

9. Competitive Equilibria and Welfare

- In this section, we define the idea of equilibrium in competitive markets.
- We will also define concepts of welfare.
- We will ask in what ways competitive markets affect the welfare of the people in those markets.

9.1 An Introduction to Markets

DEFINITION 9.1. Economics is the scientific study of human behavior associated with the production and distribution of the “necessities and conveniences of life.”

- The quoted phrase is from Adam Smith.
- Marx stressed that economics was about human behavior, not about things.

- **By scientific study, we mean a way of learning about the world through the use of the scientific method.**
 - **Whether or not economics as taught and studied in most of the world uses the scientific method is a question much debated by economists and philosophers of science.**
 - **If economics is a science, it is clearly a very difficult science.**
 - **An enormous number of variables.**
 - **Limited possibilities for experimentation.**
 - **Ideological pressure.**
 - **Difficulty in rejecting bad hypothesis.**
 - **Sometimes economics seems more like low-level mathematics than like a science.**
 - **Economists prove theorems.**

- **Production and distribution are the two principal classes of economic activities.**
- **Economic systems are codes of human behavior developed in society for organizing production and distribution activities.**
 - **Some of these codes are legal, enforceable by the coercive powers of the state.**
 - **Other codes are enforced by private economic incentives**
- **Economic systems help a society determine**
 - **what goods (and services) will be produced**
 - **how they will be produced**
 - **who gets various goods, and how much**
 - **who gives up the services used as inputs in production.**

- Some economic systems make use of **voluntary exchange** to distribute goods and services.
- Voluntary exchange is welfare improving for those who exchange.
 - Proof: it is voluntary.
 - If some person's welfare would not improve, he will not make the exchange.
 - Exceptions?
- Voluntary exchange may have negative effects on third parties.
 - Externalities related to the commodities that are exchanged.
 - Externalities of the economic and social system required for voluntary exchange.
 - The system shapes our lives!

- A **market** is a focal point for the voluntary exchange of specified commodities.
- People who want exchange the specified commodities meet at the market.
- Markets lower search costs.
- **Barter** is a system for direct exchange.
 - "Double coincidence of wants"
 - High search costs.
 - If markets are used, barter with n commodities requires markets for n^2 types of exchanges.

- **Selling and buying** is a system for exchange that uses a medium of exchange (money).
 - A two step process.
 - First you exchange the commodities you want to give up for money (selling)
 - Then you exchange money for the commodities that you want to acquire (buying)
 - You have to search twice rather than once (with barter), but search costs are much lower.
 - If markets are used, selling and buying n commodities requires markets for only n types of exchanges.

9.2 Models of Market Economies

DEFINITION 9.2. *The total initial endowment of an economy is a vector of commodities ω which is assumed to be available to the economy at the beginning of the period under examination.*

DEFINITION 9.3. *A household is a group of economic agents who make their economic decisions as a unit. [Give me a break!]*

DEFINITION 9.4. *An allocation is an assignment of commodities to households. An allocation is denoted by a vector of the form $\langle x_1, \dots, x_I \rangle$, where*

- I is the number of households,
- and each component x_i is a vector of commodities assigned to household i .

DEFINITION 9.5. An **initial allocation** specifies how the initial endowment is assigned to households. The initial allocation can be denoted by a vector of the form $\langle \omega_1, \dots, \omega_I \rangle$

- where ω_i is a vector of commodities belonging to household i at the beginning of the period,
- and where $\sum_i \omega_i = \omega$.

The vector ω_i may be called the initial endowment of household i .

DEFINITION 9.6. A **pure exchange economy** is an economy with an initial endowment ω_i defined for each household and in which voluntary exchange may occur among households.

- Voluntary exchange is the only economic activity modeled in an exchange economy.
- Voluntary exchange leads to a final allocation $\langle x_1, \dots, x_I \rangle$ among the households.

DEFINITION 9.7. An allocation $\langle x_1, \dots, x_I \rangle$ in a pure exchange economy is **feasible** if $\sum_i x_i \leq \omega$.

- Note that the final allocation in a pure exchange economy is always feasible.
- This is because exchange does not change the total amounts of the various commodities.
- Let $u_i(\cdot)$ denote the utility function of household i .
- Then $\langle u_1(x_1), \dots, u_I(x_I) \rangle$ is the **utility profile** induced by an allocation $\langle x_1, \dots, x_I \rangle$.

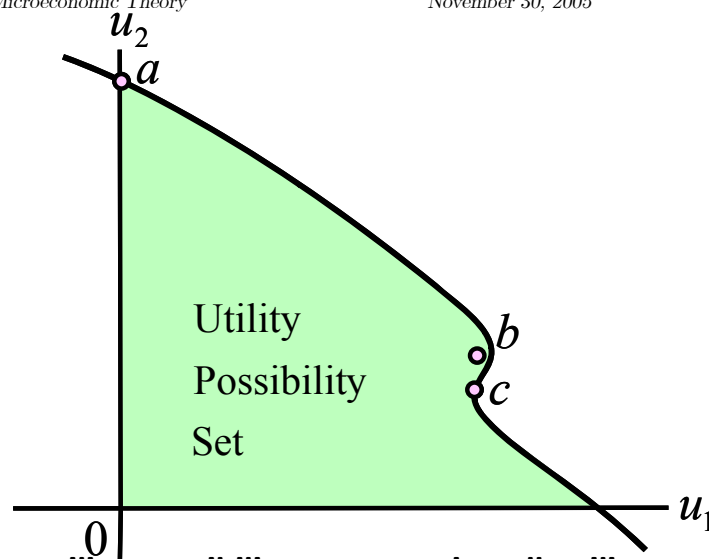
DEFINITION 9.8. An allocation $\langle x_1, \dots, x_I \rangle$ is said to **Pareto dominate** an allocation $\langle x'_1, \dots, x'_I \rangle$ if

$$\langle u_1(x_1), \dots, u_I(x_I) \rangle > \langle u_1(x'_1), \dots, u_I(x'_I) \rangle,$$

that is, if $\langle x_1, \dots, x_I \rangle$ leaves at least one household better off than $\langle x'_1, \dots, x'_I \rangle$ does, and leaves no household worse off. In this case, we say that $\langle x'_1, \dots, x'_I \rangle$ is **Pareto dominated** by $\langle x_1, \dots, x_I \rangle$.

DEFINITION 9.9. A feasible allocation is said to be **Pareto optimal (PO)** if it is not Pareto dominated by any other feasible allocation.

- If an allocation is not PO, then every household's utility can be increased.
- Non-PO allocations are inefficient, in the sense that utility is being wasted.
- PO allocations are better than the allocations they dominate, but they may be less desirable than other non-PO allocations.



- The above utility-possibility set contains all utility combinations induced by feasible allocations.
- c is on the utility frontier but it does not represent a PO allocation, because c is dominated by b .
- b is not on the frontier, so it cannot be PO.
- a is PO, but it may not be as desirable as either b or c , because one person has everything.

DEFINITION 9.10. In a pure exchange economy, the demand $x_i(\cdot)$ of household i with endowment ω_i is a correspondence that satisfies

- $x_i(p) = \operatorname{argmax}_{x_i} \{u_i(x_i) \mid px_i \leq p\omega_i\}$ (utility maximization),
and
- $px_i(p) = p\omega_i$ (Walras Law)

for all price vectors $p \in \mathbb{R}_+$.

- For now, we assume that for all i , $x_i(p)$ is a function.

DEFINITION 9.11. The excess demand of household i is given by $x_i(p) - \omega_i$.

DEFINITION 9.12. The excess supply of household i is given by $\omega_i - x_i(p)$, the negative of excess demand.

DEFINITION 9.13. A set of prices p is market clearing if the aggregate excess demand for each commodity ℓ is zero when p_ℓ is positive and nonpositive when $p_\ell = 0$, i.e. if

$$\begin{aligned} \sum_i [x_{i\ell}(p) - \omega_{i\ell}] &= 0 \text{ if } p_\ell > 0 \\ \sum_i [x_{i\ell}(p) - \omega_{i\ell}] &\leq 0 \text{ if } p_\ell = 0 \end{aligned}$$

Note that positive aggregate excess supply at a zero price is consistent with market-clearing prices.

DEFINITION 9.14. An allocation $\langle x_1, \dots, x_I \rangle$ is said to be supported by prices p if for all i , $x_i = x_i(p)$.

DEFINITION 9.15. Given an initial endowment $\langle \omega_1, \dots, \omega_I \rangle$, a **competitive equilibrium** of a pure exchange economy is a set of prices p^* and a nonnegative allocation $\langle x_1^*, \dots, x_I^* \rangle$ such that

- $\langle x_1^*, \dots, x_I^* \rangle$ is supported by p^* and
- p^* is market clearing.

• Later we will show:

PROPOSITION 9.1. (First Fundamental Theorem of Welfare Economics) Every competitive equilibrium yields a Pareto-optimal allocation.

PROPOSITION 9.2. (Second Fundamental Theorem of Welfare Economics) Under assumptions to be described later, every Pareto-optimal allocation can be implemented as a competitive equilibrium for some set of initial endowments.

9.3 Economies with Production and Exchange

- Let firms be denoted by the subscript j .
- Given the production set Y , supply (and derived demand when negative) $y_j(\cdot)$ of firm j is given by the vector that solves the profit maximization problem:

$$y_j(p) = \underset{y_j}{\operatorname{argmax}} \{ p y_j \mid y_j \in Y \}.$$

- Let θ_{ij} represent household i 's share of the profits of firm j , such that for all i , $\sum_i \theta_{ij} = 1$.

- In an economy with production and exchange, for all price vectors p , the demand $x_i(\cdot)$ of household i satisfies:

- utility maximization

$$x_i(p) = \operatorname{argmax}_{x_i} \{u_i(x_i) \mid px_i \leq p\omega_i + \sum_j \theta_{ij}py_j\}$$

- Walras' Law:

$$px_i(p) = p\omega_i + \sum_j \theta_{ij}py_j$$

DEFINITION 9.16. An allocation in an economy with production and exchange is an assignment of commodities to households and of production activities to firms, denoted by a vector of the form $\langle x_1, \dots, x_I, y_1, \dots, y_J \rangle$, where

- I is the number of households, and J is the number of firms;
- each x_i is a vector of commodities assigned to household i ;
- each y_j is the production activity of firm j .

DEFINITION 9.17. An allocation $\langle x_1, \dots, x_I, y_1, \dots, y_J \rangle$ is **feasible** if

$$\sum_i x_i = \omega + \sum_j y_j$$

and $y_j \in Y$ for all j .

DEFINITION 9.18. A feasible allocation $\langle x_1, \dots, x_I, y_1, \dots, y_J \rangle$ is said to be **supported** by prices p if for all i and j , $x_i \in x_i(p)$ and $y_j \in y_j(p)$.

DEFINITION 9.19. A set of prices p is **market clearing** if there is a feasible allocation $\langle x_1, \dots, x_I, y_1, \dots, y_J \rangle$ supported by prices p such that

$$\begin{aligned} \sum_i x_{i\ell} &= \sum_j y_{j\ell} + \sum_i \omega_{i\ell} \text{ when } p_\ell > 0 \\ \sum_i x_{i\ell} &\leq \sum_j y_{j\ell} + \sum_i \omega_{i\ell} \text{ when } p_\ell = 0 \end{aligned}$$

Note that positive aggregate excess supply at a zero price is consistent with market-clearing prices.

PROPOSITION 9.3. (Walras' Law for markets.) Suppose that Walras' law holds for demand. Then, if $p \gg 0$, and if all but one market clears, then the last market must clear also.

PROOF. Suppose, without loss of generality, that the market clears for all goods $\ell < L$.

- Walras' law requires that for each i ,

$$\begin{aligned} & \sum_{\ell < L} p_\ell x_{i\ell} + p_L x_{iL} \\ &= \sum_{\ell < L} p_\ell (\omega_{i\ell} + \sum_j \theta_{ij} y_{j\ell}) + p_L (\omega_{iL} + \sum_j \theta_{ij} y_{jL}) \end{aligned}$$

- so that

$$\begin{aligned} & \sum_{\ell < L} p_\ell (x_{i\ell} - \omega_{i\ell} - \sum_j \theta_{ij} y_{j\ell}) \\ &= -p_L (x_{iL} - \omega_{iL} - \sum_j \theta_{ij} y_{jL}) \end{aligned}$$

- It follows that:

$$\begin{aligned} & \sum_{\ell < L} p_{\ell} \left(\sum_i (x_{i\ell} - \omega_{i\ell}) - \sum_j y_{j\ell} \right) \\ &= -p_L \left(\sum_i (x_{iL} - \omega_{iL}) - \sum_j y_{jL} \right) \end{aligned}$$

- Recall that $p \gg 0$.
- By the assumption that markets clear for $\ell < L$, we know that all the terms in brackets on the left must be 0
- Since $p_L > 0$, the term in brackets on the right must also be 0.
- Thus the market for L clears as well. ■

DEFINITION 9.20. Given an initial endowment $\langle \omega_1, \dots, \omega_I \rangle$, a [general] competitive equilibrium of an economy with production and exchange is a set of prices p^* and a feasible allocation $\langle x_1^*, \dots, x_I^*, y_1^*, \dots, y_J^* \rangle$ such that

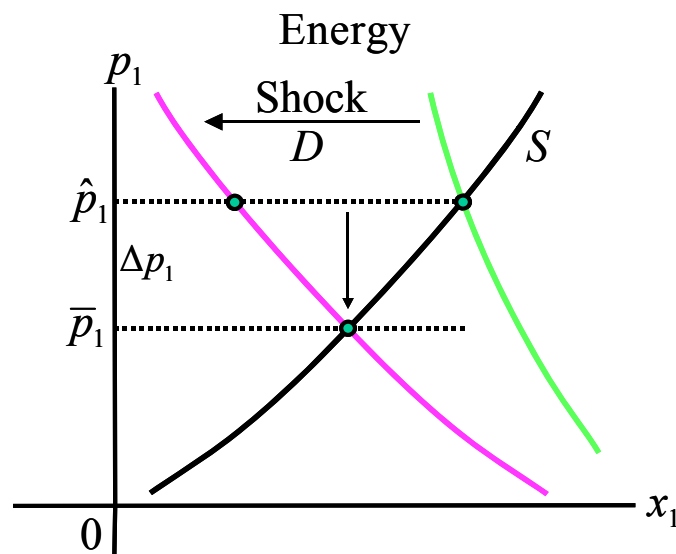
- $\langle x_1^*, \dots, x_I^*, y_1^*, \dots, y_J^* \rangle$ is supported by p^* and
- p^* is market clearing.

9.4 Partial- vs. General-Equilibrium Analysis

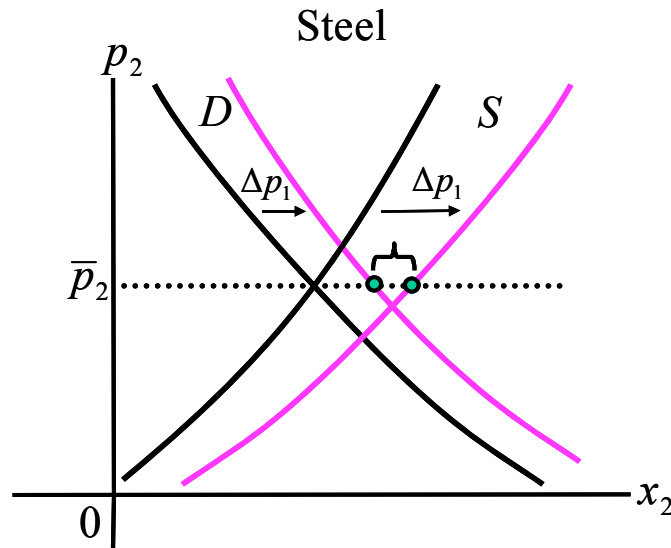
- **General equilibrium:** prices are such that **quantity supplied = quantity demanded** in markets for **all** goods
- **Partial equilibrium:** the prices are such that **quantity supplied = quantity demanded** in market for **one** good, with unknown situation in other markets.

- **Given**
 - an aggregate demand function $x(p_1, p_2, \dots, p_L)$
 - and an aggregate supply function $y(p_1, p_2, \dots, p_L)$
 - whose values are vectors of commodities
- and given any commodity ℓ (say $\ell = 1$)
- we can fix the other prices at $\bar{p}_2, \dots, \bar{p}_L$ and analyze
 - $x_1(p_1) \equiv x_1(p_1, \bar{p}_2, \dots, \bar{p}_L)$ and
 - $y_1(p_1) \equiv y_1(p_1, \bar{p}_2, \dots, \bar{p}_L)$

- Suppose the economy is in (general) equilibrium.
- Then there is a supply or demand **shock** in one market.
 - A sudden exogenous change to the quantity supplied or demanded.
- **Partial equilibrium analysis:** How does the price have to change in the affected market to bring it back into equilibrium?



- But the change of one price, usually affects the quantities supplied and demanded of many goods.
- If only one price is adjusted, then other markets will go out of equilibrium.



- **General equilibrium analysis:** How do all prices have to change to bring all markets back into equilibrium?

EXAMPLE 9.1. Suppose two commodities have demands

$$x_1 = \frac{p_2 I}{p_1^2} \text{ and } x_2 = \frac{p_1 I}{p_2^2}$$

where $I = 1$, and inelastic supplies $y_1 = y_2 = 1$.

Compare partial and general equilibrium analysis if a shock changes y_1 from 1 to 2.

Solution:

- Before the shock:

$$x_1 = p_2/p_1^2 = y_1 \equiv 1 \text{ and } x_2 = p_1/p_2^2 = y_2 \equiv 1$$

so we have

$$p_2 = p_1^2 \quad p_1 = p_2^2$$

$$p_1 = p_1^4$$

$$p_1 = p_2 = 1.$$

- Now y_1 changes from 1 to 2.

- In partial equilibrium analysis, we preserve $p_2 = 1$. We have

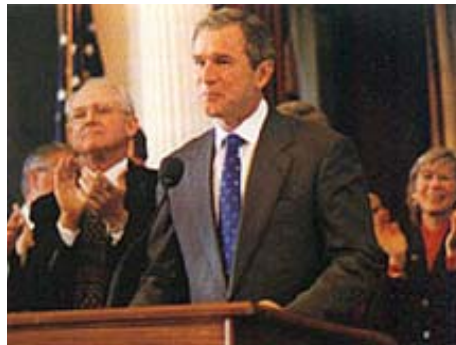
$$\begin{aligned}x_1 &= y_1 \equiv 2 \\1/p_1^2 &= 2 \\p_1 &= 1/\sqrt{2} = 0.71.\end{aligned}$$

- In general equilibrium analysis, we would find the new equilibrium in both markets.

$$\begin{aligned}x_1 = p_2/p_1^2 = y_1 \equiv 2 \quad \text{and} \quad x_2 = p_1/p_2^2 = y_2 \equiv 1 \\p_2 = 2p_1^2 \qquad \qquad \qquad p_1 = p_2^2\end{aligned}$$

$$\begin{aligned}p_1 &= 4p_1^4 \\p_1 &= 1/\sqrt[3]{4} = 0.63 \\p_2 &= 2 \cdot 0.63^2 = 0.80.\end{aligned}$$

- Which is better:
 - Partial equilibrium analysis? or
 - General equilibrium analysis?
- Which picture of George Bush is better?



or...

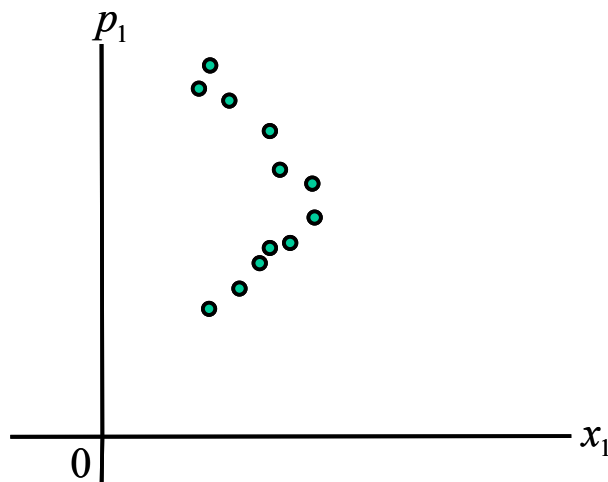
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- **Answer: it depends on what you want to say.**
- **If the commodity with the demand or supply shock:**
 - **represents a small share of total expenditures**
 - **does not have strong substitutes or complements**
- **Then a change in its price is **not** likely to**
 - **have a large income or wealth effect**
 - **have large substitution effects**
 - **shift other demand and supply curves very much.**

- **Models or empirical work in a general-equilibrium framework:**
 - use a large amount of data
 - include many complex relationships (many equations)
 - difficult to analyze
 - prone to error
 - not elegant
 - not transparent
 - difficult to interpret
- **Therefore, in such cases, partial equilibrium may be preferable to general equilibrium.**

- **Suppose you see time-series data like this:**



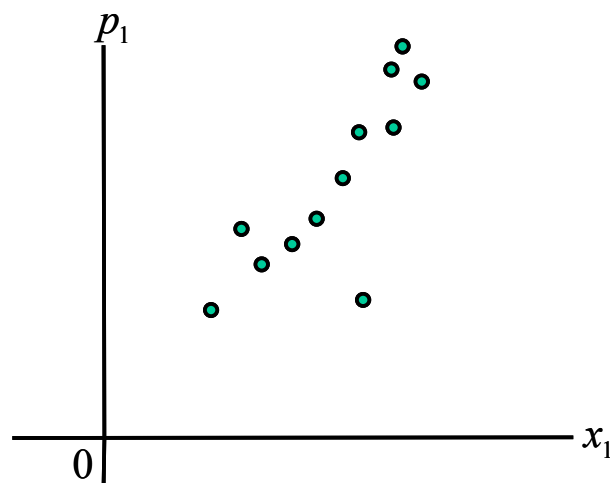
- **What is happening?**
- **Prices may be rigid, possibly set by regulators.**

PROPOSITION 9.4. (Law of the short side.) *If voluntary exchange occurs at disequilibrium prices, then the quantity transacted will be the minimum of quantity supplied and the quantity demanded.*

PROOF. Exchange is voluntary. ■

- The points at the lower prices may be on the supply curve.
 - Exchange is supply-constrained
- with the points at higher prices on the demand curve.
 - Exchange is demand-constrained.

- Supply and demand are hypothetical constructs, which are not directly observable.
- Suppose you see time-series data like this:



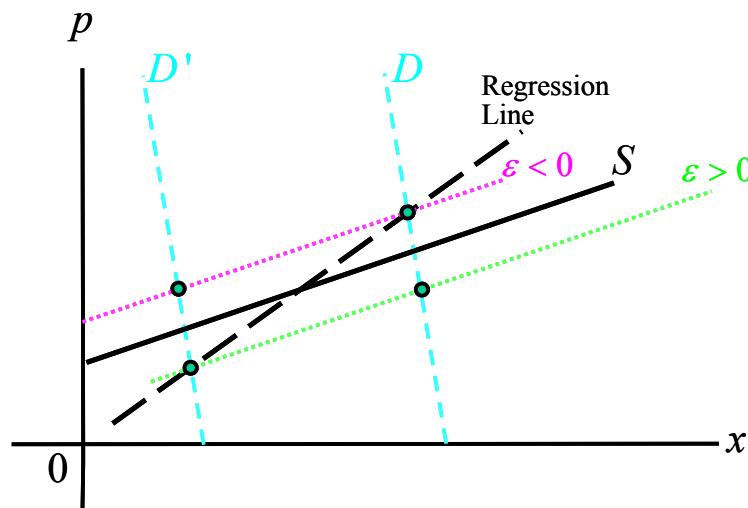
- What is happening?
- Possibly: demand is shifting a lot and supply is more stationary

- Suppose you have following model of supply:

$$x_s = a + \beta p + \gamma z + \varepsilon$$

- z represents exogenous variables that affect supply (supply-shift variables).
- The data are determined by the intersection of supply and demand.

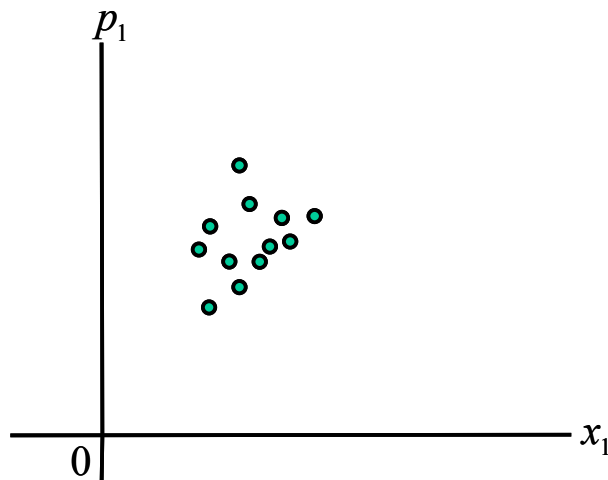
- The points below represent the data you might see.
- Quantities and prices are endogenous.



- Remember: x_s is the dependent variable! The graph doesn't follow mathematical convention.

- Prices are (negatively) correlated with the error term.
- When there is a positive supply shock, the equilibrium price is likely to be low.
- When there is a negative supply shock, the equilibrium price is likely to be high.
- This causes the regression coefficient β to be biased downwards [towards the price axis].
- There are well-known econometric techniques for correcting this situation.
- Even in partial-equilibrium models, empirical work must be done with care.

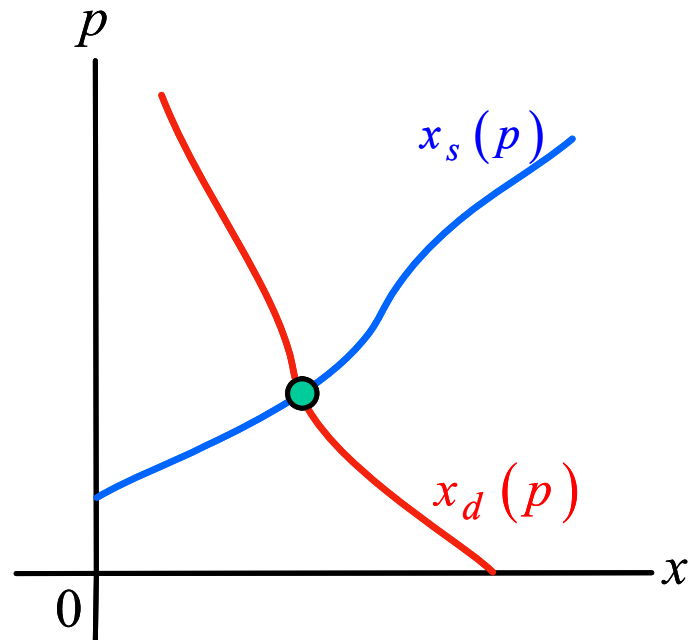
- Suppose you see time-series data like this.
- These may represent a series of equilibria in the given market.
- Appropriate data and econometric techniques are needed to identify supply and demand.



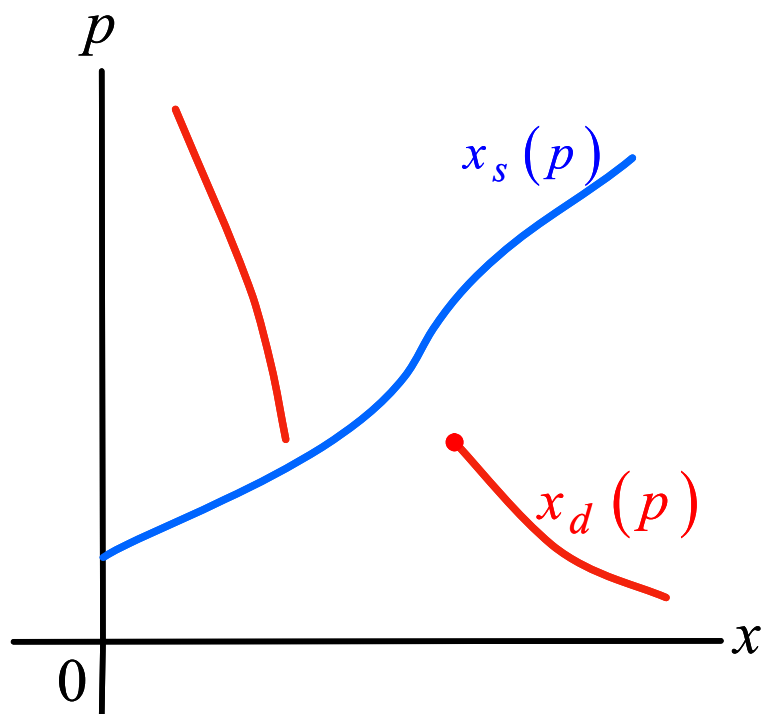
9.5 The Existence of General Equilibrium

[I'll do a simplified version this semester. We present a more general version next semester in EC 703.]

- Where is the equilibrium in this graph?



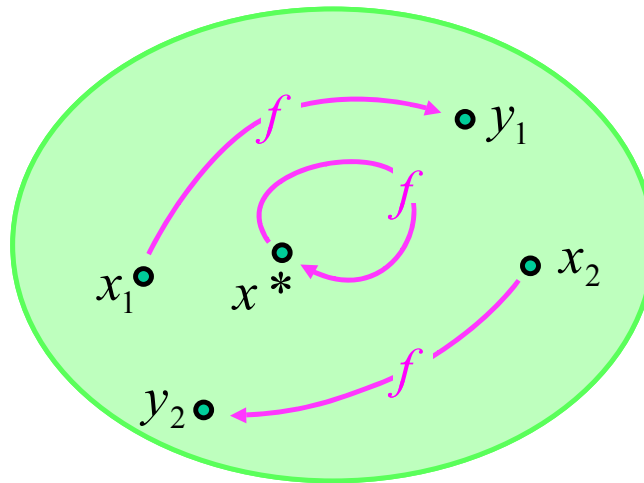
- Where is the equilibrium here?



- The proof of existence of equilibrium is a proof that curves (or higher dimensional manifolds) cross!

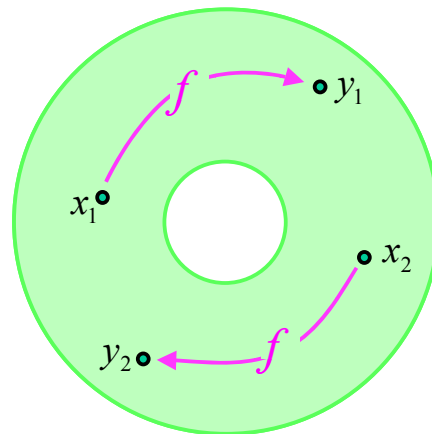
- The proof of that curves cross is equivalent to the proofs of fixed-point theorems.
- Here we will talk about the Brouwer Theorem; Mookherjee will do more general theorems.

PROPOSITION 9.5. (Brouwer Fixed-Point Theorem) *Let X be a compact convex set, and suppose $f : X \rightarrow X$ is a continuous function. Then there is a point $x^* \in X$ such that $f(x^*) = x^*$.*



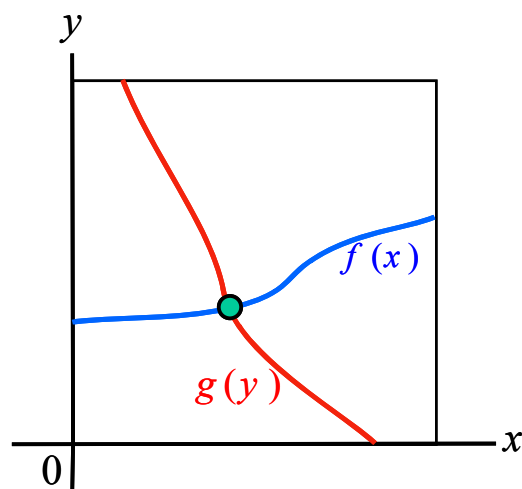
- Interested students may find the proof in the mathematical notes on the course website, but you will not be responsible for it in EC 701.
- Think of f as a function that transforms X within its own boundaries. The function may rotate X , shrink it, deform it, etc., but the theorem says that there is at least one point that f will not move.
 - For example, when the earth rotates, all the points on the axis of rotation remain fixed.

- Note that the theorem fails for the rotation of an annulus: no point remains fixed.



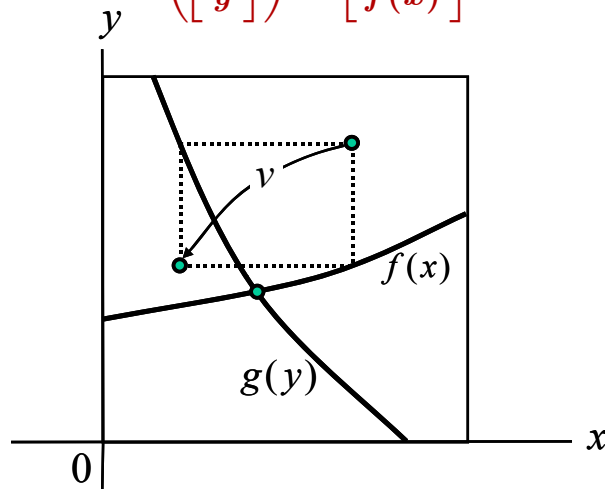
- The fixed-point theorem has an important corollary.

PROPOSITION 9.6. Consider the unit square, and suppose $y = f(x)$ and $x = g(y)$ are both continuous functions, so that the graph of f connects the vertical sides and the graph of g connects the horizontal sides. Then the two curves must intersect.



PROOF. Define the function $v : \mathbb{R}^2 \rightarrow \mathbb{R}^2$ by

$$v \left(\begin{bmatrix} x \\ y \end{bmatrix} \right) = \begin{bmatrix} g(y) \\ f(x) \end{bmatrix}.$$



- Because f and g are continuous, v must be continuous.

- v has a fixed point $\begin{bmatrix} x^* \\ y^* \end{bmatrix}$.

- The curves must intersect there:

- $y^* = f(x^*), x^* = g(y^*)$

■

- This corollary applies to surfaces in higher dimensional spaces as well.

- But the dimensions of the surfaces (manifolds) must add up to the dimension of the space in which the graphs are drawn.

- Consider two roads in three-dimensional space: they will not intersect if one passes over the other one.

- Proving the existence of general equilibrium may be conceptualized as proving that multidimensional supply and demand curves intersect.
- But because of many technicalities, the proofs that I have seen all apply the standard statement of a fixed-point theorem.
- Monotone preferences lead to “infinite” demand for goods with zero prices, so that excess demand is usually not defined on price vectors that contain zeros.
- Therefore, proofs of the existence of general equilibria require complicated mathematical machinery, such as the Kakutani fixed point theorem, which is valid for set-valued functions.
- The following proposition, not proved here, requires only the Brouwer fixed-point theorem.

PROPOSITION 9.7. (Existence of general equilibrium: simplified version) Suppose that in a pure-exchange economy the aggregate (market) excess demand function $z(p)$

- is defined for all $p \in \mathbb{R}_+^L$, $p \neq 0$.
- is continuous,
- homogeneous of degree zero, and
- satisfies Walras' Law.

Then, there is a price vector p^* such that $z(p^*) \leq 0$, with $z_\ell(p^*) = 0$ for $p_\ell^* > 0$.

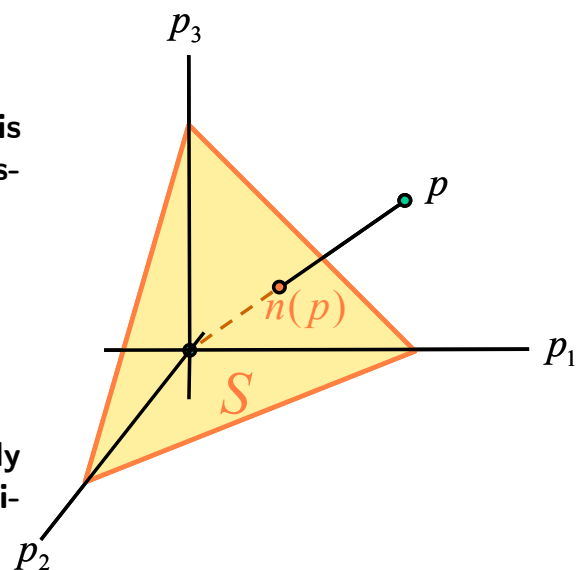
- Because demand and excess demand are homogeneous of degree zero, we can normalize price vectors in a variety of ways.
 - We can establish a **numeraire** by dividing all prices by the price of a given commodity (say p_1), in which case all price vectors will have the form $(1, p_2, \dots, p_L)$
 - Or we can divide all price vectors by the sum of the prices.
 - let $S = \{p \mid p \in \mathbb{R}_+^L, \sum_{\ell} p_{\ell} = 1\}$
 - S is called the unit simplex of \mathbb{R}^L

- Define a normalization function:

$$n(p) \equiv \frac{1}{\sum_{\ell} p_{\ell}} p$$

- If $\hat{p} = n(p)$, and $z(p)$ is a homogeneous-degree-0 excess-demand function
 - then $z(\hat{p}) = z(p)$
 - and $\sum_{\ell} \hat{p}_{\ell} = 1$, so that $\hat{p} = n(p) \in S$.

- Therefore, we need consider only prices in S to find a general equilibrium.



- To prove there is a general equilibrium, we will
 - start with prices $p \in S$,
 - raise prices with positive excess demand, yielding p'
 - but do nothing to prices with excess supply.
 - Then we renormalize to $n(p') \in S$.
 - We will have:
 - $n(p') > p$ for goods with high excess demand
 - $n(p') < p$ for goods with high excess supply.

- This is how we think prices adjust over time in the economy,
- but time does not appear in the general equilibrium model, which is static.
- We define a function $f : S \rightarrow S$, such that $f(p) = n(p')$.
- This function must have a fixed point, p^* .
- Excess demand does not change prices at p^* .
- Therefore excess demand must be zero at p^* .
- Conclusion: p^* is a set of general-equilibrium prices.

FORMAL PROOF OF EXISTENCE.

- Let $S = \{p \mid p \in \mathbb{R}_+^L, \sum_{\ell} p_{\ell} = 1\}$

- S is called the unit simplex of \mathbb{R}^L

- Define a normalization function:

$$n(p) \equiv \frac{1}{\sum_{\ell} p_{\ell}} p$$

- then, by hdz, $z(n(p)) = z(p)$,
- and since $\sum_{\ell} n_{\ell}(p) = 1$, $n(p) \in S$.
- Therefore, we need consider only prices in S to find a general equilibrium.

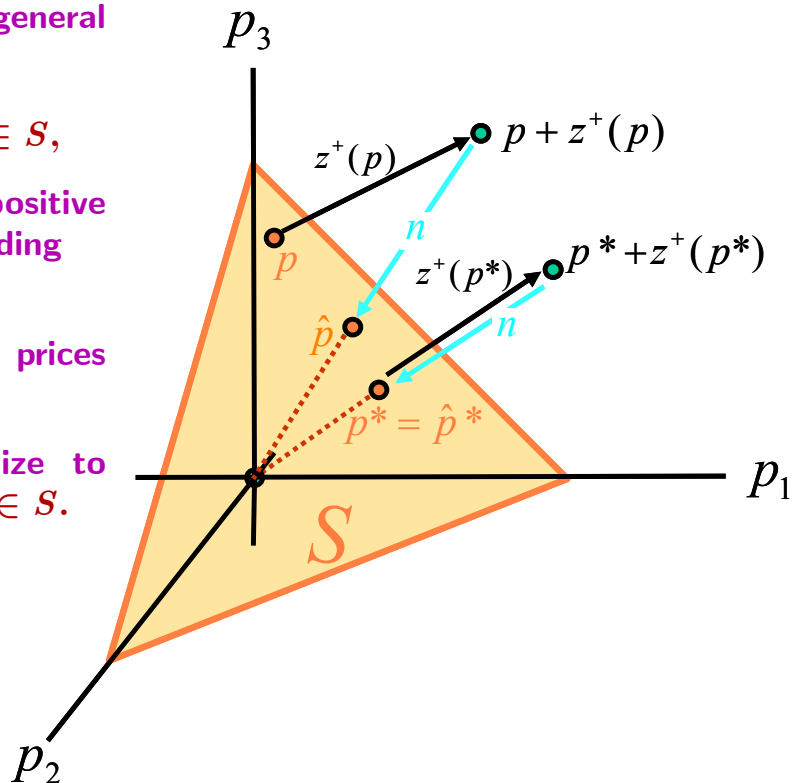
- Define $z^+(p)$ by

$$z_{\ell}^+(p) = \begin{cases} z_{\ell}(p) & \text{for } z_{\ell}(p) > 0 \\ 0 & \text{for } z_{\ell}(p) \leq 0 \end{cases}.$$

- or $z^+(p) = \max\{z(p), 0\}$.
- $z^+(p)$ represents only the positive components of excess demand.

● To prove there is a general equilibrium, we

- start with prices $p \in S$,
- raise prices with positive excess demand, yielding $p + z^+(p)$
- but do nothing to prices with excess supply.
- Then we renormalize to $\hat{p} = n(p + z^+(p)) \in S$.



● ■ We will have:

- $\hat{p} > p$ for goods with high excess demand
- $\hat{p} < p$ for goods with high excess supply.
- This is how we think prices adjust over time in the economy,
- but time does not appear in the general equilibrium model, which is static.
- We define a function $f : S \rightarrow S$, such that $\hat{p} \equiv f(p) \equiv n(p + z^+(p))$.
- S is compact and convex.
- $z(\cdot)$ is continuous $\implies z^+(\cdot)$ is continuous, because $z^+(p) = \max\{z(p), 0\}$, and maximization is a continuous function.
- Therefore, f is continuous.
- By Brouwer fixed-point theorem, the function f must have a fixed point, say $p^* = f(p^*)$.

- **We have:**

$$p^* = n(p^* + z^+(p^*)) = \lambda(p^* + z^+(p^*))$$

for some $\lambda > 0$.

- **Solution for $z^+(p^*)$:**

$$z^+(p^*) = \gamma p^*$$

$$\text{where } \gamma = \frac{1 - \lambda}{\lambda}$$

- **If $\gamma < 0$, then $z^+(p^*)$ has negative values; contradicts definition of z^+ .**
- **If $\gamma > 0$, $z_\ell^+(p^*) > 0$ when $p_\ell^* > 0$**
 - $\implies z_\ell^+(p^*) = z_\ell(p^*)$ when $p_\ell^* > 0$
 - $\implies p^* z(p^*) = p^* z^+(p^*) = \gamma(p^* \cdot p^*)$
 - **But $p^* z(p^*) = 0$ by Walras Law**
 - **and $p^* \cdot p^* > 0$, contradiction!**

- **Therefore $\gamma = 0$, $z^+(p^*) = 0$.**
- **$z(p^*) \leq 0$**
- **But $p^* z(p^*) = 0$,**
- **so $z_\ell(p^*) = 0$ when $p_\ell^* > 0$**
- **and $z_\ell(p^*) \leq 0$ when $p_\ell^* = 0$.**
- **p^* are equilibrium prices.**



PROPOSITION 9.8. (The First Fundamental Theorem of Welfare Economics) *Suppose a pure-exchange economy has households characterized by local nonsatiation and Walras Law. Then any competitive equilibrium has a Pareto-optimal allocation.*

PROOF. This proof is easy!

- Let $\langle x_1, \dots, x_I \rangle$ be the allocation associated with the competitive-equilibrium prices p^* .
- Then $\langle x_1, \dots, x_I \rangle \equiv \langle x_1(p^*), \dots, x_I(p^*) \rangle$, where $x_i(\cdot)$ is the demand function for household i .
- And let $\langle \omega_1, \dots, \omega_I \rangle$ be the initial endowments.

- Suppose that $\langle x'_1, \dots, x'_I \rangle$ Pareto dominates $\langle x_1, \dots, x_I \rangle$.
- Then $x'_i \succ x_i(p^*)$,
- $\implies p^* x'_i > p^* x_i(p^*)$ [revealed preference]
- \implies

$$\sum_i p^* x'_i > \sum_i p^* x_i(p^*) = \sum_i p^* \omega_i.$$
- Let $x' \equiv \sum_i x'_i$, $x(p^*) \equiv \sum_i x_i(p^*)$ and $\omega \equiv \sum_i \omega_i$.
- Then $p^* x' > p^* \omega$.

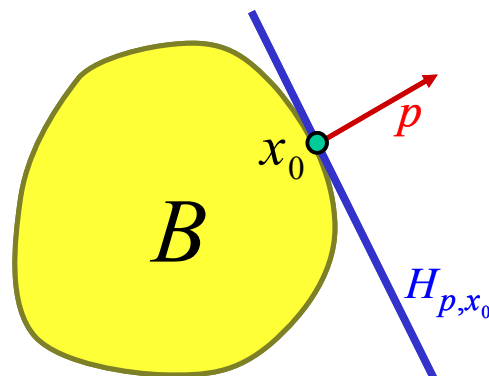
- In scalar notation:

$$\sum_{\ell} p_{\ell}^* x'_{\ell} > \sum_{\ell} p_{\ell}^* \omega_{\ell}$$

- But this implies that for at least one ℓ with $p_{\ell} > 0$, we have $p_{\ell} x'_{\ell} > p_{\ell} \omega_{\ell}$.
- $\implies x'_{\ell} > \omega_{\ell}$.
- So $\langle x'_1, \dots, x'_I \rangle$ is not feasible. ■

- The proof of the Second Fundamental Theorem of Welfare Economics requires the use of a corollary of the separating hyperplane theorem.

DEFINITION 9.21. H is a supporting hyperplane of the set $B \subset \mathbb{R}^n$ if H is a hyperplane of dimension $n - 1$ that intersects the boundary of B with the property that B lies entirely on one side of H .



PROPOSITION 9.9. (Supporting Hyperplane Theorem)

Suppose $B \subset \mathbb{R}^n$ is a closed convex set, and suppose x_0 is a point on the boundary of B . Then B has a supporting hyperplane H_{p,x_0} that intersects B at x_0 . It follows that there is a vector $p \neq 0$, such that for all $b \in B$, $pb \leq px_0$.

- This proposition is proved by applying the *separating hyperplane theorem* to each member of a sequence of points converging to x_0 from outside of B (see MC p949).
- Note that by taking the negative of the p provided by the proposition, we can find another p such that for all $b \in B$, $pb \geq px_0$.

PROPOSITION 9.10. (Second Fundamental Theorem of Welfare Economics) *If the utility functions of households are continuous, quasiconcave and monotonic, then any Pareto-optimal allocation $x^* \equiv \langle x_1^*, \dots, x_I^* \rangle$ can be implemented as a competitive equilibrium for some vector of initial endowments.*

- The Second Fundamental Theorem says a social planner can implement whatever Pareto Optimal allocation she likes as a competitive equilibrium. But to accomplish this she must in general...
 - reallocate the initial endowments (or make wealth transfers—see below), and
 - announce a vector of equilibrium prices.

- The proof of this proposition is an application of the supporting hyperplane theorem.
- Suppose a social planner wants an individual to demand a particular vector of goods x_0 .
 - The planner can apply the supporting hyperplane theorem to x_0 and its upper contour set $G(x_0)$ to produce the budget frontier (a hyperplane) and a price vector p such that $px_0 \leq px$ for all $x \in G(x)$.
 - The she can set income $y = px_0$.
 - Then the individual will demand x_0 , because every preferred bundle of goods will violate the budget constraint.

- The second fundamental theorem presents the planner with a more difficult task:
 - She must find a one price vector p^* that simultaneously causes every household to demand its allocated bundle of goods x_i^* , ...
 - even though each household may have a different utility function.
 - This is accomplished by aggregating the x_i s and all the $G(x_i)$ sets, before applying the supporting hyperplane theorem.

- The strategy of the proof is as follows:
 - We set the initial allocation $\langle \omega_1, \dots, \omega_I \rangle$ equal to the designated PO allocation $\langle x_1^*, \dots, x_I^* \rangle$.
 - By summing the upper contour sets of the x_i^* s, we define a convex set G in commodity space with the following property:
 - if each $X \in G$ were distributed appropriately among the households, . . .
 - the resulting allocations would Pareto dominate $\langle x_1^*, \dots, x_I^* \rangle$.

- $X^* \equiv \sum_i x_i^*$ must be on the boundary of G .
 - Otherwise, there would be a vector $\hat{X} \ll X^*$ also in G ,
 - and the difference between the two vectors could be used to create a Pareto dominating allocation that also adds up to X^* and is therefore feasible.
 - That would violate the Pareto optimality of $\langle x_1^*, \dots, x_I^* \rangle$ and be a contradiction.
- We apply the supporting hyperplane theorem to X^* and G .
 - This gives us a set of prices p^* which makes everything in the interior of G more expensive than X^* .
 - We use this to show that every vector x'_i that gives a higher utility than x_i^* costs more, so that x_i^* maximizes utility within the budget $p^* \omega_i$.
- We conclude that $\langle x_1^*, \dots, x_I^* \rangle$ and p^* is a competitive equilibrium.

PROOF. Here are the details:

- **We set the initial allocation $\langle \omega_1, \dots, \omega_I \rangle$ equal to the designated PO allocation $\langle x_1^*, \dots, x_I^* \rangle$.**
- **For each x_i^* , let $G_i(x_i^*) \equiv \{x_i \mid u_i(x_i) \geq u_i(x_i^*)\}$ denote the upper contour sets of each x_i^* . Because of the quasiconcavity assumption each $G_i(x_i^*)$ is a convex set.**
- **Define the set $G \equiv \sum_i G_i(x_i^*)$. That is, G is the set of all possible sums of the form $x \equiv x_1 + x_2 + \dots + x_I$ with each summand drawn from the corresponding set $G_i(x_i^*)$.**
- **By construction, every $x \in G$ is a vector of commodities that could be distributed to households in an allocation that Pareto dominates $\langle x_1^*, \dots, x_I^* \rangle$ or at least provides equal utilities.**
- **G is the sum of convex sets, and therefore G itself is convex.**

- **Let $X^* \equiv \sum_i x_i^*$.**
- **We show that X^* is on the boundary of G .**
 - **$x_i^* \in G_i(x_i^*)$ for all i , so $X^* \equiv \sum_i x_i^* \in \sum_i G_i(x_i^*) \equiv G$.**
 - **If X^* were in the interior of G , then there must exist a point $\hat{X} \ll X^*$ with $\hat{X} \in G$.**
 - **But then, by the definition of G , there must be an allocation $\langle \hat{x}_1, \dots, \hat{x}_I \rangle$ where $\hat{x}_i \in G_i(x_i^*)$ and $\hat{X} \equiv \sum_i \hat{x}_i$.**
 - **It follows that for all i , $u(\hat{x}_i) \geq u(x_i^*)$.**

- Let the vector ε be defined by $\varepsilon = \frac{1}{I}(X^* - \hat{X})$, so that $\sum_i(\hat{x}_i + \varepsilon_i) = X^*$, which means that the allocation $\langle \hat{x}_1 + \varepsilon_1, \dots, \hat{x}_I + \varepsilon_I \rangle$ is feasible.
- And by monotonicity, $u(\hat{x}_i + \varepsilon_i) > u(\hat{x}_i) \geq u(x_i^*)$ for all i .
- But this contradicts the Pareto Optimality of $\langle x_1^*, \dots, x_I^* \rangle$, and we conclude that X^* is not in the interior of G and must be in the boundary.

- We now apply the supporting hyperplane theorem to X^* and G .
 - The theorem implies that there exists a price vector $p^* \neq 0$ such that for all $X \in G$, we have $p^* X \geq p^* X^*$.
 - Monotonicity implies that given any vector $\delta > 0$, $X^* + \delta \in G$.
 - This means that $p^*(X^* + \delta) \geq p^* X^*$ so that $p^* \delta \geq 0$ for all $\delta > 0$
 - It follows that $p^* > 0$.

- We now show that if $u_i(x'_i) > u_i(x_i^*)$, then $p^*x'_i > p^*x_i^*$, a condition that implies that $x_i^* \in \operatorname{argmax}\{u_i(x_i) \mid p^*x_i \leq p^*x_i^*\}$.
 - Given $u_i(x'_i) > u_i(x_i^*)$, we know by continuity that there is a $x'' \ll x'$ with $u_i(x''_i) > u_i(x_i^*)$
 - Consider the vector $X'' \equiv x''_i + \sum_{j \neq i} x_j^*$.
 - Because $x''_i \in G_i(x_i^*)$, we know that $X'' \in G$.
 - Therefore $p^*X'' \geq p^*X^*$ so that $p^*(X'' - X^*) = p^*(x''_i - x_i^*) \geq 0$.
 - Thus $p^*x''_i \geq p^*x_i^*$ and $p^*x'_i > p^*x_i^*$.
- We have shown that the allocation $\langle x_1^*, \dots, x_I^* \rangle$ and the price vector p^* forms a competitive equilibrium, which proves the Second Fundamental Theorem. ■

- The Second Fundamental Theorem as proved above requires the social planner to set the initial endowments to the desired final allocation.
- In a real economy reallocating the initial endowment would be completely impractical. Much of the endowment would take the form of inalienable skills or human capital.
- However, the Second Fundamental Theorem could be proved in a form in which the initial endowments are left intact. Instead, lump-sum taxes are used to reset each household's budget set.

- Suppose $\langle \omega_1, \dots, \omega_I \rangle$ is the initial allocation and $\langle x_1^*, \dots, x_I^* \rangle$ is the desired PO allocation.
- Then we could define a vector of lump-sum taxes (and subsidies when negative) $\langle t_1, \dots, t_I \rangle$ as follows:
 - Set $t_i = p^*(\omega_i - x_i^*)$.
 - Then $p^*\omega_i - t_i = p^*x_i^*$, so that the initial allocation $\langle \omega_1, \dots, \omega_I \rangle$ with taxes $\langle t_1, \dots, t_I \rangle$ would create the same budget constraints as using $\langle x_1^*, \dots, x_I^* \rangle$ for the initial allocations.
- This yields the following proposition:

PROPOSITION 9.11. (Second Fundamental Theorem of Welfare Economics with lump-sum taxes) *Let the initial allocation $\langle \omega_1, \dots, \omega_I \rangle$ be given. Then, if the utility functions of households are continuous, quasiconcave and monotonic, any Pareto-optimal allocation $x^* \equiv \langle x_1^*, \dots, x_I^* \rangle$ can be implemented as a competitive equilibrium by use of an appropriate vector of lump-sum taxes and subsidies.*