

CH 1

- Economic 1000V is about:
 - Money
 - Study of how all societies manage their resources
 - o What goods to produce/efficiency
 - o How to produce them? Equity (fairness)
 - o Who gets them?

- Way of thinking about human interaction
 - o Rational individual behaviour
 - o Equilibrium (everything comes together to become 1 big equilibrium)
- What economists do.
 - o 10 principles of Economics (10 ideas of how economist think)

1. People face trade-off
 - o Production possibility frontier (Boundary line)
 - o Points outside of the boundary is not possible
 - o Usually choose from points on the boundary
 - o Inside the boundary when consumers are SATIATED (satisfied) / goods are NOT SCARCES
 - o SCAR CITY - society has limited resources therefore cannot produce all the goods people want
 - o Efficient point: point where it would make consumers most happy with the use of their resource

2. Opportunity cost
 - o The cost of something in order to produce something, the value worth of the product is the cost of the other. (In economic, money is not considered in this case)
 - o If consumer wants a good, what other good does he have to give up?
 - o The cost is the next best alternative.
 - o Ex: I'd like apple and banana, but have carrot, the worth of apple is the cost of banana, not carrot because not I like carrot.

3. Rational people think at the margin
 - o Marginal changes -> A SMALL INCREMENTAL ADJUSTMENT TO A PLAN ACTION
 - o Changes happen bit by bit, until the changes reach the optimal (The desired condition)
 - o A rational decision maker takes an action if and only if the marginal benefits of the action exceeds the marginal cost
 - o The Marginal -> The opportunity cost
 - o Exception of margin
 - o Either the 3 or the other, nothing in between

4. People respond to incentives (incentives -> something that induces a person to act)
 - o As price decreases, it motivates people for their actions
 - o Ex: demand curve slopes down
 - o The cheaper the goods become, the more consumers will purchase

5. Trade can make every better off
 - o People are specialize at 1 thing, and they use this thing to trade for other things that they need, that are specialize by other people
 - o Comparative advantage
 - o Someone might be good at 2 things, he is relative better at 1 thing than another, relative better than another person

6. Markets are usually a good way to organize economic activity
 - o Every1 are specialized, we will need an organization where people can come together and trade
 - o No central controller to control how the goods go out
 - o Too complicated (ex. North Korea)
 - o Prices of the goods controls everything and tells us about the economy
 - o Creates unequal distribution (monopoly)
 - o Rich & poor

7. Government can sometimes improve market
 - o Government is need to define the needs, and enforce them such as property rights

8. A country's standard of living depends on its ability to produce goods & services (AKA productivity)
 - o Income reflects the quality of life in different countries

9. Price rise when the government prints too much money (inflation)
 - o Increase in the overall level of prices in the economy
 - o value of money falls
 - o Government use extreme ways trying to boost a nations economy (short-run boost), such as wars and inflation -> broken window fallacy

10. Society face a short-run trade-off between inflation and unemployment
 - o Increase amount of money -> higher demand for goods and services -> higher price in goods -> more hiring -> lower unemployment

Resource constraint - equation of resource available
 Technology equation of the goods
 Efficiency society is getting maximum benefit from its scarce resources
 Equality these benefits are distributed uniformly among society's members
 CPI - consumer price index
 Competitive market - a market where there are so many buyer and seller that each have negligible impact on the price
 Tariff tax on imported / exported goods
 Subsidy: an assistance paid to a firm or business by the government
 Quota - a limit on the quantity of imports, or good produce
 Feasible: possible to do easily or conveniently
 Exemption: the circumstances of a taxpayer, where base on his age / dependent, allow him to deduct in taxable income
 Luddite: people who opposes technological progress
 Pigou tax: the tax that government impose to limit the production of a good due to negative externalities
 *When doing questions, always solve the question by example, NEVER memorize
 **if the change is on the axis, it changes along the curve, if the change is not on the axis, it shifts the curve

Relation between inflation & CPI
 - CPI = tells you the level of price on average
 - Inflation rate = tells you how quickly the average level of prices rises over time

CH 2. Model made by economists are false
 - Many details are left out
 - Way too complicated to be correct (Billino ppl)
 - Always simplify, then find out a theories which explain it roughly

Output market
 - Market where goods/services exchange goods/services
 Input market
 - Market where money exchange to goods/services
 More elastic = more surplus

Positive normative extension:
 Position (claim about how the world is)
 - Descriptive
 - Realty
 Normative (claim about how the world ought to be)
 - Desirable
 - prescriptive

CH 3. Trade
 Comparative advantage
 - Comparing the opportunity cost between 2 producer
 - Lower opportunity cost = comparative advantage
 - Video 3x, 50:00
 - when comparing 2 goods, the comparative advantage of 1 country is impossible in both good

Autarky
 - Definition: no trade
 - equilibrium
 - When a country is better at a good than another good, and most of their production goes in that good, the world production become equal after trade
 - The price of the good will lie between the price of the good in 2 countries
 - Video 3x, 1:04:00-1:19:00
 - The world production must be positive after a trade
 - When trading between countries, such as US & CA
 - Buy the cheaper goods that are sold in a more expensive price
 - The worse economy will become more similar to the better economy (worse economy may have a higher advantage)
 - 3 scenarios may happen:
 - The price of the good between 2 countries will eventually be the same (no more profit), since buying increase the demand of the good & selling decrease the demand of the good
 - The price of the good must lie in between the price of 2 countries (more or less)
 - 1 countries will then specialize in 1 of the good, and the other will be in specialized in another good

CH 4. Demand
 - Law of demand
 - The claim that, other things equal, the quantity demanded of a good falls when the price rises
 - The market demand/supply curve is the sum of individual demands/supplies.
 - Increase quantity demand at every price, shift the curve to the right
 - decrease quantity demand at every price, shift the curve to the left
 - Normal good - demand falls when income falls
 - Inferior good - demand rise when income falls
 - Substitute: goods that are used in place of each other
 - Complements - pair of goods that are used together
 - Law of supply
 - The claim that, other things equal, the quantity supplied of good rises when the price of the good rises
 - Law of supply and demand
 - The price of any good adjusts to bring the quantity supplied and quantity demand into balance
 - Demand curve VS supply curve
 - Demand curve slopes down, as price increase, demand decrease
 - Supply curve slopes up, as price increase, supply increase

CH 5. elasticity - measure of how much buyers and sellers responds to changes in market conditions
 - Elastic -> when demand for good responds substantially when price changes
 - Inelastic -> when demand for good remains as the price changes
 Price elasticity of demand = $\frac{\% \text{ change in quantity demanded}}{\% \text{ change in price}}$
 *be careful, its %

Mid point method (better method):
 Price elasticity of demand = $\frac{(P_2 - P_1) / ((P_2 + P_1) / 2)}{(Q_2 - Q_1) / ((Q_2 + Q_1) / 2)}$
 - Price elasticity of demand
 - > 1 = elastic
 - < 1 = inelastic
 - $= 1$ = unit elasticity (line begin from the origin, rectangular hyperbola for demand, line with slope for supply)
 - $= 0$ = perfectly inelastic
 - $= \infty$ = perfectly elastic
 - Flatter the demand curve = greater the price elasticity of demand
 - Steeper the demand curve = smaller the price elasticity of demand
 - Total revenue = P x Q
 - When demand is inelastic, price and total revenue moves in same direction
 - When demand is elastic, price and total revenue moves in opposite direction
 - When demand is unit elastic, total revenue remain constant when price changes
 - Income elasticity of demand
 - Measures how the quantity demanded changes as consumers income changes
 - Income elasticity of demand
 - Income elasticity of demand > 1 -> normal good
 - Income elasticity of demand < 1 -> inferior good
 - Cross-price elasticity of demand
 - Measures how the quantity demanded of 1 good responds to price change of another good
 - Cross-price elasticity of demand > 0 -> substitutes
 - Cross-price elasticity of demand < 0 -> complements
 - Price elasticity of supply = $\frac{\% \text{ change in quantity supplied}}{\% \text{ change in price}}$
 - Cross-price elasticity of demand < 0 -> complements

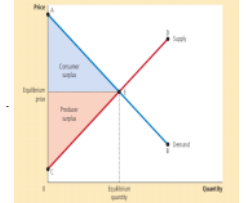
CH 8. Factors of production
 Inputs used to produce goods and services: Labor, land & capital
 Production function: the relationship between the quantity of inputs used to make a good and the quantity of output of that good
 Value of marginal product = Price x marginal product of labor
 Competitive, profit maximizing firm hires worker to the point where value of marginal product of labor equals wage
 - labor demand curve

Things that might cause the labor demand to shift:
 - Output price
 - Value of the marginal product changes, labor demand change
 - Technological change
 - Labor-saving: reduce labor demand
 - Labor-augmenting: rise labor demand
 - Supply of other factors
 - Fall in supply of the goods need to produce product reduce labor demand

CH 6. Price ceiling - a legal maximum on the price at which a good can be sold
 Price floor - a legal minimum on the price at which a good can be sold
 - When price hit the price ceiling
 - increase, price can not go toward equilibrium
 - Shortage of goods occur
 - More elastic = more shortage
 - B. 11.3
 - when price hit the price flooring
 - Decrease, price can not go toward equilibrium
 - Surplus of good occur
 - More elastic = more surplus

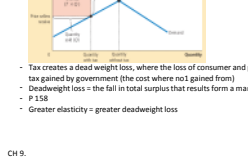
B. 11.5
 - Between supply and demand
 - Tax falls heavier on inelastic proportion
 - Ex: Inelastic is more vertical
 - The distance from inelastic point to the equilibrium is more than elastic point to the equilibrium vertically
 - p. 129 Figure 9

CH 7. Welfare economic - the study of how the allocation (distribution) of resources affects economic well-being
 Willingness to pay - the maximum amount that a buyer will pay for a good
 Consumer surplus - the amount a buyer is willing to pay for the good minus the amount the buyer pay
 Producer surplus - the amount a seller is paid minus the cost of production
 *Area between demand curve/supply curve & price measures the consumer/producer surplus
 Total surplus = total value of the goods to buyer - total cost of the goods to seller
 Consumer surplus & producer surplus in the market equilibrium



Free market produce goods that maximize the consumer and producer surplus (equilibrium)

CH 8. Tax revenue = tax x quantity
 - Tax creates a dead weight loss, where the loss of consumer and producer is greater than the tax gained by government (the cost where not gained from)
 - Deadweight loss - the fall in total surplus that results from a market distortion, such as tax
 - P. 158
 - Greater elasticity - greater deadweight loss



CH 9. Summary of international trade
 Figure explanation p. 174
 Exporting countries:
 - The domestic price before trade is below the world price
 - When a country becomes exporting country, producers are better off & consumers were off
 - Trade raises the economic well-being as a nation in a sense that win of winner exceed the loss of the loser
 - Other benefits of international trades:
 - Increased variety of good
 - Lower costs through economies of scale (cheaper to produce in great amounts)
 - Increased competition (avoiding a company to gain market power which is a market failure)
 - Enhanced flow of idea
 - Argument against trades
 - The job argument
 - The National-security argument
 - The Infant-industry argument
 - The Unfair-Competition argument
 - The Protection - a bargaining Chip argument
 - A bargain/threat with another country, if you remove a tariff on something, I will remove mine as well

CH 10. Externality (spillovers)
 - The compensated impact of 1 person's actions on the well-being of a bystander
 - Negative externality when the impacts on the bystander is adverse
 - Ex: pollution from factories
 - Positive externality when the impact is beneficial
 - Ex: tree planting
 - Government try to align private incentives with social cost and benefits using tax system for negative externalities
 - Government try to give subsidies to promote incentives of positive externalities
 - Internalizing the externality
 - Taxing the goods which are negative externality to decrease the incentives of buyer and seller, thus lower its equilibrium
 - Public policies toward externalities
 - Command-and-control policies: regulation
 - Government makes certain behaviour either required or forbidden
 - Market-based policy 1: corrective taxes and subsidies
 - Corrective taxes - taxes enacted to deal with effects of negative externalities (do not create dead weight loss & opposite from normal taxes)
 - Subsidies - giving benefits to company with positive externalities
 - Market-based policies: tradable pollution permits
 - Government auction out an amount of pollution permits, base on the willingness of the good, pollution can be controlled
 - This method is usually better than corrective tax due to:
 - Quantity of pollution is not required to be determined before auctioning out the permits, unlike the corrective tax
 - Permit creates a set quantity of pollution where corrective tax can only reduce the quantity

Private solutions to externalities
 - Moral codes & social sanctions
 - Charities
 - Combining different types of producer in a firm, which they are related to each other and have a positive externalities between them
 - The Coase Theorem (does not always work)
 - If private parties can bargain over the allocation of resources or no cost, then the private market will always solve the problem of externalities and allocate resources efficiently
 - Agreement might be difficult to enforce
 - Transaction cost: the cost that parties incur in the process of agreeing and following through on a bargain
 - Bargain is time-consuming, externalities might still be taking place while working out a bargain
 - Technology spillovers
 - Positive externality
 - Impact of 1 firm's research increase the efforts of other firms' access to technological advance
 - Industrial policy
 - Government intervention in the economy that aims to promote technology enhancing industries
 - Really difficult to measure the size of spillover from different markets
 - **Marginal social benefit on a curve does not count as the new equilibrium (social optimum is not an equilibrium of the market unless government take action)
 - If reach the marginal social optimum, there will be dead weight loss

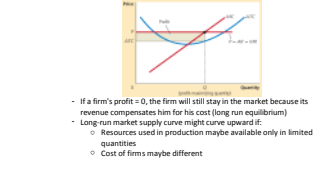
CH 16. Oligopoly: a market with a few seller, each offering a product that is similar or identical
 - Perfectly competitive: firms sell identical products

- CH 11. Goods are grouped to 2 characteristics:
 - Excludable: can people be prevented from using the good?
 - Rival in consumption: does one person's use of the good reduce another person's ability to use it?
 - Goods are divided into 4 categories:
 - Both excludable & rival in consumption
 - Ex: ice cream cone
 - Public goods
 - Neither excludable nor rival in consumption
 - Ex: siren, alarm, road, highways
 - Prevents free-rider problem
 - People who receives the benefits but avoids paying for it, assume a private market, if people knows that they can get the goods for free, no 1 would be paying for it.
 - 3 most important public goods:
 - National defense
 - Basic research
 - Fighting poverty
 - Common resources
 - Rival in consumption
 - Ex: fish in the ocean, grazing lands
 - Tragedy of the commons
 - People over use the common resources results in the extinction of the resources
 - Important common resources:
 - Clean air & water, congested roads, wildlife
 - Club goods (natural monopoly)
 - Excludable
 - Ex: fire protection
 - Human life is worth around 10 million

- CH 12. Budget deficit: an excess of government spending over government receipts
 - Budget surplus: an excess of government receipts over government spending
 - Goal of government is to reduce budget deficit
 - Define and protect property right
 - Taxes public goods & club goods
 - Redistribution
 - US federal government is in a budget deficit because:
 - Elderly population are increasing
 - Newborn population are decreasing
 - Government is spending too much on medicine
 - Most important tax for state and local government:
 - Sales taxes & property taxes
 - Objective of policy maker on tax system:
 - Efficiency & equity
 - 2 types of tax:
 - Average tax rate
 - Marginal tax rate
 - Extra taxes paid on an additional dollar of income (slope %)
 - Lump-sum tax (taxes)
 - A tax of the same amount that everyone have to pay, regardless of earning
 - No equity
 - Most efficient tax system
 - Principles to define a tax system:
 - Benefits principle
 - The idea that people should pay taxes based on the benefits they receive from government services
 - Ex: gasoline tax
 - The revenues from gasoline tax often use to build roads
 - The ability-to-pay principle
 - The idea that taxes should be levied on a person according to how well that person can shoulder the burden
 - Using 2 corollary notions of equity:
 - Vertical equity: taxpayer with a greater ability to pay tax should contribute a larger amount
 - Horizontal equity: taxpayers with similar abilities to pay should contribute the same amount
 - Proportional tax system:
 - All taxpayer pay the same fraction of income
 - Regressive tax system:
 - Higher-income taxpayer pay smaller fraction of their income (larger amount)
 - Progressive tax system:
 - Higher-income taxpayer pay a larger fraction of their income
 - Tax incidence: the study of who bears the burden of taxes

- CH 13. Industrial organization: the study how firms' decisions about prices and quantity depend on the market conditions they face
 - Profit = total revenue - total cost
 - Cost (opportunity cost)
 - Explicit cost: input cost that require an outlay or money by the firm
 - Implicit cost: input cost that do not require an outlay or money by the firm
 - Cost = explicit cost + implicit cost
 - Economic profit = revenue - all cost (explicit & implicit)
 - Accounting profit = revenue - explicit cost
 - Marginal product: the increase in output that arises from an additional unit of input
 - Diminishing marginal product: the property whereby the marginal product of an input declines as the quantity of the input increases
 - Fixed cost: cost that do not vary with quantity of output produced
 - Variable cost: cost that vary with quantity of output produced
 - Average total cost = average fixed cost + average variable cost
 - Marginal cost: increase in total cost that arises from an extra unit of production
 - Marginal cost = change in total cost / change in quantity total
 - Efficient scale: the quantity of output that minimizes average total cost
 - Marginal cost < average total cost: average total cost is falling
 - Marginal cost > average total cost: average total cost is at its minimum
 - Economies of scale: a firm's long-run average total cost declines as output increases
 - Diseconomies of scale: a firm's long-run average total cost rises as output increases
 - Arise because of coordination problems
 - The more goods a firm produces, the more stretched the management team becomes & the less effective the managers become at keeping the costs down
 - Constant returns to scale: average total cost does not vary with level of output

- CH 14. Characteristic of competitive market:
 - Many buyers and sellers in the market
 - Goods offered by the various sellers are largely the same
 - Firms can freely enter or exit the market
 - Actions of any single buyer or seller in the market have a negligible impact on the market price
 - Both buyers and sellers are price takers
 - Marginal revenue: the change in total revenue from an additional unit sold
 - Sellers: average revenue = marginal revenue = price of the good
 - Buyers:
 - Marginal revenue > marginal cost: increase output
 - Marginal revenue < marginal cost: decrease output
 - Marginal revenue = marginal cost: maximum profit
 - Firm SHUT DOWN will have to pay the fixed cost if:
 - total revenue < variable cost of production
 - price < average variable cost
 - Firm EXIT (no cost if):
 - total revenue < total cost
 - A competitive firm's maximum profit is at the intersection of MC and P
 - The MC always cut across the minimum point of ATC and AVC



- CH 15. Monopoly: a firm that is the sole seller of a product without close substitutes (market power)
 - Cause barriers to entry
 - Monopoly resources
 - Government regulation
 - Copy rights
 - Production process
 - Natural monopoly: a monopoly that arises because a single firm can supply a good or service to an entire market at a smaller cost than could 2 or more firms
 - Long-run market supply curve might curve upward if:
 - Resources used in production maybe available only in limited quantities
 - Cost of firms maybe different
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 - Long-run market supply curve might curve upward if:
 - Resources used in production maybe available only in limited quantities
 - Cost of firms maybe different
 - A monopoly firm's demand curve is horizontal because these are price takers

- Output price
 - Value of the marginal product changes, labor demand changes
 - Technological change
 - Labor-saving: reduce labor demand
 - Labor-augmenting: rise labor demand
 - Supply of other factors
 - Fall in supply of the goods need to produce product reduce labor demand
- Labor supply curve: trade-off between labor and leisure
 - Shifts due to
 - Changes in tastes / attitudes toward work
 - Changes in alternative opportunities (other similar jobs might pay higher)
 - Immigration
- Equilibrium in the labor market
 - Wage adjusts to balance supply and demand for labor
 - Wage equals the value of the marginal product of labor
- Productivity and wage are equal
 - Rise in productivity rises wage
- Monopsony: a firm with market power which can affect wage easily
 - A buyer of labor similar to monopoly (seller of product)
- Capital income: a income which households receive from firms
- Ex: stocks for stockholders
- The rental price of any factor of product = value of that factor's marginal product

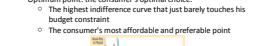
CH 21

- Budget constraint: the limit on the consumption bundles that a consumer can afford
- Slope of budget constraint: relative price of 2 goods
- Marginal rate of substitution: rate at which a consumer is willing to trade one good for another
 - The slope of any point on an indifference curve
- Indifference curves = a curve that shows consumption bundles that give the consumer the same level of satisfaction
 - 4 properties to describe it:
 - Higher indifference curve are preferred to lower ones
 - Higher indifference means more of the both good available at a lower price
 - Indifference curve are downward sloping
 - The quantity of one good decrease, the quantity of other good must increase to make consumer equally happy
 - Indifference curve do not cross
 - Or else it is not indifference
 - Indifference curve are bowed inward
 - Consumer are willing to trade goods that have in abundance, such as if consumer have a lot of pizza, they are willing to trade 1 pizza for 1 Pepsi.
 - Shape & differences of 2 points is the consumer's willingness to trade

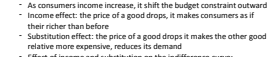
- Perfect substitute: 2 goods with straight-line indifference curve
- Perfect complements: 2 goods with right-angle indifference curve



- Optimum point: the consumer's optimal choice:
 - The highest indifference curve that just barely touches his budget constraint
 - The consumer's most affordable and preferable point



- As consumers income increase, it shift the budget constraint outward
- Income effect: the price of a good drops, it makes consumers as if their richer than before
- Substitution effect: the price of a good drops it makes the other good relative more expensive, reduces its demand
- Effect of income and substitution on the indifference curve:



- Basic theory of consumer choice:
 - Do all demand curve slopes downward?
 - Demand curve are usually curve downward unless:
 - If the goods is a Giffen good (a good which an increase in price rises its quantity demanded), the demand curve will curve upward instead.
 - How do wages affect labor supply?
 - When wage rises, budget constraint gets more steep, consumers respond in 2 ways:
 - Work more and enjoy less leisure, increase labor supply (income effect)
 - Work less and enjoy more leisure, decrease labor supply (substitution effect)
 - Graphs:



- How do interest rate affect household saving?
 - One might respond to increase in interest saving in 2 ways:
 - Income effect: save more and consume less
 - Substitution effect: save less and consume more

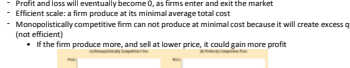
- Really difficult to measure the size of spillover from different markets
- Marginal social benefit on a curve does not count as the new equilibrium (social optimum is not an equilibrium of the market unless government take action)
 - If reach the marginal social optimum, there will be dead weight loss
- CH 16:
 - Oligopoly: a market with a few seller, each offering a product that is similar or identical
 - Perfectly competitive: firms sell identical products
 - Monopolistic competitive: neither monopoly nor competitive
 - Ex: Market for novel
 - Monopolistic competition: a market with sellers, each selling similar product but not identical
 - Many firm competing for the same group of customers
 - Each firm produces a product similar to others
 - Each firm faces a downward-sloping demand curve (similar to monopoly in short run)
 - Firms can enter or exit market without restriction
 - Almost competitive but the product are not the same
 - Have dead weight loss similar to monopolist
 - Advertisement
 - Imperfect competition: some what price taker but also have some market power



- If price excess ATC, firm makes profit, if price below ATC, firm trying to minimize loss



- Profit and loss will eventually become 0, as firms enter and exit the market
- Efficient scale: a firm produce at its minimal average total cost
- Monopolistically competitive firm can not produce at minimal cost because it will create excess quantity (not efficient)
 - If the firm produce more, and sell at lower price, it could gain more profit



- Perfectly competitor does not care about consumer because they gain no profit
- Entry of a new monopolistic competitive:
 - The product variety externality: consumer get some consumer surplus from the introduction of new product, entry conveys a positive externality on consumers
 - The business-stealing externality: other firms lose customers and profit, entry imposes a negative externality

- Advertisement:
 - Convey a subconscious to the consumers
 - Impedes competition
 - Provide some information of the product
 - Allow new firms to enter easier
 - When a firm is willing to spend so much money on advertisement, its quality can't be too bad

- Brand name:
 - Provide consumers with information about quality when quality cannot be easily judged
 - Give firms an incentive to maintain high quality

CH 17

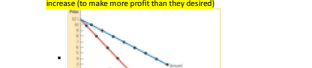
- Oligopoly:
 - A market structure in which only a few sellers offer similar or identical products
 - The action of any seller in the market can have a large impact on the profit of all other sellers
 - Game theory is used in such market: the study of how people behave in strategic situations:
 - While choose a strategy, keep in mind how others respond to it
- Duopoly: a market with only 2 sellers
 - During duopoly:
 - Collusion: an agreement among firms over production and price
 - Cartel: group of firms acting in unison

- Antitrust Law: prohibit explicit agreement among oligopolists as a matter of public policy
- Nash equilibrium: a situation in which economic actors interacting with one another each choosing their best strategy, given the strategies the others have chosen
- Oligopolists would be better off cooperating and reaching the monopoly outcome, yet because they pursue their own self interest, they do not end up reaching the monopoly outcome
 - Oligopolists will have to find the balance between output effect and price effect
- As the number of seller increase, oligopoly look more and more like a competitive market

- The prisoner's dilemma:
 - 2 prisoners, each go for what is best for them, in term, both of them did not get what they wanted
 - Dominant strategies: a strategy that is best for a player in a game regardless of the strategies chosen by the other player
 - A less preferred outcome for both players
 - Relating to oligopolist:
 - Each oligopolist wants a bigger share of the profit, in the end, they foul on the agreement and each one of them is worse off

- Tit-for-tat: a way to make cooperate between oligopolist possible
 - Start out friendly, penalizes unfriendly players, and forgives them if warranted
- Controversies over Antitrust policy (within grey scale)
 - Retail price maintenance: the production firm require the retail store to sell at a higher price than them
 - Predatory pricing: a firm with market power lower its price to drive the other firms out and then raises its price again
 - Tying: to sell 2 goods together at a single price, 2 people each want 1 of the good at cheaper price will now have to buy both of the goods at a higher price

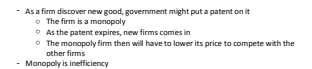
- Copy rights:
 - Production process
 - Natural monopoly: a monopoly that arises because a single firm can supply a good or service to an entire market at a smaller cost than could 2 or more firms
 - Average total cost at lowest if a single firm serves the entire market
 - As the market expands, natural monopoly might evolve into a competitive market
- A competitive firm's demand curve is horizontal because they are price takers
- A monopoly's firm's demand curve is the market's demand curve because they are price makers
- A monopoly's firm do not have a supply curve, because they choose the quantity to supply
- When a monopoly increase the amount it sells:
 - Output effect: more output to sold, higher total revenue
 - Price effect: price falls, lower total revenue (no price effect for competitive)
- Monopoly's marginal-revenue curve lies below its demand curve
 - As marginal revenue is negative, the firm is at negative profit
 - The marginal revenue is always below the price as production of the good increase (to make more profit than they desired)



- A monopoly firm reaches its maximum revenue quantity at the interception of marginal revenue curve & marginal cost curve
- Monopoly firm's profit = (P - ATC) x Q



- As a firm discover new good, government might put a patent on it
 - The firm is a monopoly
 - As the patent expires, new firms comes in
 - The monopoly firm then will have to lower its price to compete with the other firms
- Monopoly's inefficiency:
 - they output below the efficient quantity, and produce at the maximum profit for themselves.
 - Create dead weight loss



- Price discrimination: the business practice of selling the same good at different price to different customers
 - When different group of people are willing to buy a good at different price, in which the 2 groups are not related, the monopoly firm can choose to sell the good to both at different price
 - Rational strategy for profit-maximizing monopolist
 - Price discrimination can rise economic welfare
 - If everything is sold at the same price, only 1 group of people would buy it
 - Not as high dead weight loss



- Perfect price discrimination: a situation in which the monopolist knows exactly each customer's willingness to pay and charge each customer at that price
- Examples of price discrimination:
 - Movie tickets (senior & child tickets)
 - Airline prices (business traveler vs leisure traveler)
 - Quantity discounts

- When monopolies produce less than socially desirable quantity, government try to:
 - Make monopolized industries more competitive
 - Regulate the behaviour of the monopolies
 - Turn some private monopolies into public enterprises
 - Government run the company itself, such as postal service
 - Doing nothing at all
 - There are political problem if government take over, sometime leave the firm be is the best way to go

	Quantity	Monopoly
Deadweight loss		
Quality of firms		
Profit for monopolist	High	High
Can each economic profit in the short run?	Yes	Yes
Efficiency		
Number of firms	Many	One
Marginal revenue	High	High
Price	Low	High
Producer surplus (excluding dead weight loss)	Yes	Yes
Entry is long run?	Yes	No
Can each economic profit in the long run?	No	Yes
Price discrimination possible?	No	Yes