MONEY AND BANKING LECTURE 9: CENTRAL BANK AND MONETARY POLICY

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Introduction

- In last lecture, we discussed the role of central bank and money supply in *fiat money system*.
- Money supply is completed by central bank (monetary base), and commercial banks (liability).
- We use open market operations to prove that by creating monetary base, central bank could inject flexible money into the banking system. Under the work of endogenous money creation by balance sheet of commercial banks, the money supply in the economy would change correspondingly.
- In this lecture, we first continue to use central bank's balance sheet to verify the role of *lender of last resort*.
- Second, we take a quick review of monetary history and discuss why central bank is taking active monetary policy to contain inflation.
- Third, to contain inflation, how does central bank use monetary policy tools.

LENDER OF LAST RESORT

- When commercial banks confront with bank run, healthy banks are allowed to access central bank support, i.e., discount lending window.
- Through discount lending from central bank, healthy banks are able to get liquidity without fire sale of "good" assets.
- Banks could use "good" assets as collateral to get discount loans from central bank, and use the proceeds to meet liquidity demand.
- When banks survived from liquidity crisis, banks could repay the discount loans.
- The interest rate charged on discount loans is considered as penalty rate – it alters banks to have a good liquidity management.

WHY CENTRAL BANK IS RESPONSIBLE FOR INFLATION?

- Keynes (1936) mentioned in his seminal book *General Theory of* Employment, Money and Interest that speculation motive of holding money in financial crisis entails ineffectiveness of monetary policy, because money demand is unstable.
- In contrast, fiscal policy is more effective to stimulate *aggregate* demand. Active fiscal policy and accommodating monetary policy were considered as optimal policy mix in the 1950s.
- In addition, *Phillips curve*, i.e., negative relationship between inflation and unemployment, provided policymakers a trade-off menu. Either inflation tolerance, i.e., higher inflation, or employment improvement, i.e., lower unemployment rate.
- However, in the 1970s, high inflation and high unemployment was prevailing, that is, "Great Inflation".

INFLATION?

- Edward Phelps and Milton Friedman proposed that in the long run, there is no trade-off between inflation and unemployment, i.e., long-run Phillips curve is vertical.
- Economists from *Classical perspective* argue that the whole economy, given technology progress, has full-employment level output, in which all resources are optimally allocated. Yet, the realized output deviates from the full-employment level output somehow.
- Such a deviation is called *unemployment gap*, denoted as $(u_t \bar{u})$.
- On the other side, economic agents (e.g., households and corporations) use all available information to optimize decisions.
- e.g., Households make optimal consumption plan not only based on today's but also tomorrow's income (i.e., permanent income hypothesis).

- **E**conomic agents at time t could forecast next period t+1inflation, denoted as $E_t \pi_{t+1}$.
- Actual inflation π_t deviates from expected inflation, denoted as $\pi_t - E_{t-1}\pi_t$
- Phelps and Friedman *expectation-augmented Phillips curve* is $\pi_t = \pi_t^e - h(u_t - \bar{u}).$
- Expansionary fiscal policy plus easy monetary policy increase aggregate demand, leading to lower unemployment, i.e., negative unemployment gap.
- That brings about positive inflation gap, that is, $\pi_t > \pi_t^e$. Why so?

WHY CENTRAL BANK IS RESPONSIBLE FOR INFLATION?

- Government issues bond to finance increased government purchase (e.g., labor services and building materials for infrastructure).
- Central bank to take accommodating monetary policy to keep interest rate low so that financing cost for government is low.
- At time t-1, the public have no idea about government purchase increase, therefore the expected inflation π_t^{ℓ} is 5%.
- At time *t*, central bank increases money supply more than expected, resulting 10% inflation (i.e., $\pi_t = 10\%$).

- With *multiplier effect*, initial increased government purchase goes larger, pushing up aggregate demand.
- Increased price up encourages producers to produce more, because wage set in previous time is fixed. Labor is cheaper (why?) So, unemployment is lower.
- However, by the end of time *t*, households would ask 5% more increase in wage to compensate purchasing power loss because of unanticipated inflation rise.
- Real wage W_t/P_t keeps unchange as at time t-1. Producers have no incentive to keep expanded production scale. Added labor laid off, i.e., unemployment increases.

- (*Unanticipated*) Expansionary fiscal policy plus easy monetary policy has no influence on labor market, unemployment is still as same as before.
- The only thing has changed is the price level, inflation goes up.
- Without fiscal policy, only expansionary monetary policy can also lead to higher inflation, but no improvement in employment.
- Such proposition in Classical Macroeconomics and New Keynesian *Macroeconomics is called money neutrality*.

- Central bank has the secret weapon, i.e., *monetary base*, which can be used to increase money supply in the whole system.
- From the 1970s, central banks are assigned an important job: *keep* price stability as primary monetary policy objective.
- So far, many central banks in developed and some developing economies adopt *inflation* as indicator for *price stability*.
- To be specific, central banks in those economies announce an inflation target (forecasted) to achieve given a period of time.
- Such a monetary policy framework is called *inflation-targeting* monetary policy.

WHY CENTRAL BANK IS RESPONSIBLE FOR INFLATION?

- However, *inflation-targeting monetary policy* does not mean the only goal of monetary policy is *price stability*.
- It also takes output gap $(y_t \bar{y})$ into consideration, because it relates to social welfare too.
- Hence, inflation-targeting central banks pursue minimization of a social loss function

$$\min L = (\pi_t - \pi^*)^2 + \alpha (y_t - \bar{y})^2$$
,

where π^* is inflation target set by central bank, α is tradeoff coefficient to measure the importance of output gap in the loss function.

- Central bank, assigned with this job (minimize this social loss function), how to achieve that tools.
- Recall from your *Macroeconomics*, $y_t = c_t + i_t + g_t$, where durable consumption, investment and government expenditure (bond financing) all related to real interest rate r_t .
- *Fisher equation* tells us the relationship between real interest rate, nominal interest rate, and expected inflation as follows.

$$i_t = r_t + \pi_t^e$$
,

- The trick used by modern monetary policy is that by keeping inflation in target, i.e., π_t^e is a constant, central bank can use tools to lower (raise) nominal interest rate i_t , to get lower (higher) real interest rate r_t , so that output y_t expands (contracts).
- It renders a famous monetary policy rule, i.e., Taylor's rule (John B. Taylor, 1993)

$$\hat{i}_t = \phi_\pi(\hat{\pi}_t - \hat{\pi}^*) + \phi_y(\hat{y}_t - \hat{y}^*) + arepsilon_{MR,t}$$
 ,

- $\phi_{\pi} > 1$ is the coefficient for interest rate to respond inflation, and Taylor's rule tells it should be greater than unity. Otherwise, the economy falls into indeterminancy, or disequilibrium.
- $\varepsilon_{MR,t}$ includes all other factors, e.g., unanticipated, affecting interest rate setting by central bank.

INFLATION?

- Modern central banks use New Keynesian economic model called *Dynamic Stochastic General Equilibrium* (DSGE) to explore the effectiveness of monetary policy.
- It states Taylor's rule as follows:

$$\hat{i}_t = \hat{i}_{t-1} + \phi_\pi(\hat{\pi}_t - \hat{\pi}^*) + \phi_y(\hat{y}_t - \hat{y}^*) + \varepsilon_{MR,t}$$
 ,

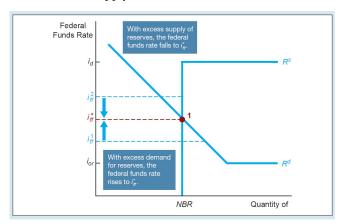
- \hat{i}_{t-1} indicates *interest rate smoothing*. It shows central banks, instead of setting interest rate abruptly, set interest rate based on past interest rate path.
- Further discussion related to this topic is beyond the scope of this course.

CENTRAL BANK'S INTEREST RATE MANIPULATION IN INTERBANK MARKET

- In this section, we discuss how central banks to use monetary policy tools to manipulate interest rate in *interbank market*.
- To start with, analysis of supply and demand curve in interbank market is necessary.
- Interbank market is where *reserves* are supplied and demanded.
- Central banks employ monetary policy tools to influence interest rate in interbank market.

SUPPLY AND DEMAND IN INTERBANK MARKET

FIGURE 1: Supply and Demand in Interbank Market



DEMAND CURVE IN INTERBANK MARKET

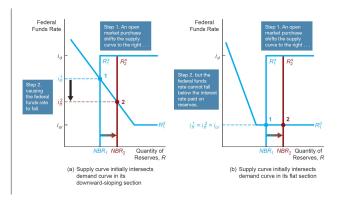
- Reserves in the banking system can be divided into two parts (1) required reserves and (2) excess reserves.
- Excess reserves are *insurance* against deposit outflows, and the cost of holding excess reserves is the opportunity cost, the interest rate earned on lending reserves out, minus the interest rate earned on these reserve, i_{or} .
- When interest rate in interbank market is above i_{or} , banks are willing to lend out excess reserves to earn extra interests.
- When the interest rate falls below i_{or} , banks prefer to holding excess reserves at the account of central bank to earn i_{or} .

SUPPLY CURVE IN INTERBANK MARKET

- The supply of reserves, *R*^s, can be broken up into two components: reserves supplied by the central bank's open market operations, called *nonborrowed reserves* (NBR), and reserves borrowed from the central bank, called *borrowed reserves* (BR).
- The central bank will charge the interest rate i_d for financial institutions which borrow reserves from it.
- If the interest rate in interbank market goes above i_d , financial institutions (technically speaking) would borrow money from the central bank.
- So from the demand and supply curves we have i_{or} as floor and i_d as ceiling. Interest Rate Corridor.

OMOS ON INTERBANK MARKET

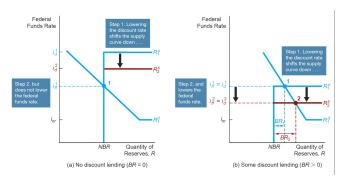
FIGURE 2: Supply and Demand in Interbank Market



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DISCOUNT LENDING ON INTERBANK MARKET

FIGURE 3: Supply and Demand in Interbank Market



REQUIRED RESERVE RATIO ON INTERBANK MARKET

FIGURE 4: Supply and Demand in Interbank Market

