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**Lecture 05: The Nature of Money & Inflation**

1. Discussion of the reading
	1. Consider the POW camp.
	2. What if they had to rely on barter?
	3. The problem with barter is that it relies on a *double coincidence of wants*. Not only do you need to find someone who has what you want, that person must want what you have.
	4. This system is so inefficient barter is incredibly rare in practice. Even at the dawn of humanity reciprocal gifts—favors—was a sort of currency of the realm.
2. Money has three basic functions
	1. *Medium of exchange*—a common denominator that is always included in trades.
	2. *Unit of account*—a way to easily assess how much an item is worth.
	3. *Store of value*—something which will not rot, decay, or unavoidably lose value over time.
3. Types of money
	1. *Commodity currency*—a currency whose value is derived from a valuable commodity, whether physically made up of that commodity or can be redeemed for it (usually by the government). Gold is a popular example.
		1. On one hand, a commodity currency makes hyperinflation hard because it’s difficult to create more currency (depending on the commodity).
		2. But there’s a danger of this type of currency: the government has little control over its value. For example, the California and Australian gold rushes coincided with an inflation rate of 30% between 1850 and 1855.[[1]](#footnote-1)
	2. *Fiat currency or token money*—a currency whose value is derived from the legitimacy of the issuing government, often manifested as paper or low grade coins.
		1. In other words, a currency is worth because people think it’s worth something. Because they think it’s worth something, they’ll accept it in exchange for goods and services. It’s a self-fulfilling prophecy.
4. Gresham’s Law
	1. There is another problem with commodity currency, articulated by 16th century financier Sir Thomas Gresham.
	2. Like most commodity currencies, all coins are legally declared to be equally valuable. Now consider a merchant who discovers is he scraps off a bit of the coin, it’s still worth just as much *and* he can sell the sliver of gold.
	3. We now have two currencies circulating: “good” money (that with more gold) and “bad” money (that with less gold, a debased currency). *Gresham’s Law* states the bad money will drive out the good money.
		1. In other words, we will see people refuse to spend the “good” money, favoring to transform it into the debased currency.
5. Components of the Money Supply
	1. *Liquidity* describes the ease an asset can be converted into some form of money with little to no loss of purchasing power.
		1. Dollars are a very liquid asset (by definition). A house is very illiquid.
	2. Recall economists think in terms of stocks and flows.
		1. *Stock* is how much there is. (e.g. wealth)
		2. *Flow* is the rate of change. (e.g. income)
		3. Economists have different definitions on the stock of money:
	3. **M1**. Currency in the hands of the public + checkable deposits, or money the public can withdraw from the bank.
		1. *Currency* includes the bills and coins in your pocket, dresser, and couch.
		2. *Checkable deposits* are anything included in a checking account. When you pay with your debit card (not your credit card), you are using M1.
		3. As of July 2015, M1 was $3,030.4 billion.[[2]](#footnote-2)
	4. **M2**. M1 + Saving deposits + small-denominated time deposits + money market mutual funds
		1. *Savings deposits* include savings accounts and money market deposit accounts. There’re typically rules and limits to how much you can withdraw from these sorts of deposits so they are not as liquid as funds in a checking account.
		2. *Small-denominated time deposits* mature at a particular time (say, in six months) and there is a penalty if you cash out too soon, but you get a higher interest rate. A certificate of deposit (CD) is an example. “Small” in this context means less than $100,000.
		3. *Money market mutual funds* are investments in CDs and government securities. They also generate a small amount of interest and includes a penalty for withdrawing early.
		4. As of July 2015, M2 was $12,005.9 billion.
6. Why inflation matters
	1. What is money good for?
		1. Money isn’t what’s valuable; it’s the stuff you can buy with it.
		2. If I double your income but I triple all prices, you will be made worse off.
		3. We thus need to consider *inflation*—or the tendency of the price of goods to rise. (*Deflation*—when the price level tends to fall—is also possible.)
	2. Since inflation tends to make things more expensive, governments and companies adjust for it.
		1. Social Security has a cost of living adjustment (COLA). If there’s a lot of inflation, Social Security payments will increase to compensate.
		2. Employers will often increase wages to adjust for inflation (otherwise, employees are effectively getting pay cuts). Employers don’t necessarily mind these adjustments because the price level is increasing, including the price they sell at.
	3. The *nominal* value isn’t adjusted for inflation. The *real* value is adjusted for inflation.
		1. *Nominal* values are useful because they are what’s reported by default and require no additional calculation. Because inflation tends to be small, there’s no need to adjust for it if you’re comparing prices today with prices or incomes last year.
		2. *Real* values are useful because they let you compare prices and incomes across a long span of time. If you want to know if a gallon of milk is cheaper now versus 100 years ago, you’ll want to adjust for inflation. (It’s cheaper now: $4.67 in 1919 and $3.49 in 2012.)[[3]](#footnote-3) We use it a lot to adjust GDP so we can compare values over time.
	4. Other indications of adjusting for inflation are phrases like “in today’s dollars” or “in 2010 dollars.”
7. Consumer Price Index (CPI)
	1. To determine how much prices change from year to year, the government must figure out what these prices are.
	2. But there are millions of goods bought and sold every day; that’s a lot of prices to keep track of!
	3. So the good folks at the Bureau of Labor Statistics (BLS) ask Americans what kind of goods they buy and construct a “basket” of just some of them. It’s still a lot of goods (over 200 categories in 38 geographic areas) but by tracking this basket they can construct a pretty good Consumer Price Index, which forms the basis of determining inflation.[[4]](#footnote-4)
	4. The goal in constructing the basket is to have a wide variety of goods, a variety that accurately captures what consumers buy, but not put undo focus on any particular good.
		1. Why? Because inflation is the *general* price level and you don’t want any industry-specific good to have too much influence.
		2. This is why we have *core inflation*, or inflation after ignoring the prices of energy and food. These prices are particularly volatile. Including them could indicate inflation is much more or less rampant than it is.
	5. CPI works off of a base year which is set at 100. Inflation is calculated in the same way as GDP growth.
		1. For example, if the CPI is 131, then there’s been 31% inflation since the base year: (131 – 100)/100.
		2. The CPI keeps quantity constant. If you spend more on bananas, that doesn’t means the price of bananas went up. You could have just bought more bananas.
8. Why inflation really matters
	1. Okay, so we are all aware of inflation which is why companies and governments adjust for it. So it’s important but other people keep track of it and adjust for it, so it doesn’t really matter. Right?
	2. Wrong. Yes, at some level the market makes inflation immaterial; if you double all prices and you double all wages, there should be no change. So what if inflation’s high? It typically doesn’t matter much if the inflation’s foreseen but unanticipated inflation can cause real problems for…
		1. Fixed-income receivers. Sometimes their income is adjusted for inflation, but it takes time to calculate. If inflation’s unexpectedly high, it can create a real problem.
		2. Savers. If unanticipated, the interest you receive will be less than the inflation. Even if you’re gaining more money in nominal terms, you’ll losing it in real terms.
		3. Creditors. Unanticipated inflation harms those who lend money out for similar reasons as it harms savers.
	3. When inflation is anticipated, we can adjust the interest rate to compensate. We thus have the *real* interest rate, or the interest rate adjusted for inflation:

real interest rate = nominal interest rate – inflation rate

* + 1. Note this is a simple way to adjust for inflation; there is a more complex, but more accurate way, to adjust.[[5]](#footnote-5)
		2. You can use a similar method to estimate *real* GDP growth.
	1. Lots of inflation unanticipated deters saving, which creates problems for long-term economic growth. It does, however, encourage spending (since you can either invest/save your money or spend it) which is good for short-term economic growth.
	2. What’s bad for savers is good for borrowers. If you have a lot of student loans, pray for unexpected inflation because it will be easier to earn more and thus easier to pay back your bank.
	3. All these problems become disastrous under *hyperinflation*—when inflation grows really fast. So fast, what prices should be become difficult to determine.
		1. In Germany after WWI, prices would rise so fast, customers sometimes had to pay twice as much when they paid the bill compared to when they ordered their food.
		2. In 2008, Zimbabwe’s inflation was about 14.9 *billion* percent.
1. What causes inflation?
	1. An inflation game
	2. The most common cause is an increase in the money supply. We call this *demand-pull* inflation: when too much money chases too few goods. Consider the following equation:

$$Mv=p\_{L}Y\_{R}$$

* + 1. Where M is the money supply;
		2. And v is the velocity of money (how often money changes hands);
		3. And pL is the price level;
		4. And YR is real GDP.
	1. If you increase the money supply, either you have to be buying and selling more things (YR) or you have more inflation. This is also known as the quantity theory of money.
		1. This theory also illustrates why deflation is particularly nasty.
		2. If people expect prices to fall, they won’t buy anything (because they want to wait until later, when prices are lower).
		3. In addition, people are getting paid less (because prices are lower), which is a reduction in GDP.
		4. Both effects put downward pressure on velocity, which puts *more* downward pressure on the price level.
		5. Because deflation is so nasty, countries prefer to have a little inflation (about 2%). Deflation is very hard to get out of.
	2. *Cost-push* inflation comes from when a fundamental good, one that is an input with many other goods, increases in price. That price translates into higher costs for many other goods which push their prices up as well. It is a rarer form of inflation.
		1. In 1973, OPEC cut production to beef up gas prices, quadrupling the price of oil. Since oil is so important to the economy, this price hike led to inflation.
		2. This scenario is unlikely to happen in the foreseeable future because (a) no single organization has this sort of influence on the price of oil anymore and (b) alternative energy is more common now so oil’s role in the economy is diminished.
		3. Cost-push inflation is controversial. Some economists argue instances such as the 1970s inflation was actually caused by a corresponding increase in the money supply. If money spent on one area goes up and the money supply isn’t increasing, then money spent on other areas should go down.
1. <http://eh.net/encyclopedia/california-gold-rush/> [↑](#footnote-ref-1)
2. <http://www.federalreserve.gov/releases/h6/current/default.htm> [↑](#footnote-ref-2)
3. <http://historicaltextarchive.com/sections.php?action=read&artid=418>; <http://data.bls.gov/images/buttons/download_button_xls.gif> [↑](#footnote-ref-3)
4. Here’s a list of some items in that basket: <http://www.businessinsider.com/breakdown-of-consumer-price-index-basket-2014-1> [↑](#footnote-ref-4)
5. The actual equation is: (1+nominal interest rate)/(1+inflation rate) – 1 = real interest rate. [↑](#footnote-ref-5)