

Lesson 4: Consumer Behavior

- 1. Uncertainty**
- 2. Market Demand**
- 3. Market equilibrium**

1. Uncertainty

Uncertainty is Pervasive

- ◆ **What is uncertain in economic systems?**
 - **tomorrow's prices**
 - **future wealth**
 - **future availability of commodities**
 - **present and future actions of other people.**

Uncertainty is Pervasive

- ◆ **What are rational responses to uncertainty?**
 - **buying insurance (health, life, auto)**
 - **a portfolio of contingent consumption goods.**

States of Nature

- ◆ Possible states of Nature:
 - “car accident” (a)
 - “no car accident” (na).
- ◆ Accident occurs with probability π_a , does not with probability π_{na} ;
$$\pi_a + \pi_{na} = 1.$$
- ◆ Accident causes a loss of \$L.

Contingencies

- ◆ A contract implemented only when a particular state of Nature occurs is **state-contingent**.
- ◆ E.g. the insurer pays only if there is an accident.

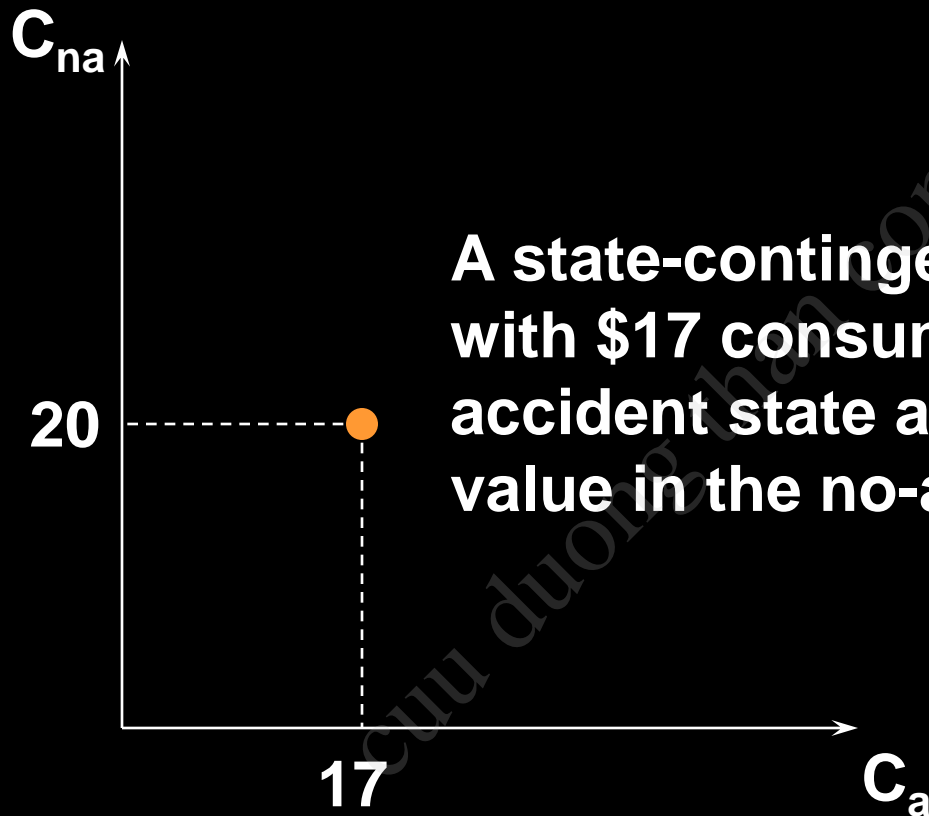
Contingencies

- ◆ A state-contingent consumption plan is implemented only when a particular state of Nature occurs.
- ◆ E.g. take a vacation only if there is no accident.

State-Contingent Budget Constraints

- ◆ Each \$1 of accident insurance costs γ .
- ◆ Consumer has \$ m of wealth.
- ◆ C_{na} is consumption value in the no-accident state.
- ◆ C_a is consumption value in the accident state.

State-Contingent Budget Constraints

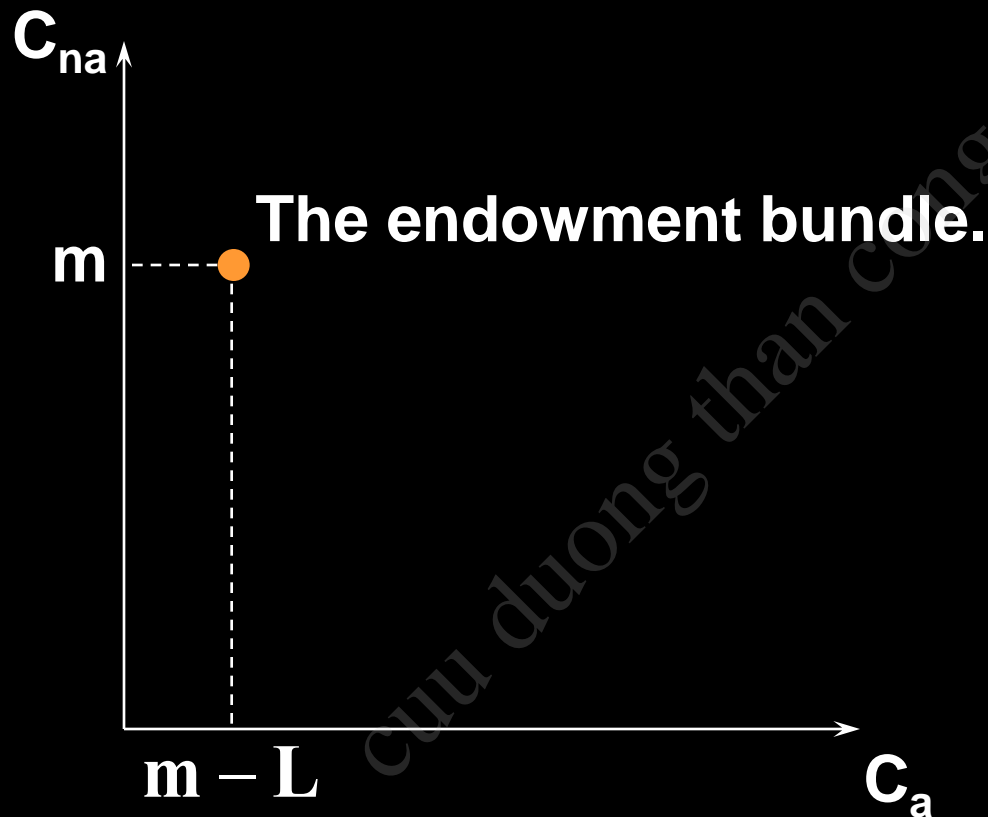


A state-contingent consumption with \$17 consumption value in the accident state and \$20 consumption value in the no-accident state.

State-Contingent Budget Constraints

- ◆ Without insurance,
- ◆ $C_a = m - L$
- ◆ $C_{na} = m.$

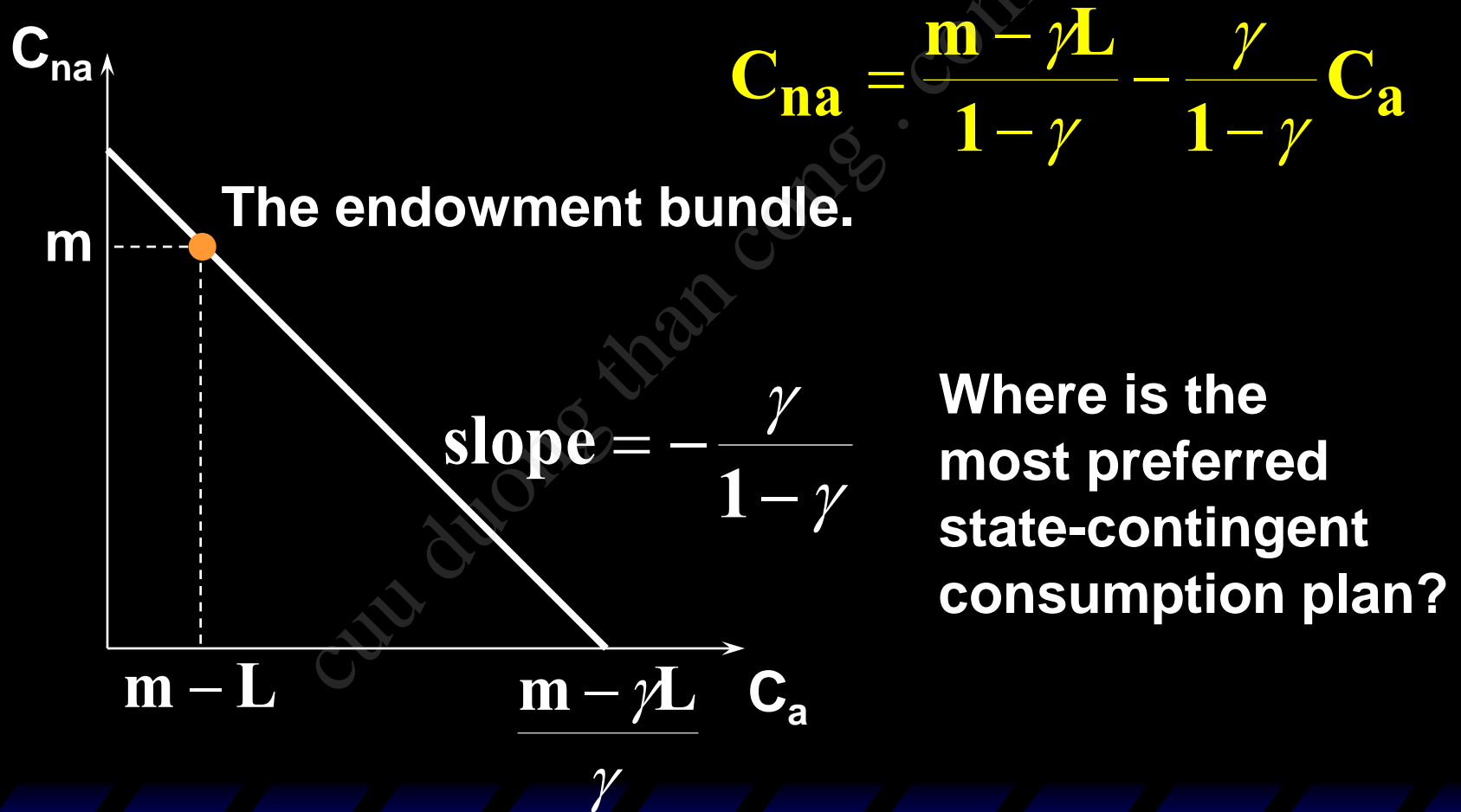
State-Contingent Budget Constraints



State-Contingent Budget Constraints

- ◆ Buy \$K of accident insurance.
- ◆ $C_{na} = m - \gamma K$.
- ◆ $C_a = m - L - \gamma K + K = m - L + (1 - \gamma)K$.
- ◆ So $K = (C_a - m + L)/(1 - \gamma)$
- ◆ And $C_{na} = m - \gamma (C_a - m + L)/(1 - \gamma)$
- ◆ I.e.
$$C_{na} = \frac{m - \gamma L}{1 - \gamma} - \frac{\gamma}{1 - \gamma} C_a$$

State-Contingent Budget Constraints



Preferences Under Uncertainty

- ◆ Think of a lottery.
- ◆ Win \$90 with probability $1/2$ and win \$0 with probability $1/2$.
- ◆ $U(\$90) = 12$, $U(\$0) = 2$.
- ◆ Expected utility is

$$\begin{aligned} EU &= \frac{1}{2} \times U(\$90) + \frac{1}{2} \times U(\$0) \\ &= \frac{1}{2} \times 12 + \frac{1}{2} \times 2 = 7. \end{aligned}$$

Preferences Under Uncertainty

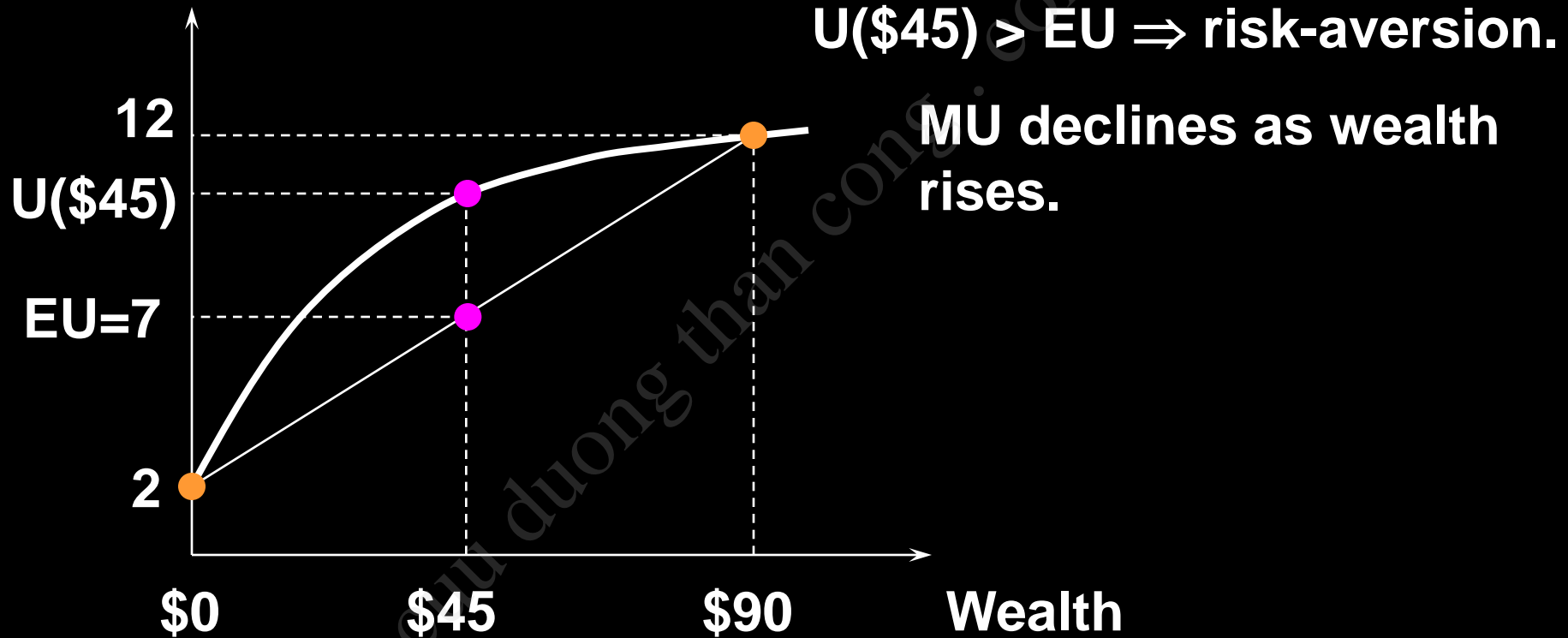
- ◆ Think of a lottery.
- ◆ Win \$90 with probability $1/2$ and win \$0 with probability $1/2$.
- ◆ Expected money value of the lottery is

$$EM = \frac{1}{2} \times \$90 + \frac{1}{2} \times \$0 = \$45.$$

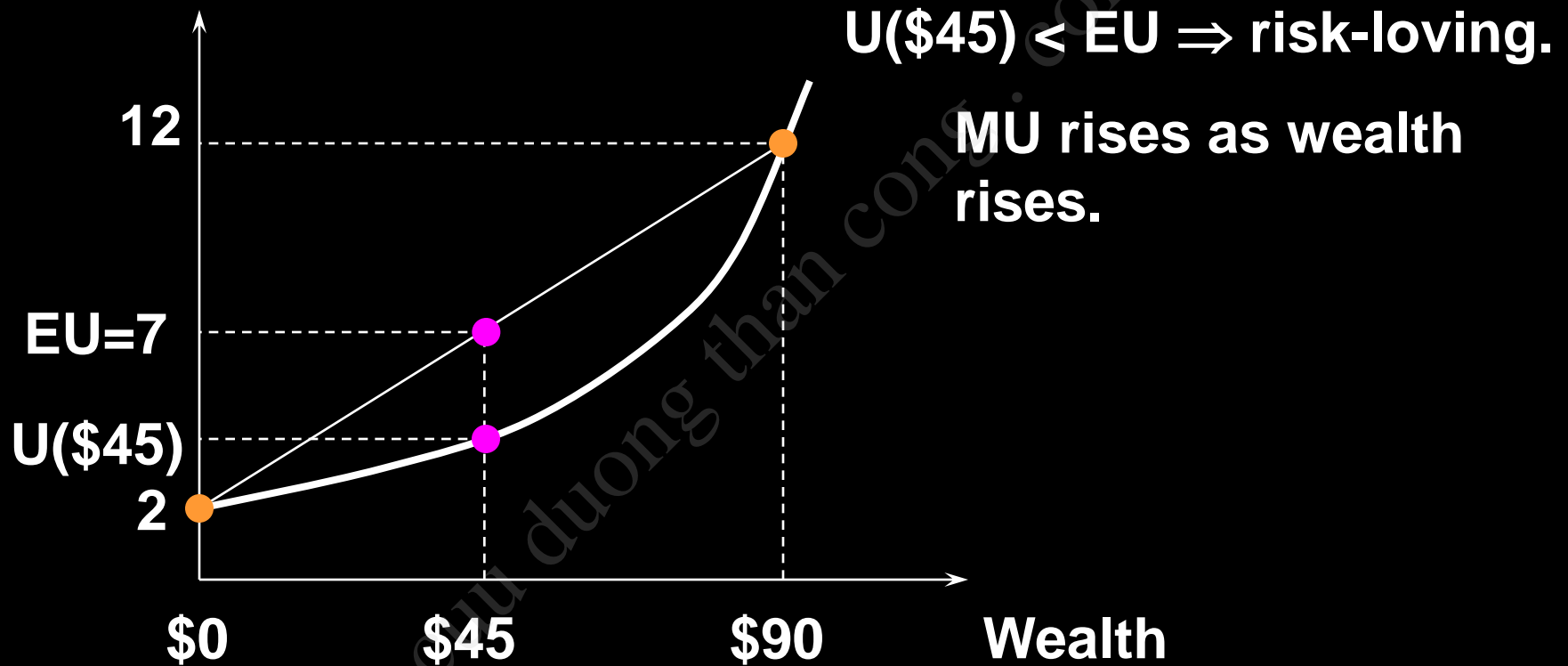
Preferences Under Uncertainty

- ◆ $EU = 7$ and $EM = \$45$.
- ◆ $U(\$45) > 7 \Rightarrow \45 for sure is preferred to the lottery \Rightarrow **risk-aversion**.
- ◆ $U(\$45) < 7 \Rightarrow$ the lottery is preferred to \$45 for sure \Rightarrow **risk-loving**.
- ◆ $U(\$45) = 7 \Rightarrow$ the lottery is preferred equally to \$45 for sure \Rightarrow **risk-neutrality**.

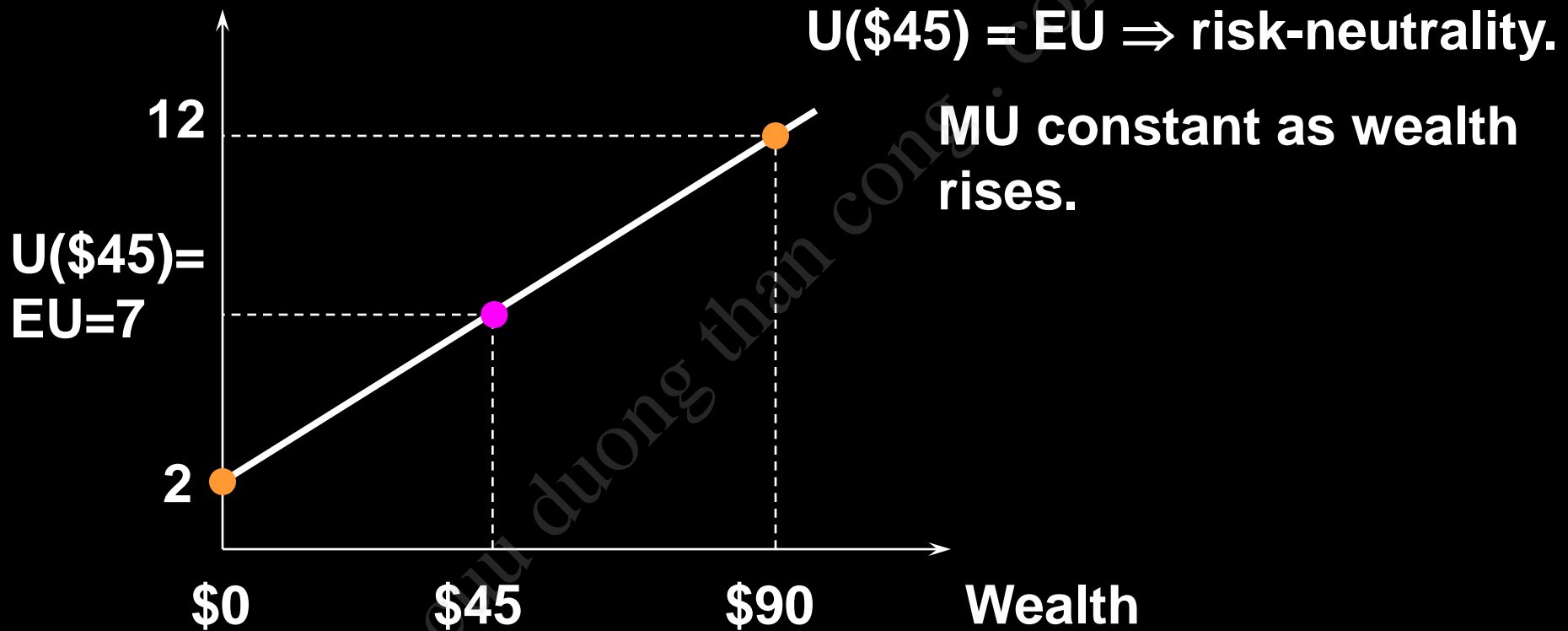
Preferences Under Uncertainty



Preferences Under Uncertainty



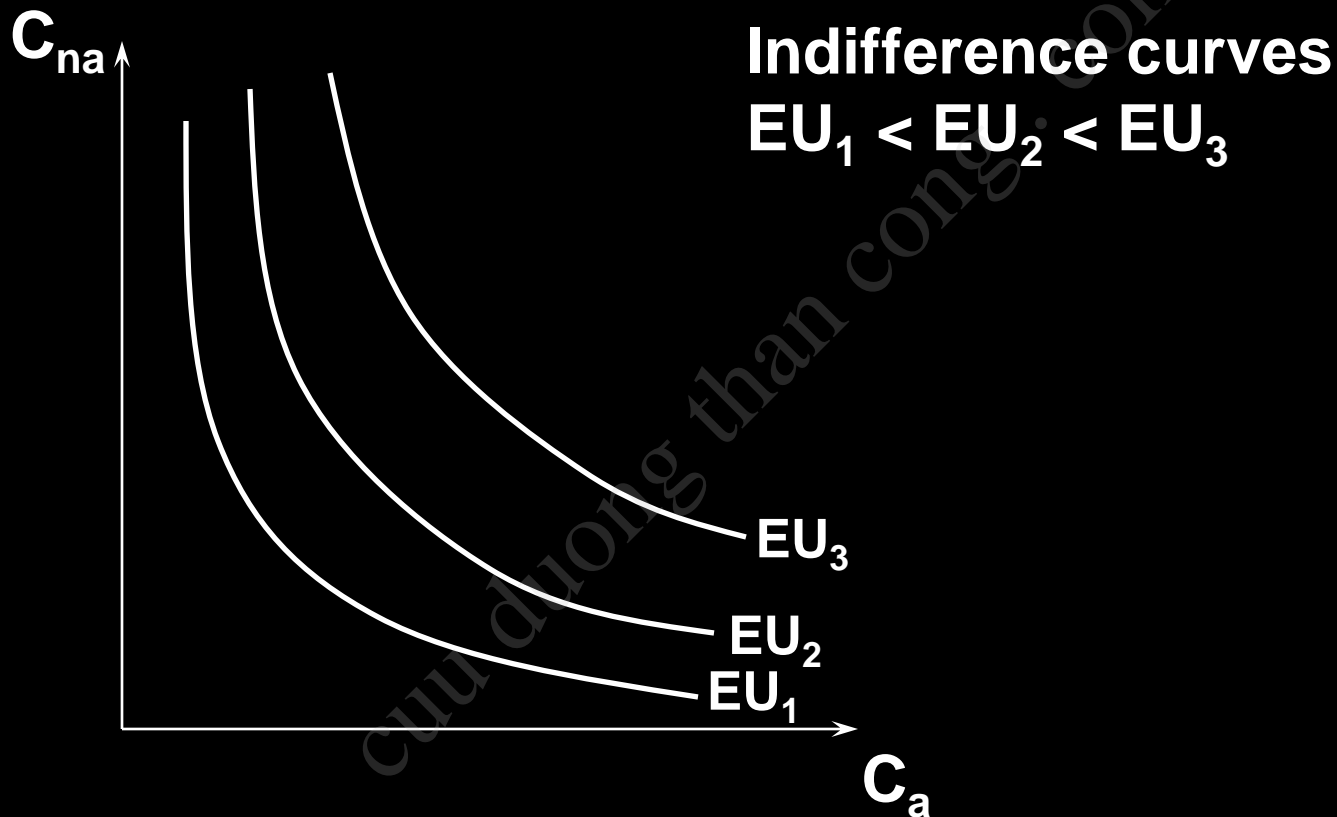
Preferences Under Uncertainty



Preferences Under Uncertainty

- ◆ **State-contingent consumption plans that give equal expected utility are equally preferred.**

Preferences Under Uncertainty



Preferences Under Uncertainty

- ◆ What is the MRS of an indifference curve?
- ◆ Get consumption c_1 with prob. π_1 and c_2 with prob. π_2 ($\pi_1 + \pi_2 = 1$).
- ◆ $EU = \pi_1 U(c_1) + \pi_2 U(c_2)$.
- ◆ For constant EU, $dEU = 0$.

Preferences Under Uncertainty

$$EU = \pi_1 U(c_1) + \pi_2 U(c_2)$$

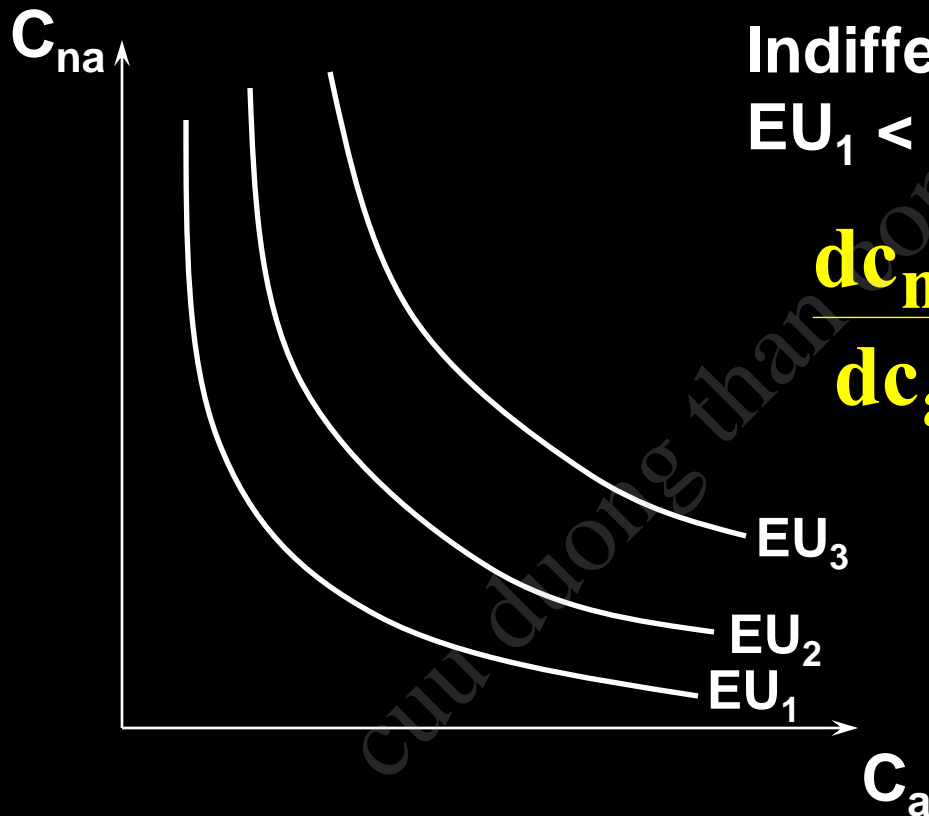
$$dEU = \pi_1 MU(c_1)dc_1 + \pi_2 MU(c_2)dc_2$$

$$dEU = 0 \Rightarrow \pi_1 MU(c_1)dc_1 + \pi_2 MU(c_2)dc_2 = 0$$

$$\Rightarrow \pi_1 MU(c_1)dc_1 = -\pi_2 MU(c_2)dc_2$$

$$\Rightarrow \frac{dc_2}{dc_1} = -\frac{\pi_1 MU(c_1)}{\pi_2 MU(c_2)}.$$

Preferences Under Uncertainty



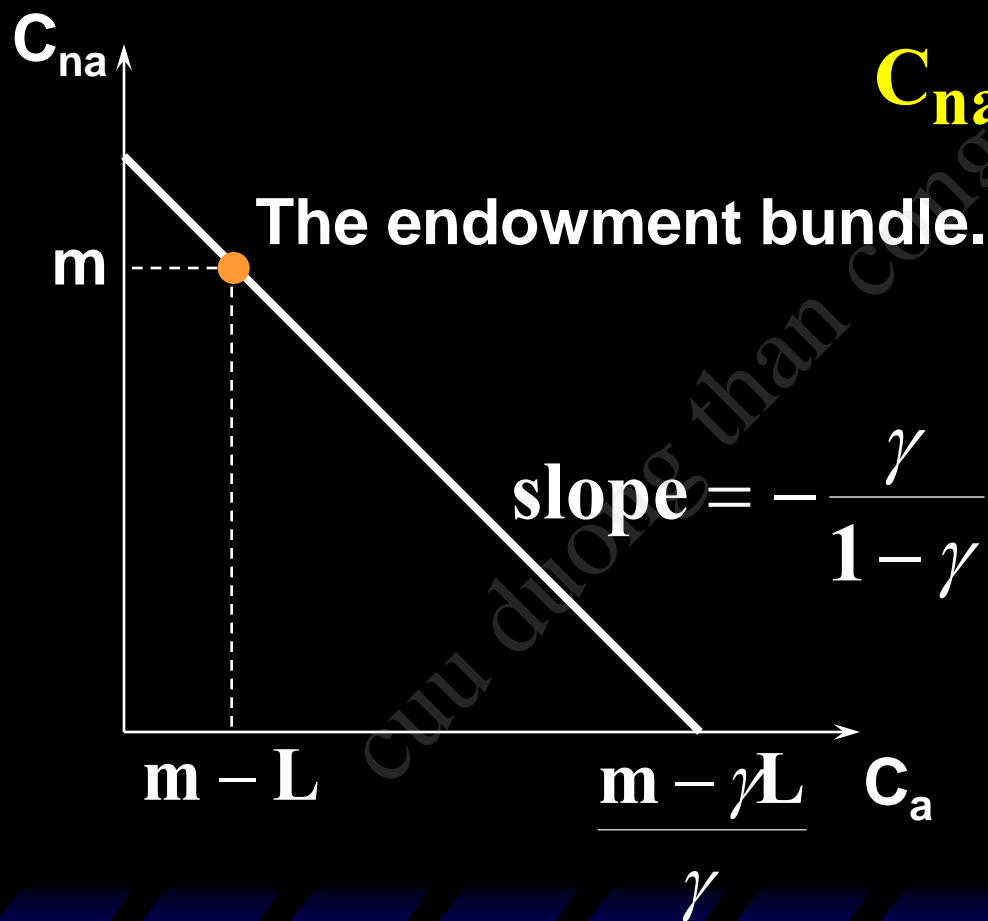
Indifference curves
 $EU_1 < EU_2 < EU_3$

$$\frac{dc_{na}}{dc_a} = - \frac{\pi_a MU(c_a)}{\pi_{na} MU(c_{na})}$$

Choice Under Uncertainty

- ◆ **Q: How is a rational choice made under uncertainty?**
- ◆ **A: Choose the most preferred affordable state-contingent consumption plan.**

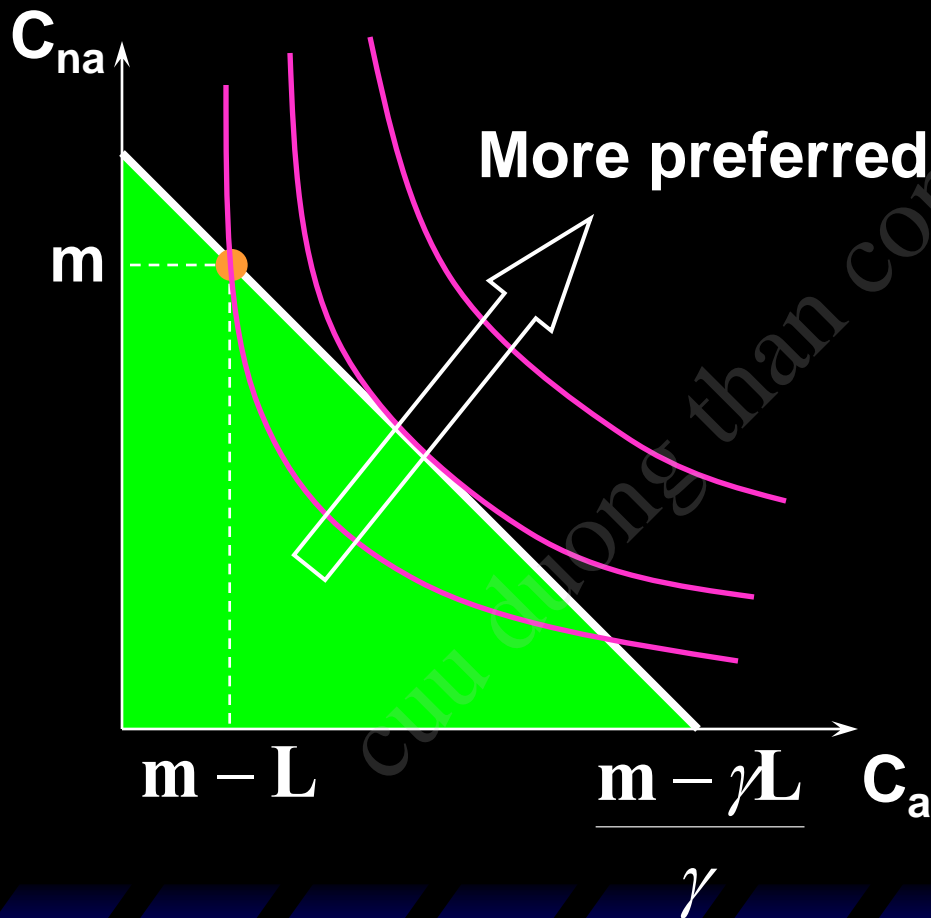
State-Contingent Budget Constraints



$$C_{na} = \frac{m - \gamma L}{1 - \gamma} - \frac{\gamma}{1 - \gamma} C_a$$

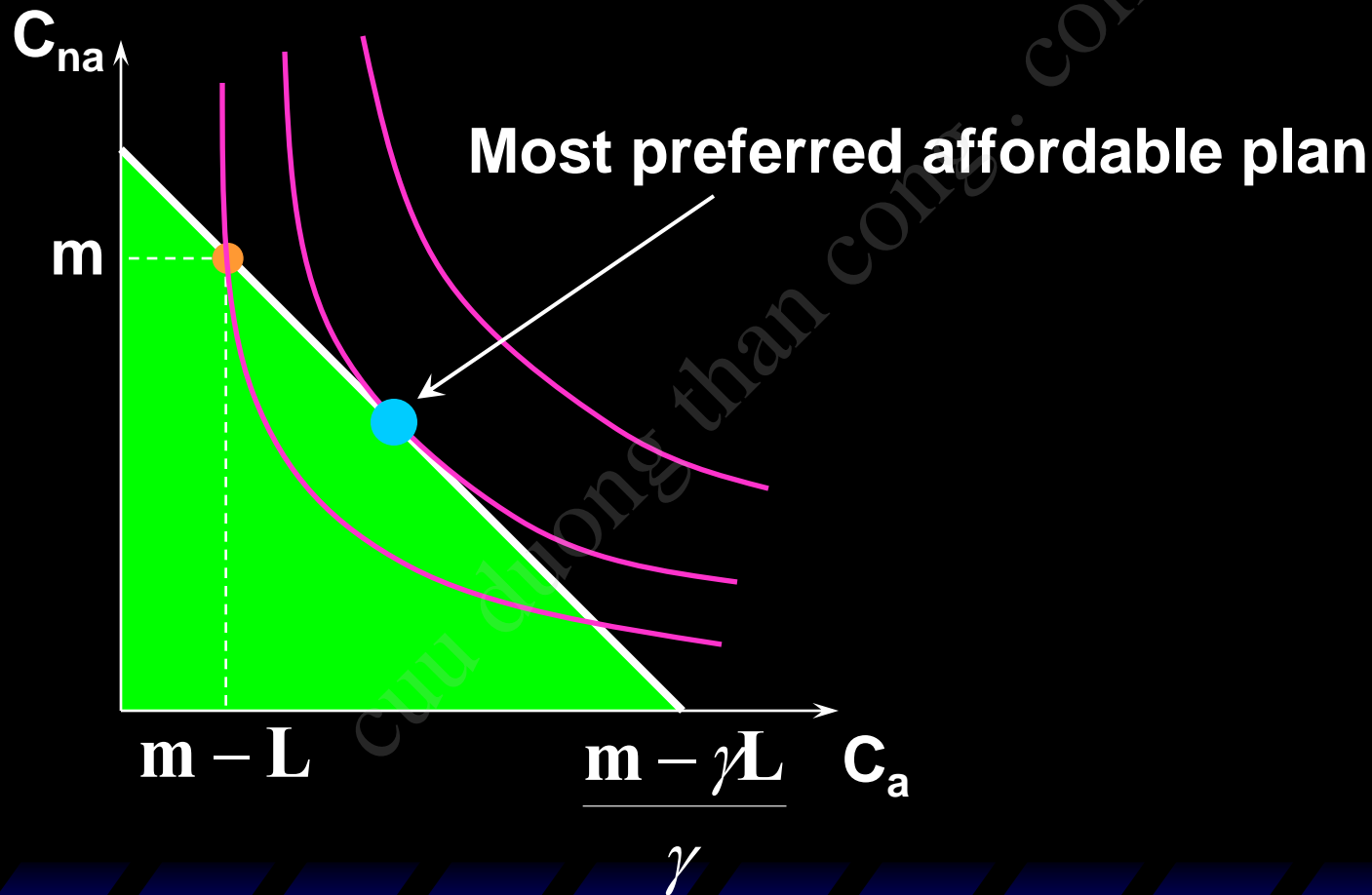
Where is the most preferred state-contingent consumption plan?

State-Contingent Budget Constraints

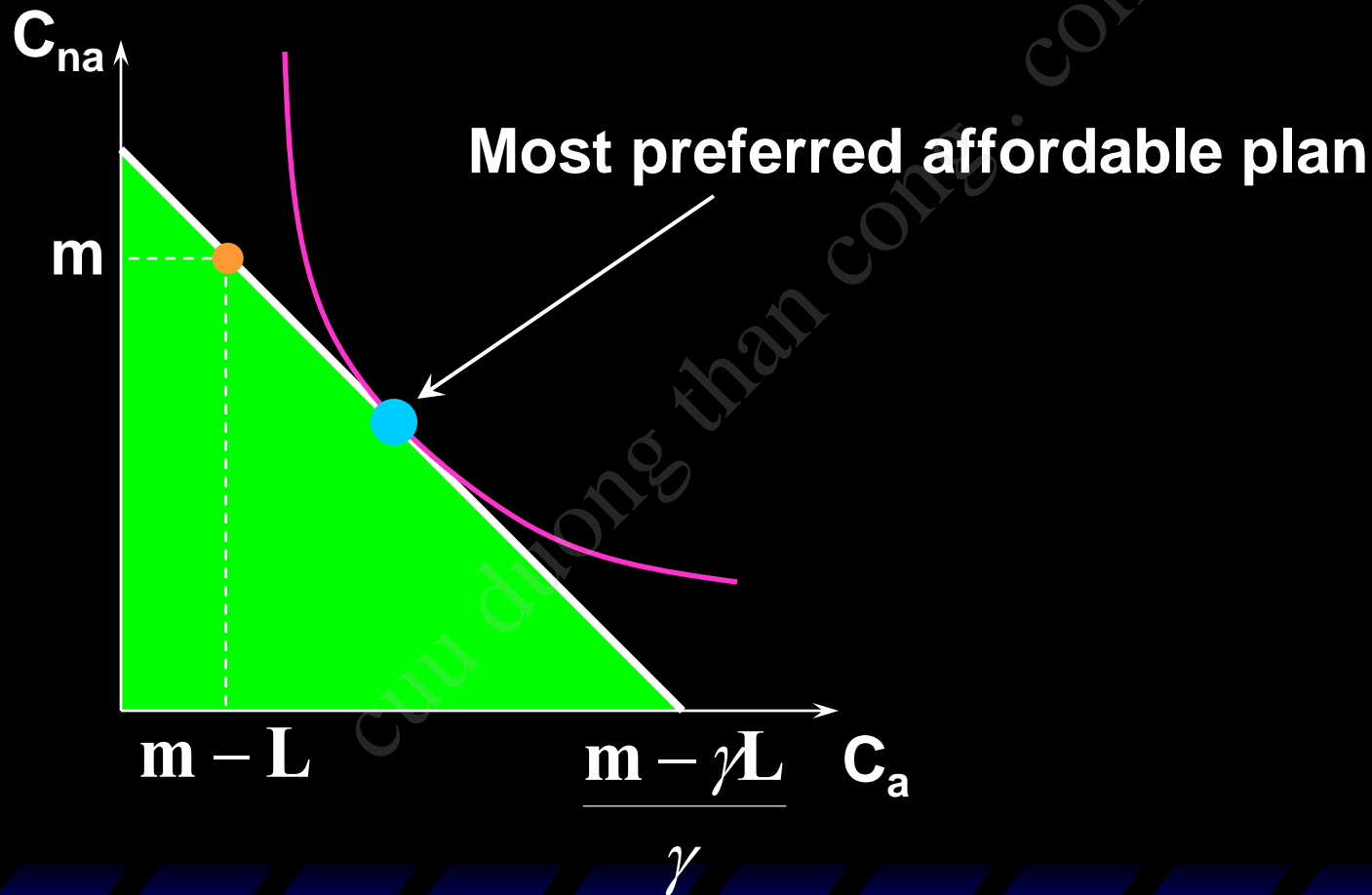


Where is the most preferred state-contingent consumption plan?

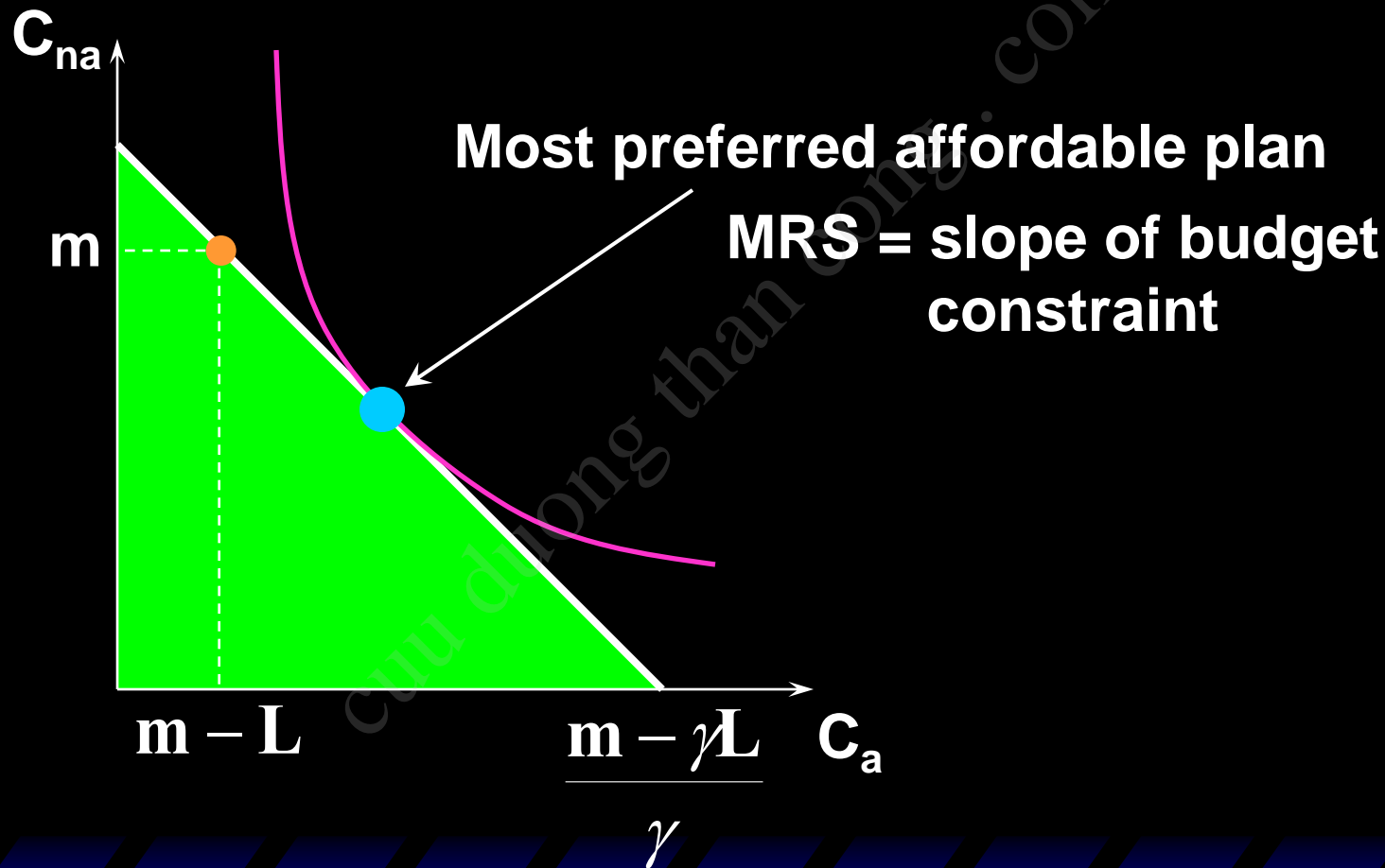
State-Contingent Budget Constraints



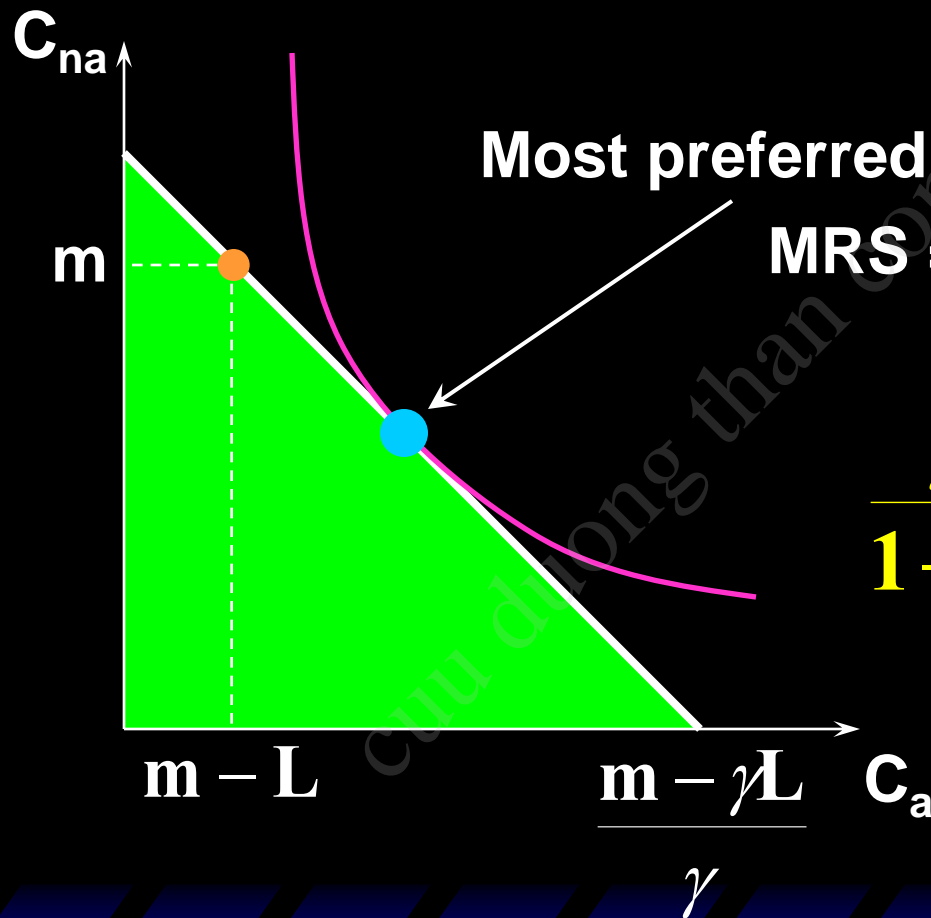
State-Contingent Budget Constraints



State-Contingent Budget Constraints



State-Contingent Budget Constraints



$$\frac{\gamma}{1-\gamma} = \frac{\pi_a \text{MU}(c_a)}{\pi_{na} \text{MU}(c_{na})}$$

Competitive Insurance

- ◆ Suppose entry to the insurance industry is free.
- ◆ Expected economic profit = 0.
- ◆ I.e. $\gamma K - \pi_a K - (1 - \pi_a)0 = (\gamma - \pi_a)K = 0$.
- ◆ I.e. free entry $\Rightarrow \gamma = \pi_a$.
- ◆ If price of \$1 insurance = accident probability, then insurance is **fair**.

Competitive Insurance

- ◆ When insurance is fair, rational insurance choices satisfy

$$\frac{\gamma}{1-\gamma} = \frac{\pi_a}{1-\pi_a} = \frac{\pi_a \text{MU}(\mathbf{c}_a)}{\pi_{na} \text{MU}(\mathbf{c}_{na})}$$

- ◆ i.e. $\text{MU}(\mathbf{c}_a) = \text{MU}(\mathbf{c}_{na})$
- ◆ Marginal utility of income must be the same in both states.

Competitive Insurance

- ◆ How much fair insurance does a risk-averse consumer buy?

$$MU(c_a) = MU(c_{na})$$

- ◆ Risk-aversion $\Rightarrow MU(c) \downarrow$ as $c \uparrow$.
- ◆ Hence $c_a = c_{na}$.
- ◆ I.e. full-insurance.

“Unfair” Insurance

- ◆ Suppose insurers make positive expected economic profit.
- ◆ I.e. $\gamma K - \pi_a K - (1 - \pi_a)0 = (\gamma - \pi_a)K > 0$.
- ◆ Then $\Rightarrow \gamma > \pi_a \Rightarrow \frac{\gamma}{1 - \gamma} > \frac{\pi_a}{1 - \pi_a}$.

“Unfair” Insurance

- ◆ Rational choice requires

$$\frac{\gamma}{1-\gamma} = \frac{\pi_a \text{MU}(\mathbf{c}_a)}{\pi_{na} \text{MU}(\mathbf{c}_{na})}$$

- ◆ Since $\frac{\gamma}{1-\gamma} > \frac{\pi_a}{1-\pi_a}$, $\text{MU}(\mathbf{c}_a) > \text{MU}(\mathbf{c}_{na})$

- ◆ Hence $\mathbf{c}_a < \mathbf{c}_{na}$ for a risk-avorter.

- ◆ I.e. a risk-avorter buys less than full “unfair” insurance.

Uncertainty is Pervasive

- ◆ **What are rational responses to uncertainty?**
 - ✓ – **buying insurance (health, life, auto)**
 - ? – **a portfolio of contingent consumption goods.**

Diversification

- ◆ Two firms, A and B. Shares cost \$10.
- ◆ With prob. $1/2$ A's profit is \$100 and B's profit is \$20.
- ◆ With prob. $1/2$ A's profit is \$20 and B's profit is \$100.
- ◆ You have \$100 to invest. How?

Diversification

- ◆ Buy only firm A's stock?
- ◆ $\$100/10 = 10$ shares.
- ◆ You earn \$1000 with prob. $1/2$ and \$200 with prob. $1/2$.
- ◆ Expected earning: $\$500 + \$100 = \$600$

Diversification

- ◆ Buy only firm B's stock?
- ◆ $\$100/10 = 10$ shares.
- ◆ You earn \$1000 with prob. $1/2$ and \$200 with prob. $1/2$.
- ◆ Expected earning: $\$500 + \$100 = \$600$

Diversification

- ◆ Buy 5 shares in each firm?
- ◆ You earn \$600 **for sure**.
- ◆ Diversification has maintained expected earning and lowered risk.
- ◆ Typically, diversification lowers expected earnings in exchange for lowered risk.

Risk Spreading/Mutual Insurance

- ◆ 100 risk-neutral persons each independently risk a \$10,000 loss.
- ◆ Loss probability = 0.01.
- ◆ Initial wealth is \$40,000.
- ◆ No insurance: expected wealth is
$$0.99 \times \$40,000 + 0.01(\$40,000 - \$10,000)$$
$$= \$39,900.$$

Risk Spreading/Mutual Insurance

- ◆ **Mutual insurance: Expected loss is**
 $0.01 \times \$10,000 = \$100.$
- ◆ **Each of the 100 persons pays \$1 into a mutual insurance fund.**
- ◆ **Mutual insurance: expected wealth is**
 $\$40,000 - \$1 = \$39,999 > \$39,900.$
- ◆ **Risk-spreading benefits everyone.**

2. Market Demand

From Individual to Market Demand Functions

- ◆ Think of an economy containing n consumers, denoted by $i = 1, \dots, n$.
- ◆ Consumer i 's ordinary demand function for commodity j is

$$x_j^{*i}(p_1, p_2, m^i)$$

From Individual to Market

Demand Functions

- ◆ When all consumers are price-takers, the market demand function for commodity j is

$$X_j(p_1, p_2, m^1, \dots, m^n) = \sum_{i=1}^n x_j^{*i}(p_1, p_2, m^i).$$

- ◆ If all consumers are identical then

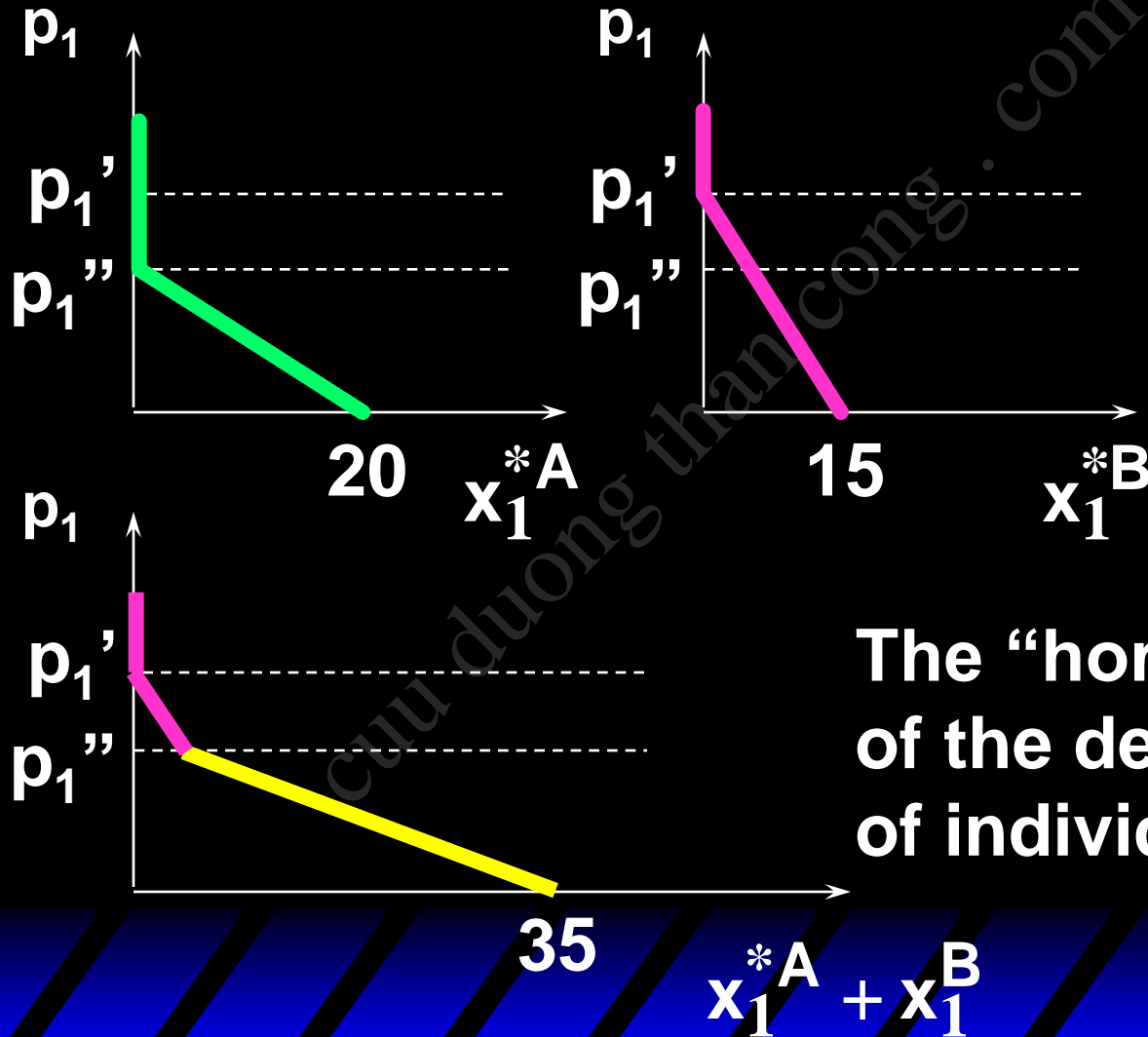
$$X_j(p_1, p_2, M) = n \times x_j^*(p_1, p_2, m)$$

where $M = nm$.

From Individual to Market Demand Functions

- ◆ The market demand curve is the “horizontal sum” of the individual consumers’ demand curves.
- ◆ E.g. suppose there are only two consumers; $i = A, B$.

From Individual to Market Demand Functions



The “horizontal sum”
of the demand curves
of individuals A and B.

Elasticities

- ◆ Elasticity measures the “sensitivity” of one variable with respect to another.
- ◆ The elasticity of variable X with respect to variable Y is

$$\epsilon_{x,y} = \frac{\% \Delta x}{\% \Delta y}.$$

Economic Applications of Elasticity

- ◆ Economists use elasticities to measure the sensitivity of
 - quantity demanded of commodity i with respect to the price of commodity i (own-price elasticity of demand)
 - demand for commodity i with respect to the price of commodity j (cross-price elasticity of demand).

Economic Applications of Elasticity

- demand for commodity i with respect to income (income elasticity of demand)
- quantity supplied of commodity i with respect to the price of commodity i (own-price elasticity of supply)

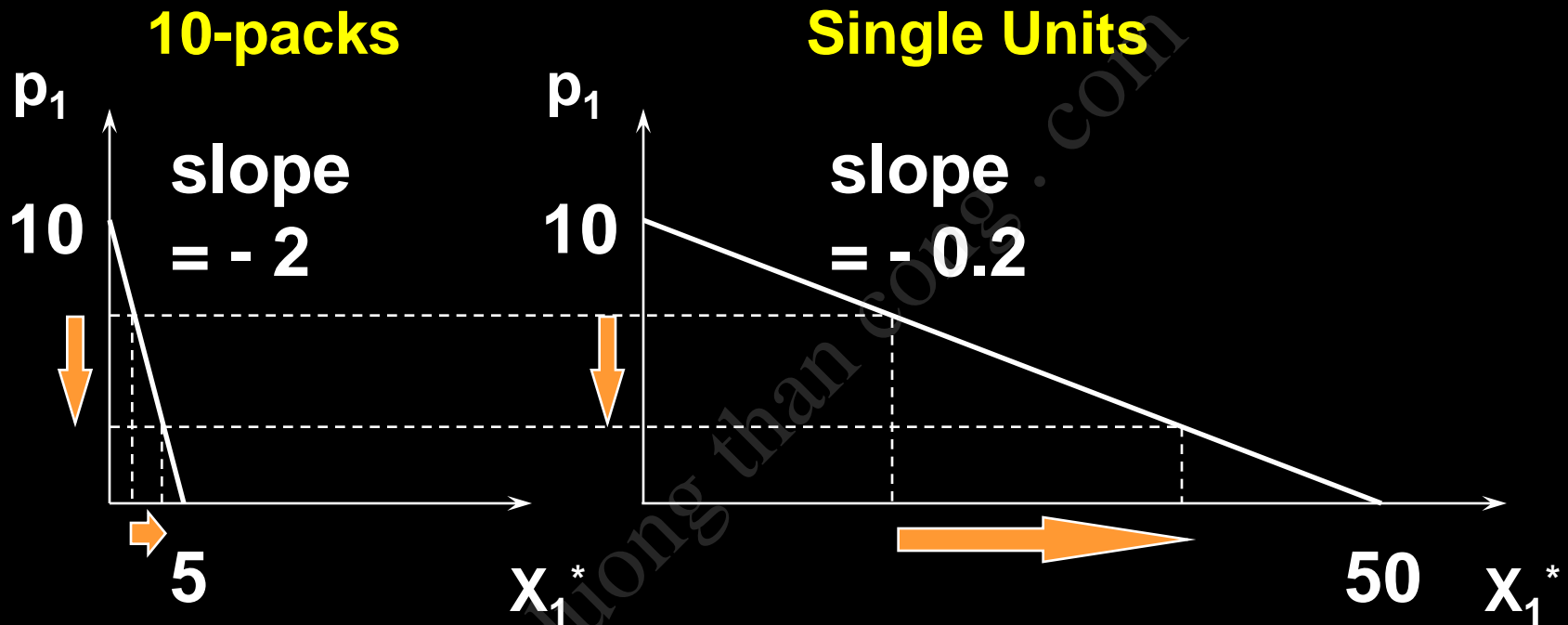
Economic Applications of Elasticity

- quantity supplied of commodity i with respect to the wage rate (elasticity of supply with respect to the price of labor)
- and many, many others.

Own-Price Elasticity of Demand

- ◆ Q: Why not use a demand curve's slope to measure the sensitivity of quantity demanded to a change in a commodity's own price?

Own-Price Elasticity of Demand



In which case is the quantity demanded x_1^* more sensitive to changes to p_1 ?
It is the same in both cases.

Own-Price Elasticity of Demand

- ◆ Q: Why not just use the slope of a demand curve to measure the sensitivity of quantity demanded to a change in a commodity's own price?
- ◆ A: Because the value of sensitivity then depends upon the (arbitrary) units of measurement used for quantity demanded.

Own-Price Elasticity of Demand

$$\epsilon_{x_1, p_1}^* = \frac{\% \Delta x_1^*}{\% \Delta p_1}$$

is a ratio of percentages and so has no units of measurement.

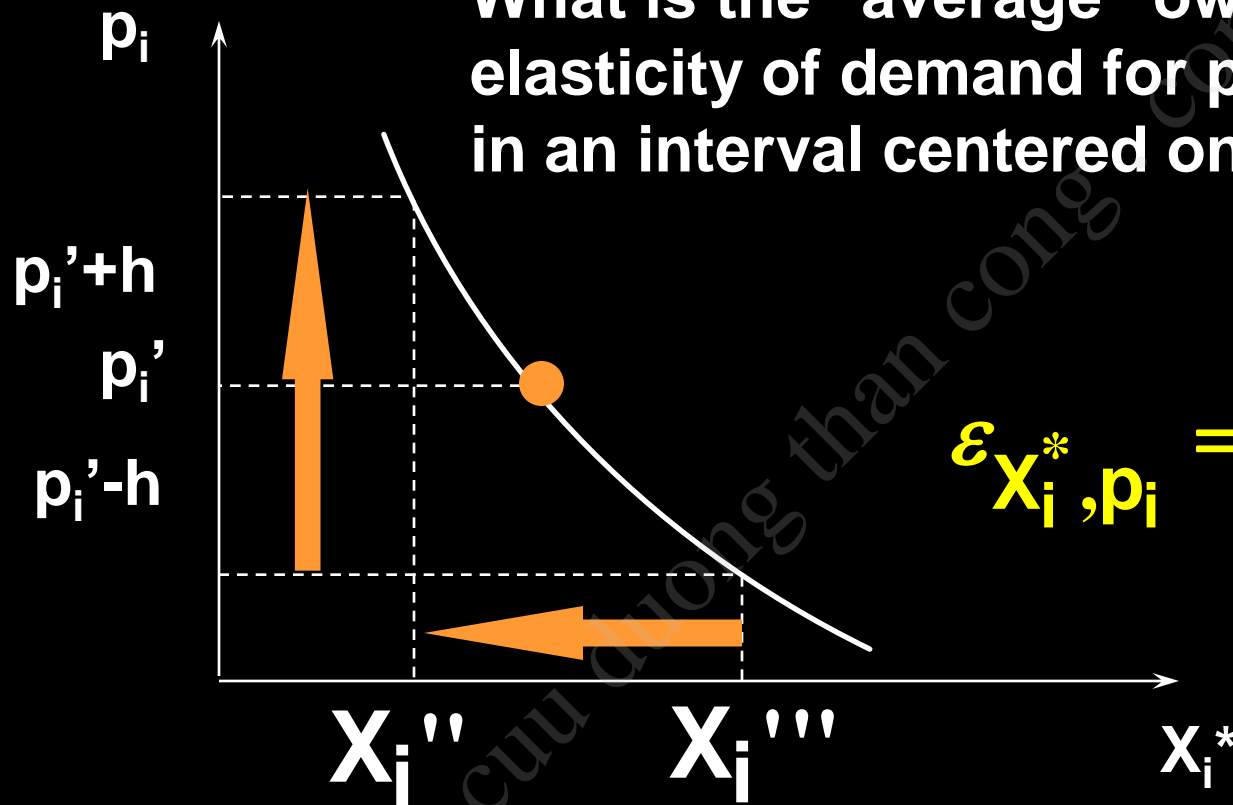
Hence own-price elasticity of demand is a sensitivity measure that is independent of units of measurement.

Arc and Point Elasticities

- ◆ An “average” own-price elasticity of demand for commodity i over an **interval of values for p_i** is an **arc-elasticity**, usually computed by a mid-point formula.
- ◆ Elasticity computed for a **single value of p_i** is a **point elasticity**.

Arc Own-Price Elasticity

What is the “average” own-price elasticity of demand for prices in an interval centered on p_i' ?



$$\epsilon_{x_i^*, p_i} = \frac{\% \Delta X_i^*}{\% \Delta p_i}$$

$$\% \Delta p_i = 100 \times \frac{2h}{p_i'} \quad \% \Delta X_i^* = 100 \times \frac{(X_i'' - X_i''')}{(X_i'' + X_i''') / 2}$$

Arc Own-Price Elasticity

$$\% \Delta p_i = 100 \times \frac{2h}{p_i'}$$

$$\epsilon_{X_i^*, p_i} = \frac{\% \Delta X_i^*}{\% \Delta p_i}$$

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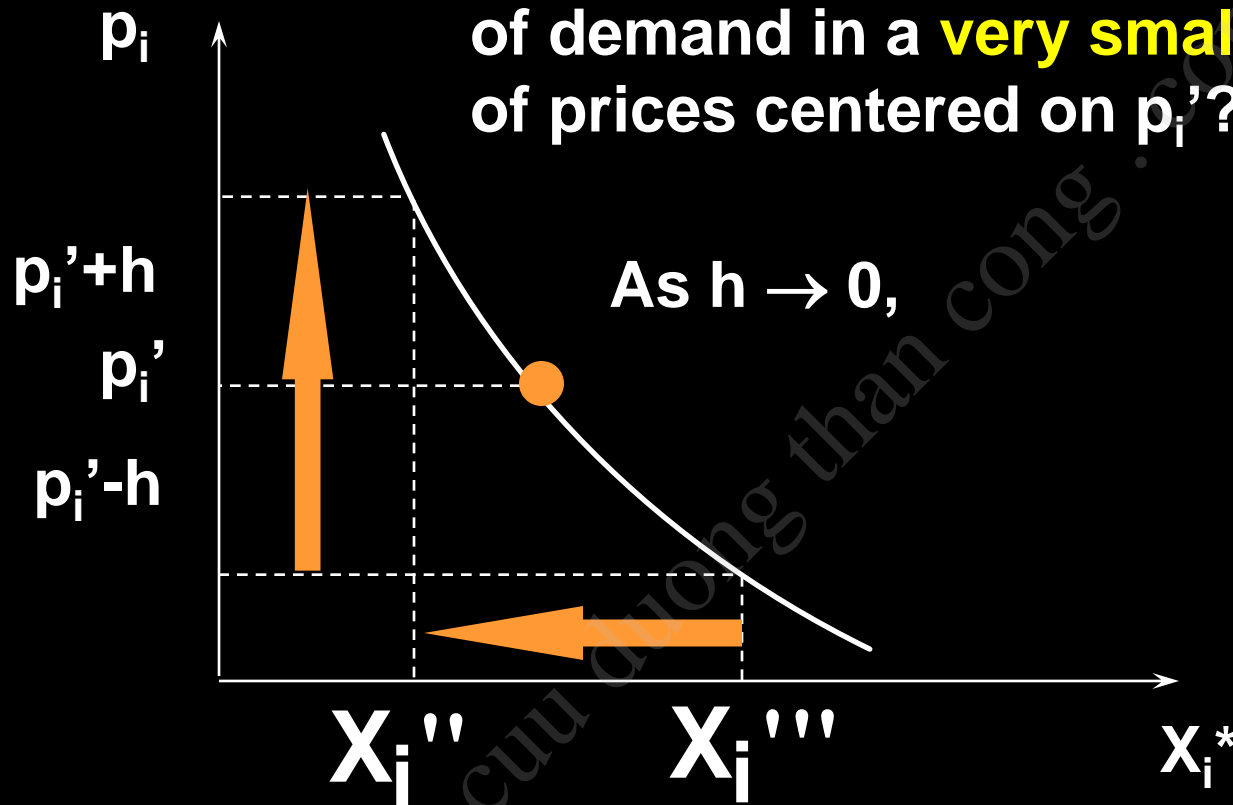
So

$$\epsilon_{X_i^*, p_i} = \frac{\% \Delta X_i^*}{\% \Delta p_i} = \frac{p_i'}{(X_i'' + X_i''') / 2} \times \frac{(X_i'' - X_i''')}{2h}.$$

is the arc own-price elasticity of demand.

Point Own-Price Elasticity

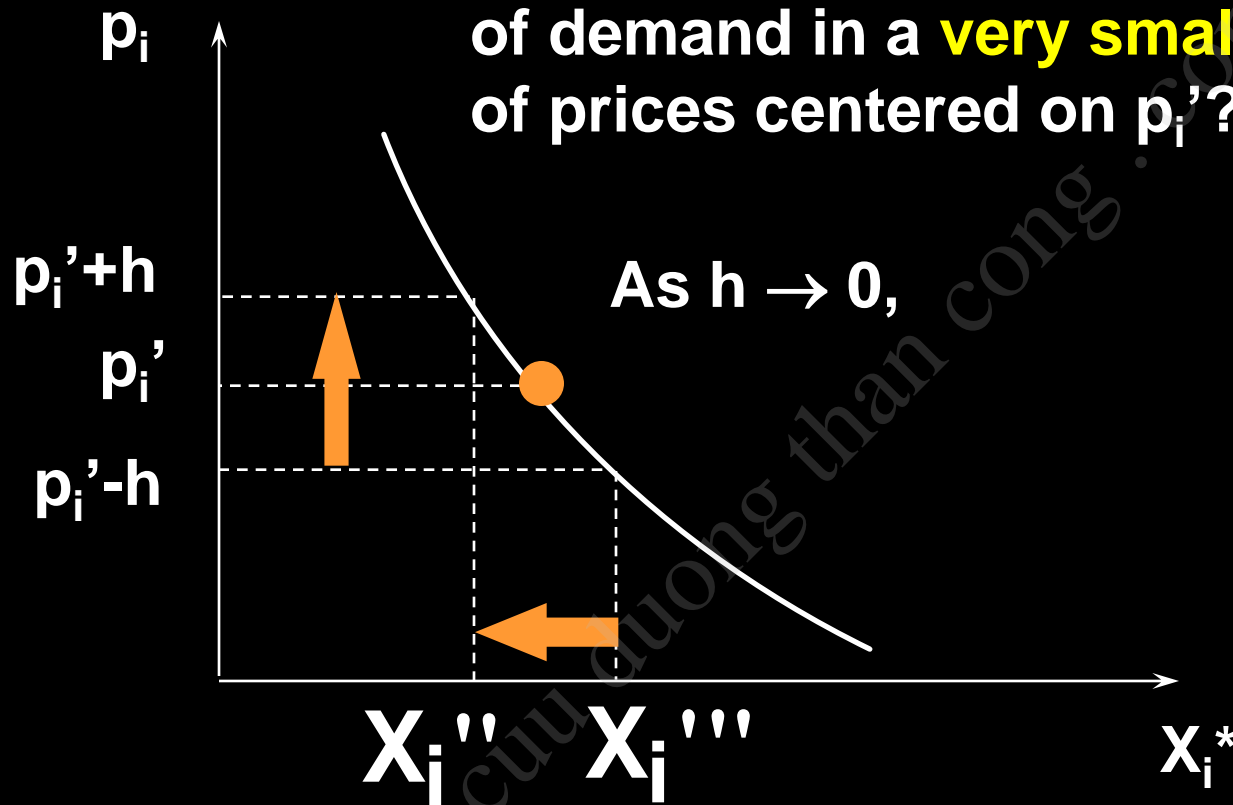
What is the own-price elasticity of demand in a **very small interval** of prices centered on p_i' ?



$$\epsilon_{x_i^*, p_i} = \frac{\% \Delta x_i^*}{\% \Delta p_i} = \frac{p_i'}{(x_i'' + x_i''')/2} \times \frac{(x_i'' - x_i''')}{2h}.$$

Point Own-Price Elasticity

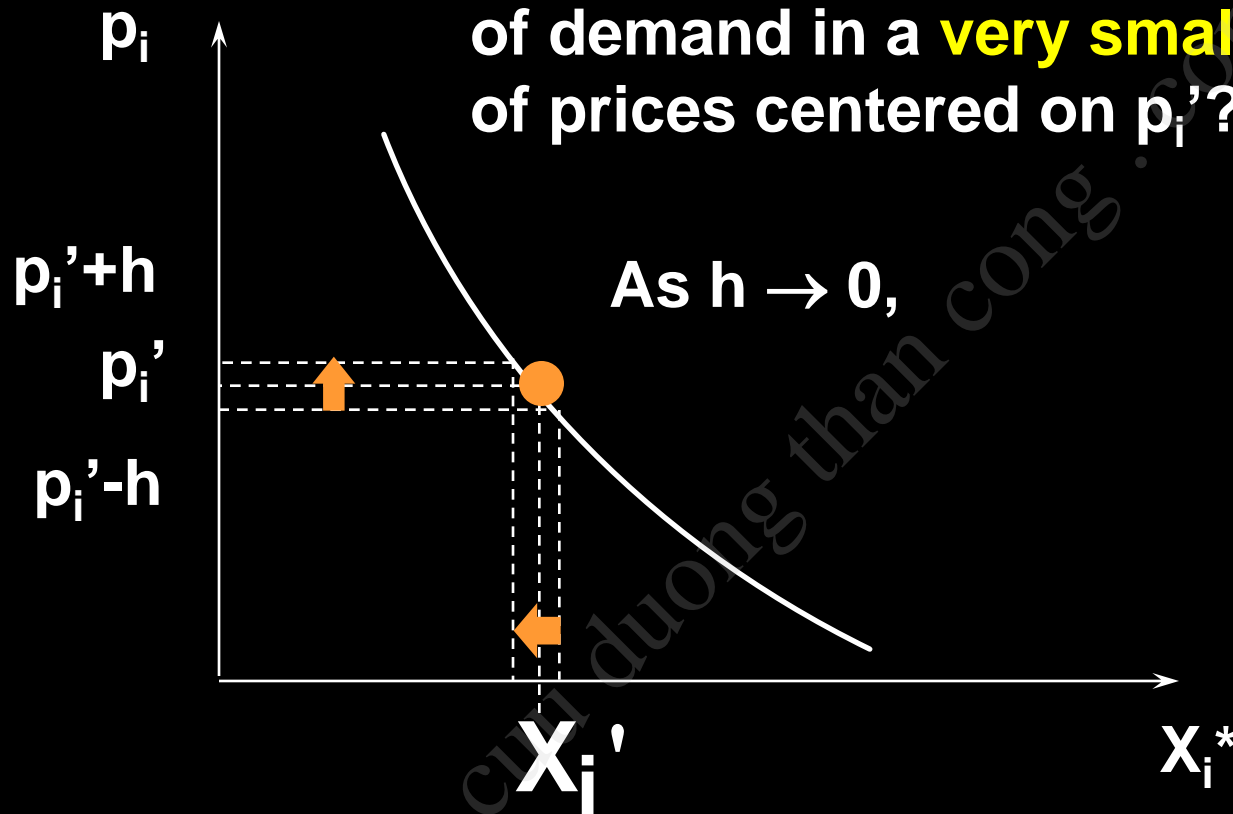
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Point Own-Price Elasticity

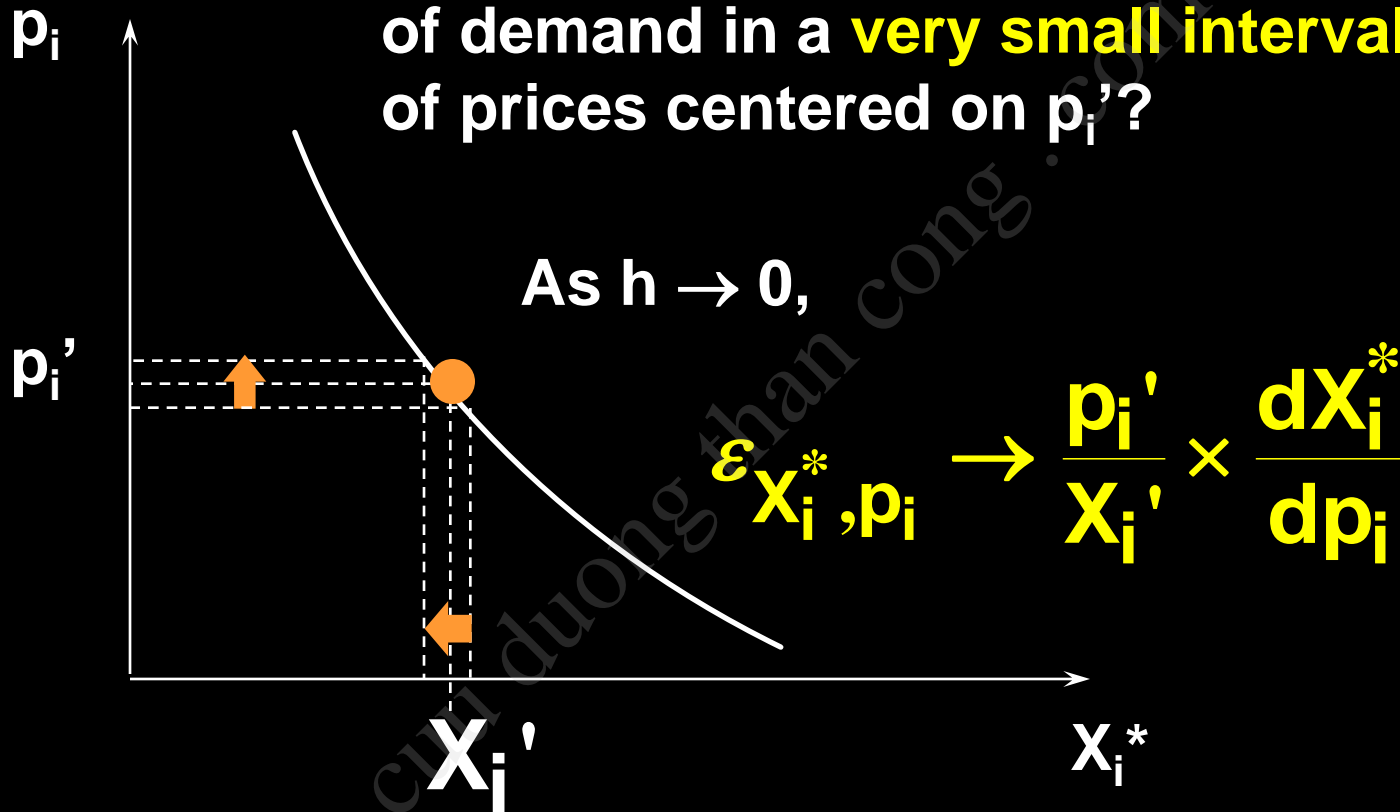
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Point Own-Price Elasticity

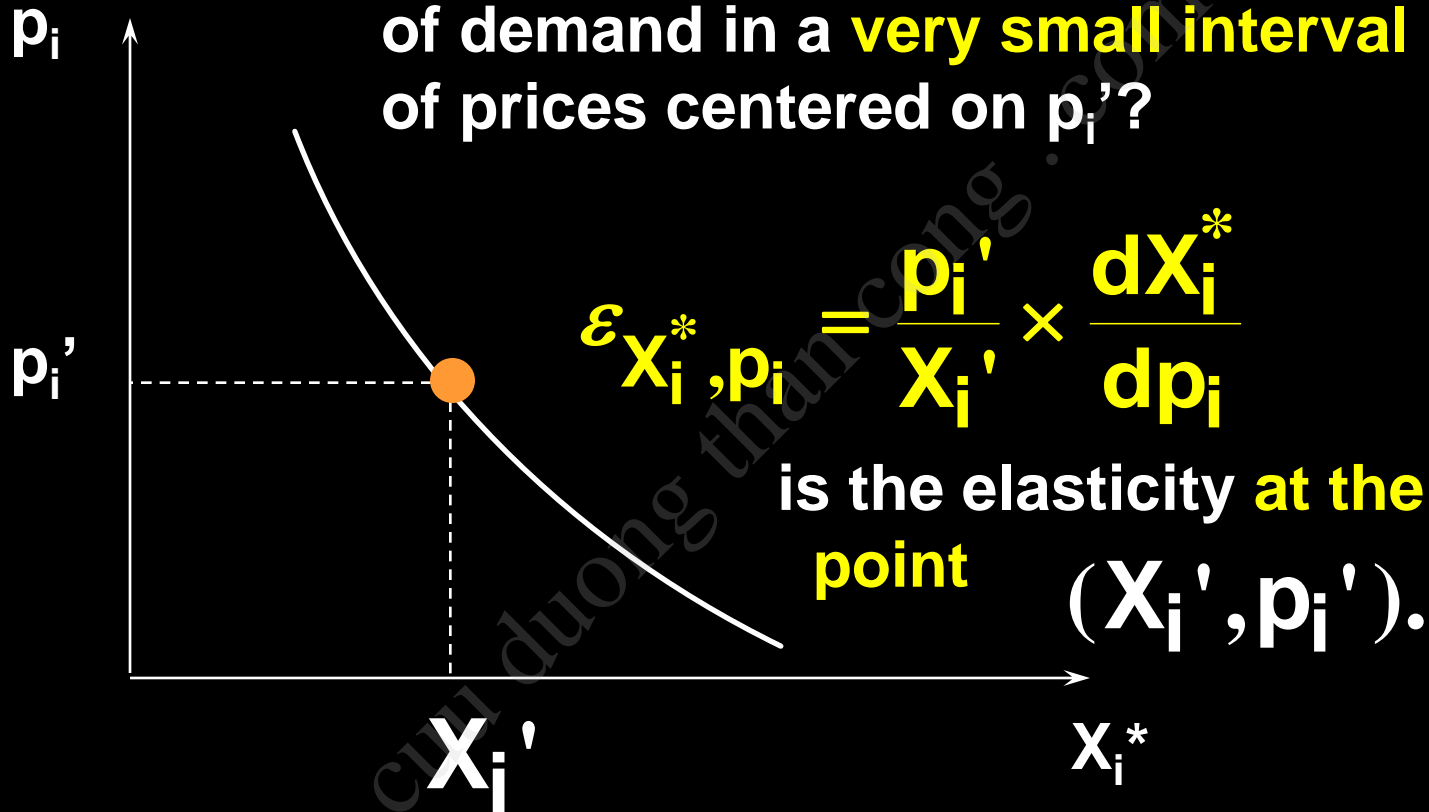
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Point Own-Price Elasticity

What is the own-price elasticity of demand in a **very small interval** of prices centered on p_i ?



Point Own-Price Elasticity

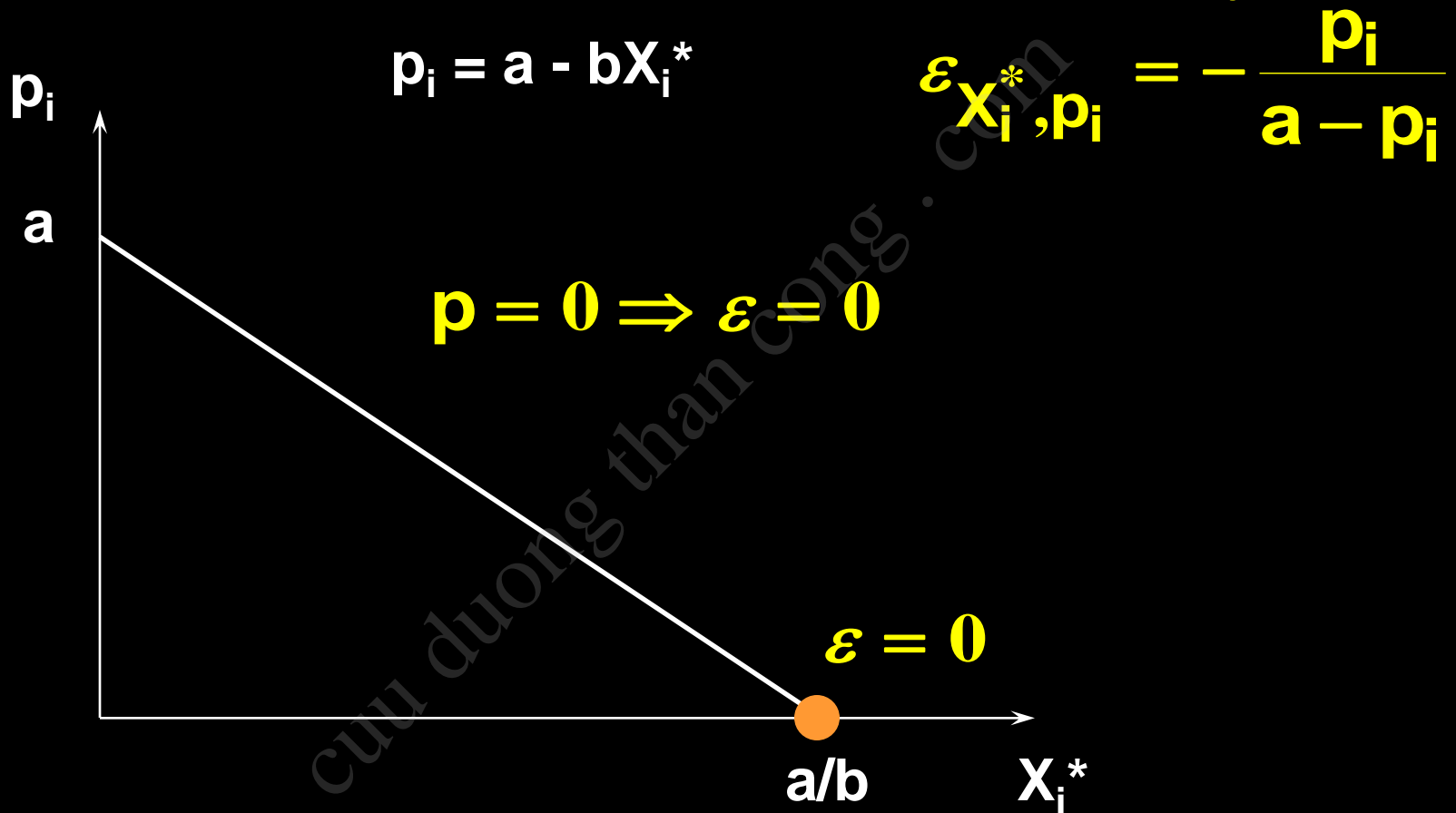
$$\varepsilon_{X_i^*, p_i} = \frac{p_i}{X_i^*} \times \frac{dX_i^*}{dp_i}$$

E.g. Suppose $p_i = a - bX_i$.
Then $X_i = (a - p_i)/b$ and

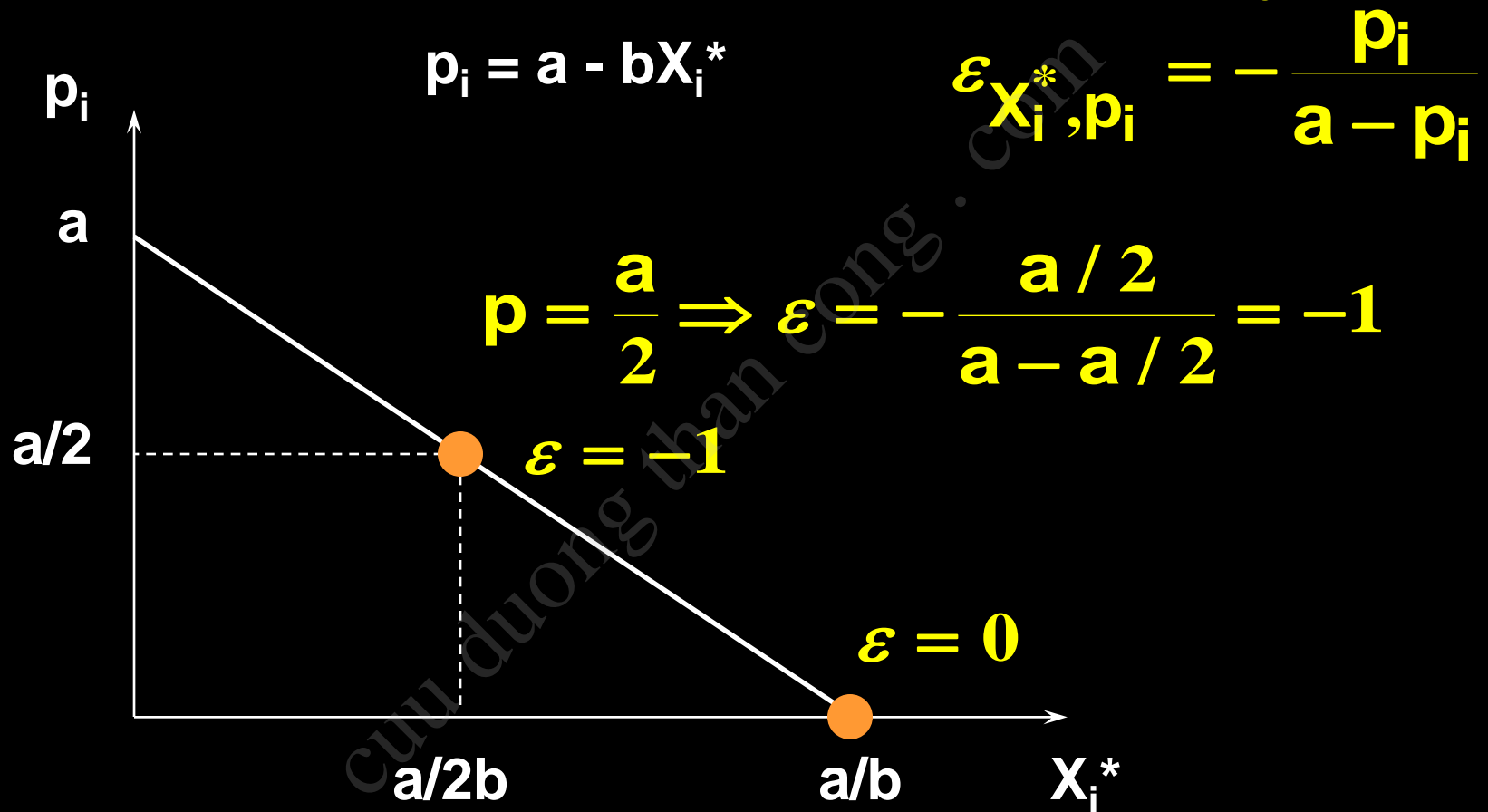
$$\frac{dX_i^*}{dp_i} = -\frac{1}{b}. \text{ Therefore,}$$

$$\varepsilon_{X_i^*, p_i} = \frac{p_i}{(a - p_i) / b} \times \left(-\frac{1}{b} \right) = -\frac{p_i}{a - p_i}.$$

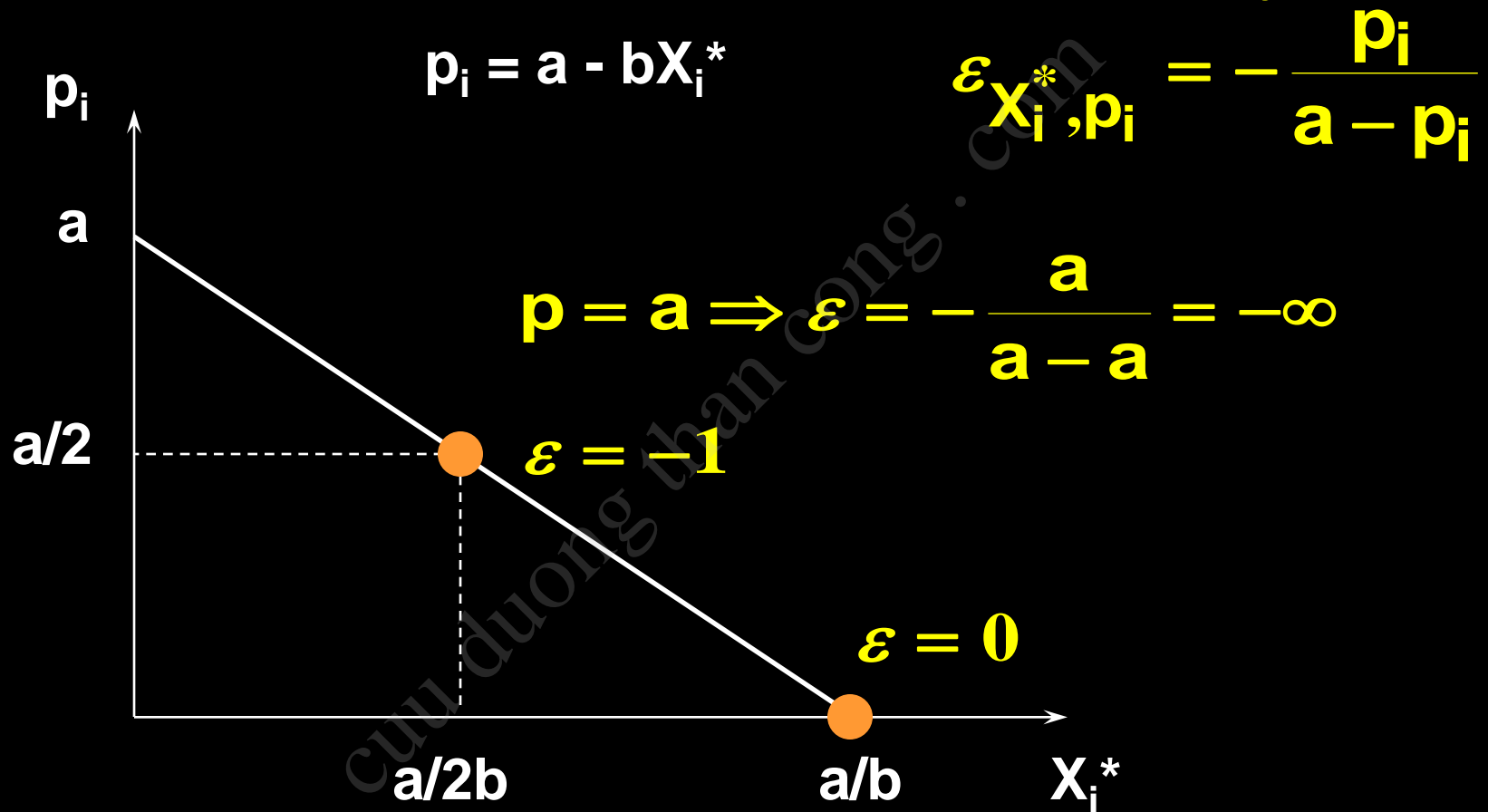
Point Own-Price Elasticity



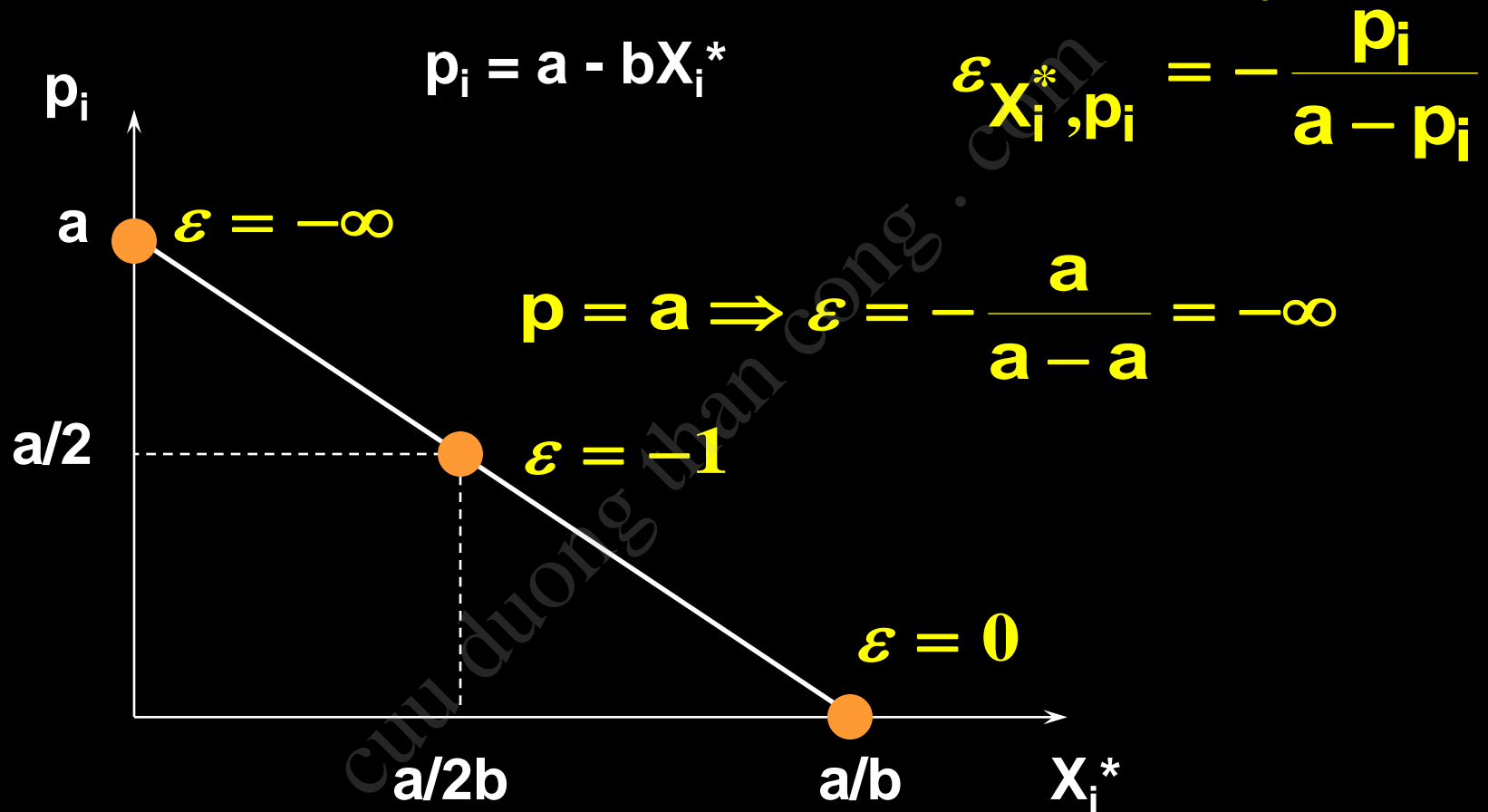
Point Own-Price Elasticity



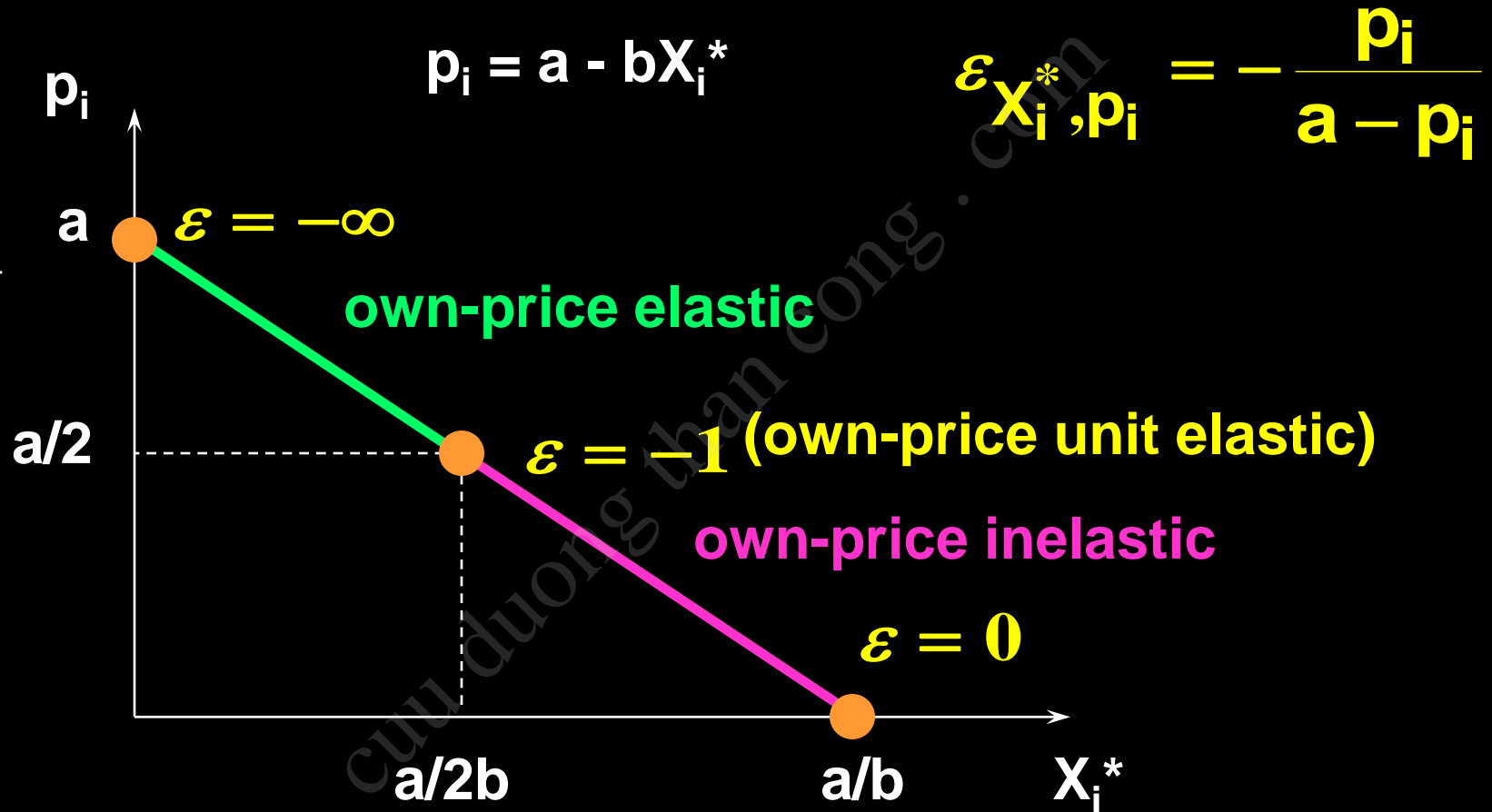
Point Own-Price Elasticity



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Point Own-Price Elasticity

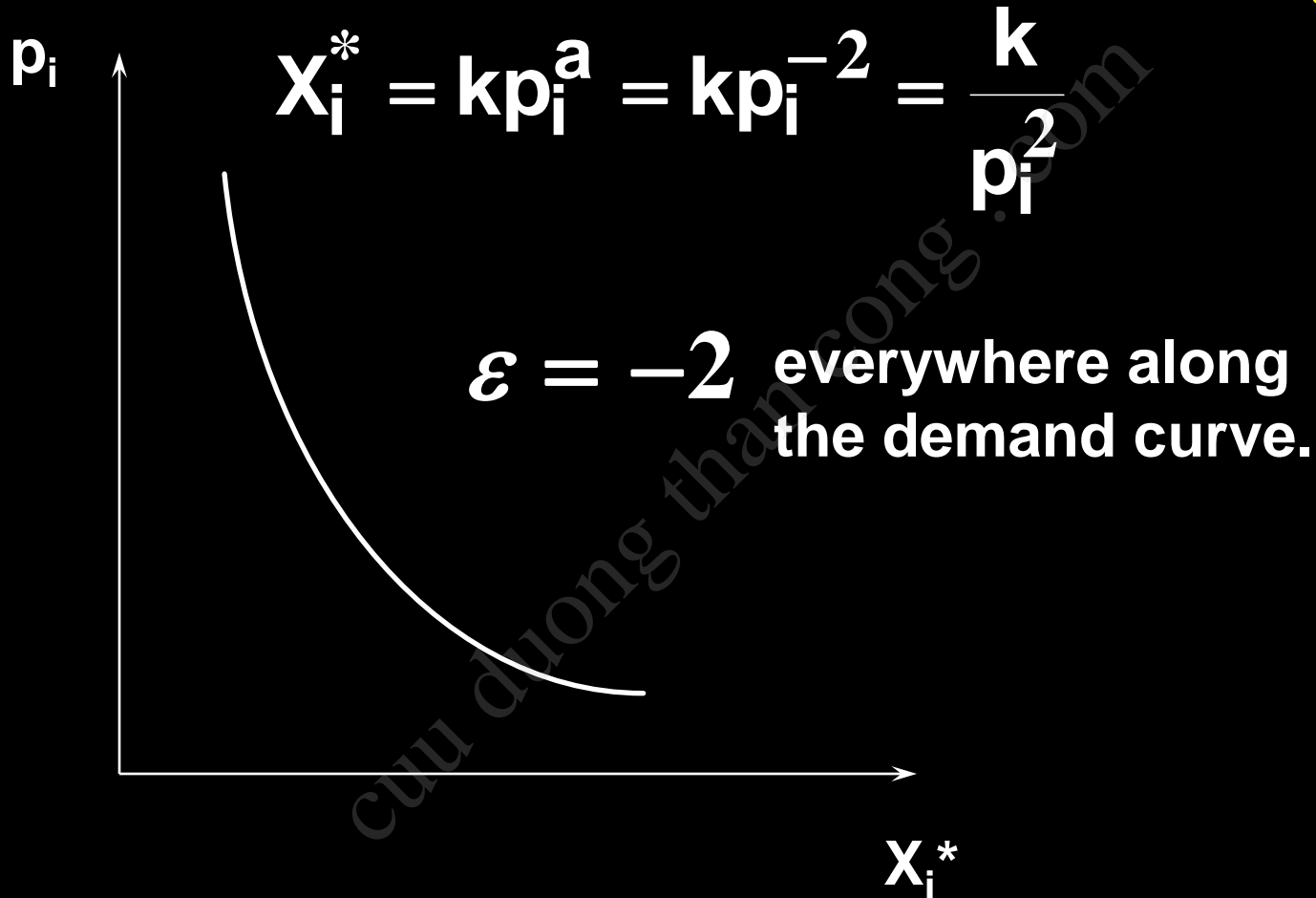
$$\epsilon_{X_i^*, p_i} = \frac{p_i}{X_i^*} \times \frac{dX_i^*}{dp_i}$$

E.g. $X_i^* = k p_i^a$. Then $\frac{dX_i^*}{dp_i} = a p_i^{a-1}$

so

$$\epsilon_{X_i^*, p_i} = \frac{p_i}{k p_i^a} \times k a p_i^{a-1} = a \frac{p_i^a}{p_i^a} = a.$$

Point Own-Price Elasticity



Revenue and Own-Price Elasticity of Demand

- ◆ If raising a commodity's price causes little decrease in quantity demanded, then sellers' revenues rise.
- ◆ Hence own-price **inelastic** demand causes sellers' revenues to rise as price rises.

Revenue and Own-Price Elasticity of Demand

- ◆ If raising a commodity's price causes a large decrease in quantity demanded, then sellers' revenues fall.
- ◆ Hence own-price **elastic** demand causes sellers' revenues to fall as price rises.

Revenue and Own-Price Elasticity of Demand

Sellers' revenue is

$$R(p) = p \times X^*(p).$$

Revenue and Own-Price Elasticity of Demand

Sellers' revenue is

$$R(p) = p \times X^*(p).$$

So

$$\frac{dR}{dp} = X^*(p) + p \frac{dX^*}{dp}$$

Revenue and Own-Price Elasticity of Demand

Sellers' revenue is $R(p) = p \times X^*(p)$.

So

$$\frac{dR}{dp} = X^*(p) + p \frac{dX^*}{dp}$$
$$= X^*(p) \left[1 + \frac{p}{X^*(p)} \frac{dX^*}{dp} \right]$$

Revenue and Own-Price Elasticity of Demand

Sellers' revenue is $R(p) = p \times X^*(p)$.

So

$$\begin{aligned}\frac{dR}{dp} &= X^*(p) + p \frac{dX^*}{dp} \\ &= X^*(p) \left[1 + \frac{p}{X^*(p)} \frac{dX^*}{dp} \right] \\ &= X^*(p) [1 + \varepsilon].\end{aligned}$$

Revenue and Own-Price Elasticity of Demand

$$\frac{dR}{dp} = X^*(p)[1 + \varepsilon]$$

Revenue and Own-Price Elasticity of Demand

$$\frac{dR}{dp} = X^*(p)[1 + \varepsilon]$$

so if $\varepsilon = -1$ then $\frac{dR}{dp} = 0$

and a change to price does not alter
sellers' revenue.

Revenue and Own-Price Elasticity of Demand

$$\frac{dR}{dp} = X^*(p)[1 + \varepsilon]$$

but if $-1 < \varepsilon \leq 0$ then $\frac{dR}{dp} > 0$

and a price increase raises sellers' revenue.

Revenue and Own-Price Elasticity of Demand

$$\frac{dR}{dp} = X^*(p)[1 + \varepsilon]$$

And if $\varepsilon < -1$ then $\frac{dR}{dp} < 0$

and a price increase reduces sellers' revenue.

Revenue and Own-Price Elasticity of Demand

In summary:

Own-price inelastic demand; $-1 < \varepsilon \leq 0$
price rise causes rise in sellers' revenue.

Own-price unit elastic demand; $\varepsilon = -1$
price rise causes no change in sellers' revenue.

Own-price elastic demand; $\varepsilon < -1$
price rise causes fall in sellers' revenue.

Marginal Revenue and Own-Price Elasticity of Demand

- ◆ A seller's **marginal revenue** is the rate at which revenue changes with the number of units sold by the seller.

$$MR(q) = \frac{dR(q)}{dq}.$$

Marginal Revenue and Own-Price Elasticity of Demand

$p(q)$ denotes the seller's inverse demand function; i.e. the price at which the seller can sell q units. Then

$$R(q) = p(q) \times q$$

so

$$\begin{aligned} MR(q) &= \frac{dR(q)}{dq} = \frac{dp(q)}{dq} q + p(q) \\ &= p(q) \left[1 + \frac{q}{p(q)} \frac{dp(q)}{dq} \right]. \end{aligned}$$

Marginal Revenue and Own-Price Elasticity of Demand

$$MR(q) = p(q) \left[1 + \frac{q}{p(q)} \frac{dp(q)}{dq} \right].$$

and $\epsilon = \frac{dq}{dp} \times \frac{p}{q}$

so $MR(q) = p(q) \left[1 + \frac{1}{\epsilon} \right].$

Marginal Revenue and Own-Price Elasticity of Demand

$$\mathbf{MR(q) = p(q) \left[1 + \frac{1}{\varepsilon} \right]}$$
 says that the rate

at which a seller's revenue changes with the number of units it sells depends on the sensitivity of quantity demanded to price; *i.e.*, upon the of the own-price elasticity of demand.

Marginal Revenue and Own-Price Elasticity of Demand

$$MR(q) = p(q) \left[1 + \frac{1}{\varepsilon} \right]$$

If $\varepsilon = -1$ then $MR(q) = 0$.

If $-1 < \varepsilon \leq 0$ then $MR(q) < 0$.

If $\varepsilon < -1$ then $MR(q) > 0$.

Marginal Revenue and Own-Price Elasticity of Demand

If $\varepsilon = -1$ then $MR(q) = 0$.

Selling one more unit does not change the seller's revenue.

If $-1 < \varepsilon \leq 0$ then $MR(q) < 0$.

Selling one more unit reduces the seller's revenue.

If $\varepsilon < -1$ then $MR(q) > 0$.

Selling one more unit raises the seller's revenue.

Marginal Revenue and Own-Price Elasticity of Demand

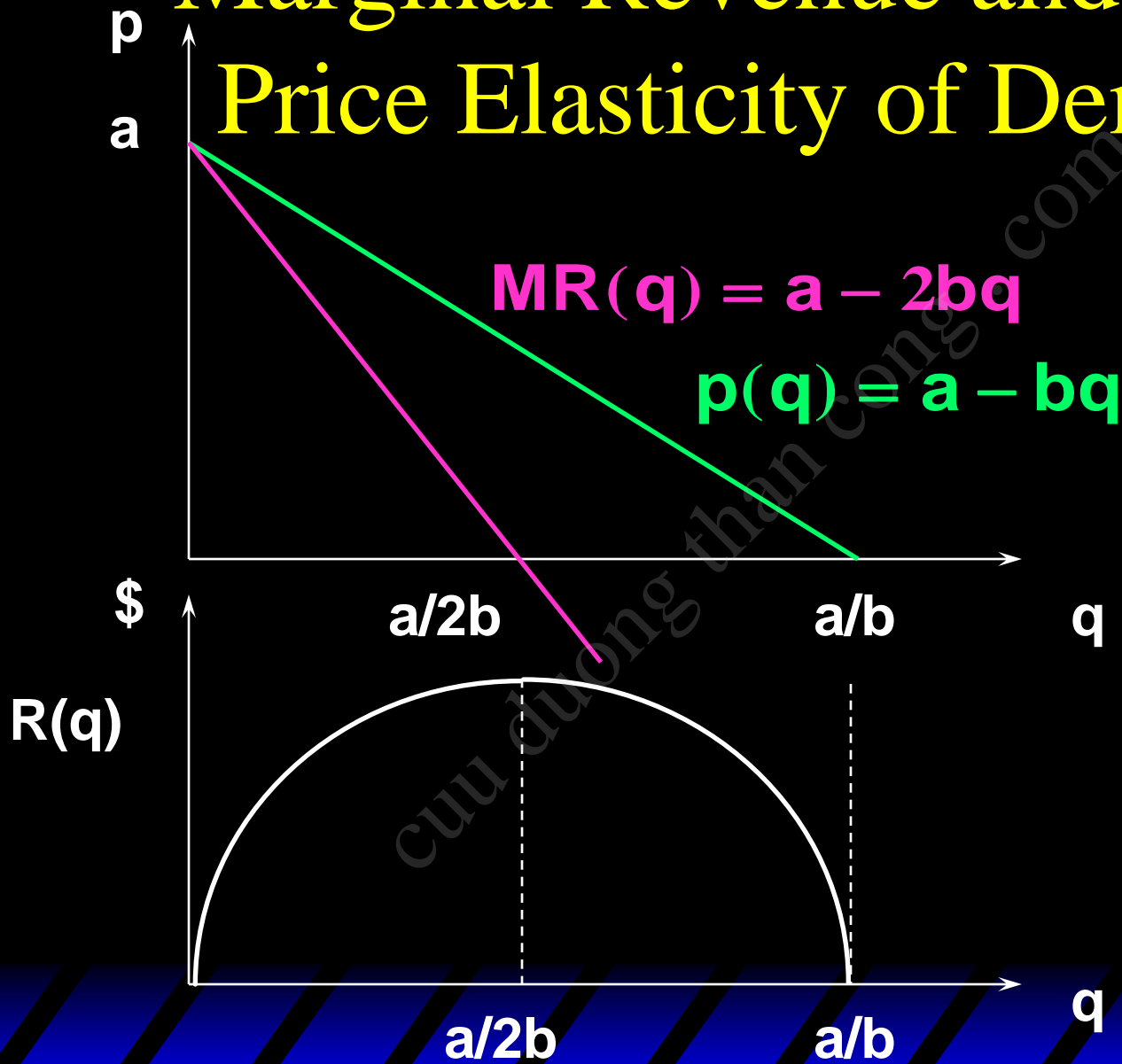
An example with linear inverse demand.

$$p(q) = a - bq.$$

Then $R(q) = p(q)q = (a - bq)q$

and $MR(q) = a - 2bq.$

Marginal Revenue and Own-Price Elasticity of Demand

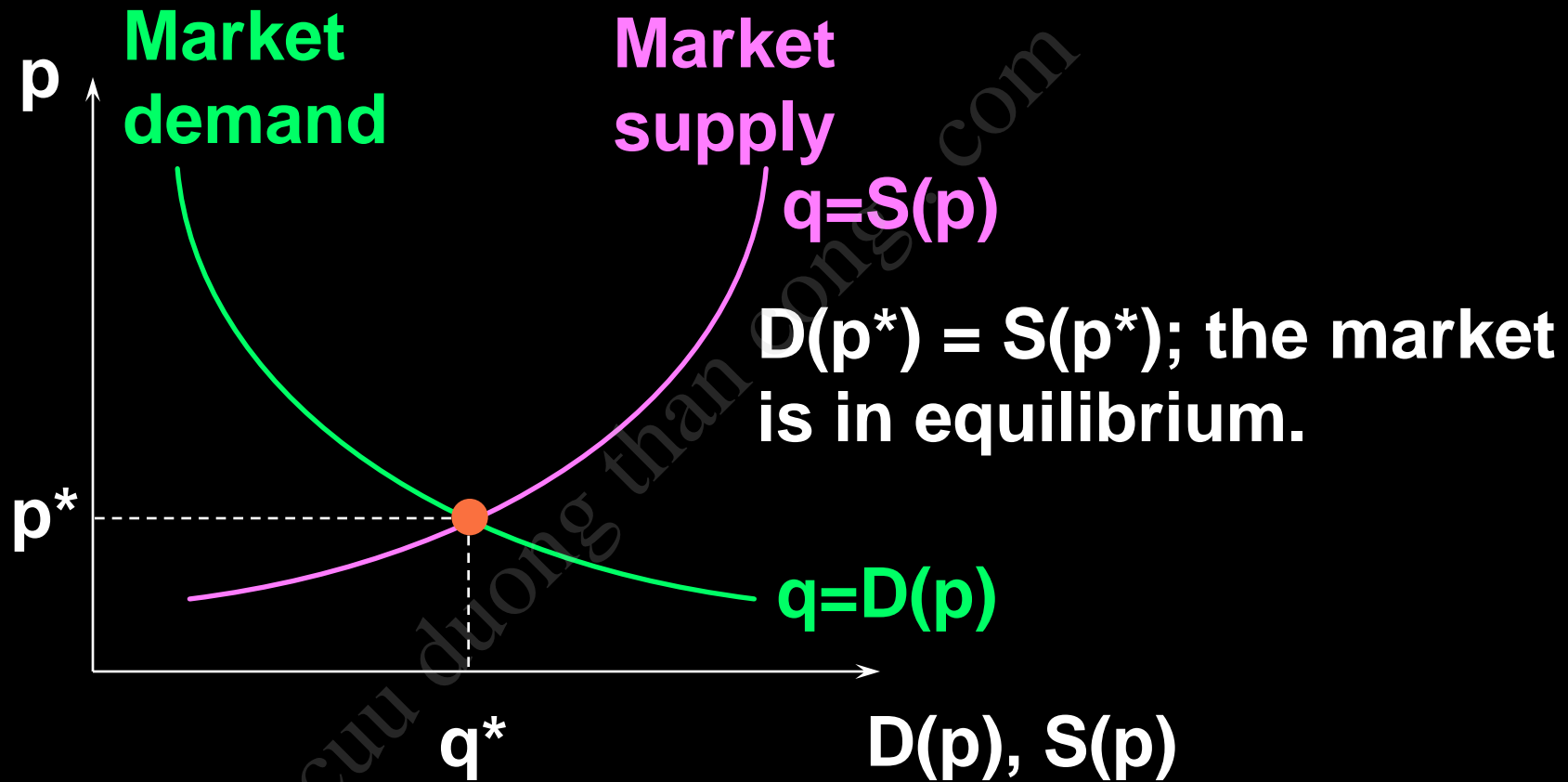


3. Equilibrium

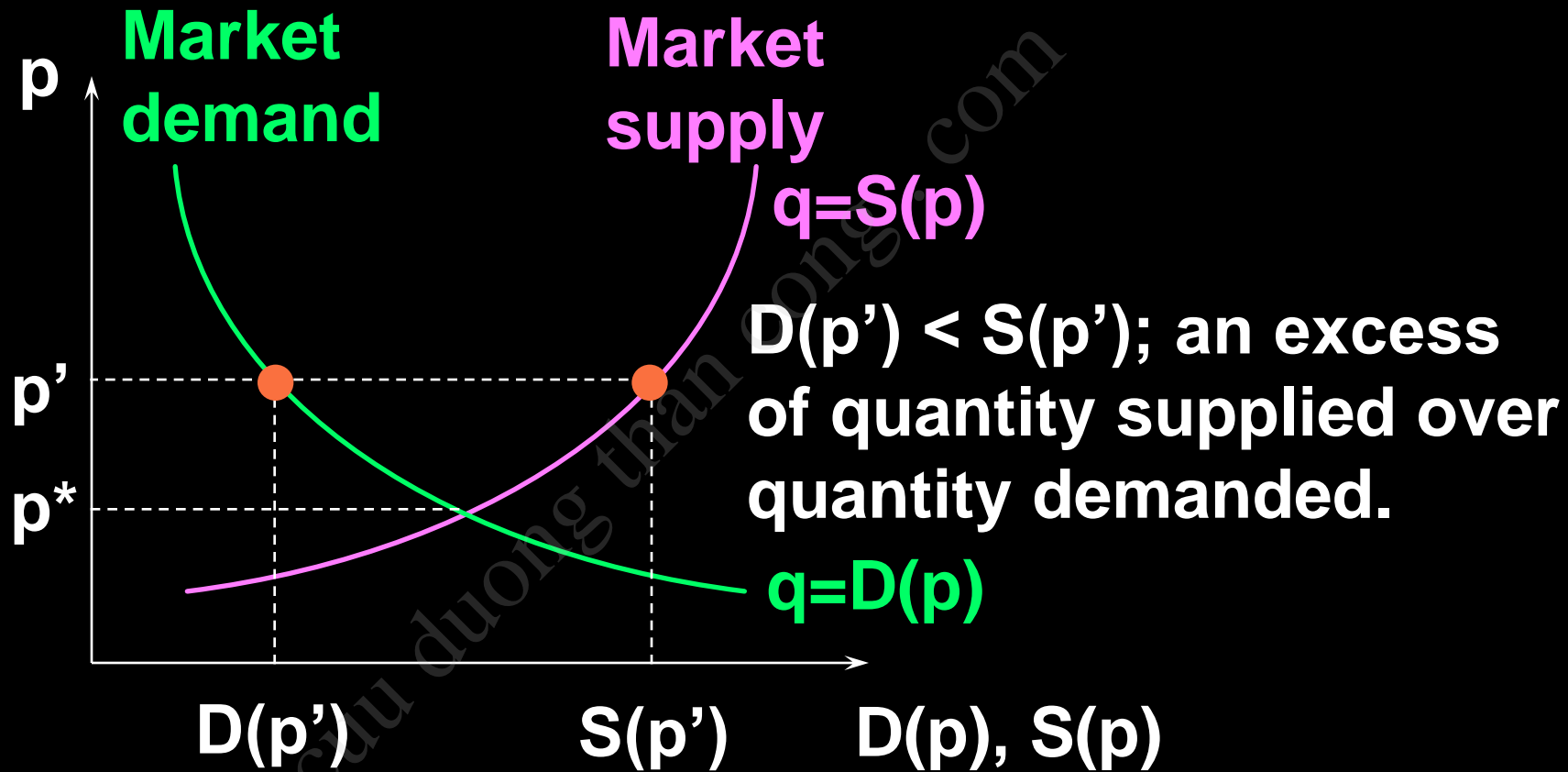
Market Equilibrium

- ◆ A market is in **equilibrium** when total quantity demanded by buyers equals total quantity supplied by sellers.

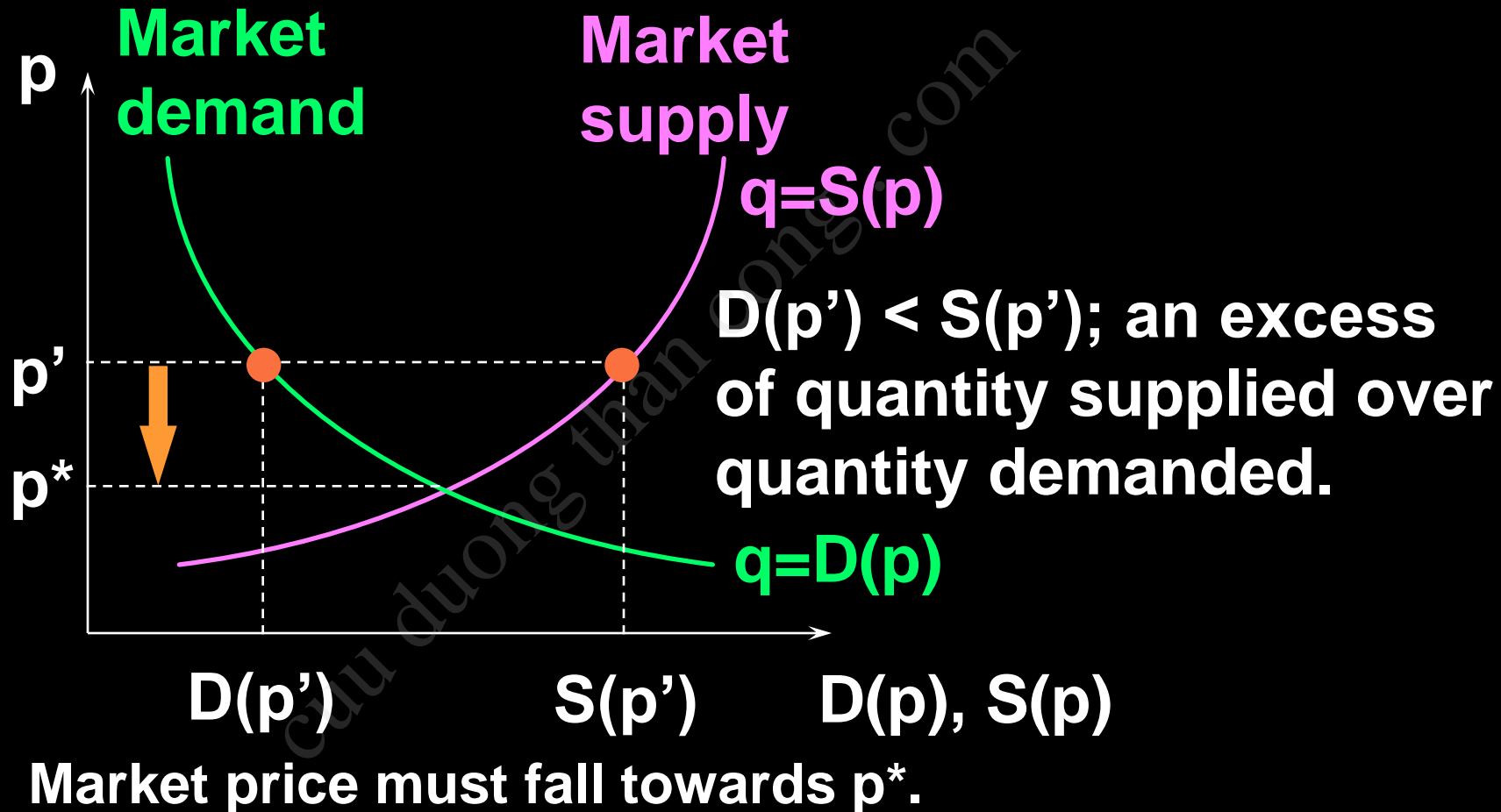
Market Equilibrium



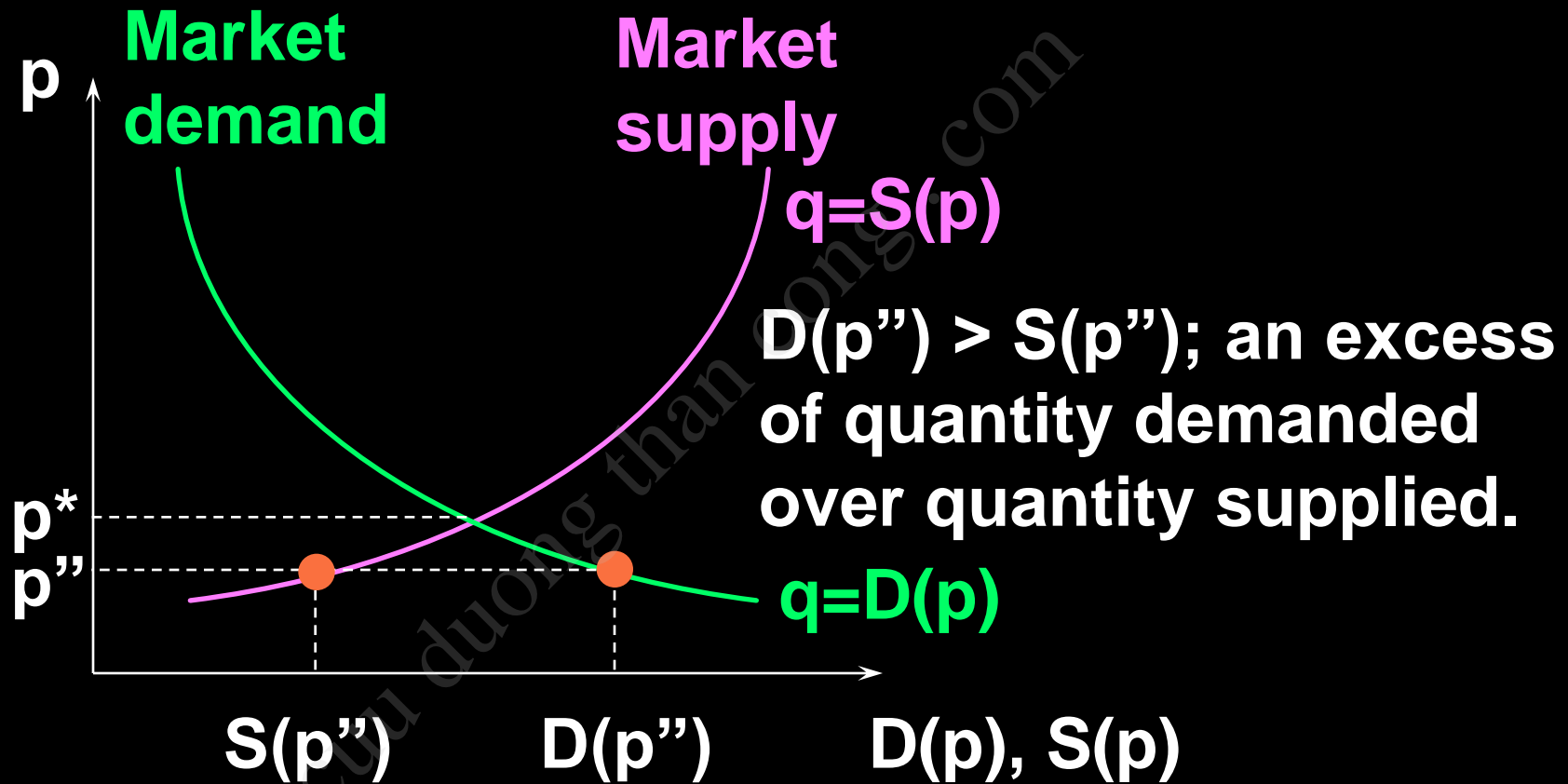
Market Equilibrium



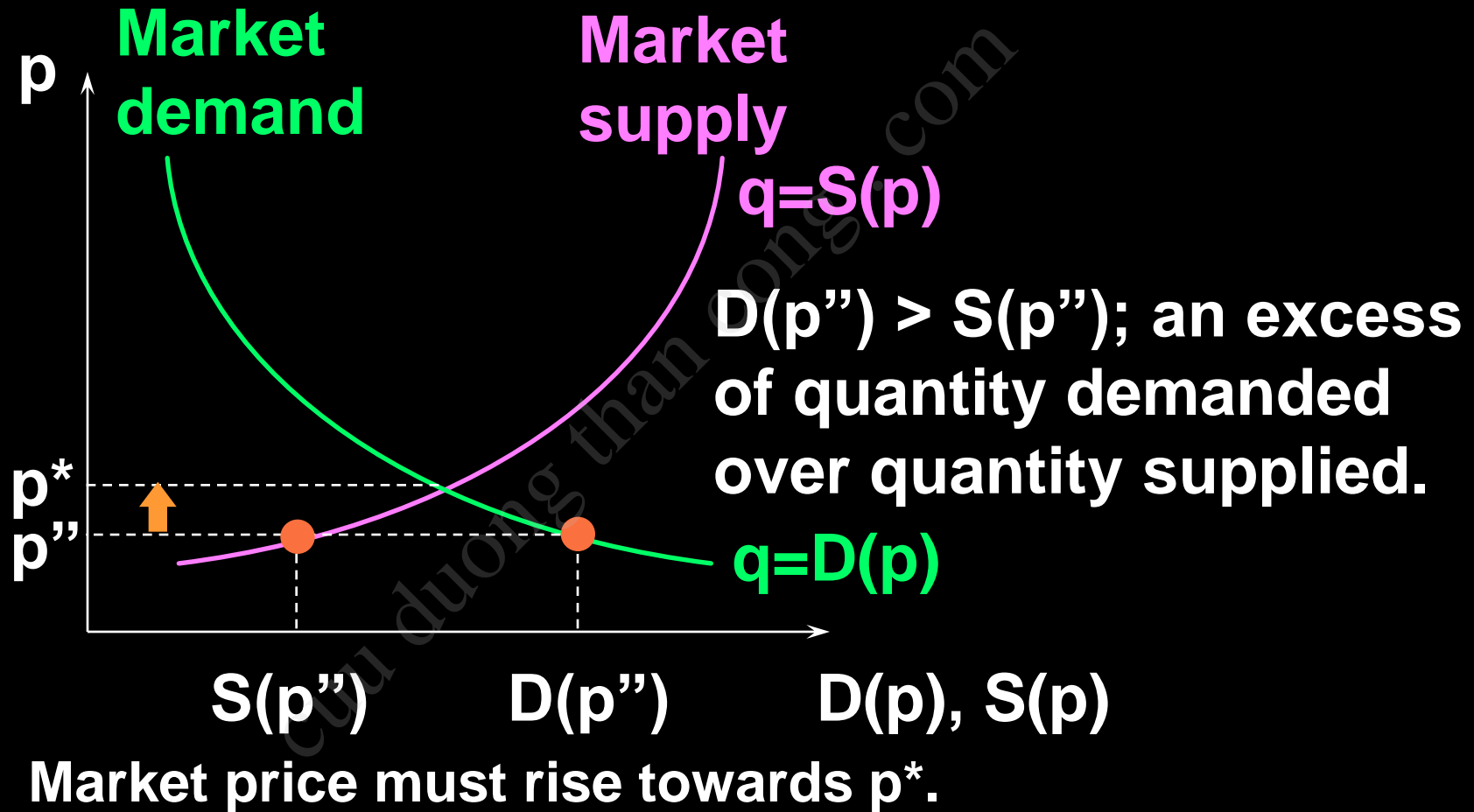
Market Equilibrium



Market Equilibrium



Market Equilibrium



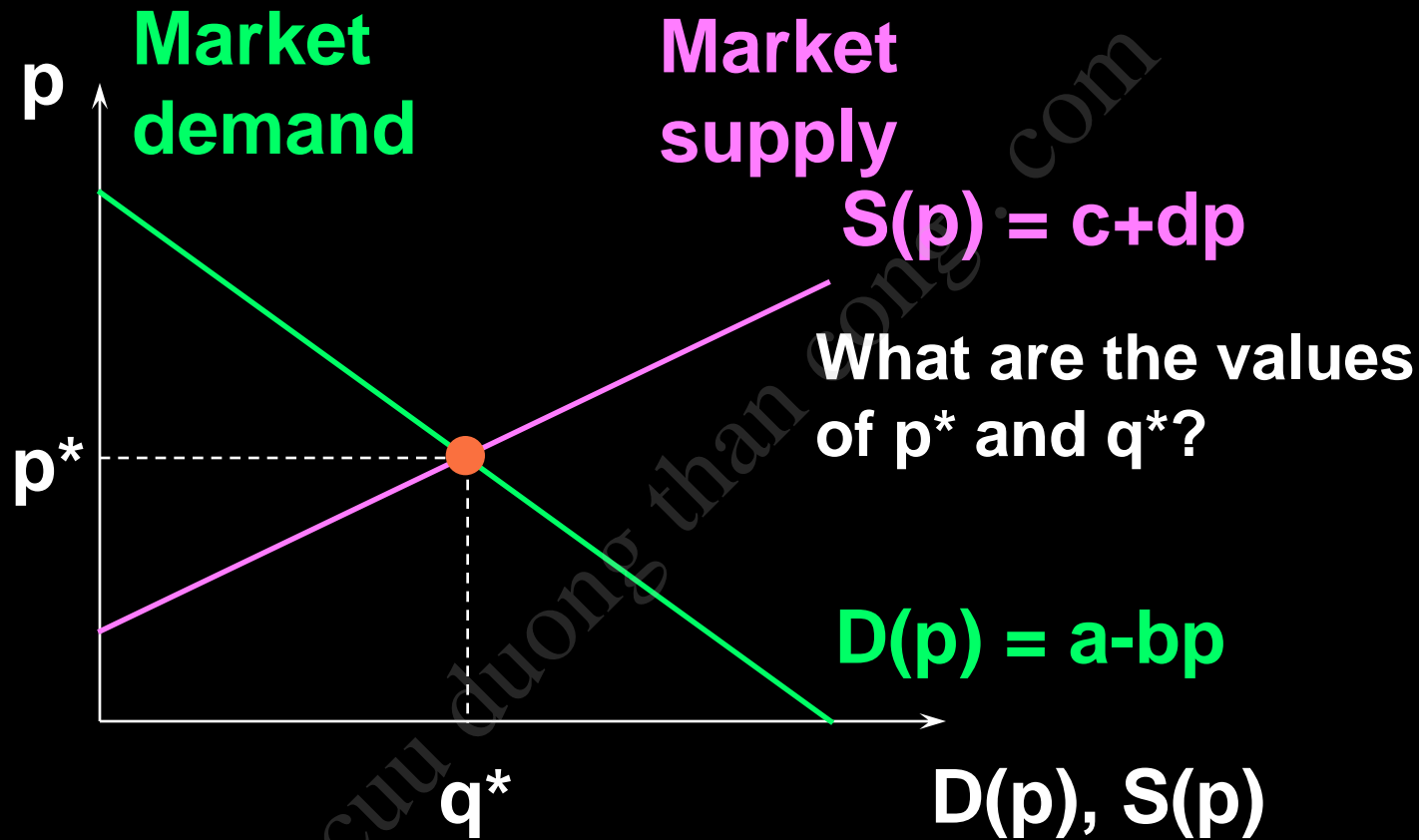
Market Equilibrium

- ◆ An example of calculating a market equilibrium when the market demand and supply curves are linear.

$$D(p) = a - bp$$

$$S(p) = c + dp$$

Market Equilibrium



Market Equilibrium

$$D(p) = a - bp$$

$$S(p) = c + dp$$

At the equilibrium price p^* , $D(p^*) = S(p^*)$.

That is,

$$a - bp^* = c + dp^*$$

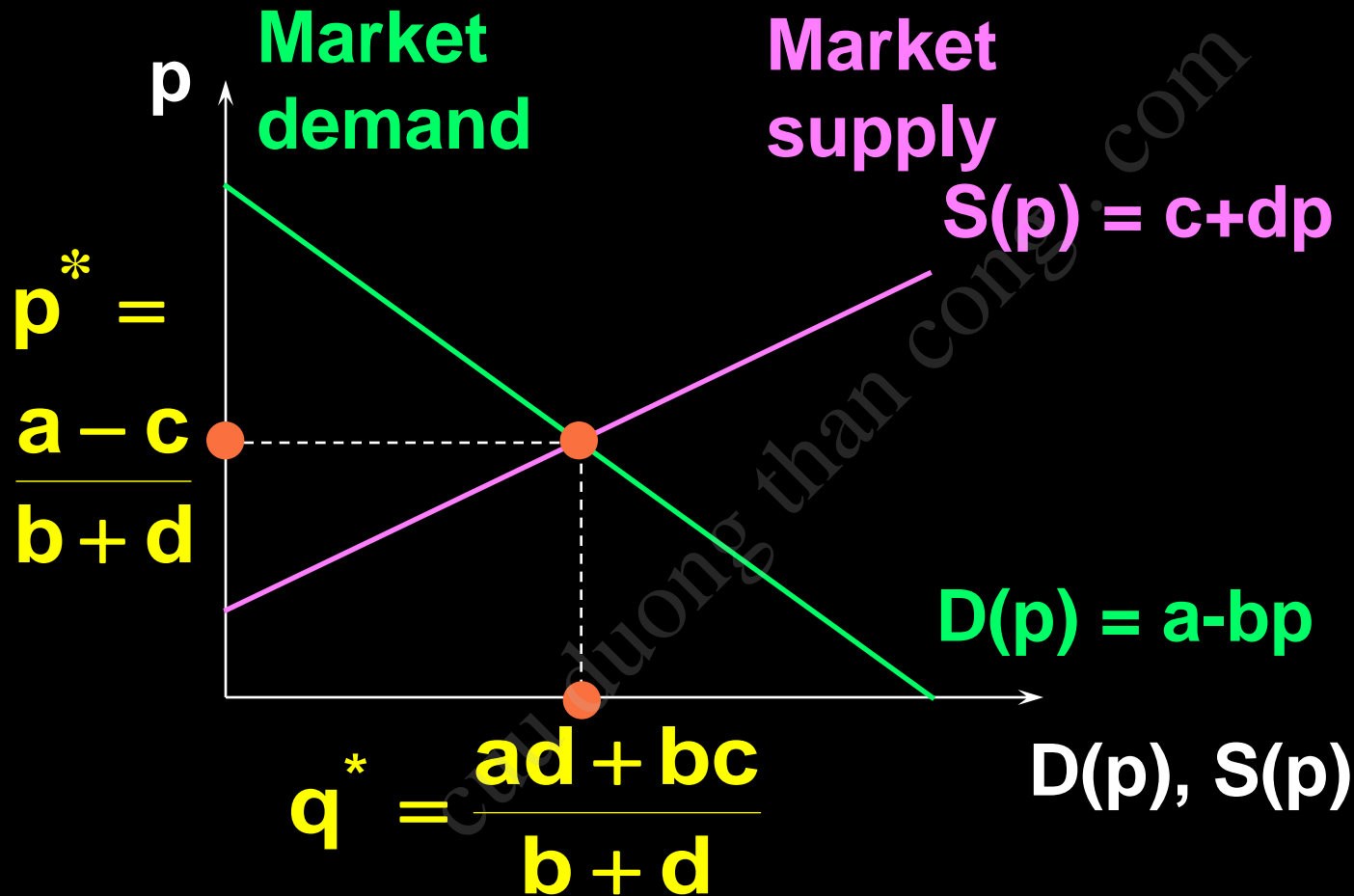
which gives

$$p^* = \frac{a - c}{b + d}$$

and

$$q^* = D(p^*) = S(p^*) = \frac{ad + bc}{b + d}.$$

Market Equilibrium



Market Equilibrium

- ◆ Can we calculate the market equilibrium using the inverse market demand and supply curves?
- ◆ Yes, it is the same calculation.

Market Equilibrium

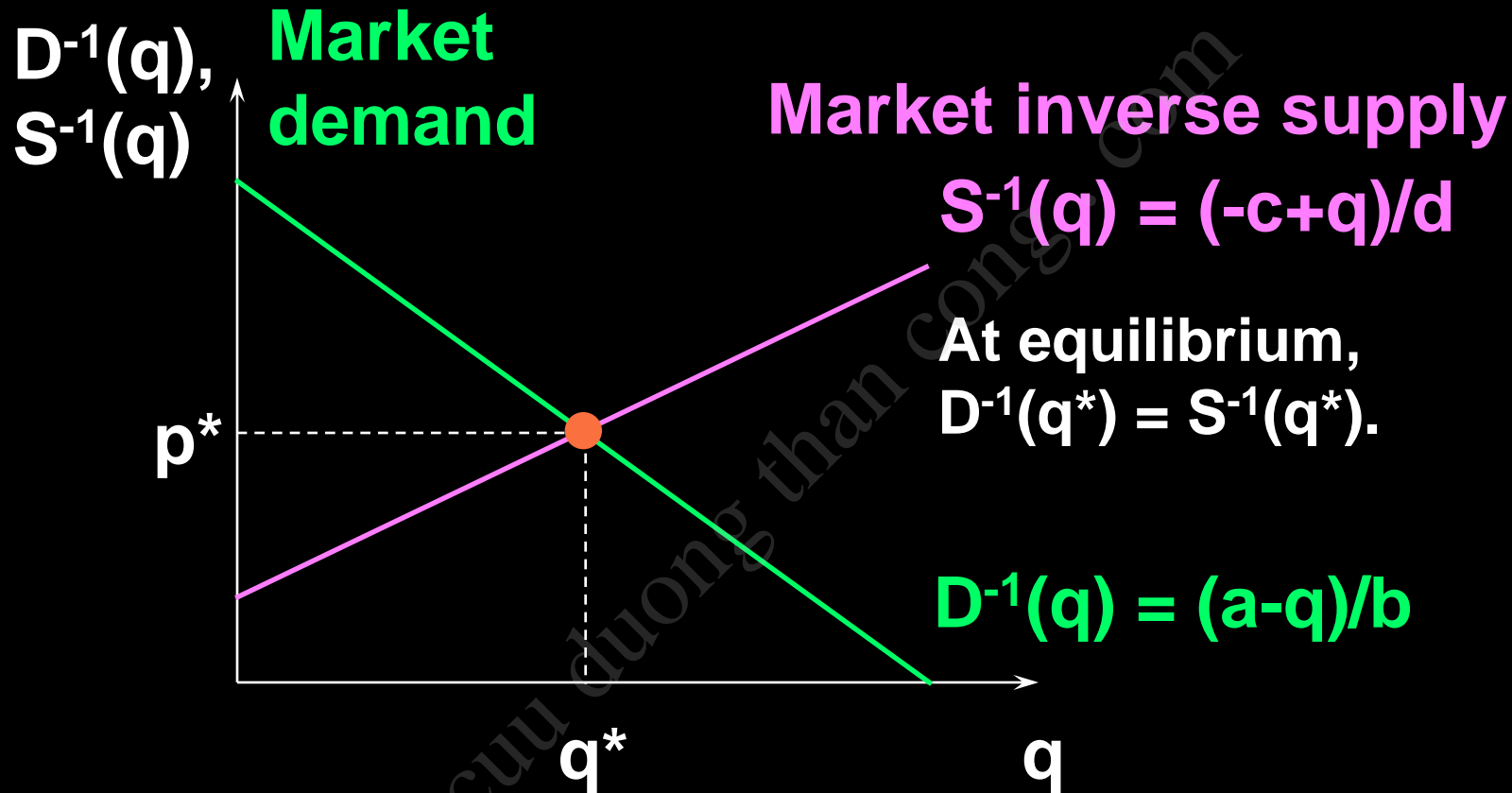
$$q = D(p) = a - bp \Leftrightarrow p = \frac{a - q}{b} = D^{-1}(q),$$

the equation of the inverse market demand curve. And

$$q = S(p) = c + dp \Leftrightarrow p = \frac{-c + q}{d} = S^{-1}(q),$$

the equation of the inverse market supply curve.

Market Equilibrium



Market Equilibrium

$$p = D^{-1}(q) = \frac{a - q}{b} \text{ and } p = S^{-1}(q) = \frac{-c + q}{d}.$$

At the equilibrium quantity q^* , $D^{-1}(p^*) = S^{-1}(p^*)$.
That is,

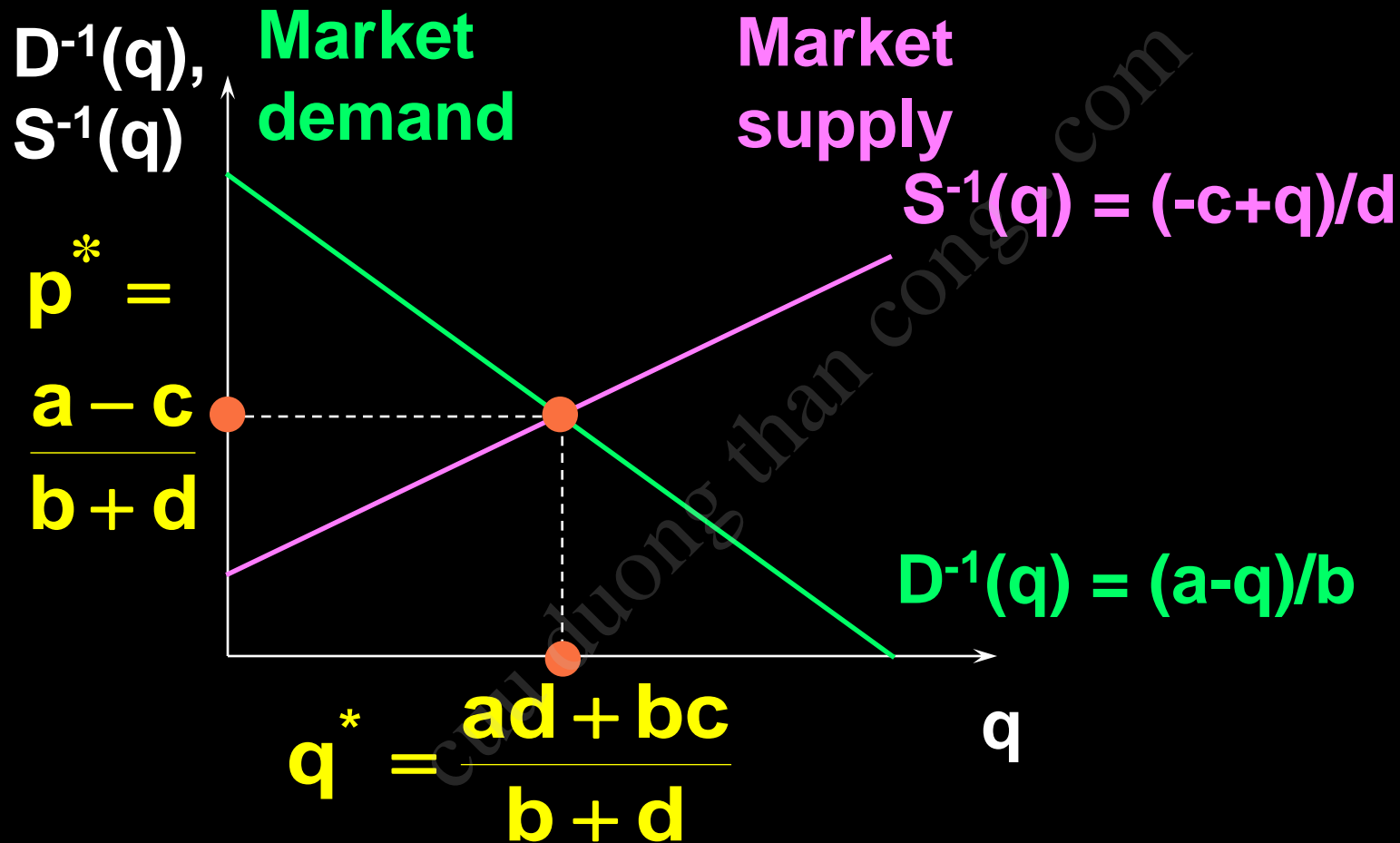
$$\frac{a - q^*}{b} = \frac{-c + q^*}{d}$$

which gives

$$q^* = \frac{ad + bc}{b + d}$$

$$\text{and } p^* = D^{-1}(q^*) = S^{-1}(q^*) = \frac{a - c}{b + d}.$$

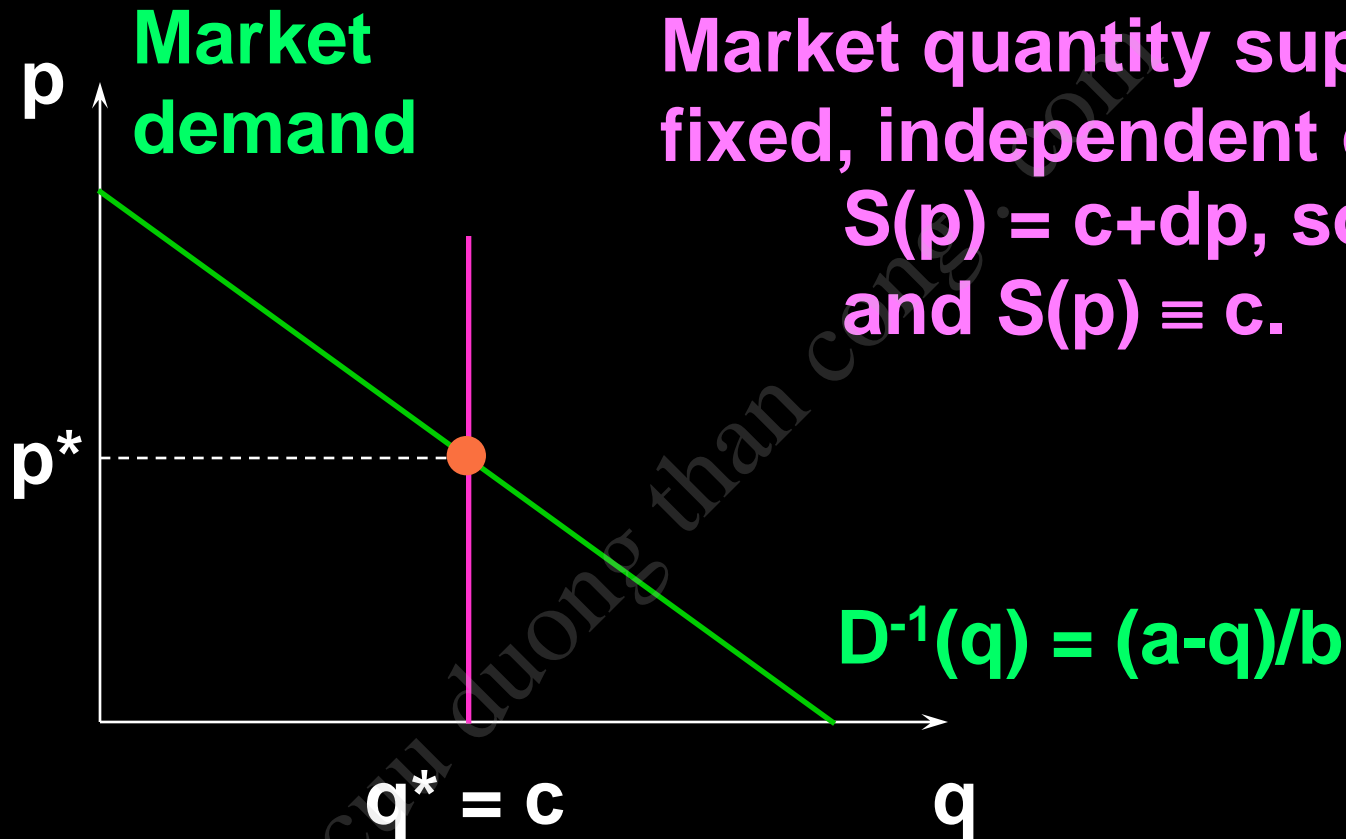
Market Equilibrium



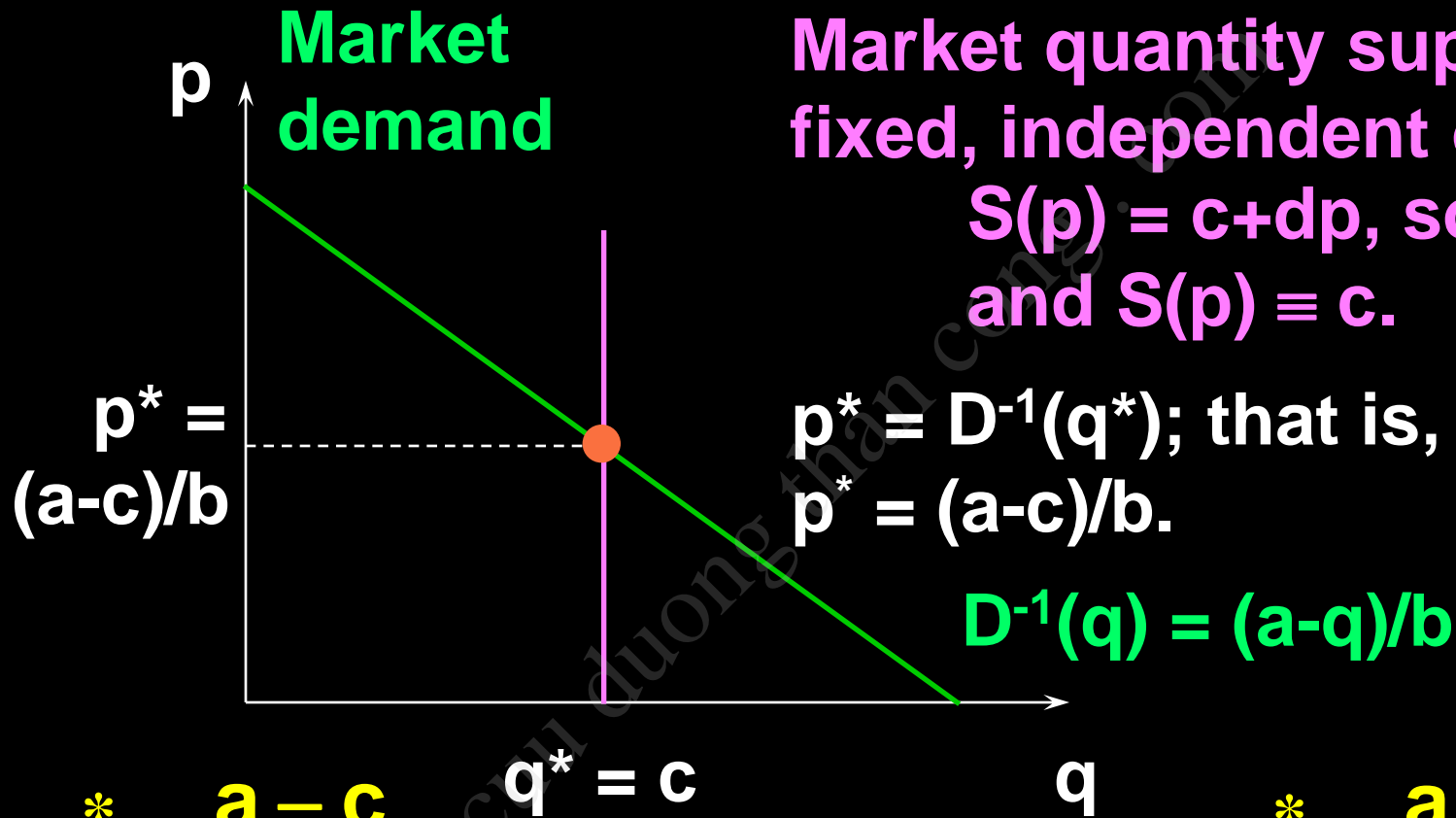
Market Equilibrium

- ◆ **Two special cases:**
 - **quantity supplied is fixed, independent of the market price, and**
 - **quantity supplied is extremely sensitive to the market price.**

Market Equilibrium



Market Equilibrium



$$p^* = \frac{a - c}{b + d}$$

$$q^* = \frac{ad + bc}{b + d}$$

with $d = 0$ give

$$p^* = \frac{a - c}{b}$$

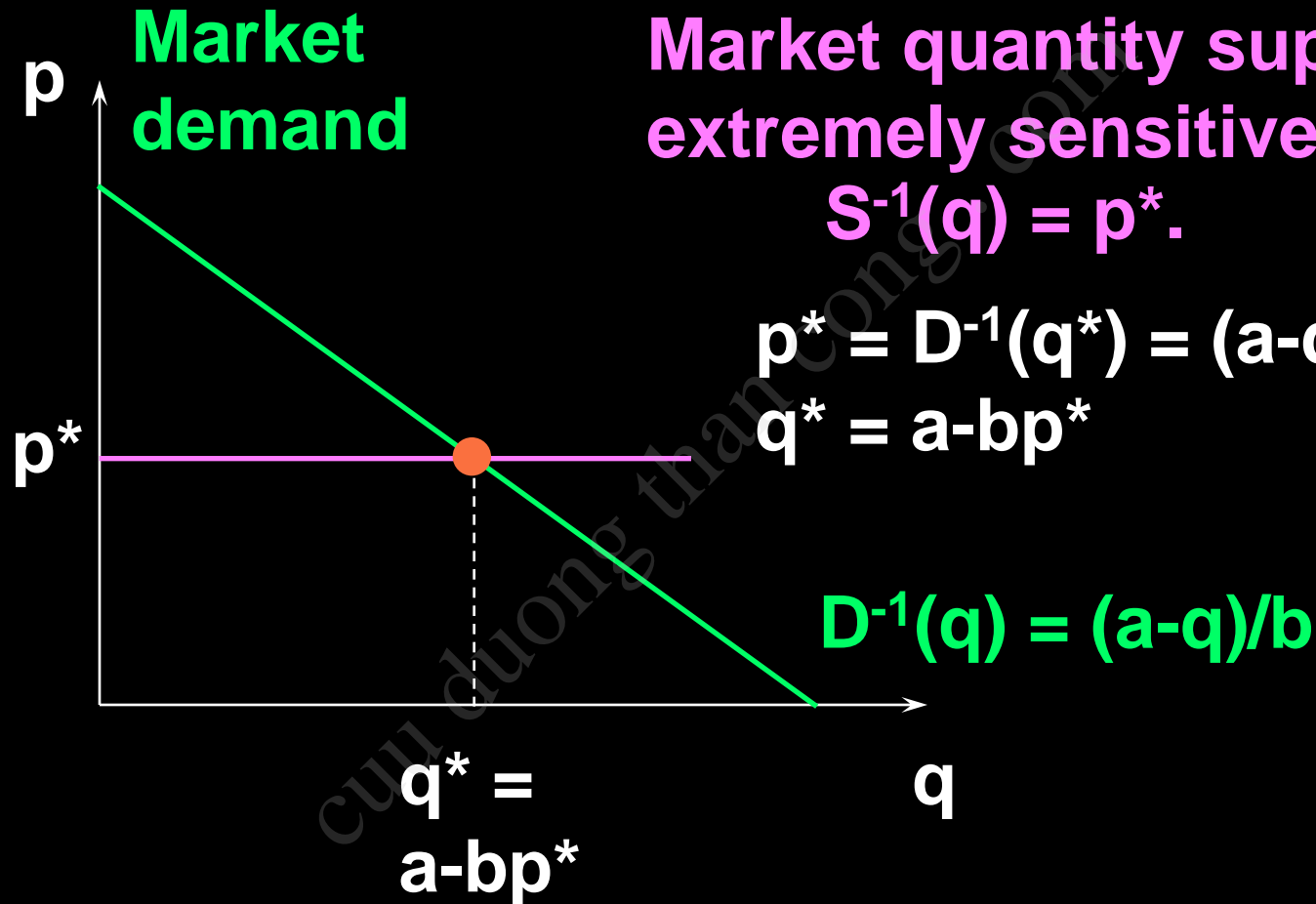
$$q^* = c.$$

Market Equilibrium

◆ Two special cases are

- when quantity supplied is fixed, independent of the market price, and
- when quantity supplied is extremely sensitive to the market price.

Market Equilibrium



Quantity Taxes

- ◆ A quantity tax levied at a rate of $\$t$ is a tax of $\$t$ paid on each unit traded.
- ◆ If the tax is levied on sellers then it is an **excise tax**.
- ◆ If the tax is levied on buyers then it is a **sales tax**.

Quantity Taxes

- ◆ What is the effect of a quantity tax on a market's equilibrium?
- ◆ How are prices affected?
- ◆ How is the quantity traded affected?
- ◆ Who pays the tax?
- ◆ How are gains-to-trade altered?

Quantity Taxes

- ◆ A tax rate t makes the price paid by buyers, p_b , higher by t from the price received by sellers, p_s .

$$p_b - p_s = t$$

Quantity Taxes

- ◆ Even with a tax the market must clear.
- ◆ I.e. quantity demanded by buyers at price p_b must equal quantity supplied by sellers at price p_s .

$$D(p_b) = S(p_s)$$

Quantity Taxes

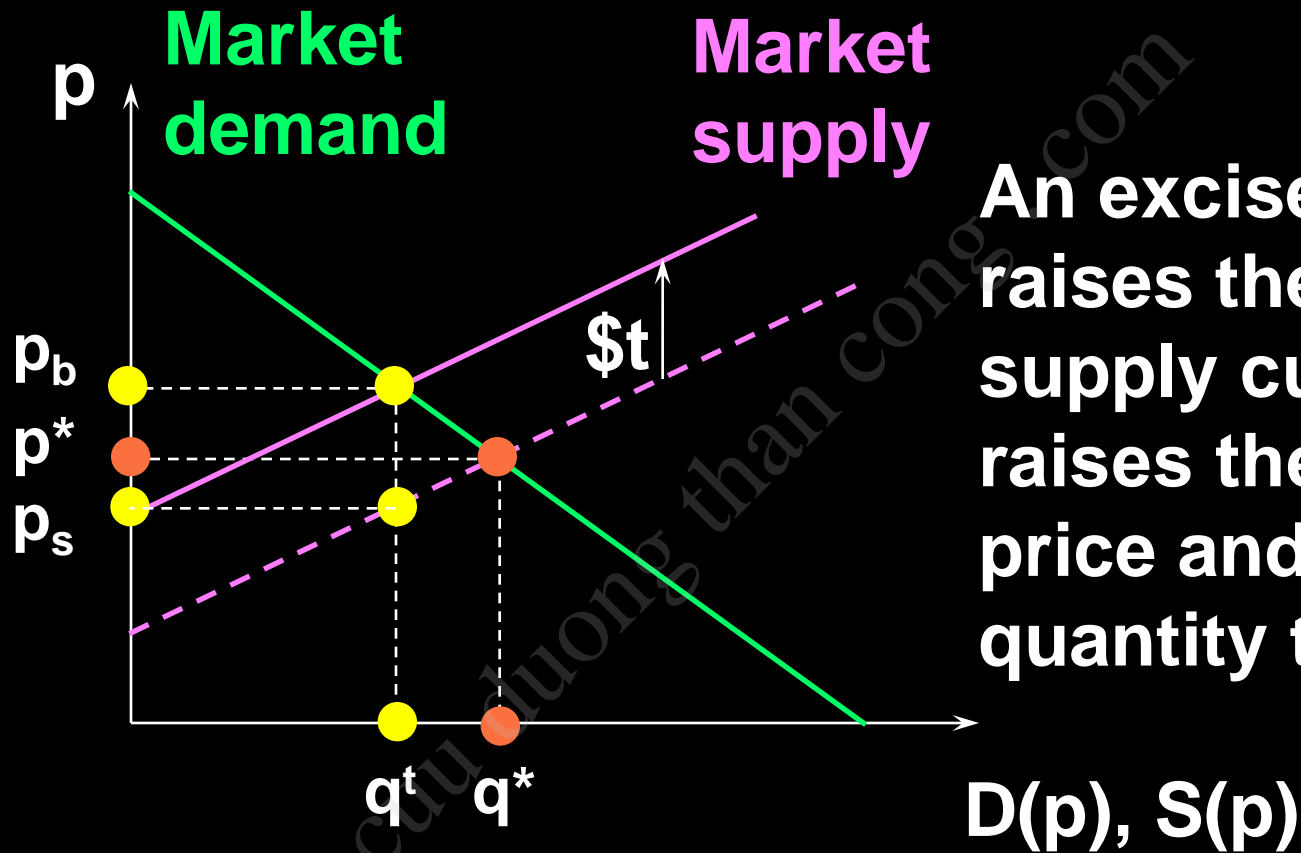
$$p_b - p_s = t \quad \text{and} \quad D(p_b) = S(p_s)$$

describe the market's equilibrium.

Notice that these two conditions apply no matter if the tax is levied on sellers or on buyers.

Hence, a sales tax rate t has the same effect as an excise tax rate t .

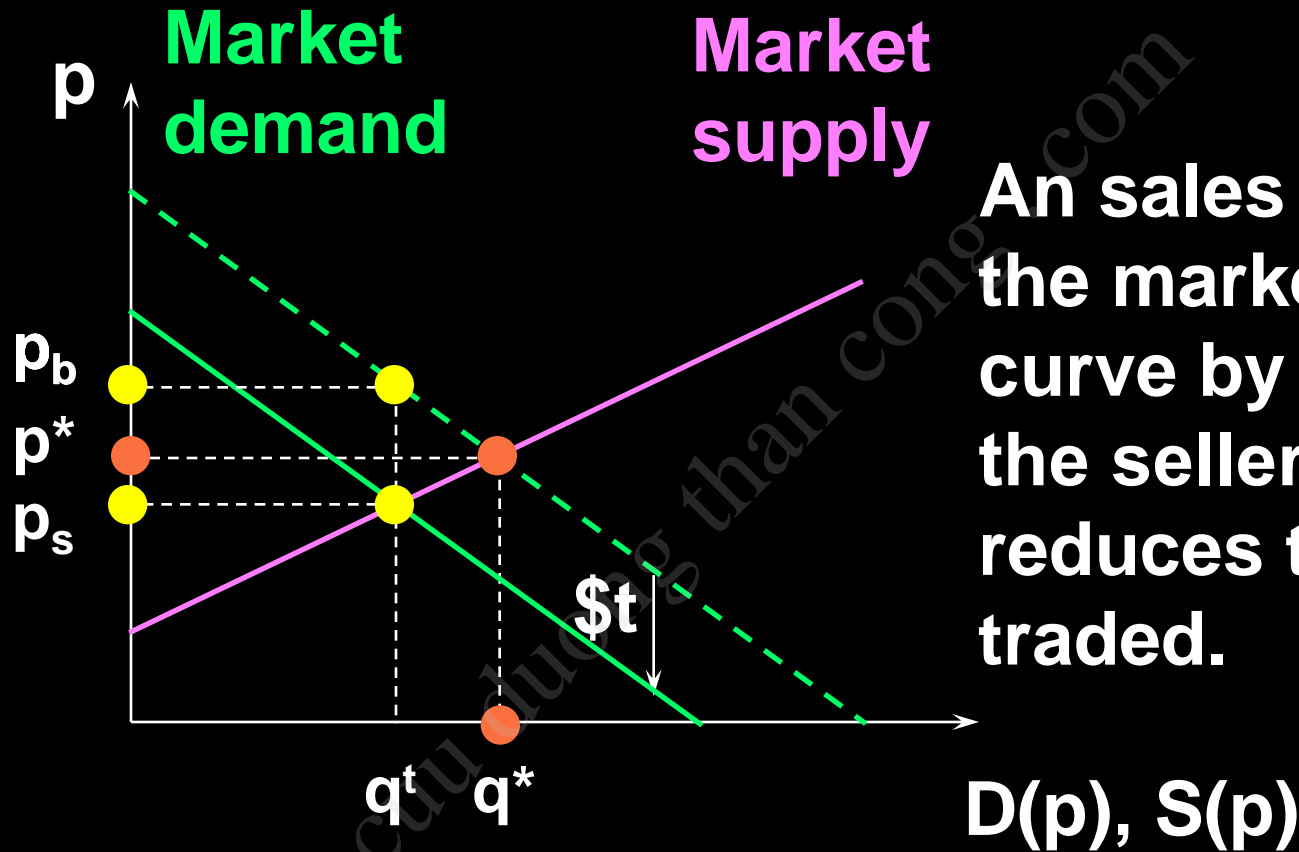
Quantity Taxes & Market Equilibrium



An excise tax raises the market supply curve by $\$t$, raises the buyers' price and lowers the quantity traded.

And sellers receive only $p_s = p_b - t$.

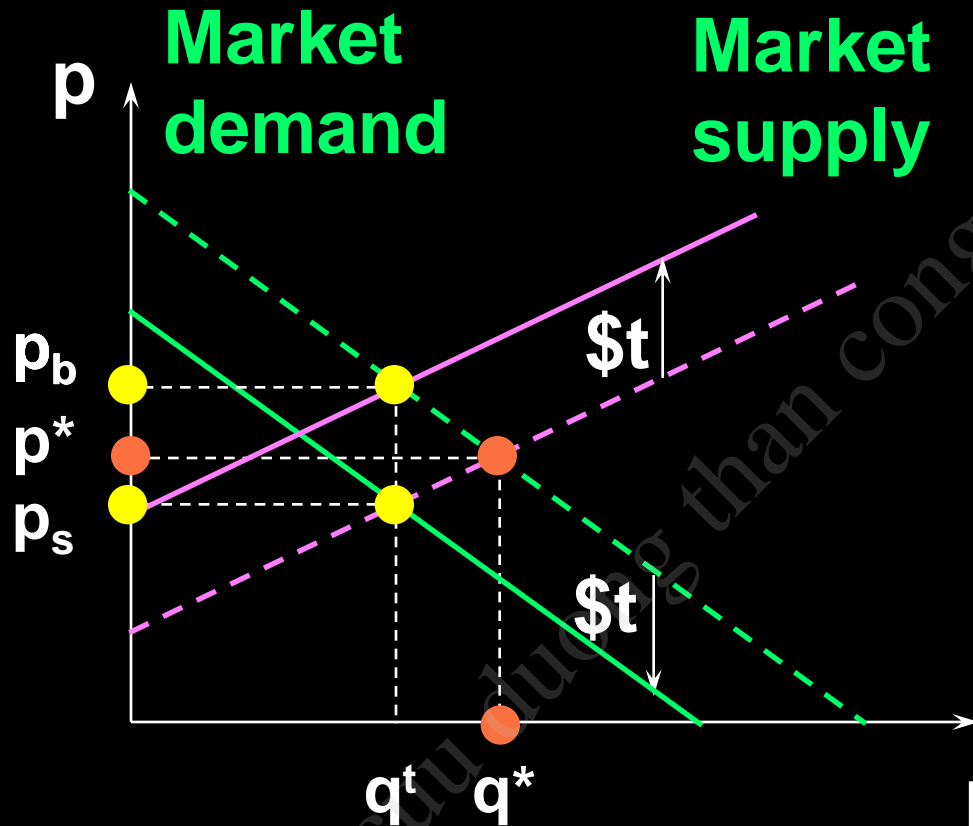
Quantity Taxes & Market Equilibrium



An sales tax lowers the market demand curve by $\$t$, lowers the sellers' price and reduces the quantity traded.

And buyers pay $p_b = p_s + t$.

Quantity Taxes & Market Equilibrium

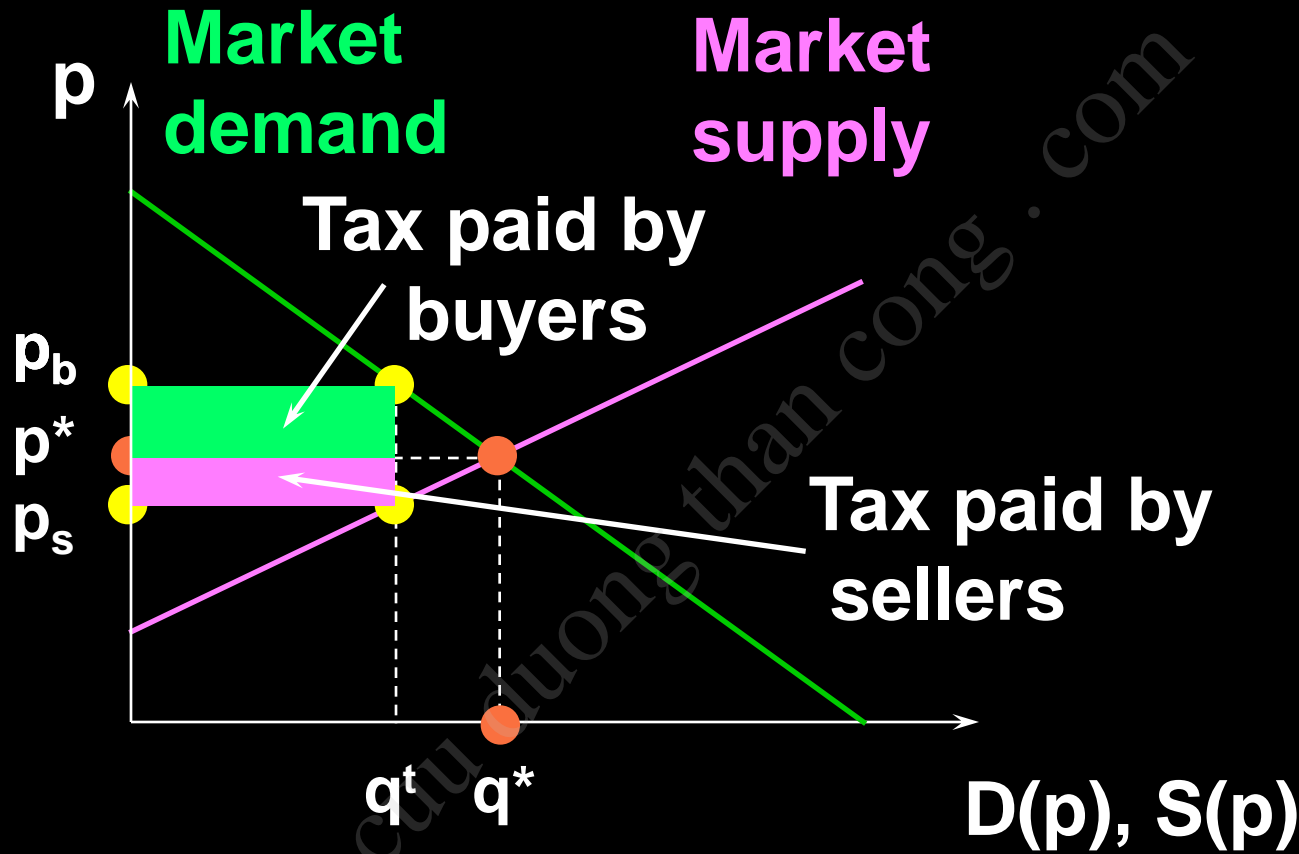


A sales tax levied at rate $\$t$ has the same effects on the market's equilibrium as does an excise tax levied at rate $\$t$.

Quantity Taxes & Market Equilibrium

- ◆ Who pays the tax of \$ t per unit traded?
- ◆ The division of the \$ t between buyers and sellers is the **incidence** of the tax.

Quantity Taxes & Market Equilibrium



Quantity Taxes & Market Equilibrium

- ◆ E.g. suppose the market demand and supply curves are linear.

$$D(p_b) = a - bp_b$$

$$S(p_s) = c + dp_s$$

Quantity Taxes & Market Equilibrium

$$D(p_b) = a - bp_b \text{ and } S(p_s) = c + dp_s.$$

With the tax, the market equilibrium satisfies

$$p_b = p_s + t \text{ and } D(p_b) = S(p_s) \text{ so}$$

$$p_b = p_s + t \text{ and } a - bp_b = c + dp_s.$$


Substituting for p_b gives

$$a - b(p_s + t) = c + dp_s \Rightarrow p_s = \frac{a - c - bt}{b + d}.$$

Quantity Taxes & Market Equilibrium

$$p_s = \frac{a - c - bt}{b + d} \quad \text{and} \quad p_b = p_s + t \quad \text{give}$$

$$p_b = \frac{a - c + dt}{b + d}$$

The quantity traded at equilibrium is

$$\begin{aligned} q^t &= D(p_b) = S(p_s) \\ &= a + bp_b = \frac{ad + bc - bdt}{b + d}. \end{aligned}$$

Quantity Taxes & Market Equilibrium

$$p_s = \frac{a - c - bt}{b + d}$$

$$p_b = \frac{a - c + dt}{b + d}$$

$$q^t = \frac{ad + bc - bdt}{b + d}$$

As $t \rightarrow 0$, p_s and $p_b \rightarrow$
equilibrium price if

there is no tax ($t = 0$) and q^t
the quantity traded at equilibrium
when there is no tax.

$$\frac{a - c}{b + d} = p^*,$$

$$\rightarrow \frac{ad + bc}{b + d},$$

Quantity Taxes & Market Equilibrium

$$p_s = \frac{a - c - bt}{b + d}$$

$$p_b = \frac{a - c + dt}{b + d}$$

$$q^t = \frac{ad + bc - bdt}{b + d}$$

As t increases, p_s falls,
and p_b rises,
 q^t falls.

Quantity Taxes & Market Equilibrium

$$p_s = \frac{a - c - bt}{b + d}$$

$$q^t = \frac{ad + bc - bdt}{b + d}$$

$$p_b = \frac{a - c + dt}{b + d}$$

The tax paid per unit by the buyer is

$$p_b - p^* = \frac{a - c + dt}{b + d} - \frac{a - c}{b + d} = \frac{dt}{b + d}.$$

Quantity Taxes & Market Equilibrium

$$p_s = \frac{a - c - bt}{b + d}$$

$$q^t = \frac{ad + bc - bdt}{b + d}$$

$$p_b = \frac{a - c + dt}{b + d}$$

The tax paid per unit by the buyer is

$$p_b - p^* = \frac{a - c + dt}{b + d} - \frac{a - c}{b + d} = \frac{dt}{b + d}.$$

The tax paid per unit by the seller is

$$p^* - p_s = \frac{a - c}{b + d} - \frac{a - c - bt}{b + d} = \frac{bt}{b + d}.$$

Quantity Taxes & Market Equilibrium

$$p_s = \frac{a - c - bt}{b + d}$$

$$q^t = \frac{ad + bc - bdt}{b + d}$$

$$p_b = \frac{a - c + dt}{b + d}$$

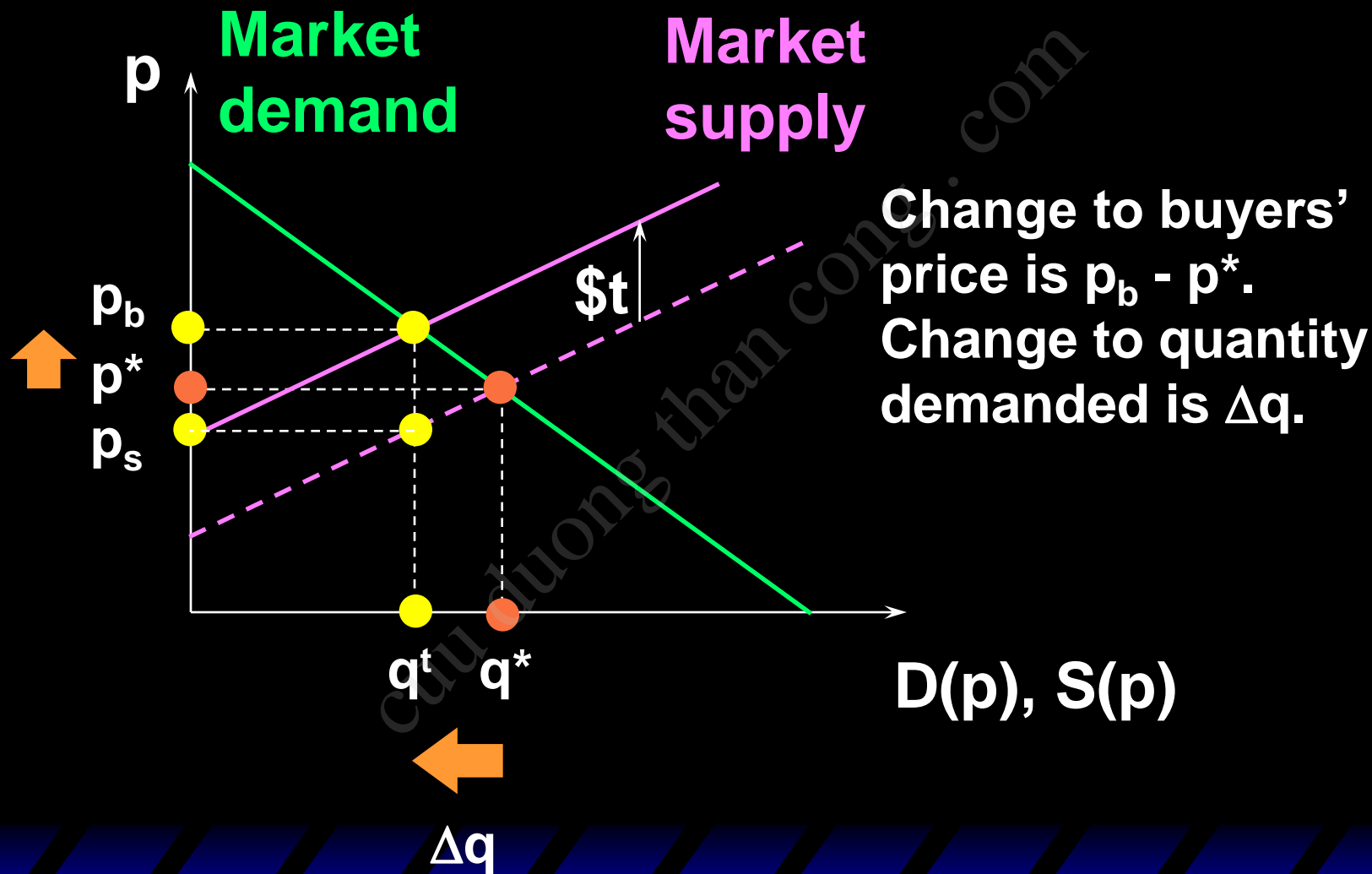
The total tax paid (by buyers and sellers combined) is

$$T = tq^t = t \frac{ad + bc - bdt}{b + d}.$$

Tax Incidence and Own-Price Elasticities

- ◆ The incidence of a quantity tax depends upon the own-price elasticities of demand and supply.

Tax Incidence and Own-Price Elasticities

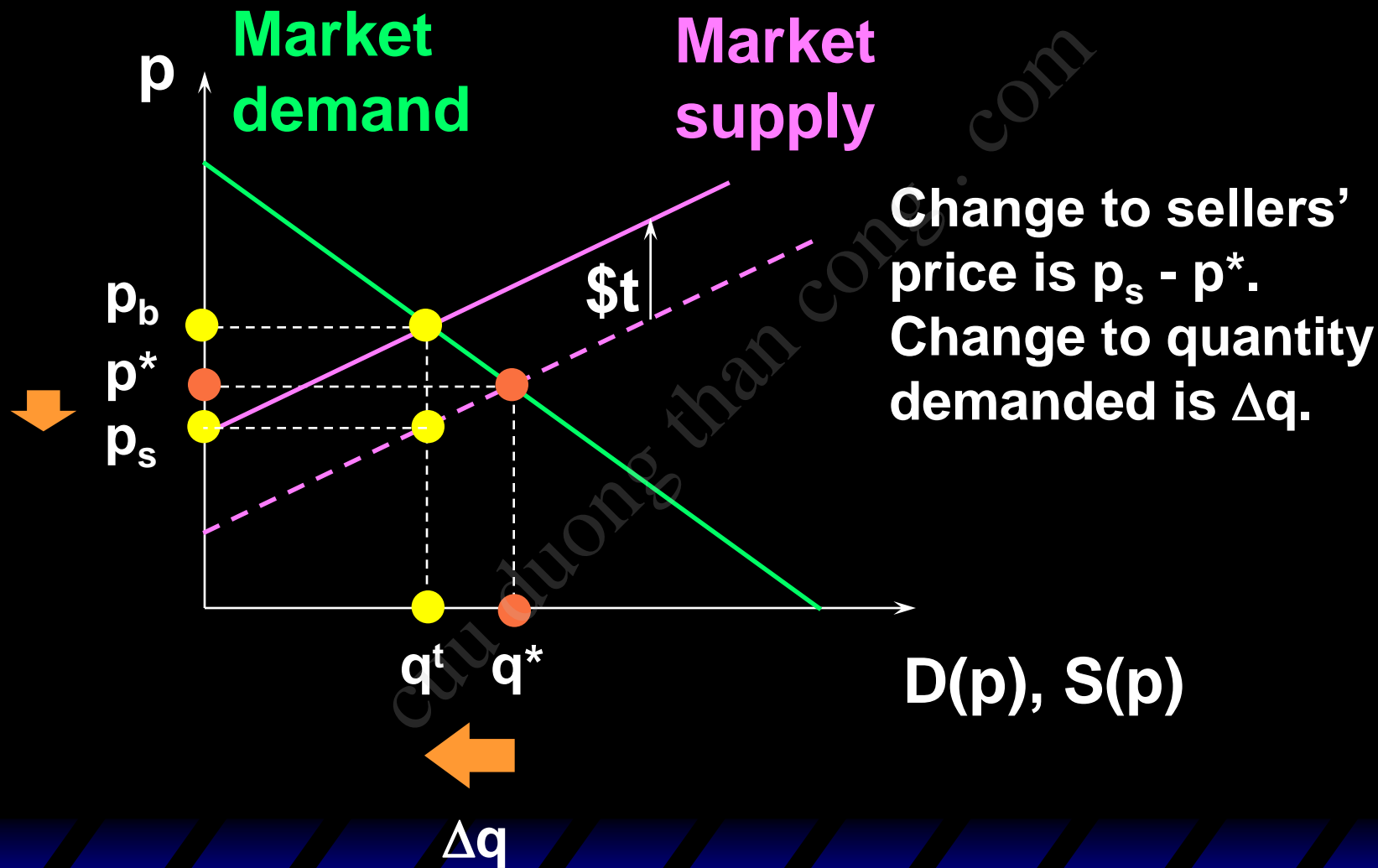


Tax Incidence and Own-Price Elasticities

Around $p = p^*$ the own-price elasticity of demand is approximately

$$\varepsilon_D \approx \frac{\frac{\Delta q}{q^*}}{\frac{p_b - p^*}{p^*}} \Rightarrow p_b - p^* \approx \frac{\Delta q \times p^*}{\varepsilon_D \times q^*}.$$

Tax Incidence and Own-Price Elasticities

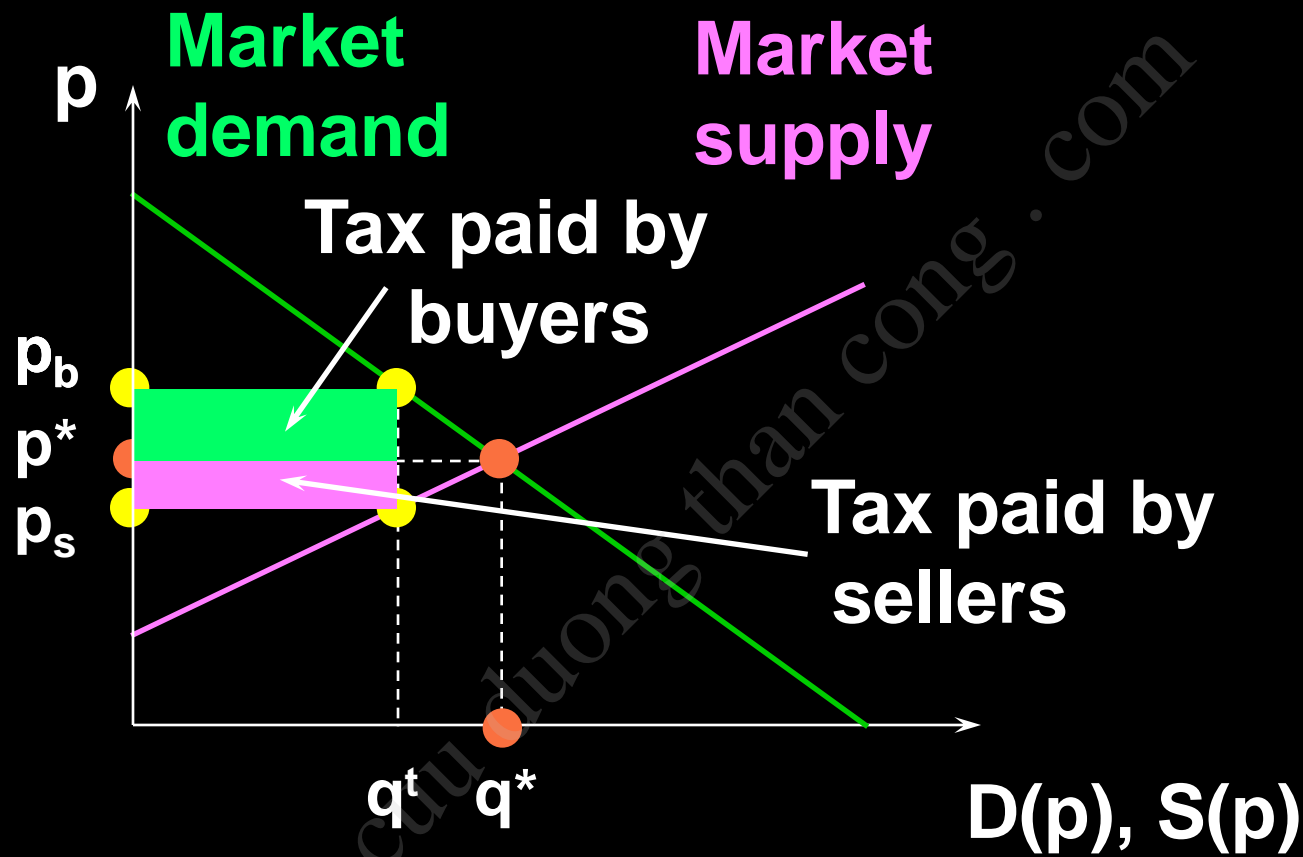


Tax Incidence and Own-Price Elasticities

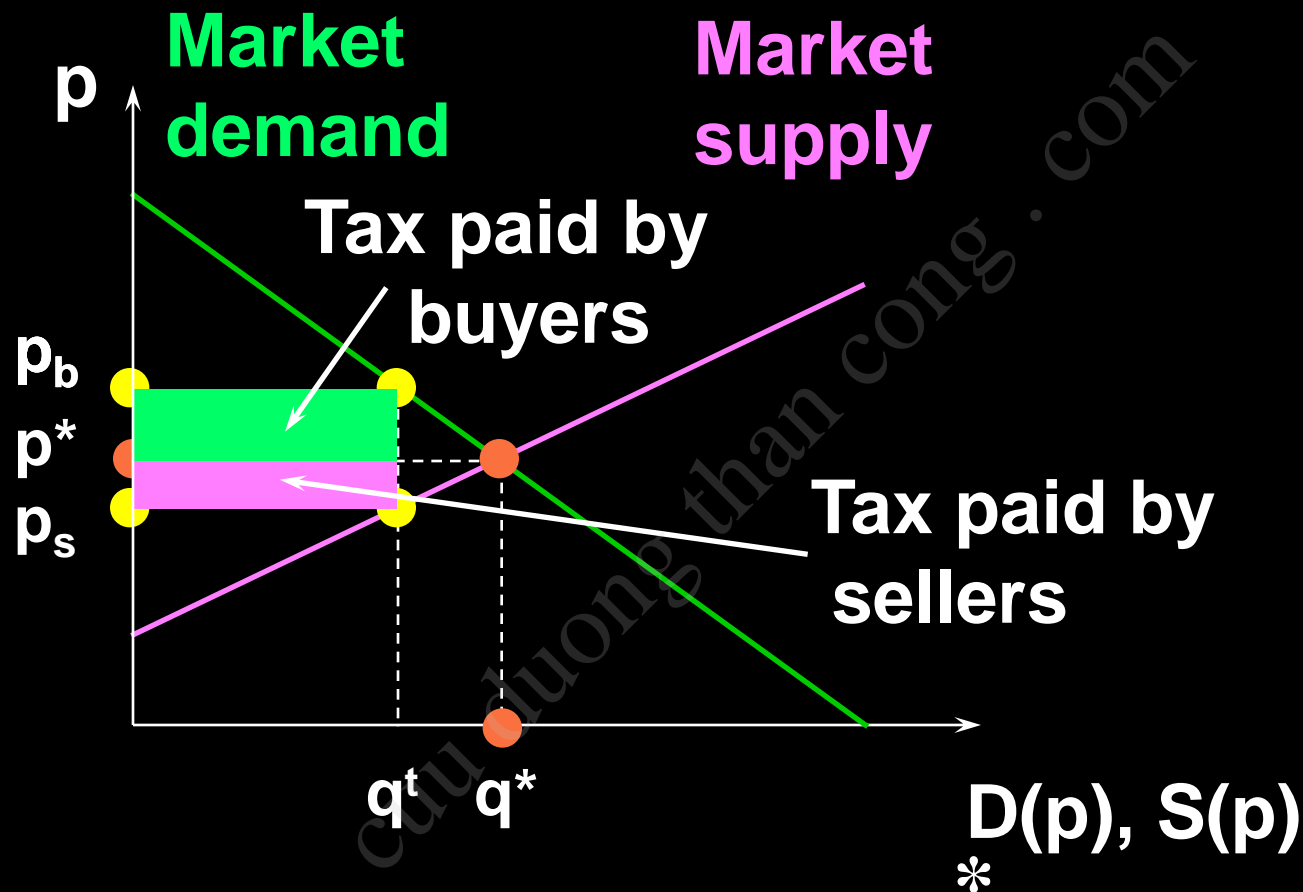
Around $p = p^*$ the own-price elasticity of supply is approximately

$$\varepsilon_S \approx \frac{\frac{\Delta q}{q^*}}{\frac{p_S - p^*}{p^*}} \Rightarrow p_S - p^* \approx \frac{\Delta q \times p^*}{\varepsilon_S \times q^*}.$$

Tax Incidence and Own-Price Elasticities



Tax Incidence and Own-Price Elasticities



$$\text{Tax incidence} = \frac{p_b - p^*}{p^* - p_s}.$$

Tax Incidence and Own-Price Elasticities

$$\text{Tax incidence} = \frac{p_b - p^*}{p^* - p_s}.$$

$$p_b - p^* \approx \frac{\Delta q \times p^*}{\varepsilon_D \times q^*}.$$

$$p_s - p^* \approx \frac{\Delta q \times p^*}{\varepsilon_S \times q^*}.$$

So

$$\frac{p_b - p^*}{p^* - p_s} \approx - \frac{\varepsilon_S}{\varepsilon_D}.$$

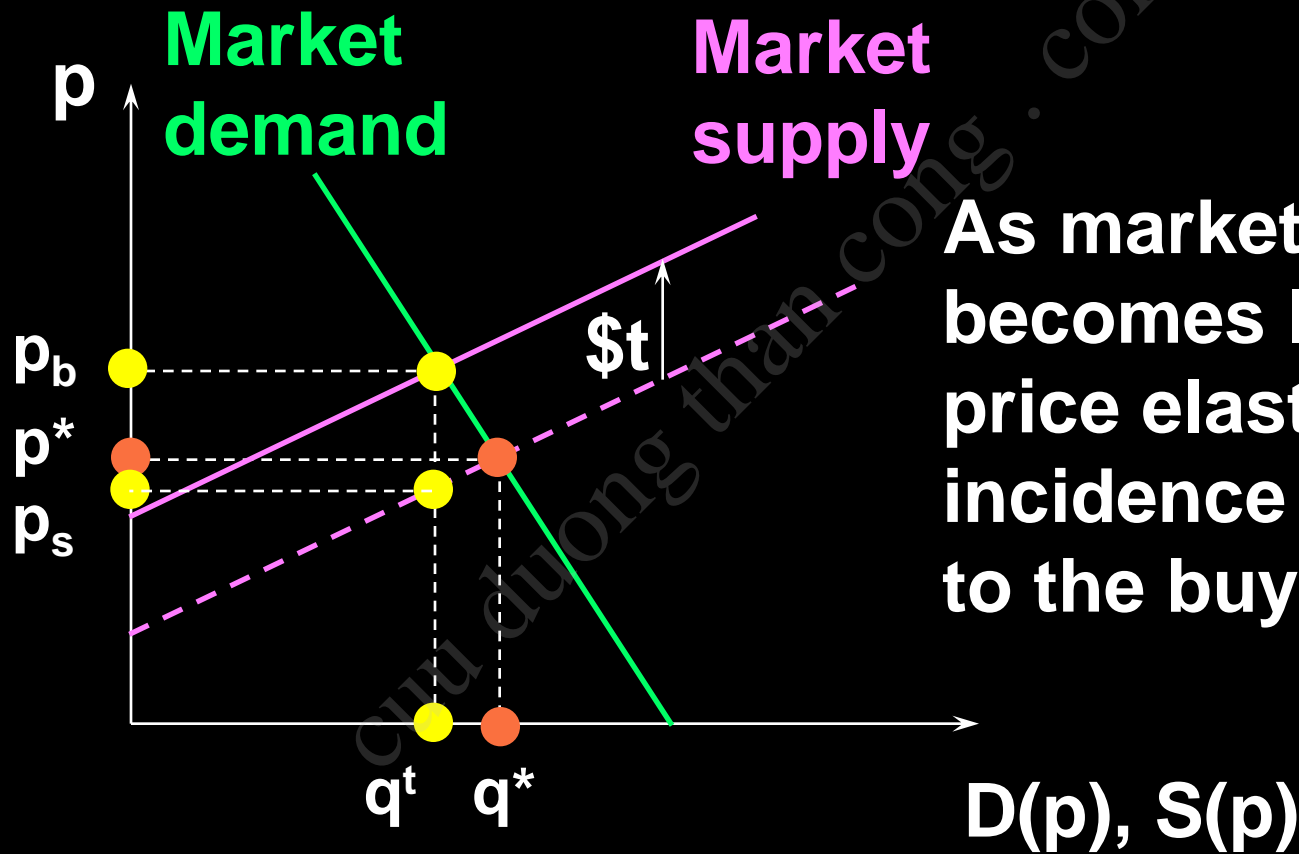
Tax Incidence and Own-Price Elasticities

Tax incidence is

$$\frac{p_b - p^*}{p^* - p_s} \approx -\frac{\epsilon_S}{\epsilon_D}.$$

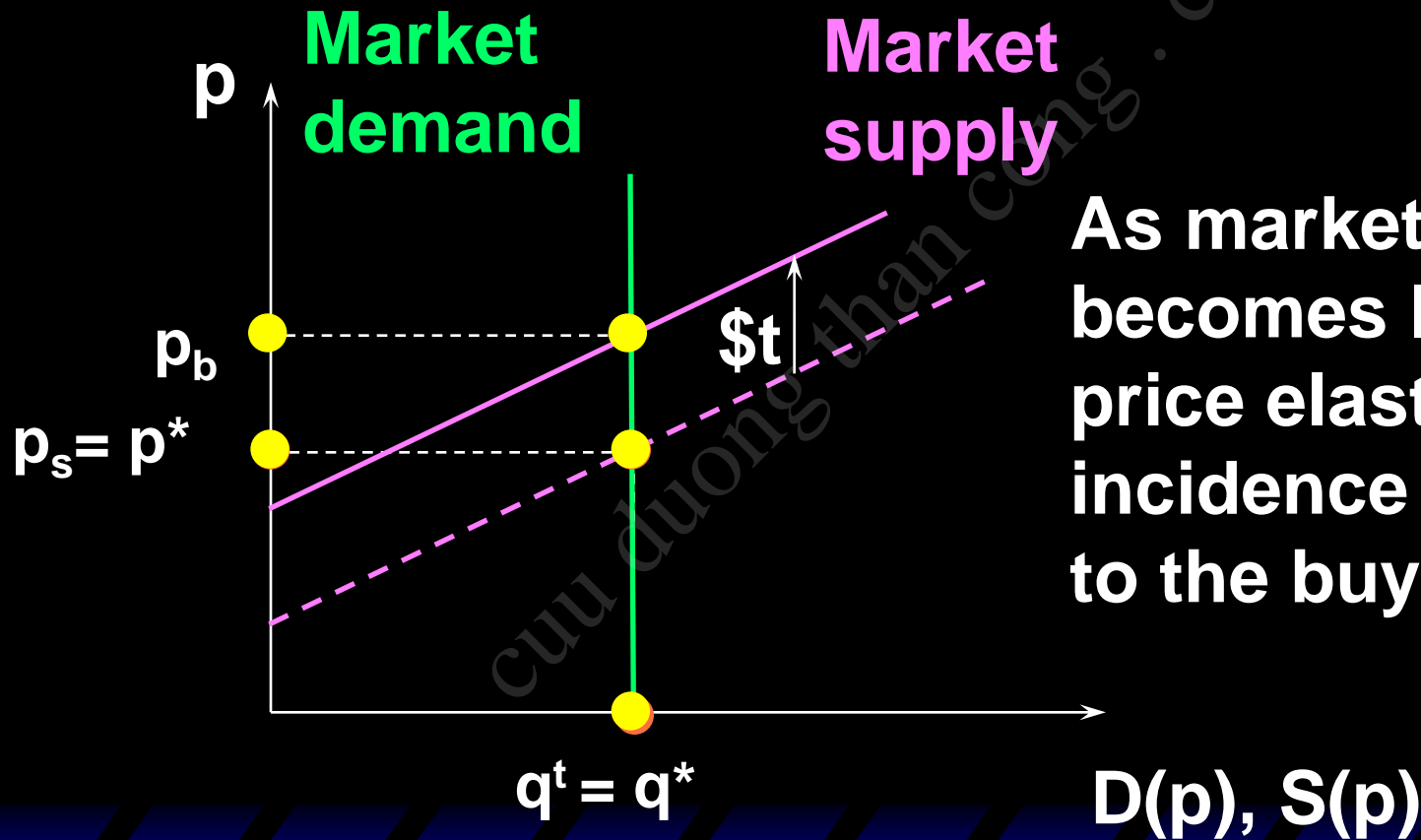
The fraction of a \$t quantity tax paid by buyers rises as supply becomes more own-price elastic or as demand becomes less own-price elastic.

Tax Incidence and Own-Price Elasticities



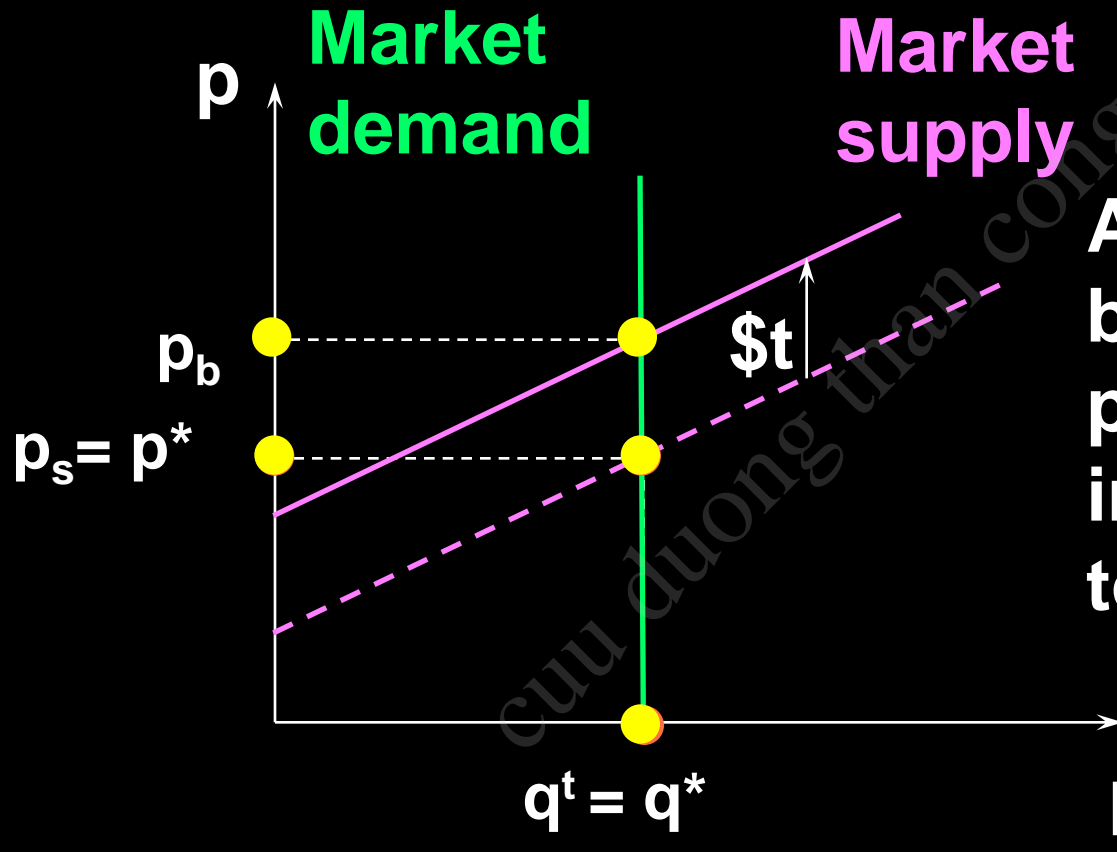
As market demand becomes less own-price elastic, tax incidence shifts more to the buyers.

Tax Incidence and Own-Price Elasticities



As market demand becomes less own-price elastic, tax incidence shifts more to the buyers.

Tax Incidence and Own-Price Elasticities



As market demand becomes less own-price elastic, tax incidence shifts more to the buyers.

When $\varepsilon_D = 0$, buyers pay the entire tax, even though it is levied on the sellers.

Tax Incidence and Own-Price Elasticities

Tax incidence is

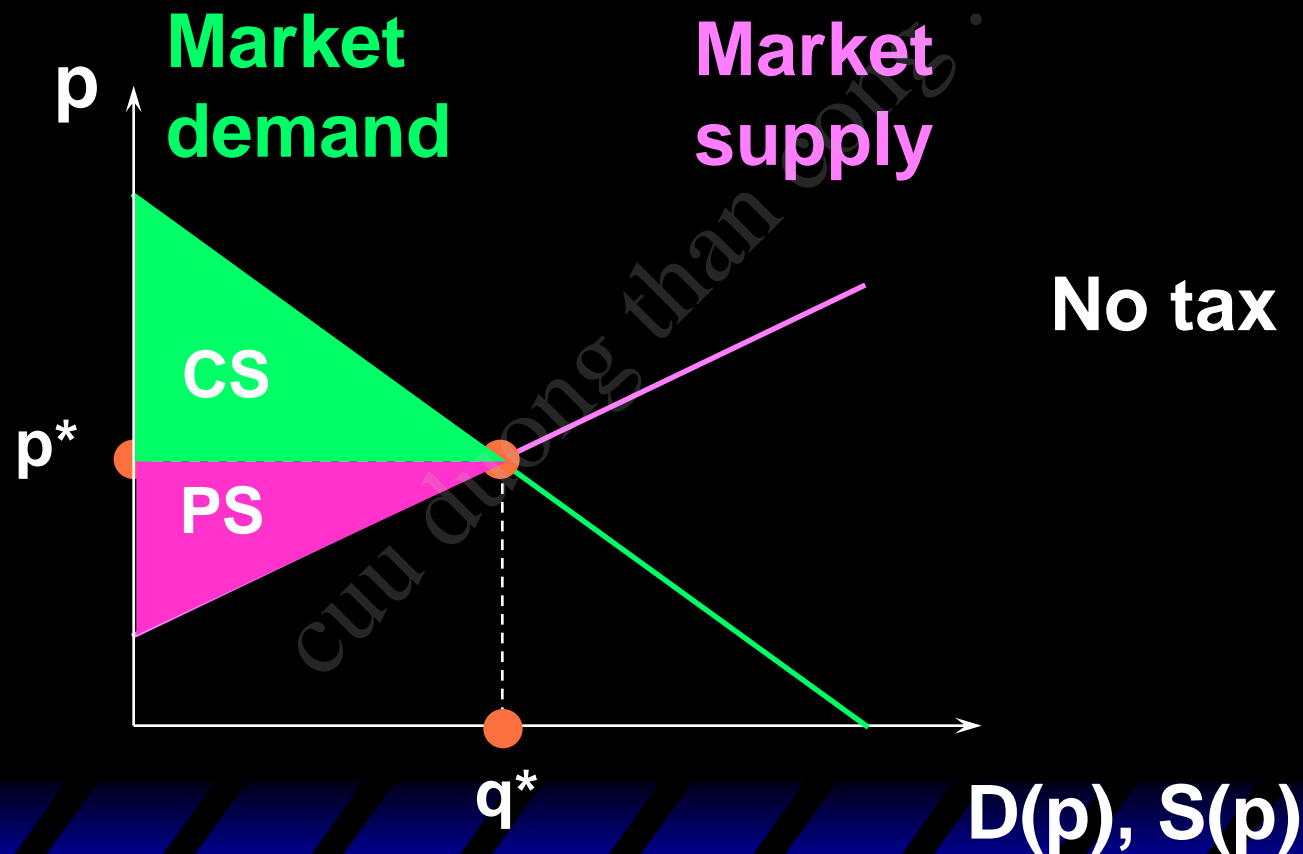
$$\frac{p_b - p^*}{p^* - p_s} \approx -\frac{\varepsilon_S}{\varepsilon_D}.$$

Similarly, the fraction of a \$t quantity tax paid by sellers rises as supply becomes less own-price elastic or as demand becomes more own-price elastic.

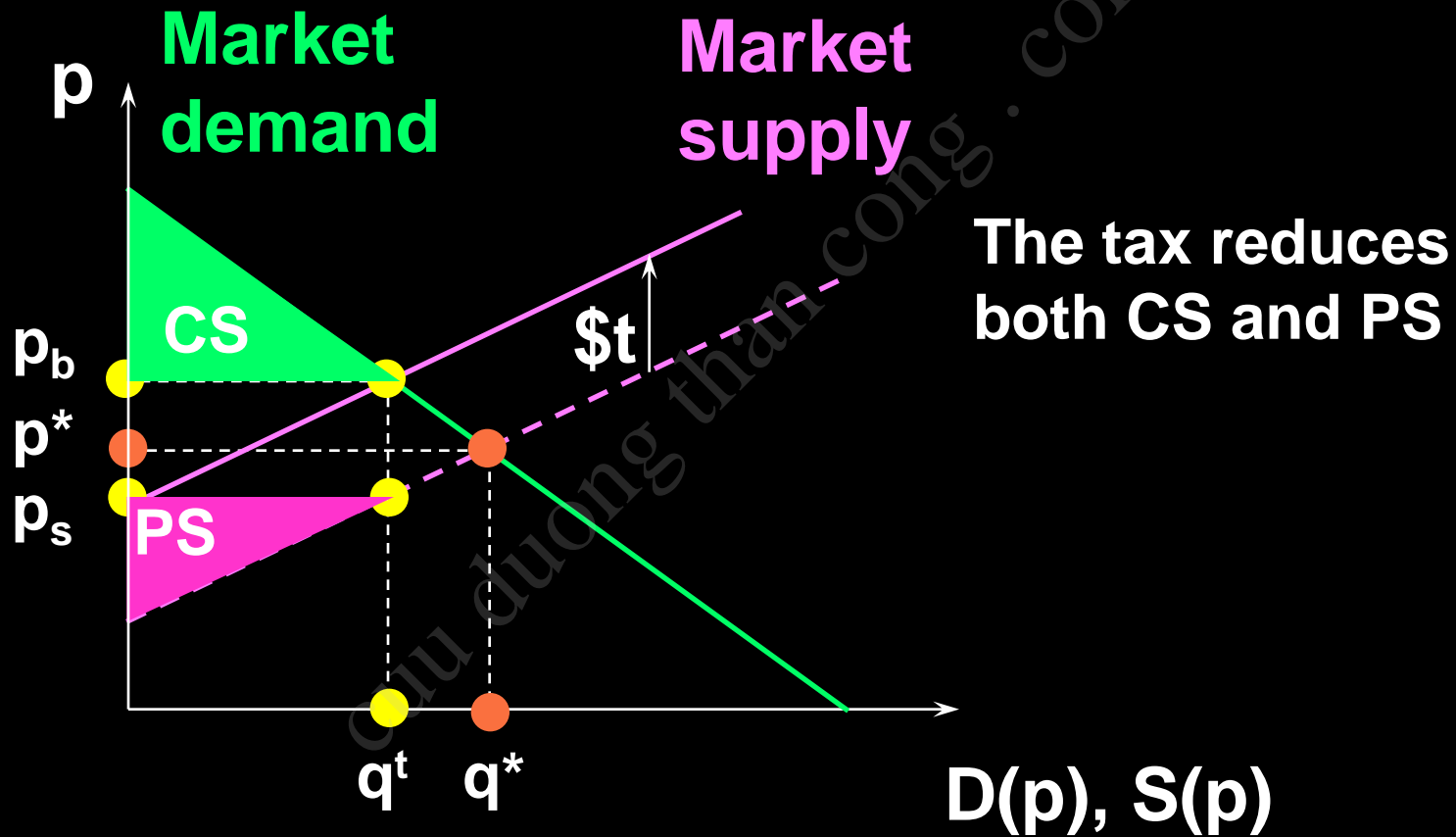
Deadweight Loss and Own-Price Elasticities

- ◆ A quantity tax imposed on a competitive market reduces the quantity traded and so reduces gains-to-trade (*i.e.* the sum of Consumers' and Producers' Surpluses).
- ◆ The lost total surplus is the tax's **deadweight loss**, or **excess burden**.

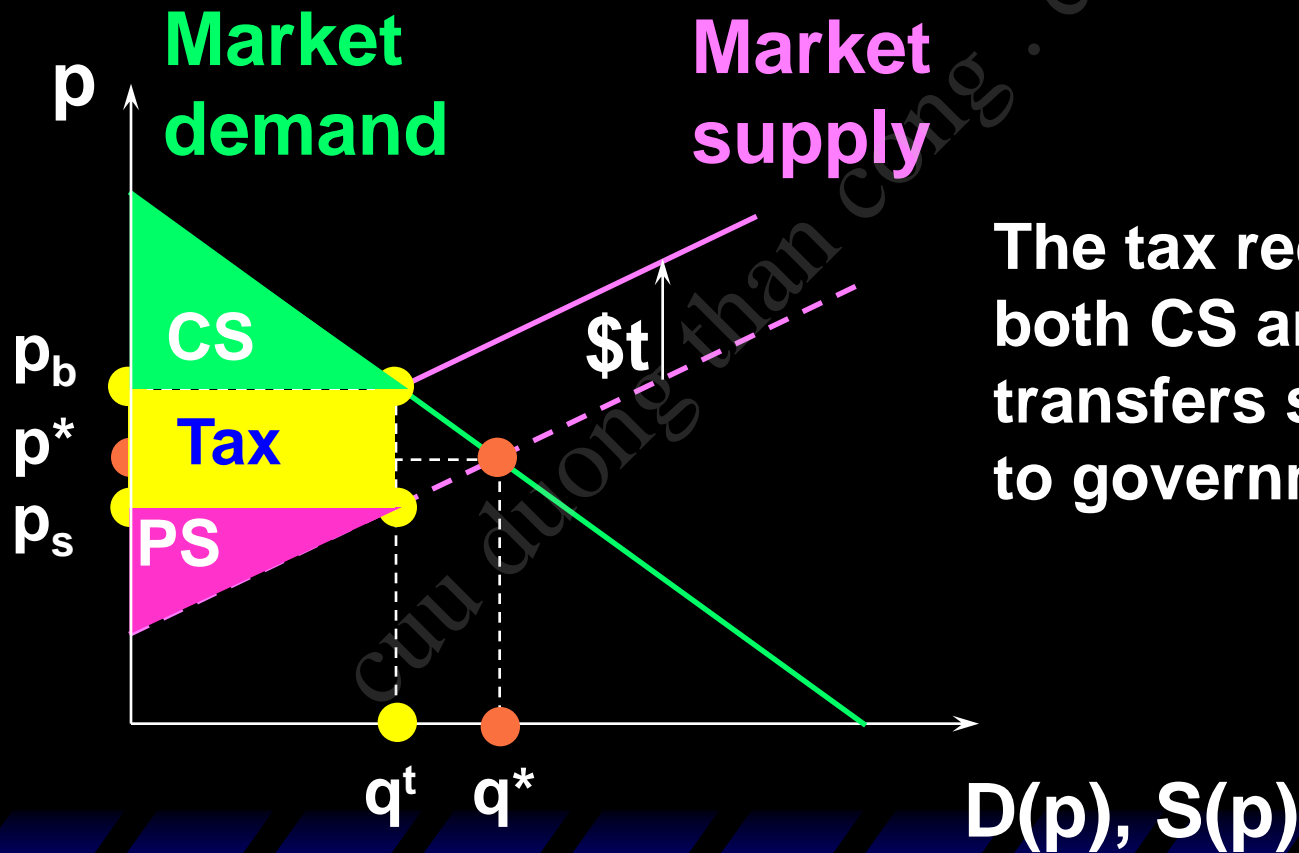
Deadweight Loss and Own-Price Elasticities



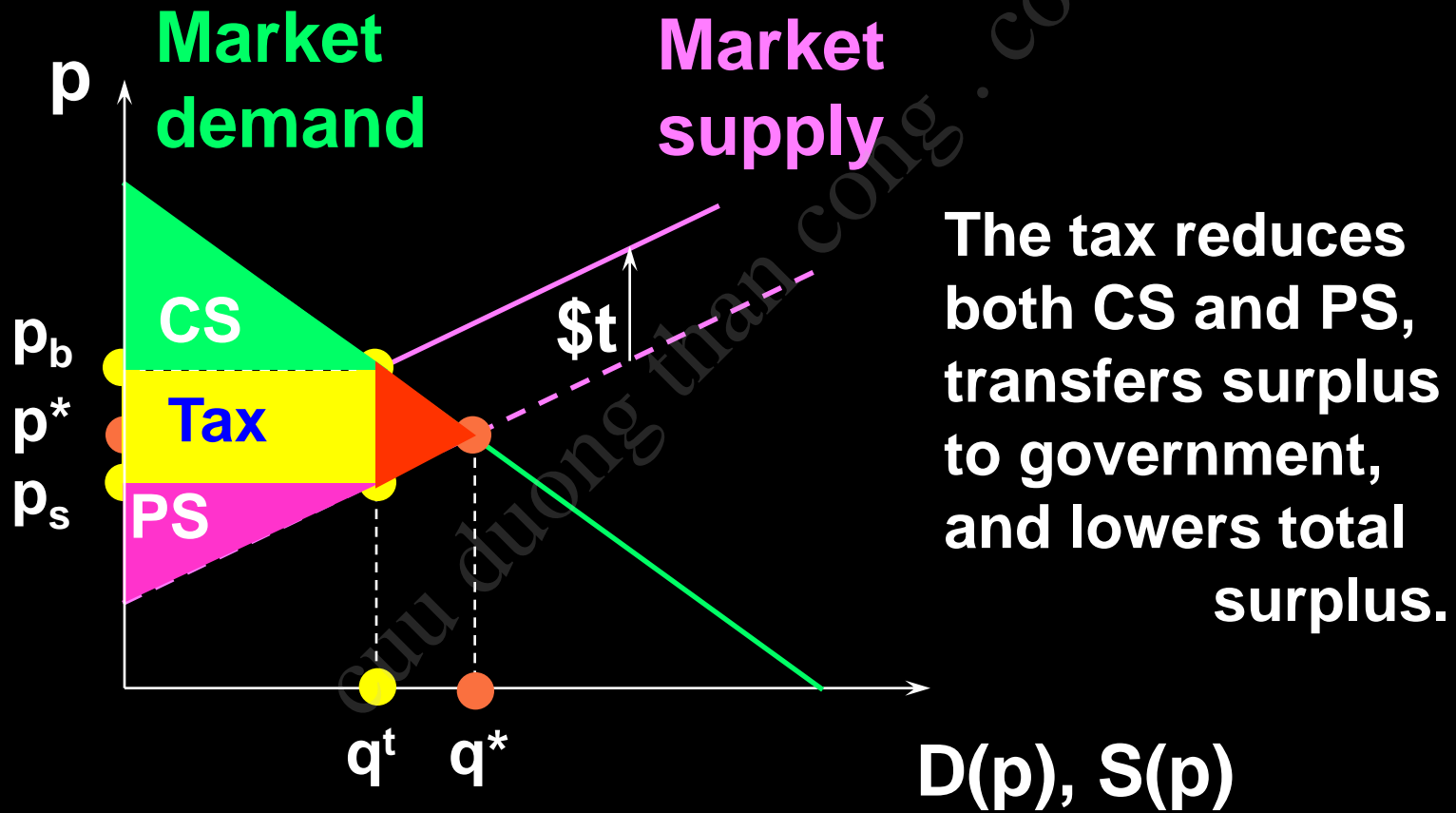
Deadweight Loss and Own-Price Elasticities



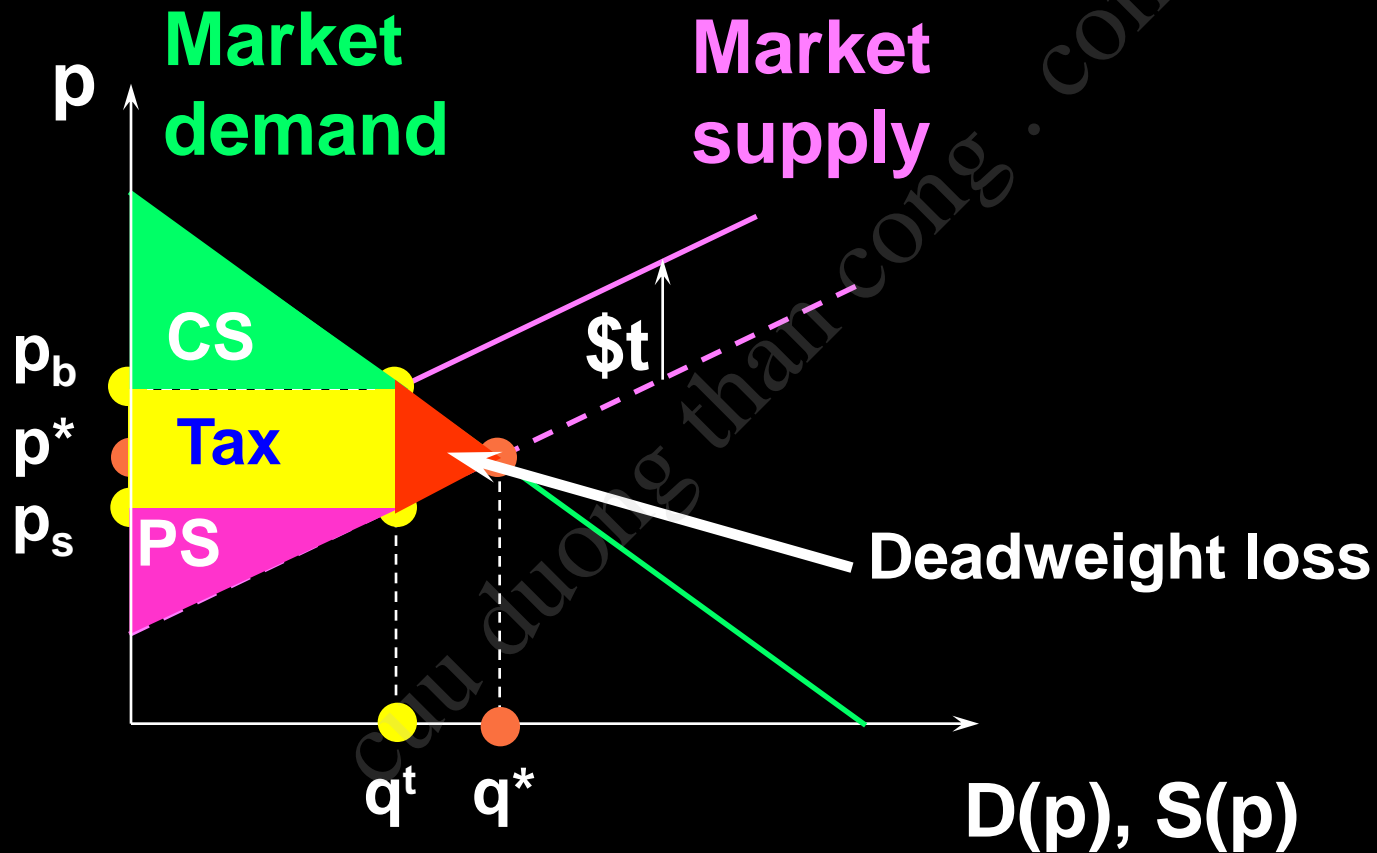
Deadweight Loss and Own-Price Elasticities



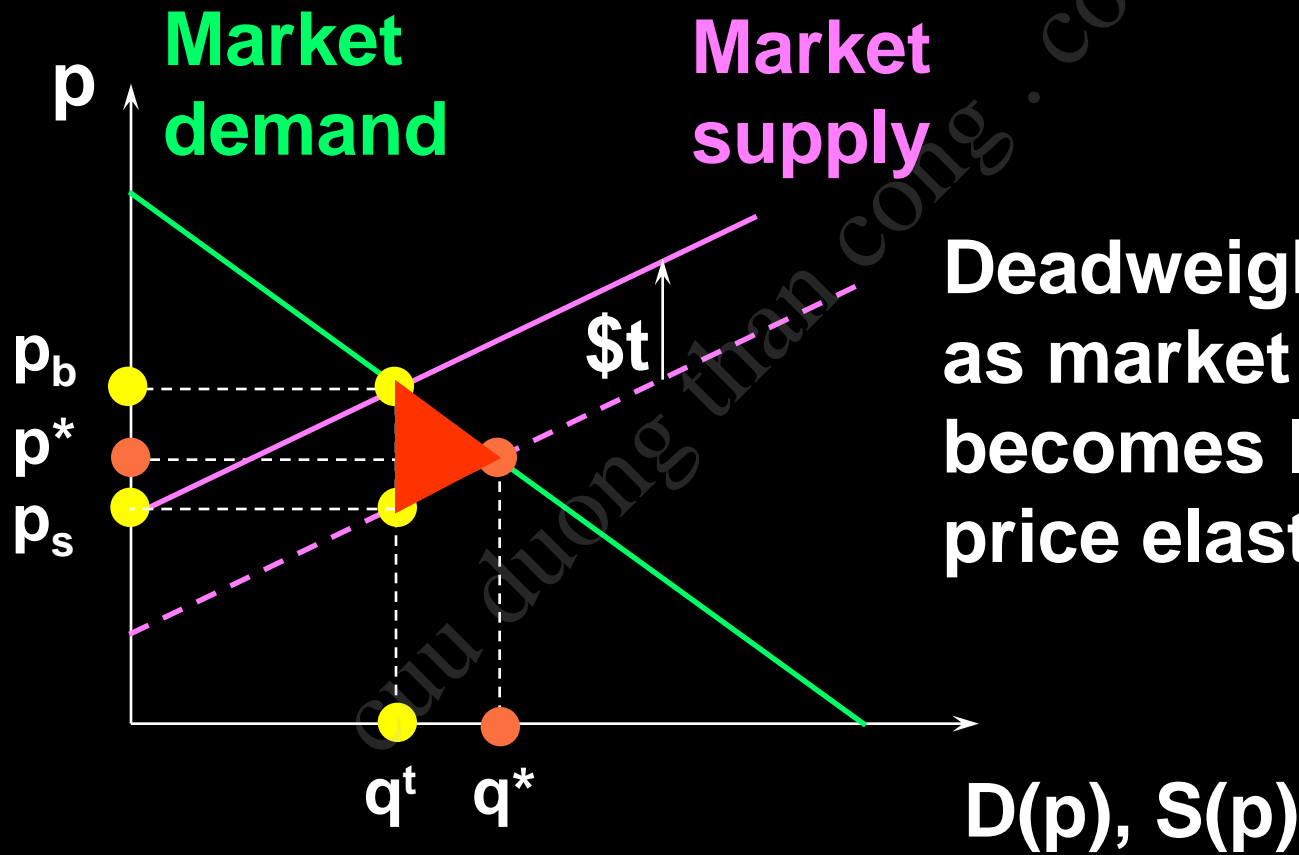
Deadweight Loss and Own-Price Elasticities



Deadweight Loss and Own-Price Elasticities

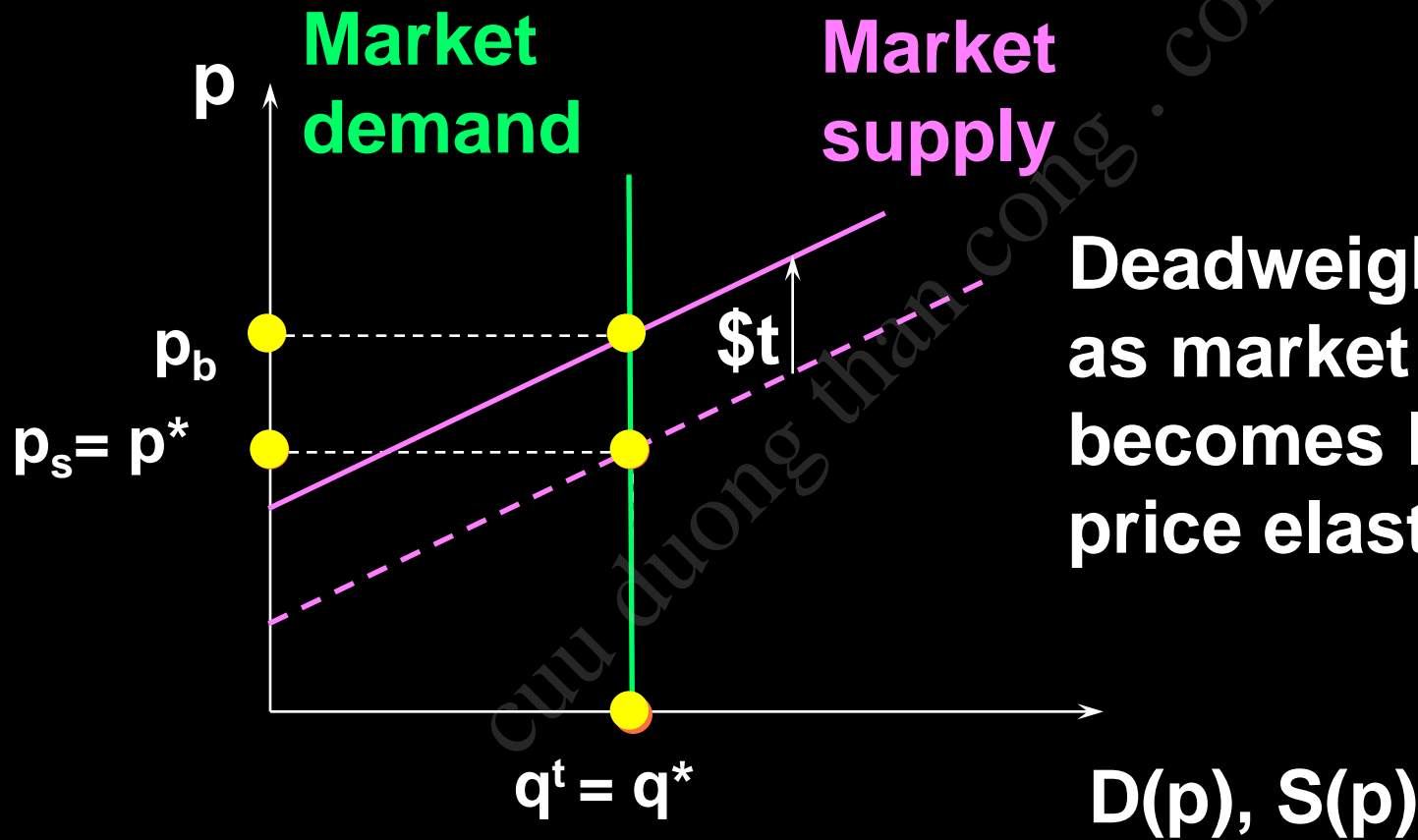


Deadweight Loss and Own-Price Elasticities



Deadweight loss falls as market demand becomes less own-price elastic.

Deadweight Loss and Own-Price Elasticities



Deadweight loss falls as market demand becomes less own-price elastic.

When $\varepsilon_D = 0$, the tax causes no deadweight loss.

Deadweight Loss and Own-Price Elasticities

- ◆ Deadweight loss due to a quantity tax rises as either market demand or market supply becomes more own-price elastic.
- ◆ If either $\varepsilon_D = 0$ or $\varepsilon_S = 0$ then the deadweight loss is zero.