AE 503

MANUFACTURERS AND RETAILERS: USE OF VERTICAL RESTRAINTS

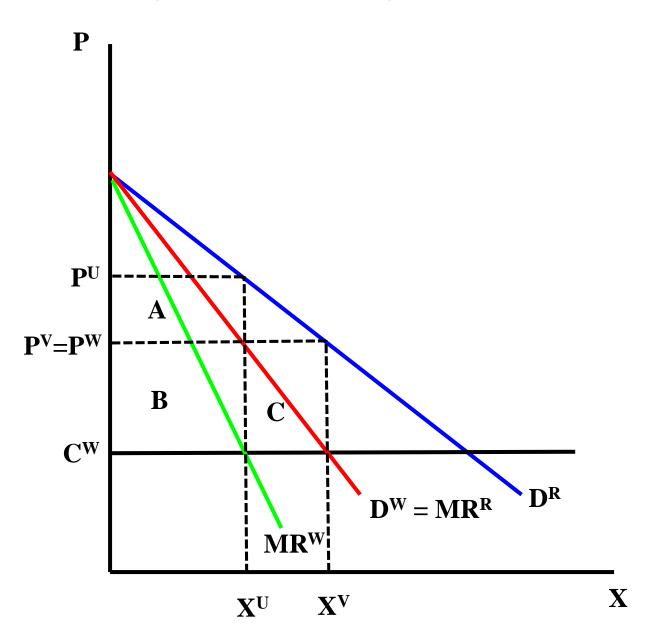
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- Manufacturers often use "vertical restraints" in dealing with retailers:
 - Resale price maintenance
 - Exclusive dealing
 - Exclusive territories
 - Full-line forcing
- Contractual provisions used to affect behavior of retailers
- Historically treated as "per se" illegal under US antitrust rules, but now presumed legal
- Argument in favor of vertical restraints: intense competition between retailers may result in inefficient service and excessive quality differentiation

Double-Marginalization

- A principal (manufacturer) seeks contract to maximize its profits, given agent (retailer) takes actions to maximize their profits given terms of contract
- Problem of overcoming "vertical externalities" between stages of marketing chain
- Best illustrated where unit of good sold at wholesale is same as unit of good sold at retail:
 - Manufacturer and retailer are *vertically integrated*, retail demand being D^R and marginal revenue MR^R (see Figure 1)
 - ➤ Profit-maximization where MR^R equals marginal *internal transfer* cost of C^W
 - Retail price P^V, output X^V, and total profits (B+C)

Figure 1: Double Marginalization



Double-Marginalization

- In non-integrated market structure, manufacturer offers contract where wholesale price is \mathbf{P}^{W}
- Follows from maximizing its profits where MR^W equals marginal wholesale costs C^W, with output of X^U, and profits (B)
- Given contract, retailer maximizes profits where MR^R equals P^W , with retail price P^U , output of X^U with retail profits (A)
- Problem of double marginalization results in prices $P^U > P^V$, output $X^U < X^V$, and profits (A+B) < (B+C)
- Vertical externality resolved through two-part tariffs or resale price maintenance (RPM)

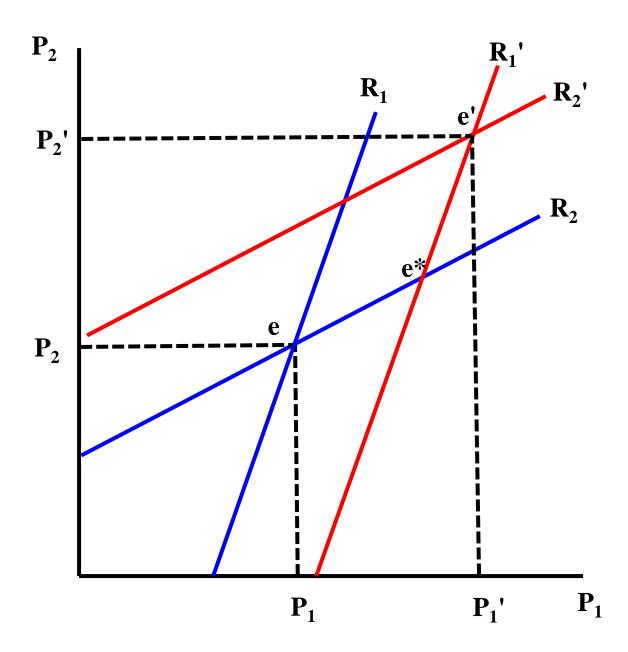
Two-Part Tariffs and RPM

- If manufacturer sets wholesale price equal to C^W, and *franchise fee* of (B+C), i.e., retailer is induced to set vertically integrated retail price P^V and output X^V
- Profits of vertical chain are maximized, consumers are better off, and retailer is residual claimant of any additional profits
- Alternatively, RPM can be used, retail price fixed at P^V and wholesale price set at P^W, i.e., retailer earns no profit, manufacturer getting (B+C)
- Both types of vertical restraint enhance economic efficiency
- Exclusive dealing could *facilitate collusion* at either one or both stages of marketing chain
- Anti-trust authorities should treat vertical restraints on case-by-case basis

Exclusive Dealing

- Suppose each manufacturer delegates single retailer to sell its product, i.e., exclusive dealing
- Manufacturers/retailers compete in price in order to maximize their respective profits, given choice of price by other manufacturer/retailer (Bertrand competition)
- Suppose each manufacturer initially sets wholesale price equal to its marginal cost, franchise fee being set to zero
- Neither retailer can raise price as they will be undercut by their competition
- Initial equilibrium, at e (Figure 2) where R_1 and R_2 are initial reaction functions for retailers (each reaction function traces out profit maximizing price of retailer, given price of other retailer)
- Setting wholesale price equal to marginal cost does not maximize vertical profits due to competitive pricing by retailers

Figure 2: Retailing Duopoly



Exclusive Dealing

- Suppose manufacturer 1 increases wholesale price above marginal cost it has exclusive dealing arrangement with retailer 1
- Increase in wholesale price for retailer 1 shifts their reaction function to R_1' equilibrium at e*, where each retailer credibly raises price
- Retailer 1's profits increase, which are appropriated by manufacturer 1 through a franchise fee
- Manufacturer 2 also raises wholesale price, retailer 2's reaction function shifting to R_2 ', new equilibrium at e', prices rising to P_1 ' and P_2 '
- Both retailers use franchise fees to appropriate higher profits in final equilibrium
- Exclusive dealing along with franchise fees reduces competition at both levels of marketing chain, making consumers worse off

Slotting Allowances

- What happens if retailers have bargaining power?
- Estimates for US suggest negative franchise fees received by supermarket chains *slotting allowances* rose from \$1 billion in 1990s to \$18 billion by 2015 (*The Economist*, 2015)
- Kroger and Safeway both use such fees, Walmart does not – although it gets other retail payments
- Slotting allowance: fee paid by food manufacturer to place its product on supermarket shelf
- What is logic of such fees?
 - > Signal new products will succeed
 - Allocate scarce shelf-space
 - Reduce inter-store competition

Slotting Allowances

- Competitive food manufacturing sector sells products to retailing duopoly differentiated by location, services etc.
- In absence of franchise fees:
 - Manufacturers cannot raise wholesale price above marginal cost
 - > Neither retailer can raise retail price
- With franchise fees, manufacturer can credibly raise wholesale price and offer negative franchise fee, i.e., slotting allowance
- Food retailer, pays higher wholesale price, recouping lost revenue through slotting allowance
- In paying higher wholesale price, competition reduced at retail, other retailer raising price
- Same result as exclusive dealing, except retailers grab profits from less competition at retail

Slotting Allowances and Anti-Trust

- Slotting allowances have proved controversial twice examined by US Federal Trade Commission (2001, 2003)
- Smaller food manufacturers complain slotting allowances put them at competitive disadvantage compared to larger firms that can afford to pay them
- Argument is they result in *vertical* foreclosure i.e., manufacturer denied access to downstream retailer
- FTC's recent review of guidelines for Robinson-Patman Act* (2015) simply required manufacturers to offer same allowance to all retailers
 - *1936 statute originally designed to prevent manufacturers using wholesale price discrimination in dealing with chain stores compared to smaller retail stores