# Inflation, pt. 3

EC 103-004

Prof. Santetti Spring 2024

# 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?

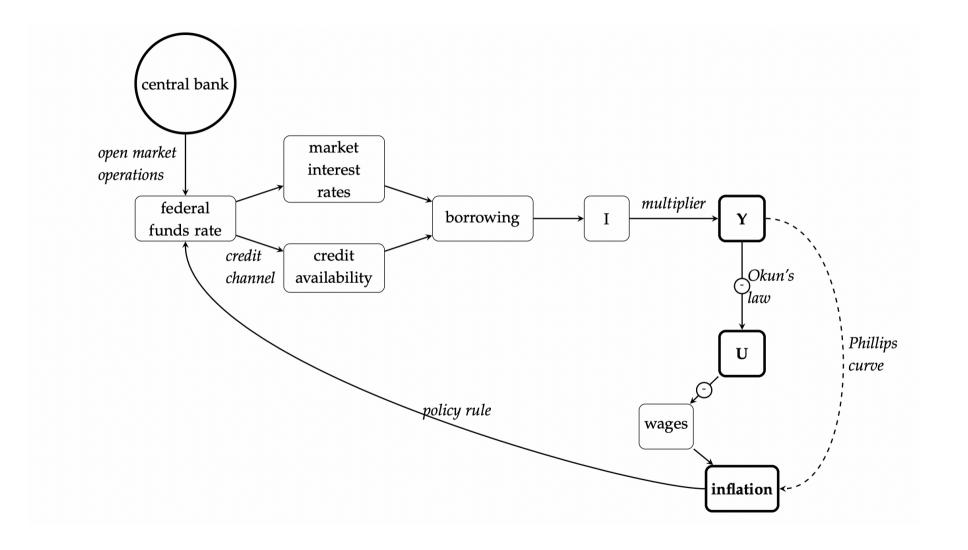
So far, we have studied **how** aggregate output (GDP), unemployment, and inflation are computed.

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

- Okun's law;
- The Phillips curve.

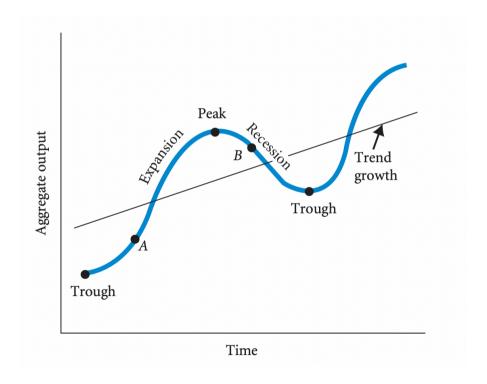
Now, it is time to see what **policy instruments** can bring **stability** to these relationships.

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?

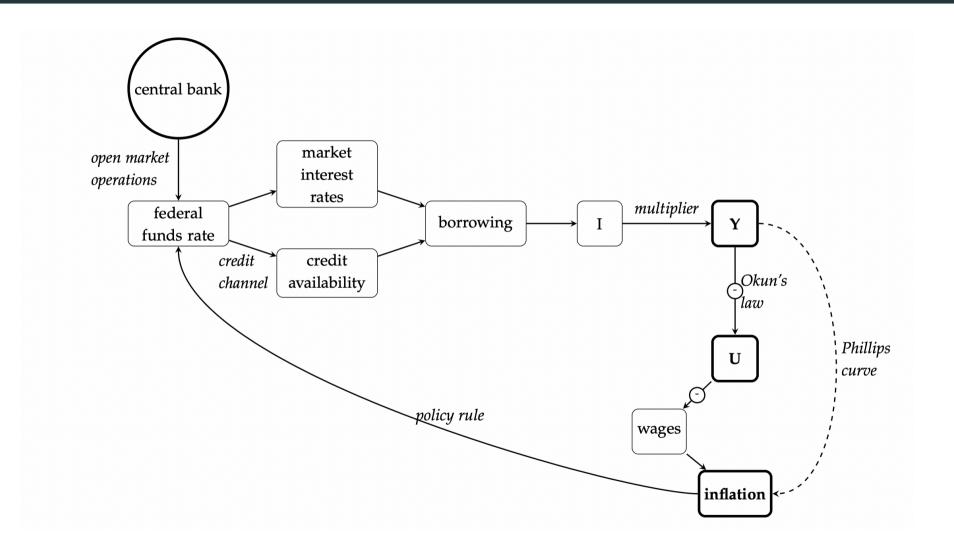
#### The pipeline goes as follows:

- 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