## Chapter 9: Monopoly and Imperfect Competition

A. Total revenue and marginal revenue

Definition:
total revenue $=$ total amount received from selling product

| Definition: |
| :--- |
| total revenue $=$ total amount received |
| from selling product |
| $P=$ price of product |
| $Q=$ number of units sold |
| $P Q=$ total revenue |
|  |
|  |

## Definition:

marginal revenue $=$ amount received from selling one more unit of product

| Definition: |
| :--- |
| marginal revenue = amount received |
| $\quad$ from selling one more unit of product |
| $\frac{\Delta(P Q)}{\Delta Q}$ or $\frac{d(P Q)}{d Q}$ |
|  |

Firm with downward-sloping demand curve

Demand for firm's product



Special case: linear demand curve

$P=a+b Q$
total revenue:

$$
\begin{aligned}
P Q & =(a-b Q) Q \\
& =a Q-b Q^{2}
\end{aligned}
$$

marginal revenue:

$$
\frac{d(P Q)}{d Q}=a-2 b Q
$$



Chapter 9: Monopoly and Imperfect Competition
A. Total revenue and marginal revenue
B. Marginal revenue for a perfectly competitive firm



Conclusion: if demand is perfectly elastic, then $M R=P$

If demand is less than perfectly elastic, then MR < P


Question: but don't demand curves always slope down (i.e., always less than perfectly elastic)?

Answer: yes, but it's a question of degree

Key issue: how much of market does each firm control?

## Chapter 9: Monopoly and Imperfect Competition

A. Total revenue and marginal revenue
B. Marginal revenue for a perfectly competitive firm
C. The difference between individual firm's demand curve and market demand curve

Consider entire U.S. market for tomatoes

- More than five million tons produced each year
- Sell wholesale around \$50/ton
- Suppose demand has elasticity of -1
- Means $10 \%$ increase in U.S. production (500,000 more tons) would lower price by $10 \%$ (from \$50 to \$45)

Consider individual tomato farm

- Produces 1,000 tons per year
- $10 \%$ increase in one farm's production is 100 tons
- This is $1 / 50,000=0.002 \%$ of U.S. market
- U.S. price would drop 0.002\% (from \$50/ton to \$49.99/ton)


Perfect competition: firm for all practical purposes ignores any potential effect of its actions on the market price

- Represent as: perfectly elastic demand curve
- Justification: this firm is a very small part of the total market
- Imperfect competition: firm takes into account the effect of its actions on price
- Monopoly: firm is the only seller in the entire market

Chapter 9: Monopoly and Imperfect Competition
A. Total revenue and marginal revenue
B. Marginal revenue for a perfectly competitive firm
C. The difference between individual firm's demand curve and market demand curve
D. Total cost and marginal cost

Comparison of industry-wide and individual producer's demand curve when there is a monopoly



## Definition:

total cost = total expensesfirm would incur in order to produce quantity $Q$
marginal cost = additional cost of producingone more unit

$$
\frac{\Delta(T C)}{\Delta Q} \text { or } \frac{d(T C)}{d Q}
$$

| Q Total cost  <br> 1 4  <br> 2 10  <br> 3 18  <br> 4 28  <br> 5 40  <br> 6 54  |
| :--- |


|  |  |  |  |
| :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: |
| Q | Total cost | Marginal cost |  |
| 1 | 4 | 4 |  |
| 2 | 10 | 6 |  |
| 3 | 18 | 8 |  |
| 4 | 28 | 10 |  |
| 5 | 40 | 12 |  |
| 6 | 54 | 14 |  |
|  |  |  |  |

## Chapter 9: Monopoly and Imperfect Competition

A. Total revenue and marginal revenue
B. Marginal revenue for a perfectly competitive firm
C. The difference between individual firm's demand curve and market demand curve
D. Total cost and marginal cost
E. Profit maximization

Proposition: any firm maximizes profit by setting marginal revenue equal to marginal cost

First method of proof: calculus
$T R=$ total revenue
TC = total cost
$T R-T C=$ profit
Firm maximizes profit by finding derivative of profit with respect to $Q$ and setting it to zero

$$
\frac{d(T R-T C)}{d Q}=0
$$

requires

$$
\frac{d(T R)}{d Q}=\frac{d(T C)}{d Q}
$$

or marginal revenue $=$ marginal cost

Second method of proof: intuition
Suppose the firm wasn't following our advice, and operated at a level where MR > MC

Then if it produced one more unit:

- its revenues would go up by MR
- its costs would go up by MC
- if MR > MC, its revenues would go up by more than its costs if it produced one more unit
- Conclusion: if MR > MC, firm can increase profits by producing one more unit

Or, suppose instead the firm wasn't following our advice, and operated at a level where MR < MC

Then if it produced one less unit:

- its revenues would go down by MR (bad)
- its costs would go down by MC (good)
- if MR < MC, its cost savings more than make up for lost revenue
- Conclusion: if MR < MC, firm can increase profits by producing one less unit
- For a perfectly competitive firm, $M R=P$
- Therefore, a perfectly competitive firm will set $P=M C$
- That is, it will choose a level of production

That is, it will choose a level of production
at which the marginal cost of producing one more unit is equal to the price


Combined implication: firm is only maximizing profits if it sets $M R=M C$

Any firm will try to set MR = MC

- For an imperfectly competitive firm or monopolist, MR < P
- Therefore, an imperfectly competitive firm will set MC < P
- That is, it will choose a level of production at which the marginal cost of producing one more unit is less than the price


## Chapter 9: Monopoly and Imperfect

Competition
E. Profit maximization
F. Price and output under perfect competition

If $P=12$, type 1 farms produce 2 units each (200 total), type 2 farms produce 4 units each (400 units total)
So if $P=12$, all farms together produce 600 units

Supply decisions for farm 1


If $P=10$, farm 1 produces 1 unit If $P=12$, farm 1 produces 2 units If $P=14$, farm 1 produces 3 units


Suppose there are 100 different farms like farm 1 and 100 farms like farm 2
If $P=10$, type 1 farms produce 1 unit each (100 total), type 2 farms produce 2 units each (200 units total)
So if $P=10$, all farms together produce 300 units

| If $P=12$, type 1 farms produce 2 units each |
| :--- |
| (200 total), type 2 farms produce 4 units |
| each ( 400 units total) |
| So if $P=12$, all farms together produce 600 |
| units |

If $P=10$, all farms together produce 300 units
If $P=12$, all farms together produce 600 units
If $P=14$, all farms together produce 900
 units



## Chapter 9: Monopoly and Imperfect Competition

E. Profit maximization
F. Price and output under perfect competition
G. Price and output under monopoly



If company wants to produce 300 units, cheapest way is 1 unit from each of type 1 farms and 2 units from each of type 2 farms
(If it produced a second unit from a type 1 farm or a third unit from a type 2 farm, would cost more than $\$ 10$ to produce)

This means that the marginal cost of producing $300^{\text {th }}$ unit is $\$ 10$
To produce 600 units, should produce 2 units on each type 1 farm and 4 units on each type 2
So marginal cost of producing $600^{\text {th }}$ unit is \$12


Conclusion: the marginal cost curve for the megafirm is the horizontal summation of the individual marginal cost curves for each individual farm
In other words, the marginal cost curve for the monopolist is the same as the industry-wide supply curve under perfect competition

But rather than face a relatively flat demand curve, monopolist would operate on the scale of the entire market demand


## Chapter 9: Monopoly and Imperfect Competition

E. Profit maximization
F. Price and output under perfect competition
G. Price and output under monopoly
H. Comparison of perfect competition with monopoly

## Monopolist will choose Q so that

 $M R=M C$P


Firm chooses level of output given by Q1



## Chapter 9: Monopoly and Imperfect

 CompetitionE. Profit maximization
$M R=M C$
F. Price and output under perfect competition


Comparison of industry-wide demand curve with individual producer's demand curve


## Chapter 9: Monopoly and Imperfect Competition

E. Profit maximization
F. Price and output under perfect competition
G. Price and output under monopoly
H. Comparison of perfect competition with monopoly


Firms better off under monopoly


Society worse off under monopoly


## Society worse off under monopoly




Adam Smith (1776):
An individual producer "neither intends to promote the public interest, nor knows how much he is promoting it ... [but is] led by an invisible hand to promote an end which was no part of his intention."

Why "invisible hand" works under perfect competition:
Marginal cost to firm from producing one more unit = resources that must be surrendered to produce the good
Marginal benefit to customer from producing one more unit is the price they're willing to pay

If marginal benefit to consumer (price) were greater than marginal cost of production, society would be better off producing one more unit.

Under perfect competition, marginal benefit to consumer (price) is set equal to marginal cost, and so social surplus is maximized.

Under monopoly, price (marginal benefit to consumer of getting more goods) is greater than marginal cost to society of producing one more unit.
Deadweight loss results when these desired goods don't get produced.

Deadweight loss represents goods that should be produced but aren't


## Chapter 9: Monopoly and Imperfect Competition

E. Profit maximization
F. Price and output under perfect competition
G. Price and output under monopoly
H. Comparison of perfect competition with monopoly
I. Price discrimination

Up to this point, we assumed that monopolist had to charge all customers the same price
Price discrimination: monopolist has the power to charge different people different prices for the same product


Demand for coke curve


"Perfect price discrimination": monopolist can charge each customer the maximal amount that customer is willing to pay
Under perfect price discrimination, marginal revenue would be the price

## Monopolist that can discriminate perfectly

Monopolist chooses to produce Q1
P


Firm is better off under perfect price discrimination


Producer surplus under perfect price discrimination


Consumers have zero surplus under perfect price discrimination


Value of benefit to firm of price discrimination exceeds loss to consumers


There is no deadweight social loss from perfect price discrimination


Price discrimination is hard to implement:
(1) It's against the law

Price discrimination is hard to implement:
(1) It's against the law
(2) All customers will try to buy at the lowest price
(3) Firm doesn't know each customer's maximal price
(4) Firm must be able to prevent resale

(3) Discounts for seniors, students, children, ...


First exam will be Thursday Feb 2 in class Exam will only cover Chapters 7, 9 \&10
Exam will have some multiple choice, some fill in the blank
Discussion sections that meet Feb 2 after the exam won't meet

Discussion sections that meet Jan 30-Feb 2 before the exam will meet

- Problem set 2: due week of Jan 23-27
- pages 247-248, probs \#2 a-b-c, \#5, \#6, \#7 a-e, \#9 a-e


## Chapter 9: Monopoly and Imperfect Competition

H. Comparison of perfect competition with monopoly

- Monopoly makes consumers worse off
- Monopoly makes producers better off
- Monopoly is inefficient


## Chapter 9: Monopoly and Imperfect Competition

H. Comparison of perfect competition with monopoly
I. Price discrimination

- Consumers worse off under price discrimination than usual monopoly
- Firm better off under price discrimination than usual monopoly
- Perfect price discrimination is efficient


## Chapter 9: Monopoly and Imperfect

 CompetitionH. Comparison of perfect competition with monopoly
I. Price discrimination
J. Natural monopoly



## Definition:

An industry in which an increase in the quantity produced leads to a decrease in average cost per unit is called a "natural monopoly"

This property is sometimes referred to as "increasing returns to scale"

Example: to refine petroleum products, there is an enormous fixed cost (build refinery) but thereafter marginal cost of additional production is roughly
 constant up to the capacity of the plant

Suppose you build an oil refinery for \$2 billion.

Each year you will have to pay interest on the debt, taxes, maintenance, insurance, etc. of say $\$ 200$ million.
This $\$ 200$ million per year is a fixed cost you pay even if you produce nothing.

For each gallon of gasoline you refine, you'll need to buy more crude oil, pay for more labor, energy, ...
Suppose this marginal cost of producing each additional gallon of gasoline is $\$ 1$ per gallon.

| Quantity <br> (gals/yr) | Fixed <br> cost | Marginal <br> cost | Total <br> cost | Average <br> cost |
| :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: |
| 0 | $\$ 200 \mathrm{M}$ | $\$ 1 /$ gal |  |  |
| 100 M | $\$ 200 \mathrm{M}$ | $\$ 1 /$ gal |  |  |
| 200 M | $\$ 200 \mathrm{M}$ | $\$ 1 /$ gal |  |  |
| 300 M | $\$ 200 \mathrm{M}$ | $\$ 1 /$ gal |  |  |
| 400 M | $\$ 200 \mathrm{M}$ | $\$ 1 /$ gal |  |  |


| Quantity <br> (gals/yr) | Fixed <br> cost | Marginal <br> cost | Total <br> cost | Average <br> cost |
| :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: |
| 0 | $\$ 200 \mathrm{M}$ | $\$ 1 / \mathrm{gal}$ | $\$ 200 \mathrm{M}$ | $\infty$ |
| 100 M | $\$ 200 \mathrm{M}$ | $\$ 1 / \mathrm{gal}$ | $\$ 300 \mathrm{M}$ | $\$ 3 / \mathrm{gal}$ |
| 200 M | $\$ 200 \mathrm{M}$ | $\$ 1 / \mathrm{gal}$ | $\$ 400 \mathrm{M}$ | $\$ 2 / \mathrm{gal}$ |
| 300 M | $\$ 200 \mathrm{M}$ | $\$ 1 / \mathrm{gal}$ | $\$ 500 \mathrm{M}$ | $\$ 1.67 / \mathrm{gl}$ |
| 400 M | $\$ 200 \mathrm{M}$ | $\$ 1 / \mathrm{gal}$ | $\$ 600 \mathrm{M}$ | $\$ 1.50 / \mathrm{gl}$ |


| Quantity <br> (gals/yr) | Fixed <br> cost | Marginal <br> cost | Total <br> cost | Average <br> cost |
| :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: |
| 0 | $\$ 200 \mathrm{M}$ |  |  |  |
| 100 M | $\$ 200 \mathrm{M}$ |  |  |  |
| 200 M | $\$ 200 \mathrm{M}$ |  |  |  |
| 300 M | $\$ 200 \mathrm{M}$ |  |  |  |
| 400 M | $\$ 200 \mathrm{M}$ |  |  |  |


| Quantity <br> (gals/yr) | Fixed <br> cost | Marginal <br> cost | Total <br> cost | Average <br> cost |
| :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: |
| 0 | $\$ 200 \mathrm{M}$ | $\$ 1 /$ gal | $\$ 200 \mathrm{M}$ |  |
| 100 M | $\$ 200 \mathrm{M}$ | $\$ 1 /$ gal | $\$ 300 \mathrm{M}$ |  |
| 200 M | $\$ 200 \mathrm{M}$ | $\$ 1 /$ gal | $\$ 400 \mathrm{M}$ |  |
| 300 M | $\$ 200 \mathrm{M}$ | $\$ 1 /$ gal | $\$ 500 \mathrm{M}$ |  |
| 400 M | $\$ 200 \mathrm{M}$ | $\$ 1 /$ gal | $\$ 600 \mathrm{M}$ |  |

## Marginal and average cost



Total cost is area of rectangle


Note that if the perfect competition condition ( $P=M C$ ) held in this industry, the firm would make a loss

Firm would make a loss if $P=M C$


Price and output decisions for natural monopoly


Price and output decisions for natural monopoly
\$ per unit



Price and output decisions for natural monopoly


Even a monopolist can still make a loss


## Chapter 9: Monopoly and Imperfect Competition

H. Comparison of perfect competition with monopoly
I. Price discrimination
J. Natural monopoly
K. Where do monopolies come from?

1. Cartels or producer co-operatives

Obstacles to running a cartel:
(1) They're illegal in the United States

## Sherman Antitrust Act (1890)

"Every contract, combination in the form of trust or otherwise, or conspiracy, in restraint of trade or commerce among the several States, or with foreign nations, is declared to be illegal. Every person who shall make any contract or engage in any combination or conspiracy hereby declared to be illegal shall be deemed guilty of a felony, and, on conviction thereof, shall be punished by fine not exceeding $\$ 10,000,000$ if a corporation, or, if any other person, $\$ 350,000$, or by imprisonment not exceeding three years, or by both said punishments, in the discretion of the court."

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corporation, or, if any other person, $\$ 350,000$, or by imprisonment not exceeding three years, or by both said punishments, in the discretion of the court."
Amended to: \$100 M and 10 years under H.R. 1086 (signed into law June 2004)

Go To


Jail


Prosecution of cartels is taken seriously.

Obstacles to running a cartel :
(1) They're illegal in the United States.
(2) Each member of a cartel has an incentive to cheat on their agreement.

OPEC: Organization of Petroleum Exporting Countries


Example: consider a cartel consisting of 10 countries each producing 2 million barrels of oil per day.
Marginal cost of production:

- Physical cost of added production
- Opportunity cost (oil may be worth more next year)


Then the marginal revenue for OPEC as a whole from producing another million barrels per day is:
\$40/b x 1 M b/day - \$1/b x 20 M b/day $=\$ 20 \mathrm{M} / \mathrm{day}$

Marginal cost we supposed was \$20/b, so additional cost of producing extra 1 M b/day is $\$ 20 \mathrm{M}$
Conclusion: $\mathrm{MR}=\mathrm{MC}=\$ 20 \mathrm{M}$
So for these figures, OPEC would currently be maximizing the collective profit of all its members


Most international cartels throughout history have fallen apart after a short period from these forces.

## But what about OPEC?

Many economists believe that OPEC in fact is not operating as a cartel, but is just a collection of countries each acting in its own interests.

## Chapter 9: Monopoly and Imperfect Competition

K. Where does monopoly or oligopoly come from?

1. Cartels or producer co-operatives

Problems: illegal in U.S. and incentive to cheat
2. Mergers or acquisitions

Actual figures:
OPEC produces $30 \mathrm{M} \mathrm{bl} /$ day Saudi Arabia alone produces 9 M bl/day OPEC = Saudi Arabia


Problems with merging to create monopoly:
(1) The merger can be challenged by
U.S. Department of Justice or Federal Trade Commission

- 1997: FTC blocked merger of Office Depot with Staples
- 2000: U.S. Department of Justice blocked merger of WorldCom and Sprint
- 1999: FTC approved the merger of Mobil and Exxon



## Chapter 9: Monopoly and Imperfect Competition

K. Where does monopoly or oligopoly come from?

1. Cartels or producer co-operatives
2. Mergers or acquisitions
3. High fixed costs and barriers to entry


## Chapter 9: Monopoly and Imperfect Competition

K. Where does monopoly or oligopoly come from?

1. Cartels or producer co-operatives
2. Mergers or acquisitions
3. High fixed costs and barriers to entry
4. Explicit government restrictions
a. Government licenses or franchises


Conclusion: environmental regulation can raise substantial barriers to entry and has made the U.S. gasoline industry substantially less competitive over the last 25 years



## Chapter 9: Monopoly and Imperfect Competition

K. Where does monopoly or oligopoly come from?
4. Explicit government restrictions
a. Government licenses or franchises
b. Patents and copyrights

Reason for copyright or patent:
There were big fixed costs in creating book (say, \$300,000)
Before book was written, "fixed costs" weren't fixed.

Before book was written, made a guess that would sell 10,000 copies
Marginal cost of writing one more book: \$300,000 "fixed cost"
+10,000 books x $\$ 20$ "marginal cost" per book
$=\$ 500,000$

Marginal revenue from one more book:
10,000 books x \$60/book

$$
=\$ 600,000
$$

Based on this market expectation, looked like a good deal
But if price only covered the marginal production cost of \$20/book, book would never have been written

Patents and copyright:
Government intentionally creates a legal monopoly for creator of original work in order to provide incentive for the work to have been created in the first place


Downloading music from the web
Marginal cost is nearly zero
"If I had to pay I wouldn't buy it, so what's the harm?"


Problem: if everybody could do this, what would be incentive to have produced music in the first place?
Issue: from the point of view of policy, are "fixed costs" really fixed?
Practical solution: patents and copyrights don't last forever

Chapter 9: Monopoly and Imperfect Competition
K. Where does monopoly or oligopoly come from?
4. Explicit government restrictions
5. Exclusive control over important inputs

- 63\% of the world's known oil reserves are in the Middle East
- $23 \%$ of the world total are in Saudi Arabia alone



Ability to exercise monopoly control limited by close substitutes
E.g., gasoline can be shipped from L.A. to San Diego by truck at extra cost over pipeline

## Chapter 9: Monopoly and Imperfect Competition

K. Where does monopoly or oligopoly come from?
4. Explicit government restrictions
5. Exclusive control over important inputs
6. Network economies

Network economies: users receive benefits when they all are using the same product


First exam will be Thursday Feb 2 in class Exam will only cover Chapters 7, 9 \& 10

DIRECTIONS: No calculators, books, or notes of any kind are allowed All papers and notebooks must remain closed and on the foor at al times throughout the exam, and students are not allowed to leave the examination room until finished. Answer all questions in the space provided with the exam. 105 points are possible on this exam.
HINTS: Feel free to use either of the following formulas if you find them useful.
Area of a triangle $=(1 / 2)$ (base) (height)
Area of a trapezoid $=(1 / 2)$ (base1 + base2) (height)
PART I: MULTIPLE CHOICE-circle the correct answer (4 points each, 72 points total)
PART II: FILL IN THE BLANK (33 points total)—credit for correct answer only (no partial credit)
For sample problems see problem sets 1 and 2.

Reminders of study resources:

- Lecture slides available from class web page
- Your text book and its study questions
- Copies of old exams from class web page
- AS Lecture notes available for sale in Old Student Center in Revelle College

