

EE432 Monetary Theory and Policy



Final Exam Recap III
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Chapter 20

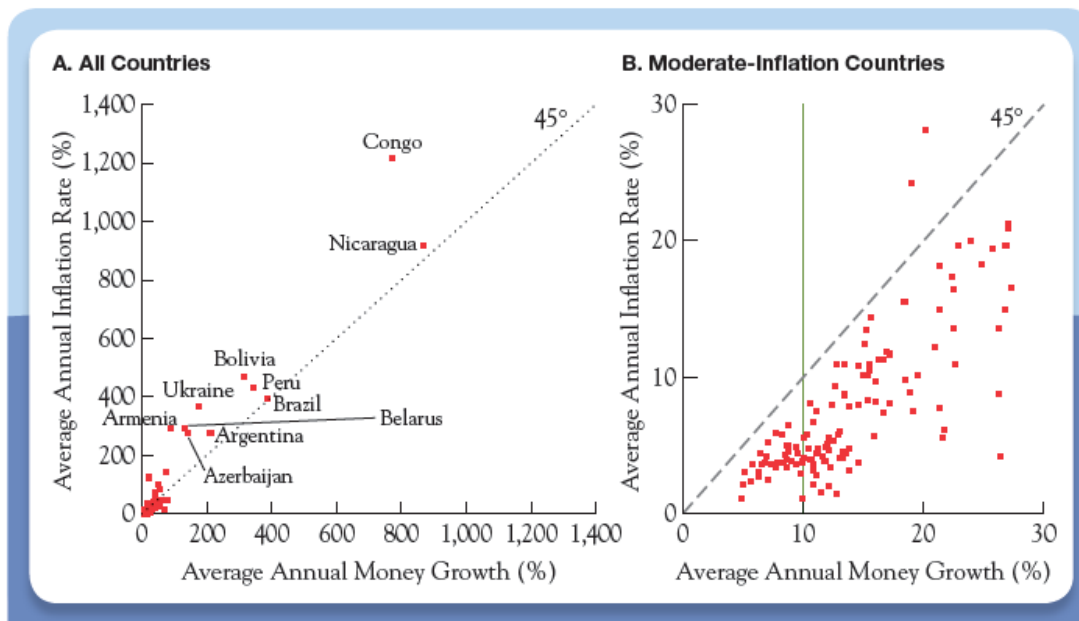


Money Growth and Money Demand

Why We Care about Monetary Aggregates

Figure 20.1

Inflation Rates and Money Growth

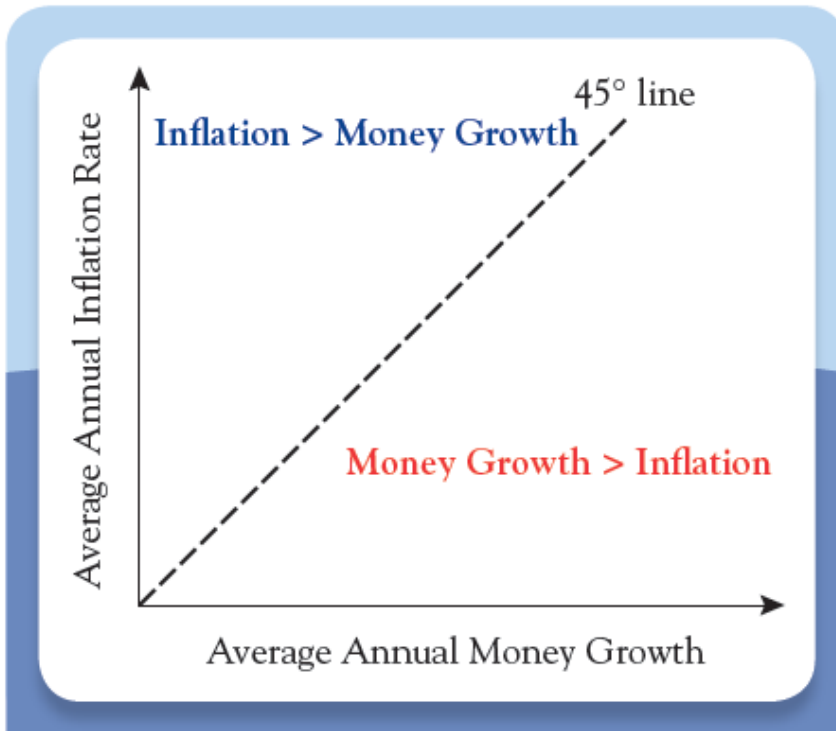


Every country with **high inflation** has **high money growth**. To avoid sustained episodes of high inflation, a **central bank** must be **concerned** with **persistent rapid money growth**.

Why We Care about Monetary Aggregates

Figure 20.2

Money Growth and Inflation



In general, **countries with very high inflation** tend to *lie above the line* and *countries with moderate to low inflation* tend to *fall below it*.

Why We Care about Monetary Aggregates

- When the **currency** that *people are holding* loses value very rapidly, they will ***spend as quickly as possible*** - the same effect on inflation *as an increase in money growth*.
- By **limiting** the ***rate*** at which they ***purchase securities***, policymakers can **control** the ***rate of M2 grow***.
- It is *impossible* to have ***high, sustained inflation*** without ***monetary accommodation***.

The Quantity Theory and the Velocity of Money

- Thinking about the **value or purchasing power** in terms of the ***goods*** needed to get *money to pay* - the ***impact of inflation***.
- Given steady demand, an ***increase*** in the **supply of money** drives the **price of money down**, *requiring more money - inflation*.
- If the central bank **continuously floods** the economy **with large amounts of money**, ***inflation will reach very high levels***.

Velocity and the Equation of Exchange

- The *number of dollars used* is the **quantity of money** in the economy: **M**
- The *number of times each dollar is used* is called the **velocity of money: V**
- **MV** represents the *value of transactions*.

Velocity and the Equation of Exchange

- Everyone **purchases** *counted in nominal GDP* requires the **use of money**.

$$(\text{Quantity of Money}) \times (\text{Velocity of money}) = \text{Nominal GDP}$$

- ***M*** is the **quantity of money**, ***V*** is the **velocity** and **nominal GDP** can be:
 - The ***price level, P*** times the ***quantity of real output, Y***.

Velocity and the Equation of Exchange

- We can **rewrite** the previous equation as:

$$MV = PY$$

- This is called the **equation of exchange**, and tells us that the ***quantity of money multiplied by its velocity equals the level of nominal GDP***.

Velocity and the Equation of Exchange

- We can ***rewrite*** the equation to allow *for the percentage change in each factor*.

$$MV = PY$$

$$\% \Delta M + \% \Delta V = \% \Delta P + \% \Delta Y$$

- ***Money growth plus velocity growth equals inflation plus real growth.***

The Quantity Theory of Money

- Suppose that there are *no important changes* occur in **payment methods** or the *cost of holding money*.
 - If the **interest rate is fixed** and there is *no financial innovation*, then velocity will be constant.
- Also assumed that real output is *determined* solely *by* **economic resources** and **production technology**, so it too is fixed in the short run.

The Quantity Theory of Money

- *Irving Fisher* concluded that money growth translates directly into inflation, an assertion that is termed the **quantity theory of money**.
- We can *reinterpret* the *quantity theory of money* to describe the equilibrium between *money demand* and *money supply*.
 - Money demanded (M^d) equals the total value of transactions *divided* by the velocity of money (V).

The Quantity Theory of Money

- For the economy as a whole, **the demand for money equals nominal GDP *divided* by velocity**:

$$M^d = \frac{1}{V} PY$$

- The **supply of money (M^s)** is *determined* by the ***central bank*** and the ***behavior of the banking system***.
- Assuming ***velocity*** and ***real output*** are **constant**, we can conclude that ***money growth equals inflation***.

The Quantity Theory of Money

The **quantity theory of money** *accounts for* some important characteristics:

1. It *tells us* why **high inflation** and **high money growth** go together.
2. It explains the tendency for ***moderate- and low-inflation countries*** to fall below the 45-degree line.

The Quantity Theory of Money

- **Money growth** tends to be *higher* than **inflation** in those countries because they are *experiencing real growth*.
- If velocity is constant, then **money growth** equals the *sum* of **inflation** and **real growth**.
- At a *given level of money growth*, the **higher** the level of **real growth**, the *lower* the level of *inflation*.
- In **countries that are growing**, **inflation** will be *lower than money growth*, causing their economies to fall below the 45-degree line.

The Facts about Velocity

- If the **velocity of money** is *constant*, it means the **trend in real growth** is *determined by* the **structure of the economy** and the **rate of technological process**.
 - This means countries **could control inflation** *directly by limiting money growth*.
- This logic led *Milton Freidman* to conclude that **central banks** should *simply set money growth* at a **constant rate**.
 - **M1 and M2** *should grow* at a rate equal to the *rate of real growth* plus the *desired level of inflation*.

The Facts about Velocity

- To make the rule viable, he **suggested changes in regulations** that would:
 - Limit banks' discretion in ***creating money***, and
 - ***Tighten the relationship between the monetary aggregates and the monetary base, reducing fluctuations in the money multiplier.***
- ***For example, an increase in the reserve requirement or restrictions on the number and types of loans banks could make.***

The Facts about Velocity

- But Friedman's recommendation that the **central bank** should **keep money growth constant** would ***stabilize inflation only if velocity were constant.***
- In countries with ***high levels of inflation, changes in velocity can probably be ignored.***
- But in countries where **inflation rate is below 10% per year**, **changes in velocity** could have a **significant impact** on the ***relationship*** between **money growth** and **inflation**.

The Facts about Velocity

- Historical data seem consistent with Fisher's conclusion: *in the **long run**, the velocity of money is stable, so that controlling inflation means **controlling the growth of the money aggregates**.*

The Facts about Velocity

- Central bankers are ***concerned about inflation over months and quarters, not years.***
- The **monetary aggregates**, even broad ones, ***can be useful guides to short-term policy only*** to the extent that they **signal changes in inflation during the periods monetary policymakers *care about*.**

The Facts about Velocity

- Notice the **increase in velocity** in the *late 1970s and early 1980s*.
- This was a period of both **high nominal interest rates** and **significant financial innovations**.
- Together these *reduced the amount of money individuals held* for a given level of transactions, *raising the velocity of money*.

The Facts about Velocity

- These data clearly suggest that **fluctuations** in the *velocity of money* are *tied to* **changes in people's desire to hold money**.
- Policymakers *must understand* the **demand for money**.

The Transactions Demand for Money

- The **quantity of money** people *hold for transactions purposes* depends on their
 - Nominal **income**,
 - The **cost of holding money**
 - The availability of **substitutes**
- The **higher people's nominal income**, the *more they will spend, needing more money*.

The Transactions Demand for Money

- Deciding *how much money to hold* depends on the costs and benefits.
- **Benefits:** *Holding money* allows people *to make payments*.
- The cost is based on **opportunity cost**.
 - The *interest* that people lose in not buying an interest-bearing bond is the *opportunity cost of holding money*.

The Transactions Demand for Money

- For a *given cost of switching*, as the **nominal interest rate rises**, people *reduce their checking account balance*, **shifting *funds*** into **higher-yield investments**.
- The **higher** the **nominal interest rate**, the **higher** the **opportunity cost of holding money**, the ***less money*** individuals ***will hold*** for ***transactions***, and the **higher** the **velocity of money**.

The Transactions Demand for Money

- At **high** levels of **inflation**, *money is losing value very quickly.*
- People respond to the **high cost of holding money** by *keeping it as little as possible.*
 - They therefore **purchase durable goods** that have zero real return - **better than negative return on currency.**
- This **relationship** explains why **inflation tends to exceed money growth** in *high-inflation countries*

The Transactions Demand for Money

- The anxious spending *drives up* the **velocity of money**.
- Because *high inflation* brings an *increase in velocity*, ***inflation*** must be higher than ***money growth*** in those countries.

The Transactions Demand for Money

- The **transactions demand for money** is *affected* by **technology**.
- **Financial innovation** allows people to *limit the amount of money they hold*.
- This **lowers** the **money holdings** at a given level of income.
 - This increases the **velocity** of your money.

The Transactions Demand for Money

- We all **hold money** to *insure* ourselves *against* **unexpected expenses**.
- We call this the **precautionary demand for money**
- The *higher* the level of *uncertainty* about the future, the **higher the demand for money** and the *lower the velocity of money* will be.

The Portfolio Demand for Money

- As a *store of value*, money provides *diversification* when **held along with** a wide variety of **other assets**.
- The **demand for bonds** *depends on* several factors including:
 - **Wealth**
 - The **return** *relative to alternative investments*
 - **Expected future interest rates** on *bonds*
 - **Risk** *relative to alternative investments*
 - **Liquidity** *relative to alternative investments*

The Portfolio Demand for Money

- As **wealth *rises***, the *quantity of all these investments*, including **money**, ***rises*** with it.
- A ***decline*** in **bond yields** will ***increase*** the portfolio **demand for money**.
- When **interest rates rise**, ***bond prices drop*** and bondholders *suffer a capital loss*.
 - **bonds will become less attractive than *money***.
- When **interest rates are expected to rise**, ***money demand goes up***.

The Portfolio Demand for Money

- If a sudden decrease in the liquidity of stocks, bonds, or other assets occurred, we would expect to see an increase *in the* demand for money.

Chapter 23



Modern Monetary Policy and the Challenges Facing Central Bankers

The Traditional Channels: Interest Rates and Exchange Rates

- **Easing of monetary policy** - a decrease in the target nominal interest rate, which **lowers the real interest rate** - leads to a **depreciation of the dollar**.
- The ***less valuable dollar***:
 - **Drives up the cost of imported goods** and services, reducing imports from abroad, and
 - **Makes export goods** and services **cheaper**, so foreigners will buy more of them.

The Traditional Channels: Interest Rates and Exchange Rates

- The **interest-rate channel** is not very *powerful*.
- Data suggest that the **investment** component of total spending is not sensitive to interest rates.
- While a *small change in the interest rate* does change the cost of external financing, it does not have much **effect on investment decisions**.

The Traditional Channels: Interest Rates and Exchange Rates

- The impact of *short-term* interest rates on *household decisions* is modest.
- The problem is that *people's decisions to purchase cars or houses* depend on *longer-term interest rates* rather than the *short-run target rate*.
- *Household consumption decisions* will only change to the extent that the **target interest rate affects long-term interest rates**.

The Traditional Channels: Interest Rates and Exchange Rates

- The **policy-controlled interest rate** is just one of many factors that *shift the demand and supply* for the dollar on ***foreign exchange markets***.
- The **traditional channels of monetary policy transmission** are not very powerful.
- Yet, evidence shows that **monetary policy** is effective.
- **Something else** must be ***amplifying*** the impact of monetary policy changes on ***real economic activity***.

Bank-Lending and Balance-Sheet Channels

- Banks are *essential* to the *operation of a modern industrial economy*.
- Banks are also the channel through which *monetary policy is transmitted* to the economy.
- To understand monetary policy changes completely, we *look at* the **impact of policy changes on banks and bank lending**.

Banks and Bank Lending

- ***Borrowers*** do not have access to capital market financing - ***must go through banks.***
- When ***banks stop lending***, borrowers simply can not obtain financing.
- By ***altering*** the supply of funds ***to the banking system***, policymakers ***can affect*** banks' ability and willingness to lend.
 - The **bank-lending channel** of ***monetary policy transmission.***

Banks and Bank Lending

- An open market purchase has a *direct impact* on the **supply of loans**.
- **Financial regulators** can *also* influence **bank-lending practices**.
- **Changes in financial regulations**, will have an *impact* on the *amount of bank lending*.
- **Credit conditions** typically *tighten* in *recessions* and ease in booms.

Firms' Balance Sheets and Household Net Worth

- The **balance-sheet channel** of *monetary policy transmission* works because *monetary policy* has the direct influence on the net worth of potential borrowers.
 - An *easing of monetary policy* **improves firms' and households' balance sheets**, *increasing their net worth* and *reducing their credit risk premium*.
 - **Increases in net worth** *reduce the problems of moral hazard and adverse selection*.
 - This *lowers information costs of lending* and **allows borrowers to obtain financing more easily**.

Firms' Balance Sheets and Household Net Worth

How does *monetary policy expansion* improve borrowers' *net worth*?

1. *Expansionary policy drives up asset prices, increasing the value of firms and the wealth of households.*
2. *Lower interest rates reduce the burden of repayment of current loans of borrowers.*

Firms' Balance Sheets and Household Net Worth

- At **lower interest rates**, a person with *a variable rate loan* **enjoys** **lower interest payments**.
 - The *percentage of person's income* that is *devoted to loan payments* will be **lower**.
 - *As interest rates fall, the supply of loans increases.*
- **Information services** are central to ***banks' role*** in the *financial system*.
 - They help to *address the problems* of **adverse selection** and **moral hazard**.

Firms' Balance Sheets and Household Net Worth

- **Inferior information** leads to an *increase in adverse selection*.
- This then:
 - *Reduces bank lending,*
 - *Lowers investment, and ultimately*
 - *Depresses the quality of aggregate output demanded.*

Firms' Balance Sheets and Household Net Worth

- The **channels of monetary policy transmission** depend on the *structure of the financial system*.
- *If banks are unimportant sources of funds for firms and individuals, the bank-lending channel is not tremendously important.*
- Though *technology has made the processing of increasing amount of information easier and cheaper*, it seems unlikely to solve the problems of **adverse selection** and **moral hazard**.

Asset-Price Channels: Wealth and Investment

- When the **interest rate *moves*, so do stock prices.**
 - This *relationship* is referred to the **asset-price channel** of monetary policy transmission.
- The **lower the interest rate**, the *higher the present value* is and the **higher the stock price.**

Asset-Price Channels: Wealth and Investment

- When *policymakers* reduce their interest-rate target, it drives the **mortgage rate down**.
 - *Higher demand* for *residential housing*, driving up the *prices of existing homes*.
- **Stock and property prices** affect both *individual consumption* and *business investment*.
 - *Higher stock* and *real estate prices* mean an *increase in wealth*.
 - *An increase in wealth* means **higher consumption**.

Asset-Price Channels: Wealth and Investment

- As **stock prices *rise***, firms find it ***easier to raise funds*** by issuing new shares.
- As financing become ***less expensive***, **more investments *become profitable***.

Financial Crisis and the Transmission of Monetary Policy

- The *crisis of 2007-2009* intensified fundamental problems of **asymmetric information** that *affect* the **provision of credit** in a modern economy.
- The *widespread losses* at intermediaries and the *heightened uncertainty about the damage suffered by specific intermediaries* reduced confidence.

Financial Crisis and the Transmission of Monetary Policy

- Funding **liquidity dried up**.
- *Households' and nonfinancial firms' net worth fell* substantially, **reducing** their **ability to borrow**, so they **cut spending**.
- The result of all this was a **destabilizing feedback loop** between **worsening economic prospects** and the **deterioration of financial conditions** that **influence spending**.

Financial Crisis and the Transmission of Monetary Policy

- When the **policy transmission mechanism** is obstructed, **central banks cannot** assume that a *cut in their target policy rate* will *ease the financial conditions* that influence the economy.
- **Central banks** must always take into account the workings of the monetary policy transmission mechanism in order to *achieve* their goals of *economic and price stability*.

The Challenges Modern Monetary Policymakers Face

The Challenges Modern Monetary Policymakers Face

- **Stock prices and property values** have a *tendency* to go through **boom and bust cycles**.
- Policymakers' *options* are limited
- The *nominal interest rate* cannot *fall below* the *effective lower bound*.

Booms and Busts in Property and Equity Prices

- **Bubbles** are damaging because the wealth effects they create *cause consumption to surge* and *then contract* just as rapidly.
 - Bubbles are identified after the fact by a **sharp rise** then a **sharp decline** in *prices*.
- The **collapse of the Internet bubble** in the **1990s** had a relatively minor impact because intermediaries faced *limited credit exposure* and *remained well capitalized*.
- While the *loss of capital* in the financial system *in 2007-2009* could have *led to catastrophe* without extraordinary government actions.

Booms and Busts in Property and Equity Prices

- Proponents of a *policy of “leaning against bubbles”* say that ***stabilizing inflation and real growth*** means **raising interest rates to discourage bubbles** from developing.
- ***Opponents of this interventionist*** view claim that **bubbles are too difficult to identify when they are developing**.
 - Central banks should ***wait until the bubble bursts*** and ***only then react aggressively to limit the fallout*** on the economy by cleaning up the mess.

Booms and Busts in Property and Equity Prices

- Today, the ***proper policy toolkit*** for *addressing bubbles* is not *interest rates* but the **macroprudential regulatory** approach
- According to this view, **bubbles** are a ***major threat***.
 - The best result would be to ***adjust regulatory rules*** to ***inhibit intermediaries*** from *extending* such ***risky credit*** in economic booms.

Booms and Busts in Property and Equity Prices

- This approach *still depends on* the **foresight and judgment of regulators** to limit the *buildup of an asset price bubble*.
- Using **interest rates to combat *asset price bubbles*** now is *more likely* to be viewed as a *backup* approach for *extreme circumstances*.

Deflation and the Effective Lower Interest-Rate Bound

- **Nominal interest rates** can not be *deeply negative*.
 - There is an *effective lower bound (ELB)* that is **below zero** due to transactions costs
 - Investors can *always hold cash*, so *bonds must have yields* above the ELB to attract bondholders.
- Such risk which policymakers have *no scope to lower rates further*, has concerned central banks since Japan's experience in the 1990s.

Deflation and the Effective Lower Interest-Rate Bound

- Think about the *consequences of a shock that depresses aggregate expenditure*.
 - The **dynamic aggregate demand curve** shifts to the *left*.
 - Real output *falls below* potential - a *recessionary output gap* putting ***downward pressure*** on inflation.
 - **Monetary policymakers** would normally react by ***cutting interest rates***.
 - This would *increase spending*, ***raise*** real output, and ***eliminate*** the **output gap**.

Deflation and the Effective Lower Interest-Rate Bound

- What if, when the shock occurs, **inflation is zero** and the **policy interest rate** that central bankers control is **at the ELB**?
 - The **decline in aggregate demand** still *drives real output below potential output*.
 - There is *downward pressure on inflation*.
 - But when **inflation falls**, it drops **below zero** so that, on average, *prices are falling*.
- This result is **deflation**.

Deflation and the Effective Lower Interest-Rate Bound

- When there is a **recessionary output gap**, **current inflation is *below* expected inflation** and **expected inflation *falls***, which drives deflation down even more.
- Because the **nominal interest rate** is at the **ELB**, policymakers **cannot** counter the ***worsening deflation*** by ***lowering*** it.
 - The **interest rate stays near zero** and could not be negative, **while inflation rate becomes negative. Real interest rate, thus, increase above zero.** -> e.g. $r = i - \pi = 0 - (-0.5) = 1.0$ or the rate actually increases
 - The **real interest rate *rises***, ***reducing spending***, **shifting the AD curve to the left**.
 - This **expands the recessionary output gap**.
- The result is ***deflationary spiral*** in which ***deflation grows worse and worse***.

Deflation and the Effective Lower Interest-Rate Bound

- **Deflation** makes it *more difficult* for businesses to *obtain financing for new projects*.
 - Without investment there is *no growth*.
- **Deflation**, therefore, **increases** the *real value* of a **firm's liabilities** without affecting the real value of its assets.

Deflation and the Effective Lower Interest-Rate Bound

Policymakers can minimize the chances of this sort of catastrophe:

1. They can ***set*** their inflation objective with the ***perils of deflation in mind***
2. They can ***act boldly*** when there is ***even an indication of deflation***
3. They can ***utilize*** unconventional policy tools

Deflation and the Effective Lower Interest-Rate Bound

- ***Reducing*** the interest rate ***significantly*** and ***rapidly*** when faced with the ***possibility of hitting the ELB*** is “acting preemptively”
- Central bankers can use ***unconventional policy tools*** that *include*:
 - Forward guidance
 - Quantitative easing
 - Targeted asset purchases

Deflation and the Effective Lower Interest-Rate Bound

- Central bankers are *very reluctant to use unconventional policy tools*
 - Continued uncertainty about *how and why they work* and *how to apply them effectively*
 - *Policy exit* may be difficult

Chapter 19



Exchange-Rate Policy and the Central Bank

Linking Exchange-Rate Policy with Domestic Monetary Policy

- Exchange-rate policy is *integral* to any monetary policy regime.
- When capital flows *freely across* a country's *borders*, a fixed exchange rate means giving up domestic monetary policy.

Linking Exchange-Rate Policy with Domestic Monetary Policy

There are two ways to see the **connection** between *exchange rates* and *monetary policy*.

1. Think about the *market for goods* and **purchasing power parity**.
2. *Short-run movements in exchange rates* are tied to the **supply and demand** in the *currency markets*.

Inflation and the Long-Run Implications of Purchasing Power Parity

- *Ignoring transportation costs, the law of one price says that **identical goods** should **sell for the same price** regardless of where they are sold.*
- The concept of **purchasing power parity (PPP)** *extends the logic of the law of one price to a basket of goods and services.*

Inflation and the Long-Run Implications of Purchasing Power Parity

- As long as goods can *move freely across international boundaries*, **one unit of domestic currency should buy the same basket of goods** anywhere in the world.
- When **prices change** *in one country* but not in another, the **exchange rate will adjust** to reflect the change.
- In the *long run*, **changes in the exchange rate** are tied to **differences in inflation**.
- *The central bank must choose either a fixed exchange rate or an independent inflation policy.*

Interest Rates and the Short-Run Implications of Capital Market Arbitrage

- In the **short run**,
 - A country's **exchange rate** is *determined* by **supply and demand**.
- When the bonds have *different yields*, the **prices** will be *bid up or down* until the returns are equal.

Capital Controls and the Policymaker's Choice

- **Impossible Trinity:** a country cannot complete 3 conditions
 - Free capital flows
 - Sovereign monetary policy
 - Fixed exchange rate
- Policymakers must ***choose two of these three*** options.
- *If* a country is willing to participate in **international capital markets**, it *can*:
 - Liberalize capital mobility
 - Conduct **independent monetary policy**
 - But, it could not keep its ***exchange rate fixed***

Capital Controls and the Policymaker's Choice

- Internationally **integrated capital markets** *ensure* that **capital** goes to its *most efficient* uses.
- **Disturbances** in one country's financial market *can be quickly transmitted* to other countries.
- For emerging-market countries, **greater openness** of capital markets *poses greater risks*.

Capital Controls and the Policymaker's Choice

- Countries with ***open capital markets*** are **vulnerable** to ***sudden changes*** in *investor sentiment*.
- Investors may **decide to sell** a ***country's bonds***.
 - The **value of the domestic currency** is ***driven down***.
 - **Bond prices** are ***driven down***.
 - **Interest rates** are ***driven up***.
- The *result* is **similar to a *bank run***.
 - *All investors leave* at once, **triggering a financial collapse**.

The Central Bank's Balance Sheet

- As the Fed works to **maintain a fixed dollar-euro exchange rate**, its *balance sheet shifts*.
- **Buying euros or selling dollars *increases* the supply of reserves** to the banking system.
- These ***interventions*** have an impact on **interest rates** and the **quantity of money** in the economy.
- **Controlling the exchange rate means giving up control of the size of reserves** so that the ***market determines the interest rate***.

The Central Bank's Balance Sheet

- In *September 2000*, the world's largest central banks **intervened** to ***bolster*** the **value of the euro**.
- The **Fed** ***purchased €1.5 billion*** in exchange for \$1.34 billion.
 - They did this **by purchasing bonds *issued by euro-area governments***.

The Central Bank's Balance Sheet

Figure 19.1

Change in the Federal Reserve's Balance Sheet Immediately following a Purchase of Euros

Assets		Liabilities	
Euro reserves (German government bonds)	+ \$1.34 billion	Commercial bank reserves	+ \$1.34 billion

- The Fed ***increased*** its **euro-denominated foreign exchange assets** by \$1.34 billion.
- On the liabilities side, **commercial bank reserves** have increase by the same amount.

The Central Bank's Balance Sheet

- This transaction is identical to a ***purchase of U.S. Treasury bonds.***
- A foreign exchange intervention has the same impact on reserves as a ***domestic open market operation.***
- The **Fed** did **supply dollars** to the market through its intervention, but *more importantly*, the **interest rate has fallen.**

The Central Bank's Balance Sheet

- When Fed intervened to buy euros, it did not **change *interest-rate targets***.
- We assumed that when the Fed bought euros, it **increased *commercial bank reserves***, which would **reduce the interest rate** in the *absence of any other action*.
- This is an example of an **unsterilized foreign exchange intervention**

Sterilized Intervention

- In fact, **central banks** in large countries **do not operate that way.**
- They engage in **sterilized foreign exchange interventions:**
 - A change in foreign exchange reserves alters the *asset side* of the *central bank's balance sheet* but the **domestic monetary base remains unaffected.**

Sterilized Intervention

A sterilized intervention is a *combination* of two transactions:

1. There is the **purchase or sale of foreign currency reserves**, which *changes the central bank's liabilities*.
2. Then, an **immediate open market operation**, of *exactly the same size*, designed to **offset** the impact of the first transaction on the *monetary base*.

Sterilized Intervention

- For example, the **Fed's purchase of a German government bond**, is **offset** by the sale of a **U.S. Treasury bond**.
 - These two actions **leave the level of reserves unchanged**.
- This intervention is **sterilized** with respect to its ***effect on the monetary base***, or the ***size of the central bank's balance sheet***.
- An intervention is **sterilized** since it does **not** change the ***monetary base***.

Sterilized Intervention

- The **FOMC** had not changed the **target federal funds rate**.
- The *foreign exchange desk* had **purchased bonds issued by a euro-area government, paying for them with reserves**, and the *open market desk* had **sold U.S. Treasury bonds to reverse the potential impact**.

Figure 19.3

Change in the Federal Reserve's Balance Sheet following a *Sterilized Purchase of Euro-Denominated Bonds*

Assets		Liabilities
Euro reserves (German government bonds)	+\$1.34 billion	Commercial bank reserves unchanged
Securities (U.S. Treasury bonds)	-\$1.34 billion	

The Costs, Benefits, and Risks of Fixed Exchange Rates

- Fixed exchange rates not only *simplify operations* for *international trade businesses*, they also *reduce the risk* that investors face when they *hold foreign stocks and bonds*.
- In countries that are prone to bouts of *high inflation*, a **fixed exchange rate** may be the only way to *establish* a **credible low-inflation policy**.

Assessing the Costs and Benefits

- One serious **drawback** to a **fixed exchange rate** is that it ***could not operate*** independent monetary **policy**.
 - You **must adopt** the ***other country's interest-rate policy***.
- A ***fixed exchange rate policy*** makes the most sense when the *two countries involved have similar macroeconomic fluctuations*.
 - Otherwise, the ***country with the flexible exchange rate*** that is in **control of monetary policy** might be ***raising interest rates*** at the same time **another country** in going into a recession.

Assessing the Costs and Benefits

Policymakers should consider several additional matters.

1. When a country **fixes its exchange rate**, the central bank is ***offering*** to **buy and sell its own currency** at a **fixed rate**.
 - Monetary policymakers will **need ample currency reserves**.
2. *Fixing the exchange rate* means **reducing** the domestic economy's natural **ability to respond to macroeconomic shocks**.

The Danger of Speculative Attacks

- **Fixed exchange rates** are *fragile and likely to* to a type of crisis called a **speculative attack**.
- Suppose for some reason, *financial market participants* come to ***believe*** that the ***government will need to devalue*** its currency in the near future.
 - ***Investors*** are ***likely to attack the currency now*** and ***force*** an **immediate devaluation**.

The Danger of Speculative Attacks

Causes of a speculative attack:

1. Fiscal policy:

- If investors begin to think that at current levels, ***government spending must ultimately increase inflation***, they will ***not believe*** that ***officials can maintain the exchange rate*** at its fixed level.

2. Financial instability:

- If a country's banking system is **insufficiently capitalized**, a central bank may face pressure to ***relax monetary policy*** to avoid financial crisis.
- If investors **doubt** that the central bank will keep interest rates high enough for a ***sufficient time*** to defend the currency peg, an ***attack may follow***.

Assessing the Costs and Benefits

3. Spontaneously:

- If enough currency **speculators** simply ***decide*** that a ***central bank cannot maintain its exchange rate***, they will **attack**.
 - **Spontaneous speculative attacks** are like **bank runs**; they can be ***contagious***.

Many observers suspect that in today's world, **no** ***central bank has the resources to withstand such an attack*** in the **absence of capital controls**

EE432 Monetary Theory and Policy



Additional Lecture: New Keynesian Monetary Economics
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Semester 1/2019

Additional lecture made for EE432 Monetary Theory and Policy at Thammasat University
(This is not part of Cecchetti and Schoenholtz (2017) Money, Banking, and Financial Markets. McGraw-Hill Textbook)

New Keynesian Model

- Over the past two decades, **macroeconomics** has evolved from a divided field, which in many ways ***lacked a solid foundation***, into a more comprehensive discipline built on a fairly firm **microeconomic foundation**.

New Keynesian Model

- **New Keynesian economics** reconciles the *general equilibrium approach* of the *real business cycle school* with the clear role of **rigidities** advocated by Keynes and Phelps.
- The **general equilibrium approach** derives the *equilibrium conditions* from the **optimization problem** of *forward-looking* households, firms and fiscal and monetary authorities in conditions of *uncertainty*.

New Keynesian Model

- The **New Keynesian** emphasis on **expectations** and **forward-looking behaviour** in markets has similarly had major consequences for monetary policy implementation.
- If **private agents' expectations about future inflation** are the **main determinants of inflation**, it is crucial for monetary policy-making to be ***systematic, credible and transparent*** to maximize its impact on them.

New Keynesian Model

- This **expectational channel** of monetary policy introduces a ***new instrument for monetary authorities***, i.e. the possibility to influence inflation by **influencing forward-looking expectations**.

New Keynesian Model

- This has led to an ongoing discussion on the **advantages of commitment *versus discretion***.
- The current debate centres on the ***benefits from committing to price stability*** by introducing an **official inflation target**, and *being transparent in formulation, communication and implementation of monetary policy* in order to **anchor future inflation expectations and improve the tradeoff between stabilizing inflation and output gap volatility**.

New Keynesian Model

- As a consequence of the **presence of nominal rigidities**, *prices do not adjust in proportion to changes in the money supply* (thus causing real balances to vary), or *if expected inflation **does not move one-for-one with the nominal interest rate** when the latter varies, thus **leading to a change in the real interest rate***.
- The **central bank** will generally be *able to alter the level aggregate demand* and, as a result, *the equilibrium levels of output and employment*.

Key Properties of Model

- **Monopolistic competition**; prices and wages are *set by private economic agents* in order to maximize their objectives
- **Nominal rigidities**; firms are *subjected to some constraints to adjust the price of goods*, including wage

Key Properties of Model

- **Short-run non-neutrality of monetary policy; *in the presence of **nominal rigidities**, changes in short-term nominal interest rates are not matched by one-for-one changes in expected inflation, thus leading to **variations in real interest rates**.***
- **As a result, firms find it *optimal to adjust the quantity of goods supplied to the new level of demand*. However, in the **long run**, the **economy reverts back to its natural equilibrium**.**

Key Properties of Model

- **New Keynesian models** represent a convergence between
- (i) **simple (static) policy-oriented models** such as the *IS-LM model*,
- (ii) **Keynesian** emphasis on the role of **monopolistic competition**, *markups and costly price adjustments*, and
- (iii) **dynamic general equilibrium models** with their roots in the real business cycle literature.

The New Keynesian Model for a Closed Economy

- A **small-scale new Keynesian model** *for a closed economy* basically consists of three components;
- The **demand block** is represented by an ***expectational IS curve***, which is a linear approximation to the representative household's intertemporal Euler equation to **optimize household consumption** across time *based on their intertemporal budget constraints*.
- This relates the **level of real activity** *to expected (and sometimes past) real activity* and the **real interest rate**.

The New Keynesian Model for a Closed Economy

- The supply block is represented by a *price-setting equation* – the **new Keynesian Phillips curve** – which can be derived from price-setting behaviour.
- It *relates inflation to expected* (and sometimes past) *inflation* and a measure of excess demand.
- Thus, it *adds an expectation term* to the conventional **Phillips curve**.

The New Keynesian Model for a Closed Economy

- The third relationship is an interest rate rule, which *describes how the **nominal rate of interest** is determined*.
- This condition is *typically linked to **interest rate rule** to conduct of monetary policy*.
- The policy interest rate setting is thus *commonly a **reaction function** where the monetary authorities respond to the output gap and (expected) inflation*

Evidence of Monetary Policy Non-neutralities

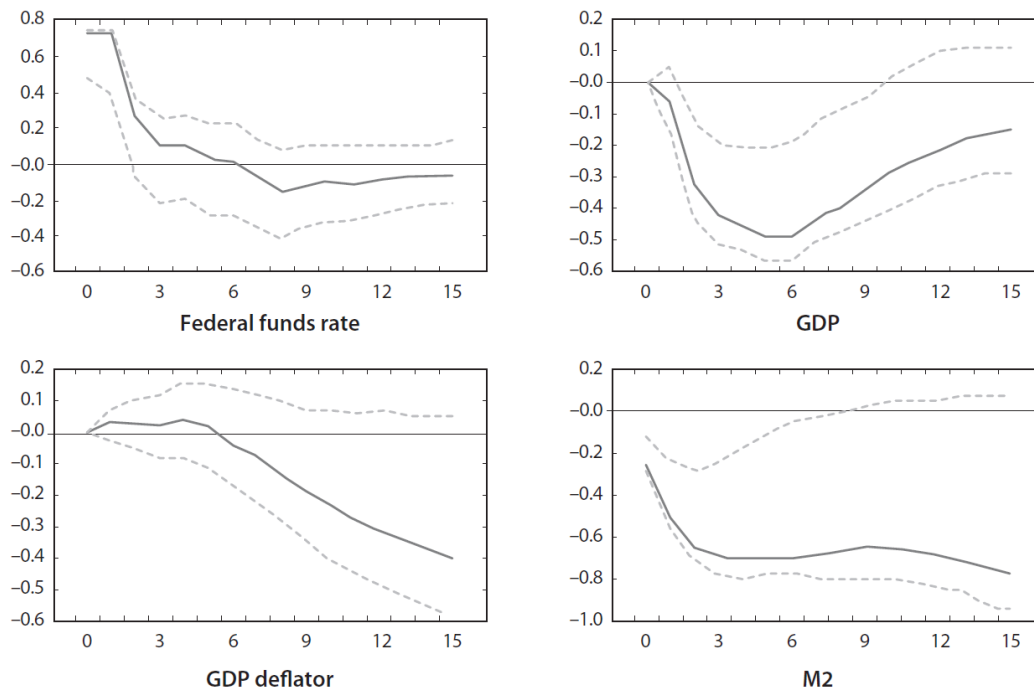


Figure 1.1. Estimated Dynamic Response to a Monetary Policy Shock
Source: Christiano, Eichenbaum, and Evans (1999).

- The evidence taken from Christiano, Eichenbaum, and Evans (1999) seeking to **estimate the effects of exogenous monetary policy shocks**.

Evidence of Monetary Policy Non-neutralities

- Figure shows the **dynamic responses** of the *federal funds rate*, (log) **GDP**, (log) **GDP deflator**, and the (log) **money supply** (measured by M2), to an *exogenous tightening of monetary policy*.
- The **solid line** represents *the estimated response*, with the **dashed lines** capturing the *corresponding 95 percent confidence interval*.
- The scale on the *horizontal axis* measures the *number of quarters after the initial shock*.

Evidence of Monetary Policy Non-neutralities

- An initial increase of Fed funds rate about 75 basis points, followed by a gradual return to its original level.
- In response to that tightening of policy, GDP declines with a characteristic ***hump-shaped pattern***, and then it *slowly reverts back to its original level*. That estimated response of GDP can be viewed as **evidence of sizable persistent real effects** of monetary policy shocks.

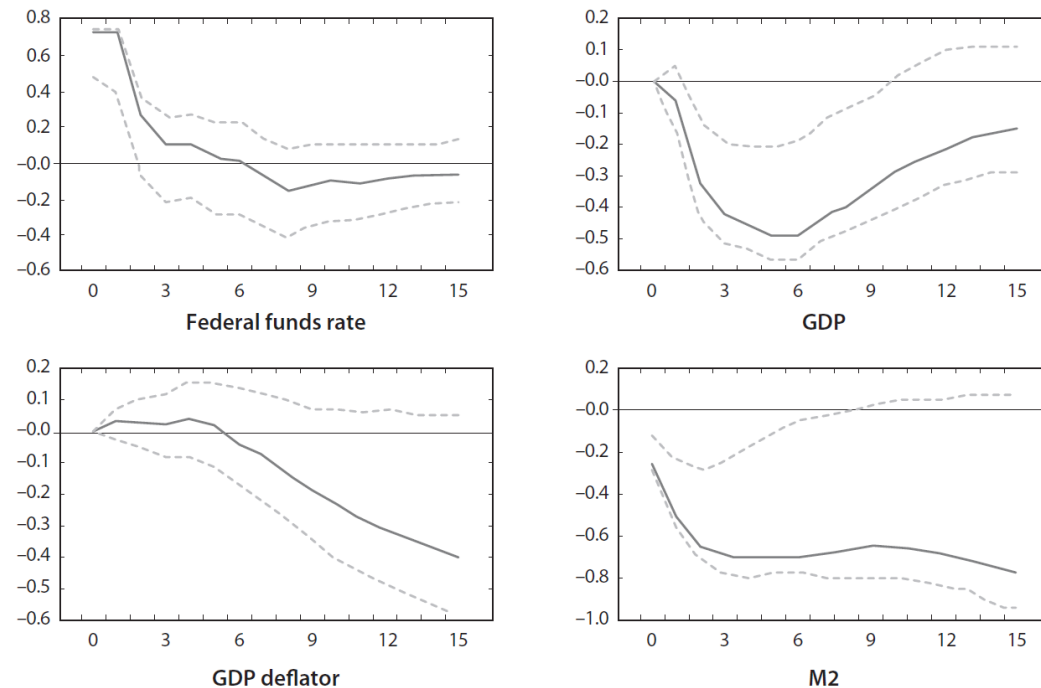


Figure 1.1. Estimated Dynamic Response to a Monetary Policy Shock
Source: Christiano, Eichenbaum, and Evans (1999).

Evidence of Monetary Policy Non-neutralities

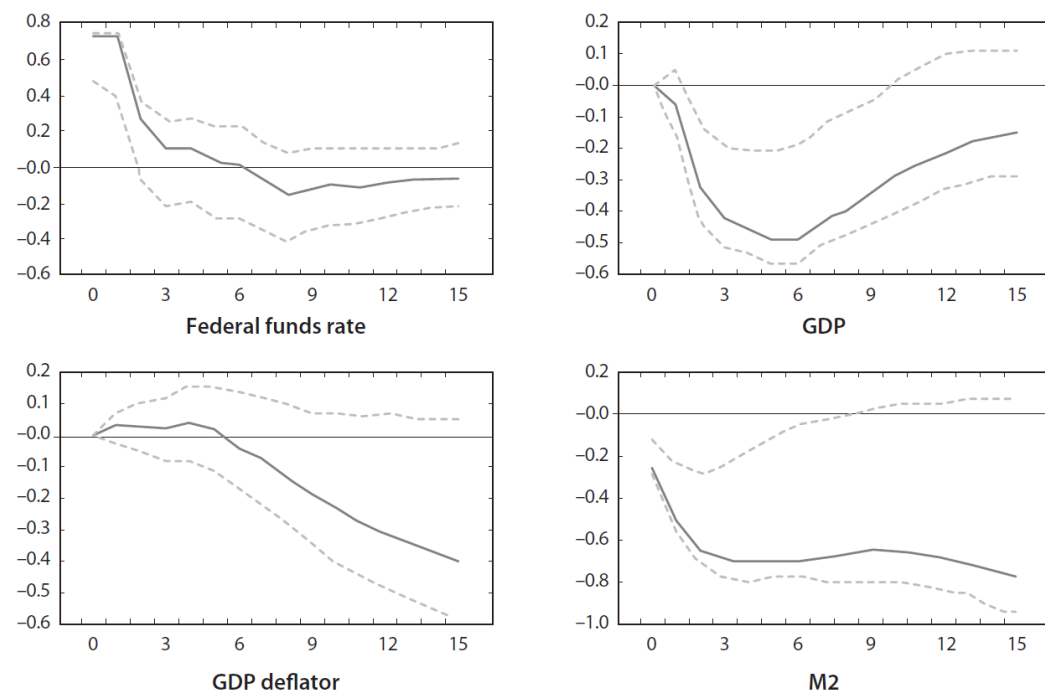


Figure 1.1. Estimated Dynamic Response to a Monetary Policy Shock
Source: Christiano, Eichenbaum, and Evans (1999).

- On the other hand, the (log) **GDP deflator displays a flat response for over a year, after which it declines.**
- That estimated **sluggish response of prices to the policy tightening** is generally interpreted as **evidence of substantial price rigidities.**
- Note: Surprisingly, ***there is an initial positive response of inflation*** due to risk averse behavior – higher cost and wage to compensate risk premium, so called **prize puzzle.**

Evidence of Monetary Policy Non-neutralities

- Note that (log) **M2** displays a ***persistent decline*** in the face of the *rise in the federal funds rate*, suggesting that the **Fed needs to reduce the amount of money in circulation in order to bring about the increase in the nominal rate.**

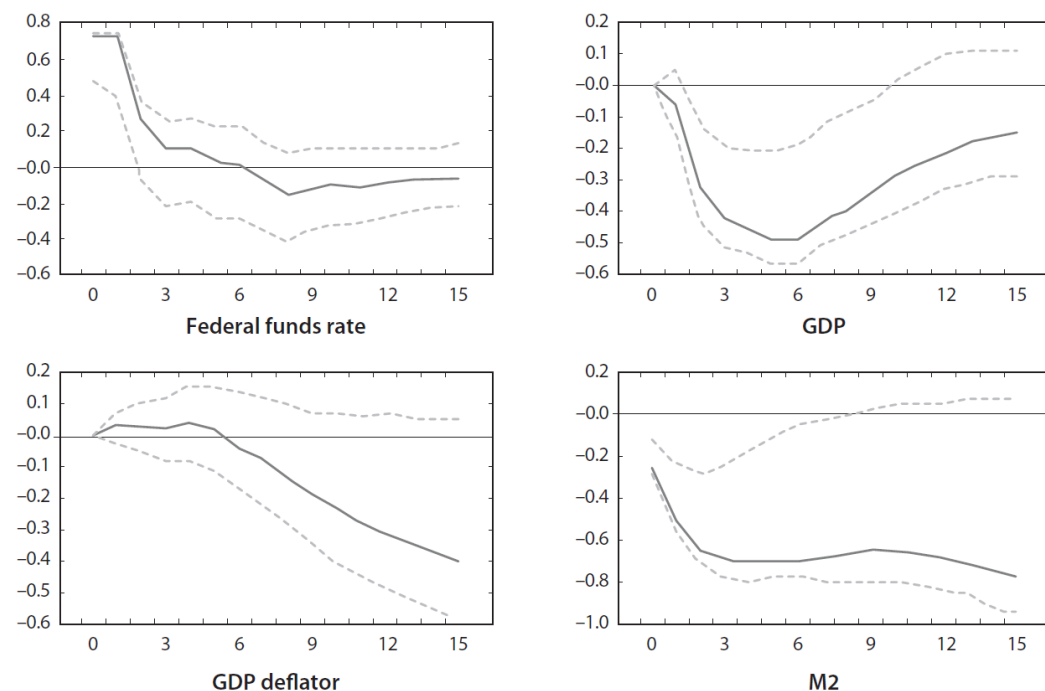


Figure 1.1. Estimated Dynamic Response to a Monetary Policy Shock
Source: Christiano, Eichenbaum, and Evans (1999).

EE432 Monetary Theory and Policy



Additional Lecture: Special Topics on Monetary Theory and Policy

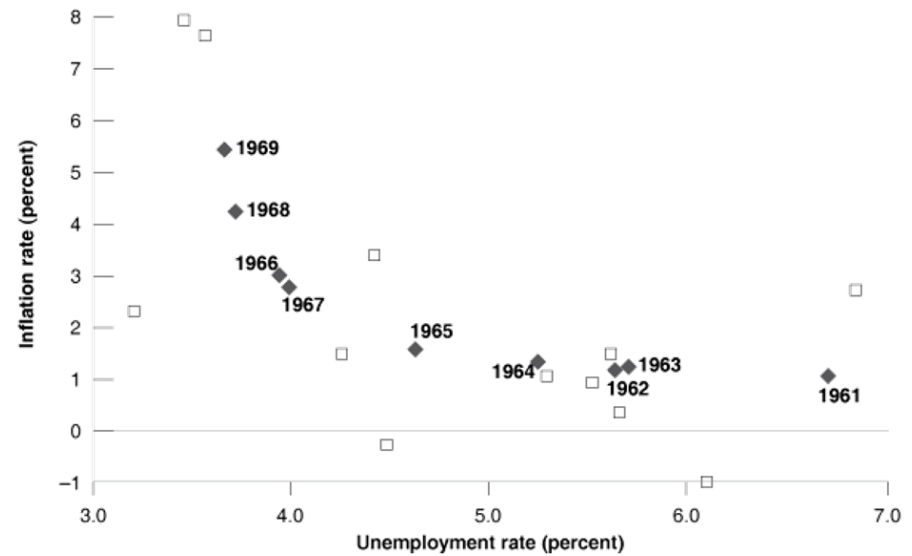
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Phillips Curve

Phillips curve

- The *negative* relation between unemployment and inflation

$$\pi_t = (\mu + z) - \alpha u_t$$

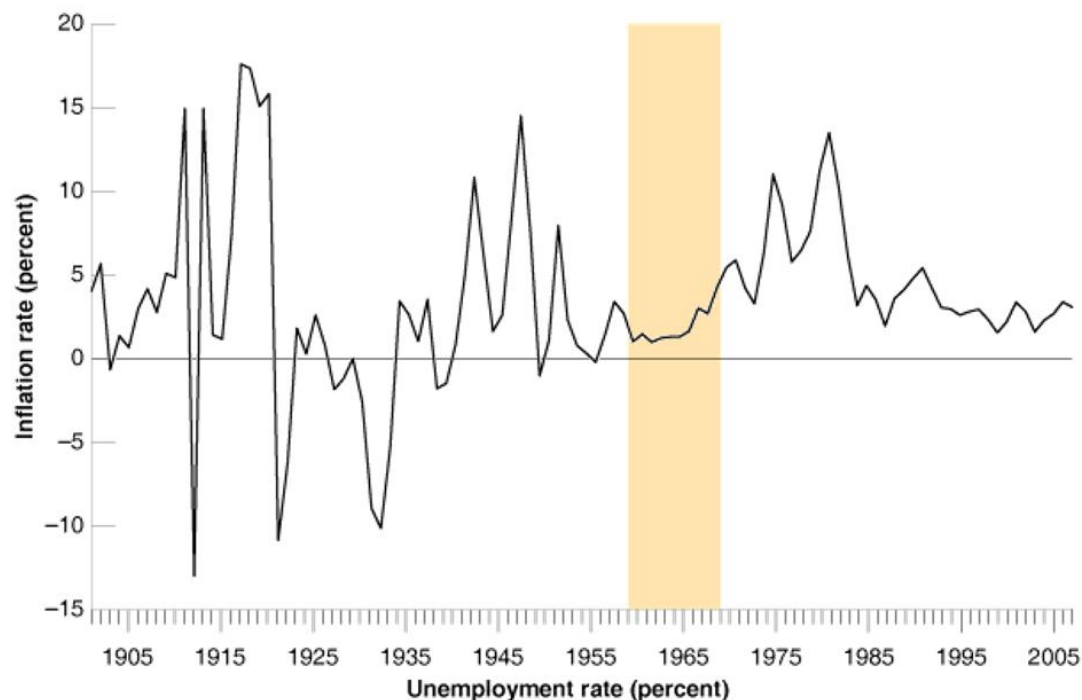


The **steady decline** in the U.S. unemployment rate throughout the 1960s was associated with a **steady increase** in the inflation rate.

Phillips Curve

- Since 1970, a clear ***negative relation*** emerged between the **unemployment rate** and the **change in the inflation rate**.
- The **modified Phillips curve**, or the ***expectations-augmented Phillips curve***, or the ***accelerationist Phillips curve***, is:

$$\pi_t - \pi_{t-1} = (\mu + z) - \alpha u_t$$



Since the 1960s, the U.S. **inflation rate** has been **consistently positive**. Inflation has also become more persistent: ***A high inflation rate this year is more likely to be followed by a high inflation rate next year.***

Natural Rate of Unemployment

- Nobel prize laureates, Milton Friedman and Edmund Phelps ***questioned the trade-off between unemployment and inflation.*** They argued that the **unemployment rate** could not be ***sustained below a certain level***, a level they called the “**natural rate of unemployment.**”
- The **natural rate of unemployment** is the ***unemployment rate*** such that the **actual inflation rate** is equal to the **expected inflation rate**.
- It is the **minimum unemployment rate**, which includes only ***frictional*** and ***structural unemployment*** (not include cyclical unemployment)

Natural Rate of Unemployment

$$\pi_t - \pi_{t-1} = -\alpha(u_t - u_n)$$

- This relation gives *another way of thinking about the **Phillips curve*** in terms of the ***actual*** and the ***natural unemployment rates***, and the ***change in the inflation rate***.

Natural Rate of Unemployment

- *If policymakers* try to maintain unemployment below its natural rate, the inflation will **accelerate** with each successive attempt.
- The result is a *self-fulfilling spiral* of **wage and price** increases.
- The natural unemployment rate is referred as the *non-accelerating inflation* rate of unemployment (NAIRU).

Modern Monetary Theory

- ‘**Modern monetary theory**’ (MMT) has *become a much-discussed topic in policy recently*. US Congresswoman, *Ocasio-Cortez*, stressed its importance to **boost public spending for education and medical services**
- *Former ECB President Mario Draghi* mentioned about MMT and former *Fed Vice Chairman Stanley Fischer* said **central banks should put money “directly in the hands of public and private sector spenders.”**

Modern Monetary Theory

- **Modern monetary theory (MMT):** government with a fiat money system ***can print as much money as they need*** to spend since it could not be insolvent.
- If a nation's ***expenditure exceeds its revenues***, it incurs a **government deficit**, which can ***be financed by 'debt monetization'***

Modern Monetary Theory

- **Monetizing debt** is a *two-step process*
 - The **government issues debt** (*government bond*) to *cover its spending*
 - The **central bank purchases bond** *from secondary markets through open market operation*, and *perpetually rolls it over*, leaving the system an *increased supply of money*
- **Taxes** would drain money *from consumers and businesses* so total spending in the economy *won't be excessive* to keep inflation under control.

Features of MMT

The **dominance of fiscal policy** over monetary policy - ***fiscal policy** is effective while *monetary policy is ineffective**

- **Monetary accommodation** in a downturn does not necessarily ***generate sufficient demand for credit*** when the *outlook on firm **profitability** and household **income*** remains ***weak***
- A cut in interest rates *could be economically **contractionary***, since **reduced interest income** discourages active private sector ***spending***.
- **Monetary easing** tends to promote an **accumulation of private sector debt** and thus ***reduce private sector net wealth***.

Why MMT should be considered as alternative monetary policy

- Public spending should intensively ***prioritize productivity-enhancing infrastructure, human capital, and innovation***, which would raise potential economic growth and thereby prevent substantial inflation.
- Government should **issue its own currency** rather than ***issue bonds*** that are sensitive to investor sentiment and subject to volatility.

Why MMT should be considered as alternative monetary policy

- **Government debt** is *more desirable* and *sustainable* than *private sector debt*.
- In contrast, **growing private sector debt** *reduces net financial wealth* within the private sector and *amplifies default risk*.

Critiques on MMT

- *Lawrence Summers*, the former Treasury secretary and *Paul Krugman*, Nobel prize laureate worried that **MMT will give a bad name** to their more *conventionally **dovish** views* on **deficits**.
- Trying to ***use fiscal policy to steer the economy*** is a ***proven failure*** because politicians ***rarely*** act ***quickly enough*** to respond to ***economic downturn***.
- Politicians ***hardly*** impose higher taxes or lower spending to cope with rising inflation.