

CHAPTER •

National Income: Where it Comes From and Where it Goes

MACROECONOMICS SIXTH EDITION N. GREGORY MANKIW PowerPoint[®] Slides by Ron Cronovich

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In this chapter, you will learn...

- what determines the economy's total output/income
- how the prices of the factors of production are determined
- how total income is distributed
- what determines the demand for goods and services
- how equilibrium in the goods market is achieved



Outline of model

A closed economy, market-clearing model

Supply side

- factor markets (supply, demand, price)
- determination of output/income

Demand side

determinants of C, I, and G

<u>Equilibrium</u>

- goods market
- Ioanable funds market



Factors of production

K = capital:

tools, machines, and structures used in production

L = labor:

the physical and mental efforts of workers

The production function

- denoted Y = F(K, L)
- shows how much output (Y) the economy can produce from

K units of capital and L units of labor

- reflects the economy's level of technology
- exhibits constant returns to scale



Returns to scale: A review

Initially $Y_1 = F(K_1, L_1)$

Scale all inputs by the same factor z:

$$K_2 = zK_1$$
 and $L_2 = zL_1$

(*e.g.*, if z = 1.25, then all inputs are increased by 25%)

What happens to output, $Y_2 = F(K_2, L_2)$?

- If constant returns to scale, $Y_2 = zY_1$
- If increasing returns to scale, Y₂ > zY₁
- If decreasing returns to scale, $Y_2 < zY_1$





$$F(K,L) = \sqrt{KL}$$

$$F(zK,zL) = \sqrt{(zK)(zL)}$$

$$= \sqrt{z^2 KL}$$

$$= \sqrt{z^2} \sqrt{KL}$$

$$= z\sqrt{KL}$$

constant returns to scale for any **z** > 0

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 $F(K,L) = \sqrt{K} + \sqrt{L}$ $F(zK,zL) = \sqrt{zK} + \sqrt{zL}$ $= \sqrt{z}\sqrt{K} + \sqrt{z}\sqrt{L}$ $= \sqrt{z} \left(\sqrt{K} + \sqrt{L} \right)$ $= \sqrt{z F(K,L)}$

decreasing returns to scale for any **z** > 1





$$F(K,L) = K^{2} + L^{2}$$

$$F(zK,zL) = (zK)^{2} + (zL)^{2}$$

$$= z^{2} (K^{2} + L^{2})$$

$$= z^{2} F(K,L)$$

increasing returns to scale for any **z** > 1



Determine whether constant, decreasing, or increasing returns to scale for each of these production functions:

(a)
$$F(K,L) = \frac{K^2}{L}$$

(b) $F(K,L) = K + L$



Answer to part (a)

$$F(K,L) = \frac{K^2}{L}$$

$$F(zK,zL) = \frac{(zK)^2}{zL}$$

$$= \frac{z^2K^2}{zL}$$

$$= z\frac{K^2}{L}$$

$$= zF(K,L)$$

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constant returns to scale for any **z** > 0



Answer to part (b)

$$F(K,L) = K + L$$

$$F(zK,zL) = zK + zL$$

$$= z(K + L)$$

$$= zF(K,L)$$

constant returns to scale for any **z** > 0

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Assumptions of the model

- 1. Technology is fixed.
- 2. The economy's supplies of capital and labor are fixed at

$$K = \overline{K}$$
 and $L = \overline{L}$



Output is determined by the fixed factor supplies and the fixed state of technology:





The distribution of national income

- determined by factor prices, the prices per unit that firms pay for the factors of production
 - wage = price of L
 - rental rate = price of K



Notation

- **W** = nominal wage
- **R** = nominal rental rate
- **P** = price of output
- W/P = real wage
 (measured in units of output)
- **R**/**P** = real rental rate

How factor prices are determined

- Factor prices are determined by supply and demand in factor markets.
- Recall: Supply of each factor is fixed.
- What about demand?



Demand for labor

- Assume markets are competitive: each firm takes *W*, *R*, and *P* as given.
- Basic idea:
 A firm hires each unit of labor if the cost does not exceed the benefit.
 - cost = real wage
 - benefit = marginal product of labor

Marginal product of labor (MPL)

definition:

The extra output the firm can produce using an additional unit of labor (holding other inputs fixed):

MPL = F(K, L+1) - F(K, L)

Exercise: Compute & graph MPL

- a. Determine **MPL** at each value of *L*.
- **b.** Graph the production function.
- c. Graph the *MPL* curve with **MPL** on the vertical axis and
 - L on the horizontal axis.











Diminishing marginal returns

- As a factor input is increased, its marginal product falls (other things equal).
- Intuition:
 Suppose ↑L while holding K fixed
 ⇒ fewer machines per worker
 - \Rightarrow lower worker productivity



Which of these production functions have diminishing marginal returns to labor?

a)
$$F(K,L) = 2K + 15L$$

b) $F(K,L) = \sqrt{KL}$
c) $F(K,L) = 2\sqrt{K} + 15\sqrt{L}$



Exercise (part 2)

Suppose *W/P* = 6.

- d. If *L* = 3, should firm hire more or less labor? Why?
- e. If *L* = 7, should firm hire more or less labor? Why?

L	Y	MPL
0	0	n.a.
1	10	10
2	19	9
3	27	8
4	34	7
5	40	6
6	45	5
7	49	4
8	52	3
9	54	2
10	55	1





Determining the rental rate

We have just seen that **MPL** = **W**/**P**.

The same logic shows that **MPK** = **R**/**P**:

- diminishing returns to capital: $MPK \downarrow$ as $K \uparrow$
- The *MPK* curve is the firm's demand curve for renting capital.
- Firms maximize profits by choosing K such that MPK = R/P.



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The Neoclassical Theory of Distribution

- states that each factor input is paid its marginal product
- is accepted by most economists

How income is distributed:

total labor income =
$$\frac{W}{P}\overline{L} = MPL \times \overline{L}$$

total capital income = $\frac{R}{P}\overline{K} = MPK \times \overline{K}$

If production function has constant returns to scale, then





The ratio of labor income to total income in the U.S.





The Cobb-Douglas production function has constant factor shares:

 α = capital's share of total income: capital income = **MPK** x **K** = α **Y** labor income = **MPL** x **L** = $(1 - \alpha)$ **Y**

The Cobb-Douglas production function is:

 $\mathbf{Y} = \mathbf{A}\mathbf{K}^{\alpha}\mathbf{L}^{1-\alpha}$

where **A** represents the level of technology.



Each factor's marginal product is proportional to its average product:

$$MPK = \alpha A K^{\alpha - 1} L^{1 - \alpha} = \frac{\alpha Y}{K}$$
$$MPL = (1 - \alpha) A K^{\alpha} L^{-\alpha} = \frac{(1 - \alpha) Y}{L}$$

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Outline of model

A closed economy, market-clearing model

Supply side

DONE factor markets (supply, demand, price)
 DONE determination of output/income

Demand side

Next \rightarrow \Box determinants of C, I, and G

<u>Equilibrium</u>

goods market

Ioanable funds market



Demand for goods & services

Components of aggregate demand:

- *C* = consumer demand for g & s
- *I* = demand for investment goods
- **G** = government demand for g & s

(closed economy: no NX)



Consumption, C

- def: Disposable income is total income minus total taxes: Y – T.
- Consumption function: C = C(Y T)Shows that $\uparrow (Y - T) \Rightarrow \uparrow C$
- def: Marginal propensity to consume (MPC) is the increase in C caused by a one-unit increase in disposable income.



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- The investment function is *I* = *I*(*r*),
 where *r* denotes the real interest rate,
 the nominal interest rate corrected for inflation.
- The real interest rate is
 - the cost of borrowing
 - the opportunity cost of using one's own funds to finance investment spending.

So,
$$\uparrow \boldsymbol{r} \Rightarrow \downarrow \boldsymbol{I}$$



The investment function

Spending on investment goods depends negatively on the real interest rate.

Ι

I(r)

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Government spending, G

- **G** = govt spending on goods and services.
- G excludes transfer payments

 (e.g., social security benefits,
 unemployment insurance benefits).
- Assume government spending and total taxes are exogenous:

$$\boldsymbol{G}=\overline{\boldsymbol{G}}$$
 and $\boldsymbol{T}=\overline{\boldsymbol{T}}$



The market for goods & services

- Aggregate demand: $C(\overline{Y} \overline{T}) + I(r) + \overline{G}$
- Aggregate supply: $\overline{Y} = F(\overline{K}, \overline{L})$
- Equilibrium: $\overline{Y} = C(\overline{Y} \overline{T}) + I(r) + \overline{G}$
- The real interest rate adjusts to equate demand with supply.



The loanable funds market

- A simple supply-demand model of the financial system.
- One asset: "loanable funds"
 - demand for funds: investment
 - supply of funds: saving
 - "price" of funds: real interest rate



Demand for funds: Investment

The demand for loanable funds...

- <u>comes from investment</u>:
 Firms borrow to finance spending on plant & equipment, new office buildings, etc.
 Consumers borrow to buy new houses.
- <u>depends negatively on r</u>, the "price" of loanable funds (cost of borrowing).



Loanable funds demand curve

The investment curve is also the demand curve for loanable funds.

I(r)

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Supply of funds: Saving

- The supply of loanable funds comes from saving:
 - Households use their saving to make bank deposits, purchase bonds and other assets. These funds become available to firms to borrow to finance investment spending.
 - The government may also contribute to saving if it does not spend all the tax revenue it receives.



Types of saving

- **private saving** = (Y T) C
- public saving = T G

national saving, S

= private saving + public saving

$$= (Y - T) - C + T - G$$

$$= Y - C - G$$

Notation: Δ = change in a variable

• For any variable X, $\Delta X =$ "the change in X" Δ is the Greek (uppercase) letter *Delta*

Examples:

• If $\Delta L = 1$ and $\Delta K = 0$, then $\Delta Y = MPL$. More generally, if $\Delta K = 0$, then $MPL = \frac{\Delta Y}{\Delta L}$.

•
$$\Delta(Y-T) = \Delta Y - \Delta T$$
, so

$$\Delta \mathbf{C} = \mathbf{MPC} \times (\Delta \mathbf{Y} - \Delta \mathbf{T})$$

 $= MPC \Delta Y - MPC \Delta T$



EXERCISE: Calculate the change in saving

Suppose *MPC* = 0.8 and *MPL* = 20.

For each of the following, compute ΔS :

- **a**. ∆*G* = 100
- **b**. ΔT = 100
- **c**. $\Delta Y = 100$
- d. $\Delta L = 10$



$\Delta \boldsymbol{S} = \Delta \boldsymbol{Y} - \Delta \boldsymbol{C} - \Delta \boldsymbol{G} = \Delta \boldsymbol{Y} - 0.8(\Delta \boldsymbol{Y} - \Delta \boldsymbol{T}) - \Delta \boldsymbol{G}$ $= 0.2 \Delta \boldsymbol{Y} + 0.8 \Delta \boldsymbol{T} - \Delta \boldsymbol{G}$

- **a.** $\Delta S = -100$
- **b.** $\Delta S = 0.8 \times 100 = 80$
- **C.** $\Delta S = 0.2 \times 100 = 20$
- d. $\Delta Y = MPL \times \Delta L = 20 \times 10 = 200$,
 - $\Delta \boldsymbol{S} = 0.2 \times \Delta \boldsymbol{Y} = 0.2 \times 200 = 40.$



digression: Budget surpluses and deficits

- If T > G, budget surplus = (T G)
 = public saving.
- If T < G, budget deficit = (G T)and public saving is negative.
- If T = G, "balanced budget," public saving = 0.
- The U.S. government finances its deficit by issuing Treasury bonds *i.e.*, borrowing.



U.S. Federal Government Surplus/Deficit, 1940-2005



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Loanable funds supply curve

r

National saving does not depend on *r*, so the supply curve is vertical. $\overline{\boldsymbol{S}} = \overline{\boldsymbol{Y}} - \boldsymbol{C}(\overline{\boldsymbol{Y}} - \overline{\boldsymbol{T}}) - \overline{\boldsymbol{G}}$

S, *I*

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The special role of *r*

r adjusts to equilibrate the goods market <u>and</u> the loanable funds market simultaneously:

If L.F. market in equilibrium, then

Y - C - G = I

Add (C+G) to both sides to get

Y = C + I + G (goods market eq'm)

Thus,

Digression: Mastering models

To master a model, be sure to know:

- 1. Which of its variables are endogenous and which are exogenous.
- For each curve in the diagram, know
 a. definition
 - b. intuition for slope
 - c. all the things that can shift the curve
- 3. Use the model to analyze the effects of each item in 2c.



Mastering the loanable funds model

Things that shift the saving curve

- public saving
 - fiscal policy: changes in G or T
- private saving
 - preferences
 - tax laws that affect saving
 - -401(k)
 - -IRA
 - -replace income tax with consumption tax



- Reagan policies during early 1980s:
 - increases in defense spending: $\Delta G > 0$
 - big tax cuts: $\Delta T < 0$
- Both policies reduce national saving:



CASE STUDY: The Reagan deficits

- The increase in the deficit reduces saving...
- 2. ...which causes the real interest rate to rise...
 - 3. ...which reduces the level of investment.





Are the data consistent with these results?

variable	1970s	1980s	
T – G	-2.2	-3.9	
S	19.6	17.4	
r	1.1	6.3	
Ι	19.9	19.4	

T–*G*, *S*, and *I* are expressed as a percent of GDP All figures are averages over the decade shown.





- Draw the diagram for the loanable funds model.
- Suppose the tax laws are altered to provide more incentives for private saving. (Assume that total tax revenue *T* does not change)
- What happens to the interest rate and investment?



Mastering the loanable funds model, continued

Things that shift the investment curve

- some technological innovations
 - to take advantage of the innovation, firms must buy new investment goods
- tax laws that affect investment
 - investment tax credit



Saving and the interest rate

- Why might saving depend on r?
- How would the results of an increase in investment demand be different?
 - Would r rise as much?
 - Would the equilibrium value of *I* change?



An increase in investment demand when saving depends on *r*

An increase in investment demand raises *r*, which induces an increase in the quantity of saving, which allows *I* to increase.



Chapter Summary

- Total output is determined by
 - the economy's quantities of capital and labor
 - the level of technology
- Competitive firms hire each factor until its marginal product equals its price.
- If the production function has constant returns to scale, then labor income plus capital income equals total income (output).

Chapter Summary

- A closed economy's output is used for
 - consumption
 - investment
 - government spending
- The real interest rate adjusts to equate the demand for and supply of
 - goods and services
 - Ioanable funds

Chapter Summary

- A decrease in national saving causes the interest rate to rise and investment to fall.
- An increase in investment demand causes the interest rate to rise, but does not affect the equilibrium level of investment if the supply of loanable funds is fixed.