## Microeconomics

Please remember

Autumn 2018

"The time has come," the Walrus said, "To talk of many things: Of shoes - and ships - and sealing-wax - Of cabbages - and kings And why the sea is boiling hot - And whether pigs have wings." (Lewis Carroll)

## memorer-micro

- 1. Prices and income.
  - Prices:  $p_1$  and  $p_2$ . Income: m
  - Prices always are supposed to be positive. (Handling prices 0 is difficult.)
  - Budget restriction (and budget set):  $p_1x_1 + p_2x_2 \le m$ .
  - Budget line:  $p_1x_1 + p_2x_2 = m$ . Thus  $x_2 = \frac{m}{p_2} \frac{p_1}{p_2}x_1$ .
  - A value tax t replaces a price p by (1 + t)p. A quantity tax t replaces a price p by p + t.
- 2. Indifference sets.
  - The sets of good bundles for which the consumer is indifferent are called indifference sets. Remark: these sets often are, *par abus de langage*, called curves.
  - Indifference sets cannot intersect.
- 3. Utility.
  - Under weak conditions (You do not need to know) a preference relation ≽ can be represented by a utility function u. This means that

 $(x_1, x_2) \succeq (y_1, y_2)$  is equivalent with  $u(x_1, x_2) \ge u(y_1, y_2)$ ,

 $(x_1, x_2) \succ (y_1, y_2)$  is equivalent with  $u(x_1, x_2) > u(y_1, y_2)$ ,

 $(x_1, x_2) \sim (y_1, y_2)$  is equivalent with  $u(x_1, x_2) = u(y_1, y_2)$ ,

- Utility is ordinal in the sense that each strictly increasing transformation of the utility function describes the same economic situation.
- Only cardinal utility later when we deal with uncertainty.
- Specific (important) utility functions.
  - Cobb-douglas:  $u(x_1, x_2) = x_1^{\alpha_1} x_2^{\alpha_2}$ .
  - Solow:  $u(x_1, x_2) = \alpha_1 x_1 + \alpha_2 x_2$ . (Perfect substitutes.)
  - Leontief:  $u(x_1, x_2) = \min(x_1/\alpha_1, x_2/\alpha_2)$ . (Perfect complements.)
  - Maximum:  $u(x_1, x_2) = \max(x_1/\alpha_1, x_2/\alpha_2)$ .
  - Quasi-linear:  $u(x_1, x_2) = v(x_1) + x_2$ . (Good 1 is quasi-linear.)
  - Special quasi-linear:  $u(x_1, x_2) = \alpha \sqrt{x_1} + x_2$ .
- Indifference.
  - An indifference curve  $x_2(x_1)$  is such that  $u(x_1, x_2(x_1)) = \text{constant}$ .
  - Marginal rate of substitution at a good bundle:<sup>1</sup>

$$\mathrm{MRS} := \frac{\partial u}{\partial x_1} / \frac{\partial u}{\partial x_2}.$$

In case  $x_2(x_1)$  is an indifference curve,

$$\mathrm{MRS} = -\frac{dx_2}{dx_1}.$$

For cobb-douglas:

$$\mathrm{MRS} = \frac{\alpha_1}{\alpha_2} \frac{x_2}{x_1}.$$

- For homothetic preferences the MRS is constant along each ray through the origin.

<sup>&</sup>lt;sup>1</sup>In the book and elsewhere in economics also MRS is defined as  $-\frac{\partial u}{\partial x_1}/\frac{\partial u}{\partial x_2}$ , i.e. with a minus sign.

- For quasi-linear utility functions the indifference curves are vertical translates of each other.
- Method of Lagrange.
  - Optimisation problem: maximise (or minimise) a function  $f(x_1, \ldots, x_n)$  under m restrictions  $g_i(x_1, \ldots, x_n) = 0$   $(1 \le i \le m)$  (for our applications we always have m = 1.)
  - Lagrange function  $L = f \lambda_1 g_1 \dots \lambda_m g_m$
  - In optimum:  $\frac{\partial L}{\partial x_1} = 0, \cdots, \frac{\partial L}{\partial x_n} = 0.$
- Two laws of Gossen.
  - Gossen's first law about diminishing marginal utility is nonsense. But decreasing MRS makes sense.
  - Gossen's second law:  $p_1/p_2 = \frac{\partial u}{\partial x_1}/\frac{\partial u}{\partial x_2}$  (see below).
  - Gossen's second law can be proved graphically or by the method of Lagrange.
- Marshallian demand functions.
  - They are the solutions of the following utility maximisation problem: maximise  $u(x_1, x_2)$ under the budget restriction  $p_1x_1 + p_2x_2 \le m$ .
  - Denoted by  $\tilde{x}_1(p_1, p_2; m)$ ,  $\tilde{x}_2(p_1, p_2; m)$ .
  - They can be determined by solving

$$p_1 x_1 + p_2 x_2 = m,$$

and an additional condition. These conditions are:

- \* For cobb-douglas and quasi-linear:  $p_1/p_2 = \frac{\partial u}{\partial x_1}/\frac{\partial u}{\partial x_2}$  (Gossen's second law). \* For leontief: being at a kiknk-point, i.e.  $x_1/\alpha_1 = x_2/\alpha_2$  holds (optimum at kink).
- \* For Solow: optimum is one boundary point or whole budget line is optimal.
- \* For Maximum: optimum is one or two boundary points.
- For cobb-douglas:

$$\tilde{x}_1(p_1, p_2; m) = \frac{\alpha_1}{\alpha_1 + \alpha_2} \frac{m}{p_1}, \quad \tilde{x}_2(p_1, p_2; m) = \frac{\alpha_2}{\alpha_1 + \alpha_2} \frac{m}{p_2}.$$

- Attention: the marshallian demand of a quasi-linear good is independent of the income if this income is large enough (and for such incomes often can be determined with Gossens's second law).
- 4. Types of goods.
  - Consider a price change or income change of good *i*. Good *i* is called

- giffen, if 
$$p_i \uparrow \Rightarrow \tilde{x}_i \uparrow$$
. In a formula:  $\frac{\partial \tilde{x}_i}{\partial n_i} > 0$ 

- ordinary, if  $p_i \uparrow \Rightarrow \tilde{x}_i \downarrow$ . In a formula:  $\frac{\partial \tilde{x}_i}{\partial p_i} < 0$ .
- normal, if  $m \uparrow \Rightarrow \tilde{x}_i \uparrow$ . In a formula:  $\frac{\partial \tilde{x}_i}{\partial m} > 0$ . inferior, if  $m \uparrow \Rightarrow \tilde{x}_i \downarrow$ . In a formula:  $\frac{\partial \tilde{x}_i}{\partial m} < 0$ .
- Consider two goods *i* and *j*. Good *i* is called
  - a substitute for good j, if  $p_i \uparrow \Rightarrow \tilde{x}_i \uparrow$ .
  - a complement for good j, if  $p_j \uparrow \Rightarrow \tilde{x}_i \downarrow$ .
- 5. Elasticity.
  - Setting: variable b depends on variable a, i.e. a function b(a).
  - Elasticity is measure for how sensible b depends on a. Elasticity should be independent of units. Two types of elasticity: segment and point elasticity. We only deal with point elasticities.

• Formula for point elasticity

$$\epsilon = \frac{db}{da} \frac{a}{b}.$$

Interpretation: relative change of b divided by relative change of a.

- $|\epsilon| < 1$ : inelastic;  $|\epsilon| > 1$ : elastic.
  - In case of an affine function, i.e.  $q = \alpha p + \beta$  (with  $\alpha < 0$  and  $\beta > 0$ ) and p on the ordinate, each point above middle of graph is elastic and each point below is inelastic. In middle the elasticity is -1.
  - Good to know:  $b = Aa^{\alpha}$  has  $\epsilon = \alpha$ .
  - $\epsilon = \frac{d \ln b}{d \ln a}.$
- Consider the price elasticity of demand:  $\epsilon = \frac{dq}{dp} \frac{p}{q}$ .
  - Revenue  $R(p) = p \cdot q(p)$ .
  - $\frac{dR}{dp} \frac{p}{R} = 1 + \epsilon.$
  - If inelastic, then  $p \uparrow \Rightarrow R \uparrow$ .
  - If elastic, then  $p \uparrow \Rightarrow R \downarrow$ .
- Perfect inelastic demand curve: curve is vertical. Perfect elastic demand curve: curve is horizontal.
- Consider a marshallian demand function  $\tilde{x}_i$ . Income elasticity of demand  $\eta_i = \frac{\partial \tilde{x}_i}{\partial m} \frac{m}{\tilde{x}_i}$ .
  - Luxury good  $i: \eta_i > 1$ .
  - Necessary good *i*:  $\eta_i < 1$ .
- 6. Market demand and partial equilibrium.
  - Setting: decreasing demand function D(p) and increasing supply function S(p).
  - Inverse demand function P(Q).
  - Without taxes equilibrium price  $p^*$  is determined by

$$S(p^{\star}) = D(p^{\star}).$$

- Equilibrium with taxes:
  - Two prices:  $p_D$  (price buyer pays) and  $p_S$  (price seller gets). In case of a positive quantity tax:  $p_D = p_S + t$ :
  - equilibrium prices determined by

$$p_D^{\star} = p_S^{\star} + t, \ D(p_D^{\star}) = S(p_S^{\star});$$

- result  $p_S^{\star} \leq p^{\star} \leq p_D^{\star}$ ;
- $p_D^* p^*$  is part of tax passed along the consumer; it is the smaller the more elastic D and the more inelastic S.
  - $p^{\star} p_S^{\star}$  is part of tax passed along the producer; it is the smaller the more elastic S and the more inelastic D.
- Deadweight loss is the loss of consumers' and produces' surplus due to the tax.
- 7. Returns to scale for production function  $f(k_1, k_2)$ .
  - Constant returns to scale f(tk<sub>1</sub>, tk<sub>2</sub>) = tf(k<sub>1</sub>, k<sub>2</sub>) for all t > 1. Increasing returns to scale f(tk<sub>1</sub>, tk<sub>2</sub>) > tf(k<sub>1</sub>, k<sub>2</sub>) for all t > 1. Deceasing returns to scale f(tk<sub>1</sub>, tk<sub>2</sub>) < tf(k<sub>1</sub>, k<sub>2</sub>) for all t > 1.
  - - For cobb-douglass production function  $Ak_1^{\beta_1}k_2^{\beta_2}$ :
    - $\beta_1 + \beta_2 = 1$ : constant returns to scale.
    - $\beta_1 + \beta_2 > 1$ : increasing returns to scale.
    - $\beta_1 + \beta_2 < 1$ : decreasing returns to scale.

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- Leontief and solow production functions have constant returns to scale.

- 8. Cost minimisation.
  - Isoquant: set of production factor bundles with same output
  - Technical rate of substitution:

$$\mathrm{TRS} := \frac{\partial f}{\partial k_1} / \frac{\partial f}{\partial k_2}.$$

In case  $k_2(k_1)$  is an isoquant,

$$\mathrm{TRS} = -\frac{dk_2}{dk_1}.$$

• Conditional production factor demand functions

$$\tilde{k}_1(w_1, w_2; q), \ \tilde{k}_2(w_1, w_2; q)$$

are the solutions of the cost minimisation problem. Each of the above specific production functions has its own solving conditions for the cost minimisation problem. One condition always is

$$f(k_1, k_2) = q$$

Additional conditions:

- Cobb-douglas and quasi-linear:  $f(k_1, k_2) = q$ ,  $w_1/w_2 = \frac{\partial f}{\partial k_1}/\frac{\partial f}{\partial k_2}$ .
- For leontief: being at a kink-point.
- For Solow: optimum is one boundary point or whole isoquant is optimal.
- For Maximum: optimum is one or two boundary points.
- Cost function:  $c(q; w_1, w_2) = w_1 \tilde{k}_1(w_1, w_2; q) + w_2 \tilde{k}_2(w_1, w_2; q)$ .
- Various cost functions: fixed costs c(0), marginal costs dc/dq, variable costs c(q) c(0), average costs c(q)/q, average variable costs c(q)/q.
- Increasing returns to scale leads to decreasing average costs. Decreasing returns to scale leads to increasing average costs. Constant returns to scale leads to constant average costs.
- Principle of 'the marginal leads the average': as long as the marginal is larger than the average, the average increases and as long as the marginal is less than the average, the average decreases.
- In the short term some production factors are fixed. In the long term there are no fixed costs.
- 9. Profit maximisation.
  - profit maximisation implies cost minimisation.
    - Input perspective: profit function  $\pi(k_1, k_2) = pf(k_1, k_2) (w_1k_1 + w_2k_2)$ . Output perspective: profit function  $\Pi(q) = pq - c(q; w_1, w_2)$ . Both perspectives give the same results; this is intuitively clear (but not formally).
  - Production factor functions

$$\overline{k}_1(p;w_1,w_2), \ \overline{k}_2(p;w_1,w_2)$$

are the solutions of the profit maximisation problem. For input perspective they can for cobbdouglas production functions (and other well behaved functions) be determined by solving:

$$p\frac{\partial f}{\partial k_1} = w_1, \ p\frac{\partial f}{\partial k_2} = w_2.$$

And for output perspective by solving:

$$p = c'(q)$$

- Profit maximisation is (for arbitrary prices) not compatible with constant and with increasing returns to scale. (This one can easily check for the production function  $f(k) = k^{\alpha}$ .)
- Short term: Let p<sup>\*</sup> be the minimum of the average variable cost curve: this is the shutdown price. Supply curve is marginal cost curve for p ≥ p<sup>\*</sup>. For p < p<sup>\*</sup> supply is zero.