



UNIVERSITÀ DEGLI STUDI DI ANCONA
DIPARTIMENTO DI ECONOMIA

**MANAGERIAL INCENTIVES AND COMPETITION
WITH FULLY STRATEGIC PRINCIPALS:
COMMENTS ON RAITH**

DOMENICO SCALERA & ALBERTO ZAZZARO

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Comitato scientifico:

*Renato Balducci
Marco Crivellini
Marco Gallegati
Alberto Niccoli
Alberto Zazzaro
Collana curata da:
Massimo Tamberi*

Managerial Incentives and Competition with Fully

Strategic Principals: Comments on Raith

Domenico Scalera

Università del Sannio

Alberto Zazzaro*

Università Politecnica delle Marche

Abstract: We present a solution for a three stage spatial competition model that does not require restrictive assumptions on price expectations. This allows us to generalize the Raith (2003) model to the case where principals behave in a fully strategic fashion both in the price and in the compensation stage. Since managerial incentives are strategic complements, optimal managerial compensation is lower than in Raith while prices and expected profits are higher. In addition, fully strategic principals involve three surprising, but ultimately intuitive, implications: managerial incentives are higher under price regulation than competition; prices may increase with the number of firms; and consumer welfare may diminish in response to increasing competition.

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* Corresponding author: Alberto Zazzaro, Università Politecnica delle Marche, Dipartimento di Economia, Piazzale Martelli 8, 60121 - Ancona (Italy), Tel.: +39-071-2207086; Fax.: +39-071-2207102; e-mail: albertoz@dea.unian.it. We wish to thank Antonio Ciccone for helpful comments.

In an interesting article published in the September 2003 issue of the American Economic Review, Michael Raith returns to the long-debated question of the influence of product market competition on managerial incentives¹. Raith presents a model of differentiated product market *à la* Salop (1979), with cost uncertainty and separation between firm ownership and control. Each firm is headed by a manager whose effort reduces marginal costs. Realized cost is assumed to be verifiable and contractible. Principals provide incentives to managers to exert effort through compensation. Managerial compensation is given by a fixed salary plus a piece rate that depends linearly on the observed cost reduction but does not vary with the produced quantity. The manager's compensation is set by the principal after the entry decision and before the price game among competitors takes place. Within this analytical framework, Raith studies the effects of three fundamentals of competition (product substitutability, market size, and the cost of entry) on managerial incentives both under a given market structure and in a free entry market regime.

Formally, Raith (2003) adds a cost reduction stage to an otherwise standard Salop model of competition on a circle². This apparently straightforward extension leads to considerable additional complexities when solving for equilibria. Specifically, in solving the model by backward induction (starting with the price setting game), one has to consider that a firm, when choosing the price of its own product, knows that the prices of its immediate competitors will be affected by its cost reducing action. In turn, this price change will affect the price of the second-nearest competitors, whose changes will affect the price of the third-nearest competitors and so on, until the prices of all firms have changed. This implies that the optimal cost reducing strategy of fully strategic principals would take into account the "trickle-around" effect on all the other competitors' prices. As a consequence, even in the

¹ On this matter, a classical reference is Hart (1983). More recent contributions are Hermalin (1992), Martin (1993), and Schmidt (1997). For empirical evidence, see Nickell (1996).

² Several contributions have dealt with cost reducing investments in models of R&D and innovation under Cournot and Bertrand competition. Amongst others, see Dasgupta and Stiglitz (1980), Spence (1984), Qiu (1997) and Boone (2000). For a comprehensive survey see Vives (2004).

case of symmetric equilibrium, prices cannot be determined before deriving the optimal cost reducing action.

To simplify the problem, Raith assumes that all firms have identical expectations on prices of their neighboring competitors. Put differently, Raith assumes that principals assume that the expected prices of their neighboring competitors are not affected by their cost reducing action. This assumption allows Raith to solve the price game easily. However, by neglecting the effect of the cost reducing action on competitors' price, Raith implicitly assumes that principals do not act strategically vis-à-vis their two nearest competitors. This leads to an overestimate of managerial incentives, as principals do not take into account that an increasing piece rate not only reduces their own costs but also brings about a reaction of competitors who in turn increase their piece rate and reduce their costs and prices.

In this paper we show that a solution of the three stage Salop model proposed by Raith can be obtained without eliminating fully strategic behavior by the principals. Compared to the Raith solution, ours is characterized by lower managerial incentives, and higher average prices and expected profits. Moreover, our model presents three important and surprising implications. First, unlike what is commonly believed, managerial incentives prove higher in a regime of price regulation than in competition both in the short and long run, since regulation, by imposing a price, deprives managerial compensation of any strategic role for competition on the product market. Second, prices may not to be monotonically decreasing in the number of incumbent firms. In other words, it is possible that the optimal price reaches its minimum when profits are still positive. This leads to the third implication. When new firms enter the market, consumers may experience a reduction in welfare due to increasing prices.

I. The model

In this section we present a simplified version of the Raith (2003) model with risk neutral agents³. For the sake of comparison, when possible, we use the same notation as Raith.

Like Raith, we consider a horizontally differentiated product market populated by n firms supplying symmetric varieties $z_i = i/n$ at prices p_i , with $i = 1, \dots, n$, and by a continuum of consumers of measure m uniformly distributed on the product space represented by the unit circle.

Firms are owned by principals and conducted by managers. Marginal production costs are decreasing with the effort exerted by managers e_i , and depend on the realization of a normally distributed random variable u_i , which has zero mean and finite variance (σ^2):

$$(1) \quad c_i = \bar{c} - e_i - u_i$$

Realized costs are firms' private information but are verifiable by a court and, therefore, contractible. To provide an incentive for managerial effort, each firm (principal) offers its manager a compensation that varies with the observed cost reduction, which may be expressed as follows:

$$(2) \quad w_i = s_i + b_i(\bar{c} - c_i)$$

where s_i is a fixed salary and b_i is the marginal cost reduction piece rate. Assuming that exerting effort generates a quadratic utility cost to risk-neutral managers, the optimal level of effort is obtained by maximizing the expected utility $E(w_i) - ke_i^2/2$ and is equal to:

$$(3) \quad e_i^* = \frac{b_i}{k}$$

The fixed salary paid by principals is such that, given the optimal managerial effort, the expected utility of managers is exactly equal to their reservation utility. If this is normalized to zero, the salary is therefore:

$$(4) \quad s_i = -\frac{b_i^2}{2k}$$

Substituting (3) and (4) in (2), we have:

$$(5) \quad w_i = \frac{b_i^2}{2k} + b_i u_i$$

Each consumer buys one unit of good at most, whatever its price, provided that the surplus she derives from her purchase is nonnegative. Let a be the utility arising from consuming one unit of the most preferred good and t the consumers' preference for variety (or the transport cost). The surplus that a consumer whose most preferred variety is x derives from purchasing variety z_i is:

$$(6) \quad V_i(x) = y + a - p_i - t(z_i - x)^2,$$

where $t(z_i - x)^2$ measures the disutility of the distance between the purchased variety and the preferred one, assumed to be quadratic.

Consumers choose their favored variety to maximize surplus, subject to the rationality constraint $V_i(x) \geq 0$. Given the assumption of symmetric varieties, the marginal consumers (i.e., those who are indifferent between two neighboring varieties z_i and z_{i+1}) from the right x^- and from the left x^+ are respectively characterized by the ideal varieties $x^- = \frac{2i-1}{2n} + \frac{n(p_i - p_{i-1})}{2t}$ and $x^+ = \frac{2i+1}{2n} + \frac{n(p_{i+1} - p_i)}{2t}$.

Like Raith, to keep the model tractable we restrict the analysis to the case in which, in equilibrium, every firm i believes it has to compete only with its closest neighbors. This belief is sensible when the variance of cost shocks is sufficiently small that each firm can exclude almost with certainty (i.e. with probability higher than 0.999) the possibility of its marginal cost being so low as to capture all of its neighbor's clients. Considering that firm i does not know its neighbors' costs, this amounts to making:

³ The Raith model allows for risk averse managers. The simplification made here does not affect any of the

ASSUMPTION 1: $\sigma^2 < t^2/3n^4$

where $\bar{n} = am/F$ is the largest conceivable equilibrium number of firms, with F are fixed costs of entry⁴.

If a is sufficiently high to allow all consumers to buy one unit of good, firm individual demand is:

$$(7) \quad q_i = \frac{m}{n} + \frac{mn(p_{i+1} + p_{i-1} - 2p_i)}{2t},$$

while profits are:

$$(8) \quad \pi_i = \left[p_i - \bar{c} + \frac{b_i}{k} + u_i \right] \left[\frac{m}{n} + \frac{mn}{2t} (p_{i-1} + p_{i+1} - 2p_i) \right] - \frac{b_i^2}{2k} - bu_i - F$$

Firms take part in a sequential three stage game. In the first stage, each firm decides whether to enter the market. In the second and third stage firms simultaneously choose piece rate and price. The solution is a sub-game perfect Nash equilibrium.

II. Equilibrium

Consider the price sub-game first. At this stage, firms have already stated their compensation strategy and observed their own actual cost. However, since each firm does not know the actual cost of its competitors, in order to choose the price strategy, it has to consider expected demand. Substituting the expected value of (7) into (8) and maximizing with respect to p_i yields the reaction function of firm i :

$$(9) \quad p_i = \frac{t}{2n^2} + \frac{E(p_{i-1})}{4} + \frac{E(p_{i+1})}{4} + \frac{c_i}{2}$$

results of this paper and is made only to avoid more cumbersome notation.

⁴ The highest possible price coincides with the utility of consuming the preferred variety a . Therefore, expected profits are zero when $\bar{n} = am/F$.

To find the vector of equilibrium price, we take expectations on (9), and solve the system⁵:

$$(10) \quad \Lambda E(\mathbf{p}) = \mathbf{y}$$

where:

$$\Lambda_{(n \times n)} = \begin{bmatrix} 1 & -1/4 & 0 & 0 & 0 & 0 & \dots & -1/4 \\ -1/4 & 1 & -1/4 & 0 & 0 & 0 & \dots & 0 \\ 0 & -1/4 & 1 & -1/4 & 0 & 0 & \dots & 0 \\ 0 & 0 & -1/4 & 1 & -1/4 & 0 & \dots & 0 \\ \dots & \dots & \dots & \dots & \dots & \dots & \dots & \dots \\ \dots & \dots & \dots & \dots & \dots & \dots & \dots & \dots \\ -1/4 & 0 & 0 & 0 & \dots & 0 & -1/4 & 1 \end{bmatrix}; \text{ and } \mathbf{y}_{(n \times 1)} = \begin{bmatrix} 1/2 \left(\frac{t}{n^2} + \bar{c} - \frac{b_1}{k} \right) \\ \dots \\ 1/2 \left(\frac{t}{n^2} + \bar{c} - \frac{b_i}{k} \right) \\ \dots \\ 1/2 \left(\frac{t}{n^2} + \bar{c} - \frac{b_n}{k} \right) \end{bmatrix}$$

Recalling from (9) that $p_i = E(p_i) - u_i/2$, the equilibrium price vector is given by:

$$(11) \quad \mathbf{p} = \Lambda^{-1} \mathbf{y} - \frac{1}{2} \mathbf{u}$$

where $\mathbf{u}$ is the column vector of cost shocks.

Matrix Λ is a symmetric circulant Leontief matrix. As a Leontief matrix, Λ is positive definite and invertible, so that system (11) admits solution. The inverse Λ^{-1} is in turn symmetric and circulant and all its elements are nonnegative. Thus, we can state the following lemma.

LEMMA 1:

⁵ Here Raith assumes that $E(p_{i-1}) = E(p_{i+1}) = E(p)$ and then solves for symmetric equilibrium imposing $p_i = E(p)$. This implicitly amounts to assuming the symmetry of the piece rate action, right from the price stage. Thus, he can write firm i profits as a function of its piece rate only (see Raith's equation (A4), p. 1433), unlike our equation (13), in which profits depend on the piece rates chosen by all the competitors.

Let λ^{ij} be a generic element of matrix Λ^{-1} . For any value of n , the following properties hold:

(1) $\lambda^{ii} > 1$ for any i ; (2) $\sum_j \lambda^{ij} = 1 / \sum_j \lambda_{ij}$ for any i ; (3) $0 \leq \lambda^{ij} < 1$ for any i and $j \neq i$; (4)

$\lambda^{i-1,i} = \lambda^{i+1,i}$ for any i .

PROOF:

Property 1 derives from the fact that positive definite matrices have $\lambda^{ii} \geq 1 / \lambda_{ii}$, with equality if and only if $\lambda_{ij} = 0 \quad \forall j \neq i$ (see Rao (1973), page 74, property 20.2). In our case clearly $\lambda_{ii} = 1$, $\lambda_{ij} \neq 0$ for $j = i \pm 1$ and $\lambda_{ij} = 0$ otherwise, so that $\lambda^{ii} > 1$. To prove property (2), consider a generic row of matrix Λ , say, without loss of generality, the first row. Multiplying by Λ^{-1} , one gets the system

$$\begin{aligned} \lambda_1 \lambda^1 + \lambda_2 \lambda^2 + \dots + \lambda_{n-1} \lambda^3 + \lambda_n \lambda^2 &= 1 \\ \lambda_1 \lambda^2 + \lambda_2 \lambda^1 + \dots + \lambda_{n-1} \lambda^4 + \lambda_n \lambda^3 &= 0 \\ \dots &\dots \\ \lambda_1 \lambda^n + \lambda_2 \lambda^{n-1} + \dots + \lambda_{n-1} \lambda^2 + \lambda_n \lambda^1 &= 0 \end{aligned}$$

where λ_j and λ^j are respectively the j -th element of the first row of Λ and Λ^{-1} . By summing by column, one obtains:

$$\lambda_1 \sum \lambda^j + \lambda_2 \sum \lambda^j + \dots + \lambda_{n-1} \sum \lambda^j + \lambda_n \sum \lambda^j = 1$$

hence:

$$\sum \lambda^j = 1 / \sum \lambda_j.$$

In our specific case, $\sum \lambda_j = 1/2$ whence $\sum \lambda^j = 2$. Recalling that Λ^{-1} has only nonnegative elements, property (3) follows from (1) and (2), whereas property (4) follows from the fact that Λ^{-1} is symmetric and circulant.

On the basis of Lemma 1, the equilibrium price charged by firm i is:

$$(12) \quad p_i = \frac{t}{n^2} + \bar{c} - \frac{1}{2k} \lambda^i \mathbf{b} - \frac{u_i}{2}$$

where λ^i denotes the i -th row of matrix Λ^{-1} and $\mathbf{b}$ is the (column) vector of the managerial bonus rates $(b_1, b_2, \dots, b_n)$.

Moving to the second stage, each firm sets the piece rate for its manager by maximizing the expected profits under the optimal price strategy (12). Substituting (12) into (8) and taking expectation on it we obtain:

$$(13) \quad E(\pi_i) = \left[\frac{t}{n^2} + \frac{b_i}{k} - \frac{1}{2k} \lambda^i \mathbf{b} \right] \left[\frac{m}{n} + \frac{nm}{2t} \left(-\frac{1}{2k} \lambda^{i+1} \mathbf{b} - \frac{1}{2k} \lambda^{i-1} \mathbf{b} + \frac{1}{k} \lambda^i \mathbf{b} \right) \right] + \frac{nm}{4t} \sigma^2 - \frac{b_i^2}{2k} - F$$

As in Raith, in order to get strict concavity of expected profits (13) in b_i , we assume that the disutility parameter of managerial effort is sufficiently high. Specifically:

$$\text{ASSUMPTION 2: } k > \frac{nm}{t} \left(1 - \frac{\lambda^{i,i}}{2} \right) (\lambda^{i,i} - \lambda^{i-1,i})$$

Then, deriving (13) with respect to b_i and setting $b_i = b^*$ for any i , we get the symmetric equilibrium managerial bonus rate. In particular, by recalling properties (2) and (4) of Lemma 1, we have:

$$(14) \quad b^* = \left(1 - \frac{\lambda^{i-1,i}}{2} \right) \frac{m}{n} = \left(1 - \frac{\lambda^{i-1,i}}{2} \right) b^{\text{Raith}}$$

where the second equality is obtained by comparing the first equality of equation (14) with equation (5) in Raith (p. 1428), in the case of managers' risk neutrality.

Substituting (14) back in (12) and (13), we get the symmetric equilibrium price and expected profit:

$$(15) \quad E(p)^* = \frac{t}{n^2} + \bar{c} - \frac{m}{nk} \left(1 - \frac{\lambda^{i-1,i}}{2} \right) = E(p)^{\text{Raith}} + \frac{m}{nk} \frac{\lambda^{i-1,i}}{2}$$

$$(16) \quad E(\pi_i)^* = \frac{mt}{n^3} + \frac{nm}{4t} \sigma^2 - \frac{m^2}{2kn^2} \left(1 - \frac{\lambda^{i-1,i}}{2} \right)^2 - F = E(\pi_i)^{\text{Raith}} + \frac{m^2}{2kn^2} \lambda^{i-1,i} \left(1 - \frac{\lambda^{i-1,i}}{4} \right)$$

where, as before, the second equalities are obtained by comparison with equation (4) and (6) in Raith (p. 1428) respectively. Therefore:

RESULT 1:

There exists a unique symmetric sub-game perfect Nash equilibrium in piece rates and prices given by (14) and (15). Compared to Raith's solution, piece rates chosen by firms are strictly lower, while prices and expected profits are strictly higher.

PROOF:

Result 1 straightforwardly descends from property (3) of Lemma 1, for which $0 \leq \lambda^{i-1,i} < 1$.

The intuition behind Result 1 is simple and lies in the strategic content of the piece rate choice. Like prices, also piece rates are strategic complements: if a firm increases incentives for its own manager, other firms do so as well, in order not to lose market shares. As a consequence, the profitability of higher incentives is reduced, compared to the case in which this interaction is neglected.

So far the analysis has been carried out for a given number of firms. To move to an endogenous market structure, we must take into account that the matrix Λ^{-1} changes over n . However, from numerical computations (see Table 1) we note that $\lambda^{i,i}$ and $\lambda^{i-1,i}$ are only slightly decreasing with n and approximately constant for $n \geq 6$. Thereafter, to keep the

analysis tractable, we assume that expected profits for $n=6$ are strictly positive. This amounts to making:

$$\text{ASSUMPTION 3: } E(\pi_i)^*_{|n=6} > 0 \Leftrightarrow F < \frac{m}{2} \left(\frac{t}{108} + 3\sigma^2 - \frac{0.02m}{k} \right).$$

Table 1. Numerical computations on elements of the matrix Λ^{-1} .

N	$\lambda^{i,i}$	$\lambda^{i-1,i}$
3	1.2	0.4
6	1.156	0.311
7	1.155	0.309
15	1.155	0.309
300	1.155	0.309

Given Assumptions 2 and 3, it is easy to verify that, like in Raith, expected profits decrease when the number of incumbent firms rises⁶. This implies that his Propositions 4 and 5 remain qualitatively unaltered. Specifically, from (16), the zero profit equilibrium number of firms increases with market size and decreases with product substitutability and the cost of entry⁷. Therefore, when n is endogenously determined by the free entry condition, the influence of market competition on managerial incentives depends on the specific fundamental of competition that one is considering: equilibrium piece rates are higher in

⁶ The derivative of (16) with respect to n may be written as $\frac{\partial E(\pi_i)^*}{\partial n} = m \left(\frac{\sigma^2}{4t} - \frac{t}{n^4} \right) + \frac{m}{n^3} \left[\frac{m}{k} \left(1 - \frac{\lambda^{i-1,i}}{2} \right)^2 - \frac{2t}{n} \right]$. The first term is negative due to Assumption 1. Moreover,

numerical computations indicate that $\left(1 - \frac{\lambda^{i,i}}{2} \right) (\lambda^{i,i} - \lambda^{i-1,i}) = \frac{1}{2} \left(1 - \frac{\lambda^{i-1,i}}{2} \right)^2$, so that due to Assumption 2 the second term is negative too.

larger markets and in markets with more substitutable products, but lower with lower entry costs⁸. However, when piece rates are chosen strategically, the effect of a change in the competitive factors on managerial incentives is quantitatively less pronounced than in the Raith case.

III. Three implications

Beside the effects on managerial incentives, prices and profits, the strategic choice of the piece rate has some relevant and unexpected implications on: A) The relationship between regulation and incentives; B) Price dynamics; C) Social welfare.

A. Managerial incentives under price regulation

Under price regulation, the choice of piece rates loses its strategic content just because prices are fixed by the regulator. Therefore, managerial incentives to exert effort tend to be higher than under competition. In particular, one can easily derive:

RESULT 2:

For a given market structure, under price regulation the incentive to managers is higher than under competition, and exactly equal to Raith's equilibrium piece rate. With an endogenous market structure this result may still hold unless the regulatory price is set at a sufficiently

$$\text{high level, i.e. unless } \bar{p} > E(p_i)^* + \frac{n^2}{4t} \sigma^2 - \frac{m}{2kn} \left(\frac{\lambda^{i-1,i}}{2} \right)^2.$$

PROOF:

⁷ For a formal proof, see Raith (2003, p. 1434).

⁸ For a formal proof, see Raith (2003, p. 1434).

Let $\bar{p}$ be the regulatory price. Firm's expected profits are: $E(\pi_i) = \left[\bar{p} - \bar{c} + \frac{b_i}{k} \right] \frac{m}{n} - \frac{b_i^2}{2k} - F$.

Maximizing this expression with respect to b_i we have $b^{**} = \frac{m}{n} = b^{Ralth}$. Therefore, for a

given number of firms, $b^{**} > b^*$. Substituting b^{**} into expected profits we have

$$E(\pi_i)^{**} = \left[\bar{p} - \bar{c} \right] \frac{m}{n} + \frac{m^2}{2kn^2} - F. \text{ With an endogenous market structure, incentives under}$$

regulation can be lower than under competition only if the equilibrium number of firms is

$$\text{higher. This happens if } E(\pi_i)^{**} > E(\pi_i)^* = 0, \text{ i.e., if } \bar{p} > E(p_i)^* + \frac{n^2}{4t} \sigma^2 - \frac{m}{2kn} \left(\frac{\lambda^{i-1,i}}{2} \right)^2$$

holds.

The intuition for Result 2 is similar to that of Result 1. As under regulation prices are no longer a strategic variable, when choosing piece rates, firms keep into account only the effect on managers' effort to reduce their own costs. This implies that under a given market structure, firms pay larger incentives to their managers. However, with an endogenous market structure, if the regulatory price is sufficiently high to involve a sufficiently larger (zero profits) number of firms and smaller individual market shares, managerial incentives may be lower than in a free-market regime.

B. Price dynamics

Equilibrium prices defined by (15) clearly resemble the corresponding prices in Salop (1979).

However, the fact that part of fixed costs (i.e., managerial compensation) are endogenously chosen by firms and are decreasing with n makes the sign of the dependence of prices on the number of firms ambiguous. This implies that, given the market structure, one cannot rule out the possibility that new entries may lead to increasing prices. Moreover, even when the

market structure is endogenous, equilibrium expected prices may increase along with the equilibrium number of firms.

RESULT 3:

Let $\underline{n}^p = \arg \min_n E(p)^*$. For a given market structure, if entry costs are sufficiently small and market size and product substitutability sufficiently large, the entry of new firms may increase equilibrium expected prices. In the case of an endogenous market structure, as long as $\underline{n}^p < n^*$, any increase in market size and decrease in product substitutability and entry costs raises equilibrium expected prices.

PROOF:

To prove the first part of Result 3, we consider the derivative of (15) with respect to n , that is

$$\frac{\partial E(p_i)^*}{\partial n} = -\frac{2t}{n^3} + \frac{m}{kn^2} \left(1 - \frac{\lambda^{i-1,i}}{2} \right). \text{ Setting this equal to zero, we find the minimal}^9 \text{ optimal}$$

price number of firms $\underline{n}^p = \frac{kt}{m} \frac{4}{(2 - \lambda^{i-1,i})}$. Substituting this expression in (16), we have

$$E(\pi_i)_{n=\underline{n}^p}^* > 0 \text{ if } \frac{m^4}{64k^3t^2} \frac{\lambda^{i-1,i}}{2} (2 - \lambda^{i-1,i})^3 + \frac{k\sigma^2}{2 - \lambda^{i-1,i}} - F > 0. \text{ In such a case, clearly}$$

$\underline{n}^p < n^*$ and new entries may lead to higher prices. To prove the second part of Result 3,

consider two different equilibrium number of firms such that $n_1^* > n_0^*$, which may happen

when products are less substitutable, market size is larger or the cost of entry is lower (see above, Section 2). From equation (15), we have $E(p)_{n=n_1^*}^* > E(p)_{n=n_0^*}^*$ if

⁹ The second order condition is easily verified.

$$t \left(\frac{n_0^* + n_1^*}{n_0^* n_1^*} \right) < \left(1 - \frac{\lambda^{i-1,j}}{2} \right) \frac{m}{k}, \text{ or, treating } n \text{ as a continuous variable, if } n^* > \frac{kt}{m(2 - \lambda^{i-1,j})} = \underline{n}^P.$$

The explanation for Result 3 is the following. For a given market structure, the entry of an additional firm gives rise to conflicting effects on prices and profits, as shown by the derivatives of expected profits and prices with respect to n . Firstly, competition increases and this pushes prices and profits downward (*competition effect*). Secondly, increasing n makes the equilibrium market share shrink and the quantity produced by each firm decline (*demand effect*). This lowers the benefit that principals derive from providing incentives to managers and in equilibrium reduces managerial compensations and increases firms' profits (*wage effect*). In turn, lower compensation reduces managers' effort and leads marginal costs and prices upward (*cost effect*). Finally, as n increases, the reaction of consumers to price reduction due to cost shock increases and so do profits (*risk effect*).

Concerning profits, under Assumption 1 the demand effect dominates the risk effect, while under Assumption 2 the competition effect dominates the wage effect, such that profits are always decreasing with n . For prices, matters are different because, when the product market is sufficiently competitive, the cost effect may exceed the competition effect even under Assumption 2. It is worth noting that this cannot happen in Raith, where the fact that the piece rate choice is not fully strategic (i.e., $\lambda^{i-1,j} = 0$) means that the ratio between cost effect and competition effect on prices is identical to the ratio between wage effect and competition effect on profits. Therefore, Assumption 2 is sufficient to ensure that both profits and prices are monotonically decreasing with n .

When the market structure is endogenous, since the competition effect decreases (in absolute value) more than the cost effect as n increases, if $n^* > \underline{n}^P$ any increase in market size and decrease in product substitutability and entry costs raises equilibrium expected prices.

Result 3 has an interesting empirical implication. In contrast with a commonly-held opinion, when dealing with differentiated product markets characterized by rigid overall demand and large firms with substantial agency costs or significant cost reducing actions, deregulation may turn into increasing prices even in the presence of increasing competition. For example, this is what has happened since the deregulation of European motor insurance markets in the early 1990s, as premiums have boomed while insurance company profits have remained stable or decreased¹⁰.

C. Consumer surplus and expected welfare

Since in equilibrium expected profits and managers' utility are both zero, per capita consumer surplus corresponds to the per capita expected welfare. When varieties are symmetric, it may be written as:

$$(17) \quad cs = a - E(p)^* - \frac{2nt}{m} \int_0^{1/2n} x^2 = a - \bar{c} + \frac{m}{kn} (1 - \lambda^{i-1,j}) - \frac{13}{12} \frac{t}{n^2}$$

Obviously, if the effect of increases in n on $E(p)^*$ is ambiguous, the effect on consumer surplus will be ambiguous as well. In particular, following Raith, it is easy to show:

RESULT 4:

If $n^* \leq \frac{13}{12} \underline{n}^P$, an increase in competition leads, as in Raith, to higher expected consumer surplus, whatever the fundamental of competition that one considers (greater product

¹⁰ See Scalera and Zazzaro (2004).

substitutability, larger markets or lower entry costs). By contrast, when $n^* > \frac{13}{12} \underline{n}^P$, expected welfare definitely increases with entry costs while it may increase or decrease in response to market size changes.

PROOF:

Concerning the effects of changes in F and m , we derive (17) to get:

$$\frac{\partial cs}{\partial F} = \frac{\partial n^*}{\partial F} \left(\frac{1}{n^*} \right)^2 \left[\frac{13t}{6n^*} - \frac{m}{k} \left(1 - \frac{\lambda^{i-1,j}}{2} \right) \right]$$

$$\frac{\partial cs}{\partial m} = \frac{\gamma}{kn^*} + \frac{\partial n^*}{\partial m} \left(\frac{1}{n^*} \right)^2 \left[\frac{13t}{6n^*} - \frac{m}{k} \left(1 - \frac{\lambda^{i-1,j}}{2} \right) \right]$$

From Assumption 2, the expression $\left[\frac{13t}{6n^*} - \frac{m}{k} \left(1 - \frac{\lambda^{i-1,j}}{2} \right) \right]$ is positive (negative) if

$n^* < (>) \frac{2}{2 - \lambda^{i-1,j}} \frac{13kt}{6m}$, i.e., if $n^* < (>) \frac{13}{12} \underline{n}^P$. Taking into account that $\partial n^* / \partial F < 0$ and

$\partial n^* / \partial m > 0$ (see above, Section 2, and Raith's Proposition 4), the Result is therefore established. As regards the effects of changes in t , since $\partial n^* / \partial t > 0$ and t/n^2 is increasing in t , $\partial cs / \partial t < 0$ for any n (the proof is the same as in Raith, 2003, p. 1434).

The intuition of Result 4 is now immediate. When the number of firms increases, managerial incentives reduce and costs go up (Result 1). If $n^* > \underline{n}^P$, equilibrium prices increase along with the number of firms (Result 3). In this case, the price increase may outweigh the reduction in transport costs connected to the larger number of firms and this in turn may lead consumer surplus to shrink.

IV. Conclusions

In this article we propose a generalized version of the Raith (2003) model not requiring restrictive *a priori* assumptions on price expectations. Our approach is characterized by fully strategic principals who determine their optimal managerial incentive strategy taking due account of their competitors' reaction. This behavior implies that each firm's action will involve a change in the whole piece rate and price vectors. Compared to Raith, our solution yields lower managerial incentives, and higher average prices and expected profits. Moreover, considering fully strategic principals produces three (apparently) surprising implications: managerial incentives are higher with price regulation than in competition; prices may prove increasing with the number of firms; consumer welfare may diminish in response to increasing competition.

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