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5	IN THE 21ST CENTURY
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WELCOME 1 MR. HEMPHILL: Hi, everyone. Why don't we 2 Welcome to the New York University 3 get started. 4 School of Law. My name is Scott Hemphill and I'm a professor here at the law school. NYU, joined by our 5 Engelberg Center on Innovation Law, is delighted to be 6 7 hosting this eighth session in the hearings 8 initiative. 9 Today's hearing focuses on the question of common ownership by investors in competing firms and 10 related issues at the intersection of antitrust and 11 corporate governance. My first order of business 12 today is to invite our dean, Trevor Morrison to offer 13 14 a welcome. Trevor? 15 (Applause.) MR. MORRISON: Thank you, Scott, and good 16 Let me be the second to welcome you all here 17 morning. to NYU Law. We really are thrilled to be hosting this 18 19 hearing of the FTC. Thanks to the FTC for joining us in this. We certainly think that if the hearing is 20 going to be held in New York, it's absolutely fitting 21 that it be here at NYU Law. 22 We have a great many people in our 23 community, on our faculty engaged in the issues that 2.4 the FTC is engaged in, and many of them will be 25

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speaking today, including Scott Hemphill, Dan 1 Rubinfeld, and Ed Rock, and of course our colleague, 2 Marcel Kahan works closely on these issues and with 3 4 Scott as well. So with that cohort of faculty working on these issues, we're certainly glad to be able to 5 bring and host the FTC here today. And I wish you 6 7 very well for this hearing. Again, welcome and thank 8 you.

MR. HEMPHILL: 9 Thanks, Trevor. So next, I have a couple of housekeeping items. FTC staff has 10 asked me to remind everyone that this is a public 11 event and is being webcast, photographed, and 12 13 recorded. By participating in this event, you're 14 agreeing that your image and anything you say or submit may be posted indefinitely at FTC.gov --15

(Laughter.)

16

17 MR. HEMPHILL: -- or on one of the Commission's publicly available social media sites. 18 Α 19 transcript of today's proceedings will be posted as Question cards will be available throughout the 20 well. Please use them to write down questions for 21 day. Staff will collect them and pass them to 22 panelists. the moderators who may pose selected questions if time 23 24 permits. Finally, if you have your mobile phone with 25 you, please silence it.

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1 So let me also echo Trevor's welcome. It's 2 particularly fitting that the session is held at NYU 3 Law for two reasons. The first Trevor already gave, 4 this school's deep engagement with some of these 5 questions and more generally the role that financial 6 services play as the lifeblood of New York City.

7 The second reason that I just wanted to emphasize for a minute comes back to the late Bob 8 Pitofsky, Former Chair of the Federal Trade Commission 9 and a dear friend to many of us. Today's hearing, and 10 the FTC's series of hearings more generally, were 11 inspired by Bob's desire to keep the FTC abreast of 12 cutting-edge issues in antitrust and consumer 13 14 protection. Chairman Pitofsky held a series of public hearings in order to advance that aim, and this is 15 very much in that tradition. 16

17 Now, as some of you know, Bob Pitofsky and NYU have a deep connection. Before Bob was a public 18 19 servant, he was a professor of law here at NYU. Bob joined our faculty in 1964 at the urging of our late 20 colleague, the great Norman Dorsen. Such was their 21 friendship that Bob led the school's Hays Program on 22 civil liberties while Norman was on sabbatical. 23 And 24 the favor was returned. Norman Dorsen filled in one 25 year to teach Bob's antitrust class. So all of us at

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NYU are particularly pleased to reconnect in this way
 with Bob's legacy as a scholar and as a public
 servant.

4 So as you guys have seen, we have a full agenda today. Our first session features two sitting 5 Commissioners, one from the Federal Trade Commission 6 and one from the Securities and Exchange Commission, 7 who will be giving some remarks. So first up is Noah 8 Phillips. Commissioner Phillips was confirmed by the 9 Senate in April. Prior to the Commission, he served 10 as Chief Counsel to Senator John Cornyn on the Senate 11 Judiciary Committee and a variety of other roles 12 advising the Senator. 13

Prior to his Senate service, Commissioner 14 15 Phillips worked at Wasserstein Perella, an investment bank, and as a litigator at Cravath Swain & Moore. 16 17 So Commissioner Phillips, the floor is 18 yours. 19 (Applause.) 20 21 22 23 24

25

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OPENING REMARKS AND DISCUSSION

2 COMMISSIONER PHILLIPS: Thank you for the 3 kind introduction and also the privacy warning. This 4 is not our privacy hearing, but it's important that 5 everyone think about that all the time.

1

6 I'm really, really thrilled to be here to 7 open today's excellent hearing and to welcome the 8 distinguished group of scholars and market 9 participants from whom we'll hear today. I'm also 10 very thankful to NYU for hosting this event. I do 11 think it is appropriate that we are here in New York 12 to talk about this.

I don't know whether Commissioner Jackson 13 14 is here yet. I'm very pleased that he is joining us. He has spoken publicly about the need to bring 15 competition economics to the Securities and Exchange 16 17 Commission and, of course, is joining us today. My only hope is that doesn't bog your some sort of, like, 18 19 interjurisdictional power grab on the part of the SEC. We are older, but we're scrappy, and we don't shy from 20 a fight, so he should just know that. 21

I want to start with the traditional FTC caveat, and that is the remarks that I give today are my own thoughts and don't necessarily represent the views of the Commission as a whole or my fellow

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1 Commissioners.

2	Common ownership is an issue of particular
3	interest to me, but it probably helps to just start
4	with a little bit of a definition. Last year in front
5	of the OECD, the U.S. antitrust agencies defined
6	common ownership as "the simultaneous ownership of
7	stock in competing companies by a single investor
8	where none of the stock holdings is large enough to
9	give the owner control of any of these companies."
10	And I want to draw an important distinction.
11	Common ownership is distinct from cross ownership
12	wherein a company holds an interest in one of its
13	competitors or other joint venture or copartner
14	scenarios that have long been a focus of U.S.
15	antitrust law.
16	The most important thing for purposes of
17	today about common ownership is that it is a reality
18	of our modern economy and that it is ubiquitous.
19	Americans are increasingly utilizing the many and
20	diversified investment options that large
21	institutional asset managers offer, and the advent of
22	indexing funds has opened important avenues through
23	which average Americans can invest their retirement
24	savings, sometimes at a low or even zero price. They
25	can also have pretty good returns.

For The Record, Inc. (301) 870-8025 - www.ftrinc.net - (800) 921-5555 As a result of the growing demand for this popular product, trillions of dollars that these companies now manage are increasingly including shares of competing companies. That's a reality. In the last few years, economists and law professors have raised the question whether common ownership is negatively affecting competition.

8 We have a number of them here today. I see 9 Martin Schmalz sitting over here. His work with José 10 Azar and Isabel Tecu kicked off such a bevy of 11 research and commentary that it is often simply 12 referred to as "the airlines paper." I know that's 13 not the only work, but it's sort of set the ships to 14 sea.

Some are concerned that common ownership 15 remedies proposed are quite dramatic. According to 16 17 one group of scholars who are proponents of these remedies, addressing the threat of common ownership 18 would upend "the basic structure of the financial 19 sector," for example, by limiting asset managers to 20 holding no more than 1 percent of a given industry 21 unless they do so in a purely passive manner. 22

And this debate is not just academic.
Antitrust enforcers around the world are watching its
development, as we are today, and incorporating common

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ownership into their analyses. For instance, last year, as I mentioned, the OECD held hearings on common ownership, and we've seen that European antitrust enforcers began citing these theories in their decisions.

6 I find this debate particularly interesting 7 because it takes us to the intersection of antitrust, 8 corporate and securities law and policy. And in a 9 sense, historically, this is very fitting because in a 10 way the FTC grew out of the Bureau of Corporations at 11 the Department of Commerce.

When I spoke about this issue last in June, 12 I noted an important way in which the intuition behind 13 14 the antitrust theory of harm from common ownership runs counter to the longstanding concerns of those 15 other bodies of law. Specifically, corporate law in 16 particular preoccupies itself with the principal agent 17 problem, the issue of how you get the management to 18 19 work on behalf of the owners of the corporation, the shareholders. 20

21 Management neglect of shareholders -- and in 22 particular of minority shareholders -- is a particular 23 concern. And the common ownership theory -- or at 24 least one version of it -- and I'll talk about that a 25 little bit later -- is a concern that managers show

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too much attention to shareholders and, in particular,
 to certain minority shareholders.

In June, I identified several areas of 3 4 research that I, as an antitrust enforcer, would like to see developed before shifting policy on common 5 ownership. They were, first, how common ownership 6 affects a broad group of industries; second, whether a 7 clear mechanism of harm can be identified; third, a 8 9 rationale why managers would put the interests of one set of shareholders, in particular a minority set, 10 above the others; and, finally, a rigorous weighing of 11 the harms -- of the allegedly anticompetitive harms --12 against all the benefits of institutional 13 14 shareholding.

15 So the first question stems from the fact 16 that common ownership is so ubiquitous. Is it also 17 ubiquitously causing anticompetitive harm? And if so, 18 how? Professor Menesh Patel, from whom we'll also 19 hear today, writes about the sensitivity of the harm 20 theories to various factors, including the structure 21 of a given industry.

22 We've seen some additional research since 23 June. One recent working paper examines common 24 ownership and competition in the ready-to-eat cereal 25 industry; and another looks at pay-for-delay

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settlements in the pharmaceutical industry.

I understand that economists are continuing to analyze the impact of common ownership in other industries. These studies are critical to understanding whether, and if so how, common ownership might dampen competition between rivals. The better the research behind our enforcement, the better our enforcement will be.

So the second thing I asked about was to 9 identify a clear mechanism of harm. Identifying the 10 mechanism of harm, that is, how common shareholding 11 actually causes a lessening of competition, remains a 12 matter of robust debate. Some proponents of 13 14 predicating antitrust liability on common ownership acknowledge that "the theory literature to date does 15 not identify what mechanisms funds may use to soften 16 17 competition." That's Fiona Scott Morton and Herbert Hovenkamp. 18

Understanding the mechanism is, however, critical to developing a coherent legal theory of antitrust harm and ultimately to crafting an appropriate remedy. To my mind, there are, in fact, two competing theories of common ownership and how it might lead to anticompetitive harm. And for purposes of this discussion, I want to call them active and

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1 passive.

2	The active theory involves managers
3	affirmatively foregoing competition. Professor Einer
4	Elhauge argues that the harm mechanism is less opaque
5	than critics claim, noting that it would include "all
6	the ordinary mechanisms by which managers are
7	incentivized to act in the interest of their
8	shareholders voting, executive compensation, the
9	market for corporate control, the stock market, and
10	the labor market." That's his quote.
11	He cites examples of when common ownership
12	might impact how the common owners encourage the
13	commonly owned firms to behave. Professors Ed Rock
14	and Daniel Rubinfeld, from whom we'll also hear, who
15	disagree with Professor Elhauge about the remedies,
16	offer a hypothetical of a portfolio manager who

17 cautions airline companies not to expand capacity as18 they're coming out of an economic downturn.

19 These types of active mechanisms may look 20 like classic collusion with which antitrust law is 21 well familiar. And certainly where they involve 22 active communication, the anticompetitive conduct and 23 harm should be more easily observable. In the case of 24 a portfolio manager on a call, literally public, they 25 entail real-world affirmative action to which one can

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point and, as such, should be covered within existing
 antitrust jurisprudence.

While presumably not intended to deal with competition, we have seen some asset managers themselves work together to effectuate what they view as social responsibility as exemplified in recent reporting about principles for firearms dealers.

The second theory of harm is what one might 8 call the passive theory. Professor Schmalz and others 9 posit that because they "own" shares -- putting "own" 10 in quotation marks, and we'll talk about that later --11 because they "own" shares in competing firms that 12 would all benefit from a lessening of competition, 13 common owners do not have incentives to push their 14 commonly owned firms to compete. 15

16 Collusion of the sort contemplated in the 17 active theory can exacerbate anticompetitive effects, 18 but it is not required for this theory of harm to 19 operate. This passive harm theory asserts that the 20 common ownership harm derives from the absence of 21 incentives from shareholders to encourage the firms in 22 which they hold the shares to compete.

In a sense, the anticompetitive harm asserted here is only a species of an incentive problem endemic to the economy, to the nature of the

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public corporation itself. As Berle and Means long ago recognized and I discussed in June, dispersing ownership among numerous shareholders reduces the ability and the incentive of any given shareholder to attempt to exert control, such as by pressuring a firm to compete more aggressively.

7 This means not only common shareholders but any dispersed shareholder may have reduced incentives 8 9 to encourage the firm to compete. Professor Elhauge notes that the benefits from softened competition may 10 also be shared more broadly among shareholders as a 11 firm increases profits, for example in an 12 oligopolistic market. So while dispersed shareholders 13 14 may lack an incentive to encourage competition in general, that may especially be the case if we can 15 assume that they are affirmatively benefitting from 16 17 oligopolistic pricing and profits.

18 This passive theory raises a number of 19 interesting issues in my mind. First, it appears to 20 be in tension with some of the remedies proposed to 21 address common ownership, which offer up, for 22 instance, "pure passivity" -- not my words -- as a 23 solution. If passivity itself is the problem, it can 24 hardly be the solution as well.

25

Second, at a time of concern about a lack of

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competition in the economy generally, is chilling 1 shareholder input the right move? Should we not be 2 considering mechanisms that would encourage companies 3 4 to compete? The Hart-Scott-Rodino Act explicitly exempts from filing requirements acquisitions made 5 "solely for the purpose of investment," which the 6 7 antitrust agencies have interpreted to mean as applying to purely passive shareholders. If we don't 8 9 get enough encouragement to compete, is that the right 10 approach?

Years ago, Henry Manne explained that the 11 market for corporate control helps to rectify the 12 disparate power and incentives of firm managers and 13 shareholders and affords "to these shareholders both 14 power and protection commensurate with their interests 15 in corporate affairs." Actions that undermine the 16 17 effective operation of the market for corporate control, including antitrust policy that fails to 18 19 consider this market, may prove harmful to investors but also to consumers. 20

Third, how can we identify the marginal and purportedly negative effects of common ownership where shareholders already have little incentive to encourage firms to compete more aggressively and maybe even less than that given the structure of a

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particular market, as I mentioned earlier, say an
 oligopolistic market.

Consider liability under Section 7 of the Clayton Act, a theory propounded in the common ownership literature, where acquisitions are only unlawful if they are likely substantially to lessen competition. At what point do the effects of a share acquisition meet that substantiality threshold?

9 Whichever theory you subscribe to or scares you, I look forward to today's discussion of 10 the evidence. I'd be remiss not to mention two of 11 our hosts, Professor Hemphill and Professor Marcel 12 Kahan, who conclude thusly with regard to the 13 mechanisms of harm -- this is a quote and it's long, 14 so forgive me -- "first, several mechanisms in the 15 literature are not, in fact, empirically tested. 16 17 Second, some mechanisms are ineffective in raising portfolio value or would pose major implementation 18 19 problems for CCOs [common concentrated owners]. Third, because most institutional CCOs have only weak 20 incentives to increase portfolio value, they are 21 likely not to benefit from pursuing mechanisms that 22 carry significant reputational costs or legal 23 24 liability."

25

Third, my third question from June, was

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asking for a rationale regarding managers'

responsiveness to certain shareholders, and apparently certain shareholders over others. This is another context where the assumptions underlying common ownership run up against assumptions underlying other legal regimes, specifically corporate and securities law.

If the principal-agent problem concerns you 8 9 and you think about shareholder neglect, or put a little differently, maybe too little competition, 10 understanding how shareholders and managers behave is 11 critical to ensuring that we have coherent legal 12 regimes that accurately capture harmful behavior and 13 encourage beneficial behavior. 14 Common ownership presumes that managers are very particularly attuned 15 to the desires of a minority of their shareholders and 16 17 act to maximize value to them, whereas corporate law assumes that managers, unless forced to behave 18 19 otherwise, will act to maximize their own interests over that of shareholders generally and of minority 20 shareholders specifically. 21

22 So in a real sense, corporate law tends to 23 worry very much that managers will not be responsive 24 enough to their shareholders while common ownership 25 theories presume loyalty to select a few, often

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1 passive, investors.

Professors Azar and Elhauge point to 2 modeling demonstrating that if managers seek to 3 4 maximize expected shares of votes or likelihood of being reelected, then they will seek to maximize the 5 weighted average of their shareholders' profits from 6 7 all their shareholdings. This model also demonstrates that shareholder variation in levels of common 8 9 ownership will "alter the precise weight managers put on each shareholder." 10

But skeptics have raised questions as to the 11 practical application and real-world predictability of 12 such models. Are managers so acutely attuned to the 13 shareholding levels and desires of their various 14 shareholders? Do they respond in a precise fashion to 15 those changing shareholder levels and desires? 16 Do boards and senior managers of major companies even get 17 involved in deciding issues like pricing? 18

As noted earlier, common ownership theory proponents have responded in part that noncommon shareholders might likewise benefit from softer competition, and so managers are not actually acting against the interests of most holders. But, again, if all or most shareholders benefit from soft competition, such that none have incentives to

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actively encourage a firm to be more aggressive in
 competition, what additional impact does common
 ownership make?

4 Much of this comes down to what shareholder and manager incentives actually are. 5 There are reasons why shareholders might prefer softer 6 7 competition in certain circumstances, but there are also reasons why they might not. For instance, if 8 they are diversified across industries as investors 9 and customers to those setting oligopoly prices, they 10 might not always benefit from oligopoly pricing in 11 discrete industries. The answer can only be complex, 12 13 measuring those harms against the gains to those shareholders from softening competition. 14

15 What's an asset manager to do? To the 16 extent the answers are, in fact, nuanced, different 17 shareholders with different perspectives, different 18 preferences, different incentives changing over time, 19 to the corporate manager isn't competition the safest 20 and most legal bet?

Another issue. In my remarks thus far, I've been a little bit irresponsible about using words like "own." Some investment advisers or investment managers are beneficial owners but are not the economic owners of the shares. Professors Hemphill

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and Kahan criticized "the empirical literature to date [as paying] insufficient attention to the systematic differences in the incentives of different investor types."

They find that "the empirical literature 5 fails to take account of the possibility that investor 6 7 types likely to be CCOs [common concentrated owners], have systematically lower incentives to get involved 8 9 than investor types likely to be nonconcentrated They explain that while the literature 10 owners. assumes the common owners' objective is to raise 11 portfolio value, the "archetypal CCO, the investment 12 advisor, has incentives quite unlike those of an 13 14 individual who holds the ownership stakes" and has only weak incentives to increase portfolio value. 15

16 Consider an index fund where your goal is to 17 sort of track the index and lower fees. You're not 18 necessarily looking for higher returns than that. How 19 do these facts factor in?

Finally, in June, I asked for a rigorous weighing of the procompetitive effects of institutional shareholding. Several scholars debating common ownership have acknowledged that various proposals would alter "the basic structure of the financial sector" and "transform the landscape of

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1 institutional investing."

Such tectonic policy shifts should not be 2 undertaken lightly. Large institutional investors 3 4 have, in many ways, made investing affordable for the average American. Index funds, for instance, as I 5 said earlier, sometimes have nominal to no fees, and 6 7 the returns are nothing at which to laugh. Such investing opportunities were unheard of before the 8 9 second half of the 20th Century.

When considering policies that could find 10 index funds as they exist today are fundamentally 11 incompatible with the antitrust laws, we need to keep 12 these very real benefits in mind. Many Americans 13 simply do not have the funds available to buy into 14 more expensive investment options. Scholars have also 15 historically placed great hope in large sophisticated 16 17 institutional investors to have the incentives to make corporate governance better. Are they doing so? 18

I look forward to hearing about stewardship practices today and how their development should be considered in this context. John Bogle, the inventor of the index fund, wrote last week about his concern that too few people control corporate governance in America. Are those concerns valid? And how should they factor in at all to what we're talking about

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1 here?

2	This common ownership discussion has
3	remained vigorous since I last had the opportunity to
4	speak about it in June. And I am really heartened to
5	see the serious scholarship continue to examine the
6	theories and empirics at play and very pleased that
7	the FTC has included this topic in our hearings. Our
8	panelists today will grapple with a number of very
9	intriguing questions, and I'm excited to hear from
10	them all. Thank you.
11	(Applause.)
12	MR. HEMPHILL: Thank you, Commissioner
13	Phillips.
14	Our next speaker is my good friend and
15	colleague, Robert Jackson, who was sworn in in January
16	as Commissioner of the Securities and Exchange
17	Commission. He comes to the Commission from right
18	here at NYU Law, where he's a professor of law on
19	leave.
20	I can't resist noting here the deep
21	connection between the SEC and these FTC hearings. As
22	Bob Pitofsky, who I mentioned before, liked to
23	explain, it was a series of FTC hearings like these
24	that led to the creation of the SEC.
25	Previously, Commissioner Jackson served as a

For The Record, Inc. (301) 870-8025 - www.ftrinc.net - (800) 921-5555 senior policy adviser to the Department of Treasury.
 Earlier in his career, Commissioner Jackson practiced
 law at Wachtel Lipton & Katz. Commissioner Jackson.
 (Applause.)

COMMISSIONER JACKSON: Well, thank you so 5 much to my friend and colleague Professor Hemphill 6 7 and to all my friends here at NYU and at the Federal Trade Commission for hosting these very important 8 9 conversations. It's really a privilege to be back here at NYU and speaking before the FTC, and I share 10 the commitment that everybody brings here this morning 11 to make sure our markets are competitive and fair for 12 all Americans. 13

14 Now, when I give a speech like this, I'm supposed to give a caveat, which is that these are 15 my views, not the views of anybody else at the SEC, 16 17 but I don't even work at the FTC, so I should give the further caveat of the total irrelevance of my 18 19 views; however, I want to point out that it's been my experience that just given enough time and wisdom, all 20 my colleagues at the SEC figure out I was right all 21 That never happens. 22 alonq.

23 So one of the things that's important to 24 begin here is with some history, which as Professor 25 Hemphill alluded to, back in 1933 at the adoption of

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the '33 and '34 acts -- the '33 act used to be enforced by this agency -- famously, the Securities Division at the FTC first implemented the securities laws before the creation of my agency in 1934. And that's why the FTC is in a very real way and an important way, both historically and intellectually, the birthplace of the SEC. So it's good to be home.

I remarked in a recent speech about the 8 9 fundamental analytical mistake we've been making in American securities markets to assume that we at the 10 SEC can regulate our capital markets without thinking 11 through the effects of those choices on competition. 12 I said there and I believe this morning that the FTC 13 14 and SEC should be working more closely together so we can better oversee these markets and the exact kind of 15 issues we're discussing today. 16

17 In fact, the subject of today's hearing, in 18 my judgment, which is really competition and consumer 19 protection in the 21st Century, highlights the 20 compelling need for this close collaboration, and I 21 hope my appearance today marks the beginning of that 22 partnership.

Now, the subject of today's hearing, and you'll hear about evidence all morning, is whether institutional investors and primarily passive index

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funds that hold large stakes in American public 1 companies can decrease competition and raise prices 2 for consumers. It's a critical debate on which I'll 3 4 explain my views shortly, but I've come here today to urge all of you to think about common ownership and 5 the subject we'll discuss today and identify it for 6 7 what it is, which is an investor protection problem, a 8 corporate governance problem.

9 In my judgment, we're at a pivotal moment in American financial history when corporate elections 10 are increasingly decided by a handful of exceptionally 11 powerful index fund managers. What's clear to me is 12 that the SEC's current rules leave investors largely 13 in the dark about how institutional investors are 14 wielding that considerable authority. And I'm here 15 today to call on my colleagues at the SEC to pursue 16 17 rules that will take advantage of existing data on institutional voting to empower investors with more 18 19 and better information on how their money is voted in American corporate elections. 20

21 More on that in a moment, but let me begin 22 with the common ownership debate. First of all, for 23 anybody who believes, as I do, that all good research 24 scholars have an obligation to seek policy impact in 25 their work, today's hearing is an enormous victory,

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because we're here, of course, because of

exceptionally important and thoughtful scholarship by my friends in the academy who have done work that has taught me a great deal that I didn't know about the relationship between common ownership and competition.

Of course, the seminal piece is by José 6 7 Azar, Martin Schmalz, and Isabel Tecu -- an extraordinary recent paper in the Journal of Finance 8 that demonstrates a relationship between measures of 9 common ownership and price increases in the airline 10 industry. And of course, Professor Elhauge has 11 incredibly thoughtfully moved the debate forward, 12 examining the ways in which we should be thinking 13 14 about those data for the enforcement of the antitrust laws. 15

I commend that work to all of you, and as a researcher, I can only admire the enormous scholarly and policy impact that that research has had. My own reaction to the work is that it presents us with a puzzle and that we're at the beginning, not the end, of our conversation about common ownership and what to do about it. And let me say why.

First of all, my NYU colleagues, Professors Hemphill and Kahan, in a recent paper explained the difficulty with using the measures set forth in that

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scholarship for evaluating the questions we're discussing today and in particular the MHHI measure and the MHHI delta measure employed in those papers. And there's two things that I want to highlight in the Hemphill/Kahan paper that I commend to all of you that, to me, sets the agenda for moving forward with scholarly work on common ownership.

First, as Professors Hemphill and Kahan 8 explain, there are a number of different strategies 9 that one -- that an institutional investor might 10 pursue in connection with the reduction of competition 11 12 in their portfolio companies. One is to eliminate competition within a particular -- or reduce 13 14 competition within a particular firm in an industry, permitting rent extraction for other firms and the 15 total value of the portfolio to rise. 16

17 Another is restrict production across the industry, permitting rent extraction across all firms 18 19 of the industry. And the crucial thing to see that Professors Hemphill and Kahan point out is that these 20 are two very, very different strategies from the point 21 of view of an undiversified investor. That is, one 22 will meet with approval from that undiversified 23 24 investor and another will be resisted.

25 To the degree that those two strategies

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reflect completely different ways of thinking about 1 the impact of common ownership on competition, or I 2 should say the potential impact, we need new 3 4 scholarship that studies the difference between those strategies, in particular that looks for cases where 5 an undiversified owner of the firm will resist the 6 7 purported anticompetitive instincts of the diversified 8 owners.

9 As Professors Hemphill and Kahan point out, we don't yet have that paper. We don't yet have 10 scholarship that tackles that, and indeed as they 11 point out, I think, very importantly, the MHHI measure 12 13 itself is not designed to test that hypothesis. No, instead, we need new scholarship with new measures 14 that test that particular difference in those two 15 strategies to see whether or not we actually have hard 16 17 evidence of this kind of activity in American 18 industry.

But much more importantly for my purposes, as Professors Kahan and Hemphill point out, and as my colleagues, Dan Rubinfeld and Ed Rock, have also pointed out in an important paper this year in the Antitrust Law Journal, there's very little evidence so far about the precise mechanism by which such activity might take place. There's a great deal of speculation

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about how this might occur. And I find the
 preliminary evidence on that subject extremely
 interesting.

4 In particular, Professor Schmalz, along with a group of coauthors, has a recent paper on the use of 5 relative performance measures, relative performance 6 7 compensation-based incentives that may or may not contribute to competition in an industry. Now, as 8 someone who has studied executive compensation for 9 many years, I would love to think that it's that 10 important to competition in American industry. 11 Indeed, I'm biased to believe that a change in 12 managers' relative incentives could affect price 13 14 setting across American industries, because otherwise, I've been wasting my life. 15

But I'm unpersuaded by the evidence we have 16 17 so far and here's why. Changes in incentives at the top of the house in an American public company can 18 19 have many, many effects. I'm inclined to believe it can work throughout the organization to have an effect 20 on price setting, but we don't yet have hard evidence 21 that it does so. And I would want to understand the 22 organizational design and the differences from 23 24 industry to industry in the price-setting authority 25 throughout a firm to better comprehend how changes in

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relative performance incentives could have an effect
 on prices.

Now, whatever you think of this evidence, as 3 4 I said earlier, in my view, we are at the beginning, not the end, of the debate on concentrated common 5 ownership. And I took with great interest a careful 6 7 look at the work of Eric Posner, Fiona Scott Morton, and Glen Weyl with respect to potential proposals to 8 limit diversification or to regulate institutional 9 investors in order to address the issues in this 10 literature. 11

And I must tell you, as somebody who's sworn 12 to protect investors, my sense is that the literature 13 14 we have today does not carry the heavy burden that a commissioner sworn to protect investors should demand 15 in order to impose limitations on diversified 16 17 investment in American public companies. I say that for many reasons, but most importantly because 18 19 diversified holdings have delivered an enormously important product to American families who are saving 20 for retirement and education. These are the savings 21 I'm sworn to protect, and to restrict their 22 diversification would impose costs upon them that are 23 24 potentially enormous.

25

Also, as Professors Rock and Rubinfeld

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pointed out, we wouldn't have even begun to 1 contemplate the effects of such a rule on other 2 industries that common ownerships might own -- that 3 4 concentrated common owners might own. For example, if we think about the airline industry, we'd need to 5 begin to think about limits on diversification on 6 7 their suppliers, in others who play a role in the distribution or consumption of airline activity. And 8 all of these knock-on effects, to my mind, have not 9 yet been sufficiently considered for me to be 10 supportive of a rule that would restrict 11 12 diversification in American investment.

But my concern about those proposals is not 13 so much that their burden has not been met. 14 I don't think it has. I think we're at the beginning of a 15 conversation that might someday lead to sufficient 16 17 evidence in that respect. But we're not yet at a place where I would be comfortable with such a 18 19 resolution.

20 Whatever you think about that, my concern is 21 that it's distracting us from the actual issue we 22 should discuss today. To me, the particular -- the 23 issue that deserves and demands more attention than 24 it's received, both at the FTC and my agency, is the 25 fact that today institutional investors cast votes in

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corporate elections on behalf of more than 100 million 1 American families. They wield enormous influence on 2 the future of our companies and our communities, but 3 4 we're not giving investors nearly enough information about how their money is being voted, and because of 5 that, American investors can't make choices among 6 7 index funds about the way that they carry out those And it's time for that to change. 8 duties.

Now, the shareholder vote, we all understand 9 well, is a critical tool in setting governance 10 policies of companies and holding management 11 12 accountable for their actions. And that's why another series of recent papers that I believe you'll hear 13 about later today, in my view, deserve as much 14 attention as the common concentrated ownership 15 scholarship you'll also be talking about. 16

17 In particular, Professor John Coates, my corporate law professor, a fact for which he will 18 19 never fully be forgiven, has a recent paper identifying what he calls the problem of 12. 20 It's an extraordinary paper in that it makes a very simple 21 point. Actually, it's the rare empirical paper that 22 confesses that it just picked a number out of thin 23 24 air.

25

Coates' point is not that there's actually

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1 12 people who control Corporate America. It's that 2 that number is a realistic, reasonable ballpark of the 3 number of people who make decisions about the future 4 of American corporations, and he worries about the 5 credibility of any securities market, any product 6 market where that much power is wielded by that few 7 people, and so do I.

Professor Coates identifies a number of 8 9 particular -- potential resolutions of that problem. I'll discuss them in a moment. But what he knows 10 because he's been thinking about agency problems for a 11 very long time is that the -- what's happened here is, 12 in a search for holding corporate management 13 14 accountable, we have transferred the potential for agency problems from corporate management to 15 institutional investors who now wield the 16 17 extraordinary authority that Coates described in his 18 paper.

19 Indeed, with all respect to Professor 20 Coates, his insight is not new. My friends at 21 Columbia, Ron Gilson and Jeff Gordon, years ago, 22 published a paper, "The Agency Cost of Agency 23 Capitalism," that pointed out increasingly the role of 24 institutional investors in deciding about the agenda 25 items that are set by other less diversified, more

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activist investors. And since the publication of that
 article in the *Columbia Law Review* a few years ago,
 that problem has grown more, not less, relevant to
 policy debates in corporate law.

Now, the question is, what should we do 5 about it? And for me, the clearest path forward is 6 set by another recent paper that I commend for all of 7 I'm giving you a lot of homework, I realize. 8 you. 9 Another recent paper by my friends, Ryan Bubb and Emiliano Catan of NYU. This is an extraordinary piece 10 that takes years of data disclosed at Form N-PX, over 11 more than a decade since that form became effective at 12 the SEC, and shows the party structure of mutual fund 13 voting. What Bubb and Catan demonstrate is that we 14 can use standard models of political decision-making 15 to understand the various ways that institutional 16 17 investors vote.

They offer a model that distributes those 18 19 votes across three different parties of institutional investors -- the managerialist party, the shareholder 20 intervention party, and the shareholder veto party. 21 Now, one thing about the Bubb and Catan paper that is 22 so striking is that we didn't know it before, that is 23 24 for years institutional investors had been putting billions of dollars of American families' savings to 25

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work in pursuit of those choices, and we just now have
 learned the way that they're making them.

And that's why today I'm calling on my 3 4 colleagues at the SEC to put forth new rules that would require better disclosure of information just 5 like that. Now, you might say to me, oh, Rob, we 6 7 don't need new rules, it's already in Form N-PX. And I would invite you to read one and try to do the 8 difficult work an investor must do in the United 9 States today to try to understand both at the fund 10 level and at the portfolio family level the way that 11 votes are cast. 12

My sense is that Ryan and Emiliano can tell you stories of many late nights spent trying to decipher this form. Whatever you think about that, what I'd say is it's our job at the SEC to make more clear the ways that institutional investors are discharging their obligations to the people that they're voting for.

And I'm happy to say it's my impression that most large institutions agree. After all, Larry Fink each year publishes a clear view about what he plans to do in discharging that responsibility. You can go to Vanguard or Fidelity's website. They'll tell you all about what they plan to do.

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And my call today is for us to put that information in front of American retail investors when they put their money down. In my view, at the moment when a retail investor makes the decision to be in a particular mutual fund family, to use a particular index product, they should have an understanding of how their money will be voted.

You might be inclined to say they won't 8 First of all, that is -- I love to say this 9 care. since it gives me papers to write -- an empirical 10 question. But even if it weren't, I ask all of you to 11 12 keep in mind the enormously powerful ex ante effects of a disclosure regime of this kind. The notion that 13 someday a retail investor at the point of sale will be 14 given salient, relevant information of the kind in the 15 Bubb/Catan paper might get institutional investors 16 17 thinking a little more about which party they belong to and why. 18

19 The ex ante benefits of this kind of 20 disclosure were the basis for the '33 and '34 acts. 21 And the notion that American retail investors won't 22 read all this so it doesn't matter, in my view is, 23 with all respect, mistaken. What I'm interested in 24 is providing institutional investors with the 25 knowledge before they cast those votes that they're

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going to have to tell people, in salient and clear
 terms, how they are voting Americans' money.

For me, that is a path to real A accountability for those institutional investors and a beginning of an answer to Professor Coates' challenge about what to do about the concentrated power that institutional investors wield in the United States.

Let me conclude by saying how important I 8 think today's conversation is, and I feel very 9 fortunate to be here because this is exactly the way 10 policy should be made in the United States. We should 11 12 have researchers, like Professor Schmalz and Professor Elhauge, put on the table important new questions that 13 14 we haven't thought enough about, offer policy solutions. We should debate whether they're right or 15 wrong for the people of the United States. 16 We should 17 demand better evidence when we need it, and we should be willing to act when we have it. 18

And in my view, what we know now about institutional investors in the United States is that they wield a tremendous amount of influence over the future of the economy in this country, and as a result, we need to do better about the ways in which we hold them accountable for those decisions.

25 So thanks so much to my colleagues at NYU

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and at the FTC for holding these important hearings,
 and I look forward to the conversation. Thank you
 very much.

(Applause.)

5 MR. HEMPHILL: I've got to give them a 6 chance to finish their colloquy here.

Commissioner Phillips, any reactions to
 Professor Jackson's remarks that you want to address?
 COMMISSIONER PHILLIPS: I think my most
 important reaction is he should send me the Catan
 paper, which I haven't yet read.

12 COMMISSIONER JACKSON: I think we can 13 arrange that. Professor Catan is here. Actually, we 14 should just in the interest of full disclosure tell 15 them, actually, Noah leaned over and said I knew you 16 were going to try and grab power from the FTC. He's 17 right.

18 COMMISSIONER PHILLIPS: Things were good in19 1933.

20

4

(Laughter.)

21 COMMISSIONER PHILLIPS: They ruined 22 everything in '34. No, I thought it was a fascinating 23 speech. I think I was struck that Commissioner 24 Jackson and I, in many respects, with respect to 25 common ownership, see things somewhat similarly. I

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think we see similar kinds of tensions in the

1

literature -- similar kinds of questions to ask. Both
of us agree that we need to see more research. We're
both very grateful for everyone being here and for
this debate going on.

6 I absolutely agree that this is a better way 7 to make policy in the United States. At the very end 8 of my remarks, I alluded to the column that followed 9 on the Coates paper by John Bogle. I think those are 10 very interesting questions as well.

11 MR. HEMPHILL: Professor Jackson, any 12 reaction to Professor Phillips or to the *Wall Street* 13 *Journal* commentary from a few days ago? I'll throw 14 that in, too.

15 COMMISSIONER JACKSON: So I thought Bogle 16 was exactly right. And it's really striking from an 17 historical point of view to see this from the inventor 18 of the index fund. My own view is that the problem 19 that we have, which is that index investing has become 20 so popular as to raise this debate, is what one might 21 think of as a first-class problem.

I mean, we have delivered an enormously valuable product to American investors that has paid for untold millions of retirements, educations, incredibly important. This is the way that the

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American people access the growth in our economy, so it's an enormously important product. It's become so powerful, so popular, so ubiquitous that we need to talk about the ways in which those who vote with that money are abiding that responsibility. That seems to me to be the right place for the conversation.

7 I think we also need to be very wary of the emerging evidence that there might be an 8 9 anticompetitive effect here. Because, to the degree that that case gets fully proved, I think we do need 10 to have a conversation about making sure that American 11 industries are sufficiently competitive. 12 So I continue to watch with interest as that literature 13 14 evolves. But my own judgment is that we're at the beginning rather than the end of that conversation as 15 a matter of optimal policy. 16

MR. HEMPHILL: Well, I think with that, I'm
going to thank both of our -- do you want to take
questions?

20 COMMISSIONER JACKSON: Sure.
21 (Laughter.)
22 COMMISSIONER JACKSON: I'm happy to take
23 questions from people.
24 MR. HEMPHILL: Yes, I guess we'll need a

25 microphone.

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UNIDENTIFIED MALE: Well, if you have 1 2 questions, you should set them out on question cards, and we'll bring them up you. 3 4 MR. HEMPHILL: And I can repeat it, depending. 5 (Audience question posed off microphone.) 6 7 AUDIENCE MEMBER: The question is simply that I agree with you. You were telling us about where 8 the focus should be (inaudible) concentration is 9 clear, the other is (inaudible). But in terms of 10 disclosure, which seems to be where you're heading 11 with respect to institutional ownership, is there any 12 thought about disclosure of conflicts of interest, 13 compensation, the time horizons that are guiding 14 institutional investors, or investor votes in general? 15 COMMISSIONER JACKSON: You want me to take 16 17 it? COMMISSIONER PHILLIPS: Seems more your lane 18 19 than mine. MR. HEMPHILL: This is a question posed to 20 Commissioner Jackson? 21 AUDIENCE MEMBER: 22 Yes. 23 COMMISSIONER JACKSON: So it's a good 24 question. So let me say a few things about this. 25 First of all, because I was diving into the Bubb/Catan

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paper, I spent some time in Form N-PX. First of all, 1 just as a matter of, like, human advice, don't. Like, 2 don't do that with your time. But what I found is 3 4 that it already contains some of the information. Like, this is why I think the policy shift here is one 5 that makes sense. It's a very rich set of detail. 6 7 You can get a lot out of it. It's just 8 incomprehensible.

9 And, so, a lot of the things you're talking about -- for example, incentive structure, portfolio 10 family structure, the way people are voting across the 11 organization -- if you work hard enough, it's there. 12 So my answer to your question is yes. I think those 13 14 things can and should be more summarily disclosed. And my case for this -- for moving forward with such a 15 rule -- is that the information is already being 16 17 produced in the largest institutional investors. My guess would be that the marginal cost of producing it 18 19 in a summary, more digestible fashion, in the way that the Bubb/Catan paper presents, it would not be costly. 20

21 Now, we can have a debate over the benefits 22 of that, whether or not it would move the needle. I'm 23 happy to have that conversation. But my question to 24 your question is yes, and moreover, I don't think it 25 would be marginally as costly as everyone might

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imagine to make that information more accessible to
 American investors.

COMMISSIONER PHILLIPS: Can I just add one thing to that? To me -- and I have not -- I haven't read the Bubb/Catan paper. I haven't looked at any one of these forms in my life.

7 COMMISSIONER JACKSON: How dare you? COMMISSIONER PHILLIPS: 8 I have read 10-Ks 9 and 10-Qs. This is a species of a longstanding, ongoing discussion about how the provision of 10 information, the mandatory provision of information, 11 the amount of information, the medium of its 12 communication, and, critically for purposes of 13 Commissioner Jackson's remarks, the timing of the 14 disclosure information empowers shareholders but also 15 consumers to make decisions in the market. 16

17 Where you have information out there, there are times where it can very easily be reflected in, 18 19 let's say, a liquid capital market. This is something we are grappling with now with Congress in the context 20 of privacy, right? Everyone is familiar with the fact 21 that you get little popup notices that tell you how 22 the website you're visiting is going to use your 23 24 information. Raise your hand if you've read one. 25 Okay. And this is a very well-educated

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group of people. So we all believe in markets, and we 1 all believe in the capacity of markets to help 2 allocate resources efficiently. Markets require 3 4 information. And, so, some of the most vexing questions that we face is how best to feed that 5 information into those markets. It's a question of 6 7 how shares are voted in elections. It's a question of the financials of companies. Right? 8 That's the '33 act and the '34 act -- I think it was the '33 act. 9

10 It's a question in privacy. It's a broader 11 issue. And, you know, it's good to look at these 12 questions and keep up-to-date on how consumers 13 (whether they be consumers of investments or consumers 14 elsewhere in the market) assimilate information.

MR. HEMPHILL: So one question from the 15 audience. Could each of you say a little bit more? 16 17 This is a question about passive versus active. Could you all say a little more about the kind of 18 19 fundamental differences between passive investors and active investors for -- I think both of these sets of 20 issues that are on the table? Maybe we'll start with 21 you, Professor Phillips. 22

23 COMMISSIONER PHILLIPS: Sure, since -- that 24 was my nomenclature, so I guess I'm responsible for 25 it.

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MR. HEMPHILL: It shows up in the
 literature, too, to some degree.

COMMISSIONER PHILLIPS: So to me, the 3 4 critical distinction or one critical distinction has to do with, if you believe that common ownership may 5 present a competition problem, or even if you simply 6 7 believe that it's a problem for purposes of competition that all sorts of folks, whether they be 8 common owners or otherwise, don't have adequate 9 incentive to spur for management to compete, to me, 10 you need to think about what are the mechanisms for 11 spurring that competition, who are the right people to 12 do it. 13

I think as I mentioned, we need to look at the various ways in which we approach -- I'm going to stick in the competition policy lane -- the ways we approach competition policy and always be thinking about, will this chill that kind of input from shareholders, or will it help shareholders encourage firms to compete.

That is a really important dynamic in the market. It's important for purposes of large asset managers. It's important for purposes of smaller activist investors. It's important across the board. So I think to me the remedy question is really, really

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1 important.

2	And also, as I said before, to me, there is
3	a big distinction if you subscribe to the active
4	theory, you support one kind of remedy. If you
5	subscribe to the passive theory, the stay passive
6	doesn't really look very attractive as a remedy.
7	MR. HEMPHILL: Rob?
8	COMMISSIONER JACKSON: So I'll take the
9	question in a slightly different direction and talk
10	about the distinction more broadly in the capital
11	markets between what we're calling activist and
12	passive investors as opposed to a particular theory
13	about the behavior of concentrated common owners.
14	You know, for me, it's been fascinating to
15	watch over the last decade the increasingly blurred
15 16	watch over the last decade the increasingly blurred lines between what someone calls an active and passive
16	lines between what someone calls an active and passive
16 17	lines between what someone calls an active and passive investor. And I'm quite sure that of all the people
16 17 18	lines between what someone calls an active and passive investor. And I'm quite sure that of all the people who could decide what the difference is, I'm least
16 17 18 19	lines between what someone calls an active and passive investor. And I'm quite sure that of all the people who could decide what the difference is, I'm least qualified to dictate to the marketplace what it means
16 17 18 19 20	lines between what someone calls an active and passive investor. And I'm quite sure that of all the people who could decide what the difference is, I'm least qualified to dictate to the marketplace what it means to be truly active. Let me say why.
16 17 18 19 20 21	lines between what someone calls an active and passive investor. And I'm quite sure that of all the people who could decide what the difference is, I'm least qualified to dictate to the marketplace what it means to be truly active. Let me say why. You hear a lot about activist investors and
16 17 18 19 20 21 22	<pre>lines between what someone calls an active and passive investor. And I'm quite sure that of all the people who could decide what the difference is, I'm least qualified to dictate to the marketplace what it means to be truly active. Let me say why. You hear a lot about activist investors and the things we might do or not do. I'm not sure who</pre>

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companies, you could very well include index fund
 managers who are voting their shares.

And, indeed, I think the point that Gordon 3 4 and Gilson paper made years ago is that there's this important interaction we don't fully understand 5 between these two types of investors. Activists play 6 7 an important role in agenda-setting in a way that passive investors might not. But the crucial decision 8 about who wins is often left to those institutional 9 investors because they carry such sway with respect to 10 votes at large public companies. 11

In fact, if you talk to any activist, they'll tell you, and the data are beginning to make this clear, that what dictates the success of their strategy (and I suspect increasingly the targets that they choose) is the degree to which they feel they can persuade those institutions, those passive institutions, that they are right.

And, so, for me, the interaction between these two types of investors is one that hasn't been studied as thoroughly as it could, especially empirically. I think the Gordon/Gilson paper gives us a good set of testable propositions. I think it's time to test them because my own sense is that we call one group activist, we call another group passivist,

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but -- and I understand fundamentally the difference is that for passive investors, the sort of components of the index are dictated to them by the index provider, but I think it's not -- it's a distinction increasingly without a difference when we think about who's really wielding power in American corporate elections.

8 MR. HEMPHILL: Could I take a step back just 9 for a minute? Both of you all in your remarks have 10 kind of identified an ambitious agenda -- partly an 11 ambitious agenda for research, for further work, 12 especially by empiricists, to try to make sense of 13 some of these issues. Is there anything that you all 14 see the agencies doing to play a role?

I mean, both the SEC and the FTC have fact-15 finding capabilities and also strong internal research 16 17 I just wonder if either of you could reflect a teams. little bit on whether it's more data, whether it's 18 19 more analytical work, internal to you all? I mean, setting the agenda for the rest of us is awesome. 20 I'm just wondering, you know, what about you all? 21

22 COMMISSIONER PHILLIPS: It's efficient, too. 23 MR. HEMPHILL: Yeah, right. It's efficient, 24 too. Right, right. Is there -- you know, how much of 25 a role is there to play? What might that look like?

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1 I mean -- do you have thoughts about that?

COMMISSIONER PHILLIPS: 2 I'm going to take this as the softball that you didn't intend. To me, 3 4 this is the start of it, right? So today we're going to sit here and we're going to listen to the best 5 minds in America on a variety of different, but 6 7 interrelated topics talk about the state-of-the-art of research, what are the questions that are unanswered, 8 9 and where is there agreement.

You know, Commissioner Jackson's call for 10 sort of other metrics would be a great example of 11 that. This is a good way of highlighting those areas 12 and aiming those resources. 13 There are certain authorities at our disposal. I will tell you there 14 are many people who think we should use authorities to 15 study a great many of topics. And, you know, we have 16 17 to be somewhat measured. But I think this, convening folks, bringing it to the public, inviting in the 18 19 conversation, and inviting criticism back and forth, which I hope is what we see today, is precisely the 20 21 way to start.

22 MR. HEMPHILL: I think we will see some of 23 that today.

24 COMMISSIONER JACKSON: Yeah, man, you're 25 going to get that for sure. So here's what I would

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I think one thing that I have suggested in past 1 say. remarks, and the Chairman at the SEC and I have talked 2 about it and I hope we'll continue the conversation 3 4 about it, is joint research work between our two agencies, not only because of the historical mandate 5 that we share, but because fundamentally these 6 7 questions can't be tackled with the data that one or both -- and increasingly, frankly, when I talk to the 8 research economists at the FTC and in our house, they 9 have sort of very different data and perspectives on 10 these questions. And, so, I would like very much for 11 us to be considering joint work in the area. 12

I think putting together a task force of researchers at both agencies is something worth considering because you're not wrong, Scott, that we gave you guys a lot of homework today -- by the way, I should confess my conflict. I might be one day a guy who will do that homework so it's like, yeah, providing supply for my own -- it's complicated.

20 Anyway, I guess my view is that you're right 21 to push us and say, there's got to be something that 22 the agencies can do in terms of setting out agenda, 23 roundtables, et cetera, where we can do some in-house 24 work ourselves, and I think that's something we ought 25 to give a lot of thought to.

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MR. HEMPHILL: So a guestion from the 1 It's a question about how to get a more 2 audience. active aggressive corporate governance, I think. 3 So 4 are there regulatory -- what are the kind of most important regulatory or legal barriers? I mean, I 5 think the premise of the question is that a more 6 7 active corporate governance would be attractive. What are the regulatory or legal barriers to that? 8

9 COMMISSIONER PHILLIPS: Well, you know, I talked a little bit in my speech about an issue at 10 which I'm beginning to look, which is the impact of 11 Hart-Scott-Rodino. Hart-Scott-Rodino is a mechanism 12 to deal with antitrust issues. It doesn't go beyond 13 I think we need to look at mechanisms that 14 that. exist in the market that are either intended to or 15 have the effect of chilling shareholder input. 16

17 I think that's a really important principle of which we can't lose sight. That, as I've said in 18 19 the past and I sort of reiterated today, this to me has to be part of the weighing of the common ownership 20 issue, which is -- I mean antitrust liability is a 21 very powerful thing. It's, you know, in civil 22 lawsuits, treble damages. The remedies from antitrust 23 24 actions can be severe. And some of the remedies that are proposed for common ownership, by some of the 25

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proponents of the theory, are admittedly -- would have
 a drastic impact.

And I think once you -- you know, if you're talking about antitrust, you're going to chill the conduct that you're looking at. And that needs to be part of that weighing that I mentioned. That's why I called for a rigorous weighing.

Yes, so ways to have 8 COMMISSIONER JACKSON: 9 more active corporate governance, how much time do you have? I have ideas about that. So a few things. 10 So first of all, it's important to begin by understanding 11 the fundamental economics that an institutional 12 investor faces when they think about engaging. 13 And Lucian Bebchuk and Scott Hirst have a terrific pair of 14 papers where they walk through the incentives that 15 institutional investors have or don't have. 16

And the short version that we've understood for some time now is that making those investments and engagement is expensive. It's very hard to cover the scope of companies that they must when they have the kind of portfolio that they do. They're making those investments. You can see that in the corporate governance teams of the very large institutions.

I've spent time with those teams. They'redoing good work, but it's an enormous task that they

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face. And for me, my goal as a regulator is always to reduce the marginal cost of them doing that work. So J want to make sure that we give them the disclosure that they need, to get the information that they want to cast those votes.

That's why, for example, I've pushed so hard 6 7 to finish the disclosure rules on executive compensation of corporate governance under Dodd-Frank. 8 9 Those -- that statute's eight years old. We haven't finalized the majority of those rules. 10 That's information that institutional investors have to go 11 out on their own to get. It costs them money on the 12 margin to do that. It makes them less likely to be 13 14 actively engaged in corporate governance. It's just a fact. 15

Also, I think we should be looking at other 16 17 ways to reward institutional investors and make it possible for them to access channels of engaging with 18 19 the company. So just to give an example, there's increasingly proxy access proposals that have been 20 adopted at public companies that provide some 21 realistic path for institutional investors to actually 22 have a contested election at a public company. 23

I really feel like the case for theuniversal proxy proposal that was put forth at the SEC

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before the new administration took place is very 1 powerful. And like Commissioner Phillips, to me, 2 these things are all related, because he's right, to 3 4 the degree you say that we're worried about antitrust, not only do the basic economics of institutional 5 investing make it difficult for these folks to engage 6 7 in the margin, but it raises the specter of too much engagement producing liability under the antitrust 8 9 laws, which I worry deters very beneficial oversight of corporate management. 10

MR. HEMPHILL: So does the homework that 11 you all have given us potentially do that a little 12 I mean, should we be worried about 13 bit? Right? 14 institutional investors turning tail because, look, we're talking through the possibility that we've had 15 this walking antitrust violation for some time, the 16 17 cure to which is to do less governance? COMMISSIONER JACKSON: Oh, for -- so, that's 18

19--20MR. HEMPHILL: I mean, how strongly should

we take that?

21

22 COMMISSIONER JACKSON: I think that's a very 23 real cost. I think those who have advanced those 24 proposals have acknowledged that cost, that there is 25 some downside to raising the specter of antitrust

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liability because to the degree you get too much
 engagement from an institutional investor, it provides
 evidence of that kind of influence that might raise
 questions from an antitrust point of view.

And as a scholar of corporate governance, I 5 worry about -- here's what I want to say. I don't 6 7 want to go too far down the road of a false choice, because we can empower institutional investors to 8 engage and act and still be mindful of and pay close 9 attention to the degrees to which they use those 10 channels, or don't use those channels, to reduce 11 12 competition.

I don't think we have to choose between 13 14 effective corporate governance and reduced competition in the United States, but I do worry -- and here's my 15 real frustration. There are already tools at our 16 17 business disposal to provide better disclosure on executive pay, finish the rules that we've got, do 18 universal proxy. There are already tools that would 19 allow us to do that, and I think it's time for us at 20 the SEC to start taking that seriously. 21

22 MR. HEMPHILL: So another question from the 23 audience, and I might need a little bit of help just 24 clarifying it. I think the question is essentially 25 about who are these people that are voting the shares?

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Just trying to get educated on -- how many people are actually voting these institutional investors' shares? Who are they within the organization? I think to just get a little more educated about that.

COMMISSIONER PHILLIPS: So not to step on 5 what Commissioner Jackson was saying, I think part of 6 7 what he was pointing out is this is an area where we are beginning to learn a little bit more. 8 We're 9 beginning to learn about the dynamic. I expect that we are going to hear today some description of, like, 10 at-large institutional asset managers, how stewardship 11 works, like what that process actually is. 12

Yeah, I think that's 13 COMMISSIONER JACKSON: 14 right. And actually just to point out a really interesting and important dynamic, even in the 15 empirical literature, I mentioned the Bubb/Catan 16 17 paper, there's a debate about the right unit of measurement for casting votes. Should it occur at the 18 19 fund family at the portfolio level, the fund family level? There's another paper that takes a different 20 approach for all kinds of interesting reasons. 21

Just to give you a sense, these are brandnew, cutting-edge emerging papers that are debating at what level are these votes cast. So that's why I say we're sort of at the beginning of the conversation.

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Also, by the way, Scott, I would predict 1 heterogeneity among institutions with respect to the 2 kind of group that they put together, who actually 3 4 wields power in that group. Is it the portfolio manager? Is it someone just above them in the 5 organizational hierarchy? You know, I think my 6 7 understanding, when I talk to people, is that there's heterogeneity even with respect to that authority. 8 9 And that's something that the literature's just now beginning to understand. 10

COMMISSIONER PHILLIPS: And just to add one 11 thing, and this was alluded to earlier. 12 There are also players outside of the institutional asset 13 14 managers themselves. Right? There are other investors who may communicate with them. There are 15 proxy advisers. There is a broader universe of folks 16 17 involved in that kind of decision-making.

18 COMMISSIONER JACKSON: Man, I just want to 19 point out, we got down to six minutes left and almost 20 made it without mentioning ISS.

21

(Laughter.)

22 COMMISSIONER JACKSON: I was like so -- I'm 23 still waiting for the day where I do something on --24 and -- yeah, that's right. There are other players in 25 this ecosystem. It's worth thinking and talking

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about. And we're having -- actually at the SEC, to the Chairman's great credit, we had a really interesting roundtable discussion of those issues a couple of weeks ago. And I really think my colleagues on the Commission are thinking hard about these questions, which is why it's such a good moment for a conversation like today's.

MR. HEMPHILL: So one other question from 8 9 the audience I think is picking up the theme of heterogeneity that you guys were just talking about 10 and wanting to focus attention for a minute on index 11 fund managers, right? Diversified portfolio, not just 12 within an industry, public companies in an industry, 13 14 but across industries, in some sense approximating the whole economy. 15

So the question is whether we should really 16 17 worry about index funds to the extent that they own not just the competitors but also the suppliers and 18 19 also to some degree depending -- you know, the How does that change how we think if it 20 customers. How does it change how we think about that kind 21 does? of institutional investor? 22

23 COMMISSIONER PHILLIPS: Well, to me,
24 especially for purposes of the antitrust discussion,
25 this is part of the nuance into which we have to get.

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1 You know, I think -- take a hostile merger, right? If 2 you worry about too much power invested in an 3 institution generally for purposes along the line of 4 Coates and Bogle's argument, if you worry about 5 antitrust liability, part of what you may have in mind 6 is the notion that the asset manager just thinks 7 generally or about itself broadly.

8 Take a contest where the shares are held in 9 companies that don't have a shared interest. How are 10 they being voted? Right? Are they being voted the 11 same way? Because if they're voting against 12 themselves, they may not be operating in the way that 13 we might think of someone who just owns a lot of 14 shares voting unilaterally.

I think those dynamics and those nuances 15 are critical to understand. The leveling of the sort 16 17 of supply chain that you not only have an interest in one company but in the companies from which that 18 19 company buys and the companies to which that company sells, that is another level of nuance in terms of 20 understanding what the sort of broad asset manager 21 interest might be. 22

23 COMMISSIONER JACKSON: Yeah, I think that's 24 right. I mean, one of the -- I mean, look, this is 25 why the Azar and the Elhauge papers are so interesting

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and important because when I begin to try to think through, if you're an institutional investor and you want to reduce competition, how do you think about that across your entire portfolio, not just in an industry? How do you think about the suppliers, customers, et cetera?

7 It's an enormously complicated calculus. 8 It's not -- one of the things that the literature has 9 done for me is clarified what the objective function 10 might be in that situation, what they might be trying 11 to do. So what we could meaningfully put on the left-12 hand side in terms of what the institutions might be 13 trying to achieve.

Look, I think he's right that it's a good thing to start with understanding the various calculus that one might do if they exercise that influence. And then I think, as your paper points out, what we really want is to make sure we have a measure that tests that strategy. And I think that's where the literature, I hope, is going.

21 And the more recent paper on relative 22 performance incentives, I think, takes a big step in 23 that direction, really has given me a lot of food for 24 thought about, okay, now, that helps me understand 25 what the thesis might be, right, because these guys

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are paid for exceptional within-industry performance, so maybe that's a mechanism we can think through.

3 So understanding the basic economics of what 4 a concentrated common owner strategy might be is I 5 think where we need to go in terms of understanding 6 this literature better.

7 MR. HEMPHILL: Any closing thoughts? Can I
8 give a minute to each of you all if there's anything
9 you want to close with?

COMMISSIONER PHILLIPS: I just want to close 10 with my real enthusiasm. I have booked my train late 11 enough to stay for as much of today as I can. I think 12 this is going to be one of the most interesting 13 debates. I think we are, like, literally and 14 physically at the intersection of two very interesting 15 areas of law, both of which focus on markets and their 16 17 optimal functioning. So I just want to thank really everyone for being here with us. 18

19 COMMISSIONER JACKSON: Yeah, I certainly I think this is the case for research. 20 agree. This is why research is so important to me. I mean, we're 21 here because Martin and Einer and others sort of put 22 this issue front and center for us and are making us 23 24 think hard about it. And, so, as someone who was a researcher, now a policymaker, it's rewarding for me 25

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1 to see the payoff of that research.

And when I say we're at the beginning of the 2 conversation, I mean, I'm not only trying to give you 3 guys more papers to write, I'm also learning in a very 4 real way about the ways that I should think about 5 doing my job well. So I'm very grateful to all of you 6 7 for that, and I very much look forward to the 8 conversation. 9 MR. HEMPHILL: Great. With that, please join me in thanking Commissioner Phillips and 10 Commissioner Jackson. 11 12 (Applause.) (Recess.) 13 14 15 16 17 18 19 20 21 22 23 INSTITUTIONAL INVESTORS, DIVERSIFICATION, AND 24 CORPORATE GOVERNANCE Welcome back. I'm Edward Rock. 25 MR. ROCK:

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I teach here at the law school. And it is really terrific to have this session here. The common ownership issue is one that folks here have been thinking about deeply for quite a while, so it's fun to have the session here.

I want to say a word about how this panel 6 7 fits into the overall structure of the program today. Commissioner Phillips and Commissioner Jackson have 8 introduced us to the issue and the to tension, to the 9 tension between antitrust liability and corporate 10 governance, to the intersection between antitrust and 11 12 corporate governance. And it's really a -- part of what is so interesting about this set of issues is 13 looking at the intersection of antitrust and corporate 14 governance. Something that is not often done but is 15 extremely important. 16

17 The claim, as you heard this morning, as you'll hear more this afternoon, the claim that Martin 18 19 Schmalz and coauthors have made is that the structure of common ownership through some mechanism has had 20 competitive effects. Einer has argued that it's 21 currently -- it's currently illegal under Section 7 of 22 the Clayton Act, and Eric Posner and Fiona Scott 23 24 Morton and Glen Weyl have argued that the appropriate solution is to either force firms to choose one firm 25

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in a concentrated industry or limit them to 1 percent
 or force them to commit to complete governance
 passivity.

4 This then sets up the framework for this panel, which is what would be lost if either through 5 antitrust risk, antitrust exposure firms opted for 6 7 governance passivity? What would be lost if the Posner/Scott Morton/Weyl proposal were adopted in 8 firms in order to maintain their business model, opted 9 for governance passivity, opted to put their shares in 10 the drawer and to return to the kind of lack of 11 shareholder engagement in corporate governance that 12 characterized the '50s, the 60s, and really well into 13 the '70s and '80s? 14

So a big part of what we're trying to do today is to provide a snapshot of what shareholder involvement in corporate governance looks like in 2018. What the ordinary sort of engagement is, how it works, who initiates it, so that we can see what would be lost if common owners returned to passivity.

21 Another issue you heard in both Commissioner 22 Phillips' talk and Commissioner Jackson's talk is this 23 question of what are the mechanisms by which this 24 anticompetitive effect could happen, could come about? 25 And, again, this panel, by talking about what is the

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nature of shareholder engagement in corporate governance in 2018, can cast light on how plausible different proposed mechanisms are, how plausible the lobbying mechanism is, how plausible is it that the large institutional investors in meeting with corporate management are urging them to adopt the soft competition approach?

8 How plausible is it that the mechanism of 9 reducing the amount of relative performance evaluation 10 compensation or having, to put it more positively, to 11 having greater emphasis on industry profits, industry 12 performance compensation? Is it a plausible channel 13 by which competition could be restrained?

14 In preparing for the panel, I've asked folks to address a variety of issues, including how do asset 15 managers initiate the engagement? Just how does it 16 17 What are the topics of engagement? To what work? degree is it firm-specific? To what degree is it 18 19 market-wide? In engagements, what are the -- what do asset managers raise or touch on? Do they touch on 20 the sort of issues that are proposed to be the 21 mechanism by which the views in favor of soft 22 competition that are attributed to the common owners 23 get translated into corporate policy? 24 25 Let me briefly introduce the panel in order

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of presentation. You have the biographies that tell you much more about their distinguished backgrounds. Our first presenter will be Barbara Novick, who is a cofounder of BlackRock, is a Vice Chair and now oversees -- among her varieties of duties, oversees investment stewardship.

7 We'll then turn to Allison Bennington, who is a partner at ValueAct but I should emphasize is not 8 here in that capacity. She's also a member of the SEC 9 Advisory Committee, a member of the Steering Committee 10 at the Investor Stewardship Group and a member of the 11 Advisory Board of NYU's Institute for Corporate 12 Governance and Finance. And in those capacities, 13 Allison sees and interacts with a wide variety of 14 different kinds of investors and is very much involved 15 in understanding and in crafting the approach that 16 17 different kinds of investors take to corporate 18 governance.

We'll then turn to Ken Bertsch, who is the
Executive Director of the Council of Institutional
Investors, which is the organization of which many of
the largest institutional investors gather.

23 Our next speaker will be Heather Slavkin 24 Corzo, who is the Director of Capital Markets Policy 25 for the AFL-CIO. The AFL-CIO has been very involved

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1 in corporate governance for decades now.

Following Heather, we'll have Holly Gregory, who's Co-Chair of Sidley Austin's Corporate Governance Practice and is an experienced board counselor and can take us inside the boardroom to see how shareholder engagement looks from the perspective of the directors.

8 We'll then turn to David Hirschmann, who's
9 Executive Vice President of U.S. Chamber of Commerce.

And we will close our first round with Scott 10 Hirst, Associate Professor of Law at BU and the author 11 with Lucian Bebchuk of a very important recent paper 12 that gathers data that looks at how much involvement 13 in corporate governance institutional investors have. 14 The takeaway -- Scott and Lucian's takeaway -- is much 15 too little. They should do much more, which 16 17 immediately sets up the tension that characterizes today. 18

19 It used to be that corporate law scholars 20 divided between those who thought that institutional 21 investors didn't do anything and those who thought 22 that institutional investors did a little bit. With 23 Martin and his coauthors' work, we now get all three 24 positions -- potential positions on the spectrum. 25 There are those who think that institutional investors

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do too little, like Scott and Lucian. There are those like Martin who think they do too much. And there are those like Marcel Kahan and myself who think it's sort of about right.

5 With that, let me turn it over to Barbara.6 Here's the clicker.

7 MS. NOVICK: Good morning. I'd like to talk about investment stewardship. This is the critical 8 9 element of the corporate accountability chain that empowers shareholders to engage, to vote on issues 10 that are relevant to the long-term success of the 11 companies that we own on behalf of our clients. It's 12 the very essence of how shareholders can exercise 13 14 their rights.

15 It clearly matters to asset owners, who are 16 the economic owners of the shares, as they participate 17 directly in the fortunes of the company. It also 18 matters to the asset managers who are fiduciary agents 19 on behalf of those clients, earning a small basis 20 point fee on the total portfolio.

21 Voting in proxies is one of the primary ways 22 that shareholders can express those views. Many asset 23 owners choose to vote themselves. This includes both 24 asset owners who manage assets in-house and asset 25 owners who outsource to asset managers. When the

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asset manager has the authority to vote, stewardship
 codes and regulation not only encourage but very often
 require that they do so on behalf of the clients.
 And, of course, as you heard earlier, many asset
 owners and asset managers use proxy advisers to assist
 them.

7 The common ownership debate is not about active versus passive. If the theory has any value at 8 9 all, it would logically apply to any investment strategy in which an investor holds more than one 10 Investment strategies are best thought of as 11 company. a continuum from the most actively managed to the most 12 indexed-oriented, all of which may include multiple 13 14 companies in a given sector.

Stock indexes are a crucial component to the 15 underlying both index and active strategies. 16 Index 17 strategies are designed to closely track the performance of the index by tracking the composition 18 19 of the index. These strategies have grown significantly as they provide the average investor 20 with low-cost access to market returns. 21 Active strategies by contrast are intended to outperform the 22 index by deviating from its competition. 23

24 One of the suggested remedies for common 25 ownership is to limit portfolios to one company per

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sector. In that case, virtually all diversified
 portfolios would no longer be viable. Index providers
 are a key participant in the ecosystem. Companies
 such as S&P and MSCI create indexes that represent
 broad markets as well as specific sectors and
 geographies using a variety of methodologies.

7 Understanding stock inclusion rules and index rebalancings is essential to managing 8 9 portfolios. The often-cited airlines paper assumes that managers continue to hold airlines during periods 10 of bankruptcy, but the reality is quite different. 11 When a company declares bankruptcy, its stock is 12 delisted from the Exchange, and index providers 13 14 promptly remove that stock from the index.

In contrast, when a company exits 15 bankruptcy, there could be a significant lag before 16 17 the stock is returned to the index. In the case of U.S. Airways, the stock was excluded from the index 18 19 for over four years. As a rule, index managers sell and buy the stocks close to the timing of these 20 deletions and additions. In the case of the airline 21 paper, 29 of the 56 quarters -- that's half -- of the 22 study period are impacted by this incorrect 23 24 assumption.

25

Investment stewardship includes both

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engagement and voting. Keeping in mind that a 1 company's board represents its shareholders, the 2 primary focus of engagement is on governance issues as 3 4 the quality involvement of the board is paramount to representing shareholders' interests. In addition to 5 board governance, we have engaged with companies to 6 7 understand their long-term strategy, to assess the alignment of executive compensation with shareholders, 8 to encourage climate risk disclosure, and to 9 understand how a company is addressing human capital 10 11 management.

You'll notice it was never about product pricing. And while we like to think our opinion matters, we represent a minority of the shares outstanding, generally in the single digits, so there is a limit to how much our opinion matters.

17 Let me touch briefly on compensation. When our stewardship team evaluates executive compensation, 18 19 we start from the premise that boards and their compensation committees should set policies that are 20 aligned with the company long-term strategy. 21 Compensation consultants play a key role in designing 22 these plans, and these plans are based on own firm 23 24 performance as measured by metrics like pre-tax 25 income, margin improvement, shareholder returns, and,

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1 frankly, outperforming their competitors.

Proponents of common ownership believe that the presence of common owners incentivizes company executives to reduce competition. This would mean that CEOs are willing to place the minority interests of common owners above their own personal financial interests since many are paid in company stock.

There's a broad consensus amongst 8 9 policymakers and asset owners that traditional asset managers should take a serious approach to investment 10 stewardship of client assets. Stewardship codes and 11 other regulations encourage engagement and often 12 require the asset manager to vote in proxies. 13 Over the past two decades, a series of codes have been 14 issued from the U.K. to Australia to Japan and more. 15 We count close to 20 stewardship codes globally today. 16

17 In the U.S., both the SEC and the DOL issued guidance 15 to 20 years ago stating that, as 18 19 fiduciaries, fund managers must vote proxies when doing so is in the best interest of clients. Calls by 20 some commentators to restrict engagement or eliminate 21 proxy voting rights directly contradict the 22 stewardship codes and regulations. Restricting voting 23 24 would disenfranchise our clients, the asset owners. The result could be an entrenchment of management or 25

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empowering short-term actors, both at the expense of
 the long-term owners.

At BlackRock, we evaluate each ballot item on its merits in the context of materiality to the company's long-term financial performance. We believe voting is the ultimate expression of investment stewardship, and a vote against management reflects a failure to make progress in engagement.

9 In 2017, 98 percent of the 28,000 ballot items from companies in the Russell 3000 Index were 10 management proposals, things like election of 11 directors or reappointment of auditors, which are 12 generally considered routine items and receive more 13 14 than 95 percent in favor. The exception are say-onpay votes, which often get lower support, especially 15 if the proxy advisory firms have recommended against. 16

17 The remaining 2 percent of the ballot items are shareholder proposals. Roughly half of these are 18 19 for environmental and social issues. As you can see, the voting on these items has no particular pattern 20 across managers. ISS uses over 380 management agenda 21 codes to categorize voting items for their proxy 22 Not even one agenda code relates to product 23 reports. 24 pricing. The chart also highlights the proxy advisers and their recommendations. Various studies estimate 25

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that proxy advisers influence between 10 and 25 percent of the vote. This far exceeds the influence of any individual or even multiple asset managers. Given their influence in voting, any study on shareholder voting must incorporate this effect. However, it is completely ignored in the common ownership papers.

8 So let me wrap up. The stewardship 9 ecosystem, as you've seen, is complex, many different participants. Asset managers are there to provide 10 investors with diversified portfolios to meet their 11 investment needs. And we engage with portfolio 12 companies not to influence pricing but rather to 13 14 protect and enhance the retirement outcomes of our This engagement plays an important role in 15 clients. the corporate accountability chain, which has value, 16 17 not just for shareholders, but for society as a whole. 18 Thank you.

19 MR. ROCK: Thank you, Barbara.

Allison?

20

MS. BENNINGTON: Thank you, Ed. Good morning, Commissioner Phillips and Commissioner Jackson. The lights are bright. I don't know where you are, but thank you. And thank you to NYU and the FTC for inviting me to participate in this panel today

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on such an important topic with such an August group
 of fellow panelists.

3 So let me start with that same disclaimer 4 that my remarks today are entirely my own opinion and 5 not that of ValueAct Capital.

So, today, what I'd like to discuss is the 6 7 recent history of engagement between corporations and their shareholders -- what we call corporate 8 9 governance -- what corporate governance achieves and what would be lost to the savers, retirees, and 10 investors of this country if the approaches suggested 11 by some in the academic community were to be adopted 12 by the FTC. 13

The recent history of 14 So first a history. corporate governance starts with the financial crisis 15 beginning in 2008. Before the financial crisis, 16 17 shareholders as a group tended to be more passive, and management and boards were dominant. The balance of 18 19 power was firmly on the side of corporations. Shareholders trusted that management would do the 20 21 right thing and ceded long-term corporate strategy and direction to management and the board. 22

Effectively, it was as if shareholders put their shares in the drawer and only took them out when it was time to sell. But then the whole world

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changed. In 2008, the financial crisis struck, and over the next few years, trillions of dollars were erased from the savings and retirement accounts of American workers and savers. People who had saved for a lifetime for retirement lost huge portions of their savings or had to work for many more years before they could retire on much less than they had planned.

Parents could no longer afford college 8 tuition; and household net worth was slashed. 9 Almost every American was negatively impacted by the 10 financial crisis, none more than retirees, workers, 11 savers, and investors. A lot of these savings and 12 retirement funds were invested through mutual funds or 13 14 index funds, which I'm loosely calling asset managers. I know I don't have these precisely right, but just to 15 give an overall sense, which in turn invested in the 16 17 shares of U.S. corporations.

Many union and public pension funds, what 18 19 I'm calling asset owners, managed the pension contributions of their workers and also invested in 20 U.S. corporations. The financial crash was an 21 enormous wake-up call for these asset managers and 22 Workers and savers and retirees thought 23 asset owners. 24 their savings were safe and that someone was looking 25 out for them. But asset owners and asset managers

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thought their investments in U.S. companies were safe and that managers and boards were not taking excessive risks.

4 At that point, asset owners and asset managers, which I'm going to call collectively 5 institutional investors, realized that in order to 6 7 fulfill their fiduciary obligations they had to take a role in corporate risk management and keep an eye on 8 the long-term health of U.S. public corporations that 9 they were investing in. They invested time and effort 10 in establishing a set of protocols to engage with 11 company management and boards of directors. 12 And this is when the balance of power began to shift. 13

Shareholders insisted that their voices be heard, and a new wave of engagement between corporations and these institutional shareholders began, which, for lack of a better term, we loosely call corporate governance.

19Then in 2010, the Dodd-Frank Act was20enacted. Dodd-Frank had multiple provisions,21encouraging shareholder corporate engagement and22provided an important congressional endorsement of the23role of shareholders in corporate governance.

I'd like to just take a little detour to theSEC, and thanks to Commissioner Jackson, I feel it's

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okay to do so. The SEC is the regulator of both the 1 financial markets and also the U.S. corporations. 2 So when the SEC speaks, the entire U.S. capital and 3 4 corporate ecosystem listens. And when the SEC encouraged and continues to encourage shareholder 5 engagement with public companies -- I'll just give you 6 7 a few quotes from Commissioner Kara Stein: I would posit that the entire corporate ecosystem success 8 9 actually rests on effective communication and collaboration between corporations and their 10 shareholders. When a company, its management, its 11 shareholders, and its employees work together, 12 companies tend to be more resilient and prosperous. 13 14 In turn, this benefits companies, their corporate stakeholders, and the economy as a whole. 15

16 Ex-Chairman Mary Schapiro: As a general 17 rule, interested, aware, and active shareholders are 18 good for public companies, and I believe that more 19 shareholder engagement is better.

20 And, finally, Commissioner Luis Aguilar: In 21 the end, I firmly believe that companies with 22 corporate governance processes that enhance how they 23 engage with their owners will be more successful than 24 those that keep the door shut.

25 So what does this all boil down to? It

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boils down to accountability through corporate
governance. Any system without accountability
eventually fails. Some argue that the financial
crisis was caused in part by a cascade of failures in
accountability at multiple points in the greater
financial ecosystem, and public corporations certainly
played their part.

In the new world of corporate governance, 8 9 the very clean and clear system of accountability has established itself, a system where everybody is 10 accountable, everyone has a boss. Here's how it 11 Employees are accountable to management. 12 works. Management is accountable to the board. 13 The board is elected by, and therefore accountable to, its 14 shareholders. There are many different types of 15 shareholders, but when we're talking about 16 17 institutional shareholders, institutional shareholders are accounted to those whose financial assets they 18 19 look after.

20 So who's at the end of that chain? The 21 retirees, savers, workers, union members, investors. 22 The chain of accountability between management and 23 boards and their shareholders is facilitated by 24 corporate governance, and it's the institutional 25 shareholders that have taken the lead in the corporate

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1 governance engagement process.

If we adopt the suggestions of some in the 2 academic community, institutional shareholder 3 4 engagement will be choked off. The chain of accountability will be broken between the board and 5 the vast majority of their shareholders. Boards will 6 7 no longer have a boss, and the rest of the chain will be decoupled. And it's the retirees, savers, workers, 8 and investors who are at the end of that chain who 9 will suffer the consequences. 10

I'm sure that many of my fellow panelists 11 will go into more detail about the topics of 12 engagement between shareholders and management, but 13 the overarching theme is that institutional 14 shareholders want to see their companies run in a way 15 that allows them to assess long-term goals. 16 No 17 shareholder wants to see a company they are invested in on the front page of the Wall Street Journal 18 19 because of irresponsible corporate conduct that results in the destruction of shareholder value. 20

21 So where does this leave us, and what would 22 be lost if shareholders were blocked from engagement? 23 We've seen what happens when the chain of 24 accountability is broken. I would posit that the 25 healthiest ecosystems are the ones where everyone is

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accountable. Ultimately, this chain of accountability
 protects the very people who the academic community is
 concerned about hurting. Consumers by one name are
 also workers, union members, retirees, and savers by
 another.

Muzzling shareholders and swinging the 6 7 pendulum back in the direction of management creates a worrying scenario. As a country, we have been there 8 9 before. Our financial system's regulators and congressional leaders have led us in the right 10 direction of developing an open shareholder/management 11 relationship. In my opinion, we should very seriously 12 consider the implications or unintended consequences 13 14 of a shift in antitrust policy that could have major, far-reaching implications for established capital 15 markets policies and practices that have served us all 16 17 well. Thank you.

18 MR. ROCK: Thank you, Allison.

19 Ken.

20 MR. BERTSCH: Thanks, Ed. Thank you for 21 inviting me to participate. Thank you, Commissioner 22 Phillips and the FTC. I think it's a very interesting 23 day, and it's already gotten an interesting start. 24 So my name is Ken Bertsch. I'm Executive 25 Director of the Council of Institutional Investors.

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We are a membership organization of organizations. 1 Our core membership, are asset owners, institutional 2 asset owners, particularly public pension funds. 3 We 4 were set up by public funds in the mid-1980s actually to try to fix what was wrong with corporate 5 governance, which was lack of engagement by long-term 6 7 shareholders with the companies that they owned, and I'll come back around to that. 8

9 I do want to make a few comments on the 10 dialogue earlier with Commissioners Phillips and 11 Jackson, which I thought -- pretty much would identify 12 myself with all of their comments. I did learn ever 13 more that NYU is the center of the world, although 14 probably the business school as well as law, I'd have 15 to say.

And I remembered that I worked at TI -- what 16 17 was then called TIAA-CREF in the late 1990s and early 2000s, and we had a corporate engagement program that 18 19 I think was somewhat groundbreaking. I had a staff of two retired CEOs, which was kind of a unique 20 perspective. We had a pretty vigorous program, and we 21 had Chancellor Bill Allen, who by that time was 22 working with NYU to come in and evaluate what we were 23 24 doing and particularly to look for agency problems, 25 and were we actually doing activities that were

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worthwhile for the beneficiaries. And he did quite a thorough review. He was largely positive. He had some criticisms, but it occurs to me -- it only occurred to me this morning that might be some kind of exercise that's worth doing based on Commissioner Jackson's comments.

7 I would also say that some of the comments were really about getting information to retail 8 9 holders on stewardship programs in a way that they I would say that the institutional would understand. 10 asset members, many of them, have had a lot of 11 interactions with their asset managers about 12 stewardship for a while. And, so, there are models 13 14 out there. There are folks who are pushing the envelope. I'd cite in particular the GPIF, the 15 largest pension fund in the world in Japan, which has 16 17 in the last couple of years really further developed how to interact with asset managers on the subject. 18

19 Third, I want to identify myself with 20 Commissioner Phillips' remarks about chilling effects 21 and worrying about chilling effects. I worry about 22 chilling effects from actually the common ownership 23 debate itself to some extent, but also would say the 24 current HSR rules are -- the too narrow investment-25 only exemption and too ill-defined investment-only

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exemption, I think actually is right now chilling some of the engagement that needs to take place, is on the liability side from the standpoint of law departments and asset managers that weigh whether -- whether there should be engagement or not.

I also want to associate myself with both 6 7 Commissioners on the heterogeneity of the participants in this on the investor side. So on the asset manager 8 level, I really see all kinds of different variety of 9 interactions. Big indexers have varying levels of 10 fundamental active investment that they're doing at 11 We involved our portfolio managers where they 12 TIAA. had -- at some companies where they had positive 13 14 weightings, but we were largely indexed, and so we worked mostly in a similar way that BlackRock did. 15

Active managers have different combinations 16 17 of involving corporate governance staff and portfolio management staff, and it's changed rapidly in recent 18 19 years. The corporate governance discussions tend to be on process, with investors trying to understand do 20 we have faith in this board, are they awake at the 21 switch, do they understand how the executive 22 compensation works. And there are discussions about 23 24 risk management and so on.

25

Those are the topics that are at the

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forefront. For active managers -- and strategies discussed, but it's more does this board, does this board member understand the strategy, can they articulate it to us, and how does it connect to executive compensation, for example.

For more active owners, I think there's more 6 7 dialogue, no doubt, about strategy, particularly where companies are misfiring. But the measure of whether 8 9 they're misfiring has been are they doing poorly relative to peers. Are they missing the boat on 10 strategic change? And those discussions, and I have 11 been in some of those as well, including at Morgan 12 13 Stanley Investment Management, where I worked.

To the extent they get into execution, it's really about running faster, jumping higher, competing more -- better, becoming better competitors. So in that sense, some of the common ownership debate doesn't ring true to me in terms of what these discussions actually are about.

I also would say there's a little bit of tone deafness, I think, in some of the articles about what goes in asset management firms. Ed, your paper, just a trivial example, that picks up the commentary that some investors admitted to engaging with companies, using the word sort of an "admission

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against interest," that is not an admission against 1 It's probably exaggerated, actually. 2 interest. The admission against interest would be that 3 4 we're not engaging because --5 MR. ROCK: That was a quote -- that was a quote from a different paper. That wasn't --6 7 MR. BERTSCH: No, no, I know, but you found it. 8 9 MR. ROCK: We found it. 10 MR. BERTSCH: It was not Ed's paper. 11 (Laughter.) It was a paper he was 12 MR. BERTSCH: 13 critiquing. In any case, so engagement is expected at 14 this point in time. Just to go back to our findings, Allison, I would take the history back quite a bit 15 further. And you could really probably go back to the 16 17 1930s, but in the 1980s, the public pension funds felt like they were being squeezed between certain activist 18 19 holders, particularly those that did greenmail, that basically held up companies and got paid off 20 21 privately, and then corporations that decided to defend themselves by entrenching management through 22 poison pills, through staggering election of directors 23 24 and other means, and that there needed to be a voice for long-term investors to advocate for their asset 25

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managers and through their own programs to engage
 constructively with companies.

And increasingly that became focused on the board of directors and trying to make sure that there was good engagement with the board and an opportunity for the investors really to understand the strength of the board. I'll stop there.

8 MR. ROCK: Thank you, Ken.

Heather.

9

10 MS. CORZO: Thanks. Thank you, guys. Thank you all for being here and for the opportunity to 11 speak to you today. My name is Heather Slavkin Corzo. 12 As Edward mentioned, I'm here on behalf of the AFL-13 We represent 12 and a half million union members 14 CIO. with more than \$7 trillion invested in the financial 15 markets in the form of retirement savings. 16

In addition to that, I am the Head of U.S. Policy for the UN Principles for Responsible Investment. We are the world's leading proponent of responsible investment, with over 2,100 signatories globally investing \$82 trillion. Of that, around 400 of our signatories are in the U.S., with \$45 trillion in assets under management.

And, finally, I am a Senior Fellow at
Americans for Financial Reform, a coalition of more

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than 2,000 civil rights, consumer, labor, business, and other organizations formed in the wake of the financial crisis to lay the foundation for a strong, stable, and ethical financial system. Whoo, so I got through that. You guys, if you think that took a while, imagine what it's going to be like come tax time.

But as for the topic of today's panel, we've 8 been asked to discuss what shareholder engagement and 9 corporate governance looks like today. The AFL-CIO 10 has a long history of engaging in corporate governance 11 initiatives. The initiatives that most people who 12 13 participate in the corporate governance space are most 14 familiar with are the engagements on behalf of the AFL-CIO reserve fund, where we file dozens of 15 proposals every year on topics ranging from executive 16 17 compensation to human rights issues in the supply chain to political spending disclosure. We change the 18 19 subjects periodically. And, you know, the engagement goes back more than 20 years. 20

In addition to that, there is an AFL-CIO equity index fund. It has about \$8.4 billion in assets under management, large for, you know, the regular person, but compared to what Barbara's managing, it's a pittance. And what the AFL-CIO

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equity index fund does is we are a large cap equity
 index fund. We file shareholder proposals
 periodically, and there's AFL-CIO proxy voting
 guidelines, and so all of the votes are cast in
 adherence to the guidelines.

6 So when discussing engagement by large 7 institutional investors, I think it's important to 8 distinguish between the activities undertaken by large 9 money managers versus including those who manage 10 pension funds versus large pension funds that may 11 engage more directly in corporate governance matters 12 through the shareholder proposal process.

Large pension funds have managed to push the agenda on specific issues to get a say on issues like executive compensation, board diversity, proxy access, et cetera. In the U.S. context, however, the large money managers have not been as active in my experience on direct shareholder proposals through the SEC process.

As Barbara spoke about, the rise of stewardship codes around the world, however, has led to an increased focus on how large money managers approach governance and expectations that large institutional investors will show a commitment to transparency and drive good corporate governance

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practices through engagement and voting.

So the ability of investors to engage with 2 companies and the types of issues that may be raised 3 4 through formal proceedings is limited. The SEC has an extensive body of regulation, guidance, staff legal 5 bulletins, and nonprecedential but informative, no-6 7 action responses that guide investors on acceptable topics for engagement on ESG issues through the proxy 8 process. At a very high level, the SEC will grant --9 issues no-action requests to allow for the exclusion 10 of a shareholder proposal if it seeks to micromanage 11 the company or if it's considered ordinary business. 12

If a topic is considered a significant 13 14 social policy issue, the shareholder proponent may nonetheless overcome a request for exclusion. 15 There may be investors who are engaging with companies 16 17 through informal means. That's not typically how the AFL-CIO engages. So the subjects that we are engaging 18 19 in with companies are really limited to the ones that the SEC has determined are acceptable topics. 20

These tend to be -- I'm hard-pressed to think of an example that's not an environmental, social, or governance issue, or an ESG issue. I can't think of a single instance where we've talked to a company about product pricing.

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And, in fact, as I think about it, it's hard 1 for me to imagine that it would even be legal. 2 Ι think one thing that we have to think about is the 3 4 reality that insider trading laws prohibit companies from sharing material, nonpublic information, from any 5 -- with any investor. So it's interesting for me to 6 7 hear the topics that are under discussion, the conversations around whether there may be some 8 9 anticompetitive impact that arises from investor engagement on governance issues. It's hard for me to 10 imagine how it would actually happen. And I think to 11 the extent it was, it would already be illegal and 12 cause for serious concern. 13

14 So I think it's important to look at the 15 questions being raised today about whether investors' 16 engagement on corporate governance matters lead to 17 anticompetitive activities in the context of the 18 larger debate that's happening in Washington that is 19 really aimed at silencing investors when we attempt to 20 engage with companies on ESG issues.

There is a hearing under way as we speak in the Senate Banking Committee right now to consider proxy voting and proxy advisers. And the SEC has taken a number of actions to scale back investors' rights, to raise topics of concern with a company

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through the shareholder proposal process, just in the
 last few months.

This is actually the opposite of the 3 4 direction we should be headed. Individual investors are increasingly concerned about the impact the 5 companies we own are having on the environment, income 6 7 inequality, and other ESG matters. That is why large money managers are increasingly developing responsible 8 investment options, and we should be encouraging that 9 10 activity.

So I just -- I want to take one second to 11 We've heard other panelists respond to this 12 respond. notion that the way to respond to the concerns that 13 14 are being raised about potential anticompetitive activity is to remove the rights of large 15 institutional investors to participate in proxy 16 17 voting. That is a serious concern to me. I think that would remove a tremendous opportunity for 18 19 accountability.

And as Allison discussed, there is a -there's a balance that exists right now in the corporate governance system that provides accountability along the line. It would be very disruptive to interfere with that.

25 So with that, I'll conclude my comments and

For The Record, Inc. (301) 870-8025 - www.ftrinc.net - (800) 921-5555 1 thank you all for the opportunity to speak today.

2 MR. ROCK: Thank you, Heather. 3 Holly, you spend a lot of time in 4 boardrooms. 5 MS. GREGORY: Yes. Thank you. Thank you

6 for inviting me to share a corporate governance 7 lawyer's perspective on the issues that you're talking around common ownership. I cochair Sidley Austin's 8 9 Corporate Governance Practice. It's a global practice. I advise corporate boards on the whole 10 range of corporate governance issues, including 11 engagement with institutional investors and 12 shareholders. 13

14 Now for the disclaimers. I have not advised 15 anyone on the common ownership subject matter of this 16 hearing. I have not been retained by anyone to 17 participate in this panel. And the views I express 18 are my own and not for attribution to Sidley Austin or 19 any of our clients.

I'm going to make four observations. First, while the institutional investor influence on publicly traded corporations has increased considerably in the past 20 years, the subjects of this influence, as evidenced by the topics on which they vote and the topics on which they engage, and as Heather mentioned,

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do not appear to extend to ordinary-course business
 decisions.

Outside of their very limited decision rights as shareholders, shareholders cannot dictate the actions of the corporation's board or its officers. Directors and officers are fiduciaries, and as such they're required to make their own judgments in managing the business and affairs of the corporation.

10 Now, shareholder influence, which I 11 mentioned is fairly powerful, comes in large measure 12 from their ability under federal law and regulation to 13 bring nonbinding shareholder proposals and company 14 proxy materials, and also to have advisory vote on 15 executive compensation and on the golden parachute 16 compensation.

17 Companies face significant pressure to 18 address, say-on-pay issues where the management 19 proposal does not achieve a significant majority of 20 support, and also to implement majority-supported 21 shareholder proposals. And failure to do so can lead 22 proxy advisory firms to recommend against the 23 reelection of directors.

Now, ordinary business operations are not a
proper subject of shareholder proposals. Absent an

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overreaching policy issue, generally what products to 1 offer, what prices to charge, what areas to compete in 2 are ordinary business operations and they're excluded 3 4 from shareholder proposals. And, similarly, in engagement efforts, institutional investors focus on 5 the broader issues concerning shareholder rights, 6 7 board accountability and governance, executive compensation structure, and corporate, social, and 8 9 environmental responsibility.

10 And according to the stewardship reports from the large institutional investors and surveys of 11 corporate directors and members of management, the 12 most common topics for engagement in 2018 and 2017 13 14 were around board quality and composition and accountability, climate-related risk, and board 15 oversight of sustainability issues, executive 16 17 compensation, including alignment of compensation with company performance, and shareholder rights. 18 And 19 there are more, but that's really it. They're not about these ordinary business issues. 20

21 My second observation. Both institutional 22 investors and their proxy advisers heavily emphasize, 23 as reflected in their proxy voting policies, that 24 executive compensation should be aligned with company 25 performance and not with industry performance. The

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voting policies of institutional investors provide that misalignment between pay and company performance is grounds for a negative say-on-pay vote, and in certain circumstances, grounds for a negative vote on the reelection of compensation committee members. And that's pretty powerful stuff to a board of directors in thinking about compensation structure.

Similarly, the proxy advisers both 8 9 incorporate relative performance evaluation into their analysis and will issue negative vote recommendations, 10 for say on pay, if executive pay and company 11 performance are not aligned. Indeed, a misalignment 12 of pay and company performance relative to peers is 13 the most common reason for proxy advisers to recommend 14 a negative vote on compensation, and it is the most 15 common reason for a failed say-on-pay vote. 16

17 My third point. The topics on which corporations and their institutional investors engage 18 19 is heavily influenced by legal concerns, including the need to strictly comply with federal securities and 20 antitrust laws and regulations. Focused attention by 21 corporate counsel in line with written guidance on 22 engagement activity undermines the notion that 23 24 engagement is a means through which investors 25 encourage companies to soften their competition or

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through which companies communicate confidential
 information about their competitive plans.

It is common practice in my experience for 3 4 counsel to provide corporate directors and members of the management team with strict instructions about the 5 rules of engagement, including parameters of topics 6 7 for engagement. In line with SEC staff guidance, discussion topics are typically precleared with the 8 9 shareholder and company counsel, either participates in the meeting or briefs the company's participants in 10 advance. 11

12 Through engagement policies and direct 13 instruction from counsel, participants are reminded 14 that they must not selectively disclose material 15 nonpublic information in violation of Reg FD. They're 16 reminded about tipping and insider trading liability 17 that could result from someone else misusing material 18 nonpublic information.

19 If engagement is encouraged during proxy 20 season, special care is given to abide by the proxy 21 solicitation rules, which only permit attempts to 22 influence shareholder votes based on what has been 23 disclosed in filed proxy-soliciting material.

24 Directors and officers are also reminded not 25 to discuss competitive information, customer-specific

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information, or details about the company's pricing or
 production capacity.

My fourth point. Institutional investor 3 4 engagement with portfolio companies has contributed to decisions by corporate boards to change corporate 5 governance practices and to provide greater 6 7 transparency into their decision-making. For example, in response to a combination of engagement and 8 9 nonbinding shareholder proposals. A majority of S&P 500 boards now require annual election of all 10 directors, majority voting in the election of 11 directors, and shareholder access to the company's 12 proxy to nominate directors. 13

This influence has a multiplier effect as 14 other corporate boards take heed of these developments 15 as evolving best practices and reflection of broad 16 shareholder expectations. They are implementing these 17 kinds of changes without direct shareholder 18 19 engagement. The focus is now shifting to the social responsibility and environmental issues and corporate 20 sustainability that Heather mentioned, and, so, we 21 expect to see changes and greater transparency there 22 as well. 23

In conclusion, if a decline in competition in concentrated industries is, in fact, associated

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with common ownership, and I understand that that is 1 also a point at issue, policymakers will face very 2 difficult tradeoffs, given consumer interests in 3 4 diversified investment vehicles for investment and college savings, and the benefits institutional 5 engagement brings to corporate governance. Thank you. 6 7 Thank you, Holly. MR. ROCK: We now turn to David Hirschmann from the 8 United States Chamber of Commerce. 9 Is this an issue in which the AFL-CIO and the Chamber of Commerce are 10 shoulder to shoulder on? 11 Actually, a few years ago, 12 MR. HIRSCHMANN: I testified at the Senate Judiciary, and that morning, 13 14 I lost my voice. And I had to explain to Senator Leahy who was chairing the hearing that on this issue 15 the AFL-CIO could speak for us. That issue happened 16 17 to be the protection of intellectual property. Unfortunately, for all of you, today I have 18 19 my voice, so you'll have to hear me actually agree with Heather and Ken. 20 MS. CORZO: Well, I'll enjoy it. 21 MR. HIRSCHMAN: So thank you, Ed. 22 And thanks to Commissioner Phillips, Commissioner Jackson, 23 the FTC, and NYU for holding this important forum. 24

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The Chamber represents 3 million businesses of

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virtually every size and shape in this country, public 1 and private. And we tend to come at these issues from 2 the perspective of what will better enable capital 3 4 formation. And that's where we've long encouraged companies to engage more with their shareholders --5 public companies -- and we've engaged and encouraged 6 7 our asset manager members to engage with companies as And both have responded. 8 well. In fact, certainly, 9 we participate in countless conferences and other forums to discuss how shareholders should engage more 10 and how to do that constructively. 11

Where we have disagreed, when we have, is 12 on proposals that we view as giving one or another 13 group of investors more favorable rules of the road 14 in a way that makes it hard for boards to exercise 15 their fiduciary duty to all shareholders. 16 This has, 17 for example, driven our concern about the lack of proxy advisory firms, which I'll talk a little more 18 19 about in a moment.

20 So while we don't always agree with the AFL-21 CIO and CI, I think we begin from a -- and what 22 strikes me about this issue that the common premise 23 that constructive engagement is better is something 24 that I hear widespread agreement on today. 25 Shareholder engagement does not drive down

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competition. In fact, it can encourage and sustain,
 and it's important for healthy capital markets.
 Engagement allows management to communicate with their
 shareholder base as they implement strategies to
 generate long-term growth.

6 Our most recent proxy survey showed, for 7 example, that 80 percent of companies report that they 8 engage year-round in a regular communication program 9 with their institutional investors. And I'd be the 10 first to say that we should get that number closer to 11 100 percent.

With that in mind, I'd like to make a couple of points. First, the subject in which companies engage with their institutional investors; some of the concerns public companies have when it comes to the current practices related to corporate governance; and finally the role of proxy advisory firms.

First, how do investors engage? 18 19 Institutional investors often communicate directly with the company, and companies reach out to their 20 investors, either through their investor relations 21 department, through management, through the board, in 22 a number of means. And we are fortunate to live in an 23 24 era where there is accelerating innovation and 25 transformation larger than we've seen since certainly

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1 the Industrial Revolution.

Frankly, I can't recall meeting with a 2 single business leader who isn't laser-focused on how 3 4 to drive that change in a positive way for their business. In fact, because we understand that 5 virtually every business model can be disrupted today, 6 7 the Chamber is actively focused on removing barriers In that environment, 8 to innovation and growth. companies must be able to communicate their strategy 9 with all types of investors and stakeholders. This is 10 the kind of constructive engagement that is happening 11 more and more and that most investors are seeking. 12 Second, what are some of the concerns we 13

14 have with the way public companies -- that public companies have with the current state of play. 15 While we think constructive investor engagement is 16 17 beneficial, there are ways in which a minority of some special interest investors can use outdated rules to 18 19 promote their agendas at the expense of other investors. For example, rules governing shareholder 20 21 proposals have allowed proposals dealing with social/political matters to proliferate, even when 22 they fail to gain significant support. 23

24 We are pleased that the SEC is now looking 25 at zombie proposals and other areas where the proxy

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rules might need to be modernized so all investors -both retail and institutional -- have a level playing
field.

4 Third, the role of proxy advisory firms. Proxy advisory firms, as many of us know, have a 5 demonstrated influence in the manner in which large 6 7 public companies -- a large number of public company shares are voted. In some companies, it depends on 8 9 the shareholder base, but it ranges, according to most research, between 50 and 30 percent. Way too much 10 time is spent today in boardrooms to try to anticipate 11 what ISS or Glass Lewis think and how that might 12 impact how they vote in the next proxy season. 13

14 In fact, many companies feel the need to hire the ISS's consulting arm to help guide them on 15 the nontransparent and uneven way in which they apply 16 17 their corporate standards. To be clear, we are not seeking to federalize or eliminate proxy advisory 18 19 firms. We simply have pointed out that they play an important role and have supported sensible reforms 20 that will enable them to better serve all stakeholders 21 in the capital formation system. 22

23 Reforms in this area are long overdue, but 24 that's a topic best left to the SEC. My point in 25 raising this issue today is not to labor into the

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1 merits or relative merits of proxy advisers but point 2 out that much of the academic research in this space 3 has failed to even consider the role of proxy advisers 4 and certainly has not considered how the solutions 5 identified might influence the world that proxy 6 advisers play.

7 Finally, I'd like to end with one final word about how the potential -- about the potential impact 8 9 of limiting common ownership could have on capital formation, which as I said, is agenda one for the 10 Chamber. Index investors play a key role in 11 generating economic growth and job creation in a way 12 that's good for companies, it's good for retail 13 investors, and it's good for retirees. 14

Being part of an index is an important tool 15 to drive liquidity for all companies but especially so 16 17 for smaller public companies. If the government places undue restrictions on investments in public 18 19 companies, it would further discourage companies from going public and staying public. We have seen a sharp 20 decline in the number of public companies over the 21 past two decades, and liquidity concerns for smaller 22 issuers is an important reason. While this is harmful 23 24 for companies in our capital markets, it's also 25 harmful for retail investors who might not be able to

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participate in some of the fastest growing and most 1 dynamic companies. 2

3 So thank you for including me today. We 4 welcome the FTC taking an evidence-based look at common ownership at this hearing and what I'm sure 5 will follow in discussions as an important 6 7 contribution to that. And I'd urge us all to continue to challenge the science behind some of the things 8 9 that have been supported and to think about the consequences of some of the solutions being identified 10 to date. 11

> Thank you, David. MR. ROCK:

We now turn to Scott Hirst. 13 I hope the clicker has made it down. Scott and Lucien Bebchuk 14 have been working on trying to document how much 15 engagement there is between firms and shareholders. 16 17

Scott.

12

Thank you, Ed. And, so, this 18 MR. HIRST: 19 work builds on work together with Lucian Bebchuk, including a paper last year in The Journal of Economic 20 Perspectives with Alma Cohen, a work that's currently 21 available on SSRN, and ongoing work that looks in more 22 detail at the implications of our analysis for the 23 24 common ownership debate. And the focus of our work is 25 on the stewardship decisions of index fund managers.

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So by stewardship, we mean how they monitor, vote, and
 engage with their portfolio companies.

And our work aims to provide a systematic, 3 4 theoretical, empirical, and policy analysis of these stewardship decisions of investment fund managers. 5 And we identify the promise of institutional investor 6 7 stewardship to combat the problem of agency costs between corporate managers and their shareholders. 8 9 And, so, the increasing size of institutional investors over time and the greater monitoring and 10 engagement that this allows is a positive development 11 that can combat these agency problems within 12 13 corporations.

And we show in our work that institutional investor stewardship has this promise to increasing corporate performance. So because of this, we argue that public policy should seek to encourage and to facilitate stewardship and engagement by institutions and not to limit it.

20 So we turn now to the common ownership 21 literature. And, so, common ownership alarmists have 22 argued that regulators should pay attention not only 23 to the decisions of these managers of corporations but 24 also to the ownership of those corporations by 25 institutional investors and in particular whether

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these shares are held across competitive companies.

But in our analysis, we show that the understanding of how these institutional investors act requires taking into account their own ownership structure, which common ownership alarmists fail to do. And, so, we turn to the missing mechanism, the link between common ownership and anticompetitive effects, and we make two points.

9 First of all, common ownership -- the question of whether common ownership can have 10 anticompetitive effects because of the big three or 11 other investment managers might actively encourage 12 anticompetitive behavior. And on this, our work 13 provides a detailed, empirical account of the 14 stewardship activities of large investment managers, 15 and we show that such active intervention in business 16 17 strategy decisions by institutional investors is both implausible and inconsistent with the empirical 18 19 evidence.

20 Second, on the question of the purported 21 link by -- through passive means, could institutional 22 investors have anticompetitive effects by inducing 23 investment managers to do nothing and, therefore, 24 tolerate anticompetitive behavior. And our ongoing 25 work suggests that this mechanism is also implausible

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and unsupported by the empirical evidence.

In our paper, we make the point that the 2 claims of -- not only are the claims of common 3 4 ownership unwarranted, but paying regulatory attention to common ownership isn't merely unnecessary, but it's 5 also costly, and counterproductive. Because it's 6 7 corporate managers and not institutional investors that play the key role in shaping strategic decisions 8 that determine competitiveness, it's these decisions 9 of corporate managers that should be the central focus 10 of regulatory attention and not the actions of 11 institutional investors. 12

And given the constraints on the attention 13 14 and the resources of regulators diverting attention to institutional investors and away from the decisions of 15 corporate managers is counterproductive. The measures 16 17 that those highlighting common ownership have put forward, intended to make the big three investment 18 19 managers and other large investment managers less engaged and more passive. 20

21 And the very fact that we're having this 22 discussion about the possibility of anticompetitive 23 effects of engagement by institutional investors might 24 itself chill engagement by investment managers. And 25 while common ownership alarmists view these measures

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positively, we argue that the effects on investment 1 stewardship would be counterproductive. 2 We claim -we make the point that modern corporations do not 3 4 suffer from too much shareholder intervention but rather from too little, and that pushing investment 5 managers away from engaging would be a step backwards 6 7 and would exacerbate agency problems and, therefore, harm, rather than benefit, the economy. 8

9 To conclude, the rise in investor engagement is a positive development that contributes to a 10 reduction in agency problems and, therefore, 11 contributes to economic performance. The incentives 12 of investment managers make them insufficiently active 13 14 and excessively deferential to corporate managers. And the measures that common ownership alarmists 15 advocate would be counterproductive in all of these 16 17 respects. Thank you, very much.

MR. ROCK: Thank you. Thank you Scott. We're now going to turn to a discussion among the panelists, but, please, if you have questions, please fill out one of the question cards that will then be brought up to pose to the panelists.

Also, especially for those who are watching online or will watch online, the FTC welcomes written submissions on these issues and finds them very

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helpful in terms of filling out their understanding of
 what's going on in the corporate governance universe,
 so please send in written submissions as well.

4 I want to drill down on this notion of Engagement has -- there are at least 5 engagement. three different types of engagement that are 6 7 interestingly different. One is the engagement over high-profile contests. So Trian runs a contest to 8 elect Nelson Peltz to the board of Procter & Gamble. 9 These are high-stakes contests with real potential 10 effect on firm value. There may be 10 to 20 of those 11 a year, and that's one sort of engagement. 12

We know that to a large degree in those sorts of engagements, BlackRock, Vanguard, and State Street, the big three, often collectively, though they don't act together, collectively hold the decisive votes. And we'll often hear from folks who are contemplating bringing proxy contests that you need to win two of the three in order to prevail.

There's a second sort of engagement, which I think of as market-wide governance issues, things like is it appropriate to have annual voting on directors, or is a staggered board okay. Is it okay to have a poison pill or not? Should there be majority voting? That's a different sort of engagement; it's

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a different set of issues. And the third sort of --1 but it's market-wide. The third sort of engagement is 2 on firm-specific performance, firm-specific pay. 3 And 4 that's yet a different sort of engagement, and I think it's useful to think about these three categories of 5 engagement differently and address them separately. 6 7 What I'd like to now is turn to -- first to Barbara and then to Holly and Heather to take us inside the 8 9 room, if you will, right?

When we're talking about engagement, what 10 are we talking about? How many meetings a year does 11 BlackRock have with portfolio companies? They own 12 everything, and there are a lot of companies out 13 there, both here and abroad. How often, how often can 14 BlackRock meet with individual companies? Once a 15 year? Once every three years? Once every five years? 16 17 How does that differ with respect to high-profile contests, like Procter & Gamble's proxy contest, 18 19 versus the ordinary, day-to-day kind of engagement?

And, finally, what are the topics of these different forms of engagement? How much -- Holly pointed out the directors having instructions about what they can talk about and what they can't talk about and encouraging directors to reach out to the shareholders before meetings so that there's an

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1 agreed-upon set of issues.

So if you can take us into that world. 2 MS. NOVICK: Okay, so, first, let me make 3 4 very clear, BlackRock does not collude with any other firms on our voting on any topics. 5 That's a very important thing because the idea that there are a big 6 7 three and they all vote as one is a misnomer. When you look at the data, in fact, our voting is quite 8 different from each other, and there is no concept of 9 aggregation because we don't compare notes beforehand. 10 Okay, so now, I want to share some both 11 numbers and some anecdotes I think will help in 12 explaining Ed's question. The first thing is we think 13 14 about engaging with companies on a few key areas. One is we vote at lots of shareholder meetings. 15 I'll give you some numbers on that. And sometimes we need to 16 17 clarify something that's in the disclosure's simple

18 questions.

19 Second is there might be an event at the 20 company. I don't want to pick on Trian, but since you 21 brought them up, maybe they're doing something or some 22 other activist is doing something, and we want to 23 engage with all of the parties so that we can hear 24 everybody's story and understand how we want to vote 25 in the best interest of our clients as shareholders.

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Another area is what I'll call thematic 1 So what would be examples this year? 2 qovernance. We announce our engagement priorities. In fact, we're 3 4 quite transparent. We put them on the web. We talk about them in Larry's letter. We do lots of things to 5 make sure people know what issues are we concerned 6 7 about. One of the issues we identified was board composition and diversity. 8

9 And I'm happy to say, when you look back at the end of the proxy season this year, there was a 10 noticeable increase of women on boards. It actually 11 moved two percentage points in the last year. Now, 12 for the women in the room, hurrah, right? 13 I mean, we've been talking about this forever, but you barely 14 see the needle move year after year after year. 15

Now, the more we focus on it, the more we talk about it, we find boards do say let me think about that, let me really rethink how I'm approaching the next search.

20 Other more industry-specific topics. Things 21 like opioids. So there's a whole chain of what goes 22 on from manufacturing to distribution. We want to 23 understand how companies in that business are managing 24 their risks, are enforcing current laws, and are 25 making sure that we are protecting the value of the

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companies, again, that we engage in on behalf of our
 clients.

How often do we meet with individual companies? It very much depends on are there any of those issues on the table. We also meet with companies when they request a meeting. And, generally, we encourage that off-season, so not during the proxy season, but just to get to know management better, to get to understand the company better.

I mentioned in my prepared remarks, it's 10 never about product pricing. It's about the board. 11 It's about governance. It's about risk management. 12 13 It's about much higher level things. In the 2018 14 proxy season, to put some numbers on it, we had 2,049 company engagements. We voted in 17,151 meetings. 15 We voted on 158,942 proposals, and that included voting 16 17 in 89 countries.

18 Now, where would I get stats from that?
19 Once a year --

20 MR. ROCK: How big is your engagement group? 21 MS. NOVICK: We have 40 people. Once a 22 year, we publish an annual report where we detail what 23 were engagement priorities and topics, give examples 24 of engagements that actually occurred, talk about the 25 voting statistics and things like this, how much do we

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1 vote. That's the engagement part.

In the U.S. alone, there were 3,904 meetings with 31,265 proposals. So you kind of get a sense of the magnitude. Are we going to have the resources to do some deep dive and try and manage a company? No, and it's not legal, as you've heard from the other panelists.

So let me just refer back to some of what 8 9 Rob Jackson said -- Commissioner Jackson -- and other people about disclosure. If you read the editorial, 10 the op-ed that was submitted by Jack Bogle, both of 11 them have a commonality. They go through and they 12 talk about the different potential remedies, and they 13 14 actually reject all of them except disclosure. Why? Because disclosure, sunshine, it's a good thing; it is 15 self-correcting. 16

17 We already do all of this. We publish the engagement priorities, we publish the voting 18 19 guidelines, we publish the actual voting, we put out quarterly reports by region, we put out an annual 20 report that is global. We are incredibly transparent, 21 and, frankly, we encourage a raising of the bar 22 industry-wide to have similar transparency from all 23 24 managers.

25

MR. ROCK: Holly, take us into the

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1 boardroom.

MS. GREGORY: Yes, indeed. Look, I think 2 there are all kinds of different situations that give 3 4 rise to engagement, but engagement often, at least in large S&P 500 companies, has started to follow sort of 5 a pattern throughout the year. Immediately after the 6 7 annual meeting, the company, the board, the company 8 management, are trying to understand how shareholders 9 voted.

And there will be, in the fall usually, some 10 outreach to large institutional investors. Some of 11 it's through surveys -- written surveys -- to get to a 12 bigger group of shareholders, but also through 13 meetings to find out what's on their minds, what was 14 on their minds when they voted, what drove some of the 15 votes, if there were any problematic votes, and, also, 16 17 what do they think the big issues are going to be in the proxy season going forward, just to start to get a 18 19 temperature so that helps the board sort of get ahead of the game if there are kinds of corporate governance 20 issues that they think they should be looking at. 21

I want to -- and then as you get into proxy season, it changes. It depends on the kinds of shareholder proposals you're getting, the kinds of pressure for engagement that may be coming from

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investors, but really it's important to understand 1 that engagement happens in really two directions. 2 And often we're counseling boards and management members 3 4 to be in listening mode when they meet with their investors, to really use it as an opportunity to hear 5 what's on their minds. And in other situations, the 6 7 company has a viewpoint that they want to help get across and emphasize. 8

9 I do think a real positive development in engagement efforts generally is that it's becoming 10 far more common for an independent director to 11 Investors often ask for an independent 12 participate. director to participate, and because they want to 13 14 get that sense of how engaged is the board, how knowledgeable is the board around some of the kinds of 15 issues that are on their mind. 16

17 There are a couple things that including that independent director do. Certainly, it helps in 18 19 that discussion with the shareholder to let them know how engaged the board is. But it really adds a level 20 of rigor into the company's preparation for those 21 discussions, including rigor around the kinds of legal 22 issues, what will be the topics discussed, and the 23 24 level of preparation.

And I also think --

25

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1 MR. ROCK: Can I follow up on that just for 2 a second?

MS. GREGORY: Sure.
 MR. ROCK: In preparing directors and
 managers for those meetings, does the issue of talking
 about future pricing strategy come up?

MS. GREGORY: We have a standard memo that we provide to teams that are going to go into engagement that talks about antitrust concerns, absolutely. So it's definitely there in the kind of counsel, the legal counsel at least in my experience are giving, and that's based on what I do.

Having an independent director, though, in 13 14 addition to enhancing the rigor and being a real way for the shareholder to get a sense of how involved the 15 board is, it also means that the board now has a real 16 17 window into the engagement, and so it adds a level of scrutiny that I think is also very helpful. Boards 18 19 are very interested in those engagement efforts, and when a comp committee chair or a lead director, chair 20 of a non-gov committee, chair of an audit committee, 21 goes in to an engagement meeting, the expectation is 22 that they're going to report out on that discussion to 23 24 the board.

25

MR. ROCK: And, Heather, when you're meeting

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with issuers, with companies about various shareholder
 proposals that the AFL-CIO is presenting, tell us
 about -- tell us about those meetings.

4 MS. CORZO: So as you suggested, typically when we're having meetings with issuers, they come 5 about because we filed a shareholder proposal at the 6 7 company and they're reaching out to us then to have a conversation about it. And, you know, the nature of 8 the conversation depends on, on what the issue is. 9 We would -- I can't say never. We would never talk about 10 product pricing, but typically, the topic of the 11 conversation is within the scope of the shareholder 12 proposal that we have submitted that's limited as a 13 14 result of the SEC regulations that limit the subject matter of the proposals we're permitted to submit. 15

Now, the conversation that happens depends 16 17 on where the company stands with regard to the proposal. So sometimes the company will come to us 18 19 and say, you know, you raised this issue with us about our political spending disclosure, and it was 20 something that we hadn't really thought that much 21 about until you filed the proposal, and thank you for 22 doing that. We're going to do X, Y, and Z in response 23 24 to the proposal. If we do this, will you withdraw the 25 proposal, and we'll negotiate. And oftentimes we end

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1 up withdrawing the proposal in response to the 2 interaction.

You know, sometimes the company will come to 3 4 us and say we think you got it wrong, we think your analysis is incorrect. You know, the justification 5 for this proposal is not based on, is based on an 6 7 understanding that differs from our understanding. And, so, then we have a conversation again confined to 8 the bounds of the subject matter that we raised with 9 the company through the shareholder proposal process. 10

And then, of course, sometimes we don't have 11 a conversation with the company and we receive no 12 action letter from the SEC, and then there's a very 13 time-consuming process that involves our on-staff 14 attorneys, you know, responding to the submission the 15 company has filed with the Securities and Exchange 16 17 Commission asking for permission to exclude our It could be on any number of grounds, and 18 proposal. 19 we go back and forth and ultimately get a determination from the Securities and Exchange 20 Commission as to whether they're granting the 21 company's no-action request and then know whether our 22 proposal will go to a vote at the annual meeting. 23

24 We have an open-door policy, so we've had a 25 number of meetings similar to what Holly suggested

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that are not -- you know, inside the shareholder 1 proposal schedule. And we have conversations, but, 2 again, it's very clear when we're engaging with these 3 4 companies we have a handful of proposals that we file each year. It's broadly recognized what the subjects 5 are that we're going to be discussing, the issues that 6 7 we care about, and we stick to the boundaries of those 8 topics.

9 MS. BENNINGTON: Do you mind if I just jump 10 in her for a sec?

11

MR. ROCK: Please.

12 MS. BENNINGTON: So when I was preparing for this panel today, I thought a lot about what is it 13 that these interactions can be and sort of from the 14 top level like Barbara mentioned, board composition, 15 issues of engagement that Heather was talking about. 16 17 And I looked and looked, and I found the most detailed type of engagement questions I could possibly find. 18 19 And, actually, I will read those to you.

I've never seen anything this detailed, so
I'm going to read it to you as far detailed as I think
it goes. And this is from SASB, which is the
Sustainability Accounting Standards Board. And what
SASB does is they divide into 79 sectors, so very
specific into sectors. And what they do is they

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provide a set of guidelines for owners if they want to think about risk management and consider questions to potentially ask managers -- corporate managers -- in connection. And, so I'm going to read this to you because I think it maybe provides kind of the -- I don't know if it's the ceiling or the floor. It's one or the other.

8 Okay, so for the wireless telecommunications 9 industry, which I've tried to find the most 10 concentrated industry I could find, which is my 11 understanding is the top four are 93 percent of the 12 market. Okay, so I'm going to read you a couple of 13 the things SASB says, maybe things that owners want to 14 engage with managers to understand corporate risk.

Okay. What internal processes does the 15 company employ to protect and defend against cyber 16 17 attacks? How does the company identify and address data security risks across its product lines? 18 What is 19 the level of capital investment the company has made into improving the reliability and quality of the 20 service network? How does the company manage 21 leveraging customer personal data for revenue 22 opportunities with maintaining customer privacy? 23 24 So those are some of the most detailed 25 business-orientated sort of questions or potential

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engagement I've seen. And I just point out that what are those topics and what are they not? So that's just a little bit of food for thought, and people might want to take a look at the SASB guides.

MR. ROCK: So let me follow up on that with 5 a question from the audience, which I'll interpret 6 7 slightly to bring within this. So, Barbara, you were very proud of the effect that your initiatives on 8 9 gender diversity on the board had. And Larry Fink has talked in his letter about ESG initiatives. You've 10 talked about guns, policies and so forth, where you've 11 12 brought about real change in companies.

The question is how is it possible to 13 promote those goals but not also -- and here, I'm 14 15 interpreting, but now it also has the power to promote anticompetitive goals. So is the reason that you 16 17 think BlackRock doesn't promote anticompetitive goals is you don't have the power, maybe because to do so 18 19 you would have to drill down much more specifically than the kind of level of questions that Allison was 20 pointing out? Is it because you don't view it in your 21 interest? Where does the -- the question is being 22 asked is if you can succeed in bringing about change 23 24 in gender diversity, then why can't you succeed in 25 forcing companies to adopt a soft competition

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1 approach.

MS. NOVICK: So the first thing is keep in 2 mind we have -- let's call it 5 percent ownership. So 3 4 even on gender diversity, if we were the only voice out there saying that we thought diversity of thought, 5 diversity on various dimensions was important, it 6 7 would fall on deaf ears. No one would care. But when there is a chorus of voices across the spectrum of 8 different asset owners, it then resonates with a 9 company, gee, this is something important I should be 10 thinking about. 11

If you look over the long term, the ideas of 12 overboarding, the ideas of active CEOs sitting on 13 multiple outside boards, all of these governance 14 issues have shifted over very long periods of time 15 because more owners have spoken up. We heard about 16 17 the PRI today, we heard about the SASB. You know, there are many different groups that are weighing in 18 19 on corporate governance issues. None of them are weighing in on competition issues. I mean, it's as 20 simple as that. 21

If we somehow in some weird scenario decided to ignore all antitrust and competition law, which we're not going to do, we would be the only one because everybody is subject to certain rules. So the

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idea that any one actor can have that influence, if 1 anything, and I think we've heard this today, the sole 2 actor that has the most influence is the proxy 3 4 advisory firms, right? Fifteen to 25 percent, on say on pay. So if you're a public company and you're 5 concerned about a vote coming, the first place you 6 7 look is those firms because they influence such a high percentage of the voting individually. And that's the 8 9 part that's completely missing from any of the common ownership analytics they just completely ignored. 10

MR. ROCK: Holly, I want to turn a question 11 Let's take this scenario in which -- the so-12 to you. called conflictual scenario that was mentioned this 13 14 morning. That is to say a proposal that one firm in the oligopoly should take a hit because it's better 15 that it loses sales because it benefits this purported 16 17 common owners' portfolio-wide interest.

And I'm now thinking, in the boardroom, the 18 19 question -- one of the questions from the audience was do interventions by activist investors -- Carl Icahn, 20 et cetera -- impose sufficient market discipline where 21 management is lagging to prevent anticompetitive 22 behavior. Tell us a little bit about what I now hear 23 24 from lots of people, which is this notion of thinking like an activist before the activist shows up and how 25

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1 that is shaping boardroom discussion.

Well, look, there is clearly 2 MS. GREGORY: great interest in boardrooms across America in how 3 4 activist investors think for a couple of purposes. One, to think about how to be prepared to defend 5 against an activist incursion, but also because 6 7 there's a sense of it's a way to challenge the management team to really think about opportunities 8 9 that they might otherwise miss. So it provides a -- I could argue a healthy disciplining to know that that 10 group is out there. 11

I think when boards are thinking about those activists, they're trying to think about what -- what their weaknesses are from a corporate governance perspective that could be attacked. What kinds of strategies an activist might come forward to and recommend, and are those legitimate strategies and things that should be undertaken.

But I don't think that their strategies, again around the anticompetitive kinds of issues that the common ownership debate is concerned with -- they tend to be kind of bigger picture. Sometimes they're structural. I don't know if I'm getting to your question, but that's my experience with how boards really look at those issues and the kind of influence

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that activists have when they're not yet at the gates.

2 MR. ROCK: Barbara. MS. NOVICK: So I wanted to just add one 3 4 little thing here. We heard earlier that, you know, somehow activists are cultivating the index voter's 5 vote. So, again, stats are helpful. In 2017-18, the 6 7 proxy year in the U.S., there were 19 contests that had dissident nominees to the board. 8 To put in perspective, we voted in favor about 20 percent, and 9 we voted against 80 percent. 10

Now, if you look again at the other firms --11 I don't have the data here -- but I think what you'll 12 find is they voted differently, contest by contest, 13 14 because stewardship and engagement is about hearing the perspectives of all the people who are putting up 15 a slate and making a decision in your best judgment as 16 17 a fiduciary what do you think is in the best long-term interest of these shareholders. So it's not voting 18 19 all one way or all another way or voting collectively. It just doesn't exist. 20

21 MR. ROCK: Let me move on to another topic, 22 which is there are different ways in which investors 23 communicate with firms. We've been talking about 24 these engagement meetings, but another way in which 25 investors and others communicate with firms is

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earnings calls. And often quarterly managers -typically the CEO, CFO, occasionally a director -will get on a conference call with whoever wants to be on it. And it will typically be shareholders and others who follow the company.

That would be another potential channel by 6 7 which -- it's a potential channel by which shareholders can influence company strategy. 8 Is it 9 the same people who are on these calls as are doing the stewardship? Are they different people? 10 Are these different kinds of relationships? Let's talk 11 now a bit about the earnings call. 12

Holly, you deal with folks who are having to go on these earnings calls, and then I'll turn to others on the panel who want to jump in.

MS. GREGORY: The same kind of preparation 16 17 goes into earnings calls. Directors tend to be a little less engaged in that, but there's a lot of 18 19 preparation and there's a clear understanding around the team of the rules of the game. But the thing 20 about earning calls that's so interesting to me is 21 they're public. So if something happens on an earning 22 call, the regulators have every ability in the world 23 24 to be scrutinizing that and taking action.

25

So I don't see earning calls as the issue,

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if you will. Now, I can't promise that analysts don't ever say things that are probably not appropriate topics for earnings calls, but I don't know that that's actionable either. I think it would be interesting to know what kind of guidance analysts get when they go on earning calls, and that would be interesting to hear from the investor perspective.

8 MR. ROCK: Barbara, who from BlackRock is on 9 the earnings calls?

So you have to look at our 10 MS. NOVICK: business, and every asset manager's going to have a 11 different mix. In our business, our equities are 90 12 percent index and 10 percent active. So in the index, 13 14 it would be probably no one's on the earnings call, or if they are, they're in listen-only mode because 15 they're curious to learn more about the company, and 16 17 that would be the stewardship team, and that's where I'm involved. 18

On the 10 percent that is active, it would be a portfolio manager or an equity research person who has a much stronger interest in that company. But as you heard, those calls are public. I think people have a pretty good idea what the rules of the road are and would not stray into that territory.

25 MR. ROCK: And when they're --

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MR. BERTSCH: Ed, can I just add? 1 I've been 2 in a lot of not public/private conversations with portfolio managers and analysts, with management and 3 4 sometimes directors. And in all the conversations that I've had, I can think of only two where there 5 were inappropriate comments from a regulatory 6 7 standpoint, both really FD. One actually involved antitrust, but it was antitrust strategy, and one of 8 9 our analysts trying to push the company to disclose privately what wasn't private. And in that case, the 10 company said we can't talk about that. 11

12 In the other case, a director started to 13 talk about the next quarter and what he expected for 14 the earnings. Totally inappropriate. We stopped that 15 conversation because we were going to have to have a 16 trading freeze.

17 So you've got two parties, and they're both 18 sort of steeped in the rules, and there are slips 19 occasionally, but I think in my experience one or the 20 other will stop that conversation.

21 MR. ROCK: And in terms of -- so you have 22 analysts -- you have portfolio managers who know a lot 23 about the company because they -- they're picking and 24 choosing stocks. They have to decide whether to sell, 25 to hold, to buy more. You've got proxy stewardship

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1 groups that have this broad -- this broad 2 responsibility to make sure that you vote on all the 3 things you have to vote on. Tell us a little bit 4 about the intersection and the interaction between 5 those two groups and how that informs the work that 6 the proxy voting group does.

MS. NOVICK: So in many cases, we have holdings that are only in an index portfolio and figure we manage against so many different industries, we have sort of every company in some way in an index portfolio. And the percentage is based on which indices do clients choose to put their money in.

Where there is a overlap with an active 13 14 holding, we encourage the stewardship analyst and the active equity analyst to have a conversation to 15 compare notes. We actually allow, at BlackRock, that 16 17 there can be a split vote. So when you look at our actual voting, you will find cases where we did not 18 19 vote a hundred percent of the shares the same way. And that's a conscious decision we've made that an 20 active portfolio may have a different perspective, and 21 while they compared notes beforehand, they may have 22 23 different reasons.

I'll give one easy example. Let's say anactive portfolio manager just established a position

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at a company. It would seem that they're confident, they're coming in at a good price, they're confident in that management going forward. But let's say the stewardship team has engaged over time and feels that some things haven't been done that they want to see done.

7 So the stewardship team may say, you know, it's time. You know, we have patience, but patience 8 9 is up, it's time for us to vote against some specific director, call it the audit committee, the 10 compensation -- whatever. Whereas the active manager 11 who just bought that company, just entered, might say, 12 13 well, I entered on the premise that I understand 14 what's going on and I think there's going to be change over time, and I'm okay being patient now. So you see 15 those kinds of splits, and there can be splits on 16 17 other things.

But it is an open dialogue internally and then an independent decision for the vote itself.

20 MR. ROCK: Do others on the panel want to 21 jump in on this before I move on to a related topic? 22 Go ahead, David.

23 MR. HIRSCHMANN: I think -- two points 24 quickly. One is from our experience asset managers 25 and investors take their fiduciary responsibility to

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represent the underlying interests they represent pretty seriously, and I think you heard that today from Barbara. And management takes its fiduciary responsibility to shareholders pretty seriously.

5 We can't lose sight of the fact, though, 6 that the way to influence corporate behavior goes well 7 beyond that relationship to the court of public 8 opinion in a way that consumers are increasingly 9 participating in, employees, investors, right, and 10 it's that -- we have to be careful not to confuse both 11 of those.

Now, companies respond to both. They care a
lot about their reputation, but that doesn't mean
every debate belongs on the proxy.

MR. BERTSCH: One other miss here, thinking of Barbara's comments on split votes and so on, many of our members retain vote authority, so BlackRock may be managing their money, but BlackRock's not voting their shares, and I don't think that's reflected in some of the literature.

21 MS. NOVICK: We estimate 25 percent of our 22 equity separate accounts clients retain the votes, so 23 large public plans who have their own stewardship 24 teams. And, so, whereas we have to report the voting 25 under the various forms -- 13(f) is the one that's

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1 applicable to these studies.

2 MR. ROCK: Because you have investment 3 authority.

4 MS. NOVICK: Because we have investment 5 authority, we're required to report these as, you know, shares that we have investment authority over, 6 7 but a huge percentage of them we actually don't vote. There's a slug that is voted by the clients 8 9 themselves. There's another whole slug that we have to outsource for regulatory reasons or conflict 10 11 reasons.

12 And, so, you've got a data set on what 13 theoretically is voting data that doesn't actually 14 reflect the manager's voting authority.

MR. ROCK: If you look at the antitrust 15 enforcer's approach historically to both common 16 17 ownership and cross ownership, the threshold is much higher than we're talking about here. This is much 18 19 lower level. But in addition, one of the factors that the antitrust enforcers look at is whether you --20 whether the investor has or the cross owner or common 21 owner has board representation. 22

And this brings me to one of the questions from the audience. Section 8 of the Clayton Act bars interlocking directorates. Does the panel accept the

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antitrust concerns underlying this law? If not, why? 1 If yes, would these concerns extend beyond -- as the 2 question puts it -- formal board membership? But what 3 4 I would -- I interpret that as saying to the extent that there are large shareholders who have influence, 5 should the same antitrust -- and I think this is a 6 fair interpretation of the question, should the same 7 antitrust concerns that motivate Section 8 of the 8 9 Clayton Act and the bar on interlocking directorates 10 also bar common ownership.

MS. GREGORY: So my answer is no. I didn't give the lawyerly "it depends." It's a different nature of control and influence. A board has control. A board has fiduciary obligations. And, so, you want to make sure that the boards of competitors are indeed separate groups of people for the most part.

17 The influence that we're talking about investors is -- it's an important influence. 18 I think 19 it's brought great benefits, but it's not the same. It's not control. Even when it's strong influence, 20 there are all of the -- there are other investors who 21 have -- who are trying to exert influence in great --22 in different ways. The amount of ownership by any 23 24 individual investor in a company is still not nearly at the levels that we consider to be problematic. 25 So

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I just think -- I think it's apples and oranges.

2 MR. ROCK: Heather, does the AFL-CIO 3 nominate directors?

1

22

4 MS. CORZO: No. You know, there have been a couple of times I can think of -- I've been with the 5 AFL-CIO for almost 12 years. There have been a couple 6 7 of times where we have supported "vote no" campaigns, but I can't think of any examples where we've actually 8 9 nominated. It's a very onerous and expensive process. And, so, I don't think even the threat of that or the 10 ability to do that would create the implication of 11 some sort of control, you know, or influence over the 12 firm. 13

And, you know, I agree with Holly. Investors -- we talk about ourselves as owners of a firm, but I think that really does overstate the level of control we have over the operations. A director is extremely different in the terms of the ability to influence decision-making within a company.

20 MS. GREGORY: Can I say something along 21 those lines?

MR. ROCK: Sure.

23 MS. GREGORY: So I know in the economic 24 literature and also in the legal literature there's a 25 lot of discussion about principals and agents and

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about the shareholders being the principal and the 1 directors being an agent. It's an interesting 2 construct, but from a legal perspective, it's not a 3 4 true construct. So a principal can direct the activities of its agent. Shareholders cannot direct 5 the activities of the board because the board is 6 7 charged with managing and directing the affairs of the corporation under state law, and that's a power of the 8 9 board that doesn't belong to the shareholders, even if all the shareholders come together as one. 10 They can vote out the board, but the board is a separate entity 11 and has that obligation. 12

MS. NOVICK: So if I could also jump in. 13 So 14 this idea of nominating directors, I'll go even further then that. The traditional asset managers, so 15 I'm talking long only, whether it's active or it's 16 17 indexed, and there could be some exceptions, but the traditional asset manager does not nominate directors 18 19 and does not put shareholder proposals even on a ballot. 20

21 So the AFL-CIO is taking a very active 22 decision to be active in shareholder proposals, but 23 most of the managers don't even put a proposal on, 24 never mind, you know, get into a proxy fight on 25 directors. We've never done either of those.

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Ken? Your members, do you sense 1 MR. ROCK: from your members any desire to nominate candidates? 2 Well, so members have won the MR. BERTSCH: 3 4 proxy access tool and I expect it will be used sometime in the next few years. It's a very difficult 5 And it's -- you know, I think realistically tool. 6 7 it's the hedge fund activist or the activist holders who are running real contests that are holding 8 9 management accountable and hopefully getting noticed by other boards who want to be competitive and stay on 10 the top of their game so that they're not targeted by 11 those activists. 12

13 So, yes, there is some interest, but it's 14 really for the extraordinary situation. It will be used in some situation where a company has extended 15 poor performance, where it has ignored its 16 17 shareholders repeatedly. And Holly is right, the board manages the company, but a poorly performing 18 19 company that doesn't listen ever to shareholders, I mean, that's kind of a tenuous position. And it's 20 probably going to be a company that actually an 21 activist -- a hedge fund activist is going to have 22 some questions whether they can make money in the 23 24 company or not, but the pension funds have run out of patience, and -- but it's going to take a lot of work. 25

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MS. BENNINGTON: I'd just jump in there for one second. I talk about accountability, and just to be really clear what that is, really what it means is you can fire the board by not voting for them, but that's really it. I mean, that is the ultimate tool you have as a shareholder is you fire the board.

7 MR. BERTSCH: And it's not easy to do that. MS. BENNINGTON: And it's really, really 8 9 hard. Something that I have seen, though, in the corporate governance work that I do is the desire for 10 -- particularly on issues around policy issues and 11 diversity on the board, different thinking, 12 shareholders having the desire to potentially offer up 13 14 some ideas to the nominating governance committee on people who might be good, but these are not proxy 15 fights. These are well-intentioned shareholders who 16 17 think that they may know somebody who might be somebody that the company might want to consider. 18 But 19 that's about as far as I've ever seen it go for asset owners and asset managers that are not literally 20 activist investors who do run proxy fights. 21

22 MR. BERTSCH: Yeah, and I think most of them 23 actually don't even want to suggest names.

24MS. BENNINGTON: Yeah, a lot of them don't.25MR. ROCK: Much less put one of their

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1 employees on board.

2 Scott, a question from the audience. Scott 3 says that the common ownership debate itself may have 4 a chilling effect on engagement and increase deference 5 to managers. Does he or others on the panel have 6 thoughts on the remedies proposed by the common 7 ownership proponents?

8 MR. HIRST: I mean, I think that point is 9 that the fear of these remedies and the fear of 10 increasing regulation of the clients being proposed is 11 going to limit the extent to which managers -- sorry, 12 investment managers might engage.

You know, what kind of remedies do we think 13 would be appropriate? We think that the remedies that 14 are being put forward to -- that would have the effect 15 of limiting engagement are misguided and that none of 16 17 those are appropriate because the problem doesn't exist because of the incentives of the investment 18 19 managers don't lead them to take this anticompetitive So I don't -- we don't believe that there's behavior. 20 a need for a remedy because the incentives of the 21 investment managers aren't such that created this 22 23 problem.

24 MR. BERTSCH: Yeah, so we -- our members 25 don't want to take away the proxy vote from the large

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index investors. We believe it's -- that's the 1 opposite of the direction that we've tried to push in 2 for the last 30-plus years. So that's not -- in our 3 4 mind would be a very damaging solution. The idea of essentially banning the largest indexes from doing 5 index investing, which is what -- when you're saying 6 7 invest in one company per industry, that is not That is some kind of active strategy, and I 8 indexing. don't even understand how it would work. 9

With the government assigning who can be in 10 which company and even defining the industries is 11 actually a huge problem anyway. I think that what 12 that means is breaking up BlackRock, State Street, and 13 14 Vanguard. And I think it's going to lead to chaos, more costs. You know, there may be legitimate 15 antitrust concerns at some point, but the case really 16 17 has to be made that it's worth the cost and It would be expensive for our members. 18 disruption.

MS. CORZO: I just want to weigh in to associate myself with the issues that Scott and Ken have raised about concerns with the policy proposals that are put forward and, in fact, say -- repeat what I said earlier, that I think it's extremely important, in fact, that large institutional investors get more engaged on ESG issues as opposed to less.

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And to the extent we're looking for positive ways, I think the best way to do that is to make it easier for analysts to access more information about environmental, social, and governance issues of the companies that we're investing in by improving those disclosures.

7 MR. ROCK: Did you want to jump in on that? 8 MS. NOVICK: So I would say to date this has 9 not chilled our enthusiasm for engagement or voting. 10 There are laws on the books that -- again, not just 11 encourage us but actually require us to vote, and we 12 think informed voting, which requires engagement, is a 13 sensible way to do it.

14 Now, that said, if the laws change, the SEC or the FTC changes the law, we'll reevaluate and 15 follow the new laws. I will say that while a lot of 16 17 time is spent on the remedies, we have some fundamental questions about the underlying models and 18 19 econometrics. I think as people get a chance to test these models -- they've only been made publicly 20 available quite recently -- I think they will see that 21 this is much ado about nothing and, in fact, we don't 22 need these remedies because there isn't a problem. 23

24 MR. BERTSCH: Can I just add, so BlackRock 25 is very active and it has really taken a leadership

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There are pretty large folks who are on the 1 position. fence and are not out there as much as some of our 2 members would like them to be. And I would point in 3 4 particular to some larger quant firms that are inhibited by both the SEC and FTC regulation. 5 And it just is too much hassle, just -- so let's just back 6 7 off.

8 MR. ROCK: On the fence about what, about 9 getting involved --

10 MR. BERTSCH: About engaging.

11 MR. ROCK: In engaging.

MR. BERTSCH: I mean, everybody votes. Everybody votes, you have to vote, but some people vote down the line with ISS, which David doesn't like. You know, some people are just checking the box and not doing the job.

MR. ROCK: Let me follow up on that because the universe of asset managers is heterogeneous. And for -- let's take, just as an example, a highfrequency trading house that has a huge position for maybe a minute or so, and it happens that one of those minutes falls on the record date, so they have to vote.

24MR. BERTSCH: Yeah, I wouldn't expect --25MR. ROCK: What sort of engagement, if any,

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1 do you want from that shareholder?

2 MR. BERTSCH: Yeah, I don't want engagement 3 from frequently traded, and they don't want to do it, 4 so that's fine. I'm really talking about other kinds 5 of firms that are not high-frequency traders that --6 particularly that use quant models and so they don't 7 have the analysts to really understand.

8 MR. ROCK: What kind of engagement do you 9 want from them?

MR. BERTSCH: So, actually, ideally, some thoughtful proxy voting, that they actually do the job. And I recognize there's a scale problem here, but many of them are quite large and I think could do a more careful job around that and occasionally communicate with companies where they see something that they're concerned about.

17

MR. ROCK: Holly?

So it's an interesting theory 18 MS. GREGORY: 19 of how the world should work, but every investor, as you note, they're not monolithic, and they have their 20 own strategies on how to best extract value and where 21 to spend their resources. I'm concerned that too much 22 pressure on investors to thoughtfully vote leads them 23 24 to higher proxy advisers and vote as proxy advisers tell them to and say that that's our thoughtful 25

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1 voting.

So I just think it's a little bit misguided 2 to sort of insist that everybody engage because 3 4 engagement is expensive. Companies are struggling to find the time for engagement. They can't engage with 5 every shareholder. Shareholders -- the large 6 7 institutional investors are also finding it difficult to accommodate corporate requests to engage. 8 Ιf you're in the Russell 3000 and not the S&P 500, it is 9 damn hard to get a meeting with an institutional 10 investor. It's hard to get a phone call. 11 12 MR. BERTSCH: Yeah, I quess I'd just say I

12 MR. BERISCH: Yeah, I guess I'd just say I 13 think there are some that should be engaging that are 14 not. Clearly, you have a whole range of styles. I do 15 know that the legal departments at asset management 16 firms are very cautious, having dealt with them at two 17 different large asset managers.

MR. ROCK: So we have a bit more than ten minutes to go, so I want to give each of you a chance to make a final -- make final comments, and I'll do it in reverse order that we went, and so I'll start with Scott.

23 MR. HIRST: Thank you, Ed. I think now my 24 point is that it's imperative that the debate take 25 into account the incentives of the investment

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managers. And doing that makes it clear that 1 incentive managers, investment managers have 2 incentives to engage not too much but too little, and 3 4 so the remedies should not be focused on the possibility of them overengaging and possibly 5 resulting in anticompetitive conduct, that we should 6 7 be thinking about the problem as how do we have these investment managers that control large parts of public 8 9 companies engaging with them in thoughtful ways and not being constrained from doing so. 10

MR. HIRSCHMANN: I was thinking here, maybe 11 I've changed my mind. Maybe if I was king for a day, 12 I'd decide which investors to give more power and 13 14 which investors to take less power, but in a moment of calm reasoning, I think I'd have to be humble enough 15 that I probably couldn't pick the right ones and that 16 17 whatever scheme I came up with probably would backfire over time. 18

And I think that's the point here. We need to follow the physician's oath and first do no harm. The answer is not to pick winners and losers among investors but really to make sure that the system is allowing everybody to have a seat at the table and to remember that it's not just the way standards are set on corporate governance. It's really also in the

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court of public opinion. And this is a much more
 complicated issue than -- which will merit much more
 conversation, and I'm glad that we're having it today.

4 MS. GREGORY: So the rise of concentrated ownership in the hands of institutional investors has 5 coincided with much more focus by corporate boards on 6 7 issues around governance processes, oversight of strategy and risk, accountability to shareholders, and 8 9 transparency. And I think that there is a causative link there that I would be concerned about interfering 10 with. 11

MS. CORZO: You know, I'm excited to see the Federal Trade Commission getting more active in engaging a lot more on antitrust issues. I've been in Washington a long time and have interacted more with the FTC in the last month than I did in the ten years before that. And from my perspective, that's a good thing.

On this particular topic, I find the analysis a little bit perplexing, and it's hard for me to understand both the mechanism that institutional investors would use to influence corporate boards in an anticompetitive way and also the motivation to do it, and so that's where I would close.

25

MR. BERTSCH: I'll just make one general

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point and one specific point. General point, our 1 members are often called universal owners. 2 So they're owning the whole economy certainly, the whole publicly 3 4 listed company economy and actually for the bigger funds, private companies as well. And their interest 5 is in the vitality of the economy, the prospering of 6 7 the economy broadly, which means that antitrust is actually important. 8

9 So I think it's very good that the FTC is 10 looking at I think a variety of new thoughts about, 11 you know, where there may be problems, and that's all 12 to the good.

That said, in my more narrow -- I'm going to 13 14 go to my more narrow point. I just don't see it in the common ownership. It doesn't seem compelling to 15 And just one thing that Holly said -- mentioned, 16 me. 17 whatever criticism of ISS and Glass Lewis, the proxy advisory services, is they attempt to reflect their 18 19 clients, and they heavily reflect the institutional investor community in the United States. 20

ISS in particular, its number one issue could be pay for performance on an industry-relative basis. That's what they're really pushing. Those are the most salient issues for shareholders and companies. And that seems to me entirely

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contradictory to the notion that there's not only -not a push for market restraint, but actually there's a voice coming -- the voice coming from the institutional investor community, to the extent that it is, is saying you got to do better against your peers.

7 MS. BENNINGTON: Everybody has said great stuff and I agree with it all. That's all I have to 8 9 say. No. I've read most of the papers. I read them, and I obviously have my own experience of being 10 involved one way or another with the capital markets 11 for over 25 years, and I don't see it. I read them, 12 but I don't see what the papers are pointing to with 13 14 the actual results that they're coming out with.

My main concern is that the sorts of 15 tweaks that are being proposed are maybe small for 16 17 antitrust law but they're absolutely enormous -- just enormous -- for the capital markets and for asset 18 19 management. We have the most robust and competitive capital market system for investors in the world here. 20 And I do worry that this sort of a theory, that if 21 these are put in place, they could do tremendous 22 23 damage to that system.

24 MS. NOVICK: So a couple of things I wanted 25 to touch on because you're going to hear about these,

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I'm sure, in presentations this afternoon and I want you to have some perspective. So one of the things that gets said a lot is diversification across industries is enough diversification, why do you need it within the industry? And, so, I'll give you just some examples.

In 2017, J.P. Morgan was up 24 percent;
Wells Fargo was up 10. In the aerospace industry in
2018, Lockheed-Martin was down 10 percent; Boeing was
up 17. I don't think I need to say more on the
importance of idiosyncratic risk within a sector.

12 The second thing you're going to hear is only rich people invest in mutual funds and so it's 13 14 not fair that consumer prices for little guys are benefitting the wealthy. So the actual numbers are 15 the median household income of a mutual fund investor 16 17 is \$100,000. That means that half of the investors earned less than that. So I'm not sure what we want 18 19 to count as wealthy versus not wealthy, but clearly many of them investing in their retirement accounts. 20

21 So I'm going to dub this whole conversation 22 the Goldilocks problem. You heard from Scott, we do 23 too little. You'll hear this afternoon, we do too 24 much. You'll hear from some in the middle that we 25 seem to do just about the right amount. I actually

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believe corporate governance, stewardship is a net positive, being active, being involved in these conversations. I don't think it goes anywhere near the topics that are of concern.

5 And, then, lastly, I did want to thank Ed, 6 as well as Martin and Einer, for bringing together the 7 Chamber, the CII, and AFL-CIO to agree on something 8 even in this very political climate today.

9 MR. ROCK: Thank you, Barbara. John Bogle's 10 opinion piece is a really interesting one because he 11 does raise the prospect of if 50 percent -- if we 12 continue at the current rate, if we continue at the 13 current rate, then in not too many years, 50 percent 14 of all assets will be held by the big three and 15 wouldn't that be a cause for concern.

One thing to think about in that regard and 16 17 very much is I think present in this discussion is that the asset manager world is a very heterogeneous 18 19 world. And there is a natural balance that emerges between actively managed strategies and passively 20 managed strategies. And the more money that goes into 21 the passive strategies, the more profits there are 22 going to be in the active strategies. 23

And, so, the idea that we will get to a point where the big three own 50 percent of all

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equities and 50 percent of all companies is extremely 1 unlikely, and, of course, there's always the 2 possibility of new entrants both into the index, the 3 4 passive strategies as well as into the active strategies. But it is something that, you know, is 5 worth thinking about as we think about the appropriate 6 7 relationship between shareholders and firms. It's not just one kind of shareholder. There are all sorts of 8 shareholders, and they have different relationships 9 with firms. 10 And Delaware law, for what it's worth, 11 doesn't draw any distinctions among the different kind 12 of shareholders. They let shareholders more or less 13 14 do what they want to do. We're going to break for lunch until 1:00. 15 And if you will please join me in thanking our panel. 16 17 (Applause.) (Lunch recess.) 18 19 20 21 22 23 24 REMARKS 25 MR. ADKINSON: Good afternoon. My name is

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Bill Adkinson, and I'm an attorney adviser in the
 Office of Policy Planning at the FTC. Welcome to the
 afternoon portion of our proceedings.

4 Before we begin, I'd like to reiterate the instructions that Scott mentioned this morning. 5 Ι'd like to say that this event is being webcast, 6 7 photographed, and recorded. By participating in this event, you are agreeing that your image and anything 8 9 you say or submit may be posted indefinitely at FTC.gov or one of the Commission's publicly available 10 social media sites. A transcript of today's 11 proceeding will be posted as well. 12

Question cards will be available throughout the day. Please use them to write down questions for panelists. Staff will collect them and pass them to the moderators, who may pose selected questions if time permits. Finally, if you have your mobile phone with you, please silence it.

19 Thank you. It is my pleasure to start this 20 afternoon's proceeding by introducing Commissioner 21 Rohit Chopra, who was sworn in as a Federal Trade 22 Commissioner on May 2nd, 2018. He was previously a 23 Senior Fellow at the Consumer Federation of America, a 24 Visiting Fellow at the Roosevelt Institute, Special 25 Adviser to the Secretary of Education and Assistant

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Director of the Consumer Financial Protection Bureau.
 Commissioner Chopra.

(Applause.)

3

4 COMMISSIONER CHOPRA: Good. It's great to be here, and thank you all for attending the FTC's 5 hearings on consumer protection and competition as we 6 7 assess how the agency can be more effective in tackling today's problems in the economy. 8 Today, 9 large corporations increasingly dominate the economy. In the past 25 years, Fortune 500 corporate revenue 10 has substantially increased their share of GDP, and 11 the Fortune 100 firms have grown even faster. 12

13 These corporations are complex, sprawling, 14 with significant power to exert over the economy and 15 democracy. Compared to main-street businesses, these 16 firms are more integrated with Wall Street and global 17 financial markets, and, in my view, these companies 18 frequently do not make decisions in ways that our 19 economics textbooks predict.

I want to discuss how Wall Street incentives and corporate governance concerns can distort firm behavior. The FTC should not and cannot ignore these incentives, since they may be the root cause of decisions that break the law. Now, originally, corporations were specifically chartered by state

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legislatures to help facilitate capital raising and 1 activities that would benefit the public. 2 Unlike charters in Britain that were bestowed by the Crown, 3 4 states sought to ensure that corporations acted like mini-republics by outlining how elections for 5 directors would take place with the hope that board 6 7 members would balance interests among shareholders, but that original vision has faded. 8

In today's hearing, many of you have been 9 focusing on the implications of a specific market 10 trend, the increasing dominance of passive equity 11 index funds. But there are many other corporate 12 governance trends that we need to be thinking about. 13 I want to briefly discuss two of these: one, the 14 explosion of corporate debt; and, two, the distorted 15 incentives in executive compensation packages. 16

17 First, despite earning record levels of profits, the U.S. corporate sector is deeply in debt. 18 19 From 2007 to 2017, outstanding bonds for nonfinancial corporations in the United States more than doubled 20 from \$2.3 trillion to \$4.8 trillion. 21 Overall, American companies now owe more than \$9 trillion in 22 debt, and the ratio of cash on hand to debt has fallen 23 24 to one of its lowest points ever.

25

A decade ago, the economy unraveled and

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highly leveraged Wall Street banks, and homeowners 1 with toxic mortgages were at the center of the storm. 2 And while debt levels went down for both banks and 3 4 households, debt for nonfinancial corporations has surged. At the time of the crisis, we heard a lot 5 about families who were irresponsible for taking on so 6 7 much debt, but we didn't hear so much about all of the big companies who did and are doing exactly the same 8 9 thing.

Debt can be useful. 10 Don't get me wrong. Debt can help a shop buy inventory or a manufacturer 11 open up a plant to meet demand. This kind of debt 12 makes economic sense because the investment has real-13 world cash flows to service that debt, but sometimes 14 debt is used for other purposes that are disconnected 15 from real investment and competition. Playing tax 16 17 games, buying back stock or snapping up a competitor who might pose a threat are just a few of these 18 19 examples. And that's where enforcers need to be more 20 wary.

But there's other cause for concern with heavy debt loads. When companies borrow too much, they take on more risk. Heavily indebted companies can get desperate and will go to great lengths to keep creditors happy since those lenders control their fate

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when companies are walking on a tightrope. And that's a situation ripe for illegal behavior. A company in dire debt would have more incentive to save money by taking illegal shortcuts or make money by beating out competitors using illegal practices.

One firm that I have closely studied and 6 7 investigated is called ITT Educational Services, a very large, publicly traded, for-profit college chain 8 that is now defunct. The company started off as a 9 small number of trade schools preparing students for 10 jobs in demand. But as it became hungry to attract 11 Wall Street investment, it took on more debt and 12 engaged in riskier practices. 13

To stay afloat, the company believed it had 14 no choice but to aggressively sign up students for 15 tens of thousands of dollars in loans to enroll in 16 17 programs of questionable value. Due to its own financial position, investing the time and money to 18 19 create high-quality programs would have put the company in peril since it didn't have the room to take 20 any short-term losses. 21

Instead, this debt-driven deception has destroyed the lives of so many students and their families who have been crushed by financial ruin. Now, law enforcement eventually took action. The

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Consumer Financial Protection Bureau, the Securities and Exchange Commission and others sued ITT. The Department of Education sanctioned the company for financial mismanagement, but for the students defrauded by the company, it was too late for any legal action or settlement to fix the damage that was done.

In the merger context, heavy debt loads can 8 9 also cause trouble. And as you know, a common way that antitrust enforcers solve the anticompetitive 10 concerns in a deal is to require divestitures. 11 Now, parties will tell a great story about how a 12 divestiture buyer will become a hard-charging player 13 14 that will innovate or push down prices. But when the new competitor is loaded up with debt, it can make it 15 much harder or even impossible to compete. 16

17 In one matter involving discount dollar stores, a private equity group purchased several 18 19 hundred stores that were required to be divested as part of a merger. But instead of proving to be an 20 upstart challenger, the private equity fund that 21 bought those stores ended up selling them to another 22 large industry competitor after telling the FTC it 23 24 could no longer operate as a viable standalone 25 business.

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In these deals, that debt doesn't stick with the private equity buyer. It typically remains a burden on the business until the debt is paid or until the business dissolves, raising even more questions about when competition will be restored.

6 In a recent matter that came before the 7 Commission recently, two massive industrial gas 8 corporations, Praxair and Linde sought to merge to 9 become even bigger, raising a host of anticompetitive 10 concerns. While these may not be household names, 11 industrial gases are the inputs to an extremely wide 12 range of goods produced in our economy.

Due to some nuances with this deal, the FTC 13 14 was in an unusual position to negotiate a remedy or to block the deal outright. To address certain overlaps, 15 the parties sought to divest assets. Now, I expressed 16 17 concerns about the divestiture buyer's debt level and whether this would jeopardize their ability to grow 18 19 and compete vigorously. The whole reason to divest assets is to create a meaningful competitor in a 20 21 market where a merger puts competition in jeopardy, but that hope for competition will not exist for very 22 long or at all if the would-be competitor goes 23 24 bankrupt or runs the divested assets into the ground 25 by selling off their most valuable pieces to service

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1 their debt.

While I hope these concerns do not 2 materialize, the significant chance that they could 3 4 says to me that we need a new approach to evaluating financial condition of divestiture buyers. We could 5 start by taking a page from the business playbook. 6 7 Sophisticated lenders go to great lengths to protect themselves when extending credit. They include 8 9 provisions that require corporate borrowers to keep enough cash on hand; they accelerate repayment when a 10 firm is sanctioned by regulators; they even forbid 11 questionable payouts to investors and management. And 12 when things go wrong, these lenders make sure they get 13 14 paid way before any government fine comes due.

15 If Wall Street creditors can protect 16 themselves from getting burned in these situations, 17 enforcers should consider using similar provisions to 18 protect the public. And if those provisions are 19 impossible, I would argue that we are better off 20 seeking to block a deal than allowing one through that 21 includes divesting to a high-risk buyer.

22 Second, excessive executive compensation is 23 a virus in the economy that is distorting incentives. 24 Consumer protection and competition regulators and 25 enforcers cannot ignore this. CEO pay in particular

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has risen dramatically. Now, many might believe that
CEOs are increasingly more important to corporate
performance than an average worker, but are top
executives in many industries really ten times on an
inflation-adjusted basis more valuable than their
predecessors from a generation ago? Many long-term
shareholders are saying no.

As many of you know in 1993, Congress and 8 9 President Clinton discussed capping the deductibility of executive pay at \$1 million. There was a big 10 exception for performance-based pay. This policy 11 change created momentum for compensating executives 12 with stock options and stock grants. With stock 13 14 options, executives are paid for any gains the company's stock makes over a certain price for a 15 particular period of time. With stock grants, 16 17 executives receive actual shares of the company, but they're often required to hold on to them for a 18 19 certain amount of time.

These compensation vehicles are intended to align the interests of executives with those of longterm shareholders, and sometimes they can. But according to some evidence, these performance-based incentives may actually lead to unnecessary risk taking or even law breaking. Stock options, in

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particular, have no value unless a stock price exceeds
 the price at which the option can be exercised or the
 strike price.

In other words, if there's no stock appreciation before that expiration date, it's worthless. This can lead to executives taking risks by operating on the margins of the law to create those short-term gains that make options valuable.

9 According to a 2016 paper, a stock-option-10 heavy executive compensation package drastically 11 increased the likelihood of a corporation breaking 12 environmental laws or engaging in financial 13 misconduct. But even stock grants come with risks for 14 executives reluctant to see their net worth decline.

Take the pharmaceutical industry. 15 Executives with stock grants may not see big short-16 17 term payoffs from doing what they're supposed to do -curing disease by making life-saving drugs. 18 Inventing 19 new drugs takes time and money, and that's why the public grants them patents and exclusivity periods 20 that can often result in a monopoly. But many firms 21 do not want to fully embrace capitalism by competing. 22 They look to preserve their company's stock price and 23 24 their personal wealth. So, instead, they focus quite a bit of energy on blocking generic competition to 25

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1 drugs that have long been on the market.

Indeed, by shifting the focus from making 2 medicine to making themselves rich, I worry that some 3 4 pharma companies and their executives seem to be acting like patent trolls. Filing frivolous patents, 5 making minor or cosmetic modifications to drugs, and 6 7 playing other patent games allows them to keep raking in government-granted monopoly profits. 8 The longer 9 they maintain their monopoly rents, sometimes through breaking the antitrust laws, as we've seen at the FTC, 10 the lower the chances these executives will see their 11 company stock price and their personal net worth 12 decline. 13

14 But even if their company is caught, it might be too late because they might have already 15 The decision to cheat consumers or rig 16 cashed out. 17 the market or otherwise break the law can provide big payouts to executives sometimes. But when it comes to 18 19 paying fines, the ones who call the shots rarely face accountability. Executives tell shareholders that 20 this is the cost of doing business. 21

Now, it is critical that we understand how these executive compensation incentives might drive misconduct or when a defendant is keen on settling, whether we need to address those distorted incentives

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directly. There have been instances where enforcers have required significant changes to executive compensation policies. For example, in the civil and criminal settlements with GlaxoSmithKlein and Johnson & Johnson, the corporations were required to amend their policies to ensure adequate clawback provisions from executives when law breaking occurred.

The role of heavy debt and executive compensation 8 9 in both consumer protection and competition matters raises many questions about our approach to settlement 10 remedies. When we find that heavy corporate debt 11 poses risk, how should we safequard against it? 12 Should enforcers, like creditors, seek bans on stock 13 14 buy-backs and dividend payouts until debt levels and risk levels get under control? Should enforcers 15 require recapitalizations, including raising equity 16 17 capital when companies claim they cannot afford to make victims whole? 18

19 Should we require the company to sell off 20 assets to pay back victims when wrongdoing is found? 21 Should we require clawback provisions to stop 22 executives from getting a windfall if consumers are 23 cheated again? Should we seek compensation 24 arraignments where executives guarantee payments to 25 victims if companies go belly up? Should we require

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more attestations signed by executives or board
 members that they have no personal knowledge of any
 wrongdoing?

There are many questions that we need to be asking about corporate governance and corporate governance remedies if we want to be taken seriously by potential bad actors in the boardroom.

8 So thank you for taking part in our 9 examination of our approach to consumer protection and 10 competition with today's focus on capital markets and 11 corporate governance. While we are just scratching 12 the surface today, this must be a start of changing 13 our approach to face the realities of an economy 14 dominated by large firms. Thank you.

(Applause.)

16 MR. ADKINSON: Thank you, Commissioner 17 Chopra. 18 19

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PRESENTATIONS - COMMON OWNERSHIP 1 MR. ADKINSON: We will now have two 20-2 minute framing presentations. First will be Dan 3 4 O'Brien, an Executive Vice President at Compass Lexecon. Dan was Deputy Director of the FTC's Bureau 5 of Economics, and prior to that was Chief of the 6 7 Economic Regulatory Section at the DOJ Antitrust Division. 8

9 Dan coauthored some of the main theoretical 10 work underlying the analysis of competitive impacts of 11 cross ownership and common ownership in competing 12 firms.

13

Dan?

14 MR. O'BRIEN: Thank you, Bill. I'm pleased 15 to be here today with such a distinguished group to 16 discuss common ownership, which I think is a very 17 important topic for the FTC and other competition 18 authorities around the world.

19 Last week, my good friend, Martin Schmalz, 20 tweeted that it was bad form for the FTC to include me 21 on the program without my disclosing past consulting 22 work that I've done relating to common ownership.

23 So, Martin, I think you know better than 24 that. I've been an academic. I've been a government 25 policy wonk, and I've been a consultant. And in each

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of those positions, I've been fortunate enough to publish articles in the top peer-reviewed journals in my field. And, frankly, I find it a little bit insulting that you would insinuate in public through a tweet that my remarks today are somehow tainted by some consulting work that I did for the industry.

7 I think you'll find that my analysis today 8 is just that, it's analysis. But since you raised 9 the question, I'm not being compensated for my 10 participation or my remarks today, and I have not been 11 paid by a third party for work on common ownership for 12 over a year.

13 That said, I agree with you, Martin, that 14 there is value in knowing what drives research 15 forward. And with that in mind, I'm going to tee up 16 my discussion today in a way that fully discloses my 17 research and my consulting work on common ownership.

So in the mid '90s, I coauthored a 18 Okay. 19 paper titled "The Competitive Effects of Partial Ownership, Financial Interest, and Corporate Control." 20 At the time, I was consulting with cable TV companies 21 about transactions that involved changes in partial 22 ownership interest. And we needed a way to analyze 23 the problem. So the result was this academic paper, 24 which probably would not have been written without the 25

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motivating consulting work. And I've published a
 number of papers motivated by consulting work in the
 same way.

4 The paper develops a very general theory that explains how partial common ownership can have 5 anticompetitive effects. And it shows how one can 6 7 quantify those effects. Eighteen years later, Martin and coauthors published a very important paper 8 9 examining common ownership in the airline industry that by all appearances draws heavily on the 10 theoretical framework that I helped develop in 11 conjunction with my colleague at the time, Steve 12 13 Salop.

14 Our framework was really the only rigorous theory of how common ownership could harm competition 15 at the time. And, in fact, newer theories that are 16 17 coming out tend to build on the earlier framework. So in particular, Azar, Schmalz, and Tecu, they drew on 18 19 our paper for the key explanatory variable in their analysis, the modified Herfindahl-Hirschman index, or 20 MHHI. 21

I became aware of Azar, Schmalz, and Tecu's paper in 2015 while I was at the FTC. It's always gratifying when your own research is used by others, but I had several concerns about how they applied the

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theory of partial ownership to the common ownership question. I published a critical review in the ABA's Transportation, Energy, and Antitrust newsletter that same year. And in my review, which was not funded by any third party, I touched on many of the issues that I'll discuss in a few moments.

7 That same year, while at the FTC, I began 8 working on a technical paper that dissects some well-9 known and some less well-known problems with price 10 concentration regressions, which was the methodology 11 used in Azar, Schmalz, and Tecu. That paper also 12 received no third-party funding, by the way.

Then in 2017, I wrote a note for the OECD on 13 14 common ownership raising many of the same issues. That paper also received no funding. Finally, also in 15 2017, I coauthored two papers, one that's now 16 published, critical of the application of the theory 17 that I helped develop to the issue of common ownership 18 19 by institutional investors. Okay, those papers did receive funding from ICI, as is fully disclosed on 20 those papers. And they make the same points 21 essentially that I am going to make today and that I 22 had made previously, before I even knew who ICI was. 23

24 So that brings us to today. And as I said 25 earlier, I'm here really on my own dime, but it seems

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more like a quarter because New York is very
 expensive.

So this short history of my 3 Okay. 4 involvement in research and consulting on common ownership kind of tees up my topic for the session, 5 which is the application of the theory of partial 6 7 ownership to questions about common ownership by institutional investors. This is a narrow focus, but 8 I think it's an important one because I think it's 9 important for the theory that motivates empirical 10 analysis to be appropriate to the question at hand. 11

I think it's fair to say that we're here 12 today in large part because of the empirical findings 13 14 in Martin's important papers. I find that when the level of policy interest in new research reaches a 15 certain decibel level, it often makes sense to pause, 16 17 take a 40,000-foot view of the landscape, and make a reasoned assessment. And that's what I hope to do in 18 19 the next 15 minutes.

First, what is partial ownership and why do we need a theory about it? So most economic theory and most applications of economics to policy assume that the firm is a monolithic decision-maker whose objective is to maximize profits. The economics we see in textbooks is built on this assumption.

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Of course, this assumption is an 1 abstraction. With the exception of a sole 2 proprietorship, firms typically have more than one 3 4 owner, and each owner partially owns the firm. If the owners agree that the firm's objective should be to 5 maximize the profits of the firm, then the assumption 6 7 that the firm behaves as a monolith is fine. But if different firm owners want the firm to pursue 8 different objectives, for whatever reason, how will 9 the firm behave? 10

Okay, the theory of partial ownership that 11 Steve and I worked out was developed to answer this 12 13 question. The theory provides a way to model how firms behave when a firm's owners have divergent 14 interests. The theory then analyzes how markets 15 function when firms pursue this objective, which could 16 17 be quite different from the standard objective of maximizing own firm profits. 18

19 Okay. So I've been using the term "partial ownership." Where does common ownership fit in? 20 Common ownership occurs when one or more owners of a 21 company also owns one or more other companies. 22 The FTC discussed a more nuanced definition earlier today, 23 but I'm sticking with the analytical definition that 24 works for economists when we think about this, okay? 25

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The companies are said to be commonly owned 1 in this case because they have some owners in common. 2 A pure horizontal merger, for example, is a special 3 4 case of common ownership technically, where the merging firms become commonly owned. That may be 5 inconsistent with discussions of common ownership 6 7 policy and legal discussions, but analytically, that's 8 true.

9 Interesting questions arise, though, when common ownership also involves partial ownership. 10 When different partial owners have different common 11 ownership interests in firms whose profits are 12 interrelated in some way, different owners are apt to 13 have divergent interests. For example, a noncommon 14 owner that holds share in Company A wants Company A 15 managers to pursue strategies that maximize the 16 17 profits of Company A, but a common owner that owns shares of Company A and Company B wants the manager of 18 19 Company A to compete less aggressively to increase its returns from its partial ownership of Company B. 20

This shows how different degrees of partial common ownership by different owners create divergent interests among the owners. The theory of partial ownership was built to address this situation, as I said.

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So how does the theory do this? How does 1 the theory -- what does the theory assume about what a 2 firm's managers do when owners have divergent 3 4 interests? Well, the theory assumes, naturally enough, that managers pursue strategies that are in 5 the interest of the firm's owners. In particular --6 and this is the key assumption of the theory on which 7 the empirical work was based -- each manager maximizes 8 9 a weighted average of the returns to the firm's owners from their shareholdings in the relevant common 10 ownership group. That's a lot, okay? 11

12 There's a lot in that statement, so I want 13 to take it apart because the usefulness of the theory 14 for understanding specific cases of common ownership 15 depends on the accuracy of the assumptions that relate 16 to the three elements that I underlined -- the control 17 weights, returns as an objective, and the relative 18 common ownership group.

Before carving into these assumptions, I want to just stop and say, you know, what about this theory, is this theory goofy, or do we think it's okay? So what are the scholarly views of the theory? I think generally positive. And I say that based on two observations. First, much of the literature on the subject uses the theory either as a starting point

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for extending it or to motivate empirical work.

And, second, my experience on the kind of presentation trail of work related to common ownership is that folks don't find the theory itself objectionable. Okay. But that said, like any theory, it comes with warning labels, and they relate to the three elements that I had underlined on the preceding slide, which I now want to go through.

So the first warning is that serious side 9 effects may occur with improper control weights, and 10 I'll explain what I mean by that in a minute. 11 The second warning is that you should consult your doctor 12 before using this model if your relevant common 13 ownership group includes antitrust markets beyond the 14 market at issue. And a third warning label is consult 15 your doctor before using this model if owners' 16 17 objectives differ from investment returns. Those are three warning labels I want to discuss in the rest of 18 19 my talk.

These three warning labels raise troubling issues for using the theory of partial ownership to assess the competitive effects of common ownership by institutional investors. Okay, so the first warning label relates to control weights. Remember that the theory assumes that managers care about the returns to

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their owners, but because the owners typically have different ownership interests, the manager has to decide how much weight to give each owner in deciding what to do, okay? The weight given to a particular owner is the owner's control weight.

In the theory, this is just a number between 6 zero and one such that the control weights sum to one 7 The manager is maximizing a for a given firm. 8 9 weighted average of the interests of the owners. In practice, the value of these weights that lie between 10 zero and one is really critical. If common owners' 11 control weights are zero, for example, common 12 ownership has no effect. And if the control weights 13 14 are positive, it can have anticompetitive effects, the size of which depends in a somewhat complex way on 15 financial interests and control weights. 16

17 Here's a bit of economic humility. Economists do not have robust tested theories about 18 19 how common ownership -- about how ownership shares translate into control weights. José Azar, one of the 20 coauthors of the airline paper that brought us here 21 today, I think it's fair to say, has a nice paper from 22 his dissertation that provides one motivation of what 23 24 Salop and I called proportional control, which occurs when managers give their owners weights equal to their 25

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1 ownership shares.

I think José's paper is interesting. It was alluded to in an earlier discussion today, and I recommend reading it, but it's one motivation for proportional control. It's not especially compelling for many reasons. It's a long discussion. And it's not been tested.

8 Other approaches to control use cooperative 9 voting models, such as the Banzhaf power index, 10 Shapley's voting model and so on. These approaches 11 are also not well tested.

So the question is what are the appropriate 12 control weights. The assumptions about control in the 13 14 empirical literature also raise additional puzzles, Suppose a company is owned by a set of common 15 okav? owners and a set of noncommon owners that have very 16 17 small shares. The noncommon owners have very small shares, so the noncommon ownership is diffused. 18

Under proportional control, okay, which is the assumption in -- Azar, Schmalz, and Tecu used to create the modified Herfindahl-Hirschman index -- they also considered Banzhaf control -- if the number of noncommon owners is large, those owners have essentially no say, okay, in the direction of the firm. Their control weights are near zero.

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1 On the other hand, a common owner that holds 2 even 1 percent of the firm has almost complete control 3 over the firm. Okay, so, is this assumption 4 reasonable? That's a prediction of the theory that if 5 ownership by noncommon owners is diffuse, they have no 6 control. Is this assumption reasonable?

7 Well, experts in corporate finance --8 corporate law, rather, they say no. In the U.S., a firm's directors have a fiduciary obligation to the 9 firm and to the owners as to their interest in the 10 In other words, the law technically obligates 11 firm. directors to pursue objectives that are in the best 12 interests of the firm, which means they should not 13 14 place weight in their objective functions on the returns of shareholders from their ownership in rival 15 16 firms.

17 Now, I won't stand here and say that common owners can never influence management to pursue 18 19 strategies contrary to noncommon owners' interests, but I'll note that compensation of managers in most 20 major U.S. corporations is based on a firm's stock, in 21 part, and this gives the manager at least a short-run 22 incentive to price in a way that maximizes the profits 23 24 of the firm consistent with fiduciary obligation and 25 inconsistent with anticompetitive effects from common

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1 ownership.

In the interest of time, I'm going to skip 2 ahead to Warning Label 2. This relates to what I've 3 4 called the relevant common ownership group. Okay, this group consists of firms that are commonly owned 5 and whose profits are interrelated. For example, 6 7 airlines that are commonly owned and compete with each other are in the same relevant common ownership group. 8 9 In addition, if the airline suppliers and customers are also owned by the same common owners, 10 they should also be included in the relevant common 11 ownership group. Azar, Schmalz, and Tecu's paper 12 assumes that the relevant common ownership group 13 consists of the airlines and only the airlines. 14 However, the same institutional investors that own the 15 airlines also own airline suppliers and customers. 16 17 Okay, why is this important? Well, under AST's assumption, institutional investors ignore the 18 19 impact of airline prices on airline suppliers and business travels. And an increase in airfares has a 20

21 negative effect on both groups. Both impacts give 22 common owners incentives to lower price rather than 23 raise it.

24 Similarly, in the European Commission's use 25 of the MHHI to analyze the Dow/DuPont merger, they

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assumed that institutional investors would ignore the impact of agrochemical companies' strategies on their suppliers and buyers, which institutional investors also partially own. These impacts can give common owners incentives to reduce price rather than raise it.

7 In the interest of time, I'm going to go on to Warning Label 3, which is that owners' objectives 8 differ -- institutional investors' objectives differ 9 significantly from the objectives of owners that are 10 not institutions. Okay? Institutional investors make 11 money by attracting retail investors. 12 Is this accomplished by instructing Company A to pull its 13 14 competitive punches against Company B to increase the value of the institution's shareholdings in Company B? 15 That is, should Vanguard instruct United Airlines to 16 17 raise price to increase the value of its position in American Airlines? 18

What if Fidelity owns a larger share of American than Vanguard? Then Vanguard's strategy would increase the value of Fidelity's portfolio more than the value of its own portfolio. Is this something Vanguard wants to do? The point is that institutional investors that purchase shares for retail investors have vastly different incentives than

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investors that purchase shares for themselves. 1 The theory of partial ownership was built to capture the 2 incentives of investors that purchase their own 3 4 shares. It was not built to capture the incentives of institutional investors. And, in fact, I'm not sure 5 we have a real good idea at this point of what those 6 7 incentives are. We really need a theory of how institutional investors compete with each other and 8 9 the implications of this competition for how they behave to influence managers before we can apply the 10 theory to the question of common ownership by 11 institutional investors. 12

So I'm going to conclude by summarizing 13 14 circumstances where I think the theory of partial ownership is properly and improperly applied. 15 The theory can be quite useful when three conditions are 16 17 satisfied. Control weights are reasonably clear or can be bounded. The relevant common ownership group 18 19 is properly defined. And owners have the objective of maximizing their returns across the relevant ownership 20 21 group.

These conditions often hold in transactions that involve changes in partial ownership among a few large companies or investors, but for common ownership by institutional investors, control weights are not

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clear; research has not properly identified relevant
 common ownership groups and there's a mismatch between
 the objectives of asset managers and the objectives
 assumed by the theory.

5 Thank you very much.

6 (Applause.)

7 MR. ADKINSON: Thanks, Dan.

8 Our second presenter is Martin Schmalz, an 9 Assistant Professor of Finance at the University of 10 Michigan's Ross School of Business. As mentioned by 11 Dan and also this morning, Martin and his coauthors 12 have written the seminal papers finding that common 13 ownership in competing firms has anticompetitive 14 effects.

He is a financial economist whose work examines how finance interacts with other fields of economics, including industrial organization, labor economics, monetary economics, and microeconomic theory.

20

Martin?

21 MR. SCHMALZ: Thank you very much for having 22 me and for holding this hearing and to NYU for hosting 23 it. So I'd like to state for the record that I do 24 hold a portfolio of ETFs but have no other conflicts 25 of interest to disclose.

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1 So I want to take a much broader view on 2 what the theoretical literature on this topic has 3 shown and also speak about governance mechanisms and a 4 few words on policy. So let me start with a benchmark 5 model of competition that is really what we should 6 think about, similar to what Adam Smith described in 7 his Wealth of Nations.

8 So what he imagined is a baker that is 9 completely self-interested and tries to, you know, 10 innovate and work very hard to undercut the bakery on 11 the other side of the street and thereby compete for 12 market share for new customers. This self-interest 13 leads to a maximization of social welfare.

14 Now, a key assumption here is that each firm 15 wants to maximize its own value and that assumption is 16 naturally satisfied when the firm's owner-managed and 17 the owner's wealth is concentrated in one firm. Okay, 18 so what's an example, though, of today's corporations 19 where managers and owners might differ?

Here's one illustrative example. Virgin America used to be an airline. The largest shareholder is Richard Branson, not the CEO, and you ask yourself, how is it, by which mechanism is it that owners get firms to compete aggressively? They won't do it on themselves -- by themselves without

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incentives. And the media reports point to explicit directions by the owner to use the cash from the IPO for capacity expansions, buying new airlines, opening new routes, just expanding market share, stealing market share from Delta, United, and the other shareholders.

Of course, he has the power to vote and can
design incentives to break up this voice channel.
Here's a quick illustration of to which lengths such
an owner can go to attract market share. This is
Richard Branson, you know, trying to attract market
share from other players.

Now, I'm kind of serious about this because 13 14 a key question is, who takes that role? Who puts on the lipstick at Delta and United and Southwest 15 Airlines? To find out, let's find out who the largest 16 17 owners are. Well, the largest shareholder of Delta and Southwest and United is Berkshire Hathaway, and 18 19 that's Warren Buffett's investment firm, who is also the third largest in Berkshire Hathaway, and the other 20 owners are Vanguard, BlackRock, PrimeCap, State Street 21 in some proportion. 22

23 So who is supposed to put on the lipstick? 24 Warren Buffett? No? First at Delta and then at 25 United? Well, that seems absurd, no? And that's the

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The point is he has no economic incentives of 1 point. If you steal market share from Southwest 2 doing that. Airlines, you know, you call Delta and say steal 3 4 market share from Southwest; and you hang up and say call Southwest and say now you steal market share from 5 Delta; hang up, then you call United. That's 6 7 completely absurd. It's against economic interests of a common owner. And I use Scott's words from this 8 9 morning, common owners simply have weak incentives to engage in stewardship aimed at enhancing the value of 10 particular companies, but they do have incentives to 11 defer to the preferences of corporate managers. 12

13 The question is what happens then. You 14 know, what happens is the corporate manager has weak 15 incentives to cut costs, then the costs are going to 16 be higher, output is going to be lower and illustrate 17 equilibrium, and product price is higher. That's an 18 anticompetitive effect, okay?

19 So the key insight is nobody needs to soften competition if there are no incentives to compete in 20 the first place. That's a key insight. Okay, let me 21 give a few more empirical facts. The thing is, common 22 owners are not in the minority as we've heard much in 23 24 this debate. There are almost no noncommon owners left. If you look at the largest 100 shareholders of 25

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United that own more than 91 percent of the shares,
 five of these shareholders are not common owners; 95
 of them are. The largest of these noncommon owners is
 number 42. Okay, we have absolutely no power,
 according to any theory I'm aware of, in these firms.
 And that's similar for American, Delta, and Southwest.

7 There have been some claims in the 8 literature suggesting otherwise, but if you read 9 Einer's new paper he just posted, there's a correction 10 to that record.

Okay, now, what happens in theory when you 11 have few such investors left? There's three decades 12 starting in the '70s of formal theories and informal 13 14 writings, suggesting that compared to the text model, you'll get less competition if there are less 15 incentives to do so. Okay, this is not a brand-new 16 17 theory. And all of them have a similar logic that I just explained. Okay, so let me give some details. 18

19 It is true that the theory doesn't 20 distinguish between asset owners or asset managers. 21 You can either believe that asset owners have an 22 incentive to maximize the total value of the shares in 23 the management, or that they stick to the fiduciary 24 duty by which they promise that they will do that for 25 -- on behalf of its investors. But future work can

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figure out if that's an empirically important
 distinction, okay?

Another thing I should point out is I 3 4 totally agree with Dan that we have no empirical evidence or established theory that explains how 5 different common owners or different shareholders 6 7 get the firm to have an objective function and how, therefore, they behave. What we do have is a paper 8 by a Nobel Laureate, Oliver Hart, that says one 9 thing we know is they won't agree on own-firm profit 10 maximization, and that's a key assumption in all of 11 traditional antitrust. 12

So I agree with everybody that robustness is 13 14 needed in applications when it comes to the choice of control weights. Once more, the theory is saying that 15 common ownership reduces incentives to compete. None 16 17 of these theories says if common owners do nefarious things or incite collusion or do something like 18 19 intentionally elicit, and that is clear from page 1 of the first formal theory on this topic, suppose no 20 collusion is possible. 21

22 Rotemberg says, note that this collusion 23 need not be enforced. Managers never need to meet 24 with each other. He also writes, you know, the 25 mechanism for the collusive outcomes is reduced,

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incentives to compete simply as a result of managers looking out for their shareholders. So these responses we've heard by the investor community, we don't ask for them to collude. We don't collude with anybody. It has just little to do with what the claim is.

7 That's a very important distinction because 8 if you're waiting to find a collusive mechanism by 9 which the investors or firms collude and you don't 10 find any, that's the prediction of the theory, okay? 11 So you're likely to find false negatives, and 12 everybody should be aware of that distinction.

Now, what corporate governance tools do 13 common shareholders use? Well, as a first order, all 14 That's voting, those that are available to them. 15 designing incentives, or voice, speaking to portfolio 16 17 firms. And I'll show you just some examples of apparent deliberate attempts to reduce competition 18 19 with these firms.

Now, the important thing is academics are not going to produce much of this evidence because we don't have access to the data. That's where the role of the regulators would come in. First is let's talk about incentives. Here's an empirical fact. If you measure which fraction of firm value goes to the CEO,

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that's wealth performance sensitivity, and regress that on some measure of common ownership concentration -- and by the way, this is robust to using other measures rather than MHHI -- you get a negative correlation between those, and it's robust, a very robust finding.

7 So what does it mean? Well, it means that the CEO has reduced incentives to cut costs, which 8 9 means costs are going to be higher, which means output is lower, which means prices are higher. That's an 10 anticompetitive effect. So what you get is this 11 apparent paradox that it can be a weak principal in 12 corporate governance and at the same time the cause 13 14 for anticompetitive effects. Okay.

Now, there's been some debate in the 15 literature about the use of relative performance 16 17 evaluation. Now, whether or not a contract features that is completely uninformative about its competitive 18 19 incentives because everything depends on how you measure performance. Do you measure performance in 20 terms of value, in which case it can be 21 procompetitive, or in terms of margins? 22 And to see that, here's one equation. Margins are price minus 23 24 marginal cost, and usually prices fall when quantities are higher, but then maximizing margins means 25

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1 minimizing quantity.

And Rock and Rubinfeld in their paper point out that in American Airlines, the CEO's incentives are actually 100 percent based relative income, margins relative to the competitor, so that's actually an anticompetitive type of contract.

7 Now, how relevant is this not only in the data but, you know, anecdotal? If you read the Wall 8 9 Street Journal, almost exactly a year ago, you find a group of investors meeting in New York, trying to 10 figure out how they can change executive incentives to 11 reduce the output the frackers produced. 12 That seems to me like a discussion about common -- about product 13 14 markets, let's talk about voting.

And it is true that many institutions don't put their own employees on the board, but, of course, they vote on everybody else, all the directors. Two years ago, Warren Buffett's deputy CIO, Todd Combs, was named to J.P. Morgan's board, the largest shareholders there are BlackRock, Vanguard, and State Street, Fidelity.

Now, Bloomberg also pointed out that Berkshire is the largest shareholder in Wells Fargo as well as in Bank of America and many other -- and holds large stakes in many other banks -- U.S. Bank

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Corporation, Goldman Sachs, American Express, and so
 forth. So -- and, of course, you can kind of predict
 that Combs is not going to propose competitive
 strategies or a price war there.

One of the instances in which voting is most 5 important might be activism. If you're a large 6 7 investor or the largest investor in a firm, it doesn't matter whether you like it or not, but you'll be 8 9 pivotal in many elections. And we just spoke about Trian this morning. They had in the proxy find at 10 DuPont in which they explicitly asked for increased 11 R&D spending, more relative performance evaluation as 12 measured by value, and all with the explicit goal to 13 increase market share. 14

Now, they were voted down by BlackRock, State Street, Fidelity, each of which was a pivotal decision. And it's not me who concluded alone but a prominent corporate law scholar said the most plausible hypothesis is that the large asset managers are concerned about the impact of activism on the broader portfolio.

And Commissioner Jackson this morning mentioned that if you talk to any person in this space they'll confirm that they call them index funds, control America, that they're pivotal in all these

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proxy contests. We know in the established literature that hedge fund activism affects product markets. So if mutual funds affect hedge fund activism, we know there's an effect on product markets.

I don't have time to go through the 5 exploding literature on mutual funds' pivotal role in 6 7 proxy contests. I'll just say as early as 2008 in the standard finance journals, we have established that 8 funds vote not in the interest of the individual firm 9 but in the interest of their portfolio, which is very 10 much consistent with the assumptions of the 11 literature. 12

13 Now, let's switch gears. Okay, let's go to 14 Southeast Asia and private equity. If you read The Economist, you'll find claims that the Vision Fund by 15 Softbank explicitly asked Uber and the ride-hailing 16 17 firms to compete less feverishly and push up fares. It ended with Uber withdrawing from particular markets 18 19 in exchange for cross ownership stakes, and competition authorities in Southeast Asia challenged 20 these deals. 21

22 So do we see communication also about 23 product markets in the U.S.? Well, so, this morning, 24 we had a representative of ValueAct here. There was a 25 U.S. lawsuit by the DOJ against ValueAct for a

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violation of the Hart-Scott-Rodino Act, a filing
 requirement.

Now, what Reuters reports is that this puts 3 4 -- rings alarm bells in the \$16 trillion mutual fund industry because the communications the mutual funds 5 have are very similar to those that were cited in this 6 7 lawsuit and that the case comes as active and passive investors work more together to pressure management at 8 9 underperforming companies and that activist core passive shareholders and passive investors recruit 10 activists, so I don't think this distinction between 11 active and passive is all that important in that 12 debate, but, you know, empirically, we can figure this 13 14 out.

So one might think that this was a 15 Okav. warning shot. So the question arises, were topics 16 17 touching on product market competition discussed since. Well, actually, this fracking case I mentioned 18 19 happened long after that, so, yes, it did. A few weeks ago, we had an institutional investors meeting, 20 and perhaps we were all happy about this, to be clear, 21 about, you know, reforming how guns are made or how 22 easily they should be trackable and so forth. 23

Larry Fink is on the record saying we can tell a company to fire 5,000 employees tomorrow, and

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at the same time, we hear they insist no effect on 1 product market outcomes. Now, in Germany, my 2 translation of a headline is "Fund Giant BlackRock 3 4 Lobbies for Mergers of European Banks." Now, that is precisely what the Hart-Scott-Rodino Act was supposed 5 to prevent. So, apparently, mechanisms exist for 6 7 mergers, then I don't understand how mechanisms don't exist for affecting product market outcomes. 8

9 Okay, so there's more. Matt Levine pointed 10 this out. In earnings calls, common shareholders 11 saying I'd like Southwest to boost fares and also cut 12 capacity, it's mysterious to me how anybody could 13 think that owners don't have the ability to engage on 14 topics that affect product market outcomes.

15 Okay, so let me now move on and conclude. Given the theory we have and the magnitude of 16 17 anticompetitive incentives documented -- we'll speak about this afternoon -- as well as a fiduciary duty of 18 19 the asset managers to maximize the value of the portfolios of assets, as well as the abundance of 20 mechanisms that at least potentially yield ability to 21 affect product markets, we need overwhelming empirical 22 evidence that anticompetitive incentives from common 23 ownership never in any markets cause anticompetitive 24 25 outcomes.

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And I don't think we have any evidence to 1 I'll mention about two dozen papers in 2 that effect. the panel later on. Many of them published in top 3 4 journals that document the facts on prices, outputs, product market conglomeration, innovation, and many 5 other outcome variables we care about here, so I don't 6 7 think it is warranted to just focus on one particular 8 paper.

9 So the question arises of what we should do 10 about the issue. And, to me, two things stand out. 11 First is collecting better data. It's a huge pain to 12 deal with common ownership data. Chris Conlon will 13 speak about this later on. But for private firms, we 14 don't even know who owns them as researchers.

And I want to just make clear, if anybody 15 uses an HHI screen, you are assuming that even if 100 16 17 percent of the shareholders of two firms completely overlap, 100 percent shareholder overlap, they should 18 19 be treated as completely independent firms. You have six shareholders, each owning 15 percent, and the 20 antitrust establishment goes completely independent 21 firms, no impact, because they hold less than 15 22 What they hold cumulatively we completely 23 percent. 24 ignore.

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This doesn't make sense in economic theory.

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We have absolutely no evidence that supports that 1 assumption, so, therefore, I think we should challenge 2 Now, there are many open questions, and we'll 3 it. 4 raise many of them. Dan has mentioned a few of them. You know, potential criticisms of what's being done in 5 the literature. And academics will study those, I'm 6 7 quite confident, but there are many questions academics can't study because we don't have the data 8 9 for it. And I think that's where the regulators come 10 in.

One is this morning we heard do engagement 11 meetings, future topics touching on competition. All 12 I know is from reading the newspaper, no? But how 13 systematic is that? Well, academics won't deliver the 14 answer. We heard, well, we want to know what the 15 chain is from executive incentives to the price-16 17 setting within firms. I think that's a fascinating question, and it is an open question, but academics 18 19 are not going to answer that question. We don't have the data, okay? So the regulators need to think about 20 how badly they want to know the answer to these 21 questions. 22

Okay, so I've always held back with policy
proposals or endorsing them, but I do want to speak
about a few arguments that I think are not warranted

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in this and just miss the mark. And one of them is that any intervention would be all radical and new and based on brand new theories. I don't think that's true.

Regulators understood long before this 5 literature started about this problem. In the 1934 6 7 Senate Securities Report -- again, Commissioner Jackson mentioned it this morning -- it reads, 8 "Congress must 'prevent the diversion of these trusts 9 from their normal channels of diversified investment 10 to the abnormal avenues of control of industry.'" In 11 the SEC's -- that's a typo, ICA, Investment Company 12 Act, bill -- reads, "and the national public interest 13 is adversely affected when investment companies have 14 great size and excessive influence on the national 15 economy." 16

17 And ICA as written, it applies to funds but not the management companies, which pointed Jack Bogle 18 19 earlier this year to point out when and if our index funds get to 10 percent, all we have to do is start a 20 second one and we'd be in technical compliance. 21 We need new limits. And we mentioned Jack Bogle's piece 22 last September, that he thinks we can no longer ignore 23 24 the concentration of corporate power that is bundled 25 in the so-called index funds.

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Okay, so one might ask, but what about the 1 benefits of diversification? Well, that's been 2 partially addressed, and I'll address quickly. 3 The 4 common ownership problem, as presently documented, has very little to do with households' ability to 5 diversify. There might be this problem in the limit, 6 7 but for the moment, that's not what the problem is. Berkshire Hathaway is not an index fund. ValueAct is 8 9 not an index fund. So there are many things one can do before even starting to think about touching index 10 funds. Although that might be the logical conclusion, 11 I don't think I have time to talk about the more 12 minutia down here. 13

14 Second is common ownership reduces incentives to compete and potentially welfare 15 because of the reduced cost of diversification they 16 17 enable. And this is an excerpt from Rotemberg, who says, "government interventions which reduce 18 19 diversification ... are potentially beneficial since they promote competition." So everybody is aware that 20 mutual funds help reduce the cost of diversification, 21 but that might be the fundamental problem behind it 22 all. 23

24 So I'm very glad that the SEC and the FTC 25 talk to each about this because they have different

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missions here. And the investors currently are caught in between this conflict, which has been in the room the entire day, but that is what the conflict is. It's not like, oh, but they help diversify investments and, therefore, we shouldn't do anything about it. This is the basic problem, okay?

7 Now, I'll conclude by Rotemberg's conclusion, who literally points to mutual funds and 8 9 says by lowering the cost of diversification, they naturally induce more collusion -- he means collusive 10 outcomes -- if managers follow the wishes of the 11 ultimate recipients of the dividends. It may well be 12 that the funds which concentrate on specific 13 14 industries, and those whose portfolio is very broad, do the most harm. 15

Okay, so that is just opening a debate, 16 17 indeed, as we've pointed out on where we want to draw the lines between do we want firms to act in the 18 19 owners' interest and to which extent do we want the owners to be diversified in unrestricted ways. 20 And I don't want to chime on what correct tradeoff here is, 21 but that's what the debate is and what it should be 22 about. 23 Thank you.

24 (Applause.)

25 MR. ADKINSON: Thank you, Martin.

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1	And we're going to take a short, ten-minute
2	break. Please be back quickly because we have a lot
3	to do this afternoon.
4	(Recess.)
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THEORIES OF COMPETITIVE HARM FROM COMMON OWNERSHIP

2 MR. ADKINSON: We're now going to convene 3 the second panel for this hearing. It's Theories of 4 Competitive Harm from Common Ownership. I'll briefly 5 introduce our distinguished panel. Starting from the 6 far end, I believe it's Bill Rooney down there, Co-7 Chair of the Antitrust and Competition Practice Group 8 at Wilke Farr & Gallagher.

9 Then it's Fiona Scott Morton, who is a Professor at the Yale University School of Management. 10 And then Professor Einer Elhauge at the Harvard 11 University Law School; Professor Menesh Patel, 12 University of California, Davis, School of Law; 13 Professor Scott Hemphill, New York University School 14 of Law; and Professor Dan Rubinfeld is my comoderator 15 at the New York University School of Law. 16

17 MR. RUBINFELD: Thanks, Bill. We're going to really get down in the weeds this afternoon and 18 19 talk some serious economics and law at a different level than we did this morning. And my hope for the 20 session is that the commentators we're going to hear 21 from will help us to understand some of the possible 22 if not plausible or perhaps likely mechanisms by which 23 24 common ownership may create a competition problem. 25 And those could range from what we in antitrust call

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unilateral effects; they could be coordinated effects;
 they could involve different kinds of communications,
 either through the board, through earnings calls,
 through private or public talk of other kinds.

They could involve forms of remuneration. 5 They could involve proxy voting, and I'm sure I left 6 7 out some other possible venues, but more importantly or equally importantly as Martin suggested in his 8 talk, it could be that there is no form of 9 communication of any kind, nothing that would amount 10 to an agreement or nothing that would amount to 11 necessarily a traditional competition problem, but the 12 structure could create an effect which might warrant a 13 14 policy intervention.

So what I'd like to do is we're going to 15 have each of the commentators talk for at most a 16 17 relatively short period of time outlining their views on this issue. And then we'll go back to the 18 19 panelists and discuss two issues. One is to get some criticism or clarification as how they think -- if 20 there is a competition problem, how they think it 21 might arise. 22

And given what I just said, the final issue I want to talk about is whether antitrust is really the appropriate remedy because there are some

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potential structural problems that might suggest
 policy intervention but would not necessarily invoke
 either Section 1 of the Sherman Act or Section 7 of
 the Clayton Act.

5 So with that overview, I'll warn everyone 6 I'm going to jump in if you go beyond your allotted 7 time and interrupt you at will. Otherwise, I look 8 forward to a great conversation and maybe a little 9 debate along the way.

So we'll start to my left with Scott
 Hemphill.

MR. HEMPHILL: Great. So thanks again for 12 13 the opportunity to talk about this, I think, 14 fascinating and important issue. And thanks again to the FTC for choosing to do this at NYU. So, today, 15 I'd like to talk about some research I've been doing 16 with Marcel Kahan, a colleague here at NYU. 17 The title of our paper is "The Strategies of Anticompetitive 18 19 Common Ownership."

20 Now, this is the same paper that you all 21 heard about at some length this morning from 22 Commissioner Phillips and also from Commissioner 23 Jackson. The full paper is available on SSRN if you 24 want even more after getting through today. The link 25 is listed on the slide, but in any event, let me offer

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a few introductory thoughts about the project.

So the project is to identify and examine 2 the causal mechanisms that might link common ownership 3 4 to higher prices and then bring that thinking to the empirical evidence that's been developed thus far. 5 We're particularly interested in empirical studies and 6 7 theoretical work that use a particular measure, the MHHI, which you heard about a little while ago. 8 This 9 is the measure developed in O'Brien and Salop and also in some earlier work by Tim Bresnahan and Salop that's 10 been used to measure common ownership and is quite 11 prominent in the literature. 12

For each of these strategies, we try to answer two questions. First, to what extent is it tested by the empirical literature? Second, is it plausible? That is, would such a strategy be effective if attempted, feasible to implement, and in an investor's interest, given the benefits and offsetting costs.

20 Our basic message is that some mechanisms 21 are tested and some mechanisms are plausible and that 22 the intersection between those two mechanisms that 23 have both been tested by the existing literature and 24 are plausible is relatively few. And then we describe 25 some implications for assessing welfare, for reform,

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1 and for further investigation.

Now, in thinking about any given mechanism, 2 there are three basic questions we think we should 3 4 answer. The first is conflict. Would a noncommon owner at the firm oppose the common owner strategy or 5 is it happy to go along? The second question is about 6 what I'm putting here as precision. 7 Does the mechanism target a particular firm action such as 8 9 capacity on a particular route in the airlines context, or does it instead alter incentives across 10 the board, perhaps weakening overall a manager's 11 incentive to compete or, indeed, to maximize profits? 12

13 Third is the distinction that Commissioner 14 Phillips emphasized this morning between active and 15 passive strategies. Does the common owner take 16 affirmative actions to push the common owner to do 17 something, or is it really about, you know, sitting 18 tight, thereby permitting the firm to relax and 19 compete less?

Now, there's a lot more in the paper than what I'm going to get across in what's left of my seven minutes, but we make three main points. First, the empirical program that's based on MHHI -- not the entirety of the empirical evidence, mind you, but I think the most important part thus far depends on a

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conflict of interest between the common owner and other investors. So to take an example, if an owner of just one airline is happy to go along with the common owner strategy, right, when the owner owns just one airline, they're happy to go along, then this strategy is not well tested by the MHHI approach.

Second, for strategies that are passive
across the board, you know, so and help the firm live
the quiet life, most of these are not tested and most
are not plausible.

And, then, finally, third, as to active targeted strategies, right, imagine an investor telling the firm, you better go, you know, reduce capacity on a particular route, that these aren't plausible for institutional investors.

16 So let me just offer a few thoughts about 17 this first point about MHHI, right, as we've heard the 18 most important tool used thus far in investigating 19 common ownership, I would say both on the theory side, 20 right, the O'Brien/Salop story has MHHI at its 21 foundation, and also the airline study and other 22 empirical work.

The key thing to see here is that when common ownership goes up, MHHI increases. Well, no duh, right? That's exactly what you would expect for

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any reasonable manager of common ownership, but importantly, MHHI decreases when there is an additional noncommon investor. And to be clear, this is not just a question of replacing or displacing an existing common owner. What we're talking about here is conditional on some level of common ownership, if you added a noncommon owner, MHHI would go down.

8 Now, why did that make any sense as the 9 basis for a model? Well, it comes out of an 10 underlying story where there's conflict back and 11 forth, disagreement between the common owner and the 12 noncommon owner.

This is what Dan was talking about before as 13 14 divergent interests. This divergent interest point is really important because not all mechanisms that we 15 talk about have this conflict. So take an example 16 17 where some common owner tells American and United, it would really be in your interest to reduce capacity or 18 19 to increase price. Maybe you already knew this, maybe not, but in any event, it's in everybody's interest to 20 do this. 21

If you regard that mechanism as a plausible one, I think it's important to recognize it's not an MHHI kind of story. Now, could a common owner have a special ability compared to other investors to promote

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a strategy like that? Well, maybe, but the MHHI-based 1 literature is not informative about this point. 2 Do I have another minute? 3 4 MR. RUBINFELD: Yes, you do. MR. HEMPHILL: All right. So I thought I 5 had about another minute. I just wanted to make sure. 6 7 MR. RUBINFELD: And we have not colluded on this, right? 8 9 MR. HEMPHILL: Okay. I see you're pulling the one-minute hook. Yeah, there we go, one minute, 10 11 great. So one other comment about passive 12 mechanisms, and that's that MHHI is not a great fit 13 14 for studying passive mechanisms either. Well, why is that? Well, MHHI doesn't actually measure passivity. 15 That wasn't the point, right? So, for example, if two 16 index funds merge, right, imagine each of them is 17 Together, still passive, but not more 18 passive. 19 passive, or at least not necessarily more passive, and your MHHI goes up in that circumstance. 20 Or take maybe the basic fact in this economy 21 of, you know, dispersed retail investors being 22 replaced by passive -- we might imagine -- passive 23 index funds. Well, there, too, here we have a 24 situation where dispersed retail investors were 25

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passive and index funds on this story are passive,

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too, so there's no real change in passivity, and yet MHHI goes up. So MHHI is capturing or is failing to capture passivity, and so it's not the right measure for testing that kind of a theory.

MR. RUBINFELD: Thank you very much, Scott.
Our next speaker, moving down the aisle,
will be Menesh. Thank you.

9 MR. PATEL: Great. Thanks, Scott. I learned a lot from that talk and also from your paper 10 with Marcel. My comments are also based on a paper 11 that's in the Antitrust Law Journal, so I'll keep my 12 comments at a fairly high level. The issue of common 13 14 ownership is a complex one, but in many regards, it is not a complex issue. And the reason for that is that 15 the common ownership issue relates to some of the very 16 17 fundamental precepts of antitrust that we as antitrust scholars, practitioners, and regulators think about on 18 19 a daily basis when we consider issues in antitrust, counsel our clients, litigate cases, and shape 20 21 antitrust policy and enforce the antitrust laws.

And, so, what I explore in my work and the comments that I'd like to address briefly today postulate that when these core principles of antitrust are applied to the common ownership question, the

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answer that is the outgrowth of that is an eminently 1 antitrust answer. And the antitrust answer is that it 2 While common ownership may in certain 3 depends. 4 instances give rise to substantial competitive effects, in other instances, it may not. And the 5 answer to that question depends on things such as the 6 7 structure of the market, the objectives, and incentives of the participants that are in those 8 9 markets.

Just because the common ownership question 10 is so factually dependent doesn't mean that we throw 11 up our arms and go home or I suppose live the quiet 12 life as we read in the literature. 13 Instead, our 14 objective is to critically evaluate and identify those salient features that cause common ownership to have a 15 substantial competitive effect and see in a given 16 17 market whether or not those factors are present or not 18 present.

19 That mode of analysis should sound quite 20 familiar because it indeed is the same analysis that 21 we use when we evaluate whether or not a particular 22 merger generates substantial competitive effects. And 23 that is not by coincidence. The same competitive 24 concerns that underlie mergers, underlie issues of 25 common ownership. Indeed, as Dan has reminded us, a

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merger is a very special case of a common ownership,
 and just like many mergers may raise no substantial
 competitive concerns. That, too, is the case for
 instances of common ownership.

5 That basic proposition that is that common 6 ownership may be competitively benign in many 7 circumstances is a very simple proposition that I 8 think generates some modest yet important implications 9 for the shape of antitrust policy.

10 Before getting into those factors that may not cause common ownership to have deleterious 11 competitive effects, it's worth it to explore 12 circumstances in which they may. And we need not go 13 We can consider the workhorse model of 14 too far. common ownership that undergirds so much of the 15 empirical work and theoretical work in this area, and 16 17 that's the model by Dan and Steve Salop that Dan discussed earlier. 18

19 It is an economic model, and like all 20 economic models, it is built upon a set of core 21 precepts, assumptions that are intended to model a 22 particular market environment. It's worth marching 23 through quickly some of those key economic 24 assumptions.

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First, the model assumes that the firms in

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the market under consideration produce homogenous products and engage in Cournot competition. Second, the model postulates that owners of those firms simultaneously have ownership interests in other firms in the relevant market, i.e., common ownership.

6 Third, the model assumes that the managers 7 of each of their firms set their output in order to 8 maximize a weighted portfolio of each of the owners' 9 portfolios, and keeping in mind that each shareholder 10 has ownership interests across other firms in their 11 relevant market.

12 And, fourth, the model assumes that there is 13 no market entry or at least there's no entry at the 14 equilibrium. And, finally, to keep the model 15 tractable, it assumes that there are no other markets 16 that are affected by the common ownership -- upstream, 17 downstream, complementary markets. Those are assumed 18 away to make the model tractable.

19 It's an elegant model that generates a very 20 clean theoretical prediction that common ownership 21 results in competitive harm. Why? Well, because 22 managers in the model recognize that if they decrease 23 the amount of competition, yes, that decreases the 24 amount of profits that accrue to that firm and that 25 firm's shareholders, but some of those profits are

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regained by competing firms which are then returned
 back to the firm common owners.

In other words, the model creates a linkage 3 4 between profits of firms across the industry, therefore providing incentives for firms to compete 5 The O'Brien/Salop model does a lot more. less. 6 Ιt also through the model mathematically generates the 7 two key concentration measures that are used in the 8 9 empirical work and the theoretical work: the MHHI delta, which is a reflection of the amount of common 10 ownership in the market, and the MHHI, which is the 11 sum of the HHI and the MHHI delta, in other words, a 12 modified concentration measure used when there is 13 14 common ownership.

Furthermore, within the confines of the O'Brien/Salop model, and that proviso is important, the MHHI does something more than being just a measure of market concentration. Just like the HHI in certain markets becomes a reflection of competitive harm, in the O'Brien model, the MHHI also becomes a reflection of competitive harm.

O'Brien and Salop do not suggest or even
intimate that their model applies in all
circumstances. Instead, the model applies under those
particular circumstances that are assumed in the

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model. And the key point is many markets -- many, many markets -- may not exhibit those key attributes. And if those attributes are toggled, then common ownership may not result in competitive harm and, in fact, may result in competitive harm that is not very well captured by the modified concentration measures.

7 There are many of those characteristics, and 8 I don't have time to march through all of those, but 9 one can consider even the most fundamental precepts 10 that are embedded in that market. And I'll come back 11 to a few of those later in the time that I have.

Consider market entry, for instance. It is 12 undeniably the case that markets differ with the 13 14 extent of entry that is feasible, both by new entrants or the amount of expansion that current firms can 15 In the presence of market entry, common 16 undertake. 17 ownership's competitive effects will be substantially muted, if at all. And, in fact, the amount of 18 19 competitive harm will not be reflected by the modified measures of concentration if there is market entry. 20

21 MR. RUBINFELD: And, actually, I've got to 22 cut you off. Can you just finish up?

23 MR. PATEL: For sure, for sure. The point 24 is quite simple, and the point is that common 25 ownership depends on a myriad set of market

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characteristics, some of which may be present and some
 of which may not be present. And our objective is to
 only target those instances where those salient
 characteristics may be present.

5 MR. RUBINFELD: Thank you very much.
6 Our next speaker, moving down the line is
7 Einer Elhauge. Einer?

Thank you all. 8 MR. ELHAUGE: Thanks for So I thought a lot of the discussion 9 having me here. this morning proceeded on a mistaken premise, with the 10 position of critics of horizontal shareholding like 11 myself have as our position. The assumption was that 12 we want institutional investors to do less. 13 That is not at all the case. The idea is instead that if you 14 eliminate anticompetitive uses of horizontal 15 shareholding in concentrated markets, that 16 17 institutional investors will use their influence then only to increase corporate performance rather than to 18 19 have anticompetitive effects.

In fact, if you have less horizontal shareholding, the natural effect is that institutional investors will have more -- higher levels of shareholding in individual companies and thus have more incentive to exert influence over them in positive ways, so there is no necessary tradeoff

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between having institutional investors exert positive
 forms of influence and eliminating anticompetitive
 effects.

The notion that horizontal shareholding might have anticompetitive effects is not just inferred from theory or models. It's a hypothesis that's been empirically tested. And I want to give a sense of the landscape because it's a lot broader than just the airline study we hear a lot about.

First, there is a very broad cross-industry 10 study that shows that the gap between corporate 11 investment and profits increases with horizontal 12 shareholding levels. That study has been undisputed. 13 There's another study that we did talk about earlier 14 that says that changes in executive wealth make --15 sorry, that increased horizontal shareholding makes 16 17 changes in executive wealth less sensitive to corporate performance. That study is also undisputed. 18

Now, critics often focus on an earlier dispute about effects on executive annual pay, but that was just 22 percent that the executive wealth changes. There's two other undisputed studies that show that increased horizontal shareholding delays and prevents pharmaceutical entry.

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And, next, there's a study that shows that

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horizontal shareholding adversely impacts bank fees
and rates. And this is, I think, sort of but not
really a dispute. There is a supposedly contrary
study that finds mixed results, but it itself says its
results are preliminary because it has data problems
that they haven't investigated yet.

7 Last, we get to the airline study and one thing that seems to be underappreciated is that even 8 the critics actually replicated the results of that 9 study using their own construction of the data and 10 their own definition of horizontal shareholding. 11 They changed the results only by changing the regression in 12 various ways that I would argue are incorrect, and I'm 13 going to talk about one not here in the slide but this 14 morning it was brought up that bankruptcy can affect 15 airlines, and I think that's right. The trouble is 16 17 that in bankruptcy you're not sure exactly how much weight to give the shareholders because after 18 19 bankruptcy they generally retain some level of shareholding in the firm. 20

21 So what the study did, though, is it ran the 22 study again, excluding periods of bankruptcy, and what 23 it found is that removing that confounding effect 24 actually increased the price effect.

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All right, so what are the causal

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I don't think they're either surprising 1 mechanisms? They are the same exact causal 2 or mysterious. mechanisms that law and economics for decades has been 3 4 citing as the explanation for how the separation of ownership from control gets restrained and how agency 5 slack gets limited. And if you think those mechanisms 6 7 can change corporate operations in a way that increases corporate performance in good ways, it 8 9 follows they can also change corporate operations in ways that might increase corporate profits in 10 anticompetitive ways. 11

One obvious one is board elections. 12 Now, the arguments against it -- I think the best argument 13 against this is, oh, but a lot of elections are 14 uncontested. Well, we've got empirical evidence that 15 shows that the share of votes withheld, even in 16 17 uncontested elections, has a strong effect on whether the directors keep their jobs and whether they lose 18 19 committee seats.

Then there's executive compensation, and we just saw how that can be structured to reduce competition. The big complaint about the causal mechanism here has been, well, sometimes these votes by shareholders are nonbinding. Well, okay, but the empirical literature shows that even in nonbinding

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votes, the votes that are withheld, have a very strong 1 effect on reducing CEO pay. There's a market for 2 corporate control, labor markets, direct 3 4 communication, other mechanisms as well. Now, one distinction that Scott has drawn in his excellent 5 paper is between macro-mechanisms and micro-6 7 mechanisms, and macro-mechanisms being one that influences general corporate competitiveness, micro on 8 9 particular markets.

But I don't think it's the case that the macro ones have not been tested. In fact, the airline study itself separated out the airline-wide effect on competitiveness from route effectiveness, and 90 percent of it was macro effect on general competitiveness. And the cross-industry studies also find the general effect.

17 In terms of micro effects, we have it proven empirically in airlines, banking, two pharmaceutical 18 19 studies, and evidence by these earnings calls. Then what about these contra-mechanisms people talk about? 20 One is, well, there's nonhorizontal shareholders, and 21 they'll have conflicting interests. 22 Those are actually already included in the formulas and the 23 24 models, but the key thing for them is they benefit 25 from horizontal shareholding because horizontal

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shareholding does not reduce competition from that one
 firm unilaterally. Horizontal shareholding reduces
 competition from their firm and their rivals
 simultaneously.

5 So a nonhorizontal shareholder has no more 6 incentive to object to horizontal shareholding than 7 they would to object if the firm could enter into a 8 legally permitted cartel. That's different from 9 saying we're going to restrict ourselves; we're going 10 to instead enter into something that helps us produce 11 competition across the board.

The other argument raised has to do with 12 vertical shareholding. For example, the claim that 13 the S&P 500 wouldn't allow anticompetitive effects 14 because, after all, they own business travelers in the 15 airlines as well. Well, if you look at the actual 16 17 incidence, though, of these increased prices, you find that 95 percent of the price increase is inflicted on 18 19 people outside the S&P 500 because there's a lot of nonbusiness travelers and a lot of the business 20 travelers aren't in the S&P 500. 21

Finally, there's been a claim that index funds lack incentives to increase portfolio value. In fact, I think they've got plenty of incentives, in part because the costs are either zero or negative.

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You have to vote one way or the other on the board or on the executive compensation. And, in fact, it's kind of negative because the less you annoy management, the better are they likely to treat you. They have incentives to get flow. And really all that matters is that they exert more effort than other shareholders.

8 But the key thing, I think, is there's tons 9 of empirical evidence that shows that index funds 10 exert a lot of effort and are hugely influential, 11 including in very positive ways that increase 12 corporate value. So the notion that they are doing 13 nothing is not consistent with the empirical evidence, 14 even outside the horizontal shareholding area.

And there's also, as Martin mentioned, there's 24 studies now that show that common shareholding does have an effect on corporate operations. So at some point, you have to give up on the theory that, oh, it's impossible, they could possibly have it, when we've seen it proven time and time again.

MR. RUBINFELD: Thank you, Einer.
Fiona Scott Morton is our next speaker.
MS. MORTON: Thank you. I wanted to begin
with a concern about the design of these hearings. I

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observed, I wasn't able to attend in person this 1 morning, but I observed that there were many mutual 2 fund industry members here, and it strikes me as a bit 3 4 odd for the FTC to need to hear from so many people who are interested parties who make money from this 5 industry and are going to say that they would like to 6 7 keep on making money. I think that it's kind of clear that that would be the message, and I don't really see 8 -- we can have employees of funds, we can have trade 9 associations, we can have consultants, but it's going 10 to be a little bit repetitive. So as a use of time, 11 I'm not sure I understand it. 12

We then have a panel like this one with a 13 14 bunch of academics on it, but there are three kinds of real research in this area -- economic theory, 15 economic empirical work, and legal analysis. Einer 16 17 wrote the first legal analysis paper that I know of in this area, and I have a policy paper, but there is 18 19 nobody else on this panel who has written either a theory or an empirical paper in this area. 20

21 So if I were going to try to learn about 22 this topic, I would try to find those people. Now, I 23 know there are three of them in the afternoon, but as 24 we've heard, there's 24 papers. So, again, it's not a 25 super efficient way to gather information.

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But probably the most interesting omission is that 80 percent of stocks in America are held by the top 10 percent wealthiest people. So the bulk of the -- should this be a problem, okay, the bulk of the harmed people have no representative in these hearings at all, as far as I could tell.

7 So we have some fund industry people saying we'd like to keep our dollar; please don't make a 8 regulation that would take it away. And we have 9 academics saying whatever we think the truth is, but 10 there's nobody on the other side saying, I want that 11 dollar, also, I'm a regular person who buys Coke and 12 Pepsi or airline tickets or whatever I buy, and I 13 would rather have the dollar than have somebody else 14 have the dollar. So I think the representation of the 15 bottom end of the income distribution is a problem. 16

17 And I noticed this morning that it was represented that the median owner of stocks earns 18 19 \$130,000 a year or something like that. Now, you know, that's two and a half times the median family 20 That's probably considered quite low income 21 income. if you work in financial services, I understand that. 22 But it's also misleading in the sense that if you take 23 24 the owners of stocks and you line them up and you pick the middle guy, you get 130,000. But if you line the 25

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stocks up from order of low wealth to high wealth,

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since 80 percent of the stocks are held by the top 10 percent of the income distribution, the middle stock, that guy is super rich. I mean, I have not done that experiment. I don't know what that income is, but it would be in the millions for sure.

7 So this problem is not one that is 8 afflicting people in a symmetric way. There's a big 9 difference between people -- the bottom 80 percent of 10 the income distribution who would like prices and the 11 top 20 percent of the income distribution that face a 12 tradeoff between diversification, as Martin clearly 13 said, and prices.

So let me turn to some substance. 14 Okay. The basic economics here has been covered very well by 15 There's incentive which is profits, money, 16 others. 17 higher stock prices, higher returns, which I think is a basic function of the asset management industry and 18 19 ability which is corporate governance, which, again, if we don't have corporate governance we have a big 20 problem with capitalism. We need a way for owners to 21 influence managers to make sure they're working on 22 behalf of the shareholder. 23

24 But I would combine the incentive and the 25 ability, which is what we traditionally look for in

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antitrust with size. Okay? This is a very large 1 If there's a problem, it's impacting all of 2 problem. public and private corporations in America because 3 4 there are so many common owners. And it's a problem we don't understand very well. So if something is a 5 problem you don't understand very well and it's 6 7 enormous, I think that the conclusion we could all agree to is that we should be studying this quite 8 9 vigorously.

Okay, academics are, in fact, studying this 10 vigorously. The 24 papers, most of them have been 11 written really recently. However, I need to second 12 Martin in saying that academics cannot study private 13 communications. It's not possible. They're secret. 14 So if FTC were to do one useful thing from these 15 hearings, it would be, I think, to open a study, a 16 17 6(b) study, and go out and get the kind of data that you would need to have to study this problem more 18 19 seriously.

And I think if the financial services industry says we don't want you to study our communications, we don't want you to study this problem, then we have our answer. I mean, if there's something to hide, you don't want a study. If there's nothing to hide, then you don't mind if there's a

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study. So that will be informative to hear about.

Then the last thing I just wanted to touch 2 on was the need for more corporate governance theory. 3 4 As I said, that would be what I would be trying to get on a panel if I were organizing hearings because we 5 really don't have good models of how it is that 6 7 ownership translates into product market competition. So we have a bunch of -- Einer very eloquently put a 8 9 list up, and that makes plenty of sense, and those things are all plausible, but actually if you go out 10 and you look in the literature, those papers have not 11 12 been written.

So I think it would be super helpful if we 13 14 had some more engagement from the corporate finance community and the theorists to write these things 15 I think we're all paying a lot of attention to 16 down. 17 MHHI, and that has also been said today, a product of a very specific model. And there are many other 18 19 models out there. And, so, I think beating a dead horse over MHHI, there's no need to do that. 20 There are plenty of other ways in which owners could affect 21 product market competition, and it would be more 22 helpful I think to study some of those. 23

24 So the one that I think is extremely 25 important to touch on that both Einer and Scott said

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in different ways and I'll try to meld that together, 1 the distinction between taking my owners and worrying 2 about whether one holds \$2 of United and 8 of Delta, 3 4 and the other one holds eight of Delta and 2 of United -- what did I just say? Two of one and eight of the 5 other. Any way, the reverse. Those two owners are 6 not indifferent to the location of a dollar of profit. 7 The one that holds more Delta wants it to land on 8 Delta, and the one that holds more United wants it to 9 land on United. 10

So that's the sense in which people don't 11 like MHHI. But the obvious alternative model, which 12 Scott raised and Einer raised, is the idea that maybe 13 we soften competition in a way that just leads to 14 generally higher prices. Nobody is against generally 15 higher prices. The owner who owns only Delta thinks 16 17 it's great if Delta has higher prices because they're going to earn more money, their stock price is going 18 19 to go up. There's no sense in which the management of Delta doesn't experience this as a good thing for its 20 fiduciary duty. The stock price of Delta goes up. 21

22 So I think these directions are ones where 23 we need to take the literature so that we can write 24 them down, be rigorous about testing them, and figure 25 out whether there are other routes besides the MHHI,

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which seems to be a little overdiscussed relative to
 the options. Thank you.

MR. RUBINFELD: Thanks, Fiona.
And, Bill Rooney, you've been relegated -or not relegated, you've been added to the list of
academics on the panel by Fiona, so, Professor Rooney,
you're the last one.

Thank you, Dan.

MR. ROONEY:

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Good afternoon, Commissioners Chopra,
Phillips, and Jackson and my good colleagues. Thank
you to the FTC and NYU for inviting me to participate.
It is really a privilege and a pleasure. Like others,
I speak only in my personal capacity, not on behalf of
my firm or any client, and although I am a practicing
lawyer, I'm not giving legal advice this afternoon.

I will address common ownership from a specifically legal standpoint, and I will assume that Section 7 of the Clayton Act may apply. I do not address the issues of long-held investor positions or the statute of limitations.

I start with basic due process. We are accountable only for our own actions. Liability is personal. We are not accountable for the actions of others whose conduct we have not caused and with whom we have not joined in concert and for whom we are not

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legally responsible. That proposition and Section 7
 law present a steep hill for those wishing to hold a
 common investor liable, even if by awful assumption,
 managers choose to lessen competition.

5 My question: whether an investor stock 6 acquisition of 10 percent or less of an issuer could 7 violate Section 7 where the investor owns not more 8 than 10 percent of a competing issue or stock and is 9 not competitively related -- horizontally or 10 vertically -- to either issuer.

A few more assumptions. The shareholding 11 does not provide the investor with the rights to 12 direct the affairs of either issuer, receive 13 14 competitively sensitive information, appoint directors, or participate formally in governance. I 15 do not speak today to the effect of altering any of 16 17 those assumptions. They are meant to distill and engage the question of whether common ownership qua 18 19 common ownership plausibly subjects the investor to Section 7 liability. 20

Finally, I assume that the share acquisition provides the investor with access to management of both issuers, though not the ability to control or coerce their decision-making.

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I first note the relevance of Section 7's

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investment-only exemption. The exemption states in 1 substance, Section 7 shall not apply to persons 2 purchasing stock solely for investment and not using 3 4 the same by voting or otherwise to bring about the substantial lessening of competition. Many common 5 owners are institutional investors, and their share 6 7 purchases, on the parameters that I have set, would likely be solely for investment and presumptively 8 9 exempt from the Clayton Act.

10 The plaintiff would then have to displace 11 the exemption by showing that the shareholder has 12 used its stock to cause a substantial lessening of 13 competition.

First, displacing the 14 Three observations. exemption requires the shareholder to have used, not 15 just held, the shares; to have caused, not just 16 17 threatened, an actual, not just probable, substantial lessening of competition. Second, not all voting 18 19 takes the investor out of the exemption, just voting that causes the substantial lessening of competition. 20 Third, the voting would have to relate proximately 21 to competition, not to governance or many other 22 noncompetitive issues. Although facts always matter, 23 24 most executive packages would seem insufficiently 25 related to competition to void the exemption.

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Although I will not address here whether a 1 shareholder's engaging with management is inconsistent 2 with Section 7's exemption, the case of Tracinda held 3 4 that it was not. The exemption thus provides common ownership with substantial protection. 5 So does Section 7 jurisprudence. Section 7 requires the share 6 7 acquisition to provide the shareholder with a 8 mechanism to lessen competition substantially, and the 9 substantial lessening must be probable, not possible. Not just possible. All elements, of course, are 10 11 necessary.

If the shareholder acquires its common 12 investment and does nothing, and even if the issuers, 13 14 again by awful assumption, respond to the common ownership by reducing competition, the shareholder is 15 not liable. Recall our due process starting points. 16 Legal liability cannot obtain from a lawful act --17 here are the acquisition of shares -- in response to 18 19 which others, by assumption and by themselves, act unlawfully. 20

21 Nor does an assumed incentive constitute 22 causation. Suppose Noncompetitor A, a known premium 23 pricer, buys a Company B, a price cutter, and raises 24 B's prices. Competitors C and D conclude the coast is 25 now clear to raise their prices, and they do. Company

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1 A is not liable under Section 7.

Cross ownership differs from common 2 ownership. In cross ownership, Competitor A acquires 3 4 an ownership interest, typically greater than 10 percent, in Competitor B, or perhaps in a customer or 5 a supplier. Competitor A, by its own conduct, can 6 7 lessen competition with Competitor B to protect its B shares. Competitor A can also favor the acquired 8 9 supplier or buyer.

10 The cross owner, unlike the common owner, 11 participates in and therefore can affect competition 12 in the relevant market. But could the owners' access 13 to management provide the mechanism that establishes 14 the necessary probability that the common owner will 15 join the issuers in substantially lessening 16 competition? The answer is no.

17 Access alone, or shareholder engagement, is competitively neutral, has been encouraged by the SEC 18 19 in Congress, and has many confirmed benefits. One can speculate whether or when a common owner may try to 20 lessen competition between or even among issuers, but 21 that conduct would entail legal risk and, given the 22 many lawful and beneficial uses of access, the 23 24 prospect remains speculative, at most a possibility, 25 not a probability, and cannot support Section 7

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1 liability.

Thanks, Bill. 2 MR. RUBINFELD: To summarize briefly, I think what we've 3 4 heard and what we're going to continue to talk about, we might think of the issues that are raised as 5 consisting of three categories of issues. First of 6 all, arguments based partly on the discussion of the 7 MHHI, that there is a possibility, if not a 8 9 probability, of adverse unilateral effects. 10 Second, the possibility through sharing of information or communications of one kind or another, 11 there's a possibility of coordinated effects. 12 And third, just because the inherent 13 14 structure of the industry and the extent to which there is common ownership, the implicit argument or 15 explicit, in some cases, is that firms maximizing 16 17 their profitability, their shareholders' interest, might act differently if there's extensive common 18 19 ownership than if there's not. Now, if I can just quickly advertise, Ed 20 Rock and I have been working on this issue. Our first 21 paper I saw as being primarily about unilateral 22 effects with some commentary on the second or third 23 24 alternatives that I mentioned. We have a new paper which we just put on SSRN yesterday which talks about 25

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possible coordinated effects. And perhaps if we keep working on this issue, we'll think about the broader structural issues.

Now, the comments we've heard from the panel really cover that range, and I'd like, if possible, during this round to give each person a chance to respond to each others' comments or to expand on what they're saying, but I'm particularly interested in what your views are as to what the likely mechanism or plausible mechanism is.

For example, Einer, you've listed a whole 11 list. I'd like to pin you down a bit on what your 12 favorite is and, also, the issue which we'll talk 13 about next will be whether we think there's really a 14 competition problem that for which the FTC should be 15 worried or whether there's more of a broad structural 16 17 But let's focus right now on the mechanism. problem.

18 So, Scott, I'll just go down the line. Do 19 you have any comments about what you've heard from the 20 other commentators, or do you want to expand on your 21 own views about the likely mechanism, if there is one?

22 MR. HEMPHILL: Yes. It's tempting to take 23 the bait on the first option, but I think I'll go with 24 the second and just plow ahead a little bit on a 25 couple of things I was planning to try to get across

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1 this time around.

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I'd like to make two basic points. One, thinking about the incentives of fund managers, we've already talked about that to some degree -- it surfaced also in Dan O'Brien's earlier comments -and, then, you know, if there's time talk a little bit about a mechanism that I think hasn't gotten enough attention.

9 Now, I think this world, this debate, lots 10 of debates can be sort of divided into folks who want 11 to do a lot of lumping and folks who want to do a lot 12 of splitting. And the way that I've conceived this, 13 you can probably tell, at least in this project, we're 14 very much in the splitters camp, right? We're firmly 15 splitters here.

So, you know, I don't think -- you know, I 16 17 learned a lot from Professor Schmalz's remarks. Ι don't think a Berkshire Hathaway board seat on a bank 18 19 helps me that much to understand what's going on at Fidelity, that is, you know, there could be things 20 going on at Berkshire, there could be things going on 21 at Fidelity, but I would be hesitant before saying 22 that what's going on over here helped us necessarily 23 24 understand what's happening over there.

And, so, I want just to dig in a little more

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on a version of Dan's -- I think it was the third 1 warning label about owner objectives diverging from 2 investment returns. So just a couple of quick points 3 4 here. One, Fidelity, like Congress, is a "they," not an "it." Individual fund managers are interested 5 typically in the returns of their fund, not those of 6 7 Fidelity as a whole. This, I think, is not a novel point to express but worth putting across because I 8 think it makes it problematic to think about the 9 institutional investor as an undifferentiated whole. 10

Second, for an institutional investor, 11 you're increasing portfolio value, and I recognize 12 there's some difference of opinion on the panel about 13 this, only has a small effect on fees. 14 This bears principally on thinking about active mechanisms as 15 opposed to passive, right, where you're actually doing 16 17 something, you're doing something that might be costly, you're doing something that might incur 18 19 liability or reputational harm.

And, you know, we got to keep our eye on the ball here that, you know, asset-weighted average fees for equity index funds, I have here it was, like, nine basis points. And for actively managed funds, it's, like 82 basis points. So we got to think about, you know, what the returns are, at least for the

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strategies that we might regard as being costly --1 costly in a legal sense, costly in, you know, its 2 appearance in the Wall Street Journal. Internal 3 4 discussions at Fidelity, you know, that were driving decisions or omissions could be, in a reputational 5 sense, quite costly to the firm. So one message here 6 7 is that there's a big difference between thinking about an institutional investor on the one hand and 8 Warren Buffett on the other. 9

You know, there are some technical points 10 here that I'm not going to dwell on, but they're in 11 the paper. You know, depending on the distribution of 12 holdings across funds earning different fees, an 13 increase in portfolio value can actually reduce fees. 14 So there are some extreme versions of that third 15 warning label to think about, again particularly with 16 17 active strategies.

Another point on incentives that I think is 18 19 worth making is with respect to passive strategies. You know, let's think about passive as a strategy for 20 a minute as opposed to just a kind of thing that 21 happens because big funds aren't paying attention, 22 let's imagine. Right, if as a strategy, adopting a 23 24 passive stance could be really costly, right. You're 25 causing them to not compete in certain ways and

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improve your portfolio, but that might, you know, throw out the baby with the bath water. It might, at the same time, cause a dampening of competitive incentives that would be a cost viewed by the fund, by the fund family more broadly.

6 Do I have a minute, or do I not? 7 MR. RUBINFELD: Go ahead.

MR. HEMPHILL: Okay, so, finally, just a 8 9 word about a mechanism that I think is worth paying more attention to that we talk about in the paper 10 called -- that we call selective omission. 11 So the idea here is that an investor might pursue just a 12 subset of the possible available strategies, that is 13 14 pursue just those strategies that both increase firm value and also increase portfolio value while staying 15 silent, omitting to act as to those actions that also 16 17 increase the invested-in firm's value, but at the expense of portfolio value. 18

19 So that kind of selective activity, I think, 20 is one that would be consistent -- consistent with the 21 MHHI-based literature that I'm not willing to abandon 22 just yet. I mean, I think it still is a large part of 23 the most important empirical evidence that we have, 24 and our workhorse theory, and I think apart from its 25 testedness is also plausible.

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1 MR. RUBINFELD: Thank you. Menesh.

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MR. PATEL: Thanks. I don't think that, at 3 4 least any of us on this panel, maybe no one in the room, disputes the proposition that as a theoretical 5 matter common ownership can impair competition. 6 Ι think our differences relate to what extent we think 7 that the postulates of that model we observe in 8 various markets and to what extent we believe the 9 empirical findings today show a causal connection 10 between common ownership and adverse effects to 11 competition. 12

But I want to sort of think about focusing 13 14 on Dan's suggestion when we focus on the mechanism, go back to the workhorse model that guides our theory, 15 our intuition, and the empirical findings and think 16 17 about how likely we believe that those assumptions are going to hold. And the key assumption, again, is that 18 19 manager, when the manager maximizes the profit of her firm, her objective function, she maximizes a weighted 20 portfolio of all of the shareholders that are invested 21 in the firm. 22

To what extent is that a reasonable 23 24 assumption? For if that assumption doesn't hold, then common ownership has no effect on competition. 25 One

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way to think about that is to exploit an equivalency 1 that is shown in the literature that holds that if the 2 postulates of that model are true, then it is as if 3 4 the manager is maximizing both the profits of her own firm and the profits of all other firms in the 5 industry that are subject to common ownership. 6 7 Meaning that if there is this linkage between portfolios, then -- and there are two firms, for 8 instance, in the market -- the manager of Firm A is 9 maximizing profits of her firm, Firm A, and some 10 portion of the profits of the rival firm, Firm B. 11

12 To what extent is that an accurate We should think about that. 13 assumption? First. fiduciary duties. Dan mentioned we've all thought 14 about what seemingly constrain the manager from acting 15 in that manner. To be sure, it is undisputed that the 16 17 business judgment rule shields managerial decisions, particularly when they relate to core corporate 18 19 decisions, such as pricing and output decisions. We do not dispute that. 20

However, if one frames the issue as a manager choosing to set her profits and the profits of a rival firm, that seemingly implicates issues not of duty of care, but duty of loyalty that would give a less robust shielding of the business judgment world.

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1 MR. RUBINFELD: Thank you.

Einer.

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MR. ELHAUGE: So you asked -- you wanted to 3 4 pin me down on which is my favorite. So I think that's the wrong way to think about it. I think it is 5 the combination of them. Some of them apply to some 6 7 investors but not others. For example, the stock market effect where you might dump your stock to show 8 9 your displeasure with management does not work for It works for other kinds of investors index funds. 10 who are in and out of stock. 11

12 The market for corporate control, the 13 proposition that managers might be influenced by the 14 fact that they want the shareholder to be on their 15 good side when there's the next control contest, that 16 works better for index funds than for other investors 17 because you know they're going to be around because 18 they have to hold the stock.

I also think to some extent that these ways of influencing a company are substitutes for each other in the sense if you clamp down on one, institutional investors would logically put more effort on the other. So, for example, if you try to just legislate the executive compensation and say from now on, we're going to have all stock options with a

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trigger price that's based on how their industry does rather than just some set price, that might improve things, but then they might switch to other methods of influencing the company.

But I'll stress what I think is the most 5 underappreciated, which is the labor market effect, 6 7 the notion that you might want to please your horizontal shareholders because they are going to be 8 9 there at the next job. And what's nice that I found in the empirical literature was that there's actual 10 evidence that the percentage of votes that are 11 withheld in elections, even uncontested elections, 12 affect how many directorships you get at other 13 14 corporations. Right, so it's an influence that's quite direct in that way in terms of trying to please 15 other sorts of companies. So I would say it's the 16 17 combination.

And in terms of the plausibility, intuitively, I think a lot of people feel that the fact that Puerto Rico does not vote in presidential elections might influence the fact that the hurricane response in Puerto Rico was less effective than hurricane response in other states that do vote for the president.

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Now, do we have a micro-mechanism where in

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the election the voter said I want -- Mr. President, I want you to focus on this level of hurricane relief -unless there's some operational decisions and communications from voters. No. I think what this shows is who your electorate is and what their interests are, are going to have an influence on operational decisions.

You know, so some of the work I do is in 8 There, it just seems to be 9 political science and law. everybody understands it's obvious. It seems to me 10 even more likely to be true here because they have a 11 much bigger share of the votes. Right, the big three 12 vote about a quarter of the votes actually cast 13 because other voters don't vote. 14 Institutional investors vote about 90 percent of the votes cast 15 because other private investors don't tend to vote 16 17 very much. They get to vote on things besides the elections, they get to have direct communications. 18 19 They have a lot of other avenues of influence than 20 political voters do. So it seems implausible to me that we would think that they have less influence than 21 political voters do. 22

23 MR. RUBINFELD: Thank you.

24 Fiona.

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MS. MORTON: I wanted to respond to one

thing that Scott said, which is there's heterogeneity across funds, and that's undoubtedly true, but I do wonder which fund manager it is who is against higher profits. It seems to me that there might be unanimity of enthusiasm for that.

In terms of mechanism, I think rather than 6 answer your question directly, Dan, I would say that 7 the mechanism really, really matters for policy here. 8 If it is the case that we were to do studies and find 9 out that the mechanism causing anticompetitive effects 10 was communications between fund managers and top 11 executives, then a policy limiting those 12 communications might be all that was necessary and no 13 14 change in the way funds run or votes or anything else.

If it's voting, as Einer just said, then 15 maybe the policy change needs to address voting. I 16 17 think that it's super important to dig into this, and, again, I think an FTC study would be the right way to 18 19 get at this question because without an understanding of the policy and the exact way it works, then if 20 there's a problem, all we can do is use a very blunt 21 instrument. And that seems to be much less ideal for 22 savers and investors than if they're a way of running 23 a mutual fund that did not cause anticompetitive 24 effects. And to do that, we'd have to know a lot more 25

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1 than we know today.

So I think this is a really top priority of 2 something to learn more about. I do think -- I do 3 4 take the point that these methods might be substitutes, if you can't use one you try to use 5 another. But I don't think it's obvious that they are 6 7 super close substitutes. It might be a lot harder to achieve some kind of outcome with one tool than 8 9 another. So I just think that's the place to go. 10 MR. RUBINFELD: Thank you. And, Bill, you're last. 11 12 MR. ROONEY: So I'll stay on the legal side, and I will comment on the need for a mechanism by 13 which a shareholder causes the harm for Section 7 14 liability. And I will focus my comments on two 15 leading cases that seem to be cited in support of 16 common ownership liability. The first case is called 17 Dairy Farmers, U.S. v. Dairy Farmers. 18 It's a 2005 19 Sixth Circuit case and is often cited with the following quote: "Even without control or influence 20 an acquisition may still lessen competition. 21 The key inquiry is the effect on competition regardless of the 22 cause." 23

And *Dairy Farmers* is often cited for the proposition that the shareholder need not cause the

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relevant harm. I would say the context clarifies in 1 that holdings can't be divorced from their facts. 2 In Dairy Farmers, there were two agreements that were at 3 4 issue, an original and a revised. The relevant party to both agreements was the Dairy Farmers of America. 5 DFA was the largest dairy farmer cooperative whose 6 7 purpose was to market the unprocessed milk of its dairy farmer members to milk processors. 8

9 The parties whose stock DFA acquired were 10 milk processors. So DFA and the processors had a 11 vertical relationship that is not present in common 12 ownership cases. DFA owned 50 percent of one 13 processor called Flav-O-Rich, though did not 14 participate in its management.

DFA acquired 50 percent of the competing 15 processor called Southern Belle. Southern Belle and 16 17 Flav-O-Rich were the only two milk sellers to 42 school districts and two of three to 49 districts. 18 19 The District Court granted summary judgment against the DOJ and the challenge of the acquisition of 20 The Sixth Circuit reversed, remanded for 21 shares. trial, and made no findings as to Section 7 liability. 22

The original agreement gave DFA the right to some control over the business activities of Southern Belle, and so it was a simple case of cross ownership,

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1 which we distinguished before.

In the revised agreement, DFA exchanged its 2 voting shares in Southern Belle for nonvoting shares 3 4 but retained its 50 percent financial interests, and recall that the same DFA had a 50 percent financial 5 interest in Flav-O-Rich. The court observed that even 6 7 under the revised agreement there may be a mechanism that causes anticompetitive behavior other than 8 The court found that mechanism in DFA's 9 control. financial relationship to Southern Bell -- "The 10 government presented evidence that DFA did, in fact, 11 12 have control or influence over Southern Belle. DFA may leverage its position to Southern Belle's 13 financier to control or influence Southern Belle's 14 decisions. In addition, other business relationships 15 between DFA and operators of Southern Belle and Flav-16 17 O-Rich raise the genuine issue of material fact, whether DFA, through its 50 percent interest in the 18 19 two duopolists, its potential control or influence over one, and its business relationships with both may 20 cause harm to competition." 21

22 Dairy Farmers provides no support in my view 23 for finding a 10 percent common owner vicariously 24 liable for the presumed acts of issuers in which the 25 owner did not participate.

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U.S. DuPont is the second case often cited. 1 2 It's a 1957 Supreme Court case. And in DuPont, the chemical company DuPont owned 23 percent of General 3 4 Motors stock, was vertically related to GM, and had a close business relationship with GM for 30 years. 5 DuPont supplied over 65 percent of GM's requirements 6 7 of one relevant product and 35 to 50 percent of 8 another.

9 The court found that DuPont's share 10 acquisition was designed to and did obtain a 11 competitive advantage for DuPont in supplying GM. 12 DuPont is a simple case of cross ownership, again at 13 levels in excess of 10 percent.

MR. RUBINFELD: Thanks, Bill.

14

For the next round of discussion, we'll continue a bit more on the legal side. We clearly have a difference of opinion between Bill and Einer with respect to Section 7, but I want to broaden the discussion again.

It seems to me if we're advising our colleagues at the Federal Trade Commission, particularly the two Commissioners who were here today, we want to distinguish the impact of our discussion as to whether it impacts the way the Commission ought to look at particular acquisitions

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under Clayton Section 7 or whether they think there 1 should be investigation that might open a look at 2 Clayton -- at Sherman Section 1, or perhaps they might 3 4 conclude that there's a structural issue here but really no competition issue that requires FTC 5 intervention and maybe they should just talk to their 6 7 colleagues on the Hill about doing something constructive with respect to the structure and 8 9 competition in the industry.

10 So I wonder whether -- just going down the 11 line -- whether any of you has any views, just given 12 the work you've done in this area and I would say 13 where you think we ought to really focus on our 14 emphasis as we delve more deeply into these issues.

And I was struck in that regard by Martin's comments today. Martin's comments to me seemed to suggest that he thought there was a strong argument for a structural problem but he wasn't making the claim that there's necessarily a violation of the Clayton Act or the Sherman Act.

21 So here's your chance to tell the Commission 22 where they ought to be at least focusing at some of 23 their attention. I'll start with Scott.

24 MR. HEMPHILL: All right. So on the broad 25 question of what is to be done, a couple of thoughts.

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In my welcome this morning, I invoked Bob Pitofsky as the animating spirit behind these hearings, and I'm reminded of something that Chairman Pitofsky said in thinking about the application of antitrust law to high-tech industries, right. Big issue then as now.

He said that as with any adjustment to new 6 7 facts or proposed law, a cautious approach is called for but abandoning antitrust principles in this 8 9 growing and increasingly important sector of the economy seems like the wrong direction to go. Now, I 10 think that same kind of caution applies here. 11 I think the right next step, just echoing what a few others 12 have said, but I have maybe a slightly different take, 13 14 for the antitrust agencies would be to collect more information. 15

16 This morning, you know, I sort of asked, 17 sort of pled a little bit with Commissioner Phillips 18 and Commissioner Jackson about what they might do to 19 further illuminate this terrain. And I want to echo 20 Martin's comment from before that academics can't 21 observe communications, and in that vein, this might 22 be something that could be looked into.

I do want to just kind of note that I think the communications identified so far are a little on the thin side. You know, I'm struck, the example

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that comes to mind is the airline paper which points to a -- I think it's a Delta earnings call from 2014, maybe it's third quarter, I wouldn't promise, where they planted two analysts who pipe up and ask about reduced -- well, how about some reduced capacity, wouldn't that be good? I forget that they talked about prices as well.

Well, one of the analysts was for J.P. 8 9 Morgan. I'm not sure, though, that this was an analyst for J.P. Morgan's asset management business, 10 and I assume it was a sell-side analyst that worked 11 with the investment bank. The other analyst who's 12 also quoted but not named in the study was from Morgan 13 14 Stanley. And, so, I don't think that communications from sell-side analysts tell us much about the 15 capacity or likelihood of a Fidelity, let's say, to 16 17 engage in similar communication.

Now, partly, this is a point about, this is 18 19 something we should go run down. I do want to note at the same time that the fact that -- just as we can't 20 observe communications, we also cannot easily observe 21 agency investigations of communications. 22 So, you know, I can't rule out that some of that investigatory 23 24 work, whether in the airline context or elsewhere, 25 might already have taken place.

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There's one second area that I think looking 1 into detail might be of some value, which is to think 2 about responsive steps taken by firms. 3 So 4 communications are a no. If firms are implementing strategies, cognizance of who their institutional 5 owners are and what those institutional owners' 6 7 interests are, then we should observe firms working out that math, right. 8

9 I'm not saying they have to have an MHHI calculation written down. Oh, okay, I got 12 percent 10 from BlackRock and 12 percent from Fidelity or 11 something like that, but they ought to in some rough 12 sense be thinking, okay, who are my owners, what is it 13 that they want right now, and we should be able to 14 observe, I would think, some of that cognition on the 15 part of the firm. And that's something that could be 16 17 excavated and either would be present or not, and that, I think, would provide some insight into the 18 19 nature of the problem, if any, here.

20 MR. RUBINFELD: Thanks, Scott.21 Menesh.

22 MR. PATEL: Thanks, Dan. I'll keep my 23 comments brief. I suppose three things. First is I, 24 too, would echo the calls for additional research, but 25 I'd also add on the point that the fact that we're all

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echoing those calls indicates that there is not yet seeming consensus among the community as to the import and the magnitude of this issue. It is not as if we are on the eve of the *Leegin* decision where economic consensus was clear that resale price maintenance can have procompetitive effects and, therefore, be adjudged by the rule of reason.

The second is we should be mindful and 8 very careful about using -- in whatever policy 9 prescriptions -- using the modified concentration 10 metrics. Those only serve as guides for competitive 11 harm in certain narrow circumstances. And just as if 12 you are to rewrite the merger guidelines from a blank 13 14 slate today, we may rely much less on the HHI for the reasons that we all know we want to rely less on the 15 HHI than historically was the case. The same would be 16 17 the case for that HHI is a noble construct but limited purposefully to its confines. 18

And the third and final piece is we need to be careful and be mindful that efficiencies that we may be butting up against. Our core objective is to make sure that we magnify and amplify the well-being of consumers generally in these markets. The common ownership issue is looking at consumers in the product market, but these very decisions have effects on

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consumers in other markets with respect to corporate
 governance changes and also diversification effects.
 We should be mindful of its consumer interests across
 the board.

MR. RUBINFELD: Thank you.

5

Einer, I was going to pin you down a little 6 7 bit if it's okay. I know you're going to want to debate Dairy Farmers with Bill, but I'm hoping your 8 comments will be a little broader than that because 9 you've thought broadly about a lot of topics. And I'm 10 particularly interested in you elaborating a bit on 11 how you view these solely for investment aspect of 12 Section 7. 13

Sure, and I also want to 14 MR. ELHAUGE: answer your question about -- what did you say? 15 Oh, how traditional merger analysis is going to be 16 17 affected. So the backdrop is that the Clayton Act does ban any stock acquisition that may substantially 18 19 tend to lessen competition. And the cases hold that continuing to hold stock itself is an acquisition. 20

So -- and another thing should be brought to mind -- borne in mind is that although it's generally selectively quoted, the statute actually has two provisions. One provision is about commercial enterprises owning stock in other commercial

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enterprises, but there's a whole other separate provision that repeats it to say it also applies to acquisitions by any entity, commercial or otherwise, in commercial entities. That is -- the structure of the statute also supports the application of horizontal shareholding.

7 Now, the solely-for-investment exception is somewhat of a misnomer. It's really a provision that 8 9 changes the standard of proof. It provides there's an exemption only if there's both, no influence on the 10 corporation but also that the stock is not actually 11 used to create any anticompetitive effects. So, in 12 effect, all it does is change the standard from may 13 substantially tend to lessen competition to actually 14 doesn't lessen competition. 15

The claim that you need control or influence 16 17 is not only contrary to that text but there's six cases that interpret it that way. One is the Dairy 18 19 Farmers case you mention, and another is the DuPont It is true that on the facts of those cases 20 case. there seemed to be influence and control. But that 21 doesn't alter the legal interpretation of that of the 22 actual statute. 23

24 More to the point, though, the agency 25 guidelines on cross shareholding specifically apply to

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cases where there's no control or influence, where all you've changed is the incentives of the company. So unless the FTC is going to abandon its merger guidelines on cross shareholdings that only have incentive effects, then it is committed already to the position that the statute is not limited to transactions that create influence or control.

8 Even if the Clayton Act doesn't apply, 9 there's the Sherman Antitrust Act, applies to any 10 agreement in restraint of trade. Stock acquisitions 11 are agreements. If they restrain trade, they apply. 12 In fact, when you look historically, the trusts 13 attacked by antitrust law were horizontal 14 shareholders.

15 As to the proposition that due process would be violated, let me mention three areas of 16 17 antitrust law that are inconsistent with the theory that you can't possibly be held liable when your 18 19 anticompetitive effects turn, in part, on the actions of others. One is the Leegin case just mentioned, 20 which explicitly stated that resale price maintenance 21 could be legal because it facilitates oligopolistic 22 coordination if others in the industry use the same 23 24 kind of resale price maintenance -- depending on the actions of others. 25

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Motion Pictures, for exclusive dealing says you could be liable for the cumulative foreclosure, it depends in part on exclusive dealing of others. And for that matter, mergers to oligopoly are all dependent upon the effects of you interacting with others.

7 Speaking of the traditional merger analysis, let me just say that if we're not going to tackle 8 horizontal shareholding directly, it actually has 9 enormous implications for traditional merger analysis. 10 In particular, it means that we have to lower the 11 concentration level we're willing to tolerate under a 12 traditional merger analysis because we have to take 13 into account that often horizontal shareholding is 14 going to worsen that, in fact that post-merger 15 horizontal shareholding could occur and would not be 16 17 tackled.

I would submit that maybe this is why so 18 19 many mergers have been allowed that turn out, in fact, to raise prices because the predictions were made 20 assuming no effect. And that's an important feature 21 of current merger analysis. The agency's practice 22 today is not empirically neutral on the effects of 23 24 horizontal shareholding. It is affirmatively assuming 25 in all their models and HHI measures that horizontal

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1 shareholding has zero effect.

There is no basis for that assumption. The empirical evidence, I would say, is strongly to the contrary. Certainly, there's no basis for the way the agency is doing its current merger analysis, ignoring horizontal shareholding.

7 Lastly, it actually -- horizontal shareholding also influences which mergers we regard 8 9 as horizontal as all. Right now, a lot of mergers just fly through as conglomerate mergers, say, because 10 you're merging big, national chains in different 11 geographical markets, not reducing the number of firms 12 in the markets. But often in those transactions we 13 basically moved from having two to five different 14 firms in our local markets to having the same two or 15 five firms in every market. They're all big, national 16 17 firms with much more horizontal shareholding.

18 So I would say horizontal shareholding 19 actually also support people who are concerned about 20 national concentration levels rising even if HHI 21 levels, standing alone, are not rising in particular 22 geographically defined markets.

23MR. RUBINFELD: Einer, thank you very much.24Fiona.

25 MS. MORTON: Yeah, to follow up on that

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point, if we were to tighten up merger standards in 1 order to keep markets fragmented, I think that could 2 potentially create significant losses to consumers due 3 4 to real efficiencies from those mergers. I mean, what we would essentially be saying is we care more about 5 keeping car manufacturers or green bean manufacturing 6 7 plants inefficient and small so that we can have a concentrated owner downstream for people to invest in, 8 9 so that tradeoff, seems to me, to be quite asymmetric.

I think the cautious approach mentioned 10 earlier is indeed very characteristic of government 11 and appropriate. And, therefore, the evidence that 12 will be required on this issue for the FTC to move 13 14 strikes me as being significantly more than that required for a well-incentivized private plaintiff to 15 move. And, therefore, my concern is that we end up 16 17 with disorganized, random private litigation that is, in fact, successful because if there starts to be an 18 19 evidence body that this, in fact, does cause anticompetitive problems, those plaintiffs may well 20 21 succeed.

Then we have a problem of certain areas of the country. Somebody can't hold Pepsi, and somewhere else, a different fund can't hold Delta, and that seems to me to be a really bad way to run a mutual

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1 fund, not that I've ever run a mutual fund myself, but
2 it seems like a bad idea.

And not only those different rulings might 3 4 have ordinal implications. So what do I mean by that? Well, what if the implication on -- what if the 5 evidence showed that to have an anticompetitive effect 6 7 you have to be the largest shareholder in a company? Well, you might be the largest shareholder today, but 8 9 another fund might purchase some shares tomorrow and then become the largest shareholder, and then you 10 would perhaps no longer have the same anticompetitive 11 effect you had yesterday. Well, how does that allow 12 for a rational portfolio to be developed because it 13 14 depends on what other people are doing?

So I think the way to solve this competition problem is what I wrote in a paper with Glen Weyl and Eric Posner, and that is to just say hold one of these competitors, and that would solve the competition problem. It would also improve corporate governance because then you would be very much invested in one firm.

And the impact, I've done some experiments that I have not published yet, but the impact on variance is small because stocks in the same industry co-move, so holding one does a lot of the job of

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diversification. The fourth airline doesn't add very
 much. So I'll stop there.

MR. RUBINFELD: Thank you.

Bill.

3

4

5 MR. ROONEY: So you might find it ironic 6 that an antitrust lawyer would entitle his concluding 7 remarks "The Cost of Antitrust," but there it is. So 8 Judge Easterbrook's influential 1984 article, "The 9 Limits of Antitrust," detail the distortive effects of 10 overenforcement. I offer two quotes for your 11 consideration.

12 "In most cases even a perfectly informed 13 court will have trouble deciding what the optimal 14 long-run structure of the industry is because there is 15 no right balance between cooperation and competition. 16 The judge has no benchmark. Small wonder the history 17 of antitrust is filled with decisions that now seem 18 like blunders."

19 Second, "Donald Turner once described the 20 inhospitality tradition of antitrust. The tradition 21 is that judges view each business practice with 22 suspicion, always wondering how firms are using it to 23 harm consumers. If the defendant cannot convince the 24 judge that its practices are an essential feature of 25 competition, the judge forbids their use."

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The annals of antitrust law are indeed 1 filled with blunders. Since 1975, all vertical, 2 price, and nonprice restraints have been moved from 3 4 per se illegality to rule of reason review by overturning Supreme Court precedents. Consider the 5 extraordinary development in merger review and 6 7 enforcement from the 1950s to the modern era. We've realized that private actors do not always or even 8 9 frequently have anticompetitive malice in their hearts. Rather, they often favor consumers -- more 10 innovation, lower prices and greater outputs. 11

In the present circumstances, institutional 12 investors have their own consumers to serve. 13 Millions of investing workers, union members, and, yes, main 14 street residents. As I have noted, common owners are, 15 by definition, not active in or adjacent to any 16 17 relevant market in which a lessening of competition is This is in stark contrast to every other feared. 18 19 Section 7 case of which I am aware in which an injunction or divestiture has been ordered. 20

The shareholder was either in the same or an adjacent relevant market to that of the issuer and/or sought to control the issuer. The legal basis of common ownership liability on the parameters that I have noted is not obvious.

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In addition, the shareholdings of common 1 owners involve no scrambling of eggs. 2 If the common owner participates in unlawful collusion with its 3 4 issuers, a share divestiture order along with other obvious remedies could easily be implemented. 5 Limitations on common ownership would distort 6 7 experienced investment judgment. Proper diversification may not be achievable only across 8 Investors would be trying to select only 9 sectors. winners in each sector. Let the professionals decide 10 if proper investment requires diversification within a 11 single sector. 12

I close with another observation of Judge Easterbrook, and I trust is costly. We already have effective antitrust laws that protect markets from anticompetitive behavior. No new law or guideline limiting investment discretion is necessary and it would impose distortions that almost certainly would harm far more consumers than it would help.

20 MR. RUBINFELD: Thanks, Bill. I'm at a bit 21 of a loss because I'm imagining the additional panel 22 membership of Frank Easterbrook, my friend, sitting 23 here. It's a looming presence, but I will get past 24 that and say that we have a little time for some 25 questions from the audience.

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And the first question that was posed, which 1 I'd like anyone to comment on, we'll go down the row, 2 but if you have something that would be useful. 3 And 4 the question was we haven't talked at all about hedge funds or private equity funds. How should we think 5 about how either of those entities -- types of 6 7 entities enter into our analysis of common ownership? 8 Scott. 9 MR. HEMPHILL: I'm not going to insist on going first on that one if --10 MR. RUBINFELD: Anyone else? We'll just 11 play it by ear. Anyone want to respond to that 12 question? 13 14 MS. MORTON: I mean, they seem a bit more like the traditional partial ownership rather than 15 something that -- the relatively novel common 16 ownership I think that we're more focused on. 17 MR. RUBINFELD: Anyone else still? 18 19 MR. ADKINSON: I guess if I extend the question to consider whether they might be investing 20 21 only in one other competitor in the industry, and how they might offset some of the --22 MS. MORTON: Oh, I think they don't. 23 I think -- don't we know that? That it's the strategy 24 in Silicon Valley to invest in competitors and to --25

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well, I won't say -- I don't really have a lot of data
 on this, but I think this is a common thing.

I think this does raise the MR. PATEL: 3 4 point that was mentioned earlier, though. If we were going to take seriously the competitive dynamic that 5 common owners are owning horizontal competitors and 6 7 that is the driver of this, we need to buy into the whole theory, and the whole theory acknowledges that 8 that large investor's hedge funds, index funds have 9 ownership interest across, up and down in 10 complementarities and in substitute markets as well. 11 If we buy -- if we are basing our policy prescriptions 12 on horizontal ownership, we need to take into 13 14 consideration all ownership of those common owners.

15 MR. HEMPHILL: To the extent that the question is about their strategy as a noncommon owner 16 17 rather than strategy as a common owner, you know, this would be a special case of part of what I was trying 18 19 to get across that there's circumstances in which you would expect a firm that's invested -- you know, an 20 investor that has stakes in just one firm in an 21 industry to be pushing back on whatever strategy is 22 being cooked. I don't accept the idea that it is 23 24 always the case that, you know, this rising tide will 25 lift all boats, right?

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The strategy -- there is a set of 1 In fact, it's the set of strategies 2 strategies. that's being tested by the MHHI literature that's 3 4 premised on there being a disagreement, a conflict, between the common owners and the noncommon owners. 5 And, so, to the extent you think that that's a 6 7 plausible strategy, then you would expect firms that are invested in just one to be pushing back on that. 8

MR. ELHAUGE: So I would say sometimes the 9 hedge funds are horizontal shareholders, but sometimes 10 they're not. But the big issue when they're not is 11 can they get the support of the other shareholders to 12 the extent they are horizontal shareholders. And just 13 14 empirically, there's research indicating that increased index fund ownership is associated with a 15 statistically significant decline in hedge fund 16 17 activism.

So that might suggest that hedge fund 18 19 activism often is unable to succeed or disproportionately unable to succeed in cases where 20 they're facing horizontal shareholders, and that would 21 be consistent with their more procompetitive efforts 22 to try to increase individual firm competition be more 23 24 likely to be thwarted because they can't get the votes 25 to win in the control contest.

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MR. RUBINFELD: Okay, thank you all. 1 Another question that was posed by the audiences 2 covers something we've kind of taken for granted. 3 4 We've avoided talking about board membership because a number of the analyses we've been talking about looked 5 to possible competitive harms that occur without any 6 7 board membership. But let's consider for the moment a company like Berkshire Hathaway that might decide when 8 9 it takes a significant position in an industry to expect to have board membership. 10

And my question is -- or the question from 11 the audience is how would that board membership 12 necessarily affect or not affect the kinds of issues 13 14 we're talking about when, for example, Berkshire typically is not -- may or may not be active as a 15 board member. What can we say, if anything, about how 16 17 board membership might add to or subtract to -subtract from the theories we've been talking about? 18

Anyone?

19

20 MR. ELHAUGE: Well, it's going to be a 21 pretty powerful direct mechanism, I guess, if you have 22 a board representative, right? You don't even have to 23 have an indirect communication.

24 MR. RUBINFELD: Well, board membership,
25 first of all, Berkshire Hathaway maybe not being an

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example. Board membership may -- it may still involve
 someone, typically minority ownership, the minority
 owner may or may not have much impact on the outcome.

4 MR. ROONEY: Well, we can't forget the 5 presence of Section 8, so that there would be board 6 membership on only one issuer or not on the competing 7 issuer.

I think there's -- I mean, I MR. HEMPHILL: 8 9 don't know if this is part of what's contemplated by the question or not. I think the threat of board 10 membership, right, I own a bunch of shares, and so 11 maybe I could, you know, cause a board member to 12 change or threaten to add somebody, subtract somebody 13 from the board, you know, that's a strategy that would 14 play out, if at all, over a medium to long term. 15 Ιt would take a while to make that happen. 16

17 And, so, you'd want to, I think, consider how effective that is, given how long it would take, 18 19 and also given what we know is a certain amount of churn in putting index funds to the side in the 20 ownership, the different, you know, names held by 21 active funds, whether they hold onto to them for long 22 enough on average to actually render that threat 23 24 credible and actuated, I think, is not obvious. 25 MR. RUBINFELD: Thanks. So another question

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from the audience question puts -- Bill, you're off 1 the hook on this one, but it puts the academics here 2 on the spot, which is have any of the academics on the 3 4 panel interviewed corporate CEOs or I think other top corporate executives and actually asked them how, if 5 at all, they take common ownership into account in 6 7 terms of their pricing decisions and other strategic decisions. So you're all on the spot, academics. 8 Who 9 have you been speaking to and what have you asked 10 them?

MS. MORTON: I have not interviewed a panelof CEOs. That's pretty hard to do.

MR. RUBINFELD: You mean your name is not ontheir list, Fiona, okay.

15

Anyone else?

MR. PATEL: No, likewise. I haven't either.
One wonders the accuracy of that exercise, but I have
not interviewed them.

MR. RUBINFELD: Well, I think Menesh's point
is that we usually like to get a substantial sample
size, and that would be pretty difficult.

I have interviewed quite a few CEOs, but I have not broached this question, but I'm the neutral observer anyway.

25 Scott, have you?

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1 MR. HEMPHILL: I'm not for this -- in this 2 context. I mean, I think absent a CID, I'm not sure 3 that a negative answer -- I'm sorry, absent compulsory 4 process, I'm not sure that a negative answer would be 5 probative. I mean, I guess, maybe one side to test, 6 if they said, yep, I've been waiting for you to stop 7 by, I've been wanting to unburden myself.

8 MR. RUBINFELD: And I think it's true 9 actually that academics, most of us, at least on the 10 economics end, often try to draw inferences from 11 decisions people make, not from what they tell us 12 they're thinking.

So with that in mind, I think we have enough time to just go around the panel and give everyone a chance to make any final comments they want before we close this session. And I'm going to, following on the last session, I'm going to try to reverse the order here if it's okay.

So, Bill, we'll give you the first shot. Do
you have anything else you'd like to add to the
discussion.

22 MR. ROONEY: Just my thanks for being on the 23 panel first of all and being able to interact with 24 folks who spent so much time on this issue and 25 published so deeply and broadly and impressively. And

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I think that in a sense I'm bringing or I'm offering a 1 perspective that is not fully engaging with the 2 economics of the theory, and I just was trying and I'm 3 4 trying to couch the dynamic debate that's happening, from an economic and theoretical and econometric 5 standpoint in a legal context, and how that would 6 7 transfer in a careful examination of whether the common owner really would -- has a serious plausible 8 risk of Section 7 liability within the parameters 9 we're talking about today. 10

MS. MORTON: I'd like to bring us back to what Martin said about the fundamental tradeoff here being between diversification and competition. And there is no escaping that tradeoff. And to encourage the FTC to be an agency for all citizens.

16 It's just remarkable how few citizens own 17 any stocks. It's really the bottom two-thirds of the 18 income distribution doesn't own stocks in America, and 19 many, many stocks are held by the top 1 percent who 20 are getting diversification from private equity, 21 foreign stocks, real estate, and lots of things 22 besides the fourth airline.

23 So who is it who's getting diversification 24 that's meaningful from the fourth airline? Well, it's 25 people like me, actually. I have enough money to be

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saving, and I don't have enough money to have any
 private equity, so I'm in a mutual fund, index fund.
 But there just aren't that many of us.

4 And when you think about the tradeoff I get from the fourth airline, diversification versus how 5 much I'm paying in higher prices, that's the thing 6 7 that we need to work out through further research and so on, how big is that difference. But then we also 8 have to remember that only 20 percent of the 9 population cares about that tradeoff, that the other 10 81 -- 80 percent of them don't care at all about 11 diversification, and the top 1 percent probably 12 doesn't care very much either. 13

So the distributional consequences of thisdebate are really substantial.

MR. ELHAUGE: So a few points, one just 16 17 picking up on the question about do managers say that this is what we're doing, our pricing based upon 18 horizontal shareholding. 19 I want to emphasize, I don't think anything in the theory depends upon managerial 20 consciousness. Take the executive compensation, it 21 could just be that they naturally follow their 22 compensation incentives and thus compete less. 23 For 24 voting, it could just be that shareholders vote for the sort of managers who are less competitive. And it 25

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could simply be the absence of shareholder pressure to
 compete. So nothing depends upon managerial
 consciousness of this.

4 Second, on MHHI levels, there's a lot of critiques of them, but I want to emphasize that it's 5 not like the anticompetitive effects are being assumed 6 7 from the MHHI measure. It's a hypothesis that's being tested. Now, I think it could be tweaked. 8 And for 9 that matter, HHI isn't that terribly accurate either. You need to tweak it for, you know, case-specific 10 I myself have a paper proposing one possible 11 facts. tweak to the MHHI measure, something different in the 12 differentiated market. I think we could take into 13 14 account perhaps better the different percentage fees that different funds have or the different flow 15 incentives that they have. 16

17 But it seems pretty clear from empirical evidence that just assuming there's no aggregated 18 19 voting and there's no effect at all is wrong because if you ignore that aggregation, then you don't find 20 21 anything statistically significant because you're using a measure that's not related to anything, 22 whereas the measure is validated by the fact that it 23 24 does statistically relate with high level confidence 25 to prices.

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And, lastly, I want to emphasize something 1 that Fiona mentioned, which is there's a tradeoff, I 2 think, here between what we're going to do in merger 3 4 analysis, what we're going to do in horizontal shareholding analysis. If we're going to allow 5 horizontal shareholding, we are, it seems to me, going 6 7 to have to lower the concentration levels we allow in mergers, and that does mean that we'd be prohibiting 8 more mergers that would otherwise be more efficient. 9

10 It seems quite likely to be better off 11 allowing efficient, relatively concentrated markets 12 and giving up on some of this horizontal shareholding 13 than having unfettered horizontal shareholding but 14 having deconcentrated markets that are less efficient.

MR. RUBINFELD: Thank you.Menesh.

17 MR. PATEL: Thank you. Yeah, the FTC is to 18 be applauded for holding not just this hearing but 19 this whole slate of hearings. It really demonstrates 20 the vitality and robustness of our antitrust laws.

I'll close where I started, and that is that this is a new issue with many complexities. However, there are large aspects of it that relate to the issues that we, as antitrust scholars, practitioners, and regulators, have thought about for a very long

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time. And those existing tools, when applied to this new manifestation of potentially anticompetitive behavior, can result in policy prescriptions that are consonant with antitrust, as it has been for the past decades.

MR. RUBINFELD: Scott.

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7 MR. HEMPHILL: I guess the governing thought 8 is that we ought to be splitters rather than lumpers. 9 I mean that in two senses. First, I think we should 10 really be working hard to nail down what we think is 11 happening in each situation, to work out what we think 12 the mechanism is at work in different empirical 13 studies.

14 For example, take the two pharmaceutical studies that Einer mentioned. You know, one of them 15 roughly is about common ownership increasing -- I 16 17 mentioned pharma competition because I think I've had conversations individually in other contexts with 18 19 everybody else on this panel on this set of subjects. One is about common ownership potentially increasing 20 the prevalence or likelihood of reverse payment 21 That's a strategy that's presumably to 22 settlements. the benefit of both the brand and the generic that's 23 24 in the nature of reverse payment settlements. That might be an example of the rising tide lifting, in 25

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1 that case, both boats.

The other is about common ownership just 2 making the generic less likely to enter vigorously. 3 4 It just sort of discourages the generic from entering. If I've correctly characterized the study, that would 5 be an example of the brand benefitting but the generic 6 7 losing out, right? That's perfectly possible as an implication of common ownership, but it's not one that 8 9 both of the firms are going to equally like, and it's not one that the noncommon owners of each are going to 10 equally like, right? 11 12 If you're a hedge fund invested in the generic, you're likely to resist the common owner 13 telling the generic that it needs to take one for the 14 team -- to take one for the common owner's team. 15 So that's one kind of splitting. 16 17 The second kind of splitting is simply to come back to where I started, that the analysis of 18 19 common owners needs to really take account of these, I think, systemic important differences in the incentive 20 and ability to pursue anticompetitive strategies. 21 And I think there's a big difference between a Berkshire 22 Hathaway in this respect and a BlackRock or a 23 24 Fidelity.

MR. RUBINFELD: Thanks, Scott.

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I want to thank everyone on the panel for 1 their help in the minute and their comments, but I did 2 want to make one final comment myself. When I teach 3 4 my antitrust students about both law and economics, one of the things I tell my students is that there's 5 about a ten-year lag between the kind of deep research 6 7 that goes into thinking about the issues we're talking 8 about.

9 Academics go back and forth. We debate, we push, we shove, we kick, whatever. And eventually, at 10 least in many cases, some clear conclusions are 11 reached, or we hope they are, and policy follows. 12 So I think there's roughly a 10, sometimes 15-year lag 13 between the analysis that the academics are doing and 14 some of the important court decisions that follow. 15

Why do I say this? Because we're really --16 17 even though it's true that Dan and Steve and others have done work in partial equity ownership issues for 18 19 a long time, the work that Martin and his colleagues have done has moved us into a new area, and it's been 20 We're talking about the last couple 21 very recent. years that really focused work has gone on in this 22 23 area.

24 My hope will be that we'll continue the work 25 on this area and think about it deeply and be careful

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about the policy conclusions we draw until we have some really certain -- at least reasonably certain results about where this is taking us. So on that thought, I want to thank everyone on the panel for an excellent discussion. Thank you all very much. (Applause.) MR. ADKINSON: I would like to thank the panel as well and mention we're going to have a 15-minute break and then our final panel on econometrics, so please come back sharp in 15 minutes. (Recess.)

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ECONOMETRIC EVIDENCE OF COMPETITIVE HARM FROM COMMON OWNERSHIP MR. WILSON: Good afternoon, everyone. name is Nathan Wilson. I'm an antitrust economist at Today, I'm going to be moderating the last the FTC. but certainly, I think, not the least panel of the day, focusing on the Econometric Evidence of

Competitive Harm from Common Ownership.

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Thus far today, we have heard various 9 speakers provide important background details, as well 10 as discuss the core theoretical elements of common 11 ownership. Now, we're going to turn our attention to 12 discussing the efforts that have gone into testing 13 whether or not those theories seem to match what 14 appears to be happening in the real world. 15

We are fortunate to have a panel composed of 16 17 authors that have contributed to this subject from its very infancy. Now, two of our panelists should be 18 19 familiar faces, having provided framing remarks earlier this afternoon. They are Dan O'Brien, now of 20 Compass Lexecon, and Martin Schmalz of the University 21 of Michigan's Ross School of Business. 22

Joining Dan and Martin are Serafin Grundl, 23 24 who is a Senior Economist in the Financial Structure Section of the Federal Reserve Board. His research 25

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focuses on industrial organization, and his policy
 work is concerned with antitrust issues in the
 financial sector.

Next to him is Christopher Conlon, Assistant
Professor of Economics at the New York University
Stern School of Business. His recent studies have
looked at interactions between taxes, regulations, and
competition among practitioners -- among firms, excuse
me. Separately, he has also developed a number of
tools for antitrust practitioners.

Our fifth and final new panelist is Nancy 11 Rose, Department Head and Charles P. Kindleberger 12 Professor of Applied Economics in the MIT Economics 13 14 Department. She has served as Deputy Assistant Attorney General for Economic Analysis in the 15 Antitrust Division of the DOJ from 2014 to 2016, and 16 17 was the Director of the National Bureau of Economic Research Program in Industrial Organization from 1991 18 19 through 2014.

20 Our panel will begin, as previous ones have, 21 with individual presentations. After these initial 22 remarks, there will be a moderated discussion, but 23 time will be reserved at the end for questions from 24 the audience, either from those here at NYU or 25 potentially from those watching remotely. Please note

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1 that FTC staff will be circulating throughout the 2 panel with comment cards if you have a question you 3 would like me to ask.

Now, without further ado, I would like to
turn the floor over to Serafin.

Thanks, Nathan. MR. GRUNDL: So I would 6 7 like to thank the FTC and NYU for inviting me to this panel and for hosting it. And like so many others 8 9 before me, I have to start with a disclaimer, and that is that I'll only present my own views, maybe the 10 views of my coauthor Jake Gramlich, but not the views 11 of the Fed Board or any of its staff. 12

And in my remarks, I will focus on methodological issues. I will not comment on potentially conflicting findings or conflicting conclusions, you know, when different people look at the same findings. And I hope to give a little bit of an introduction and hopefully it kind of sets up the rest of the panel.

20 So my copanelists and I, we have, I think 21 broadly speaking, used and advocated for three 22 different methodological approaches. Martin and José 23 Azar in their seminal studies have used an approach 24 where they relate MHHI, which is a concentration 25 measure that takes common ownership into account, to

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price levels. And the idea is that without common ownership, MHHI collapses to the HHI, so the gap between the MHHI and the HHI is a measure of how much common ownership affects concentration, and if that's related to prices, maybe there's an impact of common ownership on prices.

7 The second approach, which is, you know, dear to the hearts of IO economists, is a structural 8 9 approach. So I'm also an IO economist, so I also like that one, and Dan and Chris have papers advocating for 10 that one, so it's similar to the kind of exercise we 11 do when we do a merger simulation, so we specify the 12 complete structural model of the industry, enhanced 13 for the fact that we also allow for the effects of 14 common ownership. 15

And I will be talking mostly about a third approach that Jake Gramlich and I have used that I call testing comparative statics, and I will talk about what I perceive to be the strength and weaknesses of this approach, especially compared to the structural approach.

22 So what's our question? We have two 23 competing theories. The incumbent theory is -- Theory 24 l is each firm maximizes its own profits, common 25 ownership or not. That's what we usually assume. And

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the challenger theory is Theory 2, which is that each firm maximizes a weighted average of its own profits but also of the profit of its commonly held rivals, and it assigns these weights -- WIJ -- to the profits of these rivals.

And we want to develop an econometric test 6 7 that distinguishes Theories 1 and 2, so we need to find some testable predictions to do that. 8 So that's 9 kind of a straightforward exercise in a sense because obviously Theory 1 predicts that changing the profit 10 weights has no effect on anything that are part of the 11 theory. And Theory 2 predicts that changing the 12 profit weights changes everything, okay, every outcome 13 14 of this particular action between firms -- prices, quantities, profits, whatever you can think of, 15 exit/entry decisions, investment, advertising, 16 17 everything should be affected by changes in these profit weights. 18

19 Now, the way I've explained it is slightly 20 simplifying because you can't really base a test yet 21 on this. Ideally, what you want to have is a monotone 22 comparative statics result so you want to have a 23 prediction of the theory that changing the profit 24 weights changes one of the outcomes in a monotone way, 25 and then you can design a test distinguishing Theories

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1 1 and 2.

And the last ingredient we need is we need obviously variation in the profit weights, and this is generated by changes in ownership, combined with theory that tells us how does ownership translate into these weights, for example, the one that Dan helped to create.

Now, what are the strengths and weaknesses 8 9 of such an approach? So I think one of the important strengths is that relatively weak restrictions are 10 sufficient to obtain monotone comparative static 11 results. So under -- just placing some restriction on 12 the competition between firms, we get predictions, for 13 example, that if Firm I starts to care more about the 14 profits of Firm J, it will respond by competing less 15 aggressively, increase its price, and decrease its 16 17 quantity.

18 In particular, we do not have to impose 19 conditions that are sufficient for identification. We 20 only have to impose conditions that are sufficient to 21 generate testable predictions.

The second point that I've listed here is kind of a special case of the first point. We do not even have to specify a full model. So we do, for example, not have to specify a demand system. We will

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just have to make high-level assumptions, such as firms are competing in the sense that their goods are substitutes.

4 And then a practical advantage of this approach is it's relatively easy to implement. By 5 that, I mean it's easy compared to, say, estimating a 6 7 structural model, there's no numerical optimization or things of that kind. And if someone, say the FTC, 8 9 wanted to do a study where we look at many industries and collect outcome variables for many industries and 10 ownership structures, then you could do this in a 11 fairly straightforward manner. 12

Now, there are also downsides of this approach. And one that Dan has pointed out in his work, which is that it's not so easy to do the way I just described it in practice. What you would like to do is you would like to estimate how your outcome variables at a price depends on the complete set of these profit weights in a flexible way.

And because there are so many profit weights, you cannot actually do that, so you will have to define certain functions that you hope summarize the effects of the different profit weights. So you may want to control for how much does each of I's competitors care about the profits of Firm I, but in

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practice, you can only control for how much do they
 care about the profits of Firm I on average, and you
 hope that this is good enough.

4 And the second downside is kind of the flip side of the advantage that I mentioned earlier, which 5 is that we only test the direction of the effect. So 6 7 we impose fairly weak restrictions, those that give us directional predictions of the theory, but not more 8 And if you have a complete structural 9 than that. model, you will, in effect, get predictions also about 10 the size of the effect. 11

So, for example, the structural model will 12 tell you if you get your demand system right and you 13 14 get the parameter estimates right, how close substitutes are, you know, the products of Firm I and 15 J, and that will have implications for if Firm I cares 16 17 more about the profits of Firm J, will it respond a lot or will it respond a little. And Firm I and J 18 19 don't really compete because their products are not close substitutes, maybe Firm I will not respond much. 20 And this kind of more specific prediction is something 21 that you get out of a structural model but not of our 22 23 approach.

And I'll leave it at that. I'm curious to hear what my copanelists have to say.

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MR. WILSON: Thanks a lot, Serafin.

2 Now turning it over to Dan for the next3 remarks.

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4 MR. O'BRIEN: Great, thank you. Earlier, I talked about the theory that grounds the empirical 5 studies on common ownership, and now I want to turn to 6 7 the empirical evidence. And in my discussion of theory earlier, I raised two issues that I will assume 8 9 away for the purpose of discussing the empirical evidence. First, I assume that even though 10 institutional investors purchase shares across a broad 11 set of industries, I'm going to assume that it's 12 reasonable to focus on one industry such as airlines, 13 14 banking, breakfast cereals, or whatever.

Second, I'm going to pretend that it's 15 reasonable to assume that the objective of individual 16 17 investors is to maximize the value of their retailer investors' shareholdings in the industry under 18 19 analysis. So those were Warning Signs two and three in my previous presentation, and I'm going to 20 basically assume those away. By making these 21 assumptions, I don't mean to suggest that they're good 22 ones but making them facilitates a coherent discussion 23 24 of other critical empirical issues that arise in assessing common ownership. 25

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So let me start with the empirical guestion. 1 The heart of the question is whether common ownership 2 causes firms to behave less competitively by raising 3 4 price, reducing output, cutting capacity, investment, or what have you. The way this happens in theory is 5 that firms' managers take into account the effects of 6 7 their decisions on the profits of rivals and thus pull their competitive punches. 8

9 The accounting for rivals' profits that managers do is captured in what I call common 10 ownership incentive terms, and these reflect a 11 fraction of each rival's profit that a manager 12 accounts for in making strategic decisions for the 13 So in a five-firm market, for example, each 14 firm. firm faces four rivals, and there would be 20 common 15 ownership incentive terms -- five times four. 16 These 17 terms are accounting for the profits of each rival, and each firm does that. So there are 20 common 18 19 ownership incentive terms which Serafin alluded to a moment ago, which makes certain empirical analysis 20 difficult. 21

Let me pause and observe that the common ownership incentive terms that I'm talking about, and these are discussed in the paper that I've written with some colleagues. The terms subsume the financial

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interests and control weights of all of the owners that are part of the theory. Okay, that's measuring the -- estimating the common ownership incentive terms amounts to measuring the impact of the control weights, which as I mentioned earlier are critical, that reflect the control or influence exerted by the owners.

8 Okay, so if it seems like we're a little bit 9 deep into the weeds here, let me say that this is 10 actually on purpose because there's quite a desperate 11 need for a view from the weeds that I think this issue 12 is now getting, which is good. Like all rigorous 13 science, it makes sense to express the problem in a 14 way that's as simple as it is but not simpler.

And I want to commend Serafin for going back to what we learned in IO 30 years ago about how to do empirics, which is do comparative statics, which is basically writing down a theory, seeing how things change when other things change, and seeing whether or not that holds true in the data.

21 Okay, so let's move out of the weeds just a 22 bit and talk about how we measure these critical 23 common ownership terms. There's basically two 24 approaches. One approach is called the reduced form 25 approach, to simplify. And that's to estimate a

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relationship between price and some measure of common
 ownership, which should be the common ownership
 incentive terms in some way since those are what
 matters.

This is the approach that we see in the 5 empirical research, the airline paper and the banking 6 7 paper which got this whole thing started. And a difficulty with this approach is that theory tells us 8 9 that prices depend on the full panoply of common ownership incentive terms. The interaction of these 10 terms with each other, and the interaction between 11 these terms and cost and demand factors, this makes it 12 impractical to estimate a true reduced form because 13 14 there are just too many variables. The airline and the banking papers address this problem by using an 15 index to summarize common ownership, and that was the 16 17 MHHI that we've been talking about. But this creates problems that I'll discuss in a moment. 18

The other empirical approach is to build an oligopoly model and measure the common ownership incentive terms as they appear in that model. The advantage of this approach is that it's possible to capture the full panoply of interactions in a rigorous way. And this is the approach that I've pursued in my own study of the effects of common ownership in the

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airline industry. 1

2	The comparative statics approach that
3	Serafin talked about I would classify as a variation
4	on the reduced form approach because you don't specify
5	the full structural model but you come up with
6	relationships that you should see in the data if
7	there's any competitive effects going on, and so I
8	think I would put that in there, but maybe there's a
9	nuanced difference as well.
10	So let's talk about the empirical approach
11	in the airline and the banking papers that found that
12	common ownership raises price. The airline paper uses
13	two approaches a price regression that relates
14	airfares to route-specific MHHI and quasi difference-
15	in-differences analysis that exploits the
16	BlackRock/Barclays merger to try to see whether or not
17	the impact that that had on common ownership affects
18	price.
19	The diff-in-diff analysis is really a
20	variant of the reduced form approach that I mentioned,
21	and both approaches are purgued in the banking and the

and both approaches are pursued in the banking and the 21 airline papers have some shortcomings that make me 22 quite skeptical. The problem with the price MHHI 23 regression is that the MHHI is a measure of 24 25 concentration, not a measure of common ownership.

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So there are two issues here. One is that common ownership has multiple dimensions, all those common ownership terms I mentioned, okay? And the MHHI has only a single dimension. So it's generally not possible to capture the impact of common ownership that way.

7 The second problem is the MHHI depends on market shares, and market shares move up and down for 8 9 a lot of reasons that have nothing to do with common ownership. So I'll reserve -- I want to give you one 10 example, and then I'll preserve the rest of my remarks 11 for the Q&A, but it's not possible to determine the 12 13 effects of common ownership by looking at the 14 correlation between price and the MHHI. Okay, it's not possible. 15

So let me give you an example. 16 It just 17 snowed in Tahoe, it's ski season, and the demand for air travel to Tahoe has risen. Okay, airfares rise, 18 19 and an airline with very flexible capacity takes advantage and sees its share rise relative to less 20 flexible airlines. So if the flexible airline is a 21 big guy, price and the MHHI both rise. The reason is 22 that an increase in the big quy's share increases the 23 24 MHHI. If the flexible guy is a little guy, price goes up but the MHHI goes down, okay? The reason is that 25

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an increase in the little guy's share reduces the
 MHHI.

3 So this illustrates that price and the MHHI 4 can move in the same direction or in opposite 5 directions for reasons that have nothing to do with 6 common ownership. Thanks.

7 MR. WILSON: Many thanks, Dan.8 And now we're on to Martin.

9 MR. SCHMALZ: So thanks very much. Once more, I unfortunately have to not speak about 10 particular empirical approaches or papers but about an 11 entire literature. And, so, let me start with the 12 baseline again. The baseline is that we have decades 13 14 of evidence of institutional ownership effects, capital expenditures, payouts, merchant activity, and 15 More recently, we have evidence that common 16 so forth. 17 ownership measure in various ways affects corporate financial choices. That's not surprising given that 18 19 the big institutional investors directly express views on the level of payouts and CapEx firms should take. 20

21 Now, how's that related to competition? 22 Well, every dollar that's paid out in the form of 23 payouts can't be spent again on capital expenditures 24 in the same firm. So reduced capital expenditures 25 means lower capacity; lower capacity means lower

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1 output, and there's a competitive effect, okay? So if 2 there is an effect of common ownership on capital 3 expenditures and payouts, how could there not be an 4 effect on product markets?

Now, most of the studies, indeed, have been 5 more recent, but let me give you an entire overview. 6 7 First come studies that documented an economy-wide increase in common ownership, and that's been going on 8 9 a long time, including in VCSS, a view hypothesized earlier. Let me just point out, one paper published 10 in the JFE that concludes that by 2005 already most 11 institutional investors in S&P 500 firms do not want 12 corporate managers to narrowly maximize the value of 13 their own firm, instead, investors would see their 14 portfolio values maximized if managers internalized a 15 large percentage of any externalities imposed on other 16 17 firms. Okay, so this is just mainstream finance, and since then, this has been continued. We'll hear from 18 19 Chris later on.

20 Now, when does the literature on empirical 21 evidence on anticompetitive effect start? So José, my 22 coauthor and classmate, in his dissertation shows that 23 a measure of common ownership density predicts 24 industry margins. Okay, then come two authors here 25 from NYU who showed ownership of firms by quasi-

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indexers is causally related to an increased level of
 buybacks and reduced investment, which is precisely
 the mechanism proposed earlier relative to margins.

4 Now, the only reason apparently our study with José and Isabel made such a buzz is because we 5 were the first to study market-level effects, 6 7 indicating that common ownership is variable and is causally related in a reduced form way to higher 8 9 prices, as well as reduced output. And that has been independently replicated, but the data and code is 10 available on the JF website after they replicated 11 this, so everybody can see how robust these findings 12 13 are or not.

14 Now, a bit of detail on this. These results have been shown to only apply in particular markets, 15 for example, only markets with relatively high levels 16 17 of concentration to start with, substantially above The second is that it's, of course, not 18 2,500 points. 19 just based on correlations as Dan just illustrated with this Lake Tahoe example. And, of course, it is 20 true that MHHIs depend on market shares. 21

That's why many of the tests are just literally fixed or even set to one over the number of players counterfactually, so we know that this is not what drives the results. Okay, that does not exempt

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the study from any of the other criticisms, but they have to be a little more complicated than what is being levied here, okay?

4 So it hasn't been mentioned so far today, but in the discussion, there has been a paper claiming 5 that our results were driven by weighting the 6 7 regressions by the number of passengers in a route, which you want to do because you're interested in the 8 average effect on a ticket price and not on, like, a 9 route as an outcome variable, as well as by the 10 largest 5 percent of markets. Now, these claims are 11 just factually incorrect, and again you can see this 12 13 on our websites. There are links to the paper that do 14 that.

What I'm showing here is the regression of price on MHHI deltas that are not weighted by the number of passengers and you see that in the first column that the effect is there in a full sample in the largest 5 percent of markets and the lowest 95 percent of markets, so the results are just not driven by weighting regression.

22 So how is it that these authors come to the 23 conclusion that in so many markets they're not there? 24 Well, it appears that they made a data error. They 25 failed to aggregate 13(f) holdings, which is where we

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get most of the ownership information from, to the 1 level of the institution that actually votes them. 2 When we do the same mistake, simply commented out of 3 4 our code, we also find that the effects appear to be driven only by the largest 5 percent of markets and 5 are not present in the full sample or the bottom 95 6 7 percent but it's just a data error. Okay, so that 8 turned out to be a nonissue.

9 Now, let me jump over this a little bit. There is a thing called the structure conduct 10 performance critique, and I don't think I have time to 11 cover both -- all of it, other than saying that, you 12 know, when you talk to an IO economist, you sometimes 13 14 come away with the impression that there's only a single way to conduct credible empirical analysis, but 15 some of the biggest minds in this field concluded that 16 17 this seems a very narrow and dogmatic approach to empirical work, and credible analysis comes in many 18 guises and so forth. 19

20 So, you know, there's a difference between 21 identifying causal effects of one variable on the 22 other and the structural analysis. Now, that said, 23 there have been economic structural studies of common 24 ownership as early as the late '90s. One of the 25 studies of common ownership of telecom licenses finds

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that it explains higher prices. Now, that's between 1 two firms, okay, so this is just two firms, each 2 owning 50 percent. And they looked at the commonly 3 4 owned that explains price 5 percent higher than a common ownership. Lundin looks at Swedish nuclear 5 power plants and finds that if they're commonly owned, 6 7 that explains that prices are 5 percent higher than they would be without common ownership. 8

And on the best work by far, most careful in 9 this literature, we'll hear about by Chris, and they 10 find -- they don't estimate effects on prices of 11 common ownership. They rank models by whether a 12 common ownership model performs better than a Bertrand 13 14 model, and the answer is clearly no. So there's one market, one particular industry, rather, that where 15 that model is outranked, okay? 16

Now, obviously, that doesn't reject that there are positive effects of common ownership in any other market, so I don't think we should use that as an argument that the literature needs to stop. Rather, this can be applied in many, many other industries and people should, of course, do that.

Now, in his paper that Dan referred to, we wrote a reply to that as well a long time ago, more than a year ago, I believe. The paper finds no

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positive effects, but it also doesn't reject positive 1 effects because the standard errors are so large as we 2 Also, it finds a negative effect of the understand. 3 4 length of a route on the cost of flying route. Now, that seems counterintuitive to -- you know, based on 5 any economic logic, and all the estimates are based on 6 7 10 percent subsample of the data, and there's no justification we could make out for that. 8

9 We tried to replicate that with the full sample and do not manage to replicate a nonpositive 10 effect, but to be honest, the incentives to an 11 academic of replicating industry studies are pretty 12 And, so, that's one of the reasons why I 13 low. encourage regulators to take a look at that. 14 That's their natural role of the competition authority. 15

But my broader comment is that the singular focus on MHHI really misses the forest for the trees. There are many, many papers in this literature -- at this point roughly two dozen -- that estimate effects on firm behavior and market structure, innovation, entry, as we said, using alternative measures of common ownership as well.

23 So, again, my point here is not we found, 24 like, the crystal ball and everybody should use this 25 particular measure, but the insistence that no matter

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the level of common ownership, we shall just assume that there are no effects. That has been clearly rejected by the literature.

4 So one is an effect in venture capital showing that common ownership fosters alliances among 5 the VC-backed firms, and there's a banking paper which 6 7 is subject to similar criticisms as the airline paper, but one reason I want to mention it is because they 8 9 always split out -- we recently have split out the passive investors -- the so-called passive investors 10 and the active investors and the effects seem to be 11 almost exclusively driven by the quasi-indexers, so 12 13 that goes to Scott Hemphill's request to start looking 14 at different types of owners.

There are other papers that show that the 15 reduced competition from market share seems to be 16 17 effectuated via reduced advertisement expenses, many other things. The two pharma studies came up. 18 19 Gerakos and Xie show that common ownership predicts the probability of a settlement that includes pay-for-20 delay where the brand keeps a generic drug out of the 21 market and independently that's reduced, and the entry 22 result has been replicated by other authors with 23 24 slightly different methods.

25

There is a bunch of other studies I don't

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have time to talk about. And there are more than a 1 handful of studies of the effect of common ownership 2 on corporate innovation. Again, He and Huang, for 3 4 example, has published in the Journal of Financial Economics, so those are top journals. The gist of it 5 is that depending on if the common ownership is within 6 7 industry or across industry and if it's long-term owners and short-term owners and so forth, there can 8 9 be a positive or a negative effect on corporate 10 innovation.

But even if the effect was unambiguously positive, the welfare effects, of course, aren't clear, right? So we know that the innovation effects would have to overpower any anticompetitive effects, and that only happens on the very restrictive conditions and theory. And we have no empirical evidence of welfare-enhancing effects.

There are also effects of vertical common 18 19 ownership links. Ojeda is a Berkeley Ph.D. student, shows that if there's common ownership between a bank 20 and a firm, that firm tends to get lower -- so loans 21 with lower interest rates, and riskier loans whereas 22 as the noncommonly owned ones pay higher interest 23 24 rates. And there's a bunch more in the literature as well. 25

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So the takeaway from that is, of course, it 1 doesn't mean that horizontal effects exist or sign the 2 net effect, so the argument that if we just had one 3 4 giant index fund that owns all firms, all productive capital in the economy, there would be no problem, and 5 it appears wrong to me because an index fund would not 6 7 own the economy; it would own the productive capital. And maximizing social welfare is a different thing 8 9 from maximizing producer rents.

10 Okay, now, I just ran over a list of 23, 24 papers in 12 minutes or so, that gives 30 seconds per 11 paper. I'm afraid I could not do justice to the 12 evidence in that amount of time, but I just want to 13 encourage the FTC to hear some of these other 40 14 authors of the other papers as well if they want to 15 get a reflective view on the state of the empirical 16 17 literature. And to be clear, this is not meant as a This is meant just as a statement that 18 criticism. 19 this panel here does not reflect the state of the empirical literature. 20

21 Okay, so, to conclude, I've said before that 22 I think the quality of this debate would benefit from 23 better data access to researchers and independent 24 analysis of product markets. Data access, we're being 25 scolded here about using ownership data that's

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incomplete or voting data that is uninformative.

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Well, it's very simple, then we should have better disclosure of data to the regulators.

4 So it's not okay if the industry at the same time scolds the academics for using faulty data and 5 lobbies the regulator at the same time for disclosing 6 7 this. That doesn't make much sense. To the regulator, I think it's important to do studies 8 9 themselves for multiple reasons. One I mentioned before. Why can't we ask the academics to first 10 produce the results based on data that we cannot 11 12 That leads to a catch-22. possibly produce.

The second, with all due respect I have for 13 the substance of Dan's work, I'm worried that if we 14 base this discussion on sponsored research we get 15 coverage similar to what the economists had last week 16 17 or last month, which I think can be damaging to the agencies. And it doesn't mean that I endorse the 18 19 coverage; it means that I take that seriously, and I think we should avoid that. I think today's hearings 20 are great for a step in that direction of doing work 21 themselves and getting informed. So thanks again for 22 holding it. 23

24Third, I mentioned that academics in some25cases may have reduced incentives of running, say, the

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work that Matt and Chris and others are doing on,
like, 50 more industries. We don't get published in a
top journal for that. So that is another natural
role, even if we had the work for the competition
authorities to do.

6 Lastly, it seems that the industry is not 7 interested in the Commission to focus its resources on 8 this topic. And I think it's worth thinking about why 9 that could possibly be so. I would have expected that 10 if transparency is in the interest of us all that then 11 we should want the FTC to study this topic in all 12 imaginable detail.

So, again, there are many open questions. 13 We'll hear about some of them. 14 Dan raised a few others as well, which we can better answer with better 15 data access. Serafin's paper alludes to that as well. 16 17 I don't think focusing our attention on other topics is going to answer these open questions. So given the 18 19 state of the literature, given the basic theory that we have, given the enormous levels of common ownership 20 that have been documented for decades, and given the 21 abundance of mechanisms, I don't think it's reasonable 22 to just assume there's no effect and continue with 23 business as usual. But, instead, I think the 24 25 competition authorities should study this topic.

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Thank you.

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Thanks, Martin. 2 MR. WILSON: And now Chris. 3 4 MR. CONLON: All right, thanks. I'm going to go fast here because people covered a lot of this 5 stuff. So I'm going to mostly focus on sort of facts 6 7 and what I'm going to call sort of positive results, and I'm going to leave my sort of opinions to the 8 panel discussion at the end, with one caveat that I'll 9 10 show you in a second. So, yeah, as Martin sort of alluded to, the 11 data on ownership are sort of unusually bad. We spent 12 13 about a year going through and scraping all the SEC 14 filings for the SEC database post 2000. We've gone through all the 13(f)s in the Thomson Reuters 15 database, for all the firms in the S&P 500. You might 16 17 wonder, like, why does Thomson Reuters only find that there's 400 or 450 firms in the S&P 500 in certain 18 19 quarters. That's sort of a level of how bad the data can actually be, but we've cleaned this up as best we 20 can, and we're going to try to make it available to 21 other researchers, assuming that Thomson Reuters 22 doesn't sue us. 23

24 Okay, so, yeah, so there's been some debate 25 about what is the object of interest. The thing that

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1 I'm going to call kappa here on the right is the thing 2 that Serafin and Dan referred to as the profit weight. 3 And what it is is it's just a measure that says how 4 much -- how many shares do you earn in a particular 5 firm as an investor and then how much does that firm 6 actually pay attention to you as a particular 7 investor.

And I think, kind of, there's a lot of 8 debate, and I think there's a little bit of a false 9 choice here in that there's this, like, well, we 10 should either focus on profit weights or this MHHI 11 12 delta and that these are like two very distinct, very different measures. And what I want to just tell you 13 is that the profit -- the MHHI delta literally is that 14 profit weight, but it's that profit weight multiplied 15 by the market shares of the two firms and then summed 16 17 up for all the firms in the market.

And what happens is we throw away kind of a 18 19 lot of variation that we might have. We often see these asymmetries in these profit weights, where I 20 might want to care a lot about your profits as a firm, 21 and you might not want to care very much at all about 22 my profits. And when we sort of summed it up into a 23 24 market-level measure, we kind of lose a lot of the interesting variation, right? There's other issues 25

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that people have referred to that this -- you know, if I'm going regress a price on something that looks like the quantity, you can say that it's a demand curve; I can tell you it's a supply curve; and we can sort of agree to disagree. And that's, I think, kind of where some of the disagreement is.

7 So I'm going to show you sort of large aggregates for what happens with these profit weights 8 for the whole economy, and these are results I think 9 people haven't seen before. So imagine everybody is 10 indexed, everybody buys the market portfolio and you 11 either buy X percent of Firm 1 or Y percent of Firm 2. 12 It might very well be that you put a weight of more 13 14 than one on another firm's profits. In fact, you know, if everybody does that, the best predictor of 15 what the profit weights are going to be, at least in a 16 17 cross-section, is the institutional share or one minus the retail share, right, and I'll show you that, 18 19 right?

20 So, yeah, the other thing that I should 21 point out is that the thing that doesn't seem to 22 matter much is investor concentration. What matters 23 is how relatively concentrated investors are, that is, 24 are your investors more concentrated than mine. So 25 here is sort of -- here's sort of the long-run trend.

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So we do this for all the firms in the S&P, every pair 1 of the 500 firms. We plot this from 1980 to the 2 present, we'd find that a firm might put a weight of 3 4 .2 on another firm's profits. It could be in a completely different industry, and by today, that 5 weight is closer to .7, so it's really changed a lot 6 7 over time.

B Do the control assumptions matter if I put more weight on the largest investors or more equal weight on investors? Those are what all the different colored lines are, and basically, towards the end of the sample, they all pretty much converge. Right, so, the answer is control should matter and in practice it mattered a lot less than we thought it was going to.

What actually drives these profit weights? So one of the best predictors in the cross-section, not looking across time, is just retail share. So the firms that seem to really like their competitors are companies like Apple and Pepsi and these big behemoths with lots of retail investors, right?

21 What's driving the long-run trend? It seems 22 to not so much be that investors are getting larger 23 but all the investors are buying the index. Right, 24 it's that more and more investors are holding 25 portfolios that look like the market portfolio. And

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that seems to be what's driving these long-run
 results.

Right, so now let me get to sort of the 3 4 micro data. So this is where we looked at the market for cereal. Right, and we sort of -- we took sort of 5 every approach we could. So we started with -- we 6 7 started with sort of Martin's approach, and we regressed prices on the HHIs and MHHI deltas. 8 And we found that HHIs increased prices but that the MHHI 9 delta for a thousand-point increase in the MHHI delta, 10 prices went down between 8 and 12 percent in a way 11 that was statistically significant and robust to every 12 specification we could throw at it. 13

14 Now, we don't think increasing common ownership is going to actually reduce prices for 15 cereal. Right? We then took the approach that 16 17 Serafin and Dan recommended. Suppose -- now I only have 16 profit weights because there's four firms that 18 19 really matter in cereal. If I run the regression of prices on those things, what did we find? Well, we 20 found that about three of them were positive and 21 significant, about three or four of them were negative 22 and significant, and that the rest were zero. 23 And, 24 so, we didn't know what to make of that, right? 25 And, so, then what we did is we said, well,

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look, how would the FTC approach this as if it were a 1 So we could estimate a model of demand, 2 merger case. just like we would conduct a merger simulation. 3 We 4 could back out marginal costs from estimates of demand, assuming that either firms were playing the 5 Bertrand game, like we usually do, or assuming that 6 7 firms were following these common ownership weights, and we could recover estimates of marginal cost. 8 Then 9 we could take everything we think that should shift that marginal cost and we could project our estimates 10 of marginal cost on that stuff, right? 11

12 And what I've plotted here is fake, but what 13 I've plotted is sort of those marginal costs -- those 14 recovered, leftover bits of marginal cost over time, 15 right, and what we could do with those recovered bits 16 of marginal cost over time is we can see if they 17 respond to other things that marginal costs absolutely 18 shouldn't respond to.

And what are those things? Those are things that move markups around, right? So one thing might be to look at events in the financial space, right, to look at things like the BlackRock or Barclays merger. But another thing might be to look at things that don't shift my marginal costs but do shift the marginal costs for other products.

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So for cereal, this was actually guite easy. 1 So we have cornflakes. Cornflakes should respond to 2 the price of corn. The cost for cornflakes should 3 4 respond to the price of corn, but they absolutely should not respond to the price of rice. Now, the 5 markup on cornflakes might respond to the price of 6 7 rice, but the idea is we've subtracted off already the So if we have the right model of 8 right markup. 9 competition, we have the right markup. And, so, that shouldn't be in what remains in marginal cost. 10 And, so, that's the basis of our test, right? 11

And, so, the idea is I've drawn sort of two 12 squiggly lines here, and so if I have the right model, 13 14 my marginal cost should look pretty flat. And if I have the wrong model, then around these events I 15 should see big spikes in my marginal cost, right? 16 And 17 we use that and we use multiple events in both directions. We use multiple events in both directions 18 19 that both led to increases or decreases, and we found that they don't line up so well for common ownership. 20

In fact, for ready-to-eat cereal, we found that actually Bertrand fit the data pretty well. And in some sense, this was a bit surprising, you know, because this wasn't like we chose this as a case where we knew ex ante, you know, cereal was going to behave

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this way. Why? Because the ready-to-eat cereal 1 industry has been, you know, accused of being in price 2 wars and in price-fixing cartels and in various 3 4 conspiracies going back to the '70s, and about once a decade, they get involved in something like this. So 5 this is an industry where we could have found 6 7 something and we didn't. All right, so that's where I'm going to leave it for now. 8

9 MR. WILSON: Thanks very much, Chris.

And our last speaker will be Nancy Rose. 10 MS. ROSE: Thanks. So I wanted to thank the 11 FTC for inviting me to participate and particularly to 12 correct a misimpression, which is I'm not one of the 13 I'll say a little bit more in a minute about 14 authors. that, although this is a topic that I have followed 15 with a lot of interest and quite closely since 16 17 Martin's presentation of his airline paper to the Department of Justice Economic Analysis Group Seminar 18 19 Series in the fall of 2014, shortly after I arrived So I haven't been at it as long as Martin has, 20 there.

21 but I've been following this with intense interest.

And I just also wanted to echo the important debt that I think we owe to Martin and to José Azar and to their various collaborators for conducting the seminal empirical work on this issue, which has

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sparked the debate on which today's entire set of hearings has been founded. And as an academic and as a former antitrust enforcer, I think flagging these issues, getting people excited about them, getting people interested in them, and trying to learn the truth is really important.

7 That said, I find myself as one of 23 speakers in the category that Martin labeled as no own 8 empirics, factually incorrect, industry-affiliated, or 9 sponsored, and that Fiona, after deducting herself and 10 Einer from that, seemed to suggest the rest were 11 seemingly superfluous, if not -- did not belong in the 12 debate. And I'm hoping that that won't be your 13 14 conclusion.

While I haven't written on this topic, one 15 of the things that I teach my students in the MIT 16 17 Department of Economics is that one can and should read and critically analyze papers, even if you 18 19 haven't done your own empirical original research on that topic, and I'd like to share with you some of the 20 thoughts that have emerged from my analysis of this 21 literature. 22

To give the top-line conclusion for reasons that I'll explain, I don't think that one can conclude that case for anticompetitive effects of common

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ownership has been proven at this point, and I want to 1 2 say that the reason someone who is as passionate about invigorating antitrust enforcement as I am is putting 3 4 that view out there because I think it's important for us to base policy discussions in particular on bedrock 5 and not on shifting sand, both so that we get to the 6 7 right place and so that if we do need to undertake either changes in the way we're approaching antitrust 8 enforcement or in legislation around these issues, 9 that those policies are not derailed by somebody 10 proving that the empirical paper you're using to 11 support your analysis is noncredible. 12

And that's why I think I'm very encouraged. 13 14 I think there are many more economists that are engaging empirically with this question, particularly 15 people coming out from the industrial organization 16 17 tradition, which I think has a lot to contribute to And for those of you who haven't read Chris' and 18 it. 19 Matt's and Mike Sinkinson's work in this space -they've now got three papers, which I think are all 20 terrific, terrifically interesting, and I'd pair them 21 up with Scott Hemphill's as sort of your foundational 22 knowledge in this. 23

24 Okay, so what are the two main points I want 25 you to come across with? To some extent, most of them

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have been said before, but I think they're worth 1 The first is that the way we're 2 emphasizing. empirically implementing common ownership measures I 3 4 think does not reflect really anyone's incentives accurately. So most empirical papers look like 5 something on -- I guess it's your right -- where 6 7 you've got one guy who owns all four airlines and is thinking about how to maximize the value of his 8 extremely large portfolio. But, in fact, the common 9 ownership ecosystem is much more complicated. 10 We've got lots of people -- retail investors, some pension 11 funds, some union funds and so forth -- that might be 12 contracting with a fund or investment vehicle that's 13 managed by what I'll call big asset management. 14

15 But big asset management is not a monolith Big asset management is composed of Bob's 16 either. 17 Value Fund, which in this example holds American Airlines, Hyatt, Dollar Tree, lots of other stuff; 18 19 Betsy's Growth Fund, which might hold United Airlines, Marriott, and lots of other things; and an S&P index 20 fund, which maybe is managed by a computer algorithm 21 which holds, you know, everything in the S&P. 22

And, now, if we ask sort of what are the incentives that are driving this, so first note, even for the guy on your right, Ron, yeah, if all he owns

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is airlines, we've estimated the right -- we're
looking in the right space, but if he also owns
hotels, he's not maximizing the value of his portfolio
by maximizing the value of his airline holdings.

And while Dan said he's going to make that 5 simplification to be able to make some progress in 6 7 empirical work, I don't think we can learn about this theory if we're saying, well, we think these guys 8 maximized the total value of their portfolio but only 9 silo by silo, right? I just think that's a really --10 it's a good place to start, it's a good place to get 11 us engaged with the problem, but it's certainly not a 12 place to finish. 13

So if we look on the right and we ask what's 14 going on there, now let's think about Bob and Betsy's 15 So big asset management owns both 16 incentives. 17 American and United, but people are investing in Bob's fund, an actively managed fund, because they expect 18 19 him to beat the benchmark, and people are investing in Betsy's fund, an actively managed fund, because 20 they're expecting her to beat the benchmark. 21 Neither of them have an incentive to sacrifice the 22 profitability or the value of the airline that they 23 24 own so that the other airlines can make money. 25 And I think that's what's been lost in a lot

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of the discussion and a lot of the literature is that 1 it's not particularly interesting, I think, to tell us 2 that the big four airlines, particularly as we get 3 4 past the financial crisis and the merger wave, also seem to be pretty cozy with one another. 5 And in contrast, if you're in a market where it's got one or 6 7 two of the big airlines but you've also got Spirit and Allegiant, I think if I asked most of you to say, here 8 are two airline markets; HHI is 5,000; two firms, 9 equal shares; one is American United, the other is 10 American Spirit, which market has the lowest price, I 11 12 think almost none of you would say I can't answer that question until you tell me what the ownership 13 14 structure looks like among these institutional asset 15 managers.

So I would urge us to sort of recognize that 16 17 and to key very tightly on Scott's, I think, very careful thinking about what these tests can tell us, 18 19 and I think common ownership tests are going to tell us most about that theory when we can observe firms' 20 declining profitable deviations from collusion, 21 sacrificing their own profits from rivals' profits. 22 And, yet, what I've heard throughout the day are 23 24 comments like, but, of course, everybody is happier if 25 profits go up.

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I will leave you with the thought, happy to 1 talk about it during the discussion, that we have two 2 airline data points that suggest to us that that 3 4 theory of, of course, everybody's happier with higher prices, they'll all go along, is first not a test of 5 common ownership but maybe also not a good 6 7 characteristic of that particular market. Let me stop 8 there.

MR. WILSON: Thanks very much, Nancy.

10 At this point, I want to loop back to some 11 of the issues that came up in various folks' initial 12 presentations and kind of drill down a little bit 13 more, perhaps identifying areas of disagreement and 14 potentially leading to tests that may resolve some of 15 that disagreement in the future.

9

And the first issue I wanted to kind of 16 17 touch on was the issue of measurement. In particular, people have talked about the various ways of 18 19 addressing common ownership in different forms of empirical analysis, and some have preferred one versus 20 another. And I guess I'm particularly interested in 21 hearing about how alternatives to the ones you may 22 have employed or preferred could be driving in one way 23 24 or another the results of papers that you have 25 questions about.

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And I'm certainly also interested in anyone's thinking about kind of concrete ways of measurement kind of unrelated to my primary question. Perhaps Dan would like to take first crack at this.

Sure, Nate. So measurement --5 MR. O'BRIEN: so we're trying to measure common ownership and we 6 7 want to know whether or not changes in common ownership cause anticompetitive effects. So my first 8 9 observation, and I made this clear in my remarks, I think, is that the MHHI is not a great measure of 10 common ownership, at least in a price regression, 11 because it can move in directions that reflect 12 increases or decreases in common ownership because 13 it's complex, it's multidimensional, it just doesn't 14 move in directions when common ownership changes that 15 tell us common ownership has gone up, and then how 16 17 those movements relate to price changes also doesn't tell us whether or not common ownership is affecting 18 19 price because they can move in the same direction or opposite directions. So I don't think that's a great 20 21 way to measure things.

22 But it's a conundrum for reduced form 23 empirical work because if you buy into the theory, and 24 perhaps we need a new theory about how to think about 25 this that's simpler. If you buy into the theory, you

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have all of these common ownership incentive terms, these weights that Chris talked about. And they all matter, and in an oligopoly model, they interact in complex ways with everything, and you can't run a simple reduced form price regression that captures all of that.

And to give -- to throw some credit to Martin, he was faced with this problem, and he chose to use the MHHI, which is an index that relates in some way to common ownership, and so it's probably not a bad first choice in thinking about how to summarize this.

So I think a better way to go is a 13 structural model that tries to model how the oligopoly 14 works, effectively estimates different control 15 scenarios to see which one is most consistent with the 16 17 data, and that's the approach that we adopted in the structural analysis of the airline market that we did. 18 19 And we found that, in fact, we couldn't reject that common ownership has no effect on price -- well, we 20 couldn't reject that common owners had no control. 21 We could reject that common owners had proportional 22 control. 23

As Martin said, there are positive levels of common ownership that we couldn't reject if your

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hypothesis was that those would hold. I think that's
a better approach, but there needs to be, you know,
more thought about how best to estimate this, and this
is -- Serafin talked about some things and Chris is
talking about some things. So that's my observation.

MR. WILSON: Thanks, Dan.

7 Chris, would you like to add anything to8 that?

6

MR. CONLON: Yeah, I guess the one thing I 9 would add on top of that, yeah, I'm clearly, I think, 10 in the camp that I'm not -- I think we've learned as 11 much as we're going to learn from MHHI. 12 I think it was -- it's useful in the same way that HHI is useful 13 14 as sort of an initial screen to sort of, you know, describe markets, but, you know, in terms of, like, is 15 it -- do I believe we can get a causal link between 16 17 overlapping ownership and prices by regressing things on HHI or MHHI, if only we had the right instrument? 18 19 I'm a little bit skeptical, I think for the same reason that the IO literature, you know, 30 years ago 20 21 sort of stopped running these price concentration regressions. 22

I will say, actually, in the appendix of one of Dan's papers is another measure that actually bothers me a little bit less, and that's his sort of

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like delta-PPI measure. And that looks a lot like 1 what the agencies also do in sort of screening mergers 2 again in sort of a differentiated product world, which 3 4 says if I knew the profit weight and I knew the diversion, the ratio at which people switch to the 5 competing good, well, then, that should give a model 6 of how much common ownership could increase my 7 effective costs, right? And you can think about what 8 9 is common ownership doing. It's raising the opportunity cost of selling my product because now 10 when I raise my price, well, some people are going to 11 switch to your product, and will I care at least 30 12 percent about them or 40 percent about them? 13

14 And I think there might be some ability to sort of push in that direction so that we can bring in 15 things like differentiated products, because I think 16 17 we know most of the markets we care about today actually have differentiation, which I think was maybe 18 19 not true 50 years ago when we were making bars of steel and pulling coal out of the ground and things 20 like that. 21

MR. WILSON: Thank you.
Anyone else? Martin.
MR. SCHMALZ: People might want to look at
the CRCO terms that are in the airlines papers which I

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applied similar to what Chris just mentioned, so it's
 not just based on MHHIs.

If I may, I'll also just clarify once more, my point was not that there's no role of other people on the panel other than those that have done empirical research. All I said is that today's panels and this panel is not reflective of the empirical literature that has been done today. So I'm sorry you feel this way, but this was not the intended criticism.

10

MR. WILSON: Thanks.

So before we leave the issue of measuring 11 common ownership, I want to kind of keep us focused a 12 13 little bit, particularly given that I've received a question that seems related, about dealing with the 14 endogeneity of ownership itself. Is there some way 15 that we can be concretely confident that we are 16 17 accurately accounting for the selection into owning different stocks and the validity with which different 18 19 papers may have addressed that question?

20 MS. ROSE: Could I kick that off, because I 21 don't have a particular empirical ax in this, but my 22 suspicion is, and this is based a little bit on 23 looking at some of the profit weights or common 24 ownership rates and some of the just broad literature 25 on pairwise common ownership measures, say of

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companies, is that to some extent, what we're learning with common ownership is almost an indicator that says these are both big, national or global companies, right?

5 It's not purely that, but to some extent, 6 what it's picking up is, for instance, a lot is 7 driven, say, by S&P index funds, right? So if you're 8 in the S&P 500, your degree of common ownership is 9 very high. If you're way far out of the S&P 500, then 10 your degree of common ownership with another firm is 11 likely to be quite low.

And, so, one of the things that I think --12 it's not an endogeneity in the way we usually think 13 about it. It's more an omitted variable or a 14 heterogeneity. But that goes back to my airline 15 example, it was chosen for that particular point, 16 17 which is, you know, Delta, American, United, Southwest are all the big guys and we might think have more 18 19 common interests in softening competition among them, maybe common business strategies, much less so with 20 the smaller guys. And I think what we need to 21 struggle with is how can we find variation in common 22 ownership that isn't driven by that. 23

It's one of the things I like in the cerealapplication because Chris has found with his

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coauthors, have found a setting where you've got some
 variation in common ownership not being driven by kind
 of firm size.

MR. WILSON: Sure.

So to speak from a finance 5 MR. SCHMALZ: researcher perspective, basically all equilibrium 6 7 models in finance we have just say all shareholders should be perfectly diversified. The only reason why 8 you wouldn't do that is in order to have an increased 9 influence on your portfolio firms. And there are some 10 literature on -- in the VC space that deals with this 11 that you might want to reduce the breadth of your 12 portfolio to have a greater impact on your firms. 13 But 14 other than that, we don't have much at all.

For sure, we don't have a well-accepted 15 model that spells out the endogeneity of ownership, 16 17 product prices, asset prices, voting behavior, and I don't know what. You know, all the others that have 18 19 been mentioned today is open issues. Yes, they are But if you wait until that model has 20 open issues. been written, that could be 250 years or so then. 21 So that's a sure -- you know, and then just estimate that 22 model in a beautiful IO way. So that's just not going 23 24 to happen.

25

4

So if one wants to make any progress on this

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issue, we have to accept some limitations of the
 models that they make and so the endogeneity of
 ownership is certainly one where we don't have much
 theoretical guidance at all.

MR. WILSON: Okay, thanks. Dan?

5

6

7 Yeah, I mean, I was just going MR. O'BRIEN: to -- you know, we had to tackle that a little bit in 8 our structural model as well, and, I mean, ideally, 9 you know, a big model would have a structural model of 10 the airline industry or whatever industry you're 11 studying and also, you know, you would model the 12 investment process itself. Nobody's developed that 13 14 model at the level of being able to empirically test, so -- but you can think about instrumental variables, 15 right, that capture, you know, the extent of ownership 16 17 in a -- in a company. And so -- that capture the extent of common ownership. 18

So that's what we tried to do using the
BlackRock/Barclays merger as Martin did and also the
Russell stock indices as instruments.

22 MR. CONLON: Yeah, so, in the cereal 23 industry, I think what was nice about our set -- the 24 reason we chose it was that Kelloggs is dominated by a 25 large family foundation, so they're the largest

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shareholder. And, so, you can basically see they
 don't care so much about the profits of other players.

Post, the fourth largest -- third or fourth largest firm, starts out as part of Philip Morris, gets spun off by Philip Morris, sort of goes and gets IPO'd, and so it's bouncing in and out of various indices. And, so, you see huge spikes, both up and down, in sort of the weight that they put on the other firms in the market.

10 The other firm that's sort of interesting is 11 that Quaker Oats is a division of Pepsi, and Pepsi has 12 this massive retail share. It's like what retail 13 investors invest in, they invest in stuff like Pepsi.

14 And, so, they often put a weight of more than 100 percent on sort of their -- what should be 15 their competitors' profits. And I think that's in 16 17 part what led us to choose this, was that we got a lot of variation in common ownership because when we 18 19 looked at sort of the macro evidence, those plots I showed before, what we kind of showed was, like, these 20 profit weights were going up over time and they were 21 kind of just going up, up, up, and it seemed to mostly 22 be driven by indexing. 23

24 We might worry that indexing isn't, you 25 know, endogenous in the sense that people aren't

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buying -- you know, investing in Fidelity and BlackRock because, you know, these firms are colluding in the product market. But I think our fear was that we didn't want to just pick up a positive increasing trend, and so we wanted stuff that was sort of moving both up and down over time. And so that's why we chose cereal in the first place.

So kind of to emphasize this 8 MR. GRUNDL: point, I think it's useful, though, with industries 9 where some of the firms are not actually listed on the 10 stock market. So, for example, in banks there are 11 about 5,000 banks in this country not publicly traded 12 that did not experience an increase in common 13 ownership over the last, you know, 20 or 30 years. 14 Their traded competitors did. 15

16 Theory predicts that these traded 17 competitors, they pulled their competitive punches, 18 and the privately owned banks, they should benefit 19 from that. So that's a prediction of the theory that 20 can be tested at this kind of broad level if you have 21 competitors that are not on the stock market.

MR. WILSON: Thank you.

Martin.

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24 MR. SCHMALZ: So just to continue this 25 conversation, I'm skeptical. So it's nice to have

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this variation. It's nice to have the variation from private actors, but, then again, we have no idea what the objectives are. So a private firm shareholder might maximize all kinds of things, including the private benefits of running a firm or being able to expense stuff on his business account.

7 So it's nice to have that variation, but it raises new issues at the same time. 8 My favorite example of that is always I think there's some 9 anecdotal evidence that large shareholders, other than 10 Richard Branson, also tend to stand for competitive 11 strategies. So when I think of a very competitive, 12 say, car company, I think of Tesla, and Elon Musk 13 14 holds a huge stake in it, and then people tell me, oh, yeah, but that's because he's crazy. So maybe the 15 same reason he holds this large stake is the reason 16 17 for the competitive strategy and it has nothing to do with competitive incentives. 18

19 So all that is just to illustrate, 20 beautiful, here we have lots of variation, but it 21 doesn't really solve the question of answering the 22 question of what the endogeneity is at cost variation 23 in the first place. So that brings me just back to 24 the point that we don't have good models of that, and 25 that's why, for the moment, finding shocks that are

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plausible -- plausibly exogenous to the product market
 is the best thing we can do.

MR. WILSON: Okay. Keeping the focus on kind of heterogeneity and diversity, I want to kind of turn to an issue that has come up I think already today a bit, which is that some owners are different than others and the potential implications that may have for appropriate empirical framing.

9 And, Serafin, do you want to start us off on 10 that?

MR. GRUNDL: Yes. I think this is a really 11 important issue, and that's probably why it came up so 12 So for the most part, we treat, you know, Jeff 13 often. 14 Bezos and Vanguard and Berkshire Hathaway and the Swiss Central Bank and maybe the Norwegian Sovereign 15 Wealth Fund, you know, all the same way in these 16 17 common ownership studies. Martin just mentioned that they started to work on this a little bit. We, in our 18 19 latest paper, try also to differentiate between different kinds of shareholders and have good reasons 20 to believe that different kinds of shareholders have 21 both different incentives and different means by which 22 they can affect firm management. 23

24 So, for example, the distinction between 25 asset managers and investors who invest their own

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1 money could be important, could not, but it's an 2 empirical question. The distinction between actively 3 managed or asset managers that mostly have funds that 4 actively -- you know, are actively managed as opposed 5 to asset managers of most VF funds that are passively 6 managed could be irrelevant.

7 And perhaps one, you know, thing that I 8 would like to stress in this context is that this 9 matters no matter what your preferred candidate 10 mechanism is. So if you think that your candidate 11 mechanism involves the common owners to influence the 12 managements of the firms that they commonly own, then 13 does heterogeneity among shareholders matter?

But if you kind of, you know, flip the 14 burden of proof, as I think Martin wants to do and 15 say, well, the default state of the world is that 16 17 managers, you know, they don't want to compete and someone has to push them or incentivize them to 18 19 compete, then it also matters if these shareholders are different, then it matters in their role as, you 20 know, large undiversified shareholders that could 21 potentially push for more competition. 22

23 So either way, I think shareholder 24 heterogeneity is important and at least in principle 25 it can be investigated empirically.

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MR. WILSON: Thanks.

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Martin, do you want to pick up from there? 2 3 MR. SCHMALZ: Nope. 4 MR. WILSON: That's totally fair. Chris? 5 MR. CONLON: Sure. So I'll say we actually 6 7 tried to do this. We tried to get data on who was active and who was passive. It's very hard. You 8 know, even like for a large firm, like Fidelity, like 9 is Fidelity -- do they have some actively managed 10 funds, they have some, you know, clearly just low-cost 11 index funds, and so there is some within the finance 12 literature, there is some kind of agreement, I think 13 14 that Brian Bushee put together on sort of who's active and who's passive. 15

You know, the list looks okay, but it 16 wouldn't look super convincing, at least not the parts 17 that we were able to match up. So, yeah, I think -- I 18 19 mean, I think, like, as long as you don't put -- I think what we found, like, it was pretty robust to --20 at least in aggregate, it was pretty robust to how 21 much weight we put on different people. And, so, the 22 massive driver in aggregate seems to be the move 23 towards indexing. And, so, unless you put, like, all 24 your weight on these really concentrated active folks, 25

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I think you're going to find at least in the long run
 that these weights have been going up.

Now, whether or not these weights are translating to anything in the product market I'm not willing to say, but, yeah, that's about what we found.

MR. SCHMALZ: So I didn't say this because 6 7 it's obvious in the literature but not -- perhaps not This active/passive distinction 8 in all literatures. 9 is difficult also because you have fund families that host both active and passive funds. So Fidelity, one 10 example; BlackRock another. Vanguard is probably the 11 most passive one of them all. But the empirical fact 12 seems to be that in most cases, all of the funds get 13 14 voted together and that the engagement and stewardship 15 happens.

I see the people who have actually studied 16 17 voting nodding here. So there are exceptions from that rule, and it seems to be that the predominantly 18 19 passive asset managers tend to be those that tend to vote all the shares together more so than others, but, 20 you know, to which extent -- where we're going to draw 21 the line between calling that an actively managed one 22 23 and not.

Another one is like a crook of the finance literature. How many indexes do we have now? The

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answer is 3.7 million, okay? So we have 3.7 million 1 indexes, and anything that tracks an index is 2 considered a passive fund, like the ETF nowadays are 3 4 out there is, like, on South American timber or whatever, or the Jets ETF. Now, that has very little 5 to do with diversified investment as, you know, we 6 7 talked about democratizing investment for the American But it counts as a passive fund, but it's 8 consumer. 9 ridiculous because literally the 70th percentile of indexes is used by only one fund. 10 In other words, that's as active as it ever gets. So these statistics 11 are which fraction of an asset manager are actively 12 13 managed versus passive. You have to take them with lots of grains of salt, and this classification is, 14 therefore, very difficult and perhaps also just not 15 even useful, given that voting happens in a 16 17 centralized way.

Thanks. One quick followup on 18 MR. WILSON: 19 that from me, which is that it seems like there is wide agreement that there is diversity here. 20 The extent to which that diversity may or may not manifest 21 itself in different behavior in terms of common 22 ownership is a bit in question. But is there any 23 24 sense in which we could -- we can sign or come up with a reasonable theoretical hypothesis about the effect 25

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1 that mismeasuring these things may have on the 2 estimated relationship between common ownership and 3 various product market outcomes?

MR. SCHMALZ: The obvious first answer is if it's measurement -- pure measurement error, you get an attenuation of the coefficients, so in order to get a false positive coefficient, you have to cook up a story of why there's an endogeneity here that goes this way, and I'm not aware of one.

MR. CONLON: Do you want me to cook one up? 10 This is like -- I quess this is my specialty, I don't 11 know. No, I would say, like, I think the -- I mean, I 12 think there are cases where we see in the data where 13 14 when you look broadly, you see cases where the set of investors really changes around certain events. 15 And a lot of -- there is some randomness about, like, we 16 17 only see these investor holdings once a quarter.

And, so, like, when are investor holdings 18 19 kind of the weirdest? They're the weirdest usually around a big corporate event, so like takeovers and 20 bankruptcies and stuff like that where the set of --21 you know, you see all of a sudden these large hedge 22 funds coming in, playing some merger arm strategy or 23 24 they're buying distressed firms or all of a sudden, you know, on the reporting day it happens that all the 25

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former debt holders are now the equity holders because
 the previous equity holders got wiped out.

And, so, like, I don't know, when we looked 3 4 at all the data across all 500 firms in the S&P 500, like almost every time we found something that looked 5 super weird, it was around one of these financial 6 7 events. So, you know, if something goes up -- if the weight goes up to like 1,000, you know, or down to 8 zero, you know, that could be all the variation in 9 your data. And, so, these outliers, you know, screwed 10 stuff up for us when we looked with the broad index. 11

MR. WILSON: Thank you.

12

All right, moving on to another topic kind 13 14 of themed around a question received from the audience. So there's, I think, pretty clear 15 disagreement on the panel about the relevant merits of 16 17 different approaches and certainly the lay of the evidence on the ground. But if we set the past aside 18 19 and we look prospectively towards the future, are there approaches that academics or policymakers or 20 anyone interested in this issue could adopt that would 21 be at least reasonably acceptable or be taken 22 seriously by all panelists? 23

24 Dan, do you want to start us off on the 25 research design?

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Okay. I think the three MR. O'BRIEN: 1 warning signs that I put in my earlier talk play 2 into the research design question for trying to 3 4 answer the question about the effects of common ownership by institutional investors, okay? And two 5 of the signs -- two of the warning signs are, you 6 7 know, institutional investors are investing, you know, in a broad set of industries. And the existing 8 9 empirical work is not paying any attention to that as far as I can tell, or not much. 10

Okay, so the industries involve -- so the 11 investments involve companies that are substitutes for 12 each other and compete and companies that are 13 vertically related, okay, and companies that are 14 independent and maybe they're related for other 15 reasons besides traditional complementarities or 16 substitutabilities. And if you're going to apply a 17 theoretical framework to motivate your empirical 18 19 analysis, you have to take that into account.

20 So this is not so much a research design 21 point as it is, you know, there's a real need if you 22 want to apply this to the institutional investor 23 problem, to write down the right objective where, you 24 know, you're modeling, you know, what's actually 25 motivating the investment.

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And then the second point I would say, and 1 again, I hate to sound unrealistic, this is more a 2 call for research, it's that, you know, what are 3 4 institutional investors really interested in in exerting whatever influence they might exert over 5 managers of companies. You know, is it maximizing 6 7 shareholder value across one industry as assumed by the theory -- as the theory's applied to the empirical 8 work that got us here, or is it, you know, something 9 else that involves competition with, you know, other 10 institutional investors and that whole competitive 11 What that means for ways in which influence 12 process. is exerted, I think that's just kind of an open 13 14 question.

15 My opinion is that, you know, that model, which has been used to motivate a key explanatory 16 17 variable, holding aside the issues with that explanatory variable, doesn't really apply to the 18 19 institutional investing problem because of these big problems of asset managers having incentives that I'm 20 not sure we understand and the fact that what I called 21 the relevant common ownership group should include all 22 interrelated entities and it should model -- okay, the 23 24 MHHI is the wrong index, is another way to put it if 25 you're not accounting for all the interrelationships.

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1 MR. WILSON: Okay, thanks.

Chris.

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Yeah, okay, I want to sort MR. CONLON: 3 4 of -- yeah, I'm going to propose two additional things we could look for in the data to find evidence that I 5 don't think anybody has done yet. So one is, look, if 6 7 we're already sort of quasi-cooperating, that is, if I'm already putting the weight of a half on your 8 profits, well, then, we should systematically 9 overpredict the price effects of mergers that we see, 10 right? Because once we merge, the most weight I'm 11 going to put on your profit is 100 percent. 12

13 So if I'm already putting 40, 50, 60 percent 14 weight on your profit, now, a merger is actually going 15 to raise prices by less than we would expect, right? 16 Now, that presents other issues for the FTC about how 17 they should, you know, think about mergers in this 18 world, but I'm not going get into that.

And I think the other sort of implication from the theory, if you take the theory seriously, is that there could be these wild asymmetries in the weight that I put on your profit, versus the weight that you put on my profit. And I think we should be able to see -- we kind of miss those when we mush everything together in this MHHI, but if we see those

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in the data, you know, we should be able to go looking 1 for stuff that looks like that, where one firm is just 2 very generous to this other firm, while the other firm 3 4 just really doesn't care and is competing pretty hard. MR. WILSON: Thanks. 5 Can I add one thing? MR. O'BRIEN: 6 7 MR. WILSON: Sure. Just one thing. So I talked 8 MR. O'BRIEN: 9 about the institutional investing context and trying to do empirical work there. I think there are 10 examples, which I don't have at the front of my head, 11 but there are examples in antitrust where you have 12 large investors that are taking positions -- you know, 13 the Richard Bransons of the world, the 14 noninstitutional investors where you have large 15 investors taking positions in multiple companies where 16 17 the theoretical framework that people have in mind actually applies quite well, and it would be very 18 19 useful to study the impact of transactions that involve, you know, changes in common ownership that 20 comes through those large investors or a few large 21 investors as opposed to institutional investors that 22 are investing across entire industries. 23

24 MR. SCHMALZ: Where do you see Berkshire 25 Hathaway in that space?

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I'd have to study exactly what 1 MR. O'BRIEN: Berkshire Hathaway's holdings are because it's pretty 2 broad. And so I'm -- across a lot of industries. 3 4 MR. SCHMALZ: It's pretty concentrated in airlines and banks. 5 Okay, so it might work is what MR. O'BRIEN: 6 But, you know, if it's airlines and 7 I would say. banks, is it airline suppliers and airlines buyers and 8 9 is it bank suppliers and so on? I mean, you need the right group to study this, right? Or is it primarily 10 focused on one industry? And if it's one industry, 11 then I think the framework applies guite well. 12 So let me respond to that. 13 MR. SCHMALZ: Is 14 it fair to call you predominantly a theorist? MR. O'BRIEN: I am predominantly a theorist, 15 16 yes. 17 MR. SCHMALZ: Okay. So here's the thing. Ι sympathize with all that. The entire day we've heard 18 19 speculation, mainly theoretical considerations of all the things that the existing models and measures don't 20 The question is how far you want to drive 21 capture. And if you want to wait until we have a theory 22 this. of partial vertical common ownership, we have the 23 world authority sitting in the audience, Yossi Spiegel 24 here, and who has tried for decades to try to do this, 25

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right, and doesn't, you know, manage to resolve all
 these issues we're bringing up here.

In addition, you want to know what precisely 3 4 quides a firm's objective. Oliver Hart, a Nobel Laureate, tried this for a few decades and hasn't come 5 up with anything better than saying it's not going to 6 7 be maximizing own-firm profits and all on your own. And, in fact, we have, you know, Arrow's impossibility 8 theorems that tell us, you know, it's not so clear 9 that there even exists such a thing as a firm 10 objective. They want that, you want vertical -- a 11 vertical theory. In addition, you want to endogenize 12 13 the asset manager's incentive problems, and this is 14 just a theory.

15 And next, how am I going to apply this vertical theory to the actual data, right? So I would 16 17 need which fraction of the sales of, like, this bank goes in terms of bank loans to an airline to figure 18 19 out if the Berkshire Hathaway common ownership in this vertical relationship matters or not. Where am I 20 going to get this data from? It doesn't exist. 21 Ι don't think anybody collects this. So I think what we 22 have to be a little careful about in this debate is 23 24 also to only ask questions or put this as like roadblocks in the way of the literature that can 25

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actually be answered and that have not been proven to 1 be unanswerable, like literally in some cases for 2 decades, and just say, oh, but there's these 3 4 unresolved questions, and the number of sunshine hours is not in the models either. 5 MR. O'BRIEN: A real quick response, Martin. 6 7 I'm not asking for a theory of everything; I'm asking for an empirical methodology, you know, that's 8 defensible and robust and valid and has an 9 interpretation. 10 Very good. 11 MR. SCHMALZ: 12 MR. O'BRIEN: Yeah. And I would just echo that. 13 MS. ROSE: Ι 14 think it's not fair to say -- you've got a theory that says that these asset managers are performing very 15 complex analyses to decide what their portfolio 16 company should be doing to maximize the value of their 17 portfolios. And either -- or maybe even more heroic, 18 the portfolio companies are figuring out what the

19 the portfolio companies are figuring out what the 20 various owners must be doing in terms of -- or want 21 them to do in terms of maximizing these complex 22 portfolios.

And I understand to say, well, that's really hard. But then where do you draw the boundaries? And you've drawn them, you know, siloed within an

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industry, and I'm just not sure that there's any
 defensible argument to say that comes from the theory;
 it doesn't. It's informing on the empirical
 motivations or the underlying incentives because it
 doesn't.

And, so, I do think one of the -- and then to say, well, you know, cereals, Chris did, it doesn't show -- that's just one example, but I think the theory says it should show up everywhere where there are incentives.

And, so, I struggle with this because I 11 think if we really believe that common owners, that 12 13 asset management companies are behaving in this way or 14 their portfolio companies are interpreting this set of incentives and responding to them, it should be 15 ubiquitous and we should be able to find places where 16 17 there is variation that would, like the cereals variation, distinguish between these are similar, 18 19 large companies in this market and some small ones over here that are dissimilar. We should be able to 20 look for places where we see what the theory predicts, 21 and the theory is richer than the tests have been so 22 far. 23

24 MR. SCHMALZ: So that's not the theory. I 25 think I've been very clear about this during the day.

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1 The theory is not that anybody sits there and is a 2 puppet master. I'm not going to repeat all the points 3 I made this afternoon, but that was a 4 misrepresentation of what the theory is.

5 MR. WILSON: Okay, Serafin, do you want to 6 chime in? Fair enough.

All right, we are winding down, and so I want to get to more of the questions from the audience. And the first I want to tee up I think is going to be extremely narrow insofar as it is directed entirely to Serafin.

12 The Federal Reserve enters into passivity 13 agreements that limit voting by large asset managers. 14 How does your banking paper adjust voting rights?

MR. GRUNDL: So we don't adjust voting rights in our paper. What the Fed does in general is something I can't comment on here.

18 MR. WILSON: Okay. And to be honest, I 19 overlooked the fact that Martin was also an author of 20 banking papers. Do you adjust the issue of voting 21 rights?

22 MR. SCHMALZ: So I'm not perfectly 23 understanding the question. Is the question about the 24 10 percent limit the Fed imposes on asset managers, 25 like the reason Warren Buffett can't hold more than 10

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percent in Wells Fargo? Is that the -- I'm not sure 1 precisely -- what precisely the question is. 2 3 AUDIENCE MEMBER: May I clarify the 4 question? 5 MR. WILSON: Yes. The Federal Reserve AUDIENCE MEMBER: 6 7 requires that asset managers do not vote (off 8 microphone). 9 MR. SCHMALZ: Mm-hmm. 10 AUDIENCE MEMBER: So you've got a banking paper that is predicated on (off microphone). How do 11 you adjust for that? 12 13 MR. SCHMALZ: So that's not adjusted at all. 14 AUDIENCE MEMBER: So the paper really is based on (off microphone). 15 MR. SCHMALZ: No, the paper is based on a 16 17 model that is imperfect. It's based on data that's imperfect. The question is if any of these 18 19 imperfections matter for the conclusions, and I don't think we have evidence of that. If you're willing to 20 supply better voting data as the one you mentioned and 21 better than the regulatory filings, that would be very 22 useful to the research community. 23 24 MR. WILSON: Thanks. So this one is directed to Martin and Dan. Professor Schmalz has 25

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suggested that some of the criticism and responses to his original airline paper actually confirm those original paper's findings. And I guess the question is about does Dan agree that his paper confirms Martin's original findings?

6 MR. O'BRIEN: Yeah, so I agree that when we 7 run a regression, that's the same regression as 8 Martin, José, and Isabel's regression. We get the 9 same answer or pretty close, and the reason we did 10 that was to try to see if we had the same data set, 11 because if it's identical, we should get the same 12 thing.

So, now, we did not replicate -- I do not agree that our analysis confirms their results at all. The whole point of the paper was to say we don't think this is the right methodology, and we adopted two other methodologies that yield different answers. They both yield the answer that common ownership did not raise airfares.

20 MR. SCHMALZ: So the only -- I agree the 21 only thing this proves is probably our results were 22 not driven by a coding error, or we made the same one 23 or one with a similar effect.

24MR. O'BRIEN: I agree with that.25MR. SCHMALZ: And any particular way in

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shareholder's voting rights versus another is not going to lead to the particular empirical results we have. Differences in interpretation of these results are completely -- I didn't mean to suggest that we agree on that part.

which you'd treat one particular individual

MR. O'BRIEN: Yeah, so, Einer had a slide
up, too, that said we've confirmed their results.
That's just really an interesting observation.

MR. WILSON: Thanks. So I think moving on 10 to quite a different point, which is that vast 11 majority of the literature that Martin has summarized 12 has focused on listed U.S. actors. To what extent do 13 14 we think that there is scope for extending to consider I guess non-U.S. data to see if this hypothesis holds 15 in other sectors and areas? 16

17 MR. SCHMALZ: Sorry, it's a question to me? It's difficult to find ownership data and 18 19 product market data in general. Scandinavian countries have good data, and then it relatively --20 stops relatively quickly. So this call to action also 21 goes to competition authorities elsewhere to try and 22 make ownership data more accessible. In many cases, 23 24 they simply don't know who owns the firms they're regulating, okay, so they can't even study these 25

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questions. And for researchers, it's equally hard. 1 Just a factual followup 2 MR. WILSON: question for me. So the Scandinavian ownership data, 3 4 is that relatively easily accessible to researchers? There, you can match the 5 MR. SCHMALZ: ownership of a firm with the personal records of the 6 7 So it's pretty good in many cases. owner. 8 MR. WILSON: That does seem pretty good. 9 MR. CONLON: As a counterexample, you know, my favorite industry is chocolate confections. And. 10 so Hershey is publicly trade and Mondelez is publicly 11 traded on U.S. exchanges. Mars, the largest seller in 12 the U.S., is the third or fourth largest privately 13 held firm in the United States. You know, the family 14 mostly owns them, but the other firm is Nestle, which 15 is a Swiss firm. And it's been quite clear to me I'm 16 17 never going to get the data who owns Nestle stock. Or with other stocks the MR. SCHMALZ: 18 19 Kelloggs Foundation owns, right? So this is just extremely scant in terms of data. 20 Thanks. We are winding down. 21 MR. WILSON: I guess let's go for a lightning round of roughly one-22 minute closing statements from the panel. Maybe let's 23 start with Nancy and work backwards. 24 25 MS. ROSE: Sure. So I'd like to make two

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points about airlines that I think haven't been 1 So one was we've heard that we need the 2 flagged. enforcers to be investigating this. I would like to 3 4 point out that in 2015, the Washington Post reported on a Department of Justice investigation of potential 5 capacity discipline and coordination among airlines. 6 7 The Post writes, "U.S. Airlines received a letter Tuesday demanding copies of all communications between 8 carriers, their shareholders, and investment analysts 9 about their plans for limiting seat capacity." 10

In January of 2017, the national press 11 reported that that investigation did not seem to have 12 I can't comment on it because I was at 13 gone anywhere. the DOJ during that period, but those are two public 14 statements that you might just put into your fodder 15 about the likelihood that demanding all communications 16 between companies and their investors will shed a lot 17 of light on this phenomenon. That's all I have to say 18 19 about that aspect.

And the other I would say with respect to airlines, another interesting episode for you to perhaps take home with you and look at, Martin mentioned that that airline continues to have extraordinarily high levels of common ownership. I would invite you to look at what's happened with

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1 United Airline between 2016 and the middle of 2018 2 when United deviated from its previous low-capacity 3 growth rates that were common across the industry.

4 They had a couple of relatively small investors, one of which owned a number of other 5 airlines, one of which only owned United, who pushed a 6 7 proxy fight, ended up with a board seat. United grew much faster. It tanked a lot of the other airline 8 industry stocks in early 2018, I think it was, when 9 they announced they were going to pursue this --10 continue to pursue this growth strategy, but it raised 11 United's fares. 12

And I think this is just an example if there's a profitable deviation, if you can raise your company's market value, companies are tempted to take it, and the common owners didn't seem to block.

MR. WILSON: Thank you.

Chris.

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All right, I've said most of 19 MR. CONLON: what I want to say, so I'm just going to do a quick 20 In five weeks, Matt, my coauthor, and Mike 21 pluq. Sinkinson and I are going to be at Brookings unveiling 22 one of our three common ownership papers. So I think 23 24 it's going to be -- I think they told us the 16th or the 17th of January. So if you're in D.C. and you 25

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want to hear more debates and discussions about common 1 ownership, hopefully we'll see you there. 2 MR. WILSON: Many thanks, Chris. 3 4 Martin. I just want to say that I have 5 MR. SCHMALZ: no stakes or strong opinions about which particular 6 7 approach should be taken going forward in this There are many great minds who are 8 literature. 9 thinking about this question. 10 What I do want people to walk away with is that just assuming, without evidence, that if two 11 firms' shareholder base overlaps by 100 percent, that, 12 therefore, they are completely independent, that this 13 14 is just not something that is backed by either theory nor the existing empirical evidence. So declaring 15 this a nonissue and an issue that regulators and 16 17 researchers shouldn't study strikes me as absurd. MR. WILSON: 18 Thank you. 19 Dan. Yeah, so, I'll say, so this is MR. O'BRIEN: 20 all really interesting to me, having participated in 21 work on the theory years ago, and I think it's really, 22 you know, great that Martin and his coauthors kind of 23 24 took that and said what can we do with this and did a

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bunch of empirical work, and that's great.

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I think it's true that we don't have 1 evidence today that with respect to institutional 2 investors there's a problem with common ownership. 3 4 I do think there are -- we all agree that, you know, some degree of common ownership could have 5 anticompetitive effects. And I think that's probably 6 quite testable in contexts that are simpler than the 7 institutional investor context and that I look forward 8 to more research that, you know, tells me whether or 9 not that model makes any sense. 10

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MR. WILSON: Thank you.

Serafin.

Yeah, so perhaps a few words 13 MR. GRUNDL: about what I think the academic debate can deliver and 14 what it cannot deliver. So I think we can maybe reach 15 conclusions about what different methods, how the 16 17 results of different methods ought to be interpreted, and there are going to be isolated empirical results 18 19 for certain industries, but if you want to kind of settle the empirical matter, it cannot come out of the 20 academic literature, it has to be institutions, say at 21 like the FTC, that collects data from many industries 22 to kind of give a comprehensive view of whether there 23 24 is an effect and, if yes, how big it is.

25 MR. WILSON: Thank you. And with that, I'm

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1	afraid the panel must come to a close. I thank you
2	all for your attention and for sticking around for
3	discussion.
4	(Applause.)
5	(Hearing concluded.)
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CERTIFICATE OF REPORTER

I, Rick Sanborn, do hereby certify that the foregoing proceedings were digitally recorded by me and reduced to typewriting under my supervision; that I am neither counsel for, related to, nor employed by any of the parties to the action in which these proceedings were transcribed; that I am not a relative or employee of any attorney or counsel employed by the parties hereto, not financially or otherwise interested in the outcome in the action. 15 RICK SANBORN, CER 16 Court Reporter 17 18 19 20 21 22 23 24 25