## ECO 209Y Macroeconomic Theory and Policy

# Lecture 5: The IS-LM Model 

## InTRODUCTION OF THE INTEREST RATE

- We introduce the rate of interest (i) in three stages
- First, we take i as an exogenous variable and see how it affects aggregate expenditure as it changes
$>$ Here, we examine the determination of Y in the goods market for each level of $\mathbf{i}$
- Second, we take $\mathbf{Y}$ as an exogenous variable and see how it affects the demand for money as it changes
$>$ Here, we examine the determination of $\mathbf{i}$ in the money market for each level of $Y$
- Finally, we combine both frameworks to examine the simultaneous determination of $\mathbf{Y}$ and i in the economy


## The Consumption Function

- I would argue that the rate of interest does not affect households' inter-temporal consumption decisions
- It is not that consumers decide to save more when the rate of interest is high in order to be able to consume even more in the future
- Changes in the rate of interest affect the timing of purchasing those consumer goods usually purchased by credit
$>$ It affects the timing of the purchase of the good but not necessarily the actual consumption of the good
- Changes in the rate of interest affect the level of dissavings, and thus indirectly the level of savings


## Savings and the Rate of Interest

- Does the level of savings decrease when the rate of interest falls?
- Consider a model with three types of individuals: 1) savers; 2) borrowers; and 3) neither savers nor borrowers
$>$ The total savings in the economy is the sum of the amount saved by the savers minus the amount dissaved by the borrowers
- All else equal, when the rate of interest falls:
$>$ Savers will continue saving more or less the same amount
$>$ But borrowers will borrow (dissave) a greater amount
> Therefore, total savings will fall


## The Consumption Function (cont’d)

- The consumption functions becomes of the following form:
$\Rightarrow \mathrm{C}=(\overline{\mathrm{C}}+\mathrm{c} \overline{\mathrm{TR}}-\mathrm{c} \overline{\mathrm{T}})+\mathrm{c}(1-\mathrm{t}) \mathrm{Y}-\mathrm{di}$
$>$ Where $\mathbf{d}$ describes the rate of change of planned consumption as the rate of interest changes

■ For simplicity, however, we will assume that consumption expenditure does not depend on the rate of interest

## The Investment Function

■ Up to now, investment has been considered an exogenous variable $\rightarrow \mathbf{I}=\overline{\mathbf{I}}$

■ Now we will consider investment as an endogenous variable

- We will assume that planned investment depends negatively on the interest rate:

$$
I=\bar{l}-\mathbf{b i}
$$

where $\overline{1}$ is autonomous investment (from both income and the rate of interest), $\mathbf{i}$ is the nominal rate of interest, and $\mathbf{b}$ measures the interest sensitivity of investment

- Note that investment depends on the real rate of interest ( $\mathbf{r}$ ), but since $\mathbf{P}$ is assumed fixed then $\mathbf{i}=\mathbf{r}$


## The Investment Function (cont’d)

- We can express the equation $\mathbf{I}=\overline{\mathbf{I}}-\mathbf{b i}$ in the following way:

$$
i=\overline{1} / b-(1 / b) I
$$

■ The position of the I curve is determined by the level of autonomous investment spending ( $\overline{\mathrm{I}}$ ), and by the interest sensitivity of investment (b)

- The constant $\overline{\mathbf{l}} / \mathbf{b}$ is the vertical intercept of the curve, and the constant $1 / b$ is the absolute value of its slope


## The Investment Curve



## The Interest Rate and the Aggregate Expenditure Function

- Since the investment function $(\mathbf{I})$ is now $\mathbf{I}=\overline{\mathbf{I}}-\mathbf{b i}$, the aggregate expenditure function (AE) becomes:

$$
\begin{aligned}
& A E=C+I+G \\
&=[\overline{\mathrm{C}}-\mathrm{c} \overline{\mathbf{T}}+c \overline{\mathrm{TR}}+c(1-t) Y]+(\overline{\mathrm{I}}-\mathrm{bi})+\overline{\mathrm{G}} \\
&=\overline{\mathrm{AE}}-\mathrm{bi}+\mathrm{c}(1-\mathrm{t}) \mathrm{Y} \\
& \text { where } \overline{\mathrm{AE}}=\overline{\mathrm{C}}-\mathrm{c} \overline{\mathrm{~T}}+\mathrm{c} \overline{\mathrm{TR}}+\overline{\mathrm{I}}+\overline{\mathrm{G}}
\end{aligned}
$$

- The slope of the $\mathbf{A E}$ curve is, as before, $\mathbf{c}(\mathbf{1}-\mathbf{t})$; but the intercept has changed: before it was equal to $\overline{\operatorname{AE}}$ and now it is equal to $\overline{\mathbf{A E}}-\mathbf{b i}$
- Therefore, there is a particular AE curve for each level of the interest rate


## The Aggregate Expenditure Curve



## The Algebraic Determination of EQUILIBRIUM INCOME

- Since there is one AE curve for each level of interest rate, there will be also one equilibrium income for each level of interest rate
- Since in equilibrium $\mathbf{Y}=\mathbf{A E}$, then

$$
\begin{aligned}
& Y=\overline{A E}-b i+c(1-t) Y \\
& {[1-c(1-t)] Y=\overline{A E}-b i}
\end{aligned}
$$

and

## The Derivation of the IS Curve

- The relationship between the rate of interest and equilibrium income in the goods market is called the IS curve
- The IS curve shows combinations of interests rates (i) and levels of income $(\mathbf{Y})$ such that planned spending (AE) equals output/income (Y)
- We can write the equation for the IS curve differently, placing the rate of interest by itself on the left-hand side of the equation


## The Derivation of the IS Curve (cont’d)

$$
A E=\overline{A E}-b i+c(1-t) Y
$$

- We have seen that in equilibrium $Y=\mathbf{A E}$, and then

$$
\begin{aligned}
& Y=\overline{A E}-b i+c(1-t) Y \\
& {[1-c(1-t)] Y=\overline{A E}-b i} \\
& b i=\overline{A E}-[1-c(1-t)] Y \\
& i=\frac{\overline{A E}}{b}-\frac{1-c(1-t)}{b} Y
\end{aligned}
$$

## The Derivation of the IS Curve



$$
A E_{1}=\overline{A E}-b i_{1}+c(1-t) Y
$$

The point $A^{\prime}=\left(Y_{1}, i_{1}\right)$ is one point on the IS curve.

> A decrease in the rate of interest to $i_{2}$ causes the $A E$ curve to shift up to $A E_{2}$.

$$
A E_{2}=\overline{A E}-b i_{2}+c(1-t) Y
$$

The point $B^{\prime}=\left(Y_{2}, i_{2}\right)$ is another point on the IS curve.

## The Slope of the IS Curve

- The slope of the IS curve is negative and equal to:

$$
-\frac{1-c(1-t)}{b}=-\frac{1}{b \alpha_{A E}}
$$

where $\alpha_{A E}=1 /[1-c(1-t)]$ is the autonomous expenditure multiplier

- Therefore, the slope of the IS curve depends on the interest sensitivity of investment (b) and on the autonomous expenditure multiplier ( $\boldsymbol{\alpha}_{\mathrm{AE}}$ )
- Since $\mathbf{A E}=\overline{\mathrm{AE}}-\mathbf{b i}+\mathbf{c}(\mathbf{1}-\mathbf{t}) \mathbf{Y}$, the steeper the $\mathbf{A E}$ curve the flatter the IS curve (and vice versa)


## The Vertical Intercept of the IS Curve

- The intercept of the IS curve is $\overline{\mathbf{A E} / \mathbf{b}}$
$>$ Therefore, both changes in $\overline{\mathbf{A E}}$ and $\mathbf{b}$ affect the intercept
- Let's consider only how changes in $\overline{\mathbf{A E}}$ affect the position of the IS curve (thus, b will be assumed constant)
- For instance, as $\overline{\mathrm{AE}}$ increases (without any change in the rate of interest), the $\mathbf{A E}$ curve shifts up by exactly $\Delta \overline{\mathbf{A E}}$ and thus equilibrium income increases by $\Delta Y=\alpha_{A E} \Delta \overline{A E}$
$>$ Therefore, the IS curve shifts horizontally by exactly $\alpha_{A E} \Delta \overline{\mathrm{AE}}$
$>$ Note that the vertical shift of the IS curve is equal to $\Delta \overline{\mathrm{AE}} / \mathrm{b}$


## The Effect of a Change in $\overline{\mathrm{AE}}$



## Points Off the IS Curve



$$
A E_{1}=\overline{\mathrm{AE}}-b i_{1}+c(1-t) Y
$$

$$
A E_{2}=\overline{A E}-b i_{2}+c(1-t) Y
$$

Points $A^{\prime}=\left(Y_{1}, i_{1}\right)$ and $B^{\prime}=\left(Y_{2}, i_{2}\right)$ are two points on the IS curve corresponding to points $A$ and $B$ in the top diagram.

Point $C^{\prime}=\left(Y_{1}, i_{2}\right)$ is off the IS curve and corresponds to point $C$ on the $A E_{2}$ curve. At point $\mathrm{C}, \mathrm{AE}>\mathrm{Y}$ and thus any point below the IS curve represents a situation of excess demand.

Point $D^{\prime}=\left(Y_{2}, i_{1}\right)$ is off the IS curve and corresponds to point $D$ on the $A E_{1}$ curve. At point $\mathrm{D}, \mathrm{AE}<\mathrm{Y}$ and thus any point above the IS curve represents a situation of excess supply.

## The Assets Market

- There are different types of assets in the economy:
> Financial assets:
- Money (i.e., currency and demand deposits)
- Interest-bearing assets (saving accounts, bonds, etc.)
- Stocks
$>$ Real assets (machinery, houses, art, etc.)
■ For simplicity, we will assume that there are only two types of financial assets:
> Money
> Interest-bearing assets (which we are going to call bonds)


## Nominal Wealth Budget Constraint

- At any time, an individual has a given financial wealth which she has to allocate between money and bonds
- As already indicated, we will assume that money does not pay any return (interest), while bonds do
- Therefore, this is her nominal wealth budget constraint:
WN = NDM + NDB
where WN is nominal financial wealth, NDM is the nominal demand for money, and NDB is the nominal demand for bonds

■ Therefore, an individual has to choose under what type of assets she will hold her total financial wealth

## Money and Bonds Markets

## WN = NDM + NDB

- Since wealth not held in the form of money is held in the form of bonds, and vice-versa, the analysis of one market also gives us information for the other market
- When the demand for money increases, then the demand for bonds decreases; and when the demand for money decreases, the demand for bonds increases
- Therefore, we will focus our attention on the money market


## Cost-Benefit of Holding Money

- If an individual holds more of her financial wealth in the form of bonds, then she will receive more interest on her financial wealth
$>$ This represents the opportunity cost of holding money
- If she holds more of her financial wealth in the form of money, then she will be less likely not to have money available when she needs to make a payment
$>$ This represents the benefit of holding money
- Therefore, there is a trade-off
$>$ An opportunity cost for holding money (the interest forgone)
$>$ A benefit for doing so (the less likely to be caught illiquid)


## Real and Nominal Demand FOR MONEY

- The nominal demand for money is the demand for money expressed in a quantity of dollars
- The real demand for money is the demand for money expressed in a quantity of dollars of the base period
$>$ That is, the real demand for money is the nominal demand for money divided by the price level
- The real demand for money is called the demand for real balances
- We will use the symbol $L$ to denote the demand for real balances


## Real Wealth Budget Constraint

- The real wealth budget constraint indicates that the demand for real balances (L) plus the demand for real bond holdings (DB) must add up to the real financial wealth (W):

$$
\mathrm{W}=\mathrm{L}+\mathrm{DB}
$$

where $\mathbf{W}=\mathbf{W N} / \mathbf{P}, \mathrm{L}=\mathbf{N D M} / \mathrm{P}$, and $\mathrm{DB}=\mathbf{N D B} / \mathbf{P}$

## Assets Market Equilibrium

- In turn, real financial wealth (W) has to be equal to the total real supply of financial assets:

$$
W=M / P+S B
$$

where $\mathbf{M}$ is the nominal money stock, $\mathbf{M} / \mathbf{P}$ is the real money stock, and SB is the real stock of bonds

■ In equilibrium, then, $L+D B=M / P+S B$

$$
(L-M / P)+(D B-S B)=0
$$

- Therefore, if the money market is in equilibrium ( $L=M / P$ ), then the bond market is also in equilibrium ( $\mathrm{DB}=\mathbf{S B}$ )
$>$ If $L>M / P$, then $D B<S B$ (excess supply of bonds)
$>$ If $L<M / P$, then $D B>S B$ (excess demand for bonds)


## What is the Rate of Interest?

- Consider a perpetual bond, which is a promise to pay a fixed amount (coupon, $\mathrm{C}_{\mathrm{B}}$ ) to the holder of the bond every year and forever
$>$ For example, a newly issued bond that costs $\$ 100$ may have a coupon of \$5
- We must first make a distinction between the face value of the bond and its market price
$>$ The face value of the bond is the amount of money that an individual must pay for the bond when it is issued (\$100 in our example)
$>$ The market price of the bond is the amount of money the individual will obtain when she sells her bond


## Determination of the Rate of INTEREST (CONT’d)

- The face value of the bond is fixed, it does not depend on market forces (demand and supply)
- The market price of the bond, however, does depend on demand and supply
- The return or yield on the bond (i) is not equal to the coupon $\left(\mathrm{C}_{\mathrm{B}}\right.$ ) divided by its face value, but to the coupon divided by its market price $\left(\mathbf{P}_{\mathrm{B}}\right)$ :

$$
\mathrm{i}=\mathrm{C}_{\mathrm{B}} / \mathrm{P}_{\mathrm{B}}
$$

- In equilibrium, the yield on bonds represents the interest rate or the opportunity cost of holding money


## Determination of the Rate of INTEREST (CONT’D)

- Suppose that there is an excess supply of bonds in the bonds market and the price of bonds falls
$>$ For instance, the bond with a face value of $\$ \mathbf{1 0 0}$ and a coupon of $\$ 5$ now has a lower market price, say $\$ 80$
$>$ Hence, at the present time the yield on this bond is:

$$
i=\$ 5 / \$ 80=6.25 \%
$$

- Therefore, when the bond market is in disequilibrium (and thus the money market is also in disequilibrium), adjustments in the price of bonds restore equilibrium in both markets
$>$ For instance, if DB < SB (excess supply of bonds) and thus L > M/P (excess demand for money), the price of bonds falls and the interest rate rises to restore equilibrium


## The Demand for Money

- The demand for money is the demand for real money balances (or real balances)
- The demand for real balances is assumed to depend on the nominal interest rate and the level of real income
- The demand for real balances depends on the opportunity cost of holding money, that is, on the interest forgone
$>$ In equilibrium, this forgone interest is equal to the nominal yield on bonds
- The higher the interest rate, the higher the opportunity cost of holding real money balances, and therefore the lower the demand for real balances $\rightarrow$ negative relationship


## The Demand for Money (cont’d)

■ The demand for real balances also depends on the level of real income ( Y )
> Money balances are used to pay for transactions, and transactions increase with $\mathrm{Y} \rightarrow$ positive relationship

- We can write the equation for the demand for real balances (L) as follows:

$$
\mathrm{L}=\mathbf{k Y}-\mathrm{hi}
$$

where $\mathbf{k} \boldsymbol{>} \mathbf{0}$ represents the income-sensitivity and $\mathbf{h} \boldsymbol{>} \mathbf{0}$ the interest-sensitivity of the demand for real balances

- We can rewrite this function in the following way:

$$
i=\frac{k Y}{h}-\frac{1}{h} L
$$

## The Liquidity Preference Curve



If $Y=Y_{1}$, then the expression for the liquidity preference curve is:

$$
i=(k / h) Y_{1}-(1 / h) L
$$

As $Y$ increases to $Y_{2}$, the liquidity preference curve shifts up to $L\left(Y_{2}\right)$.

L

$$
L=k Y-h i
$$

## The Real Supply of Money

- The nominal money supply $(\mathbf{M})$ is assumed to be exogenously determined by the Bank of Canada and thus we will take it as given ( $\overline{\mathbf{M}}$ )
- Since the price level $(\mathbf{P})$ is also assumed fixed, then the real money supply (M/P) is assumed to be fixed at $\overline{\mathbf{M}} / \overline{\mathbf{P}}$
- Therefore, the real money supply is assumed to be independent of both the rate of interest and the level of income
$>$ The real supply of money is assumed to be an exogenous variable


## Equilibrium in the Money Market



## Money Market Equilibrium

- The money market is in equilibrium when the real demand for money $(\mathrm{L})$ is equal to the real supply of money (M/P)
- And since $\mathbf{L}=\mathbf{k Y}-\mathbf{h i}$, and $\mathbf{M} / \mathbf{P}=\overline{\mathbf{M}} / \overline{\mathbf{P}}$, equilibrium is determined when

$$
\overline{\mathrm{M}} / \overline{\mathrm{P}}=\mathrm{kY}-\mathrm{hi}
$$

- Therefore, the money market is in equilibrium when:

$$
i=-\frac{\bar{M} / \bar{P}}{h}+\frac{k}{h} Y
$$

- This function indicates the relationship between the $\mathbf{i}$ and the level of $\mathbf{Y}$ when the money market is in equilibrium
$>$ This is the expression for the LM curve


## Equilibrium in the Money Market and the LM Curve




## The LM Curve

- $i=-(\bar{M} / \overline{\mathrm{P}}) / \mathrm{h}+(\mathrm{k} / \mathrm{h}) \mathrm{Y}$

> Liquidity Preference:
> $\mathrm{i}=(\mathrm{k} / \mathrm{h}) \mathrm{Y}_{1}-(1 / \mathrm{h}) \mathrm{L}$

- The slope of the LM curve is positive and equal to $k / h$
$>$ Recall that the slope of the liquidity preference curve is $-1 / h$
$>$ Therefore, the larger the interest sensitivity of demand for real balances, the flatter both the $\mathbf{L}$ and the LM curves
- The vertical intercept of the LM curve is - ( $\overline{\mathbf{M}} / \overline{\mathrm{P}}) / \mathrm{h}$
$>$ Therefore, the position of the LM curve depends on the values of both $h$ and $\bar{M} / \overline{\mathbf{P}}$
> That is, a change in $\overline{\mathbf{M}} / \overline{\mathbf{P}}$ will cause the LM curve to shift


## Exogenous Increase in Money Supply

$$
i=-(\bar{M} / \bar{P}) / h+(k / h) Y
$$


© Gustavo Indart


## Points Off the LM Curve



Point C in diagram (1) corresponds to point $C^{\prime}$ in diagram (2). At point $C$ there is an excess demand in the money market.

## Point D in diagram (1) corresponds to

 point $D^{\prime}$ in diagram (2). At point $D$ there is an excess supply in the money market.

## Equilibrium in the Goods and Assets (Money) Markets

- We have determined equilibrium in the goods market and the money market independently of each other
$>$ That is, we have derived a whole range of combinations of interest rate and income for which each market was in equilibrium
- Now we will derive a unique combination of the rate of interest and the level of income such that the goods market and the money market are both simultaneously in equilibrium
- In order to find this unique equilibrium, we must equate the IS curve and the LM curve
$>$ That is, equilibrium is achieved where the IS curve and the LM curve intersect


## Goods and Money Markets Equilibrium



Points on the IS curve show combinations of $\mathbf{i}$ and $Y$ for which the goods market is in equilibrium.

Points on the LM curve show combinations of $\mathbf{i}$ and $\mathbf{Y}$ for which the money market is in equilibrium.

Only at point ( $\mathbf{Y}_{1}, \mathbf{i}_{1}$ ) are both the goods market and the money market simultaneously in equilibrium.

IS

$Y$

## Determination of Income and Interest Rate Equilibrium



$$
\begin{aligned}
& \frac{\overline{A E}}{b}-\frac{1-c(1-t)}{b} Y=\frac{-\bar{M} / \bar{P}}{h}+\frac{k}{h} Y \\
& h \overline{A E}-h[1-c(1-t)] Y=-b(\bar{M} / \bar{P})+b k Y
\end{aligned}
$$

$$
h \overline{A E}+b(\bar{M} / \bar{P})=\{h[1-c(1-t)]+b k\} Y
$$

$$
Y^{*}=\frac{h}{h[1-c(1-t)]+b k} \overline{A E}+\frac{b}{h[1-c(1-t)]+b k} \bar{M} / \bar{P}
$$

$$
=\frac{1}{1-c(1-t)+b k / h} \overline{A E}+\frac{1}{(h / b)[1-c(1-t)]+k} \bar{M} / \bar{P}
$$

## Determination of Income and Interest Rate Equilibrium (contod)

- To obtain now the equilibrium rate of interest we must plug the value for $\mathbf{Y}^{*}$ in the expression for either the IS or the LM curve

$$
\begin{aligned}
& \text { IS: } i^{*}=\frac{\overline{A E}}{b}-\frac{1-c(1-t)}{b} Y^{*} \\
& L M: i^{*}=\frac{-\bar{M} / \bar{P}}{h}+\frac{k}{h} Y^{*}
\end{aligned}
$$

## Changes in Equilibrium Income and Rate of Interest

$$
I S: i=\frac{\overline{A E}}{b}-\frac{1-c(1-t)}{b} Y
$$



- The equilibrium levels of income and interest rate change whenever the IS curve and the LM curve shift
- Therefore, any change in the position and/or slope of the IS curve ( $\Delta \overline{\mathbf{A E}}, \Delta \mathbf{b}, \Delta \boldsymbol{\alpha}_{\mathrm{AE}}$ ) or any change in the position and/or slope of the $\mathbf{L M}$ curve ( $\Delta(\overline{\mathbf{M}} / \overline{\mathbf{P}}), \Delta \mathbf{k}, \Delta \mathbf{h}$ ) will also change the income and interest rate equilibrium


## The Impact of an Increase in Autonomous Expenditure



## The Adjustment Mechanism in the Goods Market

- We have seen that points off the IS curve indicate situations of disequilibrium in the goods market
> Points above the IS curve indicate situations of excess supply in the goods market (ESG)
> Points below the IS curve indicate situation of excess demand in the goods market (EDG)
- Recall that we are assuming that demand (or aggregate expenditure) determines output
> Whenever there is an excess supply in the goods market, $\mathbf{Y}$ decreases to restore equilibrium
$>$ Whenever there is an excess demand in the goods market, $\mathbf{Y}$ increases to restore equilibrium


## The Adjustment Mechanism in the Money Market

■ We have also seen that points off the LM curve indicate situations of disequilibrium in the money market
$>$ Point above the LM curve indicates situation of excess supply (ESM) in the money market
$>$ Points below the LM curve indicate situations of excess demand (EDM) in the money market

- Recall that changes in the rate of interest restore equilibrium in the money market
$>$ Whenever there is an excess supply in the money market, i decreases to restore equilibrium
$>$ Whenever there is an excess demand in the money market, i increases to restore equilibrium


## The Adjustment Mechanism

■ Note that the money market adjusts very quickly since the interest rate changes rapidly as bonds are bought and sold
$>$ Therefore, we are going to assume that the money market is always in equilibrium

- On the other hand, the goods market adjusts relatively slowly because firms have to change their levels of production which takes time


## Changes in Equilibrium



