

4. Government Policies towards the Foreign Exchange Market

Euamporn Phijaisanit
Thammasat University
Semester 1/2017

Outline

- ☞ Exchange rate policies
 - ☞ Rate flexibility
 - ☞ Restriction on use (Foreign exchange control)
- ☞ Floating exchange rate
- ☞ Fixed exchange rate
- ☞ Foreign exchange intervention
- ☞ Exchange control
- ☞ Past experiences
 - ☞ The Gold Standard Era
 - ☞ Interwar Instability
 - ☞ The Bretton Woods Era
 - ☞ The Worldwide Current Systems

Objectives

- Students should understand:
 - The variety of exchange rate policies countries have used.
 - How a country can respond to pressure on the value of its currency.
 - The implications of temporary versus permanent imbalances in exchange rates.
 - The benefits and costs of foreign exchange controls.
 - How fixed rates have performed in the past.
 - How flexible rates have performed in the past.

GOVERNMENT POLICIES

Reasons for government policies toward the foreign exchange market

- To reduce variability in exchange rates
- To keep the exchange rate value of its currency either high or low
- To raise national pride in a steady or strong currency

2 Major aspects of government policies toward the exchange rate

1. The exchange rate itself (What should be the exchange rate? Should the exchange rate be fixed or flexible? → PRICE)
 - *Clean float*
 - *Managed/dirty float*
 - *Fixed/pegged*
2. To permit or restrict access to foreign exchange market. (Who may use the foreign exchange market and for what purposes → QUANTITY)
 - Government-imposed restrictions on the use of the foreign exchange market are called exchange controls.

In the Case of Fixed Exchange Rate:

- **What** to fix to?
 - Gold, US\$, some other currency, or basket?
- **When** to change the fixed exchange rate?
 - Never (pegged exchange rate)
 - Occasionally (adjustable peg)
 - Often (crawling peg).
 - How wide should the band around the central or par value chosen for the fix.
- **How** to defend the fixed rate?
 1. Official intervention in which the government buys and sells currencies
 2. Exchange controls in which the government tries to suppress excess demand or supply
 3. Altering domestic interest rates to influence short-term international capital flows
 4. Adjusting the country's macroeconomic position to make it fit the fixed exchange rate.
 5. Last option: to alter the fixed rate value or shift to a floating rate. (Surrender!)

DEFENSE THROUGH OFFICIAL INTERVENTION

Where does the monetary authority get the dollars to sell into the foreign exchange market?

- A country uses its official international reserve assets (or some other similar government assets) to obtain dollars from some foreign source, most likely the US monetary authority (Federal Reserves), or it borrows the dollars.
- There are 4 major components to a country's official reserve assets:
 - foreign exchange assets denominated in major currencies
 - Country's reserve position with the International Monetary Fund
 - Special Drawing Rights (SDRs)
 - Gold

Where does the monetary authority get the dollars to sell into the foreign exchange market?

- If our country has a reserve position in the IMF, then it can obtain dollars from the IMF request.
- If the country is holding SDR, then it can use these SDRs to obtain dollars from the US monetary authority or from IMF.
 - SDR is a reserve asset created by IMF. As of 2011, one SDR equaled the collection of US\$0.66 plus 0.423 euro plus 12.1 Japanese yen plus British GBP 0.111. Market exchange rate can be used to compute SDR's value in terms of any specific single currency.

Where does the monetary authority get the dollars to sell into the foreign exchange market?

- Some countries maintain arrangements called swap lines with each other to facilitate official borrowing between countries.
- Special case: US, whose currency is readily held by the monetary authorities of other countries. US\$ is called the reserve currency. In this case, the country can effectively borrow through official channels by issuing assets that will be held as reserves by the central banks of other countries.
 - This allowed US to run what Jacques Rueff called “ Deficit in tears”. In 1950 and 1960s, US was given leeway to finance its deficit.
 - Latin American countries cannot do that, of course.

Figure 20.2 Official Holdings of Reserve Assets, End of Year, 1970-2009 (Billions of US\$)

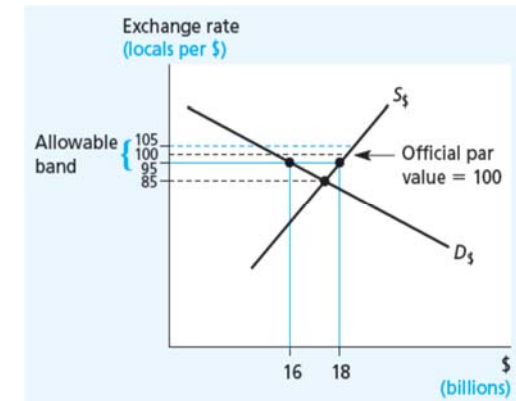
	1970	1980	1990	2000	2009
Foreign exchange assets	45	381	806	1,935	8,166
Special drawing rights	3	15	28	24	315
Reserve position in the IMF	8	22	32	62	61
Gold	40	573	345	261	945
(millions of ounces)	(1,057)	(953)	(940)	(952)	(869)
Total reserve assets	96	991	1,211	2,282	9,487

International Reserves in Thailand

		1976	1980	1990	2000	2010	2011	2012
(Millions of US Dollars)	(ล้านดอลลาร์ สหรัฐ)							
Gold	ทองคำ	95.20	1,466.00	968.00	645.40	4,598.56	7,734.63	8,281.74
SDRs	สิทธิพิเศษถอนเงิน	33.60	8.20	12.70	82.70	1,496.90	1,494.30	1,495.26
Reserve position in the IMF	สินทรัพย์ส่งมอบกองทุนการเงินระหว่างประเทศและเงินให้กู้ยืมแก่กองทุนฯ							
Foreign currency reserves	สินทรัพย์ต่างประเทศ	1,725.20	1,551.90	13,247.10	31,933.20	165,656.01	165,199.60	171,105.98
Total	รวม	1,892.90	3,026.10	14,272.70	32,661.30	172,128.90	175,123.77	181,607.96

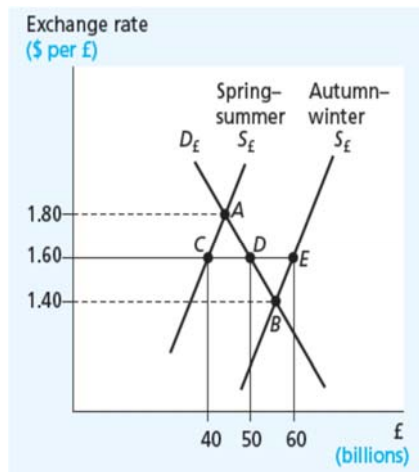
Source: www.bot.or.th

Figure 20.3 Intervention to Defend a Fixed Rate: Preventing Appreciation of the Country's Currency



Source: Pugel (2012), p. 484

Figure 20.4 A Successful Financing of Temporary Deficits and Surpluses at a Fixed Exchange Rate



Source: Pugel (2012), p. 485

Defending exchange rate through official intervention

- Official intervention in the foreign exchange market also changes the country's money supply.
- The authority can use sterilization of the intervention to reverse the effect on the domestic money supply by taking some other action to remove or add the domestic money back to the economy.

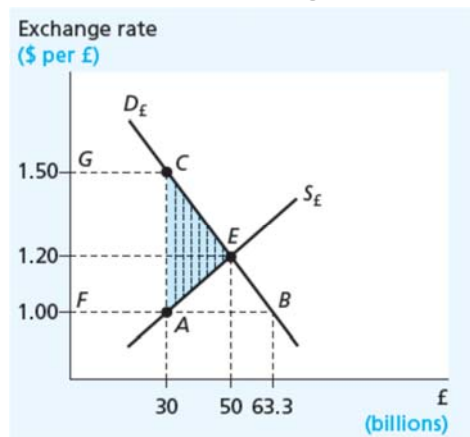
Sterilization

- Using monetary policy to offset the impact of official intervention on the domestic money supply.
- For example, government might purchase its own currency to support its exchange value, but then purchase domestic bonds to restore the domestic money supply. The intent is to manipulate currency values without affecting the domestic economy.

Exchange Control

- Exchange controls are used by many countries, especially developing countries.
- Exchange controls cause economic inefficiency (deadweight loss) analogous to quantitative limits (quotas) on imports.
- They also incur substantial administrative costs. Efforts to evade them lead to bribery and parallel market.

Figure 20.5 The Best of the Worst: Welfare Losses from Well-Managed Exchange Controls



Source: Pugel (2012), p. 489

SURVEYS OF EXCHANGE RATE REGIMES IN THE PAST 140 YEARS

Regimes of the Past 140 years

- Gold Standard Era (1870-1914)
- Interwar Instability
- Bretton Woods (1944-1973)
- Current system

International Currency Experience

- Gold Standard, 1870-1914
 - Gold value of each currency was fixed
 - Britain was the central country
- Interwar Instability
- Bretton Woods System, 1944-1971
 - Adjustable pegged exchange rates
 - United States and U.S. dollar were at the center
 - Eventual dollar crisis
- Current System
 - A “nonsystem”—countries can choose almost any exchange rate policy
 - Many countries use managed floating exchange rates

Figure 20.6 Selected Exchange Rates, 1860-1913

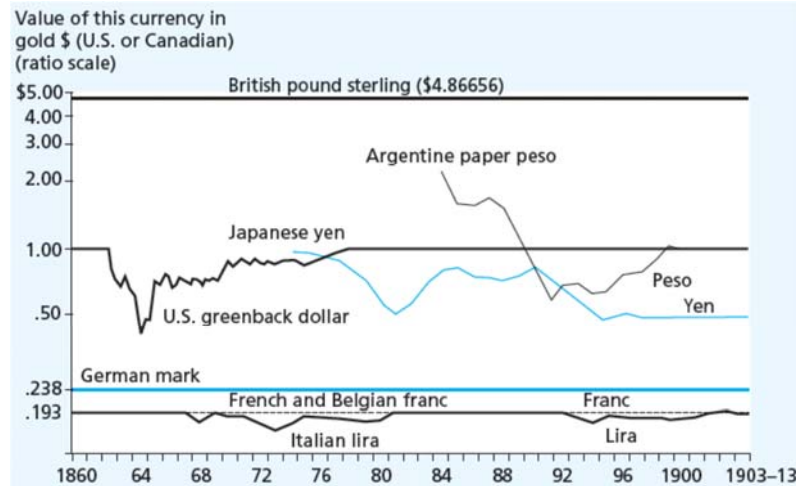


Figure 20.7 Selected Exchange Rates, 1913, 1919-1938 (Monthly)

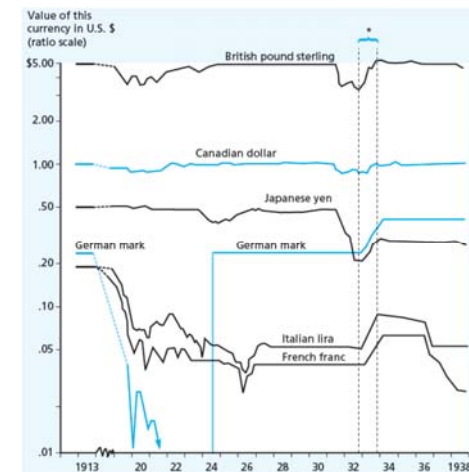
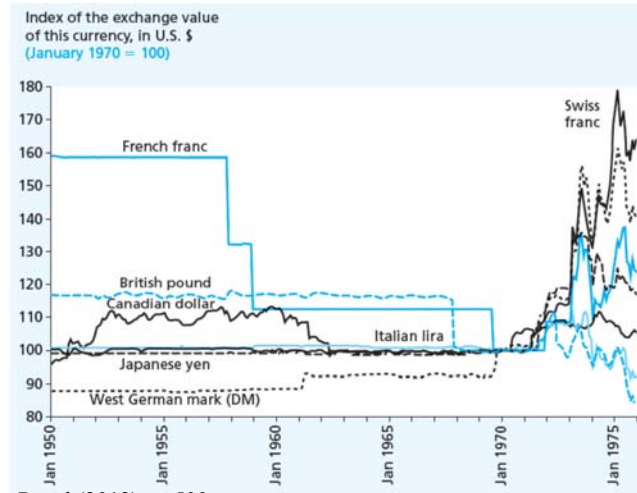


Figure 20.8 Selected Exchange Rates, 1950-1975 (Monthly)



Source: Pugel (2012), p. 500
Phijaisanit (2017)

Figure 20.9 Exchange-Rate Arrangements, May 1, 2010

Currency Pegged To*								
(1)	(2)	(3)	(4)	(5)	(6)	(7)	(8)	(9)
Use Foreign Currency (no separate local currency)?	Euro Area (use euro as currency)?	Euro?	U.S. Dollar*	Other Currency	Currency Basket	Crawling Peg*	Managed Float	Free Float
Andorra	Austria	ERM II	Antigua & Barbuda	Netherlands	Ehutan	Botswana	Alghanistan	Australia
Ecuador	Belgium	Denmark	Aruba	Antilles	(Indian rupee)	Belarus	Albania	Canada
El Salvador	Cyprus	Estonia	Azerbaijan	Oman	Brunei Darussalam	Fiji	Costa Rica	Mongolia
Kiribati	Finland	Lithuania	Bahrain	Qatar	Gingapore dollar	Iran	Ethiopia	Mozambique
Kosovo	France	ERM II	Bangladesh	Rwanda	Lasotho	Kuwait	Kazakhstan	Nigeria
Liechtenstein	Germany	ERM II	Barbados	St. Kitts & Nevis	Libya	Uzbekistan	Nicaragua	Pakistan
Marshall Islands	Greece	ERM II	Belize	St. Lucia	Morocco		Colombia	Rapua New Guinea
Micronesia	Ireland	ERM II	Bolivia	St. Vincent & the Grenadines	Myanmar		Congo, Dem. Rep. of	Guinea
Monaco	Italy	ERM II	Burundi	Saudi Arabia	Nepal		Paraguay	New Zealand
Montenegro	Luxembourg	ERM II	Cambodia	Sri Lanka	(Indian rupee)		Peru	Norway
Nauru	Malta	ERM II	Cameroon	Suriname	(S. African rand)		Philippines	Poland
Niue	Netherlands	ERM II	Chad	Tajikistan	Solomon Islands		Romania	Sweden
Panama	Portugal	ERM II	Cote d'Ivoire	Tanzania	Syria		Russia	Turkey
San Marino	Slovak Republic	ERM II	Dominica	Togo	(S. African rand)		Georgia	Turkmenistan
Tinor-Leste	Slovenia	ERM II	Dominican Republic	Trinidad & Tobago	Tunisia		Guatemala	United States
Tanzania	Spain	ERM II	Equatorial Guinea	Turkmenistan	Vanuatu		Guinea	
Zimbabwe			Gabon	United Arab Emirates			Sierra Leone	
			Guinea-Bissau	Venezuela			South Africa	
			Malawi				Sudan	
			Maldives				Serbia	
							Seychelles	
							Switzerland	
							India	
							Indonesia	
							Israel	
							Kenya	
							Korea, South	
							Kyrgyz Republic	
							Madagascar	
							Malawi	
							Malaysia	
							Mauritania	
							Mexico	

Source: Pugel (2012), p. 506

Phijaisanit (2017)