

LECTURE 24: MONETARY POLICY

- I. What is a central bank?
 - a. A state-backed bank responsible for implementing monetary policy. (Engaging in actions that alter the interest rate, exchange rate, how private banks are run, etc.)
 - b. “Bank” in this case is a little deceiving; a central bank isn’t trying to make loans or earn a profit. It is more of an authority than a bank. But the terminology “central bank” is the norm so we will use it here.
 - c. Because most countries use a fiat currency, the bank must print new money—the government’s the only one that can supply it.
- II. The Federal Reserve System (the “Fed”)
 - a. This is a network of the U.S.’s central bank, managed by the Board of Governors.
 - i. There are twelve Federal Reserve Banks in the U.S. spread throughout the country. Each Bank is in charge of a District.¹
 - ii. The Board makes policy decisions which determine the monetary control of the United States. When the government increases the money supply, the Board made the decision.
 - iii. Each board member is elected to a fourteen-year term. This lengthy term to help insulate the Board from political pressures.
 - iv. The chair of the Board of Governors is Jerome Powell.²
 - b. The Fed has a dual mandate: keep prices stable and keep unemployment low.
 - i. Keeping prices stable typically means fighting inflation. The Fed is concerned about deflation as well, but historically the major concern in inflation.
 - ii. Over the years, the Fed has adopted a second mandate: low unemployment. Money is incredibly powerful in how it affects the performance of the economy, and, by extension, the level of employment.
- III. Types of interest rates and the multiplier
 - a. The Fed operates by altering the interest rate through the money supply. But there are multiple interest rates: rates banks borrow from

¹ The banks are in Boston (1); New York (2); Philadelphia (3); Cleveland (4); Richmond (5); Atlanta (6); Chicago (7); St. Louis (8); Minneapolis (9); Dallas (10); Kansas City (11); and San Francisco (12).

² As of February 2018; before Powell was Janet Yellen; before her was Ben Bernanke, then Alan Greenspan.

the Fed, rates banks borrow from each other, rates banks grant savers, rates bank charge lenders, and so on.

- b. The *Federal funds rate*—the interest rate which banks lend from one another on overnight loans of reserves—is the key interest rate for monetary policy. It’s the interest rate which seeps into all sectors of economy and thus directly relates to economic growth.
 - i. It’s called the Federal funds rate because it involves loans banks make to each other so they can meet the federally mandated reserve requirement.
- c. In addition to the federal funds rate, we should be made aware of the *discount rate*—the rate at which banks borrow from the Federal Reserve. Banks use this option when they have unexpected and immediate needs for funds.
- d. The monetary multiplier
 - i. The fiscal multiplier exists because the spending of one person becomes the income of another person.
 - ii. When banks lend money, something similar happens. Some (not all due to required reserves) of the money you save in Bank A goes to someone else as a loan. They put that loan in Bank B to use while they spend it.
 - iii. Bank B uses a portion of this money to lend out to someone else who puts it in Bank C, and so on and so on.
 - iv. Like the fiscal multiplier, the *monetary multiplier* describes the how much the money supply expands with each dollar increase in reserves. It equals $1 / \text{reserve requirement}$.
 - v. If the reserve requirement is 10% (0.10) and there’s an increase of \$2,000 in reserves, the money supply increases by \$20,000.

IV. Tools of the Fed

- a. The Fed has a few tools in how it influences the economy. Each tool changes the federal funds rate.
- b. Open-Market Operations
 - i. The Fed’s most commonly used tool is directly changing the money supply through “open-market operations.”
 - ii. The Federal Reserve has the right to sell government bonds (to fund the government’s debt) and has the right to print money.
 - iii. If it sells government bonds, it collects dollars in return, lowering the money supply.
 - iv. If it buys government bonds, it gives up dollars in return, increasing the money supply.

- v. Since the Federal funds rate is the price of borrowing money, more dollars means the interest rate falls. A smaller money supply means it rises.
 - vi. As a general rule, the Fed keeps the discount rate (which they set) close to the Federal funds rate.
- c. Reserve Ratio (Reserve Requirement)
- i. Banks create money. When they loan out excess reserves (and charge interest), they are creating money.
 - ii. By changing the reserve ratio/requirement, the Fed alters how much money a bank can create because it changes how much money the bank must hold in its coffers. By raising the reserve ratio, it decreases the money supply and the monetary multiplier.
 - iii. This puts upward pressure on interest rates.
- d. The Discount Rate
- i. By changing the discount rate, the Fed changes how easy it is to borrow additional money from the Fed. Lowering the discount rate increases banks' reserves.
 - ii. This is particularly effective because these loans are not subject to the reserve requirement. If a bank borrows \$100 million, it can lend out all \$100 million.
- V. What Actually Happens
- a. If the Fed uses any of these tools to expand the money supply, it's expansionary monetary policy. Here's how it works:
 - i. Banks will have excess reserves,
 - ii. Thus, there's a lower Federal funds rate,
 - iii. Thus, banks will be more willing to lend out to others, causing longer-term rates to fall and the money supply to increase,
 - 1. Our monetary multiplier plays a big role here. A single increase in the money supply by the Fed results in *a lot* of money supply creation. Remember: banks create money when they make loans.
 - iv. Thus, more people borrow money (AD shifts right),
 - v. Thus, GDP increases and consumption and investment rise.
 - b. Like in fiscal policy, the greater the multiplier (this time the monetary multiplier), the greater the shift in AD.
 - c. Note the Fed does *not* set interest rates. Interest rates are ultimately set by the market. The Fed merely influences interest rates.
 - d. The opposite occurs with contractionary monetary policy to fight inflation. The Fed reduces excess reserves and the interest rate rises.

VI. Challenges

- a. Can't handle real shocks: just fiscal policy, because monetary policy shifts AD, it can't respond to recessions caused by real shocks.
- b. Lags: the delay between problem and solution still exist here, but they are less severe.
 - i. Recognition lag—it takes time to identify the problem.
 - ii. Effectiveness lag—it takes time for investors to apply the new interest rates to investment and for that effect to be felt in real GDP.
- c. Demand for Cash: the actual monetary multiplier is lower than the theory
 - i. The equation for the monetary multiplier assumes everyone puts 100% of their money in the bank.
 - ii. In fact many people, when they take a loan, get at least some of it in cash. Thus that portion never enters the banking system and is thus not multiplied.
 - iii. This highlights the point made earlier: the Fed doesn't set interest rates and does not have direct control over the resulting price. It merely influences that price and is thus subject to other factors.
- d. Liquidity Trap: when monetary policy doesn't work anymore.
 - i. The Fed's expansionary monetary policy is based on lowering interest rates. But interest rates have a floor; you can't have a negative interest rate.
 - ii. When there's a recession and interest rates are already low, economists refer to this as a *liquidity trap*—when adding more liquidity has little-to-no positive effect on lending.
 - iii. The Fed can make more reserves available, but it can't make banks lend the money. Banks might simply want liquidity in their coffers to assuage potential problems in the future.