### Preferences & Utility

#### ECON 410

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- Economics is all about optimal decision making
- People, firms, and governments are often faced with a set of alternatives which they must decide between
  - Students decide which college major to pick
  - Firms decide how to price their goods
  - Governments decide what to set the corporate tax rate to
- Their ultimate decision will depend on their *preferences* over the set of alternatives
- In this section, we'll outline the mathematical foundations of modeling preferences

#### Why are Models Useful?



- Prior to launching a rocket, scientists model the rocket's dynamics
- Why?
  - Can assess the impact of the rocket's shape, weight, etc. on its performance
  - Can assess the impact of factors such as weather on the flight trajectory
- To ensure no surprises at time of launch, many simulations are run beforehand

- What we do in economics is very similar
- We write down models of individual & firm economic behavior
- Using these models, we can assess the impact of various economic policies on individual & firm decision making
  - Impact of minimum wage changes?
  - Impact of subsidized college?
  - Impact of fossil fuel taxes?
- This process helps companies, individuals, governments, etc. make informed decisions prior to adopting any new policies

# Preferences

We start with a set of alternatives X

- Ex: X = {*Economics*, *English*, *Biology*}... what major to pick?
- Ex: X = {Chicken, Pasta, Salad}... what to have for lunch?
- Ex:  $X = [0, \infty)$ ... how many dollars to invest in the stock market?
- The set of alternatives contains all things which a decision maker (DM) is choosing between
- We refer to X often as the DM's choice set
- X can be discrete (ex.  $X = \{a, b, c\}$ ) or continuous (ex.  $X = [0, \infty)$ )
  - Usually, we'll work with continuous choice sets

- We need a way to describe a DM's *preferences* over the set of alternatives
- Take two elements x and y in the set of alternatives X
- If x is preferred to y, we use the notation:

 $x \succ y$ 

- Examples:
  - Apple  $\succ$  Banana
  - Chocolate  $\succ$  Vanilla
  - \$10 ≻ \$5

- The preference relation  $\succ$  orders the elements of X based upon the DM's preferences
- $\succ$  completely characterizes the DM's preferences over X
- If X = {apple, orange, banana}, a preference over X could be:
  apple ≻ banana, banana ≻ orange, apple ≻ orange

- A DM may prefer x to y  $(x \succ y)$  or prefer y to x  $(y \succ x)$
- Another possibility is that the DM may be *indifferent* between x and y
- If the DM is indifferent between x and y, they think x is exactly as good as y
- If a DM is indifferent between x and y, we use the notation:

 $x \sim y$ 

- Suppose we are face with choice set  $X = \{a, b\}$
- If *a* is preferred to *b*:
  - a ≻ b
- If b is preferred to a:
  - b≻a
- If we are indifferent between a and b:
  - $a \sim b$

- With only two alternatives *a* and *b*, writing out a preference ordering is simple
- But with many alternatives, writing out a preference ordering can quickly become very messy
  - For example, how could I possibly write my preference ordering over dollars in  $[0,\infty)$ ?
- Thankfully, there is a much easier way to represent preferences than explicitly writing out the preference ordering
- We can encode a preference into a *utility function*

- Before discussing utility functions, we'll need to define *rationality*It will soon be clear why
- Rationality is a very important concept in economics
- Many people misunderstand what rationality means in economics
- Before defining rationality, we need to introduce two concepts:
  - Completeness
  - 2 Transitivity

• Given a set of alternatives X, a preference  $\succ$  over X is complete if:

$$x\succ x'\;,\;x'\succ x\;,\;{
m or}\;\;x\sim x'\;\;{
m for}\;{
m all}\;\;x,x'\in X$$

- In words: a preference is complete if all of the relevant alternatives are comparable
- For example, let  $X = \{a, b, c\}$
- An example of a complete preference ranking is:
  - $a \succ b, b \succ c, a \succ c$
- An example of an incomplete preference is:
  - $a \succ^* b$ ,  $a \succ^* c$
  - $\succ^*$  takes no stand on the ranking of b and c

Given set of alternatives X = {a, b, c}, a preference ≻ over X is transitive if:

$$a \succ b, b \succ c \rightarrow a \succ c$$

- In words: a preference is transitive if a ≻ b and b ≻ c imply that a ≻ c
- An example of a transitive preference is:
  - $a \succ b, b \succ c, a \succ c$
- An example of an intransitive preference is:
  - $a \succ b, b \succ c, c \succ a$
  - "Cyclical" preferences like this are never transitive

#### Definition

A preference relation  $\succ$  is *rational* if it is complete and transitive.

- Completeness and transitivity are two very mild restrictions on preferences
  - Just require everything to be rankable, and for the ranking to not be cyclical
- Why do we bother with the notion of rationality?

#### Theorem

A preference relation  $\succ$  can be represented by a utility function only if it is rational.

- Preference relations are complicated
- We can take a DM's preference ≻ and encode it in a *utility function*, which is much easier to work with
- A utility function u : X → ℝ is a function mapping from the set of alternatives X to the real numbers ℝ
  - Simply assigns a "utility value" to each alternative in X
- Let's explore utility functions in more detail

- A utility function u : X → ℝ is a function mapping from the set of alternatives X to the real numbers ℝ
- Importantly, utility functions satisfy the condition:

$$u(x) > u(y) \iff x \succ y$$

- Utility from x is larger than utility from y if and only if x if preferred to y
- Rather than keeping track of the explicit preference ordering, we assign numeric values to all alternatives, where better alternatives get higher values

• For  $X = \{a, b, c\}$ , my preferences may be:  $a \succ b$ ,  $b \succ c$ ,  $a \succ c$ 

• A utility function representing these preferences could be:

$$u(x) = \begin{cases} 6 & \text{if } x = a \\ 4 & \text{if } x = b \\ 2 & \text{if } x = c \end{cases}$$

- u(x) preserves my preference ordering over *a*, *b*, and *c*
- Importantly, for a given preference ≻, there is not a *unique* utility function which represents it

• Another utility function representing my preferences could be:

$$u_2(x) = \begin{cases} 3 & \text{if } x = a \\ 2 & \text{if } x = b \\ 1 & \text{if } x = c \end{cases}$$

- u<sub>2</sub>(x) also preserves my preference ordering over a, b, and c, so is a perfectly valid representation of my preferences
- The actual value of utility is meaningless, only the ordering of alternatives matters
  - Ordinal interpretation, but no cardinal interpretation

#### Monotone Transformations of Utility

- In the previous example,  $u(x) = 2u_2(x)$ 
  - u(x) and  $u_2(x)$  represent the same preferences
- In fact, if u(x) represents preferences ≻, any monotone transformation of u(x) also represents ≻
- If g(x) is a monotone transformation of u(x), then:

$$g(a) > g(b) \iff u(a) > u(b)$$

- Monotone transformations are order-preserving transformations
- For example, the two utility functions represent the same preferences:

$$u_1(x) = x$$
  
$$u_2(x) = \alpha + \beta x \quad \beta > 0$$

#### Utility Functions (Example #2)

- Let's denote the amount of money I have by x
- I prefer more money to less, for example 10 > 5
- Some utility functions representing my preference over money could be:



- If I were to consume one more unit of x, how would my utility change?
- To answer this, we revisit the concept of a derivative from calculus
- For a given function y = f(x), we denote its derivative by  $\frac{dy}{dx}$
- $\frac{dy}{dx}$  gives the change in y following a 1 unit increase in x
- Example: y = 2x

• 
$$\frac{dy}{dx} = 2$$

• In words: if x increases by 1, y increases by 2

- We can do the exact same thing with utility functions
- Suppose my preferences over x are represented by: u(x) = 3 + 4x
- If I increase my consumption of x by 1, the resulting change in my utility is  $\frac{du}{dx} = 4$ 
  - In words: consuming 1 more x increases my utility by 4
- We refer to the quantity  $\frac{du}{dx}$  as the marginal utility of x
- Frequently, we'll write  $MU_x = \frac{du}{dx}$  to simplify notation

#### Marginal Utility

• For example, if 
$$u(x) = 4x + 1$$
, then:

$$MU_x = \frac{du}{dx} = 4$$

- If x increases by 1, u(x) increases by 4
- Alternatively, if  $u(x) = 3x^{\frac{1}{3}}$ , then:

$$MU_x = \frac{du}{dx} = x^{-\frac{2}{3}}$$

- If x increases by 1, u(x) increases by  $x^{-\frac{2}{3}}$
- Notice that  $MU_x$  can depend on the actual value of x

- If a good increases utility, we refer to it as a good good
- If a good decreases utility, we refer to is as a *bad* good
- Suppose we are given a utility function u(x). How do we tell if x is a good or a bad?
- Answer: check the sign of the marginal utility
  - If  $MU_x > 0$ , consuming more x increases utility  $\rightarrow x$  is a good good
  - If  $MU_x < 0$ , consuming more x decreases utility  $\rightarrow x$  is a bad good

- Suppose my utility from consumption of pickles is  $u(p) = -p^2$
- The marginal utility of an additional pickle is:

$$MU_p = \frac{du}{dp} = -2p < 0$$

- $MU_p < 0$ , so pickles are "bads" in this case
- Consuming pickles decreases my utility
   The less pickles I consume, the better

#### "Goods" and "Bads"

- Suppose my utility from consumption of chocolate is  $u(c) = \sqrt{c}$
- The marginal utility of an additional chocolate is:

$$MU_{c} = \frac{du}{dc} = \frac{1}{2}c^{-\frac{1}{2}} > 0$$

- $MU_c > 0$ , so chocolate is a "good" good
- Consuming chocolate increases my utility
  - The more chocolate I consume, the better
- Notice that as I mentioned before,  $MU_c$  depends on c
  - Marginal utility differs depending on how much *c* I am already consuming

### Diminishing Marginal Utility



• Given the utility function  $u(c) = \sqrt{c}$ :

- The first unit of c increases u by 1 ( $MU_c = 1$ )
- But, the second unit of c only increases u by  $\approx .5~(MU_c \approx .5)$
- $u(c) = \sqrt{c}$  exhibits diminishing marginal utility
- I always like c, but I like each additional unit < the previous one

- Diminishing marginal utility captures the natural case when a DM likes something, but likes it less and less the more they consume
  - Ex: first slice of pizza is great, but after 5 I start getting tired of it
- How do we tell if a utility function u(x) exhibits diminishing marginal utility?
  - Compute *MU<sub>x</sub>*
  - See if it diminishes with x: Does  $\frac{dMU_x}{dx} < 0$ ?
- If  $\frac{dMU_x}{dx} < 0$ , then u(x) exhibits diminishing marginal utility
- Equivalently, if  $\frac{d^2u}{dx^2} < 0$ , then u(x) exhibits diminishing marginal utility

- Alternatively, there may be cases where a DM likes something more and more the more they consume
- Their marginal utility increases in this case
- Similar to before, if  $\frac{dMU_x}{dx} > 0$ , then u(x) exhibits increasing marginal utility
  - I like x, and I like x more and more the more I consume
- Equivalently, if  $\frac{d^2u}{dx^2} > 0$ , then u(x) exhibits increasing marginal utility

- Marginal utility can also be constant
- In particular, utility functions of the form: u = a + bx will always have constant marginal utility
- Notice that  $MU_x = b$ , so  $\frac{dMU_x}{dx} = 0$
- Linear utility functions exhibit constant marginal utility

## Marginal Utility - Summary



- Convex utility functions exhibit increasing MU
- Concave utility functions exhibit decreasing MU
- Linear utility functions exhibit constant MU
- Diminishing MU will be the case we see most often

#### Multivariable Utility Functions



- Most of the time in this class, we will focus on utility functions which depend on two variables: u(x, y)
- *Trade offs* are an important consideration in economics, and are difficult to talk about with only one good
- With two goods, we can say quite a bit about optimal behavior in the face of trade offs

- Given a utility function u(x, y), computing the marginal utility of x and y works very much the same as before
- Rather than taking "normal" derivatives, we take *partial* derivatives:

$$MU_{y} = \frac{\partial u}{\partial y}$$
$$MU_{x} = \frac{\partial u}{\partial x}$$

- Increasing y by 1 increases u by  $\frac{\partial u}{\partial y}$ , all else equal (ceteris paribus)
- Increasing x by 1 increases u by  $\frac{\partial u}{\partial x}$ , all else equal (ceteris paribus)



- If we fix the level of utility to u(x, y) = 5, we see that there is a curve of (x, y) combinations along this level of u(x, y)
- Any (x, y) combination on this curve yields u(x, y) = 5



• This gives a *level curve* of u(x, y)

- All combinations of (x, y) yielding the same *level* of u(x, y)
- Each point on the curve is a potential "bundle" of (x, y) we can consume
- Each (x, y) combination along this curve gives us the same utility **ECON 410**



• If (x, y) and (x', y') are two points on the curve above:

$$(x,y) \sim (x',y')$$

• We refer to these curves as indifference curves



• Each indifference curve corresponds to a different level of utility u

• Importantly, indifference curves can never cross

#### Slope of Indifference Curves



- What is the slope of an indifference curve?
- The slope of an indifference curve is given by the ratio of marginal utilities (times -1):

$$slope(IC) = -\frac{MU_x}{MU_y} = -MRS$$

$$MRS = \frac{MU_x}{MU_y} = \frac{\frac{\partial u}{\partial x}}{\frac{\partial u}{\partial y}} = \frac{\partial u}{\partial x}\frac{\partial y}{\partial u} = \frac{\partial y}{\partial x}$$

- The MRS tells us how y changes with x, holding u constant
- In other words: if I increased my consumption of x, how would I have to change my consumption of y in order to leave utility unchanged?
- The MRS reveals a lot about the trade off DMs face between x and y
- To see this, let's continue talking about the slope of ICs

$$slope(IC) = -rac{MU_x}{MU_y}$$

- Back to the slope of ICs
- Notice that the sign of the slope is determined by the signs of MU<sub>x</sub> and MU<sub>y</sub>
- In other words: whether the ICs slope up or down depends on whether x and y are goods or bads

### Slope of Indifference Curves (Two Goods)



- If  $MU_x > 0$  and  $MU_y > 0$ , MRS will be > 0 and slope(IC) will be < 0
- In words: if x and y are both good goods, ICs will slope downwards
- Downward slope represents a trade off:
  - In order to keep utility fixed, if I gain some x I must give up some y
- Utility increases as we move to the top right

### Slope of Indifference Curves (Two Bads)



- If  $MU_x < 0$  and  $MU_y < 0$  (two bads), slope(IC) will again be < 0
- Utility increases as we move towards the origin
  - The less I consume, the better
- Won't really consider this case much

### Slope of Indifference Curves (y Good, x Bad)



- If  $MU_x < 0$  and  $MU_y > 0$ , slope(IC) > 0
- With one good and one bad, ICs slope upwards
- Intuition: if you force me to consume more x, you must compensate me with y in order to leave my utility unchanged

### Slope of Indifference Curves (y Bad, x Good)



- If  $MU_x > 0$  and  $MU_y < 0$ , slope(IC) > 0
- Mirror case of previous slide: we want to increase x and decrease y as much as possible

#### Curvature of Indifference Curves

- So far, we've looked at the slope of ICs
  - Whether ICs slope up or down depends on whether x and y are good/bad
- What about the curvature of ICs?
  - i.e. when are ICs convex/concave/linear?
- For a given utility function, the curvature of its ICs will have important implications in the sections to come
- When discussing the curvature of ICs, let's restrict attention to the case when  $MU_x > 0$  and  $MU_y > 0$  (so MRS > 0 and slope(IC) < 0)

#### Curvature of Indifference Curves



- Convex ICs  $\rightarrow$  IC gets flatter as x increases
- Concave ICs  $\rightarrow$  IC gets steeper as x increases
- Linear ICs  $\rightarrow$  constant slope as x increases

$$slope(IC) = -MRS$$

- Recall the IC slope formula
- And recall that we are assuming MRS > 0 (ICs slope down)
- The smaller the magnitude of the MRS, the flatter the IC



- For a convex IC, as x increases, magnitude of *slope*(*IC*) decreases
- This requires:

$$\frac{\partial MRS}{\partial x} < 0$$

• IC is convex if MRS decreases with x



- For a convex IC, as x increases, magnitude of *slope*(*IC*) increases
- This requires:

 $\frac{\partial MRS}{\partial x} > 0$ 

• IC is concave if MRS increases with x

#### Linear IC



- For a convex IC, as x increases, magnitude of slope(IC) remains constant
- This requires:

$$\frac{\partial MRS}{\partial x} = 0$$

• IC is linear if MRS does not change with x

- For a given utility function u(x, y), to determine whether its ICs are convex, concave, or linear:
  - Derive the MRS
  - Check the sign of  $\frac{\partial MRS}{\partial x}$
- If  $\frac{\partial \textit{MRS}}{\partial x} < 0 \rightarrow \textit{IC}$  is convex
- If  $\frac{\partial MRS}{\partial x} > 0 \rightarrow IC$  is concave
- If  $\frac{\partial MRS}{\partial x} = 0 \rightarrow IC$  is linear

• We'll frequently encounter the following utility functions:

- Perfect substitutes: u(x, y) = ax + by
- Perfect complements:  $u(x, y) = min\{ax, by\}$
- Cobb Douglas:  $u(x, y) = cx^a y^b$
- Quasi-linear: u(x, y) = f(x) + by or u(x, y) = ax + f(y)
- Let's take a quick look at each
- We'll again assume x and y are both good goods in the slides that follow

$$u(x,y) = ax + by$$

- Perfect substitute utility is useful when the DM views x and y as perfectly substitutable
  - Butter vs. margarine
  - iPhone vs. Android
  - HP laptop vs. Dell laptop
- x and y do not complement each other, DM is fine consuming just x or just y
- Linear in both x and y
  - An implication: marginal utility of both goods is constant

#### Perfect Substitutes



• For perfect substitutes:

$$MRS = \frac{a}{b}$$

- $\frac{\partial MRS}{\partial x} = 0$ , so slope of IC does not change as we move from left to right
- ICs have constant slope as a result

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$$u(x, y) = min\{ax, by\}$$

- Perfect complements utility is useful when x and y are to be consumed in **fixed proportion**. For example:
  - One left shoe per right shoe
  - One scoop of peanut butter per one scoop of jelly
  - 4 wheels per one car
- Notice that if x = 0 or y = 0, u(x, y) = 0
  - Ex: if I have one left shoe and zero right shoes, I effectively have no shoes
- x and y must be consumer together in order to generate any utility

#### Perfect Complements



- A perfect complements utility function is shaped somewhat like a pyramid
- Fixing a level of utility, we see the resulting indifference curve looks "L-shaped"

#### Perfect Complements



- Perfect complements utility functions have L-shaped ICs
- Interpretation: utility only increases when x and y increase together. Increasing one but not the other has no impact on utility.

$$u(x,y) = cx^a y^b$$

- Above is the general form of the Cobb-Douglas utility function
- This one is very commonly used, and we'll see it over and over again in class
- One thing worth mentioning at this point: Cobb-Douglas utility always has strictly convex ICs

### Cobb Douglas Utility



- Cobb-Douglas ICs are always strictly convex
  - This fact will be useful later
- Cobb-Douglas is in a sense "in between" the two extreme cases of perfect substitutes and perfect complements

$$u(x, y) = f(x) + by$$
 or  $u(x, y) = ax + f(y)$ 

- Quasi-linear utility is linear in one good, and non-linear in the other
- Examples:

$$u(x, y) = \sqrt{x} + y$$
$$u(x, y) = 3x + \log(y)$$

- Not easy to see at this point, but QL utility is useful when a DM consumes the same amount of a good no matter their income
  - Ex: insulin

#### Quasi-Linear Utility



• Suppose that u(x, y) = f(x) + by

• For a given level of utility  $\bar{u}$ , quasi-linear ICs follow the formula:

$$y=\frac{1}{b}\big(\bar{u}-f(x)\big)$$

• ICs will be convex as long as f(x) is concave

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