

# Structural Analysis of Vertical Contracting

## Empirical Framework

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# Two-Stage Framework for Analysis

- Researchers often model vertical contracting using a two-stage framework.
- Stage 1: Supply
  - Firms negotiate contracts and take payoff-relevant actions (e.g., investment, pricing).
- Stage 2: Demand
  - Consumers purchase products/services provided by upstream and downstream firms.

# Contracts

- Contracts represent agreements between upstream and downstream firms.
- Denoted as:

$$C_{ij} \in \mathbb{C}$$

- Where:
  - $C_{ij}$ : Contract between upstream firm  $i$  and downstream firm  $j$ .
  - $\mathbb{C}$ : Set of feasible contracts.
- Null contract ( $C_0$ ) represents the disagreement (no contract) outcome.

# Payoff-Relevant Actions

- Actions not explicitly specified in contracts but affect payoffs.
- Denoted by:

$$a = \{a_0, a_1(\mathbb{C}, a_0)\}$$

- Where:
  - $a_0$ : Actions chosen simultaneously with contracts.
  - $a_1(\mathbb{C}, a_0)$ : Actions chosen after contracts and initial actions.
- Examples:
  - Downstream pricing, product availability.
  - Effort provision or investment.

# Payoff Representation

## Detailed Representation:

- Payoffs for each upstream firm  $i$  and downstream firm  $j$  are represented as:

$$\Pi_{U_i}(\mathbb{C}, \mathbf{a}_0), \quad \Pi_{D_j}(\mathbb{C}, \mathbf{a}_0)$$

- These payoffs implicitly depend on:
  - Subsequent actions taken by firms ( $\mathbf{a}_1(\cdot)$ ).
  - Consumer actions captured by demand functions.

## Demand Representation:

- Upstream demand:  $\bar{D}(\cdot)$ .
- Downstream demand:  $\underline{D}(\cdot)$ .

# Payoff Representation

## Demand Representation:

- Example (successive monopoly with per-unit pricing):

$$\mathbb{C} = \{w\}, \quad a_0 = \emptyset, \quad a_1 = \{p\}$$

$$\bar{D}(w) = \underline{D}(w) = D(p^m(w + c_R))$$

- $\{w\}$ : upstream price;
- $\{p\}$ : downstream price;
- $p^m$ : monopoly price coefficient;
- $c_R$ : retailer's marginal cost.
- In this case, upstream and downstream demand coincide because of a single retailer-manufacturer setup.

## General Case:

- When there are multiple upstream firms or consumers do not always purchase upstream products,  $\bar{D}(\cdot)$  and  $\underline{D}(\cdot)$  will typically differ.

## Example: Medical Devices (Grennan, 2013)

- Contracts  $\mathbb{C}$  between stent manufacturers ( $i$ ) and hospitals ( $j$ ) specify linear prices  $\mathbf{w} = \{w_{ij}\}$ .
- The null contract  $\mathbb{C}_0$  is represented by  $w_{ij} = \infty$ , meaning no trade occurs.

## Example: Medical Devices (Grennan, 2013)

- The payoff for stent manufacturer  $i$  is:

$$\Pi_{U_i}(\mathbb{C}) = \sum_{j: \mathbb{C}_{ij} \neq \mathbb{C}_0} (w_{ij} - c_i) \bar{D}_{ij}(\{w_{kj}\}_{k \in \mathcal{I}})$$

- $w_{ij}$  is the price in the contract between manufacturer  $i$  and hospital  $j$ .
- $c_i$  is the marginal cost of producing stent  $i$ .
- $\bar{D}_{ij}(\cdot)$  is the quantity of stent  $i$  used at hospital  $j$ , which depends on:
  - ▶ Preferences of doctors and patients at hospital  $j$ .
  - ▶ Contracts  $\{w_{kj}\}$  for all stents signed by hospital  $j$ .
- The payoff for hospital  $j$  is:

$$\Pi_{D_j}(\mathbb{C}) = W_j(\{w_{kj}\}_{k \in \mathcal{I}})$$

- $W_j(\cdot)$  is the welfare of hospital  $j$ , which depends on the prices  $\{w_{kj}\}$  for all stents it uses.



## Example: Health Insurers and Hospitals (Ho and Lee, 2017)

- Contracts between hospitals (upstream) and insurers (downstream) in the U.S. healthcare industry.
- Contracts  $\mathbb{C}$  specify payments per hospital admission:

$$\mathbf{w} = \{w_{ij}\}$$

- Insurers also set premiums for households:

$$\mathbf{p} = \{p_j\}$$

- Demand terms:
  - $\underline{D}_j(\mathbf{p}, \mathbf{N})$ : Households enrolled in insurer  $j$ .
  - $\bar{D}_{ij}(\mathbf{p}, \mathbf{N})$ : Admissions from insurer  $j$ 's enrollees to hospital  $i$ .
- $\mathbf{N} = \{ij : \mathbb{C}_{ij} \neq \mathbb{C}_0\}$  represents the network of contracts.

## Example: Health Insurers and Hospitals (Ho and Lee, 2017)

- Hospital  $i$ 's payoff:

$$\Pi_{U_i}(\mathbb{C}, \mathbf{p}) = \sum_{j: \mathbb{C}_{ij} \neq \mathbb{C}_0} (w_{ij} - c_i) \bar{D}_{ij}(\mathbf{p}, \mathbf{N})$$

- $w_{ij}$ : Payment per admission.
- $c_i$ : Per-admission cost.
- Insurer  $j$ 's payoff:

$$\Pi_{D_j}(\mathbb{C}, \mathbf{p}) = (p_j - \eta_j) \underline{D}_j(\mathbf{p}, \mathbf{N}) - \sum_{i: \mathbb{C}_{ij} \neq \mathbb{C}_0} w_{ij} \bar{D}_{ij}(\mathbf{p}, \mathbf{N})$$

- $p_j$ : Insurer premium.
- $\eta_j$ : Non-hospital costs (e.g., physician or drug payments).
- Differences from the previous example:
  - Payoffs depend on premiums, an additional supply-side decision.
  - Insurers compete for households, so all firms' actions affect payoffs.

## Example: Multichannel Television and Vertical Integration

- Crawford and Yurukoglu (2012) and Crawford et al. (2018) study negotiations between:
  - Upstream television channels ( $i$ ).
  - Downstream multichannel video programming distributors (MVPDs,  $j$ ), such as cable and satellite firms.
- Contracts  $\mathbb{C}$  specify linear affiliate fees:

$$\mathbf{w} = \{w_{ij}\}$$

- $w_{ij}$ : Amount distributor  $j$  pays channel  $i$  per subscriber.
- Distributors choose subscription prices:

$$\mathbf{p} = \{p_j\}$$

# Timing and Demand in Multichannel Television

- Demand objects:
  - $\underline{D}_j(\mathbf{p}, \mathbf{N})$ : Number of households subscribing to distributor  $j$ .
  - $\mathbf{N} = \{ij : \mathbb{C}_{ij} \neq \mathbb{C}_0\}$ : Network of channel-distributor agreements.

# Payoffs in Multichannel Television

- Channel  $i$ 's payoff:

$$\Pi_{U_i}(\mathbb{C}, \mathbf{p}) = \sum_{j: \mathbb{C}_{ij} \neq \mathbb{C}_0} (w_{ij} \underline{D}_j(\mathbf{p}, \mathbf{N}) + ad_{ij}(\mathbf{p}, \mathbf{N}))$$

- $ad_{ij}(\cdot)$ : Advertising revenue from distributor  $j$ 's subscribers.
- $w_{ij}$ : channel fee received from distributor  $j$ .
- Distributor  $j$ 's payoff:

$$\Pi_{D_j}(\mathbb{C}, \mathbf{p}) = \left( p_j - \sum_{i: \mathbb{C}_{ij} \neq \mathbb{C}_0} w_{ij} \right) \underline{D}_j(\mathbf{p}, \mathbf{N})$$

- $p_j$ : Subscription price set by distributor  $j$ .
- $\underline{D}_j(\cdot)$ : Number of households subscribing to distributor  $j$ .

# Discussion

- Key difference from Example 11:
  - Here, upstream fees  $w_{ij}$  are paid for all subscribers ( $\underline{D}_j$ ).
  - In Example 11, upstream fees were paid only for specific hospital admissions ( $\bar{D}_{ij}$ ).

# Sequential vs Simultaneous Timing

- Timing assumptions play a critical role in contracting models:
  - Simultaneous: Actions like pricing and contracting are decided together.
  - Sequential: Contracting concludes before other actions are taken (e.g., pricing).
- Example: Multichannel TV contracts often assume sequential timing for pricing decisions.

# Modeling Contract Formation

- **Different Approaches to Modeling Contract Formation:**
  1. **Take-It-Or-Leave-It (TIOLI) Offers**
  2. **Nash-in-Nash Bargaining**



# Take-It-Or-Leave-It (TIOLI) Offers

- In this framework, one side of the negotiation (e.g., the upstream firm, such as the manufacturer) **unilaterally proposes a contract offer** to the other side (e.g., the downstream firm, such as the retailer).
- The receiving party can either:
  - **Accept the offer**, in which case the contract terms are implemented as proposed.
  - **Reject the offer**, in which case no agreement is reached, and both sides receive their disagreement payoffs (e.g., profits they would earn without a deal).
- This approach assumes one party has the **power to dictate the terms of the contract**.
- Example: Villas-Boas (2007) uses a TIOLI framework to analyze manufacturer-retailer contracts, examining how manufacturers' offers affect the retailer's decision-making.
- Strengths:
  - Simple and easy to implement in theoretical and empirical models.
  - Useful when one party dominates the bargaining process.

# Nash-in-Nash Bargaining

- In this framework, firms **bargain simultaneously** over contract terms.
- Each firm uses its **outside options and leverage** to negotiate favorable terms.
- Assumes mutual flexibility and the ability to reach efficient agreements.
- Useful for modeling industries where both upstream and downstream firms have significant bargaining power.
- Strengths:
  - Captures mutual influence in negotiation dynamics.
  - More flexible and realistic in industries with balanced power dynamics.
- Weaknesses:
  - Computational complexity in empirical applications.
  - Requires detailed data to estimate bargaining power and outside options.

# Nash-in-Nash Bargaining Model

- Nash-in-Nash bargaining captures simultaneous negotiations between pairs of firms.
- Necessary condition:

$$\hat{\mathbb{C}}_{ij} \in \arg \max_{\mathbb{C}_{ij} \in \mathcal{C}_{ij}^+(\hat{\mathbb{C}}_{-ij})} \left[ \underbrace{\left( \Pi_{Dj}(\{\mathbb{C}_{ij}, \hat{\mathbb{C}}_{-ij}\}) - \Pi_{Dj}(\{\mathbb{C}_0, \hat{\mathbb{C}}_{-ij}\}) \right)^{b_{ij}}}_{\Delta_{ij} \Pi_{Dj}(\{\mathbb{C}_{ij}, \hat{\mathbb{C}}_{-ij}\})} \cdot \underbrace{\left( \Pi_{Ui}(\{\mathbb{C}_{ij}, \hat{\mathbb{C}}_{-ij}\}) - \Pi_{Ui}(\{\mathbb{C}_0, \hat{\mathbb{C}}_{-ij}\}) \right)^{1-b_{ij}}}_{\Delta_{ij} \Pi_{Ui}(\{\mathbb{C}_{ij}, \hat{\mathbb{C}}_{-ij}\})} \right]$$

- Key terms:
  - $\Delta D_j(C)$ : Gains from trade for downstream firm  $j$ .
  - $\Delta U_i(C)$ : Gains from trade for upstream firm  $i$ .
  - $b_{ij}$ : Bargaining parameter for downstream firm  $j$ .
- Assumes contracts of other pairs are held fixed during negotiations.

## Health Insurer-Hospital Negotiations (Ho and Lee, 2017)

- Health insurers negotiate contracts  $\mathbb{C}$  with hospitals, specifying per-admission payments  $w$ , while simultaneously negotiating premiums  $\mathbf{p}$  with employers.
- Payoffs are based on Example 11 ( $\Pi_{U_i}$  for hospitals and  $\Pi_{D_j}$  for insurers).

## Example: Health Insurers and Hospitals (Ho and Lee, 2017)

- Hospital  $i$ 's payoff:

$$\Pi_{U_i}(\mathbb{C}, \mathbf{p}) = \sum_{j: \mathbb{C}_{ij} \neq \mathbb{C}_0} (w_{ij} - c_i) \bar{D}_{ij}(\mathbf{p}, \mathbf{N})$$

- $w_{ij}$ : Payment per admission.
- $c_i$ : Per-admission cost.
- Insurer  $j$ 's payoff:

$$\Pi_{D_j}(\mathbb{C}, \mathbf{p}) = (p_j - \eta_j) \underline{D}_j(\mathbf{p}, \mathbf{N}) - \sum_{i: \mathbb{C}_{ij} \neq \mathbb{C}_0} w_{ij} \bar{D}_{ij}(\mathbf{p}, \mathbf{N})$$

- $p_j$ : Insurer premium.
- $\eta_j$ : Non-hospital costs (e.g., physician or drug payments).
- Two demands are different:  $\underline{D}_j(\mathbf{p}, \mathbf{N})$  and  $\bar{D}_{ij}(\mathbf{p}, \mathbf{N})$ .

# Health Insurer-Hospital Negotiations (Ho and Lee, 2017)

- Nash-in-Nash bargaining conditions govern hospital payments  $w_{ij}$ :

$$\hat{\mathbb{C}}_{ij} \in \arg \max_{\mathbb{C}_{ij} \in \mathcal{C}_{ij}^+(\hat{\mathbb{C}}_{-ij})} \left[ \Delta_{ij} \Pi_{D_j}(\{\mathbb{C}_{ij}, \hat{\mathbb{C}}_{-ij}\})^{b_{ij}} \cdot \Delta_{ij} \Pi_{U_i}(\{\mathbb{C}_{ij}, \hat{\mathbb{C}}_{-ij}\})^{1-b_{ij}} \right]$$

- Terms in the equation:
  - $\bar{D}_{ij}(\cdot)$ : Number of insurer  $j$ 's enrollees admitted to hospital  $i$ .
  - $b_{ij}$ : Bargaining weight of hospital  $i$  in negotiations with insurer  $j$ .
  - $\Delta_{ij} \Pi_{D_j}$ : Insurer  $j$ 's gain from trade if the payment to hospital  $i$  is set to zero.
  - $\Delta_{ij} \Pi_{U_i}$ : Hospital  $i$ 's gain from trade under the same condition.

# Modeling Contract Formation

## Choosing a Model:

- The choice between TIOLI and Nash-in-Nash depends on:
  - The **industry structure**: Is one party dominant, or do both have leverage?
  - The **availability of data**: Nash-in-Nash requires more detailed data to estimate bargaining power and disagreement payoffs.
  - The **research objective**: TIOLI is simpler and easier for theoretical models, while Nash-in-Nash is better for realistic and flexible modeling.

# What is Double Marginalization?

- Occurs in supply chains where a **manufacturer** and **retailer** independently maximize profits.
- Each adds a markup:
  - Manufacturer marks up the wholesale price ( $w$ ).
  - Retailer marks up the retail price ( $p$ ).
- Results in:
  - Higher retail price ( $p$ ) than optimal.
  - Reduced consumer demand.
  - Lower joint profits for the supply chain.



# Setup of the Problem

- A **manufacturer** and **retailer** negotiate the wholesale price ( $w$ ) using **Nash bargaining**.
- The retailer simultaneously sets the retail price ( $p$ ).
- Key assumptions:
  - Nash bargaining and retail pricing are **independent but simultaneous**.
  - The outcome depends on:
    - ▶ Bargaining power ( $b$ ) of the retailer.
    - ▶ Marginal costs of the manufacturer ( $c_M$ ) and retailer ( $c_R$ ).
    - ▶ Consumer demand ( $D(p)$ ).

# Wholesale Price via Nash Bargaining

## Nash bargaining condition:

$$\hat{w} = (1 - b)(\hat{p} - c_R) + bc_M$$

- $b$ : Retailer's bargaining power ( $0 \leq b \leq 1$ ).
- $\hat{p}$ : Retail price (set by the retailer).
- $c_R$ : Retailer's cost of selling the product.
- $c_M$ : Manufacturer's marginal cost of production.

## Key insights:

- If  $b = 1$ :  $\hat{w} = c_M$  (retailer pays only the marginal cost).
- If  $b < 1$ :  $\hat{w} > c_M$ , leading to inefficiency (double marginalization).

# Retail Price Setting

## Key insight:

- Vertical externality: when  $\hat{w} > c_R$ , the retailer's ignores the impact of its pricing on the manufacturer's profits.
- If R makes TIOLI offer,  $\hat{w} = c_M$  and  $\hat{p} = c_M + c_R$ .

# Supply Estimation and Identification

- Estimation involves recovering key parameters:
  - Marginal costs ( $c^U, c^D$ ).
  - Bargaining parameters ( $b_{ij}$ ).
  - Gains from trade ( $\Delta D_j, \Delta U_i$ ).
- Ideal data scenario:
  - Observed wholesale prices ( $w$ ).
  - Observed demand system ( $D(p)$ ).
  - Marginal cost  $c_R$  and  $c_M$ .
- Missing data (e.g., marginal costs) requires additional assumptions or instruments.

# Demand Estimation

- A key input for vertical contracting models is estimating consumer demand.
- Demand estimation helps predict:
  - Upstream and downstream quantities ( $D(p, x, w)$ ).
  - Consumer responses to prices and product characteristics ( $x$ ).
- Techniques:
  - Use exogenous variation in prices and characteristics to identify demand.
  - Estimate demand functions for both upstream and downstream firms.

## Example: Estimating Demand in Healthcare

- Ho and Lee (2017): Model demand for health insurance plans and hospital services.
- Consumer utility for insurer  $j$ :

$$u_{cjm} = \beta v_{cjm} + x_{jm}\beta_x + \xi_{jm} + \epsilon_{cjm}$$

- $v_{cjm}$ : Willingness to pay (WTP) for insurer  $j$ 's hospital network.
  - $x_{jm}$ : Observed characteristics (e.g., premiums).
  - $\xi_{jm}$ : Unobserved demand shocks.
  - $\epsilon_{cjm}$ : Idiosyncratic preferences.
- Model jointly estimates insurer and hospital demand.

# Usage Models for Bundles

- When consumers purchase bundles, usage data can inform valuation.
- Example: Multichannel TV (Crawford et al., 2018)
  - Consumer utility for distributor  $j$ :

$$u_{cjm} = \beta v_{cjm}(C_j) + x_{jm}\beta_x + \xi_{jm} + \epsilon_{cjm}$$

- $v_{cjm}(C_j)$ : Viewership utility for channels in bundle  $C_j$ .
  - Viewership data helps estimate valuations for individual channels.
- Usage models reduce data requirements by linking upstream and downstream choices.

## Upstream Choice-Only Models

- In some cases, only upstream demand is modeled.
- Example: Grennan (2013) - Medical devices
  - Focuses on hospitals' choice of medical devices.
  - Does not model patient flows across hospitals.
- Simplifies computation but ignores some competitive effects.



# Consumer Selection in Demand Estimation

- Selection bias arises when observed consumption depends on unobserved preferences.
- Example: Multichannel TV (Crawford and Yurukoglu, 2012)
  - Consumers who purchase bundles may have higher valuations for included channels.
  - Ignoring selection leads to overestimating valuations.
- Solution:
  - Jointly estimate upstream and downstream demand.

# Joint Estimation of Demand and Supply

- Demand and supply parameters can be jointly estimated for efficiency.
- Example: Crawford et al. (2018)
  - Wholesale prices ( $w_{ij}$ ) used to infer demand valuations.
  - Assumes content with higher fees has higher consumer value.
- Benefits:
  - Increases precision of demand estimates.
  - Captures interactions between demand and supply.

# Conclusion

- Vertical contracting models capture interactions between upstream and downstream firms.
- Estimation requires careful modeling of demand and supply.
- Techniques like Nash bargaining and demand estimation help recover key parameters.
- Joint estimation of demand and supply can improve precision and capture interactions.

**Thank you!**