Money Supply and Money Demand Slides for International Finance (KOMIF4/KOMIE15)

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Preview

Defining money

- Policy control of the money supply
- Determinants of the demand for monetary assets
- Interest rate determination
 - equilibrium in the money market
- Exchange rate determination redux
 - Linking the money market and FX market
- Long run effects of money supply changes
 - prices, interest rates, and exchange rates

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Monetary Authority

Monetary authority: institution authorized to set monetary policy. (Most often a central bank.)

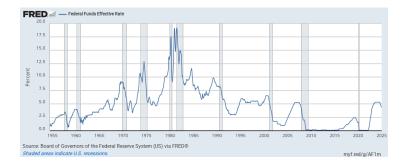
A monetary authority can fairly directly control

- the high-powered money stock
- the interbank lending rate (e.g., Fed funds rate)

These policy actions determine the "supply of money" (e.g., M1).

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Fed Funds



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Money: assets that are commonly used as a means of payment. Currency and checkable deposits are often used in transactions. Bank deposits in the foreign exchange market are excluded from this definition.

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Different groups of assets may be classified as money. Examples: http: //research.stlouisfed.org/fred2/categories/24 Definitions: https://www.federalreserve.gov/ releases/h6/current/default.htm



M1: currency held by public + checkable deposits

Source: http://research.stlouisfed.org/fred2/ series/M1SL?cid=25

All FRED® Graphs appear courtesy of Federal Reserve Bank of St. Louis. https://fred.stlouisfed.org/

Monetary Base



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Money Supply

- The monetary authority can roughly control the money supply.
- US monetary authority is a central banking system: Federal Reserve System.

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The Fed can directly regulate the monetary base

money supply (M): the quantity of money that circulates in an economy, currency held by public plus checkable deposits

M = C + D

monetary base (MB): currency held by public + reserves of banks $\mathrm{MB} = \mathcal{C} + \mathcal{R}$

influences broader measures of the money supply

e.g., checkable deposits (including debit card accounts)

Money Multiplier

$$M = C + D$$
$$MB = C + R$$
$$M/MB = \frac{C + D}{C + R}$$

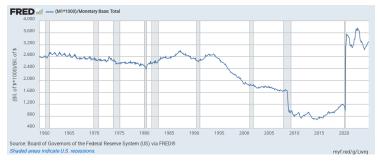
Define c = C/D and r = R/D:

$$M/MB = \frac{c+1}{c+r}$$
$$M = \frac{c+1}{c+r}MB$$

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Since 1 > r, the money multipler exceeds unity.

Money Multiplier (US)



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Wait! Something must be wrong! There has been a ...

The Board's Statistical Release H.6, "Money Stock Measures" now recognizes savings deposits as a type of transaction account, but the data are revised only back to May 2020! https: //www.federalreserve.gov/releases/h6/20210223/

M2 Money Multiplier



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Two Views of Monetary Policy

https://fred.stlouisfed.org/graph/fredgraph.
png?g=dWP3

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Monetary Policy

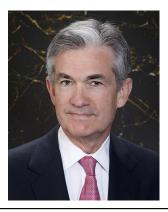
- US: Federal Open Market Committee (FOMC) of the Fed The seven members of the Board of Governors of the Federal Reserve System plus five Fed bank presidents (including NY). http://www.federalreserve.gov/ monetarypolicy/fomc.htm
- EU: Governing Council of the ECB The Executive Board of the ECB, which is analogous to the Fed's Board of Governors, plus the governors of national central banks (like the FOMC) http://www.ecb.int/ecb/orga/decisions/govc/ html/index.en.html
- JP: the Policy Board of the Bank of Japan The BoJ's highest executive body, comprising the Governor, Deputy Governors, and others.

http://www.boj.or.jp/en/about/organization/
policyboard/index.htm/

Some Policy Makers

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Jerome Powell (16th Chair of the Fed's BoG)



JD from Georgetown 1979 Investment Banker 1984-1990 Partner, Carlyle Group Feb 1997-Aug 2005 Member, Board of Governors 2012-2017 Chair, BoG of Fed Jan 2018-

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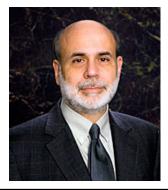
present

Janet Yellen (15th Chair of the Fed's BoG)



PhD from Yale 1971 Member, BoG of Fed 1994-1997 Chair, CEA Feb 1997-Aug 1999 President, SF Fed June 2004-2010 Vice Chair, BoG of Fed 2010-2014 Chair, BoG of Fed Feb 2014-2018 Secretary of the Treasury 2021 - 2025

Ben Bernanke (14th Chair of the Fed's BoG)



PhD from MIT 1979 Chair, Princeton Econ Dpt 1996 - 2002 Member, Fed BoG 2002 - 2005 Chair, CEA June 2005 - Jan 2006 Chair, BoG of Fed Feb 2006 -Feb 2014

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Alan Greenspan (13th Chair of the Fed's BoG)



1977 PhD from NYU1982--1988 Director, Council on Foreign Relations1987--2006 Chair, BoG of Fed

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Kazuo Ueda (32nd Governor, Bank of Japan)



PhD in Economics MIT 1980 (under Stanley Fischer)

Dean of Economics 2005 2007, University of Tokyo

Dean of Business 2007 - 2023, Kyoritsu Women's University

Governor, Bank of Japan April 2023 - present first academic BoJ governor

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Bank of England

Governor and Company of the Bank of England

- **1694** established as a private institution, granted a royal charter by William III
- 1734 moved to Thread-needle Street
- 1931 policy making subordinated to the Treasury
- 1946 nationalized
- **1997** granted operational independence; formalized in 1998 Bank of England Act

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Source: http://www.bankofengland.co.uk/about/
history/index.htm

Court of Directors Governor, 2 Deputy Governors, 9 Non-Executive Directors

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Monetary Policy Committee chaired by BoE governor, sets monetary policy

Andrew Bailey: 121st Governor of the BoE



1985 PhD in History, University of Cambridge

2016-2020 Chief Executive Officer, Financial Conduct Authority

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2020 - present BoE Governor

European Central Bank (ECB)



Figure: ECB Logo

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Responsible for euro area monetary policy since 1 January 1999.

Christine Lagarde, 4th President of the ECB (since Nov 2019)



- **1980** Law Degrees, University Paris X Law School
- 2007-2011 Minister of Economy and Finance (France)
- 2011--2019 Managing Director, IMF
- 2019--present ECB President

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ECB Governing Council

ECB Governing Council

- six members of the Executive Board, plus
- governors of the national central banks of the 16 euro area countries.

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the main decision-making body of the ECB.

The ECB GC formulates monetary policy for the euro area. The ECB Governing Council usually meets twice a month at the Eurotower in Frankfurt am Main, Germany.

ECB Deposit Rate

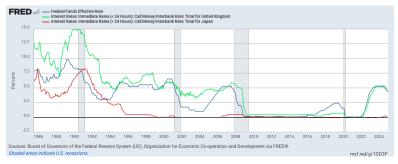
The Eurosystem offers credit institutions two standing facilities:

- Marginal lending facility in order to obtain overnight liquidity from the central bank, against the presentation of sufficient eligible assets;
- Deposit facility in order to make overnight deposits with the central bank.

In addition, banks pay the main refinancing operations (MRO) rate to borrow money (collateralized) from the ECB for one week. https://www.ecb.europa.eu/press/govcdec/mopo/ html/index.en.html

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Interest Rates over Time



Source: FRED

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Eurosystem

historical novelty

- supranational monetary union
- Euro launched 1 Jan 1999 (replacing ECU as accounting currency)
- Physical euros since 1 Jan 2002
- European Central Bank (ECB)
 - led by Governing Council
- National central banks (NCBs)
 - EU member states that have adopted the Euro (the euro area, or "eurozone")

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Money demand: the amount of money individuals and businesses are willing to hold (instead of illiquid assets).

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Real money demand (L): the amount of purchasing power individuals and businesses are willing to hold in the form of money (instead of illiquid assets).

Influences on the Demand for Money

1. Expected returns: rates of returns on non-monetary assets (compared to monetary assets) monetary assets pay little or no interest the interest rate on non-monetary assets is the opportunity cost of holding monetary assets: $\uparrow R \rightarrow \downarrow L$

2. Risk

the risk of holding M is largely inflation risk, which reduces the purchasing power of money.

but other assets have this risk too, so this risk is not very important in defining the demand for monetary assets

3. Liquidity:

M is the most liquid asset: it is the asset with the lowest cost of turning it into other assets or commodities

4. Prices and income $\uparrow P - \uparrow$ need for M; $\uparrow Y - \uparrow$ need for M;

Prices and Income

- A higher level of average prices means a greater need for liquidity to buy the same amount of goods and services -> higher nominal demand for money.
- A higher real national income (GNP) means more goods and services are being produced and bought in transactions, increasing the need for liquidity -> higher real demand for money.

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Money Demand

Aggregate demand for real monetary assets (L) is influenced by

- transactions demand (national income)
- opportunity cost (interest rates)
- ▶ real: $L[\overline{R}, \overline{Y}]$

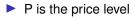
where:

- Y is real national income
- R is a measure of interest rates on non-monetary assets

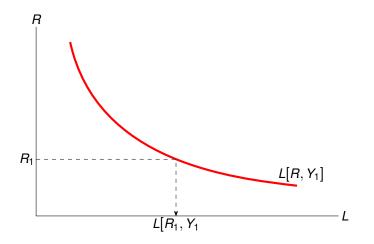
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Aggregate nominal money demand: $P \times L[R, Y]$

where:



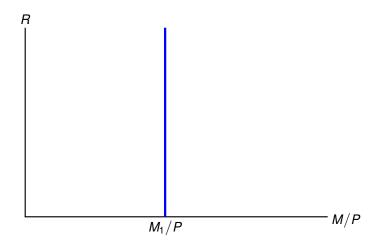
Real Money Demand and the Nominal Interest Rate



$\uparrow R \rightarrow \downarrow L$ (move *along* schedule)

Compare to KOMIE Fig 15-1 (KOMIF 4-1). M^d/P is aggregate real balances demanded at R_1 .

Real Money Supply and the Nominal Interest Rate



Policy assumption: The real money supply does not respond to R.

The money market: markets for trading monetary (very liquid) assets, which are loosely called "money". Interest rates on monetary assets are low compared to interest rates on less liquid assets (such as bonds, loans, and deposits of currency in the foreign exchange markets).

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A Model of the Money Market

Short-Run Money Market Equilibrium:

no shortages (excess demand) or surpluses (excess supply) of monetary assets.

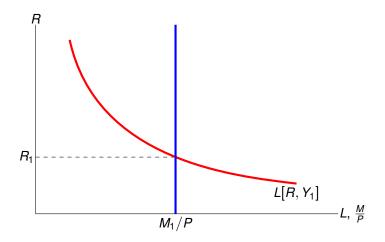
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R moves endogenously to clear money market

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In nominal terms: M = PL[R, Y]
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In real terms: M/P = L[R, Y]

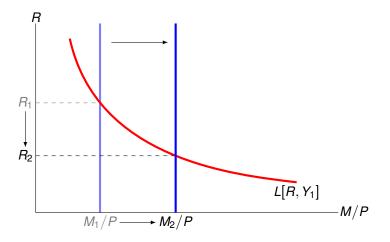
Money Demand = Money Supply in Equilibrium



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Note: in the equilibrium, note $M_1/P = L[R_1, Y_1]$ Compare to KOMIE Fig 15-3 (KOMIF 4-3).

Interest Rate Effect of Increase in Money Supply (given P)



Note: compare KOMIE Fig 15-4 (KOMIF 4-4)

 $\uparrow M \rightarrow \downarrow R \text{ (given P)}$

An open market purchase increases the money supply:

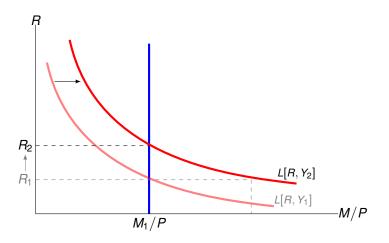
https://www.federalreserve.gov/monetarypolicy/openmarket.htm

Increase in Income Shifts Money Demand Schedule

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 \uparrow income $\rightarrow \uparrow$ L (at each R) Note: compare KOMIE 15-2 (KOMIE 4-2)

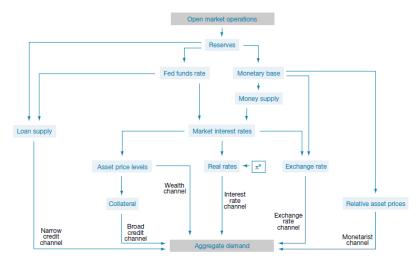
Interest Rate Response to a Rise in Real Income



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Note: compare KOMIF Fig 4-5 (KOM 15-5). $Y_2 > Y_1$. An increase in Y raises L, increasing the equilibrium interest rate.

Transmission Mechanism

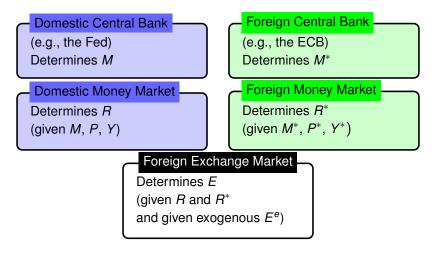


The [Kuttner.Mosser-2002-EconPolRev] characterization of the monetary policy transmission mechanism.

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Simplified Transmission Mechanism

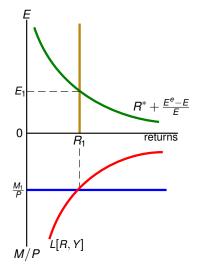
Short-Run Money Market/Exchange Rate Linkages:



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Note: compare KOMIF Fig 4-7 (KOM 15-7)

Simultaneous Equilibrium (Money Market and FX Market)



Note: compare KOMIE 15-6

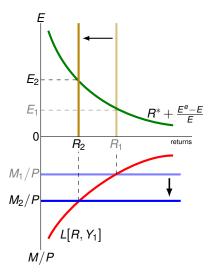
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Increase in the Domestic Money Supply $(\downarrow R)$

- 1. $\uparrow M \rightarrow \downarrow R$, reducing the expected rate of return on dollar deposits.
- As FX mkt participants flee the USD for the EUR, the USD depreciates. (I.e, the EUR appreciates.)
 How far? Until expected rates of return are again equal.
- 3. Since the US sets its interest rate independently, there is no change in the U.S. money market.

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Graphing the Shock: Increase in M



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Summarizing the Shock: Increase in M

Intial state:

- \triangleright $R = R^*$
- $\blacktriangleright E^e = E_1$
- $E = E_1$ (zero expected future depreciation)

•
$$M/P = M_1/P_1$$
 (with $M = M_1$ and $P = P_1$)

Short state:

- $\triangleright R = R^*$
- $\blacktriangleright E^e = E_1$
- $E = E_2 > E^e$ (negative expected future depreciation)

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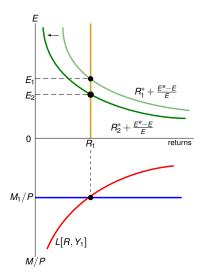
• $M/P = M_2/P_1$ ($M = M_2$ but $P = P_1$)

Increase in the Foreign Money Supply $(\downarrow R^*)$

- 1. $\uparrow M^* \rightarrow \downarrow R^*$, reducing the expected rate of return on euro deposits.
- As FX mkt participants flee the EUR for the USD, the EUR depreciates. (I.e, the USD appreciates.)
 How far? Until expected rates of return are again equal.
- 3. Since the US sets its interest rate independently, there is no change in the U.S. money market.

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Expansionary Monetary Policy Abroad $(\downarrow R^*)$



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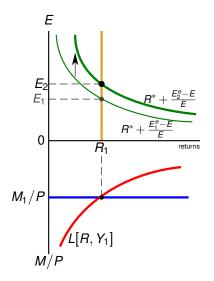
Increase in the Expected Future Spot Rate

 ↑ E^e → ↑ expected depreciation, increasing the expected rate of return on euro deposits.

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- As FX mkt participants flee the USD for the EUR, the USD depreciates. (I.e, the EUR appreciates.)
 How far? Until expected rates of return are again equal.
- 3. There is no change in monetary policy.

Impact Effect of \uparrow Ee



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What is the long run? Long enough for a change in the money supply to produce its full effect on the economy.

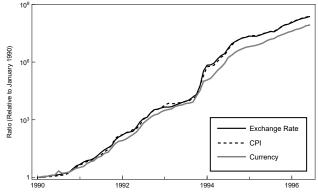
Long-run neutrality of money: In the long run, a change in M produces a proportional change in all nominal stock variables (e.g., P, E, etc) In the long run, a change in M does not change any real variables (e.g., M/P, EP*/P, etc)

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Long run: monetary policy influences prices

Short run: monetary policy influences interest rates

Inflation in Zaire



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Source: IMF Get Zaire data: here Get Zaire data documentation: here

Long Run and Short Run

Up to now, have have considered short-run analysis. In the long run, prices of factors of production and of output have sufficient time to adjust to market conditions.

Short Run

prices do not have enough time to adjust to market conditions.

Long Run

- Wages adjust to equate the demand for and supply of labor.
- Real output (income) is determined by the economy's productive capacity—factor supplies (e.g., the supply of labor) and technology. (*Not* by the quantity of money.)
- Real interest rates depend on the supply of saved funds and demand for these funds.

Long Run (cont.)

Long-run prediction for \uparrow M:

- no change in Y
- no change in (real) interest rate
- no change in L[R,Y], the aggregate demand for real monetary assets L[R,Y].

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▶ proportional ↑P

Long Run (cont.)

Equilibrium condition: M/P = L[R,Y]

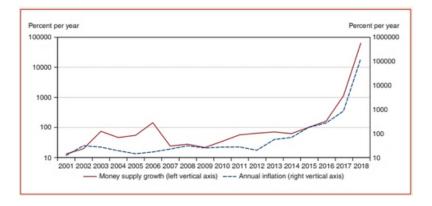
now predicts that P adjusts proportionally when M changes. In the long run, there is a direct relationship between the inflation rate and changes in the money supply.

$$M/P = L[R, Y]$$
$$P = M/L[R, Y]$$
$$\Delta P/P = \Delta M/M - \Delta L/L$$

The inflation rate is predicted to equal the growth rate in money supply minus the growth rate in money demand.

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The VZ Hyperinflation



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Inflation in Turkey

https://fred.stlouisfed.org/graph/?g=10arw

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Money and Prices in the Long Run

How does a change in the money supply cause prices of output and inputs to change?

- Excess demand for goods and services: a higher quantity of money supplied implies that people have more funds available to pay for goods and services.
 - To meet high demand, producers hire more workers, creating a strong demand for labor services, or make existing employees work harder.
 - Wages rise to attract more workers or to compensate workers for overtime.
 - Prices of output will eventually rise to compensate for higher costs.
 - Alternatively, for a fixed amount of output and inputs, producers can charge higher prices and still sell all of their output due to the high demand.

Money and Prices in the Long Run (cont.)

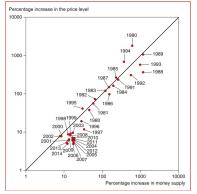
Inflationary expectations

- If workers expect future prices to rise due to an expected money supply increase, they will want to be compensated.
- And if producers expect the same, they are more willing to raise wages.
- Producers will be able to match higher costs if they expect to raise prices.
- Result: expectations about inflation caused by an expected increase in the money supply causes actual inflation.

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Average Money Growth and Inflation

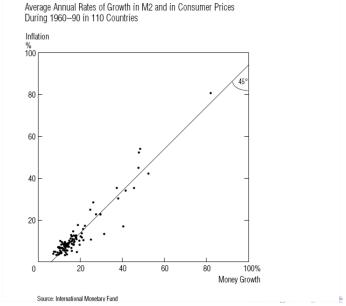
Western Hemisphere Developing Countries, by Year, 1987–2007



Source: KOM fig 4-10 (15-10)

Data Source: IMF, World Economic Outlook, various issues. Regional aggregates are weighted by shares of dollar GDP in total regional dollar GDP.

Average Money Growth and Inflation, by Country (1960–1990)



Short-Run Effects of a Permanent Increase in the U.S. Money Supply

Combine two previous experiments:

 \uparrow **M** (given E^e): drives down R, producing a depreciation.

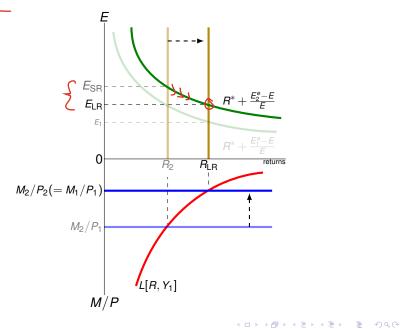
↑ E^e (given M): At each *E*, the expected return on euro deposits rises because E^e rises, producing additional depreciation.

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 E^e changes because the change in M is *permanent*. Note: Y remains exogenously fixed.

Short-Run Effects of a Permanent Increase in M E E_{SR} $R^* + \frac{E_2^e - E}{E}$ E_1 $R^* + \frac{E_1^e - E}{E}$ 0 returns R_2 R_1 M_{1}/P_{1} M_2/P_1 $L[R, Y_1]$ M/P

Long-Run Effects of a Permanent Increase in M



Permanent \uparrow **M**: \rightarrow a proportional \uparrow E in LR

BUT: the dynamics involve a large initial depreciation and then a smaller subsequent appreciation.

Permanent \downarrow **M**: \rightarrow a proportional \downarrow E in LR

BUT: the dynamics involve a large iniitial appreciation and then a smaller subsequent depreciation.

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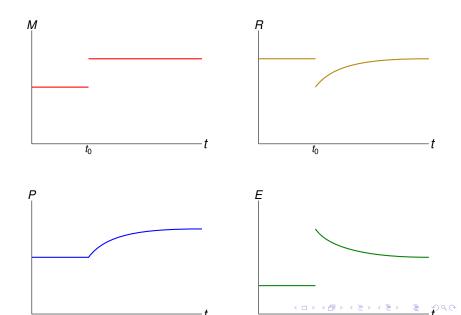
Rudiger Dornbusch (1942–2002)



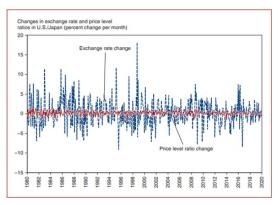
- 1971 Chicago PhD
- 1975-2002 MIT's econ dpt
- 1976 "Expectations and Exchange Rate Dynamics" (JPE)
- **1999** prediction: "This expansion will run forever." (re the 1991–2001 expansion)

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Permanent Increase in M: Changes Over Time



Month-to-Month Variability of the Dollar/Yen Exchange Rate and of the U.S./Japan Price Level Ratio



Compare: KOMIF Fig 4-12 (KOM 15-12)

Price levels are less volatile because they change slowly.

Exchange rates are volatile. They are influenced by interest rates and expectations, which may change rapidl

The exchange rate *overshoots* when its SR response to a change is greater than its LR response.

- This asset-markets-only model predicts exchange rate overshooting because *M* has an immediate effect on *R*, but not on *P* (nor expected inflation).
- This overshooting prediction helps explain why exchange rates are so volatile

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Appendix: Some More Policy Makers

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Haruhiko Kuroda (31st Governor, Bank of Japan)



MPhil in Economics, Oxford 1971

President, Asian Dev. Bank Feb 2005 - March 2013

Governor, Bank of Japan March 2013 - March 2023

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Masaaki Shirakawa (30th Governor, Bank of Japan)



B.A. in Economics, 1972 The University of Tokyo

M.A. in Economics, 1977 University of Chicago

Professor, July 2006 Kyoto University School of Government

Governor, Bank of Japan 2008 - 2013

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Established 1882 the Bank of Japan Act of 1882.

Reorganized 1942 Bank of Japan Act of 1942

1949: Policy Board established one of several amendments after World War II

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PB = highest decision-making body

Reorganized 1998 Bank of Japan Act of 1997

principles: independence and transparency

The BoJ has an explicit price stability goal in its bylaws.

Mark Carney: 120th Governor of the BoE



- 1965 born (in Canada)
- 1995 PhD in Econ, Oxford
- various (13 years) Goldman Sachs (incl. 1998 financial crisis)
- 2003-2004 Deputy Governor, Bank of Canada
- 2004-2007 Department of Finance, Canada
- 2008-2013 Governor, BoCA
- July 2013-2020 BoE (!) Governor (first non-Briton governor)

Mervyn Allister King: 119th Governor of the BoE



1948 born

- **1969** MA in Economics, Cambridge
- 1984-1991 LSE, Professor of Economics
- **1991-1998** BoE Chief Economist and Executive Director
- 1998-2003 BoE Deputy Governor

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2003-2013 BoE Governor

Mario Draghi, 3rd President of the ECB



- 1976 PhD in Economics, MIT
- **1981 1991** Professor, University of Florence
- 1984 1990 World Bank, Executive Director
- **1991 2001** Italian Treasury, Director General
- 2002 2005 Goldman Sachs, Vice-President and Managing Director
- 2011 2019 ECB, President (also: Chair of 10 Governors)

Jean-Claude Trichet, 2nd President of the ECB



European Monetary Committee Chair, 1992-1993 Banque de France Governor, 1993 - 2003 ECB President, 2003 - 2011 (also: Chair of 10 Governors)

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