Consumer Choice 1

Mark Dean

GR6211 - Microeconomic Analysis 1

Introduction

- We are now going to think a lot more about a particular type of choice we introduced two lectures ago
- Choice from Budget Sets
 - Objects of choice are commodity bundles

$$x = \begin{pmatrix} x_1 \\ \vdots \\ x_n \end{pmatrix}$$

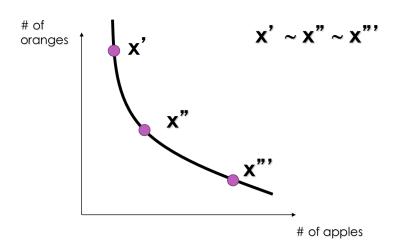
- Consumers are price takers
 - Treat prices and incomes as fixed
- They can choose any bundle which satisfies their budget constraint

$$\left\{x \in \mathbb{R}^n_+ \middle| \sum_{i=1}^n p_i x_i \le w\right\}$$

Introduction

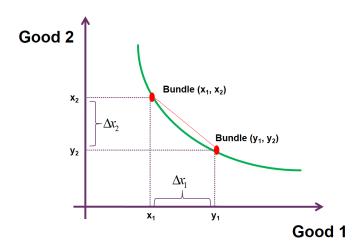
- Why are such choices so interesting?
 - Many economic interactions can be characterized this way
 - Will form the basis of the study of equilibrium in the second half of the class

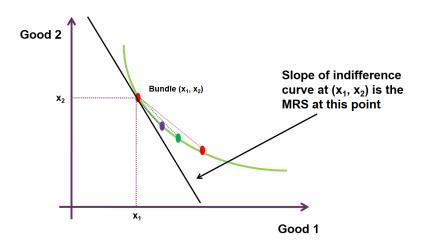
- When dealing with preferences over commodity bundles it will be useful to think about Indifference Curves
- These are curves that link bundles that are considered indifferent by the consumer
 - i.e. the set of points $\{x|x \sim y \text{ for some } y\}$
- Useful for presenting 3 dimensional information on a two dimensional graph



- A couple of properties of indifference curves
- 1 Two different indifference curves cannot cross (why?)
- 2 The 'slope' of the indifference curve represents the (negative of the) marginal rate of substitution
 - The rate at which two goods can be traded off while keeping the subject indifferent

$$\begin{array}{lcl} \mathit{MRS}(x_2,x_1) & = & -\lim_{\Delta(x_1)\to 0} \frac{\Delta(x_2)}{\Delta(x_1)} \\ \mathrm{such\ that\ } (x_1,x_2) & \sim & (x_1+\Delta(x_1),x_2+\Delta(x_2)) \end{array}$$





• Question: Is MRS always well defined?

• If preferences can be represented by a utility function, then the equation of an indifference curve is given by

$$u(x) = \bar{u}$$

Thus, if the utility function is differentiable we have

$$\sum_{i=1}^{N} \frac{\partial u(x)}{\partial x_i} dx_i = 0$$

 And so, in the case of two goods, the slope of the indifference curve is

$$\frac{dx_2}{dx_1} = -\frac{\frac{\partial u(x)}{\partial x_1}}{\frac{\partial u(x)}{\partial x_2}} = -MRS$$

which is another way of characterizing the MRS

Preferences over Commodity Bundles

- When thinking about preferences over commodity bundles it might be natural to assume that preferences have properties other than just
 - Completeness
 - Transitivity
 - Reflexivity
- Some of these we have come across before
 - (Strict) Monotonicity

Monotonicity

$$x_n \ge y_n$$
 for all n implies $x \succeq y$
 $x_n > y_n$ for all n implies $x \succ y$

- Local Non-Satiation
- Examples?

Another property often assumed is convexity

Definition

The preference relation \succeq is convex if the upper contour set $U_{\succeq}(x) = \{y \in X | y \succeq x\}$ is convex i.e. for any x, z, y such that $y \succeq x$ and $z \succeq x$ and $\alpha \in (0, 1)$

$$(\alpha y + (1 - \alpha)z) \succeq x$$

- What do convex indifference curves look like?
- Some alternative (equivalent) definitions of convexity
 - If $x \succeq y$ then for any α (0,1) $\alpha x + (1-\alpha)y \succeq y$
 - For all $w = \alpha x + (1 \alpha)y$ either $w \succeq x$ or $w \succeq y$

Convexity

- What is convexity capturing?
 - 1 Mixtures are better than extremes
 - 2 If x is better than y, then going towards x is an improvement

Definition

A preference relation is **strictly convex** if x, z, y such that $y \succeq x$ and $z \succeq x$ and $\alpha \in (0,1)$

$$(\alpha y + (1 - \alpha)z) \succ x$$

Examples of preferences that are convex but not strictly so?

What does the utility function of convex preferences look like?

Fact

A complete preference relation with a utility representation is convex if and only if it can be represented by a quasi concave utility function - i.e., for every x the set

$$\{y \in X | u(y) \ge u(x)\}$$

is convex

- Note that q-concave is weaker than concave
- It is **not** the case that continuous, convex preferences can necessarily be represented by concave utility functions
 - See homework

Homothetic Preferences

- A another property that preferences can have is homotheticity
 - The preference relation \succeq is homothetic if $x \succeq y$ implies $\alpha x \succeq \alpha y$ for any $\alpha \ge 0$

Fact

A complete, strictly monotonic, continuous homothetic preference relation with a utility representation can be represented with a utility function which is homogenous of degree 1, i.e.

$$u(\alpha x_1, ... \alpha x_n) = \alpha u(x_1, ... x_n)$$

Homothetic Preferences

- What do homothetic indifference curves look like?
 - Recall that if u is homogenous of degree 1 then $\frac{\partial u(x)}{\partial \alpha x_1}$ is homogenous of degree 0 i.e. $\frac{\partial u(x)}{\partial x_1} = \frac{\partial u(\alpha x)}{\partial x_1}$

$$\frac{dx_2}{dx_1}\bigg|_{x} = -\frac{\frac{\partial u(x)}{\partial x_1}}{\frac{\partial u(x)}{\partial x_2}} = -\frac{\frac{\partial u(\alpha x)}{\partial x_1}}{\frac{\partial u(\alpha x)}{\partial x_2}} \frac{dx_2}{dx_1}\bigg|_{\alpha x}$$

- Slope of indifference curves remains the same along rays
- What is their economic intuition?
 - MRS depends only on the ratio of two goods
 - Going to nullify income effects in a handy way

Quasi Linear Preferences

- Finally, we might be interested in preferences that are quasi linear
 - The preference relation

 is quasi linear in commodity 1 if x

 y implies

$$(x + \varepsilon e_1) \succeq (y + \varepsilon e_1)$$

for all $\varepsilon > 0$ and

$$e_1 = egin{pmatrix} 1 \ 0 \ dots \ 0 \end{pmatrix}$$

Fact

A complete, continuous strictly monotonic, quasi linear preference relation with a utility representation can be represented with a utility function of the form

$$u(x) = v(x_2, ...x_k) + x_1$$

Quasi Linear Preferences

- What do quasi linear indifference curves look like?
 - MRS is unaffected by changes in q-linear good
 - Indifference curves are parallel
- What is their economic intuition?
 - Marginal utility of q-linear good is constant
 - q-linear good does not affect marginal utility of other goods
 - Often interpreted as 'wealth'

The Consumer's Problem

- We are now in the position to think about what the solution to the consumer's problem looks like
- · We will think of the consumer's problem as defined by
 - A set of preferences ≥
 - A set of prices $p \in \mathbb{R}^{\overline{N}}_{++}$
 - A wealth level w
- With the problem being

$$\begin{array}{cccc} & \text{choose } x & \in & \mathbb{R}_+^N \\ \text{in order to maximize} & \succeq & \\ & \text{subject to } \sum_{i=1}^N p_i x_i & \leq & w \end{array}$$

- Question: is the consumer's problem guaranteed to have a solution?
- Not without some further assumptions
- Here is a simple example
 - Let N = 1, w = 1 and $p_1 = 1$
 - Let preferences be such that higher numbers are preferred so long as they are less that 1, so

If
$$x < 1$$
 then $x \succeq y$ iff $x \ge y$
If $x \ge 1$ the $x \succeq y$ iff $y \ge x$

- We need to add something else
- Any guesses what?

Theorem

If preferences \succeq are continuous then the consumer's problem has a solution

• Proof follows fairly directly from Weierstrass Theorem!

Theorem

Any continuous function evaluated on a compact set has a maximum and a minimum

- Means that in order to guarantee existence we need three properties
 - Continuity of the function (comes from continuity of preferences)
 - Closedness of the budget set (comes from the fact that it is defined using weak inequalities)
 - Boundedness of the budget set (comes from the fact that we insist prices are strictly positive)

The Walrasian Demand Correspondence

- We are now in a position to define the Walrasian demand correspondence
- This is the amount of each good that the consumer will demand as a function of prices and income
- $x(p, w) \subset \mathbb{R}_+^N$ is the (set of) solution to the consumer's maximization problem when prices are p and wealth is w
 - i.e. the set of all bundles that maximize preferences (or equivalently utility) when prices are p and wealth is w
- Here are some straightforward properties of x when we maintain the assumptions of
 - Continuity
 - Local non-satiation

Fact

x is homogeneous of degree zero (i.e. $x(\alpha p, \alpha w) = x(p, w)$ for $\alpha > 0$)

This follows from the fact that

$$\left\{ x \in \mathbb{R}_{+}^{n} \middle| \sum_{i=1}^{n} p_{i} x_{i} \leq w \right\}$$

$$= \left\{ x \in \mathbb{R}_{+}^{n} \middle| \sum_{i=1}^{n} \alpha p_{i} x_{i} \leq \alpha w \right\}$$

Fact

Walras Law:

$$\sum_{i=1}^n p_i x_i = w$$

for any $x \in x(p, w)$

• This follows directly from local non-satiation

Rationalizing a Demand Correspondence

- We know that a demand correspondence must be homogeneous of degree zero and satisfy Walras Law
- Is any such function rationalizable?
 - i.e. there exists preferences that would give rise to that demand function as a result of optimization
- The answer is no, as the following example demonstrates
 - We will provide conditions that do guarantee rationalizability later in the course

Rationalizing a Demand Correspondence

 Example: Spending all one's money on the most expensive good:

$$x(p, w) = \begin{cases} (0, w/p_2) & \text{if } p_2 \ge p_1\\ (w/p_1, 0) & \text{if } p_1 > p_2 \end{cases}$$

- This is homogenous of degree 0 and satisfies Walras law
- But cannot be rationalized (see diagram)

- Our final two properties are going to involve uniqueness and continuity of x
- Further down the road it will be very convenient for
 - x to be a function (not a correspondence)
 - x to be continuous
- What can we assume to guarantee this?

- First: do we have uniqueness?
- No! (see diagram)
- · Here, convexity will come to our rescue

Fact

If \succeq is convex then x(p, w) is a convex set. If \succeq is strictly convex then x(p, w) is a function

 Proof comes pretty much directly from the definition and the fact that the budget set is convex

• In fact, if x is a function then we also get continuity

Fact

If x is single values and \succeq is continuous then x is continuous

• Proof comes directly from the theorem of the maximum

Theorem (The Theorem of the Maximum)

Let

- X and Y be metric spaces (Y will be the set of things that can be chosen, X the set of parameters)
- $\Gamma: X \Rightarrow Y$ be compact valued and continuous (this is the budget set)
- $f: X \times Y \to \mathbb{R}$ be continuous, (this is the utility function) Now define $y^*: X \Rightarrow Y$ as the set of maximizers of f given parameters x

$$y^*(x) = \arg\max_{y \in \Gamma(x)} f(x, y)$$

and define $f^*: X \Rightarrow Y$ as the maximized value of f for f given parameters x

$$f^*(x) = \max_{y \in \Gamma(x)} f(x, y)$$

Theorem (The Theorem of the Maximum)

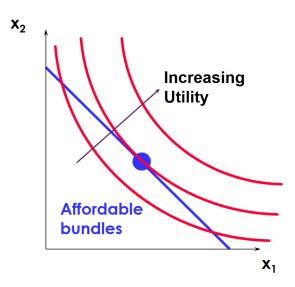
Then

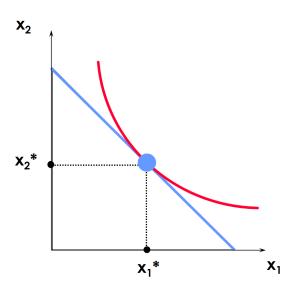
- 1 y* is upper hemi-continuous and compact valued
 - i.e for $x_n \to x$ and $y_n \in y^*(x_n)$ such that $y_n \to y$ implies $y \in y^*(x)$
- f* is continuous

Corollary

If y^* is single valued it is continuous

- Graphically, what does the solutions to the consumer's problem look like?
- Here it is useful to think in two dimensions



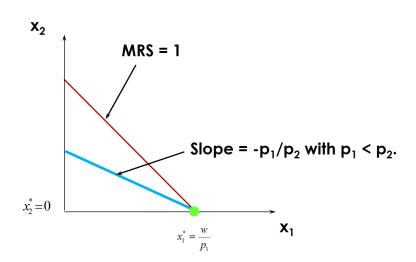


- If the solution to the consumer's problem is interior, then
 - The indifference curve
 - The budget line

are tangent to each other

- Implies that the marginal rate of substitution is the same as the price ratio
- This makes intuitive sense
 - The rate at which goods can be traded off against each other in the market
 - is equal to the rate at which they can be traded off leaving the consumer indifferent
 - If not, then utility could be increased by switching to the 'cheaper' good

- What about corner solutions?
- For example, none of good 2 is purchased
- Here, the indifference curve and the price line need not be equal
- But the price line must be shallower than the slope of indifference curve



- In the case in which utility is continuously differentiable, we can use the Kuhn Tucker (necessary) conditions to capture this intuition
- For the problem

$$\max u(x)$$

subject to
$$\sum_{i=1}^{n} p_{i}x_{i} - w = 0$$
$$-x_{i} \leq 0 \ \forall i$$

• We can set up the Lagrangian for the problem

$$u(x) - \lambda \left(\sum_{i=1}^{n} p_i x_i - w\right) - \sum_{i=1}^{n} \mu_i \left(-x_i\right)$$

• A necessary condition of a solution to the optimization problem x^* is the existence of λ , and $\mu_i \geq 0$ such that

$$\frac{\partial u(x^*)}{\partial x_i} - \lambda p_i + \mu_i = 0$$
and $x_i^* \cdot \mu_i = 0$ for all i

• So, if $x_i^* > 0$ then $\mu_i = 0$ and

$$\frac{\partial u(x^*)}{\partial x_i} = \lambda p_i$$

• If $x_i^* = 0$ then $\mu_i \ge 0$ and so

$$\frac{\partial u(x^*)}{\partial x_i} \le \lambda p_i$$

• This can be summarized compactly by saying, that for a solution x^*

$$\nabla u(x^*) \leq \lambda p$$
$$x^* \left[\nabla u(x^*) - \lambda p \right] = 0$$

· Note that this implies that

$$\frac{\frac{\partial u(x^*)}{\partial x_i}}{\frac{\partial u(x^*)}{\partial x_j}} = \frac{p_i}{p_j}$$

• if x_i and x_j are both strictly positive

- These conditions are necessary for an optimum
- They become sufficient if preferences are convex
- This follows from the KT theorem, but Rubinstein provides a nice direct proof

Theorem

If \succeq are strongly monotonic, convex, continuous and differentiable*, and

- 1 $px^* = w$
- 2 for every k such that $x_k^* > 0$

$$\frac{\frac{\partial u(x^*)}{\partial x_k}}{p_k} \ge \frac{\frac{\partial u(x^*)}{\partial x_j}}{p_j}$$

Then x^* is a solution to the consumer's problem

- What do we mean by differentiable*?
- Not going to go into this formally
- The important part for us is that it means the following.
- Define d as an 'improving direction' at x if there exists a λ^* such that, for all $0 < \lambda \le \lambda^*$

$$x + \lambda d > x$$

 If ≥ is differentiable then d is an improving direction iff d.∇u > 0

The Demand Function and Prices

- Notice that so far we have **not** said that demand must decrease in price
- This is because it is not generally true!
- Example:

$$u(x_1, x_2) = \begin{cases} x_1 + x_2 & \text{if } x_1 + x_2 < 1 \\ x_1 + 4x_2 & \text{if } x_1 + x_2 \ge 1 \end{cases}$$

- Consider $x((p_1, 2), 1)$
 - What happens in the range $p_1 \in [1, rac{1}{2}]$
 - Maximize utility by spending everything on good 2 while making sure x₁ + x₂ ≥ 1

$$x((p_1, 2, 1) = (1/(2-p_1), (1-p_1)/(2-p_1))$$

The Demand Function and Prices

- As we shall see in more detail later, this is basically because change in prices changes income as well as relative prices
- This points to a version of the above statement which is true

Theorem

Let x be a rationalizable demand function that satisfies Walras' law and I' = p'x(p, I). Then

$$[p'-p][x(p',I')-x(p.I)] \le 0$$

- Means that if price of good i falls then demand for it cannot also fall
- Note that this is slightly different to the claim in Rubinstein