

Overview part F: Non-transferable utility

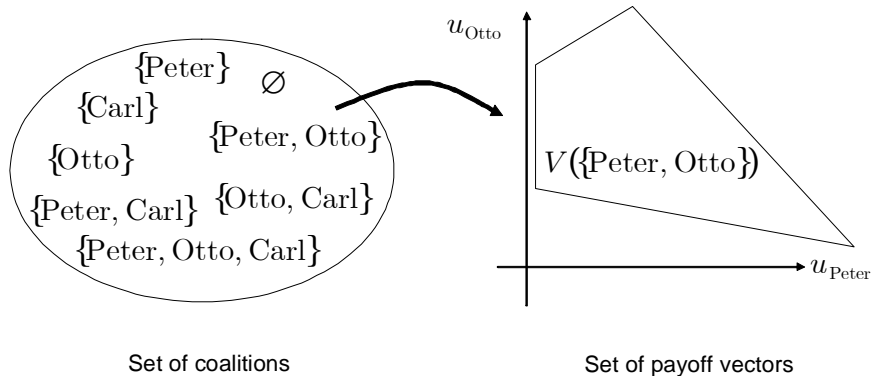
- Exchange economies
- The Nash solution

Overview “The Solow growth model”

- Introduction
- Budget
- Household optimum
- NTU coalition functions and the core
- Edgeworth boxes and coalition functions
- GET: decentralization through prices
- The marriage market

Introduction I

- transferable utility \rightarrow To every coalition $K \subseteq N$, a real number $v(K)$ is attributed.
- non-transferable utility \rightarrow To every coalition $K \subseteq N$, a set of payoff vectors is attributed.



GET = General Equilibrium Theory

- Agents observe prices and choose their good bundles accordingly.
- All agents (households and firms) are price takers.

The aim is to find prices such that

- all actors behave in a utility, or profit, maximizing way and
- the demand and supply schedules can be fulfilled simultaneously.

—> Walras equilibrium

- existence
- efficiency and core

Special case: marriage market

Budget

Money budget and budget line

Definition

The expenditure for a bundle of goods $x = (x_1, x_2, \dots, x_\ell)$ at a vector of prices $p = (p_1, p_2, \dots, p_\ell)$ is the dot product (or the scalar product):

$$p \cdot x := \sum_{g=1}^{\ell} p_g x_g.$$

Definition

For $p \in \mathbb{R}^\ell$ and $m \in \mathbb{R}_+$:

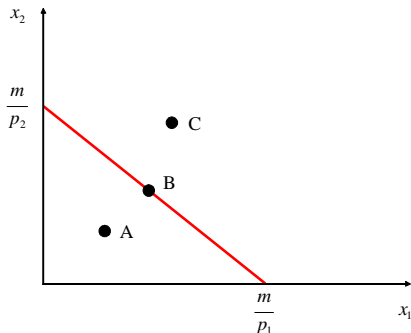
$$B(p, m) := \left\{ x \in \mathbb{R}_+^\ell : p \cdot x \leq m \right\}$$

– the money budget.

$$\left\{ x \in \mathbb{R}_+^\ell : p \cdot x = m \right\}$$

Budget

Money budget: A two goods case



Problem

Assume that the household consumes bundle A. Identify the “left-over” in terms of good 1, in terms of good 2 and in money terms.

Problem

What happens to the budget line if

- *price p_1 doubles;*
- *if both prices double?*

Budget

Money budget

Lemma

For any number $\alpha > 0$:

$$B(\alpha p, \alpha m) = B(p, m)$$

Problem

Fill in: For any number $\alpha > 0$:

$$B(\alpha p, m) = B(p, ?).$$

Budget

Money budget

Lemma

The money budget is nonempty, closed and convex. If $p \gg 0$ holds, the budget is bounded.

Proof.

- $(0, \dots, 0) \in \mathbb{R}_+^\ell$ and $0 \cdot p = 0 \leq m \Rightarrow$ budget is nonempty;
- $x_g \geq 0, g = 1, \dots, \ell, x \cdot p \leq m \Rightarrow$ budget is closed;
- consider x and x' and $k \in [0, 1] \Rightarrow x \cdot p \leq m$ and $x' \cdot p \leq m$ imply:
 $(kx + (1 - k)x') \cdot p = kx \cdot p + (1 - k)x' \cdot p \leq km + (1 - k)m = m$
 \Rightarrow budget is convex;
- If $p \gg 0, 0 \leq x \leq \left(\frac{m}{p_1}, \dots, \frac{m}{p_\ell}\right) \Rightarrow$ budget is bounded.



Budget

Marginal opportunity cost for two goods

Problem

Verify that the budget line's slope is given by $-\frac{p_1}{p_2}$ (in case of $p_2 \neq 0$).

Definition

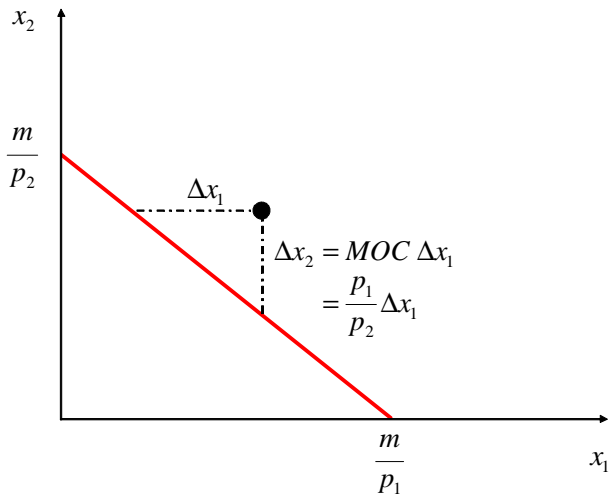
If $p_1 \geq 0$ and $p_2 > 0$,

$$MOC(x_1) = \left| \frac{dx_2}{dx_1} \right| = \frac{p_1}{p_2}$$

– the marginal opportunity cost of consuming one unit of good 1 in terms of good 2.

Budget

Marginal opportunity cost



Endowment budget

Definition

Definition

For $p \in \mathbb{R}^\ell$ and an endowment $\omega \in \mathbb{R}_+^\ell$:

$$B(p, \omega) := \left\{ x \in \mathbb{R}_+^\ell : p \cdot x \leq p \cdot \omega \right\}$$

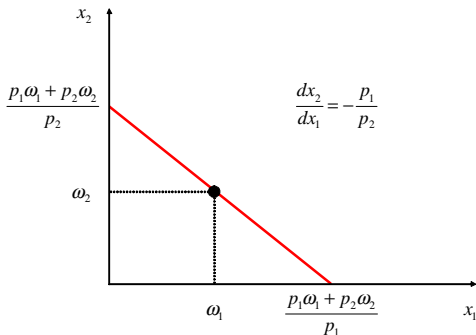
– the endowment budget.

Endowment budget

A two goods case

budget line: $p_1x_1 + p_2x_2 = p_1\omega_1 + p_2\omega_2$

marginal opportunity cost: $MOC = \left| \frac{dx_2}{dx_1} \right| = \frac{p_1}{p_2}$



Problem

What happens to the budget line if

- *price p_1 doubles;*
- *if both prices double?*

Application 1

Intertemporal consumption

Notation:

- ω_1 and ω_2 – monetary income in t_1 and t_2 ;
- x_1 and x_2 – consumption in t_1 and t_2 ;
- household can borrow ($x_1 > \omega_1$), lend ($x_1 < \omega_1$) or consume what it earns ($x_1 = \omega_1$);
- r – rate of interest.

Consumption in t_2 :

$$\begin{aligned}x_2 &= \underbrace{\omega_2}_{\text{second-period income}} + \underbrace{(\omega_1 - x_1)}_{\text{amount borrowed } (<0) \text{ or lended } (>0)} + \underbrace{r(\omega_1 - x_1)}_{\text{interest paid } (<0) \text{ or earned } (>0)} \\ &= \omega_2 + (1 + r)(\omega_1 - x_1)\end{aligned}$$

Application 1

Borrow versus lend

- *borrow* verwandt mit
 - *borgen* und
 - *bergen* („in Sicherheit bringen“) wie in *Herberge* („ein das Heer bergender Ort“)
- *lend* verwandt mit
 - *Lehen* („zur Nutzung verliehener Besitz“) und
 - *leihen*, verwandt mit
 - lateinischstämmig *Relikt* („Überrest“) und *Reliquie* („Überbleibsel oder hochverehrte Gebeine von Heiligen“) und mit
 - griechischstämmig *Eklipse* („Ausbleiben der Sonne oder des Mondes“ > „Sonnen- bzw. Mondfinsternis“) und auch mit
 - griechischstämmig *Ellipse* (in der Geometrie ein Langkreis, bei dem die Höhe geringer ist als die Breite und insofern ein Mangel im Vergleich zum Kreis vorhanden ist – agr. *elleipsis* (ἔλλειψις) bedeutet „Ausbleiben“ > „Mangel“)

Application 1

Intertemporal consumption

2 ways to rewrite the budget equation:

- in future value terms:

$$(1 + r) x_1 + x_2 = (1 + r) \omega_1 + \omega_2,$$

- in present value terms:

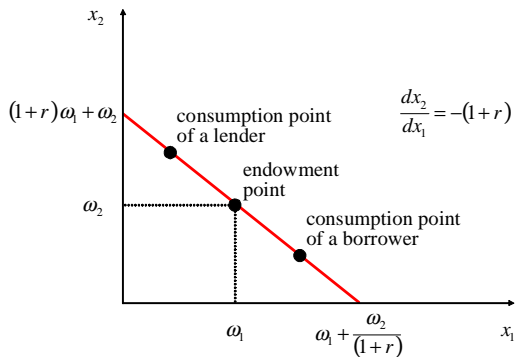
$$x_1 + \frac{x_2}{1 + r} = \omega_1 + \frac{\omega_2}{1 + r}.$$

Application 1

Intertemporal consumption

budget line: $(1+r)x_1 + x_2 = (1+r)\omega_1 + \omega_2$

marginal opportunity cost: $MOC = \left| \frac{dx_2}{dx_1} \right| = 1+r$



Problem

What happens to the budget line if the interest rate decreases?

Application 2

Leisure versus consumption

Notation:

- x_R – recreational hours ($0 \leq x_R \leq 24 = \omega_R$) \rightarrow good 1;
- household works $24 - x_R$ hours;
- x_C – real consumption \rightarrow good 2;
- w – the wage rate;
- ω_C – the real non-labor income;
- p – the price index.


Application 2

Leisure versus consumption

- Household's consumption in nominal terms:

$$px_C = p\omega_C + w(24 - x_R)$$

- Household's consumption in endowment-budget form:

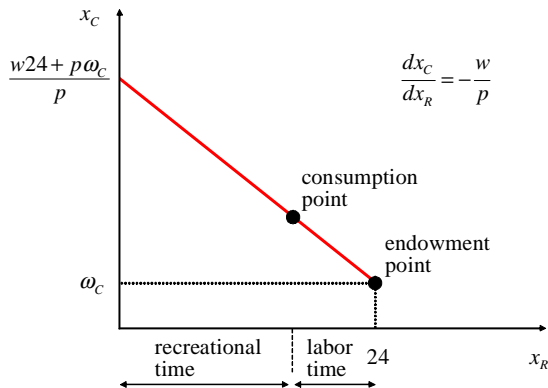
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Application 2

Leisure versus consumption

budget line: $w x_R + p x_C = w 24 + p \omega_C$

marginal opportunity cost: $MOC = \left| \frac{dx_C}{dx_R} \right| = \frac{w}{p}$



Problem

What happens to the budget line if the wage rate increases?

Definition

$$\Delta = (B, \succsim) \text{ with}$$

$$B = B(p, m) \subseteq \mathbb{R}_+^\ell \text{ or } B = B(p, \omega) \subseteq \mathbb{R}_+^\ell$$

– household's decision situation with:

- $p \in \mathbb{R}^\ell$ – a vector of prices;
- \succsim – a preference relation on \mathbb{R}_+^ℓ .

The household's decision problem

Definition

$$\Delta = (B, U)$$

- the decision situation
with utility function U on \mathbb{R}_+^ℓ

Definition

$$x^R(\Delta) := \arg \max_{x \in B} U(x)$$

- the best-response function.
 - i.e., $x^R(\Delta) = \{x \in B: \text{there is not } x' \in B \text{ with } x' \succ x\}$
- Any x^* from $x^R(\Delta)$ – a household optimum.

The household's decision problem

Lemma

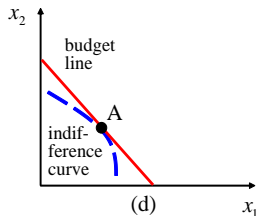
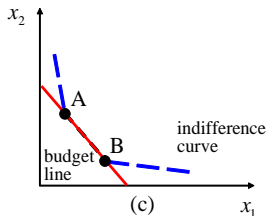
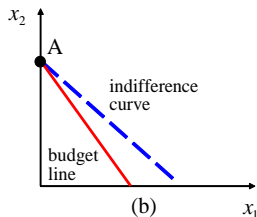
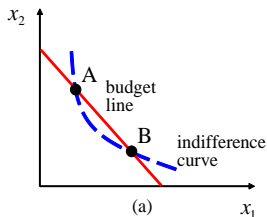
Lemma

For any number $\alpha > 0$:

$$x^R(\alpha p, \alpha m) = x^R(p, m)$$

The household's decision problem

Exercise 1



Problem

Assume
monotonicity of
preferences. Are
the highlighted
points A or B
optima?

The household's decision problem

Exercise 2

Problem

Assume a household's decision problem with $\Delta = (B(p, \omega), \succsim)$. $x^R(\Delta)$ consists of the bundles x that fulfill the two conditions:

- 1 The household can afford x :

$$p \cdot x \leq p \cdot \omega$$

- 2 There is no other bundle y that the household can afford and that he prefers to x :

$$y \succ x \Rightarrow ??$$

Substitute the question marks by an inequality.

Marginal willingness to pay:

$$MRS = \left| \frac{dx_2}{dx_1} \right|$$

If the household consumes one additional unit of good 1, how many units of good 2 can he forgo so as to remain indifferent.

movement on the indifference curve

Marginal opportunity cost:

$$MOC = \left| \frac{dx_2}{dx_1} \right|$$

If the household consumes one additional unit of good 1, how many units of good 2 does he have to forgo so as to remain within his budget.

movement on the budget line

MRS versus MOC

$$MRS = \underbrace{\left| \frac{dx_2}{dx_1} \right|}_{\text{absolute value of the slope of the indifference curve}} > \underbrace{\left| \frac{dx_2}{dx_1} \right|}_{\text{absolute value of the slope of the budget line}} = MOC$$

absolute value

of the slope of

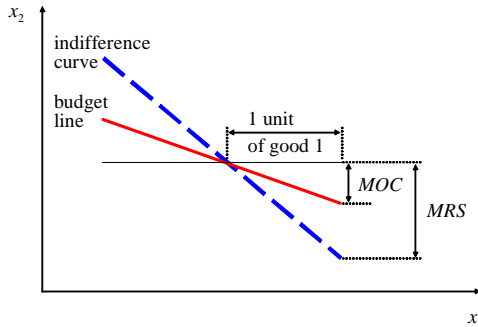
the indifference curve

absolute value

of the slope of

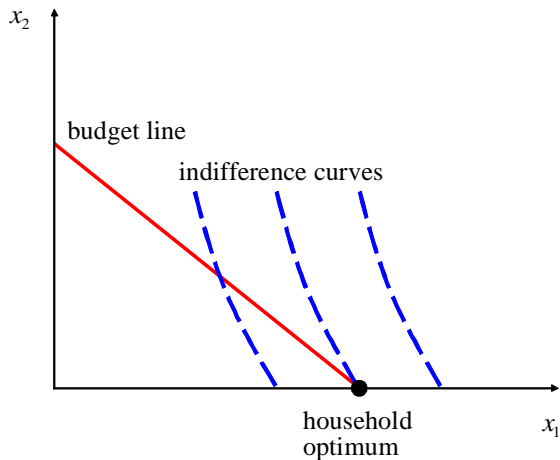
the budget line

⇒ increase x_1 (if possible)



MRS versus MOC

$MRS > MOC \Rightarrow$ increase x_1 (if possible)



MRS versus MOC

Alternatively: the household tries to maximize $U\left(x_1, \frac{m}{p_2} - \frac{p_1}{p_2}x_1\right)$.

- Consume 1 additional unit of good 1
 - utility increases by $\frac{\partial U}{\partial x_1}$
 - reduction in x_2 by $MOC = \left|\frac{dx_2}{dx_1}\right| = \frac{p_1}{p_2}$ and hence utility decrease by $\frac{\partial U}{\partial x_2} \left|\frac{dx_2}{dx_1}\right|$ (chain rule)
- Thus, increase consumption of good 1 as long as

$$\underbrace{\frac{\partial U}{\partial x_1}}_{\substack{\text{marginal benefit} \\ \text{of increasing } x_1}} > \underbrace{\frac{\partial U}{\partial x_2} \left|\frac{dx_2}{dx_1}\right|}_{\substack{\text{marginal cost} \\ \text{of increasing } x_1}}$$

$$\text{or } MRS = \frac{\frac{\partial U}{\partial x_1}}{\frac{\partial U}{\partial x_2}} > \left|\frac{dx_2}{dx_1}\right| = MOC$$

Household optimum

Cobb-Douglas utility function

$$U(x_1, x_2) = x_1^a x_2^{1-a} \text{ with } 0 < a < 1$$

The two optimality conditions

- $MRS = \frac{\frac{\partial U}{\partial x_1}}{\frac{\partial U}{\partial x_2}} = \frac{a}{1-a} \frac{x_2}{x_1} \stackrel{!}{=} \frac{p_1}{p_2}$ and
- $p_1 x_1 + p_2 x_2 \stackrel{!}{=} m$

yield the household optimum

$$x_1^*(m, p) = a \frac{m}{p_1},$$
$$x_2^*(m, p) = (1-a) \frac{m}{p_2}.$$

Household optimum

Perfect substitutes

$$U(x_1, x_2) = ax_1 + bx_2 \text{ with } a > 0 \text{ and } b > 0$$

An increase of good 1 enhances utility if

$$\frac{a}{b} = MRS > MOC = \frac{p_1}{p_2}$$

holds. Therefore

$$x^*(m, p) = \begin{cases} \left(\frac{m}{p_1}, 0 \right), & \frac{a}{b} > \frac{p_1}{p_2} \\ \left\{ \left(x_1, \frac{m}{p_2} - \frac{p_1}{p_2} x_1 \right) \in \mathbb{R}_+^2 : x_1 \in \left[0, \frac{m}{p_1} \right] \right\} & \frac{a}{b} = \frac{p_1}{p_2} \\ \left(0, \frac{m}{p_2} \right) & \frac{a}{b} < \frac{p_1}{p_2} \end{cases}$$

Household optimum

Concave preferences

$$U(x_1, x_2) = x_1^2 + x_2^2$$

An increase of good 1 enhances utility if

$$\frac{x_1}{x_2} = \frac{2x_1}{2x_2} = \frac{\frac{\partial U}{\partial x_1}}{\frac{\partial U}{\partial x_2}} = MRS > MOC = \frac{p_1}{p_2}$$

holds. Therefore, corner solution unless prices are equal:

$$x^*(m, p) = \begin{cases} \left(\frac{m}{p_1}, 0 \right), & p_1 \leq p_2 \\ \left\{ \left(\frac{m}{p_1}, 0 \right), \left(0, \frac{m}{p_2} \right) \right\} & p_1 = p_2 \\ \left(0, \frac{m}{p_2} \right) & p_1 \geq p_2 \end{cases}$$

Lemma

Let x^* be a household optimum of $\Delta = (B(p, m), \succsim) \Rightarrow$

- local nonsatiation: $p \cdot x^* = m$ (Walras' law);
- strict monotonicity: $p \gg 0$;
- local nonsatiation and weak monotonicity: $p \geq 0$.

Proof.

- Assume: $p \cdot x^* < m \Rightarrow$ household can afford bundles close to x^* . Some of them are better than x^* (local nonsatiation). Contradiction!
- Assume $p_g \leq 0 \Rightarrow$ household can be made better off by consuming more of good g (strict monotonicity). Contradiction!
- Assume $p_g < 0 \Rightarrow$ household can “buy” additional units of g without being worse off (weak monotonicity). Household has additional funding for preferred bundles (nonsatiation). Contradiction!

Definition of NTU coalition functions I

- v – coalition function with transferable utility
- V – coalition function without transferable utility

V attributes to every coalition $K \neq \emptyset$ a set of utility vectors

$$u_K := (u_i)_{i \in K} \in \mathbb{R}^{|K|}$$

for K 's members.

Problem

Depict

$$\begin{aligned} & V(\{Peter, Otto\}) \\ = & \{(u_{Peter}, u_{Otto}) : u_{Peter} \geq 2, u_{Otto} \geq 1, u_{Peter} + u_{Otto} \leq 4\}. \end{aligned}$$

Definition of NTU coalition functions II

Definition (coalition function)

A coalition function V on N for non-transferable utility associates to every subset K of N a subset of $\mathbb{R}^{|K|}$ such that

- $V(\emptyset) = \emptyset$ and
- $V(K) \neq \emptyset$ for $K \neq \emptyset$

hold.

Problem

Which of the following expressions are formally correct?

- $V(\{1, 2\}) = 1$, $V(\{1, 2\}) = \{1\}$, $V(\{1, 2\}) = (1, 2)$
- $V(\{1, 2\}) = \emptyset$, $V(\{1, 2\}) = \{(1, 2)\}$
- $V(\{1, 2\}) = \{(x_1, x_2) \in \mathbb{R}^2 : x_1 \leq 3, x_2 \leq 4, x_1 + x_2 \leq 5\}$

Definition of NTU coalition functions III

Definition (superadditivity)

The coalition function V without transferable utility is called superadditive if, for all coalitions $S, T \subset N$

$$S \cap T = \emptyset \text{ (} S \text{ and } T \text{ are disjoint),}$$

$$u_S \in V(S) \text{ and}$$

$$u_T \in V(T)$$

imply

$$(u_S, u_T) \in V(S \cup T).$$

Definition of NTU coalition functions IV

Problem

Is V_2 defined on $N = \{1, 2, 3\}$ and given by

$$V_2(K) = \begin{cases} \{i\}, & K = \{i\} \\ \{(x_1, x_2) : x_1 \leq 1, x_2 \leq 4\}, & K = \{1, 2\} \\ \{(x_1, x_3) : x_1 \leq 2, x_3 \leq 2\}, & K = \{1, 3\} \\ \{(x_2, x_3) : x_2 \leq 4, x_3 \leq 5\}, & K = \{2, 3\} \\ \{(x_1, x_2, x_3) : x_1 + x_2 + x_3 \leq 9\} & K = \{1, 2, 3\} \end{cases}$$

superadditive?

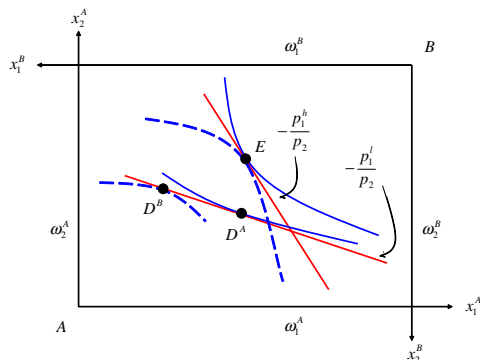
Definition (core)

The core of a NTU game V is the set all utility vectors $u = (u_i)_{i \in N} \in \mathbb{R}^n$ that obey feasibility and non-blockability:

- $u \in V(N)$.
- There is no coalition K and no utility vector $u' = (u'_i)_{i \in N}$ such that $u'_K \in V(K)$ holds and $u_i \leq u'_i$ for all $i \in K$ with strict inequality for at least on $i \in K$.

Exchange theory: positive theory

exchange Edgeworth box: prices and equilibria



The low price p_1^l is not possible in a Walras equilibrium, because there is excess demand for good 1 at this price:

$$x_1^A + x_1^B > \omega_1^A + \omega_1^B.$$

Exchange theory: positive theory

definition of an exchange economy

Definition (exchange economy)

An exchange economy is a tuple

$$\mathcal{E} = \left(N, G, (\omega^i)_{i \in N}, (U_i)_{i \in N} \right)$$

consisting of

- the set of agents $N = \{1, 2, \dots, n\}$,
- the finite set of goods $G = \{1, \dots, \ell\}$,

and for every agent $i \in N$

- an endowment $\omega^i = (\omega_1^i, \dots, \omega_\ell^i) \in \mathbb{R}_+^\ell$, and
- a utility function $U_i : \mathbb{R}_+^\ell \rightarrow \mathbb{R}$.

Two-agents two-good case \longrightarrow exchange Edgeworth box

Exchange theory: positive theory

feasible allocations

Definition

Consider an exchange economy \mathcal{E} .

- A bundle $(y^i)_{i \in N} \in \mathbb{R}_+^{\ell \cdot n}$ is an allocation.
- An allocation $(y^i)_{i \in N}$ is called K -feasible if $\sum_{i \in K} y^i \leq \sum_{i \in K} \omega^i$ holds.
- An allocation $(y^i)_{i \in N}$ is called feasible if it is N -feasible.

Exchange theory: positive theory

The NTU coalition function of an exchange economy

For $K \neq \emptyset$, we let

$$V(K) \\ : = \left\{ u_K \in \mathbb{R}^{|K|} : \exists K\text{-feasible allocation } x \text{ with } u_i \leq U_i(x_i), i \in K \right\}.$$

non-empty coalition K

—> set of bundles that this coalition possesses

—> every K -feasible allocation defines the maximal utility levels that the players from K can achieve.

Exchange theory: positive theory

Excess Demand and Market Clearance

Definition

Assume an exchange economy \mathcal{E} , a good $g \in G$ and a price vector $p \in \mathbb{R}^\ell$. If every household $i \in N$ has a unique household optimum $x^i(p, \omega^i)$, good g 's excess demand is denoted by $z_g(p)$ and defined by

$$z_g(p) := \sum_{i=1}^n x_g^i(p, \omega^i) - \sum_{i=1}^n \omega_g^i.$$

The corresponding excess demand for all goods $g = 1, \dots, \ell$ is the vector

$$z(p) := (z_g(p))_{g=1, \dots, \ell}.$$

The value of the excess demand is given by

$$p \cdot z(p).$$

Exchange theory: positive theory

Excess Demand and Market Clearance

Lemma (Walras' law)

Every consumer demands a bundle of goods obeying $p \cdot x^i \leq p \cdot \omega^i$ where local nonsatiation implies equality. For all consumers together, we have

$$p \cdot z(p) = \sum_{i=1}^n p \cdot (x^i - \omega^i) \leq 0$$

and, assuming local-nonsatiation, $p \cdot z(p) = 0$.

Definition

A market g is called cleared if excess demand $z_g(p)$ on that market is equal to zero.

Exchange theory: positive theory

Excess Demand and Market Clearance

Problem

Abba (A) and Bertha (B) consider buying two goods 1 and 2, and face the price p for good 1 in terms of good 2. Think of good 2 as the numeraire good with price 1. Abba's and Bertha's utility functions, u_A and u_B , respectively, are given by $u_A(x_1^A, x_2^A) = \sqrt{x_1^A + x_2^A}$ and $u_B(x_1^B, x_2^B) = \sqrt{x_1^B + x_2^B}$. Endowments are $\omega^A = (18, 0)$ and $\omega^B = (0, 10)$. Find the bundles demanded by these two agents. Then find the price p that fulfills $\omega_1^A + \omega_1^B = x_1^A + x_1^B$ and $\omega_2^A + \omega_2^B = x_2^A + x_2^B$.

Exchange theory: positive theory

Excess Demand and Market Clearance

Lemma (Market clearance)

In case of local nonsatiation,

- 1 *if all markets but one are cleared, the last one also clears or its price is zero,*
- 2 *if at prices $p \gg 0$ all markets but one are cleared, all markets clear.*

Proof.

If $\ell - 1$ markets are cleared, the excess demand on these markets is 0. Without loss of generality, markets $g = 1, \dots, \ell - 1$ are cleared. Applying Walras's law we get

$$0 = p \cdot z(p) = p_{\ell} z_{\ell}(p).$$



Exchange theory: positive theory

Walras equilibrium

Definition

A price vector \hat{p} and the corresponding demand system $(\hat{x}^i)_{i=1,\dots,n} = (x^i(\hat{p}, \omega^i))_{i=1,\dots,n}$ is called a Walras equilibrium if

$$\sum_{i=1}^n \hat{x}^i \leq \sum_{i=1}^n \omega^i$$

or

$$z(\hat{p}) \leq 0$$

holds.

Definition

A good is called free if its price is equal to zero.

Exchange theory: positive theory

Walras equilibrium

Lemma (free goods)

Assume local nonsatiation and weak monotonicity for all households. If $[\hat{p}, (\hat{x}^i)_{i=1, \dots, n}]$ is a Walras equilibrium and the excess demand for a good is negative, this good must be free.

Exchange theory: positive theory

Walras equilibrium

Proof.

Assume, to the contrary, that $p_g > 0$ holds. We obtain a contradiction to Walras law for local nonsatiation:

$$\begin{aligned} p \cdot z(p) &= \underbrace{p_g z_g(p)}_{< 0} + \sum_{\substack{g'=1, \\ g' \neq g}}^{\ell} p_{g'} z_{g'}(p) \quad (z_g(p) < 0) \\ &< \sum_{\substack{g'=1, \\ g' \neq g}}^{\ell} \underbrace{p_{g'}}_{\geq 0} \underbrace{z_{g'}(p)}_{\leq 0} \\ &\quad \text{(local nonsatiation and} \quad \text{(definition} \\ &\quad \text{weak monotonicity)} \quad \text{Walras equilibrium)} \\ &\leq 0. \end{aligned}$$



Exchange theory: positive theory

Walras equilibrium

Definition

A good is desired if the excess demand at price zero is positive.

Lemma (desiredness)

If all goods are desired and if local nonsatiation and weak monotonicity hold and if \hat{p} is a Walras equilibrium, then $z(\hat{p}) = 0$.

Proof.

Suppose that there is a good g with $z_g(\hat{p}) < 0$. Then g must be a free good according to the lemma on free goods and have a positive excess demand by the definition of desiredness, $z_g(\hat{p}) > 0$. □

Exchange theory: positive theory

Example: The Cobb-Douglas Exchange Economy with Two Agents

Parameters a_1 and a_2 and endowments $\omega^1 = (1, 0)$ and $\omega^2 = (0, 1)$

- Agent 1's demand for good 1:

$$\begin{aligned}x_1^1(p_1, p_2, \omega^1 \cdot p) \\ = a_1 \frac{\omega^1 \cdot p}{p_1} = a_1.\end{aligned}$$

- Agent 2's demand for good 1:

$$\begin{aligned}x_1^2(p_1, p_2, \omega^2 \cdot p) \\ = a_2 \frac{\omega^2 \cdot p}{p_1} \\ = a_2 \frac{p_2}{p_1}.\end{aligned}$$

Exchange theory: positive theory

Example: The Cobb-Douglas Exchange Economy with Two Agents

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- Market 1 is cleared if

$$a_1 + a_2 \frac{p_2}{p_1} = 1 \text{ or } \frac{p_2}{p_1} = \frac{1 - a_1}{a_2}$$

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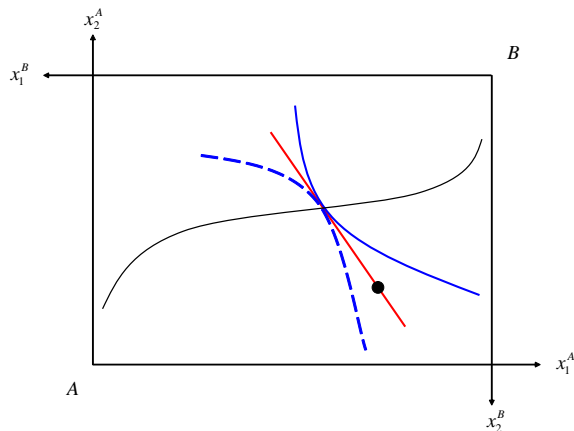
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- How about the market for good 2?

Exchange theory: positive theory

Example: The Cobb-Douglas Exchange Economy with Two Agents



Exchange theory: positive theory

Existence of the Walras equilibrium

Theorem (Existence of the Walras Equilibrium)

If aggregate excess demand is a continuous function (in prices), if the value of the excess demand is zero and if the preferences are strictly monotonic, there exists a price vector \hat{p} such that $z(\hat{p}) \leq 0$.

Theorem

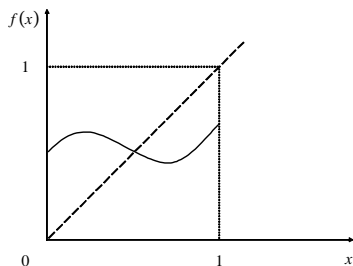
Suppose $f : M \rightarrow M$ is a function on the nonempty, compact and convex set $M \subseteq \mathbb{R}^\ell$. If f is continuous, there exists $x \in M$ such that $f(x) = x$. x is called a fixed point.

Exchange theory: positive theory

Existence of the Walras equilibrium

Continuous function on the unit interval.

- $f(0) = 0$ or $f(1) = 1$
—> fixed point is found
- $f(0) > 0$ and $f(1) < 1$
—> the graph cuts the 45° -line
—> fixed point is found



Real-life examples:

- rumpling a handkerchief
- stirring cake dough

Problem

Assume, one of the requirements for the fixed-point theorem does not hold. Show, by a counter example, that there can be a function such that there is no fixed point. Specifically, assume that

- a) M is not compact*
- b) M is not convex*
- c) f is not continuous.*

Exchange theory: positive theory

Existence of the Walras equilibrium

Hans-Jürgen Podszuweit (found in Homo Oeconomicus, XIV (1997), p. 537):

*Das Nilpferd hört perplex:
Sein Bauch, der sei konvex.
Und steht es vor uns nackt,
sieht man: Er ist kompakt.
Nimmt man 'ne stetige Funktion
von Bauch
in Bauch
– Sie ahnen schon –,
dann nämlich folgt aus dem
Brouwer'schen Theorem:
Ein Fixpunkt muß da sein.
Dasselbe gilt beim Schwein
q.e.d.*

Exchange theory: positive theory

Existence of the Walras equilibrium

- Constructing a convex and compact set:
Norm prices of the ℓ goods such that the sum of the nonnegative (!, we have strict monotonicity) prices equals 1. We can restrict our search for equilibrium prices to the $\ell - 1$ - dimensional unit simplex:

$$S^{\ell-1} = \left\{ p \in \mathbb{R}_+^{\ell} : \sum_{g=1}^{\ell} p_g = 1 \right\}.$$

Exchange theory: positive theory

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- $S^{\ell-1}$ is nonempty, compact (closed and bounded as a subset of $\mathbb{R}^{\ell-1}$) and convex.

Exchange theory: positive theory

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- $S^{\ell-1}$ is nonempty, compact (closed and bounded as a subset of $\mathbb{R}^{\ell-1}$) and convex.
- problem: Draw $S^1 = S^{2-1}$.

Exchange theory: positive theory

Existence of the Walras equilibrium

- The idea of the proof: First, we define a continuous function f on this (nonempty, compact and convex) set. Brouwer's theorem says that there is at least one fixed point of this function. Second, we show that such a fixed point fulfills the condition of the Walras equilibrium.

Exchange theory: positive theory

Existence of the Walras equilibrium

- The idea of the proof: First, we define a continuous function f on this (nonempty, compact and convex) set. Brouwer's theorem says that there is at least one fixed point of this function. Second, we show that such a fixed point fulfills the condition of the Walras equilibrium.
- The abovementioned continuous function

$$f = \begin{pmatrix} f_1 \\ f_2 \\ \cdot \\ \cdot \\ \cdot \\ f_\ell \end{pmatrix} : S^{\ell-1} \rightarrow S^{\ell-1}$$

is defined by

$$f_g(p) = \frac{p_g + \max(0, z_g(p))}{1 + \sum_{g'=1}^{\ell} \max(0, z_{g'}(p))}, g = 1, \dots, \ell$$

Exchange theory: positive theory

Existence of the Walras equilibrium

- f is continuous because every f_g , $g = 1, \dots, \ell$, is continuous. The latter is continuous because z (according to our assumption) and \max are continuous functions. Finally, we can confirm that f is well defined, i.e., that $f(p)$ lies in $S^{\ell-1}$ for all p from $S^{\ell-1}$:

$$\begin{aligned}\sum_{g=1}^{\ell} f_g(p) &= \sum_{g=1}^{\ell} \frac{p_g + \max(0, z_g(p))}{1 + \sum_{g'=1}^{\ell} \max(0, z_{g'}(p))} \\ &= \frac{1}{1 + \sum_{g'=1}^{\ell} \max(0, z_{g'}(p))} \sum_{g=1}^{\ell} (p_g + \max(0, z_g(p))) \\ &= \frac{1}{1 + \sum_{g'=1}^{\ell} \max(0, z_{g'}(p))} \left(1 + \sum_{g=1}^{\ell} \max(0, z_g(p)) \right) \\ &= 1.\end{aligned}$$

Exchange theory: positive theory

Existence of the Walras equilibrium

- The function f increases the price of a good g in case of $f_g(p) > p_g$, only, i.e. if

$$\frac{p_g + \max(0, z_g(p))}{1 + \sum_{g'=1}^{\ell} \max(0, z_{g'}(p))} > p_g$$

or

$$\frac{\max(0, z_g(p))}{\sum_{g'=1}^{\ell} \max(0, z_{g'}(p))} > \frac{p_g}{\sum_{g'=1}^{\ell} p_{g'}}$$

holds.

Exchange theory: positive theory

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holds.

- Interpretation: Increase price if its relative excess demand is greater than its relative price.
 - > f = Walras auctioneer
 - > tâtonnement

Exchange theory: positive theory

Existence of the Walras equilibrium

- We now complete the proof: according to Brouwer's fixed-point theorem there is one \hat{p} such that

$$\hat{p} = f(\hat{p}),$$

from which we have

$$\hat{p}_g = \frac{\hat{p}_g + \max(0, z_g(\hat{p}))}{1 + \sum_{g'=1}^{\ell} \max(0, z_{g'}(\hat{p}))}$$

and finally

$$\hat{p}_g \sum_{g'=1}^{\ell} \max(0, z_{g'}(\hat{p})) = \max(0, z_g(\hat{p}))$$

for all $g = 1, \dots, \ell$.

Exchange theory: positive theory

Existence of the Walras equilibrium

- Next we multiply both sides for all goods $g = 1, \dots, \ell$ by $z_g(\hat{p})$:

$$z_g(\hat{p})\hat{p}_g \sum_{g'=1}^{\ell} \max(0, z_{g'}(\hat{p})) = z_g(\hat{p}) \max(0, z_g(\hat{p}))$$

and summing up over all g yields

$$\sum_{g=1}^{\ell} z_g(\hat{p})\hat{p}_g \sum_{g'=1}^{\ell} \max(0, z_{g'}(\hat{p})) = \sum_{g=1}^{\ell} z_g(\hat{p}) \max(0, z_g(\hat{p})).$$

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- By Walras' law, the left-hand expression is equal to zero. The right one consists of a sum of expressions, which are equal either to zero or to $(z_g(\hat{p}))^2$. Therefore, $z_g(\hat{p}) \leq 0$ for all $g = 1, \dots, \ell$. This is what we wanted to show.

Definition (blockable allocation, core)

Let $\mathcal{E} = (N, G, (\omega^i)_{i \in N}, (U_i)_{i \in N})$ be an exchange economy. A coalition $S \subseteq N$ is said to block an allocation $(y^i)_{i \in N}$, if an allocation $(z^i)_{i \in N}$ exists such that

- $U_i(z^i) \geq U_i(y^i)$ for all $i \in S$, $U_i(z^i) > U_i(y^i)$ for some $i \in S$ and
- $\sum_{i \in S} z^i \leq \sum_{i \in S} \omega^i$

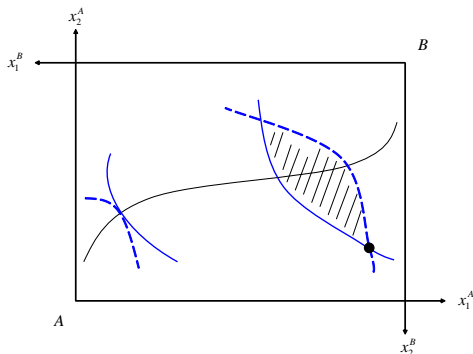
hold.

An allocation is not blockable if there is no coalition can block it. The set of all feasible and non-blockable allocations is called the core of an exchange economy.

Normative theory positive theory

General equilibrium analysis

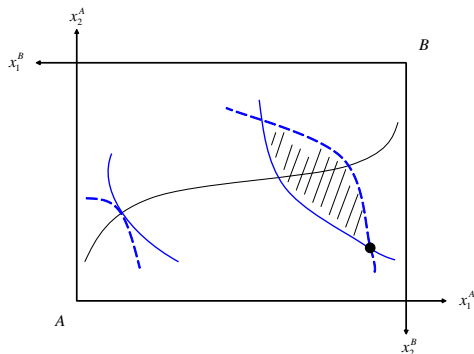
- Core in the Edgeworth box:
Every household (considered a one-man coalition) blocks any allocation that lies below the indifference curve cutting his endowment point.



Normative theory positive theory

General equilibrium analysis

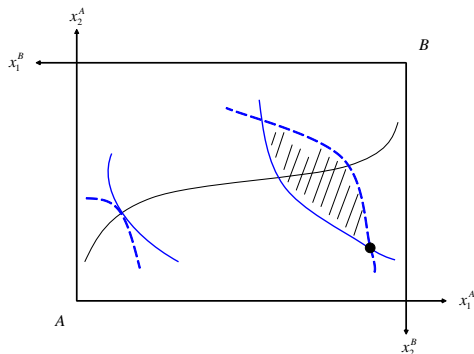
- Core in the Edgeworth box:
Every household (considered a one-man coalition) blocks any allocation that lies below the indifference curve cutting his endowment point.
- Therefore, the core is contained inside the exchange lense.



Normative theory positive theory

General equilibrium analysis

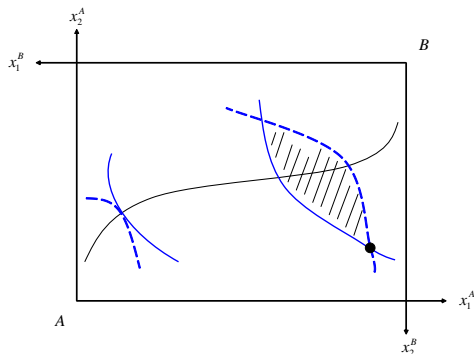
- Core in the Edgeworth box:
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- Both households together block any allocation that is not Pareto efficient.



Normative theory positive theory

General equilibrium analysis

- Core in the Edgeworth box:
Every household (considered a one-man coalition) blocks any allocation that lies below the indifference curve cutting his endowment point.
- Therefore, the core is contained inside the exchange lense.
- Both households together block any allocation that is not Pareto efficient.
- Thus, the core is the intersection of the exchange lense and the contract curve.



Theorem

Assume an exchange economy \mathcal{E} with local non-satiation and weak monotonicity. Every Walras allocation lies in the core.

Normative theory positive theory

General equilibrium analysis

- Consider a Walras allocation $(\hat{x}^i)_{i \in N}$. A lemma from above implies

$$\hat{p} \gg^{(1)} 0$$

where \hat{p} is the equilibrium price vector.

Normative theory positive theory

General equilibrium analysis

- Consider a Walras allocation $(\hat{x}^i)_{i \in N}$. A lemma from above implies

$$\hat{p} \stackrel{(1)}{\gg} 0$$

where \hat{p} is the equilibrium price vector.

- Assume, now, that $(\hat{x}^i)_{i \in N}$ does not lie in the core. Since a Walras allocation is feasible, there exists a coalition $S \subseteq N$ that can block $(\hat{x}^i)_{i \in N}$. I.e., there is an allocation $(z^i)_{i \in N}$ such that

Normative theory positive theory

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Normative theory positive theory

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Normative theory positive theory

General equilibrium analysis

- The second point, together with (1), leads to the implication

$$\hat{p} \cdot \left(\sum_{i \in S} z^i - \sum_{i \in S} \omega^i \right) \leq 0.$$

Normative theory positive theory

General equilibrium analysis

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$$\hat{p} \cdot \left(\sum_{i \in S} z^i - \sum_{i \in S} \omega^i \right) \leq 0.$$

- The first point implies

$$\hat{p} \cdot z^i \stackrel{(2)}{\geq} \hat{p} \cdot \hat{x}^i = \hat{p} \cdot \omega^i \text{ for all } i \in S \text{ (by local nonsatiation) and}$$

$$\hat{p} \cdot z^j \stackrel{(3)}{>} \hat{p} \cdot \hat{x}^j = \hat{p} \cdot \omega^j \text{ for some } j \in S \text{ (otherwise, } \hat{x}^j \text{ is not an optimum)}$$

- Summing over all these households from S yields

$$\begin{aligned}\hat{p} \cdot \sum_{i \in S} z^i &= \sum_{i \in S} \hat{p} \cdot z^i \text{ (distributivity)} \\ &> \sum_{i \in S} \hat{p} \cdot \omega^i \text{ (above inequalities (2) and (3))} \\ &= \hat{p} \cdot \sum_{i \in S} \omega^i \text{ (distributivity).}\end{aligned}$$

Normative theory positive theory

General equilibrium analysis

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- This inequality can be rewritten as

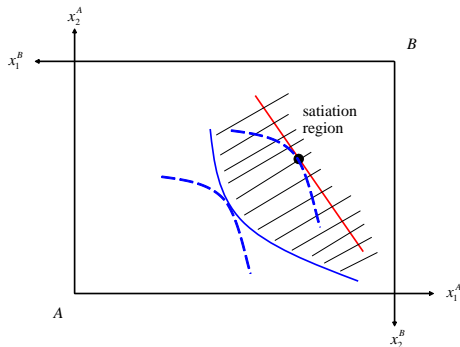
$$\hat{p} \cdot \left(\sum_{i \in S} z^i - \sum_{i \in S} \omega^i \right) > 0,$$

contradicting the inequality noted above.

Normative theory positive theory

General equilibrium analysis

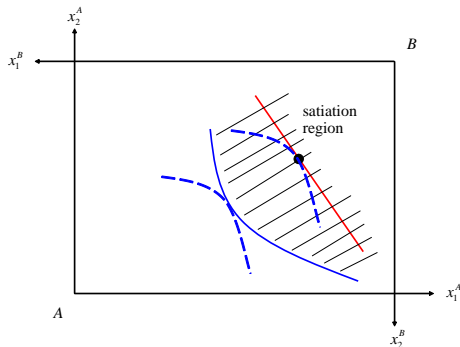
- Example where a Walras allocation does not lie in the core: The lower-left agent's preferences violate non-satiation.



Normative theory positive theory

General equilibrium analysis

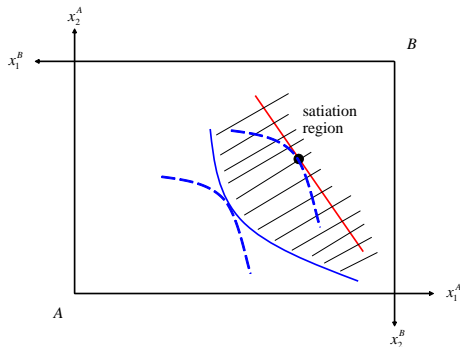
- Example where a Walras allocation does not lie in the core: The lower-left agent's preferences violate non-satiation.
- The equilibrium point is the point of tangency between that price line and the upper-right agent's indifference curve.



Normative theory positive theory

General equilibrium analysis

- Example where a Walras allocation does not lie in the core: The lower-left agent's preferences violate non-satiation.
- The equilibrium point is the point of tangency between that price line and the upper-right agent's indifference curve.
- This point is not Pareto-efficient. The lower-left agent could forego some units of both goods without harming himself.



The marriage market

matching and utility functions

Matching of

- employers and employees
- students and internships or
- men and women:

$$M = \{m_1, \dots, m_k\}, W = \{w_1, \dots, w_n\}$$

with utility functions

$$U_m : W \cup \{m\} \rightarrow \mathbb{R}$$

Problem

What does $U_{w_1}(m_1) > U_{w_1}(w_1) > U_{w_1}(m_2)$ mean?

Assumption: all the preferences are strict

The marriage market

definition

Definition (marriage market)

A marriage market (M, W, \mathbf{U}) consists of disjoint sets of individuals M and W and utility functions $\mathbf{U} = (U_i)_{i \in M \cup W}$ with domain $W \cup \{m\}$ for every $m \in M$ and domain $M \cup \{w\}$ for every $w \in W$.

- the players themselves are the object of preferences, hence
- emotionality reigning in this market

The marriage market

allocations

Definition (allocation)

For a marriage market (M, W, \mathbf{U}) , the function

$$\mu : M \cup W \rightarrow M \cup W$$

is called an allocation if the two requirements

- $\mu(m) \in \{m\} \cup W$ for all $m \in M$ and
- $\mu(w) \in \{w\} \cup M$ for all $w \in W$

are fulfilled.

Thus, men can be singles or attached to a woman
—> Adam and Eve, not Adam and Steve.

Problem

Which players are characterized by $\mu(\mu(i)) = i$?

The marriage market

consistent allocations

Definition (consistent allocation)

For a marriage market (M, W, \mathbf{U}) , an allocation μ is called consistent if $\mu(\mu(i)) = i$ holds for all $i \in M \cup W$.

Single individuals i are defined by $\mu(i) = i$ and fulfill the consistency condition by

$$\mu(\mu(i)) = \mu(i) = i.$$

Assume a feasible allocation μ and a man $m \in M$ who is not single. By $\mu(m) \in \{m\} \cup W$, he is attached to a woman $w \in W$ ($\mu(m) = w$). Consistency then implies

$$m = \mu(\mu(m)) = \mu(w)$$

so that the woman w is attached to the very same man – a marriage relation.

The marriage market

feasible allocations and the NTU game

Definition

Consider a consistent allocation μ in a marriage market (M, W, \mathbf{U}) . μ is called K -feasible if $\mu(K) \subseteq K$ holds.

K -feasibility means that every individual from K is single or has a marriage partner in K . Similarly, a blocking coalition in an exchange economy can only redistribute goods this coalition possesses. Every consistent allocation μ is $M \cup W$ -feasible.

Very similar to the exchange economy, we can define the associated NTU coalition function V by

$$V(K) \\ := \left\{ u_K \in \mathbb{R}^{|K|} : \exists \text{ feasible allocation } \mu \text{ with } u_i \leq U_i(\mu(i)), i \in K \right\}.$$

Definition (acceptability)

An agent i finds another individual j acceptable if $U_i(j) > U_i(i)$ holds.

—> nobody can be married against his (or her) will

However, if

- I fancy Sandra Bullock but
- she prefers another man,

the underlying allocation may well be stable.

The core

from individual rationality to the core I

Definition (from individual rationality to the core)

Let μ be a consistent (or $M \cup W$ -feasible) allocation.

- μ is called individually rational if $U_i(\mu(i)) \geq U_i(i)$ holds for all $i \in N$ (non-blockability by one-man coalitions).
- μ is called pairwise rational if there is no pair of players $(m, w) \in M \times W$ such that

$$U_m(w) > U_m(\mu(m)) \text{ and}$$

$$U_w(m) > U_w(\mu(w))$$

hold (non-blockability by heterosexual pairs).

Definition

- μ is called Pareto optimal if there is no consistent allocation μ' that fulfills

$$U_i(\mu'(i)) \geq U_i(\mu(i)) \text{ for all } i \in M \cup W \text{ and}$$

$$U_j(\mu'(j)) > U_j(\mu(j)) \text{ for at least one } j \in M \cup W$$

(non-blockability by the grand coalition).

- μ lies in the core if there is not coalition $K \subseteq M \cup W$ and no K -feasible allocation μ' such that

$$U_i(\mu'(i)) \geq U_i(\mu(i)) \text{ for all } i \in K \text{ and}$$

$$U_j(\mu'(j)) > U_j(\mu(j)) \text{ for at least one } j \in K$$

holds (non-blockability by any coalition).

Pairwise rationality: no man and no woman exist such that both can improve their lot by marrying

- breaking off existing marriages or
- giving up celibacy

Pareto optimality is defined with reference to feasibility and non-blockability by the grand coalition.

K -feasibility $\rightarrow \mu' (K) \subseteq K$

- individual rationality: every $\{i\}$ -feasible allocation μ' obeys $\mu' (i) = i$
- pairwise rationality: the blocking coalition $\{m, w\}$ forms a pair.

Problem

What is the connection between individual rationality and acceptability?

The core

= individual and pairwise rationality I

Theorem

Let (M, W, \mathbf{U}) be a marriage market. The set of consistent allocations that are individually rational and pairwise rational is the core.

First part of the proof: A consistent allocation that is both individually and pairwise rational belongs to the core.

Assume a consistent allocation μ outside the core. Thus, there exists a coalition K that can block μ by suggesting a K -feasible allocation μ' that fulfills

$$\begin{aligned}U_i(\mu'(i)) &\geq U_i(\mu(i)) \text{ for all } i \in K \text{ and} \\U_j(\mu'(j)) &> U_j(\mu(j)) \text{ for at least one } j \in K.\end{aligned}$$

The core

= individual and pairwise rationality II

$$\begin{aligned}U_i(\mu'(i)) &\geq U_i(\mu(i)) \text{ for all } i \in K \text{ and} \\U_j(\mu'(j)) &> U_j(\mu(j)) \text{ for at least one } j \in K.\end{aligned}$$

Let us focus on individual j that is strictly better off under μ' than under μ . We can distinguish two cases:

- j is single or married under μ and (re)marries under μ' .
In this case both j and his (or her) spouse $\mu'(j) \in K$ (!) are strictly better off because we work with strict preferences. Then μ is not pairwise rational.
- j is married under μ and single under μ' .
This second case implies that j is better off as a single contradicting individual rationality.

Further exercises

Sketch budget lines or the displacements of budget lines for the following examples:

- Time $T = 18$ and money $m = 50$ for football F (good 1) or basket ball B (good 2) with prices
 - $p_F = 5$, $p_B = 10$ in monetary terms,
 - $t_F = 3$, $t_B = 2$ and temporary terms
- Two goods, bread (good 1) and other goods (good 2). Transfer in kind with and without prohibition to sell:
 - $m = 300$, $p_B = 2$, $p_{\text{other}} = 1$
 - Transfer in kind: $B = 50$