

## 10. Externalities

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# Introduction

- ▶ One of the Ten Principles from Chapter 1:
  - ▶ *"Markets are usually a good way to organize economy activity."*
  - ▶ In absence of market failures, the competitive market outcome is efficient, maximizes total surplus.
- ▶ One type of market failure:
  - ▶ Externality, the uncompensated impact of one person's actions on the well-being of a bystander.
- ▶ Externalities can be negative or positive, depending on whether impact on bystander is adverse or beneficial.
- ▶ Self-interested buyers and sellers neglect the external costs or benefits of their actions, so the market outcome is not efficient.
- ▶ Another principle from Chapter 1:
  - ▶ *"Governments can sometimes improve market outcomes."*
- ▶ In presence of externalities, public policy can improve efficiency.

## Examples of Negative Externalities

- ▶ Air pollution from a factory
- ▶ The neighbor's barking dog
- ▶ Late-night stereo blasting from the dorm room next to yours
- ▶ Noise pollution from construction projects
- ▶ Health risk to others from second-hand smoke
- ▶ Talking on cell phone while driving makes the roads less safe for others

# Welfare economics: a recap

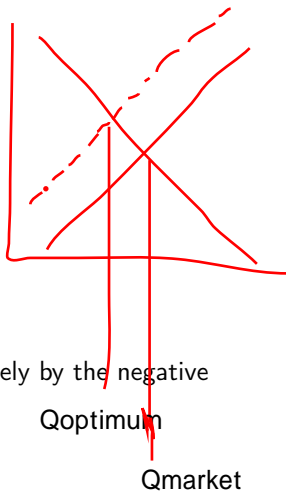
- ▶ Demand curve:
  - ▶ Private value to consumers
  - ▶ Prices they are willing to pay
- ▶ Supply curve:
  - ▶ Private cost to suppliers
  - ▶ Costs directly incurred by sellers.
- ▶ Equilibrium quantity and price
  - ▶ Efficient
  - ▶ Maximizes the sum of producer and consumer surplus

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## Negative externalities

- ▶ Cost to society (of producing a good)
  - ▶ Larger than the cost to the good producers
- ▶ Social cost = private cost + external cost
- ▶ Private cost: supply
- ▶ External cost
  - ▶ The costs to those bystanders affected adversely by the negative externality
  - ▶ Value of the negative impact on bystanders
- ▶ Social cost curve is above the supply curve
  - ▶ Takes into account the external costs imposed on society



## Negative externalities

Q<sub>optimum</sub> !

- ▶ Therefore,

$$Q_{optimum} < Q_{market}$$

- ▶ At any  $Q < Q_{optimum}$ 
  - ▶ Value of additional unit > Social cost of additional unit
  - ▶ Should produce more to maximize society's well-being (TS)
- ▶ At any  $Q > Q_{optimum}$  (for example at  $Q_{market}$ )
  - ▶ Value of the last unit < Social cost of the last unit
  - ▶ Should produce less to maximize society's well-being (TS)
- ▶ Only at  $Q_{optimum}$  society's welfare maximized.

- ▶ For example tax on producers can make  
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                                  sellers' costs = social costs

## Positive externalities

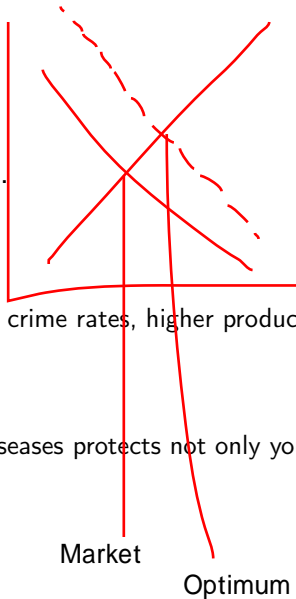
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- ▶ Education

- ▶ Benefit of education is private
- ▶ Externalities: better government, lower crime rates, higher productivity

- ▶ Other examples:

- ▶ R&D creates knowledge others can use
- ▶ Being vaccinated against contagious diseases protects not only you, but other people





## Positive externalities

- ▶ In the presence of a positive externality, the social value is greater than private value
  - ▶ private value – the direct value to buyers
  - ▶ external benefit – the value of the positive impact on bystanders
- ▶ Social value curve
  - ▶ Above the demand curve
- ▶ Therefore

$$Q_{optimum} > Q_{market}$$

- ▶  $Q_{optimum}$  maximizes society's welfare:
  - ▶ At any lower  $Q$ , the social value of additional units exceeds their cost.
  - ▶ At any higher  $Q$ , the cost of the last unit exceeds its social value.

# Government

- ▶ Negative externalities
  - ▶ Markets produce a larger quantity than is socially desirable
  - ▶ Government: tax
- ▶ Positive externalities
  - ▶ Markets produce a smaller quantity than is socially desirable
  - ▶ Government: subsidy

# Public Policies Toward Externalities

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- ▶ Command-and-control policies
  - ▶ Regulate behavior directly
  - ▶ Regulation
- ▶ Market-based policies
  - ▶ Provide incentives so that private decision makers will choose to solve the problem on their own
  - ▶ Corrective taxes and subsidies
  - ▶ Tradable pollution permits

## Command-and-control policies: Regulation

- ▶ Regulate behavior directly: making certain behaviors either required or forbidden
- ▶ Neither possible nor desirable to eradicate pollution completely
  - ▶ Weigh the costs and benefits carefully
- ▶ Government
  - ▶ Develop and enforce regulations
  - ▶ Dictates maximum level of pollution
  - ▶ Requires that firms adopt a particular technology to reduce emissions
- ▶ Caveat
  - ▶ Need to know all the relevant information

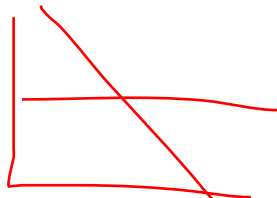
## Market-based policy 1: Corrective Taxes and Subsidies

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- ▶ Corrective tax: a tax designed to induce private decision-makers to take account of the social costs that arise from a negative externality
- ▶ **Internalize externality**: make private decision-makers take into account the external costs and benefits of their actions
- ▶ Also called Pigovian taxes (Arthur **Pigou**, 1877-1959)
  - ▶ ideal corrective tax = external cost
  - ▶ ideal corrective subsidy = external benefit

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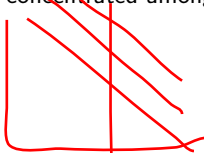


## Corrective Taxes vs. Regulations

- ▶ Corrective taxes can achieve *any* level of pollution – just like regulation
  - ▶ yet more efficiently
  - ▶ raise revenue for the government
- ▶ Different firms have different costs of pollution abatement.
  - ▶ Firms with low abatement costs will reduce pollution to reduce their tax burden.
  - ▶ Firms with high abatement costs have greater willingness to pay tax.
- ▶ In contrast, a regulation requiring all firms to reduce pollution by a specific amount not efficient.
  - ▶ If all firms must reduce emissions by a fixed amount (or fixed percentage), then abatement is NOT concentrated among firms with the lowest abatement costs, and so the total cost of abatement will be higher. – not efficient!

## Market-based policy 2: Tradable Pollution Permits

- ▶ Voluntary transfer of the right to pollute from one firm to another
- ▶ Both types of firms (low and high cost) are better off
  - ▶ remember it's voluntary! !
- ▶ Social welfare is increased.
  - ▶ Market for pollution permit allocates the right to pollute efficiently.
  - ▶ The permits will end up in the hands of those firms that value them most highly.
  - ▶ The same level of pollution, yet with less costs.
    - ▶ Pollution reduction is concentrated among those firms with lowest costs.



# Permits and Taxes

- ▶ Tradable pollution permits and corrective taxes are similar in effect. In both cases, firms must pay for the right to pollute.
  - ▶ Corrective taxes: pay to the government
  - ▶ Pollution permits: pay to buy permits
- ▶ Tax: the government basically sets the price of pollution
- ▶ Permit: the government chooses the level of pollution
- ▶ When policymakers do not know the position of the 'demand curve,' the permits system achieves pollution reduction targets more precisely.



# Tradable Pollution Permits in the Real World

- ▶ SO<sub>2</sub> permits traded in the U.S. since 1995.
- ▶ Nitrogen oxide permits traded in the northeastern U.S. since 1999.
- ▶ Carbon emissions permits traded in Europe since January 1, 2005.

# Objections

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- ▶ Some politicians, many environmentalists argue that no one should be able to 'buy' the right to pollute, cannot put a price on the environment.
- ▶ People face trade-offs
  - ▶ Eliminating all pollution is impossible
  - ▶ Clean water and clean air – opportunity cost
- ▶ The market-based approach reduces the cost of environmental protection, so it should increase the public's demand for a clean environment.
  - ▶ Clean environment is a normal good (Positive income elasticity)
    - ▶ Rich countries can afford a cleaner environment
    - ▶ More rigorous environmental protection
  - ▶ Clean air and clean water - law of demand
    - ▶ The lower the price of environmental protection
    - ▶ The more the public will want it

# Private Solutions to Externalities

Government action is not always needed

Various ways to internalize externalities

- ▶ Moral codes and social sanctions
  - ▶ Do not litter
  - ▶ The Golden Rule
- ▶ Charities (government encourages this private solution)
- ▶ Self-interest of the relevant parties
  - ▶ Integrating different types of businesses
- ▶ Interested parties can enter into a contract

# The Coase theorem

- ▶ How effective are private solutions?
- ▶ The Coase theorem
  - ▶ the proposition that if private parties can bargain without cost over the allocation of resources, they can solve the problem of externalities on their own.
- ▶ Whatever the initial distribution of rights
  - ▶ Interested parties can reach a bargain in which
    - ▶ Everyone is better off
    - ▶ Outcome is efficient

# The Coase theorem: a simple example

- ▶ Tom likes to bbq in his backyard on summer afternoon, listening to 90's songs from his boombox.
- ▶ Negative externality: Jane (the neighbor) cannot stand it.
- ▶ If they can bargain costlessly, this externality problem can be solved – regardless of the legal right.
- ▶ Efficient outcome
  - ▶ maximize Tom's + Jane's well-being

## A simple example: case 1

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- ▶ Suppose:
  - ▶ Tom has the legal right to listen old songs
  - ▶ Benefit to Tom of playing old songs = \$500
  - ▶ Cost to Jane = \$800
- ▶ Socially efficient outcome: boombox goes bye-bye.
- ▶ Private outcome:
  - ▶ Jane pays Tom \$600 to get rid of boombox
  - ▶ both Jane and Tom are better off.
- ▶ Private outcome = efficient outcome.

## A simple example: case 2

- ▶ Suppose:
  - ▶ Tom has the legal right to listen old songs
  - ▶ Benefit to Tom of playing old songs = \$1,000
  - ▶ Cost to Jane = \$800
- ▶ Socially efficient outcome: boombox stay.
- ▶ Private outcome:
  - ▶ Jane not willing to pay more than \$800
  - ▶ Tom not willing to accept less than \$1,000
- ▶ Private outcome = efficient outcome.

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## A simple example: case 3

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- ▶ Suppose:
  - ▶ Jane has the legal right to peace and quiet
  - ▶ Benefit to Tom of playing old songs = \$800
  - ▶ Cost to Jane = \$500
- ▶ Socially efficient outcome: boombox stay.
- ▶ Private outcome:
  - ▶ Tom pays Jane \$600 to put up with loud 90's songs.
  - ▶ both Jane and Tom are better off.
- ▶ Private outcome = efficient outcome.



# Why Private Solutions Do Not Always Work

- ▶ Transaction costs
  - ▶ The costs parties incur in the process of agreeing to and following through on a bargain.
  - ▶ These costs may make it impossible to reach a mutually beneficial agreement.
- ▶ Stubbornness:
  - ▶ Even if a beneficial agreement is possible, each party may hold out for a better deal.
- ▶ Coordination problems:
  - ▶ If # of parties is very large, coordinating them may be costly, difficult, or impossible.

## Case study: smoking

- ▶ Second-hand smoke is an example of negative externality.
- ▶ How important is it? The social cost?
  - ▶ Health effects + putting a value on the effects
  - ▶ Difficult task, but some researchers have tried
- ▶ \$0.52 per pack
  - ▶ if you don't include the costs imposed on members of smokers' families (including unborn child)
- ▶ Including the effects on family members, the number rises significantly.
  - ▶ \$4.80 including the effects on pregnant women and their unborn children's future health
- ▶ Exposed to the risk of fires = \$0.09 per pack