10th July 2006

Senator Ron Boswell Level 36, Waterfront Place 1 Eagle Street Brisbane 4000

Dear Ron

I am concerned about the variation in fuel prices and the adverse effects these prices are having on the rural economy. I am setting out below some specific matters which I would like you to pass on to the Senate Inquiry into Fuel Pricing.

Higher fuel prices have a much greater impact on rural communities than on urban and coastal areas because people pay for fuel a number of times:

1. They pay for it in their personal use. (Public transport not an option).

2. Rural communities pay for the freight on the goods they buy.

3. Rural producers pay for the freight on the goods they sell.

4. Production costs are higher because of greater fuel costs.

5. Tradesmen travelling greater distances pass on their fuel costs resulting in higher service fees.

6. These increased costs also result in higher GST for the end user.

The second point I would like to make relates to diesel fuel. Seven or eight years ago diesel fuel was regularly 7 or 8 cents/litre cheaper than petrol. Currently it is 10 to 20 cents/litre dearer than petrol. I find it hard to understand why all of a sudden diesel should be so much dearer than petrol. In the month of May, diesel delivered to my farm cost 146.8 cents/litre, while petrol was selling at around 122 cents/litre in the same area. By comparison, American farmers in the month of May were paying the equivalent of about 80 cents/litre (Australian).

I include a paper cutting (Sunday Mail, 14 May 2006) which sets out the various petrol prices throughout Queensland in that week. The variation seems unjustifiable, and discriminates severely against rural communities. The second paper cutting (Sunshine Coast Daily, 6 July 2006) reports that on the previous morning fuel was selling at Sunshine Coast service stations at around 119 cents/litre, and in the afternoon it had increased to 133 cents/litre. This would have to be a clear case of profiteering by the oil companies.

At the time of introduction of the GST the Federal Government provided a support program to the oil companies of between 2 and 3 cents/litre to offset freight costs on fuel, so that rural communities would not be disadvantaged. This apparently was considered as the difference between the cost of fuel on the coast and freight costs involved in transporting it to regional centres. Obviously the great price differences we are seeing cannot be attributed to freight alone.

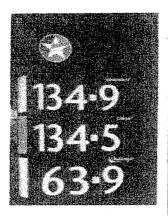
As the fuel companies, together with Woolworths and Coles, control roughly 90% of fuel outlets, I feel it is important that we make every effort to keep the independent fuel retailers in the market. I enclose some information on the Robinson-Patman Act (1936) that was implemented in the USA to protect the rights of small independent operators. Surely if the Americans, in the home of free enterprise, felt the need for such legislation, it is worthy of consideration here to ensure that there is real competition in the market place for fuel, as it plays such an important role in the economy of the nation.

Hoping you can submit this information to the Senate Inquiry on my behalf.

Regards

Bruce Page

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Big fuel price spike hurts

SIX Big Macs or twenty bucks – that's the difference a few hours made to the price of petrol on the Sunshine Coast for motorists with large petrol tanks yesterday.

Servos were selling fuel for around the 119 cents a litre yesterday morning, but this price soared to around 133 cents a litre by the afternoon, amounting to a hefty \$20 increase for those with 145-litre petrol tanks like large four-wheel-drives.

Fuel watchdog Fueltrac said a greater increase had been expected.

General manager Geoff Trotter said he had expected the price to go up to around 135 or 136 cents a litre.

But he had some good news - the price should come back down to around the 119 cents by early next week.

"It is part of the weekly cycle where petrol prices rise on Wednesdays and Thursdays to go down again by Tuesday," Mr Trotter said.

A spike in Singapore's "motor spirit price" was to blame for the latest increase.

"It could be the missiles fired in North Korea or concerns about Iran."

By DARYL PASSMORE

PUTHOL prices have impressed by dirensional than in other regions SANG JUIOS IN MANNESS S.

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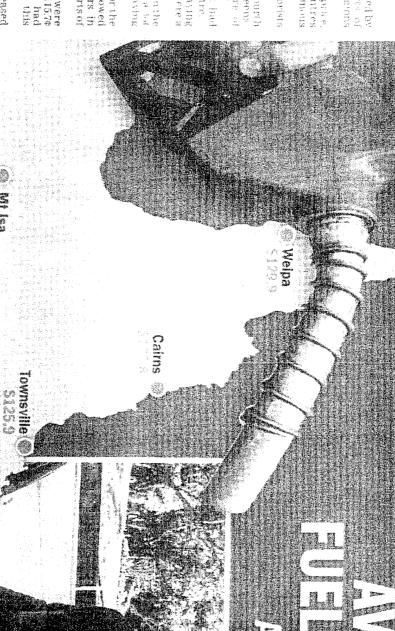
some of the more far-flung parts of better results for consumers in he state. IACQ by Fuelfrac Ltd, showed But the study, conducted for the

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then by just 1920 by April on And the price in Roma increased

only 15.7¢ and Hervey Bay all recorded rises 2-month period Cairns, Gladstone, Bundaberg less than 20¢ a litre over the

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RACQ economic and public pol-icy manager Ken Willett said they variations across the state. were at a loss to explain the big

the retailers. "The big oil companies blame

don't have access to their internanever really know because we majors are responsible but we will "We think it's more likely the

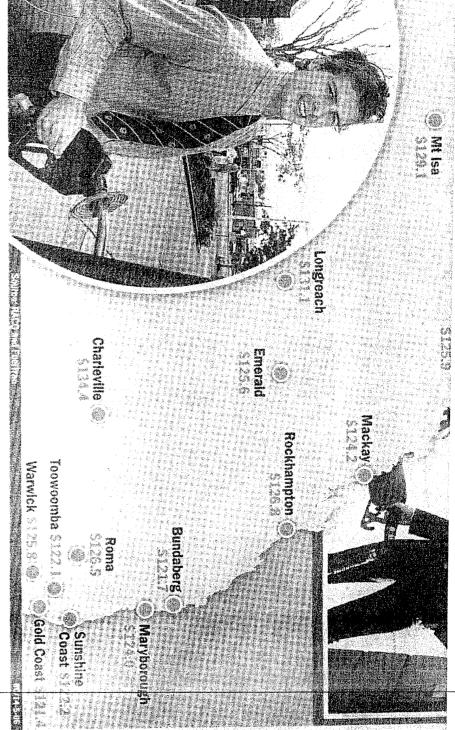
can have a significant impact." competition in particular areas down to competition. Outbreaks of "I think it is most likely simply Menn while, other analysis by the

time you fill the lank of the family to \$25 more than a year ago every RACQ shows that it now costs up (4. - here lank) went up from \$43.50 The cost for a Hyundai Access

in Mon 2005 to \$58.56 last week; a Holden Astra 657 litres) from \$50.28

from \$51.88 to \$83.25; and a Hoblen in Sivilia a Subaru Liberty RX

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The onier mythem Brisprizes down to the con-Alan Price said. Motormouth spokesman sumer's penelli

BY DARYL PASSMORE

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Manager Frent Pridmore "We try hard to keep

Gardi Anderson said

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Robinson-Patman Act

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Robinson-Patman Act

The Robinson-Patman Act is a 1936 statute (15 U.S.C.A. §§ 13(a-f) that amended Section 2 of the Clayton Act (Oct. 15, 1914, ch. §§ 38 Stat. 730), which was the first antitrust statute aimed at price discrimination. The Robinson-Patman Act prohibits a seller of commodities from selling comparable goods to different buyers at different prices, except in certain circumstances.

The Robinson-Patman Act seeks to limit the ability of large, powerful buyers to gain price discounts through the use of their auying power. Although the act remains an important antitrust statute, private parties do not use it nearly as often as they use the Sherman Act, in part due to the Robinson-Patman Act's convoluted and complicated language. The government, which may uring an action under the Robinson-Patman Act through the Federal Trade Commission (FTC), rarely initiates actions under the tatute.

n fact, the Robinson-Patman Act has been severely criticized throughout its history, both for its poor drafting and the economic heory behind it. Even the Supreme Court has criticized the act on more than one occasion, stating in 1952 that it is "complicated nd vague in itself and even more so in its context. Indeed, the Court of Appeals seems to have thought it almost beyond inderstanding" (FTC v. Ruberoid Co., 343 U.S. 470, 72 S. Ct. 800, 96 L. Ed. 1081 [1952]). Nevertheless, the Robinson-Patman Act emains an important deterrent and remedy to market power abuses by large and powerful buyers.

he Robinson-Patman Act was passed during the Great Depression following the emergence of large, successful grocery-store hains. Small, independent grocery stores and their suppliers lobbied Congress to do something about the large chains, which were alleged to have exercised their superior buying power to achieve price discounts, driving small grocers out of business. The nited States Wholesale Grocers Association drafted the original bill of what was to become the Robinson-Patman Act. Many ritics of the act point out that Congress passed the act with the protection of small grocers and their wholesalers in mind, rather han the welfare of competition or the consumer.

he Robinson-Patman Act was intended to remedy perceived shortcomings in the Clayton Act. The federal courts had determined nat the Clayton Act did not apply to price discrimination based on quantity, which was precisely what the small, independent usinesses were worried about. The Robinson-Patman Act considerably expanded the scope of the Clayton Act. The Robinson-atman Act specifically prohibits discounts based solely on quantity, except in certain situations. The act's provisions apply both sellers who offer discriminatory prices and buyers who knowingly receive them. The act is also intended to remedy secondary ne injury, which is injury to competitors of a buyer who receives a discriminatory price, in addition to primary line injury, which effers to injury to competitors of a seller who offers a discriminatory price. Both private parties and the FTC may use the statute. private party can obtain, in appropriate circumstances, treble damages from a price discriminator—in other words, three times ne party's actual damages.

o invoke the provisions of the Robinson-Patman Act, certain jurisdictional elements must be established. The act applies only (1) sales (2) in commerce (3) of commodities (4) of like grade and quality. The sales requirement excludes transfers, leases, or ansignment sales from the act's provisions. Other transfers that do not meet the legal definition of a sale, such as an offer or d, are not covered by the act. Finally, the plural sales is important. The act applies only where there are two completed sales different purchasers at different prices. The commerce specification requires at least one of the sales to be in interstate ammerce, meaning that the goods must have physically crossed a state line.

ne Robinson-Patman Act applies only to sales of commodities or tangible goods. The courts have determined that the act is not

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available to remedy discriminatory pricing of services, money (e.g., loans), insurance, electricity, advertising, or photo processing (primarily a service). In a case such as photo processing, where the product is really both a commodity and a service, the courts look to the "dominant feature" of the transaction. If the dominant feature is not a commodity, the act will not apply. Finally, the act applies only to goods of "like grade or quality." Obviously the determination of whether two goods are of like grade and quality is somewhat subjective. The courts have applied several evidentiary standards to this determination. For the act to apply, the goods must be at least reasonably interchangeable. For example, a generic and brand-name food product are of "like grade and quality" if the only real difference between them is the brand name or label itself.

After the jurisdictional elements of the Robinson-Patman Act have been satisfied, a plaintiff must establish price discrimination by the defendant and injury to competition to prove a violation of the main provisions of the act. The price discrimination element is actually easy to establish; only a difference in price in two different sales is required. The price refers to the actual price paid, net of discounts and allowances. Conversely, there is no price discrimination under the act where the same price is charged to two buyers, even if the seller's costs in serving one buyer are much higher than the costs of serving the other.

The injury to competition element is more difficult to establish. Harm to only the individual plaintiff is not enough to prove injury to competition. Although the plaintiff need not prove actual harm to competition, due to the difficulty of proving it in court, there must be at least a "reasonable possibility" that the price discrimination affected competition in the overall market for the product. As noted earlier, there are two types of injury to competition due to price discrimination: primary line injury and econdary line injury. Primary line injury refers to injury to the competitors of the seller, who lose the business of the buyers who ake advantage of the seller's discriminatory price. Secondary line injury refers to injury to the competitors of the buyer, who are mable to take advantage of the discriminatory prices obtained by the buyer.

primary line injury may be proved in two ways. A plaintiff may present evidence of the seller's intent to destroy a competitor, either by direct evidence or indirect evidence such as business tactics and unexplained price moves. Otherwise, the plaintiff must prove that the seller's discriminatory price caused a substantial change in market shares in the product. The latter is nearly mpossible to prove, because courts, commentators, and economists have frequently rejected the idea that discriminatory pricing coses a long-term threat to competition. It is also difficult to prove a seller's intent to destroy a competitor, because a seller isn't ikely to leave evidence of such an intent and it is difficult to infer such an intent. One way to prove intent to injure competition to show that the seller made sales at prices below the seller's average cost of producing the product long enough to force qually efficient competitors out of business. Because of the difficulties in proving a primary line injury under the Robinson-atman Act, plaintiffs alleging a primary line injury from a discriminatory price are more likely to seek a remedy under other ntitrust statutes.

plaintiff claiming a secondary line injury must also meet several requirements to prove injury to competition. The plaintiff must now that it competed in fact, not potentially, with a buyer who received a discriminatory price, that the price difference was ubstantial, and that the price difference existed over time. Once these factors are established, a presumption is created that he price discrimination injured competition. This presumption can be overcome only by evidence proving there was no causal connection between the discriminatory price received by the buyer and lost sales or profits of the buyer's competitors.

ven if a plaintiff establishes the jurisdictional elements of a claim under the Robinson-Patman Act and proves a discriminatory rice and injury to competition, the defendant may still raise defenses that will defeat the plaintiff's claim. Three main defenses xist: "meeting competition," "cost justification," and "functional availability."

nder the meeting competition defense, a discriminatory price is lawful when the seller is acting in good faith to meet an equally aw price of a competitor. This defense is absolute and will bar a claim under the Robinson-Patman Act regardless of injury to empetitors or competition.

nder the cost justification defense, a seller who offered a discriminatory price may defeat a Robinson-Patman Act claim by stablishing that the difference in price was justified by "differences in the cost of manufacture, sale, or delivery resulting from ne differing methods or quantities" in which the goods are sold. Proving cost justification is difficult because of the complicated accounting analysis required to establish the defense, and therefore it is rarely used.

though it is not mentioned in the act itself, the functional availability defense allows a seller who offered a discriminatory price avoid liability under the Robinson-Patman Act if the seller can prove that the discriminatory price the disfavored buyer did not ceive was functionally or realistically available to that buyer. Usually this defense involves proof that the disfavored buyer was alle to qualify for some discount offered by the seller but failed to take advantage of it.

ne basic prohibitions and defenses are contained in sections 2(a) and 2(b) of the Robinson-Patman Act. The act contains some ecial provisions as well. Sections 2(d) and 2(e) of the act deal with services and promotional payments that might be provided connection with a sale of goods. Section 2(d) allows a seller to give discounts to buyers who perform certain services, such as omotions, that the seller would otherwise provide. Substantially similar discounts must be offered to all buyers of like goods, or se the act is violated. Section 2(e) prohibits a seller from discriminating in the furnishing of facilities and services for the occasing, handling, or sale of goods.

ction 2(c) of the act prohibits bogus brokerage arrangements whereby large buyers attempt to obtain illegal discounts disguised brokerage commissions. This provision is usually invoked where the "broker" does not actually render any service to the seller it is merely a large-volume buyer. This section also applies to certain illegal brokerage payments and commercial bribery. ction 2(f) of the act specifically provides that it is unlawful for a buyer to knowingly solicit or receive an unlawfully scriminatory price.

The Robinson-Patman Act has been widely criticized throughout its history, although Congress has retained the act in its original form. The complicated and convoluted language of the act makes it difficult to understand and interpret. The courts have applied its provisions inconsistently over the years and have often confused the proof required for a violation of the Robinson-Patman Act with the standards used in cases brought under the Sherman Act (July 2, 1890, ch. 647, 26 Stat. 209, 15 U.S.C.A. §§ 1 et seq.). Also, many critics suggest that the act is designed merely to protect small business and that it protects competitors rather than competition.

The act has been attacked on economic grounds as well. Most economists believe that discriminatory pricing cannot lead to monopoly power and injury to competition, because the seller offering the discriminatory price cannot profitably sustain the discriminatory price long enough to drive out competitors and, more importantly, keep them out. In fact, the act may discourage competition. For example, the Supreme Court held in the widely criticized *Utah Pie* case that under the Robinson-Patman Act, a national frozen pie seller that sought to enter a new geographical market could not charge a lower price in the new market than it charged in its existing markets (*Utah Pie Co. v. Continental Baking Co.*, 386 U.S. 685, 87 S. Ct. 1326, 18 L. Ed. 2d 406 [1967]). Critics suggest that this interpretation of the act may discourage large, national sellers from entering a new market, even though the consumer and competition in the new market would benefit.

Over the last several decades, fewer and fewer enforcement agencies and private litigants have used the Robinson-Patman Act, for several reasons. First, the nation's attitude toward large, commercial businesses has changed since the act was passed during the Depression, partly because these large businesses have often increased competition, resulting in lower prices for consumers. Also, the legal precedents and theories behind the act have become so complex that plaintiffs usually resort to the more basic antitrust statutes, such as the Sherman Act. Finally, the defenses to actions under the Robinson-Patman Act, such as the meeting competition defense, have become substantially more available and effective as the markets for most products have expanded and increased in sophistication.

Despite the decline in its use, the Robinson-Patman Act is still an important antitrust statute. It acts as both a deterrent and a emedy to abuses to market power by large and powerful businesses and reflects the nation's desire to offer some protection to mall, family businesses against the predatory acts of powerful competitors.

ee: Antitrust Law; Sales Law.

Encyclopedia



obinson-Patman Act, passed by the U.S. Congress in 1936 to supplement the <u>Clayton Antitrust Act</u>. The act, advanced by ongressman Wright Patman, forbade any person or firm engaged in interstate commerce to discriminate in price to different urchasers of the same commodity when the effect would be to lessen competition or to create a monopoly. Sometimes called ne Anti-Chain-Store Act, this act was directed at protecting the independent retailer from chain-store competition, but it was lso strongly supported by wholesalers eager to prevent large chain stores from buying directly from the manufacturers for lower rices.

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ee studies by D. J. Baum (1964) and R. Posner (1986).

Wikipedia



obinson-Patman Act ne Robinson-Patman Act of 1936, or Anti-Price Discrimination Act, (now odified as 15 U.S.C. § 13) outlawed the anticompetitive practice of producers lowing chain stores to purchase goods at lower prices than other retailers. The at provided for criminal penalties, but contained a specific exemption for cooperative associations". The Act is an amendment to Section 2 of the Clayton at.

general, the Robinson-Patman Act (RPA) prohibits sales that discriminate in ice on the sale of goods to equally-situated distributors when the effect of such tes is to reduce competition. Sales to original equipment manufacturers (OEM) e not subject to RPA. Price means net price and includes all compensation paid. ne seller may not throw in additional goods or services. Injured parties or the US overnment may bring an action under RPA.

ability under section 2(a) of the RPA (with criminal sanctions) may arise on sales

that involve:

discrimination in price; on at least 2 consummated sales; from the same seller; to 2 different purchasers; sales must cross state lines; sales must be contemporaneous; of "commodities" of like grade and quality; sold for "use, consumption, or resale" within the United States; and the effect may be substantially to lessen competition or tend to create a monopoly in any line of" commerce."

Defenses to RPA include cost justification and matching the price of a competitor. In practice, the "harm to competition" requirement often is the make-or-break point.

See also:

- Sherman Antitrust Act of 1890
- Clayton Antitrust Act of 1914
- List of United States federal legislation

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Robinson, Joseph Taylor (American statesman)

competition (in economics)

Seventy-fourth United States Congress

Antitrust Law (legal term)

Unfair Competition (legal term)

Sherman Antitrust Act (law, government, United States)

Federal Trade Commission (agency, United States - in

government, economics)

<u>Timeline of United States history</u> (1930-1949)

Monopoly (legal term)

Record and prerecorded tape stores (industry)

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