

An Economic Theory Masterclass

Part II: The Supply and Demand Paradigm

(An Intro to Chicago Price Theory)

Lones Smith

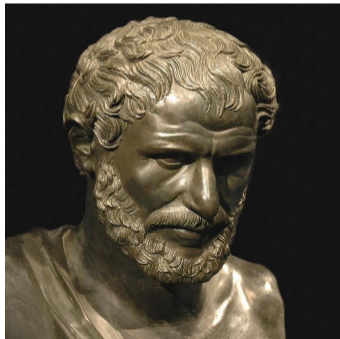
February 25, 2021

The Supply and Demand Paradigm

- ▶ competitive **price-taking** environment by all parties
- ▶ usually upward sloping supply curve
 - ▶ With returns to scale, supply price could fall with quantity (e.g. Amazon)
- ▶ usually downward sloping demand curve
 - ▶ very negative income effects \Rightarrow demand rises in price
 - ▶ addictive behavior \Rightarrow WTP rises with quantity (oh no, drugs)
- ▶ Each curve reflects both extensive and intensive margins -
 - ▶ extensive margins: entry/exit or double auction trade decisions:
 - ▶ WTP (willingness to pay) and WTA (willingness to accept)
 - ▶ intensive margins: people buying or less (double auction omitted this margin)
- ▶ These two curves answer out-of-equilibrium hypothetical “what if” questions: what would the supply and demand be at any other price?
- ▶ By parsing our logic into supply and demand, we can compartmentalize our analysis, and make clearer predictions

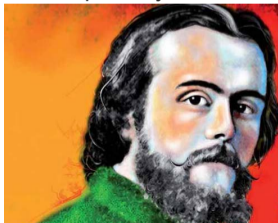
Stability — Does Competitive Equilibrium Happen?

- ▶ Supply price and quantity: P_S and Q_S
- ▶ Demand price and quantity: P_D and Q_D
- ▶ Supply and demand are not just static notions
- ▶ Units are per week, or per day, etc.
- ▶ Life is all about dynamics: Heraclitus — **Panta Rhei**
 - ▶ “All entities move and nothing remains still”
- ▶ “No man ever steps in the same river twice”

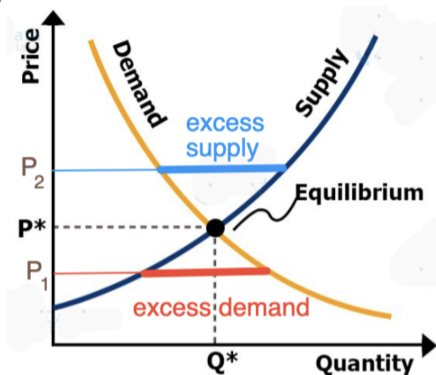


Stability — Does Competitive Equilibrium Happen?

- ▶ If the world is changing, should market equilibrium arise?
- ▶ We explore the adjustment *tatonnement* process (“groping”)
- ▶ **Walrasian price stability** (*Elements of Pure Economics*, 1874)
 - ▶ price adjustment process of fictional double auctioneer
 - ▶ If *net demand* is positive at some price, then the price rises
 - ▶ If net demand is negative, then the price decreases
 - ⇒ change in the price shares the sign of $Q_D - Q_S$.
- ▶ **Marshallian quantity stability**
 - ▶ Assume sellers are producers who adjust production after seeing demands
 - ▶ If demand price exceeds supply price at some quantity, quantity rises
 - ⇒ change in the quantity shares the sign of $P_D - P_S$.

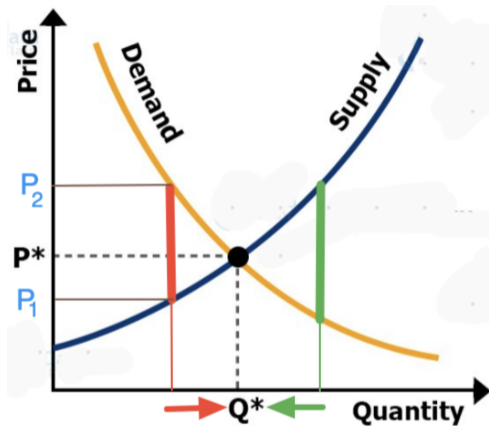


Walrasian Stability



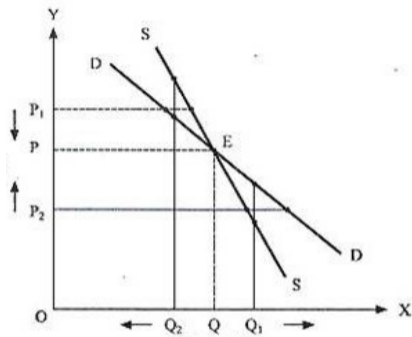
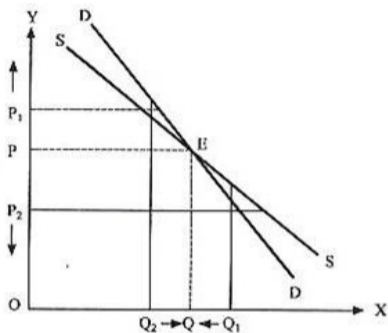
- ▶ Dynamic stories (sometimes explored in advanced theory):
 - ▶ random search by people who engage in pairwise bargaining over prices
 - ▶ forward-looking optimization about willingness to accept
 - ▶ During the adjustment, the **short side of the market** determines quantity.
 - ▶ Demanders won't demand more than they want at that price.
 - ▶ Suppliers won't sell more than they are willing at that price.

Marshallian Stability



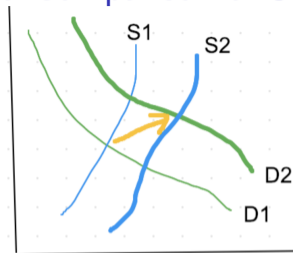
- ▶ Marshallian and Walrasian stability both work for standard downward-sloping demand and upward-sloping supply

Stability: Downward-sloping Demand and Supply



- ▶ demand steeper than supply \Rightarrow Walrasian unstable and Marshallian stable
- ▶ supply steeper than demand \Rightarrow Walrasian stable and Marshallian unstable

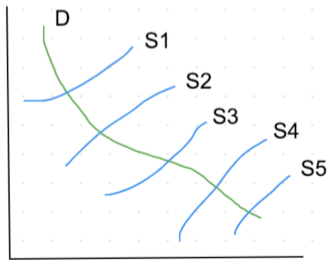
Comparative Statics aka Comparison of Steady States Analysis



- ▶ Standard assumption: monotone dynamics from one steady-state to the next
 - ⇒ comparing the two static situations is informative
 - ⇒ Hopefully suggests correct dynamics
- ▶ Famous counter example: “overshooting” model of Dornbusch (1976) in international finance (cited 6600 times)
 - ▶ After an unexpected influx of new money, the domestic price level adjusts slowly, but the exchange rate can adjust quickly.
 - ▶ Convergence to new steady-state is nonmonotone (overshoots)

Identification of Supply and Demand Curves

- ▶ price and quantity reflect both supply and demand.
- ▶ If you wanted to “identify” the demand curve, you find something that just shifts supply and leaves demand invariant.
- ▶ With enough variation in supply, we can identify the demand.
- ▶ Likewise, variation in demand but not supply would allow one to pin down the supply curve.



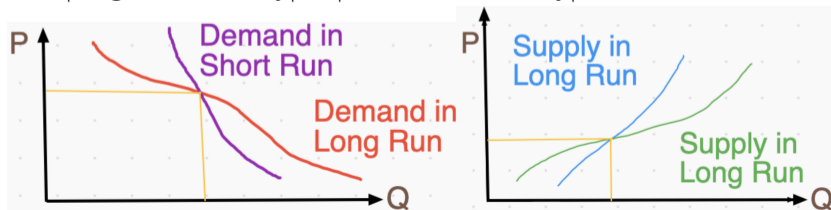
Elasticities Review

- ▶ For small price changes:

$$\varepsilon = \frac{dQ}{dP} \frac{P}{Q} = \frac{d \log Q}{d \log P} \approx \frac{\% \text{change quantity}}{\% \text{change price}}$$

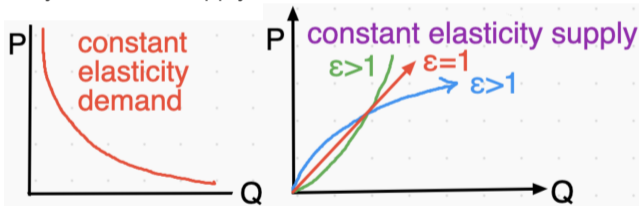
- ▶ Elasticity is a ratio of proportionate changes \Rightarrow unit-free!
- ▶ More elastic supply or demand \Rightarrow quantity changes more if price falls
- ▶ The **long run** has fewer constraints than the **short run**
- ▶ **Le Chatelier's Principle**: *The absolute change of any choice variable is weakly higher in the longrun than shortrun.* (see Varian; follows from profit function)

\Rightarrow |long run elasticity| > |short run elasticity|



Elasticities Review

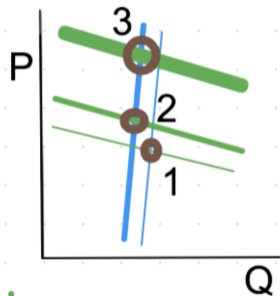
- ▶ Q1: Characterize constant elasticity rising supply curves.
Answer: Upward sloping supply curves, linear if $\varepsilon = 1$
- ▶ Q2: Characterize constant elasticity falling demand curves.
- ▶ Answer: Hyperbolic downward sloping curves: $P \propto Q^{1/\varepsilon}$, for $\varepsilon < 0$
 - ▶ Proof: Rewrite $Q'(P)P/Q = \varepsilon$ as $dQ/Q = \varepsilon dP/P$
 - ▶ Integrating yields $\Rightarrow \log Q = \varepsilon \log P + \log K \Rightarrow Q = KP^\varepsilon$.
 - ▶ Finally, $\varepsilon > 0$ for supply curve and $\varepsilon < 0$ for demand curve



- ▶ When $|\varepsilon| > 1$, we call the supply or demand **elastic**
- ▶ PS Demand elasticity is spoken of in absolute terms!
- ▶ PPS Behavioral SIR model: the demand for vigilance is constant elasticity

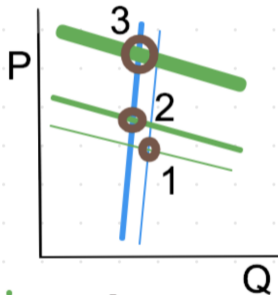
Large Price Volatility in the Oil Market

- ▶ Consider the facts of the oil or gasoline market
 - ▶ Huge price volatility
 - ▶ Minimal quantity volatility
 - ▶ Slow change in fundamentals



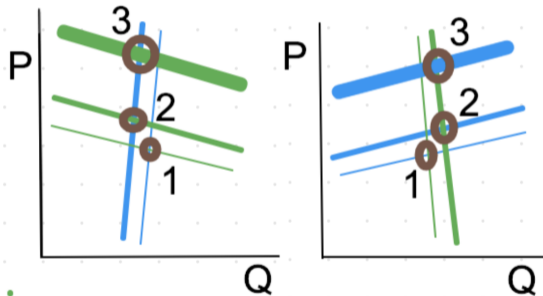
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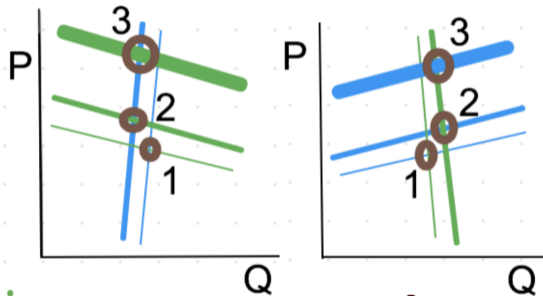
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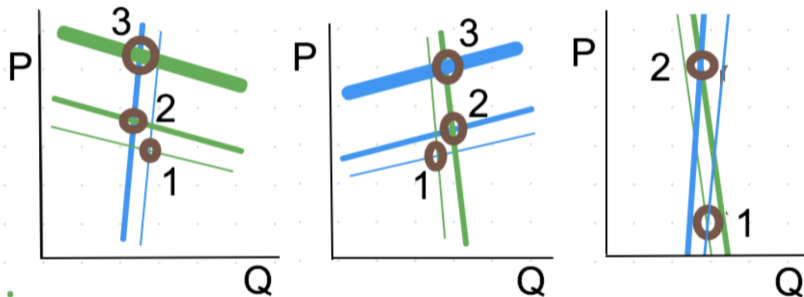
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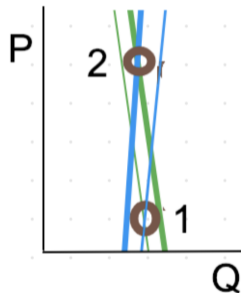
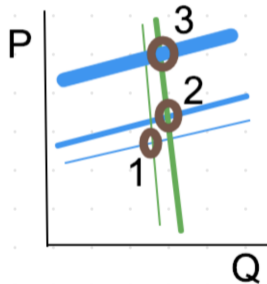
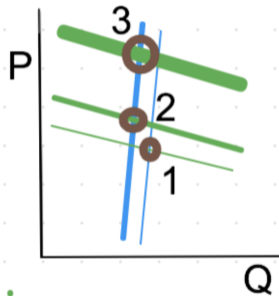
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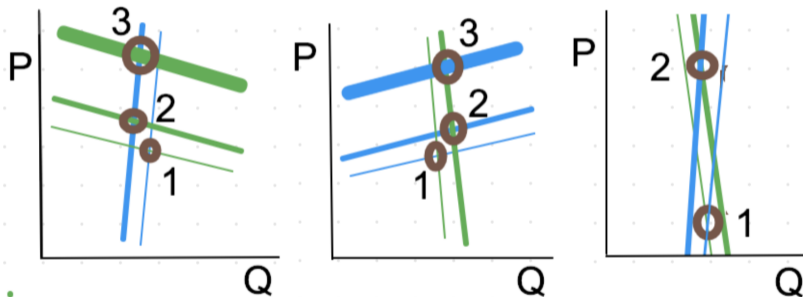
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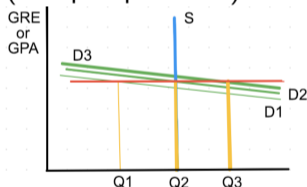
- ▶ Lesson 1: Small fundamentals shifts cause large proportionate price changes iff both supply and demand are highly inelastic.
- ▶ Lesson 2: Inelastic supply or demand \Rightarrow low quantity volatility

Price and Quantity Volatility

- ▶ Lesson 3: Small fundamentals changes can lead to large quantity changes iff supply and demand are highly elastic.
- ▶ Lesson 4: Elastic supply or demand \Rightarrow low price volatility
- ▶ Price volatility is greater in the short run
- ▶ Quantity volatility is greater in the long run

Large Quantity Volatility in an Implicit Market

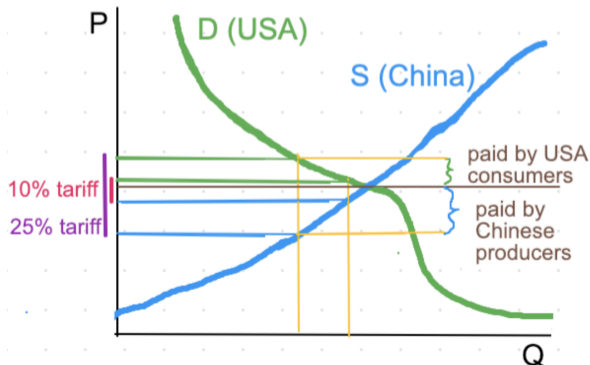
- ▶ College admissions is an “implicit market”, where the “price” is the admission bar (like risk of death is an implicit price in the pandemic in the BSIR)
- ▶ Chade, Lewis, and Smith (2014), “Student Portfolios and the College Admissions Problem” do not claim the conjectured demand curves (an open problem!)



- ▶ Without waitlisting, as in PhD admissions, acceptance bar mistakes can lead to massive changes in acceptance rates.
- ▶ 2017: UC-Irvine unadmitted 499 students

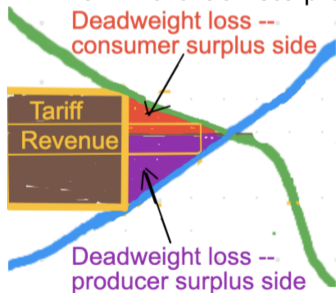
Shared Incidence or Tax or Tariff

- ▶ Trump added a 10% tariff on Chinese imports, to rise to 25%
- ⇒ wedge between supply and demand prices: $P_D > P_S$.
- ▶ Incidence: Who pays the tariff or tax?
- ▶ “China is paying us billions of dollars in tariffs.” — Trump
- ▶ Fact: The more elastic is demand, the less of the tariff buyers pay.
- ▶ Fact: The more elastic is supply, the less of the tariff suppliers pay.



Deadweight Loss of Tax

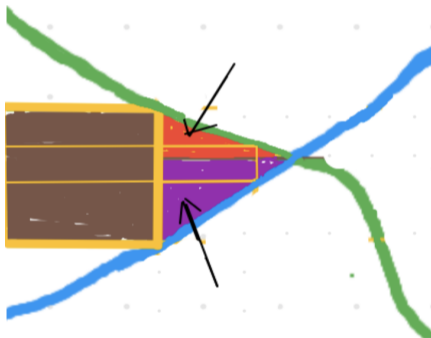
- ▶ Double auctions: No effect of small tax! Here: small effect.
 - ▶ Lost gains from trade = lost consumer + producer surplus
 - ▶ Assume tariff revenue is socially neutral: gain to government balances loss to producers or consumers
- ⇒ deadweight loss (excess burden) of tariff is red + purple
- ▶ Tariff revenue rises proportionately less than the tariff rise



← Taxes erase marginal trades

Changes in the Deadweight Loss of Tax

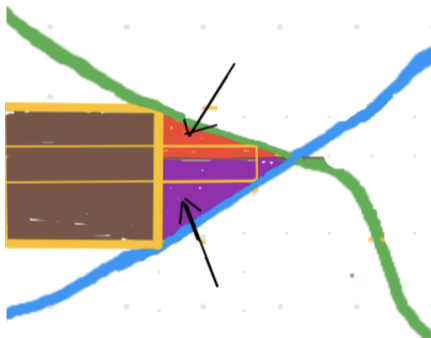
- ▶ The deadweight loss of a tariff increases in the quantity reduction, larger with more inelastic demand or supply



(more elastic S and D)
(longrun?)

Changes in the Deadweight Loss of Tax

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(less elastic S and D)
(shortrun?)

Taxes — Basic Accounting Insights

- ▶ Tariff or sales or *ad valorem* tax: $P_D(Q) = P_S(Q) + \tau P_S(Q)$
- ▶ *Specific tax* τ : $P_D(Q) = P_S(Q) + \tau$
- ▶ Wisconsin specific tax examples
 - ▶ gas tax: state 32.9¢ and federal 18.4¢ per gallon
 - ▶ Beer: 6¢/gallon and wine: 25¢/gallon and liquor: \$3.25/gallon
 - ▶ Also exists for cigarettes
- ▶ A sales tax is paid by demanders \Rightarrow down-shift in demand
- ▶ VAT is paid by suppliers (hidden in price) \Rightarrow up-shift in supply

Theorem (Tax Irrelevance Theorem)

Regardless of whether demand or supply pays the tax, the demand and supply prices, market quantity, and efficiency loss are the same.

- ▶ Specific tax is easier to analyze: parallel demand / supply shift

Tax Incidence and Elasticities

- ▶ Double auctions: No effect of small tax!
- ▶ **Tax Incidence:** The more inelastic side of the market pays more of a tax and benefits more from a subsidy
- ▶ Demand elasticity $\epsilon = (dQ_D/dP_D)(P_D/Q_D) < 0$
- ▶ Supply elasticity $\eta = (dQ_S/dP_S)(P_S/Q_S) > 0$

Theorem (Incidence Theorem)

Who pays the tax is irrelevant for tax incidence! It is always true that the share of a small tax τ paid by demand is $\frac{\eta}{\eta - \epsilon} \leq 1$, and by supply is $\frac{-\epsilon}{\eta - \epsilon} \leq 1$.

- ▶ *Proof:* Impose a small excise tax $\tau \equiv dP_D - dP_S > 0$
- ▶ $dQ \approx \epsilon dP_D(Q/P)$ and $dQ \approx \eta dP_S(Q/P) \Rightarrow \epsilon dP_D \approx \eta dP_S$

$$\Rightarrow dP_D \approx \frac{\eta}{\eta - \epsilon} \tau > 0 \quad \text{and} \quad dP_S \approx \frac{\epsilon}{\eta - \epsilon} \tau < 0$$

Deadweight Loss for Small Taxes

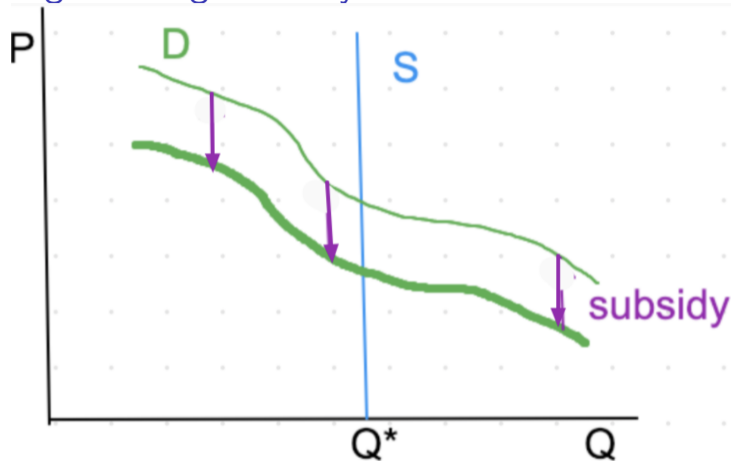
- ▶ Since $\epsilon = (dQ_D/dP_D)(P_D/Q_D)$, the quantity changes by

$$dQ = \epsilon \frac{dP_D Q}{P_D} \approx \epsilon \left(\frac{\eta}{\eta - \epsilon} \right) \tau \left(\frac{Q}{P_D} \right) = \left(\frac{1}{\frac{1}{\epsilon} - \frac{1}{\eta}} \right) \tau \left(\frac{Q}{P_D} \right)$$

- ▶ **Deadweight loss:** Lost gains from trade = lost CS + PS
- ▶ Hence, the deadweight loss is the area of the standard triangle:

$$\frac{1}{2}(dQ)(dP_D - dP_S) = \frac{1}{2}(dQ)\tau = \left(\frac{1}{\frac{1}{\epsilon} - \frac{1}{\eta}} \right) \left(\frac{Q}{2P_D} \right) \tau^2$$

Michigan College Subsidy Eliminated



- ▶ In 2009, Michigan ended the Promise Scholarship program, giving 96,000 in-state students up to \$4,000 for college
- ▶ Who fought to keep it? Colleges!
- ▶ Another fixed supply context: the “death effect” for artists

Optimal Taxes: the Ramsey Inverse Elasticity Rule

- ▶ Tax revenue falls when the tax rises if the demand is elastic:

$$[Q(P + \tau)\tau]' = Q(P + \tau) + Q'(P + \tau)\tau = Q(P + \tau)[1 + \varepsilon \frac{\tau}{P + \tau}]$$

⇒ never tax an elastically demanded good

- ▶ Optimal taxes seek to minimize deadweight losses for any given revenue
- ▶ This paper predated the 1950 invention of Kuhn Tucker analysis!!
- ▶ Ramsey (1927): Minimize the social cost of raising revenue R

$$\max V(p + \tau, I) \text{ s.t. } \tau \cdot x(p + \tau, I) \geq R$$

where $V(p, I)$ is the indirect utility function for prices p and wages w

- ▶ **Ramsey inverse elasticity rule:**
“taxes should be proportional to the sum of the reciprocals of its supply and demand elasticities”
- ▶ ⇒ governments shouldn't tax elastically demanded goods or supplied goods



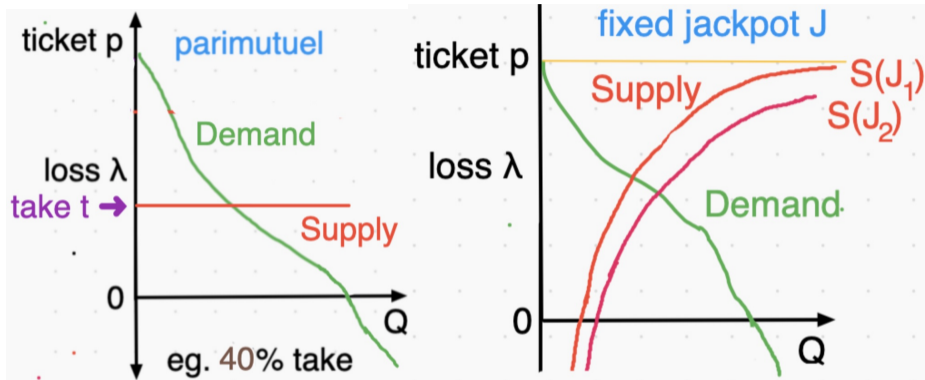
Optimal Taxation Theory Explains Real World Taxes

- ▶ Ramsey's basic insight is intuitively understood by governments
- ▶ They know to tax inelastically supplied resources:
 - ▶ Oil taxes, mineral taxes
 - ▶ existence tax: poll tax (head tax) in Britain (fertility impact?)
 - ▶ wealth taxes are usually real estate, or at death taxes
 - ▶ millionaire tax? billionaire tax?
- ▶ More rationality \leftrightarrow more elastic response
 - ▶ Example: Does income reflect effort, ability, luck or networks?
 - ▶ Tax luck or ability or networks — inelastically supplied.
 - ▶ “The harder I work, the luckier I get.” — Sam Goldwyn
- ▶ Funny example of a tax fail:
 - ▶ 2008, Maryland “millionaire's tax” of 6.25% tax rate on income $>$ \$1 million
 - ▶ 30% drop in millionaire's taxpayers and 22% drop in declared income.
 - ⇒ income taxes from this group fell by \$257 million
 - ▶ Tax ended in 2010

Application of Supply and Demand to Rollover Lotteries

- ▶ Why do people gamble? Risk neutral Quasi-linear story: People gamble if the expected utility of winnings plus the thrill of playing exceeds the ticket price p .
- ▶ Quantity Q tickets sold for a drawing
- ▶ We treat this as an implicit market where the expected losses λ from tickets as the “net price” of thrill of the lotto experience.
- ▶ **Parimutuel** pays out a fixed percentage of bets: λ is constant
 - ▶ Odds are fixed, prize is variable
- ▶ **Classic lotto**: fixed jackpot J (giant panda or \$1M): $\lambda = p - J/Q$
 - ▶ Prize is fixed, odds are variable
- ▶ In a **Genoese lottery**, people pick their own numbers: If no one wins, the prize rolls over; if many win, the prize is shared.
- ▶ Powerball and Megamillions are Genoese lottos, with a fixed first place prize (jackpot from past lottos) plus lesser classic lottos
 - ▶ Odds are $259M : 1$ for Megamillions and $292M : 1$ for Powerball.
- ▶ Demand curve is the locus of lotto losses vs thrill, could be negative

Supply Curve of Lotto Losses, as the Jackpot Rises



- ▶ parimutuel lottery revenue $\lambda D(\lambda)$ rises in take λ if demand is inelastic
- ▶ Supply curves shift down as the jackpot rises, negative for large J .
- ▶ Rollovers increase the jackpot, and shift the supply curve — identifying demand

Supply / Demand Curves: Intensive and Extensive Margins

- ▶ We introduced the supply and demand in the double auction
- ▶ There, all gains from trade — namely, producer plus consumer surplus — reflect heterogeneity.
- ▶ We now allow a realistic intensive margin,
 - ▶ Output from every firm, and consumption from every consumer, increases in the market price
 - ▶ the producer surplus also increases in cost convexity, and consumer surplus increases in preference convexity
- ▶ We just flesh out the logic for supply curves

Supply Curves: Intensive and Extensive Margins

- ▶ A cost is **escapable** if can be avoided.
- ▶ Otherwise, it is inescapable or “sunk”.
- ▶ Since such costs are unavoidable, they cannot possibly affect behavior, and should be ignored in all optimizations

= essence of dynamic programming

- ▶ A **fixed cost** is invariant to the quantity.
- ▶ A **variable cost** is not.
- ▶ So variable costs are escapable, since one can adjust them down to zero by not producing anything.
- ▶ **Marginal costs** \Leftrightarrow **intensive margins**
- ▶ **Average costs** \Leftrightarrow **extensive margins**

Short, Medium, Long Runs

- ▶ As the run increases, there are more choice margins, and so inescapable costs \rightsquigarrow escapable (e.g., rental contracts end).
- ▶ **Short run**
 - ▶ fixed costs are inescapable; cost function is just variable costs
 - ▶ Insufficient time for entry; reducing output to zero
- ▶ **Long run**
 - ▶ All costs are escapable, and so are included in the cost function
 - ▶ firms enter if there are profits to be made and otherwise exit
 - ▶ John Maynard Keynes: “In the long run we are all dead” (short run theory)
- ▶ **“Medium run”**
 - ▶ more decision margins available, and so more costs escapable, than in the short run, and fewer than in the long run.
- ▶ Time Magazine Cover 12/31/1965
- ▶ “We are all Keynesians now.”
(Milton Friedman)



Long Run Supply

▶ Industry supply curve

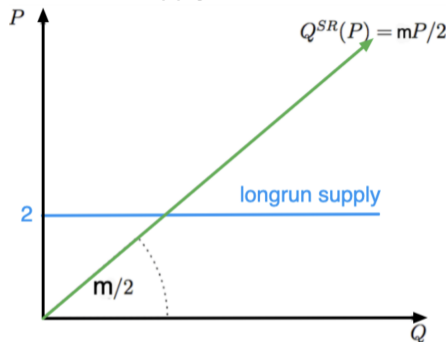
- ▶ price-quantity locus (P, Q) , such that, the allowable firms — i.e., the existing firms in the short run, or all potential firms in the long run — profitably produce Q taking price P as given
- ▶ Note: price-taking behavior is incredible with few firms
- ▶ Cost functions $C(q) = 1 + q^2$ (fixed cost 1 & variable cost q^2)
- ▶ Optimal production: $P = C'(q) = 2q \Rightarrow$ output $q = P/2$.
- ▶ For the long run, firms earn nonnegative profits with all costs escapeable, and no firm wishes to enter or exit.
- ▶ Entry \Rightarrow long run supply is more elastic (Le Chetalier's Principle)
- ▶ The least price needed for production is 2, since:

$$2q = C'(q) = P \geq C(q)/q = \frac{1}{q} + q \Rightarrow 2q \geq \frac{1}{q} + q \Rightarrow q \geq 1 \Rightarrow P \geq 2$$

- ▶ Consequently, the long run inverse supply curve is $P = 2$.

Example of Supply with Homogeneous Firms

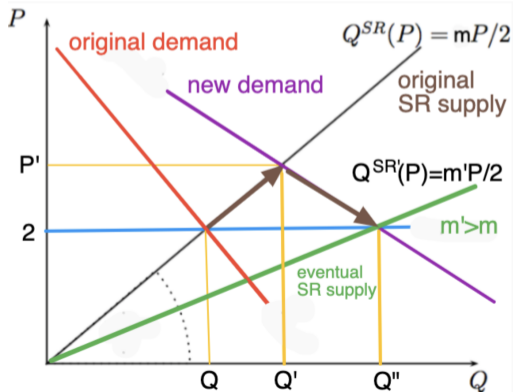
- ▶ Short run supply with mass m of firms: $Q_m^{SR}(P) = mq = mP/2$ (🤖)



- ▶ Just after entry, all firms earn zero profits (equal quantities)
- ▶ The short run supply curve rises simply due to cost convexity.
- ▶ All short run profits owe to cost convexity (diminishing returns)
- ▶ This intensive margin effect — firms sell more with a higher price — was absent with double auctions

Supply and Demand Shifts with Homogeneous Firms

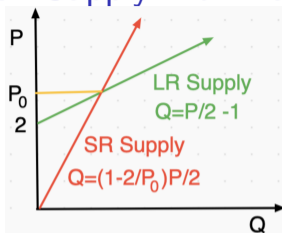
- ▶ Assume a demand shock, from an old to a new demand curve.
- ▶ In the short run, every firm rides up its supply curve
 - ▶ The price increases to $P' > 2$ and the quantity to $Q' = Q^{SR}(P') > Q$
 - ▶ temporary positive profits during adjustment are called **quasi-rents**
- ▶ Over time, entry occurs; the mass of firms rises from m to $m' > m$, during which time, the price falls to 2, while quantity rises to $Q'' > Q'$



Example — Supply with Heterogeneous Firms

- ▶ Firm with cost index x has costs $C_x(q) = 1 + x^2 q^2$
- ▶ Assume the index x has a unit mass density on $[1, \infty)$
- ▶ Higher index firms produce less output q_x when positive
 - ▶ Supply of firm x is $MC_x = P \Rightarrow$ linear supply $q_x(P) = P/(2x^2)$ 😬
- ▶ Short run: No one shuts down:
 $AC_x(q) = x^2 q_x < 2x^2 q_x = MC_x(q) = P$
- ▶ Long run
 - ▶ The fixed cost 1 is escapable, and included in costs
 $\Rightarrow AC_x(q) = 1/q_x + x^2 q_x = 2x^2/P + P/2 \leq P$ for all firms $x \leq P^2/4$
 - ▶ The marginal firm $x(P) = P/2$ earns zero profits
 - \Rightarrow U-shaped average costs
 - \Rightarrow minimum efficient scale: $x^2 - 1/q_x^2 = 0$, or $q_x^* = 1/x < 1$.
 - \Rightarrow The minimum average cost is $2x \geq 2$
 - ▶ The price must pay for the minimum average costs, and so exceed 2.

Long Run vs. Short Run Supply with Heterogeneous Firms



- ▶ Long run supply is sum of all output by inframarginal firms $x \leq x(P)$:

$$Q_S^{LR}(P) = \int_1^{x(P)} q_x(P) dx = \int_1^{P/2} P/(2x^2) dx = [P/2] [-x^{-1}]_1^{P/2} = \frac{1}{2}P - 1$$

- ▶ The supply curve now rises due to cost convexity and heterogeneity
- ▶ Market supply is more elastic than firm supply
- ▶ For a fixed price P_0 , we can define the induced short run supply curve:

$$Q_S^{SR}(P|P_0) = \int_1^{x(P_0)} P/(2x^2) dx = [P/2] [-x^{-1}]_1^{x(P_0)} = (P/2)[1 - 2/P_0]$$

Concluding Thoughts on Extensive and Intensive Margins

- ▶ **Inframarginal firms earn positive profits**
 - ▶ = returns to a fixed factor, like a location or other fixed asset.
 - ▶ If this asset is properly priced, the accounting profits disappear.
- ▶ As economics expands, are new economists as good as the old ones?
- ▶ iOS / Apple / Windows ecosystems etc. are enclosed economies where these dynamics play out
- ▶ Demand with Heterogeneous Consumers: As a market expands, the new consumers like the good less (eg. lotteries) but may also consume less of it