

# Monetary theory

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## Chapter 4: Instruments and target of monetary policy

# Section 1: the issue

# Introduction

- The choice of the optimal instrument and the target has been an issue since WW2.
- 50's: Timbergen : target in terms of either price or quantity; but leaves the question of instruments open
- 70's: Adoption of (intermediate) targets in terms of monetary aggregates
- 80's : This strategy is questioned due to poor performances in terms of inflation → revisit the question of the choice of instruments
- 90's Major shift : most of central banks use now **short term interest rates** .
- The (official) strategy of the ECB is a mix between the 70's and 90's (see later) but in practice only use interest rates (repurchase agreements).

# Connection with other issues

- Rules vs discretion : choice of an active or passive MP but does not address the choice of instruments. Just choose between  $\pi_d$  or  $\pi_p$  .
- Connection with accountability: if objectives are clarified, this increases political accountability.
- Question of independence is linked to the question of both the target (inflation or not) and the instruments. Remember distinction between political and economic independence
- Inflation targeting : public announcement of an explicit inflation target (ex. New Zealand)

# Concepts

- the conduct of MP is made difficult because
- not a direct control on some variables such as money stock, inflation (ex: oil shock) or output
- uncertainty on the relationships between MP and variables
- transmission lags
- $\Rightarrow$  the implementation of MP involves different types of variables

# Types of variables

- **Objectives**; examples: inflation, unemployment; targeted values will determine the choice of values for
- **Intermediate targets** : these variables link objectives and operational targets; the intermediate targets provide information to the CB on the stance of economic developments which affect the objectives;
- Examples of intermediate targets: exchange rates available at daily frequencies, M3 growth (Bundesbank or ECB) as a predictor of future inflation, ...
- **Operational targets** : these variables reflect the orientation of MP but the CB has no direct control on these variables

# Types of variables

- Examples of operational target: overnight market interest rates (Eonia, Fed funds in the US); level of borrowed and non borrowed bank reserves
- **Instruments** : these variables are directly controlled by the CB
- Examples: interest rates on the borrowed reserves : rate on marginal facilities, ...: reserve ratios (ratio of compulsory reserves over deposits)
- Example of **implementation process**: Inflationary pressures (**objectives** ) are reflected by increase in labor costs and M3 growth (**intermediate targets** ) ⇒ need to slow the pace of credits through an increase of the reserves ( **operational target** ) implemented through an increase in key interest rates (discount, ...) (**instruments** ).



## Section 2: Choice of instruments under uncertainty

# Reminder : usual instruments

- In a modern world, MP conducted through the variation of bank's reserves.
- $M_0 = \text{Currency} + \text{Reserves}$ .
- $\text{Deposits} = \left(\frac{1}{rr}\right)\text{Reserves}$  where  $rr$  is called the **reserve ratio** and is comprised between 0 and 1.
- The CB manages the total amount of Reserves through different channels : changes in  $rr$ , open market operations or lending of reserves.

# Reminder : usual instruments

- The CB changes  $rr$  ; nevertheless not very often (in the Euro zone,  $rr = 0.02$ )
- The CB influences the supply of reserves through purchases and sales of assets (open market operations): this is the usual strategy now adopted by major central banks
- Lending of reserves : 70's.
- The bank can also influence credits though legislation and regulation.

# Choice of CB

- The CB is in monopoly → it can
- **set interest rates** → supply of reserves (or base money) perfectly elastic at this level of interest rates
- **acts on the level of reserves** → supply of reserves perfectly inelastic to the level of interest rates and interest rates adjust to reach supply and demand equilibrium
- → **basic choice between interest rates and monetary aggregate**
- Key feature : choice under **uncertainty** .

# Nature of uncertainty

- Two basic types of uncertainty.:
- Uncertainty on the structure of the economy but **the structure is known by agents** . → the relationships are subject to stochastic shocks (supply and demand shocks for instance) → **Analysis of Poole (1970)**
- The structure of the economy is unknown → not considered here)

# Basic analysis

- Analysis developed in a Keynesian framework → emphasis on aggregate demand.
- **static model** (1 period).
- Basic **IS-LM structure** augmented with stochastic disturbances:

$$y = -\alpha i + u. \quad (1)$$

$$m = -ci + y + \nu. \quad (2)$$

# Shocks

- $u$  stands for AD shock (ex: restrictive fiscal policy, decrease in exports, ...) with  $E(u) = 0$ ,  $E(u^2) = \sigma_u^2$ .
- $\nu$  stands for money demand shock related to financial markets with  $E(\nu) = 0$ ,  $E(\nu^2) = \sigma_\nu^2$
- Allows a graphical representation with lower and upper shifts in the curves.

# Objective of the monetary authorities

- In the Poole analysis, objective is to stabilize the variability of output.  $\rightarrow : \min E(y^2)$ . There is no problem of time inconsistency
- Comparison between choice of  $i$  (interest rate) and  $m$  (money stock)



# Events sequence

- Choice of  $i$  or  $m$  by monetary authorities
- realizations of shocks  $u$  and  $\nu$
- realization of the 2 endogenous variables,  $i$  and  $y$  under the two instruments
- Comparison of  $E(y^2)$  between choice of  $i$  and  $m$

# Monetary policy with $m$

- express  $y = \frac{\alpha m + cu - \alpha v}{\alpha + c}$
- choose  $m$  such as  $E(y) = 0 \Rightarrow m = 0$
- $y = \frac{cu - \alpha v}{\alpha + c}$
- $E(y^2) = \frac{c^2 \sigma_u^2 + \alpha^2 \sigma_v^2}{(\alpha + c)^2}$
- In this case, fixing  $m$ , i.e. fixing the money supply allows to dampen partially the impact of demand shocks :  
$$0 \leq \frac{c^2}{(\alpha + c)^2} \leq$$
- Limit case : vertical LM : this does not allow to insure against financial shocks
- The variability of  $m$  allows to smooth the fluctuations of output.

# Monetary policy with $i$

- if  $i$  is fixed, uncertainty on  $y$  comes only from  $u$
- $E(y^2) = \sigma_u^2$
- in order to choose the optimal instrument, compare  $E(y^2)$  under the 2 instruments  $\rightarrow r$  is chosen if  $\sigma_u^2 < \frac{c^2 \sigma_u^2 + \alpha^2 \sigma_v^2}{(\alpha + c)^2}$  or if  $\frac{\sigma_v^2}{\sigma_u^2} > (1 + \frac{2c}{\alpha})$
- $r$  will be favored when:
- the variance (size) of money demand shocks (financial shocks) relative to the variance (size) of real demand shocks is large
- LM curve (slope= $\frac{1}{c}$ ) is steep
- IS curve (slope= $-\frac{1}{\alpha}$ ) is flat.

# Choice of monetary aggregate

- The choice of instrument will depend on
- the respective size of shocks :  $\sigma_u^2, \sigma_\nu^2$ ,
- the structure of the economy :  $\alpha, c$ .
- example : if we assume that  $\sigma_\nu^2$  or that  $\nu = 0$ , i.e. only real shocks matter, in this case, choosing  $m$  is the best strategy; see a graphical representation of that
- graphical representation  
Real shocks and choice of instruments.
- example : if we assume that  $\sigma_u^2$  or that the size of real shocks is negligible, in this case, choosing  $i$  is the best strategy; think a graphical representation of that!!!

# Implications in terms of policy horizon

- This analysis suggests the use of various instruments depending on the stabilization horizon
- at **a quarterly frequency**, the demand of money is relatively stable but the (real) economy is subject to fluctuations of the aggregate demand side → this suggests the use of a stable growth rate of the money stock
- in **the very short term** (day to day basis, weekly frequency), financial markets are volatile but real markets are more stable because there are production plans within such a short period → this suggests the use of interest rate for the sake of the short term stabilisation policy

# Example : the Bundesbank and the ECB

- Is this two-instrument strategy realistic? yes
- Example of the two-pillar strategy of the Bundesbank of the ECB
- use of short-term interest rates (repo rates) for **the day-to-day management** of the liquidity of financial markets
- Use of an monetary aggregate for the conduct of monetary policy in the **medium run** : use of M3 aggregate as an intermediate target
- Caution: justification of the ECB is not stabilisation of the real side but the control of inflation : **inflation is always and everywhere a monetary phenomenon** .

# Development of financial markets

- In the 50's and 60's, demand for money was very stable → choice of stable monetary aggregates.
- In the 70's and the 80's, the volatility of financial markets has increased → increasing use of interest rates
- From the 90's, choice of instruments mostly in terms of  $r$  in major central banks.

## Section 3: Extension to uncertainty of the control over $m$



# Monetary base as an instrument

- The previous analysis has several limitations; important one :  $m$  is not really an instrument but rather an **intermediate target** .
- Why ? control of  $m$  is indirect and influence goes through **the monetary base** (Reserves+currency), denoted  $b$ .
- Consider rather the use of  $b$  as an instrument rather than  $m$
- Additional equation :

$$m = b + hi + \omega \quad (3)$$

# Monetary base as an instrument

- The money multiplier ( $m - b$  or  $\ln(\frac{m}{b})$ ) depends on  $i$
- $h > 0$ : excess reserves depend negatively on the level of interest rates (opportunity costs of holding reserves that do not yield a high return)
- $\omega$  might be interpreted as a shock on the money multiplier with variance  $\sigma_{\omega}^2$ , i.e. some kind of liquidity shock (example : credit crunch)

# Monetary base as an instrument

• if  $b$  is the instrument :

• choose  $E(y) = 0 \Rightarrow E(m) = 0$ , i.e.  $b = 0$

•  $\Leftrightarrow y = \frac{(c+h)u - \alpha\nu + \alpha\omega}{a+c+h}$

•  $\Leftrightarrow E(y^2) = \frac{(c+h)^2\sigma_u^2 + \alpha^2(\sigma_\nu^2 + \sigma_\omega^2)}{(a+c+h)^2}$

•  $i$  preferred if and only if

•  $\sigma_u^2 < \frac{(c+h)^2\sigma_u^2 + \alpha^2(\sigma_\nu^2 + \sigma_\omega^2)}{(a+c+h)^2}$

•  $\frac{\sigma_\nu^2 + \sigma_\omega^2}{\sigma_u^2} > \left(1 + \frac{2(c+h)}{\alpha}\right)$

- The shocks affecting the money multiplier have an influence on the decision about the instrument
- Previous conclusion of Poole(1970) strengthened
- Higher volatility of financial markets ( $\sigma_v^2$  and  $\sigma_\omega^2$ ) makes the choice of interest rates more interesting
- Once more, the choice of instrument depends on the policy horizon (interest rates in the short run, monetary aggregates in the medium run)
- One important limitation of this analysis : based on a particular function of the preferences of the CB, i.e. focusing only on output stabilization (does not account for time inconsistency).

## Section 4: Extension to a more flexible policy rule

# Policy rule

- One might see the Poole procedures as particular cases of a policy rule



$$b = b_0 + \mu(i - E(i)) \quad (4)$$

- normalizing, one can write  $b = \mu i$ .
- $\mu$  will determine the extent to which  $b$  changes when  $i$  changes;  $\Rightarrow$  3 cases
- $\mu = 0 \Rightarrow b = b_0$  : procedure of fixing the monetary base

# Policy rule

- $\mu = -h$  ; combining with  $m = b + hi + \omega \Rightarrow m = \omega$  :  $b$  is adjusted such as keeping  $m$  constant (on average) : procedure of money supply adjustment with  $b$  the instrument and  $m$  is the intermediate target.
- $\mu = \infty \Rightarrow$  :  $i$  is fixed and  $b$  adjusts : procedure of interest rate (see why after determining the value of  $i$ )

# Policy rule

- The rule describes the way the instrument  $b$  is set
- 4 equations (5-8)
- one gets  $i = \frac{\nu - \omega + u}{\alpha + c + \mu + h}$
- if  $\mu \rightarrow \infty \Rightarrow i \rightarrow 0$ : the interest rate is fixed (in deviation from the mean): we recover the procedure of fixing the interest rate
- The obtained values of  $\mu$  will allow to compare the flexible solution (the policy rule) with the simple cases analyzed before. Interesting case : check optimal value of  $\mu$



# Optimal $\mu$

- $y = \frac{(c+h+\mu)u - \alpha(\nu - \omega)}{(\alpha + c + \mu + h)}$ .
- Computing the variance:  $\sigma_y^2 = \frac{(c+h+\mu)\sigma_u^2 + \alpha^2(\sigma_\nu^2 + \sigma_\omega^2)}{(\alpha + c + \mu + h)^2}$
- The optimal value of  $\mu$  is obtained by minimizing this expression:  $\mu^* = -(c + h) + \alpha \frac{\sigma_\nu^2 + \sigma_\omega^2}{\sigma_u^2}$
- We see that none of the single-instrument case is optimal ( $\mu = \infty, \mu = 0, \mu = -h$ ) → **in general, the combination of more than one instrument provides better results.**
- As before, the choice depends on the relative sizes of the real and financial shocks.

# Real shocks case

- Focus on real shocks :  $\sigma_v^2 = \sigma_\omega^2 = 0$ ,
- In the single-instrument case (section 2) the use of interest rate was dominated by the use of monetary aggregate
- now:  $\mu^* = -(c + h)$  or put differently:  $b = -(c + h)i$  : of course,  $(c + h) > 0$  (check why !!!)
- This expression shows that the information contained in the interest rate can be useful to choose the optimal variation in the monetary base.
- After a positive shock ( $u > 0$ ), the rise of interest rate signals the need for a monetary contraction through a decrease in the monetary base ( $\Delta b < 0$ ); this contraction amplifies the rise in interest rate : **leaning-with-the-wind policy.**

# Financial shocks case

- Financial shocks occur :  $\sigma_\nu^2 > 0, \sigma_\omega^2 > 0$
- In this case, the procedure of interest rate might become more desirable :  $\mu^* > -(c + h)$
- For large financial shocks (relative to real shocks),  $\mu^*$  might become positive.
- If  $\mu^* > 0$ , in the case of a negative money demand shock ( $\nu < 0$ ), the rise in interest rates signals a rise in  $b$  in order to increase the money stock and balance the negative impact of the initial shock on  $y$ . → **leaning-against-the-wind policy.**

# Signal extraction problem

- By definition, shocks are not directly observable → use of intermediate targets that give information of the stance of the economic situation
- We can see this as a signal extraction problem:  $i$  will provide information on the realization of shocks
- in the case of observable shocks (perfect information case: highly unrealistic!!!) :  $b = \mu_u u + \mu_v v + \mu_\omega \omega$
- We obtain:  $y = \frac{(c+h+\alpha\mu_u)u - \alpha(1-\mu_v)v + \alpha(1+\mu_v)\omega}{(\alpha+c+h)}$
- In this case, minimizing  $\sigma_y^2$  gives:  $\mu_u = \frac{-(c+h)}{\alpha}$ ;  
 $\mu_v = 1; \mu_\omega = -1.$

# Signal extraction problem

- In the case of unobservable shocks (realistic case !!!), the conduct of monetary policy must rely on estimated shocks :  $\hat{u}, \hat{\nu}, \hat{\omega}$

- $$b = \frac{-(c+h)}{\alpha} \hat{u} + \hat{\nu} - \hat{\omega}$$

- the forecasts of  $\nu, u$  and  $\omega$  will be made on the basis of the variations in the interest rate :

$$\hat{u} = \delta_u i, \hat{\nu} = \delta_\nu i, \hat{\omega} = \delta_\omega i$$

- The monetary policy rule becomes :

$$b = \underbrace{\left( \frac{-(c+h)}{\alpha} \delta_u + \delta_\nu - \delta_\omega \right)}_{\mu^*} i$$

- The optimal response of the CB in terms of  $i$  also corresponds to the optimal response of the CB in terms of the forecasted shocks which are estimated on the basis of the interest rate.