ECO 209Y MACROECONOMIC THEORY AND POLICY

LECTURE 5: THE IS-LM MODEL

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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 (the endogenous variable) in the goods market for each level of i
- Second, we take Y as an exogenous variable and see how it affects the demand for money as it changes
 - Here, we examine the determination of i (the endogenous variable) in the money market for each level of Y
- Finally, we combine both frameworks to examine the simultaneous determination of Y and i in the economy

THE CONSUMPTION FUNCTION

When we assumed the rate of interest was fixed, we derived the following equation for the consumption function:

 $C = (\overline{C} + c\overline{TR} - c\overline{T}) + c(1 - t)Y$

Assuming now that the rate of interest is not fixed, we can write the consumption functions as follows:

$$C = (\overline{C} + c\overline{TR} - c\overline{T}) + c(1 - t)Y - di$$

where **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

- When we assumed that the rate of interest was fixed, investment was considered an *exogenous* variable → I = Ī
- Assuming now that the rate of interest is not fixed, we can write the consumption functions as follows:

l = Ī — bi

where **I** is autonomous investment (from both income and the rate of interest), **i** is the nominal rate of interest, and **b** measures the interest sensitivity of investment

 Note that investment depends on the *real* rate of interest (r), but since P is assumed fixed then i = r

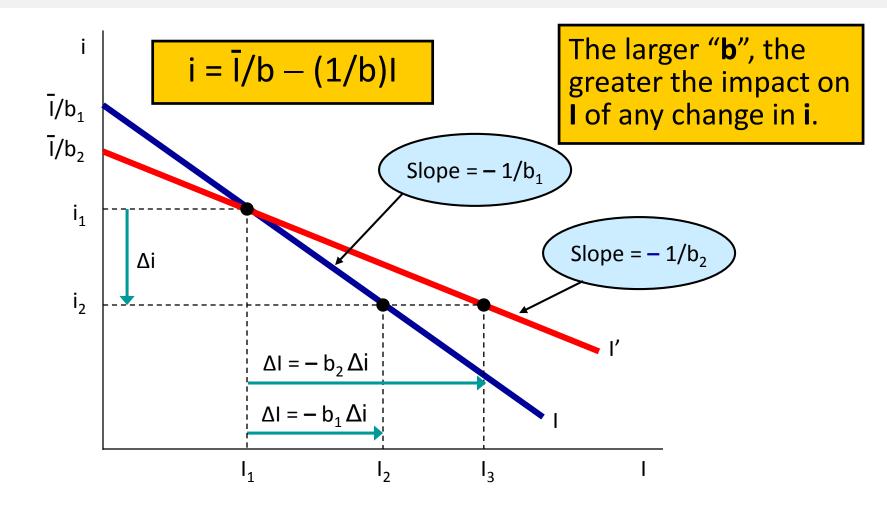
THE INVESTMENT FUNCTION (CONT'D)

We can express the equation I = I – bi in the following way:

i = Ī/b - (1/b)l

- The position of the I curve is determined by the level of autonomous investment spending (Ī), and by the interest sensitivity of investment (b)
- The constant I/b is the vertical intercept of the curve, and the constant 1/b is the absolute value of its slope
- Note that i captures particularly the impact of *expected* demand

THE INVESTMENT CURVE



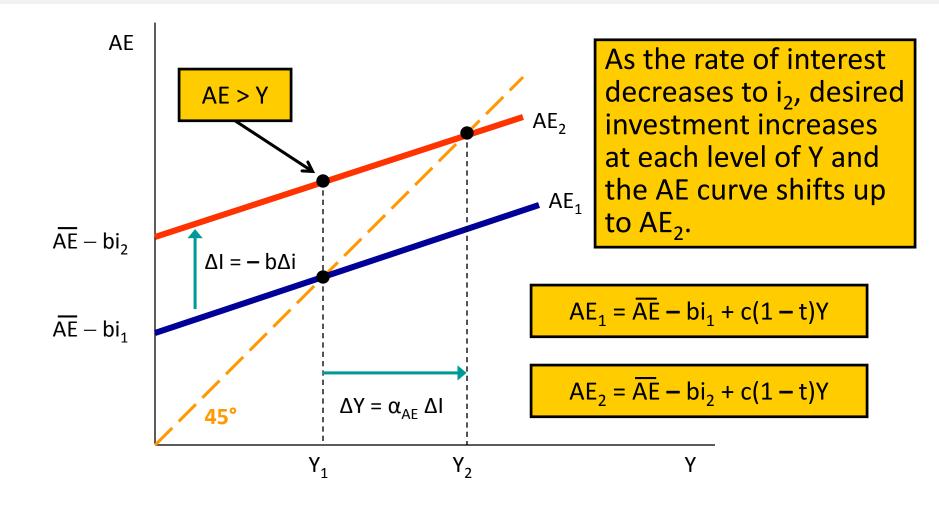
THE INTEREST RATE AND THE AGGREGATE EXPENDITURE FUNCTION

Since the investment function (I) is now I = I – bi, the aggregate expenditure function (AE) becomes:

AE = C + I + G= $[\overline{C} - c\overline{T} + c\overline{TR} + c(1 - t)Y] + (\overline{I} - bi) + \overline{G}$ = $\overline{AE} - bi + c(1 - t)Y$ where $\overline{AE} = \overline{C} - c\overline{T} + c\overline{TR} + \overline{I} + \overline{G}$

- The slope of the AE curve is, as before, c(1 t); but the intercept has changed: before it was equal to AE and now it is equal to AE bi
- Therefore, there is one 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 Y = AE, then

Y =
$$\overline{AE}$$
 — bi + c(1 — t)Y
[1 — c(1 — t)] Y = \overline{AE} — bi

and

$$Y = \frac{1}{1 - c(1 - t)} (\overline{AE} - bi)$$

This relationship between **Y** and **i** is called the **IS** curve.

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 the interest rate (i) and the level of income (Y) that ensure equilibrium in the goods market, i.e., combinations that make planned spending (AE) to be equal to 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)

$$AE = \overline{AE} - bi + c(1 - t)Y$$

We have seen that in equilibrium Y = AE, and then

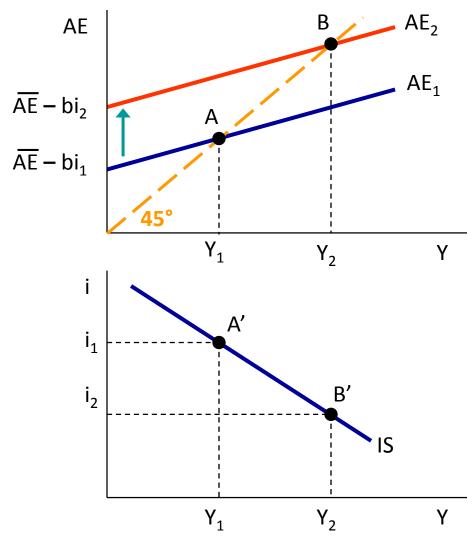
$$Y = \overline{AE} - bi + c(1 - t)Y$$

$$[1 - c(1 - t)] Y = \overline{AE} - bi$$

$$bi = \overline{AE} - [1 - c(1 - t)] Y$$

$$i = \frac{\overline{AE}}{b} - \frac{1 - c(1 - t)}{b} Y$$

THE DERIVATION OF THE IS CURVE



$$AE_1 = \overline{AE} - bi_1 + c(1 - t)Y$$

The point A' = (Y_1, i_1) is one point on the IS curve.

A decrease in the rate of interest to i_2 causes the AE curve to shift up to AE₂.

 $AE_2 = \overline{AE} - bi_2 + c(1 - t)Y$

The point B' = (Y_2, i_2) is another point on the IS curve.

THE SLOPE OF THE IS CURVE

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

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

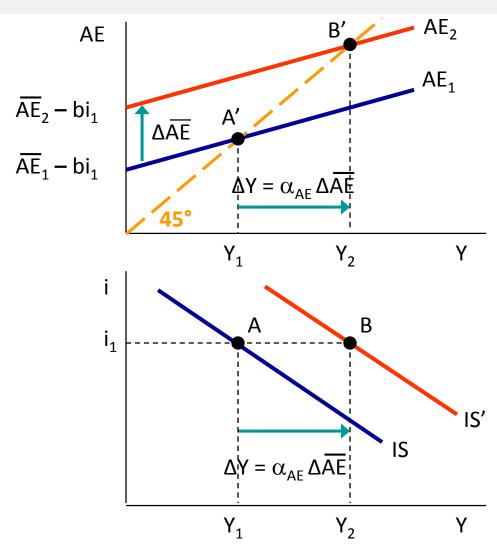
where $\alpha_{AE} = 1/[1 - c(1 - t)]$ is the autonomous expenditure multiplier

- Therefore, the slope of the IS curve depends on the interest sensitivity of investment (b) and on the autonomous expenditure multiplier (α_{AE})
- Since AE = AE bi + c(1 t)Y, the steeper the AE curve the flatter the IS curve (and vice versa)

THE VERTICAL INTERCEPT OF THE IS CURVE

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

THE EFFECT OF A CHANGE IN AE



Consider point A = (Y_1, i_1) on the IS curve.

The AE curve corresponding to point A on the IS curve is: $AE_1 = \overline{AE}_1 - bi_1 + c(1 - t)Y$

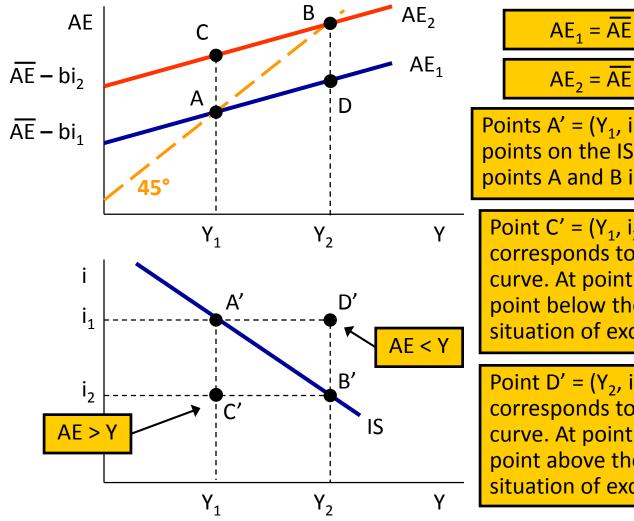
An increase in \overline{AE} (with no change in i) causes the AE_1 curve to shift up to:

 $AE_2 = \overline{AE}_2 - bi_1 + c(1 - t)Y$

The AE_2 curve corresponds to point B = (Y₂, i₁) on a new IS curve.

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POINTS OFF THE IS CURVE



$$AE_1 = AE - bi_1 + c(1 - t)Y$$

$$AE_2 = \overline{AE} - bi_2 + c(1 - t)Y$$

Points A' = (Y_1, i_1) and B' = (Y_2, i_2) are two points on the IS curve corresponding to points A and B in the top diagram.

Point C' = (Y_1, i_2) is off the IS curve and corresponds to point C on the AE₂ curve. At point C, AE > Y and thus any point below the IS curve represents a situation of excess demand.

Point D' = (Y_2, i_1) is off the IS curve and corresponds to point D on the AE₁ curve. At point D, AE < 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) © Gustavo Indart
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REAL AND NOMINAL DEMAND FOR MONEY

- The nominal demand for money is the demand for money expressed in a quantity of current 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):

where **W** = **WN/P**, **L** = **NDM/P**, and **DB** = **NDB/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 + SB

where **M** is the nominal money stock, **M/P** is the real money stock, and **SB** is the real stock of bonds

In equilibrium, then, L + DB = M/P + SB

(L - M/P) + (DB - SB) = 0

Therefore, if the money market is in equilibrium (L = M/P), then the bond market is also in equilibrium (DB = SB)
 If L > M/P, then DB < SB (excess supply of bonds)
 If L < M/P, then DB > SB (excess demand for bonds)

WHAT IS THE RATE OF INTEREST?

- Consider a *perpetual* bond, which is a promise to pay a fixed amount (*coupon*, C_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 (C_B) divided by its face value, but to the coupon divided by its market price (P_B):

$$i = C_B / P_B$$

In *equilibrium*, the *interest rate* is equal to the *yield* on bonds (which represents the *opportunity cost* of holding money)

DETERMINATION OF THE RATE OF INTEREST (CONT'D)

- Suppose that there is an *excess supply* in the bonds market and the price of bonds falls
 - For instance, the bond with a face value of \$100 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 → *negative* relationship

THE DEMAND FOR MONEY (CONT'D)

- The demand for real balances also depends on the level of real income (Y)
- We can write the equation for the demand for real balances
 (L) as follows:

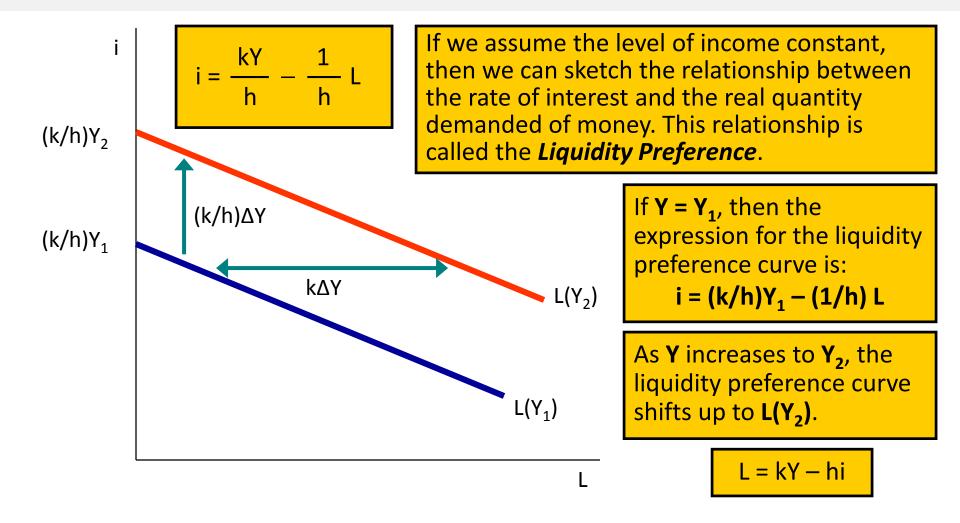
L = kY – hi

where **k** > **0** represents the income-sensitivity and **h** > **0** the interest-sensitivity of the demand for real balances

We can rewrite this function in the following way:

$$i = \frac{kY}{h} - \frac{1}{h}L$$

THE LIQUIDITY PREFERENCE CURVE

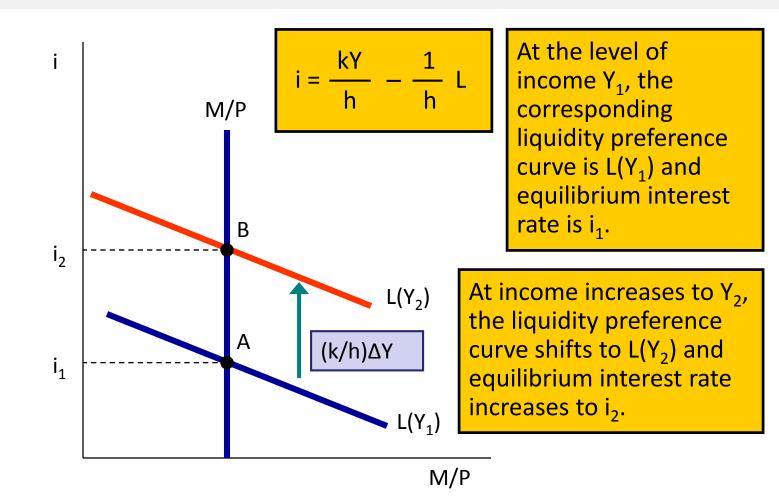


THE REAL SUPPLY OF MONEY

- The nominal money supply (M) is assumed to be exogenously determined by the Bank of Canada and thus we will take it as given (M)
- Since the price level (P) is also assumed fixed, then the real money supply (M/P) is assumed to be fixed at M/P
- Therefore, the real money supply is *assumed* to be independent of both the rate of interest (i) and the level of real income (Y)

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 (L) is equal to the real supply of money (M/P)
- And since L = kY hi, and M/P = M/P, equilibrium is determined when

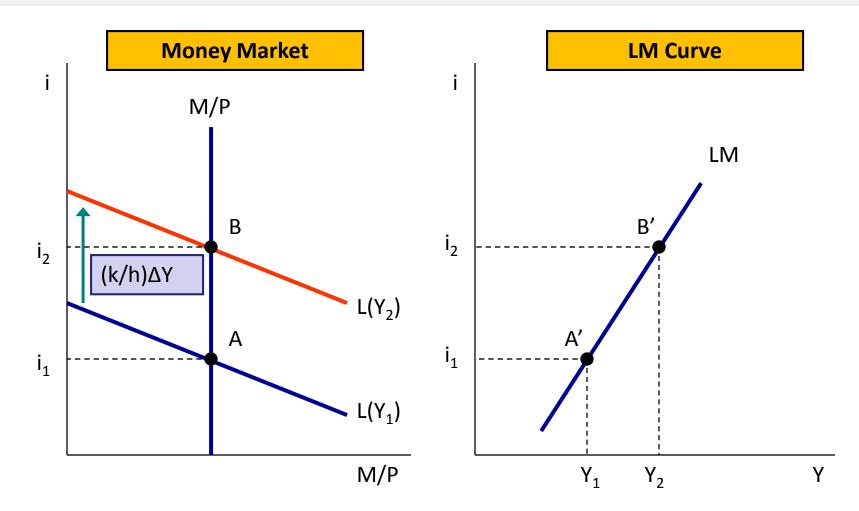
<mark>M/P = kY – hi</mark>

Therefore, the money market is in equilibrium when:

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

- This function indicates the relationship between the i and the level of 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 = – (M/P)/h + (k/h)Y

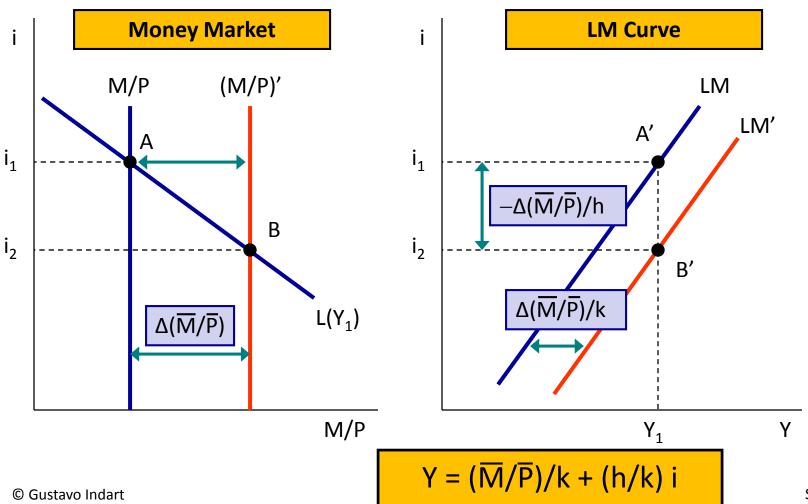
Liquidity Preference: $i = (k/h)Y_1 - (1/h) L$

- 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 L and the LM curves
- The vertical intercept of the LM curve is (M/P)/h
 - Therefore, the position of the LM curve depends on the values of both h and M/P

> That is, a change in $\overline{M}/\overline{P}$ will cause the LM curve to shift

EXOGENOUS INCREASE IN MONEY SUPPLY

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

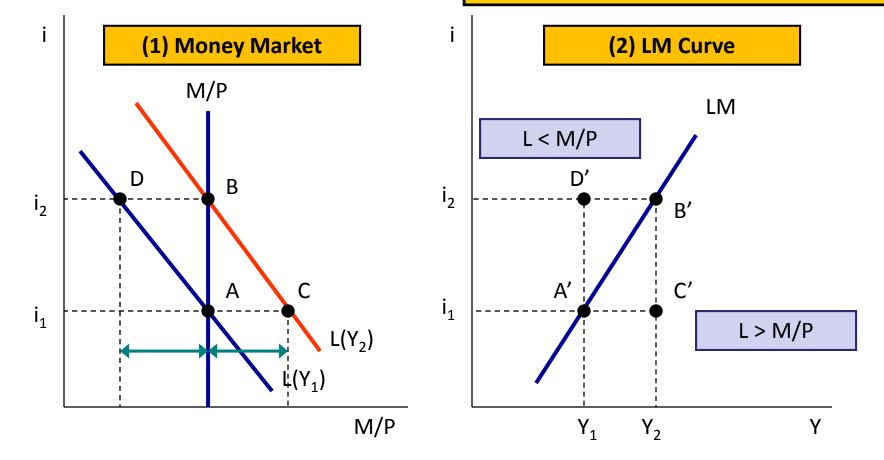


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POINTS OFF THE LM CURVE

Point C in diagram (1) corresponds to point C' in diagram (2). At point C there is an excess demand in the money market.

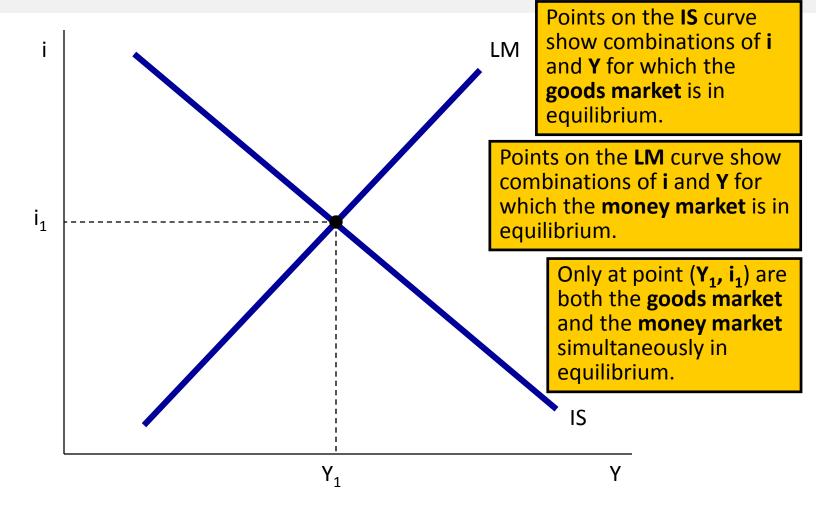
Point D in diagram (1) corresponds to point D' in diagram (2). At point D there is an excess supply in the money market.



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



DETERMINATION OF INCOME AND INTEREST RATE EQUILIBRIUM

IS:
$$i = \frac{\overline{AE}}{b} - \frac{1 - c(1 - t)}{b} Y$$

LM:
$$i = \frac{-\overline{M}/\overline{P}}{h} + \frac{k}{h}Y$$

$$\frac{AE}{b} - \frac{1-c(1-t)}{b} Y = \frac{-M/P}{h} + \frac{k}{h} Y$$

$$h\overline{AE} - h[1-c(1-t)]Y = -b(\overline{M}/\overline{P}) + bkY$$

$$h\overline{AE} + b(\overline{M}/\overline{P}) = \{h[1-c(1-t)] + bk\}Y$$

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

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

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DETERMINATION OF INCOME AND INTEREST RATE EQUILIBRIUM (CONT'D)

To obtain now the equilibrium rate of interest we must plug the value for Y* in the expression for either the IS or the LM curve

IS:
$$i^* = \frac{\overline{AE}}{b} - \frac{1 - c(1 - t)}{b} Y^*$$

LM:
$$i^* = \frac{-\overline{M}/\overline{P}}{h} + \frac{k}{h} Y^*$$

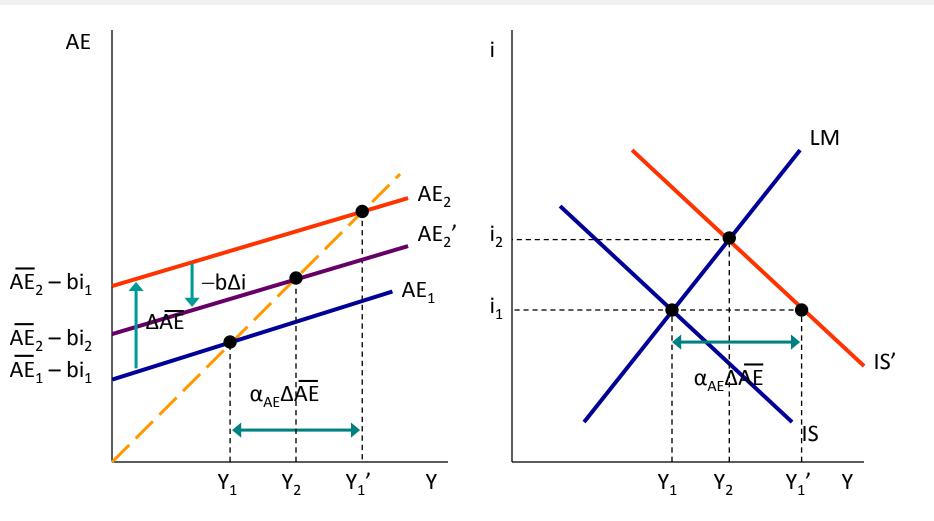
CHANGES IN EQUILIBRIUM INCOME AND RATE OF INTEREST

IS:
$$i = \frac{\overline{AE}}{b} - \frac{1-c(1-t)}{b} Y$$

LM:
$$i = \frac{-\overline{M}/\overline{P}}{h} + \frac{k}{h}Y$$

- 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 (ΔAE, Δb, Δα_{AE}) or any change in the position and/or slope of the LM curve (Δ(M/P), Δk, Δh) 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, Y decreases to restore equilibrium
 - Whenever there is an *excess demand* in the goods market,
 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

