

CEGE0016 Topic Notes

UCL

HD

October 10, 2022

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Chapter 1

Module Introduction

1.1 Teaching Team

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1.2 Assessment

Assessment Type	Description	Weighting
Quiz	Three multiple-choice quizzes over the course of the module , to be turned in within 24 hours	15% (3 x 5%)
Course Project	Written report and recorded presentation on a project to be set halfway through the module , to be completed in 6 weeks	40%
Individual Exercise	Written set of questions completed in examination conditions	45%

Figure 1.1: Module Assessment.

1.3 Timeline

Lecture Number	Date	Lecture Topic	Assessment Set	Assessment Due
1	3 rd October 2022	Introduction to Module; Public Economics		
2	10 th October 2022	Public Goods and Externalities		
3	17 th October 2022	Techniques for Project Evaluation	Quiz 1 set Wednesday 19 th October 12pm	Quiz 1 due Thursday 20 th October 12pm
4	24 th October 2022	Cost-Benefit Analysis	Quiz 2 set Wednesday 26 th October 12pm	Quiz 2 due Thursday 27 th October 12pm
5	31 st October 2022	Guest lectures on HS2 and the Lower Thames Crossing; Introduction to Course Project	Course project set Monday 31 st October in class	Course project presentation due Monday 12 th December in class; Course project report due Friday 16 th December at 5pm
-----Reading Week-----				
6	14 th November 2022	Companies and Financial Accounting	Quiz 3 set Wednesday 16 th November 12pm	Quiz 3 due Thursday 17 th November 12pm
7	21 st November 2022	Project Planning Financial Project Planning		
8	28 th November 2022	Risk Analysis		
9	5 th December 2022	Project Management		
10	12 th December 2022	Course Project Presentations	Course project presentation delivered in class	

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Figure 1.2: Module Timeline.

Chapter 2

Introduction to public economics

2.1 Introduction and overview of mixed economies

2.1.1 Aims

1. Understand the roles of the private and public sector in mixed economies
2. Become (re)familiar with key microeconomic concepts of consumption and production, including Pareto optimality and market equilibrium
3. Understand the trade-offs between market efficiency and equitable distribution of resources
4. Be aware of the assumptions and limitations of fundamental theorems and associated neoclassical economics

2.1.2 Economies

A simplified definition

An area of *production*, *trade* and *consumption* of goods and services by different *agents*.

Agents

- Individuals and households
- Businesses
- Government

2.1.3 Mixed economies

Economies today are predominantly *mixed economies*

Private sector:

profit-maximising firms operate in competitive markets

Public sector:

governments/other organisations make interventions in those markets

2.1.4 Private sector

Welfare economics

”he is in this, as in many other cases, led by an invisible hand to promote an end which has no part of his intention. Nor is it always the worse for the society that it was no part of it. By pursuing his own interest he frequently promotes that of the society more effectively than when he really intends to promote it. (Smith 1776)

2.1.5 Public sector

Public sector aims to balance trade-offs

In particular

efficiency of competitive markets vs. improved equity of distribution of income from regulation

Understanding the role of public sector in mixed economies first requires us to understand operation of free-markets

2.1.6 Classical microeconomics

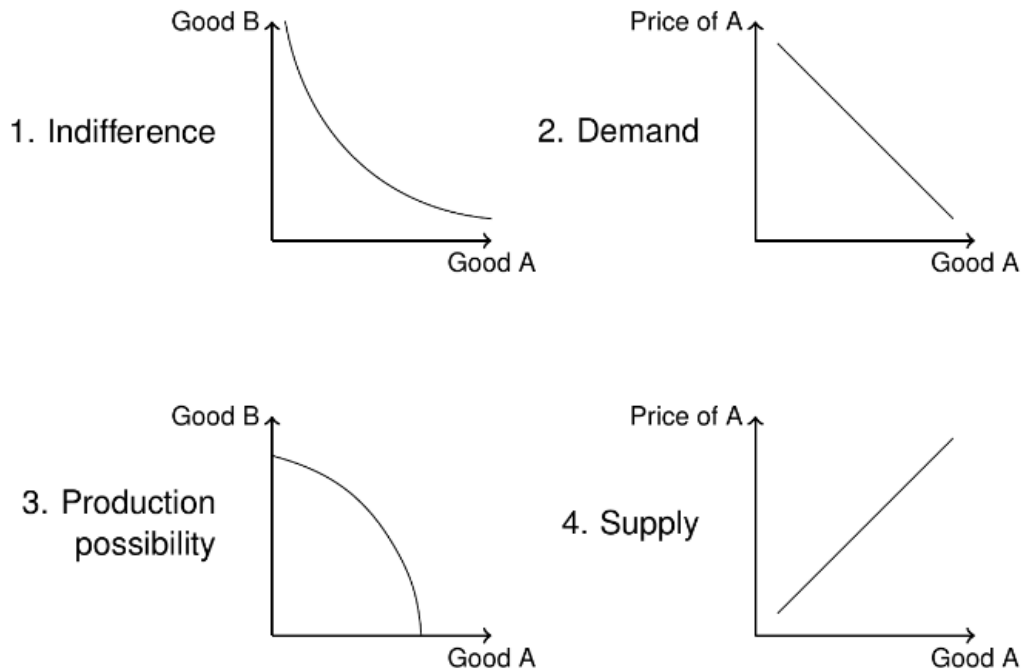


Figure 2.1: Classical microeconomic models.

2.1.7 Economic models

”Remember that all models are wrong; the practical question is how wrong do they have to be to not be useful” (Box and Draper 1987)

2.2 Consumer theory

2.2.1 Consumer theory: continuous goods

- J continuous goods, each good denoted by $j = 1, \dots, J$
- Each good has associated price per unit p_j
 - e.g., $j = 1$ corresponds to milk, $p_j = 90$ pence/litre
 - $j = 2$ corresponds to eggs, $p_j = 16$ pence/egg
- Consider choice of agent, with total budget I
 - Assume agent represents individual
 - Individual chooses quantity q_j of each good j , subject to budget constraint

$$\sum_{j=1}^J (p_j q_j) \leq I \quad (2.1)$$

2.2.2 Utility

- Individual's choice of goods represented by consumption bundle Q
 - i.e. vector of q_1, \dots, q_J
- Individual gets utility $U(Q)$ from Q
 - Utility represents how individuals perceived benefit from consuming/owning Q
 - Assume $U(Q)$ increases monotonically with increasing q_i

2.2.3 Choice between two continuous goods



Figure 2.2

Indifference curves:

Different combinations of each good that yield same level of utility

Marginal Rate of Substitution (MRS):

Gradient of indifference curve

- i.e. how many unites of good 2 individual would substitute for 1 unit of good 1
- Assumed to be convex

2.2.4 Utility maximisation with budget constraint

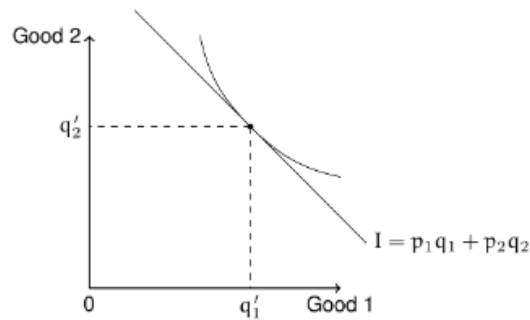


Figure 2.3

- Assume agents try to maximise utility
- Under maximal utility assumption, optimal solution when indifference curve is tangent to budget line

$$\text{MRS} = \frac{p_1}{p_2} \quad (2.2)$$

2.2.5 Trade between two agents

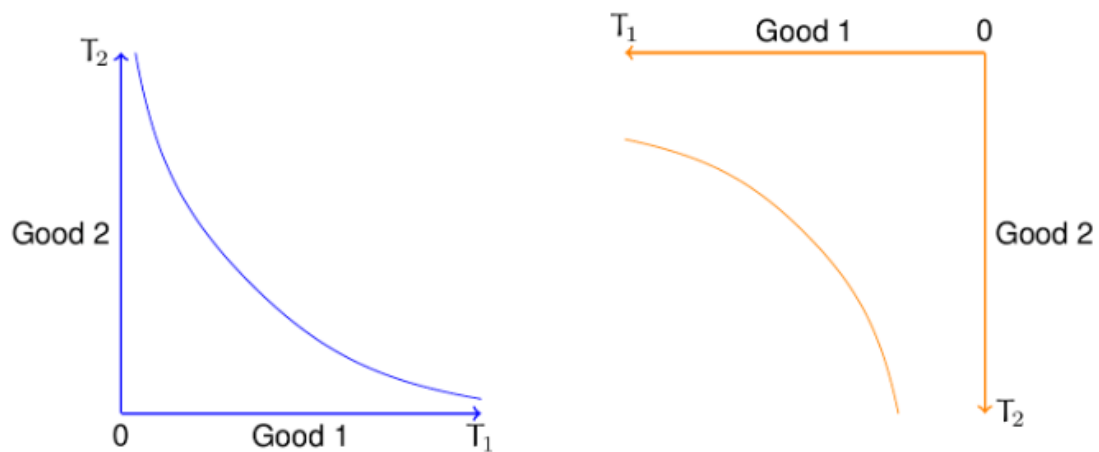


Figure 2.4

2.2.6 Edgeworth box

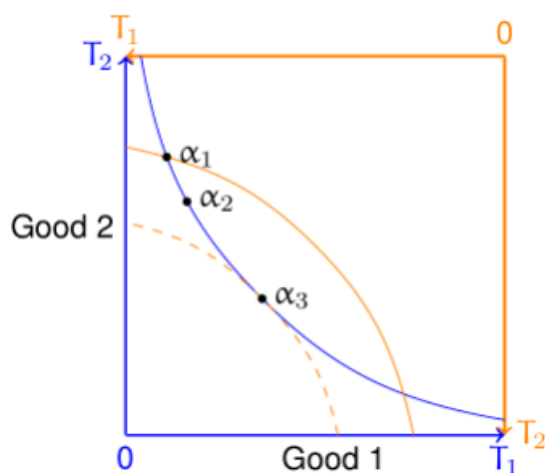


Figure 2.5

Edgeworth box:

depicts distribution of commodities in closed economy between two agents

Pareto improvement:

A reallocation that improves utility of of one individual without reducing anyone else's utility

- α_2 is Pareto improvement of α_1
- α_3 is Pareto improvement of α_2

Pareto optimal/efficient:

An allocation from which no-one can improve utility without reducing someone else's

- α_3 is Pareto optimal

2.2.7 Pareto efficiency

- Pareto efficient solutions happen when indifference curves have equal gradient
- i.e. each agent has equal MRS

Pareto frontier:

Set of all possible Pareto efficient allocations

2.3 Producer theory

2.3.1 Production of goods and services

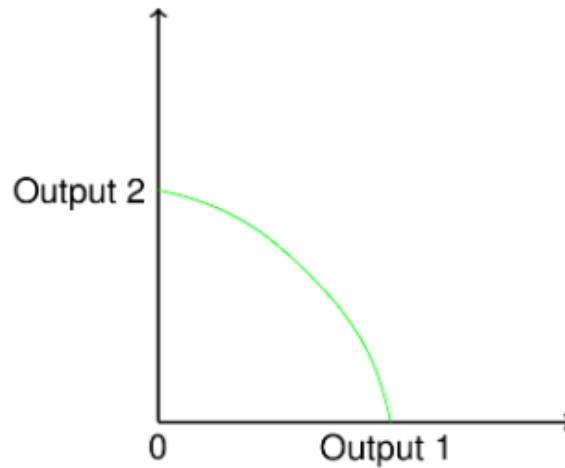


Figure 2.6

Production Possibilities Frontier (PPF):

possible combinations of outputs (e.g. goods/services) that can be produced by economy with fixed inputs technology

- all points on PPF are production efficient: no more of one output can be produced without sacrificing the other

Marginal Rate of Transformation (MRT):

Gradient of PPF

- Measures amount of Output 2 that must be sacrificed to produced additional unit of Output 1

2.3.2 Marginal cost

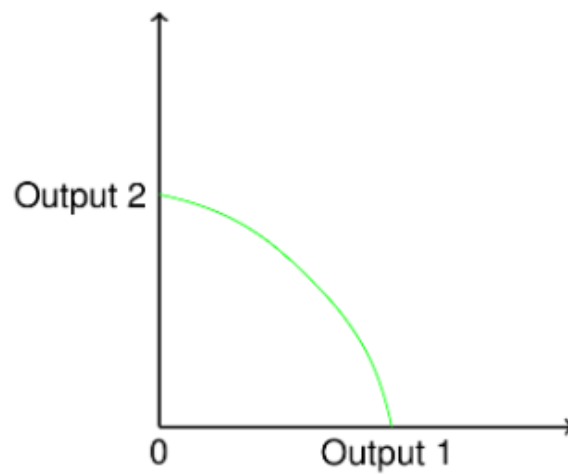


Figure 2.7

Marginal cost:

Cost of producing one additional unit of output

$$\text{MRT} = \frac{MC_{\text{output}_1}}{MC_{\text{output}_2}} \quad (2.3)$$

- PPF often assumed to be concave under certain conditions (i.e. rewards diversity)
 - Easier to obtain low-hanging fruit

2.3.3 Pareto efficient production

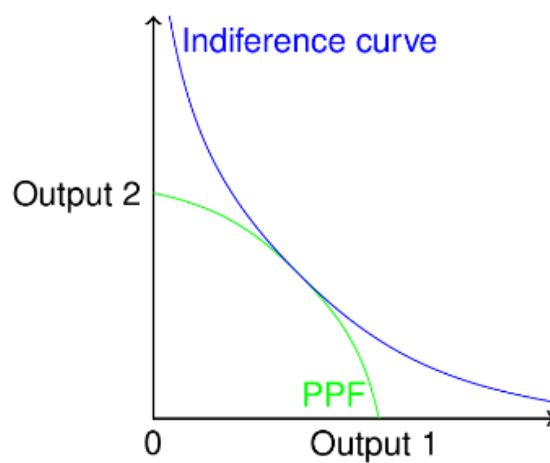


Figure 2.8

Pareto efficiency only achieved when production of goods matches consumers' willingness to pay

- Gradient of PPF matches combined indifference curve of all consumers
- i.e. $MRS = MRT$

2.3.4 Single market efficiency

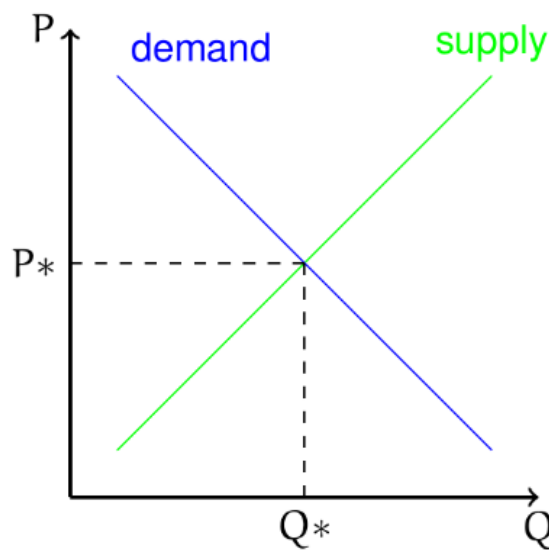


Figure 2.9

Market equilibrium occurs when supply equals demand

- marginal benefit of consumption is equal to marginal cost of production

2.4 Fundamental theorems of welfare economics

2.4.1 Competitive economies

Fundamental theorems of welfare economics

If the economy is competitive, it is Pareto efficient

2.4.2 Efficiency vs equality

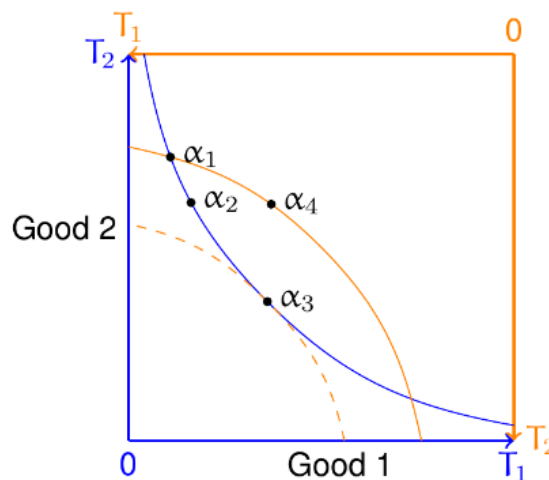


Figure 2.10

- So far, considered only efficiency of allocations
 - α_3 is Pareto efficient
- Social welfare also depends on equitable distribution of goods
- How do we choose between α_3 and α_4
 - Do we need to?

2.4.3 Wealth distribution

Fundamental theorems of welfare economics

- If the economy is competitive, it is Pareto efficient
- Every Pareto efficient resource allocation can be obtained with competitive market process with an appropriate initial redistribution of wealth

2.4.4 Efficiency and equality?

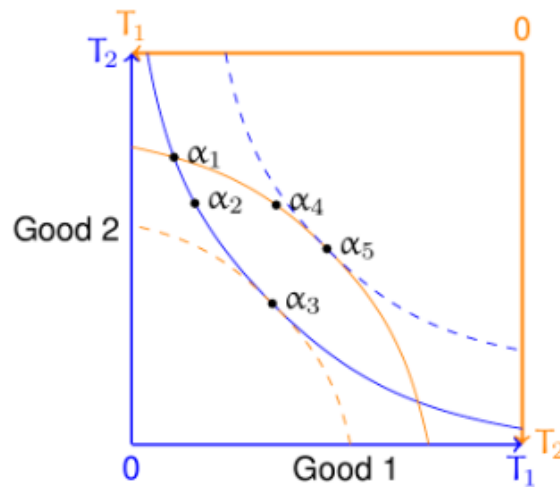


Figure 2.11

According to second fundamental theorem:

more equitable allocation can be found through suitable assignment of initial endowments and free trade

2.5 Public sector

2.5.1 Role of government: the theory

When and how should governments make interventions in mixed economies?

According to first fundamental theorem:

government interventions that reduce competition make economies less efficient

Redistribute income and leave markets alone?

2.5.2 Role of government: reality

Note... Governments play an active role in all major economies, including:

- Allocation

- Distribution
- Regulation
- Stabilisation

2.5.3 Market failures

Several situations result in the failure of free markets to achieve optimal solutions. Causes include:

- existence and need for public goods
- existence of externalities
- imperfect competition
- incomplete information and uncertainty

2.6 Review and recap

2.6.1 A need for better understanding?

- Several strong assumptions
 - Individuals as rational utility maximisers
 - Equivalence of utility, value and price
 - Markets as continuous
 - Static tastes and preferences
 - Perfect competition
- Fundamental welfare economic theory does not capture
 - unpaid labour
 - social exchange
 - long-term resilience and sustainability

Chapter 3

Public Goods and Externalities

3.1 Introduction

3.1.1 Aims

1. Recall the two dimensions of public good (rivalry and excludability) and understand how they lead to market failure
2. Identify and describe the occurrence and results of positive and negative externalities
3. Understand the role of the public sector in managing market failures arising from public goods and externalities
4. Be aware of the particular challenges related to climate externalities
5. Become familiar with the dimensions of the environmental ceiling and social foundations of the doughnut economic model

3.1.2 Market equilibrium

Market equilibrium occurs when supply equals demand. Private marginal benefit of consumption is equal to private marginal cost of production.

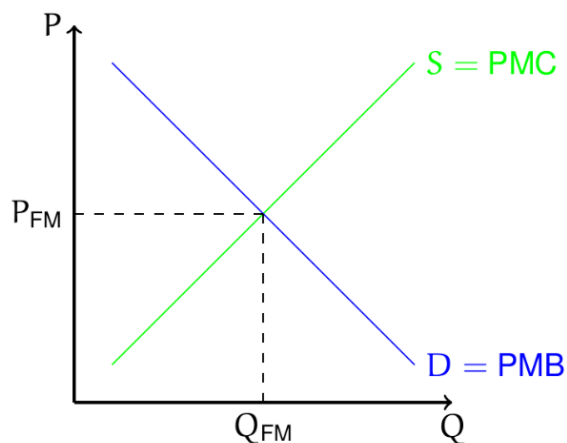


Figure 3.1: Market equilibrium.

3.1.3 Public goods and externalities

Definitions

Public goods:

Goods which are both non-excludable and have non rivalrous consumption.

Externalities:

Positive or negative effects on third parties arising from the production or consumption of goods, that are not reflected in the price

Market failures

Public goods and externalities cause market failures in the allocation of goods/services at the free-market equilibrium.

- i.e. $Q_{\text{free-market}}$ is not optimal
- addressed through the allocative role of government

3.2 Public goods

3.2.1 Two dimensions of public good

Excludability: the degree to which access to a good, service or resource can be restricted.

- **Excludable:** agents can easily be prevented from using the good/service
- **Non-excludable:** preventing agents from consuming the good/service is impossible (or very expensive)

Rivalry: the degree to which consumption by one party affects another party's use of the good.

- **Rivalrous:** consumption by one agent prevents simultaneous consumption by other agents, or reduces the marginal benefit of another agent
- **Non-rivalrous:** once it is provided, the additional resource cost of another person consuming the good is zero (i.e. $MC = 0$) and the marginal benefit does not decrease with number of users
- **(Anti-rivalrous:** marginal benefit increases with the number of users, e.g. social network)

3.2.2 Rivalry and capacity

Goods are often non-rivalrous up to a certain capacity, above which they are rivalrous e.g. public transport (bus/train), road bridge, internet bandwidth.

3.2.3 Continuous scale

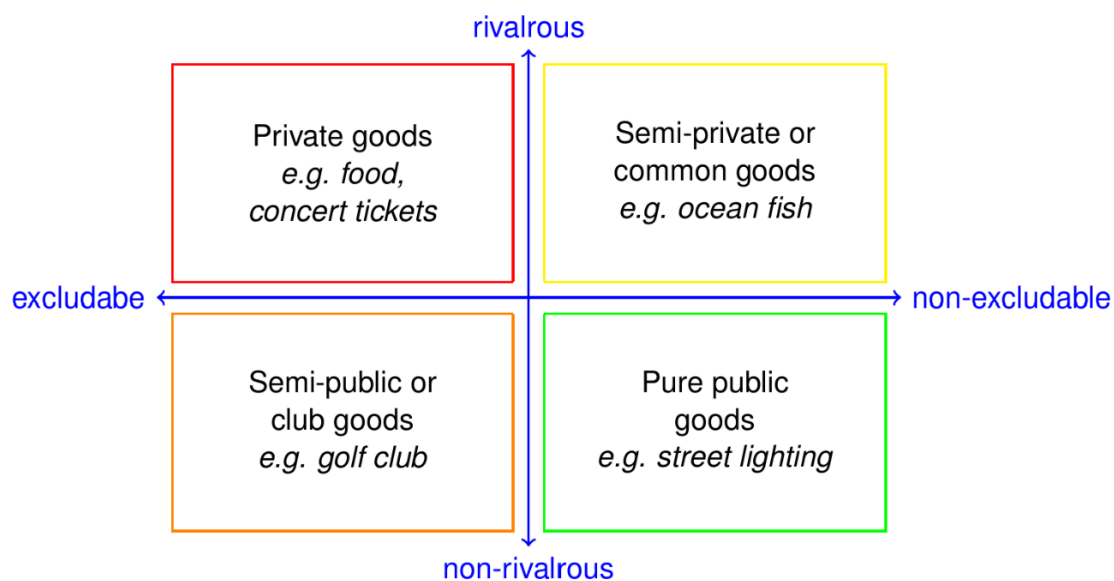


Figure 3.2: Continuous scale.

3.2.4 Public goods in free markets

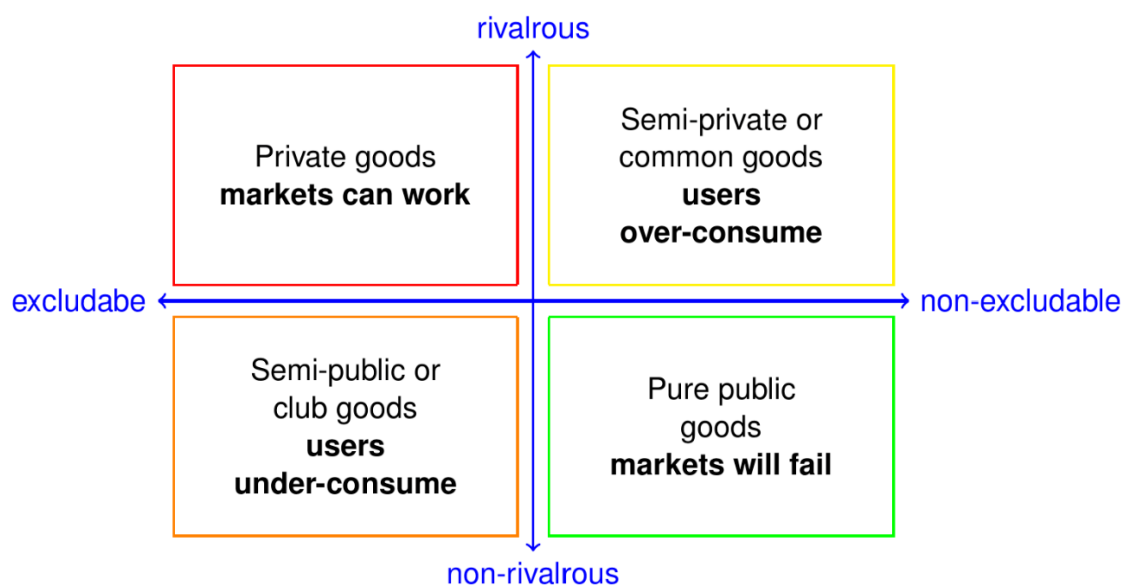


Figure 3.3: Public goods in free markets.

3.2.5 Public goods and market failure

Pure public goods are **non-excludable**

- Producers cannot exclude agents from consumption
- Unable to charge and therefore make profit
- Therefore (in theory) would not be produced through market action!

Possibility of funding via private cooperative, but...

Free rider problem

as size of cooperative increases, possibility of avoiding contributing increases

Public sector provision

Large group public goods supplied from public sector budget

- Allocative role of government

3.2.6 Privatisation in the public sector

Note... Public sector provision \neq equivalent public sector production.

The creation of markets in public services has been one of the great defining shifts in the way government has been run over the past 30 years (Gash and Roos 2012)

3.3 Externalities

3.3.1 Positive and negative externalities

Externalities

when the actions of one economic agent directly affect other agent(s) outside the market mechanism (production/consumption)

Externalities can arise from either production or consumption and have a net positive or negative effect.

3.3.2 Negative production externality

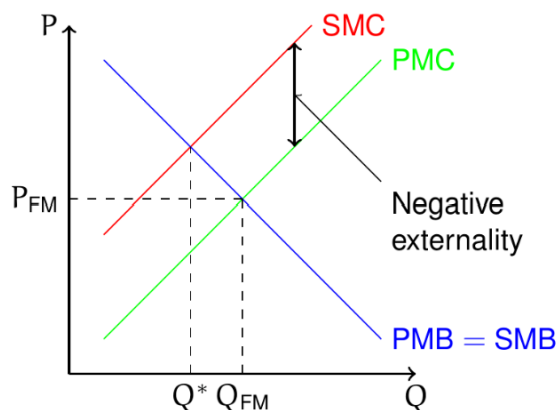


Figure 3.4: Negative production externality.

Production of output reduces well-being of third parties not involved in transaction,

- e.g. oil spills during fuel production pollute oceans and damage wildlife
- leads to overproduction

3.3.3 Negative consumption externality

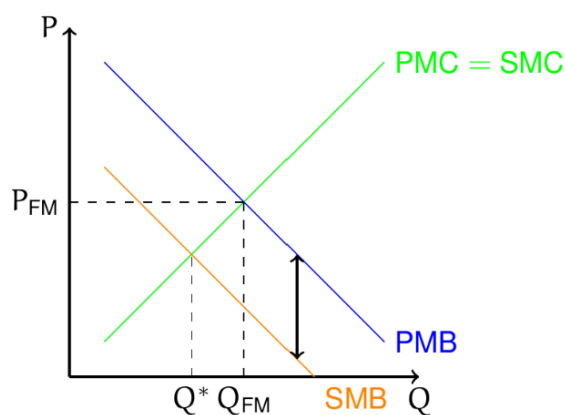


Figure 3.5: Negative consumption externality.

Consumption of output reduces well-being of third parties not involved in transaction,

- e.g. driving cars produces carbon emissions
- leads to overconsumption

3.3.4 Positive production externality

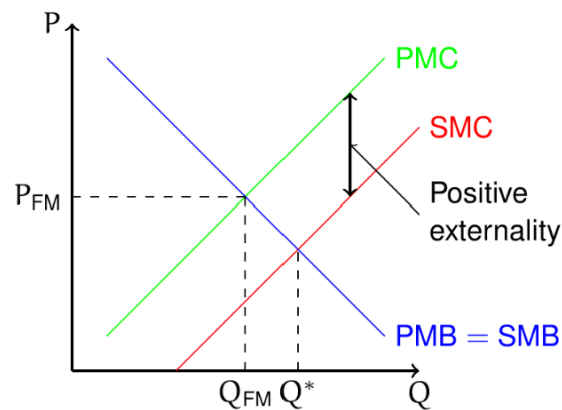


Figure 3.6: Positive production externality.

Production of output reduces well-being of third parties not involved in transaction,

- e.g. creating a new tourist attraction brings increases custom to local shops
- leads to underproduction

3.3.5 Positive consumption externality

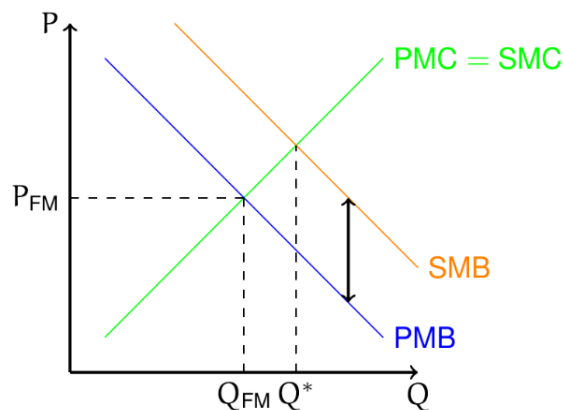


Figure 3.7: Positive consumption externality.

Consumption of output reduces well-being of third parties not involved in transaction,

- e.g. cycling improves peoples general health, rducing pressure on public health-care
- leads to underconsumption

3.3.6 Externalities and property rights

Externalities can be transferred where third party benefit/cost is clear i.e. where property rights are well defined.

3.3.7 Managing externalities

Where property rights are not clear, managing externalities relies on allocative role of government

Public sector interventions

Negative externalities:

- Corrective taxes
- Quantity restrictions
- Standards

Positive externalities

- Subsidies
- Tax benefits
- Direct production

3.3.8 Externalities and the environment

Note. . . Externalities related to climate change are critical to long term sustainability of the planet.

COP26

“Climate change is the single biggest health threat facing humanity. While no one is safe from the health impacts of climate change, they are disproportionately felt by the most vulnerable and disadvantaged.” (World Health Organisation 2021)

3.3.9 The doughnut economic model



Figure 3.8: Doughnut economic model.