# Price Discrimination: Part 1

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"The textbook monopolist is a wasteful agent."

# 1 Pricing tactics

- Pigou's (1920) taxonomy of **price discrimination**:
  - First-degree (or perfect) price discrimination:
    - \* The producer discriminates across sold units and consumers captures the whole consumer surplus.
  - Second-degree price discrimination:

- \* Per-unit prices of the good differ, but these prices are the same for all consumers (e.g., quantity discounts).
- Third-degree price discrimination:
  - \* Per-unit prices of the good are the same for a given consumer, but different consumers pay different prices (e.g., student discounts).

## • Commodity bundling

## 2 Price discrimination

Definition 1 A producer price-discriminates when two units of the same physical good is sold at different prices, either to the same consumer or to different consumers.

- Note that the definition includes the quantity discount case ("buy 3 pay for 2").
- The possibility of price discrimination is closely linked to the possibility of arbitrage.

## 2.1 Arbitrage

• Transferability of the commodity (between consumers).

• Transferability of demand (between offered bundles).

# 3 Perfect price discrimination (1st degree)

• The monopolist succeeds in capturing the entire consumer surplus.

#### Version 1

- Each consumer demands one unit of the monopolist good,
- ullet Consumer i's willingness to pay for the good is  $v_i$ .
- The monopolist observes  $v_i$  and offers to sell a unit of the good to consumer i at the (individual) price  $p_i = v_i$ , leaving the consumer just indifferent.

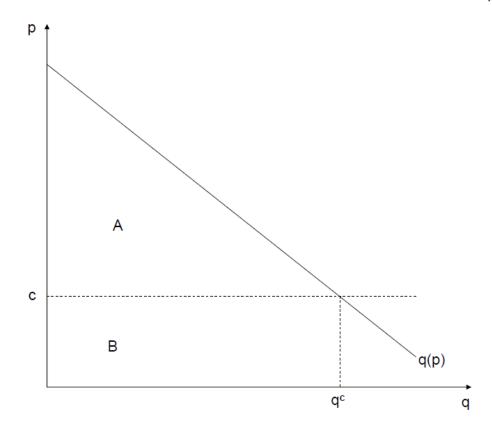
#### Version 2

- Assume there are a large number of identical consumers with downward sloping demand curves.
- Assume that the monopolist has a constant marginal cost c. (Fig. 1)
- 1. The monopolist can make a take-it-or-leave-it offer to sell  $q^c$  units to consumer i at the total price A+B. The consumer is just willing to accept.

or

- 2. The monopolist can set an access charge of A and then charge the price  $p^c=c$  for each unit sold. The consumer accepts to pay the access charge and buys  $q^c$  units.
- Perfect price discrimination gives the maximum possible profits to the monopolist, but it also requires a lot of information; he has to know the individual demands, and he must be able to prevent resale of the good
- Examples?

Fig 1



# 4 Multimarket price discrimination (3rd degree)

 Multimarket price discrimination refers to a situation where the monopolist can divide the market into m groups (or market segments) on the basis of some observed information and can charge a different prices to the different groups.

Requires that arbitrage between the groups is not possible.

## 4.1 Analysis

- Assume
  - two market segments with inverse demands equal to  $p_1\left(q_1\right)$  and  $p_2\left(q_2\right)$  respectively.
  - The firm has a general cost function  $C(q_1 + q_2)$ , where  $q_i$  is the amount sold in market i, i = 1, 2.
- The firm solve maximizes the total profits from the two market segments.

$$\max_{q_1,q_2} \{p_1(q_1)q_1 + p_2(q_2)q_2 - C(q_1 + q_2)\}.$$

• The optimal solution involves setting the marginal revenue in each market segment equal to the marginal cost:

$$MR_1(q_1) \equiv p_1(q_1) + p'_1(q_1) q_1 = C'(q_1 + q_2),$$

$$MR_2(q_2) \equiv p_2(q_2) + p'_2(q_2) q_2 = C'(q_1 + q_2).$$

• Note that this implies that  $MR_1(q_1) = MR_2(q_2)$ .

 Note also that the marginal revenue can be expressed in terms of the demand elasticity

$$MR_{i}(q_{i}) = p_{i}(q_{i}) + p'_{i}(q_{i}) q_{i}$$

$$= p_{i}(q_{i}) \left[ 1 + p'_{i}(q_{i}) \frac{q_{i}}{p_{i}(q_{i})} \right]$$

$$= p_{i}(q_{i}) \left[ 1 - \frac{1}{|\varepsilon_{i}(q_{i})|} \right].$$

where

$$\varepsilon_i(p_i) = \frac{dq_i}{dp_i} \frac{p_i}{q_i}.$$

• But then  $MR_1(q_1) = MR_2(q_2)$  implies that, across the two markets,

$$p_1\left[1-\frac{1}{|\varepsilon_1|}\right]=p_2\left[1-\frac{1}{|\varepsilon_2|}\right],$$

from which it follows that the monopolist sets a higher price in the market segment with least price elastic (sensitive) demand:

$$p_1 > p_2 \Leftrightarrow |\varepsilon_1| < |\varepsilon_2|$$
.

• Intuitively, if there two groups of beer consumers, heavy drinking guys and their female companions, the monopolist will charge the guys more (does this explain *ladies' nights*?)

# 5 Spot the discrimination

- Concert ticket price below equilibrium level
- Disneyland (entry fee + prices per ride)
- Bulk discounts in supermarket
- Student or senior prices for books, travel etc
- Cable or phone compay pricing packages
- Different prices for lunch or dinner at same restaurant

# 6 Welfare aspects of perfect- and multimarket price discrimination

### **Perfect price discrimination**

- Perfect price discrimination leads to an *efficient allocation* (the good is produced whenever the marginal willingness to pay exceeds the marginal cost).
- It does, however, have distributional effects (profits rather than consumer surplus).

#### Multi-market price discrimination

- Multi-market discrimination increases the monopolist's profits; however, the impact on aggregate efficiency is not clear.
- Does multi-market price discrimination lead to a more efficient allocation than non-discrimination?
- Sources of inefficiency under multi-market price discrimination:
  - 1. Output inefficiency: price exceeding marginal cost implies "too low output".
  - 2. Consumption inefficiency: Since consumer pay different prices, each consumer's marginal willingness to pay is not the same.

- If the monopolist does not discriminate, then only the first source of inefficiency is present, but this source *may then be more severe*. Figs. 2 and 3.
- The discriminating monopolist sets a price  $p_1$  in market 1 and price  $p_2$  in market 2. This causes a total deadweight loss equal to the sum of B and C.
- The non-discriminating monopolist sets a (single) price p and causes a deadweight loss equal to A.
- We cannot unambiguously say which deadweight loss (B+C or A) is larger.

#### • General rules of thumb:

- If discrimination increases total output, then discrimination may be good for efficiency.
- If non-discrimination leads to a price such that some group does not buy at all, then discrimination may be good.
- The closer imperfect price discrimination is to perfect price discrimination, the more likely it is that price-discrimination leads to a more efficient outcome. In other words, the better the signal allows the monopolist to sort consumers, the more likely it is that price-discrimination is good for efficiency.

Fig 2

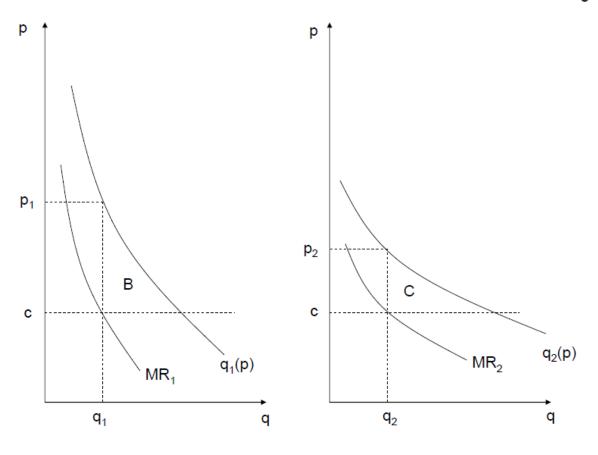
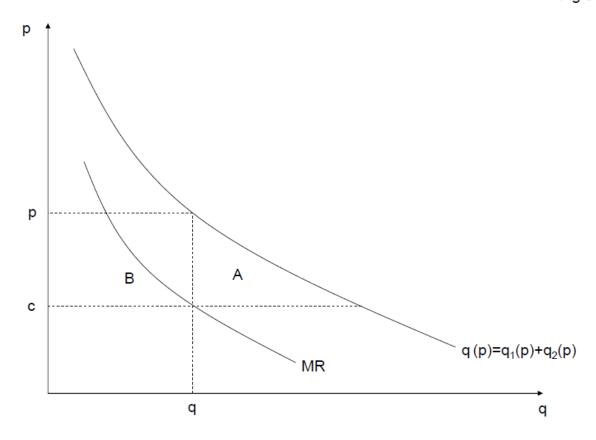


Fig 3



# 7 Screening: Introduction

- Suppose that the monopolist *does not receive any* signal of the consumer's demand (i.e. he cannot observe age etc.); he cannot tell the consumers apart—he only knows that there is heterogenous demand.
- Does this mean that the monopolist cannot do better than to charge a single price to all?
- The answer is in general no provided that arbitrage can be prevented.
- So what can he do? He can:

- Offer a menu of bundles to choose from.
- Take into account the possibility of "personal arbitrage".
- This will typically involve quantity-discounts. But we leave this for next lecture...

## 8 What to remember from this lecture

- What is price discrimination. How arbitrage can limit the scope for price discrimination.
- Forms of perfect price discrimination.
- Multimarket price discrimination and the inverse elasticity rule.
- Efficiency aspects of perfect and multimarket price discrimination.
- The problem of screening and the transferability of demand.