

Elasticity of Demand, Part 2

(DKent)

Calculating Price Elasticity of Demand

Introduction

When you learned the law of demand, you learned the basic direction of buyer behavior: other things held constant, a lower price tends to increase quantity demanded, while a higher price tends to reduce quantity demanded. Elasticity asks the next question you need as an economist: by how much does quantity demanded change when price changes? Price elasticity of demand gives you a way to measure that response, rather than simply describe it in general terms.¹

This matters because elasticity connects classroom theory to practical market decisions. Buyers determine whether demand is elastic or inelastic through their actual choices, but firms study those choices carefully. A seller thinking about raising price needs to know whether customers are likely to keep buying, reduce purchases only a little, or leave in large numbers. For that reason, elasticity is a demand concept, but it is also very important for pricing, revenue, market share, and business strategy.²

In this section, you will learn how to calculate price elasticity of demand in a clear and repeatable way. Keep three interpretation rules in front of you as you work: an elasticity coefficient less than 1 means inelastic demand, a coefficient equal to 1 means unit elastic demand, and a coefficient greater than 1 means elastic demand. Once those three rules are clear, the math becomes a tool for economic reasoning rather than a separate obstacle.

1. What the Calculation Measures

Price elasticity of demand measures the percentage responsiveness of quantity demanded to a percentage change in price. Economists use percentages instead of raw unit changes because percentages allow you to compare very different goods, prices, and markets. A ten-dollar price change on a household appliance is not the same as a ten-dollar price change on a cup of coffee. In the same way, a change of ten units has a different meaning when the product is automobiles than when the product is pounds of oranges. Percentages put price and quantity changes on a common scale.³

For demand, the ratio will usually be negative because price and quantity demanded move in opposite directions. To keep the interpretation simple, economists usually report the elasticity coefficient in absolute value. In practical terms, this means you should focus on the size of the number, not on the minus sign. Your goal is to classify the buyer response as inelastic, unit elastic, or elastic.⁴

Price Elasticity of Demand = | % change in quantity demanded / % change in price |

If quantity demanded changes more than price, demand is elastic.

If quantity demanded changes less than price, demand is inelastic.

If the two percentage changes are equal in size, demand is unit elastic.

2. Reading the Elasticity Number

After you calculate the coefficient, you should immediately interpret it. Do not stop with the number alone. The number matters because it tells you how strongly buyers responded to the price change.

Elasticity Coefficient	Classification	Interpretation
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Less than 1	Inelastic demand	Quantity demanded changes by a smaller percentage than price.
Equal to 1	Unit elastic demand	Quantity demanded changes by the same percentage as price.
Greater than 1	Elastic demand	Quantity demanded changes by a larger percentage than price.

You should memorize the interpretation rule exactly: less than 1 means inelastic, equal to 1 means unit elastic, and greater than 1 means elastic. These three statements are the core of this calculation. Once you find the coefficient, your next step is always to explain what that coefficient means in words.

3. Why Economists Use the Midpoint Method

When you calculate elasticity between two points on a demand curve, the safest method is the midpoint method. The midpoint method uses the average of the starting and ending values for both price and quantity. This is important because it gives the same elasticity whether you move from point A to point B or from point B back to point A. Without the midpoint method, the percentage change would depend on which point you treated as the starting point, and that would create unnecessary inconsistency.⁵

$$\% \text{ change in quantity demanded} = [(Q2 - Q1) / ((Q2 + Q1) / 2)] \times 100$$

$$\% \text{ change in price} = [(P2 - P1) / ((P2 + P1) / 2)] \times 100$$

$$\text{Elasticity of demand} = | (\% \text{ change in quantity demanded}) / (\% \text{ change in price}) |$$

The midpoint method does not change the economic meaning of elasticity. It simply standardizes the calculation. A reliable procedure is to calculate the percentage change in quantity first, calculate the percentage change in price second, divide the first percentage by the second, and then take the absolute value at the end. This routine helps you avoid most common mistakes.

4. Worked Example from a Demand Curve

Suppose you are given two points on a demand curve. At point A, quantity demanded is 3,000 and price is \$60. At point B, quantity demanded is 2,800 and price is \$70. This example shows a price increase from \$60 to \$70 and a fall in quantity demanded from 3,000 to 2,800. The purpose is not only to get a number. The purpose is to use that number to reach an economic conclusion.⁶

Step 1: Calculate the percentage change in quantity demanded.

The change in quantity is $2,800 - 3,000 = -200$. The average quantity is $(3,000 + 2,800) / 2 = 2,900$. Therefore, the percentage change in quantity demanded is $-200 / 2,900$, or about -6.9 percent. In absolute size, quantity demanded changed by about 6.9 percent.

Step 2: Calculate the percentage change in price.

The change in price is $\$70 - \$60 = \$10$. The average price is $(\$60 + \$70) / 2 = \$65$. Therefore, the percentage change in price is $\$10 / \65 , or about 15.4 percent.

Step 3: Divide and take the absolute value.

Now divide the percentage change in quantity demanded by the percentage change in price. The result is about $-6.9 \text{ percent} / 15.4 \text{ percent} = -0.45$. Taking the absolute value gives an elasticity coefficient of 0.45.

The correct interpretation is that demand over this range is **inelastic** because 0.45 is **less than 1**. You should state the conclusion in a complete sentence: because the elasticity coefficient is **less than 1**, quantity demanded changes by a smaller percentage than price, so demand is **inelastic**. That sentence shows more understanding than the number by itself.

5. Making the Classification Understandable

A helpful way to avoid confusion is to begin with the percentage comparison. If price changes by 10 percent and quantity demanded changes by only 4 percent, demand is inelastic because the quantity response is smaller than the price change. If price changes by 10 percent and quantity demanded also changes by 10 percent, demand is unit elastic because the two percentage changes are equal. If price changes by 10 percent and quantity demanded changes by 18 percent, demand is elastic because the quantity response is larger than the price change.

This way of speaking keeps the math connected to the meaning. The cutoff points - less than 1, equal to 1, and greater than 1 - are not arbitrary. They summarize how strongly buyers respond to a price change. That is why the concept belongs to demand, but it is also why suppliers and firms care about it. A seller considering a price increase needs to know whether buyers are likely to reduce purchases only a little or by a great deal.⁷

6. Why Firms and Suppliers Use Consumer Elasticity

Elasticity of demand is a demand-side measure because it records how buyers respond to price changes. Yet the decisions that follow from elasticity are often made by firms. If demand is inelastic, a higher price may reduce quantity sold, but not by very much; as a result, total revenue may rise. If demand is elastic, a higher price may cause such a large drop in quantity sold that total revenue falls. In that sense, buyers create the elasticity, but sellers study it because it affects revenue, pricing, and output decisions.⁸

This is one reason elasticity is so important in business economics. Managers, retailers, and producers do not simply want to know the direction of the demand response. They want to know the strength of that response. A coefficient of 0.45 and a coefficient of 1.60 imply very different pricing strategies, even though both examples still follow the law of demand.

7. Common Student Errors

The most common mistakes in elasticity calculations are easy to avoid once you know what to watch for:

- using raw unit changes instead of percentage changes;
- forgetting to use the midpoint method when moving between two points;
- keeping the negative sign and then misclassifying the result;
- reporting the coefficient without explaining what it means;
- confusing a change in demand with a movement along a demand curve.

A reliable routine is this: calculate the percentage change in quantity, calculate the percentage change in price, divide, take the absolute value, classify the coefficient, and then explain the classification in words. That sequence reduces errors and trains you to think economically as well as numerically.

Conclusion

Calculating price elasticity of demand is not just a math exercise. It is a disciplined way to measure how responsive buyers are to price changes. That measurement then helps firms understand the likely effects of pricing decisions. The central rule remains simple: less than 1 means inelastic demand, equal to 1 means unit elastic demand, and greater than 1 means elastic demand.

Once you can calculate the coefficient and explain it clearly, you are ready to connect elasticity to total revenue, business strategy, and broader market analysis. The most important habit is to finish every calculation with an economic interpretation. The number tells you the size of the response; your explanation tells what that response means.⁹

Endnotes

1. OpenStax, *Principles of Economics 3e* (Houston: OpenStax, 2022), chap. 5.1.
2. N. Gregory Mankiw, *Principles of Economics*, 10th ed. (Boston: Cengage, 2024), chap. 5.
3. OpenStax, *Principles of Economics 3e*, chap. 5.1; Robert S. Pindyck and Daniel L. Rubinfeld, *Microeconomics*, 9th ed. (Boston: Pearson, 2021), chap. 2.
4. OpenStax, *Principles of Economics 3e*, chap. 5.1.
5. OpenStax, *Principles of Economics 3e*, chap. 5.1.
6. The numerical example is adapted from the instructor's attached worksheet on calculating elasticity. See *Calculating Elasticity Part 2*, page 2. The interpretation follows standard textbook treatment in OpenStax, Mankiw, and Hubbard and O'Brien.
7. R. Glenn Hubbard and Anthony Patrick O'Brien, *Microeconomics*, 9th ed. (New York: Pearson, 2024), chap. 6.
8. Mankiw, *Principles of Economics*, chap. 5; Hal R. Varian and Marc J. Melitz, *Intermediate Microeconomics: A Modern Approach*, 9th ed. (New York: W. W. Norton, 2019), chap. 15.
9. Pindyck and Rubinfeld, *Microeconomics*, chap. 2; Hubbard and O'Brien, *Microeconomics*, chap. 6.

Bibliography

- Hubbard, R. Glenn, and Anthony Patrick O'Brien. *Microeconomics*. 9th ed. New York: Pearson, 2024.
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