



ECO 3302 – Intermediate Macroeconomics

Lecture 12: Economic Fluctuations

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Introduction

Introduction

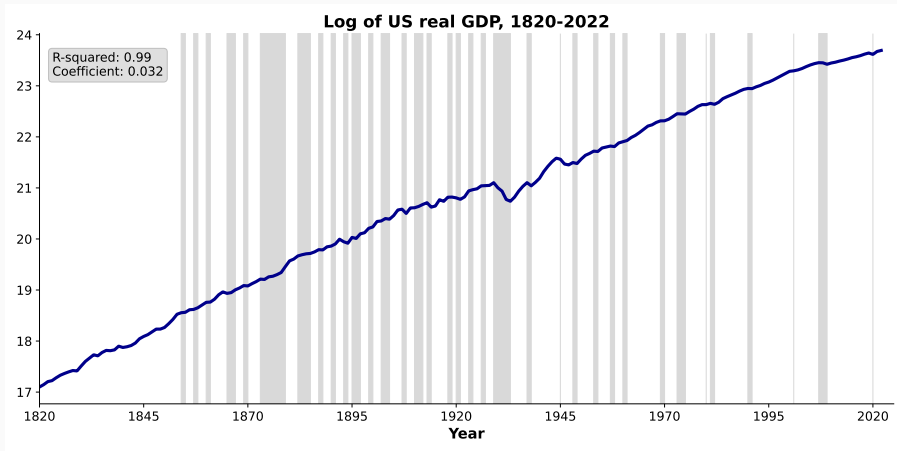
- ▶ From 1820 to 2022 the US economy grew at an annual rate of about 3%



Source. Maddison Project Database 2023.

Introduction

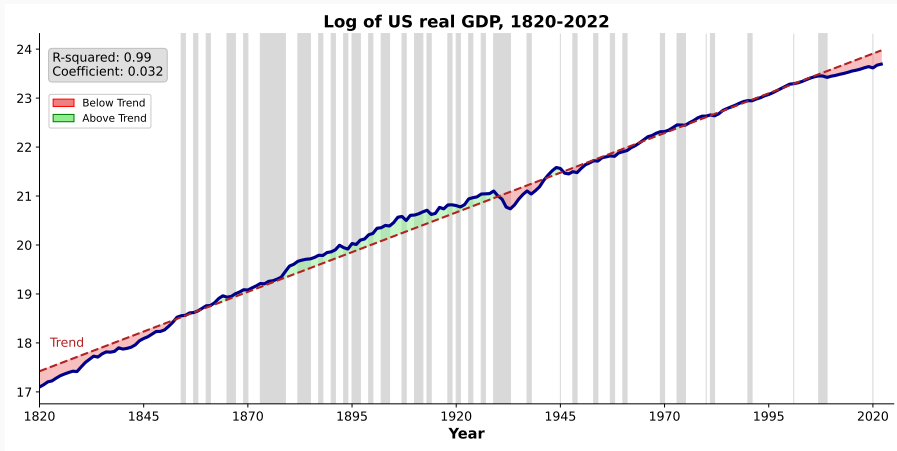
- ▶ But this long-run trend masks important fluctuations



Source. Maddison Project Database 2023.

Introduction

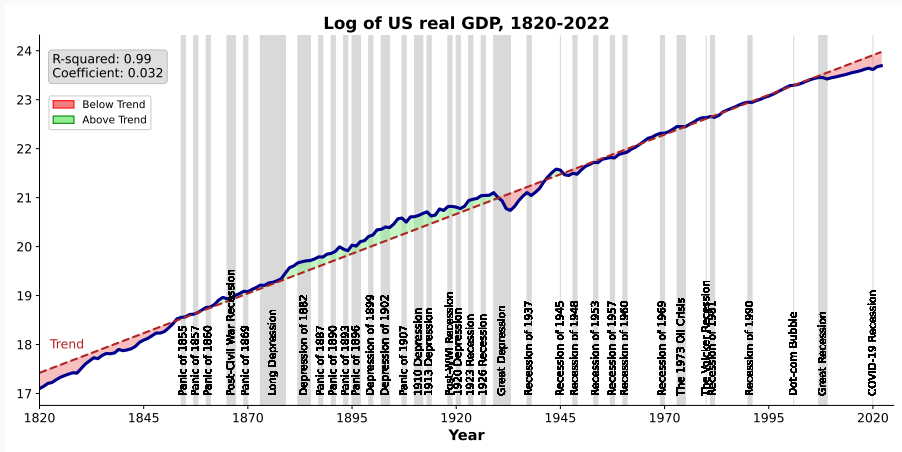
- ▶ US economy some times grew above trend; some others, below trend



Source. Maddison Project Database 2023.

Introduction

- ▶ Large negative fluctuations in output (see shaded areas) create **recessions**
These periods are naturally associated with employment losses



Introduction

- ▶ The **business cycle** is these short-term fluctuations in output and employment, which are unpredictable and irregular
- ▶ Business cycles have long fascinated economists:
 - What causes short-run fluctuations?
 - What economic model can best explain/predict them?
 - Is there anything the gvt can do to avoid or recessions?
 - If not, can it at least do something to reduce their length and severity?
 - How do business cycles affect the population at large? And its subgroups?
- ▶ Today, we start our study of business cycles and try to shed light on some of these questions

Facts About the Business Cycle

Facts about the business cycle

1. Business cycle has two phases:

- **Expansion:** Economy grows as businesses increase production, investments rise, consumer confidence improves, and unemployment falls
- **Contraction:** Economy experiences decline in economic activity as business investment and consumer spending fall, unemployment rises, and GDP shrinks
 - **Recession** typically defined as 2 consecutive quarters of negative GDP growth
 - When contraction is severe and prolonged, it may be called **depression**

2. Beginning/end of phases marked by:

- **Peak:** Point at which econ growth reaches its highest level before a downturn. At the peak, economy is operating at or near full capacity
- **Trough:** Lowest point in the business cycle, marking the end of the contraction. Economic activity stabilizes and begins to recover

Facts about the business cycle

3. **Duration of the business cycle:** recessions can last from a few months to several years, depending on the severity of the downturn
 - From 1854, the average US recessions has lasted 17 months
 - From 1945, the average US recessions has lasted 10 months
4. **In the US, the NBER's Business Cycle Dating Committee sets recession dates:**
 - To do so, committee analyzes range of economic indicators (income, employment, retail sales, industrial production, ...)
 - Committee doesn't use fixed rule; it follows its judgment
 - Depth, diffusion (ie, how widespread the decline is across the economy), and duration of economic downturn are key factors considered by the committee
 - Recession dates announced after recessions end due to nature of analysis

Facts about the business cycle

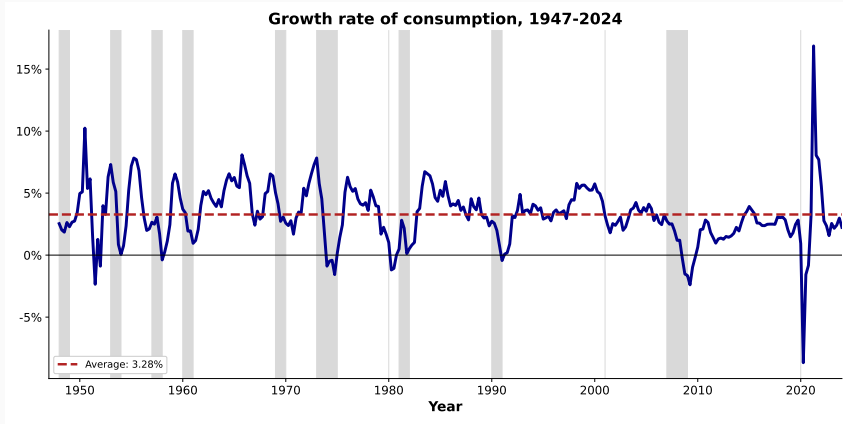
5. Business cycle is tracked using several economic indicators: GDP



Notes. Percent change from previous 4 quarters. Source. FRED: A191RL1Q225SBEA

Facts about the business cycle

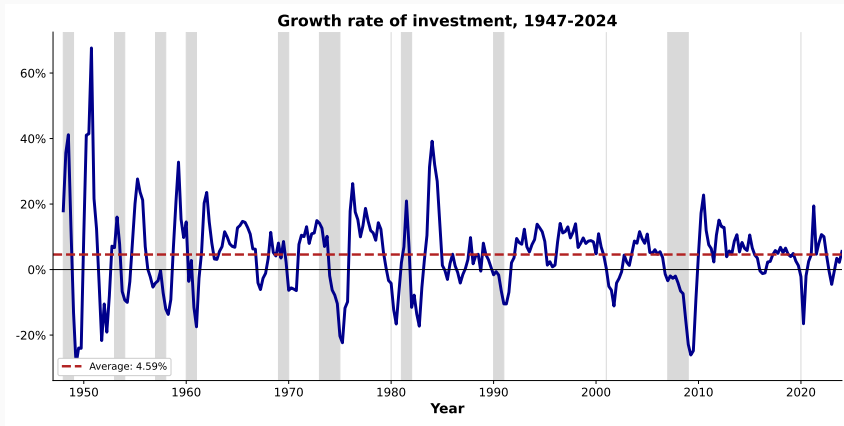
5. Business cycle is tracked using several economic indicators: consumption



Notes. Percent change from previous 4 quarters. Source. FRED: Real consumption expenditures (PCECC96)

Facts about the business cycle

5. Business cycle is tracked using several economic indicators: investment



Notes. Percent change from previous 4 quarters. **Source.** FRED: Real gross private domestic investment (GPDIC1)

Facts about the business cycle

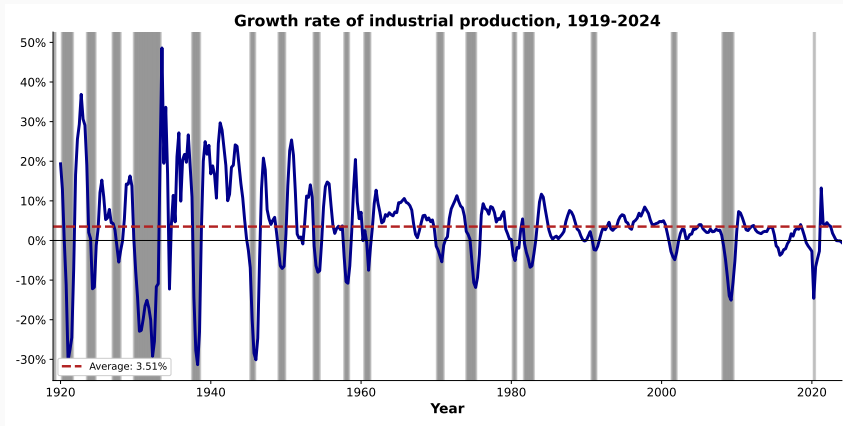
5. Business cycle is tracked using several economic indicators: retail sales



Notes. Percent change from previous 4 quarters. **Source.** FRED: Advance retail sales (RSAFS)

Facts about the business cycle

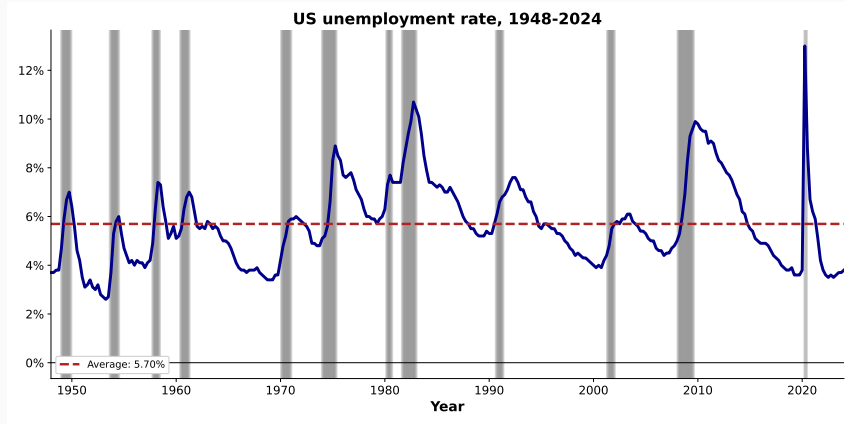
5. Business cycle is tracked using several economic indicators: industrial prod



Notes. Percent change from previous 4 quarters. **Source.** FRED: Industrial production (INDPRO)

Facts about the business cycle

5. Business cycle is tracked using several economic indicators: unemployment



Notes. Percent change from previous 4 quarters. **Source.** FRED: Unemployment rate (UNRATE)

Time Horizons in Macroeconomics

Time horizons in macroeconomics

- ▶ Previously, we studied long-run economic phenomena
 - Rooted in classical macroeconomic theory
- ▶ We now move to study short-run economic phenomena
- ▶ Doing so requires building different types of models
 - Recall that models are only useful when they capture essence of the problem
 - We now build short-run economic models
- ▶ **Long-run vs. short-run economic models:** flexible vs. sticky prices
 - In the long run, prices are flexible and adjust to clear markets
 - In the short run, prices are “sticky” and markets not need to clear

Long-run vs. short-run economic models

- ▶ Because prices behave differently in the short run than in the long run (flexible vs. sticky), economic events and policies may have different effects
- ▶ **Monetary-policy example:** Suppose Fed reduces money supply by 5%
 - In long run, monetary policy neutral: nominal variables affected, not real ones (classical macro theory)
 - In short run, monetary policy non-neutral: prices do not perfectly adjust and real variables may be affected (Keynesian macro theory)
- ▶ When building models of short-run economic phenomena, we must accommodate this price stickiness

Evidence of price stickiness

How sticky are prices?

- ▶ In a famous study of US firms, Alan Blinder asked firm managers how often they changed the prices on their most important products

Frequency	Percentage of firms
Less than once	10.2%
Once	39.3%
1.01 to 2 times	15.6%
2.01 to 4 times	12.9%
4.01 to 12 times	7.5%
12.01 to 52 times	4.3%
More than 52 times	10.2%

Source. Blinder 1994.

How sticky are prices?

- ▶ In a famous study of US firms, Alan Blinder asked firm managers how often they changed the prices on their most important products. Study revealed:
 - **Prices are sticky:** 50% of firms adjust their prices once or less a year
 - **Large difference among firms in frequency of price adjustment:**
 - 10% of firms do not change their prices during the year
 - 10% of firms do change their prices more than once a week
 - 40% of firms change their prices once a year
 - 16% of firms change their prices twice a year
 - 13% of firms change their prices 3–4 times per year

Evidence of price stickiness

Why are prices sticky?

- In a famous study of US firms, Alan Blinder asked firm managers why they didn't change their prices more often

Theory	Percentage of firms
Coordination failure: firms wait for others to move first	60.6%
Cost-based pricing with lags: price increases delayed until costs rise	55.5%
Delivery lags, service, quality: firms prefer to vary other attributes	54.8%
Implicit contracts: firms tacitly agree to offer stable prices	50.5%
Nominal contracts: prices are fixed by contracts	35.7%
Costs of price adjustment: changing prices is costly	30.0%
Procyclical elasticity: demand curves become less elastic	29.7%
Pricing points: prices have psychological significance (eg, \$9.99)	24.0%
Inventories: firms vary inventory stocks instead	20.9%
Constant marginal cost: constant MC and markups	19.7%
Hierarchical delays: bureaucratic delays slow down decisions	13.6%
Judging quality by price: fear customers will mistake price cuts with quality reductions	10.0%

Why are prices sticky?

- ▶ In a famous study of US firms, Alan Blinder asked firm managers why they didn't change their prices more often. Study revealed:
 - **Coordination failures** (ie, inability of firms to coordinate price changes) is **main reason for price stickiness and short-run economic fluctuations**
 - Most firms only increase prices when costs rise and sometimes, even if that's the case, they prefer to adjust other margins
 - Some firms are unwilling or unable to increase prices
 - Increasing prices is costly

Aggregate supply and aggregate demand

► In classical macroeconomic theory:

- Economy's output depends on supplies of capital and labor: $Y = F(K, L)$
- Flexible prices clear markets: P, R, W adjust so that Y, K, L markets clear

► In Keynesian macroeconomic theory:

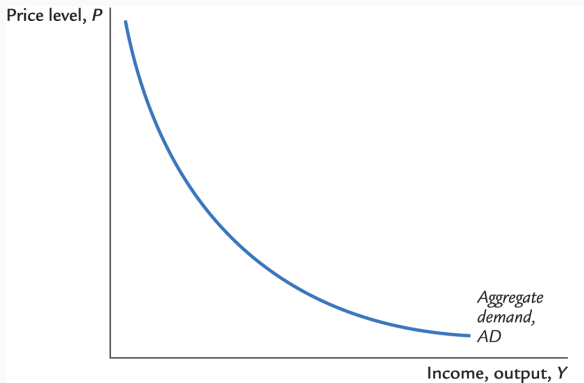
- Economy's output depends on demand for goods and services
- Demand in turn depends on consumers' and firms' sentiment (*animal spirits*) and monetary and fiscal policy—which can influence demand
- Sticky prices provide rationale for use of fiscal and monetary policies to stabilize demand

► We now build a model of aggregate supply and aggregate demand to explain short-run fluctuations in economic activity

Aggregate Demand

Aggregate demand

- ▶ **Aggregate demand (AD):** relationship between quantity of output demanded (Y) and aggregate price level (P)
 - AD curve: quantities of goods & services people want to buy at given prices



The quantity equation as aggregate demand

- ▶ Recall **quantity theory**:

$$M_t V_t = P_t Y_t$$

M : money supply V : money velocity P : price level Y : output

- ▶ With constant money velocity, nominal GDP determined by money supply
- ▶ Also recall **quantity equation** can be rewritten in terms of supply and demand of real money balances:

$$\frac{M_t}{P_t} = \left(\frac{M_t}{P_t} \right)^d = \underbrace{\gamma}_{\equiv 1/V} \times Y_t$$

where γ is share of income people want to hold as money

- Assumption of constant velocity equivalent to assumption of constant demand for real money balances per unit of output

The quantity equation as aggregate demand

- ▶ **Quantity equation** in terms of supply and demand of real money balances

$$\frac{M_t}{P_t} = \left(\frac{M_t}{P_t} \right)^d = \underbrace{\gamma}_{\equiv 1/V} \times Y_t$$

“Supply of real money balances equals its demand, which is prop. to output”

- ▶ If we assume money velocity V is constant and money supply M is fixed by central bank, **quantity equation yields negative relationship b/w P and Y**
 - I.e, AD curve is downward sloping as shown in previous figure

Why does the aggregate demand curve slope downward?

► Mathematically: $\overline{M}/P_t = \gamma Y_t$

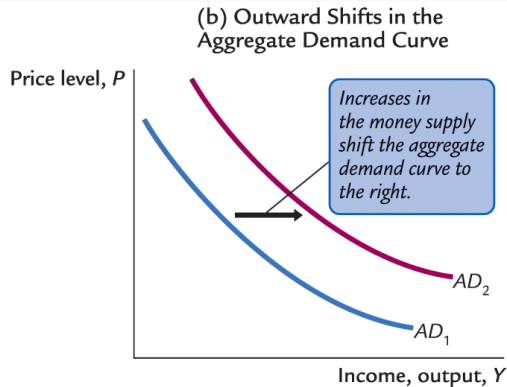
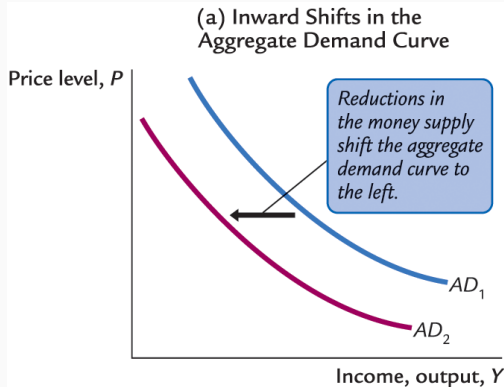
- Since \overline{M} fixed and γ constant, if P goes up, Y must go down

► Intuitively, with constant velocity of money:

- Money supply determines dollar value of all transactions ($\overline{M}V = P_t Y_t$)
- If price level rises, each transaction requires more dollars
- Because money supply is fixed, the number of transactions/quantity of goods and services purchased must fall

Shifts in the aggregate demand curve

- ▶ AD curve is drawn for fixed money supply M
(It tells us possible combinations of P and Y given M)
- ▶ If Fed changes M , AD curve shifts: possible P - Y combinations change



Shifts in the aggregate demand curve

- ▶ In reality, aggregate demand changes not only because of fluctuations in money supply
- ▶ Even if money supply is held constant, AD curve may shift if money velocity changes or because of other reasons
- ▶ For now, we try to gain simple intuition behind movements in the AD curve
- ▶ Soon enough we'll develop a ($IS-LM$) model which will allow us to consider many reasons for shifts in the AD curve

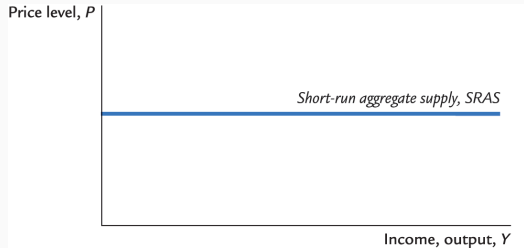
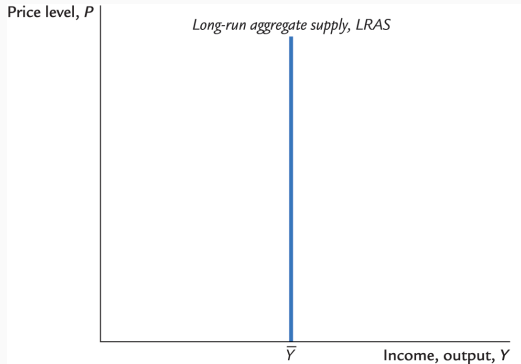
Aggregate Supply

Aggregate supply

- ▶ AD curve shows relationship between P and Y , but it doesn't tell us equilibrium price and output levels.
- ▶ To obtain equilibrium price and output levels, we need both demand and supply curves: their intersection pins down equilibrium levels
- ▶ **Aggregate supply (AS):** relationship between quantity of output supplied (Y) and aggregate price level (P)
 - AS curve: quantities of goods & services firms want to supply at given prices
- ▶ **Shape of AS curve depends on time horizon:**
 - Long-run aggregate supply (LRAS) curve is vertical: output is determined by capital, labor and technology; not by price level, which is perfectly flexible
 - Short-run aggregate supply (SRAS) curve is horizontal: prices are perfectly sticky

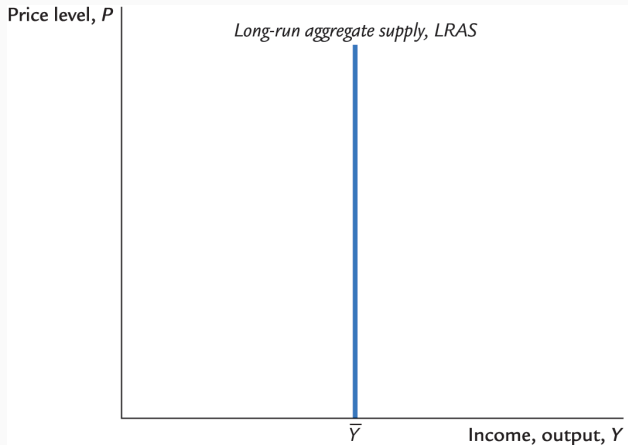
Aggregate supply curves: long-run vs. short-run

- ▶ LRAS curve: prices are perfectly flexible
- ▶ SRAS curve: prices are perfectly sticky



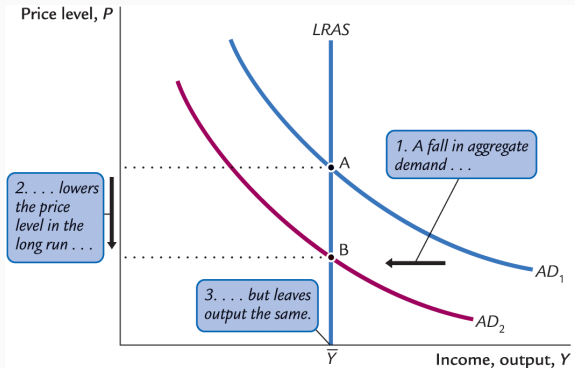
The LRAS supply curve

- In long run, output is determined by supply of capital, labor, and technology:
 $Y = F(K, L) = \bar{Y}$; not by the price level, which adjusts to clear market



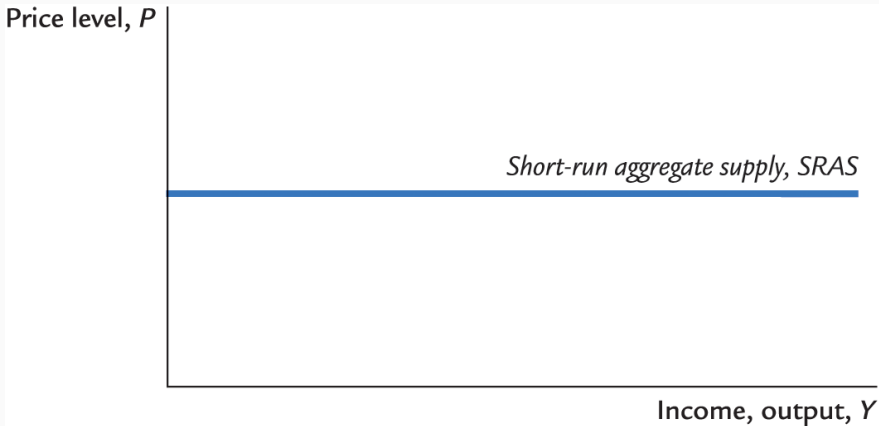
Long-run equilibrium in the market for goods and services

- In the long-run equilibrium, changes in aggregate demand affect prices but **not output**, which is determined by available resources and technology
 - \bar{Y} is the full-employment (or natural or potential) level of output
 - LRAS curve satisfies classical dichotomy: money is neutral



The SRAS supply curve

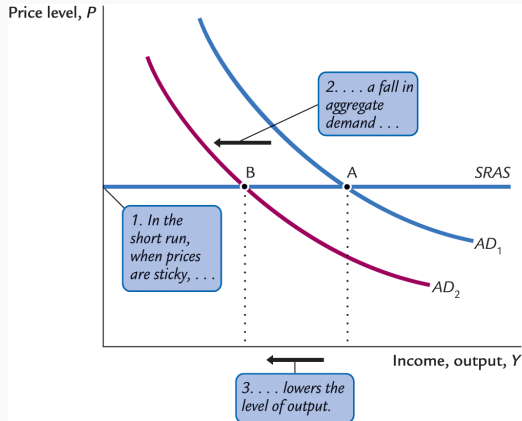
- ▶ In the short run, prices are sticky and do not adjust to changes in demand, so the SRAS curve is horizontal (assuming prices are fully sticky)



Short-run equilibrium in the market for goods and services

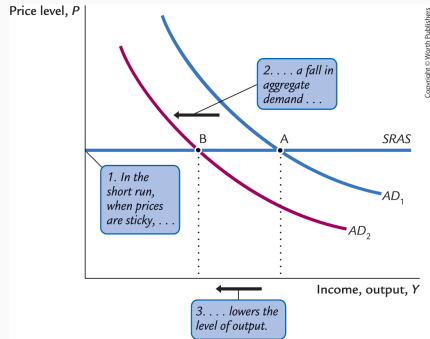
- In the short-run equilibrium, changes in aggregate demand affect output because prices do not adjust

- Monetary policy is non-neutral: $\downarrow M \rightarrow \downarrow Y$



Short-run equilibrium in the market for goods and services

- In the short-run equilibrium, changes in aggregate demand affect output because prices do not adjust
 - If prices could adjust, they would go down; currently, they are “too high”
 - With low demand and high prices, firms sell less and reduce production by laying off workers, which leads the economy to a recession

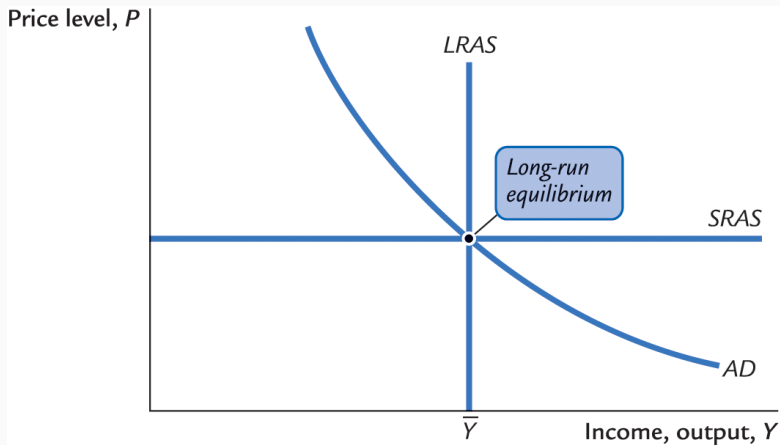


Recap: short-run vs. long-run

- ▶ In the long run, prices are fully flexible; that is, the aggregate supply curve is vertical and changes in agg. demand affect nominal but not real quantities
- ▶ In the (very) short run, prices are fully sticky; that is, the aggregate supply curve is horizontal and changes in aggregate demand affect real quantities

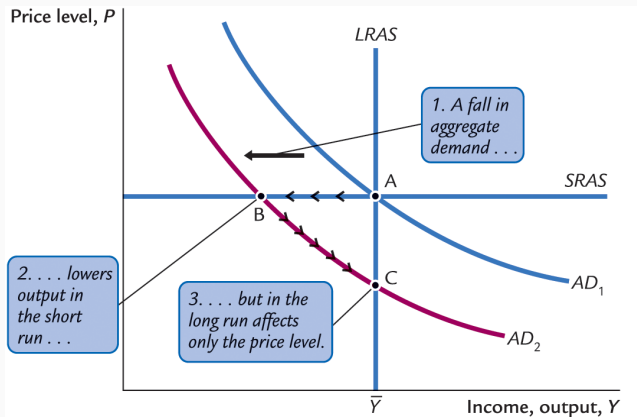
Transition from the short-run to the long-run

- ▶ Economy begins in long-run equilibrium: AD crosses LRAS (and SRAS) curve
 - Prices adjusted to reach this equilibrium



Transition from the short-run to the long-run

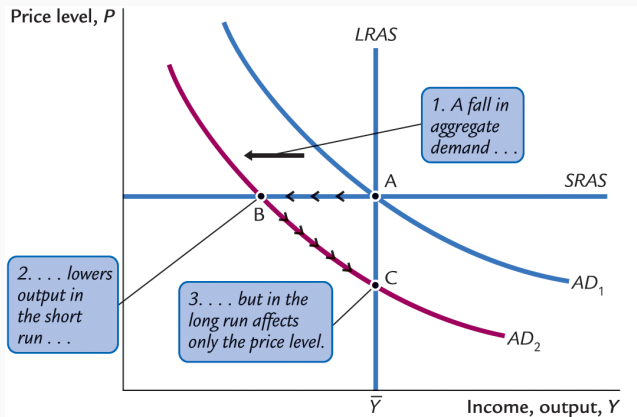
- Now suppose Fed reduces money supply and AD curve shifts downward
 - Because prices are sticky in the short run, economy moves to equilibrium B : output and employment fall below natural levels and economy enters recession



Transition from the short-run to the long-run

► Now suppose Fed reduces money supply and AD curve shifts downward

- Over time, wages and prices fall in response to low demand and we move to C : in new eq., output and employment back at natural levels and prices are lower



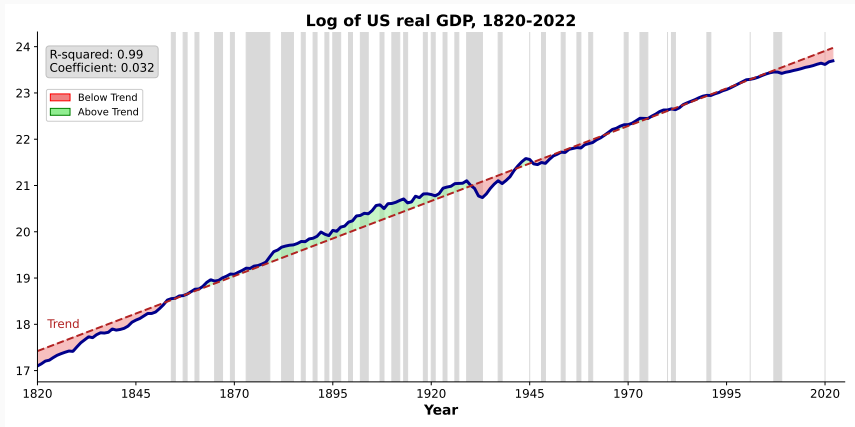
Stabilization Policy

Stabilization policy

- ▶ Fluctuations come from changes in aggregate supply or aggregate demand
- ▶ Economists refer to exogenous events shifting these curves as “shocks”:
 - A **demand shock** shifts the aggregate demand curve
 - A **supply shock** shifts the aggregate supply curve
- ▶ Demand and supply shocks push economy away from natural levels of employment and output
- ▶ Two-fold purpose of short-run models of aggregate supply and demand:
 1. Understand how shocks cause economic fluctuations
 2. Assess appropriate policy responses to shocks (**stabilization policy**)

Stabilization policy

- **Stabilization policy:** policy actions aimed at reducing severity of short-run economic fluctuations; Goal is to minimize fluctuations from long-run trend



Source. Maddison Project Database 2023.

Stabilization policy: demand shocks

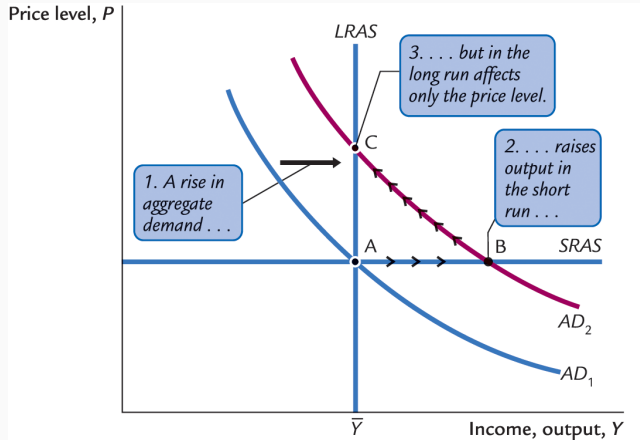
- ▶ Consider the demand shock that it is the availability of credit cards:
it reduces quantity of money that people want to hold, $\downarrow M^d$
- ▶ Reduction in money demand is equivalent to increase in money velocity:

$$\frac{M_t^d}{P_t} = \underbrace{\gamma}_{\equiv 1/V} \times Y_t$$

- When people hold less money ($\downarrow M^d$), share of income held in cash lower ($\downarrow \gamma$)
 - This means each dollar moves from hand to hand quicker ($\uparrow V$)
- ▶ If money supply is held constant, the increase in money velocity causes nominal spending to rise and AD curve to shift outward ($MV = PY$)

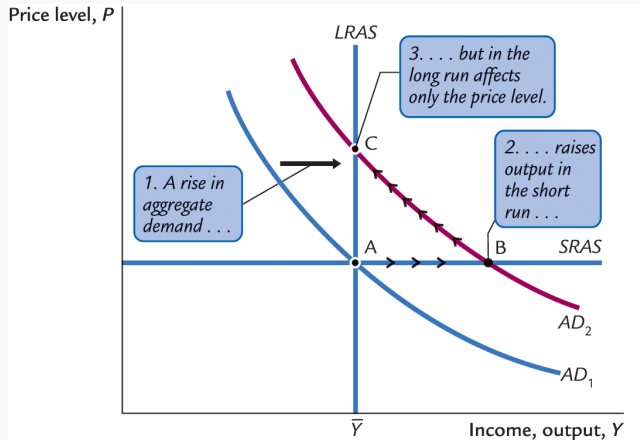
Stabilization policy: demand shocks

- In the short run, increase in demand rises economy's output: $A \rightarrow B$
(At the old prices, firms can sell more products: they increase employment and production)



Stabilization policy: demand shocks

- Over time, high demand pushes up wages and prices, reducing aggregate demand and moving economy to its natural level of production: $B \rightarrow C$



Stabilization policy: demand shocks

- ▶ During the transition (from A to C'), output exceeds its natural level
- ▶ What can the Fed do to dampen boom & keep output closer to natural level?
 - Fed can reduce money supply M to *fully* offset increase in money velocity

$$\frac{M_t}{P_t} = \frac{M_t^d}{P_t} = \underbrace{\gamma}_{\equiv 1/V} \times Y_t$$

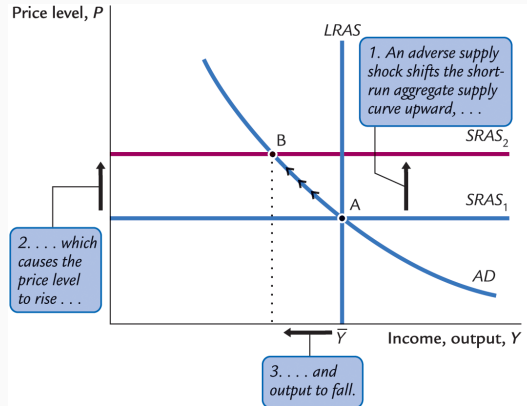
- Offsetting change in velocity stabilizes aggregate demand
- Fed could eliminate impact of demand shocks on output and employment by adjusting money supply

Stabilization policy: supply shocks

- ▶ Supply shocks alter cost of producing goods and services and hence can affect the prices firms charge
 - Even if prices are sticky, a large-enough shock can trigger a price response
- ▶ Supply shocks have a direct impact on the price level and thus are sometimes referred to as **price shocks**
- ▶ Examples of adverse supply shocks:
 - Drought destroying crops increases food prices
 - New environmental law requires lower pollution and leads to higher prices
 - Mandatory unionization pushes up wages and thus consumer prices
 - Cartel formation pushes up prices by purposely reducing production levels

Stabilization policy: supply shocks

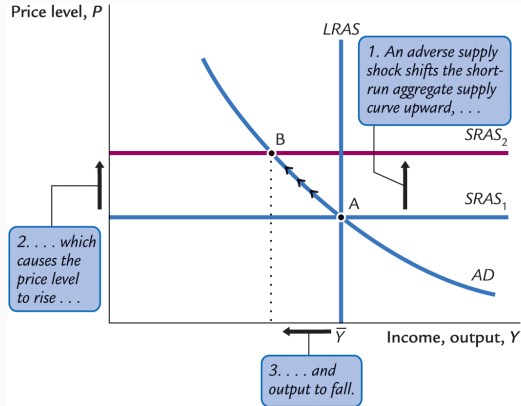
- Consider the supply shock that it is regulation reducing allowable pollution: it pushes up price level and reduces quantity produced ($A \rightarrow B$)
 - Stagflation: falling output and inflation



Stabilization policy: supply shocks

► What can the Fed do to mitigate impact of shock? **Allow recession**

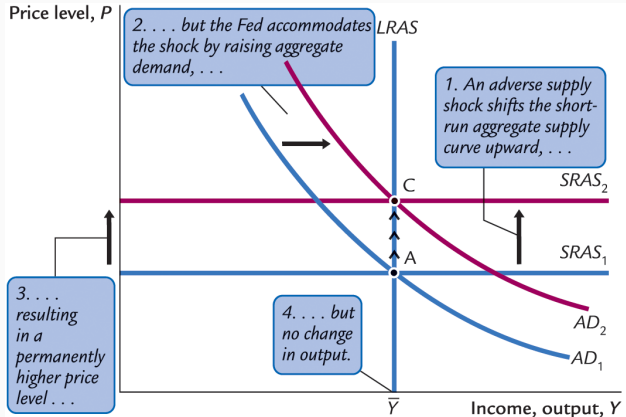
- Hold agg. demand constant so that output and employment first fall below natural level and wait for initial eq. to be restored when prices fall in response



Stabilization policy: supply shocks

► What can the Fed do to mitigate impact of shock? **Mitigate recession**

- Stimulate aggregate demand to bring economy to natural level quickly at the cost of (permanently) higher price level ($A \rightarrow B \rightarrow C$ vs. $A \rightarrow B \rightarrow A$)



Adverse supply shocks: OPEC

- ▶ Real-life example of adverse supply shock: OPEC in 1970s and 1980s
 - Organization of oil suppliers that coordinate production levels and prices
- ▶ In the 1970s, OPEC reduced supply of oil causing a doubling of its price
- ▶ Increase of oil prices caused stagflation: falling output + rising price levels

Year	Change in oil price	Inflation rate (CPI)	Unemployment rate
1973	11%	6.2%	4.9%
1974	68%	11%	5.6%
1979	25%	11.3%	5.8%
1980	48%	13.5%	7.0%
1981	44%	10.3%	7.5%

Taking Stock

Taking stock

- ▶ For the past two centuries, US grew at an average annual rate of 3%, but trend masks important fluctuations (eg, great depression, oil crises, ...)
- ▶ **Business cycle** is this period of short-term fluctuations in output and employment causing deviation from long-term growth
- ▶ **Key facts about business cycles:**
 - Two phases: expansions and contractions
 - Beginning and end of phases marked by peak and trough
 - Unpredictable and of uncertain duration
 - When business cycle is severely bad, economy enters into recession
 - Analyzed looking at battery of economic indicators: GDP, unemployment, consumption, investment, sales, industrial production, ...

- ▶ **Analysis of business cycles (short-run phenomena) requires different economic models**
 - We used classical models to study long-run phenomena
 - We use Keynesian models to study short-run phenomena
- ▶ **Key difference between long-run and short-run economic models is the behavior of prices:**
 - In the long run, prices are flexible and adjust to clear markets
 - In the short run, prices are sticky and markets not need to clear
- ▶ **Because prices behave differently in the short run than in the long run (flexible vs. sticky), economic events and policies may have different effects**
 - In the long run, monetary policy is neutral whereas in the short run is not (i.e., monetary policy affects real quantities only in the short run)

- ▶ Easiest to understand distinction between short-run and long-run economic models of aggregate demand and supply in terms of supply curves:
 - LRAS curve is vertical: prices fully flexible
 - SRAS curve is horizontal: prices completely stuck
- ▶ Short-run models of aggregate supply and demand useful to study **stabilization policy** (ie, policy actions that reduce severity of short-run econ fluctuations)
 - Fed can eliminate impact of demand shocks on output and employment by managing money supply
 - Fed can mitigate impact of supply shocks on output and employment at the cost of permanently higher prices

Questions?

Thank You!

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