

Introduction to Agricultural Economics

SIXTH EDITION

John B. Penson, Jr. • Oral Capps, Jr. C. Parr Rosson III • Richard T. Woodward

INTRODUCTION TO AGRICULTURAL ECONOMICS

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GLOBAL EDITION

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Authorized adaptation from the United States edition, entitled Introduction to Agricultural Economics, 6th Edition, ISBN 978-0-13-337948-8 by John B. Penson, Jr., Oral Capps, Jr., C. Parr Rosson III, and Richard T. Woodward, published by Pearson Education © 2015.

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ISBN 10: 1-292-07306-3 ISBN 13: 978-1-292-07306-4

British Library Cataloguing-in-Publication Data

A catalogue record for this book is available from the British Library

10987654321

Typeset in A Garamond Pro by Lumina Datamatics, Inc.

Printed and bound by Courier Kendallville in United States of America

We thank our families for their patience and support, and dedicate this book to them:

My wife Donna; children Matt, John, and Laura; and my mother Mary Elizabeth for her interest in literature JBP

My wife Debbie, sons Kevin and Eric, and my mother Shirley and grandmother
May Manuel—my most ardent supporters. I am forever grateful to them for inspiring
me to do my best and to always finish strong! OCJ

My wife Helen and sons CP, Henry, and Jonathan CPR

My wife Rosie and children Christopher and Sophia RTW

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Preface

The purpose of this book is to provide beginning students in agriculture with a systematic introduction to the basic concepts and issues in economics as they relate to a major segment of the U.S. economy—the food and fiber industry. This process requires an understanding of the microeconomic and macroeconomic forces influencing the decisions of producers and consumers of food and fiber products, including (1) farmers and ranchers, (2) the agribusinesses that supply them with production inputs and credit, (3) the agribusinesses that process food products and manufacture fiber products, and (4) the agribusinesses that provide marketing and related services at the wholesale and retail levels to both domestic consumers and overseas markets.

We begin the book by answering the question raised in Chapter 1, "What is agricultural economics?" We first define the field of economics and then develop our definition of agricultural economics based on the role agricultural economists play at the micro and macro levels. Chapter 2 provides a historical background by discussing the changing structure of agriculture during the post—World War II period and of the sectors that supply farmers and ranchers with inputs, process their output, sell value-added products to domestic consumers, and trade food and fiber products in the global marketplace.

Part 2 helps students understand the economic decisions made by consumers of food and fiber products. Topics include the forces influencing consumer behavior (Chapter 3); the concept of market demand for a particular product (Chapter 4); and the elasticity of demand (Chapter 5). The specification of key elasticity measures is supplemented by empirical examples and their relevance to decision-making in the food and fiber industry, including the potential magnitude of consumer response and its implication on producer revenue.

Part 3 covers the supply side of the market. Chapter 6 focuses on issues related to resource use and production responses by businesses in the short run. Chapter 7 discusses the economic forces underlying the firm's input use, the expansion of the firm, and the choice of commodities. An introduction to the market supply curve and determination of market clearing prices and quantities under perfect competition (Chapter 8) and imperfect competition (Chapter 9) completes this part. This section of the book includes empirical examples that illustrate the magnitude and applicability of the relationships covered in these chapters.

Part 4 addresses the role of government in the food and fiber industry. Natural resources, the environment, and agriculture are covered in Chapter 10. This chapter includes the role of government regulation, which reflects the increasing recognition that natural resources and the environment are scarce resources and require careful management. The government's role in providing subsidies to agriculture, curbing market power, and providing for a secure and safe food supply is addressed in Chapter 11.

Part 5 focuses on the macroeconomics of agriculture. Chapter 12 outlines the general linkages between product markets and national output. Chapter 13 documents the importance of monetary and fiscal policy to the performance of the economy. The consequences of business fluctuations in the economy are covered in Chapter 14. Chapter 15 covers the relationship between macroeconomic policy and its effects on the economic performance of agriculture.

Part 6 focuses on international agricultural trade issues. Chapter 16 examines the growth and instability of agricultural trade, including the relative dependence on exports

and imports, as well as the foreign exchange market, the international monetary system, and the effects of foreign exchange rates on U.S. agricultural trade. Chapter 17 explores the rationale behind international trade as well as the beneficiaries of international trade. Finally, Chapter 18 focuses on agricultural trade policy and preferential trade agreements. This includes issues dealing with trade restriction and whether preferential trade agreements create or divert trade.

Each chapter concludes with a summary and a list of key terms. A "Testing Your Economic Quotient" section contains questions and problems to reinforce the key issues covered. Understanding the answers to these questions and problems will help students properly prepare for exams. References also are listed at the end of each chapter.

This book goes beyond the farm gate to address the entire food and fiber industry, which represents a notable percentage of the U.S. national output. This book places a strong emphasis on the macroeconomics of agriculture, the role of government in agriculture, and international agricultural trade. Experience over the last several decades certainly has shown that farmers and ranchers, agribusinesses, financial institutions, and consumers of food and fiber products are significantly affected by macroeconomic policies and trade agreements.

We wish to thank the many students who have given us comments and suggestions during the development phases of this and previous editions of the book. We also thank the following reviewers for their valuable feedback: James Beierlein, Penn State University, University Park; Marlies Boyd, Modesto Junior College; and Stephen King, Western Kentucky University.

John B. Penson, Jr. Oral Capps, Jr. C. Parr Rosson III Richard T. Woodward

Pearson would like to thank and acknowledge Thiagu Ranganathan, Institute of Economic Growth; and G. Mythili, Indira Gandhi Institute of Development Research, for their contributions to the Global Edition. Pearson would also like to thank James E. Allen IV, University of Kentucky; Duncan Farquhar, Charles Sturt University; Johann Kirsten, University of Pretoria; and Soumyanetra Munshi, Indira Gandhi Institute of Development Research for reviewing and providing suggestions that helped in improving the Global Edition.

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Penson's research has focused on the macroeconomics of agriculture and credit analysis. This includes the development of quantitative economic models emphasizing the role of the agricultural sector for various state and national economies. His research has involved projects assessing the implications of macroeconomic policy for agriculture as well as analysis of lending programs and credit analysis for major domestic and international lenders.

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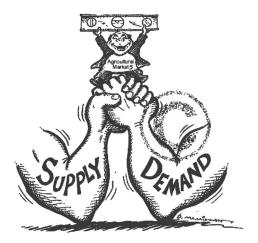
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Agricultural economics is an applied social science that deals with how producers, consumers, and societies use scarce resources in the production, marketing, and consumption of food and fiber products. In agricultural markets, the forces of supply and demand are at work. Credit: Brad McMillan/Cartoon Stock.

Agriculture certainly is among the most prominent sectors of any economy. Psalm 104 illustrates this point: "Bless the lord, O my soul, thou dost cause the grass to grow for the cattle, and plants for man to cultivate, that he may bring forth food from the Earth." Unequivocally, agriculture has been a discipline then worthy of study. We specifically are interested in the economic relationships inherent in the agricultural sector.

The roots of agricultural economics can be traced back to ancient Egypt, arguably to the first agricultural economist, Joseph. Joseph interpreted the dreams of the Pharaoh of Egypt and correctly predicted seven years of feast and seven years of famine.

What is agricultural economics? If you were to say "Agricultural economics is the application of economic principles to agriculture," you would be technically correct—but in a narrow context. This definition does not recognize the economic, social, and environmental issues addressed by the agricultural economics profession. To perceive agricultural economics as being limited only to the economics of farming and ranching operations would be incorrect. These operations annually account for only 2% to 4% of the nation's output. Actually, the scope of agricultural economics goes well beyond the farm gate to encompass a broader range of food- and fiber-related activity, which annually accounts for approximately 12% to 15% of the nation's output.

Before we define agricultural economics further, let us first examine the scope of economics and the role that agricultural economists play in today's economy. This examination will allow us to propose a more definitive answer to the question raised by the chapter title. A more in-depth assessment of the nation's food and fiber industry is presented in Chapter 2.

SCOPE OF ECONOMICS

Two frequently used clichés describe the economic problem: "You can't have your cake and eat it too," and "There's no such thing as a free lunch." Because we—individually or collectively—cannot have everything we desire, we must make choices. Consumers, for example, must make expenditure decisions with a budget in mind. Their objective is to maximize the satisfaction they derive from allocating their time between work and leisure, and from allocating their available income to consumption and saving, given current prices and interest rates. Producers must make production, marketing, and investment decisions with a budget in mind. Their objective is to maximize the profit of the firm, given its current resources and current relative prices. After considering the costs and benefits involved, society also must make choices on how to allocate its scarce resources among different government programs most efficiently.

Scarce Resources

The term *scarcity* refers to the finite quantity of resources that are available to meet society's needs. Because nature does not freely provide enough of these resources, only a limited quantity is available. **Scarce resources** can be broken down into the following categories: (1) natural and biological resources; (2) human resources; and (3) manufactured resources.

Natural and Biological Resources Land and mineral deposits are examples of scarce **natural resources**. The quality of these natural resources in the United States differs greatly from region to region. Some lands are incapable of growing anything in its natural state, and other lands are extremely fertile. Still other areas are rich in coal deposits, or oil and natural gas reserves. In recent years, our society also has become aware of the increasing scarcity of fresh water, especially in the West. Whereas energy-related natural resources have represented critical scarce resources in recent decades, water could become *the* critical scarce natural resource

Scare resources can be decomposed into natural and biological resources, human resources, and manufactured resources.

in the near future. In addition to natural resources, scarce resources also include **biological resources** such as livestock, wildlife, and different genetic varieties of crops.

Human Resources Human resources are services provided by laborers and management to the production of goods and services that also are considered scarce. Laborers, for example, provide services that, combined with scarce non-human resources, produce economic goods. Workers in the automotive industry provide the labor input to produce cars and trucks. Farm laborers provide the labor input to produce crops and livestock. Labor is considered scarce even when the country's labor force is not fully employed. Laborers supply services in response to the going wage rate and to the returns that they derive from leisure. Agribusinesses may not be able to hire all the labor services they desire at the wage they wish to pay.

Management, another form of human resource, provides entrepreneurial services, which may entail the formation of a new firm, the renovation or expansion of an existing firm, the taking of financial risks, and the supervision of the use of the firm's existing resources so that its objectives can be met. Without entrepreneurship, large-scale agribusinesses would cease operating efficiently.

Manufactured Resources The third category of scarce resources is **manufactured resources**, or **capital**. Manufactured resources are machines, equipment, and structures. A product that has not been used up in the year it was made also is considered a manufactured resource. For example, inventories of corn raised but not fed to livestock or sold to agribusinesses represent a manufactured resource.

Scarcity is a relative concept. Nations with high per capita incomes and wealth face the problem of scarcity like nations with low per capita incomes and wealth. The difference lies in the degree to which resource scarcity exists and the forms that it takes.

Scarcity refers to the fixed quantity of resources that are available to meet societal needs.

Making Choices

Resource scarcity forces consumers and producers to make choices. These choices have a time dimension. The choices consumers make today will have an effect on how they will live in the future. The choices businesses make today will have an effect on the future profitability of their firms. Your decision to go to college rather than get a job today was probably based in part on your desire to increase your future earning power or eventual wealth, knowing what your earning potential would be if you did not attend college.

The choices one makes also have an associated **opportunity cost**. The opportunity cost of going to college now is the income you are currently foregoing by not getting a job now. The opportunity cost of a consumer taking \$1,000 out of his or her savings account to buy a gaming station is the interest income this money would have earned if left in the bank. An agribusiness firm considering the purchase of a new computer system also must consider the income it could receive by using this money for another purpose. The bottom line expressed in economic terms is whether the economic benefits exceed the costs, including foregone income. Simply put, opportunity cost is a concept associated with economic decisions. It refers to the implicit cost associated with the next best alternative.

Opportunity cost refers to the implicit cost associated with the next best alternative in a set of choices available to decision makers.

¹Goods and services produced from scarce resources also are scarce and are referred to as economic goods. Economic goods are in contrast to free goods, in which the quantity desired is available at a price of zero. Air has long been a free good, but pollution (a negative good), which makes the air unfit to breathe, is changing this notion in some areas.

To illustrate the concept of opportunity cost, consider the following hypothetical example. Suppose that RJR Nabisco has three alternatives for manufacturing snack foods:

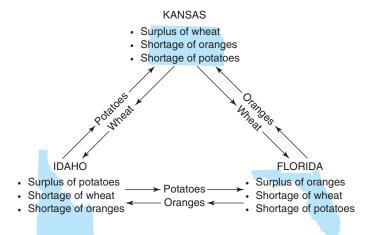
Alternative 1: Manufacture cookies alone and obtain a profit of \$30 million Alternative 2: Manufacture chips alone and obtain a profit of \$25 million Alternative 3: Manufacture both cookies and chips and obtain a profit of \$35 million

Because Alternative 3 offers the highest profit to RJR Nabisco, it is rational economically for the firm to adopt this choice and consequently manufacture both cookies and chips. However, in doing so, the firm foregoes Alternatives 1 and 2. The implicit cost associated with the next best alternative is to forgo a profit of \$30 million. Thus, \$30 million is the opportunity cost in this example.

Sometimes the choices we make are constrained not only by resource scarcity but also by non-economic considerations. These forces may be political, legal, or moral. For example, some states have blue laws that prohibit the sale of specific commodities on Sundays. A variety of regulations exist at the federal and state levels that govern the production of food and fiber products, including environmental and food safety concerns. For example, specific chemicals are banned from use in producing and processing food products because of their potential health hazard. The Big Green movement in California in 1990 sought to ban the use of all agricultural chemicals that were shown to pose health hazards to laboratory animals. As another example, over the period February 2007 to August 2007, a nationwide recall of Peter Pan peanut butter took place due to its association with salmonella contamination. This product was not available in grocery stores for a period of 27 weeks.

Most resources are best suited for a particular use. For example, the instructor of this course is better qualified to teach this course than to perform open-heart surgery. By focusing the use of our resources on a specific task, we are engaging in **specialization**. With a given set of human and non-human resources, specialization of effort generally results in a higher total output. Individuals should do what they do comparatively better than others, given their endowment of resources. Some individuals might specialize in fields such as professional athletics or law. Others might specialize in agricultural economics. States and nations may find it to their advantage to specialize in the production of coffee, rice, or computers and import other commodities for which their endowment of natural, human, and manufactured resources is ill-suited. As illustrated in Figure 1–1, Kansas has a surplus of wheat production but a shortage of orange production, while Florida has a surplus of orange production and a shortage of wheat production. Both

Figure 1–1Specialization and resource allocation.



states have a shortage of potato production, while Idaho has plenty to spare. Specialization in production provides the basis for trade among producers and consumers.

Choices in the allocation of resources made by society (a collection of individuals) might be quite different from the choices made by individual members of society. For example, all nations normally allocate some resources to military uses. Society as a whole must decide how best to allocate its resources between the production of civilian goods and services and the production of military goods, popularly referred to as the choice of "guns versus butter."

DEFINITION OF ECONOMICS

With the foregoing concepts of resource scarcity and choice in mind, we may now define the nature and scope of the field of economics as follows:

Economics is a social science that deals with how consumers, producers, and societies choose among the alternative uses of scarce resources in the process of producing, exchanging, and consuming goods and services.

Microeconomics versus Macroeconomics

As with most disciplines, the field of economics can be divided into several branches. **Microeconomics** and **macroeconomics** are two major branches of economics. Microeconomics focuses on the economic actions of individuals or specific groups of individuals. For example, microeconomists are concerned with the economic behavior of consumers who demand goods and services and producers who supply goods and services, and the determination of the prices of those goods and services. Macroeconomics focuses on broad aggregates, such as the growth of the nation's gross domestic product (GDP), the gaps between the economy's potential GDP and its current GDP, and trade-offs between unemployment and inflation. For example, macroeconomists are concerned with identifying the monetary and fiscal policies that would reduce inflation, promote growth of the nation's economy, and improve the nation's trade balance (exports minus imports). Macroeconomics explicitly accounts for the interrelationships between the nation's labor, product, and money markets and the economic decisions of foreign governments and individuals.

Despite the differences between microeconomics and macroeconomics, there is no conflict between these two branches. After all, the economy in the aggregate is certainly affected by the events taking place in individual markets.

A word of caution: we must be careful when generalizing the aggregate or macroeconomic consequences of an individual or a microeconomic event. If not, we run the risk of committing a **fallacy of composition**, meaning that which is true in an individual situation is not necessarily true in the aggregate. For example, suppose Walt Wheatman adopts a new technology that doubles his wheat production. If the other 300,000 wheat farmers in the United States and other wheat producers worldwide do not follow suit, Walt's income will rise sharply. It would be wrong for Walt or others to conclude, however, that all wheat farmers would achieve income gains if they also adopted this new technology. If other wheat producers did respond, supply would expand substantially, and wheat prices would fall dramatically.

Positive versus Normative Economics

The study of economics also can be divided between **positive economics** and **normative economics**. Positive economics focuses on what-is and what-would-happen-if questions and policy issues. No value judgments or prescriptions are made. Instead, the economic behavior of producers and consumers is explained or predicted.

Microeconomics is a branch of economics that focuses on the actions or behavior of individual agents or groups of agents.

Macroeconomics is another branch that centers attention on broad aggregates of the economy.

Positive economics deals with what-is and what-would-happen-if questions.

Normative economics

focuses on what-shouldbe or what-ought-to-be questions. For example, policymakers may be interested in knowing how consumers and producers would respond to a tax cut in a tax hike. Or, policymakers may be interested in to what degree the problem of obesity may be mitigated if a notable tax is placed on sugar-sweetened beverages.

Normative economics focuses on determining "what should be" or "what ought to be." For example, policymakers might inquire as to which of several alternative policies *should be* adopted to maximize the economic welfare of producers and consumers. At the micro level, a canning plant might be interested in knowing what vegetables it *should be* canning to maximize profit.²

Alternative Economic Systems

An *economic system* can be defined as the institutional means by which resources are used to satisfy human desires, in which the term *institutional* refers to the laws, habits, ethics, and customs of the nation's citizens. **Capitalism** is a free market economic system in which individuals own resources and have the right to employ their time and resources, however they choose, with minimal legal constraints from government. Prices signal the value of resources and economic goods. Under capitalism, as claimed by Adam Smith in his book *The Wealth of Nations* in 1776, individuals' efforts to maximize their own gains in a free market benefit society. The "invisible hand of the market" is a metaphor conceived by Adam Smith to describe the self-regulating behavior of the market place. Capitalism differs sharply from **socialism**, or **communism**, because resources are generally collectively owned and the government decides how human and non-human resources are to be utilized across the various sectors of the economy. Prices largely are set by the government and administered to consumers and farmers. Winston Churchill noted that "Socialism is a philosophy of failure, the creed of ignorance, and the gospel of envy; its inherent virtue is the equal sharing of misery" (www.brainyquote.com).

The United States has what is commonly referred to as a **mixed economic system**; that is, markets are not entirely free to determine price in some markets but are free in others. The government's intervention in the agricultural arena, for example, is well known. Loan guarantees to crop producers and guarantees to savings and loan depositors are forms of government intervention in the private sector. The government also controls numerous aspects of transportation, communications, education, and finance. Food assistance programs, such as the Supplemental Nutritional Assistance Program (SNAP) and the Women's, Infants, and Children's (WIC) Program, also are indicative of a mixed economic system.

DEFINITION OF AGRICULTURAL ECONOMICS

Because agricultural economics involves the application of economics to agriculture, we may define this field of study as follows:

Agricultural economics is an applied social science that deals with how producers, consumers, and societies use scarce and natural resources in the production, processing, marketing, and consumption of food and fiber products.

WHAT DOES AN AGRICULTURAL ECONOMIST DO?

The application of economics to agriculture in a complex market economy such as that of the United States has a long and rich history. We can summarize this activity by discussing the activities of agricultural economists at the microeconomic level and at the macroeconomic level.

²For a more in-depth discussion of positive and normative economics, see Friedman, 1974.

Role at Microeconomic Level

Agricultural economists at the micro level are concerned with issues related to resource use in the production, processing, distribution, and consumption of products in the **food and fiber system**. Production economists examine resource demand by businesses and their supply response. Market economists focus on the flow of food and fiber through market channels to their final destination and the determination of prices at each stage. Financial economists are concerned with issues related to the financing of businesses and the supply of capital to these firms. Resource economists focus on the use and preservation of the nation's natural resources. Other economists are interested in the formation of government programs for specific commodities that will support the incomes of farmers and provide food and fiber products to low-income consumers.

Role at Macroeconomic Level

Agricultural economists involved at the macro level are interested in how agriculture and agribusinesses affect domestic and world economies and how the events taking place in other sectors affect these firms and vice versa. For example, agricultural economists employed by the Federal Reserve System must evaluate how changes in monetary policy affect the price of various food commodities. Macroeconomists with a research interest may use computer-based models to analyze the direct and indirect effects that specific monetary or fiscal policy proposals would have on the farm business sector. Macroeconomists employed by multinational food companies examine foreign trade relationships for food and fiber products. Others address issues in the area of international development.

Marginal Analysis

Economists frequently are concerned with what happens at the margin. A microeconomist may focus on how the addition of another input by a business, or the purchase of another product by a consumer, will change the economic well-being of the business and the consumer. A macroeconomist, on the other hand, may focus on how a change in the tax rate on personal income may change the nation's output, interest rates, inflation, and the federal budget deficit. The key word in this example is *change*; or, more specifically, how a change in price, quantity, and so on will affect other prices and quantities in the economy, and how this situation might change the economic well-being of consumers, businesses, and the economy as a whole. Many of the chapters to follow include a discussion of marginal analysis so as to better understand economic decisions made at the firm, household, or economy level.

Key agencies that agricultural economists deal with include the Economic Research Service (www.ers.usda.gov), the U.S. Department of Agriculture, and the American Farm Bureau Federation (AFBF) (www.fb.org), the voice of agriculture. The current U.S. secretary of agriculture is Tom Vilsack, and the current president of the AFBF is Bob Stallman.

WHAT LIES AHEAD?

Chapter 2 gives an overview of the structure of the nation's food and fiber system and the important role it plays in the U.S. general economy. The remaining parts of the book can be summarized as follows:

Part 2 focuses on understanding consumer behavior in the marketplace, particularly in explaining the demand for food and fiber products. Chapter 3 presents the theory of consumer behavior. Chapter 4 describes the conditions for consumer equilibrium and determination of market demand. Chapter 5 discusses the measurement and interpretation of demand elasticities.

- Part 3 changes the focus from the behavior of consumers to the behavior of producers of food and fiber products. Emphasis is placed on market equilibrium and market structures. Chapter 6 describes the measurement of production relationships, costs of production, and revenue. Chapter 7 describes the economics of input substitution and describes the economics of product substitution. Chapter 8 describes the determination of output and price under conditions of perfect competition. Finally, Chapter 9 describes the determination of output and price under conditions of imperfect competition.
- Part 4 examines the resource, environmental, and political setting in which producers and consumers of food and fiber products in the United States find themselves. Chapter 10 deals with resource and environmental economics. Chapter 11 focuses on the rationale for government intervention and outlines the development and application of income and price supports in the United States, primarily from the 1930s to present.
- Part 5 switches attention to the macroeconomy—what makes it tick and the important links between the food and fiber system and the rest of the economy. Chapter 12 discusses product markets and national output. Chapter 13 also focuses on the tools of monetary and fiscal policy. Chapter 14 centers attention on business fluctuations, addressing consequences and policy applications. Chapter 15 concerns the macroeconomics of agriculture, using information gleaned from Chapters 11 to 14.
- Part 6 draws attention to international linkages and to the global economy. Chapter 16 focuses on agriculture and international trade. Chapter 16 examines exchange rates and agricultural trade. Chapter 17 addresses the issue of why nations trade. Chapter 18 concerns agricultural trade policy and preferential trading arrangements.

SUMMARY

The purpose of this chapter is to define the field of agricultural economics as a subset of the general field of economics. The major points made in this chapter are summarized as follows:

- 1. Scarce resources are human and non-human resources that exist in a finite quantity. Scarce resources can be subdivided into three groups: (1) natural and biological resources; (2) human resources; and (3) manufactured resources.
- **2.** Resource scarcity forces both consumers and farmers to make choices.
- **3.** Most resources are best suited to a particular use. Specialization of effort may lead to a higher total output.
- **4.** The field of economics can be divided into microeconomics and macroeconomics. Microeconomics focuses on the actions of individuals—specifically with the economic behavior of consumers and farmers. Microeconomic analysis largely deals with

- the notion of partial equilibrium; events outside the market in question are assumed to be constant. Macroeconomics focuses on broad aggregates, including the nation's aggregate performance as measured by gross domestic product (GDP), unemployment, and inflation. Macroeconomic analysis normally deals with the notion of general equilibrium; events in all markets are allowed to vary.
- 5. Positive economic analysis focuses on what-is and what-would-happen-if questions and policy issues. Normative economic analysis focuses on whatshould-be or what-ought-to-be policy issues.
- **6.** Capitalism, or free market economics, socialism, and communism represent alternative economic systems. The U.S. economy represents a mixed economic system. Some markets are free to determine price, and other market prices are regulated.