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### **Contests with Size Effects**

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# Contests with Size Effects<sup>\*</sup>

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#### Abstract

In this paper we analyze the structure of contest equilibria with a variable number of agents. First we analyze a situation where the total prize depends on the number of agents and where every single agent faces opportunity costs of investing in the contest. Second we analyze a situation where the agents face a trade-off between productive and appropriative investments. Here, the number of agents may also influence the productivity of productive investments. It turns out that both types of contests may lead to opposing results concerning the optimal number of contestants depending on the strength of size effects. Whereas in the former case individual utility is J-shaped when the number of agents increases, the opposite holds true for the latter case. We discuss the implications of our findings for the case of competition on markets and for the case of unstable property rights.

Keywords: Size Effects, Contests, Anarchy, Competition JEL classification: D74, L10

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### 1 Introduction

In this paper we analyze economic environments that can be characterized as a contest, which implies that each agent faces a trade-off between productive and appropriative activities. Economic interactions in contests are coupled with the number of agents involved. A change in the size of the group has two effects on the individual perception of the economic environment. First, the individual influence on the outcome of the contest becomes smaller if the group size increases. Second, an increase in the group size may have an influence on the total amount of goods that can be distributed. We call any effect of the size of the group on the total amount of goods size effect and on the individual fraction of goods slice effect. Size effects are zero if the total amount of goods is independent of the size of the group. We are interested in the connection between group size and the structure of contest equilibria. Does an increase in the group size make the members of the group more or less aggressive? What group size maximizes individual, what group size aggregate utility? It turns out that the answers to these questions depend on the quantitative importance of size effects as well as on the effectiveness of appropriative activities.

In order to analyze the consequences of size effects on the outcome of the contest we distinguish between two generic forms of contests, both belonging to the class of 'common-pool' problems (Grossman 2000). In the first contest, the total prize that can be distributed among the agents is fixed and depends only on the number of agents in the economy. Investments in the appropriation of the prize, however, incur a cost for the agents that can be thought of as resulting from a labor–leisure choice, or, more generally, opportunity costs of alternative uses of time. In the second contest, the total prize depends on the amount of time invested in productive activities as well as on the number of agents. Then, the basic trade-off is between appropriative and productive activities.

Both contests differ with respect to the source of economic welfare as well as with respect to the magnitude of appropriable individual resources. In the first contest, every individual has a positive impact on the total amount of goods that can be distributed, and there exists an individual resource ('leisure') that is not due to appropriation by other individuals. In the second contest, the number of agents has an influence on the marginal productivity of production, however, there are no goods to be distributed without productive investments by the individuals. The total time endowment of an agent has either to be devoted to productive activities, which can then be appropriated by other agents, or to appropriation.

We discuss our findings using two different applications. First, we apply the model to situations of incomplete or non-enforced property rights. During the last couple of years, situations of complete and partial anarchy have been fruitfully analyzed by the application of contest models (for example Bush and Mayer 1982, Hishleifer 1995, Skaperdas 1992, Grossman and Kim 1995, Grossman 2001 among others). We ask how conflict and production changes if the population increases. Size effects in anarchy can exist because of economies of scale or scope in the organization of economic activities.

Second, we apply the model to advertising activities of competitors on market places. Market places are often characterized by positive size effects. In developed economies there exists a complete and stable set of property rights on market places, however, the competition for customers creates the formal analogy to the appropriation of goods in anarchy.<sup>1</sup> If it is more attractive for customers to search on markets if the number of competitors supplying on this market is large, the total gross profit that can be earned on a market is increasing in the number of competitors supplying on the market. In order to sell goods on a market with potential competitors, however, each competitor has to promote the product, which requires investment in advertising. Hence, the market has the structure of a contest. The two contests we analyze correspond to different situations on a market. The first contest portrays a situation where competitors do not invest in the quality or attractiveness of the marketplace itself. Hence, the success of a competitor on the market depends only on its investment in individual advertising, where costs the costs of advertising are equal to the opportunity costs of investments. The second contest corresponds to a situation where the attractiveness of the marketplace can be influenced by the investments of a single competitor. Examples for this are investments in convenience and security by the creation of parking lots and the employment of private security guards in classical markets or the investment in hard- and software that simplifies access to internet platforms.

<sup>&</sup>lt;sup>1</sup>In a formal sense the contest-creating activities of competitors to attract customers can be interpreted as a result of imperfect property rights. All competitors would gain from a co-ordination of advertising activities on a minimum level. Hence, they could sign a contract implementing this strategy. In this paper we do not explain why those contracts are not signed. We take it as an empirical fact that competitors invest in advertising in order to attract customers. A reason for this may be that co-operation between competitors is explicitly forbidden by competition policy.

Both, the marketplace and the anarchy interpretation of our model allow to gain useful insights into the role of group size on the structure of conflict equilibria. We have decided to use the market-place interpretation throughout the presentation of the model. In a separate Section, we will then discuss how our results relate to the literature on anarchy and conflict.

This paper differs from the previous work on contests because it explicitly allows for size effects. Standard contest models either assume that the total prize is fixed and competitors compete for the slice they get (Huck, Konrad, and Müller 2000), or that competitors can either invest in production, which increases the size of the cake, or in appropriation, which increases its slice (Grossman and Kim 1995, Grossman 2001). With the exception of Grossman (2001) size effects of an increase in the number of participants in the contest have been neglected. A predecessor of our model is the paper by Hirshleifer (1995) who analyzes a variant of the second contest for the cases of no and constant size effects (both terms will be made rigorous throughout the text).

The paper proceeds as follows: Section 2 presents the model. We derive the basic results in Section 3 and discuss further applications of the model in Section 4. Section 5 concludes.

### 2 The model

Consider a market for similar goods where  $n \geq 2$  producers indexed by *i* compete for customers. Assuming that goods are close substitutes, a change in producer's policy causes a change in demand which, however, is so small that competitors are not motivated to retaliate. Each producer chooses to invest  $a_i \in \mathbb{R}^+$  units of money in advertising to appropriate part of the gross market value *x*. The fraction  $p_i$  of the gross value, for short prize, that accrues to producer *i* is given by the Tullock *contest-success function* (CSF) (Tullock 1980),

$$p_i(a_1, ..., a_n) = \frac{a_i^b}{\sum_{j=1}^n a_j^b},$$
(1)

where  $b \in [0, 1]$  is the *decisiveness* parameter (Hirshleifer 1995) or the *discriminatory* power (Skaperdas 1995) of the CSF. From (1), investments do not change the fraction of the prize appropriated by competitors in the special case where  $b \to 0$ , and the marginal effectiveness of advertising has a maximum in cases where b = 1. Thus, other things equal, larger values of b tend to increase the level of investment in the contest. Since products are close substitutes, the potential customers' evaluation of the market depends on the number of producers, n, and potentially also on the level of direct investment,  $l_i$ , chosen by each competitor to increase the overall attractiveness of the marketplace. The total value of sales on the market, f, the market-value function, is then given by  $x = f(n; l_1, \ldots, l_n)$ . Introducing the parameter g to allow for a non-linear dependence between x and n, we use two different specifications of the market value function in the following:

- 1.  $x = f(n; l_1, ..., l_n) = n^g Z$ ,  $g \in [0, 2]$ , and the costs of appropriative investment are  $Z = a_i$ . This specification generalizes the contest analyzed in Grossman (2001).
- 2.  $x = f(n; l_1, ..., l_n) = n^g \sum_{j=1}^n l_j, g \in [0, 2]$ , and the competitors face a trade-off between appropriative and productive investments, where  $a_i + l_i = 1.^2$

Both, the contest-success function as well as the market-value function have the same interpretation as a standard production function that abstracts from the exact technological and organizational process of the production process.

Let us assume that competitors are risk neutral. We consider Nash equilibria of the game. Under the first specification, competitor i chooses  $a_i$  to

$$\max_{a_i} \quad u_i (a_1, \dots, a_n) = p_i (a_1, \dots, a_n) n^g Z - a_i,$$
(2)

and the first-order condition is:

$$\frac{du_i}{da_i} = \frac{\partial p_i}{\partial a_i} n^g Z - 1 = 0, \quad i = 1, \dots, n.$$
(3)

Hence, in the individual optimum, the marginal increase in the fraction of the market value accrued by competitor i is equal to the marginal costs caused by an increase in  $a_i$ . Under the second specification, competitor i solves

$$\max_{a_i} \quad u_i(a_1, \dots, a_n) = p_i(a_1, \dots, a_n) n^g \sum_{j=1}^n (1 - a_j), \tag{4}$$

which gives rise to the first-order condition:

$$\frac{du_i}{da_i} = \frac{\partial p_i}{\partial a_i} n^g \sum_{j=1}^n l_j - p_i n^g = 0, \quad i = 1, \dots, n.$$
(5)

<sup>&</sup>lt;sup>2</sup>We use a market value function that is linear in investments for analytical convenience. Using a Cobb-Douglas specification would not change the qualitative results that follow. A proof is available from the authors upon request.

Let us denote by  $a_i^*(a_{-i})$  the argument of maximization for both problems respectively, with  $a_{-i}$  denoting investments by all competitors except of i. A Nash equilibrium is a vector of investments  $\{a_1^N, \ldots, a_n^N\}$  such that  $a_i^N = a_i^*(a_{-i}^N)$  for all  $i = 1, \ldots, n$ . Under both specifications of the market value function, the simultaneous solution of the competitors' optimization problem gives rise to a unique symmetric Nash equilibrium.

With the first market-value function, the equilibrium investment in the contest  $a_i$ , the competitors' net equilibrium profit  $v_i$ , and the aggregate market surplus x, are

$$a_i = a_j = b(n-1)n^{g-2}Z,$$
 (6a)

$$v_i = v_j = (n + (1 - n)b)n^{g-2}Z,$$
 (6b)

$$x = (n + (1 - n)b)n^{g-1}Z,$$
(6c)

where x is the difference between total market value and aggregate costs of investments. Analogously we get for the second specification of the market-value function:

$$a_i = a_j = \frac{(n-1)b}{1+b(n-1)},$$
(7a)

$$v_i = v_j = \frac{n^g}{1 + b(n-1)},$$
(7b)

$$x = \frac{n^{g+1}}{1 + b(n-1)}.$$
 (7c)

It proves useful throughout the paper to introduce the concept of dissipation.<sup>3</sup> The rate of dissipation measures the fraction of the gross market value that is destroyed by investments in the contest. A contest implies under-dissipation if the sum of investments in the contest is smaller than the prize, x > 0. It implies over-dissipation if the sum of investments exceeds the prize, x > 0, and it implies complete dissipation if the sum of investments exactly balances the prize, x = 0.

### Lemma 1. There is under-dissipation in both contests.

*Proof:* Market-value function 1: Total investments in the contest are given by  $n a_i$ , and the total prize of the contest is  $n^g Z$ . Hence, x > 0 when  $n^g Z > n a_i$ . Using (6c) we find  $b(1-n) + n \leq 0$ , or  $b \geq n/(n-1) > 1$  as required by the Lemma. Market-value function 2: By the same token, under-dissipation implies x > 0. From (7c), x > 0 requires 1 + b(n-1) > 0, or (n-1) > -1/b, which is always fulfilled.  $\Box$ 

<sup>&</sup>lt;sup>3</sup>See Hillman and Samet (1987).

### 3 Analysis of size effects

### 3.1 Market-value function 1

# 3.1.1 Effects of changes in size effects, discriminatory power, and group size

We start the discussion of this section with an analysis of a market where competitors do not invest in its attractiveness. We first analyze the influence of the size parameter g on the equilibrium investment in the conflict and on the equilibrium value of competitors' net profit and the dissipation. Differentiation shows

$$\begin{aligned} \frac{\partial a_i}{\partial g} &= \ln(n) \, b \, (n-1) n^{g-2} Z > 0 & \Leftrightarrow \quad n > 1, \\ \frac{\partial v_i}{\partial g} &= \ln(n) \, (n+b(n-1)) \, n^{g-2} Z > 0 & \Leftrightarrow \quad \frac{n}{1-n} > b, \\ \frac{\partial x}{\partial g} &= \ln(n) \, (n+b(n-1)) \, n^{g-1} Z > 0 & \Leftrightarrow \quad \frac{n}{1-n} > b, \end{aligned}$$

An increase in size effects has a positive impact on individual investments in the contest, individual net profits, and aggregate market surplus for all meaningful values of n. This result has and interesting interpretation. Other things equal, an increase in g has a positive effect on the total gross market value. Since marginal costs are fixed to be equal to zero, investments in the contest become more attractive. Moreover, the additional marginal prize is less then fully dissipated by the increase in investments, which implies that the aggregate market surplus also increases. The conclusion is that competitors become more aggressive in their attempt to attract potential consumers. However, the sharper competition does not result in a utility loss in the presence of size effects.

Next let us discuss the effects of an increase of the number of competitors on  $a_i$ ,  $v_i$ , and x. We obtain:

$$\frac{\partial a_i}{\partial n} = (n + (n-1)(g-2))n^{g-3}bZ,$$
(8a)

$$\frac{\partial v_i}{\partial n} = ((g-1)n(1-b) + b(g-2)) n^{g-3}Z,$$
(8b)

$$\frac{\partial x}{\partial n} = \left(n(1-b)g + b(g-1)\right)n^{g-2}Z.$$
(8c)

To interpret (8) let us consider the benchmark case where size effects do not exist, g = 0. Inspection of (8) shows that the number of competitors has no influence on producers' policy. The argument is that none of the producers can profitably shift the distribution of the aggregate market surplus. More formally, we find that  $\partial a_i/\partial n \leq 0$ at b = 0. Moreover, an inspection of (8) shows that  $\partial v_i/\partial n \leq 0$  and  $\partial x/\partial n \leq 0$ at b = 0. Hence, the aggregate market surplus remains constant and the decrease of individual net profits is linear in the number of competitors.

If investments in the contest are productive, in the sense that competitors can shift some fraction of the total market surplus to their advantage by increasing  $a_i$ , then individual profits are no longer linearly decreasing in n. Increasing n reduces investments, individual net profits and the aggregate net surplus if b > 0. The reason is that the gross market value is fixed, which makes investments less attractive since the marginal profitability of investments decrease. Surprisingly, the positive effect of a reduction of wasteful investments in the contest does, however, not over-compensate the negative market-sharing effect resulting from intensified competition.

Let us allow for size effects now. An interesting scenario, which is based on previous work by Grossman (2001) for a an arbitrary but fixed number of competitors, is the case where the marginal size effect attributed to an additional competitor is constant. With g = 1, (8) simplify to

$$\begin{aligned} \frac{\partial a_i}{\partial n} &= b n^{-3} Z \ge 0, \\ \frac{\partial v_i}{\partial n} &= -b n^{-3} Z \le 0, \\ \frac{\partial x}{\partial n} &= (1-b) n^{-2} Z \ge 0. \end{aligned}$$

Assume that b > 0, to exclude the case discussed above. An increase in competition then increases the investment in the contest and competitors become more aggressive. The intuition is that the marginal return from investment increases when the aggregate net surplus is growing, causing a reduction of individual utility. Hence, taking the aggregate net market value as a proxi for welfare in this economy, there exists a discrepancy between the interest of the single competitor and the interest of a welfaremaximizing planner. To clarify the argument we make use of the Envelope theorem to derive the change in individual net profits as  $dv_i/dn = -da_i/dn$ , whereas the net market value changes by  $dx/dn = (Z - a_i) - n da_i/dn$ . With maximum discriminatory power, b = 1, the increase in the gross market size is exactly equalized by the increase in aggressiveness,  $\partial x/\partial n = 0$ . Hence, for a smaller discriminatory power, the positive market-value effect is less than offset by the increase in aggression.

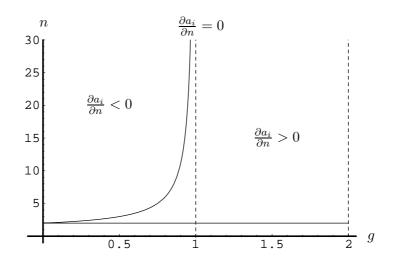


Figure 1: Effects of the size parameter and the number of competitors on appropriation.

This leads us to a discussion of the general case where  $g \ge 1$ . We start with a discussion of investment levels:

**Result 1.** *a.* If 
$$b = 0$$
,  $\partial a_i / \partial n = 0$ .  
*b.* If  $b > 0$  and  $g \ge 1$ ,  $\partial a_i / \partial n > 0$ .  
*c.* If  $b > 0$  and  $g < 1$ ,  $\partial a_i / \partial n \gtrless 0 \Leftrightarrow n \gtrless (g - 2)/(g - 1)$ .

Proof: The second term in (8a) is equal to zero if b = 0 which proves part a. To prove part b and c, let b > 0. For g = 1,  $\partial a_i / \partial n = bZn^{g-3} > 0$ . Note that  $\partial a / \partial n \geq 0$ if and only if  $n(g-1) \geq (g-2)$ . This implies  $n \leq (g-2)/(g-1)$  for g < 1 and  $n \geq (g-2)/(g-1)$  for g > 1. For g > 1 the latter condition is always fulfilled because  $(g-2)(g-1) \leq 0$ . When g < 1 then (g-2)/(g-1) approaches infinity if  $b \to 1$  and it vanishes if  $b \to 0$ . Hence,  $\partial a_i / \partial n$  depends on the relationship between n and g and the borderline is defined by n = (g-2)/(g-1).

The intuition for this result is as follows. A larger number of competitors implies that the prize has to be shared among a larger group. Given constant marginal costs, investments in the contest are profitable when the slice effect is over-compensated by the size effect for each competitor. This implies that b > 0 and the number of competitors has to be finite. If the number of competitors becomes infinite, the marginal effect of a single competitor becomes negligible. However, if size effects are too small, an increase in competition tends to reduce appropriative investments in the contest exactly because the slice effect dominates the size effect, the marginal return from investments decreases. Result 1 therefore shows that it is not the effect of competition that makes competitors more aggressive, but the creation of size effects.

Figure 1 gives a graphical representation of Result 1. The size parameter, g, is drawn on the horizontal axis and population size, n, is measured on the vertical axis. Investments in the contest are decreasing for all points above the dividing line  $\partial a_i/\partial n = 0$ , and increasing for all points below. Higher marginal size effects intensify the aggressiveness of competitors on the market. However, when marginal size effects are decreasing, then an increase in the number of competitors will finally temper the aggressiveness in the contest.

We now turn to the analysis of the effect of the number of competitors on the aggregate net value, x.

**Result 2.** *a.* If 
$$b = 0$$
,  $\partial x / \partial n \ge 0$ .  
*b.* If  $b > 0$  and  $g \ge 1$ ,  $\partial x / \partial n \ge 0$ .  
*c.* If  $b > 0$  and  $g < 1$ ,  $\partial x / \partial n \ge 0 \Leftrightarrow n \ge b(g-1)/(g(b-1))$ .

Proof: Part a follows directly from (8c). Recall that  $n \ge 2$ . Let b > 0 and note that  $\partial x/\partial n \ge 0$  if and only if  $n(1-b)g \ge b(g-1)$ , which is equivalent to  $n \ge b(1-g)/(g(1-b))$ . For g = 1 this boils down to  $n \ge 0$ . For g > 1 the limit of b(1-g)/(g(1-b)) for  $b \to 0$  is equal to 0 (from below), and it is equal to  $-\infty$  for  $b \to 1$ . For g < 0, the limit of b(1-g)/(g(1-b)) for  $b \to 1$ .

Result 2 demonstrates that an increase in the number of competitors does increase aggregate net production if there are increasing marginal returns to size or if the number of competitors is sufficiently large. The size effect over-compensates every increase in the discriminatory power if n increases. The intuition for this finding is closely related to the intuition for the change in a: if g > 1 the prize increases over-proportionally with the number of competitors. This makes the competitors more aggressive but the increase in output is not fully destroyed by an increase in a because of underdissipation. If there are decreasing marginal size effects, an additional competitor still adds to the aggregate value, however, this additional value decreases with an increase in n. Hence, the size effect decreases relatively to the slice effect, which is constant. This makes competitors less aggressive. However, this counterbalancing effect does not

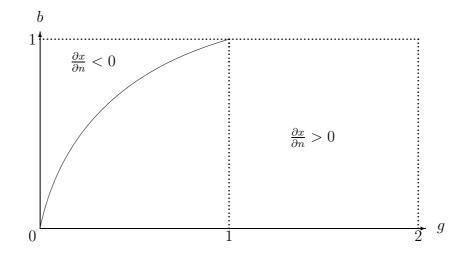


Figure 2: Change of net-aggregate wealth.

over-compensate the former effect because of under-dissipation. It should be pointed out that this result shows that there is a qualitative difference between models without size effects and models with decreasing or increasing marginal size effects: in a model without size effects the net aggregate value is linear in the number of competitors,  $\partial x/\partial n = -bZ$ , and the slope depends linearly on the discriminatory power of the contest. With size effects the slope can get positive. We will come back to this point when we discuss the optimal number of competitors in the contest.

Figures 2 and 3 illustrate Result 2. In Figure 2, the size parameter g is plotted along the horizontal axis and the decisiveness parameter b is plotted along the vertical axis for a given n.<sup>4</sup> For large values of b and small values of g, the total net value is decreasing in the market size, whereas the opposite is true for low values of b and large values of g. In Figure 3, b is drawn along the abscissa and n is drawn along the ordinate at given g < 1. The Figure illustrates that an increase in n raises aggregate net value for low values of b. However, if investments in the contest are effective and blarge, then an increase in group size leads to a reduction of aggregate net value.

Next we turn to an analysis of the change in individual net utility  $v_i$ .

<sup>&</sup>lt;sup>4</sup>In order to determine the slope and curvature of the curve  $\partial x/\partial n = 0$  use (8c) to get g = b/((1-b)n+b). The curve of this function is increasing and convex in b.

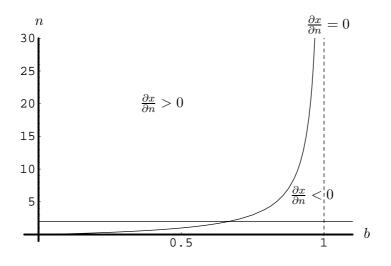


Figure 3: Effects of discriminatory power and the number of competitors on aggregate net value  $(g \leq 1)$ .

**Result 3.** *a.* If g < 1,  $\partial v_i / \partial n < 0$ . *b.* If  $g \ge 1$ ,  $\partial v_i / \partial n \ge 0 \Leftrightarrow n \le b(g-2)/((g-1)(1-b))$ .

*Proof:* Part a follows directly from (8b). Recall  $n \ge 2$ . Let b > 0 and note that  $\partial v_i / \partial n \ge 0$  if and only if  $n(g-1)(1-b) \ge b(g-2)$ , which is equivalent to

i. 
$$n \ge b(g-2)/((g-1)(1-b))$$
 for  $g > 1$ ,  
ii.  $n \le b(g-2)/((g-1)(1-b))$  for  $g < 1$ .

For g = 1 it follows immediately that  $\partial v_i / \partial n = -b < 0$ . In case i. the limit of the right-hand side for  $b \to 0$  is 0 (from below) and  $-\infty$  for  $b \to 1$ . Hence, the restriction  $\geq 2$  is binding, which implies that  $\partial v_i / \partial n > 0$ . In case ii. the limit of the right-hand side is 0 for  $b \to 0$  (from above) and  $\infty$  for  $b \to 1$ .

Result 3 implies that an increase in n increases the net utility of the competitors only if the size effects are large compared to the discriminatory power. The economic rationale of Result 3 is best understood when (8b) is evaluated for the boundary case where g = 2 and b = 1. Then, size and slice effects balance in a way that net utility is constant. As illustrated in Figure 4, the contest is less effective for low values of b, which implies that competitors lower their investments in aggression which leads to

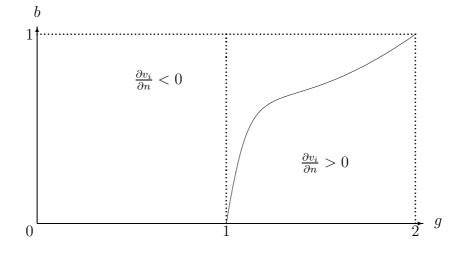


Figure 4: Change of individual utility.

an increase in individual utility. By the same token, individual utility decreases if size effects are less important.<sup>5</sup>

An interesting implication of Result 3 is that for sufficiently strong size effects (g > 1) individual utility is not monotonous in the number of competitors. It is *decreasing* up to a critical number of competitors and *increasing* thereafter. If n is relatively small, the negative slice effect of an increase in competition is relatively important and outweighs the size effect. However, increasing n implies that the slice effect is becoming less important. There exist pairs of (g, b) such that the slice effect is dominated by the size effect. This finding shows that the contest creates a J-curve effect that may hamper the development of markets if the marker grows steadily.

A comparison of Result 2 and Result 3 demonstrates that there may exist a discrepancy between the change in individual utility and aggregate net value when the number of competitors varies. Figure 5 unifies both conditions. The change in individual utility and net aggregate value has the same sign for extreme values of b and g. However, there exists an interval of 'intermediate' values for b and g where aggregate net value increases whereas net utility decreases. The intuition for this discrepancy is as follows. Recall that net aggregate value, x, is  $x = nv_i$ . Thus,  $\partial x/\partial n = v_i + n \partial v_i/\partial n$ . The

<sup>&</sup>lt;sup>5</sup>To determine the slope and curvature of the  $\partial v_i/\partial n = 0$ -curve use (8b) to get g = (n - (n + 2)b)/(n - (n+1)b). The first and second derivatives of this function show that the curve is increasing. It is convex in b as long as  $b \leq n/(n+1)$  and concave thereafter.

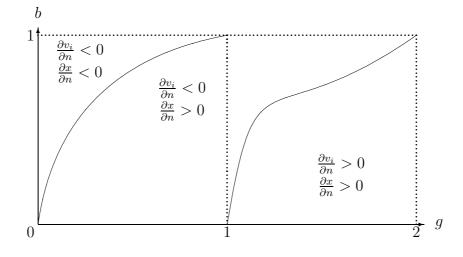


Figure 5: Comparison of changes in net-aggregate wealth and individual utility.

first term measures the effect of an additional competitors on aggregate utility, which is always positive. The second term measures the effect of an additional competitor on other competitors. This effect can be either positive or negative. Hence, if the individual utility is increasing, net aggregate value has to increase by definition. However, there is a region for which individual utility is decreasing but this decrease does not over-compensate the effect that a 'new' competitor adds to the aggregate. The effect on the 'old' competitors becomes dominant in cases where size effects are small and discriminatory power is large.

#### 3.1.2 The optimal number of competitors in the contest

A straightforward question is about the optimal number of competitors in the market. There are two perspectives from which we can determine the optimal number of competitors: from the competitors' perspective it is given by the number of competitors that maximizes net utility. From a social point of view the optimal number of competitors maximizes net aggregate value created on this market. Both measures do not necessarily lead to the same results as we demonstrate below. We start our discussion considering interior solutions.

**Lemma 2.** For b > 0 and  $\neg [g = 1 \land b = 1]$ , if  $\partial x / \partial n = 0$ , then  $\partial^2 x / \partial n^2 > 0$ , hence, every interior solution constitutes a minimum.

*Proof:* From Result 2 follows that an interior solution requires g < 1. In that case it is characterized by n = b(g-1)/(g(b-1)). This point is a maximum if the second-order condition is fulfilled at that point:

$$\begin{aligned} \frac{\partial^2 x}{\partial n^2} &= -\frac{b^{g-2}(g-1)^{g-2}}{(b-1)^{g-3}g^{g-3}}Z > 0\\ &= n^{g-2}(1-b)gZ > 0, \end{aligned}$$

where the second line follows from part c of Result 2.

**Lemma 3.** For b > 0 and  $\neg [g = 1 \land b = 1]$ , if  $\partial v_i / \partial n = 0$ , then  $\partial^2 v_i / \partial n^2 > 0$ , hence, every interior solution is a minimum.

*Proof:* We know from Result 3 that an interior solution requires g < 1. In this case it is characterized by n = b(g-2)/((g-1)(1-b)). It is a maximum if the second-order condition is fulfilled at that point:

$$\begin{aligned} \frac{\partial^2 v_i}{\partial n^2} &= \frac{b^{g-3}(2-g)^{g-3}}{(b-1)^{g-4}(g-1)^{g-4}}Z < 0\\ &= n^{g-3}(b-1)(g-1)Z > 0. \end{aligned}$$

Form part c. of Result 3 both, (b-1) and (g-1) are smaller then zero in an interior extremum.

Lemma 2 and Lemma 3 together imply that the competitors' or public optimal number of competitors is either 2 or  $\infty$  depending on the size effects and the discriminatory power. The next two results make this conjecture precise.

In order to determine the optimal size of the market we calculate the limit of x and  $v_i$  for  $n \to \infty$ . We get the following result for the net aggregate value.

**Result 4.** *a.* If  $b \in [0, 1)$ ,  $\lim_{n \to \infty} x$ 

$$= Z \text{ if } g = 0,$$
$$= \infty \text{ if } g \in (0, 2].$$

b. If b = 1,  $\lim_{n \to \infty} x$ 

= 0 if 
$$g \in [0, 1)$$
,  
= Z if  $g = 1$ ,  
=  $\infty$  if  $g \in (1, 2]$ .

*Proof:* We have to take the limit of  $x = (n + (1 - n)b)n^{g-1}Z$  for  $n \to \infty$ . It follows that

at 
$$b \in [0, 1)$$
,  $\lim_{n \to \infty} x = \begin{cases} Z, g = 0\\ \infty, g > 0 \end{cases}$ ,  
at  $b = 1$ ,  $\lim_{n \to \infty} x = \begin{cases} 0, g \in [0, 1)\\ Z, g = 1\\ \infty, g \in (1, 2] \end{cases}$ .

The above finding can be seen as a justification of the model of perfect competition: despite the fact that competitive pressure makes competitors more aggressive in fighting for customers, the net effect is positive if the size effect is large relative to the discriminatory power. The bang-bang character of the solution is a consequence of our assumption that size effect are either globally increasing, decreasing, or constant. This implies that the optimal market size is either minimal or maximal. A maximal market size is optimal if b < 1 and g > 0 or b = 1 and g > 1.

The effect on individual utility can be summarized as follows:

**Result 5.** *a.* If  $b \in [0, 1)$ ,  $\lim_{n \to \infty} v_i$ 

$$= 0 \text{ if } g \in [0, 1),$$
  
= Z if g = 1,  
=  $\infty$  if g \in (1, 2].

b. If b = 1,  $\lim_{n \to \infty} v_i$ 

$$= 0 \ if \ g \in [0, 2),$$
  
 $= Z \ if \ g = 2.$ 

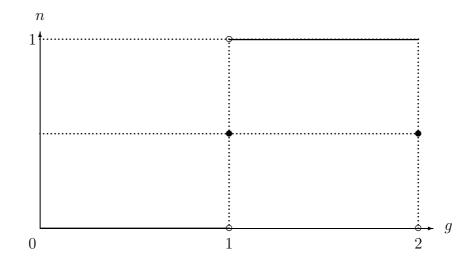


Figure 6: Optimal market size.

*Proof:* We have to take the limit of  $v_i = (n + (1 - n)b)n^{g-2}Z$  for  $n \to \infty$  and obtain

at 
$$b \in [0,1)$$
,  $\lim_{n \to \infty} v_i = \begin{cases} 0, g \in [0,1) \\ 1, b = 1 \\ \infty, g \in (1,2] \end{cases}$   
at  $b \in 1$ ,  $\lim_{n \to \infty} v_i = \begin{cases} 0, g \in [0,2) \\ Z, g = 2 \end{cases}$ .

It follows from our previous arguments that a maximal market size is optimal if b < 1and g > 0 or b = 1 and g > 1. Profits are equal to zero if  $b \in [0, 1)$  and  $g \in [0, 1)$  or if b = 1 and  $g \in [0, 2)$ . Market entry tends to eliminate profits for the competitors if the size effects are not too strong compared to the discriminatory power of the market contest.

A comparison of Result 4 and Result 5 reveals that the public and private evaluation of the optimal market size coincides for  $b \in [0, 1)$  and  $g \in (1, 2]$  and b = 1 and  $g \in [0, 1)$ respectively. They differ for  $b \in [0, 1)$  and  $g \in [0, 1]$  and b = 1 and  $g \in [1, 2]$ . Figure 6 shows the difference for the case of  $b \in [0, 1)$ .

There exists an interesting similarity between the literature on the optimal size of a population and our approach. It is a well-established result in the theory of optimal population size that, in a world with finite resources, sum-utilitarianism implies an infinite population with arbitrarily low individual utilities. This property of utilitarian welfare functions has been called the 'repugnant conclusion' by Parfitt (1984), see also Razin and Sadka (1995). On the other hand, average utilitarianism implies a minimal population with maximal individual utility.

Our results can be interpreted in the spirit of the repugnant conclusion. Individual utility,  $v_i$ , coincides with average utilitarianism and net aggregate value, x, with sum utilitarianism in our model. In our model, the repugnant conclusion does not occur as long as size effects are sufficiently weak ( $g \in [0, 1)$ ). The repugnant conclusion holds when marginal size effects are moderate ( $g \in (1, 2)$ ), since then individual utility and aggregate net value converge in opposite directions. However, if size effects are sufficiently strong ( $g \ge 2$ ), individual utility and aggregate net value converge in the same direction again. In our model, the general logic of the repugnant conclusion is obtained as a special case: if the value of the market grows at a slower rate as the number of competitors the repugnant conclusion does not occur. It occurs, however, in cases where the growth of the market exceeds the growth of the competitors moderately. The reason is that dissipation of part of the potential value in the contest requires a minimum size effect in order to guarantee increasing aggregate or individual utilities.<sup>6</sup>

Let us summarize the basic results of this Section:

- First, if size effects exist but are moderately low  $(g \in (0, 1))$  starting at n = 2an increase in the number of competitors increases aggressiveness if the number of competitors is small and decreases aggressiveness if it is large. The larger gthe larger becomes the critical number of competitors for which aggression is finally reduced. If  $g \in [1, 2]$  competitors unambiguously increase aggression if the number of competitors increases.
- This implies that for an increase in the number of competitors and  $g \in (0, 1)$ , aggregate net value is first decreasing and then increasing. It is unambiguously increasing if size effects are sufficiently strong  $(g \ge 1)$ .
- Individual utility is decreasing in the number of competitors if size effects are relatively small  $(g \ge 1)$ . However, if they are strong enough (g > 1) there exists

<sup>&</sup>lt;sup>6</sup>It is straightforward to show that, for b = 0 (there exists no conflict in the economy),  $\lim_{n\to\infty} u_i = 0, g < 1; Z, g = 1, \infty, g > 1$  and  $\lim_{n\to\infty} x = Z, g = 1, \infty, g > 1$ , which replicates the repugnant conclusion in its standard formulation for  $g \leq 1$ .

a critical number of competitors below which individual utility is decreasing and from which on individual utility is increasing.

### 3.2 Market-value function 2

In this section we will analyze if the results change when competitors face a tradeoff between investment in the contest success and investment in the market. Under this specification, an increase in the magnitude of the size effect, g, has the following influence on  $a_i$ ,  $v_i$ , and x:

$$\frac{\partial a_i}{\partial g} = 0, \tag{9a}$$

$$\frac{\partial v_i}{\partial g} = \frac{\ln(n)n^g}{1+b(n-1)} > 0, \tag{9b}$$

$$\frac{\partial x}{\partial g} = \frac{\ln(n)n^{g+1}}{1+b(n-1)} > 0.$$
(9c)

In contrast to the previous case where competitors cannot directly invest in the attractiveness of the market, optimal investments in the contest are independent of the magnitude of the size effect as can be seen from (9a). The reason is that an increase in g increases the marginal revenue of investments. In addition the increase in marginal costs exactly offsets the effects of an increase in g, leaving the marginal rate of transformation between investments in the contest and investments in the market unaffected. Since individual investment decisions are independent of the magnitude of the size effect, the increase in the gross prize caused by the increase in g is equal to the increase in the net prize, which is equally divided among competitors. This latter property explains why the power of the numerator in (9c) exceeds the power of the numerator in (9b) by one. Hence, individual net utility as well as the aggregate net surplus are increasing in g.

We can analyze the consequences of an increase in the number of competitors next:

$$\frac{\partial a_i}{\partial n} = \frac{b}{(1+b(n-1))^2},\tag{10a}$$

$$\frac{\partial v_i}{\partial n} = \frac{(g(1 - b(n-1)) - bn)n^{g-1}}{(1 + b(n-1))^2},$$
(10b)

$$\frac{\partial x}{\partial n} = \frac{(1+g+b(g(n-1)-1))n^g}{(1+b(n-1))^2}.$$
(10c)

It follows from (10a) follows that an increase in the number of competitors intensifies their aggressiveness.<sup>7</sup> The economic intuition is that investments in the attractiveness of the market create a positive externality for other competitors. Clearly, the associated free-rider problem is the more severe the larger is the number of competitors. In other words, the marginal rate of transformation between investments in the contest and investments in the market is a function of the number of competitors, which implies that aggressiveness intensifies if the number of competitors increases.

Following the route of the previous section, we will next analyze the benchmark case g = 0 before we turn to the analysis of the general case. For g = 0, equations (10b)-(10c) read

$$\begin{split} \frac{\partial v_i}{\partial n} &= -\frac{bn}{(1+b(n-1))^2} \leq 0\\ \frac{\partial x}{\partial n} &= \frac{1-b}{(1+b(n-1))^2} \geq 0. \end{split}$$

The net utility of the competitors is weakly decreasing in n. It remains constant if b = 0 because the market technology has constant returns to scale, which implies that the individual net utility is independent of the number of competitors. However, if b > 0 it is decreasing in n: if b = 1, aggregate net value is constant, hence, individual net utility has to decrease. By the same token, as long as net aggregate wealth increases by less then one, individual net utility has to decrease. For all b > the increase in net aggregate wealth is smaller than one because the market technology has constant returns to scale and there is a reallocation of investments in the direction of the contest.

Net aggregate value is weakly increasing in n because of under-dissipation: the potential increase in additional wealth is not completely offset by a reallocation of investments. Only in the case b = 1, aggregate wealth does not increase if the number of competitors increases.

Let us turn to the general case now. An inspection of (10c) reveals that  $\partial x/\partial n \geq 0$ for all values of b and g. Increasing the number of competitors increases aggregate net wealth. An increase of competitors intensifies aggressive behavior, but the waste caused does not over-compensate the size effect. We may summarize with:

**Result 6.**  $\partial x/\partial n \ge 0 \ \forall \ b \in [0,1], g \in [0,2].$ 

The general effect on  $v_i$  of a change in n is more involved and can be stated as follows:

<sup>&</sup>lt;sup>7</sup>Note that  $\partial a_i/\partial n$  is not a function of g since a is independent of g.

**Result 7.** a. If  $g \ge 1$  or g < 1 and g < 2b/(1+b) then there exists no interior maximum.

b. If g < 1 and  $g \ge 2b/(1+b)$  then there exists an interior maximum with  $n = \frac{(b-1)g}{b(g-1)} \ge 2$ .

Proof: (10b) implies that the value of n fulfilling the first-order conditions is given by  $n = \frac{(b-1)g}{b(g-1)}$ . Consistency requires that  $n = (b-1)g/(b(g-1)) \ge 2$ , which implies that  $g \ge 2b/(1+b) \Leftrightarrow g \le 1$ . g > 1 and g < 2b/(1+b) would imply b > 1, a contradiction. If g < 1 the condition g > 2b/(1+b) can be fulfilled: for  $b \to 0$  the right-hand side converges to 0. However, if  $b \to 1$  the term converges to 1, which implies that it is fulfilled if b is small relative to g.

Assume that the necessary condition for a maximum is fulfilled for  $n \ge 2$ . An evaluation of the second-order condition at that point shows

$$\frac{\partial^2 v_i}{\partial n^2} = b \left( \frac{g(b-1)}{b(g-1)} \right)^{g-1} \frac{(g-1)^3}{(b-1)^2}.$$

The term in large brackets is equal to n, which implies that the product of the first two terms is larger than zero for b > 0. The third term is smaller than zero because b < 0 and g < 0 by assumption.

We will clarify the implications of Result 7 after the derivation of the optimal number of competitors in the contest. Notice that Result 6 implies that x is maximized if  $n \to \infty$  because of the monotonicity in n. For  $v_i$  we have to compare the corner solutions n = 2 and  $n \to \infty$ . This leads to the following Result:

**Result 8.** *a.* If g > 1,  $n \to \infty$ .

b. If 
$$g = 1$$
  
i. and  $b = 1, n \in [2, \infty)$ ,  
ii. and  $b < 1, n = 2$ .  
c. If  $g < 1$   
i. and  $g > 2b/(1+b)$ ,  $n = (b-1)g/(b(g-1))$ ,  
ii. and  $g \le 2b/(1+b)$ ,  $n = 2$ .

*Proof:* Denote by  $n^*$  the optimal n. By the use of the rule of l'Hôpital, the limit of  $v_i$  with respect to n is equal to

$$\lim_{n \to \infty} Z \frac{n^g}{1 + b(n-1)} = \frac{gZ}{b} \lim_{n \to \infty} n^{g-1} = \begin{cases} \infty, g > 1\\ \frac{gZ}{b}, g = 1 \\ 0, g < 1 \end{cases}$$
(11)

On the other hand, for n = 2, we get  $v_i(2) = 2^g Z/(1+b)$ . A comparison of this value with (11) yields for g > 0:  $n^* \to \infty$ , for g = 1, and (i) b = 1:  $n^* \in [0, \infty)$ , or (ii) b < 1:  $n^* = 2$ . For g < 1 we get: (i) if g > 2b/(1+b):  $n^* = (b-1)g/b(g-1)$ , and (ii) if  $g \le 2b/(1+b)$ :  $n^* = 2$ , as required by Result 8.

Results 7 and 8 show that there exists no conflict of interest between the individual and the aggregate perspective for g > 1: both, individual utility and aggregate net value increase in the number of competitors in the market. However, this is not true if g < 1. In this case, the optimal number of competitors from the perspective of a single competitor depends on both, the discriminatory power in the contest, b, and the size effect, g. If the size effect is relatively small compared to the discriminatory power, an increase in competition unambiguously reduces individual utility. In contrast, if the size effect is relatively large, a critical number of competitors exists which constitutes an upper bound. Below this bound an increase in competition increases individual utility and above this bound individual utility is reduced. We can summarize our findings with the conclusion that a finite interior number of competitors exists at which individual utility is maximized.

The economic intuition for the result is related to the public-goods character of productive investments. Starting at n = 2 with a = b/(1+b), an increase in the number of competitors intensifies aggressive behavior. Since a converges to 1 for  $n \to \infty$ , the total of the time endowment is invested in aggression. If size effects are relatively strong compared to discriminatory power, tougher competition has a positive effect on individual utility. The reason is that the reduction of investments in the attractiveness of the market is over-compensated by the increase in marginal productivity of these investments. If the discriminatory power, however, is strong, the reduction in productivity causing a net utility loss. If, on the other hand, the discriminatory power is moderate but the number of competitors high, the increase in marginal productivity cannot over-compensate the decrease in productive investments since g < 1 for a large num-

ber of competitors. The implication is that there exists an interior optimal number of competitors from the point of view of the single competitor.

This finding extends the first contest model in two respects. First, without productive investments by the competitors individual utility is decreasing if g < 1 and may be either increasing or decreasing if g > 1. Extending the model by incorporating productive investments reduces the extend to which size effects are necessary in order to create positive effects of competition for the individual competitor. Second, we have seen that there exists a J-curve effect of increasing competitiveness if size effects are sufficiently strong, whereas this effect is inverted in the presence of productive investments.

### 4 Further applications

A re-interpretation of the model in the context of unstable property rights is straightforward:<sup>8</sup> in a situation of unstable property rights the production of private goods essentially creates a common pool from which each individual obtains a share according to its appropriative investments. Size effects exist in this contexts because of economies of scale and scope that result from a better organization of individuals. As has become clear in the present paper, better organization of individuals does, however, not imply that appropriation becomes less important.

Our results suggest that the production technology matters for the implications of size effects in anarchy. If size effects merely increase the stock of goods that can be distributed, our model implies that for large size effects individuals either organize in very small or very large groups (families and nations, respectively). If the initial group is small and the group size has to be extended continuously, a growth trap may exist because of the J-curved shape of individual utility in population size. If size effects are small, however, it is optimal from an individual point of view to organize in small units.

In the extended model with productive investments, size effects may merely increase the return from productive investments. If size effects are sufficiently small but still large enough compared to the discriminatory power of the contest, our model implies

<sup>&</sup>lt;sup>8</sup>See Grossman and Kim (1995), Grossman (2001) and Skaperdas (1992) for similar models with an exogenous population size. Hirshleifer (1995) discusses a model where the population size is endogenized without fully exploiting the consequences of this extension

that there exists a finite group size larger than 2 that maximizes individual utility. This finding can be interpreted as the formation of a tribe or a village. The mechanisms that are responsible for welfare-improvements if the group size increases are comparable to those discussed in the literature on agglomeration (see for example Krugman 1995), namely returns to scale. However, the counterbalancing effect that explains a finite group size differs in our approach. The literature on agglomeration focuses on transportation costs and crowding. In contrast, our focus is on the absence or instability of property rights. As we have demonstrated, appropriative activities are an alternative explanation for a finite group size even in the presence of globally increasing returns to scale.

### 5 Conclusions

In this paper we have analyzed the impact of size effects on contest equilibria. A primary focus of the analysis has been to explore the consequences of an increase in the number of competitors involved in the contest on the aggressiveness of the equilibria and the individual and aggregate utilities of the competitors. Our results show that the structure of contest equilibria crucially depends on the structure of the size effect. We have analyzed a situation where the number of agents increases the size of the prize to be distributed and a situation where the number of agents increases the marginal effectiveness of productive investments.

Size effects have a natural interpretation in the analysis of competitive forces on markets where competitors are confronted with two opposing effects. First, the number of competitors increases the attractiveness of the market from the point of view of the customers, which, in turn, increases aggregate profits that can be earned on this market. On the other hand, an increase in competition reduces the slice of the market a single competitor attracts. Hence, he will react by changing his advertising efforts to attract customers. Our model shows that an increase in competition may have positive as well as negative effects on the single competitors, and that the structure of these effects depends on the structure of the size effects.

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