ESSENTIAL FOUNDATIONS OF

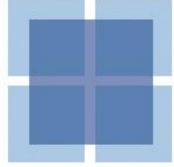
ECONOMICS

8TH EDITION

Bade Parkin











CHAPTER CHECKLIST

When you have completed your study of this chapter, you will be able to

- 1 Explain a perfectly competitive firm's profit-maximizing choices and derive its supply curve.
- 2 Explain how output, price, and profit are determined in the short run.
- 3 Explain how output, price, and profit are determined in the long run and explain why perfect competition is efficient.

MARKET TYPES

Goods and services are bought and sold in four different types of market. They are

- Perfect competition
- Monopoly
- Monopolistic competition
- Oligopoly

MARKET TYPES

■ Perfect Competition

Perfect competition exists when

- Many firms sell an identical product to many buyers.
- There are no restrictions on entry into (or exit from) the market.
- Established firms have no advantage over new firms.
- Sellers and buyers are well informed about prices.

MARKET TYPES

■ Other Market Types

Monopoly is a market for a good or service that has no close substitutes and in which there is one supplier that is protected from competition by a barrier preventing the entry of new firms.

Monopolistic competition is a market in which a large number of firms compete by making similar but slightly different products.

Oligopoly is a market in which a small number of firms compete.

■ Price Taker

A price taker is a firm that cannot influence the price of the good or service that it produces.

The firm in perfect competition is a price taker.

■ Revenue Concepts

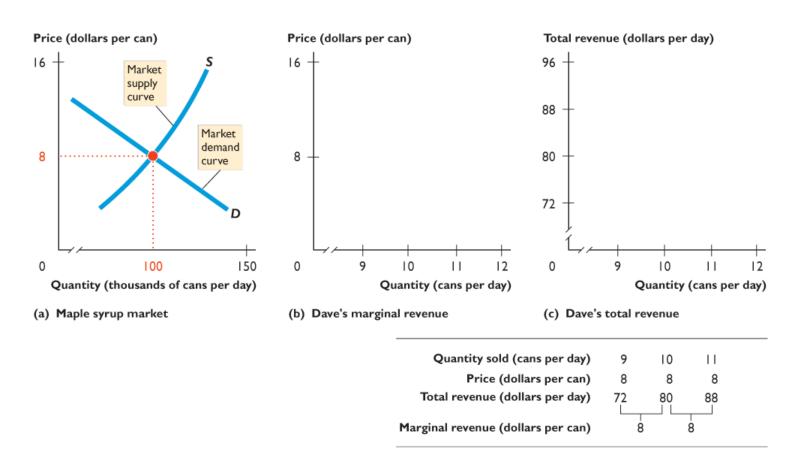
In perfect competition, market demand and market supply determine price.

A firm's total revenue equals the market price multiplied by the quantity sold.

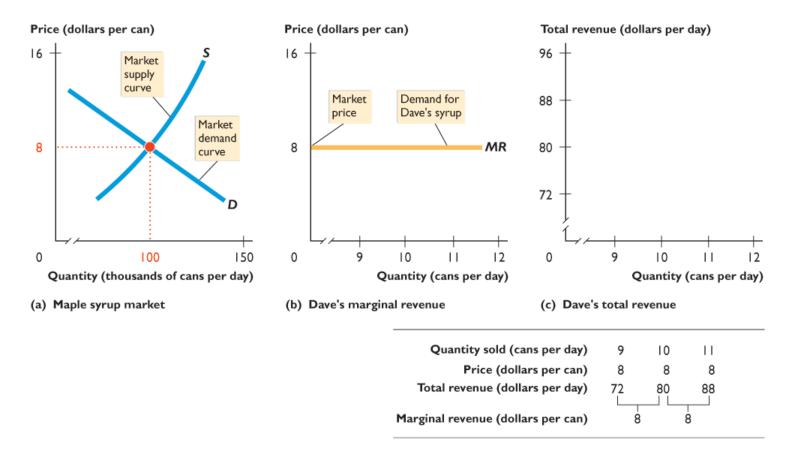
A firm's marginal revenue is the change in total revenue that results from a one-unit increase in the quantity sold.

Figure 11.1 on the next slide illustrates the revenue concepts.

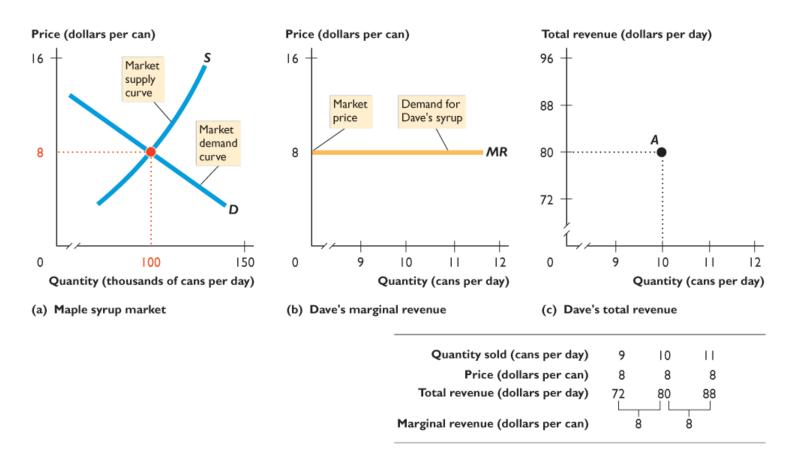
Part (a) shows the market for syrup. The market price is \$8 a can.



In part (b), the market price determines the demand curve for Dave's syrup, which is also his marginal revenue curve.

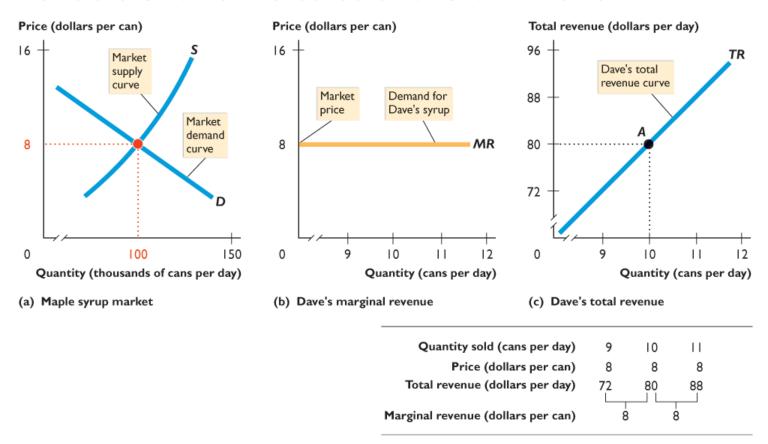


In part (c), if Dave sells 10 cans of syrup a day, his total revenue is \$80 a day at point *A*.



Dave's total revenue curve is TR.

The table shows the calculations of TR and MR.



■ Profit-Maximizing Output

As output increases, total revenue increases.

But total cost also increases.

Because of decreasing marginal returns, total cost eventually increases faster than total revenue.

There is one output level that maximizes economic profit, and a perfectly competitive firm chooses this output level.

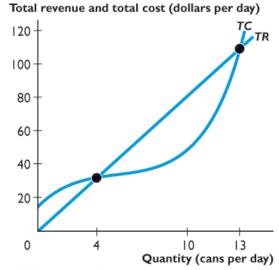
One way to find the profit-maximizing output is to use a firm's total revenue and total cost curves.

Profit is maximized at the output level at which total revenue exceeds total cost by the largest amount.

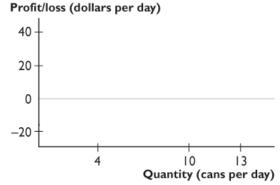
Figure 11.2 on the next slide illustrates this approach.

Total revenue increases as the quantity increases —shown by the *TR* curve.

Total cost increases as the quantity increases—shown by the *TC* curve.



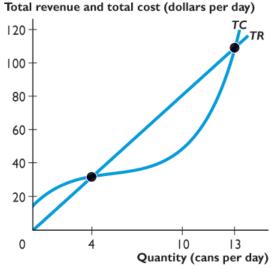
		_		
- (a)	Revenue	and	cost



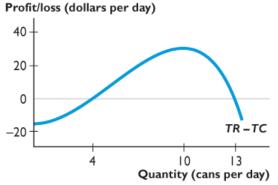
(b) Economic profit and loss

Quantity (Q) (cans	Total revenue (TR)	Total cost (TC)	Economic profit (TR -TC)			
per day)	(dol	(dollars per day)				
0	0	15				
1	8	22				
2	16	27				
3	24	30				
4	32	32				
5	40	33				
6	48	34				
7	56	36				
8	64	40				
9	72	44				
10	80	5 I				
11	88	60				
12	96	76				
13	104	104				
14	112	144				

As the quantity increases, economic profit (TR – TC) increases, reaches a maximum, and then decreases.



	_		
(a)	Revenue	and	cost



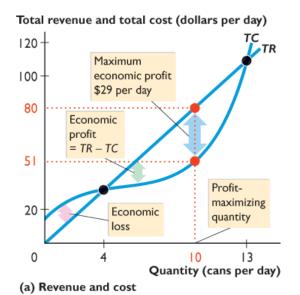
(b) Economic profit and loss

Quantity (Q) (cans	Total revenue (TR)	Total cost (TC)	Economic profit (TR –TC)
per day)	(dol	lars per	day)
0	0	15	-15
I	8	22	-14
2	16	27	-11
3	24	30	-6
4	32	32	0
5	40	33	7
6	48	34	14
7	56	36	20
8	64	40	24
9	72	44	28
10	80	5 I	29
11	88	60	28
12	96	76	20
13	104	104	0
14	112	144	-32

At low output levels, the firm incurs an economic loss.

When total revenue exceeds total cost, the firm earns an economic profit.

Profit is maximized when the gap between total revenue and total cost is the largest, at 10 cans per day.



Profit	loss (doll	ars per day)		
40 -	-	Economic		
29		profit		
20 -	Economic	: \		
	loss		L \	
0			*	\
	-	Profit-maximizing		1
-20	-	quantity	1	TR –TC
l		_		+
		4	10	13
		Quantit	y (cans p	er day)

Quantity (Q) (cans	revenue (TR)	cost (TC)	profit (TR –TC)			
per day)	(dollars per day)					
0	0	15	-15			
1	8	22	-14			
2	16	27	-11			
3	24	30	-6			
4	32	32	0			
5	40	33	7			
6	48	34	14			
7	56	36	20			
8	64	40	24			
9	72	44	28			
10	80	51	29			
11	88	60	28			
12	96	76	20			
13	104	104	0			
14	112	144	-32			

Total Economic

■ Marginal Analysis and the Supply Decision

Marginal analysis compares marginal revenue, *MR*, with marginal cost, *MC*.

As output increases, marginal revenue remains constant but marginal cost increases.

If marginal revenue exceeds marginal cost (if MR > MC), the extra revenue from selling one more unit exceeds the extra cost incurred to produce it.

Economic profit increases if output increases.

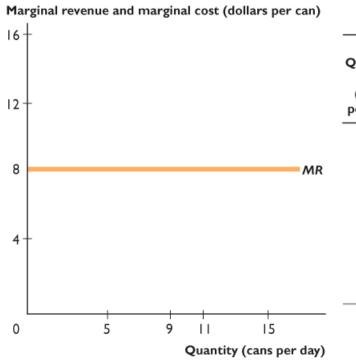
If marginal revenue is less than marginal cost (if *MR* < *MC*), the extra revenue from selling one more unit is less than the extra cost incurred to produce it.

Economic profit increases if output decreases.

If marginal revenue equals marginal cost (if MR = MC), the extra revenue from selling one more unit is equal to the extra cost incurred to produce it.

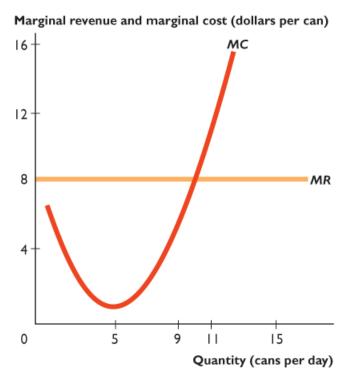
Economic profit decreases if output increases or decreases, so economic profit is maximized.

Figure 11.3 shows the profit-maximizing output. Marginal revenue is a constant \$8 per can.



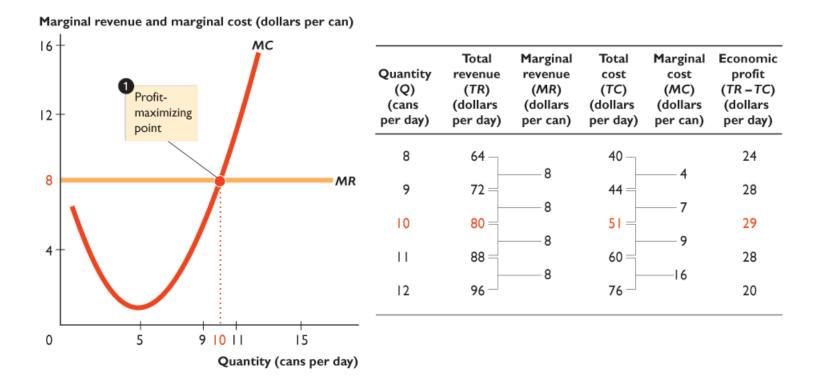
Quantity (Q) (cans per day)	Total revenue (TR) (dollars per day)	Marginal revenue (MR) (dollars per can)	Total cost (TC) (dollars per day)	Marginal cost (MC) (dollars per can)	Economic profit (TR – TC) (dollars per day)
8	64 —	8	40		24
9	72 =	8	44		28
10	80 =	8	51		29
11	88	8	60		28
12	96	— 8	76		20

Marginal cost decreases at low outputs but then increases.

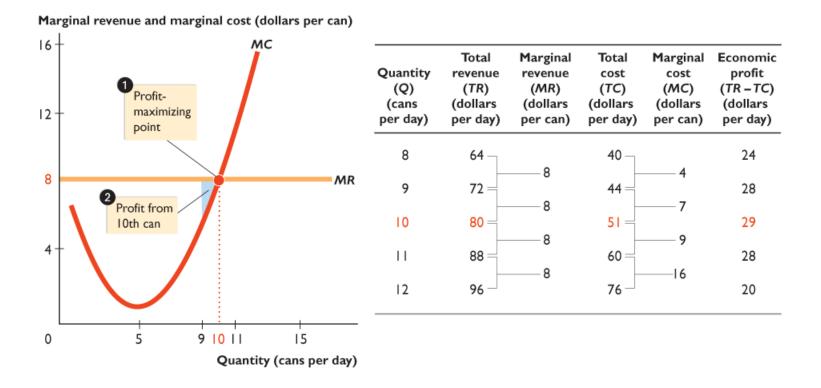


Quantity (Q) (cans per day)	Total revenue (TR) (dollars per day)	Marginal revenue (MR) (dollars per can)	Total cost (TC) (dollars per day)	Marginal cost (MC) (dollars per can)	Economic profit (TR – TC) (dollars per day)
8	64 —	•	40 —		24
9	72 =	8 8	44	4 	28
10	80 =		51	7 9	29
11	88	8 8	60		28
12	96	— о	76	——I6	20

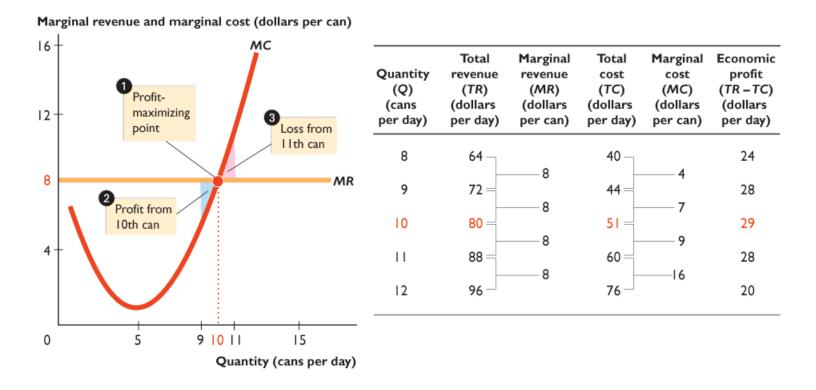
 Profit is maximized when marginal revenue equals marginal cost at 10 cans a day.



2. If output increases from 9 to 10 cans a day, marginal cost (\$7) is below marginal revenue (\$8), so profit increases.



3. If output increases from 10 to 11 cans a day, marginal cost (\$9) exceeds marginal revenue (\$8), so profit decreases.



■ Temporary Shutdown Decisions

If a firm is incurring an economic loss that it believes is temporary, it will remain in the market, and it might produce some output or temporarily shut down.

If the firm shuts down temporarily, it incurs an economic loss equal to total fixed cost.

If the firm produces some output, it incurs an economic loss equal to total fixed cost plus total variable cost minus total revenue.

If total revenue exceeds total variable cost, the firm's economic loss is less than total fixed cost. So it pays the firm to produce and incur an economic loss.

If total revenue were less than total variable cost, the firm's economic loss would exceed total fixed cost. So the firm would shut down temporarily.

Total fixed cost is the largest economic loss that the firm will incur.

The firm's economic loss equals total fixed cost when price equals average variable cost.

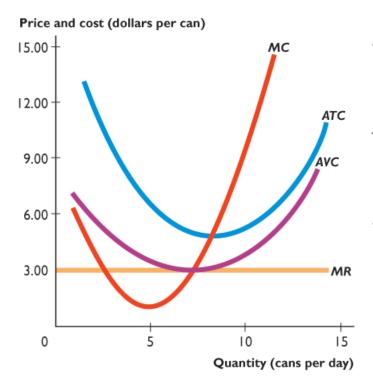
So the firm produces some output if price exceeds average variable cost and shuts down temporarily if average variable cost exceeds price.

The firm's **shutdown point** is the output and price at which price equals minimum average variable cost.

Figure 11.4 on the next slide illustrates a firm's shutdown point.

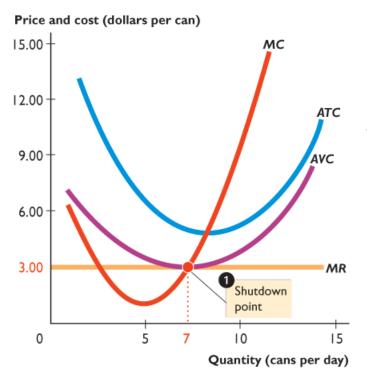
Marginal revenue curve is MR.

The firm's cost curves are MC, ATC, and AVC.



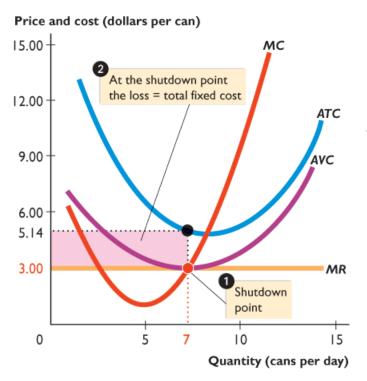
Quantity (Q) (cans per day)	Total revenue (TR)	Total variable cost (TVC) (do	Total fixed cost (TFC) Ilars per da	Total cost (TC)	Economic profit (TR –TC)
6	18	19	15	34	-16
7	21	21	15	36	-15
8	24	25	15	40	-16

1. With a market price (and *MR*) of \$3 a can, the firm minimizes its loss by producing 7 cans a day. The firm is at its shutdown point.



Quantity (Q) (cans per day)	Total revenue (TR)	Total variable cost (TVC) (do	Total fixed cost (TFC) llars per da	Total cost (TC)	Economic profit (TR – TC)
6	18	19	15	34	-16
7	21	21	15	36	-15
8	24	25	15	40	-16

2. At the shutdown point, the firms incurs an economic loss equal to total fixed cost.



Quantity (Q) (cans per day)	Total revenue (TR)	Total variable cost (TVC) (do	Total fixed cost (TFC) Ilars per da	Total cost (TC)	Economic profit (TR – TC)
6	18	19	15	34	-16
7	21	21	15	36	-15
8	24	25	15	40	-16

■ The Firm's Short-Run Supply Curve

A perfectly competitive firm's short-run supply curve shows how the firm's profit-maximizing output varies as the price varies, other things remaining the same.

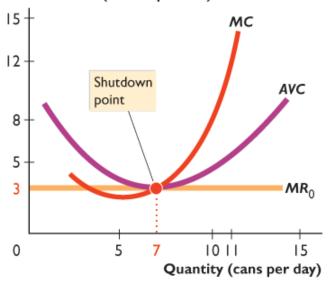
Figure 11.5 on the next slide illustrates a firm's supply curve and its relationship to the firm's cost curves.

The firm's marginal cost curve is MC. Its average variable cost curve is AVC, and its marginal revenue curve is MR_0 .

With a market price (and MR_0) of \$3 a can, the firm maximizes profit by producing 7 cans a day—at its shutdown point.

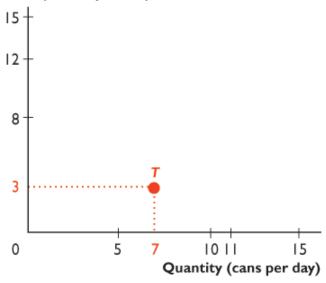
Point *T* is one point on the firm's supply curve.

Price and cost (dollars per can)



(a) Marginal cost and average variable cost

Price (dollars per can)

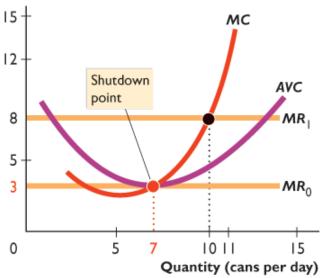


If the market price rises to \$8 a can, the marginal revenue curve shifts upward to MR_1 .

Profit-maximizing output increases to 10 cans per day.

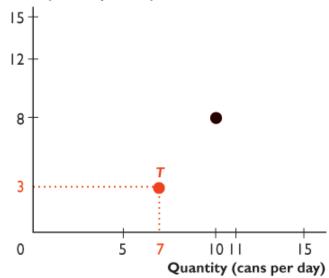
The black dot in part (b) is another point of the firm's supply curve.

Price and cost (dollars per can)



(a) Marginal cost and average variable cost

Price (dollars per can)



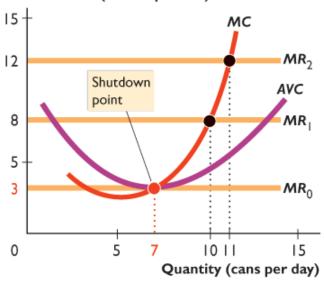
If the price rises to \$12 a can, the marginal revenue curve shifts upward to MR_2 .

Profit-maximizing output increases to 11 cans per day.

The new black dot in part (b) is another point of the firm's supply curve.

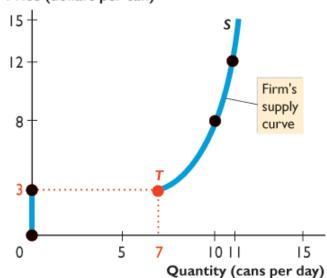
The blue curve in part (b) is the firm's supply curve.

Price and cost (dollars per can)



(a) Marginal cost and average variable cost

Price (dollars per can)



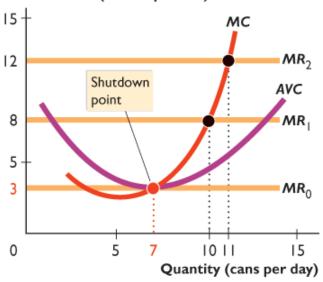
The blue curve is the firm's supply curve.

At prices below \$3 a can, the firm shuts down and output is zero.

At prices above \$3 a can, the firm produces along its *MC* curve.

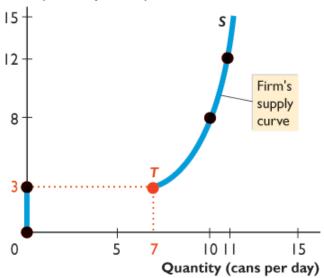
The supply curve is the same as the *MC* curve at prices above the minimum point of *AVC*.

Price and cost (dollars per can)



(a) Marginal cost and average variable cost

Price (dollars per can)



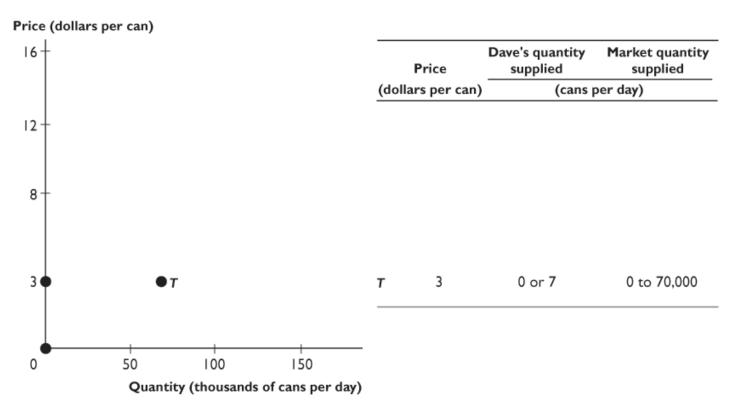
■ Market Supply in the Short Run

The market supply curve in the short run shows the quantity supplied at each price by a fixed number of firms.

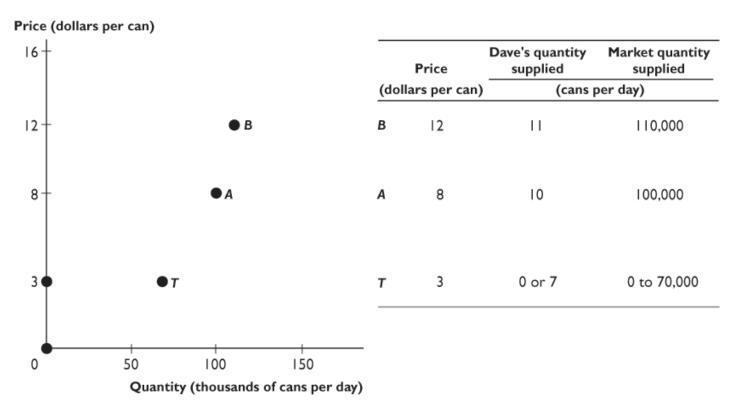
The quantity supplied at a given price is the sum of the quantities supplied by all firms at that price.

Figure 11.6 on the next slide shows the market supply curve in a market with 10,000 identical firms.

At prices below the shutdown price, firms produce nothing. At the shutdown price of \$3, each firm produces either 0 or 7 cans a day.

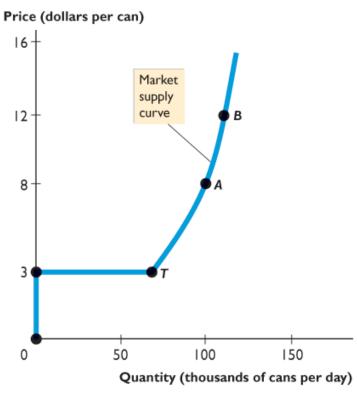


At prices above the shutdown price, firms produce along their *MC* curve.



The market supply curve:

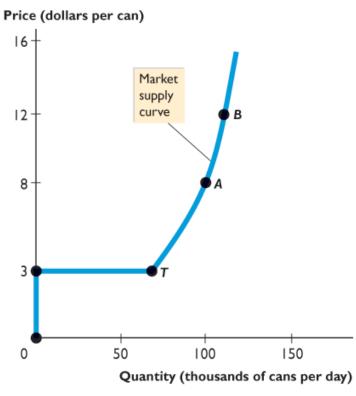
Below the shutdown price, it runs along the y-axis.



Price		Dave's quantity supplied	Market quantity supplied	
(dollars per can)		(cans per day)		
В	12	П	110,000	
A	8	10	100,000	
т	3	0 or 7	0 to 70,000	

At the shutdown price, it is perfectly elastic.

Above the shutdown price, it slopes upward.



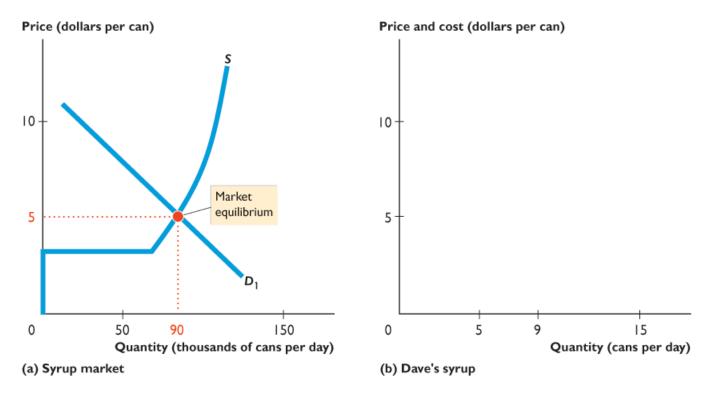
Price (dollars per can)		Dave's quantity supplied	Market quantity supplied
		(cans per day)	
В	12	П	110,000
A	8	10	100,000
т	3	0 or 7	0 to 70,000

■ Short-Run Equilibrium in Normal Times

Market demand and market supply determine the market price and quantity bought and sold.

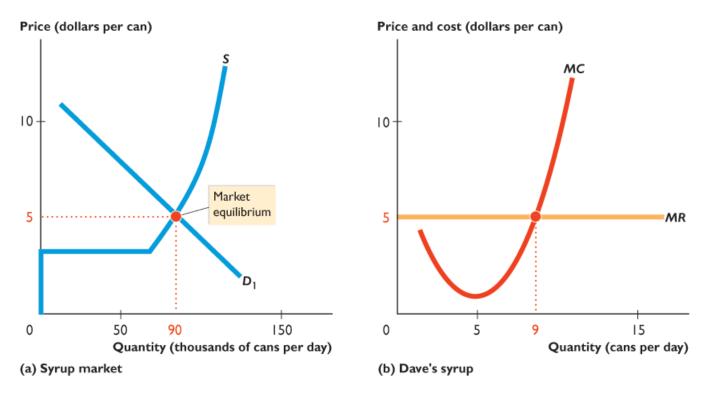
Figure 11.7 on the next slide illustrates short-run equilibrium when the firm makes zero economic profit.

In part (a), with market supply curve, S, and market demand curve, D_1 , the market price is \$5 a can.

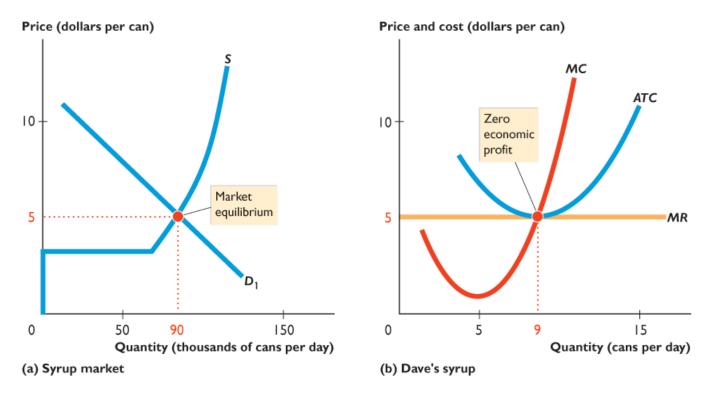


In part (b), marginal revenue is \$5 a can.

Dave produces 9 cans a day, where marginal cost equals marginal revenue.



At this quantity, price equals average total cost, so Dave makes zero economic profit.



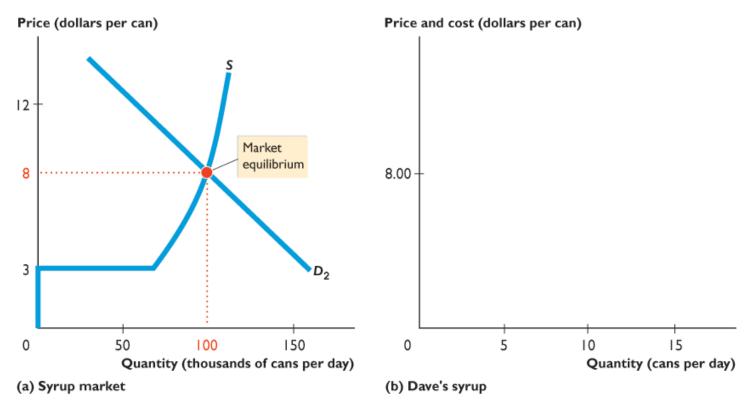
■ Short-Run Equilibrium in Good Times

In the short-run equilibrium that we've just examined, Dave made zero economic profit.

Although such an outcome is normal, economic profit can be positive or negative in the short run.

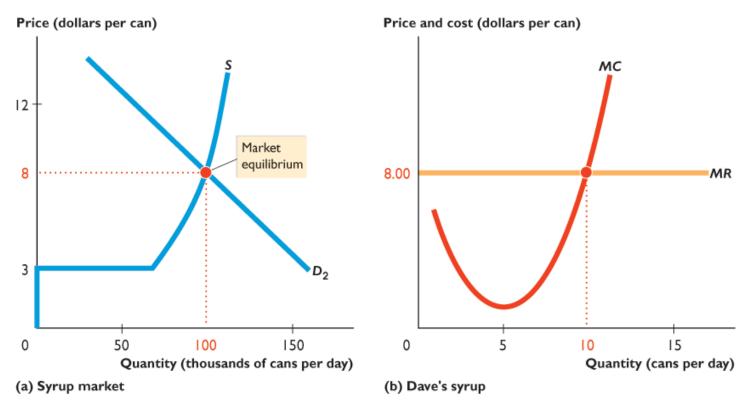
Figure 11.8 on the next slide illustrates short-run equilibrium when the firm makes a positive economic profit.

In part (a), with market demand curve D_2 and market supply curve S, the market price is \$8 a can.

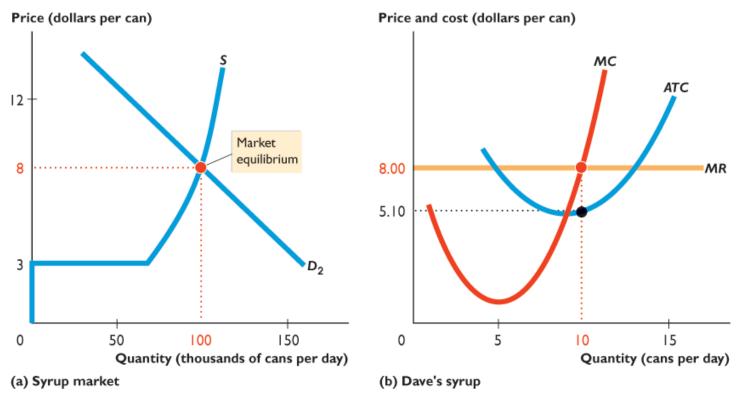


In part (b), Dave's marginal revenue is \$8 a can.

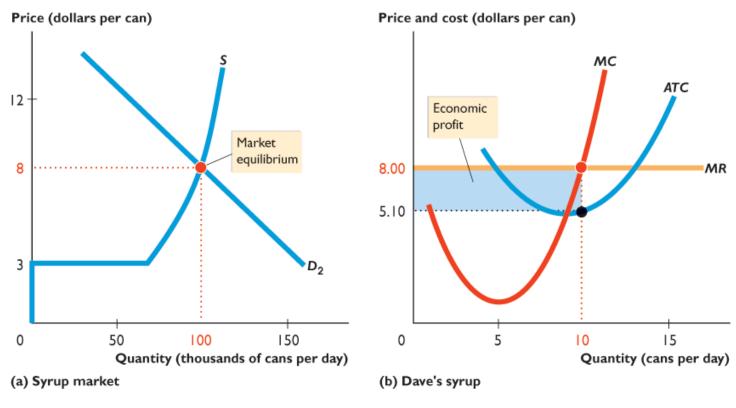
Dave produces 10 cans a day, where marginal cost equals marginal revenue.



At this quantity, price (\$8 a can) exceeds average total cost (\$5.10 a can).



Dave makes an economic profit shown by the blue rectangle.



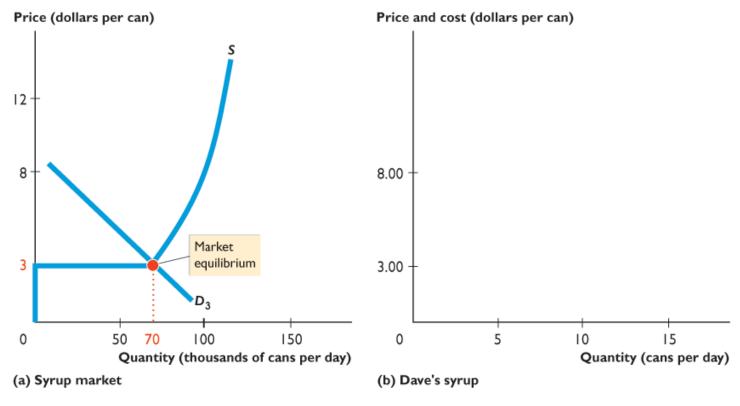
■ Short-Run Equilibrium in Bad Times

In the short-run equilibrium that we've just examined, Dave is enjoying an economic profit.

But such an outcome is not inevitable.

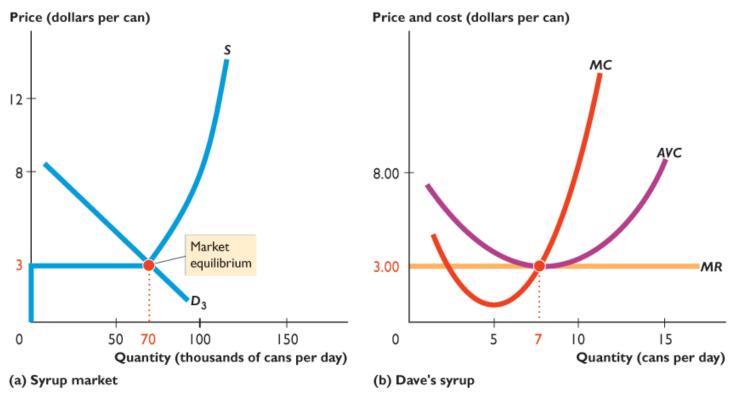
Figure 11.9 on the next slide illustrates short-run equilibrium when the firm incurs an economic loss.

In part (a), with the market supply curve, S, and the market demand curve, D_3 , the market price is \$3 a can.



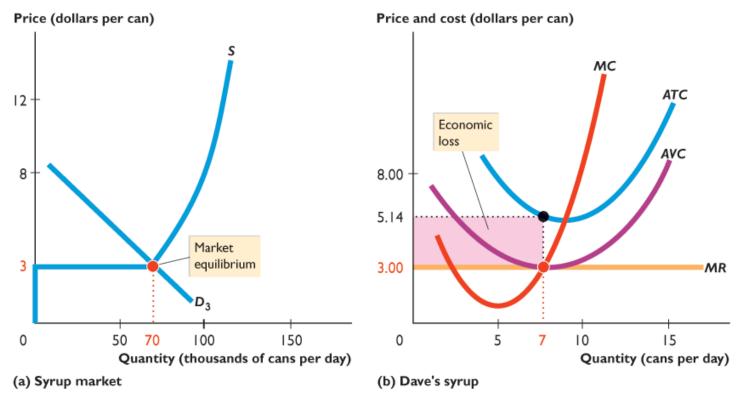
In part (b), Dave's marginal revenue is \$3 a can.

Dave produces 7 cans a day, where marginal cost equals marginal revenue and not less than average variable cost.



At this quantity, price (\$3 a can) is less than average total cost (\$5.14 a can).

Dave incurs an economic loss shown by the red rectangle.



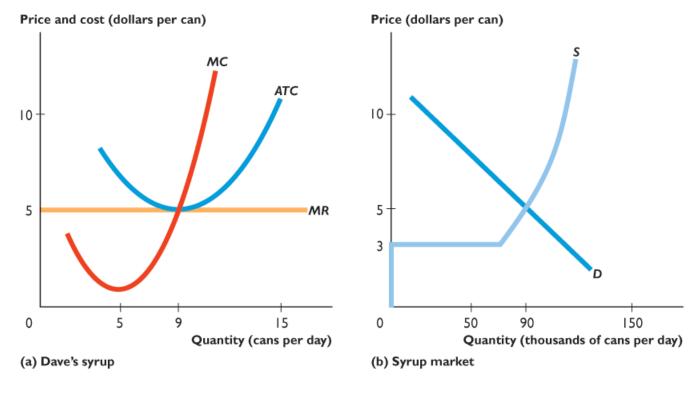
Neither good times nor bad times last forever in perfect competition.

In the long run, a firm in perfect competition makes zero profit.

Figure 11.10 on the next slide illustrates equilibrium in the long run.

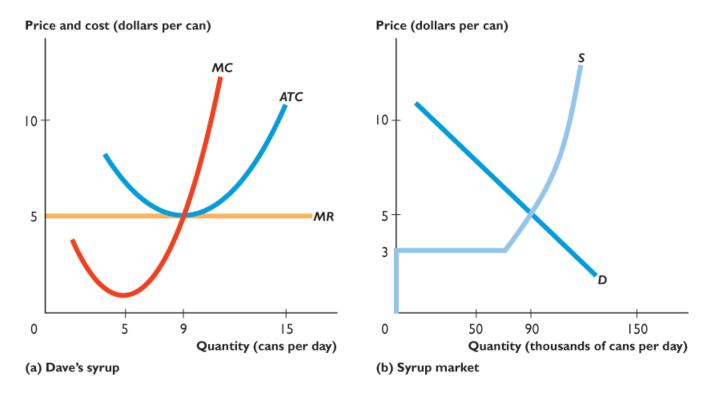
Part (a) illustrates the firm in long-run equilibrium.

The market price is \$5 a can and Dave produces 9 cans a day.



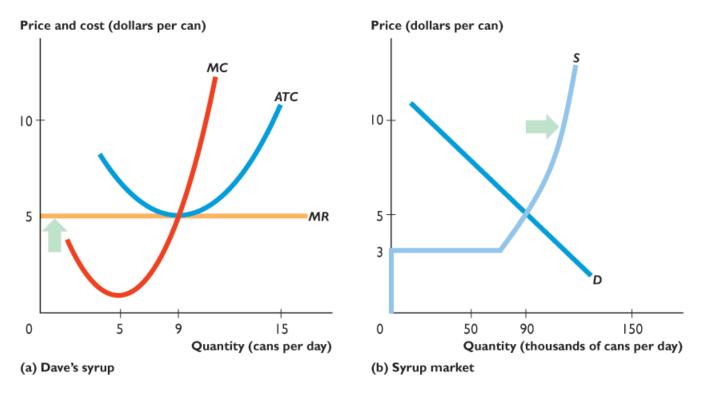
In part (a), minimum *ATC* is \$5 a can.

In the long run, Dave produces at minimum *ATC*.



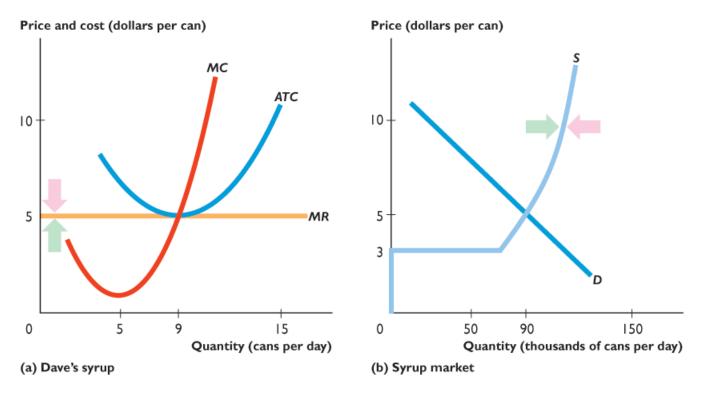
If supply decreases, the price rises above \$5 a can and Dave will make a positive economic profit.

Entry increases supply to S and the price falls to \$5 a can.

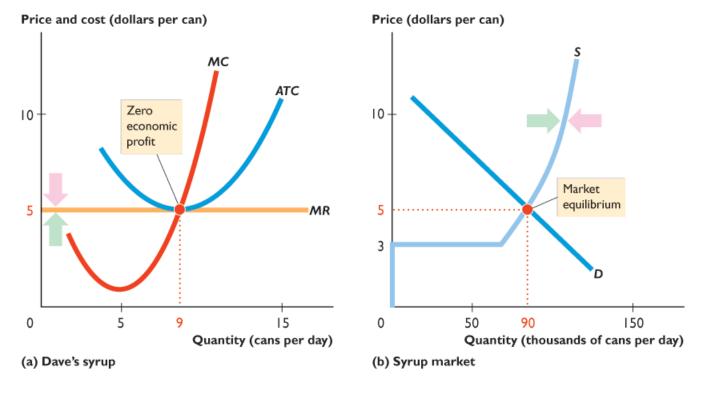


If supply increases, the price falls below \$5 a can and Dave incurs an economic loss.

Exit decreases supply to S and the price rises to \$5 a can.



In the long-run, the price is pulled to \$5 a can and Dave makes zero economic profit.



■ Entry and Exit

In the long run, firms respond to economic profit and economic loss by either entering or exiting a market.

New firms enter a market in which the existing firms are making positive economic profits.

Existing firms exit the market in which firms are incurring economic losses.

Entry and exit influence price, the quantity produced, and economic profit.

The immediate effect of the decision to enter or exit is to shift the market supply curve.

If more firms enter a market, supply increases and the market supply curve shifts rightward.

If firms exit a market, supply decreases and the market supply curve shifts leftward.

The Effects of Entry

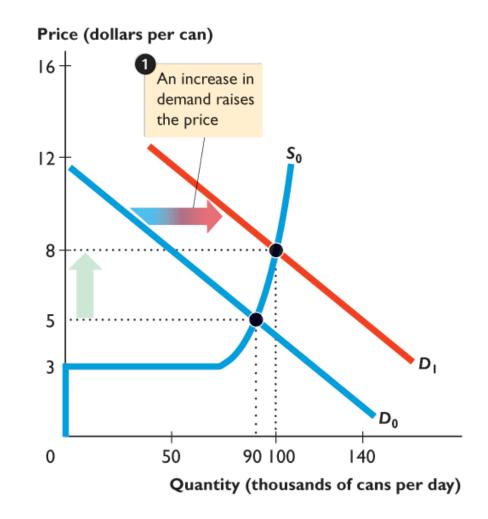
Economic profit is an incentive for new firms to enter a market, but as they do so, the price falls and the economic profit of each existing firm decreases.

Figure 11.11 shows the effects of entry.

Starting in long-run equilibrium,

1. If demand increases from D_0 to D_1 , the price rises from \$5 to \$8 a can.

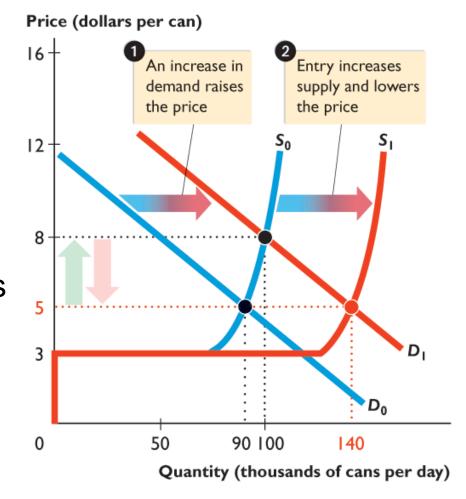
Firms now make economic profits.



Economic profit brings entry.

2. As firms enter the market, the supply curve shifts rightward, from S_0 to S_1 .

The equilibrium price falls from \$8 to \$5 a can, and the quantity produced increases from 90,000 to 140,000 cans a day.



■ The Effects of Exit

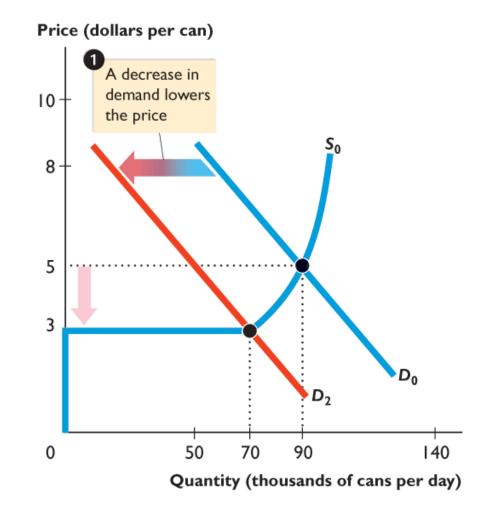
Economic loss is an incentive for firms to exit a market, but as they do so, the price rises and the economic loss of each remaining firm decreases.

Figure 11.12 shows the effects of exit.

Starting in long-run equilibrium,

1. If demand decreases from D_0 to $D_{2,}$ the price falls from \$5 to \$3 a can.

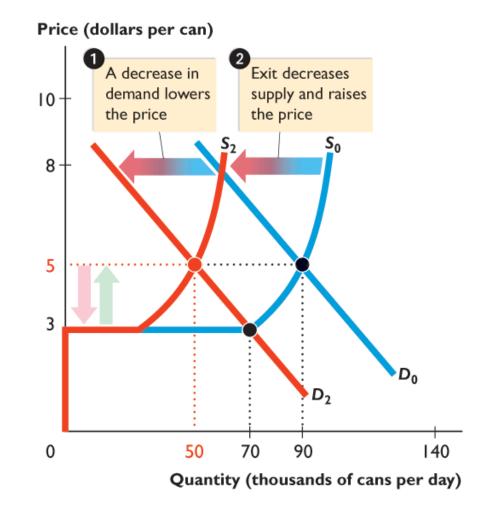
Firms now incur economic losses.



Economic loss brings exit.

2. As firms exit the market, the supply curve shifts leftward, from S_0 to S_2 .

The equilibrium price rises from \$3 to \$5 a can, and the quantity produced decreases from 70,000 to 50,000 cans a day.



■ Change in Demand

The difference between the initial long-run equilibrium and the final long-run equilibrium is the number of firms in the market.

An increase in demand increases the number of firms. Each firm produces the same output in the new long-run equilibrium as initially and makes zero economic profit.

In the process of moving from the initial equilibrium to the new one, firms make positive economic profits.

A decrease in demand triggers a similar response, except in the opposite direction.

The decrease in demand brings a lower price, economic loss, and some firms exit.

Exit decreases market supply and eventually raises the price to its original level.

■ Technological Change

New technology allows firms to produce at a lower cost. As a result, as firms adopt a new technology, their cost curves shift downward.

Market supply increases, and the market supply curve shifts rightward.

With a given demand, the quantity produced increases and the price falls.

Two forces are at work in a market undergoing technological change.

1. Firms that adopt the new technology make an economic profit.

So new-technology firms have an incentive to enter.

2. Firms that stick with the old technology incur economic losses.

These firms either exit the market or switch to the new technology.

■ Is Perfect Competition Efficient?

Resources are used efficiently when it is not possible to get more of one good without giving up something that is valued more highly.

To achieve this outcome, marginal benefit must equal marginal cost. That is what perfect competition achieves.

The market supply curve is the marginal cost curve. It is the sum of the firms' marginal cost curves at all points above the minimum of average variable cost (the shutdown price).

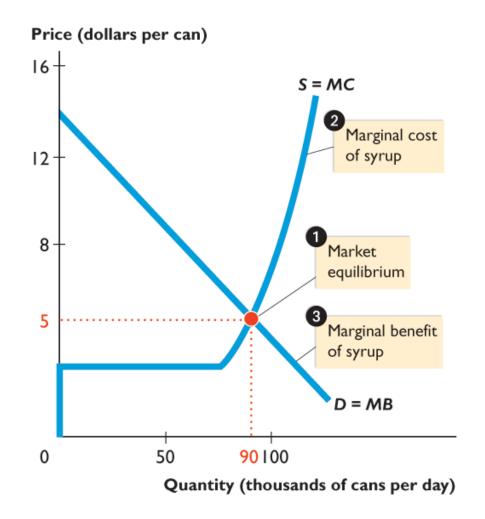
The market supply curve is the marginal cost curve.

The market demand curve is the marginal benefit curve.

Because the market supply and market demand curves intersect at the equilibrium price, that price equals both marginal cost and marginal benefit.

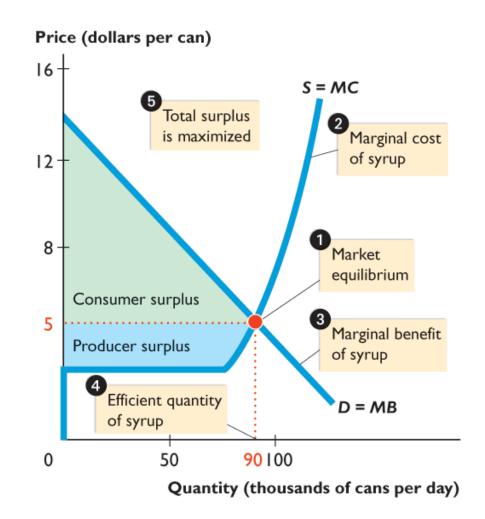
Figure 11.13 on the next slide shows the efficiency of perfect competition.

- Market equilibrium occurs at a price of \$5 a can and a quantity of 90,000 cans a day.
- 2. Supply curve is also the marginal cost curve.
- 3. Demand curve is also the marginal benefit curve.



Because marginal benefit equals marginal cost

- 4.Efficient quantity is produced.
- 5.Total surplus (sum of consumer surplus and producer surplus) is maximized.



■ Is Perfect Competition Fair?

Perfect competition places no restrictions on anyone's actions—everyone is free to try to make an economic profit.

The process of competition eliminates economic profit and brings maximum attainable benefit to consumers.

Fairness as equality of opportunity and fairness as equality of outcomes are achieved in long-run equilibrium.

But in the short run, economic profit and economic loss can arise.

These unequal outcomes might seem unfair.



Where Have All the Record Stores Gone?

In 1995, the market for music was a very competitive market in which more than 8,000 record stores sold music.

Figure 1 illustrates the average total cost curve, ATC, marginal cost curve, MC, and marginal revenue curve, MR_0 , for one of these stores.

Record stores charged \$20 a CD and made zero economic profit. The market was in longrun equilibrium.

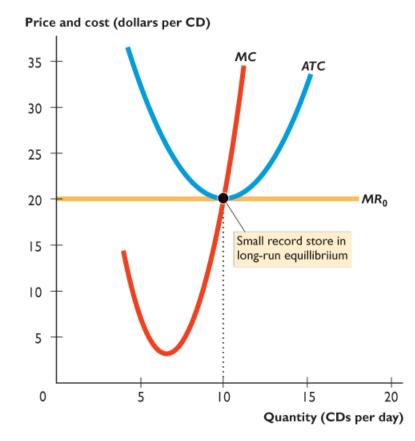


Figure I Small Independent Record Store Before Internet



Where Have All the Record Stores Gone?

Amazon took advantage of the technological advance made possible by the Internet.

Amazon.com started retailing books in 1995.

Soon Amazon.com started selling CDs.



An Amazon server farm replaces hundreds of traditional record stores



Where Have All the Record Stores Gone?

Figure 2 shows the economic profit available to Amazon at the price charged by traditional record stores (\$20 a CD).

Positive economic profit attracts new entry.

Technology also kept advancing, with MP3 files replacing physical CDs.

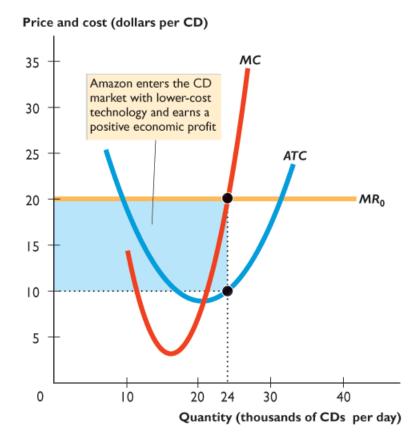


Figure 2 Amazon Enters CD Retail Market



Where Have All the Record Stores Gone?

Figure 3 shows where competition among online music download stores drove the price (\$10 a CD).

Economic profit vanished in a new long-run equilibrium.

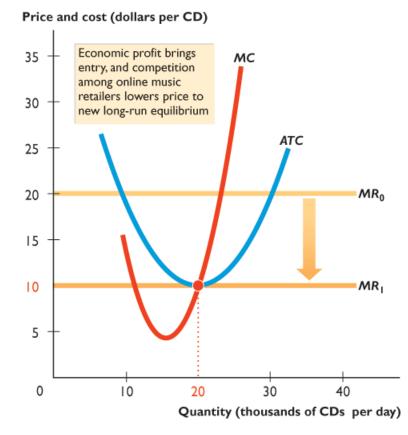


Figure 3 More Large Online Music Stores Enter and Compete



Where Have All the Record Stores Gone?

Figure 4 illustrates the economic loss incurred by a traditional record store facing competition from online retailers.

With a loss exceeding *TFC*, the traditional record store exits.

That's where the record stores have gone.

They've exited to avoid the losses created by online competition.

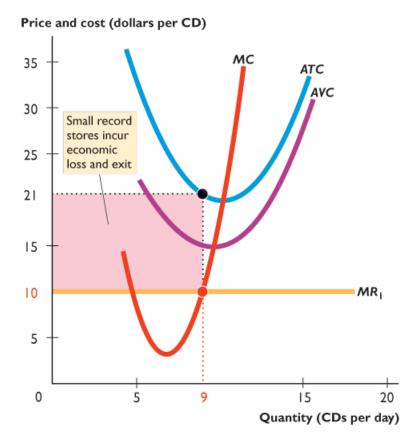


Figure 4 Small Independent Record Store Exits