# Money Supply, Inflation, and Interest Rates ECON 30020: Intermediate Macroeconomics

Prof. Eric Sims

University of Notre Dame

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## Readings

#### ▶ GLS Ch. 18

# Money, Inflation, and Interest Rates

- We have now defined money, modeled money demand, and introduced money into the neoclassical business cycle model
- In that model, the classical dichotomy holds and money is neutral
- Questions we want to address:
  - 1. How is the money supply measured in the data?
  - 2. How is the money supply set in practice?
  - 3. What determines the average inflation rate over the medium/long run?
  - 4. What determines the average level of the nominal interest rate over the medium/long run?
  - 5. Is money really neutral in the short run?

# How is the Money Supply Measured?

- Recall money serves three functions: medium of exchange, store of value, and unit of account
- In the US, unit of account is the dollar. But lots of dollar denominated assets can in principle serve as media of exchange and stores of values – e.g. currency, saving bonds, real estate, etc.
- So measuring the money supply is not so trivial
- Three different measures of the money supply, in descending order of most liquid (liquidity refers to the ease with which an asset can be used in exchange)
  - 1. Currency: physical dollars/coins in circulation
  - 2. M1: Currency plus demand deposits (electronic entries in checking accounts)
  - 3. M2: M1 plus money market mutual funds and savings deposits
  - 4. M3: M2 plus institutional money market mutual funds and short term repurchase agreements

#### Different Measures of the Money Supply



# How the Money Supply Is Set

- In the model, things are much simpler there is no ambiguity concerning the definition of money, and we simply assume that the central bank can set it
- In the data, a little more nuanced
- Central bank can directly affect currency, CU<sub>t</sub>
- Reserves, R<sub>t</sub>, are like demand deposits (checking accounts) which banks hold with the central bank (also includes "vault cash")
- Bank can also influence total reserves in the banking system
- In a fractional reserve banking system, the quantity of reserves influences total demand deposits (the other component of M1)
- Banks are required to hold a fraction of their deposits in reserves. If they get an increase in reserves, they can make more loans, which entails increasing deposits and therefore the money supply

#### The Monetary Base and the Money Supply

Define the monetary base as currency plus reserves (both of which the central bank can directly control):

 $MB_t = CU_t + R_t$ 

Monetary Base and M2:



#### The Money Multiplier

The money supply can be related to the monetary base via the equation:

$$M_t = m_t M B_t$$

- Here, m<sub>t</sub> is the money multiplier (note: there will be a different money multiplier for different measures of M<sub>t</sub>)
- For most of the sample, the money multiplier is reasonably stable. But it has declined considerably since 2008:



Monetary Supply divided by Monetary Base

### Money and Inflation

- Let's now "take the model seriously" and see what the model says about what determines the inflation rate and the nominal interest rate
- Suppose a specific functional form for money demand:

$$\frac{M_t}{P_t} = \psi i_t^{-b_1} Y_t, \quad b_1 > 0$$

Take logs and then first difference across time. Define π<sub>t</sub> as inflation, g<sup>M</sup><sub>t</sub> the growth rate of the money supply, and g<sup>Y</sup><sub>t</sub> as the growth rate of output:

$$\pi_t = g_t^M + b_1(\ln i_t - \ln i_{t-1}) - g_t^Y$$

 Inflation depends positively on money growth, positively on the growth rate of the nominal interest rate, and negatively on output growth Money and Inflation: the Medium/Long Run

Over sufficiently long periods of time, the nominal interest rate is roughly constant. Hence, we can write:

$$\pi_t = g_t^M - g_t^Y$$

- Hence, if the nominal rate is constant, then inflation equals the difference between money growth and output growth
- Over a sufficiently long period of time, output growth is roughly constant (one of the Solow model stylized facts)
- To the extent true, the model would therefore imply that money growth and inflation are perfectly correlated

# Monetarism and the Quantity Theory of Money

- What is presented on the previous slide is essentially the quantity theory of money
- The quantity equation (which is an *identity*) defines a term called "velocity" as the ratio of nominal GDP to the money supply:

$$M_t V_t = P_t Y_t \Rightarrow$$
  
 $V_t = rac{P_t Y_t}{M_t}$ 

- The quantity equation is transformed into a *theory* by assuming velocity is constant: *monetarism*
- According to demand function we just used, this corresponds to (i) *i<sub>t</sub>* constant and (ii) ψ (preference for holding money) constant as well (i.e. "stable" money demand)
- Then "inflation always and everywhere a monetary phenomenon" – Milton Friedman

# Is Inflation Always and Everywhere a Monetary Phenomenon?

Scatter Plot of Money Growth and Inflation

- Correlation is 0.22 positive but not close to 1
- Caveats: output growth not literally constant and money growth may impact output (non-neutrality) in the short run

# Money Growth and Inflation: Medium Run



- Correlation much higher: 0.66
- Some breakdown later in the sample
- Over long periods of time, approximately the cause of inflation is money growth

#### Interest Rates

- If inflation is approximately caused by money growth over sufficiently long horizons, what determines the nominal interest rate?
- First, what determines the real interest rate? Euler equation with log utility:

$$\frac{C_{t+1}}{C_t} = \beta(1+r_t)$$

Take logs, and suppose growth rate of consumption over long period of time is equal to the growth rate of output (true in data). Then:

$$r_t = g_{t+1}^Y - \ln eta$$

 So real interest rate depends positively on (expected) output growth, and negatively on discount factor

### Expected Inflation and the Fisher Relationship

- ► Over long periods of time, the growth rate of output is (approximately) constant → the real interest rate is constant
- Call this  $r = g^y \ln \beta$
- Fisher relationship says  $i_t = r_t + \pi_{t+1}^e$
- Assume that expected inflation equals actual inflation over long periods of time: π<sup>e</sup> = π

Then:

$$i = \pi + g^Y - \ln \beta$$

 To extent output growth is constant, over long periods of time – primary determinant of nominal interest rate is the inflation rate (which is in turn caused by money growth in excess of output growth)

# Inflation and Nominal Interest Rates over Long Periods of Time



- Correlation of 0.76
- Interest rates and inflation very positively correlated in medium run: the "Neo-Fisherian" worldview

### Money and Real Variables

- Neoclassical model predicts that money is neutral with respect to output
- Is that true? Even in the short run? Correlation between cyclical components of M2 and output 0.2



# **Dynamic Correlations**

- Positive correlations do *not* imply causality running from money to output
- What about dynamic correlations?

Variable	Correlation with $\ln M_t$
In Y <sub>t</sub>	0.22
$\ln Y_{t+1}$	0.32
$\ln Y_{t+2}$	0.37
$\ln Y_{t+3}$	0.37
$\ln Y_{t+4}$	0.33
$\ln Y_{t+5}$	0.26
In $Y_{t+6}$	0.19
$\ln Y_{t+7}$	0.10
$\ln Y_{t+8}$	0.03

Money leads output for a couple of years; suggestive that changes in money *cause* changes in output in the short run. Also emerges in more sophisticated econometric work

# Conclusion

- Neoclassical model provides a reasonable account of dynamics between money, inflation, and interest rates over longer time horizons
- But maybe not in the short run money seems to be positively correlated with output in a leading manner, suggestive that money is not neutral
- Non-neutrality is also observed in more sophisticated econometric studies, and non-neutrality seems consistent with our every day experience
- Coming task: tweak the neoclassical model to include some kind of friction that might allow monetary non-neutrality in the short run