# Microeconomics 3200/4200: Part 1

#### P. Piacquadio

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August 21, 2017

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# Outline



### Introduction

- Course outline
- Economic models
- An example

## Budget constraint

- Basic ingredients
- The budget set
- 3 Preferences
  - Definitions
  - Properties

# Utility

- The utility function
- Examples and MRS
- 5 Choice: utility maximization
  - The consumer's problem

- The Marshallian demand function
- The indirect utility function
- Example
- 6 Choice: cost minimization
  - The consumer's problem
  - The Hicksian demand function
  - The cost function
  - Example
- Duality relations and comparative statics
  - Duality relations
  - Comparative statics
- 8 Consumer's surplus
  - Consumer's surplus
  - Other measures

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## Course outline: part 1

- Part 1 is about microeconomics:
  - short introduction (Lecture 1);
  - consumer theory (Lectures 1-4);
  - partial equilibrium (Lecture 5);
  - production theory (Lectures 6-8);
  - uncertainty (Lecture 9).

Course outline: part 2

- Part 2 is about game theory (Lectures 10-16);
- with Professor Geir Asheim.

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### Seminars

- Seminar teachers are:
  - Torje Hegna (torje.hegna@econ.uio.no); and
  - Seongbong Hong (seongbong.hong@econ.uio.no).



- (Final) written examination on December 15th at 14:30 (3 hours).
- Compulsory assignment will be available in FRONTER:
  - 2 tests:
    - \* "micro," 3 Oct at 9:00 to Oct 5 at 15:00; and
    - $\star$  "game theory," 7 Nov at 9:00 to 9 Nov at 15:00.
  - each test consists of 10 multiple-choice questions;
  - to pass the compulsory assignment you must:
    - ★ submit answers to both tests;
    - ★ answer correctly 11/(10+10) questions.
- For more information, see course page.

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## Economic models

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  - Varian writes: "economics proceeds by developing models of social phenomena."
- Why models?
- Two basic principles:
  - optimization principle;
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  - optimization principle;
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## The optimization principle

#### • People try to do what is best for them, given the available alternatives.

#### • This is quite reasonable.

- The assumption tells that if Andrea decides to spend her savings on a new bike, it must be true that it is in her best interest to do so...
- ...given her information about the available alternatives, given her quantity of saving, given the prices of commodities, given what her friends decided to do, etc.

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# The equilibrium principle

#### • Prices adjust and ensure that the "demand" meets its "supply."

- This is somewhat more demanding.
- Sometimes prices adjust too slowly or too much. Sometimes other things happen before reaching the equilibrium, so that differences in demand and supply may increase.
- In general, however, the prices of most goods are fairly stable...so we accept the equilibrium principle.

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## An example: the rental market

#### • Let us look at the rental market around Blindern.

- We can start investigating the **demand side**:
  - How many students are willing to pay 15.000 NOK?
  - How many are willing to pay 14.000 NOK?
  - How many are willing to pay 13.000 NOK?
  - ▶ ...
- The **reservation price** is the largest price that each student would be willing to pay.
- This information can be summarized compactly in a graph.

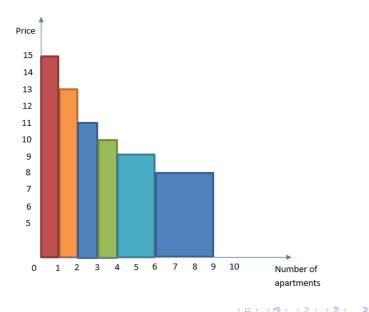
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### Illustration: demand curve



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### Few more assumptions

- To simplify and avoid jumps, we assume that:
  - there are many students looking to rent;
  - units are homogeneous (say 1-bedroom apartments).

#### • Then, it is safe to think of the demand curve as smooth.

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## Supply side

### • In the short run, the number of apartments for rent is fixed.

#### • Assume that:

- all students are equal: landlords only care about the rent price;
- rental market is flexible: if a new student comes and proposes a larger rent, the landlord can reassign the apartment;
- thus, all landlords will rent at the same price.
- Then, the **supply curve** is vertical.

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## Rental market equilibrium

#### • The equilibrium is defined by:

- the equilibrium number of apartments rented x\*; and
- the equilibrium price p\*.

#### • Why equilibrium?

- If price was p > p\*, then less apartment would be rented.
- ► The landlords with empty apartments would be willing to rent at a lower price p' < p.</p>
- Only when p = p\*, demand meets supply and an equilibrium is reached.

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### Comparative statics

- Increase in supply:
  - the supply curve shiftes to the right;
  - more apartments are available;
  - equilibrium price decreases.
- Some students jointly rent a house:
  - the demand curve shiftes to the left; and
  - fewer students are willing to rent 1-bedroom apartments;
  - equilibrium price decreases.

#### • Tax on rentals?

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## Consumption bundle

#### • There are two goods, good 1 and good 2.

• Andrea's consumption bundle is denoted  $x \equiv (x_1, x_2)$ .

- ► (x<sub>1</sub>, x<sub>2</sub>) is a vector, i.e. an ordered list of numbers where x<sub>1</sub> is the quantity of good 1 and x<sub>2</sub> is the quantity of good 2.
- (for simplicity) each number is a non-negative real number;
- goods are perfectly divisible and privatly appropriable;
- the consumption space is  $X \equiv \mathbb{R}^n_+$  with n = 2;
- for example, you can think of good 1 as milk and good 2 as a composite good representing everything else Andrea might want to purchase.

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## Consumption prices

- Each good has a price. Let  $\boldsymbol{p} \equiv (p_1, p_2)$  be the price vector.
  - ▶ (p<sub>1</sub>, p<sub>2</sub>) is another vector: p<sub>1</sub> is the price of good 1 and p<sub>2</sub> is the price of good 2.
- What is  $p_1 x_1$ ? it is the money Andrea spends to purchase  $x_1$  quantity of good 1 at price  $p_1$ .
- Similarly,  $p_2 x_2$  is the money Andrea spends to purchase  $x_2$  quantity of good 2 at price  $p_2$ .
- We say that  $(x_1, x_2)$  is **affordable** for Andrea if he has enough money *m* to purchase such bundle, that is, if:

 $p_1x_1+p_2x_2\leq m.$ 

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#### Budget set

• Then, the **budget set** is the set of all consumption bundles that Andrea can afford at prices  $(p_1, p_2)$  and income m. All  $(x_1, x_2)$  such that

$$p_1x_1+p_2x_2\leq m.$$

• The **budget line** is the frontier of the budget set. It is the set of all consumption bundles that Andrea can (exactly) buy when spending all her money *m*. All (*x*<sub>1</sub>, *x*<sub>2</sub>) such that

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#### Budget set

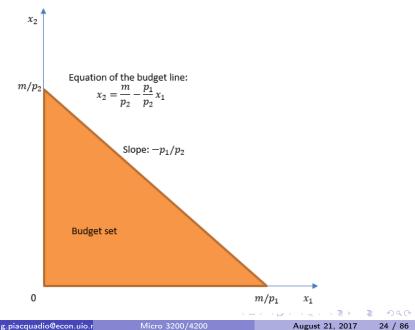
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### Budget set: illustration



#### • What happens when *m* increases?

• What happens when *p*<sub>1</sub> decreases?

- What happens with inflaction?
- What happens when changing currency?

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## Consumers' preferences

- When Andrea faces her budget set, she has a choice to make: which consumption bundle to choose?
- Building on the optimizing principle, the answer is: the bundle she prefers better.
- **Preferences**, denoted  $\succeq$ , capture this information:
  - we write  $(x_1, x_2) \gtrsim (x'_1, x'_2)$  if Andrea finds the consumption bundle  $(x_1, x_2)$  at least as desirable as the consumption bundle  $(x'_1, x'_2)$ ;
  - we write  $(x_1, x_2) \succ (x'_1, x'_2)$  if Andrea prefers  $(x_1, x_2)$  to  $(x'_1, x'_2)$
  - we write  $(x_1, x_2) \sim (x'_1, x'_2)$  if Andrea is indifferent between  $(x_1, x_2)$  and  $(x'_1, x'_2)$ .

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## Consumers' preferences

- When Andrea faces her budget set, she has a choice to make: which consumption bundle to choose?
- Building on the optimizing principle, the answer is: the bundle she prefers better.
- **Preferences**, denoted ≿, capture this information:
  - we write  $(x_1, x_2) \succeq (x'_1, x'_2)$  if Andrea finds the consumption bundle  $(x_1, x_2)$  at least as desirable as the consumption bundle  $(x'_1, x'_2)$ ;
  - we write  $(x_1, x_2) \succ (x'_1, x'_2)$  if Andrea prefers  $(x_1, x_2)$  to  $(x'_1, x'_2)$ ;
  - we write  $(x_1, x_2) \sim (x'_1, x'_2)$  if Andrea is indifferent between  $(x_1, x_2)$  and  $(x'_1, x'_2)$ .

# Relation between preference symbols

- If  $(x_1, x_2) \succeq (x'_1, x'_2)$ , but not  $(x_1, x_2) \sim (x'_1, x'_2)$ , then  $(x_1, x_2) \succ (x'_1, x'_2)$ .
- If  $(x_1, x_2) \succeq (x'_1, x'_2)$  and  $(x'_1, x'_2) \succeq (x_1, x_2)$ , then  $(x_1, x_2) \sim (x'_1, x'_2)$ .
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# Outline



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- An example
- 2 Budget constraint
  - Basic ingredients
  - The budget set



### Preferences

- Definitions
- Properties

# Utility

- The utility function
- Examples and MRS
- Choice: utility maximization
  - The consumer's problem

- The Marshallian demand function
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• Why imposing assumptions on preferences?

- eliminate unreasonable cases (i.e.  $(x_1, x_2) \succ (x'_1, x'_2)$  and  $(x'_1, x'_2) \succ (x_1, x_2)$ );
- obtain more far reaching results.
- **Complete.** For each pair of consumption bundles  $(x_1, x_2), (x'_1, x'_2) \in X$ , either
  - $(x_1, x_2) \succeq (x'_1, x'_2);$  or
  - $(x'_1, x'_2) \succeq (x_1, x_2);$  or
  - both (that is  $(x_1, x_2) \sim (x'_1, x'_2)$ ).

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  - $(x'_1, x'_2) \succeq (x_1, x_2);$  or
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• **Reflexive.** For each consumption bundle  $(x_1, x_2) \in X$ ,

 $\blacktriangleright (x_1, x_2) \succeq (x_1, x_2).$ 

- Transitive. For each triplet of consumption bundles  $(x_1, x_2), (x'_1, x'_2), (x''_1, x''_2) \in X$ ,
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- Consider the consumption bundle (x<sub>1</sub>, x<sub>2</sub>) ∈ X. The indifference curve through (x<sub>1</sub>, x<sub>2</sub>) is the set of all consumption bundles (x'<sub>1</sub>, x'<sub>2</sub>) ∈ X such that (x'<sub>1</sub>, x'<sub>2</sub>) ~ (x<sub>1</sub>, x<sub>2</sub>).
  - Indifference curves cannot cross;
  - preferences consist of all indifference curves.
- The upper-contour set at (x<sub>1</sub>, x<sub>2</sub>) is the set of all consumption bundles (x'<sub>1</sub>, x'<sub>2</sub>) ∈ X such that (x'<sub>1</sub>, x'<sub>2</sub>) ≿ (x<sub>1</sub>, x<sub>2</sub>).
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## Monotonicity

#### • Goods, bads, and neutral goods

Satiation

• **Monotonicity.** For each pair of consumption bundles  $(x_1, x_2), (x'_1, x'_2) \in X$ , if  $x_1 \ge x'_1$ ;  $x_2 \ge x'_2$ , and  $(x_1, x_2) \ne (x'_1, x'_2)$ , then  $(x_1, x_2) \succ (x'_1, x'_2)$ .

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#### Perfect substitutes

- Perfect complements
- Convexity. For each pair of consumption bundles  $(x_1, x_2), (x'_1, x'_2) \in X$ with  $(x_1, x_2) \sim (x'_1, x'_2)$  and each  $t \in [0, 1]$ ,

$$(tx_1+(1-t)x'_1, tx_2+(1-t)x'_2) \succeq (x_1, x_2).$$

• Strict convexity. For each pair of consumption bundles  $(x_1, x_2), (x'_1, x'_2) \in X$  with  $(x_1, x_2) \sim (x'_1, x'_2)$  and each  $t \in (0, 1)$ ,

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Image: A matrix

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# Marginal rate of substitution

- The marginal rate of substitution (MRS) expresses the rate at which a consumer, Andrea, is just willing to substitute a good for another one.
- This is a local concept!
- The MRS at  $(x_1, x_2)$  is the slope at  $(x_1, x_2)$  of the indifference curve through  $(x_1, x_2)$ .
- When is the MRS well-defined?
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## The concept

- Utility is a problematic name: its meaning changed over time and is still a big source of confusion.
  - some economists consider it as a measure of happiness or subjective well-being;
  - others take it as a different way to express the same information of preferences.
- We shall go with the second interpretation. A utility function U is a numerical representation of preferences ≿. Then, for each pair (x<sub>1</sub>, x<sub>2</sub>), (x'<sub>1</sub>, x'<sub>2</sub>) ∈ X:

 $(x_1, x_2) \succeq (x'_1, x'_2)$ IF and ONLY IF  $U(x_1, x_2) \ge U(x'_1, x'_2)$ 

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  - some economists consider it as a measure of happiness or subjective well-being;
  - others take it as a different way to express the same information of preferences.
- We shall go with the second interpretation. A utility function U is a numerical representation of preferences ≿. Then, for each pair (x<sub>1</sub>, x<sub>2</sub>), (x'<sub>1</sub>, x'<sub>2</sub>) ∈ X:

 $(x_1, x_2) \succeq (x'_1, x'_2)$ IF and ONLY IF  $U(x_1, x_2) \ge U(x'_1, x'_2)$ 

## Existence and uniqueness of a utility function

#### Theorem

If preferences  $\succeq$  are complete, transitive, and continuous, then there exists a continuous utility function U that represents  $\succeq$ .

#### Theorem

Assume preferences  $\geq$  are represented by a utility function U. Then, for each positive monotonic function f, V = f(U) also represents preferences  $\geq$ . That is, U is unique up to a positive monotonic transformation.

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### Examples of utility functions

• 
$$U(x_1, x_2) = x_1 x_2;$$
  
•  $U(x_1, x_2) = x_1^{\alpha} x_2^{1-\alpha}$  with  $\alpha \in [0, 1];$ 

• 
$$U(x_1, x_2) = ax_1 + bx_2$$
 with  $a, b > 0$ ;

• 
$$U(x_1, x_2) = \min[ax_1, bx_2]$$
 with  $a, b > 0$ ;

- $U(x_1, x_2) = x_1 + v(x_2)$  with v and increasing function;
- $U(x_1, x_2) = [a(x_1)^{\rho} + (1-a)x_2^{\rho}]^{\frac{1}{\rho}}$  with  $a \in [0,1]$  and  $\rho > 0$ .

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 $u + \Delta u = U(x_1 + \Delta x_1, x_2)$ 

• or, since  $u = U(x_1, x_2)$ ,

$$\Delta u = U(x_1 + \Delta x_1, x_2) - U(x_1, x_2).$$

• Now, divide both sides by  $\Delta x_1$ :

$$\frac{\Delta u}{\Delta x_1} = \frac{U(x_1 + \Delta x_1, x_2) - U(x_1, x_2)}{\Delta x_1}$$

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Marginal rate of substitution (See appendix Ch.4)

 The marginal rate of substitution of good 2 for good 1 was the change in good 2 Δx<sub>2</sub> that was needed to compensate an individual for a marginal change in good 1 Δx<sub>1</sub>.

• But the individual needs to remain indifferent, so

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## What is the optimal choice of the consumer?

- There are two ways to look at the problem.
  - maximizing utility for a given budget set;
  - minimizing the cost of reaching a certain satisfaction level.
- These problems are one the **dual** of the other.
- We will see that the optimal choices these two approaches identify are closely related to each other.

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## The utility maximization problem

• What is the consumption bundle  $(x_1^*, x_2^*)$  that maximizes the utility of Andrea, given prices  $(p_1, p_2)$  and money *m*?

• The problem can be written as follows:

$$\max_{\substack{(x_1, x_2) \in X \\ s.t.}} U(x_1, x_2)$$

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• First, write the Lagrangian of the maximization problem:  $\mathscr{L}(\mathbf{x}, \lambda; \mathbf{p}, m) = U(x_1, x_2) + \lambda [m - p_1 x_1 - p_2 x_2]$ (2)

• The FOCs require that there exists  $\lambda^* \ge 0$  such that:

$$MU_i(x_1^*, x_2^*) \le \lambda^* p_i \qquad \text{for each } i = 1,2 \tag{3}$$

$$m \ge p_1 x_1^* + p_2 x_2^* \tag{4}$$

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#### • Then, if U satisfies monotonicity, then

$$m = p_1 x_1^* + p_2 x_2^*.$$

• If  $x_1^*, x_2^* > 0$ , then  $MU_1(x_1^*, x_2^*) = \lambda^* p_1$  and  $MU_2(x_1^*, x_2^*) = \lambda^* p_2$ . Thus:

$$\frac{MU_1(x_1^*, x_2^*)}{MU_2(x_1^*, x_2^*)} = \frac{p_1}{p_2}$$
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$$MO_2(x_1, x_2) = p_2$$

Image: A matrix

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### Marshallian demand function

- The solution of the utility maximization problem is one (or more) consumption bundles. These depend on the prices  $(p_1, p_2)$  and money m.
- Assume there is a single optimum. Let D<sup>1</sup>(p<sub>1</sub>, p<sub>2</sub>, m) be the function that tells the optimal amount of good 1 for each prices and money. Let D<sup>2</sup>(p<sub>1</sub>, p<sub>2</sub>, m) be the function that tells the optimal amount of good 2 for each prices and money. These are the Marshallian (or ordinary or Walrasian or uncompensated) demand functions.

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• The few assumptions we made on preferences are far reaching. Completeness, transitivity, continuity, and strict convexity together imply that the Marshallian demand functions:

• are continuous in prices and money;

• are homogeneous of degree 0 with respect to prices and money;

• satisfy Walras' Law:  $p_1D^1(p_1, p_2, m) + p_2D^2(p_1, p_2, m) = m$ .

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## The indirect utility function

• Substituting the the solution of the utility maximization problem into the utility function gives the **indirect utility function**.

- It answers the following question: what is the maximum amount of utility one can reach by choosing optimally the consumption bundle with prices (*p*<sub>1</sub>, *p*<sub>2</sub>) and money *m*?
- It is thus a function of prices  $(p_1, p_2)$  and money m:

 $V(p_1, p_2, m) \equiv U(D^1(p_1, p_2, m), D^2(p_1, p_2, m)).$ 

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# Utility

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  - The consumer's problem

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## Example 1

• 
$$U(x_1, x_2) = x_1 x_2$$
.

- Be smart! Use the equivalent (why?) utility function  $\bar{U}(x_1, x_2) = \ln x_1 + \ln x_2$ .
- L(x,λ; p, m) = ln x<sub>1</sub> + ln x<sub>2</sub> + λ [m p<sub>1</sub>x<sub>1</sub> p<sub>2</sub>x<sub>2</sub>];
  FOCs:

• 
$$M\bar{U}_1(x_1^*, x_2^*) = \frac{1}{x_1^*} \le \lambda^* p_1;$$

• 
$$M\bar{U}_1(x_1^*,x_2^*) = \frac{1}{x_2^*} \le \lambda^* p_2;$$

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## Example 1...

• By monotonicity of  $\overline{U}$ :  $m = p_1 x_1^* + p_2 x_2^*$ .

• Since  $x_1^*, x_2^* > 0$  (why?),

$$\frac{\frac{1}{x_1^*}}{\frac{1}{x_2^*}} = \lambda^* p_2$$

• Take the ratio of these two ( $\lambda^*$  cancels out):

$$\frac{x_2^*}{x_1^*} = \frac{p_1}{p_2},$$

or, equivalently,  $x_2^* = \frac{p_1}{p_2} x_1^*$ .

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Image: A matrix

# Example 1.....

• Substitute in the budget line and solve:

$$m = p_1 x_1^* + p_2 \cdot \frac{p_1}{p_2} x_1^*$$
$$D^1(p_1, p_2, m) = x_1^* = \frac{1}{2} \frac{m}{p_1}$$

• Since  $\frac{1}{2}m$  is optimally spent for  $x_1^*$ , the other half is spent for  $x_2^*$ :

$$D^2(p_1, p_2, m) = x_2^* = \frac{1}{2} \frac{m}{p_2}.$$

• The indirect utility function is:

$$V(p_1, p_2, m) = D^1(p_1, p_2, m) \cdot D^2(p_1, p_2, m) = \frac{1}{4} \frac{m^2}{p_1 p_2}$$

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#### More examples

- $U(x_1, x_2) = ax_1 + bx_2$ .
- $U(x_1, x_2) = \min[ax_1, bx_2].$
- Be smart! Draw the utility functions to understand what you are dealing with! Here, the Lagrangian method is not the way to go!

#### More examples

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### The cost minimization problem

- What is the consumption bundle  $(x_1^*, x_2^*)$  that minimizes the money spent by Andrea, given prices  $(p_1, p_2)$  and a goal level of utility  $u \le U(x_1^*, x_2^*)$ ?
- The problem can be written as follows:

 $\min_{\substack{(x_1, x_2) \in X \\ s.t.}} p_1 x_1 + p_2 x_2 \\ s.t. \quad u \le U(x_1^*, x_2^*)$ 

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• The graphic solution is....

• First, write the Lagrangian of the minimization problem:  $\mathscr{L}(\mathbf{x}, \lambda; \mathbf{p}, u) = p_1 x_1 + p_2 x_2 + \lambda [u - U(x_1, x_2)]$ (7) • The FOCs require that there exists  $\lambda^* \ge 0$  such that:  $p_i \ge \lambda^* M U_i(x_1^*, x_2^*)$  for each i = 1, 2 (8)  $u \le U(x_1^*, x_2^*)$  (9)

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• The FOCs require that there exists  $\lambda^* \ge 0$  such that:

$$p_i \ge \lambda^* MU_i(x_1^*, x_2^*)$$
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$$u \le U(x_1^*, x_2^*)$$
 (9)

#### • Then, if U satisfies monotonicity and $p_1, p_2 > 0$ , then

$$u=U(x_1^*,x_2^*).$$

• If  $x_1^*, x_2^* > 0$ , then  $p_1 = \lambda^* M U_1(x_1^*, x_2^*)$  and  $p_2 = \lambda^* M U_2(x_1^*, x_2^*)$ . Thus:  $M U_1(x_1^*, x_2^*) = p_1$ 

$$\frac{MU_1(x_1^*, x_2^*)}{MU_2(x_1^*, x_2^*)} = \frac{p_1}{p_2}$$
(10)

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• and, for interior solutions, MRS equals goods price ratio!!!

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# Hicksian demand function

- The solution of the cost minimization problem is one (or more) consumption bundles. These depend on the prices  $(p_1, p_2)$  and the utility level u.
- Assume there is a single optimum. Let  $H^1(p_1, p_2, u)$  be the function that tells the optimal amount of good 1 for each prices and utility level. Let  $H^2(p_1, p_2, u)$  be the function that tells the optimal amount of good 2 for each prices and utility level. These are the **Hicksian** (or compensated) **demand functions**.

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• *Completeness, transitivity, continuity,* and *strict convexity* together imply that the Hicksian demand functions:

are continuous in prices and utility;

• are homogeneous of degree 1 with respect to prices;

• satisfy:  $U(H^1(p_1, p_2, u), H^2(p_1, p_2, u)) = u$ .

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# The cost function

• The **cost function** is the cost of the consumption bundle(s) that solves the cost minimization problem.

- It answers the following question: what is the amount of money needed to choose optimally a consumption bundle that achieves the utility level *u* at prices (*p*<sub>1</sub>, *p*<sub>2</sub>)?
- Thus, the cost function depends on the prices (*p*<sub>1</sub>, *p*<sub>2</sub>) and the utility level *u*:

$$C(p_1, p_2, u) \equiv p_1 H^1(p_1, p_2, u) + p_2 H^2(p_1, p_2, u)$$

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• *Completeness, transitivity, continuity,* and *strict convexity* together imply that the cost function:

- is non-decreasing in all consumption good prices are strictly increasing in at least one;
- is concave in prices;
- is homogeneous of degree 1 in prices;
- ► satisfies:  $\frac{\partial C(p_1,p_2,u)}{\partial p_i} = H^i(p_1,p_2,u)$  with i = 1,2;
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 $u \leq U(x_1, x_2) \Leftrightarrow \ln u \leq \ln x_1 + \ln x_2$ 

L(x, λ; p, u) = p<sub>1</sub>x<sub>1</sub> + p<sub>2</sub>x<sub>2</sub> + λ [ln u - ln x<sub>1</sub> - ln x<sub>2</sub>];
FOCs:

*p*<sub>1</sub> ≥ λ\* 
$$\frac{1}{x_1^*}$$
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# Example 1

• 
$$U(x_1, x_2) = x_1 x_2$$
.

• You can use again the equivalent function  $\overline{U}(x_1, x_2) = \ln x_1 + \ln x_2$ . But:

 $u \leq U(x_1, x_2) \Leftrightarrow \ln u \leq \ln x_1 + \ln x_2$ 

• 
$$\mathscr{L}(\mathbf{x}, \lambda; \mathbf{p}, u) = p_1 x_1 + p_2 x_2 + \lambda [\ln u - \ln x_1 - \ln x_2];$$
  
• FOCs:

▶ 
$$p_1 \ge \lambda^* \frac{1}{x_1^*};$$
  
▶  $p_2 \ge \lambda^* \frac{1}{x_2^*};$   
▶  $\ln u \le \ln x_1^* + \ln x_2^*.$ 

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# Example 1...

- By monotonicity of  $\overline{U}$  and  $p_1, p_2 > 0$ :  $\ln u = \ln x_1^* + \ln x_2^*$ .
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• By monotonicity of  $\overline{U}$  and  $p_1, p_2 > 0$ :  $\ln u = \ln x_1^* + \ln x_2^*$ . • Since  $x_1^*, x_2^* > 0$  (why?),

$$p_1 = \lambda^* \frac{1}{x_1^*}$$
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Image: A matrix

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• Substitute in the utility constraint and solve:

$$\ln u = \ln x_1^* + \ln \left[\frac{p_1}{p_2} x_1^*\right]$$
$$H^1(p_1, p_2, u) = x_1^* = \sqrt{\frac{p_2}{p_1}} u$$
$$\text{Since } x_2^* = \frac{p_1}{p_2} x_1^*:$$
$$H^2(p_1, p_2, u) = x_2^* = \sqrt{\frac{p_1}{p_2}} u.$$

• The cost function is:

$$C(p_1, p_2, u) = p_1 H^1(p_1, p_2, u) + p_2 H^2(p_1, p_2, u)$$
  
=  $2\sqrt{p_1 p_2 u}$ 

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# Outline



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- Course outline
- Economic models
- An example
- 2 Budget constraint
  - Basic ingredients
  - The budget set
- 3 Preference
  - Definitions
  - Properties

# Utility

- The utility function
- Examples and MRS
- Choice: utility maximization
  - The consumer's problem

- The Marshallian demand function
- The indirect utility function
- Example
- 6 Choice: cost minimization
  - The consumer's problem
  - The Hicksian demand function
  - The cost function
  - Example
- Duality relations and comparative statics

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- Duality relations
- Comparative statics
- 8 Consumer's surplus
  - Consumer's surplus
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#### • How are demands, indirect utility, and cost function related?

- $H^{i}(p_{1}, p_{2}, u) = D^{i}(p_{1}, p_{2}, C(p_{1}, p_{2}, u));$
- $D^{i}(p_{1}, p_{2}, m) = H^{i}(p_{1}, p_{2}, V(p_{1}, p_{2}, m));$
- $V(p_1, p_2, C(p_1, p_2, u)) = u;$
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- Having a solution for each prices and each level of money allows us to study what happens when changing these parameters of the decision problem.
- We start with a change of the money level: how does the Marshallian demand change when money changes?

• if 
$$\frac{\partial D'}{\partial m} \ge 0$$
, then *i* is a **normal good**.

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## Price effects

- What happens on the demand of good *i* when the price of good *j* changes?
- Let us start from our previous observation that:

$$H^{i}(\mathbf{p}, u) = D^{i}(\mathbf{p}, C(\mathbf{p}, u))$$

• Take the derivative w.r.t. *p<sub>j</sub>*:

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### Price effects...

• But since 
$$x_j^* = \frac{\partial C(\mathbf{p}, v)}{\partial p_j} = C_j(\mathbf{p}, u)$$
, we get the Slutsky equation:  
 $D_j^i(\mathbf{p}, m) = H_j^i(\mathbf{p}, v) - x_j^* D_m^i(\mathbf{p}, m)$ 

• The total effect of a price change  $D_j^i(\mathbf{p}, m)$  is the sum of a substitution effect  $H_i^i(\mathbf{p}, v)$  and an income effect  $-x_i^* D_m^i(\mathbf{p}, m)$ .

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- To repeat, if  $D_m^i(\mathbf{p}, m)$  is negative, the ordinary demand for good *i* is decreasing with income: then *i* is an **inferior good**.
- If  $D_m^i(\mathbf{p}, m)$  is non-negative, the ordinary demand for good *i* is non-decreasing with income: then *i* is a **normal good**.

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## Substitution effects

• 
$$H_{j}^{i}(\mathbf{p}, \mathbf{v}) = \frac{\partial \frac{\partial C(\mathbf{p}, \mathbf{v})}{\partial p_{i}}}{\partial p_{j}} \equiv C_{ij}(\mathbf{p}, \mathbf{v}) = C_{ji}(\mathbf{p}, \mathbf{v}) \equiv \frac{\partial \frac{\partial C(\mathbf{p}, \mathbf{v})}{\partial p_{j}}}{\partial p_{i}} = H_{i}^{j}(\mathbf{p}, \mathbf{v})$$

• Thus: the substitution effects are symmetric!

- If H<sup>i</sup><sub>j</sub> (p, v) > 0, goods i and j are net substitutes: an increase in price of good j increases the Hicksian demand for good i.
- If H<sup>i</sup><sub>j</sub> (p, v) < 0, goods i and j are net complements: an increase in price of good j decreases the Hicksian demand for good i.</li>

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- If H<sup>i</sup><sub>j</sub>(**p**, v) < 0, goods i and j are **net complements**: an increase in price of good j **decreases** the Hicksian demand for good i.

# The own price effect

• We can look at the effect of a variation of the price of good *i* on the demand of good *i*:

$$D_i^i(\mathbf{p},m) = H_i^i(\mathbf{p},v) - x_i^* D_m^i(\mathbf{p},m)$$

- By the concavity of the cost function  $H_i^i(\mathbf{p}, v) = C_{ii}(\mathbf{p}, v) < 0$ .
- What about the income effect? the income effect can be both positive or negative.
- If both D<sup>i</sup><sub>m</sub>(**p**, m) < 0 (inferior good) and x<sup>\*</sup><sub>i</sub>D<sup>j</sup><sub>m</sub>(**p**, m) < H<sup>i</sup><sub>i</sub>(**p**, v) < 0, then the negative income effect dominates the substitution effect and the total effect is positive, i.e. D<sup>i</sup><sub>i</sub>(**p**, m) > 0: increasing the price of good *i* increases the demand of good *i*. Then *i* is a Giffen good.
- If i is a normal good, D<sup>i</sup><sub>i</sub>(p, m) < 0: demand decreases when the price increases.

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# The own price effect

• We can look at the effect of a variation of the price of good *i* on the demand of good *i*:

$$D_i^i(\mathbf{p},m) = H_i^i(\mathbf{p},v) - x_i^* D_m^i(\mathbf{p},m)$$

- By the concavity of the cost function  $H_i^i(\mathbf{p}, v) = C_{ii}(\mathbf{p}, v) < 0$ .
- What about the income effect? the income effect can be both positive or negative.
- If both D<sup>i</sup><sub>m</sub>(**p**, m) < 0 (inferior good) and x<sup>\*</sup><sub>i</sub>D<sup>i</sup><sub>m</sub>(**p**, m) < H<sup>i</sup><sub>i</sub>(**p**, v) < 0, then the negative income effect dominates the substitution effect and the total effect is positive, i.e. D<sup>i</sup><sub>i</sub>(**p**, m) > 0: increasing the price of good *i* increases the demand of good *i*. Then *i* is a Giffen good.
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# Outline



#### Introduction

- Course outline
- Economic models
- An example
- 2 Budget constraint
  - Basic ingredients
  - The budget set
- 3 Preference
  - Definitions
  - Properties

# Utility

- The utility function
- Examples and MRS
- Choice: utility maximization
  - The consumer's problem

- The Marshallian demand function
- The indirect utility function
- Example
- 6 Choice: cost minimization
  - The consumer's problem
  - The Hicksian demand function
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  - Example
- Ouality relations and comparative statics

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- Duality relations
- Comparative statics
- 8 Consumer's surplus
  - Consumer's surplus
  - Other measures

• Assume price of good 1 decreases from  $\bar{p}_1$  to  $p'_1$ . How to measure the benefit of the price change on a consumer?

• graphically.

- Algebraically. Using the consumer's surplus CS.
- The consumer's surplus at prices  $\bar{p}_1$  is:

$$CS(\bar{p}_1,p_2,m) = \int_{\bar{p}_1}^{\infty} D^i(p_1,p_2,m) dp_1.$$

$$\Delta CS = CS(\bar{p}_1, p_2, m) - CS(p'_1, p_2, m) = \int_{p'_1}^{\bar{p}_1} D^1(p_1, p_2, m) dp_1.$$

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# 2 further measures: compensated variation

- What is the money change that would make the consumer indifferent between the "initial" consumption D<sup>1</sup> (p
  <sub>1</sub>, p<sub>2</sub>, m), D<sup>2</sup> (p
  <sub>1</sub>, p<sub>2</sub>, m) and a consumption bundle at prices p<sub>1</sub>'?
- the compensated variation CV is such that

$$v = V\left(p_1', p_2, m - CV
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;

$$CV\left(\bar{p}_{1}\rightarrow p_{1}'\right)=C\left(\bar{p}_{1},p_{2},v\right)-C\left(p_{1}',p_{2},v\right).$$

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$$CV(\bar{p}_1 \to p'_1) = C(\bar{p}_1, p_2, v) - C(p'_1, p_2, v).$$

2 further measures: equivalent variation

- What is the money change that would make the consumer indifferent between the "final" consumption D<sup>1</sup>(p'<sub>1</sub>, p<sub>2</sub>, m), (p'<sub>1</sub>, p<sub>2</sub>, m) and a consumption bundle at prices p
  <sub>1</sub>?
- the equivalent variation EV is such that

$$v' = V(\bar{p}_1, p_2, m + EV);$$

$$EV\left(\mathbf{p}\rightarrow\mathbf{p}'\right)=C\left(\bar{p}_{1},p_{2},v'\right)-C\left(p_{1}',p_{2},v'\right).$$

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