CONTEMPORARY CONCEPTS OF THE PHILLIPS CURVE 
AND MACROECONOMIC STABILIZATION POLICY

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Abstract
The stabilization of economic activity represents the basic purpose of macroeconomic policy. In the last few years, the achievement of price stability, or the relatively low and stable inflation rate, has been imposed as the policy’s main goal, in accordance with the recommendations of the so-called New consensus macroeconomics. In line with that, the identification of variables, which determine the inflation rate and cause its changes, is crucial. From its occurrence, the relationship of the Phillips curve provided an explanation of the inflation dynamics based on the movement of different factors, depending on the variant of the curve observed. Hence, the subject of the paper is to reconsider the concept’s validity, especially in the conditions of serious economic disorders, such as the Great Recession. The applied analysis indicates that the dominant New Keynesian concept of the Phillips curve can serve for the successful conducting of economic policy, if it is supplemented with the variables of fiscal policy and financial stability policy.

Key words: Phillips curve, economic policy, inflation rate, unemployment, Great Recession.
1. INTRODUCTION

The Phillips curve represents one of the most famous macroeconomic relationships and the concept is followed by numerous controversies. Since its inception to date, it has suffered several significant changes, stimulated by the differences in the theoretical assumptions and attitudes of mainstream economics, but also those outside of it.

The influence of changes in different variables on the inflation rate dynamics, in the observed economy, is modeled by the Phillips curve. Its importance and actuality, in the context of modern economies’ functioning, is the result of the decision that the basic objective of economic policy should be price stability, i.e. a relatively low and stable inflation rate. In line with the dominant insight in macroeconomic theory, called new neoclassical synthesis (or new consensus macroeconomics), which has been present in professional and academic public during the last two decades, price stability is actually the result of the fulfillment of other macroeconomic goals. These goals are related to the real sector and they are reflected in achieving as lower discrepancy as possible between the actual and natural rate of unemployment, and the actual and potential output, respectively. In that way, the Phillips curve relationship indicates which variables should be treated by instruments of monetary and fiscal policy, and the extent of that treatment, in order to minimize inflationary pressures and provide macroeconomic stability.

In line with that, the subject of the paper is the representation and evaluation of the contemporary concepts of the Phillips curve. The focus of the research is on the concepts of the curve developed in mainstream economics, generally shaped in the form of the so-called New Keynesian Phillips curve. Moreover, the validity of the macroeconomic relation in the context of serious economic disorders during the last two decades (The Global economic crisis, i.e. the Great Recession) is evaluated in the paper. The analysis was carried out in terms of the possibility to formulate adequate measures for the stabilization of the macroeconomic policy on the basis of this relation.
2. THE EMERGENCE AND EVOLUTION OF THE PHILLIPS CURVE CONCEPT

The Phillips curve was created sixty years ago, i.e. in 1958, when New Zealand’s economist, Alban Phillips, published the research, in which he discovered the decreasing function between the rate of nominal wage changes and the unemployment rate in Great Britain between 1861 and 1957 (Phillips, 1958). Two years later, Richard Lipsey gave a theoretical explanation of the relationship, pointing out that the wage change as an increasing function of the excess demand for labor, represented by the unemployment rate (Lipsey, 1960). Paul Samuelson and Robert Solow modified the relationship by introducing the inflation rate instead of wage rate change, and called it the Phillips curve (Samuelson & Solow, 1960). The traditional version of the curve is presented in Figure 1.

![Figure 1 Traditional Phillips curve](Image)

Source: Samuelson & Solow, 1960, p. 192.

This relation became the basis of the Keynesian macroeconomic theory and policy, and it was based on the trade-off between the inflation and unemployment, in line with the preferences of policy makers regarding the values of the variables: lower unemployment rate and higher inflation rate (point A), or lower inflation rate and higher unemployment rate (point B).

At the end of 1960s, there was an increase in inflation in many countries, which was not accompanied by a decrease in unemployment (stagflation) and this lead to the abandonment of this variant of the Phillips curve. The Monetarists, headed by Milton Friedman, redefined the relationship between inflation and unemployment within the Phillips curve by pointing out that the trade-off between these variables exists only in the short run, that is, the Phillips curve is vertical in the long run (Friedman, 1968, pp. 1-17). In the long run, the unemployment rate gravitates to the
natural rate of unemployment, which exists when the labor market is in equilibrium. Any attempt of policy makers to maintain unemployment below the natural rate in the long run, will result in an increase in inflation rate and that is the lowest rate that can be achieved without putting pressure on the inflation rate (Blaug, 1996, p. 680). The monetarist variant of the Phillips curve can be presented as follows (Tsoulfidis, 2010, p. 306):

$$\pi_t = \pi'_t - \beta(u_t - u'_t), \quad \beta > 0$$

where: $\pi_t$ denotes the actual inflation rate in period $t$, $\pi'_t$ represents the expected inflation rate in the same period, $u_t$ denotes actual unemployment rate in period $t$, while $u'_t$ signifies the natural rate of unemployment. Thus, the increases in the expected inflation, as well as the reduction of the actual relative to the natural rate of unemployment, are the main causes of the current inflation rate growth.

During the 1970s, the New classical school rejected the monetarist concept of the Phillips curve by introducing the rational expectations hypothesis. According to that insight, the trade-off between unemployment and inflation in the short run, as a result of the monetary surprise (money illusion), does not reflect the real behavior of individuals. Since economic agents behave rationally and do not make systematic mistakes, the unemployment rate will be equal to the natural rate all the time – the Phillips curve will be vertical (Sheffrin, 1996, p. 27).

These tendencies have led to the separation of theoretical elements that have become an integral part of the Phillips curve concept. Based on the debate regarding the optimal variant of this relationship, a contemporary form of the Phillips curve emerged, representing a part of the new consensus in macroeconomic theory and policy.

3. NEW KEYNESIAN PHILLIPS CURVE
AND THE CONTEMPORARY ECONOMIC POLICY

In the theoretical development of the Phillips curve concept to date, the connection between the expectations of economic agents and economic policy has been singled out, becoming one of the key determinants of the inflation rate. Additionally, putting emphasis on the real factors of inflation, in terms of deviation of the actual output from its trend (potential output), has become an additional determinant of the inflationary processes. In this context, a contemporary variant of the Phillips curve, also known as the New Keynesian Phillips curve, was created.

New Keynesian Phillips curve is based on the so-called Calvo model, which explains the nominal price rigidity in terms of monopolistic competition (Calvo, 1993, pp. 383-398). It is based on the assumption that every firm keeps prices at a given level until it receives a random signal that it can change the price. This means that, in each period of the observation, the prices of certain firms’ products are unchanged, which
results in a certain degree of general price level rigidity. The current inflation rate depends on the level of the future inflation rate, expected by the public in the current period, as well as the deviation of the actual gross domestic product from its potential level (output gap). In line with that, the relationship of the New Keynesian Phillips curve can be shown in the following way (Gali, 2000, p. 6):

$$\pi_t = \beta E_t(\pi_{t+1}) + \lambda k(y_t - y^*_t),$$

where $\pi_t$ denotes the current inflation rate, $E_t(\pi_{t+1})$ represents actual expectations of the future inflation rate, $\lambda$ denotes the function of price change frequency, and $y_t$ and $y^*_t$ represent the actual and potential output in period $t$, respectively. In this case, expectations based on past information are replaced with expectations that are based on “looking ahead,” or rational expectations. Therefore, the current inflation depends on the expected future inflation rate. It is the key difference between this variant of the Phillips curve and the monetarist version (with the model of acceleration), but also the new classical one, which includes rational expectations. In the monetarist Phillips curve with adaptive expectations of economic agents, current inflation rate depends on past inflation. In the new classical version of the Phillips curve, the current inflation depends on the expected future inflation rate. The relationship of the New Keynesian Phillips curve also implies that the rate of inflation is a function of the current output gap (a deviation of actual output from its potential level), and there is a possibility of “bouncy” changes in the inflation rate due to shocks arising from the supply side and demand side (Dufour, Khalaf & Kichian, 2005, p.1).

Setting the price stability as the main objective of macroeconomic policy in modern economies, with the view that one could more flexibly respond to economic disorders with the use of monetary policy instruments than with the application of fiscal policy (due to less administrative lags), resulted in giving priority to monetary rather than fiscal policy. As the expectations of economic agents on future inflation rate is an important determinant of the realized inflation rate in the New Keynesian Phillips curve, the importance of conducting monetary policy in a systematic, credible, and transparent manner, by applying different monetary rules (e.g. Taylor rule) is emphasized. The basic instrument in enforcing these rules is the central bank’s control of the short-run interest rate (referent rate), whose change consequently causes changes in market rates. In this way, a signal on the current course of monetary policy is sent to the public, which encourages the expectation of the lower inflation rate in the future period and reduces the actual rate. Moreover, the central bank can influence the actual output dynamics through other channels of the transmission mechanism of monetary policy (credit channel, channel of asset prices, exchange rate channel, etc.), and minimize its deviation in relation to the potential output (output gap), thereby reducing the inflationary pressures.
addition, the significance of the fiscal policy in macroeconomic stabilization is not completely reduced. By applying different fiscal rules, it seeks to achieve medium and long run goals in the form of fiscal sustainability and the stability of public finances, as this enables more efficient monetary policy.

The New Keynesian Phillips curve validity is confirmed by numerous empirical researches. For example, Bjørnstad and Nymoen analyzed the data about the expected inflation rate and the real marginal costs in twenty OECD countries and showed that the relation between these variables confirms the explained theoretical point of view (Bjørnstad & Nymoen, 2008). Similar conclusions are offered by Tillmann, who examined the sustainability of the New Keynesian Phillips curve in the euro zone (Tillmann, 2008).

On the other hand, there is strong empirical evidence that this relation has its weaknesses. Guay and Pelgrin, among others, showed that the New Keynesian Phillips curve in the United States in the period from 1960 to 1997 poorly represented the actual movement of the inflation rate. In their study, the impact of the expected rate of inflation at the current rate has been particularly controversial (Guay & Pelgrin, 2004). Batini, Jackson and Nickell have examined the applicability of the New Keynesian Phillips curve in the case of an open economy, in the case of the United Kingdom. They concluded that the level of employment affects the inflation rate, and that the prices of imported goods and oil prices represent an important factor. This variant of the Phillips curve works well if the way in which real marginal costs are included in the analysis is modified (Batini, Jackson & Nickell, 2005). Similar conclusions came from Baug, Cappelen and Swensen, analyzing data on the dynamics of inflation in Norway (Baug, Cappelen & Swensen, 2011).

If the previous evidence is supplemented with insight of some authors who proved that the relation of the New Keynesian Phillips curve is hard to verify it empirically (e.g., Fuhrer, 1997; Eller & Gordon, 2003), and if one adds the fact that this relation predicts lowering the inflation rate without any significant increase in the unemployment rate, it is clear that the need for its improvement emerged soon after its introduction. This followed the emergence of the so-called Hybrid New Keynesian Phillips curve, proposed by Galí and Gertler (Galí & Gertler, 1999). In this version of the curve, the inflation rate depends on both the expected future rate ($E_t \pi_{t+1}$) and the inflation rate from the previous period ($\pi_{t-1}$). Also, the output gap is replaced by the real marginal costs which represent the influence of the real sector on the inflation rate. It is assumed that if the firms in forming and changing the prices of their products try to maintain a constant mark-up, then the growth of the real marginal cost creates the inflationary pressures. The changes in marginal costs also reflect the impact of the change in the productivity on the inflation rate.
If it is assumed that the discount factor $\beta$ in the New Keynesian Phillips curve equals one, and the labor force is the only product input (so that the increase in the cost of wage payments directly causes the increase in prices), the Hybrid New Keynesian Phillips curve can be presented as follows (Bludnik, 2009, p. 18):

$$\pi_t = (1-\omega)\pi_{t-1} + \omega\pi_{t-1} + \lambda mc_t,$$

where $\omega$ and $1-\omega$ represent the share of economic agents that form their expectations on adaptive, i.e. rational expectations, and $mc_t$ denotes real marginal cost. Thus, the value of the parameter $\omega$ reflects the impact of the past on the actual inflation rate, while the value $1-\omega$ represents the impact of the expected on the actual inflation rate.

The Hybrid New Keynesian Phillips curve provides a more convincing explanation of the relationship between inflation and production (unemployment), which is consistent with both the New Keynesian and New classical school’s views. However, there is also criticisms against the concept of the Phillips curve. For instance, Snower and Karanassou criticize the attitude of the relationship between inflation and output (unemployment) in the long run. According to these authors, if the share of individuals with adaptive expectations is greater than the share of those with rational expectations, the long-run Phillips curve will be negatively sloped, that is, nominal wages and prices will not follow the changes in money supply, therefore monetary growth will lead to an increase in real money supply and output. On the other hand, if there are more economic agents that form expectations in a rational way, the long-run New Keynesian Phillips curve will be positively sloped. Since current prices and wages depend on the expected future money supply, the change in nominal variables will precede the changes in the monetary sphere, which means that monetary expansion will lead to a reduction in the real money supply and output. Among the empirical research of the Hybrid Phillips curve, we emphasize as noteworthy the paper of Leith and Malley in which they examined the way companies in the group of the seven most developed countries (G-7) determine prices in the conditions of monopolistic competition. The results of the study confirmed the validity of the hybrid variant of the Phillips curve, and the reverse relationship between the number of companies that formed the prices on the basis of adaptive expectations and the inflation rate volatility was recognized (Leith & Malley, 2007). By analyzing the data for nine transition countries, Basarac, Škrabić and Sorić discovered a long-term co-integrative relationship between the actual and expected inflation and output gap, which served as an approximation for real marginal costs (Basarac, Škrabić and Sorić, 2011).

Numerous controversies that follow the contemporary relationship of the Phillips curve unambiguously confirm that the debate about the
choice of its optimal variant still lasts. The basic conditions that this relationship will have to fulfill are the adequate empirical verification and compliance with the dominant theoretical model of economy functioning as its vital part. However, the reevaluation of the Phillips curve and accordingly based stabilization policies are particularly important in the context of economic disorders, especially those that marked the last decade.

4. THE PHILLIPS CURVE AND STABILIZATION POLICY IN THE AFTERMATH OF THE CRISIS

The Great Economic Crisis or, as most frequently referred to in the relevant literature, the Great Recession, emerged initially in the United States in 2008, and then spread to the global economy. The financial crisis occurred one year earlier. The crisis represented a kind of a “shock” for economic policy makers and most of the economic theorists, and is considered the greatest since the Great Depression (1929-1933). The financial crisis arose in the mortgage market in the United States, after the “bursting” of the speculative bubble, as a result of a sharp decrease in asset prices after years of growth. The tendency, coupled with financial liberalization, enabled the incorporation of a wide range of financial instruments intended for the so-called securitization of deposits and the multiplication of mortgage loans. Financial disturbances in a large number of countries have caused negative tendencies in the real sector of the economy, through the impact on the decline in consumption and investment, the current account deficit and the exchange rate depreciation, leading to the global economic crisis.

Many economists believe that, apart from the absence of efficient financial regulation, the cause of these flaws was the excessively accommodative monetary policy of the Federal Reserve Board. Interest rates reduction began during the Asian Financial Crisis (1997-1998), and that kind of policy continued after the bursting of so-called “dot-com bubble” and the recession in the United States at the beginning of the new millennium (Lin, 2013, p. 2). In combination with financial innovation, these tendencies have led to excessive liquidity, credit expansion, and the creation of price bubbles. Focusing on the stabilization of the inflation at the target rate, central banks ignored the fact that expansive monetary policy can lead to excessive growth of asset prices.

Although the obvious shortcomings in the approach to monetary policy were manifested, mainstream economists pointed out that, in theory, the monetary policy in the inflation targeting regime managed to achieve its goal – medium run stability of prices and inflation expectations. In addition, some empirical researches, such as the analysis conducted by Carvalho Filho, confirmed that during the crisis in countries applying the inflation targeting regime, there was a slight increase in the unemployment rate and a slight
decrease in the industrial production (Carvalho Filho, 2010). According to Michael Woodford, the monetary policy conducted by the central bank before the crisis did not deviate from the set goals and, according to that aspect, cannot be criticized. However, he points out that it is necessary to reevaluate the consensus view that existed over two decades before the crisis: that the central bank, which “targets” the given inflation rate, should not worry about the movement of asset prices and, in general, financial stability, except when these factors affect the expected inflation rate (Woodford, 2012, p. 2).

These tendencies led to the reevaluation of the general view about the role and scope of monetary policy, based on inflation targeting. Additional motive for the process lies in the empirical evidence that monetary policy during the financial disorders has stronger and more persistent effect on macroeconomic variables, such as output, consumption and investments (Dahlhaus, 2014). In the New Keynesian Phillips curve relation, as well as in the hybrid variant, monetary policy is implemented by controlling the interest rate rather than controlling the money supply, as was the case earlier. However, in recent years there are arguments in favor of incorporating monetary supply variables into monetary policy rules, which significantly influences the dominant concept of the Phillips curve. Namely, monetary aggregates can serve as an approximation to the values of monetary policy variables that are not directly observable, or whose value is known after a significant period. These variables can include output gap, equilibrium interest rate, and the natural rate of unemployment. Moreover, money can play an important role in monetary policy transmission to the prices level, and it provides the so-called nominal anchor, as monetary policy that responds to changes in monetary aggregates contributes to reducing inflationary expectations, which are often self-fulfilling (Masuch, Nicoletti-Altimari, Rostagno & Pill, 2013, p. 159).

Based on the above arguments, it is argued that money supply should become the primary indicator for predicting the future inflation rate, rather than explicit (transitory or final) goal (Laurens et al., 2015, p. 33). Nevertheless, stated arguments were not sufficient for the general change in the approach to monetary policy in theory and practice. The European Central Bank represents an exception, as it gave greater importance to money supply in defining of the monetary policy, thus basing its monetary policy on two “pillars” (European Central Bank, 1999, pp. 39-50). The first pillar is based on monitoring the growth rate of the selected monetary aggregate. The reason for its introduction is in an empirically proven relationship between money supply and inflation rate in the medium and long run. The second pillar of monetary policy focuses on the final goal of monetary policy, which is the inflation rate (Schneider & Harff, 2001, pp. 4-5). In addition, the analysis in the second pillar is focused on the movement of real factors of the inflation rate from short to medium run, such as the actual output dynamics
and its relationship with the potential output, the relationship between the actual and natural rate of unemployment and the dynamics of the real interest rate.

This monetary strategy also implied the introduction of the “two-pillar Phillips curve”. It was suggested by Stefan Gerlach, believing that, a synthesis between real and monetary factors of the change in the inflation rate could be achieved in such a manner (Gerlach, 2003). The expected future inflation rate in the current period is explained by the trend of monetary supply growth in the previous period. In addition to the monetary factors, the real factors are also present in the relationship. The inclusion of the variable referring to the monetary growth rate is based on evidence that the inflation rate dynamics in the euro zone can be divided into two components: one with a higher frequency – which depends on the rate of monetary growth, and the other – with a lower frequency, under the influence of output gap dynamics. The change in the rate of monetary growth affects the movement of the Phillips curve, which can be represented by the following relationship (Spahn, 2007, p. 3):

$$\pi_t = \delta \pi_{t+1} + \kappa \pi_{t-1} + \alpha y_{t-1} + \epsilon_t,$$

where $\pi_t$ denotes the actual inflation rate, $\pi_{t+1}$ and $\pi_{t-1}$ denote the expected future rate and the inflation rate in the previous period, respectively, $y_{t-1}$ represents the logarithmic value of the output gap in the previous period and $\epsilon_t$ denotes the supply shocks in the current period. The actual inflation rate depends on the expected future rate, but also on the rate of inertial inflation (from the previous period), with their relative influence being determined by the value of the parameters $\delta$ and $\kappa$ ($\delta + \kappa = 1$). The expected future inflation rate depends on the trend of the monetary supply growth in the previous period:

$$\pi_{t+1}^e = m_t^T.$$

This view of the Phillips curve was challenged by the economists who advocate the exclusion of money supply from this relationship, despite the fact that Gerlach showed that the money supply rate dynamics can explain the movement of the equilibrium (base) inflation rate (Woodford, 2008, pp. 56-82). Also, the empirical research on the case of Switzerland, conducted by Gerlach-Kristen, confirmed that monitoring the rate of monetary growth, as well as the current inflation rate and output gap, can help to predict the future inflation rate, which is an important aspect of a successful monetary policy (Gerlach-Kristen, 2006). Yet, the dominant view that the central bank should rely on the interest rate as a monetary policy instrument in the inflation targeting regime was kept. In addition, it turned out that, in the conditions of serious disturbances, such as the Great Recession, the application of discretionary fiscal policy is the most
significant way to cope with the effects of the crisis and provide economic recovery. This thesis was confirmed in numerous studies (e.g., Spilimbergo et al., 2008; Attinasi & Klemm, 2014; Fetai, 2017). In this sense, the New Keynesian Phillips curve implicitly involves an integral approach to economic policy where price stability is viewed as the *conditio sine qua non* of the achievement of macroeconomic stability in a broader sense.

5. CONCLUDING REMARKS

The development of economic theory to date includes the analysis of the alternative approaches to the economic policy in the function of stabilizing economic activity as its integral part. Price stability, i.e. low and stable inflation rate, has become a precondition for achieving most of other macroeconomic goals, in line with the recommendations of the New consensus macroeconomics. This highlights the importance of exploring the key determinants of inflationary processes in modern economies, which have traditionally been modeled using the Phillips curve, on a theoretical basis.

The New Keynesian concept of the Phillips curve represents the synthesis of the development of this macroeconomic relationship to date, since it unites the elements of different theoretical approaches, such as the natural rate of unemployment, the rational expectations hypothesis and the assumption of the monopolistic competition. Macroeconomic policy based on this concept is aimed at achieving price stability through the impact on inflationary expectations of the public and on minimizing the output gap. However, highlighted shortcomings of the contemporary variant of the Phillips curve created the need for its upgrading, which, apart from the introduction of the hybrid variant, is also reflected in the construction of the “two-pillar Phillips curve”. These improvements have contributed to correcting certain limitations of the relationship.

However, the most relevant evaluation of the validity of the Phillips curve’s contemporary concept, and the economic policy based on it, is the ability to “fight” with economic disorders, such as the Great Recession. Based on the analysis in the paper, it can be concluded that the main weaknesses of the existing approach, in the context of the 2008 crisis, lie in insufficient respect for the importance of fiscal policy, and, in particular the role of the financial sector in the economy. Discretionary fiscal policy was a necessary step in the process of remedying the effects of the crisis, but its neglect in stable conditions and the insistence on fiscal rules proved unfounded. Also, the inclusion of financial variables into the New consensus macroeconomics model was an inevitable consequence of the knowledge that serious economic disturbances can be the result of negative tendencies in the financial sector. In this sense, it can be concluded that there is plenty of room for improving the existing
relationship of the Phillips curve. This can ensure the more efficient conduct of the stabilization policy and, in some cases, the prevention of the emergence of new economic crises.

REFERENCES


САВРЕМЕНИ КОНЦЕПТИ ФИЛИПСОВЕ КРИВЕ И СТАБИЛИЗАЦИОНА МАКРОЕКОНОМСКА ПОЛИТИКА

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Резиме

У оквиру тзв. новог консенсуса у макроекономији (енгл. „New consensus macroeconomics”) као основни циљ економске политике постављена је стабилност цена, односно остваривање релативно ниске и стабилне стопе инфлације. Постизање овог циља у једин це сматра предусловом остварења осталих макроекономских циљева, као што су свођење аутпут-гепа на најмању меру, редукција одступања стварне од природне стопе незапослености, равнотежа у спољно-трговинском билансу, као и стабилност јавних финансија.

Ефикасност макроекономске политике у савременим условима у значајној мери зависи од исправности односна на којима се заснива и које чине њену теоријску основу. Суштина свих тих релација је да одражавају утицај различитих фактора на циљану варијаблу. Будући да релација Филипсове криве моделира управа утицај различитих фактора на стопу инфлације, њено исправно формулисање и одговарајућа емпиријска верификација битно утичу на квалитет макроекономске политике. До сада, Филипсова крива прешла је пат од исправних (кејнзијанске) варијант, преко релације која укључује адаптивна и рационална очекивања, па до савремене, новокејнзијанске варијант Филипсова криве.

У том погледу, предмет рада је процена валидности различитих концепата Филипсова криве (Хибридна новокејнзијанска Филипсова крива, Филипсова крива „на два стуба”) на основу њихове способности да представе везе између кључних макроекономских варијабли. Тakoђе, испитана је и одрживост ове релације у контексту економских поремећаја, као што је Велика рецесија, до које је дошло 2008. године. Анализа у раду је показала да новокејнзијанска Филипсова крива, као и њена хибридна варијанта, имају значајан потенцијал за објашњење динамика стопе инфлације, али да је неопходна и њихова надградња, паралелно са унапређењем самог модела новог консенсуса у макроекономији. Она се примарно односи на увођење варијабли везаних за финансијски сектор будући да је криза показала да у том сектору могу бити генерисани извори изобилних привредних поремећаја. Тиме би се оствариле услови за ефикасну примену политике финансијске стабилности, као битног сегмента ширег концепта макро-пруденциоnée политике. Такав, интегрални, приступ економској политици могао би да допринесе ублажавању финансијских поремећаја и превенцији настанка нових привредних криза.