

First Mover Advantages and Optimal Patent Protection

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FIRST MOVER ADVANTAGES AND OPTIMAL PATENT PROTECTION F. M. Scherer

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Patents or similar exclusive privileges have been awarded for many centuries to encourage invention and innovation. For early history, see Machlup (1958) and Kaufer (1988). Absent some barrier to competitive imitation such as patent rights, the underlying theory holds, competition might materialize so rapidly that the inventor-innovator is unable to recoup the investment made in effecting its innovation. In a pioneering theoretical contribution, William Nordhaus (1969) derived onditions showing the social welfare-maximizing life of patent gants. Virtually ignored in both the Nordhaus theory of patent protection and rationales underlying patent laws has been another thrust of the literature. Empirical studies have shown repeatedly that on average, but with notable exceptions, patent protection is a relatively unimportant requisite for business firms' investment in research, development, and innovation. Much more important in the average case are diverse non-patent advantages from being the first to commercialize a new product or process. Eliciting estimates from 25 British companies, Taylor and Silberston (1973) found that having all their patents subject to compulsory licensing at "reasonable" royalties would on average reduce the firms' research and development expenditures by only 8 percent. Surveying 100 U.S. companies, Edwin Mansfield (1986) reported that the weighted average number of inventions actually introduced by respondents that would not have been developed had no patent protection been available was roughly 14 percent.¹ See also Scherer et al. (1959, Chapter 12), Levin et al. (1987), Cohen et al. (2004), and Graham et al. (2009). This paper seeks to advance the theory of patent protection by quantifying approximations to the "first mover advantages" that sustain investment in invention and innovation without formal patent protection.

The Elementary Theory

The elementary logic underlying the grant of temporary but exclusive patent rights on *product inventions* is illustrated by Figure 1. The full market demand for a potential invention is D₁. The marginal cost of production (excluding front-end R&D costs) is assumed constant at C-MC. Marketing its product under monopoly conditions, the innovator equalizes marginal revenue (not shown) with marginal cost and sets price OA, earning a net profit before deduction of sunk R&D costs (more accurately called a quasi-rent) of AC per unit and a total quasi-rent given by rectangle ABEC. If this continues for a sufficiently long period, i.e., with patent protection, the discounted present value of the quasi-rents will cover and (the innovator hopes) exceed the original R&D investment, and the investment will prove to be profitable. But if others can readily imitate the innovator's product, demand will shift to D₂ in period 2 and D₃ in period 3 (arrows), etc., with quasi-rents shrinking to abeC in period 2 and a'b'e'C in period 3, etc. With such rapid entry, the discounted present value of quasi-rents could be less than the original R&D investment. If the would-be innovator foresees this, no R&D investment will be

forthcoming. Again, patents inhibit imitative entry and hence encourage investment in research, development, and innovation.

If however the innovator enjoys non-patent first mover advantages,² competitive imitation may be delayed even in the total absence of patent rights. These are of several forms.³

For one, it takes time for would-be imitators to recognize the advantages of an innovation and quite possibly even more time to carry out their own developmental work needed to imitate successfully. In some cases, when the imitator can benefit from knowledge spillovers, that expense may be much less than the first mover's expense, but in other cases (such as developing new airliners) the imitator may have to spend as much and take as much time as the first mover did.⁴

Second, the innovator may be able to keep important details of its underlying technology secret, inhibiting imitation. This is more likely for process (i.e., internal cost-saving) innovations -- those analyzed by Nordhaus -- than for product imitations, but even for new products, non-obvious production tricks may have to be discovered and mastered.

Third, and very importantly, the first to market a new product often engrains in the minds of consumers an "image" of superiority -- that is, a product differentiation advantage -- allowing it to retain a substantial market share while charging prices substantially higher than those realizable by latecomers.⁵

Fourth, in industries such as aircraft, semiconductors, and solar converters, unit production costs fall with additional production and hence "learning by doing." The first mover begins progressing down its learning curve sooner than others and may therefore enjoy a substantial cost advantage over latecomers. 6

Finally, economies of scale in production or marketing may require that a market be tightly oligopolistic, with only a few sellers contending for position, among other things through product innovation and differentiation. High R&D costs required for innovation may reinforce this structural condition. And with well-established marketing channels, the first mover can expect to retain preferential access to customers accustomed to patronizing particular sales representatives and/or retailers unless it falls significantly behind the product quality of rivals. In this case, a firm may be confident that when it innovates, it can at least retain a substantial share of the market after rivals imitate. However, it must also fear that if actual or potential rivals are the first innovative movers, they will capture, perhaps permanently, its own market share. In this case, characterizable as Schumpeterian "creative destruction" (Schumpeter 1942, Chapter 7), companies are impelled to invest in innovation by the threat of competition, whether or not patent protection can be anticipated.⁷

The Economic Theory of Optimal Patent Duration

The leading theory on how the duration of patent grants affects investment in research

and development. and how patent lives can in turn be adapted to maximize a broader conception of social welfare, was originated by William Nordhaus (1969). Nordhaus focuses on what is best called *process innovation*, that is, advances in technology reducing the cost of production (the MC line in Figure 1) and thereby increasing the size of the innovator's profit (rectangle ABEC in Figure 1). He calls inventions that merely reduce marginal cost without inducing an output expansion *run of the mill inventions*; those that also increase output are called *drastic inventions*. Nordhaus devotes no attention to possible pre-patent-expiration competition among multiple firms to achieve cost reductions through invention. His assumption, to which counterarguments will be recognized later, is analogous to what Edmund Kitch (1977) has called the *prospect theory of innovation*.

Nordhaus argues that the amount of cost reduction achieved is systematically and positively related through an *invention possibility function* to the amount of research and development conducted: the more R&D, the higher the percentage cost reduction. Given its invention possibility function, and given a payoff time structure determined by the government's patent life policy choice, that is, the period over which the inventor can exploit its invention without competition, firms are assumed to choose the amount of cost-reducing R&D that maximizes the discounted present value of their invention-dependent profits. Nordhaus shows that the longer the patent's life is, the more cost-reducing R&D will be induced, all else equal. In determining how long patents should have their exclusionary power, government policy-makers in turn are assumed by Nordhaus to choose a patent life that maximizes the invention's contribution to *social welfare*, including not only the profits achieved through cost reductions by the inventing firm but also increases in consumers' surplus realized during the life of the patent (only in drastic invention cases) plus those like triangle BGE in Figure 1 realized when patent protection ends and competition forces prices down to the new level of marginal cost.

Nordhaus' contribution was a pioneering clarification of relationships that had previously been visualized at best qualitatively and imprecisely. Compare e.g. Machlup (1958, pp. 66-73). It had, however, five significant limitations. First, it focused on cost-saving or process innovations which, available statistics showed, amounted to only about a fourth of all research and development expenditures incurred by American industries. The remaining three-fourths comprised R&D directed toward creating or improving *products* that would eventually be sold to consumers or other companies. To be sure, what for the inventing firm is a product (e.g., a computer-controlled lathe or a turbojet engine) may for the purchasing firm be a cost-reducing process, but the market dynamics, we shall see, are different. Second, it assumed implicitly that patents were the only barrier to competitive imitation of inventions, ignoring the first mover advantages that were at the time beginning to be recognized as barriers to rapid imitation. Third, as is customary in mathematical economics, it focused on achieving optimal first-order conditions, with marginal private or social benefits being equalized to corresponding marginal costs. In so doing, it deemphasized the possibility that many alternative outcomes might be profitable for inventing firms and improve social welfare, even though they do not achieve a maximum maximorum. Fourth, by assuming a single inventor investing in new technology without recognizable technological rivals, it in effect accepted the prospect theory of invention and rejected the alternative and empirically plausible rent-seeking theory, with profoundly different implications for patent policy. ¹⁰ And fifth, it ignored the fact that invention is a

cumulative process, and in particular, that how patent rights affect the use of an invention made at time t can significantly affect the further progress of technology at time t+n. 11

This paper seeks to fill lacunae left by the first three of these Nordhaus assumptions. The fourth and fifth, requiring much richer and more diverse empirical foundations, are commended to others.

Theoretical Foundations

Our focus here is on product innovations. The most prominent attribute of product innovations is that they make products more attractive to consumers, shifting demand functions upward and outward, perhaps making it profitable to produce and market a product that, without the invention, would not have been commercially viable. Demand functions reveal the quantity of a given product that will be demanded at diverse alternative prices, *assuming*, as is conventional in partial equilibrium analyses, that the prices of other substitute or complementary products have adjusted to the availability of the product in question. Given this, we emphasize here the consequences for economic welfare within the immediate innovation-impacted product market, ignoring spillovers in possibly related product markets.

We assume that successful research and development shifts the relevant product's demand function upward so that it lies above marginal cost (whose level may also be affected by the invention project) and hence that profitable commercialization is possible. The model is illustrated at its simplest in Figure 2. We assume that marginal cost is constant per unit produced at level C-MC. Without invention, the relevant demand function is D₀, which lies at all points but the zero quantity value below marginal cost and hence leaves no possibility of profitable production. Invention shifts the demand function upward by CF (arrow), with the new demand function D₁ allowing profitable production. Assuming that the innovator has monopoly power in pricing its product, albeit taking into account the prices of potential substitute products, the innovator derives its marginal revenue function MR₁, chooses to market an output of OQ_M at price OA, and realizes a profit (strictly defined, quasi-rent) above its variable costs given by the rectangle ABEC. This profit is counted as a benefit from a broader society-wide perspective. But in addition, and in contrast to the Nordhaus run-of-the-mill case, sales of the new product yield to buyers a consumers' surplus measured by the dot-shaded triangle CS. The emergence of competition can have either or both of two effects. For one, imitators capture some of the innovator's sales, squeezing its demand function to the left and perhaps (depending upon demand elasticities) forcing the innovator to reset its price, leading to reduced profits. The assumption accepted here is that the innovator continues to have some monopoly power (i.e., under conditions of differentiated product oligopoly), so that it still faces a downward-sloping (though changed) marginal revenue function and can at least for a while after entry set a price above its marginal cost. Imitative rivals too are assumed to be differentiated product oligopolists tacitly cooperating, at least within limits, to set prices that maximize joint oligopoly profits. Second, the alternative assumption, implicitly accepted in the Nordhaus model, is that when patents or first mover advantages are lost, unrestrained price competition breaks out immediately and prices are driven all the way down to marginal cost MC. In this case, what was previously potential

but lost consumers' surplus measured by triangle BGE (labelled DWL) in Figure 2 is transformed into actual consumers' surplus -- a measurable social gain. We will take this result as a benchmark in our analysis of socially optimal outcomes. At the same time, firms' quasi-rents are transformed into consumers' surplus on what is conventionally assumed to be a 1:1 basis.

In our model, the vigor of the innovator's product R&D effort determines (without stochastic variation, important in the real world) how far the innovator's demand function is thrust upward. What is needed then is an analogue to Nordhaus' invention possibility function. We focus on the resultant height of the demand function, leaving for exogenous simulations the demand function's slope and hence the breadth of the market. An intuitive rationale for this assumption is that product innovation affects consumers' willingness to pay, which is measured by a demand function's vertical dimension. The horizontal dimension is more closely related to the scope of the relevant market, which might arguably be said to be more exogenous than endogenous. Specifically, we assume that the demand function is shifted through product innovation from an intercept at point C in Figure 2, leaving sales intrinsically unprofitable, to an endogenous intercept point F, where F can vary from identity with C (if no R&D is performed) to five times OC(S = 5). Initial experiments assumed an exponential shift function $S = RD^k$, with k < 1 to imply diminishing marginal returns. This approximates the approach taken by Nordhaus with his invention possibility function. Those experiments, however, yielded implausibly high shift values and hence market sizes. Therefore, a quadratic approximation

(1)
$$S = 1 + .2784 \text{ RD} - .0049 (\text{RD})^2$$

was used, with R&D outlays measured in two digits only, e.g., in thousands of dollars (or millions, for larger projects). 12 It is illustrated in Figure 3. Its maximum value is realized at R&D expenditures of roughly 28 (000), with S=4.95 at that value.

Needless to say, even with a given demand intercept shift, markets can be of widely varying sizes. This arguably exogenous variability was taken into account by assuming demand functions to be linear in price, with equation P = 10S -(slope) Q and slopes dP/dQ varying from - .03 to -.07. Two such cases are illustrated in Figure 4. With linear demand and a given vertical intercept, the demand curves are iso-elastic, i.e., with the same price elasticity of demand for any given vertical level. This allows an assumption, simplifying calculation in computer simulations, that profit-maximizing prices are identical (\$35 per unit in Figure 4) for linear demand functions with the same vertical intercept but varying slopes. The numerical assumptions to be sure determine the outcomes, and exploration with alternative parameter sets is encouraged. But the assumptions permit a wide range of circumstances to be investigated.

The Effect of Differing Patent Lives Revisited

For broad insight into how outcomes vary with alternative market parameters and patent lives, payoff matrices were calculated for three base cases: with demand slopes of -0.3, -0.5, and -0.7. In a preliminary stage, shift variables were determined as a function of R&D outlays varying by units from 1 to 35. For each R&D outlay and R&D-determined shift variable, profit-

maximizing prices, quantities, and (given constant marginal cost of \$10 per unit) price-cost margins were computed. The product of price-cost margins times profit-maximizing quantities yielded the annual quasi-rent following from any given R&D expenditure, assumed for simplicity to be constant over time with no exogenous growth or decline (an assumption varied later). For each possible patent life (by twos) from 4 years to infinity, the discounted present value of quasi-rents realized by the innovator was calculated. Patent lives were assumed to begin at year 0. Quasi-rents were assumed to begin flowing in at year 1, i.e., after a year's R&D and production setup. For each patent life, a discount factor associated with the years of sale under patent protection was applied to the annual quasi-rent estimate. The assumed discount rate was 12 percent per annum. 13 Following conventional assumptions (but inconsistent with the theory and evidence on first mover advantages to be addressed later), the calculations assumed that when patents expire, quasi-rents fall precipitously to zero and remain there subsequently. From the discounted present values so calculated, front-end research and development costs (multiplied from column (1) by 1000) were subtracted to yield the discounted present value from a year 0 vantage point of profits net of R&D outlays -- i.e., an indication of whether any given R&D expenditure was in the net present value-enhancing.

Tables 1 through 3 provide private payoff matrices computed under these assumptions. The first column (labelled "rand") contains alternative R&D expenditures (in thousands of dollars). The second column reports the annual quasi-rent (labelled "profit") resulting from each R&D expenditure, given the shift variable's impact on the demand curve's intercept value and the resulting profit-maximizing solution, and assuming marginal cost to be \$10 per unit. The quasi-rent is assumed constant per year from the time of product introduction to the time of patent expiration, after which it plunges to zero. The remaining columns report discounted present profit values (with front-end R&D costs deducted) for various patent lives. In column (3), for example, the heading "dpvto4" indicates that the net discounted present values continuing only to a patent expiration at 4 years.

In Tables 1 through 3, the present value-maximizing R&D expenditure for any given patent life is indicated by a circle around the maximum DPV column value. Ranges of negative discounted present value are delineated by square brackets. Considering the latter first, we see that with all assumed market slope values, there are ranges of negative present values, the more so, the shorter the patent life. For the smallest assumed market (Table 3; slope= -.07), R&D outlays are uniformly value-reducing, i.e., unprofitable, through patent lives of eight years or less. For at least such "small-market" cases, substantial patent lives are needed to induce R&D investment. The circled values reveal that for all parameter values, DPV-maximizing R&D outlays increase moderately with longer patent lives, but then stabilize -- near a 12-year life for the largest simulated market and near 18 years for the smallest market. An indication of the underlying lucrativeness implied by the parameters is found by calculating the internal rate of return on the profit-maximizing R&D investment for a patent life of 16 years. With the largest market (slope = -.03), the internal rate of return at the DPV-maximizing invesment with patent life of 16 years is approximately 49 percent; for the intermediate case (slope = -.05), 27 percent; and for the smallest market (slope = -.07), 21.5 percent.¹⁴ Obviously, for less lucrative cases, the internal rate of return is at least 12 percent over all payoff matrix cells with positive net present values.

Two main insights emerge at this preliminary stage. First, over a wide range of parameter values and patent lives, investment in research and development is profitable, even if not present value-maximizing. Second, R&D markets may fail totally -- i.e., no investment in R&D will be made -- if short patent lives are coupled with relatively small market spaces.

Constrained Social Welfare Maximization a la Nordhaus

What has been presented thus far is an analysis of how profitable R&D investments are from the perspective of private enterprises for various market parameters and patent lives. Now we ask, how do these results relate to the interests of the broader society in which firms operate? In other words, what constellation of parameters and choices maximizes social welfare? Social welfare here is measured by the discounted sum of surpluses from innovation realized by both the enterprises that provide the innovations and the consumers who utilize them. To explore this, we need a new kind of payoff matrix. Tables 1 through 3 focused on *private* payoffs only -- that is, the discounted present value of quasi-rent rectangles like ABEC in Figure 2 less the (undiscounted) value of R&D expenditures. To compute a social payoff matrix, we need a broader conception. Specifically, during the life of the patent, the gain is measured by the rectangle ABEC plus the triangle of consumers' surplus FBA in Figure 2. But after patents expire, values do not plunge to zero as assumed in Tables 1 through 3. Rather, the profit rectangle ABEC is converted into consumers' surplus as price competition drives prices down to marginal cost; triangle FBA continues to be realized by consumers (in industrial product cases, users) of the product; and in addition, triangle BGE (labelled DWL) now becomes consumers' surplus as lower prices induce increased consumption by previously under-served consumers. Given the linearity assumptions underlying our demand and cost analysis, the pre-patentexpiration surplus is exactly 1.5 times the innovator's quasi-rent, while the post-expiration surplus is 2.0 times the original innovator's quasi-rent. Each such surplus must, of course, be discounted to present value in the final reckoning, here by assumption at a constant 12 percent discount rate.

Tables 4-6 display these surpluses for three alternative demand slope cases. The bracketed items show that except for very low R&D outlays, social surpluses are uniformly positive across all patent lives. The rectangles around individual payoffs denote welfare-maximizing levels of R&D for each assumed patent life. One should not be surprised to see that they entail almost uniform R&D investments and that the discounted payoffs vary only moderately over diverse patent lengths. For the next insight, we ask again, what outcomes are discounted profit-maximizing for the *firms* that provide innovations? For each given patent life, the (social) payoff that maximizes the firm's discounted profits is circled, as in Tables 1 through 3. Here as before, we see that the profit-maximizing R&D outlays increase at least initially with longer patent lives. But now we advance to Nordhaus' ultimate test. He asks, *given* that firms respond in a profit-maximizing way to alternative government-imposed patent lives, what firm response maximizes social welfare? The mathematics for this constrained maximization problems are sufficiently complex that insights do not readily emerge without numerical analysis. To infer the solution, we begin with the circled social payoffs that correspond to profit-

maximizing choices by firms and then read across the set of circled social payoffs to determine which firm optimum maximizes *social* value. For example, in Table 5, for the medium-size market, we see that social payoffs increase from 65,360 to 67,322 with a patent life extension from 6 to 8 years and then *decline* for longer patent lives! Thus, an eight-year patent life (marked by an asterisk at the circled payoff entry) maximizes social welfare in the Nordhaus sense for the assumed parameters. Comparing Tables 4-6, we find that welfare-maximizing patent lives a la Nordhaus increase systematically from six to eight to 14 years, the smaller the relevant market is. This is an important insight. We see also that the choices maximizing discounted private profits involve systematically lower R&D expenditures than those that maximize social welfare. This is the natural result of that fact that many of the benefits driving social welfare maximization are external to private company decision-makers.

How large is the difference between socially optimal and private profit-maximizing R&D outlays over varying market parameters? In Table 5, we see that private R&D expenditures at the social optimum are 22(000), or about 84.6 percent of the socially optimal R&D expenditure. Repeating this analysis for the alternative demand parameters assumed, we obtain the following percentages:

	Demand S	Slope	Private/Social R&D Percent
Smallest market	-0.07	88.0 %	
Intermediate marke	et -0.05	84.6 %	
Largest market	-0.03	88.9 %	

These are for the R&D expenditure levels that maximize social welfare. A broader analysis is provided by Figure 5, which arrays private/social divergences over a range of patent lives from 4 to 20 years. With the largest market, i.e., demand slope = -0.03, the divergence is smallest. With smaller markets, the divergence rises, plummeting to zero -- that is, a complete R&D market failure -- for patent lives less than 6 years in the medium-sized market case and patent lives less than 10 years in the smallest market. The implication is that the patent system makes its strongest incremental contribution to sustaining innovation in relatively small markets -- those in which, it should be noted, the social gains from innovation are smallest.

Alternative First Mover Assumptions

We advance now to territory that remains unexplored. This paper takes off from the recognition that barriers other than patents impede rapid imitation of a first mover's commercialized invention. Not all of the first mover advantages articulated earlier can be treated analytically. We proceed by incorporating the following simplified assumptions.

To model recognition lags, secrecy, and the imitator's need to perform its own R&D, we

test the effect of simple time lags ranging from two to four years following the innovator's product innovation date at year 1.

A second key assumption is that the innovator's loss of market share to imitators is not instantaneous, but because of the first mover's image and cost advantages, imitators' market penetration rates are constrained. We assume concretely that the innovator's market share decays exponentially at alternative rates of 10, 15, and 20 percent per year.

That rivals do not gain market position instantaneously with new products suggests a symmetric assumption, contrary to the naive assumptions underlying Tables 1 through 6, that first movers must also build up their patronage at an incremental rate rather than capturing the whole market in the first year after a new product's debut. Specifically, we assume for simplicity here that the first mover penetrates the relevant product market at the rate of 50 percent per annum, or more precisely, that the share of the market it does not capture, ignoring imitation, decays at the rate of e^{-pt}, where p is the 0.5 penetration coefficient and t is a running year variable with value of zero at the time of innovation.¹⁵ Needless to say, this assumption disfavoring early year quasi-rents reduces the discounted present values of innovator profits by much more than those assumed in the analyses of Tables 1 through 3. Not surprisingly, trial analyses of first mover effects without this innovator penetration assumption (not reported here) yielded appreciably higher discounted innovator profits than those presented here. Analyses with the 0.5 penetration rate are emphasized here because of their greater believed realism.

Figure 6 summarizes the innovator market share implications of the alternative penetration and imitator erosion scenarios, assuming that imitation begins in year 3, the quickest of the three imitation lag scenarios. With no imitation, the innovator starting at the beginning of year 2 achieves 95 percent of its market potential after six years, i.e., in year 7. But erosion by imitators causes an increasing loss of innovator market position and leads within a decade to substantially atrophied innovator shares -- as low as three to eight percent within 20 years.

That patent-free imitation might within the life span of conventional patents (assumed absent in our first mover model) drive innovator market shares to very low values clashes with the notion that the first mover gains significant "image" advantages, permitting it to maintain premium prices indefinitely and to combine that product differentiation advantage with pricing strategies that impede competitive entry. This consideration underlies an additional set of simulations in which the first mover's retained market share is constrained not to fall below 30 percent. The 30 percent assumption was drawn from Bond and Lean (1977) and pioneering work done in the 1970s using rich data collected by the Strategic Planning Institute.

Tables 7 through 12 present the results of simulations embodying our first mover assumptions -- Tables 7 though 9 for varying demand slope assumptions, assuming no constraint on the market share rivals can capture, and Tables 10 through 12 with a 30 percent floor on the first mover's eventual market share. As with Tables 1 through 6, the first column of each table contains alternative R&D outlays "rand" (in thousands) and the second "profit" the resulting (constant) annual quasi-rent potential tapped by the innovator and its imitators. The remaining column headings disclose years of delay between the innovator's product roll-out and the first

year of imitation (e.g., in column (3), with imitation after two years, i.e., in the third year analyzed); and "ero..." reports the rate at which imitators erode the innovator's profit, e.g., in column (3), at a 10 percent annual rate. The numbers in those columns are discounted present values of innovator quasi-rents less front-end R&D costs. For each column, the maximum discounted present value entry is circled, and negative discounted present values are separated by square brackets.

With the largest of the three market size assumptions (Table 7; demand slope = -.03), all nine scenarios yield a substantial positive discounted present quasi-rent value. With the medium-size market (Table 8), this is also true, although for the shortest imitation lag (two years) and the fastest rate of penetration (.20), there is only one barely profitable R&D investment level yielding a tiny DPV of +1. Comparing the square brackets, we see that the range of unprofitable investment alternatives is smaller, the longer the imitation lag and the lower the imitator erosion rate. With the smallest of the assumed markets (Table 9), however, there is catastrophic R&D failure. No investment level is profitable with imitation beginning two years after innovation. With a three-year imitation lag, positive profits are found only with the lowest erosion rate of .10. A four-year imitation lag (i.e., under the heading "Imitation Year 5") is more successful, with positive profitability for .10 and .15 erosion rates even if not for the more rapid erosion at 20 percent. Clearly, market size, imitation lags, and erosion rates are critical to the success of first mover advantages in providing incentives alternative to the patent system.

Constraining the innovator's market share loss to imitators so that a minimum share of 30 percent is retained, consistent with the early pharmaceutical rivalry histories studied by Bond and Lean (1977), improves the incentive picture. This is shown in Tables 10 through 12. As in the unconstrained case of Table 7, all scenarios yield some positive discounted profit-maximizing equilibrium for the largest market (Table 10). In the analogue to the unconstrained Table 8 case, positive equilibria exist also across all parameter values in the medium-size market (Table 11), though with more generous margins above the zero-DPV R&D failure point. In the smallest market (Table 12), R&D failure occurs again with higher erosion rates and imitation lags of two and three years, but with a four-year imitation lag, positive equilibria are found for all three erosion rates. The effect of first mover advantages in allowing innovators to defend at least a minority share of their new markets through economies of scale, cost advantages, and the possibility of sustaining profitable price differentials contributes significantly to incentives for R&D investment.

Tables 13 and 14 summarize the impact of diverse first mover scenarios on the strength of R&D investment incentives. As a benchmark, we take the level of R&D investment that would maximize social welfare with 16-year patent lives, drawn from Tables 4, 5, and 6.

Table 13 focuses on 27 simulations, assuming no floor to the innovator's market share following imitation. Averaging across the nine outcomes for varying imitation lags and erosion rates, we find for the largest market that profit-maximizing R&D outlays with imitation are 90.1 percent of the social welfare-maximizing levels. For the medium-size market, they average 81.6 percent of the social optima. Averages conceal more than they reveal in the smallest of the three

assumed markets. Six out of nine cases are failures, with no profitable level of R&D expenditure. For the remaining three cases, the average is 78.7 percent. Turning to Table 14, we see that a floor under the innovator's eventual market share improves outcomes slightly. For the largest market, the capped vs. social average is 91.6 percent; for the medium-size market, 85.1 percent. For the smallest of the three markets, there is also an improvement: five of the nine cases yield positive levels of R&D investment.

These averages reveal that first mover advantages fall short of yielding socially optimal levels of R&D investment. But the patent system is also an imperfect allocator. From Tables 4 through 6, we calculated that Nordhaus-optimal R&D investment levels are 88.9 percent of the social optimum in the largest of the three markets, 84.6 percent in the medium-size market, and 88.0 percent in the smallest market. Over those three, the simple average is 87.2 percent. Ignoring the cases of R&D failure, the average across the three markets with first mover advantages substituting for patent protection and letting innovator market shares fall at most to 30 percent is 86.3 percent -- only one percent below the Nordhaus optima averages. We conclude at least tentatively, subject to confirmation with richer simulations, that incentive systems focused on first mover advantages do a quite tolerable job of allocating resources to research and development. Their principal weakness, at least by the assumptions underlying our analysis, is proneness to zero-R&D corner solutions, especially in small markets.

The incidence of innovation failure also suggests an interesting though less general insight. Out of the 54 simulations summarized by Tables 13 and 14, ten, or 18.5 percent, represent failures to invest at all in R&D because expected quasi-rents fall short of R&D costs over all alternative levels of R&D investment. This is not greatly at odds with Edwin Mansfield's (1986) finding, from hypothetical questions posed to 100 U.S. corporations, that in the total absence of patent protection, 14 percent of the innovations they actually commercialized would not have been made. In other words, first mover advantages alone would have provided insufficient incentive.

Discussion

The analysis presented here is at best a too long-delayed first step. Much more remains to be done. First mover advantages could be modelled in different and richer ways. And the basic model itself is highly simplified, focusing on a single clearly-designated inventor obtaining (or not obtaining) one patent, not hundreds or thousands, protecting an invention targeted toward a specific node in product characteristics space. A more complex and more realistic analysis could deal with innovators and presumed later movers with differentiated products, each occupying its own niche in product characteristics space. The underlying mathematics would be more complex but in principle tractable, at least for a subset of economists excluding the author. Also needed is additional empirical work illuminating the various types of first mover advantages, their impact on the retention of market share and profits, and the rates at which both innovators and imitators penetrate their target markets. Levin *et al.* (1987), Cohen *et al.* (2004), and Graham *et al.* (2009) provide a start, but much more needs to be learned empirically.

A more important simplification here has been the assumption, following Nordhaus, that there is a single identifiable first mover whose invention, absent patent protection, is then imitated by one or more other firms. This scenario corresponds most closely to what Edward Kitch (1977) has called "the prospect theory of invention." In an alternative conception, changes in the forces of supply (i.e., the state of scientific and technological knowledge) and demand endogenously spur numerous firms to invest rivalrously in R&D in the hope of winning a preferred market position, perhaps protected by patents. The rivals' efforts may in the limiting case be so vigorous that the sum of R&D costs incurred by all participants equals or even exceeds the realizable pool of quasi-rents, so that in hindsight R&D investment approximates a zero-profit equilibrium. For a pioneering statement of this "rent-seeking" model, see Barzel (1968). 19 Re-analysis by McFetridge and Rafiguzzaman (1986, Table 1) revealed that when the implicit prospect assumption is replaced by a rent-seeking model, with R&D costs escalating to exhaust quasi-rents, the welfare-maximizing patent life over 32 sets of parameter values averaged 21.2 years following the strict Nordhaus assumptions and 0.8 years when rents are totally dissipated by competing inventors. Somewhere between these unrealistic extremes is the messier world of oligopoly, where investment in research and development is less a quest for protected niches in profitable product space than a Schumpeterian struggle for survival against market inroads by product-differentiating rivals.

Perhaps more serious a simplification is our neglect of uncertainty in assuming that the R&D investments supported are those with positive discounted present values. There is abundant research showing that R&D payoff projections are not only uncertain, but that the distribution of profit outcomes is quite skew, with a long thin tail containing the projects that ultimately yield the lion's share of returns. 20 Skewness in turn makes it difficult to use classical hedge strategies, that is, by supporting a portfolio of R&D projects. In the first mover simulations performed here (Tables 7 to 12), with only three alternative demand parameters, the innovator's DPV maxima ranged from zero (10 cases) to a maximum of 38,200, with a mean of 11,900, a median of 8,000, and a standard deviation of 12,400. This is skew, but not nearly as skew as the distributions studied by the author and Harhoff (2000). It is plausible that larger, well-established companies approach their R&D decisions with something at least approximating a portfolio mentality, expecting the less frequent good results to compensate or indeed overcompensate for the disappointments. This is less likely for smaller and especially startup ventures, but the behavioral consequences, though empirically fragile, could be surprising. Startups might be more risk-averse on average, requiring especially strong patent protection and/or first mover advantages to justify R&D investment decisions. But there is also reason to suppose that at least in the United States, small technological innovators are on average risklovers, taking long-shot investments that, if they could be quantified in advance, yield returns actuarily less than "normal." See Scherer (2001). What is certain is that both theories and policies on how R&D investments are motivated must take uncertainty into account.

Policy Implications

Given this standard economist's caveat that further research is needed, it might be premature to suggest policy implications. But the questions addressed here are important and almost totally ignored in past policy deliberations. Therefore, it is useful to sketch some directions in which policies might be adapted.

We begin from the widely accepted premise that all is not well in the realm of patent law and its administration.²¹ Patents have proliferated without any evident increase in the rate of technological innovation; and patent litigation -- sometimes escalating to patent wars -- has imposed high costs upon participants, governmental adjudicative bodies, and technical progress. These problems suggest that fundamental policy changes should be seriously considered.

In view of evidence that non-patent first mover advantages often provide sufficient incentive for technological innovation even without patent protection, the logical step would be scaling back significantly the scope and duration of patent protection while retaining the possibility of long-lived patents for identifiable special cases. One starting point would be to limit grants for the protection of invention to short-term patents, like the German Gebrauchsmuster (petty patents), with streamlined granting procedures and effective lives limited to five years. A five-year patent would both complement alternative first mover advantages and provide a brief lag in its own right -- a lag found important to improved profitability in Tables 7-9 as lags were increased from two to four years. The law could then identify two kinds of exceptions: a general class attempting to encompass the cases in which first mover advantages are systematically inadequate, and a special administrative procedure to grant longer-term protection when patent applicants provide persuasive evidence that conventional incentives are insufficient.

The most serious R&D failures, our analysis suggests, occur when markets are too small to support substantial R&D investments. Given the uncertainties that pervade R&D investment, identifying small-market exceptions administratively in advance is undoubtedly not feasible. A workable surrogate would be to limit full-term (i.e., 20 year) patent grants to unaffiliated independent inventors and companies with, say, fewer than 20 employees at the time of patent application. Newness and smallness are presumably correlated with modest market prospects. A more fine-tuned but administratively feasible policy (using data like those employed in competition agencies' merger analyses) would withhold full-term patents only for firms with substantial (i.e., greater than 10 percent) market shares in Census-defined industries that are structured oligopolistically, i.e., in which the four leading sellers originate more than 40 percent of national market sales or value added. For such firms, established channels of distribution and brand images provide non-patent first mover advantages, and the threat of Schumpeterian creative destruction normally generates R&D incentives at least as potent as those offered by the prospect of a strong patent position contingent upon success.

Exceptions to these general presumptions could then be dealt with through expedited case-by-case administrative procedures. For example, applicants might seek extended protection

by showing that (1) the costs of R&D are extraordinarily high compared to benchmarks in the relevant line of business;²⁴ (2) the underlying R&D is susceptible to quick replication at costs much lower than those incurred by the original inventor; (3) a full-term patent issuing from the relevant application will be licensed at "reasonable" royalties and without other restrictive provisions to all good-faith license seekers; and (4) (often accompanying (3)), that the underlying firm does R&D only and makes its profits by licensing the resulting technology to other manufacturers or users.²⁵ To be sure, administrative costs at the Patent Office would be increased by the need to adjudicate such petitions for exception. But if the default case is reduced to a Gebrauchsmuster-type patent, the Patent Office's costs of search to show that minimal standards of inventiveness are met and that patent issue is not barred by the existence of prior art -- functions that are both costly and error-prone -- could be reduced substantially.

These proposals are not intended to be anything like the last word on a long-controversial subject. Rather, they are articulated to stimulate debate on an important point that has been virtually ignored in past analyses -- the undeniable fact that non-patent first mover advantages serve an imitation-delaying function like that exercised by patents, permitting investors in invention and innovation to anticipate monetary rewards for their efforts that, even without patents, are sufficient to make the investments worthwhile.

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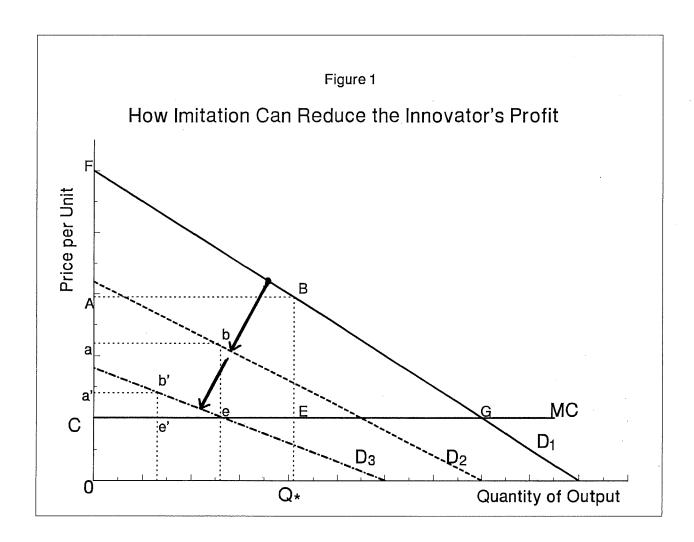
End Notes

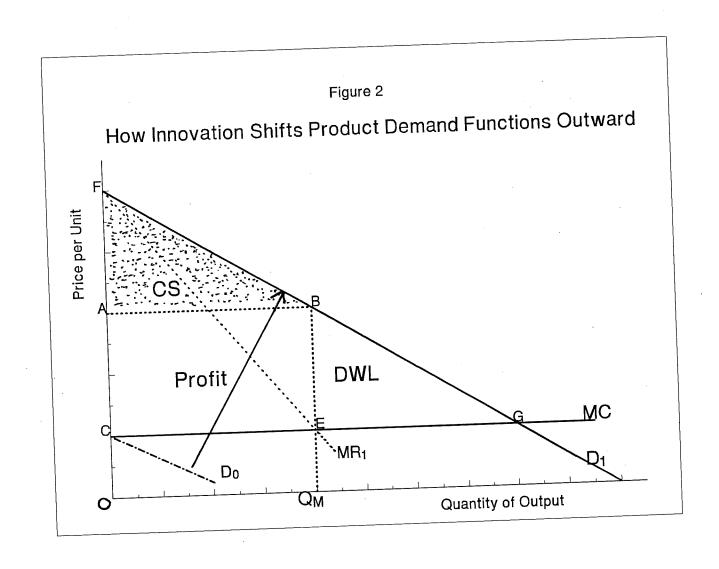
1. The foregone invention counts are weighted by aggregate research and development expenditures in the surveyed industry groups.

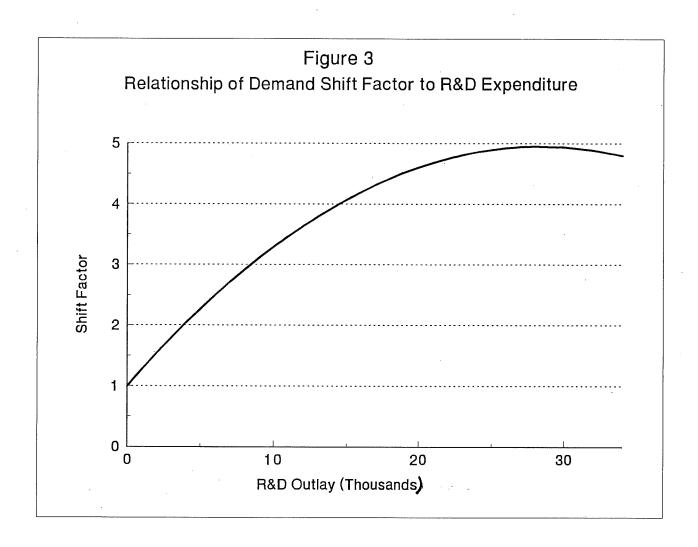
- 2. The term probably originated in game theory.
- 3. This summary follows Scherer (1980), pp. 444-447.
- 4. Levin *et al.* (1987, p. 809) found that the R&D cost needed to duplicate a major *unpatented* new product exceeded 50 percent of the first mover's R&D in 86 percent of the surveyed industries.
- 5. Seminal contributions on this theme came from research with Strategic Planning Institute data. See Buzzell and Gale (1985), Buzzell and Farris (1977), and Robinson and Fornell (1985). See also Bond and Lean (1977) and Schmalensee (1982). On how first movers with an image or cost advantage can through strategic pricing impede the rate at which rivals enter their market, see Gaskins (1969), especially pp. 42-53; and more generally, Scherer (1980), pp. 232-243.
- 6. On how Intel used this advantage strategically, see Scherer (2011, pp. 50-54).
- 7. The theory of such R&D races can be traced back to Scherer (1967), which deliberately neglected the role of patent protection. That dominant firms often but not always respond with a lag to rival technological challenges is shown by the seven case histories presented in Scherer (2008), Chapter 44. See also Baldwin and Scott (1987) and Christenson (1997).
- 8. A much earlier, more qualitative but prescient contribution was by Sir Arnold Plant (1933). A geometric interpretation of the Nordhaus theory is offered in Scherer (1972).
- 9. On the flow of technologically advanced products to become processes in purchasing industries, see Scherer (1982).
- 10. See Barzel (1968) and McFetridge and Raffiguzzaman (1986).
- 11. See e.g. Merges and Nelson (1990) and Scotchmer (1991).

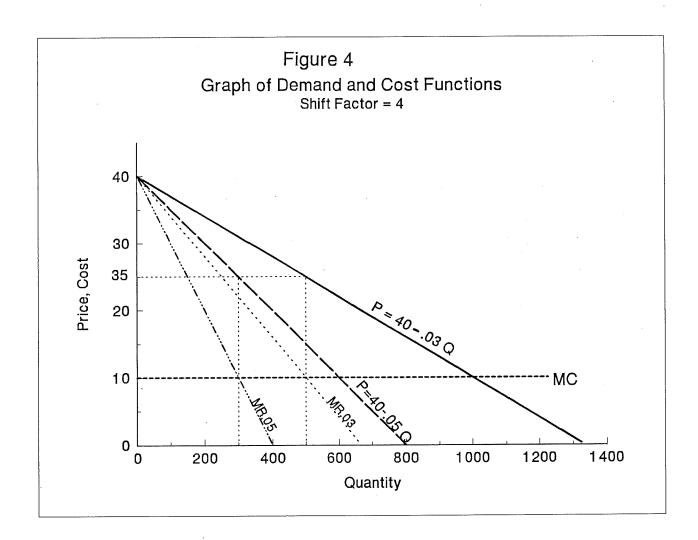
- 12. In Scherer (1972), I suggested more inflected cubic or in one case linear dogleg invention possibility functions.
- 13. Nordhaus (1969, p. 81) assumes a discount rate of 20 percent. A lower rate was chosen here mainly because an expert panel retained by the U.S. Office of Technology Assessment (1993, pp. 267-283) found 12 percent to be an empirically-supported risk-adjusted real discount rate for research-intensive pharmaceutical firms.
- 14. The calculations were done assuming finite annual discount terms (e.g., $(1/(1+r)^t)$) rather than the e^{-rt} term used in computing the column values for various patent lives.
- 15. The combination of penetration and imitator erosion coefficients mirrors the approach taken in Scherer (1967), equation [7].
- 16. It is assumed that imitators' products do not enlarge or reduce the size of the quasi-rent pool; e.g., because the number of imitators is small enough to retain a joint profit-maximizing oligopoly. Note a key difference between Tables 1 through 6 and those here: the actual innovator quasi-rents here from which discounted present values calculated are not the total market potential, but only that part of the potential tapped and/or retained by the innovator.
- 17. Note that within the range of Nordhaus-optimal values, socially optimal R&D levels remain essentially constant (subject to rounding error attibutable to considering only integer values) across a wide range of patent lives, including our 16-year benchmark.
- 18. See Scherer (1980, pp. 393-398) for the author's own survey of a literature pioneered by others. A significant methodological contribution is Hausman *et al.* (1994).
- 19. For applications to pharmaceutical R&D revealing dramatic differences in implications, depending upon whether prospect or rent-seeking model assumptions are followed, see Scherer (2004) and Scherer (2010, pp. 562-569).
- 20. The pioneering empirical analysis was Mansfield et al. (1968, Chapter 3). Evidence on skewness is presented inter alia in Scherer and Harhoff (2000).
- 21. See U.K. Commission (2002), U, S. National Research Council (2004), Jaffe and Lerner (2004), and Bessen and Meurer (2008).
- 22. Needless to say, given the 20-year patent mandate incorporated in the 1994 TRIPS Treaty of Marrakesh, the change would have to be world-wide and not confined to a single nation. But if the negotiators for TRIPS got the balance wrong in the first place, their choices should indeed be reversed. Compare Michael Ryan (1998).

- 23. It would be necessary to restrain "sham" transactions, e.g., when a large firm finances the R&D of small entities and then acquires the resulting patents with their full-term rights.
- 24. For guidance, see Levin et al. (1987, p. 809).
- 25. Classic examples in famous U.S. patent rights law include radio circuit designer Hazeltine Research (*Automatic Radio v. Hazeltine Research*, 339 U.S. 827 (1950)); and glass bottle machinery designer Hartford-Empire (*U.S. v. Hartford-Empire Co. et al.*, 323 U.S. 386 (1947)). Licensing practices would presumably continue to be subject to competition policy rules.









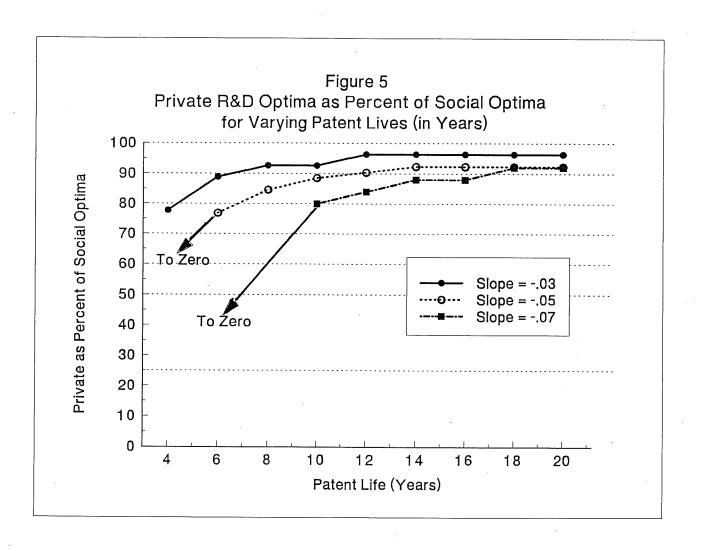


Figure 6 Innovator's Market Share under Alternative Imitation Scenarios Innovator Captures Market at 50 Percent Annual Rate 1.0 No imitative erosion 0.9 Innovator's Net Market Share 8.0 0.7 0.6 0.5 0.4 0.3 0.2 0.1 0.0 2 6 10 16 18 20 Years from Start

Table 1

Private Payoff Matrix for Diverse Patent Lives Demand Function P = 10S - .03Q (Large Market)

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Table 2

10S - .05Q (Medium-Size Market) Private Payoff Matrix for Diverse Patent Lives Demand Function P =

Table 3

Private Payoff Matrix for Diverse Patent Lives Demand Function P = 10S - .07Q (Small Market)

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dpvto12	85	144	178	92	188	168	35	91	O.	∞	79	43	07	69	27	81	28	67	97	18	27	5251	60	81	38	81	10	23	22	O	25	70	30	-6048	91
dpvto10	87	149	190	13	219	210	191	161	4	82	Q	0	28	03	46	82	17	43	9	69	67	2556	32	96	48	7	7	75	76	Н	19	9	14	881	59
dpvto8	88	26	90	39	58	65	62	50	ന	10	82	20	31	02	82	S	g	Н	0	7	2	698-	21	Ω	21	87	65	52	56	68	93	928	075	$^{\circ}$	400
dpvto6	91	165	225	272	08	334	52	63	70	73	73	72	372	372	74	380	389	404	423	49	482	-5223	70	26	069	764	46	938	039	49	268	1396	533	619	1832
dpvto4	4	177	250	314	71	421	67	07	45	580	613	645	78	711	746	782	822	864	910	961	016	Н	140	1211	1287	369	458	1552	653	759	872	991	116	2246	382
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Table 4

Social Payoffs for Diverse Patent Lives

Demand Function P = 10S -.03Q (Large Market)

dpvtco6 dpvtco10 dpvtco12 dpvtco14 dpvtco16 dpvtco18 dpvtco20 dpvto4

rand profit

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	853	ω	559	93	909	86	320	195	202	328	565	101	128	338	523	174	9787	0353	0869	1327	1725	2058	2323	_	2637	268	7697	2545	2361	2102	1768	1361	887	0335
1-247	903	3297	7	Ŋ	7.	S.	8	7	0)	3	8/	6	8	$\frac{1}{2}$	7	8	9	10	ö	ñ	9	ς,	20	127837	ol!	o l	י עכ	ω	ώ.	M	ö	6	$\ddot{\mathbf{H}}$	Ŋ
	896	C.	$\widetilde{\mathbf{z}}$.57	95	302	996	573	112	171)41	711	172	215	931	513	0254	3848	1388	1869	2287	2637	291		325	330.	327	3168	298	271	237	195	146	680
-	1050	Н	2	03	58	85	69	99	61	44	38	32	117	83	221	25	587	1199	1757	2254	268€	3049	3335	\mathbb{C}^{1}	3685	3744	3719	3611	3422	3151	2801	2373	187	1294
ω	1154	4	Ч	61	339	06	202	59	51	564	889	213)28	323	591	322	1009	1646	2226	2744	3194	3573	3876	014	4245	4306	4282	417	3982	370(3347	2908	239.	1799
4	1286	7	0	35	41	2.4	69	63	992	344	707	570	123	256	0900	3826	1547	2214	2823	3367	3840	4239	4555	97	4951	5015	4999	4891	4695	4411	404	3588	3052	244(
62	240			4	9	3	5	0	ω	8	.8	6	8	37	3	9	9	332	084	131	173	210	241	12659	284	296	302	302	297	28.	26.	23	207	16
-	1 73	ന	4	വ	9	7	∞	O	10	11	12	13	14	15	16	17	18	19	20	21	22	23	24	25	26	27	28	29	30	31	32	33	34	35

Table 5

Social Payoffs for Diverse Patent Lives Demand Function P = 10S - .05Q (Medium-Size Market)

dpvto20		587	7	2	7	7	299	648	016	395	780	165	545	914	269	605	918	205	462	686	874	025	137	207	സ	א ר א כ	256	907	715	479	201	382	524
dpvto18	-567	620		(,)	Oi	w	3	67	04	42	8	20	28	9	32	99	97	26	52	75	9.4	의	ZI	2	63144	ν d	13	8	79	5	27	95	9
dpvto16	w.	-312	26	42	0	007	341	700	77	466	861	256	645	024	389	733	055	349	613	844	038	194	310	384	- H & C	2 4 C	237	088	894	655	374	020	687
dpvto14	10	712	35	5	723	31	372	737	121	517	918	320	717	103	173	325	152	152	721	956	155	胃	434		VEL	471	367	217	021	781	49,	17(803
dpvto12		778	9	72	17	22	2	34	9 /	7	2	2	8	2	37	0	75	32	8	9	\mathbb{S}	28	90	21	4 ぼう	א מ	31	80	83	4 C	23	2	2
dpvto10 c	-538	-219 862	w	$^{\circ}$	7	2	ĽΩ	24	24	9	8	3	3	W	7.1	8	(,)	7.4	\sim	\sim	4	3	5/		69113	ממ	7	20	3		ö	io.	H
vto8	\sim 1	1-170 968	9	2.1	15	151	522	319	336	167	203	536	270	186	393	275	532	956	254	512	732	506	043	132		110	000	85.	65.	40.	107	16.	37(
dpvto6 dp		1-108	2	36	33	214	501	15	150	398	353	308	257	594	114	513	38.	227	536	306	036	224	366	46(0 4	347	189	98,	728	42	07,	67
dpvto4 dj	-489	1276	32	7	25	294	701	138	595	990	544	022	494	954	396	316	208	569	394	180	424	623	775	878	79311	υς C C	774	617	406	145	833	472	064
profit d	\sim	144 313	\sim	\sim	11	16	33	22	53	04	47	89	31	72	12	00	36	19	50	79	04	26	44	50	\circ	ν π ~ α	5 6	77	89	57	41	22	9
rand pr	H	01 KJ	4	S	9	7	ω	თ	10	11	12	13	14	15	16	17	18	19	20	21	22	23	24	25	26	/ 7) ()) ()	30	31	32	33	34	35

Table 6
Social Payoffs for Diverse Patent Lives
Demand Function P = 10S - .07Q (Small Market)

1,14,000	0 200 1 4 2	-733	-971	-771	-1851	257						$\stackrel{\circ}{\circ}$, ,)	יע ישיי	ρα		7 7	1 (· π	73	37	9	28975	Ö	ω	m i	9	ט כ	1 0	- Q	0 6	4.7	81
dovtola) -	-691	-808	1-415	427	1658	3221	5062	7128	9370	7		99	-	9	0	9 (2)	4	4	N	7	Н	H	ŏ	37527	-1	ם כ	7 1) L) 	וני	יור אור	0 (59	33
dpvto16		-687	-794	-3851	7	1	ריז		N	ıo	19	44	70	95	20	14	57	9	6	7	ñ		∞	9	38220	7 6	7 0	5 ~) (9 2	24	2	95	36	48
dpvto14	(1083	1//-	040	n c	φ.	4		S	ω ω	22	48	74	00	25	20	73	90	91	3, 1	7 1	0047	ŏ	2, 5	39360	330	9	222	100	83	12	15	83	27	7
dpvto12	-677	1101	1-301	109	סי) (ופ	Ω[<i>\</i>	ה סי	9	52	ر ا لا	ებ	2 2	2 ($\frac{1}{2}$	4 F	Ω 5	# 1	7/1	7/2		5 5	40503	7	000	4 (3	ŏ	<u>.</u>	2	0, 0	א ה) 1
dpvto10	-670	-728	1-241	724		Ια	ם כ	0 -	٦ ر 0 ر	2 6	7 1	α C	ם ס כ	7 6	j i) 	ν - - 	7 7	o V					164	41956	19	158	080	0 0	o	;;;;;;;;;;;;;;;;;;;;;;;;;;;;;;;;;;;;;;	474	737	7.00)
dpvto8 d	-661	-693	-1651	854	က	-	10	1 C) -	1 0	ט ע		10	1 (, C	ά	Č	717	39.	52	18(278	345	43803	381	348) (C	5 C	שמ) (υ . 2 τ	1 7 7 7 7 7 7 7 7 7 7 7 7 7 7 7 7 7 7 7	40	1
dpvto6 d	-650	-648	1	0	S	4	9		1 00	4	7 5	20	34	64(2,7	16	15	69	90.5	760	262	398	503	375	46151	210	$\frac{1}{2}$	7 7	0 F	٥ ٣ ٢ ٥) () L	67	56	
dpvto4 d	9	-592		2	∞	∞	N	∞	27	56	87	18	50.	81(11(39.	398	92(149	353	528	574	88/	368	49134	770	υ c τ α	2 6	1 0	0 0	σ) (C	51	31	
profit	27	103	224	E 200	576	7	0	$^{\circ}$	2	ω	Н	4	_	õ	m	ĽĊ.	~	=	-*	.7	Ω,	\sim	ω_	~ :	5425 5505) (, α	L IT	Ò	0	g	9	0	
rand	Н (α (J =	4 , F	ດ ເ	د	7	ω	თ	10	11	12	13	14	15	16	17	18	19	50	2 <u>.</u>	22	64	2. c	2 2 2	27	28	29	30	31	32	33	34	32	

Payoff Matrix with Penetration and Imitation Lags Table 7

Demand Function P = 10S - .03Q (Large Market)

7. 5.	im4ero20	1	-755	-1054	-949	-488	\sim	\sim	Ω	\supset 1	\circ	V C) C	> i	2 2	7 (טו פער	ה ל	ה ה	4. 6	ָּטְ ה	9 1	2,5	ָּבְיבָ דְּבָּי			152	001	23	21	93	40	63	61	13360 10884
Imitation Year	im4ero15	7	T 5 / L	ן ע טער טער	TC/-	701	~ (> ⋅	₹ -	40	D O	000	0) 0	י שיל	0 0	ט כ ט ע	, K) -	iù + 10	, ,	ά (ָבָי כ <u>ַ</u>	, [5	55	338	91	16	14	ည္း	25	40	20 0	15301
Imi	im4ero10	1697	\ \ \ \ \ \ \ \ \ \ \ \ \ \ \ \ \ \ \	1.463		ת כ) C) α	α		7 7	37	6.1	عاً ا	0 0	3 (י וכ ז וכ	7 (ў У	2	27(101	000	82	537	5	4.7	$\frac{1}{2}$	ה הינה	η c	א טע	יונ הער	ر ا ر	א זר	21744
ear 4	im3ero20	7	-	, ~	8	2	17	I.	73	03	42	87	3	83	129	269	401	524	636	733	816	881	929	957	996	19531	8 T 6	0 C	7 C 20 C 20 C	о и о и) (0 0 7 0 # 0	2 7 7 7 7	33.5	033
Imitation Year 4	im3ero15	7	0.5	4	48	10	32	58	02	59	27	902	079	257	432	601	761	911	048	169	273	359	424	468	489	24873	460	7 C	100 100 100	2 L L L	1 0	7 7 7	569	343	960
ı	im3ero10	71	O	-623		12	47	08	90	88	966	216	437	658	876	087	289	477	651	807	944	058	149	216	256	(32692)	2 C C	2 C	7 6	200	4 4	7 6	332	780	316
ar 3	imero20	8	26	O	26	88	O	K)	35	36	44	ည	7.4	0	04	13	016	110	194	266	325	370	398	410	405	13809))))))	7 0 0	100	970	α	000	30	91	lO.
Imitation Yea	im2ero15	78	115	u)	84	25		50	78	0	9	رن د ت	44	994	140	281	415	539	651	750	833	899	948	977	987	19732	0 C		000	575	428	258	29C	54	22
	im2ero10	73	α	70	മ	99	8	27	8	64	851	045	747	440	634	823	002	169	323	460	579	678	755	800	232	28436	773	869	596	466	309	126	917	582	424
	profit	Θ	マ	N	ω Ω	34	8	43	02	70	300	α 1 C	ρ.	4. Σ	18	87	53	16	976	032	084	131	173	210	7 7 7 7	12859	296	302	302	294	281	261	235	204	166
		Н	7	ന	₽,	in v	۰	7	∞ (თ ,	O F	⊣	7 C	۲,	1.4 	TP	16	17	18	19	20	77	22	N (л с 4. п	2 2	27	28	29	30	31	32	33	34	35

Table 8

Payoff Matrix with Penetration and Imitation Lags

Demand Function P = 10S - .05Q (Medium-Size Market) Imitation Year 3

Imitation Year 5

im4ero20		ω	14	17	$^{\circ}$	18	79	-1258	_	αl	349	σ.	9	3	on i	n,	- 1	ن ف	5 6	ກໍ	ار	7.	\leq $\stackrel{\cdot}{\sim}$	0000 0000	3 0	, ,	7 1	, ,	4. (V .		, ,	77771	500	-7469
0 im4ero15 i			-1378	7	7,	Ч,	-1188	-705	-105	587	1346	Z L 48	2767	3 / A D	4600	0366	00//	7770	0/2/	#7//	0000 V 8 C 8	27.04		00 LX	7750	7231	α 7 L L L L L L L L L L L L L L L L L L	0 C C C C C C C C C C C C C C C C C C C	00/0	3 TO 4	0.00 0.00 0.00 0.00 0.00 0.00 0.00 0.0	0017	-1029	-2848	∞
im4ero10		1 6	1778	7 7	7 6) L	T/G-	101	ט עכ	1 α	~ 0	00	0 0	v o	n o	n o	1) C) [1 6	0	2 2	15	:::	197	148	280		3 6	1 0	' _	, (3070	4	(U)
im3ero20	0	0 5	7 O) L	7 7 7	10) C	оп Оп) L	777	* ^		1 C	17	19	10	۶ ر ۱	61	80	89	68	77	54	9	71	11	37	50	51	99	95	36	-6914	58	037
im3ero15	O.	, c	יי	, a	ο α ο α	7 6	0 6	1 1 4	, c	7 6	2 5	200	3 4	0	09	17	67	08	41	64	75	7	61	3	92	36	65	79	77	61	2	17	-3784	53	42
im3ero10 i	ά	2 6	ין יי	ነ <u>ተ</u> ነ ቢ	1 6	104	7 6	7 6	א ה	7 0) Ø	200	75	65	52	33	90	70	24	99	9	C	60	lm.	61	12	45	61	9	41	04	50	796	-	10
im2ero20	α	א (א (207	2 2 2	1 C	ころい	1 C C C	2 0 0) (C	193	-1652	35	105	77	52	30	13	ന	N	4	7	0	73	7	71	37	14	403	05	18	742	879	-10266	185	354
im2ero15	8	149	189	210	1 6	0 1 5	2 0 0	אינ מינ	114	-70	$^{\circ}$	26	ဖ	24	69	09	43	70	90	00	99	88	99	\vdash	83	23	വ	38	139	54	382	524	-6796	847	026
im2ero10	84	139	67	173	159	128	2 2 2) [38	0	87	65	44	20	93	61	21	73	16	47	99	23	65	3	90	53	84	9	97	79	45	4		\circ	545
profit	37	4	⊢	ന	0	11	46	83	22	63	04	47	89	31	72	12	50	86	19	50	79	04	26	44	50	70	78	81	81	77	68	57	7415	22	y D
rand p	Н	7	m	4	Ŋ	9	7	∞	თ																								33		

Payoff Matrix with Penetration and Imitation Lags

Demand Function P = 10S - .07Q (Small Market)

-2899 -2856 -2753 -2433 -2245 -2056 -2607 -1547 -1535 -1587 -1713 im4ero20 -2495 -2212 -2864 -1881 -1730-1615 -1919 -2596 -3078 -3661-4347 -5141-6042 -7052 -9397 -10730 -8171Imitation Year 5 im4ero10 im4ero15 -1896 -1608 -1306 -1003 -230 -59 -50 -82 -307 -2563 -2504 -2152 -632 -1064 -2518 -2361 -714 -453 -1607 -2263 -3037 -3928 -4939 -7318 -2036 6909-534 987 1411 1789 2111 2362 2534 2597 2615 2615 2615 1390 777 777 1390 777 1390 -845 -3004 -2122 -1928 -1638 -1275 -858 -406 -4284 -3645 -3935 -5288 -5915 -3338 -3275 -3212 -3161 -3135 -3179 -4752 -2975 -3388 im2ero10 im2ero15 im2ero20 im3ero10 im3ero15 im3ero20 -3332 -3399 -2214 -2654 -3132 -3274 -4302 -6635 -7450 -8362 -9370 -11679 -3196 -3413 -3427 -10477-12977Imitation Year 4 -2732 -2859 -2847 -2743 -2595 -2419 -2229 -1591 -1521 -1507 -1559 -1683 -1887 -2179 -2563 -3625 -4312 -5105 -6006 -7016 -8135 -9361 -2038 -2492 -2892 -1861 -3043 -1708 -2248 -2040 -1762 -1434 -1074 -697 -697 -3201 42 376 668 906 1078 1176 1189 1109 242 -274 -274 -2557 -2557 -4706 -73569 -73569 642 -2367 -10481 -4131 -4238 -4396 -4470 -4955 -5166 -5428 -5746 -6576 -8367 -9123 -4554 -6127 -4788 -7096 -7692 -9962 -10885 -11893 -12985 -3235-3556 -3803 -3990 -4323 -4657 -14162 -19672Imitation Year 3 -3388 -3358 -3236 -3207 -3356 -3315 -3379 -3168 -3112 -3076 -4669 -5204 -3117 -3858 -4222 -5829 -6547 -3571 -7362 -2966 -3078 -2648 -3183 -8273 -9282 10388 -14282-12891 -1255 -1993 -1758 -1562 -1312 -1312 -1522 -1102 -1546 -2598 -2479 -2066 -1806 -1531 -2762 -3540 -2296 -2635 -9172 -4434 -5445 -2570 -6572 -23842782 33081 33081 33657 34420 44427 4649 4851 5031 1043 1308 1879 2178 2480 5319 5425 5505 5557 5583 5580 5550 576 797 1588 5492 5408 5297 224 383 profit 4 24 25 27 27 28 rand 15 16 17 17 18

Table 10

Payoff Matrix; Minimum Innovator Share of 30%

Demand Function P = 10S - .03Q (Large Market)

ව	im4ero20	-726	_	\sim	ı ko	ന	\sim	\sim	925	131	341	551	757	957	147	326	489	636	764	871	955	015	~ 1	000 140	994	920	318	587	528	341	127	388	523
Imitation Year	im4ero15 i	-712 -890	0.11	7 6	58	23	08	810	024	245	471	969	918	133	338	531	708	867	007	124	218	286	m	3242	285	212	109	977	315	524	104	157	384
Imita	im4ero10 i	-689 -799	OULL	4 5 7 0	28	14	23	949	189	437	689	941	189	430	099	876	076	256	415	550	099	742	1010	812	773	703	600	464	297	0 6 0	370	511	323
4	im3ero20	-748 -1028	800	42	51	33	<u>س</u> ا	/	7	353	138	323	505	581	348	204	147	274	383	474	543	591	IO 10	590	54C	464	361	233	9 2 0	008	694	466	214
Imitation Year 4	im3ero15 in	-733 -968							381	080	28	184	583	376	090	232	386	530	653	755	83.5	892		20	862	787	685	554	397	212	00	765	204
Imita	im3ero10 ir	-706 -868		2 2	5	5	9	344	065	293	524	756	982	206	418	616	799	963	108	229	327	399	410	448	406	333	230	097	934	741	513	269	9
8	imero20 ii	- 772 - 1119	00	၇ ထ		ĭ	7	7	506	761	919	777	232	382	525	657	777	882	972	045	860	132	21452	703 103	048	970	398	742	593	420	226	500	7
Imitation Year 3	im2ero15 ii	-755 -1054	_4 -	\sim 1 \sim		_	\sim	\sim		თ თ	077	254	429	597	757	907	043	164	268	354	419	462	m	404 454	402	325	223	095	942	765	563	338	060
Imitati	im2ero10 i	-726 -942	70	\sim	ω	0	2	ο.	929	135	345	555	762	962	153	332	496	643	771	878	963	024	on c	040	003	2925	827	969	537	350	136	896	631
	profit i	62 240	A1 /	ν ν 4	36	13	5	0	8	8	28	6	2	37	13	16	76	032	084	131	173	210		2 0 2 2 8 4 8 4	296	302	302	294	281	261	235	204	166
-	rand pr	1 2	ო •	4 ru	9	7	æ	თ	10	11	12	13	14	15	16	17	18	19	20	21	22	23	24	7 7 7 0 7 0	B	28	29	30	31	32	33	34	35

Table 11

Payoff Matrix; Minimum Innovator Share of 30%

Demand Function P = 10S - .05 Q (Medium-Size Market)

ß	im4ero20	83	136	62	164	146	109	58	4	9	55	39	24	10	94	74	48	15	73	21	58	82	8933	8	70	3	84	17	32	30	12	76	24	13	27	26
Imitation Year	im4ero15 i	82	133	155	52	128	84	9	2	26	14	07	02	97	91	80	63	38	05	60	004	034	10510	052	037	ი ი ი	57	91	07	05	86	49	94	22	55	59
Imita	im4ero10 i	81	∞	43	32	97	42	28	14	10	13	22	33	44	53	58	56	045	125	194	249	290	13163	325	317	7 % Z	247	184	101	000	78	38	79	02	90	ഥ
4	im3ero20	84	41	173	183	174	149	\circ	09	~1	63	32	03	74	43	08	69	22	89	04	30	44	6463	20 C	ט מ	, כ ק	# < - + <	ざけし	ည	57	თ ი		40	03	-4804	
Imitation Year	im3ero15 i	84	ω i	165	7.70	54	21	ო.	14	53	28	08	80	70	20	26	96	59	13	28	92	E	8213	ე ე (и 1 1 1) C	1 C	า (ว เ	22	51	32	S S	4	19	Η (
Imita	im3ero10 i	82	\sim	79T	14/	120	74	17	9	46	9	35	35	34	37	24	10	90	959	018	064	098	11165	1119	700		0 7 0	2 0	0 8	78	ည	20	64	9	-1	-2041
r 3	im2ero20 i		147	ດ T K	202	204	9	165 165	2	ဗို	2	9	71	26	79	29	75	14	46	69	83	[2]	σ (ა 1	7 0	1 C	<i>N</i>	ት <i>ነ</i>	62	ი წ	54	284	27	584	4 /	36
Imitation Year 3	im2ero15 i		4 C	7 / P	ν ς ν α	78T	09	125	ر ا رح	1527	354	ם מי	99	3	9	ည	14	64	90	38	61	2	5715	57	つ 0 つ 0	ם סיפ	7 7	ן טנ	7.2	74	57	74	20	82	-5571	45
Imit	im2ero10 i	1 8 8 8 8 8 8 8 8 8 8 8 8 8 8 8 8 8 8 8	150 150	ט ס	10 T	145	00	3	ດເ	1 α 1 ~	2	4.	7 /	13	9	7.7	52	19	11	26	63	87	8981	у Д. П) (ט נ	1 C	37	36	17	82	a	38	22	21
	profit j	37	7 ~	ط ر	γ	י כ נימ	;	4. c	ე (7 (ე .	0.4 1	4.7	α ω	2 5	7.5	12	50	86	19	50	79	7043	9 5	1 U	1 (0 C	0 5	81	87	11	68	57	41	22	υ O
	rand pr	Н (v 6) <	1 11	n v	ا 0	~ 0	0 0	י ע) r	T -	77	L3	T 7	GT	16	17	18	19	20	21	22	23.3	7 C		970	17	728	50	30	31	32	33	34	35

Payoff Matrix; Minimum Innovator Share of 30% Table 12

Demand Function P = 10S - .07Q (Small Market)

ar 5	im4ero20	∞	. r.	0	7 (2 (7 7	י ל 10	12440 12440	10	7 -	7 7	; ; ; ; ; ; ; ; ; ; ; ; ; ; ; ; ; ; ;	1 7	_	# _	5		, ,	, i \		3 H	, 0	H .	יי ד	ן טוני	182	5	348	9 4	567	1 C	, α Ο α	3 6	133	-13042
Imitation Year	im4ero15	∞	15	19	2.2	2 1	2 (1 6	-1963	16.	3		ιīc	_	~	572	λ α α	ć -	í	4	4	1391		9 6	552	42	59	34	223	324	438	64	703	855	018	17
Im	im4ero10	∞	14	∞	20	21	20	17	-1471	Ö	io	-	382	890	m	ä	2	6.1	8	$\frac{1}{2}$	2	3219		ο Ο 1	10	80	8	745	-12	14	29	58	00	-6556	823	004
r 4	im3ero20	89	58	209	45	67	77	78	71	58	40	19	97	75	54	36	122	12	108	11	121	39	99	03	50	307	375	54	44	45	57	880	014	-11594	314	1479
Imitation Year 4	im3ero15	8	55	204	35	53	58	52	9	18	193	65	36	90	78	52	31	14	4	Н	S	19	41	74	18	72	238	16	05	90	19	44	80	-10278	186	1355
Imit	im3ero10	87	151	194	19	29	24	0	4	52	15	74	32	0	0	∞	22	50	71	84	89	4	69	42	04	4	7-	ب ا	71	72	86	13	653	-8058	70	145
r 3	im2ero20	90	162	218	259	89	08	18	321	318	11	302	91	81	71	64	9	61	99	78	97	23	27	00	452	13	584	664	55	26	967	088	219	-13602	1510	699
Imitation Year	im2ero15	89	159	212	249	273	286	289	285	275	260	242	224	205	187	172	160	154	152	158	170	191	220	258	306	365	433	STY SA	603	704	816	938	1072	-12157	1369	1532
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Table 13

Analysis of First Mover R&D Incentives

First Mover's DPV-Maximizing R&D Outlays as Percentage of Social Benefit-Maximizing Outlay Social Optimum Computed with 16-Year Patent Life First Mover Enters Market at 50 Percent Rate

Case 1: Large Market (Demand Slope = -.03)

	3	•	_	•
Erosion Rate	Imitator Begins Entry at Year	3	4	5
.10 .15 .20		92.6% 88.9 85.2	92.6% 88.9 88.9	92.6% 92.6 88.9
	Case 2: Medium-Size	Market	(Slope =	05)
		3	4	5
.10 .15 .20		84.6% 78.9 73.1	80.8	88.5% 84.6 80.8
	Case 3: Small Marke	et (Slope	e =07)	
		_		_

	3	4	5
.10	0	80.0%	80.0%
.15	0	0	76.0
.20	0	0	0

Table 14 Analysis of First Mover R&D Incentives

First Mover's DPV-Maximizing R&D Outlays as Percentage of Social Benefit-Maximizing Outlay Social Optimum Computed with 16-Year Patent Life First Mover Enters Market at 50 Percent Rate First Mover's Minimum Market Share Capped at 30%

Case 1: Large Market (Demand Slope = -.03)

Erosion Rate	Imitator Begins Entry at Year	3	4	5		
.10 .15 .20		92.6% 88.9 88.9	92.6% 92.6 90.7	92.6% 92.6 92.6		
	Case 2: Medium-Size Market (Slope =05)					
		3	4	5		
.10 .15 .20		84.6% 80.8 80.8	84.6	88.5% 88.5 84.6		
Case 3: Small Market (Slope =07)						
		3	4	5		
.10 .15 .20		76.0 0 0	80.0% 0 0	84.0% 80.0 76.0		