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Industrial Policy and Firm Heterogeneity

By Pedro P. Barros and Tore Nilssen

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Industrial Policy and Firm Heterogeneity^x

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March 15, 1999

Abstract

Our concern is with a <code>rrm-speci</code> c industrial policy. When R&D subsidies or taxes are <code>di®erentiated</code> among <code>rrms</code>, the question arises which <code>rrms</code> in an industry should receive such support. We analyze a situation where <code>rrms</code> <code>di®er</code> in their R&D technologies in two distinct ways: They <code>di®er</code> both in the costs of performing R&D activities and in the output obtained from such activities. We <code>rmd</code> that the optimal <code>rrm-speci</code> c industrial policy is <code>a®ected</code> <code>di®erently</code> by the two sources of <code>rrm</code> heterogeneity. Furthermore, a change in a <code>rrm's</code> R&D productivity has an ambiguous <code>e®ect</code> on the optimal policy towards the <code>rrm</code>.

JEL Numbers: O31, L52, F13

Keywords: rm heterogeneity, industrial policy, R&D

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1 Introduction

A country's trade policy has many facets, among them measures directed towards production, such as export subsidies, and others directed towards innovation, such as R&D subsidies or taxes. The former measures are increasingly di±cult for governments to pursue, due to successful trade negotiations in GATT and elsewhere. This leads to a need for further analysis of trade-policy measures directed towards innovation. Our concern in the present paper is with one important aspect of R&D subsidies or taxes that distinguishes this policy instrument, in our view, from other trade-policy instruments: Whereas these other instruments tend to be industry-speci⁻c, aimed at industries in particular need of government support (or taxation, as the case may be), the support of R&D activities is, in its nature, ⁻rm-speci⁻c and even project-speci⁻c.

When R&D subsidies or taxes are di®erentiated among <code>rms</code>, the question arises which <code>rms</code> should receive such support. We attack this question on the industry level, asking which <code>rms</code> in an industry should receive the highest R&D subsidy, or pay the lowest R&D tax. In order to do this, we model an industry with several domestic <code>rms</code> that, by way of simpli cation, export all of their production to the world market. These <code>rms</code>, together with a number of foreign <code>rms</code> operating in the same industry, participate in a non-tournament R&D competition a la Spencer and Brander (1983): During an initial stage, each <code>rm</code> invests in process-innovation activities that bring down its production costs in the ensuing production stage, in which <code>rms</code> compete in quantities.

Our focus is on a situation where domestic <code>rms</code> di®er both in their costs of doing R&D and in their R&D productivities, i.e., the rates at which their R&D activities transform into reduced production costs. In order to model such a heterogeneity among domestic <code>rms</code>, it is, of course, essential that the model features more than one domestic <code>rm</code>. With several domestic <code>rms</code> and a government that is restricted to intervene at the R&D stage only, it is possible to distinguish three di®erent motives for government intervention. First, there is the pro<code>-t-shifting</code> motive; when <code>-rms</code> compete in quantities on the product market, this motive calls for an R&D subsidy (Spencer and Brander, 1983): Such a subsidy makes domestic <code>-rms</code> produce more, entailing a contraction of foreign <code>-rms'</code> R&D and production and therefore leaving more of the available pro<code>-t</code> to be earned by the domestic <code>-rms</code>. Secondly, there is the need to correct for the incentives that each <code>-rm</code> has to overinvest in R&D beyond what cost minimization prescribes in situations where lower marginal costs entail a higher market share

¹See Beath et al. (1995) for a survey of various models of R&D competition.

(Brander and Spencer, 1983); this calls for a tax on R&D. Finally, with several domestic ⁻rms exporting their production, there is a need to intervene in order to keep the domestic ⁻rms from competing too heavily with each other on the world market; this, again, calls for an R&D tax (Dixit, 1984; Klette, 1994; Bagwell and Staiger, 1994).²

A building block in our analysis is a model of non-tournament R&D competition among ⁻rms that di®er in their R&D technologies, and this model is in itself a novelty. ⁴ The models of R&D competition that are closest to ours in the received literature are by Rosen (1991), Poyago-Theotoky (1996), and Yin and Zuscovitch (1998). However, in these models, ⁻rms have identical R&D technologies and di®er only in their initial, or pre-R&D, production costs.

With our focus on <code>rm-specic</code> government policy, our analysis is closely related to studies of R&D cooperation, or research joint ventures, among heterogeneous <code>rms</code> (Veugelers and Kesteloot 1996, Kesteloot and Veugelers 1997, Long and Soubeyran 1997c, R\u00e4ller et al. 1997): With a <code>rm-specic</code> policy and all domestic production being exported, the government's optimum level of R&D activity in each domestic <code>rm</code> coincides with what the <code>rm</code> itself would choose if all domestic <code>rms</code> were cooperating at the R&D stage.

Long and Soubeyran (1997c, 1997d) and Salant and Sha®er (1998a, 1998b) ⁻nd that, even if the ⁻rms participating in a research joint venture are ex-ante identical, the optimum R&D e®orts may be asymmetric, because increased di®erences in production costs lead to an increase in industry pro ⁻t; in our analysis, we invoke so much convexity in R&D costs that this phenomenon does not occur. Salant and Sha®er (1998b) are particularly interesting, since

²Issues not raised in the present analysis, which would have a bearing on the question of a tax vs. subsidy on R&D, include: ⁻rms' strategic variables (Grossman, 1988); free entry (Horstmann and Markusen, 1986); spillovers (Leahy and Neary, 1999); uncertainty (Bagwell and Staiger, 1994); and resource constraints (Dixit and Grossman, 1986).

³The literature on targeting, such as Dixit and Grossman (1986), Spencer (1988) and Neary (1994), is mainly concerned with which industry to support, rather than which ¯rms in an industry. A crude kind of ¯rm-speci¯c support is, however, discussed by Dixit (1988) in a tournament model of R&D competition with asymmetric R&D e±ciency. Here, the government controls how many domestic ¯rms participate in an international patent race; in a sense, then, the government performs an industrial policy that discriminates on the ¯rm level.

⁴The model is discussed further in Barros and Nilssen (1999).

they, too, note the formal resemblance between R&D cooperation and <code>rm-specicc</code> R&D subsidies, as described above; however, they discuss only cases with identical <code>rms</code> and are concerned with the possible optimality of treating <code>rms</code> di®erently even if they are identical.

In Section 2 below, we present our model of the following three-stage situation. In the <code>rst</code> stage, the government decides on <code>rm-specicc</code> taxes on the R&D activities of the domestic <code>rms</code> in a particular industry. In the second stage, <code>rms</code>, both domestic and foreign, decide on how much R&D to perform when each <code>rm's</code> R&D a®ects its production costs but the cost per unit of R&D e®ort as well as the rate at which R&D e®ort is transformed into production-cost reductions di®er among the <code>rms</code>. In the third stage, the <code>rms</code> compete on the world market by simultaneously deciding on produced quantities, and all domestic production is exported. In this Section, we also discuss the relevance of having <code>rms</code> di®er in their R&D e±ciency along two dimensions, both R&D costs and R&D productivity. In the subsequent sections, the gain in insights obtained from allowing both dimensions is made clear. In Section 3, we focus on the R&D game between the <code>rms</code>, which is stages two and three above. In particular, we discuss the comparative statics of <code>rms'</code> R&D activities and production quantities with respect to changes in R&D e±ciency.

The main results of the analysis are in Sections 4 and 5. Central to the understanding of how rm heterogeneity a®ects industrial policy is, in our view, the distinction between a government's corrective and strategic motives for intervention. In order to make this distinction clear, we start our analysis of the government's optimum "rm-speci" c industrial policy with restricting foreign ⁻rms to do no R&D, since this restriction eliminates the rent-shifting motive for intervention (in the absence of any production subsidy). We characterize the optimum rm-speciec policy in this case, which is always a tax on R&D e®orts when the only motives for intervention are the corrective ones, and ⁻nd, somewhat counter-intuitive, that a rm with a relatively high R&D productivity does not necessarily pay a relatively high tax. The reason for the ambiguity is the interplay of two forces. On one hand is the direct e®ect: A higher R&D productivity makes a rm do more R&D, ceteris paribus, i.e. the rm's incentive to overinvest in R&D increases; this calls quite naturally for a higher tax the higher the R&D productivity is. On the other hand, there is a strategic e[®]ect: The more a ⁻rm's domestic rivals produce, the larger is the negative externality that the "rm imposes upon them, and the higher is the tax necessary to impose on this ⁻rm. Since an increase in R&D productivity lowers a ⁻rm's costs and therefore lowers its rivals' production, this e[®]ect calls for a lower tax the higher the R&D productivity is.

In Section 5, we introduce R&D activities also among the foreign rms, so that the

optimum policy now also has a strategic element, with the consequence that the optimum policy towards a particular ⁻rm may be either a tax or a subsidy. The comparative-statics results, however, stand essentially unaltered from the previous analysis. In particular, the ambiguity in the relation between the R&D productivity and the optimum policy persists, for the same reason as outlined above. Section 6 provides some concluding comments.

2 The model

To set our analysis in the simplest framework possible, we consider a foreign market with demand given by a linear inverse demand function,

$$P = a_i Q (1)$$

where P is price and Q is total quantity supplied in the market. On the supply side, there are n $^-$ rms competing in quantities. 5 A number m of $^-$ rms are domestic and the other n $_i$ m $^-$ rms are foreign (that is, $^-$ rms located in other countries). Denote by M the set of domestic $^-$ rms and by N the set of all $^-$ rms in the market. Domestic $^-$ rms are labelled from 1 through m and, thus, foreign $^-$ rms from (m + 1) through n. Let q_i be the quantity produced by $^-$ rm i.

The production technology is characterized by constant returns to scale. The level of a rm's unit production cost depends on the R&D activity performed by the rm. In particular, the unit production cost of rm i is given by:

$$C_i = \mathcal{C}_i \; i \; \mu_i X_i \tag{2}$$

where \mathfrak{E}_i is the initial level of unit production cost and $\mu_i x_i$ is the reduction in cost obtained by $\bar{}$ rm i, depending on its R&D investment, x_i , and its R&D productivity, measured by μ_i . A higher μ_i means a more e±cient $\bar{}$ rm in doing R&D activities. As indicated by the subscripts on \mathfrak{E}_i and μ_i , we do not restrict $\bar{}$ rms to be equal.

Denote R&D costs by ' $(x_i; \circ_i)$, where \circ_i is a <code>rm-specic</code> parameter, i.e., R&D costs are not restricted to be equal across <code>rms</code>. A higher \circ_i means a less <code>e±cient rm</code>, with ' $(0; \circ_i) = 0; @' = @\circ_i > 0$ and $@^2' = @x_i @\circ_i > 0$, that is, both total costs and marginal costs increase with \circ_i . We assume that ' $(x_i; \circ_i)$ has the convexity properties with respect to x_i

⁵The assumption of a homogeneous good leads naturally to Cournot competition. Under Bertrand competition, no asymmetry can survive with a homogeneous good.

⁶Note the absence of technological spillovers in the proposed formulation. The results obtained below cannot, thus, be attributed to spillover e[®]ects.

required to ensure that second-order conditions of ⁻rm i's maximisation problem and the Dixit (1986) stability condition are satis ⁻ed. ⁷

Government intervention is assumed to occur at the R&D stage. No production subsidies exist. We allow for a tax on each domestic \bar{r} m per unit of its R&D investment. Denote by $\frac{3}{4}$; i 2 M; the tax rate. We put $\frac{3}{4}$ = 0 for each foreign \bar{r} m, assuming that foreign governments are passive. This is made for convenience as our interest lies in how asymmetries across domestic \bar{r} rms \bar{a} ect domestic industrial policy.

Firm i has a pro⁻t function given by

$$| \cdot |_{i} = | \cdot |_{i}(q; x; \%) = (P_{i} C_{i})q_{i} |_{i} (x_{i}; \circ_{i}) |_{i} \%_{i}x_{i}$$
 (3)

where q; x and x are vectors of x production quantities, research activities, and taxes, respectively.

One idiosyncratic feature of our model is the two-dimensional heterogeneity in R&D e±ciency: Firms' R&D technologies may vary with respect to both R&D productivity and R&D costs. A simple reparametrization is useful to clarify the meaning of this double dimensionality. Let $y_i = \mu_i x_i$ be the decision variable of each \bar{r} rm, i.e., let \bar{r} rms decide on R&D output rather than R&D input. Then, \bar{r} rm i's pro \bar{r} t function can be written as:⁸

O
$$|_{i} = ^{@}P(Q)_{i} \stackrel{\circ}{c}_{i} + y_{i}_{i} \qquad \qquad X \qquad y_{j} \mathbf{A}_{q_{i}_{i}} \quad (\frac{y_{i}}{\mu_{i}}; ^{\circ}_{i})$$

$$|_{j} = ^{@}P(Q)_{i} \stackrel{\circ}{c}_{i} + y_{i}_{i} \qquad \qquad (4)$$

where we made use of the de⁻nition of c_i . Thus, we can interpret our model in a di[®]erent way, stating that it re^oects two di[®]erent sources of heterogeneity in R&D costs: one multiplicative (given by $1=\mu_i$) and another one having any form. In particular, for some speci⁻cations, the e[®]ect of \circ_i will be undistinguishable from that of $1=\mu_i$ (for example, ' $(x_i; \circ_i) = \circ_i^2 x_i^2 = (\circ_i = \mu_i)^2 y_i^2$). In this sense, our model comprises more standard R&D technology formulations as special cases. However, in a cost function, say, of the type

' =
$${}^{\circ}_{i}x_{i} + x_{i}^{2} = \frac{{}^{\circ}_{i}}{\mu_{i}}y_{i} + \frac{1}{\mu_{i}^{2}}y_{i}^{2};$$
 (5)

the two sources of heterogeneity have di®erent implications. Having said this, let us stress that our preferred interpretation is in terms of heterogeneity in both R&D productivity and R&D costs, with R&D e®ort as the choice variable rather than R&D output.

Like Spencer and Brander (1983), we assume the market is abroad, so that all production of domestic ⁻rms is exported and none of the foreign ⁻rms' production is imported. Thus, the

⁷Details are provided in the appendix, available at http://ppbarros.fe.unl.pt/papers.html, or by request to the authors.

⁸Omitting the tax component.

government, maximising national welfare, takes no notice of consumers' surplus and simply maximises the sum of domestic "rms' pro"ts, net of the R&D tax; i.e., the government maximises:⁹

$$W = \underset{i2M}{\times} [+ \frac{3}{4} x_i]$$
 (6)

Our interest is with the following three-stage situation: In stage 1, the government decides on a vector $(\frac{3}{4}; \dots; \frac{3}{4}m)$ of R&D taxes, one for each domestic $\frac{1}{4}m$. In stage 2, $\frac{1}{4}m$, domestic and foreign, choose their level of R&D activities, thus determining their costs in the subsequent production. In stage 3, $\frac{1}{4}m$ rms choose production quantities. We will be looking for the subgame-perfect equilibrium of this game.

3 R&D competition with ¬rm heterogeneity

Before dealing with the international competition setting, it is useful to characterize and interpret the R&D stage competition. For this purpose, assume that only two (domestic) $^{-}$ rms are present in the market (m = n = 2). We consider the following two-stage game: First, $^{-}$ rms decide on R&D investments; and, second, after R&D investments have been made and become common knowledge, $^{-}$ rms decide on their production levels.

A starting question is whether initial low-cost \bar{r} rms perform more R&D, or not. The way to obtain an answer to this question is to assume that \bar{r} m 1 has higher initial costs ($c_1 > c_2$). Otherwise, \bar{r} rms are identical, i.e., $\mu_1 = \mu_2 = \mu$ and $\alpha_1 = \alpha_2 = \alpha_2$.

The solution to the second-stage problem is the following pair of quantities:

$$q_i = \frac{{}^{\otimes}_i + \mu(2x_{i j} x_{j})}{3}; \qquad {}^{\otimes}_i = a_i \ 2c_i + c_j; \qquad i; j = 1; 2; i \in j$$
 (7)

First-stage equilibrium pro ts are

$$| i = q_i^2 i ' (x_i; ^\circ); \qquad i = 1; 2$$
 (8)

Thus, substituting by the relevant expressions, rst-stage optimal R&D choices satisfy

$$\frac{4\mu}{9} (^{\otimes}_{i} + \mu(2x_{i}_{i} x_{j}))_{i} \frac{ ^{\otimes'}_{i}}{ ^{\otimes}_{x_{i}}} = 0; \qquad i = 1; 2$$
 (9)

Even if we cannot explicitly solve for x_i ; i=1;2, without speci⁻cation of a particular functional form for R&D costs, it is nonetheless possible to show the next result.¹⁰

⁹Note the implicit assumption of absence of a distortionary cost of public funds.

¹⁰Details on how to prove this and many of the subsequent results in this article can be found in the appendix, available at http://ppbarros.fe.unl.pt/papers.html, or by request to the authors.

Remark 1 When rms are equal, except with respect to initial costs, the initial low-cost rm does more R&D than the initial high-cost rm.

Thus, the initial cost gap among <code>rms</code> is broadened by the activities at the R&D stage. The simplest way to show our claim is to consider <code>rst</code> the case of identical <code>rms</code> ($e_1 = e_2$), and then take an increase in e_1 and a simultaneous decrease in e_2 (both resulting from an increase in e_1). As the induced changes in e_1 and e_2 keep the sign constant, a diegreence e_1 in e_2 can be seen as a series of in initesimal changes starting from an initial identical position. It is easy to obtain e_1 and e_2 and e_3 and e_4 of e_4 and e_5 and e_6 and e_7 and e_8 are the results e_8 and e_8 are the R&D stage.

The above remark shows that ex-ante asymmetries in production costs result in a higher incentive to invest in R&D by the lower cost <code>rm</code>. The result is not novel, <code>11</code> but the intuition behind it will prove useful below. Suppose that no R&D <code>e®ort</code> is present. The low-cost <code>rm</code> produces more in equilibrium. Since R&D reduces the constant marginal cost of producing the <code>ral</code> good, an equal marginal R&D outcome is applied to a greater mass of production by the low cost <code>rm</code>. Therefore, this <code>rm</code> has a higher marginal bene <code>t</code> from R&D, which leads to a higher equilibrium R&D investment and to an increase in production cost asymmetries.

To focus on the role played by R&D productivity heterogeneity, we assume next no initial asymmetry on the basic cost parameter: $\mathfrak{e}_i = \mathfrak{e}; 8i$. On the other hand, $\bar{}$ rms are allowed to di®er in their abilities to put R&D e®ort to use. 12 The assumption of a common \mathfrak{e} allows us to write equilibrium quantities produced by each $\bar{}$ rm as: 13

$$q_i = \frac{^{\circledR} + 2\mu_i x_i \; i \; \mu_j x_j}{3}; \qquad i; j = 1; 2; i \in j$$
 (10)

where $@ := a_i \ \$ d. By di®erentiation in equations (10), we have

Remark 2 The following comparative statics results hold in the quantity sub-game:

$$\frac{@q_i}{@x_i} > 0; \quad \frac{@q_i}{@\mu_i} > 0; \quad \frac{@q_i}{@x_j} < 0; \quad \frac{@q_i}{@\mu_j} < 0; \qquad i;j = 1;2;i \text{ 6 } j \tag{11}$$

These results are intuitive ones, as they say that increases in R&D investment or in R&D productivity increase own production and reduce the other ⁻rm's production (in equilibrium). Note that these e®ects should not be taken as changes in equilibrium values of the full game

 $^{^{11}}$ Poyago-Theotoky (1996) obtains the same result, under a similar demand structure, a linear cost reduction function (set as a convex function of R&D e®ort) and quadratic R&D costs. We have a simpler R&D productivity function but a more general R&D cost function.

¹²The implications of di®erences in the costs of performing a given level of R&D activity can be derived in the same way. We will refer to them along the way.

¹³Remember that n = m = 2. The following sections generalise this assumption.

in the case of the R&D productivity parameter μ_i (or μ_j), as it is necessary to include the strategic e[®]ect through equilibrium choices of R&D e[®]orts.

We are now ready to characterize the R&D competition stage. Equilibrium choices of R&D e®orts solve the following set of ¯rst-order conditions:

$$\frac{4}{9}\mu_{i}(^{\textcircled{8}} + 2\mu_{i}x_{i}; \mu_{j}x_{j})_{i} \frac{@'}{@x_{i}} = 0; \quad i; j = 1; 2; i \in j$$
 (12)

Once again, without specifying a functional form for ', it is not possible to solve explicitly for x_i ; i=1;2. Nonetheless, the following comparative statics can be obtained.

Remark 3 The e®ects of changes in R&D parameters are:

$$\frac{{}^{@}x_{i}}{{}^{@}\mu_{i}}>0; \quad \frac{{}^{@}x_{i}}{{}^{@}\mu_{i}}<0; \quad \frac{{}^{@}x_{i}}{{}^{@}{}^{\circ}{}_{i}}<0; \quad \frac{{}^{@}x_{i}}{{}^{@}{}^{\circ}{}_{i}}>0; \qquad i;j=1;2;i\not\in j$$

From this remark, it is easy to obtain that $(x_1 \mid x_2)$ is increasing in μ_1 and decreasing in μ_2 . It is also straightforward to show that $(x_1 \mid x_2)$ is increasing in α_2 and decreasing in α_1 .

All these e®ects are, again, in line with what economic intuition predicts. Increases in productivity (or cost savings) stimulate own R&D investment and reduce investment by competitors (in equilibrium).¹⁴

4 Industrial Policy Implications: The corrective tax

The discussion of <code>rm-specic</code> industrial policy in open economies must take into account two di®erent concerns: <code>rst</code>, the rivalry between domestic <code>rms</code>; and second, the competition with foreign <code>rms</code>. In order to highlight the role of rivalry among heterogeneous domestic <code>rms</code>, we <code>rst</code> consider the case where no foreign <code>rm</code> conducts R&D activities. This assumption excludes from the model the strategic motive for intervention that arises when domestic <code>rms</code> net R&D costs a®ect foreign <code>rms</code>' R&D decisions (Spencer and Brander, 1983). Later on, in Section 5, this assumption will be relaxed, so that both corrective and strategic motives are present.

Consider m domestic \bar{r} ms and n $_i$ m foreign \bar{r} ms, with $x_i = 0$; i 2 N n M, i.e. foreign \bar{r} ms do no R&D. In stage 3, \bar{r} m i's choice of production quantity q_i is given by the following \bar{r} rst-order condition:

$$\frac{@_{i}^{l}}{@q_{i}} = P_{i} c_{i} + \frac{@P}{@q_{i}} q_{i} = a_{i} c_{i} q_{i} Q = 0$$
(13)

¹⁴Further implications of our model of R&D competition are discussed in Barros and Nilssen (1999).

¹⁵Note that there still is rent-shifting in the model: when foreign ⁻rms do no R&D, they cannot get lower costs. They therefore end up with lower market shares, and the domestic ⁻rms with higher market shares, than when foreign R&D is allowed.

Summing over all n rst-order conditions and solving for the aggregate quantity, we obtain:

$$Q = \frac{\text{na }_{i} \quad _{i2N} c_{i}}{n+1}$$
 (14)

Inserting this in each <code>rm's rst-order</code> condition, we obtain each <code>rm's stage-3</code> production decision

$$\begin{array}{lll} q_{i} & = & \frac{\mathbb{P}_{i} + n\mu_{i}x_{i}}{P}; & \text{i 2 M} \\ q_{i} & = & \frac{\mathbb{P}_{i} + n\mu_{i}x_{i}}{P}; & \text{i 2 N n M}; \\ \end{array}$$

where $^{\circledR}_{i} := a_{i} n \mathring{c}_{i} + \overset{\textbf{P}}{}_{j2Nnfig} \mathring{c}_{j}; i \ 2 \ N;$ is assumed to be high enough so that all <code>-rms</code> produce positive quantities in equilibrium. Di\mathbb{@}erences in the basic marginal cost parameter, \mathring{c}_{i} , translate into di\mathbb{@}erences in $^{\circledR}_{i}$.

We can now proceed to 'nd second-stage equilibrium levels of R&D investment. The reduced-form pro't is given by:

$$| \cdot | = q_i^2 | \cdot | (x_i; \circ_i) | \cdot | \cdot |_{i} \times_i$$
 (15)

Each "rm's "rst-order condition with respect to the level of its R&D investment is:

$$\frac{@_{i}^{\dagger}}{@x_{i}} = 2q_{i}\frac{@q_{i}}{@x_{i}}; \quad \frac{@'}{@x_{i}}; \quad \frac{@'}{@x_{i}} = 0$$

$$(16)$$

This provides us with a set of conditions, from which we have:

Remark 4 An increase in the R&D tax of ⁻rm i decreases its own R&D e®ort and increases that of rival j:

$$\frac{dx_i}{d^3A_i} < 0; \qquad \frac{dx_j}{d^3A_i} > 0$$

This result can be easily seen as a particular case of the comparative statics above. A change in $\frac{3}{4}$ is essentially similar to a change in the cost parameter $^{\circ}$ _i. Basic economic intuition holds in this setting. An increase in the tax of $^{-}$ rm i induces a lower R&D e®ort of this $^{-}$ rm and a higher e®ort of rivals.

Proceeding to the <code>-rst</code> stage, where the government chooses an R&D tax rate for each domestic <code>-rm</code>, we recall the objective function for the government: $W = {}^{\mathbf{P}}_{i2M} (| _i + \%_i x_i)$. We obtain the optimal tax on domestic <code>-rm</code> i in the following way. Suppose the government is able to choose R&D activities of each <code>-rm</code>, x_i , directly. The problem is:

$$\max_{fx_{i}g_{i2M}} W = \sum_{j2M}^{3} q_{j}^{2} i (x_{j}; ^{\circ}_{j})$$
 (17)

The optimal government choices solve:

To have the government's preferred outcome implemented through a set of subsidies f¾_ig_{i2M}, the optimal subsidy structure is given by the di®erence between each domestic ⁻rm's ⁻rst-order condition (16) and the government's ⁻rst-order condition for this ⁻rm (18):

$$_{4i} = _{i} 2 \underset{j \text{ 2Mnfig}}{\times} \frac{@q_{j}}{@x_{i}} q_{j}$$
 (19)

Since, in our model, $@q_i = @x_i = \mu_i = (n + 1)$, we have:

Proposition 1 Suppose that, in equilibrium, each domestic ⁻rm does at least some R&D. The optimal policy taxes all domestic ⁻rms. The equilibrium tax is:

$$_{4i}^{3} = \frac{2\mu_{i}}{n+1} \frac{X}{_{j \text{ 2Mnfig}}} q_{j} = \frac{2\mu_{i}}{n+1} (Q_{m j} q_{i}) > 0$$
 (20)

where Q_m is total production by domestic \bar{r} rms.

It is immediate to see that

Corollary 1 If $\bar{}$ rms have equal R&D productivity ($\mu_i = \mu; 8i$), then those that produce more are taxed less.

To see the implications of this proposition, take the case of all ⁻rms being equal except for e±ciency in the costs of doing R&D. More e±cient ⁻rms will conduct more R&D, have lower costs and face a lower tax.

This proposition implies that for small productivity asymmetries across $\bar{\ }$ rms, more e±cient $\bar{\ }$ rms are less penalized by the government because they are better positioned from the start (lower $\bar{\ }_i$) and/or more cost-e $\bar{\ }$ ective in conducting R&D activities (lower $\bar{\ }_i$). They are more quantity e±cient in the sense that they produce more. They are, therefore, in a better position to extract rents in the foreign market. The government uses the tax to divert production to the more e±cient $\bar{\ }$ rm.

Asymmetry of <code>-rms</code> does not change the policy prescription of taxing <code>-rms</code> to curtail the strategic incentive to over-invest in R&D from the point of view of the domestic government. However, it adds the insight that more quantity-<code>e±cient -rms</code> should be taxed at a lower rate.

A related question is whether all ⁻rms do R&D under the optimal tax structure (an assumption underlying the above characterization).

Proposition 2 If rms are not too quantity asymmetric, then all domestic rms perform R&D at strictly positive levels.

Proof: Substitute the equilibrium value of the subsidy in a domestic "rm's "rst-order condition to get:

O 1
$$\frac{2\mu_{i}}{n+1}$$
@nq_i i X q_{j} A q_{j} A_{i} $\frac{@'_{i}}{@x_{i}} = 0$ (21)

The term in parenthesis is positive for $q_i = q_j$, yielding an equilibrium choice of $x_i > 0$; 8i 2 M. By continuity, there exists " > 0 such that $j q_i j q_j j$ "; 8i; j 2 M, implies $nq_i j p_{j 2Mnfig} q_j > 0$; 8i, which ensures a positive investment in R&D.

From the proof of the above result, it is clear that the greater the number of foreign $\ ^-$ rms, the easier it is to ful $\ ^-$ I the condition for positive R&D investment levels for domestic $\ ^-$ rms. Of course, if $\ ^-$ rms are su \pm ciently asymmetric, then some of them may not invest in R&D. For equal research productivity ($\mu_i = \mu$) the $\ ^-$ rst $\ ^-$ rms to stop doing R&D are the less cost-e \pm cient ones; and for the same R&D cost structure ($\ ^\circ$ _i = $\ ^\circ$), the less productive ones in R&D will be the $\ ^-$ rst ones to quit R&D activities.

A central question is, of course, how a domestic ⁻rm's R&D technology a®ects the R&D tax put upon it. The next proposition addresses the issue.

Proposition 3 If a rm gets more e±cient in the sense of a decrease on R&D costs, then its R&D tax decreases; while if it gets more e±cient in the alternative sense of an increase in R&D productivity, then the R&D tax may increase or decrease:

$$\frac{{}^{@}\mathcal{M}_{i}}{{}^{@}\mathcal{C}_{i}} > 0; \qquad \frac{{}^{@}\mathcal{M}_{i}}{{}^{@}\mathcal{C}_{i}} < 0; \qquad \frac{{}^{@}\mathcal{M}_{i}}{{}^{@}\mu_{i}} > 0; \qquad \frac{{}^{@}\mathcal{M}_{i}}{{}^{@}\mu_{i}} > 0 \tag{22}$$

The surprising result in the proposition is the ambiguous e®ect of an increase in R&D productivity upon the <code>rm-specic</code> tax. The tax may increase or decrease, and this is so because two con° icting e®ects are present. First, there is a strategic e®ect: The corrective tax is higher the larger the quantity produced by rival <code>rms</code>. An increase in the R&D productivity of one <code>rm</code> leads to a reduction in domestic rivals' production. Thus, a lower tax on this <code>rm</code> is required. Second, there is a direct e®ect: A higher R&D productivity also means a stronger incentive, at the margin, for the <code>rm</code> to (over)invest in R&D. Thus, a heavier tax should be implemented. Taking together the two e®ects, an ambiguous qualitative implication results from the model.

5 Optimal taxes with foreign R&D

The assumption that foreign <code>rms</code> do not invest in R&D is unreasonable in many cases and it is unwarranted but for illustrative purposes. We now relax the assumption. On the other hand, we reduce the heterogeneity among <code>rms</code> to a minimum by dividing <code>rms</code> in three groups, two domestic and one foreign, with homogeneity within each group. Thus, there are three types of <code>rms</code> partitioned in two sets, M_1 and M_2 , of domestic <code>rms</code> and a set M_3 of foreign <code>rms</code>, with $M = M_1$ M_2 , and $M_3 = N$ n M. Firms within each group are equal with respect to R&D costs and R&D productivity technology. Foreign <code>rms</code> also do R&D, and they are endowed with parameters (μ_3 ; ° $_3$). Domestic <code>rms</code> of type i are characterised by (μ_i ; ° $_i$); i = 1; 2. All three types of <code>rms</code> have identical initial production costs, d_i . Let d_i be the number of <code>rms</code> in set d_i ; i = 1; 2; 3.

In the <code>rst</code> stage, the government chooses an R&D tax to apply to each domestic <code>rm</code>. The government's objective function is the sum of pro<code>ts</code> and tax revenue. The existence of foreign <code>rms</code> doing R&D means that there is a strategic incentive for government intervention in order to <code>a®ect</code> the foreign <code>rms'</code> R&D decisions (Spencer and Brander, 1983). The <code>e®ect</code> of this strategic <code>e®ect</code> is tempered, in our model, by the government's desire to exploit the heterogeneity among the domestic <code>rms</code>.

The stage of production of the ⁻nal good is essentially the same, rendering second-stage pro⁻ts given by:

$$| \cdot |_{i} = q_{i}^{2} |_{i} (x_{i}; \circ_{i})$$
 (23)

where

$$q_{i} = \frac{a_{i} \dot{c} + (n_{i} m_{i} + 1)\mu_{i}x_{i}_{i} m_{j}\mu_{j}x_{j}_{i} m_{k}\mu_{k}x_{k}}{n + 1}; \qquad i; j; k = 1; 2; 3; i \in j \in k$$
 (24)

Pro⁻t maximisation yields the following set of ⁻rst-order conditions:

$$2q_i \frac{@q_i}{@x_i} i \frac{@'}{@x_i} = 0; \qquad i = 1; 2; 3:$$
 (25)

From these conditions, we get the analog of Remark 3. Moreover, it is straightforward to show that cost reductions are positively related to own e±ciency and negatively associated with rivals' e±ciency:

Remark 5 The e[®]ects of changes in R&D parameters are:

$$\begin{array}{lll} \frac{@x_i}{@\mu_i} &>& 0; & \quad \frac{@x_j}{@\mu_i} < 0; & \quad \frac{@\mu_i x_i}{@\mu_i} > 0; & \quad \frac{@\mu_i x_i}{@\mu_j} < 0 \\ \frac{@x_i}{@\circ_i} &<& 0; & \quad \frac{@x_i}{@\circ_j} > 0; & \quad \frac{@\mu_i x_i}{@\circ_i} < 0; & \quad \frac{@\mu_i x_i}{@\circ_j} > 0 \end{array}$$

The optimal government choices, if it could determine each domestic ⁻rm's R&D activity directly, solve:

$$2 \underset{j \geq M}{\mathbf{X}} q_{j} \frac{@q_{j}}{@x_{i}} i \frac{@'}{@x_{i}} + 2 \underset{j \geq M}{\mathbf{X}} q_{j} \frac{@q_{j}}{@x_{g}} \frac{@x_{g}}{@x_{i}} = 0$$
(26)

To have this outcome implemented, the optimal tax must be:

$$\mathcal{H}_{i}^{\pi} = i \, 2 \, \frac{\mathbf{X}}{k_{2} \mathsf{Mnfiq}} \, \frac{\mathsf{eq}_{k}}{\mathsf{ex}_{i}} \, \mathsf{q}_{k} \, i \, 2 \mathsf{m}_{3} \, \frac{\mathsf{ex}_{g}}{\mathsf{ex}_{i}} \, \frac{\mathbf{X}}{i_{2} \mathsf{M}} \, \mathsf{q}_{j} \, \frac{\mathsf{eq}_{j}}{\mathsf{ex}_{g}}; \qquad i \, 2 \, \mathsf{M}$$

$$(27)$$

It remains to show that it is not optimal for the government to have only one domestic <code>rm</code> active in equilibrium (with taxes inducing exit of all others). This issue is similar, under our structure, to the problem of merger pro<code>-tability</code>. From this literature, it is well-known that, in the linear oligopoly with constant marginal costs and quantity-setting <code>rms</code>, a merger is not pro<code>-table</code> unless it encompasses a very signi<code>-cant</code> share of existing <code>-rms</code>. ¹⁶ Thus, assuming that <code>-rms</code> are not too heterogeneous and that the number of foreign <code>-rms</code> is high enough, the above tax does characterise the optimal tax structure.

Making the relevant substitutions we can write the optimal tax, for the two types of domestic ⁻rms, as

$$\sqrt[3]{i} = \frac{\mu_i((m_{i\ i}\ 1)q_i + m_jq_j)}{2} + \frac{m_3\mu_3}{2} \frac{@x_g}{@x_i}(m_1q_1 + m_2q_2); \quad i;j = 1;2;i \in j;g \ 2 \ M_3 \ (28)$$

This tax is composed of two main parts. The <code>rst</code> part of the tax is (for type-1 <code>rms</code>, a similar expression holds for type-2 <code>rms</code>):

$$_{i} 2 \frac{X}{_{k2Mnfig}} \frac{@q_{k}}{@x_{i}} q_{k} = \mu_{1} \frac{(m_{1} i 1)q_{1} + m_{2}q_{2}}{2} > 0;$$
 (29)

and it is designed to internalise the e®ect of one domestic ¯rm doing R&D on the pro¯ts of the other domestic ¯rms. Since more R&D means lower costs in the ¯nal production stage, the ¯rm is a tougher competitor. The cross-e®ect among domestic ¯rms is negative, which justi¯es why a government that maximises industry pro¯ts has an interest in taxing R&D activities.

The second term in the tax structure is:

$$_{i} 2m_{3} \frac{@x_{g}}{@x_{i}} \frac{X}{_{i}2M} q_{j} \frac{@q_{j}}{@x_{g}} = \frac{m_{3}\mu_{3}}{2} \frac{@x_{g}}{@x_{i}} (m_{1}q_{1} + m_{2}q_{2}) < 0$$
 (30)

and it constitutes the strategic incentive of governments to subsidise domestic R&D e®orts. Increasing R&D by a domestic ⁻rm induces lower R&D spending by the foreign ⁻rms, which bene ⁻ts all domestic ⁻rms.

¹⁶See Salant et al. (1983).

This decomposition into corrective and strategic components shows that the optimal tax can be positive or negative, depending on the relative strength of these two opposite forces, a result in line with the analysis of Dixit (1984) and others on multi- rm subsidies.

We look now at the possibly di®erent ways domestic ¯rms are treated by the tailor-made industrial policy set by the government. The di®erence in tax rates among the two types of domestic ¯rms is:

$$\frac{\mu}{34_{1}^{n} i} \frac{\mu}{42_{2}^{n} = i} 2 q_{2} \frac{eq_{2}}{ex_{1}} i q_{1} \frac{eq_{1}}{ex_{2}} i 2 q_{1} \frac{eq_{1}}{ex_{3}} + q_{2} \frac{eq_{2}}{ex_{3}} \frac{\P \mu}{ex_{3}} \frac{ex_{3}}{ex_{1}} i \frac{ex_{3}}{ex_{2}}$$
(31)

Again, it is useful to look separately at the corrective and strategic components of the optimal tax. Take <code>rst</code> the <code>di®erence</code> due to the use of the tax structure for corrective purposes: In order to compare <code>di®erent rms'</code> tax rates, we <code>de ne -</code> as the <code>di®erence</code> between two <code>rms'</code> corrective tax components. Inserting the results of Section 4 in (31), we <code>nd</code>:

$$- := \frac{2Q}{n+1}(\mu_1 \mid \mu_2) + \frac{2}{n+1}(\mu_2 q_2 \mid \mu_1 q_1)$$
 (32)

For $\mu_1 = \mu_2$; - > 0 if $q_1 < q_2$, which is the result of lower R&D costs or lower initial costs of <code>-rm 2</code>. If, on the other hand, the only di®erence across <code>-rms</code> is on R&D productivity, there is an ambiguity: By doing less R&D, the more R&D productive <code>-rm may still</code> have a lower marginal cost of production, and consequently a greater production volume. The lower R&D productivity runs in favour of a smaller tax, but a lower quantity is associated with a lower tax for other <code>-rms</code> (the externality imposed by other <code>-rms</code> is smaller). Therefore, the evolution of the relative tax is ambiguous. Heterogeneity in R&D costs and heterogeneity in R&D productivity may have di®erent implications for the optimal corrective tax imposed by the government.

A decrease in R&D costs always implies a decrease in the respective corrective tax. The e®ect works through the optimal choice of R&D. As costs of doing R&D decrease, a ¯rm will increase its investment in R&D activities. This makes the ¯rm relatively more e±cient, which in turn makes it more attractive for the government to decrease its tax and divert production to this more e±cient ¯rm.

The same $e^{@}$ ect operates when a \bar{r} m becomes more R&D productive. If the \bar{r} m is more R&D productive, it will increase R&D $e^{@}$ orts, giving rise to the $e^{@}$ ects previously described. The $e^{@}$ ect is, however, combined with the direct impact of R&D on the level of marginal costs of production. Even if R&D $e^{@}$ ort remains constant, an increase in R&D productivity entails a production cost reduction, which gives an incentive to the government to decrease the tax on this \bar{r} rm, as it becomes a more $e\pm cient$ producer.

Consider now the strategic part of the tax. By construction, the linearity of the model in the quantity stage results in

$$\frac{@x_g}{@(\mu_1 x_1)} = \frac{@x_g}{@(\mu_2 x_2)}; \qquad g \ 2 \ M_3$$
 (33)

Thus, we can write the strategic part of (31) as:

which is negative for $\mu_1 > \mu_2$.

Therefore, the $\bar{}$ rm with the higher R&D productivity receives a higher subsidy according to this e^{\oplus} ect. The reason is that a higher μ_i also implies a relative $e\pm$ ciency of this $\bar{}$ rm in rent shifting. Consequently, the $\bar{}$ rm endowed with a higher μ_i is used in a more intense way by the government for that purpose. On the other hand, di $\bar{}$ erences in R&D costs alone are not su \pm cient to induce di $\bar{}$ erential treatment of domestic $\bar{}$ rms. Again there is a di $\bar{}$ erence: Heterogeneity in R&D costs does not give rise to di $\bar{}$ erences in the strategic R&D tax, while heterogeneity in R&D productivity does.

Taking the two e®ects together, if a ¯rm is more e±cient in both productivity and costs than the other, it has a higher subsidy. However, there is an indeterminacy if we cannot order ¯rms in terms of the two e±ciency characteristics.

The de⁻nition of the policy instrument as a value per unit of R&D e[®]ort is not the only one possible. A di[®]erent tax structure could be de⁻ned in relation to R&D output, de⁻ned as the achieved cost reduction. Under a tax/subsidy de⁻nition based on R&D output a ⁻rm producing a higher quantity faces a lower tax. De⁻ne a tax $\dot{\xi}_i$ as proportional to $\mu_i x_i$, thus $a_i^* = \dot{\xi}_i \mu_i$. And

$$\dot{z}_{i} = \frac{\frac{3}{4}_{i}}{\mu_{i}} = \frac{2}{n+1} \frac{X}{k_{2Mnfig}} q_{k} + \frac{2\mu_{3}}{n+1} m_{3} \frac{@x_{3}}{@(\mu_{i}x_{i})} \frac{X}{j_{2M}} q_{j}; \qquad i \ 2 \ M \tag{35}$$

In this case, the di®erence between the two groups of domestic ¯rms in the corrective tax is:

$$\lambda_1 \mid \lambda_2 = \frac{2}{n+1} (q_2 \mid q_1)$$
(36)

With equal initial costs of production of the $^-$ nal good, quantities are directly related to R&D output, so that $q_1 < q_2$ if and only if $\mu_1 x_1 < \mu_2 x_2$. Thus, from expression (36):

$$\lambda_1 > \lambda_2 \text{ if } \mu_1 x_1 < \mu_2 x_2$$
(37)

The strategic part of \dot{c}_i is equal for both \bar{c}_i as the focus on the output of R&D activities already corrects for the relative e±ciency of domestic \bar{c}_i ms in rent shifting. Thus, in this

special speci¯cation of the tax, the ex-post more $e\pm cient$ ¯rm receives the lower tax. It may, or may not, correspond to a higher level of R&D e®ort. The ranking of ¯rms according to R&D e®ort $(x_i > x_j)$ may not be identical to that based on R&D output $(\mu_i x_i >> \mu_j x_j)$. One ¯rm can do less R&D than the other and still obtain a higher R&D output due to di®erences in R&D productivity, as long as no clear ranking, in terms of the two $e\pm ciency$ parameters, across domestic ¯rms exists.

6 Final remarks

The optimal government intervention faces two con°icting forces. First, there is the strategic incentive to pro¯t shifting of Spencer and Brander (1983), which prescribes a subsidy to R&D activities of domestic ¯rms. Second, there is an incentive to correct the negative impact of one domestic ¯rm's R&D on the other through imposition of a tax. The strategic subsidy is larger for the more R&D e±cient ¯rm, while the corrective tax is lower for such a ¯rm. Therefore, e±cient ¯rms receive a more favorable tax treatment. This is so because (a) they are relatively more successful in shifting pro¯ts from foreign ¯rms; and (b) they impose a smaller external e®ect upon other domestic ¯rms.

There is, however, an indeterminacy if heterogeneous <code>-rms</code> cannot be ranked in terms of <code>e±ciency</code> characteristics. The indeterminacy is resolved if the tax is <code>de-ned</code> in terms of R&D output, rather than <code>e®ort</code>. In this case, the tax automatically compensates for <code>di®erences</code> in R&D productivity.

The present analysis shows that <code>-rm</code> heterogeneity has a complex way of <code>a®ecting</code> the optimum industrial policy when <code>-rm-speci-c</code> instruments are available. In particular, a <code>-rm</code> with a high R&D productivity may or may not be taxed more. On the other hand, di®erences in R&D costs do not <code>a®ect</code> the strategic component of government intervention.

Because of the ambiguities we point out in our analysis, it is not clear, in general, how di®erences in R&D technology transform into di®erences in the government's <code>rm-speciccR&D</code> policy. The formulae that we produce in the ensuing analysis may give the impression that there is a way out of this compexity. It is necessary to stress, however, that we do our analysis throughout with the assumption that the government has complete information. When <code>rms</code> are heterogeneous and the policy is <code>rm-specicc</code>, the government has a formidable task to pick winners. The informational requirements needed to <code>ne-tune</code> such a policy seem to be quite strong, as no robust prediction emerges. Therefore, we think it still may be wise to adher to the advice of Nelson (1982), Stoneman (1987), and others, that picking winners

is rarely successful. Our modest contribution is that, even if the information problem can be overcome, ⁻rm heterogeneity makes the link between ⁻rm characteristics and the optimal ⁻rm-speci⁻c R&D policy a complex one.

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