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Choosing between explicit cartel formation and tacit collusion – An experiment***Maximilian Andres**

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ABSTRACT

Numerous studies investigate which sanctioning institutions prevent cartel formation but little is known as to *how* these sanctions work. We contribute to understanding the inner workings of cartels by studying experimentally the effect of sanctioning institutions on firms' communication. Using machine learning to organize the chat communication into topics, we find that firms are significantly less likely to communicate explicitly about price fixing when sanctioning institutions are present. At the same time, average prices are lower when communication is less explicit. A mediation analysis suggests that sanctions are effective in hindering cartel formation not only because they introduce a risk of being fined but also by reducing the prevalence of explicit price communication.

Keywords: cartel, collusion, communication, machine learning, experiment**JEL Codes:** C92, D43, L41**Corresponding author:**

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1 Introduction

Modern competition law generally prohibits agreements among firms which target coordinated (pricing) behavior and joint profit maximization. For example, Article 101 of the Treaty on the Functioning of the [European Union \(2012\)](#), prohibits “all agreements between undertakings, decisions by associations of undertakings and concerted practices [...] which have as their object or effect the prevention, restriction or distortion of competition [...]”.¹ In contrast to this clear prohibition of explicit cartel formation, competition law does not have bite against tacitly collusive behavior, i.e. price coordination without accompanying evidence of agreements between the firms. Thus, the firms face a tradeoff between tacit collusion and an explicit cartel, where forming a cartel comes with the risk of being sanctioned while colluding tacitly is not risky in this respect but may be less effective in terms of coordination.²

In order to better understand why different sanctioning institutions are or are not effective in preventing cartel formation,³ it is important to understand how firms decide whether the risk of being sanctioned is worth the expected profit from forming a cartel or not. Economic theory is not very informative in this regards because it typically does not distinguish between an explicit cartel and tacit collusion ([Whinston, 2008](#)).⁴ Empirically, the firms’ decisions can be inferred from their communication with each other, because the

¹With the beginning of the new millennium, the [European Union \(2002\)](#) began to constantly refine Article 101 (formerly Article 81) from a rule-based approach to an effects-based approach ([European Commission, 2004, 2011](#); [European Court of Justice, 2004](#); [European Union, 2012, 2019](#)): while the rule-based approach makes the per se assumption that all agreements between undertakings harm social welfare, the effects-based approach prohibits only those agreements which indeed cause such harm (see [Chiriță, 2014](#); [Colomo, 2016](#); [European Commission, 2004](#); [European Court of Justice, 2004](#); [European Union, 2012](#); [Jones, 2006, 2010](#); [Jones and Kovacic, 2017](#); [Jones and Sufrin, 2016](#); [Kaplou, 2011](#); [Whelan, 2012](#)). The phrase *object* in Article 101 essentially allows authorities to assume that a proven agreement was *causal* for an observed distortion of competition without having to prove this causal relationship legally.

²The variety in communication observed in [Harrington Jr et al. \(2016\)](#), ranging from very implicit signals to highly explicit price communication, suggests that firms resolve this tradeoff between criminal liability and effectiveness of communication differently, depending on circumstances.

³Indeed, there are many studies in which sanctioning institutions did not hit their goal. For example, in the experimental studies by [Andersson and Wengström \(2007\)](#) and [Bigoni et al. \(2012\)](#) sanctions (implemented as a monetary cost of communication) reduce cartelization but tend to increase prices. [Hinloopen and Onderstal \(2014\)](#) report results from an experimental first price auction where a leniency rule increases the stability of cartels among the bidders, and [Berlin et al. \(2018\)](#) present empirical evidence on a poorly designed anti-corruption program that failed to reduce bribery. Similarly, in an experiment by [Fochmann et al. \(2020\)](#), audit systems with zero or low detection probability are shown to reduce honesty compared to a no-audit setting.

⁴For an approach to develop a specific theory of tacit collusion in an auction setting, see [Blume and Heidhues \(2008\)](#).

difference between a cartel and tacit collusion is – as we have argued above – a question of how explicitly firms communicate about coordinating their prices. However, the available empirical data provides a biased picture of the universe of cartels and, therefore, also of communication. While we have some information about legal cartels⁵ and on illegal cartels that were detected,⁶ evidence on illegal cartels that remain undetected by the authorities is largely lacking.

In this paper, we therefore use an experimental approach to study how communication between firms changes when explicit cartel formation is subject to sanctions. Experiments provide insights into otherwise unobserved aspects of cartels. In particular, we can observe the behavior of undetected cartels and obtain a complete record of the firms' price setting and communication. Firm communication can take different forms, ranging from very explicit price agreements (see examples reported by [Harrington Jr, 2006](#)) at the extreme to more or less tacit agreements, such as encoded messages hidden in footnotes (see, e.g., the examples in [Blume and Heidhues, 2008](#)) or encrypted price coordination via e-mail using a “socket code” ([Bundeskartellamt, 2011](#)). By encrypting and embedding their messages, firms presumably hope that any evidence produced will be insufficient to fine them because high prices alone without evidence on an accompanying agreement cannot be sanctioned. However, it seems likely that more tacit agreements are also less likely to yield stable price coordination because they are more susceptible to misunderstandings and because they do not reduce strategic uncertainty as much as explicit statements do. Thus, it is an open question which communication form firms would choose if facing this choice and how this affects the effectiveness of sanctioning institutions.

Our study furthers the understanding of how sanctioning institutions, communication between firms, and their price setting behavior interact. In our design, potential sanctions depend on both the content of communication and its effect on price setting, thereby substantially advancing the literature. In previous studies, the unanimous decision to communicate fully determined the risk of being fined (e.g. [Bigoni et al., 2012](#)), irrespective of the communication content and its effect on prices, which is not only in stark contrast to legal practice but is likely to also bias the results. To implement sanctions for illegal agreements in real time during the experiment, our experiment features a participant in

⁵In fact, in many countries, cartels were legal during most of the second half of the 20th century. Based on cartel registers that contain information on active and legal cartels and their activities, [Hyytinen et al. \(2018, 2019\)](#) and [Fink et al. \(2017\)](#) investigate how legal cartels in Finland and Austria operated.

⁶See, e.g., [Clark and Houde \(2014\)](#), [Harrington Jr \(2006\)](#), and [Genesove and Mullin \(2001\)](#).

the role of the competition authority, who is properly incentivized to judge communication content and price setting behavior of the firms.

We vary in a between-subjects design whether or not cartel formation is illegal and can be sanctioned. To evaluate differences in communication with and without the threat of sanctions for cartel formation, we organize the content of firms' chat communication using Latent Dirichlet Allocation, a machine learning technique. In particular, we develop a measure to quantify how explicitly firms communicate about forming a cartel. We then analyze how this quantitative measure of explicit cartel communication reacts to the presence of sanctioning institutions. Finally, we investigate the effect of the explicitness of communication on prices.

We find almost perfect adherence to the symmetric joint profit-maximizing price and very explicit communication in the treatment with unrestricted and unsanctioned communication. In contrast, in the presence of sanctioning institutions, fewer markets achieve this coordination and communication is less explicit. In particular, firms less often communicate about or even agree on specific prices when the competition authority may sanction cartel formation. Furthermore, we show that less explicit communication is also causal for less effective price coordination. On the basis of a mediation analysis, we find that about one fifth of the total effect of sanctioning institutions on market prices is driven by the inhibiting effect on explicit price communication.

The finding that there is a connection between communication and price levels is consistent with previous studies showing that firms coordinate on higher prices in treatments with unrestricted communication than in treatments without communication (see [Friedman, 1967](#); [Isaac et al., 1984](#); [Davis and Holt, 1998](#); [Apesteguia et al., 2007](#); [Cooper and Kühn, 2014](#); [Dijkstra et al., 2018](#)).⁷ In contrast to these previous studies, we keep the availability of communication constant and focus on the effect of sanctioning institutions on the way in which firms communicate. While previous studies modeled tacit collusion as coordinated behavior in the absence of any communication possibility, our design allows for tacit collusion while a communication channel is available, for instance in the form of highly implicit communication.

We also contribute to an emerging literature using machine learning techniques to evaluate communication in experiments. We use Latent Dirichlet Allocation (LDA, introduced

⁷Relatedly, [Fonseca and Normann \(2012\)](#), [Harrington Jr et al. \(2016\)](#), and [Garrod and Olczak \(2018\)](#) present experimental evidence that explicit cartel formation is most effective in sustaining collusive outcomes when conditions are adverse to tacit collusion, for example because of the market having many firms or the firms being asymmetric in costs or capacities.

by [Blei et al., 2003](#)), which is a topic modeling approach similar to the structural topic model (STM), which [Özkes and Hanaki \(2020\)](#) employ to compare communication among firms. To the best of our knowledge, ours is the first study using LDA to understand how communication affects behavior in experimental markets.⁸ We further use the relative rank differential statistic following [Huerta \(2008\)](#) that was employed in [Moellers et al. \(2017\)](#), [Odenkirchen \(2018\)](#), and [Fourberg \(2018\)](#) to analyze the communication content in different market settings by comparing word frequencies across treatments.

The paper proceeds as follow: We describe our experimental design in Section 2 and develop hypotheses in Section 3. We describe our analysis of communication in Section 4 and then present results on how sanctioning institutions affect both, the market outcome and communication among firms, in Section 5. We discuss our results and conclude in Section 6. An Appendix complements the paper with the theoretical background (A), the instructions for firms and authorities (B), the LDA results (C), and information on the original German communication content (D).

2 Experimental design and procedures

The experiment features two main treatments, the SANCTION treatment, where cartel formation is subject to sanctions, and the NOSANCTION treatment without any sanctioning institutions. In the treatment SANCTION, we further vary whether the first self-reporting firm in a cartel receives amnesty from any potential fine payment (LENIENCY) or not (FINE).⁹

General setup In each session, participants are matched in groups of three participants in NOSANCTION and four participants in SANCTION. In each group, three participants take the role of firms. In SANCTION, the fourth participant takes the role of the competition authority in their group. Role assignments and matching groups remain fixed throughout the repeated interaction described in Figure 1. Each group represents a market and interacts for at least 25 rounds as described below.

⁸In other fields, LDA was used to study for instance how transparency affects the deliberation of monetary policy makers ([Hansen et al., 2017](#)). The model has also proved useful for the prediction of armed conflicts or economic uncertainty based on newspaper articles (e.g., [Rauh, 2019](#); [Mueller and Rauh, 2018](#)). For an overview of the use of text as a data input into economic research see [Gentzkow et al. \(2019\)](#).

⁹We had already collected data for treatments FINE and LENIENCY when we started this project. The comparison between these two treatments is the subject of [Andres et al., 2019](#).

Stage 1	Stage 2	Stage 3	Stage 4	Stage 5
Chat (60 sec.)	Price setting (30 sec.)	Feedback 1 (15 sec.)	Control (180 sec.)	Feedback 2 (30 sec.)
- only in rounds 2 to end - chat window opens and closes automatically	- self-reporting option available	- information about all three prices - self-reporting option available, if the firm has not already reported in stage 2	- with 10% random control probability or after a report	- own profit since last control excl. and incl. fines - fine sizes and if a reduction was obtained (for each firm) - recap of all three prices

Figure 1: Timing of a round in the experiment.

Stage game In each round, firms simultaneously choose prices in a discrete Bertrand price-setting game with differentiated products.¹⁰ In this game, a price of three is the Nash equilibrium price and a price of nine is the symmetric joint profit maximizing price of the stage game. The firms are informed about each others' prices immediately after the price setting stage. Starting from round 2, participants in the role of firms can communicate via free form chat for 60 seconds before price setting takes place. The chat window opens automatically at the beginning of each round.¹¹ In NOSANCTION, a round is complete with communication and price setting.

In SANCTION, each round may also contain a control by the competition authority. A control can take place at random or by a self-report of a firm. The random detection probability is calibrated at 10% in each round and is independent of the firms' behavior.¹² Self-reports can be filed to the competition authority during price setting and then again during feedback. Self-reporting is not possible after an investigation has started.

If a control takes place, the participant in the role of the authority receives access to the history of chats and prices in their group. He or she judges if and for how long a cartel

¹⁰Our price-setting game and the payoff function for the firms are an adapted three-player version of the setup used by [Bigoni et al. \(2012\)](#). The details are contained in Appendix A.

¹¹Communication starts only from the second round on because we use the price level in the first round as a benchmark for price setting in the absence of communication.

¹²This number is consistent with actual cartel detection rates in the European Union between 1985 and 2009 as estimated in [Ormosi \(2014\)](#). We intentionally decided for a fixed control probability as opposed to one that is increasing with prices because the fixed control probability allows for a cleaner analysis of price setting behavior.

existed and decides about the extent of fines (0%, 50%, or 100%) for each of the three firms in the respective market. The experimental program takes this percentage value and the cartel duration as an input and applies it to the profits made by the firms' during the rounds that have passed since the last control; profits from past rounds are discounted linearly before the fine formula is applied. Participants again receive feedback about the three prices set in their market in the current round, their own profit, and – if applicable – about reporting decisions and realized fine payments.

Repetition Participants repeat the previously described interaction for a minimum of 25 rounds. From then on, the game ends with a probability of 1/3 after any round; with the complementary probability of 2/3 the game continues for another round. The expected duration of the interaction is 27 rounds. The random termination rule serves the purpose to blur the time horizon to minimize endgame effects.

Instructions and training Participants were informed about the relationship between their own and the other two firms' prices and their own profit by means of a profit table (cf. Appendix B). The instructions also provide a verbal description of the qualitative impact of own and others' prices on profits.¹³ To make sure that participants in the role of firms understand the relatively complex market interaction, they were given access to a computerized training tool before the start of the experiment. In the tool, they could enter their own price and two prices for their competitors and receive feedback on the resulting profits for as many price combinations as they desired.

Participants in the role of an authority received an information sheet explaining in detail when firm behavior is to be considered in violation of competition law and how the duration and severity of the infringement are determined.¹⁴ Further, participants in the role of a competition authority interacted with a training tool before the start of the experiment. In the tool, they had to judge three archetypical market constellations in exactly the way they had to during the actual experiment. Participants then received

¹³The mathematical specification that underlies our profit table is the same as the one stated in [Bigoni et al. \(2012\)](#). We round the resulting values to the next-lowest integer and divide all prices by two for the presentation in the profit table. This yields a table slightly different from the one in [Bigoni et al. \(2012\)](#).

¹⁴We had developed this information sheet together with the expert based on our joint experience from pilot sessions. We intentionally did not provide this information to participants in the role of firms, because we wanted to mimic real conditions in which most firms (except very large ones having their own legal department) are not aware of the precise legal situation.

feedback about the expert’s decision and an explanation for the correct judgments. The experiment only started if everyone had finished their use of the respective training tool.

Payment Participants in the role of firms were paid their cumulative earnings from the entire interaction, using an exchange rate of 1 Euro = 125 points. Stage payoffs are not discounted. Perfectly competitive behavior according to playing the Nash equilibrium of the stage game across all rounds would yield an expected 2700 points and a symmetric joint profit-maximizing cartel subject to the risk of being detected and fined would yield 4860 in expectation.

Participants in the role of the competition authority were paid based on the overlap of their judgment with the judgment of an expert in competition law, who we contracted for independently evaluating the chat messages and price setting behavior of the firms.¹⁵ In each control, the competition authority takes four decisions (size of the fine for firms 1, 2, and 3, duration of the cartel). We use a binary scoring rule to evaluate decisions. For each agreement with the expert, a participant in the role of the competition authority receives 900 points so that, in each control, he or she can make up to 3600 points. Authorities are paid the average number of points achieved per control, using the same exchange rate of 1 Euro = 125 points. In case no control ever takes place in his or her group, the respective authority receives a payoff of 15 Euros.

Participants in the role of a firm receive their payoff from the experiment and a show-up fee of 5 euros immediately after the experiment in cash. Participants in the role of the competition authority receive a show-up fee of 10 euros immediately after the experiment in cash and are paid their payoff from the controls 2-3 weeks after the experiment by bank transfer.

Procedures The experiment was programmed in z-Tree ([Fischbacher, 2007](#)). We collected our data with a total of 269 participants at the experimental laboratories at the University of Potsdam and at TU Berlin in February to July 2019. The participants were invited for the sessions through the regular invitation procedures of the respective laboratories using ORSEE ([Greiner, 2015](#)). Assignment to the different treatments was random in the sense that subjects signing up for a session did not know which treatment would be run. Our sample contains 23 independent markets in NOSANCTION, and 50 in SANCTION

¹⁵The expert is a PhD student writing a dissertation in the field of competition law and having practical experience in this area, too.

(split up into 23 in FINE and 27 in LENIENCY). All treatments were conducted balanced across the two involved laboratories in Potsdam and Berlin. On average each participant earned 36.73 Euro. The experiment was planned to last for a maximum of 2.5 hours. If the random continuation mechanism had not stopped the experiment during this time span, we would have manually stopped the experiment at this point in time. Participants were informed about this rule in the instructions. This event was unlikely and did not occur.

3 Hypotheses

The innovation of our project lies in allowing for free form communication and analyzing the content of communication. However, before turning to communication, we introduce two hypotheses regarding the direct economic effect of sanctioning institutions on the main economic variables in our setting – the extent of cartelization and average prices – which are crucial in assessing the effectiveness of sanctions.

Due to the risk of being fined, the incentive compatibility constraint for the symmetric collusive equilibrium is tighter and the critical discount factor higher with sanctioning institutions than without (see Appendix A). In fact, the critical discount factor of an infinitely repeated discounted game with punishment by Nash reversion is below the continuation probability of $2/3$ in the NOSANCTION treatment and above it in the SANCTION treatment, both with and without leniency, implying that in the abstract game without communication, perfect, symmetric collusion is an equilibrium only in the absence of sanctions. Therefore, we expect the extent of cartelization to be higher in NOSANCTION than in SANCTION. Further, we expect that average market prices move in parallel to cartelization rates because prices are lower in the absence of a cartel due to competitive price effects than in cartels who fix prices. With less cartelization as a response to the risk of being fined, averaged across all rounds, prices will then be lower in the presence of either type of sanctioning institutions than without. Further, collusion at a lower price relaxes the incentive compatibility constraint for collusion, which is more relevant in SANCTION treatments, where the critical discount factor at a price of nine exceeds the continuation probability (see Appendix A).

Hypothesis 1. *The extent of cartelization in rounds 2-25 is higher in NOSANCTION than in SANCTION.*

Hypothesis 2. *Average prices in rounds 2-25 are higher in NOSANCTION than in SANCTION.*

Our next hypothesis posits that the communication content exhibits treatment differences in line with those in cartelization rates and prices. We expect that sanctioning institutions make participants more careful in their statements because they will try to avoid punishment for explicit price coordination. Specifically, we expect fewer statements referring explicitly to setting specific supra-competitive prices and, in particular, to the joint profit maximizing price of 9 in the treatment with sanctioning institutions than in the one without.

Hypothesis 3. *Communication in NOSANCTION is more explicit about prices and about jointly maximizing profits than communication in SANCTION.*

Finally, we also investigate to what extent more explicit communication *causally* drives higher cartelization rates and prices. We expect that explicit communication is more effective in coordinating and raising prices than less explicit statements, irrespective of the treatment condition.

Hypothesis 4. *Prices are higher and there is more cartelization with explicit communication than when communication is less explicit.*

4 Evaluating communication

Before we test our hypotheses, let us first explain how we analyze our communication data. Ultimately, we are interested in the role communication plays for cartel formation. This analysis goes far beyond the classification of whether a specific group in the experiment formed a cartel or not because it aims at understanding the patterns of communication. While the judgment whether a cartel exists or not is done by humans both in the real world (by judges at a court) and in our experiment (by the experimental competition authority and the expert), a deeper understanding of communication patterns and a formal test of the related hypotheses require a comprehensive text analysis to map the recorded open chat communication from our experiment into quantified data about the topics discussed in the chat.

Quantifying communications data is a challenging task that received attention in a variety of disciplines, including economics. The reliance on human raters to hand-code

text is the most commonly used approach in the field of experimental economics. In these studies, categories are defined first, either based on an in-depth-analysis of parts of the data (e.g. [Cooper and Kagel, 2005](#)), using external experts (e.g. [Coffman and Niehaus, 2015](#)), or on the basis of coordination games (e.g. [Houser and Xiao, 2011](#)). Then, the entire data set is coded into these categories either by human raters or – less often – using supervised machine learning techniques as in [Penczynski \(2019\)](#).

As they rely on predefined categories, these approaches may be subject to biases introduced in the definition of categories. Therefore, we use an unsupervised machine learning algorithm that does not rely on any pre-classification of text by the researchers (or others who are contracted by the researchers). This unsupervised machine learning algorithm is fed with unclassified text data and uncovers hidden patterns in the form of meaningful word groupings that form the topics of communication.¹⁶

4.1 Text corpus

The starting point for our analysis is the entire chat communication from our experimental sessions. We take each group chat, i.e., all messages sent in a specific group throughout rounds 2 to 25, as a separate document. Thus, we have 73 separate documents, which together form the corpus for the analysis. As a first step, we process the text data in the corpus by (1) correcting spelling mistakes, (2) eliminating ‘stopwords’, i.e. words that appear frequently in all texts but have no meaningful content,¹⁷ and (3) reducing the remaining words to their linguistic roots ([Hansen et al., 2017](#)).¹⁸ The processed corpus of the communication data consists of 19888 tokens in total and contains 3547 unique tokens. In most cases, such tokens are equivalent to words in the document, but a token can also be, e.g., a number.

At an abstract level, this corpus of communication data can be represented in a 73 by 3547 document-term matrix, where the element (d, v) of the matrix gives the number of times that the v^{th} unique token appeared in d^{th} group chat. This matrix representation

¹⁶[Brandts et al. \(2019\)](#) provide an overview of laboratory experiments with communication. [Özkes and Hanaki \(2020\)](#) discuss the different methods for making sense of chat data. Their study is also the only one we are aware of that uses an unsupervised algorithm in an experiment.

¹⁷English examples are ‘the’ or ‘at’. We added tokens typical for chat messages in German to the list of stopwords provided by [Feinerer et al. \(2008\)](#) such as ‘wat’ meaning ‘what’ in Berlin and Brandenburg.

¹⁸This procedure is called ‘stemming’. For example, ‘preference’ and ‘prefers’ becomes ‘prefer’. To *stem* words we use the standard *R* package *SnowballC* published by [Bouchet-Valat \(2019\)](#).

has a high sparsity of 96 percent so that it is key to reduce the dimensionality of the data for further analysis.¹⁹

4.2 LDA model

Intuitively speaking, the LDA procedure assumes that the content of each text document is a collection of tokens. The LDA assumes further that each document is a mixture of topics and that topics are characterized by a distribution of tokens. More technically speaking, the LDA that we conduct uses Dirichlet priors for the distributions of tokens over topics and for the distribution of topics over documents²⁰, and it then uses the observed distribution of tokens over documents and a Gibbs Sampling procedure²¹ to generate posterior distributions of tokens over topics and of topics over documents (see [Blei et al., 2003](#); [Griffiths and Steyvers, 2004](#); [Hansen et al., 2017](#)).²²

A challenge for any LDA lies in choosing the dimensionality of the latent space, in our case the number of topics K . We rely on the ‘perplexity score’ from cross-validation as a goodness-of-fit measure to determine the appropriate number of topics ([Newman et al., 2009](#)).²³ Figure 2 illustrates this score for up to 100 topics. The solid line in Figure 2 depicts the average of a 5-fold cross-validation of the model, where 80% of the data are used to train a model that predicts the remaining 20%, in a round-robin sequence. Lower values of the perplexity score indicate a better fit in out-of-sample prediction. If we would choose too few topics, the estimated topics may mix underlying content, which would result in a poor model fit, corresponding to a high perplexity score. As the number of topics increases, the

¹⁹Compared to previous studies, our document-term matrix is not that sparse. We attribute the “low” sparsity to the fact that we have a homogeneous group of participants facing the same controlled experimental situation so that it is likely that their vocabulary is very similar.

²⁰The Dirichlet priors we use assign probabilities to tokens over topics in such a way that in each topic few tokens occur with high probability and many other tokens occur with low probability. For the topic-per-document distribution, the Dirichlet prior we use similarly assigns probabilities such that in each document few topics occur with high probability and many other topics occur with low probability. Such distributions are very typical for all kinds of text data ([Griffiths and Steyvers, 2007](#)).

²¹Gibbs Sampling is a form of Markov chain Monte Carlo to obtain sampled values that approximate a target distribution. The method is used when direct sampling is difficult. Broadly speaking, Gibbs Sampling starts with a random token-topic assignment. Then, it picks each token and estimates the probabilities that this token belongs to each topic *conditioning on all other current token-topic assignments*. The resulting new token-topic assignments are the starting point for the next “round” of the estimation procedure (see [Griffiths and Steyvers, 2007](#); [Hornik and Grün, 2011](#)).

²²We adopt the LDA implemented in the *R* package *topicmodels* by [Hornik and Grün \(2011\)](#) and use the suggested values from [Griffiths and Steyvers \(2004\)](#) for the parametrization of the model.

²³The perplexity score is computed as the geometric mean per-word likelihood, a standard measure in the machine learning literature.

perplexity score decreases because finer grained topics better approximate the true data. However, if we choose too many topics, they might become very specific to a particular group and be more difficult to interpret (Chang et al., 2009; Hansen et al., 2017). The statistically optimal number of topics lies at the point where adding one more topic does not reduce the perplexity significantly further. In Figure 2, this corresponds to the number of topics where the solid line becomes horizontal. The resulting number of topics that we use for modeling the topics of the chat communication is $K = 25$.

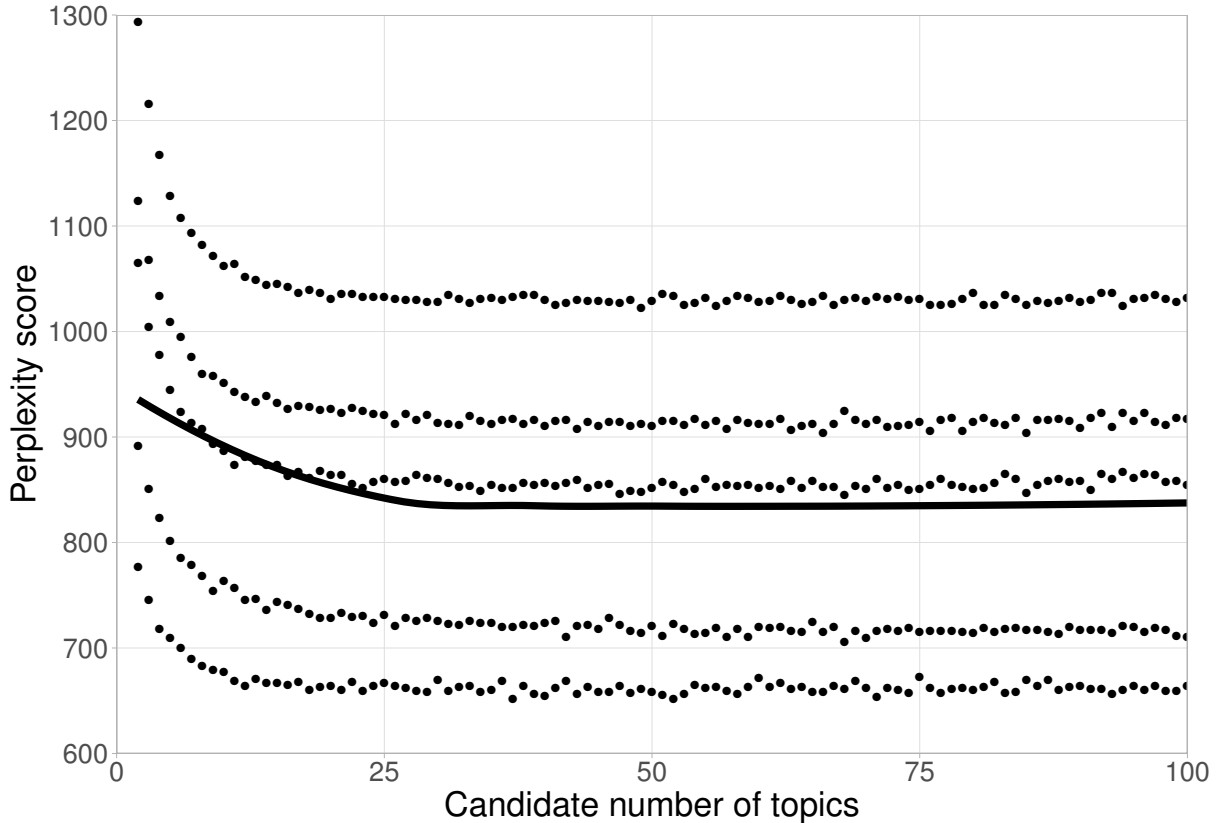


Figure 2: Perplexity score when fitting the trained model to the hold-out set.

4.3 Estimated topics and explicit communication

Next, we let the LDA estimate the posterior distributions of tokens over topics for $K = 25$.²⁴ Each topic thereby corresponds to a probability vector over the 3547 unique tokens from

²⁴We also ran the LDA with fewer topics but did not find that this improved the interpretability of topics, which would have justified a deviation from the statistically optimal number of topics according to Blei (2012).

the processed corpus telling us how likely it is that a specific token is used in a given topic.²⁵ The LDA also provides us with a representation of how much of the communication in a given group chat can be attributed to each of the inferred 25 topics. The representation comes in form of the estimated posterior distribution of the 25 topics over the 73 documents or group chats.²⁶

As hypotheses 3 and 4 refer to the use of explicit communication about collusive practices, we screen the estimated topics for evidence of such explicitness and concentrate on only those topics for all further steps of our analysis. Based on the pre-registration of this study, we define a topic as evidence of explicit cartel formation if the joint profit maximizing price of nine (or ‘9’) appears in the top ten list of tokens of the respective topic. Following this definition, two out of the 25 topics are identified as referring explicitly to cartel formation. Figure 3 summarizes key information for the two explicit topics.²⁷

Figure 3b reveals that topic 18 consists of a group of tokens related to setting the joint-profit maximizing price (‘9’), to obtain higher earnings (‘get’, ‘remain’, ‘more’, ‘euro’) from the duration of the experiment (‘round’, ‘25’, ‘hour’), and some notion of understanding (‘exact’). We, therefore, label this topic *Explicit*. In topic 3, depicted in Figure 3a, the joint-profit maximizing price is ranked fifth and grouped together with several other prices (‘12’, ‘7’, ‘8’, ‘10’) surrounding the symmetric collusive price and with the number 2, which probably relates to the suggestion of raising the price by 2.²⁸ These tokens clearly belong to explicit price-fixing agreements and yield supracompetitive profits. Further, this topic contains a strong notion of agreement (‘okay’, ‘yes’). Therefore, we label this topic *Explicit Agreement*.

5 Effects of sanctioning institutions

In this section, we first analyze how the presence of sanctioning institutions affects market outcomes, specifically the cartelization rate and average market prices. We then continue to investigate the differences in communication depending on the presence of sanctioning

²⁵Figure 9 in Appendix C shows the estimated distributions for all 25 topics.

²⁶Figure 10 in Appendix C illustrates the distributions of topics over groups separately for each treatment.

²⁷The algorithm numbered these two topics as topics 3 and 18. In order to facilitate the comparison with Figures 9 and 10 in Appendix C, we maintain this numbering here.

²⁸In the absence of collusion, markets are typically not fully competitive but many markets have prices of around 6 to 7 in early rounds so that raising the price by 2 would get the market close to the symmetric collusive outcome.

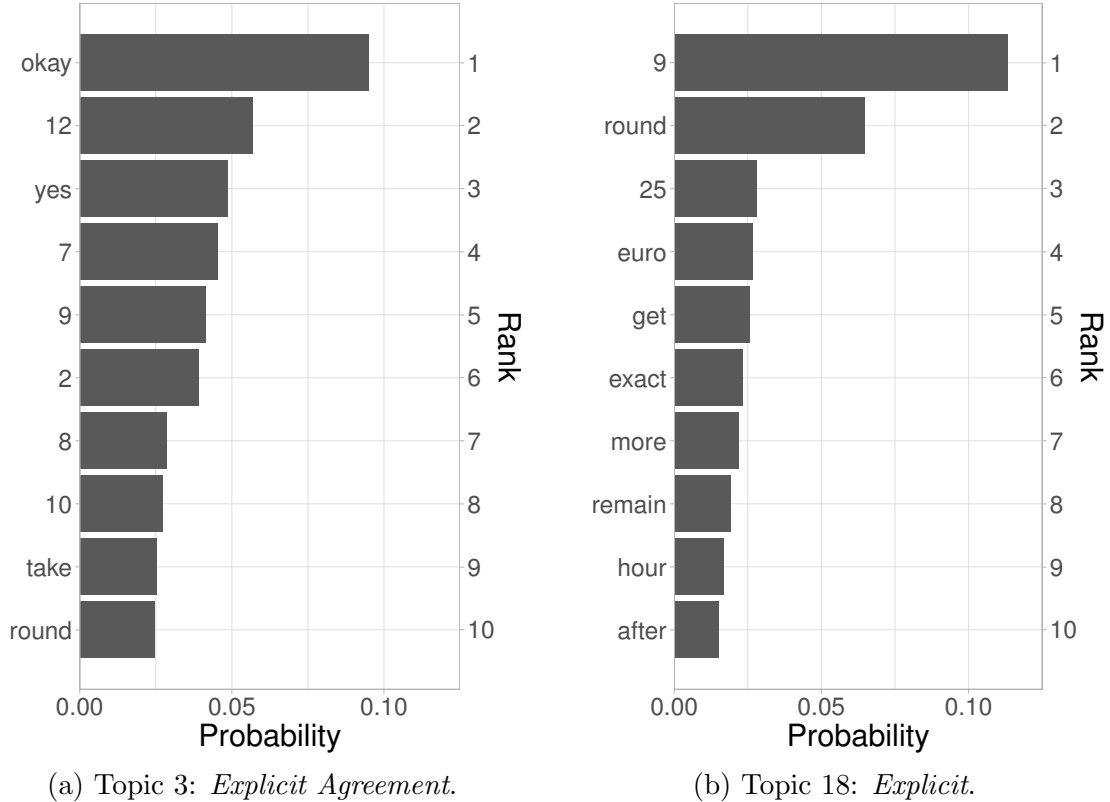


Figure 3: Top ten token probabilities per explicit topic. The rank of a given token within the topic is given on the y -axis, the estimated probability of a token within the topic is given by the length of the bar on the x -axis.

institutions. Finally, we study whether there is a causal link from the extent of explicit communication to anticompetitive market outcomes.

For the following analysis, we restrict ourselves to the data from rounds 2 to 25. We use this restriction because these rounds are played in all sessions and thus allow for the cleanest treatment comparison. From round 25 onward, the game ends with a probability of 33% after each round, so that the number of rounds played after 25 differs across markets. In the first round, there was no communication stage.

In [Andres et al. \(2019\)](#), we study the effect of a leniency rule on cartelization and prices. As we have not found significant differences in cartelization or average market prices between FINE in LENIENCY there, we pool the data from these two treatments under the joint name SANCTION when comparing market outcomes to the NOSANCTION treatment in Section 5.1. When we turn to analyzing the communication content in Section 5.2, we will provide statistical test results both for NOSANCTION vs. the pooled SANCTION data

and for the separate comparisons between NOSANCTION and FINE or LENIENCY because we did not analyze communication patterns in [Andres et al. \(2019\)](#) and, thus, cannot be sure that there are no differences in communication patterns between these subtreatments.

5.1 Market outcomes

Cartelization In order to examine how the risk of sanctions affects the extent of cartelization in an average market, we compare the ratio of rounds in which a cartel existed across treatments. Our measure for the extent of cartelization is based on the judgment of the expert. As the expert classified individual cartelization per round into three categories (0%, 50%, or 100%), we can build two different measures of cartelization. We compute the extent of cartelization as a weighted ratio where the three categories of cartelization are used to weight the cartelization per round. This weighting accounts for the fact that anticompetitive behavior may be more or less severe. This weighted ratio provides a more precise measure of cartelization and therefore, we use it as our primary measure. However, also less severe cartels are cartels, which speaks for a binary measure where anticompetitive behavior, irrespective of the severity of an infringement, is treated as a cartel. Therefore, we also report treatment comparisons based on the unweighted extent of cartelization, considering this as our secondary measure for the extend of cartelization.²⁹

We find that the average weighted cartelization ratio is 0.95 in NOSANCTION ($N = 23$, $SD = 0.11$) and 0.33 in SANCTION ($N = 50$, $SD = 0.29$). The difference is statistically significant ($p < 0.001$).³⁰ Figure 4 illustrates this finding. The result is very similar if we instead consider the unweighted expert judgment. In this case, we observe on average a cartelization rate of 0.97 in NOSANCTION ($N = 23$, $SD = 0.1$) versus 0.41 in SANCTION ($N = 50$, $SD = 0.32$). The difference is again statistically significant ($p < 0.001$). Thus, our data clearly supports Hypothesis 1 that sanctioning institutions reduce cartelization.

²⁹We use the expert judgment and not the judgment of the participant in the role of a competition authority in the experiment because we believe that the former is more reliable. There is considerable overlap between the two judgments: if we consider the binary judgment of whether or not a firm participated in a cartel, participants in the role of the competition authority come to the same judgment as the expert in 76.49% of the cases. If we consider the weighted judgment, which takes into account the severity of an infringement, and the duration of a cartel, the overlap between participant and expert judgment still amounts to 61.05%.

³⁰If nothing else is stated, all p-values reported in this paper refer to the results of a two-sided Wilcoxon-Mann-Whitney test.

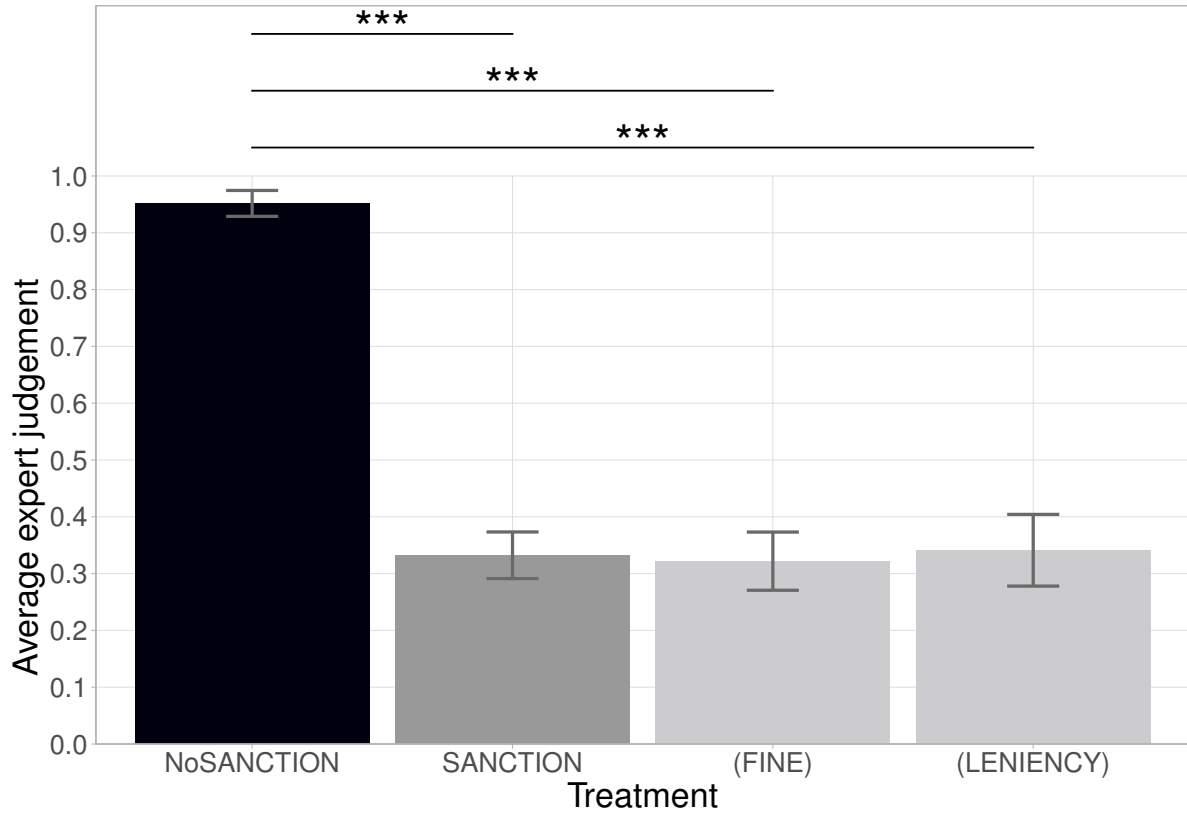


Figure 4: Ratio of rounds characterized by a cartel according to the expert judgment split up by treatment; averages are taken over group averages and are based on the weighted expert judgment that reflects the severity of the cartel. '***' shows statistical significance at the 1% level. Error bars indicate standard errors.

Prices We average prices per market over time in rounds 2 to 25 and then test whether the average market prices differ between the two treatments. Prices are substantially higher in NOSANCTION with an average of 8.84 points ($N = 23$, $SD = 0.45$) than in SANCTION, where we observe an average price of 6.64 points ($N = 50$, $SD = 1.26$). The difference is statistically significant ($p < 0.001$). Hence, our data supports Hypothesis 2 that prices are higher in NOSANCTION than in SANCTION. Figure 5 illustrates that this difference persists also at the level of the individual round and does not change over time.

Even if we restrict attention to cartel phases, sanctioning institutions have a significantly negative effect on prices. The average cartel price of 8.97 points in NOSANCTION is significantly higher than the average cartel price of 7.84 points in SANCTION (NoSanction: $N = 23$, $SD = 0.25$; Sanction: $N = 50$, $SD = 1.06$; $p < 0.001$). Thus, even conditional on

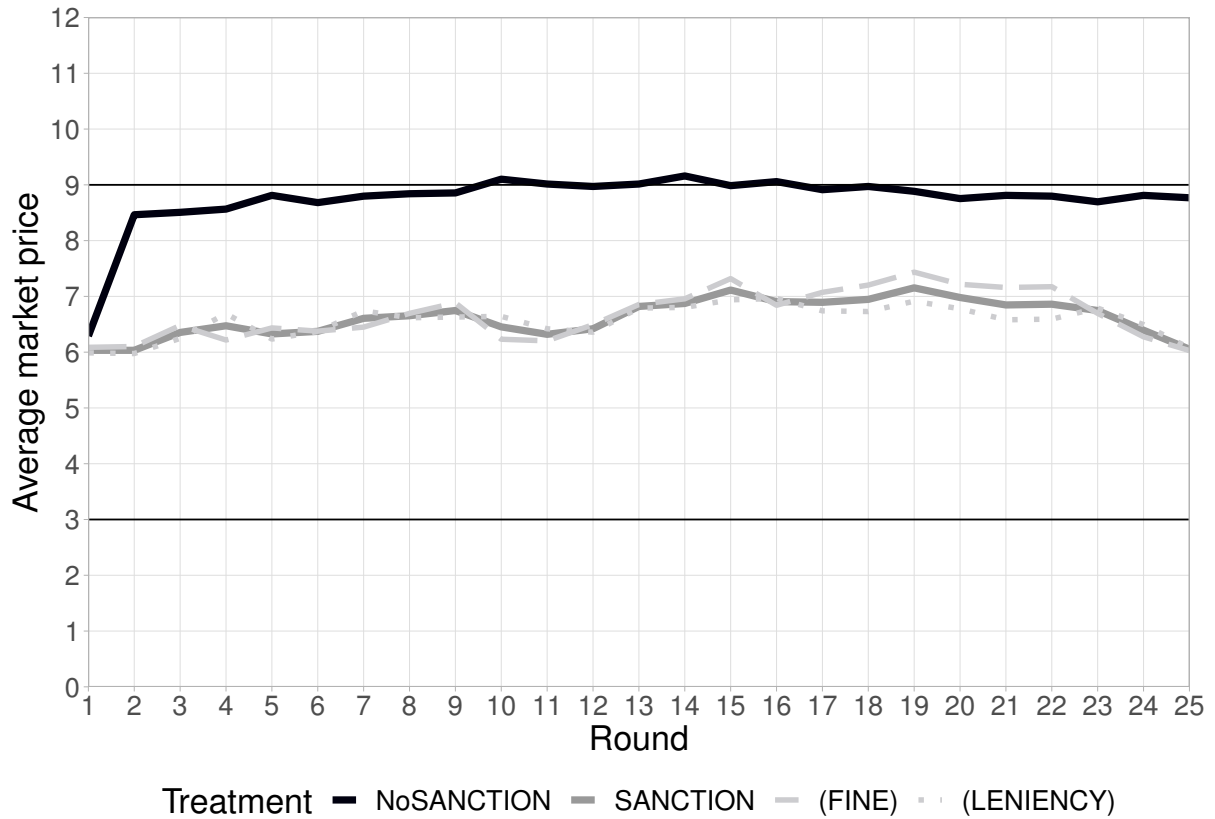


Figure 5: Average market prices over time split up by treatment. Nine is the joint profit maximizing price and three the Nash equilibrium price of the stage game.

firms engaging in anticompetitive behavior, the infringements are less harmful to consumer surplus in the presence of sanctioning institutions.

5.2 Sanctioning institutions and communication

We now analyze the effect of sanctioning institutions on the extent of communication that is explicit about forming a cartel, using the classification of the chat data and the definition of explicit communication from Section 4. To test whether there are differences in explicit cartel agreements during the communication, we compare the average posterior probabilities of the topics *Explicit* and *Explicit Agreement* across treatments. Figure 6

illustrates these posteriors. It can be seen that the extent of explicit cartel formation is far greater in NOSANCTION than in the treatments with sanctioning institutions.³¹

Indeed, formal tests on our data fully support Hypothesis 3 that communication in NOSANCTION is more explicit about prices than communication in SANCTION. The average posterior probability of the topic *Explicit* is 0.15 in NOSANCTION ($N = 23$, $SD = 0.09$) and 0.04 in SANCTION ($N = 50$, $SD = 0.03$); these averages differ significantly from each other ($p < 0.001$).³² Similarly, the average posterior probability of the topic *Explicit Agreement* is 0.18 in NOSANCTION ($N = 23$, $SD = 0.16$) and thereby significantly higher than the probability of only 0.05 in the SANCTION data ($N = 50$, $SD = 0.05$; $p < 0.001$).³³ Also when we consider the total amount of explicit communication by summing up the average posterior probabilities of *Explicit* and *Explicit Agreement*, we find that the average posterior probability of such explicit communication is significantly higher in NOSANCTION with 0.32 ($N = 23$, $SD = 0.14$) than in SANCTION with 0.09 ($N = 50$, $SD = 0.06$; $p < 0.001$).³⁴ Thus, in line with Hypothesis 3, our results show that communication is referring more explicitly to cartel formation without sanctioning institutions than with an antitrust authority that may sanction such agreements.

We further note that groups appear to use explicit communication slightly more often in LENIENCY than in FINE (see right panel *Explicit Agreement* in Figure 6) but the difference fails to reach significance at reasonable levels ($p = 0.79$). The probability of the topic *Explicit* is statistically indistinguishable between LENIENCY and FINE ($p = 1$).

5.3 Communication and price setting

We finally turn to investigating whether and to what extent the content of communication affects prices. As stated in Hypothesis 4, we expect average prices to be higher with explicit communication than when communication is less explicit. As the presence of sanctioning

³¹Note that the relatively small numbers are standard for communication data. Common estimates suggest that about 75% of all communication does not relate to the main theme of the conversation (see Dunbar, 1998).

³²The average posterior probability of the topic *Explicit* is 0.04 in FINE ($N = 23$, $SD = 0.03$) and 0.04 in LENIENCY ($N = 27$, $SD = 0.02$). Both values differ significantly from the value in NOSANCTION (in either test, $p < 0.001$).

³³The average posterior probability of the topic *Explicit Agreement* is 0.05 in FINE ($N = 23$, $SD = 0.02$) and 0.06 in LENIENCY ($N = 27$, $SD = 0.06$). Again, also these separate values are significantly different from the value in NOSANCTION (in either test, $p < 0.001$).

³⁴The average posterior probability of explicit communication is 0.09 in FINE ($N = 23$, $SD = 0.04$) and 0.10 in LENIENCY ($N = 23$, $SD = 0.07$), which is in both cases significantly different from the average in NOSANCTION ($p < 0.001$).

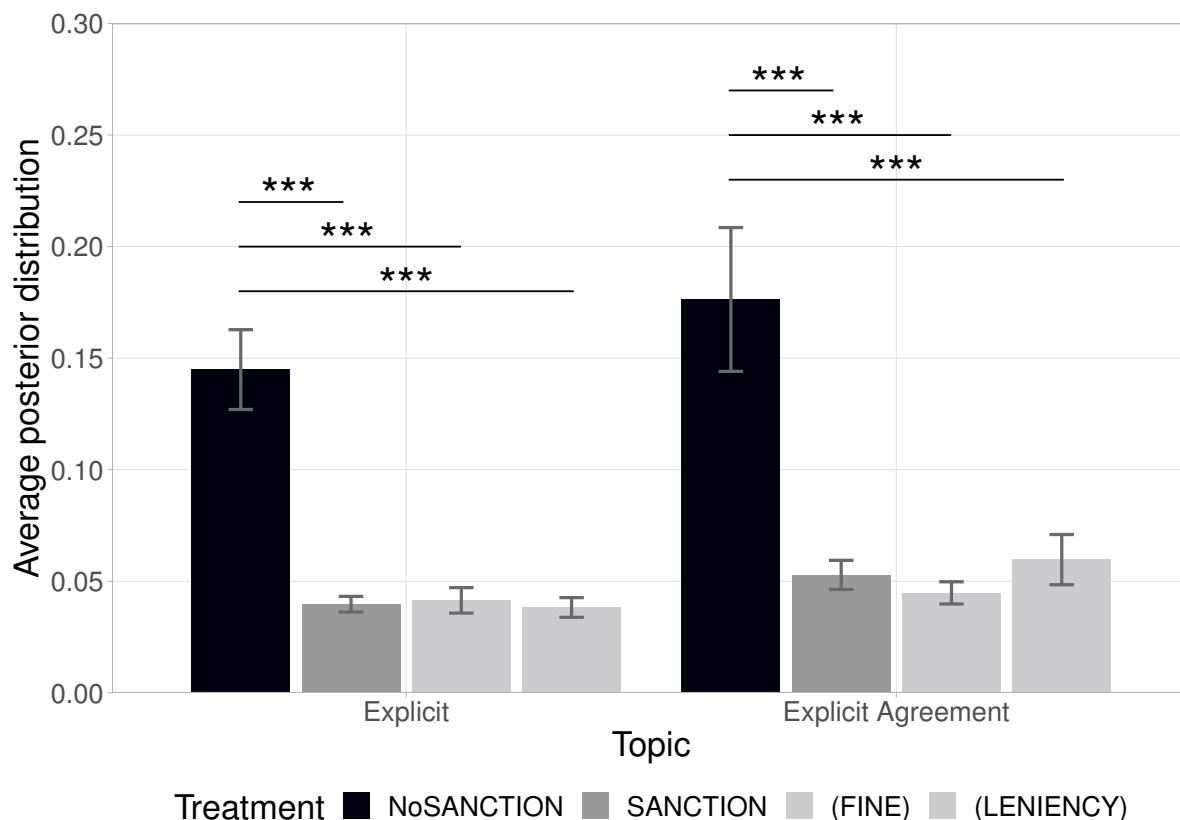


Figure 6: Average posterior distribution per topic and treatment. ‘***’ shows statistical significance at the 1% level. Error bars indicate standard errors.

institutions is likely to affect both, the way in which firms communicate with each other and their price setting behavior, we use complementary approaches to shed light on the effect of communication on price setting. First, we restrict attention to the SANCTION treatment and, thereby, hold constant the presence of sanctioning institutions so that we engage in a *ceteris paribus* comparison of prices in markets with more or less explicit communication. Second, we apply causal mediation analysis (Imai et al., 2010, 2011, 2013) on the full sample to estimate how much of the treatment effect of sanctioning institutions (treatment variable) on prices (outcome variable) is driven by their effect on communication (mediator variable).³⁵ Third, we compare prices in the first round (without communication) to those in the second round (with communication).

³⁵For the application of a causal mediation analysis in an experimental setting, the following assumptions have to hold: (1) The treatment variable is randomized. (2) The mediator and outcome variables are observed without any intervention of the experimenter. Both assumptions are satisfied in our experimental design.

First, we consider only data from the SANCTION treatment. We compute the share of communication in a market that can be attributed to both explicit cartel formation topics according to the LDA and split the sample at the median. We then compare average prices in markets with above-median levels of explicit communication to average prices in markets with below-median levels of explicit communication. In line with Hypothesis 3, the average price in markets with above-median levels of explicit communication (7.01 points, $N = 25$, $SD = 1.14$) is significantly higher than in markets with below-median levels of explicit communication (6.27 points, $N = 25$, $SD = 1.29$; $p = 0.05$).³⁶

Second, we run a causal mediation analysis on the full sample to estimate how explicit communication mediates the effect of sanctioning institutions on price setting behavior. We find that the presence of sanctioning institutions decreases the market price directly by 1.82 points on average (95% Confidence interval lower = -2.44 , upper = -1.2). The direct effect is statistically significant ($p < 0.001$) and accounts for 82.63% of the total effect on prices of 2.2 points on average (95% Confidence interval lower = -2.6 , upper = -1.81). In addition, the presence of sanctioning institutions has an indirect effect through a change in communication. We find that the drop in explicit communication caused by the presence of sanctioning institutions decreases the market price by an additional 0.39 points on average (95% Confidence interval lower = -0.91 , upper = 0.05). This mediator effect accounts for 17.53% of the total effect of sanctioning on prices and is marginally statistically significant ($p = 0.09$).³⁷ Figure 7 illustrates this result.

A final piece of evidence concerning the effect of communication on prices comes from a comparison of prices in the first round without any communication to those in the second round, where communication sets in. While average prices increase sharply between these two rounds in NOSANCTION, they do not change in SANCTION as can be seen in Figure 5. In NOSANCTION, the average market price of 6.29 points ($N = 23$, $SD = 1.1$) in the first round increases significantly to 8.46 points ($N = 23$, $SD = 1.18$) in the second round ($p < 0.001$). In contrast, average market prices in SANCTION do not change significantly between the first (6.03, $N = 50$, $SD = 1.04$) and the second round (6.03, $N = 50$,

³⁶We focus on average prices rather than on cartelization rates here because the expert judgment underlying the cartelization measure relies in part on the content of the firms' communication. Thus, by construction, the cartelization measure should correlate with the communication content. The results look very similar if we compare cartelization rates instead of average prices for the same median split. Average cartelization in SANCTION is 0.44 ($N = 25$, $SD = 0.27$) when explicit communication exceeds the median level and it is 0.23 ($N = 25$, $SD = 0.28$) when explicit communication is below the median. This difference is statistically significant ($p = 0.008$), indicating that explicit communication drives cartelization.

³⁷Percentage shares are computed with the original unrounded effects.

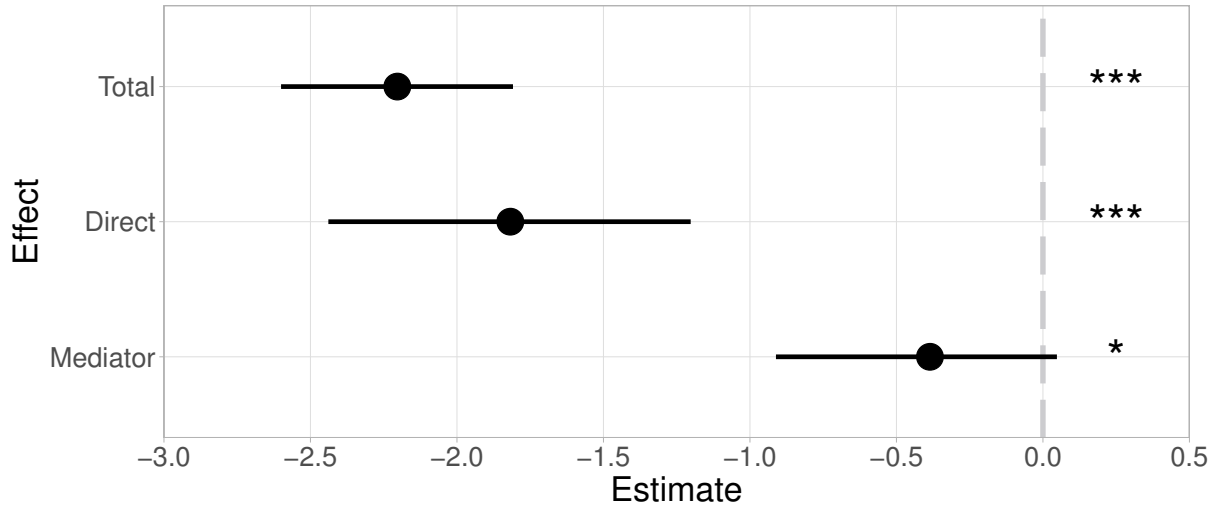


Figure 7: Average causal mediation analysis: Sanctioning institution (treatment), price setting (outcome) and explicit communication (mediator). Lines indicate 95% Confidence interval. '*' shows statistical significance at the 10% level, '**' shows statistical significance at the 5% level and '***' at the 1% level.

$SD = 1.55$; $p = 0.7$).³⁸ Thus, communication in SANCTION appears to be too indirect to allow firms to coordinate on jointly optimal price setting right away, implying that prices do not increase above the first round benchmark without communication.

These three complementary approaches all show that explicit communication has a small but significant effect on average market prices. Hence, our data supports Hypothesis 4 that average market prices are higher with explicit communication than when communication is less explicit.

5.4 Indirect communication

In the previous subsections, we focused on the prevalence of communication that explicitly attempts to coordinate on a specific price. To complement those analyses, we now explore alternative communication patterns that are not accounted for by the focus on explicit communication. As we have seen that explicit communication differs substantially between

³⁸While average market prices in the first round do not differ significantly between NOSANCTION and SANCTION ($p = 0.3$), the price setting differs significantly between the treatments as soon as communication sets in ($p < 0.001$).

treatments with and without sanctioning institutions, we use the same between-treatment comparison for the study of all other communication.

In Figure 8, we depict the 50 most frequent tokens in treatments NOSANCTION and SANCTION and their relative rank differential (see [Huerta, 2008](#); [Fischer and Normann, 2019](#); [Özkes and Hanaki, 2020](#)).³⁹ Following [Fischer and Normann \(2019\)](#), we define tokens as substantially more frequent in one treatment than in another if the relative rank statistic is larger than or equal to one. The following tokens, which appear to the lower left of the shaded area in Figure 8 are substantially more frequent in SANCTION (relative rank differential in brackets): authority (83.27), price (4.24), yet (3.67), higher (2.67), experiment (1.9), good (1.75), go (1.55), profit (1.06) and round (1). Some of these tokens, e.g., 'higher,' 'price,' and 'profit,' relate to coordination but only indirectly in the sense that they do not refer to a specific price level.

Thus, apparently, firms in SANCTION still attempt coordination but they turn to more indirect expressions that they may perceive as less likely to be fine-relevant instead of relying on explicit communication that is very prominently and effectively used by firms in NOSANCTION. Our analysis of average market prices in the preceding subsection indicates that indirect communication is sufficient to keep average market prices at the level observed in the first round. This result is also interesting and suggest some effect of indirect communication because previous studies show that firms tend to converge downward to Nash pricing in the absence of communication. However, indirect communication is apparently insufficient to sustain cooperation at or close to the joint-profit-maximizing price of nine. With respect to the question of “how indirect can communication be and still be reasonably effective?”, raised by [Harrington Jr et al. \(2016\)](#), our experiment suggests that effective coordination needs explicitness. Already moderate sanctions are sufficient to make communication sufficiently indirect to deter immediate cartel formation and to keep market prices down.

³⁹We compute the relative rank differential for treatment SANCTION as $\frac{r_{NoS}-r_S}{r_S}$, where r_{NoS} and r_S indicate the rank of a word in treatment NOSANCTION and SANCTION, respectively, with the most frequently used word having rank 1. The relative rank differential for treatment NOSANCTION is defined analogously.

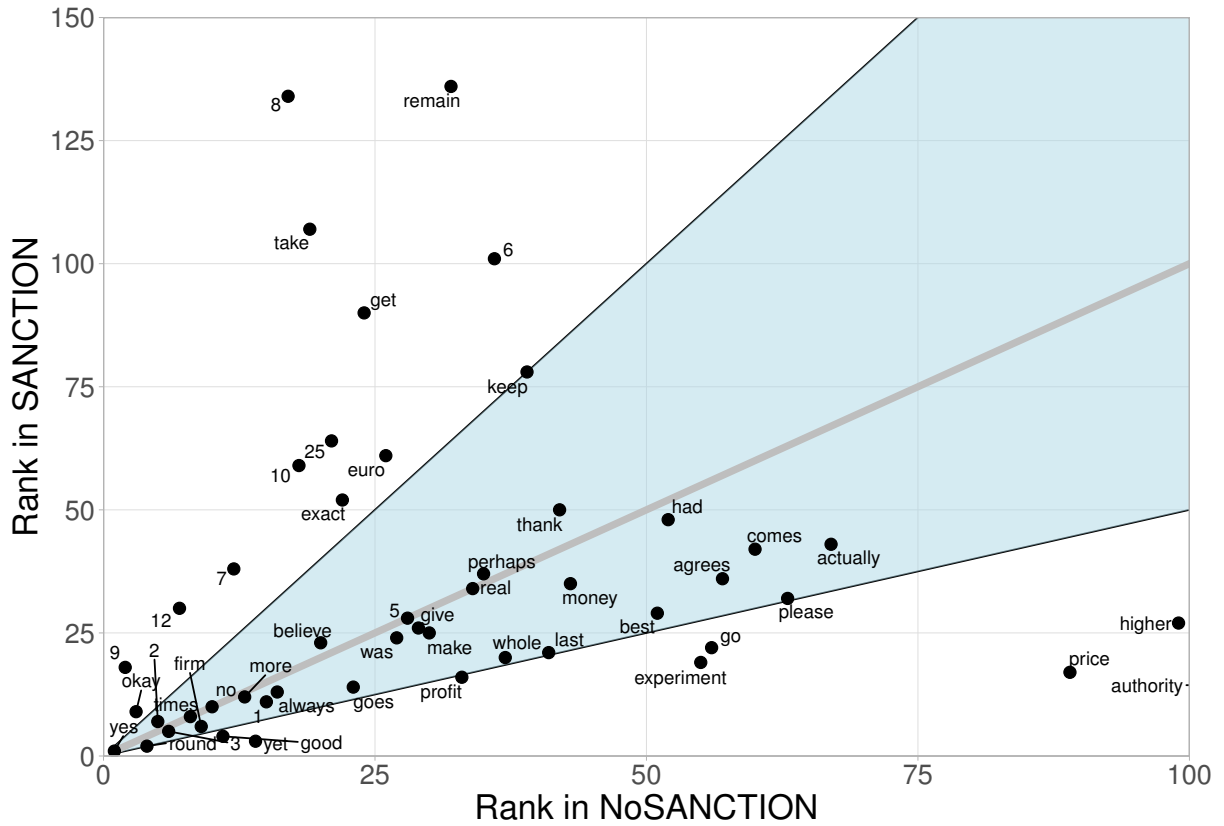


Figure 8: Frequency rankings of the 50 most used tokens in both treatments. Tokens that appear outside or at the border of the shaded area in Figure 8 have a relative rank differential weakly exceeding 1.

6 Conclusion

Previous experimental studies found that sanctioning coordinated pricing behavior is an effective instrument to hinder cartel formation. Our study is a first approach to understand *how* the sanctioning of cartel formation affects the coordination process of firms and why sanctions are effective. To investigate how sanctioning institutions affect the communication between firms, we use an innovative experimental setup where a free-form communication channel is always open and sanctions are decided upon by properly incentivized participants in the role of the competition authority. Using a machine learning approach we quantify the content of the firms' communication such that we can study the degree to which communication contains explicit attempts to form a cartel.

In line with the literature, we find that sanctions reduce the prevalence of cartel formation and average market prices significantly. In addition, we find that the presence of sanctioning institutions reduces the extent of explicit price coordination during the communication by about two thirds compared to the situation without any sanctions. Using a quantitative measure of explicit communication, we investigate to what extent the deterring effect of sanctioning institutions on price setting is driven by changes in communication among the firms. Our analyses indicate that the reduction in explicit communication makes up close to one fifth of the total treatment effect. An explorative analysis of the remaining chat communication suggests that firms try to switch to indirect price coordination when sanctioning institutions are in place. However, these indirect approaches – while effective in preventing unraveling toward the Nash equilibrium – are insufficient in raising average market prices above the price level observed in the first round of the interaction where no communication was possible.

We expect our findings to be useful in at least two respects. First, we show that explicit communication is effective in achieving a joint increase in the firms' prices. This result proves a link between explicit communication and illegal conduct that may inform courts in their judgment of whether or not a certain conduct violates competition law. Specifically, we show that the detailed analysis of communication data may help to define the boundary between tacit collusion and explicit cartel formation. Second, our study provides potentially useful insights for screening approaches such as e-discovery that are already used in practice. As part of their compliance policy, many companies try to uncover and then eliminate unlawful behavior of their own employees – before legal institutions start an investigation – by screening the firm's internal communication data for suspicious patterns and content. Our study suggests that the presence of screening will already improve compliance by making communication less explicit and thereby less effective.

In a next step, it would be interesting to study why some firms decide in favor of explicit communication while others prefer more indirect forms of communication. Such heterogeneity was also observed by [Harrington Jr et al. \(2016\)](#). Possibly influential factors in firm behavior are differential beliefs about the success probability of indirect communication, misperceptions with respect to the authority's judgment of what counts as a cartel, i.e., where exactly communication switches from being innocuous to being evidence of unlawful agreements, and the risk attitude of decision makers.

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Appendix

A Theoretical background

In this section, we derive the critical discount factors for a repeated game that provides the background for our experimental design and for our hypotheses regarding cartelization.

In the experiment, participants interact in groups of four, consisting of a market of three firms and one antitrust authority. The interaction between the firms is characterized by Bertrand competition with differentiated products. The same firms play the following stage game repeatedly.

Stage game: We let the quantity sold by each firm i given its own price p_i and the prices of its two competitors j and k , p_j and p_k , be given by:

$$(1) \quad Q_i[p_i, p_j, p_k] = \frac{a}{1 + \gamma} - \frac{1}{1 - \gamma^2} p_i + \frac{\gamma}{1 - \gamma^2} \frac{p_j + p_k}{2}$$

Per period profit for each firm is computed as $(p_i - c)Q_i$ where c is the unit cost of production that we normalize to zero for simplicity. Then firm i 's profit as a function of its own and the competitors' prices is given by:

$$(2) \quad \Pi_i[p_i, p_j, p_k] = \frac{a}{1 + \gamma} p_i - \frac{1}{1 - \gamma^2} p_i^2 + \frac{\gamma}{1 - \gamma^2} \frac{p_i(p_j + p_k)}{2}$$

We use the parameterization $a = 35$, $\gamma = \frac{4}{5}$. This yields $p = 6$ as the Nash equilibrium price of the stage game with a corresponding per firm profit of $\Pi = 100$. The joint profit maximizing price is $p = 18$ and yields a per firm profit of 180. Given collusive behavior of the other two firms, the optimal unilateral undercutting price is $p = 10.8$ which we round down to 10 for the experiment. Deviating to a price of 10 yields a deviation profit of 322 (rounded to the next integer). The other two firms that have been cheated upon make a profit of only 20 in the respective period if they both continue to charge the collusive price of 18.

For the implementation in the laboratory experiment, we relabel all prices by dividing them by 2 and restrict the price setting range to the integers from 0 to 12 (corresponding to all even valued prices from 0 to 24 in the above given formulae, as in [Bigoni et al., 2012](#)).

All prices above 24 are at least weakly dominated by those prices in the restricted range. Thus, this only helps to simplify the experiment.

Controls and fines: A cartel can be detected and fined during its existence and after its end. In each round a control of the antitrust authority is launched with an exogenous probability of 10% or because a firm self-reported its cartel. If a control is launched an existing or past cartel is detected and fined with certainty.

A cartel member is fined based on its cumulative profits during the participation in a collusive agreement as judged by the antitrust authority. However, past profits can only to some extent be reduced by a fine. If a control takes place in period t , the size of the fine in percentage of profits is computed according to the accumulated profits since the last control has taken place, weighted by the cartel duration. This percentage is deduced from the profits in the round, in which the control has taken place, and at most four preceding rounds that have lower impact the further past they are. Collusive profits from period t are reduced by 100% of the fine size, profits from period $t-1$ by 80% of the fine, profits from period $t-2$ to 60%, profits from period $t-3$ to 40%, and profits from a collusive agreement in period $t-4$ to 20%. Profits from a collusive agreement in period $t-5$ or earlier are only relevant for the computation of a potential fine (in percent of profit), but the fine is not applied to these profits. This ensures that fine sizes in our setup correspond approximately to the magnitude of real cartel cases.

Feedback, fines, punishment of deviations: We assume that a deviation from a cartel is detected by the other firms immediately due to the complete feedback about each firm's price setting. Expected fines are increasing during the first five rounds of each cartel phase. For the computations that relate to perfectly collusive behavior (see Appendix), we assume that the fine is perceived as a fixed fine with the size that can be expected in our setup when the collusive agreement is perfect, i.e., all members always set the joint profit-maximizing price which results in per-period-per-firm profits of $\Pi^c = 180$. Then, using the linear depreciation of fine-relevant profits as introduced above, the expected fine in an infinitely repeated game when colluding perfectly equals $F = 540$. We further assume that deviations as well as reports will be punished by playing Nash forever after.

Repetition: Suppose that time is discrete and that the stage game is repeated infinitely often with the participants discounting future payoffs with a discount factor δ . For the

analysis of the repeated game, we restrict attention to the following set of stage game payoffs: the payoff from the Nash equilibrium in the stage game, $\Pi^n = 100$, the payoff from the joint-profit-maximizing price in the stage game (the collusive or cartel payoff), $\Pi^c = 180$, the deviation payoff that is made from an optimal unilateral deviation from the collusive agreement, $\Pi^d = 322$, and the payoff that is made by the remaining cartel members when one member deviates, $\Pi^b = 20$.⁴⁰ It holds that $\Pi^b < \Pi^n < \Pi^c < \Pi^d$.

First, consider the setting without sanctioning institutions (corresponding to the treatment NOSANCTION).

Participation constraint without sanctions: The participation constraint for collusion reads as

$$(3) \quad \frac{\Pi^c - \Pi^n}{1 - \delta} > 0.$$

With the parameters in the experiment, this is clearly fulfilled because $\Pi^n < \Pi^c$.

Incentive compatibility without sanctions: Next, consider the incentive compatibility constraint of collusion. Without sanctioning institutions. The value of the strategy “sticking to the collusive agreement”, i.e., of setting each period the joint-profit-maximizing price is:

$$(4) \quad V^c = \frac{\Pi^c}{1 - \delta}.$$

Consider now the possibility of deviating from the collusive agreement. Any such deviation is immediately observed by the cartel members (there is feedback on all prices set in a period, making it easy to observe the deviation). We assume that a deviation is punished by reverting to the Nash equilibrium of the stage game forever after. The value from deviating once and being punished is

⁴⁰The repeated game has further, possibly asymmetric equilibria that we ignore here. However, in the experiment, we observe that some groups coordinate on anticompetitive price schemes that are more sophisticated than the symmetric collusive outcome.

$$(5) \quad V^d = \Pi^d + \delta \frac{\Pi^n}{1 - \delta}.$$

Thus, the incentive compatibility constraint for collusion without sanctioning institutions is

$$(6) \quad \frac{\Pi^c}{1 - \delta} > \Pi^d + \delta \frac{\Pi^n}{1 - \delta}.$$

From this constraint, we compute the critical discount factor $\delta_{NoS} = 0.6396$ which determines the range of discount factors for which, given all the other parameters in our experiment, collusion can be sustained as an equilibrium.

Consider now the treatments with sanctioning institutions, i.e. those where firms can be sanctioned for collusive agreements. For the following computations, we assume that the fine is perceived as a fixed fine with the size that can be expected in our setup when the collusive agreement is perfect, i.e., all members always set the joint profit-maximizing price which results in per-period-per-firm profits of $\Pi^c = 180$. Then, using the linear depreciation of fine-relevant profits as introduced above, the expected fine in an infinitely repeated game equals $F = 540$.

Participation constraints with sanctions: First, consider the participation constraint for collusion. This reads in both the leniency and the no-lenieny setting as

$$(7) \quad \frac{\Pi^c - \Pi^n}{1 - \delta} > \frac{\alpha F}{1 - \delta}$$

With the parameters in the experiment, this is clearly fulfilled because $80 > 54$. Next, consider the incentive compatibility constraints of collusion.

Incentive compatibility without a leniency rule: Without a leniency rule, the value of the strategy “sticking to the collusive agreement”, i.e., setting each period the joint-profit-maximizing price and doing so even if the cartel has been detected through the exogenous detection mechanism, is:

$$(8) \quad V^c = \frac{\Pi^c + \alpha(\delta V^c - F)}{1 - (1 - \alpha)\delta} = \frac{\Pi^c + \alpha\delta V^c - \alpha F}{1 - (1 - \alpha)\delta}$$

Solving for V^c this yields

$$(9) \quad V^c = \frac{\Pi^c - \alpha F}{1 - \delta}$$

We assume that as part of the strategy “sticking to the collusive agreement” cartel members continue to collude if their cartel has been detected due to a control that was triggered by the exogenous detection probability. This implies that their cartel continues to exist after such a control; and it also continues to face the exogenous risk of being detected and fined in every single period.

Consider now the possibility of deviating from the collusive agreement. Any such deviation is immediately observed by the cartel members (there is feedback on all prices set in a period, making it easy to observe the deviation). We assume that a deviation is punished by reverting to the Nash equilibrium of the stage game forever after. The value from deviating once and being punished is

$$(10) \quad V^d = \Pi^d + \delta \frac{\Pi^n}{1 - \delta} - \frac{\alpha F}{1 - (1 - \alpha)\delta}$$

The third term results from the possibility of a cartel being detected and fined with exogenous probability also after it has broken down. As the cartel is assumed to never reform, the cartel can only be detected once after the deviation.

The incentive compatibility constraint in a setting without leniency (our treatment named FINE) is therefore

$$(11) \quad \frac{\Pi^c - \alpha F}{1 - \delta} > \Pi^d + \delta \frac{\Pi^n}{1 - \delta} - \frac{\alpha F}{1 - (1 - \alpha)\delta}$$

From this constraint, we compute the critical discount factor which determines the range of discount factors for which, given all the other parameters in our experiment, collusion can be sustained as an equilibrium.

Solving the above constraint for δ , we obtain a quadratic equation which has only one solution that lies in the interval $[0, 1]$ and therefore has a unique admissible solution $\delta_N = 0.682711$.

Incentive compatibility with a leniency rule: Consider now a setting with a leniency rule, i.e., the first firm that self-reports a collusive agreement is exempt from paying a fine. This implies that any deviation from the collusive agreement is coupled with a self-report in order to pre-empt the other firms that would report the cartel once they learn about the deviation. Thus, the value from defecting from the collusive agreement becomes:

$$(12) \quad V^d = \Pi^d + \delta \frac{\Pi^n}{1 - \delta}$$

Reporting the cartel leads to an immediate fine to the other cartel members but not the self-reporting deviator. Moreover, the self-report implies that the cartel, which is assumed not to be reformed because of the Nash reversion punishment, does not face any detection risk in the future.

Thus, the incentive compatibility constraint in a setting with a leniency rule (named **LENIENCY**) is

$$(13) \quad \frac{\Pi^c - \alpha F}{1 - \delta} > \Pi^d + \delta \frac{\Pi^n}{1 - \delta}$$

From this constraint, we also compute the critical discount factor given all other parameters. Setting the above incentive constraint to bind and solving for δ , we obtain the unique solution $\delta_L = 0.883$.

Critical discount factors and continuation probability We note here that the value of the continuation probability of $2/3$ lies below the critical discount factor of an infinitely repeated discounted game with punishment by Nash reversion and a discount factor equal to this continuation probability, both with and without a leniency rule as derived above. Collusion is therefore not an equilibrium of the continuation game starting in round 25 in either of the two treatments with sanctioning institutions. According to a strict backward induction argument, collusion in the repeated game starting from the first round cannot

be supported as a (subgame-perfect) equilibrium in either treatment. Only a continuation probability larger than 88.3 percent would exceed the highest of the three critical discount factors. However, the expected duration of the experiment would then exceed three hours, which is why we opted for a smaller level, which is below the critical level for both treatments. Behaviorally, this nevertheless makes the time horizon less sharp so that we hope to minimize endgame effects in such a setting.

In the treatment without sanctioning institutions, the continuation probability of $2/3$ exceeds the critical discount factor for collusion of 0.6396. Thus, without sanctioning institutions, collusion in the specified way is an equilibrium even if we consider the continuation game starting in round 25.

Collusive price and incentive compatibility In principle, collusion may occur at prices different from the jointly optimal price of nine. This will lead to lower expected profits but relaxes the incentive compatibility constraint. In Table 1, we have compiled an overview of the critical discount factors that result per treatment for different symmetric collusive prices. For the computation, we otherwise assume the parameters of the experiment, $\alpha = 0.1$, and a fine equal to the expected fine in a steady state equilibrium with stable collusion $F = 3\Pi^c$. The computed values are derived directly from the incentive compatibility constraints as derived above. Values that are set in bold lie below the continuation probability of two thirds.

Table 1: Critical discount factors per treatment for different collusive prices.

Treatment	NOSANCTION	FINE	LENIENCY
price=9	0.6396	0.6827	0.8829
price=8	0.5618	0.6011	0.8618
price=7	0.4662	0.5014	0.8519
price=6	0.375	0.4071	0.875

B Instructions

In the following, we present our instructions for firms in Section B.1 and for authorities in Section B.2. Parts that appear only in the instructions of a particular treatment are clearly marked as such. Text in *italics* only appears in instructions for the LENIENCY treatment. The original instructions for the participants additionally included screen-shots of the different stages in the experiment.

B.1 Instructions for firms

Today you are participating in a decision-making experiment. If you read the following instructions carefully, you can earn money. The amount of money you receive depends on your decisions and the decisions of other participants.

For the entire duration of the experiment it is prohibited to communicate with other participants. Therefore, we ask you not to talk to each other. Violation of this rule will result in exclusion from the experiment and payment.

If there is something you do not understand, please have another look at these instructions or give us a hand signal. We will then come to your seat and answer your question personally.

During the experiment, we do not talk of euro but of points. The number of points you earn during the experiment will be converted into euro as follows:

$$\mathbf{125\ Points = 1\ euro}$$

At the end of today's experiment, you will receive the points earned in the experiment converted into euro in **cash** plus 5 euro as basic endowment.

On the following pages we will explain the exact procedure of the experiment to you, starting with the general procedure. We will then familiarize you with the procedure on the screen. Then, you will have the opportunity to familiarize yourself on the computer screen with the calculation of profits in the experiment before the experiment begins.

The experiment

At the start of the experiment, you will be matched randomly into a group with two [**Fine and Leniency:** three] other participants. During the experiment, you will make decisions within this group of three [**Fine and Leniency:** four] persons in total. The composition of your group remains the same throughout the entire experiment. Neither you nor the other participants will be informed about the identity of the participants in the group – neither during nor after the experiment.

The experiment consists of at least 25 rounds. You will receive more information on the number of rounds on page 5 of this document.

[**NoSanction only:** Every participant in your group represents a firm. There are three firms (firm 1, 2 and 3). At the start of the experiment, you will be informed onscreen about which firm you are. You will be the same firm during the entire experiment.]

[**Fine and Leniency only:** Every participant in your group represents either a firm or the antitrust authority. There are three firms (firm 1, 2 and 3) and one antitrust authority. **In all rounds, you take the role of a firm.** At the start of the experiment, you will be informed onscreen about which firm you are. You will be the same firm during the entire experiment.]

The firms 1, 2 and 3 sell the same (fictional) good on the same market. Production of this good is costless for the firms. All firms decide simultaneously what price they want to charge for the good in a round. The price must be an integer between 0 and 12. If a firm does not enter its own price and clicks the OK button within 30 seconds (60 seconds in the first round only), a price of 0 is automatically set for this firm.

Your profit depends on your own price and the average price of the other two firms. Your profit is larger the higher the prices of the other two firms are. Your own price has two effects on your own profit: If you increase your own price, the quantity you sell decreases, but at the same time your earnings per unit sold increases. Depending on which effect is larger, your profit increases or decreases. The table on the following page shows your profit, depending on your own price and the averages prices of the other two firms. (This table is the same for all three firms, read from their perspective.)

		Average price of the other two firms												
		0	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	8	9	10	11	12
Your own price	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0
	1	29	38	47	56	64	73	82	91	100	109	118	127	136
	2	36	53	71	89	107	124	142	160	178	196	213	231	249
	3	20	47	73	100	127	153	180	207	233	260	287	313	340
	4	0	18	53	89	124	160	196	231	267	302	338	373	409
	5	0	0	11	56	100	144	189	233	278	322	367	411	456
	6	0	0	0	0	53	107	160	213	267	320	373	427	480
	7	0	0	0	0	0	47	109	171	233	296	358	420	482
	8	0	0	0	0	0	0	36	107	178	249	320	391	462
	9	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	20	100	180	260	340	420
	10	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	89	178	267	356
	11	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	73	171	269
	12	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	53	160

From the second round on, you have the option to communicate with the other firms via chat messages at the beginning of each round. The duration of a chat cannot exceed 60 seconds in one round. In this chat, you can write anything you want with the exception that you are not allowed to reveal hints on your identity.

[Fine and Leniency only: §1 GWB of the Act against Restraints of Competition prohibits price agreements and the attempt of price agreements (for the exact wording, see the box).

§ 1 Prohibition of Agreements Restricting Competition
 Agreements between undertakings, decisions by associations of undertakings and coordinated practices which have as their object or effect the prevention, restriction or distortion of competition are prohibited.

At the end of a round, the chat messages can be subject to an audit. In an audit, the antitrust authority judges whether the texts you and the other firms wrote in the chat are in accordance with §1 GWB. Such an audit can be initiated in two ways, by a random mechanism and by the firms:

- In each round, a random mechanism decides whether an audit takes place or not. This random mechanism is programmed so that an audit takes place with a probability of 10% (i.e. on average in 10 out of 100 cases).
- In addition, in each round the firms have the opportunity to initiate an audit themselves, both while setting their price and after they have learned the prices of the other firms. You can initiate an audit by clicking on a small white box at the bottom left of the screen. Initiating an audit cannot be undone. As soon as you click on the small white box, the box for that round disappears and an audit will definitely take place. The same applies to the other two firms in your group.

When an audit takes place, the antitrust authority has insight into all communication in the previous chats in your group as well as into the pricing since the first round. The antitrust authority imposes penalties on firms that have violated §1 GWB. It decides on the individual penalties for each of the three firms and for how long an agreement has been in place.

The penalty may be 0%, 50% or 100% of a firm's accumulated pecuniary profit during the agreement. 0% (no penalty) means that the firm has acted in accordance with §1 GWB, 100% means a clear, serious violation. 50% should be chosen for less serious violations.

The pecuniary profit is measured according to your profit that you have earned and the duration of the agreement. However, if the agreement has been in place for more than five rounds, the penalty will only be applied to the profits of the last five rounds. Previous rounds are included in the calculation of the penalty, but will not be punished themselves.

The antitrust authority has three minutes to reach its decision.]

[Leniency only: *The active initiation of an audit by a firm leads to the possibility that that firm is exempted from punishment. If only one firm has initiated the audit, that firm will automatically receive full amnesty. If two or three firms have initiated an audit, the penalty will only be waived for the firm that first initiated the audit.]*

[**NoSanction only:** After each round, the firms are informed about their own price and their profit. In addition, each firm is informed about the prices set by the other two firms in the current round.]

[**Fine and Leniency only:** After each round, the firms are informed about their own price, their profit and, if applicable, their penalty. In addition, each firm is informed about the prices set by the other two firms in the current round and, if applicable, their penalties.

[**LENIENCY only:** *You will also be informed on whether a firm has initialized an audit by the antitrust authority and has thus received an exemption of its penalty.*]]

From the 25th round on, a random mechanism decides in each round whether the experiment ends with the last round completed. With a probability of 33.3% (i.e. in an average of 1 out of 3 cases) the experiment ends with the last round completed. With a probability of 66.7% (i.e. in 2 out of 3 cases) another round takes place. In addition, it is ensured that the experiment does not last longer than 2 hours and 30 minutes.

After the last round, you will see an overview screen showing you how many points you have earned in total. You will receive all points converted into euro directly after the experiment.

If something is not clear to you, please give a clear hand signal. We will then come to your seat.

After the experiment we will ask you to fill out a short questionnaire on the computer. You will then receive your payment.

B.2 Instructions for authorities (Fine and Leniency only)

Today you are participating in a decision-making experiment. If you read the following instructions carefully, you can earn money. The amount of money you receive depends on your decisions.

For the entire duration of the experiment it is prohibited to communicate with other participants. Therefore, we ask you not to talk to each other. Violation of this rule will result in exclusion from the experiment and payment.

If there is something you do not understand, please have another look at these instructions or give us a hand signal. We will then come to your seat and answer your question personally.

During the experiment, we do not talk of Euro but of points. The number of points you earn during the experiment will be converted into Euro as follows:

$$\mathbf{125\ Points = 1\ euro}$$

As an exception, this time you will not receive your payment for today's experiment in cash at the end of the experiment, but in about 2-3 weeks via bank transfer. You will receive more information on the bank transfer on page 6 of these instructions. In addition to your other earnings in this experiment, you will receive 10 euro in cash.

On the following pages we will explain the exact procedure of the experiment to you, starting with the general procedure. We will then familiarize you with the procedure on the screen. Then, you will have the opportunity to familiarize yourself on the computer screen with your task in the experiment before the experiment begins.

The experiment

At the start of the experiment, you will be matched randomly into a group with three other participants. During the experiment, you will make decisions within this group of four persons in total. The composition of your group remains the same throughout the entire experiment. Neither you nor the other participants will be informed about the identity of the participants in the group – neither during nor after the experiment.

The experiment consists of at least 25 rounds. You will receive more information on the number of rounds on page 6 of this document.

Every participant in your group represents either a firm or the antitrust authority. There are three firms (firm 1, 2 and 3) and one antitrust authority. **In all rounds, you take the role of the antitrust authority.**

The firms 1, 2 and 3 sell the same (fictional) good on the same market. Production of this good is costless for the firms. All firms decide simultaneously what price they want to charge for the good in a round. The price must be an integer between 0 and 12. If a firm does not enter its own price and clicks the OK button within 30 seconds, a price of 0 is automatically set for this firm.

The profit of a firm depends on its own price and the average price of the other two firms. The profit is larger the higher the prices of the other two firms are. The own price has two effects on the profit of a firm. If the own price increases, the quantity sold by this firm decreases, but at the same time the earnings per unit sold increases. Depending on which effect is larger, a firm's profit increases or decreases. The table on the following page shows the profit of a firm, depending on its own price and the averages prices of the other two firms. (This table is the same for all three firms.)

		Average price of the other two firms												
		0	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	8	9	10	11	12
Your own price	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0
	1	29	38	47	56	64	73	82	91	100	109	118	127	136
	2	36	53	71	89	107	124	142	160	178	196	213	231	249
	3	20	47	73	100	127	153	180	207	233	260	287	313	340
	4	0	18	53	89	124	160	196	231	267	302	338	373	409
	5	0	0	11	56	100	144	189	233	278	322	367	411	456
	6	0	0	0	0	53	107	160	213	267	320	373	427	480
	7	0	0	0	0	0	47	109	171	233	296	358	420	482
	8	0	0	0	0	0	0	36	107	178	249	320	391	462
	9	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	20	100	180	260	340	420
	10	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	89	178	267	356
	11	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	73	171	269
	12	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	53	160

From the second round on, the firms have the option to communicate via chat messages. The duration of chat cannot exceed 60 seconds.

§1 GWB of the Act against Restraints of Competition prohibits price agreements and the attempt of price agreements (for the exact wording, see the box).

§ 1 Prohibition of Agreements Restricting Competition

Agreements between undertakings, decisions by associations of undertakings and coordinated practices which have as their object or effect the prevention, restriction or distortion of competition are prohibited.

At the end of a round, the chat messages can be subject to an audit. In an audit, you as the antitrust authority judge whether the texts the firms wrote in the chat are in accordance

with §1 GWB. Such an audit can be initiated in two ways, by a random mechanism and by the firms:

- In each round, a random mechanism decides whether an audit takes place or not. This random mechanism is programmed so that an audit takes place with a probability of 10% (i.e. on average in 10 out of 100 cases).
- In addition, in each round the firms have the opportunity to initiate an audit themselves, both while setting their price and after they have learned the prices of the other firms. A firm can initiate an audit by clicking on a small box on the screen.

When an audit takes place, you will not be informed on how it was initiated. You have insight into all communication in the previous chats in your group as well as into the pricing since the first round. Your task is to impose penalties on firms that have violated §1 GWB. You decide on the individual penalties for each of the three firms and for how long an agreement has been in place. The duration is the number of all rounds since the last audit (or since the start of the experiment) in which, in your opinion, an agreement had a visible effect on the prices.

The penalty may be 0%, 50% or 100% of a firm's accumulated pecuniary profit during the agreement. 0% (no penalty) means that the firm has acted in accordance with §1 GWB, 100% means a clear, serious violation. 50% should be chosen for less serious violations.

The pecuniary profit is measured according to the profit of the respective firm and the duration of the agreement. However, if the agreement has been in place for more than five rounds, the penalty will only be applied to the profits of the last five rounds. Previous rounds are included in the calculation of the penalty, but will not be punished themselves. You, in the role of the antitrust authority, nevertheless enter the entire duration of the cartel; the computer program proportionally calculates the penalties for the last five rounds.

Your payment as an antitrust authority depends on the consistency of your penalty decisions with those of a real antitrust law expert. After today's experiment, in the same way as you do today, this expert (a licensed lawyer specialized in antitrust law) will see the chat messages and prices and will assess the extent to which they contain violations of §1 GWB. You will receive 900 points for each match between your decision and the expert's decision. You will also receive 900 points if you have correctly specified the duration of a possible agreement. Since you make four decisions for each penalty decision (one for each

of the three firms and one for the total duration of the agreement), you can earn up to 3600 points. You will only receive points if you make exactly the same decision as the expert, otherwise (e.g. if you impose a 50% penalty on a firm and the expert would impose 100%) you will not receive any points for this partial decision. At the end, the **average** score of all rounds in which you were able to impose penalties is determined. This then determines your payment, which we will transfer to your bank account within 2 to 3 weeks. If there is no audit during the entire experiment, you will receive a fixed bank transfer of 15 euro in addition to your cash payment of 10 euro.

You have 3 minutes for each of your penalty decisions. If you do not specify the height of the penalty during this time, you will not receive any payment for your judgment and the computer program will assume for the calculation of the firms' profits that you have not imposed any penalties. **Please remember to submit your decision at the end by clicking the OK button.**

[**Leniency only:** *The active initiation of an audit by a firm leads to the possibility that that firm is exempted from its punishment. If only one firm has initiated the audit, that firm will automatically receive full amnesty. If two or three firms have initiated an audit, the penalty will only be waived for the firm that first initiated the audit. This exemption will also be automatically implemented by the computer program, if necessary, and will not be relevant to your penalty decisions.*]

After each round, the firms are informed about their own price, their profit and, if applicable, their penalty. In addition, each firm is informed about the prices set by the other two firms in the current round and, if applicable, their penalties. [**Leniency only:** *The firms will also be informed on whether a firm has initialized an audit by the antitrust authority and has thus received an exemption of its penalty.*]

From the 25th round on, a random mechanism decides in each round whether the experiment ends with the last round completed. With a probability of 33.3% (i.e. in an average of 1 out of 3 cases) the experiment ends with the last round completed. With a probability of 66.7% (i.e. in 2 out of 3 cases) another round takes place. In addition, it is ensured that the experiment does not last longer than 2 hours and 30 minutes.

Directly after the experiment you will receive 10 euro in cash. Your additional earnings from the experiment will be transferred to your bank account. Please enter your name and address as well as your bank details in the form and sign it. (You are welcome to fill in the form during the experiment, if you have nothing to do on the screen.)

If something is not clear to you, please give a clear hand signal. We will then come to your seat.

After the experiment we will ask you to fill out a short questionnaire on the computer. You will then receive your payment.

B.3 Assistance for participants in the role of a competition authority | How does the expert punish?

What counts as an agreement?

- If a firm explicitly suggest a price above 3 and then charges this price, the firm gets a 100% penalty.
- Convolutud descriptions of prices are punished in the same way as if the corresponding price was given as a number.
- Agreements on prices not higher than 3 do not distort competition and therefore do not count as an agreement.
- If a firm does not write anything in the chat (but of course can read what the others write) it can still be punished.⁴¹ The amount of the penalty depends on the price and can be up to 100%, e.g. if the other two firms make a clear agreement and this firm sets exactly the price agreed by the other two firms over a long period of time.
- If the firms make an agreement that no one will abide by afterwards, there will be no penalty.
- Prices above 3, which have come about without any agreement, cannot be punished.

For determining the duration:

- For determining the duration of a cartel, all rounds in which the agreement was visibly effective in the prices count.
- If a company receives a 50% penalty for part of the total duration of the cartel and a 100% penalty for the remainder of the total duration, then the amount of the penalty that applies for a longer period will apply for the total duration (because the computer program does not allow for further gradation).
- If a firm joins an agreement already in place between the two other firms at a later round (or leaves the agreement earlier than the others), the longer overall duration of

⁴¹Note that this rule follows the legal practice that a market participant who does not agree to take an expressed action but behaves as if she did, can be assumed to be part of the concerted practice ([Albors-Llorens, 2006](#); [European Union, 2019](#); [Odudu, 2010](#); [Whish and Bailey, 2015](#))

the cartel still applies to it. In order to prevent the fine from becoming unreasonably high, the amount of the fine can then be adjusted accordingly. (Example: Anyone who was involved in a 100% agreement in 5 out of 10 rounds receives a 50% penalty for the duration of 10 rounds.)

- If, after a penalty, prices remain at the same level as before the audit, a penalty may be imposed again at a later audit, even if there has been no new agreement.

C LDA results

In this section, we present our LDA results. Figure 9 shows the tokens-per-topic distributions for all 25 topics and Figure 10 shows the average posterior distribution of the 25 topics by treatment.

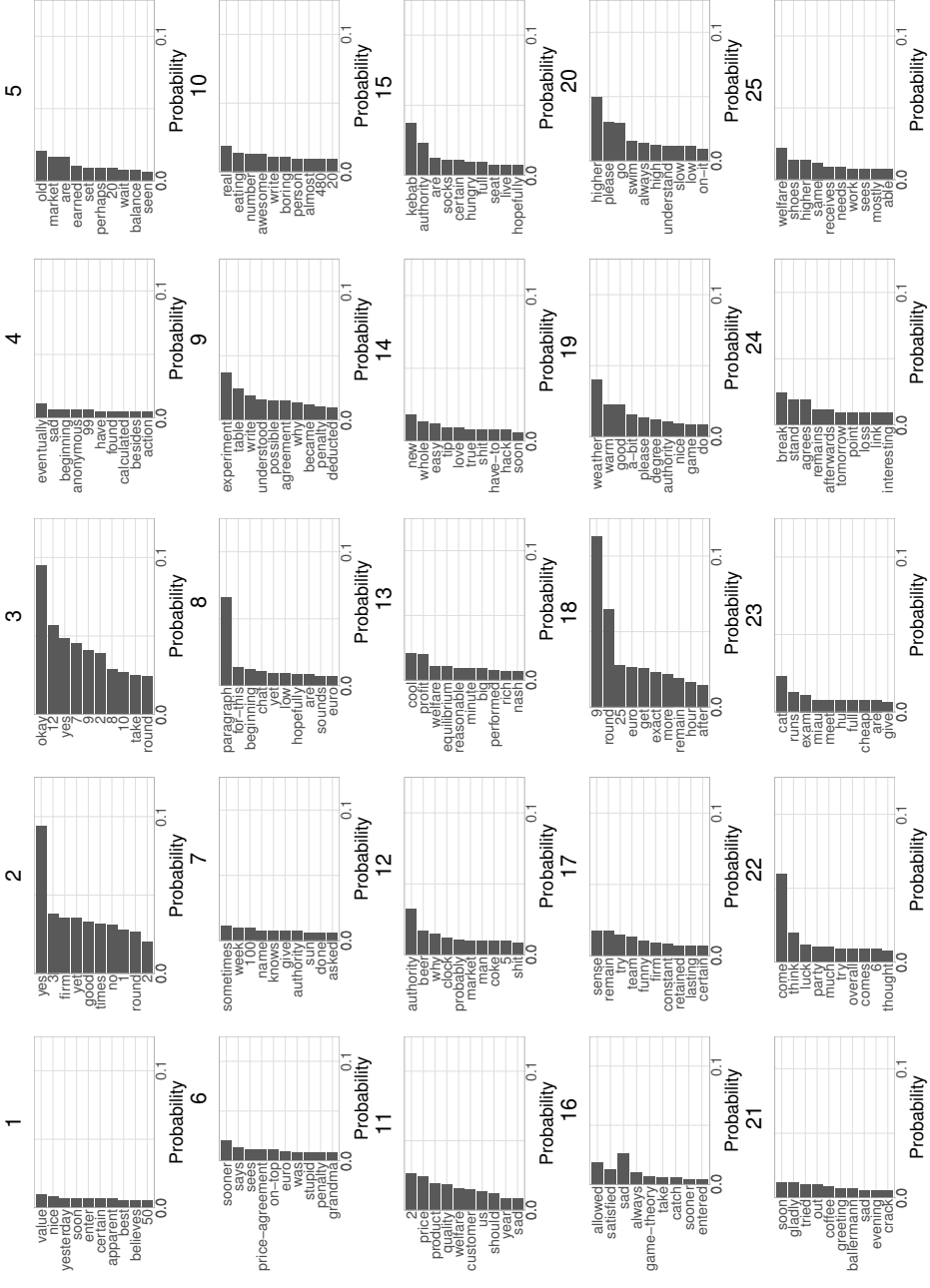


Figure 9: Token-per-Topic distributions of the top ten tokens for all 25 topics.

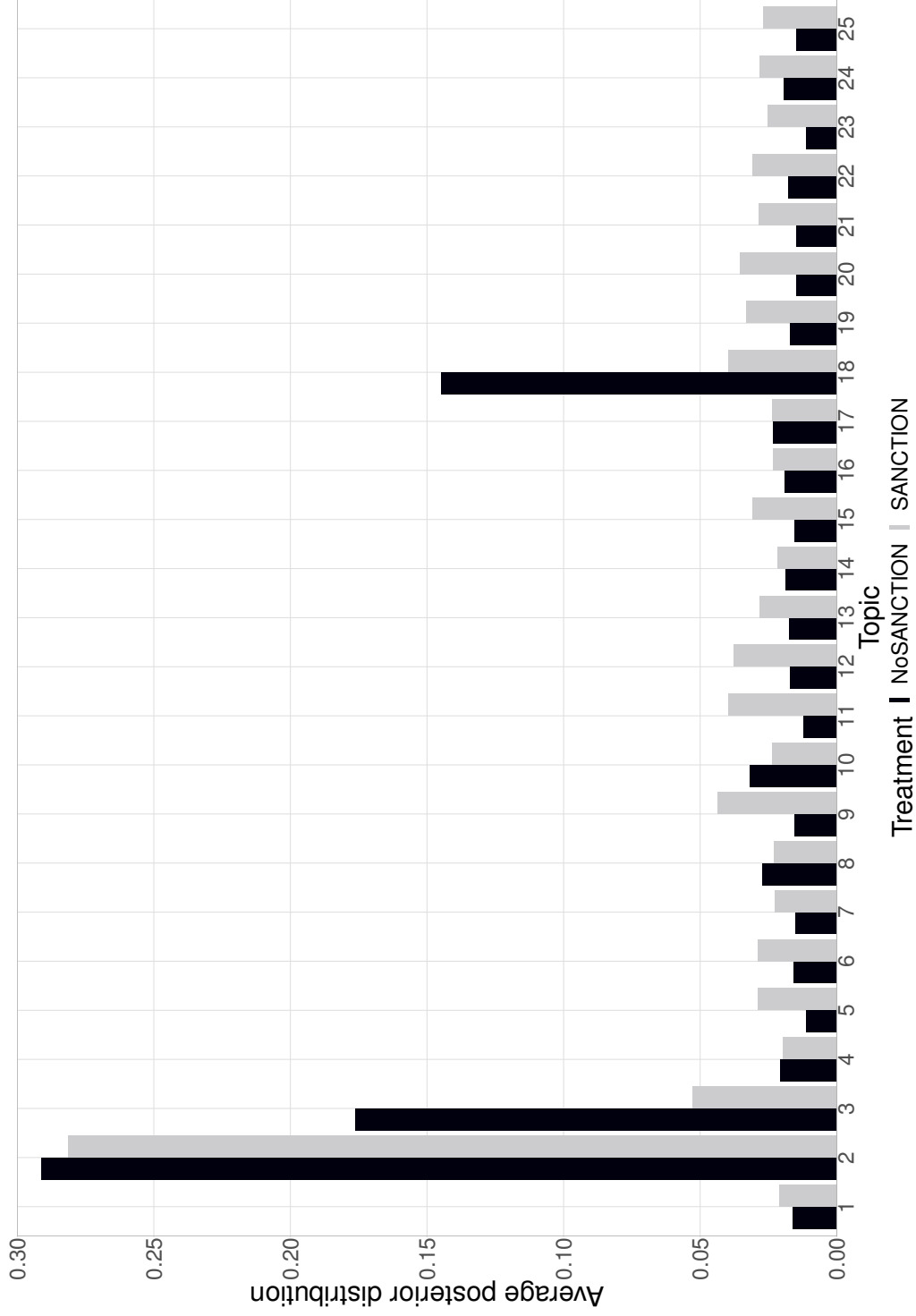


Figure 10: Average posterior distribution of the 25 topics by treatment.

D Original German tokens in their corresponding Figure

In the following, we present the original German tokens in their corresponding figure. We translated the tokens only after the analysis.⁴²

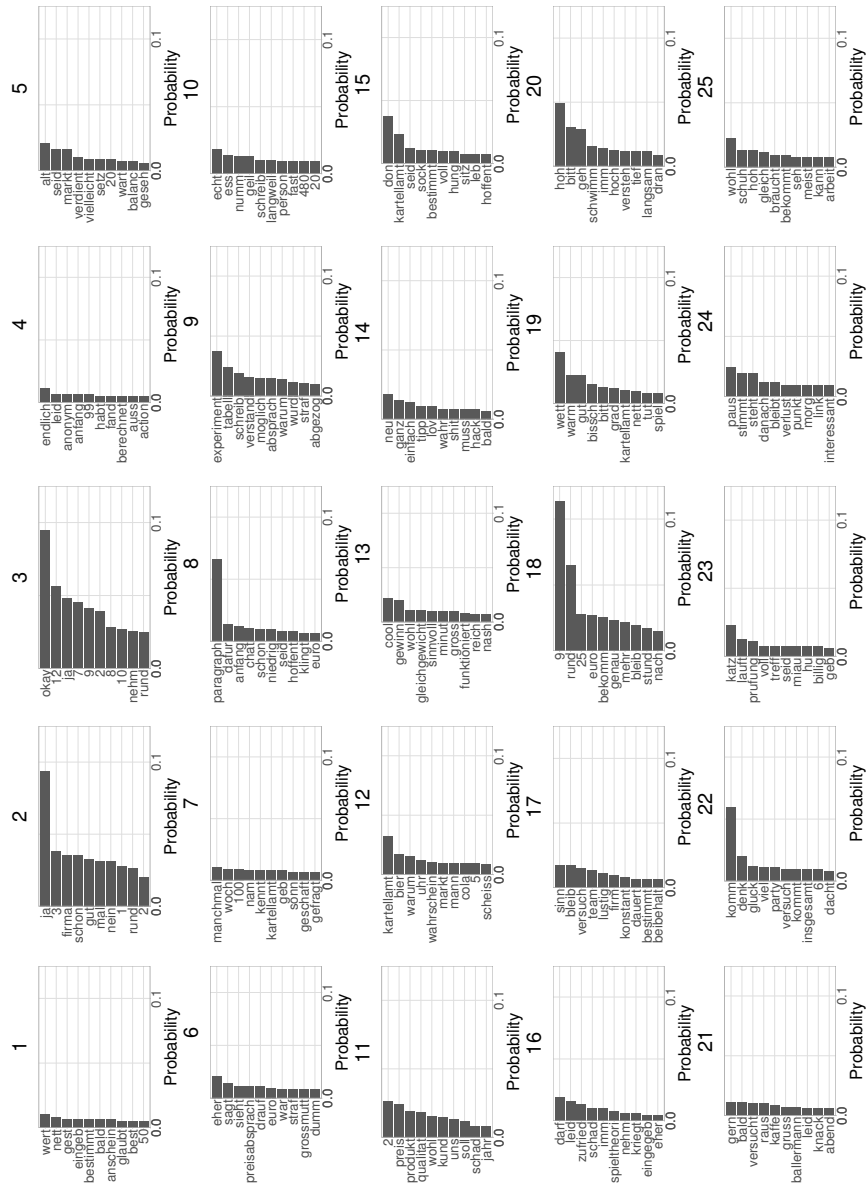


Figure 11: Token-per-Topic distributions of the top ten tokens for all 25 topics in German.

⁴²Note, the German word "wohl" equals "probably". However, written with a capital letter, "Wohl", the word rather means "welfare". Both versions there used in the chats. But, the second translation rather fits to the context of topic 6. Hence, we used the later translation.

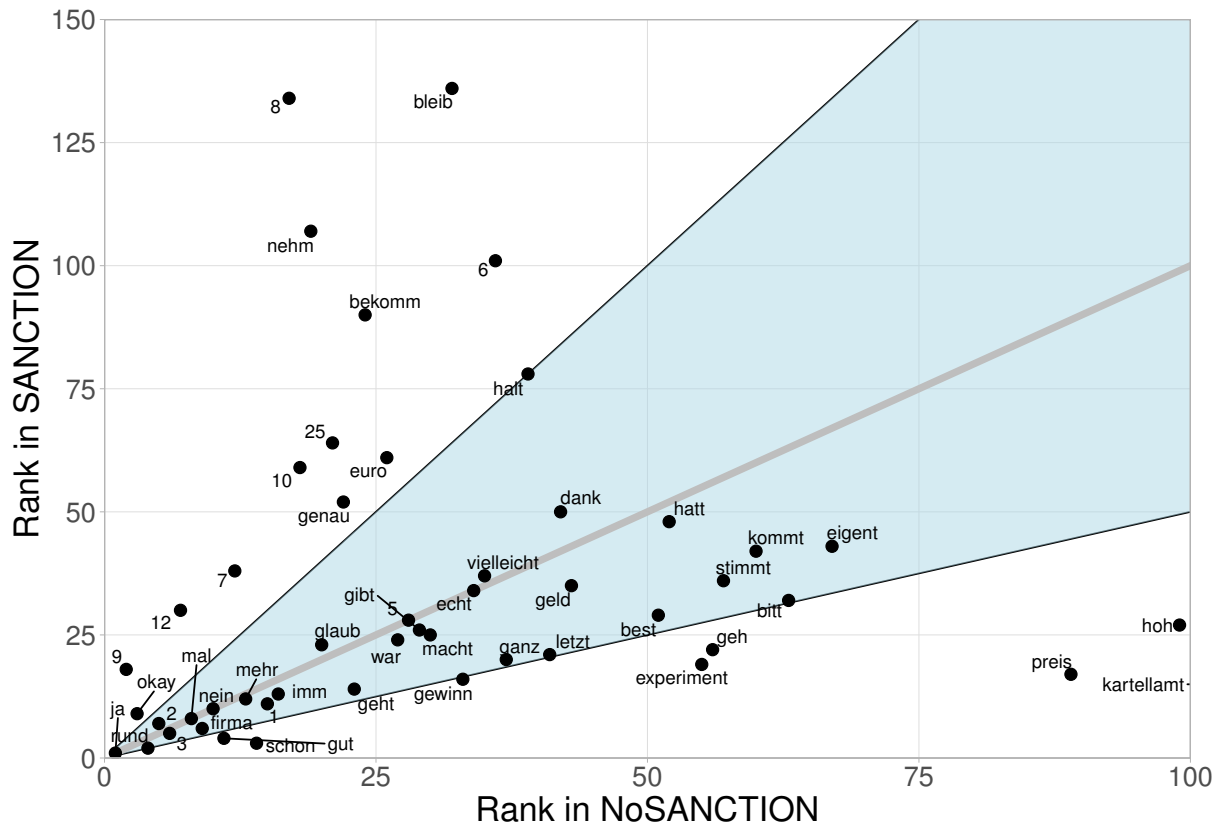


Figure 12: Frequency rankings of the 50 most used tokens in both treatments in German. Tokens that appear outside or at the border of the shaded area in Figure 12 have a relative rank differential weakly exceeding 1.