

Microeconomic Theory — ECON 323 503  
Chapter 5: Consumer Welfare and Policy  
Analysis

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# Outline

1. Consumer welfare: how do we measure the effect of a price change on a consumer?

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3. Market consumer surplus: we can add up the individual effects to get the effect on the entire market.

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1. Consumer welfare: how do we measure the effect of a price change on a consumer?
2. Expenditure function and consumer welfare: how much money would we need to give a consumer to compensate him for a price change?
3. Market consumer surplus: we can add up the individual effects to get the effect on the entire market.
4. Effects of government policies on consumer welfare: consumer welfare lets us measure the effects of various policies.

# Consumer welfare

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Two problems:

1. We don't know utility functions.
2. What does it mean if you get utility 1,000 from a bundle and I get 900 from the same bundle? Nothing.

# Consumer welfare

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In this sense, it makes sense that you value it more than I do.

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If you buy product for \$1,000 but it's worth \$2,000 to you: your welfare is \$1,000.



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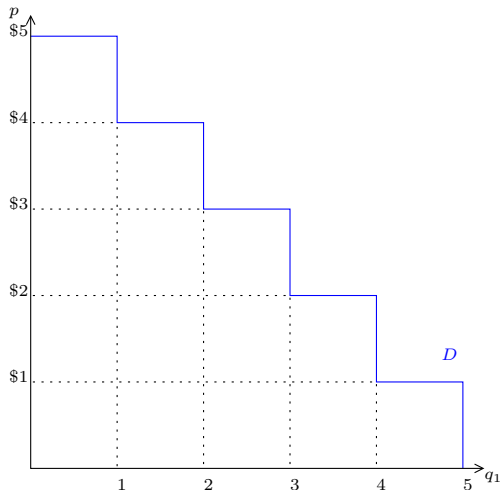
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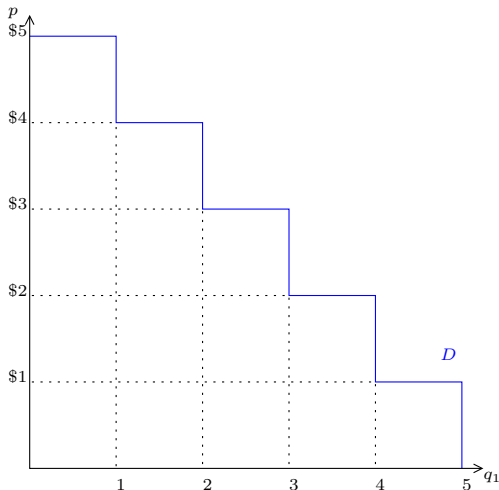
This is the *marginal value* that you assign to getting one more unit of the good.

# Willingness to pay



Start with this demand curve: marginal value of first unit is \$5, second unit is \$4, and so on.

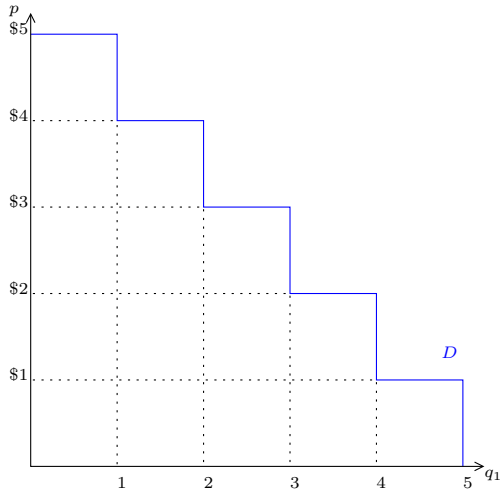
# Willingness to pay



So at price \$5, you buy one unit.

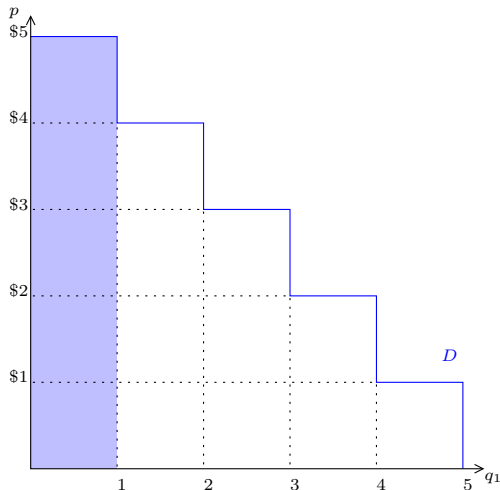
At price \$4, you buy two units. And so on.

# Willingness to pay



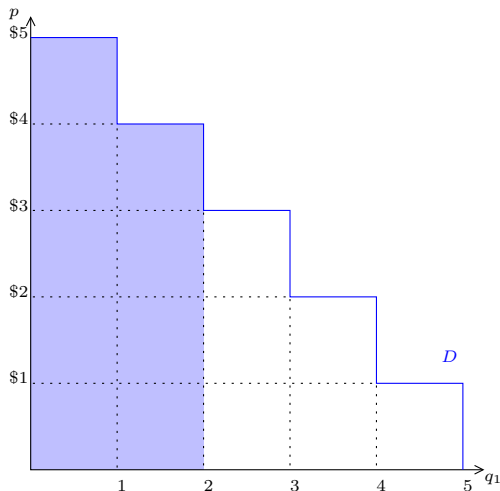
*Consumer surplus*, CS=maximum amount you're willing to pay  
- what you pay for it.

## Willingness to pay



The most you're willing to pay for one unit is the shaded area ( $\$(5 \times 1)$ ).

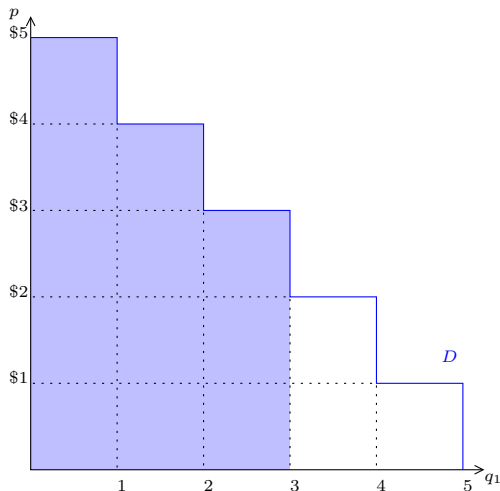
## Willingness to pay



The most you're willing to pay for two units is the shaded area ( $\$(5 \times 1) + (4 \times 1)$ ).



# Willingness to pay



The most you're willing to pay for three units is the shaded area ( $\$(5 \times 1) + (4 \times 1) + (3 \times 1)$ ).

# Calculating consumer surplus

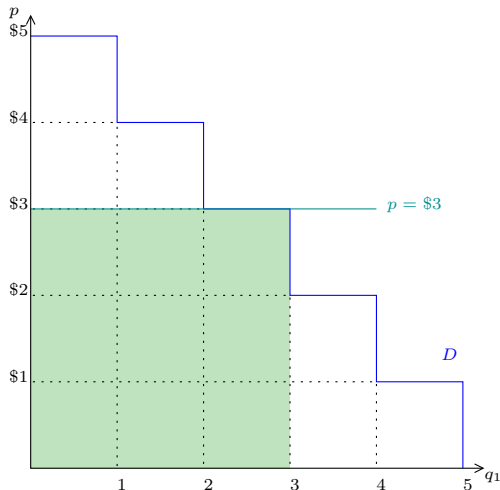
Suppose that the price is \$3.

# Calculating consumer surplus

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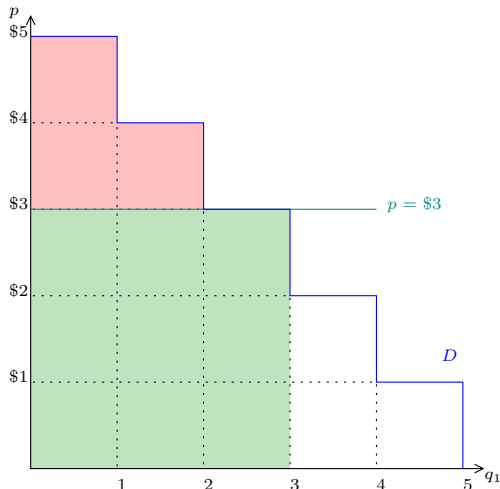
You buy three units of the good. This costs you  $3 \times \$3 = \$9$ .

# Calculating consumer surplus



The area of the green shaded area is what you pay for three units if the price is \$3.

# Calculating consumer surplus



Consumer surplus (red area) = maximum that you're willing to pay (the previous blue area) - what you paid (the green area)

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$$CS = CS_1 + CS_2 + CS_3$$

# Consumer surplus

## Equivalent definitions

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# Consumer surplus

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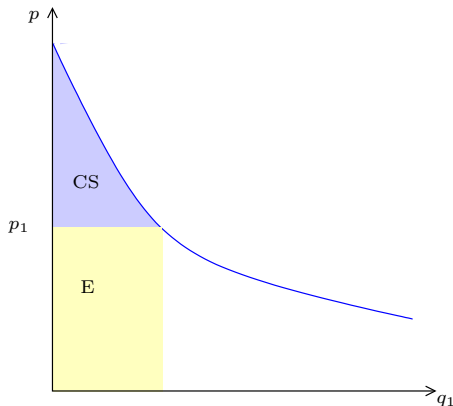
1. Extra value you get after paying for your desired amount of a good at a particular price.
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# Consumer surplus

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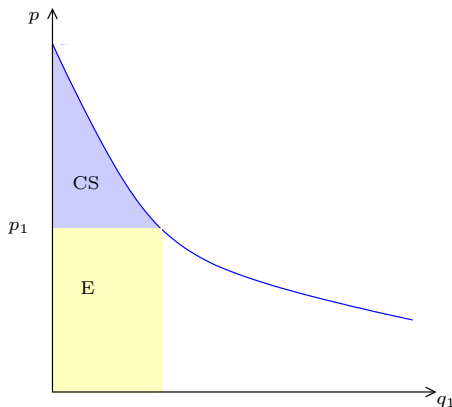
1. Extra value you get after paying for your desired amount of a good at a particular price.
2. The most you're willing to pay for the right to buy at a particular price.
3. The area under the demand curve and above the price up to the quantity demanded at that price.

# Consumer surplus of a smooth demand curve



CS is the area under the demand curve, above the price.

# Consumer surplus of a smooth demand curve



CS is the area under the demand curve, above the price.

The area under the demand curve is still the willingness to pay and you get CS by subtracting expenditure (E).

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But how much?

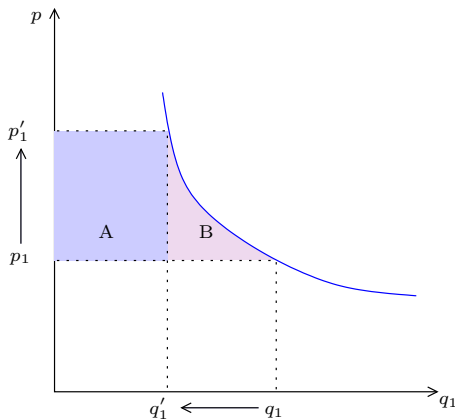
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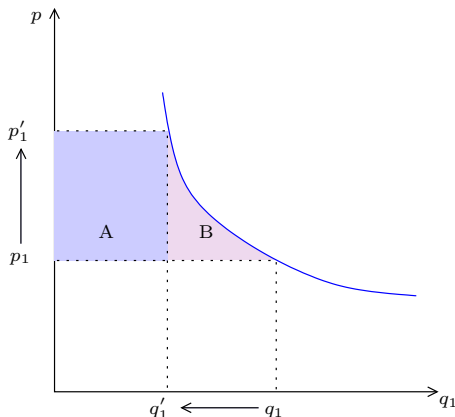
Change in CS is a way to quantify this.

## Effect of a price change on consumer surplus



The change in CS is the sum the areas of regions A and B.

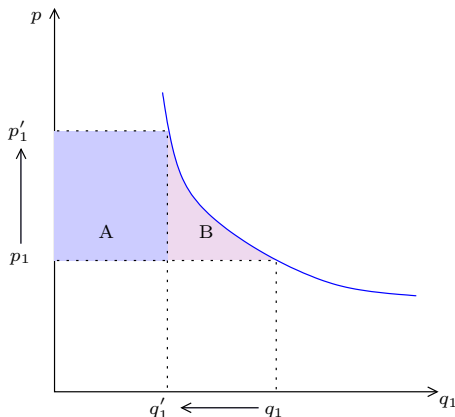
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## Effect of a price change on consumer surplus



The change in CS is the sum the areas of regions A and B.

A is the loss of welfare from paying more for the units you're still buying.

B is the loss from buying fewer units.

## Textbook exercise 1.1

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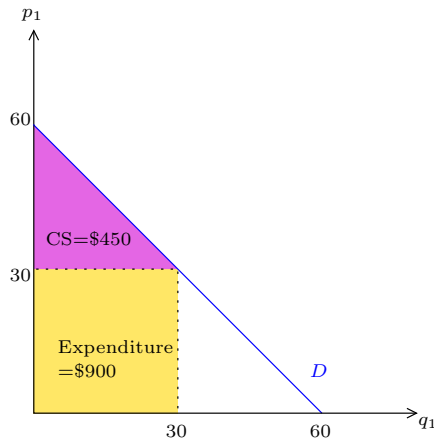
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Let's draw a picture so that we can figure out what CS is.



## Textbook exercise 1.1



CS is the area of the pink triangle: base = 30, height = 30.

$$\text{CS} = \text{Area} = \frac{\text{base} \times \text{height}}{2} = \frac{30 \times 30}{2} = 450.$$

# Compensating a consumer for the change in price

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$$\text{welfare change} = \underbrace{E(p_1, p_2, \bar{U})}_{\text{Costs of getting } \bar{U} \text{ at } p_1} - \underbrace{E(p'_1, p_2, \bar{U})}_{\text{Cost of getting } \bar{U} \text{ at } p'_1}$$

Wich welfare level ( $\bar{U}$ ) to use?

Two ways to do it:

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2.  $\bar{U}$  is your utility after the price change.



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Since I'm *compensating* you for the price increase, we call it the “compensating variation” (CV).

## Equivalent variation

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If I take away this amount from you but don't change the price, it'll keep you at the same utility level  $\bar{U}$  as if I change the price but don't take any money from you.

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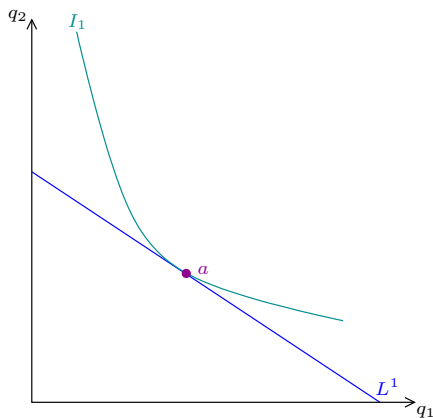
“What would you pay me to stop the price increase?”

If I take away this amount from you but don't change the price, it'll keep you at the same utility level  $\bar{U}$  as if I change the price but don't take any money from you.

Since paying me that amount and keeping the prices and not paying me but having a higher price to give you the same utility, they're *equivalent*. So we call it the “equivalent variation” (EV).

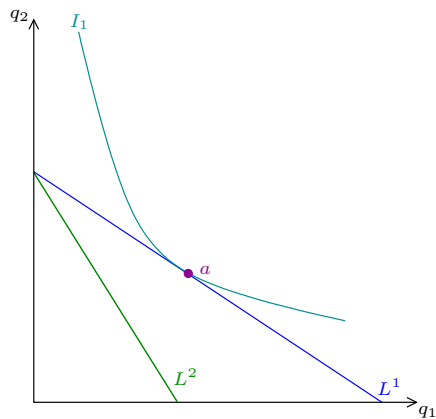


## An example



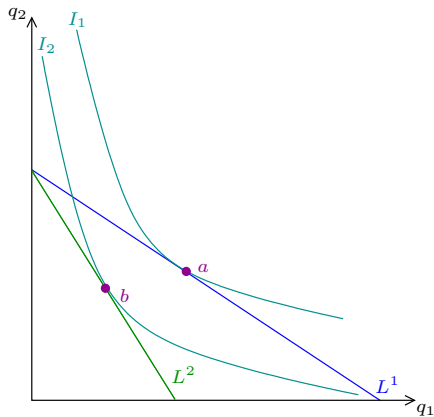
Suppose that  $p_2 = 1$ . We'll see what happens when  $p_1$  changes.

## An example



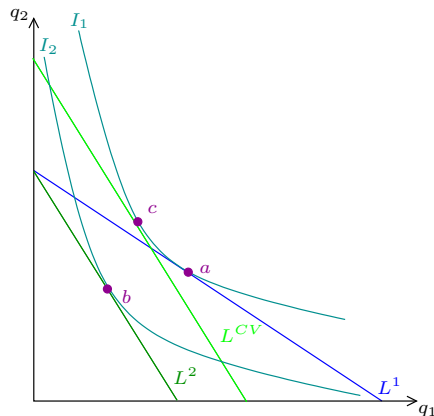
When  $p_1$  increases, we get the new green budget line.

## An example



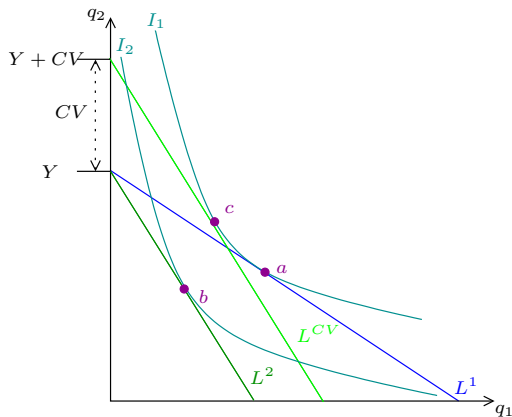
From this budget, you pick bundle  $b$ . You're worse off.

# Compensating variation



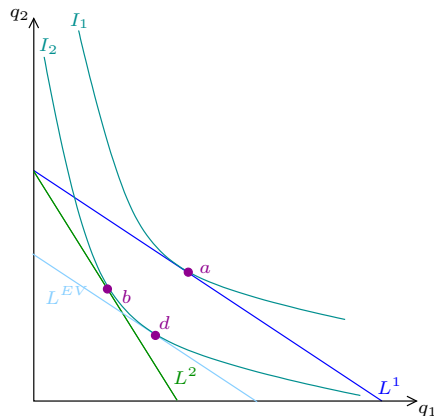
If we give you more income at the new price the light green budget line brings you back to the indifference curve  $I^1$ .

# Compensating variation



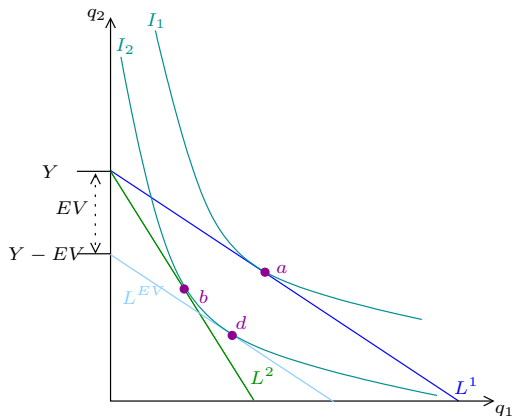
If your original income was  $Y$ , the new income is  $Y + CV$ . Since  $p_2 = 1$ , this is the vertical distance between the intercepts.

## Equivalent variation



If we take away income from you at the old prices, the light blue budget line brings you to the indifference curve  $I^2$ .

## Equivalent variation



If your original income was  $Y$ , the new income is  $Y - EV$ . Since  $p_2 = 1$ , this is the vertical distance between the intercepts.

# Comparing the three welfare measures

We've seen three ways of measuring welfare:

1. Change in consumer surplus ( $\Delta CS$ )
2. Compensating variation (CV)
3. Equivalent variation (EV)



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Which one is bigger?

Depends on income elasticity.

Normal goods:  $|CV| > |\Delta CS| > |EV|$ .

Inferior goods:  $|CV| < |\Delta CS| < |EV|$ .

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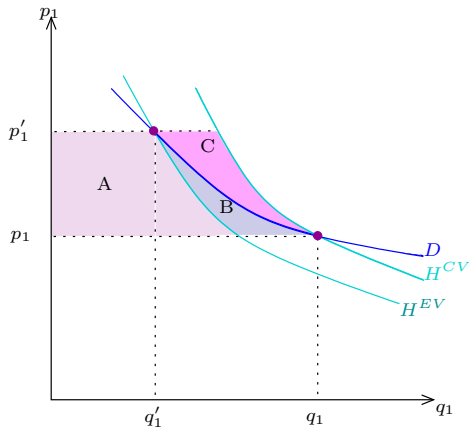
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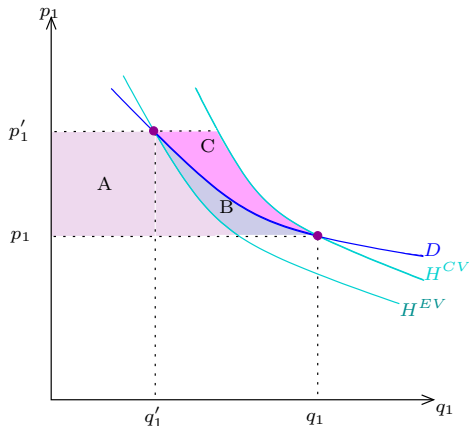
We can check this graphically. (We'll skip the math:)

# Comparing the three welfare measures



$$|CV| = A + B + C, |\Delta CS| = A + B, \text{ and } |EV| = A.$$

# Comparing the three welfare measures



$$|CV| = A + B + C, |\Delta CS| = A + B, \text{ and } |EV| = A.$$

$$\text{So } |CV| > |\Delta CS| > |EV|.$$

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The areas B and C are really small compared to A for small changes in price.

So it often does not matter which measure we use in practice.

Economists usually use CS to measure welfare since it's easy to calculate from the observable demand function.

# Market consumer surplus

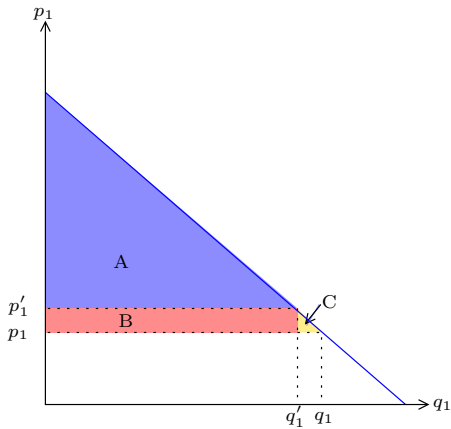
Recall: You get market demand by horizontally adding up individual demand.

# Market consumer surplus

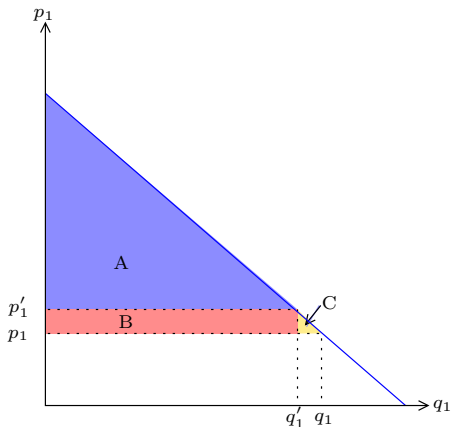
Recall: You get market demand by horizontally adding up individual demand.

The effect of a price increase on CS is calculated the same way for the market as a whole as it is for individuals.

# Market consumer surplus

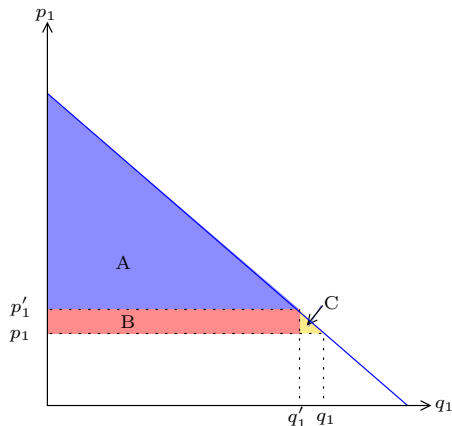


# Market consumer surplus



CS before price increase:  $A+B+C$

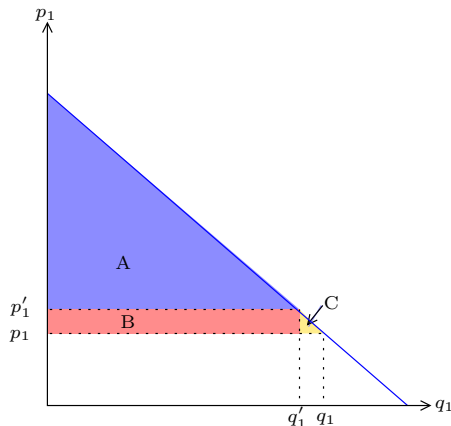
# Market consumer surplus



CS before price increase:  $A+B+C$

CS after price increase:  $A$

# Market consumer surplus



CS before price increase:  $A+B+C$

CS after price increase:  $A$

Loss of CS because of price increase:  $B+C$

## Markets in which CS Loss is large

CS is loss is bigger

1. The more money is spent on the good (revenue from sales of the good),  $pQ$ : This makes A, B, and C all bigger.



## Markets in which CS Loss is large

CS loss is bigger

1. The more money is spent on the good (revenue from sales of the good),  $pQ$ : This makes A, B, and C all bigger.
2. The less elastic demand is: B is bigger as demand gets more inelastic. This is because consumers buy a similar quantity even as the price rises.

## Textbook exercise 3.4

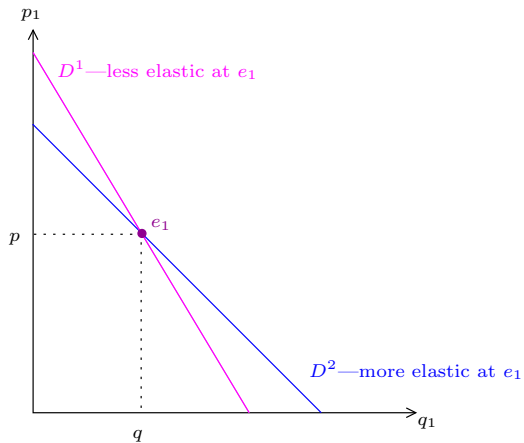
Two linear demand curves go through the initial equilibrium  $e_1$ . One demand curve is less elastic than the other at  $e_1$ . For which demand curve will a price increase cause the larger consumer surplus loss?

## Textbook exercise 3.4

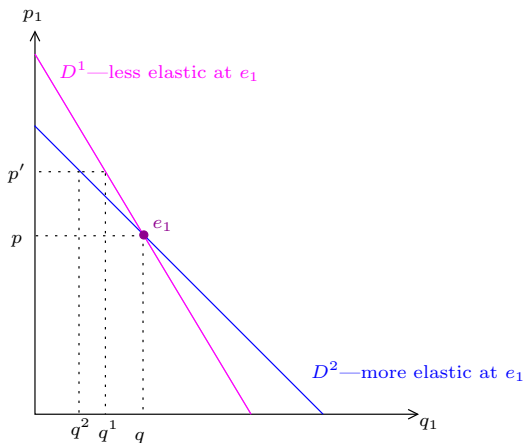
Two linear demand curves go through the initial equilibrium  $e_1$ . One demand curve is less elastic than the other at  $e_1$ . For which demand curve will a price increase cause the larger consumer surplus loss?

Since they both pass through the same point  $e_1$ , the less elastic demand curve is steeper than the more elastic one. That's because  $\frac{dQ}{dp}$  is larger in absolute value for the more elastic one.

## Textbook exercise 3.4

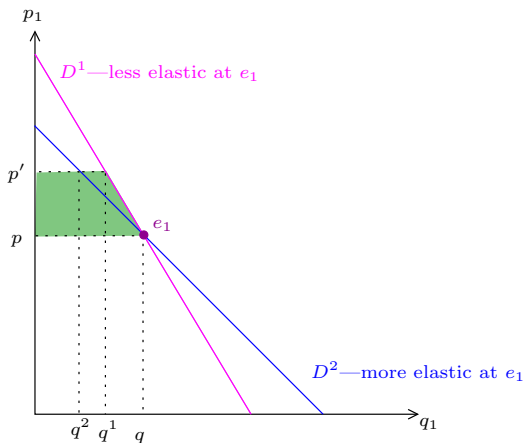


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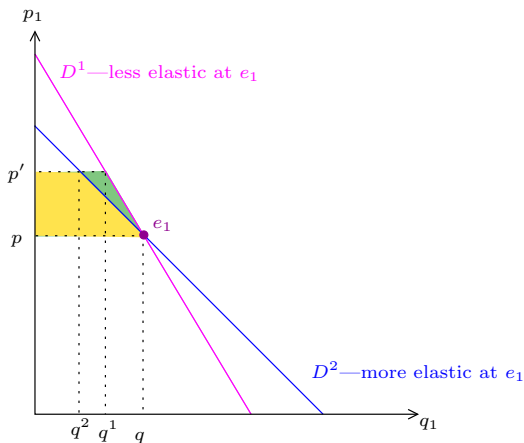
If price increase to  $p'$ , quantities change to  $q^1$  and  $q^2$ .

## Textbook exercise 3.4



The green shaded area is the loss of CS for  $D^1$

## Textbook exercise 3.4



The yellow shaded area is the loss of CS for  $D^2$ .

# Effects of government policies on consumer welfare

We'll look at two kinds of policies:

1. Quotas: a limit on the amount of a good a person can purchase.

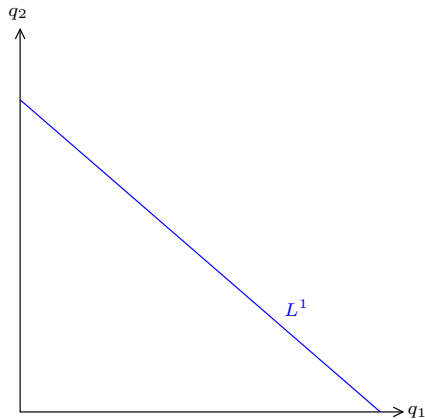


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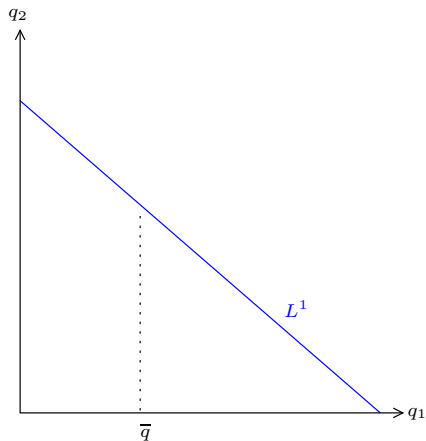
1. Quotas: a limit on the amount of a good a person can purchase.
2. Subsidies on the price of a good.

# Quotas



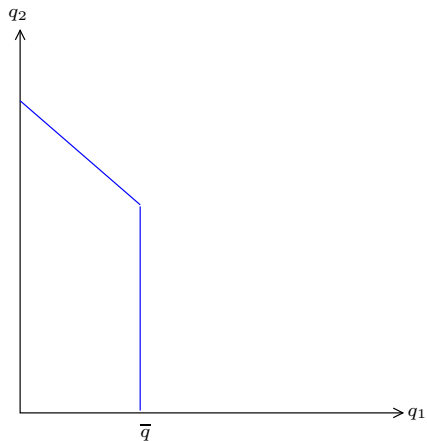
You start with this budget set (both prices are \$1).

# Quotas



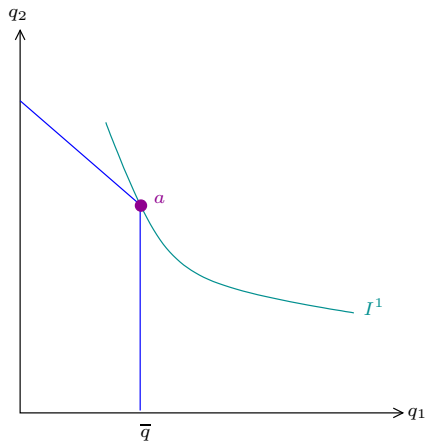
Suppose you have a quota of  $\bar{q}$ .

# Quotas



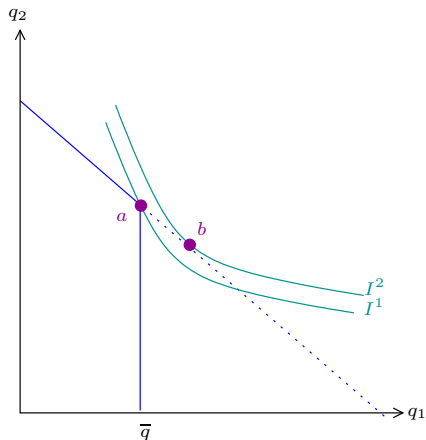
Now, you can only select from this set.

# Quotas



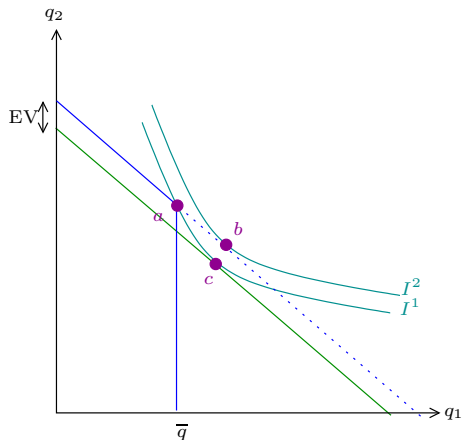
You pick your favorite bundle.

# Quotas



You're worse off than without the quota.

# Quotas



It's as though your income was reduced by  $EV$ .

## Subsidized goods

Many subsidies are such that the consumer is given a certain amount of a good at no charge.



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The consumer only pays for any of the good that he buys above that amount.

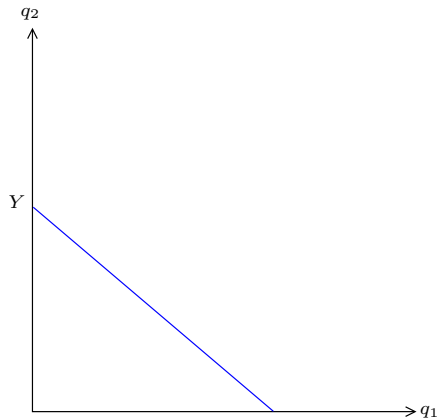
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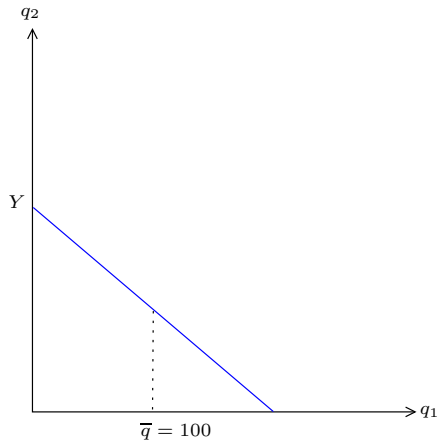
Examples: daycare in Canada, food stamps in the US.

## Subsidized goods



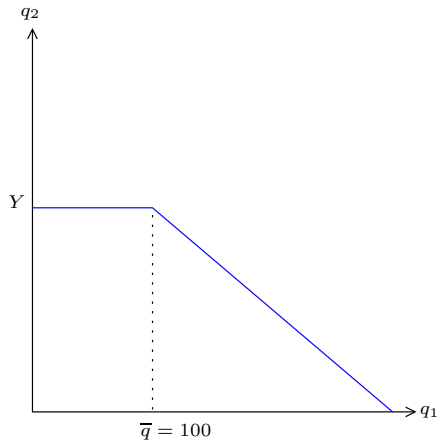
Without a subsidy this is your budget line (both prices are \$1).

## Subsidized goods



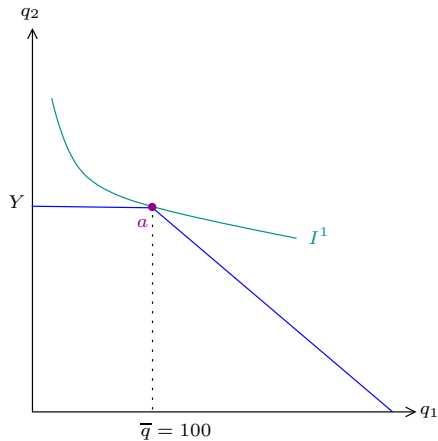
Suppose the first  $\bar{q}$  units are free.

## Subsidized goods



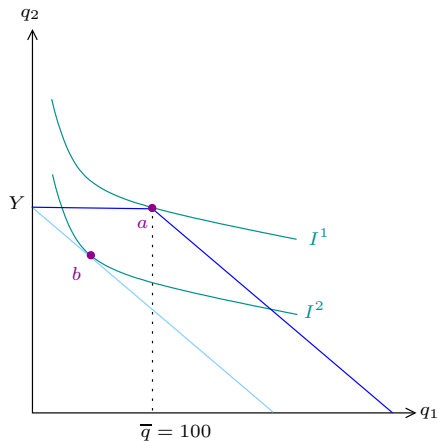
Your now pick from this set.

## Subsidized goods



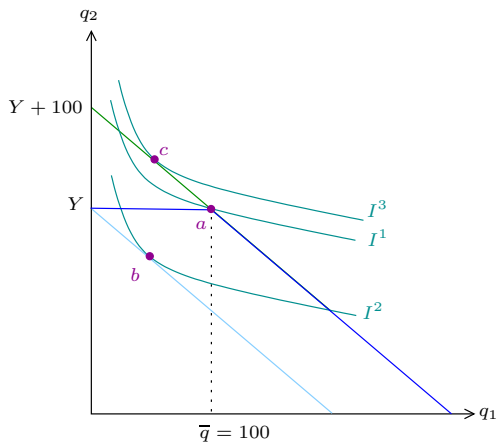
You might choose bundle  $a$ .

## Subsidized goods



You're better off than without the subsidy when you'd choose b.

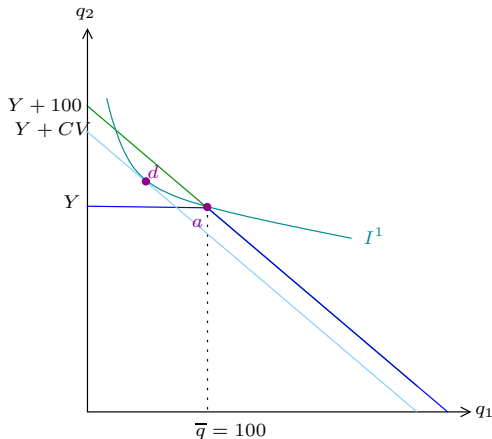
## Subsidized goods



You'd be prefer \$100 in cash to 100 free units of good 1.

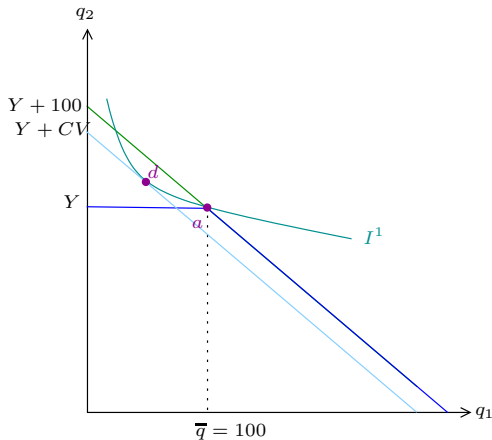


## Subsidized goods



You'd be just as happy with \$CV in cash as with the subsidy.

## Subsidized goods



If we took away the subsidy, we'd have to give you \$ $CV$  to compensate you.

## A word of caution

The exercise of quantifying the losses from these kinds of policies should not be interpreted as saying that there should never be such policies.

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The exercise of quantifying the losses from these kinds of policies should not be interpreted as saying that there should never be such policies.

This is a way of measuring the cost of the policies. When making decisions, these costs must be weighed against benefits from the intended goals of the policies.