Advanced Microeconomic Analysis, Lecture 1

Prof. Ronaldo CARPIO

March 6, 2017

Prof. Ronaldo CARPIO Advanced Microeconomic Analysis, Lecture 1

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- This course is an introduction to the foundations of microeconomic theory, that is, the analysis of the behavior of individual rational agents (consumers, firms, etc).
- The course will be taught entirely in English.
- Website: http://rncarpio.com/teaching/AdvMicro
- Announcements, slides, & homeworks will be posted on website

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- BS Electrical Engineering & CS, UC Berkeley
- Master's in Public Policy, UC Berkeley
- PhD Economics, UC Davis
- Joined School of Banking & Finance in 2012

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- Main textbook: Advanced Microeconomic Theory, 3rd Ed (2003) by Jehle & Reny
- We will tentatively cover Chapters 1-5 and 7-8. Material may be added or dropped, depending on time constraints.
- For those interested, a more mathematically rigorous textbook is *Microeconomic Theory* by Mas-Colell, Whinston, and Green.

- There will be around 5 graded homework assignments, due every 2 weeks. Assignments will be posted on the course website.
- Homeworks: 15%
- Midterm exam: 35%
- Final exam: 50%

- Email: rncarpio@yahoo.com
- Office: 913 Boxue Bldg.
- Office Hours: Monday 16:00-17:00 or by appointment

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- Preliminaries: Convexity and Constrained Optimization (Appendix A2.2 & A2.3)
- Consumer Theory (Chapter 1)
- Duality (Chapter 2.1)
- Risk and Uncertainty (Chapter 2.4)
- Theory of the Firm (Chapter 3)
- Partial Equilibrium (Chapter 4.1)
- General Equilibrium (Chapter 5.1, 5.2, 5.4)
- Game Theory (Chapter 7)
- Imperfect Competition (Chapter 4.2)
- Asymmetric Information (Chapter 8)

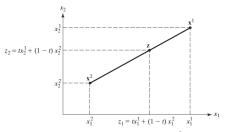
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- Let's begin by considering sets of points in \mathbb{R}^n .
- A set S ⊂ ℝⁿ is convex if: for any two points x¹, x² ∈ S, all points on the line segment joining x¹ and x² are also in S:

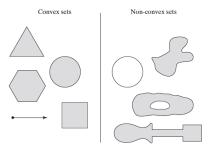
$$t\mathbf{x}^{1} + (1-t)\mathbf{x}^{2} \in S$$
 for all $t \in [0,1]$

- ► The weighted average tx¹ + (1 t)x², where the weights are positive and add up to 1, is called a *convex combination*.
- We can also have convex combinations of any number of points: $t_1 \mathbf{x}^1 + t_2 \mathbf{x}^2 + ... + t_i \mathbf{x}^i$, where $\sum_{i=1}^{i} t_i = 1$ and $t_i \ge 0$ for all *i*.
- An *extreme point* of *S* is a point that cannot be written as a convex combination of other points in *S*.

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- If S is convex, then the convex combination of any finite number of points in S is also in S.
- The intersection of any number of convex sets is convex.

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Hyperplanes

• A hyperplane is a generalization of a line in 2D to N dimensions:

$$\{\boldsymbol{x} \in \mathbb{R}^n | \boldsymbol{a} \cdot \boldsymbol{x} = b\}$$

- Here, *a* is a *normal vector* to the hyperplane: it is perpendicular to any vector that lies in the hyperplane.
- For example, in 2D, the equation ax + by = c defines a hyperplane, and (a, b) is a normal vector to this hyperplane.
- An equivalent equation defining a hyperplane with normal vector **a**, passing through a point x^0 is: $\mathbf{a} \cdot (\mathbf{x} \mathbf{x}^0) = 0$.
- A hyperplane defines two *half-spaces*:
 - the half-space *above* the hyperplane, $\{ \boldsymbol{x} | \boldsymbol{a} \cdot \boldsymbol{x} \ge b \}$
 - the half-space *below* the hyperplane, $\{x | a \cdot x \le b\}$
- In economics, the most common hyperplane is the *budget line*: if there are *n* goods with prices *p*₁...*p_n* and wealth *w*, then the equation *p*₁*x*₁ + ...*p_nx_n* = *w* defines a hyperplane.

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- A half-space is a convex set.
- Therefore, the (non-empty) intersection of any number of half-spaces is also a convex set.
- In the standard consumer problem with two goods, the feasible set (that is, the set of possible bundles we want to maximizer over) is the intersection of three half-spaces:

$$x_1 \ge 0,$$
 $x_2 \ge 0,$ $p_1 x_1 + p_2 x_2 \le w$

• A polygon with *n* faces is the intersection of *n* half-spaces.

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- Suppose X and Y are closed, nonempty, and disjoint convex subsets of ℝⁿ. If either X or Y are compact (i.e. closed and bounded), then there exists a hyperplane that separates X and Y.
- That is, there exists a nonzero vector $\boldsymbol{a} \in \mathbb{R}^n$ and scalar \boldsymbol{b} such that:
 - $\boldsymbol{a} \cdot \boldsymbol{x} > b$ for all $x \in X$
 - $\boldsymbol{a} \cdot \boldsymbol{y} < \boldsymbol{b}$ for all $\boldsymbol{y} \in \boldsymbol{Y}$
- This theorem is be used to prove the existence of general equilibrium and existence of solutions in game theory.

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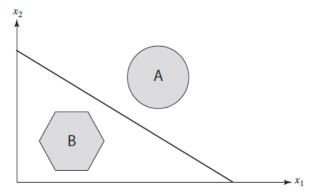


Figure A2.14. Separating convex sets.

- Consider a function $f : X \to \mathbb{R}$, where X is a convex set.
- Let x^1, x^2 be any two points in X, and let x^t denote their convex combination: $x^t = tx^1 + (1-t)x^2$, for $t \in [0,1]$.
- f is concave if $f(\mathbf{x}^t) \ge tf(\mathbf{x}^1) + (1-t)f(\mathbf{x}^2)$, for all $t \in [0,1]$.
- *f* is *strictly concave* if the inequality is strict.
- f is convex if $f(\mathbf{x}^t) \leq tf(\mathbf{x}^1) + (1-t)f(\mathbf{x}^2)$, for all $t \in [0,1]$.
- *f* is *strictly convex* if the inequality is strict.

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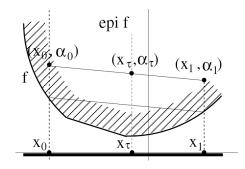
• The *epigraph* of a function *f* is the set of all points that are *above* the graph:

$$\{(\boldsymbol{x},r)\in\mathbb{R}^{n+1}|r\geq f(\boldsymbol{x})\}$$

Similarly, the hypograph of a function f is the set of all points that are below the graph:

$$\{(\boldsymbol{x},r)\in\mathbb{R}^{n+1}|r\leq f(\boldsymbol{x})\}$$

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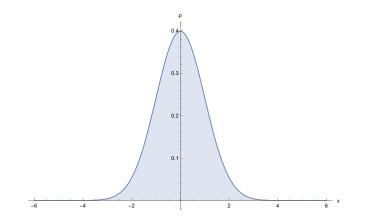
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- A function *f* is concave iff its hypograph (the set of points *below* the graph) is convex.
- A function *f* is convex iff its epigraph (the set of points *above* the graph) is convex.

- A twice-differentiable function *f* is concave iff its Hessian matrix (i.e. the matrix of second derivatives) is negative semidefinite at all points of its domain.
- *f* is strictly concave if its Hessian is negative definite at all points on its domain.
- f is (strictly) convex if its Hessian is (positive definite) positive semidefinite at all points on its domain.

- The upper level set of a function f at a value r is the set $\{x \in X | f(x) \ge r\}$.
- Similarly, the lower level set is $\{x \in X | f(x) \ge r\}$.
- A function *f* is *quasiconcave* if its upper level sets are convex for every *r* ∈ ℝ.
- Similarly, f is *quasiconvex* if its lower level sets are convex for every $r \in \mathbb{R}$.
- Suppose that $f : X \to \mathbb{R}$ is quasiconcave and X is convex. The the set of maximizers of f over X is convex.

A Quasiconcave Function



- For example, a "bell curve" or normal distribution is not concave, but it is quasiconcave.
- For any value of p, the upper level set (that is, the set of all x such that f(x) ≥ p) is a convex set.

Unconstrained Optimization

- Suppose $f : X \to \mathbb{R}$ is twice continuously differentiable.
- Necessary conditions for $f(\mathbf{x})$ to be a local maximum are:
 - First-order: $\nabla f(\mathbf{x}) = 0$
 - Second-order: The Hessian of f at x is negative semidefinite.
- If f is concave, then all local maxima are also global.
- This is the reason why concavity is so desirable for optimization problems: to find the *global* maximum, you only need to check *local* information about the function.
- Otherwise, to guarantee a *global* maximum, you might have to compare *all* local maxima.
- If f is strictly concave, then there is a unique maximum.

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Constrained Optimization

Suppose we want to solve a maximization problem with a single equality constraint:

$$\max_{x_1,x_2} f(x_1,x_2) \qquad \text{subject to } g(x_1,x_2) = 0$$

For example, the standard consumer problem with 2 goods is

 $\max_{x_1, x_2} u(x_1, x_2) \qquad \text{subject to } p_1 x_1 + p_2 x_2 - w = 0$

- Lagrange's method is to form a new function, the Lagrangian, with an additional variable λ :

$$L(x_1, x_2, \lambda) = f(x_1, x_2) - \lambda g(x_1, x_2)$$

 Then, we find an inflection point of this function, by setting its gradient to 0.

$$\nabla L = \begin{pmatrix} \frac{\partial L}{\partial x_1} \\ \frac{\partial L}{\partial x_2} \\ \frac{\partial L}{\partial \lambda} \end{pmatrix} = \begin{pmatrix} \frac{\partial f(x_1, x_2)}{\partial x_1} - \lambda \frac{\partial g(x_1, x_2)}{\partial x_1} \\ \frac{\partial f(x_1, x_2)}{\partial x_2} - \lambda \frac{\partial g(x_1, x_2)}{\partial x_2} \\ g(x_1, x_2) \end{pmatrix} = \begin{pmatrix} 0 \\ 0 \\ 0 \\ 0 \end{pmatrix}$$

Example: Find the Closest Point on a Line

- Suppose we are given a point (x_0, y_0) and a line $a_1x + a_2y = b$.
- The (squared) Euclidean distance between two points (x_1, y_1) and (x_2, y_2) is $(x_2 x_1)^2 + (y_2 y_1)^2$.
- We want to find the point on the line that is closest to (x_0, y_0) .
- We can write this as a constrained maximization problem:

$$\max_{x,y} - (x - x_0)^2 - (y - y_0)^2 \qquad \text{s.t. } a_1 x + a_2 y - b = 0$$

- The (concave) objective function is $f(x, y) = -(x x_0)^2 (y y_0)^2$.
- There is one equality constraint: $g(x, y) = a_1x + a_2y b = 0$
- The Lagrangian is:

$$L(x, y, \lambda) = -(x - x_0)^2 - (y - y_0)^2 - \lambda(a_1x + a_2y - b)$$

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$$L(x, y, \lambda) = -(x - x_0)^2 - (y - y_0)^2 - \lambda(a_1 x + a_2 y - b)$$
$$\frac{\partial L}{\partial x} = -2(x - x_0) - \lambda a_1 = 0$$
$$\frac{\partial L}{\partial y} = -2(y - y_0) - \lambda a_2 = 0$$
$$\frac{\partial L}{\partial \lambda} = a_1 x + a_2 y - b = 0$$

Divide eqn 1 by eqn 2 to eliminate λ :

$$\frac{x - x_0}{y - y_0} = \frac{a_1}{a_2} \Rightarrow a_2(x - x_0) = a_1(y - y_0)$$

Now we have 2 unknowns and 2 equations. Solve to get:

$$x = \frac{a_1b + a_2^2x_0 + a_1a_2y_0}{a_1^2 + a_2^2}, y = \frac{a_2b - a_1a_2x_0 + a_1^2y_0}{a_1^2 + a_2^2}$$

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Lagrange's Theorem (A2.16)

Lagrange's Theorem for multiple equality constraints:

- Let f(x), g¹(x), ..., g^m(x) be continuously differentiable functions over some domain D.
- Let x^{*} be an interior point of D, and suppose that x^{*} is an optimum of f(·) subject to the constraints g¹(x^{*}) = 0,...,g^m(x^{*}) = 0.
- If the gradient vectors ∇g¹(x^{*}),...,∇g^m(x^{*}) are linearly independent, then there exist m unique numbers λ₁^{*},...,λ_m^{*} such that:

$$\frac{\partial L(\boldsymbol{x}^*, \boldsymbol{\lambda}^*)}{\partial x_i} = \frac{\partial f(\boldsymbol{x}^*)}{\partial x_i} - \sum_{j=1}^m \lambda_j^* \frac{\partial g(\boldsymbol{x}^*)}{\partial x_i} \qquad \text{for } i = 1, ..., n$$

Alternatively:

$$\nabla f(\boldsymbol{x}^*) = \sum_{j=1}^m \lambda_j^* \nabla g^j(\boldsymbol{x}^*), \qquad g^j(\boldsymbol{x}^*) = 0 \text{ for } j = 1, ..., m$$

Lagrange's Theorem (A2.16)

- Note that these conditions are *necessary*, but not *sufficient*.
- If an optimum exists, then $\lambda_1^*, ..., \lambda_m^*$ exist, but not vice versa.
- This does not guarantee that the optimum exists (for example, if there is no point that satisfies all the equality constraints simultaneously).
- Only first-order conditions are used, which means that if there is an optimum, it may be a minimum or a maximum.
- Second-order conditions (e.g. the Hessian) are necessary to prove whether it is a minimum or a maximum.
- In this course, we will only deal with concave or quasiconcave functions, so it will be a maximum.

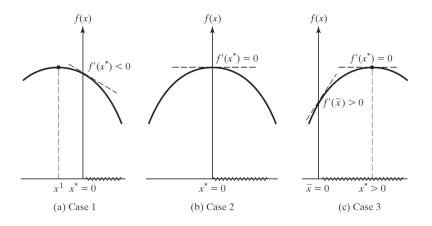
Why does the Lagrange method work?

- Recall that the gradient of a function is the direction of *steepest increase*.
- Suppose we have a smooth function f, with gradient $\nabla f(\mathbf{x})$.
- At point x, if we move at a direction not perpendicular to ∇f(x), the value of f changes.
- If we move in a direction perpendicular to $\nabla f(\mathbf{x})$, the value of f is constant.
- Suppose x satisfies the constraint g(x) = 0. If we are at a constrained maximum, it is not possible to move along the constraint while increasing f.
- This is only possible if $\nabla f(\mathbf{x})$ is perpendicular to g, i.e. if $\nabla f(\mathbf{x})$ is parallel to $\nabla g(\mathbf{x})$.
- This is an alternative way of writing the Lagrangian:

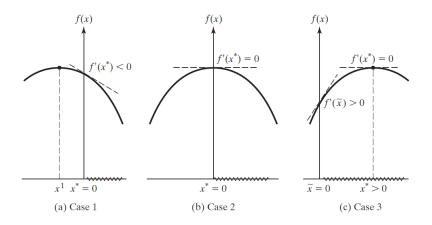
$$\nabla f(\mathbf{x}) = \lambda \nabla g(\mathbf{x}), \qquad g(\mathbf{x}) = 0$$

- Suppose we want to have *inequality* constraints as well as *equality* constraints.
- A simple example: suppose we want to maximize f(x) subject to x ≥ 0.
- Assume $f(\cdot)$ is concave.
- There are three possible ways in which the constraint is satisfied at the optimum.

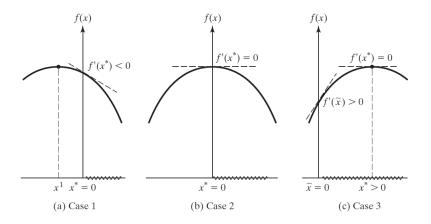
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- Case 1: the global maximum is at x¹ < 0, which violates the constraint x ≥ 0.</p>
- Therefore, the constrained maximum must occur exactly at x* = 0, since f(·) is decreasing at this point.
- We say that the constraint is "binding" or "active" at the optimum.
- If we removed this constraint, the optimizer would change. $(a) \rightarrow (a) = (a) + (a)$



- Case 2: the global maximum is at x^{*} = 0, which satisfies the constraint x ≥ 0 with equality.
- We say that the constraint is "binding" or "active", but *irrelevant*.
- If we removed this constraint, the optimizer would not change.
- The unconstrained FOC conditions are satisfied: f'(x) = 0.



- Case 3: the global maximum is at x^{*} > 0, which satisfies the constraint x ≥ 0 with strict inequality.
- We say that the constraint is "not binding" or "not active".
- If we removed this constraint, the optimizer would not change.
- The unconstrained FOC conditions are satisfied: f'(x) = 0.

- We can apply the method of Lagrange multipliers to inequality constraints, with some additional conditions.
- As before, each constraint has its own Lagrange multiplier λ_i .
- If a constraint is not binding, or binding and irrelevant, then $\lambda_i = 0$.
- If a constraint is binding and not irrelevant, then $\lambda_i > 0$.
- This leads to a more general version of Lagrange's theorem, called the Karush-Kuhn-Tucker or KKT conditions.

- KKT Necessary Conditions for Optimality (A2.20)
- Consider the maximization problem with *m* inequality constraints:

$$\max_{\mathbf{x}} f(\mathbf{x}) \qquad \text{s.t. } g^{1}(\mathbf{x}) \leq 0, ..., g^{m}(\mathbf{x}) \leq 0$$

- Assume $f(\cdot), g^1(\cdot), ..., g^m(\cdot)$ are continuously differentiable.
- Suppose that x* is an solution to this problem (i.e. x* is a maximizer subject to the constraints).
- If the gradient vectors of the *binding* constraints at x* are linearly independent, then:
- ▶ There is a unique $\lambda^* = (\lambda_1^*, ..., \lambda_m^*)$ such that

$$\frac{\partial L(\boldsymbol{x}^*, \boldsymbol{\lambda}^*)}{\partial x_1} = \frac{\partial f(\boldsymbol{x}^*)}{\partial x_i} - \sum_{j=1}^m \lambda_j^* \frac{\partial g^j(\boldsymbol{x}^*)}{\partial x_i} = 0 \text{ for } i = 1, ..., n$$
$$\lambda_j^* \ge 0, \ g^j(\boldsymbol{x}^*) \le 0, \ \lambda_j^* g^j(\boldsymbol{x}^*) = 0, \text{ for } j = 1, ..., m$$

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$$\frac{\partial L(\boldsymbol{x}^*, \boldsymbol{\lambda}^*)}{\partial x_1} = \frac{\partial f(\boldsymbol{x}^*)}{\partial x_i} - \sum_{j=1}^m \lambda_j^* \frac{\partial g^j(\boldsymbol{x}^*)}{\partial x_i} = 0 \text{ for } i = 1, ..., n$$
$$\lambda_j^* \ge 0, \quad g^j(\boldsymbol{x}^*) \le 0, \quad \lambda_j^* g^j(\boldsymbol{x}^*) = 0, \text{ for } j = 1, ..., m$$

- Let's understand what these conditions mean.
- Suppose that constraint j is not binding, or binding and irrelevant (i.e. the optimizer would not change if we removed this constraint).
- Then its associated Lagrange multiplier, λ_i^* , is zero.
- Constraints that are binding and not irrelevant (i.e. the optimizer would change if the constraint were removed) have a strictly positive Lagrange multiplier: λ_i^{*} > 0.
- For such a constraint, the condition $g^{j}(\mathbf{x}^{*}) = 0$ holds with equality.
- For constraints that are nonbinding or irrelevant, the constraint may hold without equality.
- The above conditions are a compact way of writing this down.

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Consider the following maximization problem with two constraints:

$$\max_{x} -x^2 \qquad \text{s.t.} \quad -1 \le x \le 1$$

- We can rewrite the constraints as: $g^1(x) = -x - 1 \le 0, g^2(x) = x - 1 \le 0.$
- Clearly, the maximizer is x* = 0, and both constraints are non-binding.
- Therefore, the Lagrange multipliers for both constraints are zero: $\lambda_1^* = \lambda_2^* = 0.$
- Both constraints are satisfied with strict inequality.
- The first-order conditions for the Lagrangian simply reduce to $f'(x^*) = 0$, since both Lagrange multipliers are zero.

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Now, suppose we change the problem so that one constraint becomes binding:

$$\max_{x} -x^2 \qquad \text{s.t. } 1 \le x \le 2$$

- We can rewrite the constraints as: $g^1(x) = -x + 1 \le 0, g^2(x) = x - 2 \le 0.$
- Since −x² is decreasing as x > 0, the maximizer is where the first constraint becomes binding, so x^{*} = 1.
- The Lagrange multiplier for the first, binding constraint is positive: $\lambda_1^* > 0$.
- The Lagrange multiplier for the second, non-binding constraint is zero: $\lambda_2^* = 0$.
- Only the second constraint is satisfied with strict inequality.
- The Lagrangian becomes: $L(x, \lambda_1, \lambda_2) = -x^2 \lambda_1(-x+1)$.
- When finding the solution, we treat the binding constraint as an equality, and ignore the non-binding constraint.

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- The KKT conditions don't tell us which constraints will be binding or not. We have to use additional information.
- ▶ For example, in consumer theory, we will frequently have a constrained maximization problem with two goods, x₁ and x₂, and three constraints:
 - *x*₁ ≥ 0
 - *x*₂ ≥ 0
 - a budget constraint: $p_1x_1 + p_2x_2 \le y$.
- If we had no additional information, then the solution might be in the interior (all constraints nonbinding), or at one of the corners (two constraints binding).
- However, we will typically assume the objective function is strictly increasing. Then the maximum must be on the budget constraint.
- Furthermore, we may assume the objective function goes to negative infinity at x₁ = 0 or x₂ = 0. Then the first two constraints will never be binding.
- Taken together, this tells us that only the budget constraint will be binding, and we can treat it as a problem with a single equality constraint.

- For next week, please begin reading Chapter 1 of the textbook.
- We will begin the study of consumer theory.

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