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Large buyer discounts

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NHH



Does buyer size matter for prices?

- Not obvious, but there are some formal theories that may help us explain when and why size matters for negotiated prices:

- **Supply side explanations** – size discounts can be explained by the seller's technology (costs)

[**Demand side explanations** – size discounts may be explained by the shape of demand in the final market (consumers) – but this is also really linked to the supply side technology]

- **Strategic explanations** – unlike small buyers, large buyers may have more credible "fallback strategies", or they may have other business strategies at their disposal that may help them squeeze the sellers
- **Risk aversion** – size discounts may be explained by risk averse sellers

Preface: size \neq market power

- Buyer size does not necessarily imply more market power for the buyer
- For example, a merger may increase the buyer's size AND market power, whereas a purchasing agreement increases only the buyer's size (ideally)
- So the question is then what are the effects of the buyers' "pure size" on the bargained prices?

Bargained prices: a simple framework

- The "bargaining problem" deals with the question of how two (or more) parties should split some joint surplus
- For a seller and a buyer, we may refer to the relevant surplus as their "incremental gains from trade"
- In each negotiation (if there is more than one buyer), we may think of the buyer as receiving ...
 - his "fallback profit" (the profit he earns if he refuses to trade with the seller)
 - plus some (fixed) share of the buyer and the seller's incremental gains from trade
- All factors that increase the sum of the buyers' fallback profits, and/or the sum of their incremental gains from trade, may therefore contribute to reducing the average price paid by the buyers
 - If the overall profit is unaffected, profit is then simply shifted away from the seller towards the buyers

Incremental gains from trade

- Suppose there is one seller, S, and two buyers, B1 and B2
- A buyer requires just one unit from the seller
- We will assume B1 earns the profit $\pi - p_1$ when buying one unit from the seller for the price p_1
- Each buyer earns π_0 in the event that trade does not take place (the buyers' "fallback profit" or "outside option")
- Let $c(N)$ be the seller's cost when delivering N units of the input:
$$c(0) < c(1) < c(2)$$
- The incremental gains from trade between the S and B1 (which in turn partially determines the buyer's price), are equal to

$$\underbrace{p_1 + p_2 - c(2)}_{\text{joint surplus when trading}} + \underbrace{\pi - p_1}_{\text{B1's profit}} - \underbrace{[\pi_0 + p_2 - c(1)]}_{\text{S's profit}} - \text{surplus when not trading}$$

The buyer's share of the profit

- The incremental gains from trade between S and B1 simplify to

$$\pi - \pi_0 - [c(2) - c(1)] \quad (1)$$

- Note that if each buyer receives 50% of the incremental gains from trade, then the sum of the buyers' profits can be written

$$2\pi_0 + \pi - \pi_0 - [c(2) - c(1)] \quad (2)$$

- We may notice two main factors that affect the buyers' profits:
 - 1) the size of the buyer's fallback profit π_0 (+)
 - 2) the seller's incremental cost from supplying one unit to the buyer, $c(2) - c(1)$ (-)

Incremental gains from trade with a PA

- Suppose B1 and B2 sign a *purchasing agreement* (PA)
(assume that a central agency "A" negotiates a joint price p for the buyers)
- Suppose that a buyer's fallback profit when he is a member of A, is π_0^A
- The incremental gains from trade between S and A, are now equal to

$$\underbrace{\underbrace{p - c(2)}_{\text{S's profit}} + \underbrace{\pi + \pi - p}_{\text{A's profit}}}_{\text{joint surplus when trading}} - \underbrace{[\underbrace{\pi_0^A + \pi_0^A}_{\text{A's profit}} - c(0)]}_{\text{surplus when not trading}}$$

which simplifies to

$$2(\pi - \pi_0^A) - [c(2) - c(0)] \quad (3)$$

The buyers' profits under a PA

- If the buyers receive 50% of the incremental gains from trade (like before), then the sum of the buyers' profits can be written

$$2\pi_0^A + \pi - \pi_0^A - \frac{c(2) - c(0)}{2},$$

compared to

$$2\pi_0 + \pi - \pi_0 - [c(2) - c(1)]$$

before the PA

- Hence, there are two primary ways through which the buyers' prices (and hence the buyers' profits) may have been affected
 - By changing each buyer's fallback profit, from π_0 to π_0^A
 - By shifting the seller's *average incremental cost* from trading with the two buyers, from $c(2) - c(1)$ to $\frac{c(2) - c(0)}{2}$

Did the price become lower?

- Fallback profits (outside options) may have been affected:
 - With a purchasing agreement, if the negotiations fail, they fail with both buyers simultaneously, and in this case the buyers may jointly secure an alternative source of supply
 - Securing an alternative source of supply may involve fixed costs (e.g., sponsoring entry)
 - With a PA, this fixed cost will be spread over the quantity purchased by *both* buyers, instead of the quantity purchased by just one of them (the case without the PA) – which makes the alternative supply more affordable for them (in this case: $\pi_0^A > \pi_0$)
- The seller's average incremental cost from trading may be smaller when the buyers are large; i.e., we may have:

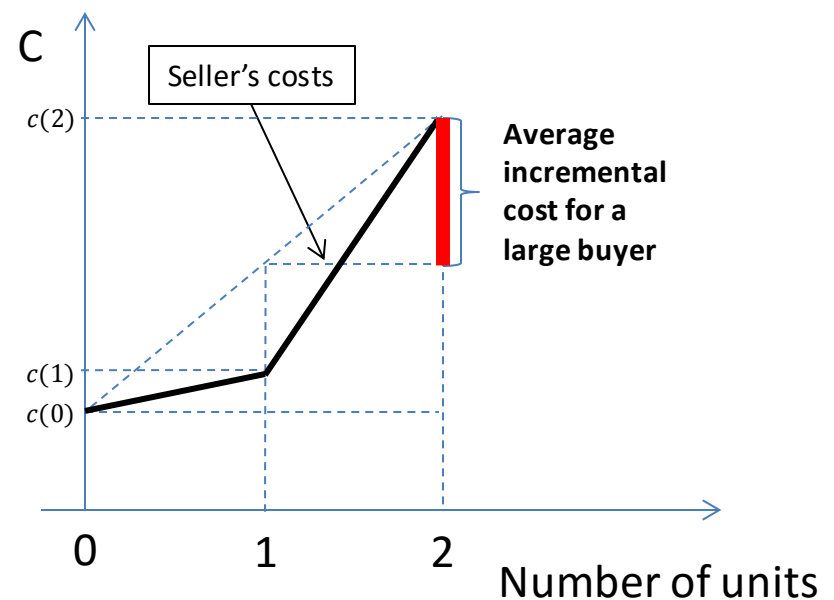
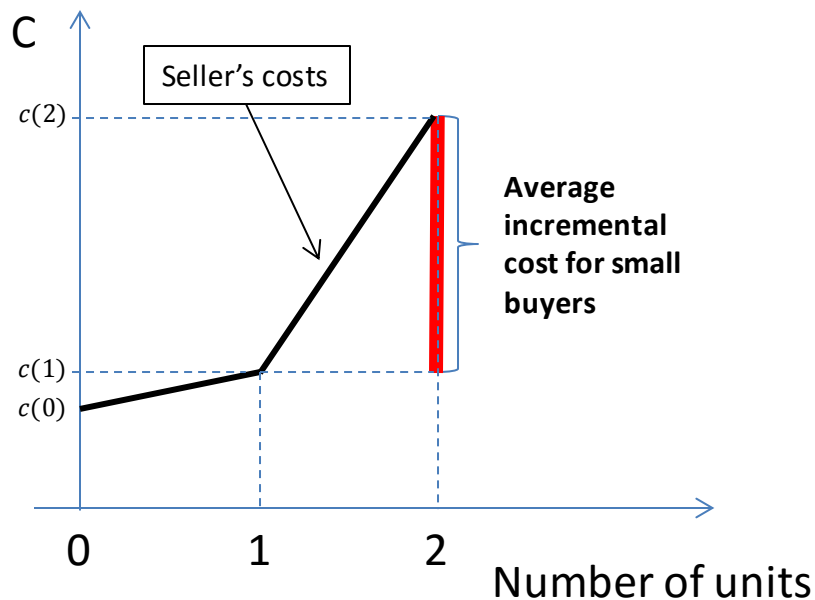
$$\frac{c(2) - c(0)}{2} < c(2) - c(1)$$

- If this is the case, then a PA implies a discount to the buyers

Shape of the seller's costs

- The latter holds if there are *diseconomies of scale in production*
- Diseconomies of scale implies that small buyers contribute more than proportionally to the seller's cost
- In turn this means that small buyers will have to pay higher prices

Diseconomies of scale



Sellers' risk aversion

- A seller's risk aversion may also give rise to large buyer discounts
- The intuition is very similar to the intuition for why the shape of the seller's cost function may give rise to quantity discounts
- For a risk averse seller, the first unit sold is more valuable than the final unit sold (unlike a risk neutral seller)
 - Not because the first unit is less costly to produce – but because the seller's marginal utility of money is decreasing in the amount of wealth it accumulates
- The more risk averse the seller is, the larger is the discount to large buyers

Alternative business strategies

- A large buyer may more easily succeed in inducing more competition between its sellers
- Large buyers may commit to "single-sourcing" across multiple stores and regions (i.e., commit to carrying the same product at all locations)
- If sellers have comparative advantages, each in their own region, then the buyers can create a more level playing field – by joining forces and make the sellers compete for the business of all stores combined
- A commitment to single sourcing in this setting makes the sellers "less differentiated", in the sense that the comparative advantages are lessened – which in turn makes them compete more fiercely
- The increased competition will reduce the prices for the buyers – but it also reduces the overall profit created
 - There is a trade off for the buyer because products are no longer stocked optimally (the "wrong" product is stocked in some of the stores)

Thank you!