

# HE2002 Macroeconomics II

## Tutorial 2

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### Overview

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This tutorial develops core tools from the goods market and money market blocks of the IS–LM framework. Key themes:

- Equilibrium output when *investment depends on output* and the resulting multiplier.
- Comparative statics for shifts in “business confidence” (investment intercept) and implications for national saving.
- Money demand as a function of income and the interest rate; scaling and elasticities.
- Money market equilibrium and central bank policy to target a new interest rate.
- Bond pricing and yields; inverse price–interest rate relation and present value.

## Question 1 (Chapter 3, Q8)

### Problem

(This problem examines the implications of allowing investment to depend on output.)

Suppose the economy is characterized by the following behavioral equations:

$$C = c_0 + c_1 Y_D, \quad Y_D = Y - T, \quad I = b_0 + b_1 Y,$$

where government spending  $G$  and taxes  $T$  are constant. Note that investment now increases with output.

- (a) Solve for equilibrium output.
- (b) What is the value of the multiplier? How does the relation between investment and output affect the value of the multiplier? For the multiplier to be positive, what condition must  $(c_1 + b_1)$  satisfy?
- (c) Suppose that the parameter  $b_0$ , sometimes called business confidence, increases. How will equilibrium output be affected? What will happen to national saving?

### Solution

#### Method 1: Direct substitution into goods-market equilibrium

We use the (closed-economy) goods-market equilibrium condition

$$Y = C + I + G.$$

- (a) **Equilibrium output.** First write consumption as a function of  $Y$ :

$$C = c_0 + c_1(Y_D) = c_0 + c_1(Y - T) = c_0 + c_1Y - c_1T.$$

Investment is  $I = b_0 + b_1 Y$ . Substituting into  $Y = C + I + G$  gives

$$\begin{aligned} Y &= (c_0 + c_1Y - c_1T) + (b_0 + b_1Y) + G \\ &= (c_0 + b_0 + G - c_1T) + (c_1 + b_1)Y. \end{aligned}$$

Collect  $Y$ -terms on the left:

$$Y - (c_1 + b_1)Y = c_0 + b_0 + G - c_1T \implies (1 - c_1 - b_1)Y = c_0 + b_0 + G - c_1T.$$

Assuming  $1 - c_1 - b_1 \neq 0$ , the equilibrium output is

$$Y^* = \frac{c_0 + b_0 + G - c_1T}{1 - c_1 - b_1}.$$

- (b) **Multiplier and the condition for positivity.** Consider a one-unit increase in autonomous spending (any parameter entering the numerator with coefficient +1), e.g.  $G$  or  $b_0$  or  $c_0$ . From the formula in (a),

$$\frac{\partial Y^*}{\partial G} = \frac{\partial Y^*}{\partial b_0} = \frac{\partial Y^*}{\partial c_0} = \frac{1}{1 - c_1 - b_1}.$$

Thus the multiplier is

$$\boxed{\text{Multiplier} = \frac{1}{1 - c_1 - b_1}}.$$

*Effect of investment depending on output:* relative to the standard case  $b_1 = 0$ , the denominator  $1 - c_1 - b_1$  is smaller (for  $b_1 > 0$ ), so the multiplier is larger. Intuitively, higher output raises investment ( $b_1 Y$ ), which further raises demand and therefore amplifies output.

For the multiplier to be positive, we require

$$1 - c_1 - b_1 > 0 \iff c_1 + b_1 < 1,$$

so

$$\boxed{c_1 + b_1 < 1}.$$

- (c) **Increase in  $b_0$  and national saving.** Let  $\Delta b_0 > 0$ . Since

$$Y^* = \frac{c_0 + b_0 + G - c_1 T}{1 - c_1 - b_1},$$

holding  $c_0, G, T, c_1, b_1$  fixed gives

$$\Delta Y^* = \frac{1}{1 - c_1 - b_1} \Delta b_0 \Rightarrow \boxed{\Delta Y^* = \frac{\Delta b_0}{1 - c_1 - b_1}}.$$

National saving (in a closed economy) is

$$S \equiv Y - C - G.$$

Using  $C = c_0 + c_1(Y - T)$ ,

$$\begin{aligned} S &= Y - (c_0 + c_1(Y - T)) - G \\ &= Y - c_0 - c_1 Y + c_1 T - G \\ &= (1 - c_1)Y - (c_0 + G - c_1 T). \end{aligned}$$

All terms except  $Y$  are constant when only  $b_0$  changes, so

$$\Delta S = (1 - c_1)\Delta Y^* = (1 - c_1) \frac{\Delta b_0}{1 - c_1 - b_1}.$$

Therefore,

$$\boxed{\Delta S = \frac{(1 - c_1)\Delta b_0}{1 - c_1 - b_1}}.$$

Since  $0 < c_1 < 1$  in the standard Keynesian setup and  $1 - c_1 - b_1 > 0$  for a positive multiplier, we have  $\Delta S > 0$  when  $\Delta b_0 > 0$ .

### Method 2: Keynesian-cross slope and fixed-point form

Define planned expenditure (total demand)

$$Z(Y) \equiv C(Y) + I(Y) + G.$$

Using the behavioral equations:

$$C(Y) = c_0 + c_1(Y - T) = (c_0 - c_1T) + c_1Y, \quad I(Y) = b_0 + b_1Y.$$

Hence

$$Z(Y) = (c_0 - c_1T + b_0 + G) + (c_1 + b_1)Y.$$

Equilibrium in the Keynesian cross is the fixed point  $Y = Z(Y)$ :

$$\begin{aligned} Y &= (c_0 - c_1T + b_0 + G) + (c_1 + b_1)Y, \\ (1 - c_1 - b_1)Y &= c_0 + b_0 + G - c_1T, \\ Y^* &= \frac{c_0 + b_0 + G - c_1T}{1 - c_1 - b_1}. \end{aligned}$$

Thus

$$Y^* = \frac{c_0 + b_0 + G - c_1T}{1 - c_1 - b_1}.$$

The slope of the planned expenditure line is

$$Z'(Y) = c_1 + b_1.$$

In the Keynesian-cross stability logic, a standard sufficient condition for convergence is  $|Z'(Y)| < 1$ ; with  $c_1, b_1 \geq 0$ , this becomes

$$c_1 + b_1 < 1,$$

which is exactly the condition for a positive and finite multiplier.

Now consider a one-unit increase in the intercept of  $Z(Y)$ , i.e. in  $c_0$  or  $b_0$  or  $G$ . In a linear fixed-point equation  $Y = \alpha + \beta Y$  with  $|\beta| < 1$ , the solution is  $Y = \alpha/(1 - \beta)$ , so the multiplier is  $1/(1 - \beta)$ . Here  $\beta = c_1 + b_1$ , so

$$\text{Multiplier} = \frac{1}{1 - (c_1 + b_1)} = \frac{1}{1 - c_1 - b_1}.$$

For national saving, use the equilibrium identity (closed economy):

$$Y = C + I + G \implies Y - C - G = I.$$

Therefore

$$S \equiv Y - C - G = I.$$

Since  $I(Y) = b_0 + b_1Y$ , a change  $\Delta b_0$  yields

$$\Delta S = \Delta I = \Delta b_0 + b_1 \Delta Y^*, \quad \text{with} \quad \Delta Y^* = \frac{\Delta b_0}{1 - c_1 - b_1}.$$

Substitute:

$$\begin{aligned}\Delta S &= \Delta b_0 + b_1 \frac{\Delta b_0}{1 - c_1 - b_1} = \Delta b_0 \left( 1 + \frac{b_1}{1 - c_1 - b_1} \right) \\ &= \Delta b_0 \left( \frac{1 - c_1 - b_1 + b_1}{1 - c_1 - b_1} \right) = \frac{(1 - c_1)\Delta b_0}{1 - c_1 - b_1}.\end{aligned}$$

Hence

$$\boxed{\Delta S = \frac{(1 - c_1)\Delta b_0}{1 - c_1 - b_1}}.$$

## Question 2 (Chapter 4, Q2)

### Problem

Suppose that the household nominal income for a country is \$50,000 billion. The money demand function is given by

$$M^d = \$Y(0.2 - 0.8i).$$

- (a) What is the demand for money when the interest rate is 1%? 5%?
- (b) What is the relationship between money demand and income? Money demand and the interest rate?
- (c) Suppose the yearly income is reduced by 20%. In percentage terms, what happens to the demand for money if the interest rate is 1%? If the interest rate is 5%?

### Solution

#### Method 1: Direct computation and partial-derivative interpretation

Let  $\$Y = 50,000$  (in billions of dollars). Interpret  $i$  as a decimal interest rate: 1% = 0.01, 5% = 0.05.

- (a) Compute  $M^d$  at  $i = 1\%$  and  $i = 5\%$ .

For  $i = 0.01$ ,

$$0.2 - 0.8i = 0.2 - 0.8(0.01) = 0.2 - 0.008 = 0.192,$$

so

$$M^d = 50,000 \times 0.192 = 9,600 \text{ (billion dollars)}.$$

Thus

$$\boxed{M^d(i = 1\%) = \$9,600 \text{ billion}}.$$

For  $i = 0.05$ ,

$$0.2 - 0.8i = 0.2 - 0.8(0.05) = 0.2 - 0.04 = 0.16,$$

so

$$M^d = 50,000 \times 0.16 = 8,000 \text{ (billion dollars)}.$$

Thus

$$\boxed{M^d(i = 5\%) = \$8,000 \text{ billion}}.$$

- (b) Relationship with income and interest rate. Rewrite

$$M^d = (0.2 - 0.8i) Y.$$

Holding  $i$  fixed, money demand is proportional to income  $Y$ :

$$\frac{\partial M^d}{\partial Y} = 0.2 - 0.8i.$$

For typical interest rates where  $0.2 - 0.8i > 0$ , this derivative is positive, so higher income raises money demand.

Holding  $Y$  fixed, money demand decreases linearly with the interest rate:

$$\frac{\partial M^d}{\partial i} = Y(-0.8) = -0.8Y < 0.$$

So higher interest rates reduce money demand.

- (c) **Income reduced by 20%: percentage change in money demand.** A 20% income reduction means  $Y' = 0.8Y$ . Then

$$(M^d)' = Y'(0.2 - 0.8i) = 0.8Y(0.2 - 0.8i) = 0.8 M^d.$$

Therefore the demand for money falls by exactly 20% for any fixed  $i$ .

To verify numerically:

- If  $i = 1\%$ : original  $M^d = 9,600$ . New  $M^d = 0.8 \times 9,600 = 7,680$ . Percentage change  $= (7,680 - 9,600)/9,600 = -20\%$ .
- If  $i = 5\%$ : original  $M^d = 8,000$ . New  $M^d = 0.8 \times 8,000 = 6,400$ . Percentage change  $= (6,400 - 8,000)/8,000 = -20\%$ .

Hence

Money demand decreases by 20% at both  $i = 1\%$  and  $i = 5\%$ .

### Method 2: Elasticity/scaling argument (no arithmetic shortcuts left unjustified)

The demand function is multiplicatively separable:

$$M^d(Y, i) = Y \cdot f(i), \quad \text{where} \quad f(i) = 0.2 - 0.8i.$$

#### Part (b) via derivatives.

$$\frac{\partial M^d}{\partial Y} = f(i) = 0.2 - 0.8i, \quad \frac{\partial M^d}{\partial i} = Yf'(i) = Y(-0.8) = -0.8Y < 0.$$

Thus  $M^d$  is increasing in  $Y$  (when  $f(i) > 0$ ) and decreasing in  $i$ .

**Part (c) via proportional scaling.** If income changes from  $Y$  to  $Y' = (1 - \theta)Y$  for some  $\theta \in (0, 1)$ , then

$$M^d(Y', i) = Y'f(i) = (1 - \theta)Yf(i) = (1 - \theta)M^d(Y, i).$$

So the percentage change in  $M^d$  equals  $-\theta \times 100\%$ , independent of  $i$ . With  $\theta = 0.2$ ,

$\% \Delta M^d = -20\%$  for any fixed interest rate  $i$ .

Parts (a) are then obtained by substituting  $Y = 50,000$  and  $i = 0.01, 0.05$  exactly as in Method 1, yielding \$9,600 and \$8,000 billion.

## Question 3 (Chapter 4, Q4)

### Problem

Suppose the money demand of an economy is given by

$$M^d = \$Y(0.25 - i),$$

where  $\$Y$  is \$40,000. Also, suppose that the supply of money is \$8,000.

- (a) What is the equilibrium interest rate?
- (b) Suppose the central bank increases the value of equilibrium interest rate,  $i$ , in part (a) to 10%. Will there be excess money supply or excess money demand? What policy should the central bank consider to reach the new equilibrium interest rate?

### Solution

#### Method 1: Market-clearing equation and direct substitution

Money market equilibrium requires  $M^d = M^s$ . Here  $Y = 40,000$  (dollars; units consistent with  $M$ ),  $M^s = 8,000$ , and  $i$  is a decimal rate.

- (a) **Equilibrium interest rate.** Set demand equal to supply:

$$40,000(0.25 - i) = 8,000.$$

Divide both sides by 40,000:

$$0.25 - i = \frac{8,000}{40,000} = 0.2.$$

Therefore

$$i = 0.25 - 0.2 = 0.05,$$

so

$$\boxed{i^* = 5\%}.$$

- (b) **Target  $i = 10\%$ : excess supply or demand and policy.** If the central bank wants  $i = 10\%$ , set  $i = 0.10$  and compute money demand:

$$M^d(i = 0.10) = 40,000(0.25 - 0.10) = 40,000(0.15) = 6,000.$$

With money supply still  $M^s = 8,000$ ,

$$M^s - M^d = 8,000 - 6,000 = 2,000 > 0,$$

so there is *excess money supply* of \$2,000.

To have equilibrium at  $i = 10\%$  (with income fixed at 40,000), the central bank must set money supply equal to the demand at that rate:

$$M^{s,\text{new}} = 6,000.$$

Thus it should *reduce the money supply* by

$$8,000 - 6,000 = 2,000.$$

A standard implementation is a contractionary open market operation (sell bonds to the public to withdraw money), or other contractionary tools that reduce the monetary base. Hence

At  $i = 10\%$  there is excess money supply; to reach 10% reduce  $M^s$  to \$6,000.

### Method 2: Inverse money-demand schedule and comparative statics

From

$$M^d = Y(0.25 - i),$$

solve explicitly for  $i$  as a function of  $(Y, M)$  by dividing by  $Y > 0$ :

$$\frac{M^d}{Y} = 0.25 - i \implies i = 0.25 - \frac{M^d}{Y}.$$

In equilibrium,  $M^d = M^s$ , so the equilibrium interest rate is

$$i^* = 0.25 - \frac{M^s}{Y}.$$

With  $M^s = 8,000$  and  $Y = 40,000$ ,

$$i^* = 0.25 - \frac{8,000}{40,000} = 0.25 - 0.2 = 0.05 \implies [i^* = 5\%].$$

Now impose the target  $i^{\text{target}} = 10\% = 0.10$ . The equilibrium condition written in inverse form is

$$0.10 = 0.25 - \frac{M^{s,\text{new}}}{40,000}.$$

Solve for  $M^{s,\text{new}}$ :

$$\frac{M^{s,\text{new}}}{40,000} = 0.25 - 0.10 = 0.15 \implies M^{s,\text{new}} = 40,000(0.15) = 6,000.$$

Thus the central bank must decrease money supply from 8,000 to 6,000, confirming the excess-supply diagnosis and contractionary policy recommendation:

$M^{s,\text{new}} = \$6,000$  to sustain  $i = 10\%$ .

## Question 4 (Chapter 4, Q3)

### Problem

(Please read Slide 19, “The Interest Rate on the Bond,” from the Lecture 2 slides.)

Consider a bond that promises to pay \$100 in one year.

- (a) What is the interest rate on the bond if its price today is \$75? \$85? \$95?
- (b) What is the relation between the price of the bond and the interest rate?
- (c) If the interest rate is 8%, what is the price of the bond today?

### Solution

#### Method 1: One-period return definition (yield from price)

Let  $P$  be today's bond price and  $F = 100$  be the face value paid in one year. The (one-period) interest rate  $i$  is defined by equating the gross return:

$$(1 + i)P = F \iff i = \frac{F}{P} - 1 = \frac{F - P}{P}.$$

- (a) Compute  $i$  for each price.

- If  $P = 75$ :

$$i = \frac{100}{75} - 1 = \frac{4}{3} - 1 = \frac{1}{3} = 0.333\bar{3} \Rightarrow \boxed{i = 33.\bar{3}\%}.$$

- If  $P = 85$ :

$$i = \frac{100}{85} - 1 = \frac{15}{85} = \frac{3}{17} \approx 0.1764706 \Rightarrow \boxed{i \approx 17.65\%}.$$

- If  $P = 95$ :

$$i = \frac{100}{95} - 1 = \frac{5}{95} = \frac{1}{19} \approx 0.0526316 \Rightarrow \boxed{i \approx 5.26\%}.$$

- (b) Relation between  $P$  and  $i$ . From

$$i(P) = \frac{100}{P} - 1,$$

differentiate with respect to  $P > 0$ :

$$\frac{di}{dP} = -\frac{100}{P^2} < 0.$$

Thus the interest rate is strictly decreasing in the bond price: higher prices imply lower yields, and lower prices imply higher yields. Hence

Bond price and interest rate are inversely related.

(c) **Price when  $i = 8\%$ .** Set  $i = 0.08$  in  $(1 + i)P = 100$ :

$$(1.08)P = 100 \implies P = \frac{100}{1.08} = \frac{100}{108/100} = \frac{10000}{108} = \frac{2500}{27} \approx 92.5926.$$

Therefore

$$\boxed{P = \frac{2500}{27} \approx \$92.59}.$$

### Method 2: Present value (discounting) formulation

A one-year riskless discount factor for interest rate  $i$  is

$$\text{PV factor} = \frac{1}{1+i}.$$

Since the bond pays 100 in one year, its no-arbitrage price is the present value of the payoff:

$$P = \frac{100}{1+i}.$$

(a) **Recover  $i$  from the present value equation.** Starting from  $P = \frac{100}{1+i}$ , solve for  $i$ :

$$P(1+i) = 100 \implies 1+i = \frac{100}{P} \implies i = \frac{100}{P} - 1.$$

Substituting  $P = 75, 85, 95$  reproduces exactly the values computed in Method 1:

$$\boxed{P = 75 \Rightarrow i = \frac{1}{3}}, \quad \boxed{P = 85 \Rightarrow i = \frac{3}{17}}, \quad \boxed{P = 95 \Rightarrow i = \frac{1}{19}}.$$

(b) **Inverse relation.** Because  $P(i) = \frac{100}{1+i}$ , we have

$$\frac{dP}{di} = -\frac{100}{(1+i)^2} < 0,$$

so higher interest rates imply lower present values (lower bond prices). Hence

$$\boxed{P \text{ decreases as } i \text{ increases.}}$$

(c) **Compute  $P$  at  $i = 8\%$ .**

$$P = \frac{100}{1+0.08} = \frac{100}{1.08} = \frac{2500}{27} \approx 92.59,$$

so

$$\boxed{P = \frac{2500}{27} \approx \$92.59}.$$