

Article

Bayesian Approach for Estimating the Probability of Cartel Penalization under the Leniency Program

Jihyun Park ¹, Juhyun Lee ² and Suneung Ahn ^{3,*}

¹ Department of Industrial and Management Engineering, Hanyang University, Seoul, 04763, South Korea; pjh3226@hanyang.ac.kr

² Department of Industrial and Management Engineering, Hanyang University, Seoul, 04763, South Korea; ljh812@hanyang.ac.kr

³ Department of Industrial and Management Engineering, Hanyang University ERICA, Ansan, 15588, Korea; sunahn@hanyang.ac.kr

* Correspondence: sunahn@hanyang.ac.kr; Tel.: +82-031-400-5267

Abstract: Cartels cause tremendous damage to the market economy and disadvantage consumers by causing higher prices and lower quality; moreover, they are difficult to detect. We need to prevent them by scientific analysis, which includes the determination of an indicator to explain antitrust enforcement. Particularly, the probability of cartel penalization is a useful indicator for the evaluation of the competition enforcement. This study is to estimate the probability of cartel penalization by using a Bayesian approach. In the empirical study, the probability of cartel penalization is estimated by Bayesian approach from cartel data of Department of Justice in United States from 1970 to 2009. The probability of cartel penalization is seen to be sensitive to change of competition law and the results shows the usefulness of higher interpretation than other research. The result of the policy simulation shows how effective the leniency program is. From this estimation, antitrust enforcement is evaluated, and thereby, can be improved.

Keywords: Bayesian approach; Conjugate prior; Cartel; Leniency program; Policy simulation

1. Introduction

Cartels cause tremendous damage to perfect competition market and consumers by effectually applying upward pressure on prices and downward pressure on quality; moreover, cartel has difficulty in detecting because of its tacit nature. In this way of course, cartels mitigate against perfect competition under which consumers are offered the best goods and services at the lowest possible prices. Antitrust authorities have sought continuously to maintain the free-market system against cartels, but with only partial and limited success.

In the previous research, the probability of cartel detection was the key indicator for measuring the effectiveness of antitrust policy. The more the probability of cartel detection increases, the more the expected penalties will increase, and therefore, the lesser the likelihood of cartel formation. On this principle, it is possible to measure the deterrence effect according to the change of antitrust policy. Markov transition process and the birth and death process were widely used. Bryant and Eckard [1] constructed the birth and death process model to empirically analyze cartel data provided by the US Department of Justice, estimating that the probability of cartel detection in the US (United States) between 1961 and 1988 was 13-17%. By using the same method, Combe et al. [2] estimated EC (European Commission) cartel detection probabilities of 12.9-13.2% for the years 1969 to 2007.

When the birth and death model has two states of competitive and collusive, the lifetimes and inter-arrival times between the births of cartels are independent and exponential distributions with means λ^{-1} and θ^{-1} . The number of cartels at a particular time T follows a Poisson distribution with mean $\theta_T = (\theta / \lambda) \{1 - e^{-\lambda T}\}^2$. Both Bryant and Eckard [1] and Combe et al. [2] assumed that the every cartel will be eventually caught and prosecuted. But this assumption is not realistic, because some cases are not penalized despite having been detected.

Further, Bryant and Eckard [1] and Combe et al. [2] failed to take account of the unobservable cartel population. For estimation of the unobservable population, J. E. Harrington and Chang [3] developed the birth and death model from that noted above. They concluded that cartel duration can be a good indicator of whether a new competition law has a significant cartel-dissolution effect. Using Harrington and Chang [3]'s model, Zhou [4] analyzed EC (European Commission) cartel data from 1985 to 2012, concluding that the EU's new leniency program in 2002 had had an effect in deterring cartels.

In the research of Bryant and Eckard [1] and Combe et al. [2], Harrington and Chang [3], and Zhou [4], the probability of cartel detection, as derived from cartel duration, entails the determination of the time-average probability from continuous variables. On the other hand, there is research indicating that the probability of cartel detection represents the ensemble-average probability obtained from discrete variables such as caseloads. The time-average probability is defined as the proportion of time in occupying a particular state among the total time, and the ensemble-average probability is defined as the likelihood of the number of particular state among the number of entire state in picking randomly at the particular time in stochastic process theory [5, 6].

Miller [7] formulated a cartel behavior model using the Markov process and used the number of cartel cases as discrete variables. The model assumed that the cartel transition process is in a non-absorbing and first-order Markov chain in contrast with the previous Markov models, and showed the change of the number of cartel detections before and after a leniency program. He concluded that the introduction of this leniency program in 1993 had increased the detection and deterrence capabilities of competition enforcement. The previous research above-noted [1-4, 7] used the Markov process models. This research had two notable points.

First, the duration of cartels and inter-arrival times between cartels follow exponential distributions. To verify this assumption, it needs to be carrying out hypothesis testing of the null hypothesis 'the distribution is exponentially'. The cumulative distribution function $\hat{F}(x)$ of durations and inter-arrival time is given by

$$\hat{F}(x) = \frac{\text{number of observations} \leq x}{\text{total number of observations}}.$$

Under the exponential distribution, $\log(1 - \hat{F}(x))$ should be approximately linear in x . These previous works result that cartels duration and inter-arrival times between cartels follow the exponential distribution; therefore, models can apply to the Markov process [7].

Second, this research assumed that the cartel process have to be stationary, for adopting Markov process, and that when the cartel process attains the steady-state, the values can be analyzed. This is also unrealistic. In the research of Bryant and Eckard [1] and Combe et al. [2], the probability is the result value when it reaches in the steady-state. This kind of probability is called time-independent probability. Otherwise, estimation needs to be proceeded by a form of time-dependency rather than time-independency, because the purpose of estimating the probability of cartel detection is evaluating the effects of varying competition policies [8]. Thus, Hinloopen [8]'s research was theoretical literature for analyzing a subgame of collusion.

A new mathematical methodology in the form of a non-Markov process recently has been emerged. Ormosi [9] estimated the annual probability of cartel detection by employing methods of capture-recapture based on EC information in the period between 1981 and 2001. These methods of Ormosi [9], frequently used in ecology, reflect the fact that transition parameters are not steady-state, and further, that detection and survival rates are time-independent. However, there are two unreasonable assumptions. First, capture-recapture methods assume that the number of temporary migrations between the two states (compete-collude) do not exist; thus, they are regarded as robust design methods. The antitrust policy tends to be largely varied by governmental power or social issues. Second, Ormosi [9] deduced a result from moving average methods,

specifically in the moving average of three or five years. If the probability is used on the basis of one year, the accuracy of probability can be decreased, due to data insufficiency. The market reacts immediately to competition law changes; therefore, the probability needs to be estimated for the smallest unit of time.

This paper is to estimate the probability of cartel penalization by using Bayesian approach and evaluate the impact of leniency program as antitrust policy. This study uses the conjugate family of Beta-binomial in that cartel occurs in binomial events. The posterior mean of beta-binomial distribution means the probability of cartel penalization in year. It shows the trend of the probability of cartel penalization, and then it can improve the antitrust policy from the measured impact of leniency program. In this light, the present research makes three contributions.

Firstly, this paper estimate the probability of cartel penalization for analyzing the cartel, in contrast to the probability of cartel detection treated in previous research. The probability of cartel detection which means that unobserved cartel must be caught to antitrust authority is a useful decision making for company. However, the probability of cartel penalization means penalization odds of detected cartel through sufficient investigation. It is used as an indicator of evaluating the impact of leniency program and the capability of antitrust authority.

Secondly, the methodology of this paper makes up for the weak points of previous methods of probability estimation. The previous methods have lots of unrealistic assumptions; such as the analyzed case is the eventually caught/detected case and the time-average probability etc. To improve the assumptions, we need to estimate the time dependent ensemble-average probability based on the caseloads that is more practical than time-average probability for sensitive estimation of probability.

Thirdly, this study shows that the Bayesian approach could play a practical role in modeling and analysis of the cartel situation. The Markov process model which is commonly used in previous research is essential consideration ‘in the steady-state probability’; however, it is difficult to assume ‘in the steady-state probability’ because cartel case is continuously varied over time. The probability of cartel penalization is estimated by using subjective approach of Bayesian theory. The subjective approach to probability estimation can contain a lot of uncertainty, but it has a good predictive performance in itself [10]. The bias caused by the subjective approach could be solved from the Bayesian update procedure. In addition, we present reliable result by using non-informative prior and conjugate prior distribution when prior information is not sufficient.

The paper is organized as follows. Section 2 defines the penalization probability and Bayesian probabilistic model. Section 3 presents an empirical study based on US cartel data. Section 4 draws conclusions.

2. Bayesian probabilistic model

When faced with suspected cartel cases, a competition authority carries out an initial investigation to determine if there are sufficient grounds to prosecute. Prosecuted cartels will be penalized in the form of fines through the trial. Eventually, the three states of cartel cases are commonly detection, prosecution, and penalization [11]. The estimated probability of this study is based on the detection and penalization states. The probability of cartel penalization (ρ) is described as the proportion of the number of penalizing cases to detecting cases in year t ($t = 1, 2, \dots$).

Estimation of penalization probability by using Bayesian approach involves two assumptions. First, unit of case is market. Accordingly, the research of Bryant and Eckard [1] and Miller [7] is based on the unit of the market. Bos and Harrington [12] argued that firm-based analysis is more realistic; nonetheless, for ease of analysis, the present study was based on the unit of the market. In practice, the cartels participate in all firms of the market. Second, a cartel arises only as one event during one year. Every cartel is transferred to the competition as the result of punishment by the authorities. This is called the ‘Grim trigger strategy’ [13, 14]. If some player deviates from the cartel, thereafter, the game cannot be colluded indefinitely.

This study constructed a Bayesian probabilistic model to estimate the probability of cartel penalization. The probability of cartel penalization is the posterior mean that is calculated from a

posterior distribution. In order to infer a posterior distribution, it is necessary to determine the proper prior distribution. A Bayesian probabilistic model is comprised of a prior distribution to induce a posterior distribution, hyperparameters, and a likelihood function. By means of Bayesian sequential analysis of dynamic Bayesian model, it can reflect the latest trends of time series data [15, 16].

To induce a posterior distribution from a prior distribution, two things should be considered: the likelihood function, and the parameters in the prior distribution, which are known as hyperparameters [17]. In the Bayesian approach, the natural conjugate prior distribution generally has been recommended, because its functional form is similar to the likelihood distribution [18, 19]. Therefore, in order to adopt the notion of natural conjugacy, we have to determine the appropriate likelihood function. Consider the following notations for Bayesian probabilistic model.

ρ : The probability of cartel penalization cases in year t

n_t : The number of cartel detection cases by the competition authority at the end of year t

k_t : The number of cartel penalization cases by the competition authority at the end of year t

When the detected market participating in cartel is n , Fig. 1 shows the process of cartel formulation and demise in year t .

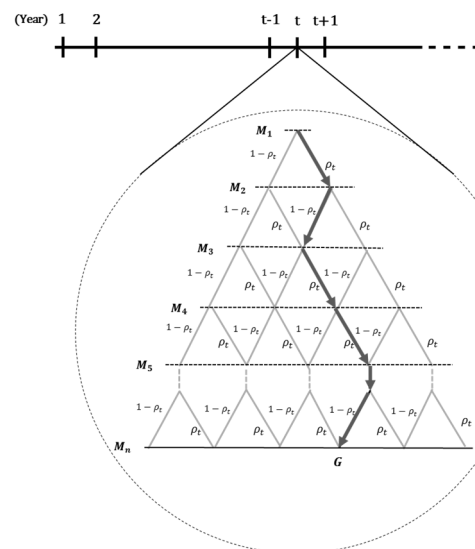


Figure 1. Estimating the probability of cartel penalization through path problem

In the Fig. 1, M_1, M_2, \dots, M_n is detecting the market of cartel in year t . Arrows in path show whether the detected cartels will be finally penalized. When the direction of arrow is right side, this cartel will be finally penalized; otherwise, not penalized. For example, the market M_2 is left side direction; this means the market M_2 will be not finally penalized as the probability ρ . This study wants to infer probability of market $n+1$ penalization in the path G. This probability is estimating likelihood function based on the data from market 1 to n and the prior distribution, besides, inferring a posterior distribution from Bayesian approach [13]. The expectation of posterior distribution means the probability of cartel penalization.

2.1. Likelihood function and prior distribution

The number of cases n_t is investigated at the end of year t , and each case follows the Bernoulli process with an independent and identical distribution. Therefore, the Bernoulli random variable X_i with one case shown is given by

$$X_i = \begin{cases} 1 & \text{if penalizing with probability } \rho \\ 0 & \text{if non-penalizing with probability } 1-\rho, \end{cases}$$

where i is the number of cartel firm in the market ($i = 1, \dots, n_t$) and $0 < \rho < 1$. The probability mass function of the random variable, known as the Bernoulli probability, is given by

$$f(x_i | \rho) = \rho^{x_i} (1-\rho)^{1-x_i}. \quad (1)$$

Once the number of cases n_t is investigated and k_t is penalized at the end of year t , the joint probability mass function of cartel cases is given by

$$\begin{aligned} f(x_1, \dots, x_{n_t} | \rho) &= \prod_{i=1}^{n_t} f(x_i | \rho) \\ &= \prod_{i=1}^{n_t} \rho^{x_i} (1-\rho)^{1-x_i} \\ &= \rho^{\sum x_i} (1-\rho)^{n_t - \sum x_i} \\ &= \rho^{k_t} (1-\rho)^{n_t - k_t}. \end{aligned} \quad (2)$$

The probability of cartel penalization has a value between 0 and 1. In Equation (2), $P(\rho)$ is a binomial form as likelihood function, because there are only two final states of a cartel: whether penalization or not. Thus, we use the beta distribution as a prior distribution based on the natural conjugacy [17, 20]. The prior distribution $P(\rho)$ is the beta distribution with hyperparameters α and β ; thus, the probability density function is given by

$$P(\rho) = \frac{\Gamma(\alpha + \beta)}{\Gamma(\alpha)\Gamma(\beta)} \cdot \rho^{\alpha-1} \cdot (1-\rho)^{\beta-1}, \quad (3)$$

where $\alpha(>0)$ and $\beta(>0)$ are the hyperparameters. The function $\Gamma(\cdot)$ is a gamma function, which is defined as

$$\Gamma(\alpha) = \int_0^\infty e^{-x} x^{\alpha-1} dx. \quad (4)$$

Note that when α is a positive integer, $\Gamma(\alpha) = (\alpha-1)!$.

2.2. Bayesian estimation

In the Bayesian approach, the posterior distribution is given by

$$P(\rho | x_1, \dots, x_{n_t}) = \frac{P(x_1, \dots, x_{n_t}, \rho)}{P(x_1, \dots, x_{n_t})}. \quad (5)$$

The joint probability distribution $P(x_1, \dots, x_{n_t}, \rho)$ in Equation (5), which reflects the multiplicative laws of probability in Equations (2) and (3), is

$$\begin{aligned} P(x_1, \dots, x_{n_t}, \rho) &= P(x_1, \dots, x_{n_t} | \rho) \cdot P(\rho) \\ &= \frac{\Gamma(\alpha + \beta)}{\Gamma(\alpha)\Gamma(\beta)} \cdot \rho^{k_t + \alpha - 1} \cdot (1-\rho)^{n_t - k_t + \beta - 1}. \end{aligned} \quad (6)$$

The marginal probability distribution $P(x_1, \dots, x_{n_i})$, calculated by the law of total probability, is given by

$$\begin{aligned} P(x_1, \dots, x_{n_i}) &= \int_0^1 P(x_1, \dots, x_{n_i}, \rho) d\rho \\ &= \int_0^1 \frac{\Gamma(\alpha + \beta)}{\Gamma(\alpha)\Gamma(\beta)} \cdot \rho^{k_i + \alpha - 1} \cdot (1 - \rho)^{n_i - k_i + \beta - 1} d\rho \\ &= \frac{\Gamma(\alpha + \beta)}{\Gamma(\alpha)\Gamma(\beta)} \cdot \int_0^1 \rho^{k_i + \alpha - 1} \cdot (1 - \rho)^{n_i - k_i + \beta - 1} d\rho. \end{aligned} \quad (7)$$

Note that $\int_0^1 \rho^{k_i + \alpha - 1} \cdot (1 - \rho)^{n_i - k_i + \beta - 1} d\rho = \frac{\Gamma(\alpha + k_i) \cdot \Gamma(n_i - k_i + \beta)}{\Gamma(\alpha + \beta + n_i)}$.

Suppose that the initial probability (ρ) is 0.5 meaning whether the detected or the non-detected case for eliminating the dependence on the prior information. Thus, the hyperparameters α and β of the prior distribution are 1 as a noninformative prior. Therefore, the posterior distribution is a beta distribution with the parameters $\alpha + k_i$ and $\beta + n_i - k_i$. The posterior distribution of Equation (5) is represented by

$$\begin{aligned} P(\rho | x_1, \dots, x_{n_i}) &= \frac{\frac{\Gamma(\alpha + \beta)}{\Gamma(\alpha)\Gamma(\beta)} \cdot \rho^{k_i + \alpha - 1} \cdot (1 - \rho)^{n_i - k_i + \beta - 1}}{\frac{\Gamma(\alpha + \beta)}{\Gamma(\alpha)\Gamma(\beta)} \cdot \frac{\Gamma(\alpha + k_i) \cdot \Gamma(n_i - k_i + \beta)}{\Gamma(\alpha + \beta + n_i)}} \\ &= \frac{\Gamma(\alpha + \beta + n_i)}{\Gamma(\alpha + k_i)\Gamma(\beta + n_i - k_i)} \cdot \rho^{k_i + \alpha - 1} \cdot (1 - \rho)^{n_i - k_i + \beta - 1}. \end{aligned} \quad (8)$$

The posterior mean $E[\rho | x_1, \dots, x_{n_i}]$ from Equation (8) is

$$\begin{aligned} E[\rho | x_1, \dots, x_{n_i}] &= \int_0^1 \rho \cdot P(\rho | x_1, \dots, x_{n_i}) d\rho \\ &= \int_0^1 \rho \frac{\Gamma(\alpha + \beta + n_i)}{\Gamma(\alpha + k_i)\Gamma(\beta + n_i - k_i)} \cdot \rho^{k_i + \alpha - 1} \cdot (1 - \rho)^{n_i - k_i + \beta - 1} d\rho \\ &= \frac{\Gamma(\alpha + \beta + n_i)}{\Gamma(\alpha + k_i)\Gamma(\beta + n_i - k_i)} \cdot \int_0^1 \rho^{(k_i + \alpha + 1) - 1} \cdot (1 - \rho)^{(n_i - k_i + \beta) - 1} d\rho \\ &= \frac{\Gamma(\alpha + \beta + n_i)}{\Gamma(\alpha + k_i)\Gamma(\beta + n_i - k_i)} \cdot \frac{\Gamma(\alpha + k_i + 1) \cdot \Gamma(n_i - k_i + \beta)}{\Gamma(\alpha + \beta + n_i + 1)} \\ &= \frac{\alpha + k_i}{\alpha + \beta + n_i}. \end{aligned} \quad (9)$$

3. Empirical study

3.1. Data

This study uses data from Workload statistics published by the Antitrust Division of the Department of Justice (DOJ) for the period between 1970 and 2009 [21]. It contains the annual statistics of penalized cases and detected cases by criminal enforcement and civil enforcement of district courts, with respect to the laws of Sherman §1-Restraint of Trade, Sherman §2-Monopoly, and Clayton §7-Mergers. The antitrust division prosecutes in the form of criminal enforcement cases if the cartels, known as "hard-core cartels," are determined by preliminary examination to have an especially injurious impact on the market; otherwise, it prosecutes in the form of civil

enforcement cases. This study does not consider the appellate cases and the cases of contemporary criminal-civil enforcement at the same time, due to a little case.

3.2. Time series analysis

Prior to the model application, a time series analysis was implemented for the purposes of testing stability, or in other words, to eliminate spurious relations wrongly inferred to be related. The study, alternatively, employed the augmented Dickey-Fuller (ADF) unit root test to confirm the stability of time series data (details are provided in Appendix A).

If the result shows that time series data is unstable, the difference-stationary process is needed. The representative method for stabilizing time series data is order difference or log order difference. However, using order difference, it is possible that the meaning of original data will be lost, leading to different conclusions in the economy [22]. Economic variables such as price, currency and stock index cannot be used to verify the stability of time series data, because they are commonly non-stationary data [23].

3.3. Results

The empirical study, using the model defined in Section 2, drew an annual beta distribution for the probability of cartel penalization. The results are summarized in Table 1 and Fig. 2 illustrates the distribution every years.

Table1. The probability of cartel penalization through Bayesian sequential analysis

Years (t)	Detection cases (n)	Penalization cases (k)	Prior α	Prior β	Posterior α	Posterior β	The expected probability of cartel penalization (ρ)
1970 (1)	473	53	1	1	54	421	
1971 (2)	593	51	54	421	105	963	0.11368
1972 (3)	465	53	105	963	158	1375	0.09831
1973 (4)	538	61	158	1375	219	1852	0.10307
1974 (5)	338	57	219	1852	276	2133	0.10575
1975 (6)	381	29	276	2133	305	2485	0.11457
1976 (7)	374	64	305	2485	369	2795	0.10932
1977 (8)	484	46	369	2795	415	3233	0.11662
1978 (9)	290	68	415	3233	483	3455	0.11376
1979 (10)	407	62	483	3455	545	3800	0.12265
1980 (11)	377	89	545	3800	634	4088	0.12543
1981 (12)	255	93	634	4088	727	4250	0.13427
1982 (13)	262	109	727	4250	836	4403	0.14607
1983 (14)	245	99	836	4403	935	4549	0.15957
1984 (15)	257	80	935	4549	1015	4726	0.17050
1985 (16)	254	77	1015	4726	1092	4903	0.17680
1986 (17)	307	98	1092	4903	1190	5112	0.18215
1987 (18)	270	27	1190	5112	1217	5355	0.18883
1988 (19)	216	55	1217	5355	1272	5516	0.18518
1989 (20)	220	132	1272	5516	1404	5604	0.18739
1990 (21)	178	77	1404	5604	1481	5705	0.20034
1991 (22)	178	81	1481	5705	1562	5802	0.20610
1992 (23)	176	113	1562	5802	1675	5865	0.21211
1993 (24)	224	84	1675	5865	1759	6005	0.22215
1994 (25)	269	58	1759	6005	1817	6216	0.22656
1995 (26)	249	86	1817	6216	1903	6379	0.22619
1996 (27)	436	59	1903	6379	1962	6756	0.22978
1997 (28)	454	64	1962	6756	2026	7146	0.22505
1998 (29)	408	89	2026	7146	2115	7465	0.22089
1999 (30)	373	69	2115	7465	2184	7769	0.22077
2000 (31)	261	64	2184	7769	2248	7966	0.21943
2001 (32)	225	61	2248	7966	2309	8130	0.22009
2002 (33)	192	50	2309	8130	2359	8272	0.22119
2003 (34)	218	43	2359	8272	2402	8447	0.22190
2004 (35)	171	46	2402	8447	2448	8572	0.22140
2005 (36)	217	42	2448	8572	2490	8747	0.22214
2006 (37)	204	48	2490	8747	2538	8903	0.22159
2007 (38)	186	40	2538	8903	2578	9049	0.22183
2008 (39)	172	58	2578	9049	2636	9163	0.22173
2009 (40)	164	83	2636	9163	2719	9244	0.22341
2010 (41)							0.22728

Source: Workload Statistics, Department of Justice in the US

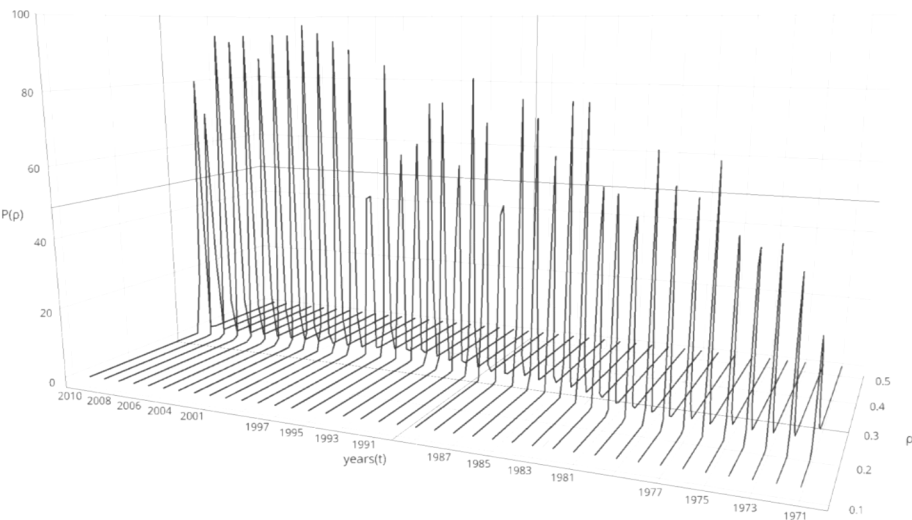


Figure 2. Annual beta distributions about the probability of cartel penalization

Fig. 2 shows that the probability distribution is increasing trend in the right-hand direction with time. Bayesian inference theory specifies that a beta distribution, with updating, will tend to converge on one point [17]. Indeed, the result shows convergence of the present distribution on the one point at around 0.22. Next, we were able to calculate the posterior mean by Equation (9). In the Fig. 3, accordingly, illustrates the annual expected probability of cartel penalization.

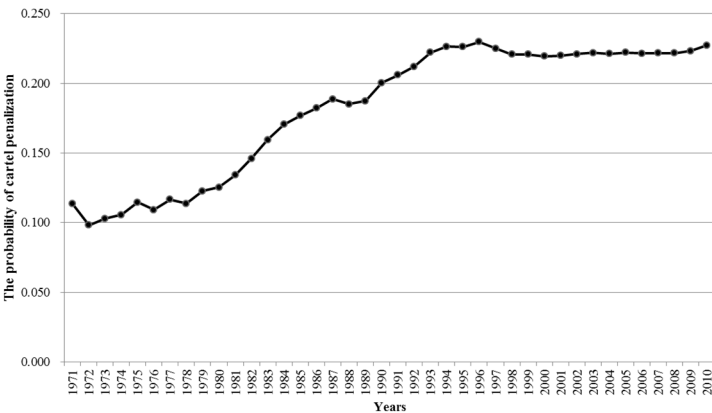


Figure 3. The annual probability of cartel penalization

In the late 19th century, the United States was confronted with a very significant change: large-scale manufacturing interests emerged, in great numbers, and enjoyed excessive economic power. In response, the Interstate Commerce Act in 1887 began a shift towards federal rather than state regulation of big business. This was followed by the Sherman Antitrust Act in 1890, which is the basis of US competition laws. Later, the Clayton Antitrust Act in 1914, enacted to prohibit price discrimination, corporate mergers and interlocking directorates.

We can now show how the change of probability of cartel penalization is impacted on the antitrust laws in the analysis periods. The Antitrust Penalty and Procedure Act in 1974, known as the Tunney Act, required that prospective mergers and acquisitions obtain approval from the DOJ. In 1976, the Hart-Scott-Rodino Antitrust Improvements Act was passed, and in 1978, the Leniency program was instituted. At this notable time, the probability of cartel penalization was increasing. At the peak of cartel penalization probability, in 1994, DOJ reformed the Leniency program. The reformed version of the program included an additional amnesty for those who cooperate with

investigations. Fig. 3 indicates that since 1994, the probability has been steady and stable. Clearly, the reform of competition laws, as well as the enacting of additional such laws, had an impact on the market. Commonly in fact, the market adjusts to changes of antitrust policy.

3.4. Model Comparison

Chang and Harrington [24] constructed a Markov process model to consider the stochastic formation and demise of cartels. By numerical analysis, they estimated the impact of the leniency program on the steady-state rate. Fig. 4, in the form of the analysis results, plots the change the rate of penalized cartels according to the proportion of prosecuted cases.

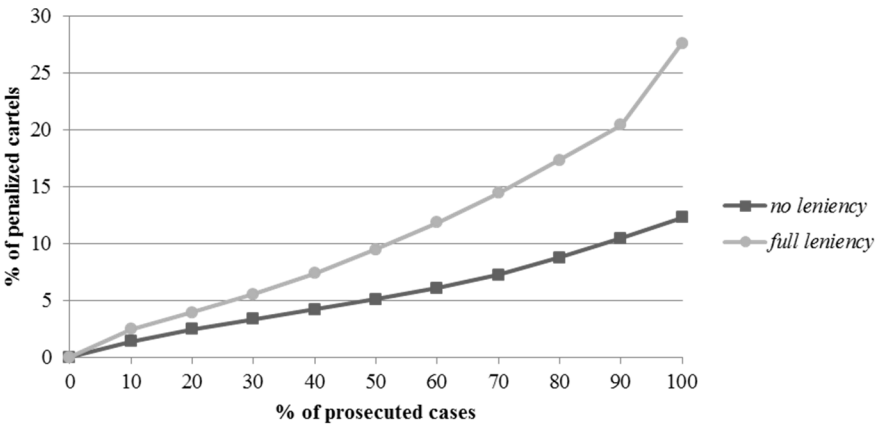


Figure 4. Effects of the proportions of penalized cartels according to the probability of prosecuted cases

The proportion of probable prosecution cases, as reflects the 1970-2009 Workload statistics, was about 20~40(%). In this value, the rate of penalized cartels is estimated about 5~10(%)

The present study’s estimated probability of cartel penalization and Bryant and Eckard [1]’s results are similar in their proportion of penalization to detection. However, the present approach is the ensemble-average probability using discrete data, whereas that of Bryant and Eckard [1] is the time-average probability using continuous data. Cartel analysis is more commensurate with discrete data than with continuous data, because the form of Workload statistic data, as announced annually by the DOJ, is discrete. With our similar definition of probability, we could draw a Box plot in the overlapped analysis period 1962-1988.

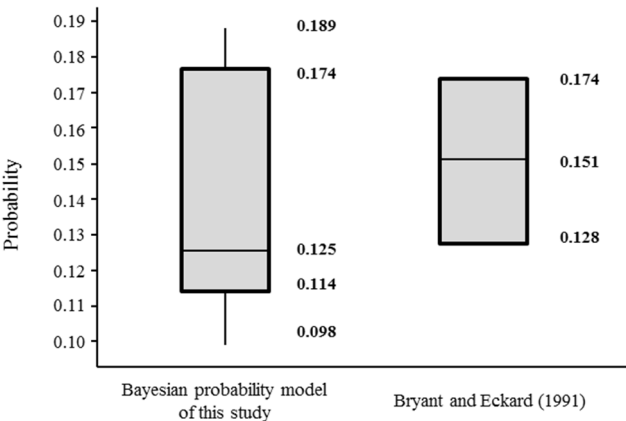


Figure 5. Box plots of Bayesian probabilistic model and Bryant and Eckard (1991) model

Fig. 5 shows that Bayesian probabilistic model estimates 0.114 for the top 25th percentile and 0.1737 for the top 75th percentile, which are statistically significant. These are close to Bryant and Eckard [1]'s estimates, which fell between 0.128 and 0.174.

3.5. The impact of leniency program

This study utilized a policy simulation to analyze the impact of competition policies [25, 26]. In policy evaluation research, the impact of policy implementation is indicated as a value-added. In other words, the impact is described as the difference of outcomes between implementing the policy and otherwise. Leniency program has been deemed an effective antitrust policy for detecting and deterring cartels in many countries. In general, leniency program provides partial or total exemption for penalty to a cartel member who voluntarily reports information or agreements that proves helpful to the antitrust authorities. Under the leniency program, a firm or individual in cartel is bound to first confess involvement for avoiding conviction or fines. The optimal policy is found by evaluating the impact of the leniency program. It is given by

$$\frac{BX_{1992} - AX_{1992}}{AX_{1992}} \times 100. \quad (10)$$

The impact of the leniency program (%) is the difference between the penalization probability under both it and a non-leniency. Leniency program was originally launched in 1978 in US and reformed in 1993. In Equation (10), BX_{1992} is the 1992 penalization probability estimated on the basis of the leniency program's implementation in 1978, and AX_{1992} is the penalization probability in 1992 estimated on the basis of the leniency program's non-implementation. The estimated probability BX_{1992} was calculated as 0.21211 by the Bayesian probabilistic model, and AX_{1992} was calculated as 0.1328 by the ordinary least squares estimation method of regression. The impact of the leniency program by the policy simulation, finally, is 65.39(%). This can be seen, in Fig. 6.

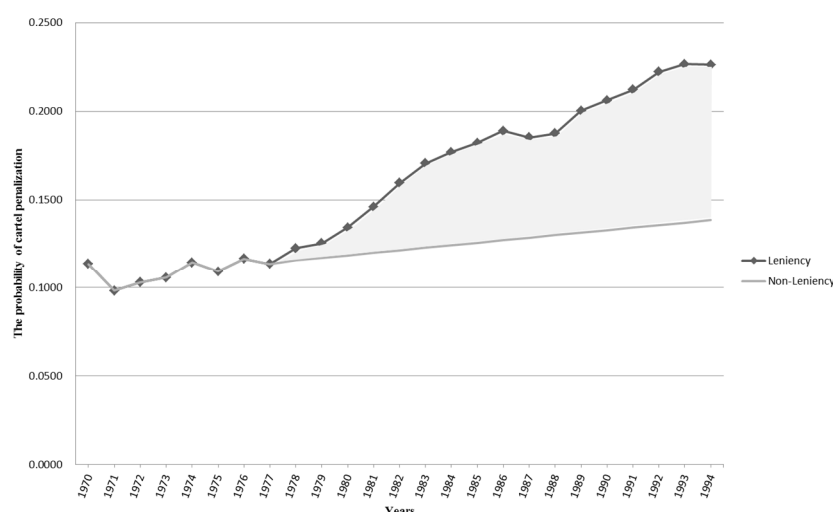


Figure 6. The increment of the probability of cartel penalization in US

There are much research analyzing the effectiveness and efficiency of the leniency program (i.e. [7, 24, 27]). The result of this study is similar with those of the research of Chang and Harrington [24] and Miller [7] which is based on US; all indications were that the leniency program is a very effective policy. Chang and Harrington [24] argue the occurrence of cartel was decreased by about 70%, and the deterrence capability of antitrust authority was increased by about 60% after introducing the leniency program. Miller [7], through Poisson regression analysis, estimated the impact of the leniency program every half year using US data for the years 1985 to 2005. In the

results, the detection capability was increased by about 60%, and the deterrence capability was improved by about 40%.

4. Conclusions

This study attempted to estimate the probability of cartel penalization using a Bayesian probabilistic model. Bryant and Eckard [1], Combe et al. [2], Harrington and Chang [3] and Zhou [4] estimated the detection probability in the form of the time-average probability from continuous data. On the other hand, the penalization probability of this study was estimated in the form of the ensemble-average probability from the number of cases. Bryant and Eckard [1], Combe et al. [2], Harrington and Chang [3] and Zhou [4] and Miller [7] all assumed that the duration of cartels and the inter-arrival times between cartels follow exponential distributions and that the stochastic process for cartel cases is stationary. However, we built a Bayesian probabilistic model with little data, as it did not need to consider a stationary process. In modeling, this study made two assumptions: a market-based analysis, and the grim trigger strategy. On the basis of the 1970-2009 Workload statistics from the US Department of Justice, the determined probability of cartel penalization reflected a sensitive response according to the change of competition laws. The result of the policy simulation of the impact of the leniency program was about 65(%). This is identical to the results of Chang and Harrington [24] and Miller [7], and similar to that of Bryant and Eckard [1]; indeed, the common finding among all studies, including the current study, was that the leniency program is a very effective policy.

This study employed a Bayesian probabilistic model to evaluate the impact of antitrust policy and, therefrom, to estimate the probability of cartel penalization. It provides, from the competition authority standpoint, an improved optimal policy, and from the corporate standpoint, more effective decision making. Certainly, the present paper has several limitations. First, further studies on realistic situations in specific countries and industries are needed. Also, additionally to the leniency programs, new policies recently have been instituted, among which are Amnesty plus, Punitive damage, Class action, and Consent order. These also demand further study.

Authors should discuss the results and how they can be interpreted in perspective of previous studies and of the working hypotheses. The findings and their implications should be discussed in the broadest context possible. Future research directions may also be highlighted.

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Appendix A

An ADF unit root test of maximum time lag 10 based on the Schwarz information criterion is performed using E-Views software. The regression of the time series for the test is

$$y_t = \delta y_{t-1} + u_t, \quad (11)$$

where u_t is the white noise error term, following the normal distribution of mean 0 and variance σ^2 .

The case of $\delta = 1$ in Equation (11) indicates that the model has a unit root with a random walk. Time lags usually account for one-third of the total time series [22]. Accordingly, in the ADF unit root test, the time series is 30, and so the maximum time lag is 10. In any ADF unit root test, the procedure is important [28, 29]. Such procedures are the model including the constant and time trend ($y_t = \beta_0 + \beta_1 t + \delta y_{t-1} + u_t$), the model including the constant ($y_t = \beta_1 t + \delta y_{t-1} + u_t$), and the model including nothing ($y_t = \delta y_{t-1} + u_t$).

There are information criteria for ADF unit root tests: the AIC (Akaike information criterion), and the above-noted SIC (Schwarz information criterion). SIC, which supplements the AIC with the

Bayesian view, is mainly used in empirical analysis, and is also known as the Bayesian information criterion [30].

$$AIC = e^{2k/n} \frac{RSS}{n}, \quad SIC = n^{k/n} \frac{RSS}{n},$$

where k is the number of regressors, n is the number of observations and RSS (residual sum of squares) is the sum of square error between the data. The null hypothesis for the ADF unit root test is ‘including a unit root ($\delta = 1$).’ Initially, the present study used the ADF unit root test with the model including the constant and time trend based on the detection cases data. The results are provided in Table 2.

Table 2. ADF unit root test with the model including constant and time trend based on the detection cases data

			t-Statistic	Prob.*
Augmented Dickey-Fuller test statistic			-2.981691	0.1501
Test critical values:	1% level		-4.211868	
	5% level		-3.529758	
	10% level		-3.196411	
Variable	Coefficient	Std. Error	t-Statistic	Prob.
Detection cases (-1)	-0.391532	0.131312	-2.981691	0.0051
Constant	156.6549	60.87809	2.573255	0.0143
@TREND (1970)	-2.307219	1.308371	-1.763428	0.0863

Table 2 shows that the P-value of the ADF test statistic, 0.1501, is greater than the significance level (0.05). This means that the null hypothesis cannot be rejected (the detection cases data has a unit root). Testing of the constant and time trend can show variable *Constant* and *@TREND* in the below of Table 3. The P-value of the constant is about 0.0143, smaller than the significance level (0.05). That is, the null hypothesis ‘no constant ($\beta_0 = 0$)’ can be rejected. The P-value of the trend is 0.0863, again greater than the significance level (0.05). That is, the null hypothesis ‘no time trend ($\beta_1 = 0$)’ also cannot be rejected. The time series data on the detection cases includes the unit root as well as the. Because of the lack of any time trend, we progress to the next step, which is the ADF unit root test with the model including only the constant. The results of this test are summarized in Table 2.

Table 3. ADF unit root test with the model including constant based on the detection cases data

			t-Statistic	Prob.*
Augmented Dickey-Fuller test statistic			-2.343469	0.1641
Test critical values:	1% level		-3.610453	
	5% level		-2.938987	
	10% level		-2.607932	
Variable	Coefficient	Std. Error	t-Statistic	Prob.
Detection cases (-1)	-0.245224	0.104641	-2.343469	0.0246
Constant	66.25393	33.75776	1.962628	0.0572

Table 3 shows that the P-value of the ADF test statistic is 0.1641, greater than the significance level (0.05). This result means that the data has a unit root. The P-value for constant is 0.0572, again greater than significance level (0.05). That is, the null hypothesis ($\beta_0 = 0$) cannot be rejected. The time series data on the detection cases includes the unit root. Because of no constant, we progress to the final step, which is the ADF unit root test with the model including nothing. The results of the ADF root test are summarized in Table 4.

Table 4. ADF unit root test with the model including nothing based on the detection cases data

			t-Statistic	Prob.*
Augmented Dickey-Fuller test statistic			-1.396253	0.1487
Test critical values:	1% level		-2.625606	
	5% level		-1.949609	
	10% level		-1.611593	
Variable	Coefficient	Std. Error	t-Statistic	Prob.
Detection cases (-1)	-0.052658	0.037714	-1.396253	0.1707
R-squared	0.038594	Mean dependent var		-7.923077
Adjusted R-squared	0.038594	S.D. dependent var		77.49139
S.E. of regression	75.98132	Akaike info criterion		11.52416
Sum squared resid	219380.1	Schwarz criterion		11.56681
Log likelihood	-223.7211	Hannan-Quinn criter.		11.53946
Durbin-Watson stat	2.689882			

Table 4 shows that the Durbin-Watson statistic is 2.689882 where $k = 1$ and $n = 30$. The significance level (0.05) of these variables sets up as $d_L = 1.352$, $d_U = 1.489$. The null hypothesis ‘serially uncorrelated’ can be rejected, because DW statistics (d) is included between $4 - d_L$ and 4. The data on detection cases presents an eventually negative correlation. P-value of the ADF test statistic is 0.1487, greater than the significance level (0.05). This result means that the data has a unit root. In conclusion, the time series data on the detection cases includes the unit root and does not include constant and time trend. In the sequence analysis, we also use an ADF unit root test with the model including the constant and time trend based on the penalization cases data. The results are summarized in Table 5.

Table 5. ADF unit root test with the model including constant and time trend based on the penalization cases data

			t-Statistic	Prob.*
Augmented Dickey-Fuller test statistic			-2.189536	0.4808
Test critical values:	1% level		-4.234972	
	5% level		-3.540328	
	10% level		-3.202445	
Variable	Coefficient	Std. Error	t-Statistic	Prob.
Penalization cases (-1)	-0.472117	0.215624	-2.189536	0.0365
D (Penalization cases (-1))	-0.158801	0.238570	-0.665637	0.5107
D (Penalization cases (-2))	-0.242738	0.210821	-1.151395	0.2587
D (Penalization cases (-3))	0.243527	0.182994	1.330796	0.1933
Constant	38.11916	18.03466	2.113660	0.0430
@TREND (1970)	-0.233903	0.352704	-0.663171	0.5123

Table 5 shows that the P-value of the ADF test statistic, 0.4808, which is very much greater than the significance level (0.05). This means that the null hypothesis cannot be rejected (the penalization cases data has a unit root). The P-value of the constant is about 0.0043, smaller than the significance level (0.05). The P-value of the trend is 0.5123, greater than the significance level (0.05). The time series data on the penalization cases includes the unit root as well as the constant with the model including the constant and time trend. Because of the lack of any time trend, we progress to the next step, which is the ADF unit root test with the model including only the constant. The results of this test are summarized in Table 6.

Table 6. ADF unit root test with the model including constant based on the penalization cases data

			t-Statistic	Prob.*
Augmented Dickey-Fuller test statistic			-2.131969	0.2339
Test critical values:	1% level		-3.626784	
	5% level		-2.945842	
	10% level		-2.611531	
Variable	Coefficient	Std. Error	t-Statistic	Prob.
Penalization cases (-1)	-0.450100	0.211119	-2.131969	0.0410
D (Penalization cases (-1))	-0.154786	0.236329	-0.654959	0.5173
D (Penalization cases (-2))	-0.229258	0.207934	-1.102552	0.2787
D (Penalization cases (-3))	0.260693	0.179510	1.452247	0.1565
Constant	31.58062	14.96390	2.110454	0.0430
R-squared	0.474430	Mean dependent var		0.611111
Adjusted R-squared	0.406615	S.D. dependent var		27.22633
S.E. of regression	20.97285	Akaike info criterion		9.052581
Sum squared resid	13635.67	Schwarz criterion		9.272514
Log likelihood	-157.9465	Hannan-Quinn criter.		9.129343
F-statistic	6.995902	Durbin-Watson		2.098929
Prob (F-statistic)	0.000391			

Table 6 shows that the Durbin-Watson statistic is 2.098929 where $k = 1$ and $n = 30$. The significance level (0.05) of these variables sets up as $d_L = 1.352$, $d_U = 1.489$. The null hypothesis ‘serially uncorrelated’ cannot be rejected, because DW statistics (d) is included between d_U and $4 - d_U$. The data on penalization cases eventually resulted in no correlation. It shows that the P-value of the ADF test statistic is 0.2339 greater than the significance level (0.05). This result means that the data has a unit root. The P-value for constant is 0.043, greater than the significance level (0.05). That is, null hypothesis ($\beta_0 = 0$) can be rejected. Therefore, we finish the steps. The time series data about penalization cases includes unit root and constant.

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