

Introduction

- One of the principles from Chapter 1: *Markets are usually a good way to organize economy activity.* In absence of market failures, the competitive market outcome is efficient, maximizes total surplus.
- One type of market failure: externality, the uncompensated impact of one person's actions on the well-being of a bystander.
- Externalities can be negative or positive, depending on whether impact on bystander is adverse or beneficial.

EXTERNALITIES

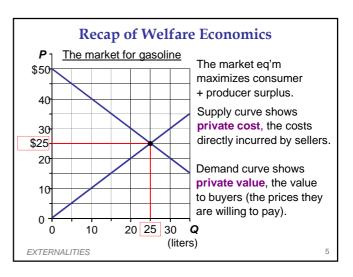
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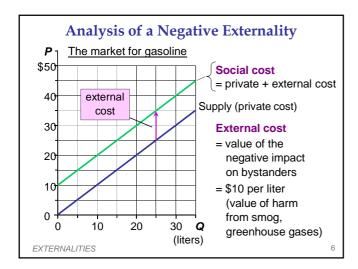
Examples of Negative Externalities

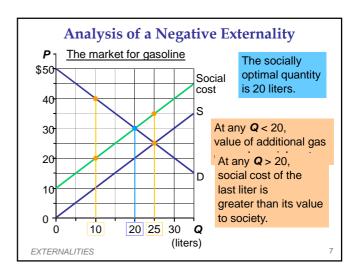
- Air pollution from a factory
- The neighbor's barking dog
- Late-night stereo blasting from the dorm room next to yours
- Noise pollution from construction projects
- Health risk to others from second-hand smoke
- Talking on cell phone while driving makes the roads less safe for others

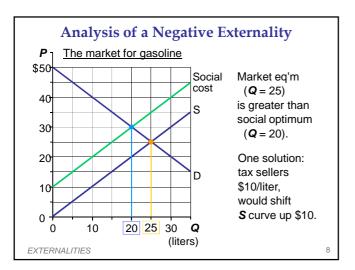
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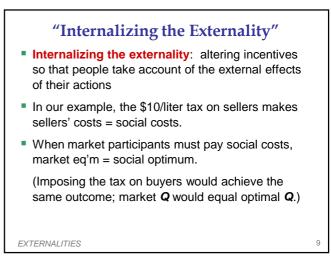












Examples of Positive Externalities

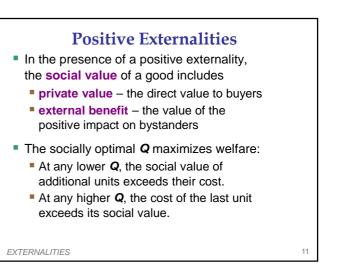
- Being vaccinated against contagious diseases protects not only you, but people who visit the salad bar or produce section after you.
- R&D creates knowledge others can use.
- People going to college raise the population's education level, which reduces crime and improves government.

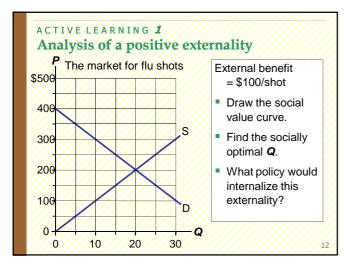
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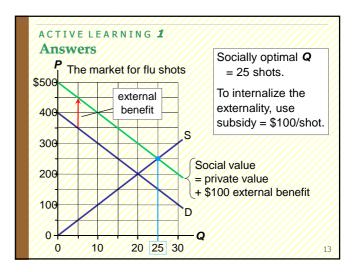


Thank you for not contaminating the fruit supply!

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Effects of Externalities: Summary

If negative externality

market quantity larger than socially desirable

If positive externality

market quantity smaller than socially desirable

To remedy the problem,

"internalize the externality"

- tax goods with negative externalities
- subsidize goods with positive externalities

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Public Policies Toward Externalities

Two approaches:

- Command-and-control policies regulate behavior directly. Examples:
 - Iimits on quantity of pollution emitted
 - requirements that firms adopt a particular technology to reduce emissions
- Market-based policies provide incentives so that private decision-makers will choose to solve the problem on their own. Examples:
 - corrective taxes and subsidies
 - tradable pollution permits

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Corrective Taxes & Subsidies

- Corrective tax: a tax designed to induce private decision-makers to take account of the social costs that arise from a negative externality
- Also called Pigouvian taxes after Arthur Pigou (1877-1959).
- The ideal corrective tax = external cost
- For activities with positive externalities, ideal corrective subsidy = external benefit

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Corrective Taxes & Subsidies

- Other taxes and subsidies distort incentives and move economy away from the social optimum.
- Corrective taxes & subsidies
 - align private incentives with society's interests
 - make private decision-makers take into account the external costs and benefits of their actions
 - move economy toward a more efficient allocation of resources.

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Corrective Taxes vs. Regulations

- Different firms have different costs of pollution abatement.
- Efficient outcome: Firms with the lowest abatement costs reduce pollution the most.
- A pollution tax is efficient:
 - Firms with low abatement costs will reduce pollution to reduce their tax burden.
 - Firms with high abatement costs have greater willingness to pay tax.
- In contrast, a regulation requiring all firms to reduce pollution by a specific amount not efficient.

Corrective Taxes vs. Regulations

Corrective taxes are better for the environment:

- The corrective tax gives firms incentive to continue reducing pollution as long as the cost of doing so is less than the tax.
- If a cleaner technology becomes available, the tax gives firms an incentive to adopt it.
- In contrast, firms have no incentive for further reduction beyond the level specified in a regulation.

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Example of a Corrective Tax: The Gas Tax

The gas tax targets three negative externalities:

- <u>Congestion</u> The more you drive, the more you contribute to congestion.
- <u>Accidents</u> Larger vehicles cause more damage in an accident.
- Pollution Burning fossil fuels produces greenhouse gases.

ACTIVE LEARNING **2** A. Regulating lower SO₂ emissions

- Acme and US Electric run coal-burning power plants. Each emits 40 tons of sulfur dioxide per month, total emissions = 80 tons/month.
- Goal: Reduce SO₂ emissions 25%, to 60 tons/month
- Cost of reducing emissions: \$1,000/ton for Acme, \$2,000/ton for USE
- Policy option 1: Regulation Every firm must cut its emissions 25% (10 tons).

Your task: Compute the cost to each firm and total cost of achieving goal using this policy.

ACTIVE LEARNING **2** A. Answers

- Each firm must reduce emissions by 10 tons.
- Cost of reducing emissions: \$1,000/ton for Acme, \$2,000/ton for USE.
- Compute cost of achieving goal with this policy: Cost to Acme: (10 tons) x (\$1,000/ton) = \$10,000 Cost to USE: (10 tons) x (\$2,000/ton) = \$20,000 Total cost of achieving goal = \$30,000

ACTIVE LEARNING **2 B. Tradable pollution permits**

- Initially, Acme and USE each emit 40 tons SO₂/month.
- Goal: reduce SO₂ emissions to 60 tons/month total.
- Policy option 2: Tradable pollution permits
- Issue 60 permits, each allows one ton SO₂ emissions. Give 30 permits to each firm. Establish market for trading permits.
- Each firm may use all its permits to emit 30 tons, may emit < 30 tons and sell leftover permits,
- or may purchase extra permits to emit > 30 tons. Your task: Compute cost of achieving goal if Acme uses 20 permits and sells 10 to USE for \$1,500 each.

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ACTIVE LEARNING **2 B. Answers**

- Goal: reduce emissions from 80 to 60 tons
- Cost of reducing emissions: \$1,000/ton for Acme, \$2,000/ton for USE.

Compute cost of achieving goal:

Acme

- sells 10 permits to USE for \$1,500 each, gets \$15,000
- uses 20 permits, emits 20 tons SO₂
- spends \$20,000 to reduce emissions by 20 tons
- net cost to Acme: \$20,000 \$15,000 = \$5,000

continued...

ACTIVE LEARNING **2**

B. Answers, continued

- Goal: reduce emissions from 80 to 60 tons
- Cost of reducing emissions: \$1,000/ton for Acme, \$2,000/ton for USE.

USE

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- buys 10 permits from Acme, spends \$15,000
- uses these 10 plus original 30 permits, emits 40 tons
- spends nothing on abatement
- net cost to USE = \$15,000

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Total cost of achieving goal = 5000 + 15000 = $20,000
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Using tradable permits, goal is achieved at lower total cost and lower cost to each firm than using regulation. 25

Tradable Pollution Permits

- A tradable pollution permits system reduces pollution at lower cost than regulation.
 - Firms with low cost of reducing pollution do so and sell their unused permits.
 - Firms with high cost of reducing pollution buy permits.
- Result: Pollution reduction is concentrated among those firms with lowest costs.

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Tradable Pollution Permits in the Real World

- SO₂ permits traded in the U.S. since 1995.
- Nitrogen oxide permits traded in the northeastern U.S. since 1999.
- Carbon emissions permits traded in Europe since January 1, 2005.

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Corrective Taxes vs. Tradable Pollution Permits

- Like most demand curves, firms' demand for the ability to pollute is a downward-sloping function of the "price" of polluting.
 - A corrective tax raises this price and thus reduces the quantity of pollution firms demand.
 - A tradable permits system restricts the supply of pollution rights, has the same effect as the tax.
- When policymakers do not know the position of this demand curve, the permits system achieves pollution reduction targets more precisely.

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Objections to the Economic Analysis of Pollution

- Some politicians, many environmentalists argue that no one should be able to "buy" the right to pollute, cannot put a price on the environment.
- However, people face tradeoffs. The value of clean air & water must be compared to their cost.
- The market-based approach reduces the cost of environmental protection, so it should increase the public's demand for a clean environment.

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Private Solutions to Externalities

Types of private solutions:

- Moral codes and social sanctions, *e.g.,* the "Golden Rule"
- Charities, e.g., the Sierra Club
- Contracts between market participants and the affected bystanders

Private Solutions to Externalities

The Coase theorem:

If private parties can costlessly bargain over the allocation of resources, they can solve the externalities problem on their own.

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The Coase Theorem: An Example

Dick owns a dog named Spot.

Negative externality: Spot's barking disturbs Jane, Dick's neighbor.

The socially efficient outcome maximizes Dick's + Jane's well-being.

If Dick values having Spot more than Jane values peace & quiet, the dog should stay.

Coase theorem: The private market will reach the efficient outcome on its own...

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The Coase Theorem: An Example CASE 1: Dick has the right to keep Spot. Benefit to Dick of having Spot = \$5,000 Cost to Jane of Spot's barking = \$8,000 Socially efficient outcome: Spot goes bye-bye. Private outcome: Jane pays Dick \$6,000 to get rid of Spot, both Jane and Dick are better off. Private outcome = efficient outcome.

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The Coase Theorem: An Example

CASE 2:

Dick has the right to keep Spot. Benefit to Dick of having Spot = \$10,000 Cost to Jane of Spot's barking = \$8,000

- Socially efficient outcome: See Spot stay.
- Private outcome: Jane not willing to pay more than \$8,000, Dick not willing to accept less than \$10,000, so Spot stays.
- Private outcome = efficient outcome.

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CASE 3: Jane has the legal right to peace & quiet. Benefit to Dick of having Spot = \$8,000 Cost to Jane of Spot's barking = \$5,000 Cost to Jane of Spot's barking = \$5,000

The Coase Theorem: An Example

- Socially efficient outcome: Dick keeps Spot.
- Private outcome: Dick pays Jane \$6,000 to put up with Spot's barking.
- Private outcome = efficient outcome.

The private market achieves the efficient outcome regardless of the initial distribution of rights.

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ACTIVE LEARNING **3** Applying Coase

Collectively, the 1000 residents of Green Valley value swimming in Blue Lake at \$1,000,000.

A nearby factory pollutes the lake water, and would have to pay \$500,000 for non-polluting equipment.

- A. Describe a Coase-like private solution.
- B. Can you think of any reasons why this solution might not work in the real world?

Why Private Solutions Do Not Always Work

1. Transaction costs:

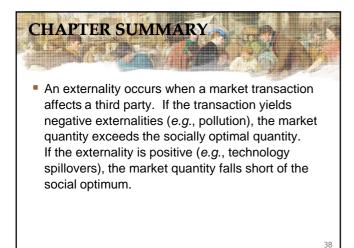
The costs parties incur in the process of agreeing to and following through on a bargain. These costs may make it impossible to reach a mutually beneficial agreement.

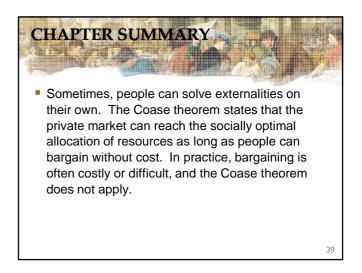
- Stubbornness: (最牛釘子戶)
 Even if a beneficial agreement is possible, each party may hold out for a better deal.
- Coordination problems: If # of parties is very large, coordinating them may be costly, difficult, or impossible.

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The government can attempt to remedy the problem. It can internalize the externality using corrective taxes. It can issue permits to polluters and establish a market where permits can be traded. Such policies often protect the environment at a lower cost to society than direct regulation.

Externalities

- Social Cost/Benefit ≠ Private Cost/Benefit
- Market-based Public Policy:
 - Corrective Taxes
 - Tradable Pollution Permits
- Private Solutions: Coase Theorem
- Homework: Mankiw, Ch.10, pp. 221-223, Problem 6, 7, 8, 9, 12, 13.

Additional Homework Questions

- True or False. If universities were made liable to their students for the effects of assaults that occurred on campus, the number of such assaults might go up.
- True or False. If a new law states that married men have the duty to do at least half the housework (or, wives have the right to make such a request), then a lot of men will have to do more housework than they do today.

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Additional Homework Questions

- True or False. If the courts enforce a negligence standard in determining liability for auto accidents, then people will take too many car trips.
- Definition: "Under a negligence rule, injurers are responsible for the damages they cause to their victims only if they have not met the applicable standard of care. If injurers meet that standard of care, then they are not liable and victim bears the full cost of their injuries."
 - Bajtelsmit and Thistle (2007)

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