Industrial Organisation

Lecture 8: Vertical differentiation and advertising

Tom Holden

http://io.tholden.org/

Outline

- Material left on product differentiation
 - The <u>Shaked and Sutton (1982)</u> quality-choice model.
 - Empirical work on product differentiation.
 - Market power without product differentiation.
- Why does advertising work? Three views:
 - Persuasive.
 - Informative.
 - Complementary
- More on advertising: (Unlikely to finish today)
 - Models.
 - Welfare.
 - Empirics.
- Additional reference for the advertising material: <u>Bagwell</u> (2005)

Vertical product differentiation (OZ 12.2.2)

- Under vertical differentiation, rather than producing different products, firms produce different qualities of the same product.
 - Shaked and Sutton (1982)
- Suppose there are two firms.
 - Firm 1 produces goods of quality s_1 and charges a price p_1 and firm 2 produces goods of quality s_2 and charges a price p_2 . Assume $s_1 < s_2$ (so firm 1 is low quality).
 - They both have zero marginal cost.
- ▶ There is a unit mass of consumers, indexed by $\theta \in [0,1]$.
 - ° Consumer θ gets surplus of $v + \theta s p$ from consuming a good of quality s and paying price p, where v (large) is their underlying valuation of the good.
 - Consumers with low θ are happy to buy "Tesco Value".
 - \circ Consumers with high θ are prepared to pay extra to get "Sainsbury's Taste the Difference".
 - All consumers would buy from Sainsbury's if Sainsbury's was the same price as Tesco however. (This is what makes it vertical differentiation.)

Pricing

- For given qualities, we can solve for the optimal price just as we do in horizontal differentiation models.
 - We find the indifferent consumer, who is located at θ^* . Thus $\theta^* s_1 p_1 = \theta^* s_2 p_2$, so $\theta^* = \frac{p_2 p_1}{s_2 s_1}$.
 - Thus firm 1's profits are $p_1\theta^* = \frac{p_1p_2 p_1^2}{s_2 s_1}$.
 - FOC: $0 = \frac{p_2 2p_1}{s_2 s_1}$, i.e. $p_1 = \frac{p_2}{2}$.
 - Firm 2's profits are $p_2(1-\theta^*)=p_2-\frac{p_2^2-p_1p_2}{s_2-s_1}$.
 - FOC: $0 = 1 \frac{2p_2 p_1}{s_2 s_1}$, i.e. $p_2 = \frac{p_1 + s_2 s_1}{2}$.
 - Solution: $p_1 = \frac{1}{3}(s_2 s_1)$, $p_2 = \frac{2}{3}(s_2 s_1)$.

Profits and quality choice.

$$\theta^* = \frac{p_2 - p_1}{s_2 - s_1} = \frac{\frac{2}{3}(s_2 - s_1) - \frac{1}{3}(s_2 - s_1)}{s_2 - s_1} = \frac{1}{3}.$$

- So firm 1 makes profits of $\frac{1}{9}(s_2 s_1)$ and firm 2 makes profits of $\frac{4}{9}(s_2 s_1)$.
 - Firm 2's profits are higher both because of higher demand, and because of making greater profit per unit sold.
- Both profits are increasing in the gap in qualities between the two products.
 - So if firms can freely choose quality before the sale period, then one firm will choose quality 0, and the other will choose quality 1.
 - Strategic effect is dominating the demand effect.

Empirical work on product differentiation

- There is a lot of empirical work estimating demand functions in differentiated product markets. See e.g. Carlton and Perloff p.231-233 for a summary.
 - Often take a characteristics approach, running regressions like valuation = α characteristics β price + other factors. Useful in antitrust investigations to work out consequences of e.g. a merger.
- Another line of research tries to quantify the gains from variety.
 - <u>Hausman (1997)</u> is an early example, that finds a very large value of consumer surplus from the introduction of Apple-Cinnamon Cheerios.
 - Gain in value of cereal consumption is around 25% under perfect competition, this falls to around 20% under imperfect competition, since introducing Apple-Cinnamon Cheerios means that the price of other Cheerios brands can be increased.
 - Broda and Weinstein (2010) use scanner data about every good purchased by a sample of 55000 households.
 - Conclude that true inflation is overstated by 0.9% because of the extra value consumers are getting from variety. So "...consumers are willing to pay around seven percent of their income to access the set of goods available in 2003 relative to those available in 1994."

Market power without product differentiation

- Must be careful to distinguish product differentiation from situations in which we get the results of product differentiation (market power etc.) while firms are selling identical goods.
 - Consumer search (OZ 16):
 - Suppose consumers must pay a cost to find out each firm's price. Then
 there are equilibria in which all firm's charge the monopoly price (so
 there is no point visiting more than one firm), and equilibria in which
 firms choose a price at random, above MC. (Burdett and Judd 1983) If
 some consumers have higher search costs than others then we can get
 partial sorting by search cost. (Consider e.g. tourist shops.)
 - Switching costs/habits:
 - Many switching costs to changing products (time to change bank accounts, lost airline status points, time to learn how to use new operating system/keyboard). We also become attached to products we are familiar with (=habits). Firms have an incentive to offer low prices early on and increase them later. But even these introductory prices may be higher than MC. (Klemperer 1987)

Conclusions on product differentiation

- When the firms choose location, products will be too different, relative to the social optimum.
 - At least with quadratic costs.
- Price discrimination does not necessarily increase profits when products are differentiated.
- The Salop model is one in which the business stealing effect dominates, leading to excess entry.
- Product proliferation may be used to deter entry.
- Under vertical differentiation firms want to produce as different qualities as possible, and even the low quality firm will make profits.
- Empirical work suggests the returns to variety are large, and that product differentiation is pervasive.
- But P > MC does not always mean products are differentiated.

Recap of all product differentiation exercises

- OZ Ex. 7.6
 - Question 2, 3, 4
- OZ Ex. 12.9
 - Question 1

Advertising (OZ 11)

- Do you think adverts work?
- How do you think they work?
- Why might economists be interested in advertising?

The persuasive view (OZ 11.1)

- Advertising changes people's preferences.
 - Advertising makes people less willing to substitute between the advertised good and its rivals.
 - Makes demand less elastic, meaning higher prices.
 - Also creates barriers to entry.
 - "I don't want a trainer, I want a Nike trainer."
- Suggests advertising is anti-competitive.
 - But how can we analyse welfare if preferences change?

The informative view (OZ 11.2)

- Advertising provides information about products (e.g. existence, price and quality).
 - Thus mitigates search and experimentation costs.
 - "The advert says Ariel cleans better than its competitor."
 - May also provides indirect information.
 - "If Virgin were not a respectable airline they would not be able to afford to produce adverts such as these, as no one would fly with them more than once."
 - Also helps entry, since entrants may ensure consumers know they have entered.
- Suggests advertising is pro-competitive.

The complementary view <u>Bagwell</u> (2005)

- Advertising provides a complementary good to the product it advertises.
 - Adverts for hybrid cars make a big deal out of the cars green credentials.
 - Thus if you own a hybrid car, and you care about the environment, seeing an advert for the car you bought may make you feel "smug", i.e. increase your utility.
 - Adverts for Porsches feature people who are beautiful and/or rich and/or successful.
 - Thus when you see a Porsche you are inclined to assume the driver has high social status.
 - If the driver values being considered "high status", then seeing a Porsche advert may be a complementary good to owning a Porsche for her. Once s/he's seen the Porsche advert she knows that others who have seen it will see her as high status.
- Clearly related to the persuasive view.
 - But if advertising is a complementary good, then the welfare implications may be drastically different.

Advertising under monopoly (1/4) (OZ 11.1.1)

- Temporarily abstract from questions about how advertising works, and assume that demand is some concave function of advertising, Q(P,A).
- One firm.
- Production has constant MC of c, advertising has constant MC of r.
- Following <u>Dorfman and Steiner (1954)</u>.

Advertising under monopoly (2/4)

- ▶ Profits: (P-c)Q(P,A) rA
- ► FOC P: $0 = Q(P,A) + (P-c) \frac{\partial Q(P,A)}{\partial P}$.
 - So: $0 = P + (P c) \frac{P}{Q(P,A)} \frac{\partial Q(P,A)}{\partial P}$
 - from multiplying both sides by $\frac{P}{Q(P,A)}$.
 - $\circ \frac{P}{Q(P,A)} \frac{\partial Q(P,A)}{\partial P} < 0$ is the price elasticity of demand, which we will call ϵ_P .
 - Thus $0 = P + (P c)\epsilon_P$, so $\frac{P c}{P} = -\frac{1}{\epsilon_P}$.

Advertising under monopoly (3/4)

Profits: (P-c)Q(P,A)-rA

- ▶ FOC A: $0 = (P c) \frac{\partial Q(P,A)}{\partial A} r$.
 - So: $0 = (P-c)\frac{A}{Q(P,A)}\frac{\partial Q(P,A)}{\partial A} \frac{A}{Q(P,A)}r$
 - from multiplying both sides by $\frac{A}{Q(P,A)}$.
 - $\circ \frac{A}{Q(P,A)} \frac{\partial Q(P,A)}{\partial A}$ is the advertising elasticity of demand, which we will call ϵ_A .
 - Thus $0 = (P-c)\epsilon_A \frac{A}{Q(P,A)}r$, so $\frac{P-c}{P} = \frac{1}{\epsilon_A}\frac{rA}{PQ}$.

Advertising under monopoly (4/4)

- Equating the two conditions for $\frac{P-c}{P}$ gives: $\frac{1}{\epsilon_A}\frac{rA}{PQ}=-\frac{1}{\epsilon_P}$, i.e. $\frac{rA}{PQ}=\frac{\epsilon_A}{|\epsilon_P|}$ (as long as $\epsilon_P<0$).
 - PQ Known as the Dorfman-Steiner condition.
- So, advertising expenditure will be high relative to sales revenues when:
 - The advertising elasticity of demand is high.
 - · I.e. advertising results in large demand increases.
 - The price elasticity of demand is close to zero.
 - So firms can charge a high mark-up without quantity falling too much.
- Finally, recall $\frac{P-c}{P} = -\frac{1}{\epsilon_P}$. So advertising only affects price through its (ambiguous) effect on the P.E.D..

Effect of advertising on price (1/2)

- Persuasive and complementary advertising may be modelled as shifting the demand curve.
- Suggests Q(P,A) = F(A) + G(P).
 - With this specification, it may be shown (tedious!) that a sufficient condition for $\frac{dP}{dA} > 0$ is $G''(P) \le 0$.
 - · True for linear demand, but not true for isoelastic demand.
 - Possible to construct plausible examples in which advertising decreases price.

Effect of advertising on price (2/2)

- Informative advertising may be modelled as scaling the demand curve.
- ▶ Suggest Q(P,A) = F(A)G(P).
 - Then the price elasticity of demand does not depend on A, so advertising will have no effect on the price.
 - Proof: $\frac{\partial Q(P,A)}{\partial P} = F(A)G'(P)$, so $\frac{P}{Q(P,A)} \frac{\partial Q(P,A)}{\partial P} = \frac{P}{F(A)G(P)}F(A)G'(P) = \frac{P}{G(P)}G'(P)$

Welfare: <u>Dixit and Norman (1978)</u> (OZ 11.1.2)

- Suppose we measure welfare relative to a fixed standard.
 - E.g. either their preferences pre-advertising or their preferences post-advertising.
 - Let S(P) be consumer surplus, then our assumption just means that S(P) does not depend directly on A.
 - Let V(Q) be the maximum consumers would be prepared to pay to purchase a quantity Q.
 - Equivalently, V(Q) is the area under the demand curve to the left of Q, so V'(Q(P)) = P.
 - Then S(P) = V(Q(P)) PQ(P), so S'(P) = V'(Q(P))Q'(P) Q(P) PQ'(P) = -Q(P)

Welfare: <u>Dixit and Norman (1978)</u> Continued

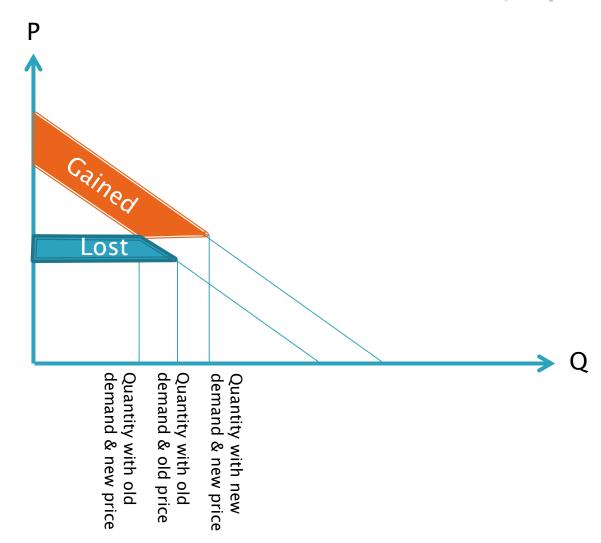
Let:

- W(A) be total social welfare when an amount A of advertising is performed,
- P(A) be the price as a function of the amount of advertising performed, and
- $\Pi(P,A)$ be profits at a price P after performing advertising A.
- Then $W(A) = S(P(A)) + \Pi(P(A), A)$.
- So, $W'(A) = S'(P(A))P'(A) + \frac{\partial \Pi(P,A)}{\partial P}P'(A) + \frac{\partial \Pi(P,A)}{\partial A}$.
 - But price was profit maximising before, meaning $\frac{\partial \Pi(P,A)}{\partial P}=0$, and the advertising level was also profit maximising, so $\frac{\partial \Pi(P,A)}{\partial A}=0$.
 - Hence: W'(A) = -Q(P(A))P'(A).
 - Thus decreasing advertising would increase welfare at the margin providing P'(A) > 0.
 - Stated another way: there is excessive advertising if and only if cutting advertising would decrease prices.

Does a fixed standard make sense?

- If advertising genuinely acts by changing people's preferences, surely it is wrong to use a fixed standard.
- Standard alternative is to use valuations before and after.
 - Even this is only valid if the advert has not changed the value they put on other goods.
- Fits in naturally with the complementary and informative views.

Non-fixed standards (1/3)



Non-fixed standards (2/3)

- Non-fixed standards will moderate results about excess advertising, since there is an additional positive effect to counteract the negative Dixit-Norman effect.
 - Hence when prices don't change there will always be insufficient advertising.
 - It may be shown (see Bagwell) that there may be insufficient advertising even when increasing advertising would push up prices.
 - Sufficient conditions are that 1) when quantities are higher, the effect of advertising on prices is smaller and 2) increasing advertising increases quantities.
 - These conditions mean that the marginal consumer gets the least benefit from increased advertising, so the firm provides too little.

Non-fixed standards (3/3)

- An example with informative advertising:
 - Q(P,A) = F(A)G(P) as we had before.
 - Then consumer surplus at the optimal price P^* is $\int_{P^*}^{\infty} Q(P,A) dP = \int_{P^*}^{\infty} F(A)G(P) dP = F(A) \int_{P^*}^{\infty} G(P) dP$
 - So total surplus is given by: $W(A) = F(A) \int_{P^*}^{\infty} G(P) dP + \Pi(P^*, A)$.
 - Hence, $W'(A) = F'(A) \int_{P^*}^{\infty} G(P) dP + \frac{\partial \Pi(P^*, A)}{\partial A}$
 - But when A is chosen optimally, (i.e. $A = A^*$), $\frac{\partial \Pi(P^*,A)}{\partial A} = 0$ (from the firm's FOC).
 - So $W'(A^*) = F'(A) \int_{P^*}^{\infty} G(P) dP > 0$ (as advertising increases demand, and demand is always non-negative).
 - So there is too little advertising.

Advertising summary so far

- Three different views about how advertising works.
 - Read the Bagwell paper (or at least it's introduction and conclusion) to get a wider picture.
- Advertising is not always bad.
- With persuasive advertising, welfare measures are ambiguous.

Advertising exercises

- OZ Ex. 11.7
 - Question 1, 2
- OZ Extra exercises:
 - http://ozshy.50webs.com/io-exercises.pdf
 - Set #16