

Econ 510 Collusion I

Collusive Agreements

- Collusive agreements can take different forms:
 - Agreements on sale prices;
 - Agreements on allocation of production, market segregation;
 - Geographical segregation (Ex.: Carlsberg-Heineken)
 - Customer class segregation
 - Investment in advertising, quality;
 - Ex: air transport
- Collusive agreements can be organized in different ways:
 - Cartel-like structure;
 - Ex: OPEC
 - (Secret) communication to coordinate behaviour;
 - Tacit collusion.

Plan of the lectures

- Functioning of a collusive agreement.
- Structural factors that facilitate collusion:
 - Concentration
 - Entry barriers
 - Frequency of orders
 - Evolution of demand
 - Symmetry
 - Market transparency
- Facilitating practices
 - Exchange of information
 - RPM
 - Meeting-competition clause
- R&D agreements

Functioning of a collusive agreement

- Example
- Incentive to **deviate** intrinsic to any collusive agreement
- In order to sustain a collusive agreement it is crucial:
 - to **punish** deviators;
 - (note the importance of repeated interaction)
 - to **detect** deviations (in a timely way);

Basic model

- n (identical) firms
- Homogeneous product

– Demand:

$$D_i(p_i) = \begin{cases} D(p_i) & \text{if } p_i < p_j \text{ for any } i \neq j \\ \frac{D(p)}{n} & \text{if } p_i = p_j = p \text{ for any } i, j \\ 0 & \text{if there exists a } k \text{ such that } p_i > p_k \end{cases}$$

- Marginal cost = c
- Same discount factor = $\delta = 1/(1+r)$
- No capacity constraint
- Infinitely repeated interaction:
 - In each period $t=1,2,\dots$ firms simultaneously fix prices

- Equilibrium strategy (trigger strategy):

$$\left\{ \begin{array}{l} t=1 \quad p_i = p^m \quad \pi_i = \frac{\pi^m}{n} \\ t > 1 \quad \text{se } p_{j,t-1} = p^m \text{ for any } j, \quad p_{i,t} = p^m \\ \quad \text{se } p_{j,t-1} < p^m \text{ for at least one } j, \quad p_{i,t} = p_{i,t+1} = \dots = c \end{array} \right.$$

where p^m is the price that max industry profits and π^m the corresponding maximum profit

- Payoff from following the candidate equilibrium strategy:

$$\frac{\pi^m}{n} + \delta \frac{\pi^m}{n} + \delta^2 \frac{\pi^m}{n} + \delta^3 \frac{\pi^m}{n} + \dots = \frac{\pi^m}{n} \sum_{i=0}^{\infty} \delta^i = \frac{\pi^m}{n} \frac{1}{1-\delta}$$

- Payoff from deviating:

$$\pi^m + \delta(0) + \delta^2(0) + \delta^3(0) + \dots = \pi^m$$

- Following the equilibrium strategy is more profitable than deviating if:

$$\frac{\pi^m}{n} \frac{1}{1-\delta} > \pi^m$$

- The previous inequality can be written as follows:

$$\underbrace{\pi^m - \frac{\pi^m}{n}}_{\text{immediate gain from deviation}} < \underbrace{\delta \left(\frac{\pi^m}{n} - 0 \right) + \delta^2 \left(\frac{\pi^m}{n} - 0 \right) + \delta^3 \left(\frac{\pi^m}{n} - 0 \right) + \delta^4 \left(\frac{\pi^m}{n} - 0 \right) + \dots}_{\text{long term cost of deviation}}$$

$$\pi^m - \frac{\pi^m}{n} < \delta \frac{\pi^m}{n} \left[1 + \delta + \delta^2 + \delta^3 + \dots \right] = \frac{\delta}{1 - \delta} \frac{\pi^m}{n}$$

$$\delta > 1 - \frac{1}{n} \equiv \delta^*$$

➡ Collusion is sustainable if the profits that the firm gives up in the future by deviating are sufficiently important

- The discount factor can also be written as

$$d = \phi\delta$$

where ϕ is the probability that the market exists in the following period

→ Collusion more difficult in markets where products become obsolete very rapidly, where the turn-over is very high, etc

Other points

- Multiplicity of equilibria:
 - If $\delta > \delta^*$, any agreement based on a price $p \in [c, p^m]$ is sustainable.
- In principle, no need to communicate to sustain collusion (**tacit collusion**): result of purely non-cooperative behaviour.
- However communication is essential:
 - Coordinate on the collusive price
 - Adjust prices to shocks without triggering price wars

Structural factors affecting collusion

- **Number of competitors**

ceteris paribus, the lower the number of competitors, the easier to sustain collusion:

$$\delta^* = 1 - \frac{1}{n} \downarrow \quad \text{if } n \downarrow$$

$$\underbrace{\pi^m - \frac{\pi^m}{n}}_{\substack{\text{the immediate} \\ \text{gain of deviation} \downarrow}} < \underbrace{\frac{\delta}{1-\delta} \frac{\pi^m}{n}}_{\substack{\text{the cost} \\ \text{of deviation} \uparrow}}$$

- In this sense, higher degree of concentration makes collusion more likely

- Moreover,
 - Reciprocal monitoring easier and detection of deviations quicker.
 - Easier to coordinate behaviour.

- **Entry barriers**

collusion cannot be sustained in the absence of entry barriers and it is more difficult to sustain the lower the entry barriers.

- Stream of future collusive profits ↓
- Cost of deviation ↓ (punishment less effective)

- Imagine that in each future period a firm enters with some probability μ and charges the competitive price $p=c$.

$$\frac{\pi^m}{n} + \delta \left(\frac{\pi^m}{n} (1-\mu) + 0\mu \right) + \delta^2 \left(\frac{\pi^m}{n} (1-\mu) + 0\mu \right) + \delta^3 \left(\frac{\pi^m}{n} (1-\mu) + 0\mu \right) + \dots > \pi^m + \delta 0 + \delta^2 0 + \dots$$

- Equivalently,

$$\pi^m - \frac{\pi^m}{n} < (1-\mu) \frac{\pi^m}{n} \frac{\delta}{1-\delta}$$

- The immediate gain from deviation =
- As $\mu \uparrow$, the cost of deviation \downarrow
- The critical discount factor is increasing in μ :

$$\delta > \delta^*(\mu) \equiv \frac{n-1}{n-\mu} > \delta^*$$

- **Frequency of orders**

Collusion more difficult if firms interact less frequently

– Cost of deviation ↓ (Punishment less effective).

- Imagine orders arrive every T periods (at time 1, T+1, 2T+1,)

$$\frac{\pi^m}{n} + \delta^T \frac{\pi^m}{n} + \delta^{2T} \frac{\pi^m}{n} + \delta^{3T} \frac{\pi^m}{n} + \dots > \pi^m + 0$$

- Equivalently,

$$\underbrace{\pi^m - \frac{\pi^m}{n}}_{\text{immediate gain of deviation =}} < \underbrace{\delta^T \frac{\pi^m}{n} + \delta^{2T} \frac{\pi^m}{n} + \dots}_{\text{cost of deviation } \downarrow}$$

- The critical discount factor \uparrow as $T \uparrow$: $\delta^*(T) = \left(1 - \frac{1}{n}\right)^{\frac{1}{T}}$

- **Frequency of price adjustments**

Collusion more difficult if prices adjust less frequently

- Punishment will start later in the future:
 - Benefit of deviation enjoyed for a longer period
 - Cost of deviation decreases

- Imagine prices adjust every T periods:

$$\frac{\pi^m}{n} + \delta \frac{\pi^m}{n} + \delta^2 \frac{\pi^m}{n} + \dots > \pi^m + \delta \pi^m + \delta^2 \pi^m + \dots \delta^T 0$$

- Equivalently,
$$\underbrace{\left(\pi^m - \frac{\pi^m}{n} \right) (1 + \delta + \delta^2 + \dots + \delta^{T-1})}_{\text{benefit of deviation } \uparrow} \leq \underbrace{\left(\frac{\pi^m}{n} - 0 \right) (\delta^T + \delta^{T+1} + \dots)}_{\text{cost of deviation } \downarrow}$$

- The critical discount factor:
$$\delta^*(T) = \left(1 - \frac{1}{n} \right)^{\frac{1}{T}}$$

- **Evolution of demand**

- 1. **Demand fluctuations hinder collusion.**

Rotemberg e Saloner, (1986)

- In each period demand can be either high or low.
 - Shocks are independently and identically distributed across periods.
 - Firms observe present demand. Present demand does not provide information on future demand.

Collusion more difficult when demand is high:

- Immediate gain of deviation is higher
- Cost of deviation is the same (based on average demand)

- With probability 1/2: $D^L=(1-\varepsilon)D(p)$; $D^H=(1+\varepsilon)D(p)$
- Average demand: $D(p)$

- IC when demand is high:

$$\underbrace{(1+\varepsilon)\left(\pi^m - \frac{\pi^m}{n}\right)}_{\text{immediate gain } \uparrow} < \underbrace{\frac{\delta}{1-\delta} \frac{\pi^m}{n}}_{\text{cost of deviation} =}$$

- IC when demand is low:

$$\underbrace{(1-\varepsilon)\left(\pi^m - \frac{\pi^m}{n}\right)}_{\text{immediate gain } \downarrow} < \frac{\delta}{1-\delta} \frac{\pi^m}{n}$$

- The critical discount factor increases with ε .

$$\delta > \delta^*(\varepsilon) \equiv \frac{(1 + \varepsilon)(n - 1)}{n + \varepsilon(n - 1)}$$

- When demand especially high, firms collude “less” (on prices lower than the monopoly price) or even abandon any agreement.

➡ Collusive prices are **anti-cyclical**.

A similar analysis applies to more deterministic fluctuations (ex. Seasonal/business cycles).

- In the US, the government uses to buy vaccines in bulk in order to make procurement auctions less frequent.

2. Demand growth

For a fixed number of firms, collusion is easier in growing markets; it is more difficult in declining markets.

– Cost of deviation larger (lower).

- Imagine demand varies steadily at a rate g :

$$D^t(p) = (1+g)^t D(p) \quad \text{with } t=0,1,2,3,4,\dots$$

$$\frac{\pi^m}{n} + \delta \frac{\pi^m (1+g)}{n} + \delta^2 \frac{\pi^m (1+g)^2}{n} + \delta^3 \frac{\pi^m (1+g)^3}{n} + \dots > \pi^m$$

- Equivalently,

$$\underbrace{\pi^m - \frac{\pi^m}{n}}_{\text{immediate gain}} < \underbrace{\frac{\delta(1+g)}{1-\delta(1+g)} \frac{\pi^m}{n}}_{\text{cost of deviation } \uparrow \text{ (when } g > 0)}$$

- The critical discount factor decreases with g (if positive)

$$\delta > \delta^*(g) \equiv \left(1 - \frac{1}{n}\right) \frac{1}{1+g}$$

In practice, demand growth is often interpreted as a factor hindering collusion.

Why? Entry is easier in growing markets.

The **direct** and the **indirect** effect must be assessed.

- **Symmetry**

The general idea is that **symmetry helps collusion.**

Symmetry can concern several dimensions:

- Market shares
- Production capacity
- Costs
- Number of varieties

a) Market shares

Collusion more difficult, the more asymmetric firms' market shares.

- The smaller firm has stronger incentive to deviate
- Imagine 2 firms, one with share $\alpha > 1/2$.
 - IC of the large firm:

$$\underbrace{\pi^m - \alpha\pi^m}_{\substack{\text{immediate} \\ \text{gain smaller}}} < \underbrace{\frac{\delta}{1-\delta} \alpha\pi^m}_{\substack{\text{cost of deviation} \\ \text{larger}}}$$

- IC of the small firm:

$$\underbrace{\pi^m - (1-\alpha)\pi^m}_{\substack{\text{immediate} \\ \text{gain larger}}} < \underbrace{\frac{\delta}{1-\delta} (1-\alpha)\pi^m}_{\substack{\text{cost of deviation} \\ \text{smaller}}}$$



- Concentration indexes may be misleading
 - Ex. Herfindahl Index: ↑ as asymmetries of market shares ↑ .

Asymmetry in market shares is endogenous and reflects deeper differences across firms.

b) Production capacities

In general, the existence of capacity constraints has an ambiguous effect on collusion:

- Gain from deviation (undercutting rivals) \downarrow .
- Capacity constraints limit punishment effectiveness:
cost of deviation \downarrow : payoff of the deviator during punishment phase >0 .

Instead, the impact of asymmetry in capacity is less ambiguous: collusion more difficult with an asymmetric distribution of capacities.

(Compte, Jenny, Rey, 2002)

- Imagine one firm has large capacity and the other small.
 - The large-capacity firm gains more from deviation.
 - The cost deviation is lower for the large-capacity firm (the small firm is not a tough punisher).
 - Example: Nestlè-Perrier.
- ➡ To induce the large-capacity firm to abide to collusion, it will be necessary to give it a higher market share.

d) Cost asymmetries

There is less scope for collusion with an asymmetric cost structure.

- More difficult to coordinate behaviour.
- More difficult to agree on sharing collusive profits.

- More efficient firms more tempted to deviate:
 - Gain more from a deviation.
 - Cost of deviation smaller (the high-cost firm is not a tough punisher).

- Consider 2 firms: $c_H > c_L$; Rigid demand: D if $p \leq v$;
- Equal market shares

- IC of high-cost firm:

$$(v - c_H) \left(D - \frac{D}{2} \right) < \frac{\delta}{1 - \delta} (v - c_H) \frac{D}{2} \quad \delta > \frac{1}{2}$$

- IC of low-cost firm:

$$\underbrace{(v - c_L) \left(D - \frac{D}{2} \right)}_{\text{larger gain from deviation}} < \frac{\delta}{1 - \delta} \left[(v - c_L) \frac{D}{2} - (c_H - c_L) D \right] = \frac{\delta}{1 - \delta} \underbrace{\left[(v - c_H) \frac{D}{2} - (c_H - c_L) \frac{D}{2} \right]}_{\text{smaller cost of deviation}}$$

$$\delta > \frac{1}{2 - \gamma}$$

$$\text{where } \gamma = \frac{2(c_H - c_L)}{v - c_L}$$

➔ To better induce the low-cost firm to stick to the collusive conduct, firms may grant a larger market share to the more efficient firm.

c) Discount factors

The firm with the smaller discount factor (for instance, in financial distress) more tempted to deviate.