1 Utility Representation of Preferences

 $u:A\to\mathbb{R}$

 $a \succeq b$ if and only if $u(a) \geq u(b)$

When preferences are represented by utility functions, the analysis becomes easy.

A natural question to ask then is under what conditions preferences have a utility representation?

If A is a finite set then there exists a utility function u that represents the preference iff the preference is reflexive, complete and transitive, stated oterwise,

If A is a finite set then,

 $\exists u: A \to \mathbb{R}$ that represent the \succsim iff

 \succsim is reflexive, complete and transitive.

2 Functions

Let A and B be any non-empty sets. A function from A to B is a rule that associates with each member of A a unique member of B.

The notation is $f: A \to B$, where input comes from the set A and output belongs to the set B.

If $a \in A$, we denote the unique element of B that the rule associates to a by f(a) We refer to the element a of A as an argument of the function, and the corresponding element f(a) of B as the value of the function at that argument (or sometimes the image of the point a under f).

Consider an example $f(x) = x^2 + x + 1$. The value of the function f at argument 2 is f(2), which is further equal to 7.

2.1 Domain and Codomain

If $f: A \to B$, we refer the set A as the domain of f and the set B as the codomain.

2.2 Range

We say that f(a) is the range of f iff

$$f(A) = \{ y \in B | \exists x \in A, f(x) = y \}$$

Note that $f(a) \subset B$

- Pre-image: A pre-image of an element $b \in B$ for a function $f: A \to B$ is any element a of A for which f(a) = b.
- Range: Let $f: A \to B$. If $X \subset A$, the set $\{f(x) \mid x \in X\}$ is the range of f on X, denoted by f(X).
- \bullet Alternatively, we can define range of f on X as the set

$$\{b \in B \mid (\exists x \in X)(f(x) = b)\}\$$

• We denote the set f(A) as the range of f.

2.3 Injective, or One-to-one

If a function $f: A \to B$ is such that it never happens that different arguments lead to the same value, we say that f is injective.

- Mathematically, $f:A\to B$ is injective iff $(\forall a,b\in A)[a\neq b\Rightarrow f(a)\neq f(b)]$
- Alternatively, we may express this condition using contrapositive: $f:A\to B$ is injective iff

$$(\forall a, b \in A)[f(a) = f(b) \Rightarrow a = b]$$

• The function $f_1: \mathbb{R} \to \mathbb{R}_+$ defined by $f(x) = x^2$ and $f_2: \mathbb{R} \to \mathbb{R}$ also defined by $f(x) = x^2$ are not injective but the function $g: \mathbb{R}_+ \to \mathbb{R}$ defined by $g(x) = x^2$ is injective.

2.4 Surjective or onto

If every member of B is the value of the function at some argument, we say f is surjective.

- Mathematically, a function $f: A \to B$ is surjective iff $(\forall b \in B)(\exists a \in A)[f(a) = b]$.
- Note the order of the quantifiers in the above condition. For every b in B it must be possible to find an a in A such that f(a) = b.

• The function $f: \mathbb{R} \to \mathbb{R}$ defined by $f(x) = x^2$ is not surjective but the function $g: \mathbb{R} \to \mathbb{R}_+$ defined by $g(x) = x^2$ is surjective.

Domain	CoDomain	Injective	Surjective
\mathbb{R}	\mathbb{R}	No	No
\mathbb{R}	\mathbb{R}_+	No	Yes
\mathbb{R}_{+}	\mathbb{R}	Yes	No
\mathbb{R}_{+}	\mathbb{R}_+	Yes	Yes

2.5 Inverses

Invertible: Let $f:A\to B$. We say f is invertible if there exists a function $g:B\to A$ such that for all $a\in A$ and all $b\in B$

$$f(a) = b \iff g(b) = a$$

We call such a function g an inverse of f.

- Example: Let $f: \mathbb{R} \to \mathbb{R}$ defined by f(x) = 2x + 3, there is an inverse function $g: \mathbb{R} \to \mathbb{R}$ defined by $g(x) = \frac{x-3}{2}$
- Alternatively, g is an inverse of a function $f:A\to B$ iff $g:B\to A$ and

$$g \circ f = I_A$$
 and $f \circ g = I_B$

where I_A , I_B are the identity functions on A, B, respectively.

- Let $f: A \to B$. Then f is invertible iff it is a bijection. Moreover, if f is invertible, its inverse function is unique.
- The unique inverse of a bijective function f is denoted by f^{-1} .

3 Countability

Countability: The fundamental notion behind counting is that of pairing off.

If we count the elements of some (finite) collection A of objects, "one, two, thre", etc., we are explicitly defining a bijection between a subset of natural

numbers and the elements of A. We may picture the counting process as follows:

$$a_1 \quad a_2 \quad a_3 \quad \cdots \quad a_{n-1} \quad a_n$$
 $\uparrow \quad \uparrow \quad \uparrow \quad \uparrow \quad \uparrow$
 $1 \quad 2 \quad 3 \quad \cdots \quad m-1 \quad n$

The above counting process determines the bijection between

the set $\{1, 2, ..., n\}$ and A. Since the counting process stops when we get to the number n,

we say that the set A has n elements, or that "the number of elements of A is n",

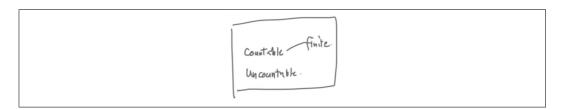
or "the cardinality of A is n". Notationally, |A| = n.

So A is finite if either

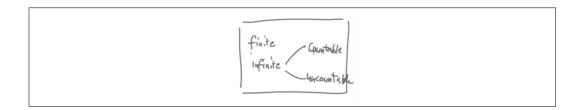
- 1. $(\exists n \in \mathbb{N}) (\exists \text{ a bijection } t : \{1, 2, \dots, n\} \to A)$ or
- 2. A is empty.

There are two definitions of Countability;

- Definition 1; A is Countable if either
 - 1. A is finite, or
 - 2. There exists a bijection $f: \mathbb{N} \to A$



• Definition 2; A is countable is there exists a bijection $f: \mathbb{N} \to A$.



3.1 Finite and Infinite Sets

- Finite set: A non-empty set A is finite iff, for some natural number n, there is a bijection from the set $\{1, 2, ..., n-1, n\}$ to A. We also consider \emptyset as a finite set because it has 0 elements.
- Infinite set: If a set is not a finite set then, we call it an infinite set.

3.2 Countable Set

Countable set: An infinite set A is countable if there is a bijection $f: \mathbb{N} \to A$. If there does not exist such a bijection, we say that the infinite set A is uncountable.

Examples of Countable set:

- 1. The set of natural numbers \mathbb{N} : The identity function on \mathbb{N} is a suitable bijection.
- 2. The set of even natural numbers, let's denote it by \mathcal{E} . We can define $f: \mathbb{N} \to \mathcal{E}$ defined by f(n) = 2n is a bijection. Now think of a bijection for the set of odd natural numbers to show that the set of odd natural numbers is countable.
- 3. The set $\mathcal{R} = \{1/n \mid n \in \mathbb{N}\}$ is countable, the corresponding bijection is defined as $f : \mathbb{N} \to \mathcal{R}$ such that f(n) = 1/n.
- 4. The set of all integers \mathbb{Z} is countable. To see this, define a function $f: \mathbb{N} \to \mathbb{Z}$ by:

$$f(n) = \begin{cases} n/2, & \text{if } n \text{ is even} \\ -(n-1)/2, & \text{if } n \text{ is odd} \end{cases}$$

5. The set \mathcal{P} of all prime numbers is also countable. We define a function $f: \mathbb{N} \to \mathcal{P}$ by the following definition: let f(1) = 2, and for any $n \ge 1$, let f(n+1) be the least prime number bigger than f(n). Convince

yourself for two things: (a) that f is a function; and (b) that it is in fact a bijection.

Few examples of Countable sets are $\mathbb{N}, \mathbb{Z}, \mathbb{Q}$.

Few examples of uncountable sets are $\mathbb{R}, [0, 1], \mathbb{Q}^c = \frac{\mathbb{R}}{\mathbb{Q}}$

4 Increasing Transformation of a Utility function

Theorem Let $f: \mathbb{R} \to \mathbb{R}$ be an increasing function that is, $\forall s, t \in \mathbb{R}$, $s > t \Rightarrow f(s) > f(t)$. If u represents the preference relation \succeq on A, then so does the function w defined by w(a) = f(u(a)) for all $a \in A$.

Consider any pair of alternatives $a, b \in A$. We have

$$w(a) \ge w(b)$$

$$\Leftrightarrow f(u(a)) \ge f(u(b))$$

$$\Leftrightarrow u(a) \ge u(b)$$

$$\Leftrightarrow a \succeq b$$

5 Representing preference realtion by a utility function

Theorem Every preference relation on a finite set can be represented by a utility function.

- Let A be a finite set and let \succeq be a preference relation on A.
- For $a \in A$, define $L_a = \{b \in A \mid a \succeq b\}$. We'll call this the Lower Contour Set of a as it consists of alternatives in A that are at most as good as alternative a.
- Define $u: A \to \mathbb{R}$ as follows: for $a \in A, u(a) := |L_a|$, which is the number of alternatives in A that are at most as good as a. We'll show that u represents \succeq , that is, $\forall a, a' \in A, a \succeq a' \Leftrightarrow u(a) \geq u(a')$
- First we'll show that $\forall a, a' \in A, a \succeq a' \Rightarrow u(a) \geq u(a')$
- Consider any pair of alternatives $a, a' \in A$ such that $a \succeq a'$. We'll now show that $L_{a'} \subset L_a$. If $b \in L_{a'}$, then we have $a \succeq a'$ and $a' \succeq b$. By

transitivity of \succeq , we get $a \succeq b$, and therefore $b \in L_a$. So, $L_{a'} \subset L_a$ and $u(a) \geq u(a')$.

- Now we'll show that $\forall a, a' \in A, u(a) \ge u(a') \Rightarrow a \succeq a'$. Equivalently, we can show that $\forall a, a' \in A, (\neg a \succeq a') \Rightarrow u(a) < u(a')$
- Consider any pair of alternatives $a, a' \in A$ such that $\neg a \succeq a'$. By completeness of \succeq , we have $a' \succeq a$. By the same argument as before, $L_a \subset L_{a'}$. By reflexivity, $a' \in L_{a'}$. Since $\neg a \succeq a', a' \notin L_a$. Therefore, $L_a \subsetneq L_{a'}$ and we get u(a) < u(a').

5.1 Lexicographic Preferences

Consider $\mathbb{Z}_+ \times \mathbb{Z}_+$ and the lexicographic preference relation, $(x_1, y_1) \succsim_L (x_2, y_2)$ if either $x_1 > x_2$ or $(x_1 = x_2 \text{ and } y_1 \ge y_2)$

and the strict lexicographic preference relation can be defined as follows; $(x_1, y_1) \succ_L (x_2, y_2)$ if either $x_1 > x_2$ or $(x_1 = x_2 \text{ and } y_1 > y_2)$

and similarly the indifference relation can be defined as $(x_1, y_1) \sim_L (x_2, y_2)$ if $x_1 = x_2$ and $y_1 = y_2$

Is there a utility representation of lexicographic preferences over $\mathbb{Z}_+ \times \mathbb{Z}_+$? we should try to find a function $f: \mathbb{Z}_+ \to [0,1)$

say $f = \frac{y}{y+1}$ and then we can use the utility function $u(x,y) = x + \frac{y}{y+1}$ to represent lexicographic preferences.

Is there a utility representation of lexicographic preferences over $\mathbb{R}_+ \times \mathbb{R}_+$?

NO, There does not exsist a utility fuction over this domain.

Below is a proof provided for the domain $[0,1] \times [0,1]$ which is also uncountable and of the same cardinality as $\mathbb{R}_{+\times\mathbb{R}_+}$

Theorem The Lexicographic preference relation \succeq on $[0,1] \times [0,1]$ defined as $(x_1, y_1) \succeq (x_2, y_2)$ if and only if either (i) $x_1 > x_2$ or (ii) $x_1 = x_2$ and $y_1 \geq y_2$ is not represented by any utility function.

- Suppose by contradiction that there existed a utility function u representing these preferences.
- For each $x \in [0,1]$, we have $(x,1) \succ (x,0)$, and therefore, u(x,1) > u(x,0). We can therefore assign to x a non-degenerate interval of values satisfying the above inequality I(x) = [u(x,0), u(x,1)].

- For any $1 \ge x' > x \ge 0$, all commodity bundles generating utilities in the interval I(x') are strictly preferred to those in the disjoint interval I(x) and should therefore be assigned a greater utility level.
- Then from each of the interval I(x) we can pick a distinct rational number $r_x \in I(x)$ which is increasing in x. Since $x \in [0,1]$, there are uncountably many such intervals, but set of rational numbers are countable. This results in a contradiction.

Note that lexicographic preferences on $[0,1] \times [0,1]$ are reflexive, transitive and complete.

let us show that lexicographic preferences are transitive;

We want to show that, if the following holds,

$$(x_1, y_1) \succsim_L (x_2, y_2)$$

 $(x_2, y_2) \succsim_L (x_3, y_3)$

then,

$$(x_1, y_1) \succsim_L (x_3, y_3)$$

6 Weak axiom of revealed preference (WARP)

<u>Choice Structure:</u> Let X be the consumption set. A choice structure $(\mathcal{B}, C(\cdot))$ consists of two ingredients:

- (a) \mathcal{B} : It is a family (a set) of non-empty subsets of X; that is, every element of \mathcal{B} is a set $B \subset X$.
- (b) $C(\cdot)$: It is a choice rule that assigns a nonempty set of chosen elements $C(B) \subset B$ for every budget set $B \in \mathcal{B}$

<u>WARP</u>: The choice structure $(\mathcal{B}, C(\cdot))$ satisfies the weak axiom of revealed preference (WARP) if the following property holds:

If for some $B \in \mathcal{B}$ with $x, y \in B$ we have $x \in C(B)$, then for any $B' \in \mathcal{B}$ with $x, y \in B'$ and $y \in C(B')$, we must also have $x \in C(B')$.

$$\forall x,y \in A, x \succsim^* y \implies \neg \left(y \succ^{**} x\right)$$

Revealed Preference: Given a choice structure $(\mathcal{B}, C(\cdot))$ the revealed preference relation \succeq^* is defined by

$$x \succsim^* y \Leftrightarrow \exists B \in \mathcal{B} \text{ such that } x,y \in B \text{ and } x \in C(B)$$

- We read $x \succsim^* y$ as "x is revealed at least as good as y"
- With this terminology we can restate the weak axiom as follows: "if x is revealed at least as good as y, then y cannot be revealed preferred to x".

Revealed at least as good as relation;

$$(\forall B, B' \in \mathcal{B}) \, (\forall x, y \in B \cap B') \, ((x \in C(B) \land y \in C(B')) \implies x \in C(B'))$$

revealed strictly preferred to relation;

$$x \succ^{**} y \Leftrightarrow \exists B \in \mathcal{B} \text{ such that } x, y \in B \text{ and } x \in C(B) \text{ but } y \notin C(B)$$

Example 1

$$A = \{x, y, z\}$$

$$C(\{x, y\}) = \{x\}$$

$$C(\{y, z\}) = \{y\}$$

$$C(\{x, z\}) = \{z\}$$

Yes the WARP is satisfied of the above.

now,
$$\succeq^* = \{(x, x), (x, y), (y, y), (y, z), (z, z), (z, x)\}$$
 and $\succeq^{**} = \{(x, y), (y, z), (x, z)\}$

Example 2

$$A = \{a, b, c\}$$

$$C(\{a, b\}) = \{a, b\}$$

$$C(\{b, c\}) = \{b\}$$

$$C(\{a, c\}) = \{a\}$$

$$C(\{a, b, c\}) = \{a\}$$

The WARP is not satisfied here because first we are saying that $b \gtrsim^* a$ or u(a) = u(b) but at last we are saying that $a >^{**} b$ or u(a) > u(b).