

Chapter 1 : FRB:Speech, Bernanke--The Legacy of Milton and Rose Friedman--October 24,

Free to Choose: A Personal Statement () is a book and a ten-part television series broadcast on public television by economists Milton and Rose D. Friedman that advocates free market principles.

Rather, it requires the reader to ferociously wrack their brain for a counter argument or alternative solution to their assertions that governmental controls over economic freedoms by regulation, price and wage controls, nationalization of industries, printing money, adding programs, bowing to special interests, etc. In the end, sometimes I found myself thinking, "yes, Mr. The Friedmans argue from a pragmatic standpoint more than from a philosophical standpoint. Generally, government does a poor job with what it touches. We have this idea in our head that government is a sort I really enjoyed this book, and it confirmed some of my fears that I am really a libertarian at heart. We have this idea in our head that government is a sort of nanny, necessary to protect us from the bad decisions that we might make. The Friedmans argue that not only does the market perform this function already, but that the government does a poor job at it. Because government "protection agencies" are all brakes and no gas, they often create terrible inefficiencies. One of the examples that I found compelling was of the Food and Drug Administration. It takes over a year to get most drugs approved. In that time, there are many people who die of the diseases that those drugs cure, but who are unable to take them. For some of these people, the risk of side effects is worth it, and they would be happy to take their chances. In a market system, people would be allowed to take those chances. In some cases, many times more people die of curable diseases than side effects could ever hurt or kill. Because the FDA will never get in trouble for examining a drug "too thoroughly", but will make headlines if a drug that they approve has dangerous side effects, they err heavily on the side of not approving drugs. There are a number of examples like this, where markets do a fine job of conveying information, and government agencies provide unneeded inefficiencies. Freedom is highly tied not to just the monetary outcomes but also to individuals having autonomy over their own choices and directions not only in the work sense or buying sense either. The more control from above and the mo Beyond my ability to encompass all this book contains. The more control from above and the more "group think"- the less freedom and the greater "sharing" of the poverty and finite goods. Only one quote - the ending conclusion in length- it is never more true than in the present: Those ideas are still very much with us. We are all of us imbued with them. They are part of the very fabric of our being. But we have been straying from them. We have been forgetting the basic truth that the greatest threat to human freedom is the concentration of power, whether in the hands of government or anyone else. We have persuaded ourselves that it is safe to grant power, provided it is for good purposes. Fortunately, we are waking up. We are again recognizing the dangers of an overgoverned society, coming to understand that good objectives can be perverted by bad means, that reliance on the freedom of people to control their own lives in accordance with their own values is the surest way to achieve the full potential of a great society. Fortunately, also, we are a people still free to choose which way we will go- whether to continue along the road we have been following to ever bigger government, or to call a halt and change direction.

Chapter 2 : Free to Choose: A Personal Statement Summary & Study Guide

Free to Choose posits the efficacy of subduing government intervention in a free enterprise market economy by rendering theoretical remedies that would alleviate government failures through more competition and personal freedom; ultimately, it would eliminate gratuitous taxes.

They both worked as dry goods merchants. Shortly after his birth, the family relocated to Rahway, New Jersey. In his early teens, Friedman was injured in a car accident, which scarred his upper lip. In 1941, Friedman graduated from Rutgers University, where he specialized in mathematics and economics and initially intended to become an actuary. During his time at Rutgers, Friedman became influenced by two economics professors, Arthur F. Burns and Homer Jones, who convinced him that modern economics could help end the Great Depression. After graduating from Rutgers, Friedman was offered two scholarships to do graduate work—one in mathematics at Brown University and the other in economics at the University of Chicago. It was at Chicago that Friedman met his future wife, economist Rose Director. During the 1942 academic year he had a fellowship at Columbia University, where he studied statistics with renowned statistician and economist Harold Hotelling. He was back in Chicago for the 1943 academic year, working as a research assistant for Henry Schultz, who was then working on Theory and Measurement of Demand. That year, Friedman formed what would prove to be lifelong friendships with George Stigler and W. Allen Wallis to Washington, D. C. Indeed, Friedman later concluded that all government intervention associated with the New Deal was "the wrong cure for the wrong disease," arguing that the money supply should simply have been expanded, instead of contracted. Ideas from this project later became a part of his Theory of the Consumption Function. Friedman began employment with the National Bureau of Economic Research during autumn to assist Simon Kuznets in his work on professional income. This work resulted in their jointly authored publication *Incomes from Independent Professional Practice*, which introduced the concepts of permanent and transitory income, a major component of the Permanent Income Hypothesis that Friedman worked out in greater detail in the 1950s. The book hypothesizes that professional licensing artificially restricts the supply of services and raises prices. During 1944, Friedman was appointed an assistant professor teaching Economics at the University of Wisconsin—Madison, but encountered antisemitism in the Economics department and decided to return to government service. As a Treasury spokesman during the war he advocated a Keynesian policy of taxation. He helped to invent the payroll withholding tax system, since the federal government badly needed money in order to fight the war. Friedman believed the United States should enter the war. Allen Wallis and Harold Hotelling, where he spent the rest of World War II working as a mathematical statistician, focusing on problems of weapons design, military tactics, and metallurgical experiments. The university awarded him a PhD in 1945. Friedman spent the 1946 academic year teaching at the University of Minnesota where his friend George Stigler was employed. On February 12, 1946, his son, David D. Friedman, was born at the University of Chicago. In 1947, Friedman accepted an offer to teach economic theory at the University of Chicago a position opened by the departure of his former professor Jacob Viner to Princeton University. Friedman would work for the University of Chicago for the next 30 years. There he contributed to the establishment of an intellectual community that produced a number of Nobel Prize winners, known collectively as the Chicago school of economics. At that time, Arthur F. Burns was a member of the faculty. As a result, he initiated the "Workshop in Money and Banking" the "Chicago Workshop", which promoted a revival of monetary studies. During the latter half of the 1940s, Friedman began a collaboration with Anna Schwartz, an economic historian at the Bureau, that would ultimately result in the publication of a book co-authored by Friedman and Schwartz, *A Monetary History of the United States*, 1963. At the time, the Cambridge economics faculty was divided into a Keynesian majority including Joan Robinson and Richard Kahn and an anti-Keynesian minority headed by Dennis Robertson. Friedman speculated that he was invited to the fellowship, because his views were unacceptable to both of the Cambridge factions. Later his weekly columns for *Newsweek* magazine 1958–64 were well read and increasingly influential among political and business people. *Capitalism and Freedom* [edit] His *Capitalism and Freedom* brought him national and international attention outside academia. It was published in 1962 by the University of

Chicago Press and consists of essays that used non-mathematical economic models to explore issues of public policy. It has been translated into eighteen languages. Friedman talks about the need to move to a classically liberal society, that free markets would help nations and individuals in the long-run and fix the efficiency problems currently faced by the United States and other major countries of the s and s. He goes through the chapters specifying a specific issue in each respective chapter from the role of government and money supply to social welfare programs to a special chapter on occupational licensure. Friedman concludes Capitalism and Freedom with his "classical liberal" more accurately, libertarian stance, that government should stay out of matters that do not need and should only involve itself when absolutely necessary for the survival of its people and the country. From on, he was affiliated with the Hoover Institution at Stanford University. During the same year, Friedman was approached by the Free To Choose Network and asked to create a television program presenting his economic and social philosophy. The Friedmans worked on this project for the next three years, and during , the ten-part series, titled Free to Choose , was broadcast by the Public Broadcasting Service PBS. The companion book to the series co-authored by Milton and his wife, Rose Friedman , also titled Free To Choose, was the bestselling nonfiction book of and has since been translated into 14 languages. Milton Friedman is known now as one of the most influential economists of the 20th century. He made several visits to Eastern Europe and to China, where he also advised governments. He was also for many years a Trustee of the Philadelphia Society. Death[edit] Friedman died of heart failure at the age of 94 years in San Francisco on November 16,

Chapter 3 : Free to Choose - Wikipedia

Essay question: Milton Friedman's claims that voluntary exchange is a necessary condition for both prosperity and freedom. 'Carefully examine the assumptions about power', choice' and market efficiency' that underpin his claim.

A Personal Statement by Milton Friedman. The book combines introductory economics concepts with political philosophy, which is usually missing from many introductory economic courses. The market relays information through prices; therefore, prices must be free to reach their own levels, based on the buying preferences of consumers and the selling preferences of producers, without any government interference. In this way, all market participants will receive the correct information from the markets without any distortions introduced by government rules, regulations and policies. All market participants will do what is best for the economy while acting in their own self-interest, and the result will be an efficient outcome in which all economic agents benefit from exchange. There cannot be political freedom without economic freedom void of force and coercion. Using this approach as their basis, the Friedmans look at various economic problems that nations have faced. They compare the economic systems of capitalism and planned economy and discuss why capitalism results in greater prosperity. What is missing in the planned economy is the role of personal incentives based on freedom. The role of government interference is discussed throughout the book, which emphasizes that any kind of government interference hinders the efficient operation of the economy. This is also true with international trade and tariffs. Tariffs produce distortions in trade and cause changes in the level of income, employment and production in the trading nations. The Friedmans make their case for free trade. The Great Depression and the factors that contributed to it is also discussed. They are highly critical of the cradle to grave welfare state. But instead of just criticizing, the Friedmans offer ideas to replace the policies and programs that are in place or proposed and discuss why programs that rely on the market are superior. This is consistent with the monetarist emphasis on markets. Various other issues are also tackled, such as education, taxes and government spending. It brings about competition among the education providers and makes them more responsive to the demands of the users. And as most adherents with roots to the Classical School, the Friedmans do not support the idea of big government and propose ideas to limit governmental growth. The chapter on inflation is the classical, textbook monetarist policy requiring slow and steady growth in the money supply. This section contains words approx.

Chapter 4 : Rose Friedman - Wikipedia

Free to Choose: A Personal Statement by Milton and Rose Friedman is a book about economics. The book illustrates the Friedmans' strong beliefs in free markets and capitalism. Milton Friedman's TV series, *Free to Choose* is based upon this book. The book combines introductory economics concepts with.

Remarks by Governor Ben S. In their Monetary History, Friedman and Schwartz reviewed nearly a century of American monetary experience in painstaking detail, providing an historical analysis that demonstrated the importance of monetary forces in the economy far more convincingly than any purely theoretical or even econometric analysis could ever do. Milton has never been a big fan of government licensing of professionals, but maybe he would make an exception in the case of monetary policymakers. The usual disclaimer applies, that is, I speak for myself and not necessarily for my colleagues at the Federal Reserve. In preparing this talk, I encountered the following problem. I am reminded of the student first exposed to Shakespeare who complained to the professor: He was hardly original at all. All he did was string together a bunch of well-known quotations. His thinking has so permeated modern macroeconomics that the worst pitfall in reading him today is to fail to appreciate the originality and even revolutionary character of his ideas, in relation to the dominant views at the time that he formulated them. Here they are in my summary of slightly more detailed language in the original: There is a consistent though not precise relationship between the rate of growth of money and the rate of growth of nominal income. That relationship is not obvious, however, because there is a lag between money growth and nominal income growth, a lag that itself can be variable. On average, however, the lag between money growth and nominal income growth is six to nine months. The change in the rate of nominal income growth shows up first in output and hardly at all in prices. However, with a further lag of six to nine months, the effects of money growth show up in prices. Again, the empirical relationship is far from perfect. Although money growth can affect output in the short run, in the long run output is determined strictly by real factors, such as enterprise and thrift. Inflation is always a monetary phenomenon, in the sense that it can be produced only by money growth more rapid than output. However, there are many possible sources of money growth. The inflationary impact of government spending depends on its financing. Monetary expansion works by affecting prices of all assets, not just the short-term interest rate. Monetary ease lowers interest rates in the short run but raises them in the long run. What do we make of these propositions today? First, the empirical description of the dynamic effects of money on the economy given in the first six propositions would be viewed by most policymakers and economists today as being, as the British would put it, "spot on. These methods confirm that a monetary expansion for example leads with a lag of one to two quarters to an increase in nominal income. Perhaps more importantly, as Friedman emphasized, the responses of the quantity and price components of nominal income have distinctly different timing. In particular, as Friedman told us, a monetary expansion has its more immediate effects on real variables such as output, consumption, and investment, with the bulk of these effects occurring over two to three quarters. I was going to say, as Friedman first told us, but perhaps the credit for that should go to David Hume. These real effects tend to dissipate over time, however, so that at a horizon of twelve to eighteen months the effects of a monetary expansion or contraction are felt primarily on the rate of inflation. The same patterns have been found in empirical studies for virtually all countries, not only by vector autoregression analysis but by more structural methods as well. They are reflected in essentially all contemporary econometric models used for forecasting and policy analysis, such as the FRBUS model at the Federal Reserve. The lag between monetary policy changes and the inflation response is the reason that modern inflation-targeting central banks, such as the Bank of England, set a horizon of up to two years for achieving their inflation objectives. What about the other propositions? The proposition that money has no real effects in the long run, referred to as the principle of long-run neutrality, is universally accepted today by monetary economists. When Friedman wrote, however, the conventional view held that monetary policy could be used to affect real outcomes--for example, to lower the rate of unemployment--for an indefinite period. The idea that monetary policy had long-run effects--or, in technical language, that the Phillips curve relationship

between inflation and unemployment could be exploited in the long run--proved not only wrong but quite harmful. Of course, as we all know, Friedman noted the close connection between inflation and money growth, though carefully acknowledging that excessive money growth could have many causes. As Milton and Rose discussed in Chapter 9 of the edition of *Free to Choose*, popular views in the s and s and even the views of some Federal Reserve officials held that inflation could arise from a variety of non-monetary sources, including the power of unions and corporations and the greediness of oil-producing countries. An unfortunate implication of these views, whose deficiencies were revealed by bitter experience under President Nixon, was that wage-price controls and other administrative measures could successfully address inflation. We understand today that the Great Inflation would simply not have been possible without the excessively expansionist monetary policies of the late s and s. For example, much research has investigated both theoretically and empirically the interactions of fiscal policy, monetary policy, and inflation. Although this subsequent work has refined our understanding of the relationship between monetary and fiscal policy, these analyses are not inconsistent with the spirit of monetarist propositions, which place the blame for inflation on overissuance of nominal government liabilities. This classical monetarist view of the monetary transmission process has become highly relevant in Japan, for example, where the short-term interest rate has reached zero, forcing the Bank of Japan to use so-called quantitative easing methods. The idea behind quantitative easing is that increases in the money stock will raise asset prices and stimulate the economy, even after the point that the short-term nominal interest rate has reached zero. There is some evidence that quantitative easing has beneficial effects including evidence drawn from the Great Depression by Chris Hanes and others , but the magnitude of these effects remains an open and hotly debated question. Clearly, monetary policy works in the first instance by affecting the supply of bank reserves and the monetary base. However, in the financially complex world we live in, money growth rates can be substantially affected by a range of factors unrelated to monetary policy per se, including such things as mortgage refinancing activity in the short run and the pace of financial innovation in the long run. Hence, it would not be safe to conclude for example that the recent decline in M2 is indicative of a tight-money policy by the Fed. As emphasized by Friedman in his eleventh proposition and by Allan Meltzer, nominal interest rates are not good indicators of the stance of policy, as a high nominal interest rate can indicate either monetary tightness or ease, depending on the state of inflation expectations. Indeed, confusing low nominal interest rates with monetary ease was the source of major problems in the s, and it has perhaps been a problem in Japan in recent years as well. The real short-term interest rate, another candidate measure of policy stance, is also imperfect, because it mixes monetary and real influences, such as the rate of productivity growth. In addition, the value of specific policy indicators can be affected by the nature of the operating regime employed by the central bank, as shown for example in empirical work of mine with Ilian Mihov. The absence of a clear and straightforward measure of monetary ease or tightness is a major problem in practice. How can we know, for example, whether policy is "neutral" or excessively "activist"? I will return to this issue shortly. Besides describing the effects of money on the economy, Friedman also made recommendations for monetary policy--the normative part of his framework. I will discuss just three of the most important of these. First, Friedman has emphasized the Hippocratic principle for monetary policy: He had observed that, in many episodes, the actions of the monetary authorities, despite possibly good intentions, actively destabilized the economy. I hope, though of course I cannot be certain, that two decades of relative monetary stability have not led contemporary central bankers to forget the basic Hippocratic principle. At times, at least in popular writing, Friedman rationalized this position as following from free market principles. This argument is a bit disingenuous, I think, as a fixed nominal exchange rate is just one method of anchoring the aggregate price level and is perfectly consistent with free adjustment of the relative prices of goods and services. In a more serious vein, Friedman understood that, in a world in which monetary policymakers put domestic economic stability above balance of payments considerations, a fixed exchange rate system is likely to be unstable during periods of economic stress. He saw that this was the case during the s, when the world was on a modified gold standard called the gold exchange standard, and it was likewise the case under the postwar Bretton Woods system. To reconcile a fixed exchange rate and an emphasis on domestic stability, policymakers must impose capital controls or restrictions on trade, which have

undesirable effects on economic efficiency. When Friedman wrote about fixed and flexible exchange rates, a switch from the Bretton Woods fixed-exchange-rate system to a floating-rate system seemed quite unlikely. In this, as in many other matters, he was prescient, as the major currencies have now been successfully floating since the breakup of the Bretton Woods system in the early s. These two recommendations have had major effects on institutional design and policy practice. However, in my view, the most fundamental policy recommendation put forth by Milton Friedman is the injunction to policymakers to provide a stable monetary background for the economy. I take this to be a stronger statement than the Hippocratic injunction to avoid major disasters; rather, there is a positive argument here that monetary stability actively promotes efficiency and growth. Do contemporary monetary policymakers provide the nominal stability recommended by Friedman? The answer to this question is not entirely straightforward. As I discussed earlier, for reasons of financial innovation and institutional change, the rate of money growth does not seem to be an adequate measure of the stance of monetary policy, and hence a stable monetary background for the economy cannot necessarily be identified with stable money growth. Nor are there other instruments of monetary policy whose behavior can be used unambiguously to judge this issue, as I have already noted. In particular, the fact that the Federal Reserve and other central banks actively manipulate their instrument interest rates is not necessarily inconsistent with their providing a stable monetary background, as that manipulation might be necessary to offset shocks that would otherwise endanger nominal stability. Ultimately, it appears, one can check to see if an economy has a stable monetary background only by looking at macroeconomic indicators such as nominal GDP growth and inflation. Over the past two decades, inflation has fallen sharply and stabilized around the world, not only in the industrialized nations but in emerging-market economies and in even the poorest developing nations. Some central banks, so-called inflation targeters, have set explicit, quantitative targets for inflation; but all central banks, certainly including the Federal Reserve, have emphasized the importance of achieving and maintaining price stability. On the issue of inflation control, Friedman may be judged to have been a bit too pessimistic; his concerns that central banks would have neither the technical ability nor the correct incentives to control inflation led him to recommend his money-growth rule, for which a central bank could certainly be held accountable. Evidently, however, determined central banks can stabilize inflation directly, at least they have been able to do so thus far. However, on the benefits of monetary stability, or as I would prefer to say, nominal stability, Friedman was not wrong. Many theories popular even today might lead one to conclude that increased stability in inflation could be purchased only at the cost of reduced stability in output and employment. In fact, over the past two decades, increased inflation stability has been associated with marked increases in the stability of output and employment as well, both in the United States and elsewhere. It has been argued that a lower incidence of exogenous shocks explains these favorable developments, and that may be part of the story. But I believe that there is an important causal relationship as well. For example, low and stable inflation has not only promoted growth and productivity, but it has also reduced the sensitivity of the economy to shocks. One important mechanism has been the anchoring of inflation expectations. When the public is confident that the central bank will maintain low and stable inflation, shocks such as sharp increases in oil prices or large exchange rate movements tend to have at most transitory price-level effects and do not result in sustained inflationary surges. In contrast, when inflation expectations are poorly anchored, as was the case in the s, shocks of these types can destabilize inflation expectations, increasing the inflationary impact and leading to greater volatility in both inflation and output. He identified the key empirical facts and he provided us with broad policy recommendations, notably the emphasis on nominal stability, that have served us well. For these contributions, both policymakers and the public owe Milton Friedman an enormous debt.

Chapter 5 : Free to Choose: A Personal Statement by Milton Friedman

Get this from a library! The legacy of Milton and Rose Friedman's Free to choose: economic liberalism at the turn of the 21st century: proceedings of a conference sponsored by the Federal Reserve Bank of Dallas, October

Chapter 6 : Milton Friedman - Wikipedia

Milton and Rose Friedman's "Free to Choose" U.S. university, and destined to sell more than , copies in the next eighteen years.

Chapter 7 : Free to Choose: A Personal Statement - Milton Friedman, Rose Friedman - Google Books

A Condensation of Milton & Rose Friedman's Free to Choose: A Personal Statement 3 calendrierdelascience.com available, the producer is motivated to economize or use cheaper sources so as to keep his costs low.

Chapter 8 : Free to Choose (Audiobook) by Milton Friedman, Rose Friedman | calendrierdelascience.com

The companion book to the series (co-authored by Milton and his wife, Rose Friedman), also titled Free To Choose, was the bestselling nonfiction book of and has since been translated into 14 languages.

Chapter 9 : Free to choose : a personal statement - Indiana State Library

Milton Friedman and his wife, Rose, teamed up to write this most convincing and readable guide, which illustrates the crucial link between Adam Smith's capitalism and.