OVS452 Intermediate Economics II VSE NF, Fall 2009 Lecture Notes #8 Eva Hromádková

8 Money and inflation

8.1 Motivation

Main focus: inflation = the percentage change in overall level of $prices^1$

- mechanism: inflation level of prices rate of exchange of money for G & S
- ass.: prices are fully flexible (long run)

Overview:

- 1. Money: definition + typology, demand & supply side
- 2. Inflation mechanism: money supply -> prices -> inflation
- 3. Determinants and channels of inflation nominal interest rate
- 4. Costs of inflation expected and unexpected
- 5. Hyperinflation

8.2 Money - what is it, how is the amount determined ?

Wide definition = stock of assets that can be readily used for transactions (value + liquidity + exchange)

8.2.1 Functions of money:

- 1. store of value: in time, imperfect (inflation)
- 2. unit of account: terms in which prices are quoted measurement of value)
- 3. medium of exchange: acceptable for purchase
 - liquidity how fast you can convert money to G & S
 - barter \Leftrightarrow double coincidence of needs

¹For an overview of rates of inflation over the world, see linked map.

8.2.2 Types of money:

- Historical evolution: barter -> commodity money -> fiat money
- commodity money: has intrinsic value (valuable on its own)
 - goods that are highly durable, accessible in limited amount (not few, not too much), small and easy to transport, widely valued and accepted
 - gold, silver, salt (African tribes, 15^{th} century)
 - funny examples: cigarettes (POW camps), stones fei (island Yap)
- fiat money: with no intrinsic value matter of general acceptance as means of payment
 - first fiat money probably China

8.2.3 Money supply = amount of money

- commodity money quantity of given commodity, fiat money # of printed banknotes, coins + other liquid assets
- Agent of government = **central bank** (in Czech republic = CNB)
- direct + indirect tools to regulate

Measure = Monetary aggregates (Czech National Bank data, by 31.1.2009):

| | Definition | Amount (CZK millions) |
|----|---|-----------------------|
| С | currency in circulation | $362\ 815.6$ |
| M1 | $ m C+ overnight \; deposits$ | $1\ 665\ 559.1$ |
| M2 | ${ m M1}+{ m deposits}{ m with}{ m maturity}<2{ m years}$ | |
| | + deposits redeemable up to 3 months | $2\ 645\ 565.6$ |
| M3 | M2 + repurchase agreements + money market | |
| | fund shares $+$ debt securities (up to 2 years) | $2\ 713\ 673.8$ |

- $\bullet~{\rm C}$ and M1 store of value + medium of exchange
- M2 and M3 only store of value

Role of banks in determination of money supply:

- Banks use deposits made by customers to make loans (mortgages, etc.)
- **Reserves**: deposits that banks have received but did not lend out, goal = availability in case when depositors want to make withdrawal

• Example: let us assume reserve-deposit ratio (rr) = 20%

| Assets | | Liabilities | |
|----------|-----|-------------|----------|
| Reserves | 200 | Deposits | $1\ 000$ |
| Loans | 800 | | |

- Borrower can post it in another bank => resources for further loans
- Banks can "create money" = create assets (loans) that are part of money supply => M = 1000 + 800
- Total money supply $= \frac{1}{rr} \times \text{initial}M$

MODEL:

- reserve-deposit ratio (rr) determined by banks + regulating laws (min. level)
- currency-deposit ratio (cr) HH's preferences over their money holdings

$$B(\text{monetary base}) = C(\text{currency}) + R(\text{reserves})$$

$$M(\text{money supply}) = C(\text{currency}) + D(\text{deposits})$$

$$\frac{M}{B} = \frac{C+D}{C+R} = \frac{\frac{C}{D}+1}{\frac{C}{D}+\frac{R}{D}} = \frac{1+cr}{cr+rr}$$

$$M = \frac{1+cr}{cr+rr} \times B$$

• $\nearrow B = \gg \nearrow M; \quad \nearrow rr = \gg \searrow M; \quad \nearrow cr = \gg \searrow M$

Instruments of monetary policy: indirect

• open-market operations: purchases & sales of government bonds

- buys bonds => increase in M; sells bonds => decrease in M

- reserve requirements: minimum reserve-deposit ratio
 - affects creation of new money through banks
- discount rate: charged on loans by CB for banks in case they have too low reserves to meet reserve requirements

8.3 Quantity theory of money

Quantity equation: identity relating amount of money in the economy with the number of transactions / income

$$M \times V = P \times T$$

where M - money supply, V - transaction velocity of money, P - price level, T - # of transactions

$$M \times V = P \times Y$$

where M - money supply, V - income velocity of money, P - price level, Y - real GDP

Money demand function:

• M - nominal value of money, $\frac{M}{P}$ - real money balances = how much can one buy

$$\left(\frac{M}{P}\right)^D = kY$$

• we can rewrite it to the form of quantity equation

$$\frac{M}{P} = kY \quad \rightarrow \quad \frac{M}{k} = PY \quad \rightarrow \quad V = \frac{1}{k}$$

- $\nearrow k \longrightarrow V$ (k is small => holdings of money are small => velocity is high)
- assumption: velocity V is constant $=> M\bar{V} = PY$
- How is price level determined: V is constant and Y is determined by real variables => changes in P depends on changes in M primarly

$$\pi = \frac{\Delta P}{P} = \frac{\Delta M}{M} - \frac{\Delta Y}{Y}$$

8.4 Inflation and interest rates

Two types of interest rates:

- **nominal** interest rate *i*: what bank pays, not adjusted for inflation
- real interest rate r: adjusted for inflation, real return to investment

Relationship = Fisher equation

 $i = r + \pi$

• as r is determined on market for loanable funds (I = S), then nominal int. rate accommodates for inflation => increase in π equals increase in i = Fisher effect

Role of expectations - two real interest rates:

- ex ante real interest rate = $i \pi^e$, where π^e is inflation rate expected at the time when people buy bond/take out loan
- ex post real interest rate = $i \pi$, where π is inflation rate realized at the time of selling the bond/repayment of loan

How this translates into money demand?

- nominal interest rate = opportunity cost of holding money => $\left(\frac{M}{P}\right)^D = L(Y, i)$
- relevant is expected inflation rate $\pi^e => \left(\frac{M}{P}\right)^D = L(Y, r + \pi^e)$
- price level does not only depend on current money supply BUT also on money supply expected in the future (through π^e)

8.5 Costs of inflation

- Common opinion: Inflation reduces real wages !
- BUT In the long run, real wage is determined by labor supply and labor demand, that is derived from marg. product of labor (not by price or inflation rate)



- change in price level = change in units of measurement
- Why, then, is inflation such a social problem?

8.5.1 Costs of expected inflation

1. shoeleather costs

- costs related to reducing money balances held, to avoid the inflation tax
- $\nearrow \pi \implies 1 \implies M = M$ (opportunity costs of holding money are high)
- same monthly spending + lower average money holding = more frequent trips to bank (time, fixed fees, etc.)

2. menu costs

• costs of changing prices for firms - new menus, new catalogues, repricing

3. variation in relative prices

- firms change their prices at different times => relative price distortions
- microeconomic inefficiencies in allocation of resources

4. unfair tax treatment

• some taxes are not adjusted for inflation - e.g. capital gains tax

5. general inconvenience

• hard to compare nominal values from different time periods => hard to do financial planning

8.5.2 Costs of unexpected inflation

- 1. Arbitrary redistribution of wealth: when contracts are based on expected inflation π^e and π turns out different, e.g. debts (debtor vs. lenders:
 - if $\pi > \pi^e = >$ debtor is better off than lender (lender gets lower real interest rate)
 - if $\pi < \pi^e =>$ debtor is worse off than lender (debtor has to pay higher interest rate
- 2. Higher uncertainty due to risk aversion, people are worse off

8.5.3 Benefits :-) of inflation

- positive effect on labor market as nominal wages are rarely cut, without inflation real wages would be above the equilibrium level implied by lower demand
- "taxation" of underground economy

8.6 Hyperinflation

Definition: if $\pi > 50\%$ in a month (i.e. 100x increase in prices over a year)

- money loses function of a store of value => affects other functions (mainly as medium of exchange)
- all costs become huuuuuuge
- return back to barter, commodity money or use of foreign currency

Highest monthly inflation rates in history:

| Country | Month of | highest π | daily π | time needed for |
|------------|---------------|--------------------------|-------------|----------------------|
| | highest π | (monthly) | | prices to double |
| Hungary | July 1946 | $1.30 \times 10^{16} \%$ | 195~% | 15.6 hours |
| Zimbabwe | Nov 2008 | 79600000000% | 98~% | 24.7 hours |
| Yugoslavia | Jan 1994 | 313 000 000 % | 64.6~% | $1.4 \mathrm{days}$ |
| Germany | Oct 1923 | 29 500 % | 20.9~% | $3.7 \mathrm{~days}$ |
| Greece | Nov 1994 | 11 300 % | 17.1~% | $4.5 \mathrm{~days}$ |
| China | May 1949 | $4\ 210\ \%$ | 13.4~% | $5.6 \mathrm{days}$ |

Cause: excessive money printing by government

- government needs to cover its expenditures (**seignorage**), and it cannot raise taxes or get the financing by issuing bonds (bad credit risk)
- **self-enforcing:** more money is printed => lower value of tax revenue => need for further printing

End: strict and painful fiscal reform - both expenditure and revenue (taxes) side

8.7 Classical Dichotomy

- real variables = variables measured in physical units (e.g. real GDP, real wage)
- **nominal variables** = variables expressed in terms of money (e.g. nominal wage, nominal interest rate)

Classical dichotomy: theoretical separation of real and nominal variables in the classical model, which implies that nominal variables do not affect real variables

Neutrality of money: changes in the money supply do not affect real variables

• both approximately true in the long run