

## **Lecture 9: Intermediate macroeconomics, spring 2016**

Lars Calmfors

**Literature: *Mankiw, Chapters 16, 18 and 20***

## **Topics**

- **Problems with stabilisation policy**
- **Economic-policy paradigms during different periods**
- **The time inconsistency problem of monetary policy**
- **Independent central banks**
- **Automatic stabilisers in fiscal policy**
- **The Great Moderation**
- **The Great Recession and the financial crisis**
- **The controversy about the Swedish *Riksbank*'s monetary policy**
- **Consumption and forward-looking households**
- **The life-cycle hypothesis for consumption**

## **Stabilisation policy in practice: problems**

### **1. Time lags**

- **Inside lags: recognition lag and decision lag**
- **Outside lags: effect lag**
- **Longer decision lag for fiscal policy than for monetary policy (parliamentary process where also other considerations than stabilisation aspects enter)**
- **The effect lag of monetary policy (until it affects the inflation rate) is often assessed to be around two years**

### **2. Difficulties of economic forecasting**

### **3. Economic relationships are often unstable**

- **The Lucas critique**
- **Example: the Phillips curve**

$$\pi = a - bU$$

$$\pi = E\pi - \phi (u - u_n)$$

### **Stabilisation policy in practice: problems (cont.)**

- 4. Measures often taken for political-economy reasons. Do not coincide with what is optimal from a stabilisation policy view.**
- **Political business cycles: expansionary policy before an election (tax cuts and expenditure increases)**
  - **It is more popular to stimulate aggregate demand in a downturn than it is to stimulate it in a boom: the result is likely to be a *deficit bias* of fiscal policy (and an *inflation bias* of monetary policy)**
  - **Time inconsistency problem: a certain policy may be optimal *ex ante* (in advance) but not *ex post* (afterwards).**

## **Economic policy paradigms**

### **The post-war period up to the mid 1970s**

- **An activist (Keynesian) view dominated**
- **Full-employment goal**
- **The economy is fundamentally unstable and needs to be stabilised through policy**
- **Discretionary policy (active decisions): at any point of time one should choose the policy that is viewed as the best (no rules)**

### **1980s**

- **An activist stabilisation policy with a full-employment goal is perceived to create an inflation bias**
- **The economy is fundamentally stable; shocks originate instead to a large extent from overambitious, but failed, attempts to stabilise the economy**
- **Rules-based policy instead of discretionary policy**
- **Fight unemployment with structural labour market reforms!**

## **Economic policy paradigms: Conventional wisdom before the financial crisis**

- **Compromise between earlier paradigms**
- **Monetary policy more discretionary and activist again**
- **The price stability objective (an inflation target) is seen as the primary objective for monetary policy**
- **Independent central banks in charge of monetary policy, which should be the primary stabilisation policy tool**
- **Rules-based fiscal policy: avoid discretionary policy action and rely instead on the automatic stabilisers**
  - **Automatic variations in tax revenues and government expenditures over the cycle**
- **Budget objective over the business cycle**
  - **Sweden: budget surplus of 1 per cent of GDP over the cycle; the government wants a balanced-budget objective instead**
  - **EU: deficit and debt ceilings; now also balanced budget requirement for the structural (cyclically adjusted) budget balance**
- **Government expenditure ceiling (Sweden)**

### **After the financial crisis**

- **Price stability may be too narrow a goal for monetary policy**
- **Financial stability as an additional monetary policy goal**
- **Need for financial regulation instruments to achieve financial stability**
- **Increased emphasis on fiscal policy**
  - **monetary policy is not enough in a liquidity trap**
  - **more activist fiscal policy may be needed**
  - **but this requires that government debt is not too high**

## **The time inconsistency (credibility) problem of monetary policy**

- **Policy makers strive for both low inflation and low unemployment**
- **It is optimal to announce a low-inflation policy *ex ante*: if credible, anticipated inflation is reduced**
- **But once this has happened, it is tempting for monetary policy makers to let inflation increase, because this reduces unemployment**
- **Hence the optimal monetary policy is time inconsistent**
- **But such policy cannot work in the long run: the public learns to anticipate policy**
- **The economy gets stuck in an inflation equilibrium with high inflation without reaching lower unemployment (actual unemployment = equilibrium unemployment when actual inflation is anticipated)**



**The optimisation problem of the central bank when monetary policy is discretionary**

**Surprise supply function**

$$u = u^n - \alpha(\pi - E\pi)$$

**Loss (disutility) function**

$$L = u + \gamma\pi^2$$

**Substitution of supply function into loss function:**

$$L = u^n - \alpha(\pi - E\pi) + \gamma\pi^2$$

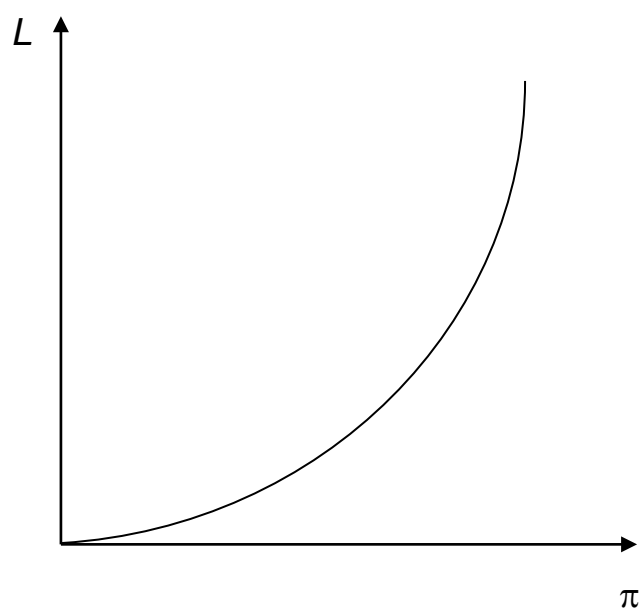
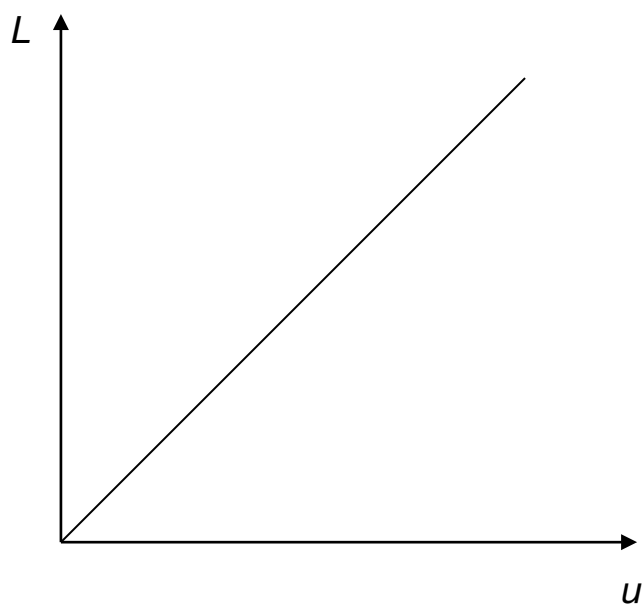
**Policy makers choose  $\pi$  so as to minimise  $L$  (taking  $E\pi$  as given):**

$$\frac{\partial L}{\partial \pi} = -\alpha + 2\gamma\pi = 0$$

$$\pi = \frac{\alpha}{2\gamma}$$

$$\alpha = 1 \text{ and } \gamma = 10 \Rightarrow \pi = \frac{1}{20} = 0,05$$

## Loss function



## **Rules are better than discretion in the model**

$$u = u^n - \alpha(\pi - E\pi)$$

$$L = u + \gamma\pi^2$$

- **In equilibrium with discretionary policy:  $\pi = E\pi = \alpha/2\gamma$**

**Hence:  $u = u^n$**

**$L^D = \text{loss (disutility) under discretion}$**

$$L^D = u^n + \gamma\left(\frac{\alpha}{2\gamma}\right)^2 = u^n + \frac{\alpha^2}{4\gamma}$$

- **Commitment to  $\pi = E\pi = 0$  (binding rule)**

**$L^C = \text{loss (disutility under commitment)}$**

$$L^C = u^n + 0 = u^n$$

- **Comparison of discretion and commitment**

$$L^C = u^n < u^n + \frac{\alpha^2}{4\gamma} = L^D$$

- **Commitment gives smaller loss than discretion**
- **Hence commitment is better than discretion in the model**

**Why cannot the central bank announce a zero-inflation policy under discretion and then stick to it?**

- Assume that policy makers announce a policy of zero inflation and that the announcement is believed!

$$E\pi = 0$$

- Hence:

$$u = u_n - \alpha(\pi - E\pi) = u_n - \alpha\pi$$

$$L = u + \gamma\pi^2 = u_n - \alpha\pi + \gamma\pi^2$$

- Policy makers choose inflation to minimise  $L$ :

$$\frac{\partial L}{\partial \pi} = -\alpha + 2\pi\gamma = 0$$

$$\pi = \alpha / 2\gamma$$

- *Ex post* the government thus chooses to inflate all the same.

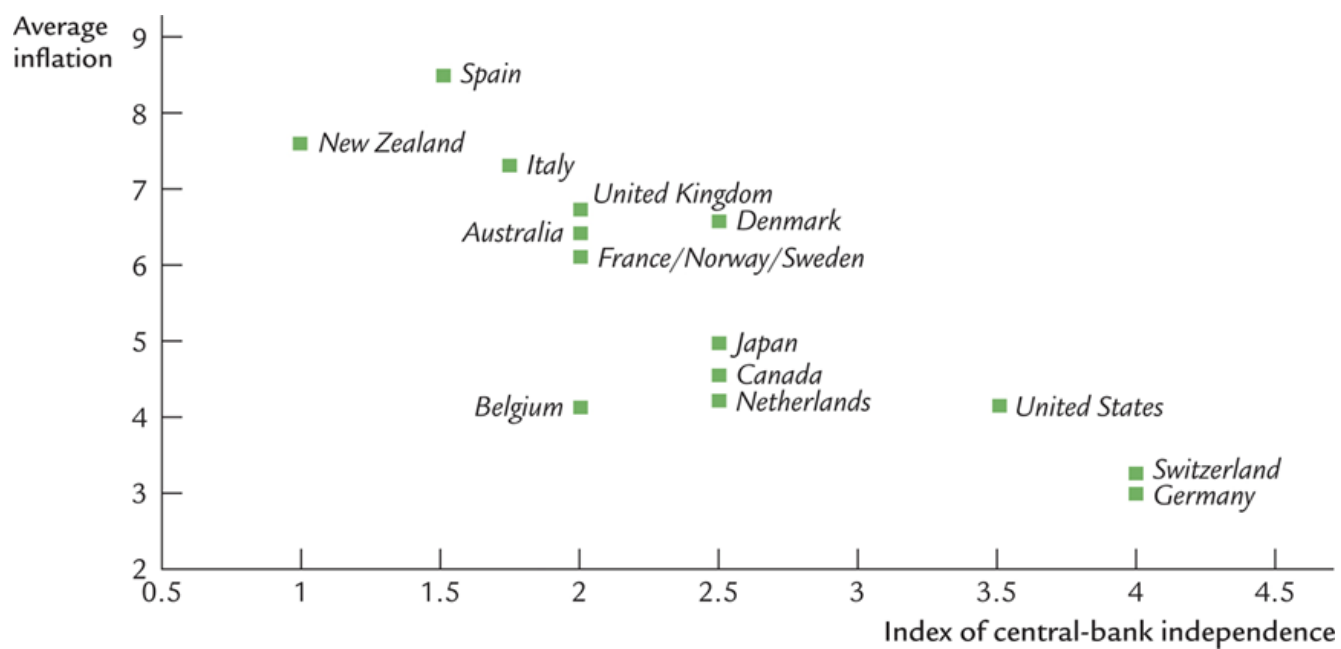
## **Methods of commitment**

- 1) Gold standard**
- 2) Bretton Woods fixed exchange rate**
- 3) Currency board**
- 4) Constitutional stipulations**
- 5) Common currency (Italy, Finland, Greece)**
- 6) Independent central bank**
  - conservative governor(s)**
  - inflation target**

## **Central bank independence**

- **Long periods of office for governors**
- **Governors cannot be fired during period of office**
- **Prohibitions both for governments to give instructions and for central bankers to receive them**
- **Governors should have professional competence (this potentially rules out politicians)**
- **Freedom to use monetary policy instruments**
- **Ban on government borrowing in the central bank**
- **Transparent objective (inflation target): commitment or constrained discretion**
- **How to combine central bank independence with accountability:**
  - **The Riksbank has been criticised for not attaining its inflation target**
  - **Public hearings in Parliament's Finance Committee**
  - **External evaluations**

**Figure 18-2: Inflation and central-bank independence**



## **Fiscal policy before the financial crisis**

- **Avoid discretionary fiscal action**
- **Rely on the automatic stabilisers**
- **Automatic stabilisers = the automatic change in the fiscal balance that occurs over the business cycle**
  - **tax revenues fall (rise) when GDP falls (rises)**
  - **some government expenditures (unemployment benefits) rise (fall) when unemployment rises (falls)**
- **No decision mistakes with automatic stabilisers if demand shocks**



## **Structural fiscal balance and automatic stabilisers**

- **Structural fiscal balance is the fiscal balance that would prevail in a normal cyclical situation**
- **The structural fiscal balance is used as a measure of discretionary fiscal policy**

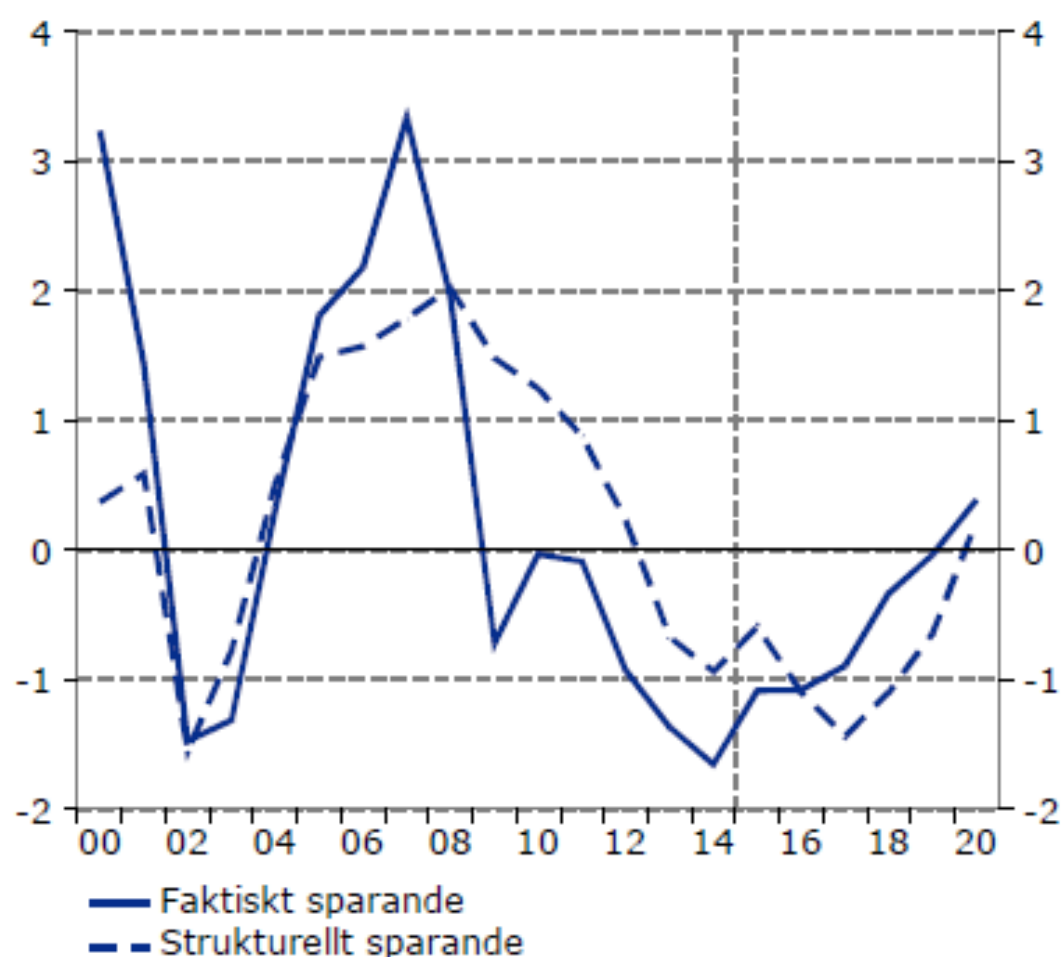
**Actual fiscal balance = Structural fiscal balance + Automatic stabilisers**

**Automatic stabilisers = Budget elasticity  $\times$  GDP gap**

- **Everything is measured in per cent of GDP**
- **The budget elasticity measures how the fiscal balance (in per cent of GDP) changes when GDP changes by one per cent ( $\approx$  a one percentage point change in the GDP gap).**

## Diagram 110 Offentliga sektorns faktiska och strukturella finansiella sparande

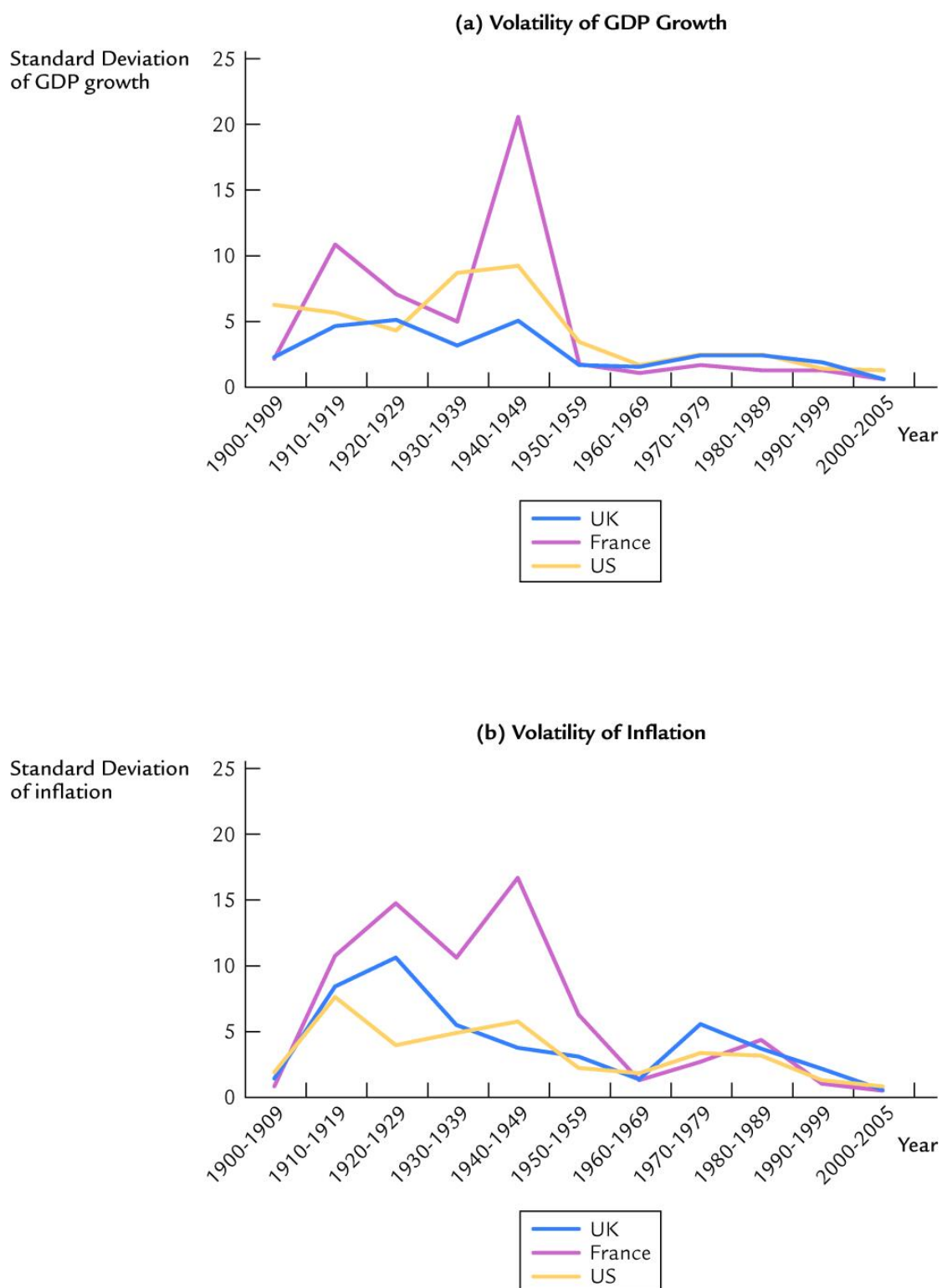
Procent av BNP respektive potentiell BNP



Källor: SCB och Konjunkturinstitutet.

**Belief in the Great Moderation before the financial crisis:**  
**lower output and inflation volatility**

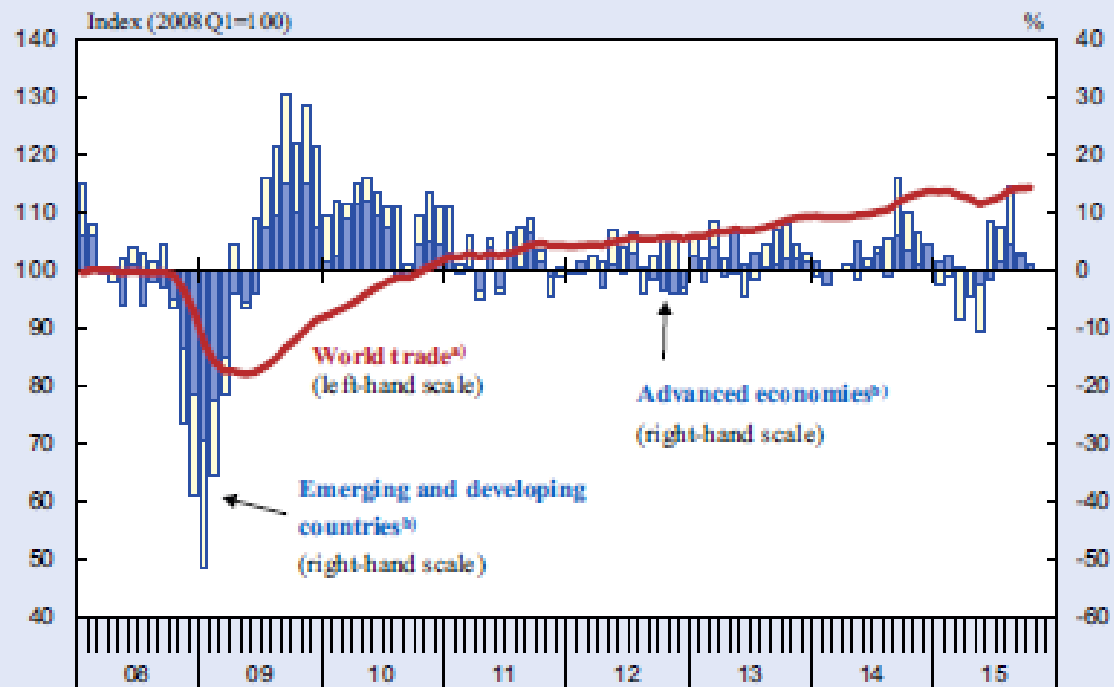
- **Larger importance for less volatile service sectors**
- **Good luck – absence of shocks**
- **Better macroeconomic management (because of better institutions?)**
- **The great moderation came to a sudden end. Financial crisis and world recession**



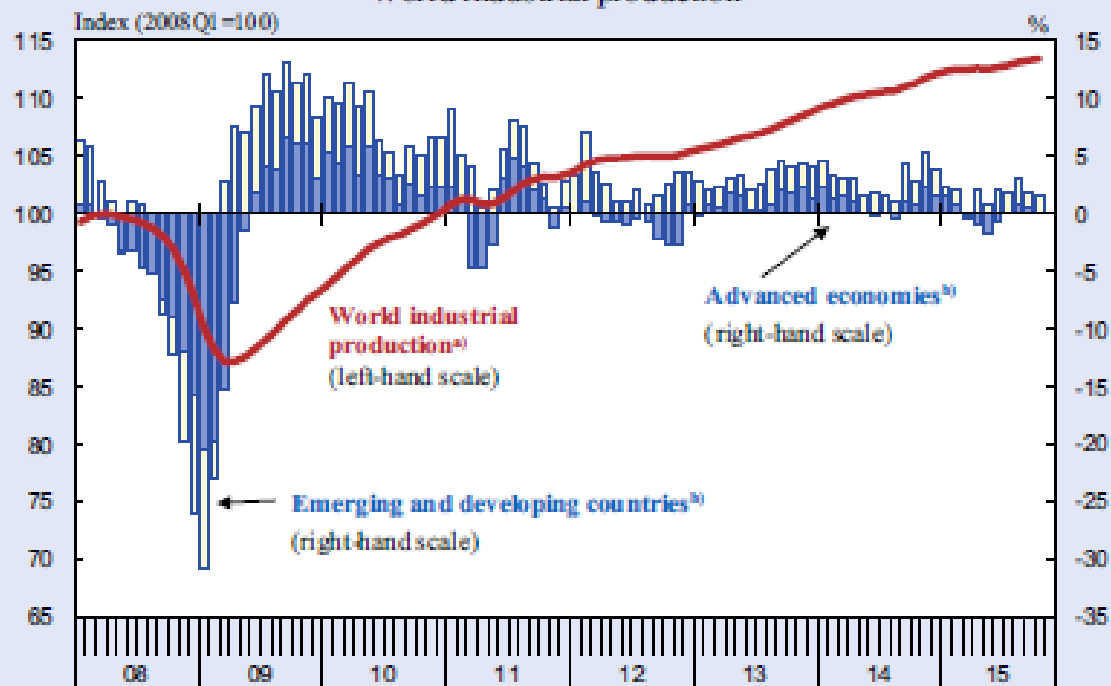
**Figure 14.1** Macroeconomic volatility in the UK, France and the US since 1900.

## Regional contributions to world trade and industrial production

### World trade



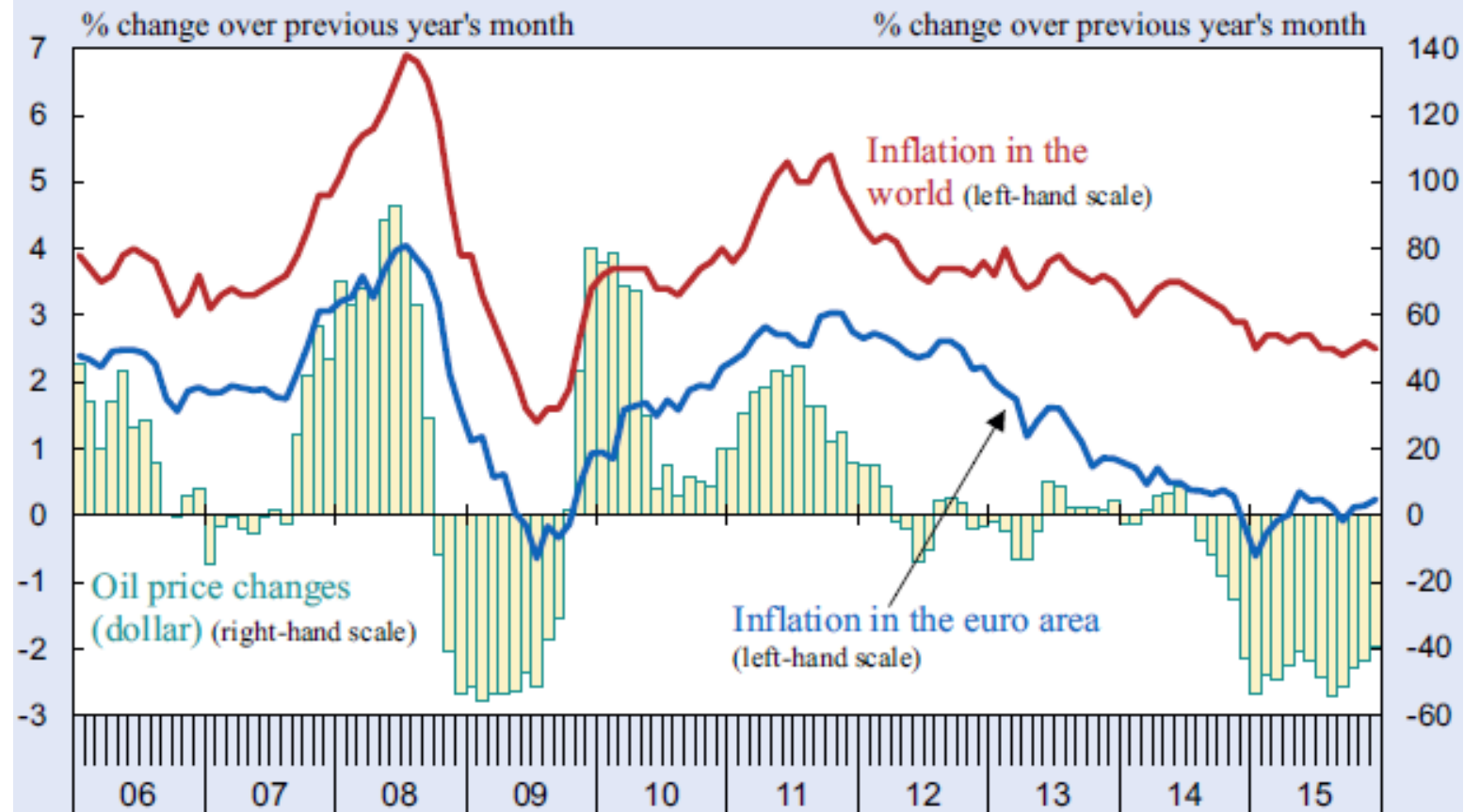
### World industrial production



<sup>a</sup> Three month moving average level. <sup>b</sup> Contribution to annualised monthly growth rate thereof.

Source: CPB Netherlands Bureau for Economic Policy Analysis, World Trade Monitor; October 2015.

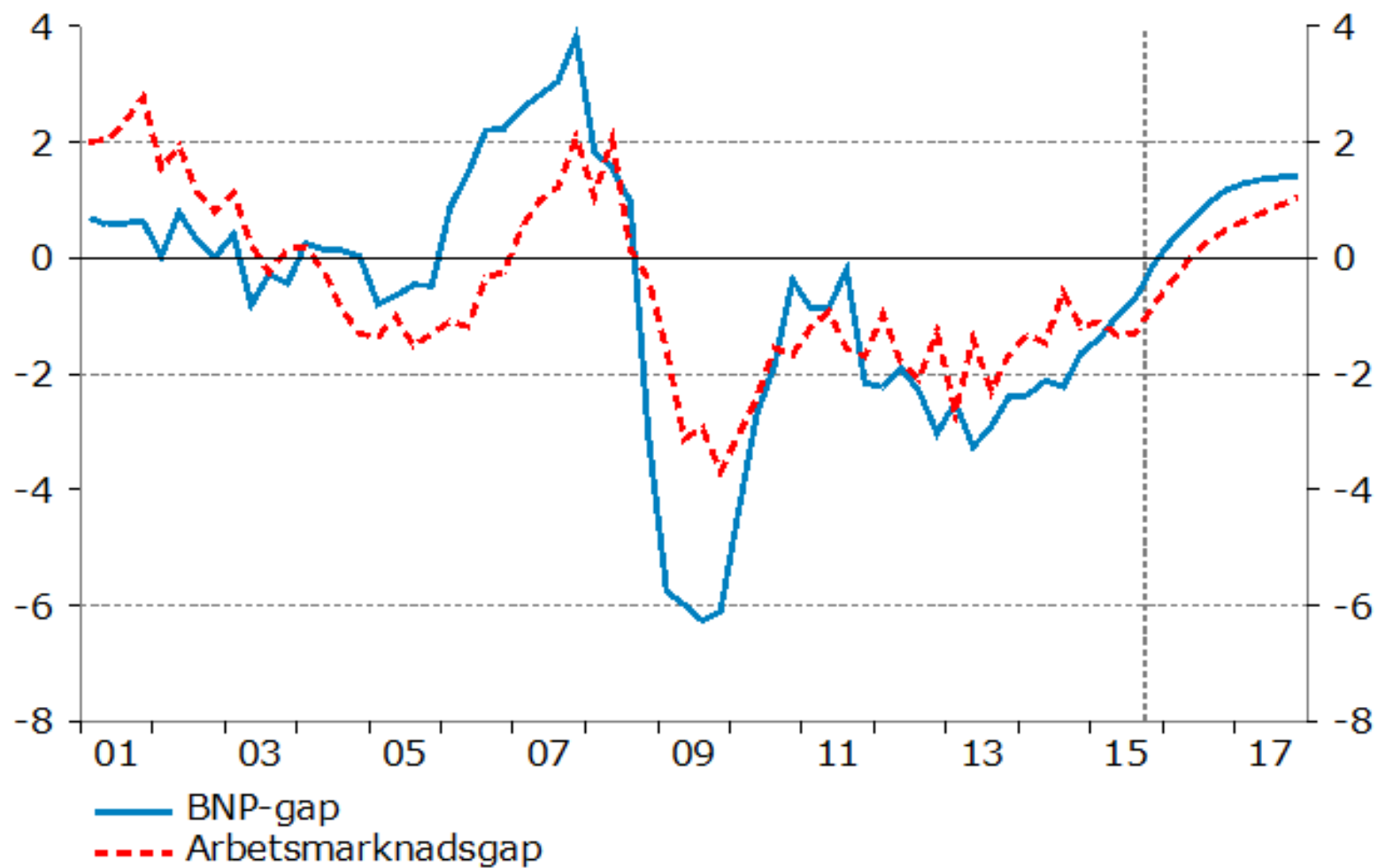
## Inflation in the world and oil price movements



Source: IMF International Financial Statistics, last accessed on 30 January 2016.

## GDP Gap and Labour Market Gap

Percentage of potential GDP and potential worked hours respectively, seasonally adjusted quarterly values

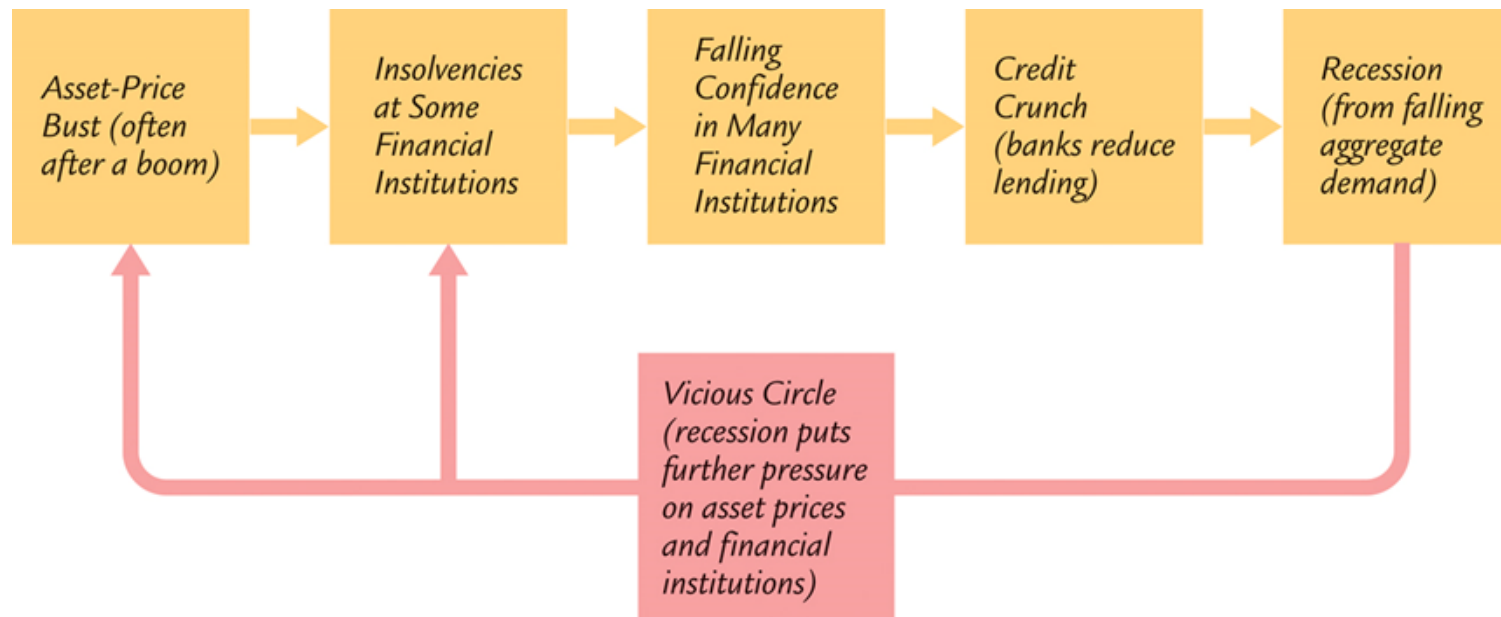


## **Rethink of macroeconomics**

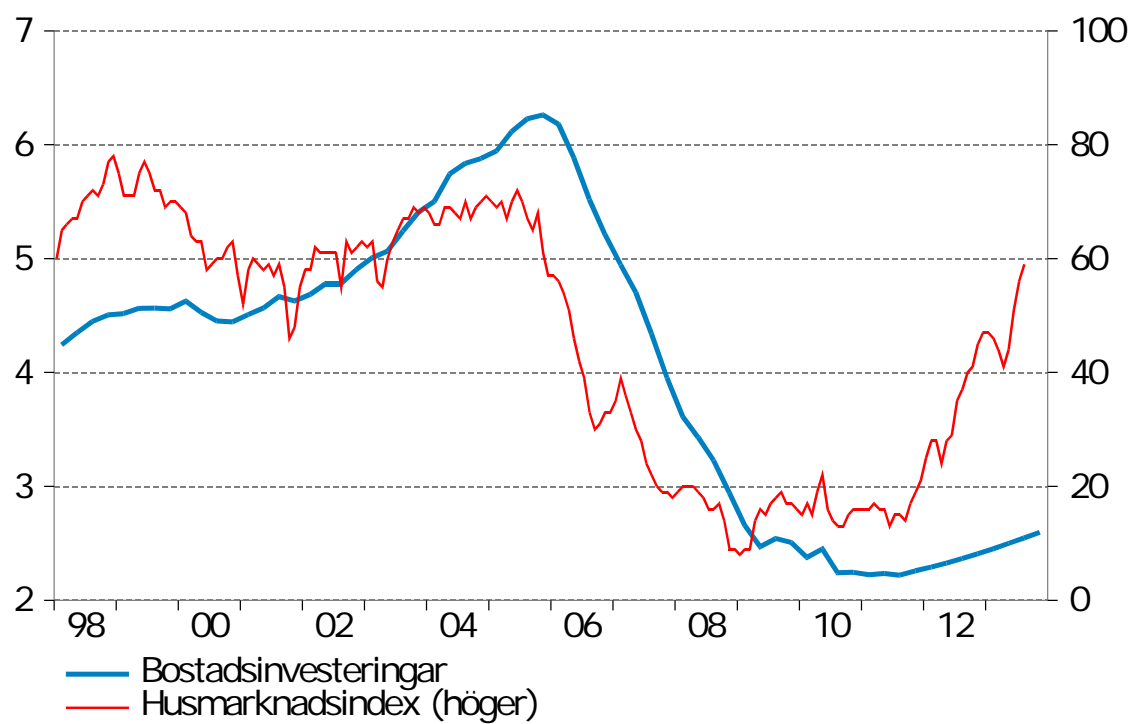
- **The worst recessions involve financial crises**
- **Boom – bust cycles**
- **Boom**
  - **increased demand for credit**
  - **asset price inflation (houses, shares)**
  - **value of potential collateral increases**
  - **further increase in credit demand**
  - **further increases in asset prices**
  - **wealth effects**
  - **underestimation of credit risks in financial sector**
  - **lower equity capital relative to lending in banks**
  - **lower saving**
  - **general overheating of the economy**
- **Bust**
  - **higher interest rates**
  - **lower credit growth**
  - **asset price deflation**
  - **falling wealth**
  - **falling value of collateral**
  - **deleveraging**
  - **defaults and bankruptcies**
  - **higher saving**
  - **general recession**



**Figure 20-2: The anatomy of a financial crisis**

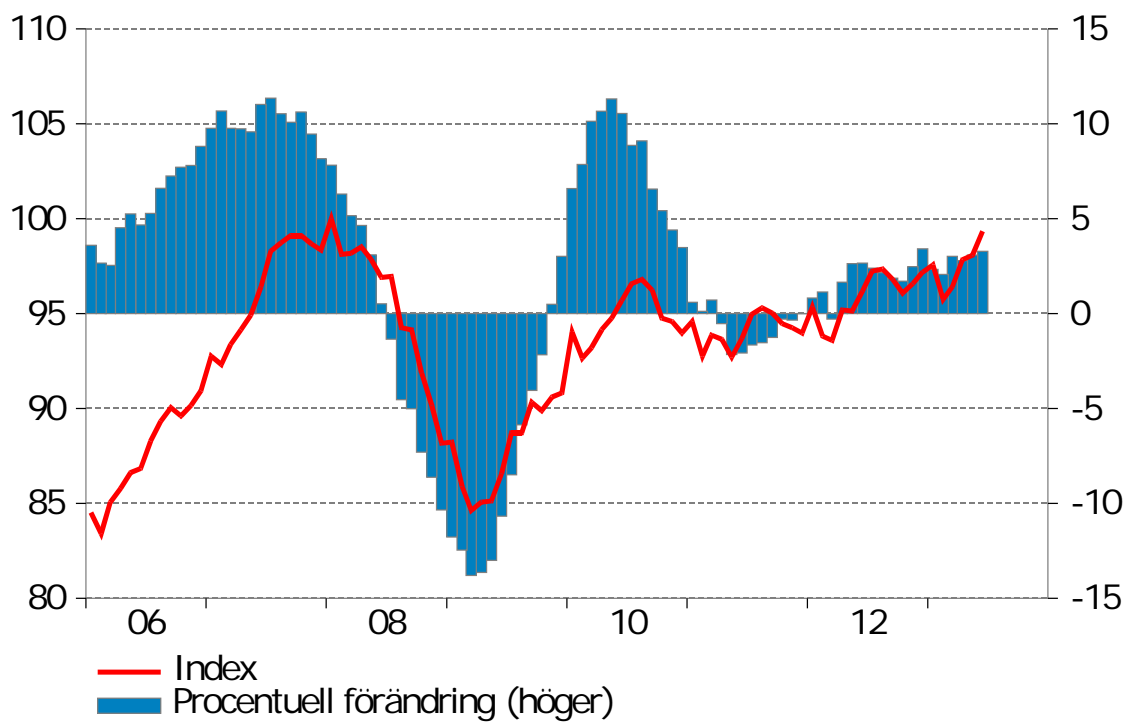


## **Bostadsinvesteringar och husmarknadsindex i USA**



## Huspriser i Storbritannien

Index januari 2008=100 respektive årlig procentuell förändring, månadsvärden



## **Rethink of economic-policy paradigm**

- **Not enough with conventional stabilisation policy to stabilise output and inflation**
- **Need for *macroprudential* regulation and oversight**
  - **traditional microprudential regulation/oversight likely to underestimate systemic risks**
- **Reforms to strengthen *macroprudential* regulation/supervision**
  - **stronger role for central bank (UK, Euro area)**
  - **Financial Supervisory Authority (Finansinspektionen in Sweden)**
  - **financial stability councils**
- **New macroprudential tools**
  - **Regulation of traditional banks (deposit insurance and anticipated government bail-outs create moral hazard problems)**
  - **Regulation of shadow banks (investment banks, hedge funds, insurance companies, private equity firms)**
  - **Rules on resolution of banks (including bail-in rules, i.e. rules on how some loans to banks can be transformed into equity)**
  - **Restrictions on the size of banks**
  - **Restrictions on risk taking of commercial banks**
  - **Capital adequacy ratios**
  - **Loan-to-value regulations for borrowers**
  - **Amortization requirements**

## **Design of monetary policy**

- **Inflation targeting may not be enough to stabilise the economy**
  - **inflation target may be attained in the medium term at the same time as financial imbalances develop**
- **Two possible approaches**
  - **Use monetary policy (interest rate setting) to stabilise inflation/output and macroprudential regulation/supervision to stabilise credit growth/asset prices**
  - **Monetary policy must pay greater attention to credit growth/asset prices**
- **Common view: Macroprudential regulation/supervision will always lag financial innovations**
  - **hence monetary policy has to deal with financial developments as well**
- **If so, monetary policy becomes more complex**
  - **more difficult to evaluate monetary policy**
  - **more difficult to hold central bankers to account**
  - **potential problem for policy delegation to independent central banks**

**Figure 1:13. Housing prices**

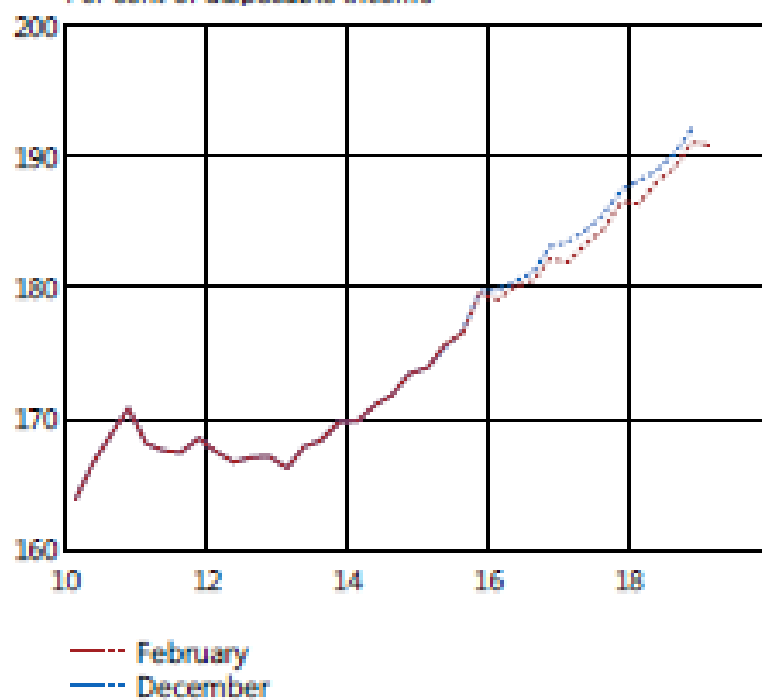
Annual percentage change



Source: Valueguard

**Figure 1:14. Household debt ratio**

Per cent of disposable income

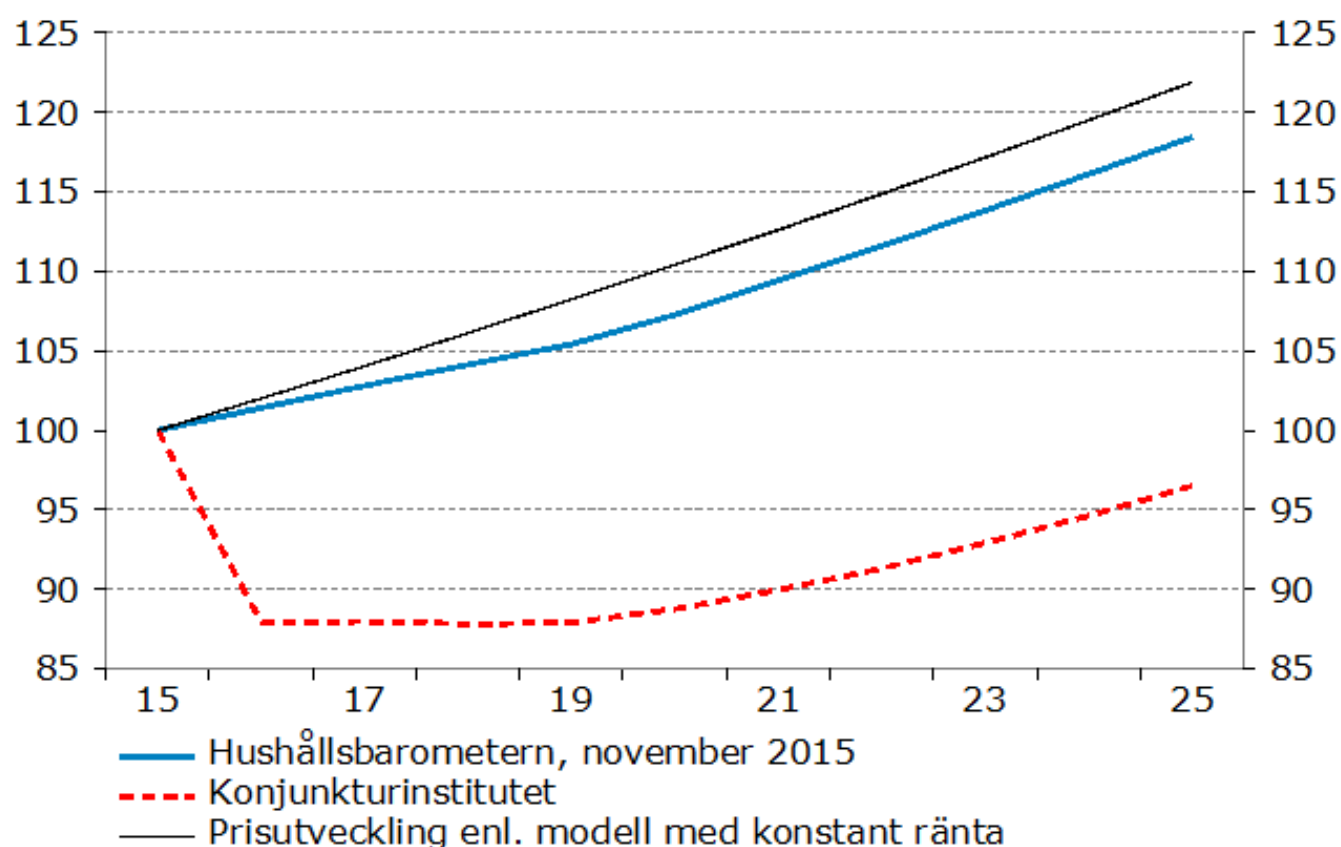


Note. Households' total debts as a share of their disposable incomes totalled over the past four quarters.

Sources: Statistics Sweden and the Riksbank

## Modellsimulerade bostadspriser – 20 procent prisfall inte orimligt om bostadsräntan stiger till 6 procent

Reala bostadspriser med olika ränteförväntningar



Anm. Med konstant ränta antas reala bostadspriser stiga med 2 procent per år, dvs. med 4 procent nominellt per år om inflationen blir 2 procent.

## **Conflict regarding the Swedish Riksbank's monetary policy**

- **Repo rate decisions are taken by the six-member Executive Board (“Direktionen”)**
- **Disagreement in the Executive Board on interest rate policy 2010-2013: a minority - Lars E.O. Svensson and Karolina Ekholm, both former professors at Stockholm University - consistently voted for a lower repo rate than the one set by the majority**
- **1997-2014 average CPI inflation has been 1.0 per cent, that is 1 percentage point below the inflation target of 2 per cent**
- **Expected inflation has on average been 2 per cent**
- **According to Lars Svensson the undershooting of the inflation target has caused average unemployment to be around 1 percentage point higher than if the inflation target had been met**
- **The conflict is really about what role considerations regarding financial stability should play for interest rate decisions**
- **The minority argues that financial stability considerations should not influence repo rate decisions**
- **The majority lets financial stability considerations influence their repo rate decisions although this was not stated clearly**
  - **instead, for example, forecasts of future foreign interest rates were improbably high**



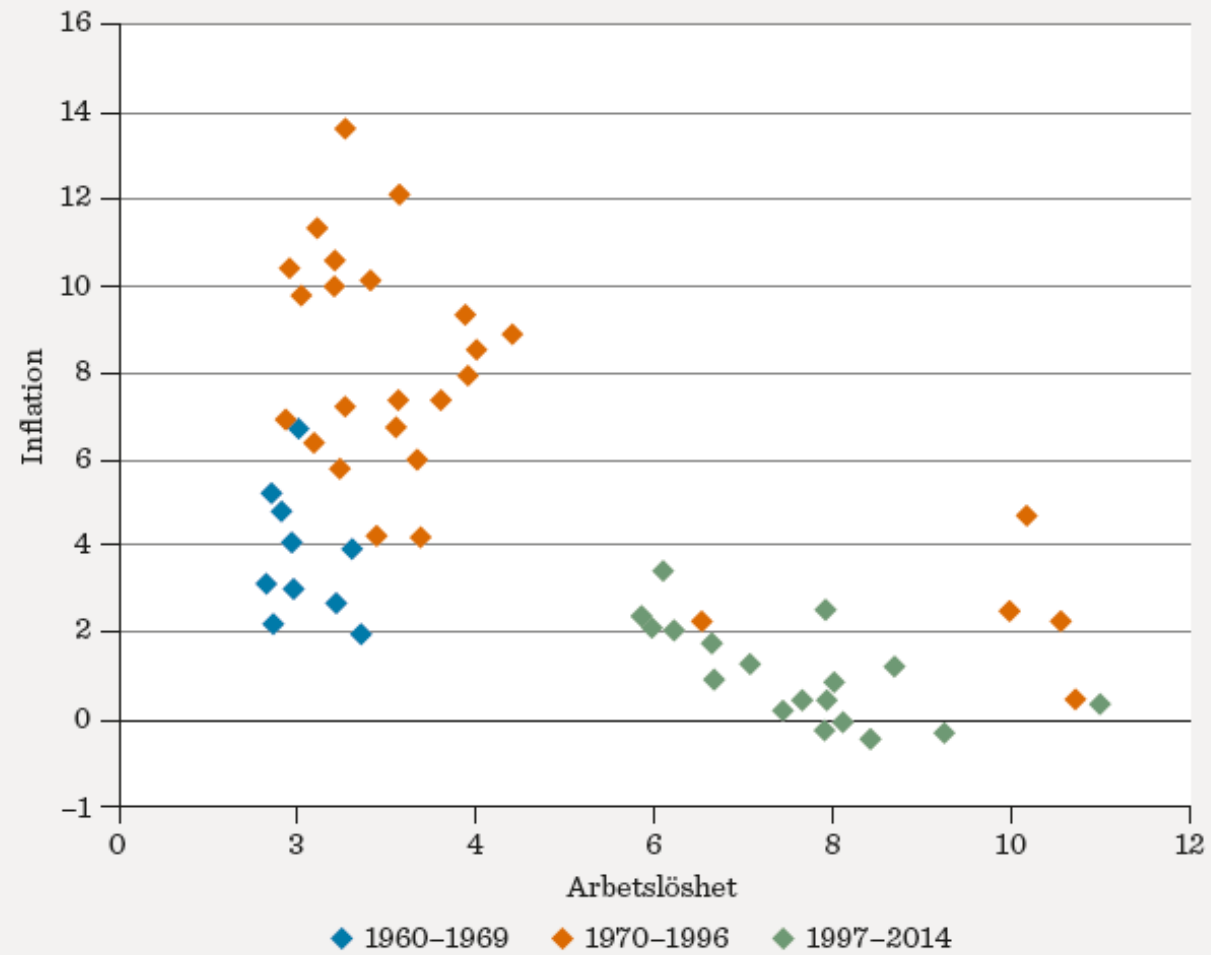
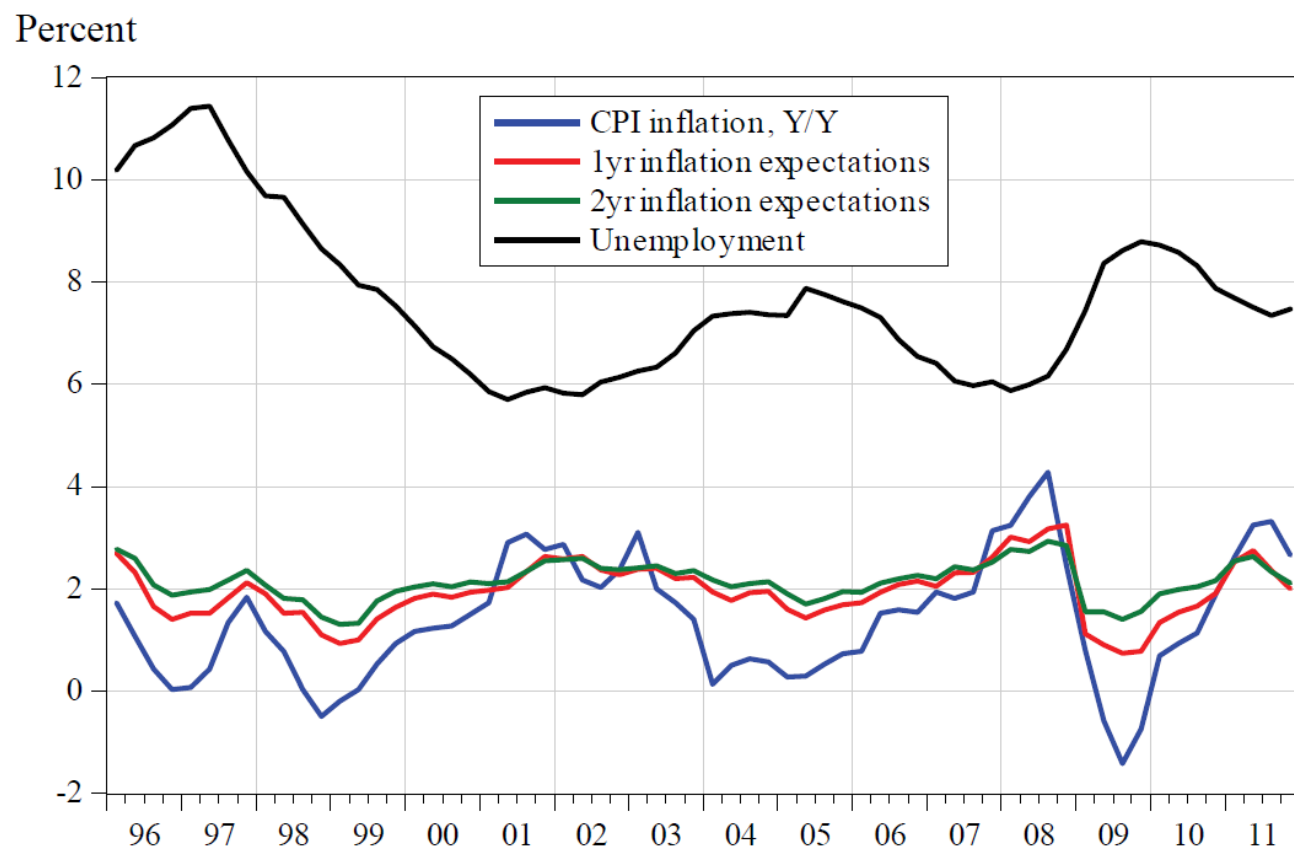


Figure 1. Annual CPI inflation, CPI inflation expectations one and two years ahead (all interviewees), 35  
and unemployment (15-74 age group).



Sources: Statistics Sweden and TNS Sifo Prospera.

**Unnecessary unemployment?**

$$\pi_t = \pi_t^e - \gamma(u_t - u_t^*) + \varepsilon_t$$

$$\varepsilon_t = 0$$

$$\text{Then } \pi_t - \pi_t^e = -\gamma(u_t - u_t^*)$$

$$\pi_t < \pi_t^e \Rightarrow u_t > u_t^*$$

**Actual inflation < Expected inflation implies that  
Actual unemployment > Equilibrium unemployment**

## **Theory of consumption**

### **The Keynesian consumption function**

$$C = C(Y - T)$$

- Consumption depends on current disposable income

- Marginal propensity to consume,  $MPC = \frac{\partial C}{\partial (Y - T)}$

$$0 < MPC < 1$$

- But it is more reasonable to believe that consumption depends on forward-looking decisions (Irving Fisher, Milton Friedman, Franco Modigliani and Robert Hall).
- Intertemporal decisions
- Fisher's two period model

## **The intertemporal budget constraint – a two-period framework**

**Period 1:**  $S = Y_1 - C_1$

**Period 2:**  $C_2 = (1 + r)S + Y_2$

**Substitution of (1) into (2) gives:**

$$C_2 = (1 + r)(Y_1 - C_1) + Y_2 = (1 + r) Y_1 + Y_2 - (1 + r) C_1$$

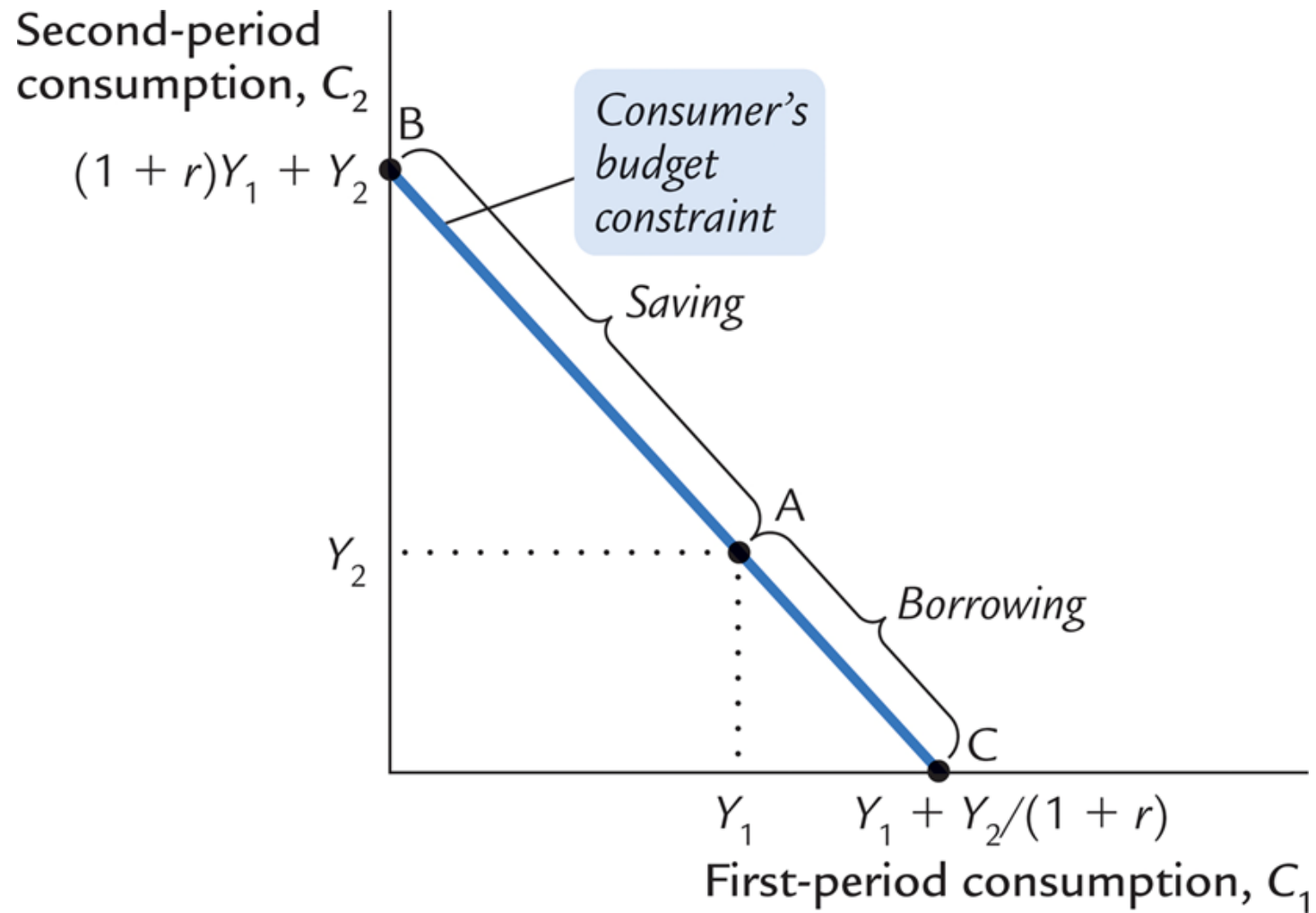
$$C_1 = 0 \Rightarrow C_2 = (1 + r) Y_1 + Y_2$$

$$C_2 = 0 \Rightarrow C_1 = Y_1 + Y_2 / (1 + r)$$

$C_1 = Y_1$  and  $C_2 = Y_2$  is always possible

- **Draw the intertemporal budget constraint in the  $C_2, C_1$ -plane.**
  - $C_2$  as a function of  $C_1$ , holding  $Y_1, Y_2$  and  $r$  constant
  - A negatively sloped line with slope  $-(1 + r)$

**Figure 16-3: The consumer's budget constraint**



### **The budget constraint in present-value terms**

$$C_2 = (1 + r) Y_1 + Y_2 - (1 + r) C_1$$

**The budget constraint can be rearranged to:**

$$C_1 + C_2/(1 + r) = Y_1 + Y_2/(1 + r)$$

**$(1 + r)$  is the price of consumption in period 1 in terms of lower consumption in period 2. It is thus always more expensive to consume in period 1 than in period 2.**

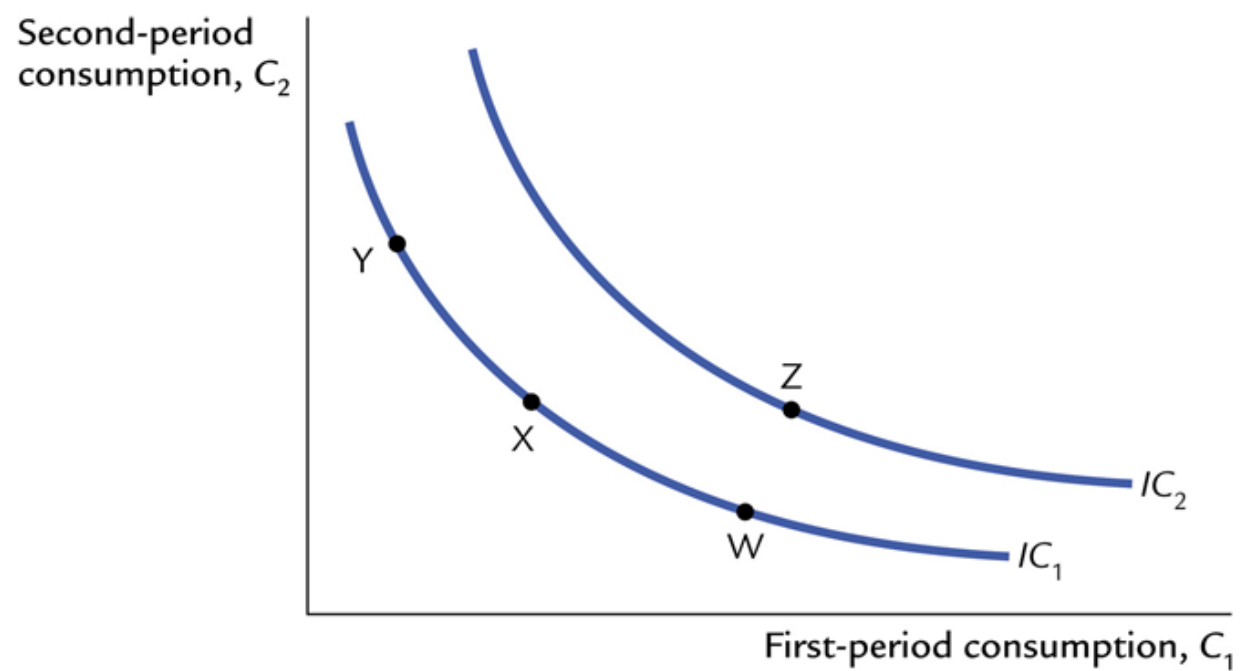
**Present value of consumption = Present value of income.**

**The present-value concept is used to compare amounts of money received at different points of time.**

**The present value of any amount in the future is the amount that would be needed today, given available interest rates, to produce that future amount.**

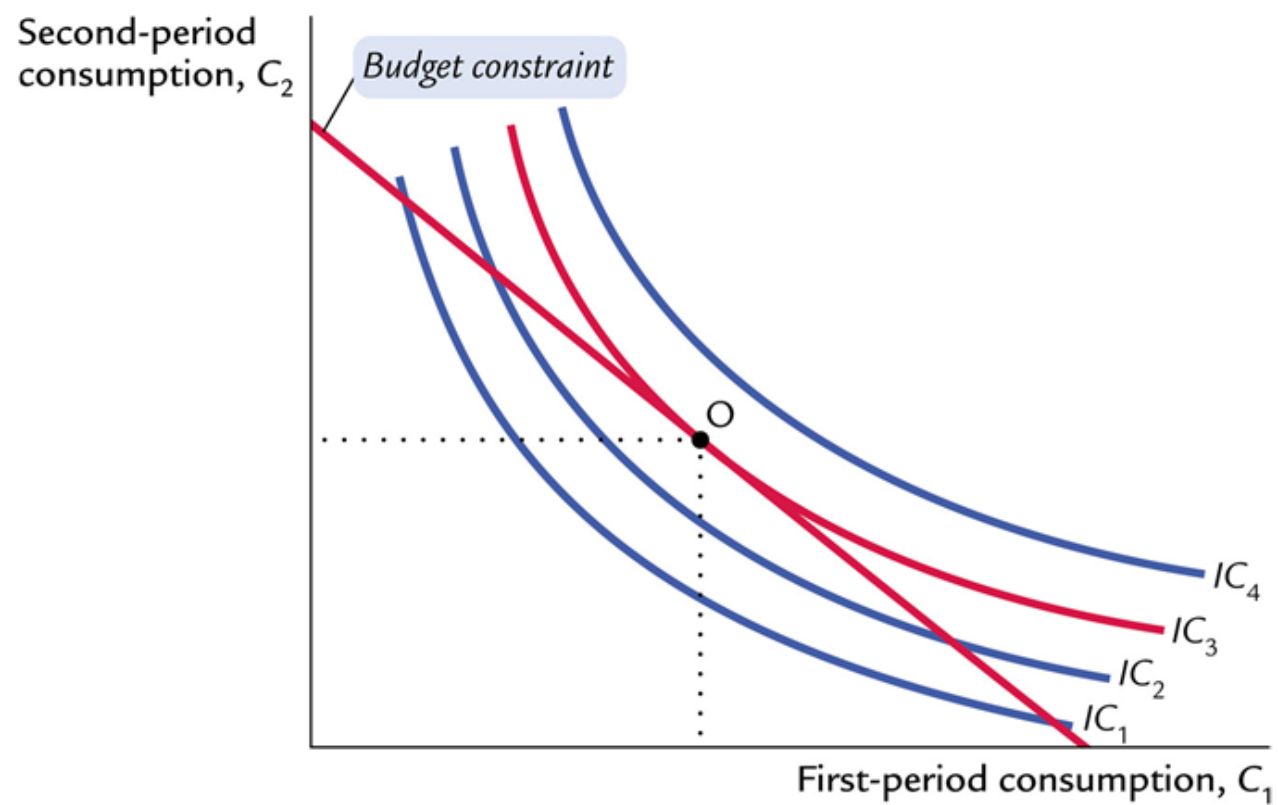
**If you are going to be paid  $X$  € in  $T$  years, and the interest rate is  $r$ , the present value of  $X$  is  $X/(1+r)^T$ .**

**Figure 16-4: The consumer's preferences**

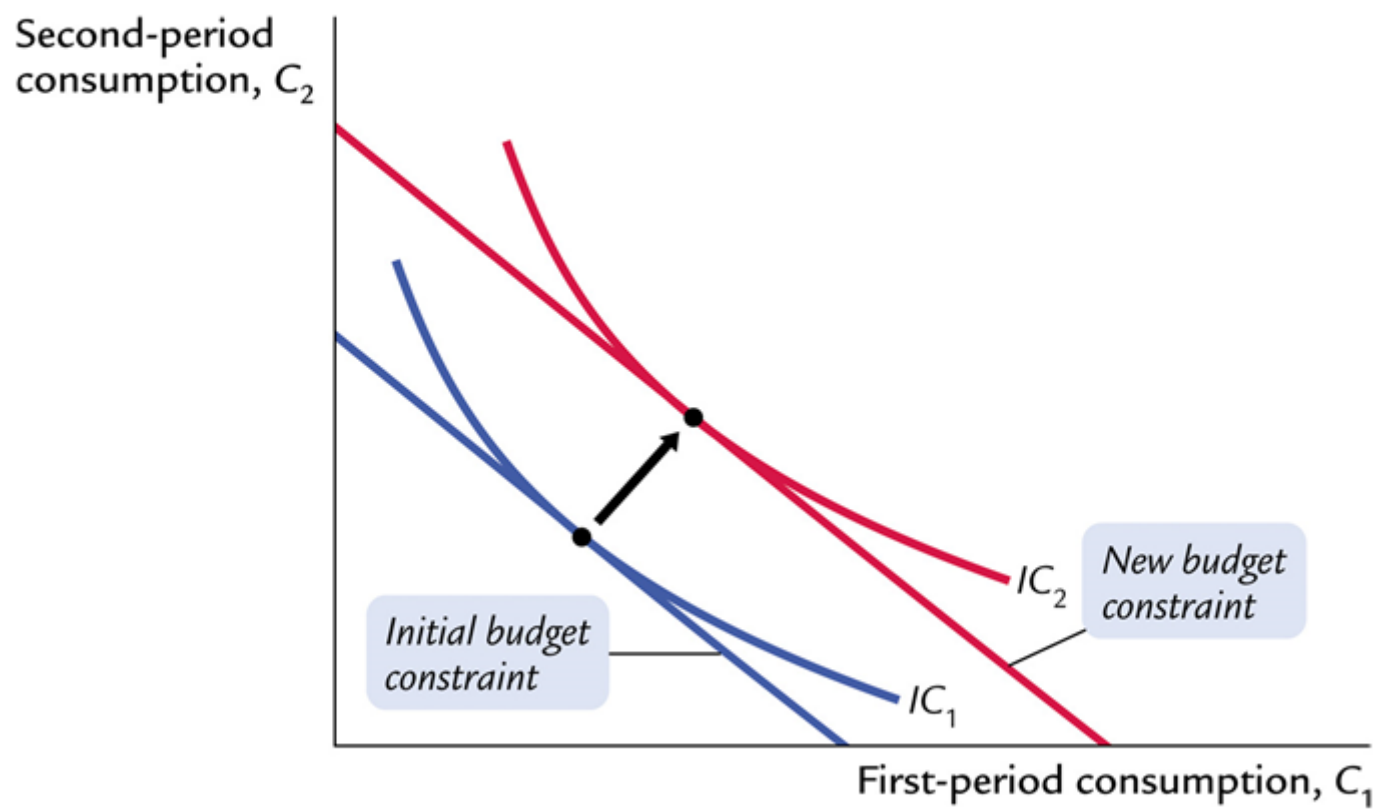




**Figure 16-5: The consumer's optimum**

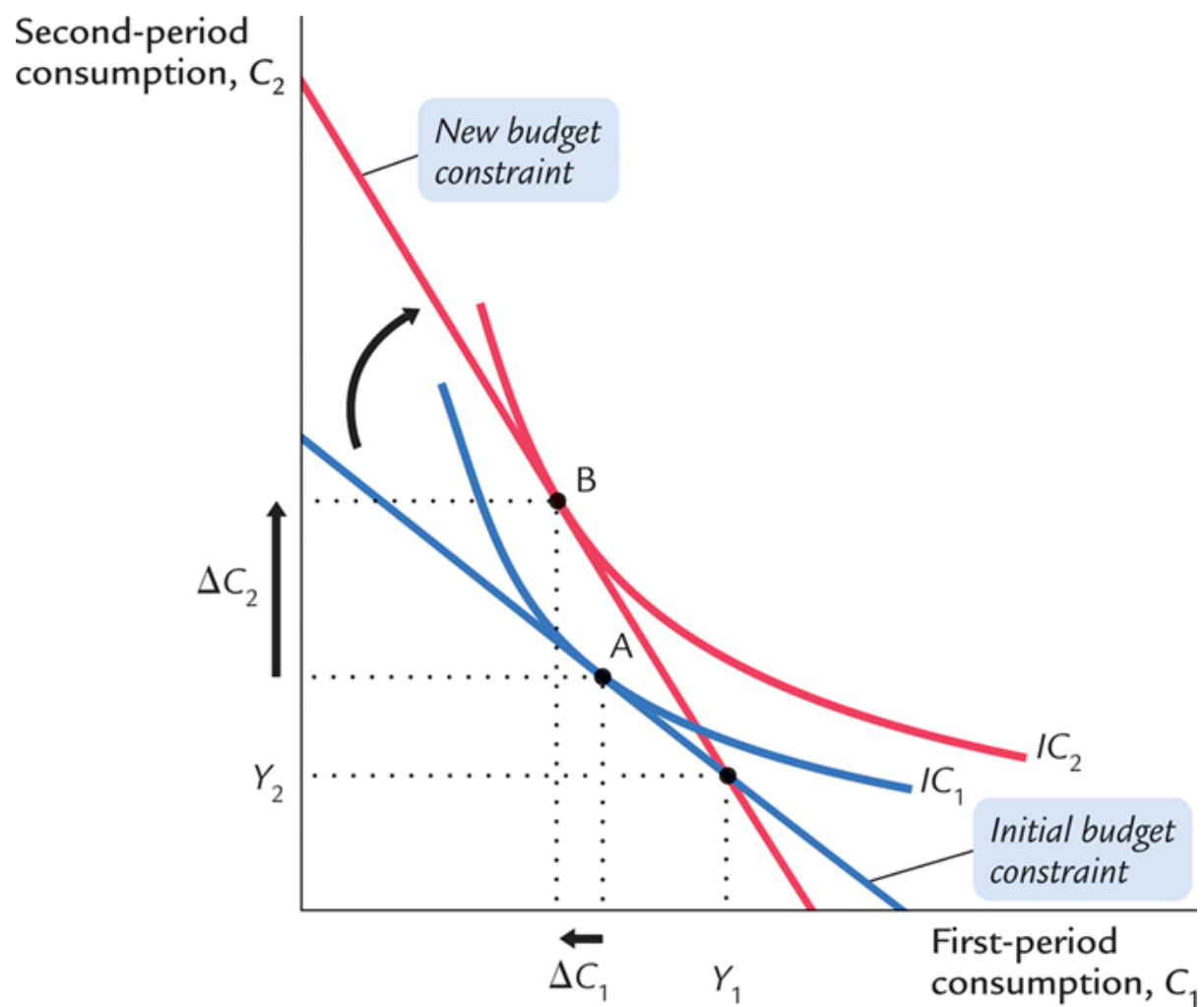


**Figure 16-6: An increase in income**

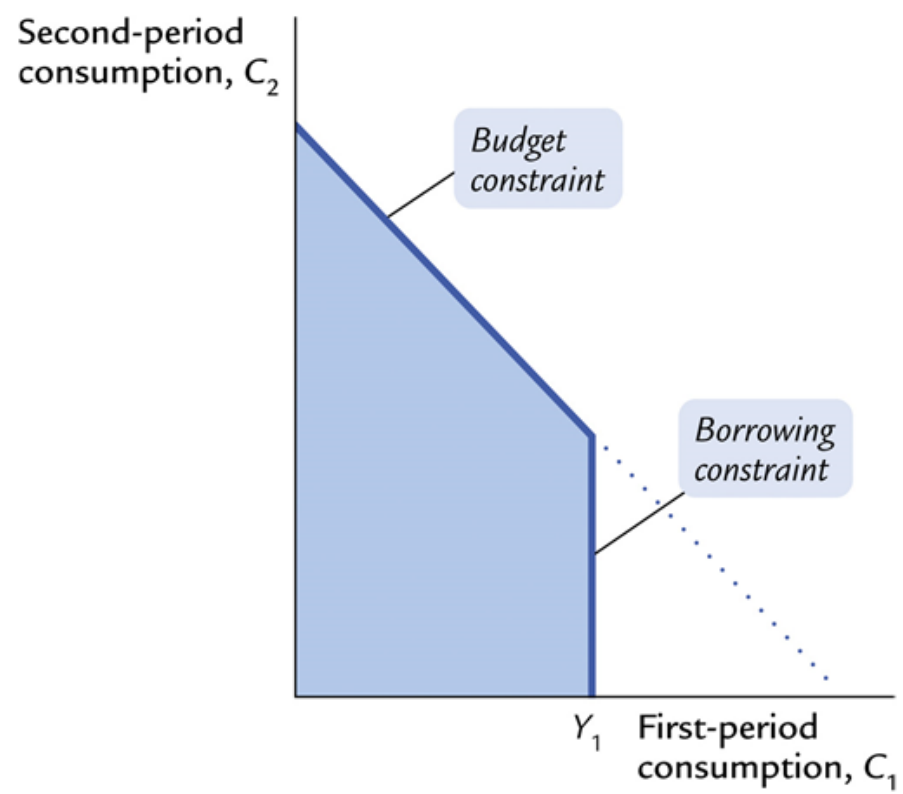


- **Expected future income changes influence consumption already now**
  - **Oil revenues in Norway**
  - **Future pensions**
  - **Earlier anticipated future productivity increases in the US: explanation of low savings and large current account deficits**
- **Consumption smoothing**
  - **Households try to smooth consumption over time (equalise marginal utility of consumption between periods)**
  - **Decreasing marginal utility of consumption**
  - **The same consumption level each period if subjective discount rate = market interest rate**

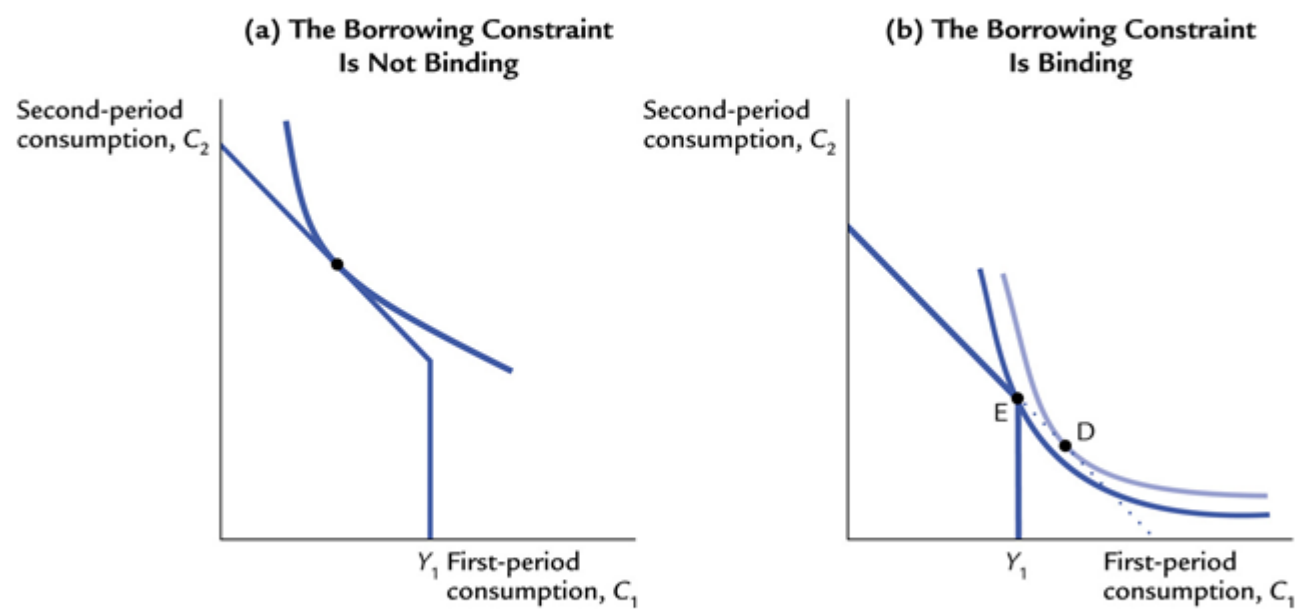
**Figure 16-7: An increase in the interest rate**



**Figure 16-8: A borrowing constraint**



**Figure 16-9: The consumer's optimum with a borrowing constraint**



**Borrowing constraints**

- Around  $\frac{1}{4}$  of households are rationed in the credit market
- The MPC of rationed households is unity (one)
- A temporary income increase of  $\Delta Y$  gives a permanent income rise by  $r\Delta Y$  (the permanent return if the income rise is invested in the credit market) for non-rationed households.  $MPC \approx r$
- Hence, aggregate  $MPC = \frac{1}{4} \cdot 1 + \frac{3}{4} \cdot r \approx \frac{1}{4}$

## **Franco Modigliani's life cycle hypothesis**

**$R$  = Remaining years of work**

**$Y$  = Annual income**

**$W$  = Wealth**

**$T$  = Remaining years of life**

$$C = (W + RY)/T$$

$$C = W/T + RY/T$$

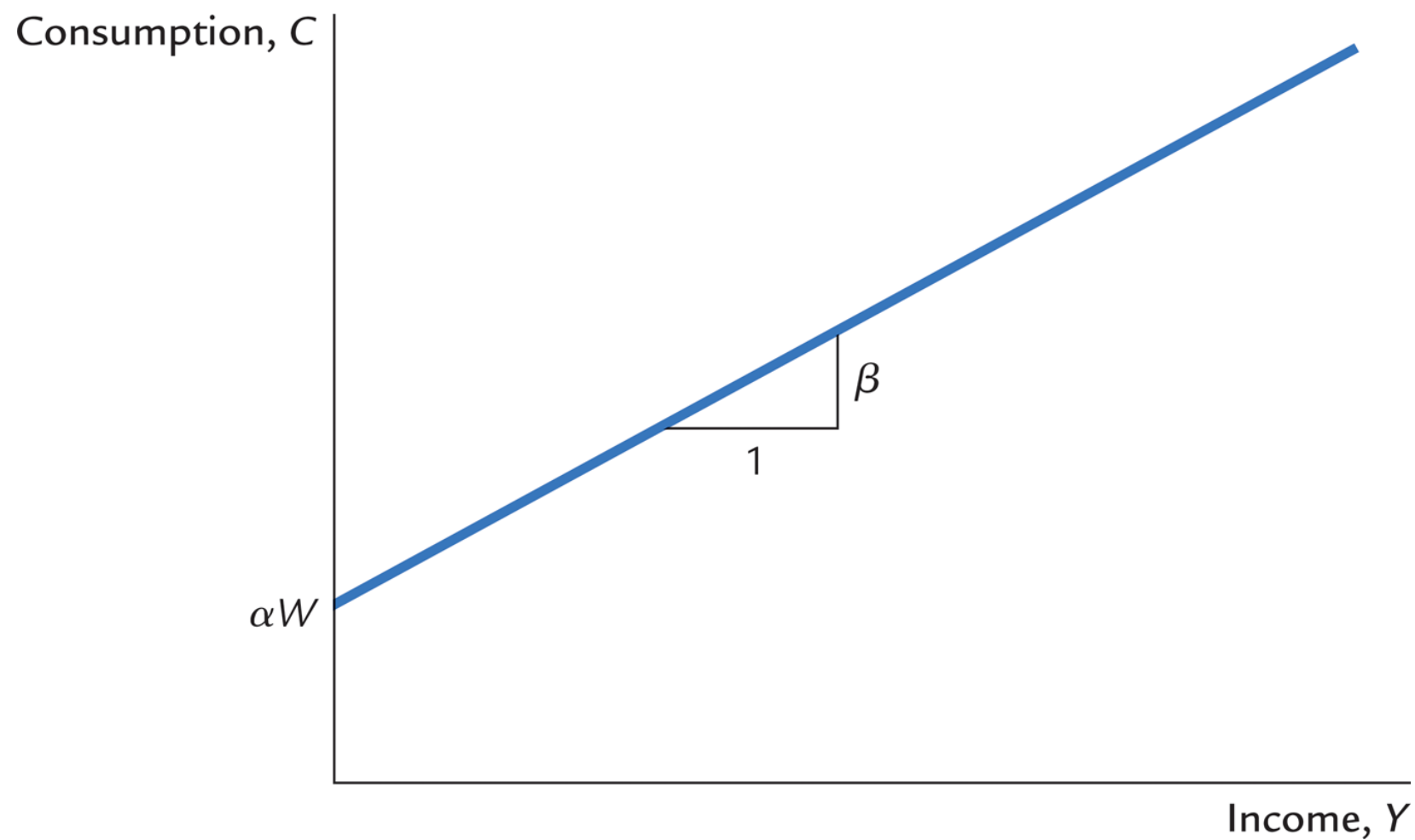
$$T = 50, R = 30 \Rightarrow C = W/50 + 30/50Y = 0,02W + 0,6Y$$

$$MPC_W = 0,02$$

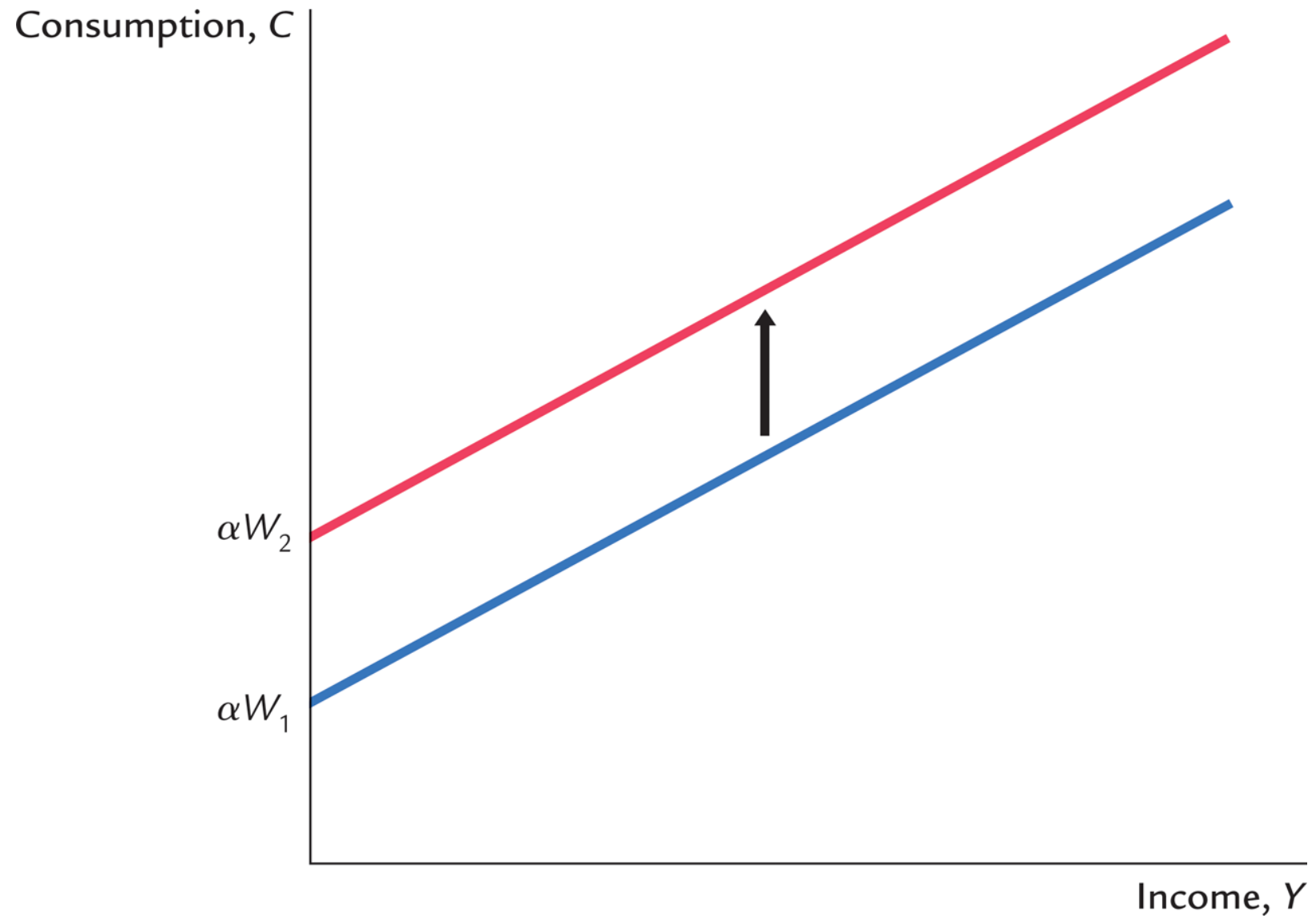
$$MPC_Y = 0,6$$

$$T = 21, R = 1 \Rightarrow C = W/21 + 1/21Y \approx 0,05W + 0,05Y$$

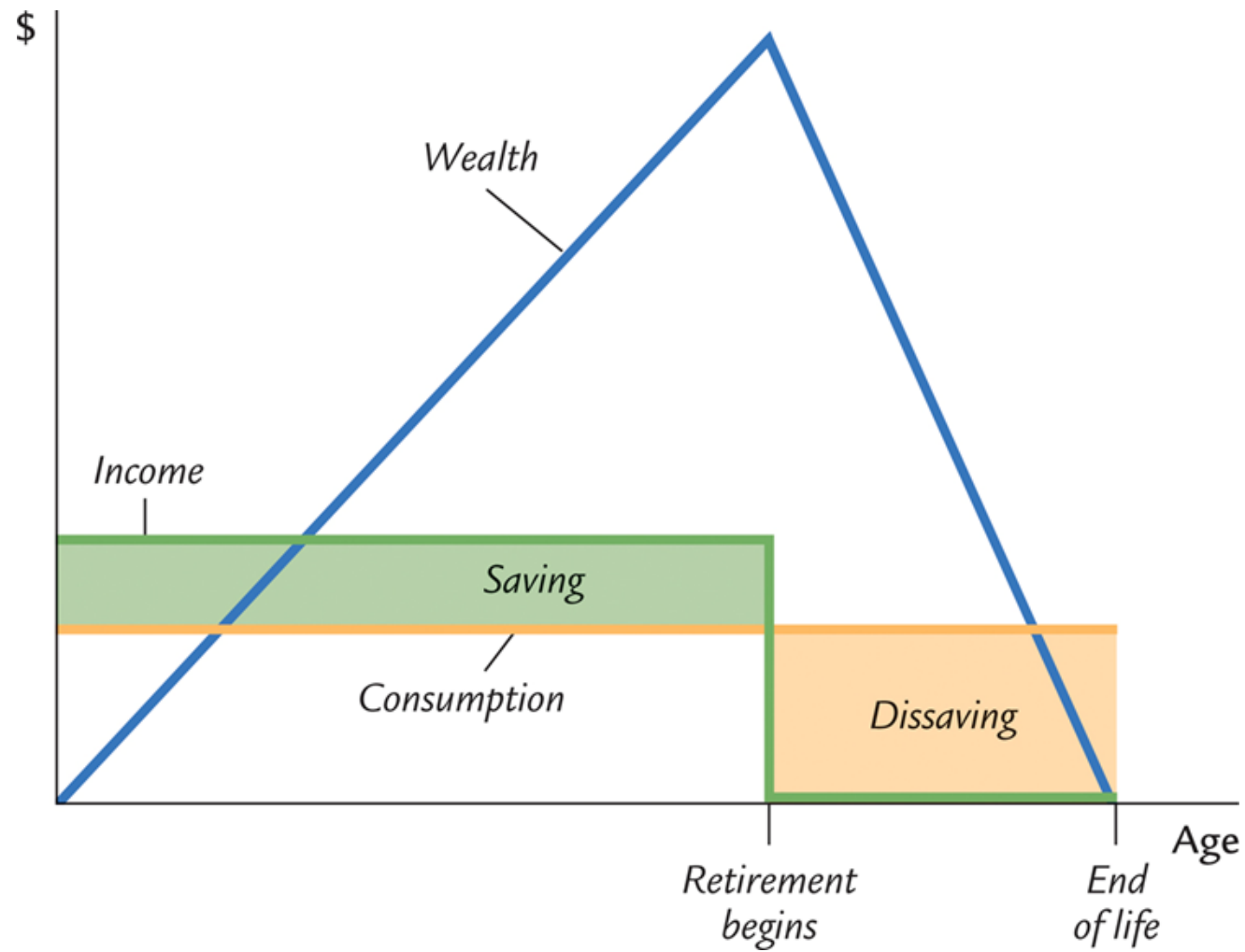




**Figure 17.10** The Life-Cycle Consumption Function  
Mankiw: Macroeconomics, Seventh Edition  
Copyright © 2010 by Worth Publishers



**Figure 17.11** How Changes in Wealth Shift the Consumption Function  
Mankiw: Macroeconomics, Seventh Edition  
Copyright © 2010 by Worth Publishers



**Figure 17.12** Consumption, Income, and Wealth Over the Life Cycle  
Mankiw: Macroeconomics, Seventh Edition  
Copyright © 2010 by Worth Publishers

**Aspects of consumption**

- **Changes in asset prices (shares, houses) nowadays play a large role for the development of private consumption**
- **Risks of “boom-bust cycles” – sudden “asset price reversals” tend to reinforce cyclical variations**
- **Is there a bubble in the Swedish housing market?**