

# Monetary Economics

Lecture 24: final exam review

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Recap of new Keynesian monetary economics

# Basic model (sticky prices only)

- Representative household with preferences

$$\mathbb{E}_0 \left[ \sum_{t=0}^{\infty} \beta^t U(C_t, N_t) \right]$$

implies aggregate consumption, money demand, labor supply

- Budget constraint

$$P_t C_t + Q_t B_t \leq B_{t-1} + W_t N_t + \Pi_t - T_t$$

where  $P_t$  is aggregate price index in numeraire (currency),  $Q_t$  is price of one-period zero-coupon bond

# Firms

- Monopolistically competitive, differentiated products  $j \in [0, 1]$

$$C_t = \left( \int_0^1 C_t(j)^{\frac{\varepsilon-1}{\varepsilon}} dj \right)^{\frac{\varepsilon}{\varepsilon-1}}$$

- Implies price index

$$P_t = \left( \int_0^1 P_t(j)^{1-\varepsilon} dj \right)^{\frac{1}{1-\varepsilon}}$$

- Production technology

$$Y_t(j) = A_t N_t(j)^{1-\alpha}$$

- Market clearing

$$C_t(j) = Y_t(j) \quad \text{each } j \quad \Rightarrow \quad C_t = Y_t \equiv \left( \int_0^1 Y_t(j)^{\frac{\varepsilon-1}{\varepsilon}} dj \right)^{\frac{\varepsilon}{\varepsilon-1}}$$

# Pricing

- With *flexible prices*, each firm sets a static markup  $\varepsilon/(\varepsilon - 1)$  over marginal cost
- In this case, essentially a classical economy with monetary neutrality etc. Only difference is monopoly distortion but that can be corrected with a subsidy paid by lump-sum taxes
- With *sticky prices*, only some firms adjust each period. Typical assumption is Calvo pricing. With probability  $\theta$  a firm is stuck with its price from last period
- Forward-looking firms take this into account when setting price

# Basic model (sticky prices only)

- Log-linearized around a zero-inflation steady state
- Dynamic IS curve

$$\tilde{y}_t = -\frac{1}{\sigma} (i_t - \mathbb{E}_t[\pi_{t+1}] - r_t^n) + \mathbb{E}_t[\tilde{y}_{t+1}]$$

- New Keynesian Phillips curve

$$\pi_t = \beta \mathbb{E}_t[\pi_{t+1}] + \kappa \tilde{y}_t, \quad \tilde{y}_t \equiv y_t - y_t^n$$

- Natural output  $y_t^n$  and real rate  $r_t^n$  correspond to underlying flexible-price economy, driven by real shocks (e.g.,  $a_t, g_t$ )
- Model closed with a specification of monetary policy, e.g.,

$$i_t = \rho + \phi_\pi \pi_t + \phi_y \tilde{y}_t + v_t$$

# Method of undetermined coefficients

- Endogenous variables linear in the shocks, say

$$\tilde{y}_t = \psi_{yv}v_t + \psi_{ya}a_t$$

$$\pi_t = \psi_{\pi v}v_t + \psi_{\pi a}a_t$$

with coefficients  $\psi_{yv}, \psi_{ya}, \psi_{\pi v}, \psi_{\pi a}$  that must hold for any realizations of the shocks

- Equilibrium conditions of the model imply a set of cross-equation restrictions that pin down the coefficients
- Can then deduce other endogenous variables of interest, e.g.,  $y_t, n_t, r_t, i_t$ , as well as expected values  $\mathbb{E}_t[\pi_{t+1}], \mathbb{E}_t[\tilde{y}_{t+1}]$  etc

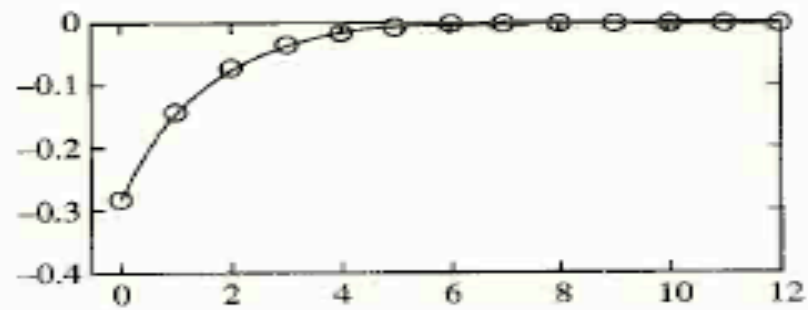
# Qualitative implications

- Taylor principle:  $\phi_\pi > 1$
- If so, expansionary monetary policy shock (an increase in  $v_t$ )
  - increases output
  - increases employment
  - increases inflation

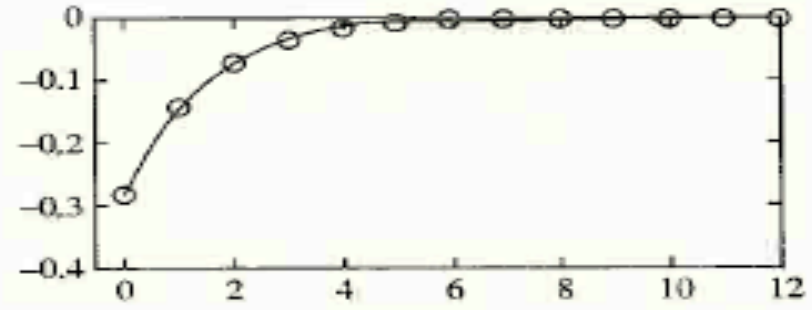
All effects transitory, money is neutral in long run (steady state)



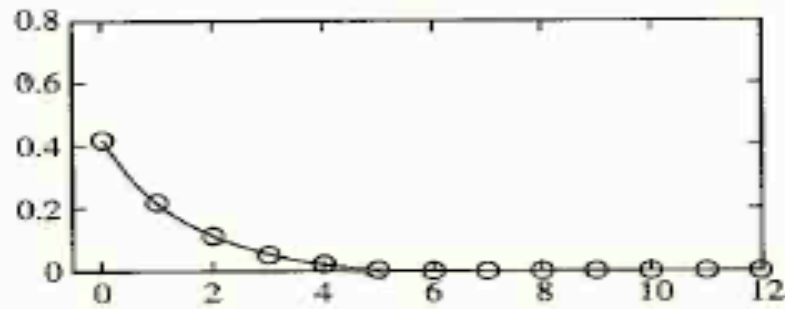
# Monetary policy shock, $v_t > 0$



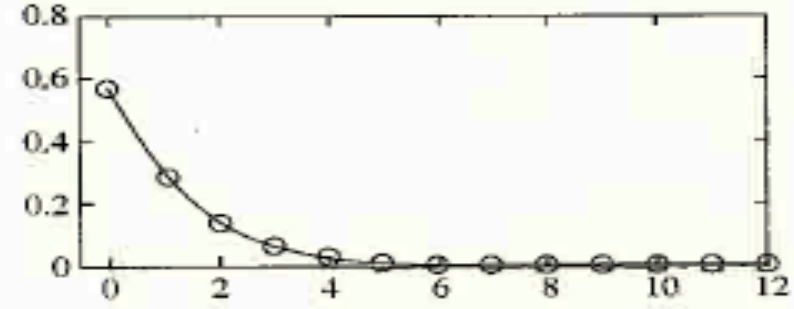
Output Gap



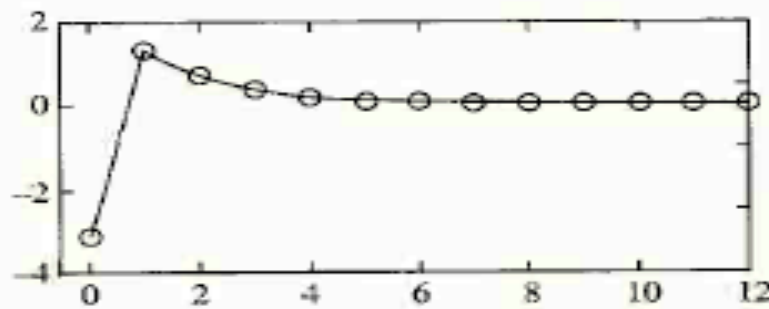
Inflation



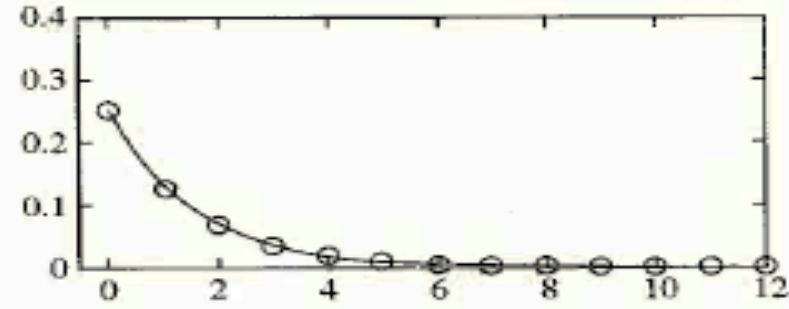
Nominal Rate



Real Rate



Money Growth



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Figure 3.1 Effects of a Monetary Policy Shock (Interest Rate Rule)

# Productivity shock, $a_t > 0$

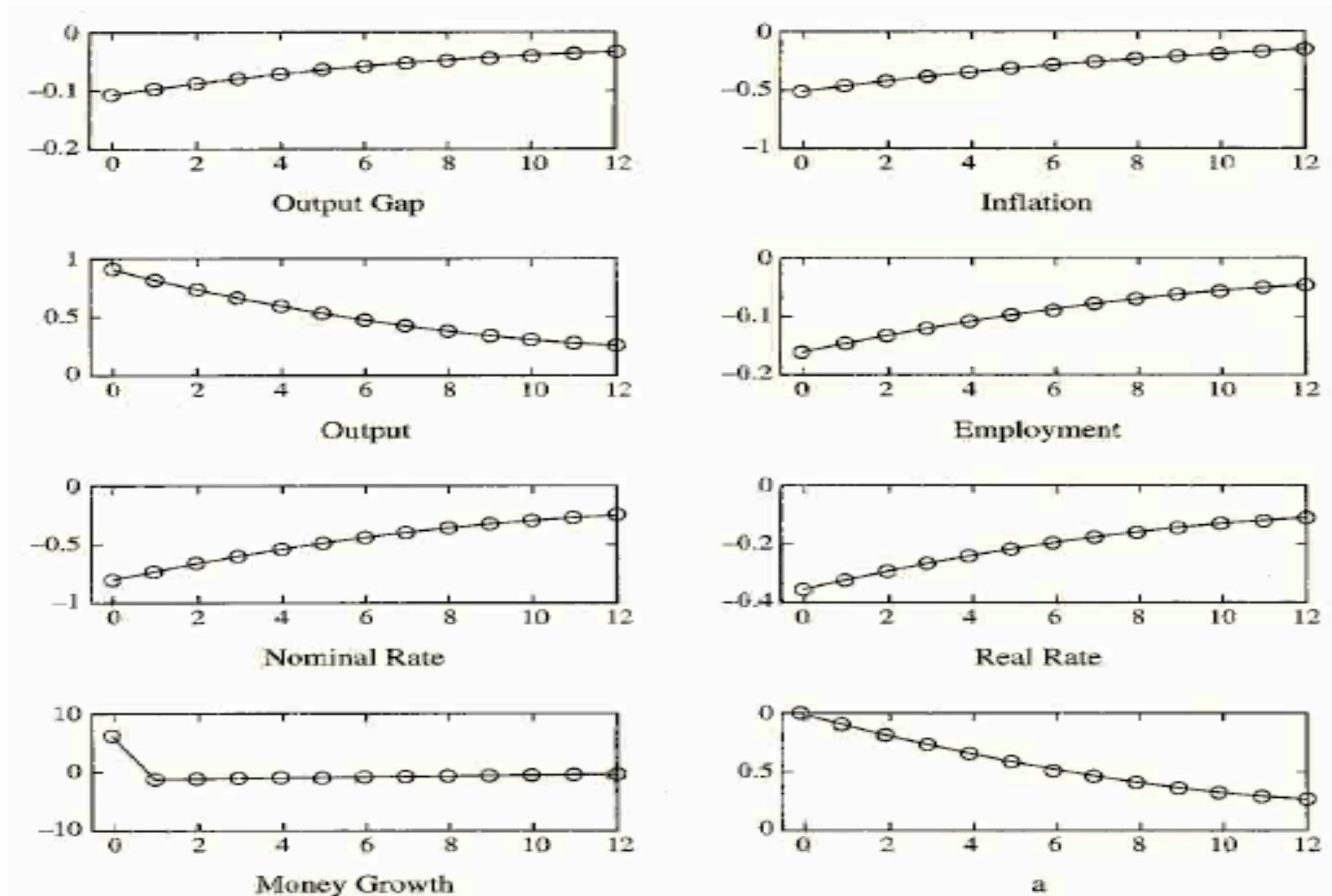


Figure 3.2 Effects of a Technology Shock (Interest Rate Rule)

# Optimal monetary policy in the basic model

- Eliminates relative price distortions caused by nominal rigidity
- Under optimal policy  $\pi_t = 0$ ,  $\tilde{y}_t = 0$  and  $i_t = r_t^n$  *in equilibrium*  
( replicates flexible-price outcomes, “divine coincidence” )
- Can be implemented with simple interest rate rules
- Sufficient condition for uniqueness of equilibrium  $\phi_\pi > 1$

# Fiscal policy and the ZLB

- Outside ZLB, long-run fiscal multiplier in basic sticky-price model is same as in neoclassical benchmark, e.g.,

$$\Gamma = \frac{\sigma}{\sigma + \varphi} \in (0, 1)$$

- Short-run multiplier  $\in (\Gamma, 1)$ , depends on aggressiveness of monetary policy response
- At ZLB, nominal interest may not respond ( $= 0$ ) and if so fiscal multiplier may be  $> 1$ . Increased inflation expectations lowers real rate, increases current output more than one-for-one
- But size of multiplier depends on duration of fiscal stimulus (especially once ZLB crisis is over)

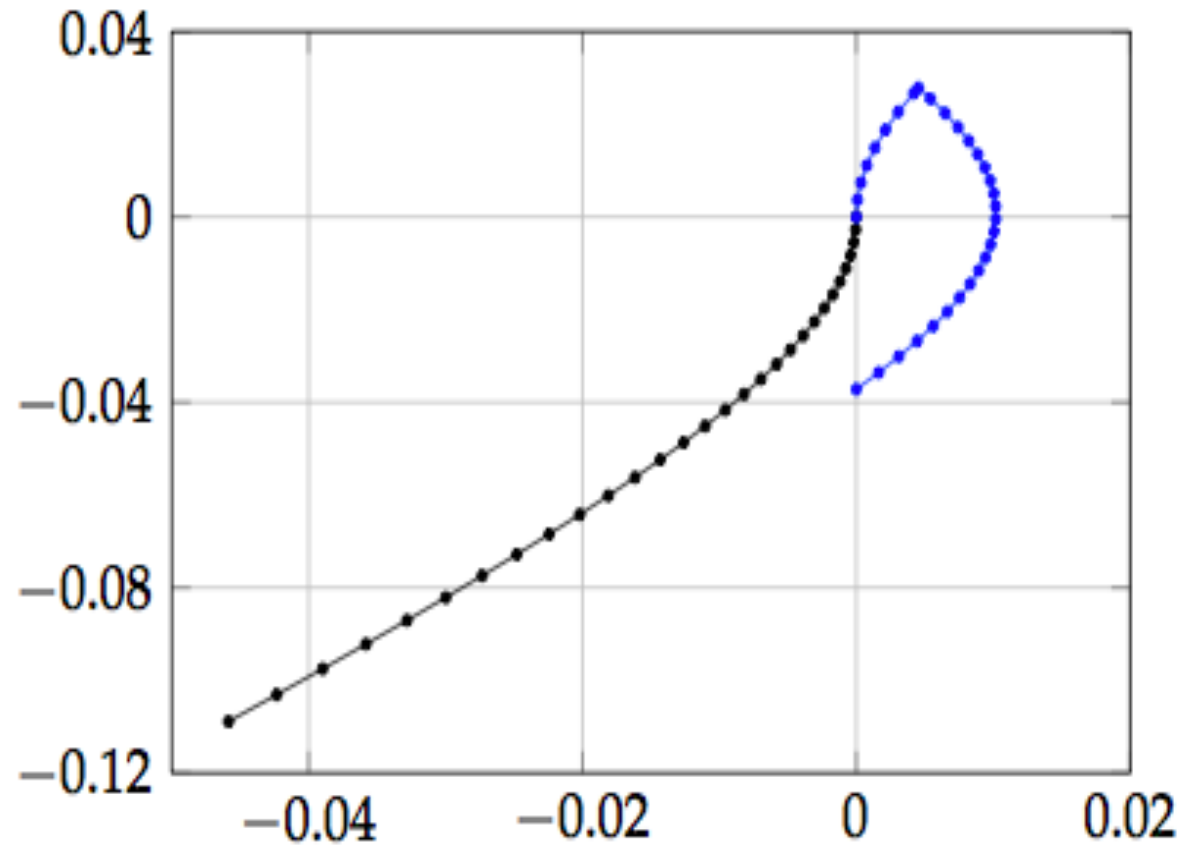
# Optimal policy and the ZLB

- **Without commitment:** deflation and negative output gap (recession). Both gradually alleviated as liquidity trap ends
- Severity of deflation and recession are increasing in length of trap
- Intuition: real interest rate is too high during liquidity trap. Suppresses consumption and output, makes forward-looking inflation even lower, exacerbates situation
- Paradoxically, more flexible prices only make things worse
- Key problem: inability to commit to policies *after* the liquidity trap, in particular, inability to commit to other than usual zero inflation and zero output gap outcomes

# Optimal policy and the ZLB

- **With commitment:** optimal policy avoids deflation, features zero interest rates even after liquidity trap
- Commitment to extended period of zero interest rates in order to deliver boom, not to deliver inflation
- Candidate time-paths for inflation and output gap have:
  - inflation positive at some point, may be positive throughout (depending on parameters)
  - output gap both positive and negative (changing signs)

# With and without commitment



Inflation on horizontal axis, output gap on vertical axis. Commitment path in blue, no-commitment path in black.

# Unemployment and sticky wages

- Real wage rigidities give rise to a steady-state level of unemployment  $\bar{u}$
- Sticky prices alone give rise to fluctuations in output, employment etc but *not* fluctuations in unemployment
- Sticky wages give rise to fluctuations in unemployment  $u_t$  around  $\bar{u}$



# Sticky wage model

- Dynamic IS curve

$$\tilde{y}_t = - \left( i_t - \mathbb{E}_t[\pi_{t+1}^p] - r_t^n \right) + \mathbb{E}_t[\tilde{y}_{t+1}]$$

- Price- and wage inflation Phillips curves

$$\begin{aligned}\pi_t^p &= \beta \mathbb{E}_t[\pi_{t+1}^p] + \kappa_p \tilde{y}_t + \lambda_p \tilde{\omega}_t \\ \pi_t^w &= \beta \mathbb{E}_t[\pi_{t+1}^w] + \kappa_w \tilde{y}_t - \lambda_w \tilde{\omega}_t\end{aligned}$$

- Wage gap identity

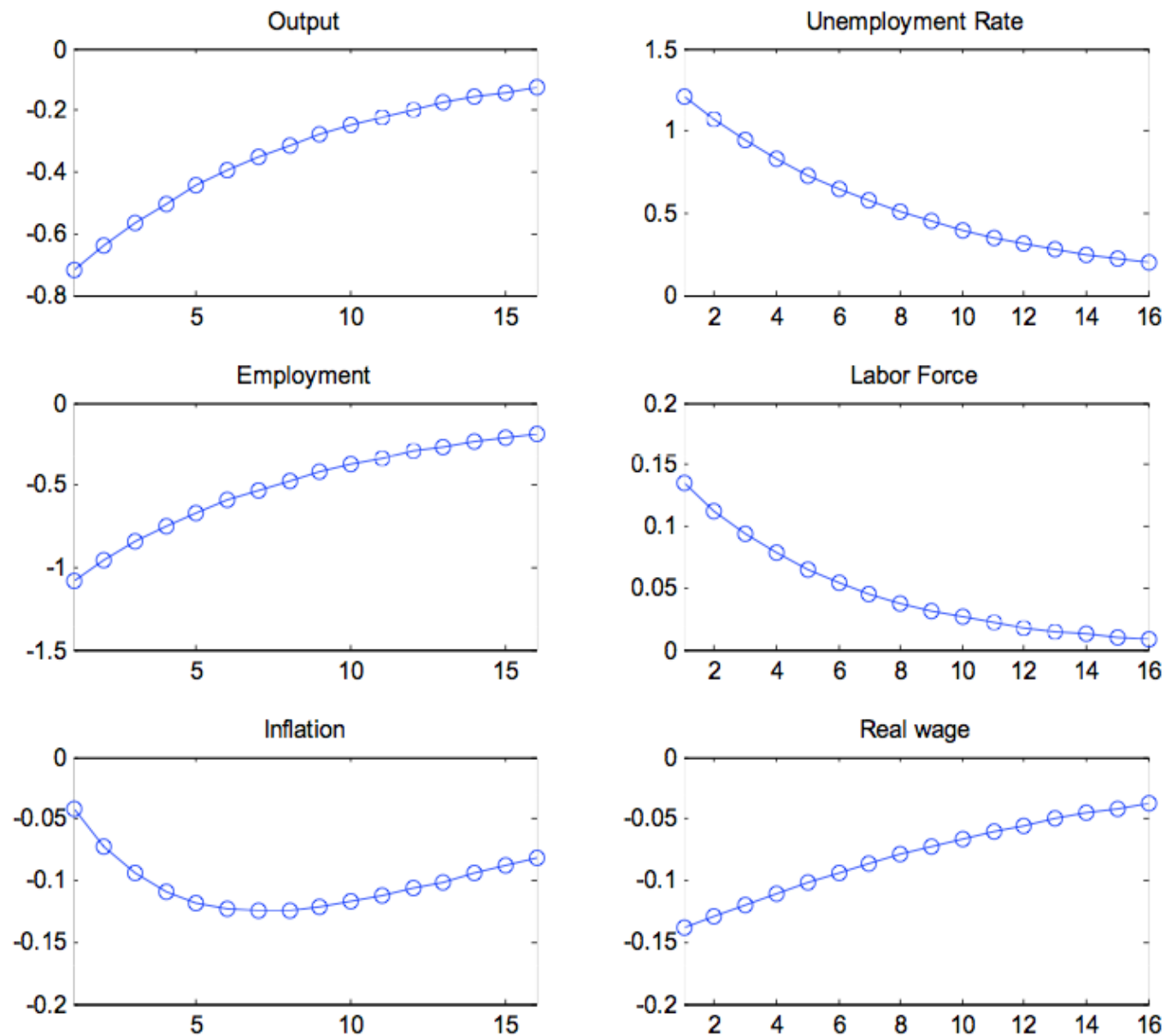
$$\tilde{\omega}_t = \tilde{\omega}_{t-1} + \pi_t^w - \pi_t^p - \Delta \omega_t^n$$

- Monetary policy rule

$$i_t = \rho + \phi_\pi \pi_t^p + \phi_y \tilde{y}_t + v_t$$

plus exogenous processes that pin down  $y_t^n, r_t^n, \omega_t^n$  corresponding to underlying flexible-price economy

# Monetary policy shock $v_t > 0$ , revisited



# Optimal monetary policy with sticky wages

- No divine coincidence, genuine tradeoff between inflation and output gap volatility
- Still, optimal policy again tries to replicate flexible-price outcomes as best possible

# Macroeconomics with financial market frictions

# Diamond/Dybvig

- Financial intermediation involves tension between efficient risk-sharing/liquidity provision and exposure to bank runs
- Banks' liquid liabilities allow for efficient risk sharing; investors who may need liquidity prefer to invest in bank rather than hold an illiquid asset directly
- But efficient risk-sharing with liquid liabilities is only one equilibrium. There is also another equilibrium where investors panic and inefficiently withdraw deposits
- In short, bank runs are a form of coordination failure

# Costly state verification

- Costly monitoring of private information, agency costs
- Nontrivial financial structure, Modigliani-Miller does not apply
- Optimal financial structure minimises social monitoring costs
- Borrowers pay premium for external finance, pins down amount of debt, leverage, rate of return on internal funds etc

# Brunnermeier/Sannikov

- Nonnegativity constraint introduces effective risk aversion. Dynamics summarised by expert's share of aggregate wealth
- Asset prices relatively insensitive to state near stochastic steady-state
- But asset prices much more sensitive to state when expert's wealth share falls, amplifies loss
- Dynamics local to deterministic steady-state may miss important features of the global dynamics
- Endogenous risk, does not vanish even when fundamental (exogenous) risk is low ('volatility paradox')
- Endogenous risk is greater when market liquidity is low

# Stiglitz/Weiss

- Credit rationing due to adverse selection
- Borrowers convex payoff function, expected payoff increasing in risk (since keep upside value, but limited liability below)
- Lenders concave payoff function, expected payoff decreasing in risk
- High interest rates screen out low-risk borrowers, reduce quality of loan applicant pool
- Equilibrium interest rate may not equate demand and supply, i.e., may have excess demand for loans



# Brunnermeier/Pedersen

- Speculators trade with customers to help share risk, trades funded with margin loans from outside investors backed by speculators' own wealth
- Loan margins set so as to protect investors against losses due to adverse price movements
- If investors symmetrically informed, margins are stabilising — e.g., if asset prices fall, changes in margins subsidise long positions and tax short positions
- But if investors uninformed, margins are destabilising — e.g., if asset prices fall, changes in margins tax long positions and subsidise short positions, amplifying price falls

# Geanakoplos

- Fluctuations in leverage ratios more important than interest rates
- Buyers heterogeneous in beliefs, borrowing allows most optimistic to leverage their beliefs, driving up asset prices
- Scary bad news (that lowers mean but increases variance) tightens lending margins, reduces leverage, amplifies fall in asset prices

Good luck!