)^{1/\rho_r} = \int X^{\theta_j} \cdot D^c_{jt}(X)dX
\]

\[
= \int X^{\theta_j} \cdot \frac{(I_{rt}(X))^{1/\rho_r}}{NM_X(X)} \cdot \frac{(W^c_{jt}(X)G_j(X))^{1/\rho_r}}{I_{rt}(X)} dX
\]

\[
= \int X^{\theta_j} \cdot \frac{(I_{rt}(X))^{1/\rho_r}}{NM_X(X)} \cdot \frac{(C_{rt}^p X^{\theta_j}G_j(X))^{1/\rho_r}}{I_{rt}(X)} dX \times A_{jt}^{1/\rho_r} \left( \frac{Y^c_{jt}}{A_{jt}} \right)^{-\alpha_r/\rho_r}
\]

\[
= (H^c_{jt})^{1+\alpha_r/\rho_r} A_{jt}^{\rho_r/\rho_r} \left( \frac{Y^c_{jt}}{A_{jt}} \right)^{1-\alpha_r/\rho_r}
\]

where we defined

\[
(H^c_{jt})^{1+\alpha_r/\rho_r} \equiv \int X^{\theta_j} \cdot \frac{(I_{rt}(X))^{1/\rho_r}}{NM_X(X)} \cdot \frac{(C_{rt}^p X^{\theta_j}G_j(X))^{1/\rho_r}}{I_{rt}(X)} NM_X(X)dX,
\]

giving the wage:

\[
W^c_{jt}(X) = C_{rt}^p X^{\theta_j} (H^c_{jt})^{-\alpha_r} (A_{jt})^{1/\rho_r}.
\]

Next, using \(H^c_{jt} = H^c_{jt} A_{jt}^{(\rho_r-1)/\rho_r} \) and following a similar proof to the main proposition we find that

\[
w^c_{jt}(x, \bar{a}, \bar{a}) = C_{rt}^p + \theta_j x - \alpha_r h^c_{jt} + \frac{1}{1+\alpha_r/\rho_r} \bar{a} + \frac{1}{1+\alpha_r/\rho_r} \bar{a},
\]

where

\[
H^c_j = \left( \frac{1}{1+\alpha_r/\rho_r} \int X^{\theta_j(1+\beta/\rho_r)} \left( \frac{I_{r0}(X)}{I_{r0}(X)} \right)^{1/\rho_r} \left( \frac{C_{rt}^p \tilde{G}_j(X)}{I_{r0}(X)} \right)^{\beta/\rho_r} \left( \frac{\rho_r}{\rho_r} \right) \right)^{1/\beta}
\]

\[
I_{r0}(X) = \left( \frac{1}{\rho_r} \frac{I_{r0}(X)^{\beta/\rho_r}}{\rho_r} \right)^{\rho_r/\beta}
\]

\[
I_{0}(X) = \left( \frac{1}{\rho_r} \frac{I_{0}(X)^{\beta/\rho_r}}{\rho_r} \right)^{1/\beta}.
\]
We can then get the allocation of workers to each firm given by

$$D_{jt}^r(X) = n'\pi N M_X(X) \left( \frac{I_{r0}(X)\hat{A}_r^{1/\rho_r}}{I_0(X)} \right) \left( \frac{G_j(X)W_{jt}^r(X)}{G_j(X)W_{jt}^r(X)} \right)^{\beta/\rho_r},$$

where we note that $\tau$ does not enter.

We first study the effect of market power on the allocation. This effect shows up in the market-specific constant $\frac{\beta/\rho_r}{1 + \beta/\rho_r}$. In the case where $\rho_r = \rho$ in all regions, the markdown only acts as an overall economy markdown but does not affect allocation. To see this, we note that when $\rho_r = \rho$ the fixed point for $h_j$ reduces to the fixed-point of $h_j^0$ times a constant. Hence we end up with only a scaling in the equilibrium equation but without distortion in the marginal rate of substitution for workers across firms.

In the case where $\rho_r$ are not the same across regions, a wedge appears in the wage equation. Consequently, this creates a wedge in the allocation. Correcting such misallocation can be achieved by setting region-specific taxes $\tau_r$ precisely to the inverse of the wedge, as discussed below, which results in the planner’s allocation.

As shown below, we can also use the planner’s solution to evaluate the effects of counterfactual tax policies. The parameter $\tau$ alone does not create a wedge in the wage equation, and it does not affect the allocation, as all options are equally affected.

**Defining wedges**

To define wedges, we consider our wage index $I$ and a within market wage $W/I$. We then look at the decisions of firms to set wages, the decisions of workers to choose markets, and the decisions of workers to choose particular firms within markets. We express each of these decisions in the monopolistic competition model, making clear the sources of wedges in each equation.

The first wedge is a productivity wedge reflected in the wage equation:

$$W_{jt}(X) = \left( \frac{1 + \rho_r(j)}{\lambda \beta} \right)^{-1} \cdot \frac{X^{\theta_j} (1 - \alpha_r(j)) A_{jt} L^{-\alpha_r(j)}}{\text{marginal product of labor: } M_{jt}(X)}.$$

We next turn to the quantity of labor expression. For this we compute the log odds ratio of choosing one firm versus another within a market. The allocation is identical in all respects besides for the presence of the tax parameter $\lambda$ which acts as a preference wedge between amenities and earnings. We have:

$$\log \frac{\Pr[j(i, t) = j | \{W_{jt}(X)\}_{j=1,...,J}, X, j \in J_r]}{\Pr[j(i, t) = j : \{W_{jt}(X)\}_{j=1,...,J}, X, j \in J_r]} = \frac{\beta}{\rho_r(j)} \left[ \log \frac{G_j(X)}{G_{j'}(X)} + \lambda \log \frac{W_j(X)}{W_{j'}(X)} \right].$$

We now shift attention to the worker’s problem and solution in the two types of labor
It is useful to express wages using the wage index $I_r(X)$ from equation (2) as:

$$\log \frac{Pr[j(i,t) \in J_r | \{W_{jt}(X)\}_{j=1,...,J}, X]}{Pr[j(i,t) \in J_r' | \{W_{jt}(X)\}_{j=1,...,J}, X]} = \lambda \log \frac{I_r(X)}{I_{r'}(X)}$$

The results clarify two wedges: a productivity wedge equal to $1 + \frac{\rho_r(j)}{\lambda/\beta}$ and a marginal utility of income wedge equal to $\lambda$.

**Defining tax policy counterfactuals**

**Lemma 7.** Setting a tax policy with $\tau_r = \frac{1+\beta/\rho_r}{\beta/\rho_r}$ and $\lambda = 1$ achieves the competitive allocation of workers to firms.

**Proof.** We plug $\tau_r = \frac{1+\beta/\rho_r}{\beta/\rho_r}$ into the firm problem and show that it achieves the planner’s solution in this context. Recall from Lemma 3

$$H_j = \int X^0(1+\lambda^{\beta/\rho_r}) \left( \frac{I_r(X)}{I_0(X)} \right)^{\lambda^{\beta/\rho_r}} \left( \frac{1}{I_r(X)} \right)^{\frac{\lambda^{\beta/\rho_r}}{\beta/\rho_r}} M_X(X) dX,$$

$$I_r(X)^{\lambda^{\beta/\rho_r}} = E_j \left( \tau \hat{G}_j(X) X^{\lambda \theta_j} C_r^\lambda H_j^{-\lambda \alpha_r} \right)^{\beta/\rho_r} A_{j}^{\frac{\lambda^{\beta/\rho_r}}{\beta/\rho_r}} \frac{\pi}{\kappa_r} N_M(X) dX,$$

where we notice that $\tau C_r^\lambda$ always appears together and under this particular policy we get that $\tau_r C_r^\lambda = (1 - \alpha_r) = C_r^\mu$. Hence, $h_j$ coincides exactly with $h^c_j$ while $I_0(X)$ and $I_0(X)$ coincide with $I_r(X)$ and $I_0(X)$, respectively. We then see that this implies that $D_{jt}(X) = D_{jt}^c(X)$. In other words such policy achieves exactly the planner’s allocation.

**Defining welfare**

We start by defining a measure of welfare given a set of wages and tax parameters. Recall that the average utility that a worker enjoys for a given set of wages is given by:

$$\mathbb{E} [u_t | W_t] = \int \frac{1}{\beta} \left[ \log \left( \sum_r \left( \sum_{j \in J_r} (\tau G_j(X))^{\beta/\rho_r} (W_{jt}(X))^{\lambda^{\beta/\rho_r}} \right)^{\rho_r} + \bar{c} \right) \right] M_X(X) dX,$$
where we normalize $C$ to zero. The total tax revenue $R_t$ and total firm profits $\Pi_t$ are given by:

\[
R_t = \int \sum_r \sum_{j \in J_r} D_{jt}(X) \left( W_{jt}(X) - \tau W_{jt}(X)^\lambda \right) dX
\]

\[
= \int \sum_r \sum_{j \in J_r} D_{jt}(X) W_{jt}(X) dX - \int \sum_r \sum_{j \in J_r} D_{jt}(X) \tau W_{jt}(X)^\lambda dX
\]

\[
= B_t - B_{t}^{\text{net}}
\]

\[
\Pi_t = \sum_r \sum_{j \in J_r} A_{jt} \left( \int X^{\theta_j} \cdot D_{jt}(X) dX \right)^{1-\alpha_r} - \int W_{jt}(X) \cdot D_{jt}(X) dX
\]

\[
= Y_t - B_t.
\]

To take into account changes in tax revenue and firm profits across counterfactuals, we redistribute $\Pi_t$ and $R_t$ to workers in the form of a non-distortionary payment proportional to their net wages, governed by $\phi_t$. This means that each worker receives $\phi_t \tau W_{jt}(X)^\lambda$ in transfers. The total transfer equals $\Pi_t + R_t$ and is given by

\[
\int \sum_r \sum_{j \in J_r} \phi_t \tau W_{jt}(X)^\lambda \cdot D_{jt}(X) dX = \Pi_t + R_t
\]

\[
\phi_t B_{t}^{\text{net}} = \Pi_t + R_t
\]

and hence

\[
1 + \phi_t = \frac{\Pi_t + R_t + B_{t}^{\text{net}}}{B_{t}^{\text{net}}}
\]

\[
= \frac{\Pi_t + B_t}{B_{t}^{\text{net}}}
\]

\[
= \frac{Y_t}{B_{t}^{\text{net}}}.
\]

Thus, welfare is given by

\[
W_t = \int \frac{1}{\beta} \left[ \log \sum_r \left( \sum_{j \in J_r} \left( (1 + \phi_t) \tau G_j(X) \right)^{\beta / \rho_r} (W_{jt}(X))^{\lambda \beta / \rho_r} \right) \right]^{1 / \beta} M_X(X) dX
\]

\[
= E[u_{it} | W_t] + \log(1 + \phi_t),
\]

utility from net-wages and amenities utility from redistributed profits and tax revenue

A.5 An extension with capital and monopolistic competition in the product market

We develop here a simple extension of the model with capital and monopolistic competition in the product market. Without loss of generality, we derive the results here in the case of homogeneous labor.
Consider a firm with production function \( Q = AK^\rho L^{1-\alpha} \), access to a local monopolistic market with revenue curve \( Y = Q^{1-\epsilon} \), hiring labor from a local labor supply curve \( L(W) = W^\beta \) and renting capital at price \( r \). Profit is given by:

\[
Q^{1-\epsilon} - LW - rK.
\]

We first note that we can replace \( Q \) with the production function and get

\[(AK^\rho L^{1-\alpha})^{1-\epsilon} - LW - rK.
\]

Now we will show that considering perfect or monopolistic competition in the product market gives rise to the same revenue function. We will focus directly on the revenue function parameterized as

\[
Y = AK^{\tilde{\rho}} L^{1-\tilde{\alpha}},
\]

where \( \tilde{\rho} \equiv \rho(1-\epsilon) \) and \( \tilde{\alpha} \equiv \alpha + \epsilon - \alpha \epsilon \). We then have the following Lagrangian for our problem:

\[
AK^{\tilde{\rho}} L^{1-\tilde{\alpha}} - LW - rK - \mu(L - W^\beta).
\]

We take the first order condition for \( K \) and get

\[
K = \left( \frac{r}{\tilde{\rho}AL^{1-\tilde{\alpha}}} \right)^{\frac{1}{\tilde{\rho}}},
\]

which we then replace in

\[
AK^{\tilde{\rho}} L^{1-\tilde{\alpha}} - LW - rK = A \left( \frac{r}{\tilde{\rho}AL^{1-\tilde{\alpha}}} \right)^{\frac{1}{\tilde{\rho}}} L^{1-\tilde{\alpha}} - LW - r \left( \frac{r}{\tilde{\rho}AL^{1-\tilde{\alpha}}} \right)^{\frac{1}{\tilde{\rho}}}
\]

\[
= (1 - \tilde{\rho})A \left( \frac{r}{\tilde{\rho}A} \right)^{\frac{1}{\tilde{\rho}}} L^{1-\tilde{\alpha}} - LW
\]

\[
= (1 - \tilde{\rho})A \left( \frac{r}{\tilde{\rho}A} \right)^{\frac{1}{\tilde{\rho}}} L^{1-\tilde{\alpha}} - LW
\]

\[
= \hat{A}L^{1-\tilde{\alpha}} - LW,
\]

which is just a reinterpretation of the original problem with \( \hat{A} \equiv (1 - \tilde{\rho})A \left( \frac{r}{\tilde{\rho}A} \right)^{\frac{1}{\tilde{\rho}}} \), \( \tilde{\alpha} \equiv \tilde{\alpha} + \frac{\tilde{\rho}}{1-\rho} \).

B Details on Data Sources and Sample Selection

All firm level variables are constructed from annual business tax returns over the years 2001-2015: C-Corporations (Form 1120), S-Corporations (Form 1120-S), and Partnerships (Form 1065). Worker-level variables are constructed from annual tax returns over the years 2001-2015: Direct employees (Form W-2), independent contractors (Form 1099), and household income and
taxation (Form 1040).

Variable Definitions:

• **Earnings:** Reported on W-2 box 1 for each Taxpayer Identification Number (TIN). Each TIN is de-identified in our data.

• **Gross Household Income:** We define gross household income as the sum of taxable wages and other income (line 22 on Form 1040) minus unemployment benefits (line 19 on Form 1040) minus taxable Social Security benefits (line 20a on Form 1040) plus tax-exempt interest income (line 8b on Form 1040). We at times also consider this measure when subtracting off Schedule D capital gains (line 13 on Form 1040).

• **Federal Taxes on Household Income:** This is given by the sum of two components. The first component is the sum of FICA Social Security taxes (given by 0.0620 times the minimum of the Social Security taxable earnings threshold, which varies by year, and taxable FICA earnings, which are reported on Box 3 of Form W-2) and FICA Medicare taxes (given by 0.0145 times Medicare earnings, which are reported on Box 5 of Form W-2). The second component is the sum of the amount of taxes owed (the difference between line 63 and line 74 on Form 1040, which is negative to indicate a refund) and the taxes already paid or withheld (the sum of lines 64, 65, 70, and 71 on Form 1040).

• **Net Household Income:** We construct a measure of net household income as Gross Household Income minus Federal Taxes on Household Income plus two types of benefits: unemployment benefits (line 19 of Form 1040) and Social Security benefits (line 20a of Form 1040).

• **Employer:** The Employer Identification Number (EIN) reported on W-2 for a given TIN. Each EIN is de-identified in our data.

• **Wage Bill:** Sum of Earnings for a given EIN plus the sum of 1099-MISC, box 7 nonemployee compensation for a given EIN in year t.

• **Size:** Number of FTE workers matched to an EIN in year t.

• **NAICS Code:** The NAICS code is reported on line 21 on Schedule K of Form 1120 for C-corporations, line 2a Schedule B of Form 1120S for S-corporations, and Box A of form 1065 for partnerships. We consider the first two digits to be the industry. We code invalid industries as missing.

• **Commuting Zone:** This is formed by mapping the ZIP code from the business filing address of the EIN on Form 1120, 1120S, or 1065 to its commuting zone.

• **Value Added:** Line 3 of Form 1120 for C-Corporations, Form 1120S for S-Corporations, and Form 1065 for partnerships. Line 3 is the difference between Revenues, reported on
Line 1c, and the Cost of Goods Sold, reported on Line 2. We replace non-positive value added with missing values.

For manufacturers (NAICS Codes beginning 31, 32, or 33) and miners (NAICS Codes beginning 212), Line 3 is equal to Value Added minus Production Wages, defined as wage compensation for workers directly involved in the production process, per Schedule A, Line 3 instructions. If we had access to data from Form 1125-A, Line 3, we could directly add back in these production wages to recover value added. Without 1125-A, Line 3, we construct a measure of Production Wages as the difference between the Wage Bill and the Firm-reported Taxable Labor Compensation, defined below, as these differ conceptually only due to the inclusion of production wages in the Wage Bill.

• **Value Added Net of Depreciation**: Value Added minus Depreciation, where Depreciation is reported on Line 20 on Form 1120 for C-corporations, Line 14 on Form 1120S for S-corporations, and Line 16c on Form 1065 for partnerships.

• **EBITD**: We follow Kline et al. (2019) in defining Earnings Before Interest, Taxes, and Depreciation (EBITD) as the difference between total income and total deductions other than interest and depreciation. Total income is reported on Line 11 on Form 1120 for C-corporations, Line 1c on Form 1120S for S-corporations, and Line 1c on Form 1065 for Partnerships. Total deductions other than interest and depreciation are computed as Line 27 minus Lines 18 and 20 on Form 1120 for C-corporations, Line 20 minus Lines 13 and 14 on Form 1120S for S-corporations, and Line 21 minus Lines 15 and 16c on Form 1065 for partnerships.

• **Operating Profits**: We follow Kline et al. (2019), who use a similar approach to Yagan (2015), in defining Operating Profits as the sum of Lines 1c, 18, and 20, minus the sum of Lines 2 and 27 on Form 1120 for C-corporations, the sum of Lines 1c, 13, and 15, minus the sum of Lines 2 and 20 on Form 1120S for S-corporations, and the sum of Lines 1c, 16, and 16c, minus the sum of Lines 2 and 21 on Form 1065 for partnerships.

• **Firm-reported Taxable Labor Compensation**: This is the sum of compensation of officers and salaries and wages, reported on Lines 12 and 13 on Form 1120 for C-corporations, Lines 7 and 8 on Form 1120S for S-corporations, and Lines 9 and 10 on Form 1065 for Partnerships.

• **Firm-reported Non-taxable Labor Compensation**: This is the sum of employer pension and employee benefit program contributions, reported on Lines 17 and 18 on Form 1120 for C-corporations, Lines 17 and 18 on form 1120S for S-corporations, and Lines 18 and 19 on Form 1065 for Partnerships.
• **Multinational Firm**: We define an EIN as a multinational in year \( t \) if it reports a non-zero foreign tax credit on Schedule J, Part I, Line 5a of Form 1120 or Form 1118, Schedule B, Part III, Line 6 of Form 1118 for a C-corporation in year \( t \), or if it reports a positive Total Foreign Taxes Amount on Schedule K, Line 16l of of Form 1065 for a partnership in year \( t \).

• **Tenure**: For a given TIN, we define tenure at the EIN as the number of prior years in which the EIN was the highest-paying.

• **Age and Sex**: Age at \( t \) is the difference between \( t \) and birth year reported on Data Master-1 (DM-1) from the Social Security Administration, and sex is the gender reported on DM-1 (see for further details on the DM-1 link).

### C Details on Identification, Estimation, and Robustness

#### C.1 Moment condition in the dynamic model

We now derive the identifying equations for the parameters of interest using the population of workers that stay within the same firm over time (stayers). We seek to establish that the following moment condition holds in the model:

\[
\begin{align*}
\mathbb{E} \left[ \Delta \tilde{y}_{j,(i),t} \left( \tilde{w}_{it+t} - \tilde{w}_{it-t'} - \frac{1}{1 + \lambda \beta / \rho_r} \left( \tilde{y}_{j,(i),t+t} - \tilde{y}_{j,(i),t-t'} \right) \right) \left| S_i = 1 \right. \right] &= 0 \\
\mathbb{E} \left[ \Delta \tilde{y}_{j,(i),t} \left( \bar{w}_{it+t} - \bar{w}_{it-t'} - \frac{1}{1 + \lambda \beta} \left( \bar{y}_{j,(i),t+t} - \bar{y}_{j,(i),t-t'} \right) \right) \left| S_i = 1 \right. \right] &= 0
\end{align*}
\]

for \( \tau \geq 2, \tau' \geq 3 \)

which are the conditions of equation (12). We start by looking at each quantity using the structure of the model:

\[
\begin{align*}
\bar{y}_{it+t} - \tilde{y}_{j,(i),t-t'} &= \frac{1 + \lambda \beta / \rho_r}{1 + \alpha_r \lambda \beta / \rho_r} \sum_{t' = t-t' + 1}^{t+\tau} \tilde{u}_{jt'} + \nu_{j,t+t} - \nu_{j,t-t'} \\
\bar{w}_{it+t} - \bar{w}_{it-t'} &= v_{it+t} - v_{i,t-t'} + \frac{1}{1 + \alpha_r \lambda \beta / \rho_r} \sum_{t' = t-t' + 1}^{t+\tau} \tilde{u}_{jt'}
\end{align*}
\]

and hence we get

\[
\begin{align*}
\tilde{w}_{it+t} - \tilde{w}_{it-t'} - \frac{1}{1 + \lambda \beta / \rho_r} \left( \tilde{y}_{j,(i),t+t} - \tilde{y}_{j,(i),t-t'} \right) &= -\frac{1}{1 + \lambda \beta / \rho_r} \left( \nu_{j,t+t} - \nu_{j,t-t'} \right) \\
&\quad + v_{it+t} - v_{i,t-t'}
\end{align*}
\]
implies that all terms involving 
the measurement error on wages is independent of all firm level variables, Assumption 1.c,
which is guaranteed by Assumption 1.a.

Similarly, the rank condition is guaranteed by Assumption 1.a.

As a result, 

Given Assumption 1.b that \( E[\nu_j|\Omega_T]=0 \) whenever \( |t-t'| \geq 2 \), it follows that whenever \( \tau \geq 2 \) and \( \tau' \geq 3 \), all cross-products between \( \nu_{jt} \) terms will be mean zero. Furthermore, \( E[\nu_{jt}|\Omega_T]=0 \) ensures that cross-product terms between \( \bar{u}_{jt} \) and \( \nu_{jt} \) are also mean zero. Finally the assumption 
that the measurement error on wages is independent of all firm level variables, Assumption 1.c,
implies that all terms involving \( v_{it} \) are also mean zero. Thus, provided that \( \tau \geq 2 \) or \( \tau' \geq 3 \),

\[
E \left[ \Delta \bar{y}_{j(i),t} \left( \bar{w}_{it+\tau} - \bar{w}_{it-\tau'} - \gamma \left( \bar{y}_{j(i),t+\tau} - \bar{y}_{j(i),t-\tau'} \right) \right) | S_i=1 \right] = 0.
\]

As a result, \( \frac{1}{1 + \lambda^2 \beta / \rho_r} \) is identified as long as,

\[
E \left[ \Delta \bar{y}_{j(i),t} \left( \bar{y}_{j(i),t+\tau} - \bar{y}_{j(i),t-\tau'} \right) | S_i=1 \right] > 0,
\]

which is guaranteed by Assumption 1.a.

A similar result can be established when replacing \( \Delta \bar{y}_{j(i),t} \) with simply \( \Delta \bar{y}_{j(i),t} \). The derivation of the second moment condition involving \( \bar{r} \) follows from an identical derivation at the market level:

\[
\bar{w}_{it+\tau} - \bar{w}_{it-\tau'} = \frac{1}{1 + \lambda \alpha_{r(j(i))} \beta} \sum_{d=t-\tau'+1}^{t+\tau} \bar{u}_{r(j(i)),d}
\]
\[
\bar{y}_{jt+\tau} - \bar{y}_{jt-\tau'} = \frac{1 + \lambda \beta}{1 + \lambda \alpha_{r(j)} \beta} \sum_{d=t-\tau'+1}^{t+\tau} \bar{u}_{r(j),d}
\]

which cancel out differences to imply the moment condition:

\[
E \left[ \Delta \bar{y}_{j(i),t} \left( \bar{w}_{it+\tau} - \bar{w}_{it-\tau'} - \frac{1}{1 + \lambda \beta} \left( \bar{y}_{j(i),t+\tau} - \bar{y}_{j(i),t-\tau'} \right) \right) | S_i=1 \right] = 0.
\]

Similarly, the rank condition is guaranteed by Assumption 1.a.
C.2 Moment conditions for external instruments

First, note that the wage equation with time-varying amenities is,

\[ w_{it} = \theta_j(i,t)x_i + c_r(i,t) - \alpha_r(i,t)h_j(i,t) + \frac{\tilde{a}_{r(i,t)t}}{1 + \alpha_r(i,t)\lambda \beta} + \frac{\tilde{a}_{j(i,t)t}}{1 + \alpha_r(i,t)\lambda \beta/\rho_r} + v_{it} \]

In differences, this becomes,

\[ w_{it} - w_{it-\tau} = -\alpha_r \left( h_j(i,t) - h_j(i,t-\tau) \right) + \frac{\tilde{a}_{r} - \tilde{a}_{r(t-1)}}{1 + \alpha_r \lambda \beta} + \frac{\tilde{a}_{j(i,t)} - \tilde{a}_{j(i,t-1)}}{1 + \alpha_r \lambda \beta/\rho_r} + v_{it} - v_{it-\tau} \]

Suppose we observe an instrument for firm level TFP \( \tilde{a} \), denoted \( Z^a_{jt} \), satisfying the following firm level condition:

**Assumption 1.d.** The firm level instrument \( Z^a_{jt} \) is relevant for firm level productivity changes, \( \mathbb{E} \left[ \left( \tilde{a}_{j(i,t)} - \tilde{a}_{j(i,t-\tau)} \right) Z^a_{jt} \right] \neq 0 \), and exogenous of changes in firm level amenities \( h_{jt} \), \( \mathbb{E} \left[ \left( h_{j(i,t)} - h_{j(i,t-\tau)} \right) Z^a_{jt} \right] = 0 \).

Furthermore, suppose we observe a market level instrument for market level TFP \( \tilde{\pi} \), denoted \( Z^\pi_{rt} \), satisfying the following market level condition:

**Assumption 1.e.** The market level instrument \( Z^\pi_{jt} \) is relevant for market level productivity changes, \( \mathbb{E} \left[ \left( \tilde{\pi}_{rt} - \tilde{\pi}_{r(t-1)} \right) Z^\pi_{jt} \right] \neq 0 \), and exogenous of changes in market level amenities \( \bar{h}_{rt} \), \( \mathbb{E} \left[ \left( \bar{h}_{r(t-1)} - \bar{h}_{r(t-1)} \right) Z^\pi_{jt} \right] = 0 \).

Under assumptions 1.d and 1.e, and the independence assumption of the measurement errors, 1b part i) and 1c, equation (12) identifies \( \gamma_r \), when replacing \( \Delta \tilde{y}_{jt} \) with \( Z^a_{jt} \) and equation (13) identifies \( \Upsilon \) when replacing \( \Delta \bar{\pi}_{rt} \) with \( Z^\pi_{jt} \), respectively. The relevance of the instrument replaces the long term dependence assumption of productivity guaranteed by assumption 1.a. The exogeneity restriction replaces the finite dependence assumption 1.b part ii) and the assumption that amenities are fixed over time.

Concretely, conditional on \( S_i=1, j(i)=j \in J_r \), Assumption 1.d implies that,

\[
\mathbb{E} \left[ \left( \tilde{w}_{it} - \tilde{w}_{it-\tau} \right) Z^a_{jt} \right] = \mathbb{E} \left[ \frac{1}{1+\alpha_r \lambda \beta/\rho_r} \left( \tilde{a}_{jt} - \tilde{a}_{j(t-1)} \right) Z^a_{jt} \right] = \gamma_r \\
\mathbb{E} \left[ \left( \tilde{\pi}_{it} - \tilde{\pi}_{it-\tau} \right) Z^\pi_{jt} \right] = \mathbb{E} \left[ \frac{1+\lambda \beta/\rho_r}{1+\alpha_r \lambda \beta/\rho_r} \left( \tilde{a}_{jt} - \tilde{a}_{j(t-1)} \right) Z^\pi_{jt} \right] = \Upsilon_r 
\]

Furthermore, averaging across \( j \in J_r \), we have,

\[
\bar{w}_{rt} - \bar{w}_{rt-\tau} = -\alpha_r \left( \bar{h}_{rt} - \bar{h}_{rt-\tau} \right) + \frac{\tilde{a}_{r} - \tilde{a}_{r(t-1)}}{1 + \alpha_r \lambda \beta} + \bar{v}_{rt} - \bar{v}_{rt-\tau} 
\]

where \( \bar{h}_{rt} \equiv \mathbb{E} \left[ h_{jt} | j \in J_r \right] \) and \( \bar{v}_{rt} \equiv \mathbb{E} \left[ v_{it} | j(i,t) = j \in J_r \right] \). Thus, conditional on \( S_i=1 \), Assump-
tion 1.e implies that,

\[
\frac{E[(w_{rt} - w_{rt-\tau}) Z^\alpha_{rt}]}{E[(y_{rt} - y_{rt-\tau}) Z^\alpha_{rt}]} = \frac{\frac{1}{1+\alpha_r \lambda \beta / \rho_r} (\bar{\sigma}_{rt} - \bar{\sigma}_{rt-\tau}) Z^\alpha_{rt}]}{\frac{1+\lambda \beta / \rho_r}{1+\alpha_r \lambda \beta / \rho_r} (\bar{\sigma}_{rt} - \bar{\sigma}_{rt-\tau}) Z^\alpha_{rt}} = \Upsilon
\]

C.3 Estimating the rest of the process parameters

In this section we describe the estimation procedure for a joint process of log earnings and value added where both are unit root plus a MA term, and both transitory and permanent shocks to value added pass through to log earnings. We estimate the pass-through process in two steps. First, we estimate the parameters for the value added process. Second, we jointly estimate the pass-through rates at the firm and market level and the parameters of the wage process for the worker.

For the value added process, we use a GMM approach where we put the full variance-covariance in growth from a panel of 8-year spells for stayers. The matrix of moments uses the growth at \( t = 3, 4, 5, 6, 7 \). This is in order to not use any data from the first \((t = 1)\) and last \((t = 8)\) years of the spell. We do this because first and last years of a spell can be partial spells, hence focusing on the middle alleviates the issue of not observing within-years dates for start and end of job.

So we construct a \( 5 \times 5 \) matrix \( M_y \) from the data where the \((p, q)\) element is \( M_y(p, q) = Cov(\Delta y_{ip}, \Delta y_{iq}) \). We can construct the same moments matrix in the model as a function of \( \{\delta_y, \sigma_u, \sigma_\xi\} \) which we denote \( M_y^*(p, q; \delta_y, \sigma_u, \sigma_\xi) \). We use as a matrix the diagonal matrix with variance implied by joint normality across the \( \Delta y_{it} \). The weight associated with \( Cov(\Delta y_{ip}, \Delta y_{iq}) \) is then \( W_y(p, q) = Cov(\Delta y_{ip}, \Delta y_{iq})^2 + Var(\Delta y_{ip})Var(\Delta y_{iq}) \).

The estimator is the minimum distance estimator defined as:

\[
\arg \min_{\delta_y, \sigma_u, \sigma_\xi} \sum_{p=3}^{7} \sum_{q=3}^{7} W_y(p, q) \left( M_y^*(p, q; \delta_y, \sigma_u, \sigma_\xi) - M_y(p, q) \right)^2.
\]

In step 2 we construct two matrices each of size \( 5 \times 5 \):

\[
M_w(p, q) = Cov(\Delta w_{ip}, \Delta w_{iq})
\]

\[
M_{wy}(p, q) = Cov(\Delta w_{ip}, \Delta y_{iq}),
\]

and we denote \( M_w^*(p, q; \delta^w, \sigma_\mu, \sigma_\nu, \gamma, \zeta) \) and \( M_{wy}^*(p, q; \delta^w, \sigma_\mu, \sigma_\nu) \) as the matrices constructed from the model. These matrices are also functions of \( (\delta_y, \sigma_u, \sigma_\xi) \) and we use the parameters estimated in the first step. The weighting matrix is constructed in a similar way using diagonal

---

1In the case of MA(1), one can also use \( t = 2 \), however we wanted to test for MA(2) as a robustness.
weights only and the joint normality assumption.

\[ W_w(p, q) = \text{Cov}(\Delta w_{ip}, \Delta w_{iq})^2 + \text{Var}(\Delta w_{ip})\text{Var}(\Delta w_{iq}) \]

\[ W_{wy}(p, q) = \text{Cov}(\Delta w_{ip}, \Delta y_{iq})^2 + \text{Var}(\Delta w_{ip})\text{Var}(\Delta y_{iq}) \]

Finally we do the following:

\[
\arg \min_{p, q, \delta w, \sigma_{\mu}, \sigma_{\nu}, \gamma, \zeta} \sum_{p=3}^{7} \sum_{q=3}^{7} W_w(p, q) (M^w_w(p, q; \delta w, \sigma_{\mu}, \sigma_{\nu}, \gamma, \zeta) - M_w(p, q))^2 + \]

\[ W_{wy}(p, q) (M^w_{wy}(p, q; \delta w, \sigma_{\mu}, \sigma_{\nu}, \gamma, \zeta) - M_{wy}(p, q))^2. \]

In practice, all of these expressions are polynomials in the parameters. We solve the minimization problem using global polynomial optimization as in Lasserre (2001). This allows us to formally certify the global optimality of the solution.

For inference, we use a joint bootstrap of \( M_y, M_w, M_{yw} \). We computed the bootstrap by resampling at the commuting zone by industry level, representing about 2000 clusters. The results are displayed in Online Appendix Table A.4.

C.4 Interacted fixed effect equation, firm specific TFP \( a_{jt} \) and amenities \( h_j \)

Identification details

We consider the equation in the text,

\[
E \left[ w_{it} - \frac{1}{1 + \lambda \beta} (\tilde{y}_{rt} - \tilde{y}_{r,1}) - \frac{\rho_r}{\rho_r + \lambda \beta} (\tilde{y}_{jt} - \tilde{y}_{j,1}) \middle| j(i, t) = j, j \in J_r \right].
\]

We assume that the initial condition for value added permanent component is \( \tilde{a}_{j1} = \tilde{p}_j \) and \( \tilde{a}_{r(j)1} = \tilde{p}_r \). We then get that

\[ w_{it} = \theta_j x_i + c_r - \alpha_r h_{j(i,t)} + \frac{1}{1 + \lambda \alpha_r \beta / \rho_r} \tilde{a}_{j(i,t),t} + \frac{1}{1 + \lambda \alpha_r \beta} \tilde{a}_{r(j(i,t),t)} + v_{it} \]

\[ \tilde{y}^*_j(t) - \tilde{y}^*_j(1) = \frac{1 + \lambda \beta}{1 + \lambda \alpha_r \beta / \rho_r} (\tilde{a}_{jt} - \tilde{p}_j) \]

\[ \tilde{y}^*_r(t) - \tilde{y}^*_r(1) = \frac{1 + \lambda \beta}{1 + \lambda \alpha_r \beta} (\tilde{a}_{rt} - \tilde{p}_r) \]

Given that the measurement error in \( y_{jt} \) is mean zero and the same applies to \( v_{it} \) even conditional on mobility as given by assumptions 1.b and 1.c, we get that:

\[
E \left[ w_{it} - \frac{1}{1 + \lambda \beta} (\tilde{y}_{rt} - \tilde{y}_{r,1}) - \frac{\rho_r}{\rho_r + \lambda \beta} (\tilde{y}_{jt} - \tilde{y}_{j,1}) \middle| j(i, t) = j, j \in J_r \right] = \theta_j x_i + \psi_j,
\]
where we define
\[ \psi_j \equiv c_r - \alpha_r h_j + \frac{1}{1 + \lambda \beta} \bar{p}_r + \frac{\rho_r}{\rho_r + \lambda \beta} \bar{p}_j. \]

We can identify \( \theta_j \) from data on the changes in earnings associated with these moves:
\[ \frac{\mathbb{E}[w_{it+1}^a | j(i, t) = j', j(i, t+1) = j] - \mathbb{E}[w_{it}^a | j(i, t) = j, j(i, t+1) = j']} \theta_j = \frac{\theta_j}{\theta_j'} \] (20)
as long as the denominator is non zero as ensured by the following assumption:
\[ \mathbb{E} [x_i | j(i, t) = j, j(i, t+1) = j'] \neq \mathbb{E} [x_i | j(i, t) = j', j(i, t+1) = j]. \]

Individual types \( x_i \) are then also identified from Assumption 1.c since
\[ x_i = \mathbb{E} \left[ \frac{w_{it}^a - \psi_j(i, t)}{\theta_j(i, t)} | i \right]. \]

Using such \( x_i \) we can construct the exact workforce of each firm at each time and hence identify the total efficiency of labor at each firm given by:
\[ l_{jt} = \log \int X^{\theta_j} D_{jt}(X) dX. \]

Since the production function parameters \( \alpha_j \) is already known, we get an expression for \( a_{jt} \)
\[ \mathbb{E} [y_{jt} - \alpha_j l_{jt} | j] = a_{jt}. \]

We can use this to construct \( \bar{a}_{jt} = \mathbb{E}[a_{jt} | j \in J_r] \) and \( \tilde{a}_{jt} = a_{jt} - \bar{a}_{jt} \). This then identifies the permanent components \( \bar{p}_j \) and \( \bar{p}_r \) as well as the innovation variances \( \sigma^2_u \) and \( \sigma^2_{\bar{u}} \). The final step is to use the expression of \( \psi_j \) to back out \( h_j \).

**Estimation details**

Equation 14 and 20 make clear that the parameters governing nonlinearities are identified from comparing the gains from moving from a low to a high type of firm for workers of different quality. In practice, we simultaneously recover \((\psi_j, \theta_j)\) from the following moment condition:
\[ \mathbb{E} \left[ \left( \frac{w_{it+1}^a}{\theta_j'} - \psi_j' \right) - \left( \frac{w_{it}^a}{\theta_j} - \psi_j \right) \right] | j(i, t) = j, j(i, t+1) = j' = 0. \] (21)

This moment condition provides an instrumental variables representation where the interactions between indicators for firm before the move and firm after the move can be interpreted as the instruments and the parameters are \((\frac{1}{\theta_1}, \ldots, \frac{1}{\theta_K}, \frac{\psi_1}{\theta_1}, \ldots, \frac{\psi_K}{\theta_K})\). In practice, with 10 firm types, this
equation provides 100 moments and 20 unknown parameters. As a result, this can be interpreted
as an over-identified model. Following Bonhomme et al. (2019), estimation is implemented using
LIML on these moment conditions where the \( \theta_j \) are concentrated on the post-move time period
(in theory they can be estimated without imposing stationarity). To check the relevance of
these instruments, we compute the F-statistic corresponding to the first-stage regression, which
is 9288 with an R-squared of about 0.30.

Regarding the estimation of \( x_i \), we use a sample analog and compute
\[
\hat{x}_i = \frac{1}{T} \sum_t w_t^i \frac{\nu_{i,t} - \psi_{k(i,t)}}{\theta_{k(i,t)}}.
\]
In general, \( \hat{\theta}_j, \hat{\psi}_j \) would suffer from incidental parameter bias, even under the assumption that
\( \theta_j = 1 \), see Bonhomme et al. (2020). However we maintain the assumption that we have a small
set of discrete type that we estimate in a first step, alleviating such concern. Given \( \theta_j, \psi_j \), we
have an unbiased estimate of \( x_i \) under Assumption 1.c and the structure of the wage equation.
Yet, the plug-in estimator for the variance of \( x_i \) can be biased and inconsistent even in the
asymptotic of large number of workers within each firm type. In the online supplement we make
the additional assumption that the measurement error in log-earning is the sum of unit root and
an MA(0) term. This allows to compute the implied bias in the plug in estimator of the variance
of \( x_i \) in finite \( T \). We find that such bias is very small in our context under such assumption.

C.5 Identification and estimation of \( G_j(X) \)

Lemma 8. We show that for all \( t, j \in J_r, r, X \) we have:
\[
\tau \exp(\lambda \psi_{jt}) X^{\theta_j} G_j(X) = (Pr[j(i, t) \in J_r \mid X])^{1/\beta} (Pr[j(i, t) = j \mid X, j(i, t) \in J_r])^{r/\beta}.
\]

Proof. We have that:
\[
Pr[j(i, t) = j \mid X, j(i, t) \in J_r] = \frac{\left(\tau^{1/\lambda} G_j(X)^{1/\lambda} \exp(\psi_{jt}) X^{\theta_j}\right)^{\lambda \beta / \rho_r}}{\sum_{j' \in J_r} \left(\tau^{1/\lambda} G_{j'}(X)^{1/\lambda} \exp(\psi_{j't}) X^{\theta_{j'}}\right)^{\lambda \beta / \rho_r}},
\]
\[
Pr[j(i, t) \in J_r \mid X] = \frac{\left(\sum_{j' \in J_r} \left(\tau^{1/\lambda} G_{j'}(X)^{1/\lambda} \exp(\psi_{j't}) X^{\theta_{j'}}\right)^{\lambda \beta / \rho_r}\right)^{r/\rho_r}}{\sum_{r'} \left(\sum_{j' \in J_{r'}} \left(\tau^{1/\lambda} G_{j'}(X)^{1/\lambda} \exp(\psi_{j't}) X^{\theta_{j'}}\right)^{\lambda \beta / \rho_{r'}}\right)^{r_{r'}}}.
\]

let’s fix a given \( t \) and let’s write \( G_j(X) = \tilde{G}_{r}(X) \tilde{G}_j(X) \) where we impose the normalization that
\[
\sum_{j' \in J_r} \left(\tau^{1/\lambda} \tilde{G}_{j'}(X)^{1/\lambda} \exp(\psi_{j't}) X^{\theta_{j'}}\right)^{\lambda \beta / \rho_{r'}} = 1
\]
\[
\sum_r \tilde{G}_{r}(X)^{\beta} = 1
\]
then we get that
\[
Pr[j(i, t) = j \mid X, j(i, t) \in J_r] = \left(\tau^{1/\lambda} \hat{G}_i(X)^{1/2} \exp(\psi j_t) X^{\theta_j} \right)^{\lambda \beta / \rho_r}
\]
\[
Pr[j(i, t) \in J_r \mid X] = (\hat{G}_r(X))^\beta
\]
and hence
\[
\tau \exp(\lambda \psi j_t) X^{\lambda \beta_j} G_j(X) = (Pr[j(i, t) \in J_r \mid X])^{1/\beta} (Pr[j(i, t) = j \mid X, j(i, t) \in J_r])^{\rho_r / \beta}
\]
and since this is independent of the normalization, we get that this is true for all \(t\).

Next we explain the estimation procedure that relies on the expression that we just derived. For estimation we are going to use a group structure both at the firm and at the market level. For the firm grouping we use the one we obtained by classifying based on firm specific empirical distribution of wages called \(k(j)\). We follow a similar structure at the market level and group based on the market level empirical distribution of earnings. We denote such classification by \(m(r)\). At this point we think of the firm class \(k(j)\) to be within market type \(m\), hence when using the classification for Section 5, we interact it with the market grouping.

Using these two classifications we are going to rely on the fact that worker composition can be estimated at the group level instead of trying to estimate a distribution for each individual firm and market. Indeed in the model we have that:
\[
Pr[X \mid j] = Pr[X \mid k(j)]
\]
\[
Pr[X \mid r] = Pr[X \mid m(r)].
\]
Similarly to the Lemma we define \(G_j(X) = \hat{G}_r \hat{G}_j G_k(j)(X)\). Following the lemma we impose the following constraints on \(\bar{G}_r\) and \(\hat{G}_j\):
\[
\sum_{j' \in J_r} \left(\tau^{1/\lambda} \left(\hat{G}_{j'} \hat{G}_{k(j')} (X)\right)^{1/2} \exp(\lambda \psi j'_t) X^{\lambda \theta_{j'}}\right)^{\lambda \beta / \rho_r} = 1
\]
\[
\sum_r \bar{G}_r^\beta = 1
\]
We then directly apply the formula for \(G_j(X)\) at the firm group level \(k(j)\) within market \(m(r(j)))\):
\[
G_k(X) = X^{-\lambda \theta_k} \left(\frac{Pr[X \mid m]}{Pr[X]}\right)^{1/\beta} \left(\frac{Pr[X \mid k]}{Pr[X \mid m]}\right)^{\rho_r / \beta}.
\]
Next we recover the \( j \) specific part by matching the size of each firm within its market:

\[
Pr[j(i,t) = j | j(i,t) \in J_r] = \tilde{G}_j^{\beta/\rho_r} \int \frac{\left( \tau G_{k(j)}(X) \exp(\lambda \psi_{j,t})X^{\lambda \theta_j} \right)^{\beta/\rho_r}}{\sum_{j' \in J_r} \left( \tau \tilde{G}_{j'} G_{k(j')} (X) \exp(\lambda \psi_{j',t})X^{\lambda \theta_{j'}} \right)^{\beta/\rho_{r'}}} Pr[X|m(r)]dX
\]

And similarly we get the market level constant by matching the market level size:

\[
Pr[j(i,t) \in J_r | X] = \tilde{G}_r^{\beta} \int \frac{\left( \sum_{j' \in J_r} \left( \tau \tilde{G}_{j'} G_{k(j')} (X) \exp(\lambda \psi_{j',t})X^{\lambda \theta_{j'}} \right)^{\beta/\rho_{r'}} \right)^{\rho_r}}{\sum_{r'} \left( \sum_{j' \in J_r'} \left( \tau \tilde{G}_{j'} G_{k(j')} (X) \exp(\lambda \psi_{j',t})X^{\lambda \theta_{j'}} \right)^{\beta/\rho_{r'}} \right)^{\rho_{r'}}} NMX(X)dX
\]

**D Additional Robustness Checks**

**D.1 Pass-through estimation**

The main results are displayed in Online Appendix Table A.4. Additional heterogeneity and robustness analyses are presented in Online Appendix Figure A.1.

We now provide evidence that the main results are not sensitive to alternative specifications. First, we allow for greater persistence in the transitory shock process by considering a MA(2) specification. This is accounted for by choosing \( \tau = 3, \tau' = 4 \) in the empirical counterparts to equations (12)-(13). Results are provided in the fourth column of Panel B in Online Appendix Table A.4. Under an MA(2) specification of the transitory shock process, we estimate that the average firm level pass-through rate \( \gamma_r \) is 0.13 and the market level pass-through rate \( \Upsilon \) is 0.18, which are the same as our main findings from the MA(1) specification.

Second, our specification of the earnings process allows permanent shocks to value added to be transmitted to workers’ earnings, whereas transitory firm shocks are not. As a specification check, we allow transitory innovations to value added to transmit to workers’ earnings. Results are provided in the fourth column of Panel A in Online Appendix Table A.4. We find little if any pass-through of transitory shocks. As a result, transitory shocks explain as little as 0.1 percent of the variation in log earnings. This finding is consistent with previous work (see e.g. Guiso et al. 2005; Friedrich et al. 2019). A possible interpretation of this finding is that transitory changes in value added reflect measurement error that do not give rise to economic responses. In the remainder of the paper, we will treat the transitory changes in value added as measurement error and focus on the pass-through of the permanent shocks.

Third, to compare with existing work, we also consider estimating the restricted specification that imposes \( \gamma_r = \Upsilon, \forall r \). This is equivalent to imposing \( \rho_r = 1, \forall r \), so that idiosyncratic worker preferences over firms are uncorrelated within markets. These results are reported in the first two columns of Panel A in Online Appendix Table A.4. The estimated pass-through rate is then 0.14, which is between our estimates of 0.13 at the firm level and 0.18 at the market level.

Fourth, in Online Appendix Figure A.1, we explore robustness of the pass-through estimates
across subsamples of workers. Conditional on a full set of year times market fixed effects, we find in subfigure (a) that the pass-through rates do not vary that much by the worker’s age, previous wage, or gender. Moreover, the pass-through rates do not change materially if we restrict the sample to new workers who were first hired at the firm in the beginning of the eight year employment spell versus those that have stayed in the firm for a longer time.

Fifth, in subfigure (b) of in Online Appendix Figure A.1, we present results from several specification checks on firms. Following Guiso et al. (2005), our main measure of firm performance is value added. They offer two reasons for using value added as a measure of firm performance: value added is the variable that is directly subject to stochastic fluctuations, and firms have discretionary power over the reporting of profits in balance sheets, which makes profits a less reliable objective to assess. Nevertheless, it is reassuring to find that the estimates of the pass-through rates are broadly similar if we measure firm performance by operating profits, earnings before interest, tax and depreciation (EBITD), or value added net of reported depreciation of capital. We also show that the estimated pass-through rate is in the same range as our baseline result if we exclude multinational corporations (for which it can be difficult to accurately measure value added) or exclude the largest firms (that are more likely to have multiple plants, which may not necessarily have the same wage setting).

D.2 Firm and worker effect estimation

In Online Appendix Table A.6, we provide a number of specification checks. First, we consider estimating the model when ignoring firm-worker interactions by imposing $\theta_j = \bar{\theta}$. The results are presented in the second column of Table A.6. When interactions are ignored, the share of earnings variation explained by worker quality increases by about two percentage points while that explained by firm effects decreases from 4.3 percent to 3.0 percent. Sorting and time-varying effects are little changed. We conclude that the estimated variance of firm effects is downward-biased when ignoring firm-worker production complementarities.

Second, we consider estimating the model when ignoring time-varying effects by imposing $\gamma_r = \Gamma = 0$. The results are presented in the third column of Table A.6. When time-varying effects are ignored, the share of earnings variation explained by worker quality decreases by about one percentage point while that explained by interactions increases by about half a percentage point. The variance of firm effects and sorting are little changed. We conclude that there is little bias in the other terms in the variance decomposition when ignoring production complementarities.

Third, we consider estimating the model when ignoring both firm-worker interactions and time-varying effects by imposing $\theta_j = \bar{\theta}$ and $\gamma_r = \Gamma = 0$. The results are presented in the fourth column of Table A.6. The estimates for worker quality, firm effects, and sorting are similar to the results when only ignoring firm-worker interactions. Note that specification is the same as the model of Abowd et al. (1999) that has been estimated in a recent literature except that we use a bias-corrected estimate, so we can compare this specification directly to other papers to learn
about limited mobility bias. An extensive discussion of limited mobility bias and comparison to the literature is available in our Online Supplement.

In our Online Supplement, we provide additional robustness checks. We consider increasing the number of groups $k$ in the k-means algorithm from the baseline value of 10 up to 50 in increments of 10, finding that the estimates are nearly identical across $k$. We also present estimates for two different time periods (2001-2008 and 2008-2015), finding that the worker quality, firm effects, and sorting components change little over time.

E Online Appendix: Additional Tables and Figures

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Panel</th>
<th>Workers Baseline Sample</th>
<th>Firms Baseline Sample</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Unique Observation-Years</td>
<td>Unique Observation-Years</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Full Sample:</td>
<td>89,570,480</td>
<td>447,519,609</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Panel B.</td>
<td>Movers Sample</td>
<td>Movers Sample</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Movers Only:</td>
<td>32,070,390</td>
<td>207,990,422</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Panel C.</td>
<td>Stayers Sample</td>
<td>Stayers Sample</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Complete Stayer Spells:</td>
<td>10,311,339</td>
<td>35,123,330</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>10 Stayers per Firm:</td>
<td>6,297,042</td>
<td>20,354,024</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>10 Firms per Market:</td>
<td>5,217,960</td>
<td>16,506,865</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Table A.1: Overview of the Sample

Notes: This table provides an overview of the full sample, movers sample, and stayers sample, including the steps involved in defining the stayers sample.
### Panel A. Full Sample

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Goods</th>
<th>Services</th>
<th>All</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Midwest</td>
<td>Northeast</td>
<td>South</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

**Observation Counts:**
- Number of FTE Worker-Years: 42,969,088, 26,999,905, 40,312,311, 31,563,748, 69,045,400, 62,398,625, 103,221,580, 71,355,046, 447,519,609
- Number of Unique FTE Workers: 9,318,707, 6,088,530, 10,215,128, 7,712,759, 17,314,497, 15,997,626, 25,518,284, 17,949,625, 89,376,480
- Number of Unique Firms with FTE Workers: 294,879, 232,717, 439,641, 329,566, 1,051,548, 1,054,944, 1,908,178, 1,314,168, 6,478,231
- Number of Unique Markets with FTE Workers: 1,508, 264, 1,774, 910, 1,714, 744, 2,092, 1,614, 16,141

**Group Counts:**
- Mean Number of FTE Workers per Firm: 22.1, 17.8, 16.1, 16.3, 10.4, 9.7, 9.5, 9.6, 11.4
- Mean Number of FTE Workers per Market: 2,012.9, 6,856.7, 1,586.3, 2,539.3, 1,221.0, 5,723.0, 1,492.8, 2,097.7, 1,951.1
- Mean Number of Firms per Market with FTE Workers: 91.3, 384.9, 98.3, 156.0, 117.4, 588.2, 156.6, 217.7, 167.6

**Outcome Variables in Log:**
- Mean Log Wage for FTE Workers: 10.76, 10.81, 10.70, 10.81, 10.61, 10.74, 10.42, 10.70, 10.69
- Mean Value Added for FTE Workers: 17.36, 16.80, 16.68, 16.64, 16.18, 16.04, 15.94, 16.07, 16.31

### Panel B. Movers Sample

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Goods</th>
<th>Services</th>
<th>All</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Midwest</td>
<td>Northeast</td>
<td>South</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

**Observation Counts:**
- Number of FTE Mover-Years: 17,455,849, 11,543,303, 18,066,928, 15,513,020, 31,643,497, 28,390,782, 50,052,742, 35,324,301, 207,990,422
- Number of Unique FTE Movers: 4,124,895, 2,829,881, 4,819,645, 3,876,182, 7,723,694, 6,602,132, 11,904,008, 8,261,409, 32,079,480
- Number of Unique Firms with FTE Movers: 188,376, 144,268, 265,374, 215,092, 571,360, 549,064, 1,018,927, 700,618, 3,558,678
- Number of Unique Markets with FTE Movers: 1,457, 261, 1,747, 972, 3,099, 739, 4,966, 2,342, 15,546

**Group Counts:**
- Mean Number of FTE Movers per Firm with FTE Movers: 13.5, 11.9, 11.2, 11.6, 8.2, 7.9, 8.2, 8.9
- Mean Number of Movers per Market with FTE Movers: 864.8, 2,991.3, 732.4, 1,184.1, 590.3, 2,655.3, 761.5, 1,123.7, 940.6
- Mean Number of Firms per Market with FTE Movers: 64.1, 251.1, 65.5, 113.4, 72.7, 337.1, 96.4, 137.7, 105.5

**Outcome Variables in Log:**
- Mean Log Wage for FTE Movers: 10.68, 10.77, 10.70, 10.81, 10.74, 10.61, 10.72, 10.61, 10.97
- Mean Value Added for FTE Movers: 16.72, 16.52, 16.28, 16.36, 16.04, 16.02, 15.98, 16.01, 16.12

### Panel C. Stayers Sample

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Goods</th>
<th>Services</th>
<th>All</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Midwest</td>
<td>Northeast</td>
<td>South</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

**Sample Counts:**
- Number of 8-year Worker-Firm Stayer Spells: 2,586,628, 1,777,928, 1,297,822, 1,150,115, 2,315,238, 2,527,352, 2,609,007, 2,207,552, 16,506,865
- Number of Unique FTE Stayers in Firms with 10 FTE Stayers: 798,575, 522,507, 416,549, 354,518, 740,091, 704,658, 865,622, 724,155, 5,217,860
- Number of Unique Firms with 10 FTE Stayers: 13,884, 10,496, 9,409, 9,767, 18,083, 19,475, 19,628, 16,185, 171,798
- Mean Log Wage for FTE Stayers: 10.95, 10.99, 10.97, 10.99, 10.90, 11.09, 10.96, 11.05, 10.97
- Mean Log Value Added for FTE Stayers: 10.04, 17.56, 17.46, 16.96, 17.45, 17.23, 17.89, 17.83, 17.61

Table A.2: Detailed sample characteristics

**Notes:** This table provides a detailed examination of the full sample, movers sample, and stayers sample.
<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Panel A. Rents and Scale</th>
<th>Unique Parameters</th>
<th>Mean Estimate</th>
<th>Moments of the Data</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Idiosyncratic Taste Parameter</td>
<td>β</td>
<td>1</td>
<td>4.99</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Taste Correlation Parameter</td>
<td>ρ_r</td>
<td>8</td>
<td>0.70</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Returns to Scale Parameter</td>
<td>α_r</td>
<td>8</td>
<td>0.21</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Name</th>
<th>Unique Parameters</th>
<th>Var. Estimate</th>
<th>Moments of the Data</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Panel B. Firm and Worker Heterogeneity</td>
<td>Time-varying Firm Premium</td>
<td>ψ_{jt}</td>
<td>10,669,602</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Firm-specific Technology Parameter</td>
<td>θ_j</td>
<td>10</td>
<td>0.04</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Worker Quality</td>
<td>x_i</td>
<td>61,670,459</td>
<td>0.31</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Amenity Efficiency Units at Neutral TFP</td>
<td>h_j</td>
<td>1,953,915</td>
<td>0.14</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Time-varying Firm-specific TFP</td>
<td>a_{jt}</td>
<td>10,669,602</td>
<td>0.14</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Time-varying Market-specific TFP</td>
<td>a_{rt}</td>
<td>111,829</td>
<td>0.12</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Panel C. Model Counterfactuals</th>
<th>Unique Parameters</th>
<th>Var. Estimate</th>
<th>Moments of the Data</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Preferences for amenities for:</td>
<td>g_j(X)</td>
<td>6,974,519</td>
<td>0.20</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Firm j for workers of quality X</td>
<td>g_j(X)</td>
<td>6,974,519</td>
<td>0.20</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Market r for workers of quality X</td>
<td>g_j(X)</td>
<td>6,974,519</td>
<td>0.20</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Panel C. Model Counterfactuals</th>
<th>Unique Parameters</th>
<th>Mean Estimate</th>
<th>Moments of the Data</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Preferences for amenities for:</td>
<td>g_j(X)</td>
<td>6,974,519</td>
<td>0.20</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Firm j for workers of quality X</td>
<td>g_j(X)</td>
<td>6,974,519</td>
<td>0.20</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Market r for workers of quality X</td>
<td>g_j(X)</td>
<td>6,974,519</td>
<td>0.20</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Table A.3: Quantities of Interest, Model Parameters and Targeted Moments

Notes: This table displays the model parameters and the moments targeted in their estimation.
GMM Estimates of Joint Process

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th></th>
<th>Process: MA(1)</th>
<th></th>
<th>Process: MA(2)</th>
<th></th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Firm Only</td>
<td>Accounting for Markets</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Log Value Added</td>
<td>0.31</td>
<td>0.29</td>
<td>0.31</td>
<td>0.29</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>(0.01)</td>
<td>(0.01)</td>
<td>(0.01)</td>
<td>(0.01)</td>
<td>(0.01)</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Log Earnings</td>
<td>0.17</td>
<td>0.10</td>
<td>0.17</td>
<td>0.10</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>(0.00)</td>
<td>(0.00)</td>
<td>(0.00)</td>
<td>(0.00)</td>
<td>(0.00)</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Total Growth</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Permanenr Shock</td>
<td>0.20</td>
<td>0.17</td>
<td>0.20</td>
<td>0.17</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>(0.01)</td>
<td>(0.01)</td>
<td>(0.01)</td>
<td>(0.01)</td>
<td>(0.01)</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Transitory Shock</td>
<td>0.18</td>
<td>0.17</td>
<td>0.18</td>
<td>0.17</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>(0.01)</td>
<td>(0.01)</td>
<td>(0.01)</td>
<td>(0.01)</td>
<td>(0.01)</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>MA Coefficient,</td>
<td>0.09</td>
<td>0.09</td>
<td>0.14</td>
<td>0.13</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Lag 1</td>
<td>(0.01)</td>
<td>(0.01)</td>
<td>(0.01)</td>
<td>(0.01)</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>MA Coefficient,</td>
<td>0.00</td>
<td>0.00</td>
<td>0.00</td>
<td>0.00</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Lag 2</td>
<td>(0.00)</td>
<td>(0.00)</td>
<td>(0.00)</td>
<td>(0.00)</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Permanent Passthrough Coefficient</td>
<td>0.14</td>
<td>0.15</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>(0.01)</td>
<td>(0.01)</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Transitory Passthrough Coefficient</td>
<td>-0.01</td>
<td>0.00</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>(0.01)</td>
<td>(0.00)</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Market Passthrough Coefficient</td>
<td>0.18</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>(0.02)</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Table A.4: GMM estimates of the earnings and value added processes

Notes: This table displays the parameters of the joint processes of log value added and log earnings. These results come from joint estimation of the earnings and value added processes under assumptions 1.a-1.c using GMM. Columns 1-2 report results from the specification which imposes $\gamma_F = \Upsilon$ (“Firm only”), while columns 3-4 report results from the specification which allows $\Upsilon$ to differ from $\gamma_F$ and $\gamma_R$ to vary across broad markets (“Accounting for Markets”). The top panel assumes the transitory components follow an MA(1) process. The bottom panel permits the transitory components to follow an MA(2) process. Standard errors are estimated using 40 block bootstrap draws in which the block is taken to be the market.
Figure A.1: Sample heterogeneity in pass-through rates of firm shocks

Notes: This figure displays heterogeneity in the GMM estimates of the pass-through rates of a firm shock, both for the firm only model (imposing $T = \gamma$) and when removing market by year means (permitting $T \neq \gamma$).

Figure A.2: Fit of the Tax Function

Notes: In this figure, we display the log net income predicted by the tax function compared to the log net income observed in the data.
Figure A.3: Broad Market Heterogeneity in Labor Supply Elasticities and Labor Wedges

Notes: In this figure, we display the estimated (post-tax) firm level labor supply elasticity and labor wedge for each of the 8 broad markets. The population-weighted means are represented by horizontal lines.

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Market Count (in 1,000)</th>
<th>Market Count (in 1,000)</th>
<th>Market Count (in 1,000)</th>
<th>Market Count (in 1,000)</th>
<th>Market Count (in 1,000)</th>
<th>Market Count (in 1,000)</th>
<th>Market Count (in 1,000)</th>
<th>Market Count (in 1,000)</th>
<th>Market Count (in 1,000)</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Workers</td>
<td>Firm</td>
<td>Passthrough Rate</td>
<td>Firm</td>
<td>Workers</td>
<td>Firm</td>
<td>Passthrough Rate</td>
<td>Firm</td>
<td>Workers</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Baseline (NAICS 2-digit, commuting zone)</td>
<td>1.90</td>
<td>0.17</td>
<td>0.18</td>
<td>0.13</td>
<td>4.99</td>
<td>0.51</td>
<td>0.79</td>
<td>0.52</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Shutdown broad market heterogeneity ($\rho_r = \beta$, $\alpha_r = \sigma$)</td>
<td>1.97</td>
<td>0.17</td>
<td>0.18</td>
<td>0.13</td>
<td>5.06</td>
<td>0.48</td>
<td>0.79</td>
<td>0.52</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Alternative detailed markets:</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Finer geography (county)</td>
<td>0.54</td>
<td>0.05</td>
<td>0.19</td>
<td>0.14</td>
<td>4.61</td>
<td>0.54</td>
<td>0.79</td>
<td>0.51</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Finer industry (NAICS 3-digit)</td>
<td>0.65</td>
<td>0.06</td>
<td>0.19</td>
<td>0.13</td>
<td>4.60</td>
<td>0.50</td>
<td>0.79</td>
<td>0.52</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Coarser geography (state)</td>
<td>25.44</td>
<td>2.23</td>
<td>0.18</td>
<td>0.13</td>
<td>5.00</td>
<td>0.52</td>
<td>0.79</td>
<td>0.53</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Coarser industry (NAICS supersector)</td>
<td>4.42</td>
<td>0.39</td>
<td>0.20</td>
<td>0.13</td>
<td>4.28</td>
<td>0.66</td>
<td>0.79</td>
<td>0.53</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Table A.5: Robustness of the Model Parameters and Rent Sharing Estimates to Alternative Market Definitions

Notes: This table displays robustness of the estimated model parameters and rents to alternative definitions of detailed markets.
Table A.6: Decomposition of earnings inequality

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Specification</th>
<th>Main</th>
<th>Alternatives</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Share explained by:</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>i) Worker Quality</td>
<td>$\bar{\theta}_j$</td>
<td>$\bar{\gamma}_r = \Upsilon = 0$</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>ii) Firm Effects</td>
<td>$\bar{\psi}_{j(i)}$</td>
<td>$0$</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>iii) Sorting</td>
<td>$2\text{Cor}(\tilde{x}<em>i, \tilde{\psi}</em>{j(i)})$</td>
<td>$13.0%$</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>iv) Interactions</td>
<td>$\text{Var}(\bar{\theta}<em>j) + 2\text{Cov}(x_i + \psi</em>{j(i)}, \bar{\theta}_j)$</td>
<td>$0.9%$</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>v) Time-varying Effects</td>
<td>$\text{Var}(\bar{\psi}<em>{j(i),t}) + 2\text{Cov}(x_i, \bar{\psi}</em>{j(i),t})$</td>
<td>$0.3%$</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Sorting Correlation</td>
<td>$\text{Cor}(x_i, \tilde{\psi}_{j(i)})$</td>
<td>$0.37$</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Variance Explained</td>
<td>$R^2$</td>
<td>$0.90$</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Specification:</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Firm-Worker Interactions</td>
<td>✓</td>
<td>✓</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Time-varying Firm Effects</td>
<td>✓</td>
<td>✓</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Notes: This table presents the decomposition of log earnings variation into firm and worker effects using the main specification described in the text, as well as alternative specifications that ignore firm-worker interactions ($\theta_j = \bar{\theta}$), ignore time-varying effects ($\gamma_r = \Gamma = 0$), and ignore both ($\theta_j = \bar{\theta}$ and $\gamma_r = \Gamma = 0$). The analysis uses both workers who move between firms and non-movers. All estimates are corrected for limited mobility bias using the grouped fixed-effect method of Bonhomme et al. (2019).
Figure A.4: Fit of the Model for Untargeted Moments

Notes: In this figure, we compare the observed and the predicted values of firm effects, value added, efficiency units of labor, and wage bill. We make this comparison separately according to actual and predicted firm size.

Figure A.5: Estimates of the Amenity Components $h_j$ from the Wage Equation versus the Equilibrium Constraint

Notes: In this figure, we plot the mean of $h_j$ across log size bins. We compare the baseline estimates of $h_j$ from the equation for firm wage premiums (15), versus those estimated using the equilibrium constraint by solving the fixed-point definition of $h_j$ as a function of $(\bar{P}_j, \bar{P}, G_j(X))$, as shown in Lemma 3.

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### Panel A. Model Parameters

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th></th>
<th>Midwest</th>
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<th>South</th>
<th>West</th>
<th>Midwest</th>
<th>Northeast</th>
<th>South</th>
<th>West</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Idiosyncratic taste parameter ($\beta^{-1}$)</td>
<td>0.844</td>
<td>0.694</td>
<td>0.719</td>
<td>0.924</td>
<td>0.649</td>
<td>0.563</td>
<td>0.744</td>
<td>0.619</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>(0.179)</td>
<td>(0.153)</td>
<td>(0.160)</td>
<td>(0.182)</td>
<td></td>
<td>(0.141)</td>
<td>(0.109)</td>
<td>(0.246)</td>
<td>(0.117)</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Taste correlation parameter ($\rho$)</td>
<td>0.746</td>
<td>0.764</td>
<td>0.863</td>
<td>0.949</td>
<td>0.753</td>
<td>0.740</td>
<td>0.814</td>
<td>0.752</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>(0.016)</td>
<td>(0.013)</td>
<td>(0.017)</td>
<td>(0.019)</td>
<td></td>
<td>(0.013)</td>
<td>(0.013)</td>
<td>(0.006)</td>
<td>(0.015)</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Returns to scale $(1 - \alpha)$</td>
<td>0.746</td>
<td>0.764</td>
<td>0.863</td>
<td>0.949</td>
<td>0.753</td>
<td>0.740</td>
<td>0.814</td>
<td>0.752</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>(0.016)</td>
<td>(0.013)</td>
<td>(0.017)</td>
<td>(0.019)</td>
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<td>(0.013)</td>
<td>(0.013)</td>
<td>(0.006)</td>
<td>(0.015)</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

### Panel B. Firm-level Rents and Rent Shares

#### Workers’ Rents:

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
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<th>Midwest</th>
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<th>South</th>
<th>West</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Per-worker Dollars</td>
<td>6,802</td>
<td>6,681</td>
<td>5,737</td>
<td>8,906</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>(770)</td>
<td>(723)</td>
<td>(720)</td>
<td>(867)</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Share of Earnings</td>
<td>16%</td>
<td>13%</td>
<td>14%</td>
<td>17%</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>(2%)</td>
<td>(1%)</td>
<td>(2%)</td>
<td>(2%)</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

#### Firms’ Rents:

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
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<th>Midwest</th>
<th>Northeast</th>
<th>South</th>
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</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Per-worker Dollars</td>
<td>4,041</td>
<td>4,198</td>
<td>7,465</td>
<td>20,069</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>(1,243)</td>
<td>(1,130)</td>
<td>(2,681)</td>
<td>(6,323)</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Share of Profits</td>
<td>8%</td>
<td>7%</td>
<td>17%</td>
<td>52%</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>(3%)</td>
<td>(2%)</td>
<td>(6%)</td>
<td>(16%)</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

#### Workers’ Share of Rents

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th></th>
<th>Midwest</th>
<th>Northeast</th>
<th>South</th>
<th>West</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Per-worker Dollars</td>
<td>63%</td>
<td>61%</td>
<td>43%</td>
<td>31%</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>(4%)</td>
<td>(4%)</td>
<td>(5%)</td>
<td>(4%)</td>
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### Panel C. Market-level Rents and Rent Shares

#### Workers’ Rents:

<table>
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<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Per-worker Dollars</td>
<td>7,837</td>
<td>9,102</td>
<td>7,572</td>
<td>9,506</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>(1,319)</td>
<td>(1,532)</td>
<td>(1,274)</td>
<td>(1,600)</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Share of Earnings</td>
<td>18%</td>
<td>18%</td>
<td>18%</td>
<td>18%</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>(3%)</td>
<td>(3%)</td>
<td>(3%)</td>
<td>(3%)</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

#### Firms’ Rents:

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th></th>
<th>Midwest</th>
<th>Northeast</th>
<th>South</th>
<th>West</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Per-worker Dollars</td>
<td>4,940</td>
<td>6,311</td>
<td>10,000</td>
<td>20,846</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>(1,140)</td>
<td>(1,350)</td>
<td>(2,267)</td>
<td>(5,787)</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Share of Profits</td>
<td>10%</td>
<td>11%</td>
<td>23%</td>
<td>54%</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>(2%)</td>
<td>(2%)</td>
<td>(5%)</td>
<td>(15%)</td>
<td></td>
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#### Workers’ Share of Rents

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th></th>
<th>Midwest</th>
<th>Northeast</th>
<th>South</th>
<th>West</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Per-worker Dollars</td>
<td>61%</td>
<td>59%</td>
<td>43%</td>
<td>31%</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>(3%)</td>
<td>(3%)</td>
<td>(4%)</td>
<td>(5%)</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

### Table A.7: Market Heterogeneity in Model Parameters and Rent Sharing Estimates

**Notes:** This table displays heterogeneity in the estimated model parameters and rents. These results correspond to the specification which allows $\Upsilon$ to differ from $\gamma$, and for $\rho_r$ and $\alpha_r$ to vary across broad markets. Standard errors are estimated using 40 block bootstrap draws in which the block is taken to be the market.
Figure A.6: Compensating differentials

Notes: In this figure, we plot mean compensating differentials overall and within market. To do so, we randomly draw a pair of firms \((j, j')\) with probability proportional to size. Each \(j'\) is drawn from the full set of firms when estimating overall compensating differentials and from the set of firms in the same market as \(j\) when estimating within-market compensating differentials. Then, we estimate the compensating differential between \(j\) and \(j'\) for a worker of given quality \(x_i = x\) by \(\psi_j' + x\theta_j' - \psi_j - x\theta_j\). This figure plots the mean absolute value of the compensating differentials across deciles of the \(x_i\) distribution, where the horizontal lines denote means across the distribution of \(x_i\).

Figure A.7: Worker sorting with counterfactual values of \(g_j(x)\) and \(\theta_j\)

Notes: In this figure, we reduce the heterogeneity across firms in amenities or production complementarities by replacing either \(g_j(x)\) with \((1-s)g_j(x) + sg_j\) or \(\theta_j\) with \((1-s)\theta_j + s\theta\), where \(g_j = E_x [g_j(x)], \theta = E [\theta_j]\). Here, \(s \in [0, 1]\) is the shrink rate with \(s = 0\) corresponding to the baseline model. We report the share of log earnings variance explained by sorting (subfigure a) and the sorting correlation (subfigure b).