Chapter 1: Exchange

Ch 31 in H. Varian 8th Ed.

Slides by Mariona Segú, CYU Cergy Paris Université Inspired by Michael D. Robinson, Mount Holyoke College

Introduction

So far...

→ Demand and supply for goods has been seen as independent of other goods → Partial equilibrium analysis

Now...

- → Prices of good 1 can affect D and S of good 2
 - If they are substitutes or complementary
 - If people sell good A and increase their available income to buy good B
- → This is called: General Equilibrium Analysis
 - Demand and supply interact in several markets to determine prices of many goods

Introduction: simplification assumptions

General Equilibrium analysis is a complex task. We will adopt several simplification assumptions:

- Restrict to competitive markets: consumers and producers take prices as given
- We restrict the analysis to 2 goods and 2 consumers
- 3. We restrict to the case of pure exchange
 - Consumers have fix endowments and decide whether to trade with the other consumer
 - 2. For the moment, there is no production

Outline of the chapter

- 1. The Edgeworth Box
- 2. Adding preferences to the Box
- Pareto Efficient Allocations
- 4. Trade in Competitive Markets
- 5. Two Theorems of Welfare Economics
- 6. Walras' Law

1. The Edgeworth Box

- → Edgeworth and Bowley devised a diagram, called an Edgeworth box, to show all possible allocations of the available quantities of goods 1 and 2 between two consumers A and B.
 - **Consumption bundle**: $X^A = (x_A^1, x_A^2)$ how much consumer A consumes of each good. Alternatively, $X^B = (x_B^1, x_B^2)$
 - Allocation: a pair of consumption bundles is an allocation. Ex: X^A and X^B
 - **Initial endowment**: how much each consumer have of each good at the beginning (ω_A^1, ω_A^2) and (ω_B^1, ω_B^2)
 - Feasible allocation: when the total amount of each good consumed is smaller or equal than the total amount available

$$x_A^1 + x_B^1 \le \omega_A^1 + \omega_B^1$$

 $x_A^2 + x_B^2 \le \omega_A^2 + \omega_B^2$

The Edgeworth Box: example

- → Two consumers, A and B.
- → Their endowments of goods 1 and 2 are

$$\omega^{A} = (6,4)$$
 and $\omega^{B} = (2,2)$.

→ The total quantities available

are
$$\omega_1^A + \omega_1^B = 6 + 2 = 8$$
 units of good 1
and $\omega_2^A + \omega_2^B = 4 + 2 = 6$ units of good 2.

Starting an Edgeworth Box



Starting an Edgeworth Box

Height =
$$\omega_2^A + \omega_2^B$$
= 4 + 2
= 6

The dimensions of the box are the quantities available of the goods.

Width =
$$\omega_1^A + \omega_1^B = 6 + 2 = 8$$

Height =
$$\omega_2^{A} + \omega_2^{B}$$

$$= 4 + 2$$

$$= 6$$

The endowment allocation is

$$\omega^{A} = (6,4)$$
 and

$$\omega^{B} = (2,2).$$

Width =
$$\omega_1^A + \omega_1^B = 6 + 2 = 8$$

Height =
$$\omega_2^A + \omega_2^B$$

= 4 + 2
= 6

$$\omega_2^A + \omega_2^B$$

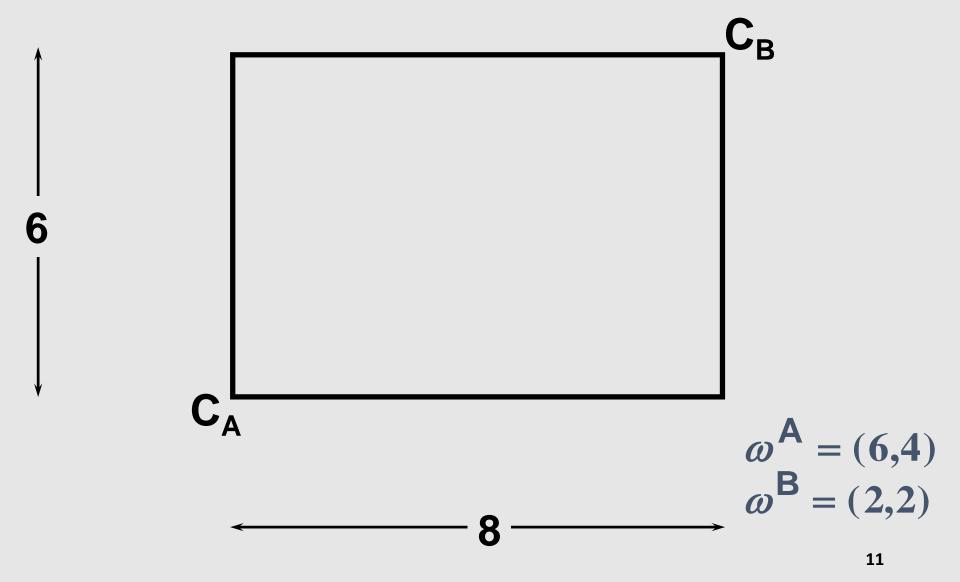
$$\omega_2^A + \omega_2^B$$

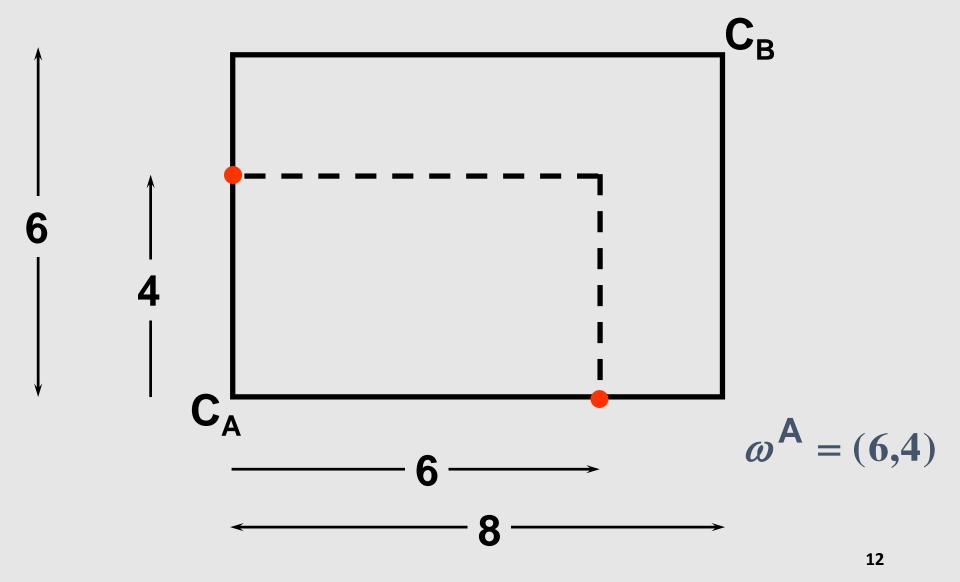
$$\omega_3^A + \omega_4^B = 6 + 2 = 8$$

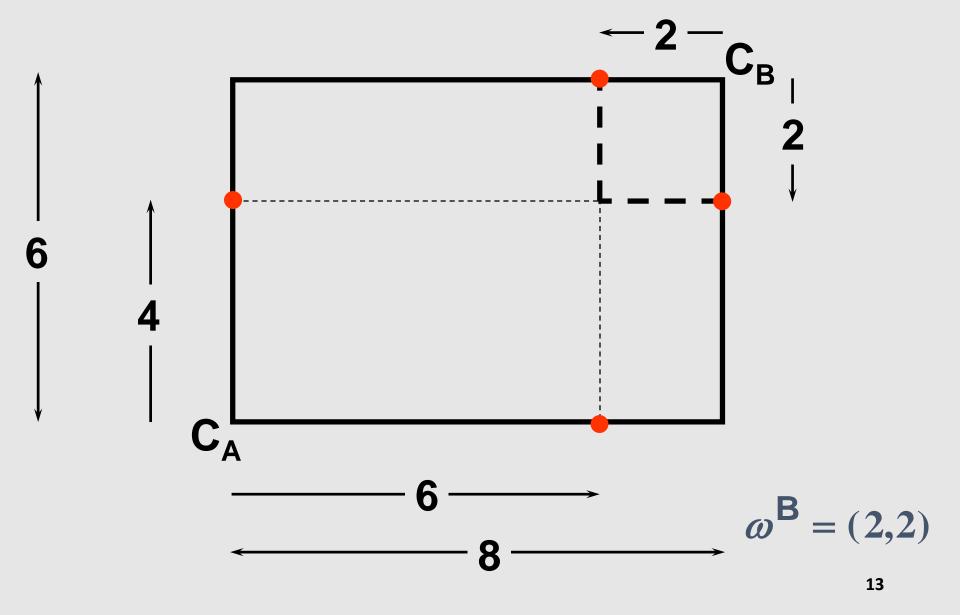
$$\omega_3^A = (6,4)$$

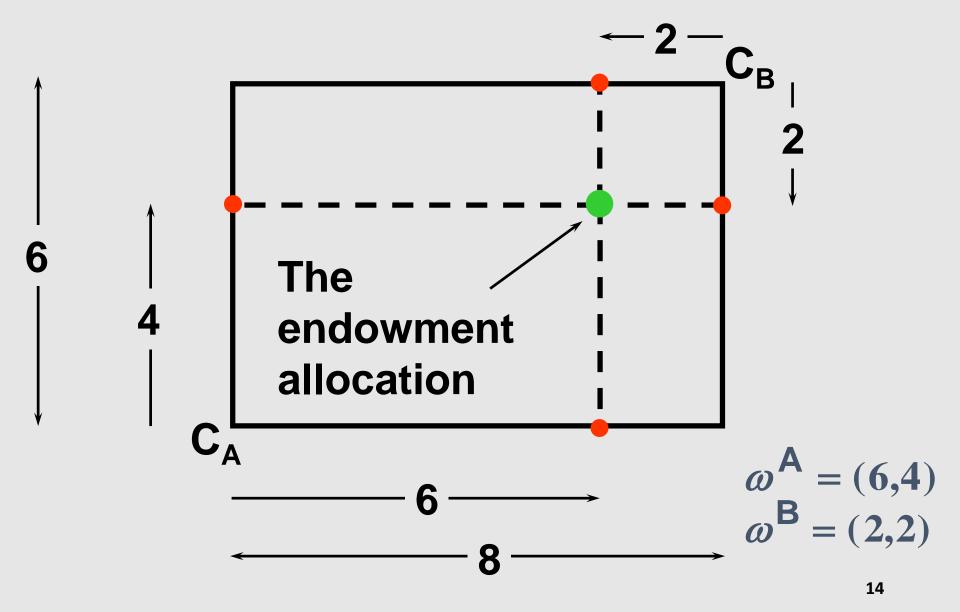
$$\omega_3^A = (6,4)$$

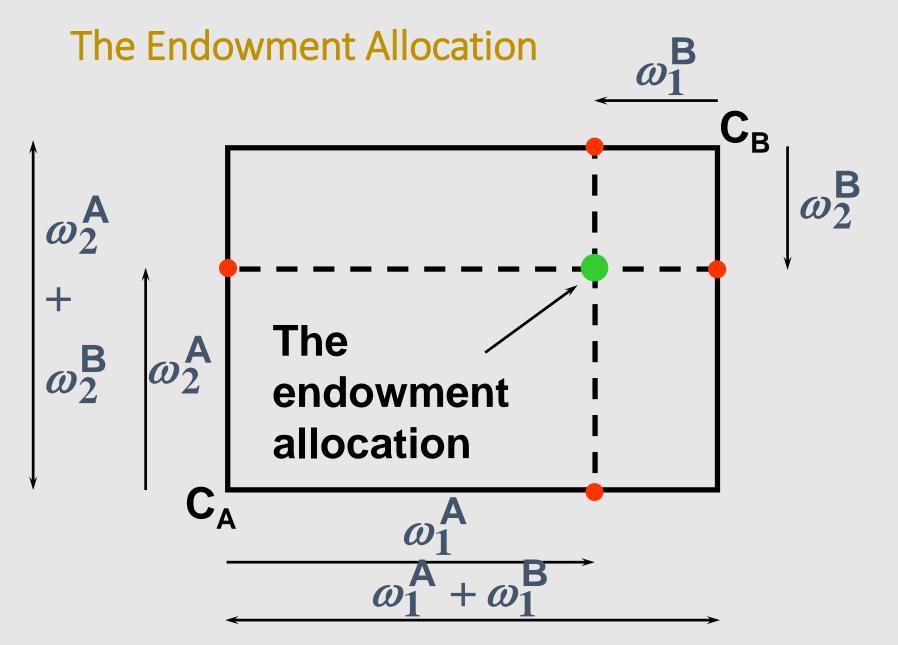
$$\omega_4^B = (2,2)$$









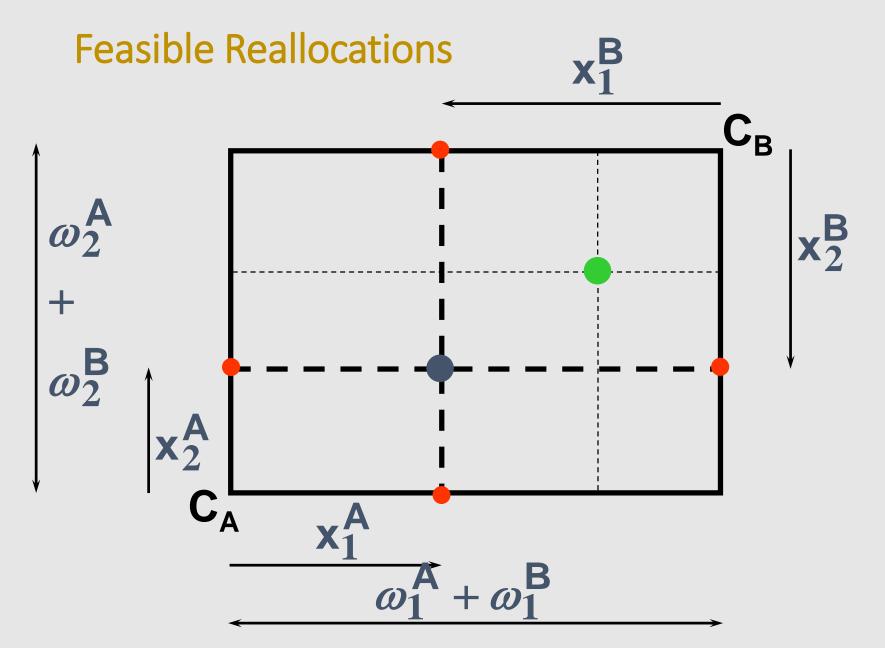


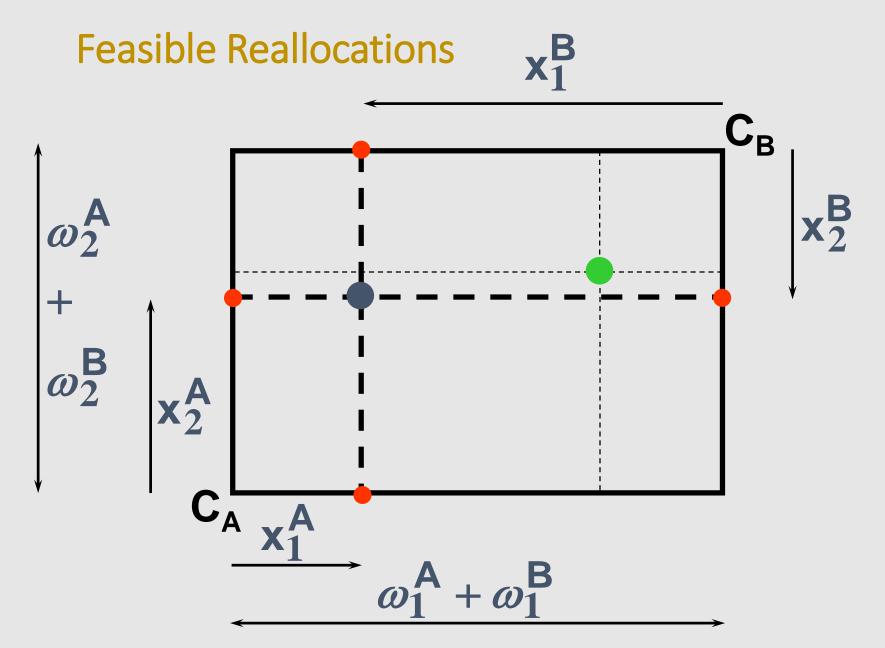
Other Feasible Allocations

$$(x_1^A, x_2^A)$$
 denotes an allocation to consumer A. (x_1^B, x_2^B) denotes an allocation to consumer B.

→ Remember: An allocation is feasible if and only if

$$\mathbf{x}_1^{\mathsf{A}} + \mathbf{x}_1^{\mathsf{B}} \leq \omega_1^{\mathsf{A}} + \omega_1^{\mathsf{B}}$$
 and
$$\mathbf{x}_2^{\mathsf{A}} + \mathbf{x}_2^{\mathsf{B}} \leq \omega_2^{\mathsf{A}} + \omega_2^{\mathsf{B}}.$$

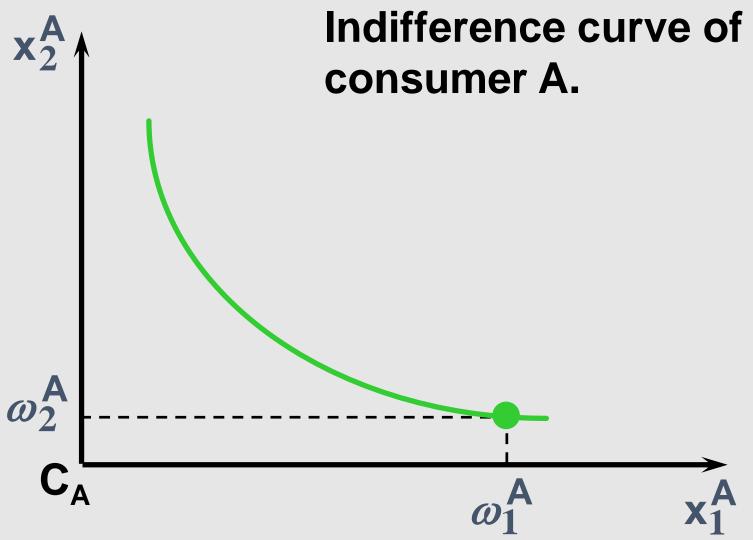


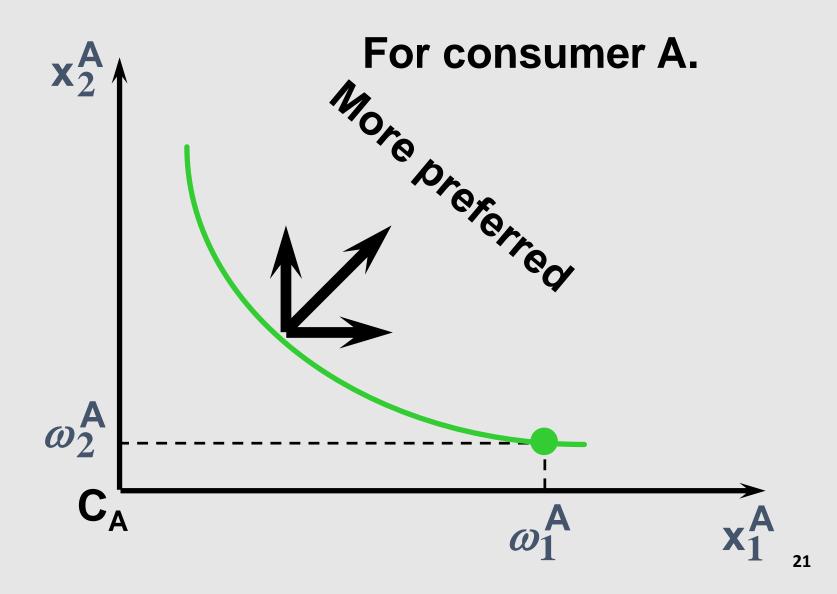


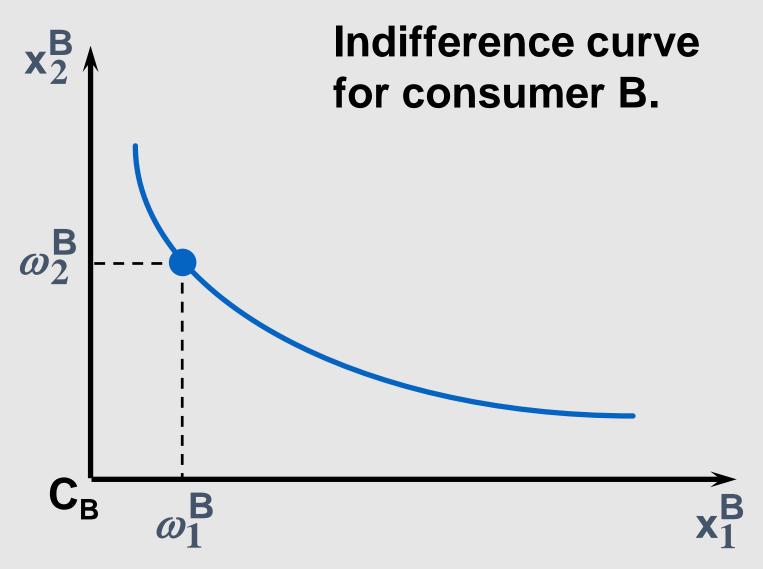
Feasible Reallocations

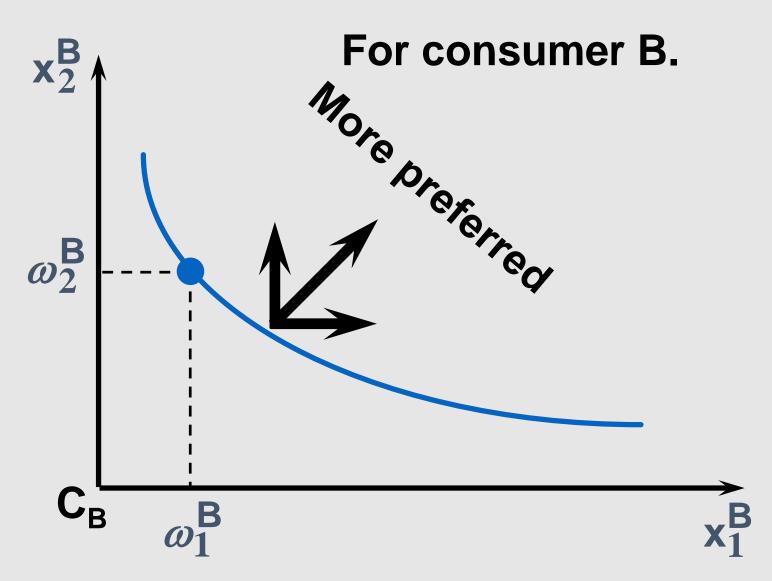
- → All points in the box, including the boundary, represent feasible allocations of the combined endowments.
- → Which allocations will be blocked by one or both consumers?
- → Which allocations make both consumers better off?

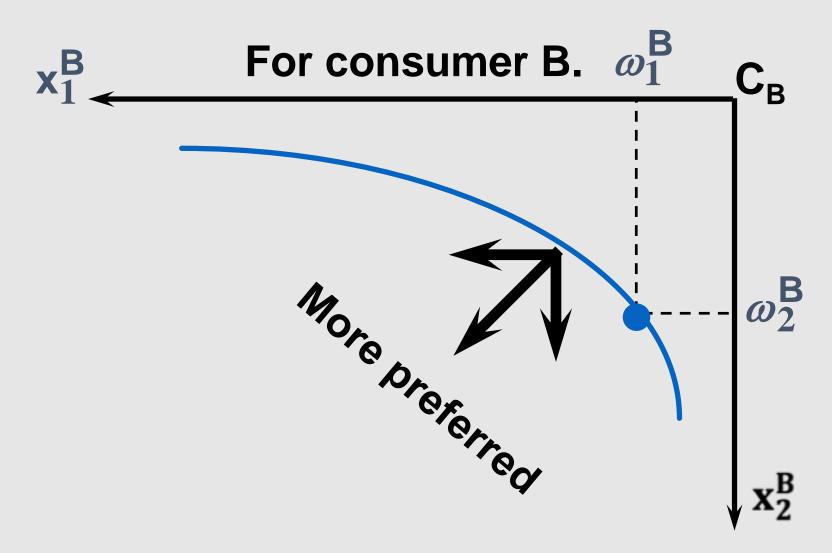
→ To answer these questions, we need to account for preferences of consumer A and B.

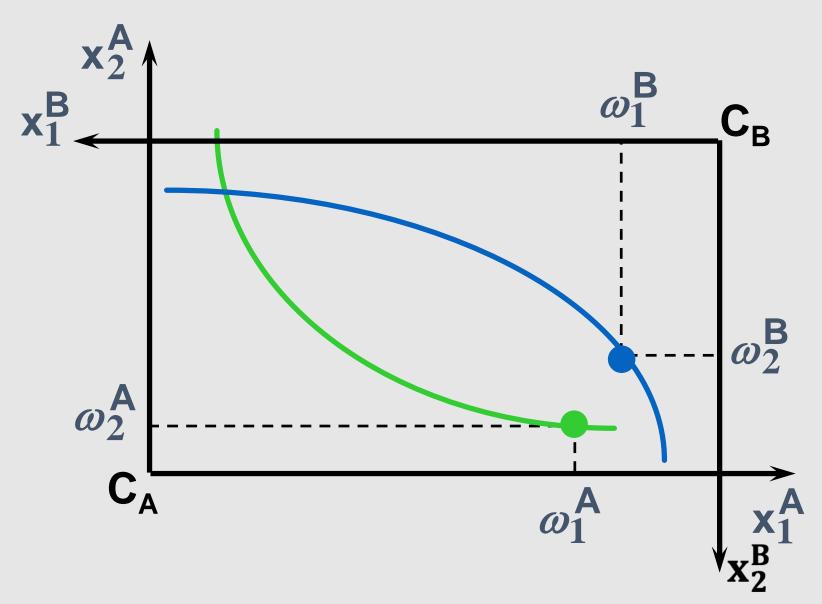


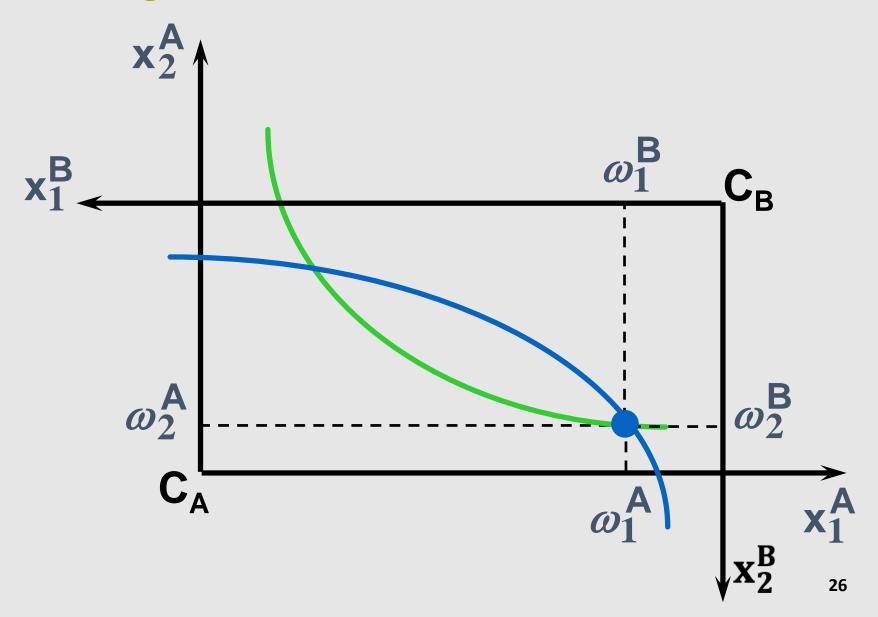




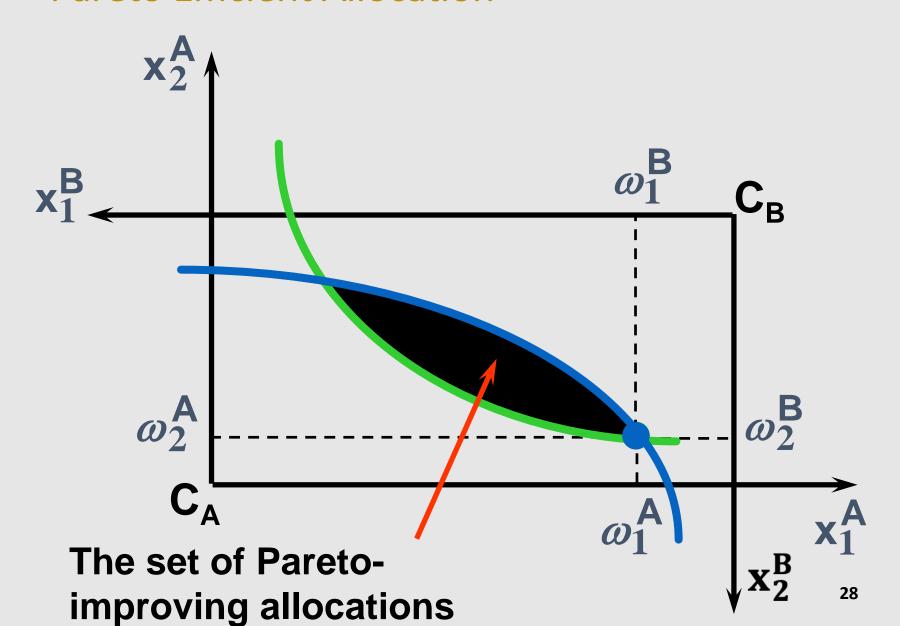






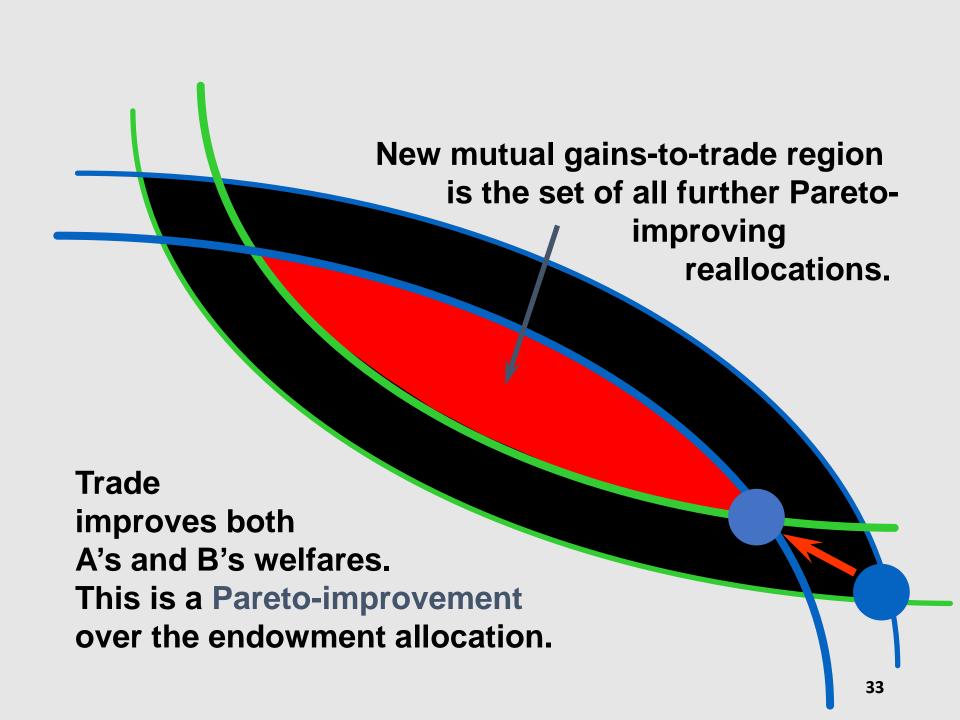


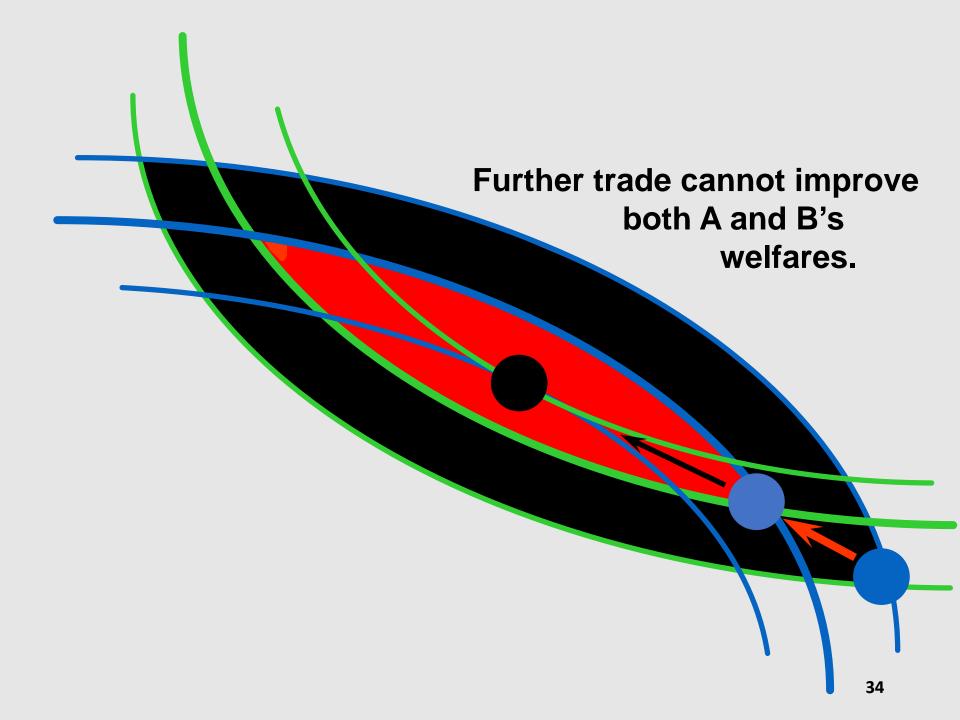
- → An allocation of the endowment that improves the welfare of a consumer without reducing the welfare of another is a Paretoimproving allocation.
- → Where are the Pareto-improving allocations?



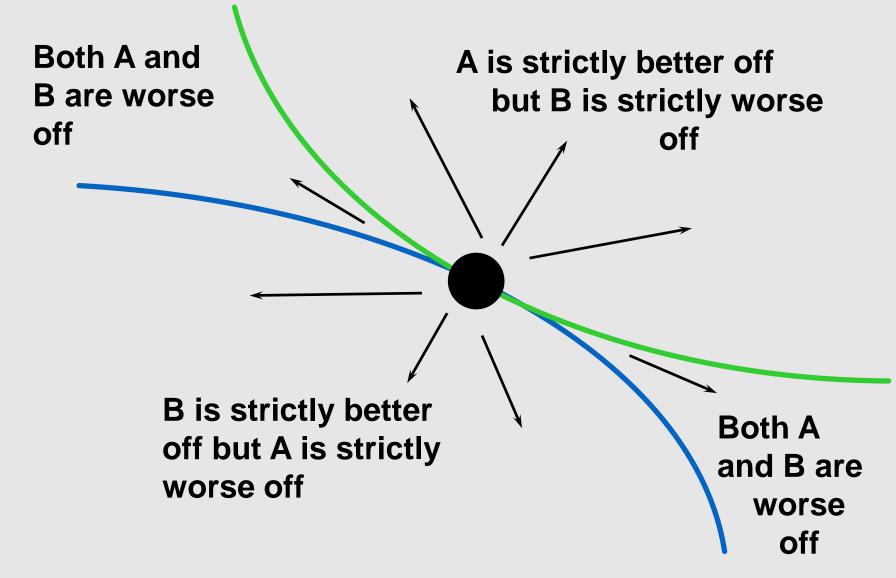
- → Since each consumer can refuse to trade, the only possible outcomes from exchange are Pareto-improving allocations.
- → But which particular Pareto-improving allocation will be the outcome of trade?

Pareto Efficient Allocation Trade improves both A's and B's welfares. This is a Pareto-improvement over the endowment allocation. 32





Pareto Efficient Allocation Better for consumer A **Better for** consumer B



Pareto Efficient Allocation

An allocation where convex indifference curves are tangent is Pareto-optimal.

The allocation is

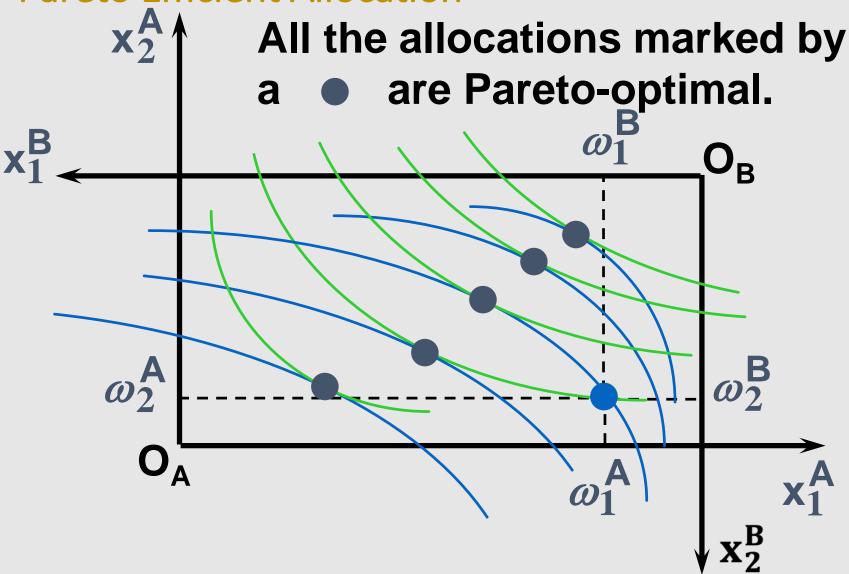
Pareto-optimal since the only way one consumer's welfare can be increased is to decrease the welfare of the other consumer.

Pareto-Optimality or Pareto efficiency

An allocation is Pareto efficient if:

- 1. There is no way to make all the people involved better off
- There is no way to make some individual better off without making someone else worse off
- 3. All the gains from trade have been exhausted
- 4. There are no mutually advantageous trades to be made
- 5. $MRS^A = MRS^B$: the tangent of U^A and U^B are the same.
- → Where are all of the Pareto-optimal allocations of the endowment?

Pareto Efficient Allocation

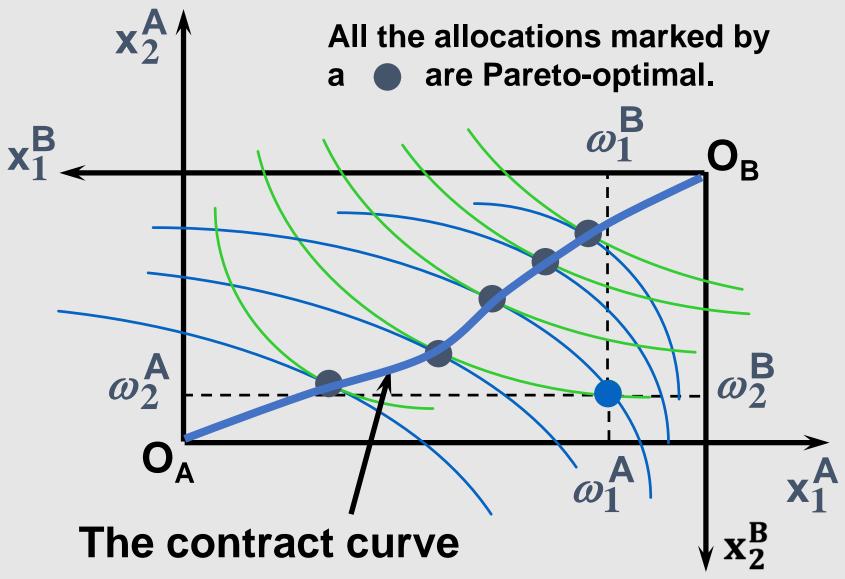


The contract curve

Given the tangency condition:

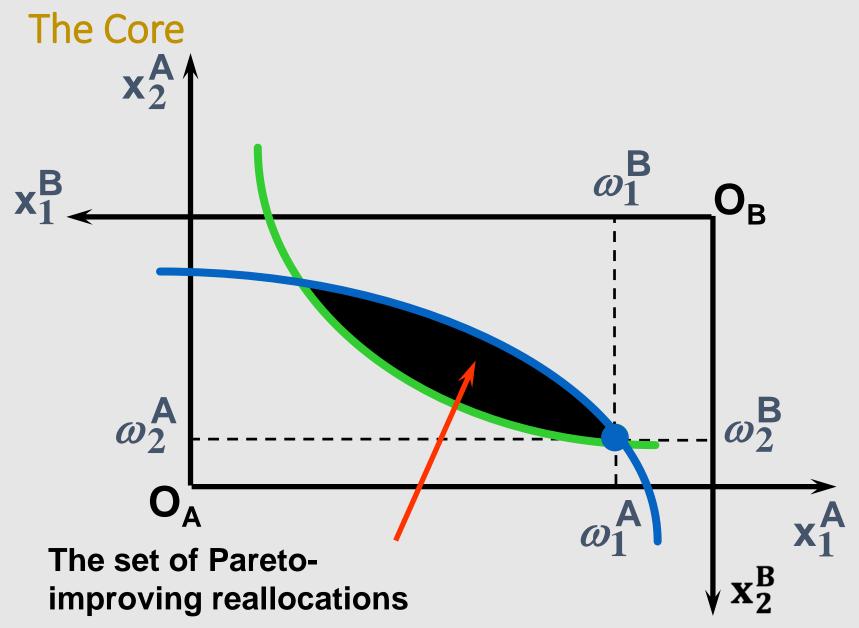
- → It is easy to see that there are many Pareto efficient allocations
- → For each indifference curve of A, we can draw an indifference curve for B so that to obtain a Pareto optimal allocation.
- → The set of all Pareto-optimal allocations is called the contract curve or the Pareto set
 - A contract curve stretches from A's origin to B's origin
 - Pareto set: all possible outcomes of mutually advantageous trade
 - The contract curve or the Pareto set DO NOT DEPEND on the initial endowment
 - To obtain the formula of the contract curve we need $MRS^A = MRS^B$ (tangency of the indifference curves)

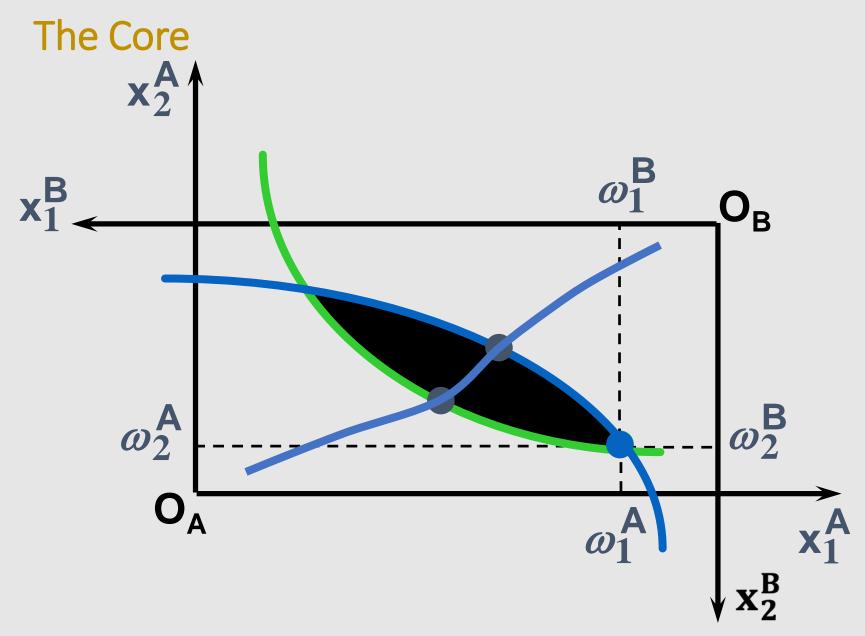
The contract curve

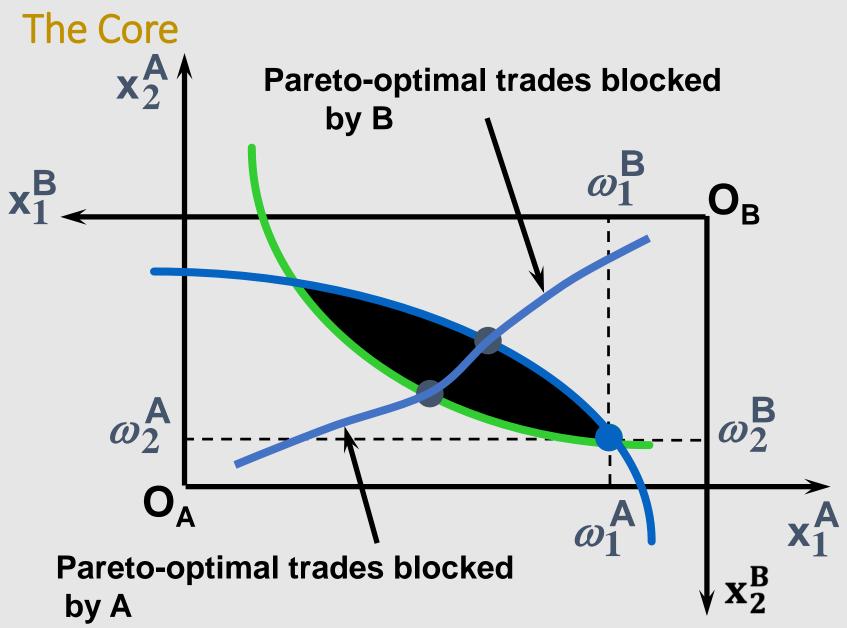


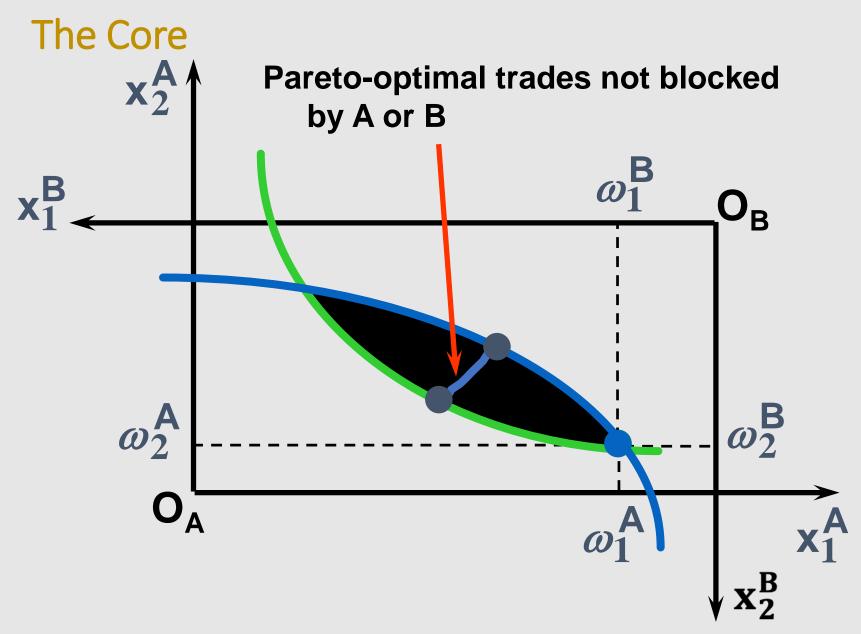
So far, we describe all possible efficient allocations.

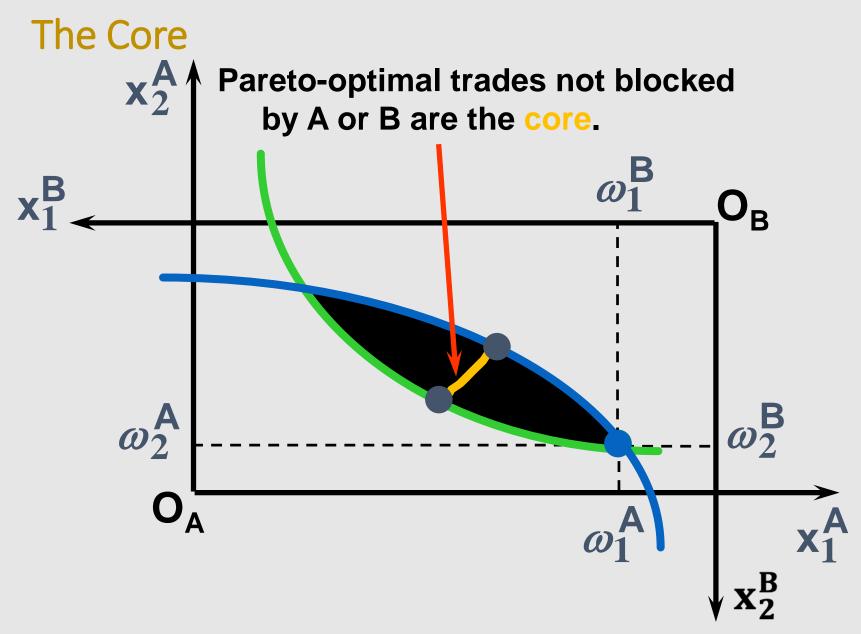
- But to which of the many allocations on the contract curve will consumers trade?
- → That depends upon how trade is conducted.
- → In perfectly competitive markets? By one-on-one bargaining?









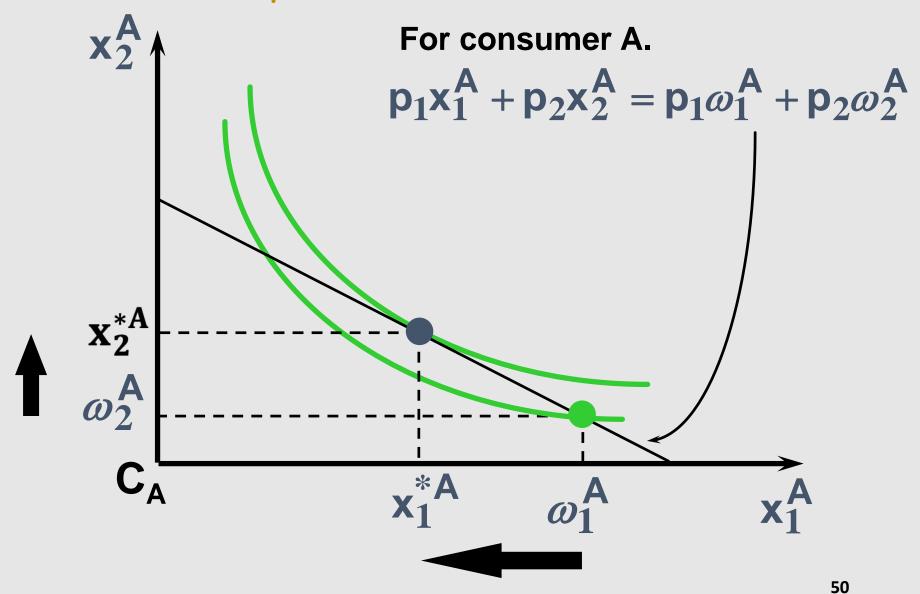


The Core

- → The core is the set of all Pareto-optimal allocations that are welfare-improving for both consumers relative to their own endowments.
- → Rational trade should achieve a core allocation.

- → But which core allocation?
- → Again, that depends upon the way trade is conducted.

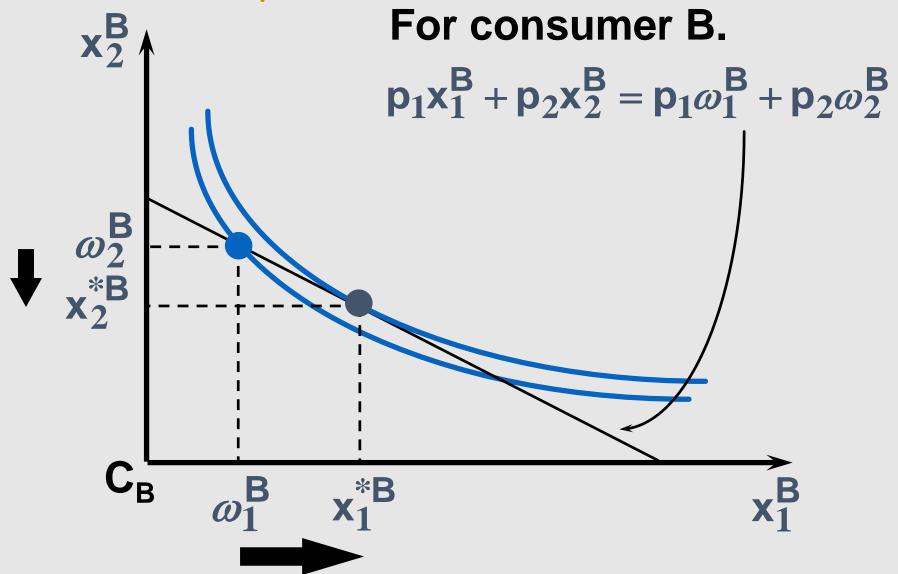
- → Consider trade in perfectly competitive markets.
- \rightarrow Each consumer is a **price-taker** trying to maximize her own utility given p_1 , p_2 and her own endowment. That is:
- → We use the Consumer Maximization Problem
 - Maximize utility
 - Subject to a budget constraint
 - Here the revenue R in the budget constraint is equivalent to how much the consumer can obtain when selling his initial endowment
 - Consumers chooses X^A such that $MRS^A = \frac{p_1}{p_2}$
- \rightarrow (Gross) Demand: total amount of good 1 that consumer A wants at the going prices. Noted by $x_A^1(p_1, p_2)$.
- \rightarrow **Net Demand**: difference between this total demand and the initial endowment of good 1 that agent A holds. Noted by $e_A^1(p_1, p_2)$.



→ So given p₁ and p₂, consumer A's net demands for commodities 1 and 2 are

$$\mathbf{x}_1^{*A} - \omega_1^{A}$$
 and $\mathbf{x}_2^{*A} - \omega_2^{A}$.

→ And, similarly, for consumer B ...



→ So given p₁ and p₂, consumer B's net demands for commodities 1 and 2 are

$$\mathbf{x}_1^{*B} - \omega_1^B$$
 and $\mathbf{x}_2^{*B} - \omega_2^B$.

- \rightarrow A general equilibrium occurs when prices p_1 and p_2 cause both the markets for commodities 1 and 2 to clear.
- → Prices will adjust until the sum of net demands is null:

$$(x_1^{*A} - \omega_1^A) + (x_1^{*B} - \omega_1^B) = 0$$

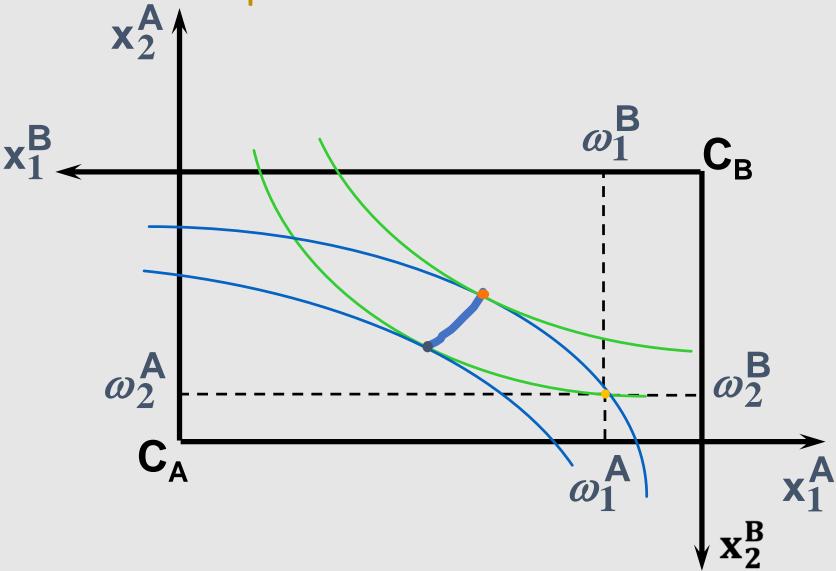
and
$$(x_2^{*A} - \omega_2^A) + (x_2^{*B} - \omega_2^B) = 0$$

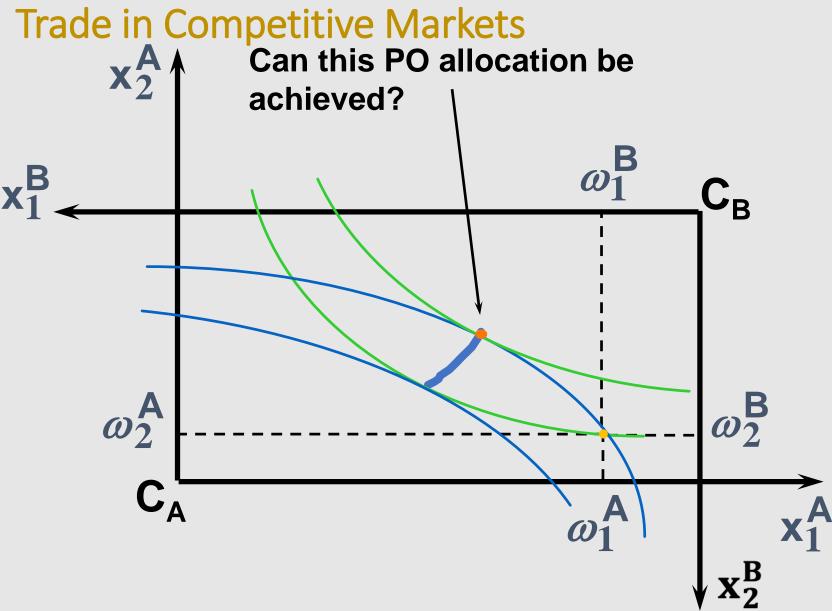
This is

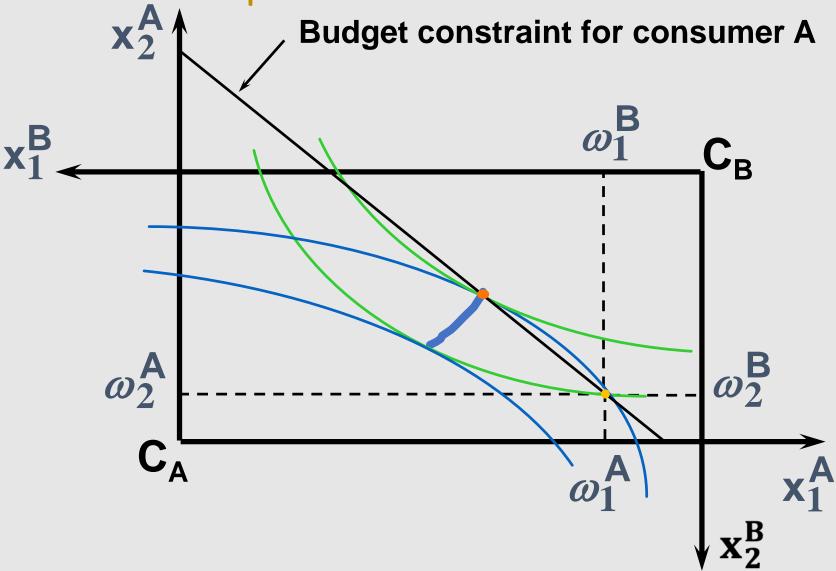
$$x_1^{*A} + x_1^{*B} = \omega_1^A + \omega_1^B$$

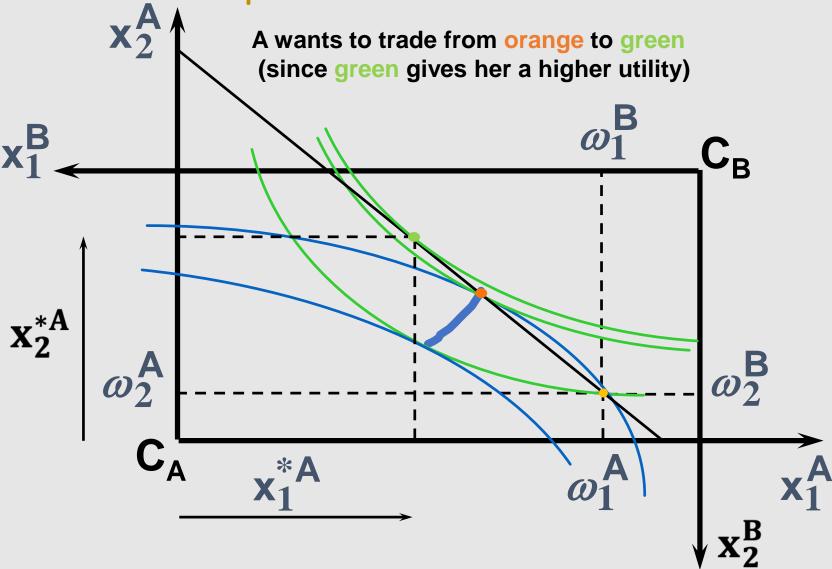
$$x_2^{*A} + x_2^{*B} = \omega_2^A + \omega_2^B$$

→ A market equilibrium: set of prices such that each consumer is choosing his or her most-preferred affordable bundle, and all consumers' choices are compatible in the sense that demand equals supply in every market



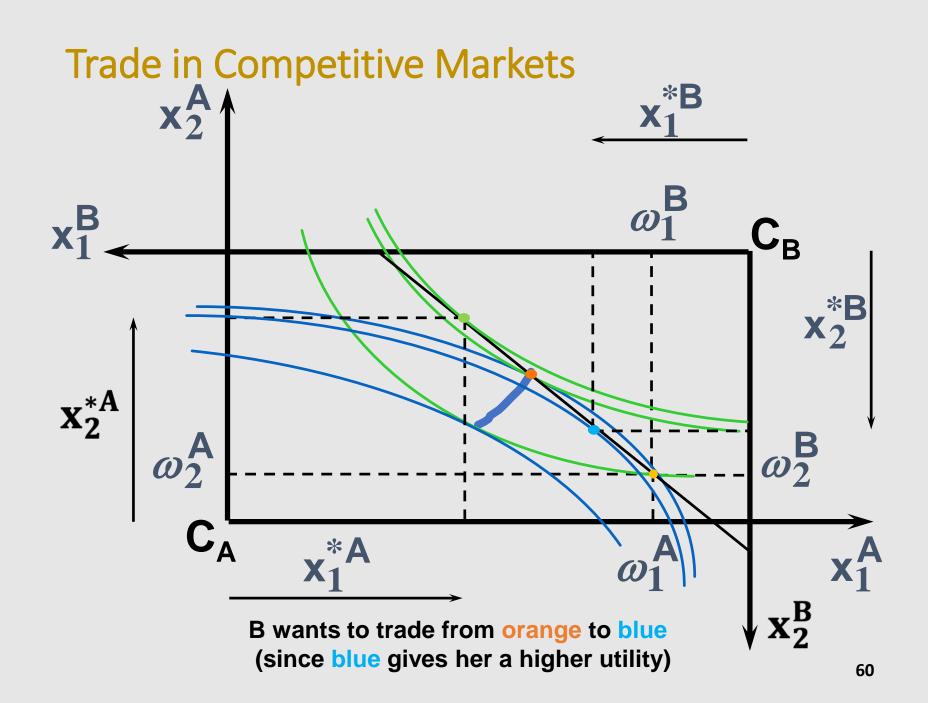


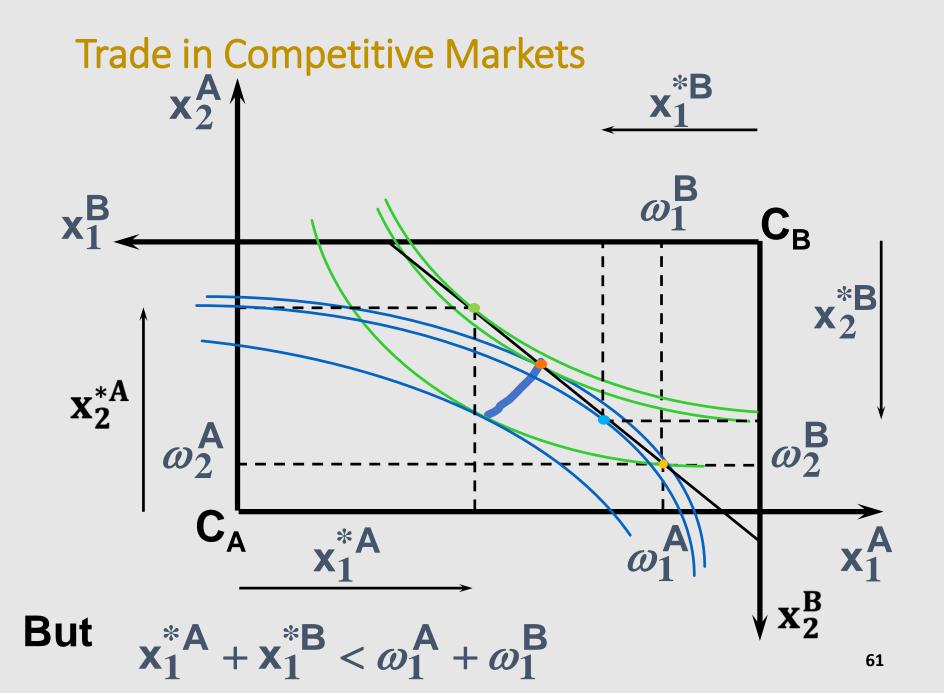


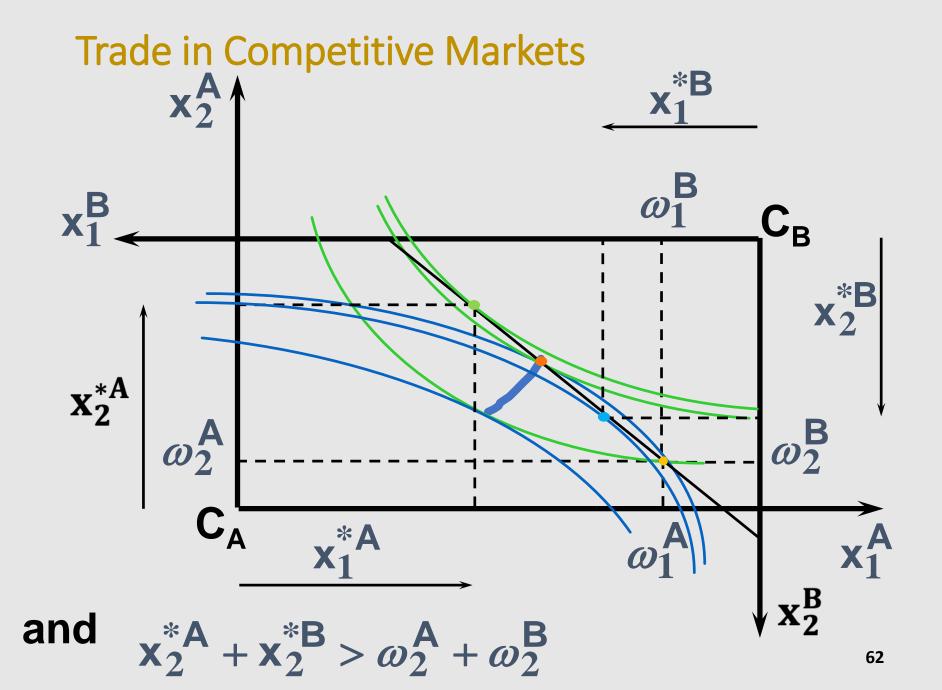


Trade in Competitive Markets **Budget constraint for consumer B**

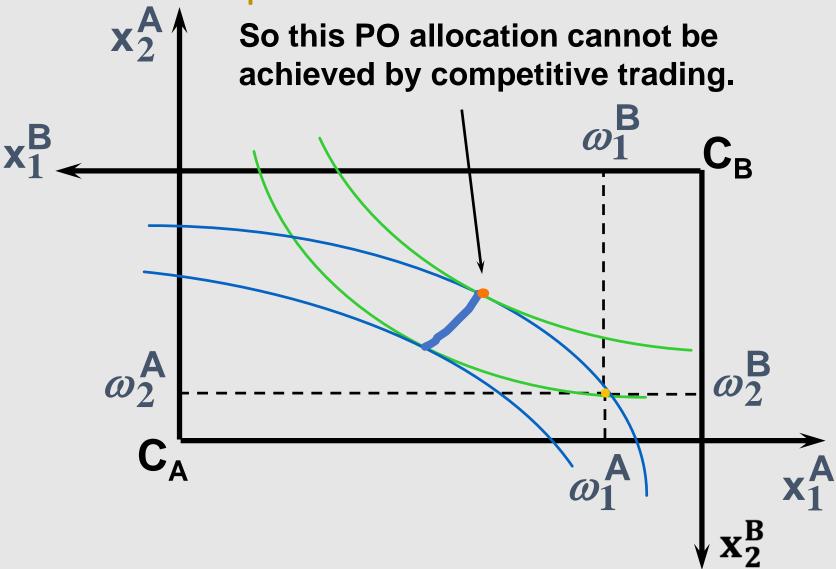
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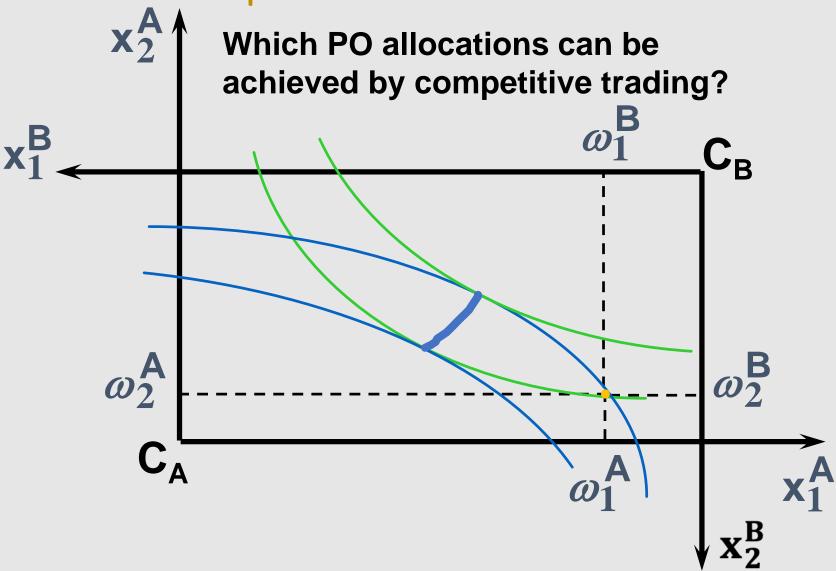




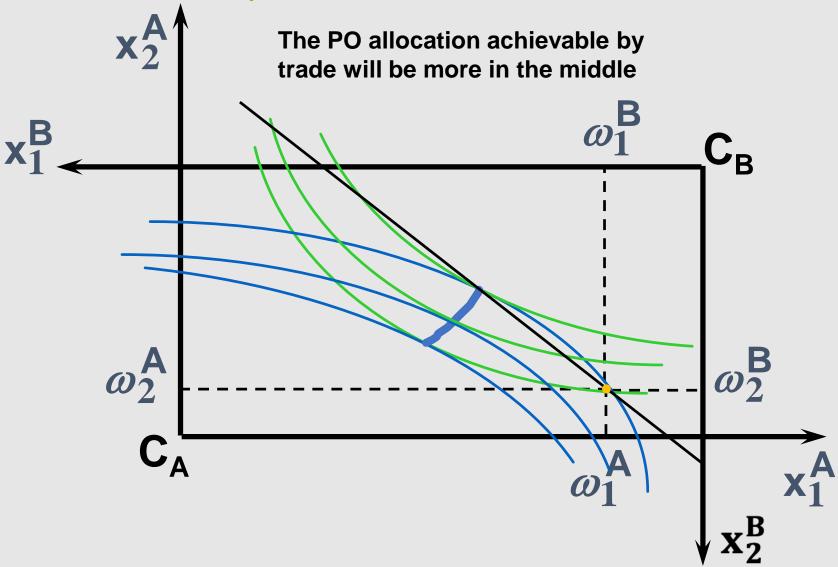


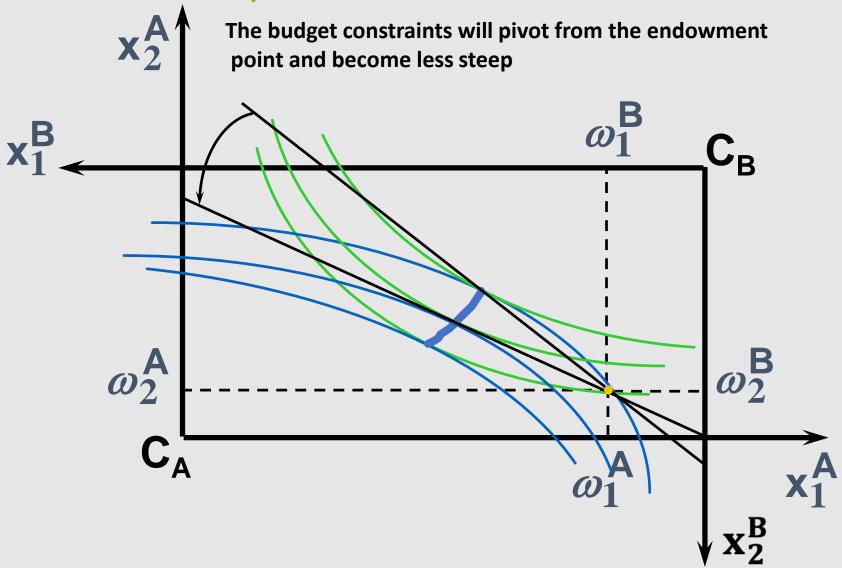
- \rightarrow So at the given prices p_1 and p_2 there is an
 - excess supply of commodity 1
 - excess demand for commodity 2.
- \rightarrow Neither market clears so the prices p_1 and p_2 do not cause a general equilibrium.
- → The market is in disequilibrium

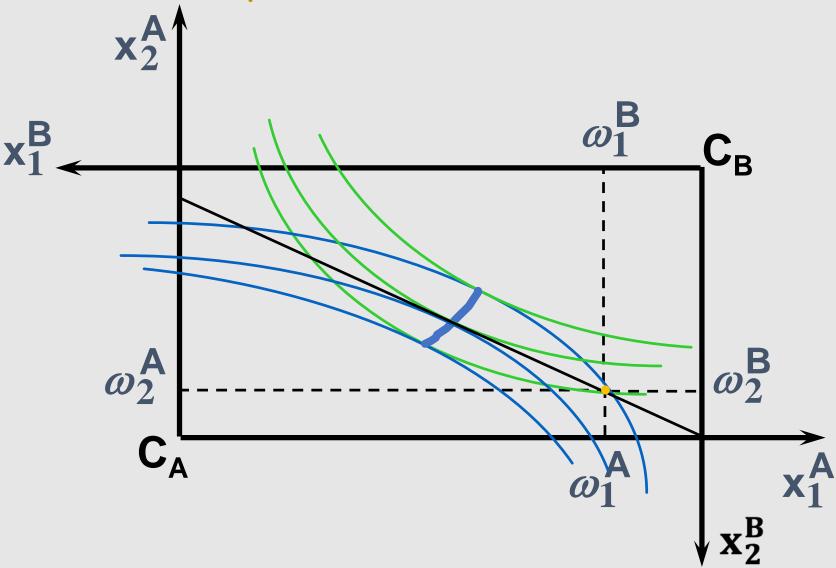


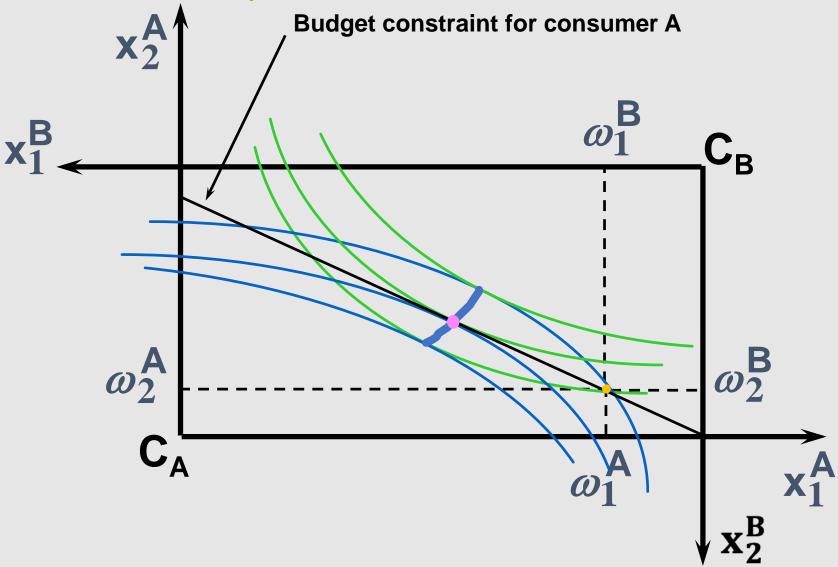


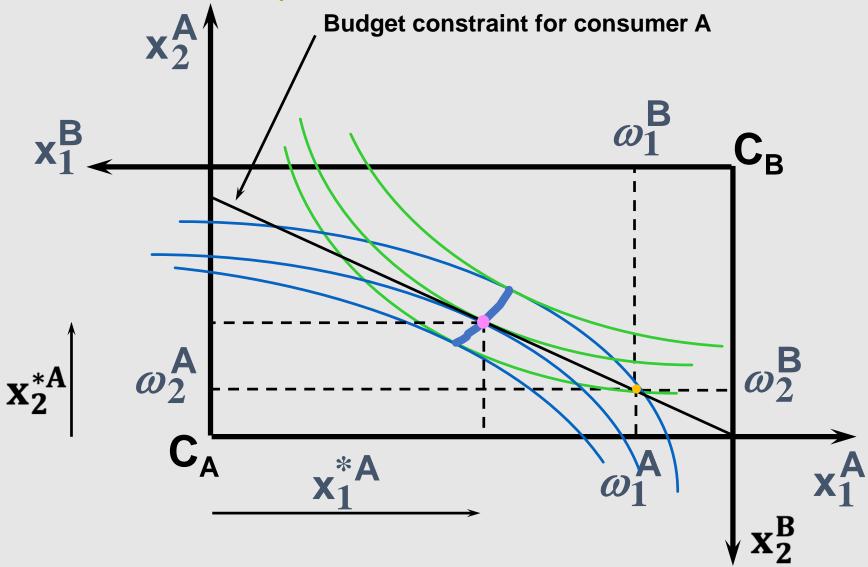
- \rightarrow Since there is an excess demand for commodity 2, p₂ will rise.
- \rightarrow Since there is an excess supply of commodity 1, p₁ will fall.
- \rightarrow The slope of the budget constraints is p_1/p_2 so the budget constraints will pivot from the endowment point and become less steep.

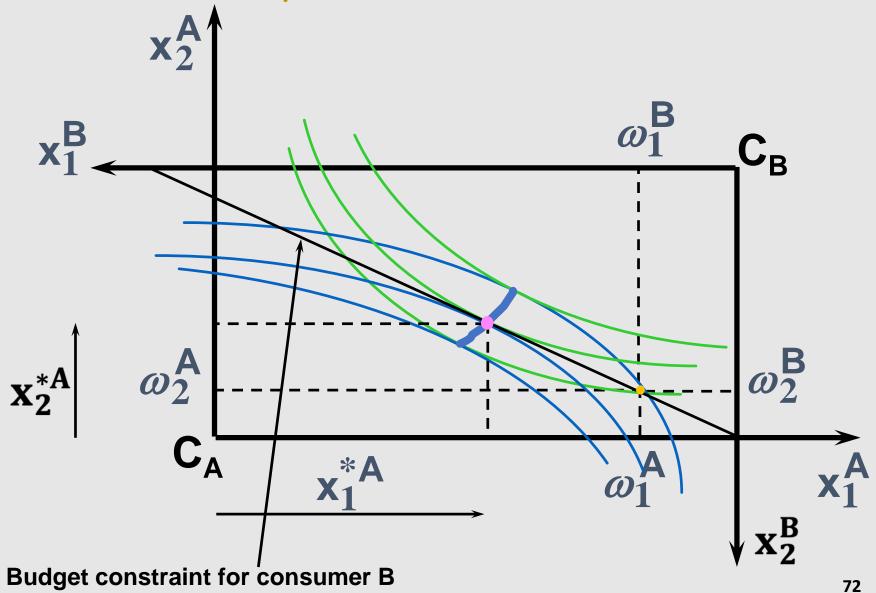


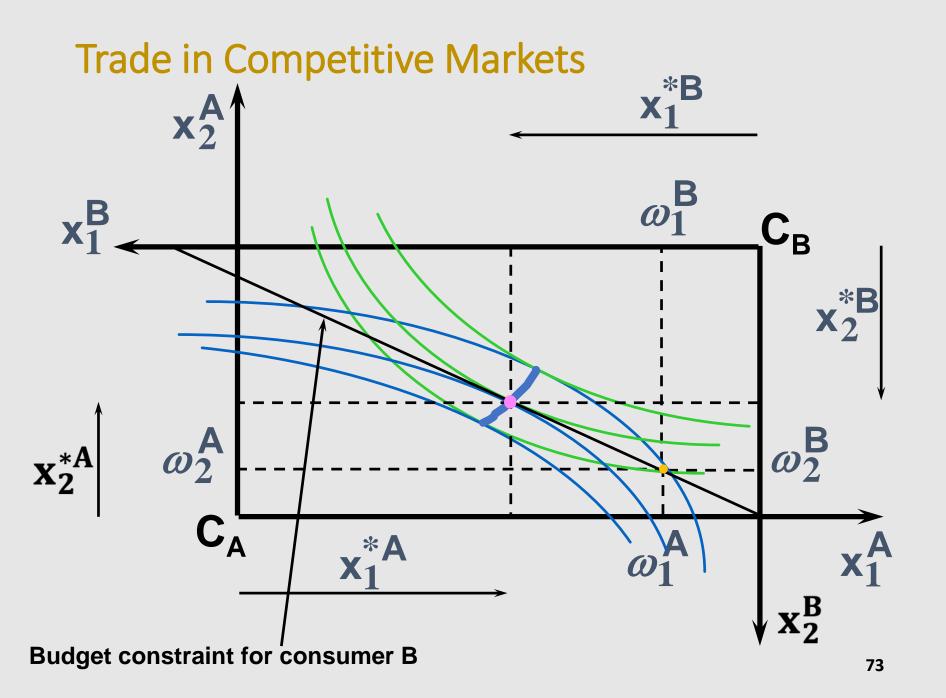


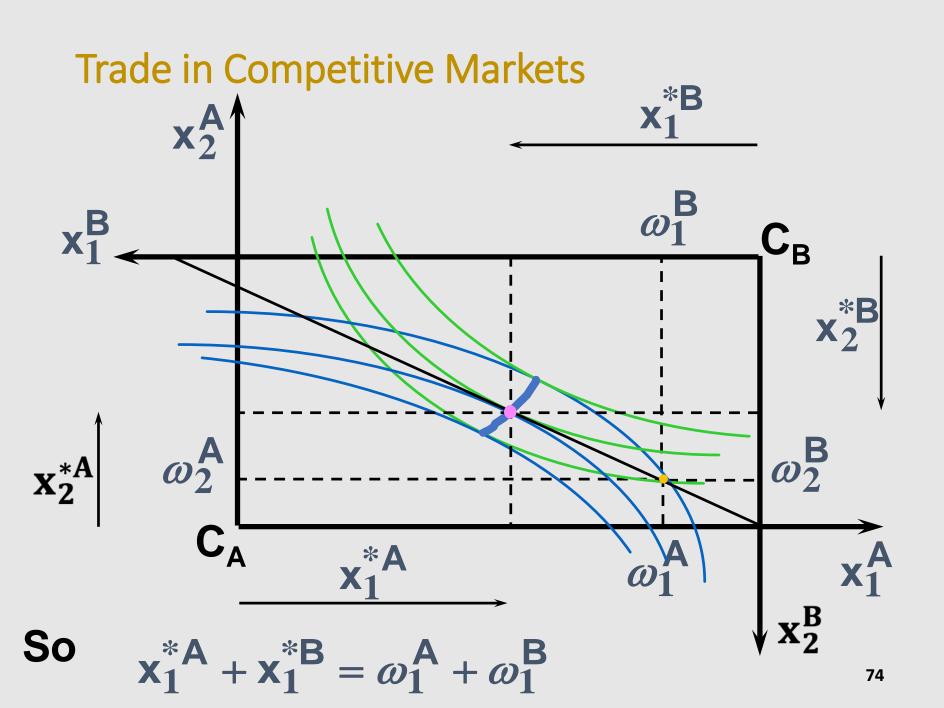


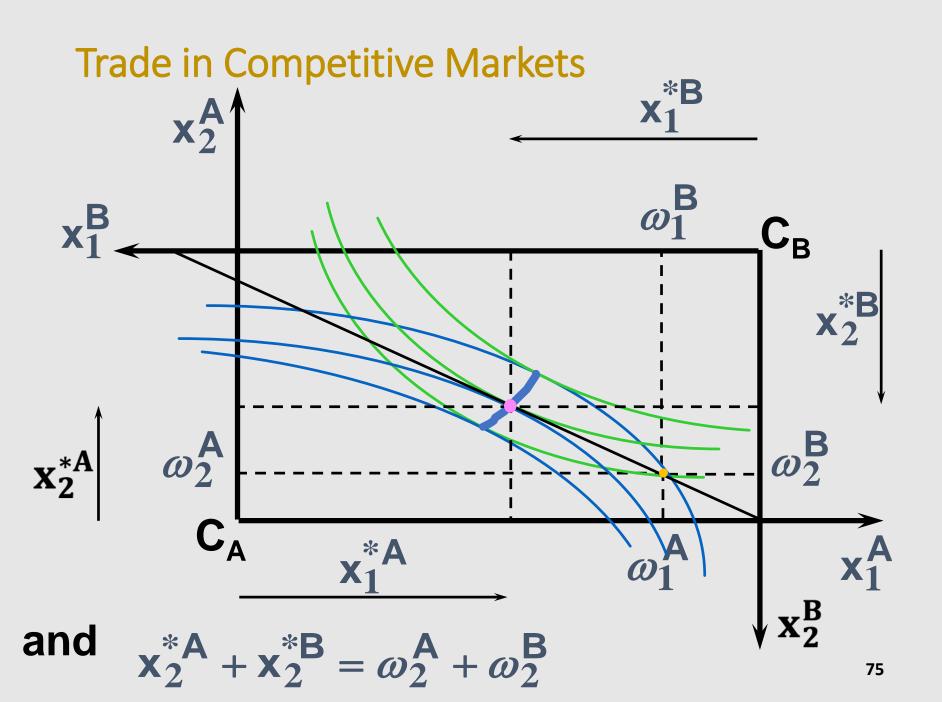












5. Two Theorems of Welfare Economics

- \rightarrow At the new prices p_1 and p_2 both markets clear; there is a **general** equilibrium.
- → Trading in competitive markets achieves a particular Paretooptimal allocation of the endowments.

First Fundamental Theorem of Welfare Economics:

- → All market equilibria are Pareto efficient
 - A competitive market will exhaust all gains from trade
 - An equilibrium allocation achieved by a set of competitive markets will necessarily be Pareto efficient.

Second Fundamental Theorem of Welfare Economics

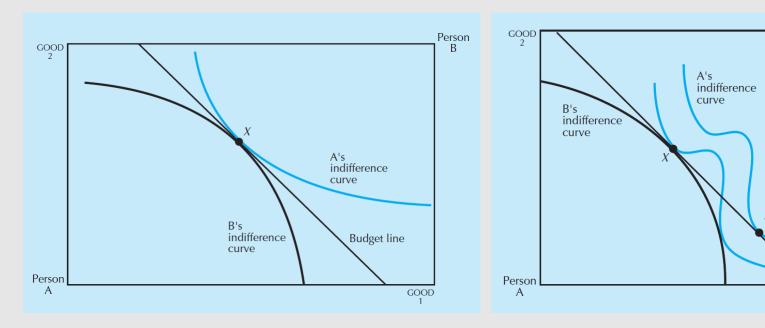
- → What about the other way around?
- → Given a Pareto efficient allocation, can we find prices such that it is a market equilibrium?
- → It turns out that the answer is yes,

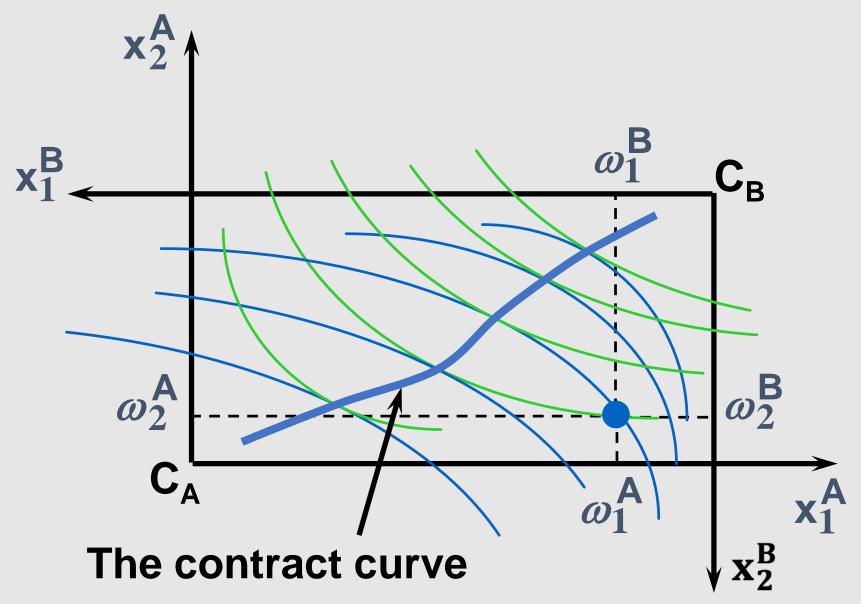
The Second Theorem of Welfare Economics.

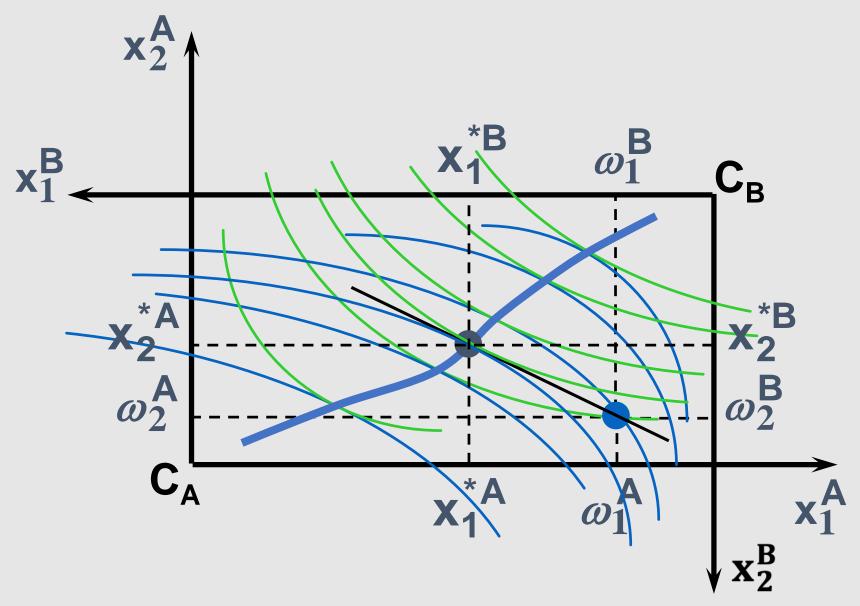
When preferences are convex, a Pareto efficient allocation is an equilibrium for some set of prices.

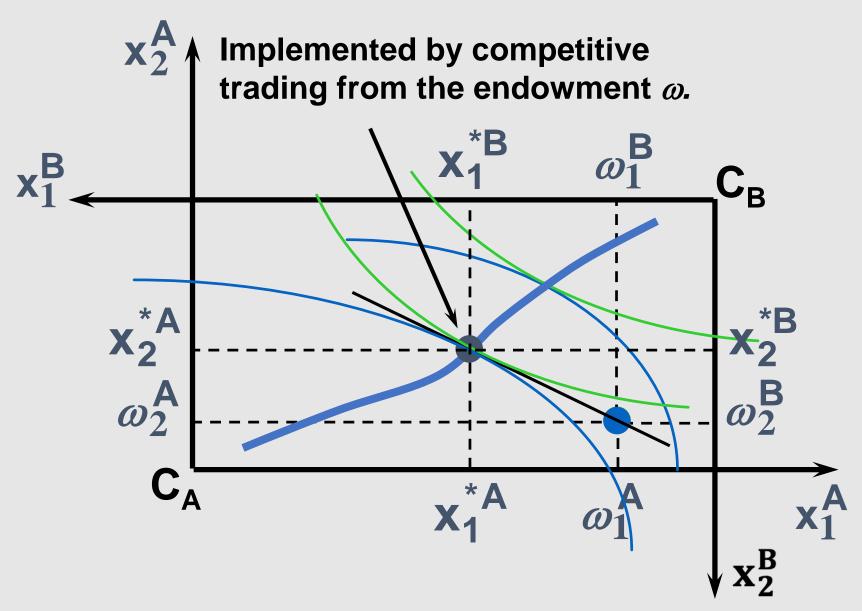
Second Fundamental Theorem of Welfare Economics

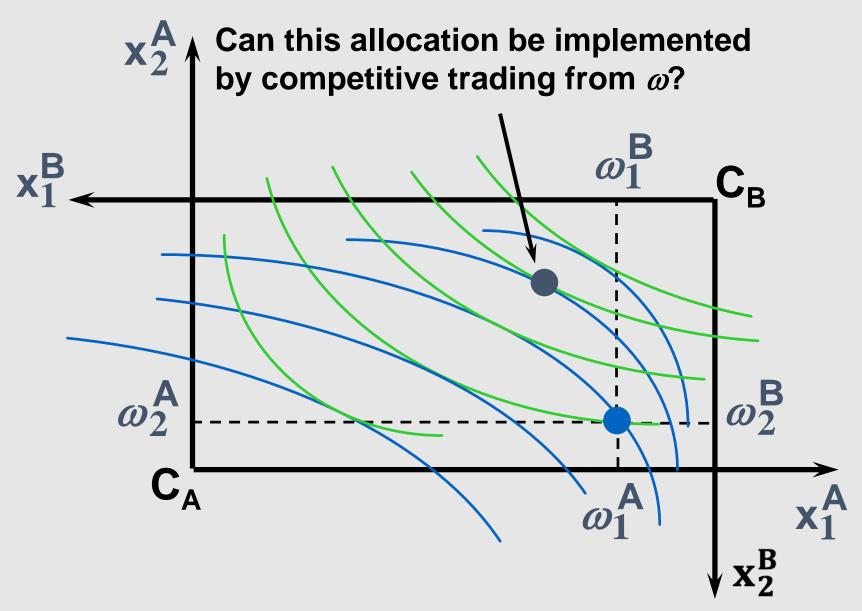
→ If consumers' preferences are convex, for any Pareto-optimal allocation there are prices and an allocation of the total endowment that makes the Pareto-optimal allocation implementable by trading in competitive markets.

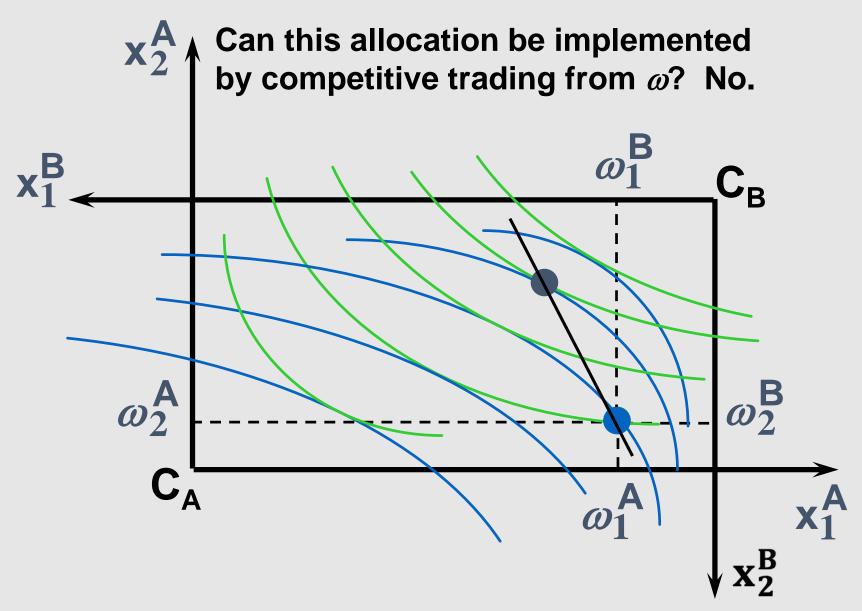


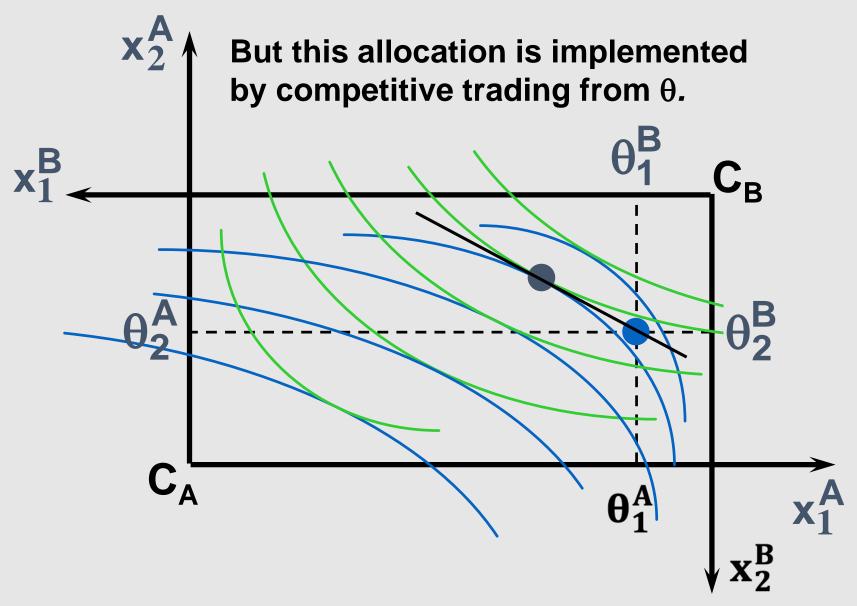












6. Walras' Law

 \rightarrow Walras' Law is an **identity**; i.e. a statement that is true for any positive prices (p_1,p_2) , whether these are equilibrium prices or not.

$$p_1 z_1(p_1, p_2) + p_2 z_2(p_1, p_2) = 0$$

 \rightarrow Meaning: the value of aggregate net demand (z_1 and z_2 is the net demand of both consumers A and B) is identically zero for all possible choices of prices, not just equilibrium prices

Proof

- \rightarrow Every consumer's preferences are well-behaved (convex) so, for any positive prices (p₁,p₂), each consumer spends all of his budget.
- \rightarrow For consumer A: $p_1 x_A^1(p_1, p_2) + p_2 x_A^2(p_1, p_2) = p_1 \omega_A^1 + p_2 \omega_A^2$
- \rightarrow Let's rewrite as: $p_1[x_A^1(p_1, p_2) \omega_A^1] + p_2[x_A^2(p_1, p_2) \omega_A^2] = 0$

6. Walras' Law

→ This equation says that the value of agent A's net demand is zero. Since

$$e_A^1 = x_A^1(p_1, p_2) - \omega_A^1$$
 we can rewrite $p_1 e_A^1(p_1, p_2) + p_2 e_A^2(p_1, p_2) = 0$

→ The same is true for consumer B, we have that

$$p_1 e_B^1(p_1, p_2) + p_2 e_B^2(p_1, p_2) = 0$$

 \rightarrow Adding the equations for agent A and agent B together and using the definition of aggregate net demand, $z_1=e_A^1+e_B^1$ and $z_2=e_A^2+e_B^2$, we have

$$p_1[e_A^1(p_1, p_2) + e_B^1(p_1, p_2)] + p_2[e_A^2(p_1, p_2) + e_B^2(p_1, p_2)] = 0$$

 \rightarrow Then

$$p_1 z_1(p_1, p_2) + p_2 z_2(p_1, p_2) = 0$$

Implications of Walras' Law

- The value of how much A wants to buy of good 1 plus the value of how much she wants to buy of good 2 must equal zero.
 - (Of course the amount that she wants to buy of *one* of the goods must be negative—that is, she intends to sell some of one of the goods to buy more of the other.)
- 2. If demand equals supply in one market, demand must also equal supply in the other market.