

Lecture 2: Non-Neutrality of Money

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Advanced Monetary Economics 2020

Roadmap

- 1 Introduction
- 2 Foundational Concepts
- 3 Price Rigidity and Monetary Non-Neutrality
- 4 Classical Theories of Monetary Non-Neutrality: Keynesianism
- 5 Classical Theories of Monetary Non-Neutrality: Monetarism
- 6 Empirical Evidence on the Non-Neutrality of Money
- 7 Conclusion

Motivation

- Why study monetary economics at all?
- Can we think of money as just a regular commodity? Or is it special?
- Why is it special?

Motivation

- This lecture: basic concepts, classical theories of non-neutrality and then empirical evidence.
- By classical here, I mean old theories: Keynesianism and Monetarism.

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Interest and Rate of Time Preference

- Opportunity cost of time.
- Funds today are worth more than funds tomorrow.
- Holding an asset offers a **return**.

Interest and Rate of Time Preference

- Invest £1 at time $t \Rightarrow$ yields $\mathcal{L}l_{t+1}$ at time $t + 1$.
- l_{t+1} is the **gross** nominal rate of interest on the asset.
- How much is £1 at $t + 1$ worth at time t ?

Interest and Rate of Time Preference

- How much is £1 at $t + 1$ worth at time t : find x [unknown] in the following:

$$\begin{aligned}1 \text{ at } t &\Rightarrow I_{t+1} \text{ at } t + 1 \\x \text{ at } t &\Rightarrow 1 \text{ at } t + 1,\end{aligned}$$

which gives that $x = \frac{1}{I_{t+1}}$.

- Look familiar? We need to discount future cash flows to account for opportunity cost.
- We refer to x as the present value of a future cash flow of £1.
- Always discount nominal (real) cash flows with the nominal (real) opportunity cost.

Role of Money

- Three main roles that it serves:
 - 1 Medium of exchange,
 - 2 Unit of account,
 - 3 Store of value.

Role of Money: (1) Medium of Exchange

- How does one pay for their beer or dinner?
- Money facilitates transactions.
- Alternative is a barter economy.
- Harder to coordinate and agree to transactions in a barter economy.
Lots of time wastage.

Role of Money: (2) Unit of Account

- Price measurement.
- Makes the terms of trade for goods and services precise.
- E.g. a beer costs £5 and dinner costs £10.
- This price difference in terms of money has some meaning.
- Much harder to conceptualise in a barter economy.
- E.g. a beer costs 10 apples and dinner costs 50 seashells.

Role of Money: (3) Store of Value

- We can save money.
- What if your salary was paid in apples?
- Much harder to store.

Money and Welfare

- Having money to fill these three roles makes the world a better place.
- Saves on transaction costs, allows for savings etc.
- These are all things that help us with our everyday lives.

Money as a Policy Tool

- Who controls the supply of money?
- The government (central bank).
- Thinking of money supply and nominal interest rates as a policy tool are one in the same.
- Can the government adjust the money supply to affect the behaviour of agents in the macroeconomy?

Real v.s. Nominal

- Economists are typically interested in real things like output, consumption, investment and hours worked.
- Unit of account role.
- £5 buys one beer.
- The price of beer is denoted in terms of money.

Real v.s. Nominal

- Nominal variables: denoted in terms of money.
- E.g. a bar sold £500 worth of beer in an evening.
- Money in itself is not something we care about though (fiat money).
Just worthless pieces of paper.
- We care about the number of beers that the economy consumes/produces.
- Real variables: actual quantities.
- E.g. a bar sold 100 beers in an evening.

Fisher Equation

- Relates the real and nominal interest rates and inflation.
- Say that there is **no** randomness in the world.
- Consider an asset, in which you invest £1 at time t .
- Say it delivers a payoff of $£Y_{t+1}^N$ at time $t + 1$.

Fisher Equation

- We know that nominal and real payoffs at time $t + 1$ are related by

$$Y_{t+1}^N = P_{t+1} Y_{t+1}^R \quad (1)$$

where Y_{t+1}^R denotes a real payoff and P_{t+1} denotes the price level.

- Make sense? Y_{t+1}^N is in terms of £ and Y_{t+1}^R is in terms of output or goods.

Fisher Equation

- See then that the amount we put into the asset at time t is such that

$$1 = P_t Y_t^R \quad (2)$$

where P_t is the price level at t and Y_t^R is the size of the real investment.

- Recall that the left-side is the size of the nominal investment.

Fisher Equation

- Follows that we can then use 1 and 2 to write

$$\begin{aligned}\frac{Y_{t+1}^N}{1} &= \frac{P_{t+1}}{P_t} \frac{Y_{t+1}^R}{Y_t^R} \\ \Rightarrow I_{t+1} &= \Pi_{t+1} R_{t+1}\end{aligned}\tag{3}$$

where the I_{t+1} , Π_{t+1} and R_{t+1} are the nominal return, inflation rate and real return respectively.

- Equation (3) is a version of the Fisher equation.
- Note that these are all written in **gross** terms.

Money Neutrality

- Money neutrality: when changes in the money supply have no impact on **real** variables.
- Obviously it comes with changes in the money market.
- E.g. a decrease in the supply of money changes the price level.
- Money is neutral if nothing other than the price changes though.
- E.g. double the money supply: then nominal price levels just double. Real quantities are unaffected.

Money Super-Neutrality

- Money super-neutrality: when changes in the growth rate of the money supply have no impact on the real economy.
- A stronger concept than neutrality.
- Changes in the growth rate will affect the rate of inflation.
- Starts to impact real returns.
- Can affect real returns to productive assets (e.g. capital or labour).
- Might lead to changes in real outcomes.

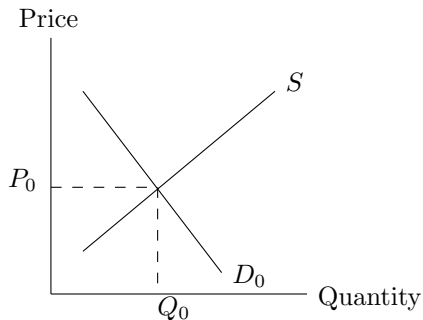
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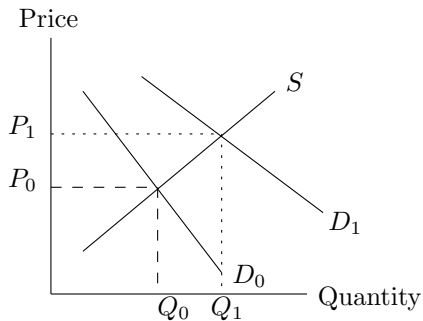
What Drives Real Effects of Monetary Policy?

- It's all about price rigidity/stickiness in the short-run.
- If prices don't respond quickly, we can see real effects of monetary policy changes.

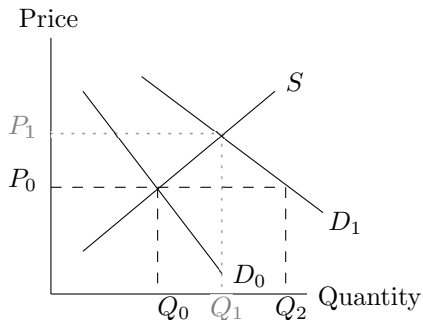
What Drives Real Effects of Monetary Policy?



What Drives Real Effects of Monetary Policy?



What Drives Real Effects of Monetary Policy?



What Drives Real Effects of Monetary Policy?

- This is very much a short-run idea though: prices rigid over a short time horizon.
- In the long-run, we usually think of prices as perfectly flexible.

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Review

- The remainder of this module is very mathy.
- We'll now review AD-AS and IS-LM as thinking about the math in this context helps build intuition.
- This school of thought was all about behavioural equations that held by assumption.
- Lacked proper microfoundations.

Consumer Behaviour: Consumption Spending

- Assume a consumption function of the form

$$C = \mathcal{C}(Y, R)$$

where Y is income and R is the real interest rate.

- Assume that

$$1 > \frac{\partial \mathcal{C}}{\partial Y} > 0$$
$$\frac{\partial \mathcal{C}}{\partial R} < 0$$

meaning consumption is increasing in income (but less than one for one) and in the real interest rate.

- See that $\frac{\partial \mathcal{C}}{\partial Y}$ is the marginal propensity to consume.

Consumer Behaviour: Savings

- Assume a savings function of the form

$$\begin{aligned}S &= \mathcal{S}(Y, R) \\ &= Y - C\end{aligned}$$

where

$$1 > \frac{\partial \mathcal{S}}{\partial Y} > 0$$

but the derivative for the real rate is ambiguous.

Firm Behaviour: Investment

- Assume an investment function

$$IN = \mathcal{I}(R)$$

where IN stands for investment and

$$\frac{\partial IN}{\partial R} < 0$$

meaning that as the real rate (the cost of funds for the firm) rises, investment falls.

IS Curve

- IS: investment-savings.
- How does output relate to the real rate of interest?

$$\mathcal{Y}(R) = \mathcal{C}(Y, R) + \mathcal{I}(R)$$

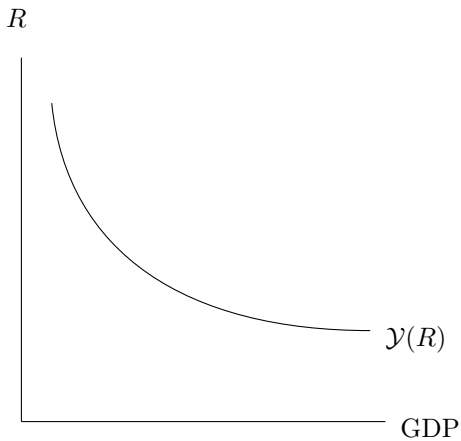
where $\mathcal{Y}(R)$ denotes GDP.

- See that it's downward sloping as

$$\frac{\partial \mathcal{Y}(R)}{\partial R} = \frac{\partial \mathcal{C}(Y, R)}{\partial R} + \frac{\partial \mathcal{I}(R)}{\partial R}$$

where both terms on the right-side were negative by assumption.

IS Curve



Money Market Equilibrium

- Assume an exogenous demand for money

$$L = \mathcal{L}(Y, I)$$

where L denotes holdings of real balances and I denotes the nominal rate of interest.

- Assume that

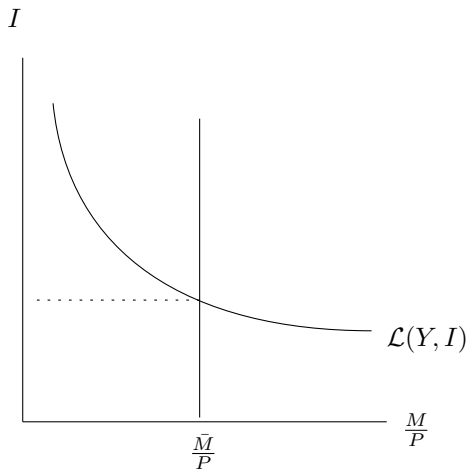
$$\frac{\partial L}{\partial Y} > 0$$
$$\frac{\partial L}{\partial I} < 0$$

- Since I is the opportunity cost of holding cash: higher I decreases cash holdings. Higher income means more cash holdings.

Money Market Equilibrium

- Assume an exogenous supply of money given by \bar{M} .
- Supply of real balances given by $\frac{\bar{M}}{P}$.
- In the short-run, assume that prices are rigid, meaning P fixed.
- Intersection of demand and supply gives equilibrium I and R since prices are fixed.

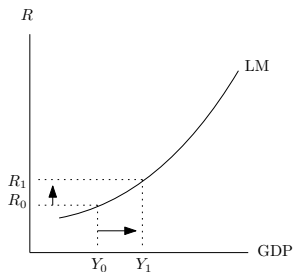
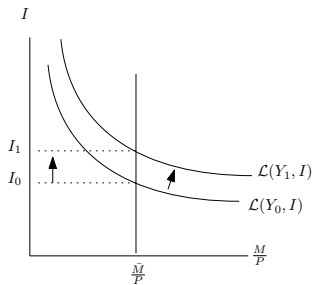
Money Market Equilibrium



LM Curve

- Liquidity-money curve.
- The locus of points in R v.s. Y space where the money market equilibrium holds.
- LM curve has positive slope since when Y rises, there is an increase in money demand.
- Causes R to rise when P is fixed in the short-run.

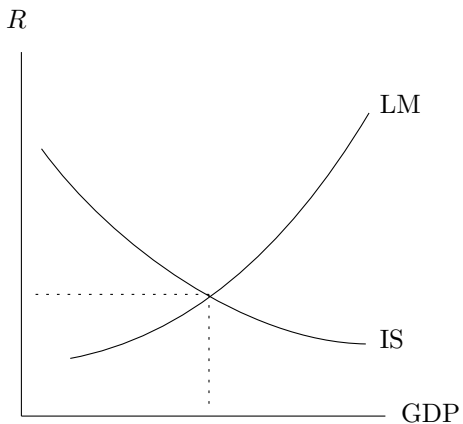
LM Curve



IS-LM

- Intersection of IS-LM gives equilibrium Y and R for fixed price P .

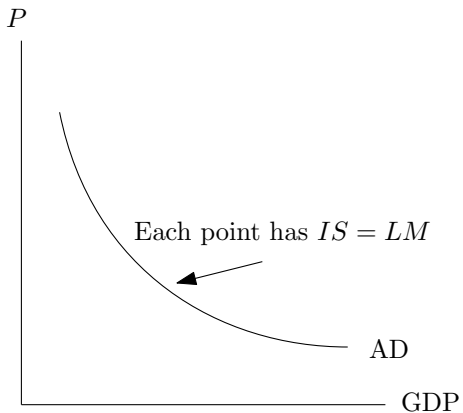
IS-LM



AD

- Aggregate demand and supply are plotted in price (P) v.s. output (Y) space.
- Each point along the AD curve corresponds to an intersection of the IS-LM curves.

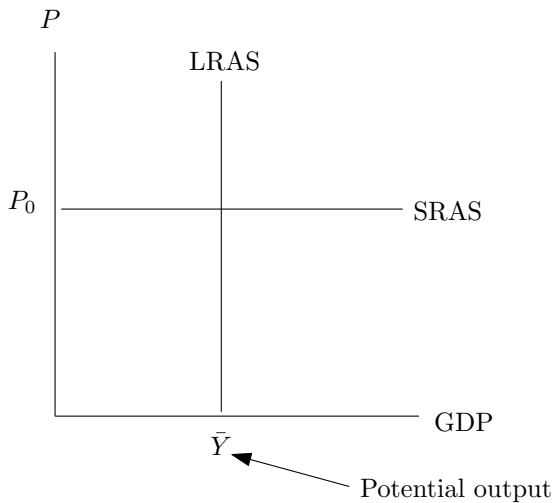
AD



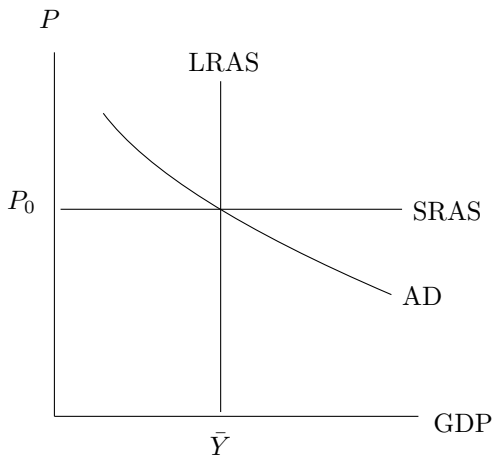
AS

- Two types of aggregate supply: short-run and long-run.
- In the short-run: horizontal at the fixed price P .
- In the long-run: vertical at potential output.

AS



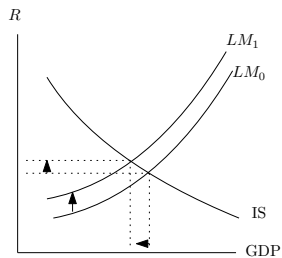
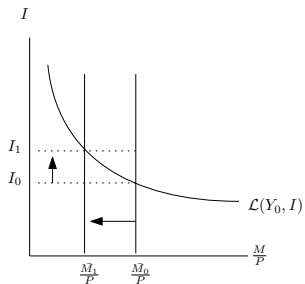
Equilibrium



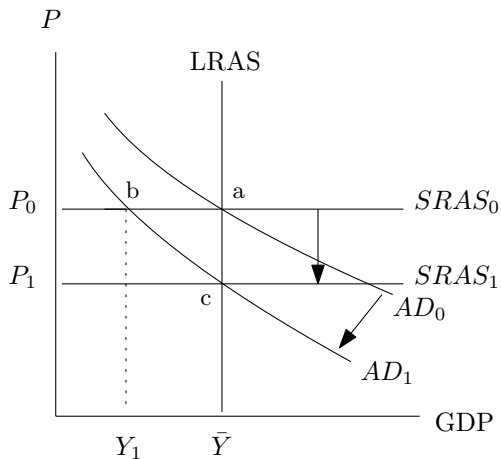
Monetary Policy

- What happens when there is a monetary contraction?
- Can think of as a decrease in the money supply \bar{M} (from M_0 to M_1) or as an increase in I (from I_0 to I_1).

Monetary Policy



Monetary Policy



Monetary Policy

- Monetary contraction has a temporary dampening effect on output.
- Leads to permanently lower prices though.

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Review

- Monetarists also believe that rigidities can lead to real effects of monetary policy in the short run.
- Point of departure from Keynesians though is that Monetarists believe more strongly in the efficacy of monetary policy.
- Keynesians advocate more for fiscal interventions than monetary.

Quantity Theory of Money

- An identity (meaning must hold by definition) of the form

$$MV = PQ$$

where

- M is money supply,
- V is velocity of money circulation,
- P is price level and
- Q is volume of transactions.

Monetarist Policy Recommendations

- Monetarists believe that V is relatively constant.
- *Inflation is always and everywhere a monetary phenomenon* (Friedman).
- An increase in the money supply leads to a rise in P since Q (in the long run) is independent of money supply.
- You'll just keep working your way up the LRAS curve in the long-run.

Monetarist Policy Recommendations

- Remove central bank discretion; keep the money supply predictable.
- Keep government interventions generally to a minimum: the private sector gets the job done just fine.

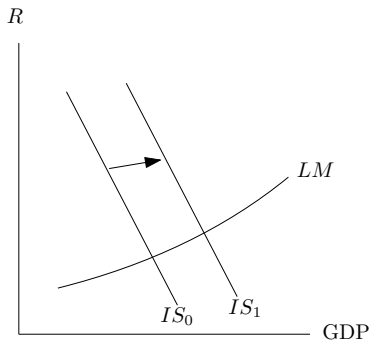
Keynesian Policy Recommendations

- Keynesians think V moves around **with** the money supply.
- Not clear that changes in the money supply will be perfectly passed-on through higher prices.
- Focus on fiscal policy interventions instead.

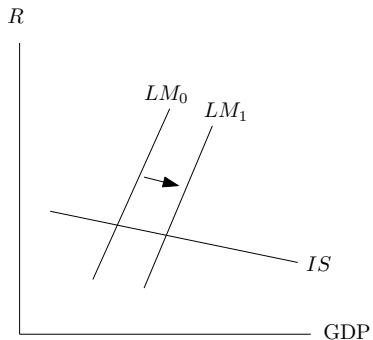
Demand Management

- Keynesians: fiscal.
- Monetarists: monetary.
- Differ in beliefs of the relative slopes of the IS and LM curves.
- Which curve should you try to shift to induce a response in AD?

Demand Management



Keynesian view



Monetarist view

Monetary Policy

- Although the literal senses of monetarist ideas are outdated, getting governments to take monetary policy more seriously is their lasting legacy.

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Empirical Challenges

- Challenge for empiricists is identifying **exogenous** movements in the interest rate.
- Correlations between monetary and macro aggregates don't give evidence of non-neutrality.
- Reverse causality: is it the monetary variable that moves first or vice-versa.

Empirical Challenges

- Monetary policy rules.
- Taylor rule (more on this later) followed by central bank:

$$I_t = \underbrace{\Lambda + \phi_{\pi}\Pi_t + \phi_Y Y_t}_{\text{Endogenous part}} + \underbrace{\epsilon_t}_{\text{Exogenous part}}$$

says that central bank changes the nominal rate endogenously in response to higher inflation or over-heating output.

Empirical Challenges

- Can then estimate exogenous changes as the residual of the observed rate from the policy rule.
- I.e. once you have an estimate for the endogenous component, you can estimate exogenous movements in the policy rate using the residual

$$\epsilon_t = I_t - (\Lambda + \phi_{\Pi}\Pi_t + \phi_Y Y_t)$$

- You can then find the response of the economy to an exogenous monetary shock using an estimated set of equations.

Evidence

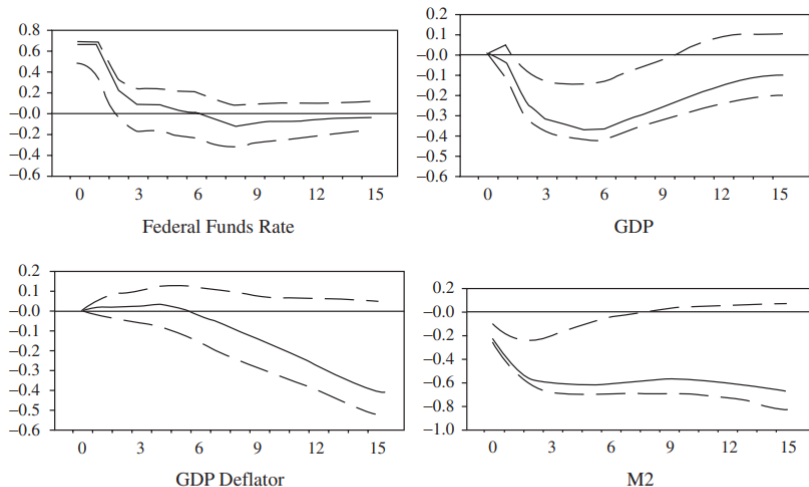


Figure 1.1 Estimated Dynamic Response to a Monetary Policy Shock

Source: Christiano, Eichenbaum, and Evans (1999).

Evidence

- Slow response of GDP deflator (price level): evidence of nominal rigidities.
- Higher Fed Funds rate drives decrease in GDP: non-neutrality.

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Summary

- Non-neutralities come through nominal rigidities (sticky wages, prices).
- Old theories: you can use monetary policy to stimulate demand.
- Empirical evidence: seems to be an impact of exogenous monetary shocks on the macroeconomy.
- What does this mean for the remainder of our course...?

Summary

- If money is non-neutral, what are the channels through which it affects the economy?
- What is the **optimal monetary policy** for the central bank to follow?
- **Formal models** of monetary policy are needed to answer questions like these (both qualitatively and quantitatively).
- Next step: the real business cycle (RBC) model.
- The first building block to thinking rigorously about monetary policy.