

(9) \succeq rational.

Show that if $u(x) = u(y) \implies x \sim y$
 and $u(x) > u(y) \implies x \succ y$,
 then $u(\cdot)$ is a utility fct representing \succeq .

Reminder.

Def. $u(\cdot)$ is said to represent \succeq .

iff. $\forall x, y. x \succeq y \implies u(x) \geq u(y)$.

Def. Given a fct $u: X \rightarrow \mathbb{R}$,
 we can define a preference relation, \succeq_u .

by $\forall x, y. u(x) \geq u(y) \implies x \succeq_u y$.

($x \succeq_u y$ iff. $u(x) \geq u(y)$).

WZ

Microeconomics 1A

September 25
 and 27, 2023.

leh

$$u(x) \geq u(y).$$

\Downarrow

$$u(x) > u(y)$$

or

$$u(x) = u(y).$$

$\xrightarrow{\text{by hyp.}}$

$\xrightarrow{\text{by hyp.}}$

$$x \succ y$$

or

$$x \sim y$$

\Downarrow

$$x \succeq y$$

\rightarrow this equivalence of \succeq and $(\succ \text{ or } \sim)$ can be deduced from completeness.

□.

CS

Suppose \succsim is rational.

Show that if X is finite, then there exists an utility f representing \succsim .

Intuitively, \succsim rational $\implies \succsim$ transitive and complete.

so all cycles of two elements can be compared.

there is no contradictory loops...

same as for \geq on \mathbb{R} .

X finite \implies there is also a finite number of pairings to be compared.

We can try to construct such a utility f representing \succsim .

Let $n = \text{dim } X$.

— start with $n = 2$.

$$X = \{x_1, x_2\}.$$

\succsim_X is complete, so either $x_1 \succsim x_2$.

or $x_2 \succsim x_1$.

(or both).

~~Not to be used~~

... \iff either $u_1 \neq u_2$
or $x_1 \sim x_2$
or $x_1 < x_2$

assume that
the induction was
with ...

* Assume the prop was true for n ,
and prove it ok $n+1$.

is
proof by
INDUCTION.

... still the
INITIALIZATION.

then
if $x_1 < x_2$, define u and X .

by $u(x_1) = u_1$
and $u(x_2) = u_2$.

with $u_1 < u_2$.

we will thus prove
that the property
is true $\forall n$.

if $x_1 \sim x_2$, with $u_1 = u_2$, ...

Assume the prop was true for n ,
 so $\exists u$ s.t.

$$\forall x, y \in X \quad x \succ y \implies u(x) \geq u(y)$$

result of C9.

$$\left(\begin{array}{l} (x \succ y \implies u(x) > u(y)) \\ \text{and} \\ (x \sim y \implies u(x) = u(y)) \end{array} \right)$$

so it means that, ~~we could~~, in X of dim $n+1$,
 we can order (and index) any subsh. of
 dim $= n$. (removing an element, say we
 eliminate the maximal element, and we
 (one of) all of X_{n+2} .

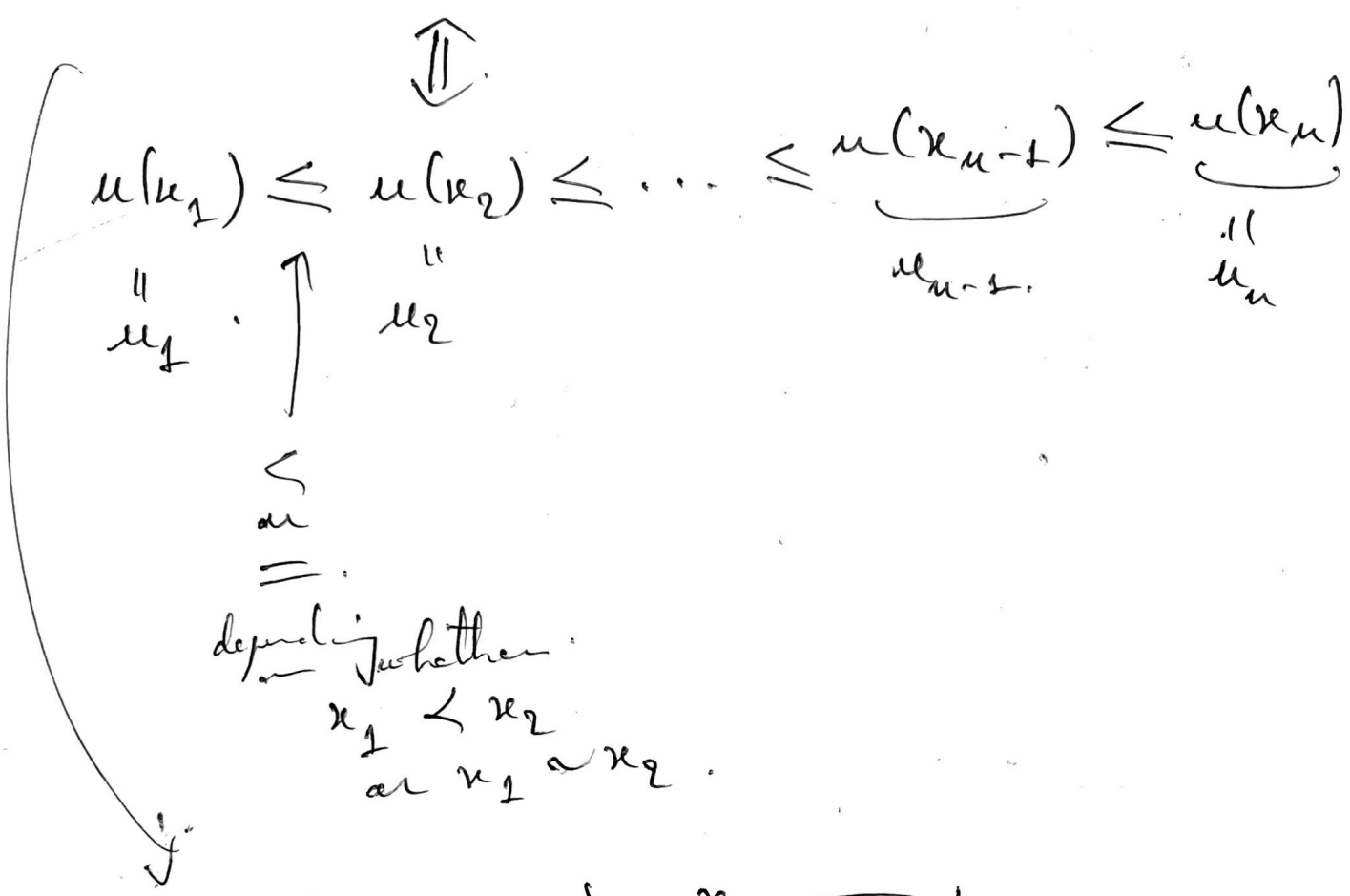
$X_{n+1} =$ one of the n .
 sufficing.

$$X_{n+1} \succ x \quad \forall x \in X.$$

P. say this because
 you could have more than
 one element sufficing
 this.

$X \setminus \{x_{n+1}\}$ is of dim n , so, by assumption,
 Foundation and $\exists u$, with.

$$x_1 \lesssim x_2 \lesssim \dots \lesssim x_{n-1} \lesssim x_n$$



Note. of $x_{n+1} > x_n \implies$ assign to it.
 $u(x_{n+1}) > u(x_n)$.

if $x_{n+1} = x_n$. u_{n+1} .
 \implies assign to it.
 $u(x_{n+1}) = u(x_n)$.
 u_{n+1} . \square . ∇

C16. MNG. 306.

$$X = \mathbb{R}_+^2 \quad u(x) = [d_1 x_1^\rho + d_2 x_2^\rho]^{\frac{1}{\rho}}$$

CES utility fcn.

a) Show that: $\rho = 1 \Rightarrow$ indifference curves are linear.

b) $\rho \rightarrow 0$, CES \rightarrow Cobb-Douglas.

$$u(x) = x_1^{d_1} x_2^{d_2}$$

c) $\rho \rightarrow \infty$, indifference curve become right angles.

or CES \rightarrow Leontief

$$u(x) = \min\{x_1, x_2\}$$

\downarrow a) for $\rho = 1$, $u(x) = d_1 x_1 + d_2 x_2$

that's the linear pref.
that we played with, a bit.

Indifference curves are defined as

by: $I(y) = \{x, u(x) = u(y)\}$

h) $\ell \rightarrow 0$.

$\lim_{\ell \rightarrow 0}$

$$\left(d_1 x_1^\ell + d_2 x_2^\ell \right)^{1/\ell}$$

what is the definition of a limit ??

~~lim~~

$$\left(d_1 x_1^\ell + d_2 x_2^\ell \right)^{1/\ell} = \exp \left(\frac{1}{\ell} \ln \left(d_1 x_1^\ell + d_2 x_2^\ell \right) \right)$$

this is continuous,
so it will preserve limits!

$$d_1 x_1^\ell + d_2 x_2^\ell \longrightarrow d_1 + d_2$$

of $d_1 + d_2$, we thus have.

$$\frac{1}{\ell} \ln \left(d_1 x_1^\ell + d_2 x_2^\ell \right) \longrightarrow \frac{0}{0}$$

INDETERMINATE

!!
g

Do we have some theorems that could help us solve indeterminate forms?

YES

L'Hôpital's rule.

$$\lim_{x \rightarrow c} \frac{f(x)}{g(x)} = \frac{f'(c)}{g'(c)}$$

Let f, g s.t. $f(c) = 0 = g(c)$.
and $g'(c) \neq 0$.

then

Proof:

$$\lim_{x \rightarrow c} \frac{f(x)}{g(x)}$$

what is the definition of a derivative?

$$f'(c) = \lim_{x \rightarrow c} \frac{f(x) - f(c)}{x - c}$$

So...
from $f(c) = 0 = g(c)$

$$\lim_{x \rightarrow c} \frac{f(x)}{g(x)} = \lim_{x \rightarrow c} \left(\frac{f(x) - f(c)}{x - c} \cdot \frac{x - c}{g(x) - g(c)} \right)$$

assuming $g'(c) \neq 0$.

$$\implies \lim_{x \rightarrow c} \frac{f(x)}{g(x)} = \frac{\lim_{x \rightarrow c} \frac{f(x) - f(c)}{x - c}}{\lim_{x \rightarrow c} \frac{g(x) - g(c)}{x - c}}$$

$$\left[= \frac{f'(c)}{g'(c)} \right]$$

□

→ Apply it to our problem!

$$\frac{1}{e} \lim_{e \rightarrow 0} (d_2 x_2^e + d_2 x_2^e) \xrightarrow{e \rightarrow 0} ?$$

" $g(e)$ ".

we have. $f(e) \xrightarrow{e \rightarrow 0} 0$
 $g(e) \xrightarrow{e \rightarrow 0} 0$

and. $g'(e) = 1 \xrightarrow{e \rightarrow 0} 0$

$$f'(e) = ?? \dots$$

11/

$$f(t) = \ln(d_1 x_1^t + d_2 x_2^t)$$

$$f'(t) = \frac{(d_1 x_1^t + d_2 x_2^t)'}{d_1 x_1^t + d_2 x_2^t} \quad \ln' = \frac{1}{\cdot}$$

$$\frac{d}{dt}(d_1 x_1^t) = \frac{d}{dt} e^{t \ln x_1} = \ln x_1 \cdot e^{t \ln x_1}$$

$$\Rightarrow f'(t) = \frac{d_1 x_1^t \ln x_1 + d_2 x_2^t \ln x_2}{d_1 x_1^t + d_2 x_2^t}$$

$$\lim_{t \rightarrow 0} \frac{d_1 \ln x_1 + d_2 \ln x_2}{d_1 + d_2} = 1$$

$$\ln \left(\frac{d_1}{x_1} \frac{d_2}{x_2} \right)$$

$$\Rightarrow \lim_{t \rightarrow 0} (d_1 x_1^t + d_2 x_2^t)^{1/t} = \exp \left(\frac{f'(0)}{g'(0)} \right) = x_1^{d_1} x_2^{d_2} \quad \square$$

c) Show that $\rho \rightarrow \frac{\pi}{2}$ and difference angle became right angles.

$$u(x) \longrightarrow \min\{x_1, x_2\}.$$

continuity.

$$u(x) = \left(d_1 x_1^e + d_2 x_2^e \right)^{1/e} = \left(\frac{x_1}{x_2} \right)^{-e}.$$

if $x_1 < x_2$.

$$\sim d_1 x_1^e \left(1 + \frac{d_2}{d_1} \left(\frac{x_2}{x_1} \right)^e \right)$$

as $\rho \rightarrow \frac{\pi}{2}$.

$\rho \rightarrow \frac{\pi}{2}$.

0

So, $u(x) \sim d_1 x_1$

$\rho \rightarrow \frac{\pi}{2}$ x_1 .

if $x_2 > x_1$.

$$\implies u(x) \longrightarrow x_2$$

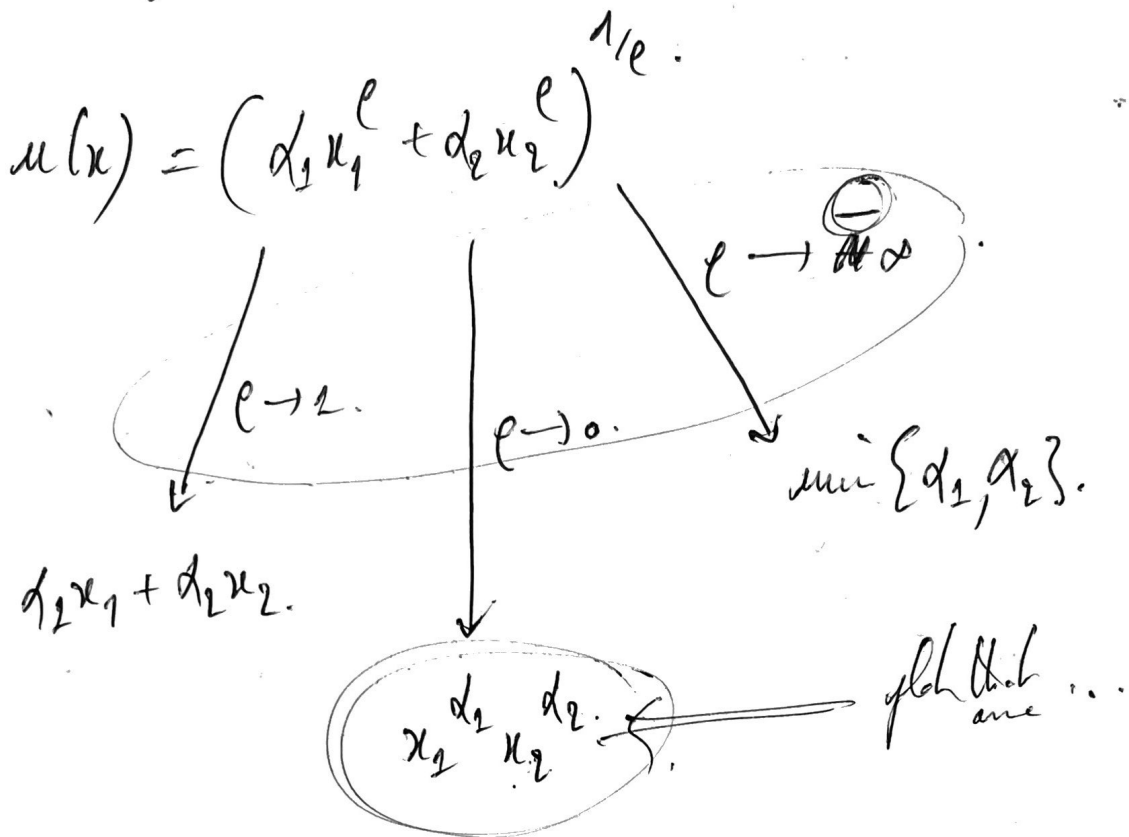
if $x_1 = x_2$.

$$\implies x_1 = x_2 \dots \dots \dots !!$$

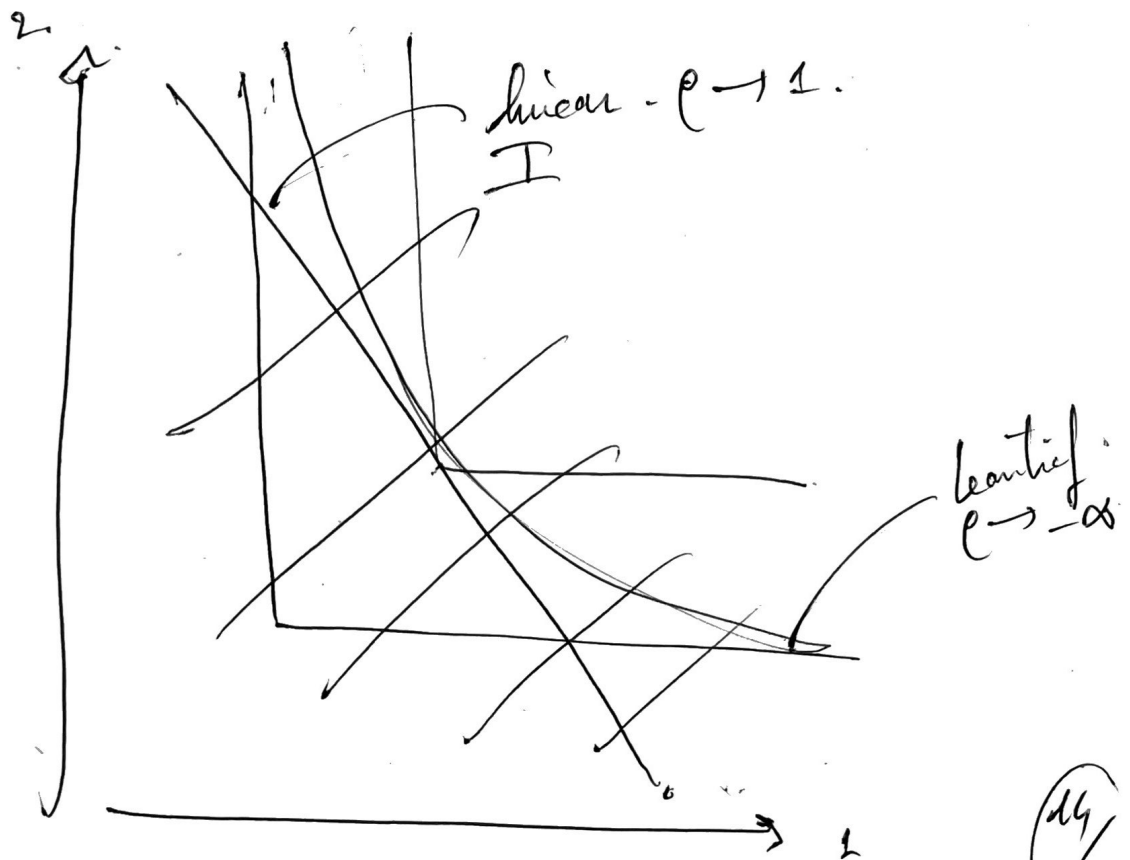
So $u(x) = \min\{x_1, x_2\}$.

□

Saving up.



DRAW THE INDIFFERENCE CURVES.



Cobb-Douglas

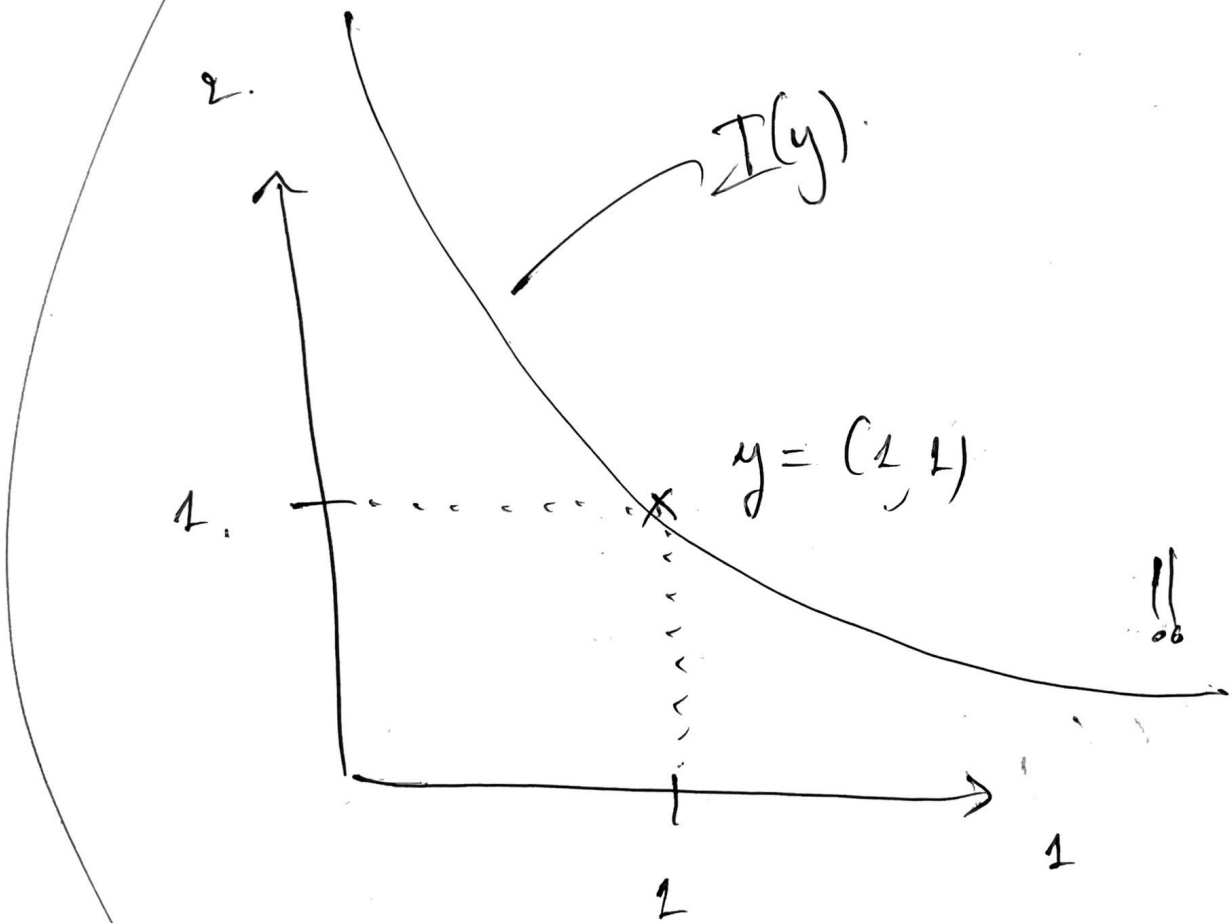
$$u(x) = x_1^{\alpha_1} x_2^{\alpha_2}$$

$$\alpha_1 + \alpha_2 = 1$$

$$\text{hence } \alpha_1 = \alpha_2 = \frac{1}{2}$$

Draw $I(y)$

for, e.g. $y = (1, 1)$

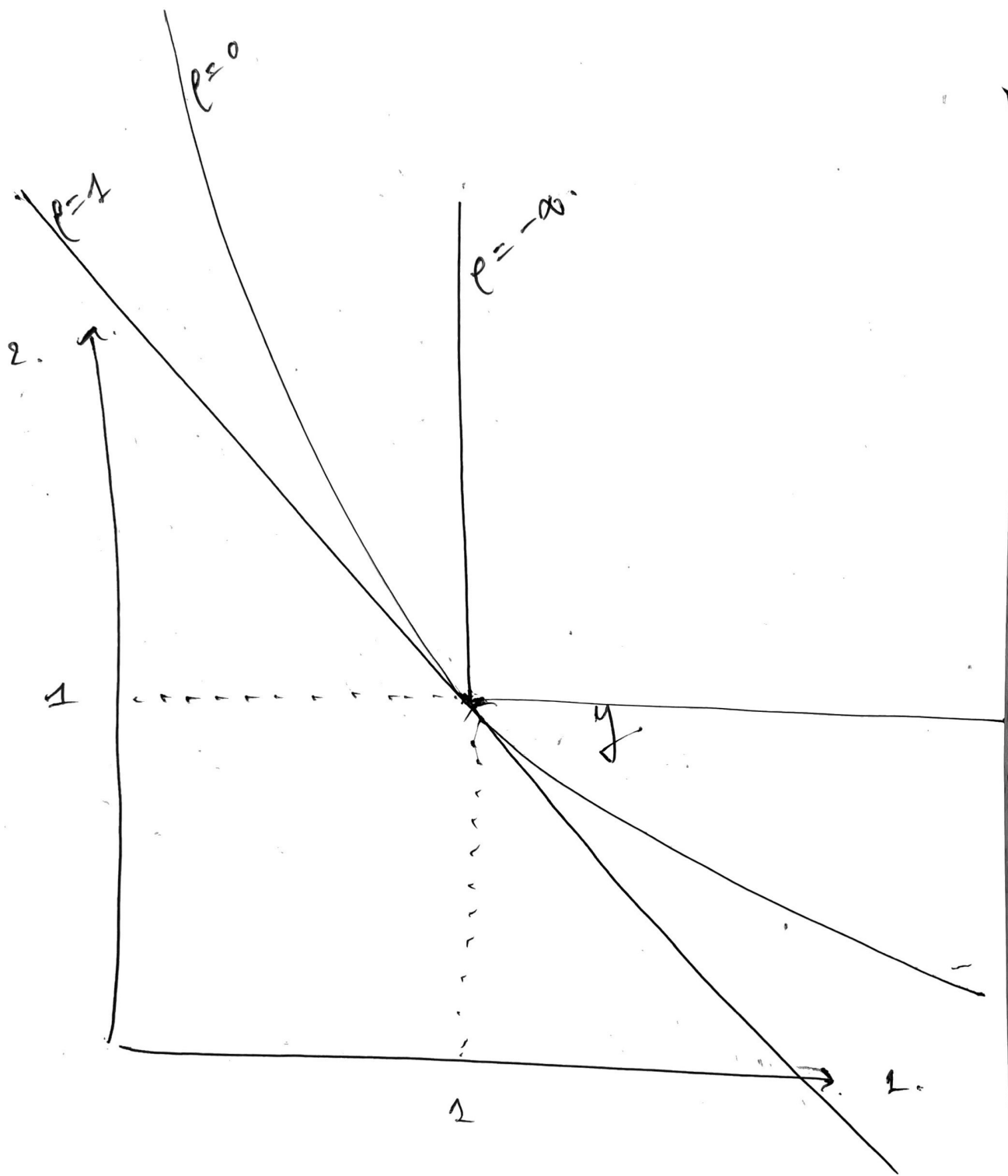


$$I(y) = \left\{ x, \begin{matrix} x_1^{\alpha_1} x_2^{\alpha_2} = C \\ x_1^{\frac{1}{2}} x_2^{\frac{1}{2}} = 1 \end{matrix} \right\}$$

$$= \left\{ x, x_2 = \frac{1}{x_1} \right\}$$

⊗ is number of $y \in I(y)$

(because 2 reference)



On wednesday, we'll solve C7 and C8, and we'll spend some time studying the properties of the linear and Cauchy prof

16,

EXTRA.

Prop. Σ continuous AND monotonicus
 $\implies \Sigma$ representable.

See HWB.
Prop. 30.1 1.17.

$$e = (1, \rightarrow)^{\perp}.$$

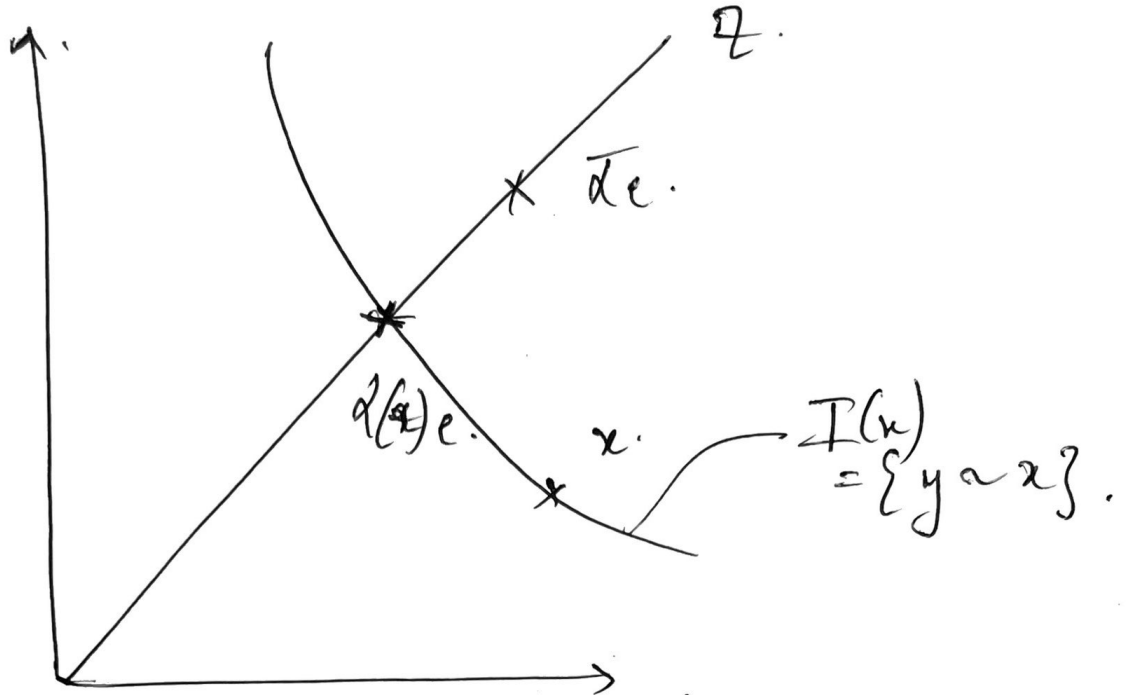
$\forall e \in Z \forall \alpha \geq 0$. \hookrightarrow defines Z .

Σ monotonic iff
 $\# x \gg_{\mathbb{N}} y \implies x \succ_{\Sigma} y$

\implies So. $\forall x \in \mathbb{N}_+^l$. $x \succ 0$.
(\leftarrow)

$\forall \alpha$ s.th. $\bar{\alpha} e \gg x$,
we have. $\bar{\alpha} e \succ x$.

2.



⇒ 1 from monotonicity and continuity

locally monotonic
 indifference curves
 are NOT THICK!

how to use it?

we can show that there is
 a unique $d(x)$
 s.t.

$$d(x) \sim x$$

WHERE DO WE
 USE THE FACT
 THAT IT IS CONTINUOUS ??

§

Σ CONTINUOUS.
 $\iff \forall y \quad U(y) \text{ and } L(y)$
are closed.

AND, remember.

the whole set.
 $X = U(y) \cup L(y).$

$$I(y) = U(y) \cap L(y).$$

\implies so ...
 $I(y) = \{x \mid y\}.$

How can I prove that it closes.

* use the completeness of Σ .

hence the sets.
 $\{d; d \in \Sigma x\}$
and $\{d; d \in \Sigma x\}$
are non empty ??

Micro 1A.

COMPUTING LIMITS.

September 27, 2023.

Quick note on the notation I wanted to use, because it is very handy

NOTATIONS

We write $f(x) \sim g(x)$
 $x \rightarrow c$

and we say f is "equivalent" to g .
(when $x \rightarrow c$.)

to say that $\lim_{x \rightarrow c} \frac{f(x)}{g(x)} = 1$.

Example: $x + x^2 \sim x$
 $x \rightarrow 0$.

because. $\frac{x + x^2}{x} = 1 + x \xrightarrow{x \rightarrow 0} 1$

We write: $f(x) = o(g(x))$
 $x \rightarrow c$

to say that $\lim_{x \rightarrow c} \frac{f(x)}{g(x)} = 0$.

So f is "negligible" w.r.t. g (when $x \rightarrow c$).

(or, equivalently, $\lim_{x \rightarrow c} \frac{g(x)}{f(x)} = \pm \infty$.)

i.e. g grows (in absolute value) much faster than f when $x \rightarrow c$.

or. f "decays" much faster than g when $x \rightarrow c$.

We write $f(x) = O(g(x))$
 to say that $\lim_{x \rightarrow c} \frac{f(x)}{g(x)} = M$

i.e. f is "dominated"
 by g when $x \rightarrow c$.

\Downarrow

equivalently, we can write.

$$f(x) \sim_{x \rightarrow c} M g(x)$$

with M finite.

$$c \in \mathbb{R} \setminus \{\pm\infty\}.$$

\oplus note that f dominated by g
 $\implies g$ dominated by f .

The "equivalence" $f(x) \sim_{x \rightarrow c} g(x)$.

can also be written.

$$f(x) = g(x) + o(g(x)).$$

(or $f(x)$, equivalently).

negligible w.r.t.
 $g(x)$ when $x \rightarrow c$.

s.th. we indeed have.

$$\lim_{x \rightarrow c} \frac{f(x)}{g(x)} = 1.$$

USAGE

These concepts and notations.
(of equivalence, dominance, and negligibility)
 \sim $o(\cdot)$ $O(\cdot)$

are very useful to compute limits easily,
using approximations.

Consider, for instance, Taylor series.

$$f(x) = \sum_{k \geq 0} \frac{f^{(k)}(a)}{k!} (x-a)^k$$

+ ∞
i.e. $\sum_{k=0}^{\infty}$

We can write:

$$f(x) = \sum_{k=0}^n \frac{f^{(k)}(a)}{k!} (x-a)^k + o((x-a)^n)$$

or:

$$f(x) = \sum_{k=0}^n \frac{f^{(k)}(a)}{k!} (x-a)^k + O((x-a)^{n+1})$$

i.e. all the rest of the series which is negligible w.r.t. the "smallest" term of the left hand side series $(x-a)^n$ as $x \rightarrow a$.

i.e. all the rest of the series, $\sum_{k=n+1}^{\infty} \frac{f^{(k)}(a)}{k!} (x-a)^k$ which is dominated by $(x-a)^{n+1}$ when $x \rightarrow a$.

We call these LIMITED
series expansions

For instance, you do not have to know, e.g.,
the "full" series expansion of

$$x \mapsto e^x, \ln(1+x), \cos x, \sin x,$$

which are:

$$e^x = \sum_{k \geq 0} \frac{x^k}{k!}; \quad \ln(1+x) = \sum_{k \geq 1} (-1)^{k+1} \frac{x^k}{k};$$

$$\cos x = \sum_{k \geq 0} (-1)^k \frac{x^{2k}}{(2k)!}; \quad \sin x = \sum_{k \geq 0} (-1)^k \frac{x^{2k+1}}{(2k+1)!}$$

(although you can easily find these
by computing $f', f'', \dots, f^{(n)}$ and
guessing the form of the series by
INDUCTION)

BUT you really do want to know
their "LIMITED" expansion, up to a few terms,
at least the first one, i.e. ...

$$\boxed{e^x = 1 + x + \mathcal{O}(x^2)}_{x \rightarrow 0} = 1 + \mathcal{O}(x)$$

$$\underset{x \rightarrow 0}{=} 1 + x + \frac{x^2}{2} + \mathcal{O}(x^3)$$

$$\boxed{\ln(1+x) = x + \mathcal{O}(x^2)}_{x \rightarrow 0} = x - \frac{x^2}{2} + \mathcal{O}(x^3)$$

$$\boxed{\cos x = 1 + \mathcal{O}(x^2)}_{x \rightarrow 0} = 1 - \frac{x^2}{2} + \mathcal{O}(x^4)$$

$$\boxed{\sin x = x + \mathcal{O}(x^3)}_{x \rightarrow 0} = x - \frac{x^3}{6} + \mathcal{O}(x^5)$$

Exercise: you might also want to know the limited expansion:

$$(1+x)^d = 1 + dx + O(x^2)$$

We can show it using the limited expansions of e^y and $\ln(1+x)$.

$$(1+x)^d = e^{d \ln(1+x)} = e^{d(x + O(x^2))} = 1 + dx + O(x^2)$$

□

You certainly want to know the "full" expansion of the geometric series.

$$\frac{1}{1-x} = \sum_{k=0}^{+\infty} x^k$$

APPLICATIONS. ||

Go back to exercises (C16) b) and c),

We could for instance compute (C16) b) without knowing L'Hôpital's rule!

(16) d).

Show. CES $\xrightarrow{\rho \rightarrow 0}$ Cobb-Douglas.
 $u(x) = (d_1 x_1^\rho + d_2 x_2^\rho)^{1/\rho}$ with $d_1 + d_2 = 1$.
 $u(x) = x_1^{d_1} x_2^{d_2}$.

We could write

$$(d_1 x_1^\rho + d_2 x_2^\rho)^{1/\rho}$$

using the "LIMITED" expansion of exp.

$$d_i x_i^\rho = d_i e^{\rho \ln x_i} \underset{\rho \rightarrow 0}{=} d_i (1 + \rho \ln x_i + O(\rho^2))$$

for both $i=1,2$.

So.

$$(d_1 x_1^\rho + d_2 x_2^\rho)^{1/\rho} \underset{\rho \rightarrow 0}{=} \left(\underbrace{d_1 + d_2}_{=1} + \underbrace{(d_1 \ln x_1 + d_2 \ln x_2)}_{\ln(x_1^{d_1} x_2^{d_2})} \rho + O(\rho^2) \right)^{1/\rho}$$

$$\underset{\rho \rightarrow 0}{=} 1 + \ln(x_1^{d_1} x_2^{d_2}) \rho + O(\rho^2)$$

$$\underset{\rho \rightarrow 0}{=} \exp\left(\frac{1}{\rho} \ln(1 + \ln(x_1^{d_1} x_2^{d_2}) \rho + O(\rho^2))\right)$$

$$\underset{\rho \rightarrow 0}{=} \exp\left(\frac{1}{\rho} (\rho \ln(x_1^{d_1} x_2^{d_2}) + O(\rho^2))\right)$$

$$\underset{\rho \rightarrow 0}{=} \exp\left(\ln(x_1^{d_1} x_2^{d_2}) + O(\rho)\right)$$

using the "LIMITED" expansion of $\ln(1+u)$.

$$\underset{\rho \rightarrow 0}{=} x_1^{d_1} x_2^{d_2} + O(\rho)$$

$$\underset{\rho \rightarrow 0}{=} O(1)$$

is something that tends to 0. $\frac{6}{7}$

Q.

likewise for (16) c).

Show.

$$CES \xrightarrow{e \rightarrow -\infty} \text{Leontief} \\ u(x) = \min\{x_1, x_2\}.$$

We have:

$$d_1 x_1^e + d_2 x_2^e = \begin{cases} d_1 x_1^e \left(1 + \underbrace{\frac{d_2}{d_1} \left(\frac{x_2}{x_1} \right)^{-e}}_{< 1} \right) \underset{e \rightarrow -\infty}{\sim} d_1 x_1^e & \text{if } \underline{x_1 < x_2} \\ d_2 x_2^e \left(\underbrace{\frac{d_1}{d_2} \left(\frac{x_1}{x_2} \right)^{-e}}_{< 1} + 1 \right) \underset{e \rightarrow -\infty}{\sim} d_2 x_2^e & \text{if } \underline{x_2 < x_1} \end{cases}$$

So...

$$\lim_{e \rightarrow -\infty} (d_1 x_1^e + d_2 x_2^e)^{1/e} = \begin{cases} x_1 & \text{if } x_1 < x_2 \\ x_2 & \text{if } x_2 < x_1. \end{cases}$$

(using that $d_i^{1/e} \xrightarrow{e \rightarrow -\infty} 0$, $i=1,2$.)

(and, for $\underline{x_1 = x_2}$, we have.

$$u(x) = (d_1 x_1^e + d_2 x_2^e)^{1/e} = \left(\underbrace{(d_1 + d_2)}_{=1} x_1^e \right)^{1/e} = x_1 \quad (\forall e.)$$

$$\text{So... } \lim_{e \rightarrow -\infty} u(x) = \min\{x_1, x_2\}$$

□. 7/7