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4	ESTIMATING THE PRICE EFFECTS OF MERGERS AND
5	CONCENTRATION IN THE PETROLEUM INDUSTRY:
6	AN EVALUATION OF RECENT LEARNING
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8	Friday, January 14, 2005
9	Washington, D.C.
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1980s, and changes in the price and availability of gasoline affect consumers directly. Indeed, there may be no other product for which consumers are more acutely aware of price fluctuations, as ubiquitous retail stations loudly announce the current price on large signs visible to all who drive by.

In addition, of course, the price and other supply conditions for petroleum products profoundly affect businesses in many sectors of the economy, as illustrated by the fact that announcements about the price of crude oil can move markets quickly in one direction or the other. As the BE oil merger report observed, perhaps no other industry's performance is so visibly and deeply felt.

The Federal Trade Commission is, of course, the federal antitrust agency primarily responsible for addressing competition issues in this industry. The Commission has devoted substantial resources to scrutinizing market activity in this industry and, when warranted, to bringing law enforcement actions.

I am committed to continuing the Commission's vigilance in this critical market sector. We will continue to apply careful antitrust scrutiny to market behavior, including mergers, and will not hesitate to bring enforcement actions when needed.

know a lot of you already know him from his dedicated service over the years at the Commission, but I hope you'll join me in welcoming him to his new position.

The Commission takes seriously the role that Congress assigned in the development of sound antitrust and consumer protection policy. The agency's investments in research inform the development of competition policy, facilitate better case selection, and provide important economic support to aid the agency in enforcement

1	Of course, before any econometric analysis can
2	be used as the basis for making any decisions, its
3	methodology and results must be carefully reviewed. Such
4	analysis must withstand vigorous cross-examination as
5	U.S. consumers, our courts, and the Commission itself
6	demand nothing less. The wrong enforcement decision in
7	either direction can lead to increased prices, decreased
3	output or reduced service.

Finally, I'd like to thank Comptroller General
David Walker and GAO Chief Economist Scott Farrow for
their constructive feedback on our agenda and the GAO
staff for participating in very helpful data exchanges
with their FTC counterparts.

It's now my pleasure to turn the podium over to BE Director Luke Froeb who will provide more detail and context. Thank you very much.

MR. FROEB: Thank you very much. It's a delight to be here today. One of the great things about this job is taking credit for what other people do and I really don't deserve any credit at all for this conference.

Good morning, I'm grateful to the panelists for being with us today to share their expertise on the issues that are raised in examining the effects of mergers and concentration in the oil industry. I welcome the audience who have joined us here today.

Antitrust policy is best thought of as a continuing process of experimentation, evaluation and reform. It has taken the FTC 90 years to get where we are today, and it would be a terrible conceit to think there's nothing more to learn about how best to design and enforce the antitrust laws.

At the FTC, we have an ongoing program of what

information about a merger) and this chart represents the markets and the decisions about whether to close the investigation or to ask for some relief -- or such as to accept a consent or to seek an injunction against anticompetitive behavior. And you see that the one that stands out is the oil industry, where we had a number of enforcement actions. A large part of our enforcement resources are devoted to the oil industry. That highlights the importance of figuring out whether or not we're doing the right things in this industry.

When we follow up the effect of the merger, it's different than the preliminary investigation. When we investigate a merger, we're trying to predict the future. We can observe the present. We're trying to forecast into the future about what the effect of the merger is going to be.

Now, when we do merger follow-up, we have a different inference problem. We observe some price difference, and then we have to try to figure out if the merger caused that difference. It's a very different analytical paradigm which calls for different kinds of methodologies than we use in merger investigations.

There are two basic kinds of methodologies that will be illustrated in this conference. One is broadly characterized as natural experiments, where we have an

experimental group with the merger, a control group
without the merger, and the difference between the groups
is an estimate of the merger effect.

The other methodology will be price concentration regressions, where you estimate the relationship between price and concentration, and then to draw inference about the effect of the merger, you say the mergers change concentration which change price. And because we've estimated the relationship between concentration and price, we can get an estimate of the effect of the merger.

Then, finally, we want to interpret the results from the follow-on studies and say what does this mean for policy, how can we interpret the results? We have one session on general identification issues and one session on price concentration studies. We ask how robust are the results, are the results sensitive to small changes, can we rely on them for policy? And the final session will be what does this mean for policy, to

Joint Venture, and we sent various notes and critiques of those studies by the GAO and the FTC to the panelists. That formed the basis of their studies and their comments here today.

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While oil mergers and the two studies form the basis for this conference, in a sense, they are but a case example of the enforcement policy R&D. The issues that are likely to be raised and addressed today are similar to those that researchers face in doing any expost studies of merger policy decisions. Thus, we

organization. Dennis often provides advice to firms and to government as an economic expert in antitrust matters.

He has done work previously for the American Petroleum Institute.

Dr. Jerry Hausman is the John and Jennie S.

MacDonald Professor of Economics at MIT where he's taught
for 30 years. Jerry is a recipient of the John Bates

Clark Award granted annually to an economist under 40 who
has made the most outstanding contributions to economics.

Jerry has published numerous papers in the econometrics
and applied micro economics fields in which he is a

renowned expert. Indeed, several econometric tests bear
his name. Jerry has also appeared as an economic expert
in antitrust matters, although none in the oil industry.

Dr. Ken Hendricks is a Professor of Economics at the University of Texas-Austin, who's spending this academic year as a visiting professor at Princeton. Ken is also an expert in industrial organization economics, specializing in auction theory and empirical applications of game theory. Like his fellow panelists, Ken is well-published. Ken consults for both businesses and the government as an economic expert for antitrust cases. Ken provided such expertise to the FTC when he was hired by us to analyze competition in the bidding for crude oil exploration rights in the BP/Arco merger in 2000. Ken

has not been involved as a consultant in oil mergers recently, but Ken is acknowledged in the GAO report as an expert who reviewed the GAO's econometric models.

Dr. Scott Thompson is currently Assistant Chief of the Economic Regulatory Section for our sister agency, the Antitrust Division of the U.S. Department of Justice. Scott attended Stanford and Wisconsin and taught econometrics at the University of Minnesota. He joined the Antitrust Division in 1995 and won the Assistant Attorney General's Distinguished Service Award in 2001. Scott has conducted and overseen numerous merger and price fixing investigations and has conducted follow-up studies of enforcement actions at the Department of Justice.

Dr. Hal White is a Professor of Economics at the University of California at San Diego. Hal is an expert in econometrics and statistics. Indeed, Jerry Hausman told us that Hal was among the best econometricians in the world today. Those of you who know Jerry will recognize what a huge statement this is. Jerry did, however, claim some small credit as Hal is one of his former students. Not surprisingly, Hal has a long list of published research in econometrics. Like Jerry, he has an estimator named after him. Hal offers his economic expertise to businesses through consulting. He

1	has not consulted in the oil industry on any merger
2	matters.
3	Finally, I want to introduce Dr. Chris Taylor.
4	Chris is Deputy Assistant Director for Antitrust in the
5	Bureau of Economics here at the FTC. Chris is co-author,
6	along with Dan Hosken, of one of the studies that forms
7	the basis of today's conference, the Economic Effects of
8	the Marathon-Ashland Joint Venture, which was released as
9	a Bureau of Economics working paper in March 2004. Chris
10	has spent a significant portion of his time over the past
11	few years working on matters in the petroleum industry
12	including the development and implementation of the FTC's
13	ongoing gas monitoring project.
14	To start the conference off, Chris will present
15	both the GAO study and the BE working paper study.
16	Chris?
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1	INTRODUCTION AND PRESENTATION OF TWO RECENT STUDIES
2	PRESENTED BY:
3	CHRIS TAYLOR, FTC, Deputy Assistant
4	Director for Antitrust, Bureau of Economics
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6	DR. TAYLOR: Good morning. For the next hour
7	or so, I will take us through the BE working paper on
8	Marathon/Ashland and the GAO report.
9	We're going to start with the Marathon/Ashland
10	working paper. As Luke said, this is joint work with Dan
11	Hosken, who is also a Deputy Assistant Director here at
12	the FTC. Usual disclaimer, the views and opinions
13	expressed in this presentation are those of the author
14	and do not necessarily represent the views of the
15	Commission or any individual Commissioner.
16	So, why do a case study merger retrospective in
17	the petroleum industry? As we've already referred to
18	this morning, the U.S. petroleum industry has undergone
19	some major restructuring during the 1990s; BP/Amoco,
20	Exxon/Mobil, Chevron/Texaco are examples. Concerns have

tended to examine wholesale rack prices or retail prices,

but seldom both at the same time. So, we decided we

wanted to focus on one merger, one region where the

market structure and change in market structure would

make an anticompetitive effect possible and examine both

rack and retail prices.

So, why examine the Marathon/Ashland transaction? Marathon/Ashland was a major transaction with a sizable change in market structure. The change in the state level wholesale HHI was about 1,800 to 2,260 in the State of Kentucky. I'm certainly not judging whether that's a market or not, but certainly that is a large change in concentration.

The Marathon/Ashland joint venture included seven refineries. Marathon had refineries in Louisville, Texas, Illinois and Michigan; Ashland had refineries in Kentucky, Minnesota and Ohio. There were 84 terminals, 5,400 gas stations and 5,000 miles of pipeline.

The parties acknowledged that the FTC was investigating; however, there were no divestitures or other enforcement actions. So, we don't have to, in this case study, try and figure out the effects of a divestiture.

To give a little more background, this is a map of part of the Midwest and you can see there the

1 Marathon/Ashland refinery in Eastern Illinois at 2 Robinson. There's a pipeline directly to Chicago and one 3 directly to Louisville. The refinery at Catlettsburg, 4 Kentucky was owned by Ashland and it would barge gasoline down the Ohio River to Louisville. The closest pipeline 5 6 is the Teppco Pipeline which runs through Southern 7 Gasoline is barged up the Mississippi and Ohio Indiana. Rivers to Louisville from the Gulf. 8 9 The other Ashland refineries are in Ohio and Minnesota, on the far Eastern and far Western edges, and 10 11 the other Marathon refineries were in the Gulf and in 12 So, Ashland was in Ohio and Kentucky on the Michigan.

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The question then is why look at Louisville? W-2 Tn TreOtsok -5.cd toalkd ua litlet bt wabuthwhyt

east and Minnesota on the west, and Marathon was in

Illinois and Michigan as well.

at the bulk supply level refining, also at terminal and wholesaling and possibly at the retail level as well.

A little more background, this map shows the Louisville area. The shaded portion is the reformulated zone. This is where reformulated gasoline, both with MTBE and with ethanol was sold. The dots are stations. We purchased a census of all the gasoline stations in these three counties of Kentucky.

In the non-shaded areas, conventional gasoline was sold. Also, conventional gasoline was sold on the Indiana side of the Greater Louisville area.

We observe a large change in market structure in a relatively isolated area, Louisville. The region uses a somewhat unique formulation of gasoline, RFG both with MTBE and ethanol was available in Louisville. The only city in the Midwest that used reformulated with MTBE

do you control for the but-for world? What would gasoline prices have been in Louisville if there had not been a merger? And we decided to compare Louisville prices to other cities' prices that arguably are subject to the same or similar demand and supply shocks. We made this choice because we could not find good controls for supply and demand in a localized area.

What were some cities that we choose to compare or use as our control cities? The first one was Chicago. It had reformulated gasoline. Ashland was not present; Marathon was, and it receives its marginal supply from the Gulf by pipe.

Our second choice was Houston, which is a net exporter of RFG to both the Upper Midwest and the East Coast and also has reformulated gasoline with MTBE.

Northern Virginia was another choice. It is supplied from the Gulf by pipe. Marathon and Ashland did sell unbranded gasoline in Northern Virginia, but so did nine other firms.

So, we were looking for cities that had arguably similar supply, especially supply but also demand characteristics, and also cities that were relatively large and had a sizable number of competitors.

Also, all of the racks in these cities have prices for conventional gasoline posted for use in the

surrounding metro areas. So, we could do comparisons both of conventional and reformulated.

The gasoline price data we purchased from the Oil Price Information Service, OPIS. These were wholesale prices. We purchased daily branded and unbranded rack prices. We also purchased firm-specific prices, but we used the average prices, and we aggregated to an average weekly price.

The retail prices were also purchased from OPIS, but these are from fleet cards used at individual service stations at a sample of service stations, which worked out to be about 50 percent of the gasoline stations in the Louisville area, and from that, we calculated an average weekly price. We had retail prices for the City of Louisville and Chicago, both the reformulated area and the conventional area, the Houston Metro and the Northern Virginia areas.

We also purchased a census of service stations, as I mentioned before, from New Image Marketing. So, we know all of the gasoline stations and their locations in those three counties of Kentucky.

Our retail prices are net of taxes. We look at prices for both regular and premium gasoline. The data set covers the period from January 1, 1997 through December 31, 1999. Thus, we have data one year prior to

the merger, which occurred January 1st, 1998, and two years following the merger. We dropped the data after 1999 because of a series of shocks affecting gasoline prices in the Midwest.

So, the results of the paper can pretty much be summarized by this graph. The graph shows the relative price in Louisville less the price in Chicago. The rack price difference, which is the undotted line, pretty much moves in a range of zero to negative five cents per gallon until the April-May 1999 time period when it increases. The retail price and margin look relatively constant or -- well, the retail price looks like it has decreased somewhat and then maybe potentially goes up a little bit. The margin seems relatively constant, although it may be dropping. When we get to the statistical results we'll see which of those were actually significant.

The next graph shows the relative price, the rack price of conventional gasoline, along with the relative rack price of RFG, so Louisville relative to Chicago for conventional is dotted red line and reformulated is the blue line. There's no change in the relative price of conventional in Louisville after the merger either at rack or at retail. The graph shows the rack prices, but the retail prices are similar, and you

can see, as we saw before, the increase in the rack price of RFG in Louisville relative to Chicago starting in April or May of 1999.

This next slide shows the basic derivation of the estimating equation. The first equation is the price in Louisville as a function of shifters for 1998 and 1999, the first two years after the merger, month dummies, which potentially control for changes in marginal supply during the year, an auto-regressive error term, and a normal error term.

The second equation is the equation for the control city, so it's basically the same equation as Louisville without the 1998 and 1999 merger shifters. And the bottom equation is the one that we actually estimated. It is simply the difference between the two equations, so, the relative price between the two cities as a function of the merger shifters and potential monthly changes in marginal supply.

This is a rather abbreviated version of the results, but I think it summarizes what we found in the paper fairly clearly. The first three lines show the regression results on the dummy variables for the margins, relative to Chicago, Houston and Virginia.

There was potentially some drop, depending on the control city used in 1998, but there's clearly a decrease in the

1 margins in Louisville relative to these three control 2 cities in 1999.

At the rack, once again depending on the control city, there may have been a change in 1998, but it is not robust to the choice. Two of the three control cities did not show a statistically significant change in the rack prices. However, in 1999, all of the cities show that the relative rack price in Louisville for reformulated gasoline increased. However, when we look at to retail, there is no retail effect in either year relative to either control city.

I didn't put a slide up here for conventional gasoline simply because there was no effect on margins, rack or retail prices of conventional gasoline. So, that's a summary of the results to this point. We see no systematic change in retail prices following the Marathon/Ashland joint venture. We see no change in the rack price of conventional gasoline. Reformulated rack prices increased in 1999, roughly 15 months after the Marathon/Ashland joint venture. The implied retail margin of Louisville gas stations with RFG decreased in 1999. These results were fairly robust to measures of price margin.

In the paper, we looked at branded and unbranded rack prices. We looked at premium and regular

grades of gasoline, and obviously, we looked at the three control areas of Chicago, Houston and Northern Virginia.

Two interesting questions that come out of those results. First, why did wholesale RFG prices increase in Louisville in 1999? In the paper, we argue this may have been the result of a supply shock. St. Louis entered the RFG program at the same time of the wholesale price increase. The first posting of reformulated gasoline at the St. Louis rack happened on May 1st, 1999, almost perfectly coincident with the price increase, especially when you figure in the shipments of gasoline to St. Louis had to occur before May 1st of 1999.

St. Louis uses RFG MTBE and RFG with ethanol, like Louisville, at least in 1999 and they received their shipment from the Gulf. St. Louis reformulated demand, in 1999, was basically equal to the RFG demand in Kentucky; so, a significant change in the demand for reformulated gasoline in the Midwest.

Secondly, there is an interesting question in terms of vertical relationships -- why was the rack price increase not passed through retail prices? We saw an increase in the rack price, but we did not see an increase in retail pricing.

Going back to the data that we purchased on a

census of the gasoline stations in those counties in
Louisville, part of that census told us how those
stations were supplied, whether they were supplied from
the rack or they were directly supplied by the oil
companies. Those rack prices are the wholesale prices
for approximately 70 percent of the stations in the
reformulated area of Louisville. The remainder of those
stations may not have experienced a wholesale price
increase. In fact, in a moment, I will show you how the
relative prices of rack and DTW changed during that
period.

The rack-supplied stations also compete with stations across the border in Indiana, which sold conventional gasoline, which, as we've already pointed out, did not experience a price increase. Also, they competed with the stations on the fringe of Louisville that sold conventional gasoline.

So, to test if our hypothesis about differential effects on rack-supplied and DTW stations we split the station level data into those two groups and compared the relative prices. That analysis suggests that the retail price of rack-supplied stations in Louisville increased by about .6 cents per gallon in 1999 relative to the DTW-supplied stations. Thus, you did see some shift between those two types of gasoline stations,

in how they're being supplied.

This is a graph of the difference between

Kentucky DTW prices and rack prices. We've got our DTW

prices from the Department of Energy. These are monthly

prices that are only available at the state level. So,

not as fine a disaggregation as our rack prices. But you

can see that previous to the spring of '99, the price

difference, on average, was five to six cents per gallon

between rack and DTW, DTW being more expensive.

This price difference decreases and actually inverts during 1999. This is similar to what we've seen in other supply shocks in California and in the Midwest such as refinery outages and the formulation change in the spring of 2000. This inversion is likely due to the contractual supply assurances that are given a lessee dealer.

So, to summarize the paper and the results we

about, given that there was no data prior to May 1st of 1999 for St. Louis.

We see no change in the wholesale price of conventional. We see a large drop in the implied margin, since wholesale prices went up and retail prices were unchanged. We discussed, in the paper, reasons why this whole price increase may have been caused by the St.

Louis supply shock. And I think one of the interesting and important results to come out of the paper, it is possible to have a sizable change in rack prices with no change in retail prices.

Okay, I'm going to take a minute and load up the slides for the presentation of the GAO merger report and price concentration report.

Okay, this is a summary of the empirical analyses in the GAO's report, the Effects of Mergers and Market Concentration in the U.S. Petroleum Industry. I will do this primarily by showing materials or quotes directly from the GAO report, and as usual, the same disclaimer applies, that the opinions I'm about to express are mine.

What was the motivation for the GAO report?

Very similar to why the FTC was doing merger

retrospectives since the 1990s, the U.S. Petroleum

industry has experienced a wave of mergers, acquisitions

and joint ventures. The ranking minority member of the permanent subcommittee of investigations of the Senate Committee on Governmental Affairs, Senator Levin of Michigan, requested that the GAO examine petroleum industry mergers since the 1990s.

While there are a number of issues about the petroleum industry discussed in the GAO report, I will present the information in Chapter 5 and Appendix 4 which comprise the empirical work in the report.

In this report, the effect of eight mergers -these include joint ventures and sales of assets which
occurred between 1997 and 2000 -- are examined on
wholesale, rack gasoline prices. In addition, the
relationship between price and concentration,
concentration being measured at the PADD level and
gasoline prices is estimated. They examined the
wholesale price of three types of gasoline, conventional,
reformulated with MTBE, and carb gasoline formulated with
MTBE. And they examined both branded and unbranded rack
prices for each formulation.

As an introduction to the empirical analysis used in both the merger event studies in the price concentration analysis, I wanted to talk first a little bit about the data set to give you some background on the structure. The basic data set used in both the merger

event and the price concentration analysis is a panel of terminal rack prices weekly over a number of years. So, for example, when they're looking at branded conventional gasoline, there are 282 terminals, so 282 prices weekly for seven years.

And the basic model used in both the price concentration and the merger analysis is very similar. This is directly from the report, but let me give you the basic understanding of it. This is the basic equation, basic model for both the price concentration analysis and the merger analysis. The dependent variable is the rack price minus crude oil price, and that is Y in the equation. There is a constant term, a vector of explanatory variables, X. These could include regulatory factors, demand and supply factors, other things that shift the relative price of gasoline.

Then there is a rack city specific error component and then the normal error term. And in later specifications, they allow for correlation across these racks so prices across racks can be correlated.

A little more straightforward representation of that equation, this is the equation used in the merger analysis. Price -- and price here, once again, is measured as the difference between the rack price and the price of crude oil -- is a function of the merger

variables, the inventory ratio -- and I'll discuss that in a little more detail later -- utilization rate -- this is a refinery utilization rate -- and the Midwest and the West Coast crisis dummies. These are measures of supply shocks in the Midwest and the West Coast. And there are separate equations.

This equation is estimated separately for the three formulations, so conventional, reformulated and carb, and for branded and unbranded gasoline for each of those specifications. You can think about this being estimated six times, once for each formulation and once for branded and unbranded for each formulation.

This is the estimation equation for the price concentration analyses and, quite simply, if you took away the merger variables and inserted a measure of concentration, this would be the basic equation. So, once again, price relative to crude oil, a measure of concentration -- I'll talk a little more in detail about it, but it basically is a PADD level refinery concentration -- inventory ratio, utilization rates, once again, the Midwest crisis and the West Coast crisis variables.

I'll talk about the data in a little more detail. Price is the difference between the rack price and the spot price of crude oil. This was deflated by a

measure of inflation, which was the annual PPI for
finished energy. GAO purchased rack prices from the Oil
Price Information Service. These projects have generated
a fair amount of business for OPIS.

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These are weekly observations of branded and unbranded rack price. But while I'm discussing rack prices, let me digress for a minute. A rack price from OPIS is for a particular terminal or aggregation of terminals as determined by OPIS. So, for example, there are multiple terminal locations in the Greater Fairfax,

1 On the next couple slides, I'm going to talk about how some of these variables are defined. In terms 2 3 of the competition variables, you have to define which racks were potentially affected by which mergers, so 4 we'll talk about them as overlap racks. A rack was 5 6 defined as an overlap if both firms posted any gasoline 7 price at the rack in the year prior to the merger. Merger. So,

available from the Department of Energy. So, the data
was linearly interpolated from the missing years.

The measure of crude oil was the West Texas intermediate spot price. It was deflated into year 2000 dollars, as I mentioned earlier, using the annual producer price index for finished energy. So, this is a weekly national variable.

The utilization rate was the refinery capacity utilization rate. This was a weekly national variable. The supply disruption variables -- the Midwest gasoline variable was for June of 2000 and affects PADD II, the Midwest. And the California refinery outages were in 1999 and 2000 and these variables were weekly at the PADD level.

The inventory ratio was a measure of lagged gasoline inventories to expected demand, it's weekly and at the PADD level. I'm going to spend, actually, the next couple slides, hopefully, walking you through what that variable is because this is an important variable in the analysis because it is one of the main ways to measure supply and demand shifters in this analysis.

How do you calculate the inventory ratio? The numerator is the weekly normalized gasoline inventory for a PADD. So, gasoline inventories of all types of gasoline -- say, for example, conventional and

reformulated -- were normalized using the PADD mean over the sample period. Thus, you're scaling each weekly observation by the average inventory level over that period of years.

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The denominator is the monthly expected demand for the PADD, and expected demand is estimated using a simplified demand equation for each state. So, you have the quantity of gasoline that has been consumed monthly in every state, and you estimate the equation at the bottom of the slide, which is the normalized volume in a period as a function of the normalized volume in the previous period, month dummies, a trend and a trend squared. You take the predicted values from that equation, so the estimated monthly state level demands, and then average them together to obtain a predicted or expected PADD level demand for each month. The inventory ratio is then the one period lagged normalized weekly PADD level inventory variable divided by this estimated monthly PADD level demand. In this way, you end up with a weekly PADD level variable, and the way you do that is you use the same monthly PADD level expected demand for each week in that month.

Just a few notes on how these equations were estimated. The model estimation included rack level fixed effects which were implemented by demeaning the

data by the rack location. The XTGLS command in STATA was used to estimate feasible generalized leased squares for panel data. The estimator used accounted for a common or single auto correlation across all the racks and there was a separate error variance for each rack and also covariance was allowed between each set of racks.

One word -- one slide -- about endogeneity of some of these relationships, were they independent variables, and I'm sure this topic will come up later today, and this is a quote from the GAO report. Since two of the explanatory regressors in the price equations might be endogenous, inventory ratio and utilization rates, we test for their endogeneity using the Hausman 1978 specification test.

If exogeneity of the variables was rejected,
GAO used a two-step estimation procedure with
instrumental variables. Instrumental variables were used
in some of the analyses and not others. They were used
in the unbranded conventional merger analysis, the
unbranded carb merger analysis, the unbranded
conventional price concentration analysis for the entire
country, and the branded conventional price analyses for
PADDs I through III and PADDs IV and V, and the unbranded
price concentration analysis for carb.

Now we're going to get to which mergers and

- what the results were. There were eight transactions
- 2 examined in the GAO analysis in order of their timing,

across merger depending on gasoline formulation.

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This is a reproduction of the summary table out of the report for conventional gasoline and the merger study. UDS/Total, which had a premerger period of '94 to September of '97, and a post-merger period of October '97 through January of '98, was estimated to have decreased wholesale gasoline prices in those cities where they were judged to compete by approximately one cent a gallon, and this is in conventional gasoline. The Marathon/Ashland joint venture, which has a pre-period of 1994 through early 1998 and a post-period of the first half of 1998, was estimated to have increased conventional gasoline prices by about half a cent to three-quarters of a cent This is a different result than the one I per gallon. presented this morning from the working paper that I helped author.

I won't go through them all one by one, but Shell/Texaco II, which affected the eastern half of the United States, was estimated to have decreased prices by approximately a cent to two cents a gallon. The superscripts you see next to the numbers denote statistical significance. So, most of the other mergers, Shell/Texaco I, BP/Amoco, Marathon/UDS and Exxon/Mobil were estimated to have increased wholesale gasoline prices anywhere from half a cent a gallon to five cents a

1 no effect on the price of unbranded gasoline.

Now, I want to shift and summarize the price concentration analyses and results. Conventional gasoline was examined in PADDs I through V, so the entire country with data from February of 1994 through December of 2000. Reformulated gasoline was looked at in PADDs I through III, so the eastern half of the U.S., and this was, once again, for reformulated with MTBE. The Upper Midwest that used ethanol was not included in the reformulated estimation. The data was February 1995 through December of 2000. And, finally for carb gasoline, the price concentration relationship and merger effects were estimated with data from May of 1996 through December of 2000 for California and the West Coast.

Verbally, the results: "For market concentration, GAO's econometric analysis shows that increased market concentration resulted in higher wholesale gasoline prices. Prices for conventional gasoline increased by less than one-half cent per gallon for branded and unbranded gasoline." "The wholesale price increased by about one cent per gallon for boutique fuel sold on the East Coast, so this is reformulated gasoline, between 1995 and 2000, and by over seven cents per gallon in California between 1996 and 2000."

Now, a summary of the price concentration

results, the price concentration effects for conventional show a positive and significant relationship for all but one of the specifications on this table. For the entire country, the 300-point increase in HHI from 803 to 1,101, shown on the table, when multiplied by the estimated coefficient on the price concentration relationship, shows a 0.15 cent per gallon total increase in the price of gasoline. The total effect of the change in concentration of the price of unbranded is larger at about .33 cents per gallon for the 300-point increase.

I want to make it clear this 300-point increase was calculated as the total change in PADD level concentration of crude distillation capacity for each PADD, weighted by the number of price observations in that PADD. Thus, to aggregate PADD level HHIs to national, the number of rack price observations in each PADD was used as a weight. So, when estimating the price HHI relationship for just the Eastern U.S., there is an increase of .25 cents per gallon for branded and no statistically significant change for unbranded. In the Western U.S., there is a price increase of .56 cents per gallon in branded and 1.29 cents per gallon in unbranded.

And these are the price concentration results for reformulated and carb gasoline. For reformulated gasoline, estimated effect of approximately a cent per

gallon for both branded and unbranded gasoline. However,
in carb, the 300-point increase in that area was
estimated to have increased prices between seven and
eight cents per gallon.

Finally, just a quick summary of the report from the executive summary, "GAO's econometric analyses indicate that mergers and increased market concentration generally led to higher wholesale gasoline prices in the United States from the mid-1990s through 2000. Six of the eight mergers GAO modeled led to price increases averaging one cent to two cents per gallon. GAO found that increased market concentration, which reflects the cumulative effects of mergers and other competitive factors, also led to increased prices."

That is my summary of both the Marathon/Ashland working papers and the GAO's report on mergers and price concentration. I guess we're going to take about a 10 or 15-minute break before we get on to the first panel this morning.

(Whereupon, a brief recess was taken.)

MR. FROEB: The presentation for this hearing will be on the website in about a week.

As I said, there will be a series of four panels today. The first panel is General Identification Issues in Merger Event Studies. Jerry Hausman is going

1	to be the moderator of this panel. All of our panelists
2	will have an opportunity to comment on each of these
3	issues. We've tried to break them down into some kind of
4	rational taxonomy here, but there will be lots of overlap
5	and leakage between the topics on each of the panels.
6	Jerry?
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1	PANEL ONE: GENERAL IDENTIFICATION ISSUES IN MERGER EVENT
2	STUDIES
3	MODERATOR: JERRY HAUSMAN, Ph.D.
4	PANEL MEMBERS: DENNIS CARLTON, Ph.D.
5	HAL WHITE, Ph.D.
6	KEN HENDRICKS, Ph.D.
7	SCOTT THOMPSON, Ph.D.
8	
9	PROFESSOR HAUSMAN: Well, I'm pleased to be
10	here today. As Luke said, what we did, with Liz
11	Callison's help, was to split things up into four
12	sessions, and we decided, the panelists, that for each
13	panel we'd start off with about a 15-minute presentation.
14	So, that's what I expect to do.
15	So, the way that I thought we would set this up
16	is I would give a 15-minute presentation, then each of
17	the panelists would speak, and then if we have time,
18	we'll take questions at the end.
19	This is a very difficult problem that we're
20	talking about today, which is to evaluate what happens
21	after mergers. But in a sense, there's an even more
22	difficult problem that arises before this, which, of
23	course, the agencies, by which I mean Justice and the
24	FTC, confront, and that is that they actually have to do

a prediction before a merger takes place and decide

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1	conference was first set up, I thought we were going to
2	get the data and I actually volunteered to do my own
3	analysis, but I guess for the usual confidentiality
4	reasons, we were never given the data. So, I don't have
5	a strong view on exactly what the right answer is.
6	But when you take into account that the
7	structure of the market is going to change, at least the

in the early '90s, if you looked at ad rates in Boston, and compared the early '90s to late '90s, you're going to find that ad rates went up a lot. You would incorrectly conclude that that merger had anticompetitive effects; while, in fact, what happened in the '90s is the tech boom hit Boston and all my former students were getting rich and so there were a lot of help wanted advertisements and so on.

So, then the idea is, well, you pick a city that that probably didn't happen in, New Haven, you know, which was -- Macy's was closing and the last hotel was closing and so it was going downhill, which has been happening for the last 20 years, and that provides your control. So, you must control for these other factors.

Now, of course, we at MIT would never think that Yale could provide a control, but that's sort of the idea.

Okay, so, there are two factors involved. A priori, can you specify a model that allows you to tell merger effects from other factors? This identification is a problem Tjalling Koopmans posed in the late 1940s, he started the identification analysis in econometrics. And it's important to note that identification is always based on non-testable prior knowledge. So, in the end, reasonable people, or perhaps unreasonable people, can

the test. And another worry is that pretty much all of 1 2 the GAO stuff is based on general least squares 3 estimation, and as I'll point out later, it's pretty clear that the standard errors that they calculate are 4 all biased downwards. However, by and large, I'm not 5 going to make a big deal of this because the effects the 6 GAO found were strong enough that if you correct for 7 8 that, it might not make much of a difference. But since 9 I don't have the data, I really -- you know, I can't determine that for sure one way or the other. 10 11 Okay, now, let's think about identification a 12 little bit more. Regression gives the conditional distribution of price or price change given the right-13 14 hand side variable. So, you should always remember that

you can always go out and estimate a regression and the

regression always gives you the conditional distribution

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However, if you have geographic markets, this is Boston versus New Haven in my example, then you have the time period before the merger, before the New York Times bought The Globe and the time period after the merger, and you do this double comparison of Boston to New Haven, before and after, and this is called the differences-in-differences approach, DID.

Now, it turns out that DID, as done by labor economists, is not efficient and they also get the wrong standard errors, and, not surprisingly, I have a paper on that, but that's not what we're here to talk about today.

So, the second method you can use is instrumental variables(IV), In instrumental variables, you use a priori knowledge again that the instrument is correlated with the right-hand side variables that are orthogonal, in other words, uncorrelated to the stochastic disturbance which is often called the residual. And in a survey paper that I wrote back in '82, I demonstrated that in some sense all IV estimation comes down to an IV approach. So, this may be a useful way to think about things, and you can put differences-in-differences into an IV approach as well, and then it becomes quite straightforward to see what the assumptions you need are.

And here that would be an exogenous change. We

for another -- yet another seminar.

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But, ordinary least squares may be less sensitive to a small failure of orthogonality. So, this would be the kind of thing that you would want to think about.

In my view, and this is sort of the one thing I'm going to say about how the agencies work. I quess Deb Majoras has long since left. But I think general complaints or questions do not invalidate results. So, I've come in many times to discuss my analysis of a merger. Staff, of course, wants to get its way; I want to get my way. You know, let's face it, that's how human nature works. But when the staff doesn't like the results, the staff will say, well, you know, there may be this variable you left out and the staff always "wants the benefit of the doubt," and I think maybe they get it when they have the star chamber meetings with the Commission here, in which, of course, we're not present. You have to be a student of history to know what star chamber means, but you can look it up on the web.

But anyway, in my view, the key approach should be does it matter, not that you can think of something that might hypothetically be wrong.

So, testing approaches with the prior information, you can do the Hausman Specification Test,

GAO did that type of thing. You can do the Sargan Test
of Over ID, which the GAO also did, although they nicely
named it after me, but it's actually Denis Sargan who
used to teach it.

But I think another thing that you can do which is quite useful in these type of tests -- and interestingly enough, the FTC staff technical report mentioned this, but didn't actually talk about how to do the tests, which I'm going to call the Hausman-White-Newey-Berans test. So, again quoting Luke, Hausman, White and Newey -- Hal is here and Whitney Newey, of course, a world famous econometrician, who's also a student of mine, but Herman Berans' is not and I take no credit for it, now at Penn State.

Okay, so, now what I want to do is turn to the particular studies and talk about them and what they must

Their basic approach is to compare Louisville to nonmerger geographic markets, and then they use the basic

DID approach that I mentioned before.

So, they have data on price changes, but they must control for exogenous changes in supply and demand and market structure that may have affected price.

So, they look at the price in Louisville relative to other markets "unaffected by the merger" facing similar supply and demand conditions. So, they use Chicago, Houston and Northern Virginia markets that use RFG and their claim is that Marathon was small in Chicago and Ashland wasn't present, and then they claim similar demand positions in Louisville and Chicago and similar cost conditions, and retail margins are significantly higher in Chicago, which the FTC might want to investigate all by itself -- I thought that was an interesting fact -- by about 50 percent. But, nevertheless, they thought this was stable over time.

Now, I think the crucial non-testable assumption is that Chicago, Houston and NVA stands for Northern Virginia, are unaffected by the merger. That's the bedrock assumption of this study. So, if you go back and you think about things in my Boston/New Haven example, New Haven wasn't affected by the merger. I don't think anybody in New Haven ever looked at the

Boston Globe. But again, you're saying whatever changed after the merger, we can look at New Haven and take out the time effect in New Haven and subtract that from Boston and then look at the effect of the merger. So, that's the absolute key assumption that you want to get your arms around.

They use one year before the merger and two years after the merger for comparison and they look at the difference between Louisville and Chicago for wholesale prices, retail prices and margins. They don't see any significant change in the retail prices; but find that the Louisville wholesale price has increased significantly about 15 months after JV. They then do a regression approach using DID, and the important assumption, again, is that they need to assume that the time effects, whatever the demand and supply shocks, are common across Louisville and the control cities.

So, again, what they have to assume is that, to the extent that the market structure changed in Louisville, whatever happens in terms of non-merger supply and demand effects, those can be removed by what happened in Chicago. I'm just going to say Chicago rather than just mentioning all three markets.

So, again, I wasn't involved in this merger, but around Boston, there were a lot of Exxon and there

were a lot of Mobil stations, and let's just assume when Exxon and Mobil combined -- this isn't actually what happened -- when Exxon and Mobil combined, all of the Mobil stations disappeared. They're still there, but -- the market structure is going to change and then the question is, if I look at some place which wasn't affected by the Exxon/Mobil merger and the gas stations stayed in the same and the racks and everything else stayed the same, does that provide a sufficient control? That's the question at issue.

So, they take a difference between cities and that eliminates the time effect. This is very easy to think about. After the merger, they compare before and after in Chicago and see how prices changed. And they say, well, the merger had no effect in Chicago, or not enough to worry about, and so however the retail price changed relative to the crude price, let's say, or the wholesale price changed relative to the crude price, in Chicago in the two years after the merger and the year before, we're going to assume that this same effect would have happened in the but-for world in Louisville. It's no more complicated than that.

So, you can think about that as an economist. You know, is it reasonable to say whatever happened in Chicago would have happened in Louisville? So, the

named Zvi Griliches, and I used to always kid Zvi that no matter what came out of the computer, he could always rationalize it, ex post.

So, I would say to him, "Zvi, what do you expect to happen?" before we ran this next maximum likelihood, and then get him on the record as far as to what his beliefs were. If you like to do economic theory, you need to do the same thing or otherwise people will say afterwards, oh, that theorem was obvious.

But there was always this worry that ex post rationalization of the results, especially when you only have one sample point. Zvi could always explain the result for one sample point. The question is, if you have a lot more sample points and you have to ex post rationalize it, then it becomes a little bit more difficult.

So, that is the reason then that structural model that specifically controls supply and demand may be superior to the difference-in-difference or event study approach because that approach wouldn't have to give this, bringing St. Louis in afterwards to explain things. It could say, when St. Louis shifted to this, this is what will happen and this is what happened in Louisville. I'm not criticizing things, I'm just saying that this would be another approach.

But one economic surprise I got was that the retail margins contracted given the degree of expected competition among retail outlets. I didn't quite understand the explanation given in the paper, I must say, because if you expect prices to be set at the margin and these other stations remained open, unless they were selling, you know, lotto tickets or other things that I shouldn't know that they were selling, it's surprising that they were able to remain open after their margins had contracted so much. And I say the explanation of company-owned versus other stations may not be consistent with profit maximization. But, again, that's an explanation for another time.

Okay, now, we turn to the GAO study. It turns out that I did these in the same order as Dr. Taylor's presentation. So, I want to look at the identification (ID) strategy for the individual mergers, and as I said, I'm not going to look at the increased concentration. I'll leave that to the later panel.

So, GAO used data from '94 to 2000 on wholesale gasoline prices. I have some worries about how the data was constructed, but since I don't have the data and I couldn't test it, I'm just going to mention that in passing and move on. So, they built a reduced form econometric model. The left-hand side variable is the

wholesale gasoline price minus the crude price. This assumes a constant relationship between the two, which can create problems. They tested it to some extent. On the other hand, it's a good idea because you would expect the gasoline prices to be integrated of order one, but I would expect wholesale and crude prices to be cointegrated, so subtracting them off this way removes a potential problem. So, to that extent, it's a good idea.

Okay, so the right-hand side variables are city-fixed effects and time-fixed effects. I certainly think that city-fixed effects should be used here, so I agree with the GAO. You should not use a random effects approach here. I mean, you can test for it with the Hausman Specification Test, but I'm virtually sure you would reject. They have the indicator or dummy variables for the merger and then they have -- and these are the important variables, gasoline inventory ratio, refinery capacity utilization rates. Tho16rTjest, but05ic108 0 Td(17)Tj5.780

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different PADDs or a lot of different markets, if you want to call them that, and, you know, after the mergers, things change over time, and these two variables have to capture it and have to control for it. So, that's very important.

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Okay, initially, they assume that all righthand side variables are exogenous, although they also do IV estimation. They assume that the variables are measured without error, although they realize that this assumption may not be true, and then they do fixed effects estimation. So, the fixed effects allows the right-hand side variables to be correlated with the city component, so I think it's a very good thing. the fixed effects can exacerbate the errors-in-variables problem. That's what the IV stands for. And I think they might have wanted to test this using the log difference approach of Hausman and Griliches of '86, because it seems to me that, especially since they couldn't get data on the right-hand side variables for each market. At best there are sort of proxies, which is an errors-in-variables problem. So, you might want to test for that.

They assume that the merger effects for a given merger are the same across racks. It seems to me that that is an assumption which may not be true -- which they

may also have wanted to test. And then they assume that the coefficients are a constant across racks, so the effects of the inventory ratio and capacity utilization are constant across cities or areas, whatever you want to call them. And, again, I think this is a problematic assumption that they might want to test, and in particular, the difference in the coefficients might be correlated with the stochastic disturbances.

Again, I'm just saying these are things -- I'm not saying that there's anything wrong with the models, because I don't have the data, I can't test these, but I thought it was worth, at least, thinking about.

They do a Hausman Specification Test for joint endogeneity. If I understood what they did correctly and I wasn't sure that I was -- but they seemed to just use time and weekly dummies as excluded instruments. It seems to me that weekly dummies might -- well, maybe they should be in the regression to start with, so it wasn't clear to me that they meet the exogeneity assumption that you need for instruments. It seems to me there's likely to be a seasonal effect in wholesale prices for gasoline in places like California, although, again, that's just me assuming things, not actually testing them.

They also did a test of over-identifying restrictions, so that was good. It did not reject.

1	They used feasible generalized least squares to
2	get more efficient estimates. Now, here it's important
3	because FGLS assumes that you know the covariance matrix,
4	and since you're testing things here and you want to test
5	dummies, this can create possible bias in the true size
6	of the test. I will put up a paper that I wrote this
7	year on that, doing second order correction. But, again,
8	most of the results were so significant, I don't think
9	this would have changed this, but I think their
10	t-statistics are probably pretty much upward biased.
11	Alternatively, you can just do straight fixed effects and
12	correct for the estimated standard errors.
13	Okay, now, to finish up, what I want to do is
14	to compare the two approaches. So, I think this is an
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- 1 traditionally called a matching model. So, there what
- 2 you want to do is you want to find nearly identical

are not correlated. Now, I would think coefficients

changing is the same as a left-out variable because you

should have had an interaction. You don't have it. So,

difficult to specify a robust single model with the same coefficient that works across multiple mergers since a merger changes a market structure.

So, I think it would have been interesting in the GAO report, perhaps, to break apart the various mergers and look at them one at a time or two at a time rather than trying to do them altogether. But in my final conclusion, I thought that both reports were quite carefully done. You know, when you've been around as long as I have, you always have ideas how to test things and all. I think that you really need to focus, and I wouldn't draw a conclusion that either approach is better. I think that both of them have difficulties and in a given situation, you actually may want to look at both approaches. But I don't think that either approach, in a typical situation, can solve all the problems. But, of course, that's what makes econometrics interesting.

Okay, and I'll stop at that point. So, I guess what we're going to do is just go through the panel people. So, I'll first turn things over to Ken since he's the first person here.

PROFESSOR HENDRICKS: I would like to reiterate what Jerry has said. If you look at the Taylor/Hosken study, the crucial assumption is that the merger or joint venture, did not affect the control areas. In this case

they tried three different types of control.

With respect to that question, I found it a little bit disconcerting that they found that the change in demand in St. Louis, the change in regulatory standards, had a big impact, according to their explanation, on rack prices in Louisville. One wonders to what extent the geographical, to what extent is the rack market in Louisville really isolated from the rack market in Chicago?

You can think about the situation of refiners in the Gulf. They have to make decisions on where to supply their gasoline to different markets, and there may well be a lot of arbitrage possibilities across the geographical markets in wholesale gasoline.

You can imagine retail markets being much more geographically isolated. There is a follow up point I would like to make on retail markets. The results of the TH study are quite different from the result of Justine Hastings studies. In the one study involving Tosco and Unocal, she finds, using essentially the same kind if DID approach, that wholesale prices did increase as a result of the merger, ranging from one to two cents in various rack markets throughout California.

In another study she looked at retail markets and studied the impact of ARCO taking over some Thrifty

stations. Using essentially the same DID estimation approach, with pretty satisfactory controls, fixed effects at the station level, she finds that the takeover did result in an increase in retail prices at competing stations to Thrifty.

So, there is a puzzle as to why the results for Louisville seem so different from the results that Hastings got in both wholesale markets and in retail markets in California. And one potential explanation might well be that California is much more geographically isolated than Louisville.

So the question here is what is the right geographical definition of the rack market? Because, if prices are arbitraged across different geographical rack markets, then you're not going to pick up much of a price effect at the wholesale level and you may not at the retail level either. Well, you may pick up some effects at the retail level if the merger makes these markets more concentrated.

I also found it somewhat puzzling that the rack price increase that occurred about 10, 15 months after the merger was not passed on to retail prices. That fact does not seem consistent with economic reasoning. You would think that the opportunity cost of selling gas to your own stations is going to be what you can get for it

in the rack market selling it to an independent. It may be true that the independent competes against you, but if you see a big increase in the wholesale price, you may think that it would be more advantageous or more profitable to shift some of your supply away from your own stations and sell it to jobbers who are servicing your rival stations.

With regard to the GAO study, my big concern with that study was with the assumption that the error terms in those regressions were uncorrelated with the merger dummies, because the regressions did not include much in the way of explanatory variables, at least at the level of the geographic market. The explanatory variables were either at the PADD level or they were at the national level like the utilization rate. The only thing that is varying at the city level to explain changes in the city rack market price are the merger dummies.

So, a lot of the economic forces are not being measured and they are sitting in the error term. You have to wonder whether those market forces are not being picked up by the merger dummies. I would worry a lot about this issue of unobserved heterogeneity, because throughout this period there were a lot changes in regulations. These changes, in particular the changes in

gasoline standards, have made arbitrage across markets much more difficult. Once you make it more difficult to arbitrage price differences across markets, prices are likely to rise. That's a trend throughout this sample period, proceeding in different ways in different markets but possibly correlated with the trend in mergers.

Another feature of the regulatory standards that have evolved over this period has been the increased incidence of outages, of refineries breaking down and causing price spikes. Just recently, an MIT student, who is on the market this year, studied the impact of the changes in regulatory standards. If you look at this list of 44 outrages that he's examined, a lot of those outages have occurred in the latter part of '90s. So not only are changes in regulations causing prices to trend up, they are also causing price volatility to rise over the latter part of '90s.

Since the mergers are occurring mostly in the latter part of the '90s, it is important to control for the changes in regulatory standards. If not, the merger dummies are likely to be picking up some of the effects of the changes in regulation. These kinds of controls are not included in the GAO study which leads me to question some of their results, or at least their interpretation of the results. Let me stop here.

presumably the pipeline is still operating. I think that's the central question, and I can leave some of my other comments for later.

Picking up on something that Ken just said there have been some other studies that find the result that there may be an effect on the rack price, but not an effect on retail. I think that's an unusual result and I think I'll talk a little bit more about that in the next session.

Let me turn briefly to the GAO study. Like I say, whenever you do an empirical study, it's easy for someone to say why didn't you measure the variable this way or that way. I think the best answer to that question is to recognize that the purpose of a data analysis is to use the data to make inferences and not to get overwhelmed with criticisms. On the other hand, you have to be aware that there are criticisms of any data set, and that goes both to the FTC and the GAO study.

I guess this would apply to both studies, the way you deal with that is, I think, to do a sequence of robustness tests to show that no matter how you estimate things, no matter what econometric technique you use, or more importantly, no matter how you measure your variables -- because people can always question what's the market, is it big, is it small, is it this, is it

that, and no one's ever going to get it exactly right. 1 2 The best way then to have confidence in your findings is to measure variables in a whole variety of different ways 3 that are plausible and show that your results survive.

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I'll talk more about that in my comments, but it seems to me that is something that, especially when I read some of the FTC staff technical report's reestimations, raised some fundamental questions about the GAO results. And on the flip side, the GAO has raised questions, I think, that are valid about the FTC study.

The one question I do want to specifically ask about mergers, because I was not sure of exactly how it was done in the GAO study, is I wasn't quite sure I understood the discussion of the timing of how the window It appeared to me, maybe I just misread it was chosen. or I didn't understand it, that it wasn't just zero one; in other words, premerger, zero; post-merger, you'd think it would be one forever. But there are subsequent mergers, but that just means the effects, presumably, should cumulate unless you want -- you have some hypothesis that the effect of the second merger is less than the first merger or something like that, or maybe the effects of a merger differ across geographic areas.

That I understand, but I couldn't quite understand whether they were turning off a merger

1	variable, the first merger variable when the second
2	merger occurred or whether they were cumulating. It was
3	just a little unclear when I read 08y0iz9ybe I assume
4	there's no one from the GAO in the audience who could
5	answer that question.
6	(Participant does not speak with a microphone
7	causing parts of his statement to be inaudible.)
8	DR. SCOTT FARROW (OF GAO): Actually, I can
9	answer that oney0iThey're not turned off, they continue
10	consistently throughout. It's just an attempt to explain
11	that the actual (inaudible) identification of the merger
12	effects was (inaudible) other mergers (inaudible)
13	basically coded zero-oney
14	PROFESSOR CARLTON: So, 08 is zero-one, 08's
15	one forever and therefore 08 cumulatesy
16	DR. FARROW: Right.
17	PROFESSOR CARLTON: So, the assumption would be
18	that the effect of a merger, the second merger is the
19	same as the first merger and the effect of the third
20	merger is the same I'm sorry, the effect of the a
21	rack where there are two mergers is the sum of two
22	effects and the effect of the second merger is the same
23	in that area where there was a previous merger as in an
24	area where there was no mergery

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DR. FARROW: Your last question is going

restrictions, then doing generalized least squares is going to, as Jerry pointed out, give you an estimate of something else, not the same thing. And, in fact, if I remember correctly, as I was looking through, I think it was the GAO study, I was comparing the OLS and the GLS coefficients and I was going, gee, you know, they did a Hausman Test on these other aspects, I would have liked to have seen a Hausman Test comparing the ordinary least squares and the GLS, and I think that may be indicative that there is something to have a concern about there.

Of course, the GAO is doing something very ambitious with eight mergers and all of those different racks, but it does make me want to, perhaps, do also what Jerry was suggesting, which was to break the studies up and to compare the mergers or to compare subsets of the cities so that their particular effects might be better measured.

Then there's one other comment just at this level that I'd like to make, and that has to do with corrections for autocorrelation. I think in both studies we see that there are corrections for autocorrelation after an initial test of some kind has revealed that there might be, you know, a Durbin-Watson statistic different than two, and I'd just like to comment that just the appearance of autocorrelation doesn't mean that,

in fact, a first order auto-regressive model is the right thing to do and that by doing the pseudo difference and proceeding that one is necessarily solving the problem that's being indicated.

I've often seen just the inclusion of a lagged, dependent variable to completely solve the problem or maybe two lags. So, whenever I see a Durbin-Watson statistic or some other diagnostic of serial correlation that might suggest doing some sort of GLS, I have to ask myself, well, is that really just indicating some sort of dynamic mis-specification that could be better addressed by including a lag-dependent variable or, perhaps, lags of judiciously chosen other explanatory variables?

And I saw that we're beginning to run up against our time constraints, so I'll stop with those comments.

DR. THOMPSON: So, let me back up since the

title of this session was supposed to be General

Identification Issues in Merger Events. Let me take

maybe a longer view in order to comment on identification

from the point of view of something that will come up

later this afternoon, namely thinking about merger

enforcement.

One thing that has not been discussed yet, I think, is what exactly is the effect itself? How do we define the effect and what effect is of interest? Now, there are different ways to think about effects. I believe during the presentation we heard about, you know, "before the merger" versus "after the merger." We've obviously seen estimators that are comparing "here" versus "there," where the "here" is where the merger is, and "there" is where it's not. The conceptual but impossible to measure effect that economists tend to want to see, compares the actual results versus what would have happened in the but-for world, which does not actually occur.

There are further distinctions that we might think about that matter a lot from the point of view of merger enforcement. What was the actual effect measured ex post, versus what reasonable expectation you could have for an effect ex ante in the merger review process?

1 How you go about measuring these things depends, to some

that he referred to. And the other is repeated trials, namely that the same experiment is run over and over and you look at the average effects over repeated trials.

These are both quite important for knowing that when you look at the results of one of these empirical studies, that you really are capturing the effect of the treatment directly and not confounding it with other things that are changing simultaneously to it.

I saw that Hal has a paper he's passing out in the back that I think touches on this, so we may hear more about it.

One obvious question to ask is, if we could run a real experiment, is the result that you would get from it something that you would actually want to see? It reminds me of a paper that I had to referee once where someone asked about the effect of divorce on the educational attainment of children. Defining the effect in terms of a thought experiment. I was thinking, well, is there any policy question for which we would want to randomly assign divorces and see what happened to the children. I think a comparable question should be asked here, whether or not the randomized merger is actually what we care about. To the extent that mergers are endogenous, it really matters what you think of in the alternative as the right way to define the effect, if you

1	aren't going to think about it in terms of an experiment.
2	I also have some thoughts on some of the other
3	things that the other speakers touched on, but for the
4	most part, everything I was going to say, they've already
5	said. So, I'll stop here.
6	MR. FROEB: Thank you, Scott.
7	The next panel will run for an hour and it is
8	on Special Issues Involving the Price Concentration
9	Estimation. Dennis?
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1	PANEL TWO: SPECIAL ISSUES INVOLVING PRICE-CONCENTRATION
2	ESTIMATION
3	MODERATOR: DENNIS CARLTON, Ph.D.
4	PANEL MEMBERS: JERRY HAUSMAN, Ph.D.
5	HAL WHITE, Ph.D.
6	KEN HENDRICKS, Ph.D.
7	SCOTT THOMPSON, Ph.D.
8	
9	PROFESSOR CARLTON: First, I want to repeat
10	what I just said, which was that it's easy to criticize
11	empirical studies, and I think both studies were very
12	carefully done. It was clear that a great deal of effort
13	went into each of them, and really I think each group
14	should be commended for trying their best to do a good
15	job.
16	It's also not obvious to me a seminar like this

It's also not obvious to me a seminar like this necessarily will resolve any issues as to who is right and who is wrong. I think it would be wrong, therefore, to think of us as the arbiters as to which study is right and which is wrong. And I think what we can best do is raise, through our comments, additional avenues that each study may want to explore in order that, hopefully, they'll be able to converge and that the two agencies, who obviously have spent a lot more time on each of these topics than anyone on this panel, will be able to

take the price of your rivals as given, you get a

different relationship. But generally price falls with

N. Bertrand is more competitive than Cournot.

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Now, why do we use Cournot and Bertrand as examples? Because they're easy to work out. Can you have other things? Sure. But, in general, the intuition is no matter what competitive game people are playing, price falls as the number of firms increases. Okay, so that sounds like a pretty good intuition. And, in fact, it gets even better if you say, look at Cournot, because if you look at Cournot, let's write down a simple profit maximization for Cournot, the profits equal price, which depends on total output, which is what I have in the parenthesis, times output minus C times O. And in a Cournot model, each firm maximizes profits. If you maximize profits, you set the derivative equal to zero. You get the first order conditions, and after some manipulation, lo and behold you get an equation, it looks great.

The mark-up, price minus cost over price, equals minus one over the elasticity of demand, times the HHI. That really seems to fit right into the merger guidelines that use the HHI.

Now, there's a "but" here, and I'll come back to the "but", but this looks pretty good. So, there's a

clear relationship from what I've just done between price and the HHI, the price and the number of firms, and in a Cournot model, that turns out to be between price and the HHI.

So, now, the real hard question is, you're looking at price, say, in different cities as a function of the number of firms competing or concentration in the cities, okay?

So, you have to ask yourself a very fundamental question before you go any further. Why is it that in some cities you have more firms than in others? Because if I'm going to use cities as controls for each other or I'm going to somehow ask that there be a relationship between price and concentration, I have to explain why the number of firms is different. There must be something different going on from an economic point of view, since something as fundamental as the number of firms differs from city to city. So, maybe I should ask why N varies?

Well, one possible answer is, well, free entry. There's free entry. Free entry implies profit of zero and that's what's going to determine the number of firms. So, for example, if there's a big city, there's more opportunity for firms to enter than in a little city and you're going to get more entry. And that's really the

important insight. It's more sophisticated than what
I've just said, but that's basically the central theme
that Sutton has pursued in his papers over the last two
decades, summarized best by two books he's written.

And if you push that relationship and you say, okay, the number of firms is determined by entry conditions, you get a relationship that looks kind of like the one I just drew up above, that if you have concentration on the left axis and city size on the bottom, you get diagrams that look like this. The cities get bigger, you can fit more firms in, okay?

And here's what's kind of interesting, just hold the city size constant and let your eye run up a vertical line. So, let's suppose we look at a city of a particular size, we have a vertical line, what do you notice? You notice that cities that have the least competitive market structure, a cartel, will have the lowest concentration. Cities that have the most vicious competition, Bertrand, will have the highest concentration. Now, initially, that may sound a little odd, but there's actually a good intuitive reason.

If competition is vicious, there's not much margin and not much incentive to enter. On the other hand, if I'm a cartel and I'm really overcharging everybody, there are huge profits, and as long as people

can keep entering the room, if we had a cartel -- God forbid the FTC should be involved in a cartel, but just for a moment, let's make believe we're a cartel, okay? If anyone off the street can enter for some price of entry, then I will get a lot of people in the room.

So, that means that the -- you have to be very wary in drawing an inference between the vigor of competition and concentration. Highly concentrated industries can be very competitive and industries with low concentration can be very non-competitive. Well, that means that it can often be quite dangerous to compare across industries or cities.

So, if you're looking at price versus HHI across industries, you can be looking for trouble because across industries, one industry may be a very competitive, Bertrand, one industry may be much less competitive and like a cartel, and you won't know which line you're on. You'll be comparing, you know, industry number one that may be Cournot to industry number two that's Bertrand, and you could get an inverse relationship between the two.

So, therefore, if you do want to run a regression of price on concentration, it's best to assume I'm underlining the word "assume." It's best to assume that you're in the short run. You have to test whether

it's a reasonable assumption. Why? Because if you think that you're in the long run when entry can set profits equal to zero, having a merger in an industry won't tell you very much, okay? Because in the long run, you know profits are going to be zero and there's a natural level that the industry keeps coming back to.

So, perhaps the best thing to do is assume you're in the short run and, therefore, you are actually on one of these lines. It doesn't matter which one.

Let's suppose you're on the Cournot line, and what you're observing is that N is changing. So, that's the best assumption you can make to justify these price concentration assumptions. And if it's a merger you're examining, you can assume that the N is changing because the merger eliminates a rival. So, that sounds pretty good as a way to examine the merger's effect on price.

But there's a problem. If you remember, I had a "but" on one of my charts when I did the Cournot model and derived the relationship between price and HHI. If you recall my discussion of the Cournot model, which, again, was the one that had price related to HHI, it sounded pretty good as a basis to justify a regression of price on HHI. If you actually work out a Cournot model, and I work out a very simple one here, you will see the problem. Here, the demand curve is 12 minus output.

q1+q2+q3. There are three firms. Suppose cost is zero
to keep it simple. If you calculate the equilibrium when
there are three firms, you get that price will equal
three and quantity per firm will equal three. So, each
firm makes \$9 in revenue. Okay? Firm one makes \$9; firm
two makes \$9; firm three makes \$9.

Let's have firm one and two merge. If firm one and two merge into firm one, so now you only have firm one and firm three, so there are only two firms and they play Cournot, what happens? What happens is that output is now four per firm, so output per firm goes up, profits will equal 16 for each firm. So, the merged firm makes 16, and the unmerged firm makes 16.

How does that compare to the premerger situation? Premerger, each firm made \$9. So the firms that merged, firm one plus firm two made \$18 premerger. In other words, there's no incentive for a merger in this Cournot model. So, you can use these assumptions that, you know, you're playing Cournot, so I can estimate price against the HHI, but then you just have this peculiar implication that it's very hard to figure out why there is a merger.

So, obviously, if you start assuming, for example, that an efficiency is generated as a result of the merger, you can start getting an incentive for

1 merger, and then you have two offsetting effects.

There's the efficiency effect at a lower price and then there's a price increase from the merger.

But the key thing has to do with -- and Jerry talked about it and the other panelists talked about it -- the endogeneity of concentration. We didn't talk about concentration. We talked about the endogeneity of the other variables, but it's the same point. How endogenous is concentration? Is it so endogenous that you have to worry about it and do something special about it or not?

Now, there have been a lot of studies, generally in the literature, between price and concentration. There's a boatload of studies, and I'm not going to summarize them. They've been done across industries and they've been done for a particular industry over time. It's summarized in my textbook. I would just say that these price concentration studies, if you, for example, compare their findings to something like the Merger Guidelines where you have one HHI cut-off of 1,000, and another HHI cut-off of 1,800, you might ask how closely supported are those cut-offs by the empirical literature? I think it would be a stretch to say that the precise HHI numbers in the Guidelines are supported by the empirical price concentration literature.

Okay, let me now turn to the individual studies. Let me talk about the GAO study first. It's a very ambitious study because it's studying many mergers, and the advantage of studying many mergers is that you can see whether there is a systematic pattern that's occurring. That's one of the advantages of studying lots of things. Is there something similar going on when I study each merger?

Now, the downside is, if you study lots of different mergers, they are different, and you have to worry that you've not studied each one individually and the question is, if you had studied each one individually in great depth would there have been variables that are important to understand each but that you have failed to account for? As a general matter, I think that, you know, you can go either way, but it is a relevant question, and I think one response they could have is, well, we haven't done a separate study where we've focused on each merger. We could do that. We'd have to get a lot more variables, and, obviously, it would be much more intensive an effort. But the fact that we're getting similar results across all these mergers, or many similar results, might give them some comfort.

Well, like I say, any time you do an empirical study, it's easy to come up and criticize, and the

1	criticisms don't mean that the results aren't there.
2	Rather the point of the criticisms is to ask whether you
3	can respond in a way that gives me some comfort that
4	these criticisms don't matter materially to your results.
5	And what I said in my earlier comment, I

they have instead are two endogenous variables that are the outcome of decisions that the firm has made, the amount of inventory the firm wants, and the capacity utilization. When you run a refinery how much capacity utilization to have over time it is a dynamic problem. The refiners make these decisions, they're forward-looking.

So, you should ask yourself the question, why do you want to write down a structural model with endogenous variables? It's not a demand equation, it's not a supply equation. It's kind of like a mixture of both.

Now, in general, there is, you know, an upsurge of interest in industrial organization in estimating structural models, and that means you estimate the demand side, the marginal cost curve, and you can try and figure out the game that's going on. You can get a lot of insights into how markets are operating.

The real question is whether you want to go that route when you're trying to answer a question like, did price go up? I mean, that's a very defined question. You might be interested in why price went up, what's going on, and then you might want a structural model. But if the real question, which is really a question posed by both studies, is simply did price go up? it's

not so obvious to me you want a structural model. When

GAO does the structural model, what they do is -- as I

understand it, they hold constant those endogenous

variables and ask but for the merger, what would price

be? I don't know what it means to hold constant

endogenous variables. I just can't figure out why that's

the relevant experiment.

Morever, what they use as instruments are time, time squared, and a lot of time dummies. Those time dummies, as Jerry said, it seems to me, might belong in your original model. And if that's what you're doing, why even worry about those inventory and capacity variables? Why not just stick to, you know, the time dummies, time and time squared and then see what you get. My suspicion is it won't change the results that you report very much.

Choice of the deflator? That struck me as a little odd, but that's not likely to be a big deal. But if you used other deflators, what would happen? And my concern is that the FTC (and again, since I don't have access to the data, I can't check this) claims that if you use a different deflator, many of the GAO results vanish. If that's true, that obviously would be a robustness check should raise serious concerns.

The real question, the central question, is

1	I'm not sure if that's right, some of the people are		
2	nodding their heads, so I think that's right. But it		
3	does seem to me a disconnect between what you think the		
4	market is and what you want concentration to be		
5	measuring. So, if you think about what you're doing,		
6	let's just look at one PADD. You have annual data on the		
7	HHI. I forget how many years of data. I was thinking		
8	'94 to well, about six or seven years, something like		
9	that. So, you have, say, five to ten observations on the		
10	HHI and that's what you're using to identify the HHI		
1 and ing coefficient.			

my mind that question, how robust the results would be if you did that estimation differently.

Now, GAO reports results on the HHI and it appears that they're statistically significant. Now, the HHI is taken to be, if I remember right, exogenous, so some of the endogeneity questions I discussed earlier -- worrying about how concentration changes are not dealt with. But putting that aside, if you look at the magnitudes of the HHIs, they're relatively low in the scheme of things. If I recall there was one case where the HHI increases from the mid-800s by actually 200 points or so. In the scheme of things, that's relatively low. So, my prior would be to be surprised to get

staff in their technical report has done an experiment in which they calculate the HHI differently, not based on the particular method that the GAO uses, but a slightly different method that, at least at first blush -- and I'll defer to the GAO and the FTC to figure out what's the better way of measuring the HHI, but at least when I look at it, the FTC approach seemed reasonable. According to what I saw in the FTC staff technical report, use of the FTC HHI caused the GAO results to vanish. So, that makes me nervous about the reliability of the GAO results.

There is an assumption that there's serial correlation across the racks. That means that the error term in rack one is serially correlated with the error term in rack two. I believe that's probably true.

You've got to be real careful here. If the correlation is coming about because the markets are linked, then this could be an indication that you shouldn't be regarding the rack as a separate market.

During the course of the GAO study, there were several crises. Now, the problem with a crisis is it's an unusual situation. So, it does make me a bit nervous to have a time period that we know has an unusual situation being used to estimate a merger effect.

Now, that's life, I understand, you can't

have the correct specification and you have some errorsin-variables, some of the econometric techniques the GAO uses could actually make things worse.

In my earlier comments, I talked about this concern I have about the merger window. I know I'm only supposed to talk about concentration, but I'll just briefly repeat the point. My understanding of what the GAO study does is that it says that where there are two racks, merger one affects rack one, not rack two. And then I have a second merger. The effect in the GAO model of the second merger is the same at both rack one and rack two, if those two are affected. You might just want to ask whether that is sensible. In particular, when you're doing the merger study, you're ignoring the HHI effect. If you really think the HHI belongs in there and that the effect of concentration matters, then the level the industry concentration will be important.

So, the standard diagram, which would be in my textbook, would be that, you know, initially you don't expect much to happen from a merger in a very competitive industry, and then maybe something will happen in a moderately concentrated industry and then the merger effect will level off in a highly concentrated industry. So, whether I'm in this region, this region or this region will have a big effect on what I think the effect

plausible that this demand for RFG in St. Louis comes on and it's huge. But was that a surprise? When was it known that St. Louis was going to switch to RFG? Was it known with sufficient advance notice that refineries could adjust their refinery, and I know you can't adjust the refinery with the touch of a button? It takes a while. You have to work off a certain inventory so there's an optimal way to transition. I would like to see more about what that time is and why St. Louis wasn't anticipated.

There is a sense that what's going on in Louisville is not explained in the model. That's clear. It doesn't come out of the model and, therefore, there is this sense that it's sort of after-the-fact explaining the result. I'd like to see a little bit more on what's the relationship between the price in St. Louis now and the price in Louisville and whether they go in sync. I think they should if I understand correctly the FTC argument.

What's the marginal supply for St. Louis, what's the marginal supply for Louisville? I guess they are the same if you believe the argument in the FTC working paper. It seems like a plausible explanation for what's going on. But if it's true, then I should be able to follow that all over time.

Now, whenever you have a study like the FTC's, the real question is are the control cities adequate? Jerry talked about this, so I'll just be very brief here. The criticism that GAO staff raised about the control cities is that they, too, were affected by mergers. Now, if I understand the import of that, though, that would raise the control base. So, that would mean that if you found nothing, well, maybe it doesn't tell you very much because Chicago was going up and because it was affected by other mergers that don't affect Louisville, so you don't have a good control. That I understand.

On the other hand, the main finding I'm getting out of the FTC paper is that 15 months after a merger, price went up relative to Chicago. So, you know, there's no question it went up. If Chicago's price was affected by the mergers that are raising it, if you had corrected for that, it would have gone up even more. So, it doesn't really explain what the FTC found. But obviously, it's a relevant question to ask, are the controls adequate?

Now, I know something about adjustment time. I know something about the adjustment time between a shock in crude oil and the rack price. There have been several studies of this, you know, maybe they're out-of-date, I

adjustment of rack price to crude oil prices. And if I 1 2 remember right, there's a Borenstein-Shepherd study where 3 they're trying to specifically look at adjustment costs and they show -- I can't remember exactly, but I thought 4 it was that within 60 days there's almost a complete 5 6 price adjustment. By the way, I should have mentioned 7 this earlier when I talked about the GAO study, they use 8 the price minus -- the rack price minus the crude oil 9 price. If those don't move in sync and there's a 60-day lag, you should really fool a little bit around with the 10 11 lag structure. That's why another way of doing that would be to aggregate up to aamT7 0 Td(9)Tj5.1097hat oth22t remul or price. If tmT7 r,7 oeou22t move in sync 2goos a 60oing th

are going to go up or some of these gas stations in

Kentucky, are going to go out of business because their

margin has been lowered.

Did that happen? We can look right now. In other words, what I interpret the FTC explanation to be is that there was a blip in demand in St. Louis that was unanticipated because of a supply shock. That's what caused the rack price to go up in Louisville. But now it's anticipated. Now, they've seen it happen, and presumably, they should adjust to it, and therefore, if I look right now, what is the relationship between the rack price of RFG in Louisville compared to the rack price in Chicago compared to the rack price in St. Louis? In other words, there is something that I would suggest the FTC do to figure out whether what they're claiming is the explanation for the increase is born out by what has subsequently happened.

You know, having said that, I thought the FTC explanation sounded pretty reasonable, subject to further investigation. Let's suppose a merger is going to raise the rack price, I'd be a little surprised if it took 15 months to do so. So, there seems like there's clearly something going on. It's an interesting point, but I'll talk about it to the FTC. They have a futures price in there. There's a literature on what the coefficient

should be, so you might want to -- I'll talk to the FTC

given the importance of this industry, you know,

justifies having intensive investigations like the FTC

and GAO have performed. So, I'll stop here and thank

you.

PROFESSOR HAUSMAN: Do you want to reverse the order or do you want me to go next?

DR. THOMPSON: I can probably go quickly, so maybe you can let me do that. I really have just two comments to make on the price correlation studies, and as a caveat, I should add I've never done one myself. So, this is speaking as someone who looks at these things occasionally, but has always been scratching his head a little bit when looking at them to try to figure out what's going on.

First of all, the market definition question seems to me to be quite critical in the sense that if you use the HHI measure of concentration, the HHI is inversely proportional to the square of the total size of the markets. That's what's in the denominator of each of the terms that you sum. What this means is that relatively small errors in measuring the size of the market potentially lead to fairly large and serious measurement errors, and that's been commented on already. But the main point I want to get across is that those are potentially large errors, not small ones.

The second point related to the use of the HHI is that, in general, we should take into account when there are substantial sales by firms not physically producing within a relevant market, the presence of imports into the market. That could change the concentration measures substantially in ways that I'm not sure were taken into account in the GAO study. I'm afraid that it's a little bit unfair here in that the GAO did a price concentration study and the FTC did not. So, the comments about this pertain only to the GAO.

But in any event, if you were to take into account the inflows and look at the actual sales coming in from other areas, you might get a better feel for some of the issues that Dennis mentioned, namely whether or not racks nearby are linked, whether or not there's substantial arbitrage taking place between geographic areas that could discipline price increases. And that, of course, is very closely tied to the question of market definition, something that is essentially not dealt with directly in either one of the studies.

The second point that I want to make has to do with the interpretation of a price concentration study.

There are quite a few things that might be driving concentration, and in particular, driving the differences in concentration across time or across geography, which

are obviously the dimensions being exploited here. You can have differences in the input cost, differences in the size of the markets. Mergers, obviously, are one possibility. Entry and exit and internal growth of firms. All of these things are going to affect concentration.

From the point of view of a public policy question, it's difficult to know what to make of a price concentration study if what's driving the variation in the explanatory variable (or if you want to think of this in terms of simultaneity, in the concentration study, in the concentration measure itself) is not something that's directly affected by some public policy decision.

From the point of view of the antitrust agency, the merger is obviously one thing that might be going on. But to the extent the concentration in these markets -- to the extent that the interest in concentration in these markets is driven by considerations of mergers, it strikes me that looking at the merger studies is really getting much more directly at the public policy question of interest here.

PROFESSOR HAUSMAN: Again, I'll just keep my comments fairly brief. What you have to understand that is going on here is that the HHI is being put in, as it were, as a proxy for market structure and that, depending

on the type of oligopoly model you have, you can get very different results and somehow that the HHI has to be the same across markets, so it has the same relationship and, again, as I emphasized earlier, when you have changes over time and the market structure changes, it has to pick that up.

Now, in the GAO models, they have the inventory ratio and capacity utilization variables and this has been mentioned, but I think this is a very important point, those are at very different levels of aggregation. You have at the PADD level and at the rack level and it's not clear how that matches up. In that type of situation, and more broadly, I have grave doubts about whether the changes in HHI can control for changes in market structure. So, I pretty much agree with Scott's last point. If you want to take a look at what happened with mergers, I think it's better to take a more direct approach, which is the first GAO approach of using merger indicated variables, rather than trying to use the HHI.

But let's say that you do want to use the HHI. In my view, you have two main problems. One is this joint endogeneity problem, about which I don't have much to say, but it's a serious problem. But the second is that the HHI, I think, really doesn't change very much in markets apart from mergers. So, let me assume that

that's true during this time period. Now, I could be wrong, but if the HHI doesn't change very much in markets apart from mergers, then it's very difficult to sort out the effect of the HHI.

So, in my view, because you have fixed effects in the model, in other words, you're explaining the price with the dummy variable for each rack, the only way you can really then find out the effect of the HHI is to see what happens when it changes. In other words, if you ran a cross section regression here on panel data and you didn't have mergers or any reason for the HHI to change over time or just change a tiny bit, you couldn't tell it apart from the fixed effect. You know, what's going on in the rack in San Diego is explained by its fixed effect and what's going on in the rack in San Francisco would be explained by its fixed effect. So, it's only changes in the HHI.

And so, then what it seems to me that you have to do, if you really want to believe these models or to really estimate these models is that you have to have markets in your sample in which the HHI changed for some reason other than a merger. Now, that could have happened in this data. I think Gulf Oil sort of disappeared from the Northeast and Cumberland Farms took over its stations and I don't understand exactly how

those are sourced. But I mean, it's certainly the case
that somebody could have exited from these markets during
this time apart from the merger.

Otherwise, it seems to me that when you're looking at the changes in the HHIs, it really is just like using a merger-indicated variable, and then you're scaling it by the HHI, and as I started off to say, it seems to me that there is no reason to think that you're going to have this constant linear relationship. So, the way to test this would be to have other markets where you don't have a merger where the HHI changes, if you had that in your data and then you'd be able to have much more confidence in your results if they were robust to that type of change.

PROFESSOR WHITE: Well, let me pick on something that Jerry was just saying and that is the concern with the endogeneity of the HHI and, as it's usually defined, that's a market share measure, but here we actually have a capacity measure. So, perhaps there's a sense in which the capacity was intended as a proxy, but because capacity is usually determined over a longer time cycle, perhaps it's being considered as predetermined here. But I'm not sure that that's really capturing necessarily the concentration measure that one would want. Capacity can have strategic considerations

that may have a role to play and so a capacity HHI is like being one step removed with some extra things going on and I'm not sure necessarily that even if one wanted that sort of concentration measure it would be something that would be really telling me what I would want to know.

Now, there's another issue and it's been touched on briefly, but I'd just like to highlight it.

We have basically five PADDs and we've got seven years, but only five years of concentration data. So, there's really only 25 observations where changes happen, and we're regressing basically monthly -- or is it weekly -- weekly cross section panel data on these basically 25 observations. It's a concern to me that there's not nearly enough variation in this HHI measure, whatever it is, to really identify any kind of effect that's going on.

Now, sometimes when you measure explanatory variables at a lower frequency than the dependent variable, you can do some kind of instrumenting, but in this case, you have sufficiently few data points that even that sort of instrumenting is not going to be productive. That would lead me to try to go to some sort of a reduced form, and where that reduced form would take me would be back to a model that would basically have

some merger dummies because that's the thing that would be driving this, perhaps along with some entry and exit information.

So, I think that that more direct analysis is the one that I would prefer.

PROFESSOR HENDRICKS: As an editor of the Journal of Industrial Economics, one of the IO field journals, I get a lot of these price concentration studies. My first test is the following. If the model is trying to explain the variation in prices across a cross section of industries using the variation in HHI or some other measure of market concentration, I will reject the paper. The reason is that there are lots of economic forces not being measured, market characteristics not being measured, which are driving both the concentration index and prices. So, it's not clear that the coefficient on the HHI is picking anything up except correlation.

If the data in paper has a panel structure, I can change the question. Instead of asking how does the variation in HHI across markets explain the variation in prices across markets, I can use fixed effects and ask how does the variation in HHI over time within each market systematically affect the prices in that market? This is what the GAO study did, and for that, I commend

them, because I think that is the right way to think about this question.

My problem with the GAO study, though, is one that two of my colleagues on the panel have alluded to, namely, that the market prices and the fixed effects are at the city rack level but the HHI is at the PADD level. The way that I would have thought about the regression is to aggregate prices up to the PADD level, include a PADD fixed effect and then look at how changes in the HHI within the PADD affect changes in average prices in the PADD across time.

But if you think of the model in this way then, as Hal said, it's actually less than 25 price changes because two of the years are interpolated.

PROFESSOR WHITE: Well, I was subtracting those out. There were seven.

PROFESSOR HENDRICKS: Yeah. I mean, there are really few changes to estimate the coefficient on HHI. That is why I like the merger regression more than the price concentration regression because in the merger regression the merger dummy is being turned on and off at the city rack market level. Hence, you could take advantage of some of the variation in that variable within the PADD because presumably, it is not turning on for all of the city rack markets in the PADD. When I

think about running the price concentration regression at the PADD level, it effectively reduces to the merger equation, except that it is at a more aggregate level and you're not using some of the variation within the PADDs.

One final point I'd like to make is that from a theoretical perspective, IO economists make a big distinction between horizontal mergers and vertical If it is a horizontal merger in the wholesale market on the supply side, then the theory is unambiguous: prices are going to go up. The merging parties are going to restrict quantity and raise price. If it is a vertical merger, the theory is ambiguous.

I ran some simulations on the Hendricks-McAfee The simulator allows you to study simulator last night. vertical mergers along with horizontal mergers. not hard to get wholesale prices increasing and retail prices decreasing, because of the elimination of the double mark-up problem associated with a vertical merger.

So, that leaves an open question that needs to be thought about more carefully. The GAO study says that the mergers are changes in market structure that raised wholesale prices. But the study is silent on the issue of whether or not retail prices actually went up as a result of those increases. That is an open question.

I'll finish on that point

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1	1 MR.	FROEB: Okay,	yeah, thanks	very much.	Now,
2	2 we have a lunc	h break until	1:45 and we'l	l reconvene	at
3	3 that time with	a robustness	panel. Thank	you very mu	ıch.
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5	was taken.)				
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AFTERNOON SESSION

it's something that I'm actually quite pleased about,
because this is addressing issues that are near and dear
to my heart.

Robustness of any sort of econometric analysis is something that I have spent a lot of time thinking about. Most recently, I've been thinking about measuring effects of natural experiments like the sorts of natural experiments that are presented to us by trying to understand what happens looking back when a merger has occurred and in particular what the price effects are.

Now, today I'm going to talk to you about traditional regression methods, which is how I would characterize the studies that we see from the FTC and the GAO, but also I want to discuss why there may be some robustness concerns with those approaches. I also will present to you what I call a treatment effect approach, which can achieve robustness against some of the things that the traditional approach may be sensitive to. This is therefore message of hope. Something that may give us some methods that I hope will be interesting for those of you who are involved in this work to explore.

So just to give you a big picture story here, robust approaches are those that deliver results that

are not sensitive to changes in the different aspects of the analysis, for example, the assumptions we make or the statistical techniques. You've heard Professor Hausman and Professor Carlton talk about various different, important types of sensitivity analysis, and the obvious concern is that if you have an analysis that is somehow sensitive to the methods that are used, either basic assumptions or the statistical techniques or their variations, that raises questions about whether those analyses are sound bases for policy analysis.

Here, we're focusing specifically on the question of: Well, what about the robustness of the FTC and the GAO studies? Do we have concerns there? To what extent might we take those studies as a basis for policy decisions?

We're going to be talking about what we can learn from them, but I also want to talk about how we might proceed from those studies and get some additional insight as to what the effects of these petroleum mergers might be.

Now, both the FTC and the GAO studies are what I would call traditional dummy variable approaches. They use different explanatory variables. The observations are different to a degree, but what I want to concentrate on for the moment is the similarity between these two, because in both of these studies, the effects are

1 measured by including dummy variables for the merger 2 observations of interest.

Certainly, these kinds of approaches can deliver useful results of merger effects, but there are stringent conditions, and we've heard both Professor Hausman and Professor Carlton talk about some of those conditions, which are required for those useful estimates to be obtained, and I want to present a certain emphasis on those and ask some tough questions about, Well, how comfortable are we making those kind of assumptions?

I also want to show you a way that it may be possible to improve on these traditional approaches by exploiting methods from the treatment effects literature. In fact, I would like to recommend that you consider a treatment effects approach, whenever doing these sorts of ex-post studies. In fact, it may also be possible to do it ex-ante, but my focus for right now is going to be on looking post-merger and seeing what might have happened.

So in the treatment effects literature, applied to the analysis of merger events, we're going to consider the merger as a treatment that's being applied to the post-merger observations.

Now, this treatment effect approach is a

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standard approach to analyzing the effects of treatments in clinical trials. There we can randomize, but even when it's not possible to randomize, as when we're dealing with these natural experiments, it's possible in principle with identifying assumptions of the sort that Professor Hausman was talking about to achieve the effects or the benefits of randomization without having to have experimental control, and that's by making use of certain conditional impediment assumptions.

I have a paper that is, or was, available out at the table, so maybe some of you picked that up. I'll also give you a website at the end of my remarks where you can download that paper. It goes into the technical details of this. I don't want to get too far into the weeds, but the results of this treatment effect literature, is that even with non-randomized experiments, we can infer effects of interest.

Now, the interesting thing about this approach is that it has robustness to certain of the sorts of issues that would arise in a traditional approach. In particular, it explicitly allows for imperfect data. It can handle errors-in-variables problems directly, and, in fact, it embraces the use of proxies in attempting to account for, and I'll make a distinction between accounting for and controlling for, other factors which

will have an impact on the response variable, price.

So the FTC study is a little bit more complex because it actually has two merger dummies, as I mentioned, the 1998 and '99 dummies, so it's looking at isolating two average effects. The GAO study is quite ambitious, because it has dummies for eight different mergers. But just to keep the ideas simple, let's just suppose that we are interested in a simple single post-effect average of the effect of a merger.

Now, in the treatment literature, they are also interested in the effects of interventions, mergers are an intervention for this purpose. In the treatment literature, you'll see some different jargon used. If you want an entry into the treatment effect literature, you'll have to go looking for something called the treatment effect on the treated.

So we translate that into the merger terms, that's the effect of the merger on post-merger observations, so that's the effect that we're interested in, and if you want to link up what I'm talking about here to the treatment literature, whenever they're talking about the treatment effect on the treated, that's what we're interested in.

In that literature, there are a number of different methods that can be used to estimate those effects robustly in using suitable covariate, so this is

the literature on natural experiments pioneered by
Angrist that Professor Hausman was talking about.

There's been recent work by Hahn and econometric done
in 1998 by Heckman and his colleagues and by Heron

Embans and their colleagues and by Hirano, Imbens, and
their colleagues on and different ways of doing
this in a cross-section framework.

Now, here we have a before and an after, but we're in a time series framework. Actually, in the GAO study we're in a time-series, cross-section framework, so the approach there needs to be extended, and in the paper that I've made available, I'm doing that just extending the time series. I'm not doing it per panel, and that's going to take some further thought, but it's possible to straightforwardly extend those ideas and make them relevant for use for our purposes.

So let me begin by just reminding you about what a traditional regression attempts to do, and then talk

about the different things that may cause concern in attempting to achieve these goals.

What the traditional regression approach attempts to do is to measure the effect of every variable in the regression on the variable of interest, here price, holding all of the other explanatory factors

1 constant.

So that's called the ceteris paribus, other things equal, approach or interpretation. When we look at the coefficients in a regression situation, for example, we look at the merger dummy coefficient, we will interpret that in the standard way as the effect on price of the merger, but holding everything else constant as if we were able to conduct a laboratory experiment. Or in a price concentration study, the coefficient on that variable is intended to represent the effect on price of that concentration variable holding everything else constant.

Now, that is an ambitious goal because we're attempting to learn about all of these different effects as they operate effectively simultaneously. This can be done, but the conditions to achieve that are stringent, and it's possible that some of these conditions may not be plausible in particular situations.

So here are three of the most important conditions for my purposes here today. First of all, the regression equation must be a truly causal relation. It must be the case even if we can't conduct this experiment in actuality, we ought to be able to perform a thought experiment where we vary one of the factors on the right-hand side and hold all of the others constant, and

a variable that enters in usual linear fashion, it's effects cannot depend upon its value. This is one of the points that Professor Carlton was making when he was talking about the concentration index, that it's effect might differ depending on its value.

Also among the issues that Professor Hausman was talking about was that when a merger happens, the structure of the market changes, and this may change the way that the prices respond to the underlying cost and demand variables, so if we impose a restriction that those effects are the same, pre- and post-merger, then we may be getting ourselves into trouble.

Now, there are other requirements. They're the sorts of things that you can find in the econometric textbooks so I won't go into them here, but these are the ones that are certainly serious concerns so that if they're called into question, then may make it difficult for us to know how much reliance to place on the resulting estimates. Another way of saying that is that this is treating a robustness problem.

So here are the consequences. The primary consequence is that if we have any of these problems, if we've got errors-in-variables, or the functional form isn't correctly specified, or the relationship isn't a causal relationship, then the estimated coefficients no

attaining the goal of estimating these effects of the mergers without necessarily running afoul of some of the things that a traditional approach might give us.

Here's what we need to proceed with the treatment effect approach. We need a list of the driving factors, the determining variables that we can actually observe. This is going to come from an economic theory carefully applied to the problem of interest.

In price determination, this is going to tell us things about cost and demand shifters, and our knowledge of the particular industry is going to tell us about which particular cost is of interest, oil, which particular demand shifters, maybe weather, may be income. It may be a variety of different things, but our economic insight is going to tell us what it is that we would like to be measuring as driving and determining prices.

I talked about the observable true cost and demand shifters. What I mean by that is that these should be those cost and demand shifters that we can really measure accurately.

Now, once you really start to think carefully about whether we can accurately measure the true cost and demand shifters, I think it's more likely the case that we would feel somewhat uncomfortable thinking that we

had really got our hands on the true cost or demand shifters. For example, both of these studies, the FTC and GAO include oil prices.

Certainly oil prices account for a huge amount, maybe 60 percent, of the raw materials cost of gasoline, but now let's think carefully. The prices that are included in these regressions are the prices measured contemporaneously in the spot market, in the case of GAO, or the prices measured in the future markets in the FTC contemporaneously with the gasoline price: That's likely not to be the purchase price of petroleum that went into the production of the gasoline

that's being sold on a particular day.

Nevertheless, it is capturing something important about the cost determinants, and so I would say that such a variable is really a proxy for an unobservable true petroleum price that we would like to have our hands on but can't get.

So this gets to my second list of things that we would like to have, observable proxies for unobservable determining variables, so these are the things that we as economists naturally look to find. We get an oil price that might be spot price. It might be futures price. It might be several lags of spot or futures prices.

We also know that there are costs and demand shifters that have an impact but that we can't measure directly. This is where things like the price of gasoline in Chicago can come into play because the Chicago gasoline prices are being driven by costs and demand shifters perhaps similar, if not exactly identical, to what's going on in Louisville as is the case in the FTC study.

So the price of gasoline in Chicago can act as a proxy for cost and demand shifters. The prices in Houston, the prices in northern Virginia, may also be potential proxies, and we have to think about whether or not they're going to satisfy the core requirements, which I'm going to discuss when I get to the end of this page here, for being useful proxies. But, I want to think of these variables not as controlled variables, that is control observations, but rather as proxies for observable cost and demand shifters.

The things we can observe, whether they are the true underlying driving variables, or whether they're just proxies for those things that are acting together as predictive proxies for the true unobservable determining variables.

So the things that are really driving prices are omitted. We can't really observe them. Instead, we

can get our hands on things which we think are going to be correlated with those, so there's correlations between the proxies and the things which are really driving prices, and that's how I want to think of these observables, X.

In the treatment effect literature, this collection X is what is called a set of covariates, and the key requirement for these covariates is that they can't be affected by the treatment. That's why we have double blind studies in the clinical trial literature. That's why Chicago prices are a useful proxy provided that Chicago is not impacted by the Marathon Ashland merger.

So as long as the proxies aren't causally impacted by the treatment, then they can be usefully included, and they should be linked by some compelling economic theory to whatever the things are that we would wish we could measure rather than just trying to throw in the kitchen sink. So in fact, if Chicago is a useful proxy and Houston is a useful proxy, then those can go into the set of Xs that one uses in this approach.

It's also the case that we can decide whether or not to include proxies based upon whether or not their behavior changes pre- and post-merger, so obviously oil is an important factor. If its distribution was the

same pre- and post-merger, we wouldn't have to control for it because it wouldn't be a confounded variable.

So that says, Well, we don't necessarily have to have observations on everything. We just have to have observations on those things whose distributions may be changing pre- and post-merger and which can therefore possibly be confounded with the merger effect. That means that we have to include proxies for any unobservable whose behavior changes pre- and post-merger. That's why these variables X have to go in there.

Now, what I just said is true, that you don't have to include proxies for things whose distributions don't change, but if you happen to have those, you can reduce effectively the error of residual in the equation that we're estimating and get more precise estimates on the merger effect, but it doesn't bais the merger effect estimate to leave those out.

How do you perform this treatment effect estimation? Well, the thing that we're really trying to get at as far as an average effect is the difference between 1) the average that actually occurred post-merger and 2) what we would predict to have occurred given the market conditions post-merger, but if the pre-merger predictive relationship were to hold. I want to stress the fact that I've said predictive relationship.

I didn't say causal relationship. I said predictive
relationship, and it's that fact which is going to give
us the robustness that we are interested in.

There is a way to do that by running a regression, thanks to the algebra of linear regression. You can achieve that by a simple regression which is very similar to the standard regression that we're used to running, and that is to include a merger dummy. We include the covariates X, that is, all of our observable proxies and determining variables, and we also include flexible transformations of X. So not necessarily to say that this would be a good idea, but just to give you an idea what I mean by a flexible transformation, maybe the squares of cross products of the Xs. There are other things perhaps that will perform better statistically that one can do, but that's the basic idea.

We're trying to achieve a flexible functional form that will include these covariates because we don't know what the true predictive relationship is, and that's what we're out there for. We also want to include one more thing, and this is to achieve the recommendation that Professor Hausman made in his remarks earlier, we don't want to necessarily impose the restriction that the way the market responds to its cost and demand shifters is the same after the merger as it is

out, and that bath water is the other ceteris paribus effects. This approach does not deliver consistent estimates of any of the other effects that one would typically interpret from a regression equation. Instead what you have is a mix -- these coefficients on all of the other variables of the model are a mix. They're a mix of the causal effects of the variables that you should have included but couldn't because you can't measure them, and the predictive relations between the proxies which you have included and those causal effects.

So what that means is that you can look at those remaining coefficients. Understand that they're capturing this mix of complicated, predictive and causal relationships, and that means that they don't have to have the expected signs or magnitudes, that economic theory would tell you should be there if what you were talking about was a causal relation. They're observing all of these predictive relations so the fact that the sign is wrong might be a concern if you really cared about the effect of oil prices, but if our main focus of interest is the effect of the merger, we can still get there, despite having used a proxy for oil prices.

So this, in effect, sort of liberates us because I don't know how many of you, like I have, tried

to run a regression equations and get the darn sign right and have it not happen. Well, it's because what's in the equation is a proxy is capturing causal and predictive effects all jumbled together, but the thing that we care about, the effect of the merger, comes through all of this relatively unscathed.

Now, let's just line up the traditional approach and the treatment effect approach that I'm advocating here. The treatment effect approach explicitly permits the use of proxies in our covariates.

Now, with the traditional approach, we use proxies and then pretend we don't, so here what we get to do is at least to be honest, but now we have to think carefully about the proxies. They should be things that are proxying for variables that we have left out, but they also should be things that are not themselves impacted by the merger.

The treatment effect approach by having a flexible functional form avoids misspecification by not imposing the linear straight jacket on the predictive relationship. Instead we can let the data speak and guide us to what might be a useful predictive relationship, and we also have the interactions, so we avoided imposing the restrictions that Professor Hausman was telling us to avoid imposing.

Now, we've lowered the bar in terms of the requirements of what we have to do, and this is naturally going to mean that we don't get everything that we would have gotten with a traditional approach. We don't get the ceteris paribus effects of

We don't get the ceteris paribus effects of the non-merger variables. But if what we care about is the effect of the merger, then we still have what we want because the treatment effect approach does deliver robust estimates of the merger effects. It's robust to errors-in-variables issues. We use proxies. It's robust to misspecification issues by using flexible predecj5.7

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1	between the merger dummy and the other observable
2	proxies.
3	PROFESSOR WHITE: Right, yes. The result of
4	these interactions is basically to isolate the post
5	merger predictive relationships from the pre merger
6	predictive relationships, and by including those
7	interactive terms, it performs that isolation.
8	So basically only the pre merger observations
9	are operating to construct the coefficients for the
10	prediction equation when we're doing the predicted but
11	for crisis, so the effect is only the effect on the
12	merger coefficient.
13	If there are no other questions from the floor,
14	let me turn it over to the panel and ask for their
15	comments, please.
16	PROFESSOR HENDRICKS: How robust are these
17	treatment effects towards the independent variable
18	problems? Suppose you're trying to predict the "but-for"
19	price when you really don't have a very good list of
20	demand and cost shifters?
21	PROFESSOR WHITE: Okay. So first it's
22	important to have at least the guidance of theory in
23	trying to get a good list.
24	Now, let me clarify. Were we talking about

when theory doesn't even help us, or are we talking about

25

when theory might at least give us some good guidance.

PROFESSOR WHITE: Sure. So if there are variables that are changing pre and post and you have not proxied them, you're not going to avoid deconfounding. The specifics of the proxy are to avoid deconfounding, so that's why it's paramount to identify all the different things, think about whether there are either theoretical or empirical reasons why their distributions may change pre and post-merger and at least proxy those.

The distinction I like to make is that we may not be able to control for these limited variables, but at least we can account for them, and the use of the Chicago price as a proxy for cost and demand shifters may achieve that.

To the extent that there are other regions that are similarly impacted by the environmental costs, I think it may be plausible that Chicago is, I'm not an expert on that -- but to the extent that they are, then they will help serve as a proxy.

It's also the case that you don't need to think of the proxies as one-to-one. Some proxies like the Chicago gasoline price may act as proxies for several different things simultaneously. Moreover, the oil price and the Chicago price jointly operate as proxies for the things that are left out. So if there are correlations

between oil prices and other demand shifters, let us say, or other cost shifters, those are going to be picked up by oil prices and the Chicago gasoline price jointly.

That's one of the reasons why the coefficients on the other variables don't tell you ceteris paribus effects. They're picking up all these other things with which they may be corollary.

PROFESSOR CARLTON: I just wanted to make a few comments just to -- I think you'll agree with all of them, but I just want to say them, that the approach that Professor white has described is not structural.

PROFESSOR WHITE: Absolutely.

PROFESSOR CARLTON: And therefore just to go back to your previous comment, the thought experiment of using what the GAO said was a quasi structural equation, with endogenous variables, I want to repeat something that Professor White had on one of his slides, the experiments you're doing is quote, if all else is held constant what happens to the price merger and the question I have for the GAO is: What is the thought experiment you're doing in holding all else constant?

If it is an endogenous variable you have in your equation and you're holding it constant, that's a very odd conceptual experiment because, by assumption, the endogenous variable will be altered by whether

there's a merger or not. So therefore there's a logical problem when you use these quasi structural equations to estimate something with endogenous variables, and that's why I was saying the reasons sometimes instead of a structural estimation you may want to do a more reduced form estimation. This is definitely such a case. I think this is what Professor White was saying, a case in which more of a type reduced form estimation is done.

I think this is the correct way to think about it. Suppose you have past data on price and variable X and suppose price equals some function of X. If you don't have data on all the Xs, but you have some of them, you can still make predictions of price. You want to make a prediction into the future and then you look at the difference between that prediction and what happens, so that seems exactly right. That's the spirit of a

approach is that you're not in a linear straight jacket and Professor Hausman said you can allow the
and Professor Hausman said you can allow the
-
specification to change post-merger, that's all
something that you could do either in a structural or a
non-structural set up. So, as a matter of course, you
should be adjusting your functional form assumptions to
test for robustness of your results.
So those I think were just confirmatory
comments.
PROFESSOR WHITE: That's correct.
PROFESSOR CARLTON: This is a slight question.
I think this is a question. You didn't describe whether
you thought the merger was endogenous or not. Now,
let's suppose within the structure of the model you can
predict whether the merger will occur or not, and it
seems to me whether a merger occurs or not could alter
the functional specification.
I wasn't sure. I think what you were saying is
you estimate the but-for effect of the merger
conditioned on what would have happened absent the
merger from the predictive equation.
PROFESSOR WHITE: Yes, pre-merger.
PROFESSOR CARLTON: Okay. And again it's just
a question of what the conditioning experiment is. What
you're conditioning on is a merger would happen.

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1 PROFESSOR WHITE: Right.

PROFESSOR CARLTON: You're saying suppose I

could have prevented that merger but the economic

factors that would otherwise have worked themselves out

would work themselves out.

PROFESSOR WHITE: In the same way.

PROFESSOR CARLTON: In the same way, and the only question is: In the same way absent the merger? In other words, if there is a relationship between a merger and probability of a merger and the economic factors, I think it gets a little more complicated.

PROFESSOR WHITE: Right, it is complicated but if we look at these key requirements this will help clarify. The predictive proxies I'm talking about, and this is a point that you just made which is absolutely right, these are the costs and demand shifters that are not causally impacted by the merger itself, so these are removed either in time or by levels of market structure from the impact of the merger.

Now, the underlying condition that makes all of this work is what's known in the literature as Rubins unconfoundedness condition, and in this context, what that condition means is that given the predictive proxies that we have available, the merger is independent of the unobservable drivers. That's the key condition,

and that's talked about in the paper.

Now, that doesn't mean that the probability of merger isn't impacted by these proxies. In fact it is, and that probability is in the treatment literature called a propensity score, and that actually has an important role to play in properly handling the non randomness of the treatment.

PROFESSOR CARLTON: Okay.

PROFESSOR HAUSMAN: I'll just make a few comments. Again as with every method, I think this has some advantages and some potential disadvantages. Let's go back and talk about regression. In the literature this goes back to -- in the statistics literature you'll see a description of there are two interpretations of regressions and it's again one of the things that I'm not sure everybody understands what's going on. Let's do the following thing. Let's say that we have something, I don't know if I should make this serious or not. Let me make this something serious.

It's a price of some product in supermarkets, price of cereal in supermarkets and the price of beer in supermarkets. If we can use that in most cases,

Massachusetts allows beer to be sold in supermarkets

PROFESSOR WHITE: I don't advise putting it on cereal though.

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1	PROFESSOR HAUSMAN: There's a tax change. Now,
2	one of my other hats, I used to do a lot of work in
3	public finance, we like to say, Well, what's the impact
4	of this tax, how is going to affect the retail price of
5	beer? There are two ways you can do this, two
б	interpretations of regressions. There is one which is a
7	structural model so we get the cost and demand shifters.

The other thing is you could have just a predictive equation which says, Look I know what goes into the cost and demand for beer, it's hops, electricity, it's service, and the structural models are almost too complicated, so what I'm going to do is I'm just going to write this as a regression model. It could be nonlinear but people are often using linear. That gets the conditional expectation as I said this morning on all these factors.

And indeed it can be structural, the signs, they can be complicated interactions but it does have some properties. It's a prediction. It's a minimal mean square error predictor.

So now let's say that we just had one city. We had San Diego, where I know they sell beer in supermarkets so we did that, and the San Diego city council for whatever reason puts a tax on beer in year two, so what are we going to do in this type of model?

1	We're going to take the predictor from period one. We're
2	going to put all these factors in. I'm going to assume
3	the price of hops and sugar are unaffected by this tax.
4	Therefore I'm going to take the prediction in period two.
5	I'm going to take the price, and I'm going to subtract,
6	and I'm going to say that's the effect of tax, okay?
7	Now, there are some important assumptions that
8	are going on in this model, and that is to say that in
9	period two, whatever that functional form was in period
LO	one that you've chosen are those coefficients are going
L1	to work in period two if you have
L2	PROFESSOR WHITE: Actually, no, that's not an
L3	assumption.
L4	PROFESSOR HAUSMAN: I'm going to only have two
L5	observations.
L6	PROFESSOR WHITE: Two observations.
L7	PROFESSOR HAUSMAN: I have all the observations
L8	before that allows me to fit the model but I only have
L9	one time period after.
20	PROFESSOR WHITE: Okay.
21	PROFESSOR HAUSMAN: So what I'm going to do is
22	I'm going to subtract and I'm going to say that's the
23	effect of the tax.
24	PROFESSOR WHITE: Let me be sure I understand.
25	I've got one period post-tax.

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1	PROFESSOR HAUSMAN: Right.
2	PROFESSOR WHITE: And so I've got some
3	observation on that, and then I've got a prediction
4	built up from let's say 50 weeks of data pre-tax, so I'm
5	going to make a forecast of what I would have expected
6	the outcome to be
7	PROFESSOR HAUSMAN: That would be the but-for
8	price, but for the tax, and then you subtract it.
9	PROFESSOR WHITE: Right.
10	PROFESSOR HAUSMAN: So that's really the
11	methodology.
12	Now, that has some potential problems, and that
13	is that if anything else changed. If other things change
14	besides the tax in the period when you're going to
15	measure, it's going to be confounded.
16	PROFESSOR WHITE: Yes, if you didn't include a
17	proxy for something that changed between those periods,
18	then you're absolutely right.
19	PROFESSOR HAUSMAN: But the technology could
20	change for making beer. There could be a new entrant of
21	another beer company. There could be all sorts of
22	things. I'm not saying anything is wrong with this.
23	It's something you have to assume.
24	PROFESSOR WHITE: You're making a very
25	important point.

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1	PROFESSOR HAUSMAN: It's something that you
2	have to assume could happen.
3	So now let's say instead of just having San
4	Diego, we have San Diego and we have LA, or let's not
5	choose LA because we don't want some city too close. We
6	have San Diego and I will use San Francisco and San
7	Francisco has not imposed a tax, so now you're in better
8	shape because what you can do is you can take the
9	predictive equation for San Francisco, to the extent
10	you're going to assume they have the same technology now
11	as San Diego, and you're going to say, Can I predict San
12	Francisco in period two and can I do that well. And if I
13	can do that well, that then gives me confidence that what
14	I'm observing in San Diego is actually true.
15	But if things change in San Francisco, what I
16	have to do is to assume that the way they change in San
17	Francisco is going to be similar to the way they changed
18	in San Diego to allow me to separate out the
19	experimental effect and the let me just finish up.
20	PROFESSOR WHITE: Go ahead.
21	PROFESSOR HAUSMAN: As you have more cities,
22	then of course this becomes better and better because
23	you can test this.
24	Now, you don't have to do this within the
25	cities. You can do this over time as well. I took two

cities because I think it's easy to think about, but of course you can do San Diego 50 periods before the merger and 50 periods after the merger, but this kind of stability test that I was talking about with San Francisco is really saying that you could do after the merger and say are things stable as well.

What really worries me about this is the following: The good thing about structural models, and Dennis's point about what you're holding constant is a good point, I mean I think that's on a different point. The good thing about structural models is when you estimate them, you can say, Do these elasticity estimates really make sense?

So I don't know whether people from GAO are here, but I did not make this point and now I'll make it. The thing I find most surprising about the GAO study is not necessarily that they found positive effects but that they found large and significantly negative merger effects for a couple of the mergers. It's hard for me to think of an economic model of mergers, apart from vertical ones, but if these were actually horizontal mergers it's hard for me to think of a theory that will give a negative effect. I'm not an expert I'll say on the oil or gas industry, but to the extent that I understand it, I think going back in the '70s or '80s, I

just don't see how the marginal supply -- these guys are not the marginal suppliers, how you get a significantly negative effect, so that really starts to worry me, and this sort of goes back to Hal's thing.

If you're closer to a structural model you can sort of take a look at the estimates of the elasticity and say, Do these really sort of make sense to me a priori. I think for most people to the extent that they do, you feel more confident with this, and you can do it both on a before and after basis. If the elasticity changes for beer the market elasticity is probably about one -- say it's 1.2, if it changes to six after the merger, I would be really worried because I just can't believe all these Bud drinkers became much more price sensitive. That's something you can actually benchmark and worry about.

What I'm worried about sort of in this effects approach is when you have everything interacting together. I've done this as well. It's much more difficult to sit down and scratch your head and say, Does this make a lot of sense. And the worry is you'll start putting in more and more interactions to fit things better and better and better and then that leads to a whole other set of problems which I don't have time to talk about.

But it's just not being able to -- so what Hal is emphasizing is absolutely right, is you want to use you're a priori knowledge to say what variables you want to put in, but we also have some a priori knowledge about what reasonable coefficients are and that's really what we lose in this approach. Every approach has advantages. Every approach has disadvantages.

This approach has a lot of advantages. I actually happen to like it, but I think that's a disadvantage that we may have left out some variables because we didn't think about them, and that if we had done a structural model, when we looked at the elasticity aspects, we would say this model is screwed up because you can't get that as an elasticity of beer. But in Hal's approach, you could have left out some variables that you should have put in and you may not catch them. You may get lucky. If you have other data you will catch them, but you can't look at the coefficient and know that you missed something that you should have included, so you can't use as much a priori knowledge as you can in the more traditional approaches.

PROFESSOR WHITE: Let me just respond briefly because I know we have tied together as a panel.

I agree with probably most of what you just said. There is one thing that you can look at and

understand whether it makes sense or not and that is the effects of the merger, whereas in the alternative world you may not be able to even do that. But there is also a false sense of security that you can gain by looking at coefficients that all seem to have pretty much the right sign. Just because a coefficient has the right sign doesn't mean the model is necessarily correctly specified just as those of you who have run a lot of regressions to get correct science may suspect. So I would actually advocate doing a Hausman test, even if the signs look right, because even if everything looks right to me, that may be a story that's too good to be true, and I might be suspicious that there may be other subtle specifications that the right signs may be lulling me into.

I also want to agree with what Jerry was saying about the importance of having ways to test the validity of these underlying assumptions.

Now, as Professor Hausman very carefully articulated in his studies, there were these underlying untestable assumptions, but there are also ways to test certain overhead assumptions. In the last section of the paper, I discuss a test which can be applied to see whether or not we really have this conditional independence that's necessary to think that we really

Proxies appear to have to have certain properties. But it's not clear to me that they have to have any properties that would actually cause them to be very informative about the underlying things for which they are proxying. So I'm wondering if there are some conditions unstated in your presentations that we should know about?

PROFESSOR WHITE: This slide here is actually the one where I say the ingredients, and it's really economic theory, which is driving this. The things that you start with are the list of things that economic theory tells us should matter.

Then, for example, there are going to be some things that we can't observe, and maybe it's let's say a wage for a worker or a collection of workers on the cost side in the industry that we're interested in.

Well, maybe we can observe a wage index for those things, so what I have in mind are sort of errors in-variables, error latent measurements for the things that we would like to observe. But economic theory may also tell us that, for example, as in the FTC study the price of Chicago is impacted by similar supply and demand shocks. Maybe they're not identical but at least they're driven in a similar way, and as long as the errors in measurement are not affected by the merger, and

1	as long as the relationship between the things that we					
2	can measure and the things that we aren't satisfy this					
3	conditional independence condition, then they can act as					
4	useful proxies.					
5	Now, it may be that we've included a variable					
6	that actually has no predictive value, and that's a					
7	question that actually can be addressed by hypothesis					
8	testing for the prediction equation in the pre-merger					
9	observations.					
10	DR. THOMPSON: The conditional independence					
11	that you referred to is quite important.					
12	PROFESSOR WHITE: It's the key.					
13	DR. THOMPSON: And it's roughly equivalent to					
14	the zero correlation condition between the instruments					
15	and the error in a more conventional structure. Is that					
16	right?					

PROFESSOR WHITE: Yes, it is. It's playing a very similar role. It's just that what these things are is not instruments, which are supposed to be uncorrelated over the errors, but rather proxies which are supposed to be highly correlated with the things that we have.

PROFESSOR CARLTON: Can I re-ask a question?

It's subtle. I may not have asked it well. If the merger is endogenous --

PROFESSOR WHITE: Oh, yes.

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1 PROFESSOR CARLTON: If the merger is endogenous 2 and predictable from the data, and you ask the question, What was the effect of the merger. You could 3 also ask the flip question, what would have happened had 4 I stopped the merger, which I think is what a lot of people are asking. There's a subtlety in this that I 7 don't think -- I tried to bring up and I think I failed to, and that is if you stop a merger that otherwise would 8 have occurred and been predicted to have occurred, then 10 you have interfered with economic forces that were in 11 place during the period of estimation and now in the 12 but-for world without the merger, you will be in a different situation. 13

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1	both contexts, and if there are misleading answers that	
2	arise by not properly treating the endogeneity, they will	
3	impact both the traditional and this approach.	
4	Now, off the top of my head, since I haven't	
5	carefully considered this, but I know that this is	
6	worthy of a very careful consideration, it strikes me	
7	that it may be possible to instrument the merger. If	
8	might have to be in a situation where you have a lot of	
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1	PANEL FOUR: IMPLICATIONS OF CURRENT LEARNING AND
2	ANTITRUST MERGER POLICY IN THE PETROLEUM INDUSTRY
3	MODERATORS: KEN HENDRICKS, Ph.D.
4	SCOTT THOMPSON, Ph.D.
5	PANEL MEMBERS: HAL WHITE, Ph.D.
6	JERRY HAUSMAN, Ph.D.
7	DENNIS CARLTON, Ph.D.
8	
9	MR. FROEB: We're ready for the last panel.
10	Ken Hendricks and Scott Thompson will be co-moderating
11	the last panel which will hopefully tell us what this all
12	means for antitrust policy. We're going to be out of
13	here precisely at 4:00. Thank you.
14	PROFESSOR HENDRICKS: In contrast to previous
15	speakers, I don't have any presentation to exhibit on the
16	screen, but I do have some comments and thoughts.
17	The first question I would like to focus on is
18	the value of the treatment approach versus the
19	traditional regression approach.
20	If we look at the FTC study, the narrow
21	question that's being asked is: What was the impact of
22	the merger on prices in a specific market, in this case
23	Louisville? The treatment approach requires a control
24	group, which in this case was Chicago. If prices in
25	Chicago are an adequate control, that is, they were not

affected by the merger that took place between Ashland and Marathon, what we're doing is taking the relationship between the Chicago price and the Louisville prices premerger, and using that relationship to project the "butfor" price in Louisville if the merger had not occurred. You take the difference between actual and butfor prices and that indeed would be a measure of the impact of the merger. The finding is that there wasn't much of an impact.

In the case of the GAO study, essentially a similar approach was taken with merger dummies. Only in this case, the treatment effect was obtained by averaging across the markets in which the two firms in the merger were participating. Hence the control group is markets in which only one of the merging parties was operating or neither party was operating. Thus, in this case the coefficient of the merger dummy is essentially an average across a set of markets in which the merger had an impact. A further complication in the GAO study is that they study the impact of different mergers in the same regression, which makes it difficult to determine what the control group is for each merger.

In neither study do you really get a handle of what is determining the impact of the merger. So, for example, if you thought about the FTC study, you would

have to think about running that kind of treatment analysis separately for every market that is impacted by the merger and finding an appropriate control for that market. At the end of the day, you would a list of numbers which measure the impact of the merger in different markets.

What I would like to know is: what is explaining the variation in the impact of the merger across markets? The FTC study focuses on one market and does not produce this variation across markets, so I can't answer that question. The GAO study assumes away that variation because it turns on the dummy in every affected market and computes an average across the markets. So I can't answer this questions from that study either.

In the GAO study, you do have some variation across mergers because they're doing a multi-merger analysis. So you can ask the questions, what is explaining the variation in the average impact of the different mergers?

But I would be happier if we could first measure the impact of a single merger in different city markets and then try to explain this variation across markets rather than trying to explain the variation in average impacts across mergers.

merger is likely to be very low when demand is highly elastic. The treatment approach is not going to give you any information on structural parameters like demand elasticity or marginal costs. That is the kind of information that I would like to have in studying a merger ex ante to help predict which is likely to happen.

Theory provides models. The Cournot model has been described and is the basis for the Merger Guidelines. I would like the ex post analysis to help me understand which theoretical models should we be using to try and predict whether or not a particular merger is going to have a big impact or not. For example, is the reason why the FTC study finds that the Ashland-Marathon had no impact in Louisville despite large changes in the HHI because their definition of the market is too narrow or because competition among firms is more competitive than is assumed in the Cournot model?

This is the kind of feedback I would like to see from an ex post analysis. In this way, the results will feed back into policy-making and help us think about mergers from an ex ante perspective.

DR. THOMPSON: Well, I just have a couple of comments. First of all, I want to thank everybody for having us here today. I think this has been quite educational for me, and hopefully for other people as

1 well.

I'm going to highlight a few things that I take away from this about the econometric exercises themselves in conducting these ex-post analysis of mergers.

The first one is the obvious one. This is not easy to get right. There is plenty of room for disagreement. A lot of hard work can go into it, and nevertheless reasonable people can disagree about what the answer is.

Secondly, I was struck by Professor Hausman's emphasis of what he called the bedrock assumptions things you can't question. This is something that, back when I was teaching, I tried to hammer home to my students, and I still do with my colleagues at EAG today. It may have actually come from Professor Hausman's chapter on identification in the Handbook of econometrics, but I can't be sure.

The main thing I take away from the importance of bedrock assumptions is that it really facilitates discussions about the disagreements, about the differences of opinion, to try to explicitly identify what they are. I think that this is actually one of the difficulties in trying to compare the two studies that are the subject of our discussions today.

I don't think either study is as explicit as it

1 could be about these kinds of assumptions.

I guess I found the FTC study perhaps a bit more transparent on this, in part because it's a less complex study, and it doesn't try to do quite as many things. It's much harder to draw general conclusions from it as a result. But at the same time it's a lot easier to understand what's going on and what has been assumed and what hasn't been assumed.

The fact that you can put up a graph, a plot of the data of these differences, and get a pretty good idea of what the econometrics is going to tell you is a huge virtue. There's nothing quite like putting a clear picture in front of a Judge if you're going to go in and challenge a merger.

Now, if you look at that picture, it shows more or less flat impact on retail prices for -- I'll get it wrong now since I didn't bring it up here, let's just say retail prices.

It's always possible of course that there actually was a merger effect in that flat line. It could be that the prices would have gone down but for the merger. But that's a story that's extraordinarily hard to tell if you're going to go into the courtroom and try to say that a particular merger was bad or is going to be bad.

1 And so one of the things that I took away here

particular it emphasizes something that I try to bring 1 2 home to my colleagues when they come to me with 3 econometric questions, namely that you better be a good economist first. If you're not ready to make hard 4 choices about the bedrock assumptions, as they were called today, then you're not really ready to start doing 7 econometrics.

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It's an absolute prerequisite. Everything you are going to do is going to depend on these, and you better feel that each one it really is a bedrock assumption as opposed

to something you're just pulling out of the air.

A fourth, and probably the least important point, but one I see a lot so I want to mention it, has to do with dealing with the correlation structure of the errors in equations that you might be estimating. Both studies included various kind of GLS corrections to try to deal with correlations of the errors.

My experience, and I think I heard the panelists today confirm this, has been that trying to correct for that kind of structure is an extraordinarily difficult thing to do well. It requires much stronger bedrock assumptions to do correctly, because you're explicitly mixing the data. That changes the kind of assumptions you're making about which things are

1 correlated with which other things.

It's been my experience that a far preferable approach is to not do the correction. Try instead to calculate appropriately robust standard errors and report those. You probably ought to do that even if you do do these adjustments.

So those are various things that I've taken away from the econometrics, from the discussions of the econometrics today.

But I think more generally the question that we hope to get answered is whether or not there are any implications in all of this for the merger review process and for how the agencies ought to be conducting their merger investigations.

I'm having a hard time hearing any strong lessons along those lines: Be a good economist; Think hard about what you're doing and do the best job you can in terms of getting the economics right; Double-check all your work; Make sure that you don't make silly mistakes when you do your work; and all the usual common sense things that you hope any economist would do, not just somebody reviewing mergers.

I think Ken was absolutely right that there seems to be a distressing variety in the measured outcomes when you take these at face value. It's

the effect of the merger is a little bit like talking about the effects in that example that I mentioned earlier. It's something that's jointly determined with other things that we care about, and what you really have to do is go back into the economic structure and figure out how the merger is endogenous, and what determines the merger process. Of course that's a much harder thing to do in terms of coming up with reasonable answers.

So I'll just wrap up what I say by posing just a few questions for the other people on the panel. These are just a few thing things that occurred to me while I was hearing the presentation this morning. First of all, I would be interested to know if anybody does see any prospects for prospective merger review from retrospective studies, however good.

A related question to that, I think, is the extent to which we learn anything by looking at individual mergers that has implications for the merger review process overall. I'm not sure that I do see any. Finally, I'll finish up with the question of what people feel about the lack of structural modelling in these studies. Is it still possible to say something about causation in the mergers that we might actually be facing? There seems to be a bit of a disconnect between explaining what would happen using a

treatment effects concept and actually going in to argue to a Judge that the treatment effects concept is the right way to approach it, and that the merger really is the cause, as opposed to a correlation, of something you might care about.

PROFESSOR HENDRICKS: Can I say one thing before you go on? If you think back to the price concentration type of regression and contrast that to the treatment approach, you can get some idea of how much more ambitious a price concentration regression is than a treatment regression. That is why, if you simply want to measure the impact of a merger, I think the treatment approach is far more flexible, far more robust as Professor White has indicated for all of the reasons that he has cited.

But if you think about the price concentration regression, the goal of this approach is to use the coefficient on the HHI variable to explain all of the variation of the impact of a merger across different markets. You will never believe it, but that is the goal, and that is the sense in which the price concentration regression is trying to answer not only the question of what is the impact but also, coming back to the ex ante perspective, to help policy makers to predict the impact of a proposed merger. These are the changes

in the market conditions that we care about; that's why the numbers 1800 and 1000 show up in the Merger Guidelines. The problem, as Professor White and I think most of us on this panel feel, is that it is difficult to believe in a price concentration regression as a casual relation, to believe that the coefficient in front of the HHI variable is really measuring something. There are a lot of assumptions that go into the model and a lot of these assumptions are problematic in practice.

PROFESSOR HAUSMAN: Okay. I know many people in the audience, but probably less than half, so what I'm going to talk now about a lot of is going to be rather cryptic vis-a-vis the Merger Guidelines, so if anybody has questions, stop me and I'll try to answer them.

Just in terms of background the first thing is that I would like to agree with Scott in terms of the importance of getting the assumptions down so that they can be discussed. I think if you look in the broader scheme of things and you say, What happened to economic theory or economics as a profession after World War II? In pre World War II, apart from a few people who -- we have a lot of people waving their hands telling stories, but the whole thing about economic theory and having to write down models is you have to make your assumptions explicit.

Now there's something lost when you do that because you have to simplify, you're waving your hand to try to explain everything, but it sharpens the focus of the discussion, and that's really what econometrics is doing here too. It is saying, What do you have to assume to believe the results and if you don't assume it, how sensitive are those results.

Another thing I would like to mention briefly, which I think is very important within the merger context, and that's what I want to speak to now, is what statistical inference is all about. So what statistical inference is all about is you have some data and you're trying to generalize from a sample to the population. So we have done this empirical work and now we have a new merger walk in the door and we want to be able to generalize from our sample information. You want to convince yourself and you want to convince others. There's a huge literature on this of course on the statistics literature.

The thing that I find disturbing is, of course, when you have imperfect data, a lot of what you're going to infer depends on your priors. I used to have a colleague, who unfortunately died of cancer, named Fisher Black, a very famous guy. He would come in to my office and we would argue for days sometimes, and it turns out

that Fisher, I would always say, you have the tightest
priors of anyone I ever met. And, if you have tight
enough priors, no amount of data unless it's perfectly
ended to infinity, will ever change someone's mind.
Fisher had to be a very good economist, a little crazy
but a good economist, and sometimes he was very right and
sometimes he was very wrong, at least in my view.

I think within the agency and within merger review, this gets just completely screwed up, because at least in the old days -- I've been at this for 20 years, it's gotten much worse recently -- people would come in with priors and say based on my knowledge of this industry or based on this or based on something, here are my priors and you have the hurdle to overcome for that second request if you're going to allow this to happen.

What's gotten much worse now is that you have a lot of arbs out there. Every timeout thrt62tace7gnpett-hh 0 eoorf a

Oracle trial. Judge Walker just kicked the living bejesus, if I can use the word, out of the Justice Department because he didn't believe the witnesses.

There have been two problems with those witnesses for the last 20 years I bring up every time. Number one, they're not marginal customers, and number two, they're not randomly selected. In most mergers if you can't price discriminate it only takes five to ten percent of the people to shift to stop a price increase in an industry with high fixed costs. How empirical work has happened has gotten completely out of hand in my view because you have lawyers, staff lawyers who are easily convinced. They don't understand econometrics but they have some customer brought in by their former friend, and he will come up with a customer who says this is the worst merger that I can think of.

And I was involved in a merger last year in which this happened. Yet it turned out that that customer's bank was negotiating with one of the providers in that industry who the customer said in a sworn affidavit they would never think about.

We had documents. He didn't know this, but we had documents that his bosses were negotiating. So then the final thing with that was in the Oracle trial when the Justice Department in sworn answers to

interrogatories, they said, Nobody in their right mind
would buy this software from AMS, the stuff is

technologically outdated. Well, what happened of course
is the Justice Department two weeks later bought it from
them and spent \$24 million, a point not missed by Judge
Walker.

So the real question here is how this all interacts. It's not that I'm going to fix it, but I think in terms of using these models and how it needs to work, that all has to be taken into account. But, of course I have many jobs that I would like to have for half an hour, and I like to be an academic a lot so a half hour to an hour is my attention span. Being head of the FTC it would be one hour for instance, but at some point or another it needs to get fixed. It's not going to get totally fixed but as I say, I think it's gotten much worse in terms of how you can use this and how you can do this.

Now, I want to turn with that as a background to trying to answer the question, should merger policy change based on the GAO study?

So one way to look at the GAO study is here we have these people at the FTC. They're doing their public duty and they did the best they could and they let these mergers go through. The GAO turned around

and said they made some mistakes, the policy was too lax and for whatever reason they let mergers go through and this led to price increase. So should that lead to a change in merger policy?

Well, surprising enough my answer is yes, so
Luke is going to fall off his chair. My answer is yes
which is unexpected. I draw two lessons from this:
number one, that merger policies should be changed and
number two, this demonstrates the HHIs can't be used. I
have believed this forever, if you think of it from an
economic point of view. But really what GAO has shown in
my view, to the extent that you take the results to be
valid and of course we do, we talked about that, is that
when you put in the dummy variables, the treatment effect
if you want to call it that way, you seem to get very
disproportionate results. You get some negative mergers,
you get some negative price changes and you get some
positive ones.

Now, if you fit all this into your regression model, you can force it and get a coefficient but that's the wrong way to look at it. As Scott just said, we don't care about the average merger. We care about a

1	particular merger, so if I take the results as given and			
2	I say, We find these results. Well, the HHI was			
3	increasing in all of them, and this is yet another			
4	reason that just reinforces my belief, that that section			
5	of the Merger Guidelines should be removed. So, Section			
6	1, gone. I mean, you can still define markets. I mean			
7	I know you have to do that legally, but the whole thing			
8	of calculating HHI hurts. I asked Larry White, who was			
9	Baxter's assistant at the time, I challenged him one day			
10	in a conference, Just show me where the thousand and			
11	whatever the 1,800 or the 2,000 and how this works, and			
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the HHI is not going to do it.

Now, in certain situations if you want to build differentiated good models, which Luke and I have done over the years, you can have a merger prediction. But in something like these models, where it's pretty much a homogeneous good and if there is a problem it's going to be coordinated interaction, we don't really have that good of a model, I'll say this point blank. But my point is that you have to get in and really dig in and do a competitive effects study for a particular merger.

So in terms of how merger policy should change with respect to oil mergers, but also how merger policy should be changed in the large -- with respect to this, I think what the GAO study, and I also think this is true of the FTC study, has shown is the heterogeneity that's involved in these various mergers. The FTC looked at just Louisville by itself, the GAO were trying to lump a bunch of mergers together. I would just completely eliminate this idea that changes that we're usually worried about that occur in the HHI ranges of 1,500 to 2,500 or -- I'm not saying that if you convince yourself that it's a merger monopoly you shouldn't try to stop it, but the hard mergers are where the HERF starts off at 1,500 and is going to end up at 2,500 and should we stop that merger.

I think in those cases, it's my reading of the GAO's results, which I'm saying conditional on me accepting them, say that the using the HERF just is not useful or predictive in that type of situation of what's going to happen.

PROFESSOR WHITE: I would like to address a couple of the questions that Professor Hendricks and Dr. Thompson raised, and then also address just briefly some of the things that Professor Hausman was just saying I would like to start by reinforcing the message that Dr. Thompson was making, which is the importance of economics in doing the treatment effect approach and in particular, but also -- and this underlies what Professor Hendricks was saying, how important economics is to understanding things like elasticities and marginal costs.

Maybe it's just nomenclature. The determining factors that I was talking about do arise from as intense an understanding of the economics as you can bring to bear to the problem. So you end up with something which is a reduced form in a sense, but it is a reduced form in which the variables have been included and excluded with excruciating care, which things belong and which things don't, and it is the economics and the understanding of the measurement, all of those economic variables which determine which things properly belong and which things

1 properly don't.

The structure is designed so as to focus

attention on the one thing that you really care about.

Everything else gets left by the wayside, and that

either is a huge benefit or a huge liability. It's a

huge liability if what you want to do is to understand

all of the inner workings of what's going on in a

particular merger event.

On the other hand, erbterod .2H, eirocus7

and	this	is	also	addr	essing	the	question,	What	do	we
lear	n fro	om :	indivi	idual	mergei	ſS.				

If it were possible to begin to keep or perhaps we already have the beginnings of a database where the predictions, and they may be heterogenous or they may be a single prediction, that emerge from any prospective study is recorded and put into a database, and then retrospectively we can go back and look at what actually happened and see whether there is a correspondence between what was expected on the basis of whatever analysis and what actually happened on the basis of a relatively objective ex-post analysis. Maybe then we can begin to understand perhaps first of all at gross levels how accurate ex-ant- predictions can be, given the processes that are currently used. And if there are differences in those processes, perhaps we can understand some of the variation and some of the factors that lead to success or some of the factors which lead to imprecision in our ex ante assessments of what may happen in particular cases.

Now, to the question of whether merger policy

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necessarily think that it was this one study that led him to those remarks that he gave, but I think that the substance is very similar to how I'm feeling about it.

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I've come very lately to this area, but I have to tell you that my first impression when I heard about the Herfindahl index and what it's used for was, Are you I haven't seen a lot that makes me change my kidding me? mind yet, so to the extent that my opinion as a newcomer in this area should be weighed, well, perhaps it's from That could be either a benefit or a outside. disadvantage, but I find the characterization of the concentration of an industry which is using the Herfindahl index strange because, as we heard Dr. Carlton say earlier, this changes across industries. As I think of what concentration is, I think it must be a multiple dimensional measure, not just a one dimensional measure, and so if there can be some movement in the direction of a more considered approach, I would have to support that,

PROFESSOR CARLTON: All right. Let me try and confine my remarks to answering the following question, which I think someone posed. What change in policy, if any, should we expect as a result of either these particular papers or papers like these?

and I'll stop with this.

My own view is that looking at what happened to
mergers that were approved is certainly something you
want to do. You want to know whether price went up or
not. Now, that's what these studies are trying to
determine.

Now, suppose you did find that prices went up in some mergers. That then raises the more serious policy question, Should we alter our policy, not in hindsight but prospectively. That is, I think Professor Hendricks asked the question exactly right, Prospectively, going forward, have I learned something from these studies so that now if I faced exactly the same situations could I have stopped a merger that that would have the price go up? And that is a different question than these studies are examining. I think they're both important questions.

These studies are examining the first. There have been studies that have examined the second. Not many, though. The one study I'm familiar with is actually done by someone in the Department of Justice I think it's Dr. Pierson , and he asks the following question: There may be other studies but that's the one I'm most familiar with.

It says, We have a lot of ways to predict the result of a merger. Some involve very structural

approaches, and then we do a merger simulation, and there are a variety of different types of those. Another one involved what I'll call a reduced form in which you just make predictions. And, by the way, I don't mean to quibble, but I'm fearful people were going to think the treatment approach is very different from a reduced form. They're very close in approach, so we're not really talking about a huge difference, they're very similar.

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So that seems to me a good thing to do, and if I recall, the reduced form did pretty well compared to the structural approach. So that's an important lesson that I want to make when I want to make projections, which model is more reliable? And I think that those types of studies are very valuable. There was a question about non-structural and what was meant. I think all that was meant, certainly all I meant, was when you have an equation with no endogenous variables, that's a nonstructural equation. I agree entirely that when you write down such equations, you should have based it on deep economic thinking about what the structure is, but I think when people are using whether an equation is structural or non-structural, they just mean whether you have an endogenous variable.

Now, having said that both types of studies are useful, a prospective study about predictions and asking

1	the question, What actually happened in mergers. Let me
2	just say something about the HHI. Although I did speak
3	and told you all the problems that can arise when you
4	have a regression between price and the HHI, it's not
5	always true that those problems exist, and sometimes you
6	can do such an equation.
7	Moreover, and obviously the FTC can defend

1 that's the one that informs policy.

Now, what can I say about this -- these two specific studies, the GAO study and the FTC study?

Having read them, would I, if someone asked me, if someone would listen to me, change merger policy as a result of these two studies?

Well, I think it should have been clear from my earlier remarks that I thought both of these two studies made a lot of progress, but there's lot more progress they have to make in order to convince me of their findings. That's why, I'm not going to put up the slides again, I had some studies that I thought actually the FTC could do pretty simply to solidify their findings to convince me of their validity, and similarly, I had a longer laundry list of things to do, but a list of things that I don't think would be very hard to implement that the GAO should do.

Until they do that, I certainly wouldn't feel comfortable saying that I'm convinced that either study has convinced me of their validity, and therefore I certainly, for example, wouldn't say, Oh, I'm going to allow merger or not allow mergers both based on either of those studies.

So my answer to the question is, yes, I think studies like the ones we're discussing today are

1	extremely valuable. I think studies of the kind I
2	described that ask which types of models make
3	predictions that turn out to be correct and that are
4	implementable, therefore, as a matter of policy, think
5	those also are very important. In fact, I think they're
6	so important that they should be done. And, indeed, in
7	this very room yesterday, there was a meeting of the
8	Antitrust Modernization Commission, of which I'm a
9	member, and one of the topics we are considering is
10	things like exactly this, looking at what has happened as
11	the outcome of various antitrust decisions, looking both
12	prospectively and retrospectively, and trying to use that
13	information, difficult as it may be to do, but at least
14	trying to use it to try and decide, Are we on the right
15	track, and that seems like an appropriate use of
16	resources and will guarantee that we don't create
17	anything other than a very efficient antitrust policy.
18	Thank you
19	PROFESSOR HENDRICKS: I would like to make one
20	comment. I personally don't have as high a prior as
21	Professor Hausman has on the use of the HHI or
22	uselessness of the HHI.
23	I think the way to proceed is to do more

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studies like the GAO report and the FTC study, do a

careful job of looking at the impact of mergers and

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1	measuring those impacts on a market by market basis
2	across different mergers using essentially this reduced
3	form dummy variable for the merger, and build up to set
4	an understanding, sort of a data set and subsets of these
5	impacts, and then ask the question, Okay, let's explain
6	some of this variation, and the factors that explain the
7	variation across markets for a given merger, and across
8	mergers what are they telling us. I'm not going to
9	disregard the HHI as one potential explanatory variable.
10	In fact, if I look at a study that was done by
11	Hastings and Gilbert and on Tosco/Unocal, they had a set
12	of variables that sort of described the variation and the

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downstream share that Tosco and Unocal the retail market.

impact of that merger across markets. The two factors

that had the most explanatory power were essentially the

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always think of the price concentration regression sort of confounding the ex-ante and the ex-post. The treatment and prediction approach, it's really saying what is the impact and we can be agnostic about what underlying behavior is, what the underlying model is to some extent, although what I mean by being agnostic is with regard to the functional forms. The variables that go in of course are the demand shifters, and the cost shifters, but the model we can be agnostic about how they enter in our measurement problem. Then, once we build up that kind of data set, now we're in a position to sort of ask the question, What are the things that matter.

MR. FROEB: Anyone else have anything else you want to add? Go ahead.

PROFESSOR WHITE: I'll just go back and what Professor Hendricks just said about the Hastings and Gilbert study I could actually agree with, and that is with a model of unilateral effects and limited or no entry or expansion is -- the refinery market, we expect something like the share that you have to matter. That's in the Guidelines, and that's in Section 2 on competitive effects, and I think it's potentially pretty useful. I don't think it always works, but it is something that makes a lot of sense.

And I don't disagree with your point that you

1	want to have a database and you don't include the HHI as
2	a separate variable, but my problem is that if you go
3	back and look at single shares, we actually have an
4	economic model that works with that, and so once we get
5	your ex-post coefficients and we've got some odds and
6	things, we probably could get some idea of how much in
7	accordance they are with economic theory.

My problem with the HHI is that it really comes out of one model. It's dead set that that model predicts you shouldn't have mergers and so to have Section 1 of the Guidelines based on that, I've always found sort of a conundrum, but maybe I need to think harder about it.

MR. FROEB: Okay. Well.

PROFESSOR HENDRICKS: I take your point. I'm not too surprised that the model doesn't apply in a lot of cases.

MR. FROEB: Well, the one thing that I'm sure all our panelists can agree on is that we need more economists doing antitrust policy.

PROFESSOR HAUSMAN: Fewer lawyers and more economists.

MR. FROEB: Yeah, economists. But I certainly want to thank the panel for coming here. The opportunity costs of the time of the people on the panel is well over six figures, and the benefit that we

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get out of their presence here and their insights has far exceeded that, so I want to sincerely thank them.

I want to also just get around applause for Liz Callison who put this conference together almost single-handedly, and I want to sincerely thank her for her efforts. Just to let you know, we will put this transcript up on the web. We will put the presentations up on the web. I hope that this will be, one of many ongoing kind of continuing studies in what we obliquely call our enforcement R&D, our continuing to follow up on what we're doing to try to make sure that we're doing the right thing to see if we can learn from anything that we're doing, to understand how difficult it is to actually follow up on these studies and to figure out what you're doing, but it's certainly something that should be done by everybody who is enforcing the laws.

It's as I said in the introduction, it's a terrible conceit to think that you've got it right and to think that you can't improve, and you think, Well, how are you growing to improve? You have to set up some sort of feedback mechanism to try to estimate what you're doing and trying to learn from this.

Anyway I want to thank the panel and Liz Callison too.

1	(Applause.)						
2	(Whereupon,	at	3:57	p.m.	the	workshop	was
3	concluded.)						
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