

# Perfect Competition

Noah Lyman

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- We've talked a lot about optimal firm decision making
  - Firms can optimize both costs and quantity
- However, firms don't make decisions in a void
- They participate in an overarching *market*, the structure of which will have implications for firms' optimal production decisions
- We'll focus on three forms of markets:
  - 1 Perfectly competitive markets
  - 2 Monopolistic markets
  - 3 Oligopolies
- We'll start with the case of perfect competition

- Characteristics of a perfectly competitive market:
  - Large number of firms (small barriers to entry)
  - Undifferentiated (identical) products
  - Large number of buyers
  - Perfect information for firms & consumers
  - Zero economic profits
  - Firms are price takers
- Firms in a perfectly competitive market take prices as given
  - i.e. their production decision has no impact on the market price
- Total revenue is then given simply by:

$$TR(p, q) = pq$$

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- In general, total revenue is given by  $q$  times the *inverse demand curve*  $p(q)$
- In a perfectly competitive setting, inverse demand is just a constant
- Firms in a perfectly competitive market thus face a horizontal demand curve
  - Consumer demand is “perfectly” elastic

- Firm profits in a perfectly competitive market are given by:

$$\pi(q) = pq - c(q)$$

- The optimal production decision satisfies:

$$MC(q) = p$$

- Firms produce until marginal cost equals price
- Note that  $p = MC$  is identical to  $MR = MC$  given perfect competition since  $MR = p$

# Perfect Competition (Example)

$$\pi(q) = pq - 2q^2$$

- As a simple example, suppose that a firm's profits are given above
- Again, to derive optimal quantity, we differentiate with respect to  $q$  and set equal to zero:

$$p - 4q = 0$$

$$q^* = \frac{p}{4}$$

- Optimal quantity is  $q^* = \frac{p}{4}$ . How much does this generate in profits?

# Perfect Competition (Example)

- Plugging  $q^*$  into the profit equation yields:

$$\begin{aligned}\pi(q^*) &= pq^* - 2(q^*)^2 \\ \pi(q^*) &= p\left(\frac{p}{4}\right) - 2\left(\frac{p}{4}\right)^2 \\ &= \frac{p^2}{4} - \frac{p^2}{8} = \frac{p^2}{8}\end{aligned}$$

- The best the firm can do is produce  $\frac{p}{4}$  units of  $q$ , which yields  $\frac{p^2}{8}$  in profits
- Firm attains some positive profits in this example

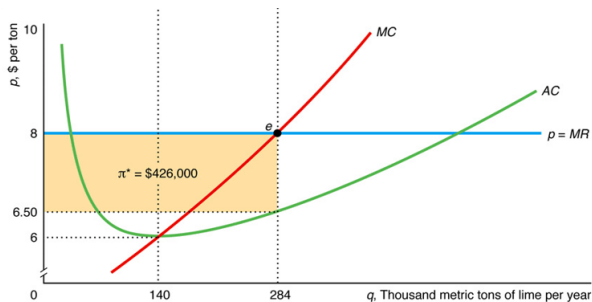
- In order to visualize firm profits graphically, it is useful to observe:

$$\begin{aligned}\pi(q) &= pq - c(q) \\ &= q\left(p - \frac{c(q)}{q}\right) \\ &= q(p - ATC(q))\end{aligned}$$

- Total profits can always be computed as quantity  $q$  times the difference in  $p$  and  $ATC(q)$
- Let's take a look at this graphically



# Firm Profits Visualized



- Profits can be obtained as the area of the rectangle above
- Rectangle has length equal to  $(p - ATC(q))$ , and width equal to  $q$

# Shutdown Decision

- As long as  $p > ATC(q)$ , firms make positive profits
- However, it is possible that firms incur a loss, yet still find it optimal to stay open in the short run
- Recall the shutdown condition:

$$TR(p, q) < VC(q)$$

- Firms shut down if and only if total revenue is less than variable costs

# Shutdown Decision

- In a perfect competition setting, the shutdown condition is:

$$pq < VC(q)$$

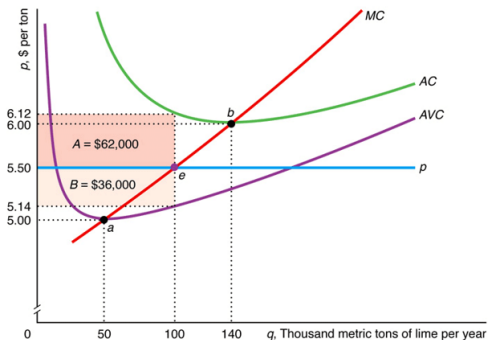
- Dividing by  $q$ , we see the condition above is equivalent to:

$$p < AVC(q)$$

- In a perfectly competitive market, firms shut down if and only if the price falls short of average variable costs
- Firms incur a loss (but stay open) if:

$$ATC(q) > p > AVC(q)$$

# Firm Losses Visualized



- If  $ATC(q) > p$ , firms will incur a loss
- Their total loss can be computed as the area of rectangle “A”

- In summary:
  - Positive profits if:  $p > ATC(q)$
  - Negative profits if:  $ATC(q) > p > AVC(q)$
  - Shut down if:  $AVC(q) > p$
- We can use these insights to think carefully about firms' quantity decisions (i.e. their supply curves)

# Supply Curves

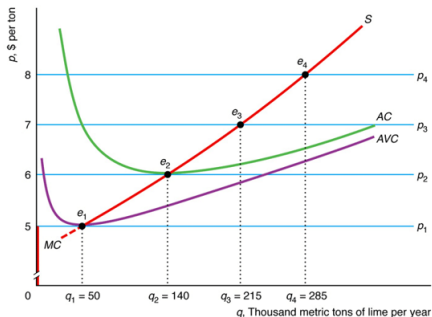
- A firm's supply curve  $q_i^s(p)$  describes their optimal quantity as a function of price  $p$
- Due to the shutdown condition, firms choose  $q_i^s(p) = 0$  if  $p < AVC(q)$
- Supply curves are generally given by:

$$q_i^s(p) = \begin{cases} q^* & \text{if } p \geq AVC(q) \\ 0 & \text{if } p < AVC(q) \end{cases}$$

- $q^*$  is the quantity satisfying:

$$p = MC(q^*)$$

# Supply Curves



- In a PC setting, the supply curve is the portion of the  $MC(q)$  curve above  $AVC(q)$

# Market Supply

- Consider a market with  $N$  firms
- Each firm has the supply curve:

$$q_i^s(p) \quad \text{for } i = 1, \dots, N$$

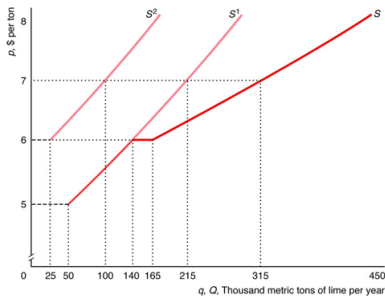
- Recall the definition of “aggregate” or market supply:

$$Q^s(p) = \sum_{i=1}^N q_i^s(p) = q_1(p) + \dots + q_N(p)$$

- The market supply curve is simply the sum of the individual supply curves



# Market Supply



- Aggregate supply is the sum across each of the individual supply curves

# Market Demand

- Suppose there are  $C$  consumers in this market
- Each consumer has the demand function:

$$q_i^d(p) \quad \text{for } i = 1, \dots, C$$

- Similarly, market demand is given by:

$$Q^d(p) = \sum_{i=1}^C q_i^d(p) = q_1^d(p) + \dots + q_C^d(p)$$

- Market demand, or “aggregate” demand, is simply the sum of the individual demands

# Short-Run Market Equilibrium

- A market is in *equilibrium* if market supply equals market demand:

$$Q^s(p) = Q^d(p)$$

- The condition above is referred to as the *market clearing* condition
- The price satisfying market clearing is the market price  $p^*$
- Additionally, all firms maximize profits:

$$p = MC(q_i)$$

- Given a price  $p^*$ , firms produce  $Q^*$
- An equilibrium is summarized by the pair  $(Q^*, p^*)$
- Let's work through an example

# Short-Run Market Equilibrium (Example)

- Consider a market with  $N = 300$  identical firms
- Each firm has the cost function:

$$c(q_i) = 25 + 150q_i^2$$

- Suppose we've derived the following market demand:

$$Q^d(p) = 60 - p$$

- What is the equilibrium of this market?

# Short-Run Market Equilibrium (Example)

- Step one: derive the market supply curve
- Firm profits are given by:

$$\pi(q_i) = pq_i - 25 - 150q_i^2$$

- Individual supply is then given by:

$$q_i^s(p) = \frac{p}{300}$$

- To obtain aggregate supply, just multiply individual supplies by  $N = 300$ :

$$Q^s(p) = \sum_{i=1}^{300} q_i^s(p) = \sum_{i=1}^{300} \frac{p}{300} = p$$

## Short-Run Market Equilibrium (Example)

- We now have both market supply and market demand. Setting them equal:

$$Q^d(p) = Q^s(p)$$

$$60 - p = p$$

$$p^* = 30$$

- The equilibrium price is thus 30. To obtain equilibrium quantity, plug this into either the market supply or demand curve.
  - Can use either since they are equal in equilibrium
- What we obtain in the end is  $(p^*, q^*) = (30, 30)$

# Deriving Short-Run Market Equilibria (Summary)

- To derive the market equilibrium  $(p^*, q^*)$ :
  - ① Derive market supply
  - ② Use market clearing to derive  $p^*$
  - ③ Plug  $p^*$  into market supply or demand to obtain  $q^*$
- Let's go through a slightly more general example

# Short-Run Market Equilibrium

- The market has  $N$  identical firms
- Firms have a convex cost function and profits given by:

$$\pi(q) = pq - \frac{1}{2}q^2$$

- Market demand is linear and decreasing in  $p$ :

$$Q^d(p) = a - bp$$

- $b$  measures consumers' sensitivity to price



# Short-Run Market Equilibrium

- Aggregate supply is given by:  $Q^s(p) = Np$
- The market price is given by:

$$p^* = \frac{a}{b + N}$$

- Firm profits are given by:

$$\pi(q^*) = \frac{a^2}{2(b + N)^2} > 0$$

- Firms make a positive profit here

$$\pi(q^*) = \frac{a^2}{2(b + N)^2}$$

- If this market is profitable, other firms will be drawn to the market, increasing  $N$
- Notice that as  $N$  increases, firm profits are driven to zero
- More firms  $\rightarrow$  more competition  $\rightarrow$  lower prices
- **Takeaway:** In the long run, opportunities for profit draw firms into the market. As the number of firms increases, profits converge to zero.

# Long-Run Equilibrium

- A *long-run* market equilibrium is defined by the following conditions
- Firms maximize profits:

$$MC(q_i^*) = p^*$$

- Markets clear:

$$Q^s(p^*) = Q^d(p^*)$$

- Additionally, firms make zero profit:

$$p^* = ATC(q_i^*)$$

# Zero Economic Profits

- A quick digression: what do we mean by zero profits?
- It is important to distinguish between:
  - Accounting profit
  - Economic profit
- Accounting profit: total revenue minus accounting cost
  - Actual dollar value of profits
- Economic profit: total revenue minus accounting cost & opportunity cost
  - Dollar value of profits minus opportunity cost
- Economic profit measures how much better participating in the market is relative to the next best alternative

# Zero Economic Profits

- When we say “zero profits,” what we really mean is zero *economic profits*
- Economic profits are defined using the market prices of all production inputs
- Market prices reflect the opportunity cost of those factors of production
  - Firm could have used their  $L$  and  $K$  for something else
- Where does opportunity cost pop up in the cost equation? It essentially pops up in the input prices  $w$  and  $r$

# Long-Run Equilibrium

- Back to long-run equilibrium. It is characterized by the three conditions:

$$MC(q_i^*) = p^*$$

$$Q^s(p^*) = Q^d(p^*)$$

$$p^* = ATC(q_i^*)$$

- Same as a short-run equilibrium, but we add the additional condition ensuring firms make zero profits
- Let's go through an example of deriving a long-run market equilibrium

# Long-Run Equilibrium (Example)

- $N$  identical firms, each has cost function:

$$c(q) = 40q - q^2 + .01q^3$$

- Market demand is given by:

$$Q^d(p) = 25000 - 1000p$$

- Three things we need to determine:

- 1 Long-run equilibrium quantity  $Q^*$
- 2 Long-run equilibrium price  $p^*$
- 3 How many firms enter the market? ( $N^*$ )

# Long-Run Equilibrium (Example)

$$\pi(q_i) = pq_i - 40q_i + q_i^2 - .01q_i^3$$

- Starting with firms' profit maximization condition:

$$p = MC(q_i)$$

$$p = 40 - 2q_i + .03q_i^2$$

- Next for the zero-profit condition:

$$p = ATC(q_i)$$

$$p = 40 - q_i + .01q_i^2$$

- Since both  $MC(q_i)$  and  $ATC(q_i)$  equal  $p$ , we can set them equal



# Long-Run Equilibrium (Example)

- Equating  $MC(q_i)$  and  $ATC(q_i)$ , we can derive individual supply:

$$40 - 2q_i + .03q_i^2 = 40 - q_i + .01q_i^2$$

$$.02q_i^2 = q_i$$

$$q^* = 50$$

- We can plug this into the zero-profit condition to obtain the equilibrium price:

$$p = 40 - (50) + .01(50)^2$$

$$p^* = 15$$

- Lastly, we need to determine how many firms enter the market ( $N^*$ ). For this, we can use the market clearing condition.

# Long-Run Equilibrium (Example)

- Market clearing requires that:

$$\begin{aligned}Q^d(p) &= Q^s(p) \\25000 - 1000p &= Nq_i^* \\25000 - 1000(15) &= N(50) \\N^* &= 200\end{aligned}$$

- In the long run,  $N^* = 200$  firms participate in this market

# Deriving Long-run Market Equilibria (Summary)

- In summary, to derive a long-run market equilibrium, we need three things:
  - Equilibrium quantity  $Q^s = q^* \times N^*$
  - Equilibrium price  $p^*$
  - Equilibrium number of firms  $N^*$
- Obtain  $q^*$  by setting  $MC(q_i) = ATC(q_i)$
- Obtain  $p^*$  by plugging  $q^*$  into either the profit-maximizing or zero-profit condition
- Obtain  $N^*$  using the market-clearing condition

# Market Selection

- We mentioned that as more and more firms enter the market, prices are driven down
- Remember, if  $p < AVC(q_i)$ , firm  $i$  prefers shutting down over continuing to participate in the market
- As prices fall, some firms will inevitably shut down
- In particular, high AVC firms will be driven out of the market by low AVC firms
- This phenomenon is what's at the heart of *market selection*

- We can think about the evolution of markets using biological evolution as an analogy
- Natural selection: species with favorable traits survive while species with unfavorable traits die out
- Market selection: firms with favorable qualities (low costs) survive while firms with unfavorable qualities (high costs) eventually die out
- The market favors firms who can produce efficiently (i.e. produce at relatively low cost)

# Market Selection (Summary)

- Profit opportunities draw firms into the market
- As the number of firms in the market increases, competition increases, driving prices (and profits) down
- As prices fall, high-cost firms are gradually “priced out” of the market
- The more efficient firms, those who can produce at relatively low cost, survive