

# Long-Run Consequences of Stabilization Policies

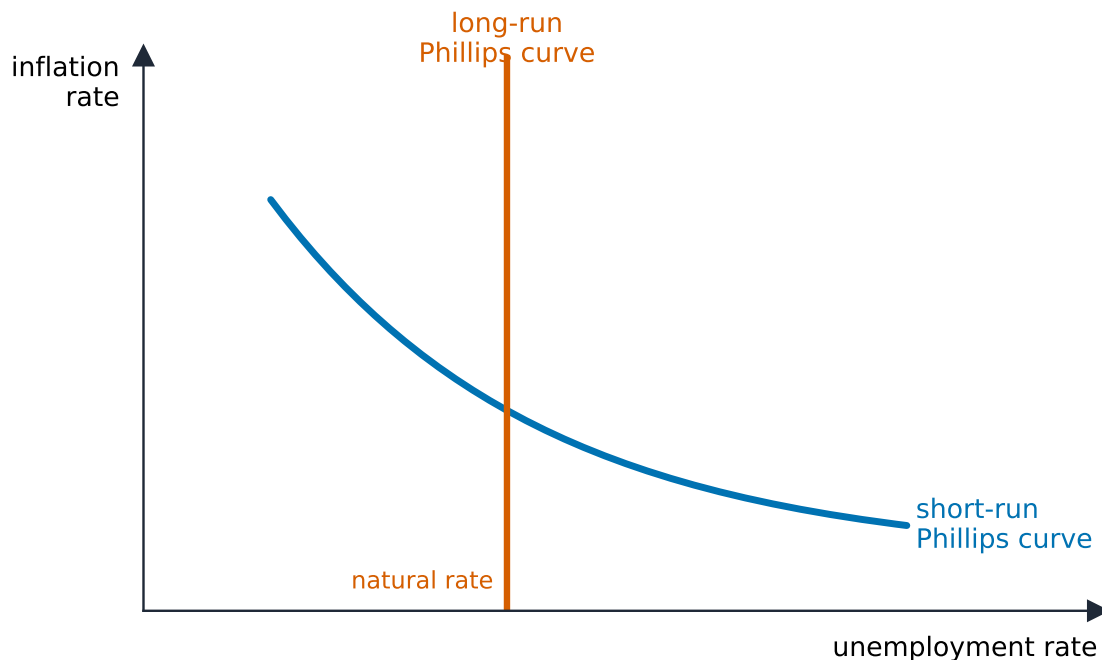
AP Macroeconomics

## Fiscal and Monetary Policy in the Short Run

Both policies work by shifting **AD** in the short run. **Fiscal policy** 财政政策 changes government spending or taxes; **monetary policy** 货币政策 changes the money supply and thus the interest rate. They can work **together** (both expansionary to fight a deep recession) or be **mixed** (e.g. loose fiscal + tight monetary). In the short run, expansionary policy raises output and the price level and lowers unemployment; contractionary policy does the reverse.

## The Phillips Curve

The **Phillips curve** 菲利普斯曲线 shows the short-run trade-off between **inflation** and **unemployment**:



*The short-run and long-run Phillips curves*

- The **short-run Phillips curve (SRPC)** 短期菲利普斯曲线 slopes **downward** – lower unemployment comes with higher inflation. It is the mirror image of AD-AS: a rightward AD shift moves the economy up-left along the SRPC (less unemployment, more inflation).
- The **long-run Phillips curve (LRPC)** 长期菲利普斯曲线 is **vertical** at the **natural rate of unemployment** 自然失业率—the counterpart of vertical LRAS. In the long run there is **no** trade-off: policy changes inflation, not unemployment.

- A **supply shock** shifts the SRPC (a negative shock moves it right –worse inflation *and* unemployment, i.e. stagflation). A change in **expected inflation** also shifts the SRPC.

**Exam skill:** link the AD-AS and Phillips graphs –a recessionary gap in AD-AS corresponds to a point on the SRPC to the **right** of the natural rate; know what shifts SRPC versus moves along it.

## Money Growth and Inflation

In the long run, **inflation is a monetary phenomenon**. The **quantity theory of money** 货币数量论 states  $M \times V = P \times Y$  (money supply  $\times$  velocity = price level  $\times$  real output). With velocity  $V$  and real output  $Y$  roughly stable in the long run, growth in the **money supply** translates almost one-for-one into **inflation**. Printing money faster than the economy grows raises the price level, not real output –the root of high inflation and, in the extreme, **hyperinflation** 恶性通货膨胀.

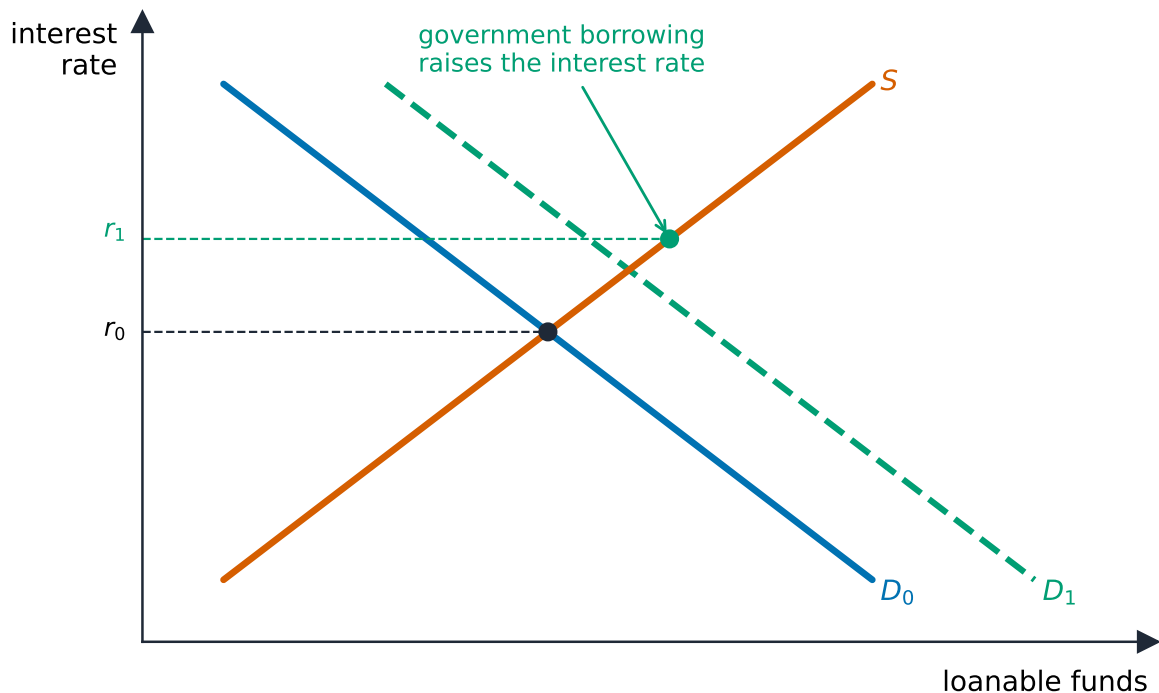
**Worked example.** Suppose the money supply grows 8% per year while real output  $Y$  grows 3% and velocity  $V$  is stable. Rearranging  $M \times V = P \times Y$  into growth rates, inflation  $\approx 8\% - 3\% = 5\%$ . The 5% of money growth not matched by extra output simply becomes higher prices.

## Government Deficits and the National Debt

A **budget deficit** 预算赤字 occurs when government spending exceeds tax revenue in a year (a **surplus** 盈余 is the reverse). The accumulated total of past deficits is the **national debt** 国债. Deficits are financed by **borrowing** –selling government bonds – which adds to the debt and to future interest payments. Persistent deficits raise concerns about crowding out and the burden of servicing the debt.

## Crowding Out

**Crowding out** 挤出效应 is the main long-run cost of deficit-financed fiscal policy. When the government borrows heavily, it increases the **demand for loanable funds**, raising the **real interest rate**. Higher rates **reduce private investment** (and interest-sensitive consumption). So expansionary fiscal policy partly cancels itself: the AD boost is offset by weaker investment. Worse, less investment today means a smaller capital stock and **slower long-run growth**.



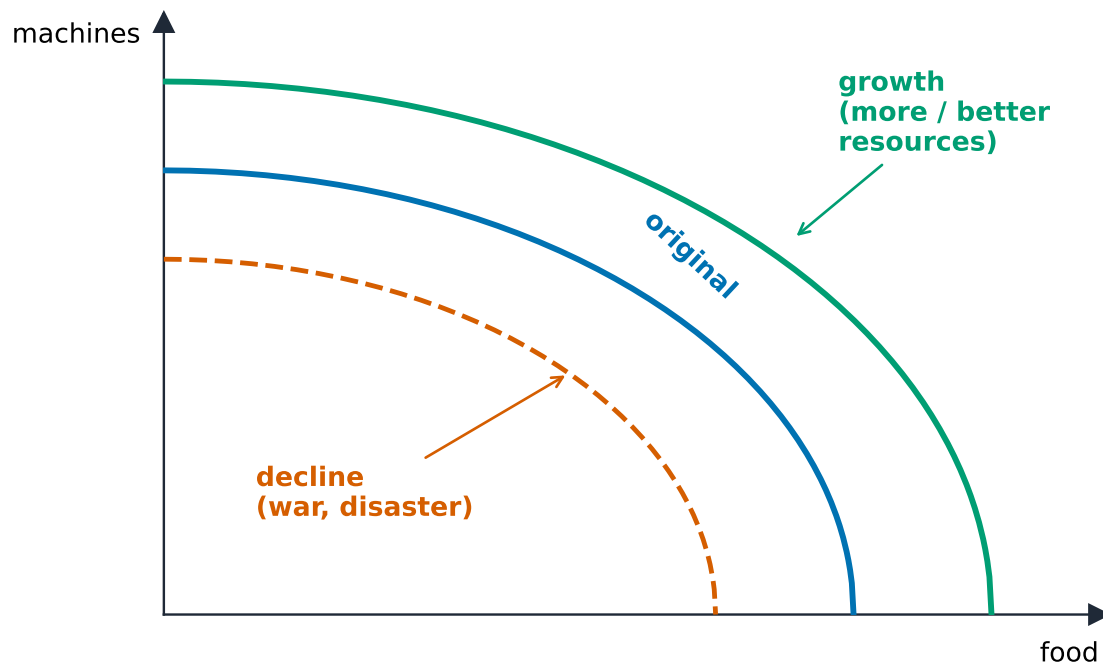
*Government borrowing raises interest rates and crowds out private investment*

**Exam skill:** show crowding out on the **loanable funds** graph –government borrowing shifts demand right, the real interest rate rises, and private investment falls.

**Worked example.** A government borrows \$500 billion to finance a deficit. On the loanable funds market this shifts the demand for funds right, pushing the real interest rate up (say from 3% to 4%). At the higher rate firms scale back investment –perhaps by \$150 billion –so the net boost to AD is smaller than the \$500 billion, and the lost investment slows long-run growth.

## Economic Growth

**Economic growth** 经济增长 is a sustained rise in **real GDP per capita** –the true source of higher living standards. It comes from more or better resources and is shown as a **rightward shift of LRAS** (and an outward shift of the PPC). Its main drivers:



*Economic growth shifts the production possibilities curve outward*

- **physical capital** 实物资本 (more tools and machines per worker),
- **human capital** 人力资本 (education, skills, health),
- **technology** 技术和 innovation,
- **productivity** 生产率 (output per worker) growth, the deepest driver.

## Public Policy and Economic Growth

Governments can raise long-run growth by policies that build capital and productivity: **investment in infrastructure and education**, **research and development** incentives, protecting **property rights** 产权 and the rule of law, encouraging **saving and investment** (which finances capital), and keeping inflation low and stable. The recurring long-run theme: policies that **crowd out** or discourage investment slow growth, while those that **encourage** capital formation speed it up.

### Exam tips

- The short-run **Phillips curve** shows the inflation–unemployment trade-off; the long-run curve is **vertical** at the natural rate.
- In the long run inflation is a **monetary** phenomenon (money growth beyond output growth → inflation).
- Show **crowding out** on the loanable-funds graph: government borrowing raises the real rate and cuts private investment.
- Growth comes from more/better resources —physical capital, human capital, technology —shifting LRAS right.

- A supply shock moves inflation and unemployment the same way (stagflation), unlike a demand shock.