# MARKET DEFINITION, MARKET POWER, AND COMPETITIVE EFFECTS

#### Antitrust Boot Camp

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### WHAT IS THE ECONOMIC PURPOSE OF ANTITRUST LAWS?

#### • Two Schools of Thought:

- "Consumer welfare standard" does the challenged conduct increase or decrease the aggregate benefits to consumers of the product or service?
- **"Total welfare standard"** does the challenged conduct increase or decrease the aggregate benefits to the combined benefits obtained by both consumers and producers of the product or service?
  - Focus on overall economic efficiency.
  - If a practice harms consumers but profits increase by more than consumers are harmed, the practice should be permitted.
- In general, the consumer welfare standard seems to prevail.
  - But many defenses are offered for conduct that has anticompetitive effects; sometimes these involve benefits to sellers..
- Primary economic question: did/does/will the conduct benefit or harm consumers?
  - Or, the public at large ("society").

# TOPICS

- 1. Market definition and market power: an overview
- 2. The "Hypothetical Monopolist Test"
- 3. Mergers vs. Non-Merger Contexts
- 4. Anticompetitive effects

### MARKET DEFINITION

- Courts expect or require plaintiff to define "relevant market" in "rule of reason" antitrust cases.
  - Not necessary in "per se" cases such as price fixing, bid rigging, market allocation.
    - Why per se? Benefits from conduct are considered so rare or unlikely as to not warrant deeper investigation.
  - But not uncommon in follow-on civil litigation for damages relating to overcharges.
  - Market definition has a product dimension and a geographic dimension.
- Economists sometimes find a requirement to define a market... annoying.
  - Market definition may involve reducing complex economic relationships to a simplistic label.

 $\rightarrow$  Defining markets often eliminates rather than adds economic information and insights.

- Defining markets is typically less useful (to economists) in non-merger contexts.
- Why define a market?
  - → Part of an indirect analysis of the extent of a defendant's actual or potential *market power*.

### MARKET POWER OR MONOPOLY POWER?

- Supreme Court:
  - Market power: "the ability to raise prices above those that would be charged in a competitive market."
  - Monopoly power: "the power to control prices or exclude competition."
- DOJ:
  - "Precisely where market power becomes so great as to constitute what the law deems to be monopoly power is largely a matter of degree rather than one of kind. Clearly, however, monopoly power requires, at a minimum, a substantial degree of market power."
  - "[P]ower in question is generally required to be much more than merely fleeting; that is, it must also be durable."

https://www.justice.gov/atr/competition-and-monopoly-single-firm-conduct-under-section-2-sherman-act

- I will treat them as synonymous, and the distinction arbitrary.
  - Economists might also be vague or arbitrary, focus on "significant" market power.

### WHY DO WE CARE ABOUT MARKET POWER?

#### • Market power is an indicator of a defendant's *economic ability* to harm the public.

• Or, in cases involving collective action, possibly defendants' *joint ability* to cause harm.

#### What constitutes economic harm?

- Higher prices.
- Reduced output.
- (Or, e.g., reduced quality, innovation.)
- Higher prices and reduced output typically are closely linked:
  - Law of Demand: all else equal, consumers buy less when price is higher.
  - OPEC reduces output to increase oil prices.
  - Relevant "consumer" in antitrust cases can be businesses, including intermediaries that resell.
  - Sometimes anticompetitive conduct by *buyers* harms *sellers* (e.g., bid-rigging at auctions).
    - Antitrust typically treats anticompetitive conduct by buyers symmetrically with that of sellers.
    - But there are differences of opinion concerning whether exercise of "buyer power" is desirable (e.g., WalMart).

### NOT ALL MARKET POWER IS CONSIDERED UNDESIRABLE

#### Distinction between market power achieved through procompetitive vs. anticompetitive means.

- Anticompetitive, e.g.:
  - Mergers that significantly reduce competition.
  - Cartel conduct.
  - Exclusionary conduct.
- Procompetitive, e.g.:
  - Efficiencies, cost reductions, superior products, innovation.
- Sometimes challenged conduct has both anticompetitive and procompetitive effects.
  - Under rule of reason these are balanced, but often one or the other is considered *de minimis*.
- The quest for monopoly profits can drive innovation that benefits the public.
  - We protect monopoly profits under intellectual property laws for this reason.
    - But IP rights are limited many antitrust actions flow from claims that IP rights were wrongly asserted.
  - Generally it is a bad idea to sanction firms merely because they were successful.
    - There can be exceptions that justify regulation or market redesign.

#### DIRECT EVIDENCE OF MARKET POWER

- High profits.
- High prices relative to costs ("price-cost margins").
- Low demand elasticity *facing the defendant(s)*.
  - A highly competitive market (high firm elasticity of demand) may have very low market demand elasticity.
  - Example: bottled water on summer day in Las Vegas. →
- Collusion can be tempting if market demand elasticity is low.
  - And more likely if sellers can communicate and coordinate effectively.
- Determining what constitutes "high" profits, prices is difficult.
- A solution sometimes is to examine *changes* or *differences* in prices and profits.
  - Before-during-after some alleged anticompetitive conduct.
  - Between products or locations affected and not affected by the conduct.



#### **INDIRECT EVIDENCE OF MARKET POWER**

#### • Long tradition in antitrust.

- "Structure-Conduct-Performance Paradigm" (originally described by economists in 1933).
- Hypothesis:
  - Firms with high **market shares** will be more likely to exercise market power.
  - Firms in highly **concentrated markets** will be more likely to exercise market power.
- This requires determination of **market shares**  $\rightarrow$  which requires definition of the **relevant market**.
- Indirect, structural evidence of market power involves analysis of, e.g.:
  - Market share(s) of defendant(s).
  - Market concentration. (Modern measure: the HHI.)
  - Supply-side substitution and "barriers to entry."
  - Perhaps characteristics of customers and nature of marketplace and transactions.

### MECHANICS OF THE HERFINDAHL-HIRSCHMAN INDEX (HHI)

- Sum of the squared market shares of each supplier.
- Example:
  - Firm 1 market share = 40%; squared share = 1600
  - Firm 2 market share = 30%; squared share = 900
  - Firm 3 market share = 20%; squared share = 400
  - Firm 4 market share = 10%; squared share = 100
  - → Sum of shares = 100%; sum of squared shares = 3000
- Monopolist (100% share) → HHI = 10,000; 10 equal firms: HHI=10 x 100 = 1000
- DOJ/FTC Merger Guidelines:
  - HHI below 1500: "Unconcentrated"
  - HHI between 1500 and 2500: "Moderately Concentrated"
  - HHI above 2500: "Highly Concentrated"
- "Not a rigid screen... although high levels of concentration do raise concerns."

https://www.justice.gov/atr/file/810276/download

### HYPOTHETICAL MONOPOLIST TEST (I)

- Used to define relevant markets.
  - Designed to aid antitrust analysis of *proposed mergers*.
  - But often used in other contexts.
- Important difference between mergers and other antitrust cases:
  - Merger analysis is predictive: will the public be harmed in the future if we let these firms merge?
  - Other cases:
    - Did/does the defendant(s) past/present conduct harm the public?
    - Does the defendant possess market power now?
  - We'll come back to this distinction.

### HYPOTHETICAL MONOPOLIST TEST (II)

#### • Start with smallest set of products that include those at issue.

- I.e., in merger cases, the firms' narrow overlapping products.
- Example: KKR's acquisition of RJR Nabisco had several overlaps, e.g.:
  - Del Monte and Hunts tomato products.
  - Chung King and La Choy prepared Asian food products.
  - Planters and Fisher nuts →
- If relevant market is "roasted nuts" shares and HHI are high; if market is "salty snacks" shares and HHI are much lower.
- Under hypothetical monopolist test (HMT) we start tentatively with a market for nuts.
  - (In theory it is possible for there to be even narrower markets, e.g., peanuts, cashews, mixed nuts, etc.)





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### HYPOTHETICAL MONOPOLIST TEST (III)

- Would a hypothetical monopolist of the narrow market be able to profitably sustain a "small but significant, nontransitory increase in price" (SSNIP)?
  - If so, the narrow proposed market is in fact a relevant market.
  - If not, this means:
    - Consumer substitution to other products would defeat a price increase.
    - "Nearest" competing products are added to the proposed market. →
    - Analysis is repeated.
  - Process continues until hypothetical monopolist over the set of products can profitably increase prices.
    - That is, until the hypothetical monopolist can exercise market power.



### MARKETS MAY INCLUDE SUBSTITUTES IN DEMAND

- Question investigated: does the existence of a substitute constrain the pricing of the product?
  - E.g., does the ability of consumers to switch to pretzels prevent a nut monopolist from exercising market power?
- Supply factors can also be relevant: can pretzel manufacturers quickly enter with a line of nuts?
- Collections of products or the sale of collections of products can be a relevant market.
  - Supermarkets
  - Office supply superstores
  - Food service distributors
- Paper clips are not a substitute for pencils. Carrots are not a substitute for milk.
  - But sale of milk by gas stations, carrots by produce stands, likely cannot constrain supermarket monopolist from exercising market power as can competition from other supermarket chains.

# DETERMINATION WHETHER HYPOTHETICAL MONOPOLIST COULD SUCCESSFULLY IMPOSE A SSNIP

- This can be difficult and disputed.
- History in marketplace and "natural experiments" sometimes makes it clear.
  - What happened when there was entry in the past (e.g. patents expired)?
  - Hypothetical example:
    - Drugs A and B have been in use for many years and have many generic equivalents.
    - Drug C is newer but treats same condition as A and B.
    - Upon patent expiration, generic equivalents for C are introduced and price declines significantly.
    - → This suggests Drug C is a relevant market: hypothetical monopoly of C would enable restoration of high price.
- Evidence (documents, testimony, econometrics) on substitution as prices increase.

### HYPOTHETICAL MONOPOLIST TEST IN NON-MERGER CASES (I)

- Merger issue is whether control of both products will enable merged company to exercise market power (or more market power).
- In non-merger contexts defendant is alleged to already possess (and exercise) market power.
- "Cellophane fallacy" →
  - Other products were good substitutes only at monopoly price for cellophane, not at the competitive price.
  - Monopolists increase price until they lose significant sales, often as customers switch to alternatives.
  - At *competitive* price, cellophane had low price elasticity.
- HMT can sometimes be used, with caveats.

#### Cellophane







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### HYPOTHETICAL MONOPOLIST TEST IN NON-MERGER CASES (II)

- HMT can be a *conservative* test for defining the relevant market in a non-merger case.
- Example: Visa, Mastercard, Amex enforced rules that had allegedly already had anticompetitive effects.
  - Amex: **debit cards** are in market, Amex share low, no market power.
  - HMT:
    - Hypothetical merger of all credit card operations, so only one firm offers credit cards and serves merchants for credit card transactions. →
    - Debit cards still offered by many banks, processed by several networks.
    - Seems obvious that hypothetical monopolist of credit cards could profitably increase fees, reduce rewards.
    - (Probably for same reason, Amex expert avoided HMT. Amex dropped debit argument on appeal, prevailed on "two-sided market" grounds.)



#### **Debit Cards**



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### HYPOTHETICAL MONOPOLIST TEST IN NON-MERGER CASES (III)

- In many cases, the monopolist is alleged to be not hypothetical, but actual (or a cartel).
- In such circumstances economists sometimes question the importance of market definition.
  - Direct evidence of harm to competition (e.g. higher prices) means whatever the extent of the relevant market, it
    was insufficiently broad to prevent the defendant(s) from exercising market power.
  - Reminder: the reason we define market is to determine if the defendant has market power.
  - The reason we evaluate market power is to determine if the defendant *can* cause economic harm.
  - But all of this is superfluous if we can establish economic harm directly.

#### → Evidence of economic harm can be used to establish market power and market definition.

- Recall the generic drug C example (alternative to drugs A and B).
  - If we observe significant increase in price for C controlling for cost and notwithstanding continued competition from A and B, this can be evidence of e.g. collusion and the joint exercise of market power.
  - It also is evidence that the relevant market excludes A and B.

#### → Often both direct and indirect approaches are used for market power and market definition.

### COMPETITIVE EFFECTS: THE ULTIMATE QUESTION

- Firms typically are permitted to exercise their unilateral market power.
- But firms typically may not act collectively to exercise market power.
- Individual firms with unilateral market power may be prohibited from:
  - Merging with a rival supplier that significantly increases its market power.
    - Unless perhaps efficiencies from merger are substantial and are sure to result in consumer benefits.
  - Undertaking exclusionary actions
  - Undertaking conduct that has collusive-like effects.
- Economists analyze evidence to determine if conduct causes antitrust injury.
  - Also analyze potential efficiencies or procompetitive effects (potential defense).
  - Also analyze damages, likely competitive effects of proposed injunctions, etc.

- I am happy to answer questions.
- Email me at <u>alan.frankel@coherentecon.com</u>

