# Inflation, pt. 3

EC 103-003

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# Motivation

## Housekeeping

#### **Required readings**:

- Board of Governors of the Federal Reserve System
- FAQs About Treasury Marketable Securities

#### **Required listening:**

- Monetary Policy The Economic Lowdown Podcast Series
- Planet Money podcast: The Fed & Volcker's Socks

Central Banks play a crucial role during an inflationary period.

• But why is that so?

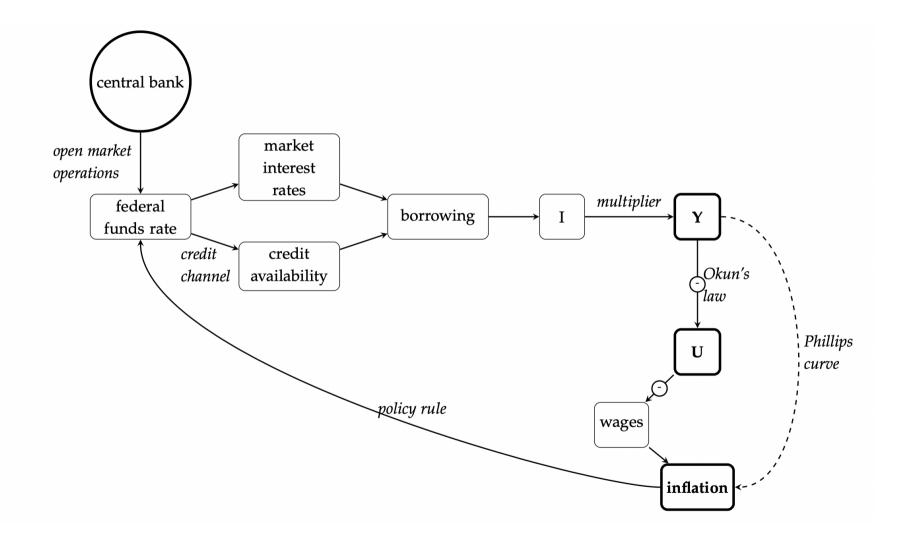
So far, we have studied **how** aggregate output (GDP), unemployment, and inflation are computed.

In addition, we have seen how these variables are **intertwined**:

- Okun's law;
- The Phillips curve.

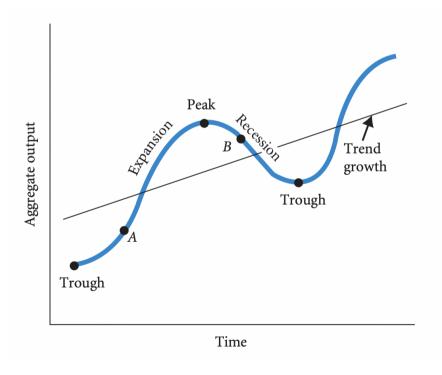
Now, it is time to see what **policy instruments** can bring **stability** to these relationships.

More specifically, we will connect this issue with what is going on today.



Over the past four decades, governments have delegated to **Central Banks** the role of *addressing* macroeconomic (in)stability.

In other words, Central Banks would act to make **business cycles** smoother.



Depending on the **state** of the economy, aggregate spending (mostly via aggregate *consumption* and *business investment*) will either over or underwhelm the economy's productive capacity.

When the economy is **overheated**, individuals try to buy *beyond* what producers can make available.

• Aggregate demand can put pressure on the price level.

Conversely, when there is excess **supply** of goods and services, more people tend to be unemployed and the price level tends to fall.

In both scenarios, **central banks** are the those in charge of adjusting **observed GDP** to its **potential** level.

There are **several** ways in which central banks can act as to either **encourage** consumers and firms to spend more, or to **cool down** aggregate demand.

This way, central banks basically employ **countercyclical** policies to manage the economy.

**Countercyclical** policies are measures that aim to either *boost* aggregate demand in recession periods, or *hit the brakes* on demand when the economy is overheated.

Economic policies conducted by central banks fall under the category of **monetary policy**.

**Monetary policy** involves influencing the economy through changes in the banking system's reserves, thus affecting the supply of money and the availability of credit.

• The main monetary policy tool is controlling interest rates.

**How much** money, **how easy** to obtain money, and **how costly** it is to have money in hand are crucial factors in a money- and credit-based economy.

Beyond other issues, monetary policy addresses these three problems through **controlling interest** rates.

- How much money? Money supply;
- How easy to obtain money? Controlling credit access;
- How costly to have money in hand? Controlling interest rates.

These three categories go hand-in-hand via the interest rate.

In **macroeconomic** terms, **interest rates** are the *price of credit*. In addition, interest rates can be thought of as the price of *current* money in terms of *future* money.

Central banks usually **do not** have **power** over private banking institutions regarding what interest rates these will charge.

Instead, what central banks can do is creating **incentives** for these banks to to either *rise* or *lower* their rates, depending on the state of the economy.

In the case of the US economy, the interest rate that the US Federal Reserve (FED) controls is the **federal funds rate**.

The **federal funds rate** is the interest rate large banks charge each other for *short-term* (usually overnight) reserve loans.

Central banks may change their *policy rate* (i.e., the interest rate) through:

- 1. Open market operations;
- 2. Using the **discount window**;
- 3. Paying interest on reserves.

Board time.

**Open market operations** involve the central bank buying (selling) government treasuries, thus increasing (decreasing) the amount of reserves banks have to borrow.

Changes in the interest rate through the so-called **discount window** work in a similar way, but involve loans made directly by the central bank to other banks.

Lastly, the central bank may also pay interest on banks' reserves.

Even though the **terminology** may be confusing, the federal funds rate is the **only** rate the central bank can actually decide on.

However, there are **several different** interest rates practiced in financial markets.

- 1-year government bonds;
- 10-year government bonds;
- 30-year mortgage...

Usually, these other interest rates will be equal to the policy (federal funds) rate, plus a spread.

Another way of applying monetary policy is, instead of changing interest rates, act in the economy through the **credit channel**.

The **credit channel** affects the *availability* of loans, even if interest rates remain unchanged.

This can be made concrete by banks being more selective in their lending decisions.

At the end of the day...

- How do interest rates **affect** spending decisions?
- In other words, how does monetary policy **affect** consumers and businesses?

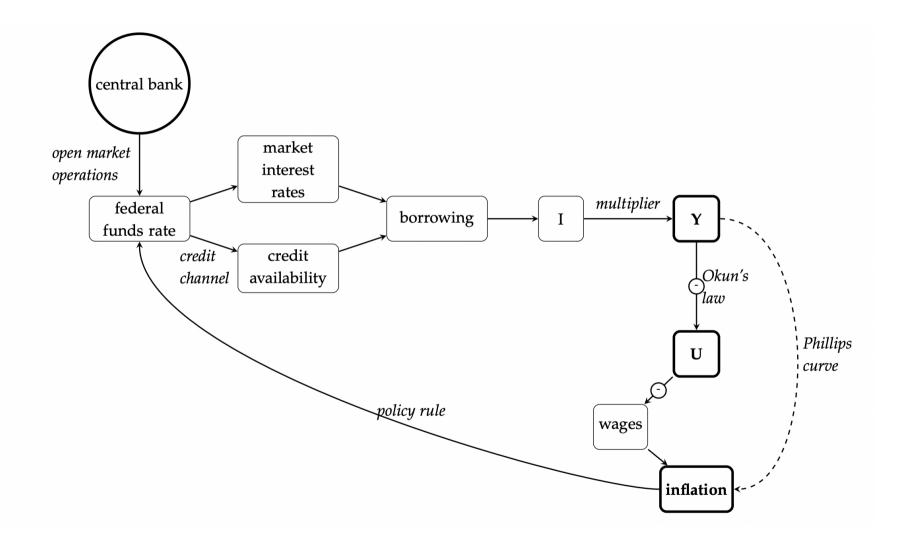
#### The pipeline goes as follows:

- The central bank changes its *policy rate*, namely the **federal funds rate**, which is the rate other banking institutions charge each other for short-term loans;
- According to the availability of reserves these banks have, their *nominal interest rate* (car loans, mortgage rates, etc.) will be changed, either making **credit** more or less accessible;
- How these interest rates change will affect households and businesses, especially in their
  consumption of durable goods (e.g., cars), and investment decisions (higher price of credit → less
  willingness to invest);
- With better (worse) access to credit, aggregate spending is more (less) encouraged. For the case of aggregate investment, an additional dollar spent on investment results in more than 1 additional dollar of spending, and thus, of GDP.
  - This is known as the multiplier effect of investment.

- As predicted by Okun's law, higher (lower) production of goods and services (i.e, higher GDP) decreases (increases) unemployment;
- With lower unemployment, **wages** tend to go up, allowing workers to have a higher bargaining power relative to employers.
  - This tends to create a wage-price spiral, as predicted by the Phillips curve.

This pipeline is **not** assumed to happen in the very short-run.

Instead, the FED engages in monetary policy expecting results in a one- to two-year window.



# The current scenario

#### The current scenario

Board of Governors of the Federal Reserve System

The US Federal Funds Rate

Next time: International trade