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STRATEGIC TRADE AND INDUSTRIAL POLICY
TOWARDS DYNAMIC OLIGOPOLIES

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and
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The theory of strategic trade policy has grown from precocious urchin to mature teenager and is now part of the central canon of international trade theory. Much of its initial appeal came from the fact that it appeared to provide a stronger justification for interventionist measures such as tariffs and export subsidies than does traditional competitive theory. However, as is now well known, the specific policy recommendations of the theory are highly sensitive to changes in assumptions about firm behaviour, entry, and so on. For this reason, possibly a more important contribution of the theory is that it highlights a key aspect of public policy in oligopolistic markets: that governments and firms are likely to differ in their ability to commit to future actions. Thus the desirability of intervention, whether an export subsidy as in Brander and Spencer (1985) or an export tax as in Eaton and Grossman (1986), derives from the government's assumed ability to commit to policies which will remain in force while firms take their decisions on outputs or prices. The optimal policy moves the home firm to the point which it would attain unaided if it had a Stackelberg first-mover advantage.

Yet the superior ability of governments to commit is questionable on two counts. First, firms too may have the ability to commit to variables such as capacity, advertising or R&D, which will affect the strategic environment in which policies are set and outputs and prices are chosen in the future. Second, a government's assessment of its own powers of commitment may not be shared by the private sector. With or without a past history of reneging on its commitments, its policy announcements may lack credibility with the firms whose behaviour it is trying to influence. Of course, it may also be the case that the government does not in fact possess the ability to commit to policies some time in the future. These considerations prompt a search for policies which are time consistent.

The purpose of this paper is to consider the implications for strategic trade and industrial policy of allowing firms to make commitments in advance. We do not rule out government
commitment altogether: to do so would be unrealistic and would remove any basis for strategic policy. However, we allow for the possibility that governments may be unable to commit far into the future; and also for the possibility that firms may be able to take some decisions (such as investment, R&D, etc.) which have effects over a longer time horizon than that over which the government can commit.

As we shall see, models of dynamic oligopolies with imperfect government commitment introduce two new motives for government intervention in addition to the standard profit-shifting motive familiar from static models. First, in the manner first studied by Spence (1977) and Dixit (1980), firms have an incentive to engage in behaviour which will improve their strategic position vis-à-vis their rivals in the future. This type of strategic behaviour is socially wasteful (even when the rival firm is foreign) and government policy should be addressed towards offsetting it. Second, if the government cannot commit to future policies, firms have an additional incentive to try and influence their future entitlement to assistance, for example, by over-investing in order to qualify for a higher subsidy. The need to restrain the home firm from this strategic behaviour provides the government with an additional motive for intervention in the earlier period.

Aspects of imperfect commitment and dynamic behaviour in models of strategic policy have been explored in a number of recent papers. Brander and Spencer (1987) consider a model where an incumbent home firm chooses its level of R&D before the government chooses its output subsidy. Carmichael (1987), followed by Grunspan (1988) and Neary (1991), explores the implications of allowing firms to set prices before the government chooses its subsidy. Maskin and Newbery (1990) consider the optimal time-consistent import tariff on a natural resource produced by a competitive industry. Goldberg (1995) and Maggi (1996) consider optimal policy in models where firms choose their capacities before the output or price stage. Finally, we have explored some of these issues in models with learning by doing (Leahy and Neary 1994, 1998) and R&D (Leahy and Neary 1996, 1997). However, this literature is fragmented and the general lessons are often obscured by the particularities of individual models. In this paper we present a general framework which nests most of these models and relates them to the taxonomy of business strategies developed by Fudenberg and Tirole (1984).1

In the remainder of the paper we address the questions raised here by first considering a general dynamic two-firm multi-period model in Section 1. The model adopts the standard "third-market" framework of Brander and Spencer (1985), abstracting from domestic consumption in order to focus on the strategic interaction between firms and government.2 Rules for optimal intervention are derived under different assumptions about the ability of firms and government to commit to future actions. These rules are then applied to a series of special models in Section 2. This allows us to consider the implications for policy of alternative assumptions about the dynamic links between markets. Section 3 returns to the general two-period model and shows how it may be extended to deal with second-best problems (where the government can intervene in only one period); with divergences between the marginal social valuation of corporate profits and subsidy revenue; and with cases where the home firm makes insufficient profits at the first-best optimum, so policies must be supplemented by entry-promotion considerations. The Appendices prove some key results and give details of the solution in an important special case.

1 Laussel and Montet (1994) use the Fudenberg and Tirole taxonomy in a different manner to interpret the results of strategic trade policy in one-period models.

2 One rationale for this is that all output is exported. Alternatively, we can assume that some output is domestically consumed, that home and foreign markets are integrated and that domestic consumer surplus does not enter the welfare function.
I. Optimal Intervention in a General Model of Dynamic Oligopoly

1.1 The Firms' Decision Problem

We consider a market with two firms, denoted "home" and "foreign", which compete over an indefinite (though finite) number $T$ of time periods. In each period $t$, each firm takes an action, choosing the value of some decision variable, $a_t$ for the home firm and $b_t$ for the foreign firm. This specification allows for many alternative types of oligopolistic interaction: in each period the decision variables might be output, price, R&D, etc. Each firm seeks to maximise the present value of its profits, so the decision problem of the home firm can be written as:

$$\max_a \pi(a,b,s) = R(a,b) + S(a,b,s),$$

where $a$ and $b$ are the vectors of the home and foreign firm's actions respectively. Here $\pi$ denotes the present value of the firm's profits, equal to the sum of the present values of its gross profits (i.e., sales revenue less total costs) $R$ and its subsidy income $S$. Each of these components is a twice differentiable function of its own and its rival's actions; in addition, $S$ depends on a vector of subsidy rates chosen by the home government, $s$. In most cases, the subsidy is directly related to the firm's decision variable, so $S = s q_t$ and $S_t = \partial S / \partial a_t = s_t$ where $S_t$ is subsidy income in period $t$. An exception is the case of an output subsidy in Bertrand competition: the firm's decision variable $a_t$ is now its price, but its subsidy income $S_t$ equals $s q_t$, where $q_t$ is the period-$t$ demand function which in general depends on all current and past actions (prices). In this case $S_t = s \partial q_t / \partial a_t$, so the derivative of $S$ with respect to $a_t$ has the opposite sign to $s$. As for the foreign firm, its decision problem is similar to (1) but with no subsidy terms; we assume that the foreign firm is not assisted by its government:

$$\max_b R^*(b,a).$$

The basic results of the paper are most easily derived using the multi-period specification in (1). However, in order to interpret them and to apply them to many examples it is desirable to focus on a two-period special case. Assuming that firms compete over only two periods, labelled "1" and "2", allows us to write the home firm's gross profits and subsidy income functions as follows (where $\rho$ denotes the discount factor):

$$R(a,b) = R^1(a_1,b_1) + \rho R^2(a_2,b_2,a_2,b_2),$$

$$S(a,b,s) = S^1(a_1,b_1,s_1) + \rho S^2(a_2,b_2,s_2).$$

This specification draws attention to the dynamics of the model. While first-period profits depend only on variables in that period, second-period profits are directly affected by the actions taken in the previous period. The influence of the firm's own action $a_t$ arises from dynamic linkages such as investment in capacity or learning by doing; the influence of the foreign firm's action $b_t$ reflects an externality such as R&D spillovers.

1.2 Firm Behaviour under Alternative Assumptions about Commitment

The second respect in which the model is dynamic is in its assumptions about commitment. As in our earlier work (Leahy and Neary, 1997, 1998), this has a number of

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3 A simpler approach, following Brander (1995), is to assume that the subsidy is always directly related to the firm's decision variable, so when this variable is its price, a subsidy to it is equivalent to an output tax. However, this equivalence between price and output subsidies does not extend to the case of Sequence Equilibrium discussed below.
aspects. We assume throughout that the government is able to commit intra-temporally in all periods, setting each subsidy \( s_i \) before the firms choose their actions in the same period \( a_i \) and \( b_i \). However, it may or may not be able to commit inter-temporally, setting the subsidy \( s_i \) before the firms choose their actions in earlier periods \( a_{i-1} \) and \( b_{i-1} \). This leaves a number of alternative assumptions about move order and we concentrate on three central cases (which are the only ones that can arise in the two-period model). Consider first cases where the government can commit in period 1 to all future subsidies. Subject to this, we refer to the case where firms can commit in period 1 to all their future actions as "Full Commitment Equilibrium" or "FCE"; and to the case where firms cannot commit to any future actions as "Government-Only Commitment Equilibrium" or "GCE". Finally, we refer to the case where no agents can commit in advance, and in particular where the government cannot commit in advance to any future subsidies, as "Sequence Equilibrium" or "SE". For each of our three sets of assumptions about commitment the solution concept is that of Nash subgame perfect equilibrium. The values of all variables will differ in general between the three equilibria, although it is convenient to derive the first-order conditions in a general form which applies in all three cases. Finally, we assume until Section 3.3 that a unique interior equilibrium exists in each case, so issues of exit and entry do not arise.

The implications of the different equilibrium concepts can be seen more concretely by considering the behaviour of the home firm, which chooses the value of \( a_i \) to set its marginal profitability to zero. In general the implies the following:

\[
\left( \frac{d\pi}{da} \right) = \pi_a' \frac{da}{da} + \pi_b' \frac{db}{da} + S_i' \frac{ds}{da} = 0. \tag{5}
\]

Here a prime denotes the transpose of a vector, so (5) represents \( T \) first-order conditions, one for each period; and subscripts to functions denote partial derivatives. (We are able to replace \( \pi \), by \( S_i \) in the final term, because \( R \) is independent of \( s \) from (1).) Each of the three terms in (5) arises in SE, but only the first two arise in GCE and only the first in FCE. The precise form which these terms take is the focus of the remainder of Section 1.

1.3 Welfare and the Optimal Subsidies

This completes our discussion of the home firm. Turning to the government we assume that all output is exported and (until Section 3.2) that the marginal social cost of funds is unity. Hence welfare equals the firm’s profits net of subsidy payments:

\[ W(a,b) = \pi(a,b,s) - S(a,b,s) = R(a,b). \tag{6} \]

This welfare function depends on both home and foreign decision variables (though not directly on the subsidies) and we wish to find the values of the subsidies which will maximise it. To solve this problem with two targets \( (a \text{ and } b) \) and one instrument \( (s) \), it is useful to think of the government’s choice of subsidies as giving it direct control over the home firm’s actions \( a \), while it controls the foreign firm’s actions indirectly. Of course, the ways in which this control is exercised, and so the details of how equation (6) is maximised, depend on the government’s powers of commitment. Nevertheless, it is insightful to begin with a general formulation which covers all cases.

Totally differentiating (6) gives a necessary condition for welfare maximisation:

\[ dW = R_a da + R_b db = 0. \tag{7} \]

To solve for the optimal subsidies we first replace the coefficient of \( da \) using the home firm’s first-order condition (5) (exploiting the fact that \( \pi_a = R_a + S_i \)). As for the second term, it can be eliminated by using the solution to the foreign firm’s first-order conditions. These take
the following form:  

$$\left( \frac{dR_s}{db} \right)' = (R_s' \gamma + (R_s' \frac{da}{db}) = 0 \right. \tag{8}$$

We can think of the government as solving these equations for generalised reaction functions, which express the foreign firm's actions as functions of all of the home firm's: \( b = B(a) \). In differential form, this implies:

$$db = B_a da. \tag{9}$$

We can now use these differentiated reaction functions to eliminate \( db \) from (7), and solve for the optimal subsidies:

$$S_a' = R_s' B_a - \pi_s' \frac{db}{da} - \pi_s' \frac{ds}{da}. \tag{10}$$

This equation is the central result of the paper. For some purposes it is helpful to write it in full for the two-period case. This gives:

$$S_a^1 = -\rho S_a^2 + (R_s' + \rho R_s^2) B_{11} + \rho R_s^2 B_{21} + \pi_s' \frac{db}{da} + \pi_s' \frac{ds}{da}, \tag{11}$$

$$S_a^2 = \rho^{-1} [(R_s' + \rho R_s^2) B_{12} + R_s^2 B_{22}]. \tag{12}$$

Recall that \( S_a \) is the partial derivative of the subsidy revenue function \( S \) with respect to \( a \); in most cases it is simply \( s_s \), except in the case of an output subsidy in Bertrand competition when it equals \( s_s \frac{\partial q_s}{\partial a_s} \), and so is inversely related to the subsidy. As for the cross-term \( S_s' \) in (11), it represents the direct or non-strategic effect of a change in \( a_s \) on future subsidy revenue. \(^5\) In most cases this term is zero; an exception is the case of an output subsidy in Bertrand competition when it equals \( s_s \frac{\partial q_s}{\partial a_s} \) and so reflects intertemporal effects such as switching costs in demand, discussed in Section 2.5 below. When the term is non-zero the two equations have to be solved recursively, with the optimal value for \( s_s \) first calculated from (12) and then substituted into (11) to calculate the optimal value of \( s_s \).

1.4 Optimal Policy with Full Commitment

Consider first the FCE case where both government and firms (in that order) commit in period 1 to their actions in all periods. As already noted, the final two terms in (10) (and hence in (11)) do not arise in FCE. Hence, irrespective of the number of periods, the expression for the optimal subsidies takes a particularly simple form:

$$S_a' = R_s' B_a. \tag{13}$$

Both the form of this equation and the rationale for intervention which it provides are identical to those in one-period models. Algebraically, (13) states that the optimal subsidy (or, in Bertrand competition, the optimal subsidy times the slope of the demand function) should equal the cross-effect of foreign actions on home revenue (\( R_s \) times the slope of the foreign reaction function \( B_s \)). (With many periods all of these terms should be interpreted as vectors or matrices where appropriate.) In terms of economic intuition, the justification for intervention is that, because of its superior commitment power, the government is able to move the foreign firm along its reaction function to the Stackelberg equilibrium, something which the home firm itself cannot credibly do. We will follow standard practice and refer to this as the "profit-shifting" motive for intervention.

\(^5\) Following Fudenberg and Tirole (1984), we call the first term in (5) the "direct" or "non-strategic" effect of the firm's actions. Of course, the firm is always a Nash player, so strategic considerations arise even for this term; however, the label "non-strategic" is convenient and hopefully unambiguous.
Of course, the simplicity of (13) arises from the compact matrix notation. When we consider the elements in this expression period by period, matters appear more complex, as equations (11) and (12) show. (We consider here only the pure profit-shifting effects, represented by terms involving the B_i derivatives. All other terms are discussed elsewhere.)

To interpret these terms, we introduce the distinction between inter- and intra-temporal profit shifting. In each equation there is one term, \( R_t^i B_t (i=1,2) \), all of whose components relate exclusively to the same period. These terms represent the standard intratemporal profit-shifting motive: if there are no links between periods all other terms vanish (since \( R_t^i=B_t^i=0 \) for \( i \neq j \)) and both equations collapse to \( S_t^i=R_t^i B_t (i=1,2) \). This yields the familiar results of static strategic trade policy. In addition, because of the dynamic structure of the model, there is an intertemporal profit-shifting motive in both periods, represented by cross-terms such as \( R_t^i B_t^j \) in (11) and (12). Calculating all the components of \( S_t \) in any particular application is likely to be difficult. However, the difficulty is no more and no less than that needed to sign any matrix comparative statics expression. Summarising the results of this sub-section:

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6 When competition is Cournot: \( S_t^i \) equals \( s_i \); \( R_t^i \) is negative provided goods are Antonelli substitutes in demand; and \( B_t \) is negative provided outputs are strategic substitutes. Hence an export subsidy is optimal, as in Brander and Spencer (1985). By contrast, when competition is Bertrand: \( S_t^i \) equals \( s T q / \partial a_i \); \( R_t^i \) is positive provided goods are Hicksian substitutes in demand; and \( B_t \) is positive provided prices are strategic complements. Hence an export tax is optimal, as in Eaton and Grossman (1986).

7 To see this, we calculate \( B_t \) explicitly, using the first-order conditions for the foreign firm (i.e., equation (8) specialised to the FCE case): \( R_t^i (\partial, a)=0 \). Totally differentiating and substituting in (13) gives: \( S_t^i = -R_t^i (\partial E) R_t^i \). (Compare, for example, the single-period Cournot result given by Brander (1995), equation (3.17.).) The only general restriction on this formula is that \( R_t^i \) must be negative definite from the foreign firm's second-order condition. However, other restrictions may be imposed under appropriate additional assumptions. For example, if in every period the foreign firm's action is a strategic substitute for every action of the home firm, then all the elements of \( R_t^i \) are positive.

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Proposition 1: In FCE, the formula for the optimal subsidies is a matrix generalisation of the static profit-shifting formula, reflecting inter- as well as intra-temporal rent-shifting.

1.5 Optimal Policy with Strategic Competition by Firms

Consider next the GCE case, when the government can still commit in advance to future subsidies but firms cannot commit in advance to future actions and so engage in strategic behaviour against each other. The home firm's strategic behaviour is represented by the second term in its first-order condition (5). As the second term in (10) shows, optimal policy requires that this strategic effect should be exactly offset.

One case where this has dramatic implications is where the home firm and the home government have the same ability to commit (both inter- and intratemporally) and so the same ability to manipulate the foreign firm. In that case, \( B_t=0 \), and equation (10) shows that the optimal subsidy is zero. This confirms from a different perspective the points made in the last sub-section. If the home firm can commit to the same extent as the home government, then it acts as a Stackelberg leader on its own, and the rationale for strategic trade policy disappears. By contrast, we concentrate on the case where the home firm is always a Nash player against the foreign firm, so all elements on and above the principal diagonal of the matrix \( db \ ) da \ are zero; and where the home government always has superior commitment power (at least intratemporally), so some or all of the corresponding elements in the matrix \( B_t \) are non-zero.

To obtain concrete results we must now specialise to the two-period case, where the key term is that involving \( \partial E / \partial a_i \) in (11). This term has been extensively studied, most
comprehensively by Fudenberg and Tirole (1984) and Tirole (1988, Chapter 8), and
we follow their taxonomy here. The expression \( \frac{db}{da_1} \) in this term is the foreign
firm’s period-2 response to a change in \( a_1 \), as anticipated by the home firm. It arises from
the solution of the two second-period first-order conditions. That for the foreign firm implies
a period-2 reaction function, \( b_2 = \psi(a_1,b_1,a_2) \). Differentiating this, the full response of \( b_2 \)
to \( a_1 \) may be decomposed as follows:

\[
\frac{db_2}{da_1} = \psi_{a_1} + \psi_{a_2} \frac{da_2}{da_1} 
\]

(14)

where the derivative \( da_2/da_1 \) arises from the joint solution of both firms’ period-2 first-order
conditions. The partial derivative \( \psi_{a_1} \) in (14) reflects an intertemporal externality between
the two firms. Otherwise the right-hand side term is as in Fudenberg and Tirole and its
contribution to profits may be broken into two components. First is the slope of the foreign
firm’s reaction function in the second period, \( \psi_{a_1} \); this is negative when second-period actions
are strategic substitutes, and positive otherwise. Second is whether or not “investment”, in
the sense of an increase in \( a_1 \), makes the home firm “tough”, in the sense of reducing the
foreign firm’s period-2 profits.10 The resulting taxonomy, which is illustrated in Table 1,
is now well-known, although we shall see in the next section that its detailed implications for
policy are not immediately obvious.

For the present, note that the second term in equation (11) for the optimal period-1

subsidy exactly offsets the Fudenberg-Tirole strategic effect in the home firm's first-order
condition (5). Heuristically, strategic behaviour by the home firm consumes real resources.
Since (until Section 3.2) the marginal social cost of funds is unity, it is more efficient for the
government to restrain the home firm from this wasteful strategic behaviour while
simultaneously shifting rents optimally just as in FCE. Summarising:

**Proposition 2:** In GCE, the formula for the optimal period-1 subsidy contains an additional
term, which exactly offsets the Fudenberg and Tirole strategic effect.

Naturally, Fudenberg and Tirole’s “cats and dogs” taxonomy of business strategies suggests
an “animal training” taxonomy of optimal policy responses. We explore this in more detail
when we consider applications in the next section.

1.6 Optimal Policy without Government Commitment

Finally, consider the Sequence Equilibrium case, where the home government cannot
commit in advance to its future subsidies and so the home firm has an incentive to play
strategically against it. This incentive is represented by the new third term in equation (5).
The government in turn adjusts its optimal subsidy to offset this term, as the third term in
(10) shows. The other terms in equations (11) and (12) also continue to apply in SE, but
because of the sequential nature of actions by all agents, the interpretation of the \( b_j \)
coefficients is rather different.

To see how the subsidies are set in SE, consider the government’s problem at the
beginning of period 2. With \( a_1 \) and \( b_1 \) already determined, it faces a standard static problem
and the optimal subsidy is given by the static rent-shifting formula:
\[
S_{a_2}^2 = R_b^2 \psi_{a_2},
\]

This can be thought of as a special case of (12), with \( B_{12} \) set equal to zero and \( B_{22} \) equal to \( \psi_{a_2} \), the slope of the foreign firm's period-2 reaction function. Of course, the individual terms in (15) depend on past decisions and so it can be solved for the period-2 optimal subsidy as a function of the period-1 actions of both firms:

\[
s_2 = s_2(a_1, b_1).
\]

Both firms take this into account in choosing their first-period actions, which explains the \( ds/da \) term in (5).\(^{11}\)

Finally, the government anticipates this behaviour in setting its period-1 subsidy, which explains the final term in (11).\(^{12}\) This term exactly offsets the strategic behaviour by the home firm, in varying \( a_1 \) with the intention of manipulating the period-2 subsidy. This term is negative (since \( x_{a_2} \) is positive) if and only if an increase in the home firm's period-1 action tends to raise the period-2 subsidy; i.e., if and only if \( s_2 \) is a strategic complement for \( a_1 \).

Summarising:

**Proposition 3**: In SE, the formula for the optimal period-1 subsidy contains an additional term, which exactly offsets the strategic behaviour of the home firm vis-à-vis the home government, tending to lower \( S_{a_2} \) if and only if the period-2 subsidy is a strategic complement for \( a_1 \).

\(^{11}\) In SE the foreign firm also anticipates the effects of its period-1 action on the home government's period-2 subsidy. However, this only affects its profits through the home firm's period-2 action, so there is no \( ds/da \) term in (8).

\(^{12}\) Of course, the rent-shifting coefficients are also very different. For example, \( B_{12} \) takes a relatively simple form since it can be calculated directly from the foreign firm's period-2 reaction function: \( B_{12} = \psi_{a_2} + \psi_{b_2}(db_2/da_2) \). The externality term involving \( \psi_{a_2} \) enters positively here and negatively in the expression for \( db_2/da_2 \) in (11). However, these are the only terms which cancel in general.

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1.7 Welfare Comparisons between Equilibria

So far, we have been able to isolate the factors which determine the optimal subsidies, and, as the next section will show, they can be signed in many applications. It would also be very desirable to give a welfare ranking of the different equilibria, but this is not possible in general. However, it can be done in one special case, where the foreign firm has no intertemporal links:

**Proposition 4**: If the foreign firm has no intertemporal links, the real equilibrium (including the level of welfare) is the same in all three cases. Only the subsidies differ.

This proposition is easily proved by substituting for the optimal subsidies (10) into the home firm's first-order conditions (5). This gives:

\[
R_{s}(a, B(a))' + R_{a}(a, B(a))'B_{a}(a) = 0,
\]

which is the Stackelberg equilibrium condition in matrix form. A sufficient condition for this to be invariant to changes in the assumptions about move order is that the matrix \( B_{a} \) is diagonal, in other words, that the foreign firm has no intertemporal links.

2. Applications

Equation (10), and its application to the two-period case in equations (11) and (12), is the key result of the paper. In this section we consider its implications in some interesting
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Table 1. Higher investment makes the home firm tough (i.e., it reduces the foreign firm's
The case where firms behave strategically and second-period competition is Cournot has
been considered by Spencer and Brander (1983) and falls into the upper left-hand box of
Table 1. Higher investment makes the home firm tough (i.e., it reduces the foreign firm’s
profits) and outputs are “normally” strategic substitutes. Hence, the home firm has an
incentive to over-invest relative to the social optimum and the optimal period-1 policy is an
investment tax. Extending Fudenberg and Tirole’s taxonomy, the government should restrain
this “top dog”. Of course, this need not mean that investment is lower overall, when the full
effect of intervention is taken into account. Figure 1 illustrates (under the simplifying
assumption that the foreign firm does not invest). Without intervention, strategic behaviour
by the home firm leads to inefficient over-investment along OK’ rather than the efficient
locus OK, which shifts its output reaction function outwards from H to H’. The optimum
GCE policy package of an investment tax and an export subsidy restores efficient investment,
though (at least with linear demands) investment and output are still higher.

By contrast, if period-2 competition is in terms of prices, the second-period reaction
functions are “normally” upward-sloping. Investment still makes the home firm tough but

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13 Shapiro (1989, Section 4.4) gives a more comprehensive review of applications of two-
period oligopoly games, though he does not discuss policy issues.

14 Recall that \(q_2\) is period-2 output, equal to \(a_j\) in Cournot competition and \(q_2(a_p,b_j)\) in
Bertrand competition. This specification of costs allows for many interesting special cases,
including that of marginal cost independent of output: \(C(a_j,q_2) = c(a_j)q_2\ c' < 0\); and the
“plant design” model of Vives (1989) which allows for a trade-off between fixed and variable
costs: \(C(a_j,q_2) = a(a_j)q_2 + a_0q_2\ c' < 0\).

15 The same is not true in GCE: since \(a_j\) depends on \(a_i\), so also does \(da_j/db_i\). However,
since this effect works only through changes in the curvature of the home firm’s period-2
reaction function, it is unlikely to be very important. For example, it vanishes in the case
of Cournot competition if marginal costs are independent of output.
now it has an incentive to under-invest, leading to higher prices for both firms. To
counteract this behaviour, the optimal policy is an investment subsidy: this "puppy dog"
should be encouraged. In this case, the net effect on investment is ambiguous. Figure 2
illustrates one possible outcome.

The considerations discussed so far apply only to the home firm’s strategic behaviour
against its foreign rival. In SE it also behaves strategically against the home government,
to an extent determined by the sign of $da/ds$. Appendix A.3 derives an exact expression
for this term and shows that it is presumptively positive when second-period competition is
Cournot and negative when it is Bertrand. Hence in Cournot competition the future
subsidy is a strategic complement for the home firm’s investment. As a result, the home
firm has a further incentive to over-invest in order to obtain a higher subsidy, and so the
government has a further motive to tax it in period 1 in order to restrain it from this socially
wasteful behaviour. A similar chain of reasoning, but with opposite implications, applies in
Bertrand competition. Higher investment in period 1 lowers costs and raises output in period
2, presumptively mandating a higher tax (i.e., a lower value of $s_2$). Thus the future subsidy
is a strategic substitute for the home firm’s investment, encouraging the home firm to under-
invest and so tending to justify a subsidy in period 1 to restore the efficient level of
investment.

2.2 Learning By Doing

Learning by doing is similar to investment in capacity or R&D in the absence of policy
(provided we continue to rule out inter-firm spillovers). However, when we consider its
implications for policy, there are two important differences. First, since the firms compete
directly in the first period, there is a profit-shifting motive for intervening in that period.
Second, if competition in the first period is Bertrand, a firm which enjoys learning by doing
faces different incentives from those in the investment case.

We have considered this case in Leahy and Neary (1994, 1998), drawing on Spence
(1981) and Fudenberg and Tirole (1983), so our treatment can be brief. Because of learning
by doing each firm’s period-2 costs are inversely related to its period-1 output. Hence the
second-period revenue function for the home firm becomes:

$$R^2(a_1,b_2,a_2,b_2) = \hat{R}^2(a_1,b_2) - C^2(q_1a_2),$$ (19)

with $R^2_{ij}$ positive if firms are Cournot competitors in the first period and negative if they are
Bertrand competitors. Firms also compete directly in the first period, so the home firm’s
period-1 revenue function is now $R^1(a_1,b_j)$. Hence, no terms vanish from equations (11) and
(12) for the optimal subsidies. Even in FCE there is both an intertemporal and an
intragovernment shift motives for intervention in both periods. These terms are more
complex than in static models but there is a presumption that they have the same implications
for policy, mandating subsidies in both periods when competition is Cournot (provided
outputs are strategic substitutes) and taxes in both periods when competition is Bertrand
(provided prices are strategic complements).

Consider next the inter-firm strategic effect. In Cournot competition this operates just
as in the investment case. The home firm has an incentive to over-produce in period 1
and the government should tax its output in order to restrain this "top dog" behaviour. (Of

16 Since higher investment (an increase in $a_1$) lowers costs in period 2, the sign of this second
strategic effect hinges on whether a reduction in costs mandates a higher subsidy in period
2. The study of how changes in costs affect the optimal subsidy was initiated by de Meza
(1986) and Neary (1994), and in Leahy and Neary (1998) we derived a necessary and
sufficient condition for this effect in Cournot competition. Appendix A.3 provides a simpler
proof which applies to Bertrand as well as Cournot competition.
course, the tax is relative to the profit-shifting benchmark, which is unambiguously positive provided outputs are strategic substitutes.) However, in Bertrand competition the parallel with the investment case breaks down, although the policy implication is the same. "Investment" in this case means a higher price in period 1 and, by lowering the rate of learning, this tends to raise the home firm’s price in period 2 and so to increase the rival firm’s profits. Hence, investment makes the home firm "soft" and, assuming that prices are strategic complements, it has an incentive to under-learn. The optimal policy response is thus to exercise this "fat cat" by reducing its current price, which in turn requires an output subsidy, as shown in the lower right-hand cell in Table 1.

Finally, the strategic effect vis-à-vis the government operates in the same way as in the investment case, presumptively mandating a tax in the Cournot case but a subsidy in the Bertrand case.

2.3 Natural Resources

The approach we have taken so far can be applied to the problem of optimal policy towards a resource-exporting firm competing against a single foreign rival. The simplest case is where each firm has a fixed stock of the resource, so in Cournot competition \( a_1 + a_2 = A \) and \( b_1 + b_2 = B \). In this case, both intertemporal and strategic considerations vanish. The model effectively collapses to a one-period one and the only motive for intervention is intratemporal profit shifting. The home firm’s first-order condition is simply \( R_{1t} + s_1 = \rho(R_{2t} + s_2) \), which can be manipulated to give a variant of the Hotelling rule: the subsidy-inclusive marginal profitability of resource extraction falls at the rate of time preference.

Of more interest is the case where a higher rate of extraction in the first period raises the costs of extraction in the second.\(^{17}\) This specification of the extraction technology is formally identical to learning by doing, except that the learning parameter is negative: future costs are increasing in current output. Hence higher output in the first period makes the home firm "soft" and so the case of Cournot competition falls into the upper-right-hand box of Table 1. Left to itself the home firm will under-produce in the first period, adopting a "lean and hungry look". Hence optimal intervention requires that it be fattened by a subsidy. Conversely, in Bertrand competition, a higher price in the first period makes the home firm "tough". Assuming prices are strategic complements, this leads it to adopt a "puppy dog" strategy in the sense that it under-prices; though the terminology is less appropriate here, since this implies that it over-produces and so the optimal policy (relative as always to the profit-shifting benchmark) is an output tax.

2.4 R&D Spillovers

In the examples considered so far, each firm’s second-period costs depended only on its own first-period actions and not on its rival’s. This simplicity vanishes if there are externalities between firms, as in the work of Spence (1984) and d’Aspremont and Jacquemin (1988). Moreover, the Fudenberg and Tirole taxonomy is no longer adequate, since from (14) there is an additional externality term in the expression for \( db_2/da_1 \). Some of the benefits of the home firm’s R&D accrue to the foreign firm, reducing its costs and tending to raise its output. Because of this indirect effect, investment tends to make the home firm "soft", working against the direct effect which we have considered in Section 2.1 above.

To see which effect dominates, we must calculate explicitly the inter-firm strategic effect

\(^{17}\) Optimal policy in this case has been considered by Maskin and Newbery (1990) in a different context: they assumed that the resource was produced by a competitive industry and compared the optimal tariff schedules for a resource-importing country with and without government commitment.
in the home firm's first-order condition (5). The home firm's revenue functions are now:

\[ R^1(a) = -C^1(a), \quad R^2(a_1, b_1, a_2, b_2) = R^1(a, b_2) - C^2(a_1, b_1, a_2), \]  

with corresponding expressions for the foreign firm. Differentiating the two firms' first-order conditions in period 2 is shown in Appendix A.4 to lead to:

\[ \pi_2 \frac{dB}{d_2} = A(\bar{\beta} - \beta), \]  

where:

\[ \bar{\beta} = \frac{R^2_{a_2} \pi^2_{a_2} \pi^2_{a_2}}{R^2_{a_2} \pi^2_{a_2} R^2_{a_2}} \quad \text{and} \quad \beta = \frac{R^2_{b_2}}{R^2_{b_2} \pi^2_{b_2} C^2_{b_2}}. \]  

As shown in Appendix A.4, second-order and stability conditions ensure that the term outside parentheses (4) is always positive. Hence, the spillover effect dominates, and investment makes the home firm "soft", if and only if the parameter we have labelled \( \beta \) is greater than that labelled \( \bar{\beta} \). These two parameters are easily interpreted. \( \beta \) equals the ratio of "cross" to "own" effects of R&D on the foreign firm's marginal costs. It is natural to interpret this as a measure of the strength of spillovers, and to require it to lie between zero (the case of Section 2.1 with no spillovers) and one (the case where R&D is completely unappropriated).

This leaves \( \bar{\beta} \) as the threshold value for \( \beta \). The key feature of \( \bar{\beta} \) is that (as in the symmetric closed-economy model of Leahy and Neary (1997)), it is positive if and only if \( b_1 \) is a strategic substitute for \( a_1 \) (so that \( R_{b_1}^2 < 0 \)). In the special case of homogeneous-product Cournot competition, linear demands and a symmetric quadratic specification of R&D, \( \bar{\beta} \) equals one half, the value found by d'Aspremont and Jacquemin (1988).

Summarising, the total strategic effect leads the home firm to overinvest in R&D and so justifies an R&D tax for low spillovers (\( \beta < \bar{\beta} \)); whereas an R&D subsidy is justified for high spillovers (\( \beta > \bar{\beta} \)); and a subsidy is always justified when period-2 actions are strategic complements (since then \( \beta > 0 > \bar{\beta} \)). At first sight it may seem paradoxical that an R&D subsidy is more likely, the greater the extent of spillovers to the foreign firm, whose profits are of no concern to the home government. The source of the paradox lies in the strategic behaviour by the home firm, which leads it to under-invest in R&D when spillovers are high.\(^{19}\)

2.5 Consumer Switching Costs

The final application we consider is to the case of switching costs in demand, as studied by Klemperer (1995) and To (1994). The period-2 revenue function can now be written as:

\[ R^2(a_1, b_1, a_2, b_2) = R^2[a(a_1, b_1), a_2, b_2], \]  

where \( \alpha \) denotes the home firm's market share in period 1, equal to \( q_1/(q_1 + q_2) \). While the rationale for this specification differs greatly from that for R&D spillovers as considered in Section 2.4, they both imply the same form for the strategic effect. Thus equation (21) still

\( ^{18} \bar{\beta} \) is the product of two terms. The second of these must be positive, since it equals the ratio of "own" effects of R&D on period-2 marginal profitability for the two firms. The denominator of the first term must be negative from the home firm's period-2 second-order condition. Hence the sign of \( \bar{\beta} \) depends solely on the sign of the numerator of the first term; i.e., on whether the foreign firm's period-2 action is a strategic substitute or a strategic complement for the home firm's.

\( ^{19} \) Further implications of strategic behaviour for policy towards R&D in the presence of both international and domestic spillovers are considered in Leahy and Neary (1999).
holds in this case, the only difference being the form of the "spillover" parameter $\beta$:

$$\beta = \frac{\alpha_{h,n}^{2}}{\alpha_{h,n}^{1}} = \frac{\alpha_{n}^{2}}{\alpha_{n}^{1}}.$$  \hspace{1cm} (24)

$\beta$ is now the ratio of "cross" to "own" effects of period-1 actions on the foreign firm's period-1 market share, $\alpha'$. But since $a_i$ and $b_i$ have opposite effects on market shares (irrespective of whether competition in period 1 is in quantities or prices), $\beta$ must be negative. (Though, as in Section 2.4, it is likely to be less than one in absolute value.) The implications for optimal policy are very similar to those in the previous sub-section. The only substantive difference is that the ambiguity in sign of the strategic component of the optimal subsidy now arises when actions are strategic complements, rather than when they are strategic substitutes. The threshold parameter $\bar{\beta}$ is still positive if and only if period-2 actions are strategic substitutes; in that case we can be sure that $\beta < \bar{\beta}$ and so the home firm "over-acts" in period 1, justifying a tax if competition is Cournot or a subsidy if competition is Bertrand. By contrast, if period-2 actions are strategic complements, then both $\beta$ and $\bar{\beta}$ are negative and the appropriate policy depends on their relative magnitudes.

3. Extensions

All the applications considered in Section 2 have remained within the framework of Section 1. This makes a number of restrictive assumptions, such as a passive foreign government, no home consumption and only one home firm. However, relaxing these introduces considerations which are not peculiar to an intertemporal framework and which are familiar from earlier work. In the remainder of this section, we turn instead to three other, less familiar, directions in which the model of Section 1 needs to be extended.

3.1 Optimal Second-Best Intervention

So far, we have assumed that the home government can subsidise in both periods. However, governments often face constraints on their freedom to intervene. For example, the WTO (formerly the GATT) prohibits explicit export subsidies but does not constrain investment subsidies. Alternatively, it may be possible to evade the WTO prohibition on export subsidies (e.g., by providing export credits) but budgetary constraints may preclude direct assistance to investment. To understand such situations, it is desirable to extend the analysis of previous sections to the case where the government can vary only one instrument.

We call this "second-best" intervention in contrast to the "first-best" intervention of previous sections (though of course it was first-best from a national, not a global, perspective, and truly first-best policy would require removing oligopolistic distortions).

If only one instrument is available, it matters crucially whether or not the government can commit to it in advance of any decisions by firms. Consider first the case where the government has the ability to commit. We can then adapt the methods of Section 1 to derive...
the optimal second-best value of the sole available instrument. Write the formulae for the first-best optimal subsidies (given by the right-hand sides of (11) and (12)) as \( \tilde{S}_i \) and \( \tilde{S}_j \) respectively. Now we can immediately rewrite the change in welfare from (7) in terms of the deviations of the subsidy terms from their first-best values:

\[
dW = -(S_{a_i} - \tilde{S}_i) da_i - (S_{a_j} - \tilde{S}_j) da_j.
\]

Now, if the period \( j \) subsidy is unalterable, the optimal value of the period \( i \) subsidy term is:

\[
S_{a_i}^0 = \tilde{S}_i - (\tilde{S}_a - \tilde{S}_j) \frac{da_j}{da_i}, \quad i,j = 1,2; \ i \neq j.
\]

Thus the optimal second-best subsidy term in period \( i \) equals the value given by the first-best formula \( \tilde{S}_i \) less a correction factor which is the product of two terms: first, the deviation of the other subsidy term from its first-best value and, second, the extent to which, with \( s_i \) unalterable, a change in \( a_j \) affects \( a_i \). The underlying rationale is similar to that in competitive models. (See for example, Neary (1995).) If the two home-firm actions \( a_i \) and \( a_j \) (which are the "targets" from the home government's perspective) are complements in the sense that \( da_j/da_i \) is positive, then the deviations of the two "instruments" \( S_{a_i} \) and \( S_{a_j} \) from their respective first-best optimal values should be opposite in sign.

To illustrate this result more concretely, note that the two equations in (26) define second-best loci which can be illustrated in subsidy space. Figures 3 and 4 show the loci implied by the investment model of Section 2.1.21 In each figure the first-best optimum is denoted by point A; the contours are iso-welfare loci; the blank regions at the extremities of the figures correspond to subsidy values that are either too high or too low to sustain an interior equilibrium; and units are chosen such that welfare equals unity in free trade (i.e., at the \( s_1 = s_2 = 0 \) origin).

Consider first the case of investment followed by Cournot competition (Figure 3). The two straight lines through A are the two second-best optimal subsidy loci defined by (26). Both are downward-sloping, reflecting the fact that the government's two targets, home investment and home output, are indeed complements in this case. However, the loci never stray into the south-west quadrant, so both second-best subsidies are positive when the other subsidy is constrained to equal zero. Spencer and Brander (1983) demonstrated this for the investment subsidy, though Figure 3 draws attention to a feature of their result which is inadequately appreciated. The motive for subsidising investment is only a second-best one, and is partly offset by the direct motive (the desire to counteract strategic over-investment) which works towards a tax. Hence the second-best investment subsidy is likely to be small in magnitude. This is true of the example illustrated in Figure 3: the second-best subsidy at point B is much lower in absolute value than the first-best tax at A and, in addition, leads to only slightly higher welfare than free trade.

Figure 4 shows the corresponding curves for the case of investment followed by Bertrand competition. As already noted in Section 2.1, the first-best package represented by point A exactly reverses that of the Cournot case in Figure 3: now the optimum involves taxing exports but subsidising investment. However, the second-best loci through A are both downward-sloping, reflecting two mutually offsetting differences from the Cournot case. First, the two targets, home investment and the home firm's price, are now substitutes rather than complements. (See, for example, equations (69) and (72) in Appendix A.6.) As a result, both subsidy formulae in equation (26) must lie on the same side of their respective first-best values. Offsetting this is the fact that, as always in Bertrand competition, \( S_{a_i} \) is

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21 The underlying calculations and the parameter values chosen are given in the Appendix, Sections A.5 and A.6. Copies of the GAUSS programs used to generate Figures 3 to 6 are available on request.
negatively related to the export subsidy, so the second-best optimal subsidy rates lie on opposite sides of their first-best values, just as in the Cournot case.

The other intriguing similarity between Figures 3 and 4 is that the optimal second-best investment subsidy is positive when the export subsidy is zero (at point B). This result was noted by Bagwell and Staiger (1994), whose findings were used by Brander (1995) as the basis for a conjecture that investment subsidies are a more robust recommendation (with respect to variations in assumptions about firm behaviour) than export subsidies. Figure 4 provides further evidence for this conjecture, drawing on the results of Maggi (1996). He considers a model such as that of Figure 4, with investment followed by price competition, concentrating on the sign of the optimal second-best export subsidy; i.e., on the location of point C. He focuses on the curvature of the marginal cost curve and shows that, if (as here) it is horizontal, the optimal second-best export subsidy is negative (as illustrated by point C in Figure 4). However, if the marginal cost curve is very steep, corresponding to a case where for a given level of investment the firm is constrained to produce at or near capacity output, then the optimal second-best output subsidy is positive. In terms of Figure 4, this implies that point C lies above the horizontal, and so point B must lie even further to the right of the origin, strengthening the case for a second-best optimal investment subsidy.\(^{22}\)

The final case we must mention is where the government is constrained to offer an export subsidy only but cannot commit to it in advance of firms’ first-period actions. It is obvious that, in that case, the “optimal” second-best policy will be given by the static formula (15). Of more interest is the fact that welfare may now be lower with an export subsidy than it would be in free trade. (Of course, this comparison assumes that it is feasible for the government to commit to free trade, which in itself implies some degree of government commitment.) The circumstances in which such a second-best “paradox” may arise have been considered by Karp and Perloff (1995), Grossman and Maggi (1997) and Neary and O’Sullivan (1997).

### 3.2 Divergences between Private and Social Costs

Returning to the case where both instruments are controllable, consider next the implications of a divergence between the social valuation of corporate profits and that of subsidy revenue foregone.\(^{23}\) This implies that the welfare function depends directly on the subsidy rates for the first time:

\[
W(a, b, s) = \pi(a, b, s) - \delta S(a, b, s), \quad \delta > 1,
\]

where the excess of the distributional parameter \(\delta\) over one measures the distributional preference for subsidy revenue over corporate profits, or alternatively, the deadweight losses from financing subsidies by distortionary taxation. Replacing \(\pi\) by \(R+S\) as usual and calculating the government’s first-order condition:

\[
\frac{dW}{ds} = \frac{dR}{ds} - (\delta - 1) \frac{dS}{ds} = 0.
\]

The first term in (28) can be written in terms of the deviations of the optimal subsidy terms from \(\bar{S}\), the vector of optimal subsidy formulae from Section 1 (i.e., when \(\delta = 1\)):

\(^{22}\) The same point can be made by considering equation (26), with \(i=2\) and \(j=1\). In the model with investment followed by Bertrand competition, \(S_i = \frac{\partial \pi}{\partial a} < 0, S_j = \frac{\partial \pi}{\partial q_{\text{eq}}} > 0\) (where \(q_{\text{eq}}\) is the own-price derivative of demand and is negative, so \(S_j\) is negative), and \(S_i = \frac{\partial \pi}{\partial q_{\text{eq}}} > 0\). If the marginal cost curve is very steep, \(\frac{dc}{dq}\) (which is always negative) is very large in absolute value and so the second term in (26) dominates, implying that \(S_j\) is positive.

\(^{23}\) As noted by Neary (1994), such a divergence may arise from a number of sources, including the deadweight loss of raising tax revenue to finance subsidies, pure distributional considerations, or the fact that the home firm is partly foreign-owned. A related type of divergence between private and social costs, which can be considered in similar fashion, is where changes in resource use by the home firm affect other distorted sectors. The implications for the pattern of subsidies across a number of oligopolistic sectors are considered by Dixit and Grossman (1986).
where \( a = A(s) \) is the reduced form equation giving the full effect of subsidies on the home firm’s equilibrium actions.\(^{24}\) The second term measures the response of subsidy revenue to changes in subsidy rates and is calculated similarly:

\[
\frac{dS}{d\delta} = (S_a + S_b A_s) A_s + S_a. \tag{30}
\]

Substituting into the first-order condition (28) gives the optimal subsidies in this case:

\[
S_a = \frac{\delta - 1}{\delta - 1} \left( S_a + S_b A_s \right), \tag{31}
\]

This shows that \( \delta \), the standard formula for the optimal subsidies, must be modified in two respects. First, the usual rent-shifting and strategic motives for intervention (summarised by \( \delta \)) are diluted, counting for less the higher is \( \delta \). Second, there is an additional group of terms which reflect the deadweight loss of raising revenue. These terms are likely to contribute to a reduction in the optimal subsidies. (Consider the one-period case for example. If competition is Cournot, \( S_a \) is the optimal subsidy, while \( S_b \) and \( A_s \) are both positive; whereas if competition is Bertrand, then \( S_a \) is negatively related to the optimal subsidy, \( S_b \) is positive and \( A_s \) is negative.) However, there is no general presumption that this must be so in all cases. (Figure 5 below provides a counter-example in a simple case.) Nevertheless, we can show that total subsidy revenue unambiguously falls as \( \delta \) rises. Totally differentiate the subsidy function \( S(a, b, s) \) with respect to \( \delta \) and substitute from the total differential of the government’s first-order condition (28):

\[
\frac{dS}{d\delta} = \left( \frac{dS}{da} \right) \frac{da}{d\delta} + \left( \frac{dS}{ds} \right) \frac{d\delta}{ds}. \tag{32}
\]

This is a quadratic form in a matrix which must be negative definite from the government’s second-order condition. Hence, \( S \) and \( \delta \) must be inversely related along the revenue-constrained iso-welfare locus.

Figure 5 and 6, drawn in the same space and under the same assumptions as Figures 3 and 4 respectively, illustrate. Both diagrams repeat the iso-welfare contours from Figures 3 and 4, supplementing them with iso-profit contours and the revenue-constrained iso-welfare locus which passes through the first-best point A. A higher social opportunity cost of funds (i.e., a rise in \( \delta \)) implies a movement downwards from point A. However, as Figure 5 illustrates, this implies in the Cournot case that the investment subsidy becomes less negative (though it never attains a positive value). The Bertrand case of Figure 6 is more intuitive. Here, both subsidies fall in algebraic value as \( \delta \) rises, though the investment subsidy never actually becomes negative.

### 3.3 Entry Promotion

The final case we consider is where the home firm’s profits at the first-best optimum would be insufficient to induce it to enter the market. In this case the government’s problem is to choose the optimal policy package to maximise welfare subject to a profit constraint. Forming the Lagrangian, this becomes:

\[
\max_{\pi} \Pi = W + \lambda (\pi - \pi_n) \tag{33}
\]

where \( \pi_n \) is the minimum required profit level. Assume the social cost of funds is equal to

\(24\) This is the full effect (including the induced response of the foreign firm in both periods) as perceived by the home government, not by the home firm. Just as \( B_a \) is not equal to \( d/d\delta \), so also \( A_s^{-1} \) is not equal to \( d/da \) (the response of the subsidies to a change in the home firm’s actions as perceived by the firm).
unity as in earlier sections, so \( W = R \). Replacing \( \pi \) by \( R+S \) as before, the first-order condition becomes:

\[
(1+\lambda) \frac{dR}{ds} + \lambda \frac{dS}{d\pi} = 0, \quad \lambda \geq 0. \tag{34}
\]

But this is identical in form to (28), except that the coefficient of the deadweight-loss term is now positive rather than negative: \( \lambda = -(\delta-1)/\delta \), or \( \delta = 1/(1+\lambda) \). Hence we can immediately, by analogy with (31), write down the optimal subsidy formula:

\[
S^*_0 = (1+\lambda) \bar{S} + \lambda (S_r^*/B_r + S_h^*/A_h^{-1}). \tag{35}
\]

Now, the optimal subsidies are likely to, and total subsidy payments must, exceed their values in the unconstrained first-best optimum. Geometrically, the optimum lies along the same revenue-constrained iso-welfare loci in Figures 5 and 6 as before, but above rather than below the first-best point A.

4. Conclusion

In this paper we have developed a general approach to the design of optimal trade and industrial policy towards dynamic oligopolies. We have identified three distinct motives for intervention. First is the standard profit-shifting one of using the government’s superior powers of commitment to place the home firm in the position it would adopt if it had a Stackelberg first-mover advantage over the foreign firm. An added complication is that, when firms compete directly in more than one period, there is scope for intertemporal as well as intratemporal profit-shifting. The second motive is the desire to counteract the strategic behaviour of the home firm vis-à-vis its rival. This type of strategic behaviour is summarised by Fudenberg and Tirole’s taxonomy of business strategies and the optimal subsidy should contain a term which exactly offsets it. Finally, the third motive is the desire to counteract the home firm’s strategic behaviour vis-à-vis the government’s own future actions.

In summary, the government should exploit its own strategic power and should counteract the home firm’s. This means using its own powers of commitment both to shift profits (inter- as well as intratemporally) and to prevent the home firm from making socially wasteful commitments.

In addition to setting out the general principles which should guide intervention in a general dynamic oligopoly setting, we have examined their application in a number of special cases, including R&D (both with and without inter-firm spillovers), learning by doing, trade in natural resources and consumer switching costs. Our approach should prove fruitful in exploring issues of optimal intervention in the presence of many other types of intertemporal links. We have also shown how our general framework can be extended to allow for second-best, revenue-constrained and entry-promotion policies. In all cases the properties of particular models can be explained in terms of a few simple general principles, and we have also noted some useful analogies between seemingly different problems. For example, we have shown that, except for a sign change, there is a formal identity between models with learning by doing and natural resources; between R&D spillovers and consumer switching costs; and between revenue-constrained and entry-promotion policies.

Finally, what do our results imply for the practice of intervention targeted towards oligopolistic firms in open economies? It should be obvious that the paper confirms the general thrust of the literature on strategic trade and industrial policy, that no simple rules of thumb to guide policy are available. Not just the sign but even the magnitude of optimal intervention depends on subtle and perhaps unobservable aspects of firm behaviour. One
general conclusion we can draw is some tentative support for a conjecture of Brander (1995),
that the policy implications of strategic industrial policy may be more robust than those of
strategic trade policy. Even in this case, as Sections 2.1 and 3.1 have shown, this policy
rule is strictly a second-best one, in that it does not apply if exports as well as investment
can be subsidised or taxed. Moreover, our simulations suggest that the potential gains from
this limited form of intervention are likely to be small.

Yet the absence of any simple and universal rules for practical policy making does not
detract from the intellectual significance of this branch of theory. In this respect, it may be
helpful to draw an analogy between the theory of strategic trade policy and that great
theoretical insight of the first decade of the twentieth century, Bickerdike’s (1906) theory of
optimal tariffs. For all sorts of practical reasons (of which the risk of foreign retaliation is
the most obvious) the potential gains from manipulating the terms of trade are likely to be
tiny, even for very large countries. Nevertheless, in trying to explain the welfare
implications of actual interventions and the incentives facing governments in international
negotiations, it is essential to understand the relationship between welfare and world prices
and the potential if elusive gains from trying to exploit it. In exactly the same way, the
potential role of a home government in taking on a Stackelberg leadership role which a home
firm cannot take on for itself is a basic insight; even if the likelihood of realising the gains
in practice is small. Given the enormous extent of intertemporal interdependence between
firms, this suggests that the principles set out in this paper will continue to be relevant.

Appendix

A.1 Investment and Cournot Competition: Figure 1

We consider a linear-quadratic example where firms choose investment levels \( a \) and \( b \)
in period 1 and outputs \( a_2 \) and \( b_2 \) in period 2. (This extends the example in Leahy and Neary
(1996) to asymmetric firms.) Assuming no discounting (\( \rho = 1 \)), quadratic costs of investment,
a linear demand function, homogeneous products and a linear relationship between investment
and marginal cost, the home firm’s profit functions are:

\[
\pi^1 = -\gamma a_1^2/2 + s_1 a_1 \quad \text{and} \quad \pi^2 = (p - c - s_2) a_2,
\]

where:

\[
p = \alpha - \beta (a_2 + b_2) \quad \text{and} \quad c = c_0 - \theta a_1,
\]

with a similar specification (but different parameters \( \gamma^* \), \( c_0^* \) and \( \theta^* \)) for the foreign firm. The
first-order conditions for output (defining the output reaction functions) are:

\[
\begin{bmatrix}
2 & 1 \\
1 & 2
\end{bmatrix}
\begin{bmatrix}
\beta a_1 \\
\beta b_1
\end{bmatrix} =
\begin{bmatrix}
\alpha - c_0 - \theta a_1 + s_2 \\
\alpha - c_0^* - \theta^* b_1
\end{bmatrix}.
\]

The first-order conditions for investment are:

\[
\mu \theta a_2 = \gamma a_1 - s_1 \quad \text{and} \quad \mu \theta^* b_2 = \gamma^* b_1,
\]

where the parameter \( \mu \) reflects the strategic effect. When firms do not behave strategically,
\( \mu \) equals unity and investment is at its efficient level in the absence of subsidies. Strategic
behaviour adds extra terms in \( db_2/db_1 \) and \( da_2/db_1 \) (equal from (37) to \(-\theta/3\beta \) and \(-\theta^*/3\beta \)
respectively) to the first-order conditions, raising the value of \( \mu \) to \( 4/3 \). Hence both firms
have an incentive to over-invest for strategic reasons. Solving for home investment in the
absence of policy:
behaves strategically. Finally, we can solve for the level of home investment:

\[ \tilde{a}_1 = \frac{\eta (2-\mu \eta) (\alpha - c_0) - (\alpha - c_0)}{\eta (2-\mu \eta) (2-\mu \eta) - 1} \]  

(39)

where \( \eta = \theta^2 / \beta \gamma \) and \( \eta^* = (\theta')^2 / \beta \gamma^* \) measure the relative effectiveness of R&D for the home and foreign firm respectively. Perhaps surprisingly, \( \tilde{a}_1 \) need not be increasing in \( \mu \) for all parameter values. However, strategic behaviour leads to higher investment in equilibrium (\( \tilde{a}_1[\mu = 4/3] > \tilde{a}_1[\mu = 1] \)) when \( \eta^* = 0 \).

Consider next the implications of government intervention. Welfare equals (undiscounted) profits:

\[ W = -\gamma a_1^2 + (\rho - c) a_2. \]  

(40)

Totally differentiating and using the home firm’s first-order conditions to simplify:

\[ dW = -[s_1 + (\mu - 1) \theta_0] da_1 - s_2 da_2 - \beta a_2 db_2. \]  

(41)

To eliminate \( db_2 \) we need to solve for the slope of the generalised foreign reaction function (as in (9)) using both the foreign first-order conditions from (37) and (38). Solving these gives \( B_{22} \) equal to \(-1/(2-\mu \eta)\), so substituting into (41) gives:

\[ dW = -(s_1 - \bar{s}_1) da_1 - (s_2 - \bar{s}_2) da_2, \]

where: \( \bar{s}_1 = -(\mu - 1) \theta_0 a_2 \) and \( \bar{s}_2 = \frac{1}{2 - \mu \eta} \theta a_2. \)  

(42)

The formulae for the first-best optimal subsidies (specialising (11) and (12)) confirm the results of Spencer and Brander (1983): investment is taxed when firms behave strategically but not otherwise; while exports are always subsidised, the more so if the foreign firm behaves strategically. Finally, we can solve for the level of home investment:

\[ \tilde{a}_1 = \frac{\eta (2-\mu \eta) (\alpha - c_0) - (\alpha - c_0)}{\eta (2-\mu \eta) (2-\mu \eta) - 2} \]  

(43)

which is independent of \( \mu \) when \( \eta^* = 0 \), in accordance with Proposition 4. Comparing (39), investment is higher at the social optimum (\( \tilde{a}_1 > \tilde{a}_2 \)) for either value of \( \mu \).

Figure 1 illustrates the special case where there is no foreign investment (so \( \eta^* = \theta^* = 0 \)). The lower panel illustrates the home firm’s first-order condition for investment from (38), with \( s_1 = 0 \) and \( \mu \) equal to either unity (along OK) or 4/3 (along OK'). The upper panel illustrates the reaction functions from (37), with the appropriate values of \( a_1 \) and \( s_2 \) substituted to obtain the three home curves.

A.2 Investment and Bertrand Competition: Figure 2

We assume the same specification of costs as in Appendix A.1, and a linear, differentiated-products specification of demand (with \( a_2 \) and \( b_2 \) now denoting prices and \( q \) and \( q' \) denoting home and foreign outputs):

\[ \pi^1 = -\gamma a_1^2 / 2 + s_1 a_1 \] and \[ \pi^2 = (a_2 - c + s_2) q, \]

where: \( q = a - \beta(b_2 - a_2) \) and \( q' = a - \beta(b_2 - a_2) \).

The first-order conditions for price (defining the price reaction functions) are:

\[ \begin{bmatrix} 2 & -1 \\ -1 & 2 \end{bmatrix} \begin{bmatrix} \beta a_2 \\ \beta b_2 \end{bmatrix} = \begin{bmatrix} \alpha + \beta c_0 - \beta a_1 - \beta s_2 \\ \alpha + \beta c_0^* - \beta^* b_1 \end{bmatrix} \]  

(45)

The first-order conditions for investment are:

\[ \mu \theta q = \gamma a_1 - s_1 \] and \[ \mu \theta' q^* = \gamma^* b_1, \]

where the parameter \( \mu \) reflects the strategic effect. When firms do not behave strategically, \( \mu \) equals unity and investment is at its efficient level. Strategic behaviour adds extra terms
in \(db_2/db_1\) and \(da_2/db_1\) (equal from (37) to \(-\theta/3\) and \(-\theta'/3\) respectively) to the first-order conditions, reducing the value of \(\mu\) to 2/3. Hence both firms have an incentive to under-invest for strategic reasons. Solving for home investment in the absence of policy:

\[
\hat{d}_1 = \frac{\mu \Omega (3-2\mu \eta^*) \alpha - \beta (c_0 - c_0^*)}{4 - \eta - 2\mu \eta^*},
\]

where \(\eta = \beta^2/\gamma\) and \(\eta^* = \beta (\theta^2/\gamma)\) measure the relative effectiveness of R&D for the home and foreign firm respectively. Strategic behaviour leads to lower investment in equilibrium \((\hat{d}_1, \mu = 2/3 < \hat{d}_1, \mu = 1)\) for most admissible parameter values (at least for \(\eta \leq I\) and \(c_0 \leq c_0^*)\).

Turning to policy, the welfare function is the same as in Section A.1 and its total differential (using the home firm's first-order conditions to simplify) is:

\[
dW = - (s_1 - (1-\mu)\delta q) da_1 + \beta \bar{s}_2 da_2 + (q - \beta \bar{s}_2) db_2.
\]

Once again, we need to eliminate \(db_2\) by solving for the slope of the generalised foreign reaction function (as in (9)) using both the foreign first-order conditions from (45) and (46). Solving these gives \(B_{22}\) equal to \((1-\mu \eta^*)/(2-\mu \eta^*)\), so substituting into (48) gives:

\[
dW = - (s_1 - \bar{s}_1) da_1 + (s_2 - \bar{s}_2) \frac{\theta}{2-\mu \eta^*} da_2,
\]

where:

\[
\bar{s}_1 = (1-\mu)\delta q \quad \text{and} \quad \bar{s}_2 = -(1-\mu \eta^*) \frac{\theta}{\beta}.
\]

As noted in the text, the formulae for the first-best optimal subsidies exactly reverse the results of Spencer and Brandt (1983): investment is subsidised when firms behave strategically but not otherwise; while exports are always taxed, though by less if the foreign firm behaves strategically. Finally, we can solve for the level of home investment:

\[
\hat{d}_i = \frac{\theta (3-2\mu \eta^*) \alpha - \beta (c_0 - c_0^*)}{4 - \eta - 2\mu \eta^*},
\]

Once again, this is independent of \(\mu\) when \(\eta^* = 0\), in accordance with Proposition 4. Comparing (47), investment is lower at the social optimum (\(\hat{d}_i > \hat{d}_2\)) when firms do not behave strategically (\(\mu = 1\)) but higher when they do (\(\mu = 2/3\)).

Figure 2 illustrates the special case where there is no foreign investment (so \(\eta^* = \theta^* = 0\)). The lower panel illustrates the home firm’s first-order condition for investment from (46), (translated into \((a_i, a_2)\) space by using the foreign firm’s first-order condition to eliminate \(b_2\)) with \(s_1 = 0\) and \(\mu\) equal to either unity (along KK) or 2/3 (along K’K’). The upper panel illustrates the price reaction functions from (45), with the appropriate values of \(a_i\) and \(s_i\) substituted to obtain the three home curves.
A.3 Derivation of $ds_2/da_1$

To calculate $ds_2/da_1$ in SE, we need to solve jointly all three first-order conditions in period 2: one each for the home firm, the foreign firm and the government. We must also consider the government's problem in detail, since its second-order condition implies a useful restriction. We simplify by ignoring the dependence of $R^2$ and $S^2$ on $a_1$; thus our results apply only to the cases of investment, learning by doing and natural resources of Sections 2.1 to 2.3. In addition, for convenience we suppress $b_1$ from all the functions, since we need consider only the home firm's behaviour.

Since the foreign firm is effectively passive in period 2, we may solve its first-order condition for its reaction function:

$$b_2 = \psi(a_2).$$  \hspace{1cm} (52)

Taking this into account but treating $a_1$ as predetermined, the government's problem is to maximise period-2 welfare:

$$\max_{a_2} W^2 = R^2[a_1, a_2, \psi(a_2)].$$  \hspace{1cm} (53)

This leads to the first-order condition (which in turn leads to (15) in the text):

$$\frac{dW^2}{ds_2} = \left[ R^2_2(a_1, a_2, \psi(a_2)) + R^2_2(a_1, a_2, \psi(a_2)) \cdot \psi(a_2) \right] \frac{da_2}{ds_2}. \hspace{1cm} (54)$$

Totally differentiating (54) and evaluating at the optimum gives the second-order condition for the government's maximisation problem:

$$\frac{d^2W^2}{ds_2^2} = \left[ R^2_2 + \psi(a_2) + (R^2_2 + \psi(a_2)) \psi(a_2) + R^2_2 \psi(a_2) \right] \left( \frac{da_2}{ds_2} \right)^2. \hspace{1cm} (55)$$

Hence, irrespective of the sign of $da_2/ds_2$, the second-order condition implies that the term in square brackets must be negative. Call this term $E$.

Now, totally differentiate the government's first-order condition from (54):

$$\frac{da_2}{ds_2} = -E^{-1} (R^2_2 + \psi(a_2)) \frac{da_1}{ds_2}. \hspace{1cm} (56)$$

Finally, totally differentiate the home firm's first-order condition $x^*_2=0$ to obtain:

$$\frac{(x^*_2)^2 + \psi(a_2)^2}{ds_2} = S^2_2 + (S^2_2 + \psi(a_2)) \frac{da_1}{ds_2} = 0. \hspace{1cm} (57)$$

and use (56) to eliminate $da_2$:

$$(-E)S^2_2 \frac{ds_2}{ds_2} = \left[ (R^2_2 + \psi(a_2))^2 \psi(a_2) + R^2_2 \psi(a_2)^2 - (S^2_2 + \psi(a_2))^2 \psi(a_2) \right] \frac{da_1}{ds_2}$$

$$- (\psi(a_2)^2 + \psi(a_2)^2) \psi(a_2) \psi(a_2) \psi(a_2) \psi(a_2) \psi(a_2). \hspace{1cm} (58)$$

This is the required expression for $ds_2/da_1$. The only general restrictions which apply are that $E$ is negative from the government's second-order condition, as already noted, and that the final bracketed expression on the right-hand side, $x^*_2+\psi(a_2)^2$, is negative from the stability of the period-2 game. We therefore turn to consider some special cases.

In Cournot competition a number of terms simplify: $S^2_2=0$, $R^2_2=-C_{a1}>0$ and $S^2_2=R^2_2=S^2_2=0$. If in addition we assume that products are homogeneous, standard properties of the revenue function are that $R^2_2=p_1(1+\alpha_2)\rho_1$ and $R^2_2=p_2(1+\alpha_2)\rho_2$, where $\alpha_2$ is the market share of the home firm, $p_1$ is the slope and $\rho_2=(a_2+b_2)p_2/p_1$ is the degree of concavity of the demand function. Hence (58) simplifies to:

$$(-E) \frac{ds_2}{da_1} = p_1^2 \psi(a_2)(1+\alpha_2)\rho_1 \psi(a_2) \psi(a_2) \psi(a_2) \psi(a_2) \psi(a_2)(-C_{a1}). \hspace{1cm} (59)$$

Since $p_1^2$, $\psi(a_2)$ and $C_{a1}$ are all negative, $ds_2/da_1$ is positive if and only if the expression in square brackets is positive, confirming Proposition 3 in Leahy and Neary (1998). With linear demands, $\rho_2=\psi(a_2)=0$, and the expression reduces to unity. More generally, there is

40
still a presumption that it is positive provided neither the demand function not the foreign reaction function is "too" convex.

In Bertrand competition, no terms disappear but we have a number of restrictions: \( \psi_{a_2} > 0 \), assuming prices are strategic complements; \( S_{a_2} = q_a^2 < 0 \), \( R_{a_2} = -C_a q_a^2 < 0 \) and \( R_{b_2} = -C_b q_b^2 < 0 \) (recalling that \( a_2 \) and \( b_2 \) are home and foreign prices respectively). With linear demands, (58) reduces to:

\[
(-E) \left( \frac{dR}{da_1} \right) = -q_a^2 \psi_{a_2} \left[ 1 + \frac{q_b^2}{q_a^2} \psi_{a_2} \right] (-C_a),
\]

where the slope of the foreign reaction function is: \( \psi_{a_2} = -q_a^2/2q_a^2 > 0 \). Assuming that own-price effects dominate cross-price effects, the right-hand side of (60) must be negative and so higher investment reduces the period-2 subsidy (or, rather, increases the period-2 tax). This continues to be the general presumption, as long as the second derivatives of the demand and foreign reaction functions do not dominate.

A.4 Strategic Effects with R&D Spillovers or Consumer Switching Costs

To derive the inter-firm strategic effect given in (21), we need to calculate the effects of period-1 actions on period-2 variables. Differentiating totally the two period-2 first-order conditions, \( \pi_2 = 0 \) and \( R_{b_2} = 0 \), yields:

\[
\begin{bmatrix}
\pi_{a_2}^2 & \pi_{a_2} \pi_{b_2} \\
R_{a_2}^2 & R_{b_2}^2
\end{bmatrix}
\begin{bmatrix}
d_a \\
d_b
\end{bmatrix}
= \begin{bmatrix}
-\pi_{a_2}^2 d_a + \pi_{a_2} d_b \\
R_{b_2}^2 d_a - R_{b_2} d_b
\end{bmatrix}
\]

Solving for \( db_2/da_1 \) gives:

\[
\Delta \frac{db_2}{da_1} = -\pi_{a_2}^2 R_{b_2} + \pi_{a_2}^2 R_{b_2}^2,
\]

with \( \Delta \) denoting the determinant of the coefficient matrix in (61). This leads to equation (21) in the text, where the term \( A \) is defined as:

\[
A = \frac{\pi_{a_2}^2 R_{b_2}}{\Delta}.
\]

The determinant is positive from stability of the period-2 game and the term \( \pi_{a_2}^2 \) is negative from the home firm's second-order condition. As for the other two terms in \( A \), they always differ in sign. If period-2 competition is Cournot, then \( \pi_{a_2}^2 < 0 \) (a rise in foreign output reduces home profits) and \( R_{b_2}^2 \) is positive (a rise in foreign investment tends to raise foreign output). Both signs are reversed in Bertrand competition. The net effect is therefore that \( A \) must be positive.
A.5 Second-Best Investment and Output Subsidies in Cournot Competition: Figure 3

Returning to the model of Section A.1, we wish to solve (42) for the optimal second-best subsidy loci given by (26) in the text. We concentrate on the GCE case (setting \( \mu=4/3 \)); the FCE case is qualitatively similar. First, to derive the second-best optimal export subsidy, we use the home first-order condition for investment from (38), with \( ds \), set equal to zero, to eliminate \( da_i \). This gives:

\[
\left. \frac{da_i}{da_2} \right|_{s_i} = \frac{48}{3\eta} \cdot (64)
\]

Substituting into (42) and replacing \( \bar{s}_1 \) and \( \bar{s}_2 \) by the first-best optimal subsidy formulae:

\[
s^*_2 = \bar{s}_2 - \frac{48}{3\eta} (s^*_1 - \bar{s}_1) = \frac{48}{3\eta} s_1 + \frac{27-8\eta(3-2\eta)}{18(3-2\eta)} \beta \alpha_2
\]

(65)

To final step is to express \( \beta_2 \) in terms of \( s_1 \) and \( s_2 \) and substitute into (65). An explicit expression for \( \beta_2 \) may be found by using (38) to eliminate \( \alpha_i \) and \( \beta_1 \) from (37) and solving:

\[
\Delta \beta_2 = 2(1-\frac{2}{3}\eta) [\alpha - c_0 + \frac{\Delta s_1}{3} + \Delta s_2] - (\alpha - c_0),
\]

where:

\[
\Delta = 4(1-\frac{2}{3}\eta)(1-\frac{2}{3}\eta) - 1.
\]

(66)

Combining (65) and (66), it can be checked that \( s^*_2 \) is declining in \( s_1 \) for admissible (i.e., low) values of \( \eta \) and \( \eta^* \).

Next, to calculate the second-best optimal investment subsidy, combine both foreign first-order conditions with the home first-order condition for output from (37), with \( ds \), set equal to zero, to obtain:

\[
\left. \frac{da_i}{da_1} \right|_{s_i} = \frac{2(3-2\eta^*)}{9-8\eta^*} \beta
\]

(67)

Using this to eliminate \( da_i \) from (42) as before gives the second-best optimal investment subsidy:

\[
s^*_1 = \bar{s}_1 \frac{2(3-2\eta^*)}{9-8\eta^*} \frac{\theta}{\beta} (s^*_2 - \bar{s}_2) = \frac{2(3-2\eta^*)}{9-8\eta^*} \theta \bar{s}_2 + \frac{8\eta^*}{9(9-8\eta^*)} \theta \alpha_2
\]

(68)

Once again, we need to eliminate \( \alpha_2 \) using (66), which shows that \( s^*_1 \) is also declining in \( s_2 \) for admissible (i.e., low) values of \( \eta \) and \( \eta^* \).

Figure 3 illustrates the symmetric case, \( \eta=\eta^* \) and \( c_0=c_0^* \), with the normalisation \( \beta=\theta=\alpha-c_0=1 \) and a common value for \( \eta \) of 0.2. No interior solution is possible in the blank regions, since either subsidies are sufficiently high to drive foreign output and investment to zero or taxes are sufficiently high to drive one or both of home output and investment to zero.

A.6 Second-Best Investment and Output Subsidies in Bertrand Competition: Figure 4

The steps in this derivation are identical to those in the Cournot case of Section A.5. Returning to the model of Section A.2, we wish to solve (49) for the optimal second-best subsidy loci given by (26) in the text, confining attention to the GCE case (where \( \mu=2/3 \)).

First, to derive the second-best optimal export subsidy, we use the home first-order condition for investment from (46), with \( ds \), set equal to zero, to eliminate \( da_i \). This gives:

\[
\left. \frac{da_i}{da_1} \right|_{s_i} = \frac{1}{3-\eta^*} \frac{\beta \theta}{\gamma}
\]

(69)

Substituting into (49) and replacing \( \bar{s}_1 \) and \( \bar{s}_2 \) by the first-best optimal subsidy formulae:
\[ s_2^* = \frac{28}{3\eta} (s_1 - \bar{s}) = \frac{28}{3\eta} s_1 - (9 - 2\eta - 6\eta^2) \eta \]  

(70)

As before, we need to express \( q \) in terms of \( s_1 \) and \( s_2 \). An explicit expression for \( q \) may be found by using (45) to eliminate \( a_i \) and \( b_i \) from (46), solving for \( a_j \) and \( b_j \), and then substituting into the demand function in (44):

\[
\Delta q = (3 - \frac{2}{\eta}) a_i - \beta(c_3 - c_0) + \beta(s_1 - s_2),
\]

where: \( \Delta = \frac{3 - \frac{2}{\eta}}{1}(\eta + \eta^2) \).

(71)

Combining this with (70), it can be checked that \( s_2^* \) is declining in \( s_1 \) for admissible (i.e., low) values of \( \eta \) and \( \eta^* \).

Next, to calculate the second-best optimal investment subsidy, combine both foreign first-order conditions with the home first-order condition for price from (45), with \( ds_2 \) set equal to zero, to obtain:

\[
\frac{d\Delta s_2}{ds_1} = \frac{2(3 - \eta)}{9 - 2\eta^*} \theta
\]

(72)

Using this to eliminate \( ds_2 \) from (49) as before gives the second-best optimal investment subsidy:

\[
s_1^* = \frac{28\theta}{9 - 2\eta^*} (s_2^* - \bar{s}) = -\frac{28\theta}{9 - 2\eta^*} s_2 - \frac{2(9 - 4\eta^2)}{3(9 - 2\eta^*)} \theta q
\]

(73)

Once again, we need to eliminate \( q \) using (71), which shows that \( s_2^* \) is also declining in \( s_1 \) for admissible (i.e., low) values of \( \eta \) and \( \eta^* \).

Figure 4 illustrates the symmetric case, \( \eta = \eta^* \) and \( c_0 = c_0' \), with the normalisation \( \beta = \theta = \alpha = 1 \) and a common value for \( \eta \) of 0.4.

References


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<th>Slope of Reaction Functions in Second Period</th>
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Table 1: Taxonomy of Strategic Effects and their Implications for Optimal Policy

C: Cournot (Output) Competition
B: Bertrand (Price) Competition
R&D: Research and Development
LBD: Learning by Doing
NR: Natural Resources
Fig. 1: Investment with Cournot competition: $a_1$ and $b_2$ are outputs; in free trade, strategic over-investment by the home firm shifts $OK$ to $OK'$ and $H$ to $H'$; optimal intervention $(x_1\neq 0, x_2<0)$ restores efficient investment but leads to still more output and investment along $H''$.

Fig. 2: Investment with Bertrand competition: $a_1$ and $b_2$ are prices; in free trade, strategic under-investment by the home firm shifts $KK$ to $KK'$ and $H$ to $H'$; optimal intervention $(x_1>0, x_2<0)$ restores efficient investment and may (but need not) lead to still higher prices and lower investment along $H''$. 
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