Abuse of Dominance Involving Intellectual Property

The First International Seminar on Intellectual Property, Standards, and Anti-Monopoly Law

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Outline of presentation

- 1. Background principles of IP and antitrust laws in United States
- 2. Defining a relevant market when IP is involved
- Evaluating unilateral conduct involving IP

1. Background principles of IP and antitrust laws in United States

- Three propositions about U.S. law regarding antitrust and IP:
 - 1. A company is generally free to choose with whom it will deal.
 - 2. The same antitrust rules apply to conduct involving IP as apply to other conduct.
 - 3. Patents do not necessarily confer market power.

Proposition 1: A company is generally free to choose with whom it will deal

• Long-standing rule in United States.

Proposition 2: The same antitrust rules apply to conduct involving IP as apply to other conduct

- Recognized in:
 - 1995 FTC/DOJ Guidelines for Licensing Intellectual Property
 - 2007 FTC/DOJ Report on Intellectual Property Rights
- Antitrust law is flexible and can account for the special characteristics of IP.

- Intellectual property laws provide incentives for innovation by establishing enforceable property rights that:
 - allow intellectual property owners to appropriate value derived from their intellectual property;
 - facilitate the commercialization of inventions and ideas;
 - encourage public disclosure.

- Competition promotes innovation by preserving incentives for firms to engage in innovation and research and development in order to:
 - be the first to enter a market.
 - -increase market share.

- There is common ground between the goals of antitrust law and of intellectual property law.
 - IP laws grant the right to exclude others from an invention or creative expression.
 - Antitrust law disfavors exclusionary conduct that undermines competition on the merits, but it respects property rights.
- Ultimate goals of both laws are the same: promoting innovation and competition.

Proposition 3: The possession of a patent does not necessarily create market power

• Recognized in FTC and DOJ reports on IP and Supreme Court cases.

2. Defining a relevant market when IP is involved

- A patent allows its holder to exclude others only from making, using, or selling a specific product or process.
- However, there are often alternatives, sometimes many, to that patented product or process.
 - In the United States, numerous patents have issued for products such as toothbrushes and paperclips.

- The existence of alternatives means that possession of a patent does not necessarily create market power.
- Recognized in:
 - 1995 FTC/DOJ Guidelines for Licensing Intellectual Property
 - 2007 FTC/DOJ Report on Intellectual Property Rights
 - Illinois Tool Works, Inc. v. Independent Ink, Inc., 547 U.S. 28 (2006)

- What is a relevant market?
 - That group of products that significantly constrain each other's pricing, when viewed from the perspective of both consumers and producers.

- General approach: determine a product market for products involving the IP and possible substitute products using alternative IP (or no IP at all).
 - Consider a patent on a touch screen for a tablet computer
 - Other tablet computers may offer a touch screen using technology that does not infringe this patent.

- Alternative approach: determine a technology market for the type of IP.
 - This approach may be appropriate when the IP is licensed separately and is not incorporated in a product, *e.g.*, a patented manufacturing process.
 - Consider other processes that do not infringe the IP, and whether they are reasonable substitutes.

- To determine a relevant market, the most common approach is to use the "hypothetical monopolist test."
- The test determines whether a "hypothetical monopolist" would impose a "Small but Significant and Non-transitory Increase in Price ("SSNIP") of a product.
- A monopolist would impose this price increase if it would be profitable.
 - Would consumers switch to other products in sufficient numbers so that the monopolist would lose enough sales to reduce its profits?

• Defining markets involving IP usually involves products or technologies. Accordingly, the SSNIP test still applies.

- The big challenge of market definition in monopolization cases is the "*Cellophane*" fallacy:
 - If a company has substantial market power, it likely is pricing above the competitive level
 - At that high price level, other products may appear to be reasonable substitutes because they perform a similar function at a similar price.
 - However, if the company's product were priced at a competitive level, then those alternatives would be much more expensive and not reasonable substitutes.
 - Error made by U.S. Supreme Court in United States v. E.I. du Pont de Nemours & Co, 351 U.S. 377 (1956), in case involving du Pont's "Cellophane" product (clear plastic wrapping).

3. Evaluating unilateral conduct involving IP

- In the United States, monopolization is illegal when a firm:
 - Willfully acquires or maintains market power in a relevant market, and does so by means other than:
 - Superior product
 - Superior business acumen
 - Superior service
 - Good luck, or similar factors
- The mere existence of a monopoly is not illegal. The focus is on the exclusionary nature of conduct.

- In general, any company even a monopoly may choose with whom to deal.
 - United States v. Colgate & Co., 250 U.S. 300 (1919)
 - Verizon Inc. v. Law Offices of Curtis V. Trinko LLP, 540 U.S. 398 (2004)

- In certain circumstances, there may be limits on this freedom for a firm that is dominant.
 - Aspen Highlands Skiing Corp. v. Aspen Skiing Co., 472 U.S. 585 (1985)
 - Refusals to sell a product or service to a competitor that the monopolist makes available to others.
 - Stops doing business with a competitor that the monopolist has done business with before, and no legitimate business reason for the change.
- Such cases are extremely rare.

- Denial of access to an "essential facility" is a related form of conduct.
 - The U.S. Supreme Court has never held that this is a form of conduct that violates the antitrust laws.

- This approach arises from concerns that granting access to such facilities will reduce incentives for investment and innovation
 - Also concerns about having to set the terms of access if a violation is found.

- Tying: Seller conditions sale of one product or service ("tying product") on customer's agreement to buy a second product or service ("tied product) through technology or contract.
- Bundling: Seller typically sells a number of products or services in a package.
- Tying and bundling practices are very common in the economy; terms are sometimes used interchangeably.

- Linking IP with products or other IP can take many forms, for example:
- "Contractual tying": Patented tying good (e.g., copy machine) and unpatented tied good (e.g., ink or paper).
- "Technological tying": Products bundled together physically or produced so as to be compatible only with each other.
- Multiple IP rights may themselves be combined into bundles or packages (e.g., copyrighted music, software programs).

- Many economists believe tying and bundling are likely to be procompetitive given their potential efficiencies, *e.g.*, Evans & Salinger (Yale J. Reg. 2005).
- Documented instances of anticompetitive tying appear to be rare (Salinger, 2006).

- Key possible efficiencies of tying include:
 - Economies of joint sales;
 - Quality assurance (*e.g.*, warranty repairs);
 - Cheating on a cartel (extras in the bundle may serve as a secret price discount);
 - Metering may allow more markets to be served than under single price monopoly.

- Tying may create anticompetitive harms in some circumstances:
 - Tying arrangement can enable monopolist in tying market to reduce demand for rival products in tied market.
 - If there are scale economies in tied product and competitors exit, higher prices may result and product variety falls. However, impact on overall welfare uncertain. (Whinston, 1990).
 - Tying may be used to preserve market position in tying product (Carlton & Waldman, 2002).
 - Tying allows monopolist to capture some profits of maker of complementary good. (Carlton, Gans & Waldman, 2007).

- Although U.S. courts were previously skeptical of tying arrangements, economic learning changed courts' views.
- Today U.S. courts recognize that "many tying arrangements . . . are fully consistent with a free, competitive market." *Illinois Tool Works Inc. v. Independent Ink, Inc.*, 547 U.S. 28 (2006) (Supreme Court) (discussing possible efficiencies of tying).
- In short, courts now focus on case-specific analysis and efficiencies as well as potential anticompetitive effects.

- FTC and Justice Department: "Rule of reason" approach to IP tying and bundling.
- Agencies consider both anticompetitive effects and efficiencies from an IP tie.
- Agencies would challenge if:
 - 1. Seller has market power in tying product;
 - 2. Harm to competition in tied product market; and
 - 3. Efficiencies do not outweigh anticompetitive effects.
- Agencies evaluate package license that constitutes tying under same principles.

- In its 2001 *Microsoft* decision, the U.S. Court of Appeals for D.C. applied "rule of reason" to platform software IP tying.
 - Court reasoned application of per se rule would risk condemning beneficial ties.
- Contains a key idea: Innovation may lead companies to combine two products to make an improved product.
 - Calls for caution in evaluating a new product combining two old products.