

R. Gordon, Macro, ch. 6

6. Flexible Prices and the Self-correcting Economy

6-1 Introduction

Today's aggregate price index or deflator is an economywide weighted average of the prices of goods today compared to the prices of the same goods in a base year, say 1967 or 1972. When most prices rise, P increases; when most fall, P decreases; when some rise and some fall, but the average remains steady, P hovers about the same point.

Throughout chapters 3, 4, 5, our analysis held the price level fixed for simplicity. In this chapter, when we allow P to be perfectly (instantly) flexible, we find that shifts in monetary and fiscal policy that formerly caused real income to vary now cause the price level to vary in the same direction. Increases in gov't expenditure or reductions in tax rates shift the IS curve to the right, and this tends to increase P rather than Q. Similarly, increases in the money supply raise P rather than Q when we allow for price variation.

Will spontaneous price variation hold the economy on a steady course? When monetary and/or fiscal measures are strong, price variation also is strong. But when they are weak, so too is price variation.

As P was fixed in chapters 3, 4, 5, now in ch 6 P will be allowed to vary and Q will be fixed. In chapter 7 both P and Q will be allowed to vary.

6.2 Flexible prices, the real money supply, and the DD curve

The upper frame of fig, 6-1, exhibits a single IS curve intersected by three LM curves in which the money supply is the same in each but the price level is 2, 1, and  $\frac{1}{2}$ . The higher the price level, the lower is  $M^s/P$  when  $M^s$  is unchanged.

The aggregate demand curve (DD) shows all possible combinations of P and Q consistent with a nominal money supply of 400 billion and a value of  $\bar{A}$  of 600 billion.

Again, DD exhibits the intersection of a single IS curve with the various LM money market equilibrium curves drawn for each possible price level. The IS curve secures the equilibrium of the commodity market; the LM curves secure the equilibrium of the money market; the intersection of the one IS and the many LM curves secure the twofold equilibrium.

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(2) The DD curve measures  $Q$  horizontally and  $P$  vertically. It slopes downward since lower prices raise the real money supply and require an increase in actual real output to keep the commodity market in equilibrium. The steeper the IS curve, the steeper the DD curve. When the LM curve is steep, the DD curve is flatter.

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(3) & (4) An increase in either  $M^s$  or  $\bar{A}$  will shift the DD curve to the right; a decrease in either, shift it to the left.

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Note that DD shifts upward vertically (fig 6-1) <sup>in</sup> exactly the same ~~amount~~ as the nominal money supply (for "amount" read "proportion").

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6-3 The self-correcting economy: deflation as a cure for recession

Figure 6-2 exhibits flexible prices insulating real output from the impact of a decline in autonomous spending.

The upper frame exhibits an initial IS and LM curve intersecting at a height where the interest rate is 10%; and a subsequent IS and LM curve ~~with autonomous spending~~ with autonomous spending ( $\bar{A}$ ) dropping from 600 to 500, prices dropping from unity to 0.67, and  $M^s/P$  moving from 400 to 600 to restore the initial real income of 1600.

The lower frame exhibits the movement in terms of  $P$  (vertical) and  $Q$  (horizontal) with two DD curves with the second to the left of the original one and  $P$  dropping from unity to 0.67.

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Whenever the initial price level crosses the DD curve to the left of the vertical  $QQ$  line ( $Q/Q^*$ ) and is in the region ~~where~~ where  $P$  falls, the price level declines and the economy slides down the DD curve to the point where DD crosses  $QQ$ . Inversely when the intersection is to the right of  $QQ$ , the economy moves up the DD curve to the point where DD crosses  $QQ$ .

When the economy is self-correcting, there is no need for monetary or fiscal intervention.

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6-4 Flexible prices and fiscal policy: real vs nominal crowding-out.

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See figure 6-3 and suppose the starting point is  $E_1$  government expenditure of 100 billion raises  $\bar{A}$  from 500 to 600 billion, the economy moves to the right to B and along  $IS_0$  or  $DD_0$  to  $E_0$ .

Real income remains at the initial 1600, prices advance to unity, interest mounts to 10%, and  $A_p$  is crowded out of the equivalent of government expenditure (which under the circumstances has a multiplier of 1).

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6-5 The failure of deflation in extreme cases: the General Rule Revisited.

When ever  $\hat{r}^N$  is less than  $r_{min}$ , and the position of the IS curve does not depend on the price level, then the DD curve becomes a vertical line to the left of QQ (fig 6-3, 154). There is no point of intersection between DD and QQ and thus no possibility of a stable-price, full-employment equilibrium in which actual and natural output are equal.

Price deflation can automatically equate equilibrium real output (Q) to its natural level (Q\*) in all situations in which a change in the real money supply is capable of raising equilibrium output. In chapter 5, we learned a general rule that this capability of the real money supply requires  $\hat{r}^N$ , the interest rate at which the IS curve crosses Q\*, to be equal or greater than  $r_{min}$ , the minimum interest rate along the LM curve. p. 126

Figure 5-5 examined a case when monetary expansion failed when  $\hat{r}^N$  WAS below  $r_{min}$ . The case is illustrated again in figure 6-3.

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6-6 Two solutions to control  $\hat{r}^N$ : fiscal policy and the real balance effect.

A collapse of business and consumer confidence will shift a DD curve from ( $M^S = 400; \bar{A} = 500$ ) to ( $M^S = 400; \bar{A} = 250$ ) as in Figure 6-3. Then the price level falls from 0.07 to 0.25.

All problems disappear if  $\bar{A}$  can be raised back by enough to make  $\hat{r}^N$  EQUAL OR EXCEED  $r_{min}$ . But fiscal policy can increase

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A by increasing gov't expenditure and transfer payments and reduction in tax rates.

But gov't action may not be necessary, for falling prices increase  $M^S/P$ , the real money supply, provided they fall enough. In figure 6-4 a fall from unity to 0.67 leaves the economy only at K with Q at 1100; a further fall to 0.25 is needed to get DD to cut QQ.

The Keynes effect is the stimulus to aggregate demand (both consumption and investment) due to a decline in the rate of interest, which in turn is brought about an increase in the real money supply ( $M^S/P$ ) whether brought about by increasing nominal money supply or by deflation.

It is the Keynes effect that is cut off and rendered ineffective when  $\hat{r}$  falls below  $r_{min}$ . For then the  $\hat{r}$  cannot fall enough to return actual output (Q) to the natural level (Q\*\*)

of 4.130  
The Pigou or real balance effect is the direct stimulus to consumption spending which occurs when price deflation causes an increase in the real money supply; this stimulus does not require a reduction in the interest rate. The real balance effect accounts for the curvature of DD in 6-4 as compared with the vertical drop in 6-3, and it allows the economy to glide down  $DD_4$  from G to E.

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Deflation however has two shortcomings.

The first is the expectations effect. When people realize that prices are falling, they delay expenditure until ~~they~~ prices fall further. This may preclude the Pigou effect, though most economists agree that a sufficient fall of prices will cause so great an increase in real balances as to swamp expectations effect.

The second is the redistribution effect which is more serious. During the great depression (1929-33) the price deflator fell from 0.329 to 0.251, a decline of 23.7%. But the interest income of creditors fell hardly at all from from 4.7 to 4.6 billion a dollars. The ~~ix~~ income of farmers fell from 0.2 to 2.1 billion, and many farms were lost to their owners because of foreclosures.

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Table 6-1: Summary of Depression Economics: Starting from a low level of output, can actual real income ( $Q$ ) be raised back to equal natural real income ( $Q^*$ )?

Case 1.  $\hat{r}$  is equal to or exceeds  $r_{\min}$ .

If prices perfectly flexible, gov't intervention superfluous.<sup>a</sup>

If price level fixed, not without gov't monetary or fiscal action.

See figures 5-1 and 5-6.

Case 2.  $\hat{r}$  is less than  $r_{\min}$ , and real balance effect exists.

With prices perfectly flexible, gov't action superfluous.<sup>a</sup>

With fixed price level, gov't action necessary, fiscal or monetary, but sufficient; cf. figure 5-5.

Case 3.  $\hat{r}$  less than  $r_{\min}$ , and no real balance effect.

With prices perfectly flexible, not without government fiscal action; monetary policy ineffectual, cf. figure 6-3.

With price level fixed, not without gov't fiscal action; monetary action ineffectual, cf. figure 5-3.

a Ignores expectations and redistribution effects.

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6-8 Case study: Prices and output during the great depression.

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Table 6-5: the upper frame relates the price level to the ratio  $Q/Q^*$ . The lower frame offers an interpretation: the descent seems to be along the aggregate supply curve (SS) of a DD curve shifting to the left and downward.

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