

龍恩成

GSM.23

微观经济学·笔记部分

经世济民

daollen 道林®

P.S.

米黄色·不褪色

## Chapter 1. What is Economics?

efficient allocation of <sup>稀缺的</sup> scarce resources

现有的资源供给相比需求而言具有“稀缺性” (人性)

→ 调节人类的欲望更是着力点, 这是宗教

而优化地分配资源, 这是经济学 (认可欲求)

在定义中的增加: Any human behaviours related to ...

(不仅限于市场行为, 只看是否是稀缺资源分配) (涉足到了社会学范围)

比如: 彩礼: 对女性劳动力价值占有的补偿。

嫁妆: 女方对家庭地位的保护

劳动分工  
权利分配  
资源分配

(无关于是否是市场中的行为)

## Methodological Features of Economics:

· Rationality 理性人

· Stable Preference 稳定偏好

· Equilibrium 均衡结果

· Efficiency 效率问题 (评价标准)

Rationality: 最大化目标函数 (建立决策主体的目标函数)

(理性人 ≠ 自私私人)  $\text{Max } U(x, y) = U_p(x, y) + \alpha \cdot U_c(x, y)$

个体层面上而言, 不一定是理性的。

<sup>结论</sup> we test hypothesis, not assumptions. 不必关注理性人假设本身。

## Stable Preference:

Preferences are unobservable but <sup>限制条件</sup> constraints are observable

偏好稳定情况下, 行为的改变可能反映了限制条件变化。

用偏好变化解释行为变化是容易且表面的, 而且不能被检验。

★ 经济学认为行为变化代表的是经济力量的作用。

比如工薪阶层解决午饭: 带饭 → 吃快餐 → 点外卖

其中反映出的是时间成本增加 (单位时间收益增加)

Equilibrium analysis: a tool to <sup>合计, 总计</sup> aggregate behaviours of individuals and predict the outcome of human interactions.

要求我们站在均衡角度思考问题: 对大型城市而言, 交通用地 + 1%。

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出行车流 +1%, 拥堵程度相同, 达成均衡

(考虑政策对各方影响后的自衡结果, 兼和而不局部)

Equilibrium - level Thinking - 避免合成谬误

(深成可以从博弈论和外部性分析)

limits / constraints  $\rightarrow$  trade-off <sup>权衡</sup>

价格机制 (价格体系) 是市场经济的核心

Markets - collection of buyers and sellers whose interaction determines by price of good.

Theories and Models

$\rightarrow$  Parsimony and richness <sup>简约</sup>

模型要可以被检验才具有价值 (可证的)

理论  $\rightarrow$  模型  $\rightarrow$  数据实证  $\rightarrow$  改进

Positive & Normative Analysis 实证分析 & 规范分析

现实性中道的 Vs. 有价值判断的

★ Think like economists:

Using baseline models as benchmarks <sup>理论基准</sup>

会问问题, 多思考 think through baseline models. 从基本模型出发

seek quest puzzling observations. / ask interesting and deep questions

The wisdom of Economics:

Hayek's warnings to the world

"The road to the hell paved with good intentions"

愿望本身没有问题, 但路径可能出错。

Cool head and warm heart.

Dismal Science: The Current Version <sup>阴暗的</sup>

比如马尔萨斯《人口论》 $\rightarrow$  贫困陷阱  $\rightarrow$  技术变革。

★ Pareto Efficiency Efficiency 帕累托效率:

A pareto outcome allows no waste

Pareto improvement 帕累托改进:

给定一个配置, 如果能找到一个新的配置使无人福利受损且有至少一人严格福利增加, 这是一个帕累托改进。

Pareto inefficient: 可以进行帕累托改进

Pareto efficiency exhausts any pareto improvement opportunities.

side-payment 补偿  $\rightarrow$  自由交易的发生也是帕累托改进

(Hicks - Kaldor compensation) <sup>补偿, 赔款</sup> (可以作为判断 Pareto efficient 的标准)

特点: ① Minimize value judgement 尽量少价值判断, 不关注个体价值区别

② 维护既得利益和旧有利益格局  $\rightarrow$  可能出现不公平

经济学与社会学问题: 只关注蛋糕做大, 不关注蛋糕分配

帕累托改进就是在做大蛋糕

帕累托改进的定义要求减少阻力, 增加推力  $\Rightarrow$  改革尽量少动存量, 多作增量

用不断扩大的增量消化存量, 不能操之过急一蹴而就

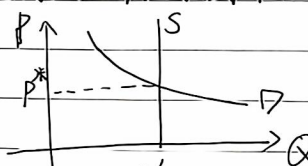
(历史雄辩地证明, 东欧国家的休克疗法是失败的; 中国改革开放中的 <sup>(非帕累托改进)</sup> 价格双轨制、计划与市场双轨制 (市场轨就是增量) 是平稳的过渡。

固定存量, 多作增量, 平稳过渡 (国企、特区、民企引入, ...)

注意: 帕累托改进的过程中只关注政策思维中的效率, 而所谓的“补偿”

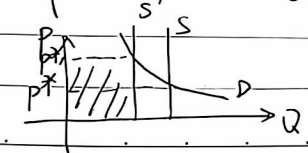
在现实生活中可能并未发生, inequality 发生。

我们假设一个大学城中的大学生租房市场。



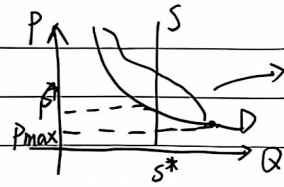
一级价格歧视时, 仍然为 pareto efficiency.

但福利占有全归房主



当出现 Monopoly 时, 必然限量提价, 为 pareto inefficient





政府限价时, 供不应求

这部分人租  $S^*$  套房屋, 必然有非价格因素竞争

愿意价格高的可能没租到  $\rightarrow$  找黄牛/黑市

所以黄牛、黑市(二手市场)存在必然代表一手市场不够有效

## Chapter 2 消费者理论

价格理论包括消费者理论和生产理论

Budget Constraints  
Preference

Choices: optimization.

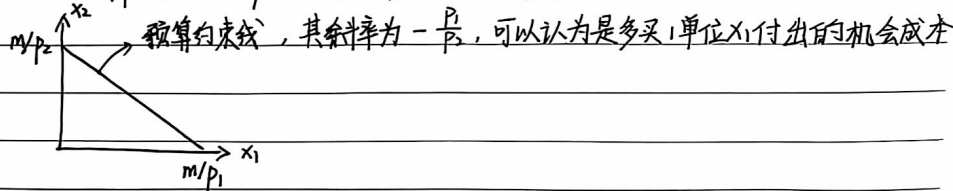
Budget Constraints 预算限制 (不影响偏好)

购买商品  $\{x_1, \dots, x_n\}$  共  $n$  种商品, 其中  $x_1, \dots, x_n \geq 0$ , 价格为  $p_1, \dots, p_n$ , 价格给定不变的。

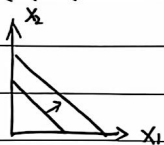
只考虑一期内的消费行为 (没有储蓄):

The bundles that are only affordable given budget constraints.

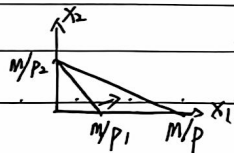
$x_1, p_1 + \dots + x_n, p_n = m$ , 其中  $m$  为当期收入。



• 收入效应:



当收入  $m$  增加时, 预算线向外移动, 可购买的产价格增加



当  $x_1$  的价格变化时, 预算线仍会相应移动

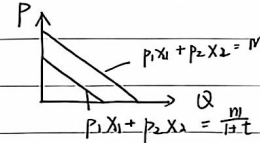
比如  $x_1$  降价时, 如左变化

A uniform tax rate at  $t$  level: (普遍对商品征  $t$  的从量税, 其中  $t$  指对每  $P$  元商品征其中  $t$  (如  $5\%$  的税))

$$(1+t)p_1x_1 + (1+t)p_2x_2 = m$$

$$p_1x_1 + p_2x_2 = \frac{m}{1+t}$$

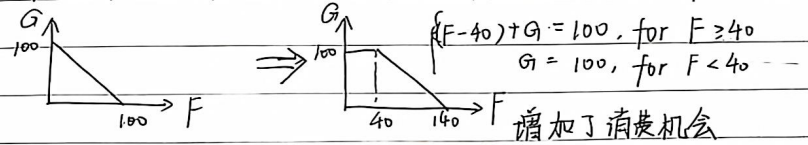
(通货膨胀税也来自于此)



• The food Stamp Program 食品券政策:

免费给人发放食品券, 可借此免费领食品

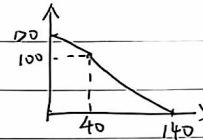
假设  $F + G = 100$  (Food 与 None-Food 总和) (假设  $F$  与  $G$  价格自为 1)



引入黑市: 假设一个 food stamp 价值  $\$0.5$

$$G + 0.5(F - 40) = 100, \text{ for } F < 40$$

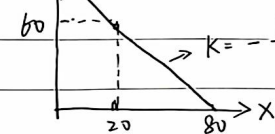
$$G + (F - 40) = 100, \text{ for } F \geq 40$$



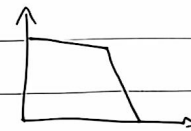
黑市存在也增加了消费机会。

• Quantity Discount:

$$\begin{cases} p_1 = \$2 & \text{for } x \in [0, 20] \\ p_1 = \$1 & \text{for } x > 20 \end{cases} \quad p_2 = \$1, m = \$100$$



出现依数量进行的价格打折时, 预算约束线会出现折曲。



出现向外曲折的曲线则与此相反, 是买多了有惩罚 (加价)。

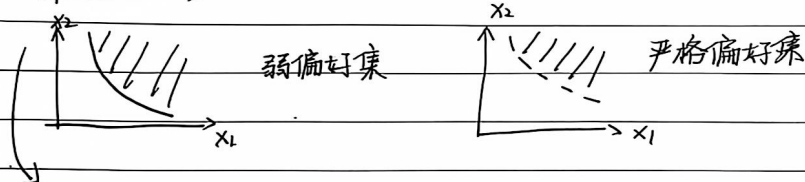
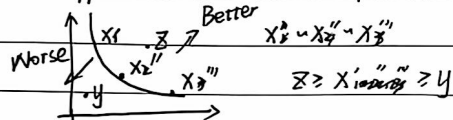
# Consumer Behaviour 消费者行为 / Preference 偏好:

- strict preference:  $x$  is more preferred than  $y$
- indifference:  $x$  is exactly as preferred as  $y$
- weak preference:  $x$  is at least as preferred as  $y$ , or more preferred

## Assumptions about Preference Relations:

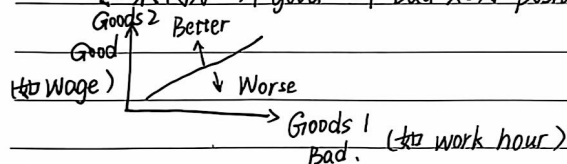
- ① Completeness 完备性 任何  $x, y$  均可比较  
记作  $x \succsim y$  (不是大于等于号)
- ② Reflexivity 反身性
- ③ Transitivity 传递性  $x \succsim y, y \succsim z \Rightarrow x \succsim z$  完备性和传递性是理性的基础

## Indifference Curves 无差异曲线

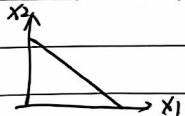


2 goods are good  $\rightarrow$  negatively sloped curve

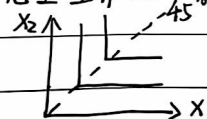
如果两个一个 good 一个 bad 则为 positively sloped curve



## 完全替代品无差异曲线:

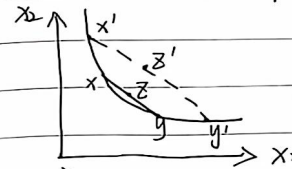


## 完全互补品无差异曲线 (1:1 的互补)



(非 1:1 比例的互补 仍以折线形式存在但折点不是 45°)

## Well-behaved Preference $\rightarrow$ Convexity 凸集

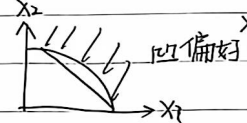


凸偏好

$\rightarrow$  如何解释凸偏好?

学术观点: 边际效应递减

偏误: 消费者喜爱多样性 (尤其是时间较长时)

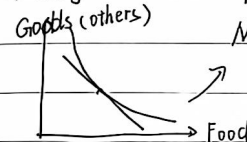


凹偏好

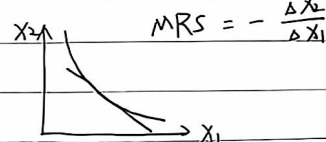
非凸偏好

(与无差异曲线的图形是一一对应的, 属消费者的 innerside)

## Marginal Rate of Substitution (MRS 边际替代率)



$$MRS = - \frac{\Delta \text{Goods}}{\Delta \text{Food}}$$



$$MRS = - \frac{\Delta x_2}{\Delta x_1}$$

所谓 "Well-behaved" 就要求 MRS 是递减的

设  $U(x, y) = \bar{U}$  (同一条无差异曲线值相等)

$$\text{有 } \bar{U}' = \frac{\partial U}{\partial x} dx + \frac{\partial U}{\partial y} dy = 0 = dU(x, y) \quad (\text{无差异曲线})$$

$$\therefore MRS = - \frac{dy}{dx} = - \frac{\frac{\partial U}{\partial x}}{\frac{\partial U}{\partial y}} \rightarrow \text{效用函数之比} = \text{偏好之比}$$

注: 效用函数不唯一, 作单调正转换仍代表相同偏好

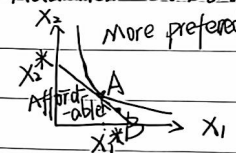
证明: 设  $V(x, y) = f[U(x, y)]$ ,  $f'(u) > 0$

$$MRS = \frac{\partial V / \partial x_1}{\partial V / \partial x_2} = \frac{f'(u) \partial U / \partial x_1}{f'(u) \partial U / \partial x_2} = \frac{\partial U / \partial x_1}{\partial U / \partial x_2}$$

为什么  $f'(u) > 0$ : 移动方向代表的效用增加方向相同

"效用不是基数论, 是序数论"

## Rational Constrained Choice:



B: 不在更高的无差异曲线上

B  $\rightarrow$  A: 买得起, 而更偏好

$(x_1^*, x_2^*)$  在一象限  $\rightarrow$  内点解

如何解 A: 边际替代率 = 约束线斜率

(内部与外部的相对价值相等)



# ⑧ 拉格朗日方法求A点 $(x_1^*, x_2^*)$

效用函数: 要求具有保序性、线性性、MRS递减

Cobb-Douglas preference function:

$$U(x_1, x_2) = x_1^\alpha x_2^\beta \quad (\text{太好算且符合性质})$$

取ln,  $\ln U = \alpha \ln x_1 + \beta \ln x_2$

$$\therefore MRS = \frac{\partial U / \partial x_1}{\partial U / \partial x_2} = \frac{\alpha}{\beta} \frac{x_2}{x_1}, \text{ 得 } x_2 = \frac{\beta}{\alpha} \frac{p_1}{p_2} x_1$$

and  $p_1 x_1 + p_2 x_2 = m$  ( $m$  或写成  $w$  或  $i$ , 指金钱量)

$$\therefore \begin{cases} x_1^* = \frac{\alpha}{\alpha+\beta} \cdot \frac{m}{p_1} \\ x_2^* = \frac{\beta}{\alpha+\beta} \cdot \frac{m}{p_2} \end{cases} \quad (\text{可与 } x_1^* \text{ 只与 } p_1 \text{ 有关, 与 } x_2^* \text{ 无关})$$

另一方法: 拉格朗日乘数法:

$$\text{Max } U(x_1, x_2) \quad \text{s.t. } p_1 x_1 + p_2 x_2 = m$$

$$L = U(x_1, x_2) + \lambda(m - p_1 x_1 - p_2 x_2), \text{ 同样解得上式}$$

Equal Marginal Principle: 等边际法则

$$\lambda = \frac{\partial U / \partial x_1}{p_1} = \frac{\partial U / \partial x_2}{p_2} = \dots = \frac{\partial U / \partial x_n}{p_n}, \text{ in the case of } U(x_1, \dots, x_n)$$

代表一单位的钱带来的 Marginal utility, 无论买什么, 都是一样的

理解  $m$ :

$$\frac{dU}{dm} = \frac{\partial U}{\partial x_1} \cdot \frac{dx_1}{dm} + \frac{\partial U}{\partial x_2} \cdot \frac{dx_2}{dm}$$

$$\text{since } dm = p_1 dx_1 + p_2 dx_2, \quad \lambda = \frac{\partial U}{\partial x_1} / p_1 = \frac{\partial U}{\partial x_2} / p_2$$

$$\therefore \frac{dU}{dm} = \lambda p_1 \cdot \frac{dx_1}{dm} + \lambda p_2 \cdot \frac{dx_2}{dm} = \lambda (p_1 dx_1 + p_2 dx_2) / dm = \lambda \cdot \frac{dm}{dm} = \lambda$$

即  $\frac{dU}{dm} = \lambda$ , "稀缺资源的影子价格"

当预算变化1单位时, 能够给  $U^*$  带来多少的变化

Example: Allocate time efficiently? (等边际法则在非货币情况的应用)

$$\text{Max. } U = S_1 + \dots + S_n = \sum_{i=1}^n S_i, \text{ 学习总成绩最大}$$

$$\text{s.t. (1) } S_i = f_i(t_i), \text{ s.t. } f_i(t_i) > 0, f_i''(t_i) < 0$$

$$(2) \sum_{i=1}^n t_i \leq T$$

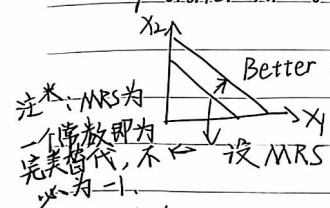
$$\Rightarrow \frac{\partial f_1(t_1)}{\partial t_1} = \frac{\partial f_2(t_2)}{\partial t_2} = \dots = \frac{\partial f_n(t_n)}{\partial t_n} = \lambda$$

$\lambda$ : shadow price of time

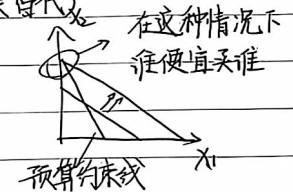
what if  $x_1^* = 0$  or  $x_2^* = 0$  (角点解)

if either  $x_1^* = 0$  or  $x_2^* = 0$  then (一个极端情况)

对应不完美的替代关系  
有替代互补 (见P6)



即  $x_1$  与  $x_2$  严格替代 (完美替代)



当然对  $x_2$  不很在乎时 (也不讨厌, 仍然多点)

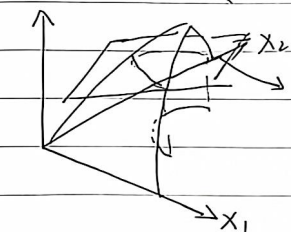
好些时)



当  $x_2$  很贵, 全买  $x_1$

当  $x_2$  便宜到一定时, 买一部分

(可能内点解, 可能角点解)

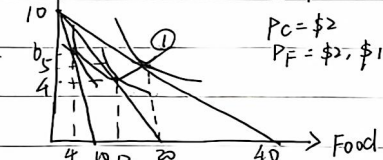


理解 utility function 和  
 $U(x_1, x_2) = \bar{U}$  indifference Curve

## Chapter 3 Individual and Market Demand.

Effect of a Price Change

Clothing



$$I = \$20$$

$$P_C = \$2$$

$$P_F = \$2, \$1, \$0.5 \rightarrow \text{When price falls}$$

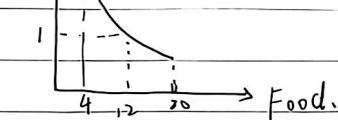
①: The Price-Consumption Curve

$\rightarrow$  MRS ( $P_c$ ) also falls

(但不是因价变动, MRS变动)

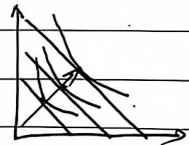
Price of

Food



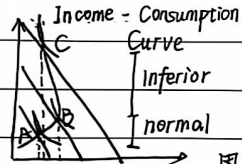
Individual Demand relates the quantity  
of a good that a consumer will buy to the  
price of that good.

## Effects of Income Changes



An increase in income, with prices fixed, causes consumers to alter their choice of market basket.

收入增加, 两种商品消费均增加 (正常品)



特别的无差异曲线形状  $\rightarrow$  Inferior Goods

(并不是贴在商品上的,  $A \rightarrow B$  为正常品,  $B \rightarrow C$  为劣等品)

恩格尔曲线 — the quantity of good consumed to income

正常品 — upward sloping 劣等品 — downward sloping

恩格尔系数: food expenditures / total expenditures.

Substitutes & Complements 替代品 & 互补品

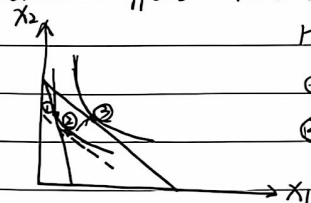
商品价格升高  $\rightarrow$  替代品价格升高, 需求升高

互补品价格降低, 需求降低

A change in the price of a good has two effects: Substitution effect and income effect.

• Substitution Effect: hold the level of utility constant (在无差异曲线移动)

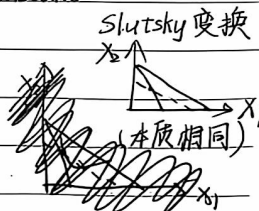
• Income Effect: hold the price of the item constant



Hicksian 变换

①  $\rightarrow$  ② 替代效应

②  $\rightarrow$  ③ 收入效应



Slutsky 变换

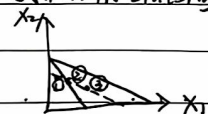
①  $\rightarrow$  ② 替代效应

②  $\rightarrow$  ③ 收入效应

③ Why is substitution effect always nonpositive

(即  $x_1$  价格下降, 对  $x_1$  的购买增加, 对  $x_2$  的购买不会增加)

我们采用 Slutsky 变换



① 早已可买, 不买即证明没有 ② 好

所以替代效应一定向 ③ 走

income effect:

对 normal goods 而言, income effect 是 positive 的, 即收入增加, 消费量相应上升

对劣等品而言, income effect 是减少消费量的, 并且随收入增加收入效应带来的消费量减少大于因替代效应带来的消费量增加, 在总的变化上就是价格降低, 该商品消费减少。

Example of Giffen good: potatoes in Ireland

土豆价格上涨  $\rightarrow$  消费者财产减少  $\rightarrow$  不能够消费其他商品  $\rightarrow$  消费更多土豆

Slutsky Equation:

$$\frac{dx}{dp_x} = \frac{\partial x}{\partial p_x} \Big|_{u=\bar{u}} - \frac{\partial x}{\partial I} \cdot \frac{\partial I}{\partial p_x}$$

我们分为

$$-\frac{dx}{dp_x} = -\frac{\partial x}{\partial p_x} \Big|_{u=\bar{u}} + \frac{\partial x}{\partial I} \cdot \frac{\partial I}{\partial p_x}$$

价格效应 替代效应是负的非正的

(正负确定只是 (加负号即为非负的, 用以 确定左右两边的关系)

收入效应 (可正可负)

Market Demand

Determining the Market Demand Curve:

我们仅讨论私人物品, 因此是横向加总

Price Elasticity of Demand 需求价格弹性

— Measures the percentage change in the quantity demanded resulting from a percent change in price.

$$E_p = \left| \frac{\% \Delta Q}{\% \Delta P} \right| = \left| \frac{\Delta Q / Q}{\Delta P / P} \right| = \left| \frac{\Delta Q}{\Delta P} \cdot \frac{P}{Q} \right| \quad \text{这里的 } P, Q \text{ 取起终点的平均}$$

$$E_p = \left| \frac{dQ}{dP} \cdot \frac{P}{Q} \right| \quad \text{点弹性 (理论上每一点弹性不同)}$$

$$E_p \begin{cases} > 1 & \text{price-elastic } 1\% \Delta Q > 1\% \Delta P \\ = 1 & \text{unit-elastic } 1\% \Delta Q = 1\% \Delta P \\ < 1 & \text{price-inelastic } 1\% \Delta Q < 1\% \Delta P \end{cases}$$



## Sales Revenue and Own-price Elasticity of Demand.

sellers revenue:  $R(p) = p \times X(p)$

$$\therefore R(p) = \frac{dR(p)}{dp} = X(p) + p \times \frac{dX(p)}{dp}$$

$$= X(p) \left[ 1 + \frac{p}{X(p)} \times \frac{dX(p)}{dp} \right]$$

那  $\left| \frac{dR(p)}{dp} \right| = X(p) [1 + \epsilon]$ , 其中  $\epsilon$  是价格弹性.

$\epsilon > -1$ , 可以涨价 (即  $|\epsilon| < 1$ )

$\epsilon = -1$ , 不动价格 (即  $|\epsilon| = 1$ )

$\epsilon < -1$ , 可以降价 (即  $|\epsilon| > 1$ )

## Marginal Revenue 边际收益.

销售量变化引起的收益变化

$$MR(q) = \frac{dR(q)}{dq}$$

$$= \frac{dp(q)}{dq} \cdot q + p(q) = p(q) \cdot \left[ \frac{dp(q)}{dq} \cdot \frac{q}{p(q)} + 1 \right]$$

$$\text{那 } MR(q) = p(q) \left[ 1 + \frac{1}{\epsilon} \right]$$

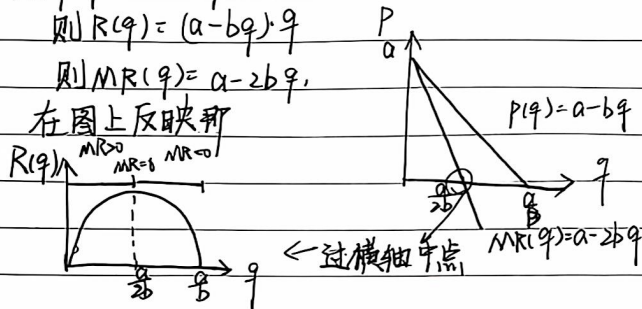
若

$$p(q) = a - bq$$

$$\text{则 } R(q) = (a - bq) \cdot q$$

$$\text{则 } MR(q) = a - 2bq$$

在图上反映那



## Income Elasticity:

$$\eta_{X_i, m} = \frac{X_i}{m} \times \frac{dm}{dX_i} \quad (\text{其中 } X_i \text{ 是 } m \text{ 的函数, 表示 } i)$$

normal good:  $\eta > 0$

inferior good:  $\eta < 0$

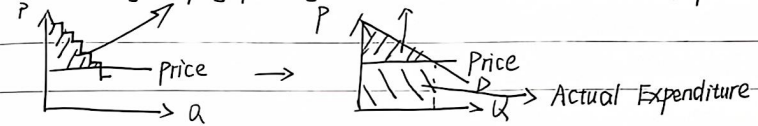
Luxury good:  $\eta > 1$

necessary good:  $0 < \eta < 1$

## Consumer Surplus:

Consumers buy goods because it makes them better off

如何衡量: The difference between the maximum amount a consumer is willing to pay for a good and the amount actually paid.



Application: 评估政策的投入与收益.

## Chapter 4 Choice under Uncertainty

### Introduction:

Choice with certainty is reasonably straight forward.

有风险条件下, 理性人又该如何决策?

### Describing Risk:

To measure risk:

1. All of possible outcomes

2. The probability or likelihood that each outcome will occur.

Contingencies 不测事件, 可能性, 应急措施

A contract implemented only when a particular state of Nature occurs is state-contingent.

Expected Value 数学期望.

$$\bar{X}_n = E(X) = \sum p_i X_i \quad \text{在概率意义上的加权平均.}$$

Variability 方差

$$\sigma^2 = \sum p_i [X_i - E(X)]^2 + \dots + p_n [X_n - E(X)]^2$$

standard deviation 标准差

$$\sigma = \sqrt{\sum p_i [X_i - E(X)]^2}$$

## Preference Towards Risk

Expected Utility Theorem 期望效用定理

$$U(X_1, \dots, X_N) \mid p_1, p_2, \dots, p_N \\ = E_u(X) = \sum_{i=1}^N p_i u(X_i)$$

给定不确定性的组合及其相应的概率，可以内在一致地刻画消费者的理性选择。

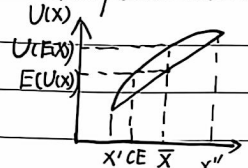
→ 这个  $u$  是在具体的结果  $X_i$  上 (伯努利效用函数)

$U$  是定义在整个事件上的 (冯·诺依曼效用函数)

如何来定义风险偏好性?

Risk Averse 风险厌恶:  $U(E(X)) > E(U(X))$

The person has a diminishing marginal utility of income

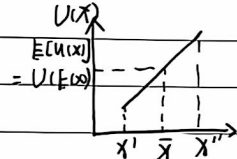


$$U(E(X)) > E(U(X))$$

$$CE < \bar{x}$$

当  $x$  增加,  $U(x)$  的增加值小于当  $x$  减少 1 时  $U(x)$  减少值 (递减收入边际效用递减)

Risk neutral 风险中性:

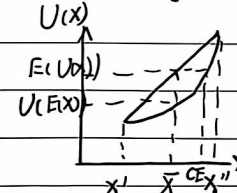


$$U(E(X)) = E(U(X))$$

$$CE = \bar{x}$$

收入边际效用不变

Risk loving 风险偏好:



$$U(E(X)) < E(U(X))$$

$$CE > \bar{x}$$

收入边际效用递增

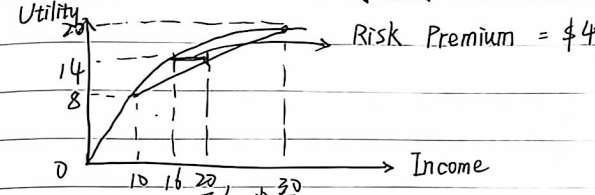
严格凹  $\rightarrow U'(x) > 0, U''(x) < 0$

Jensen Inequality: for any strictly concave function  $u(\cdot)$ ,

$$U(E(X)) > E(U(X)), \text{ 那是风险规避的}$$

等价的; 对应的事物  
Certainty Equivalent

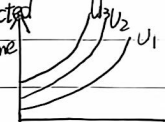
Risk Premium: 类似一种“赎金”, 一个恩格尔实验



For any gamble, we can get its certainty equivalent and make a comparison between different gambles.

Risk Aversion and indifference Curves

Expected Income



Highly Risk Averse: 方差增加, 要求有更大的收入期望增长, 才满足 satisfaction

Standard Deviation of Income  $\rightarrow$  可以用方差描述风险

Expected Income



Slightly Risk Averse:

Standard Deviation of Income

平均数

Mean - Variance Approach

Given  $u(W)$ , the second-order Taylor series expansion of  $u(W)$  at  $W = E(W)$ :

$$u(W) \approx u(EW) + u'(EW)(W - EW) + \frac{1}{2} u''(\cdot) (W - EW)^2 \text{ (泰勒展开)}$$

$$Eu(W) \approx u(EW) + \frac{1}{2} u''(\cdot) E(W - EW)^2$$

$$\text{即 } Eu(W) = u(EW) + \frac{1}{2} u''(\cdot) \text{Var}(W)$$

这表明可以从  $u''(\cdot)$  这里是一种算标准差的方式 ( $>0$ )

的正负和大小判断风险偏好性

$u''(\cdot) > 0$  风险喜好,  $u''(\cdot) < 0$  风险厌恶

Risk and Crime Deterrence

prison - 与机会成本有关, 能保持国家威慑力



Costs of apprehending criminals are not zero

→ Fines must be higher than the costs to society.

所有犯罪者都会考虑期望与犯罪成本。

假设被逮捕的社会成本是\$5, 他 risk neutral

那么若有 0.1 的概率被抓

cost of apprehension 是 0

那么至少应罚款 50.

A rational criminal won't commit a crime if:

$$(1-p)R < p \cdot C \text{ or } R < \frac{p}{1-p} C$$

其中  $p$  是被抓的概率,  $C$  是罚款,  $R$  是犯罪收益.

so raising  $p$  or  $C$  are same effective.

Question? 为什么不轻罪重罚, 反正会被罚

如果重罚, 因为轻罪到重罪的成本太小 (大不了死), 反而会加重重罪风险 → the penalty is so low in China.

(效率与公平的考量, 法律应当考虑公平正义)

此外, 犯罪者对自己被罚的概率  $p$  的认知可能小于  $p$  的实际概率, 仍然有其犯罪动机。

Reducing Risk:

• Diversification 分散风险

即多元化经营, 比如购买多个股票 (关系较小), 生产不同产品

• Insurance 保险

风险厌恶: 获得期望严格好过面对风险.  $U(E(X)) > E(U(X))$

The law of large numbers 大数定律. (扩大样本, 概率收敛)

假设有  $N$  个农户, 组织一个合作社整合粮食统一分配

$X_i \sim N(\mu, \sigma^2)$  正态分布,  $X_i$  are i.i.d

$$\bar{X}_N = \frac{1}{N} \sum_{i=1}^N X_i$$

$$\bar{X}_N \rightarrow \mu \text{ 则 } Var(\bar{X}_N) = \frac{1}{N} \sigma^2 \rightarrow 0$$

即只要足够多农民即可达到概率收敛和期望收敛.

保险公司只保独立风险, 很少保系统风险 (如地震, 洪水)

国家强制买医保也是为了提高保险效率, 实现规模收益.

(1) Averse selection 逆向选择. (事前的)

有信息的一方会损害无信息的一方

(2) Moral Hazard 道德风险 (事后的)

购买保险后会影响到持保人的行为

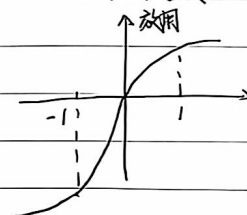
(以上即信息经济学 / 信息不对称的研究对象).

风险的启示:

1. 厌恶损失: 人对损失比收益更敏感, 比如抛硬币, 正面得 100, 反面输 100, 太多人不做. (不愿放弃手里已有的, 不能轻易降价) (现状-defau)

2. 破罐子破摔: 收益时风险厌恶, 损失时风险喜好.

3. 锚定效应: 原点是效用的参照系, 但也可以选择其他系 (原点可操纵)



注意不是对称的!

正收益 1 单位带来的效用增加 < 损失 1 单位带来的效用减少

## Chapter 5 Production

### Production decisions of a firm.

1. production technology: inputs  $\rightarrow$  outputs

2. cost constraints:

3. Input choices: Given 1. and 2., to minimize costs by combinations

Capital: 能改变生产能力的非人力物质资本(土地、机器...)

The production function of inputs:

$$q = F(K, L)$$

output is function of capital (K) and labor (L)

F 这个函数代表了 Technology of production, 是为生产函数。

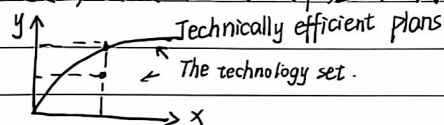
扩展性的生产函数:  $y \leq f(x_1, \dots, x_n)$

Short run vs. Long run

如何定义短期: 至少一种 input 是固定的, 多数情况下是资本

长期是指长到所有要素都是 variable inputs.

定义生产函数: 在技术效率基础上的投入-产出关系

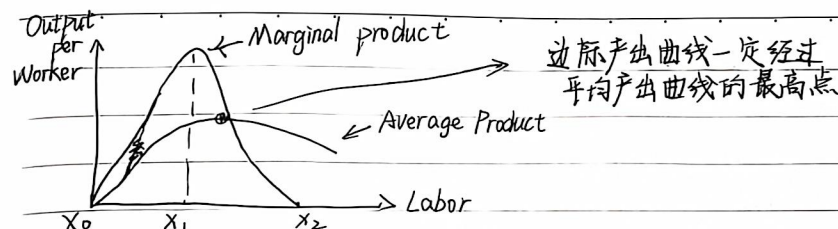
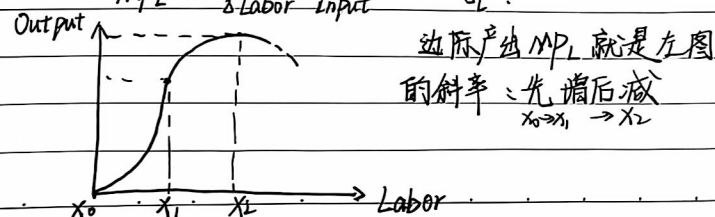


Average product of labor - output per unit of a particular product

$$AP_L = \frac{\text{Output}}{\text{Labor Input}} = \frac{q}{L}$$

Marginal product of Labor - additional output produced when labor increases by one unit.

$$MP_L = \frac{\Delta \text{Output}}{\Delta \text{Labor Input}} = \frac{\Delta q}{\Delta L}$$



什么是剩余劳动力? 绝对剩余: 边际产出 < 最低需求

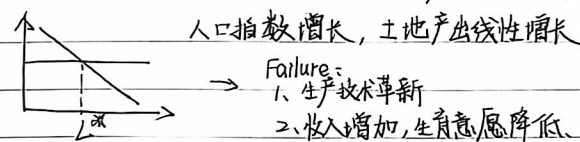
(边际产出 < 最低工资)

传统家庭生产不能开除劳动力, 但工资不会付给绝对剩余劳动力(没雇佣). 内卷: 密集地投入劳动力, 但产出平均产出和边际产出在减少, 即使总产出提高, 人均生活水平却不提高.

Law of diminishing marginal returns: 边际产出递减

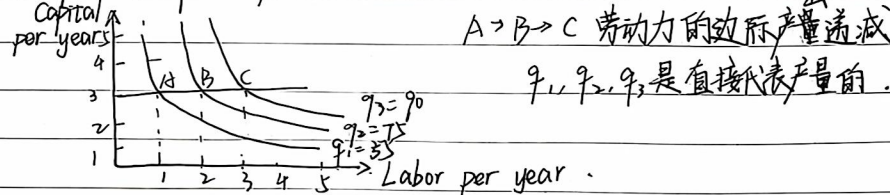
$\rightarrow$  要求 other inputs are fixed

Malthus and the Food Crisis 马尔萨斯人口陷阱



Production: Two Variable Inputs.

Isogram Map 等产量曲线



类似有替代率和边际产出

MRTS (marginal rate of the technical substitution) 边际技术替代率

$$= - \frac{\text{Change in Capital Input}}{\text{Change in Labor Input}}$$

$$= - \frac{\Delta K}{\Delta L} \quad (\text{for a fixed level of } q)$$

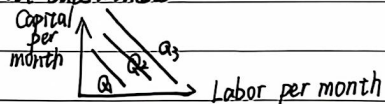


holding output constant, the net effect of increasing labor and decreasing capital must be zero.

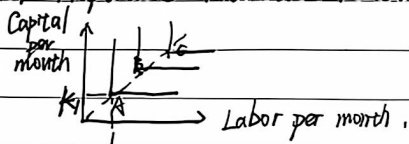
$$MP_L \cdot dL + MP_K \cdot dK = 0$$

$$MRTS = -\frac{dK}{dL} = \frac{MP_L}{MP_K}$$

perfect substitutes:



Fixed-Proportions Production Function.

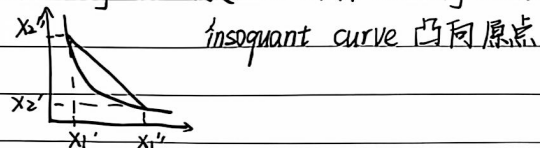


Well-behaved Technology

Monotonicity 单调性: 如果增加一个要素投入, 产量至少保持不变

假设: property of free disposal 减少要素投入不产生成本.

Convexity 凸函数 (or even strictly convex)



isoquant curve 凸向原点

Return to Scale 规模回报 (报酬)

定义: 增加所有投入带来的产量变化 (只变一个一边际收益)

• Constant Return to Scale 固定规模回报 (报酬) (CRTS)

$$f(tx_1, tx_2, \dots, tx_n) = t \cdot f(x_1, \dots, x_n)$$

即有观上所有的投入  $\rightarrow$  产出是可复制的

Diminishing MP and CRTS

$$y = x_1^\alpha \cdot x_2^{1-\alpha} \quad (0 < \alpha < 1)$$

$$f(tx_1, tx_2) = t \cdot x_1^\alpha \cdot tx_2^{1-\alpha} = ty, \text{ 即固定规模报酬}$$

$$\frac{\partial^2 y}{\partial x_1^2} = \alpha(\alpha-1) x_1^{\alpha-2} x_2^{1-\alpha} < 0, \quad \frac{\partial^2 y}{\partial x_1 \partial x_2} = -\alpha x_1^{\alpha-1} x_2^{-\alpha} > 0$$

边际收益递减  $\rightarrow$  两者不矛盾, 可同时存在.

Increasing Return to Scale 规模报酬递增

$$f(tx_1, tx_2, \dots, tx_n) > t \cdot f(x_1, x_2, \dots, x_n), \text{ for any } t > 1.$$

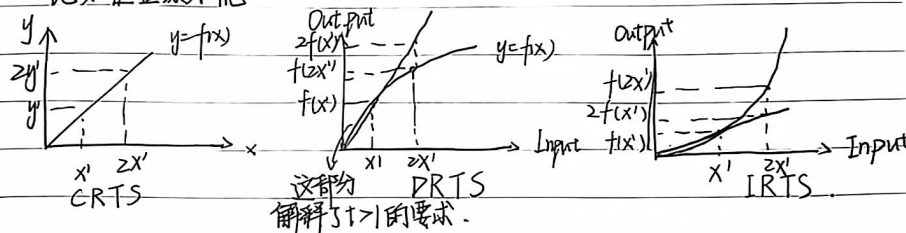
比如知识的创造, 不同的知识生产者带来的知识交流爆炸.

Decreasing Return to Scale 规模报酬递减

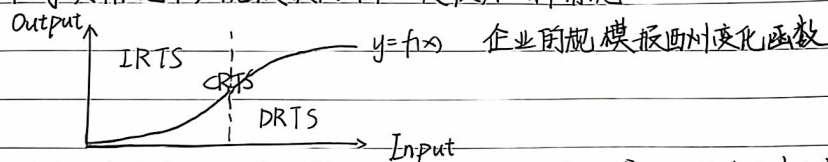
$$f(tx_1, tx_2, \dots, tx_n) < t \cdot f(x_1, x_2, \dots, x_n), \text{ for any } t > 1.$$

表明存在无法被简单复制的要素, 即数量扩大而质量降低,

比如企业家才能



在事实情况下, 规模报酬不一定仅为一种情况



对科布-道格拉斯生产函数:  $y = A \cdot x_1^\alpha \cdot x_2^\beta$  (A是全要素生产率)

$$\alpha + \beta = 1 \Rightarrow \text{CRTS}$$

$$\alpha + \beta > 1 \Rightarrow \text{IRTS}$$

$$\alpha + \beta < 1 \Rightarrow \text{DRTS}$$

扩展包:  $y = x_1^{\alpha_1} x_2^{\alpha_2} \dots x_n^{\alpha_n}$

$$(kx_1)^{\alpha_1} (kx_2)^{\alpha_2} \dots (kx_n)^{\alpha_n} = k^{\alpha_1 + \dots + \alpha_n} y$$

$$\alpha_1 + \dots + \alpha_n = 1 \Rightarrow \text{CRTS}$$

$$\alpha_1 + \dots + \alpha_n > 1 \Rightarrow \text{IRTS}$$

$$\alpha_1 + \dots + \alpha_n < 1 \Rightarrow \text{DRTS}$$

## Chapter 6 The cost of Production

### Cost minimizing Input Choice

Assumptions: Two inputs: L and K

price of Labor: wage rate (w)

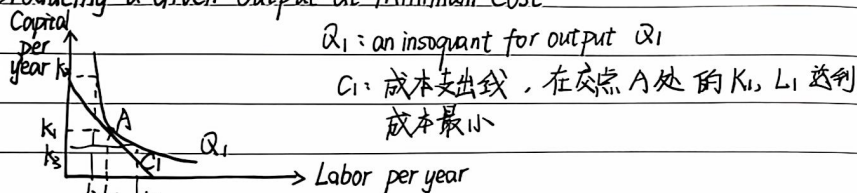
The price of Capital (r):

• r = depreciation rate + interest rate } 在完全竞争  
• Or rental rate if not purchasing } 市场中相同。

The isocost Line 等成本线

$$C = wL + rK \quad \left( \frac{dK}{dL} = -\frac{w}{r} \right)$$

producing a Given Output at Minimum Cost



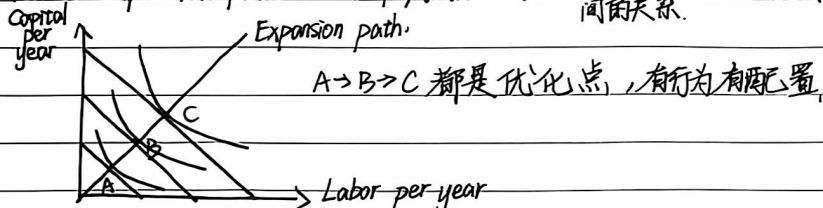
$$MRTS = -\frac{dK}{dL} = -\frac{MP_L}{MP_K}$$

slope of isocost line =  $\frac{dK}{dL} = -\frac{w}{r}$

$$\frac{MP_L}{MP_K} = \frac{w}{r} \text{ when firm minimizes cost}$$

即  $\frac{MP_L}{w} = \frac{MP_K}{r}$  即花在投入上的多1块钱在各投入要素上实际收益相同。

A Firm's Expansion path 一个扩张目标对应的最小成本 → 长期成本函数间的关系。



From Cost Minimization to Cost Functions.

$$\min w_1x_1 + w_2x_2 \quad \text{s.t.} \quad f(x_1, x_2) = \bar{y}$$

$$L(x_1, x_2, \lambda) = w_1x_1 + w_2x_2 + \lambda [\bar{y} - f(x_1, x_2)]$$

$$\Rightarrow x_i^*(w_1, w_2, y) \quad (i=1, 2) \quad (\text{优化后的投入量})$$

conditional factor demand.

$$\Rightarrow C[x_1^*(w_1, w_2, y), x_2^*(w_1, w_2, y)] = C(w_1, w_2, y)$$

即 C 是  $w_1, w_2, y$  的函数 (因为  $w_1, w_2$  已经优化过了)。  
(C 就是说的“长期成本函数”)

Return to Scale and the Cost Functions.

1. CRTS:

Denote  $C(w_1, w_2, 1)$  as the unit cost function.

The minimal cost to produce y units of output

$$C(w_1, w_2, y) = y \cdot C(w_1, w_2, 1)$$

$$\frac{C(w_1, w_2, y)}{y} = AC = C(w_1, w_2, 1),$$

即 AC 不变, CRTS

2. IRTS 情况下 AC 递减

3. DRTS 情况下 AC 递增

Long Run VS. Short Run Costs.

relationship between LR and SR Costs.

$$\min w_1x_1 + w_2x_2 \quad \text{s.t.} \quad f(x_1, x_2) = y$$

$$\Rightarrow C_S(y, \bar{x}_2) = w_1x_1^S(w_1, w_2, \bar{x}_2, y) + w_2\bar{x}_2$$

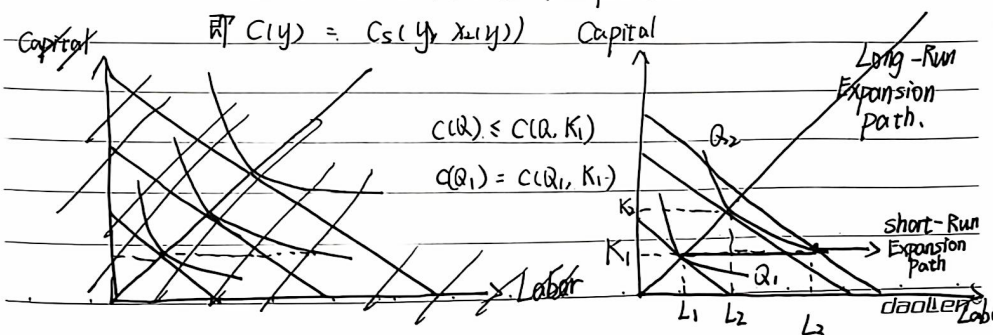
$$\min w_1x_1 + w_2x_2 \quad \text{s.t.} \quad f(x_1, x_2) = y$$

$$\Rightarrow C(y) = w_1x_1(w_1, w_2, y) + w_2x_2(w_1, w_2, y)$$

直观上  $C(y) \leq C_S(y, \bar{x}_2)$  即长期成本 ≤ 短期成本

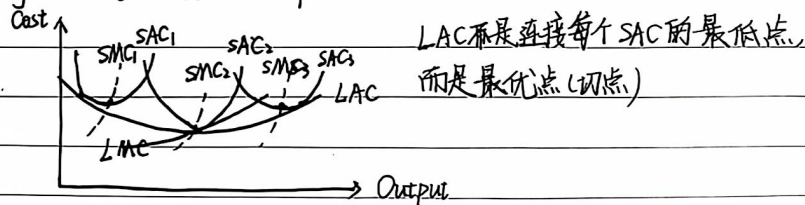
当且仅当  $\bar{x}_2$  在最好经济水平时取“=”

$$\text{即 } C(y) = C_S(y, x_2(y))$$





## Long Run Cost as Envelope Curve.



Measuring Cost: which cost matter? 成本是什么?

Accounting cost 会计成本: 在生产中实际产生的费用 (总结性)

Economic cost 经济学成本: 在生产中使用的经济学资源, 包括机会成本 (前瞻性)

Opportunity cost: 机会成本 (不反映在会计报表)

- arises from 2 facts: resource scarcity (稀缺性) multiple uses of a scarce resource

- 若选择最优项, 则次优项为机会成本; 若未选最优项, 则最优项为机会成本。

→ opportunities that are foregone when a firm's resources are not put to their highest-value use.

- 财务成本不会反映机会成本, 但机会成本重要地影响决策。

Sunk cost: 沉没成本 (会反映在会计报表)。

- Def: Expenditure that has been made and cannot be recovered (回收)。
- Should not influence a firm's future economic decisions.
- 沉没成本站在事后决策, 追求最大化地挽回损失甚或创造收益。

## Fixed and Variable costs

Some costs vary with output, while some remain the same

$$TC = FC + VC$$

which costs are variable / fixed depends on the time horizon

Short time horizon — most costs are fixed

Long time horizon — most costs are variable

→ Marginal and Average cost.

## 3.29 习题课

Lagrange optimization method. 拉格朗日最优化问题

For optimization problem  $\max_{x=(x_1, \dots, x_n)} f(x)$

s.t.  $g_i(x) = 0, i = 1, \dots, m$   $m$  个等式约束

$h_j(x) \geq 0, j = 1, \dots, n$   $n$  个不等式约束

define Lagrange function.

$$L(x, \lambda, \mu) = f(x) + \sum_{i=1}^m \lambda_i g_i(x) + \sum_{j=1}^n \mu_j h_j(x), x \text{ 和 } \mu \text{ 是等式(不等式)约束}$$

$$\text{Optimization: } \frac{\partial L(x, \lambda, \mu)}{\partial x_k} = \frac{\partial f(x)}{\partial x_k} + \sum_{i=1}^m \lambda_i \frac{\partial g_i(x)}{\partial x_k} + \sum_{j=1}^n \mu_j \frac{\partial h_j(x)}{\partial x_k} = 0, k = 1, \dots, n$$

Feasibility:  $h_j(x) \geq 0$  and  $g_i(x) = 0 \leq (m \text{ equations})$

Slackness conditions:  $\mu_j \geq 0, \mu_j h_j(x) = 0$  ( $n$  equations)

We have  $(l+m+n)$  equations and solve for  $(x, \lambda, \mu)$ .

→ 松弛条件中  $\mu_j h_j(x) = 0$  要分  $\mu_j = 0$  和  $h_j(x) = 0$  两种情况讨论。

## 拟线性效用函数

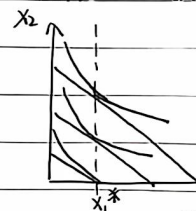
$$U(x_1, x_2) = V(x_1) + x_2$$

$$MRS = - \frac{dx_2}{dx_1} = \frac{U_1(x_1, x_2)}{U_2(x_1, x_2)} = V'(x_1)$$

此时效用函数是沿  $x_2$  上下平移的

$x_2$  可以理解为一 般等价物 (比如钱)

当  $x_1^*$  (角点解) 达到后, 无论 Budget Constraint



如何变化,  $x_1$  的消费量为  $x_1^*$  (这就是对  $x_1$  而言收入效应的消失)

## Marginal Cost (MC):

增加一单位产出所需的成本

$$MC = \frac{dTC}{dq} = \frac{dVC}{dq} \quad (\text{Fixed cost have no impact})$$

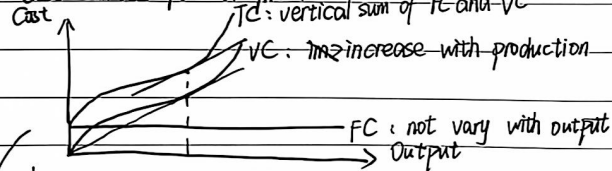
## Average Total Cost (ATC):

每单位产出所需的成本

$$ATC = \frac{TC}{q} = AFC + AVC$$

$$ATC = \frac{TC}{q} = \frac{TFC}{q} + \frac{VC}{q}$$

## Cost curves for a firm.



MC与AC的交点即AC最低点

$$MC = f'(x) \quad AC = \frac{f(x)}{x}$$

$$\frac{f(x) - x f'(x)}{x^2} = \left( \frac{f(x)}{x} \right)' < 0 \quad \text{即 } AC' < 0$$

$$> 0 \quad \text{即 } AC' > 0$$

The line drawn from the origin to the variable cost curve:

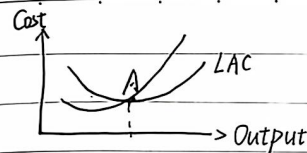
- its slope equals to AVC

- The slope of a point on VC or TC equals MC

## Long Run VS. Short Run Cost Curves.

→ in the long run:

- Firms experience increasing and decreasing returns to scale.
- Source of U-shape is due to returns to scale instead of decreasing returns to scale due to like the short-run curve.
- Long-run marginal cost curve measures the change in long-run total costs as output is increased by 1 unit.
- In special case where LAC is constant,  $LAC = LMC$ .



As output increase, firm's AC of producing is likely to decline to a point.

- On a larger scale, workers can be better specialize
  - Scale can provide flexibility - managers can organize production more effectively
  - Firm may be able to get inputs at lower cost if can get quantity discounts. Lower prices may lead to different input mix.
- At some point, AC will begin to increase
  - Factory space and machinery may make it more difficult for workers to do their jobs efficiently
  - Management may become more complex and inefficient as the number of tasks increase
  - Bulk discounts can no longer be utilized. Limited availability of inputs cause rising price
- Production with two outputs - Economies of Scope 范围经济
- 如: chicken farm - poultry and eggs
- The degree of economies of Scope (SC)
- $$SC = \frac{C(q_1) + C(q_2) - C(q_1, q_2)}{C(q_1, q_2)}$$
- $C(q_1), C(q_2) \rightarrow$  cost of producing  $q_1, q_2$
- $C(q_1, q_2) \rightarrow$  joint cost of producing both products



## Chapter 7 Profit Maximization and Supply Behavior.

for firm's rational behavior (公司规模个所有权与经营权分离)

Do firms really maximize profits?   
 - agency problems for CEOs   
 - not-for-profit organizations (hospitals / schools)

A firm uses inputs  $j=1, \dots, m$  to make products  $i=1, \dots, n$ .

Output levels are  $y_1, \dots, y_n$ . Input levels are  $x_1, \dots, x_m$ .

Output prices are  $p_1, \dots, p_n$ . Input prices are  $w_1, \dots, w_m$ .

### Perfectly Competitive Markets - Price Taking

The firm takes all ~~prod~~ Output prices and Input prices as given constants

The economic profit generated by the production plan is:

$$\Pi = p_1 y_1 + \dots + p_n y_n - w_1 x_1 - \dots - w_m x_m$$

How to value a firm?

设公司每个阶段的利润为  $\pi_0, \pi_1, \dots$ ,  $r$  是利率

$$\text{Present Value (PV)} = \pi_0 + \frac{\pi_1}{1+r} + \frac{\pi_2}{(1+r)^2} + \dots$$

### Marginal Revenue, Marginal Cost and Profit maximization

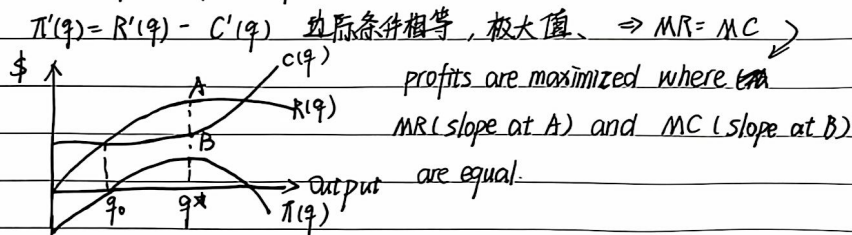
(不必再有完全竞争市场的假设)

$$\text{Profit } (\Pi) = \text{Total Revenue} - \text{Total Cost}$$

if  $q$  is output of the firm, Total Revenue ( $R$ ) =  $P \cdot q$

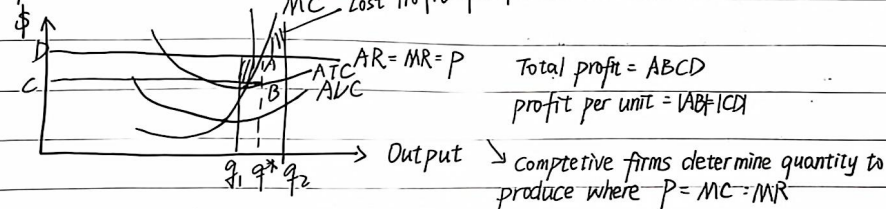
Profit for the firm,  $\Pi$ , is different between revenue and costs

$$\Pi(q) = R(q) - C(q)$$



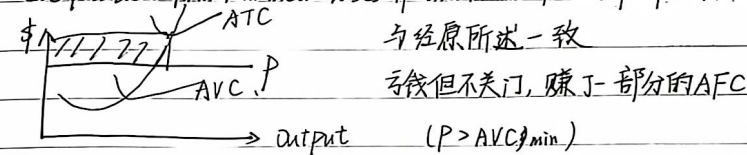
或: profit is maximized at the point where an additional increase in output leaves profit unchanged.

A competitive Firm   
 Lost profit for  $P_1 < P^*$    
 Lost profit for  $P_2 > P^*$

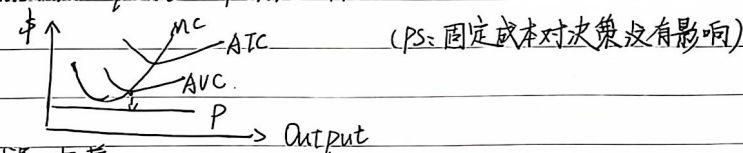


注: A firm doesn't have to make profits

It's possible a firm will incur losses if the  $P < AC$  for the profit maximizing quantity



Shutdown point:  $P < AVC < ATC$



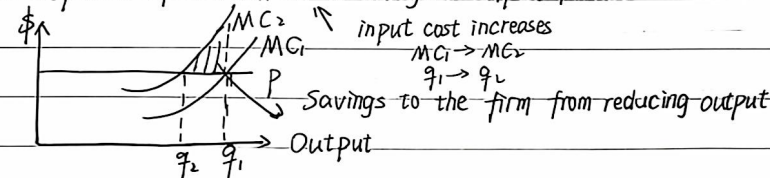
求导, 起源   
 Derivation of the Supply Curve

$$\text{Max } \Pi(q) = Pq - C(q) \quad \text{s.t. } \Pi \geq -F \Rightarrow P \geq AVC$$

$$\frac{d\Pi}{dq} = P - C'(q) = 0 \Rightarrow P = C'(q)$$

$$\frac{d^2\Pi}{dq^2} = -C''(q) < 0$$

The Response of a Firm to a Change in Input Price.



市场供给 = 各厂商水平加总

Elasticity of Market Supply 供给的弹性

$$E_s = \frac{\Delta Q/Q}{\Delta P/P}$$

$\Rightarrow$  The percentage change in  $Q$  in response to 1 percent change in price

· 时间长, 弹性越大

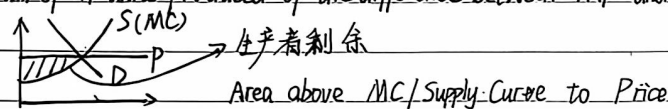
· MC 增加越快, 弹性越小

→ perfectly elastic: MC are constant

perfectly inelastic: new plants must be built to achieve greater output

Producer Surplus in the Short Run

— sum of all units produced of the difference between MP and MC



Producer Surplus VS. profit

When fixed cost is positive, producer surplus > profit

$$\text{Producer Surplus (PS)} = \int R - VC$$

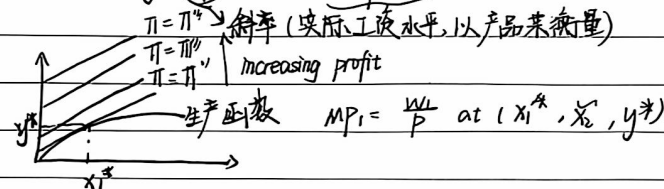
$$\text{Profit} = \pi = \int R - VC - FC$$

假设在 Short-run 中  $x_2 = \bar{x}_2$  那么  $w_2 x_2 = w_2 \bar{x}_2 = FC$  不变

$$\pi = p y - w_1 x_1 - w_2 \bar{x}_2$$

→ iso-profit line 等利润线 that contains all production plans with profit  $\pi$

上式写为  $y = \frac{w_1}{p} x_1 + \frac{\pi + w_2 \bar{x}_2}{p}$  → 不变 (等利润线)



$$MP_1 = \frac{w_1}{p} \Leftrightarrow p \cdot MP_1 = w_1$$

$p \cdot MP_1$  is the marginal revenue product of input 1

if  $p \cdot MP_1 > w_1$ , the profit increases with  $x_1$

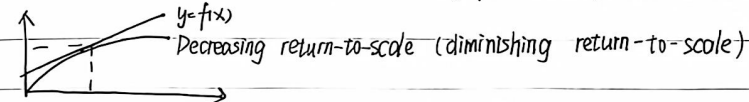
if  $p \cdot MP_1 < w_1$ , profit decreases with  $x_1$

Long-Run Profit maximization

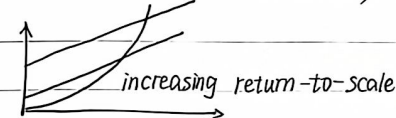
· vary both input levels

· no fixed costs

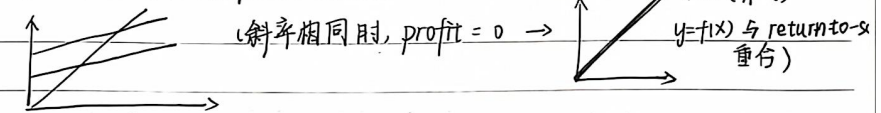
若规模效应递减, 公司会有一个 maximizing production plan.



若规模效应递增, 企业将无限扩大产量, 没有 maximizing-profit plan.



若规模报酬不变, 同样没有均衡点



For long run equilibrium, firms must have no desire to enter / leave the industry.

Account profit: Difference between revenue and direct costs

Economic profit: take indirect cost into consideration (opportunity cost)

$$AP: \pi_N = R - WL - rK$$

$$EP: \pi_e = R - WL - rK - \pi_n$$

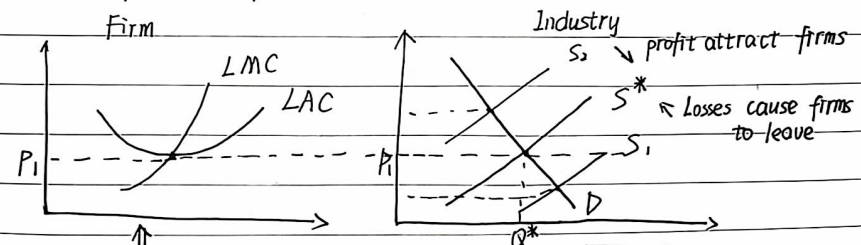
WL: Labor cost    rK: rental cost of capital     $\pi_n$ : opportunity cost

→ Zero-profit (经济成本为 0, 会计成本不一定为 0)

A firm is earning a normal return on its investment.

没有超额利润  $\Rightarrow$  行业长期均衡

Long-Run Competitive Equilibrium — Profits



价格的变化到代表性企业平均成本最低点为止.

长期均衡的动力来自短期不均衡带来的企业进出.



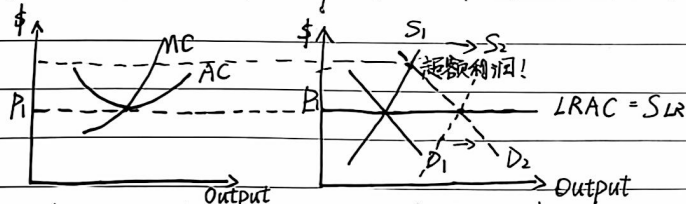
行业形成长期均衡的条件:

1. All firms are maximizing profits. 即  $MR = MC$
2. No firm has incentive to enter/leave the industry 即  $P = AC$ , 超额利润 = 0
3. Market is in equilibrium 即  $Q_D = Q_S$

The industry's Long-Run Supply Curve.

• Constant-Cost Industry 固定成本行业

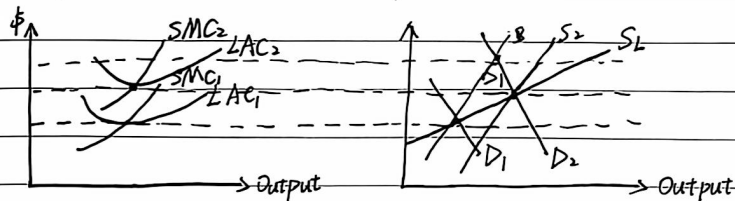
其他企业的进入和退出不会影响代表性企业的成本结构。price of input fixed 即各企业成本相对独立, 且要素成本没有价格变动 (缺乏外部性)



即表明行业能在  $P = P_1$  时满足任何数量的消费需求

• Increasing-Cost Industry

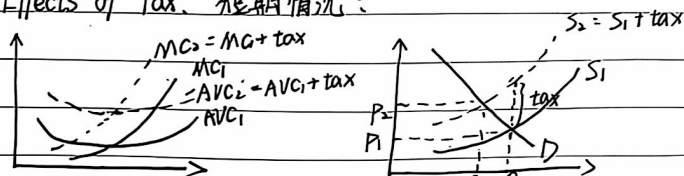
市场中企业的增加抬高了投入的价格



• Decreasing-Cost Industry

同理  $S_L$  是 downward slopping 的, 不再作图

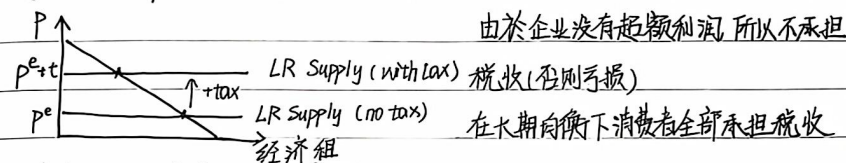
The Effects of Tax 短期情况:



即若 Curve D 向下倾斜,  $P_1 \rightarrow P_2$  上涨小于 tax,

即税收由生产者和消费者共同负担。

Long-Run implications for Taxation



Fixed Inputs and Economic Rent

What if there is a barrier to entry or exit? (比如出租车牌照)

Q: Will the firms in the industry make positive economic profits?

A: No, remain zero economic profit. (没有超额利润)

• An input that is fixed in the long-run causes a long-run fixed cost,  $F$ .

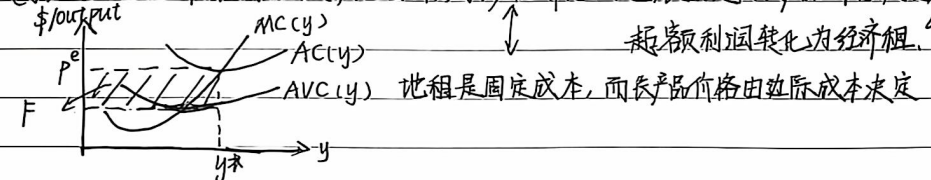
• Long-run total cost,  $c(y) = F + C_v(y)$

• And long-run average total cost,  $AC(y) = AFC(y) + AVC(y)$

理解:  $F$  是动态的,  $F$  吸收了这个 barrier 的执有者在执有这个 barrier 时的收益作为转让这个 barrier 的机会成本  $\rightarrow$  经济成本 = 0

这个 barrier 包括有 license 等, 其价格就是其带来的会计收入。

Economic Rent 从影响和性质而言和 land rent 地租类似, 在长期范围固定 (李嘉图: 土地作为要素投入, 地租不参与农产品价格决定, 反而由农产品价格决定)



The equilibrium rent for the fixed input will be whatever it takes to drive profits to zero.

$$\text{Rent} = P^* y^* - C_v(y^*)$$

☆ It is the equilibrium price that determines rent, not the reverse.

$\rightarrow$  High profits may be hidden rents.

An equilibrium rent should be deducted from the accounting profit.

## Rent-Seeking

“租”是对许多个人和企业不能轻易替代的稀缺能力、不可复制的属性的回报，不是“苦劳”，而是“功劳”。

比如 Talent, <sup>专利权</sup> patent, 或单纯的 license license.

这就是企业的竞争力来源，因为要素投入是可变，不独特的。

This leads to rent-seeking activities. (指想办法获取 license)

寻租只是利益的再分配，不影响生产，社会纯粹损失 (指非生产性的)

→ A pure deadweight loss since no more output produced.

· They simply grab rents.

## Chapter 8 Market Equilibrium

Market equilibrium / "market is cleared" 市场均衡/出清

总需求 = 总供给,  $D(p) = S(p)$

Comparative Statics 比较静态

· Shifting demand curves: income, price of other goods

· Shifting supply curves: technology

· Taxes.

Quantity tax — on each unit traded.

{ excise tax 生产税 — levied on sellers

{ sales tax 消费税 — levied on buyers.

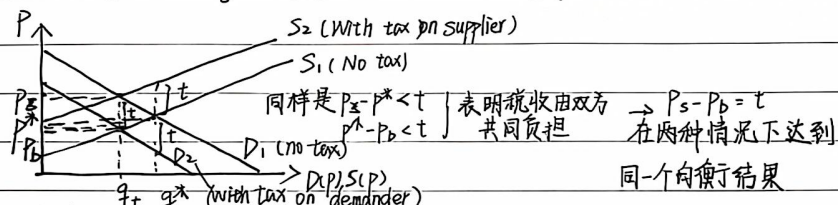
· A tax rate  $t$  makes  $P_b - P_s = t$ , 其中  $P_b, P_s$  是 Subbuyer, seller 看到的分别的价格

· Even with tax the market must clear

$$D(P_b) = S(P_s)$$

以上两个式子描述了市场均衡情况，从结果而言。

征收数量税在 buyer 和 seller 上没有区别 ②



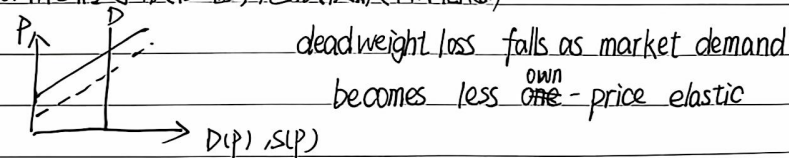
☆ 供给需求弹性的绝对值大小决定了税收分担的多少

弹性越大，税收分担越小。

→  $(q^*, p^*)$  maximize social welfare, 在最后一单位实现了预期收益 = 预期成本

Deadweight Loss and <sup>own</sup> price Elasticities

(价格信号被扭曲，无法反映市场信息)



when  $\epsilon_D = 0$ , the tax causes no deadweight loss. ∴ daollen®

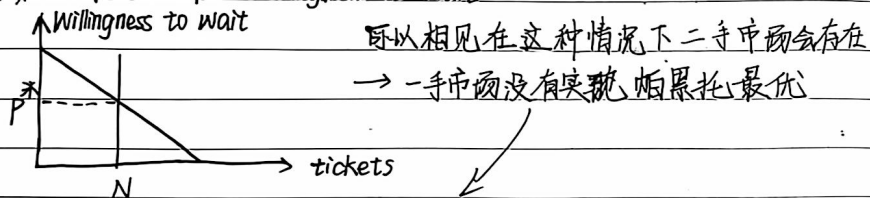


Price Control 价格管控同样释放了错误的市场信息,

(市场机制是一种对稀缺资源的配置)

Application: Waiting in Line (排队, 作为一种非价格的配置方式)

仍然有配置标准: willingness to wait



为什么排队不能实现帕累托最优?

private cost 私人成本(不包含信息量)引导了社会资源的分配

私人成本不代表 social benefit, 并且对生产方没有价值

## Chapter 9 Market Power: Monopoly and Monopsony

### Review of Perfect Competition

$P = MC = AC$ , zero economic profits

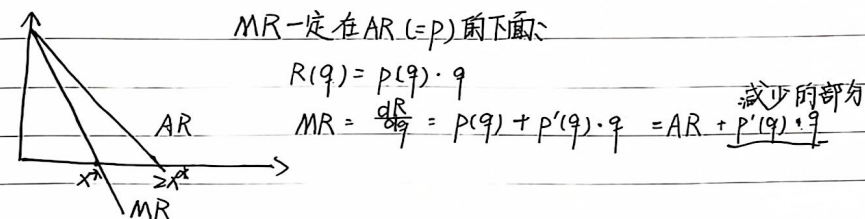
市场主体是价格的接受者, 价格是常数 (区分垄断的关键)

### Monopoly 卖方完全垄断

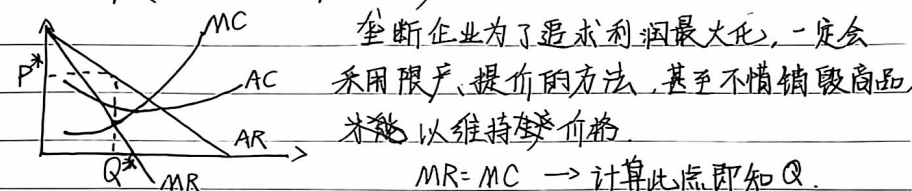
no good substitutes (One product), Barriers to entry, Price Maker

垄断者决策的基础是市场需求曲线

由于垄断者的生产影响市场价格, Average Revenue 和 Marginal Revenue 会出现分歧



此时再引入 MC 和 AC 即可确定产量



在垄断情况下会出现超额利润

A Rule of Thumb for Pricing 最优定价公式

$$P = \frac{MC}{1 + \frac{1}{Ed}} \quad (\text{销售利润率, 或者说在价格上的可缩量})$$

$$\text{推导: } MR = \frac{\Delta R}{\Delta Q} = \frac{\Delta(PQ)}{\Delta Q} = P + Q \frac{\Delta P}{\Delta Q} = P + P \left( \frac{P}{Q} \right) \left( \frac{\Delta Q}{\Delta P} \right)$$

$$\times Ed = \left( \frac{P}{Q} \right) \cdot \left( \frac{\Delta Q}{\Delta P} \right), \text{ 即 } \left( \frac{P}{Q} \right) \cdot \left( \frac{Q}{P} \right) \cdot \left( \frac{\Delta Q}{\Delta P} \right) = \frac{1}{Ed}$$

$$MR = P + P \left( \frac{1}{Ed} \right) = MC \quad \text{则}$$

即在消费者端知晓消费者价格弹性, 生产者即可决定定价

从上式立即得出, 要求  $|Ed| > 1$

定义  $\frac{1}{|E_d|} = \frac{(P-MC)}{P}$  the markup over MC as a percentage of price.  
为 MC 以上的利润比率

$P > MC$  一定会造成社会福利的损失, 达不到帕累托最优  
为什么要求  $|E_d| \geq 1$ ?

直观而言,  $|E_d| < 1$  时, 涨价带来更多收益, 企业有无限涨价的倾向  
当  $|E_d| > 1$ , 即涨价不一定收益更多, 此时才有最大化问题

The larger the elasticity, the closer to a perfectly competitive market.

### Shifts in Demand.

由于价格与数量同时变化, 此时图中必然有生产曲线。

### The Effect of a Tax.

sometimes price can rise by more than the amount of the tax

### The Multi-plant Firm. 多个工厂的情况

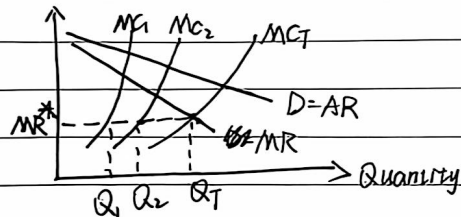
对每个工厂而言都有  $MR = MC$ , 又  $MR$  是一定的, 即要求对工厂产量的分配应使各厂  $MC$  相同。

$$\pi = PQ_T - C_1(Q_1) - C_2(Q_2)$$

$$\frac{\partial \pi}{\partial Q_1} = \frac{\partial (PQ_T)}{\partial Q_1} - \frac{\partial C_1}{\partial Q_1} = 0 \quad \text{即 } MR = MC_1$$

同理  $MR = MC_2$ , 故  $MC_1 = MC_2$

可以通过整个企业的总的  $MC_T$  确定  $MR^*$ , 以此确定  $Q_1, Q_2$



### Measuring Monopoly Power / Market Power 确定垄断势力/市场支配力

#### Lerner's Index of Monopoly Power

$$L = \frac{(P-MC)}{P} = -\frac{1}{E_d}$$

即用这个 "markup" 代表了 monopoly power

### Monopoly Power

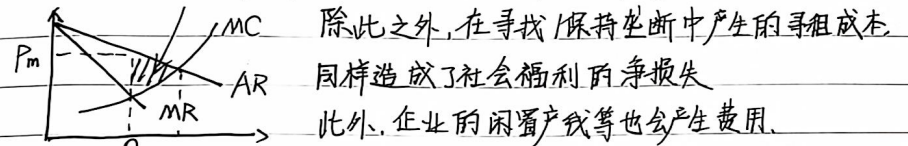
monopoly power doesn't guarantee profits.

profits depends on average cost relative to price

### Sources of Monopoly Power.

The less elastic the demand curve, the more monopoly power a firm.

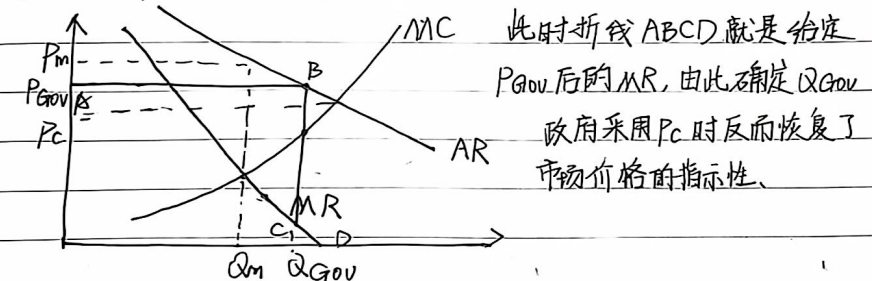
### DWL from monopoly. / Social Cost of Monopoly



### Government Regulation

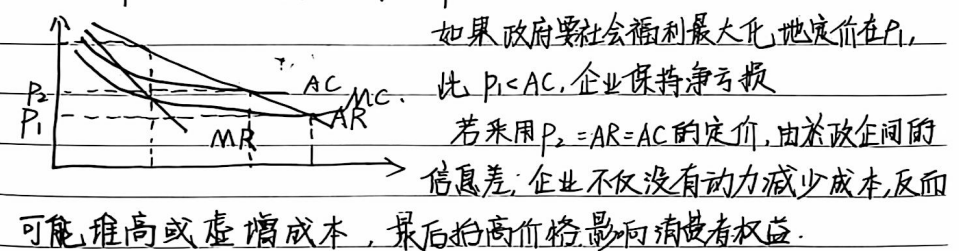
在垄断状况下, 政府采用的价格管制可能可以减少 DWL.

政府限价时仍然有  $MR = MC$



### Nature Monopoly 自然垄断

自然垄断 — 平均成本不断下降  $\rightarrow MC < AC$



### Regulation Capture

稳定的监管关系可能, 导致官商勾结, 监管方定价在被监管方操作下.



## Factors Markets with Monopoly.

产出品市场结构如何影响要素市场?

### Monopoly in the Output Market

企业的 production function  $y=f(x)$

$$R(y) = p(y)y \text{ or } R(x) = R(y(x))$$

$$\frac{dR}{dx} = \frac{dR}{dy} \cdot \frac{dy}{dx} = MR \cdot MP_x \quad (\text{产量的边际收益} \times \text{边际产品})$$

定义 称为“生产要素的边际收益”或“边际收益产品” Marginal Revenue Product (MRP)

### Marginal Revenue Product

in competitive market for the output,  $MRP_x = P \cdot MP_x$

in a monopolistic market,

$$MRP_x = p(y) \left[ 1 - \frac{1}{\epsilon_d} \right] MP_x \leq p MP_x$$

垄断性厂商面对价格下降的效应, MRP 中垄断者估价就低于竞争者 (完全竞争市场)

### Monopsony 买方垄断 (在这里的“要素”指其特定单个要素)

A monopsony is a market in which there is a single buyer

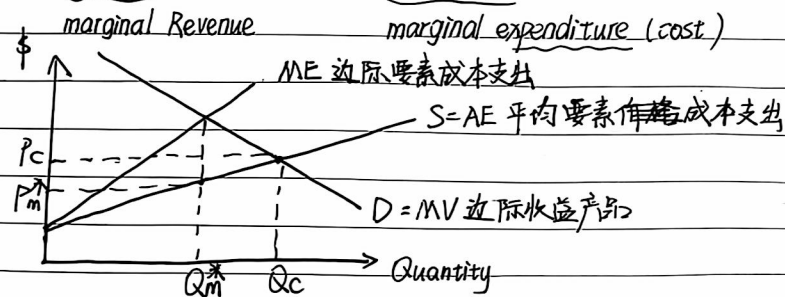
(在要素市场上垄断, 但在产品市场上竞争)

有观上多买一个要素会抬高要素价格, 则即  $AC > MC > AC$  (供给曲线)

### Marginal & Average Expenditure

Max  $p_f(x) - w(x)x$  (产品 price taker, 要素  $w(x)$  受  $x$  影响)

$$p_f'(x) = w + w'(x)x = w \left[ 1 + \frac{1}{\epsilon_s} \right]$$



买方通过抑制采购量来决定要素价格, 达到利润最大化。

垄断的手段就是饥饿营销或者饥饿采购。

Monopoly:

$$MR < AR$$

$$P > MC$$

$$Q_m < Q_c$$

$$P_m > P_c$$

Monopsony:

$$ME > AE$$

$$P < MV$$

$$Q_m < Q_c$$

$$P_m < P_c$$

Monopsony power gives them the ability to pay a price that is less than marginal value.

Monopsony power — Number of buyers Interaction Among Buyers.

小农经济在与大市场的对接中, 缺乏议价能力, 完全听天由命。

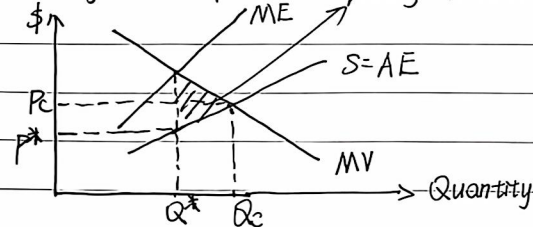
→ 农民协会与农业合作社, 这是东亚国家的解决手段 → 对接要素和

→ 大农场与农业资本主义, 这是西方国家的解决手段 → 产品市场

### ③ Elasticity of market supply

决定了 monopsony 的 markup, 弹性大, 供给曲线平缓, 那么压价能力就有限。

### Dead weight Loss from Monopsony Power



反垄断的, 反托拉斯的 Limiting Market Power: The Antitrust Laws

税收不能挽回 DWL

直接定价可能是不有效的

→ 反垄断法: keep firms from acquiring excessive market power

核心是限制不正当竞争行为, 恢复自由市场秩序

## 美国的反托拉斯政策

### ① (1890) Sherman Act

不允许企业通过协议、合谋等形成统一价格

### ② (1914) Clayton Act

禁止“二选一”

prohibit predatory pricing 掠夺性定价 比如倾销，对新进入市场的企业打压

### ③ Federal Trade Commission (FTC) 联邦贸易委员会

关心实际上的市场影响，而不是具体的操作行为

平台经济的网络效应具有“赢家通吃”性质；然而平台本身又是消费者和生产者之间的中介和裁判，本身也是公平竞争和产业发展的推动者。

## Chapter 9 Pricing with Market Power & Monopolistic Competition

### Capturing Consumer Surplus

### • Price discrimination 价格歧视

MC相似

charging different prices to different consumers for similar goods.

### (1) First Degree Price Discrimination 一级价格歧视/完美价格歧视

对每个消费者的每单位产品都按照 willingness to pay 定价

在生活中，一对一服务的例子均带有一级价格歧视因素（律师、私人医生、审计、定制化、个性化）

### (2) Second Degree Price Discrimination 二级价格歧视

根据购买量的不同定价，或根据商品质量不同定价。（依消费的商品定价）

企业了解各层次消费者比例，但不知道具体消费者的所属

### (3) Third Degree Price Discrimination 三级价格歧视

根据购买者的人群身份划分人群，按人群定价（消费者不作决策）

Each group has its own demand function.

Creating Consumer Groups. (一定要区隔开，不允许套利)

设想以人群划分了两个市场，买同一个企业的产品

$$\text{Profit: } \pi = P_1 Q_1 + P_2 Q_2 - C(Q_1 + Q_2)$$

$$\frac{d\pi}{dQ_1} = MR_1 - MC = 0 \quad \frac{d\pi}{dQ_2} = MR_2 - MC = 0$$

$$MR_1 = MR_2 = MC$$

$$\text{又 } MR = P(1 + \frac{1}{E_d})$$

$$\text{则 } MR_1 = P_1(1 + \frac{1}{E_1}) = MR_2 = P_2(1 + \frac{1}{E_2})$$

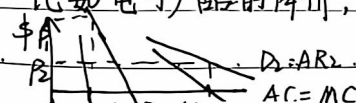
$$\frac{P_1}{1 + \frac{1}{E_1}} = \frac{P_2}{1 + \frac{1}{E_2}}, \text{ 则 } P_1 > P_2 \Leftrightarrow |E_2| > |E_1|$$

即价格弹性大，市场价格低

### Other Types of Price Discrimination

### • Intertemporal Price Discrimination 跨期价格歧视

比如电子产品的降价，用时间来分层消费者

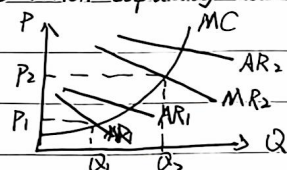




## • Peak-Load Pricing 高峰定价

Charging higher prices during peak periods when capacity constraints cause marginal costs to be higher.

比如旅游旺季机票涨价



## • The Two-Part Tariff 二部收费制 / 二部定价

Consumers are charged both an entry and usage fee.

比如会员制餐厅, 圆明园门票与西单商场 (一次性收费 + 边际价格)

解释这个情况: Disneyland Dilemma

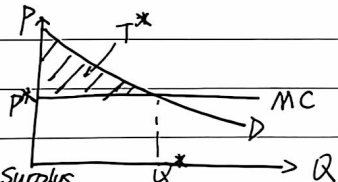
① Assumption: 迪士尼只有一个过山车, 人们只去玩过山车, 只有一个消费者 (一种偏好)

Sales package ( $T^*$ ,  $p^*$ )

Take-it-or-leave-it offer

在这个情况中,  $p^* = MC$

Entry price  $T^* = \text{Consumer Surplus}$



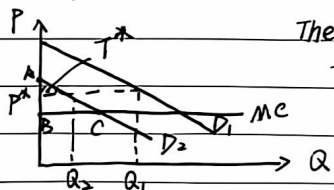
(相当于  $p^*$  覆盖了成本,  $T^*$  把所有消费者剩余转化成了企业盈利)

(门票的存在基础是垄断性/稀缺性, 否则自由竞争把  $p^*$  变成 0)

## ② Two-Part Tariff with Two Consumers

有两类消费者, 但企业只能设置一个门票价和边际价

Assumption: 企业希望吸引两类消费者



The price  $p^*$  is higher than MC

$T^*$ : surplus value of  $D_2$

$$\pi = 2T^* + (p^* - MC)(Q_1 + Q_2)$$

( $\pi$  is more than  $\geq \Delta ABC$ )

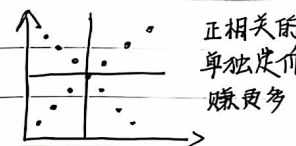
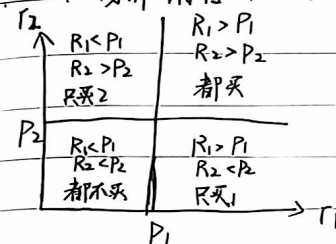
## • Building 捆绑销售

conditions: 多种消费者; 不能价格歧视; 各商品需求负相关

Building Scenario: Two different goods and many prices

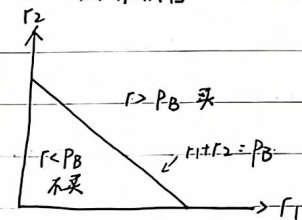
$r_1, r_2$  is reservation price for good 1 (good 2).

## 分开销售



正相关的  
单独定价  
赚更多

## 捆绑销售



负相关的  
捆绑销售  
赚更多

如果定价合理, 甚至“一网打尽”

## Monopolistic Competition 垄断竞争

(长期)

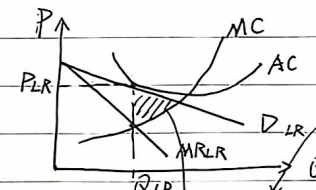
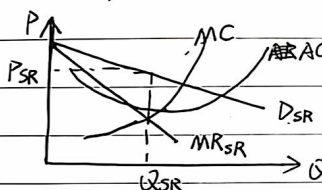
差异化产品

Characteristic: Many Firms, Free entry and exit, Differentiated products

(因为差异化, 所以企业有一定的垄断性, 对应于消费者的忠诚度; 但不是完全不同)

比如牙膏、奶茶、牛奶等。

A monopolistically Competitive Firm in the Short and Long Run.



长期均衡中:  
价格 > 边际成本  
PLR 不在平均成本最低点  
(产能利用不充分)  
超额利润 = 0  
(QLR 时  $PLR = AC$ )

Anyway,

Dead Weight Loss

垄断竞争给社会带来了消费者与产品间的更好匹配, 带来了多元化。

## Chapter 10 Oligopoly 寡头竞争

核心特征: 每个企业的定价都影响其他企业的定价

企业的定价是考虑到其他企业定价策略下的最优化

### The Cournot Model: (Quantity Competition)

两个企业生产同质化的产品, 同时确定各自的产量 (同时决策, 无法串通)

设两企业分别生产  $y_1, y_2$ ; 市场价格为  $p(y_1 + y_2)$ , 成本为  $c_1(y_1), c_2(y_2)$  (共用成本函数)

Given  $y_2$ , Then firm 1 sees its profit function as:

$$\pi_1(y_1; y_2) = p(y_1 + y_2) \cdot y_1 - c_1(y_1)$$

The profit-max problem for firm 1 is:

$$\text{Max } p(y_1 + y_2^e) y_1 - c_1(y_1)$$

$$\text{First Order Condition} \Rightarrow y_1 = f_1(y_2^e)$$

$$\text{Similarly, } y_2 = f_2(y_1^e)$$

求最优产量就是对反应函数联立求解的结果

(在图形上就是两个最优反应曲线的交点)

Example: The Linear Demand Curve

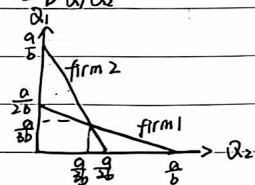
$$\text{设 } MC_1 = MC_2 = 0, p = a - bQ$$

$$\text{解: } R_1 = P Q_1 = a Q_1 - b(Q_1 + Q_2) Q_1 = a Q_1 - b Q_1^2 - b Q_1 Q_2$$

$$MR_1 = \frac{dR_1}{dQ_1} = a - 2b Q_1 - b Q_2 = MC_1 = 0$$

$$\therefore Q_1 = \frac{a}{2b} - \frac{Q_2}{2}, \text{ 同理 } Q_2 = \frac{a}{2b} - \frac{Q_1}{2}$$

$$\therefore Q_1^* = Q_2^* = \frac{a}{3b}, \text{ 四}$$



Many Firms in Cournot Equilibrium:

$$Y = \sum y_i$$

$$\text{F.O.C. for firm } i: P(Y) + P'(Y) y_i = c'(y_i) \text{ (即 } MC_i)$$

$$P(Y) \left[ 1 + \frac{P'(Y)}{P(Y)} \cdot \frac{y_i}{Y} \right] = c'(y_i)$$

$$P(Y) \cdot \left[ 1 - \frac{1}{\text{Elasticity}} \right] = c'(y_i) \text{ 其中 } S_i = \frac{y_i}{Y} \text{ (你的产量占比)}$$

$S_i \rightarrow 0$  时  $P(Y) \rightarrow c'(y_i)$  完全竞争

$S_i \rightarrow 1$  时  $P(Y) \cdot (1 - \frac{1}{\text{Elasticity}}) = c'(y_i)$  即垄断定价

(不同的市场结构是同一个模型的不同解)

先行优势

### First Mover Advantage - The Stackelberg Model

两个企业中一个先决策, 另一个在第2期决策

Firm 1 knows Firm 2 will choose output based on its reaction curve.

$$\text{For firm 1: Max } P(Q) Q_1 - C(Q_1) \text{ s.t. } Q_2 = f_2(Q_1)$$

仍设  $p = a - bQ$ , 则

$$P(Q_1 + Q_2(Q_1)) Q_1 - C(Q_1) = a Q_1 - b Q_1^2 - b Q_1 \frac{a - b Q_1}{2b} = \frac{a}{2} Q_1 - \frac{3}{2} b Q_1^2$$

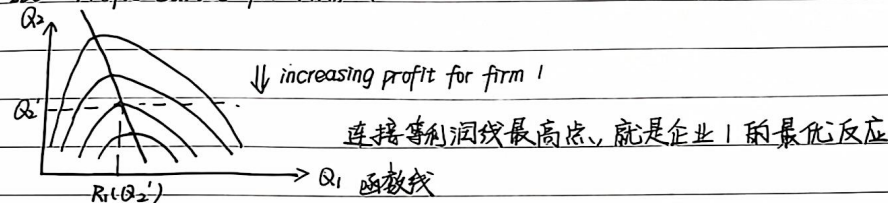
$$\Rightarrow Q_1^* = \frac{a}{3b}, Q_2^* = \frac{a}{6b}, \text{ 先行优势就在产量竞争中体现了。}$$

### Iso-Profit Curves 等利润曲线

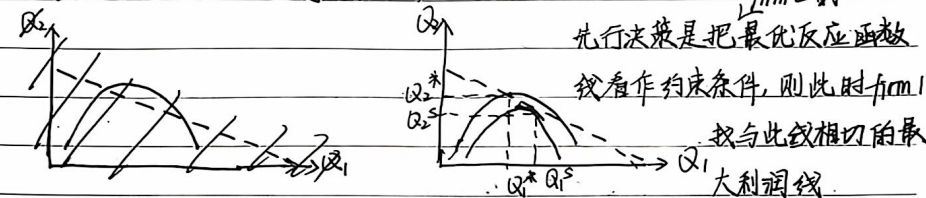
for firm 1, an iso-profit curve contains all output pairs  $(Q_1, Q_2)$  giving firm 1 the same profit level  $\pi_1$

$$\pi = [a - b(Q_1 + Q_2)] Q_1 = a Q_1 - b Q_1^2 - b Q_1 Q_2 = \pi_0$$

Iso-Profit Curves for Firm 1.



当企业1比企业2先行决策时,



(反思: 优化问题即等效用线与约束线的相切)

### Price Competition - Bertrand Games.

Each firm's marginal production cost is constant at  $MC_1 = MC_2 = c$

All firms set their prices simultaneously. (同时地)

显然此时均衡价格  $p$  收敛于  $p = c$ , 即均衡结果为完全竞争结果, 无DWL (只有一个 Nash Equilibrium)

(即使是寡头竞争, 价格竞争是惨烈的, 不能造成超额利润的)



## Price Competition - Differentiated Products.

假设两个企业均有 \$20 的固定成本, 0 边际成本

又设 demand curves:  $Q_1 = 12 - 2P_1 + P_2$

$$Q_2 = 12 - 2P_2 + P_1$$

$$\therefore \text{Firm 1: } \pi_1 = P_1 Q_1 - 20$$

$$= P_1 (12 - 2P_1 + P_2) - 20 = 12P_1 - 2P_1^2 + P_1 P_2 - 20$$

$$\therefore \frac{\partial \pi_1}{\partial P_1} = 12 - 4P_1 + P_2 = 0 \quad \text{即 } P_1 = 3 + \frac{1}{4}P_2$$

$$\text{同理 } \frac{\partial \pi_2}{\partial P_2} = 0 \text{ 有 } P_2 = 3 + \frac{1}{4}P_1, \text{ 得 } P_1 = P_2 = 4$$

发现价格竞争中的策略是互补的, 即斜率为正。

What if collusive ness?

假设共谋定价为  $p = p_1 = p_2$  (否则消费者套利)

$$\pi = \pi_1 + \pi_2 = 24p - 4p^2 + 2p^2 - 40 = 24p - 2p^2 - 40$$

$$\frac{d\pi}{dp} = 24 - 4p = 0, \quad p^* = 6, \text{ 此时 } \pi_1 = \pi_2 = 6$$

当  $p_1 + p_2$  时, 定价 \$6 的企业所赚的就减少, 定价 \$6 的企业则赚更多。

企业双方多次调价, 最后收敛于  $p_1 = p_2 = 4$ 。

利益共同体 + 合作, Nash equilibrium 是利益共同体的检验。

Btw, 帕累托效率也不代表 Nash equilibrium

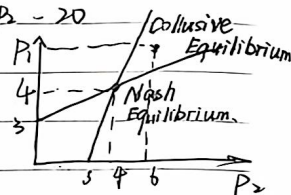
Last Mover Advantage 后发优势

后发企业可以在先发企业价格上略压价, 以此获得更大的市场

Repo: “替代”性竞争策略 - 先发优势

“互补”性竞争策略 - 后发优势

典型价格竞争例子: OPEC (failure of collusion)



## Chapter 11 Game Theory.

### Gaming and Strategic Decisions.

strategic game 策略性博弈: 他人的策略影响你的策略

What is a Game?

A game consists of: a set of players (participants)

a set of strategies for each player.

the payoffs to each play given strategies

### Noncooperative or Cooperative Games.

都是理性状况下的决策

Noncooperative: Binding contracts are not possible.

Common Knowledge of Rationality - Level-k theory (行为博弈论)

用 k 表示理性程度, 或者说人的“层次”或“高度”

Dominant Strategies 占优策略

→ that is optimal no matter what an opponent does

modified advertising game: 一方有占优策略, 仍然能达到均衡

The Nash equilibrium 纳什均衡

注意: 纳什均衡是定义在 strategies 上的, 而不是均衡结果 payoffs.

定义: 无论对方如何决策, 你都 stick to 一个最优策略

特点: 没有一方有意愿改变最优策略. Self-enforcing 自适应的

Production Choice Problem

	Firm 2		
	-5, -5	10, 10	Nash equilibrium 可以有多个 (可能为预测结果带来不确定性)
Firm 1	10, 10	-5, -5	

Prisoners' Dilemma. 囚徒困境

	Prisoner B		
	confess	not	有一个对双方有利的结果, 且两个均是理性的, 但博弈的结果是一个差的情况。 (一种悲剧性的“老”, 只能 confess, 不能改变) daollen®
Prisoner A	confess	-1, -1	
	not	-5, 5	

协调失败  
A coordination failure is at the heart of the prisoners' Dilemma.

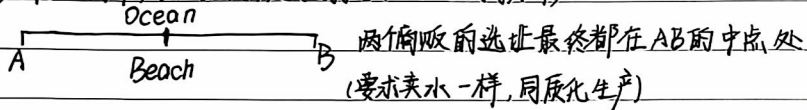
如果背后有更高层力量, 仍可能达到 (not, not).

Application of Prisoners' Dilemma:

Price War, Free Rider, 冷战和军备竞赛, 经济危机与市场萧条!  
! 市场自身消化不了萧条, 因为企业有动机减少生产, 消费者有动机减少消费。  
政府就是减少协调失败, 增强市场信心, 并且政府本身不在博弈中。

Location Game: Hotelling Model

沙滩上两个卖水的商贩 (游客在 A-B 均匀分布)



同样的理论可以用于解释产业集聚, 甚至政治竞选 (满足中产的政治偏好, 无论左派或右派政党; 只有中产在政治中受益最大, 而边缘意识形态被无视)

Mixed Strategy 混和策略

Players makes random choices, based on a set of chosen probabilities.  
零和博弈: 没有价值创造, 完全的利益再分配 (政治具有一定的零和性)  
正和博弈: 有价值创造, 但有不同的利益分配方法。

		Heads	Tails	
	B			若是 pure strategy, 无 Nash equilibrium.
A	Heads	1, -1	-1, 1	但在 mixed strategy 中, nash equilibrium
	Tails	-1, 1	1, -1	就是 nash eqwi random choice.

Solving Mixed Strategies 解 zero-sum game 的策略概率

• Indifference Condition: pick up a mixing strategy to make your opponent to be indifferent in playing each pure strategy.

在上题中假设 A 选 Head 的概率为  $p$ , 则选 Tail 概率为  $1-p$ .

$$E(B \text{ with Head}) = -p + (1-p) \quad E(B \text{ with Tail}) = p - (1-p)$$

$$\text{有 } -p + 1 - p = p - 1 + p \text{ 得 } p = \frac{1}{2}$$

批

现在我们考虑另一种情况

		Joan Wrestling (r)	Opera (1-r)	设概率如左所示
	Jim Wrestling (p)	2, 1	0, 0	For Jim, $p = 2(1-p)$ , $p^* = \frac{2}{3}$
	Opera (1-p)	0, 0	1, 2	For Joan, $2r = 1-r$ , $r^* = \frac{1}{3}$

Repeated Games 重复博弈/多次博弈

Pricing problem

		Firm 2	
		Low price	High price
Firm 1	Low Price	10, 10	100, -50
	High Price	-50, 100	50, 50.

Trigger Strategy: 只要有一次不合作, 此后永远不合作。

Tit-for-tat Strategy: 以牙还牙 轮流博弈的策略取决于  $n-1$  轮博弈对方选择。

Trigger Strategy.

假设: 博弈内容完全一致, 且博弈无限期进行。

已知 firm 1 选 High price 在第一期, 且选 trigger strategy strategy.

(1) 若企业 2 一开始就不合作

$$100 + 10\delta + 10\delta^2 + \dots = 100 + \frac{10\delta}{1-\delta}, \text{ 其中 } \delta = \frac{1}{1+r} (r > 0), \delta \text{ 越趋近于 } 1, \text{ 表示企业 2 越看重未来, 可理解为一种不确定性因子}$$

(2) 若企业 2 一开始就合作

$$50 + 50\delta + 50\delta^2 + \dots = \frac{50}{1-\delta}$$

$$\text{Firm 2 will cooperate if } \frac{50}{1-\delta} > 100 + \frac{10\delta}{1-\delta}, \text{ 即 } \delta^* > \frac{2}{3}$$

(即使无穷博弈, 仍有可能不合作)

? 生命有限, 但后会有期  $\rightarrow \delta$  此时可理解为合作者相遇的概率。

Finitely Repeated Games (假设博弈双方均知道博弈的 DDL)

最后一期双方都会倾向于选 Low price

$\rightarrow$  倒数第二期趋于 Low price

...

$\rightarrow$  第一期开始就 Low price, 与静态/单期博弈相同

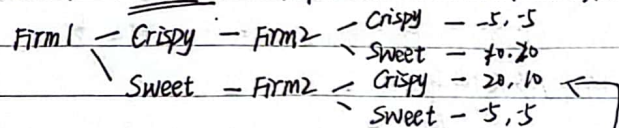
Solve sequential Game.  $\rightarrow$  Backward introduction (从最后一期倒推)



## (Sequential Games 也叫动态博弈)

### Product Choice Game in Extensive Form

此时我们用树状图表示博弈 (Firm 2 由 Firm 1 决定策略) [动态博弈] 先后顺序 后行动者可观察先行动



此时 Firm 1 的策略要求知道 Firm 2 的最优反应函数。

### Subgame Perfect Equilibrium (子博弈完美均衡)

注意 (Sweet, Crispy) 不是一个自然的结果, 是企业 2 的最优反应函数决定了企业 1 进而决定了企业 2 的均衡结果。

NE1: (Firm 1 plays "Sweet"; Firm 2 plays "Crispy" if firm 1 plays

"Sweet", Firm 2 plays "Sweet" if firm 1 plays "Crispy")

另一个均衡的情况有:

NE2: (Firm 1 plays "Crispy"; Firm 2 plays "Sweet" no matter what firm 1 chooses)

Note: NE2 contains an "empty threat", 即企业 2 没有动力维持自己的 claim.

所以 subgame perfect equilibrium 要求在每一个子博弈中都是 nash equilibrium. (SPE 是 NE 的一个子集)

### Threats, Commitments, Credibility

动态博弈中, 如果能作出可信的承诺或威胁, 则可以获得竞争优势。

如何“可信” → 先行优势, 建立可信的战略 → 确立可信的威胁 (可能也会约束自己) → 改变对方的策略。

### Strategic Moves:

可能是会使自己短期受害, 但长期而言可能是有益自己的。

“置之死地而后生”“背水一战”都是动态博弈中的 strategic moves.

动态博弈也可用于分析 Stackelberg Competition 的

## Chapter 12 General Equilibrium

### General Equilibrium Analysis 一般均衡分析

→ study how markets interrelate

Gain from Trade → voluntary trade is mutually beneficial and increase economic efficiency. (也就是说贸易是一种帕累托改进, 否则自由的贸易不会发生)

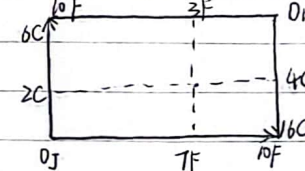
假设交易成本 = 0, 则若两个主体的 MRS 不一样, 一定会发生贸易, 发生 Gain from Trade

李嘉图的比较优势理论是对以上不同 MRS 的必然观测结果。

两国的贸易持续到他们的 MRS 相同, 即终止了 Gain from Trade, 达到帕累托最优

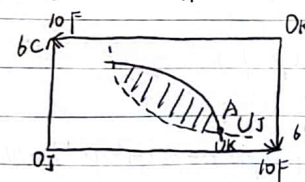
### The Edgeworth Box Diagram.

假设 James 和 Karon 一起分配共 10 个 food, 6 个 clothing



相当于把两个坐标轴扣在一起, 有两个原点

任一点都代表了一种分配方式

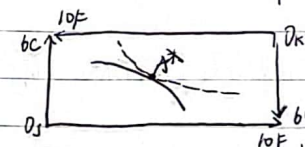


— 为 Karon 的无差异曲线 (注意效用提高的方向)

--- 为 James 的无差异曲线 (A)

若  $U_j$  与  $U_k$  是交于某一特定分配方式的两条无差异曲线

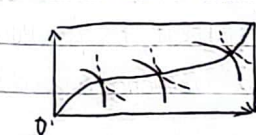
则阴影部分就是帕累托改进的集合



最终在两个无差异曲线的交点实现帕累托最优

易得此时  $MRS_j = MRS_k$ , 即共享切线

### The Contract Curve 契约曲线



the efficient allocations of goods between two consumers, or of two inputs between two production functions.

### Market Trade:

假设: 自由市场, price-taker (引进价格机制了)



## Consumer Equilibrium in a Competitive Market.

此时预算约束线不再是外生给定的, 而是由“禀赋资源量”决定的。

即有  $p_1 x_1 + p_2 x_2 = p_1 w_1 + p_2 w_2$ , 其中  $(w_1, w_2)$  为所持有的资源

斜率为  $-\frac{p_1}{p_2}$ , 这个是一个常数 上图中 Box Diagram 中的一个点

对双方而言都是如此 (共享同一条线)



除去无差异曲线相交, 还应保证在预算约束线

上有同一个切点 (此时供需平衡, 市场出清)

(以及保证了两个消费者的效用最大化)

## A market Equilibrium (Walrasian Equilibrium)

Def  $x_A^i \rightarrow i=1, 2$ , 是商品  $i$  的消费量 和  $w_A^i$  (初始禀赋量)

At the equilibrium prices  $p^*$ , we should have

$$x_A^i(p^*, p_2^*) + x_B^i(p^*, p_2^*) = w_A^i + w_B^i$$

Def excess demand 超额需求 ( $j$  对商品  $i$  的)

$$e_j^i = x_j^i(p_1, p_2) - w_j^i$$

Then we get  $z_i(p_1, p_2) = e_A^i(p_1, p_2) + e_B^i(p_1, p_2)$

$z_i(p_1, p_2)$  就是总和超额需求 for 商品  $i$

我们有  $(p_1^*, p_2^*)$  are equilibrium prices  $\Leftrightarrow z_1(p_1^*, p_2^*) = z_2(p_1^*, p_2^*) = 0$

Walras' Law:

$\sum_{k=1}^K p_k z_k(\bar{p}) = 0$ , 其中  $\bar{p} = (p_1, p_2, \dots, p_K)$  是对  $K$  个商品的价格束。

即  $K$  个商品的超额需求价值之和 = 0

→ 若  $K-1$  个商品出清且超额需求 = 0, 则另一个商品出清

注意到  $p_1$  和  $p_2$  (且  $p_1$ ) 其实都是出清价格, 那么我们设定  $t = \frac{p_1}{p_2}$ , 则只有  $K-1$  个相对价格, 而商品 1 被定义为“货币商品” (numeraire good)

## A proof of Efficiency in Market Equilibrium

Suppose a market equilibrium is not efficient, then it implies that there is another feasible allocation  $(y_A, y_B)$ , s.t.

$$y_A^i + y_B^i = w_A^i + w_B^i \quad (i=1, 2)$$

$$\text{且 } (y_A^1, y_A^2) \succ_A (x_A^1, x_A^2) \quad (y_B^1, y_B^2) \succ_B (x_B^1, x_B^2)$$

可知  $(y_A^1, y_B^1)$  在预算约束线外, 不成立。四

First Theorem of Welfare Economics 福利经济学第一定律

"Market Equilibrium are Pareto efficient"

同时, 个人利益最大化可以导致市场效用最大化

个人信息自知自觉和其基础的最优化, 可以导致市场出清 (minimum information)

Underlying Assumptions of General Equilibrium.

· 没有外部性或公共产品

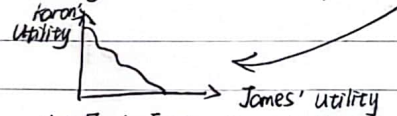
· 没有垄断

· 没有信息不对称

Equity and Efficiency 公平或效率

The utility Possibilities Frontier 效用可能性边界 (最大可能的效用)

(从 Edgeworth Box 引出的, 来自契约曲线上的某个点)



什么是公平? Social Welfare Functions

(1) Rawlsian: 让社会最不幸的人群福利最大化, 社会是公平的。

(假设大家不知道谁会不幸, 并且风险厌恶)

(2) Egalitarian: 绝对平等就是公平

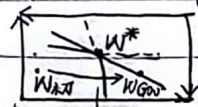
(3) Utilitarian: 社会总福利最大化

(4) Market-oriented: 市场会出手, 机会平等即可, 不管结果

Second Theorem of Welfare Economics 福利经济学第二定律。

"if individual preferences are convex, then every efficient allocation is a competitive equilibrium for some initial allocation of goods"

(要求政府用 tax 或 public services 等, 把初始禀赋搬到  $w_A$  和  $w_B$  约束线上)





## Implications of the Second Theorem.

- The problem of distribution and efficiency should be separated
- Prices plays 2 roles : allocative & ~~distribution~~ distributive
- 让政府再分配资源禀赋, 让市场自己形成价格。不能直接干预价格, 有市场尤其不要让价格扮演再分配角色。