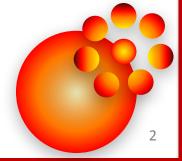


MACROECONOMICS

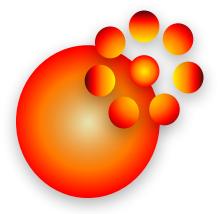
LECTURE 1

INTRODUCTION TO ECONOMIC FLUCTUATIONS



Outline

- 10-1 The Facts About the Business Cycle
- **10-2 Time Horizons in Macroeconomics**
- **10-3 Aggregate Demand**
- **10-4 Aggregate Supply**
- **10-5 Stabilization Policy**
- **10-6 Conclusion**



GDP and Its Components Unemployment and Okun's Law Leading Economic Indicators

10-1 The Facts About the Business Cycle

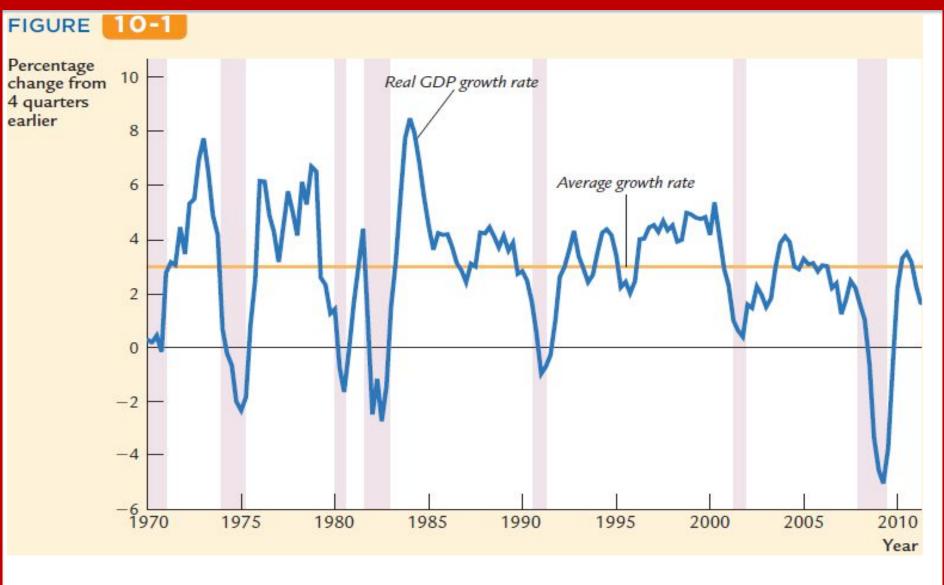
When the economy experiences a period of **falling output and rising unemployment, the** economy is said to be in **recession**.

Economists call these **short-run** fluctuations in output and employment the **business cycle**.

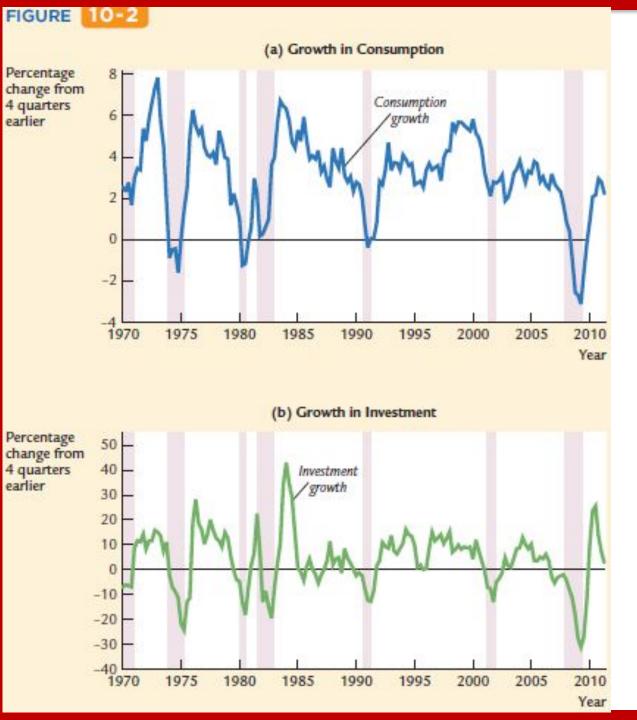
Before thinking about the theory of business cycles, let's look at the **facts** that describe SRF in economic activity.

The official arbiter of when recessions begin and end is **the National Bureau of Economic Research (NBER)**:

- the stating date of each recession = the business cycle peak
- the ending date = the business cycle trough.



- **Real GDP Growth in the United States** Growth in real GDP averages about 3% per year, but there are substantial fluctuations around this average.
- The shaded areas represent periods of recession.



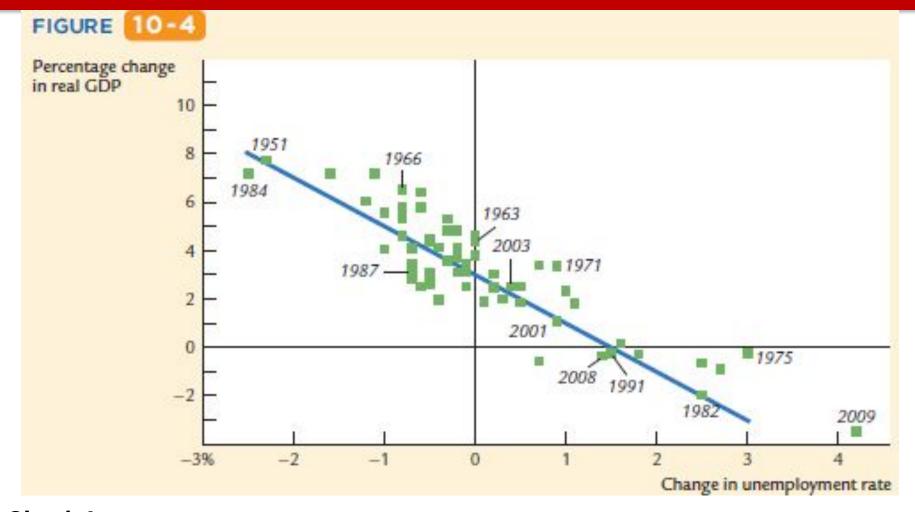
- Growth in Consumption and Investment
 - When the economy heads into a **RECESSION**, growth in
- real consumption and
- investment spending both decline.
- shown in panel (b), is considerably more volatile than
- consumption spending, shown in panel (a).

The shaded areas represent periods of recession



Unemployment

• The U rises significantly during periods of recession, shown here by the shaded areas.



Okun's Law

- This figure is a scatter plot of the change in the UR on the horizontal axis and the % change in real GDP on the vertical axis, using data on the U.S economy.
- Each point represents one year.
- The figure shows that increases in U tend to be associated with lower-than-normal growth in real GDP. The correlation between these two variables is -0.89.

GDP and Its Components Unemployment and Okun's Law Leading Economic Indicators

10-1 The Facts About the Business Cycle

What relationship should we expect between *U* and real *GDP*?

- Unemployed workers do not help to produce G&S =>
- in↑ in the U rate should be associated with de↓ in real GDP.
- This negative relationship between U and GDP is called Okun's law.

Example:

The line drawn through the scatter of points tells us that

% Change in Real GDP= 3% - 2 x Change in U.

- **1.** If the *U* remains the same, real GDP grows by about 3 %;
- If the *U* rises from 5 to 7%, then *real GDP* growth would be
 % Change in Real GDP = 3% − 2 x (7% − 5%)= −1%.

Okun's law says that GDP would fall by 1 %, indicating that the economy is in a recession.

GDP and Its Components Unemployment and Okun's Law Leading Economic Indicators

10-1 The Facts About the Business Cycle

1.Solow model:

- LR trend to \(\gamma\)er standards of living is not associated with any LR trend in the UR.
- The LR growth in GDP is determined primarily by T/LP

2.Okun's law:

- SR movements in GDP are ↑ correlated with the utilization of the
 L.
 - The de↓ in the production that occur during recessions are always associated with in↑ in joblessness.

SOLOW MODEL	OKUN'S LAW
LR	SR
GDP ↑ \rightarrow T/L P ↑	GDP↑→ U ↓
standards of living ≠U	<i>GDP</i> ↓→ U ↑

Okun's Law Leading Economic Indicators

10-1 The Facts About the Business Cycle

Economists arrive at their forecasts is by looking at **leading indicators**,

which are variables that tend to fluctuate in advance of the overall economy.

Forecasts can differ in part because economists hold varying opinions about which leading indicators are most reliable.

The **Conference Board** announces the **index of leading economic indicators.**

- This index includes ten data series
- They are often used to forecast changes about 6-10 months into the future.

GDP and Its Components Unemployment and Okun's Law Leading Economic Indicators

10-1 The Facts About the Business Cycle

- 1.Average WORKWEEK of production workers in manufacturing.
 - A shorter workweek =>
 - lay off workers
 - cut back production
- 2. Average initial <u>weekly claims for unemployment INSURANCE</u>.
 - An in↑ in the number of new claims for *U* insurance =>
 - lay off workers
 - cutting back production
- 3.New orders for CONSUMER goods and materials, adjusted for inflation. ↑↑
- 4.New <u>orders for nondefense CAPITAL g</u>oods.↑↑
- 5.Index of supplier deliveries.
 - Slower deliveries indicate a future increase in economic activity.
- 6. New BUILDING permits issued ↑↑
- 7.Index of <u>STOCK prices</u>. ↑↑

10-2 Time Horizons in Macroeconomics

The theoretical separation of real and nominal variables is called the classical dichotomy.

The irrelevance of the *M* for the determination of real variables is called monetary neutrality.

LR	SR
 P are Flexible Respond to changes in S&D 	many P s are • sticky
r↓n in the M lowers all P	 A r↓n in the <i>M</i> does not immediately cause • all firms to cut the <i>W</i>, • all stores to change the <i>P</i>
Real variables remain the same (<i>Y</i> , <i>Em</i>)	Real variables must adjusti instead (Y, Em)
	 the classical dichotomy no longer holds: 1. nominal variables CAN influence real variables, 2. the economy CAN deviate from the equilibrium predicted by the classical model.

Case Study

2 If You Want to Know Why Firms Have Sticky Prices, Ask Them

TABLE 10-1

The Frequency of Price Adjustment

This table is based on answers to the question: How often do the prices of your most important products change in a typical year?

Frequency	Percentage of Firms	
Less than once	10.2	
Once	39.3	
1.01 to 2	15.6	
2.01 to 4	12.9	
4.01 to 12	7.5	
12.01 to 52	4.3	
52.01 to 365	8.6	
More than 365	1.6	

Source: Table 4.1, Alan S. Blinder, "On Sticky Prices: Academic Theories Meet the Real World," in N. G. Mankiw, ed., Monetary Policy (Chicago: University of Chicago Press, 1994), 117-154.

Case Study

TABLE 10-2

Theories of Price Stickiness

Theory and Brief Description	Percentage of Managers Who Accepted Theory
Coordination failure:	60.6
Firms hold back on price changes, waiting for others to go first	
Cost-based pricing with lags: Price increases are delayed until costs rise	55.5
Delivery lags, service, etc.: Firms prefer to vary other product attributes, such as delivery lags, service, or product quality	54.8
Implicit contracts: Firms tacitly agree to stabilize prices, perhaps out of "fairness" to customers	50.4
Nominal contracts: Prices are fixed by explicit contracts	35.7
Costs of price adjustment: Firms incur costs of changing prices	30.0
Procyclical elasticity:	29.7

10-2 Time Horizons in Macroeconomics

How does the introduction of *StP* change our view of how the economy works? *By S&D*:

FIP	StP
If Y ~ the economy's ability to 1 SUPPLY G&S	If Y ~ DEMAND for G&S,
SUPPLY of G&S ~ the supplies of K, L & T/L.	 DEMAND for G&S ~ on: consumers' confidence about their economic prospects, firms' perceptions about the profitability of new I, M. & F. policy.
FIP are a crucial <u>assumption</u> of classical theory.	P stickiness provides a rationale for why M. & F. policy may be useful IN STABILIZING the economy in the SR.
FIP <u>adjust</u> to ensure that the quantity of Y demanded = the quantity supplied.	1

10-2 Time Horizons in Macroeconomics

The model of aggregate supply (AS) and aggregate demand (AD) allows us to study how

- 1. the AP and AY are determined in the SR
- 2. the economy behaves in the LR & in the SR.
- **2.The model of S & D is** for a **single** good, but
- **3.The model of AS & AD** is a sophisticated model that incorporates the interactions among **many markets**.

Our goal here is

- not to explain the model but
- 1. to introduce its key elements
- to illustrate how the model can help explain SR fluctuations.

10-3 Aggregate Demand

Aggregate demand (*AD***)** is the relationship between the quantity of **Y** demanded and the aggregate **P**.

- The AD curve tells us the quantity of G&S people want to buy at any given P.
- Here we use <u>the quantity theory of money</u> to provide a simple derivation of the *AD* curve.

From Ch.5
$$M\overline{V} = PY$$

M is the money supply,V is the velocity of money,P is the price level, andY is the amount of output.

If **V** is **constant** => **M** determines the nominal value of **Y**, nominal value of **Y** is the product of **P** & **amount of Y**.

The equation can be rewritten in terms of the **S&D** for **real money balances** (**RMB**):

$$M/P = (M/P)^d = kY$$

Downward The Quantity Equation as Aggregate Demand Slopes I

10-3 Aggregate Demand

$$M/P = (M/P)^d = kY$$

k = 1/V is a parameter representing how much money people want to hold for every \$ of income.

- •S of RMB M/P = D for RMB $(M/P)^d$ and
- •D is proportional to output Y.
- V is the flip side of the money demand parameter k.
- •The assumption of \overline{V} is = to the assumption of a \overline{D} for M/P per unit of Y.

10-3 Aggregate Demand

Level Price, P

The Aggregate Demand Curve

- •The AD shows the relationship between *P* & *Y*.
- •It is drawn for a given value of the M.
- •The **AD** curve slopes downward:
 - •the ↑er the **P**,
 - •the ↓er the level of real balances *M/P*, =>
 - •the ↓er the quantity of G&S demanded (Y).

If we assume that

- 1) V is constant and
- 2) *M* is fixed,=>

the quantity equation yields a **negative** relationship between the **P & Y**.

Aggregate demand, AD

between the P &

10-3 Aggregate Demand

The Quantity Equation as Aggregate Demand

Why the
Aggregate
Demand
Curve Slopes
Downward

Shifts in the Aggregate Demand Curve We have **assumed**

- \(\bar{V}\) =>
- M determines the \$ value of all transactions

Why the AD Curve Slopes Downward.

2 explanations:

- **1.** If the P r \uparrow , each transaction requires > \$\$, \rightarrow
 - the # of transactions and =>
 - the quantity of **G&S** purchased $igcap exttt{Must} \downarrow$
- **2.If** Y is \uparrow er, people engage in > transactions and need \uparrow er M/P.
 - For a \overline{M} , \uparrow er M/P imply a \downarrow er P.
 - the ↑er level of M/P allows a > volume of transactions =>
 - > quantity of Y is demanded.

Downward The Quantity Equation as Aggregate Demand Slopes Shifts in the Aggregate Demand Curve

10-3 Aggregate Demand

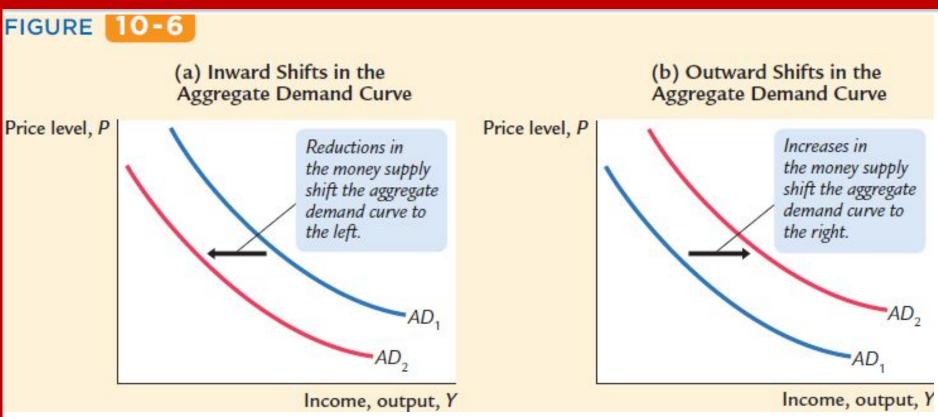
The AD curve is drawn for a fixed value of the M . If the Fed changes the M ,

- then the combinations of P&Y change,
- which means the AD curve shifts.

For example,

consider what happens if the Fed reduces the M.

- The quantity equation, MV = PY, tells us that the $r \downarrow$ in the M
- \rightarrow a proportionate $r\downarrow$ in the nominal value of output *PY*:
 - **For any given** P**,** the amount of Y is \downarrow **er**, and
 - **For any given amount of** Y**,** the P is \downarrow **er.**
- \rightarrow The aggregate demand curve relating **P** and **Y** shifts inward.



Shifts in the Aggregate Demand Curve Changes in the *M* shift the *AD* curve.

- In panel (a), a \searrow in the M reduces the nominal value of output PY.
- For any given P, output Y is lower.
 - \rightarrow a \searrow in the M shifts the aggregate demand curve inward from AD1 to AD2.
- In panel (b), an ✓ in the M raises the nominal value of output PY.
- For any given P, output Y is higher.
 - \rightarrow an \nearrow in the M shifts the aggregate demand curve outward from AD1 to AD2.

The Long Run: The Vertical Aggregate Supply Curve

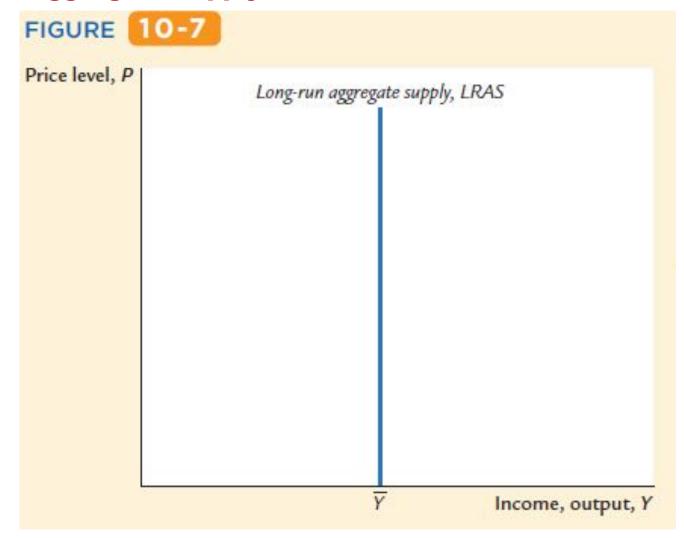
From the Short Run to the Long Run

10-4 Aggregate Supply

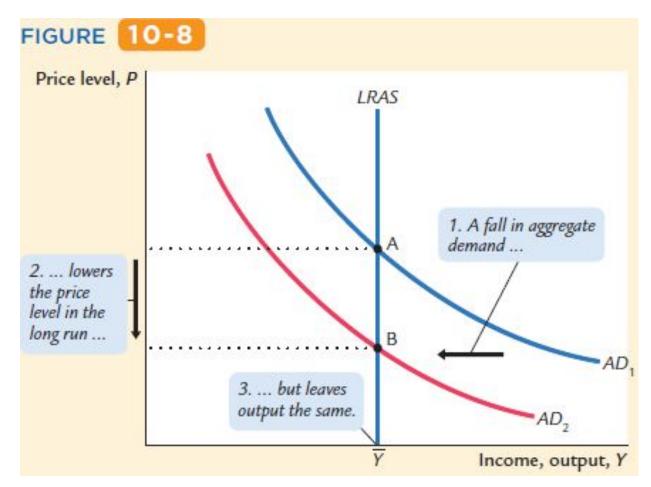
Aggregate supply (AS) is the relationship between the quantity of G&S supplied and the P.

The **AS** relationship depends on the time horizon.

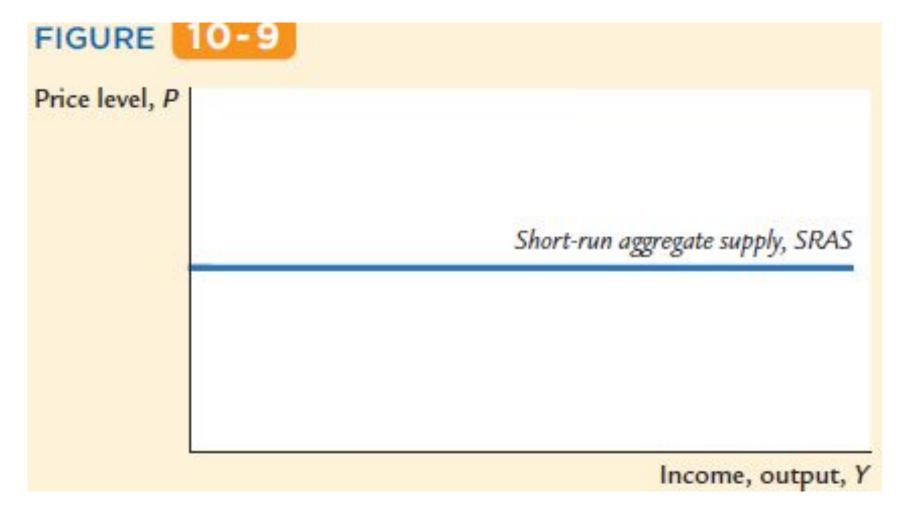
- We need to discuss two different AS curves:
 - 1. the long-run aggregate supply curve *LR AS* and
 - 2. The short-run aggregate supply curve SR AS.



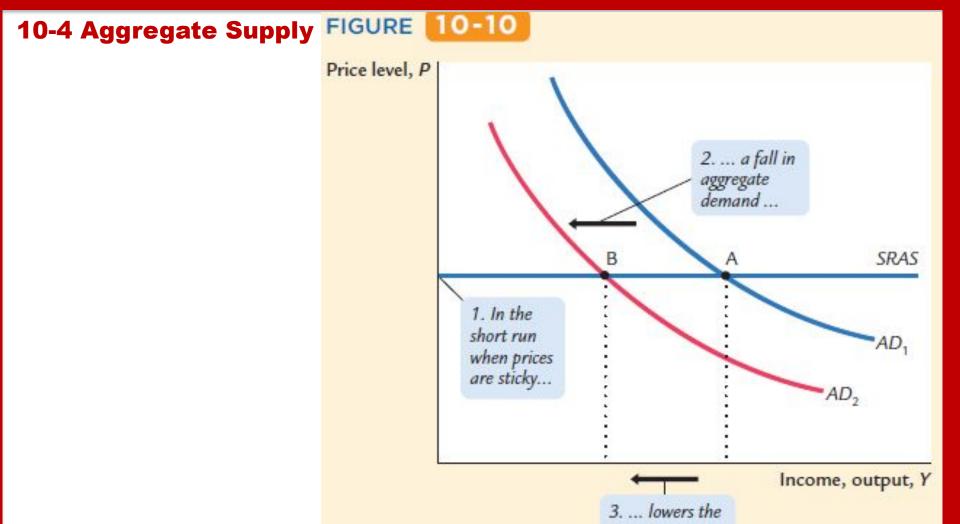
- The Long-Run Aggregate Supply Curve
- In the IR, the level of output is determined by the amounts of K & L and by the T/L;
- it does not depend on the price level.
- The long-run aggregate supply curve, *LRAS*, is vertical.



- Shifts in Aggregate Demand in the Long Run
- A reduction in the M shifts the aggregate demand curve downward from AD1 to AD2.
- The equilibrium for the economy moves from point A to point B.
- Because the AS curve is vertical in the long run, the reduction in AD affects the P but not the level of output.



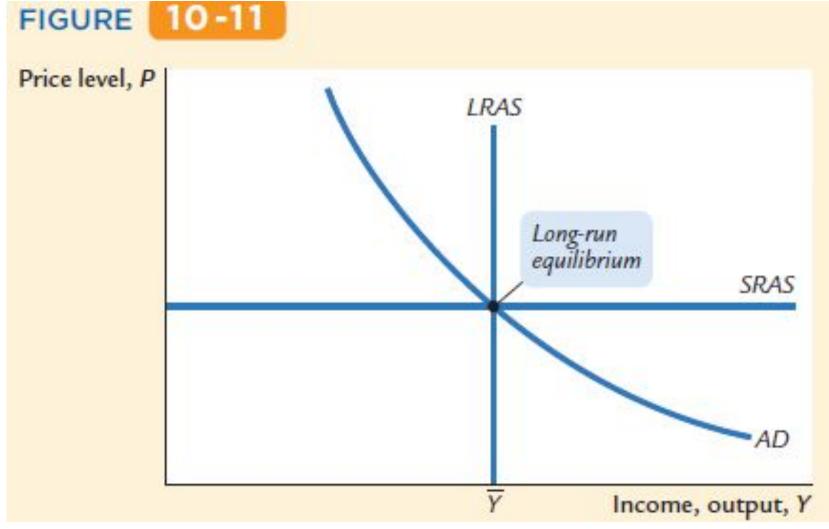
- The Short-Run Aggregate Supply Curve
- In this extreme example, all prices are fixed in the short run.
- Therefore, the short-run aggregate supply curve, SRAS, is horizontal.



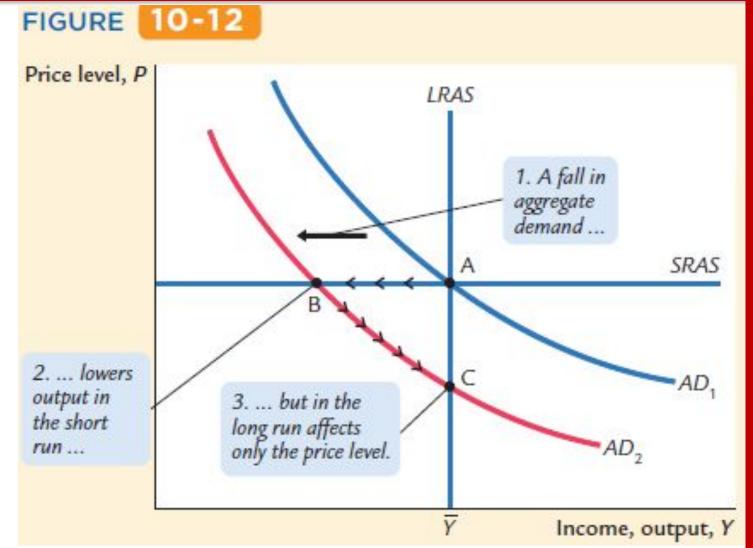
Shifts in Aggregate Demand in the Short Run

- A reduction in the M shifts the AD curve downward from AD1 to AD2.
- The equilibrium for the economy moves from point A to point B.
- Because the AS curve is horizontal in the SR, the reduction in AD reduces the level of Y.

level of output.



- Long-Run Equilibrium
- In the LR, the economy finds itself at the intersection of the LR AS curve and the AD curve.
- Because prices have adjusted to this level, the SRAS curve crosses this point as well.



A Reduction in Aggregate Demand

- **The economy begins** in long-run equilibrium at point A.
- A reduction in AD, perhaps caused by a decrease in the M,
- moves the economy from point A to point B, where output is below its natural level.
- As prices fall, the economy gradually recovers from the recession, moving from point B to point C.

Case Study

A Monetary Lesson From French History

- The story begins with the unusual nature of French money at the time. The
- money stock in this economy included a variety of gold and silver coins that, in
- contrast to modern money, did not indicate a specific monetary value. Instead,
 the
- monetary value of each coin was set by government decree, and the government
- could easily change the monetary value and thus the M. Sometimes
- this would occur literally overnight. It is almost as if, while you were sleeping,
- every \$1 bill in your wallet was replaced by a bill worth only 80 cents.
- Indeed, that is what happened on September 22, 1724. Every person in France
- woke up with 20 % less money than he or she had the night before. Over
- ☐ the course of seven months, the nominal value of the money stock was reduced
- by about 45 %. The goal of these changes was to reduce prices in the
- economy to what the government considered an appropriate level.

David Hume on the Real Effects of Money

- Here
- is how Hume described a monetary injection in
- his 1752 essay *Of Money:*
- To account, then, for this phenomenon, we must
- consider, that though the high price of commodities
- be a necessary consequence of the increase of gold
- and silver, yet it follows not immediately upon that
- increase; but some time is required before the money
- circulates through the whole state, and makes its
- effect be felt on all ranks of people. At first, no
- alteration is perceived; by degrees the price rises, first
- of one commodity, then of another; till the whole at
- last reaches a just proportion with the new quantity
- of specie which is in the kingdom. In my opinion,
- it is only in this interval or intermediate situation,
- between the acquisition of money and rise of prices,
 - that the increasing quantity of gold and silver is favorable to industry.



10-5 Stabilization Policy

Fluctuations in the economy as a whole come from changes AS or AD. Economists call exogenous events that shift these curves shocks to the economy.

- a shock that shifts the AD curve is called a demand shock.
- a shock that shifts the AS curve is called a supply shock.

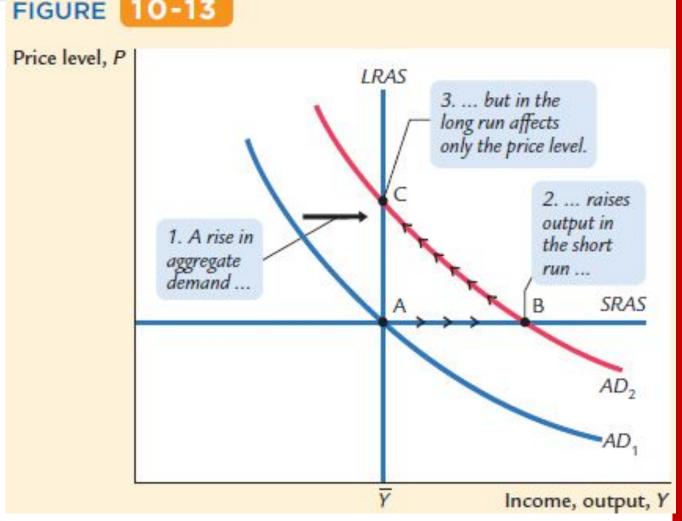
These shocks disrupt the economy by pushing output and employment away from their natural levels.

Goals of the model of AS & AD:

- to show how shocks cause economic fluctuations.
- 3. to evaluate how macroeconomic policy can respond.

The stabilization policy is a policy aimed to reduce the severity of SR economic fluctuations.

10-5 Stabilization Policy



- An Increase in Aggregate Demand
- The economy begins in long-run equilibrium at point A.
- An increase in AD, perhaps due to an increase in the **velocity of money**, moves the economy from point A to point B, where **Y** is above its natural level.
- As prices rise, output gradually returns to its natural level, and the economy moves from point B to point C.

10-5 Stabilization Policy

Because supply shocks have a direct impact on the price level, they are sometimes called **price shocks**.

Examples:

A drought that destroys crops.

The reduction in food supply pushes **up food P**.

■ A new environmental protection law that requires firms to reduce their emissions of pollutants.

Firms in ≠ P.

■ An increase in union aggressiveness.

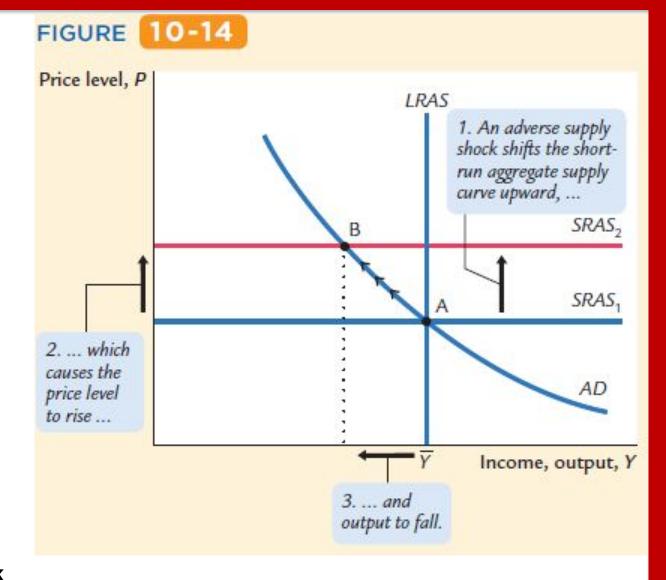
This pushes up wages and the prices.

■ The organization of an international oil cartel.

By curtailing competition, the major oil producers can raise the world *P* of oil.

- All these events are adverse supply shocks, which means they push costs and prices upward.
- 2. A favorable supply shock reduces costs and prices.

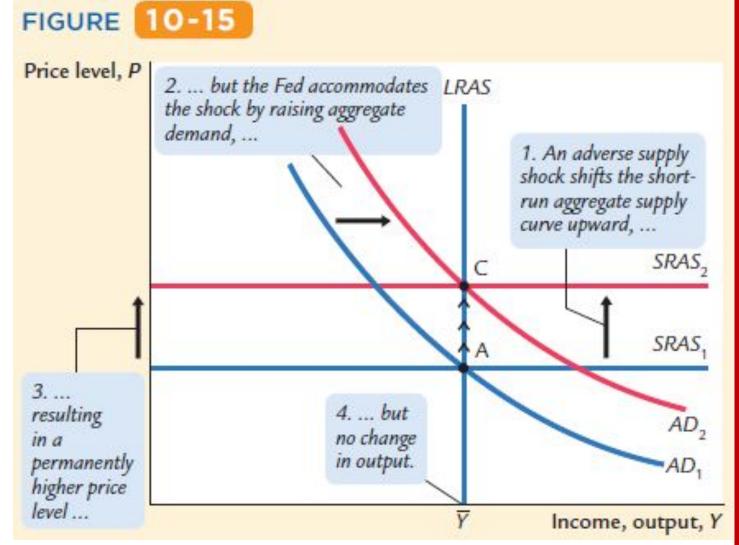
10-5 Stabilization Policy



An Adverse Supply Shock

- An adverse supply shock pushes up costs and thus prices.
- If AD is held constant, the economy moves from point A to point B, leading to **stagflation**
 - a combination of increasing prices and falling output.
- Eventually, as prices fall, the economy returns to the natural level of Y, point A.

10-5 Stabilization Policy



Accommodating an Adverse Supply Shock

- In response to an adverse supply shock,
- **the Fed can increase AD** to prevent a reduction in output. The economy moves from point A to point C.
- The cost of this policy is a permanently higher level of prices.

How OPEC Helped Cause Stagflation in the 1970s and Euphoria in the 1980s

Year	Change in Oil Prices	Inflation Rate (CPI)	Unemployment Rate
1973	11.0%	6.2%	4.9%
1974	68.0	11.0	5.6
1975	16.0	9.1	8.5
1976	3.3	5.8	7.7
1977	8.1	6.5	7.1

Year	Change in Oil Prices	Inflation Rate (CPI)	Unemployment Rate
1978	9.4%	7.7%	6.1%
1979	25.4	11.3	5.8
1980	47.8	13.5	7.0
1981	44.4	10.3	7.5
1982	-8.7	6.1	9.5

Year	Changes in Oil Prices	Inflation Rate (CPI)	Unemployment Rate
1983	-7.1%	3.2%	9.5%
1984	-1.7	4.3	7.4
1985	-7.5	3.6	7.1
1986	-44.5	1.9	6.9
1987	18.3	3.6	6.1

Case Study

10-6 Conclusion

1. This chapter introduced a framework to study economic fluctuations:

- a. the model of aggregate supply and aggregate demand.
- b. The model is built on the assumption that prices are sticky in the short run and flexible in the long run.
- c. It shows how shocks to the economy cause output to deviate temporarily from the level implied by the classical model.

2. The model also highlights the role of monetary policy.

- a. On the one hand, poor monetary policy can be a source of destabilizing shocks to the economy.
- b. On the other hand, a well-run monetary policy can respond to shocks and stabilize the economy.

THANKS!

