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Abstract:

Economics at the Federal Trade Commission (FTC) supports both the competition and consumer protection missions of the agency. In this year's essay we discuss competition activity with a summary of our work on the Google-DoubleClick merger and recent activity on resale price maintenance, an area in which FTC economists had done significant prior research. On the consumer policy front, we discuss our study of ways to improve mortgage disclosures to facilitate consumer shopping and competition. Finally, we discuss our study of the effects of credit scoring on prices paid for auto insurance with a focus on the effects of scores on different racial and ethnic groups.

Keywords: antitrust, consumer protection, credit scores, FTC, insurance, mergers, mortgage disclosures, race and ethnicity, and resale price maintenance.

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1. INTRODUCTION

On the merger front, the dollar volume of general merger and acquisition (M&A) activity fell substantially as the credit crunch of mid-2007 worked its way through private equity markets and into the more mainstream mid-level M&A areas. Still, we reviewed 31 mergers in great depth last year and the agency challenged all or some aspect of 20 of those transactions. That compares with an in-depth review of 55 and 58 mergers in the peak recent review years (1990 and 1995) and challenges or abandonments in 33 and 43 of those instances, respectively.

This past year we also revised BE's organization to reflect more accurately the important role that research and policy R&D plays in our contributions to the missions of the Commission. This reorganization will further enhance our human capital by expanding the set of BE staff that is able to undertake work on agency-related projects that will build skills and knowledge we need for the future.

In connection with that effort, we are hosting our first annual academic-style Industrial Organization conference in November 2008. Our call for papers reaches out to scholars working in a number of applied microeconomic fields that are vital for the FTC's antitrust and consumer policy missions, including dynamic oligopoly, horizontal and vertical mergers, bundling, loyalty discounts, intellectual property, online advertising, information disclosure, and behavioral and experimental economics. Several leading academic economists agreed to serve as our scientific committee and to participate in the conference. This annual conference will facilitate stronger interaction with academic economists and make them more aware of the theoretical and empirical questions that are important in our antitrust and consumer protection missions. In addition to potentially influencing academic research agendas, the conference will permit our economics staff to enhance their own human capital and to stay abreast of recent developments in the field.

2. GOOGLE'S ACQUISITION OF DOUBLECLICK, INC.

In 2007 the FTC investigated, and eventually approved without condition, Google Inc.'s acquisition of DoubleClick, Inc. This transaction attracted an unusual level of attention from third parties, a number of whom participated in high profile public discussions of the competitive merits of the transaction, in which numerous (sometimes conflicting) theories of competitive

harm were proposed.¹ After thoroughly investigating all of the proposed theories of harm, the FTC ultimately concluded that none could justify an enforcement action against the transaction.² Below, we summarize briefly the various theories of competitive harm investigated by the FTC, and discuss why the FTC concluded that the transaction was unlikely to reduce competition in any relevant antitrust market.³

2.1. The Parties and the Products

This transaction involved two firms that participate, in very different ways, in Internet advertising. Google receives most of its Internet advertising revenue from the sale of sponsored “search ads;” it receives a smaller portion from its advertising intermediation business, described in greater detail below. DoubleClick, by contrast, does not sell advertising space; rather, as we will discuss, DoubleClick is an “ad server;” i.e., it sells services complementary to the sale of advertising space.

Generally speaking, virtually all Internet advertising space is sold either directly to advertisers by the website publisher (e.g., CNN.com), or indirectly through online intermediaries. Typically, the “premium” space on a popular website (e.g., ads on the home page for a popular website, such as CNN.com) will be sold directly by the website publisher to an advertiser. “Non-premium” ad space (i.e., space that is less desirable from an advertiser’s perspective, either because of its location on the web page, or because it is on a less popular website), is usually sold through third-party ad intermediaries, who sell the space to advertisers that are unwilling to incur the high cost of premium ad space. These intermediaries consist of “ad networks” and “ad exchanges.” Ad networks and ad exchanges offer similar intermediation services, and differ

¹ For example, in July 2007 the Brookings-AEI Joint Center sponsored a conference entitled “The Economics of Internet Advertising: Implications for the Google-DoubleClick Transaction” http://www.aei.org/eve003tnts/eventID.1539/eve05tnt_detail.asp. Tw

² Several months later, the EU reached a similar conclusion; see European Commission (2008). See also Neven and

designated place on the publisher's web page.⁶ DoubleClick's "Dart for Advertisers" (DFA) is one of the leading ad serving software products for web advertisers.

2.2. Competitive Effects Analysis

The FTC investigated three theories of possible harm from the transaction. First, we examined whether the merger would eliminate actual direct competition between the parties in any relevant

commit to bundling A and B together; e.g., by technologically integrating them such that it is very costly to unbundle them; it is *not* sufficient for the monopolist merely to offer A and B as a bundle if the bundle can be easily unbundled by the firm at a later date; (3) The production of B must be characterized by substantial scale economies (so that in equilibrium, only a few firms will be active, leading potentially to imperfectly competitive pricing; and the prospective loss of sales by independent sellers of B from the bundling of A and B will cause a substantial increase in their unit costs, leading to exit/entry deterrence); (4) A and B should not be strongly complementary; otherwise the standard “one monopoly profit” critique applies (i.e., the monopolist is better off with competition in the complementary market); and (5) The producers of B cannot easily enter the market for A; if they

Last, at the time of the investigation, there were multiple competitors selling both of the products sold by the merged entity. There are now (or soon will be) four large firms offering both ad intermediation and ad serving. Yahoo has an ad network (Yahoo! Publisher Network) and an ad exchange (Right Media Exchange), and recently acquired a behavioral targeting ad network (Blue Lithium). It is also well-placed to enter with a third-party ad server. Microsoft has two ad networks (Microsoft AdCenter and DRIVEpm) and an ad exchange (AdECN). It also owns third-party ad servers (Atlas and Accipitor). AOL owns the leading display ad network (Advertising.com), the leading behavioral targeting ad network (Tacoda), an ad server (AdTech), and a contextual ad network (Quigo), which is a close competitor to AdSense. WPP (one of the largest global advertising and marketing groups) recently acquired an ad server (24/7 Real Media) and an ad network (Global Web Alliance).

In short, there was no significant actual horizontal overlap between the firms, and a search for foreclosure and entry deterrence possibilities did not reveal theories and evidence consistent with such possibilities. The new markets at issue were growing rapidly and evolving in largely unpredictable ways. The rivals were continuously innovating to gain customers and market share. This is surely a world of high tension rivalry, and not one that seemed in either theory or fact to pose a significant antitrust concern.

3. RESALE PRICE MAINTENANCE IS GIVEN NEW LIFE IN *LEEGIN*

For almost a century, the federal courts had imposed a *per se* prohibition under the Sherman Act¹⁰ against resale price maintenance (RPM): the practice in which a manufacturer and its distributor agree on restricting the distributor's resale price for the product. The *per se* rule is supposed to be reserved for conduct that is so frequently anticompetitive (and so infrequently procompetitive) that summary condemnation is appropriate for administrative efficiency reasons. In 2007 the Supreme Court altered this long-standing treatment of RPM in the *Leegin* case, which involved a leather goods manufacturer's (Leegin) termination of a dealer unwilling to

¹⁰ Dr. Miles Med. Co. v. John D. Park & Sons, 220 U.S. 373 (1911).

limit discounting of Leegin's goods.¹¹ The Court cited economic theory and evidence as the rationale for doing so, including studies done in the Bureau of Economics.

By the early 1980s, most economists, including economists at the antitrust agencies, had become increasingly uncomfortable with the *per se* condemnation of RPM. A number of economic theories had developed in which RPM could be used pro-competitively to induce dealer provision of a variety of consumer services before or after the sale, reduce some types of dealer risk, affect the type of dealer willing to sell the product, and enhance dealer marketing efforts, as well as used anti-competitively to support collusive agreements at the manufacturer or dealer levels, or distribute rents within the vertical chain.¹² With such a broad range of potential uses, it is not surprising that RPM can either increase or reduce welfare, with the effects depending on as used anti-com

a protocol for selecting and evaluating past cases, and other academics were contracted to conduct independent reviews of the effects of prohibiting the practices. These case studies were published in Lafferty, Lande, and Kirkwood (1984) and presented a mixed picture of welfare effects.

A second initiative was a comprehensive review and evaluation of the RPM literature at the time by Thomas Overstreet (1983), an FTC economist. He reviewed the history, available economic theory, and range of empirical studies at that point, including studies of the Fair Trade Laws,¹⁵ which allowed states to authorize RPM between 1937 and 1975, despite the federal antitrust laws. This review found that even where allowed, RPM was not usually adopted by firms; but where it was adopted, no single economic theory seemed capable of explaining RPM's use. He also found that efficient uses of RPM did not seem unusual or rare, that RPM was not usually supporting dealer cartels, and that substitutes for RPM might not be as effective in many cases.

A third study in this effort by Pauline Ippolito (1991), another FTC economist, evaluated a large sample of private and government cases that alleged RPM between 1976 and 1982. This study showed that approximately 30 percent of cases involved maximum (rather than minimum) RPM, that collusion appeared to explain few of the minimum RPM cases, and that the special services theory, in which RPM prevents free-riding, was a potential explanation for many, but not all, of the uses of minimum RPM. Other efficiency theories, such as sales- and service-enhancing theories, might also have been consistent with much of the case evidence.

Finally, Ippolito and Overstreet (1996) also conducted a detailed case study of the FTC's RPM case against the Corning Glass Works, which had long used RPM during the Fair Trade era and beyond. The case is of interest because the products sold by Corning were relatively simple products rather than the more complex products usually envisioned in the classic free-riding theory. The evidence suggests little support for classic anticompetitive theories and also

¹⁵ The Miller-Tydings Act, 15 U.S.C.A. XX1 (1937), and the McGuire Act, 66 Stat. 631 15 U.S.C.A. XX45 (1952), authorized the states to enact Fair Trade Laws. These two laws were repealed by the Consumer Goods Pricing Act of 1975, Public Law 94-145, 89 Stat. 801 (1975).

suggests that Corning used RPM to affect the types of dealers willing to carry the products, one of the then-lesser-known efficiency rationales for RPM.

Recent papers by Cooper et al. (2005) and LaFontaine and Slade (2007, 2008) review the existing empirical work on vertical restraints and find that the weight of the evidence for privately adopted vertical restraints clearly favors the efficiency explanations. This evidence is insufficient, however, to persuade all evaluators. As the *Leegin* decision itself shows, many antitrust commentators are quite dubious about RPM's likely efficiency uses and worry about its potential to raise consumer prices and soften competition.¹⁶ The agencies and the courts are looking for ways to structure rule-of-reason inquiries.¹⁷ Additional empirical evidence from market uses of RPM and other vertical restraints would be very useful in informing those efforts.

4. CONSUMER MORTGAGE DISCLOSURE: RESEARCH AND CONFERENCE

For decades, Federal law has required lenders to disclose various costs and mortgage terms to borrowers through the Truth-in-Lending Statement (TILA statement) and Good Faith Estimate of Settlement Costs (GFE).¹⁸ These laws, in part, reflect an understanding that consumer information is an important underpinning of

consumer mortgage choice. The FTC's Bureau of Economics (BE) conducted a study to examine how consumers search for mortgages, how well they understand current mortgage cost disclosures, how well they understand the terms of their own recently obtained loans, and whether better disclosures could improve consumer understanding of mortgage costs, consumer mortgage shopping, and consumer mortgage choice.¹⁹ The two-part study consisted of 36 in-depth interviews with recent mortgage customers and quantitative consumer testing in an experimental setting with over 800 mortgage customers. The potential for improving consumer understanding of mortgage costs was tested using prototype disclosures developed for the study by BE economists.

In the first part of the study, 36 in-depth interviews were conducted with consumers who had obtained a mortgage loan within the previous four months. Approximately half of the participants had obtained their loans from a prime lender and the other half from a subprime lender. The interviews found that many borrowers, both prime and subprime, were confused by disclosures in the current TILA and GFE forms and did not understand key terms. Further, some of the required disclosures actually misled consumers. Many believed, for example, that the "amount financed" disclosed on the TILA statement was their total loan amount, even though this figure is calculated by subtracting finance charges from the loan amount. A number of borrowers also mistakenly believed that the "discount fee" disclosed on the GFE was a discount they had received rather than a fee they had paid. Many borrowers also did not understand important costs and terms of their own recently obtained loans. Many had loans that were significantly more costly than they believed, or that contained significant restrictions, such as prepayment penalties, of which they were unaware. Many of these borrowers did not learn of these costs and terms until at or after the loan settlement, and some appeared to learn this information for the first time during the study interview.

¹⁹ Lacko and Pappalardo (2007). BE economists also conducted an earlier study of mortgage disclosures that focused on mortgage broker compensation disclosures proposed by the Department of Housing and Urban

The second part of the study examined the effectiveness of current and prototype mortgage disclosures using quantitative testing in a controlled experiment with 819 recent mortgage customers in 12 locations across the country. As in the in-depth interviews, about half of the participants had obtained their loans from subprime lenders and half from prime lenders.

Participants were given cost disclosure forms for two hypothetical mortgage loans and asked a series of questions about various costs and terms of the loans. Half of the participants were given current mortgage cost disclosure forms, and half were given a prototype form developed for the study.²⁰ The design of the prototype form was guided by a general financial analysis of the key costs of a mortgage, the types of consumer problems encountered in the FTC's deceptive lending cases, FTC experience designing and evaluating consumer disclosures, and insights gained from the consumer interviews conducted in the first part of the study.²¹

The tests were conducted with two different loan scenarios: one consisting of relatively simple loans, and the other involving more complex loans that included features such as interest-only payments, lack of escrow for taxes and insurance, a large balloon payment, charges for optional credit insurance, and prepayment penalties. The results from 25 and 21 questions in the complex and simple loan scenarios, respectively, were analyzed to assess the ability of participants to understand and use the disclosures.

The quantitative testing confirmed and quantified the shortcomings of current mortgage cost disclosures. The failure of current disclosures effectively to convey key mortgage costs was evident across a wide range of loan terms. Nearly a quarter of the participants using current

²⁰ The current disclosure forms tested consisted of the TILA statement and the GFE form. The GFE form was an enhanced version that included information not required by the current regulations, such as the loan amount, interest rate, cash due at closing, and total settlement charges. Many lenders use a GFE that goes beyond the regulatory requirements. Such a form was used in the tests to reflect more closely the information that many consumers actually receive. Use of an enhanced GFE implies that the test results understate any problems consumers may have with a GFE that merely complies with the regulations.

²¹ The prototype disclosures were developed for fixed-rate loans, including those with interest-only and balloon

disclosures could not correctly identify the amount of settlement charges, about a third could not identify the interest rate, a third did not recognize that the loan included a large balloon payment, a third did not recognize that the loan amount included money borrowed to pay for settlement charges, half could not correctly identify the loan amount, two-thirds did not recognize that they would have to pay a prepayment penalty if they refinanced, three-quarters did not recognize that a substantial charge for optional credit insurance was included in the costs, and nearly nine-tenths could not identify the total amount of up-front charges.

The quantitative testing also demonstrated that consumer mortgage disclosures can be significantly improved. Participants viewing the prototype disclosures answered an average of 80 percent of the loan term questions correctly, compared to an average of 61 percent for participants viewing the current disclosures, an improvement of 19 percentage points. The improvements were evident across a wide range of loan terms. The prototype form produced a 66 percentage point increase in the proportion of participants correctly identifying the total up-front charges in the loan, a 43 percentage point increase in the proportion recognizing that the loan contained charges for optional credit insurance, a 37 percentage point increase in the proportion correctly identifying the amount borrowed, a 24 percentage point increase in the proportion recognizing that a prepayment penalty would be assessed if the loan was refinanced, a 15 percentage point increase in the proportion correctly identifying the amount of settlement charges, and a 12 percentage point increase in the proportion correctly identifying the interest rate.

The results of the study show that the current mandated disclosures fail to convey key costs and terms of a mortgage loan to many consumers. The study also demonstrates that new disclosures could significantly improve consumer understanding of the costs and terms of their loans. The use of improved disclosures holds the promise of aiding consumers in a number of ways. They will be better able to understand the terms and bottom line cost of their loan, better able to comparison shop for the best deal, ensure that loan terms are appropriate to their circumstances, and avoid deceptive lending practices.

The study also illustrates the importance of quantitative consumer testing in the development and evaluation of consumer disclosure policy. Without consumer testing it can be difficult to know whether existing or proposed disclosures effectively convey the desired information to consumers in a way that can be understood and used.

As a follow up to its study, BE economists organized a conference to explore further the role of consumer information in the current mortgage market crisis.²² The conference brought together academics from a wide variety of disciplines, including real estate finance, economics, consumer behavior, and information regulation, to examine how consumer information and information regulation affects consumer choices, outcomes, and welfare in the mortgage market. Panelists discussed changes that have occurred in the types of products offered in the mortgage market over the last decade, the role of information in consumer markets, how information problems may have affected the mortgage market, and strategies for ensuring that any new consumer protection regulations, especially information disclosures, will be designed in ways that provide the greatest possible long-run net benefit to consumers.

5. EFFECTS OF CREDIT SCORING ON AUTO INSURANCE PRICING WITH A FOCUS ON MINORITIES

Over the past decade, insurance companies increasingly have used information about credit history, in the form of credit-based insurance scores, to make decisions regarding whether to offer automobile and homeowners insurance to consumers, and if so, at what price. Credit-based insurance scores, like credit scores, are numerical summaries of consumers' credit histories. Insurance companies do not use credit-based insurance scores to predict prospective customers' payment behavior, such as whether premiums will be paid. Rather, they use scores as a factor when estimating the number or total cost of insurance claims that prospective customers (or

In 2003, Congress enacted the Fair and Accurate Credit Transactions Act (FACTA) to make comprehensive changes to the nation's system of handling consumer credit information. As part of that effort, Congress directed the FTC to conduct an inquiry into the effects of credit-based insurance scores and submit a report to Congress.²³ The FTC was asked to include a description of how these scores are created and used; an assessment of the impact of these scores on the

Many of the policies in the database cover more than one car; the total number of policies in the database was 1.4 million.

We combined the insurance company information with data from a number of other sources. ChoicePoint Attract Standard Auto credit-based insurance scores

with other SSA information, such as place of birth, as well as Census neighborhood demographic information and a Hispanic surname match.²⁷

5.2. Scores and Claims Risk

In assessing the relationship between credit history and claims risk, we analyzed four major types of coverage typically included in automobile policies: property damage liability coverage, bodily injury liability coverage, collision coverage, and comprehensive coverage (coverage against theft, hail, etc.). The dependent variable in the risk models we developed is the total dollars of claims on the relevant coverage per year of coverage.²⁸

The explanatory variables used as controls consisted of a standard set of rating factors that many insurance companies use to underwrite and rate policies, such as: demographic factors (e.g., age, gender, marital status); geographic risk; policy contract characteristics (e.g., coverage limits and deductibles); prior driving history and prior claims; vehicle characteristics (e.g., model year); and years of tenure with the current insurance company. All variables entered the models as indicator variables. The distribution of credit-based insurance scores was divided into deciles, and indicator variables for score deciles were used in the models.

We found a robust relationship between credit-based insurance scores and claims risk. In fact, the amount that insurance companies paid out in claims for customers in the lowest score decile relative to those in the highest score decile, ranged from 1.7-times more in the case of property

²⁷ To make these inferences, we developed an imputation model based on people for whom we had both a pre- and post-1981 response, which was the case for almost one-third of the sample and is probably due to people re-applying for a social security card to replace a lost card or because of a change in information, such as a name-change resulting from marriage or a change in citizenship status. This allowed us to evaluate how people who identified themselves in a given way when presented with the limited set of race/ethnicity choices prior to 1981, would subsequently tend to identify themselves when given the broader set of choices.

²⁸ We rely on Generalized Linear Models and assume the dependent variable is distributed according to a Tweedie distribution. The Tweedie distribution is a compound distribution of the Poisson and Gamma distributions, and has a mass point at zero (no claims) and a smooth distribution of positive values (dollar cost of claims).

damage liability claims, all the way up to 2.2-times more for bodily injury liability claims (see Figure 1 further below).^{29, 30}

5.3. Scores and Minorities

After analyzing the relationship between credit-based insurance scores and claims risk, we turned our attention to the impact of these scores on protected classes of consumers, such as those belonging to racial and ethnic minorities.³¹ Our first step here was simply to evaluate the relationship between race/ethnicity and scores. We looked at how non-Hispanic whites, African-Americans, Hispanics, and Asians are distributed across the range of scores in our data. The median scores for non-Hispanic whites and Asians are quite similar to that of the overall sample, with the median scores for non-Hispanic whites and Asians falling in the 54th and 52nd percentile, respectively. In contrast, the median scores for African-Americans and Hispanics are much lower, with their median scores falling in the 23rd and 32nd percentile, respectively.

We then assessed the impact of these large differences in scores across racial and ethnic groups on the likely premiums those groups would pay for automobile insurance if companies were to

²⁹ These differences are statistically significant. Statistical significance throughout the study was determined through bootstrapping by randomly selecting 100% samples with replacement 500 times.

³⁰ We found that it is primarily the OD E6(thbth)-5r1()o pr n5(c(e)-y1()o p)-fnd

use these scores for pricing policies. Since most of the premiums in our database likely do not reflect the use of credit-based insurance scores (and we do not actually know which policies in our database were scored and which were not at the time of underwriting or pricing), we used risk, measured in expected total dollars of claims, as a substitute for premiums. We believe that predicted risk is a reasonable substitute for premiums because the premiums that an insurance company charges consumers in a competitive marketplace should be roughly proportional to the risk that those consumers appear to pose.

To evaluate how the expected risk of consumers changes if insurance companies use credit-based insurance scores, we first used a model that did not include scores to predict dollar risk for each consumer. We then predicted risk for each consumer using a model that included scores.³² We used these estimates to analyze the impact of credit-based insurance scores on the premiums that members of different racial and ethnic groups would be predicted to pay. When scores are used, the predicted risk decreased for 62% of non-Hispanic whites and

Next, we analyzed the potential for scores to act as a proxy for race, ethnicity, and income. We did this by measuring the impact of omitted variable bias on the estimated coefficients for the score decile indicator variables from not including race, ethnicity, or income in the risk models. After including controls for these protected groups, we found that omitted variable bias had affected the previously estimated relationship between score and claims for three of the four coverages studied, but that it was not the primary source of the originally estimated relationship with claims risk. This can be seen on the following figure:

< insert Figure 1 here >

For the three coverages where we observe an impact, we see that after controlling for race, ethnicity, and income, the higher relative claims risk estimate for customers in the lowest score decile (relative to those in the highest decile) drops from 2.20-times greater to 2.10-times greater for bodily injury claims, 2.03-times greater to 1.93-times greater for collision claims, and 1.95-times greater to 1.74-times greater for comprehensive claims.

We then estimated the impact of this omitted variable bias on the predicted risk of the various racial and ethnic groups. We did this by repeating the exercise of calculating the difference in predicted risk from models with and without score, but used the estimated effects of score on risk from a model that included race, ethnicity, and neighborhood income.³⁴

scores on the premiums for these groups is *not* because scores act as a proxy for race, ethnicity, and income.³⁶

One other interesting (if unexplained) finding across racial and ethnic groups involved variation in loss ratios. In our data, claims losses divided by premium income (“loss ratios” in industry parlance) vary substantially by race and ethnicity. Loss ratios for African-Americans and Hispanics are near 0.80 while they are near 0.65 for whites and Asians. This means that as of 2000-2001 whites and Asians paid much more for automobile insurance relative to the losses that they imposed than did African-Americans and Hispanics. It is not clear what might account for this sizeable difference.³⁷

We also measured whether credit-based insurance scores predict risk *within* racial, ethnic, and income groups, since this also provides insight into whether scores are acting primarily as a proxy for membership in these groups. We found that the differences in the estimates of the larger amount paid out in claims in lower score deciles versus the top score decile, within each racial group, were statistically significant (at the 5% level), with the exception of the smallest racial/ethnic group, Asians (for whom they are only significant for comprehensive coverage).

5.4. Building New Credit-Based Insurance Scores

³⁶ To provide a basis for comparison in evaluating the importance of these proxy effects, we conducted the same analysis for several other standard risk variables, such as geographic or territorial risk, tenure with the insurance company, and prior driving history or claims. These other rating variables also evidenced a proxy effect with respect to race, ethnicity, and income, which was often larger as a share of that variable’s direct or total impact on premiums than was true for the proxy effect in the case of scores.

³⁷ Recall, though, that we do not actually know which policies in our database were scored and which were not at the

Finally, we attempted to develop credit-based insurance scoring models that would reduce the differences in scores for consumers in protected classes relative to other consumers, yet continue to be effective predictors of risk.

To develop a model that effectively predicts risk while reducing differences between racial/ethnic groups, we first created a baseline scoring model in a completely race-blind fashion. The outcome that our score was designed to predict was total dollars of insurance claims in a year; the variables that were candidates to be used in the model were 180 credit history variables. Variables were chosen using a forward-selection regression procedure with total claims, adjusted

procedures. Most significantly, there were no longer any variables that related directly to delinquencies; most variables selected related to the number and type of accounts that a consumer had. Other variables selected related to the age of the credit account and total indebtedness. While this model did indeed substantially reduce the differences in scores among members of racial and ethnic groups, it was far less effective in predicting risk.

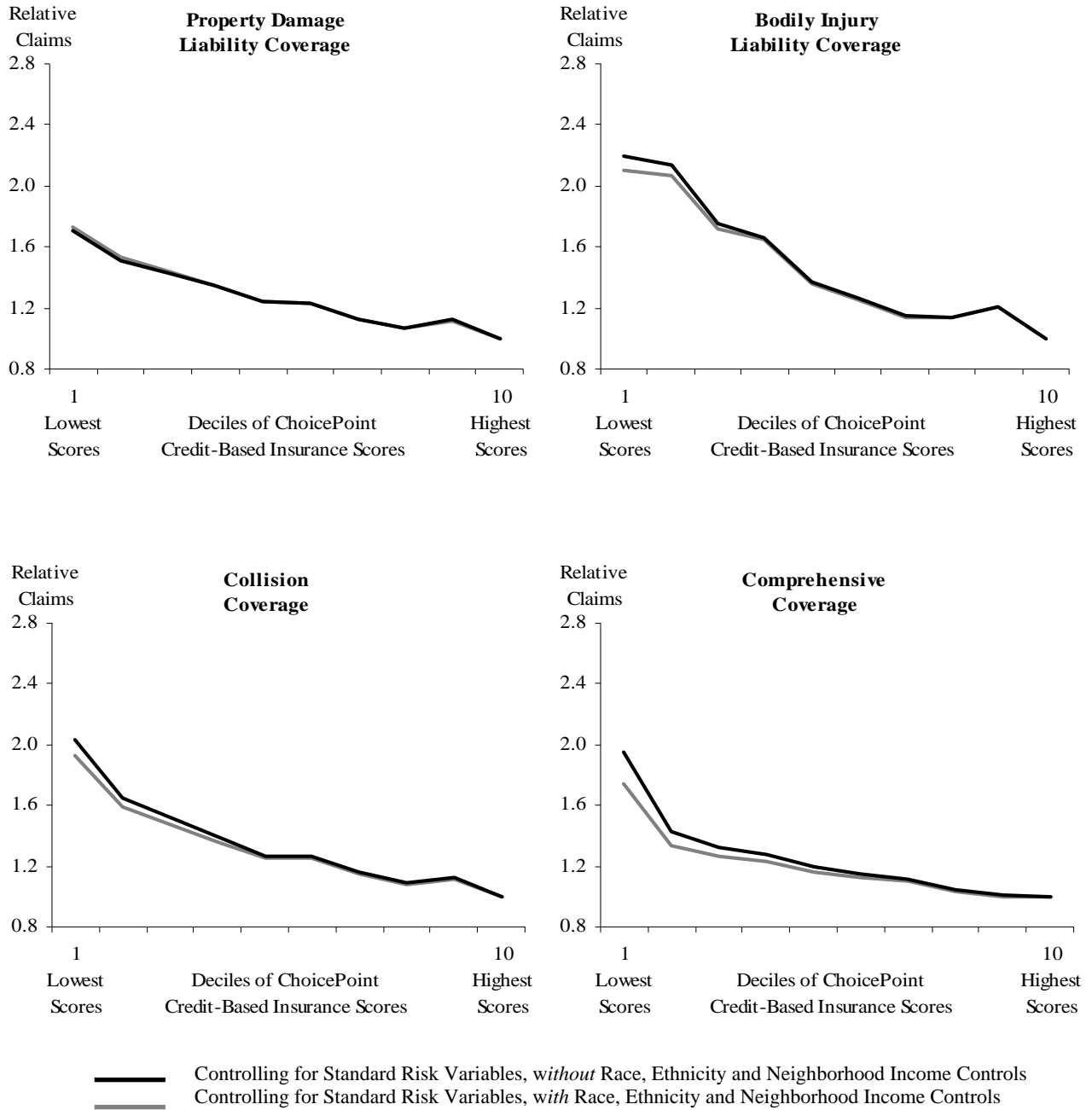
Analyzing things further, we found that the credit history variables that are most unequally distributed across racial and ethnic groups are also the ones that are most predictive of risk: specifically, those relating to payment history (e.g., delinquencies) and public records. This suggests that it would be difficult to develop alternative scoring models that produce scores that are more evenly distributed across race and ethnic groups, and yet are effective predictors of risk.

In summary, we examined the relationship between credit-based insurance scores and insurance risk and any differential effects on racial and ethnic groups. We found that scores do predict claims risk and that they do so both overall and within separate racial and ethnic groups. While credit scores predict risk, they are distributed differently across racial and ethnic groups, with scores being lower for most groups than for majority non-Hispanic whites. Thus, the use of scores results in higher prices paid for insurance by racial and ethnic minorities.

Our efforts to gauge the dollar impact of score-use by insurers indicated that the effect for, say, African-Americans might be on the order of a 10% increase in premiums (e.g., \$50 on an annual \$500 auto insurance policy). Is there a portion of this increase that might be attributed to scores acting as a proxy for race, ethnicity, and income? Our estimates indicated that about one-tenth of the predicted 10% increase in premiums for African-Americans may result from scores acting as a proxy for race, ethnicity, and income (e.g., \$5 out of a \$50 dollar increase on a \$500 annual policy).

Finally, we were unable to develop an alternative credit-based insurance scoring model that would continue to predict risk effectively, yet decrease the differences in scores on average among racial and ethnic groups. This does not mean that a model could not be constructed that

FIGURES AND TABLES



Source: Analysis of FTC Automobile Insurance Policy Database

Figure 1: Estimated Average Amount Paid Out on Claims, Relative to Highest Score Decile, with and without Controls for Race, Ethnicity, and Neighborhood Income.

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