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Lesson 1: Marginal Social Cost

Examples of Externalities

- Externality: Actions of one party impose costs or benefits on a second party. Externalities are sometimes called *spillovers* or *neighborhood effects*.
- Types: positive externality, negative externality.
- Example: Air pollution, noisy, traffic congestion ¹, secondhand cigarette smoke.
- Property right.



¹Each traveler in congestion raises others' costs and reduces their possibilities of using transport resources

- In the perfect competition market, the firm chooses the optimal output based on the condition: P = MC.
- XYZ company is producing detergents in Athens. People found that the company dumps wastewater into the Oconee River.



- XYZ company's decision on producing 10000 detergents imposed a cost on residents in Athens. ⇒ Negative externality.
- Marginal Social Cost: The total cost to society of producing an additional unit of a good or service.
 MSC = MC + Marginal external cost
- Question: What would happen to the XYZ company if we made the firm responsible financially for the external costs they impose?



- Answer: Making the firms responsible for their external costs increases the costs they see. This reduces firm and industry output, and textcolorbluereduces the quantity of pollution.
- Question: Is externality always negative?
- Example: Vaccinations. The more people who are vaccinated, and thus less likely to be ill, the less likely it is that a disease will spread.
- Health precautions taken by an individual have positive external benefits to the rest of the community.
- *Challenge*: For the positive externality, too few people have incentive to engage in these activities.
- Example: Too few people would vaccinate unless forced to do so.
- Question: It is very clear to see the marginal social costs that producing one additional detergents imposed (pollution), however, what is the marginal social benefits of pollution?

- Marginal social benefit of pollution: The incremental benefit to society from producing one more unit of pollution.
- Goal: Decide the optimal amount of pollution in a society.



• *Challenge*: How do we move to the optimal level? Government policy and private actions. Costly!

Internalizing Externalities

- *Internalization*: A number of mechanisms are available to provide decision makers with incentives to weigh the external costs and benefits of their decisions.
- Four approaches have been taken to solving the problem of externalities:
 - Private bargaining and negotiation.
 - Environmental standards.
 - Government-imposed taxes and subsidies.
 - Selling or auctioning rights to impose externalities.
- *Coase Theorem*: Under certain conditions, when externalities are present, private parties can arrive at the efficient solution without government involvement.

Private Bargaining and Negotiation

- Imagine: Abby and Zoe are roommates. Zoe likes calling her family members at the midnight. Abby usually sleeps at 10: 00 p.m.
- Negative externality.
- If you were Abby, what will you do to prevent Zoe's calling at the midnight?



Private Bargaining and Negotiation

- If Abby wants, she could pay Zoe and let her stop calling. This payment is a compensation for Zoe of not calling.
- If Zoe wants, Zoe could pay Abby and continue calling at the midnight. This payment is a compensation for Abby of not having a good sleep.
- Liability rules: Laws that require A to compensate B for damages that A imposed on B.

- Example: XYZ company dumps wastewater in the Oconee river. All of us went to negotiate with the company.
- We said: "The company could continue producing and dumping, but it has to pay us \$1 million as a compensation."
- The company rejects the proposal.
- The local government asks the XYZ company to pay a per-unit tax.
- If the per-unit tax exactly equal to marginal external costs is imposed on a firm, then the firm will weigh the tax and marginal benefits from polluting.

Taxes and Subsidies



Tradeable Emissions Permits: Sell or Auction Pollution Rights

- The government² requires: Emissions from each plant are limited to a specific amount.
- The lower the level specified, the more air quality will improve.
- The plants is issued a permit allowing it to emit only at that level.
- The permit can be traded to another firm in what has developed into a large auction market.
- For a firm with low costs of abating pollution, it is in the firm's best interest to cut back below its permit levels and sell its unused permits to a firm with higher abatement costs.

²Cap-and-trade program

Selling or Auctioning Pollution Rights

- **Cap-and-trade program**: Selling the pollution rights to the highest bidder.
- Goal: The government tries to control the emissions.
- Actions: Emissions are capped at the plant level, that is, emissions from each plant are limited to a specific amount.
- The lower the level specified, the more air quality will improve.
- The plant is issued a permit allowing it to emit only at that level.
- This permit can be used or can be traded to another firm.
- For a firm with low costs of abating pollution, it is often in the firm's best interest to cut back below its permit levels, and sell its unused permits to a firm with higher abatement costs.

Selling or Auctioning Pollution Rights

- Assume each firm emits 5 units of pollution per period. The government wants to reduce the total amount of pollution from 10 to 4.
- $q_{pollution}^A$: is the reduction of pollution by firm A.
- Given that the government only allows each firm produce 2 units of pollution, firm A should reduce pollution from 5 to 3 units.
- If firm A reduce pollution from 5 to 4 units, then the marginal cost from reducing one additional pollution is \$12.
- Firm B's marginal cost of reducing the third unit of pollution is \$23.
- Firm B buys one unit pollution right from firm A, under the price $12 \le P \le 23$, both firms will be happy.

Firm A	А	А	Firm B	В	В
$q^{A}_{pollution}$	MC	TC	$q^{B}_{pollution}$	MC	TC
1	5	5	1	8	8
2	7	12	2	14	22
3	9	21	3	23	45
4	12	33	4	35	80
5	17	50	5	50	130

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The Cap-and-Trade program

- The cap-and-trade program in Europe resulted in a price for carbon and thus higher costs for carbon-producing firms, like electricity firms.
- Economists found that electricity prices in Spain rose 0.86 euro for a 1-euro cost increase. This implies a quite inelastic aggregate demand for electricity.
- Question: What do you think would have happened to pass through if the largest of the electricity providers had been heavily invested in solar power, which does not produce carbon?



Lesson 2: Public Goods and Common Resources

Public Goods

- Public goods are: 1. Non-rival in consumption; and 2. Benefits are non-excludable.
- *Non-rival* in consumption: One person's enjoyment of the benefits of a public good does not interfere with another's consumption of it.
 - I watch the "Friends" at my home, and you watch it at your home. My enjoyment does not interfere yours.
- *Non-excludable*: Once a good is produced, no one can be excluded from enjoying its benefits. (ex: National defense system)



Public Goods

• Question: During the game day, the university/local government usually builds temporary public restrooms around the gym. Are the restrooms public goods? Why or why not?



Features of Public Goods

- 1. Goods are either public or private by virtue of their characteristics and NOT by virtue of whether they are produced by the public sector.
- 2. For the same public good, different users have different marginal use value on it.
- 3. Because of the second feature, it is common to have price discrimination on selling public goods.
 - Example: TV show "Friends" is a public good. For watching "Friends", I am willing to pay \$2 to watch it; and you are willing to pay \$3. Our total willingness to pay for watching it is \$2 + \$3 = \$5.
 - NBC (TV show's owner) could charge each of us \$2, so it gains \$4 totally;
 - b. NBC could charge each of us \$3 and gains \$3 totally;
 - c. NBC could charge me \$2, and charge you \$3, and gains \$5 totally.

- 4. It is difficult to charge fees on public goods.
 - Example: Consider an entrepreneur who decides to offer better police protection to Athens.
 - Careful market survey reveals that the citizens in Athens want high-quality protection and are willing to pay for it.
 - However, not everyone is willing to pay the same amount. Some can afford more, others less.
 - Since the company is private, so it could not force everyone to pay the same amount.

- Two problems happen:
 - If the goods are produced, the crime rate falls and all residents benefit. You get that benefits whether or not you pay for it. You get a free ride.
 - **Free-rider**: Because people can enjoy benefits of public goods whether or not they pay for them, they are usually unwilling to pay for them.
 - Your payment is small relative to the amount that must be collected to provide the service.
 - **Drop-in-the-bucket**: The good or service is usually so costly that its provision generally does not depend on whether any single person pays.

- Example: Lighthouse is a public good.
- A private operator would have difficulty collecting payment from passing ships that use the light as a navigational aid.
- A lighthouse cannot pick and choose which ships view its light.
- Thus, a privately owned lighthouse would raise no revenue. If government didn't provide them through taxation, then no one would.



- Before, when we calculate the market demands for private goods:
- Assume there are only two persons: Alice and Bob.



- Samuelson: To arrive at market demand for public goods, we do not sum quantities. Instead, we add the amounts that individual households are willing to pay for each potential level of output.
- Now, when we calculate the market demands for public goods:



- Challenge: To produce optimal amount of each public good, the government must know something that it cannot possibly know: Everyone's preferences. (Each person's willingness to pay).
- *Tiebout hypothesis*: An efficient mix of public goods is produced when local housing prices and taxes come to reflect consumer preferences just as they do in the market for private goods.



Common Resources

- **Common Resources**: A resource that is nonexcludeable but rival in consumption.
- Example: Grazing sheep on common grasses.
- Problem: Overuse
 - Where a common resource is shared by many, and technology is well developed, overuse is more likely.
- Solution: Privatization the resource. If a common area is turned into a private resource, the owner will have incentives for using that resource efficiently.



Review: Externalities

- Without regulations, a profit-maximized firm should produce *q*^{*} amount of output because, at *q*^{*}, *MC* = *P*^{*}.
- With regulations, a firm has to pay a tax (T = Marginal external costs), so its marginal cost curve is now MSC = MC+ marginal external costs = MC+T.



Review: Externalities

- Two firms A and B have different demands of pollution.
- If there is no regulations on dumping wastewater, A and B are facing MC of emission = 0. ⇒ Each will produce Q₀ amount of pollution. ⇒ Total pollution = 2Q₀
- However, if the government asks each firm to pay a per-unit tax *T*^{*}, then A and B are facing MC of emission = *T*^{*}.
- A will produce Q_A , and B will produce Q_B . Total pollution = $Q_A + Q_B < Q_0 + Q_0$



In-Class Quiz for fun

- 1. Use your electronic devices to search this website: www.kahoot.it
- 2. Pin code
- 3. Create a nickname for yourself
- 4. Answer the question

