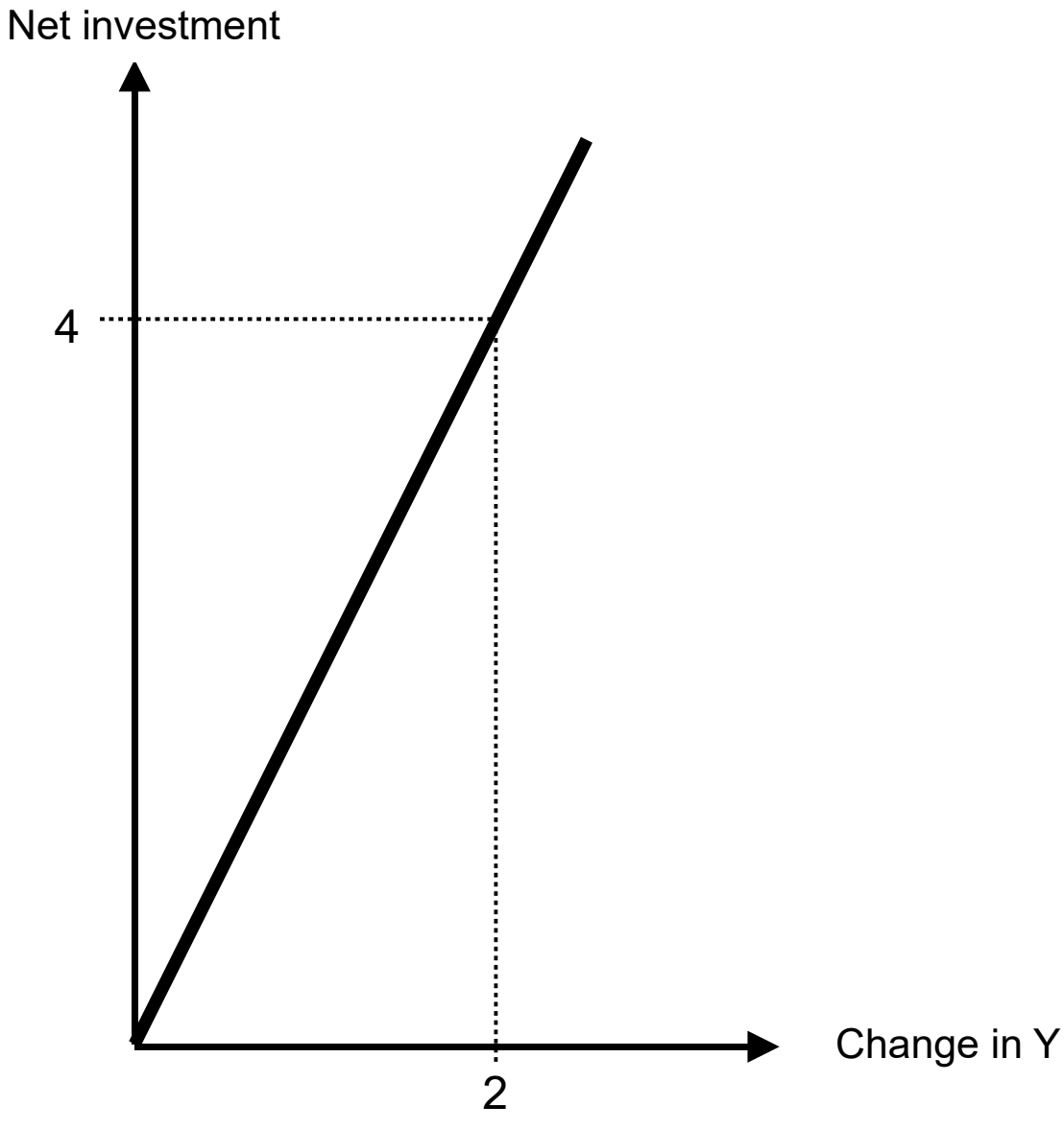
Accelerator

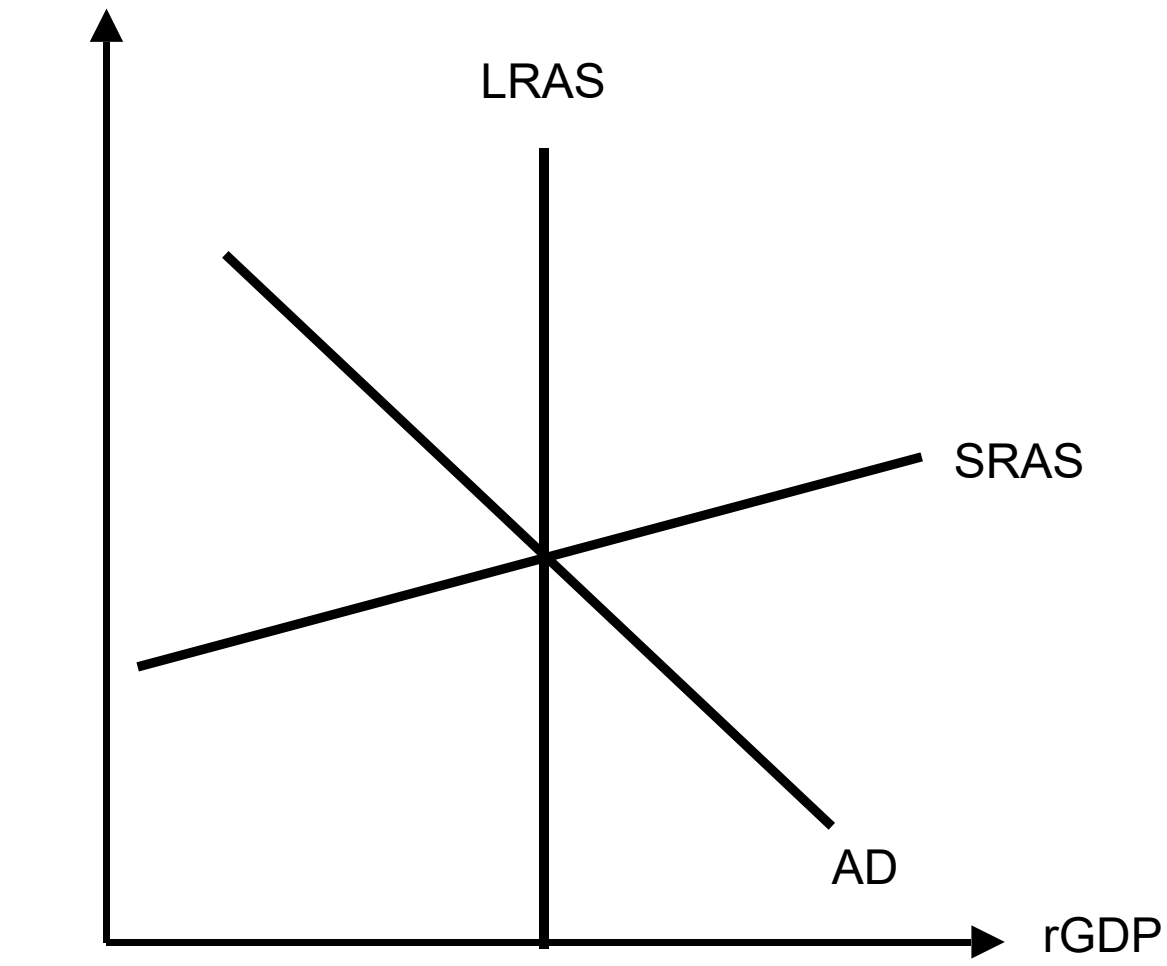
① $\text{Accelerator} = \dfrac{\text{Net investment}}{\text{Change in Y}}$

Net investment = Gross investment - depreciation
Y = Output

② We assume an accelerator of 2.

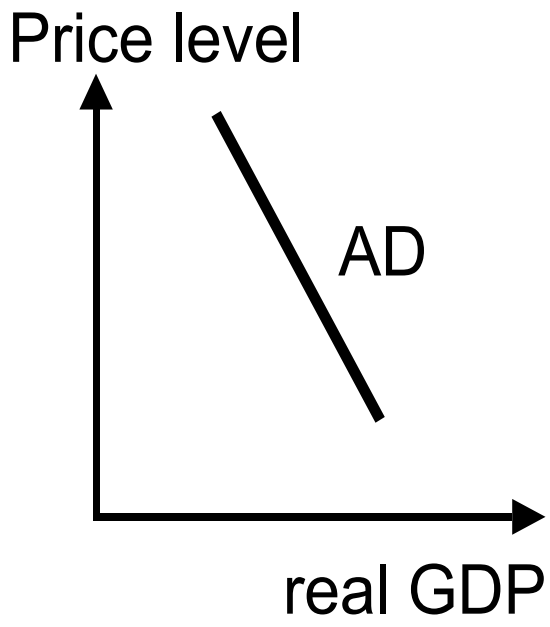


AD-AS model



LRAS = Long-run aggregate supply
SRAS = Short-run aggregate supply
AD = Aggregate demand
rGDP = Real gross domestic product

Aggregate demand

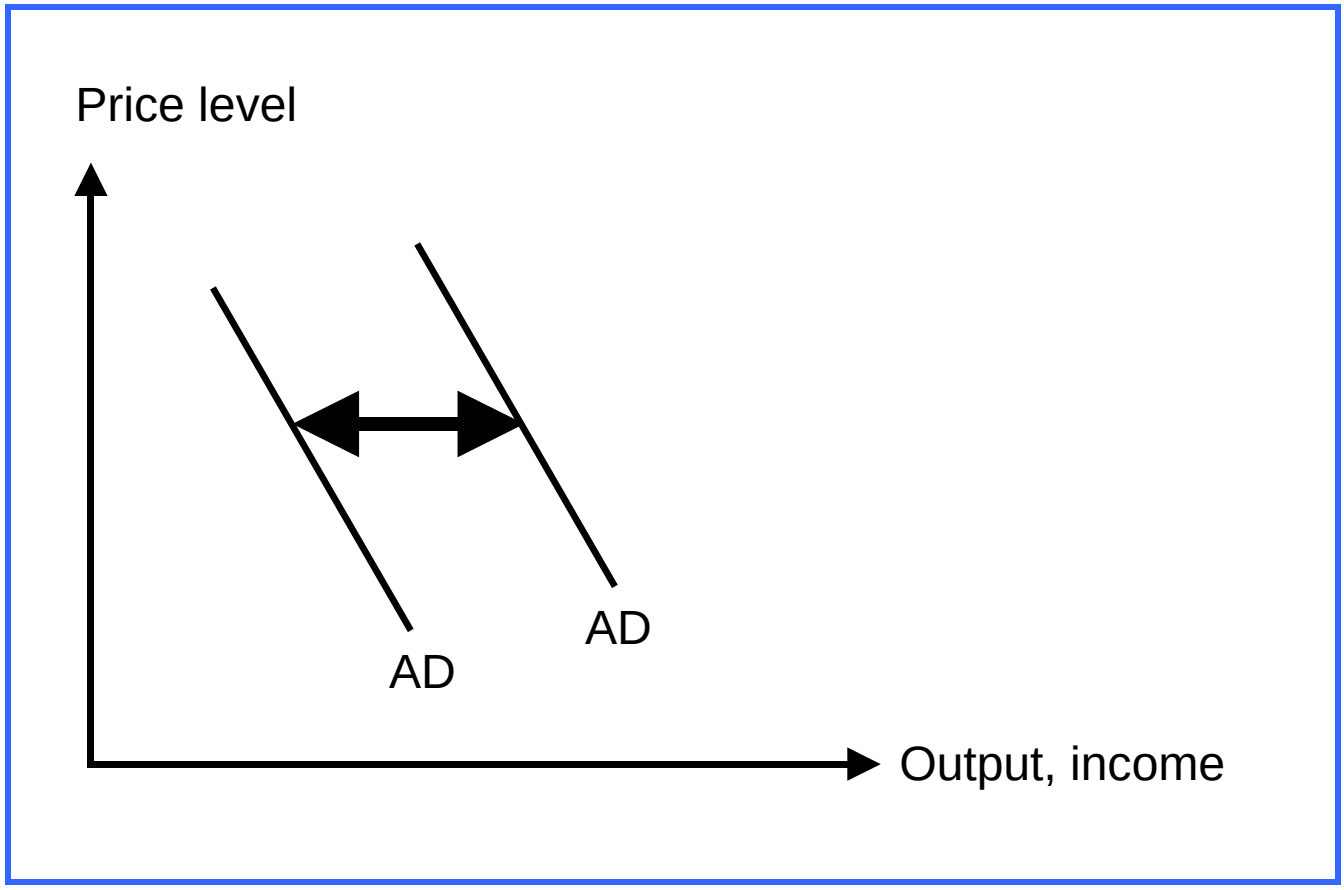


AD = Aggregate demand

GDP = Gross domestic product

- AD shows total spending (consumption, investment, government spending and net exports) at different price levels.
- Reasons for downward sloping:
  - Wealth effect
  - Interest rate effect
  - Effect on exports and imports

Aggregate demand - shifts



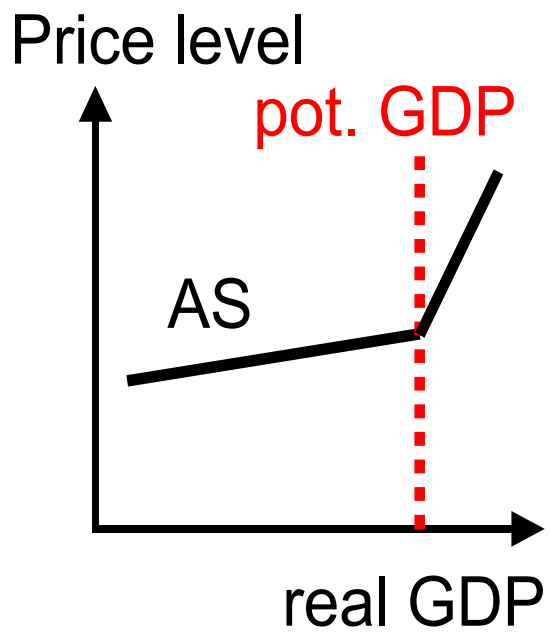
AD = Aggregate demand

Possible reasons for shifts

Change in the following items:

- Consumption
- Investment
- Government spending
- Net exports

Aggregate supply



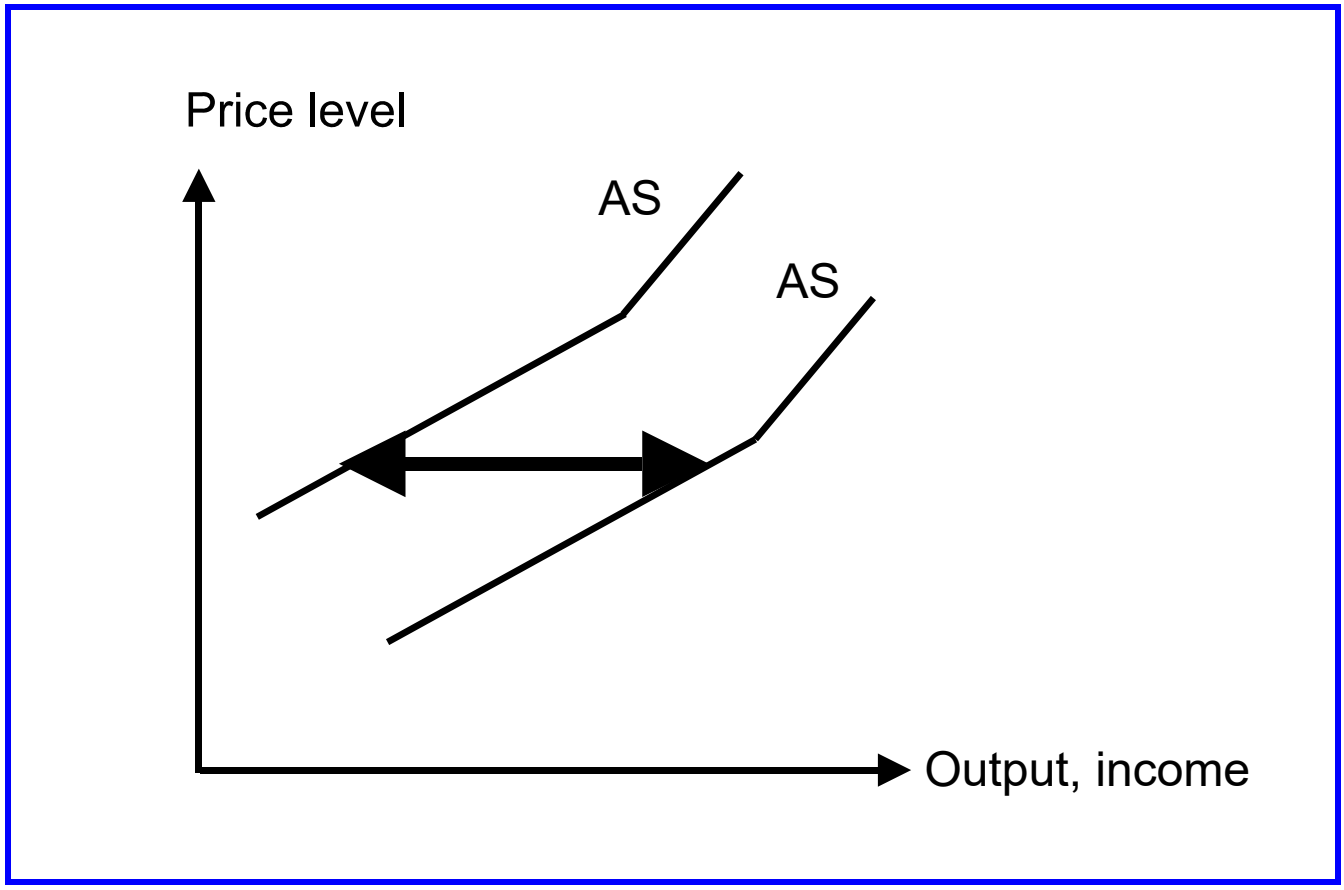
AS = Aggregate supply

GDP = Gross domestic product

pot. = potential (>>> full employment)

- AS shows real GDP produced in a country during a period of time, usually in a year, at different price levels.
- AS slopes upwards because firms have an incentive to offer more at higher price levels or less at lower price levels.

Aggregate supply - shifts



AS = Aggregate supply

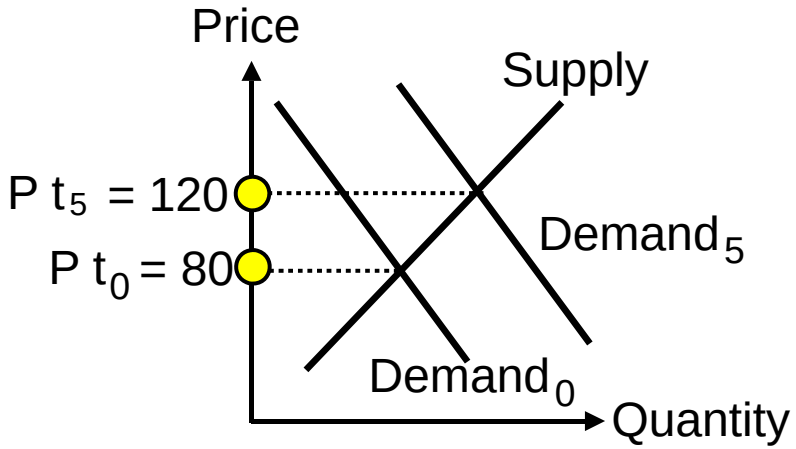
Possible reasons for shifts

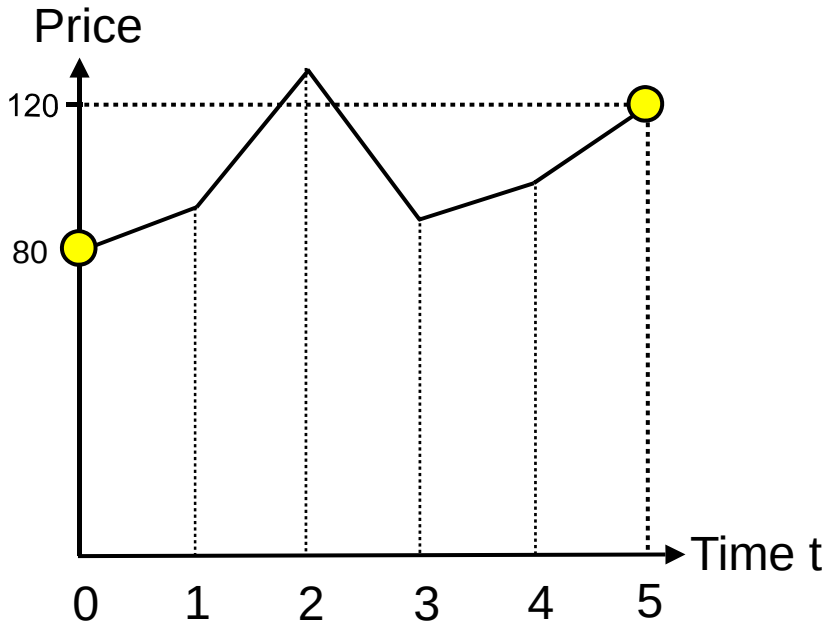
Change in the following items:

- Productivity
- Input prices
- Regulations by the government
- Business taxes

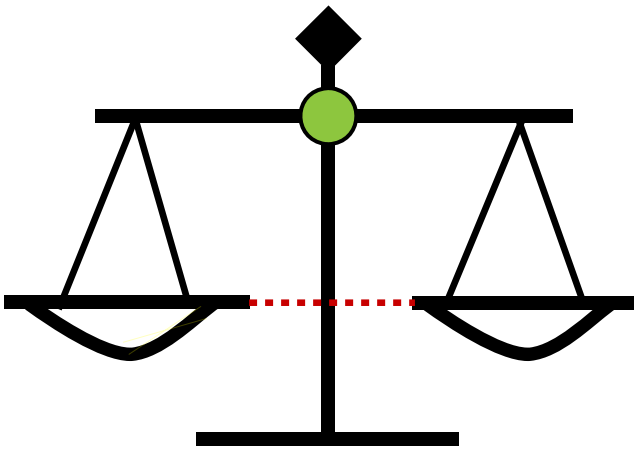
Analysis of markets - comparative static and dynamic

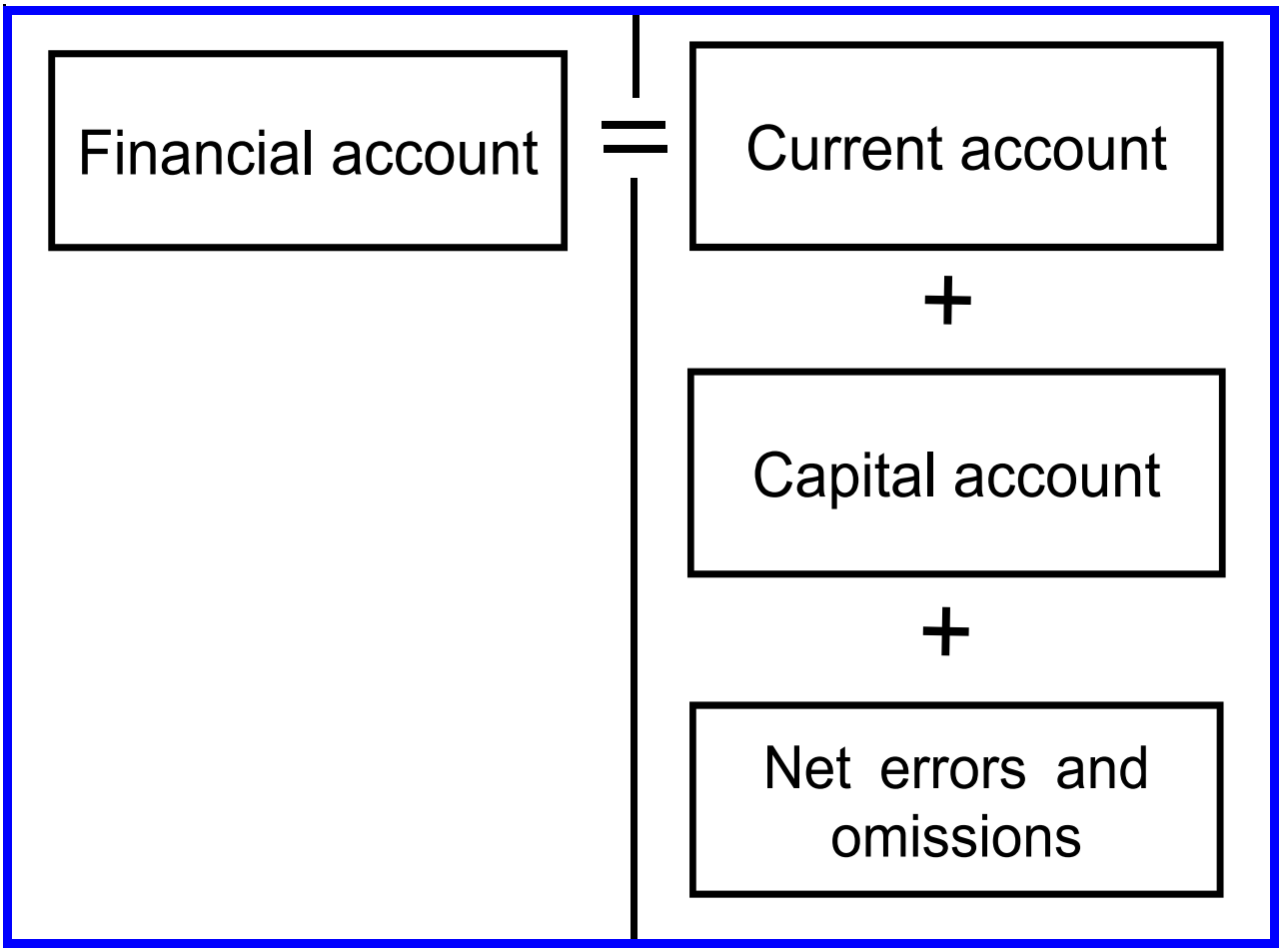
Comparative static analysis of markets	**Dynamic** analysis of markets
→ Different equilibrium positions are displayed without taking notice of the adjustment process.	→ Analysis of a market during a period of time
Ex.: Market for oil at time t_0 and t_5; the change is due to an increase in demand	Ex.: Price trend of oil from t_0 to t_5





Balance of payments



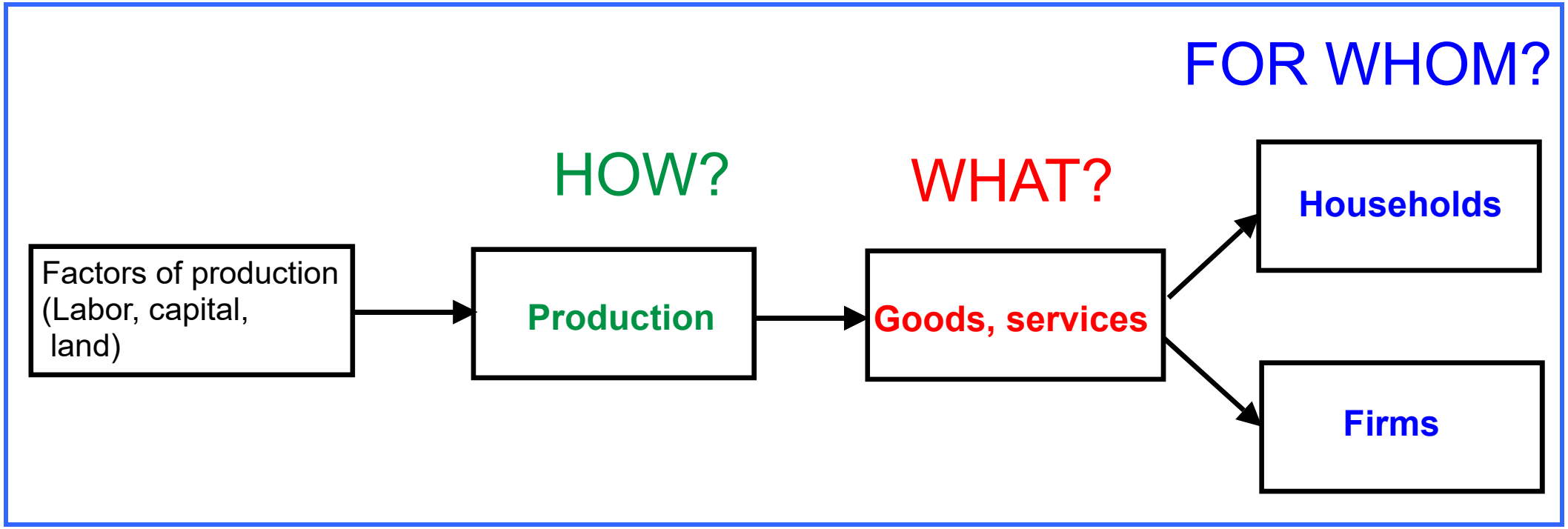


Alternatively:

0 = Current account + capital account + net errors and omissions
- **financial account**

Basic questions in every economy

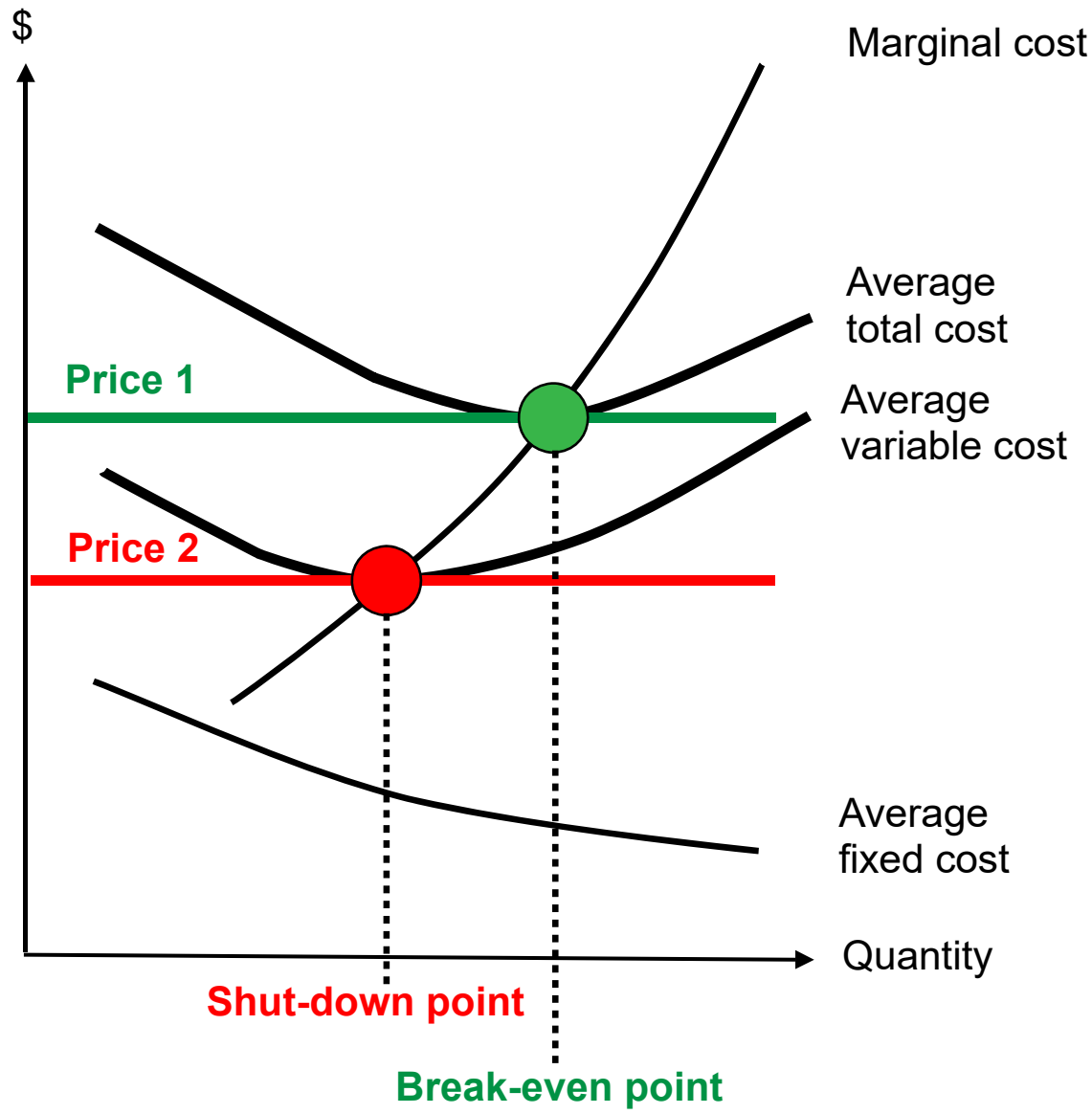
- **HOW** to produce?
- **WHAT** is to be produced?
- **FOR WHOM** is to be produced?



Break-even and shut-down point

Assumptions:

- Competitive firm (→ The price is given.)
- Short-run (→ There are fixed and variable costs.)

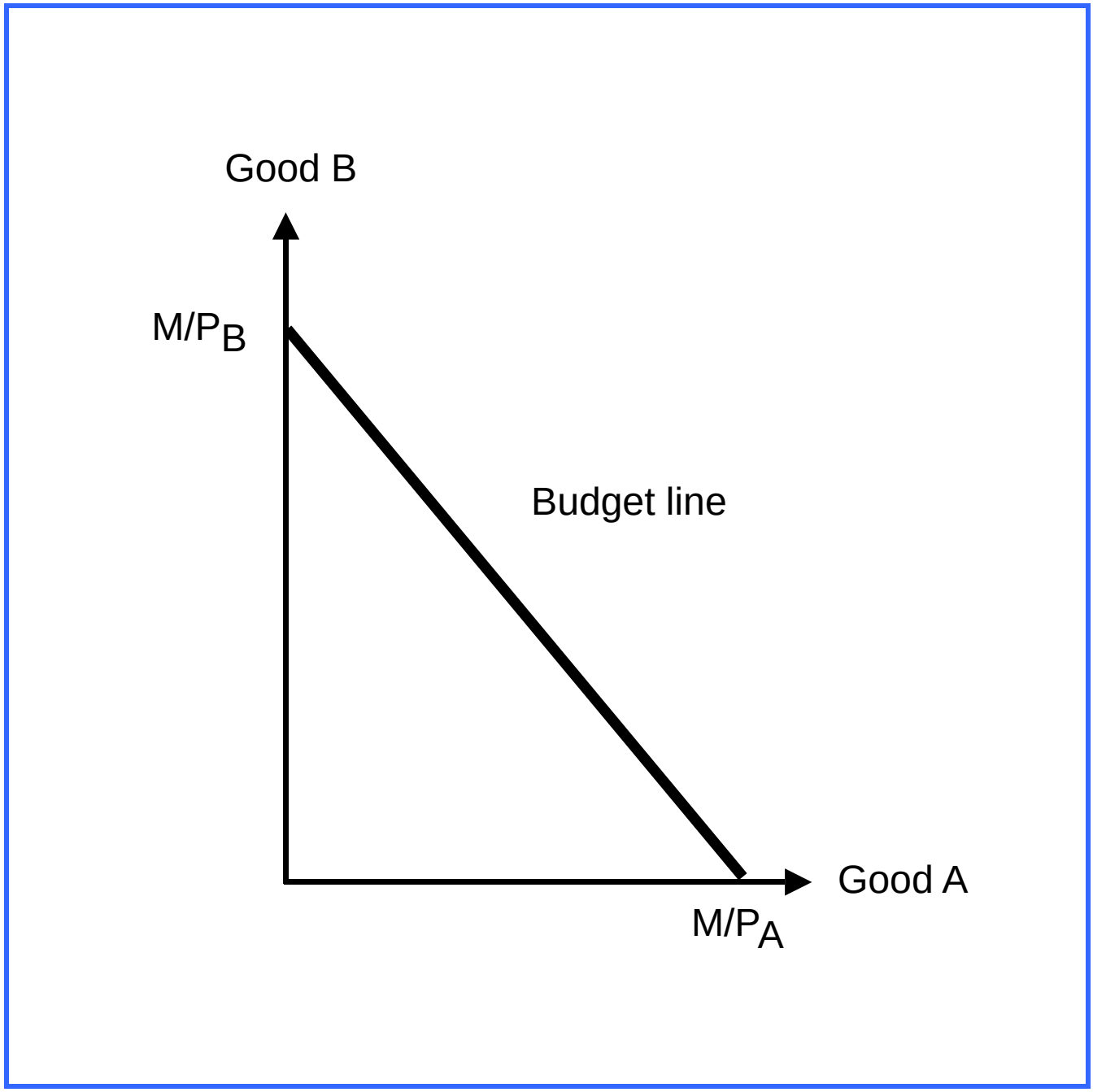


Shut-down point → Price (P) = Average variable cost
There is no production if P **<** Average variable cost

Break-even point → P = Average revenue = Average cost
There is no profit at the break-even point.

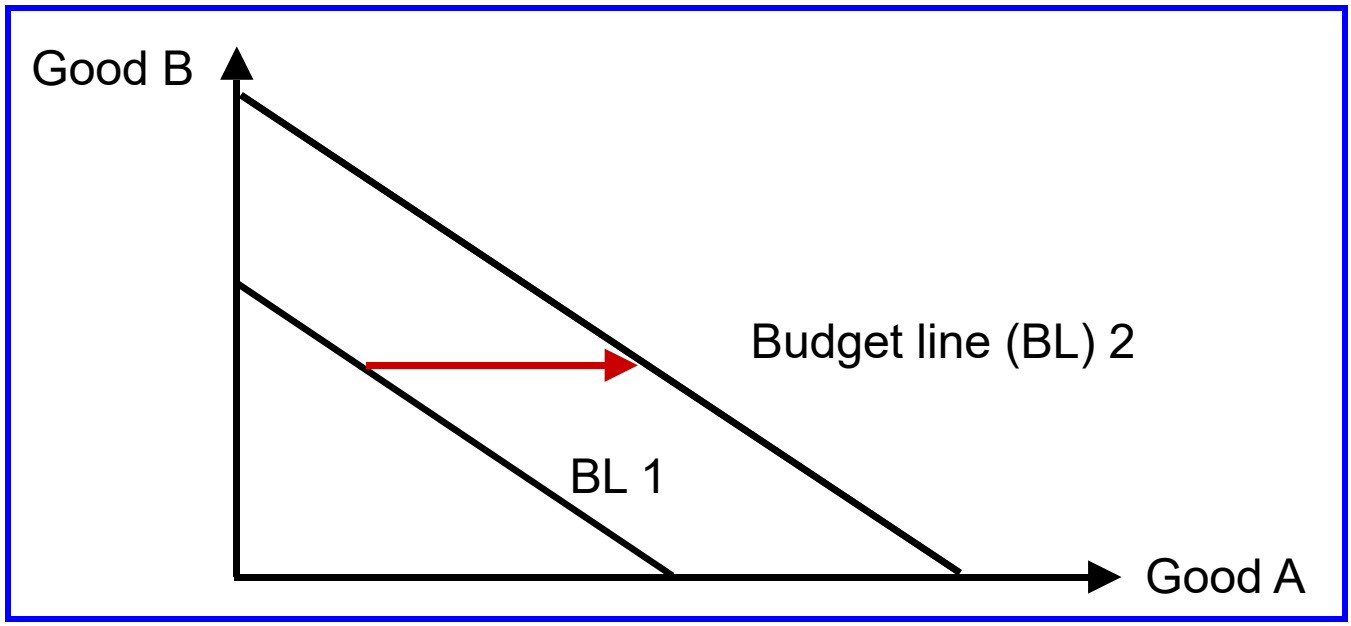
Budget line

A consumer with an income of M can choose between two goods, A and B, at the prices of P_A and P_B. The budget line shows the possible combinations with regard to the 2 divisible goods A and B.

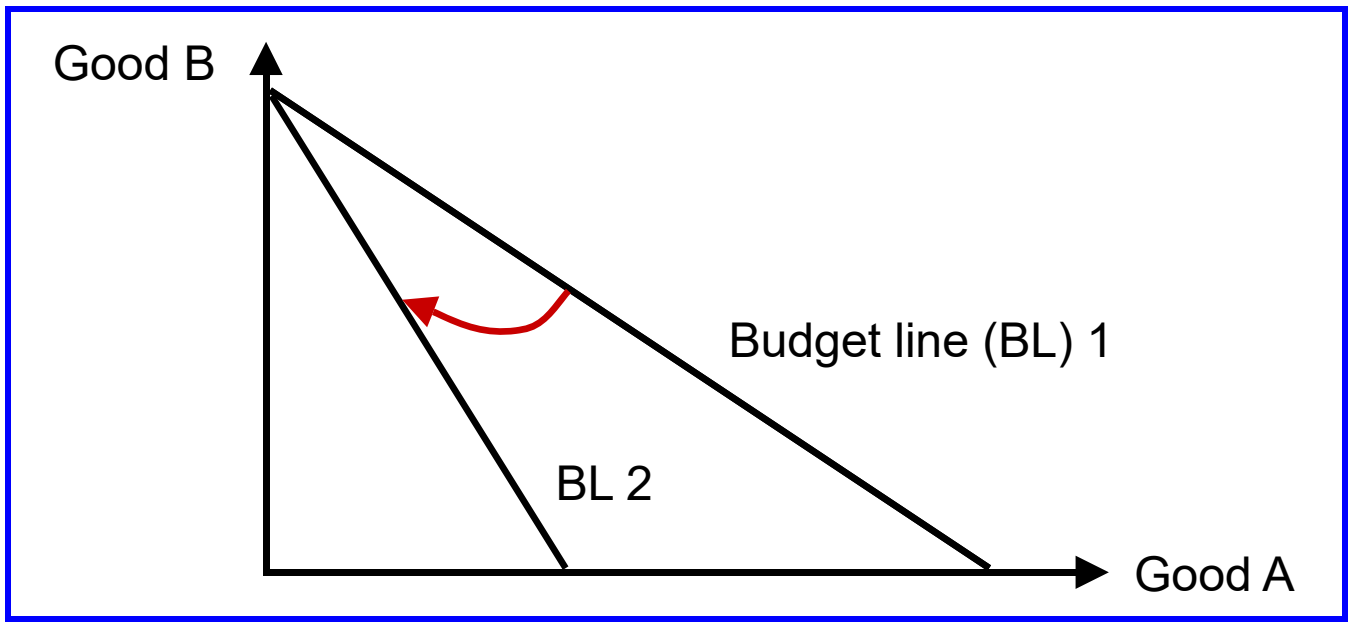


Budget line - changes

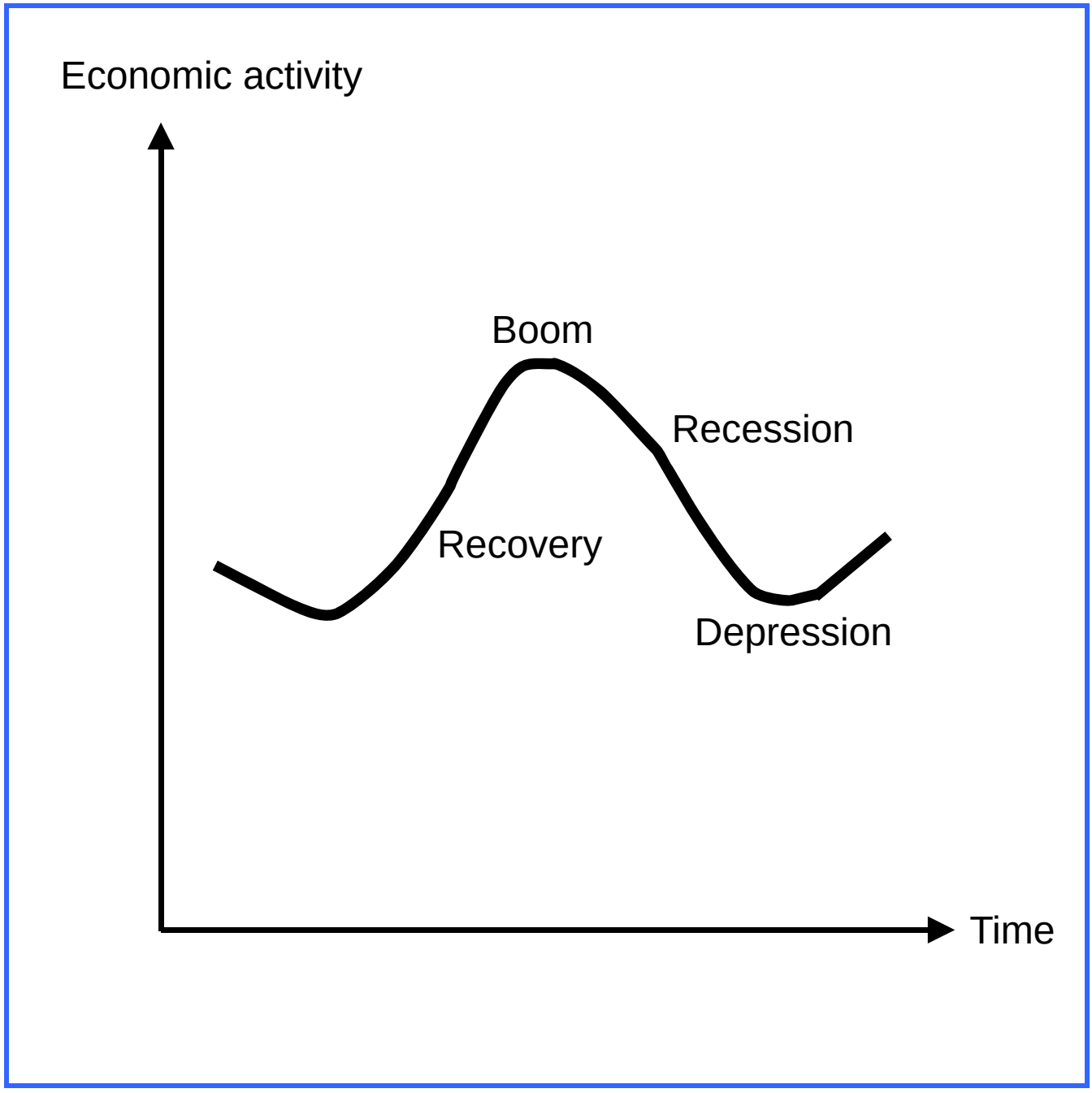
① Increasing or decreasing **income**
(here: increasing income)



② Rising or falling **price**
(here: rising price of good A, unchanged price of good B)



Business cycle



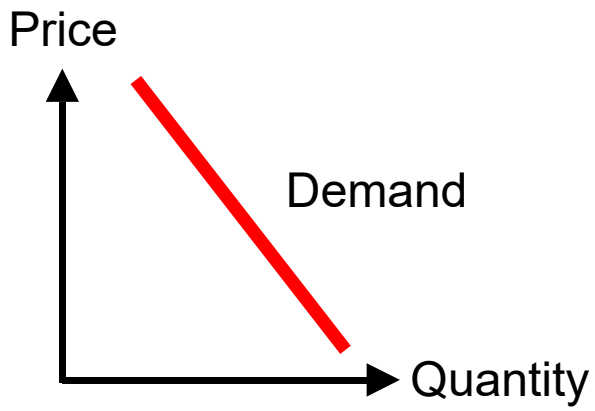
Ceteris paribus

1 Description

Ceteris paribus means that 'other things remain the same' or 'all else is constant'. This assumption allows the representation of the relationship between two variables in a XY-diagram, for example, the relationship between price and quantity. Please note that in this example the quantity is not only dependent on the price, but on many other variables ('all else'). According to the ceteris paribus-clause, these are considered constant.

2 Examples

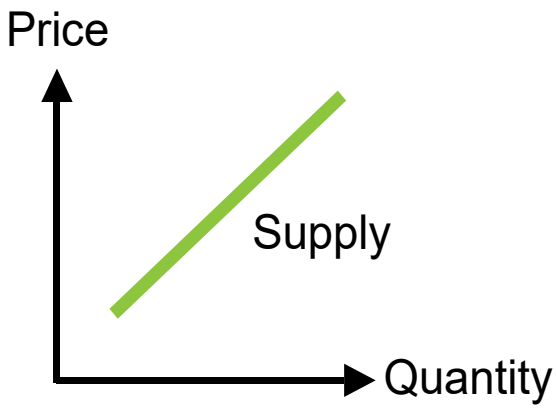
2.1 Demand



Constant variables:

- Income
- Prices of other goods
- Preferences
- Number of buyers

2.2 Supply

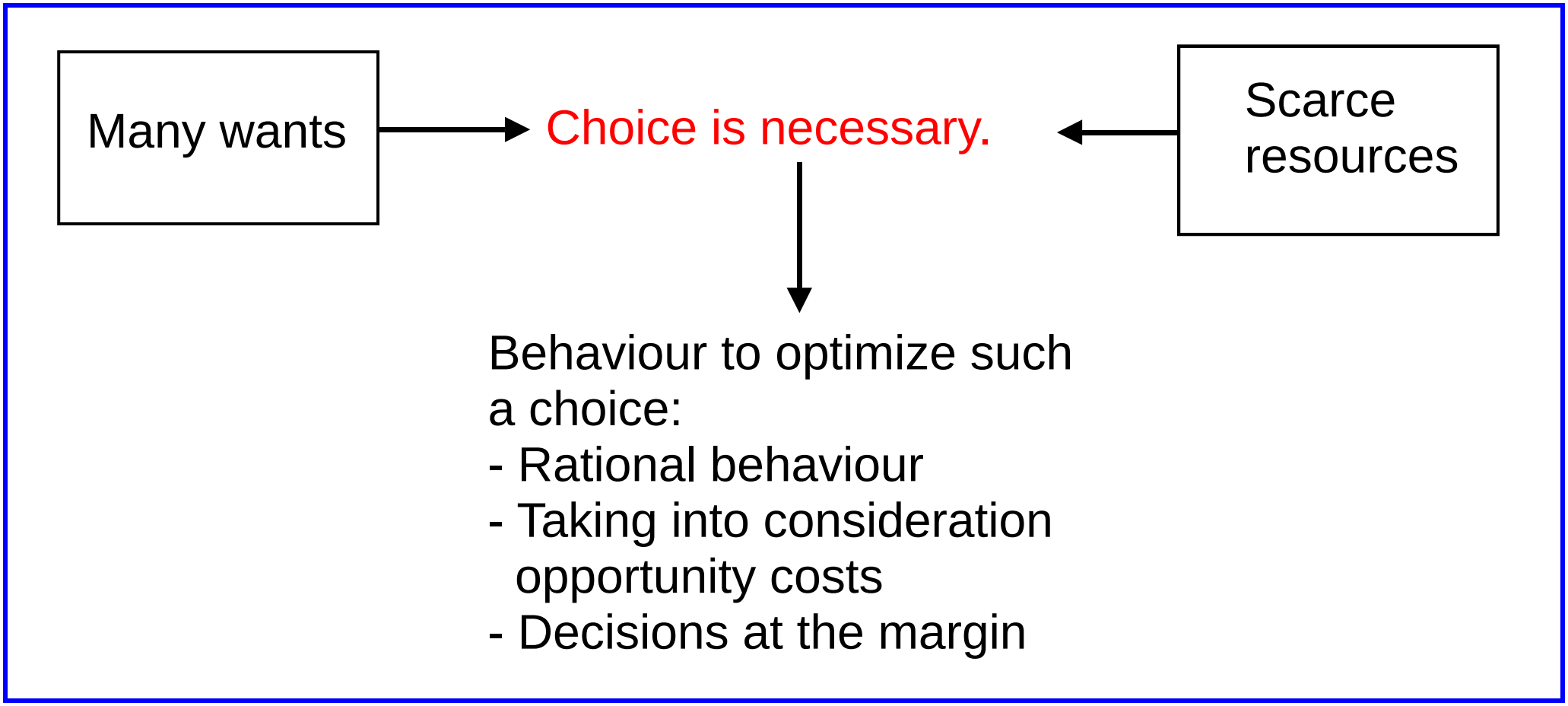


Constant variables:

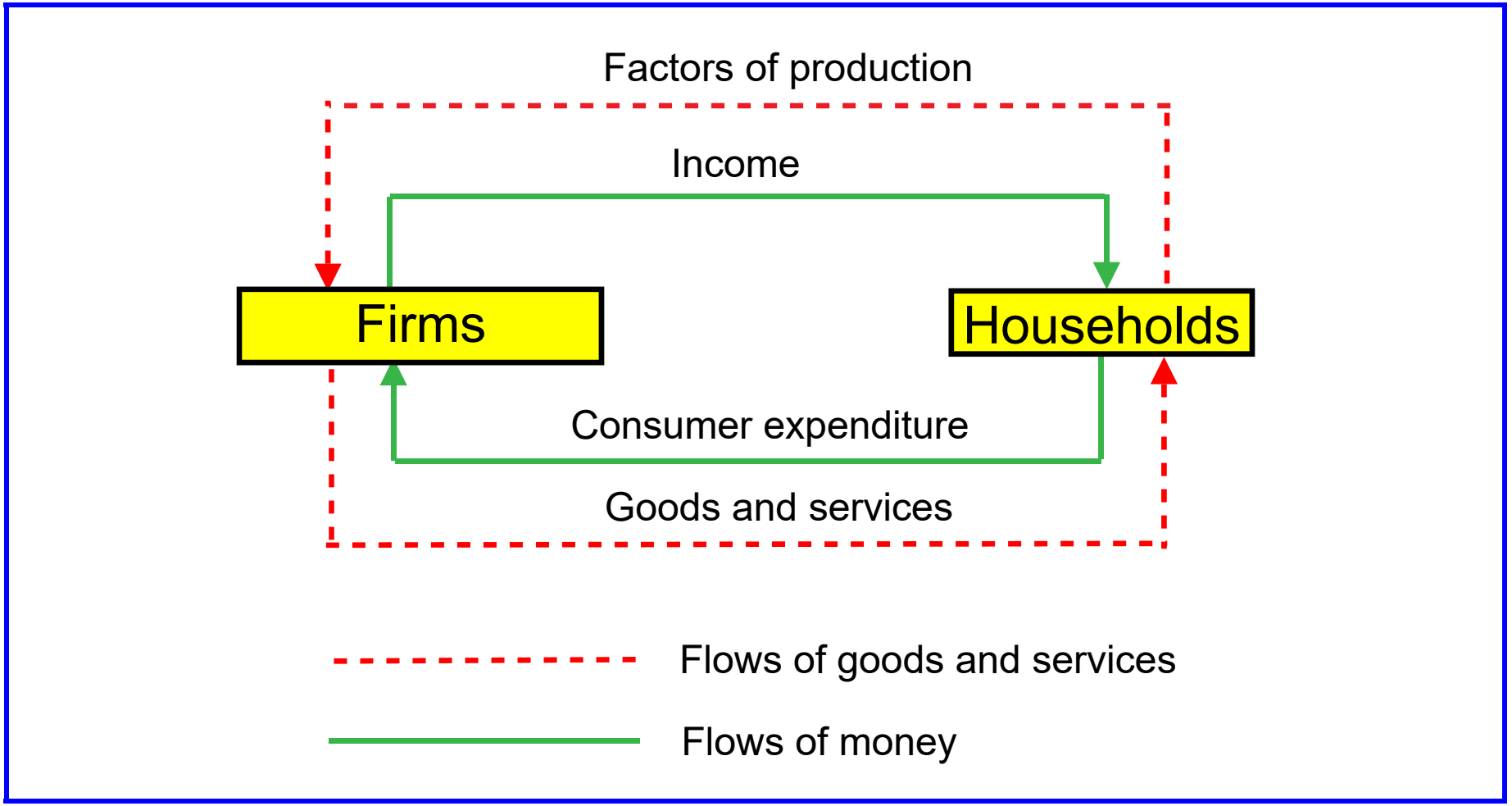
- Input prices
- Productivity
- State intervention
- Number of sellers

If these variables are no longer constant, the shown curves shift to the right or to the left.

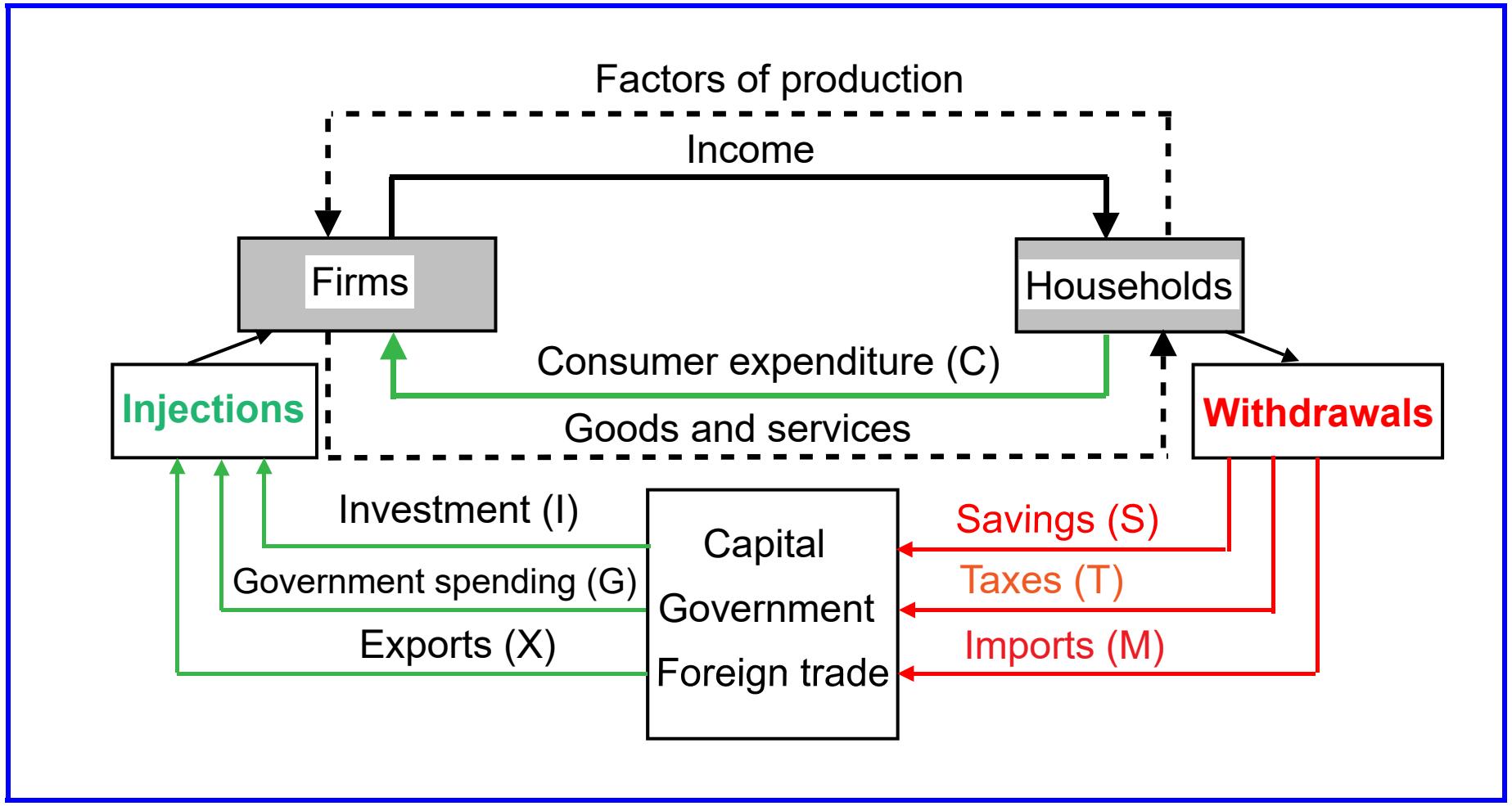
Choice


Many wants
Choice is necessary.
Scarce resources
Behaviour to optimize such a choice:
- Rational behaviour
- Taking into consideration opportunity costs
- Decisions at the margin

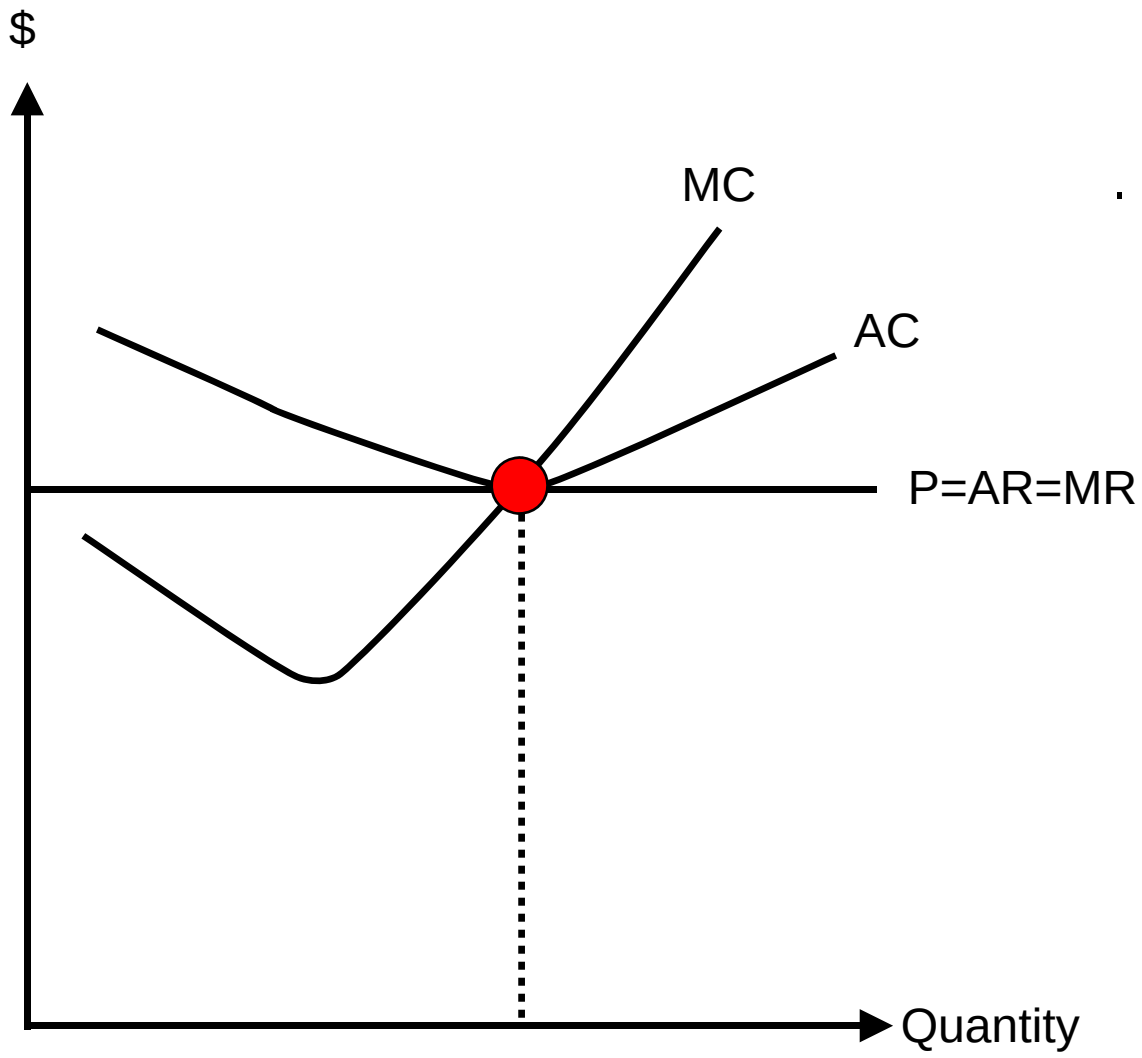
Circular flow 1 - with two sectors



Circular flow 2 - with injections and withdrawals



Competitive firm - long run

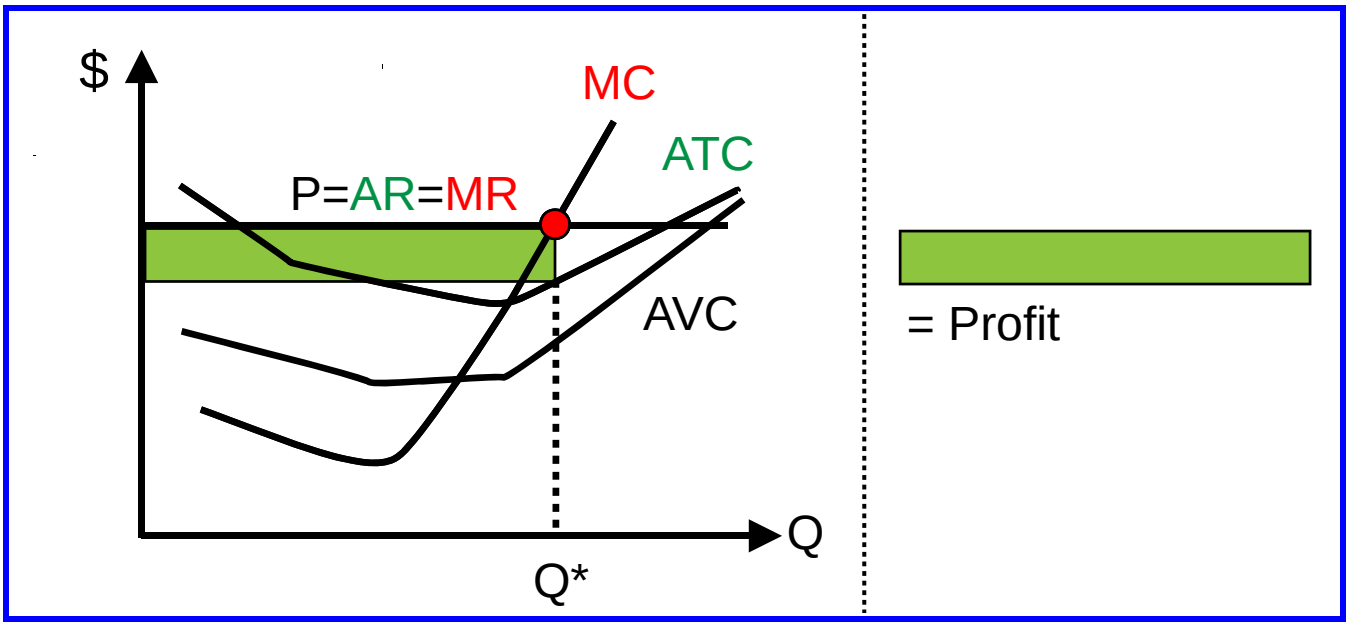


>>> Profit = 0 (because AR = AC)

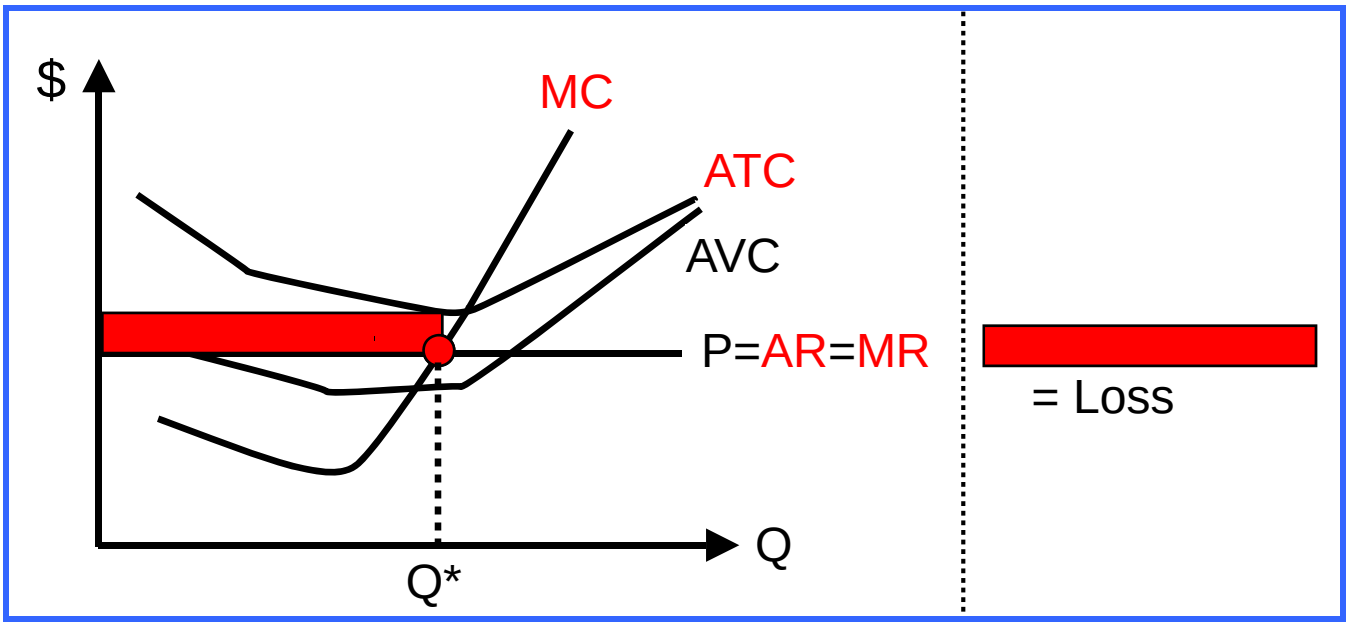
P = Price	
AC = Average cost	AR = Average revenue
MC = Marginal cost	MR = Marginal revenue

Competitive firm - short run

① Situation of a **profit**



② Situation of a **loss**

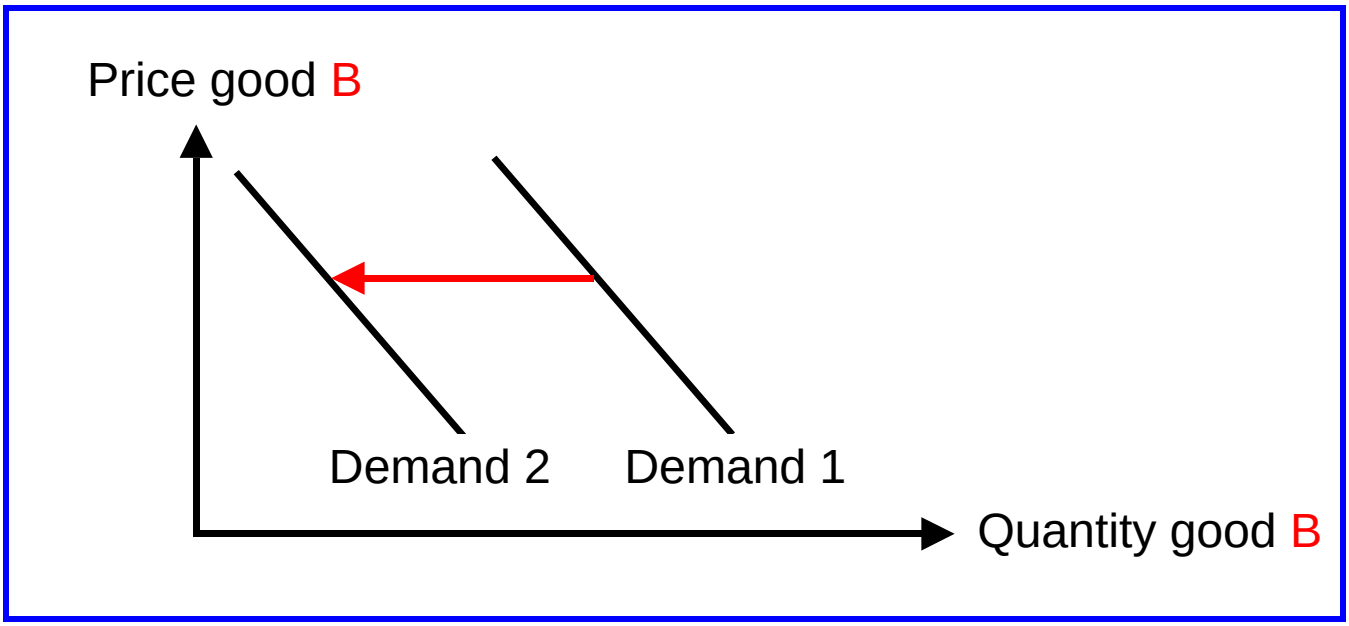


P = Price	Q = Quantity
ATC = Average total cost	AR = Average revenue
AVC = Average variable cost	MR = Marginal revenue
MC = Marginal cost	

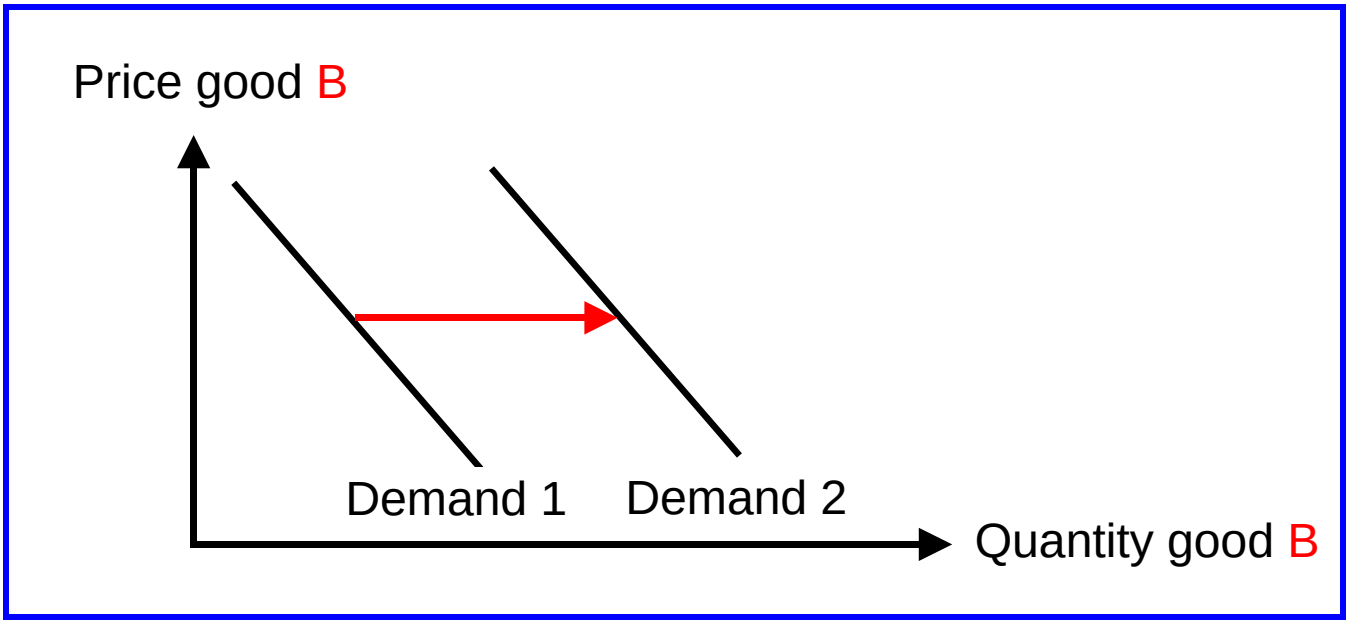
Complements

The goods A and B are complements.

① **The price of good A rises.**



② **The price of good A falls.**

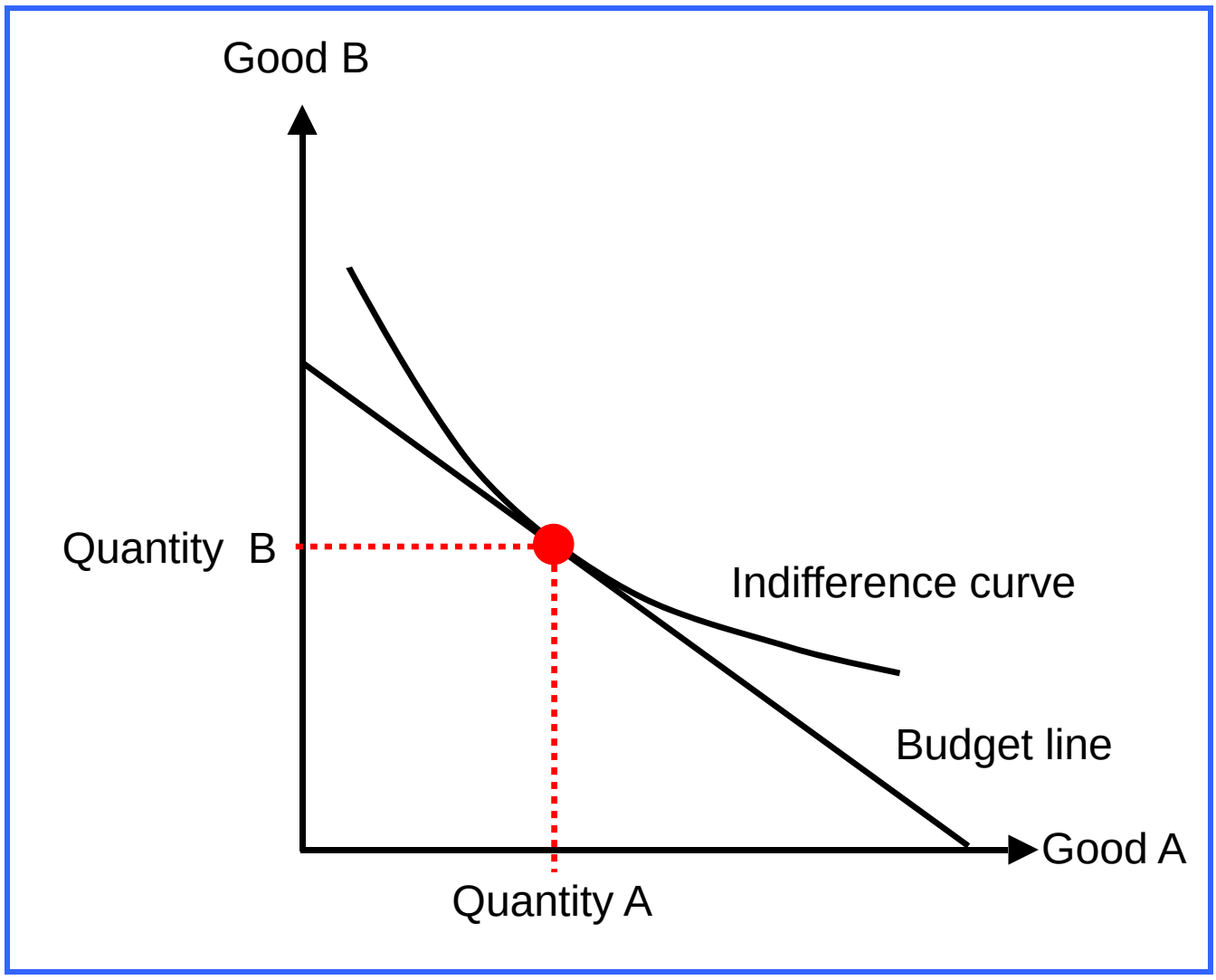


Consumer choice

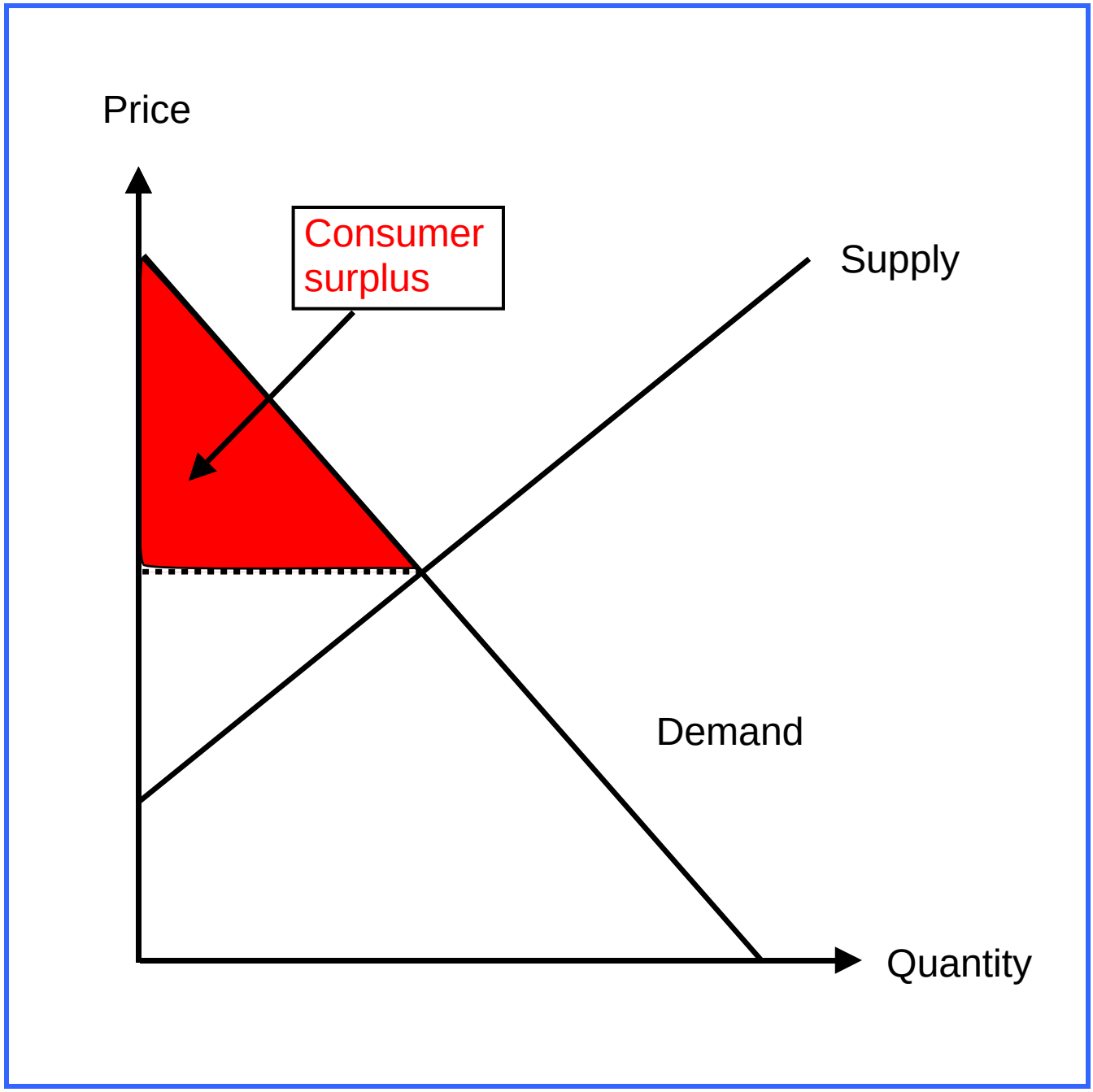
The consumer chooses the highest possible indifference curve. This is the case where the budget line touches this indifference curve.

Information about

- the budget line. Click here!
- the indifference curve. Click here!



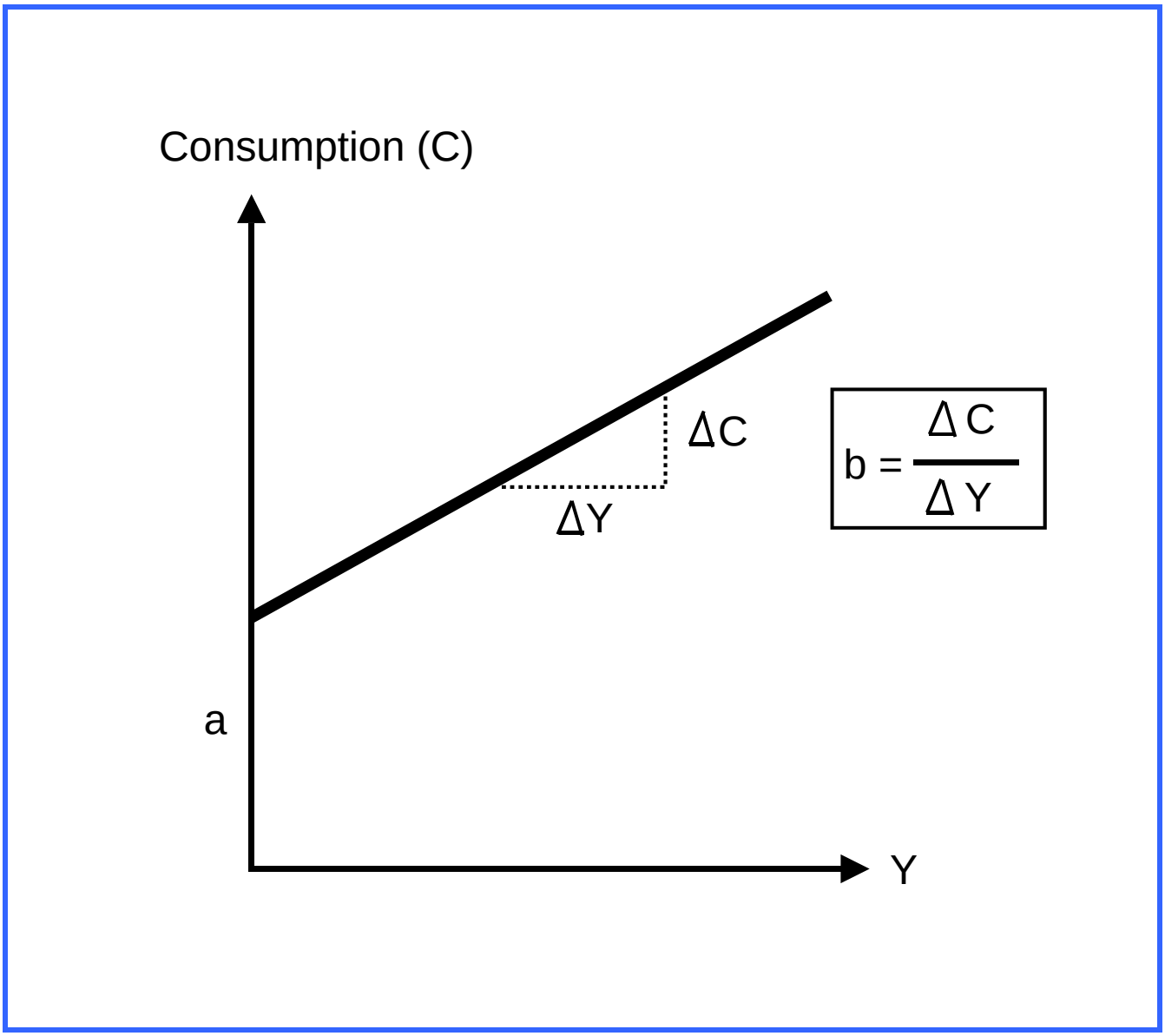
Consumer surplus



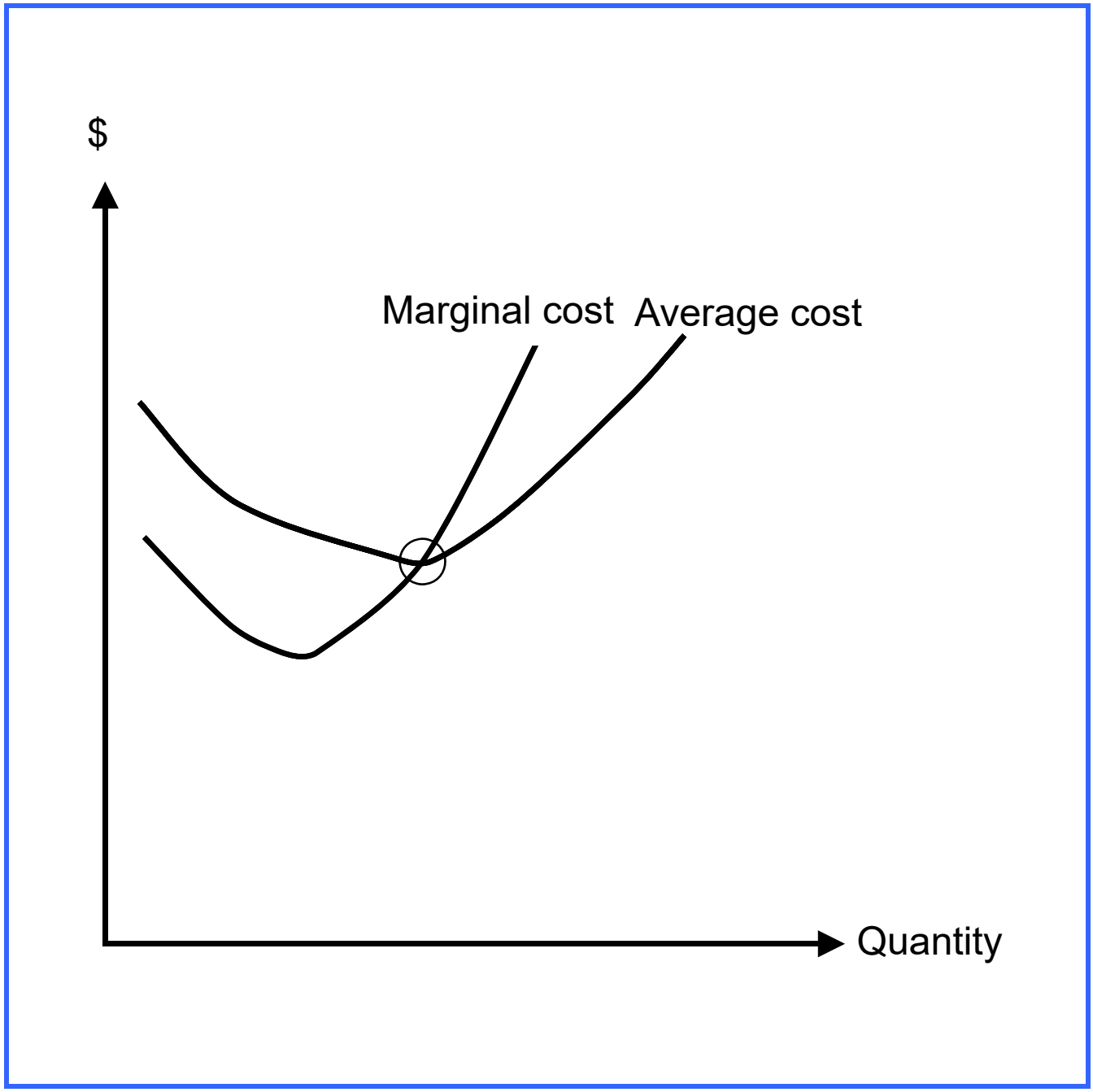
Consumption function

Consumption function: $C = a + bY$

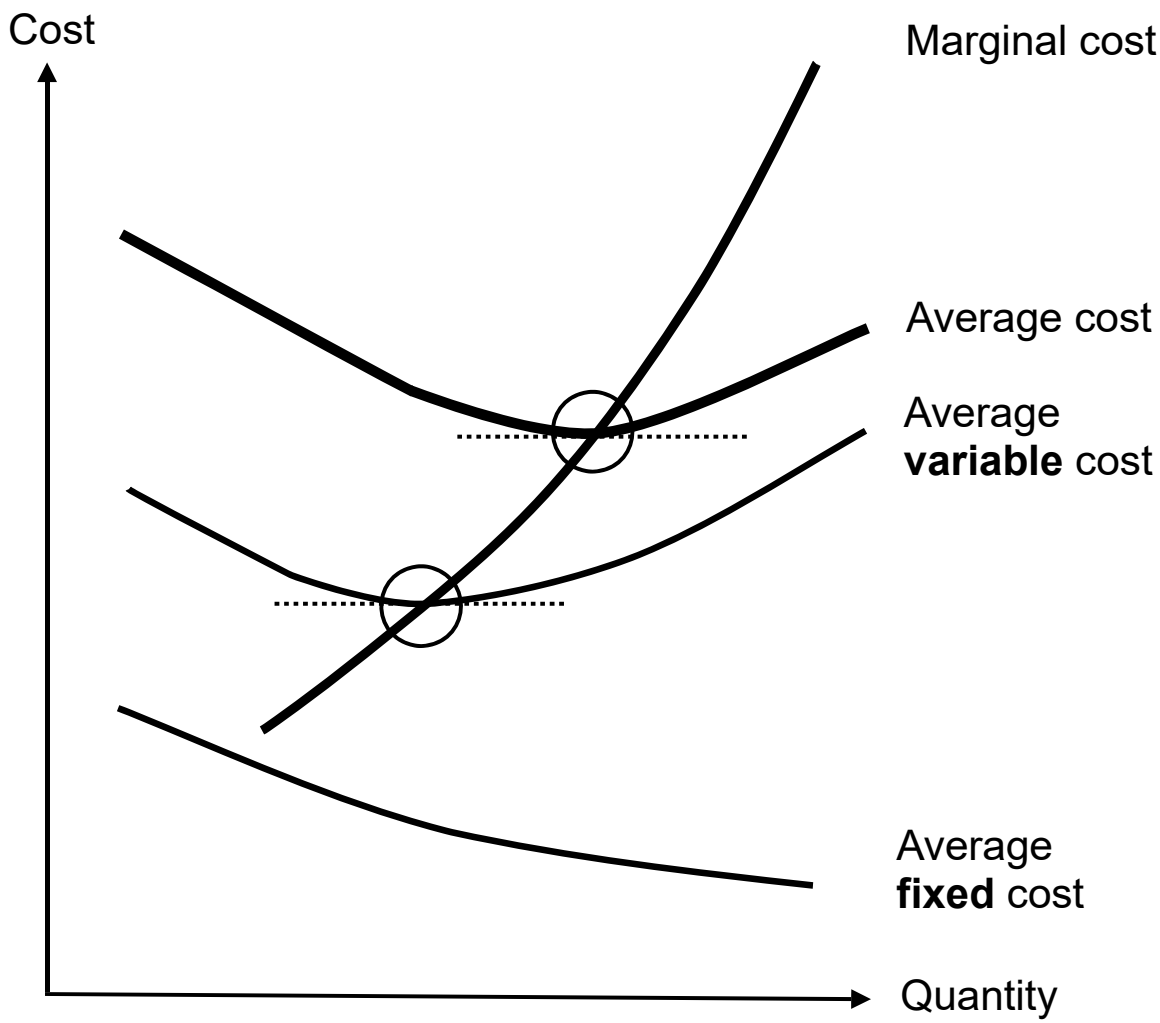
a = Autonomous consumption (C if Y = 0)
b = Marginal propensity to consume
Y = Output, income



Cost - average and marginal 1



Cost - average and marginal 2



Average cost = $\frac{\text{Total cost}}{\text{Quantity}}$

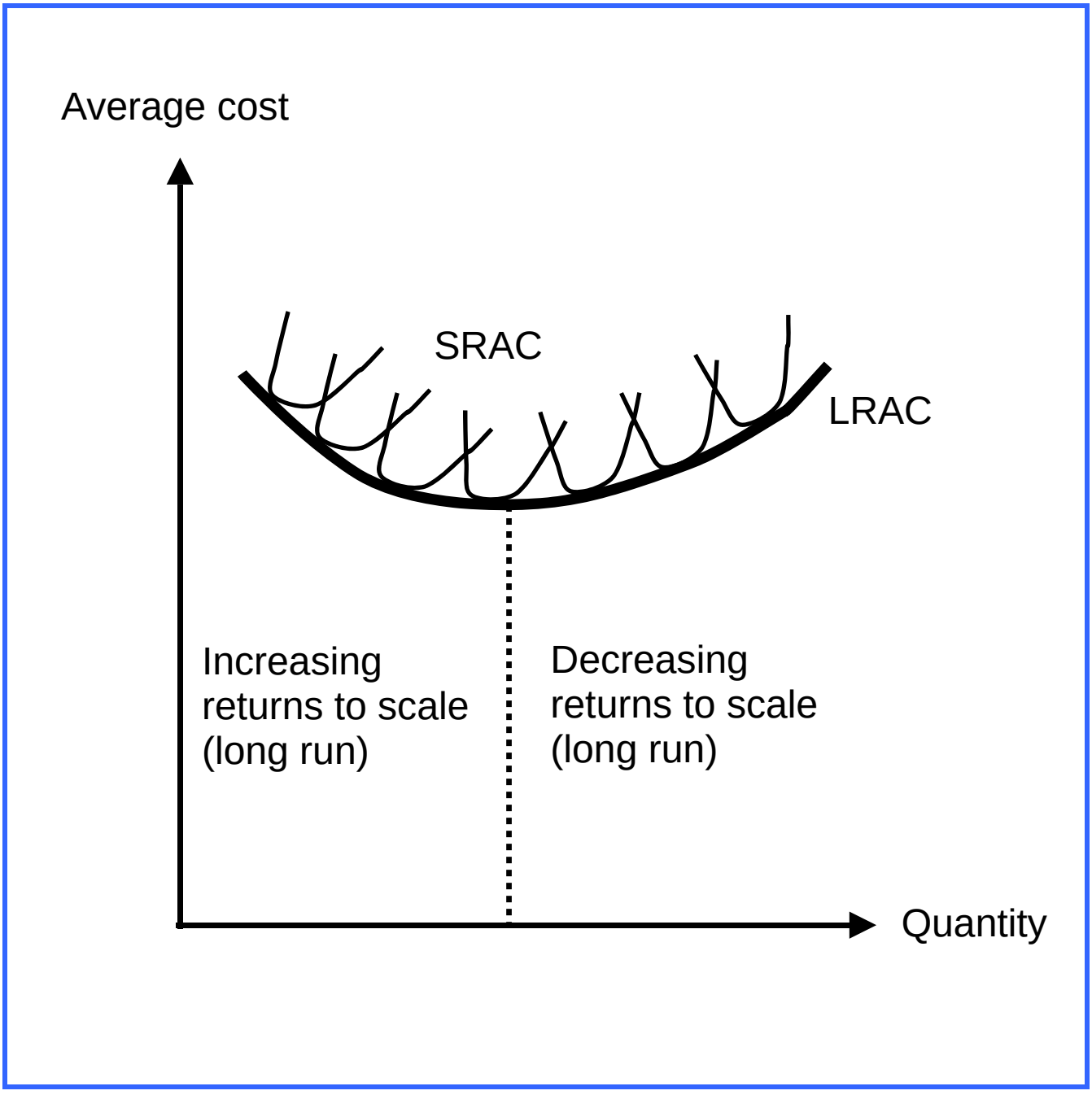
Average fixed cost = $\frac{\text{Total fixed cost}}{\text{Quantity}}$

Average variable cost = $\frac{\text{Total variable cost}}{\text{Quantity}}$

Marginal cost = $\frac{\text{Change in total cost}}{\text{Change in quantity}}$

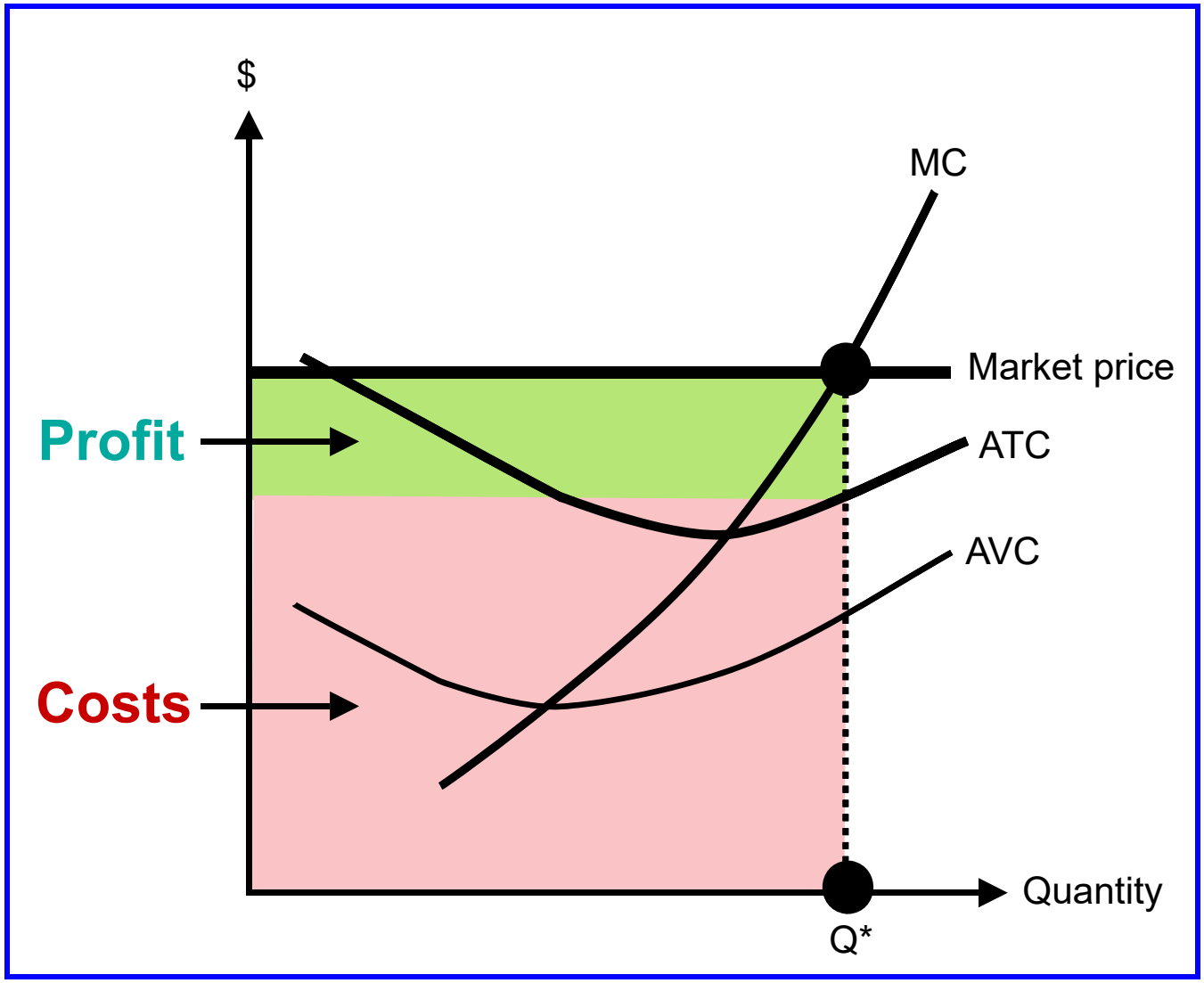
→ The marginal cost curve cuts the average variable cost curve and the average cost curve at their minimum.

Cost curves - short run and long run



SRAC = Short run average cost
LRAC = Long run average cost

Costs and profit

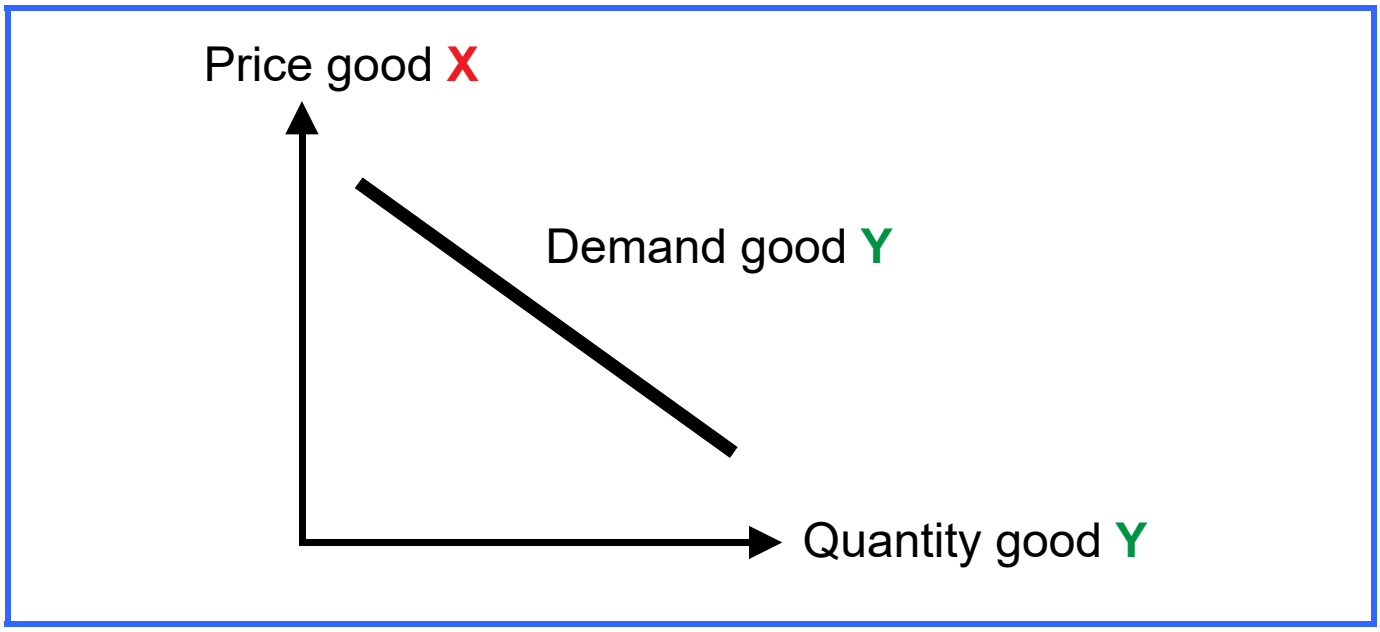


MC = Marginal cost
ATC = Average total cost
AVC = Average variable cost
Q* = quantity of the highest profit

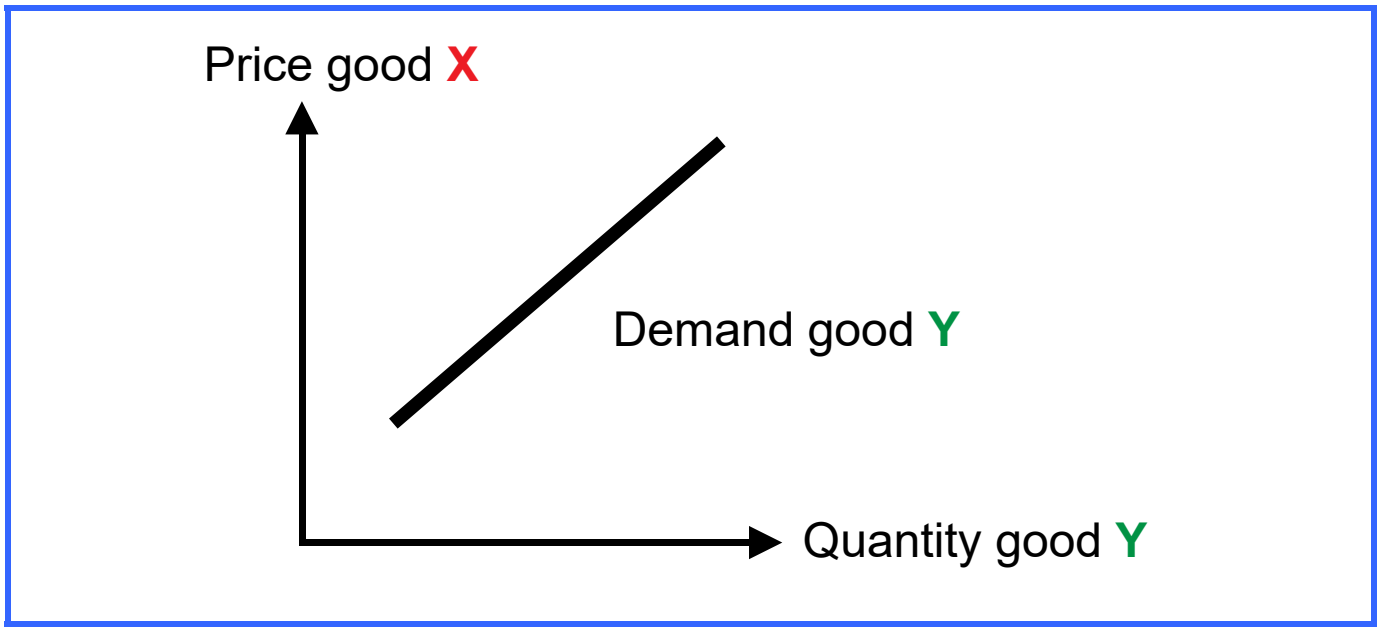
The profit is highest at the point where MC meets the market price.

Cross-price elasticity of demand

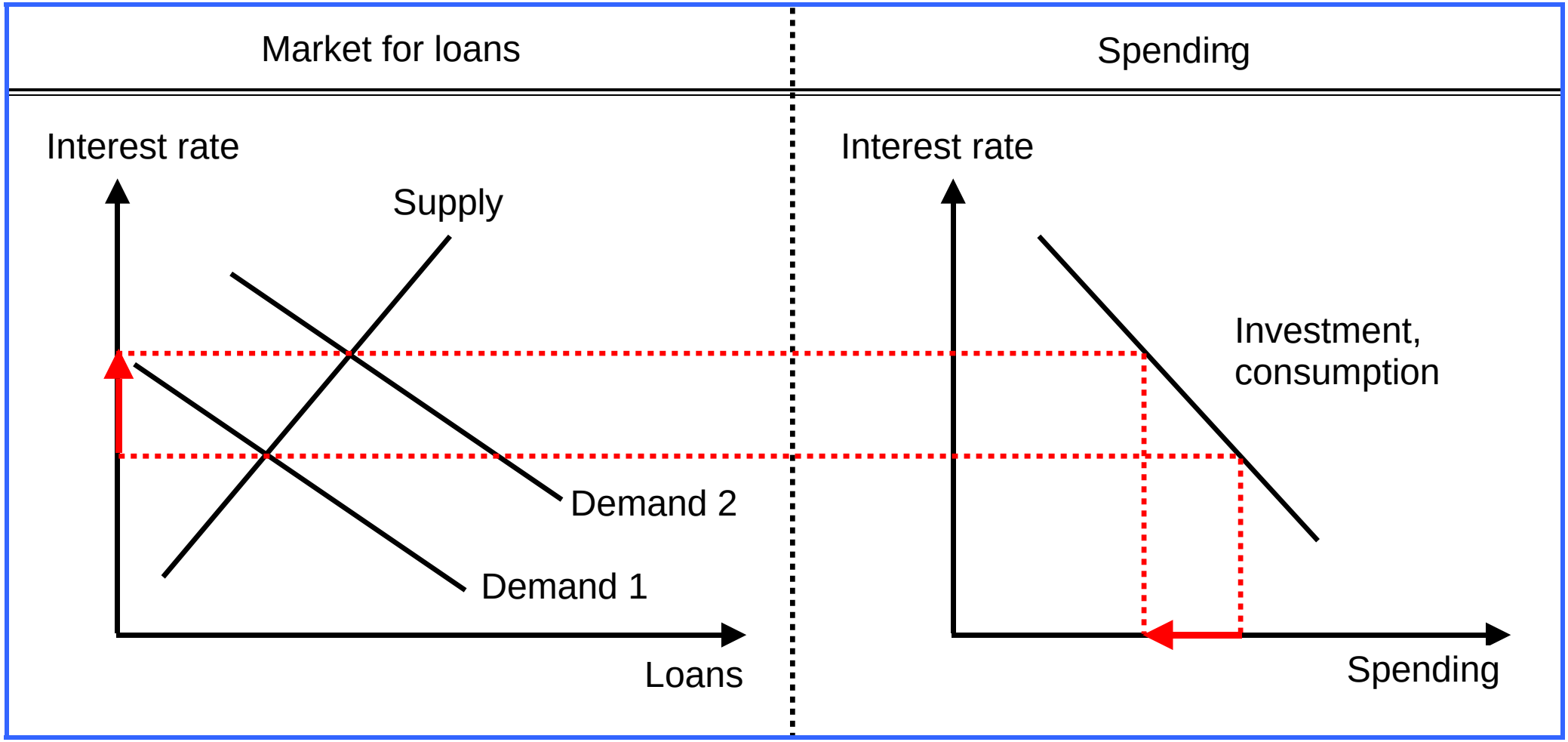
① Cross-price elasticity of demand **<** 0
→ Goods X and Y are **complements**.



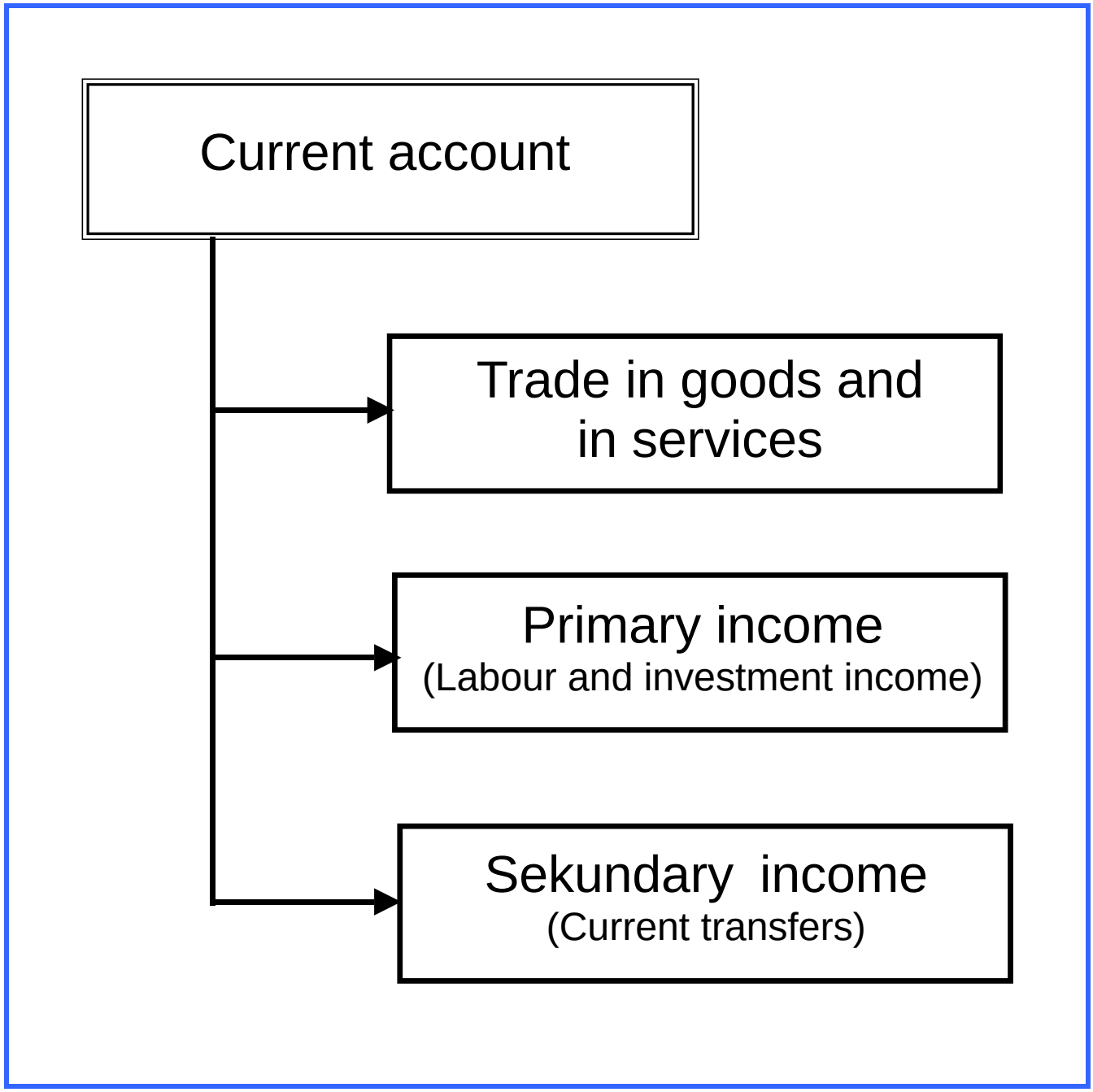
② Cross-price elasticity of demand > 0
→ Goods X and Y are **substitutes**.



Crowding-out effect

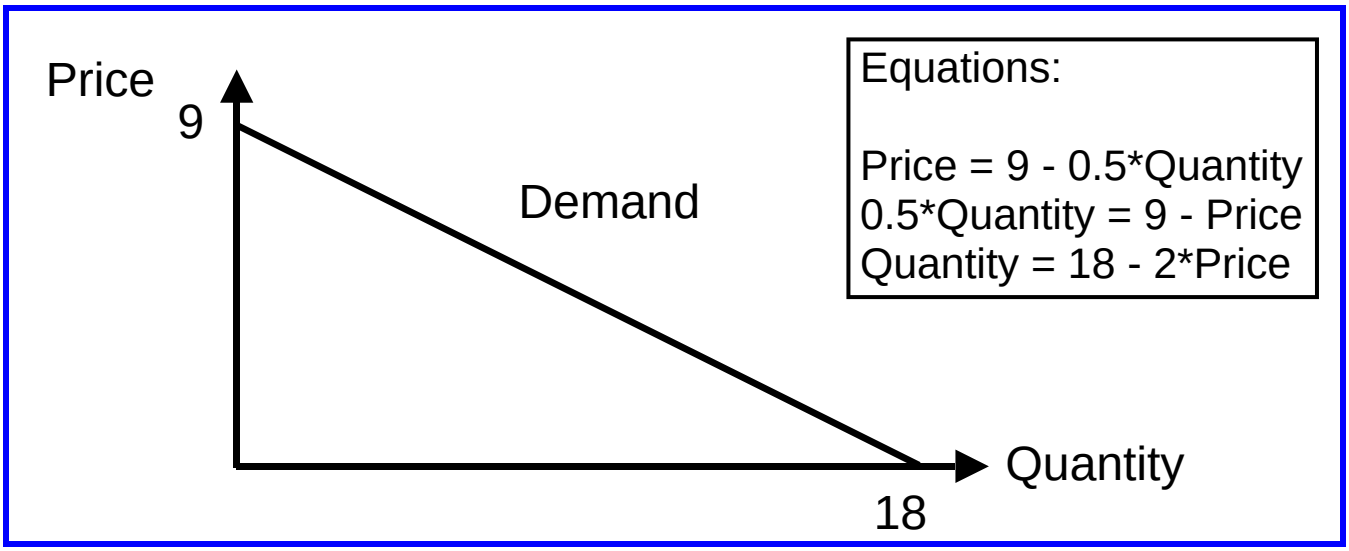


Current account

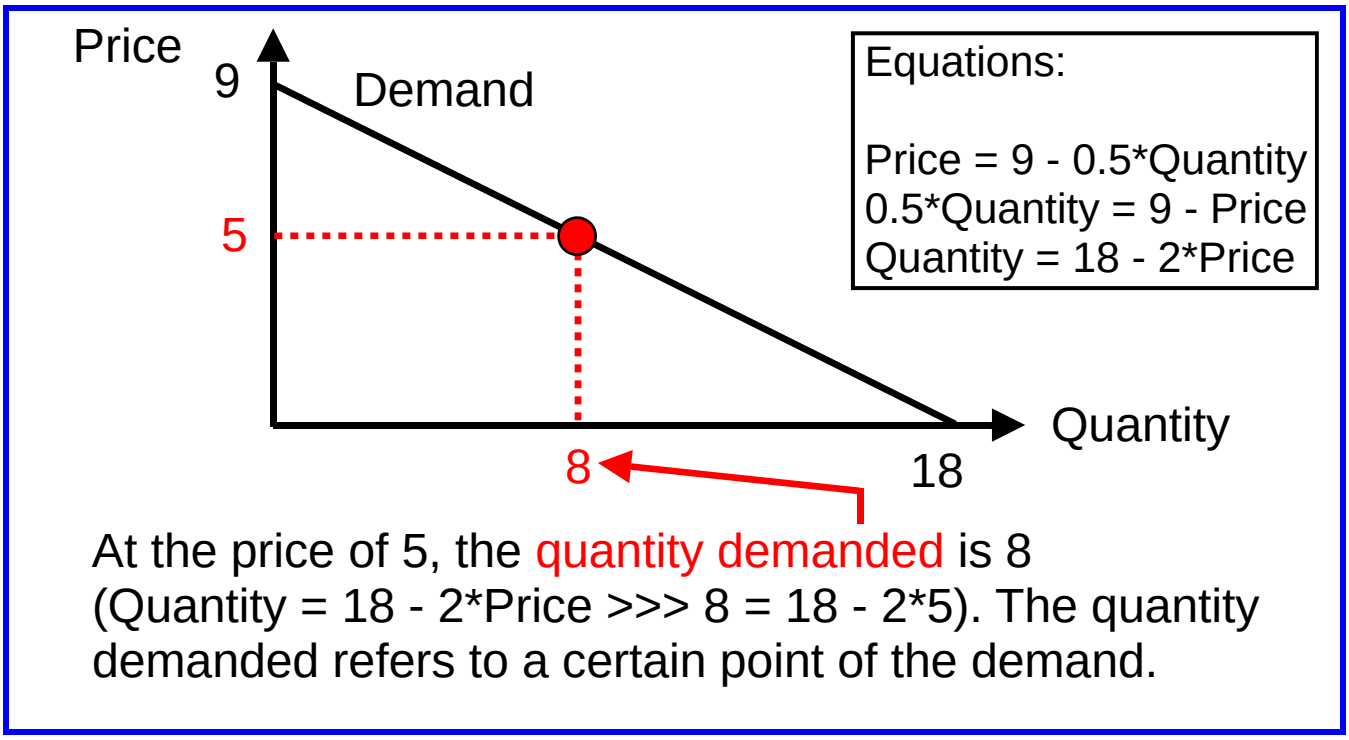


Demand and quantity demanded

① Demand

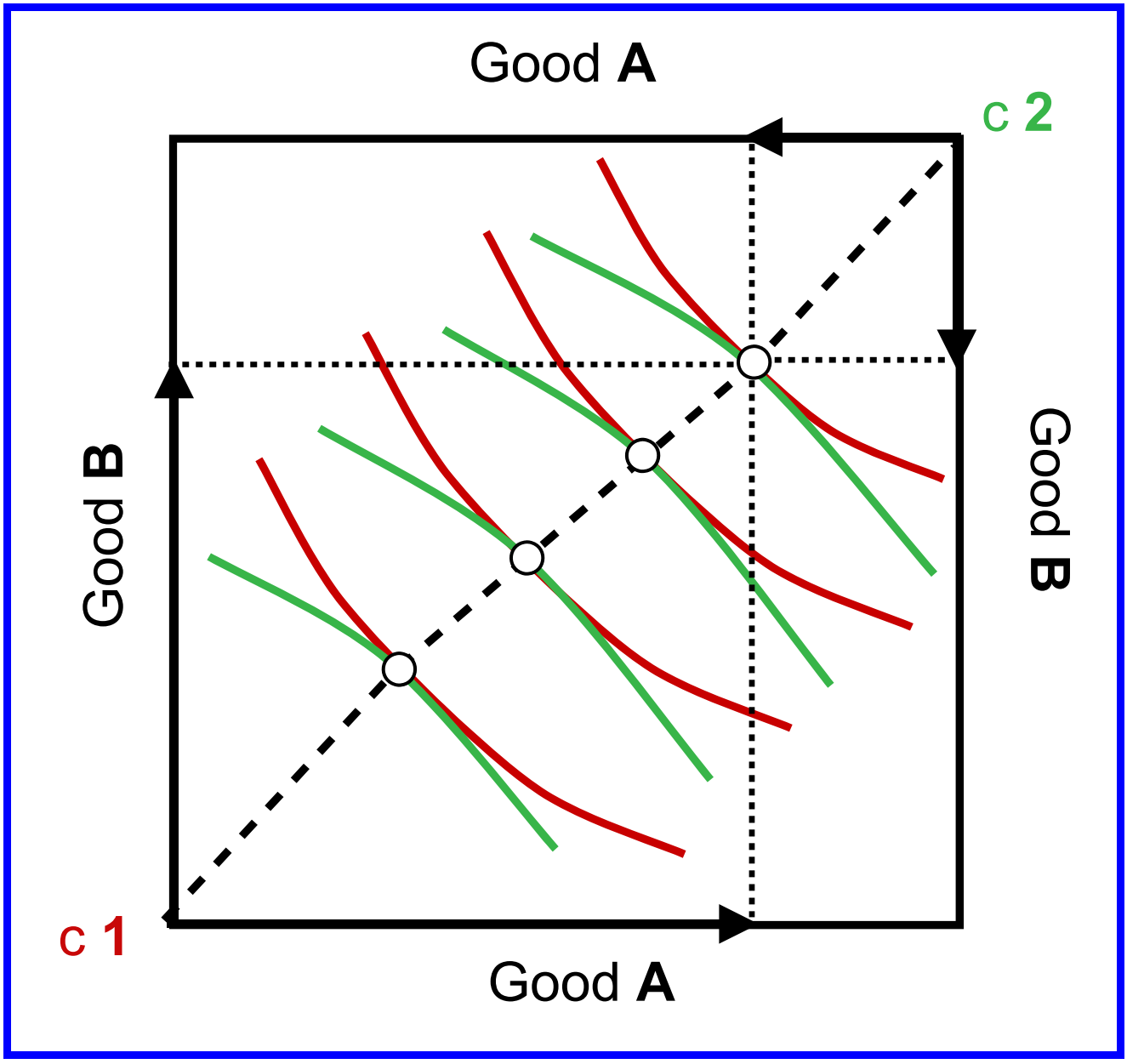


② Quantity demanded



At the price of 5, the quantity demanded is 8 (Quantity = 18 - 2*Price >>> 8 = 18 - 2*5). The quantity demanded refers to a certain point of the demand.

Edgeworth box

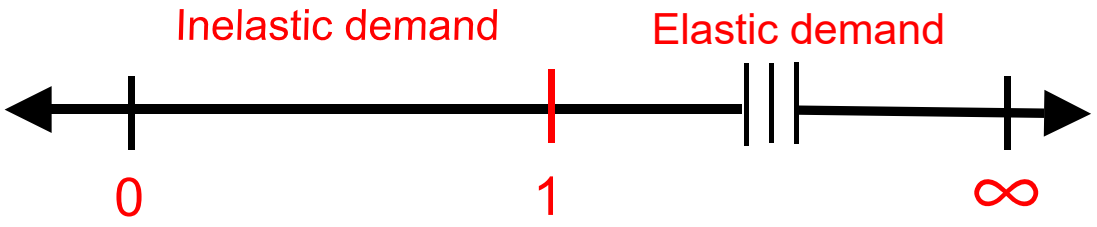


This box represents a situation with **2 goods** (A; B) and **2 consumers** (c 1; c 2). Any point of tangency of the green and red indifference curves is a possible distribution. The final combination depends on the initial endowments and the incomes of c 1 and c 2.

Contract curve:
all points of tangency on the dotted line from c 1 to c 2

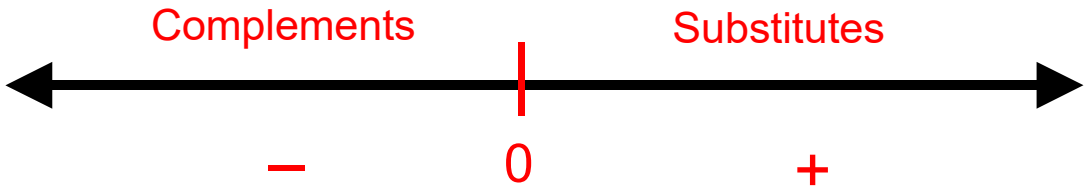
Elasticity and type of goods

1 Price elasticity of demand

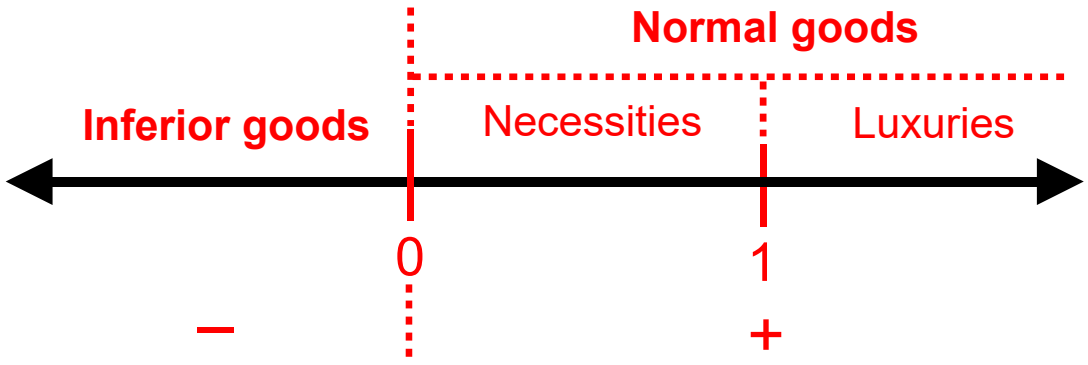


0	Perfectly inelastic demand
1	Unit elastic demand
∞	Perfectly elastic demand

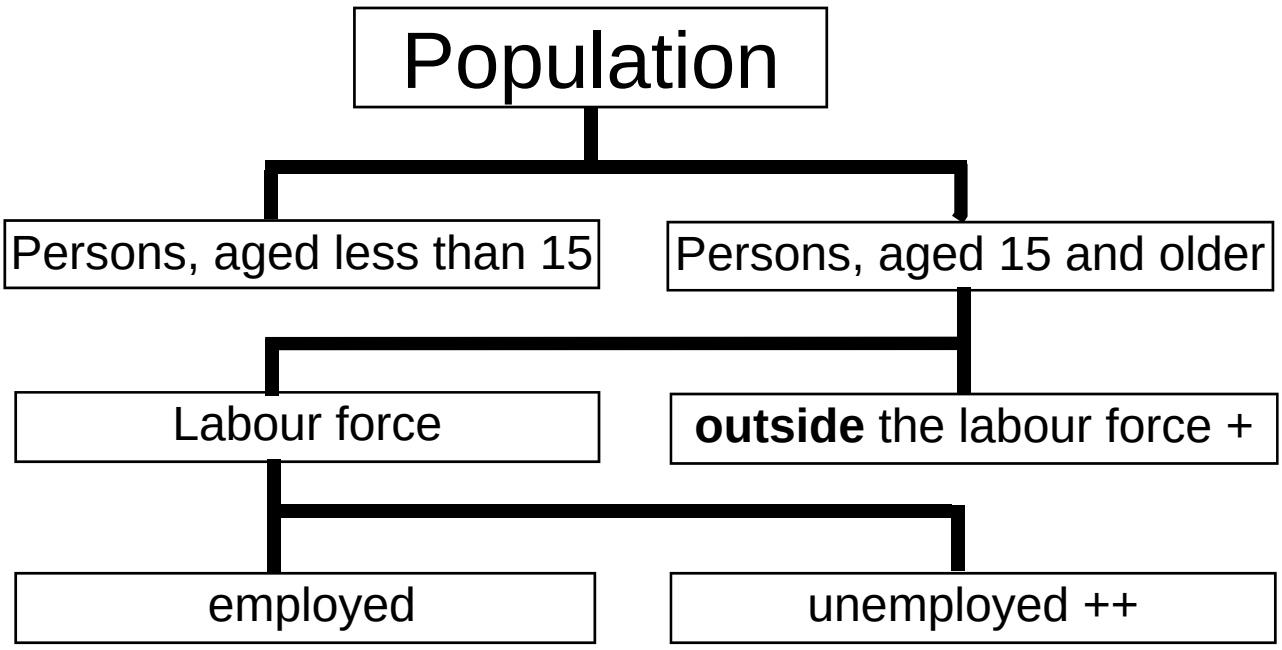
2 Cross-price elasticity of demand



3 Income elasticity of demand



Employment and unemployment (ILO)



Labour force participation rate (%) =

$$\frac{\text{Employed and unemployed}}{\text{Working-age population}} * 100$$

Unemployment rate (%) =

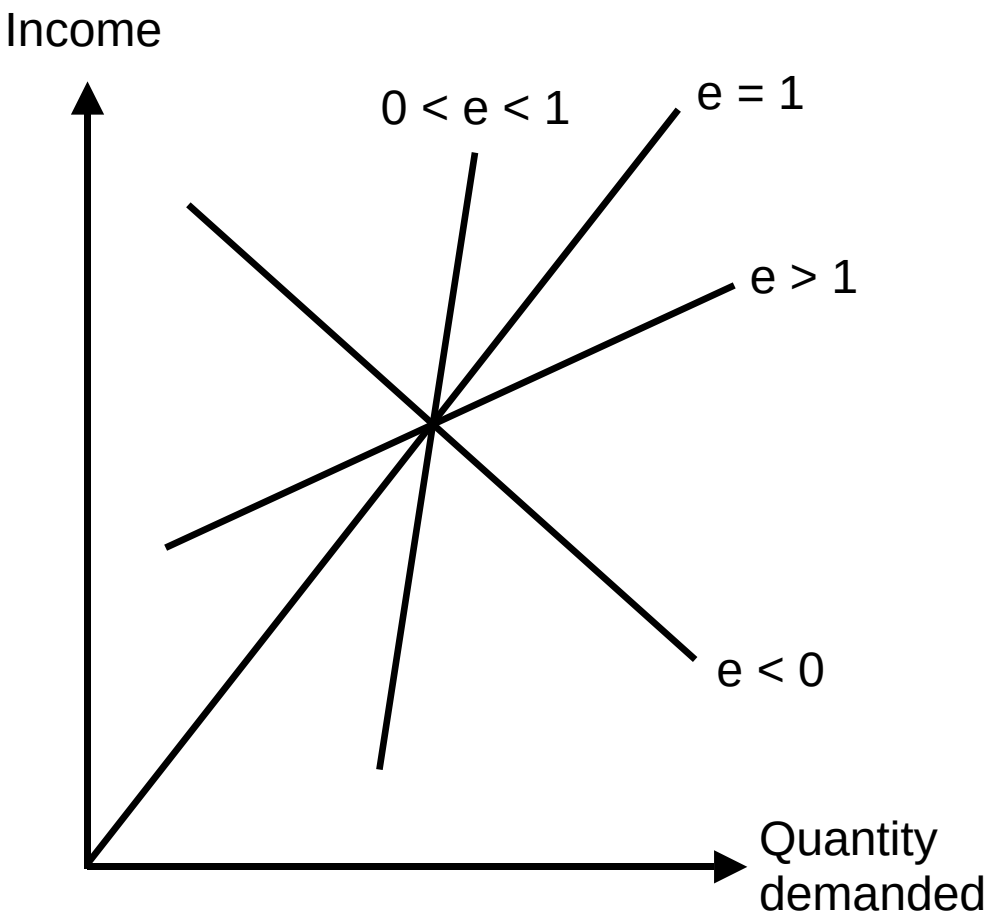
$$\frac{\text{Unemployed}}{\text{Labour force}} * 100$$

\+ - students
- retired persons
- sick persons
- persons without a job, not looking any more for one

++ persons without a job, but actively looking for one

There are countries using upper age limits.

Engel curves



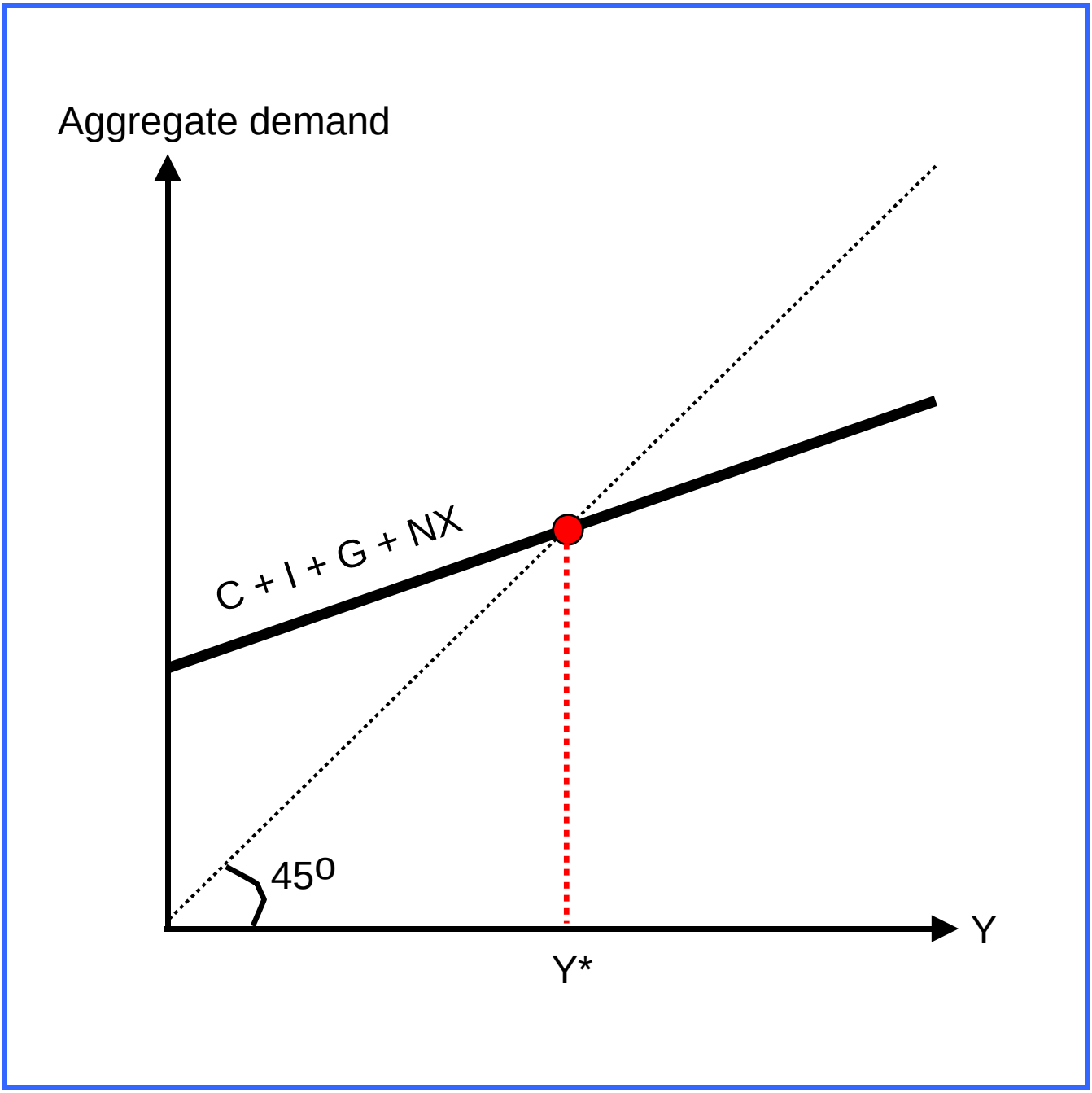
e = Income elasticity of demand

$$= \frac{\text{\% change in quantity demanded}}{\text{\% change in income}}$$

Types of goods:

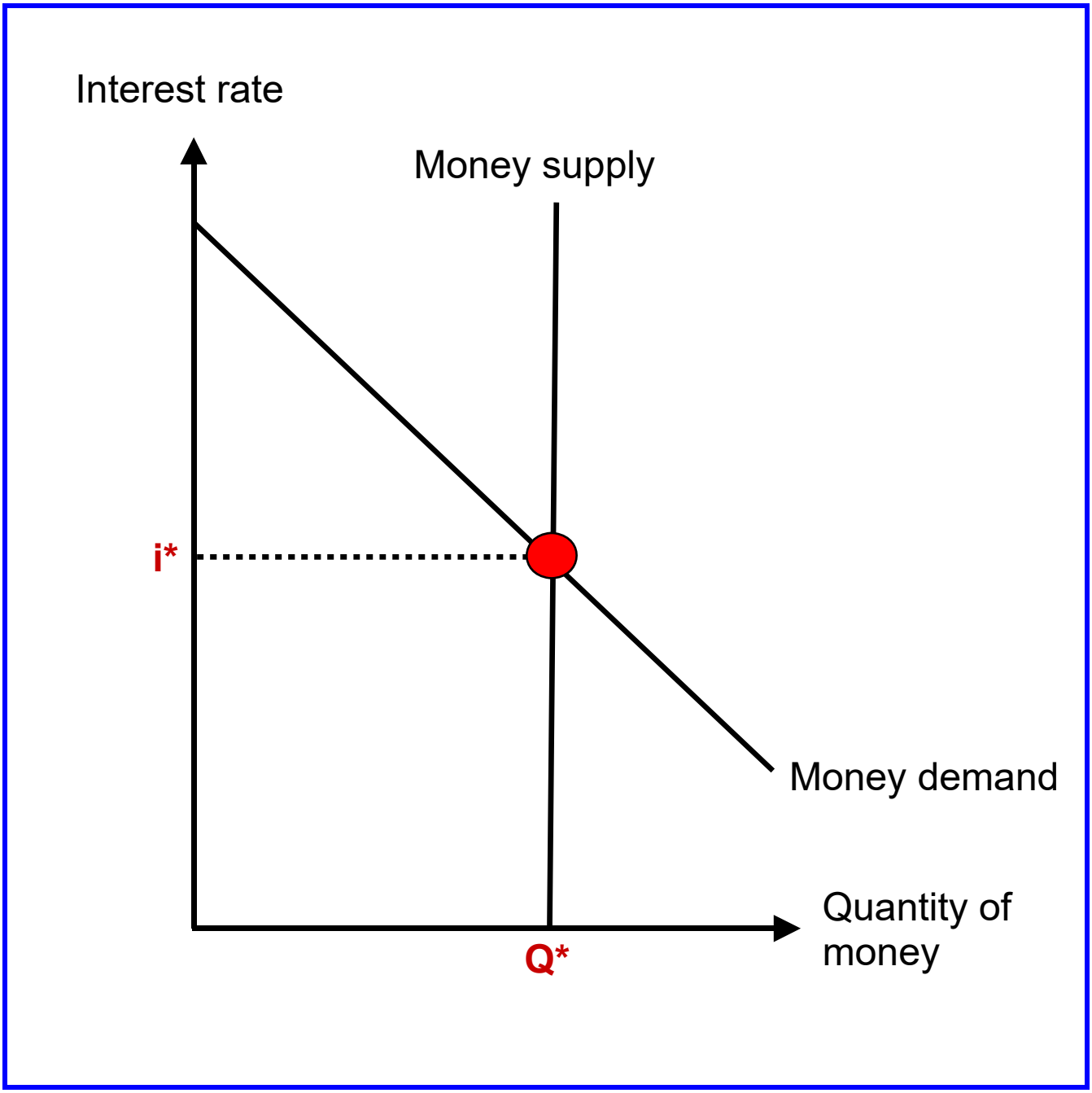
- Luxuries: e > 1
- Necessities: 0 < e < 1
- Inferior goods: e < 0

Equilibrium - Keynes



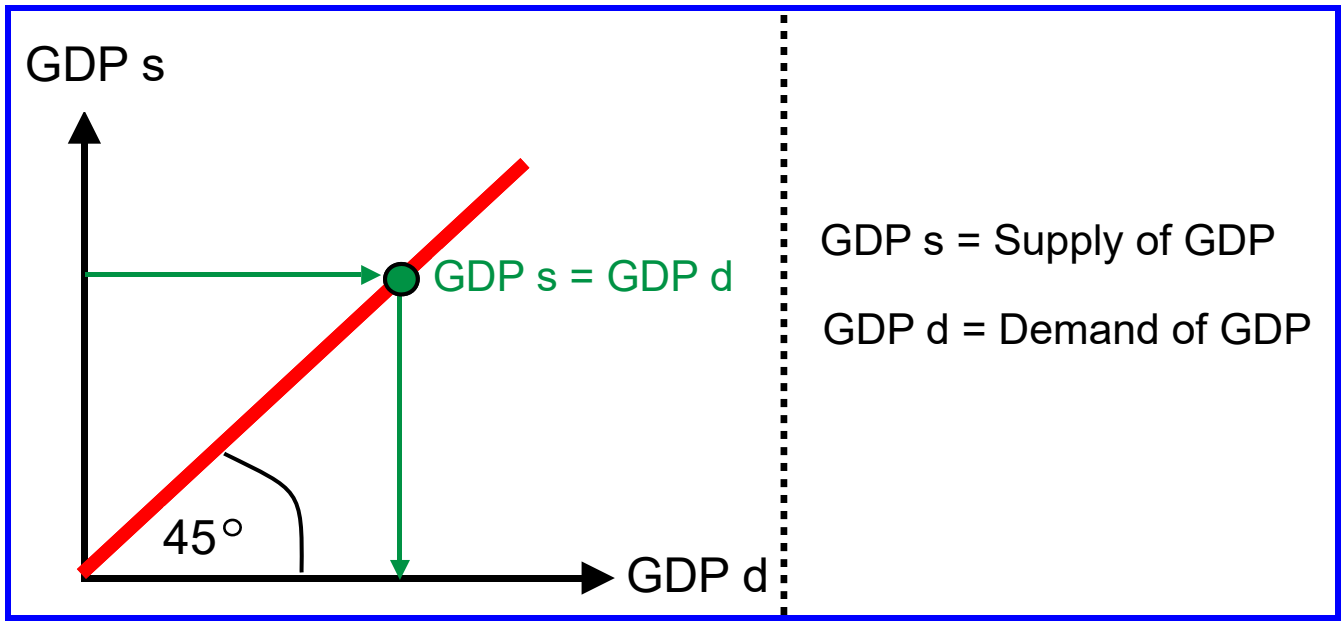
Y = Output, income	I = Investment
Y* = Equilibrium of Y	G = Government spending
C = Consumption	NX = Net exports

Equilibrium - Money market



Q* = Quantity of money in equilibrium
i* = Interest rate in equilibrium

Equilibrium - Say (classic)



According to **Say**, **supply** determines demand, employment and gross domestic product (GDP). The production of supply generates income, which leads to demand. Short-term supply surpluses or deficits in individual markets would be eliminated by the price mechanism, so that full employment would prevail in the long run.

Keynes later argued the other way round: **Demand** determines supply, GDP and employment.

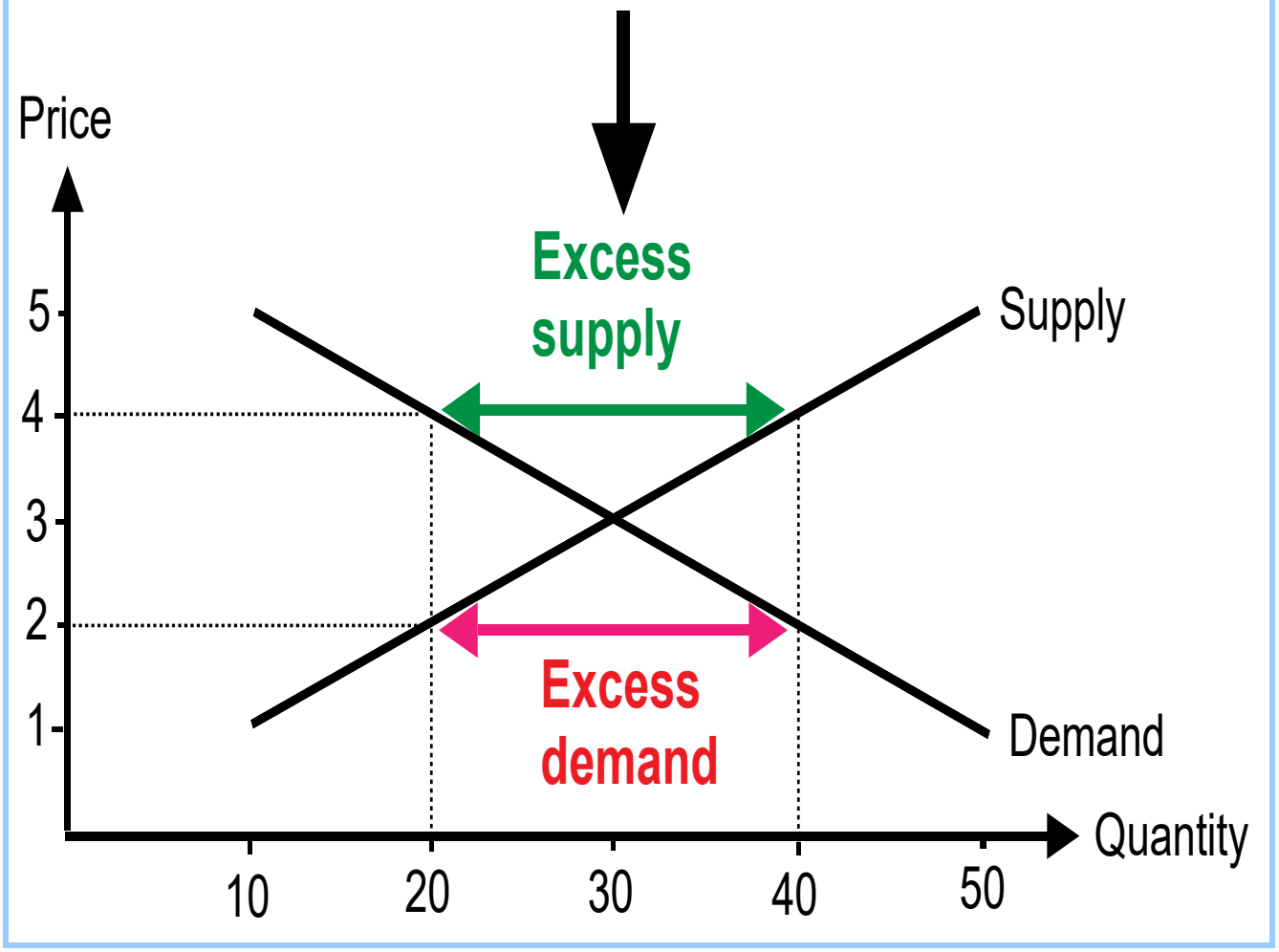
Excess demand and excess supply

① Terms

- **Excess demand** (shortage): Quantity demanded > quantity supplied
- **Excess supply** (surplus): Quantity supplied > quantity demanded

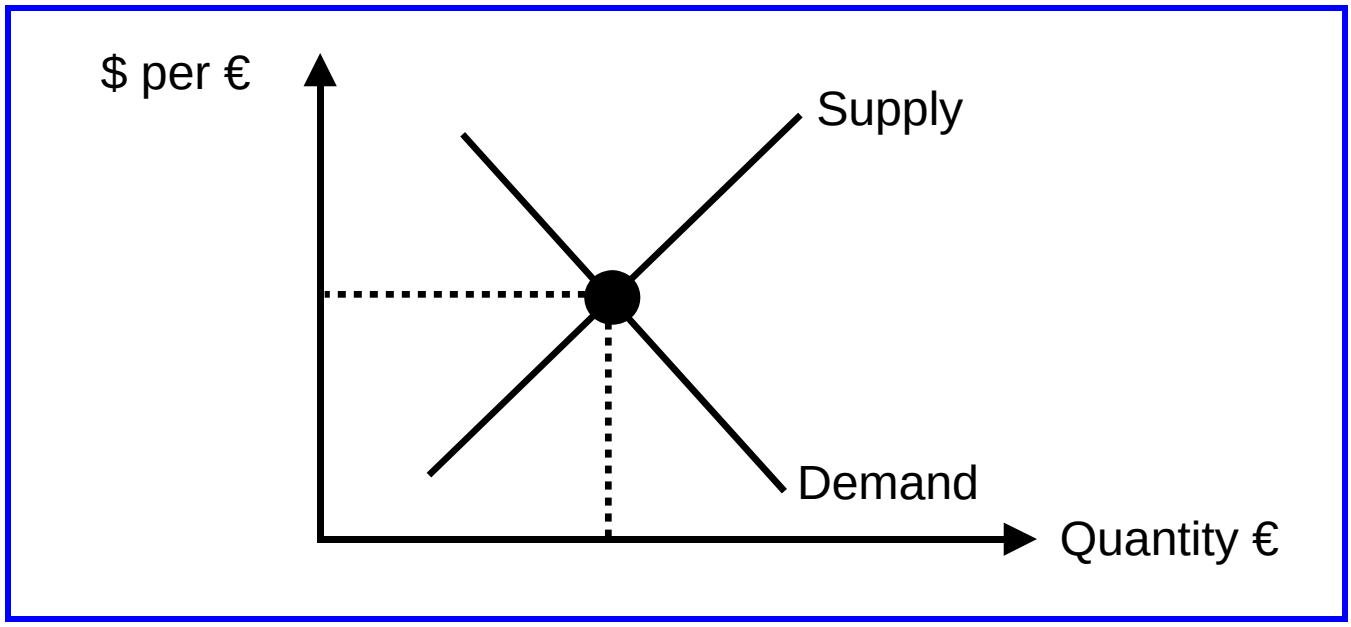
② Example

Market for chocolate		
Price	**Demand**	**Supply**
1	50	10
2	***40***	***20***
3	30	30
4	***20***	***40***
5	10	50

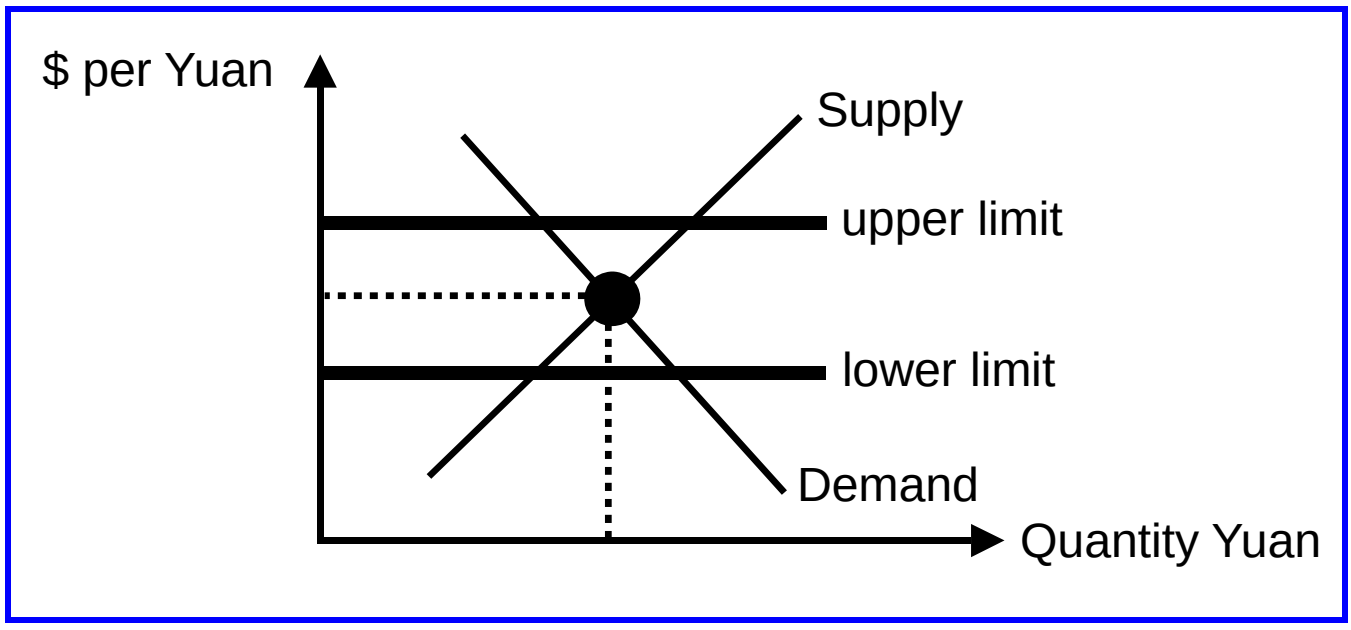


Exchange rate

① **Flexible** exchange rate

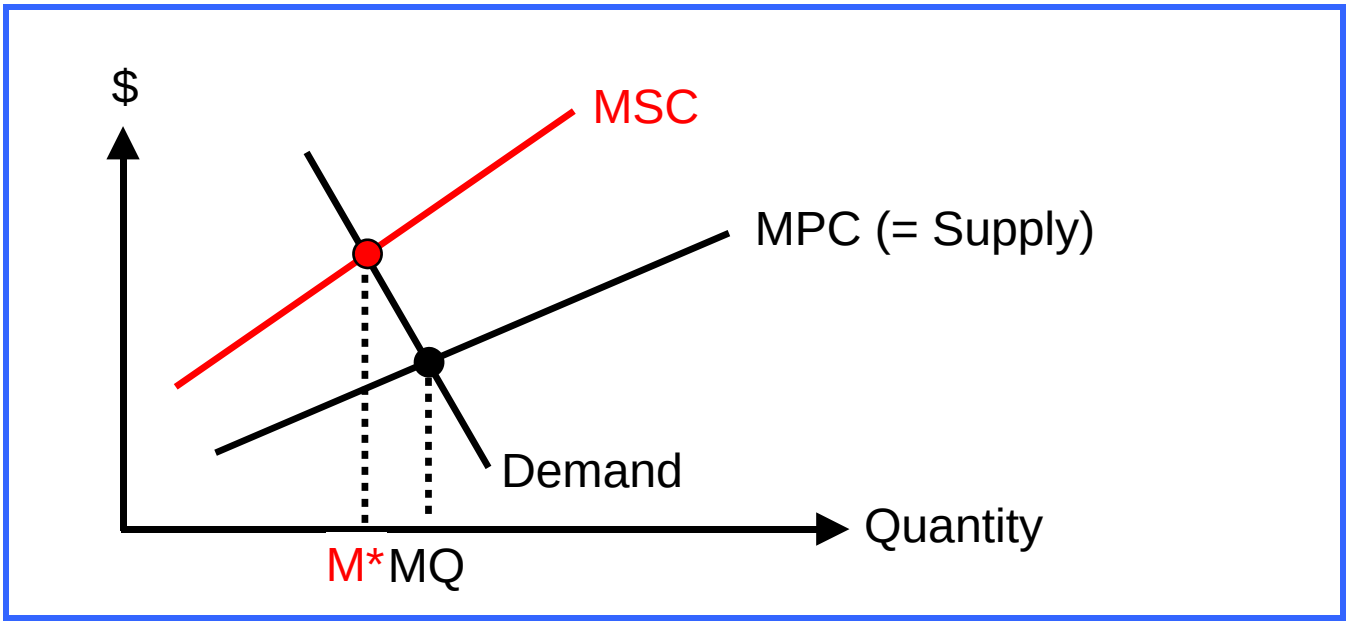


② **Fixed** exchange rate

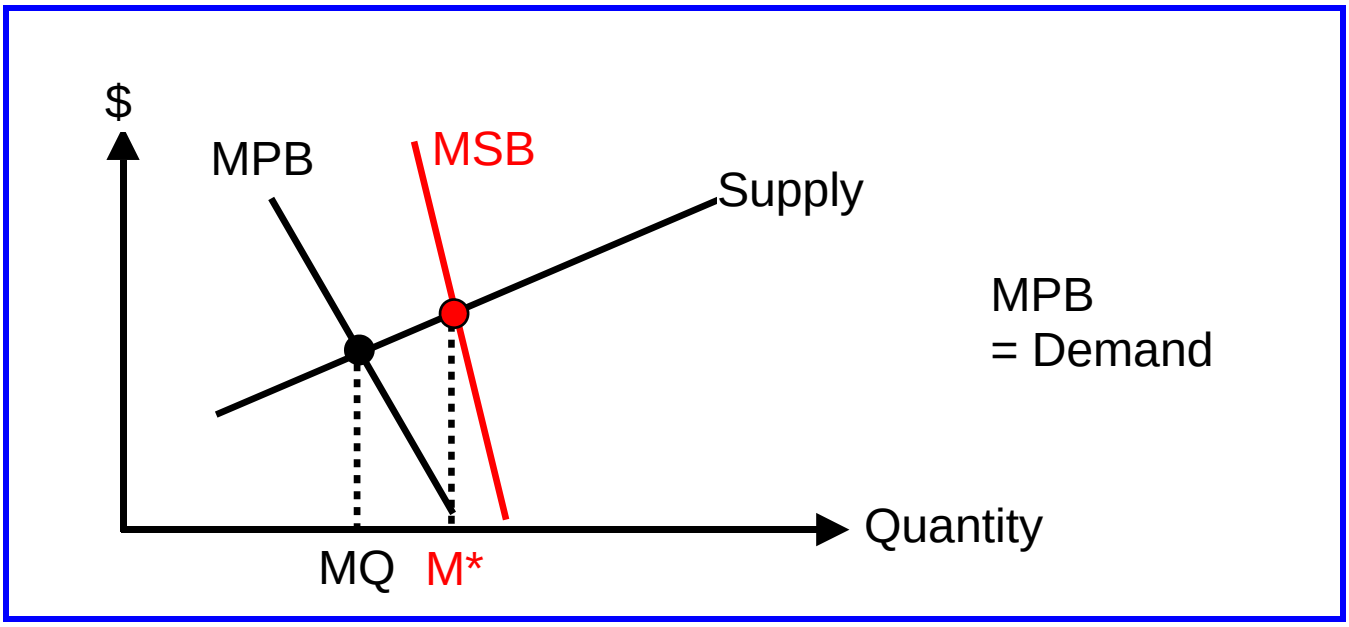


Externality

① **Negative** externality (with external costs)



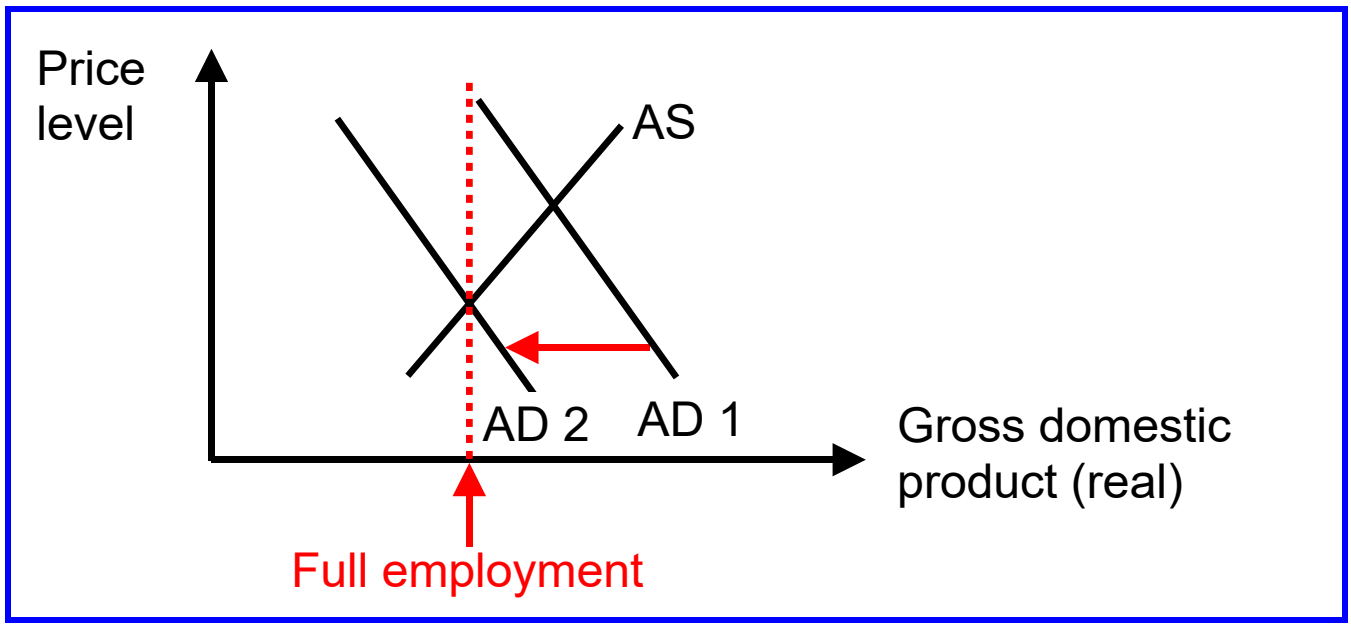
② **Positive** externality (with external benefits)



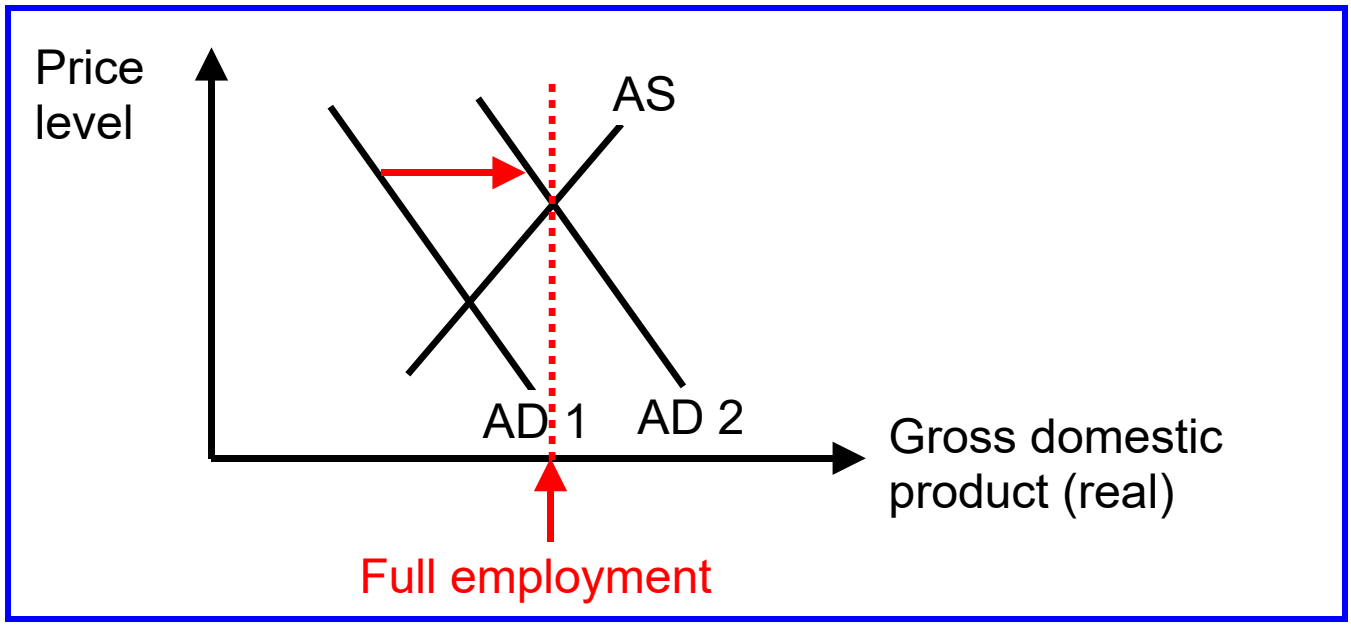
MPC = Marginal private costs	MSB = Marginal social benefits
MPB = Marginal private benefits	MQ = Market quantity
MSC = Marginal social costs	M* = Optimal quantity

Fiscal policy - AD-AS model

① Situation of a **boom**



② Situation of a **recession**



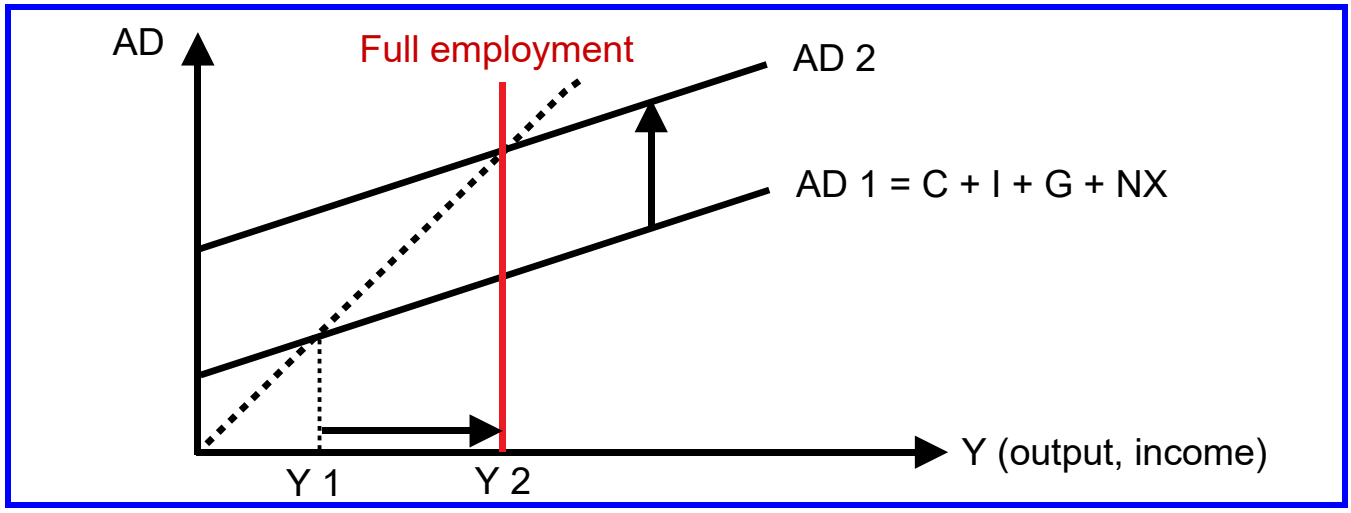
AD = Aggregate demand (Consumption, investment, government spending, net exports)

AS = Aggregate supply

Fiscal policy - Keynes

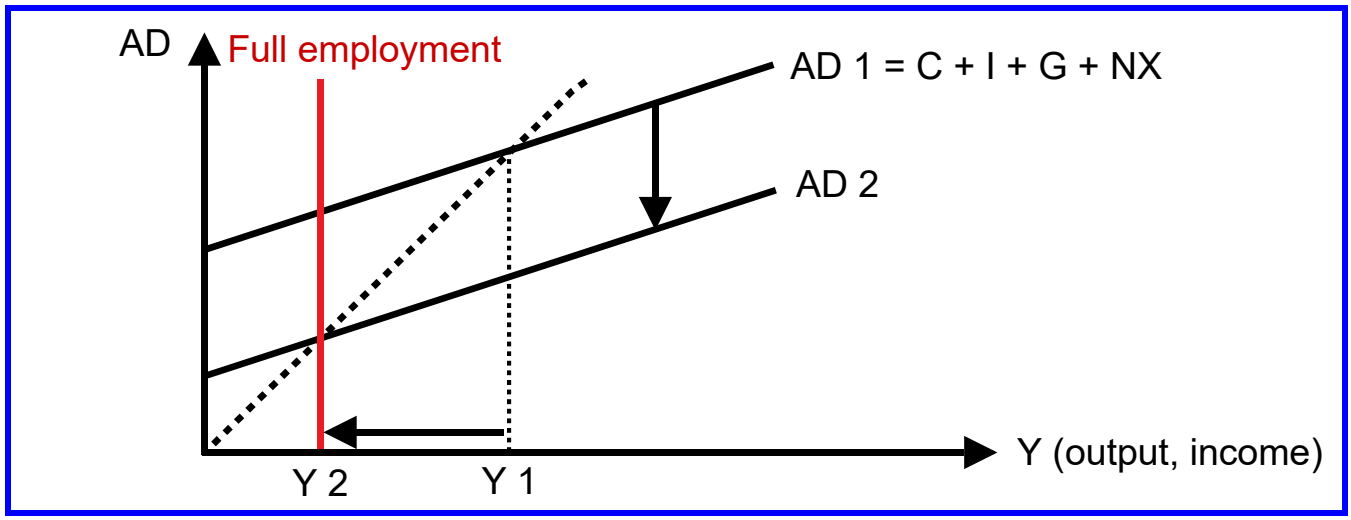
① **Expansionary** fiscal policy (recession)

→ *G+ or taxes-*



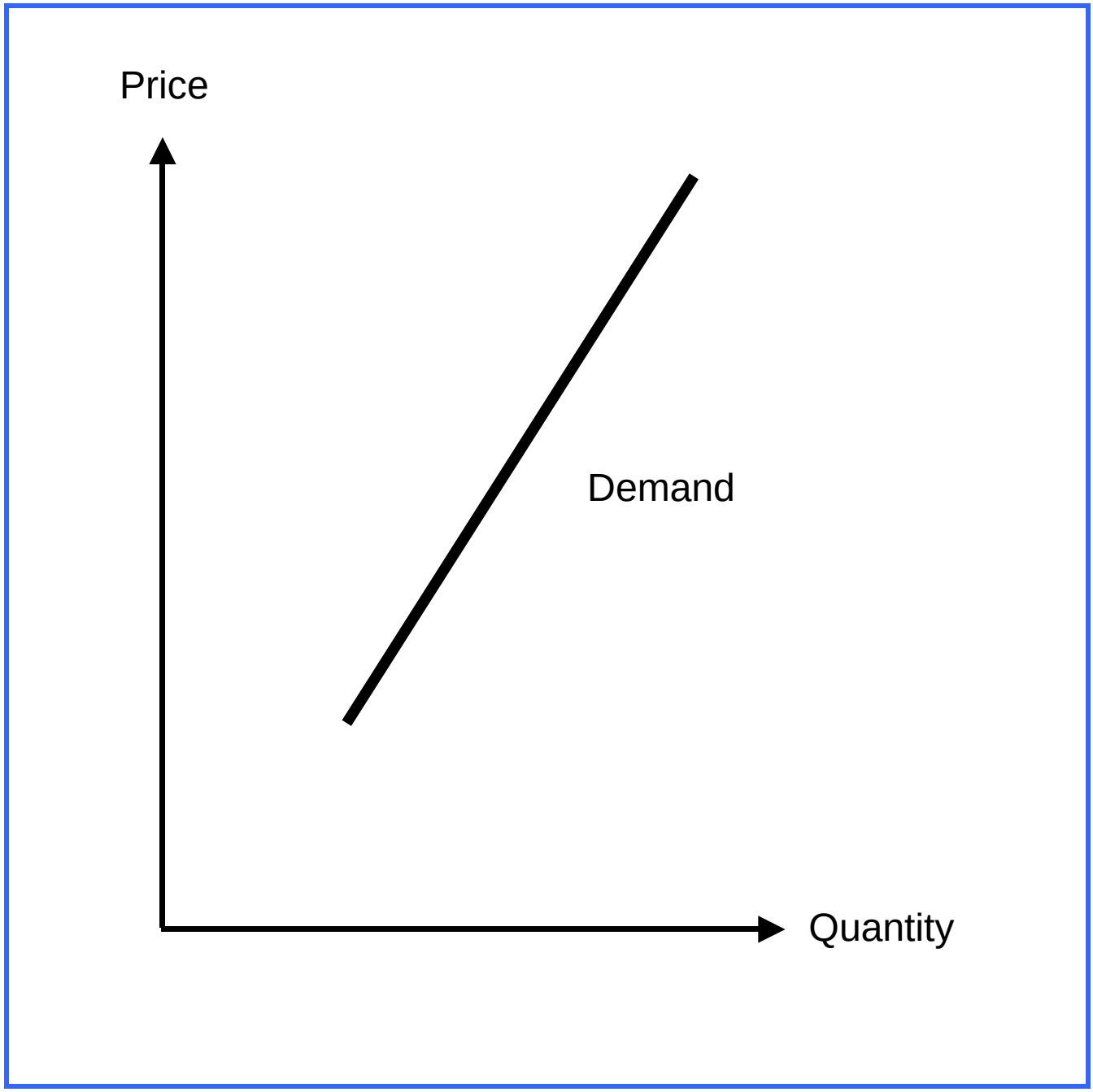
② **Contractionary** fiscal policy (boom)

→ *G- or taxes+*

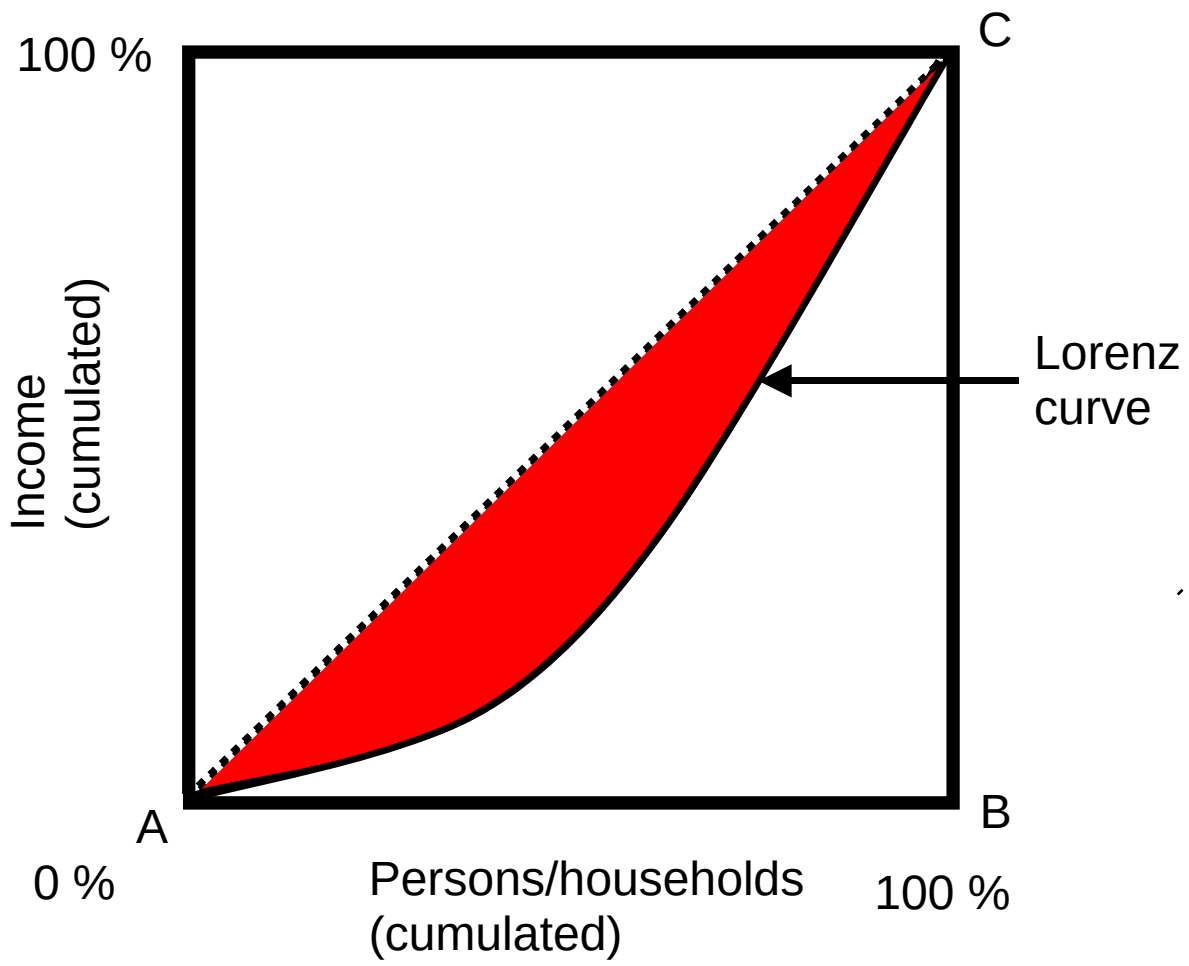


AD = Aggregate demand	C = Consumption
I = Investment	G = Government spending
NX = Net exports (= exports - imports)	

Giffen good



Gini coefficient



Gini coefficient =

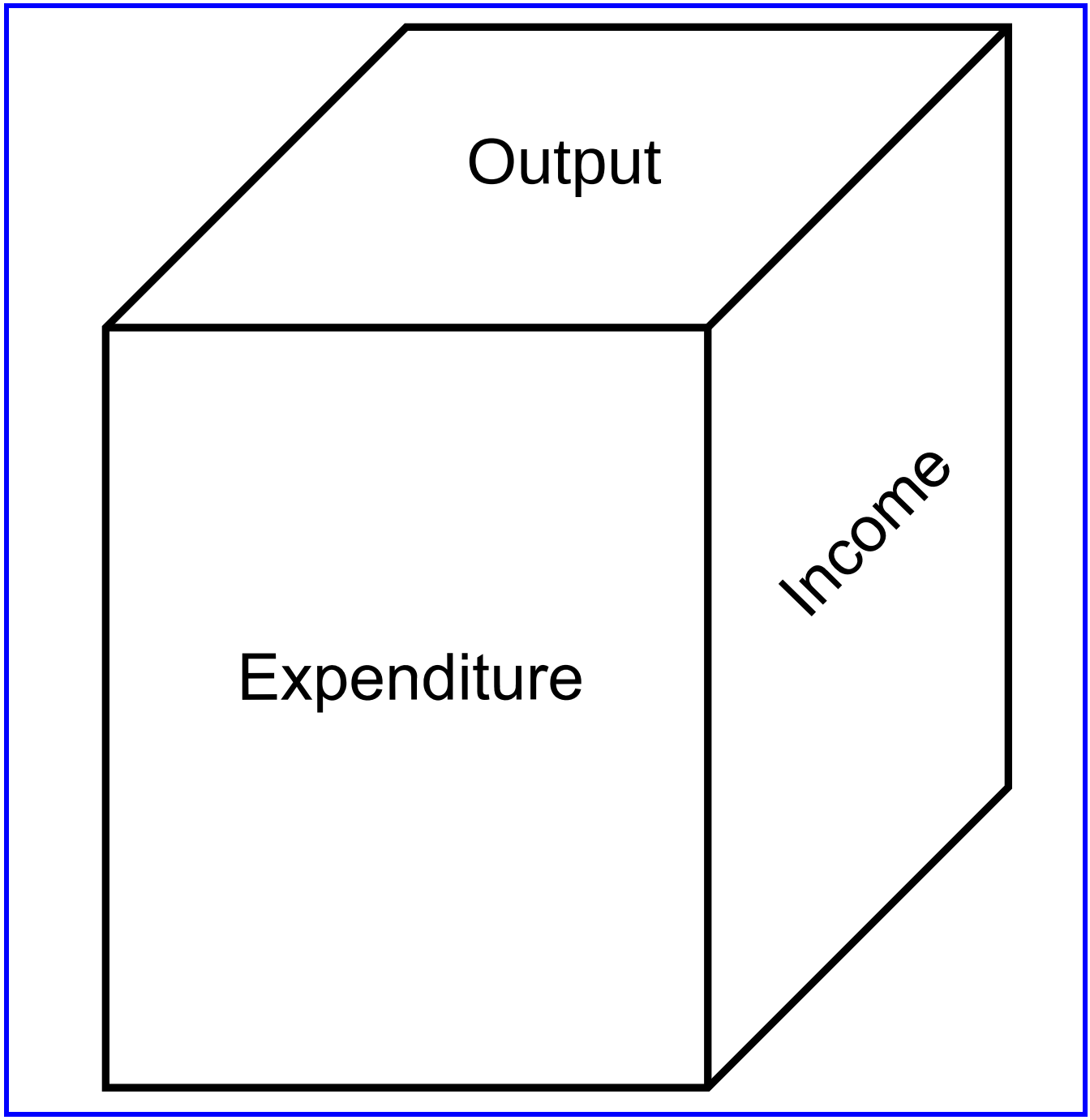
$$\frac{\text{Red area*}}{\text{Triangle ABC}}$$

* Red area = Area between the Lorenz curve and the 45^{o}-diagonal line

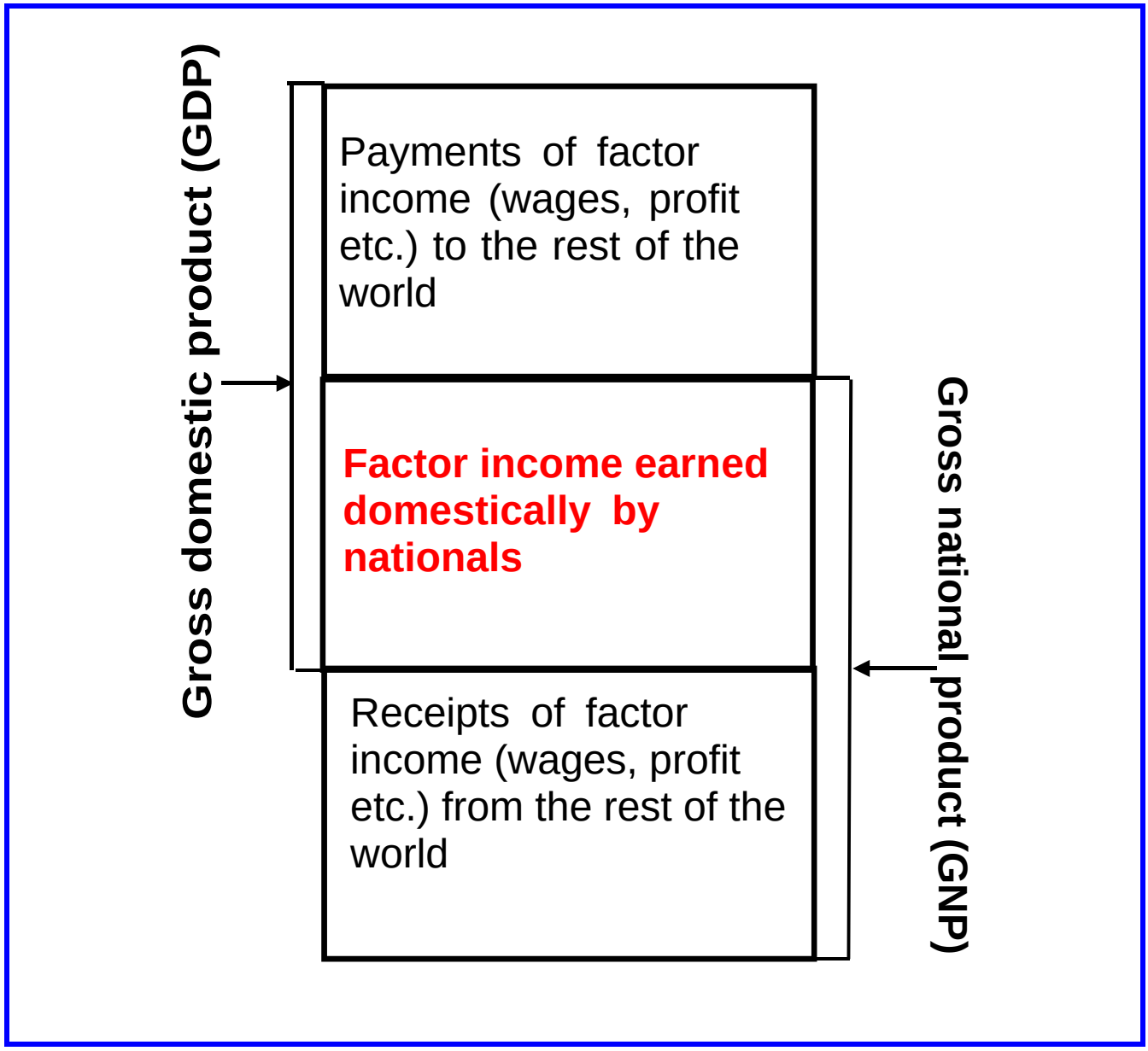
Goods - private and public

		Rival?	
		yes	**no**
Exclu-dable?	**yes**	Private goods	Goods by natural monopolies
	no	Common goods	Public goods

Gross domestic product - methods of calculating



Gross domestic product and gross national product

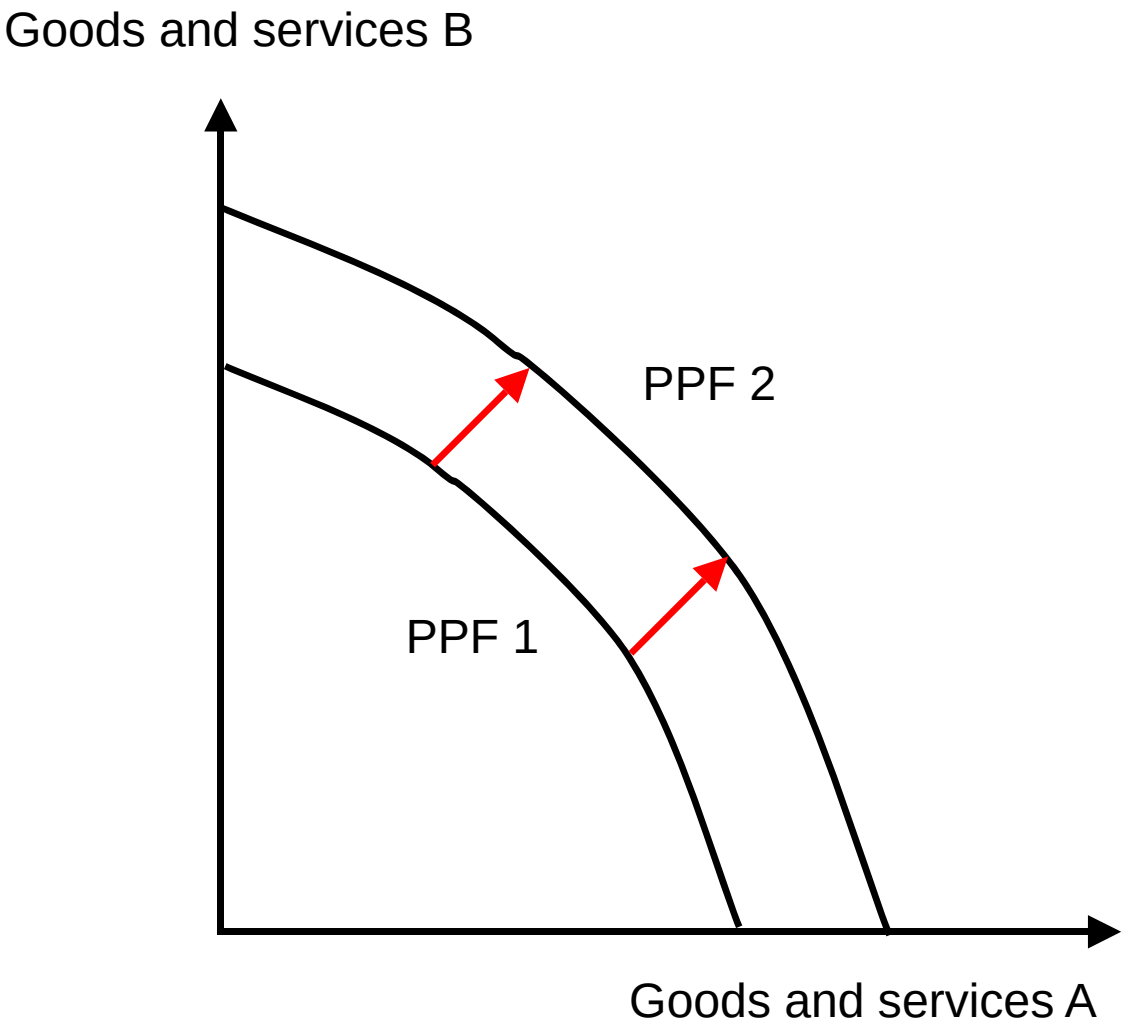


GDP → total income **produced domestically**
GNP → total income **earned by nationals**

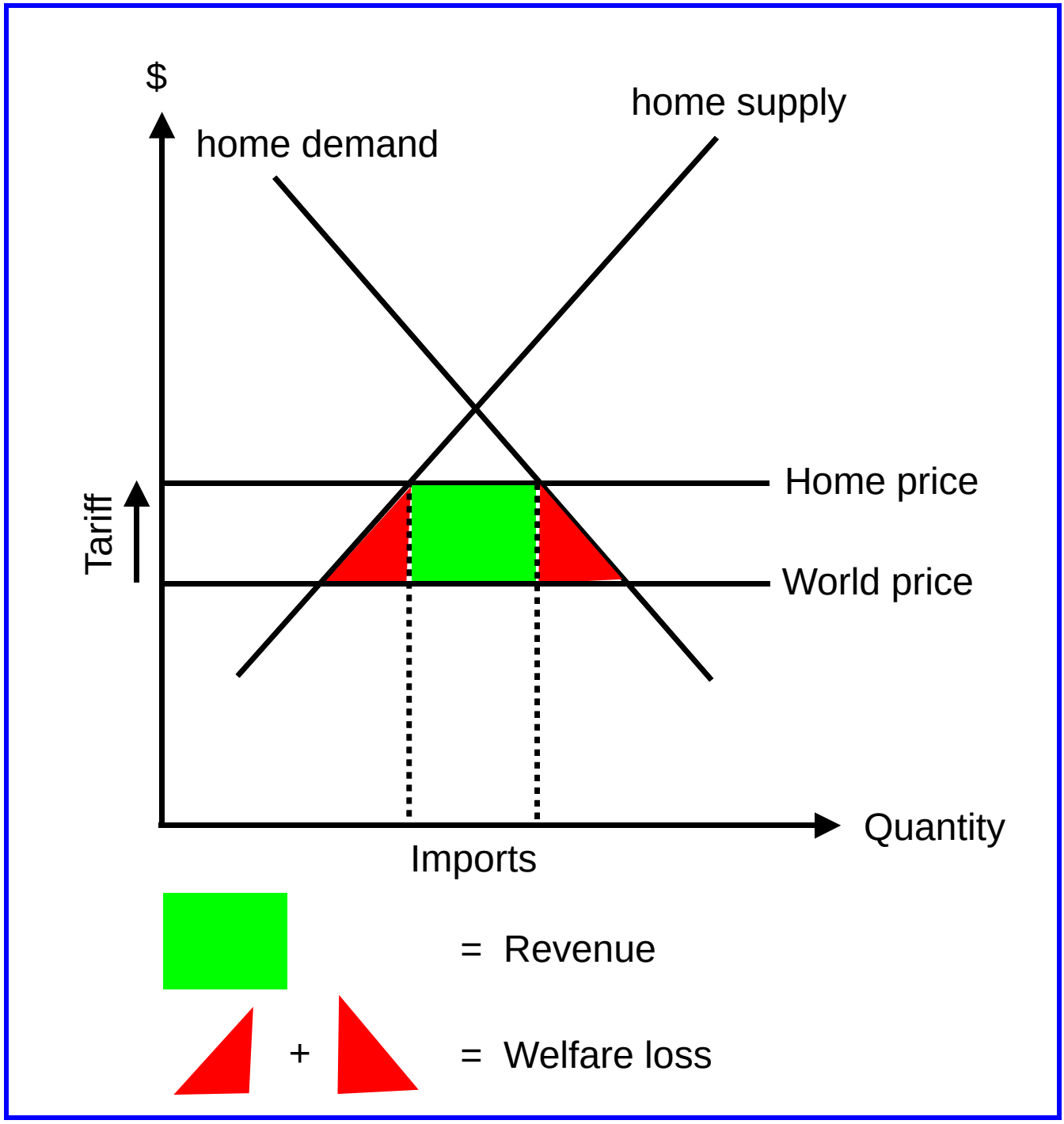
Growth

When there is economic growth, then the production possibilities frontier shifts outward.

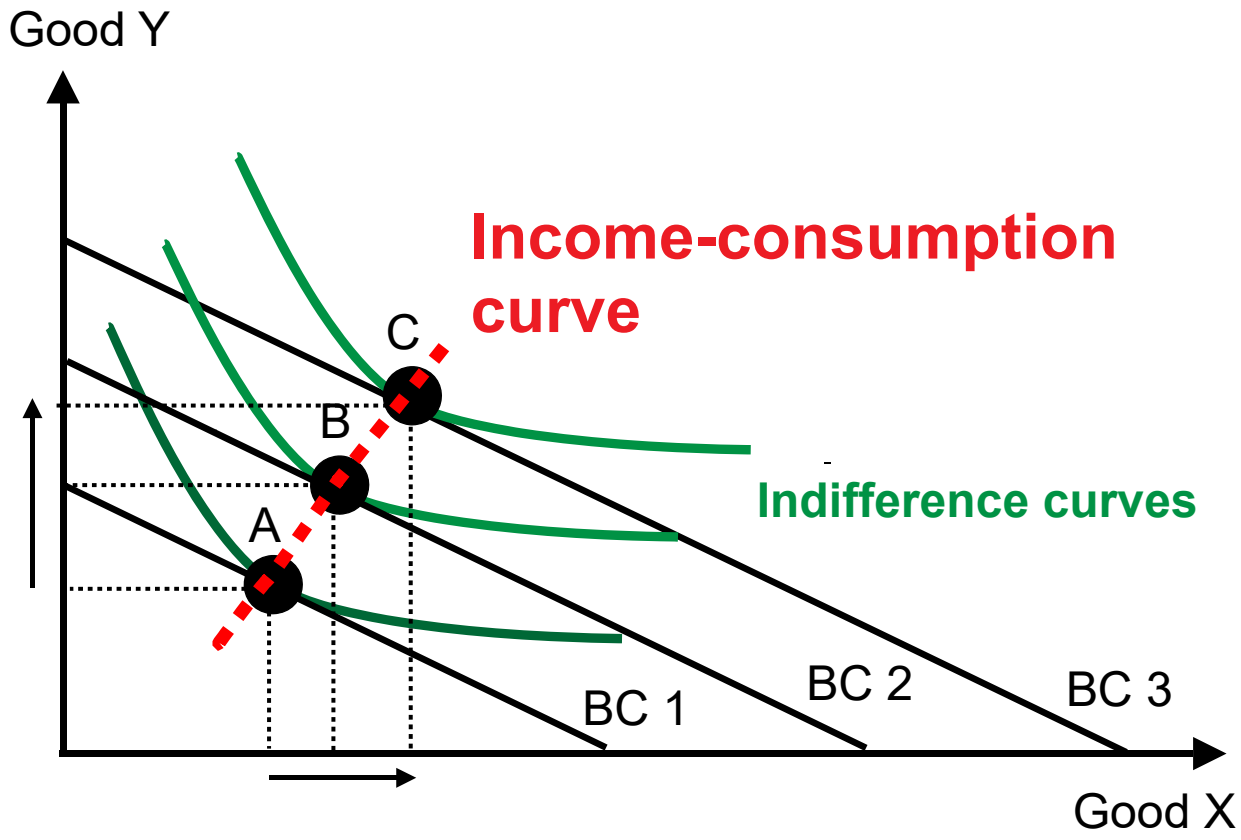
Production possibilities frontier (PPF)



Import tariff - revenue and welfare loss



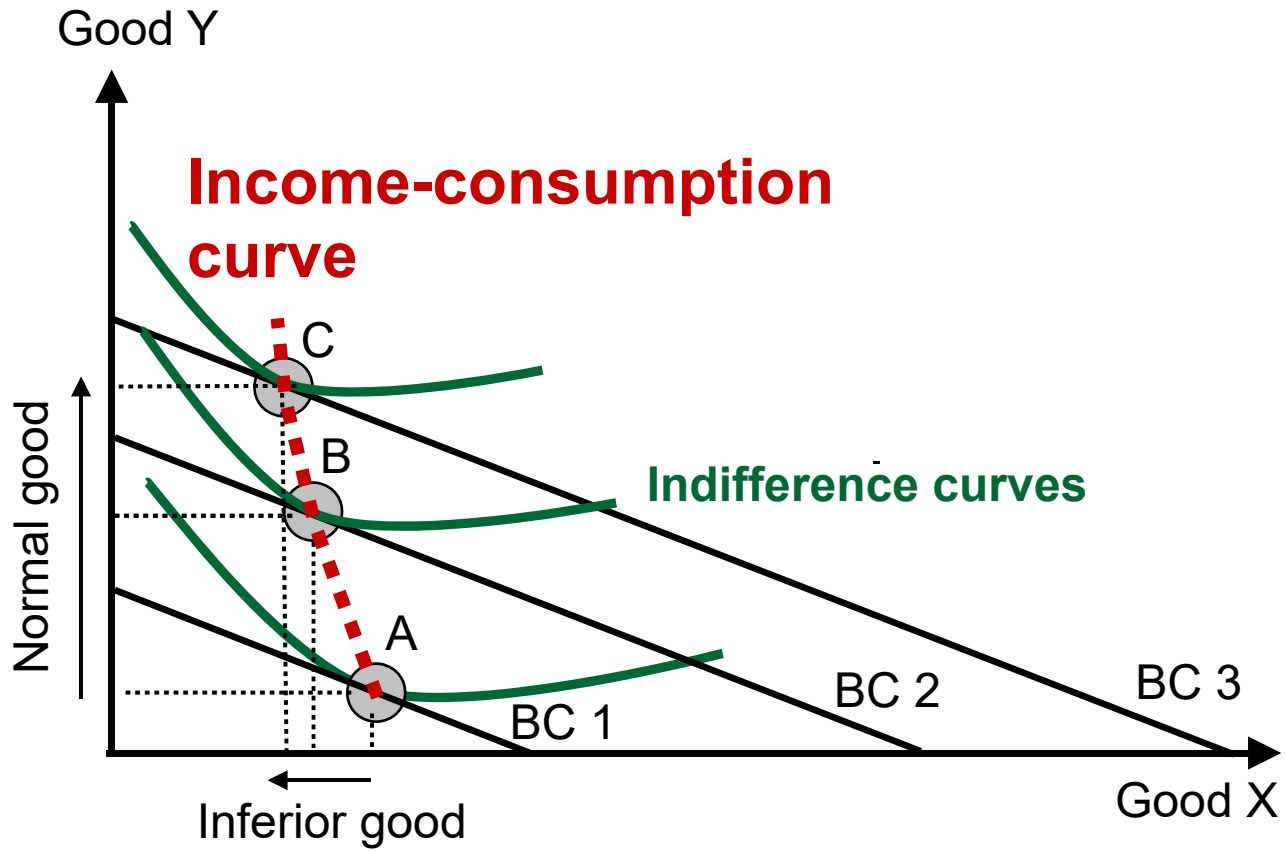
Income-consumption curve 1 - normal goods



BC = Budget constraint

Both goods (X, Y) are **normal** goods because as income increases (e.g. from BC 1 to BC 2 and then to BC 3), the quantity of both goods increases (income elasticity of demand > 0).

Income-consumption curve 2 - normal and inferior good

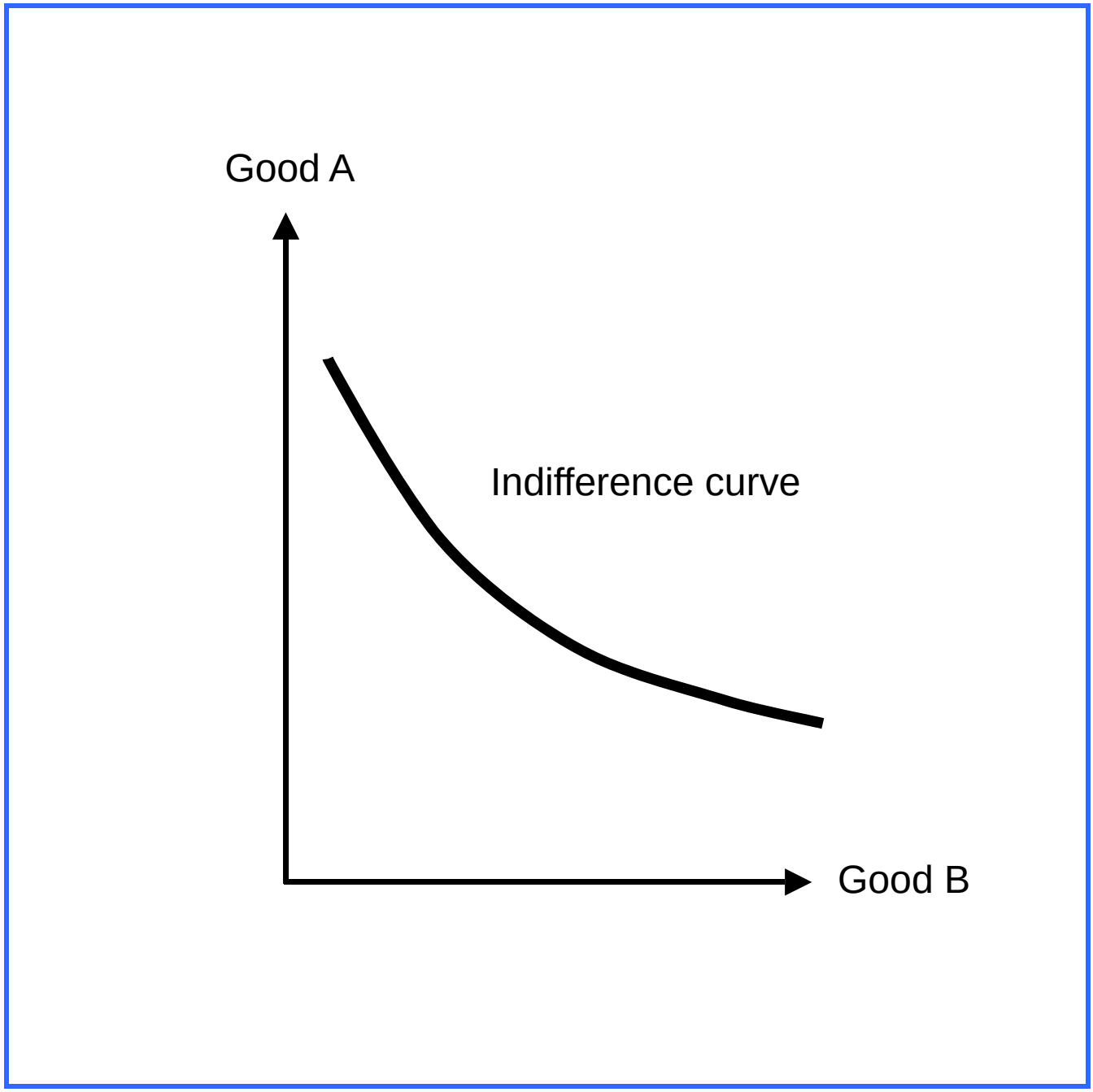


BC = Budget constraint

Good **X** is an **inferior** good, as income increases (e.g. from BC 1 to BC 2 and then to BC 3), quantity demanded decreases (income elasticity of demand < 0), whereas good **Y** is a **normal** good, as income increases, quantity demanded increases (income elasticity of demand > 0).

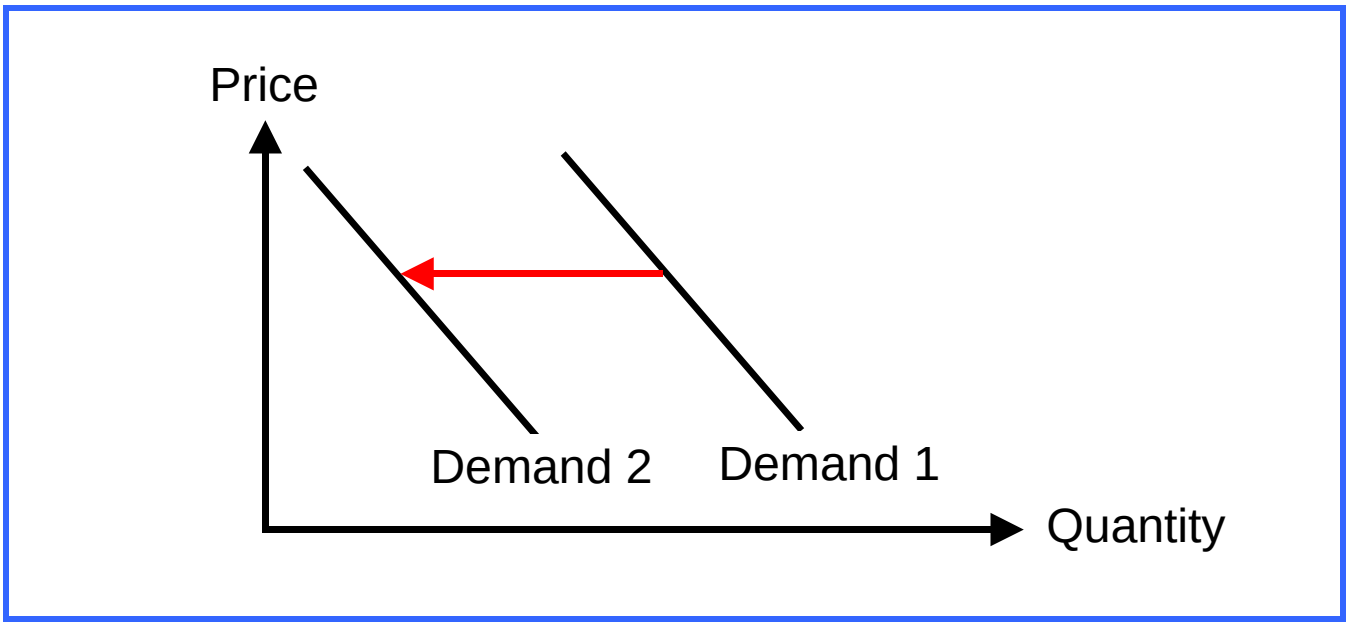
Indifference curve

An indifference curve shows the combinations of 2 divisible goods, A and B, which result in the same utility for the consumer. Along an indifference curve **total utility** is thus **constant**.

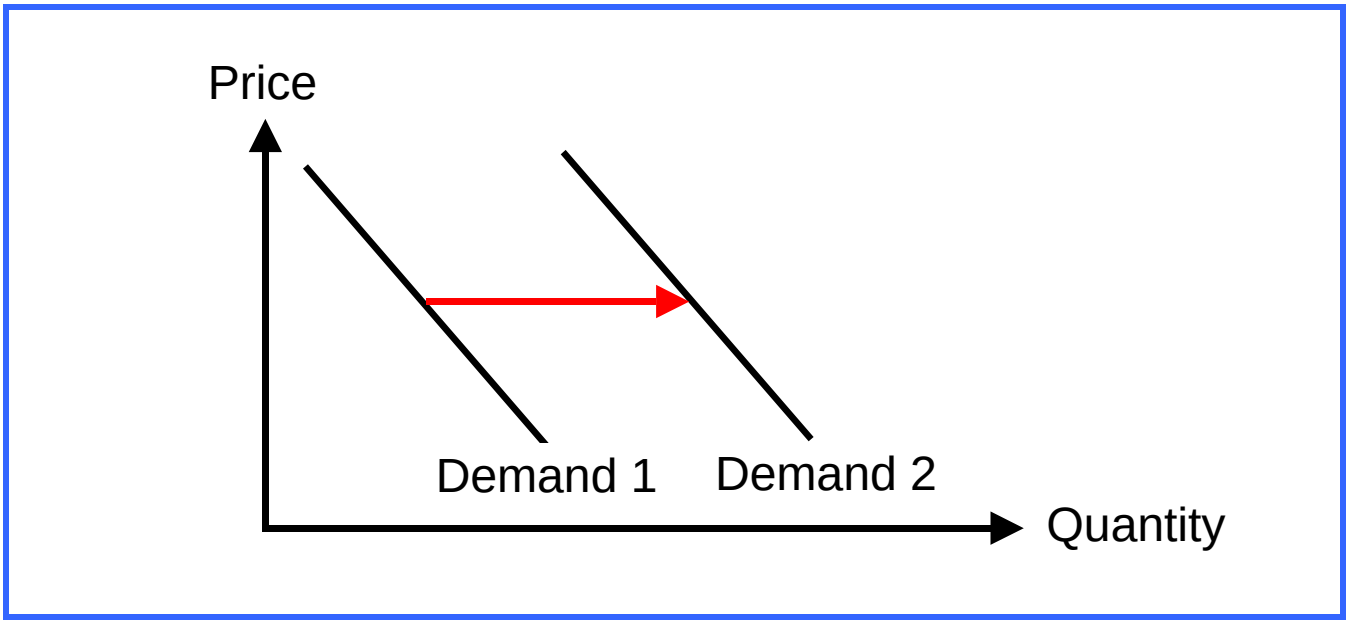


Inferior good

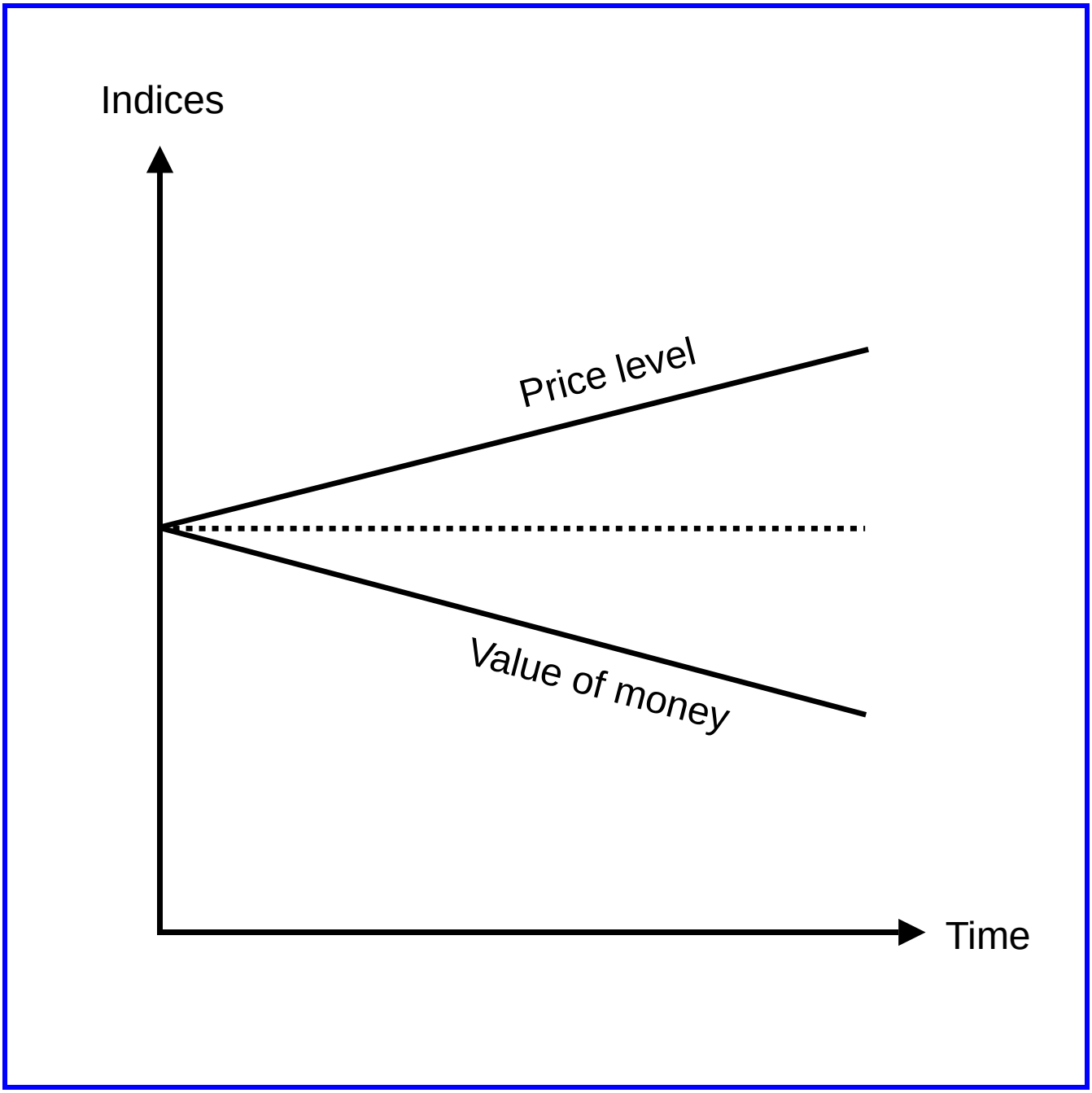
① **Income rises.** What happens to an inferior good?



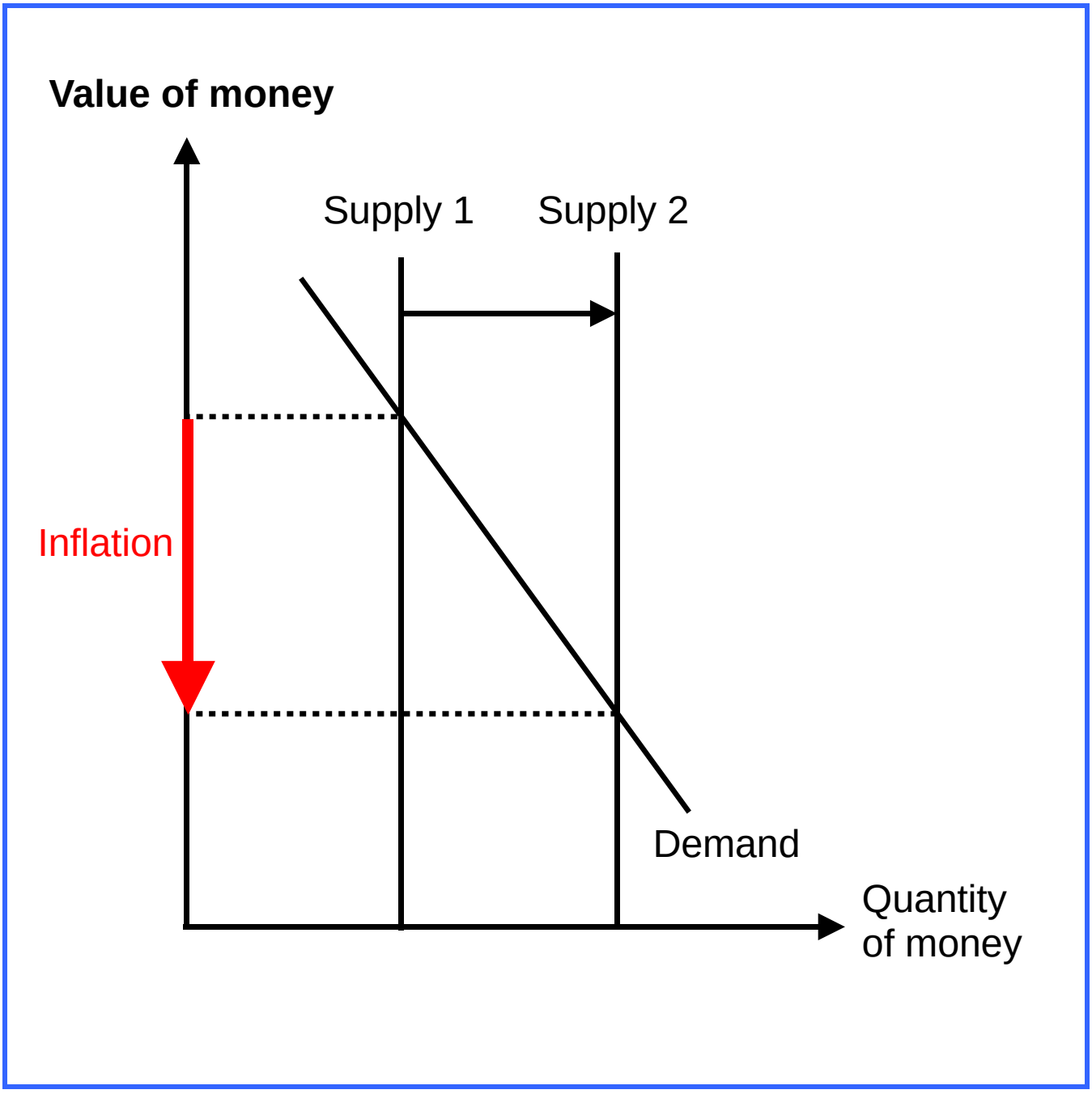
② **Income falls.** What happens to an inferior good?



Inflation 1 - characteristics

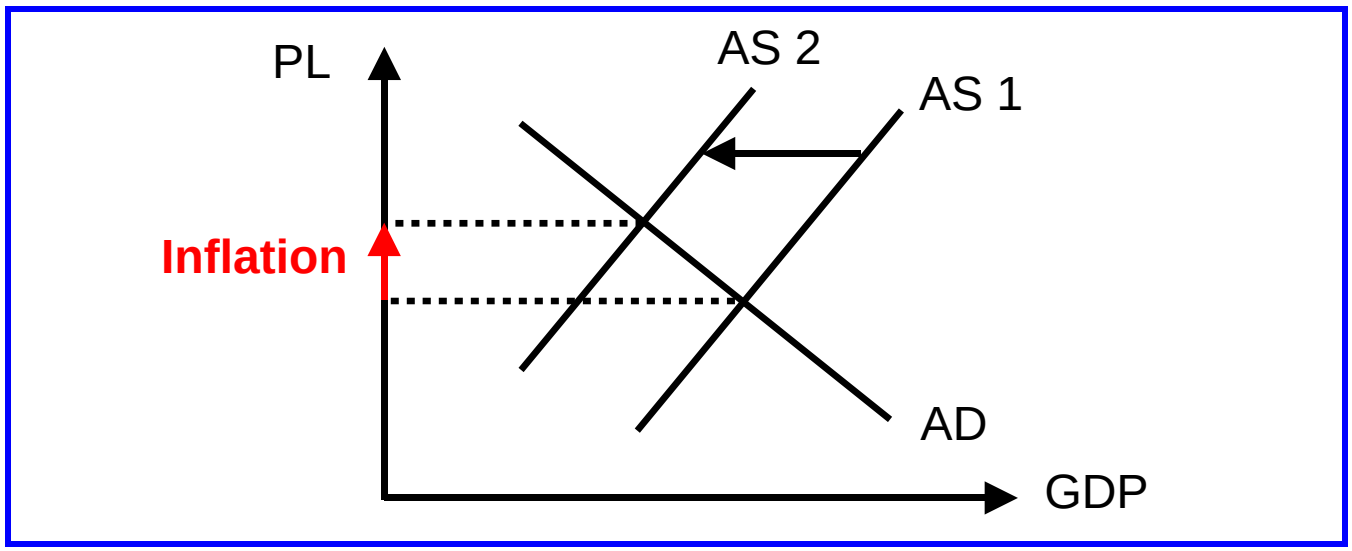


Inflation 2 - monetary inflation

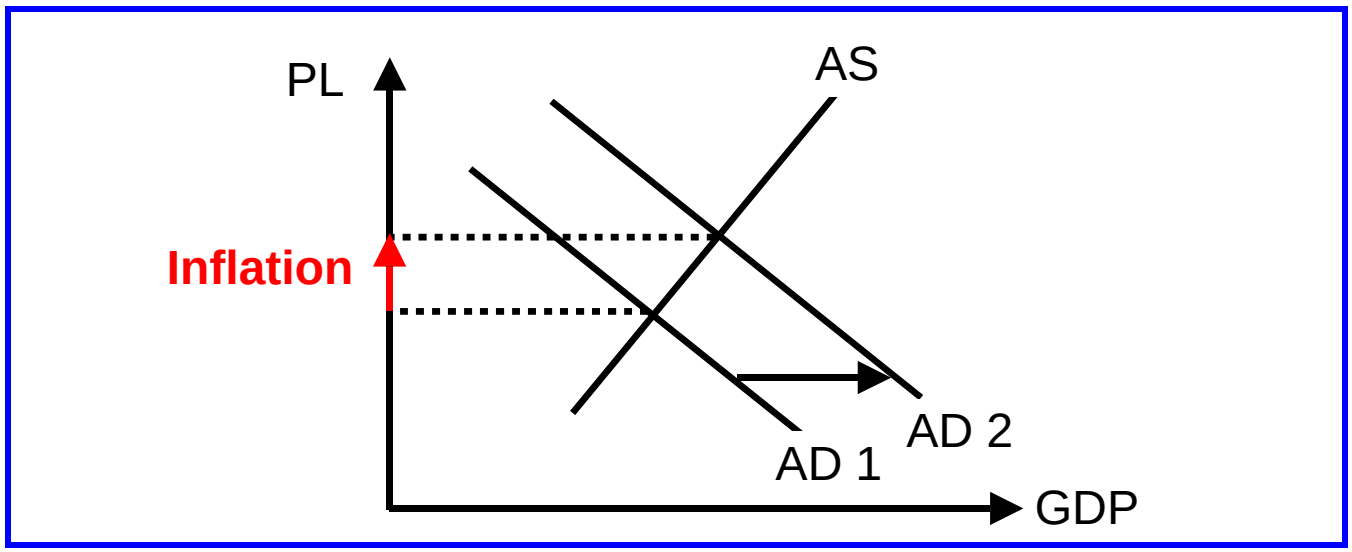


Inflation 3 - cost-push inflation and demand-pull inflation

① **Cost-push** inflation

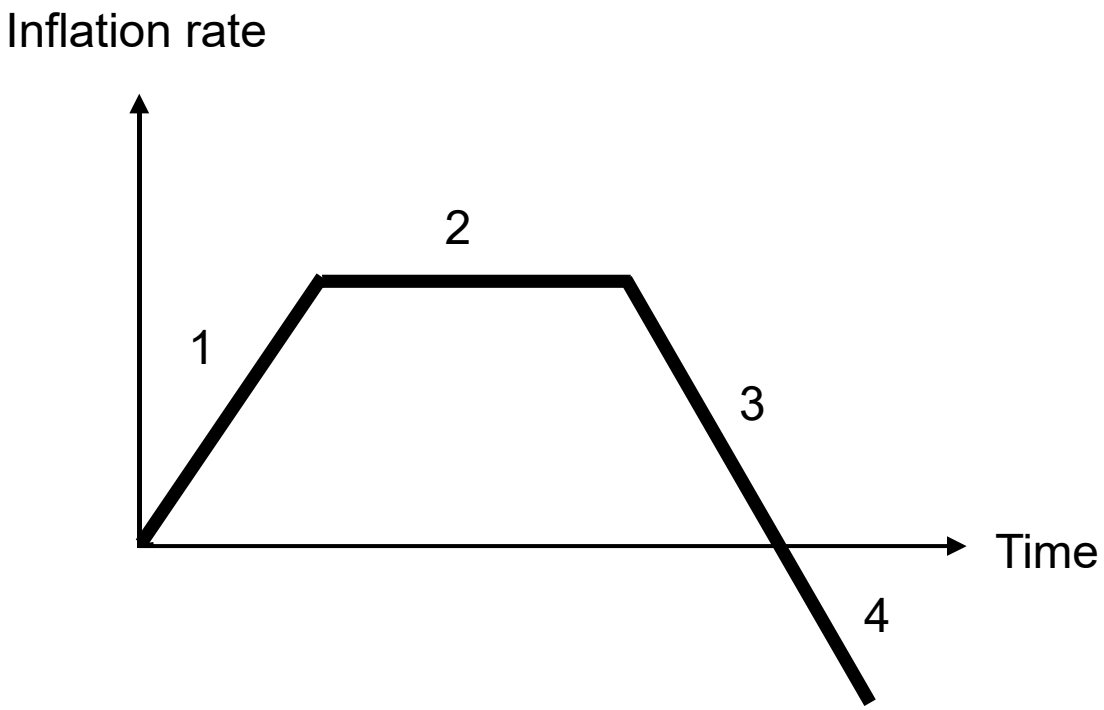


② **Demand-pull** inflation



AS = Aggregate supply	PL = Price level
AD = Aggregate demand	GDP = Gross domestic product

Inflation, Disinflation and Deflation



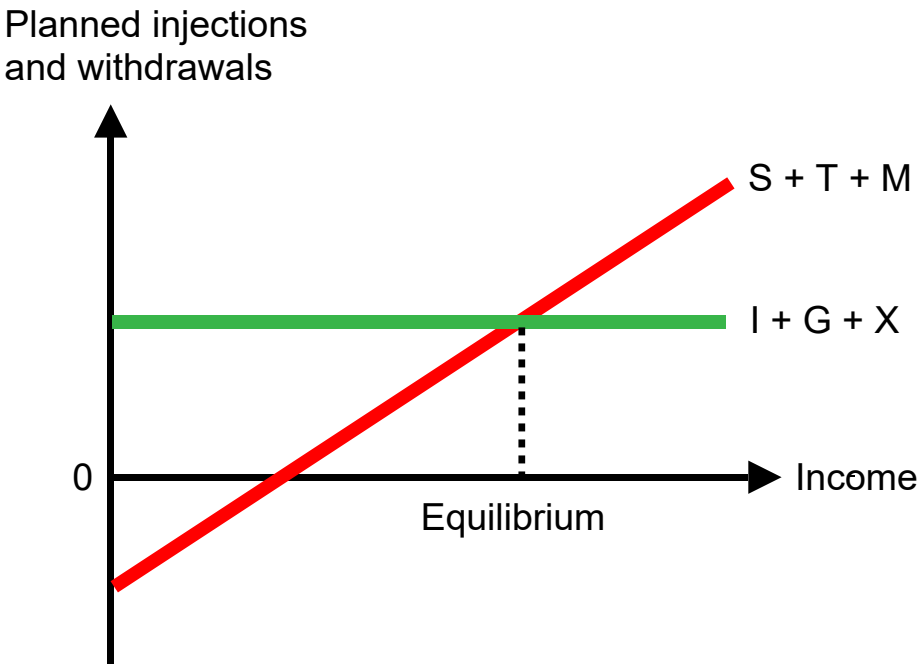
1,2 Inflation
3 Disinflation
4 Deflation

Injections and withdrawals

1 *Assumptions*

- **Independent** of income: Injections = I + G + X
- **Dependent** on income: Withdrawals = S + T + M

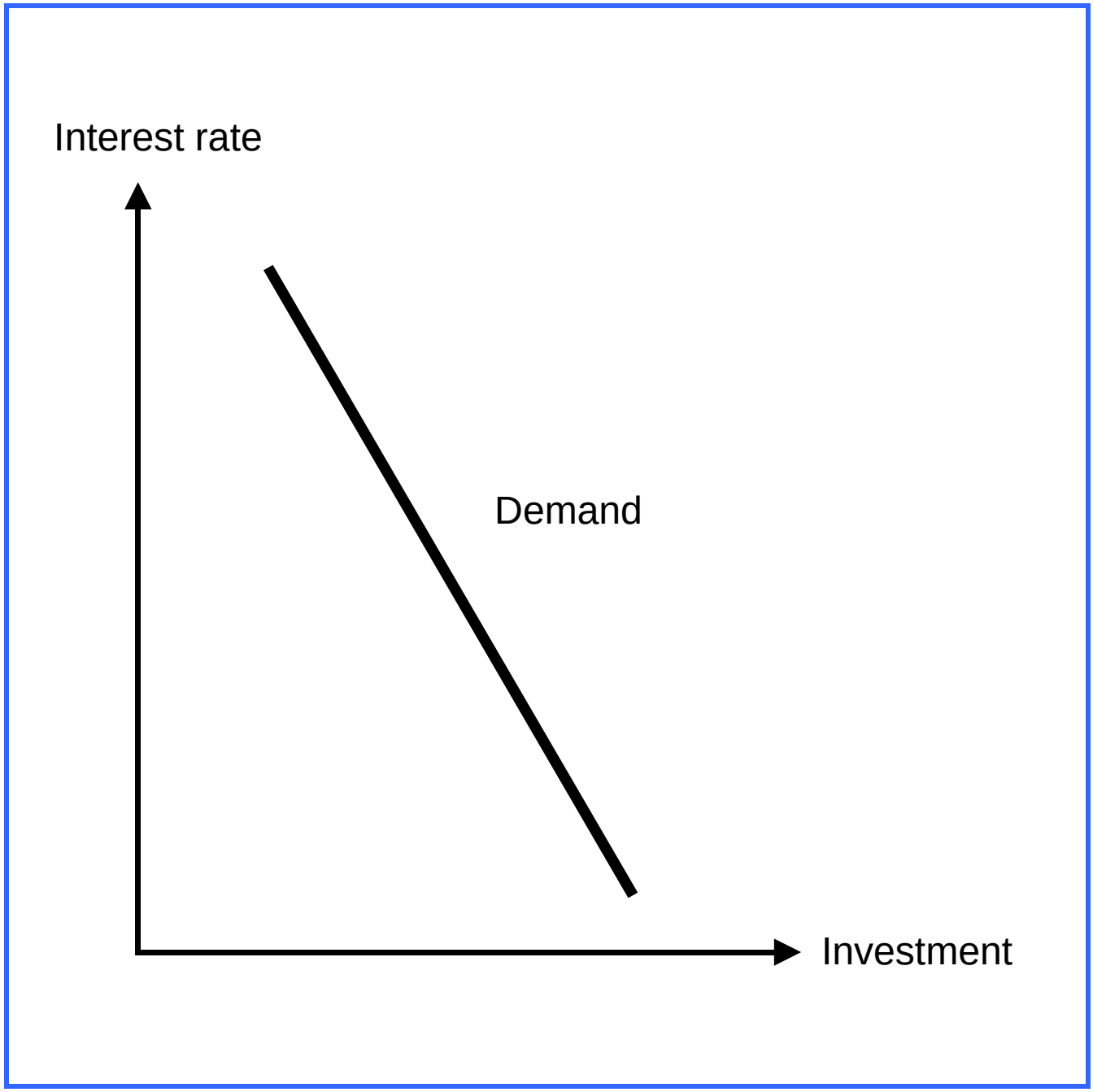
2 *Graphic*



3 *Abbreviations*

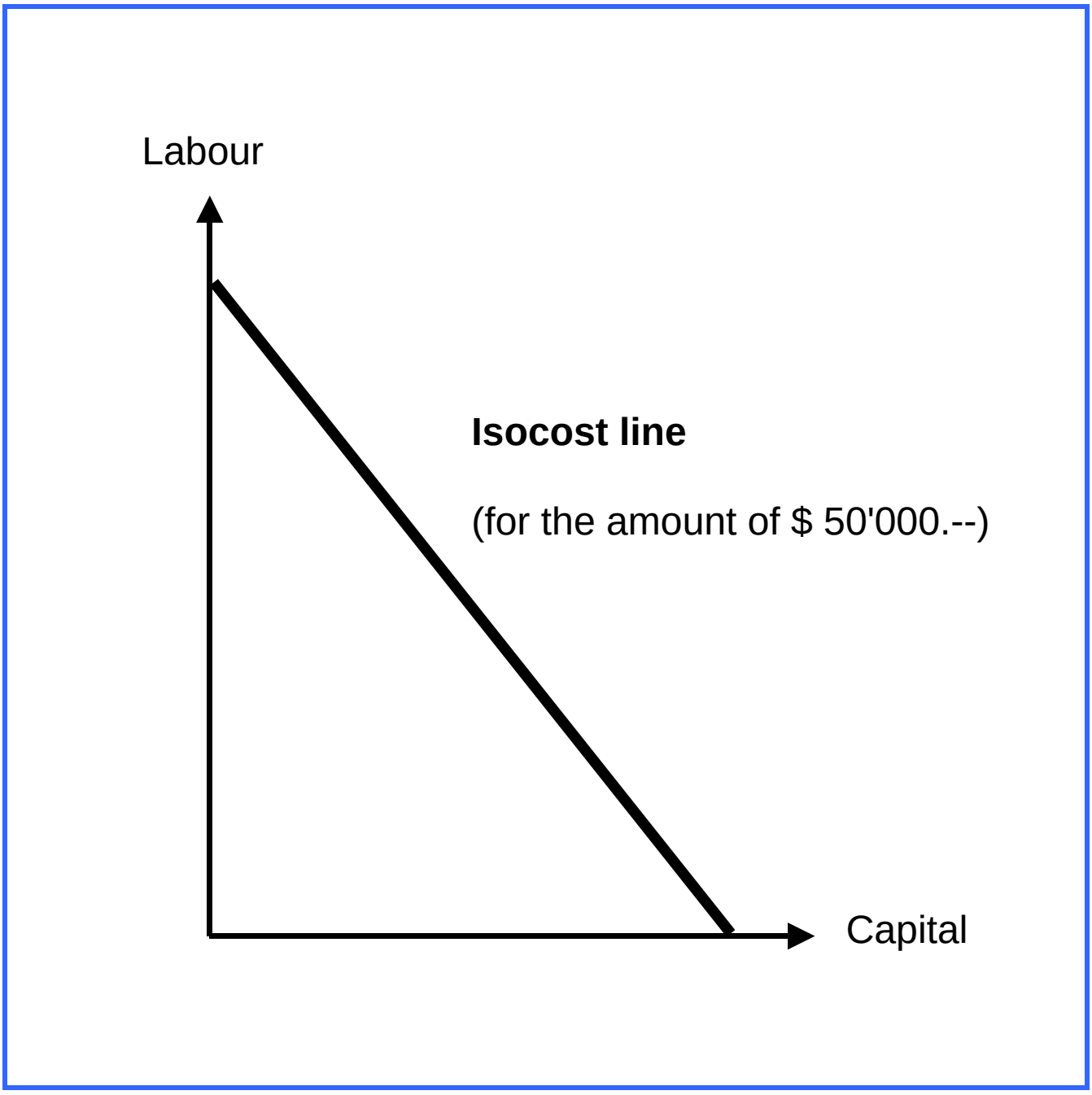
Injections	Withdrawals
I = Investment	S = Savings
G = Government spending	T = Taxes
X = Exports	M = Imports

Investment demand



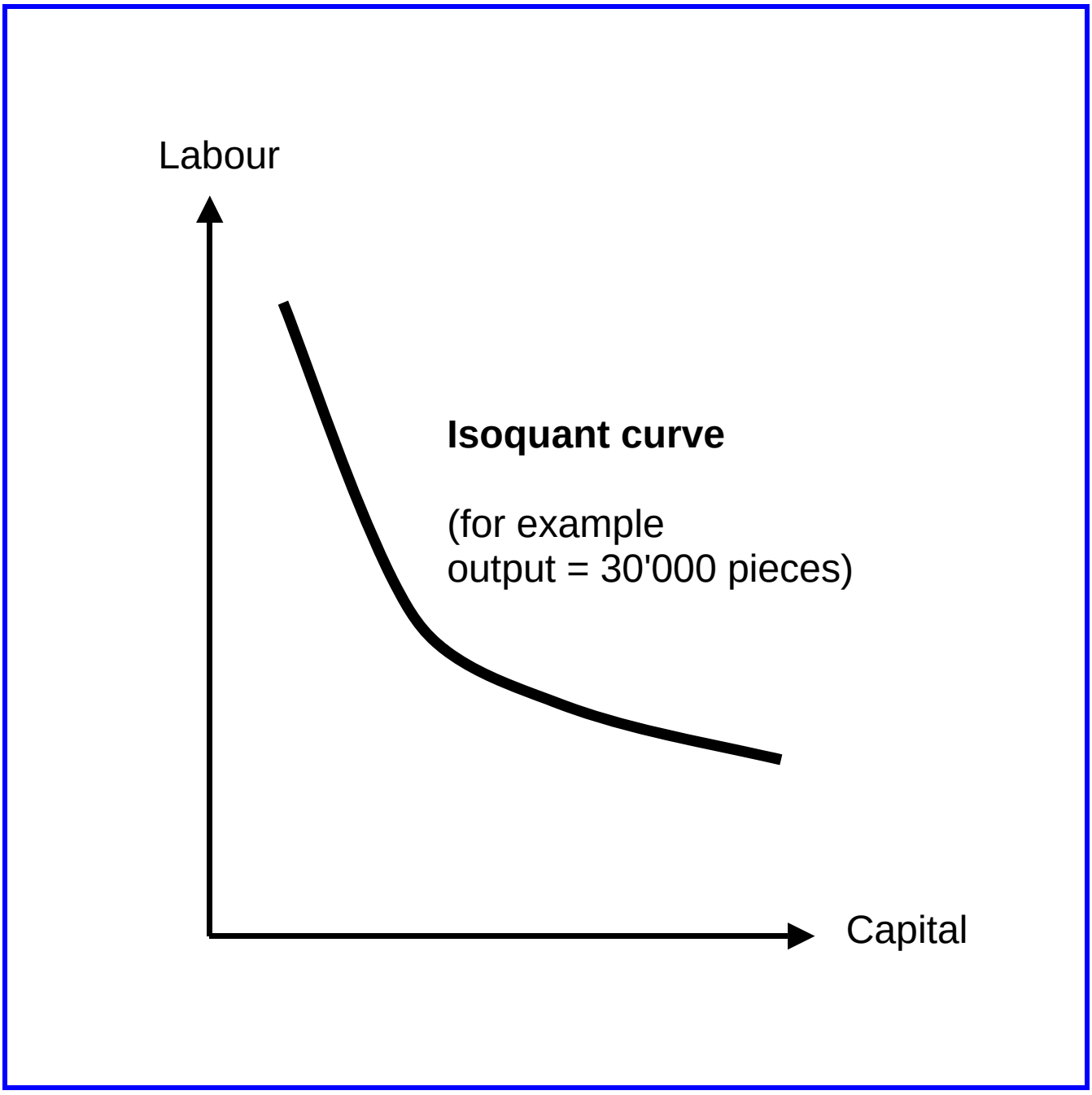
Isocost

An isocost line shows the combinations of divisible factors of production (labour, capital) that a firm can choose for a given amount of money.

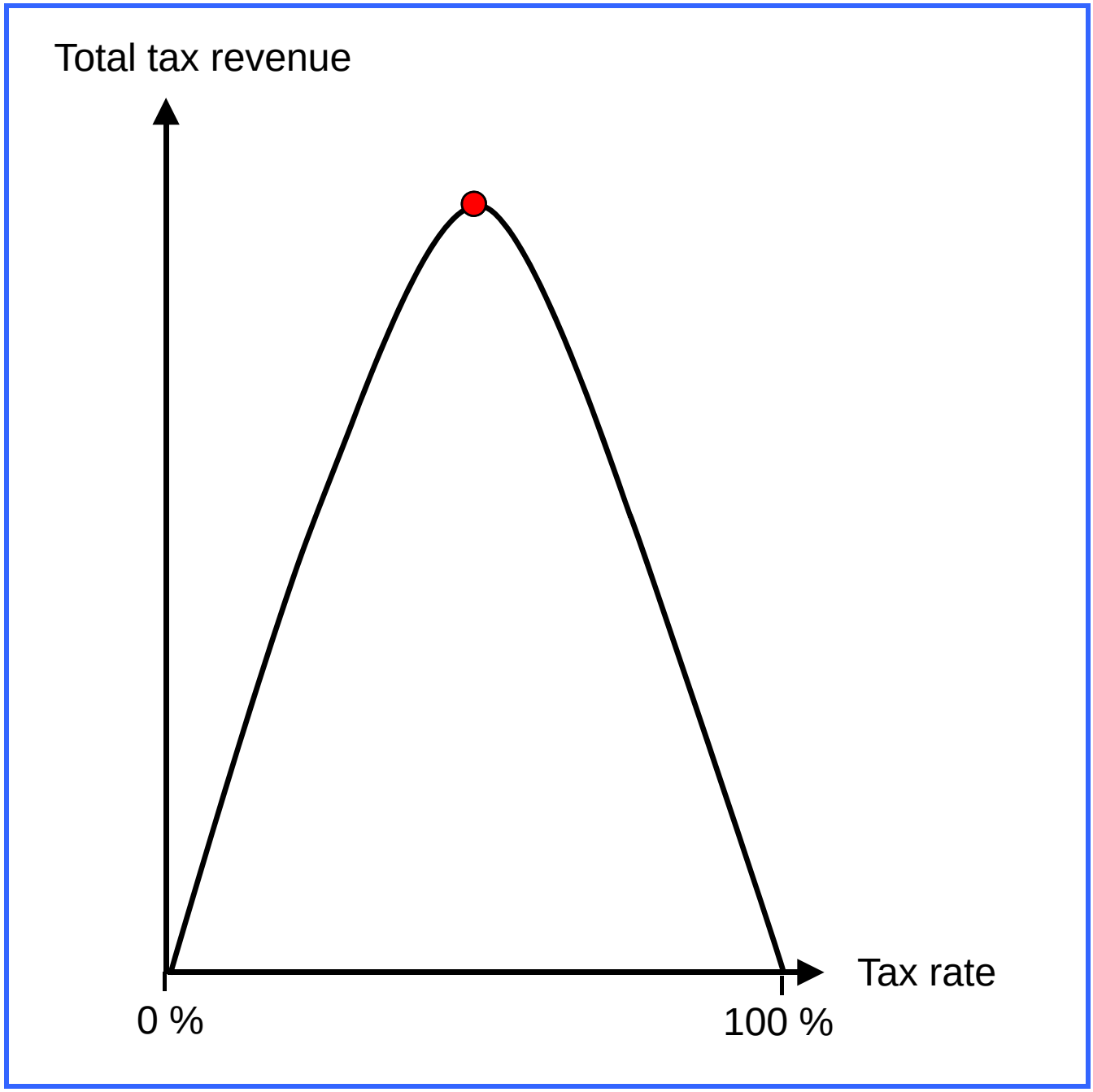


Isoquant

An isoquant curve shows the combinations of divisible factors of production (labour, capital) which are necessary for the production of a given output.



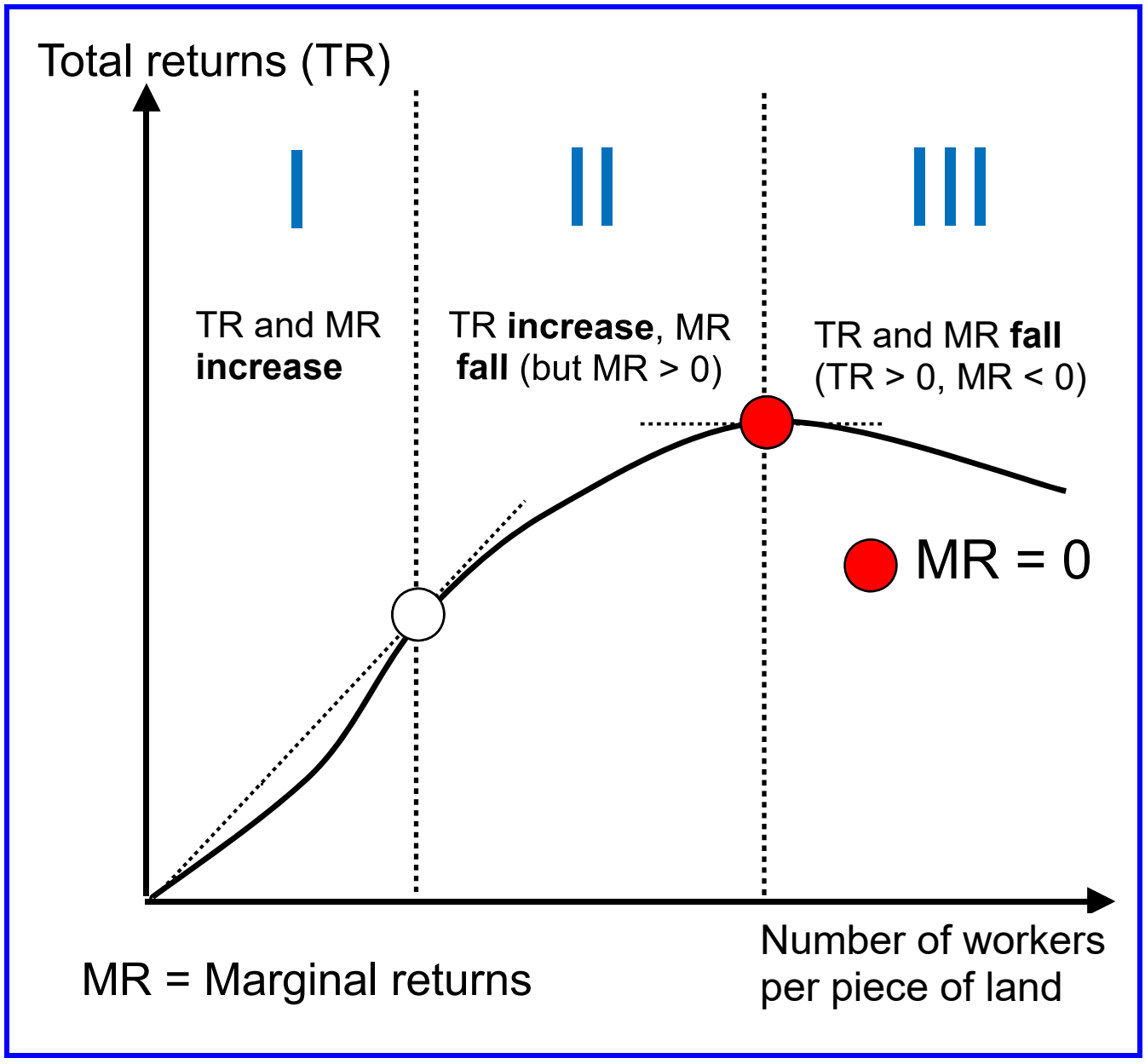
Laffer curve



Law of returns to a factor (classical)

Assumptions:

- The production factor 'labor' is variable;
- all other factors of production are constant (fixed).

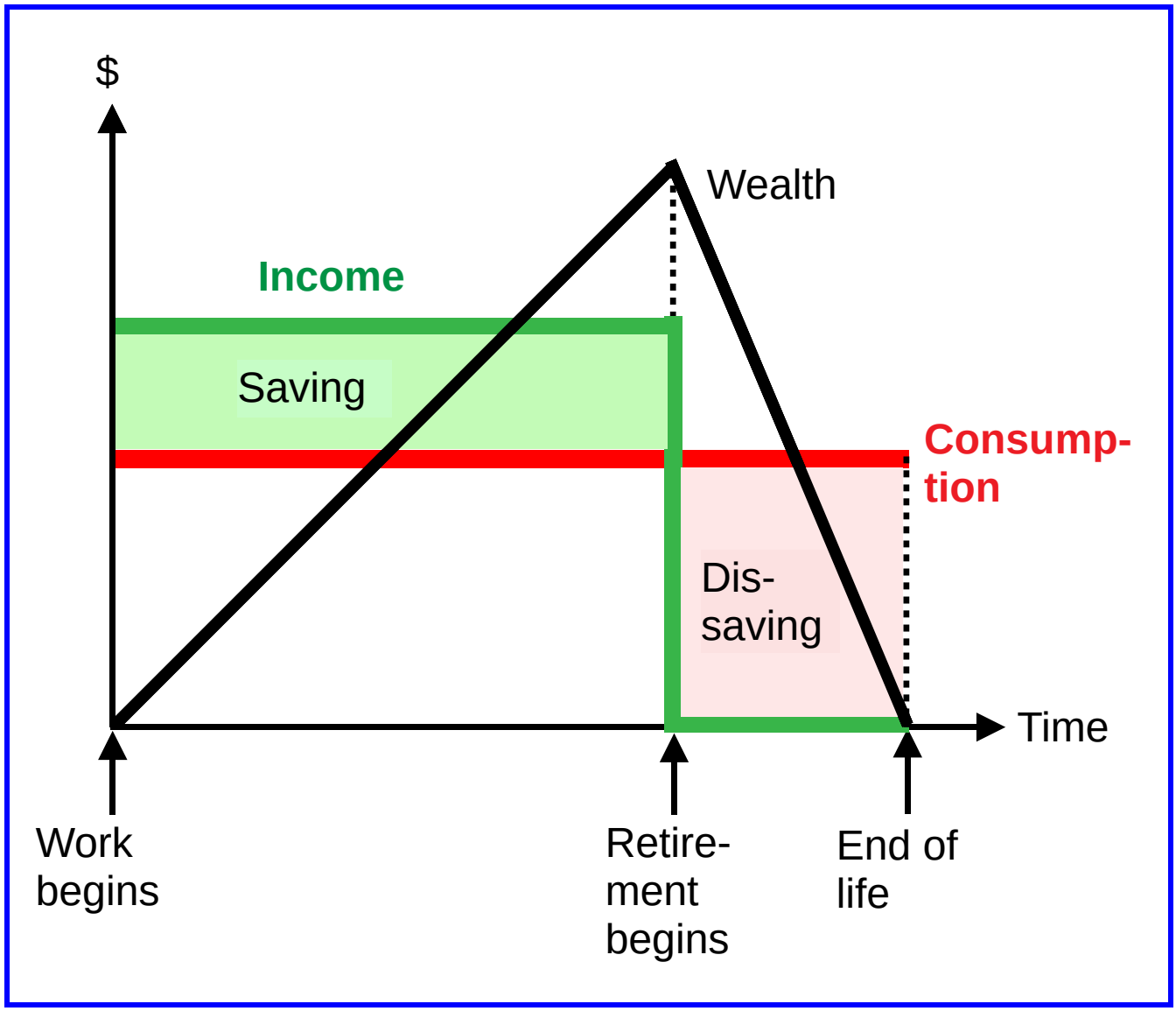


Note:

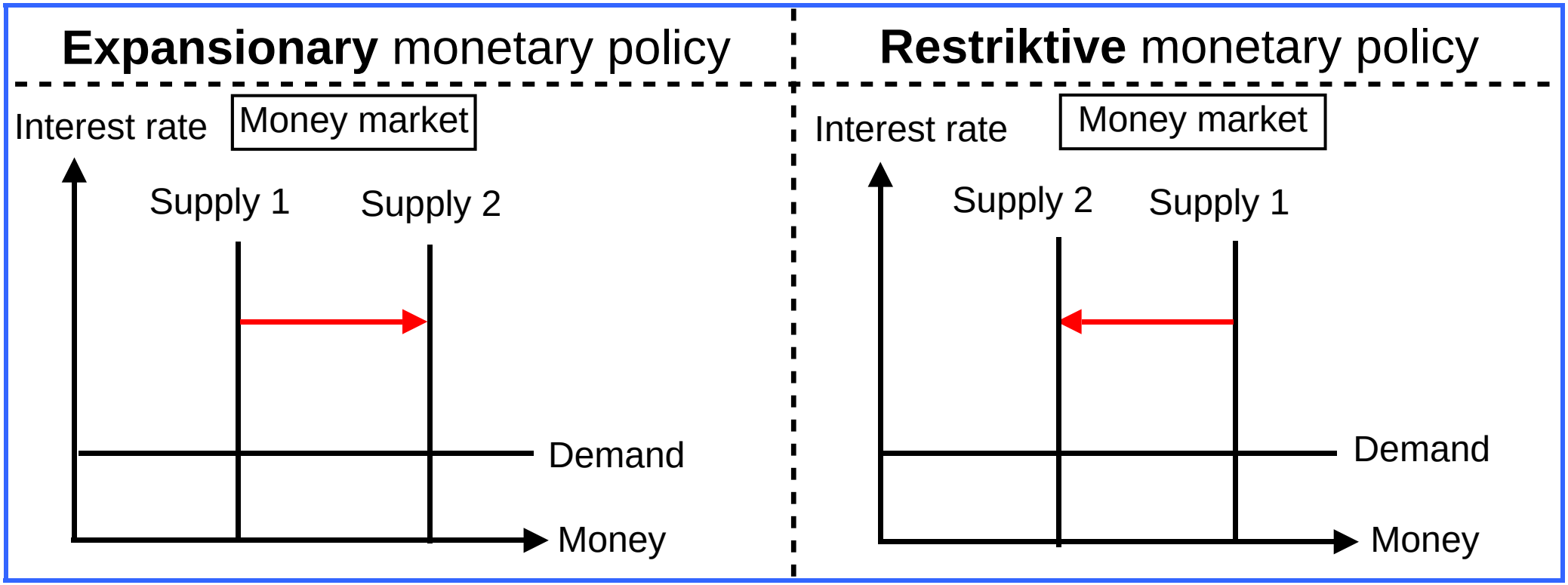
Neoclassical law of returns to a factor (special case of the classical law of returns to a factor) → Law of diminishing (marginal) returns to a factor (MR falls, but MR > 0) (graph looks like area II).

Life-cycle hypothesis

According to the life-cycle hypothesis, consumption does not depend on current income, but on **lifetime income**. Wealth is built up by saving out of income to enable consumption during retirement.

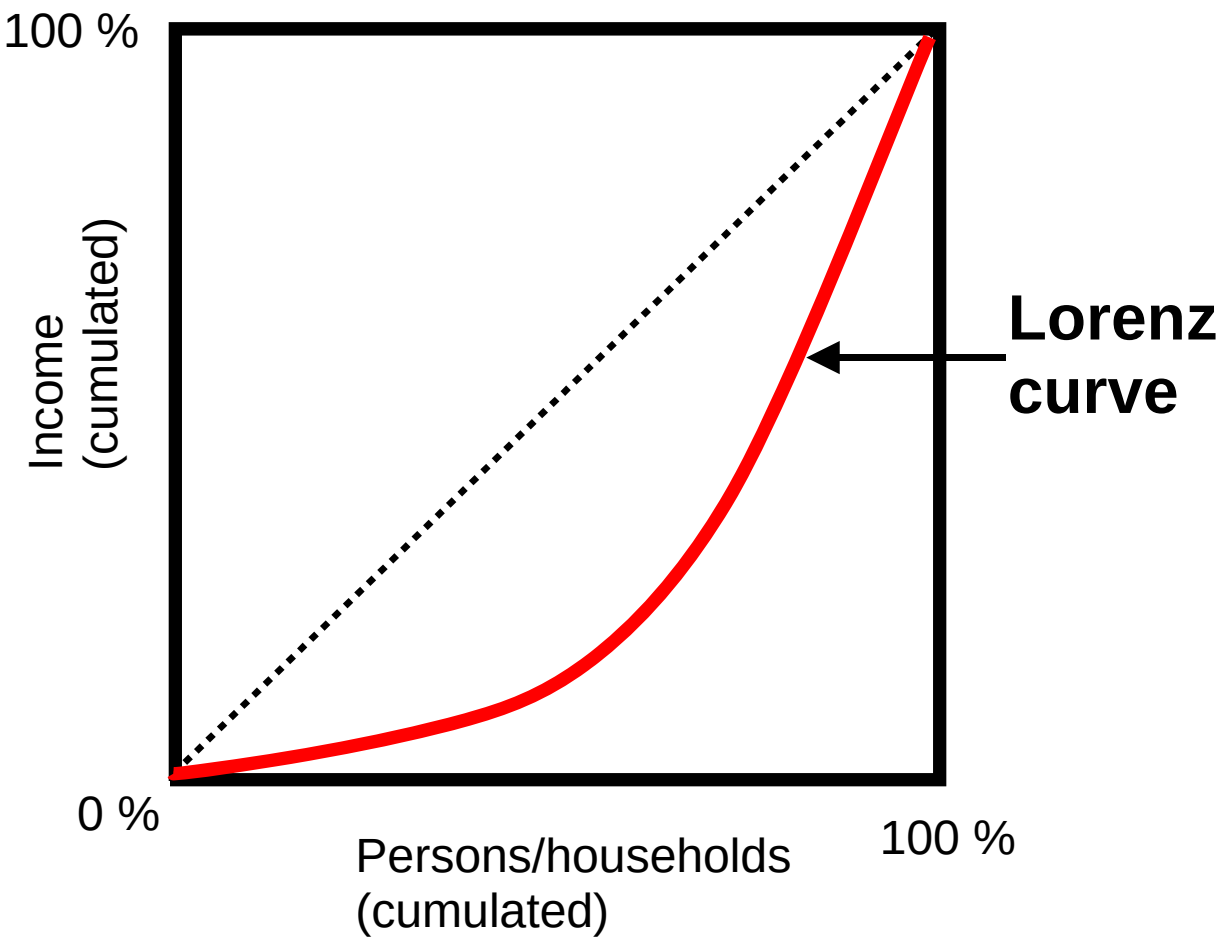


Liquidity trap



In both situations, neither the interest rates nor the corresponding investments will change.

Lorenz curve

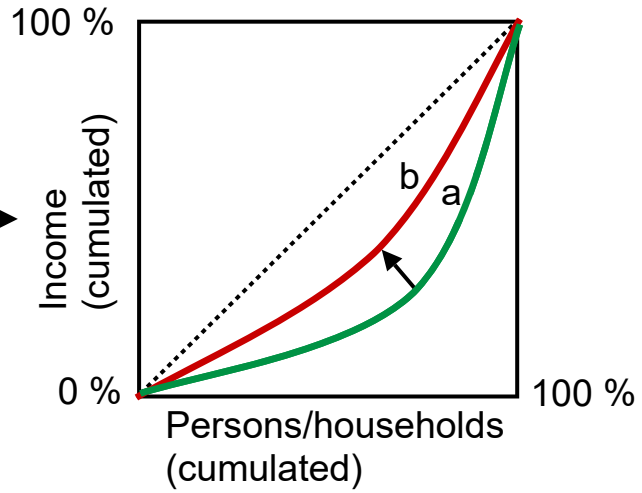


Lorenz curve and tax

① **Progressive** income tax

Lorenz curves a, b

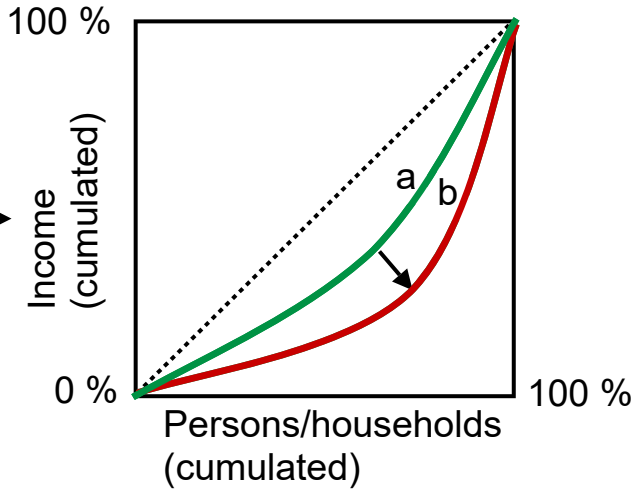
a **before** tax
b **after** tax



② **Regressive** income tax

Lorenz curves a, b

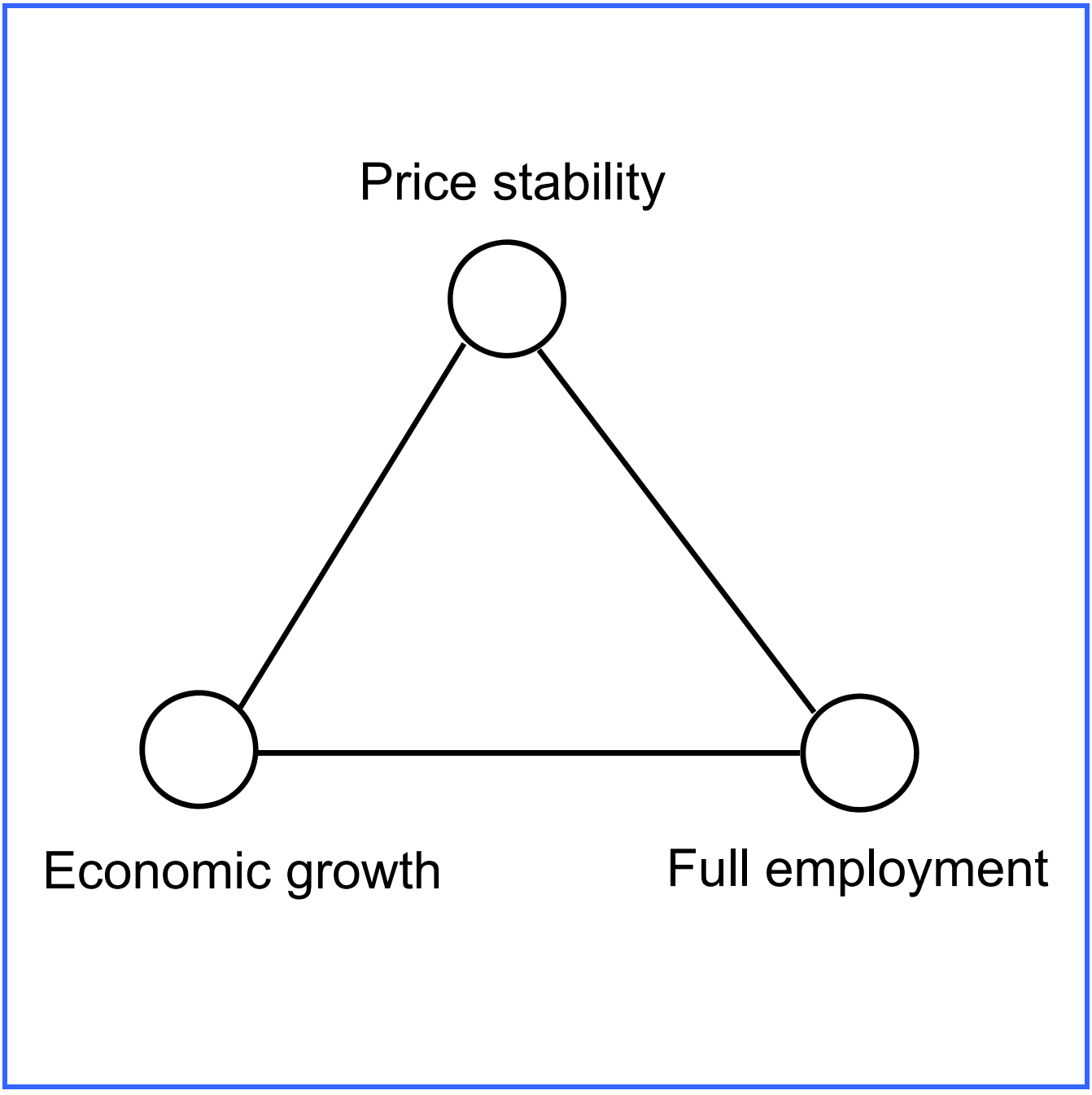
a **before** tax
b **after** tax



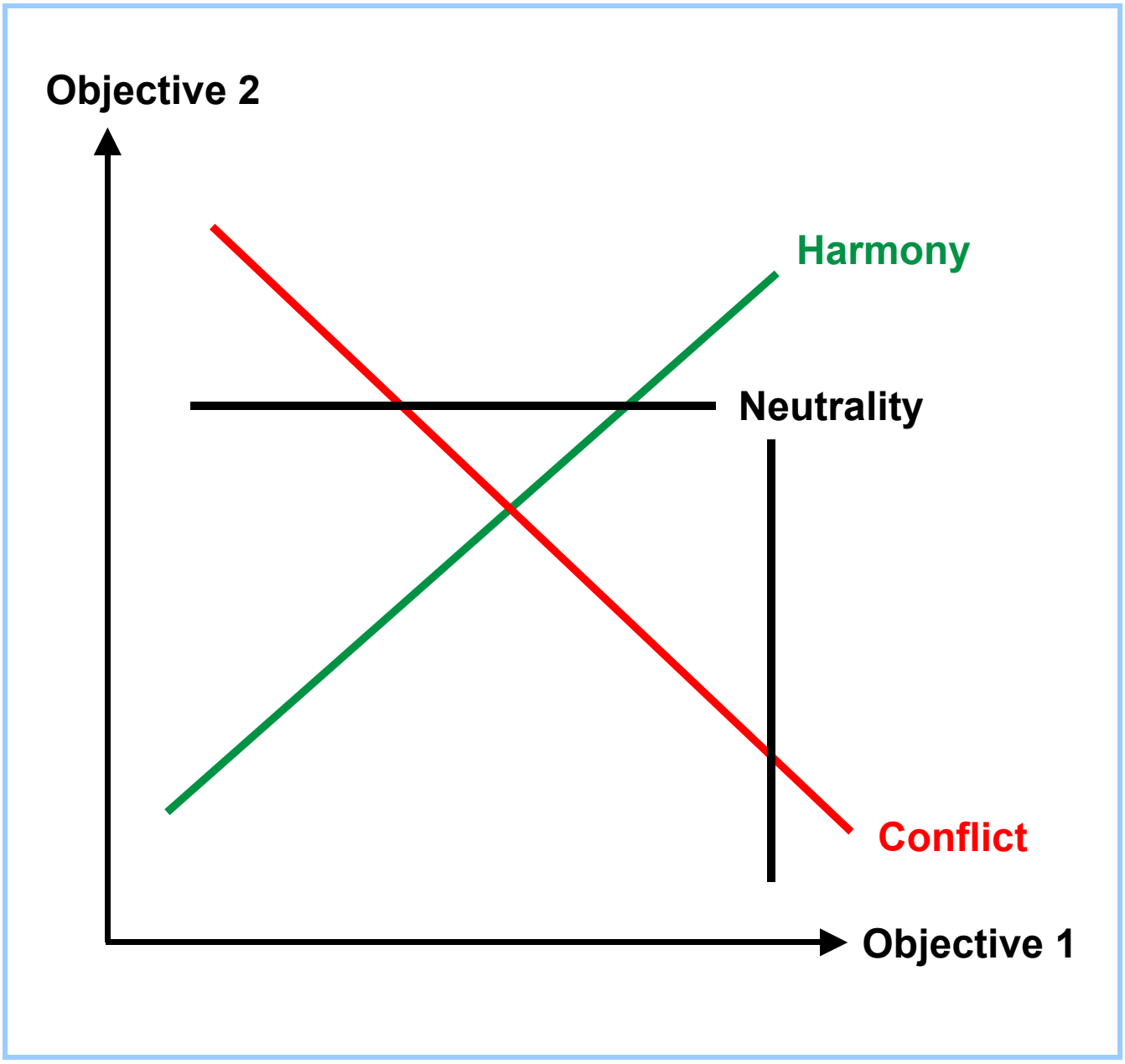
③ **Proportional** income tax

The position of the Lorenz curve **does not change** (a = b).

Macroeconomic objectives 1 - introduction

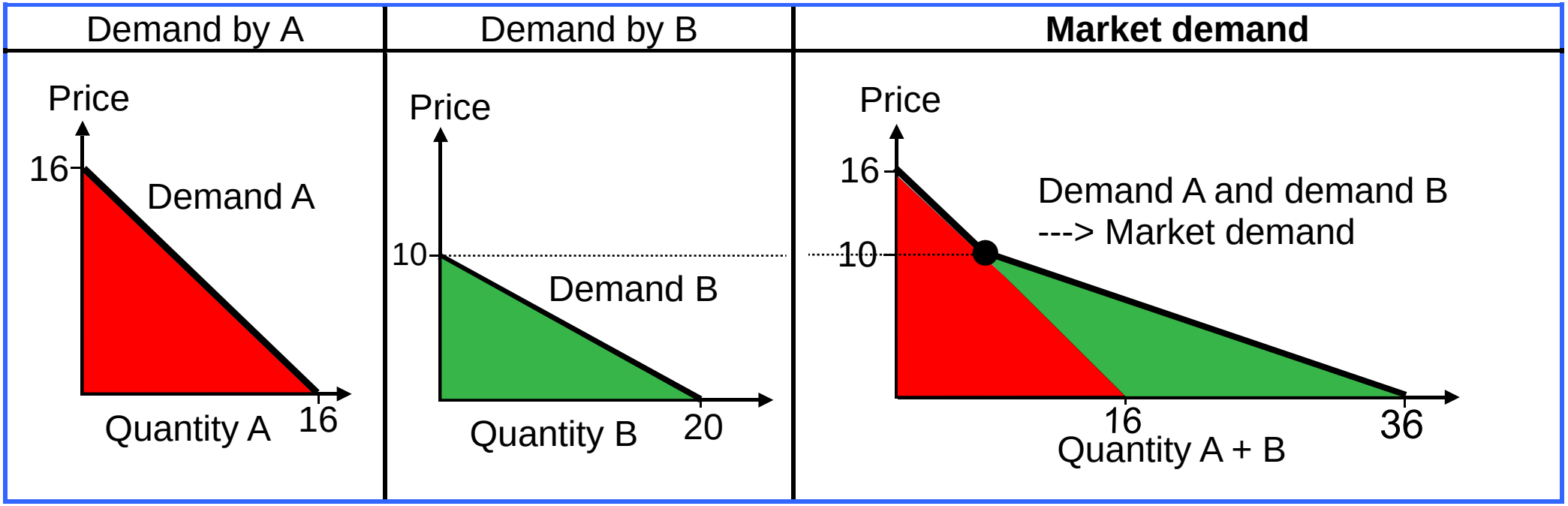


Macroeconomic objectives 2 - relations



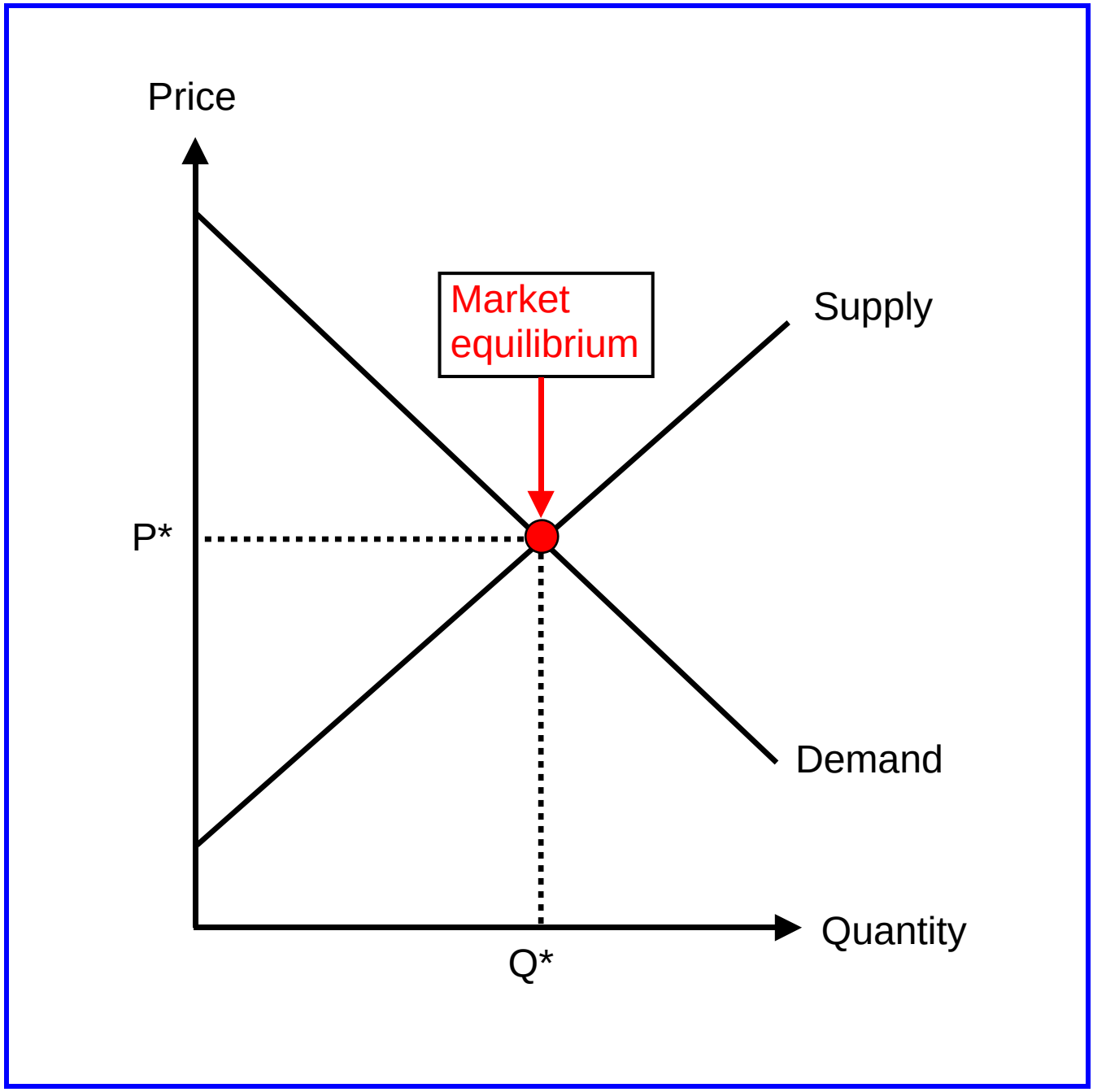
Market demand (derivation)

A market consists of 2 consumers, A and B. The market demand is derived from the individual demand curves by adding them horizontally.



Similarly, the market supply can be derived.

Market equilibrium

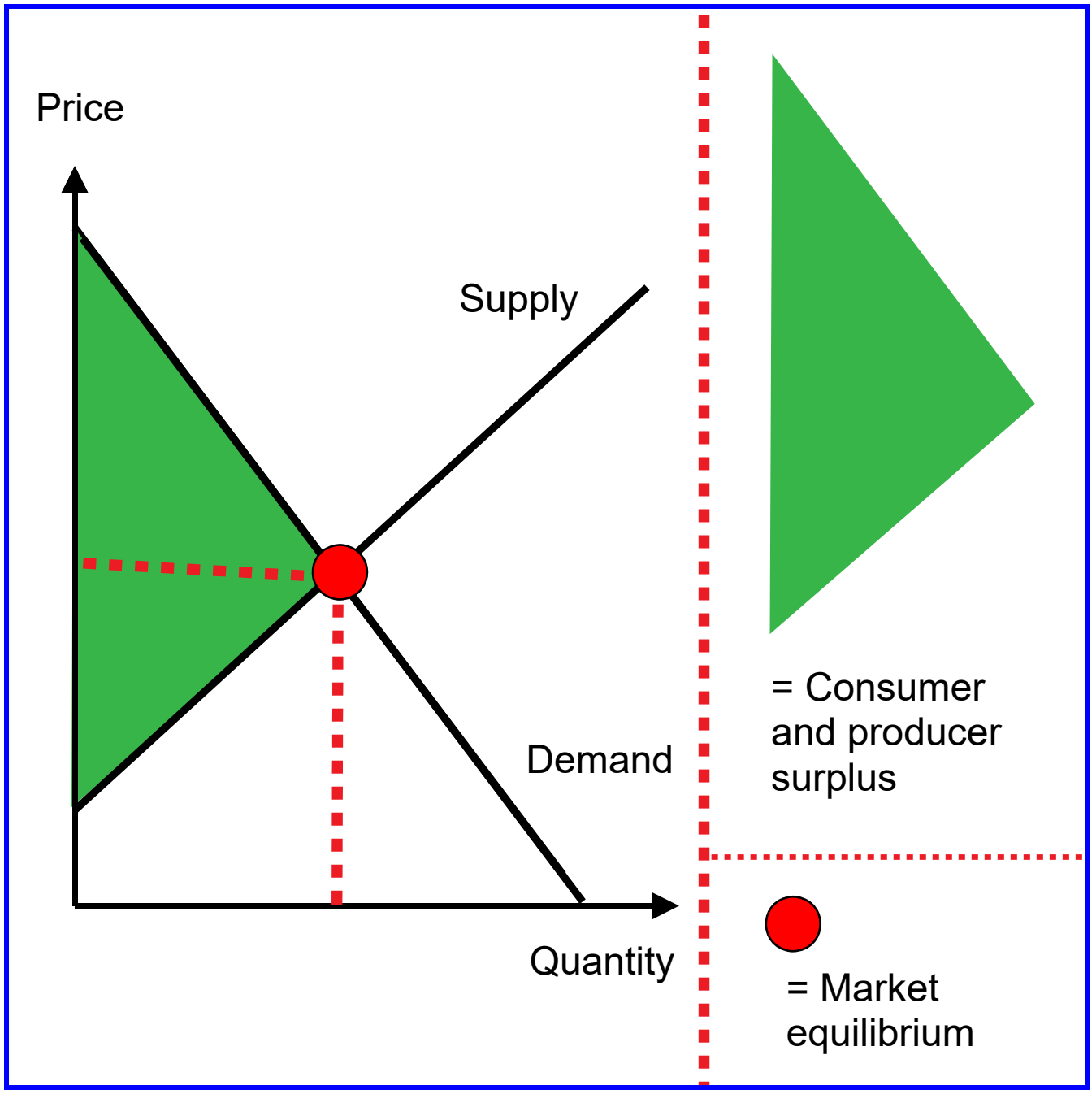


Q* = Equilibrium quantity
P* = Equilibrium price

Market equilibrium and efficiency

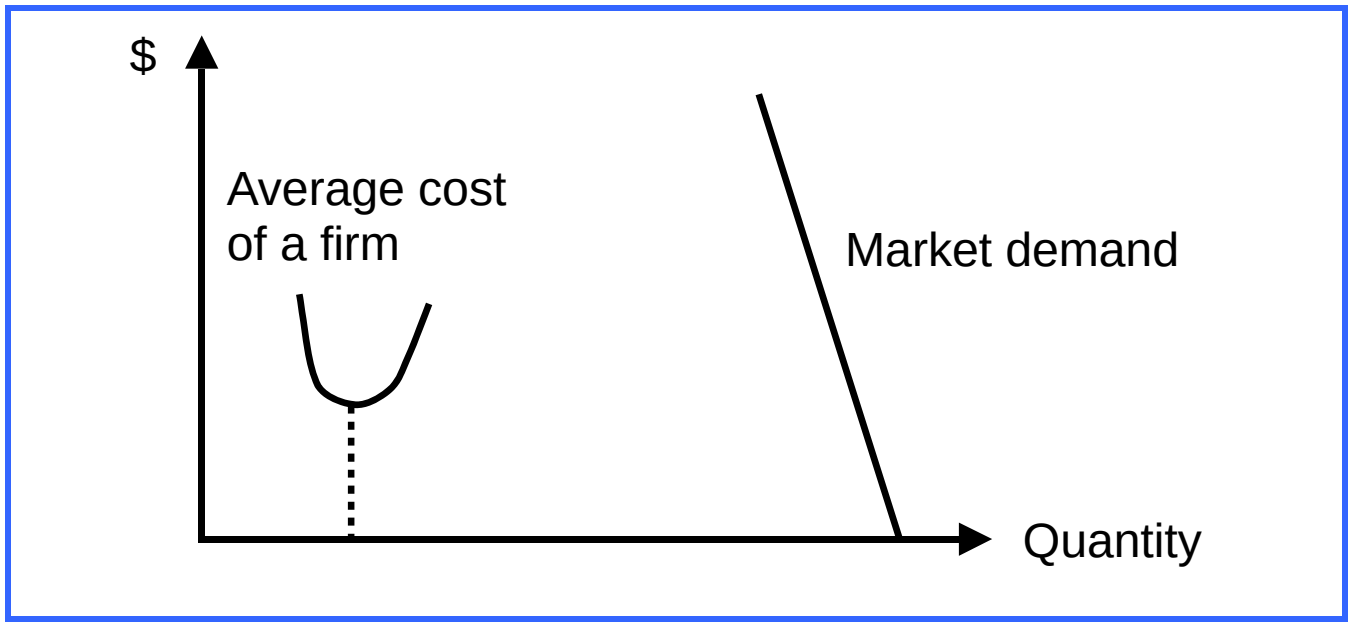
The market equilibrium is **efficient** for two reasons:

- At the intersection, marginal cost (supply) and marginal benefit (demand) are equal.
- The sum of the consumer and the producer surplus is the largest.

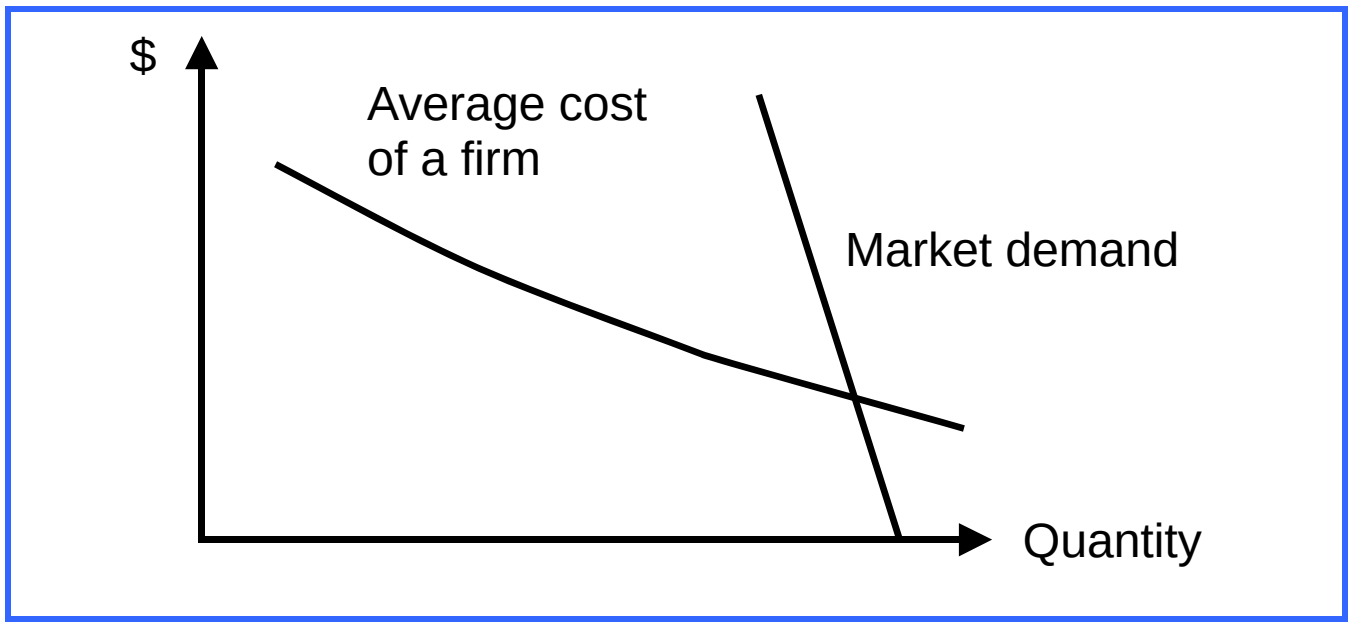


Market structure and cost

① **A few firms** offer the product.

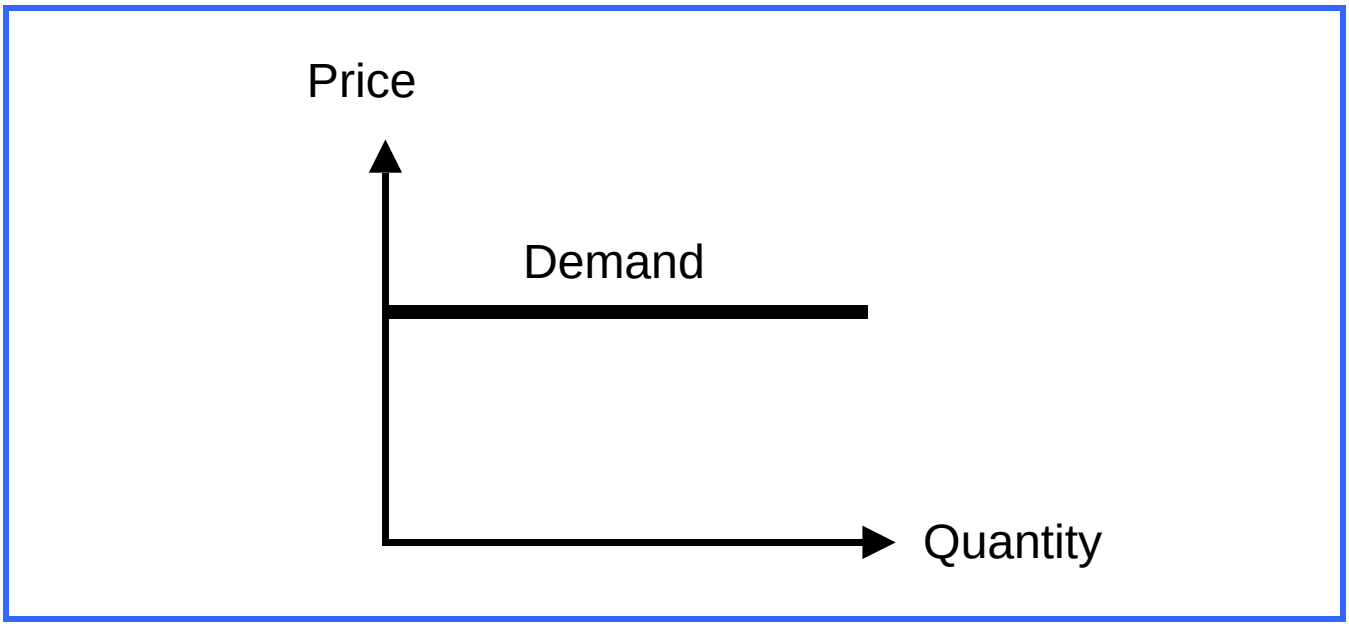


② **A monopoly** (as a natural monopoly) is probable.

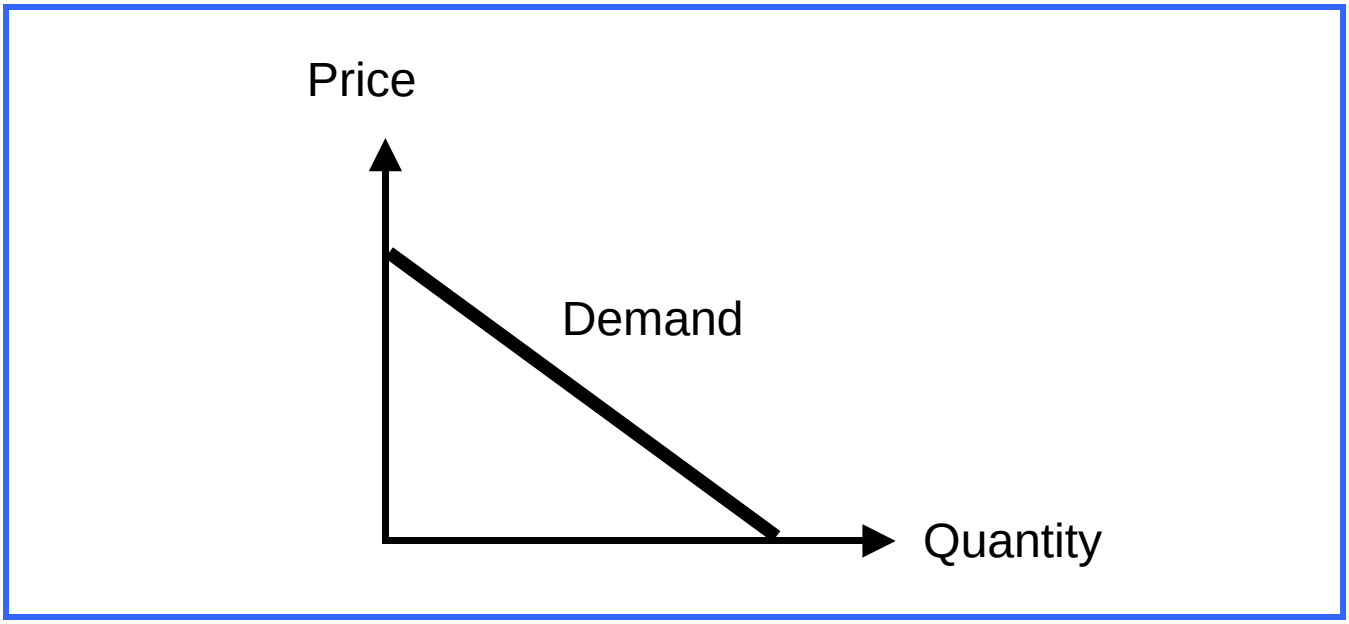


Market structure and demand

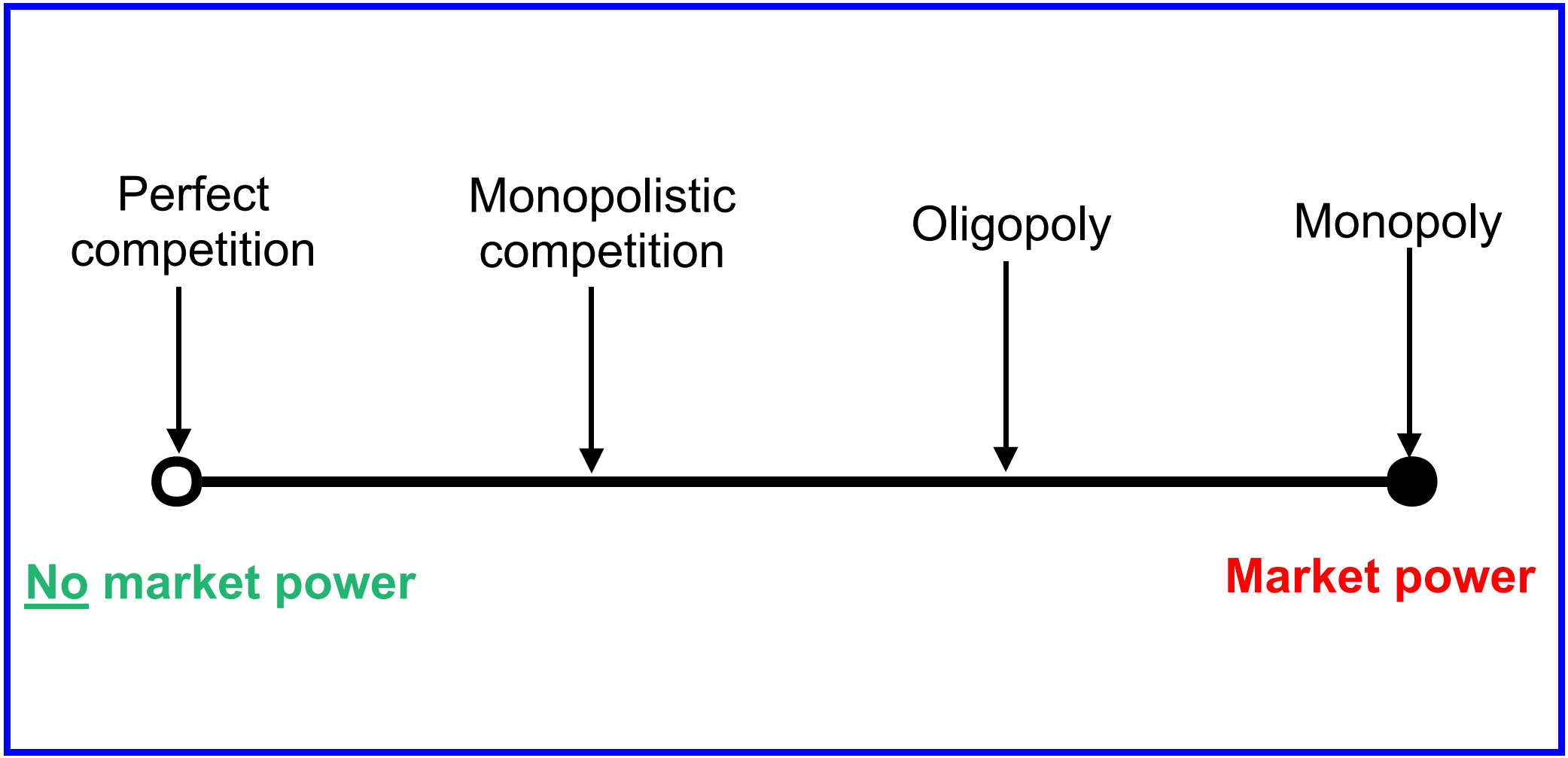
① Perfect competition



② Monopoly



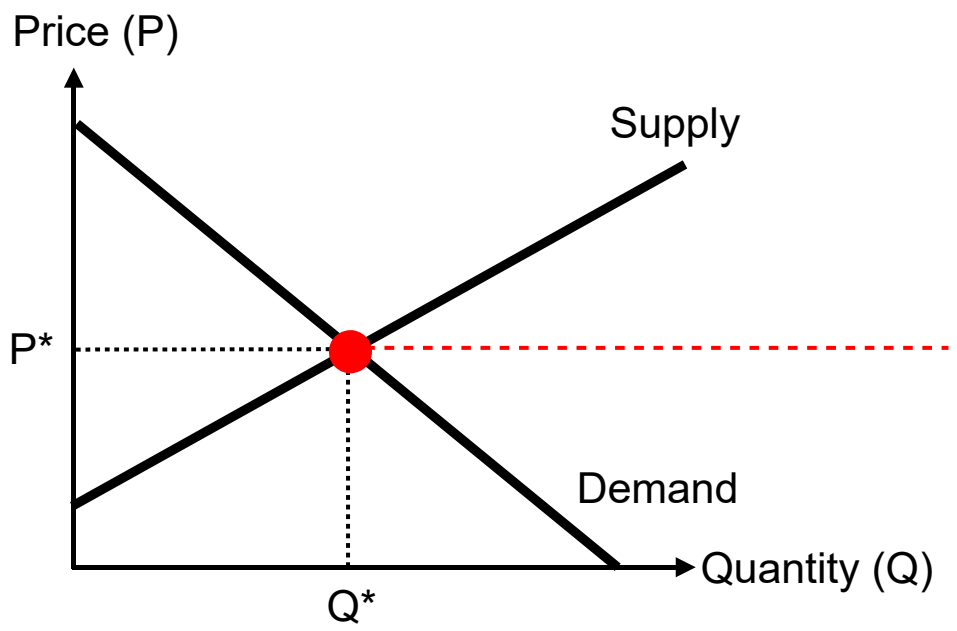
Market structure and market power



Market versus perfectly competitive firm

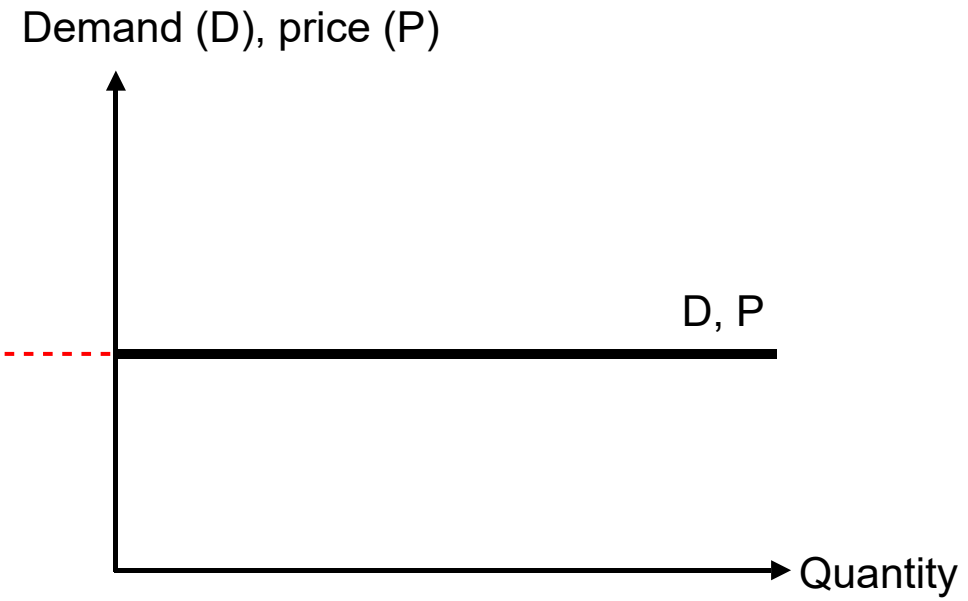
Market

(Supply, demand, equilibrium P*and Q*)



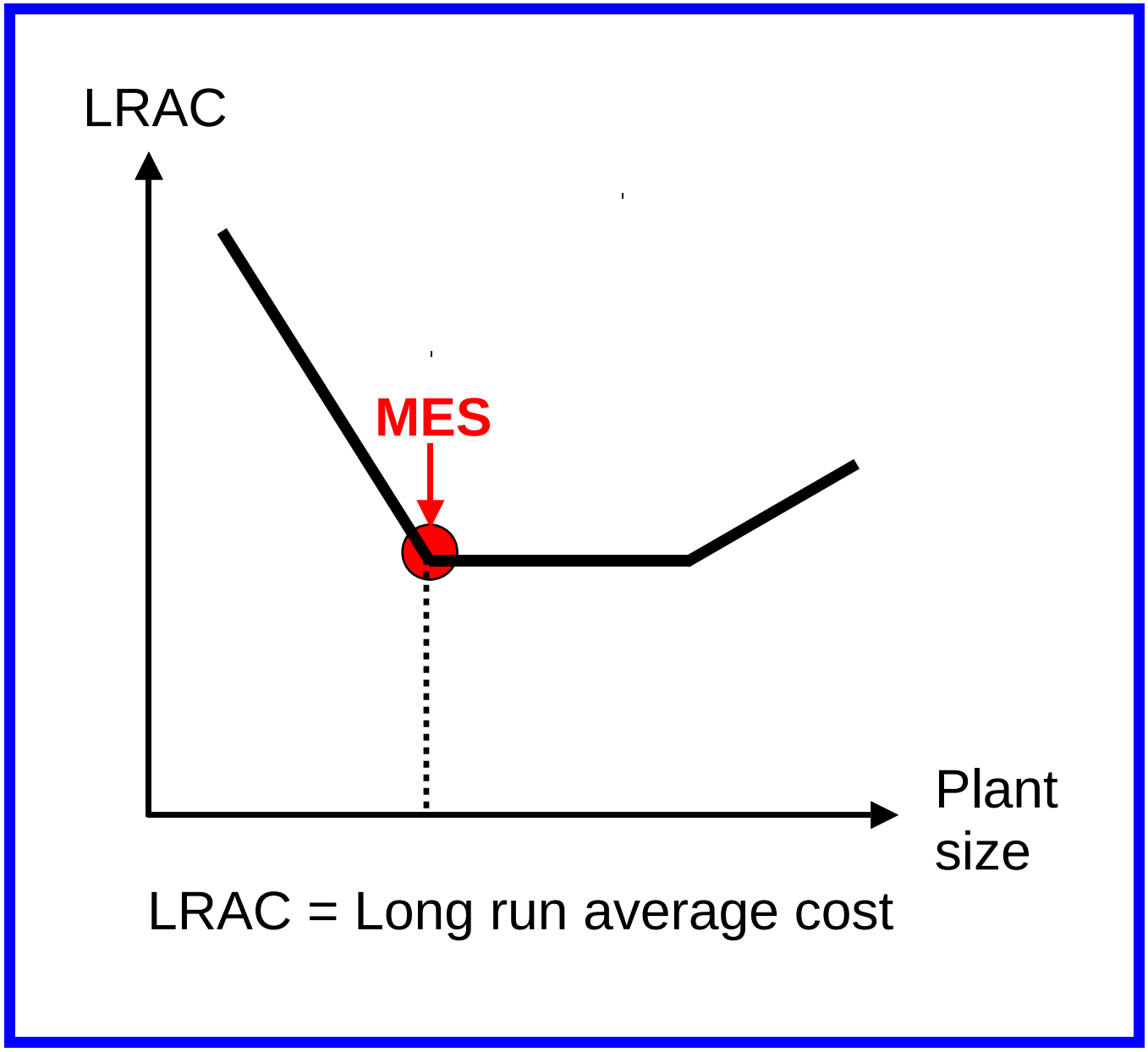
Individual firm

(Demand, price / perfect competition)



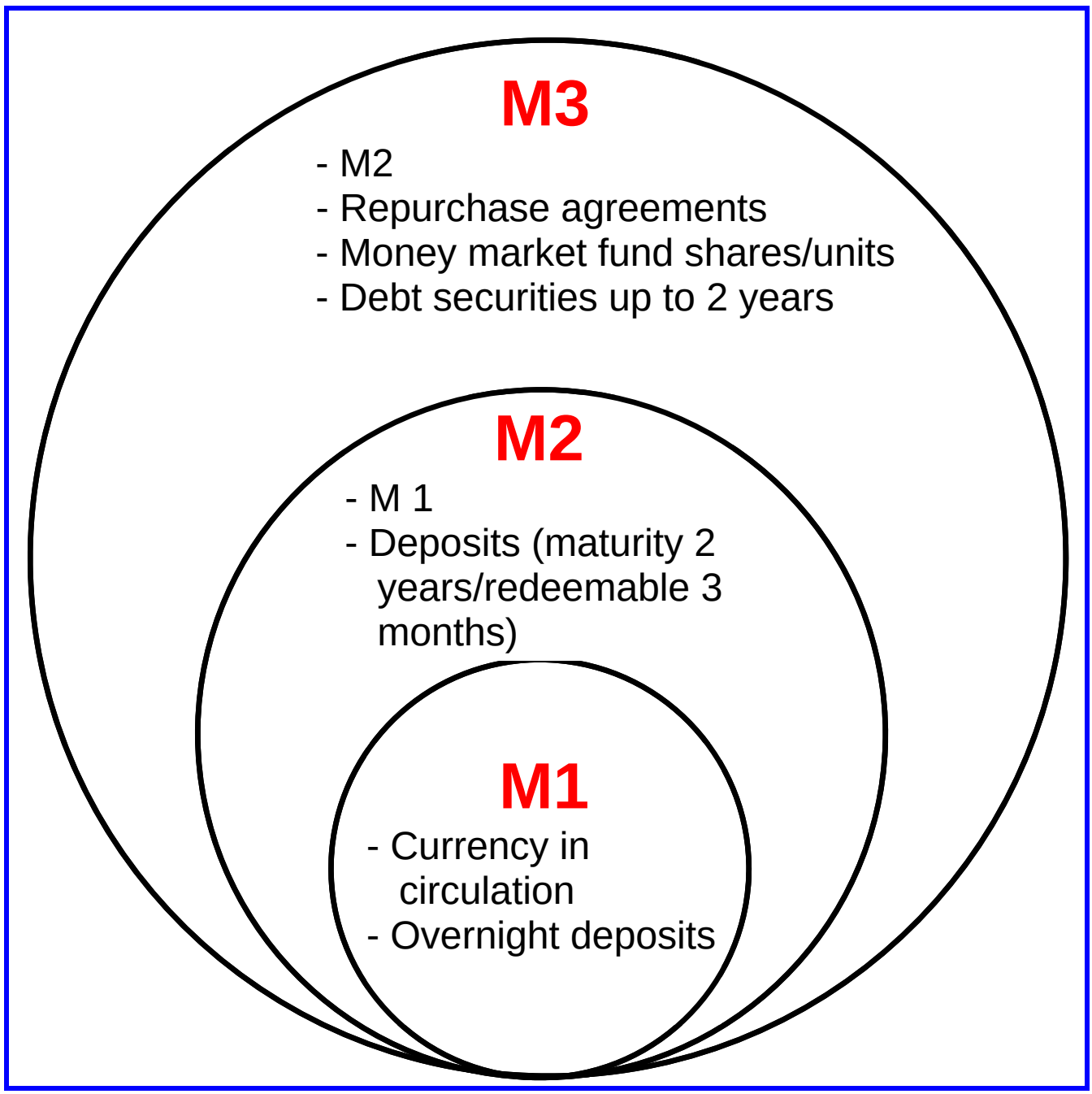
Supply according to individual situation

Minimum efficient scale (MES)



MES is the quantity of production whose further increases would not lead to lower long run average cost.

Monetary aggregates ECB

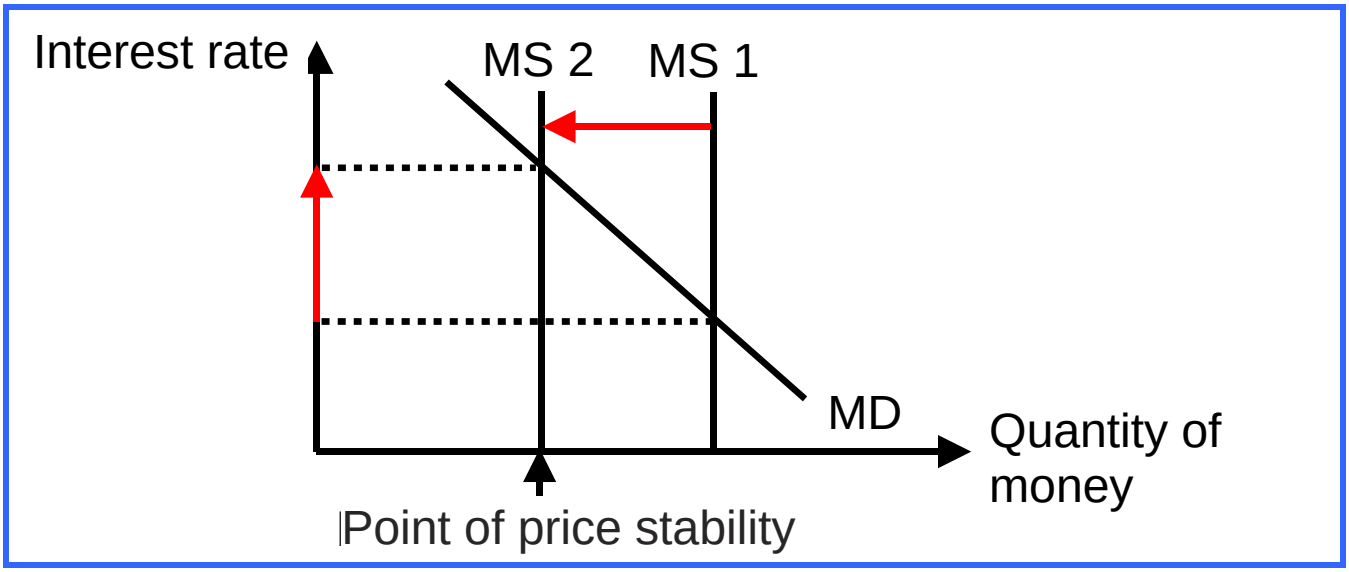


Source: www.ecb.europa.eu (21.1.18)

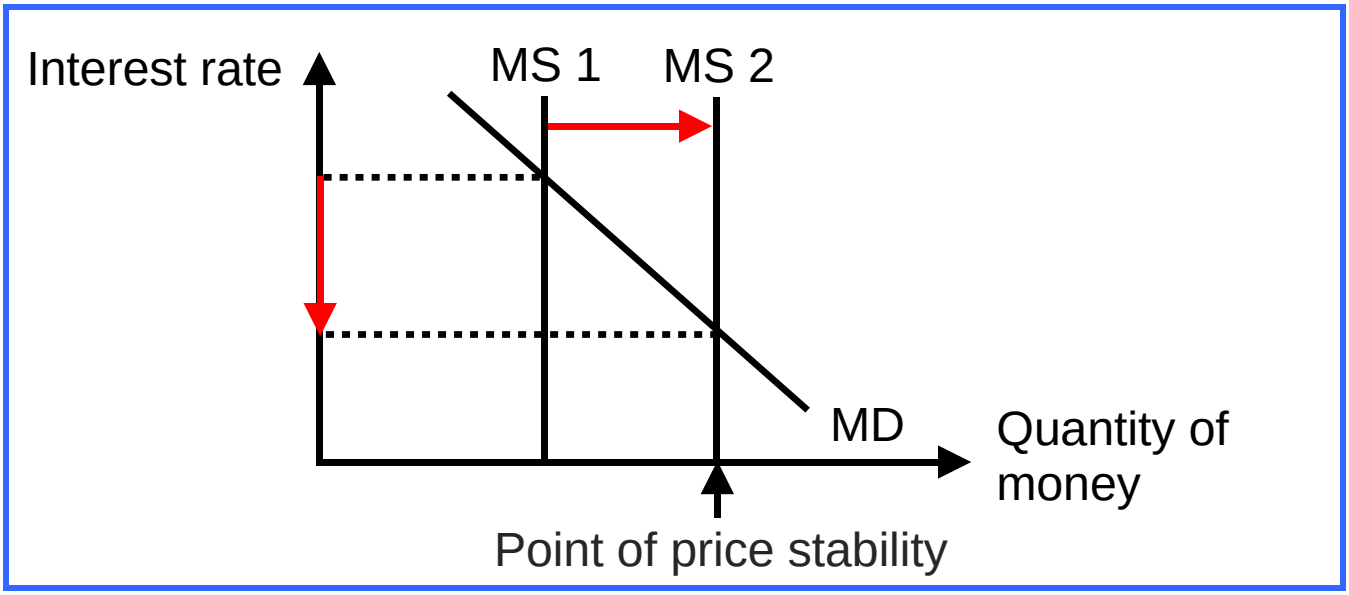
Monetary policy

We assume that the **price stability** is the primary goal of the monetary policy.

① Situation of **inflation**

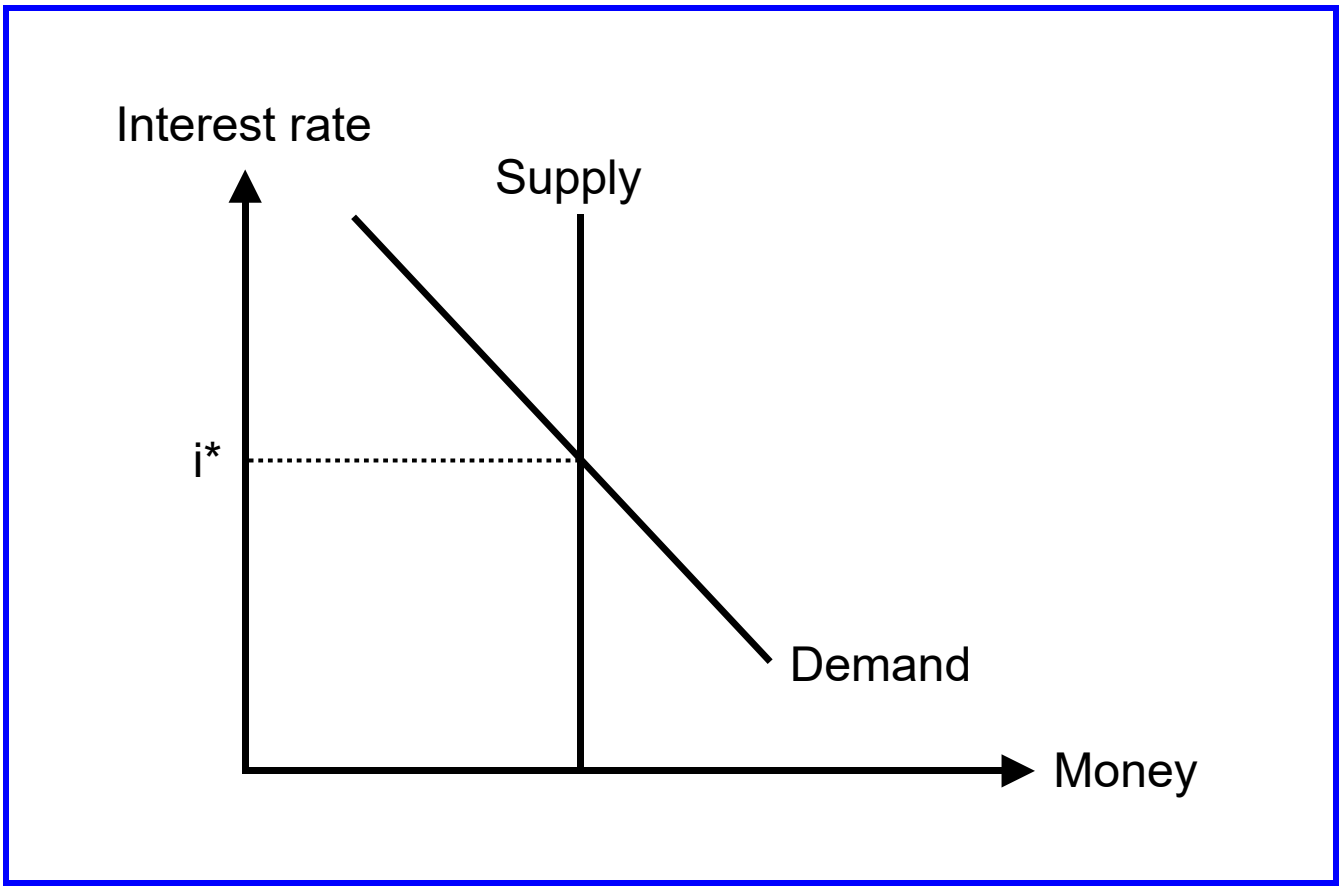


② Situation of **deflation**



MS = Money supply
MD = Money demand

Money market



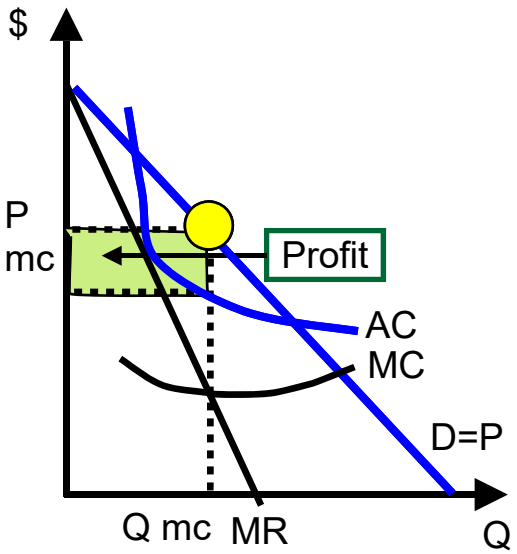
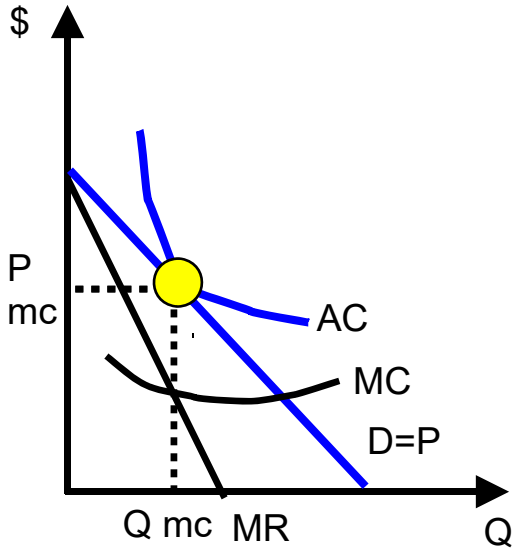
i* = interest rate at market equilibrium

Supply by the central bank
Demand by the public

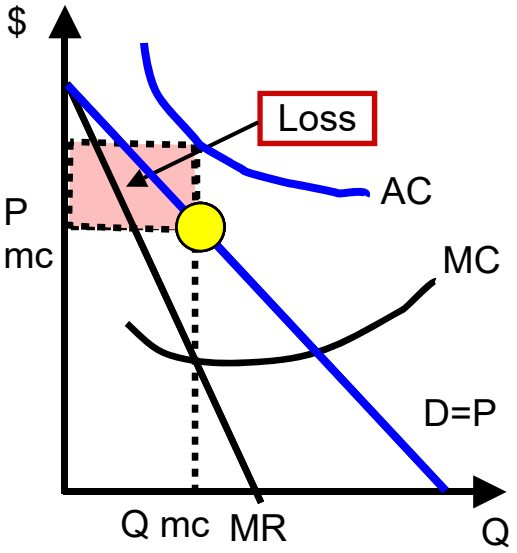
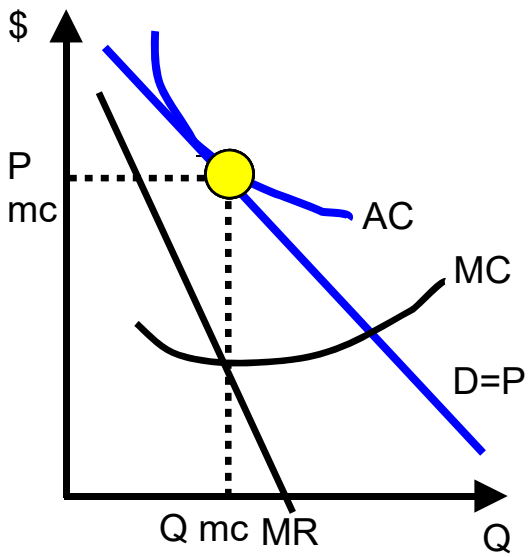
Monopolistic competition

Characteristics: As with monopoly, in monopolistic competition firms face a **negatively sloping demand curve**; in contrast, **entries and exits** are possible (example: consumer goods suppliers).

Case 1: Monopolistic competition with **profit** in the short run **and entries**.

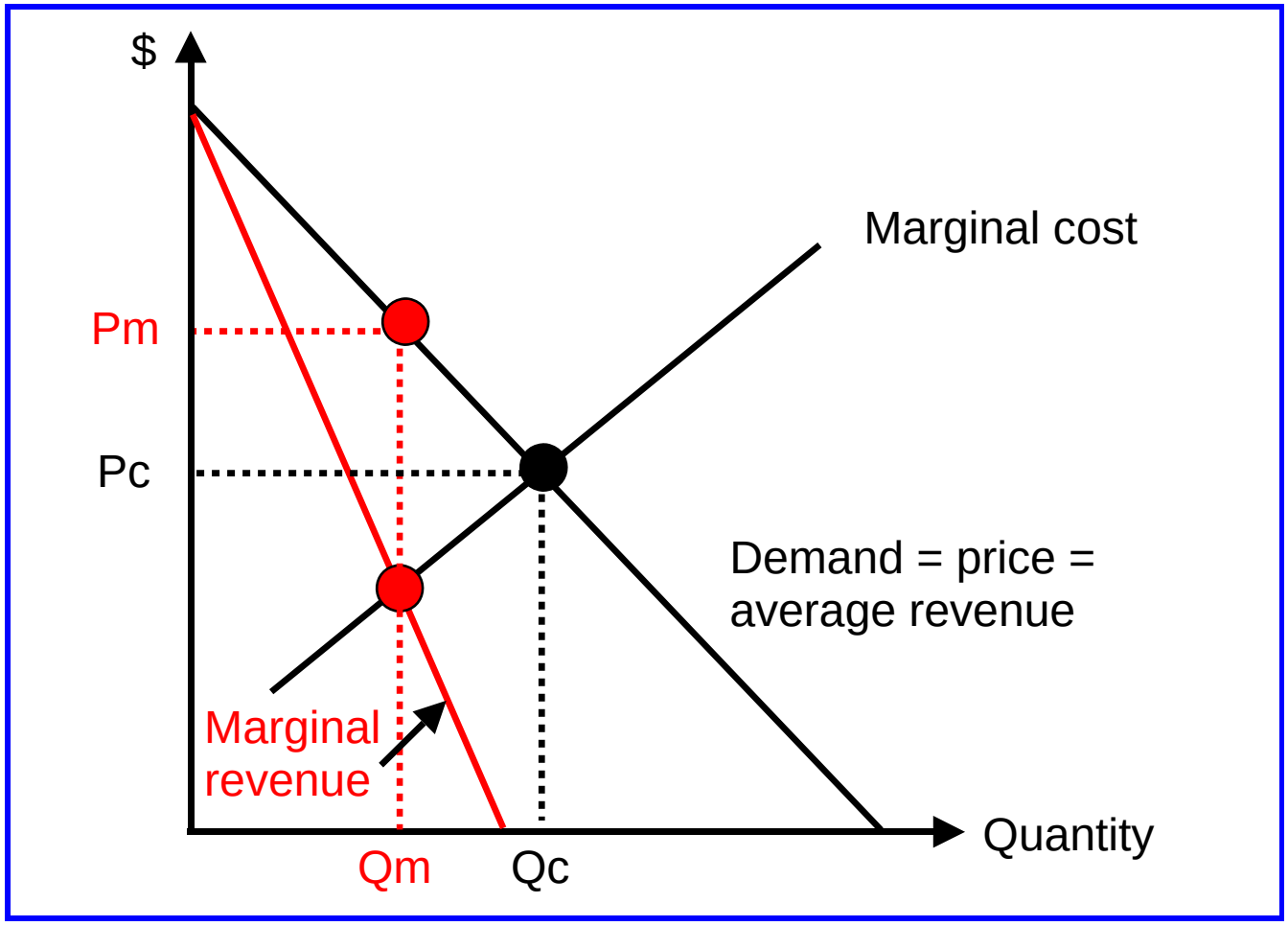
Short run situation	Entry/exit	**Long run** situation
	**Entries** of firms until the profit disappears.	

Case 2: Monopolistic competition with **loss** in the short run **and exits**.

Short run situation	Entry/exit	**Long run** situation
	**Exits** of firms until the loss disappears.	

AC = Average cost	MC = Marginal cost	MR = Marginal revenue
D = Demand	P = Price	Q = Quantity
mc = monopolistically competitive		

Monopoly and perfect competition - a comparison

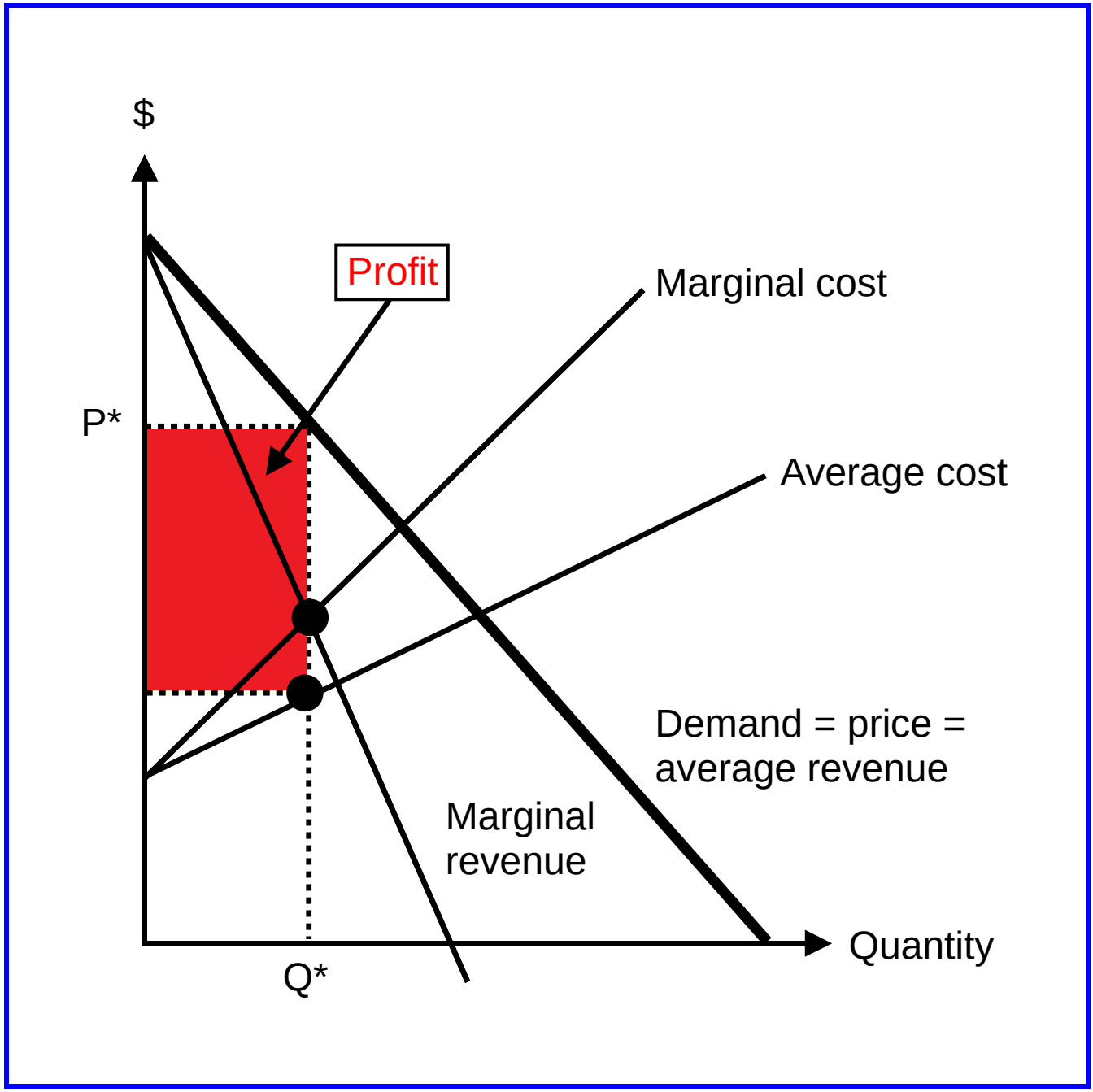


Pm / Pc = Price monopoly / Price perfect competition
Qm / Qc = Quantity monopoly / Quantity perfect competition

- The monopoly is choosing the following point:
  MR = MC; but price > MC
- The firm in the competitive market is choosing the following point:
  Price* = MC (* equally MR = MC, since price = MR)
- Result: The monopoly is choosing a higher price and a smaller quantity than the firm in the competitive market.

MC = Marginal cost MR = Marginal revenue

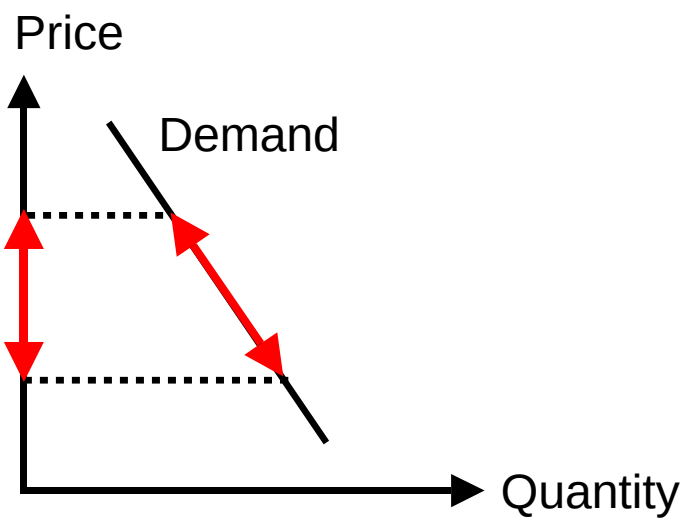
Monopoly



Q* = Quantity, supplied by the monopoly
P* = Price, charged by the monopoly

Movements and shifts - demand

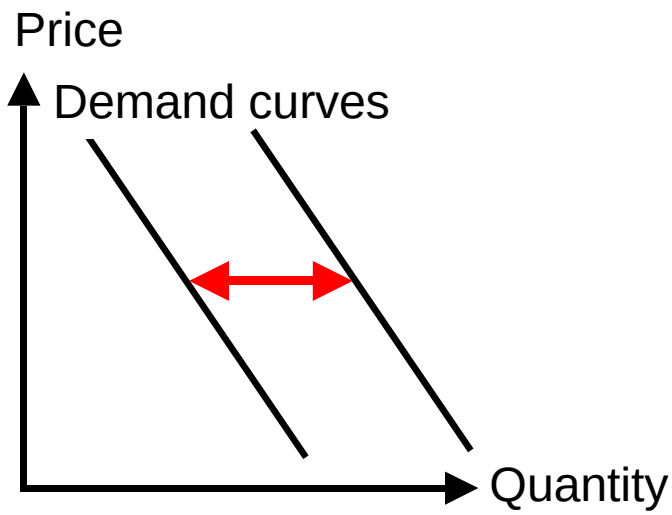
① **Movements** along the demand curve



Influences that cause **movements**:

Changes in the price of the good in question

② **Shifts** of the demand curve

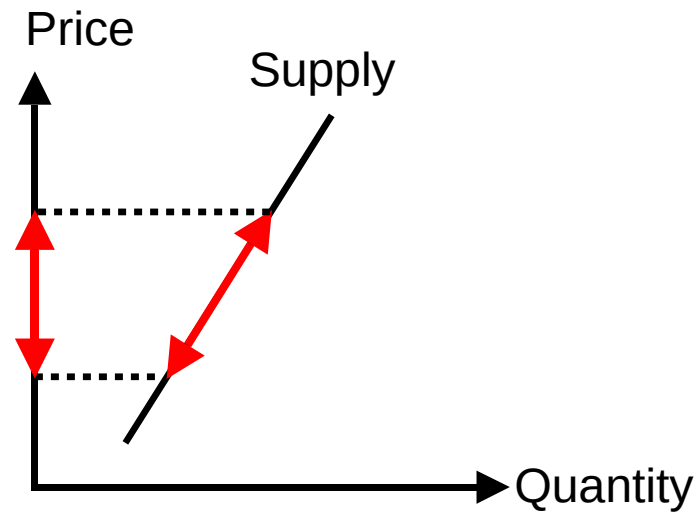


Influences that cause **shifts** ↔ ↓

Changes in the following items:
- Price of other goods
- Income
- Preference
- Number of buyers

Movements and shifts - supply

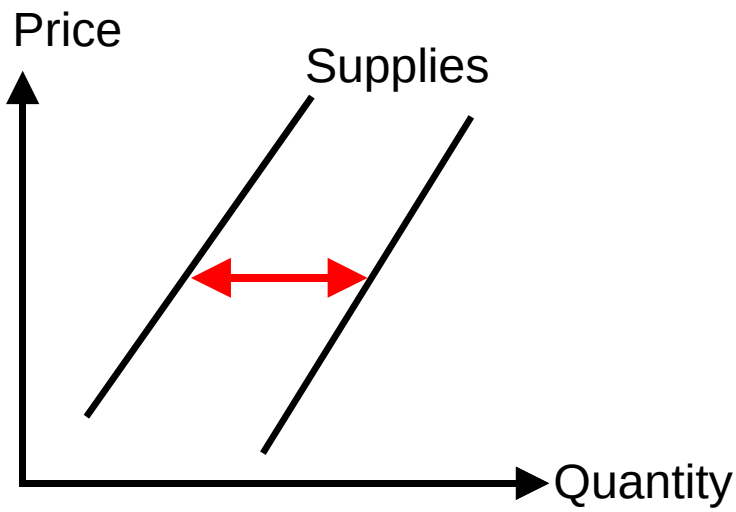
① **Movements** along the supply curve



Influences that cause **movements**:

Changes in the price of the good in question

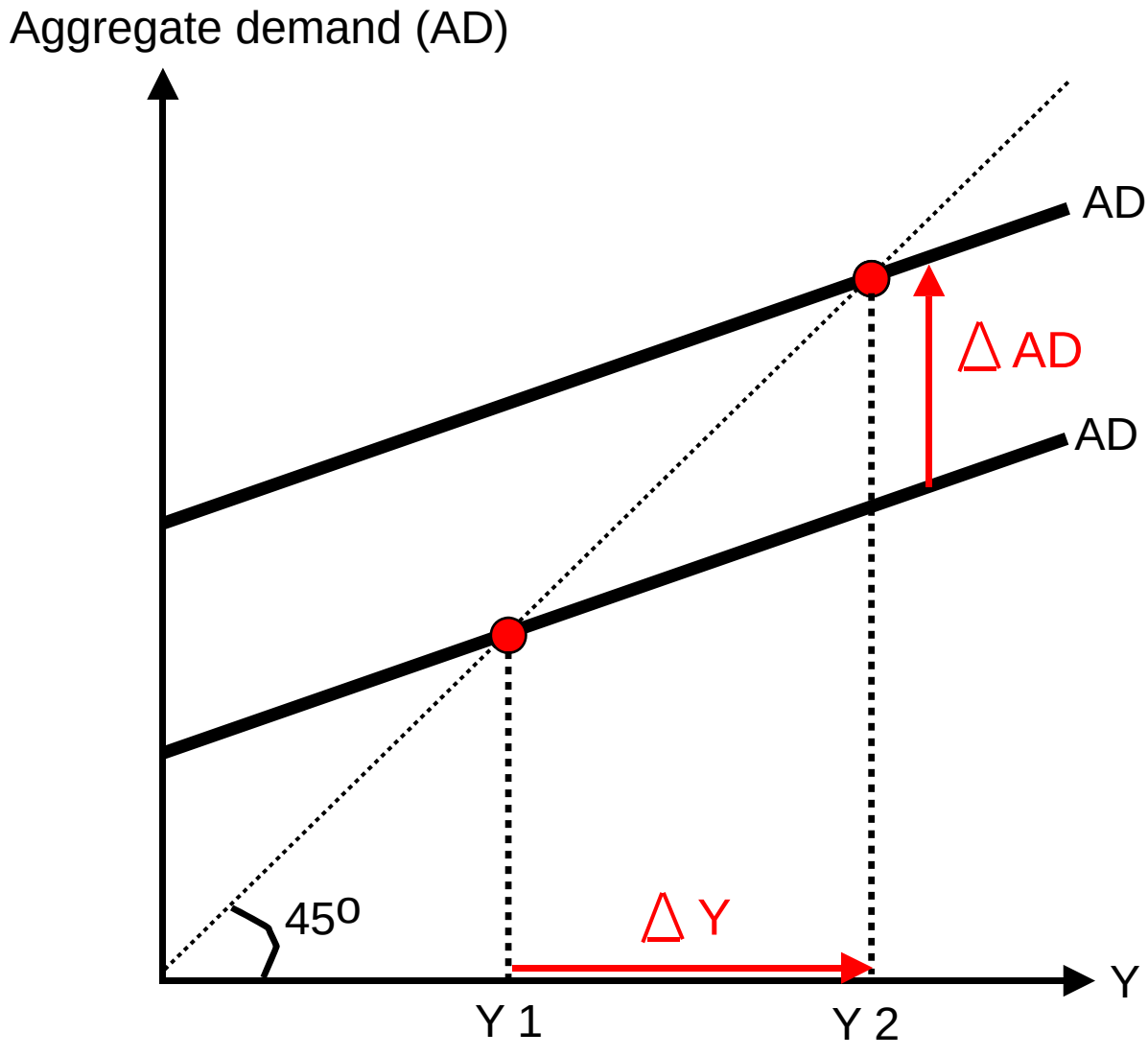
② **Shifts** of the supply curve



Influences that cause **shifts**

Changes in the following items:
- Cost
- Productivity
- Taxes and subsidies
- Number of sellers

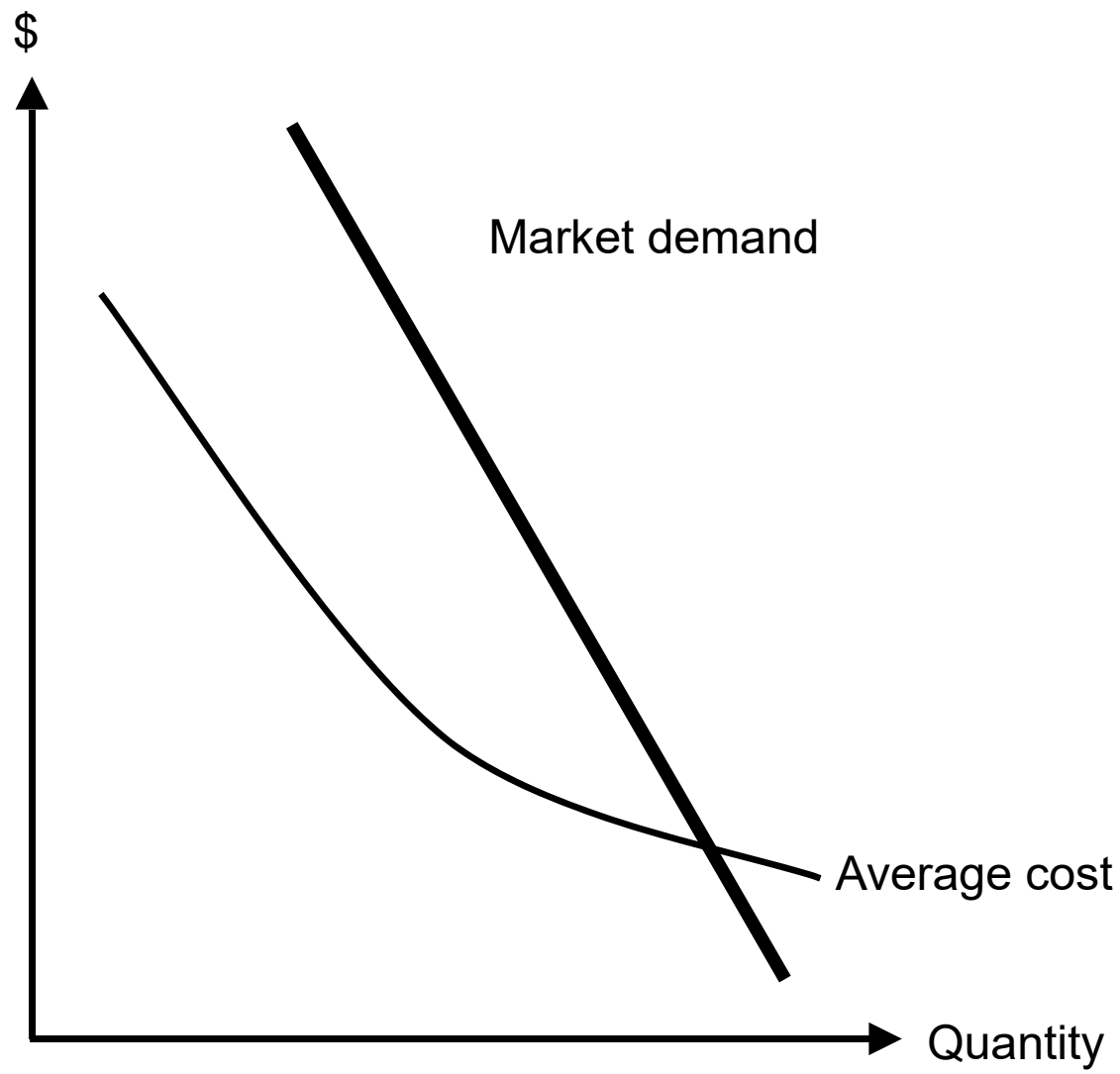
Multiplier



$$\textbf{Multiplier} = \frac{\Delta Y}{\Delta AD}$$

Y = Output, income

Natural monopoly

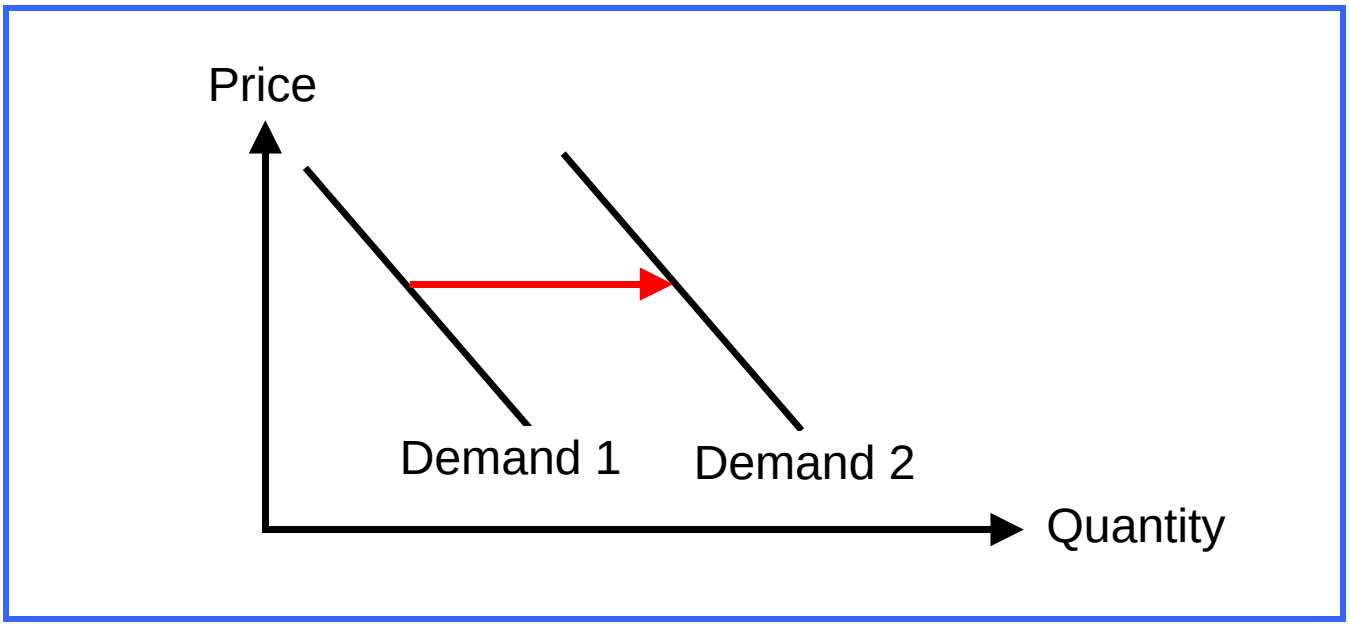


A natural monopoly may arise when there are high fixed costs and, therefore, falling average costs.

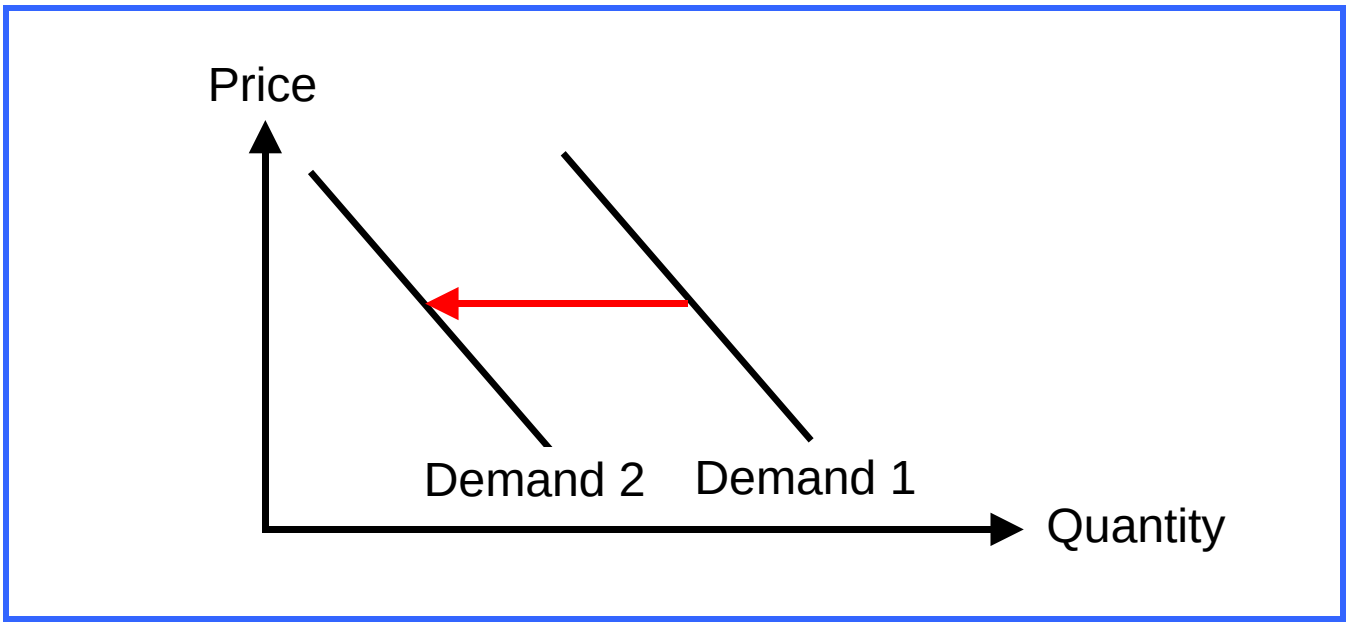
Normal good

What happens to a normal good if ...

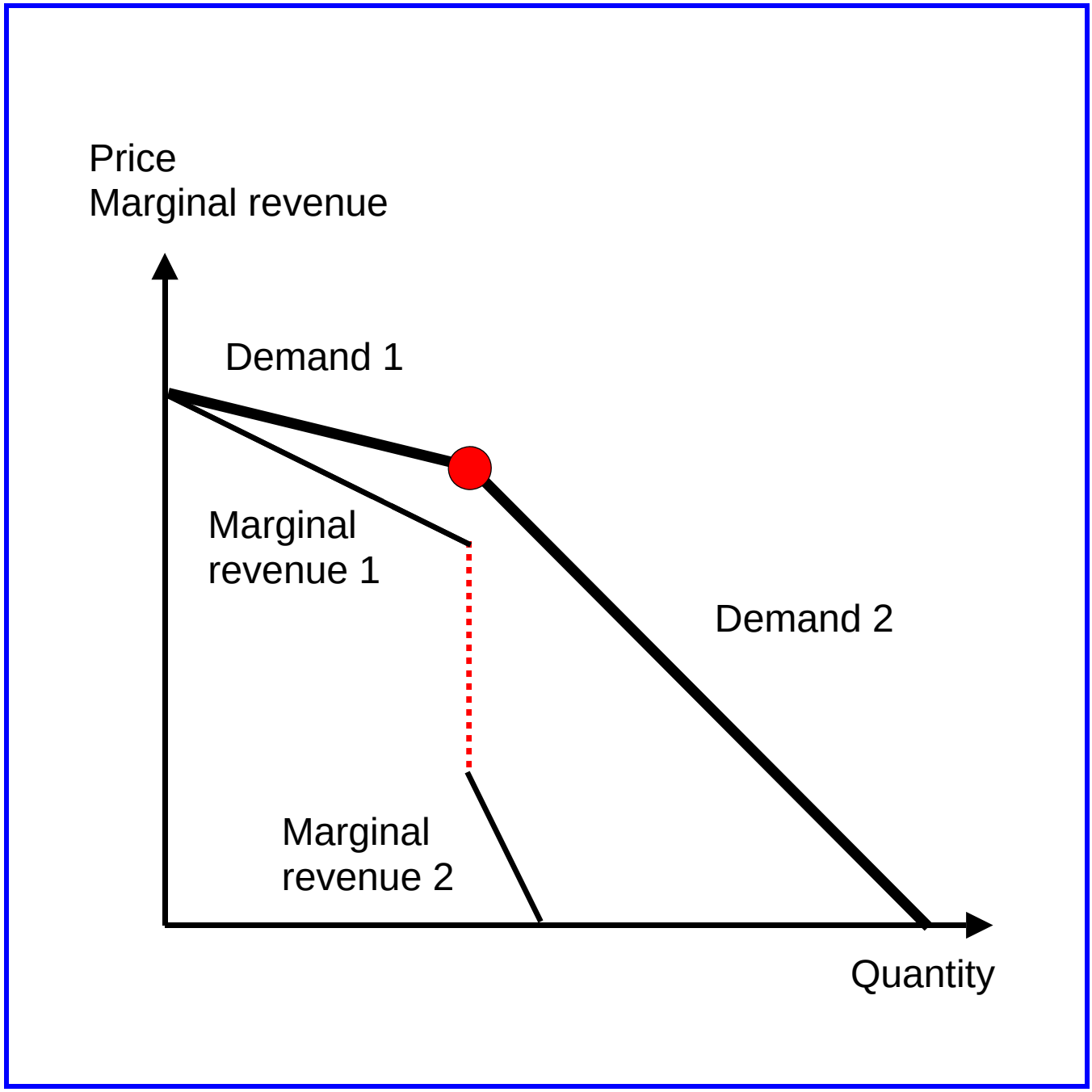
① **income rises;**



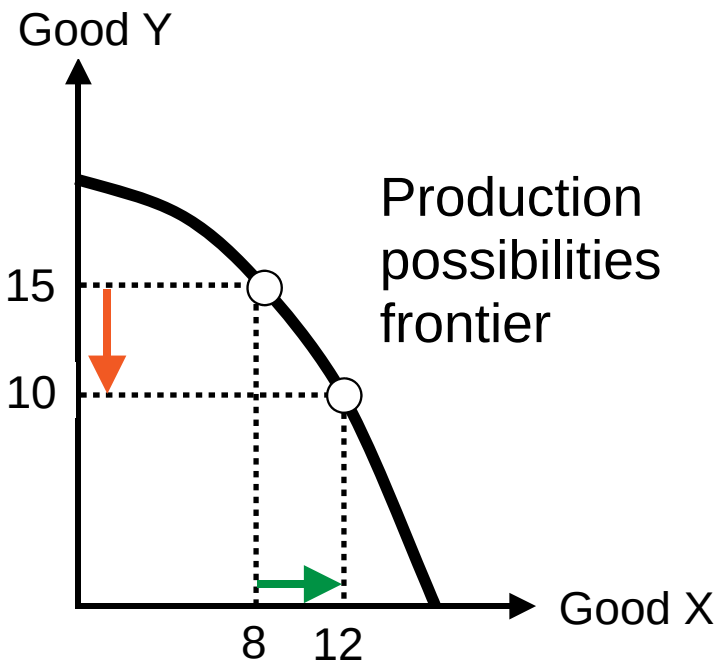
② **income falls?**



Oligopoly - kinked demand curve

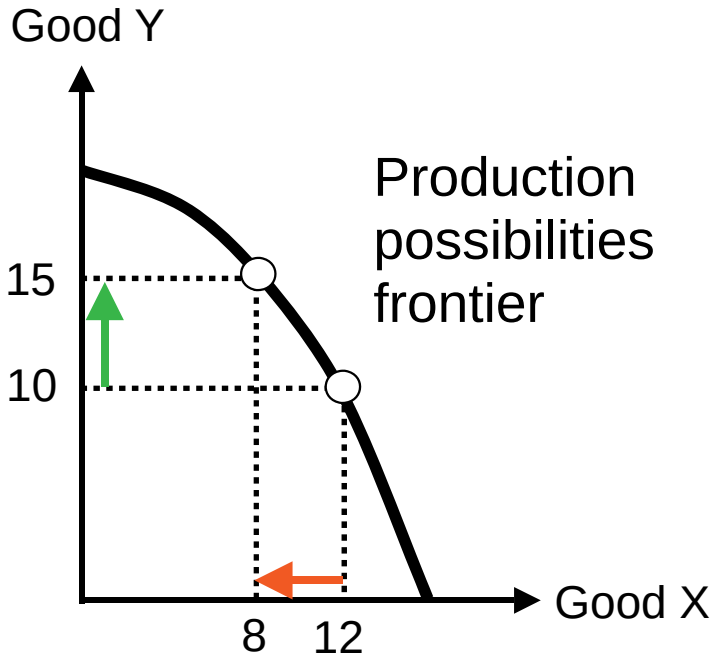


Opportunity cost (in the case of 2 goods)



$$OCx = \frac{\text{Loss of } \mathbf{Y}}{\text{Gain of } \mathbf{X}} = \frac{5}{4} = 1.25$$

OC_x = Opportunity cost of the production X

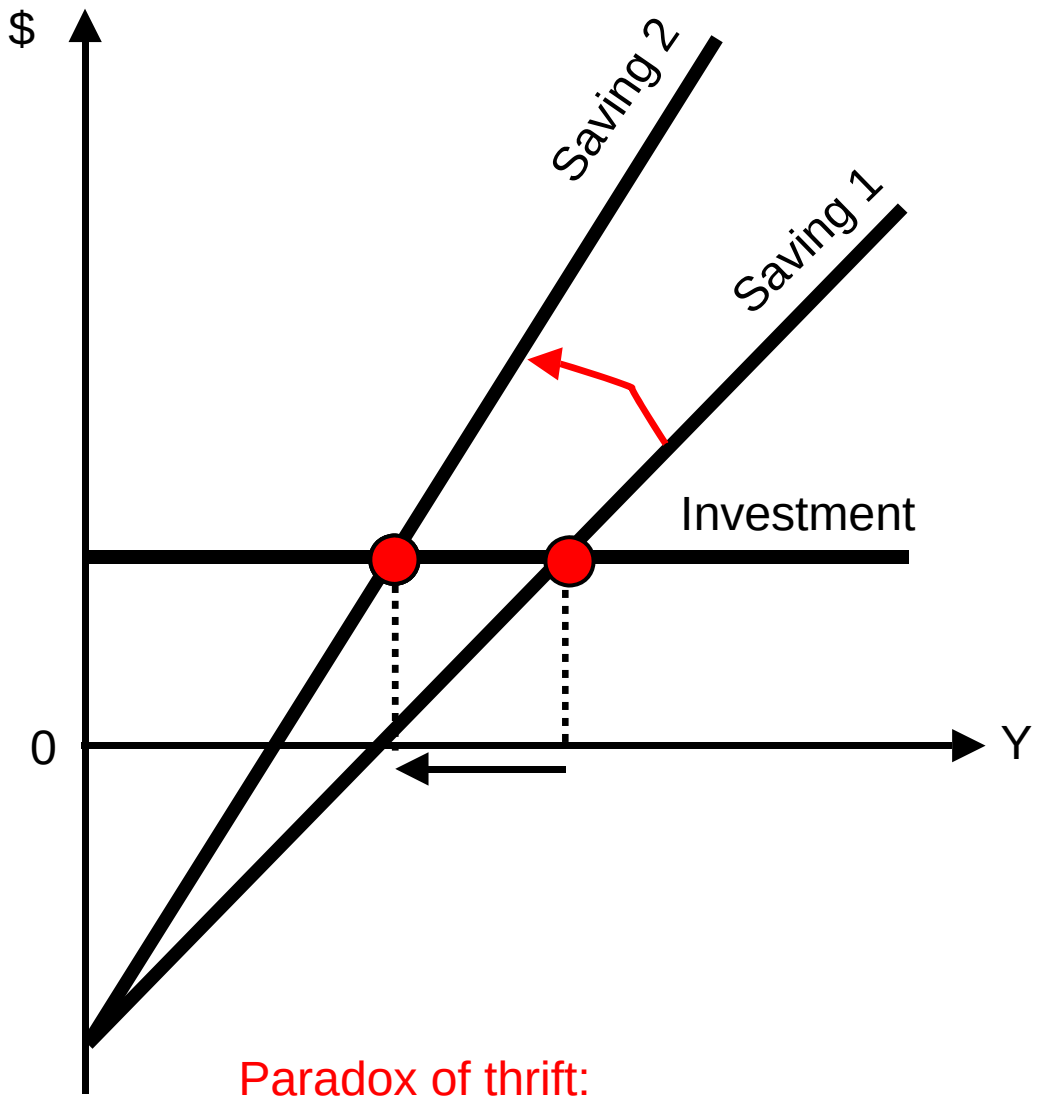


$$OCy = \frac{\text{Loss of } \mathbf{X}}{\text{Gain of } \mathbf{Y}} = \frac{4}{5} = 0.8$$

($OC_y = 1/OC_x = 1/1.25 = 0.8$)

OC_y = Opportunity cost of the production Y

Paradox of thrift



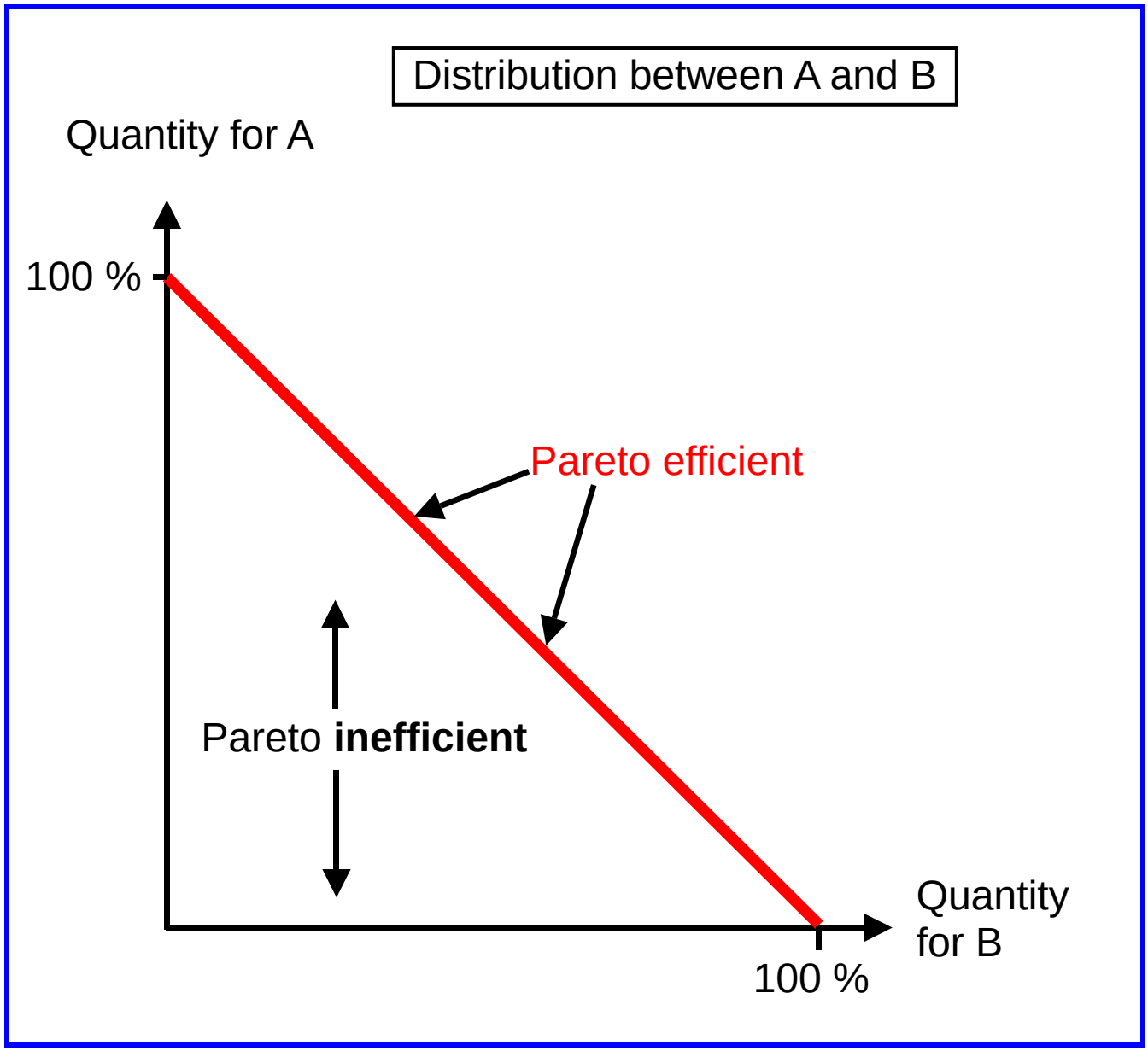
Paradox of thrift:
- Marginal propensity to save rises.
- Saving in $ stays the same (Y falls).

Y = Output, income

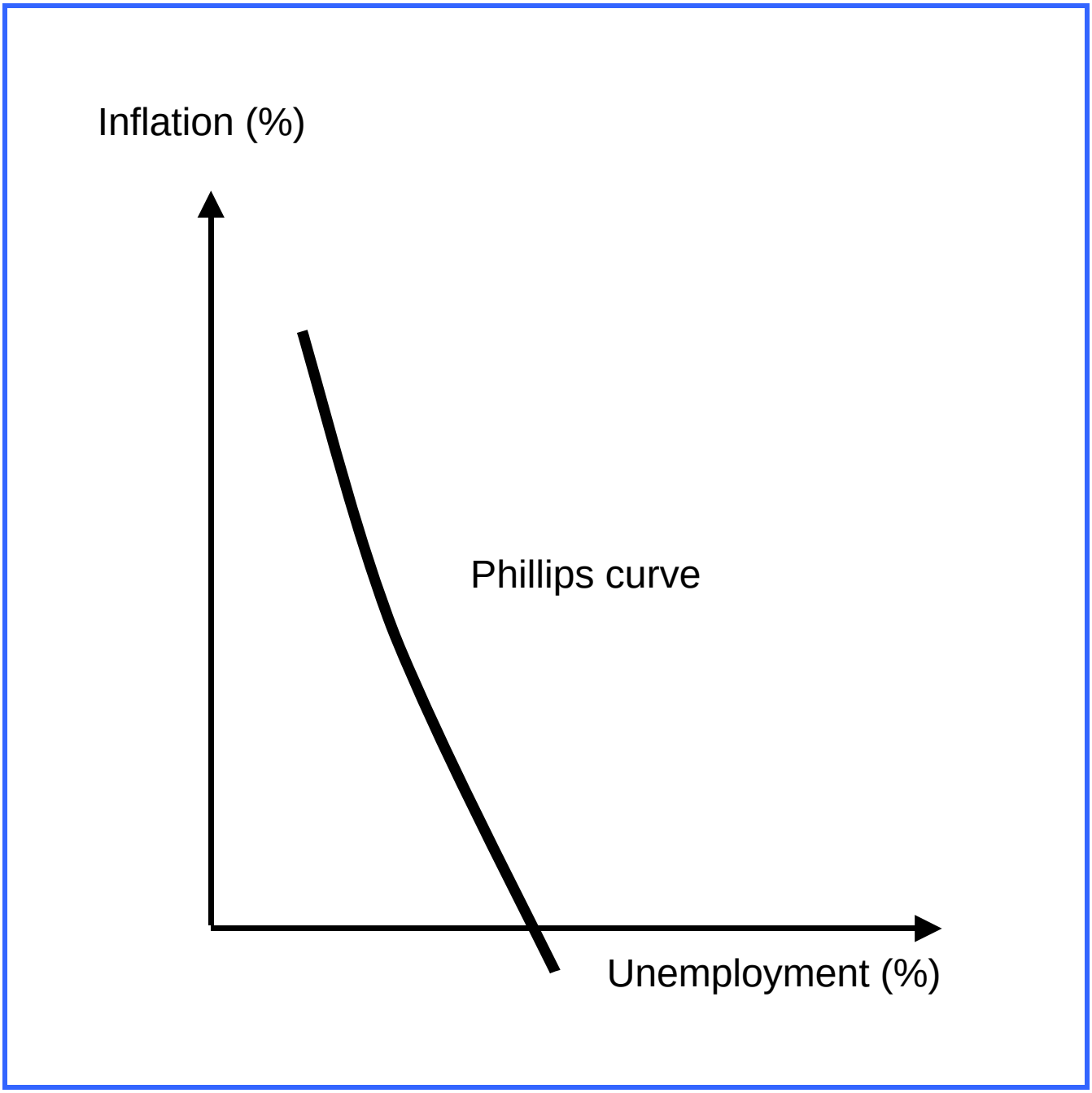
Pareto efficiency

Introduction:

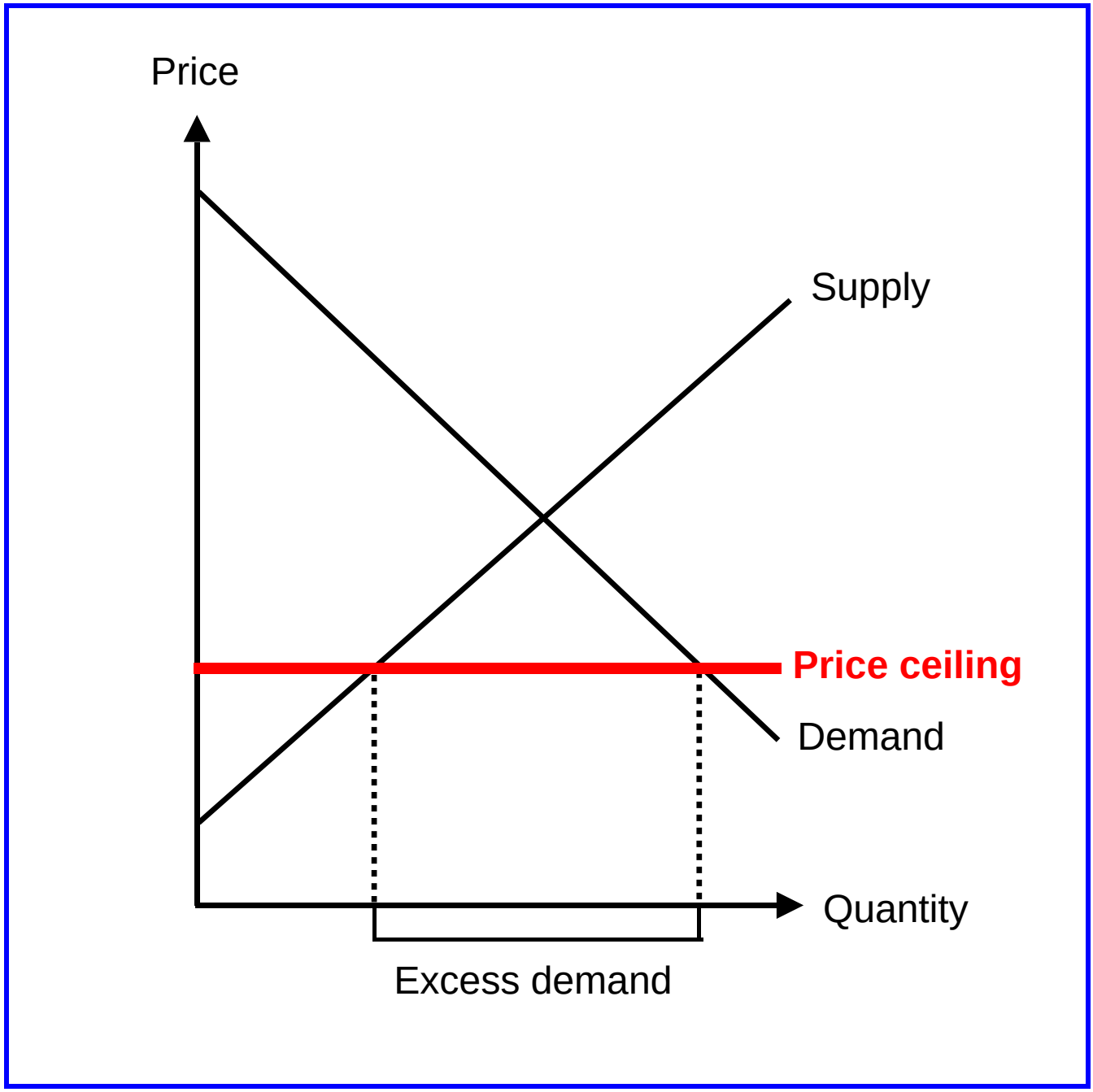
- 2 persons (A and B), distribution of 1 divisible good
- Which possibilities of distribution between A and B are feasible, irrespective of utility and income? What can be said about Pareto efficiency?



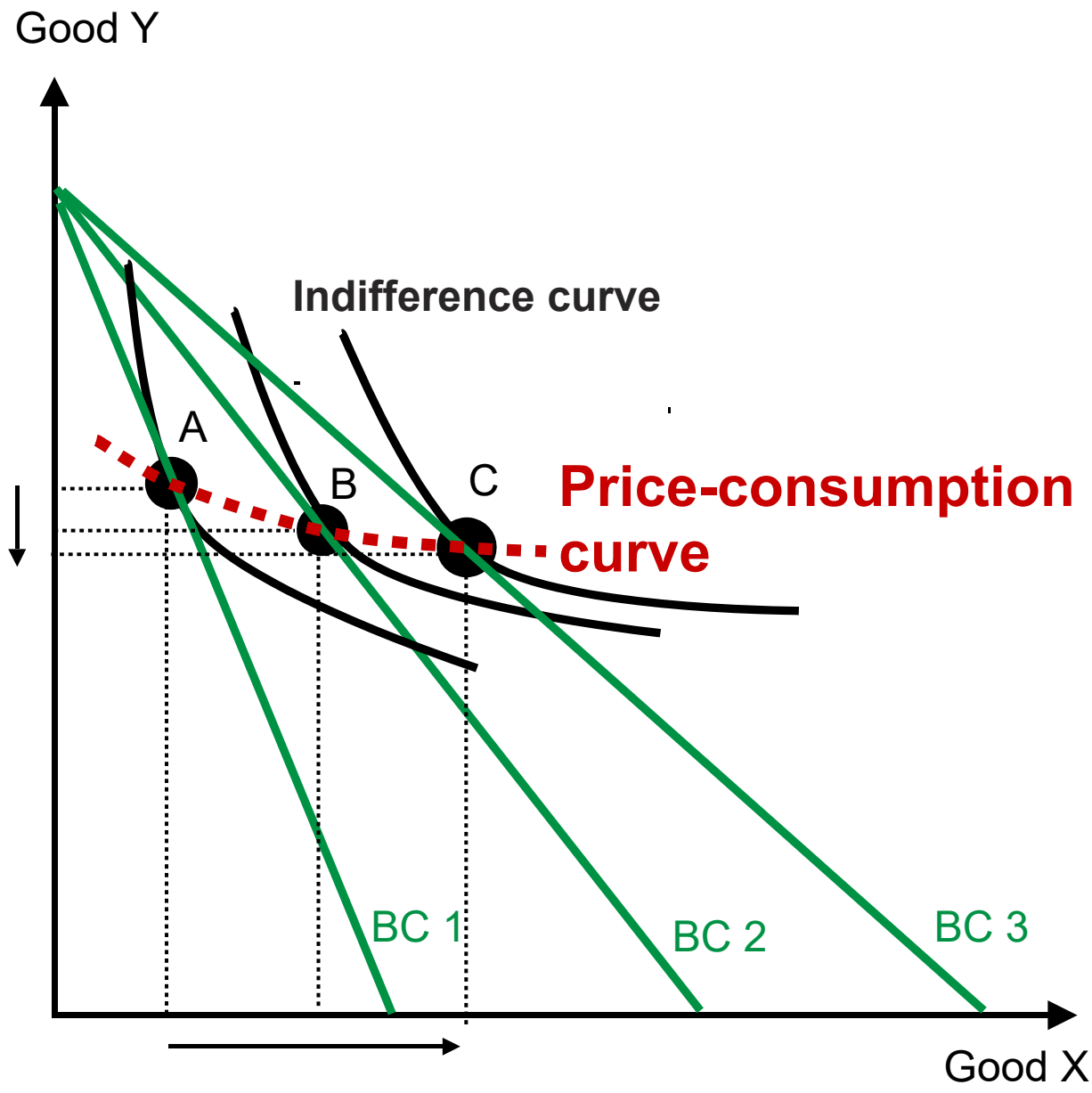
Phillips curve



Price ceiling (maximum price)



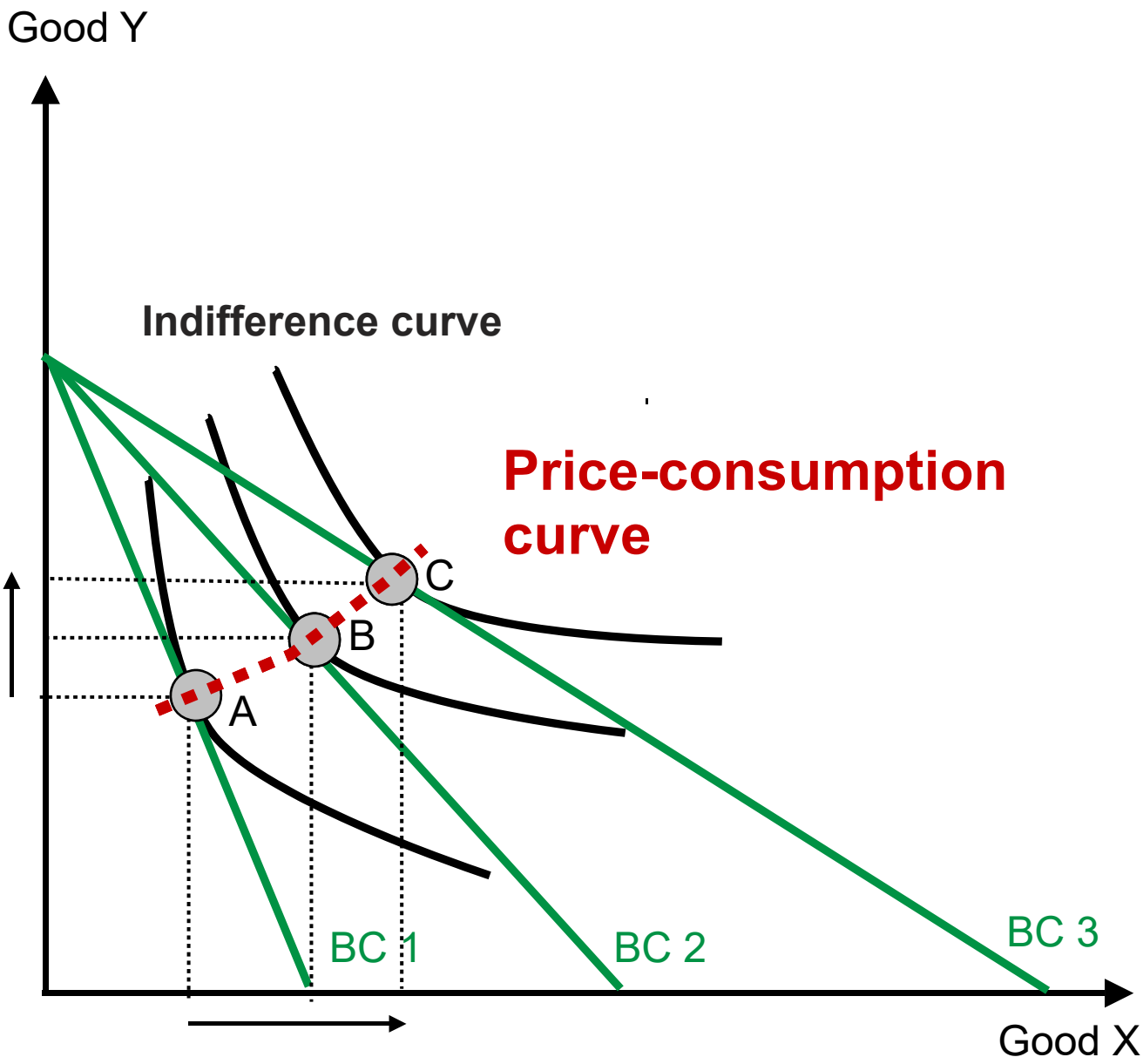
Price-consumption curve 1 - substitutes



BC = Budget constraint

If the price of good X decreases (from BC 1 to BC 2 and then to BC 3), the quantity of good X increases as expected. In contrast, the quantity of good Y decreases at the same time. The two goods are therefore **substitutes** (cross-price elasticity of demand **>** 0).

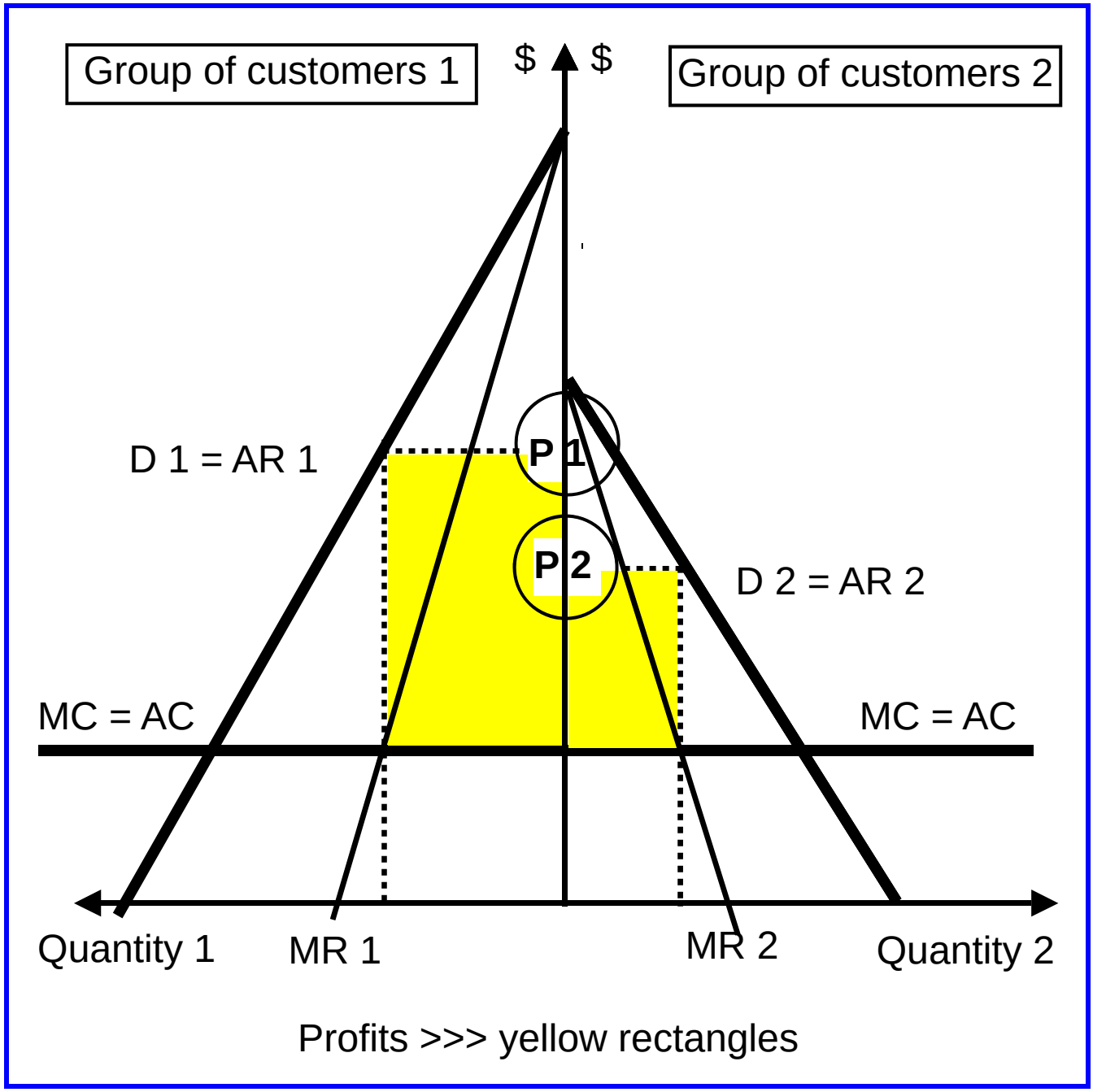
Price-consumption curve 2 - complements



BC = Budget constraint

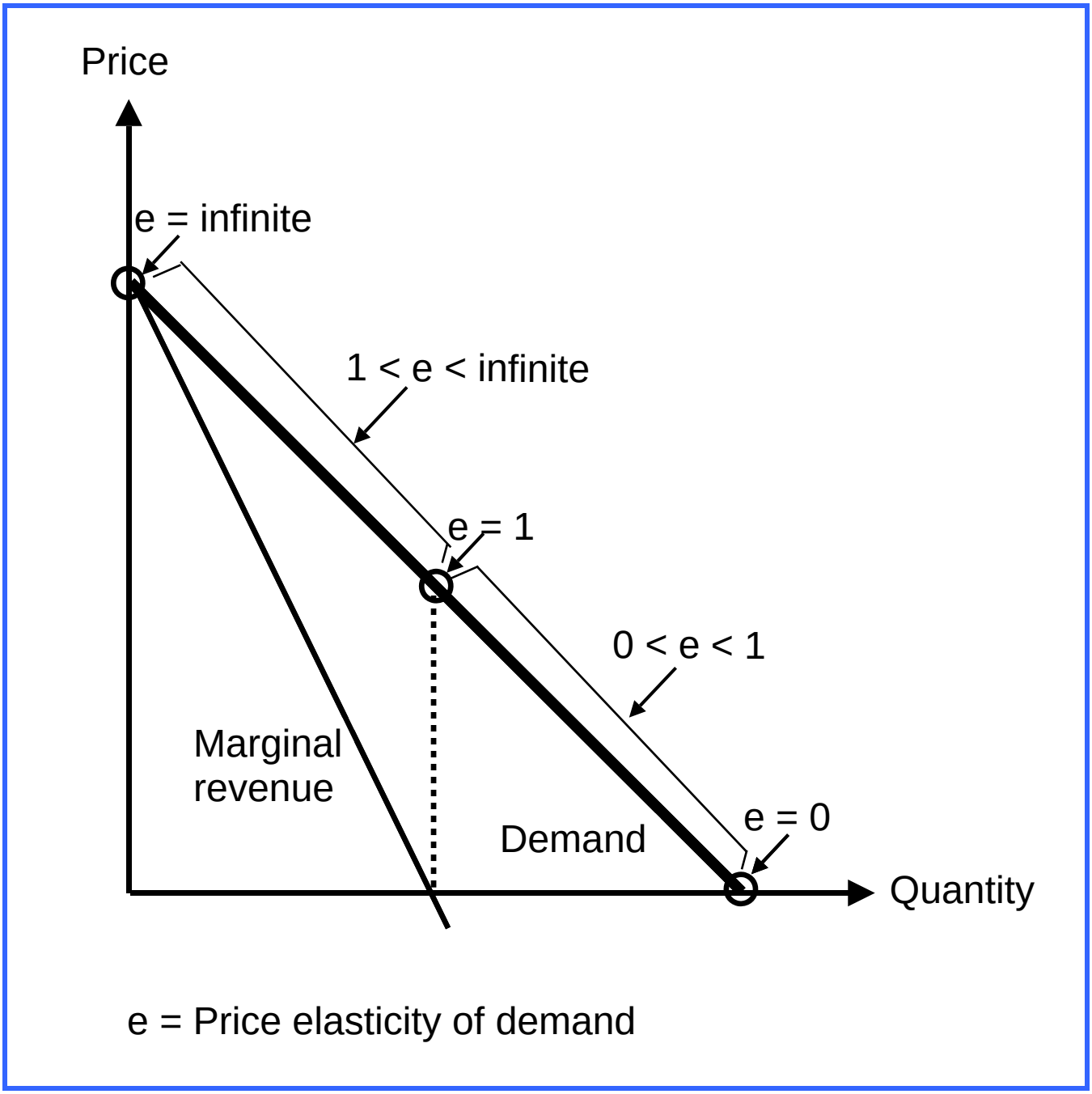
If the price of good X decreases (from BC 1 to BC 2 and then to BC 3), the quantities of good X and Y are increasing. The two goods are therefore **complements** (cross-price elasticity of demand **<** 0).

Price discrimination



D = Demand	AC = Average cost
P = Price	MR = Marginal revenue
AR = Average revenue	MC = Marginal cost

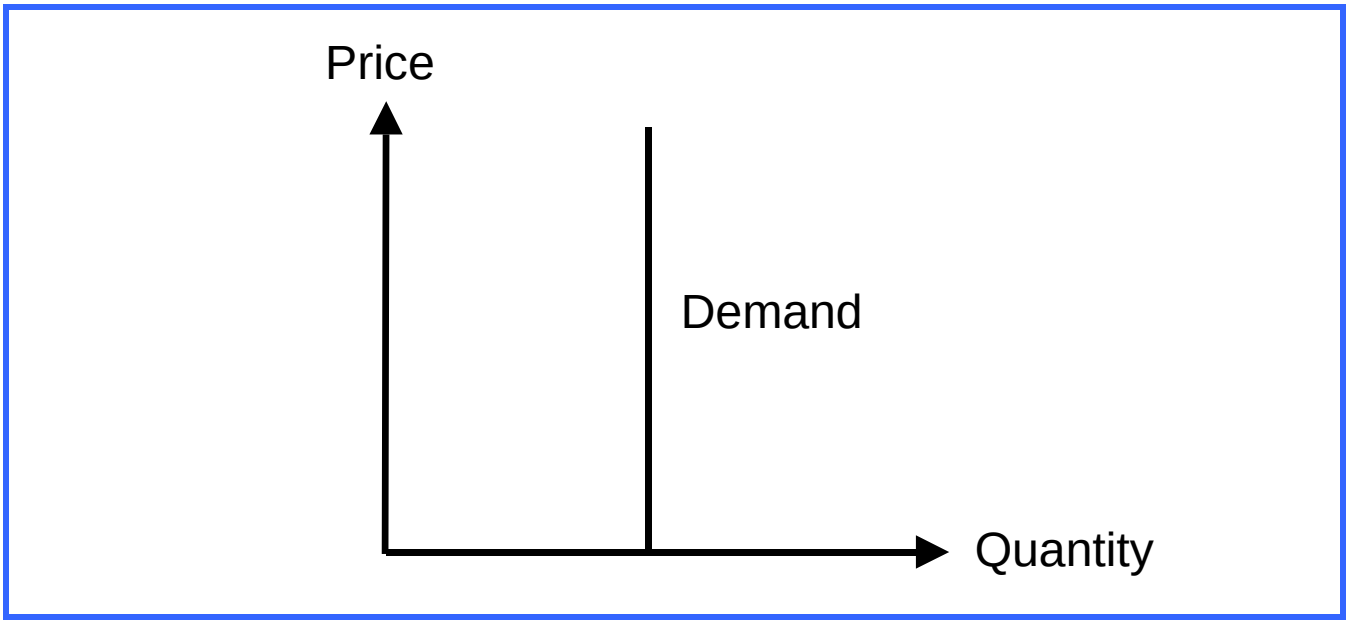
Price elasticity of demand 1 - linear demand



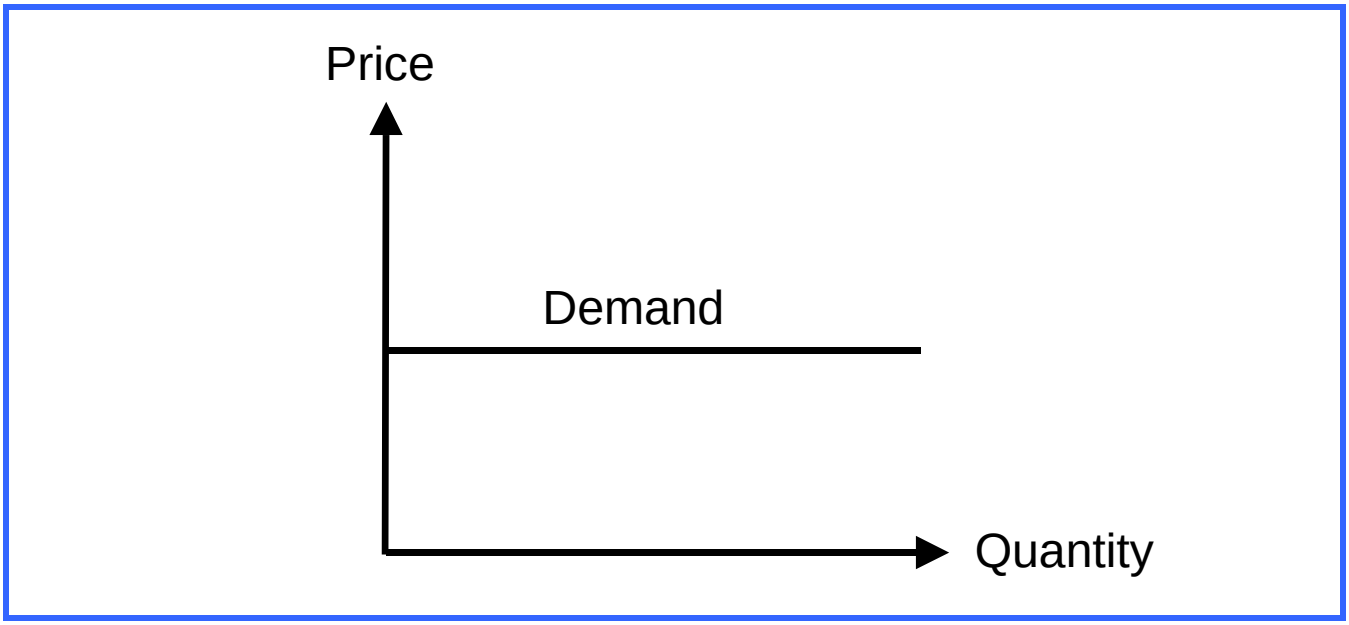
e = Price elasticity of demand

Price elasticity of demand 2 - extreme cases

① Price elasticity of demand = 0

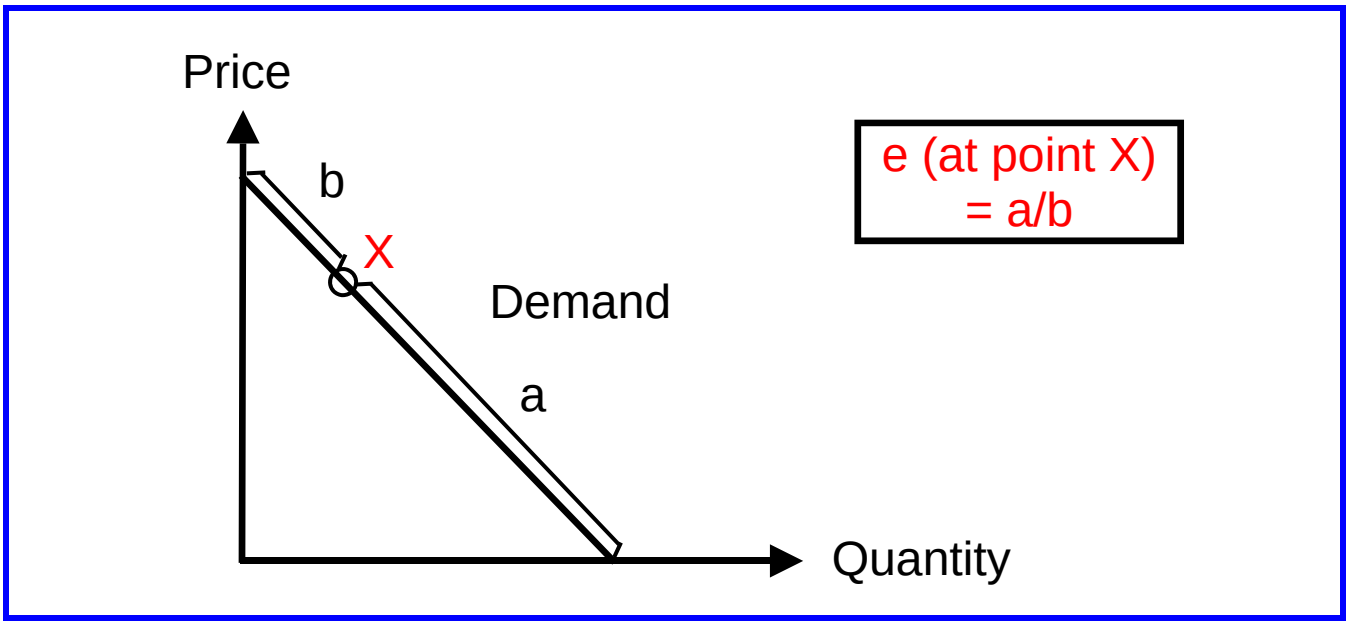


② Price elasticity of demand = infinite

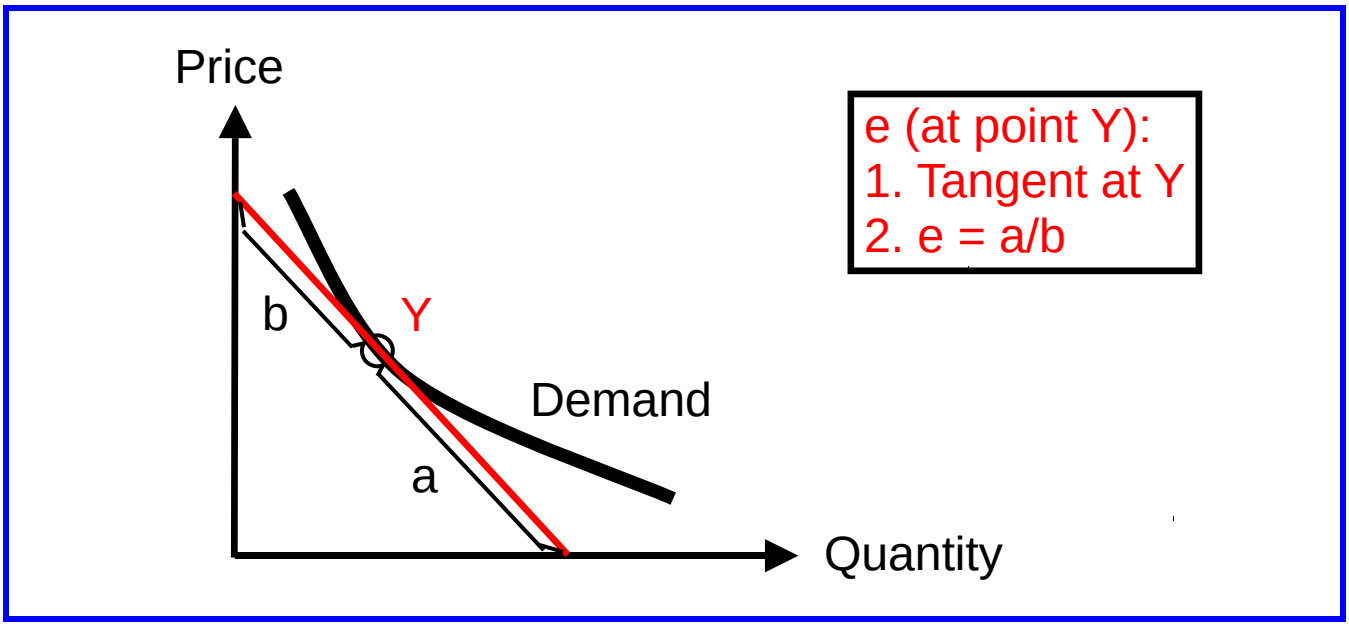


Price elasticity of demand 3 - given point

① Linear demand

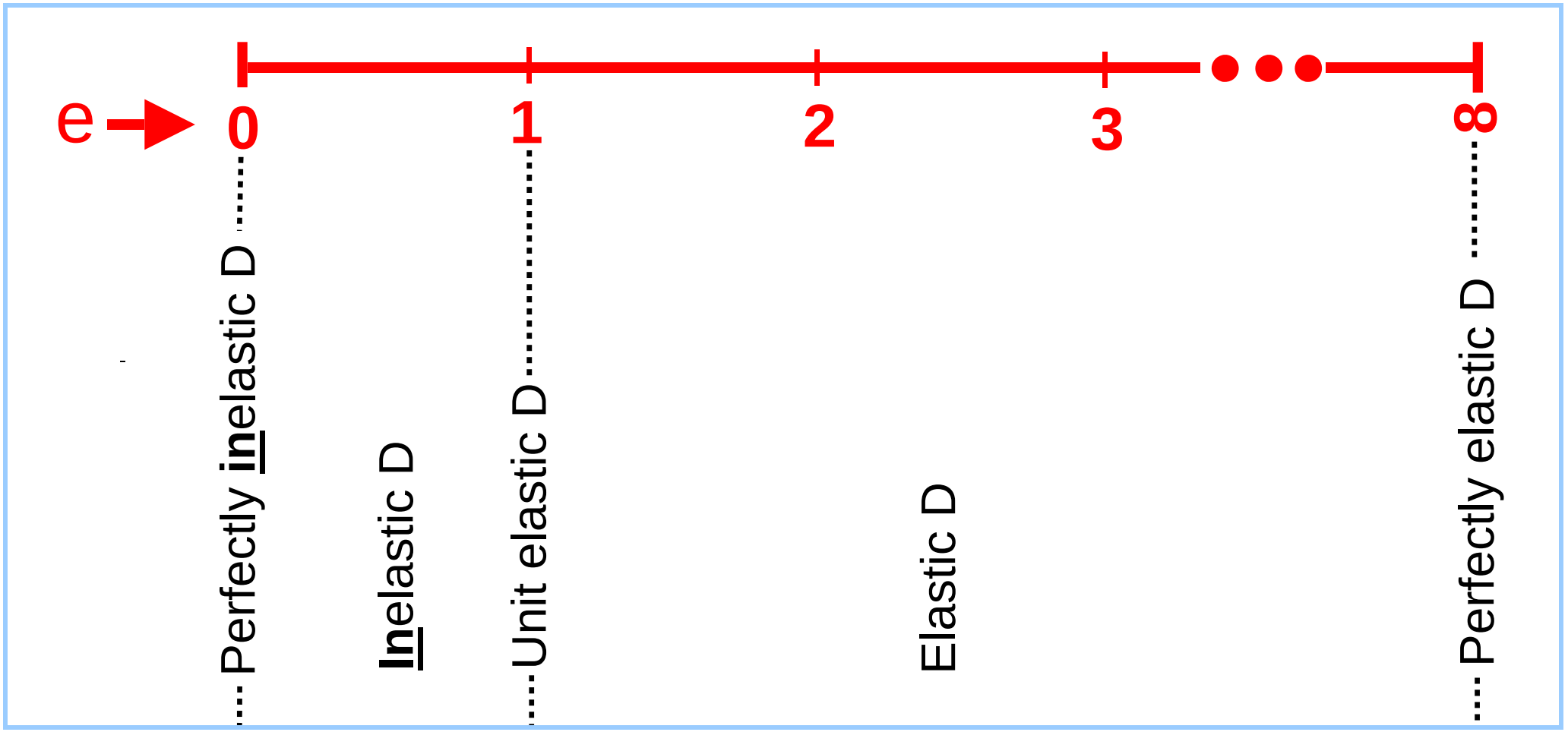


② Demand curve



e = Price elasticity of demand

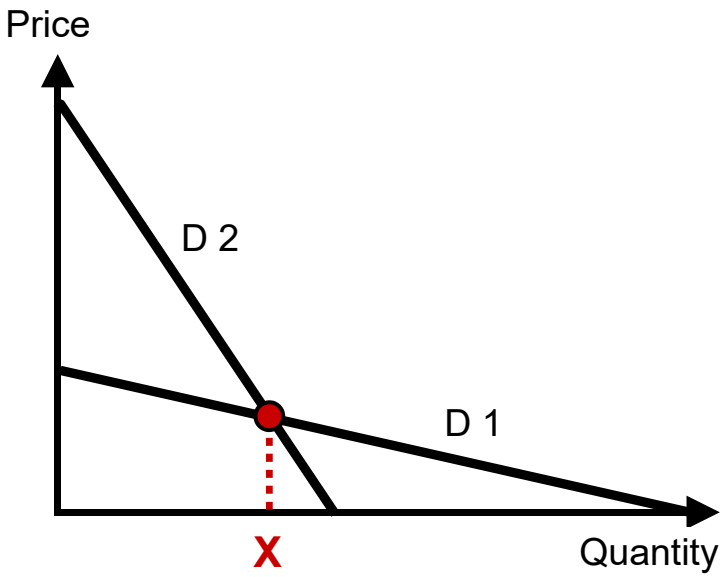
Price elasticity of demand 4 - Elasticity (e) and demand (D)



Price elasticity of demand 5 - elasticity and demand

① Price elasticity of demand (e) **at point X**

(D = Demand)



Demand at point X:

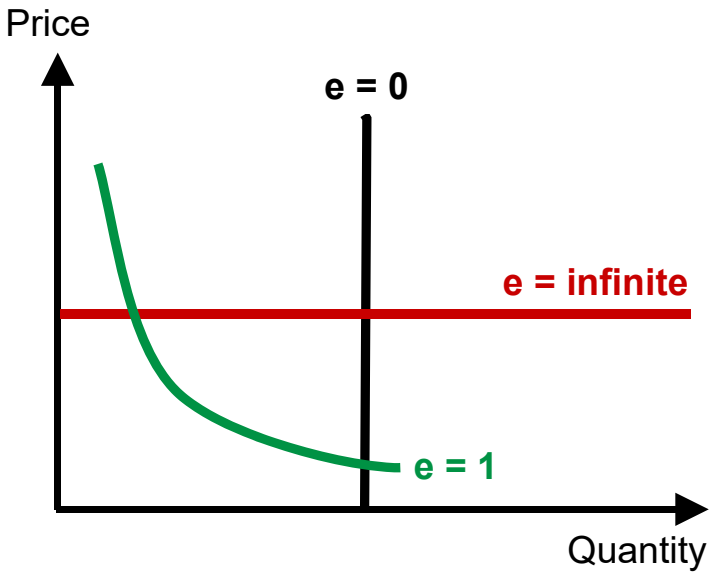
D 1: elastic D (e > 1)

D 2: ***in***elastic D (e < 1)

It should be noted that both demands (D 1 and D 2) run through all values between 0 and infinity. The statement that D 1 is more elastic than D 2 should be avoided. At point X it is exceptionally the case.

② **Constant** price elasticity of demand

(e = Price elasticity of demand)



Characterization of demand:

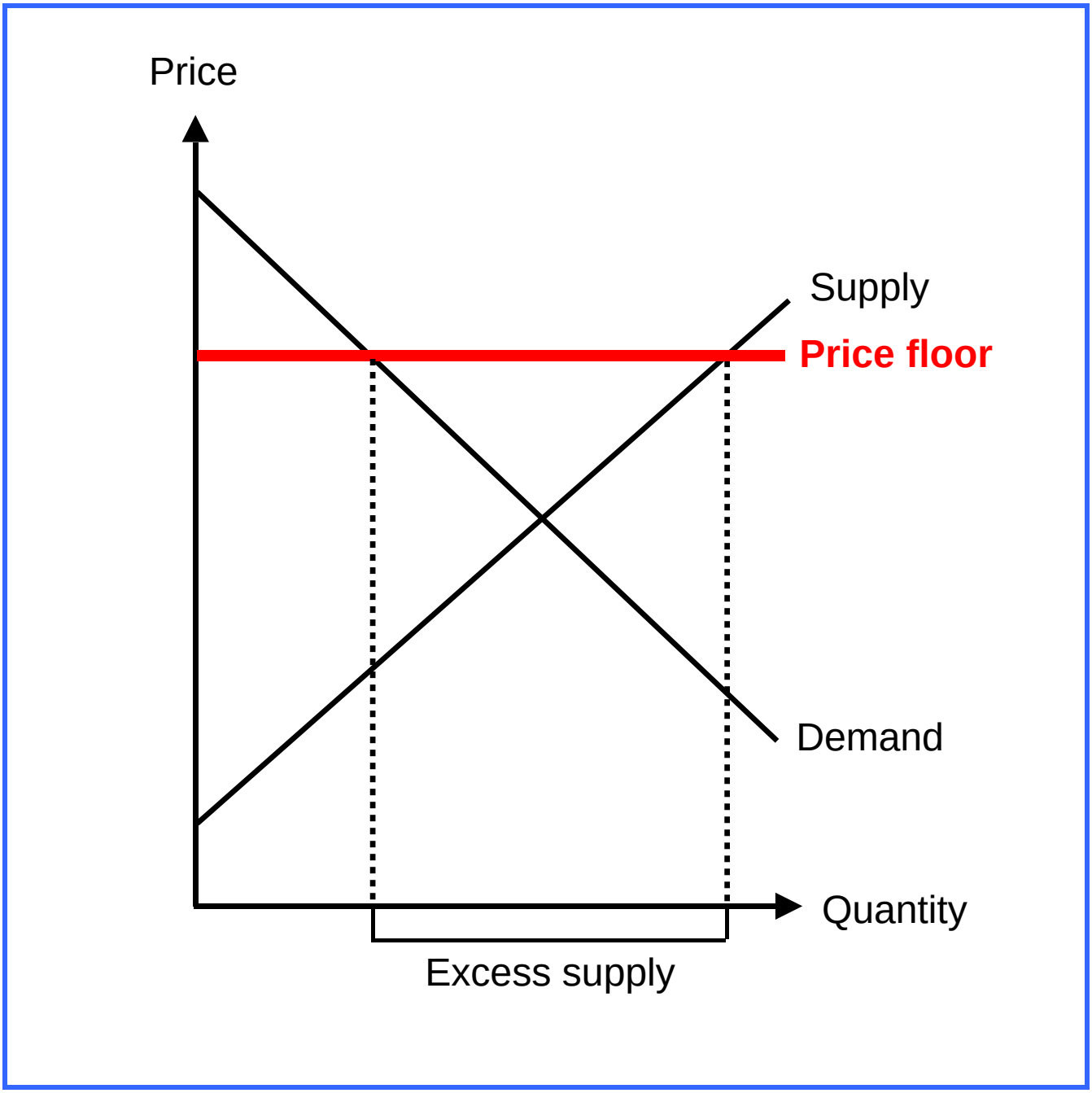
e = 0
perfectly ***in***elastic demand

e = infinite
perfectly elastic demand

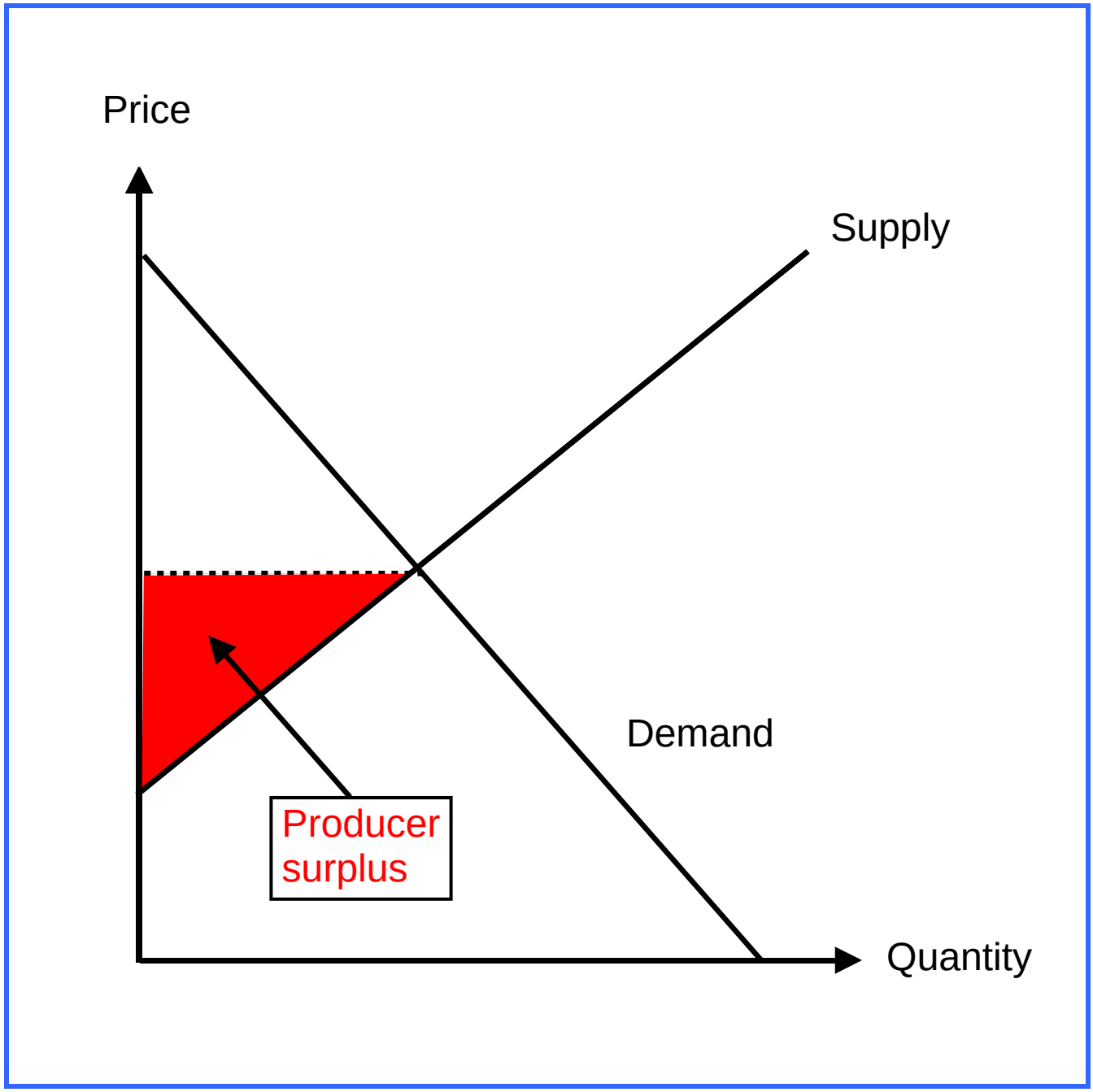
e = 1
unit elastic demand

*If e = 1, **total revenue** (quantity*price) remains **constant** despite price changes.*

Price floor (minimum price)



Producer surplus

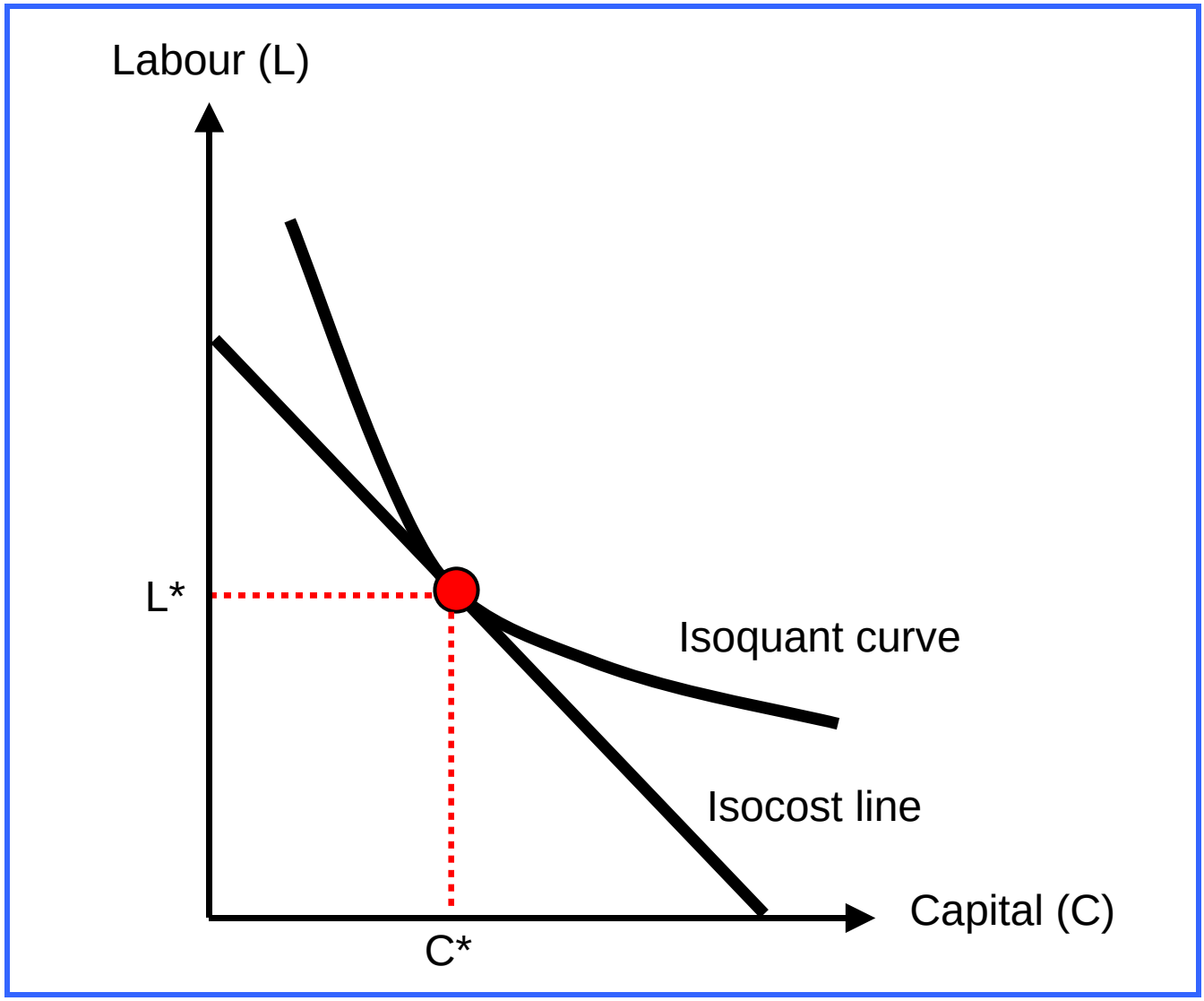


Production - minimum cost

The minimum cost of production is at the point where the isocost line and the isoquant curve have the same slope, that is, where the isocost line touches the isoquant curve.

Information about

- the isoquant. Click here!
- the isocost. Click here!

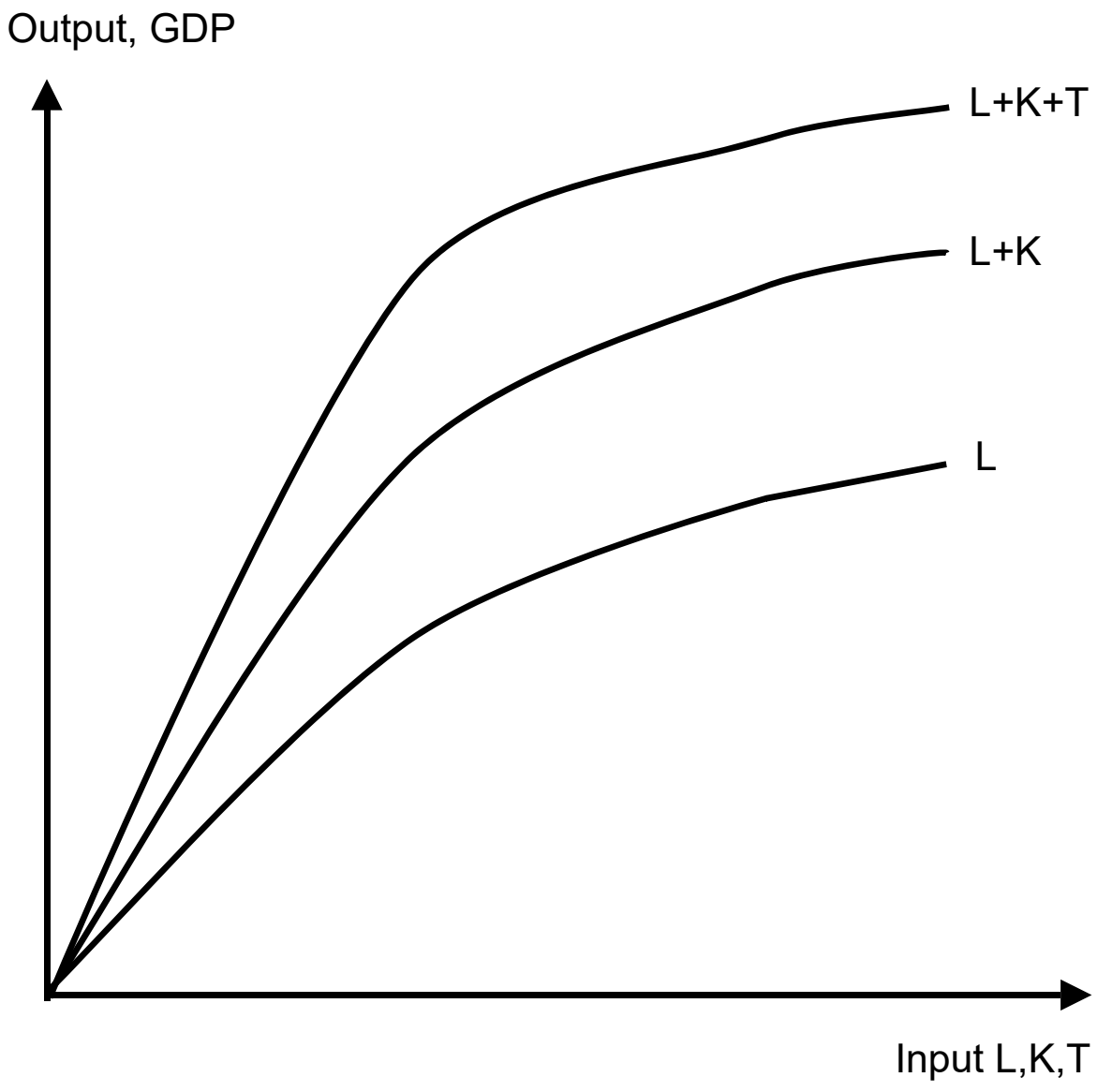


Production function

$Y = f(L,K,T)$

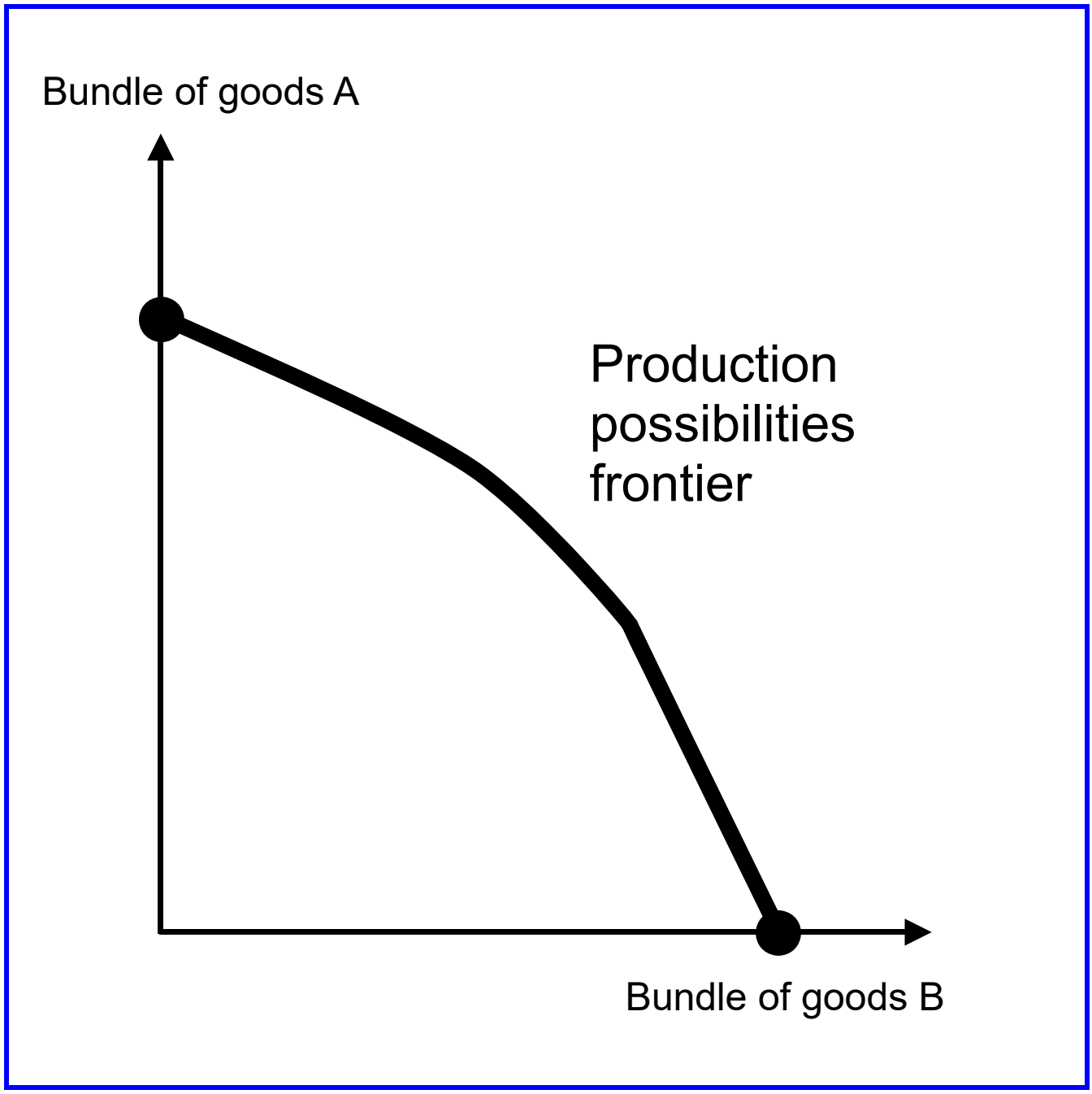
Y = Output or GDP (Gross domestic product)
f(...) = function of ...

L = Labor
K = Capital
T = Technology

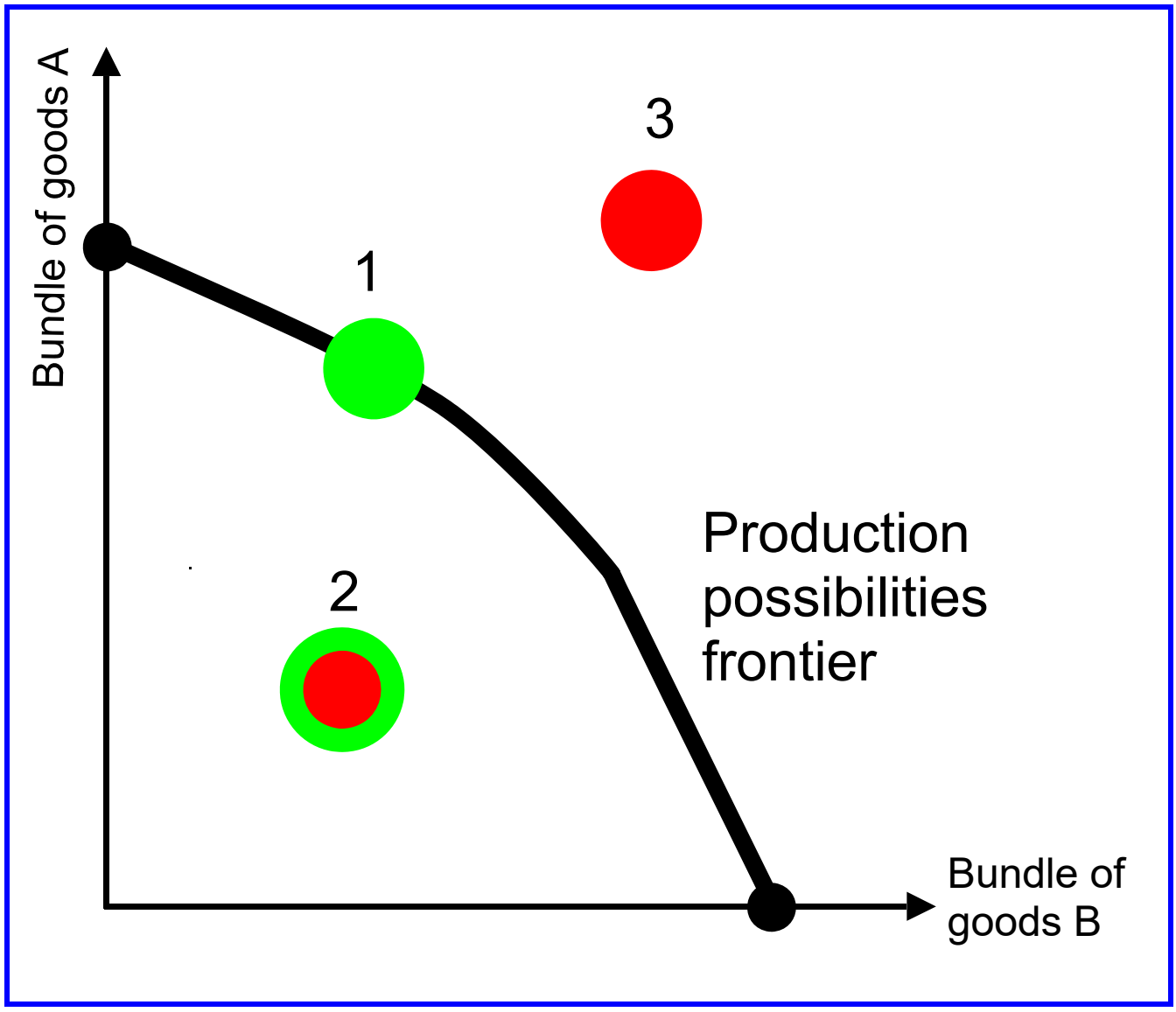


This graph shows diminishing marginal products of factors of input.

Production possibilities frontier 1



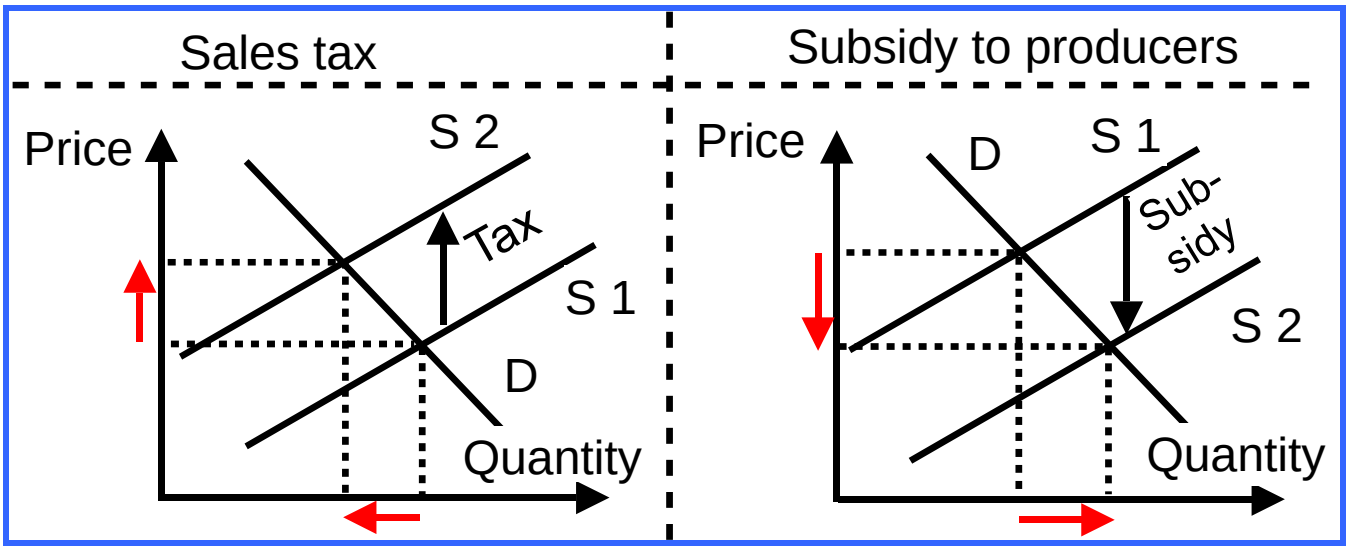
Production possibilities frontier 2



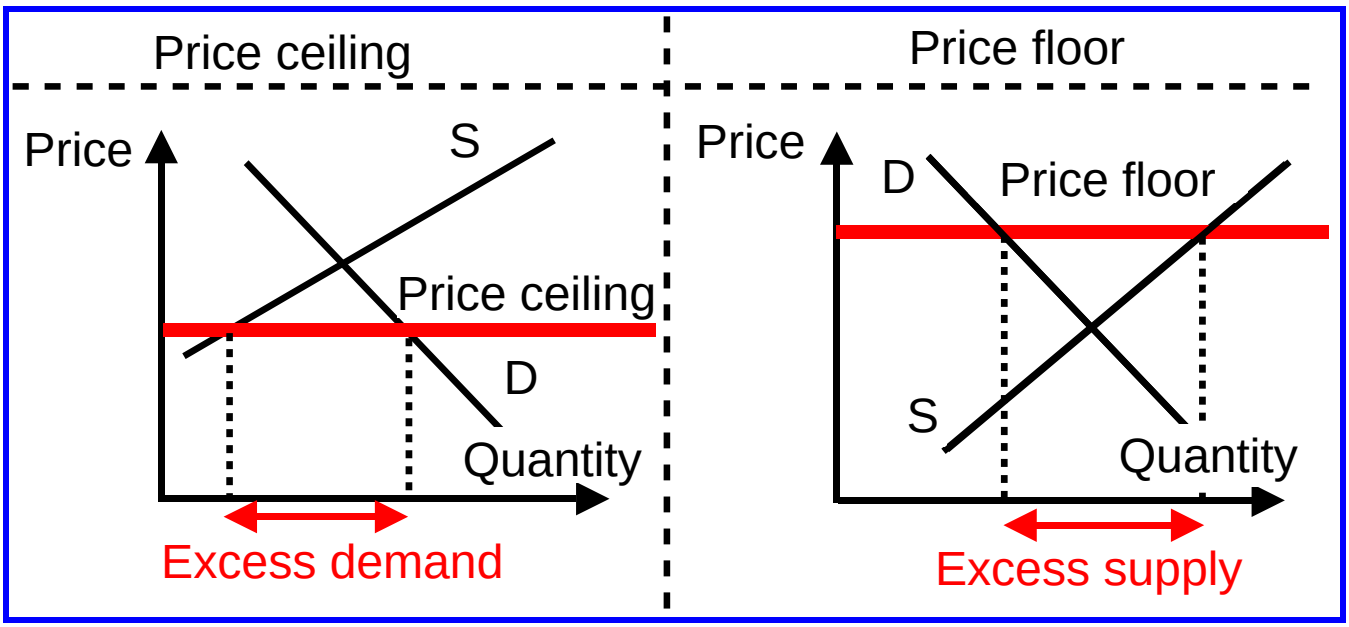
- Points like 1 (on the curve):
  attainable and efficient
- Points like 2 (inside the curve):
  atteinable, but inefficient (with unemployment)
- Points like 3 (outside the curve):
  unattainable

Public interference and market

① The public interference creates a **new equilibrium.**

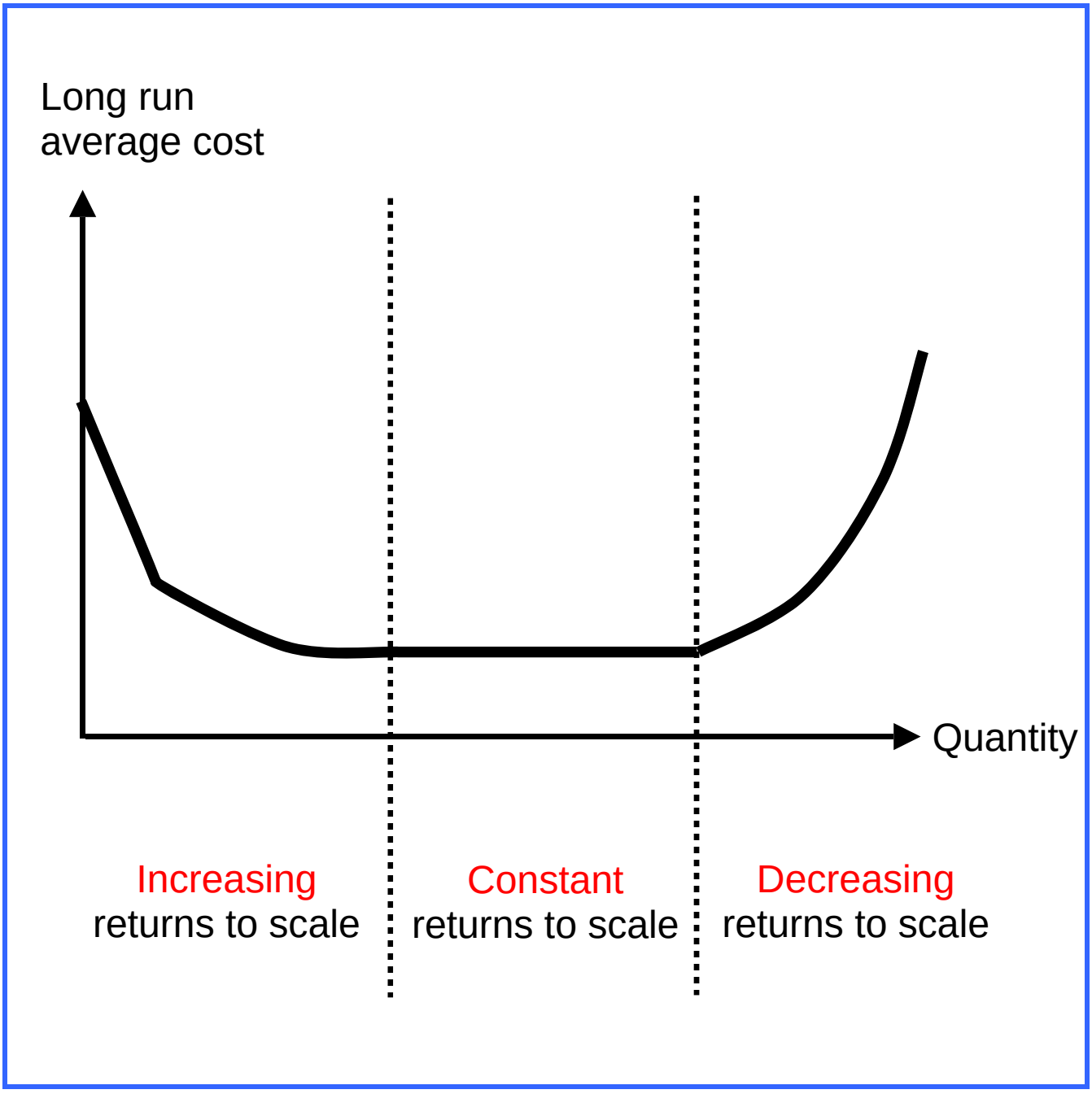


② The public interference creates a **disequilibrium.**

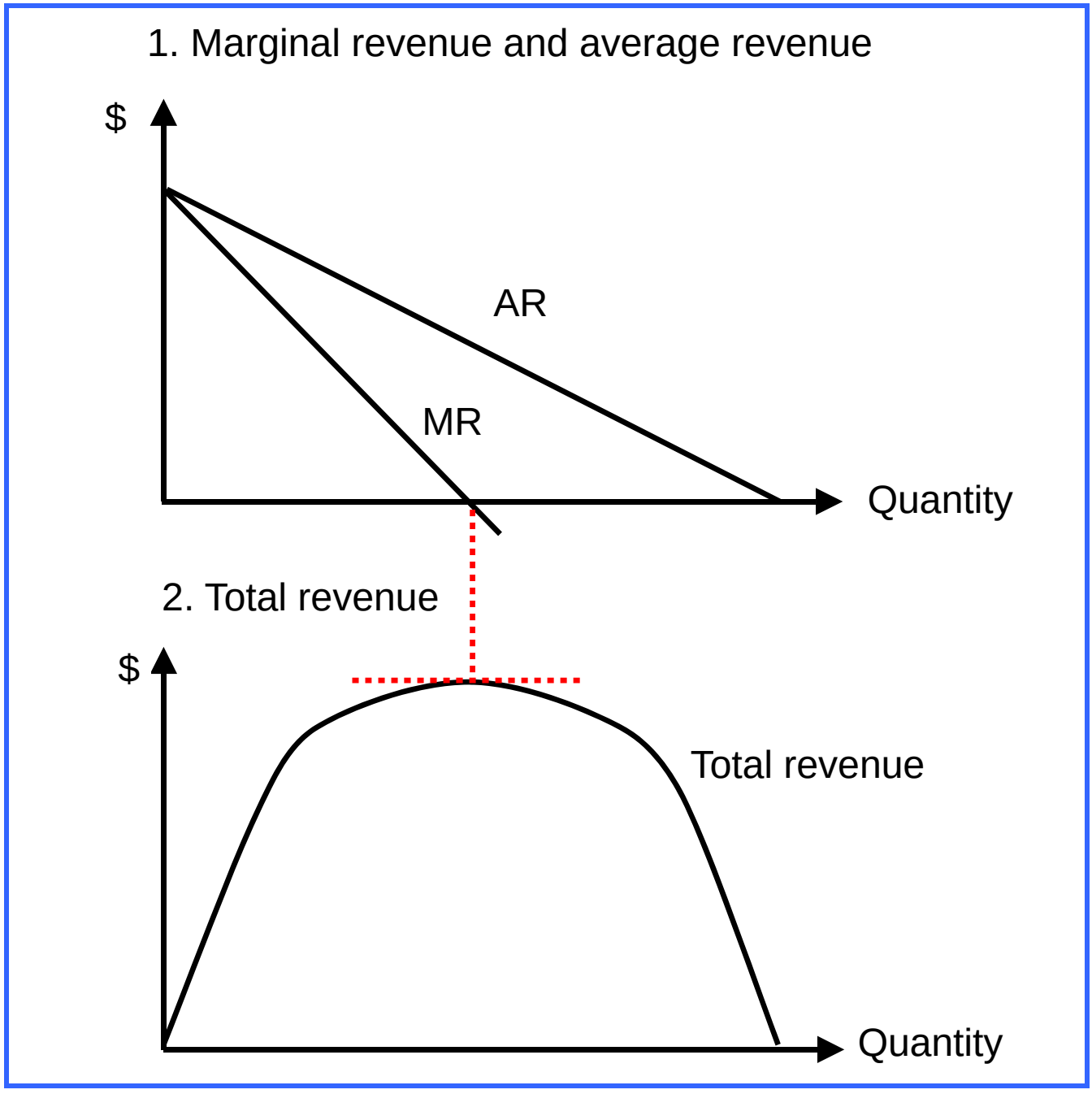


D = Demand	S = Supply

Returns to scale

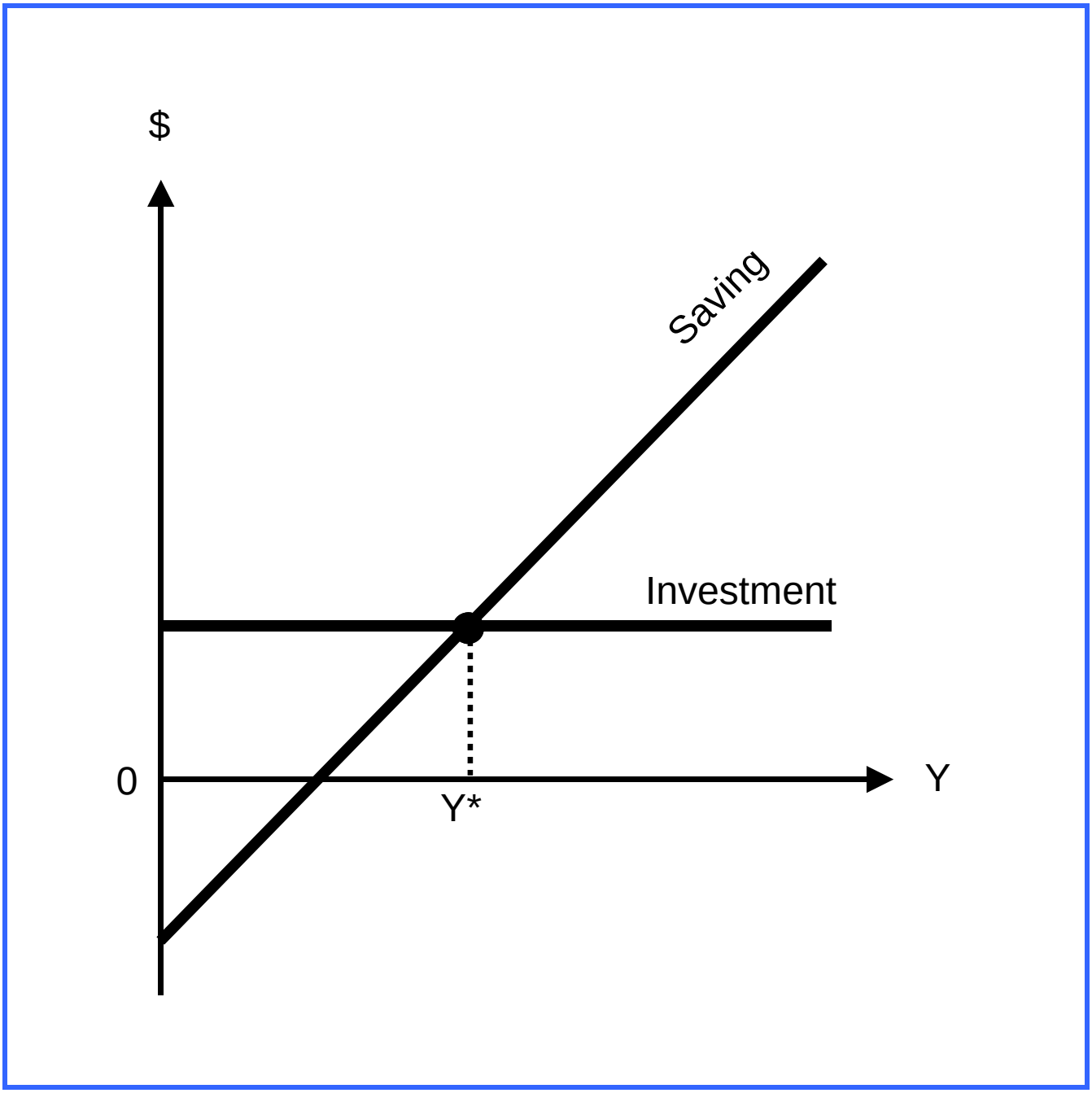


Revenue - marginal, average and total



MR = Marginal revenue
AR = Average revenue

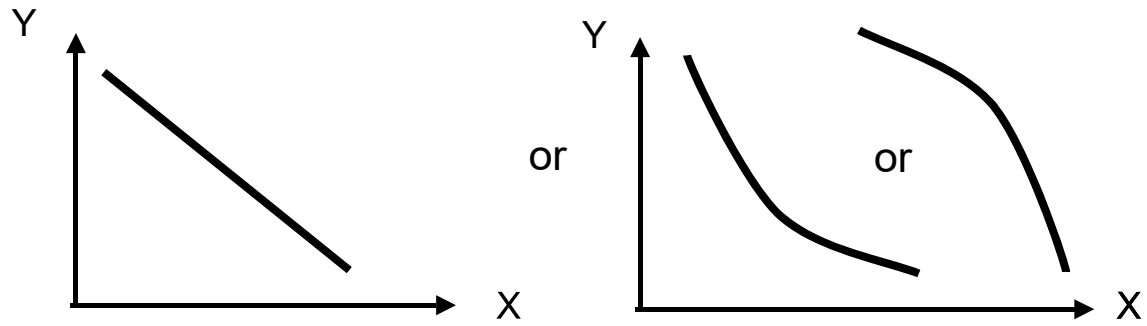
Saving and investment



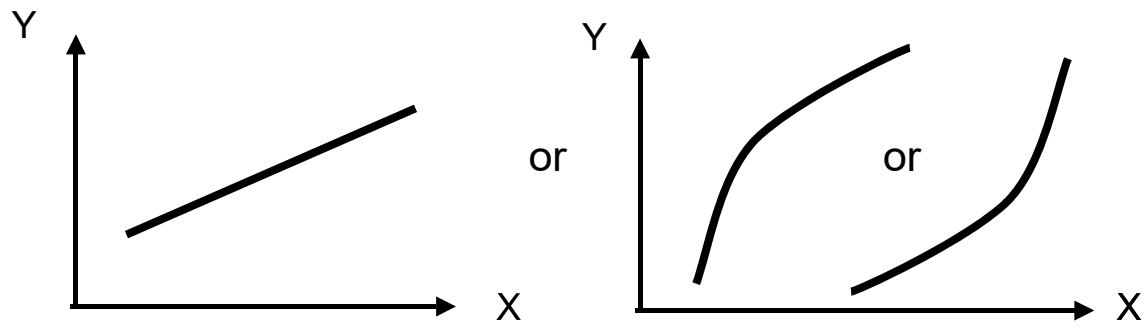
Y = Output, income
Y* = Equilibrium of Y

Slope

Negative slope (slope **<** 0)

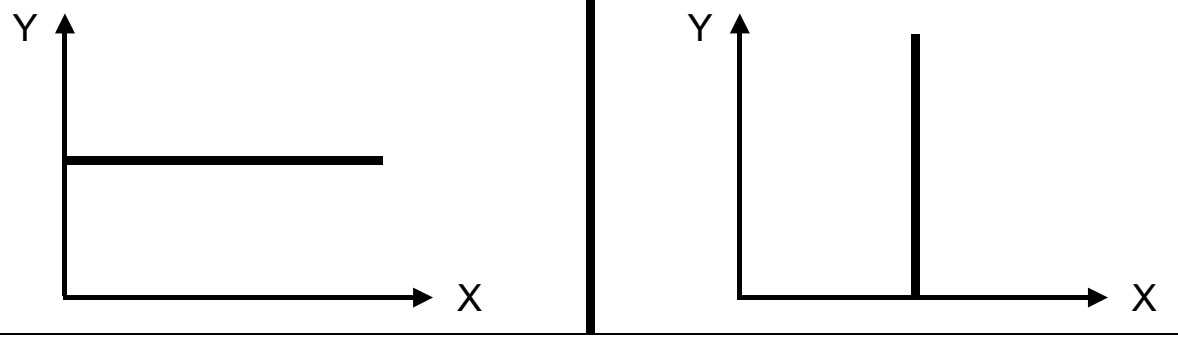


Positive slope (slope **>** 0)



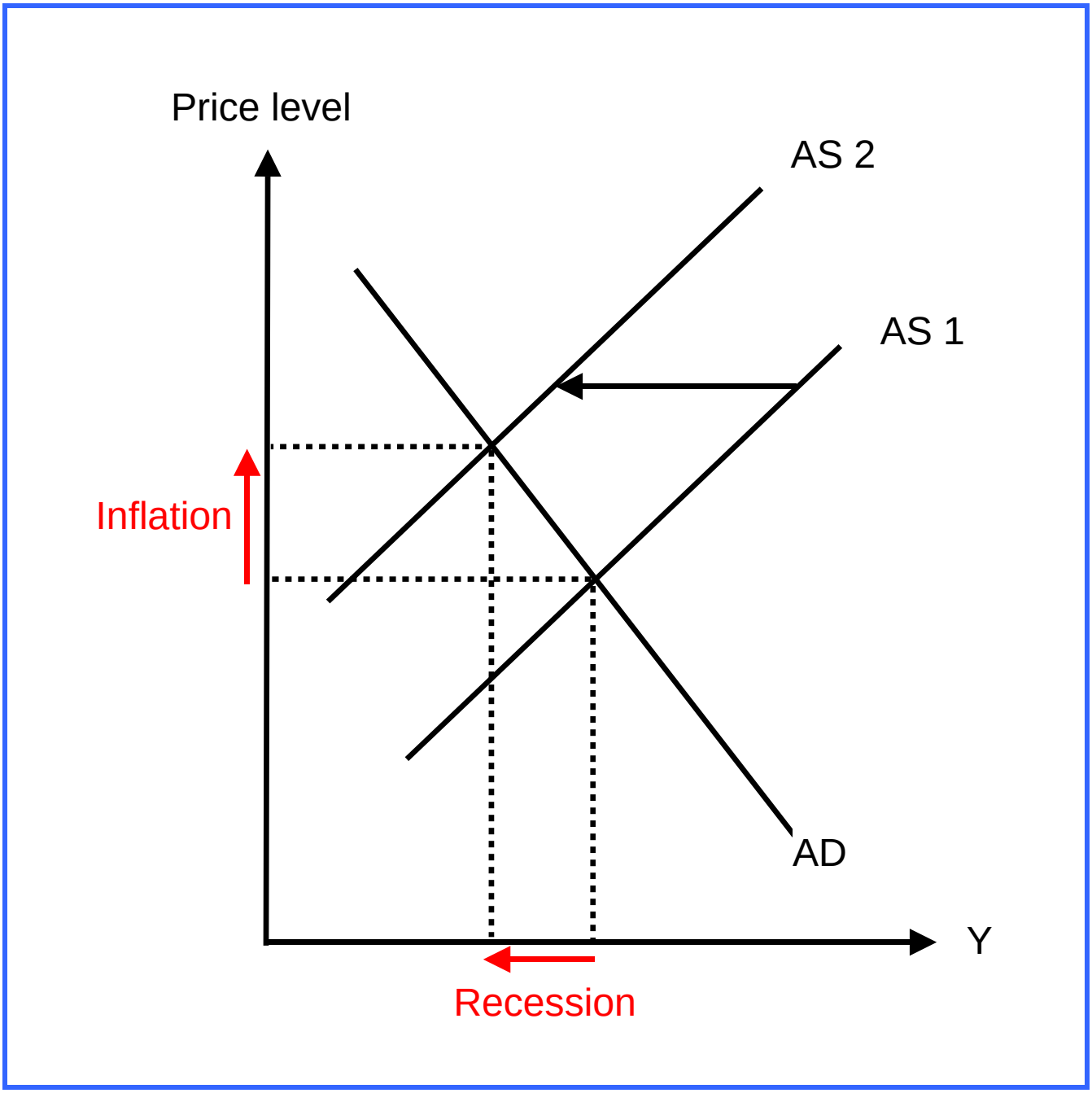
Special cases

Slope = **0**	Slope = ∞



Source: Baumol William J., Blinder Alan S., Solow John L., Economics, Principles and Policy, 14th ed., p. 16

Stagflation

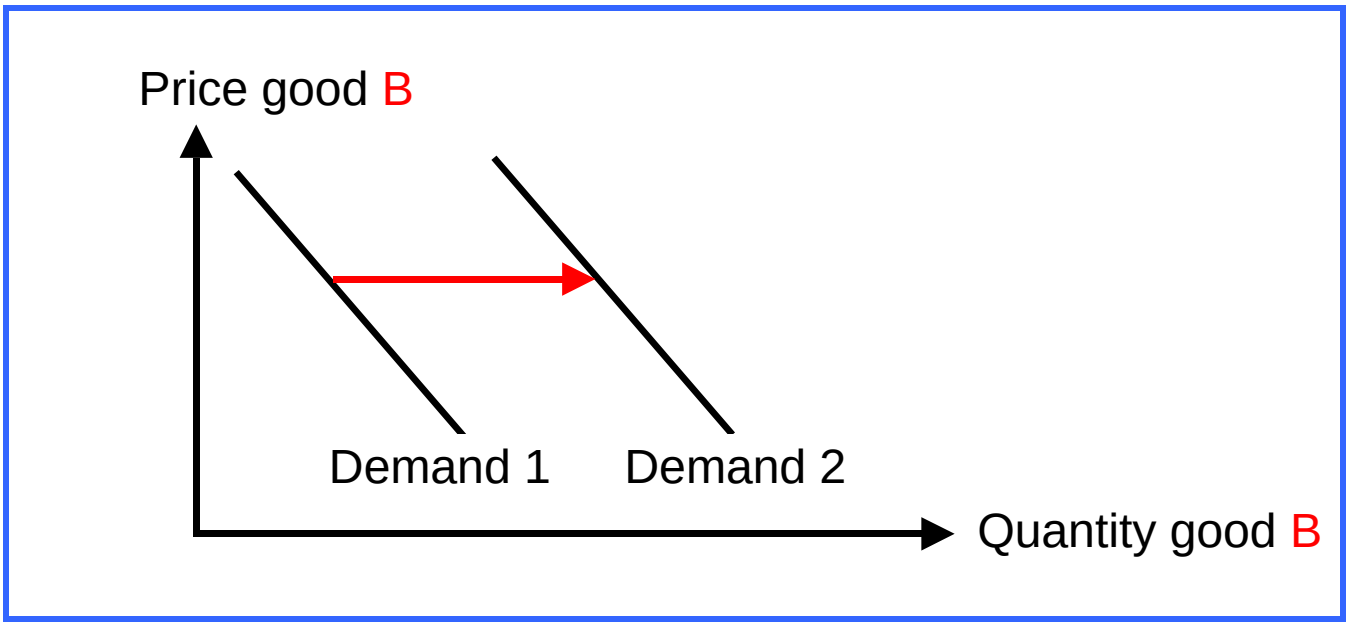


Y = Output, income
AD = Aggregate demand
AS = Aggregate supply

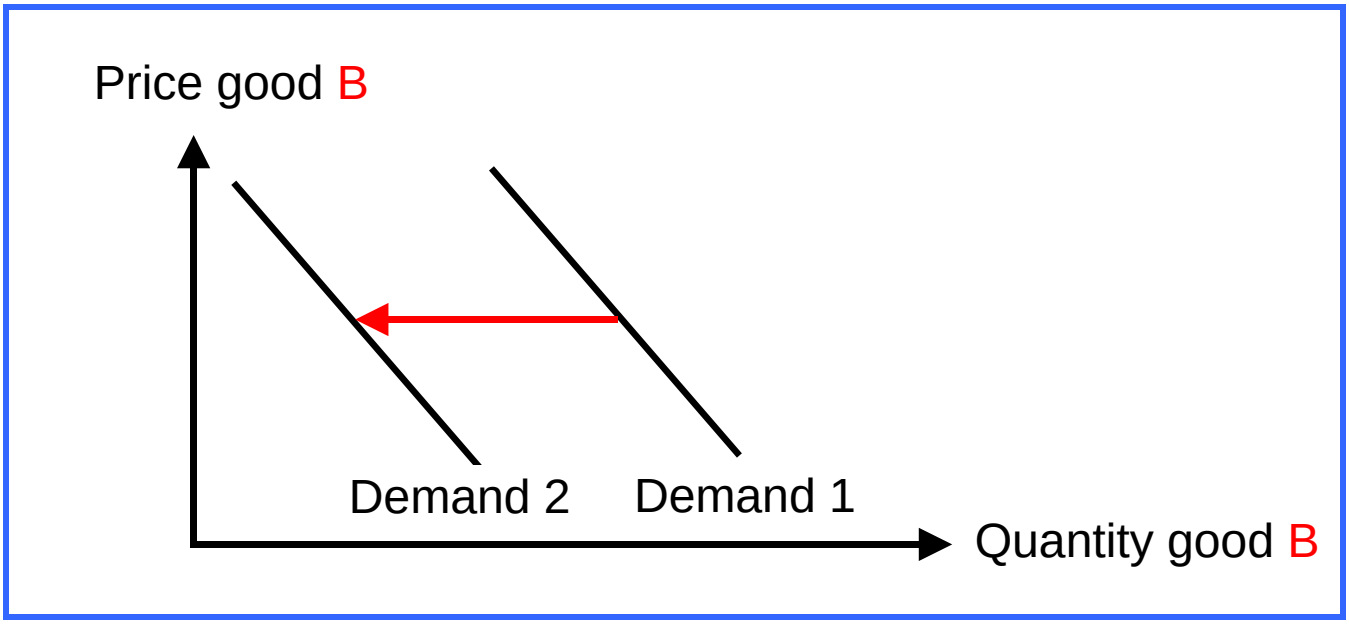
Substitutes

The goods A and B are substitutes.

① The price of good **A rises.** What happens to B?

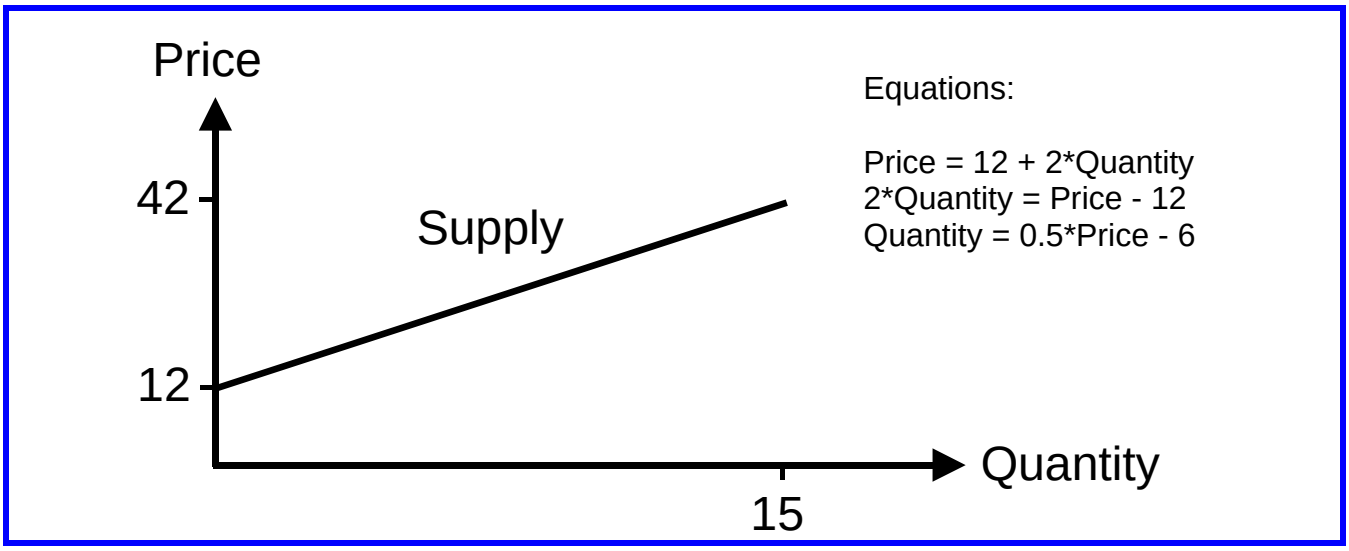


② The price of good **A falls.** What happens to B?

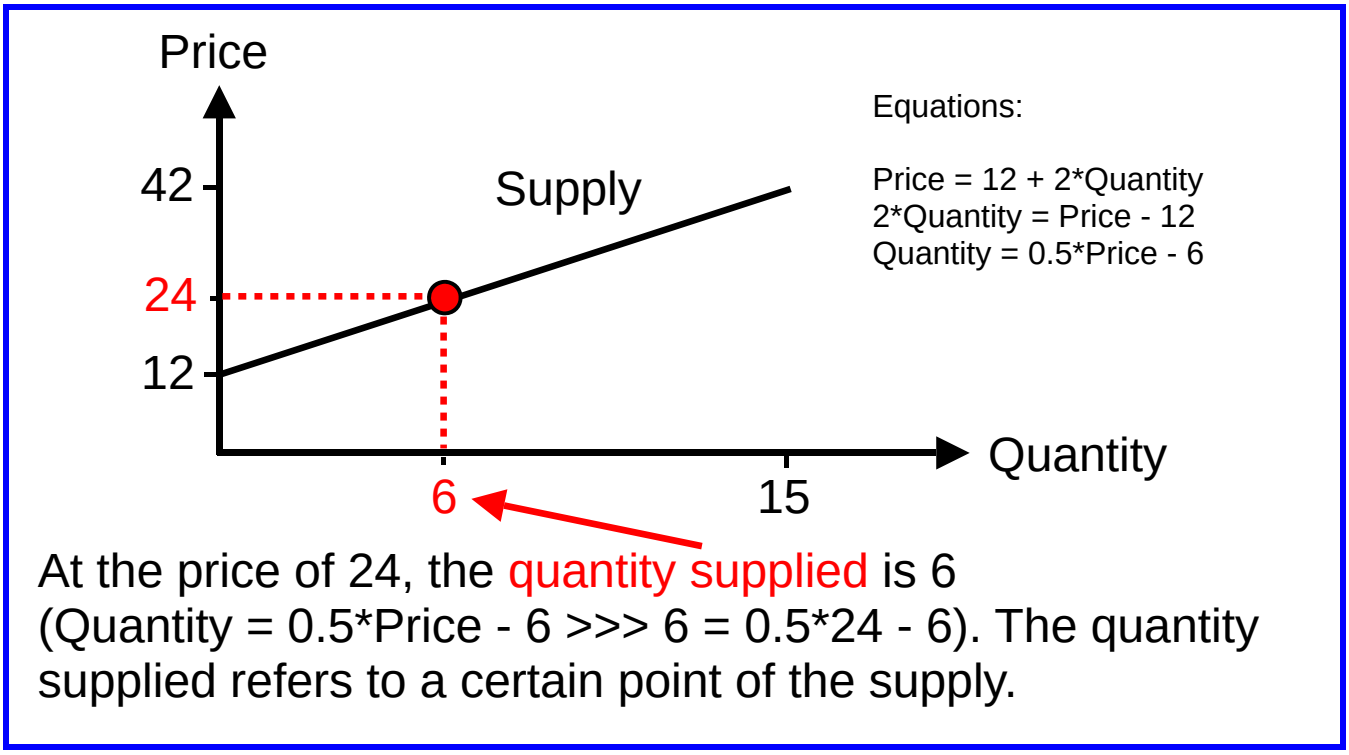


Supply and quantity supplied

① Supply

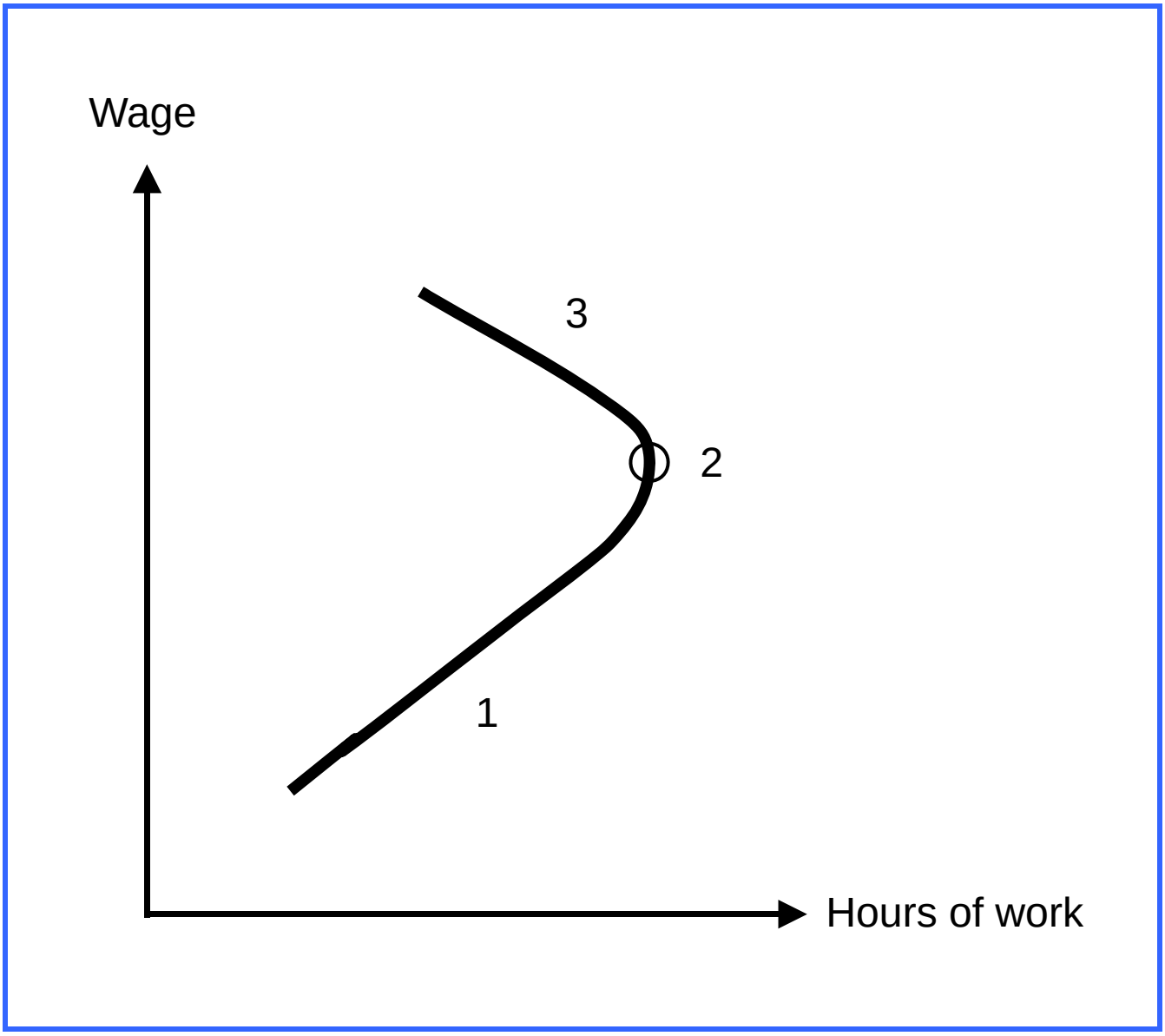


② Quantity supplied



At the price of 24, the quantity supplied is 6 (Quantity = 0.5*Price - 6 >>> 6 = 0.5*24 - 6). The quantity supplied refers to a certain point of the supply.

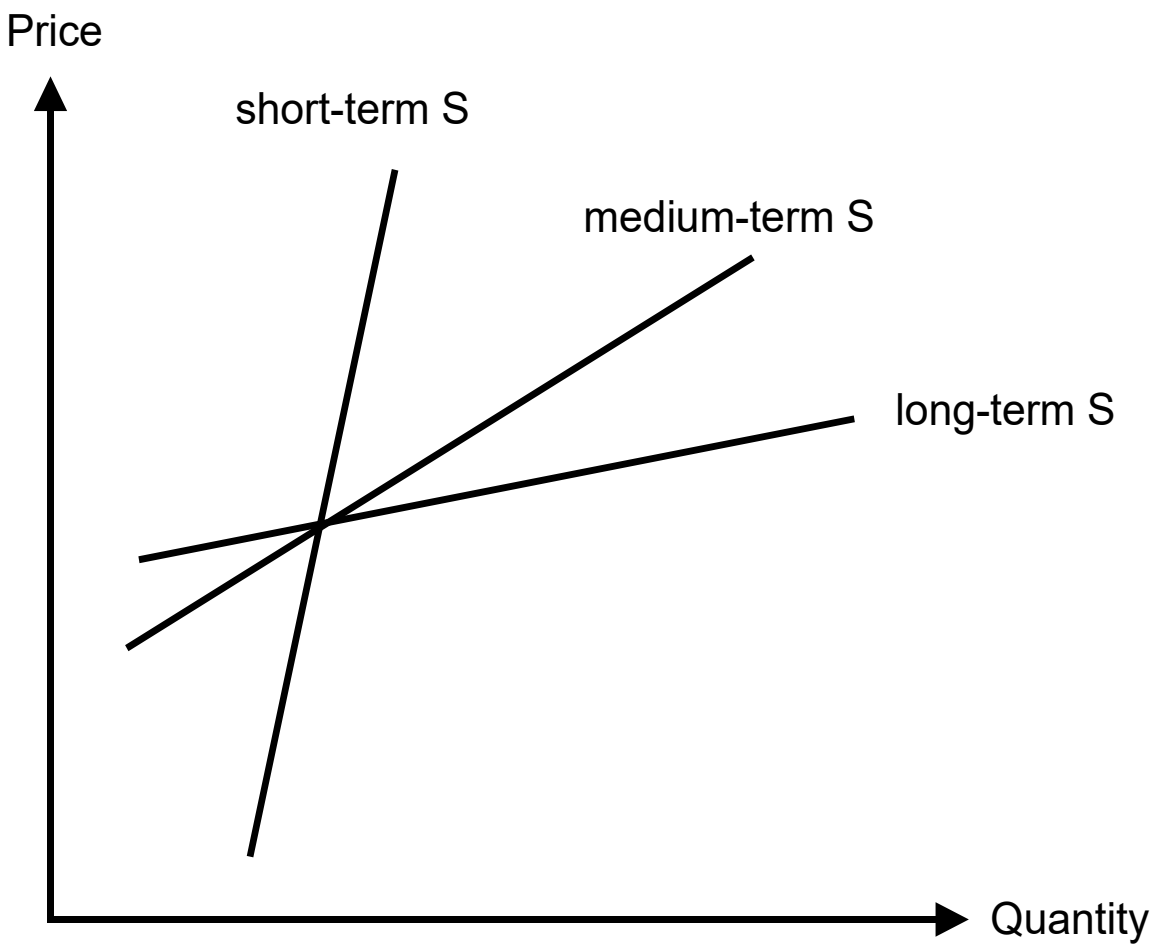
Supply of labour - individual



1 Substitution effect **>** Income effect
2 Substitution effect **=** Income effect
3 Substitution effect **<** Income effect

Supply over time and elasticity

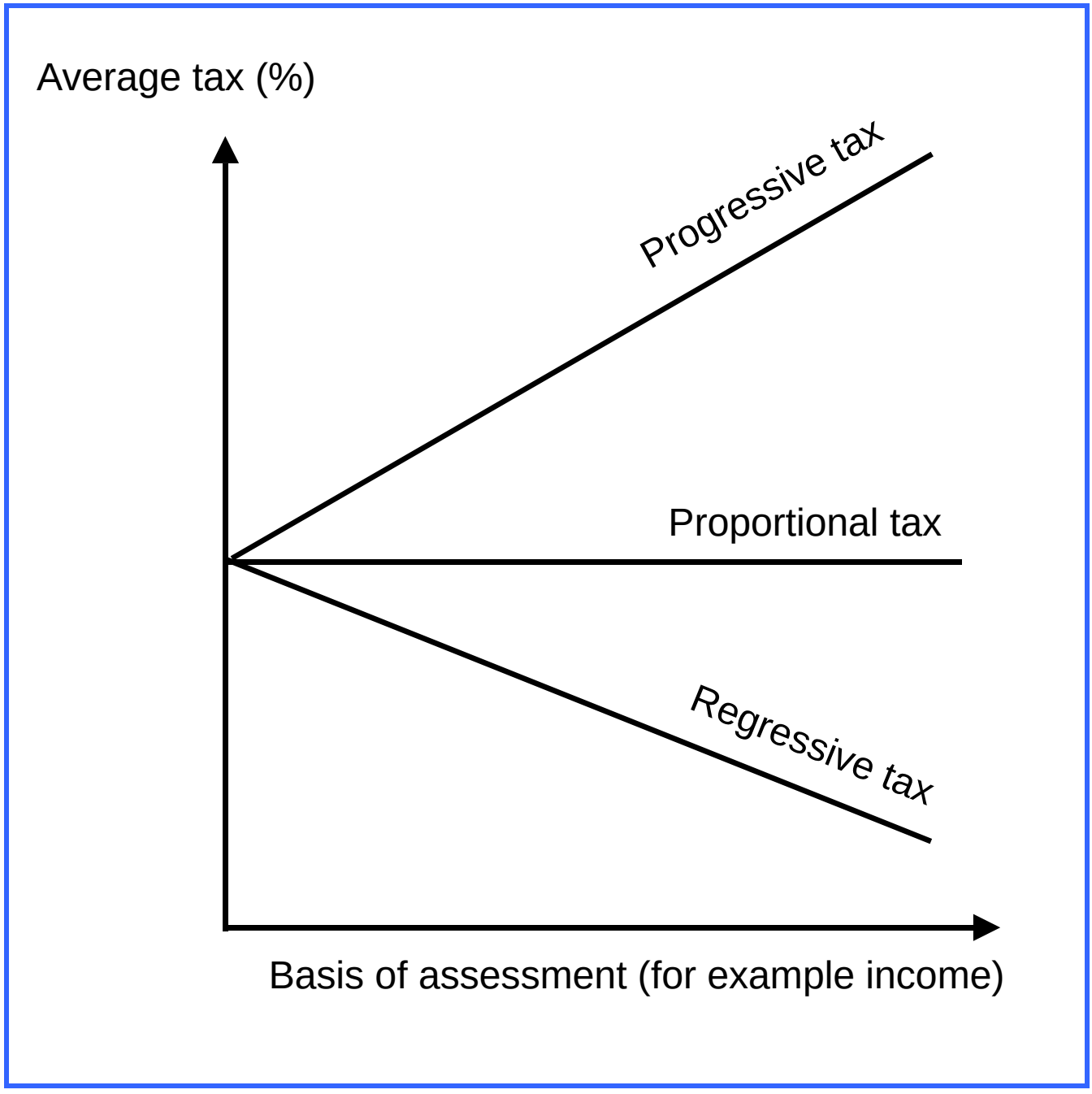
① Supply (S) over time



② Price elasticity of supply (e):

e short-term < e medium-term < e long-term

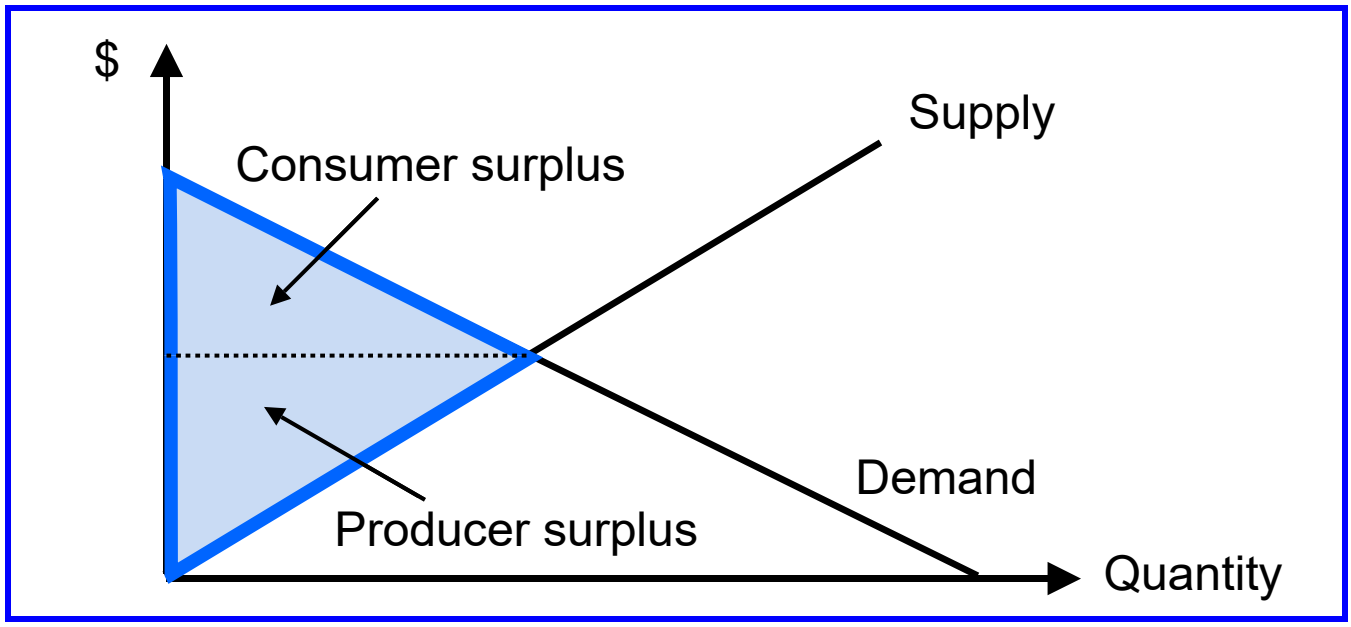
Tax - progressive, proportional and regressive



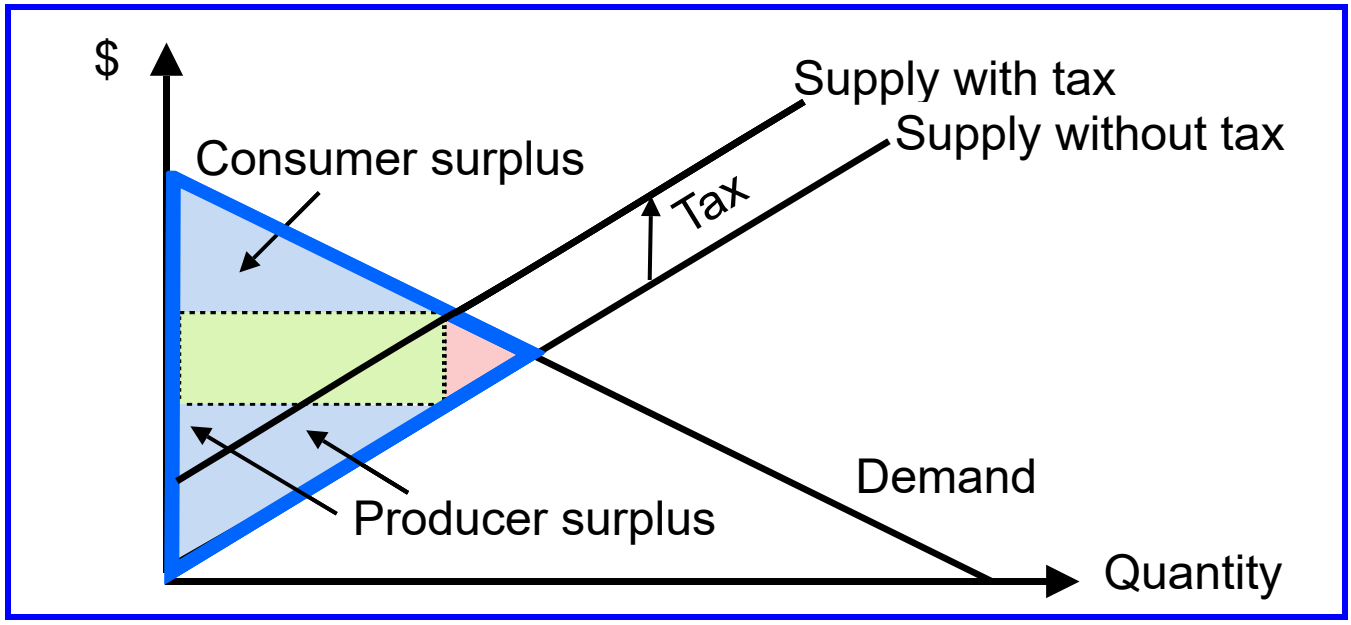
Tax and total surplus

Total surplus (SP) (social SP) = Consumer SP + producer SP

① Situation **without** tax



② Situation **with** tax (total surplus is reduced)

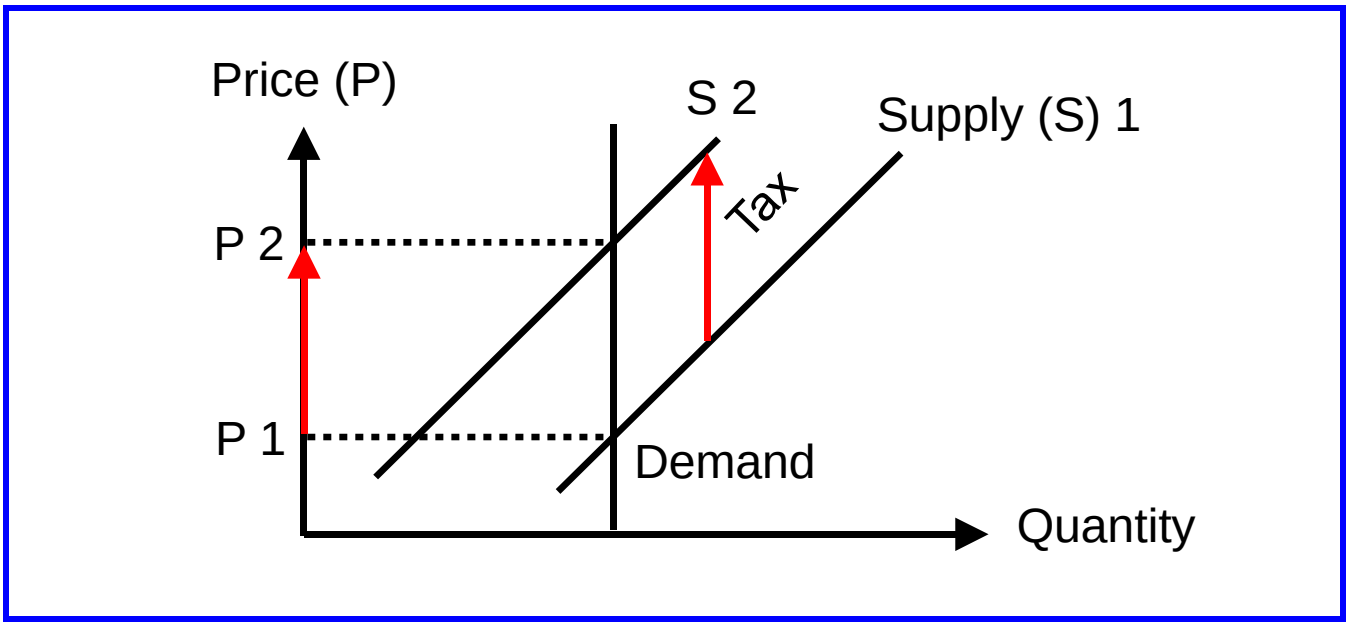


= Tax receipts

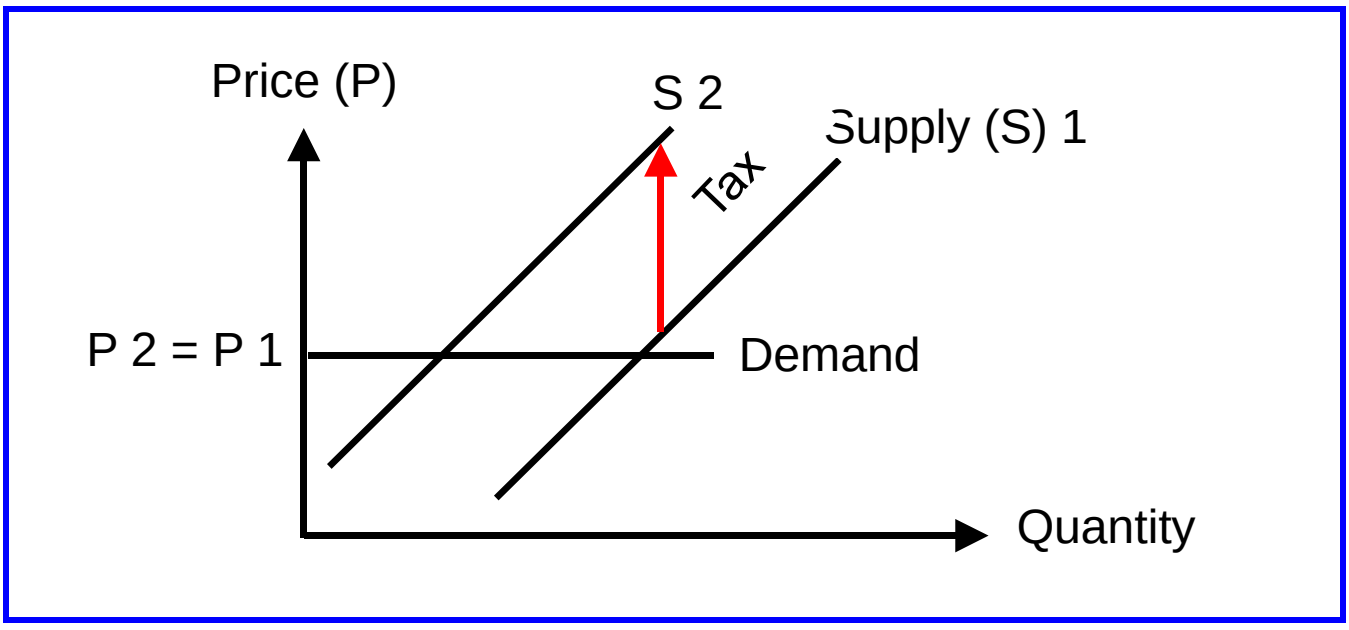
= Deadweight loss

Tax incidence - extreme cases

① The tax is borne entirely by the **buyer**.

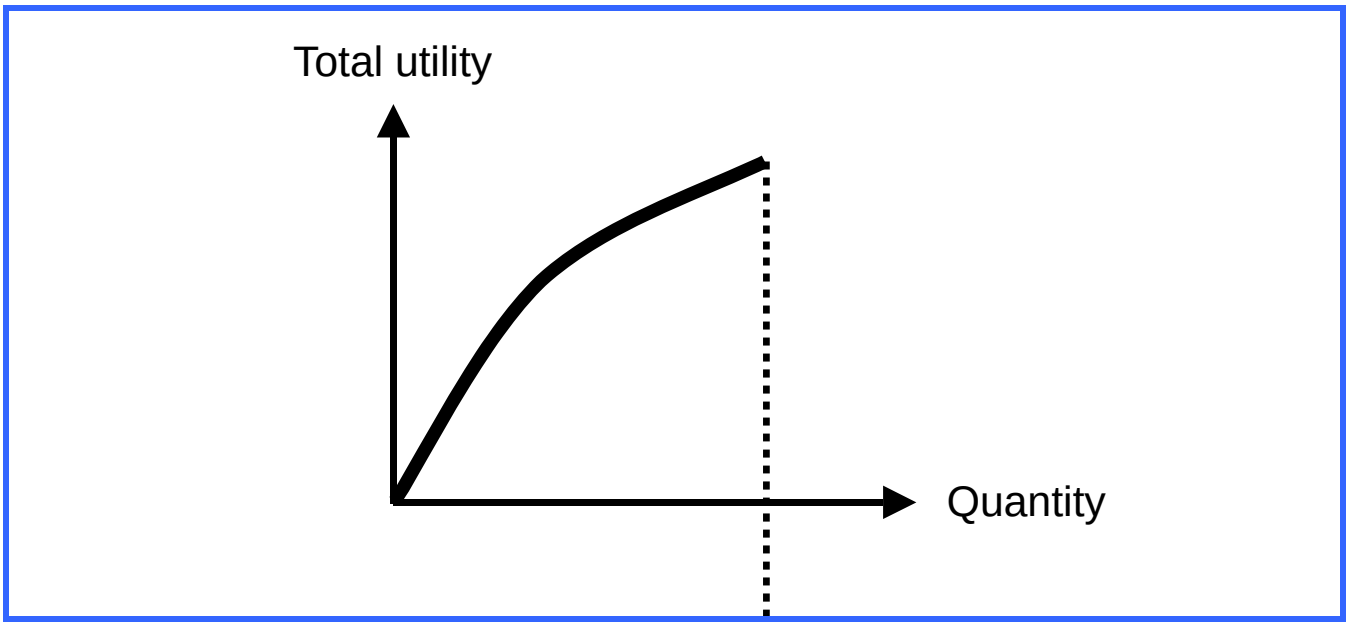


② The tax is borne entirely by the **seller.**

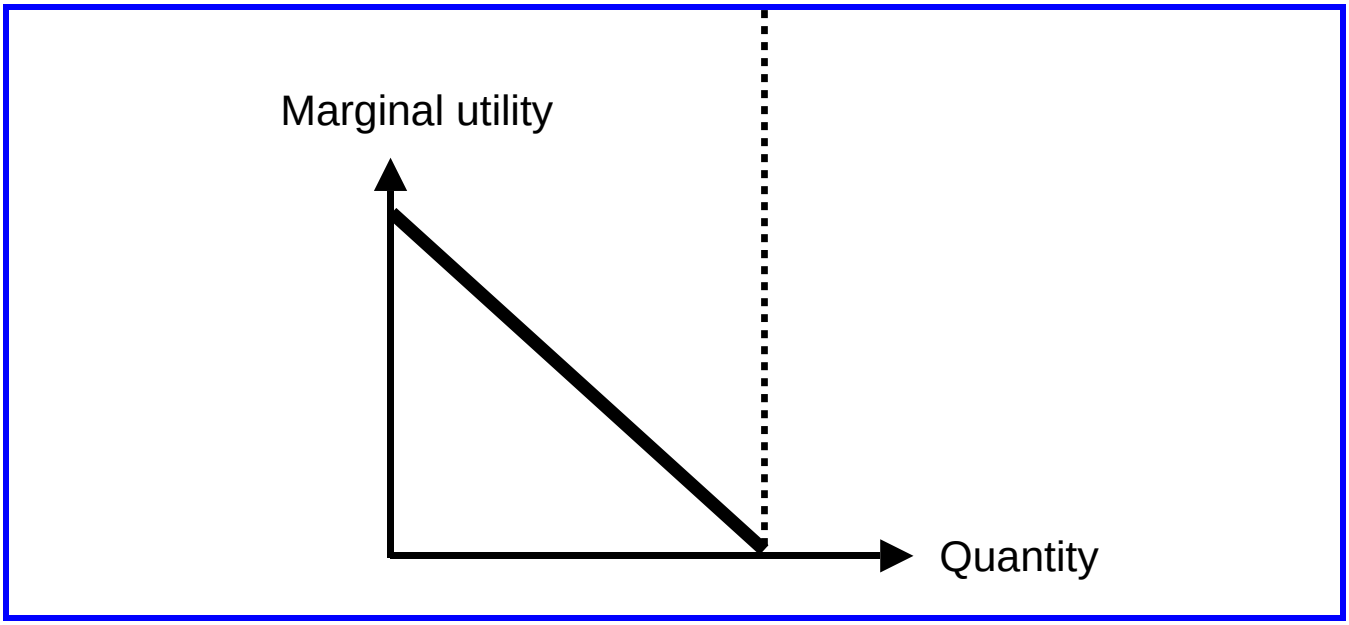


Utility - total and marginal

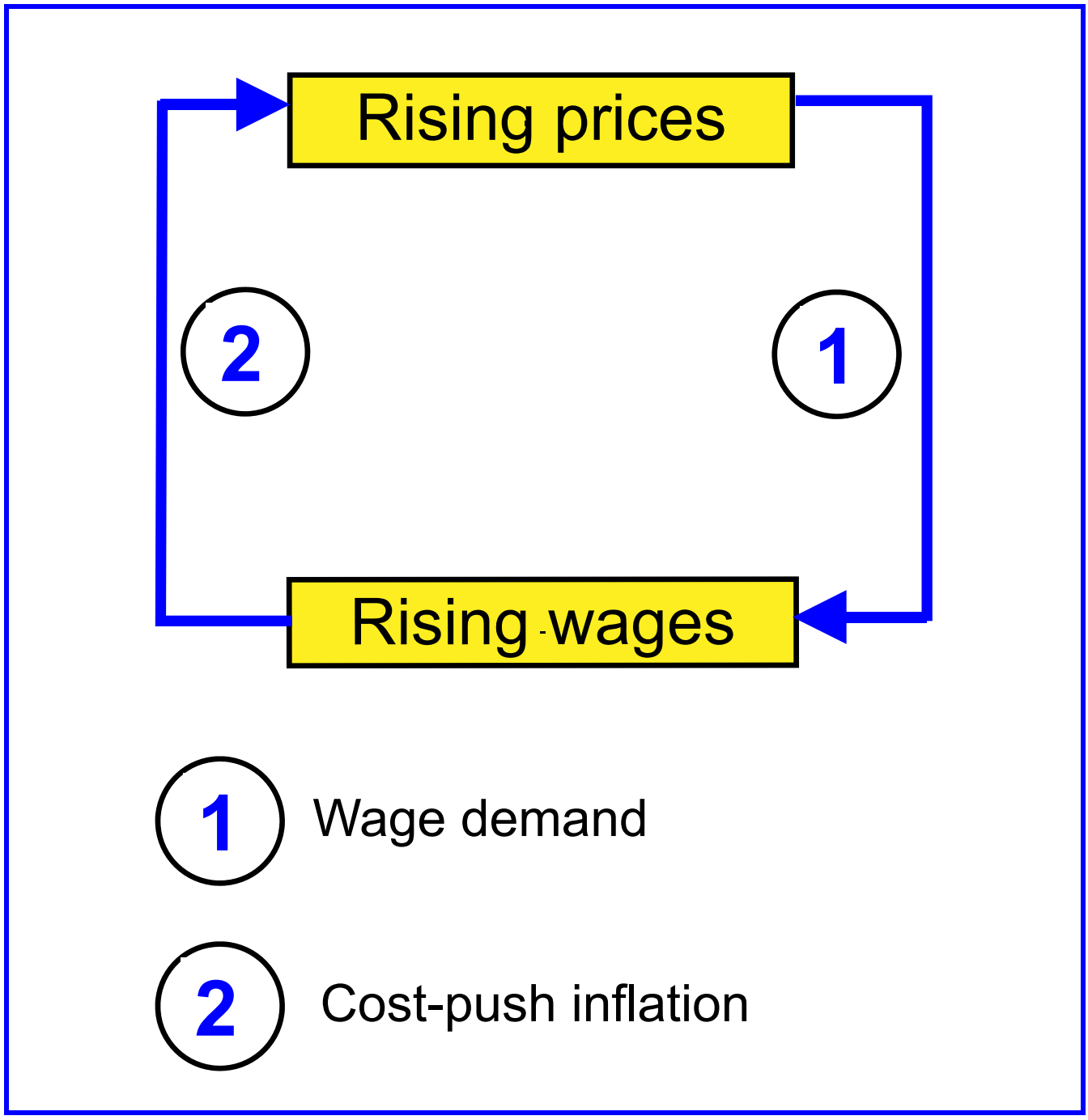
① **Total** utility



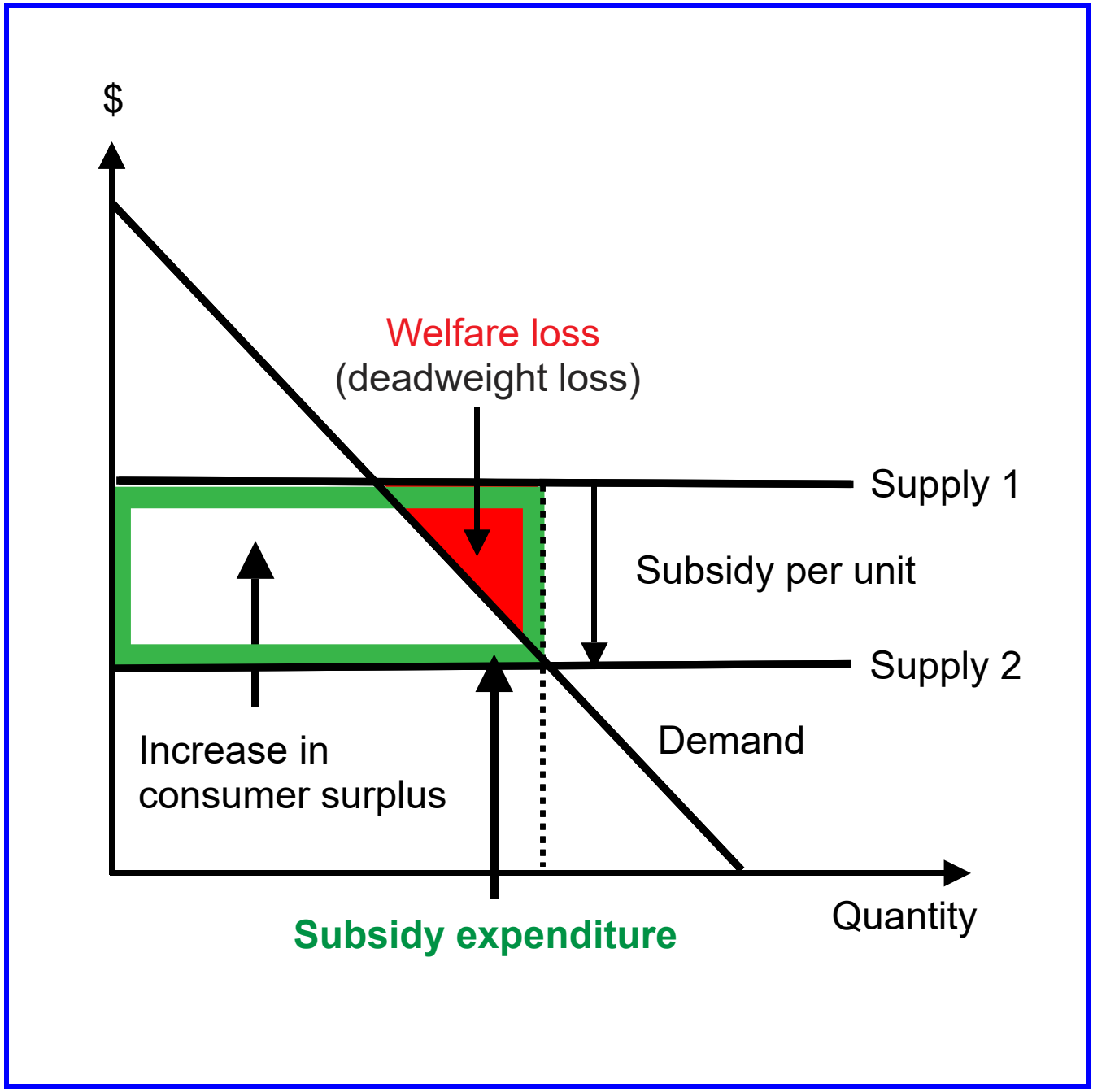
② **Marginal** utility



Wage price spiral



Welfare loss of a subsidy



Welfare loss of a tax