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Week 1 Introduction to Macroeconomics

	\/	hat Macroeconomics is about
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Macroeconomics	•	ucture and performance of national economies and government
	policies that affect economic performance	
Issues addressed	Long run ● <u>Population growth</u>	
by	economic	Overtime, more people are producing more good
macroeconomists	growth	↑ in <u>average labour productivity</u>
	(two key	 population grows, people are more productive, or
	sources)	population remains the same, everyone more productive
	Durain and avial an	Short-run contractions & expansions in economic activity
	Business cycles	Downward phase is called a recession
		The number of people who are available for work and actively
	Unemployment	seeking work but cannot find jobs
	. ,	Recessions cause ↑ in unemployment rate
		The percentage ↑ in the level of prices
	Inflation	Hyperinflation: an extremely high rate of inflation
		Deflation: when prices of most goods & services ↓
		Open economy is an economy that has extensive trading &
		financial relationships with other national economies
	International	Closed economy is an economy that does not interact economically with the rest of the world
	economies	Trade imbalances:
		Trade surplus: exports > imports Trade deficits imports > apports
		Trade deficit: imports > exports
	Macroeconomic	Fiscal policy: concerns government spending & taxation
	policy	Monetary policy: growth of money supply; determined by
	. ,	central bank: The Fed in US, RBA in Aus.
	T	What Macroeconomists Do
Macro Research	To make general:	statements about how the economy works
Develop & Test	1. State the rese	arch question
and Economic	2. Make provision	onal assumptions
Theory (steps)	3. Work out the	implications of the theory
	4. Compare with	the data
	5. Evaluate the r	esults of your comparisons
	W	hy Macroeconomists Disagree
Positive vs.	Positive analysis	examines the economic consequences of a policy
Normative	Look at the particular policy, see what effects that policy can potentially have on	
Analysis	the economy,	on different dimensions, for output, inflation, unemployment,
,	international	economies, etc.
	Normative analysis determines whether a policy should be used	
	-	ised, used when you are making decisions
	_	nalysis to understand the positive & negative effects, try to
	•	itive and minimise negative effects
Classicals vs.	The classical app	-
Keynesians	1	works well on its own
,		hand': if there are free markets and individuals conduct their
		irs in their own best interests, the overall economy will work well
		es adjust rapidly to get to equilibrium
		,

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	Results: Government should have only a limited role in the economy
	The Keynesians approach
	The Great Depression: Classical theory failed because high unemployment was
	persistent
	Keynes: persistent unemployment occurs because wages and prices adjust
	slowly, so markets remain out of equilibrium for long periods
	Conclusion: Government should intervene to restore full employment
	The evolution of the classical-Keynesian debate
	Keynesians dominated from WWII to 1970
	Stagflation (The US suffered from both high unemployment and high inflation in
	1970s) weaken economists' and policymakers' confidence in Keynesian, and led
	to a classical comeback in 1970s
	Last 30yrs: excellent research with both approaches
A Unified	Textbook uses a single model to present both classical & Keynesian ideas
Approach to	Characteristics of the single economic model:
Macroeconomics	1. Individuals, firms and the government interact in goods markets, asset markets,
	and labour markets
	2. The model's macroeconomic analysis is based on the analysis of individual
	behaviour
	a. The guiding principle is the assumption that they try to maximize their
	own economic satisfaction, given their needs, desires, opportunities &
	resources
	3. Keynesians and classicals both agree that, in the long run, prices and wages full
	adjust to achieve equilibrium in the market for goods, assets, and labour
	4. The basic model that we present may be used with either the classical
	assumption that wages and prices are flexible or the Keynesian assumption that
	wages and prices are slow to adjust
	National Income Accounting
Definition	National Income Account is an accounting framework used in measuring current
	economic activity.
Three Alternative	1. Product approach : the amount of output produced, excluding output used up in
Approaches	intermediate stages of production
	2. Income approach: the incomes generated by production
	3. Expenditure approach : the amount of spending by ultimate purchasers
	Are the three approaches equivalent?
	They must be, by definition
	Any output produced (product approach) is purchased by someone (expenditure)
	approach) and results in income to someone (income approach)
	The fundamental identity of national income accounting:
	total production = total income = total expenditure
	Gross Domestic Product
The Product	Defines GDP as the market value of final goods & services newly produced within a
Approach to	nation during a fixed period of time
measure GDP	Value added = value of output – value of inputs purchased from other producers
measure abi	Market value: allows adding together different items by valuing them at their
	market prices
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	Problem: misses <u>nonmarket items</u> such as homemaking, the value of
	·

 Government services (that aren't sold in markets) are valued at their cost of production

Newly produced products & services: counts only things produced in the given period, exclude things produced earlier

• The value of the services of the real estate agent involved in the sale of the used house is part of GDP, because those services are provided in the current period

Final Goods & Services: the end products of a process, not intermediate

- Don't count <u>intermediate goods & services</u> (those used up in the production of other goods & services in the same period they were produced
- <u>Capital goods</u> (goods used to produce other goods) are final goods since they aren't used up in the same period that they are produced (e.g. machines)
- <u>Inventory investment</u> (the amount that inventories of unsold finished goods, goods in process, and raw materials have changed during the period) is also treated as a final good
- Adding up <u>value added</u> works well, since it automatically excludes intermediate goods

GNP vs. GDP

- **GNP (gross national product)** = the market value of final goods & services newly produced by domestic factors of production during the current period
- **GDP** = output produced <u>within a nation</u> (could be produced by foreign owned factors of production, but produced within AUS, counted as GDP but no GNP)

$$GDP = GNP - NFP$$

- NFP (net factor payments from abroad) = payments to domestically owned factors located abroad payments to foreign factors located domestically)
- Difference between GNP and GDP is small for the US, about 2%, but higher for countries that have many citizens working abroad

The Expenditure Approach

Measures total spending on final goods and services produced within a nation during a specified period of time

Four main categories of spending

Y = C + I + G + NX(the income – expenditure identity)

• Y = GDP = total production/output = total income = total expenditure

Consumption (C): spending by domestic households on final goods & services (including those produced abroad)

- Consumer durables e.g. cars, TV sets, furniture, major appliances
- Nondurable goods e.g. food, clothing, fuel
- Services e.g. education, health care, financial services, transportation

Investment (I): spending for new capital goods (fixed investment) + inventory

- <u>Business (or non-residential) fixed investment</u>: spending by businesses on structures, equipment, and intellectual property products, such as software, research and development, or artistic originals
- Residential fixed investment: spending on the construction of houses & apartment buildings
- <u>Inventory investment</u>: increases in firms' inventory holdings

Government purchases (G): spending by the government on goods and services

- Not all government expenditures are purchases of goods & services, e.g.:
- Payments that are not made in exchange for current goods & services
- <u>Transfers</u>, including Social Security payments, welfare, and unemployment benefits
- Interest payments on the government debt

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	Some government spending is for capital goods that add to the nation's capital
	stock, such as highways, airports, bridges, and water & sewer systems
	Net Exports (NX): exports – imports
	Exports: goods produced in the country that are purchased by foreigners
	Imports: goods produced abroad that are purchased by residents in the country
	Imports are subtracted from GD, as they represent goods produced abroad and
	were included in consumption, investment, and government purchases
The Income	National income: the sum of eight types of income
Approach	<u>Compensation of employees</u> (income of workers, excluding the self-employed)
	Proprietor's income (the income of the non-incorporated self-employed)
	Rental income of persons (income earned by individuals who own
	land/structures that they rent to others)
	Corporate profits (profits earned by corporations & represent the remainder of
	corporate revenue after wages, interest, rents and other costs have been paid)
	Net interest (interest earned by individuals from businesses and foreign sources
	- interest paid by individuals)
	Taxes on production & imports (including indirect business taxes, such as sales &
	excise taxes, that are paid by businesses to Fed, state & local governments)
	Business current transfer payments (net): payments made by businesses to
	individuals or governments or foreigners but not for wages/taxes/as payment for
	services, including charitable donations, insurance payments etc.
	Current surplus of government enterprises (profit of businesses that are owned)
	by Gov., such as water, electric, and sewer companies etc.)
	NNP (net national product) = National income + statistical discrepancy
	Statistical discrepancy = the production measure – the income measure
	GNP (gross national product) = net national product + depreciation (the value of
	capital that wears out in the period)
	GNP = Y + NFP = Private disposable income + Government's net income
	Private disposable income = private sector income earned at home (Y or GDP)
	and abroad (NFP) + payments from the government sector (transfers, TR, and
	interest on government debt, INT) – taxes paid to government (T)
	private disposable income = $GDP + NFP + TR + INT - T$
	• Government's net income = taxes (T) – transfers (TR) – interest payments (INT)
	net government income = T - TR - INT
	Saving & Wealth
Measures of	Private saving = private disposable income – consumption
aggregate saving	$S_{pvt} = (Y + NFF - T + TR + INT) - C$
488. 984.00 04.11.18	Government saving = net government income – government purchases
	$S_{qovt} = (T - TR - INT) - G$
	National saving = private saving + government saving
	$S = S_{pvt} + S_{qovt} = Y + NFP - C - G$
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	Real GDP, Price Indexes, and Inflation		
Real vs. Nominal	Nominal variables are those in dollar terms		
Variables	Problem: Do changes in nominal values reflect changes in prices or quantities?		
	If Apple increases its prices, but the production is constant, in nominal terms		
there is an increase, but in the actual production terms, there is no change			
	Real variables: reflect only quantity changes; keep prices fixed at base-year		
	prices		
Real vs. Nominal	Nominal GDP is the dollar value of an economy's final output measured at		
GDP	current market prices		
	Real GDP is an estimate of the <u>real value</u> of an economy's final output, adjusting		
	for changes in the overall price level		
Price Indexes	Price index : a measure of the average level of prices for some specified set of goods		
	and services, relative to the prices in a specified base year		
	GDP deflator is a price index that measures the overall level of prices of goods &		
	services included in GDP		
	GDP deflator/100 is the amount by which nominal GDP must be divided, or		
	"deflated", to get real GDP		
	$GDP\ Deflator = 100 * \frac{nominal\ GDP}{real\ GDP}$		
	Consumer Price Index (CPI): measure the price of consumer goods		
	Monthly index of consumer prices; index averages 100 in reference base period		
	(1982 to 1984)		
	Based on basket of goods in expenditure base period (updated periodically)		
	Inflation rate: by how much the price has changed from the previous year		
	$\pi_{t-1} = \frac{P_{t-1} - P_t}{P_t} = \frac{\Delta P_{t+1}}{P_t}$		
	- t - t		
	Does CPI inflation overstate increases in the cost of living? Dries indexes with fixed sets of goods do not reflect substitution by		
	Price indexes with fixed sets of goods do not reflect substitution by		
	consumers when one good becomes relatively cheaper than another This problem is known as substitution bias		
	e.g. choice of expenditure base period matters for GDP when		
	prices and quantities of a good are changing rapidly		
	 Very difficult to adjust the price measures for changes in the quality 		
	 Consequences of overstating cost of living: 		
	 If overstated, then real incomes are higher than we thought and we have 		
	over indexed payments like Social Security		
	Latest research suggests bias is still 1% per year or higher		
	Interest Rates		
Dool vs. Nominal	Interest rate: a rate of return promised by a borrower to a lender		
Real vs. Nominal Interest Rates	 Real interest rate: rate at which the real value/purchasing power of an asset 		
interest nates	increases over time		
	 Nominal interest rate: rate at which the nominal value of an asset increases over 		
	time		
	Real interest rate = nominal interest rate - inflation rate = $i - \pi$		
	Expected real interest rate = nominal interest rate – expected		
	inflation rate or $r = i - \pi^e$		
	injudion rate of i - i - i		