CHAPTER 6
Supply, Demand, and Government Policies
In this chapter, look for the answers to these questions

• What are price ceilings and price floors? What are some examples of each?

• How do price ceilings and price floors affect market outcomes?

• How do taxes affect market outcomes? How do the effects depend on whether the tax is imposed on buyers or sellers?

• What is the incidence of a tax? What determines the incidence?
Government Policies That Alter the Private Market Outcome

- **Price controls**
  - **Price ceiling**: a legal maximum on the price of a good or service  
    *Example: rent control*
  - **Price floor**: a legal minimum on the price of a good or service  
    *Example: minimum wage*

- **Taxes**
  - The govt can make buyers or sellers pay a specific amount on each unit.

We will use the supply/demand model to see how each policy affects the market outcome (the price buyers pay, the price sellers receive, and eq’m quantity).
EXAMPLE 1: The Market for Apartments

Eq’m w/o price controls

Rental price of apartments

$800

300

Quantity of apartments

P

S

D
A price ceiling above the eq’m price is **not binding**—has no effect on the market outcome.
How Price Ceilings Affect Market Outcomes

The eq’m price ($800) is above the ceiling and therefore illegal. The ceiling is a binding constraint on the price, causes a shortage.
How Price Ceilings Affect Market Outcomes

In the long run, supply and demand are more price-elastic. So, the shortage is larger.
Shortages and Rationing

- With a shortage, sellers must ration the goods among buyers.

- Some rationing mechanisms: (1) Long lines (2) Discrimination according to sellers’ biases

- These mechanisms are often unfair, and inefficient: the goods do not necessarily go to the buyers who value them most highly.

- In contrast, when prices are not controlled, the rationing mechanism is efficient (the goods go to the buyers that value them most highly) and impersonal (and thus fair).
EXAMPLE 2: The Market for Unskilled Labor

- Wage paid to unskilled workers: $6.00
- Quantity of unskilled workers: 500
How Price Floors Affect Market Outcomes

A price floor below the eq’m price is **not binding** – has no effect on the market outcome.

![Graph showing the impact of a price floor](image-url)
How Price Floors Affect Market Outcomes

The eq’m wage ($6) is below the floor and therefore illegal. The floor is a binding constraint on the wage, causes a surplus (i.e., unemployment).

The graph shows a labor surplus at a price floor of $7.25. The equilibrium wage ($6) is below the floor, making it illegal. The floor acts as a binding constraint on the wage, causing a surplus of labor (i.e., unemployment).
Min wage laws do not affect highly skilled workers. They do affect teen workers. Studies: A 10% increase in the min wage raises teen unemployment by 1–3%.
Price controls

Determine effects of:

A. $90 price ceiling
B. $90 price floor
C. $120 price floor
A. $90 price ceiling

The price falls to $90.

Buyers demand 120 rooms, sellers supply 90, leaving a shortage.

The market for hotel rooms

Price ceiling

shortage = 30
B. $90 price floor

Eq’m price is above the floor, so floor is not binding.

\[ P = $100, \quad Q = 100 \text{ rooms}. \]
The market for hotel rooms

The price rises to $120.

Buyers demand 60 rooms, sellers supply 120, causing a surplus.

\[ \text{surplus} = 60 \]

\[ \text{Price floor} \]
Evaluating Price Controls

- Recall one of the Ten Principles from Chapter 1: *Markets are usually a good way to organize economic activity.*

- Prices are the signals that guide the allocation of society’s resources. This allocation is altered when policymakers restrict prices.

- Price controls often intended to help the poor, but often hurt more than help.
Taxes

- The govt levies taxes on many goods & services to raise revenue to pay for national defense, public schools, etc.

- The govt can make buyers or sellers pay the tax.

- The tax can be a % of the good’s price, or a specific amount for each unit sold.
  - For simplicity, we analyze per-unit taxes only.
EXAMPLE 3: The Market for Pizza

Eq’m w/o tax

$10.00

500

S$_1$

D$_1$
A Tax on Buyers

Hence, a tax on buyers shifts the $D$ curve down by the amount of the tax.

$P$ would have to fall by $1.50$ to make buyers willing to buy same $Q$ as before.

E.g., if $P$ falls from $10.00$ to $8.50$, buyers still willing to purchase 500 pizzas.

Effects of a $1.50$ per unit tax on buyers

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A Tax on Buyers

New eq’m:

\[ Q = 450 \]

Sellers receive

\[ P_s = $9.50 \]

Buyers pay

\[ P_B = $11.00 \]

Difference between them

\[ = $1.50 = \text{tax} \]

Effects of a $1.50 per unit tax on buyers:

Sellers receive \( P_s = $9.50 \)

Buyers pay \( P_B = $11.00 \)

Difference between them = $1.50 = tax

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The **Incidence** of a Tax:

how the burden of a tax is shared among market participants

In our example, buyers pay $1.00 more, sellers get $0.50 less.

- $P_B = 11.00$
- $P_S = 9.50$

**Graph Details:**
- $P_B$: $11.00$
- $P_S$: $9.50$
- Tax: Increases price by $1.00, decreases seller's income by $0.50.
A Tax on Sellers

The tax effectively raises sellers’ costs by $1.50 per pizza. Sellers will supply 500 pizzas only if $P$ rises to $11.50, to compensate for this cost increase.

Hence, a tax on sellers shifts the $S$ curve up by the amount of the tax.
New eq’m:

\[ Q = 450 \]

Buyers pay

\[ P_B = $11.00 \]

Sellers receive

\[ P_S = $9.50 \]

Difference between them

\[ = $1.50 = \text{tax} \]
The Outcome Is the Same in Both Cases!

The effects on $P$ and $Q$, and the tax incidence are the same whether the tax is imposed on buyers or sellers!

What matters is this:

A tax drives a wedge between the price buyers pay and the price sellers receive.

$P_B = \$11.00$

$P_S = \$9.50$

$Q$

$P$

$S_1$

$D_1$

450 500

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Suppose govt imposes a tax on buyers of $30 per room. Find new $Q$, $P_B$, $P_S$, and incidence of tax.
The market for hotel rooms

\[ Q = 80 \]
\[ P_B = $110 \]
\[ P_S = $80 \]

Incidence
buyers: $10
sellers: $20
Elasticity and Tax Incidence

CASE 1: Supply is more elastic than demand

It’s easier for sellers than buyers to leave the market. So buyers bear most of the burden of the tax.
Elasticity and Tax Incidence

CASE 2: Demand is more elastic than supply

It’s easier for buyers than sellers to leave the market. Sellers bear most of the burden of the tax.
CASE STUDY: Who Pays the Luxury Tax?

- 1990: Congress adopted a luxury tax on yachts, private airplanes, furs, expensive cars, etc.
- Goal: raise revenue from those who could most easily afford to pay—wealthy consumers.
- But who really pays this tax?
CASE STUDY: Who Pays the Luxury Tax?

The market for yachts

Demand is price-elastic.

In the short run, supply is inelastic.

Hence, companies that build yachts pay most of the tax.
Prior to 2011, the Social Security payroll tax was 6.2% taken from workers’ pay and 6.2% paid by employers (total 12.4%). The Tax Relief Act (2010) reduced the worker’s portion from 6.2% to 4.2% in 2011, but left the employer’s portion at 6.2%.

**QUESTION:**
Should this change have increased the typical worker’s take-home pay by exactly 2%, more than 2%, or less than 2%? Do any elasticities affect your answer? Explain.
As long as labor supply and labor demand both have price elasticity > 0, the tax cut will be shared by workers and employers, i.e., workers’ take-home pay will rise less than 2%.

The answer does NOT depend on whether labor demand is more or less elastic than labor supply.

**FOLLOW-UP QUESTION:**
Who gets the bigger share of this tax cut, workers or employers? How do elasticities determine the answer?
Answers to follow-up question

- If labor demand is more elastic than labor supply, workers get more of the tax cut than employers.
- If labor demand is less elastic than labor supply, employers get the larger share of the tax cut.
CONCLUSION: Government Policies and the Allocation of Resources

- Each of the policies in this chapter affects the allocation of society’s resources.
  - **Example 1:** A tax on pizza reduces eq’m $Q$. With less production of pizza, resources (workers, ovens, cheese) will become available to other industries.
  - **Example 2:** A binding minimum wage causes a surplus of workers, a waste of resources.
- So, it’s important for policymakers to apply such policies very carefully.
Summary

- A price ceiling is a legal maximum on the price of a good. An example is rent control. If the price ceiling is below the eq’m price, it is binding and causes a shortage.

- A price floor is a legal minimum on the price of a good. An example is the minimum wage. If the price floor is above the eq’m price, it is binding and causes a surplus. The labor surplus caused by the minimum wage is unemployment.
Summary

• A tax on a good places a wedge between the price buyers pay and the price sellers receive, and causes the eq’m quantity to fall, whether the tax is imposed on buyers or sellers.

• The incidence of a tax is the division of the burden of the tax between buyers and sellers, and does not depend on whether the tax is imposed on buyers or sellers.

• The incidence of the tax depends on the price elasticities of supply and demand.