

# Intro to Economic Analysis: Microeconomics

EC 201 - Day 8 Slides

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# Logistics

- ▶ Official homework 3 due this Saturday at 11:59pm, covering last week's material
- ▶ Next news assignments posted, due a week from today Wednesday (October 27)
- ▶ Midterm 2 weeks from today (Wednesday, November 3rd)
  - Bring non-graphing, non-algebra calculator

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- ▶ Keep in mind that in this class, we are covering simple models that are meant to introduce you to economic thinking, but are by no means cover the full scope of economic analysis

## Welfare Economics

- ▶ When economists perform welfare analyses, they have many things to consider – what does society care about, and how much do they care about it? How different are consumer's demand schedules for specific objects? Do we think our model of the demand curve is accurate? What if it's off by a little bit?

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  - Suppose we find that a certain program will cost the bottom 99.9% of Americans an estimated loss of 100 billion dollars, but the top 0.1% will gain 200 billion dollars. If we could re-distribute the wealth, everyone could be better off. But is this likely to happen?

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  - Suppose we estimate that a policy is likely to increase welfare by the equivalent to giving everyone in the country \$10,000. But, if we are off in our estimates in demand by 5%, it will be the equivalent to everyone losing \$5,000. Is it worth it?



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- ▶ These are just some of the things to keep in mind when thinking about welfare economics in the real world. In this class, we will work with theoretical models and calculate their theoretical consequences, to motivate real-world thinking

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- ▶ This notion of happiness is very abstract, and does not bear a lot of meaning

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  - For instance, you might say that I get \$3 worth of happiness from drinking a hot chocolate
  - Put another way, you might say that I would be willing to give up (at most) \$3 to get a hot chocolate
- ▶ If I am willing to give up \$3 to drink a hot chocolate, I should be willing to pay \$3 to buy a hot chocolate

# Valuation

- ▶ The **Total Value** (or Total Utility) that a consumer gets from consuming a specific quantity of a good is the maximum amount they would be willing to pay for that quantity of said good

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  - If my total value of consuming 5 ice cream cones is \$15, then I am willing to pay at most \$15 for 5 ice cream cones

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- ▶ The **Marginal Value** (or Marginal Utility) that a consumer gets from consuming a good is the maximum amount they would be willing to pay for an additional unit<sup>1</sup> of said good

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- ▶ The **Marginal Value** (or Marginal Utility) that a consumer gets from consuming a good is the maximum amount they would be willing to pay for an additional unit<sup>1</sup> of said good
  - If my marginal value of consuming a 3rd ice cream cone is \$1, then I am willing to pay \$1 for a 3rd ice cream cone

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# Total and Marginal Value Table

- Consider the following table for pizza slices

Quantity Consumed (Slices)	Total Value (Dollars)	Marginal Value (Dollars)
0	0.00	— <sup>2</sup>
1	3.25	

<sup>2</sup> Note that the first entry to marginal value always must be undefined (denoted —)

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1	3.25	3.25
2	6.25	

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0	0.00	— <sup>2</sup>
1	3.25	3.25
2	6.25	3.00
3	9.00	

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1	3.25	3.25
2	6.25	3.00
3	9.00	2.75
4	11.00	

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4	11.00	2.00
5	11.50	0.50
6	11.50	0.00

The marginal value is equal to the increased total value from the last unit to the current unit. Note that filling the table in this way allows us to say “the marginal value of your second slice of pizza is \$3”.

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# Diminishing Marginal Returns

- ▶ What is happening in the previous table is a very common and reasonable behavior in consumer theory

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- ▶ Of course, one could imagine that I have increasing marginal returns for a period of time: when eating french fries, one might imagine that after you have had your first fry, you want the second fry even more

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- ▶ Of course, one could imagine that I have increasing marginal returns for a period of time: when eating french fries, one might imagine that after you have had your first fry, you want the second fry even more
- ▶ However, the principle of diminishing marginal returns is expected to happen *eventually*: after my 100th french fry, I am starting to get very full

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# Oh no. Our table. It's broken.

- Fill in the following utility table for apples

Quantity Consumed (# Apples)	Total Value (Dollars)	Marginal Value (Dollars)
0	0.00	—
1	5.00	—
2	11.00	—
3	—	8.00
4	25.00	—
5	—	5.00
6	—	4.00
7	36.00	—
8	—	0.00
9	34.00	—

## Valuation Exercise Solution

Quantity Consumed (# Apples)	Total Value (Dollars)	Marginal Value (Dollars)
0	0.00	—
1	5.00	5.00
2	11.00	6.00
3	19.00	8.00
4	25.00	6.00
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Most of the time, we as economists believe in the *more is better* principle: consumers always get positive utility from getting more of something. However, in this class, we will allow marginal utility to be 0 or even negative. This is interpreted as paying to not have to consume more of something.



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  - \$0.50? \$1? \$2? \$3? \$3.50? \$4? \$5?
  - The highest amount that you answer “yes” to is said to be your willingness to pay
- ▶ But what if you had already had an ice cream cone 20 minutes ago? Is your willingness to pay the same?

# Defining Willingness to Pay

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- ▶ A consumer's **Total Willingness to Pay** (TWTP) is the maximum amount a consumer is willing to spend on a specific quantity of a good

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- ▶ Seem familiar?

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- ▶ For now, we have that willingness to pay is equivalent to consumer valuation



# Defining Willingness to Pay

- Thus, our valuation table from before can be replaced with

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- Let's focus our attention to the first eight rows of the first two columns:

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- We have a relation between quantity demanded, and how much you are paying for each good (now expressed as willingness to pay)
- This is just a demand schedule!

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  - However, I will often just say that a market demand curve is “a reflection” of willingness to pay (not being specific about total vs. marginal)
  - This is for two reasons:
    - (i) Price is often different from willingness to pay, as we will see
    - (ii) We don't know exactly how many people are in the market and what their demand schedules are

## Another Notion of the Demand Curve

- ▶ Before, we defined the demand curve according to the demand schedule of a consumer, using price as given
  - E.g., when price is \$2, how many iced coffees will you get
- ▶ We can also just think of demand being represented by willingness to pay for various amounts of quantity demanded
  - Note: Here, I mean that a demand schedule is defined by total WTP
  - However, I will often just say that a market demand curve is “a reflection” of willingness to pay (not being specific about total vs. marginal)
  - This is for two reasons:
    - (i) Price is often different from willingness to pay, as we will see
    - (ii) We don't know exactly how many people are in the market and what their demand schedules are
- ▶ Let's start by addressing this first point

# Consumer Surplus Motivation

- ▶ Suppose I value a breakfast pita from Caspian at \$5

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- ▶ Each of them gets some individual surplus utility from getting a “deal” in their mind, so long as their valuation is large enough such that they buy the product ( $\geq \$4$ )<sup>5</sup>
- ▶ If we add all of these individual surplus utilities up, for everyone who bought the pita, then we get what we call consumer surplus

---

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# Consumer Surplus Definition

- ▶ [Individual] Consumer Surplus is the difference between a buyer's WTP and the price they actually pay <sup>6</sup>

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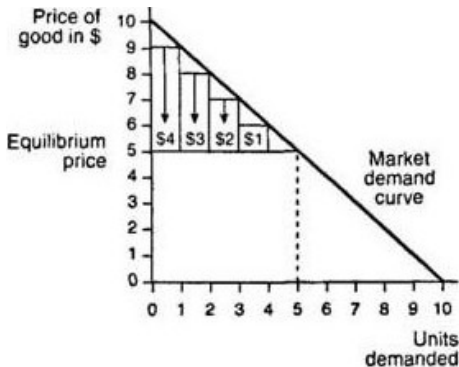
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- ▶ Consumer surplus is our measure for the overall utility, or “welfare” on the buyer's side of the market
- ▶ In some sense, buying a product gives the consumer happiness, but paying for it took away some happiness. Whatever is leftover (in the sense of  $WTP - \text{price}$ ) is the economic well-being of consumers in the market

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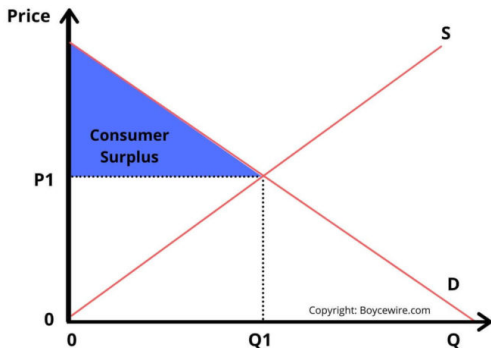
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# Graphical Motivation of Consumer Surplus



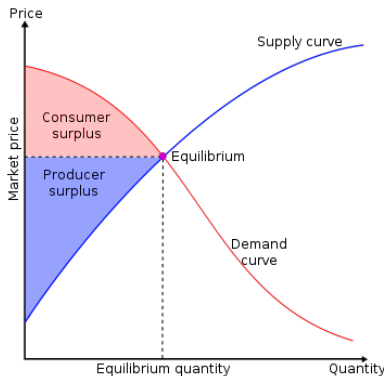
Adding up individual consumer surplus's, visualized by vertical boxes, yields what we call consumer surplus. Note that this will just be the area of the triangle shown.

## CS with Linear Demand Curve



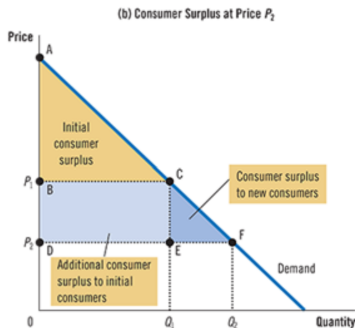
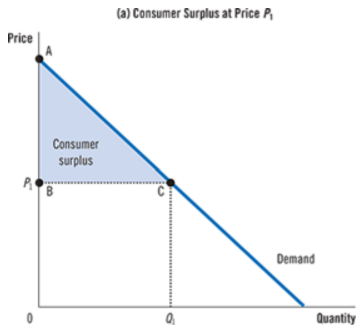
Here, consumer surplus is the area of the triangle,  $\frac{1}{2} (b \cdot h)$  (one half base times height). In this example,  $b = Q_1$ , and  $h$  would be the difference between where the demand curve intersects the  $P$  axis (the  $y$ -intercept) and  $P_1$ .

## CS with Non-Linear Demand Curve



CS with non-linear demand curve. You are not expected to provide a precise calculation of the area here; it requires calculus.

# A Change in CS



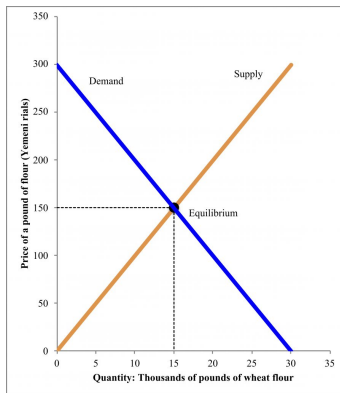
When the price is lowered, more consumers can buy, some of which with surplus. The ones that were already buying get additional surplus, raising overall CS.

## CS Exercise

- Reminder: the area of a triangle is  $\frac{1}{2}b \cdot h$ , where  $b$  is the base and  $h$  is the height

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- ▶ Reminder: the area of a triangle is  $\frac{1}{2} b \cdot h$ , where  $b$  is the base and  $h$  is the height
- ▶ Calculate CS in the following market



# CS Exercise Solution

- ▶ CS is the area of the triangle above the market price, up to the demand curve



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- ▶ CS is the area of the triangle above the market price, up to the demand curve
- ▶ Using the figure, the base of the triangle is  $15 - 0 = 15$ . The height of the triangle is  $300 - 150 = 150$

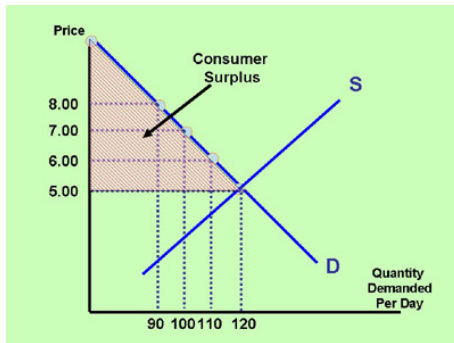
## CS Exercise Solution

- ▶ CS is the area of the triangle above the market price, up to the demand curve
- ▶ Using the figure, the base of the triangle is  $15 - 0 = 15$ . The height of the triangle is  $300 - 150 = 150$
- ▶ Therefore,

$$CS = \frac{1}{2} (15) (150) = 1125$$

## Bonus CS Exercise

- Compute CS in the figure below. You have enough information.



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- Based on the figure, for every movement in price by 1, the movement in quantity is 10. So the slope of the demand curve is  $-\frac{1}{10}$

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$$5 = -\frac{1}{10}(120) + b \implies 5 = -12 + b \implies b = 17$$

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- ▶ Therefore, the  $P$ -intercept is 17. Thus, using the formula for a triangle,

$$CS = \frac{1}{2}(120 - 0)(17 - 5) = 60(12) = 720$$

## Example à la Mankiw

- ▶ Suppose that you're Martin Shkreli, and you own the only copy of an exclusive Wu-Tang Clan album



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  - At  $P = 6.5$ ,  $Q_D = 4$ , at  $P = 8$ ,  $Q_D = 3$  (barely), at  $P = 9.5$ ,  $Q_D = 2$ , and at  $P = 11$ ,  $Q_D = 1$

## Example à la Mankiw (cont.)

Consumer	Dre	Snoop	Kendrick	J	Megan	Cardi
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- At  $P = \$11\text{M}$ , the only bidder left is Kendrick. How does he feel about the transaction?

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  - Great! He was willing to pay \$12 million, but only had to pay \$11 million

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  - This leftover (or *surplus*) happiness is what we are going to call Kendrick's consumer surplus

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- ▶ In order to think about a demand curve or adding up surplus's, we have to modify the example to allow more than one of the good to be sold, while still maintaining that everyone still demands at most one of the good
- ▶ This is better for thinking about market demand and consumer surplus informally, less good for actually doing a problem and thinking literally about a demand curve

## Remarks to Book-like Example (cont.)

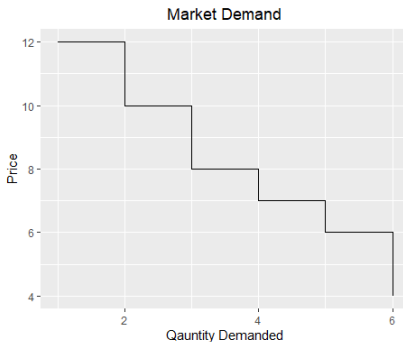
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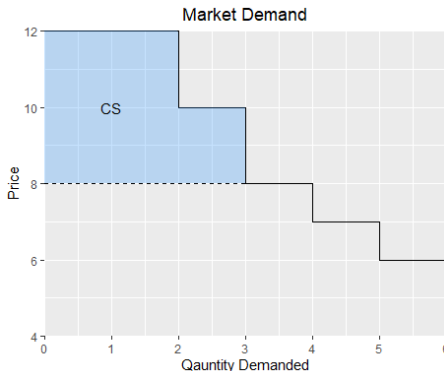
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- ▶ This also generates demand curves which are not smooth, and make step-like jumps in many cases
  - Recall that market demand is the sum of individual demand curves
  - So, using the above demand information, the market demand curve would look like the following:



## CS in Book-like Example

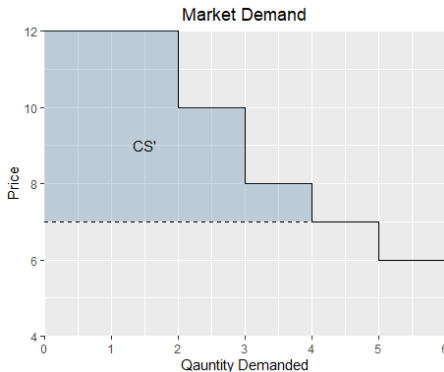
- ▶ With this step-wise demand curve, and allowing for the sale of more than one of the product to consumers, CS will look like



CS when  $P = 8$ . If you had numbers, recall that the area of a rectangle is length  $\cdot$  width (or base  $\cdot$  height, if you prefer to be consistent with the triangle formula).



## Change in CS: Book-like Example



CS when  $P = 7$ . If you had numbers, recall that the area of a rectangle is length  $\cdot$  width (or base  $\cdot$  height, if you prefer to be consistent with the triangle formula).

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  - Finally, you will have a couple homework problems that use this step-wise thinking

# Willingness to Accept

- ▶ Motivating and defining producer surplus looks a lot like consumer surplus

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- ▶ A producer’s **Marginal Willingness to Accept** (MWTa) is the minimum amount a producer will take to sell the next<sup>7</sup> unit of a good

---

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## WTA Schedule

- Just as with the consumer, we can assign a WTA schedule for a producer:

Quantity Supplied (# Apples)	Total WTA (Dollars)	Marginal WTA (Dollars)
0	0.00	—
1	14.00	14.00
2	20.00	6.00
3	25.00	5.00
4	29.00	4.00
5	32.00	3.00
6	34.00	2.00
7	35.00	1.00
8	36.00	1.00
9	42.00	6.00

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- This induces a supply curve for the producer

# Producer Surplus Motivation

- ▶ Suppose it only costs Caspian \$2 to make a breakfast pita, so they are willing to accept \$2

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<sup>8</sup> One could conceive that a producer is endowed with some goods, and still has some minimum price they are willing to sell at. Thus, producer surplus need not always equal profit

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- ▶ Suppose it only costs Caspian \$2 to make a breakfast pita, so they are willing to accept \$2
- ▶ However, the market price of a breakfast pita is \$4

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- ▶ Other sellers of breakfast pitas may be willing to accept \$1, some \$3.50, etc.

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- ▶ However, the market price of a breakfast pita is \$4
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- ▶ Other sellers of breakfast pitas may be willing to accept \$1, some \$3.50, etc.
- ▶ Each of them gets an individual surplus from getting a “deal” on their pita, as long as their WTA is low enough to sell the product ( $\leq \$4$ )

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<sup>8</sup> One could conceive that a producer is endowed with some goods, and still has some minimum price they are willing to sell at. Thus, producer surplus need not always equal profit

# Producer Surplus Motivation

- ▶ Suppose it only costs Caspian \$2 to make a breakfast pita, so they are willing to accept \$2
- ▶ However, the market price of a breakfast pita is \$4
- ▶ Caspian gets a “bonus” from selling the pita at a higher price than it's worth – in this case, profit <sup>8</sup>
- ▶ Other sellers of breakfast pitas may be willing to accept \$1, some \$3.50, etc.
- ▶ Each of them gets an individual surplus from getting a “deal” on their pita, as long as their WTA is low enough to sell the product ( $\leq$  \$4)
- ▶ If we add these surplus values up, for everyone who sold the pita, then we get what we call the producer surplus

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<sup>8</sup> One could conceive that a producer is endowed with some goods, and still has some minimum price they are willing to sell at. Thus, producer surplus need not always equal profit

# Producer Surplus Definition

- ▶ [Individual] Producer Surplus is the difference between a seller's WTA and the price they actually sell for<sup>9</sup>

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<sup>9</sup> Throughout: assuming this value is positive, i.e. assuming they sold the product

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- ▶ [Individual] Producer Surplus is the difference between a seller's WTA and the price they actually sell for <sup>9</sup>
- ▶ **Producer Surplus** is the the sum of all individual producer surplus's; i.e., it is the area between the WTA reflected by the market supply curve, and the price at which the good was sold

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- ▶ Producer surplus is our measure for the overall utility (often thought of as profit), or "welfare", on the seller's side of the market
- ▶ Selling a product gives the producer happiness through money, but working to produce and parting with the product took away some happiness. Whatever is leftover is the economic well-being of producers in the market

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# Producer Surplus Comments

- ▶ Just as before, Mankiw does all of this in terms of sellers who supply at most one of a good, generating step-wise supply curves

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<sup>10</sup> Later, it will be a reflection of marginal costs to the producer



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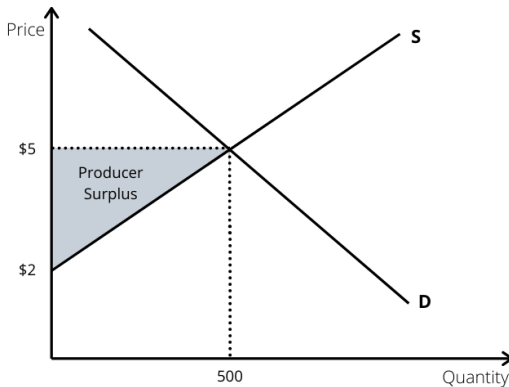
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  - I will leave this up to you to read
- ▶ To allow for generality, I will simply state that supply is a reflection of willingness to accept<sup>10</sup>
- ▶ For now, the **Total Surplus** in the market is the sum of producer and consumer surplus

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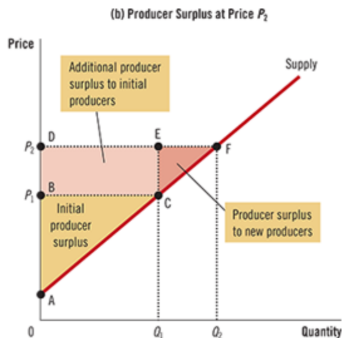
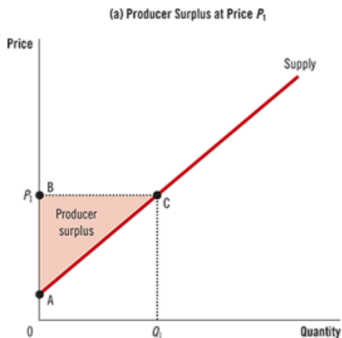
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## Graphical Representation of PS



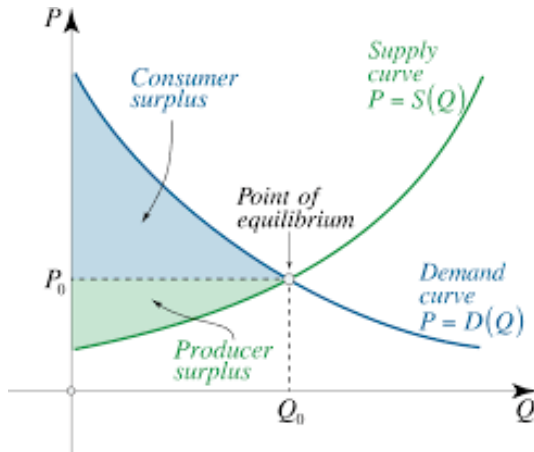
PS is the area enclosed between the price, the price axis, and the supply line (in the first quadrant)

# Change in PS



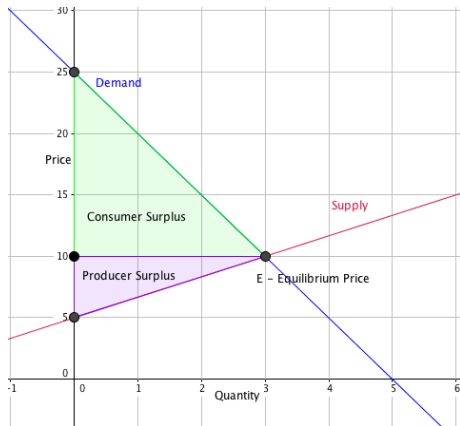
When the price is raised, more producers will sell, some of whom get surplus for their sale. The ones that were already buying get additional surplus, raising overall PS

# TS With Curved Supply and Demand



# Total Surplus Exercise

- Compute total surplus in the following economy



# TS Solution

- ▶ Consumer surplus is given by

$$CS = \frac{1}{2} (3) (25 - 10) = \frac{1}{2} (3) (15) = \frac{1}{2} (45) = 22.5$$

- ▶ Producer Surplus is given by

$$PS = \frac{1}{2} (3) (10 - 5) = \frac{1}{2} (3) (5) = \frac{1}{2} (15) = 7.5$$

- ▶ Therefore,

$$TS = CS + PS = 22.5 + 7.5 = 30$$