

Week 1 –Budget Constraint (Chapter 2)

- The economic theory of the consumer is very simple.
 - Economists assume that consumers choose the best bundle of goods that they can afford.
- To give meaning to this theory, we have to describe more precisely what we meant by ‘**best**’ and ‘**can afford**’.

2.1 The Budget Constraint

- Suppose that there is some set of goods from which the consumer can choose.
 - For our purposes, it is convenient to consider the case of **only two goods**.
- We will indicate the **consumption bundle** by (x_1, x_2) .
 - This is simply a list of two numbers that tells us how much the consumer is choosing to consume of good 1, x_1 , and good 2, x_2 .
 - The consumer’s bundle is denoted by a single symbol X , where $X = (x_1, x_2)$.
- Suppose we can observe the prices of the two goods, (p_1, p_2) , and the amount of money the consumer has to spend, m .
 - Then the **budget constraint** of the consumer can be written as:

$$p_1x_1 + p_2x_2 \leq m$$

- Here p_1x_1 is the amount of money that the consumer is spending on good 1, and p_2x_2 is the amount of money that the consumer is spending on good 2.
- *The budget constraint of the consumer requires that the amount of money spent on the two goods be **no more** than the total amount the consumer has to spend.*
- The **budget set** of the consumer is the **set of affordable consumption bundles** at prices (p_1, p_2) and income m .
 - Budget set: $\{X = (x_1, x_2): p_1x_1 + p_2x_2 \leq m\}$

2.2 Two Goods are Often Enough

- The **two-good assumption** is more **general** than it appears.
 - We can interpret good 2 as represents **everything else** that the consumer may want to consume.
- Good 2 represents a **composite good**.

- Such a composite good is measured in dollars to be spent on goods other than good 1.
- It is convenient to think of good 2 as being the dollars that the consumer can use to spend on other goods.
 - Under this interpretation, the price of good 2 will automatically be \$1, since the price of one dollar is one dollar.
- Thus, the **budget constraint** will take the form:

$$p_1x_1 + x_2 \leq m$$

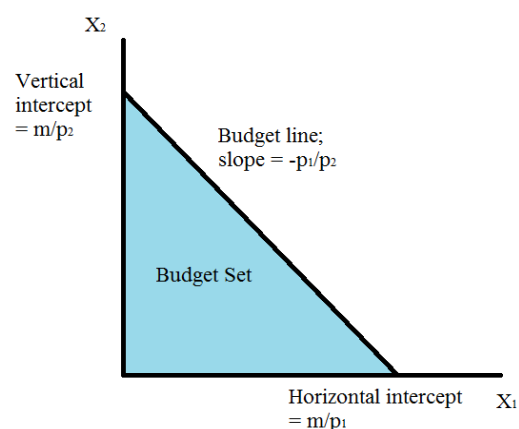
- This equation is just a special case of the formula above, with $p_2 = 1$.
 - This is known as the **numeraire price**, which we assign to good 2.

2.3 Properties of the Budget Set

- The **budget line** is the set of consumption bundles that cost exactly m :

$$p_1x_1 + p_2x_2 = m (*)$$

- These are bundles of goods that just exhaust the consumer's income.



- We can rearrange the equation to obtain:

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

- This is a straight line with a slope of $-\frac{p_1}{p_2}$ and vertical intercept $\frac{m}{p_2}$.
- The **slope of the budget line** has a nice **economic interpretation**.
 - The slope measures the amount of good 2 forgone in order to consume one additional unit of good 1.
 - Economic interpretation: The slope represents the **opportunity cost** of consuming **good 1**. (Note: $OC_{good\ 1} = \frac{1}{OC_{good\ 2}}$)

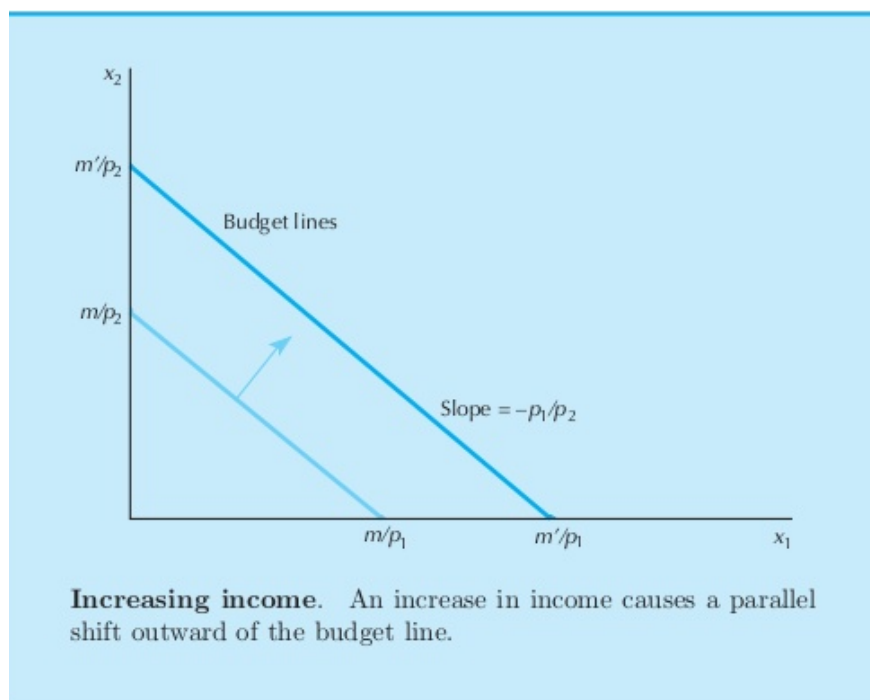
- The **intercepts** of the **budget line** also have an interpretation.
 - The vertical intercept represents the amount of good 2 that can be consumed if the total amount of money the consumer has to spend is entirely spent on good 2 i.e. $\frac{m}{p_2}$.
 - The horizontal intercept represents the amount of good 1 that can be consumed if the total amount of money the consumer has to spend is entirely spent on good 1 i.e. $\frac{m}{p_1}$.

2.3 How the Budget Line Changes

- When prices and incomes **change**, the set of goods that a consumer can afford changes as well.
 - **How do these changes affect the budget set?**

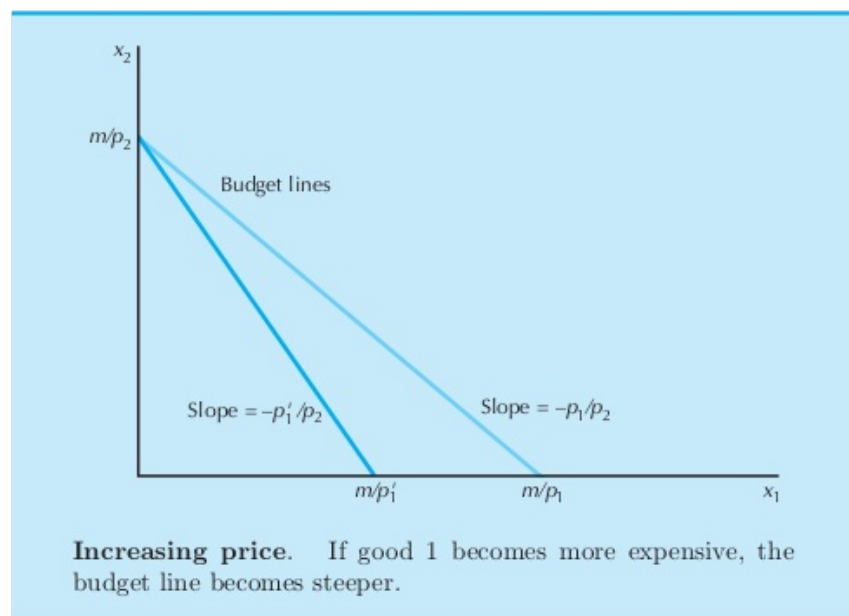
2.3.1 Changes in Income

- From the equation of the budget line (*), it is clear that an **increase in income**, m , will **increase the vertical intercept** but will **not affect the slope**.
 - This increase in income will result in a **parallel shift upward** (*outward*) of the budget line.
 - A decrease in income will result in a **parallel shift downward** (*inward*).



2.3.2 Change in Prices

- From (*), it is clear that if the price of (say) good 1 increases then the (absolute) **slope** $(\frac{p_1}{p_2})$ of the budget line also **increases** but the **vertical intercept** $(\frac{m}{p_2})$ **does not change**.
 - This leads to a **steeper budget line** with a lower horizontal intercept $(\frac{m}{p_1})$.



- If the price of good 2 increases then the (absolute) **slope** $(\frac{p_1}{p_2})$ of the budget line **decreases** but the **horizontal intercept** $(\frac{m}{p_1})$ **does not change**.
 - This leads to a **flatter budget line** with a lower vertical intercept $(\frac{m}{p_2})$.
- If the prices of both goods increase by the **same factor**, t , at the **same time**, then both the horizontal and vertical intercepts will decrease by the **same factor**, shifting the budget line inward.
 - This is **equivalent** to decreasing the income m by the factor t .
- We can see this algebraically:
 - Suppose that the original budget line is: $p_1x_1 + p_2x_2 = m$
 - If the price of these goods increase by a factor t then:

$$tp_1x_1 + tp_2x_2 = m \rightarrow p_1x_1 + p_2x_2 = \frac{m}{t}$$
 - Thus, multiplying both prices by a constant amount t is equivalent to a decrease in income by the same factor t .
 - If prices and income increase by factor t , the budget line won't change.

2.5 Taxes, Subsidies and Rationing

- Economic policy often uses tools that affect a consumer's budget constraint, such as taxes.

2.5.1 Taxes

- If the government imposes a **quantity tax**, the consumer has to pay a certain amount to the government for each unit of the good he purchases.
 - Example: In the US, the federal gas tax is 15 cents per gallon.
- **How does a quantity tax affect the budget line of a consumer?**
 - From the viewpoint of a consumer, the tax effectively increases the price of the good.
 - Thus, a quantity tax of t dollars per unit of good 1 simply changes the price of good 1 from p_1 to $p_1 + t$.
 - This implies that the **budget line** becomes **steeper**.
- Another kind of tax is a **value tax (ad valorem tax or sales tax)**, where a tax is imposed on the **value of the good** rather than the quantity purchased.
 - Example: If the sales tax is 6%, then a good worth \$1 will actually sell for \$1.06.
 - **If good 1 has a price p_1 but is subject to a sales tax at rate τ , then the actual price facing the consumer is $(1 + \tau)p_1$.**
 - The consumer has to pay p_1 to the supplier and τp_1 to the government for each unit of the good so that the total cost of the good to the consumer is $(1 + \tau)p_1$.

2.5.2 Subsidies

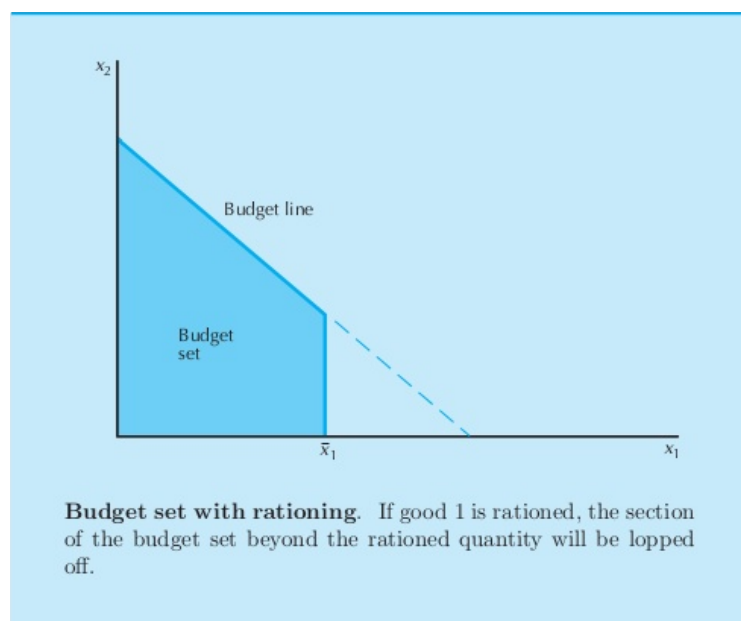
- A **subsidy** is the **opposite of a tax**.
 - **Quantity subsidy**: the government gives the consumer an amount of money that depends on the **amount** of the good consumed.
 - If the subsidy is s dollars per unit consumed of good 1, then the actual price of good 1 is $p_1 - s$.
 - Since the quantity subsidy lowers the actual price of the good, this results in a **flatter budget line**.
 - **Ad valorem (value) subsidy**: a subsidy based on the **price** of the good being consumed.
 - **If the price of good 1 is p_1 and an ad valorem subsidy is imposed on the good at a rate σ , then the actual price of the good is $(1 - \sigma)p_1$.**

2.5.3 Effect on Budget Line of a Consumer – Taxes and Subsidies

- In summary, *taxes increase the price of a good whilst subsidies decrease the price of the good.*
- Another kind of tax or subsidy that the government might use is a **lump-sum** tax or subsidy.
 - **Lump-sum tax:** a tax where the government **takes away a fixed amount** of money from the consumer, regardless of their behaviour.
 - This **reduces** the money income m .
 - Thus, there is an **inward shift of the budget line**.
 - **Lump-sum subsidy:** a subsidy where the government **provides a fixed amount** of money to the consumer, regardless of their behaviour.
 - This **increases** the money income m .
 - Thus, there is an **outward shift of the budget line**.
- Quantity taxes and value taxes **tilt** the budget line one way or the other, depending on which good is being taxed.
 - Similarly, quantity subsidies and value subsidies tilt the budget line one way or the other, depending on which good is subsidised.
- Contrarily, a lump-sum tax or subsidy results in a **SHIFT** of the budget line.

2.5.4 Rationing

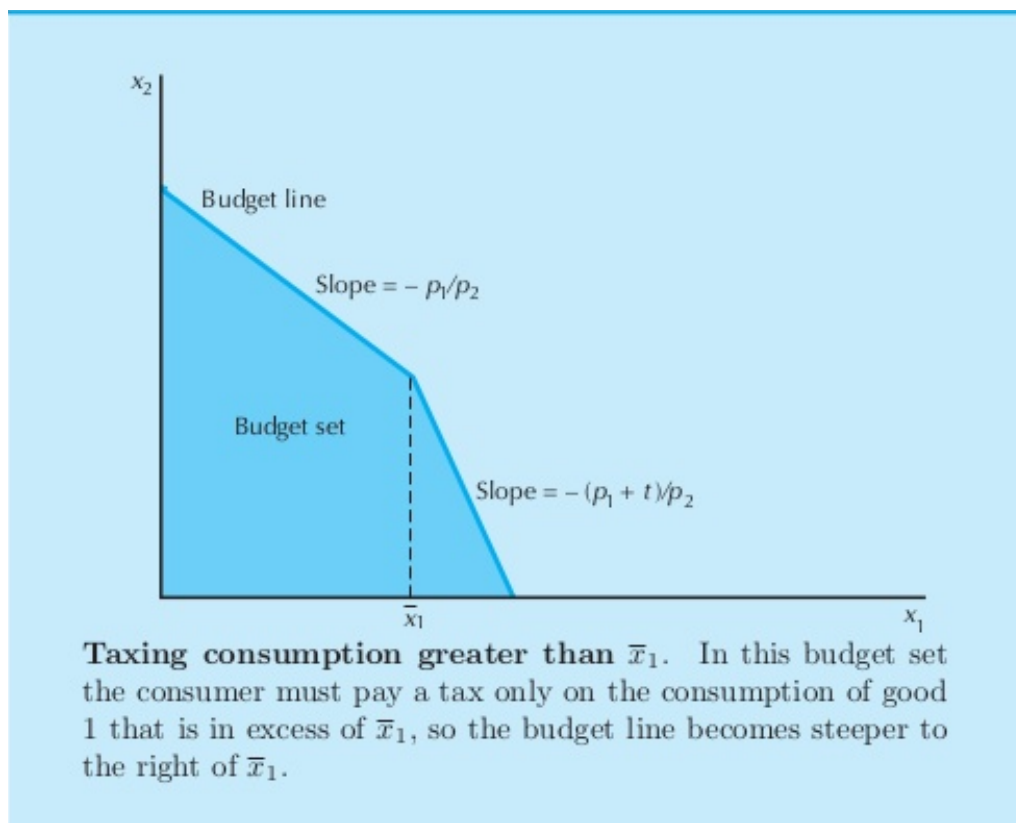
- Governments also sometimes impose **rationing constraints**.
 - This means that the level of consumption for some good is **fixed** to be **no larger than a certain amount**.



- Suppose that good 1 was rationed so that no more than \bar{x}_1 could be consumed by a given consumer.
 - Then the **budget set** would appear as in the picture above.
 - It is the set of all affordable bundles of good 1 and good 2 with a piece lopped off
 - The lopped-off piece consists of all consumption bundles that are affordable but have $x_1 > \bar{x}_1$.

2.6 Example – Tax + Rationing

- Example: Consider a situation where a consumer could consume good 1 at a price of p_1 up to some level \bar{x}_1 (rationed amount), and then had to pay a quantity tax of t per unit in excess of \bar{x}_1 .
 - The budget set for this consumer is depicted in the picture below.
- The budget line has a slope of $-\frac{p_1}{p_2}$ to the left of \bar{x}_1 and a slope of $-\frac{p_1+t}{p_2}$ to the right of \bar{x}_1 .
 - Reason: After the rationed amount \bar{x}_1 is exceeded, the price of good 1 increases from p_1 to $p_1 + t$ due to the quantity tax. This increases the opportunity cost of consuming good 1, resulting in an increase in the (absolute) slope and causing the budget line to become **steeper**.



Week 2 (I) – Preferences (Chapter 3)

- Last chapter was devoted to clarifying the meaning of ‘**can afford**’.
 - This chapter will be devoted to clarifying the economic concept of ‘**best things**’.

3.1 Consumer Preferences

- We will suppose that given any two consumption bundles, $X = (x_1, x_2)$ and $Y = (y_1, y_2)$, the consumer can **rank** them based on their **desirability**.
 - Desirability: which bundle of goods the consumer would choose if given the option of both.
- If the consumer **prefers** bundle X to bundle Y, then bundle X is **strictly preferred** to bundle Y.
 - That is, $X \succ Y$.
 - Equivalently, $Y \prec X$.
- If the consumer is **indifferent** between X and Y, then they would be **equally satisfied** with bundle X as they would be with bundle Y.
 - That is, $X \sim Y$.
- If the consumer **prefers** X to Y **or is indifferent** between them, then they **weakly prefers** bundle X to bundle Y.
 - That is, $X \succsim Y$.
- The relations of strict preference, weak preference and indifference are themselves **related**.
 - If a consumer **weakly prefers** X to Y, but also **weakly prefers** Y to X, then the consumer is **indifferent** between bundle X and bundle Y.
 - That is, **if $X \succsim Y$ and $Y \succsim X$, then $X \sim Y$** .

3.2 Assumptions about Preferences

- For the sake of consistency of consumers’ preferences, economists make assumptions about how preference relations work i.e. **axioms**.
- **Complete**: Any two bundles can be compared.
 - That is, given any bundles X and Y, we can assume that $X \succsim Y$ or $Y \succsim X$, or both, in which case $X \sim Y$.
- **Reflexive**: Any bundle is at least as good as itself.
 - That is, $X \succsim X$.
- **Transitive**: If X is weakly preferred to Y and Y is weakly preferred to Z, then X is weakly preferred to Z.