Budget constraint, preferences, utility

Varian, Intermediate Microeconomics, 8e, chapters 2, 3, and 4

In this lecture, you will learn

- what budget set and budget line are
- how their shape is influenced by taxes and food stamps
- what preferences are and how they are derived
- what the basic types of preferences are why some indiference curves are straight and some curved, or circle-shaped
- what we need a utility function for
- how to find out whether to reconstruct a stadium



Budget constraint

We assume that the consumer chooses a bundle (x_1, x_2) , where x_1 and x_2 are quantities of goods 1 and 2.

Budget constraint is $p_1x_1 + p_2x_2 \le m$:

- p_1 and p_2 are prices of goods 1 and 2
- *m* is income

Budget set – bundles for which: $p_1x_1 + p_2x_2 \le m$.

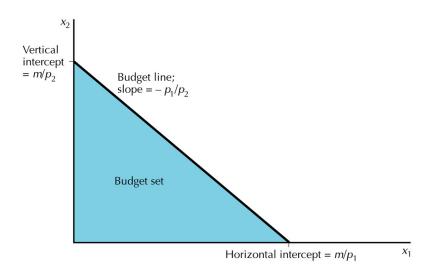
Budget line (BL) – bundles for which: $p_1x_1 + p_2x_2 = m$.

Budget set and budget line (graph)

Budget line: $p_1x_1 + p_2x_2 = m$

Budget set and budget line (graph)

Budget line: $p_1x_1 + p_2x_2 = m \iff x_2 = m/p_2 - (p_1/p_2)x_1$



Composite good

The theory works for more than two goods. How to plot it in a 2D graph?



Composite good

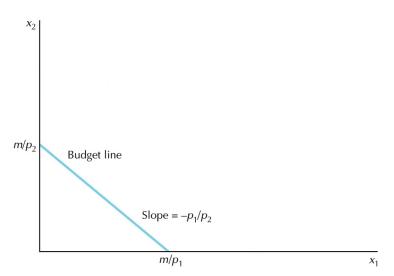
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On the y axis we can plot the **composite good** = money value of all other consumed goods.



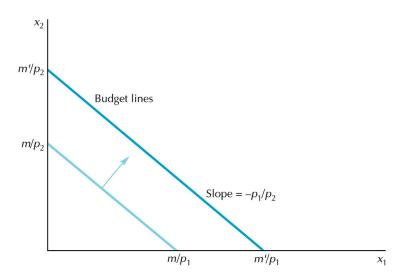
Change in income

A rise in income from m to m'



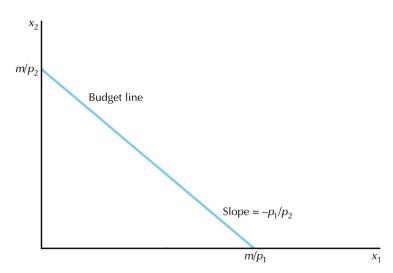
Change in income

A rise in income from m to $m' \implies$ parallel shift out



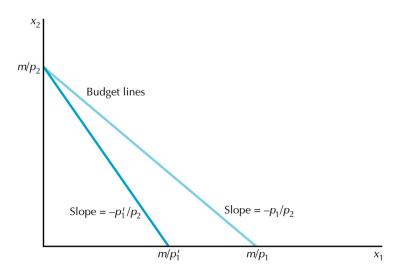
Change in price

A rise in price from p_1 to p'_1



Change in price

A rise in price from p_1 to $p_1' \implies$ pivot around the vertical intercept



Multiplying all prices and income by t...

$$tp_1x_1+tp_2x_2=tm$$

Multiplying all prices and income by t does not change BL:

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$$tp_1x_1 + tp_2x_2 = tm \iff p_1x_1 + p_2x_2 = m$$

Multiplying all prices by t has the same effect as dividing income by t:

$$tp_1x_1 + tp_2x_2 = m \iff p_1x_1 + p_2x_2 = \frac{m}{t}$$

Numeraire

Any price or income can be normalized to ${\bf 1}$ and adjust all variables so that the BL stays the same.

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Budget line $p_1x_1 + p_2x_2 = m$:

• Good 1 is numeraire - the same BL:

$$x_1 + \frac{p_2}{p_1} x_2 = \frac{m}{p_1}$$

• Good 2 is numeraire – the same BL:

$$\frac{p_1}{p_2} x_1 + x_2 = \frac{m}{p_2}$$

• The income is numeraire – the same BL:

$$\frac{p_1}{m}x_1 + \frac{p_2}{m}x_2 = 1$$

Three types of taxes:

- Quantity tax consumer pays the amount t for each unit.
 - ightarrow Price of good 1 increases to $p_1 + t$.



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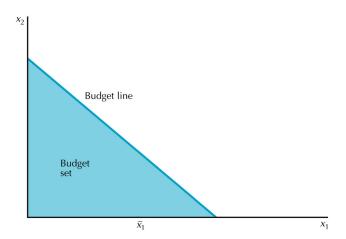
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Subsidy = a tax with a negative sign



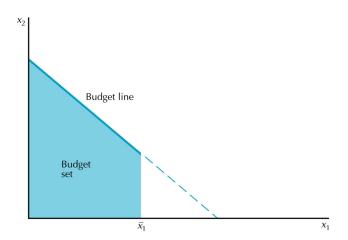
Rationing

If there is rationing imposed on good 1, no consumer is allowed to buy a higher quantity of good 1 than \bar{x}_1 .



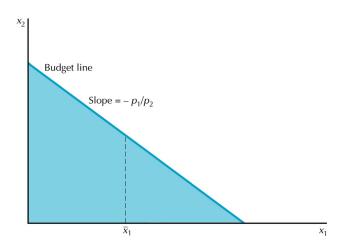
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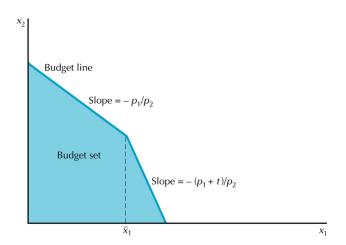
Taxing consumption greater than \bar{x}_1

If consumer pays a tax only on the consumption of good 1 that is in excess of $\bar{x}_1...$



Taxing consumption greater than \bar{x}_1

If consumer pays a tax only on the consumption of good 1 that is in excess of \bar{x}_1 , budget line is steeper to the right of \bar{x}_1 .



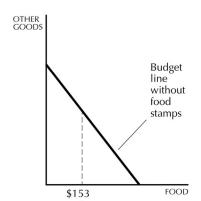
Before 1979 (left graph):

- value subsidy people pay a part of the value of the food stamp
- rationing maximum value of stamps (e.g. 153 \$)



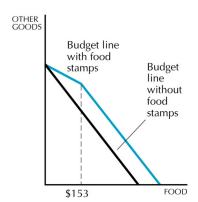
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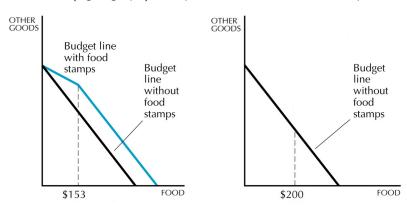
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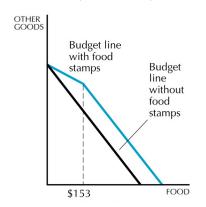
After 1979 (right graph) - a specific number of food stamps for free

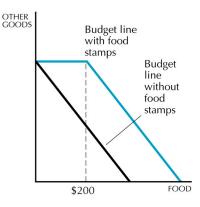


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Preferences

Consumers compare bundles according to their preferences.

Preference relations – three symbols:

• bundle *X* is **strictly preferred** to bundle *Y*:

$$(x_1,x_2) \succ (y_1,y_2)$$

 bundle X is weakly preferred to bundle Y (bundle X is at least as good as bundle Y):

$$(x_1, x_2) \succeq (y_1, y_2)$$

• consumer is **indiferent** between bundles *X* and *Y*:

$$(x_1, x_2) \sim (y_1, y_2)$$

Assumptions about preferences

Assumptions that allow ordering of bundles according to preferences:

• **Completeness** — any two bundles can be compared: $(x_1, x_2) \succeq (y_1, y_2)$, or $(x_1, x_2) \preceq (y_1, y_2)$, or both

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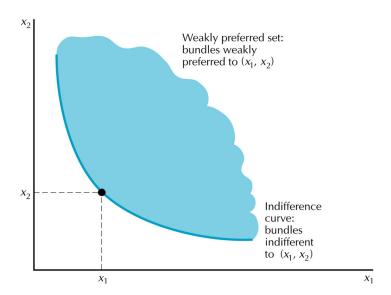
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- Transitivity if $(x_1, x_2) \succeq (y_1, y_2)$ and $(y_1, y_2) \succeq (z_1, z_2)$, then $(x_1, x_2) \succeq (z_1, z_2)$

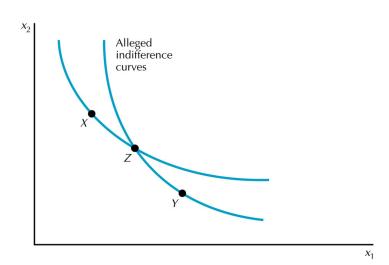


Weakly preferred set and indifference curves



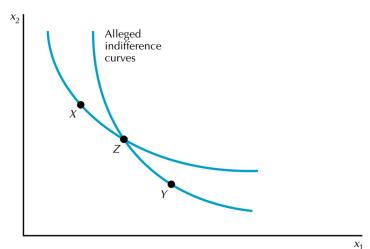
Two indifference curves cannot cross

Two different IC such that $X \succ Y$. Why cannot they cross?



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Two different IC such that $X \succ Y$. Why cannot they cross? It follows from transitivity that if $X \sim Z$ and $Z \sim Y$ then $X \sim Y$.



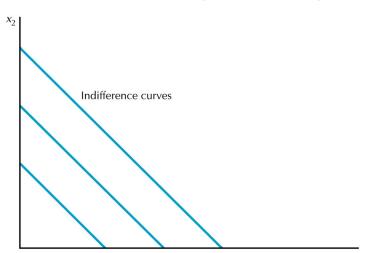
Examples of preferences – perfect substitutes

Willingness to substitute one good for the other at a constant rate



Examples of preferences – perfect substitutes

Willingness to substitute one good for the other at a constant rate \implies constant slope of the indifference curve (not necessarily -1).



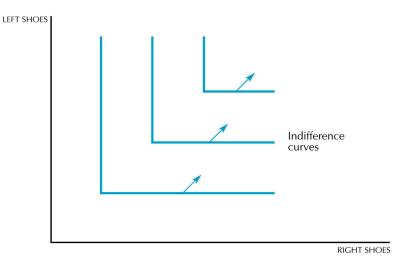
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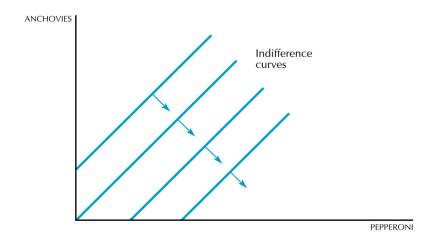
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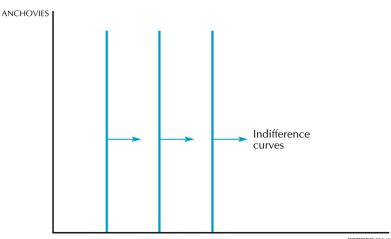
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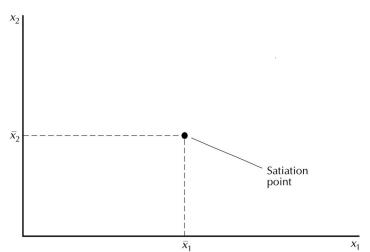
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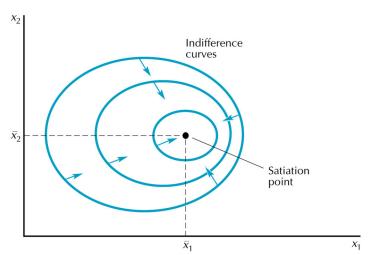
Examples of preferences – satiation point

Satiation point is the most preferred point (\bar{x}_1, \bar{x}_2) . When the consumer has too much of one of the goods, it becomes a bad.



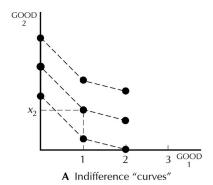
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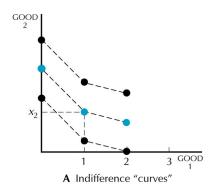
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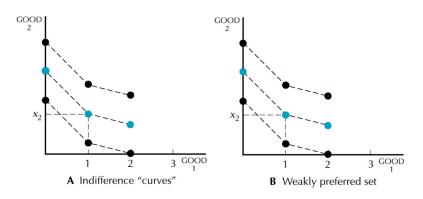
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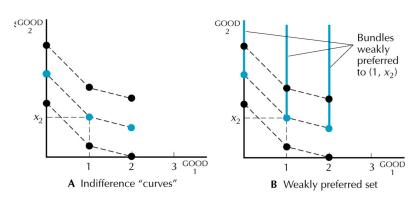
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- indiference "curves" a set of discrete points
- a weakly preferred set a set of line segments



Well-behaved preferences

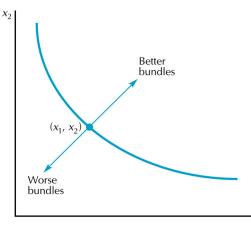
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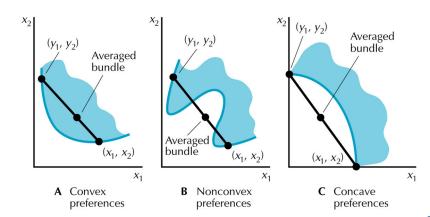
Monotonicity – more is better (it excludes bads)

 \implies indifference curves have negative slope.



Well-behaved preferences (cont'd)

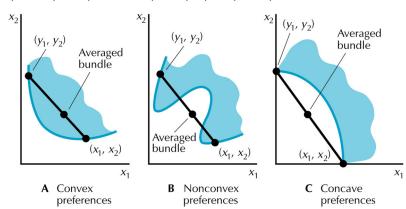
Convexity – if $(x_1, x_2) \sim (y_1, y_2)$, then it holds for all $0 \le t \le 1$ that $(tx_1 + (1 - t)y_1, tx_2 + (1 - t)y_2) \succeq (x_1, x_2)$.



Well-behaved preferences (cont'd)

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Strict convexity – if $(x_1, x_2) \sim (y_1, y_2)$, then it holds for all $0 \le t \le 1$ that $(tx_1 + (1 - t)y_1, tx_2 + (1 - t)y_2) \succ (x_1, x_2)$.

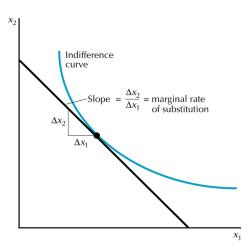


Marginal rate of substitution

Marginal rate of substitution (MRS) = slope of the indifference curve:

$$MRS = \frac{\Delta x_2}{\Delta x_1} = \frac{dx_2}{dx_1}$$

Diminishing marginal rate of substitution – absolute value of MRS decreases as we increase x_1 .



Interpretation of marginal rate of substitution

Interpretation of MRS:

- The amount of good 2 one is willing to pay for one unit of good 1.
- If good 2 is measured in money: MRS = marginal willingness to pay = how many dollars you would just be willing to give up for an additional unit of good 1.

APPLICATION: Build a stadium for Minnesota Vikings?

The club does not like the stadium – considers leaving Minnesota.

Fenn a Crooker (SEJ, 2009) measure how much households are willing to pay for Vikings staying in Minnesota = MRS between composite good and Vikings in Minnesota.

MRS of an average household: 531 \$

Value of the stadium: 531 \times 1,323 million households = 702 mil.



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Estimated costs are 1 billion \$.

The new stadium opens in 2016 – the state provided 500 million \$.



Utility

Two concepts of utility:

Cardinal utility – attach a significance to the magnitude of utility:

- · difficult to assign the magnitude
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Cardinal utility – attach a significance to the magnitude of utility:

- difficult to assign the magnitude
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Ordinal utility – important is only the order of preference:

- easy to set the utility 1 rule: preferred bundle has a higher utility
- we can derive a complete theory of demand

We will use the ordinal utility.





Ordinal utility

Utility function is a way of assigning a number to every possible consumption bundle such that more-preferred bundles get assigned larger numbers than less-preferred bundles.

If
$$(x_1, x_2) \succ (y_1, y_2)$$
, then $u(x_1, x_2) > u(y_1, y_2)$.

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Different ways to assign utilities that describe the same preferences:

Bundle	U_1	U_2	U_3
Α	3	17	-1
В	2	10	-2
С	1	.002	-3

Monotonic transformation

Positive monotonic transformation f(u) = any increasing function of <math>u. Describes the same preferences as the original utility function u.

Examples of the function f(u): f(u) = 3u, f(u) = u + 3, $f(u) = u^3$

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Example:

Two bundles X and Y, preferences: $X \succ Y$

We assign utility so that u(X) > u(Y), e.g. u(X) = 1, u(Y) = -1

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Yes:

- $f_1(u) = 3u$: $f_1(u(X)) = 3 > -3 = f_1(u(Y))$
- $f_2(u) = u + 3$: $f_2(u(X)) = 4 > 2 = f_2(u(Y))$

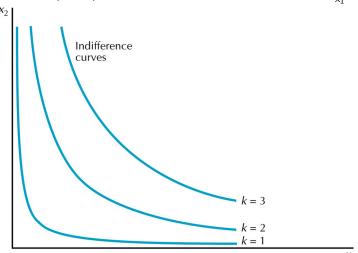
Construction of indifference curves from utility function

Utility function $u(x_1, x_2) = x_1 x_2$



Construction of indifference curves from utility function

Utility function $u(x_1, x_2) = x_1 x_2 \implies$ indifference curves $x_2 = \frac{k}{x_1}$



The slope of indifference curves for two utility functions:

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Slope of indifference curves = MRS =
$$\frac{dx_2}{dx_1} = \frac{-3}{\sqrt{x_1}} = \frac{-3}{2}$$

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• coke and pepsi at a ratio 1:1



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- 2 buns for 1 baguette baguette has a double weight: e.g. u(R, H) = R + 2H



The consumer demands

• left and right shoes at a fixed ratio 1:1



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- rum and coke at a fixed ratio 1:5



The consumer demands

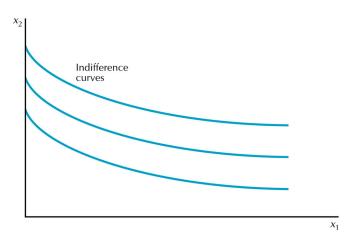
- left and right shoes at a fixed ratio 1:1 lower quantity matters: e.g. $u(L, P) = \min\{L, P\}$
- rum and coke at a fixed ratio 1:5 goal: same numbers in the bracket we need only 1/5 of coke: e.g. $u(R,K) = \min\{5R,K\}$



Examples of utility functions – quasilinear preferences

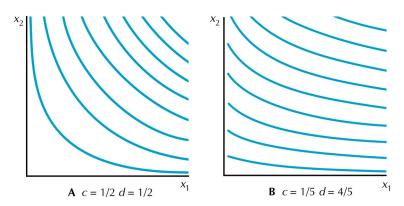
Indifference curves are vertically parallel (a practical property)

Utility function
$$u(x_1, x_2) = v(x_1) + x_2$$
, e.g. $u(x_1, x_2) = \sqrt{x_1} + x_2$



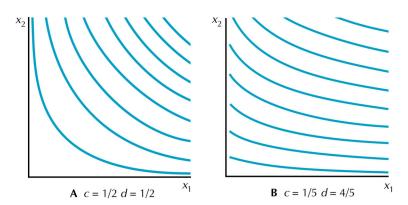
Examples of utility functions – Cobb-Douglas preferences

- A simple utility function representing well-behaved preferences.
- Utility function of the form $u(x_1, x_2) = x_1^c x_2^d$.
- More convenient to use the transformation $f(u) = u^{\frac{1}{c+d}}$ and write $x_1^a x_2^{1-a}$, where a = c/(c+d).



Examples of utility functions – Cobb-Douglas preferences

- A simple utility function representing well-behaved preferences.
- Utility function of the form $u(x_1, x_2) = x_1^1 x_2^2$.
- More convenient to use the transformation $f(u) = u^{1/3}$ and write $x_1^{1/3}x_2^{2/3}$.



Marginal utility

Marginal utility (MU) is the change in utility from an increase in consumption of one good, while the quantities of other goods are constant.

Partial derivatives of $u(x_1, x_2)$ with respect to x_1 or x_2 .

Příklady:

- $u(x_1, x_2) = x_1 + x_2 \rightarrow MU_1 = \partial u/\partial x_1 = 1$
- $u(x_1, x_2) = x_1^a x_2^{1-a} \to MU_2 = \partial u/\partial x_2 = (1-a)x_1^a x_2^{-a}$

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The value of MU changes with a monotonic transformation of the utility function. If we multiply utility times 2, MU increases times 2.

Relationship between MU and MRS

We want to measure MRS = slope of IC $u(x_1, x_2) = k$, where k is a constant.

We are interested in $(\Delta x_1, \Delta x_2)$, for which the utility is constant:

$$MU_1\Delta x_1 + MU_2\Delta x_2 = 0$$

$$MRS = \frac{\Delta x_2}{\Delta x_1} = -\frac{MU_1}{MU_2}$$

We can calculate MRS from the utility function. E.g. for $u = \sqrt{x_1x_2}$:

MRS =
$$-\frac{\partial u/\partial x_1}{\partial u/\partial x_2} = -\frac{0.5x_1^{-0.5}x_2^{0.5}}{0.5x_1^{0.5}x_2^{-0.5}} = -\frac{x_2}{x_1}$$

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The value of MRS does not change with monotonic transformation. If we multiply utility function times 2, MRS= $-\frac{2MU_1}{2MU_2} = -\frac{MU_1}{MU_2}$.

APPLICATION: Utility from commuting

People decide whether to take bus or car.

Each type of transport represents a bundle with different characteristics, e.g.:

- x_1 is walking time
- x_2 is time taking a bus or car
- x₃ is the total cost of commuting
- ...

Assume that the utility function has a linear form $U(x_1,...,x_n) = \beta_1 x_1 + ... + \beta_n x_n$.

Then we use statistical techniques to estimate the parameters β_i that best describe choices.



APPLICATION: Utility from commuting (cont'd)

Domenich and McFadden (1975) estimated the following utility function:

$$U(TW, TT, C) = -0.147TW - 0.0411TT - 2.24C$$

- TW = total walking time in minutes
- *TT* = total driving time in minutes
- *C* = total cost in dollars

APPLICATION: Utility from commuting (cont'd)

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The parameters can be used for different purposes.

For instance, we can:

- calculate the marginal rate of substitution between two characteristics
- forecast consumer response to proposed changes
- estimate whether a change is worthwhile in a benefit-cost sense

What should you know?

- Budget set = consumption bundles available at given prices and income
- Budget line are bundles for which the entire income is spent.
- If the preference relation is complete, reflexive and transitive, consumer can order bundles according to preferences.
- Monotonicity and convexity are reasonable assumptions – easier to find the optimum bundle.



What should you know? (cont'd)

- Utility function assigns numbers to different bundles so that the bundles are ordered according to preferences.
- The numbers have no meaning in itself.
 Monotonic transformation of u represents the same preferences..
- MRS measures the slope of IC.
- The slope of IC measures the willingness to pay for good 1 (in units of good 2)
- The slope of BL measures the opportunity cost of good 1(in units of good 2)

