

# Intermediate Microeconomic Theory

Tools and Step-by-Step Examples

## Chapter 10: Monopoly

# Outline

- Barriers to entry
- Profit Maximization Problem (PMP)
- Common Misunderstandings of Monopoly
- The Lerner Index and Inverse Elasticity Pricing Rule
- Multiplant Monopolist
- Welfare Analysis under Monopoly
- Advertising in Monopoly
- Monopsony

# Barriers to Entry

# Barriers to entry

*“Why do monopolies exist in the first place if they are bad for society?”*

- **Structural barriers:** Incumbent firms may have advantages that are unattractive for potential entrants.
  - Cost advantage (e.g., superior technology)
  - Demand advantage (e.g., large group of loyal customers)
- **Legal barriers:** Incumbents firms may be legally protected.
  - *Example:* Patents.
- **Strategic barriers:** Incumbent firms can take actions to deter entry, by building a reputation of being a tough competitor.
  - *Example:* Price wars.

# Profit Maximization Problem (PMP)

# Profit Maximization Problem

- In a monopolized industry,
  - A single firm decides the output level,  $q = Q$ .
  - A change in  $q$  affects market prices, as measured by the inverse demand function  $p(q)$ , which decreases in  $q$ .
  - *Example* (linear inverse demand):

$$p(q) = a - bq, \text{ where } a, b > 0$$

- When the monopolist sells few units (low values of  $q$ ), consumers are willing to pay a relatively high price for the scarce good.
- As the firm offers more units (larger values of  $q$ ), consumers are willing to pay less for the relatively abundant good.

# Profit Maximization Problem

- **PMP:** The monopolist chooses its output  $q$  to maximize its profits  $\pi$

$$\max_q \pi = TR(q) - TC(q) = p(q)q - TC(q).$$

- Differentiating with respect to  $q$ ,

$$p(q) + \frac{\partial p(q)}{\partial q} q - \frac{\partial TC(q)}{\partial q} = 0.$$

- Rearranging,

$$\underbrace{p(q) + \frac{\partial p(q)}{\partial q} q}_{\text{Marginal revenue, } MR(q)} = \underbrace{\frac{\partial TC(q)}{\partial q}}_{\text{Marginal cost, } MC(q)}.$$

# Profit Maximization Problem

- Therefore, to maximize profits, the monopolist increases its output  $q$  until

$$MR(q) = MC(q).$$

- If  $MR(q) > MC(q)$ , the monopolist would have incentives to increase output  $q$  because its revenues increases more than its cost.
- If  $MR(q) < MC(q)$ , the monopolist would have incentives to decrease its output  $q$ .



# Profit Maximization Problem

- A closer look at marginal revenue,

$$MR(q) = \underbrace{p(q)}_{\text{Positive effect}} + \underbrace{\frac{\partial p(q)}{\partial q} q}_{\text{Negative effect}}.$$

- When monopolist increases output by 1 unit, this additional unit produces 2 effects on firm's revenue:
  - **Positive effect.** If the firm sells 1 more unit, it earns  $p(q)$ , and the firm's revenue increases.
  - **Negative effect.** When offering 1 more unit, the firm needs to decrease the price of previous units sold,  $\frac{\partial p(q)}{\partial q} < 0$ .
- In summary, the total effect of increasing output must exactly offset the additional costs of producing 1 more unit,  $MR(q) = MC(q)$ .

# Profit Maximization Problem

- *Example 10.1: Positive and negative effects of selling more units.*
  - Consider  $p(q) = 10 - 3q$ . If the firm were to marginally increase its output,

$$\begin{aligned}MR(q) &= p(q) + \frac{\partial p(q)}{\partial q} q \\ &= (10 - 3q) + (-3)q \\ &= 10 - 6q.\end{aligned}$$

- If the firm sells  $q = 2$  units,

$$TR(1) = p(2)2 = (10 - 3 \times 2)2 = \$8.$$

# Profit Maximization Problem

- *Example 10.1* (continued):

- Evaluating  $MR(q)$  at  $q = 2$  units yields

$$MR(2) = (10 - 3 \times 2) + (-3)2 = 4 - 6 = -\$2.$$

- The monopolist's revenue experiences:
  - A **positive effect** of \$4 because it now sells 1 more unit at price \$4.
  - A **negative effect** because selling 1 more unit entails applying a price discount of \$3 on all previous units.
  - Overall, these two effect generates a total (net) decrease in revenue of \$2.

# Profit Maximization Problem

- *Example 10.2: Finding marginal revenue with linear demand.*

- Consider  $p(q) = a - bq$ . Marginal revenue is

$$MR(q) = p(q) + \frac{\partial p(q)}{\partial q} q = (a - bq) + (-b)q = a - 2bq.$$

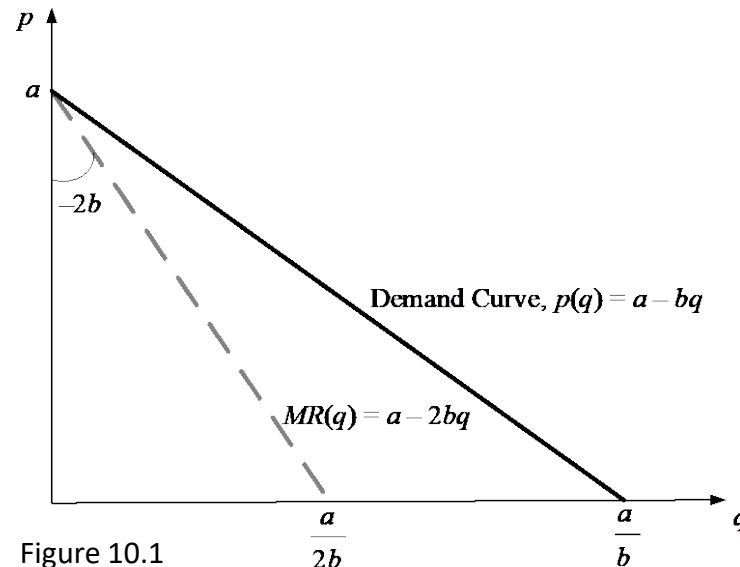


Figure 10.1

# Profit Maximization Problem

- Two properties of marginal revenue curve:

1)  $MR(q)$  lies below the demand curve.

We need,

$$MR(q) \leq p(q),$$

$$p(q) + \frac{\partial p(q)}{\partial q} q \leq p(q) \rightarrow \frac{\partial p(q)}{\partial q} q \leq 0.$$

2)  $MR(q)$  and the demand curve originate at the same height.

At  $q = 0$ ,

$$p(0) = a - b \times 0 = a,$$

$$MR(0) = p(0) + \frac{\partial p(q)}{\partial q} q = p(0) = a.$$

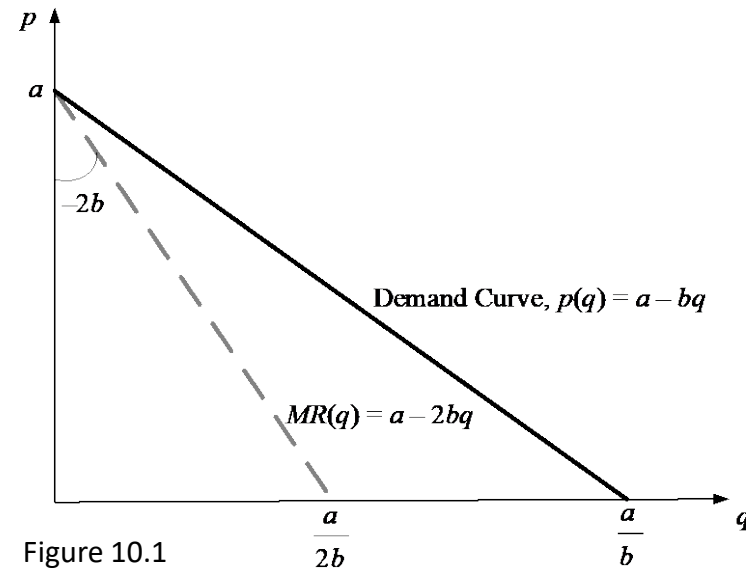


Figure 10.1

# Profit Maximization Problem

- *Example 10.3: Finding monopoly output with linear demand.*

- Consider  $p(q) = a - bq$ , and  $TC(q) = cq$ , where  $c > 0$ .
- The monopolist maximizes its profits by solving

$$\max_q \pi = TR(q) - TC(q) = \underbrace{(a - bq)q}_{TR} - \underbrace{cq}_{TC}$$

- Differentiating with respect to  $q$  yields

$$a - 2bq - c = 0.$$

- Rearranging,

$$\underbrace{a - 2bq}_{MR(q)} = \underbrace{c}_{MC(q)}$$

# Profit Maximization Problem

- *Example 10.3* (continued):

- Rearranging,

$$a - c = 2bq.$$

- Solving for output  $q$ ,

$$q^M = \frac{a - c}{2b}.$$

- We find the monopoly price by inserting this output into the inverse demand function

$$\begin{aligned} p(q^M) &= a - bq^M = a - b \overbrace{\left(\frac{a-c}{2b}\right)}^{q^M} \\ &= \frac{2ab - b(a - c)}{2b} = \frac{a + c}{2}. \end{aligned}$$

# Profit Maximization Problem

- *Example 10.3* (continued):

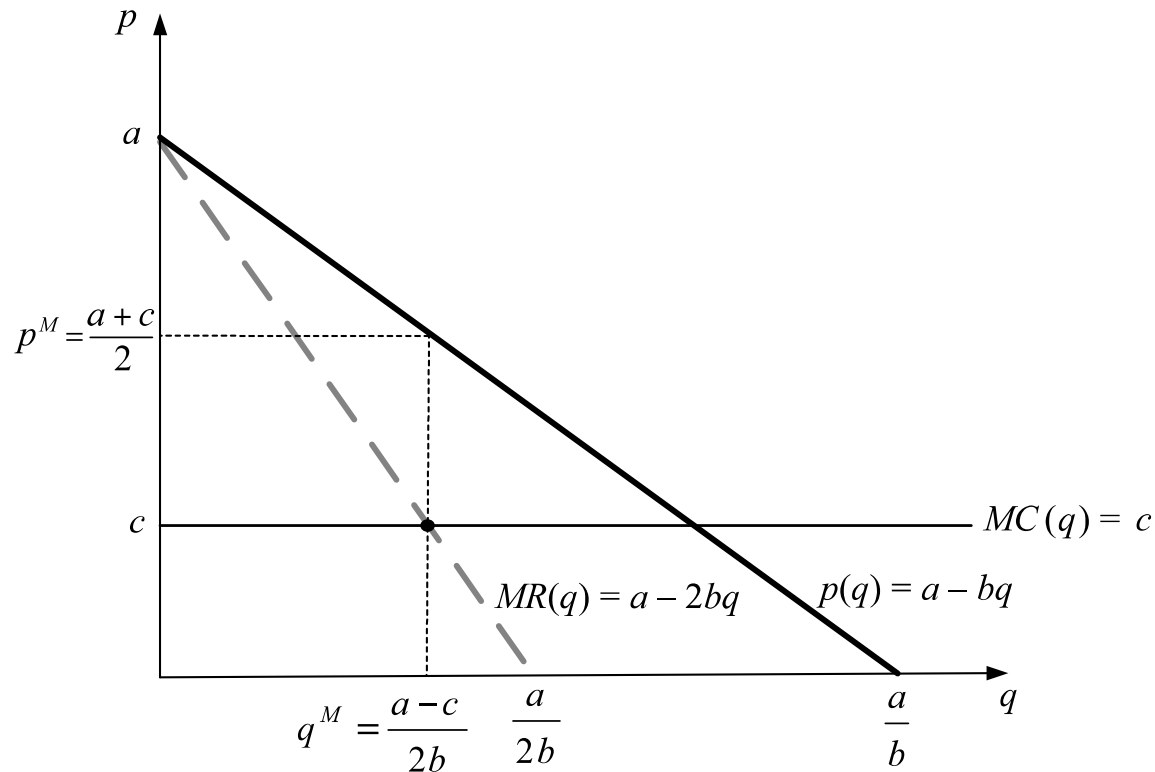


Figure 10.2



# Profit Maximization Problem

- *Example 10.3* (continued):
  - Monopoly profits are

$$\begin{aligned}\pi^M &= p(q^M)q^M - cq^M \\ &= \frac{a+c}{2} \cdot \frac{a-c}{2b} - c \frac{a-c}{2b} \\ &= \left( \frac{a+c}{2} - c \right) \frac{a-c}{2b} \\ &= \frac{(a-c)^2}{4b}.\end{aligned}$$

# Profit Maximization Problem

- *Example 10.3* (continued):
  - Consumer surplus under this monopoly is

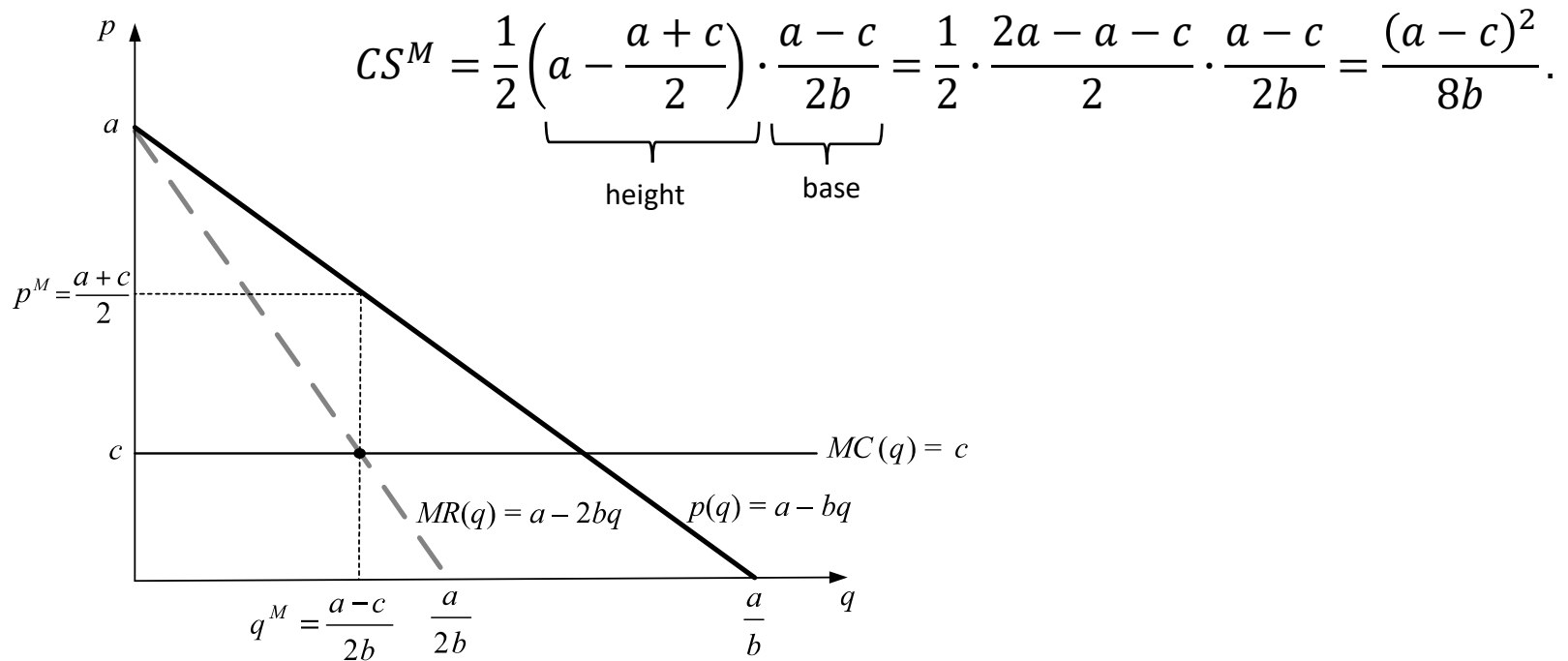


Figure 10.2

# Profit Maximization Problem

- *Example 10.3* (continued):

- If inverse demand is  $p(q) = 10 - q$  (i.e.,  $a = 10$  and  $b = 1$ ), and  $TC(q) = 4q$  (i.e.,  $c = 4$ )

- $q^M = \frac{a-c}{2b} = \frac{10-4}{2} = 3$  units.

- $p^M = a - bq^M = \$7$ .

- $\pi^M = \frac{(a-c)^2}{4b} = \frac{(10-4)^2}{4} = \frac{36}{4} = \$9$ .

- $CS^M = \frac{(a-c)^2}{8b} = \frac{(10-4)^2}{8} = \frac{36}{8} = \$4.5$ .

# Common misunderstandings of Monopoly

# Common Misunderstandings

## 1. *Monopolies do not set infinitely high prices.*

- While the monopolist is the only firm in its industry, it faces a demand curve  $p(q)$ , such as  $p(q) = a - bq$ .
- Setting higher prices might be attractive but could lead to fewer sales.
- This trade-off implies the monopolist does not set an infinitely high price because it would imply no sales at all.
  - In example 10.3, any price above  $p = \$a$  (e.g., \$10 if  $a = 10$ ) entails no sales.

# Common Misunderstandings

## 2. *The monopolist does not have a supply curve.*

- A common misunderstanding is to consider that  $q^M$ , where  $MR(q) = MC(q)$ , constitutes the monopolist's supply curve.
- In perfectly competitive markets, the firm observes the given market price offers the output that satisfies  $p = MC(q)$ , obtaining the supply function  $q(p)$ .
- In a monopoly, the monopolist determines output and price simultaneously.
  - In example 10.3, when the monopolist chooses  $q^M = 3$  units, it simultaneously determines  $p^M = 10 - 3 = \$7$ , not allowing the firm to choose different output levels for a given market price of  $p^M = \$7$ .

# Common Misunderstandings

3. *The monopolist produces in the elastic portion of the demand curve.*
- Goods with few (or no) close substitutes tend to have a relatively inelastic demand curve.
  - Monopolies often produce goods with no close substitutes. However, it does not mean that it produces in the inelastic portion of the demand curve.

# Common Misunderstandings

## 3. *The monopolist produces in the elastic portion of the demand curve.*

- Consider the formula of price elasticity of demand

$$\varepsilon_{q,p} = \frac{\% \Delta q}{\% \Delta p}$$

- If the monopolist produces in the inelastic portion of the demand curve,  $|\varepsilon_{q,p}| < 1$ , an increase in price by 1% reduces sales by less than 1%. It would increase its price, as sales would not be greatly affected but it would not be profit maximizing.
- If it produces in the elastic segment,  $|\varepsilon_{q,p}| > 1$ , an increase in price by 1% reduces sales by more than 1%. The firm does not have incentives to adjust its price.



# Common Misunderstandings

- *Example 10.5: Price elasticity of output  $q^M$  under linear demand.*
  - Consider the monopolist in example 10.3, facing  $p(q) = 10 - q$ .
  - We found  $q^M = 3$  units, and  $p^M = \$7$ .
  - We find price elasticity as

$$\varepsilon_{q,p} = \frac{\% \Delta q}{\% \Delta p} = \frac{\Delta q}{\Delta p} \cdot \frac{p}{q}.$$

- If the change in price is small,  $\varepsilon_{q,p} = \frac{\partial q(p)}{\partial p} \cdot \frac{p}{q}$ .

# Common Misunderstandings

- *Example 10.5* (continued):

- From the inverse demand function, we obtain the direct demand function,  $q(p) = 10 - p$ . Then,

$$\varepsilon_{q,p} = \frac{\partial q(p)}{\partial p} \cdot \frac{p^M}{q^M} = -1 \frac{7}{3} \cong -2.33.$$

- If the monopolist increases prices by 1%, its sales decrease by 2.33%.
- Therefore,  $|\varepsilon_{q,p}| = 2.33 > 1 \rightarrow$  the monopolist sets a price  $p^M$  lying in the elastic portion of the demand curve.

# The Lerner Index and Inverse Elasticity Pricing Rule

# The Lerner Index

- We can rewrite the profit-maximizing condition for the monopolist,  $MR(q) = MC(q)$ , to show a relationship between margin,  $p - MC(q)$ , and price elasticity,  $\varepsilon_{q,p}$ ,

$$p(q) + \frac{\partial p(q)}{\partial q} q = MC(q).$$

- Marginal revenue can be rearranged as

$$MR(q) = p \left( 1 + \frac{\partial p(q)}{\partial q} \cdot \frac{q}{p} \right),$$

$$MR(q) = p \left( 1 + \frac{1}{\frac{\partial q(p)}{\partial p} \cdot \frac{p}{q}} \right) = p \left( 1 + \frac{1}{\varepsilon_{q,p}} \right).$$

# The Lerner Index

- Substituting this expression of  $MR(q)$  into  $MR(q) = MC(q)$ ,

$$p \left( 1 + \frac{1}{\varepsilon_{q,p}} \right) = MC(q).$$

- Rearranging,  $p + p \frac{1}{\varepsilon_{q,p}} = MC(q)$ , or  $p - MC(q) = -p \frac{1}{\varepsilon_{q,p}}$ .

- Dividing both sides by  $p$  yields,

$$\frac{p - MC(q)}{p} = -\frac{1}{\varepsilon_{q,p}}.$$

- Which is known as the “Lerner Index”:
  - A monopolist’s ability to set a price above marginal cost is inversely related to the price elasticity of demand.

# The Lerner Index

- The “Lerner Index” is also known as the “markup index” because it measures the price markup over marginal cost.
- As demand becomes relatively **elastic**, (i.e., a more negative number) the price markup decreases.

- *Example:* If  $\varepsilon_{q,p} = -4$ ,

$$-\frac{1}{\varepsilon_{q,p}} = -\frac{1}{-4} = 0.25,$$

price markup over marginal cost decreases to 25%.

# The Lerner Index

- As demand becomes relatively **inelastic**, the price markup increases.

- *Example:* If  $\varepsilon_{q,p} = -0.5$ ,

$$-\frac{1}{\varepsilon_{q,p}} = -\frac{1}{-0.5} = 2,$$

price markup of 200%.

# The Lerner Index

- *Example 10.6: Lerner index with a linear demand.*
  - Consider market inverse demand function is  $p(q) = 10 - q$ .
  - Solving for  $q$ , we obtain direct demand  $q(p) = 10 - p$ .
  - Which yields and elasticity of

$$\begin{aligned}\varepsilon_{q,p} &= \frac{\partial q(p)}{\partial p} \cdot \frac{p}{q} \\ &= -1 \frac{p}{10 - p}.\end{aligned}$$



# The Lerner Index

- *Example 10.6* (continued):
  - Assuming  $MC(q) = 4$ , the Lerner Index becomes

$$\frac{p - MC(q)}{p} = -\frac{1}{\varepsilon_{q,p}},$$
$$\frac{p - 4}{p} = -\left(\frac{1}{-1 \frac{p}{10 - p}}\right).$$

# The Lerner Index

- *Example 10.6* (continued):

- Rearranging terms,

$$\frac{p - 4}{p} = \frac{10 - p}{p}.$$

- Which simplifies to

$$p - 4 = 10 - p.$$

- And solving for price,  $p = \$7$ .

# The Lerner Index

- *Example 10.7: Lerner index with constant elasticity demand.*

- Consider monopolist facing demand curve

$$q(p) = 5p^{-\varepsilon}.$$

- Assuming  $MC(q) = \$4$ , the Lerner Index becomes

$$\frac{p - 4}{p} = -\frac{1}{\varepsilon_{q,p}}.$$

# The Lerner Index

- *Example 10.7* (continued):

- If demand curve is  $q(p) = 5p^{-2}$  (i.e.,  $\varepsilon = -2$ ),

$$\frac{p - 4}{p} = -\frac{1}{-2},$$

which simplifies to  $2p - 8 = p$ , or  $p = \$8$ .

- If demand function changes to  $q(p) = 5p^{-5}$ ,

$$p = \frac{20}{4} = \$5.$$

As demand becomes more elastic, price decreases.

# Inverse elasticity pricing rule (IEPR)

- Using the Lerner index, and solving for price

$$\frac{p - MC(q)}{p} = -\frac{1}{\varepsilon_{q,p}},$$

$$p = \frac{MC(q)}{1 + \frac{1}{\varepsilon_{q,p}}}.$$

which is known as the “inverse elasticity price rule” (IEPR)

- *Example:* If  $MC(q) = \$4$  and  $\varepsilon_{q,p} = -2$ ,

$$p = \frac{4}{1 + \frac{1}{-2}} = \frac{4}{\frac{1}{2}} = \$8.$$

# Multipiant Monopoly

# Multiplant Monopoly

- Consider a monopoly producing in two plants (factories),
  - $q_1$  is the output produced in plant 1,
  - $q_2$  is the output produced in plant 2,
  - $Q = q_1 + q_2$  represents total output across plants.
- The monopolist maximizes the joint profits from both plants

$$\begin{aligned}\max_{q_1, q_2} \pi &= \pi_1 + \pi_2 = \underbrace{TR_1(q_1, q_2) - TC_1(q_1)}_{\pi_1} + \underbrace{TR_2(q_1, q_2) - TC_2(q_2)}_{\pi_2} \\ &= [p(q_1, q_2) \times q_1 - TC_1(q_1)] \\ &\quad + [p(q_1, q_2) \times q_2 - TC_2(q_2)] \\ &= p(q_1, q_2) \times (q_1 + q_2) - TC_1(q_1) - TC_2(q_2)\end{aligned}$$

# Multipiant Monopoly

- Differentiating with respect to  $q_1$ , yields

$$\underbrace{p(q_1, q_2) + \frac{\partial p(q_1, q_2)}{\partial q_1}}_{MR_1} = \underbrace{\frac{\partial TC_1(q_1)}{\partial q_1}}_{MC_1},$$

- And differentiating with respect to  $q_2$ ,

$$\underbrace{p(q_1, q_2) + \frac{\partial p(q_1, q_2)}{\partial q_2}}_{MR_2} = \underbrace{\frac{\partial TC_2(q_2)}{\partial q_2}}_{MC_2},$$

- In the special case that  $\frac{\partial p(q_1, q_2)}{\partial q_1} = \frac{\partial p(q_1, q_2)}{\partial q_2}$ ,  $MR_1 = MR_2 = MR$ .
- The multipiant monopoly maximizes its joint profits at

$$MR = MC_1 = MC_2.$$



# Multiplant Monopoly

- When  $\frac{\partial p(q_1, q_2)}{\partial q_1} = \frac{\partial p(q_1, q_2)}{\partial q_2}$ ,

$$MR_1 = MR_2 = MR.$$

- This occurs when prices are affected to the same extent when either plant increases its productions, if  $p(q_1, q_2) = 300 - q_1 - q_2$ .
- The multiplant monopoly only needs to equate marginal costs across plants.

# Multipiant Monopoly

- When  $\frac{\partial p(q_1, q_2)}{\partial q_1} \neq \frac{\partial p(q_1, q_2)}{\partial q_2}$ ,

$$MR_1 \neq MR_2.$$

- This may occur if  $p(q_1, q_2) = 300 - q_1 - 0.5q_2$ .
- The multipiant monopoly maximizes joint profits when  $MR_1 = MC_1$  and  $MR_2 = MC_2$ .

# Multipiant Monopoly

- *Example 10.8: Multipiant Monopoly.*

- Consider  $p(Q) = 100 - Q = 100 - q_1 - q_2$
- Assume the e monopolist operates 2 plants
  - Plant 1 (US) with  $TC_1(q_1) = 5 + 12q_1 + 6(q_1)^2$
  - Plant 2 (Chile) with  $TC_2(q_2) = 5 + 18q_2 + 3(q_2)^2$
- The monopolist chooses  $q_1$  and  $q_2$  to maximize joint profits from both plants

$$\max_{q_1 \geq 0, q_2 \geq 0} \pi = \pi_1 + \pi_2 = \underbrace{(100 - q_1 - q_2)q_1 - TC_1(q_1)}_{\pi_1} + \underbrace{(100 - q_1 - q_2)q_2 - TC_2(q_2)}_{\pi_2}$$

# Multipoint Monopoly

- *Example 10.8* (continued):

- Differentiating with respect to  $q_1$ ,

$$100 - 2q_1 - q_2 - 12 - 12q_1 - q_2 = 0,$$

$$88 - 14q_1 - 2q_2,$$

$$q_1 = \frac{44 - q_2}{7}.$$

- Similarly, differentiating total profits with respect to  $q_2$ ,

$$100 - q_1 - 2q_2 - 18 - 6q_2 - q_1 = 0,$$

$$82 - 2q_1 - 8q_2,$$

$$q_2 = \frac{41 - q_1}{4}.$$

# Multiplant Monopoly

- *Example 10.8* (continued):

- Inserting the result for  $q_2$  into  $q_1$ , we obtain

$$q_1 = \frac{44 - q_2}{7} = \frac{44 - \left(\frac{41 - q_1}{4}\right)}{7},$$

which simplifies to  $7q_1 = \frac{135 - q_1}{4}$ , yielding an optimal production in the US plant of  $q_1 = 5$  units.

- The optimal production in the Chilean plant is  $q_2 = \frac{41 - 5}{4} = 9$  units.
- Aggregate output is  $Q = q_1 + q_2 = 5 + 9 = 14$  units.
- In summary, the monopoly produces a share of  $\frac{q_1}{Q} = \frac{5}{14} \cong 0.36$  in the US plant, and  $\frac{q_2}{Q} = \frac{9}{14} \cong 0.64$  in the Chilean plant.

# Multipiant Monopoly

- The analysis about how the multipiant monopolist determines  $Q$ , and how it distributes such production among its plants,  $q_1$  and  $q_2$ , is analogous to a “cartel” problem.
- A **cartel** is a group of firms (equivalent to a monopolist with different plants) coordinating their production decisions to increase their joint profits.
  - *Example*: Organization of the Petroleum-Exporting Countries (OPEC).
    - Some countries have a lower  $MC$  (i.e., lower cost of extracting an additional barrel of oil), such as Saudi Arabia.
    - Other countries have higher  $MC$ , such as Angola o Venezuela.
    - They coordinate their total production and distribute it among the cartel participants.

# Welfare Analysis under Monopoly

# Welfare Analysis

- Output is lower under monopoly than under perfectly competitive industries, entailing a higher price.
- Consumer surplus is much smaller than under perfect competition because customers pay more per unit and buy fewer units.
- In contrast, profits are larger.
- However, the firm's profit gain does not compensate for the loss in consumer surplus, yielding a net loss in social welfare.



# Welfare Analysis

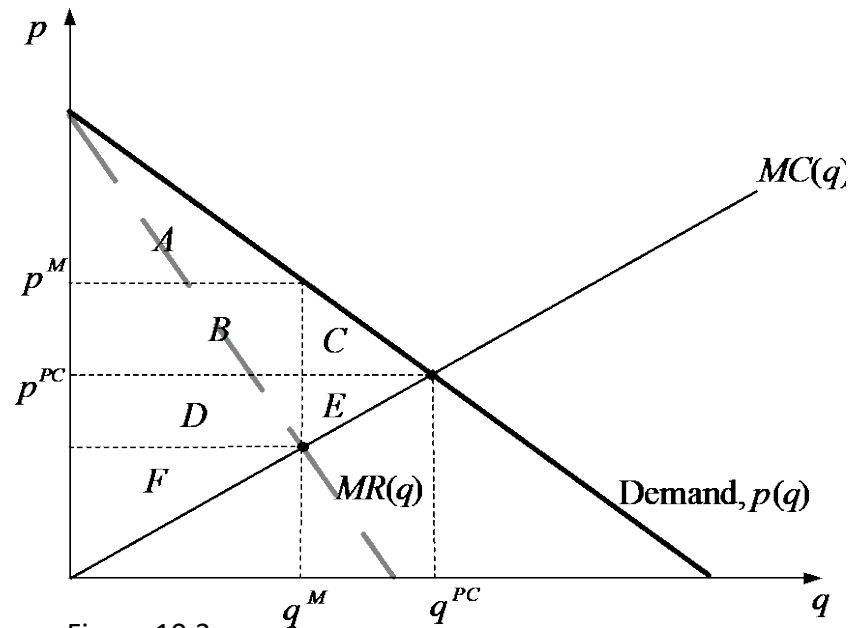


Figure 10.3

Table 10.1

	Perfect Competition	Monopoly	Difference
Consumer Surplus	$A + B + C$	$A$	$-B - C$
Profits	$D + E + F$	$D + F + B$	$B - E$
Welfare	$A + B + C + D + E + F$	$A + D + F + B$	$-C - E$ } “Deadweight loss”

# Welfare Analysis

- *Example 10.9: Finding the deadweight loss of a monopoly.*
  - Consider  $p(q) = 10 - q$  and  $MC(q) = 4$ .

Monopoly	Perfect Competition
$q^M = 3$ units	$q^{PC} = 6$ units
$p^M = \$7$	$p^{PC} = \$4$
$CS^M = \frac{1}{2}(10 - 7)3 = \$4.50$	$CS^{PC} = \frac{1}{2}(10 - 4)6 = \$18$
$\pi^M = (7 \times 3) - (4 \times 3) = \$9$	$\pi^{PC} = (4 \times 6) - (4 \times 6) = \$0$
$W^M = CS^M + \pi^M$ $= 4.5 + 9 = \$13.50$	$W^{PC} = CS^{PC} + \pi^{PC}$ $= 18 + 0 = \$18$

$$W^{PC} - W^M = 18 - 13.50 = \$4.50.$$

# Welfare Analysis

- *Example 10.9* (continued):
  - Deadweight loss under this monopoly is

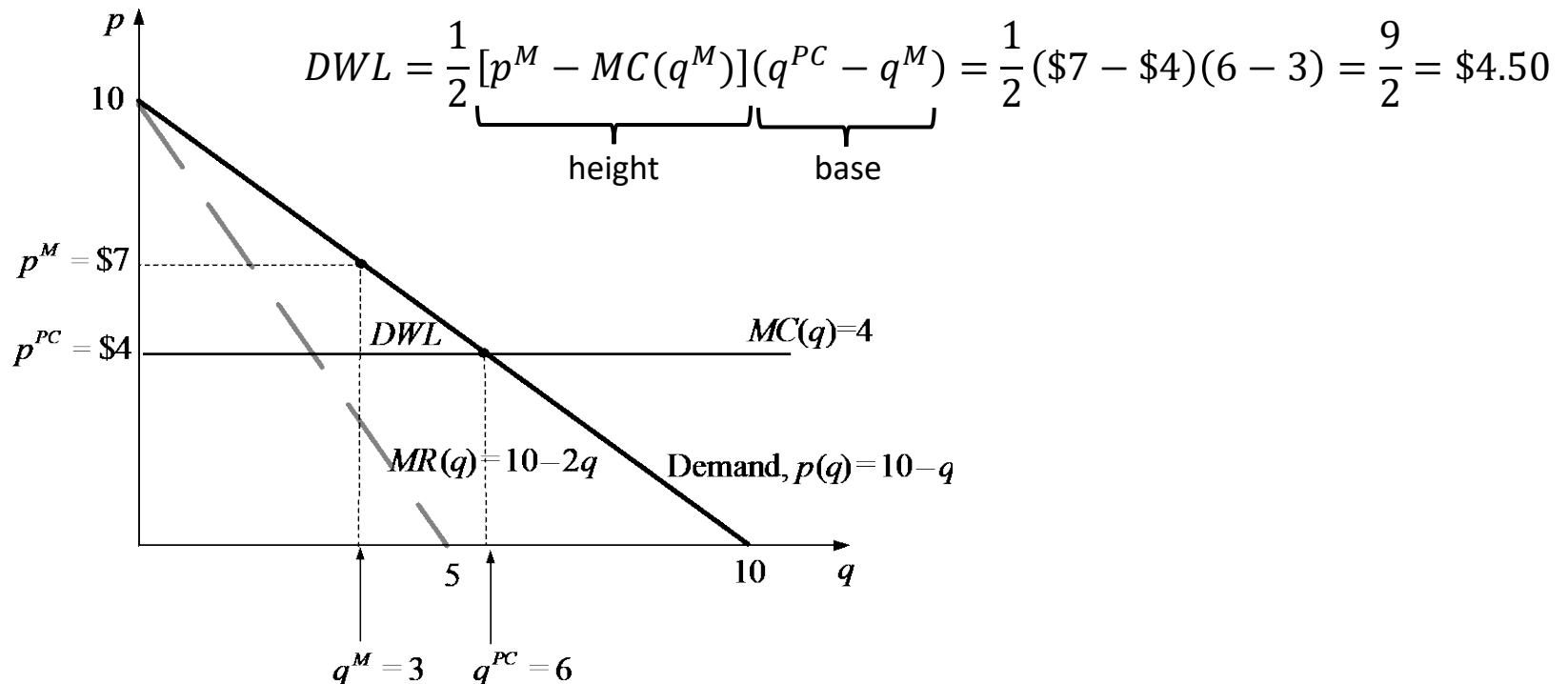


Figure 10.4

# Advertising in Monopoly

# Advertising in Monopoly

- When investing in advertising, the monopolist faces a trade-off: advertising increases demand but it is costly.
- To find the profit-maximizing amount of advertising,  $A$ ,

$$\max_A \pi = TR - TC - A.$$

- We can rewrite this problem as

$$\begin{aligned}\max_A \pi &= (p \times q) - TC(q) - A \\ &= [p \times q(p, A)] - TC[q(p, A)] - A.\end{aligned}$$

- where  $q = q(p, A)$  represents the demand function (sales) which is decreasing  $p$ , and increasing in  $A$ .

# Advertising in Monopoly

- Differentiating with respect to the amount of advertising  $A$ ,

$$p \frac{\partial q(p, A)}{\partial A} - \frac{\partial TC}{\partial q} \cdot \frac{\partial q(p, A)}{\partial A} - 1 = 0.$$

- Rearranging,

$$(p - MC) \cdot \frac{\partial q(p, A)}{\partial A} = 1.$$

# Advertising in Monopoly

- Let us define the advertising elasticity of demand,  $\varepsilon_{q,A}$ , as

$$\varepsilon_{q,A} = \frac{\% \text{ increase in } q}{\% \text{ increase in } A} = \frac{\frac{\Delta q}{q}}{\frac{\Delta A}{A}} = \frac{\Delta q}{\Delta A} \cdot \frac{A}{q}.$$

- In the case of a small change in  $A$ , the elasticity  $\varepsilon_{q,A}$  can be

written as  $\varepsilon_{q,A} = \frac{\partial q(p,A)}{\partial A} \cdot \frac{A}{q}.$

- Rearranging, we find  $\varepsilon_{q,A} \cdot \frac{q}{A} = \frac{\partial q(p,A)}{\partial A}.$

# Advertising in Monopoly

- Therefore, we can rewrite the profit-maximizing condition as

$$(p - MC) \underbrace{\varepsilon_{q,A}}_{\frac{\partial q(p,A)}{\partial A}} \cdot \frac{q}{A} = 1.$$

- Dividing both sides by  $\varepsilon_{q,A}$  and rearranging,

$$p - MC = \frac{1}{\varepsilon_{q,A}} \cdot \frac{A}{q}.$$

- Dividing both sides by  $p$ , we find

$$\frac{p - MC}{p} = \frac{1}{\varepsilon_{q,A}} \cdot \frac{A}{pq}.$$



# Advertising in Monopoly

- From the IERP, we know

$$\frac{p-MC}{p} = -\frac{1}{\varepsilon_{q,p}}.$$

- Hence,

$$-\frac{1}{\varepsilon_{q,p}} = \frac{1}{\varepsilon_{q,A}} \cdot \frac{A}{pq}.$$
$$-\frac{\varepsilon_{q,A}}{\varepsilon_{q,p}} = \frac{A}{pq}.$$

- The right side represents the **advertising-to-sales ratio**.
- For two markets with the same  $\varepsilon_{q,p}$ , the advertising-to-sales ratio must be larger in the market where demand is more sensitive to advertising (higher  $\varepsilon_{q,A}$ ).

# Advertising in Monopoly

- *Example 10.11: Monopolist's optimal advertising ratio.*
  - Consider a monopolist with price elasticity of demand of  $\varepsilon_{q,p} = -1.5$  and advertising elasticity  $\varepsilon_{q,A} = 0.1$ .
  - The advertising-to-sales ratio should be

$$\begin{aligned}\frac{A}{pq} &= -\frac{\varepsilon_{q,A}}{\varepsilon_{q,p}} \\ &= -\frac{0.1}{-1.5} = 0.067.\end{aligned}$$

- Advertising should account for 6.7% of this monopolist's total revenue.

# Monopsony

# Monopsony

- **Monopsony**: only one buyer in the market and several sellers.
  - *Examples*: small labor markets, such as a mine or Walmart superstore in a small town.
- The buyer (employer) will be able to pay less for each hour of labor (lower wages) than if it had to compete against other employers, as in a perfectly competitive market.

# Monopsony

- Consider a firm (e.g., a coal mine) with production function  $q = f(L)$ , which:
  - increases with the number of workers hired,  $f'(L) > 0$ ,
  - but at a decreasing rate,  $f''(L) < 0$ .

- The profits of the coal mine is given by

$$\pi = TR - TC = pq - w(L)L.$$

- The firm extracts  $q$  units of coal, each sold at price  $p$ , yielding  $TR = pq$ .
- The firm hires  $L$  workers, paying each of them a wage of  $w(L)$ .
  - $w'(L) > 0$ , as the firm hires more workers, labor becomes scarce, and a more generous wage must be offered to attract new workers.

# Monopsony

- The monopsonist's PMP is

$$\max_{L \geq 0} \pi = pq - w(L)L = pf(L) - w(L)L.$$

- Intuitively, this problem says “choose the number of workers you plan to hire,  $L$ , so as to maximize your profits.”
- Differentiating with respect to  $L$ ,

$$pf'(L) - [w(L) + w'(L)L] = 0.$$

- Rearranging,

$$\underbrace{pf'(L)}_{MRP_L} = \underbrace{w(L) + w'(L)L}_{ME_L}.$$

# Monopsony

$$\underbrace{pf'(L)}_{MRP_L} = \underbrace{w(L) + w'(L)L}_{ME_L}$$

- $MRP_L$  (“marginal revenue product” of labor):
  - After hiring 1 more worker (increase in  $L$ ), the firm produces  $f'(L)$  more units of output (e.g., coal), sold at a price  $p$ .
- $ME_L$  (“marginal expenditure” on labor). After hiring 1 more worker, the firm experiences an increase in cost:
  - This extra worker must be paid  $w(L)$ .
  - The additional worker is only attracted to the job if the firm offers her a higher salary because labor becomes scarcer. Such a wage increase,  $w'(L)$ , must be passed on to all existing worker, entailing a cost increase of  $w'(L)L$ .

# Monopsony

- *Example 10.12: Finding optimal  $L$  in monopsony.*

- Consider a coal company in a small town with production function  $q = 100 \times \ln(L)$ .
- It faces an international perfectly competitive price of coal,  $p = \$8$ .
- Assume the supply curve for labor is  $w(L) = 3 + \frac{1}{2}L$ . Then,

$$MRP_L = pf'(L) = 8 \times 100 \frac{1}{L} = \frac{800}{L}.$$

$$ME_L = w(L) + w'(L)L = \left(3 + \frac{1}{2}L\right) + \frac{1}{2}L = 3 + L.$$



# Monopsony

- *Example 10.12* (continued):

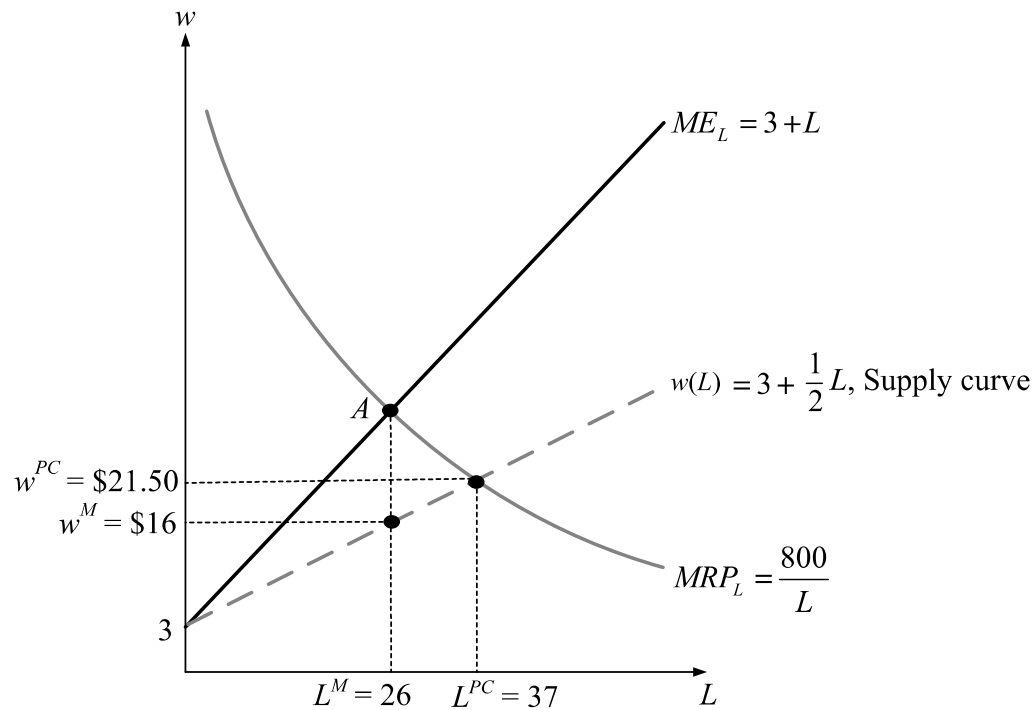


Figure 10.5

# Monopsony

- *Example 10.12* (continued):

- Setting  $MRP_L = ME_L$ ,

$$\frac{800}{L} = 3 + L,$$

which expanding yields  $800 = 3L + L^2$  or

$$L^2 + 3L - 800 = 0.$$

- Solving for  $L$ , we find  $L = -29.82$  and  $L = 26.82$ . Because the firm must hire a positive number of workers (or zero), we find that  $L^M = 26$  workers is optimal.
- At  $L^M = 26$ , wages become  $w(26) = 3 + 26 \times \frac{1}{2} = \$16$ .

# Monopsony

- *Example 10.12* (continued):

- Under a perfectly competitive labor market, we have  $MRP_L = w(L)$ , that is,

$$\frac{800}{L} = 3 + \frac{1}{2}L,$$

which expanding yields  $800 = 3L + \frac{L^2}{2}$ .

- Solving for  $L$ , we obtain  $L = -43.11$  and  $L = 37.11$ . Then  $L^{PC} = 37$  is the optimal number of workers.
- At  $L^{PC} = 37$ , wages become  $w(37) = 3 + \frac{1}{2}37 = \$21.5$ .