

# Principles of Economics

## Introduction

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Course homepage: [intro-economics.github.io](https://intro-economics.github.io)



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# What is Economics

- Economics, as a study in human behavior, relates to all of us. Behind the theory of Economics are stories of people and their lives as **consumers**, **workers**, and **entrepreneurs** in an **inter-connected** world.
- It is the story of
  - ▶ A Brazilian farmer who grows coffee beans brewed into espresso in Paris.
  - ▶ A New York architect working with engineers in Tokyo to build a school in Cairo.
  - ▶ A Chinese migrant worker who sends money home so that his children can go to college.
  - ▶ Two graduate students in California forming a company in their friend's garage that changed the way people around the world access information.

# What is Economics

- To study Economics is to study the **choices** that people make as consumers, workers and entrepreneurs, given the **constraints** they face in a world of limited resources, and the **individual** and **collective** consequences of their choices.
  - ▶ Every economic issue involves, at its most basic level, individual choice – decisions by an individual about what to do and what not to do.
  - ▶ The fundamental reason that people need to make choices is **scarcity**: our unlimited wants exceed our limited resources.
  - ▶ Individual choices are not independent. Each person's choices can affect other people. Hence it is important to study the **interaction** of individual choices and their collective consequences.

# What is Economics

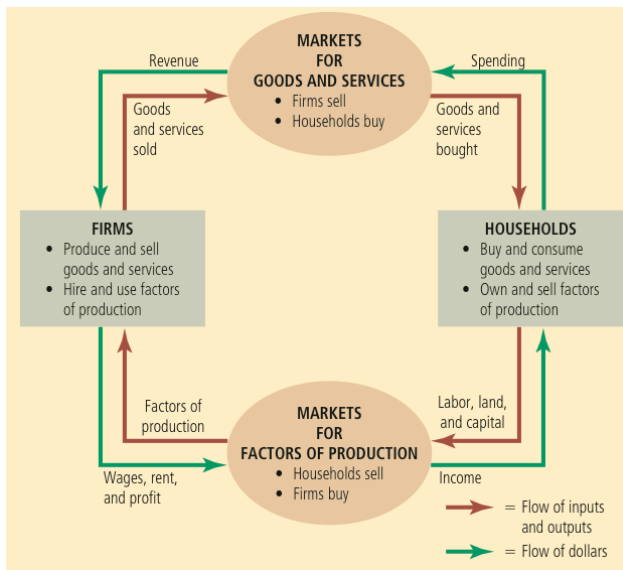
- Microeconomics

- ▶ How people/households decide what to buy, how much to work, save, and spend, etc.
- ▶ How firms decide how much to produce and how many workers to hire, etc.
- ▶ The interaction of households, firms, and governments in markets for particular goods and services.

- Macroeconomics

- ▶ Aggregate outcomes of household, firm, and government choices, including inflation, unemployment, business cycles, and economic growth.

# A Circular Diagram of the Economy



# Economic Assumptions on Human Behavior

To study individual choices, we need models of decision-making. Most economic models assume that people are **rational** (*Homo Economicus*).

## Assumption (The Rationality Assumption)

*Individuals make choices by evaluating the costs and benefits of each available option, based on the information they have at the time, and picking the best alternative.*

- Simply put, the rationality assumption states that “people always do the best they can”<sup>1</sup>.
- In many cases, this is a strong but reasonable approximation to the idea that “people generally attempt to do the best they can”.

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<sup>1</sup>When there is uncertainty regarding the costs and benefits of some options, the rationality assumption assumes that people can correctly calculate the *expected* benefits and costs of those options conditional on the information they have.

# Economic Assumptions on Human Behavior

The rationality assumption implies that:

- People respond to incentives.
- An option will be chosen if its benefit is greater than its opportunity cost.
- “How-much” choices made at the margin.



# People respond to incentives

**Incentive:** something that changes the relative costs and/or benefits of the options that people face.

- When gas taxes rise, people use public transportation, and travel less.
- When interest rates rise, people save more and consume less.

Steven Landsburg:

*Most of economics can be summarized in four words: “People respond to incentives.” The rest is commentary.*

# Opportunity Cost

- Every choice is a trade-off: when you choose something, you have to give up something else.
- The cost of something is the value of what must be given up in order to have it.
- **Opportunity cost:** the value of the **next best alternative**.
- A rational person chooses an option as long as its benefit is greater than its opportunity cost.

# Opportunity Cost

Opportunity cost can include both **explicit (direct) cost** and **implicit (indirect) cost**.

- The cost of going to college
  - ▶ Explicit cost: tuition, etc.
  - ▶ Implicit cost: lost wages, etc.
- The cost of seeing a movie
  - ▶ Explicit cost: movie ticket
  - ▶ Implicit cost: the highest value you can get by using the time to do something else
- The cost of investing in a project
  - ▶ Explicit cost: direct cost of investment
  - ▶ Implicit cost: profit from the next best project

# Opportunity Cost

## Example

An individual is facing three options. The benefits associated with each option are  $(\pi_1, \pi_2, \pi_3)$ . The direct costs associated with each option are  $(d_1, d_2, d_3)$ . Suppose  $\pi_1 - d_1 > \pi_2 - d_2 > \pi_3 - d_3$ . Let  $c_i$  denote the opportunity cost of option  $i$ . Then

- $c_1 = \pi_2 - d_2 + d_1$ . The individual will choose option 1 if  $\pi_1 > c_1$ . Since this is true, option 1 will be chosen.
- $c_2 = \pi_1 - d_1 + d_2$ . The individual will choose option 2 if  $\pi_2 > c_2$ . Since this is not true, option 2 will not be chosen.
- $c_3 = \pi_1 - d_1 + d_3$ . The individual will choose option 3 if  $\pi_3 > c_3$ . Since this is not true, option 3 will not be chosen.

# Opportunity Cost

## Example

You are given a free ticket to see a performance at Banlam Theatre (which has no resale value). The Xiamen Philharmonic is performing on the same night and is your next-best alternative activity. Tickets to the Xiamen Philharmonic concert cost 60 yuan. On any given day, you would be willing to pay up to 100 yuan to attend a Xiamen Philharmonic concert. Assume there are no other costs of seeing either performance. What is the opportunity cost of going to see the performance at Banlam Theatre?

# Opportunity Cost

## Example (Sunk costs are irrelevant)

A 200-seat plane is about to take off with 10 empty seats. The flight costs the airline \$100,000. A passenger arriving at the last minute is hoping to purchase a ticket for one of the remaining seats. How much should the airline charge her?

# Opportunity Cost

Stu's Views

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## Optimal decisions are made at the margin

When the choice is on “*how much*”, a rational person makes decision by comparing marginal benefits and marginal costs.

- **Marginal benefit (MB)**: the benefit from a small increase in the amount of the chosen option
- **Marginal cost (MC)**: the opportunity cost of a small increase in the amount of the chosen option



# Optimal decisions are made at the margin

## Example (Marginal Analysis)

You are trying to decide how much time to spend on watching TV tonight instead of studying. Let  $\pi(t)$  be the benefit of watching  $t$  minutes of TV tonight. Let  $c(t)$  be its opportunity cost<sup>a</sup>. Then  $\pi'(t)$  is the marginal benefit of watching 1 more minute of TV when you have already watched  $t$  minutes and  $c'(t)$  is the marginal cost of watching 1 more minute of TV when you have already watched  $t$  minutes.

To choose the optimal TV watching time, you should choose a  $t^*$  that maximizes  $\pi(t) - c(t)$ . Equivalently, you should continue watching TV as long as  $\pi'(t) > c'(t)$ , and until  $\pi'(t) = c'(t)$  (if that ever happens)<sup>b</sup>.

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<sup>a</sup>Assuming no direct costs to watching TV or studying,  $c(t)$  = the benefit of using the  $t$  minutes to study.

<sup>b</sup>If  $\pi'(0) > c'(0)$ ,  $\pi''(t) < 0$  (decreasing marginal benefit) and  $c''(t) > 0$  (increasing marginal cost), then there must exist a  $t^* > 0$  such that  $\pi'(t^*) = c'(t^*)$ .

# Beyond Rationality

In many situations, people's choices may exhibit departures from rationality:

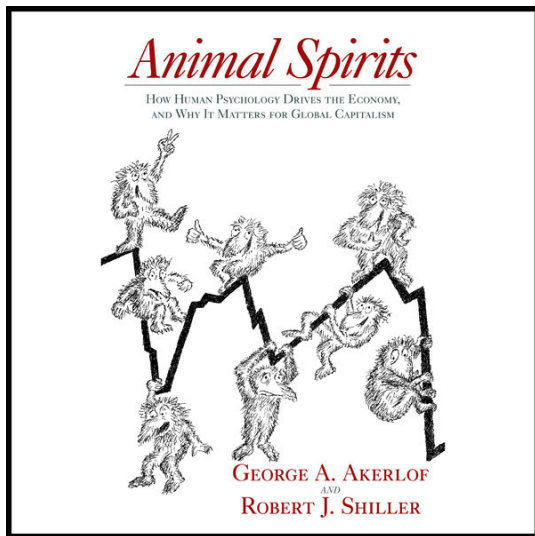
- reference dependence
- hyperbolic discounting
- overconfidence
- loss aversion
- herding instinct
- etc.

# Beyond Rationality

## Example (The ultimatum game)

Two players play a game. The first player receives a sum of money and proposes how to divide the sum between her and the other player. The second player chooses to either accept or reject this proposal. If the second player accepts, the money is split according to the proposal. If the second player rejects, neither player receives any money. How should the first player propose?

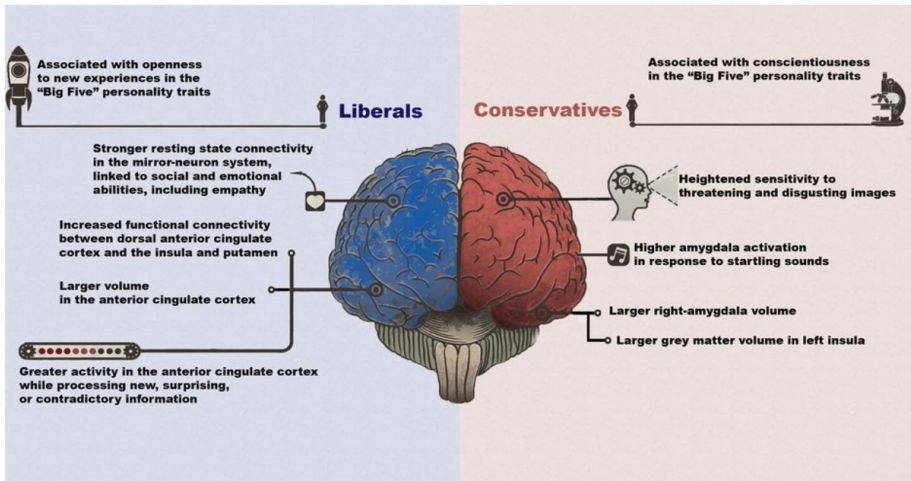
# Beyond Rationality



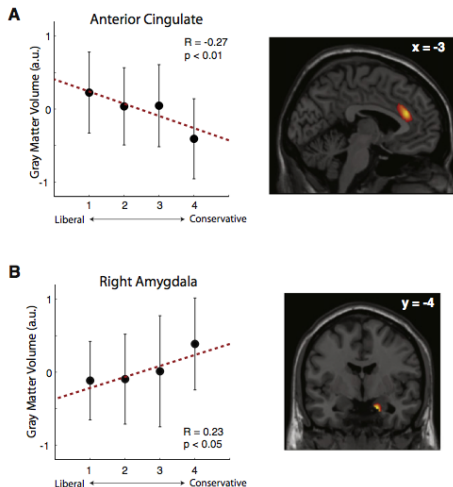
# Beyond Rationality

- **Behavioral Economics** studies the effects of psychological, social, cognitive, and emotional factors on the economic decisions of individuals, using tools such as laboratory experiments.
- **Neuroeconomics** aims to provide a neurobiological foundation to economic decision-making.

# Beyond Rationality

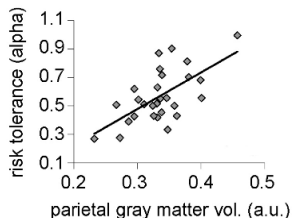
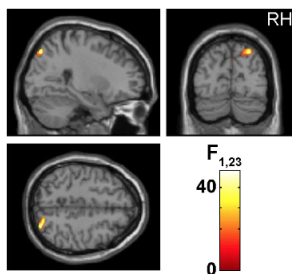


# Beyond Rationality



Brain Structure and Political Orientation. Source: [Kanai et al. \(2011\)](#).

# Beyond Rationality



Gray matter volume of a region in the right posterior parietal cortex predictive of individual risk attitudes. Source: [Gilaie-Dotan et al. \(2014\)](#).



# Economics as Social Science and Policy Tool

- Economics is both a social science and a toolkit for advising on policy.
- Science progresses through the formulation and testing of theory. A defining characteristic of scientific theory is **falsifiability**.
  - ▶ A theory is falsifiable if it is possible, in principle, to prove it wrong using evidence.
  - ▶ E.g., the statement “the sun will rise in the morning” is falsifiable, while the statement “God exists” is not. Hence the latter is religion, not science<sup>2</sup>.
- Similarly, Economics works by formulating economic theories and testing their hypotheses using data.

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<sup>2</sup>Note: in many cases, we will never be able to prove a theory true: even if it has been tested correct 1000 times, it can fail on the 1001<sup>th</sup> time. Passing each test, however, means that the theory is less likely to be wrong and this is the nature of our scientific knowledge.

# Economics as Social Science and Policy Tool

- As social science, Economics makes **positive statements** about how the economy works.
  - ▶ A positive statement is a claim about how the world *is*.
  - ▶ One type of positive statements that Economics – and social science in general – is particularly interested in making are **causal statements**: statements about cause and effect.
  - ▶ Eg., “minimum-wage laws cause unemployment.”
  - ▶ Positive statements, in order to be scientific, must be falsifiable.
- As a policy tool, Economics makes **normative statements** about whether an economic outcome is desirable and how to improve it.
  - ▶ A normative statement is a claim about how the world *ought to be*.
  - ▶ E.g., “the government should not raise the minimum wage.”
  - ▶ Normative statements contain *value judgement* and hence cannot be judged using data alone.