## Inflation, pt. III EC 103-02

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# Motivation

## Housekeeping

#### **Required readings**:

- Board of Governors of the Federal Reserve System
- FAQs About Treasury Marketable Securities
- A Warning for the World Economy: The worst is yet to come (NYT)
- The Fed Wants to Quash Inflation. But Can It Do It More Gently? (NYT)

As it is possible to see from the articles, **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.

Potential GDP vs. actual GDP

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**.

• 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

Board of Governors of the Federal Reserve System

The US Federal Funds Rate

# Next time: Inflation discussions