

## Complexity in Macroeconomics within Short Run Fluctuation (Financial Crisis)

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#### Prof. Bambang Brodjonegoro, PhD

- 0
  - @bambangbrodjonegoro
- https://bambangbrodjonegoro.com





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## **Objectives:**

In this class, you will learn:

- Facts about the business cycle
- How the short run differs from the long run Ο
- An introduction to aggregate demand
- An introduction to aggregate supply in the short run and in the long run
- How the model of aggregate demand and aggregate supply can be used to analyze the short-run and long-run effects of "shocks."



### Facts About The Business Cycle •

- GDP growth averages 3–3.5% per year over the long run, with large fluctuations in the short run.
- Consumption and investment fluctuate with GDP, but consumption tends to be less volatile and investment more volatile than GDP.
- > Unemployment rises during recessions and falls during expansions.
- >Okun's law: the negative relationship between GDP and unemployment



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## **Growth rates of real GDP**

#### Growth rates of real GDP, consumption



 $\succ$  The shaded vertical bars denote recessions.

- graph clearly shows.

Source: Macroeconomics 9th Edition, Mankiw (2019)

 $\succ$  Over the long run, real GDP grows about 3 percent per year. Over the short run, though, there are substantial fluctuations in GDP, as this

This graph also shows the growth rate of consumption. It's easy to see that consumption is usually less volatile than income. Consumers prefer smooth consumption, so they use saving as a buffer against income shocks.

 $\succ$  (An exception occurs in the late 1990s, when consumption growth exceeded income growth probably due to the stock market boom.)



### Growth rates of real GDP

Percent

#### Growth rates of real GDP, consump., investment

This graph shows consumption growth and GDP dearlier growth, the same data from the previous slide, but now the vertical axis has a much bigger scale to accommodate the addition of investment growth.

The point: Investment is far more volatile than GDP or consumption.





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### Facts About The Business Cycle

#### Unemployment Percentage 12 of labor force Unemployment 10 1970 1985 1995 2000 2005 2010 2015 1975 1980 1990 Year

- beginning to fall.

Source: Macroeconomics 9th Edition, Mankiw (2019)



 $\succ$  The unemployment rate rises during recessions and falls during expansions.

 $\succ$  Since the 1991 recession, the unemployment rate has lagged GDP growth, particularly in recoveries. In each of the three recessions since 1990, the unemployment rate has continued rising for a few months after the recession ends before it



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### **Facts About The Business Cycle**

 $^{-2}$ 

-4

- $\succ$  This figure is a scatterplot of the change in the unemployment rate on the horizontal axis and Percentage change 10 in real GDP the percentage change in real GDP on the vertical 8 axis, using data on the U.S economy. 6
- Each point represents one year.
- $\succ$  The figure shows that increases in unemployment tend to be associated with lower-than-normal growth in real GDP.
- $\succ$  The correlation between these two variables is -0.81.

Source: Macroeconomics 9th Edition, Mankiw (2019)



#### **Okun's law**





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## Index of Leading Economic Indicators •

- > Published monthly by the Conference Board.
- > Aims to forecast changes in economic activity 6–9 months into the future.
- > Used in planning by businesses and government, despite not being a perfect predictor.



## **Components of The LEI Index** •

- > Average workweek in manufacturing
- > Initial weekly claims for unemployment insurance
- > New orders for consumer goods and materials
- > New orders, nondefense capital goods
- ➤ ISM new orders index
- New building permits issued
- > Index of stock prices
- ➤ Lending credit index
- > Yield spread (10-year minus 3-month) on Treasuries
- > Index of consumer expectations





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#### Index of leading economic indicators, 1970–2012

![](_page_9_Figure_3.jpeg)

Source: Macroeconomics 9th Edition, Mankiw (2019)

 $\succ$  The index turns downward a few months to a year before almost every recession.

 $\succ$  It also turns upward just prior to the end of almost every recession.

Conference Board, http://www.conference-board.or

![](_page_10_Picture_0.jpeg)

## **Time Horizons in Macroeconomics**

#### Long run Prices are flexible, responding to changes in supply or demand. Short run Many prices are "sticky" at a predetermined level.

### The economy behaves much differently when prices are sticky.

![](_page_10_Picture_6.jpeg)

![](_page_11_Picture_0.jpeg)

### **Recap of Classical Macro Theory**

- $\succ$  Output is determined by the supply side:
  - supplies of capital, labor
  - technology
- > Changes in demand for goods and services (C, I, G) only affect prices, not quantities.
- $\succ$  Assumes complete price flexibility.
- $\succ$  Applies to the long run.

![](_page_11_Picture_9.jpeg)

#### When prices are sticky....

- demand, which is affected by:
  - fiscal policy (G and T)
  - monetary policy (M)
  - other factors, like exogenous changes in C or I •

Source: Macroeconomics 9th Edition, Mankiw (2019)

![](_page_11_Picture_16.jpeg)

## . . output and employment also depend on

![](_page_12_Picture_0.jpeg)

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# The Model of Aggregate Demand and Supply

- The paradigm most mainstream economists and policymakers use to think about economic fluctuations and policies to stabilize the economy
- > Shows how the price level and aggregate output are determined
- > Shows how the economy's behavior is different in the short run and in the long run

#### Aggregate demand

- The aggregate demand curve shows the relationship between the price level and the quantity of output demanded.
- For this chapter's intro to the AD/AS model, we use a simple theory of aggregate demand based on the quantity theory of money.

#### The quantity equation as aggregate demand

- Quantity equation:
  - For given values of *M* and *V*, this equation implies an inverse relationship between *P* and *Y*...

*M* is the supply of money; *V* is the velocity of the circulation of money, that is, the average number of transactions that a unit of money performs within a specified interval of time; *P* is the price level; and *Y* is the final output. Source: Macroeconomics 9th Edition, Mankiw (2019)

MV = PY

![](_page_13_Picture_0.jpeg)

## **Aggregate Demand Curve**

#### The downward-sloping AD curve

![](_page_13_Figure_4.jpeg)

An increase in **P** reduces real money balances. In order to buy the same amount of stuff, velocity would have to increase. But, by definition, velocity is constant along the **AD** curve. For simplicity, suppose V = 1. With lower real money balances (or, equivalently, the same nominal balances but higher goods prices), people demand a smaller quantity of goods and services.

![](_page_14_Picture_0.jpeg)

With velocity fixed, the quantity equation implies that **PY** is determined by **M**. An increase in **M** causes an increase in **PY**, which means higher **Y** for each value of **P** or higher **P** for each value of **P** or higher **P** 

Or, for a given value of **P**, an increase in **M** implies higher real money balances. In the simple money demand function associated with the quantity theory, the demand for real balances is proportional to the demand for output, so output must rise at each **P** in order for real money demand to rise and equal the new, higher supply of real balances **M/P**.

Price level, P

Source: Macroeconomics 9th Edition, Mankiw (2019)

![](_page_14_Picture_6.jpeg)

#### Shifting the AD curve

(b) Outward Shifts in the Aggregate Demand Curve

![](_page_14_Figure_9.jpeg)

Income, output, Y

![](_page_15_Picture_0.jpeg)

## Aggregate Supply in The Long Run

 In the long run, output is determined by factor supplies and technology.

$$\overline{\mathbf{Y}} = F(\overline{K}, \overline{L})$$
 K= Capital, L=Labor

 $\overline{\mathbf{Y}}$  is the **full-employment** or **natural** level of output, at which the economy's resources are fully employed.

"Full employment" means that unemployment equals its natural rate (not zero).

![](_page_16_Picture_0.jpeg)

## Aggregate Supply Curve (Long Run)

#### The long-run aggregate supply curve

![](_page_16_Figure_4.jpeg)

**P** on the vertical axis is the economy's overall price level—the average price of **EVERYTHING**. A 10% increase in the price level means that, on average, **EVERYTHING** costs 10% more. Thus, a firm can get 10% more revenue for each unit it sells. But the firm also pays an average of 10% more in wages, prices of intermediate goods, advertising, and so on. Thus, the firm has no incentive to increase output.

Another thought: We learn from microeconomics that a firm's supply depends on the RELATIVE price of its output. If all prices increase by 10%, then each firm's relative price is the same as before, so firms have no incentive to alter output.

![](_page_17_Picture_0.jpeg)

## **Aggregate Supply Curve (Long Run)**

Price level, P

A change in the money supply affects the price level but not the quantity of output. Here, we are seeing these results on a graph with different variables on the axes (P and Y), but it's the same model.

2. . . . lowers the price level in the long run . . .

Source: Macroeconomics 9th Edition, Mankiw (2019)

#### Long-run effects of an increase in M

![](_page_17_Figure_9.jpeg)

![](_page_18_Picture_0.jpeg)

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## **Aggregate Supply in The Short Run**

- Many prices are sticky in the short run.
- $\succ$  For now, we assume
  - <u>all prices are stuck at a predetermined level in the short run.</u> Ο
  - firms are willing to sell as much at that price level as their customers Ο are willing to buy.
- $\succ$  Therefore, the short-run aggregate supply (*SRAS*) curve is horizontal.

![](_page_19_Picture_0.jpeg)

## **Aggregate Supply Curve (Short Run)**

#### The short-run aggregate supply curve

Price level, P

Short-run aggregate supply, SRAS

Income, output, Y

#### The SRAS curve is horizontal:

The price level is fixed at a predetermined level, and firms sell as much as buyers demand.

Source: Macroeconomics 9th Edition, Mankiw (2019)

#### Short-run effects of an increase in M

![](_page_19_Figure_12.jpeg)

![](_page_20_Picture_0.jpeg)

### The Short- and Long-Run Effects of $\Delta M > 0$

![](_page_20_Figure_3.jpeg)

Source: Macroeconomics 9th Edition, Mankiw (2019)

This slide puts together the pieces that have been developed over the previous slides: the short-run and long-run effects, as well as the adjustment of prices over time that causes the economy to move from the short-run equilibrium **at point B** to the long-run equilibrium **at C**.

**The economy starts at point A**; output and unemployment are at their natural rates. The Fed increases the money supply, shifting AD to the right. In the short run, prices are sticky, so output rises. The new short-run equilibrium is at point B in the graph.

In order for firms to increase output, they hire more workers, so unemployment falls below the natural rate of unemployment, putting upward pressure on wages. The high level of demand for goods and services at **point B** puts upward pressure on prices.

Over time, as prices become unstuck, they begin to rise in response to these pressures. The price level rises, and the economy moves up its (new) AD curve, from point B toward point C.

This process stops when the economy gets to point C: output again equals the natural rate of output, and unemployment again equals the natural rate of unemployment, so there is no further pressure on prices to change.

![](_page_21_Figure_1.jpeg)

- Shocks: exogenous changes in aggregate supply or demand
- $\succ$  Shocks temporarily push the economy away from full employment.
- $\succ$  example: exogenous decrease in velocity

If the money supply is held constant, a decrease in V means people will be using their money in fewer transactions, causing a decrease in demand for goods and services.

Source: Macroeconomics 9th Edition, Mankiw (2019)

## How shocking! •

![](_page_22_Picture_0.jpeg)

## The Effects of A Negative Demand Shock -

**AD shifts left**, depressing output and employment in the short run (B).

**Over time,** prices fall, and the economy moves down its demand curve toward full employment (C).

![](_page_22_Figure_5.jpeg)

Note the economy's self-correction mechanism:

When in a recession, the economy—left to its own devices—fixes itself. The gradual adjustment of prices helps the economy recover from the shock and return to full employment. Of course, before the economy has finished self-correcting, a period of low output and high unemployment is endured.

![](_page_23_Picture_0.jpeg)

![](_page_23_Picture_2.jpeg)

- $\succ$  A supply shock alters production costs, affects the prices that firms charge (also called **price shocks**).
- Examples of *adverse* supply shocks:
  - Bad weather reduces crop yields, pushing up food prices. Ο
  - Workers unionize, negotiate wage increases. Ο
  - New environmental regulations require firms to reduce emissions. Ο Firms charge higher prices to help cover the costs of compliance.
- *Favorable* supply shocks lower costs and prices.

## Supply Shocks

![](_page_24_Picture_0.jpeg)

## Case Study: The 1970s Oil Shocks (1)

- Early 1970s: OPEC coordinated a reduction in the supply of oil.
- Oil prices rose  $\succ$

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11% in 1973 68% in 1974 16% in 1975

 $\succ$  Such sharp oil price increases are supply shocks because they significantly impact production costs and prices.

Oil is required to heat the factories in which goods are produced and to fuel the trucks that transport the goods from the factories to the warehouses to Walmart stores. A sharp increase in the price of oil, therefore, has a substantial effect on production costs.

![](_page_25_Picture_0.jpeg)

## Case Study: The 1970s Oil Shocks (2)

![](_page_25_Figure_3.jpeg)

- The oil price shock shifts up SRAS, causing output and employment to fall (B)
- In the absence of further price shocks, prices will fall over time, and economy moves back toward full employment (A)

- As output falls from Ybar to Y2 in the graph, we would expect to see unemployment increase above the natural rate of unemployment. (Okun's law says that output and unemployment are inversely related.)
- Note the phrase "in the absence of further price shocks." As we will see shortly, just as the economy was recovering from the first big oil shock, a second one came along.

![](_page_26_Picture_0.jpeg)

## Case Study: The 1970s Oil Shocks (3)

# Predicted effects of the oil shock:

- inflation #
- output \$
- unemployment #
  ...and then a gradual recovery

![](_page_26_Figure_7.jpeg)

## Case Study: The 1970s Oil Shocks (4)

![](_page_27_Figure_2.jpeg)

Late 1970s: As the economy was recovering, oil prices shot up again, causing another huge supply shock!

This second shock was associated with the revolution in Iran. The Shah, who maintained cordial relations with the West, was deposed. The new leader, Ayatollah Khomeini, was considerably less friendly toward the West. (He even forbade his citizens from listening to Western music.)

## Case Study: The 1970s Oil Shocks (5)

![](_page_28_Figure_2.jpeg)

Source: Macroeconomics 9th Edition, Mankiw (2019)

1980s: A favorable supply shock—a significant fall in oil prices.

As the model predicts, inflation and unemployment fell.

A few slides back, we analyzed the effects of an adverse supply shock. It might be worth noting that the predicted effects of a favorable supply shock are just the opposite: in the short run, the price level (or inflation rate) falls, output rises, and unemployment falls.

Looking at the graph: at first glance, it may seem that the fall in oil prices doesn't occur until 1986. Oil prices fell about 10% in 1982 and generally fell during most years between 1982 and 1986.

![](_page_29_Picture_0.jpeg)

## **Stabilization Policy**

- > Stabilization policy: policy actions aimed at reducing the severity of short-run economic fluctuations.
- $\succ$  Example: using monetary policy to combat the effects of adverse supply shocks

#### Stabilizing output with monetary policy

![](_page_29_Figure_6.jpeg)

![](_page_29_Figure_8.jpeg)

![](_page_30_Picture_0.jpeg)

- Long run: prices are flexible, output and employment are always at their natural rates, and the classical theory applies.
- Short run: prices are sticky, shocks can push output and employment away from their natural rates.
- > Aggregate demand and supply: a framework to analyze economic fluctuations
- > The aggregate demand curve slopes downward.
- The long-run aggregate supply curve is vertical because output depends on technology and factor supplies but not prices.
- The short-run aggregate supply curve is horizontal because prices are sticky at predetermined levels.
- Shocks to aggregate demand and supply cause fluctuations in GDP and employment in the short run.
- > The Fed can attempt to stabilize the economy with monetary policy.

Source: Macroeconomics 9th Edition, Mankiw (2019)

### Summary •

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- Section of fice@bambangbrodjonegoro.com
- https://bambangbrodjonegoro.com

![](_page_31_Picture_3.jpeg)