1

# TEN PRINCIPLES OF ECONOMICS

**WHAT’S NEW IN THE SEVENTH EDITION:**

There is an additional example about marginal benefits and marginal costs.

**LEARNING OBJECTIVES:**

**By the end of this chapter, students should understand:**

* that economics is about the allocation of scarce resources.
* that individuals face trade-offs.
* the meaning of opportunity cost.
* how to use marginal reasoning when making decisions.
* how incentives affect people’s behavior.
* why trade among people or nations can be good for everyone.
* why markets are a good, but not perfect, way to allocate resources.
* what determines some trends in the overall economy.

**CONTEXT AND PURPOSE:**

Chapter 1 is the first chapter in a three-chapter section that serves as the introduction to the text. Chapter 1 introduces ten fundamental principles on which the study of economics is based. In a broad sense, the rest of the text is an elaboration on these ten principles. Chapter 2 will develop how economists approach problems while Chapter 3 will explain how individuals and countries gain from trade.

 The purpose of Chapter 1 is to lay out ten economic principles that will serve as building blocks for the rest of the text. The ten principles can be grouped into three categories: how people make decisions, how people interact, and how the economy works as a whole. Throughout the text, references will be made repeatedly to these ten principles.

**KEY POINTS:**

* The fundamental lessons about individual decisionmaking are that people face trade-offs among alternative goals, that the cost of any action is measured in terms of forgone opportunities, that rational people make decisions by comparing marginal costs and marginal benefits, and that people change their behavior in response to the incentives they face.
* The fundamental lessons about interactions among people are that trade and interdependence can be mutually beneficial, that markets are usually a good way of coordinating economic activity among people, and that the government can potentially improve market outcomes by remedying a market failure or by promoting greater economic equality.
* The fundamental lessons about the economy as a whole are that productivity is the ultimate source of improving living standards, that growth in the quantity of money is the ultimate source of inflation, and that society faces a short-run trade-off between inflation and unemployment.

## CHAPTER OUTLINE:

I. Introduction



Begin by pointing out that economics is a subject that students must confront in their daily lives. Point out that they already spend a great deal of their time thinking about economic issues: changes in prices, buying decisions, use of their time, concerns about employment, etc.

A. The word “economy” comes from the Greek word *oikonomos* meaning “one who manages a household.”

B. This makes some sense because in the economy we are faced with many decisions (just as a household is).

C. Fundamental economic problem: resources are scarce.

You will want to start the semester by explaining to students that part of learning economics is understanding a new vocabulary. Economists generally use very precise (and sometimes different) definitions for words that are commonly used outside of the economics discipline. Therefore, it will be helpful to students if you follow the definitions provided in the text as much as possible.



D. Definition of **scarcity: the limited nature of society’s resources.**

E. Definition of **economics: the study of how society manages its scarce resources.**



Because most college freshmen and sophomores have limited experiences with viewing the world from a cause-and-effect perspective, do not underestimate how challenging these principles will be for the student.



As you discuss the ten principles, make sure that students realize that it is okay if they do not grasp each of the concepts completely or find each of the arguments fully convincing. These ideas will be explored more completely throughout the text.

II. How People Make Decisions

A. Principle #1: People Face Trade-offs

1. “There ain’t no such thing as a free lunch.” Making decisions requires trading one goal for another.

2. Examples include how students spend their time, how a family decides to spend its income, how the U.S. government spends tax dollars, and how regulations may protect the environment at a cost to firm owners.

3. An important trade-off that society faces is the trade-off between efficiency and equality.

a. Definition of **efficiency: the property of society getting the most it can from its scarce resources.**

b. Definition of **equality: the property of distributing economic prosperity uniformly among the members of society.**

c. For example, tax dollars paid by wealthy Americans and then distributed to those less fortunate may improve equality but lower the return to hard work and therefore reduce the level of output produced by our resources.

d. This implies that the cost of this increased equality is a reduction in the efficient use of our resources.

4. Recognizing that trade-offs exist does not indicate what decisions should or will be made.

B. Principle #2: The Cost of Something Is What You Give Up to Get It

1. Making decisions requires individuals to consider the benefits and costs of some action.

2. What are the costs of going to college?

a. We should not count room and board (unless they are more expensive at college than elsewhere) because the student would have to pay for food and shelter even if she were not in school.

b. We should count the value of the student’s time because she could be working for pay instead of attending classes and studying.

3. Definition of **opportunity cost: whatever must be given up in order to obtain some item.**

One of the hardest ideas for students to grasp is that “free” things are not truly free. Thus, you will need to provide students with numerous examples of such “free” things with hidden costs, especially the value of time. Suggested examples include the time students spend waiting in line for “free” sporting event tickets at their universities, time spent relaxing in the sun outside their residence halls, or dinner in a restaurant with their parents.



C. Principle #3: Rational People Think at the Margin

1. Economists generally assume that people are rational.

a. Definition of **rational people: people who systematically and purposefully do the best they can to achieve their objectives.**

b. Consumers want to purchase the goods and services that allow them the greatest level of satisfaction given their incomes and the prices they face.

c. Firm managers want to produce the level of output that maximizes the profits the firms earn.

2. Many decisions in life involve incremental decisions: Should I remain in school this semester? Should I take another course this semester? Should I study another hour for tomorrow’s exam?

a. Definition of **marginal change: a small incremental adjustment to a plan of action.**

b. Example: Suppose that you are considering calling a friend on your cell phone and the marginal benefit of the 10 minute call is $7.00. Your cell phone costs you $40 per month plus an additional $0.50 per minute. You typically talk for $100 minutes and have a monthly bill of $90. If you consider the average cost of a call, you would decide that the benefit of this 10 minute call does not exceed its cost ($9.00). However, the marginal cost of the call is only $5.00 so the marginal benefit of the call does outweigh its marginal cost. Cell phone users who have unlimited minutes (free at the margin) often make long and frivolous phone calls.

c. Suppose that flying a 200-seat plane across the country costs the airline $100,000, which means that the average cost of each seat is $500. Suppose that the plane is minutes from departure and a passenger is willing to pay $300 for a seat. Should the airline sell the seat for $300? In this case, the marginal cost of an additional passenger is very small.

d. Another example: Why is water so cheap while diamonds are expensive? The marginal benefit of a good depends on how many units a person already has. Because water is plentiful, the marginal benefit of an additional cup is small. Because diamonds are rare, the marginal benefit of an extra diamond is high.

 3. A rational decision maker takes an action if and only if the marginal benefit is at least as large as the marginal cost.

D. Principle #4: People Respond to Incentives

1. Definition of **incentive: something that induces a person to act.**

2. Because rational people make decisions by weighing costs and benefits, their decisions may change in response to incentives.

a. When the price of a good rises, consumers will buy less of it because its cost has risen.

b. When the price of a good rises, producers will allocate more resources to the production of the good because the benefit from producing the good has risen.

3. Many public policies change the costs and benefits that people face. Sometimes policymakers fail to understand how policies alter incentives and behavior and a policy may lead to unintended consequences.

4. Example: Seat belt laws increase the use of seat belts but lower the incentives of individuals to drive safely. This leads to an increase in the number of car accidents. This also leads to an increased risk for pedestrians.

5. *Case Study: The Incentive Effects of Gasoline Prices*

If you include any incentive-based criteria on your syllabus, discuss it now. For example, if you reward class attendance (or penalize students who do not attend class), explain to students how this change in the marginal benefit of attending class (or marginal cost of missing class) can be expected to alter their behavior.



III. How People Interact

A. Principle #5: Trade Can Make Everyone Better Off

1. Trade is not like a sports contest, where one side gains and the other side loses.

2. Consider trade that takes place inside your home. Your family is likely to be involved in trade with other families on a daily basis. Most families do not build their own homes, make their own clothes, or grow their own food.

3. Countries benefit from trading with one another as well.

4. Trade allows for specialization in products that countries (or families) can do best.

**Activity 1—Getting Dressed in the Global Economy**

**Type:** In-class assignment

**Topics:** Specialization, interdependence, self-interest, consumer choice, international trade

**Materials needed:** None

**Time:** 20 minutes

**Class limitations:** Works in any class size

**Purpose**

The advantages of specialization and division of labor are very clear in this example. The worldwide links of the modern economy are also illustrated. We depend on thousands of people we don’t know, won’t see, and don’t think of in order to get dressed each morning. Self-interest follows naturally from interdependence. Wages, profits, and rents give people the incentive to perform these varied tasks. We depend on them to clothe us and they depend on our purchases for their incomes.

**Instructions**

Ask the class to answer the following questions. Give them time to write an answer to each question, then discuss their answers before moving on to the next question. The first question can be answered with a brief phrase. The second question is the core of the assignment and takes several minutes. Ask them to list as many categories of workers as possible. The third question introduces demand concepts; most of the determinants of demand can be introduced during this discussion. For the fourth question, ask the class to look at the country-of-origin tags sewn in their garments.

1. Where did your clothes come from?

2. Who worked to produce your clothes?

3. What things do you consider when buying a garment?

4. Where were your clothes produced (what countries)?

**Common Answers and Points for Discussion**

1. Where did your clothes come from?

There are many possible ways to answer, but many students will say “the mall” or another retail outlet. Some may say “a factory,” “a sweatshop,” or “a foreign country.”

Mention the importance of markets here (this can be emphasized by asking, “Is anyone wearing something made by themselves, a friend, or a relative?”) and discuss distribution versus production.

2. Who worked to produce your clothes?

There are many possible answers; garment and textile workers are obvious but most students will also list workers dealing with raw materials, transportation, management, design, or machinery. Some may think more broadly to investors, road crews, bankers, engineers, or accountants.

3. What things do you consider when buying a garment?

Most answers focus on preferences (fit, style, quality, color). Price is cited less frequently. Ask about the importance of price until someone volunteers that income is important. Prices of substitute goods should also be discussed. Expectations of price changes may also be mentioned.

B. Principle #6: Markets Are Usually a Good Way to Organize Economic Activity

4. Where were your clothes produced (what countries)?

A large number of countries will be represented, even in small classes. Asia is always well represented. Latin American and European goods appear in smaller numbers. African products are conspicuously absent.

This pattern shows the limits of simple explanations such as “cheap labor.” Briefly discuss the importance of comparative advantage and specialization.

1. Many countries that once had centrally planned economies have abandoned this system and are trying to develop market economies.

2. Definition of **market economy: an economy that allocates resources through the decentralized decisions of many firms and households as they interact in markets for goods and services.**

3. Market prices reflect both the value of a product to consumers and the cost of the resources used to produce it.



Explain to students that when households and firms do what is best for themselves, they often end up doing what is best for society, as if guided by market forces—or an invisible hand. Spend some time and emphasize the magic of the market. Use numerous examples to show students that the market most often allocates resources to their highest valued use.

4. When a government interferes in a market and prevents price from adjusting, household and firm decisions become distorted.

5. Centrally planned economies failed because they did not allow the market to work.

6. *FYI: Adam Smith and the Invisible Hand*

a. Adam Smith’s 1776 work suggested that although individuals are motivated by self-interest, an invisible hand guides this self-interest into promoting society’s economic well-being.

b. Smith’s insights are at the center of modern economics and will be analyzed more fully in the chapters to come.

C. Principle #7: Governments Can Sometimes Improve Market Outcomes

1. The invisible hand will only work if the government enforces property rights.

a. Definition of **property rights: the ability of an individual to own and exercise control over scarce resources.**

2. There are two broad reasons for the government to interfere with the economy: the promotion of efficiency and equality.

3. Government policy can improve efficiency when there is market failure.

a. Definition of **market failure: a situation in which a market left on its own fails to allocate resources efficiently**.

4. Examples of Market Failure

a. Definition of **externality: the impact of one person’s actions on the well-being of a bystander.**

b. Definition of **market power: the ability of a single economic actor (or small group of actors) to have a substantial influence on market prices.**

c. Because a market economy rewards people for their ability to produce things that other people are willing to pay for, there will be an unequal distribution of economic well-being.

5. Note that the principle states that the government *can* improve market outcomes. This is not saying that the government always *does* improve market outcomes.

IV. How the Economy as a Whole Works

A. Principle #8: A Country’s Standard of Living Depends on Its Ability to Produce Goods and Services

1. Differences in living standards from one country to another are quite large.

2. Changes in living standards over time are also great.

3. The explanation for differences in living standards lies in differences in productivity.

4. Definition of **productivity: the quantity of goods and services produced by each unit of labor input.**

5. High productivity implies a high standard of living.

6. Thus, policymakers must understand the impact of any policy on our ability to produce goods and services.

7. *In the News: Why You Should Study Economics*

a. Training in economics helps us to understand fallacies and to anticipate unintended consequences.

b. This is an excerpt from a commencement address by Robert D. McTeer, Jr., the former President of the Federal Reserve Bank of Dallas and describes why students should study economics.

B. Principle #9: Prices Rise When the Government Prints Too Much Money

1. Definition of **inflation: an increase in the overall level of prices in the economy.**

2. When the government creates a large amount of money, the value of money falls, leading to price increases.

3. Examples: Germany after World War I (in the early 1920s) and the United States in the 1970s.

C. Principle #10: Society Faces a Short-Run Trade-off between Inflation and Unemployment

1. Most economists believe that the short-run effect of a monetary injection is lower unemployment and higher prices.

a. An increase in the amount of money in the economy stimulates spending and increases the quantity of goods and services sold in the economy. The increase in the quantity of goods and services sold will cause firms to hire additional workers.

b. An increase in the demand for goods and services leads to higher prices over time.

2. The short-run trade-off between inflation and unemployment plays a key role in the analysis of the business cycle.

3. Definition of **business cycle: fluctuations in economic activity, such as employment and production.**

4. Policymakers can exploit this trade-off by using various policy instruments, but the extent and desirability of these interventions is a subject of continuing debate.

5. This debate heated up during the early years of Obama’s presidency. The severe downturn in the economy led policymakers to try to stimulate demand, but some feared that the end result would be inflation.

**Activity 2—So Many Things to Do, So Little Time**

**Type:** In-class assignment

**Topics:** Trade-offs, opportunity cost, thinking at the margin, incentives

**Materials needed:** None

**Time:** 10 minutes

**Class limitations:** Works in any class size

Give students a list of activities with corresponding time requirements: sleep, 8 hours; sleep, 6 hours; eat breakfast, 30 minutes; ride a bike, 1 hour; go hiking, 2 hours; study, 3 hours; study, 2 hours; go to class, 4 hours; go to class, 6 hours; watch TV, 2 hours; watch TV, 6 hours; take a nap, 1 hour; work, 8 hours; work, 4 hours; etc.

Make sure that there are many choices and that there are many pleasurable experiences—too much for a 24-hour period.

Ask students which Principles of Economics this activity illustrates.

If they do not say 1, 2, 3, and 4, help them see that this exercise has trade-offs in the choices they make, that each choice has an opportunity cost, that deciding whether or not to sleep 4 more hours may depend on whether you have already slept for 6, and that choices may be influenced by the incentives the student faces. For example, a student who is about to be placed on academic probation has an incentive to study harder.

**SOLUTIONS TO TEXT PROBLEMS:**

**Quick Quizzes**

1. There are many possible answers.

2. A country is better off by trading because trade allows more goods and services to be produced through specialization. Markets allow the “invisible hand” to guide self-interested individuals into promoting economic well-being. Economists believe that governments should enforce property rights and can improve on market outcomes when market failure occurs. Two common examples of market failures are market power and externalities.

3. The three principles that describe how the economy, as a whole, works are: (1) a country’s standard of living depends on its ability to produce goods and services; (2) prices rise when the government prints too much money; and (3) society faces a short-run trade-off between inflation and unemployment. A country’s standard of living depends largely on the productivity of its workers, which in turn depends on the education of its workers and the access its workers have to the necessary tools and technology. Prices rise when the government prints too much money because more money in circulation reduces the value of money, causing inflation. Society faces a short-run trade-off between inflation and unemployment that is only temporary. Policymakers have some short-term ability to exploit this relationship using various policy instruments.

**Questions for Review**

1. Examples of trade-offs include time trade-offs (such as studying one subject over another or studying at all compared to engaging in social activities) and spending trade-offs (such as whether to use your last 15 dollars to purchase a pizza or to buy a study guide for that tough economics course).

2. To figure out the opportunity cost of a vacation to Disney World, you would include the monetary costs of: admission, travel, souvenirs. You would also include the cost of time spent on vacation. The time cost depends on your next best use of that time; if it is staying home and watching TV, the time cost may be small, but if it is working an extra week hours at your job, the time cost is the money you could have earned. You would NOT include the costs of food and lodging unless they exceeded the costs you would have incurred had you not gone to Disney World. In that case, you would only include the additional costs, not the total costs of food and lodging.

3. The marginal benefit of a glass of water depends on your circumstances. If you have just run a marathon or you have been walking in the desert sun for three hours, the marginal benefit is very high. But if you have been drinking a lot of liquids recently, the marginal benefit is quite low. The point is that even the necessities of life, like water, do not always have large marginal benefits.

4. Policymakers need to think about incentives so they can understand how people will respond to the policies they put in place. The text’s example of seat belt laws shows that policy actions can have unintended consequences. If incentives matter a lot, they may lead to a very different type of policy; for example, some economists have suggested putting knives in steering columns so that people will drive much more carefully! While this suggestion is silly, it highlights the importance of incentives.

5. Trade among countries is not a game with some losers and some winners because trade can make everyone better off. By allowing specialization, trade between people and trade between countries can improve everyone’s welfare.

6. The “invisible hand” of the marketplace represents the idea that even though individuals and firms are all acting in their own self-interest, prices and the marketplace guide them to do what is good for society as a whole.

7. The two main causes of market failure are externalities and market power. An externality is the effect of one person’s actions on the well-being of a bystander, such as from pollution or the creation of knowledge. Market power refers to the ability of a single person (or small group of people) to unduly influence market prices, such as in a town with only one well or only one cable television company.

8. Productivity is important because a country’s standard of living depends on its ability to produce goods and services. The greater a country’s productivity (the amount of goods and services produced from each hour of a worker’s time), the greater its standard of living will be.

9. Inflation is an increase in the overall level of prices in the economy. Inflation is caused by increases in the quantity of a nation’s money.

10. Inflation and unemployment are negatively related in the short run. Thus, reducing inflation entails costs to society in the form of higher unemployment in the short run.

**Quick Check Multiple Choice**

1. a

2. c

3. b

4. b

5. d

6. a

**Problems and Applications**

1. a. A family deciding whether to buy a new car faces a trade-off between the cost of the car and other things they might want to buy. For example, buying the car might mean they must give up going on vacation for the next two years. Also, fuel efficient cars are more expensive but regular cars require spending more on gas. Smaller cars are less expensive, but bigger cars mean saving time by avoiding multiple trips.

b. For a member of Congress deciding how much to spend on national parks, one trade-off is between parks and other spending items or tax cuts. If more money goes into the park system, that may mean less spending on national defense or on transportation. Or instead of spending more money on the park system, taxes could be reduced. Another tradeoff when deciding how much to spend on national parks is spending a small amount on a lot of parks or a larger amount on a single park.

c. When a company president decides whether to open a new factory, the decision is based on whether the new factory will increase the firm’s profits compared to other alternatives. For example, the company could upgrade existing equipment or expand existing factories. The bottom line is: Which method of expanding production will increase profit the most?

d. In deciding how much to prepare for class, a professor faces a trade-off between the value of improving the quality of the lecture compared to other things she could do with her time, such as working on additional research or enjoying some leisure time.

e. In deciding whether to go to graduate school, the student faces a trade-off between his possible earnings with a bachelor’s degree and the benefits of an increased education (such as higher future earnings and greater knowledge). The student also faces the trade-off between spending time with family or on leisure and spending time studying. Also, the student may face the tradeoff between taking out student loans and buying a home or car with a loan.

2. When the benefits of something are psychological, such as going on a vacation, it is not easy to compare benefits to costs to determine if it is worth doing. But there are two ways to think about the benefits. One is to compare the vacation with what you would do in its place. If you did not go on vacation, would you buy something like a new set of golf clubs? Then you can decide if you would rather have the new clubs or the vacation. A second way is to think about how hard you had to work to earn the money to pay for the vacation. You can then decide if the psychological benefits of the vacation were worth the psychological cost of working.

3. If you are thinking of going skiing instead of working at your part-time job, the cost of skiing includes its monetary and time costs, which includes the opportunity cost of the wages you are giving up by not working. If the choice is between skiing and going to the library to study, then the cost of skiing is its monetary and time costs including the value of time spent studying.

4. If you spend $100 now instead of saving it for a year and earning 5 percent interest, you are giving up the opportunity to spend $105 one year from now.

5. The fact that you have already sunk $5 million is not relevant to your decision anymore, because that money is gone. What matters now is the chance to earn profits at the margin. If you spend another $1 million and can generate sales of $3 million, you’ll earn $2 million in marginal profit, so you should do so. You are right to think that the project has lost a total of $3 million ($6 million in costs and only $3 million in revenue) and you should not have started it. However, if you do not spend the additional $1 million, you will not have any sales and your losses will be $5 million. So what matters here is trying to minimize your loss. In fact, you would pay up to $3 million to complete development; any more than that, and you will not be increasing profit at the margin.

6. a. The provision of Social Security benefits lowers an individual’s incentive to save for retirement. The benefits provide some level of income to the individual when she retires. This means that the individual is not entirely dependent on savings to support consumption through the years in retirement.

b. Since a person gets fewer after-tax Social Security benefits the greater her earnings are, there is an incentive not to work (or not work as much) after age 65. The more you work, the lower your after-tax Social Security benefits will be. Thus, the taxation of Social Security benefits discourages work effort after age 65.

7. a. When welfare recipients have their benefits cut off after two years, they have a greater incentive to find jobs than if their benefits were to last forever.

b. The loss of benefits means that someone who cannot find a job will get no income at all, so the distribution of income will become less equal. But the economy will be more efficient, because welfare recipients have a greater incentive to find jobs. Thus, the change in the law is one that increases efficiency but reduces equality.

8. a. Efficiency: The market failure comes from the market power of the cable TV firm.

b. Equity

c. Efficiency: An externality arises because secondhand smoke harms nonsmokers.

d. Efficiency: The market failure occurs because of Standard Oil’s market power.

e. Equity

f. Efficiency: There is an externality because of accidents caused by drunk drivers.

9. a. If everyone were guaranteed the best healthcare possible, much more of our nation’s output would be devoted to medical care than is now the case. Would that be efficient? If you believe that doctors have market power and restrict health care to keep their incomes high, you might think efficiency would increase by providing more healthcare. But more likely, if the government mandated increased spending on healthcare, the economy would be less efficient because it would give people more healthcare than they would choose to pay for. From the point of view of equality, if poor people are less likely to have adequate healthcare, providing more health care would represent an improvement. Each person would have a more equal slice of the economic pie, though the pie would consist of more healthcare and less of other goods.

b. When workers are laid off, equality considerations argue for the unemployment benefits system to provide them with some income until they can find new jobs. After all, no one plans to be laid off, so unemployment benefits are a form of insurance. But there is an efficiency problem⎯why work if you can get income for doing nothing? The economy is not operating efficiently if people remain unemployed for a long time, and unemployment benefits encourage unemployment. Thus, there is a trade-off between equality and efficiency. The more generous unemployment benefits are, the less income is lost by an unemployed person, but the more that person is encouraged to remain unemployed. So greater equality reduces efficiency.

10. Because average income in the United States has roughly doubled every 35 years, we are likely to have a better standard of living than our parents, and a much better standard of living than our grandparents. This is mainly the result of increased productivity; an hour of work produces more goods and services than it used to. Thus, incomes have continuously risen over time, as has the standard of living.

11. If Americans save more and it leads to more spending on factories, there will be an increase in production and productivity, because the same number of workers will have more equipment to work with. The benefits from higher productivity will go to both the workers, who will get paid more because they are producing more, and the factory owners, who will get a return on their investments. There is no such thing as a free lunch, however, because when people save more, they are giving up spending. They get higher incomes at the cost of buying fewer goods.

12. When governments print money, they impose a “tax” on anyone who is holding money, because the value of money is decreased.