Monopoly and monopoly behavior

Varian: Intermediate Microeconomics, 8e, chapters 24 and 25

In this lecture you will learn

- how monopoly chooses optimal price/quantity
- what natural monopoly is and how to regulate it
- what the advantages and disadvantages of patents are
- how to profit on different pricing strategies
- what the equilibrium in monopolistic competition looks like



Definition of monopoly

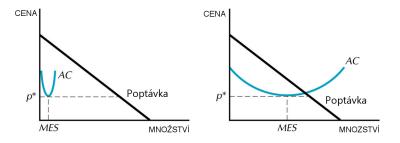
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Monopolies can may arise for different reasons:

- exclusive ownership of an important input (diamonds, rubber)
- exclusive licences or franchises (Czech Railways, Czech Post Office)
- patents (pharmaceutical industry, mobile technologies, ...)
- natural monopoly = large MES (network industries)



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Profit maximizing monopoly considers output y^* at which

- marginal revenues equal marginal costs,
- *MC* is steeper than *MR*.

Maximizing profits (cont'd)

If a monopoly has negative profits at y^* , it may not produce y^* .

In the SR, monopoly shuts down, i.e. produces y = 0 if

$$p(y^*)y^* - c_v(y^*) - F < -F \iff p(y^*) < AVC(y^*),$$

where $c_v(y)$ are variable costs and F fixed costs.

In the LR, monopoly exits the industry if

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CAUTION!

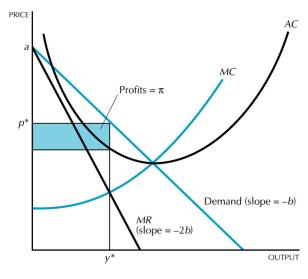
Contrary to competitive firms, monopoly does not have a supply curve, because $p(y^*) > MC(y^*)$ (one price \rightarrow more quantities).

Example – a linear demand curve

Demand: p(y) = a - byTotal revenue: $r(y) = ay - by^2$

Marginal revenue: MR(y) = a - 2by

Profit: $\pi = (p(y^*) - AC(y^*))y^*$



Demand function: p(y) = 10 - yCost function: c(y) = 2y + F, where F = 10

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Would y^* in the LR change if QF = 20? Yes. Monopoly would exit the market.

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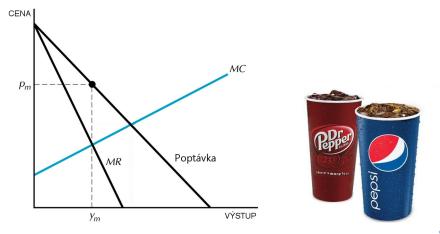
$$p(y^*) \left(1 + 1/\epsilon(y^*)\right) = MC(y^*)$$

$$\frac{p^*}{MC(y^*)} = \frac{1}{1 - 1/|\epsilon(y^*)|}$$

EXAMPLE: Elasticity for Coke and Dr. Pepper

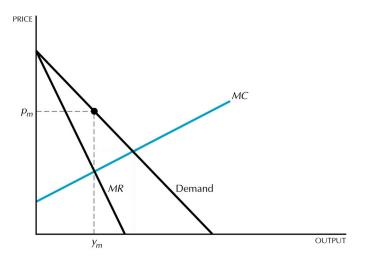
Dubé (JEMS, 2005) – $\epsilon_{Pepsi} = -3,07$ and $\epsilon_{Dr.Pepper} = -6,03$

If the producers were monopolists: p/MC = 1,48 (Pepsi) 1,2 (Pepper)



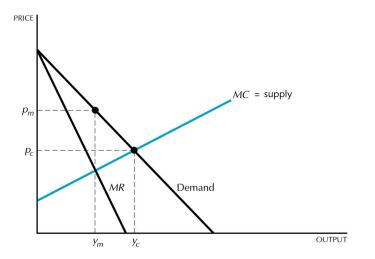
Inefficiency of monopoly

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Monopoly: $MR(y_m) = MC(y_m)$ Perfect competition: $p_c = MC(y_c)$

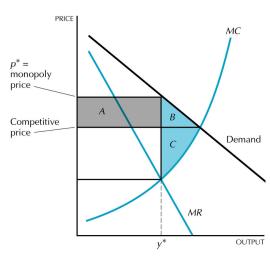


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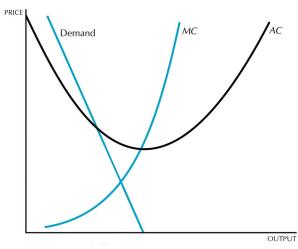
Inefficiency of monopoly (cont'd)

With a reduction from y_C to y_m :

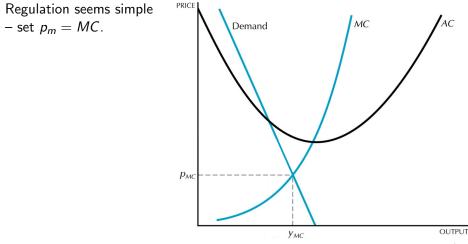
- producer's surplus PS changes by A-C
- consumers' surplus CS reduces by A + B
- total surplus CS + PS reduces by B + C = deadweight loss



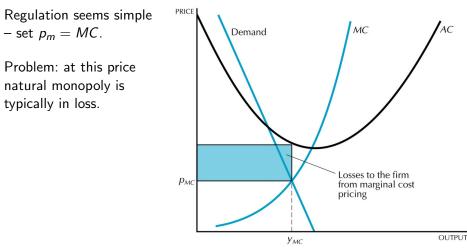
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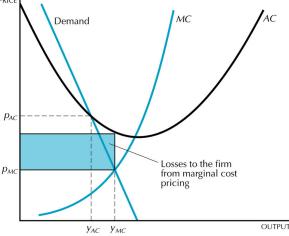


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Natural monopoly – one firm can satisfy market demand at lower costs than more firms.

Regulation seems simple - set $p_m = MC$. Problem: at this price natural monopoly is typically in loss. Alternative: set price such that monopoly has

zero profit ($p_m = AC$).



APPLICATION: The optimal life of a patent

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Two effects on consumers. The longer the duration,

- the higher the motivation to innovations (
 CS),
- the higher the deadweight loss (↓ CS).

In the US the life of a patent is 17 years. Is it optimal?

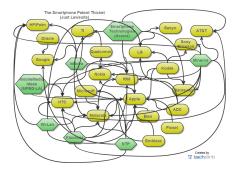
William Nordhaus (*Invention, Growth, and Welfare*, 1969) calculated that for average innovations a patent life of 17 years achieved 90 percent of the maximum possible consumers' surplus.

APPLICATION: "Patent thickets"

Patent thicket – a dense web of overlapping intellectual property rights a firm faces if it wants to commercialize a new technology.

Firms may create a portfolio of patents for strategic purposes.

Each firm's patents serve as a defense against patent suits. If e.g. IBM tries to sue HP, HP would do the same to IBM.



Price discrimination

Three types of price discrimination that differ in their assumptions:

- Perfect price discrimination (first-degree p. d.) Monopoly knows the willingness to pay and can sell each unit of product for the maximum price consumers are willing to pay.
- Second-degree price discrimination Monopoly knows that consumers differ in their willingness to pay, knows their demands, but cannot tell which consumer is which.

3 Third-degree price discrimination

Monopoly knows demands of different groups of consumers, may charge different prices to different groups, but does not know the willingness to pay for individual units of product.

Example – perfect price discrimination

Hana and Lola are the only buyers in a market with a monopoly with constant MC. Hana has high and Lola low willingness to pay (WTP).

What is the quantity bought by Hana and Lola? What is the profit?



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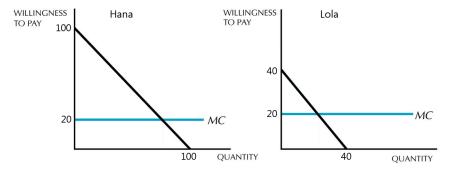
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Hana buys 8 and Lola 3 units.

The monopoly's profit from Hana = area A; profit from Lola = B.

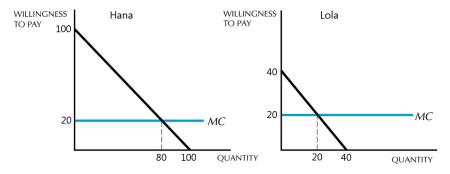
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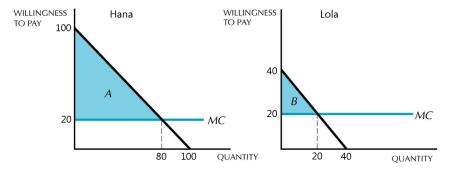


Result:

Quantity: $q = q_V + q_N = (100 - 20) + (40 - 20) = 80 + 20 = 100$

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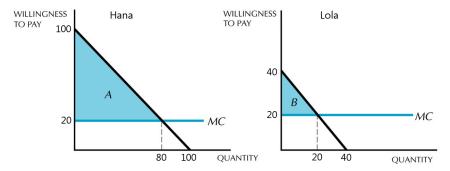
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Profit: $\pi = PS = A + B = \frac{80 \times 80}{2} + \frac{20 \times 20}{2} = 3400$

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Result:

Quantity: $q = q_V + q_N = (100 - 20) + (40 - 20) = 80 + 20 = 100$ Profit: $\pi = PS = A + B = \frac{80 \times 80}{2} + \frac{20 \times 20}{2} = 3\,400$ Consumers' surplus: CS = 0, deadweight loss: DWL = 0

Real-world examples of perfect price discrimination?

A theoretical concept – does not exist in reality. Imperfect examples:

- markets without posted prices Asian bazaar, car sales, antique markets, B2B services, ...
- In 2000 Amazon charged different prices to different consumers for the same DVDs. After critique Amazon abandoned this practice.
- System Ding from Soutwest airlines offers individual fares to each customerbut the fares are 30 % below the price of similar flights.
- Priceline (internet airline ticket sales) let the customers to name their price/ willingness to pay. But there was competition in the market. People entered lower than competitive prices. Priceline had to change its business model.



Second degree price discrimination

Second degree price discrimination – the result: price depends on quantity bought by the consumer (also **nonlinear pricing**).

Problem: The monopoly knows that consumers differ in their willingness to pay, but cannot tell the WTP of individual consumers – does not discern consumers with a high WTP.



Second degree price discrimination

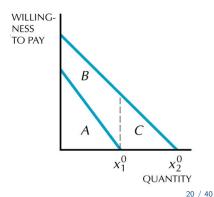
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Solution: The monopoly offers such price-quantity packages that give the consumers an incentive to self select – high WTP customers choose package meant for them.

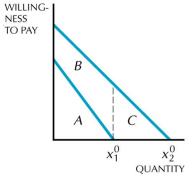


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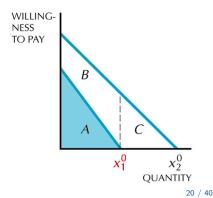
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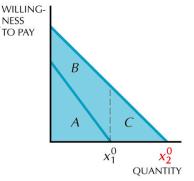
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The result of situation 1: WILLING-NESS TO PAY B A C x_1^0 x_2^0

QUANTITY

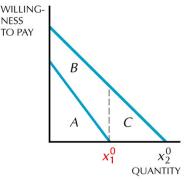
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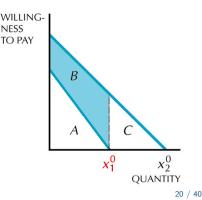
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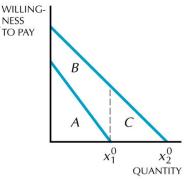
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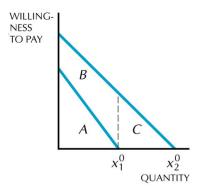
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- Lola chooses package 1 and has a CS of 0
- Hana chooses package 1 and has a CS of B
- The monopoly will have a profit of 2A

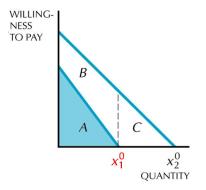


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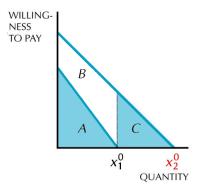
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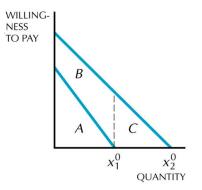
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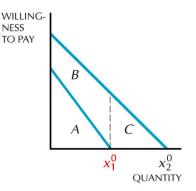


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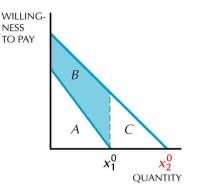


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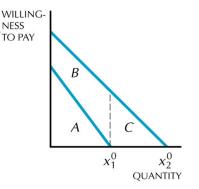


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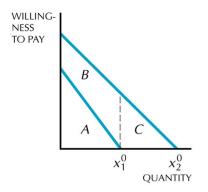
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The result of situation 2:

- Lola chooses package 1 and has a CS of 0
- Hana chooses package 2 and has a CS of *B*
- Compared to situation 1, monopoly increases its profit to 2*A* + *C*

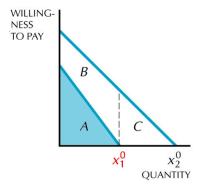


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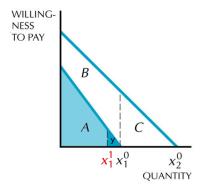
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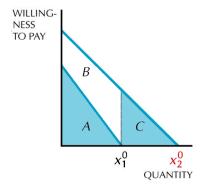
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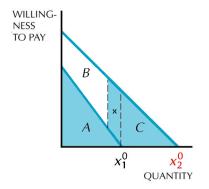
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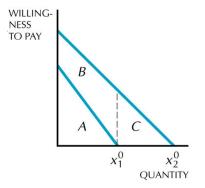
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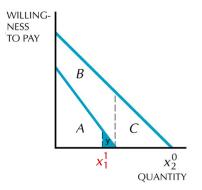


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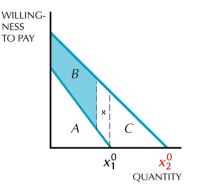


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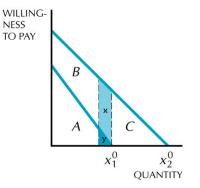


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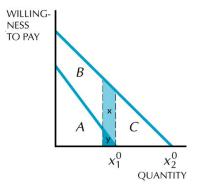
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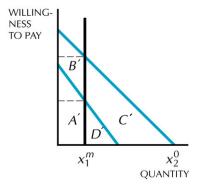
- Lola chooses package 1 and has a CS of 0
- Hana chooses package 2 and her CS falls by x
- Compared to situation 2 the monopoly's profit increases by x - y



Profit maximization:

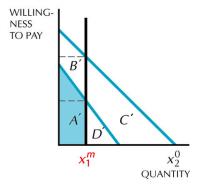


Profit maximization: The monopoly reduces the quantity x_1 to x_1^m , where the rise in profit from Hana equals the loss from Lola:



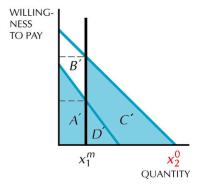
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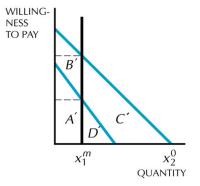
- package $1 quantity x_1^m$ for a price A'
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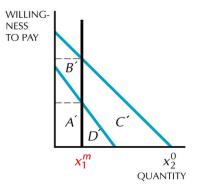


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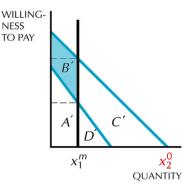


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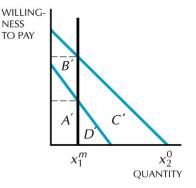


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The result of profit maximization:

- Lola chooses package 1 and has a CS of 0
- Hana chooses package 2 and has a CS of *B*'
- The monopoly's profit increases further to 2A' + C' + D'



Two general conclusions:

- Consumers with a high willingness to pay profit from the presence of consumers with a low willingness to pay. The monopoly cannot take their entire CS because they would start buying the product aimed at low-WTP consumers.
- 2 Even consumers with a low WTP may be better of with price discrimination than otherwise. If monopoly was not allowed to price discriminate, it might supply only to consumers with a high WTP.

Third-degree price discrimination

Third-degree price discrimination – monopoly knows consumer demands, can divide consumers in two groups and charge different prices (can prevent arbitrage).

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Examples:

- student discounts with ISIC
- different prices for different nationalities (books, pills, entrance)
- discounts based on the place of residence (Disneyland)



Third-degree price discrimination (cont'd)

Assume that monopoly divides the consumer in two groups (markets) and arbitrage is not possible.

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Monopoly maximizes profit

$$\max_{y_1,y_2} p_1(y_1)y_1 + p_2(y_2)y_2 - c(y_1 + y_2)$$

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First order conditions:

$$MR_1(y_1) = MC(y_1 + y_2)$$

 $MR_2(y_2) = MC(y_1 + y_2)$

In the optimum, MC equal MR in both markets.

Demand in market 1: $D_1(p_1) = 100 - p_1 \iff p_1(y_1) = 100 - y_1$ Demand in market 2: $D_2(p_2) = 100 - 2p_2 \iff p_2(y_2) = 50 - y_2/2$ Cost function of the monopoly: $C(y_1 + y_2) = 20(y_1 + y_2)$

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Monopoly profit: $\pi = 60 \times 40 + 35 \times 30 - 20(40 + 30) = 2050$

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- price between p_1 and p_2 sells more in market 1 and less in market 2
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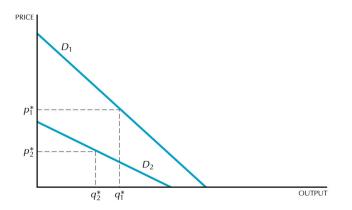
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Is price third-degree price discrimination always bad?

A specific example with a kinked marked demand

Linear demands in both markets and zero marginal costs:

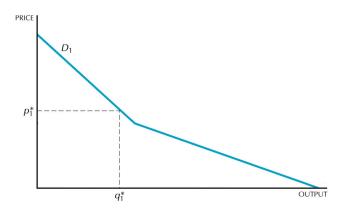
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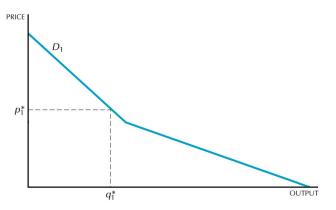


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Consumers better off than with price discrimination.



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How do prices depend on price elasticities $\epsilon_1(y_1)$ and $\epsilon_2(y_2)$?

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If $p_1 > p_2$, then:

$$1 - rac{1}{|\epsilon_1(y_1)|} < 1 - rac{1}{|\epsilon_2(y_2)|}$$
 and thus $|\epsilon_1(y_1)| < |\epsilon_2(y_2)|$

The market with a less elastic demand will have higher prices. Intuition: Less price-sensitive consumers pay higher prices.

CASE: Price discrimination in Disneyland

Why do people living close to Disneyland pay less for the entrance?



CASE: Price discrimination in Disneyland

Why do people living close to Disneyland pay less for the entrance?

They are more price elastic. Lower price might induce more visits.



Two-part tariff

Two-part tariff consists of

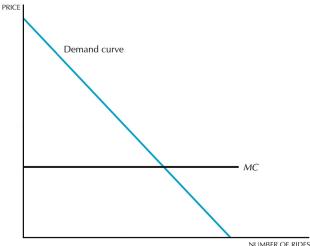
- a fixed fee
- price for one unit of product

Examples:

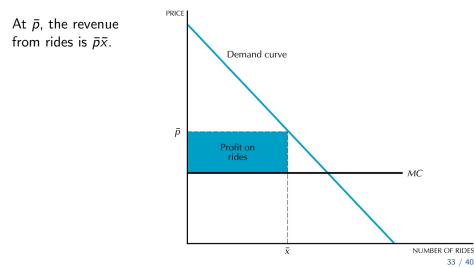
- amusement park (entrance fee + price per ride)
- tennis club (yearly membership + price per hour)

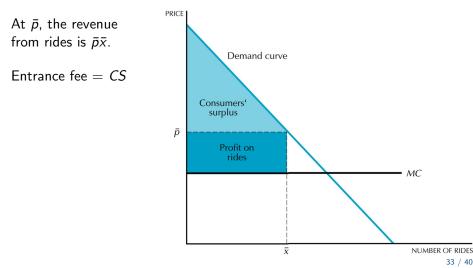


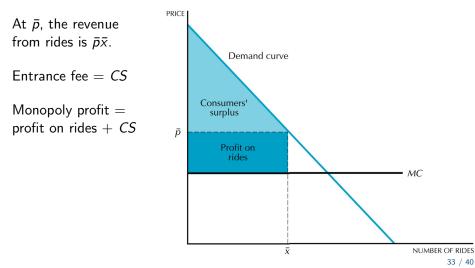
Assumptions: only 1 attraction. 1 visitor with WTP corresponding to the demand in graph. A monopoly with constant MC for rides.

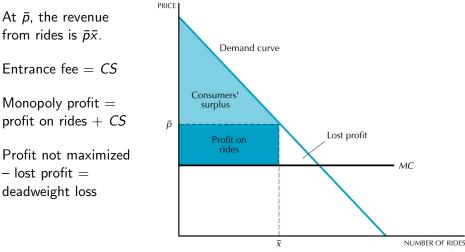


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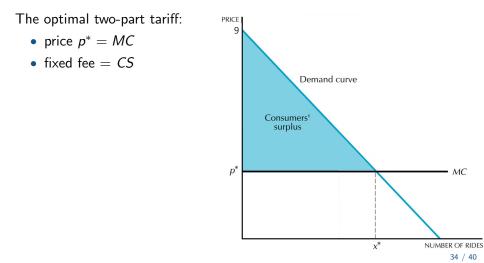




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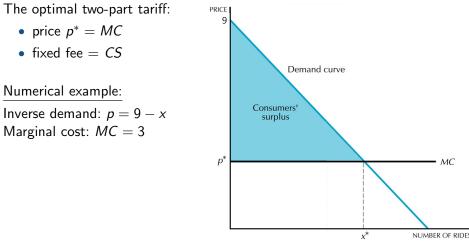
Example- Disneyland dilemma (cont'd)

At the price $p^* = MC$, *CS* is maximal and profit on rides zero. Profit of monopoly is maximal, no deadweight loss.



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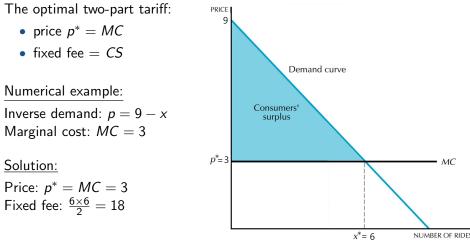
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^{34 / 40}

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^{34 / 40}

Bundling

Firms often sell products in bundles

Examples:

. . .

- computer with operating system
- magazine (bundle of articles)
- MS Office (Word, Excel, PowerPoint)



2 customers (A and B) with a different willingness to pay (table) 2 products – word processor W and spreadsheet program E Monopoly costs: marginal costs MC = 0 and fixed costs F = 100: Will monopoly sell W and E separately or in a bundle (1+1)?

customer/product	word processor (W)	spreadsheet program (E)
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- optimal price of bundle: $p_{W+E}^* = 220$
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The monopoly has a higher profit from bundling.

Monopolistic competition

Assumptions:

- (1) a large number of independent firms with a differentiated product
- (2) free entry and exit

Examples:

- market for clothes and shoes
- many food markets
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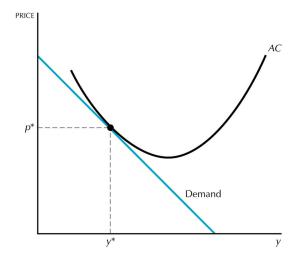
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Condition (2) \implies Firms in the LR enter the profitable market (or exit the market in loss). \implies The firm's demand becomes flatter and lower (steeper and higher). This process lasts until the profit is 0.

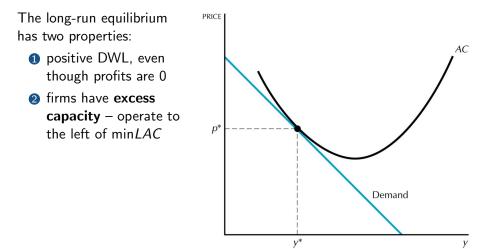
Monopolistic competition - equilibrium in the LR

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Monopolistic competition - equilibrium in the LR

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What should you know?

- Monopoly maximizes profit at a quantity q^{*}, at which MC = MR.
- The higher the elasticity of demand at q^* , the lower p/MC.
- Monopoly does not have supply curve.
- Monopoly is inefficient it creates deadweight loss.
- Natural monopoly satisfies demand at lower *AC* than more firms.
- Natural monopoly selling efficient quantity will be probably in loss.



What should you know? (cont'd)

- Perfect price discrimination leads to the efficient outcome.
- Monopoly using third-degree p. d. charges a higher price in the less elastic market.
- Consumers may benefit from price discrimination – monopoly might be willing to sell to low-WTP consumers.
- With the same demand, a two-part tariff leads to the same result as perfect price discrimination.
- Monopolistically competitive firms are in a similar situation as monopoly, but they have zero profits in the LR.

