Schmidt, Klaus M.

Working Paper

Complementary Patents and Market Structure

SFB/TR 15 Discussion Paper, No. 274

Provided in Cooperation with:
Free University of Berlin, Humboldt University of Berlin, University of Bonn, University of Mannheim, University of Munich, Collaborative Research Center Transregio 15: Governance and the Efficiency of Economic Systems


This Version is available at:
http://hdl.handle.net/10419/94027

Terms of use:
Documents in EconStor may be saved and copied for your personal and scholarly purposes. You are not to copy documents for public or commercial purposes, to exhibit the documents publicly, to make them publicly available on the internet, or to distribute or otherwise use the documents in public. If the documents have been made available under an Open Content Licence (especially Creative Commons Licences), you may exercise further usage rights as specified in the indicated licence.
Discussion Paper No. 274
Complementary Patents and Market Structure

Klaus M. Schmidt *

* University of Munich, CESifo and CEPR

September 2009

Financial support from the Deutsche Forschungsgemeinschaft through SFB/TR 15 is gratefully acknowledged.
ABSTRACT: Many high technology goods are based on standards that require several essential patents owned by different IP holders. This gives rise to a complements and a double mark-up problem. We compare the welfare effects of two different business strategies dealing with these problems. Vertical integration of an IP holder and a downstream producer solves the double mark-up problem between these firms. Nevertheless, it may raise royalty rates and reduce output as compared to non-integration. Horizontal integration of IP holders solves the complements problem but not the double mark-up problem. Vertical integration discourages entry and reduces innovation incentives, while horizontal integration always benefits from entry and innovation.

Keywords: IP rights, complementary patents, standards, licensing, patent pool, vertical integration.

JEL Classification Codes: L1, L4.

∗ I would like to thank Jan Bender, Anne Layne-Farrar, Felix Höffler, Volker Nocke, Jorge Padilla, and seminar participants at Bern University and at the Bologna-Tilburg workshop on “Patent Policy and Innovation” for valuable comments and suggestions. Financial support from the Deutsche Forschungsgemeinschaft through SFB/TR 15 and from Qualcomm Corporation is gratefully acknowledged. The ideas and opinions in this paper are solely my own.

a) Klaus M. Schmidt, Department of Economics, University of Munich, Ludwigstrasse 28, D-80539 Muenchen, Germany, klaus.schmidt@LMU.de.
1. Introduction

High technology products such as cell phones or electronic memory devices are often based on technological standards that require the use of dozens or even hundreds of essential patents owned by different IP holders. By definition an essential patent is strictly necessary for the standard, either because it is legally impossible or prohibitively expensive to do without it.\(^1\) If a downstream firm wants to produce goods that are based on the standard it requires access to each of the essential patents. This “patent thicket” (Shapiro, 2001) gives rise to a complements effect: each patent holder does not internalize the negative external effect on the revenues of the other patent holders when setting his royalties, so the sum of all royalties will be inefficiently high. In addition, there is the well known vertical double mark-up effect that further raises royalties. Many standard setting organisations see these problems and require their members to charge “reasonable and non-discriminatory” (RAND) royalties.\(^2\) There is a consensus that RAND commitments prevent outright refusal to license and exclusive licensing, but there seem to be no additional constraints implied by RAND, in particular concerning royalties. As Swanson and Baumol (2005) point out: “It is widely acknowledged that, in fact, there are no generally agreed tests to determine whether a particular license does or does not satisfy a RAND commitment”. Thus, a reference to RAND hardly restricts the pricing policies of patent holders.

Firms are using two different business strategies to deal with these externalities. One strategy is vertical integration. For example, in the mobile phone industry some firms such as Nokia or Sony Ericson not only own essential patents to the WCDMA standard, they also produce handsets on the downstream market. By vertically integrating they eliminate the double mark-up problem within the integrated firm (but not between firms). Another strategy is horizontal integration on the upstream market. This can be achieved by forming a patent pool that licences some (or all) essential patents as a bundle at a jointly set royalty rate. For example, there are two mutually exclusive patent pools on the DVD standard, both of which need to be licensed to produce goods that are compliant with the standard.\(^3\) Alternatively, one

---

\(^1\) A patent is “legally essential” for a standard if the standard cannot be implemented without infringing the patent. It is “commercially essential” if it is prohibitively expensive to implement the standard without the patent, even if this is technologically feasible. See Layne-Farrar and Lerner (2008, p. 9). In reality it is not always obvious whether a patent is essential or not. Patent holders have a strong incentive to overstate the importance of their IP rights. Furthermore, it is often unclear whether a patent will survive if it is challenged in court. For a more detailed discussion of these problems see Lemley and Shapiro (2007) and Dewatripont and Legros (2008). In this paper we do not consider these problems and assume that it is common knowledge which patents are in fact essential.

\(^2\) In Europe, most SSOs require royalties to be “fair” in addition.

\(^3\) See Layne-Farrar and Lerner (2008, p. 7).
patent holder can acquire additional essential patents or pass through rights from other patent holders and then licence his patent in conjunction with the pass through right to use the other essential patents as well. This strategy has been employed by Qualcomm on markets for mobile phone communication.

These different business strategies have been treated differently by anti-trust authorities. Vertical integration is generally considered to be beneficial because it is seen as a remedy against the double mark-up problem. Horizontal integration is more controversial. For many decades patent pools were perceived as a collusion device. While this perception has changed after the U.S. Department of Justice approved the MPEG-2 patent pool in 1997 and the two DVD patent pools shortly thereafter,\(^4\) patent holders that acquire other patents without practicing them are seen with increasing suspicion. Non-practicing patent-holders have been associated with “patent trolls” and have been denied injunctive relief and lost profit damages when their patents got infringed on the grounds that they did not use their patents to manufacture themselves.\(^5\)

In this paper we compare the two business strategies of vertical and horizontal integration.\(^6\) We analyze the effects of different market structures on upstream royalties, downstream prices, entry decisions and incentives to innovate. Our model of the downstream market is very general and allows for all kinds of downstream market interaction (competition in prices, quantities, product differentiation, advertising, etc.) as long as a weak regularity condition is satisfied. As a base line we consider a market structure in which upstream and downstream firms are non-integrated and where linear royalties have to be used upstream. Then we ask how the market outcome changes if some (or all) upstream firms vertically integrate with some downstream firms. It turns out that even though vertical integration partially solves the vertical double mark-up problem it may result in higher royalties and less production on the downstream market than non-integration. This is due to the fact that a vertically integrated firm has an incentive to raise its royalty rate in order to raise its rivals’ cost. In contrast, horizontal integration of upstream firms is always beneficial and unambiguously reduces the complements problem. We show that if the number of

\(^4\) The Department of Justice and the Federal Trade Commission have softened this stance in their joint report on antitrust and IP issued April 2007 (http://www.ftc.gov/opa/2007/04/ipreport.shtm). Now they acknowledge that including substitute patents need not be anti-competitive. Patent pools will be reviewed according to the rule of reason in the future. See Layne-Farrar and Lerner (2008) and Gilbert (2002) for more on the history of patent pools and the shift of US policy.


\(^6\) In our model the optimal solution is always full integration. However, in reality this is rarely achieved because there are too many different parties involved that often have an incentive to free ride on the integration efforts of the other market participants. See Aoki and Nagaoka (2004) and Layne-Farrar and Lerner (2008).
downstream firms is sufficiently large, horizontal integration always outperforms vertical integration.

We also consider the use of two-part tariffs. It is well known that two-part tariffs can be used to solve the double mark-up problem in a vertical relationship of two firms that both have market power. We show that it can also be used to solve the complements problem (together with the double mark-up problem) under all market structures. This is particularly simple if all upstream firms are horizontally integrated. If firms are non-integrated there exists a symmetric pure strategy equilibrium in which all upstream firms charge two-part tariffs that solve the complements and the double mark-up problem. If firms are vertically integrated, however, this equilibrium fails to exist if there are sufficiently many firms. In this case efficiency can be achieved in an asymmetric equilibrium with the awkward property that one firm monopolizes the downstream market but makes zero profits, while all the other vertically integrated firms do not produce downstream but extract all the monopoly profits from the producing firm with their fixed fees. Thus, it seems less likely that firms manage to coordinate on the efficient equilibrium under vertical integration than under horizontal integration.

Perhaps even more important than the effects of market structure on prices are the effects on entry and innovation. We show that vertically integrated firms have an incentive to discriminate against entrants on the downstream market in order to raise their rival’s cost which is not the case for a horizontally integrated or a non-integrated upstream firm. Then we consider the incentives of an upstream firm to innovate and invest in an improvement of the standard. This improvement may reduce downstream production costs, it may make the products based on the standard more valuable to consumers, or it may open the door to new applications. No matter what the benefits of the innovation are, the incentives to innovate are smaller the more firms there are on the upstream market. The reason is that the innovator requires access to all the other patents in the standard. The more IP holders there are, the smaller are the profits that can be generated with any given innovation and the more reluctant the incumbent IP holders are to include an additional essential patent in the standard. Thus, horizontal integration on the upstream market is an important instrument to stimulate innovation.

We conclude that the current shift in US competition policy to permit patent pools for complementary patents is a move in the right direction. However, there is no reason to discriminate against other forms of horizontal integration such as the acquisition of patent rights by non-practicing patent holders. Our analysis shows that vertically integrated and non-integrated patent holders have indeed different incentives to set their royalties, but the
presumption that a non-practicing patent holder will always choose higher royalties than a vertically integrated one is not justified.

Our paper is closely related to the growing literature on patent pools and complementary patents. Shapiro (2001) discusses the case of patents that are perfect complements and argues that patent pools and cross licensing agreements can be a solution to the complements problem. Lerner and Tirole (2004) argue that it is often not obvious whether patents are complements or substitutes. They show that patent pools that are based on complementary patents are welfare increasing, while patents that include substitutes reduce competition and welfare. Furthermore, if patents are complements, patent pools will allow for independent licensing, while patent pools that include substitutes will not do so. This is confirmed empirically by Lerner, Stojwas and Tirole (2006). They propose independent licensing as a screening device to be used by anti-trust authorities to distinguish between welfare increasing and welfare reducing patent pools. Aoki and Nagaoka (2004) consider the free rider problem that arises in the process of the formation of a patent pool. Each upstream firm benefits if other firms join the pool and reduce their royalties, but it may be profitable for each firm to stay out. None of these papers considers the effects of vertical integration nor do they analyse the effects on entry and innovation.

Layne-Farrar and Lerner (2008) provide an empirical investigation of the different sharing rules employed in modern patent pools and the factors that affect the decision of an IP holder to join a patent pool. They find that vertically integrated firms are more likely to join a pool and that IP holders with more valuable patents are less likely to join if the pool shares profits proportional to the number of essential patents.

Layne-Farrar, Padilla and Schmalensee (2006) discuss potential methods for assessing whether licensing terms are “fair, reasonable and non-discriminatory” (FRAND). They argue that patents that make a greater contribution to the value of the standard should be allowed to charge higher royalties. Gilbert and Katz (2007) analyze different sharing rules in patent pools and their impact on the incentives to develop new technology. In our model, all upstream firms are symmetric, so the sharing rule is trivially the equal split.

Our paper is also related to the literature on raising rivals’ costs strategies by vertically integrated firms. Salop and Sheffman (1983, 1987) consider a dominant firm that can affect marginal and average costs of a competitive fringe. They show that the dominant firm will raise its rivals’ cost in order to either foreclose the market or to induce competitors to raise their prices and to relax competition. Ordover, Saloner and Salop (1990) consider a two-stage
duopoly model with price competition and differentiated products. In their model there is a foreclosure effect only if downstream firms compete in prices. Goods produced upstream are perfect substitutes. In our model upstream goods are perfect complements and our results hold for any form of downstream competition. Kim (2004) analyses a model similar to ours, but he only considers Cournot competition with linear demand on the downstream market and he does not analyze the implications for entry and innovation.

The remainder of the paper is organized as follows. In Section 2 we set up a very general model of a vertically structured industry in which all upstream goods are perfect complements. Section 3 restricts attention to linear royalties and compares a market structure where all firms are non-integrated to market structures where some firms are vertically or horizontally integrated. Section 4 allows for two-part tariffs. In Section 5 we discuss the effect of different market structures on entry on the same or another (unrelated) downstream market. In Section 6 we consider the incentives of upstream firms to innovate. Section 7 concludes and discusses the application of the model to other industries with complementary inputs such as rail or electricity networks.

2. The Model

Consider an industry with an upstream and a downstream market. The crucial feature of the upstream market is that the goods offered upstream are perfect complements, all of which are required for downstream production. This is the case in many high technology industries with direct or indirect network externalities in which firms agreed to technological standards to make sure that their products can interoperate or that they are compatible to complementary products. For example, the GSM or WCDMA standards on the telecommunication market guarantee that different handsets can communicate with each other, and the BlueRay and HD-DVD standards ensure that high definition video discs are compatible with DVD players produced by different companies. Typically, a standard requires access to a number of complementary patents that are often owned by different IP holders.

On the upstream market there are \( m \) firms, indexed by \( u = 1, \ldots, m \). Each upstream firm owns one essential patent. The costs for developing patents are sunk. Upstream firms license their patents at non-discriminatory, linear royalties \( r_u \). Linear royalties are frequently used in many industries because of their simplicity and their risk-sharing properties (see
Section 3). In Section 4 we also consider the case where upstream firms can charge two-part tariffs and show that our main qualitative arguments are unaffected.

On the downstream market there are \( n \) symmetric firms, indexed by \( d = 1, \ldots, n \). The focus of the analysis is on the royalties charged on the upstream market. Therefore, we want to keep the downstream market as general as possible. We assume that each downstream firm chooses an action vector \( x_d \in X_d \subseteq \mathbb{R}^K \) that affects the quantities of the (possibly differentiated) goods that the firm itself and its competitors sell on the downstream market.\(^7\) In the simplest interpretation each firm chooses its quantity \( q_d \) directly, so \( x_d = q_d \) and \( X_d = \mathbb{R}^n \). However, downstream firms may also decide on price, advertising, marketing, sabotage or other business strategies. In this case \( x_d \) is a vector with \( x_d \in X_d \) where \( X_d \) is a subset of some multi-dimensional Euclidean space.

The production of one unit of each of the downstream goods requires full access to all patents. Thus, if downstream firms produce \( q_d \), \( d = 1, \ldots, n \), then each upstream firm sells \( Q = \sum_{d=1}^{n} q_d \) licenses. In the basic model we assume that all fixed costs are sunk and that downstream firms are symmetric and all incur the same marginal production cost \( k \). In addition, each downstream firm has to pay linear royalties \( r = \sum_{u=1}^{n} r_u \) for each unit of production. Thus, total marginal cost is \( c_d = k + \sum_{u=1}^{n} r_u \).

The time structure of the game is as follows: At stage 1, all upstream firms set their royalty rates simultaneously. At stage 2, all downstream firms observe the royalty rates and choose \( x_d \in X_d \) simultaneously. The quantity sold by each firm and the total quantity are functions of the action profile \( x = (x_1, \ldots, x_n) \). The following regularity assumption is needed to make sure that we can do comparative statics in order to compare different royalty structures.

**Assumption 1:** For any vector of royalties \( \vec{r} = (r_1, \ldots, r_n) \) and any corresponding vector of marginal costs \( \vec{c} = (c_1, \ldots, c_n) \) there exists a unique pure strategy Nash equilibrium \( x^*(\vec{r}) \) of the downstream market game at stage 2 that gives rise to quantities

\(^7\) See Höffler and Kranz (2007).
\( \left( q_1(x^r), \ldots, q_n(x^r) \right) \text{ with } Q(x^r) = \sum_{d=1}^{n} q_d(x^r). \) If firm \( d \)'s marginal cost \( c_d \) increases, its equilibrium quantity \( q_d \) decreases. Total equilibrium quantity \( Q \) is continuous and decreasing in the marginal cost \( c_d \) of each firm \( d, d \in \{1, \ldots, n\} \).

The first part of Assumption 1 requires the existence of a unique equilibrium in the downstream market game. If there are multiple equilibria a comparative static analysis is possible only with respect to the set of equilibria. Some of our results continue to hold in this case, but the analysis is messy and not insightful. Therefore, we restrict attention to the case of a unique downstream equilibrium. The second part of Assumption 1 saying that the equilibrium production level of each firm is a decreasing function of its own marginal cost and that total production decreases as well is very natural and holds quite generally. Dixit (1986) shows that it is satisfied in duopoly models of price and quantity competition with very general demand functions, and in oligopoly models with homogenous goods for both Bertrand and Cournot competition.

Because we do not impose a specific model of downstream competition and do not postulate any specific demand functions derived from the preferences of rational consumers we cannot compute consumer surplus and social welfare directly. This is the price of the generality of our model. However, this price is small, because we can compare the market outcome under different market structures to the outcome that would obtain if there were no contracting problems and firms could solve the complements and the double mark-up problem perfectly, i.e. if all upstream and all downstream firms could agree on a set of royalties that maximize total industry profits. This is called the “full integration outcome”. It turns out that in all the cases we consider the market outcome involves higher royalties and lower total quantities than this full integration benchmark. By definition the full integration benchmark maximizes industry profits. Furthermore, all standard models of oligopoly imply that if total quantity \( Q \) is smaller than the quantity chosen by a fully integrated monopolist, then an increase of \( Q \) is associated with an increase of consumer surplus. Therefore, in these cases we will say that an increase of \( Q \) increases social welfare.

For simplicity we suppress the reference to the action profile \( x^* \) and use \( q_d(x^r) = q_d(x^r) \) and \( Q(x^r) = Q(x^r) \) in the following.
3. Linear Royalties under Different Market Structures

In this section we characterize the royalties that obtain under different market structures. Upstream firms are restricted to use non-discriminatory, linear royalties. Linear royalties are predominantly used in practice because of their risk-sharing properties. If downstream demand is uncertain, a linear royalty rate shares the risk between upstream and downstream firms, while a fixed fee shifts all the risk to downstream firms. In fact, Layne-Farrar and Lerner (2008, p. 10) report that linear royalties were used by all the patent pools they investigated. We compare the case of non-integration, where all upstream and downstream firms are owned separately and set royalties and downstream prices independently, to the cases of vertical integration, where some (or all) upstream firms are vertically integrated with some downstream firms, and horizontal integration on the upstream market, where several or all patents are owned by one firm. An alternative interpretation of horizontal integration is a patent pool that jointly licenses all patents in a bundle.

3.1 Non-integration

At stage 1 each upstream firm maximizes \( \Pi_u = r_u Q(r_u, r) \). Note that \( c_d = k + \sum_{u=1}^{m} r_u \). Thus, by Assumption 1, \( Q \) is a continuous function of \( r_u \) and depends on \( r = \sum_{u=1}^{n} r_u \) only. The following standard assumption is required to guarantee the existence of a unique equilibrium in the royalty setting game.

**Assumption 2:** The marginal revenue of upstream firm \( u \) from increasing its royalty \( r_u \) does not increase if other firms increase their royalty rates, i.e.

\[
\frac{\partial^3 \Pi_u}{\partial r_u \partial r_j} = \frac{\partial Q}{\partial r} + r_u \frac{\partial^2 Q}{\partial r^2} < 0
\]  

(1)

This assumption is very natural. If firm \( j \) increases its royalty rate, total quantity on the downstream market is reduced (by Assumption 1). This makes it less attractive for firm \( u \) to raise its royalty rate which would reduce the number of licenses sold to the downstream
market even further. Assumption 2 implies the existence of a unique pure strategy equilibrium in the royalty setting game (see Proposition 1). Without this assumption a comparative static analysis would be much more difficult.

**Proposition 1:** There exists a unique pure strategy equilibrium in the royalty setting game at stage 1.

Proof: See Appendix.

In equilibrium each upstream firm maximizes its profits \( \Pi_u = r_u Q(r_u, r_{-u}) \). Because all firms are symmetric they all charge the same royalty rate \( r_u^{NI} \) that is fully characterized by the first order condition

\[
\frac{\partial \Pi_u}{\partial r_u} = \frac{Q}{>0} + \frac{\partial Q}{\partial r_u} \cdot r_u^{NI} = 0
\]

where the superscript \( NI \) stands for “Non-integration”.

As a reference point, suppose that all upstream and all downstream firms can agree on a set of royalties that maximize total industry profits, but they cannot restrict the actions chosen on the downstream market. This is called the “full integration” outcome or benchmark. Total industry profits are given by

\[
\Pi = r_u Q(r_u, r_{-u}) + \sum_{j \neq u} r_j Q(r_u, r_{-u}) + \sum_{d=1}^{\infty} \Pi_d (r_u, r_{-u})
\]

Comparing the objective function (2) of a single upstream firm to total profits (3), we see that each upstream firm does not take into account the impact of its own royalty rate on the profits of all other upstream firms, nor on the profits of all downstream firms nor on consumer surplus.

**Proposition 2:** In equilibrium royalties are too high as compared to the royalties in the full integration benchmark. By increasing its royalty rate firm \( u \) exerts two negative externalities:

- by reducing total quantity \( Q \) it reduces the profits of the other upstream firms (complements effect)

---

8 The same assumption is imposed in any Cournot game to guarantee existence of a pure strategy equilibrium. See Novshek (1985) and Shapiro (1989).
by raising the total royalty burden it reduces the profits of the downstream firms (double mark-up effect)

Proof: The first order conditions for the maximization of total industry profits require for all \( u = 1, \ldots, n \):

\[
\frac{\partial \Pi}{\partial r_u} = Q(r^{FI}) + \sum_{v \neq u} \frac{\partial Q(r^{FI})}{\partial r_v} r_v^{FI} + \sum_{d=1}^{m} \frac{\partial \Pi_d}{\partial r_u} = 0 \quad (4)
\]

where \( r^{FI} = \sum_{u=1}^{n} r_u^{FI} \) and the superscript “\( FI \)” stands for “Full Integration”. Note that only the sum of royalties matters for total industry profits, while the distribution across upstream firms is irrelevant. Therefore, we impose w.l.o.g. \( r_1^{FI} = \ldots = r_m^{FI} \). If all upstream firms choose the optimal royalties under full integration total quantity is \( Q(r^{FI}) \). Comparing (4) to (2) it is straightforward to see that in this case the first derivative of each firm’s profit function is strictly positive. Thus, this cannot be an equilibrium. Each firm would have an incentive to increase its royalty \( r_u \) until (2) is satisfied. Hence, \( r_u^{NI} > r_u^{FI} \). Q.E.D.

The complements effect has first been observed by Cournot (1838, Chapter 9). It stems from the fact that the goods produced by the upstream firms are perfect complements that are sold by independent firms. The double mark-up effect is due to the vertical chain of producers that all have market power. Upstream firms have a monopoly on their patents that are essential inputs for downstream firms that also have market power and impose an additional mark-up when they sell to consumers.

3.2 Vertical Integration

Suppose now that \( l \) upstream firms and \( l \) downstream firms vertically integrate, one upstream firm with one downstream firm each. Thus, we now have \( l \) vertically integrated firms, \( m-l \) non-integrated upstream firms, and \( n-l \) non-integrated downstream firms. At the first stage the non-integrated upstream firms and the upstream divisions of the vertically integrated firms set linear royalties \( r_i, i = 1, \ldots, m \). At the second stage the non-integrated downstream firms and
the downstream divisions of the vertically integrated firms choose action vectors $x_d$ giving rise to quantities $q_d, \ d = 1,\ldots, n$, on the downstream market. By Assumption 1 there exists a unique Nash equilibrium in the Cournot game at stage 2. Furthermore, Assumption 1 implies:

**Corollary 1:** If firms charge the same royalties under non-integration and under vertical integration, then the total quantity produced is larger the more upstream firms are vertically integrated.

**Proof:** Under vertical integration a firm does not have to pay royalties to its own upstream division. Therefore, if royalties are the same, the marginal costs of each vertically integrated firm are lower than the cost of a non-integrated firm:

$$c_i^{NI} = k + \sum_{j \neq i} r_j > k + \sum_{j \neq i} r_j = c_i^{VI}$$

By Assumption 1, total equilibrium quantity $Q$ increases if the marginal cost of one firm decreases. Therefore, $Q$ increases if upstream firms vertically integrate. \[Q.E.D.\]

The result suggests that vertical integration is beneficial because it raises total quantity. However, this need not be the case. Corollary 1 assumes that royalty rates are the same under non-integration and vertical integration. This could be the case if prices on the upstream market are regulated by the same price cap that is binding under both market structures. However, if firms are not constrained in their royalties they will choose different royalty rates under different market structures.

What royalties will be chosen under vertical integration? When a vertically integrated firm sets its royalty rate, it internalizes the effect on the profits of its own downstream division. Thus, vertical integration solves the double mark-up problem within each firm. However, there are still three negative externalities:

1. The well known double mark-up problem across firms remains, because firm $i$ does not take into account the effect of its own royalty $r_i$ on firm $j$’s downstream profit.
2. Furthermore, a vertically integrated firm does not internalize the effect of its royalty rate on the upstream profits of the other firms. Thus, vertical integration does not solve the complements problem.
3. Finally, there is a new externality that does not exist under non-integration nor under horizontal integration. This is the “raising one’s rivals’ costs” effect: The higher the royalty charged by firm $i$ the higher are the costs of the other firms active on the downstream market, while firm $i$’s costs are unaffected. This induces firm $i$ to raise its royalties in order to raise its rivals’ costs.

Because all of these externalities are negative, royalties in a vertically integrated industry are too high.

**Proposition 3:** Royalties chosen if all upstream firms are vertically integrated are larger than the royalties in the full integration benchmark.

**Proof:** See Appendix.

The more interesting question is whether vertical integration is superior to non-integration. Perhaps surprisingly this is not necessarily the case. Vertically integrated firms may charge higher royalties and induce a less efficient market outcome than non-integrated firms.

At stage 1, vertically integrated firm $v$ chooses royalty $r_v$ in order to maximize the sum of profits in its upstream and downstream division:\(^9\)

$$\Pi_v = r_v Q_v^u (r) + q_v(r) \cdot [P(Q_v^u(r)) - c_v(r)]$$  \hspace{1cm} (6)

Differentiating with respect to $r_v$ the FOC for the optimal $r_v$ requires:

$$\frac{\partial \Pi_v}{\partial r_v} = Q_v^u + \frac{\partial Q_v^u}{\partial r_v} \cdot r_v + \left[ \frac{\partial P}{\partial Q} \cdot \frac{\partial Q_v^u}{\partial r_v} - 1 \right] \cdot q_v + \left[ P - k - \sum_{j=1}^{a} r_j \right] \frac{\partial q_v}{\partial r_v}$$  \hspace{1cm} (7)

The first two terms correspond to the FOC under non-integration: An increase in $r_v$ raises revenues per unit of output, but it reduces the quantity of output. The last two terms reflect the effect of an increase of $r_v$ on downstream profits and have no analogue under non-integration.

\(^9\) Note that the royalty income from its own downstream division is a cost of the downstream division and thus cancels out in the profit function. However, it will be convenient to keep these two terms separate in order to facilitate the comparison of the first order conditions.
Consider the third term first: By increasing its royalty rate \( r_v \) firm \( v \) raises the costs of all downstream firms which increases the market price. However, it also increases the cost of its own downstream division, so profits of the downstream division are reduced. Because firm \( v \) internalizes this vertical double mark-up problem it has an incentive to moderate its royalty rate as compared to a non-integrated upstream firm.

However, there is a forth effect that works in the opposite direction: By raising its royalty rate firm \( v \) increases the marginal costs of its downstream competitors \( i \neq v \). Thus, in the downstream continuation equilibrium the quantities chosen by all other firms are reduced while the quantity of firm \( v \) goes up, so firm \( v \) receives the mark-up, \( P - c_i \), on a larger quantity. Thus, the forth term gives an additional incentive to raise royalties as compared to a non-integrated upstream firm.

This “raising one’s rivals’ cost effect” implies that each vertically integrated firm has an incentive to raise its royalty rate in order to improve its own market position to the detriment of its rivals. However, there is a prisoners’ dilemma. In equilibrium all vertically integrated firms choose the same royalty, nobody has a competitive advantage, and everybody would be better off if all firms could jointly reduce their royalties.

**Proposition 4:** Vertically integrated firms may choose higher or lower royalties than non-integrated upstream firms.

In the Appendix we offer two simple examples showing that the net effect can go in both directions.

Even if vertical integration yields higher royalties than non-integration it may still yield a more efficient market outcome because vertically integrated firms are not distorted by the royalties that they pay to themselves. However, in the case of a Cournot model with linear demand, if the number of vertically integrated firms is not too large then vertical integration yields a total quantity that is smaller than the total quantity produced under non-integration.\(^{10}\) In this natural example vertical integration reduces total output, total industry profits and social welfare.

\(^{10}\) See Kim (2004, p. 245).
3.3 Horizontal Integration

We now consider the possibility that some upstream firms merge and integrate horizontally. The integrated firm bundles its IP rights and licenses them at a joint royalty rate on the downstream market.

**Proposition 5:** As the number of upstream firms decreases, total equilibrium royalties are reduced and total quantity sold on the downstream market increases.

Proof: See Appendix.

Proposition 5 shows that - in contrast to the case of vertical integration - a horizontal merger unambiguously reduces royalties and increases total industry profits. Furthermore, it increases the total quantity of production and thus improves efficiency. Hence, horizontal integration is always more profitable and more efficient than non-integration. However, under horizontal integration royalties are still higher than the royalty rate that maximizes total industry profits.

**Proposition 6:** If all upstream firms are horizontally integrated there is no complements effect and no raising one’s rivals’ cost effect, but the double mark-up effect remains. Therefore, the royalty charged by the upstream firm is too high and downstream quantity is too low as compared to the royalty charged in the full integration benchmark.

Proof: See Appendix.

The royalty rate chosen by a horizontally integrated upstream firm is larger than the royalty in the full integration benchmark because of the double mark-up problem. However, the more competition there is on the downstream market, the smaller is the mark-up. In the limit, if downstream competition becomes fully competitive, the double mark-up problem disappears and the royalty chosen by a horizontally integrated upstream firm approaches the royalty rate that maximizes total industry profits.

This result suggests that if the downstream market is sufficiently competitive, horizontal integration outperforms vertical integration. Indeed in the example of a Cournot model with linear demand three downstream firms are already sufficient to render horizontal integration superior to vertical integration:
Example 2: Suppose that there is Cournot competition downstream and that the demand function is linear. If there are more than two firms on the downstream market, horizontal integration yields a higher output on the downstream market than vertical integration.

Proof: see Appendix.

4. Two-part Tariffs

So far we assumed that upstream firms are restricted to use linear royalties which is the prevalent case in reality. However, firms could also use two-part tariffs. It is well known that two part-tariffs can be used to solve the double mark-up problem. If firms are horizontally integrated or form a patent pool it is very simple (and a dominant strategy) to implement the full integration outcome: set the linear royalty such that downstream firms are induced to charge the monopoly price and choose the fixed fee such that it extracts all downstream profits.

In this section we show that if firms are not horizontally integrated they can still use two-part tariffs to solve the complements problem and to implement the fully integrated outcome. However, in contrast to the case of horizontal integration this requires coordination among the IP holders. We will show that this can be difficult and is more likely to happen when firms are non-integrated than when they are vertically integrated.

Proposition 7: Suppose that all firms are non-integrated. If upstream firms are restricted to use non-discriminatory two-part tariffs there exists a symmetric pure strategy equilibrium in which upstream firms charge linear royalties that implement the full integration outcome and extract all profits via the fixed fees from downstream firms.

Proof: Note first that in any equilibrium all downstream profits must be extracted. If this was not the case each upstream firm would have an incentive to further raise the fixed fee of its royalties. Consider now an equilibrium candidate where the royalties are sufficiently small that all downstream firms want to produce. Suppose that the sum of all linear royalties is larger (smaller) than the royalty rate that implements the full integration benchmark. In this case each firm has an incentive to lower (raise) its own linear royalty. This increases total industry profit. Hence, by raising the fixed fee of its royalty scheme at the same time, the firm
would be better off. Thus, the only symmetric subgame perfect equilibrium in which all downstream firms produce must have identical linear royalties for all upstream firms that sum up to $r^{FI}$. 

Q.E.D.

Note that if upstream firms can also use discriminatory royalties the equilibrium breaks down. In this case a deviating upstream firm can raise its fixed fee for $n-1$ downstream firms to infinity, so that only one downstream firm survives and serves the downstream market as a monopolist. If the deviating upstream firm raises its fixed fee for this remaining downstream firm so that it extracts all the monopolist’s profits, the deviation is profitable. Note further that there are other symmetric pure strategy equilibria as well. For example, it is always an equilibrium that all upstream firms charge fixed and/or linear royalties that are so high that no downstream firm wants to license.

Proposition 8: Suppose that all $m$ upstream firms are vertically integrated. There exists an $m^*$ such if $m \geq m^*$ there does not exist a symmetric pure strategy subgame perfect equilibrium that implements the full integration outcome. However, there always exists an asymmetric subgame perfect equilibrium in which one firm serves the entire downstream market at the monopoly price but makes zero profit. The other firms set the linear royalties equal to 0 and extract all the profits of the downstream monopolist through their fixed fees.

Proof: See Appendix.

With vertical integration and sufficiently many upstream firms the symmetric equilibrium breaks down. The reason is that a vertically integrated firm de facto discriminates in favour of its own downstream division even if it charges all firms the same royalties. This is because the downstream division of a vertically integrated firm is not affected by the royalty charged by its own company. Thus, a vertically integrated firm could raise its fixed and/or linear royalty to a prohibitive level and thus exclude all other firms from the downstream market. If the number of VI firms is sufficiently large, so that the share of total profits accruing to each firm in a symmetric equilibrium is sufficiently small, such a deviation becomes profitable. In this case a symmetric pure strategy equilibrium that implements the full integration outcome fails to exist which makes the coordination problem much more difficult. To be sure, there are asymmetric pure strategy equilibria that implement the monopoly outcome, but these equilibria are asymmetric and awkward: One firm monopolizes the downstream market, but
this firm makes zero profits and all the rents go to the upstream firms that are not active downstream. Because nobody wants to be the zero profit monopolist, it seems very difficult to coordinate on such an equilibrium.

To summarize: Two part-tariffs can be used to increase total industry profit. This tends to increase social welfare because total quantity increases. For a horizontally integrated firm (or a patent pool) it is a dominant strategy to set royalties that implement the full integration outcome. With non-integrated firms there exists a symmetric pure strategy equilibrium that implements this outcome, but the equilibrium is not unique. If firms are vertically integrated a symmetric equilibrium implementing the monopoly outcome fails to exist if the number of VI firms is sufficiently large. In this case there are only asymmetric equilibria with an uneven distribution of profits. Thus, with horizontal integration it seems more likely that a welfare improvement will be implemented than under non-integration which in turn outperforms vertical integration.

5. Entry and Innovation

In the previous sections we looked at a static market in which the companies and the products and technologies they sold were exogenously given. In this section we want to discuss some dynamic features of these markets. What are the incentives of potential entrants to enter the downstream market depending on the market structure? How is this affected by vertical and horizontal integration? How do vertical and horizontal integration affect the incentives to innovate and to come up with new technologies that complement the existing products?

5.1. Entry on the Downstream Market

Suppose that a potential entrant considers entering the downstream market. The entrant can produce a potentially differentiated good with marginal cost $k_e$ and has to incur a sunk entry cost $K \geq 0$. Whether entry is profitable depends on how royalties and the final price on the downstream market will react to an additional competitor downstream. The timing is as follows: First, the entrant decides whether to enter the market. Then upstream firms decide on their linear royalties. Finally firms compete on the downstream market and profits are realized.
If the entrant enters the market the increase in competition induces firms to reduce their mark-up which mitigates the double mark-up problem and increases the quantity of the final good that is sold downstream. A non-integrated patent holder always benefits from additional downstream competition. He has no incentive to discriminate against the entrant or to squeeze him out of the market. The same holds for a horizontally integrated upstream firm. Furthermore, horizontal integration unambiguously mitigates the complements problem, so total royalties are lower than under non-integration which makes entry more likely.

For a vertically integrated patent holder the analysis is more complicated. On the one hand the upstream division of the vertically integrated firm benefits from the extension of the downstream market. On the other hand, the increased competition reduces downstream profits. To mitigate the increased competition the vertically integrated firm wants to raise the entrant’s cost by increasing its royalty rate. In fact, the “raising one’s rivals’ costs” effect may be so strong that the royalty rate is set prohibitively high and the entrant is shut out of the market.

To illustrate this consider a simple example with differentiated products and Bertrand competition as analyzed by Wang and Yang (1999).\(^\text{(11)}\) Initially there is one vertically integrated firm. A potential entrant may enter the market with a differentiated product. The entrant extends the market and increases total welfare, but he may reduce the profits of the vertically integrated firm. Whether and at what rate the integrated firm licenses its patent to the potential entrant depends on the degree of product differentiation. If the two products are close substitutes the vertically integrated firm will foreclose the entrant because the negative effect of increased competition dominates. Entry is accommodated only if products are sufficiently differentiated. However, because of the raising one’s rival’s cost” effect the vertically integrated firm always charges a royalty that is higher than the rate charged by a non-integrated firm. The raising one’s rival’s cost effect disappears only when the two products are completely independent, i.e. when the entrant enters a different and completely unrelated market.

Similarly, in the example of a linear Cournot model in which all downstream firms have identical marginal costs \((k_c = k)\), it can be shown that royalties charged by the vertically integrated firms are so high that no independent downstream firm can enter the market even if

\(^\text{(11)}\) Wang and Yang (1999, Section III) are mainly interested in comparing linear and fixed royalties. They show that a vertically integrated firm prefers linear royalties over fixed fees because linear royalties can be used to affect the marginal cost of its competitor. It is straightforward to apply their example to our analysis of vertically intergrated and non-integrated patent holders. I am grateful to Gerard Llobet for pointing out this example to me.
the entry cost is 0. A necessary condition for entry is that the entrant has an efficiency advantage over existing firms \( k_e < k \). In this case the vertically integrated firms face a trade-off. On the one hand, the low cost competitor reduces their downstream market shares and profits. On the other hand, the low cost competitor lowers the downstream price and thereby extends the downstream market, which benefits their upstream profits. Comparing a vertically integrated to a non-integrated or horizontally integrated upstream firm, the latter benefit from the extension of the downstream market but do not suffer a reduction of downstream profits. Thus, a vertically integrated firm always charges higher royalties to an entrant than a non- or horizontally integrated firm which makes entry less likely.

5.2 Innovation on the Upstream Market

What are the implications of different market structures on the incentives to innovate and to come up with new technologies on the upstream market? Suppose that a company has an idea for an innovation that improves the quality of the technology. This may be an additional feature that makes it possible to use the technology for new applications, to reduce the cost to employ the technology in downstream production or to raise the benefits of consumers from using the downstream product. Innovation can be interpreted as entry on the upstream market. However, while the entrant on the downstream market produces a substitute to the products of the other downstream firms, the entrant on the upstream market produces a complement to the other upstream goods.

To develop the innovation and to protect it by a patent the innovator has to incur an investment cost \( I > 0 \). The innovation can be used only if the existing upstream firms include it in the standard. The innovation raises consumers’ willingness to pay and/or lowers production costs. This raises the profits that can be made on upstream and downstream markets. By how much profits increase depends on the market structure. The analysis of the preceding sections suggests that if linear royalties have to be used additional profits will be higher under horizontal integration than under non-integration. It will also be higher under horizontal integration than under vertical integration if the number of downstream producers is sufficiently large. In this section we do not model explicitly how different market structures affect the profits that can be derived from the innovation. Instead we assume that if the innovative patent is owned by a horizontally integrated firm the profits of this firm will increase from \( \Pi \) to \( \Pi + \Delta(1) \). If however, there are \( m \) independent upstream firms initially,

\[12\] See Kim (2004, Theorem 1).
and if the number of independent upstream firms increases to \( m + 1 \) because the innovation is included in the standard then total upstream profits change from \( \Pi(m) \) to \( \Pi(m + 1) + \Delta(m + 1) \). By Propositions 5 and 6 we know that total royalties are increasing with \( m \) and that for all \( m \geq 1 \) total royalties are higher than the royalty a monopolist would choose. Therefore we must have \( \Pi(m) > \Pi(m + 1) \) and \( \Delta(m) > \Delta(m + 1) \).

Suppose first that one of the existing upstream firms comes up with the idea for the innovation. If it innovates total profits on the upstream market increase by \( \Delta(m) \), \( \frac{\Delta(m)}{m} \) of which accrues to the innovator. Thus, we get:

**Proposition 9:** An existing upstream firm will innovate if and only if \( I \leq \frac{\Delta(m)}{m} \). The smaller the number \( m \) of upstream firms, the larger is \( \frac{\Delta(m)}{m} \) and the larger are the incentives to innovate.

Suppose now that the potential innovator is a new company that does not own any other patents that are essential to the standard. Furthermore, the company has to develop the innovation and to incur the (sunk) investment cost \( I \) before negotiating on the terms of including the innovation in the standard.

If the standard is controlled by a horizontally integrated company the analysis is straightforward. If \( \Delta > 0 \) the two parties will agree that the horizontally integrated firm buys the innovation and includes it in the standard. Assuming Nash bargaining they will split the surplus equally, so the innovator receives \( \frac{\Delta}{2} \). Thus, the investment in the innovation will be undertaken if and only if \( I < \frac{\Delta}{2} \).

Consider now the case with \( m > 1 \) independent upstream firms. It does not matter whether these firms are vertically integrated or not. In principle, there are two ways how the innovation can be included in the standard. First, the innovator could join the standard as an independent firm, so the number of upstream firms increases to \( m + 1 \). Second, one of the upstream firms could acquire the patent from the innovator.

Suppose that the innovator joins the standard and becomes an additional independent firm on the upstream market. For this he needs the consent of all \( m \) upstream firms. Without
the innovator each upstream firm’s profit is $\frac{\Pi(m)}{m}$. With the innovator the profit of each firm on the upstream market is $\frac{\Pi(m+1) + \Delta(m+1)}{m+1}$. Thus, the innovation will be included in the standard if and only if

$$\Delta(m+1) > \Delta(m) = \frac{\Pi(m)}{m} + \Pi(m) - \Pi(m+1) > 0 \quad (8)$$

Thus, the additional profit generated by the innovation if there are $m+1$ upstream firms must be larger than the average profit of each firm without the innovation $\left(\frac{\Pi(m)}{m}\right)$ plus the reduction in total profits that is due to having one additional firm (and thus one additional complements problem) on the upstream market $\left(\Pi(m) - \Pi(m+1)\right)$. If the innovation is included in the standard, the innovator gets $\frac{1}{m+1}$ of total profits. Thus, the innovation is profitable if and only if

$$I < \tilde{I}(m) = \frac{\Pi(m+1) + \Delta(m+1)}{m+1}. \quad (9)$$

If these conditions are not satisfied, the innovation could still be included in the standard if one of upstream firms acquires the patent. If it does so, the innovation raises total profits from $\Pi(m)$ to $\Pi(m) + \Delta(m)$. Thus, the profit of the firm that acquired the patent increases by $\frac{\Delta(m)}{m} - P$, where $P$ is the price to be paid to the innovator. Assuming Nash bargaining, $P = \frac{\Delta(m)}{2 \cdot m}$. Thus, the investment will be undertaken only if $I < \frac{\Delta(m)}{2 \cdot m}$. Note, however, that this is an asymmetric equilibrium and that the profits of all other firms increase by $\frac{\Delta(m)}{m}$ because they benefit from the innovation without having to pay for it. Thus, there is a free rider problem where each firm prefers the other firms to acquire the patent. It turns out that there does not exist a symmetric equilibrium with a positive probability of innovation. A symmetric equilibrium would have to be a mixed strategy equilibrium where each firm acquires the patent with positive probability. However, in a mixed strategy equilibrium each firm has to be indifferent between acquiring and not acquiring. Thus, the surplus to be shared with the innovator is zero. But if the price for the innovation is zero, the innovation will not be undertaken.

These results are summarized in the following proposition:
Proposition 10: Suppose that an independent innovator can develop an innovation at cost $I$.

a) If a horizontally integrated firm controls the upstream market, any innovation that is value increasing is included in the standard. The innovation will be undertaken iff $I < \frac{\Delta}{2}$.

b) If $m$ firms are active on the upstream market the innovation will be included in the standard and the innovator will become firm $m+1$ on the upstream market if the value of the innovation is sufficiently large and the investment cost is sufficiently small, i.e. if $\Delta(m+1) > \Delta(m) = \frac{\Pi(m)}{m} + \frac{\Pi(m) - \Pi(m+1)}{m} > 0$ and $I < \bar{I}(m) = \frac{\Pi(m+1) + \Delta(m+1)}{m+1}$. As $m \to \infty$, $\Delta(m)$ and $I(m)$ go to 0.

c) If $m$ firms are active on the upstream market and these conditions are not satisfied there also exists an asymmetric pure strategy equilibrium where one of the upstream firms buys any innovation that is value increasing at price $P = \frac{\Delta(m)}{2 \cdot m}$. In this case the innovation is developed iff $I \leq \frac{\Delta(m)}{2 \cdot m}$.

Thus, we find that innovation becomes more likely the fewer firms there are on the upstream market. The incentives to innovate are maximized if all firms on the upstream market are horizontally integrated or, equivalently, if all upstream firms form a patent pool.

7. Conclusions

If different IP holders own complementary patents that are all essential to a standard, several externalities arise that affect their pricing decisions. In a general model of downstream competition we have shown that horizontal integration has positive effects on total output and tends to increase social welfare, while the effects of vertical integration are ambiguous or negative. Horizontal integration eliminates the complements effect and induces lower prices and higher quantities on the downstream market. Furthermore, a horizontally integrated firm benefits from downstream market entry and encourages innovation upstream. Vertical integration, on the other hand, solves the double-mark-up problem between the two merging firms, but it gives rise to a raising one’s rivals’ cost effect. The net effect may increase prices and reduce output and social welfare. Furthermore, vertically integrated firms compete against
new market entrants and want to discriminate against them. Finally, vertical integration does not affect the problem that an innovator needs permission by all upstream IP holders to join the standard, so it does not encourage innovation. These results suggest that the current shift in US competition policy to permit patent pools for complementary patents is beneficial. It also suggests that companies that buy patents in order to bundle them or to pass them through as a bundle to downstream firms perform an important welfare increasing function and should not be generally associated with patent trolls. On the other hand, our analysis shows that vertical integration can have ambiguous effect and should be seen with more caution, in particular when entry and innovation are of crucial importance for the development of the market.

Our model also applies to industries that require access to a physical network such as electricity, railways or fixed-line telecommunications, if the network consists of separate parts that complement each other. For example, there are often regional monopolies that own separate parts of the electricity grid, of the railway lines or of the telecommunications infrastructure. If a downstream firms wants to offer services that are based on the network it often need access to the entire network. In this case the different parts of the network are perfect complements and the results of this paper apply.
Appendix

Proof of Proposition 1: Assumption 2 implies that the profit function of each upstream firm is globally concave in  \( r_u \),

\[
\frac{\partial^2 \Pi}{\partial r_u^2} = \frac{\partial Q}{\partial r} + r_u \frac{\partial^2 Q}{\partial r^2} < 0
\]

Thus, by the well known existence proof for concave games (Debreu, 1952), a pure strategy equilibrium exists. In equilibrium the FOCs

\[
\frac{\partial \Pi_u}{\partial r_u} = Q + r_u \frac{\partial Q}{\partial r} = 0
\]

must be satisfied. Suppose that there are two equilibria with corresponding royalty vectors \((r^A_1, ..., r^A_m)\) and \((r^B_1, ..., r^B_m)\). Let \( r^A = \sum_{i=1}^m r^A_i \) and \( r^B = \sum_{i=1}^m r^B_i \), and suppose wlog that \( r^A > r^B \).

This implies that \( Q(r^A) < Q(r^B) \). Comparing the FOCs for \( r_u \) in the two equilibria we have \( r^A Q'(r^A) > r^B Q'(r^B) \). Summing up over all \( u \) this implies \( r^A Q'(r^A) \geq r^B Q'(r^B) \). However, Assumption 2 implies \( \frac{\partial Q}{\partial r} + r \frac{\partial^2 Q}{\partial r^2} < 0 \) which in turn implies

\[
\int_{r^A}^{r^B} [Q'(r) + r Q''(r)] \, dr = [r Q'(r)]_{r^A}^{r^B} = r^A Q'(r^A) - r^B Q'(r^B) < 0
\]

a contradiction. Thus, \( r_A = r_B \). Symmetry implies \( r^A_1 = ... = r^A_m \) and \( r^B_1 = ... = r^B_m \). Thus, equilibrium royalties are unique. \( \text{Q.E.D.} \)

Proof of Proposition 3: A vertically integrated firm \( v \), \( v \in \{1, ..., l\} \) chooses its royalty rate to maximize \( \Pi_v = r_v Q_v^I(\bar{r}) + q_v(\bar{r}) \cdot [P(Q_v^I(\bar{r}))-c_v(\bar{r})] \). The FOC for this maximization problem is

\[
\frac{\partial \Pi_v}{\partial r_v} = Q_v^I + \frac{\partial Q_v^I}{\partial r_v} \cdot r_v + \left[ \frac{\partial P}{\partial Q} \cdot \frac{\partial Q_v^I}{\partial r_v} \cdot \frac{1}{Q_v^I} \right] \cdot q_v^I + \left[ P - k - \sum_{j=1}^n r_j \cdot \frac{\partial q_v^I}{\partial r_v} \right] \geq 0
\]

A non-integrated upstream firm \( u \), \( u \in \{l+1, ..., m\} \), chooses its royalty rate to maximize \( \Pi_u^v = r_u Q_v^I(r_u, r_u) \). Its FOC is given by
The first order condition for the maximization of total industry profits can be rewritten as:

$$\frac{\partial \Pi_u}{\partial r_u} = Q^{VI} + \frac{\partial Q^{VI}}{\partial r_u} \cdot r_u = 0 \quad \text{(11)}$$

Suppose all firms on the upstream market choose the optimal royalties under full integration \(r_u^{FI}\), so total downstream quantity is \(Q(r_u^{FI})\). Then we have

$$\frac{\partial \Pi_v}{\partial r_v} = Q(r_u^{FB}) + \frac{\partial Q(r_u^{FB})}{\partial r_v} \cdot r_v^{FB} + \left[ \frac{\partial P}{\partial Q} \cdot \frac{\partial Q(r_u^{FB})}{\partial r_v} - 1 \right] \cdot q_v^{FB} + \left[ P - k - \sum_{j=1}^{n} r_j \right] \cdot \frac{\partial q_v^{FB}}{\partial r_v} + \sum_{d \neq v} \frac{\partial \Pi_d}{\partial r_u} = 0 \quad \text{(12)}$$

Thus, the derivative of each firm’s profit function at \(r_u^{FB}\) is strictly positive, so each firm has an incentive to further increase its royalty rate. \(Q.E.D.\)

Proof of Proposition 4: We give two examples to show that the effect can go in both directions. Suppose that \(m = n\), i.e. all firms are vertically integrated, all firms are symmetric and compete in quantities downstream. If the demand function is linear, it is easy to compute that

$$r_u^{VI} = \frac{(a - k) \cdot (n + 3)}{n^2 + 4n - 1} > \frac{a - k}{n + 1} = r_u^{NI}.$$ 

Thus, with linear demand firms charge higher royalties when they are vertically integrated than when they are not integrated.

If the demand function is given by \(P = Q^{-\frac{1}{\eta}}\) (constant price elasticity of demand equal to \(\eta < 0\)) and if \(|\eta| > n\) it can be shown that
so royalties charged by vertically integrated firms are smaller than under non-integration.\footnote{If $|\eta| \leq n$ firms want to raise royalties to infinity, so an equilibrium does not exist.}

Q.E.D.

Proof of Proposition 5: In equilibrium, the first order condition \( \frac{\partial \Pi_u}{\partial r_u} = Q + \frac{\partial Q}{\partial r} \cdot r_u = 0 \) has to hold for all upstream firms \( u = 1, ..., m \). Consider two upstream markets with \( m^1 \) and \( m^2 \) firms respectively, \( m^1 > m^2 \). Summing up (1.4) over all firms we get

\[
\begin{align*}
m^1 \cdot Q(r^1) + r^1 \cdot \frac{\partial Q(r^1)}{\partial r} &= 0 \\
m^2 \cdot Q(r^2) + r^2 \cdot \frac{\partial Q(r^2)}{\partial r} &= 0
\end{align*}
\]

where \( r^i = \sum_{u=1}^{m^i} r_u^i, \ i \in \{1, 2\} \). Substracting the second equation from the first we have

\[
m^1 \cdot Q(r^1) - m^2 \cdot Q(r^2) + r^1 \cdot \frac{\partial Q(r^1)}{\partial r} - r^2 \cdot \frac{\partial Q(r^2)}{\partial r} = 0
\]

Suppose that \( r^2 \geq r^1 \). Assumption 2 is equivalent to the assumption that \( \frac{\partial Q}{\partial r} + r \frac{\partial^2 Q}{\partial r^2} < 0 \) which implies

\[
\int_{r^1}^{r^2} [Q'(r) + rQ''(r)]dr = [rQ'(r)]^{r^2}_{r^1} = r^2Q'(r^2) - r^1Q'(r^1) \leq 0
\]

Thus, we must have

\[
m^1 \cdot Q(r^1) - m^2 \cdot Q(r^2) \leq 0
\]

However, because \( m^2 < m^1 \) this implies \( Q(r^2) > Q(r^1) \) which implies \( r^2 < r^1 \), a contradiction. Thus, we must have \( r^1 > r^2 \). Note that \( r^1 > r^2 \) implies that all downstream firms have lower costs with \( m^2 \) than with \( m^1 \) upstream firms, so downstream prices are lower and the quantity sold on the downstream market is higher if the number of upstream firms decreases. Q.E.D.

Proof of Proposition 6: A horizontally chooses its royalty rate to maximize \( \Pi^H = rQ^H(r) \).

The FOC for this maximization problem is
The first order condition for the maximization of total industry profits can be rewritten as:

\[
\frac{\partial \Pi^H}{\partial r} = Q^{III} + \left( \frac{\partial Q^{III}}{\partial r} \right) r^{HI}
\]  

(13)

Suppose the horizontally integrated upstream firm chooses the optimal royalty rate under full integration \( r^{FI} \), so total downstream quantity is \( Q(r^{FI}) \). Then we have

\[
\frac{\partial \Pi^H}{\partial r} = Q(r^{FI}) + \left( \frac{\partial Q(r^{FI})}{\partial r} \right) r^{FI} + \sum_{d=1}^{n} \frac{\partial \Pi_d}{\partial r} = 0
\]  

(14)

Hence, the horizontally integrated firm will choose a royalty that is larger than \( r^{FI} \) and total quantity on the downstream market will be lower. \( Q.E.D. \)

Example 2: If all upstream firms are horizontally integrated, total quantity is given by

\[
Q^{HI}(n) = \frac{n(a-c)}{2b(n+1)}
\]

On the other hand, if all \( m \) upstream firms are vertically integrated they will set royalties that exclude all independent downstream firms from the market. In this case total quantity is given by

\[
Q^{VI} = \frac{2m(a-c)}{b(m(m+3)+(m+1))}
\]

Note that \( Q^{HI} \) is strictly increasing in \( n \) while \( Q^{VI} \) is strictly decreasing in \( m \). For \( n=3 \) total quantity is higher under HI than total quantity under VI for \( m=2 \). \( Q.E.D. \)

Proof of Proposition 8: Note first that in any pure strategy subgame perfect equilibrium all downstream profits must be extracted via the fixed fees. Thus all downstream firms (or downstream divisions of vertically integrated firms) are just indifferent whether or not to produce downstream. Consider an equilibrium candidate where all vertically integrated choose identical linear royalties the sum of which induces the full integration outcome on the downstream market and identical fixed fees the sum of which extracts all profits of the downstream firms/divisions. Let \( p^M(k) \) denote the price chosen by a fully integrated monopolist with marginal cost \( k \) and let \( \Pi^M(k) \) denote his monopoly profit on the downstream market. If the symmetric linear royalties \( r \) implement the monopoly price
downstream, it must be the case that \((n-1) \cdot r + k < p^M(k)\). Note that each firm makes a profit of \(\frac{1}{m} \cdot \Pi^M(k)\) in the candidate equilibrium.

Consider now the following deviation of firm 1. It raises its fixed fee to infinity, so that no other firm can afford to license its patent. Thus, firm 1 becomes a monopolist on the downstream market. It has to pay fixed fees to the other firms that are equal to its downstream profit if it had not deviated. Note that this is bounded above by \(\frac{1}{m} \cdot \Pi^M(k)\). On the other hand, it now monopolizes the downstream market, so it will make at least the profit of a monopolist with marginal cost of \((n-1) \cdot r + k < p^M(k)\). These profits are bounded below by the profits of a monopolist with marginal cost \(p^M(k)\) (note that \(p^M(k)\) is independent of \(n\)). Denote the profit of a monopolist on the downstream market with marginal cost \(p^M(k)\) as \(\Pi^M(p^M(k)) = \Pi > 0\).

Hence, a deviation is profitable if
\[
\frac{1}{m} \cdot \Pi^M(k) \geq \frac{2}{m} \cdot \Pi^M(k) \iff \Pi > \frac{2}{m} \cdot \Pi^M(k).
\]

Note that for all \(k\), \(\frac{2}{m} \cdot \Pi^M(k)\) goes to zero as \(m\) goes to infinity. Thus, there exists an \(\overline{m}\) such that for all \(m \geq \overline{m}\) the deviation is profitable. Thus, if \(m \geq \overline{m}\) there does not exist a symmetric pure strategy subgame perfect equilibrium that implements the monopoly outcome.

Consider now asymmetric pure strategy equilibria. Suppose that only one firm serves the downstream market. In equilibrium this firm must make zero profits. Otherwise the other firms would have an incentive to raise the fixed fees of their royalties. With a monopolist downstream profits are maximized if all upstream firms charge linear royalties of zero and fixed fees equal to the monopoly profit divided by \(n-1\). Given these royalties, no firm has an incentive to deviate, so this is indeed a subgame perfect pure strategy equilibrium. In this equilibrium the monopolist serving the downstream market makes zero profits, while all the other firms share the monopoly profit.

\textit{Q.E.D.}

\textbf{Proof of Proposition 9:} By Proposition 5 we know that total royalties increase as the number of independent upstream suppliers increases. Thus, total royalties are larger under non-integration or vertical integration than under horizontal integration while \(\Pi^E(r)\) is smaller. The probability that entry occurs is \(prob(\Pi^E(r) \geq K) = 1 - prob(\Pi^E(r) \geq K) = 1 - G(\Pi^E(r))\).
The cdf $G(\cdot)$ is strictly increasing, while $\Pi'(r)$ is strictly decreasing. Hence, the probability of entry is higher under horizontal integration. \[Q.E.D.\]

Proof of Proposition 10: Consider an upstream market with $m$ non-integrated firms. To simplify notation denote $H(F) = G(\Pi^0(0) - F)$. So $H(F)$ is the probability of entry given the total fixed fee $F$. Thus, each upstream firm maximizes $\Pi^\text{NI}_u = F_u \cdot H(F)$. In equilibrium, the first order condition

$$
\frac{\partial \Pi^\text{NI}_u}{\partial F_u} = H\left(\sum_{i=1}^m F^\text{NI}_v\right) + F^\text{NI}_u \cdot H'\left(\sum_{i=1}^m F^\text{NI}_v\right) = 0
$$

has to hold for all upstream firms $u = 1, \ldots, m$. Assumption 3 is equivalent to the assumption that $\frac{\partial H(F)}{\partial F} + F_u \frac{\partial^2 H(F)}{\partial F^2} < 0 \quad \forall F_u \leq F$ which implies that the second order condition is globally satisfied, so (x) characterizes a unique pure strategy equilibrium. Consider two upstream markets with $m^1$ and $m^2$ firms respectively, $m^1 > m^2$. Summing up (x) over all firms we get

$$
m^1 \cdot H(F^1) + F^1 \cdot H'(F^1) = 0
$$

$$
m^2 \cdot H(F^2) + F^2 \cdot H'(F^2) = 0
$$

where $F^i = \sum_{u=1}^m F^i_u, \; i \in \{1, 2\}$. Substracting the second equation from the first we have

$$
F^1 \cdot H(F^1) - F^2 \cdot H(F^2) + F^1 \cdot \frac{\partial H(F^1)}{\partial F} - F^2 \cdot \frac{\partial H(F^1)}{\partial F} = 0
$$

Suppose that $F^2 \geq F^1$. Assumption 3 implies

$$
\int_{F^1}^{F^2} [H'(F) + F \cdot H''(F)]dF = \left[F \cdot H'(F)\right]_{F^1}^{F^2} = F^2 H'(F^2) - F^1 H'(F^1) \leq 0
$$

Thus, we must have

$$
m^1 \cdot H(F^1) - m^2 \cdot H(F^2) \leq 0
$$

However, because $m^2 < m^1$ this implies $H(F^2) > H(F^1)$ which implies $F^2 < F^1$, a contradiction. Thus, we must have $F^1 > F^2$. \[Q.E.D.\]
References:


