Chapter 8 Profit Maximization and Supply Behavior

Profit Maximization

- A basic assumption for firm's rational behavior
- Do firms really maximize profits?
- The agency problem for CEOs
- The presence of not-for-profit organizations (hospitals and universities)
- Alchian's survival test theory: a strong argument for profit maximization as an approximation

Economic Profit

- A firm uses inputs j = 1...,m to make products i = 1,...n.
- Output levels are $y_1,...,y_n$.
- Input levels are x₁,...,x_m.
- Product prices are $p_1,...,p_n$.
- Input prices are w₁,...,w_{m.}

Perfectly Competitive Markets

- Price Taking
 - The individual firm sells a very small share of the total market output and, therefore, cannot influence market price
 - Each firm takes market price as given –
 price taker
 - The individual consumer buys too small a share of industry output to have any impact on market price

The Competitive Firm

 The competitive firm takes all output prices p₁,...,p_n and all input prices w₁,...,w_m as given constants.

Economic Profit

• The economic profit generated by the production plan $(x_1,...,x_m,y_1,...,y_n)$ is

$$\Pi = p_1 y_1 + \dots + p_n y_n - w_1 x_1 - \dots + w_m x_m.$$

Economic Profit

- How do we value a firm?
- Suppose the firm's stream of periodic economic profits is $\Pi_0, \Pi_1, \Pi_2, \ldots$ and r is the rate of interest.
- Then the present-value of the firm's economic profit stream is

$$PV = \Pi_0 + \frac{\Pi_1}{1+r} + \frac{\Pi_2}{(1+r)^2} + \cdots$$

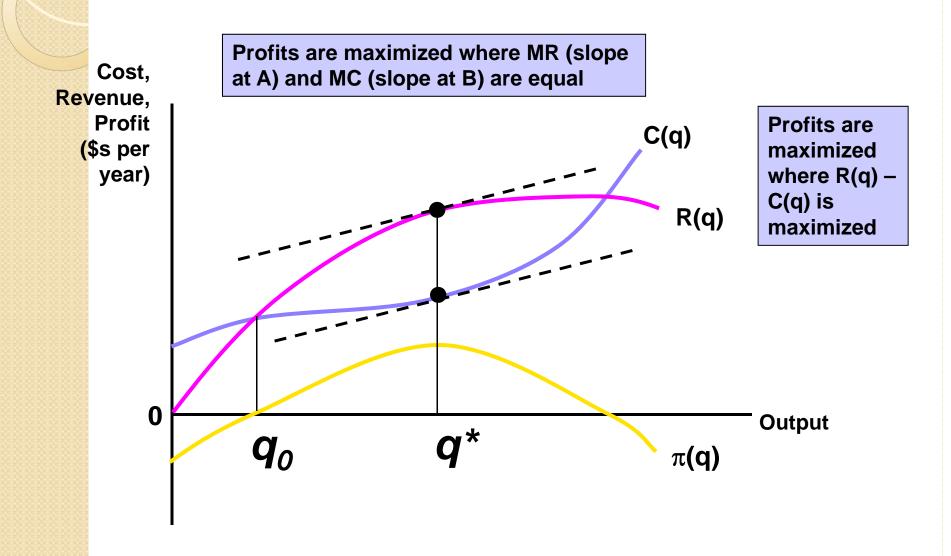
- We can study profit maximizing output for any firm, whether perfectly competitive or not
 - Profit (π) = Total Revenue Total Cost
 - If q is output of the firm, then total revenue is price of the good times quantity
 - Total Revenue (R) = Pq

- Costs of production depends on output
 - Total Cost (C) = C(q)
- Profit for the firm, π , is difference between revenue and costs

$$\pi(q) = R(q) - C(q)$$

- Firm selects output to maximize the difference between revenue and cost
- We can graph the total revenue and total cost curves to show maximizing profits for the firm
- Distance between revenues and costs show profits

Profit Maximization



 Profit is maximized at the point at which an additional increment to output leaves profit unchanged

$$\pi(q) = R(q) - C(q)$$

$$\frac{d\pi}{dq} = \frac{dR}{dq} - \frac{dC}{dq} = 0$$

$$= MR - MC = 0$$

$$MR = MC$$

New Assignment

- Problem Set 2
- Due day: November 15
- Lectures for chapters 7, 8, and 9 have been placed in my public folder

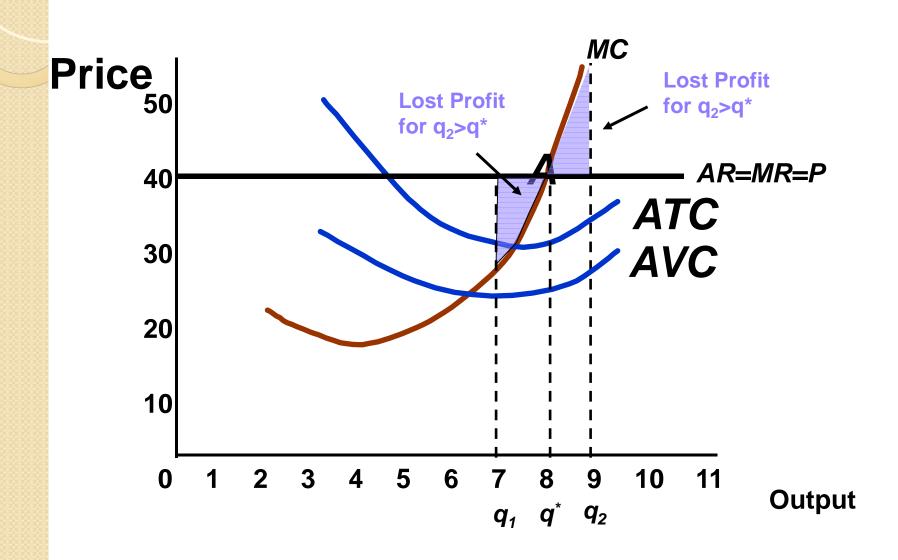
Choosing Output: Short Run

- We will combine revenue and costs with demand to determine profit maximizing output decisions
- In the short run, capital is fixed and firm must choose levels of variable inputs to maximize profits
- We can look at the graph of MR, MC,
 ATC and AVC to determine profits

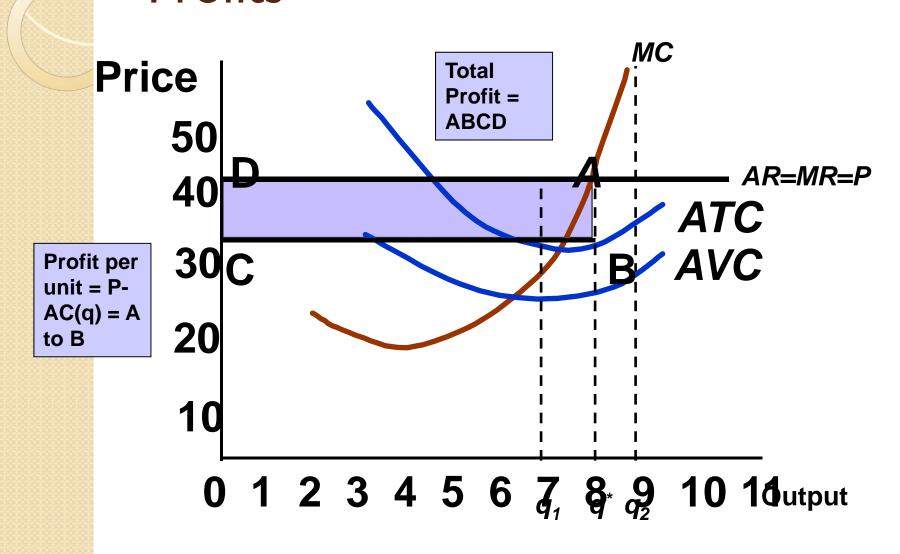
Choosing Output: Short Run

- The point where MR = MC, the profit maximizing output is chosen
 - MR = MC at quantity, q*, of 8
 - At a quantity less than 8, MR > MC, so more profit can be gained by increasing output
 - At a quantity greater than 8, MC > MR, increasing output will decrease profits

A Competitive Firm



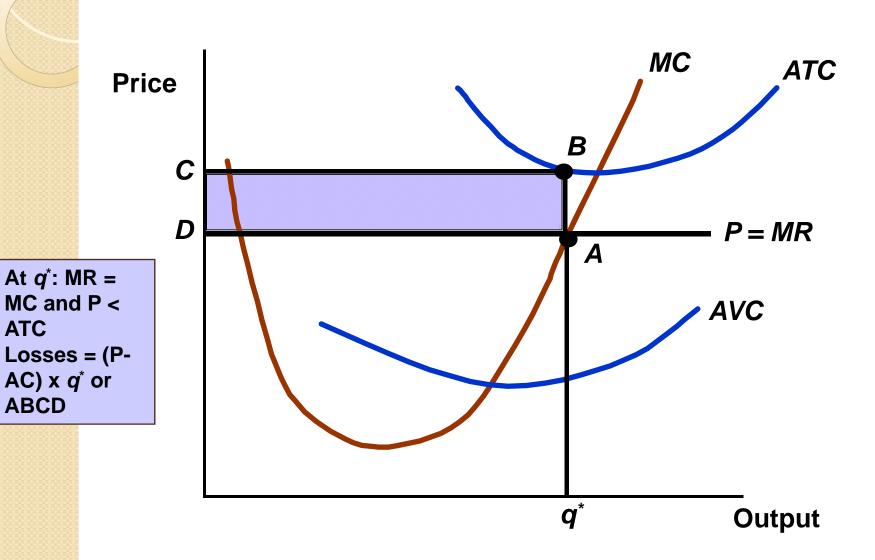
A Competitive Firm – Positive Profits



The Competitive Firm

- A firm does not have to make profits
- It is possible a firm will incur losses if the P < AC for the profit maximizing quantity
 - Still measured by profit per unit times quantity
 - Profit per unit is negative (P AC < 0)

A Competitive Firm – Losses



ATC

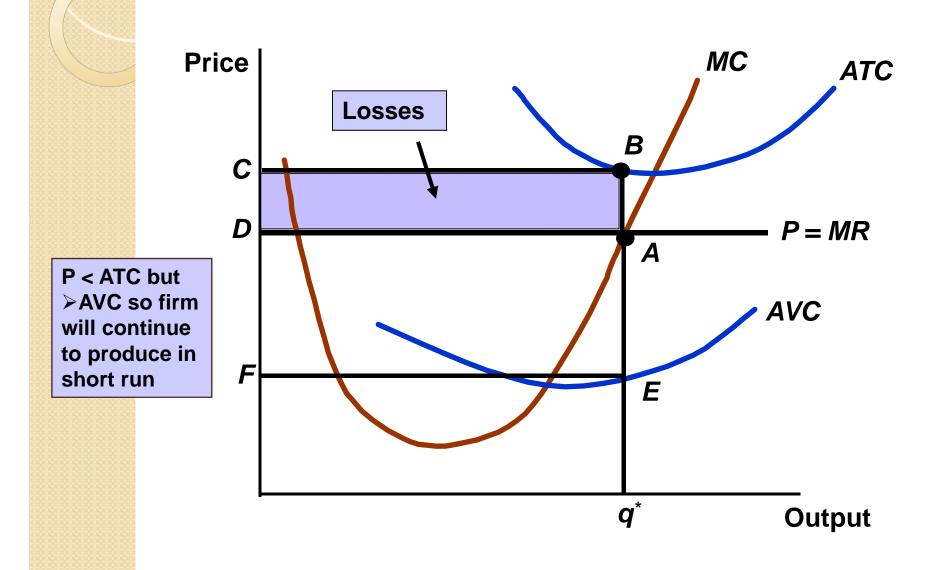
Short Run Production

- Why would a firm produce at a loss?
 - Might think price will increase in near future
 - Shutting down and starting up could be costly
- Firm has two choices in short run
 - Continue producing
 - Shut down temporarily
 - Will compare profitability of both choices

Short Run Production

- When should the firm shut down?
 - If AVC < P < ATC, the firm should continue producing in the short run
 - Can cover all of its variable costs and some of its fixed costs
 - If AVC > P < ATC, the firm should shut down
 - Cannot cover its variable costs or any of its fixed costs

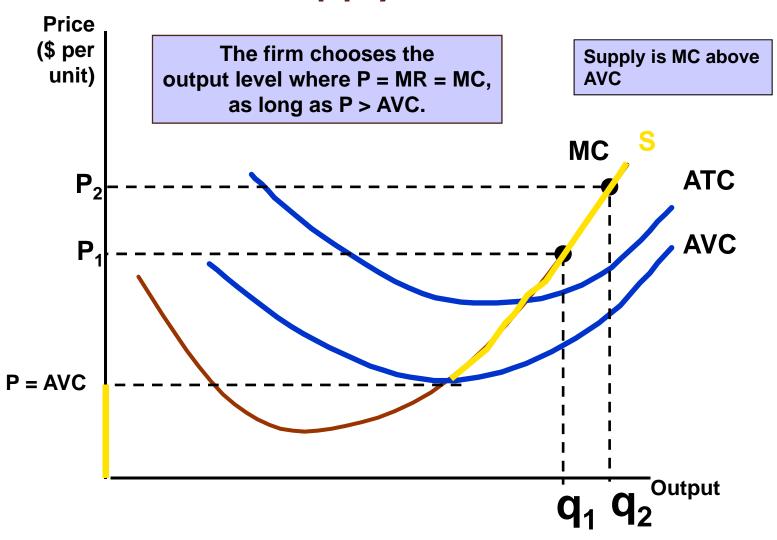
A Competitive Firm – Losses



Competitive Firm — Short Run Supply

- Supply curve tells how much output will be produced at different prices
- Competitive firms determine quantity to produce where P = MC
 - Firm shuts down when P < AVC
- Competitive firms' supply curve is portion of the marginal cost curve above the AVC curve

A Competitive Firm's Short-Run Supply Curve



A Competitive Firm's Short-Run Supply Curve

- Supply is upward sloping due to diminishing returns
- Higher price compensates the firm for the higher cost of additional output and increases total profit because it applies to all units

Derivation of the Supply Curve

$$Max \pi(q) = pq - C(q)$$

$$s.t. \pi \ge -F \Rightarrow p \ge AVC$$

$$d\pi/dp = p - C'(q) = 0 \Rightarrow p = C'(q)$$

$$dp/dq = C''(q) > 0$$

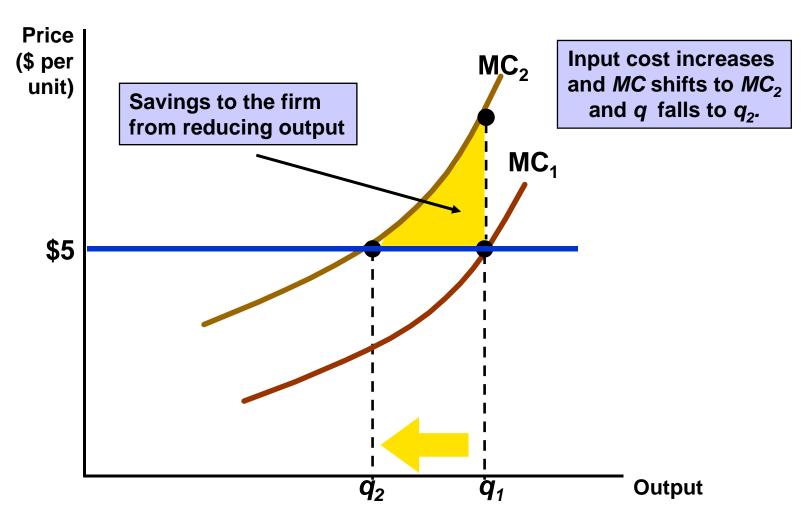
Announcement

Problem Set 2: Due on Nov 12

A Competitive Firm's Short-Run Supply Curve

- Over time, prices of product and inputs can change
- How does the firm's output change in response to a change in the price of an input?
 - We can show an increase in marginal costs and the change in the firm's output decisions

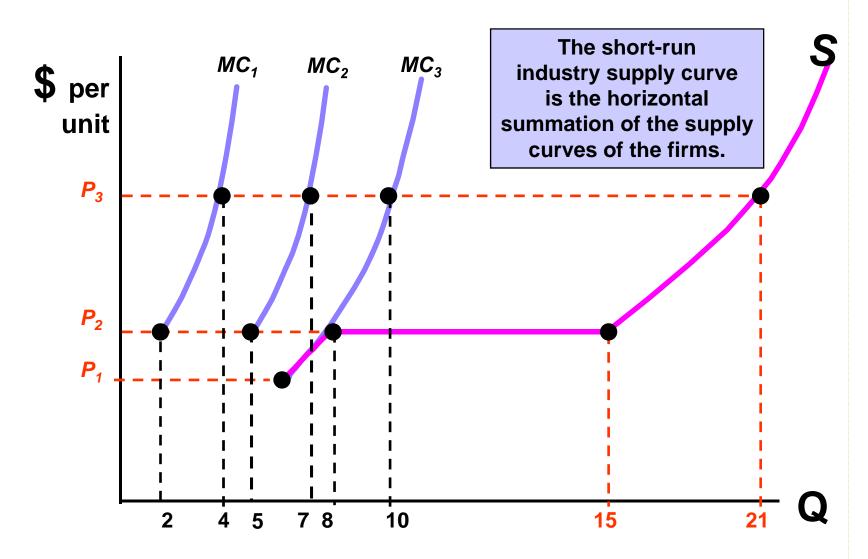
The Response of a Firm to a Change in Input Price



Short-Run Market Supply Curve

- Shows the amount of product the whole market will produce at given prices
- Is the sum of all the individual producers in the market
- We can show graphically how we can sum the supply curves of individual producers

Industry Supply in the Short Run



Elasticity of Market Supply

- Elasticity of Market Supply
 - Measures the sensitivity of industry output to market price
 - The percentage change in quantity supplied,
 Q, in response to I-percent change in price

$$E_s = (\Delta Q/Q)/(\Delta P/P)$$

Elasticity of Market Supply

- When MC increases rapidly in response to increases in output, elasticity is low
- When MC increases slowly, supply is relatively elastic
- Perfectly inelastic short-run supply arises when the industry's plant and equipment are so fully utilized that new plants must be built to achieve greater output
- Perfectly elastic short-run supply arises when marginal costs are constant

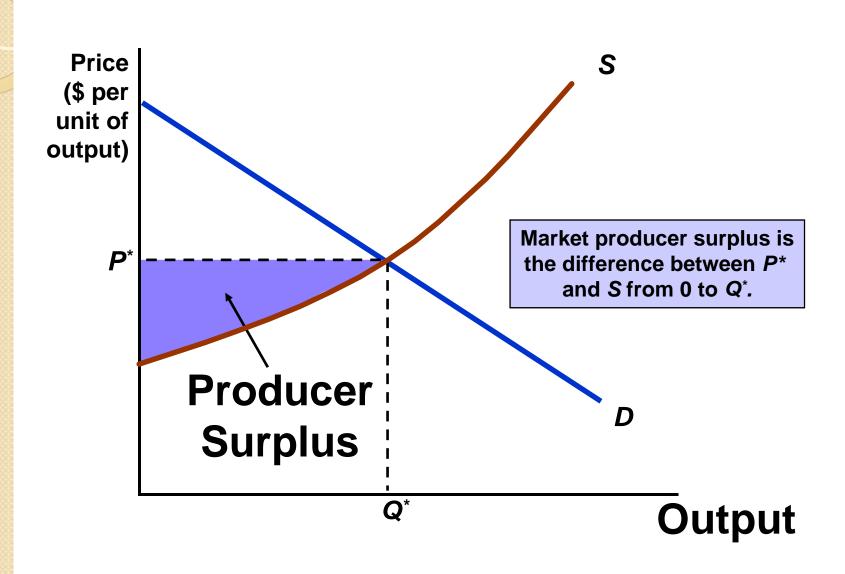
Announcements

- Problem Set 2 has been assigned;
- Due Day: Nov. 14, 2011
- Chapters 8-9 have been uploaded

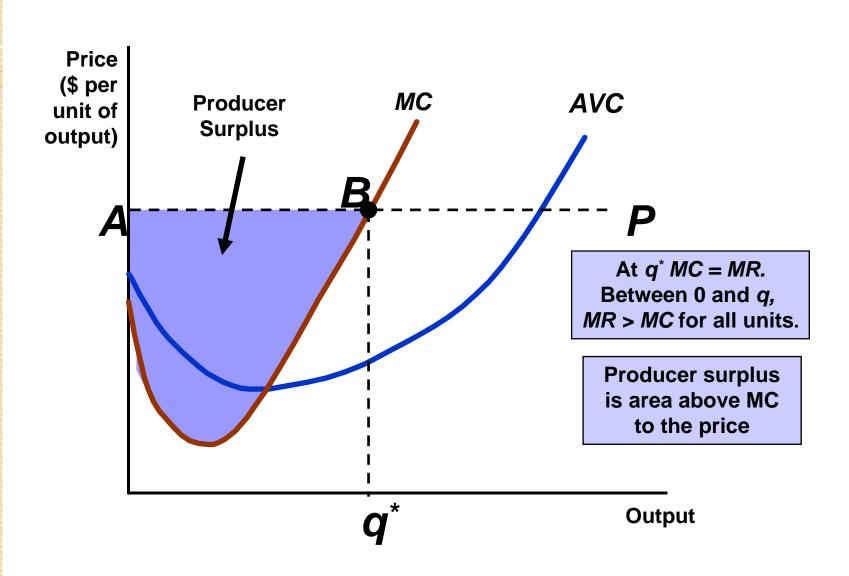
Producer Surplus in the Short Run

- Price is greater than MC on all but the last unit of output
- Therefore, surplus is earned on all but the last unit
- The producer surplus is the sum over all units produced of the difference between the market price of the good and the marginal cost of production
- Area above supply curve to the market price

Producer Surplus for a Market



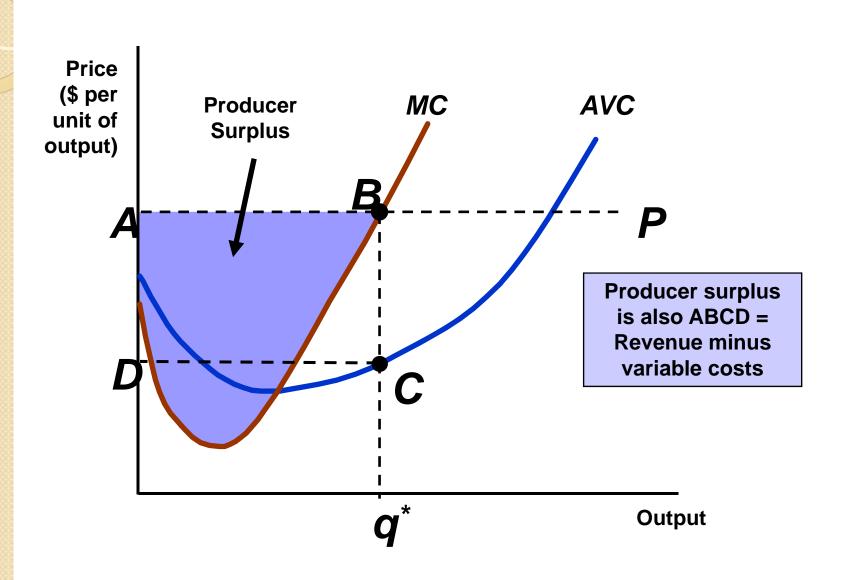
Producer Surplus for a Firm



The Short-Run Market Supply Curve

- Sum of MC from 0 to q*, it is the sum of the total variable cost of producing q*
- Producer Surplus can be defined as the difference between the firm's revenue and its total variable cost
- We can show this graphically by the rectangle ABCD
 - Revenue (0ABq*) minus variable cost (0DCq*)

Producer Surplus for a Firm



Producer Surplus Versus Profit

- Profit is revenue minus total cost (not just variable cost)
- When fixed cost is positive, producer surplus is greater than profit

Producer Surplus = PS = R - VC

Profit = π = R - VC - FC

Producer Surplus Versus Profit

- Costs of production determine magnitude of producer surplus
 - Higher cost firms have less producer surplus
 - Lower cost firms have more producer surplus
 - Adding up surplus for all producers in the market given total market producer surplus
 - Area below market price and above supply curve

Profit Max: Another Look

- Suppose the firm is in a short-run circumstance in which $\mathbf{x}_2 \equiv \widetilde{\mathbf{x}}_2$.
- Its short-run production function is

$$y = f(x_1, \tilde{x}_2).$$

• The firm's fixed cost is $FC = w_2 \tilde{x}_2$ and its profit function is

$$\Pi = py - w_1x_1 - w_2\tilde{x}_2.$$

- A \$ Π iso-profit line contains all the production plans that provide a profit level \$ Π .
- A Π iso-profit line's equation is

$$\Pi \equiv py - w_1x_1 - w_2\tilde{x}_2.$$

- A \$ Π iso-profit line contains all the production plans that yield a profit level of \$ Π .
- The equation of a Π iso-profit line is

$$\prod_{\text{l.e.}} \equiv py - w_1x_1 - w_2\widetilde{x}_2.$$

$$y = \frac{w_1}{p}x_1 + \frac{\Pi + w_2\tilde{x}_2}{p}.$$

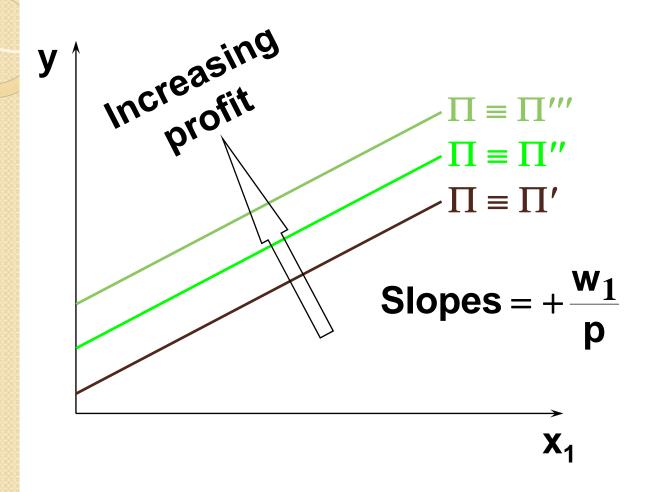
$$y = \frac{w_1}{p}x_1 + \frac{\Pi + w_2\tilde{x}_2}{p}$$

has a slope of

$$\frac{w_1}{p}$$

and a vertical intercept of

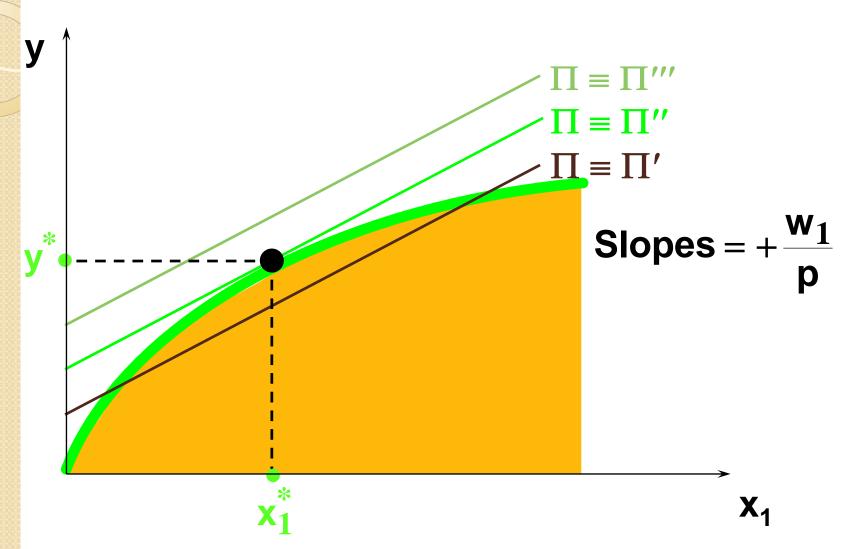
$$\frac{\Pi + \mathbf{w_2}\widetilde{\mathbf{x}_2}}{\mathbf{p}}$$
.

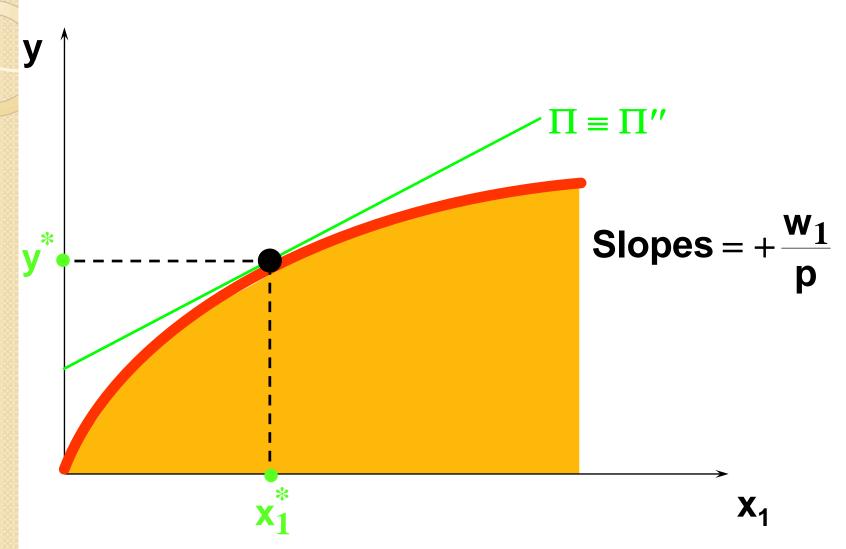


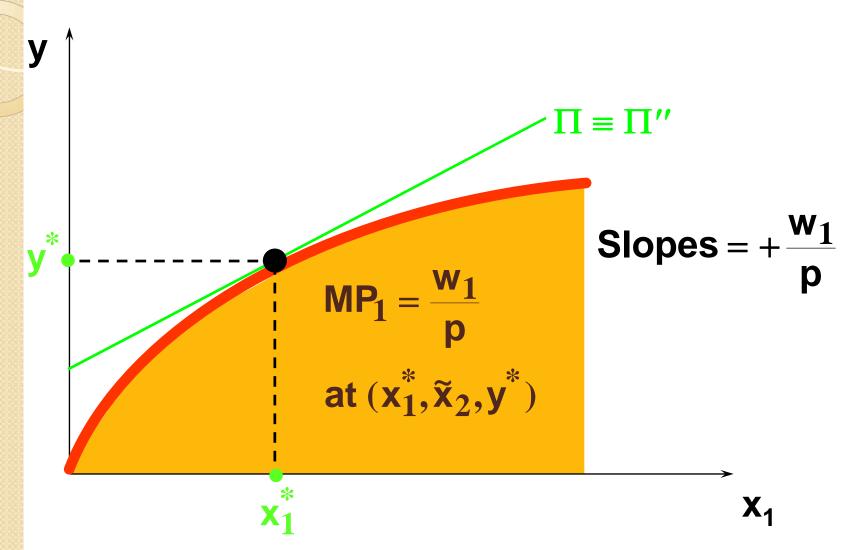
- The firm's problem is to locate the production plan that attains the highest possible iso-profit line, given the firm's constraint on choices of production plans.
- Q:What is this constraint?

- The firm's problem is to locate the production plan that attains the highest possible iso-profit line, given the firm's constraint on choices of production plans.
- Q:What is this constraint?
- A: The production function.

The short-run production function and technology set for $y = f(x_1, \tilde{x}_2)$ **Technically** inefficient plans X_1







$$MP_1 = \frac{w_1}{p} \Leftrightarrow p \times MP_1 = w_1$$

p × **MP**₁ is the marginal revenue product of input 1, the rate at which revenue increases with the amount used of input 1.

If $\mathbf{p} \times \mathbf{MP_1} > \mathbf{w_1}$ then profit increases with $\mathbf{x_1}$.

If $\mathbf{p} \times \mathbf{MP_1} < \mathbf{w_1}$ then profit decreases with $\mathbf{x_1}$.

Profit Max: A Mathematical Approach

$$Max \Pi = py - w_1 x_1 - w_2 \overline{x_2}$$

$$s.t. \quad y = f(x_1, x_2)$$

$$\Rightarrow \quad Max \Pi = pf(x_1, x_2) - w_1 x_1 - w_2 \overline{x_2}$$

$$\Rightarrow \quad p \frac{\partial f}{\partial x_1} = w_1 \quad or \quad \frac{\partial f}{\partial x_1} = w_1 / p$$

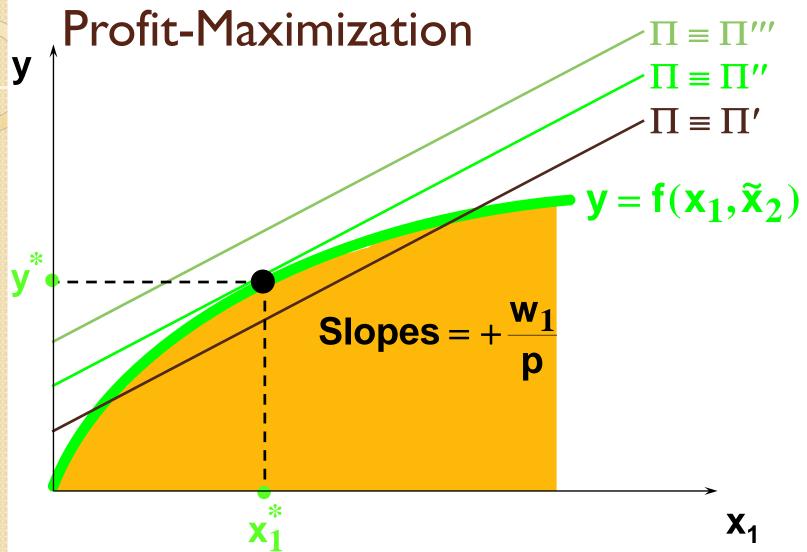
The equation of a short-run iso-profit line is

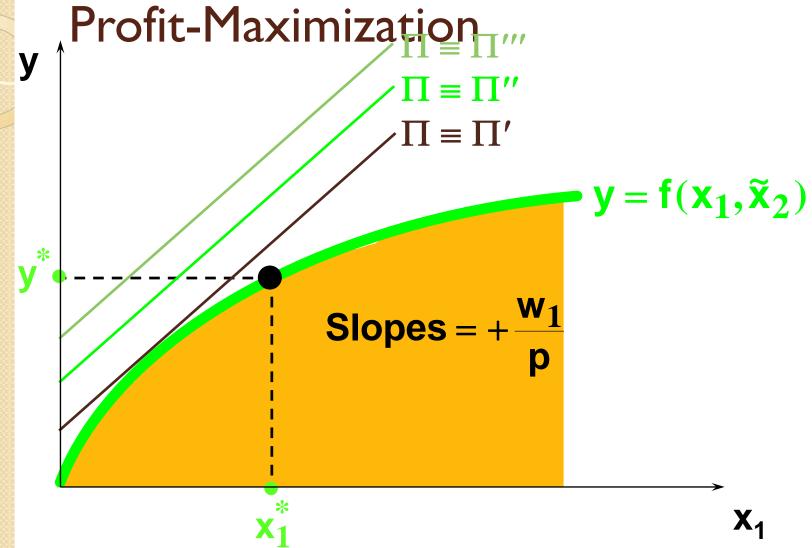
$$y = \frac{w_1}{p}x_1 + \frac{\Pi + w_2\tilde{x}_2}{p}$$

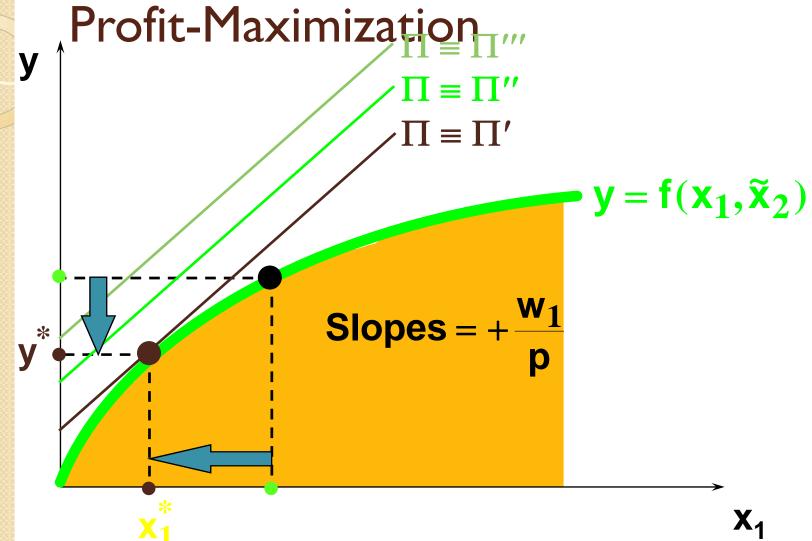
so an increase in w₁ causes

- -- an increase in the slope, and
- -- no change to the vertical intercept.

Comparative Statics of Short-Run

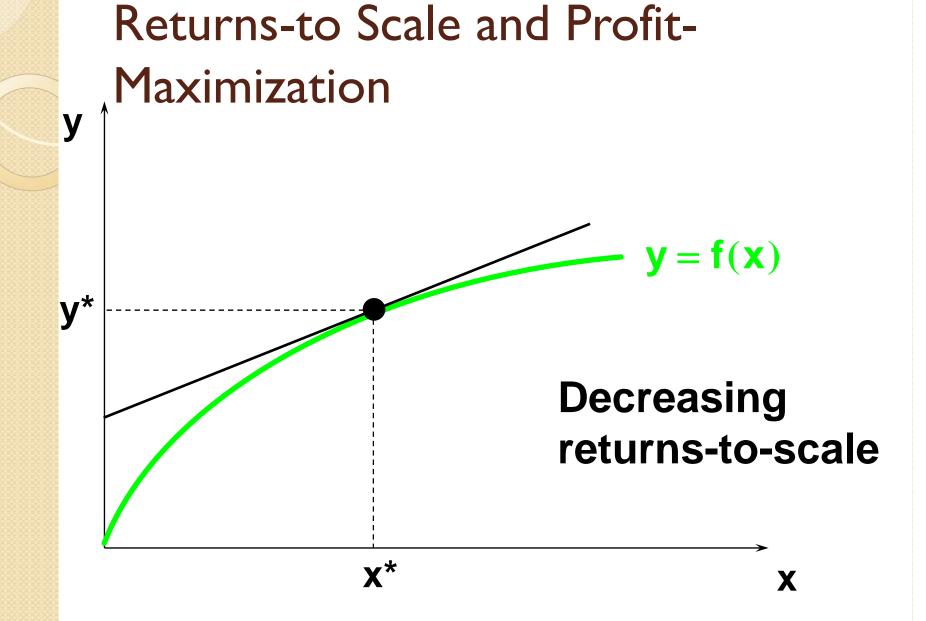




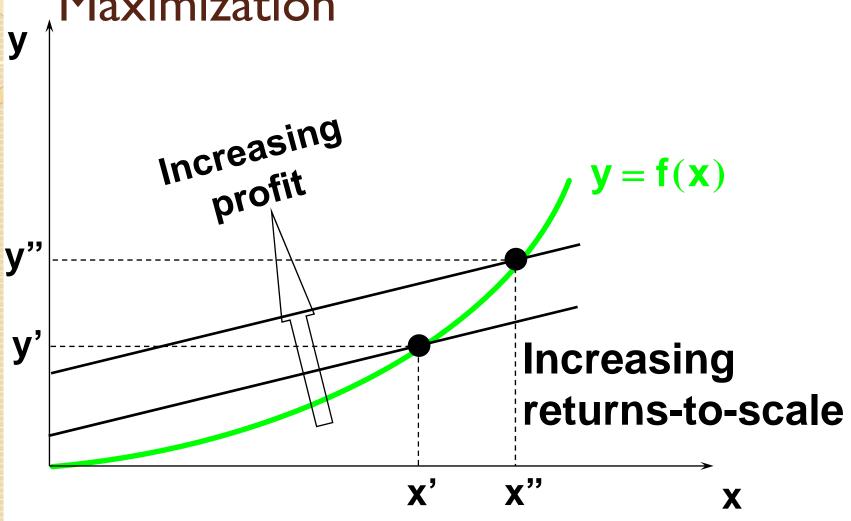


- An increase in w₁, the price of the firm's variable input, causes
 - a decrease in the firm's output level (the firm's supply curve shifts inward), and
 - a decrease in the level of the firm's variable input (the firm's demand curve for its variable input slopes downward).

• If a competitive firm's technology exhibits decreasing returns-to-scale then the firm has a single long-run profit-maximizing production plan.

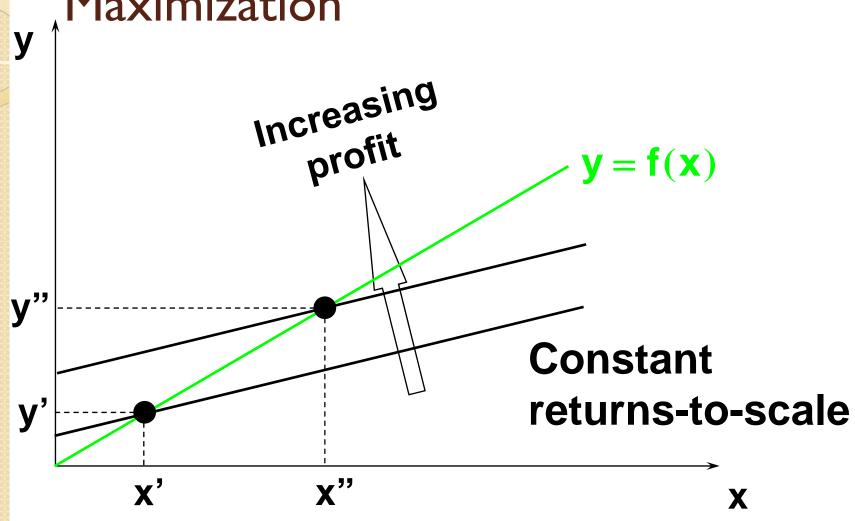


• If a competitive firm's technology exhibits exhibits increasing returns-to-scale then the firm does not have a profit-maximizing plan.



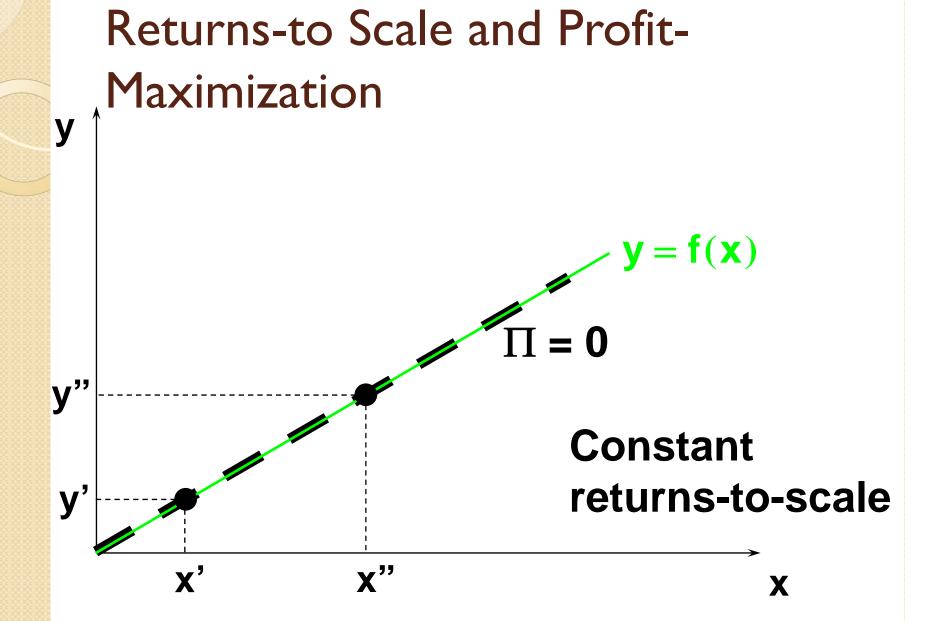
 So an increasing returns-to-scale technology is inconsistent with firms being perfectly competitive.

 What if the competitive firm's technology exhibits constant returns-to-scale?



• So if any production plan earns a positive profit, the firm can double up all inputs to produce twice the original output and earn twice the original profit.

- Therefore, when a firm's technology exhibits constant returns-to-scale, earning a positive economic profit is inconsistent with firms being perfectly competitive.
- Hence constant returns-to-scale requires that competitive firms earn economic profits of zero.



Long-Run Competitive Equilibrium

- For long run equilibrium, firms must have no desire to enter or leave the industry
- We can relate economic profit to the incentive to enter and exit the market
- Need to relate accounting profit to economic profit

Long-Run Competitive Equilibrium

- Accounting profit
 - Difference between firm's revenues and direct costs
- Economic profit
 - Difference between firm's revenues and direct and indirect costs
 - Takes into account opportunity costs and entrepreneur ability

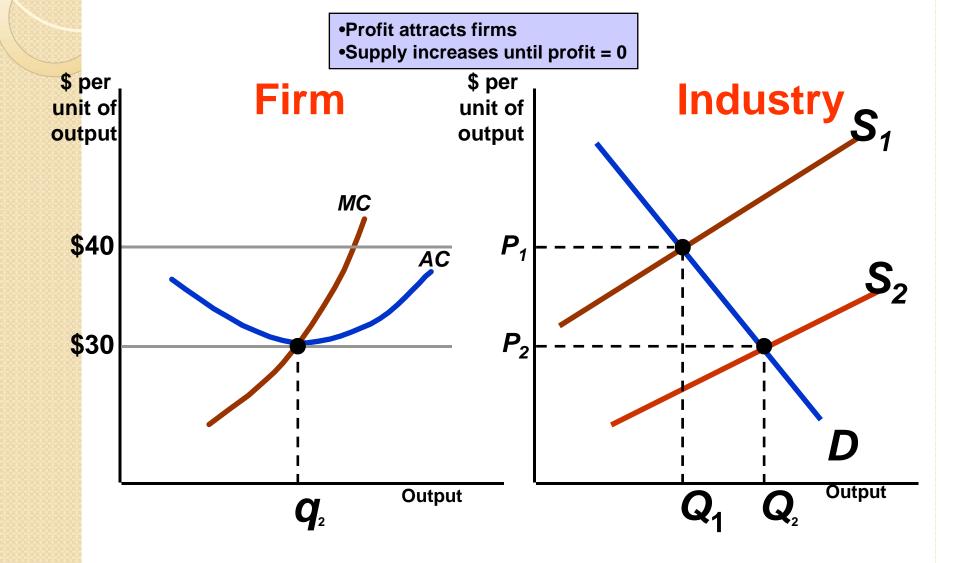
Long-Run Competitive Equilibrium

- Zero-Profit
 - A firm is earning a normal return on its investment
 - Doing as well as it could by investing its money elsewhere
 - Normal return is firm's opportunity cost of using money to buy capital instead of investing elsewhere
 - Competitive market long run equilibrium

Long-Run Competitive Equilibrium

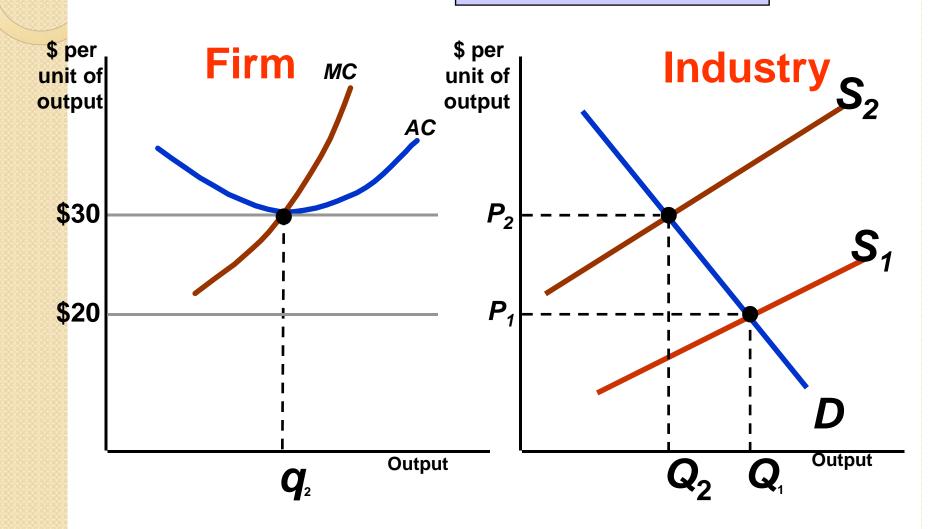
- Entry and Exit
 - The long-run response to short-run profits is to increase output and profits
 - Profits will attract other producers
 - More producers increase industry supply, which lowers the market price
 - This continues until there are no more profits to be gained in the market – zero economic profits

Long-Run Competitive Equilibrium – Profits



Long-Run Competitive Equilibrium – Losses

- •Losses cause firms to leave
- •Supply decreases until profit = 0



Long-Run Competitive Equilibrium

- All firms in industry are maximizing profits
 - MR = MC
- 2. No firm has incentive to enter or exit industry
 - Earning zero economic profits
- 3. Market is in equilibrium
 - \circ $Q_D = Q_S$

The Industry's Long-Run Supply Curve

 The shape of the long-run supply curve depends on the extent to which changes in industry output affect the prices the firms must pay for inputs

The Industry's Long-Run Supply Curve

- Assume
 - All firms have access to the available production technology
 - Output is increased by using more inputs, not by invention

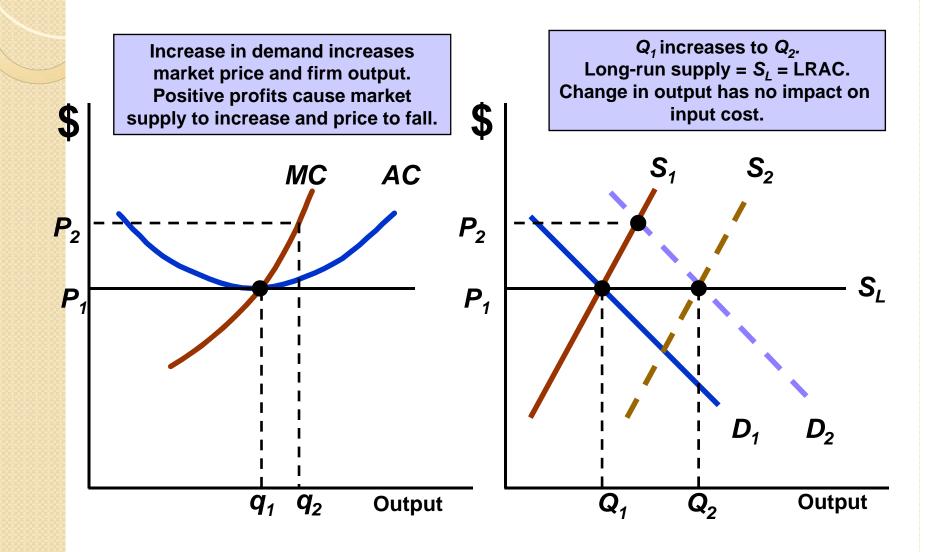
The Industry's Long-Run Supply Curve

- To analyze long-run industry supply, will need to distinguish between three different types of industries
 - . Constant-Cost
 - 2. Increasing-Cost
 - 3. Decreasing-Cost

Constant-Cost Industry

- Industry whose long-run supply curve is horizontal
- Prices of inputs do not change as firms enter or exit
 - Firms' cost curves do not change
- Assume a firm is initially in equilibrium
 - Demand increases, causing price to increase
 - Individual firms increase supply
 - Causes firms to earn positive profits in short run
 - Supply increases, causing market price to decrease
 - Long run equilibrium zero economic profits

Constant-Cost Industry



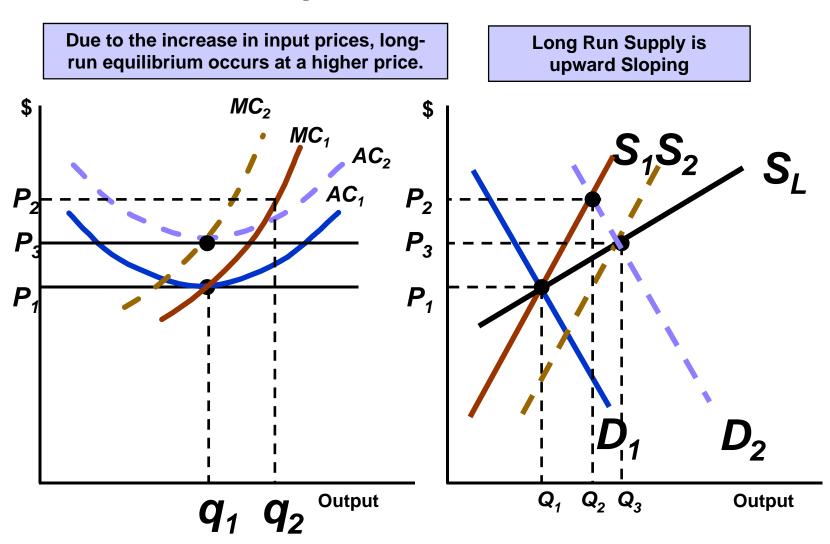
Long-Run Supply in a Constant-Cost Industry

 In a constant-cost industry, the long-run supply is a horizontal line at a price that is equal to the minimum average cost of production

Increasing-Cost Industry

- Prices of some or all inputs rises as production is expanded when demand of inputs increases
- When demand increases, causing prices to increase and production to increase
 - Firms enter the market increasing demand for inputs
 - Costs increase, causing an upward shift in supply curves (congestion, shortage, and so on)
 - Market supply increases but not as much

Long-Run Supply in an Increasing-Cost Industry



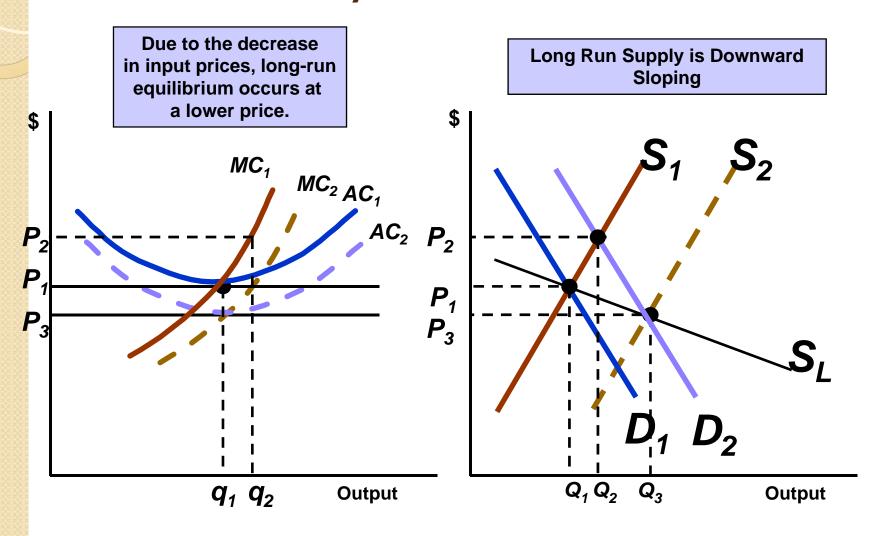
Long-Run Supply in an Increasing-Cost Industry

- In an increasing-cost industry, long-run supply curve is upward sloping
- More output is produced, but only at the higher price needed to compete for the increased input costs

Decreasing-Cost Industry

- Industry whose long-run supply curve is downward sloping
- Increase in demand causes production to increase
 - Increase in size allows firm to take advantage of size to get inputs cheaper
 - Increased production may lead to better efficiencies or quantity discounts
 - Costs shift down and market price falls

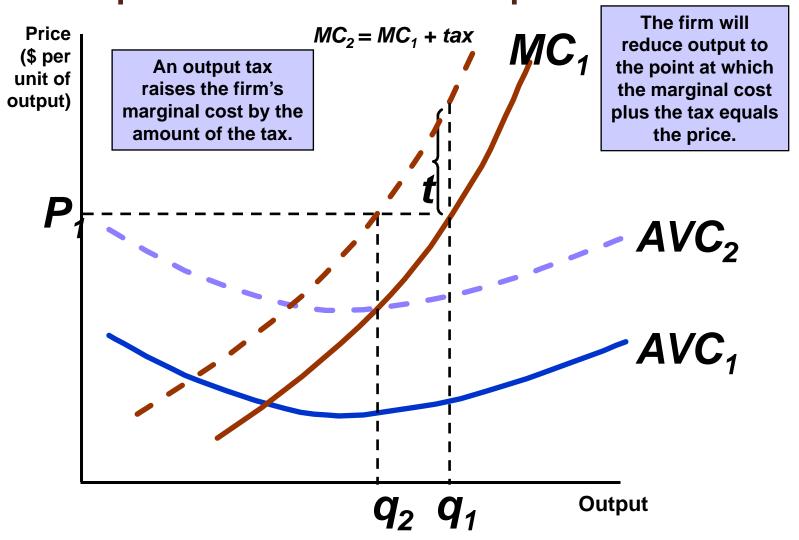
Long-Run Supply in a Decreasing-Cost Industry



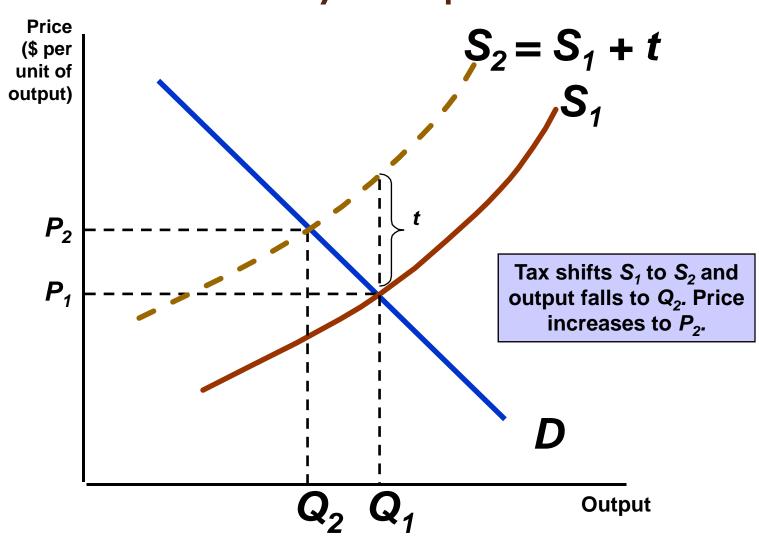
Short-Run Implications for Taxation

- The Effects of a Tax
 - We will consider how a firm responds to a tax on its output
 - The tax impact on the in industry supply curve in the short run

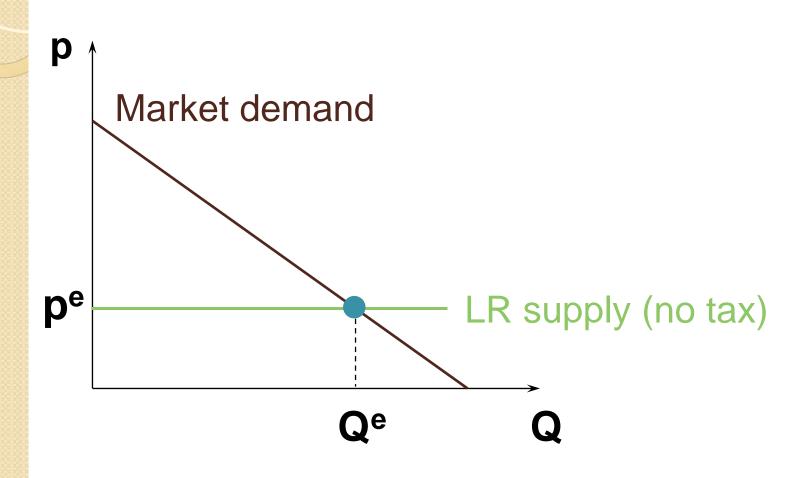
Effect of an Output Tax on a Competitive Firm's Output

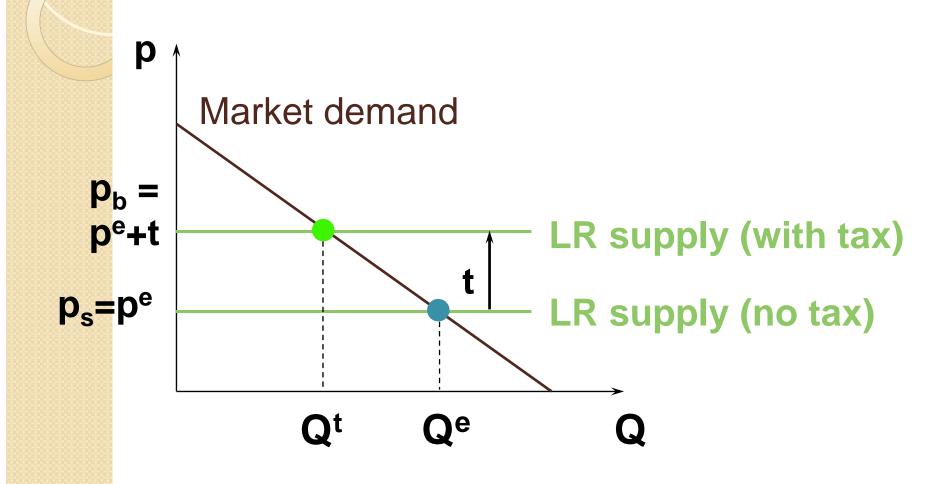


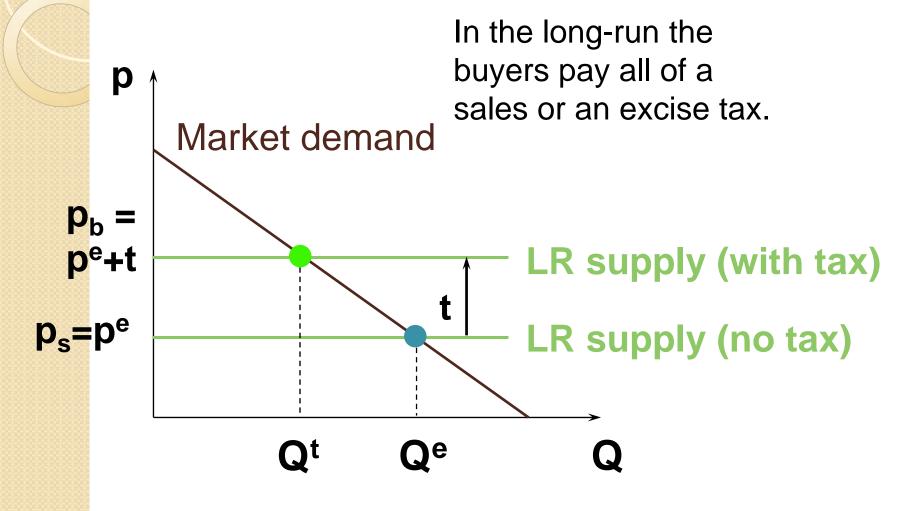
Effect of an Output Tax on Industry Output



- In a short-run equilibrium, the burden of a sales or an excise tax is typically shared by both buyers and sellers, tax incidence of the tax depending upon the own-price elasticities of demand and supply.
- Q: Is this true in a long-run market equilibrium?







- There may be some fixed factor(s) even in the long run
- E.g., the taxi-cab industry has a barrier to entry even though there are lots of cabs competing with each other.
- Cigarette production licensing is a barrier to entry into a competitive industry.
- Other examples of fixed inputs: land, natural resources, talents, or govt. regulation (licensing)

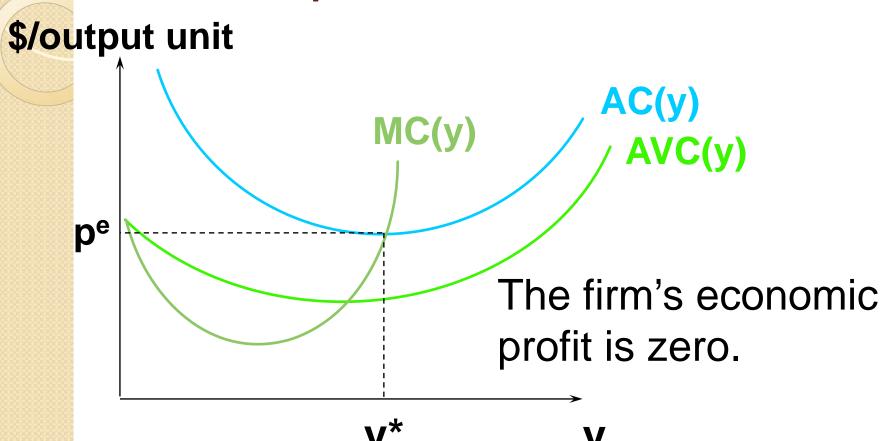
 Q:When there is a barrier to entry, will not the firms already in the industry make positive economic profits?

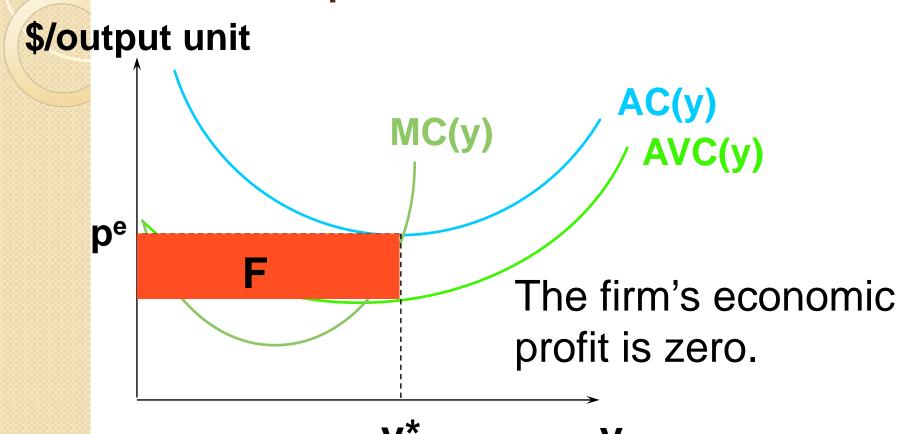
- Q:When there is a barrier to entry, will not the firms already in the industry make positive economic profits?
- A: No. Each firm in the industry makes a zero economic profit. Why?

- Think of a firm that needs an operating license -- the license is a fixed input that is rented but not owned by the firm
- If the firm makes a positive economic profit then another firm can offer the license owner a higher price for it
- In this way, all firms' economic profits are competed away, to zero

- So in the long-run equilibrium, each firm makes a zero economic profit and each firm's fixed cost is its payment for its operating license
- If the opportunity cost of the input (rent) is not taken into consideration, it may appear that economic profits exist in the long run

- An input (e.g. an operating license) that is fixed in the long-run causes a long-run fixed cost, F.
- Long-run total cost, $c(y) = F + c_v(y)$.
- And long-run average total cost,
 AC(y) = AFC(y) + AVC(y).
- In the long-run equilibrium, what will be the value of F?

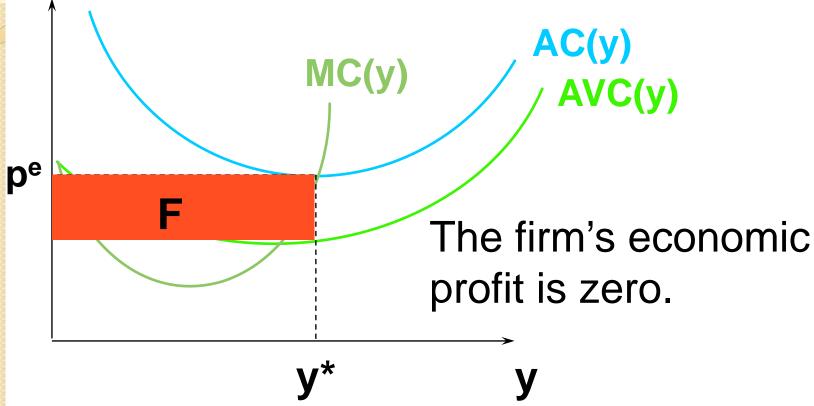




F is the payment to the owner of the fixed input (the license).

- Economic rent is the payment for an input that is in excess of the minimum payment required to have that input supplied.
- Each license essentially costs zero to supply, so the long-run economic rent paid to the license owner is the firm's long-run fixed cost.





F is the payment to the owner of the fixed input (the license); F = economic rent.

The Implication of Economic Rent

- The equilibrium rent for the fixed input will be whatever it takes to drive profits to zero
- P*y* Cv(y*) rent = 0
- Rent = P^*y^* $Cv(y^*)$
- It is the equilibrium price that determines rent, not the reverse
- Note that y* is determined by p*=MC(y*)
 which has nothing to do with rent

Land and Housing Prices

- Many scholars claim that China's high housing prices are due to the high fees levied on the land
- The implication of this claim is that China's housing prices will go down if the government reduces land prices
- Is it true?
- The shops in the airport sell products at the higher price than elsewhere. Shop owners say it is because of high rent in the airport. True or not?

Rent-Seeking

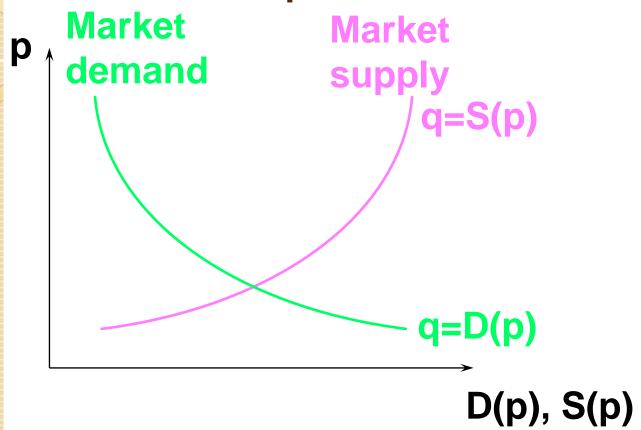
- Restrictions on entry or fixed input creates sizable rents
- This leads to so-called rent seeking activities
- Efforts directed at keeping or acquiring claims to factors fixed in supply
- These efforts represent a pure deadweight loss since no more output is produced and they simply grab rents

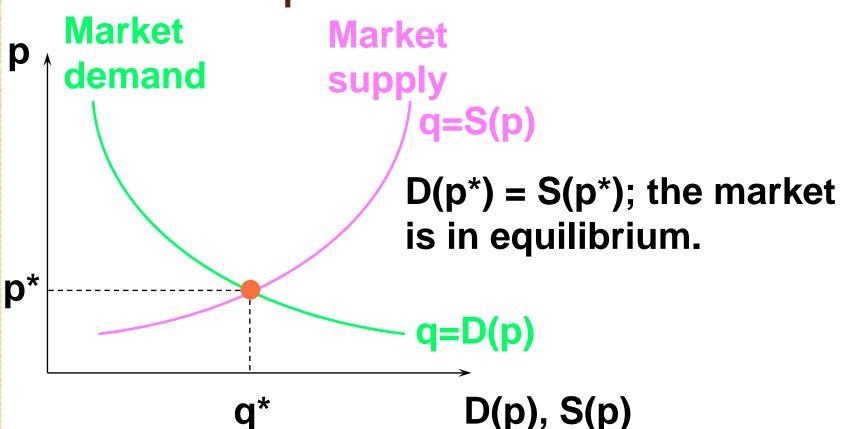
Chapter 9 Market Equilibrium

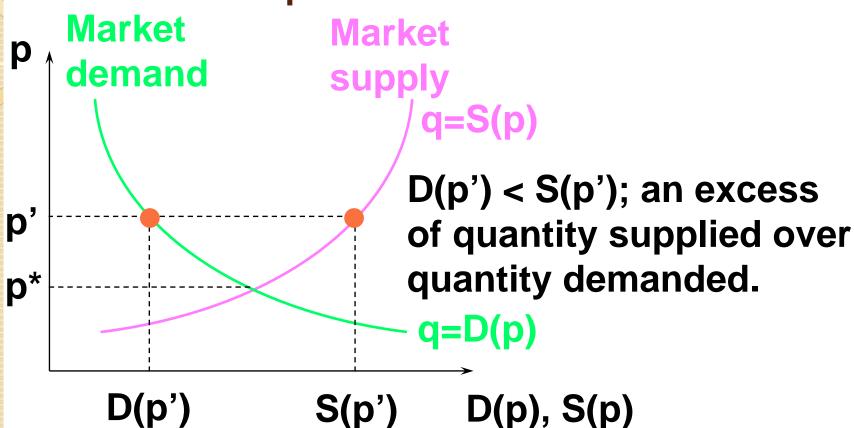
Topics to be Discussed

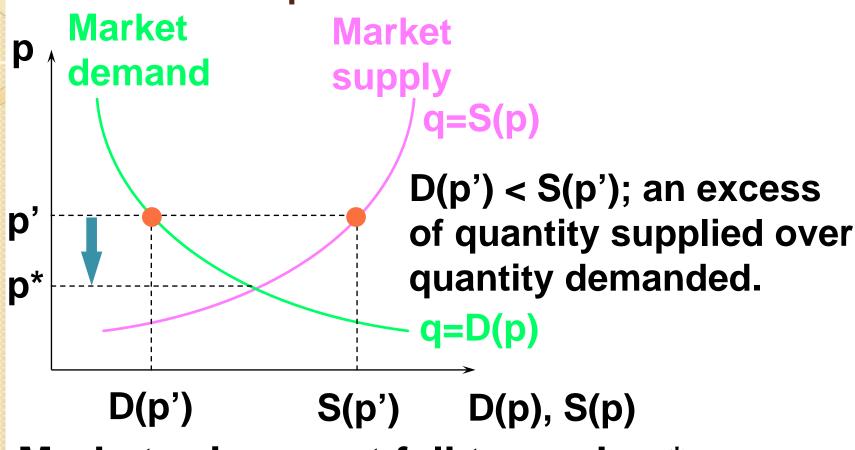
- Market equilibrium
- Quantity tax and equilibrium
- Tax incidence
- Deadweight loss

- A market is in equilibrium when total quantity demanded by buyers equals total quantity supplied by sellers.
- Also called "market is cleared"

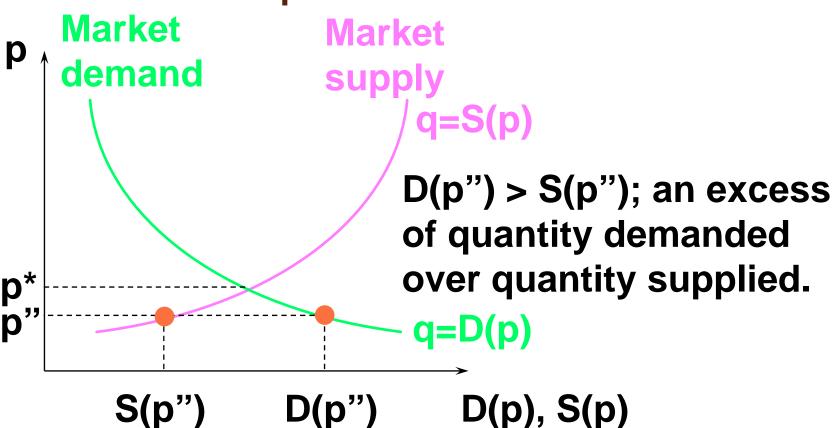


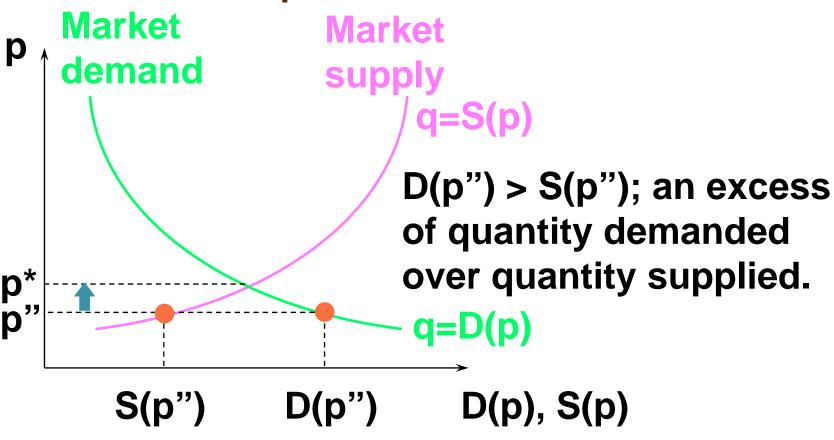






Market price must fall towards p*.





Market price must rise towards p*.

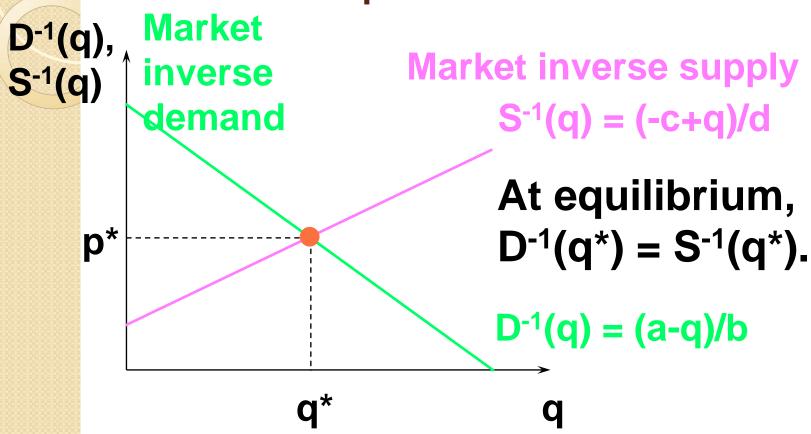
- We can calculate the market equilibrium price and quantity using D(p)=S(p)
- Can we calculate the market equilibrium using the inverse market demand and supply curves?
- Yes, it is the same calculation
- Pd(q)=Ps(q).

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

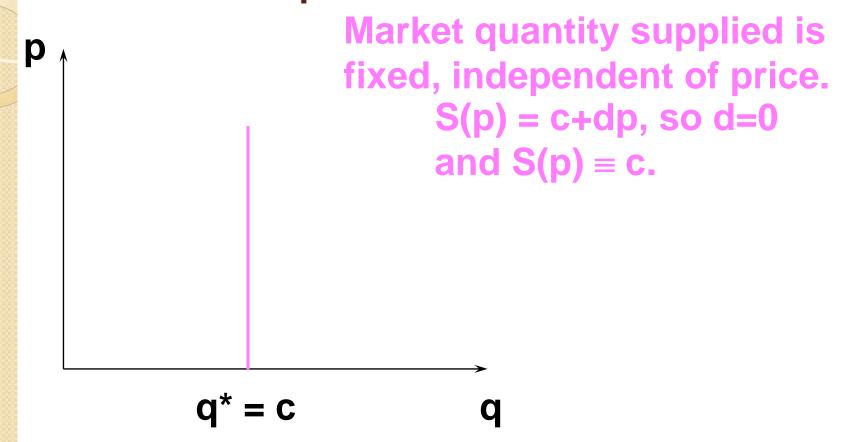
the equation of the inverse market demand curve. And

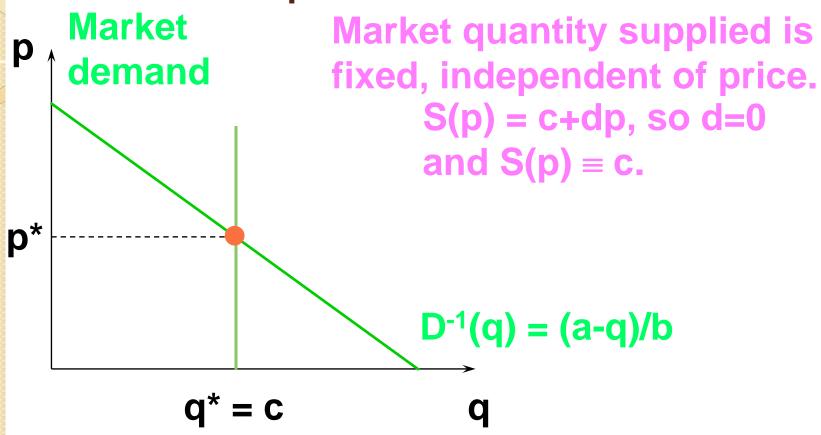
$$q = S(p) = c + dp \Leftrightarrow p = \frac{-c + q}{d} = S^{-1}(q),$$

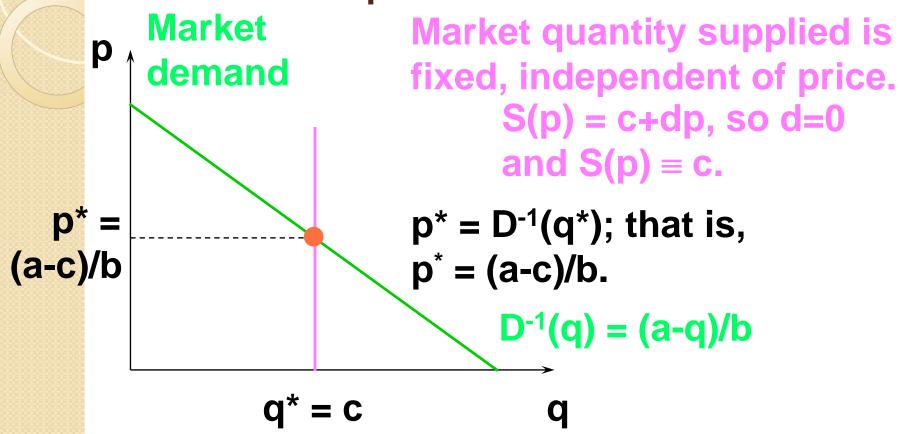
the equation of the inverse market supply curve.

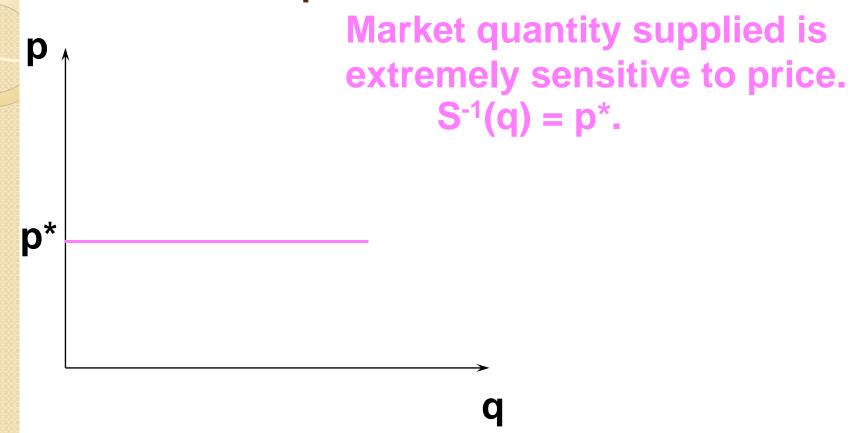


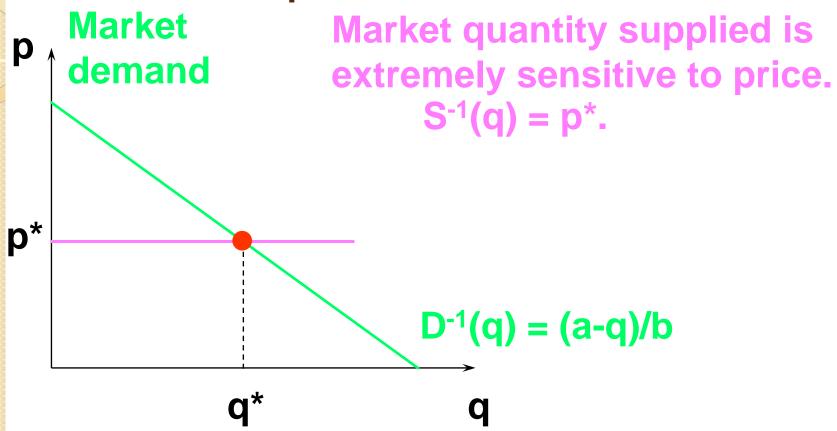
- Two special cases:
 - quantity supplied is fixed, independent of the market price, and
 - quantity supplied is extremely sensitive to the market price.











Comparative Statics

- Shifting demand curves
 - Income
 - Price of other products
- Shifting supply curves
 - Technology
- 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.

- 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?

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

$$p_b - p_s = t$$

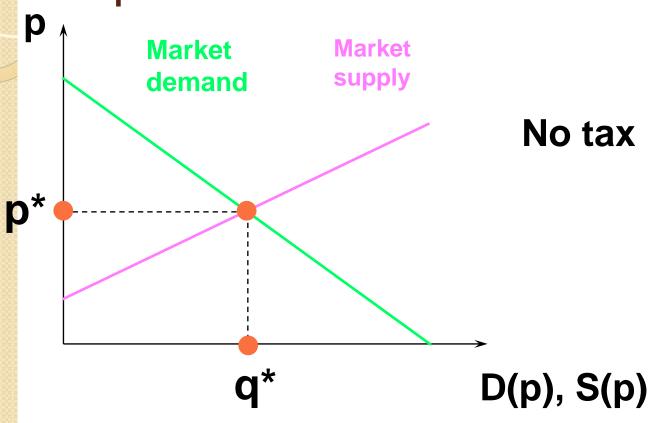
- Even with a tax the market must clear.
- I.e. quantity demanded by buyers at price p_b must equal quantity supplied by sellers at price p_s .

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

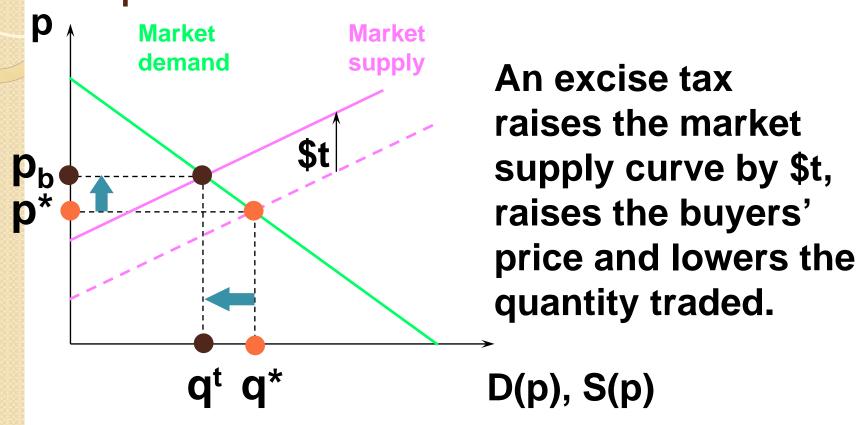
$$p_b - p_s = t$$
 and $D(p_b) = S(p_s)$

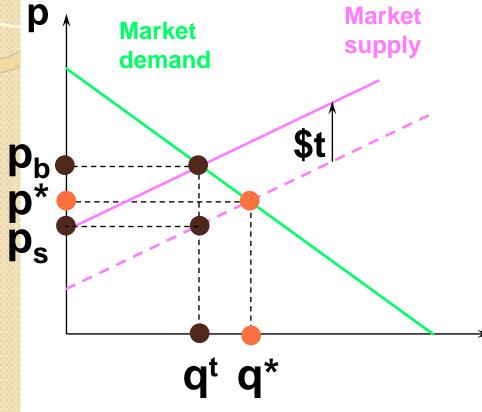
describe the market's equilibrium. Notice that these two conditions apply no matter if the tax is levied on sellers or on buyers.

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



Quantity Taxes & Market Equilibrium **Market** An excise tax raises the market supply curve by \$t p* D(p), S(p)

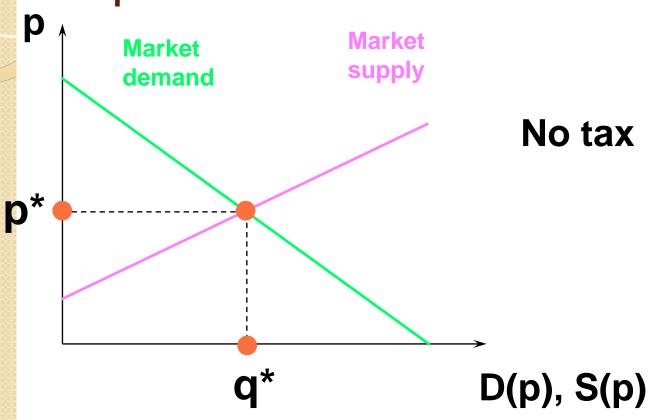


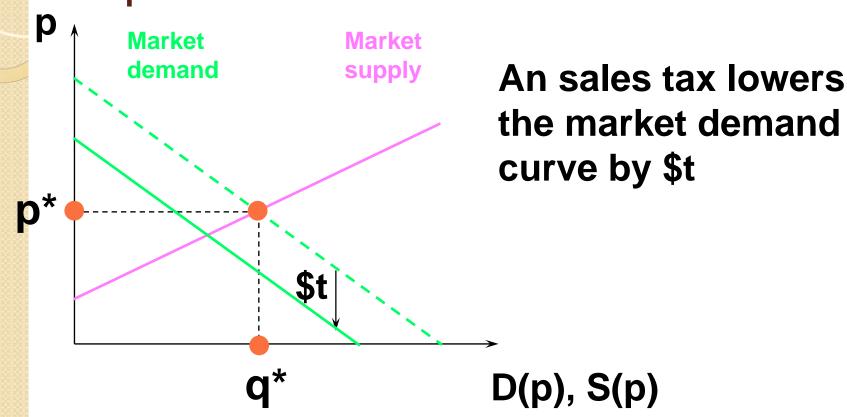


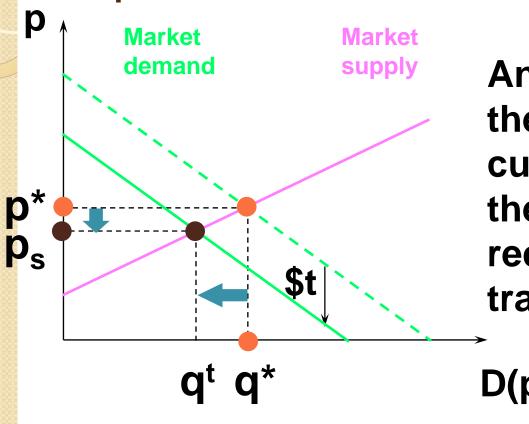
An excise tax raises the market supply curve by \$t, raises the buyers' price and lowers the quantity traded.

D(p), **S(p)**

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

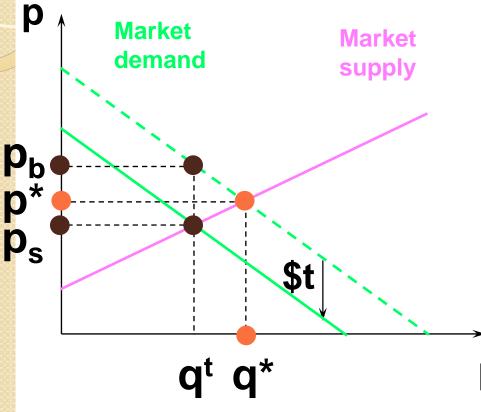






An sales tax lowers the market demand curve by \$t, lowers the sellers' price and reduces the quantity traded.

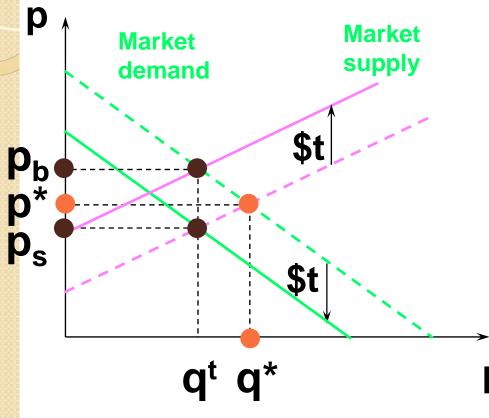
D(p), **S(p)**



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

D(p), **S(p)**

And buyers pay $p_b = p_s + t$.



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.

D(p), **S(p)**

- Who pays the tax of \$t per unit traded?
- The division of the \$t between buyers and sellers is the incidence of the tax
- The incidence of a quantity tax depends upon the own-price elasticities of demand and supply

Quantity Taxes & Market Equilibrium **Market** demand supply p_b p* p_s qt q* **D(p)**, **S(p)**

Quantity Taxes & Market Equilibrium **Market** demand supply Tax paid by buyers p_b p* p_s qt q* **D(p)**, **S(p)**

Quantity Taxes & Market Equilibrium **Market** demand supply p_b p* p_s Tax paid by sellers qt q* **D(p)**, **S(p)**

Quantity Taxes & Market Equilibrium **Market** demand supply Tax paid by buyers p_b p* p_s Tax paid by sellers qt q* D(p), S(p)

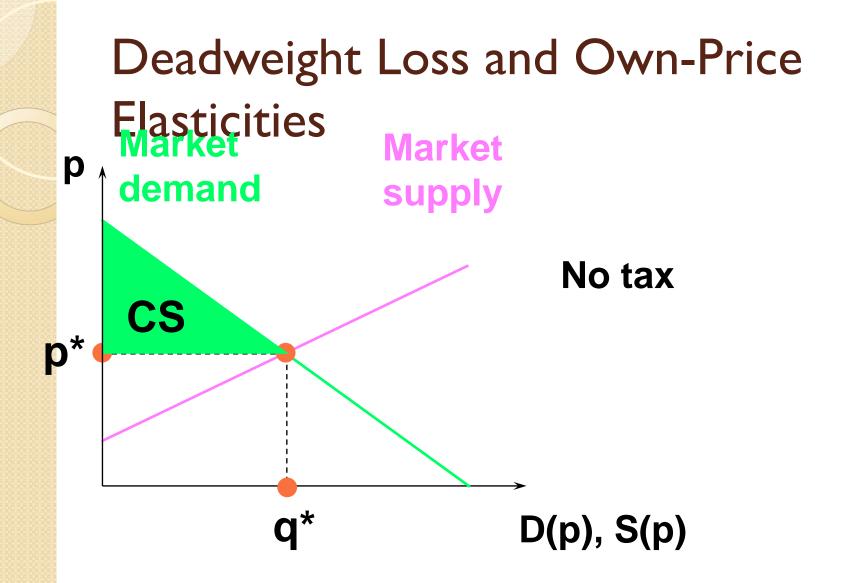
Deadweight Loss and Own-Price Elasticities

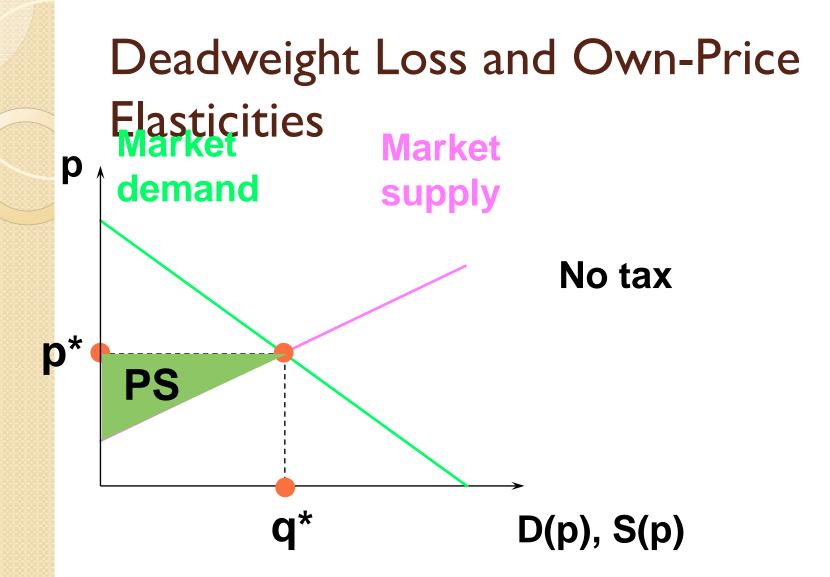
- A quantity tax imposed on a competitive market reduces the quantity traded and so reduces gains-to-trade (i.e. the sum of Consumers' and Producers' Surpluses).
- The lost total surplus is the tax's deadweight loss, or excess burden.

Deadweight Loss and Own-Price Elasticities **Market** demand supply No tax p* **D(p)**, **S(p)**

Pareto Efficiency

- At the market equilibrium q* we have a Pareto efficient outcome: at q*, the willingness to pay for an extra unit is just equal to the willingness to supply an extra unit at that price
- Q* maximizes the social welfare (CS+PS)



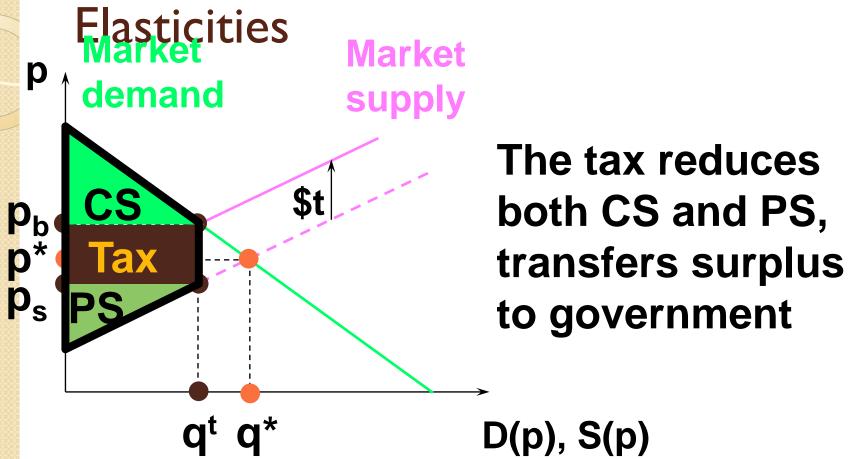


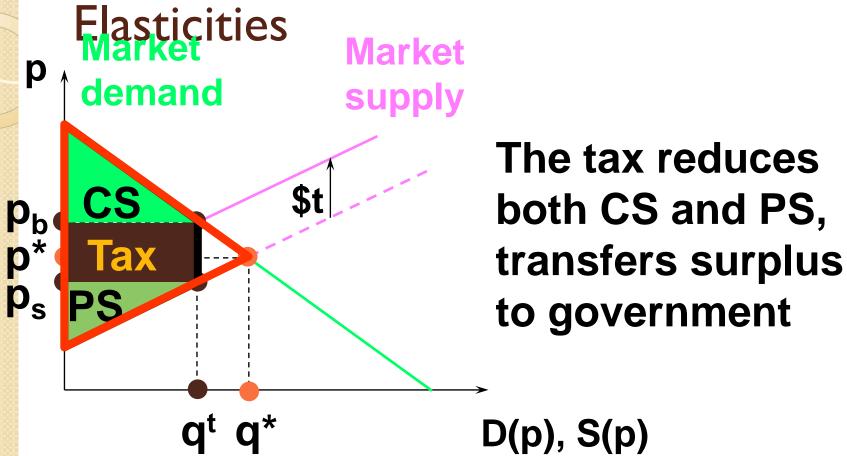
Deadweight Loss and Own-Price Elasticities **Market** demand supply No tax CS **D(p)**, **S(p)**

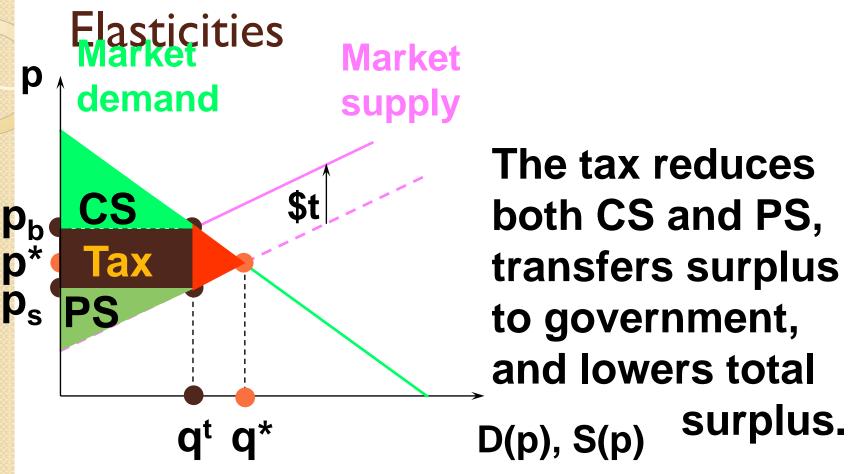
Deadweight Loss and Own-Price Elasticities **Market** supply The tax reduces \$t both CS and PS D(p), S(p)

Deadweight Loss and Own-Price Elasticities **Market** supply The tax reduces \$t both CS and PS, transfers surplus to government

D(p), S(p)



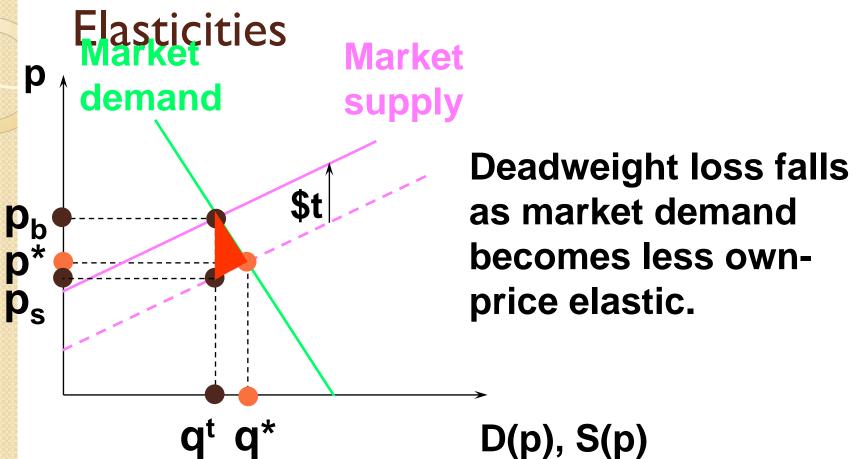


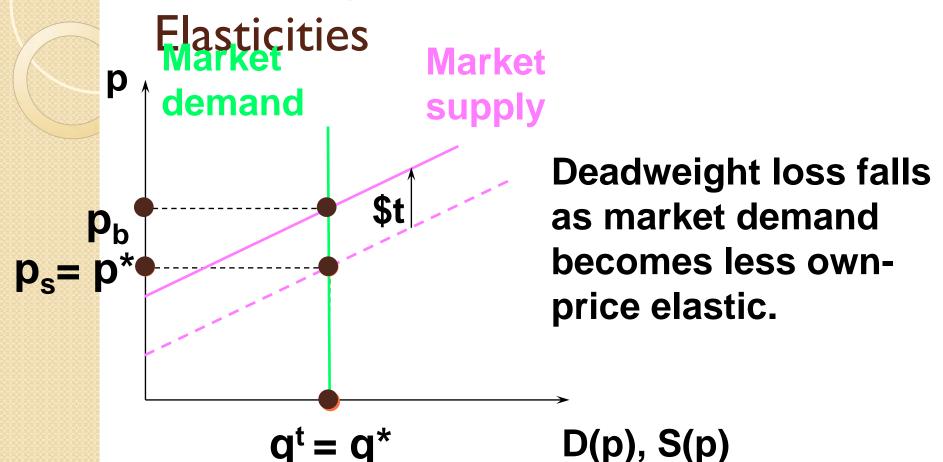


Deadweight Loss and Own-Price Elasticities **Market** demand supply \$t p_b p* p_s **Deadweight loss**

D(p), S(p)

qt q*



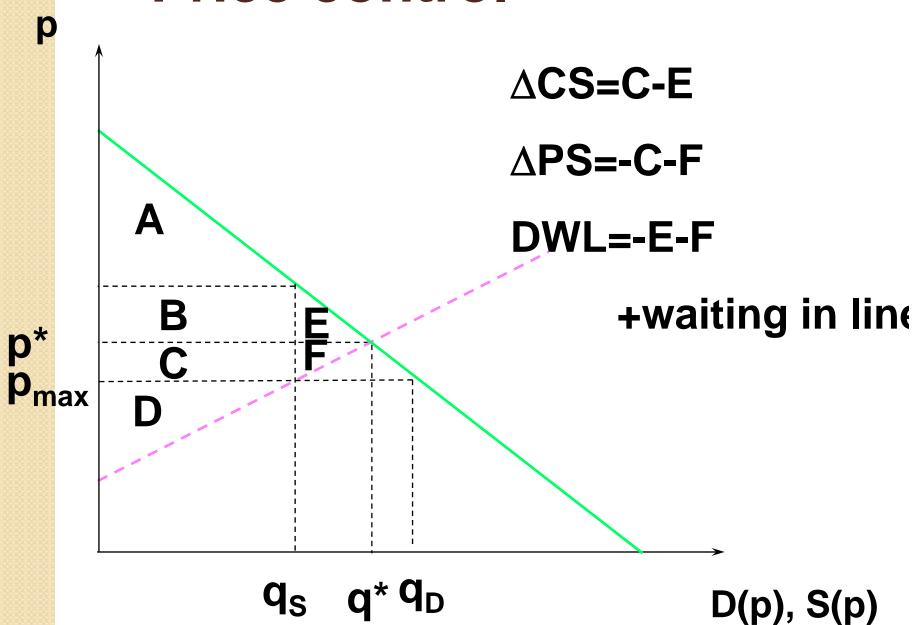


When $\varepsilon_D = 0$, the tax causes no deadweight loss.

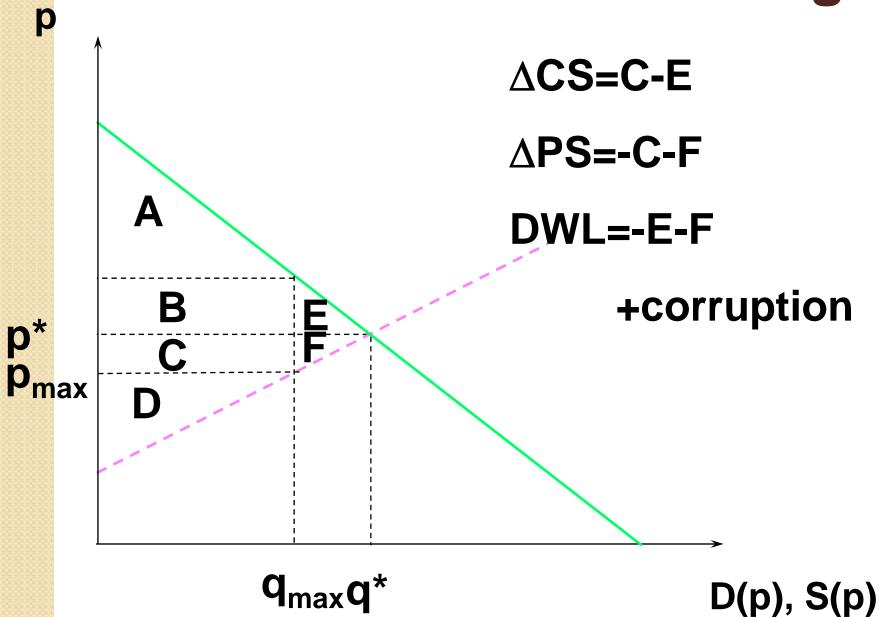
Deadweight Loss and Own-Price Elasticities

- 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.

Price control



Price control with rationing

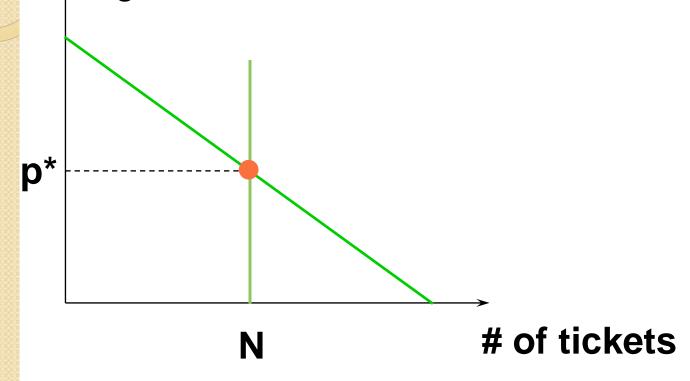


Application: Waiting in Line

- Waiting in line is an alternative (non-market) way of allocating scarce resources
- Is it efficient compared to market mechanism?
- Suppose there is a championship basketball game and tickets are free but limited
- The tickets will be distributed according to the principle of "first-come-first served"
- Willingness to pay vs. willingness to wait

Waiting in Line

Willingness to wait



Why is it so different?

- Waiting time is a private cost and provides no benefits to suppliers
- Waiting time is a pure deadweight loss
- Allocation by waiting time will leave room for gain from trade
- Market price measures both private cost and social benefit
- Market mechanism assures that scarce resources are allocated to mostproductive uses