Collusion

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Competition Policy III: Collusion

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Introduction

Collusion is any form of **agreement** between competitors.

Examples:

- agreement on sales prices ("prices"),
- quota allocations ("outputs"),
- division of markets ("markets"),
- etc.
- Institutional arrangements to sustain collusion:
 - overt collusion: cartels with a central office (secret if anti-trust laws exist) or some form of communication.
 - **tacit collusion:** firms never meet or communicate.

Introduction

- Collusion allows firms to exert market power they would not have otherwise by artifically restricting competition in a way to reduce welfare (typcially by price increases).
- Accordingly, collusion is prohibited by anti-trust laws.
- Any anti-trust authority would certainly attack a cartel, or any explicit agreement on price-setting or market-sharing.
- However, there are divergences with regards to the required standard of proof and legal treatment of tacit collusion.



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Collusion in Economic Theory

- Collusion is a situation where firms' prices are higher than some competitive benchmark. ("Collusion as a market outcome")
- Competitive benchmark: equilibrium price of a game where firms meet only once in the marketplace. (e.g. Bertrand in homogenous goods price games, Cournot in quantity games)
- Sometimes collusion is seen as a situation where firms' prices are close enough to monopoly prices.
- In any case, collusion coincides with high-enough price outcomes, and not with the specific form through which that outcome is attained. ("overt vs. tacit collusion")
- Yet, anti-trust authorities and judges should from an economic viewpoint consider as illegal only practices where firms explicitly coordinate their actions to achieve a collusive outcome.

Fragility of Collusion

- Even if overt collusion were to be legal, it would not be easy for firms to achieve a collusive outcome.
- In fact, unilateral deviation would increase a firm's profits.
- For instance, consider two fruit sellers in a street market.
- Pears per kilo cost EUR 1 and the monopoly price is EUR 2.
- Both pricing "collusively" at EUR 2 would give each seller approximately half of the buyers (identical qualitiy of pears).
- However, a seller has a strong incentive to slightly undercut EUR 2 to get all buyers and to thus considerably increase profits.
- Any collusive situation naturally brings with it the temptation to deviate from it and to therefore break collusion.

Two Main Ingredients of Collusion

In fact, two elements must exist for collusion to arise.

- Firstly, the colluders must be able to detect in a timely way the occurence of a deviation. (e.g. lower price than agreed)
- Note that detection is not always easy: in many markets firms' prices and outputs are not directly observable.
- Secondly, there must be a punishment for the deviator. (e.g. much lower prices by the rivals in the post deviation periods)
- Generally the punishing firms also suffer due to lower profits: it is thus crucial that firms are willing to participate in the punishment.

Two Main Ingredients of Collusion

- Only if a firm knows that a deviation is quickly detected and punished by the other colluders, it refrains from deviating and the collusive outcome will arise.
- Thus, collusion can only be sustained if firms meet repeatedly in the marketplace. ("Collusion never arises in one-shot games")
- Regarding the example, if the street market is small enough and if the sellers post the prices, detection of price cuts is immediate.
- Retaliation by the detecting seller can be immediate and a price war can ensue with severe losses to both sellers.
- Note that (cf. fruit seller example), if detection is rapid and punishments are likely as well as credible, then collusion can arise via purely non-cooperative behaviour: *tacit collusion*.

Which Collusive Price?

- It is not always clear which collusive price be chosen.
- Folk theorem (Friedman, 1971): in repeated games with infinite horizon and large enough discount factor, firms can have any profit between zero and the fully collusive profit in equilibrium.
 - This raises the issue of coordination.

Coordination: The Difference Between Tacit and Overt Collusion

- Under tacit collusion it is difficult for the firms to solve the problem of coordination.
- If firms cannot directly communicate, they can make mistakes and pick actions which are not jointly optimal yet hard to change.
- Using the market to signal intentions to coordinate on a different price might be very costly.
 - If a firm increases its price to signal a higher price, it loses market share in the adjustment period.
 - If a firm decreases its price to signal a lower price, this might be seen as a deviation and trigger a costly price war.

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Coordination: The Difference Between Tacit and Overt Collusion

- Under overt collusion firms can talk and coordinate on their jointly preferred equilibrium without any costly experimentation.
- For instance, in case of changing market conditions, communication allows the firms to set a new collusive price without the risk of triggering a period of punishment.
- Also, market-sharing schemes (e.g. partioning of the market in certain regions of certain customer types) are advantageous whether achieved by overt collusion or historical accident.
- Indeed, adjustements to new demand or cost conditions can be made without triggering possible price wars.
- This might explain why such collusive market-sharing schemes have often been used.

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Incentive Constraint for Collusion as the Basis

- The economic analysis of collusion is usually based on the so-called incentive constraint for collusion (ICC): each firm compares the immediate gain from a deviation with the profit it gives up in the future, when rivals react.
- Only if the gain is lower than the foregone profit the firm colludes.
- Generally, collusion is more likely the lower the deviation gain, the lower the expected profits under punishment, and the more weight firms attach to the future (when deviation loss occurs).
- Factors facilitating collusion are discussed within the framework of the ICC:
 - If a given factor relaxes the ICC of the firms, then it facilitates collusion.
 - If it makes the ICC more binding, then it hinders collusion.
 - If the effect is ambiguous, then it does not have a clear impact on collusion.

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Factors Facilitating Collusion

- From a practical viewpoint it is important to identify the factors facilitating collusion, so that anti-trust authorities can intervene to eliminate them whenever possible.
- Also in some cases (especially merger analysis), it has to be evaluated whether a particular industry is prone to a collusive outcome or not.

The following factors are now discussed with the ICC in turn:

- 1. Concentration
- Entry
- 3. links among competitors
- 4. Regularity and Frequency of Orders
- 5. Buyer Power
- 6. Price Elasticity of Demand
- 7. Evolution of Demand
- 8. Product Homogeneity
- 9. Symmetry
- 10. Multi-Market Contacts
- 11. Inventories and Excess Capacities
- 12. Price and Quantity Observability
- 13. Coordination and Communication
- 14. Most-Favoured-Nation Clause
- 15. Meeting-Competition Clause
- 16. Resale Price Maintenance

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1. Concentration

- Collusion tends to be more likely, the fewer firms in the industry.
- Suppose that there are many firms of identical size and of large capacity in the same industry.
- In a collusive situation, each sets a high price and gets a rather small share of the total profits.
- However, a deviating firm setting a lower price than his rivals might get all the market for itself.
- Even with a harsh punishment (i.e. tiny stream of expected post-deviation profits), the gains can be so large in the deviation period outweighing the foregone future collusive profits.

1. Concentration

For example, suppose that there are only two firms.

- At a collusive equilibrium each would get half the market.
- Thus, the deviation gains are smaller relative to the lower profits due to the punishment which follows.
- Besides, concentration helps firms' coordination on a collusive outcome, not only its enforcement: the fewer firms in the industry, the easier for them to coordinate their behaviour.

2. Entry

- The easier entry into an industry ("the lower entry barriers"), the more difficult to sustain collusion.
- High prices and profits attract new firms into an industry, and this tends to disrupt the collusive outcome: two mechanisms.
- Firstly, the entrant may not want to pursue a collusive strategy and acts aggressively: the incumbents have to decrease prices to keep customers thereby breaking the collusive equilibrium.
- Anticipating this forces incumbents to keep prices low.
- Secondly, the entrant and the incumbents accommodate with the entrant taking part in the (overt or tacit) collusion.
- As the more firms the less likely that collusion can be sustained (concentration), entry might break the collusive outcome.

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3. Links Among Competitors

- If a firm has a participation in a competitor (even without controlling it), the scope for collusion is enhanced.
- With a representative of a firm on the board of a rival firm, coordination of pricing and marketing policies is easier.
- Even without board representation (e.g. only shareholder), the incentives to compete in the marketplace might be reduced. (rival's profits affect the firm's own financial performance)
- Overall, it would therefore seem sensible not to allow a firm to have minority (a fortiori controlling) shareholding in a competitor.

4. Regularity and Frequency of Orders

Regular orders facilitate collusion.

- Indeed, an unusually large order would give a strong temptation to deviate: unusually large profits vs. losing future collusive profits under typically small expected demand.
- High frequency of orders also helps collusion, as it allows for a timely punishment.
- Indeed, if orders arrive only with large time intervals, the temptation to deviate is higher, because the punishment will be started only much later, and will be discounted accordingly.

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5. Buyer Power

- A strong buyer can use its bargaining power to stimulate competition among sellers. (e.g. threatening to redirect orders to others or potential entrants or to start own upstream production)
- By concentrating orders a powerful buyer can break collusion.
- By grouping orders into large and less frequent ones, a strong (large) buyer can induce suppliers to deviate from the collusive strategy. (regularity and frequency of orders)
- Also, a strong buyer might design procurement auctions so as to minimize the risk of collusive behaviour among suppliers.

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6. Price Elasticity of Demand

The effect of the price elasticity on collusion is ambiguous.

- If demand is very elastic, then price cuts imply a large increase in demand – both for the deviation and punishment periods.
- Thus, the price elasticty generally affects both sided of the ICC and its net effect on the sustainability of collusion is ambiguous.
- However, elasticity affects the level of the maximum collusive price ("the lower the elasticity the higher the monopoly price").
- Hence, there is less reason to worry about possible collusion if the price elasticity is high.

7. Evolution of Demand

- Demand stability may help sustain collusion, as it increases the degree of observability in the market.
- In an unstable market with frequent demand shocks or large uncertainty it might be harder to decipher whether poor sales are due to demand variability or to price undercutting by rivals.
- Accordingly, collusion might be more difficult to sustain.
- By contrast, in a stable market it would be easier to spot deviations and punish them, rendering collusion easier.

8. Product Homogeneity

- Practitioners, authorities and judges often maintain that collusion is easier with homogenous than differentiated products.
- Economic theory is less clear-cut and more ambiguous here.
- With differentiated products it is harder to punish a deviant firm, since even strong rival price cuts would leave it with a positive demand.
- This effect tends to discourage collusion, as only the fear of punishment keeps firms from deviating.
- Yet, for precisely the same reasons a deviation is also less profitable: a deviator cannot expect large market shares from rivals even with substantial price cuts.
- This effect tends to **facilitate collusion**.

9. Symmetry

- Symmetry can concern different dimensions (e.g. market shares, costs, technological knowledge, product varieties)
- There are many informal arguments for the idea that symmetry helps collusion: e.g. it is intuitive that agents in a similar position would find it easier to arrive at an agreement suiting them all.
- Generally, a more equal distribution of assets relaxes the ICC of both the small and the large firm and would help collusion.
- For instance, a high-capacity firm has a higher incentive to deviate and the smaller firms have difficulties to punish due to their capacity constraints.

10. Multi-Market Contacts

- Multi-market contacts mean that the same firms meet in more than one market: the effect on collusion is ambiguous.
- Some argue that when firms co-exist in several markets, then it is more costly for them to deviate from a collusive outcome, since punishment would obtain in all the markets.
- Yet, if a firm is active in many markets, it can also deviate in all of them at the same time, which increases its incentive to deviate.

11. Inventories and Excess Capacaties

- The effect of large inventories and excess capacities on collusion is ambiguous.
- Suppose that all firms in an industry are endowed with excess capacity / inventories relative to expected demand.
- On the one hand large excess capacity / inventories imply that there is a stronger incentive to deviate. ("a price reduction would helpf fill capacity / reduce inventories")
- On the other hand if rivals are also endowed with large excess capacities / inventories, the punishment may be stronger.
- Thus both sides of the ICC are affected in a similar way, rendering the final effect on collusion ambiguous.

12. Price and Quantity Observability

- Being able to detect deviations is important for collusion.
- Stigler (1964): collusion breaks down due to secret price cuts.
- Green and Porter (1984): if actual prices (or price discounts) are not observable, then collusion is more difficult to sustain.
- Intuitively, in the case of unobservability of rival prices and market demand, a firm does not know if fewer customers are due to a negative demand shock or to a rival price cut.
- Thus, observability of prices and quantities helps firms to collude: it allows to identify deviations and target punishment.
- Competition policy should pay special attention to practices that help firms monitor each other's behaviour. (e.g. information exchange agreements on prices, quantities, capacities, costs)

13. Coordination and Communication

- When firms repeatedly meet in the marketplace, the discount factor is large enough, any price between marginal cost and the fully collusive price might be sustained. ("Folk-Theorem")
- This raises the issue of which price is likely as the outcome.
- Habit (e.g. "status quo"), history, or particular events might provide firms with a focal point on which to coordinate.
- Example: a regulator fixes a certain price cap for an industry.
- Announcement of future prices or production plans might help collusion: firms may better coordinate on a particular equilibrium.
- Whereas private announcements should be forbidden ("Pure coordination purpose to avoid price instability or wars"), public announcements also exhibit welfare-enhancing effects. ("transparency for consumers stronger than collusive effects")

14. Most-Favoured-Nation Clause

- A most-favoured-nation clause (MFN) engages a seller to apply to a buyer the same conditions he offers to other buyers.
- The effect of MFN clauses on collusion is ambiguous.
- This clause makes it harder to deviate from a collusive outcome ("smaller additional profit as price reductions also for existing customers").
- Yet punishments are also more costly ("no selective punishment possible only targeted to rival customers").

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15. Meeting-Competition Clause

- A meeting-competition clause (MC) states that if the buyer receives a better price from another seller, the price is matched.
- MC clauses are facilitating collusion.
- This clause makes firms immediately aware of deviations ("timely detection").
- Also, they reduce the incentive to deviate ("price decreases can only attract new buyers, but not steal existing buyers from rivals due to MC").

16. Resale Price Maintenance

- Resale Price maintenance (RPM) is a vertical agreement whereby a manufacturer imoses upon its retailer(s) the price at which the good should be sold in the final market.
- RPM might facilitate collusion among manufacturers.
- With fluctuating retail prices (e.g. due to changing costs of retailing) and not easily observable wholesale prices by each cartel member, cartel stability would suffer.
- Members would have difficulties distinguishing changes in retail prices caused by cost changes from cheating on the cartel.
- RPM can enhance cartel stability here by eliminating the retail price variation.



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The Shadow of the Future

- Note that in a finitely (or certain horizon) repeated game, the collusive outcome can never obtain at equilibrium.
- In the last stage all firms would deviate as if playing a one-shot game: by backward induction deviation obtains at every stage.
- Hence, consider *n* firms playing an infinitely repeated game (or a finitely repeated game with uncertain ending).
- Let π_i^{col} and V_i^{col} denote current profits and present discounted profits of firm *i*, if all firms (always) choose the collusive action.
- Let π_i^{dev} denote current profits of firm *i*, if *i* deviates and the others collude.
- Let V_i^{pun} denote present discounted profits of firm *i*, if *i*'s opponents always choose the punishment action. ("punishment phase")

Discount Factor and Interest Rate

- Denote with $\delta \in [0; 1]$ the discount factor assumed identical for all firms in the industry.
- Recall that the discount factor can be expressed as $\delta = \frac{1}{1+r}$, where *r* is the interest rate between two periods of time. (*"The value in today's terms of* €1 *received in the next period"*)
- Note that δ → 0 corresponds to the case where r → ∞: €1 earned in the future is not worth anything in today's terms. ("people are infinitely impatient / no value attached to the future")
- δ → 1 corresponds to the case where r → 0: €1 earned in any future period has the same value as €1 earned today. ("people are infinitely patient / equal value to future as present")

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Incentive Constraint for Collusion

- Collusion can arise only if each firm prefers to play the collusive action than to deviate from it (and be punished).
- Hence, for each firm for i = 1, 2, ..., n it must hold that: $\pi_i^{col} + \delta V_i^{col} \ge \pi_i^{dev} + \delta V_i^{pun}$ (ICC)
- The lower the deviation profit relative to the collusive profit, and the lower the punishment phase profit, the more likely that collusion is sustained.
- The ICC can also be written as

$$\pi_i^{dev} - \pi_i^{col} \le \delta(V_i^{pun} - V_i^{col})$$

for every firm i = 1, 2, ..., n. ("The gains from deviating today must be lower than the losses from deviating from tomorrow onwards!")

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A Large Enough Discount Factor Makes It Possible For Collusion To Arise

The ICC can also be expressed as

$$\delta \geq \overline{\delta}$$
 where $\overline{\delta} = rac{\pi_i^{dev} - \pi_i^{col}}{V_i^{pun} - V_i^{col}}$

for every firm $i = 1, 2, \ldots, n$.

- Thus, collusion arises at equilibrium only if the discount factor is large enough, i.e. larger than some criticial discount factor $\overline{\delta}$.
- Only if firms are patient enough will the collusive agreement be sustained.
- Intuitively, if the discount factor is very low, firms give little importance to what happens in the future and prefer to cheat so as to reap all the benefit they can today: collusion will not arise.
- Note that the ICC holds for both tacit as well as overt collusion.

- Consider an infinite Bertrand game with *n* identical firms producing the same homogenous good at the same unit cost *c*.
- In each period *t* of the game, firms simultaneously set prices.
- All firms share the same discount factor δ .
- Note that an equivalent analysis applies to a game where the market exists in the following period with a probability $\varphi \in [0, 1]$ with $\delta = d\varphi$ and *d* being the same discount factor of all firms.
- There are no capacity constraints and each firm maximizes its present discounted value of profit.

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- The demand for firm *i* is specified as follows:
 - If all firms charge the same price *p*, then they share demand equally, so that $D_i = \frac{D(p)}{n}$ as well as the corresponding profit, i.e. $\pi_i = \frac{\pi(p)}{n}$, where $\pi(p)$ denotes the aggregate profit with all firms charging *p*.
 - If firm *i* sets a price $p_i < p_j$ for every $j \neq i$, then it obtains the whole market, i.e. $D_i = D(p_i)$ with profits $\pi_i = \pi(p_i)$.
 - If there eists a firm $k \neq i$ such that $p_i > p_k$, then firm *i* obtains zero demand, i.e. $D_i = 0$ with profits $\pi_i = 0$.
- Consider the following trigger strategies for firm *i*:
 - At the initial period t = 0 set the collusive price $p_i = p_{col}$, which is the price that maximizes joint profits.
 - At period *t* set the price $p_i = p_{col}$ if all firms have set p_{col} in every preceeding period, otherwise set $p_i = c$ forever.

Suppose that all firms use the trigger strategies.

- Intuitively, each firm behaves in a collusive way as long as all other do, but if one deviates, the punishment is triggered and all revert to the one-shot Bertrand equilibrium strategy forever.
- Note that this is the harshest punishment: after a deviation all firms earn zero profits forever.
- No credible punishment can be harsher and thus with homogenous goods and price decisions – no other strategies can improve the chances of collusion.

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Collusion arises at equilibrium if no firm has an incentive to deviate from the trigger strategies ("ICC"):

$$\frac{\pi(p_{col})}{n}(1+\delta+\delta^2+\delta^3+\cdots) \ge \pi(p_{col})$$

needs to hold for all firms in the industry.

- The LHS gives the total payoff a firm receives if it colludes and all others too: in every period the firm gets $\frac{1}{n}$ -th of aggregate profit, where profits at time *t* are discounted by a factor δ^t .
- The RHS gives the total payoff under the optimal deviation.
- If a firm cheats while all others collude, the best payoff obtains by slightly undercutting: with $p_{col} \epsilon$ all consumers buy from the deviator with its profits being $\pi(p_{col} \epsilon)$ in the deviating period.
- In all further periods punishment yields zero profit to the deviator.

• As
$$\sum_{t=0}^{\infty} \delta^t = \frac{1}{1-\delta}$$
, the ICC simplifies to

$$\delta \ge 1 - \frac{1}{n} = \frac{n-1}{n}$$

- For n = 2 the standard duopoly case ensues: collusion is sustainable as long as δ ≥ 1/2.
- For $n \to \infty$ collusion is impossible, as a discount factor $\delta > 1$ would directly contradict $\delta \in [0, 1]$.

Analyzing Facilitating Factors: Concentration

- From the ICC as $\delta \ge 1 \frac{1}{n}$ it follows that the larger the number of firms *n* the tighter the ICC, i.e. the less likely that collusion will be sustained at equilibrium.
- Equivalently, an increase in concentration with ¹/_n being an inverse index of concentration makes collusion more likely.
- Note that asymmetries that increase concentration measures could actually hinder collusion and thus perturb the above argument based on concentration.

Analyzing Facilitating Factors: Irregular Orders

- Suppose that at t = 0 market demand and aggregate profit are kD(p) and $k\pi(p)$, respectively, with k > 1.
- In the following periods t = 1, 2, ... market demand and aggregate profit are back to the usual levels D(p) and π(p).
- Note that this is equivalent to saying that there is an unusually large order in one period (in fact in the initial period).
- The ICC becomes:

$$\frac{\pi(p_{col})}{n}(k+\delta+\delta^2+\delta^3+\ldots) \ge k\pi(p_{col})$$

which is equivalent to $\delta \geq \frac{(n-1)k}{1+(n-1)k}$.

The ICC is more binding as k is larger, since k increase the RHS more than the LHS. (In the limit case of $k \to \infty$ there would be no value of δ that can satisfy the condition for collusion.)

Analyzing Facilitating Factors: Price Elasticity

Note that the price elasticity of demand enters the ICC only through the expression of profits

$$\pi(p) = (p - c)D(p)$$

and these cancel out.

Therefore, the price elasticity of demand does not seem to have any obvious impact on the likelihood of collusion.

Analyzing Facilitating Factors: Demand Evolution

- At time t = 0 demand and profit are given by D(p) resp. $\pi(p)$, and at time t > 0 they are given by $\theta^t D(p)$ resp. $\theta^t \pi(p)$ with $\theta > 0$.
- The ICC then reads as follows:

$$\frac{\pi(p_{col})}{n}(1+\delta\theta+\delta^2\theta^2+\delta^3\theta^3+\ldots)\geq \pi(p_{col})$$

or equivalently $\delta \geq \frac{1}{\theta}(1 - \frac{1}{n})$.

- Demand growth (θ > 1): as the ICC is relaxed, collusion becomes easier ("the expected rise in future demand increases the future cost of a deviation").
- Demand decline (θ < 1): as the ICC is tightened, collusion is less likely ("the temptation to deviate is stronger because the future cost of deviating – the punishment – is lower").
- Thus, collusion is more likely to break when demand is falling.

Analyzing Facilitating Factors: Symmetry

- Consider a market A where two firms 1 and 2 operate with market shares λ and 1 − λ, respectively.
- Assume that $\lambda > \frac{1}{2}$, i.e. that firm 1 is large and 2 is small.
- The firms have the same technology (no fixed cost but constant marginal cost c) and the same discount factor δ.
- The ICC for firm $i \in \{1, 2\}$ is given by

$$s_i \cdot (p_{col} - c) \cdot q(p_{col}) \cdot \frac{1}{1 - \delta} \ge (p_{col} - c) \cdot q(p_{col})$$

where s_i denotes the market share of firm *i*.

• Hence, $\frac{\lambda}{1-\delta} \ge 1$ obtains for firm 1 and $\frac{1-\lambda}{1-\delta} \ge 1$ obtains for firm 2.

Analyzing Facilitating Factors: Symmetry

- The conditions simplify to $\delta \ge 1 \lambda$ for the large firm 1 and $\delta \ge \lambda$ for the small firm 2.
- The binding constraint for collusion in market A thus is $\delta \ge \lambda > \frac{1}{2}$.
- Under collusion the large firm gets a larger share, while by deviating each firm obtains (for one period) all the market.
- Intuitively, the incentive to deviate is higher for the small firm, which can capture a higher additional share by price cuts.
- Collusion is limited by the extent to which the market shares are asymmetric: the higher the asymmetry the more stringent the ICC of the smallest firm.
- In the symmetric case, where firms have the same market share, the standard condition for collusion applies: $\delta \geq \frac{1}{2}$.

Analyzing Facilitating Factors: Multi-Market Contacts

- Suppose that firms are active in two markets *A* and *B*.
- Firm 1 has a market share λ (resp. 1λ) in market *A* (resp. *B*), and firm 2 has a market share 1λ (resp. λ) in market *A* (resp. *B*), where $\lambda > \frac{1}{2}$.
- The ICC for firm $i \in \{1, 2\}$ in market $j \in \{A, B\}$ in isolation:

$$s_i^j \cdot (p_{col} - c) \cdot q(p_{col}) \cdot \frac{1}{1 - \delta} \ge (p_{col} - c) \cdot q(p_{col})$$

where s_i^j denotes the market share of firm *i* in market *j*.

Note that firm 2's ICC, i.e. δ ≥ λ, is the binding constraint in market 1, while firm 1's ICC, i.e. δ ≥ λ, is binding in market 2.

Collusion will thus arise in each market if $\delta \ge \lambda$, where $\lambda > \frac{1}{2}$.

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Analyzing Facilitating Factors: Multi-Market Contacts

- However, each firm sells in two market and will hence take into account both markets when making its decisions.
- Accordingly, the ICC for firm $i \in \{1, 2\}$ reads as follows

$$s_i^A \cdot (p_{col} - c) \cdot q(p_{col}) \cdot \frac{1}{1 - \delta} + s_i^B \cdot (p_{col} - c) \cdot q(p_{col}) \cdot \frac{1}{1 - \delta} \ge 2 \cdot (p_{col} - c) \cdot q(p_{col})$$

- The incentive constraints for both firms simplify to $\delta \geq \frac{1}{2}$.
- Therefore, multi-market contacts help collusion, since the critical discount factor is lower.
- Generally, under multi-market contacts firms pool their incentive constraints and can use slackness of the constraint in one market to enforce more collusion in the other.
- Intuitively, multi-market contacts restore symmetry in markets which are asymmetric (and where market shares are inverse).

Multiplicity of Equilibria

- One problem with infinite horizon repeated games is that they admit a continuum of equilibria.
- In fact, equilibria can be formed with the trigger strategies for any price $p \in [c; p_m]$, where p_m denotes the monopoly price.
- The corresponding ICC reads as follows

$$\frac{\pi(p)}{n}(1+\delta+\delta^2+\delta^3+\cdots) \ge \pi(p)$$

which amounts to $\delta \ge 1 - \frac{1}{n}$.

- Therefore, the same value of the discount factor allows for a continuum of equilibria: any price between the Bertrand price and the monopoly price can be sustained in equilibrium.
- This result is not satisfactory, since a number of outcomes are possible and a priori it cannot be said which ones are more likely.



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- A collusive outcome obtains when prices are "high enough".
- One could then think that to verify the existence of collusion in the legal sense, one has to analyze price data in a given industry and infer whether they are above some threshold levels.
- Yet, it would be difficult in practice to look at market outcomes to decide whether there has been an infringement of anti-trust law.
- Firstly, often price data might simply be not available, and if they are they usually refer to list prices rather than effective prices.
- Secondly, even if price data were to exists, there would probably be disagreement about the monopoly price.
- Thirdly, even with agreement on the monopoly price, how close should prices be to be judged "too high" and thus collusive?
- Fourthly, the very principle to convict firms on the grounds of "too high prices" is dangerous, as also penalizing successful firms.

- Rather than looking at the level of prices, one might then be tempted to analyze the evolution of prices over time.
- For instance, courts have sometimes charged for collusion when firms have charged similar prices over time. (price parallelism)
- But common exogenous shocks could also be inducing firms to proportional price increases without them colluding.
- Besides, a collusive outcome might arise without firms agreeing or communicating to coordinate their behaviour.
- If a seller increases prices by 10 % and the next day a rival follows: is this price parallelism enough evidence for conviction?
- Maybe they have taken their decisions without communication: the first firm might have expected the rival to follow and the rival might have expected to trigger a price war if not rising his prices.
- In the absence of hard evidence a court would have to argue by second-guessing the firms' intentions and motivations.

- Parallelism-plus rule: illegal behaviour whenever price parallelism is accompanied by a facilitating factor (e.g. RPM).
- However, this rule does not seem more convincing unless it can be proven that firms have coordinated in order to introduce or keep the facilitating practice at stake.
- The very fact that firms have followed a particular practice should not be proof of collusion.

- The presence of price war periods is also no proof of collusion.
- Under imperfect price observability and demand uncertainty full collusion cannot be sustained and price wars are an integral part of collusion.
- However, episodes in an industry with falling prices might be consistent with other events (e.g. new capacities appearing in the market; occasional competitors; demand reduction, etc.).
- Repeated episodes of this type would raise suspicion and deserve a careful scrutiny of the industry, but they should not be seen as the ultimate proof that collusion exists.
- Besides, even if good and reliable data existed, econometric techniques might not always provide unambiguous answers.
- Thus, econometrics is more likely to give complementary evidence rather than conclusive proof of collusion.

- For all these reasons, inferring illegal collusive behaviour from market data (i.e. only outcomes) is not desirable.
- A legal approach that requests some hard evidence as proof of collusion is sensible practice.
- Firms should be convicted for anti-competitive behaviour only insofar as there is proof that they have communicated with each other to sustain collusion.
- This approach has the advantage that it is based on observable elements verifiable in court.
- If there is any evidence on communication or coordination (on prices, quantities, or facilitating practices) among the firms, they should be fined, otherwise not.

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- Accordingly, tacit collusion might be sustained by firms.
- However, there are good reasons why firms would like to communicate and/or coordinate their actions.
- They might want to avoid unnecessary and costly experiments with the market and choose instead the best prices, create facilitating practices, improve observability, to favour collusion.
- This induces firms to try to communicate so as to coordinate their actions, thereby leaving traces of hard evidence behind.
- Any other rule (e.g. inference from market data) which is not based on observables could not be easily enforced in courts.
- It would also be detrimental to legal certainty, as firms would not know whether their pricing policies might be accepted or fined.
- At the same time competition authorities would have to decide on a case-by-case basis rather than follow a clear rule.

Ex Ante Competition Policies against Collusion

- Collusive agreements are possibly the most serious infringement of competition law in any jurisdictions and are heavily penalized.
- Firstly, firms will generally pay a fine (which usually is a transfer to the country's general budget).
- Secondly, firms might have to pay damages to private parties.
- Thirdly, managers might be given prison sentences (USA).
- Yet, what matters for deterrence purposes is not the size of the fine if found guilty of collusion, but the expected fine, i.e. the fine times the probability of being caught and found guility.
- This raises the issue (so far little studied) of how anti-trust authorities should design their policies and organize their investigations so as to efficiently deter collusion.

Policy Practice

Ex Ante Competition Policies against Collusion: Black List of Facilitating Practices

- Since collusion is facilitated by certain practices, authorities should identify business practices that should be forbidden and others which might be tolerated apart from specific cases.
- Some practices should therefore be on a black list and per se prohibited, and others should be under a rule of reason.
- Firms might ask for an individual exemption provided that they prove to achieve efficiency gains.

Ex Ante Competition Policies against Collusion: Auction Design to avoid Bid-Rigging

- One problem in auctions is that firms might use their bids to signal their collusive intentions.
- Auctions should thus be designed to minimize such problems.
- It is better to try to create an environment that discourages collusion in the first place than trying to prove unlawful behaviour afterwards.
- In the case of auction markets the environment can be affected directly, since the rules of the game are specified at the beginning by the auctioneer.
- In simultaneous ascending auctions signalling can be avoided:
 - Authorising round number and/or anonymous bidding only.
 - Objects can be aggregated into larger lots so as to make it harder for players to divide them.
 - Final round with sealed bid offers among the two remaining players.

Ex Ante Competition Policies against Collusion: Merger Control

- A reduction in the number of firms in the industry or a more symmetric distribution of their assets favours collusion.
- Hence, by increasing concentration, and to the extent that they increase symmetry, mergers might create favourable conditions for collusion to be sustained in a given industry.
- It is crucial, therefore, that competition authorities are vigilant on mergers.

Ex Post Competition Policies against Collusion: Dawn Raids

- Next to ex ante measures aimed at preventing collusion, authorities should also intervene to try to break existing cartels.
- One measure to discover "hard evidence" are surprise inspections, so-called "dawn raids".
- Hence, competition authorities should be given extensive search powers so that they can, in collaboration with police forces, seize documents which might help prove collusive agreements.

Ex Post Competition Policies against Collusion: Leniency Programmes

- Competition authorities might also resort to more clever ways to break collusion, and provide incentives for firms to withdraw from collusive agreements and reveal hard information.
- In recent years, competition authorities have devoted a lot of attention to more sophisticated fine schemes.
- Such schemes (leniency programmes) grant total or partial immunity from fines to firms collaborating with the authorities.
- The idea is that people who break the law may actually report their crimes or illegal activities if given proper incentives.

Ex Post Competition Policies against Collusion: Leniency Programmes in the USA

- Automatic leniency is granted for firms that report evidence of a cartel before an investigation has begun provided that:
 - The firm is the first to come forward.
 - The firm terminates participation in the illegal activity.
 - The firm fully and continuously collaborates with the DOJ.
 - The firm makes restitution to the injured parties.
 - The firm did not coerce another party in the activity nor was it its leader or originator.
- Discretionary leniency exists for firms that report evidence after an investigation has begun provided that the DOJ does not yet have evidence against the firm for a likely sustainable conviction.
- Cooperating managers are protected from criminal prosecution.