# MAT395 Independent Reading in Mathematical Economics

Individual Decision Making, Market Equilibrium, Market Failure, and Other Topics.

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# 1 Chapter 1. Preference and Choice

#### 1.1 Preference Relations

#### Definition 1.1.

(i) The **strict preference** relation,  $\succ$ , is defined by

$$x \succ y \iff x \succsim y \land \neg(y \succsim x) \tag{1.1}$$

(ii) The **indifference** relation,  $\sim$ , is defined by

$$x \sim y \iff x \succsim y \land y \succsim x$$
 (1.2)

**Definition 1.2** (1.B.1). The preference relation  $\succeq$  is **rational** if it possesses the following two properties

(i) Completeness

$$\forall x, y \in X, \ x \succsim y \lor y \succsim x \tag{1.3}$$

(ii) Transitivity

$$\forall x, y, z \in X, \ x \succsim y \land y \succsim z \implies x \succsim z \tag{1.4}$$

**Proposition 1.1** (1.B.1). If  $\succeq$  is rational, then

- (i)  $\succ$  is both **reflexive**  $(\neg x \succ x)$  and **transitive**  $(x \succ y \land y \succ z \implies x \succ z)$ ;
- (ii)  $\sim$  is both **reflexive** and **transitive**;
- (iii)  $x \succ y \succsim z \implies x \succ z$ .

Example 1.1. Typical scenarios when transitivity of preference is violated:

- (i) Just perceptible differences;
- (ii) Framing problem;
- (iii) Observed preference might from the result of the interaction of several more primitive rational preferences (Condorcet paradox);
- (iv) Change of tastes.

**Definition 1.3** (1.B.2). A function  $u: X \to \mathbb{R}$  is a **utility function representing preference relation**  $\succeq$  if

$$\forall x, y \in X, \ x \succsim y \iff u(x) \ge u(y) \tag{1.5}$$

**Proposition 1.2** (1.B.2). If a preference relation  $\succeq$  can be represented by a utility function, then  $\succeq$  is rational.

#### 1.2 Choice Rules

**Definition 1.4.** A choice structure,  $(\mathcal{B}, C(\cdot))$ , is a tuple consists of

- (i) The collection of **budget sets**  $\mathcal{B}$ , which is a set of nonempty subsets of X.
- (ii) The **choice rule**,  $C(B) \subset B$ , is a *correspondence* for every  $B \subset \mathcal{B}$  denotes the individual's choice from among the alternatives in B. If C(B) is not a singleton, it can be interpreted as the *acceptable alternatives* in B, which the individual would actually chosen if the decision-making process is run repeatedly.

**Definition 1.5** (1.C.1). The choice structure  $(\mathcal{B}, C(\cdot))$  satisfies the **weak axiom of revealed preference** if

$$\left(\underbrace{\exists B \in \mathscr{B} \ s.t. \ x, y \in B \land x \in C(B)}_{x \succsim *y \text{ revealed.}}\right) \implies \left(\forall B' \in \mathscr{B} \ s.t. \ x, y \in B', \ y \in C(B') \implies x \in C(B')\right)$$
(1.6)

**Definition 1.6.** Given a choice structure  $(\mathcal{B}, C(\cdot))$ , the **revealed preference relation**  $\succeq^*$  is defined as

$$x \succsim^* y \iff \exists B \in \mathscr{B} \ s.t. \ x, y \in B \land x \in C(B)$$
 (1.7)

**Remark 1.1** (Interpretation on the definition of WARP). If x is revealed at least as good as y, then y cannot be revealed preferred to x.

#### 1.3 The Relationship between Preference Relations and Choice Rules

**Definition 1.7.** Given <u>rational</u> preference relation  $\succeq$  on X, the **preference-maximizing choice rule** is defined as

$$C^*(B, \succeq) := \{ x \in B : x \succeq y \ \forall y \in B \} \ \forall B \in \mathscr{B}$$
 (1.8)

We say the <u>rational</u> preference relation **generates** the choice structure  $(\mathscr{B}, C^*(\cdot, \succeq))$ .

**Assumption 1.1.** Assume  $C^*(B, \succeq) \neq \emptyset$  for all  $B \in \mathscr{B}$ .

**Proposition 1.3** (1.D.1 (Rational  $\to$  WARP)). Suppose that  $\succeq$  is a <u>rational</u> preference relation. Then the choice structure generated by  $\succeq$ ,  $(\mathscr{B}, C^*(\cdot, \succeq))$ , satisfies the weak axiom.

**Definition 1.8** (1.D.1). Given choice structure  $(\mathcal{B}, C(\cdot))$ , we say that the <u>rational preference relation</u>  $\succeq$  rationalizes  $C(\cdot)$  relative to  $\mathcal{B}$  if

$$C(B) = C^*(B, \succeq) \ \forall B \in \mathscr{B} \tag{1.9}$$

That is,  $\succeq$  generates the choice structure  $(\mathcal{B}, C(\cdot))$ .

**Remark 1.2.** In general, for a given choice structure  $(\mathcal{B}, C(\cdot))$ , there may be more than one rational preference relation  $\succeq$  rationalizing it.

**Proposition 1.4** (1.D.2 (WARP  $\rightarrow$  Rational)). If  $(\mathcal{B}, C(\cdot))$  is a choice structure such that

- (i) The weak axiom is satisfied;
- (ii)  $\mathcal{B}$  includes all subsets of X up to three elements.

Then there is a rational preference relation  $\succeq$  that rationalizes  $C(\cdot)$  relative to  $\mathscr{B}$ .

# 2 Chapter 2. Consumer Choice

## 2.1 Commodities

**Definition 2.1.** Assume the number of **commodities** is finite and equal to L. In general, a **commodity vector** or **commodity bundle** is an element in a **commodity space**, typically  $\mathbb{R}^L$ .

$$\mathbf{x} := \begin{bmatrix} x_1 \\ \vdots \\ x_L \end{bmatrix} \in \mathbb{R}^L \tag{2.1}$$

**Remark 2.1** (Time Aggregation). The time/location of commodity matters in some scenarios, and can be built into the definition of a commodity.

Remark 2.2. We should also note that in some contexts it becomes convenient, and even necessary, to expand the set of commodities to include goods and services that may potentially be available for purchase but are not actually so and even some that may be available by means other than market exchange.

## 2.2 The Consumption Set

**Definition 2.2.** The **consumption set** is a subset of the commodity space  $\mathbb{R}^L$ , denoted by  $X \subset \mathbb{R}^L$ , whose elements are the consumption bundles that the individual can conceivably consume given the physical constraints imposed by his environment.

**Assumption 2.1.** For simplicity, we assume the consumption set to be  $\mathbb{R}^{L}_{+}$ , which is *convex*.

$$X := \mathbb{R}_{+}^{L} = \{ \mathbf{x} \in \mathbb{R}^{L} : x_{\ell} \ge 0, \ \forall \ell \in [L] \}$$
 (2.2)

#### 2.3 Competitive Budgets

**Definition 2.3.** A **price vector** is defined as

$$\mathbf{p} := \begin{bmatrix} p_1 \\ \vdots \\ p_L \end{bmatrix} \in \mathbb{R}^L \tag{2.3}$$

For simplicity, here we always assume

- (i) Positive price:  $\mathbf{p} \gg \mathbf{0}$ ;
- (ii) Price-taking assumption: **p** is beyond the influence of the consumer.

**Definition 2.4** (2.D.1). The Walrasian, or competitive budget set is defined as

$$B_{\mathbf{p},w} := \{ \mathbf{x} \in \mathbb{R}_+^L : \mathbf{p} \cdot \mathbf{x} \le w \}$$
 (2.4)

where w is the wealth of consumer, and assumed to be positive.

**Definition 2.5.** The **consumer's problem** is choosing a consumption bundle  $\mathbf{x} \in B_{\mathbf{p},w}$ , for each given  $(\mathbf{p}, w) \in \mathbb{R}_{++}^{L}$ .

**Definition 2.6.** The set  $\{\mathbf{x} \in \mathbb{R}_+^L : \mathbf{p} \cdot \mathbf{x} = w\}$  is called the **budget hyperplane**.

**Proposition 2.1.** The price vector **p** is orthogonal to the budget hyperplane.

**Proposition 2.2.** The Walrasian budget set  $B_{\mathbf{p},w}$  is a *convex* set.

## 2.4 Demand Functions and Comparative Statics

**Definition 2.7.** The consumer's **Walrasian demand correspondence**  $x(\mathbf{p}, w) : \mathbb{R}_{++}^{L+1} \rightrightarrows \mathbb{R}_{+}^{L}$  assigns a set of chosen consumption bundles for each price-wealth pair  $(\mathbf{p}, w)$ . When  $x(\mathbf{p}, w)$  is single-valued, we refer to it as a **demand function** 

$$\mathbf{x}(\mathbf{p}, w) = \begin{bmatrix} x_1(\mathbf{p}, w) \\ x_2(\mathbf{p}, w) \\ \vdots \\ x_L(\mathbf{p}, w) \end{bmatrix}$$
(2.5)

**Definition 2.8** (2.E.1). The Walrasian demand correspondence  $x(\mathbf{p}, w) : \mathbb{R}^{L+1}_{++} \rightrightarrows \mathbb{R}^{L}_{+}$  is **homogenous of degree zero** if

$$x(\alpha \mathbf{p}, \alpha w) = x(\mathbf{p}, w) \ \forall (\mathbf{p}, w, \alpha) \in \mathbb{R}^{L+2}_{++}$$
 (2.6)

Also note that

$$B_{\mathbf{p},w} = B_{\alpha\mathbf{p},\alpha w} \ \forall (\mathbf{p}, w, \alpha) \in \mathbb{R}^{L+2}_{++}$$
 (2.7)

**Definition 2.9** (2.E.2). The Walrasian demand correspondence  $x(\mathbf{p}, w)$  satisfies Walras' law if

$$\forall (\mathbf{p}, w) \gg \mathbf{0}, \ \forall \mathbf{x} \in x(\mathbf{p}, w), \ \mathbf{p} \cdot \mathbf{x} = w \tag{2.8}$$

**Assumption 2.2.** For simplicity, we assume  $x(\mathbf{p}, w)$  is always single-valued, continuous and differentiable.

Proposition 2.3. The family of Walrasian budget sets defined as

$$\mathscr{B}^{\mathcal{W}} := \{ B_{\mathbf{p},w} : \mathbf{p}, w \gg \mathbf{0} \} \tag{2.9}$$

altogether with Walrasian demand homogeneous to degree zero forms a choice structure

$$(\mathscr{B}^{\mathscr{W}}, x(\cdot)) \tag{2.10}$$

**Definition 2.10.** For fixed prices  $\overline{\mathbf{p}} \in \mathbb{R}_{++}^L$ , the function of wealth  $\mathbf{x}(\overline{\mathbf{p}}, w)$  is called consumer's **Engel** function. Its image in  $\mathbb{R}_{+}^L$ ,

$$E_{\overline{\mathbf{p}}} := \{ \mathbf{x}(\overline{\mathbf{p}}, w) : w \in \mathbb{R}_{++} \} \subset \mathbb{R}_{+}^{L}$$
(2.11)

is defined as the **wealth expansion path**.

**Definition 2.11.** Given  $(\mathbf{p}, w)$ , the wealth effect is defined as

$$D_{w}\mathbf{x}(\mathbf{p}, w) = \begin{bmatrix} \frac{\partial x_{1}(\mathbf{p}, w)}{\partial w} \\ \frac{\partial x_{2}(\mathbf{p}, w)}{\partial w} \\ \vdots \\ \frac{\partial x_{L}(\mathbf{p}, w)}{\partial w} \end{bmatrix} \in \mathbb{R}^{L}$$

$$(2.12)$$

For the  $\ell$ -th commodity, it's called **normal** at  $(\mathbf{p}, w)$  if  $\frac{\partial x_{\ell}(\mathbf{p}, w)}{\partial w} \geq 0$ , and **inferior** otherwise. And the  $\ell$ -th commodity is normal/inferior if its normal/inferior every where in  $\mathbb{R}^{L+1}_{++}$ .

**Definition 2.12.** The **offer curve** is defined as the locus

$$\{\mathbf{x}(\mathbf{p}, w) : p_i > 0\} \tag{2.13}$$

for any chosen j.

**Definition 2.13.** Good  $\ell$  is said to be a **Giffen good** at  $(\mathbf{p}, w)$  if

$$\frac{\partial x_{\ell}(\mathbf{p}, w)}{\partial p_{\ell}} > 0 \tag{2.14}$$

**Definition 2.14.** The **price effects** at  $(\mathbf{p}, w)$  is defined as

$$D_{\mathbf{p}}(\mathbf{p}, w) = \begin{bmatrix} \frac{\partial x_1(\mathbf{p}, w)}{\partial p_1} & \cdots & \frac{\partial x_1(\mathbf{p}, w)}{\partial p_L} \\ & \ddots & \\ \frac{\partial x_L(\mathbf{p}, w)}{\partial p_1} & \cdots & \frac{\partial x_L(\mathbf{p}, w)}{\partial p_L} \end{bmatrix}$$
(2.15)

**Proposition 2.4** (2.E.1). If the Walrasian demand function  $x(\mathbf{p}, w)$  is homogenous of degree zero, then for

all  $\mathbf{p}$  and w, then

$$\sum_{k=1}^{L} \frac{\partial x_{\ell}(\mathbf{p}, w)}{\partial p_{k}} p_{k} + \frac{\partial x_{\ell}(\mathbf{p}, w)}{\partial w} w = 0 \text{ for } \ell = 1, \dots, L$$
(2.16)

Equivalently,

$$D_{\mathbf{p}}\mathbf{x}(\mathbf{p}, w) \mathbf{p} + D_{w}\mathbf{x}(\mathbf{p}, w) w = \mathbf{0}$$
(2.17)

*Proof.* Apply Euler's theorem on homogenous functions to each component  $x_{\ell}$ .

$$\underbrace{D_{(\mathbf{p},w)}\mathbf{x}(\mathbf{p},w)}_{L\times(L+1)} \cdot \underbrace{(\mathbf{p},w)}_{(L+1)\times 1} = 0 \ \mathbf{x}(\mathbf{p},w) = \mathbf{0} \tag{2.18}$$

$$\Longrightarrow \underbrace{\left[D_{\mathbf{p}}(\mathbf{p}, w)\right]}_{L \times L} \underbrace{\left[D_{w}\mathbf{x}(\mathbf{p}, w)\right]}_{L \times 1} \cdot (\mathbf{p}, w) = D_{\mathbf{p}}(\mathbf{p}, w) \mathbf{p} + D_{w}\mathbf{x}(\mathbf{p}, w) w = \mathbf{0}$$
(2.19)

Definition 2.15. The elasticities of demand  $\ell$  with respect to price k and wealth is defined as

$$\varepsilon_{\ell,k}(\mathbf{p},w) := \frac{\partial x_{\ell}(\mathbf{p},w)}{\partial p_k} \frac{p_l}{x_{\ell}(\mathbf{p},w)}$$
(2.20)

$$\varepsilon_{\ell,w}(\mathbf{p},w) := \frac{\partial x_{\ell}(\mathbf{p},w)}{\partial w} \frac{w}{x_{\ell}(\mathbf{p},w)}$$
(2.21)

Corollary 2.1. Dividing both sides of the equality in proposition (2.E.1) by  $x_{\ell}$  gives

$$\sum_{k=1}^{L} \varepsilon_{\ell,k}(\mathbf{p}, w) + \varepsilon_{\ell,w}(\mathbf{p}, w) = 0 \ \forall \ell \in \{1, \dots, L\}$$
 (2.22)

**Proposition 2.5** (2.E.2 Cournot Aggregation). If the Walrasian demand function  $x(\mathbf{p}, w)$  satisfies Walras' law, then for every  $(\mathbf{p}, w)$ ,

$$\sum_{\ell=1}^{L} p_{\ell} \frac{\partial x_{\ell}(\mathbf{p}, w)}{\partial p_{k}} + x_{k}(\mathbf{p}, w) = 0 \quad \text{for } k = 1, \dots, L$$
(2.23)

Equivalently,

$$\mathbf{p}^T D_{\mathbf{p}} \mathbf{x}(\mathbf{p}, w) + \mathbf{x}(\mathbf{p}, w)^T = \mathbf{0}^T$$
(2.24)

*Proof.* Differentiate both sides of Walras' law identity  $\mathbf{p}^T \mathbf{x} = w$  with respect to  $\mathbf{p}$ .

**Proposition 2.6** (2.E.3. Engel Aggregation). If the Walrasian demand function  $x(\mathbf{p}, w)$  satisfies Walras' law, then for every  $(\mathbf{p}, w)$ ,

$$\sum_{\ell=1}^{L} p_{\ell} \frac{\partial x_{\ell}(\mathbf{p}, w)}{\partial w} = 1 \tag{2.25}$$

or equivalently

$$\mathbf{p} \cdot D_w x(\mathbf{p}, w) = 1 \tag{2.26}$$

*Proof.* Differentiate both sides of Walras' law identity  $\mathbf{p}^T \mathbf{x} = w$  with respect to w.

Proposition 2.7 (Exer. 2.E.2).

$$\sum_{\ell=1}^{L} b_{\ell}(\mathbf{p}, w) \varepsilon_{\ell k}(\mathbf{p}, w) + b_{k}(\mathbf{p}, w) = 0$$
(2.27)

and

$$\sum_{\ell=1}^{L} b_{\ell}(\mathbf{p}, w) \varepsilon_{\ell w}(\mathbf{p}, w) = 1$$
(2.28)

where  $b_{\ell} := \frac{x_{\ell}p_{\ell}}{w}$  is defined to be the portion of wealth spent on commodity  $\ell$ .

#### 2.5 The Weak Axiom of Revealed Preference and the Law of Demand

**Assumption 2.3.** In the section, we assume  $\mathbf{x}(\mathbf{p}, w)$  is

- (i) Single-valued;
- (ii) homogeneous to degree zero;
- (iii) satisfies Walras' law.

**Definition 2.16** (2.F.1). The Walrasian demand function  $\mathbf{x}(\mathbf{p}, w)$  satisfies the **weak axiom of revealed preference** if for every two  $(\mathbf{p}, w), (\mathbf{p}', w') \in \mathbb{R}^{L+1}_{++}$ ,

$$\underbrace{\mathbf{p} \cdot \mathbf{x}(\mathbf{p}', w') \le w \land \mathbf{x}(\mathbf{p}, w) \ne \mathbf{x}(\mathbf{p}', w')}_{\text{revealed: } \mathbf{x}(\mathbf{p}, w) \succ^* \mathbf{x}(\mathbf{p}', w')} \implies \mathbf{p}' \cdot \mathbf{x}(\mathbf{p}, w) > w'$$
(2.29)

Equivalently,

$$\mathbf{x}(\mathbf{p}', w') \in B_{\mathbf{p}, w} \land \mathbf{x}(\mathbf{p}', w') \notin C(B_{\mathbf{p}, w}) \implies \mathbf{x}(\mathbf{p}, w) \notin C(B_{\mathbf{p}', w'})$$
 (2.30)

Corollary 2.2 (Equivalent Definition ). The weak axiom says, given our assumptions and  $\mathbf{x}(\mathbf{p}_1, w_1) \neq \mathbf{x}(\mathbf{p}_2, w_2)$ , we cannot have both

$$\mathbf{x}(\mathbf{p}_1, w_1) \in B_{\mathbf{p}_2, w_2} \wedge \mathbf{x}(\mathbf{p}_2, w_2) \in B_{\mathbf{p}_1, w_1}$$
 (2.31)

Definition 2.17. A price change  $\Delta \mathbf{p}$  is a Slutsky compensated price change if the consumer is given a Slutsky wealth compensation with amount

$$\Delta w = \Delta \mathbf{p} \cdot \mathbf{x}(\mathbf{p}, w) \tag{2.32}$$

such that the consumer's initial consumption is just affordable at the new price.

**Proposition 2.8** (2.F.1). Suppose that the Walrasian demand function  $\mathbf{x}(\mathbf{p}', w')$  is homogenous of degree zero and satisfies Walras' law. Then  $\mathbf{x}(\mathbf{p}', w')$  satisfies the weak axiom if and only if the following property holds:

For any compensated price change from  $(\mathbf{p}, w)$  to  $(\mathbf{p}', w' := \mathbf{p}' \cdot \mathbf{x}(\mathbf{p}, w))$ ,

$$\Delta \mathbf{p} \cdot \Delta \mathbf{x} \le 0 \tag{2.33}$$

with strict inequality whenever  $\mathbf{x}(\mathbf{p}, w) \neq \mathbf{x}(\mathbf{p}', w')$ .

Corollary 2.3 (Compensated Law of Demand).  $\Delta \mathbf{p} \cdot \Delta \mathbf{x} \leq 0$  says demand and price move in opposite directions, under Slutsky compensation.

**Definition 2.18.** At infinitesimal price change, the Slutsky compensation can be written as

$$dw = \mathbf{x}(\mathbf{p}, w) \cdot d\mathbf{p} \tag{2.34}$$

and the compensated law of demand becomes

$$d\mathbf{p} \cdot d\mathbf{x} < 0 \tag{2.35}$$

Then the total derivative of  $\mathbf{x}$  is

$$d\mathbf{x} = D_{\mathbf{p}}\mathbf{x}(\mathbf{p}, w) \ d\mathbf{p} + D_{w}\mathbf{x}(\mathbf{p}, w) \ dw \tag{2.36}$$

$$= D_{\mathbf{p}}\mathbf{x}(\mathbf{p}, w) d\mathbf{p} + D_{w}\mathbf{x}(\mathbf{p}, w) \left[\mathbf{x}(\mathbf{p}, w) \cdot d\mathbf{p}\right]$$
(2.37)

$$= \underbrace{[D_{\mathbf{p}}\mathbf{x}(\mathbf{p}, w)}_{L \times L} + \underbrace{D_{w}\mathbf{x}(\mathbf{p}, w)}_{L \times 1} \underbrace{\mathbf{x}(\mathbf{p}, w)^{T}}_{1 \times L}]d\mathbf{p}$$
(2.38)

$$\implies d\mathbf{p}^{T} \underbrace{\left[D_{\mathbf{p}}\mathbf{x}(\mathbf{p}, w) + D_{w}\mathbf{x}(\mathbf{p}, w)\mathbf{x}(\mathbf{p}, w)^{T}\right]}_{L \times L} d\mathbf{p} \le 0$$
(2.39)

and the Slutsky/substitution matrix is defined as

$$S(\mathbf{p}, w) := [D_{\mathbf{p}} \mathbf{x}(\mathbf{p}, w) + D_{w} \mathbf{x}(\mathbf{p}, w) \mathbf{x}(\mathbf{p}, w)^{T}]$$
(2.40)

$$s_{\ell k} = \underbrace{\frac{\partial x_{\ell}(\mathbf{p}, w)}{\partial p_k}}_{\text{total effect}} + \underbrace{\frac{\partial x_{\ell}(\mathbf{p}, w)}{\partial w} x_k(p, w)}_{\text{wealth effect}}$$
(2.41)

where  $s_{\ell k}$  is the substitution effect.

**Remark 2.3.** The above identity (Slutsky equation) suggests the total impact of price change in  $p_k$  on demand for  $x_\ell$  can be decomposed into two portions, substitution effect and income effect.

Corollary 2.4 (Slutsky Equation).

$$\frac{\partial x_i(\mathbf{p}, w)}{\partial p_j} = \frac{\partial h_i(\mathbf{p}, u)}{\partial p_j} - \frac{\partial x_i(\mathbf{p}, w)}{\partial w} x_j(\mathbf{p}, w)$$
(2.42)

**Remark 2.4.** Consider the scenario when only  $p_k$  changes, with Slutsky compensation, consumer's wealth changes by  $dw = x_k(\mathbf{p}, w) dp_k$ . So the wealth effect on  $x_\ell$  is  $\frac{\partial x_\ell}{\partial w} dw = \frac{\partial x_\ell}{\partial w} x_k(\mathbf{p}, w) dp_k$ .

**Proposition 2.9** (2.F.2). If a differentiable Walrasian demand function  $\mathbf{x}(\mathbf{p}, w)$  satisfies Walras' law, homogeneity of degree zero, and the weak axiom, then at any  $(\mathbf{p}, w)$ , the Slutsky matrix  $S(\mathbf{p}, w)$  is negative semi-definite.

Corollary 2.5. Given  $S(\mathbf{p}, w)$  is negative semi-definite, we have

$$\mathbf{e}_{\ell}^{T} S(\mathbf{p}, w) \mathbf{e}_{\ell} \le 0 \ \forall \ell \in \{1, \dots, L\}$$
 (2.43)

$$\implies s_{\ell\ell} \le 0 \ \forall \ell \in \{1, \dots, L\}$$
 (2.44)

which suggests the substitution effect of good  $\ell$  with respect to its own price is always negative.

**Remark 2.5.** Proposition 2.F.2 does *not* imply, in general, that the matrix  $S(\mathbf{p}, w)$  is symmetric.

**Proposition 2.10** (2.F.3). Suppose that the Walrasian demand function  $\mathbf{x}(\mathbf{p}, w)$  is differentiable, homogenous of degree zero, and satisfies Walras' law. Then for every  $(\mathbf{p}, w)$ 

$$\mathbf{p}^T S(\mathbf{p}, w) = \mathbf{0} \wedge S(\mathbf{p}, w) \mathbf{p} = \mathbf{0}$$
(2.45)

*Proof.* By propositions 2.E.1 to 2.E.3.

# 3 Chapter 3. Classical Demand Theory

#### 3.1 Preference Relations: Basic Properties

**Definition 3.1** (3.B.1). The preference relation  $\succeq$  on X is **rational** if it possesses the following two properties

- (i) Completeness.  $\forall \mathbf{x}, \mathbf{y} \in X, \mathbf{x} \succeq \mathbf{y} \vee \mathbf{y} \succeq \mathbf{x}$ ;
- (ii) Transitivity.  $\forall \mathbf{x}, \mathbf{y}, \mathbf{z} \in X, \ \mathbf{x} \succsim \mathbf{y} \wedge \mathbf{y} \succsim \mathbf{z} \implies \mathbf{x} \succsim \mathbf{z}.$

#### 3.1.1 Desirability Assumptions

**Definition 3.2** (3.B.2). The preference relation  $\succeq$  on X is **monotone** if  $\mathbf{x} \in X$  and  $\mathbf{y} \gg \mathbf{x} \implies \mathbf{y} \succ \mathbf{x}$ ; It is **strongly monotone** if  $\mathbf{y} \geq \mathbf{x} \wedge \mathbf{x} \neq \mathbf{y} \implies \mathbf{y} \succ \mathbf{x}$ .

**Remark 3.1.** If  $\succeq$  is monotone, we may have indifference with respect to an increase in the amount of some but not all commodities.

**Definition 3.3** (3.B.3). A preference relation  $\succeq$  on X is locally nonsatiated if

$$\forall \mathbf{x} \in X, \varepsilon > 0, \ \exists \mathbf{y} \in \overline{\mathcal{B}}(\mathbf{x}, \varepsilon) \cap X \ s.t. \ \mathbf{y} \succ \mathbf{x}$$

$$(3.1)$$

**Remark 3.2.** Local nonsatiation rules out the extreme situation in which all commodities are bads, since in that case no consumption at all (the point  $\mathbf{x} = \mathbf{0}$ ) would be a satiation point.

Proposition 3.1 (Exercise 3.B.1).

Strongly Monotone 
$$\implies$$
 Monotone  $\implies$  Locally Non-satiation (3.2)

**Definition 3.4.** The **indifference set** containing point  $\mathbf{x}$  is defined as  $\{\mathbf{y} \in X : \mathbf{x} \sim \mathbf{y}\}$ . The **upper contour set** of bundle  $\mathbf{x}$  is  $\{\mathbf{y} \in X : \mathbf{y} \succeq \mathbf{x}\}$ . The **lower contour set** of  $\mathbf{x}$  is defined as  $\{\mathbf{y} \in X : \mathbf{x} \succeq \mathbf{y}\}$ .

**Remark 3.3** (Implication of Local Nonsatiation). One implication of local nonsatiation (and, hence, of monotonicity) is that it rules out "thick" indifference sets.

#### 3.1.2 Convexity Assumptions

**Definition 3.5** (3.B.4). The preference relation  $\succeq$  on X is **convex** if for every  $\mathbf{x} \in X$ , the upper contour set if  $\mathbf{x}$  is convex.

$$\forall \mathbf{x}, \mathbf{y}, \mathbf{z} \in X, \ \mathbf{y} \succeq \mathbf{x} \land \mathbf{z} \succeq \mathbf{x} \implies \alpha \mathbf{y} + (1 - \alpha) \mathbf{z} \succeq \mathbf{x} \ \forall \alpha \in [0, 1]$$
 (3.3)

**Remark 3.4** (Implication of Convexity). Convexity can also be viewed as the formal expression of a basic inclination of economic agents for diversification.

**Remark 3.5.** The convex assumption can hold only if X is convex.

**Definition 3.6** (3.B.5). The preference relation  $\succeq$  on X is strictly convex if

$$\forall \mathbf{x}, \mathbf{y}, \mathbf{z} \in X, \ \mathbf{y} \succ \mathbf{x} \land \mathbf{z} \succ \mathbf{x} \land \mathbf{y} \neq \mathbf{z} \implies \alpha \mathbf{y} + (1 - \alpha)\mathbf{z} \succ \mathbf{x} \ \forall \alpha \in (0, 1)$$
(3.4)

**Definition 3.7** (3.B.6). A monotone preference relation  $\succeq$  on  $X = \mathbb{R}^L_+$  is homothetic if

$$\forall \mathbf{x}, \mathbf{y} \in X, \ \mathbf{x} \sim \mathbf{y} \implies \alpha \mathbf{x} \sim \alpha \mathbf{y}, \ \forall \alpha \in \mathbb{R}_{+}$$
 (3.5)

**Definition 3.8** (3.B.7). The preference relation  $\succeq$  on  $X = (-\infty, \infty) \times \mathbb{R}^{L-1}_+$  is **quasilinear** with respect to commodity 1 (the **numeraire** commodity) if  $\forall \mathbf{x}, \mathbf{y} \in X$ 

(i) 
$$\mathbf{x} \sim \mathbf{y} \implies \mathbf{x} + \alpha \mathbf{e}_1 \sim \mathbf{y} + \alpha \mathbf{e}_1 \ \forall \alpha \in \mathbb{R};$$

(ii) Good 1 is desirable:  $\forall \mathbf{x} \in X, \alpha \in \mathbb{R}_{++}, \ \mathbf{x} + \alpha \mathbf{e}_1 \succ \mathbf{x}$ .

## 3.2 Preference and Utility

**Definition 3.9** (Example 3.C.1). The **lexicographic preference relation** on  $X = \mathbb{R}^2_+$  defines  $x \gtrsim y$  if either  $x_1 > y_1$  or  $x_1 = y_1 \wedge x_2 \geq y_2$ .

**Definition 3.10** (3.C.1). The preference relation  $\succeq$  on X is **continuous** if it is *preserved under limits*. That's

$$\forall ((x^n,y^n)_n)_{n=1}^{\infty} \ s.t. \ x := \lim_{n \to \infty} x^n, \ y := \lim_{n \to \infty} y^n, \quad x^n \succsim y^n \ \forall n \implies x \succsim y \tag{3.6}$$

**Proposition 3.2** (Equivalent Definition). A preference relation  $\succeq$  is continuous if and only if for all  $x \in X$ , the upper contour set  $\{y \in X : y \succeq x\}$  and lower contour set  $\{y \in X : x \succeq y\}$  are closed.

*Proof.* Suppose  $\succeq$  is continuous, fix  $x \in X$ . Then for any sequence in the upper contour set of x, the limit point is also in the upper contour set of x. As a result, for every  $x \in X$ ,  $U_x$  contains all limit points, so it is closed.

**Proposition 3.3.** Lexicographic preference relation is *not* continuous.

Proof.

$$x^n := (1/n, 0) \text{ and } y^n := (0, 1)$$
 (3.7)

**Proposition 3.4.** ][3.C.1] Let  $\succeq$  be a continuous preference relation on X, there is a <u>continuous</u> utility function  $u: X \to \mathbb{R}$  representing  $\succeq$ .

*Proof.* Construction of utility function:

(i) For each  $x \in X$ , by monotonicity and continuity of  $\succeq$ , there exists an unique  $\alpha(x)$  such that

$$\alpha(x)e \sim x \tag{3.8}$$

(ii) Take  $\alpha(x)$  as the utility function.

Remark 3.6. Above proposition guarantees the existence of continuous utility function for any continuous  $\succeq$ . But, not all utility functions representing  $\succeq$  are continuous. We can construct discontinuous utility function by compositing a continuous utility function with a discontinuous but strictly increasing transformation.

**Remark 3.7.** It is possible for continuous preferences *not* to be representable by a differentiable (but still continuous) utility function (*Leontief*).

**Lemma 3.1.** The upper contour set of a quasi-concave function is convex.

**Proposition 3.5.** [?] is this bi-conditional? If  $\succeq$  is (strictly) convex, then  $u(\cdot)$  representing  $\succeq$  is (strictly) quasi-concave.

**Proposition 3.6.** A continuous  $\succeq$  on  $X = \mathbb{R}^L_+$  is homothetic if and only if it admits a utility function u homogeneous of degree one.

**Proposition 3.7.** A continuous  $\succeq$  on  $X = \mathbb{R}_+^L$  is quasilinear with respect to the first commodity (numeraire) if and only if it admits a utility function u in the form  $u(x) = x_1 + \phi(x_2, \dots, x_L)$ .

Remark 3.8. Increasingness and quasi-concavity are ordinal properties of u; they are preserved for any arbitrary increasing transformation of the utility index. In contrast, the special forms of the utility representations in above propositions are not preserved; they are cardinal properties that are simply convenient choices for a utility representation.

## 3.3 The Utility Maximization Problem

**Definition 3.11.** Suppose a consumer chooses her most preferred consumption bundle given prices  $p \gg 0$  and wealth level w > 0, then the **utility maximization problem**(UMP) of this consumer is

$$\max_{x \ge 0} u(x) \ s.t. \ p \cdot x \le w \tag{3.9}$$

**Proposition 3.8** (3.D.1). If  $p \gg 0$  and  $u(\cdot)$  is continuous, then the utility maximization problem has a solution.

*Proof.* Note  $B_{p,w} = \{x \in \mathbb{R}^L_+ : p \cdot x \leq w\}$  is compact. The proposition is an immediate consequence of the extreme value theorem.

## 3.3.1 The Walrasian Demand Correspondence/Function

**Definition 3.12.** The Walrasian demand correspondence, x(p, w), is the set of solutions to consumer's UMP. When the solution is unique, it is referred to as the walrasian demand function.

**Proposition 3.9** (3.D.2). Suppose u is a <u>continuous</u> utility function representing a <u>locally nonsatiated</u> preference relation  $\succeq$  defined on  $X := \mathbb{R}^L_+$ . The the Walrasian demand correspondence, x(p, w), satisfies

- (i) Homogeneous of degree zero in (p, w);
- (ii) Walras' law:  $p \cdot x = w$ ;

- (iii) Convexity if  $\succeq$  is convex (i.e. u is quasi-concave), then x(p, w) is convex;
- (iv) Uniqueness if  $\succeq$  is strictly convex (i.e. u is strictly quasi-concave), then x(p, w) is a singleton.

**Proposition 3.10** (Kuhn-Tucker Necessary Condition). Let  $x^* \in x(p, w)$ , then there exists a Lagrangian multiplier  $\lambda \geq 0$  such that

$$\nabla u\left(x^{*}\right) \le \lambda p \tag{3.10}$$

$$x^* \cdot \left[\nabla u\left(x^*\right) - \lambda p\right] = 0 \text{ (complementary slackness)}$$
 (3.11)

As a result, for any interior optimum  $(x^* \gg 0)$ ,

$$\nabla u\left(x^*\right) = \lambda p \tag{3.12}$$

Corollary 3.1. If  $\nabla u(x^*) \gg 0$ , then the first order necessary condition for an <u>interior</u> optimum to UMP is equivalent to

$$\frac{\partial u\left(x^{*}\right)/\partial x_{\ell}}{\partial u\left(x^{*}\right)/\partial x_{k}} = \frac{p_{\ell}}{p_{k}} \tag{3.13}$$

for every  $\ell, k$ .

**Definition 3.13.** The left hand side of above equality is the **marginal rate of substitution** of good  $\ell$  for good k at  $x^*$ ,  $MRS_{\ell k}$  at  $(x^*)$ . It tells us the amount of good k that the consumer must be given to compensate her for a one-unit marginal reduction in her consumption of good  $\ell$   $(\frac{dx_k}{dx_\ell})$ .

**Proposition 3.11** (Interpretation of  $\lambda$ ). The Lagrangian multiplier  $\lambda$  gives the **shadow price** of relaxing the wealth constraint in UMP. Therefore it equals the *marginal utility value of wealth* at the optimum.

*Proof.* This is an immediate consequence of the envelope theorem.

**Proposition 3.12.** If u is quasi-concave and monotone, and has  $\nabla u(x) \neq 0 \ \forall x \in \mathbb{R}_+^L$ , then the Kuhn-Tucker conditions are indeed sufficient.

**Proposition 3.13.** Indeed, if preferences are continuous, strictly convex, and locally nonsatiated on the consumption set  $\mathbb{R}_+^L$ , then x(p, w) (which is then a function) is always continuous at all  $(p, w) \gg 0$ .

#### 3.3.2 The Indirect Utility Function

**Definition 3.14.** The value function of consumer's UMP,  $v(p, w) := u(x^*(p, w))$ , is called the **indirect** utility function.

**Proposition 3.14** (3.D.3). Suppose u is a <u>continuous</u> utility function representing a <u>locally nonsatiated</u>  $\succeq$  on  $\mathbb{R}_+^L$ , then v(p, w) satisfies

<sup>&</sup>lt;sup>1</sup>A singleton set is trivially convex.

- (i) Homogeneous of degree zero;
- (ii) Strictly increasing in w and non-increasing in  $p_{\ell}$  for every  $\ell$ ;
- (iii) Quasi-convex (i.e. its lower contour set is convex);
- (iv) Continuous in (p, w).

Proof. Show quasi-convexity of v(p,w). Let  $\overline{v} \in \mathbb{R}$  be an attainable utility level, the corresponding lower contour is  $L := \{(p,w) : v(p,w) \leq \overline{v}\}$ . Let  $(p,w), (p',w') \in L$ ,  $\alpha \in [0,1]$ . Show  $(p'',w'') := \alpha(p,w) + (1-\alpha)(p',w') \in L$  by showing  $u(x) \leq \overline{v}$  for every  $p'' \cdot x \leq w''$ . Suppose  $p'' \cdot x \leq w''$ , then

$$\alpha p \cdot x + (1 - \alpha)p' \cdot x \le \alpha w + (1 - \alpha)w' \tag{3.14}$$

$$\implies p \cdot x \le w \lor p' \cdot x \le w' \tag{3.15}$$

which implies either  $u(x) \leq v(p, w)$  or  $u(x) \leq v(p', w')$ , by the definition of value function of maximization problems. Since both  $v(p, w), v(p', w') \leq \overline{v}$ , then  $u(x) \leq \overline{v}$ . Therefore  $v(p'', w'') \leq \overline{v}$ . So  $(p'', w'') \in L$ , and L is convex.

**Proposition 3.15** (Transformation on v). [?] Does this require f to be strictly increasing? Note that the indirect utility function depends on the utility representation chosen. In particular, if v(p, w) is the indirect utility function when the consumer's utility function is u, then the indirect utility function corresponding to utility representation  $\tilde{u}(x) = f \circ u(x)$  is  $\tilde{v}(p, w) = f \circ v(p, w)$ .

*Proof.* the maximizer of such an optimization problem is invariant under such a monotonically increasing transformation f.

#### 3.4 The Expenditure Minimization Problem

**Definition 3.15.** Suppose a consumer chooses her most preferred consumption bundle given prices  $p \gg 0$  and wealth level u > u(0), then the **expenditure minimization problem**(EMP) of this consumer is

$$\min_{x>0} p \cdot x \text{ s.t. } u(x) \ge u \tag{3.16}$$

**Definition 3.16.** The value function of above optimization problem is called the **expenditure function**, denoted as e(p, u).

**Assumption 3.1.** We assume that u is a <u>continuous</u> utility function representing a <u>locally nonsatiated</u> preference relation  $\succeq$  defined on the consumption set  $X := \mathbb{R}^L_+$ .

**Proposition 3.16** (3.E.1, the Duality). Suppose u is a <u>continuous</u> utility function representing a <u>locally nonsatiated</u> preference relation  $\succeq$  defined on the consumption set  $X := \mathbb{R}_+^L$ , and  $p \gg 0$ . Then,

- (i) If  $x^*$  is optimal in the UMP when wealth w > 0, then  $x^*$  is the in the EMP with utility level  $u(x^*)$ , and the minimal expenditure is w;
- (ii) If  $x^*$  is optimal in the EMP with utility level u > u(0), then  $x^*$  is optimal in the UMP with wealth level  $p \cdot x^*$ , and the attained maximal utility is u.

Proof. Contradiction.

Corollary 3.2. For any  $p \gg 0$ , w > 0, and u > u(0),

$$e(p, v(p, w)) = w \tag{3.17}$$

$$v(p, e(p, u)) = u \tag{3.18}$$

Corollary 3.3.

$$h(p, u) = x(p, e(p, u))$$
 (3.19)

$$x(p,w) = h(p,v(p,w)) \tag{3.20}$$

**Proposition 3.17** (3.E.2). Suppose that u is a <u>continuous</u> utility function representing a <u>locally nonsatiated</u> preference relation  $\succeq$  defined on the consumption set  $X := \mathbb{R}^L_+$ . Then the expenditure function e(p, u) possesses the following properties

- (i) Homogeneous of degree one in p;
- (ii) Strictly increasing in u and nondecreasing in  $p_{\ell}$  for every  $\ell$ ;
- (iii) Concave in p;
- (iv) Continuous in (p, u).

*Proof.* Show the concavity of e, let  $p, p' \gg 0$ ,  $\alpha \in [0, 1]$ , and  $\overline{u} > u(0)$ . Define  $p'' := \alpha p + (1 - \alpha)p'$ , then

$$e\left(p'', \overline{u}\right) = p'' \cdot x'' \tag{3.21}$$

$$= \alpha p \cdot x'' + (1 - \alpha)p' \cdot x'' \tag{3.22}$$

$$\geq \alpha e(p, \overline{u}) + (1 - \alpha)e(p', \overline{u}) \tag{3.23}$$

3.4.1 The Hicksian (or Compensated) Demand Function

**Definition 3.17.** The set of solutions to EMP,  $h(p, u) \subseteq \mathbb{R}^{L}_{+}$ , is known as the **Hicksian**, or compensated, demand correspondence, or function if single-valued.

**Proposition 3.18** (3.E.3). Suppose that u is a <u>continuous</u> utility function representing a <u>locally nonsatiated</u> preference relation  $\succeq$  defined on the consumption set  $X := \mathbb{R}^L_+$ . Then for any  $p \gg 0$ , the Hicksian demand h(p, u) possess the following properties

- (i) Homogeneous of degree zero in p;
- (ii) No excess utility:  $\forall x \in h(p, u), u(x) = u$ ;
- (iii) Convexity: if  $\succeq$  is convex, then h(p, u) is convex;
- (iv) Uniqueness: if  $\succeq$  is strictly convex, then h(p, u) is a singleton.

**Definition 3.18.** As prices vary, h(p, u) gives precisely the level of demand that would arise if the consumer's wealth were simultaneously adjusted to keep her utility level at u. The amount of wealth compensated to ensure the original utility level attainable is referred to as the **Hicksian wealth compensation**.

$$\Delta w_{\text{Hicks}} = e(p', u) - w \tag{3.24}$$

#### 3.4.2 Hicksian Demand and the Compensated Law of Demand

**Proposition 3.19** (3.E.4, the Compensated Law of Demand). Suppose that u is a <u>continuous</u> utility function representing a <u>locally nonsatiated</u> preference relation  $\succeq$  defined on the consumption set  $X := \mathbb{R}^L_+$ . And suppose h(p, u) is single-valued everywhere, then for all p' and p'',

$$(p'' - p') \cdot [h(p'', u) - h(p', u)] \le 0 \tag{3.25}$$

That's, Demand and price move in opposite directions for price changes that are accompanied by Hicksian wealth compensation.

*Proof.* Suppose u > u(0), and the price changes from p' to p'', then

$$p'' \cdot h(p'', u) \le p'' \cdot h(p', u) \tag{3.26}$$

$$p' \cdot h(p'', u) \ge p' \cdot h(p', u) \tag{3.27}$$

subtracting above inequalities gives the desired result.

## 3.5 Duality: A Mathematical Introduction

**Definition 3.19.** A half-space is a set of the form  $\{x \in \mathbb{R}^L : p \cdot x \ge c\}$  for some  $p \in \mathbb{R}^L$ ,  $p \ne 0$  is called the **normal vector** to the half-space. Its boundary  $\{x \in \mathbb{R}^L : p \cdot x = c\}$  is called a **hyperplane**.

**Definition 3.20** (3.F.1). For any nonempty closed set  $K \subset \mathbb{R}^L$ , the **support function** of K is defined for any  $p \in \mathbb{R}^L$  to be

$$\mu_K(p) = \inf\{p \cdot x : x \in K\} \tag{3.28}$$

**Proposition 3.20** (3.F.1, The Duality Theorem). Let K be a nonempty closed set, and let  $\mu_K$  be its support function. Then there is a unique  $\mathbf{x} \in K$  such that  $\mathbf{p} \cdot \mathbf{x} = \mu_k(p)$  if and only if  $\mu_K$  is differentiable at  $\mathbf{p}$ . Moreover, in this case

$$\nabla \mu_K(\mathbf{p}) = \mathbf{x} \tag{3.29}$$

# 3.6 Relationships between Demand, Indirect Utility, and Expenditure Functions

**Proposition 3.21** (3.G.1, Shephard's lemma). Suppose that u is a <u>continuous</u> utility function representing a <u>locally nonsatiated</u> and <u>strictly convex</u> preference relation  $\succeq$  defined on the consumption set  $X := \mathbb{R}^L_+$ . For all p and u, the Hicksian demand h(p,u) satisfies

$$h(p, u) = \nabla_p e(p, u) \tag{3.30}$$

Proof using Envelope Theorem. The Lagrangian function for EMP is  $\mathcal{L} := p \cdot x - \lambda(u - \overline{u})$ . By the envelope theorem, at the optimum,

$$\partial_{p}e(p,u) = \partial_{p}\mathcal{L}(p,h(p,u),\overline{u},\lambda) \tag{3.31}$$

$$\implies \nabla_p e(p, u) = h(p, u)$$
 (3.32)

**Remark 3.9** (Interpretation). The above proposition says if we are at an optimum in the EMP, the changes in demand caused by price changes have no first-order effect on the consumer's expenditure.

**Proposition 3.22** (3.G.2). Suppose that u is a <u>continuous</u> utility function representing a <u>locally nonsatiated</u> and <u>strictly convex</u> preference relation  $\succeq$  defined on the consumption set  $X := \mathbb{R}^L_+$ . Suppose also that h is continuously differentiable at (p, u), then  $D_p h(p, u) \in M_{L \times L}$  satisfies

- (i)  $D_p h(p, u) = D_p^2 e(p, u);$
- (ii)  $D_p h(p, u)$  is a negative semidefinite matrix;
- (iii)  $D_p h(p, u)$  is symmetric;
- (iv)  $D_p h(p, u) \cdot p = 0$ .

**Proposition 3.23** (3.G.3, the Slutsky Equation). Suppose that u is a <u>continuous</u> utility function representing a <u>locally nonsatiated</u> and <u>strictly convex</u> preference relation  $\succeq$  defined on the consumption set  $X := \mathbb{R}_+^L$ . Then for all (p, w), and u = v(p, w), we have

$$D_p h(p, u) = D_p x(p, w) + D_w x(p, w) x(p, w)^T$$
(3.33)

*Proof.* Let  $p \gg 0, w > 0, u > u(0), h(p, u) = x(p, e(p, u)),$  and w = e(p, u). Differentiate both sides of this identity gives

$$D_p h(p, u) = D_p x(p, e(p, u)) + D_w x(p, e(p, u)) D_p e(p, u)$$
(3.34)

$$= D_p x(p, e(p, u)) + D_w x(p, e(p, u)) h(p, u)$$
(Shephard's lemma) (3.35)

$$= D_p x(p, e(p, u)) + D_w x(p, e(p, u)) x(p, w)$$
(3.36)

**Definition 3.21.** The Slutsky substitution matrix is defined as

$$S(p,w) := D_p h(p,u) = \begin{bmatrix} s_{11}(p,w) & \cdots & s_{1L}(p,w) \\ \vdots & \ddots & \vdots \\ s_{L1}(p,w) & \cdots & s_{LL}(p,w) \end{bmatrix}$$
(3.37)

where

$$\underbrace{s_{\ell k}(p,w)}_{\rm SE} = \underbrace{\partial x_{\ell}(p,w)/\partial p_{k}}_{\rm TE} + \underbrace{\left[\partial x_{\ell}(p,w)/\partial w\right] x_{k}(p,w)}_{\rm IE} \tag{3.38}$$

#### 3.6.1 Walrasian Demand and the Indirect Utility Function

**Proposition 3.24** (3.G.4 Roy's Identity). Suppose that u is a <u>continuous</u> utility function representing a <u>locally nonsatiated</u> and <u>strictly convex</u> preference relation  $\succeq$  defined on the consumption set  $X := \mathbb{R}^L_+$ . Suppose also that the indirect utility function is differentiable at  $(p, w) \gg 0$ . Then

$$x(p,w) = -\frac{1}{\nabla_w v(p,w)} \nabla_p v(p,w)$$
(3.39)

*Proof.* Apply the envelope theorem to UMP,

$$\nabla_p v(p, w) = \partial_p [u(x^*) - \lambda^* (w - p \cdot x^*)] = \lambda^* x^*$$
(3.40)

$$\nabla_w v(p, w) = \partial_w [u(x^*) - \lambda^* (w - p \cdot x^*)] = -\lambda^*$$
(3.41)

$$\implies x^* = -\frac{1}{\nabla_w v(p, w)} Inabla_p v(p, w)$$
(3.42)

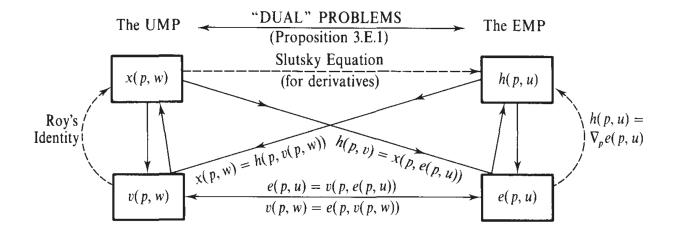


Figure 3.1: Fig. 3.G.3 in Mas-Colell: A Summary

## 3.7 Integrability

#### TODO: this subsection needs revision.

**Remark 3.10** (the Central Question). Given a continuously differentiable demand function x(p, w) satisfying homogenous of degree zero, Walras' law, and possessing negative semidefinite substitution matrix S(p, w), can we find preferences rationalizing x(p, w).

**Proposition 3.25.** Suppose the demand x(p, w) satisfying the weak axiom, homogeneity of degree zero and Walras' law, then it can be rationalized by preferences if and only if it has a symmetric substitution matrix S(p, w).

#### 3.7.1 Recovering Preferences from the Expenditure Function

Construction For each utility level u, we can construct a **at-least-as-good-as set**  $V_u \subset \mathbb{R}^L$  such that e(p,u) is the minimal expenditure required for the consumer to purchase a bundle in  $V_u$  at all price  $p \gg 0$ . That's  $V_u$  satisfies

$$\forall p \gg 0, \ e(p, u) = \min_{x \ge 0} p \cdot x \ s.t. \ x \in V_u$$
(3.43)

**Proposition 3.26** (3.H.1). Suppose that e(p, u) is strictly increasing in u and is continuous, increasing, homogeneous of degree one, concave, and differentiable in p. Then, for every utility level u, e(p, u) is the expenditure associated with at-least-as-good-as set

$$V_u = \left\{ x \in \mathbb{R}_+^L : p \cdot x \ge e(p, u) \text{ for all } p \gg 0 \right\}$$
 (3.44)

That is,  $e(p, u) = \min\{p \cdot x : x \in V_u\} \ \forall p \gg 0.$ 

Then, for each u > u(0), we can construct such  $V_u$  and define  $\succeq$  on  $X = \mathbb{R}_+^L$  with  $V_u$ . That's, for a given  $x \in \mathbb{R}_+^L$  such that  $u(x) \leftarrow \overline{u}$ , then for each  $y \in \mathbb{R}_+^L$ ,

$$y \gtrsim x \iff y \in V_{\overline{u}}$$
 (3.45)

#### 3.7.2 Recovering the Expenditure Function from Demand

**Construction** Suppose x(p, w) is known, and by Shephard's lemma, expenditure function e(p, w) can be solved from the system of partial differential equations

$$\frac{\partial e(p)}{\partial p_1} = x_1(p, e(p))$$

$$\vdots$$

$$\frac{\partial e(p)}{\partial p_L} = x_L(p, e(p))$$
(3.46)

and initial conditions.

**Proposition 3.27.** The necessary and sufficient condition for the recovery of an underlying expenditure function is the symmetry and negative semi-definiteness of the Slutsky matrix.

# 3.8 Welfare Evaluation of Economic Changes

**Context** We assume that the consumer has a fixed wealth level w > 0 and that the price vector is initially  $p^0$ . We wish to evaluate the impact on the consumer's welfare of a change from  $p^0$  to a new price vector  $p^1$ .

**Definition 3.22. Money metric** indirect utility functions measure welfare change expressed in dollar units. A money metric can be formed at an <u>arbitrary price vector</u>  $\overline{p} \gg 0$ , and the welfare change expressed in dollar units is

$$e\left(\overline{p},v\left(p^{1},w\right)\right) - e\left(\overline{p},v\left(p^{0},w\right)\right) \tag{3.47}$$

**Definition 3.23.** Let  $u^0 = v(p^0, w)$ ,  $u^1 = v(p^1, w)$ , and noting that  $e(p^0, u^0) = e(p^1, u^1) = w$ . When  $\overline{p} = p^0$ , the money metric is called **equivalence variation** 

$$EV(p^{0}, p^{1}, w) = e(p^{0}, u^{1}) - e(p^{0}, u^{0}) = e(p^{0}, u^{1}) - w$$
(3.48)

when  $\overline{p} = p^1$ , then it is referred to as

$$CV(p^0, p^1, w) = e(p^1, u^1) - e(p^1, u^0) = w - e(p^1, u^0)$$
 (3.49)

Remark 3.11 (Interpretation of EV). The equivalent variation can be thought of as the dollar amount that the consumer would be indifferent about accepting in lieu of the price change; that is, it is the change in her wealth that would be equivalent to the price change in terms of its welfare impact (so it is negative if the

price change would make the consumer worse off). Therefore,

$$v(p^0, w + EV) = u^1 (3.50)$$

Remark 3.12 (interpretation of CV). The compensating variation, on the other hand, measures the net revenue of a planner who must compensate the consumer for the price change after it occurs, bringing her back to her original utility level  $u^0$  (Hence, the compensating variation is negative if the planner would have to pay the consumer a positive level of compensation because the price change makes her worse off.)

$$v\left(p^{1}, w - CV\right) = u^{0} \tag{3.51}$$

**Proposition 3.28.** Suppose  $p_1$  changes from  $p_1^0$  to  $p_1^1$ , and  $p_\ell^0 = p_\ell^1 = \overline{p}_\ell \ \forall \ell \neq 1$ ,

$$EV(p^{0}, p^{1}, w) = e(p^{0}, u^{1}) - w$$
(3.52)

$$= e(p^{0}, u^{1}) - e(p^{1}, u^{1})$$
(3.53)

$$= \int_{p_1^1}^{p_1^0} h_1\left(p_1, \overline{p}_{-1}, u^1\right) dp_1 \tag{3.54}$$

Similarly

$$CV(p^0, p^1, w) = w - e(p^1, u^0)$$
 (3.55)

$$= e(p^0, u^0) - e(p^1, u^0)$$
(3.56)

$$= \int_{p_1}^{p_1^{\circ}} h_1\left(p_1, \overline{p}_{-1}, u^0\right) dp_1 \tag{3.57}$$

**Remark 3.13.** However, if there is no wealth effect for good 1 (e.g., if the underlying preferences are quasilinear with respect to some good  $\ell \neq 1$ ), the CV and EV measures are the same.

**Definition 3.24.** The value of area lying between  $p_0^1$  and  $p_1^1$  to the left of the market (Walrasian) demand curve for good 1,  $\int_{p_1^1}^{p_1^0} x_1(p_1, \overline{p}_{-1}, w) dp_1$ , measures the change in **Marshallian consumer surplus**. Such welfare measure is a special case of money metric when the wealth effects are absent.

**Definition 3.25.** Suppose the government imposes commodity tax of t for each unit of good 1, let T denote the amount of tax collected, then the **deadweight loss of commodity taxation** is

$$(-T) - EV(p^{0}, p^{1}, w) = e(p^{1}, u^{1}) - e(p^{0}, u^{1}) - T$$
(3.58)

$$= \int_{p_1^0}^{p_1^0 + t} h_1\left(p_1, \overline{p}_{-1}, u^1\right) dp_1 - th_1\left(p_1^0 + t, \overline{p}_{-1}, u^1\right)$$
(3.59)

$$= \int_{p_1^0}^{p_1^0 + t} \left[ h_1 \left( p_1, \overline{p}_{-1}, u^1 \right) - h_1 \left( p_1^0 + t, \overline{p}_{-1}, u^1 \right) \right] dp_1 \tag{3.60}$$

It measures the extra amount by which the consumer is made worse off by commodity taxation above what is necessary to raise the same revenue through a lump-sum tax.

#### 3.8.1 Welfare Analysis with Partial Information

**Proposition 3.29** (3.I.1). Suppose that the consumer has a locally nonsatiated rational preference relation  $\succeq$ . If  $(p^1 - p^0) \cdot x^0 < 0$ , then the consumer is strictly better off under price-wealth situation  $(p^1, w)$  than  $(p^0, w)$ .

*Proof.* By Walras' law,  $p^0 \cdot x^0 = w$ . Therefore,  $x^0 \in B^{int}_{p_1,w}$ . Because  $x^0$  is in the interior of budget set, so  $x^0 \neq x^1$  by local nonsatiation. As a result,  $x^1 \succ^* x^0$  is revealed.

**Proposition 3.30** (3.I.2). Suppose that the consumer has a differentiable expenditure function. then if  $(p^1 - p^0) \cdot x^0 > 0$ , there is a sufficiently small  $\overline{\alpha} \in (0, 1)$  such that for all  $\alpha < \overline{\alpha}$ , we have  $(p^1 - p^0) \cdot x^0 > 0$ , and so the consumer is strictly better off under price-wealth situation  $(p^0, w)$  than under  $((1 - \alpha)p^0 + \alpha p^1, w)$ 

**Definition 3.26.** The area variation measure (AV) provides an estimate of welfare change when only Walrasian demand is observable

$$AV(p^{0}, p^{1}, w) = \int_{p_{1}^{1}}^{p_{1}^{0}} x_{1}(p_{1}, \overline{p}_{-1}, w) dp_{1}$$
(3.61)

**Remark 3.14.** When there are no wealth effects, AV = EV = CV.

Remark 3.15. Marshall argued that if a good is just one commodity among many, then because one extra unit of wealth will spread itself around, the wealth effect for the commodity is bound to be small; therefore, no significant errors will be made by evaluating the welfare effects of price changes for that good using the area measure.

Remark 3.16. So when  $\Delta p$  is small, the error involved using the area variation measure becomes small as a fraction fo the true welfare change, and therefore, can be used as an accurate approximation of the actual welfare change.

#### 3.9 The Strong Axiom of Revealed Preference

Definition 3.27 (3.J.1). The market demand function x(p, w) satisfies the strong axiom of revealed preference (the SA) if for any sequence

$$(p^1, w^1), \dots, (p^N, w^N)$$
 (3.62)

with  $x\left(p^{n+1},w^{n+1}\right)\neq x\left(p^n,w^n\right)$  for all  $n\leq N-1$ , we have

$$\underbrace{p^n \cdot x \left(p^{n+1}, w^{n+1}\right) \le w^n}_{x^n \succ^* x^{n+1} \text{ revealed}} \quad \forall n \le N-1 \implies p^N \cdot x \left(p^1, w^1\right) > w^N$$
(3.63)

**Proposition 3.31** (3.J.1). If the Walrasian demand function x(p, w) satisfies the strong axiom of revealed preference then there is a rational preference relation  $\succeq$  that rationalizes x(p, w), that is, such that for all (p, w),

$$x(p,w) \succ y \ \forall y \in B_{p,w} \ s.t. \ y \neq x(p,w)$$

$$(3.64)$$

**Proposition 3.32** (1.D.2 (WARP  $\rightarrow$  Rational)). If  $(\mathcal{B}, C(\cdot))$  is a choice structure such that

- (i) The weak axiom is satisfied;
- (ii)  $\mathcal{B}$  includes all subsets of X up to three elements.

Then there is a rational preference relation  $\succeq$  that rationalizes  $C(\cdot)$  relative to  $\mathscr{B}$ .

**Remark 3.17.** Proposition 3.J.1 tells us that a choice-based theory of demand founded on the strong axiom is essentially equivalent to the preference-based theory of demand presented in this chapter.

# 4 Aggregate Demand

# 4.1 Aggregate Demand and Aggregate Wealth

**Context** Suppose there are I consumers with rational preference relations  $\succeq_i$  and corresponding Walrasian demand function  $x_i(p, w_i)$ . We want to write the **aggregate demand** 

$$x(p, w_1, \dots, w_I) = \sum_{i=1}^{I} x_i(p, w_i)$$
(4.1)

as a function of price level p and aggregate wealth  $\sum_i w_i$ , but independent to the wealth distribution. Specifically, for any two wealth distribution  $(w_i)$  and  $(w'_i)$ ,

$$\sum_{i} w_i = \sum_{i} w'_i \implies \sum_{i} x_i(p, w_i) = \sum_{i} x_i(p, w'_i)$$

$$\tag{4.2}$$

**Proposition 4.1.** The above property can be written using differential change in wealth  $(dw_i)$  such that  $\sum_i dw_i = 0$ . Assuming the differentiability of Walrasian demand functions, the invariant condition is equivalent to

$$\sum_{i} \frac{\partial x_{\ell i} (p, w_i)}{\partial w_i} dw_i = 0 \quad \text{for every } \ell$$
(4.3)

which holds if and only if

$$\frac{\partial x_{\ell i}\left(p, w_{i}\right)}{\partial w_{i}} = \frac{\partial x_{\ell j}\left(p, w_{j}\right)}{\partial w_{i}} \tag{4.4}$$

for every commodity  $\ell$ , pair of individuals i, j, and all wealth distribution  $(w_i)$ .

*Proof.* ( $\Longrightarrow$ ) for given  $\ell, i, j$ , we can define  $d\mathbf{w} := \mathbf{e}_i - \mathbf{e}_j$  and substitute it into the identity. ( $\Longleftrightarrow$ ) if all partial derivatives with respect to w are equal, we can partial them out from the summation,

$$\sum_{i} \frac{\partial x_{\ell i}(p, w_{i})}{\partial w_{i}} dw_{i} = \eta^{*} \sum_{i} dw_{i}. \text{ And because } \sum_{i} dw_{i} = 0, \sum_{i} \frac{\partial x_{\ell i}(p, w_{i})}{\partial w_{i}} dw_{i}.$$

Remark 4.1. The above proposition says aggregate demand is independent to the particular wealth distribution if the individual demand changes arising from any wealth redistribution across consumers will cancel out. Geometrically, the condition is equivalent to all consumers' wealth expansion paths are parallel string lines.

**Proposition 4.2** (4.B.1). A <u>necessary and sufficient</u> condition for the set of consumers to exhibit parallel, straight wealth expansion paths at any price vector p is that their preferences admit indirect utility functions of the **Gorman form** with the coefficients on  $w_i$  identical for every consumer, that's,

$$v_i(p, w_i) = a_i(p) + b(p)w_i \tag{4.5}$$

**Definition 4.1.** A family of functions  $(w_1(p, w), \dots, w_I(p, w))$  with  $\sum_i w_i(p, w) = w$  for all (p, w) is called a wealth distribution rule.

**Proposition 4.3.** If the individual wealth levels are generated by a wealth distribution rule, we can always write the aggregate demand x(p, w) as a function depends only on price and aggregate wealth.

#### 5 Production

#### 5.1 Production Sets

**Definition 5.1.** A **production vector/production plan** is a vector  $y \in \mathbb{R}^L$  that describes the net outputs of L commodities from a production process. Where positive numbers denote outputs and negative numbers denote inputs. The set of all *technologically possible* production plans is defined as the **production set**  $Y \subset \mathbb{R}^L$ .

**Remark 5.1.** The set of feasible production plans is limited first and foremost by technological constraints. However, in any particular model, legal restrictions or prior contractual commitments may also contribute to the determination of the production set.

**Definition 5.2.** The **transformation function**  $F: \mathbb{R}^L \to \mathbb{R}$  associated with production plan Y is defined such that

$$Y = \{ y \in \mathbb{R}^L : F(y) \le 0 \}$$
 (5.1)

and F(y) if and only if  $y \in \partial Y$ . The set  $\{y \in \mathbb{R}^L : F(y) = 0\}$  is called the **transformation frontier**.

Definition 5.3. The marginal rate of transformation (MRT) of good  $\ell$  for good k at  $\overline{y}$  is defined as

$$MRT_{\ell k}(\overline{y}) := \frac{\partial F(\overline{y})/\partial y_{\ell}}{\partial F(\overline{y})/\partial y_{k}} \left( = \frac{dy_{k}}{dy_{\ell}} \right)$$

$$(5.2)$$

it is a measure of how much the (net) output of good k can increase if the firm decreases the (net) output of good  $\ell$  by one marginal unit.

**Definition 5.4.** For single-output technologies with distinct inputs and output, the **production function** f(z) is defined as the maximum amount q of output that can be produced using input amounts  $(z_1, \dots, z_{L-1}) \geq 0$ . So the production set generated by f is

$$Y = \{(-z_1, \dots, -z_{L-1}, q) : q - f(z_1, \dots, z_{L-1}) \le 0 \land (z_1, \dots, z_{L-1}) \ge 0\}$$

$$(5.3)$$

Definition 5.5. The marginal rate of technical substitution (MRTS) of input  $\ell$  for input k at  $\overline{z} \geq 0$  is defined to be

$$MRTS_{\ell k}(\overline{z}) := \frac{\partial f(\overline{z})/\partial z_{\ell}}{\partial f(\overline{z})/\partial z_{k}}$$
 (5.4)

Assumption 5.1. Common properties of production sets assumed are

- (i)  $Y \neq \emptyset$ ;
- (ii) Y is closed (primarily for technical issues);
- (iii) No free lunch:  $y \in Y \land y \ge 0 \implies y = 0$ , more succinctly,  $Y \cap \mathbb{R}^L_+ \subset \{0\}$ ;
- (iv) Possibility of inaction:  $0 \in Y$ ;
- (v) Free disposal:  $Y \mathbb{R}^L_+ \subset Y$ ;
- (vi) Irreversibility:  $\forall y \in Y \setminus \neq 0, -y \notin Y$ ;
- (vii) Non-increasing returns to scale:  $y \in Y \land \alpha \in [0,1] \implies \alpha y \in Y$ ;
- (viii) Non-decreasing returns to scale:  $y \in Y \land \alpha \ge 1 \implies \alpha y \in Y$ ;
- (ix) Constant returns to scale:  $y \in Y \land \alpha \ge 0 \implies \alpha y \in Y$ , therefore, Y is a cone;
- (x) Additivity/Free entry:  $Y + Y \subset Y$ ;
- (xi) Convexity: Y is convex;
- (xii) Y is a convex cone:  $\forall y_1, y_2 \in Y, \alpha, \beta \geq 0, \ \alpha y_1 + \beta y_2 \in Y.$

**Definition 5.6.** A subset C of a vector space V is a **cone** (or sometimes called a linear cone) if  $\forall x \in C, \alpha \geq 0$ ,  $\alpha x \in C$ .

**Proposition 5.1** (Exercise 5.B.2). For single-output technologies with distinct inputs and output, Y satisfies constant return to scale if and only if  $f(\cdot)$  is homogenous of degree 1.

**Proposition 5.2** (5.B.1). The production set Y is additive and satisfies the non-increasing returns condition if and only if it is a convex cone.

**Proposition 5.3** (5.B.2, adding the missing entrepreneurship input factor). For any convex production set  $Y \subset \mathbb{R}^L$  with  $0 \in Y$ , there is a constant returns, convex production set  $Y' \subset \mathbb{R}^{L+1}$  such that

$$Y = \{ y \in \mathbb{R}^L : (y, -1) \in Y' \}$$
 (5.5)

Remark 5.2. In a competitive environment, the return to the entrepreneurial factor is the firm's profit.

#### 5.2 Profit Maximization and Cost Minimization

**Assumption 5.2** (price-taking assumption). Assuming the prices quoted for the L goods,  $p \gg 0$ , are independent of the production plans of the firm.

**Assumption 5.3.** We assume that the firm's production set Y satisfies the *non-emptiness*, *closedness*, and *free disposal*.

#### 5.2.1 The Profit Maximization Problem

**Definition 5.7** (PMP).

$$\max_{y \in \mathbb{R}^L} p \cdot y \ s.t. \ y \in Y \tag{5.6}$$

equivalently

$$\max_{y \in \mathbb{R}^L} p \cdot y \ s.t. \ F(y) \le 0 \tag{5.7}$$

define the **profit function** and **supply correspondence** as

$$\pi(p) := \max\{p \cdot : y \in Y\} \tag{5.8}$$

$$y(p) := \operatorname{argmax} \{ p \cdot : y \in Y \} \tag{5.9}$$

If the transformation function  $F(\cdot)$  is differentiable, then the necessary condition for  $y^* \in y(p)$  is

$$p = \lambda \nabla F(y^*) \tag{5.10}$$

**Definition 5.8** (PMP with single-output technology). Suppose the input and output sets are disjoint. Let  $f: \mathbb{R}^{L-1}_+ \to \mathbb{R}_+$  denote the production function, let w and p denote the prices of inputs and the output

commodity respectively. The PMP can be written as

$$\max_{z>0} pf(z) - w \cdot z \tag{5.11}$$

the necessary conditions for  $z^* \in \operatorname{argmax}$  are

$$\begin{cases} p \nabla f(z^*) \le w \\ [p \nabla f(z^*) - w] \odot z^* = 0 \end{cases}$$
(5.12)

Interpretation: the marginal product of every input  $\ell$  actually used must equal its price in terms of output,  $w_{\ell}/p$ .

**Proposition 5.4** (5.C.1). Suppose  $\pi(p)$  and y(p) are the profit function and supply correspondence with production set Y. Further, suppose Y is closed and satisfies the free disposal property. Then

- (i)  $\pi$  is homogeneous of degree one;
- (ii)  $\pi$  is convex;
- (iii) If Y is convex, then  $Y = \{ y \in \mathbb{R}^L : p \cdot y \le \pi(p) \ \forall p \gg 0 \}$
- (iv) y is homogeneous of degree zero;
- (v) If Y is convex, then y(p) is a convex set for all p. If Y is strictly convex, then y(p) is a singleton (if nonempty);
- (vi) (**Hotelling's Lemma**) If  $y(\overline{p})$  is a singleton, then pi is differentiable at p and  $\nabla \pi(\overline{p}) = y(\overline{p})$ ;
- (vii) (**Lay of Supply**) If y is a function differentiable at  $\overline{p}$ , then  $Dy(\overline{p}) = D^2\pi(\overline{p})$  is a symmetric and positive semidefinite matrix with  $Dy(\overline{p})\overline{p}) = 0$ . Where Dy is called the **supply substitution matrix**.

**Proposition 5.5** (Law of Supply). Discrete case:

$$(p - p') \cdot (y - y') \ge 0 \tag{5.13}$$

Differential case, when  $p = \overline{p}$  and  $y = y(\overline{p})$ :

$$dp \underbrace{Dy(p)dp}_{dy} = dp \cdot dy \ge 0 \tag{5.14}$$

#### 5.2.2 Cost Minimization

**Definition 5.9** (CMP). Suppose the firm has a single-output technology, where input and output sets are disjoint. Let  $(w, p) \gg 0$  denote the prices of inputs and the output. For each output level  $q \geq 0$ , the cost

minimization problem is

$$\min_{z \ge 0} w \cdot z \ s.t. \ f(z) \ge q \tag{5.15}$$

The value function c(w,q) is called the **cost function** and the solution set z(w,q) is known as the **conditional factor demand correspondence**. The necessary conditions for  $z^* \in z(w,q)$  are

$$\begin{cases} w \ge \lambda \nabla f(z^*) \\ [w - \lambda \nabla f(z^*)] \odot z^* = 0 \end{cases}$$
(5.16)

By the envelope theorem,  $\lambda^* = \frac{\partial c(z^*,q)}{\partial q}$ , which can be interpreted as the marginal value of relaxing the constraint  $f(z^*) \geq q$ . Therefore,  $\lambda$  is the marginal cost of production.

**Proposition 5.6** (5.C.2). Suppose that c(w,q) and z(w,q) are the cost function and conditional factor demand correspondence corresponding to a single-output technology Y with production function f. Suppose Y is closed and satisfies the free disposal property. Then

- (i) c is homogeneous of degree one in w and nondecreasing in q;
- (ii) c is a concave function of w;
- (iii) If the sets  $\{z \ge 0 : f(z) \ge q\}$  are convex for every q, then  $Y = \{(-z,q) : w \cdot z \ge c(w,q) \ \forall w \gg 0\}$ ;
- (iv) z is homogenous of degree zero in w;
- (v) If the set  $\{z \geq 0 : f(z) \geq q\}$  is convex, then z(w,q) is a convex set. If  $\{z \geq 0 : f(z) \geq q\}$  is strictly convex, then z(w,q) is a singleton;
- (vi) (Shepard's Lemma) If  $z(\overline{w}, q)$  is a singleton, then c is differentiable with respect to w at  $\overline{w}$ , and  $\nabla_w c(\overline{w}, q) = z(\overline{w}, q)$ ;
- (vii) If z is differentiable at  $\overline{w}$  then  $D_w z(\overline{w},q) = D_w^2(\overline{w},q)$  is a symmetric and negative semidefinite matrix with  $D_w z(\overline{w},q)\overline{w} = 0$ ;
- (viii) If f is homogeneous of degree one (i.e. constant return to scale), then c and z are homogeneous of degree one in q;
- (ix) If f is concave, then c is a convex function of q.

Corollary 5.1. Alternative form of CMP, determining the profit-maximizing production level

$$\max_{q \ge 0} pq - c(w, q) \tag{5.17}$$

where the necessary conditions for  $q^* \in \operatorname{argmax}$  are

$$p \le \frac{\partial c(w, q^*)}{\partial q}$$
 with equality if  $q^* > 0$  (5.18)

At an interior optimum, price equals marginal cost. Note that if c is convex in q (i.e. pq - c(w, q) is concave in q), the the necessary condition is also sufficient.

## 5.3 The Geometry of Cost and Supply in the Single-Output Case

**Definition 5.10.** The cost function excluding any prior input commitments is called the **long-run cost** function.

Remark 5.3. Suppose input  $z_k$  is fixed at  $\overline{z}_k$ , in the short run, then for each  $q \geq 0$ , the short-run cost function is defined as

$$C(q|\overline{z}_k) := \min_{z>0} \{ w \cdot z : f(z) \ge q, z_2 = \overline{z}_2 \}$$

$$(5.19)$$

the corresponding long run cost function at q is defined as

$$C(q) := \min_{z \ge 0} \{ w \cdot z : f(z) \ge q \}$$
 (5.20)

given the relaxation of constraint, for all  $q \geq 0$ ,  $C(q) \leq C(q|\overline{z}_k)$ . Geometrically,  $C(\cdot)$  is the lower envelope of the family of short-run cost functions  $\{C(q|\overline{z}_k) : \overline{z}_k \geq 0\}$ .

#### 5.4 Aggregation

**Remark 5.4.** The absence of budget constraint in the profit maximization implies that individual supply is not subject to wealth effects. As prices change, there are only substitution effects along the production frontier.

**Definition 5.11.** Suppose there are J production units in the economy with production set  $(Y_j)$ . Assuming each  $Y_j$  is nonempty, closed, and satisfies the free disposal property. Then the **aggregate supply** correspondence is defined as

$$y(p) = \sum_{j=1}^{J} y_j(p) = \left\{ y \in \mathbb{R}^L : y = \sum_{j} y_j \text{ where } y_j \in y_j(p), \ \forall j = 1, \dots, J \right\}$$
 (5.21)

**Proposition 5.7.** If every  $y_j$  is single valued, since  $Dy_j(p)$  is symmetric and positive semidefinite, then  $Dy_j(p)$  is also symmetric and positive semidefinite.

**Proposition 5.8** (Law of supply in the aggregate). By adding over the lay of individual supply, we have

$$(p - p') \cdot [y(p) - y(p')] > 0 \tag{5.22}$$

**Definition 5.12.** The aggregate production set is defined as

$$Y := \sum_{j} Y_j = \left\{ y \in \mathbb{R}^L : y = \sum_{j} y_j \text{ where } y_j \in Y_j, \ \forall j = 1, \cdots, J \right\}$$
 (5.23)

**Proposition 5.9** (5.E.1). For all  $p \gg 0$ , we have

(i) 
$$\pi^*(p) = \sum_{j} \pi_j(p);$$

(ii) 
$$y^*(p) = \sum_j y_j(p) = \left\{ \sum_j y_j : y_j \in y_j(p) \ \forall j \right\}.$$

Interpretation: the aggregate profit obtained by each production unit maximizing profit separately taking prices as given is the same as that which would be obtained if they were to coordinate their actions in a joint profit maximizing decision. Therefore, to find the solution of the aggregate profit maximization problem for given prices p, it is enough to add the solutions of the corresponding individual problems. Moreover, given the minimizing aggregate output  $q = \sum_j q_j$ , the total cost c(w, q) is exactly the value of aggregate cost function (the cost function corresponding to the aggregate production set Y). Thus, the allocation of production of output level q among the firms is cost minimizing. As a result, q(p) satisfies necessary conditions  $p \leq c'(q)$  and (p - c'(q))q = 0.

#### 5.5 Efficient Production

**Definition 5.13** (5.F.1). A production vector  $y \in Y$  is **efficient** if there is no  $y' \in Y$  such that  $y' \geq y$  and  $y' \neq y$ . That is,  $Y \cap (\{y\} + \mathbb{R}^L_+) = \{y\}$ .

**Proposition 5.10** (5.F.1, A simplified version of the first fundamental theorem of welfare economics). If  $y \in Y$  is profit maximizing for some  $p \gg 0$ , then y is efficient. Interpretation: if a collection of firms each independently maximizes profits with respect to the same fixed price vector  $p \gg 0$ , then the aggregate production is socially efficient.

Competitive Equilibrium 
$$\implies$$
 Pareto Optimal (5.24)

**Remark 5.5.** The above proposition is valid even if the production set is non-convex.

**Proposition 5.11** (5.F.2, A simplified version of the second fundamental theorem of welfare economics). Suppose Y is convex. Then every efficient production  $y \in Y$  is a profit-maximizing production for some nonzero price vector  $p \ge 0$ .

Pareto Optimal 
$$\stackrel{\text{reallocation}}{\Longrightarrow}$$
 Competitive Equilibirum (5.25)

#### 5.6 Remarks on the Objectives of the Firm

Remark 5.6. Suppose that firm with production set Y is owned by consumer with allocation of owner ship  $(\theta_i) \geq 0$  such that  $\sum_i \theta_i = 1$ . All profit is given back to owners according to the their shares of the firm. The owners of the firm are consumers and trying to solve the UMP

$$\max_{x_i} u_i(x_i) \ s.t. \ p \cdot x_i \le w_i + \theta_i p \cdot y \tag{5.26}$$

Where  $w_i$  is the nonprofit wealth of consumer i. At any fixed price vector  $p \gg 0$ , the consumer owners unanimously prefer that the firm implement a production plan  $y' \in Y$  instead of  $y \in Y$  whenever  $p \cdot y' > p \cdot y$  (as such change relaxes the budget constraint and provides marginal utility  $\lambda^*$ ). Hence, we conclude that if we maintain the assumption of price-taking behaviour, all owners would agree, whatever their utility functions, to instruct the manager of the firm to maximize profits. Therefore, firms' profit maximization behaviour is justified.

#### **Remark 5.7.** Three assumptions are crucial for above justification:

- (i) Price-taker assumption: if the prices of inputs are increased due to the increased amount of output, and the same inputs provide substantive utilities. Then the solution to UMP may lead to a production level below the optimal output level, to keep the inputs relatively cheap;
- (ii) Profits are not uncertain;
- (iii) Managers can be controlled by owners.

# 6 Chapter 6. Choice Under Uncertainty

# 6.1 Expected Utility Theory

**Assumption 6.1.** Let C denote the set of all possible outcomes/consequences from one risky alternative. For simplicity, we assume C is finite, indexed by  $n = 1, \dots, N$ .

**Assumption 6.2.** We assume that the probabilities of various outcomes arising from any chosen alternative are *objectively known*.

**Definition 6.1** (6.B.1). A simple lottery L is a list  $(p_n)_n \ge 0$  such that  $\sum_n p_n = 1$ , where  $p_n$  is interpreted as the probability of outcome n occurring. That is, a lottery is a distribution on the outcome space. If  $p_n = 1$  for some n, then L is said to be a **degenerate lottery**.

**Remark 6.1.** The set of all simple lotteries with N outcomes is the (N-1) dimensional simplex

$$\Delta := \{ p \in \mathbb{R}^N : p_1 + \dots + p_N = 1 \}$$
(6.1)

**Definition 6.2** (6.B.2). Given K simple lotteries  $L_k = (p_n^k)$ , and probabilities  $(\alpha_k)$  with  $\sum_k \alpha_k = 1$ , the **compound lottery**  $(L_k; \alpha_k)$  is the risky alternative that yields the simple lottery  $L_k$  with probability  $\alpha_k$  for each k.

**Proposition 6.1.** A compound lottery can be **reduced** into a simple lottery, the probability of outcome n in the reduced lottery is

$$p_n = \alpha_1 p_n^1 + \dots + \alpha_k p_n^k \tag{6.2}$$

Equivalently, with vector addition

$$L := \sum_{k=1}^{K} \alpha_k L_k \in \Delta \tag{6.3}$$

**Assumption 6.3** (Consequentialist Premise). We assume that for any risky alternative, only the reduced lottery over final outcomes is of relevance to the decision maker.

**Assumption 6.4.** Let  $\mathscr{L}$  denote the set of all simple lotteries over the set of outcomes C. We assume that the decision maker has a rational preference relation  $\succeq$  on  $\mathscr{L}$ .

**Definition 6.3** (6.B.3). The preference relation  $\succeq$  on the space of simple lotteries  $\mathscr{L}$  is **continuous** if for any  $L, L', L'' \in \mathscr{L}$ , the set

$$\{\alpha \in [0,1] : \alpha L + (1-\alpha)L' \succsim L''\} \subset [0,1]$$
 (6.4)

and

$$\{\alpha \in [0,1]: L'' \succsim \alpha L + (1-\alpha)L'\} \subset [0,1] \tag{6.5}$$

are closed. Given a (convergent) sequence of probability distributions (here characterized by  $\alpha$ ) inside the upper/lower contour of one lottery, the limit distribution is also in the upper/lower contour set of the lottery.

**Definition 6.4** (6.B.4). The preference relation  $\succeq$  on the space of simple lotteries  $\mathscr{L}$  satisfies the **independence axiom** if for all  $L, L', L'' \in \mathscr{L}$  and  $\alpha \in (0,1)$  we have

$$L \succsim L' \iff \alpha L + (1 - \alpha)L'' \succsim \alpha L' + (1 - \alpha)L'' \tag{6.6}$$

That is, if we mix each of two lotteries with a third one, then the preference ordering of the two resulting mixtures does not depend on (is independent of) the particular third lottery used.

**Definition 6.5** (6.B.5). The utility function  $U: \mathcal{L} \to \mathbb{R}$  has an **expected utility form** if there exists an assignment of numbers  $(u_n)$  to the N outcomes such that for every *simple lottery*  $L = (p_n) \in \mathcal{L}$  we have

$$U(L) = \sum_{n} u_n p_n \tag{6.7}$$

U with the expected utility form is also called a Von Neumann-Morgenstern expected utility function.

**Proposition 6.2** (6.B.1). A utility function  $U: \mathcal{L} \to \mathbb{R}$  has an expected utility form <u>if and only if</u> it is linear. That is,

$$U(\sum_{k} \alpha_k L_k) = \sum_{k} \alpha_k U(L_k) \tag{6.8}$$

for any compound lottery  $(L_k, \alpha_k)$ .

**Proposition 6.3** (6.B.2). Suppose  $U : \mathcal{L} \to \mathbb{R}$  is a v.N-M expected utility function for preference  $\succeq$ , then it is invariant under positive affine transformations.

**Proposition 6.4** (6.B.3, Expected Utility Theorem). Suppose that the rational preference  $\succeq$  on  $\mathscr{L}$  satisfies the <u>continuity</u> and <u>independence axioms</u>. Then  $\succeq$  admits a utility representation of the expected utility form. That is, there exists a list  $(u_n)$  for the N outcomes such that for any two lotteries L, L', we have

$$L \gtrsim L' \iff \sum_{n} u_n p_n \ge \sum_{n} u_n p_n'$$
 (6.9)

#### 6.2 Money Lotteries and Risk Aversion

**Assumption 6.5.** Assume the outcomes of lotteries are continuous monetary values, x. Then such a monetary lottery can be represented by a cumulative distribution function F. Therefore the lottery space  $\mathscr{L}$  is identical to the set of all distribution functions over  $[a, +\infty)$ .

Remark 6.2. For each wealth level x from a monetary lottery, suppose the individual has a **Bernoulli** utility function  $u:[a,+\infty)\to\mathbb{R}$  representing his preference over wealth levels. Then the v.N-M utility function U(F) is the expectation of u(x) over all possible outcomes:

$$U(F) = \int u(x) \ dF(x) \tag{6.10}$$

**Assumption 6.6.** We assume the Bernoulli utility function  $u(\cdot)$  is increasing and continuous except at 0, and set  $u(0) = -\infty$ .

# 7 Chapter 10. Competitive Markets

Assumption 7.1. Each consumer's expenditure constitutes only a small portion of his overall budget. When this is so, it is reasonable to assume that changes in the market for this good will leave the prices of all other commodities approximately unaffected and that there will be, in addition, negligible wealth effects in the market under study.

- 1. No inter-market price interactions;
- 2. Negligible wealth effects.

## 7.1 Pareto Optimality and Competitive Equilibria

#### Economy setup

- (i) L goods with initial endowment  $(\omega_{\ell})_{\ell} \in \mathbb{R}_{+}^{L}+;$
- (ii) I consumers with preferences over consumption bundle  $(x_{\ell i})_{\ell} \in X_i \subset \mathbb{R}^L$ ;
- (iii) J firms with production plan  $(y_{\ell j})_{\ell} \in Y_j \subset \mathbb{R}^L$ .

So the total amount of good  $\ell$  in the economy is  $\omega_{\ell} + \sum_{i} y_{\ell j}$ .

**Definition 7.1** (10.B.1). An economic allocation is a tuple of vectors  $\mathcal{A} = (x_i, y_j) \in \mathbb{R}^{LI} \times \mathbb{R}^{LJ}$ . Such allocation is **feasible** if

$$\forall \ell \in [L], \ \sum_{i \in [I]} x_{\ell i} \le \omega_{\ell} + \sum_{j \in [J]} y_{\ell j} \tag{7.1}$$

**Definition 7.2** (1.B.2). A feasible allocation  $\mathcal{A}$  is **Pareto optimal/efficient** there does not exist feasible allocation  $\mathcal{A}'$  such that

$$\forall i \in [I], \ u_i(x_i') \ge u_i(x_i) \tag{7.2}$$

$$\exists i \in [I], \ u_i(x_i') > u_i(x_i) \tag{7.3}$$

**Definition 7.3.** The utility possibility set is defined as

$$U := \{(u_i) \in \mathbb{R}^I \ s.t. \ \exists \ \text{feasible allocation} \ \mathcal{A} \ \text{satisfying} \ u_i \le u_i(x_i) \ \forall i \in [I] \}$$
 (7.4)

**Remark 7.1.** The criterion of Pareto optimality does not insure that an allocation is in any sense equitable. It does, at the very least, say that there is no waste in the allocation of resources in society.

Competitive market setup The initial endowment is distributed among I consumers as  $(\omega_{\ell i})$  satisfying  $\sum_{i} \omega_{\ell i} = \omega_{\ell}$  for each  $\ell$ . Firms are owned by consumers, consumer i owns  $\theta_{ij}$  proportion of firm j. Thus,  $\sum_{i} \theta_{ij} = 1$  for every j. The profit of firm j is distributed according to the share  $(\theta_{ij})_{i}$ .

Assumption 7.2. In a competitive economy, a market exists for each of the L goods, and all consumers and producers act as *price takers*. The idea behind the price-taking assumption is that if consumers and producers are small relative to the size of the market, they will regard market prices as unaffected by their own actions.

**Definition 7.4** (10.B.3). The allocation  $\mathcal{A} = ((x_i^*), (y_j^*))$  and price vector  $p^* \in \mathbb{R}^L$  constitute a **competitive/Walrasian equilibrium** if

(i) Profit maximization;

$$\max_{y_j \in Y_j} p^* \cdot y_j \tag{7.5}$$

(ii) Utility maximization;

$$\max_{x_i \in X_i} u_i(x_i) \ s.t. \ p^* \cdot x_i \le p^* \cdot \omega_i + \sum_{j=1}^J \theta_{ij} (p^* \cdot y_j^*)$$
 (7.6)

(iii) Market clearing for all  $\ell = 1, \dots, L$ ,

$$\sum_{i=1}^{I} x_{\ell i}^* = \omega_{\ell} + \sum_{j=1}^{J} y_{\ell j}^*$$
 (7.7)

Remark 7.2. If allocation  $(x_i^*), (y_j^*)$  and price  $p^* \gg 0$  constitute a competitive equilibrium, then the same allocation with price vector  $\alpha p^*$  also form a competitive equilibrium (the argmin and argmax are invariant). Therefore, we can always normalize the price of certain good to 1.

**Lemma 7.1** (10.B.1, Double-entry accountancy). If allocation  $\mathcal{A}^*$  and price  $p \gg 0$  satisfy the market clearing condition for all goods  $\ell \neq k$ , and if every consumer's budget constraint is satisfied with equality, then the market for good k also clears.

*Proof.* Note that because of the equality wealth constraint, for each good  $\ell$ ,

$$\sum_{i=1}^{I} p_{\ell} \left( x_{\ell i} - \omega_{\ell i} - \sum_{j=1}^{J} \theta_{ij} p_{\ell} y_{j} \right) = 0$$
 (7.8)

$$\implies \sum_{\ell=1}^{L} p_{\ell} \left( x_{\ell} - \omega_{\ell} - \sum_{j=1}^{J} y_{\ell j} \right) = 0 \tag{7.9}$$

$$\implies \sum_{\ell \neq k} p_{\ell} \underbrace{\left(x_{\ell} - \omega_{\ell} - \sum_{j=1}^{J} y_{\ell j}\right)}_{0 \text{ if real statistics}} = -p_{k} \left(x_{k} - \omega_{k} - \sum_{j=1}^{J} y_{k j}\right)$$

$$(7.10)$$

**Remark 7.3.** Lemma 10.B.1 will allow us to identify competitive equilibria by checking for market clearing in only L-1 markets.

## 7.2 Partial Equilibrium Competitive Analysis

Remark 7.4. First, as Marshall (1920) emphasized, when the expenditure on the good under study is a small portion of a consumer's total expenditure, only a small fraction of any additional dollar of wealth will be spent on this good; consequently, we can expect wealth effects for it to be small. Second, with similarly dispersed substitution effects, the small size of the market under study should lead the prices of other goods to be approximately unaffected by changes in this market.

**Economy setup & assumptions** In this section we are going to consider a simple two-good quasilinear model with good  $\ell$  and numeraire m (where m can be considered as a composite of all goods other than good  $\ell$ , or the wealth left after purchasing good  $\ell$ . Thus  $p_m$  is normalized to 0.). For consumer i, the utility function for quasilinear preference can be written as

$$u_i(m_i, x_i) = m_i + \phi_i(x_i) \tag{7.11}$$

with coefficient of  $m_i$  normalized to 1. Assuming  $\phi_i$  is twice differentiable,  $\phi_i' > 0$ , and  $\phi_i'' < 0$  for every  $x_i \ge 0$ . As well, normalize  $\phi_i(0) = 0$ .

Each firm j in this economy produce good  $\ell$  from good m with cost function  $c_j(q_j)$  satisfying  $c'_j(q_j) > 0$  and  $c''_j(q_j) \ge 0$  for every  $q \ge 0$ . So the production set can be written as

$$Y_j = \{ (-z_j, q_j) : q_j \ge 0 \land z \ge c_j(q_j) \}$$
(7.12)

Further, assuming  $\omega_{\ell} = 0$  and  $(\omega_{mi}) \gg 0$ .

**Firms' Behaviour** Given price vector  $p^* > 0$ , firm j's equilibrium output level  $q_j^*$  satisfies

$$q_j^* \in \operatorname*{argmax}_{q_j \ge 0} p^* q - c_j(q_j) \tag{7.13}$$

where the necessary conditions given by KKT are

$$p^* \le c'(q_j^*) \land [p^* - c'(q_j^*)]q_j^* = 0$$
(7.14)

Consumers' Behaviour Each consumer i's competitive equilibrium consumption bundle  $(m_i^*, x_i^*)$  solves

$$\max_{m_i \in \mathbb{R}, x_i \in \mathbb{R}_+} m_i + \phi_i(x_i) \tag{7.15}$$

s.t. 
$$m_I + p^* x_i \le \omega_{mi} + \sum_{j=1}^J \theta_{ij} \left( p^* q_j^* - c_j \left( q_j^* \right) \right)$$
 (7.16)

when the budget constraint holds with equality (Walras' law), it is equivalent to the unconstrained optimization

$$\max_{m_i \in \mathbb{R}, x_i \in \mathbb{R}_+} \phi_i(x_i) - p^* x_i + \underbrace{\left[\omega_{mi} + \sum_{j=1}^J \theta_{ij} \left(p^* q_j^* - c_j \left(q_j^*\right)\right)\right]}_{\text{exogenous}}$$

$$(7.17)$$

The exogenous part of objective function can be safely ignored.  $\phi_i$  is concave, so is the sum of concave and linear functions. Therefore, the necessary condition of optimization is also sufficient:

$$p^* \ge \phi_i'(x_i^*) \wedge [p^* - \phi_i'(x_i^*)] x_i^* = 0 \tag{7.18}$$

**Remark 7.5.** The equilibrium allocation and price are independent of the distribution of endowments and ownership shares. This important simplification arises from the quasilinear form of consumer preferences.

Thus, the necessary and sufficient condition for a triple  $((x_i^*), (y_j^*), p)$  to form a competitive equilibrium is equivalent to

$$\forall i \in [I], \ p^* \le c'(q_i^*) \land [p^* - c'(q_i^*)]q_i^* = 0 \tag{7.19}$$

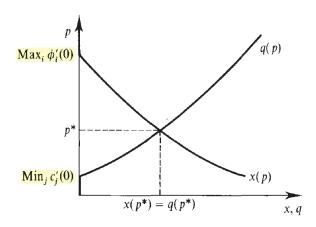
$$\forall j \in [J], \ p^* \ge \phi_i'(x_i^*) \land [p^* - \phi_i'(x_i^*)]x_i^* = 0$$
(7.20)

$$\sum_{i=1}^{I} x_i^* = \sum_{j=1}^{J} q_j^* \tag{7.21}$$

**Remark 7.6.** Since the utility function is strictly concave, therefore, the preference represented is strictly convex. And for each p > 0, there is a unique  $x_i(p)$  solves the consumer's optimization problem. Note that for any  $p \ge \phi'_i(0)$ ,  $x_i(p) = 0$ .

**Aggregate Demand** The aggregate demand function for good  $\ell$  is the function  $x(p) = \sum_i x_i(p)$ . x(p) is continuous and non increasing at all p > 0, and is strictly decreasing at any  $p < \max_i \phi_i'(0)$ . Note that x(p) = 0 whenever  $p \ge \max_i \phi_i'(0)$ .

**Aggregate Supply** The aggregate (industry) supply function for good  $\ell$  is  $q(p) = \sum_j q_j(p)$ . q(p) is non-decreasing all all p > 0, and is strictly increasing at any  $p > \min_j c'_j(0)$ . Also, q(p) = 0 whenever  $p \le \min_j c'_j(0)$ .



**Remark 7.7.** The necessary condition for  $((x_i^*), (y_i^*), p)$  to constitute a competitive equilibrium is

$$p^* \in \left(\min_j c_j'(0), \ \max_i \phi_i'(0)\right)$$
 (7.22)

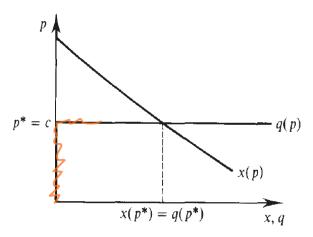


Figure 7.1: Constant Marginal Cost

Comparative Statistics Suppose each consumer's preferences are affected by a vector of exogenous parameters  $\alpha \in \mathbb{R}^M$ . And the technology is affected by exogenous parameters  $\beta \in \mathbb{R}^S$ . And the price faced by each consumer and each producer are affected by the tax/subsidy parameter  $t \in \mathbb{R}^K$ . Therefore,

$$\phi_i(x_i, \alpha) \quad \hat{p}_i(p^*, t) \tag{7.23}$$

$$c_j(q_j,\beta) \quad \hat{p}_j(p^*,t) \tag{7.24}$$

and the competitive equilibrium with interior solutions  $((x_i^*), (y_j^*), p)$  and parameter set  $\Theta = (\alpha, \beta, t)$  can be characterized by

$$\phi_i'(x_i^*, \alpha) = \hat{p}_i(p^*, t) \quad i = 1, \dots, I$$
 (7.25)

$$c'_{j}(q_{j}^{*},\beta) = \hat{p}_{j}(p^{*},t) \quad j = 1,\dots,J$$
 (7.26)

$$\sum_{i=1}^{I} x_i^* = \sum_{j=1}^{J} q_j^* \tag{7.27}$$

**Remark 7.8.** If all the relevant functions are differentiable, we can use the implicit function theorem to derive the marginal change in the equilibrium allocation and price in response to a differential change in the values of these parameters.

**Example 7.1** (10.C.1 Comparative Statics Effects of a Sales Tax). Suppose there is a per-unit tax  $t \ge 0$ . As a result, consumers are facing  $\hat{p}_i(p,t) = p + t$ , and producers are facing  $\hat{p}_j(p,t) = p$ . Therefore, the

equilibrium market price  $p^*(t)$  as a function of t must satisfy the market clearing condition:

$$x(p^*(t) + t) = q(p^*(t))$$
(7.28)

By the implicit function theorem,

$$p^{*'}(t) = -\frac{x'(p^{*}(t) + t)}{x'(p^{*}(t) + t) - q'(p^{*}(t))}$$
(7.29)