Advanced Macroeconomics 4 (ECOM-R319) Monetary Policy and Business Cycles

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OUTLINE

We follow chapters 1–5, 7 in Galí's excellent book:

- Introduction
- Monetary Policy in Classical Model
- The Basic New Keynesian Model
- Monetary Policy Design in the Basic New Keynesian Model
- Monetary policy at the zero lower bound of nominal interest rate; Debt and develerageing (material listed in syllabus)
- Time-Consistency in Monetary Policy: Discretion vs. Commitment
- Monetary Policy in Open Economy
- Fiscal theory of price level: Interaction of monetary and fiscal policy (material listed in syllabus)

We will, in addition, look at the solution methods behind our computational tool dynare. Note: many of the slides are reproduced from Galf's book's a

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- Introduction
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- 2 Approximating and solving dynamic models
 - Primer for difference equations
 - Lag operators
 - Useful sums
 - Difference equations
 - Approximating
 - Solving
 - Blanchard and Kahn method
 - Klein method
 - Method of undetermined coefficients

- 3 Monetary Policy in Classical Model
 - Households
 - Firms
 - Equilibrium
 - Monetary Policy Rules

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- 6 Monetary policy at the zero lower bound of nominal interest rates
- 7 Discretion vs Commitment: Monetary Policy and Time-Consistency Problem



Open Economy and Monetary Policy



Fiscal theory of price level



MOTIVATION

- Monetary policy has been a central area of macroeconomic research
- The macroeconomics of monetary policy studies the interaction between monetary policy, inflation and business cycles (fluctuations in economic activity)
- The modern models of monetary policy build on as most of the recent macroeconomic research — the real business cycle models by Kydland and Prescott (1982) and Prescott (1986).

REAL BUSINESS CYCLE REVOLUTION

Methodological revolution

Intertemporally optimizing agents. Budget and technology constraints.

Conceptual revolution

- In a frictionless markets under perfect competition business cycles are efficient: no need for stabilization; stabilization may be counter-productive.
- Economic fluctuations are caused by technology shocks: they are the main source of fluctuation.
- Monetary factors (price level) has a limited (or no) role: money (price level) has no effect on the real economy, real wages, relative prices, consumption, investments, employment,

NEW KEYNESIAN MODEL

- Methodologically similar to RBC models.
- Builds on the following features:
 - monopolistic competition
 - nominal rigidities
 - $\rightarrow~{\rm short}{\rm -run}$ non-neutrality of money.
- Leads to differences w.r.t RBC models: economy's response to shocks is generally inefficient.
- Removing the effects of non-neutrality is potentially welfare improving → role for monetary policy.

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Open Economy and Monetary Policy



Fiscal theory of price level



-Introduction

Empirical evidence

EMPIRICAL EVIDENCE ON MONEY, INFLATION AND OUTPUT I

Help to judge theoretical models: theoretical models should be consistent with the empirical data Help to evaluate the effects of money and monetary policy

-Introduction

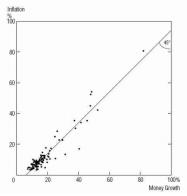
- Empirical evidence

LONG-RUN CORRELATIONS: MONEY GROWTH AND INFLATION

Chart 1

Money Growth and Inflation: A High, Positive Correlation

Average Annual Rates of Growth in M2 and in Consumer Prices During 1960–90 in 110 Countries



- long-run correlations between money growth and inflation close to one
- quantitative theory of money predicts: $\Delta m \longrightarrow \pi$. Causality?

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-Introduction

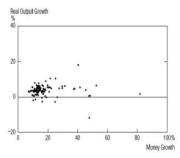
Empirical evidence

LONG-RUN CORRELATIONS: MONEY GROWTH AND OUTPUT GROWTH

Chart 2

Money and Real Output Growth: No Correlation in the Full Sample . . .

Average Annual Rates of Growth in M2 and in Nominal Gross Domestic Product, Deflated by Consumer Prices During 1960–90 in 110 Countries



Source: International Monetary Fund

No long-run trade-off between inflation and unemployment →Phillips curve vertical (in the long-run).

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FISHER EQUATION

Fisher equation: $i_t = r_t + E_t \pi_{t+1}$

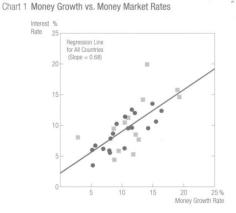
 $\rightarrow i_{\rm SS} = r_{\rm SS} + \pi_{\rm SS}$

- Fisher equation: nominal interest rates should be positively related to expected inflation, suggesting that the level of nominal interest rate positively link to average inflation in the long run. Then nominal interest rates and average money growth rates should also be positively correlated
- Monnet and Weber (2001): higher correlation between money growth and long-term interest rates. Consistent with Fisher equation
- Mishkin (1992): test for the presence of a long-run relationship between the interest rate and money growth rate. Support Fisher equation in the long run (trend together)

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MONEY GROWTH AND INTEREST RATES

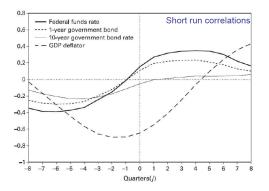


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SHORT-RUN CORRELATIONS: INTEREST RATES, INFLATION, OUTPUT



Interest rates are negatively correlated with GDP at lags and positively at leads Price *level* is negatively correlated with GDP at lags (and contemporaneously) and positively at (long) leads

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CORRELATION AND CAUSALITY

When investigating the joint behaviour of money, prices, interest rates, and output, one of the challenges is to determine the degree to which these data reveal causality relationship Correlation is a statistical measure of co-movement between two variables but tells little about causality

Lots of econometric works have thus been conducted to assess the effects of money on output

Natural experiments non-existent/rare in empirical macroeconomics

--->modelling the joint probability distribution of data

- \longrightarrow to obtain causality, *identifying* assumptions needed
- \longrightarrow robustness checks (wrt identification)!

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SIMS'S VAR MODELING FRAMEWORK

- Step 1 Construct statistical forecasting model (VAR) to separate expected from unexpected effects
- Step 2 Identify causal links and extract fundamental shocks $(VAR \longrightarrow SVAR)$
- Step 3 Trace effects of fundamental shocks on economy over time — Impulse response analysis

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SIMS' STEP 1: CONSTRUCT VAR

Forecasting model for a collection of macro variables without *ad hoc* identifying restrictions Each variable is forecast using lagged values of itself and all other variables:

Variable =
$$\underbrace{\text{Forecast (expected)}}_{\text{systematic part}} + \text{error (unexpected)}$$

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Short-term forecasting accuracy is typically quite good

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Empirical evidence

SIMS' STEP 2: INDENTIFY CAUSAL LINKS

Identify causal links and extract fundamental shocks using theory-based and non-ad hoc assumptions

- Some variables react to others with a lag (e.g., *M* only responds to *Y* with a lag)
- Long-run neutrality arguments (e.g., *M* has no long-run impact on *Y*)

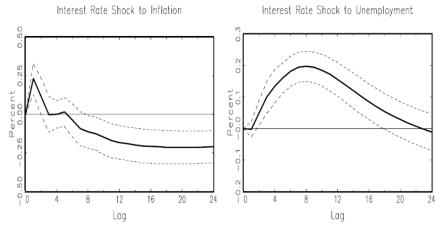
Process transforms errors in VAR equations into fundamental shocks

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SIMS'S STEP 3: IMPULSE RESPONSE ANALYSIS How do macro variables respond to unexpected fundamental shocks?



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OUTCOME

- Sims and others were able to show using SVAR's that influences of monetary policy were detectable in the data.
- But at the same time, they showed that most movements in both money stock and interest rates represented systematic reactions of monetary authorities to the state of the economy.
- Only a small part of macroeconomic fluctuations could be attributed to erratic monetary policy (= monetary policy shocks).

Introduction

Empirical evidence

IDENTIFICATION IN CEE (2005)

Variables in the VAR, $Y_t = [Y'_{1t} Y'_{2t}]'$:

$$Y_{1t} = \{GDP, C, P, I, W/P, Y/N\}$$

and

$$Y_{2t} = \{\text{real profits}, \Delta M\}$$

Monetary policy shock

- **1** *no contemporaneous impact to* Y_{1t}
- monetary authority does know Y_{1t} and only *past values* of Y_{2t}

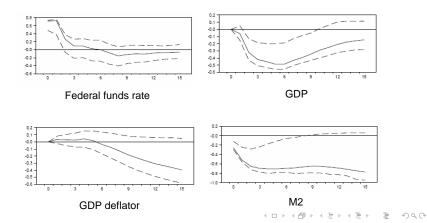
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RESPONSE TO MONETARY POLICY SHOCK

Figure 1. Estimated Dynamic Response to a Monetary Policy Shock



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Empirical evidence

OTHER APPROACHES

VARs without recursive assumption E.g.: equations for banking reserves Romer and Romer's Narrative Approach (Fed's record of policy actions) Narrow time window ($G\tilde{A}\frac{1}{4}$ rgaynak et al; Gertler et al) Sign restrictions Large information set

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SUMMARY OF THE EFFECTS OF MONETARY POLICY

Contractionary MP shocks lead to a reduction in inflation (possibly with initial increase, price puzzle)

Contractionary MP shocks lead to hump-shaped response in output

Sluggish response of macroeconomic variables to MP shocks (peak after 1–2 years)

Small overall contribution of MP shocks on BC fluctuations (5–30 %)

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[Systematic vs. non-systematic MP]

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CROSS-SECTION/MICROECONOMICS EVIDENCE

Supportive to price rigidity

4–6 quarters by Bils and Klenow (2004), 8–11 quarters by Nakamura and Steinsson (2008), 8-11 by Álvarez et al. (2006); Dhyne et al. (2006). Wages are also rigid: 1 year, downward rigidity by Dickens et al. (2007)

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Approximating and solving dynamic models

OUTLINE



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Approximating and solving dynamic models

- Primer for difference equations
- Lag operators
- Useful sums
- Difference equations
- Approximating
- Solving
 - Blanchard and Kahn method
 - Klein method
 - Method of undetermined coefficients



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 - Monetary policy at the zero lower bound of nominal interest rates
 - Discretion vs Commitment Monetary Policy and Time-Consistency Problem
- 8
- Open Economy and Monetary Policy



Fiscal theory of price level

- Approximating and solving dynamic models
 - Primer for difference equations

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Fiscal theory of price level

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L Approximating and solving dynamic models

Lag operators

Approximating and solving dynamic models

Lag operators

This section builds mostly on Sargent (1987).

OUTLINE



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Approximating and solving dynamic models

• Primer for difference equations

Lag operators

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6 Monetary policy at the zero lower bound of nominal interest rates





Open Economy and Monetary Policy



Fiscal theory of price level

Approximating and solving dynamic models

Lag operators

LAG OPERATORS

The backward shift or lag operator is defined as

 $Lx_t = x_{t-1}$

$$L^n x_t = x_{t-n}$$
, for $n = \dots, -2, -1, 0, 1, 2, \dots$

Note that if n < 0 the operator shifts x_t forward. This language is loose, since we start with the sequence

$$\{x_t\}_{t=-\infty}^{\infty}$$

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where x_t is a real number. We operate on $\{x_t\}_{t=-\infty}^{\infty}$ by *L*. This section builds mostly on Sargent (1987).

Approximating and solving dynamic models

Lag operators

OPERATIONS WITH LAG OPERATOR I

Lag operator and multiplication operator are commutative

$$L(\beta x_t) = \beta L x_t.$$

It is distributive over the addition operator

$$L(x_t + w_t) = Lx_t + Lw_t.$$

Hence, we are free to use the standard commutative, associative, and distributive algebraic laws for multiplication and addition to express the compound operator in an alternative form.

Examples

$$y_t = (a + bL)Lx_t = (aL + bL^2)x_t = ax_{t-1} + bx_{t-2}$$

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Approximating and solving dynamic models

Lag operators

OPERATIONS WITH LAG OPERATOR II

or

$$(1 - \lambda_1 L)(1 - \lambda_2 L)x_t = (1 - \lambda_1 L - \lambda_2 L + \lambda_1 \lambda_2 L^2)x_t$$

= $[1 - (\lambda_1 + \lambda_2)L + \lambda_1 \lambda_2 L^2]x_t$
= $x_t - (\lambda_1 + \lambda_2)x_{t-1} + \lambda_1 \lambda_2 x_{t-2}.$

and

$$Lc = c$$

and

$$L^{0} = 1$$

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Approximating and solving dynamic models

Lag operators

POLYNOMIALS IN THE LAG OPERATOR I Polynomial

$$A(L) = a_0 + a_1L + a_2L^2 + \dots = \sum_{j=0}^{\infty} a_jL^j,$$

where a_i 's are constants.

$$A(L)x_t = (a_0 + a_1L + a_2L^2 + \cdots)x_t$$

= $a_0x_t + a_1x_{t-1} + a_2x_{t-2} + \cdots = \sum_{j=0}^{\infty} a_jx_{t-j}$.

Rational A(L)

$$A(L) = \frac{B(L)}{C(L)},$$

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Approximating and solving dynamic models

Lag operators

POLYNOMIALS IN THE LAG OPERATOR II

where

$$B(L) = \sum_{j=0}^{m} b_j L^j, \qquad C(L) = \sum_{j=0}^{n} c_j L^j,$$

where b_j , c_j , m and n are constants. Simple example

$$A(L) = \frac{1}{1 - \lambda L} = 1 + \lambda L + \lambda^2 L^2 + \cdots,$$

which is "useful" only if $|\lambda| < 1$. Why? Then

$$\frac{1}{1-\lambda L}x_t = (1+\lambda L+\lambda^2 L^2+\cdots)x_t = \sum_{i=0}^{\infty}\lambda^i x_{t-i}.$$

Approximating and solving dynamic models

Lag operators

POLYNOMIALS IN THE LAG OPERATOR III Consider the case $|\lambda| > 1$, the following "trick" is useful:

$$\frac{1}{1 - \lambda L} = \frac{-(\lambda L)^{-1}}{1 - (\lambda L)^{-1}}$$
$$= -\frac{1}{\lambda L} \left[1 + \frac{1}{\lambda} L^{-1} + \left(\frac{1}{\lambda}\right)^2 L^{-2} + \cdots \right]$$
$$= -\frac{1}{\lambda} L^{-1} - \left(\frac{1}{\lambda}\right)^2 L^{-2} - \left(\frac{1}{\lambda}\right)^3 L^{-3} + \cdots$$

Then

$$\frac{1}{1-\lambda L}x_t = -\frac{1}{\lambda}x_{t+1} - \left(\frac{1}{\lambda}\right)^2 x_{t+2} + \dots = -\sum_{i=1}^{\infty} \lambda^{-i} x_{t+i},$$

which is geometrically declining weighted sum of *future* values of x_t .

Approximating and solving dynamic models

- Useful sums

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└─Useful sums

USEFUL PROOFS

For any
$$a \neq 1$$
,

$$\sum_{i=1}^{T} a^{i} = a \frac{1 - a^{T}}{1 - a}, \quad \sum_{i=0}^{T} a^{i} = a \frac{1 - a^{T+1}}{1 - a}$$

and

$$\sum_{i=1}^{T} ia^{i} = \frac{1}{1-a} \left(a \frac{1-a^{T}}{1-a} - Ta^{T+1} \right)$$

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Approximating and solving dynamic models

Difference equations

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DIFFERENCE EQUATION I

Consider the following difference equation

$$y_t = \lambda y_{t-1} + bx_t + a, \quad t = \dots, -1, 0, 1, \dots,$$
 (3.1)

where y_t is an *endogenous* variable and x_t is an *exogenous* variable and sequences of real number and $\lambda \neq 1$. It can be written as

$$(1-\lambda L)y_t = a + bx_t.$$

Multiply both sides by $(1 - \lambda L)^{-1}$ to obtain

$$y_t = \frac{a}{1 - \lambda L} + \frac{b}{1 - \lambda L} x_t + c\lambda^t$$
$$= \frac{a}{1 - \lambda} + b \sum_{i=0}^{\infty} \lambda^i x_{t-i} + c\lambda^t.$$
(3.2)

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Approximating and solving dynamic models

Difference equations

DIFFERENCE EQUATION II

The reason why we have the last term is that for any constant *c*

$$(1 - \lambda L)c\lambda^t = c\lambda^t - c\lambda\lambda^{t-1} = 0.$$

By multiplying both sides by $1 - \lambda L$, gives the original difference equation! This the "general solution"! To get the "particular solution" we must be able to tie down the constant *c* with an additional bit of information. An example of an additional bit of information is

$$\lim_{n \to \infty} \sum_{i=n}^{\infty} \lambda^i x_{t-i} = 0 \quad \text{for all } t.$$

It simply says that $\lambda^i x_{t-i}$ must be "small" for large *i*. If x_t were constant, say \bar{x} , all time, this requires $|\lambda| < 1$. This also results bounded constant term in the solution.

Approximating and solving dynamic models

- Difference equations

DIFFERENCE EQUATION III

Assume t > 0 to see the impact of an arbitrary initial condition. Solution (3.2) may be written as

$$y_t = a \sum_{i=0}^{t-1} \lambda^i + a \sum_{i=t}^{\infty} \lambda^i + b \sum_{i=0}^{t-1} \lambda^i x_{t-i} + b \sum_{i=t}^{\infty} \lambda^i x_{t-i} + c\lambda^t$$
$$= a \frac{1-\lambda^t}{1-\lambda} + a \frac{\lambda^t}{1-\lambda} + b \sum_{i=0}^{t-1} \lambda^i x_{t-i} + b\lambda^t \sum_{i=0}^{\infty} \lambda^i x_{0-i} + c\lambda^t,$$

$$y_t = a \frac{1-\lambda^t}{1-\lambda} + b \sum_{i=0}^{t-1} \lambda^i x_{t-i} + \lambda^t \left(\frac{a}{1-\lambda} + b \sum_{i=t}^{\infty} \lambda^i x_{0-i} + c \right), \quad t \ge 1.$$

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Approximating and solving dynamic models

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DIFFERENCE EQUATION IV

The term in braces is equals y_0 ! Hence

$$y_t = a \frac{1 - \lambda^t}{1 - \lambda} + b \sum_{i=0}^{t-1} \lambda^i x_{t-i} + \lambda^t y_0$$

= $\frac{a}{1 - \lambda} + \lambda^t \left(y_0 - \frac{a}{1 - \lambda} \right) + b \sum_{i=0}^{t-1} \lambda^i x_{t-i}, \quad t \ge 1.$

If $x_t = 0$ ($\forall t$), we obtain the typical text book case. If $y_0 = a/(1-\lambda)$, $y_t = y_0$ and $a/(1-\lambda)$ is the "stationary point" or long-run equilibrium value of y.

Approximating and solving dynamic models

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DIFFERENCE EQUATION V

The original difference equation (3.1) may be solved "forward" by applying the "forward inverse".

$$y_{t} = \frac{-(\lambda L)^{-1}}{1 - (\lambda L)^{-1}}a + b\frac{-(\lambda L)^{-1}}{1 - (\lambda L)^{-1}}x_{t} + d\lambda^{t},$$

$$= \frac{a}{1 - \lambda} - b\sum_{i=0}^{\infty} \left(\frac{1}{\lambda}\right)^{i+1}x_{t+i+1} + d\lambda^{t},$$
 (3.3)

where *d* is constant to be determined by some side condition. An example of such side condition is

$$\lim_{n\to\infty}\sum_{i=n}^{\infty}\left(\frac{1}{\lambda}\right)^i x_{t+i}=0.$$

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DIFFERENCE EQUATION VI

Equivalence of (3.2) and (3.3)

If a = 0, then for any value of $\lambda \neq 1$ both (3.2) and (3.3) represent solution to the difference equation (3.1). They are simply alternative representation of the solution! The equivalence will hold whenever

$$\frac{b}{1-\lambda L}x_t \tag{3.4}$$

and

$$b \frac{-(\lambda L)^{-1}}{1-(\lambda L)^{-1}} x_t$$
 (3.5)

are both finite for all *t*.

It often happens that one of them fails to be finite.

Approximating and solving dynamic models

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DIFFERENCE EQUATION VII

- If the sequence $\{x_t\}$ is bounded and $|\lambda| < 1$, the (3.4) is a convergent sum for all *t*.
- If the sequence {x_t} is bounded and |λ| > 1, the (3.5) is a convergent sum for all *t*.

Since our desire is to impose that the sequence $\{y_t\}$ is bounded, and we do not have sufficient side conditions, then we must set c = 0 in (3.2) or d = 0 (3.3). To see that

• If $\lambda > 1$ and c > 0, then

$$\lim_{t\to\infty}c\lambda^t=\infty.$$

• If $\lambda < 1$ and d < 0, then

$$\lim_{t\to\infty}d\lambda^t=\infty.$$

All of the above stuff means that we need to solve "stable roots" $|\lambda| < 1$ backward and "unstable roots" $|\lambda| > 1$ forward,

Approximating and solving dynamic models

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GRAPHICAL ANALYSIS OF DIFFERENCE EQUATIONS I

Simple difference equation:

$$x_{t+1} = ax_t + b$$

in a *phase* diagram.

The phase diagram tells the consecutive values of x_t when we start from arbitrary point x_0 . There is 45° line to equate x_{t+1} and x_t . Phase diagram is very useful for illustrating the dynamics — in particular in the case of nonlinear difference equation.

Approximating and solving dynamic models

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GRAPHICAL ANALYSIS OF DIFFERENCE EQUATIONS II

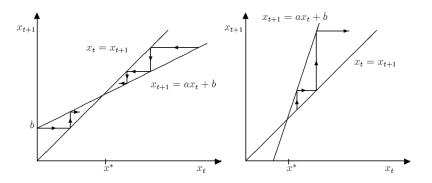


Figure 2.5.3 Phase diagrams of (2.5.6) for positive (left panel) and negative b (right panel) and higher a in the right panel

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Approximating and solving dynamic models

- Approximating

(LOG)LINEARIZING

The *stationarized* decision rules, budget constraints and equilibrium conditions can typically be written in the following form

$$E_t \Psi(Z_{t+1}, Z_t) = 0, (3.6)$$

where Z_t and 0 are $n \times 1$ vectors. The conditional expectation operator E_t uses information up to and including period t. Note, that it is not restrictive to use the first order system, i.e. having only one lead. The higher order leads/lags may be introduced by augmenting the state vector Z_t (google "companion form").

Approximating and solving dynamic models

- Approximating

The goal is to approximate (3.6) with a linear system, which can then be solved using the methods that will be described in the following chapters.

Notation

Denote the steady state by a variable without time index, *Z*. Small letter denotes log of original capital letter variable, $z_t \equiv \log(Z_t)$.

The deterministic steady state of (3.6) is

$$\Psi(Z,Z)=0,$$

Note, that *Z*, the deterministic steady state of the model is a nonlinear function of the model's parameters μ .

Approximating and solving dynamic models

-Approximating

Compute the first-order Taylor approximation around the steady-state Z.

$$0 \approx \mathbf{E}_{t} \left\{ \Psi(Z, Z) + \underbrace{\frac{\partial \Psi}{\partial Z_{t}}(Z, Z)}_{\equiv A(\mu)} \times (Z_{t} - Z) + \underbrace{\frac{\partial \Psi}{\partial Z_{t+1}}(Z, Z)}_{B(\mu)} \times (Z_{t+1} - Z) \right\}$$

where $Z_t - Z$ is $n \times 1$, $\partial \Psi(Z, Z) / \partial Z_t$ denotes the Jacobian of $\Psi(Z_{t+1}, Z_t)$ wrt Z_{t+1} evaluated at (Z, Z). To shorten

$$A(\mu)(Z_t - Z) + B(\mu) \operatorname{E}_t(Z_{t+1} - Z) = 0.$$

The coefficient matrices are function of deep (model's) parameters.

Note that this is a mechanical step that is typically done by the software (e.g. Dynare, Iris). Often the Jacobian may be computed analytically.

Approximating and solving dynamic models

└─ Approximating

LOGARITHMIC APPROXIMATION

Logarithmic approximation is a special case of above. Note that $Z_t = \exp(\log(Z_t))$, and, as denoted above, $Z_t = \exp(z_t)$. Suppose we have

$$f(X_t, Y_t) = g(Z_t), \tag{3.7}$$

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with strictly positive X, Y, Z (ie the linearization point). The steady state counterpart is f(X, Y) = g(Z). This simple summarization is, for example, in the slides by Jürg Adamek). (http://www.twl.unibe.ch/studies/3076_e/linearisation_slides.pdf)

Approximating and solving dynamic models

└─ Approximating

Start from replacing $X_t = \exp(\log(X_t))$ in (3.7),

$$f\left(e^{\log(X_t)}, e^{\log(Y_t)}\right) = g\left(e^{\log(Z_t)}\right),$$

i.e.

$$f\left(e^{x_{t}},e^{y_{t}}\right)=g\left(e^{z_{t}}\right),$$

Taking first-order Taylor approximations from both sides:

$$f(X,Y) + f'_1(X,Y)X(x_t - x) + f'_2(X,Y)Y(y_t - y) = g(Z) + g'(Z)Z(z_t - z)$$
(3.8)

Often we denote $\hat{x}_t \equiv x_t - x$.

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Divide both sides of (3.8) by f(X, Y) = g(Z) to obtain

$$1 + f'_{1}(X, Y)X(x_{t} - x)/f(X, Y) + f'_{2}(X, Y)Y(y_{t} - y)/f(X, Y)$$

= 1 + g'(Z)Z(z_{t} - z)/g(Z) (3.9)

Note that

$$f_1'(X,Y)X/f(X,Y)$$

is the elasticity of $f(X_t, Y_t)$ with respect to X_t at the steady-state point.

Also note, that $100 \times (x_t - x)$ tells X_t 's relative deviation from the steady-state point.

Approximating and solving dynamic models

- Approximating



You may only loglinearize strictly positive variable. Typical example of a variable that may obtain negative values is the net foreign asset. This needs to be linearized!

Approximating and solving dynamic models

- Approximating

USEFUL LOG-LINEARIZATION RULES Denote $\hat{x}_t \equiv \log(X_t) - \log(X)$ $X_t \approx X(1+\hat{x}_t)$ $X_{t}^{\rho} \approx X^{\rho} (1 + \rho \hat{x}_{t})$ $aX_t \approx aX(1+\hat{x}_t)$ $X_t Y_t \approx X Y (1 + \hat{x}_t + \hat{y}_t)$ $Y_t(a+bX_t) \approx Y(1a+bX) + aY\hat{y}_t + bXY(\hat{x}_t+\hat{y}_t)$ $Y_t(a+bX_t+cZ_t) \approx Y(a+bX+cZ) + Y(a+bX+cZ)\hat{y}_t + bXY\hat{x}_t + cZY\hat{z}$ $\frac{X_t}{aY_t} \approx \frac{X}{aY}(1 + \hat{x}_t - \hat{y}_t)$ $\frac{X_t}{Y_t + aZ_t} \approx \frac{X}{Y + aZ} \left[1 + \hat{x}_t - \frac{Y}{Y + aZ} \hat{y}_t - \frac{aZ}{Y + aZ} \hat{z}_t \right]$

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BLANCHARD AND KAHN METHOD I

Blanchard and Kahn (1980) develop a solution method based on the following setup of a model

$$\begin{bmatrix} x_{1t+1} \\ E_t x_{2t+1} \end{bmatrix} = \tilde{A} \begin{bmatrix} x_{1t} \\ x_{2t} \end{bmatrix} + Ef_t, \qquad (3.10)$$

where

- x_{1t} is $n_1 \times 1$ vector of endogenous predetermined variables = variables for which $E_t x_{1t+1} = x_{1t+1}$.
 - These are typically backward-looking variables.
 - (Do not exist with t + 1.)
 - For example k_{t+1} in the standard RBC model.
- x_{2t} is $n_2 \times 1$ vector of endogenous nonpredetermined variables = for which $x_{2t+1} = E_t x_{2t+1} + \eta_{t+1}$, where η_{t+1} represents an expectational error.

Approximating and solving dynamic models

-Solving

BLANCHARD AND KAHN METHOD II

- forward-looking variables
- jump-variables
- *f_t* contains *k* × 1 vector of exogenous forcing variables: e.g. shock innovations.

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Ã has full rank.

Approximating and solving dynamic models

-Solving

Use spectral decomposition¹ of the matrix \tilde{A} as follows

$$\tilde{A}=\Lambda^{-1}J\Lambda,$$

where *J* is a *diagonal matrix* consisting of *eigenvalues* of \tilde{A} that are ordered from in increasing value. It is partitioned as follows

$$J = \begin{bmatrix} J_1 & 0 \\ 0 & J_2 \end{bmatrix},$$

where

- the eigenvalues in *J*₁ lie on or within the unit circle (stable eigenvalues)
- the eigenvalues in *J*₂ lie outside the unit circle (unstable eigenvalues)

Approximating and solving dynamic models

-Solving

Matrix Λ contains the corresponding *eigenvectors*. It is partitioned accordingly (and *E* too)

$$\Lambda = \begin{bmatrix} \Lambda_{11} & \Lambda_{12} \\ \Lambda_{21} & \Lambda_{22} \end{bmatrix} \quad E = \begin{bmatrix} E_1 \\ E_2 \end{bmatrix}$$

Approximating and solving dynamic models

Solving

STABILITY CONDITION

Saddle-path stability aka "Blanchard-Kahn Condition"

If the number of unstable eigenvalues is equal to the number of nonpredetermined variables, the system is said to be saddle-path stable and an unique solution exists.

Other cases

- If the number of unstable eigenvalues exceeds the number of nonpredetermined variables, no solution exists.
- If the number of unstable eigenvalues is smaller than the number of nonpredetermined variables, there are infinite solutions

└─ Approximating and solving dynamic models └─ Solving

SADDLE-PATH CASE I Rewrite (3.10) as

$$\begin{bmatrix} x_{1t+1} \\ E_t x_{2t+1} \end{bmatrix} = \Lambda^{-1} J \Lambda \begin{bmatrix} x_{1t} \\ x_{2t} \end{bmatrix} + \begin{bmatrix} E_1 \\ E_2 \end{bmatrix} f_t$$
(3.11)

and premultiply by Λ to obtain

$$\begin{bmatrix} \dot{x}_{1t+1} \\ E_t \, \dot{x}_{2t+1} \end{bmatrix} = \begin{bmatrix} J_1 & 0 \\ 0 & J_2 \end{bmatrix} \begin{bmatrix} \dot{x}_{1t} \\ \dot{x}_{2t} \end{bmatrix} + \begin{bmatrix} \dot{E}_1 \\ \dot{E}_2 \end{bmatrix} f_t,$$

where

$$\begin{bmatrix} \dot{x}_{1t} \\ \dot{x}_{2t} \end{bmatrix} \equiv \begin{bmatrix} \Lambda_{11} & \Lambda_{12} \\ \Lambda_{21} & \Lambda_{22} \end{bmatrix} \begin{bmatrix} x_{1t} \\ x_{2t} \end{bmatrix}$$
$$\begin{bmatrix} \dot{E}_1 \\ \dot{E}_2 \end{bmatrix} \equiv \begin{bmatrix} \Lambda_{11} & \Lambda_{12} \\ \Lambda_{21} & \Lambda_{22} \end{bmatrix} \begin{bmatrix} E_1 \\ E_2 \end{bmatrix}.$$

Approximating and solving dynamic models

-Solving

SADDLE-PATH CASE II

- The system is now "de-coupled" in the sense that the nonpredetermined variables are related only to the unstable eigenvalues *J*₂ of *Ã*.
- Hence, we have two "seemingly unrelated" set of equations.
- As in the univariate case, we derive the solution of the nonpredetermined variables by forward iteration and predetermined variables by backward iteration.
- We start by analysing the lower block, ie the system of the nonpredetermined variables by performing the forward interation.
- Denote f_{2t} of those f_t s that are conformable with E_2 .
- The lower part of (3.11) is as follows

$$\dot{x}_{2t} = J_2^{-1} \operatorname{E}_t \dot{x}_{2t+1} - J_2^{-1} \dot{E}_2 f_{2t}$$

$$(3.12)$$

Approximating and solving dynamic models

Solving

SADDLE-PATH CASE III

• Shift it one period and use the law-of-iterated-expectations $(E_t(E_{t+1} x_t) = E_t x_t)$

$$\mathbf{E}_t \, \acute{x}_{2t+1} = J_2^{-1} \, \mathbf{E}_t \, \acute{x}_{2t+2} - J_2^{-1} \acute{E}_2 \, \mathbf{E}_t f_{2t+1}$$

and substitute it back to (3.12) to obtain

$$\dot{x}_{2t} = J_2^{-2} \operatorname{E}_t \dot{x}_{2t+2} - J_2^{-2} \dot{E}_2 \operatorname{E}_t f_{2t+1} - J_2^{-1} \dot{E}_2 f_{2t}$$
(3.13)

• Because diagonal matrix J_2 contains the eigenvalues above the unit disc, J_2^{-n} will asymptotically wanish. The iteration results

$$\dot{x}_{2t} = -\sum_{i=0}^{\infty} J_2^{-(i+1)} \acute{E}_2 \operatorname{E}_t f_{2t+i}$$

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Approximating and solving dynamic models
Solving

SADDLE-PATH CASE IV

• Using the definition \dot{x}_{2t} , we may write in to the form

$$x_{2t} = -\Lambda_{22}^{-1}\Lambda_{21}x_{1t} - \Lambda_{22}^{-1}\sum_{i=0}^{\infty}J_2^{-(i+1)}\dot{E}_2 E_t f_{2t+i}$$
(3.14)

Finally, the upper part of (3.11) is given by

$$x_{1t+1} = \tilde{A}_{11}x_{1t} + \tilde{A}_{22}x_{2t} + E_1 f_t, \qquad (3.15)$$

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where \tilde{A}_{11} and \tilde{A}_{22} are reshuffled \tilde{A} according to the above ordering.

Approximating and solving dynamic models

-Solving

AN EXAMPLE WITH AR(1) SHOCK

Suppose

$$f_{2t+1} = \Phi f_{2t} + \varepsilon_{t+1}, \quad \varepsilon_t \sim \text{IID}(0, \Sigma)$$

and Φ is full rank and its roots are within the unit disc (ie stationary VAR(1)).

Then

$$\mathbf{E}_t f_{2t+i} = \Phi^i f_{2t}, \quad i \ge 0$$

and (3.14) becomes

$$x_{2t} = -\Lambda_{22}^{-1}\Lambda_{21}x_{1t} - \Lambda_{22}^{-1}(I - \Phi J_2^{-1})^{-1} \acute{E}_2 f_{2t}$$
(3.16)

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Approximating and solving dynamic models

└- Solving

"VAR" form

Stacking sets of equations (3.14) and (3.15) gives the following

$$\underbrace{\begin{bmatrix} x_{1t+1} \\ x_{2t+1} \end{bmatrix}}_{\equiv x_{t+1}} = \underbrace{\begin{bmatrix} \tilde{A}_{11} & \tilde{A}_{22} \\ -\Lambda_{22}^{-1}\Lambda_{21} & 0 \end{bmatrix}}_{\equiv F_1} \underbrace{\begin{bmatrix} x_{1t} \\ x_{2t} \end{bmatrix}}_{\equiv x_t} + \underbrace{\begin{bmatrix} E_1 & 0 \\ 0 & -\Lambda_{22}^{-1}(I - \Phi J_2^{-1})^{-1} \dot{E}_2 \end{bmatrix}}_{\equiv F_{\Gamma}} \underbrace{\begin{bmatrix} f_{1t} \\ f_{2t} \end{bmatrix}}_{\equiv f_t}$$
(3.17)

ie

$$x_{t+1} = F_1 x_t + F_{\Gamma} f_t$$

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Approximating and solving dynamic models

└- Solving

ISSUES

 The model variables has to be classified either predetermined or nonpredetermined. → model-specific system reduction may be required.

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• *Ã* has to be a full rank matrix. Hence, for example, identities are not allowed!

Approximating and solving dynamic models

-Solving

KLEIN'S METHOD I

Klein (2000) proposes a method that overcome some of the drawbacks of Blanchard and Kahn (1980) by allowing singular \tilde{A} . It is also computationally fast. The system has to be in the form

$$\tilde{A} \operatorname{E}_{t} x_{t+1} = \tilde{B} x_{t} + E f_{t}, \qquad (3.18)$$

where f_t ($n_z \times 1$ vector) follows the VAR(1)². \tilde{A} and \tilde{B} are $n \times n$ matrices, and $E n \times n_z$ matrix.

$$f_t = \Phi f_{t-1} + \varepsilon_t, \quad \varepsilon_t \sim \text{IID}(0, \Sigma)$$

and \tilde{A} may be singular (reduced rank). This mean that we may have static equilibrium conditions (like identities) in the system.

Approximating and solving dynamic models

└- Solving

KLEIN'S METHOD II

Decompose x_t to predetermined³ x_{1t} and nonpredetermined x_{2t} variables as before. Then

$$\mathbf{E}_t \, \mathbf{x}_{t+1} = \begin{bmatrix} \mathbf{x}_{1t+1} \\ \mathbf{E}_t \, \mathbf{x}_{2t+1} \end{bmatrix}$$

As before the system will be de-coupled according to x_{1t} ($n_1 \times 1$) and x_{2t} ($n_2 \times 1$). Generalized Schur decomposition, that allows singularity is used instead of standard spectral decomposition. Applying it to \tilde{A} and \tilde{B} gives

$$Q\tilde{A}Z = S \tag{3.19}$$

$$Q\tilde{B}Z = T, (3.20)$$

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Approximating and solving dynamic models

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KLEIN'S METHOD III

where Q, Z are *unitary*⁴ and S, T *upper triangular* matrices with diagonal elements containing the generalized eigenvalues of \tilde{A} and \tilde{B} . Eigenvalues are ordered as above. Z is partitioned accordingly

$$Z = \begin{bmatrix} Z_{11} & Z_{12} \\ Z_{21} & Z_{22} \end{bmatrix}.$$

 Z_{11} is $n_1 \times n_1$ and corresponds the stable eigenvalues of the system and, hence, conforms with x_1 , ie predetermined variables.

Next we *triangularize* the system (3.18) to stable and unstable blocks

$$z_t \equiv \begin{bmatrix} s_t \\ u_t \end{bmatrix} = Z^H x_t,$$

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Approximating and solving dynamic models
Solving

KLEIN'S METHOD IV

where H denotes the Hermitian transpose. and (3.19) and (3.20) can be written as

 $\tilde{A} = Q'SZ^H$ $\tilde{B} = Q'TZ^H.$

Premultiplying the partitioned system by Q we obtain

$$S \operatorname{E}_t z_{t+1} = T z_t + Q E f_t \tag{3.21}$$

and since S and T are upper triangular, (3.18) may be written as

$$\begin{bmatrix} S_{11} & S_{12} \\ 0 & S_{22} \end{bmatrix} \mathbf{E}_t \begin{bmatrix} s_{t+1} \\ u_{t+1} \end{bmatrix} = \begin{bmatrix} T_{11} & T_{12} \\ 0 & T_{22} \end{bmatrix} \begin{bmatrix} s_t \\ u_t \end{bmatrix} + \begin{bmatrix} Q_1 \\ Q_2 \end{bmatrix} Ef_t. \quad (3.22)$$

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Approximating and solving dynamic models

-Solving

KLEIN'S METHOD V

Due to block-diagonal (recursive) structure, the process u_t is unrelated s_t . We iterate this forward to obtain⁵

$$u_t = -T_{22}^{-1} \sum_{i=0}^{\infty} [T_{22}^{-1} S_{22}]^i Q_2 E \operatorname{E}_t f_{t+i}.$$

Since f_t is VAR(1), we obtain

$$u_t = Mf_t$$
$$\operatorname{vec} M = [(\Phi' \otimes S_{22}) - I_n \otimes T_{22}]^{-1} \operatorname{vec}[Q_2 E].$$

This solution of the unstable component is used to solve the stable block, resulting

$$s_{t+1} = S_{11}^{-1}T_{11}s_t + S_{11}^{-1}[T_{12}M - S_{12}M\Phi + Q_1E]f_t - Z_{11}^{-1}Z_{12}M\varepsilon_{t+1}.$$

Given the definition of u_t and s_t , we may express the solution in terms of original variables.

²We drop the constant term (and other stationary deterministic stuff) to simplify algebra.

Approximating and solving dynamic models

-Solving

METHOD OF UNDETERMINED COEFFICIENTS Following Anderson and Moore (1985) (AiM) and Zagaglia (2005), DSGE model may be written in the form

$$H_{-1}z_{t-1} + H_0 z_t + H_1 E_t z_{t+1} = D\eta_t, \qquad (3.23)$$

where z_t is vector of endogenous variables and η_t are pure innovations with zero mean and unit variance. The solution to (3.23) takes the form

$$z_t = B_1 z_{t-1} + B_0 \eta_t,$$

where

$$B_0 = S_0^{-1}D,$$

 $S_0 = H_0 + H_1B_1.$

 B_1 satisfies the identity

$$H_{-1} + H_0 B_1 + H_1 B_1^2 = 0.$$

Approximating and solving dynamic models

Solving

SUMMARIZING I

The general feature of the solution methods is that they result a "VAR(1)" representation of the model

$$\xi_t = F_0(\mu) + F_1(\mu)\xi_{t-1} + F_{\Gamma}(\mu)v_t, \qquad (3.24)$$

where

- Variable vector ξ_t are the variables in the model.
- matrices *F_i*(*µ*) are complicated (and large) matrices whose exact form depends on the solution method (See, eg, previous slide)
- They are also highly nonlinear function of the "deep" parameters μ of the economic model
 - The parameters μ include, among others, the parameters specifying the stochastic processes of the model: shock variances, for example

Approximating and solving dynamic models

-Solving

SUMMARIZING II

- We may use this representation to analytically calculate various model moments for given parameter values.
- We may use this also for simulating the model.
- Note that we do not know anything about the data at this stage.

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Monetary Policy in Classical Model

- Households
- Firms
- Equilibrium
- Monetary Policy Rules
- Motivation of money
- Motivation of money: MIUF
- Optimal policy



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Monetary policy at the zero lower bound of nominal interest rates





Open Economy and Monetary Policy



Fiscal theory of price level

Monetary Policy in Classical Model

-Households

HOUSEHOLD PROBLEM

Households

- Decide how much they consume, *C*_t, in each period and
- how much they work, N_t .
- They know the *current and historical* values of nominal wages *W*_t,
- and their savings in bonds B_t , with bond price Q_t , and
- their lump-sum taxes, T_t .
- Price level is P_t .

They cannot accumulate infinite debt (transversality condition):

$$\lim_{T\to\infty} \mathbf{E}_t \, \beta^T \frac{U_{C,T}}{U_{C,0}} \frac{B_T}{P_T} \ge 0$$

Monetary Policy in Classical Model

-Households

Households maximize the expected present value of utility

$$\max_{\{C_t,N_t\}_{t=0}^{\infty}} \mathbb{E}_0 \sum_{t=0}^{\infty} \beta^t U(C_t,N_t)$$

subject to the following (flow) budget constraint

$$\underbrace{P_t C_t + Q_t B_t}_{t-1} \leq \underbrace{B_{t-1} + W_t N_t - T_t}_{t-1} \quad . \tag{4.1}$$

where they allocate their money where they receive their money

 Q_t is the period *t* price of a bond that gives unit amount in the period t + 1.

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Monetary Policy in Classical Model

-Households

OPTIMALITY CONDITIONS

$$\frac{U_{N,t}}{U_{C,t}} = \frac{W_t}{P_t}$$

Marginal rate of substitution between consumption and leisure (equaling real wages).

$$Q_t = \beta \operatorname{E}_t \left(\frac{U_{C,t+1}}{U_{C,t}} \frac{P_t}{P_{t+1}} \right)$$

Intertemporal marginal rate of substitution in nominal terms.

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Monetary Policy in Classical Model

-Households

PARAMETRIC VERSION

Assume the following functional form

$$U(C_t, N_t) = \frac{C_t^{1-\sigma}}{1-\sigma} - \frac{N_t^{1+\varphi}}{1+\varphi},$$

where $\sigma \ge 0$ and $\varphi \ge 0$. Then

$$U_{N,t} = -N_t^{\varphi} \quad U_{C,t} = C_t^{-\sigma}$$

and the optimality conditions as follows

$$C_t^{\sigma} N_t^{\varphi} = \frac{W_t}{P_t}$$

$$Q_t = \beta \operatorname{E}_t \left\{ \left(\frac{C_{t+1}}{C_t} \right)^{-\sigma} \frac{P_t}{P_{t+1}} \right\} \quad \text{for } t = 0, 1, 2 \dots$$

$$(4.2)$$

Monetary Policy in Classical Model

Households

Log-linearization of (4.3) around non-zero inflation and growth

In a growing economy $C_{t+1} > C_t$ and in a non-zero-inflation economy $P_{t+1} > P_t$. Hence, neither *C* nor *P* is a point. This means that the model is nonstationary: here growing in consumption and price level. The growth rates are, however, stationary. Hence, we may express the model in a stationary form using growth rates!

Let's denote $\dot{X}_t \equiv X_t / X_{t-1}$. Then (4.3) is

$$Q_t = \beta \operatorname{E}_t \left(\dot{C}_{t+1}^{-\sigma} \dot{P}_{t+1}^{-1} \right).$$

In the steady state: $Q = \beta \dot{C}^{-\sigma} / \dot{P}$. Denote $\rho \equiv -\log \beta$, then $\rho = -q - (\sigma \Delta c + \pi)$, where $\pi_t \equiv \log \dot{P}_t$ and, generally, $\Delta x_t \equiv \log \dot{X}_t$. Note also that $i_t = -q_t$.

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Monetary Policy in Classical Model

-Households

Apply mechanically (3.8)

$$Q + Q(q_t - q) = \underbrace{\beta \dot{C}^{-\sigma} / \dot{P}}_{=Q} - \sigma \underbrace{\beta \frac{\dot{C}^{-\sigma}}{\dot{P}}}_{=Q} \frac{1}{\dot{C}} \dot{C} (E_t \Delta c_{t+1} - \Delta c) + (-1) \underbrace{\beta \frac{\dot{C}^{-\sigma}}{\dot{P}}}_{=Q} \frac{1}{\dot{P}} \dot{P} (E_t \pi_{t+1} - \pi).$$

and divide by *Q* and get rid of constants to obtain

$$q_t - q = -\sigma(\mathbf{E}_t \,\Delta c_{t+1} - \Delta c) - (\mathbf{E}_t \,\pi_{t+1} - \pi)$$

and combine with log of steady-state to obtain

$$i_t - \mathcal{E}_t \,\pi_{t+1} - \rho = \sigma \,\mathcal{E}_t \,\Delta c_{t+1} \tag{4.4}$$

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Monetary Policy in Classical Model

-Households

Loglinear versions

$$w_t - p_t = \sigma c_t + \varphi n_t$$
 $c_t = \operatorname{E}_t c_{t+1} - \frac{1}{\sigma} \left(i_t - \operatorname{E}_t \pi_{t+1} - \rho \right)$,

where
$$i_t \equiv \log Q_t$$
 and $\rho \equiv -\log \beta$.
Non-stochastic steady-state

$$i = \pi + \rho$$

and the implied real rate

$$r\equiv i-\pi=\rho.$$

Monetary Policy in Classical Model

- Firms

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Monetary Policy Design in the



Monetary policy at the zero lower bound of nominal interest rates





Open Economy and Monetary Policy



Fiscal theory of price level

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Monetary Policy in Classical Model

– Firms

Firms

Firms use only labour *N* to produce output *Y*:

$$Y_t = A_t N_t^{1-\alpha}. (4.5)$$

Log-linearized as $y_t = a_t + (1 - \alpha)n_t$. A_t is exogenously given stationary technology process (a shock process). Firms maximize profits

 $P_t Y_t - W_t N_t$

subject to production function (4.5) and obtain the following FOC:

$$(1-\alpha)\underbrace{A_t N_t^{-\alpha}}_{=Y_t/N_t} = \frac{W_t}{P_t}.$$
(4.6)

which gives labour demand schedule and tells us how much labour the firm is willing to hire for given real wages and technological process A_t .

Monetary Policy in Classical Model

— Equilibrium

OUTLINE

Introduct

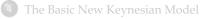


Approximating and solving dynamic models



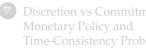
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Monetary policy at the zero lower bound of nominal interest rates





Open Economy and Monetary Policy



Fiscal theory of price level

Monetary Policy in Classical Model

— Equilibrium

Equilibrium

Goods market clearing

$$y_t = c_t$$

Labour market clearing

$$\sigma c_t + \varphi n_t = a_t - \alpha n_t + \log(1 - \alpha)$$

Asset market clearing

$$y_t = E_t y_{t+1} - \frac{1}{\sigma} (i_t - E_t \pi_{t+1} - \rho)$$

Aggregate production

$$y_t = a_t + (1 - \alpha)n_t$$

Monetary Policy in Classical Model

└─ Equilibrium

SOLUTION I

$$n_t = \psi_{na}a_t + \vartheta_n$$

$$y_t = \psi_{ya}a_t + \vartheta_y$$

$$\omega_t \equiv w_t - p_t = y_t - n_t + \log(1 - \alpha) = \psi_{\omega a}a_t + \log(1 - \alpha)$$

$$r_t \equiv i_t - E_t \pi_{t+1} = \rho + \sigma E_t(y_{t+1} - y_t) = \rho + \sigma \psi_{ya} E_t(a_{t+1} - a_t).$$

where

$$\begin{split} \psi_{na} &\equiv \frac{1-\sigma}{\sigma(1-\alpha)+\varphi+\alpha} \quad \vartheta_n \equiv \frac{\log(1-\alpha)}{\sigma+\varphi+\alpha(1-\sigma)} \\ \psi_{ya} &\equiv \frac{1+\varphi}{\sigma(1-\alpha)+\varphi+\alpha} \quad \vartheta_y \equiv (1-\alpha)\vartheta_n \quad \psi_{\omega a} \equiv \frac{\sigma+\varphi}{\sigma(1-\alpha)+\varphi+\alpha}. \end{split}$$

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Monetary Policy in Classical Model

— Equilibrium

SOLUTION II

→ real variables determined *independently of monetary policy* (super neutrality)

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- \rightarrow *optimal policy* is indetermined.
- \longrightarrow Specification of monetary policy needed to determine the nominal variables

Monetary Policy in Classical Model

— Equilibrium

DISCUSSION ON THE PARAMETERS

Technology shock has always positive impact on output

$$\psi_{ya} = rac{1+arphi}{\sigma(1-lpha)+arphi+lpha}$$

is always positive given reasonable values of $\varphi > -1$.

Technology shock may reduce or increase employment

$$\psi_{na} = \frac{1-\sigma}{\sigma(1-\alpha)+\varphi+\alpha} = \begin{cases} < 0 & \text{if } \sigma > 1 \\ = 0 & \text{if } \sigma = 1 \\ > 0 & \text{if } \sigma < 1. \end{cases}$$

Monetary Policy in Classical Model

— Equilibrium

A CLOSER LOOK AT EMPLOYMENT RESPONSE

Let's rewrite (4.2) as follows

$$N_t^{\varphi} = \frac{W_t}{P_t} C_t^{-\sigma}$$

The elasticity of substitution is unity (or $1/\varphi$), and wealth elasticity is $-\sigma$ (or $-\sigma/\varphi$).

- The substitution effect dominates the negative wealth effect if $0 < \sigma < 1$ and
- vice versa if $\sigma > 1$.
- They cancel each other when $\sigma = 1$ (logarithmic utility).

Monetary Policy in Classical Model

— Equilibrium

Technology process defines properties of real interest rate r_t will go down if $E_t a_{t+1} < a_t$ and go up if $E_t a_{t+1} > a_t$ (like in the growing economy).

Summary of equilibrium

In equilibrium, output, consumption, employment, real wages and real rate of return are function of productivity shock only — not of anything else! Hence monetary factors play no role in real economy, ie monetary policy is neutral w.r.t. real variables.

Monetary Policy in Classical Model

Monetary Policy Rules

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Monetary policy at the zero lower bound of nominal interest rates





Open Economy and Monetary Policy



Fiscal theory of price level

Monetary Policy in Classical Model

└─ Monetary Policy Rules

MONETARY POLICY RULES

- Fixed interest rate rule
- Inflation based interest rate rule

Money growth rule

Monetary Policy in Classical Model

-Monetary Policy Rules

FIXED INTEREST RATE RULE

Next we move to study various monetary policy rules!

Consider standard Fisher equation that we have derived above

$$i_t = E_t \pi_{t+1} + r_t = E_t p_{t+1} - p_t + r_t.$$
 (4.7)

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Its solution should be of the form

$$p_t = -E_t \sum_{i=0}^{\infty} (i_{t+i} - r_{t+i}).$$

It is easy to see that this does not converge in general.

Monetary Policy in Classical Model

- Monetary Policy Rules

SIMPLE INFLATION BASED INTEREST RATE RULE I

Consider an interest rate rule

 $i_t = \rho + \phi_\pi \pi_t$

and combine it with the Fisher equation to obtain

$$\rho + \phi_\pi \pi_t = \mathcal{E}_t \, \pi_{t+1} + r_t.$$

or

$$\phi_{\pi}\pi_{t} = E_{t}\pi_{t+1} + x_{t}.$$
 (4.8)

by denoting $x_t \equiv r_t - \rho$. Let's further assume that x_t follows the first-order autoregressive process:

 $x_t = \theta x_{t-1} + \varepsilon_t, \quad \varepsilon_t \sim \operatorname{iid}(0, \sigma_{\varepsilon}^2), \quad |\theta| < 1,$

Monetary Policy in Classical Model

-Monetary Policy Rules

SIMPLE INFLATION BASED INTEREST RATE RULE II Equation (4.8) has many solutions. We can write the equilibria of this model as

$$\pi_{t+1} = \phi_{\pi} \pi_t - x_t + \delta_{t+1}, \quad \mathbf{E}_t \, \delta_{t+1} = 0, \tag{4.9}$$

where δ_{t+1} is any conditionally mean zero random variable. Multiple equilibria are indexed by arbitrary initial inflation π_0 and by the arbitrary random variables (called often "sunspots") δ_{t+1} .

If $|\phi_{\pi}| > 1$ all of these equilibria except one eventually explode. If we rule out such solutions, the a unique locally bounded solution remains.

We may iterate (4.8) forward to obtain solution of the form

$$\pi_t = \mathbf{E}_t \sum_{i=0}^{\infty} \left(\frac{1}{\phi_{\pi}}\right)^i x_{t+i} = \frac{x_t}{\phi_{\pi_{\underline{\neg}\,\underline{\neg}\,\underline{\neg}\,\underline{\theta}}}}.$$

Monetary Policy in Classical Model

└─ Monetary Policy Rules

SIMPLE INFLATION BASED INTEREST RATE RULE III

Equivalently, we may select π_0 and $\{\delta_{t+1}\}$ in (4.9) appropriately

$$\pi_0 = rac{x_0}{\phi_\pi - heta}; \hspace{1em} \delta_{t+1} = rac{arepsilon_{t+1}}{\phi_\pi - heta}$$

Taylor principle $\phi_{\pi} > 1$

It is attractive to study only this locally bounded equilibria. However, hyperinflations are historical realities.

Monetary Policy in Classical Model

└─ Monetary Policy Rules

MONEY GROWTH RULE I

Substitute (4.7) into the money demand equation to obtain

$$m_t - p_t = y_t - \eta (\mathbf{E}_t \, \pi_{t+1} + r_t).$$

Solve price level forward

$$p_{t} = \frac{1}{1+\eta} \operatorname{E}_{t} \sum_{i=0}^{\infty} \left(\frac{\eta}{1+\eta}\right)^{i} (m_{t+i} + \eta r_{t+i} - y_{t+i})$$
$$= m_{t} + \operatorname{E}_{t} \sum_{i=1}^{\infty} \left(\frac{\eta}{1+\eta}\right)^{i} \Delta m_{t+i} + \operatorname{E}_{t} \sum_{i=0}^{\infty} \left(\frac{\eta}{1+\eta}\right)^{i} (\eta r_{t+i} - y_{t+i})$$

Monetary Policy in Classical Model

└─ Monetary Policy Rules

MONEY GROWTH RULE II

and the implied nominal interest rate

$$i_{t} = \eta^{-1} [y_{t} - (m_{t} - p_{t})]$$

= $\eta^{-1} \sum_{k=1}^{\infty} \left(\frac{\eta}{1+\eta}\right)^{k} E_{t}(\Delta m_{+k}) + r_{t}.$

Monetary Policy in Classical Model

Monetary Policy Rules

SUMMARY

- Real variables are *independent* of monetary policy.
- Monetary policy has an important impact on nominal variables.
- Since the household's utility depends only on real variables, monetary policy has no welfare implications.
- No monetary policy rule is better that any other.
- The non-existence of the interaction between nominal and real variables is in contrast to empirical evidence.

Monetary Policy in Classical Model

Motivation of money

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Monetary policy at the zero lower bound of nominal interest rates





Open Economy and Monetary Policy



Fiscal theory of price level

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Monetary Policy in Classical Model

- Motivation of money

VARIOUS APPROACHES TO MOTIVATE MONEY

In the above classical models, money had a role of unit of account: *cashless economy, cashless limit.*

Money provides liquidity services. They can be modelled, for example, as

- Real balances generate utility: Money-in-the-utility-function (MIUF)
- The transaction cost approach
 - Explicit microfounded matching models starting from double coincidence of wants
 - Cash-in-advance (CIA) constraint
 - Shopping-time model

We study MIUF and leave CIA as an exercise. First item can be found from micro courses.

-Monetary Policy in Classical Model

- Motivation of money: MIUF

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A model with money in the utility function I

Preferences

$$\mathbf{E}_0 \sum_{t=0}^{\infty} \beta^t U\left(C_t, \frac{M_t}{P_t}, N_t\right)$$

Budget constraint

$$P_t C_t + Q_t B_t + M_t \le B_{t-1} + M_{t-1} + W_t N_t - T_t$$

Define $A_t \equiv B_{t-1} + M_{t-1}$, then

$$P_tC_t + Q_tA_{t+1} + (1 - Q_t)M_t \le A_t + W_tN_t - T_t.$$

Note

$$(1-Q_t)=1-\exp(-i_t)\simeq i_t,$$

which is the opportunity cost of holding money.

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Monetary Policy in Classical Model

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A MODEL WITH MONEY IN THE UTILITY FUNCTION II In addition, the following transversality condition holds:

$$\lim_{T\to\infty} \mathbf{E}_t \,\beta^T \frac{U_{C,T}}{U_{C,0}} \frac{A_T}{P_T} = 0$$

Optimality conditions

$$-\frac{U_{N,t}}{U_{C,t}} = \frac{W_t}{P_t}$$

$$Q = \beta E_t \left(\frac{U_{C,t+1}}{U_{C,t}} \frac{P_t}{P_{t+1}}\right)$$

$$U_{m,t} \qquad (4.10)$$

$$\frac{u_{m,t}}{U_{C,t}} = 1 - \exp(-i_t), \tag{4.12}$$

where marginal utilities are evaluated at $(C_t, M_t/P_t, N_t)$. Two interesting cases:

Monetary Policy in Classical Model

└─ Motivation of money: MIUF

A MODEL WITH MONEY IN THE UTILITY FUNCTION III

- Utility separable in real balances \longrightarrow neutrality
- Utility non-separable in real balances (eg $U_{C,m} > 0$) \longrightarrow non-neutrality

Non-separable utility

$$U\left(C_t, \frac{M_t}{P_t}, N_t\right) = \frac{X\left(C_t, \frac{M_t}{P_t}\right)^{1-\sigma}}{1-\sigma} - \frac{N_t^{1+\varphi}}{1+\varphi},$$

where

$$X\left(C_{t},\frac{M_{t}}{P_{t}}\right) \equiv \begin{cases} \left[(1-\vartheta)C_{t}^{1-\nu} + \vartheta\left(\frac{M_{t}}{P_{t}}\right)^{1-\nu}\right]^{\frac{1}{1-\nu}}, & \text{for } \nu \neq 1\\ C_{t}^{1-\vartheta}\left(\frac{M_{t}}{P_{t}}\right)^{\vartheta}, & \text{for } \nu = 1. \end{cases}$$

Monetary Policy in Classical Model

└─Motivation of money: MIUF

A MODEL WITH MONEY IN THE UTILITY FUNCTION IV

Impulse responses, when policy rule is

$$i_t = \rho + \phi_\pi \pi_t + v_t$$
, where $v_t = \rho_v v_{t-1} + \varepsilon_t^v$

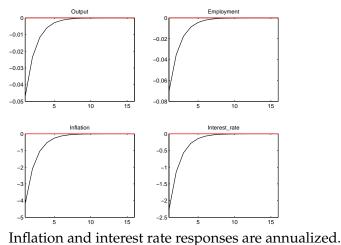
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with calibrated values: $\nu = 2.56$, $\sigma = 2$ (resulting $U_{C,m} > 0$)

Monetary Policy in Classical Model

Motivation of money: MIUF

RESPONSES TO A POSITIVE MONETARY POLICY SHOCK (INTEREST RATE RULE)



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OPTIMAL MONETARY POLICY IN A CLASSICAL SETTING I

Assume a hypothetical social planner that maximize the utility of representative household, that contains real money. Social planner faces a static problem, since only an individual household (not the society as a whole) can smooth its consumption over time. The planner's problem is to maximize

$$\max U(C_t, \frac{M_t}{P_t}, N_t)$$

subject to resource constraint

$$C_t = A_t N_t^{1-\alpha}$$

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Monetary Policy in Classical Model

Optimal policy

OPTIMAL MONETARY POLICY IN A CLASSICAL SETTING II

The optimality conditions are given by

$$-\frac{U_{n,t}}{U_{c,t}} = (1 - \alpha)A_t N_t^{-\alpha}$$
(4.13)
$$U_{m,t} = 0$$
(4.14)

- (4.13) First corresponds the labour market equilibrium that is independent of monetary policy (except in the non-separable MIUF case)
- (4.14) Second condition equates marginal utility of real balances to the "social" marginal cost of producing them (zero!).

Monetary Policy in Classical Model

Optimal policy

OPTIMAL MONETARY POLICY IN A CLASSICAL SETTING III

From household's problem we know

$$\frac{U_{m,t}}{U_{c,t}}=1-e^{-i_t}.$$

RHS can be zero only if $i_t = 0$. This is called Friedman rule. (In steady-state) this results $\pi = -\rho(\equiv -\log(\beta)) < 0$, ie in the steady state, the price level declines at the rate of time preference. *Implementation*

$$i_t = \phi(r_{t-1} + \pi_t)$$

for $\phi > 1$. Combined with the definition of the real rate results

$$\mathbf{E}_t \, i_{t+1} = \phi i_t,$$

Monetary Policy in Classical Model

Optimal policy

OPTIMAL MONETARY POLICY IN A CLASSICAL SETTING IV

whose only stationary solution is

 $i_t = 0$, for all t.

The implied equilibrium inflation is

 $\pi_t = -r_{t-1}.$

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Preliminaries

CES AGGREGATOR

In modern macro models with imperfect competition, the Dixit-Stiglitz, or Constant-Elasticity-of-Substitution aggregator plays an important role.

Consider a static optimization problem of a firm that buy infinite number of intermediate products C(i), puts them together using technology

$$C = \left[\int_0^1 C(i)^{\frac{\epsilon-1}{\epsilon}} di\right]^{\frac{\epsilon}{\epsilon-1}},$$
(5.1)

where ϵ is the elasticity of substitution (and also the price elasticity of the demand function). Its optimization problem is

$$\max_{C(i)} C \cdot P - \int_0^1 C(i)P(i)di$$

subject to the production technology (5.1).

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Preliminaries

The optimality conditions are given by

$$C(i) = \left[\frac{P(i)}{P}\right]^{-\epsilon} C \quad \forall i \in [0, 1].$$

This is also the demand function of a good C(i). (You must work out the details by yourself.) Plug this to the profits and use zero profit constraint to get the aggregate price level (=price index=marginal costs):

$$P = \left[\int_0^1 P(i)^{1-\epsilon} di\right]^{\frac{1}{1-\epsilon}}.$$
(5.2)

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Some sums

$$(1 - \beta\theta)E_t \sum_{k=0}^{\infty} (\beta\theta)^k (p_{t+k} - p_t) = (1 - \beta\theta)E_t ((p_t - p_t) + \beta\theta(p_{t+1} - p_t) + (\beta\theta)^2(p_{t+2} - p_t) + \cdots) = E_t (\beta\theta(p_{t+1} - p_t) - (\beta\theta)^2(p_{t+1} - p_t) + (\beta\theta)^2(p_{t+2} - p_t) + \cdots) = E_t (\beta\theta\pi_{t+1} + (\beta\theta)^2(-p_{t+1} + p_t + p_{t+2} - p_t) + \cdots) = E_t (\beta\theta\pi_{t+1} + (\beta\theta)^2\pi_{t+2} + \cdots) = E_t [\sum_{k=1}^{\infty} (\beta\theta)^k\pi_{t+k}] = E_t [\sum_{k=0}^{\infty} (\beta\theta)^k\pi_{t+k}] - \pi_t$$

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INTRODUCTION

The basic new Keynesian model consists of two key ingredients:

Imperfect competition

We assume that there is a continuum of firms and each produce a differentiated intermediate good for which it sets the price.

Price rigidities

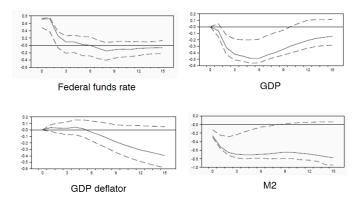
We assume (*a la* Calvo (1983)) that, in each period, only a fraction of firms can change their price.

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EMPIRICAL EVIDENCE I

Figure 1. Estimated Dynamic Response to a Monetary Policy Shock



Source: Christiano, Eichenbaum and Evans (1999)

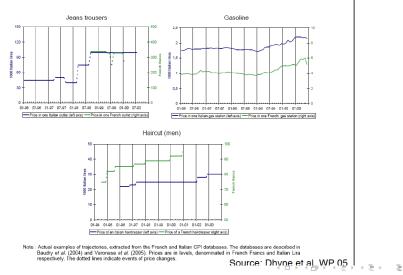
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EMPIRICAL EVIDENCE II

Figure 1 - Examples of individual price trajectories (French and Italian CPI data)



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Households

Household problem is the same as in the case of classical model except that the aggregate consumption consists of continuum of goods:

$$C_t = \left[\int_0^1 C_t(i)^{\frac{\epsilon-1}{\epsilon}} di\right]^{\frac{\epsilon}{\epsilon-1}}$$

Household must allocate its consumption to different goods according to their relative price

$$C_t(i) = \left[\frac{P_t(i)}{P_t}\right]^{-\epsilon} C_t, \quad \forall i \in [0, 1],$$
(5.3)

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where the aggregate price index is as in (5.2).

L The Basic New Keynesian Model

-Households

The optimality condition are as before and assuming same functional form of utility function, and loglinearizing, we obtain

$$w_t - p_t = \sigma c_t + \varphi n_t \tag{5.4}$$

$$c_t = E_t c_{t+1} - \frac{1}{\sigma} (i_t - E_t \pi_{t+1} - \rho)$$
(5.5)

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$$m_t - p_t = y_t - \eta i_t. \tag{5.6}$$

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— Firms

Firms

Assume continuum of identical firms indexed by $i \in [0, 1]$ that use the following common production technology

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

All firms face an identical demand curve (5.3) and take aggregate price index P_t and aggregate consumption index C_t as given.

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– Firms

CALVO FAIRY

A firm may change price of its product only when Calvo Fairy visits.

The probability of a visit is $1 - \theta$.

It is independent of the length of the time and the time elapsed since the last adjustment. Hence, in each period the $1 - \theta$ share of firms may change their price and rest, θ , keep their price unchanged.

Mathematically, Calvo Fairy's visits follows Bernoulli process (discrete version of Poisson process).

The probability distribution of the number of periods between the visits of Calvo Fairy is geometric distribution.

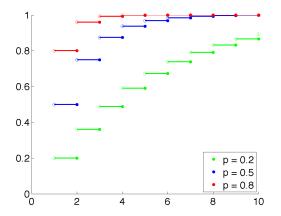
The expected value of geometric distribution and, hence, the average number of periods between the price changes (of a firm) is

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CUMULATIVE DISTRIBUTION FUNCTION OF GEOMETRIC DISTRIBUTION



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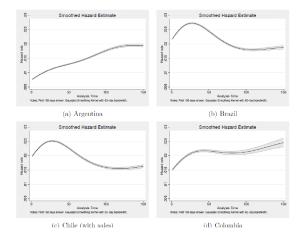
HAZARD RATE (OF PRICE CHANGES)

Hazard rate is defined as the event rate (probability of price change) at time *t* conditional on survival (no price changes) until time *t* or later. In price setting this means the event rate of price changes.

In Calvo setting, the hazard function is flat. This means that the event rate of price changes is not influenced by the (temporal) distance from the last price change.

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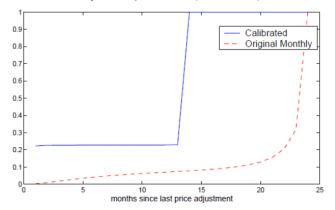
— Firms



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Conditional adjustment probabilities (hazard rates) in DKW economies

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Stylized facts of price changes in the USA and the Euroa Area I

4-5 quarters

The average duration of a price spell in the euro area ranges from four to five quarters, which is about twice as long as in the United States.

Variation across products

The frequency of price changes varies substantially across products, with very frequent change for energy products and unprocessed food, and relatively infrequent changes for processed food, non-energy industrial goods and, particularly, services.

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STYLIZED FACTS OF PRICE CHANGES IN THE USA AND THE EUROA AREA II

No important cross-country heterogeneity

Heterogeneity in price changes across countries in the euro area is relevant but less important than cross-sector heterogeneity in price changes. Differences in price changes across countries are partly related to the consumption structure and to the statistical treatment of sales.

Symmetric rigidity

There is no evidence of general downward price rigidity. Price decreases are not uncommon, except in services.

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STYLIZED FACTS OF PRICE CHANGES IN THE USA AND THE EUROA AREA III

Changes larger than inflation

Price changes are sizeable compared to the prevailing inflation rate. Price reductions and price increases have a similar order of magnitude, though price reductions are on average larger.

No syncronization

Price changes are not synchronized across products, even within the same country.

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OPTIMAL PRICE SETTING I

Let P_t^* denote the price level of the firm that receives price change signal. This is the price level of the firm that Calvo Fairy visits.

When making its pricing decision, the firm takes into account that it can change is price with the probability $1 - \theta$, ie the chosen price remains the same with probability θ .

$$\max_{P_t^{\star}} E_t \sum_{k=0}^{\infty} \theta^k Q_{t,t+k} \left\{ P_t^{\star} Y_{t+k}(P_t^{\star}) - \Psi_{t+k} \left[Y_{t+k}(P_t^{\star}) \right] \right\},$$

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OPTIMAL PRICE SETTING II

where $\Psi_{t+k} [Y_{t+k}(P_t^*)]$ is firm's total costs that depends on the demand function $Y_{t+k}(P_t^*)$ with a relative price of P_t^*/P_{t+k} . Let $\psi_{t+k|t} \equiv \Psi_{t+k}' [Y_{t+k}(P_t^*)]$ and

$$Y_{t+k}(P_t^{\star}) = \left(\frac{P_t^{\star}}{P_{t+k}}\right)^{-\epsilon} C_{t+k}$$

The first one is the demand function that the firm faces and is due to the households' consumption index.

$$Q_{t,t+k} \equiv \beta^k \left(\frac{C_{t+k}}{C_t}\right)^{-\sigma} \left(\frac{P_t}{P_{t+k}}\right).$$

The second equation is the nominal *stochastic discount factor* (pricing kernel), that household use to price any financial asset. Note, that in our standard household's optimisation problem,

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OPTIMAL PRICE SETTING III

the household price one-period bond using the very same pricing kernel. The total costs are

$$\Psi_{t|t}(i) = W_t N_t(i) = W_t \underbrace{\left(\frac{Y_t(i)}{A_t}\right)^{\frac{1}{1-\alpha}}}_{}$$

from prod.func.

and the marginal costs

$$\psi_{t|t}(i) \equiv \Psi_t'(i) = \frac{\partial W_t \left(\frac{Y_t(i)}{A_t}\right)^{\frac{1}{1-\alpha}}}{\partial Y_t(i)} = \frac{W_t N_t(i)}{(1-\alpha)Y_t(i)}.$$

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The optimality condition

$$\mathbf{E}_{t}\sum_{k=0}^{\infty}\theta^{k}Q_{t,t+k}\left\{Y_{t+k}(P_{t}^{\star})+P_{t}^{\star}\frac{\partial Y_{t+k}(P_{t}^{\star})}{\partial P_{t}^{\star}}-\Psi'(\cdot)\frac{\partial Y_{t+k}(P_{t}^{\star})}{\partial P_{t}^{\star}}\right\}=0$$

where

$$\begin{aligned} \frac{\partial Y_{t+k}(P_t^{\star})}{\partial P_t^{\star}} &= \frac{\partial \left(\frac{P_t^{\star}}{P_{t+k}}\right)^{-\epsilon} C_{t+k}}{\partial P_t^{\star}} \\ &= -\epsilon \left(\frac{P_t^{\star}}{P_{t+k}}\right)^{-\epsilon-1} C_{t+k} \frac{1}{P_{t+k}} \\ &= -\epsilon \frac{P_{t+k}}{P_t^{\star}} \frac{1}{P_{t+k}} \underbrace{\left(\frac{P_t^{\star}}{P_{t+k}}\right)^{-\epsilon} C_{t+k}}_{=Y_{t+k}(P_t^{\star})} \\ &= -\epsilon \frac{1}{P_t^{\star}} Y_{t+k}(P_t^{\star}). \end{aligned}$$

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SOME INTERMEDIATE RESULTS Then

$$\begin{split} \mathbf{E}_t \sum_{k=0}^{\infty} \theta^k Q_{t,t+k} \Big\{ Y_{t+k}(P_t^{\star}) + P_t^{\star}(-\epsilon) \frac{1}{P_t^{\star}} Y_{t+k}(P_t^{\star}) \\ &- \Psi'(\cdot)(-\epsilon) \frac{1}{P_t^{\star}} Y_{t+k}(P_t^{\star}) \Big\} = \mathbf{0}. \end{split}$$

$$\mathbf{E}_t \sum_{k=0}^{\infty} \theta^k Q_{t,t+k} Y_{t+k}(P_t^{\star}) \left\{ 1 - \epsilon + \epsilon \frac{1}{P_t^{\star}} \psi_{t+k} \right\} = 0.$$

$$\mathbf{E}_t \sum_{k=0}^{\infty} \theta^k Q_{t,t+k} Y_{t+k}(P_t^{\star}) \left\{ -P_t^{\star}(\epsilon-1) + \epsilon \psi_{t+k} \right\} = 0.$$

$$\mathbf{E}_{t}\sum_{k=0}^{\infty}\theta^{k}Q_{t,t+k}Y_{t+k}(P_{t}^{\star})\left\{P_{t}^{\star}-\frac{\epsilon}{(\epsilon-1)}\psi_{t+k}\right\}=0.$$

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STATIONARIZE

Divide by P_t to obtain

$$\mathbf{E}_{t}\sum_{k=0}^{\infty}\theta^{k}Q_{t,t+k}Y_{t+k}(P_{t}^{\star})\left[\frac{P_{t}^{\star}}{P_{t}}-\mathcal{M}\underline{M}\underline{C}_{t+k|t}\frac{P_{t+k}}{P_{t}}\right]=0,$$

where

$$\underline{MC}_{t+k|t} = \frac{\psi_{t+k} \left[Y_{t+k} \left(P_t^{\star} \right) \right]}{P_{t+k}} \text{ and } \mathcal{M} \equiv \frac{\epsilon}{(\epsilon-1)}$$

and

$$\frac{P_{t+k}}{P_t} = \frac{P_{t+k}}{P_{t+k-1}} \frac{P_{t+k-1}}{P_{t+k-2}} \cdots \frac{P_{t+1}}{P_t} = \prod_{i=1}^k \Pi_{t+i},$$

where $\Pi_t \equiv P_t / P_{t-1}$. Denote $\underline{P}_t^{\star} = P_t^{\star} / P_t$. Then

$$E_{t}\sum_{k=0}^{\infty}\theta^{k}Q_{t,t+k}Y_{t+k}(P_{t}^{\star})\left[\underline{P}_{t}^{\star}-\mathcal{M}\underline{M}\underline{C}_{t+k|t}\prod_{i=1}^{k}\Pi_{t+i}\right]=0.$$
(5.7)

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ZERO INFLATION AND ZERO GROWTH STEADY-STATE $\Pi = 1$,

$$Q_k = \beta^k \left(\frac{C}{C}\right)^{-\sigma} \frac{P}{P} = \beta^k$$

$$Y(P^{\star}) = \underbrace{\left(\frac{P^{\star}}{P}\right)^{-\epsilon}}_{=1} Y = Y$$

Then

$$\sum_{k=0}^{\infty} (\theta\beta)^k Y(\underline{P}^{\star} - \mathcal{M}\underline{M}\underline{C}) = 0$$

ie 1 = $\mathcal{M}\underline{MC}$. Hence

$$\underline{MC} = \frac{1}{\mathcal{M}}.$$

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LOGLINEARIZE I

Plug the definition of Q_{t+k} into (5.7).

$$\mathbf{E}_{t}\sum_{k=0}^{\infty}\theta^{k}\beta^{k}\left(\frac{C_{t+k}}{C_{t}}\right)^{-\sigma}\left(\frac{P_{t}}{P_{t+k}}\right)Y_{t+k}(P_{t}^{\star})\left[\underline{P}_{t}^{\star}-\mathcal{M}\underline{M}\underline{C}_{t+k|t}\prod_{i=1}^{k}\Pi_{t+i}\right]=0$$

$$E_{t} \sum_{k=0}^{\infty} \theta^{k} \beta^{k} \left(\frac{C_{t+k}}{C_{t}}\right)^{-\sigma} \left(\prod_{i=1}^{k} \Pi_{t+i}\right)^{-1} Y_{t+k}(P_{t}^{\star}) \underline{P}_{t}^{\star}$$
$$= E_{t} \sum_{k=0}^{\infty} \theta^{k} \beta^{k} \left(\frac{C_{t+k}}{C_{t}}\right)^{-\sigma} \left(\prod_{i=1}^{k} \Pi_{t+i}\right)^{-1} Y_{t+k}(P_{t}^{\star}) \mathcal{M} \underline{M} \underline{C}_{t+k|t} \prod_{i=1}^{k} \Pi_{t+i}$$

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LOGLINEARIZE II

$$\begin{split} \mathbf{E}_{t} \sum_{k=0}^{\infty} \theta^{k} \beta^{k} \left(\frac{C}{C}\right)^{-\sigma} \underbrace{(\prod_{i=1}^{k} \Pi)^{-1}}_{=1} \mathbf{Y} \underbrace{\underline{P}^{\star}}_{=1} \left[1 - \sigma \hat{c}_{t+k} + \sigma \hat{c}_{t} \right. \\ &\left. - \sum_{i=1}^{k} \hat{\pi}_{t+i} + \hat{y}_{t+k} (P_{t}^{\star}) + \underline{\hat{p}}_{t}^{\star} \right] \\ = \mathbf{E}_{t} \sum_{k=0}^{\infty} \theta^{k} \beta^{k} \left(\frac{C}{C}\right)^{-\sigma} \underbrace{(\prod_{i=1}^{k} \Pi)^{-1}}_{=1} \mathbf{Y} \underbrace{\mathcal{M}}_{=1} \underbrace{\mathcal{M}}_{=1} \underbrace{(\prod_{i=1}^{k} \Pi)}_{=1} \left[1 - \sigma \hat{c}_{t+k} + \sigma \hat{c}_{t} \right. \\ &\left. - \sum_{i=1}^{k} \hat{\pi}_{t+i} + \hat{y}_{t+k} (P_{t}^{\star}) + \underline{\hat{m}} \underline{c}_{t+k|t} + \sum_{i=1}^{k} \hat{\pi}_{t+i} \right] \end{split}$$

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LOGLINEARIZE III

$$\begin{split} \mathbf{E}_{t} \sum_{k=0}^{\infty} \theta^{k} \beta^{k} \underline{\hat{p}}_{t}^{\star} &= \mathbf{E}_{t} \sum_{k=0}^{\infty} \theta^{k} \beta^{k} (\underline{\hat{m}} \underline{c}_{t+k|t} + \sum_{i=1}^{k} \hat{\pi}_{t+i}) \\ \frac{1}{1 - \theta \beta} \underline{\hat{p}}_{t}^{\star} &= \mathbf{E}_{t} \sum_{k=0}^{\infty} \theta^{k} \beta^{k} (\underline{\hat{m}} \underline{c}_{t+k|t} + \sum_{i=1}^{k} \hat{\pi}_{t+i}). \end{split}$$

$$\hat{\underline{p}}_{t}^{\star} = (1 - \theta\beta) \operatorname{E}_{t} \sum_{k=0}^{\infty} \theta^{k} \beta^{k} \underline{\widehat{mc}}_{t+k|t} + \underbrace{(1 - \theta\beta) \operatorname{E}_{t} \sum_{k=0}^{\infty} \theta^{k} \beta^{k} \sum_{i=1}^{k} \widehat{\pi}_{t+i}}_{=\operatorname{E}_{t} \sum_{k=0}^{\infty} \theta^{k} \beta^{k} \widehat{\pi}_{t+k} - \widehat{\pi}_{t}} = (1 - \theta\beta) \operatorname{E}_{t} \sum_{k=0}^{\infty} \theta^{k} \beta^{k} \underline{\widehat{mc}}_{t+k|t} + \operatorname{E}_{t} \sum_{k=0}^{\infty} \theta^{k} \beta^{k} \widehat{\pi}_{t+k} - \widehat{\pi}_{t} \quad (5.8)$$

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LOGLINEARIZE IV

Shift $t \rightarrow t + 1$ and condition on the period *t* information

$$\mathbf{E}_{t} \, \underline{\hat{p}}_{t+1}^{\star} = (1 - \theta \beta) \, \mathbf{E}_{t} \sum_{k=0}^{\infty} \theta^{k} \beta^{k} \underline{\hat{m}}_{t+1+k|t+1} + \mathbf{E}_{t} \sum_{k=0}^{\infty} \theta^{k} \beta^{k} \hat{\pi}_{t+1+k} - \mathbf{E}_{t} \, \hat{\pi}_{t+1+k} -$$

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LOGLINEARIZE V From the previous slides

$$\begin{split} \partial_{t}^{\star} &= (1 - \theta\beta)\underline{\hat{m}c}_{t|t} + (1 - \theta\beta)\operatorname{E}_{t}\sum_{k=0}^{\infty} \theta^{k+1}\beta^{k+1}\underline{\hat{m}c}_{t+1+k|t+1} \\ &\hat{\pi}_{t} + \operatorname{E}_{t}\sum_{k=0}^{\infty} \theta^{k+1}\beta^{k+1}\hat{\pi}_{t+1+k} - \hat{\pi}_{t} \\ &= (1 - \theta\beta)\underline{\hat{m}c}_{t|t} + \theta\beta\left[(1 - \theta\beta)\operatorname{E}_{t}\sum_{k=0}^{\infty} \theta^{k}\beta^{k}\underline{\hat{m}c}_{t+1+k|t+1} \\ &+ \operatorname{E}_{t}\sum_{k=0}^{\infty} \theta^{k}\beta^{k}\hat{\pi}_{t+1+k} - \operatorname{E}_{t}\hat{\pi}_{t+1}\right] + \theta\beta\operatorname{E}_{t}\hat{\pi}_{t+1}. \end{split}$$

Note, that the term in brackets is $E_t \hat{p}_{t+1}^{\star}$. Hence,

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TO SUMMARIZE

The first-order condition

$$\mathbf{E}_{t}\sum_{k=0}^{\infty}\theta^{k}Q_{t,t+k}Y_{t+k}(P_{t}^{\star})\left(P_{t}^{\star}-\frac{\epsilon}{\underbrace{\epsilon-1}}_{\equiv\mathcal{M}}\psi_{t+k|t}\right)=0,$$

where

$$\psi_{t+k|t} = \Psi_{t+k}' \left(Y_{t+k}(P_t^{\star}) \right)$$

is nominal marginal costs and M is the desired or frictionless markup. In the case of no frictions $(1 - \theta = 1)$:

$$P_t^{\star} = \mathcal{M}\psi_{t,t}.$$

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CONNECTION TO GALÍ'S BOOK: WRITE (5.8) AS FOLLOWS

$$\begin{split} \underline{\hat{p}}_{t}^{\star} &= (1 - \theta\beta) \operatorname{E}_{t} \sum_{k=0}^{\infty} \theta^{k} \beta^{k} \underline{\hat{m}} \underline{c}_{t+k|t} + \operatorname{E}_{t} \sum_{k=0}^{\infty} \theta^{k} \beta^{k} \hat{\pi}_{t+k} - \hat{\pi}_{t} &\iff \\ p_{t}^{\star} - p_{t} &= (1 - \theta\beta) \operatorname{E}_{t} \sum_{k=0}^{\infty} \theta^{k} \beta^{k} (\hat{m} c_{t+k|t} - p_{t+1}) \\ &+ \operatorname{E}_{t} \sum_{k=0}^{\infty} \theta^{k} \beta^{k} (p_{t+k} - p_{t+k-1} - p_{t} + p_{t-1}) \\ &= (1 - \theta\beta) \operatorname{E}_{t} \sum_{k=0}^{\infty} \theta^{k} \beta^{k} (\hat{m} c_{t+k|t} - p_{t+1}) \\ &+ (1 - \theta\beta) \operatorname{E}_{t} \sum_{k=0}^{\infty} \theta^{k} \beta^{k} (p_{t+k} - p_{t}) \end{split}$$

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- The Basic New Keynesian Model

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$$= (1 - \theta\beta) \operatorname{E}_{t} \sum_{k=0}^{\infty} \theta^{k} \beta^{k} \hat{m} c_{t+k|t} - p_{t} \quad \Longleftrightarrow$$
$$p_{t}^{\star} = (1 - \theta\beta) \operatorname{E}_{t} \sum_{k=0}^{\infty} \theta^{k} \beta^{k} \hat{m} c_{t+k|t}.$$

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Optimal Price Setting

$$\max_{P_t^*} \sum_{k=0}^{\infty} \theta^k E_t \left\{ \Lambda_{t,t+k} (1/P_{t+k}) \left(P_t^* Y_{t+k|t} - \mathcal{C}_{t+k} (Y_{t+k|t}) \right) \right\}$$

subject to:

$$Y_{t+k|t} = \left(\frac{P_t^*}{P_{t+k}}\right)^{-\epsilon} C_{t+k}$$
(5.10)

for k = 0, 1, 2, ... where $\Lambda_{t,t+k} \equiv \beta^k U_{c,t+k} / U_{c,t}$ Optimality condition:

$$\sum_{k=0}^{\infty} \theta^{k} E_{t} \left\{ \Lambda_{t,t+k} Y_{t+k|t} (1/P_{t+k}) \left(P_{t}^{*} - \mathcal{M} \Psi_{t+k|t} \right) \right\} = 0$$

where $\Psi_{t+k|t} \equiv C'_{t+k}(Y_{t+k|t})$ and $\mathcal{M} \equiv \frac{\epsilon}{\epsilon-1}$.

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Flexible price case ($\theta = 0$):

$$P_t^* = \mathcal{M} \Psi_{t|t}$$

Zero inflation steady state

 $\Lambda_{t,t+k} = \beta^k; P_t^*/P_{t-1} = P_t/P_{t+k} = 1 \implies Y_{t+k|t} = Y; \Psi_{t+k|t} = \Psi_t; P_t = \Psi_t$

Linearized optimal price setting condition:

$$p_t^* = \mu + (1 - \beta\theta) \sum_{k=0}^{\infty} (\beta\theta)^k E_t \{ \psi_{t+k|t} \}$$

where $\psi_{t+k|t} \equiv \log \Psi_{t+k|t}$ and $\mu \equiv \log \mathcal{M}$

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AGGREGATE PRICE LEVEL

Note that all those firms that may set their price level (ie where Calvo Fairy visits) will choose identical price P_t^* . Let $S(t) \subset [0,1]$ represent the set of firms that do not reoptimize their price in period t. Note that "the distribution of prices among firms not adjusting in period t corresponds to the distribution effective prices in period t - 1, though with total mass reduced to θ ". Remember the aggregate price index P_t in eq (5.2). The aggregate price level has to follow this functional form

$$P_t = \left[\int_{S(t)} P_{t-1}(i)^{1-\epsilon} di + (1-\theta) (P_t^{\star})^{1-\epsilon} \right]^{\frac{1}{1-\epsilon}}$$
$$= \left[\theta P_{t-1}^{1-\epsilon} + (1-\theta) (P_t^{\star})^{1-\epsilon} \right]^{\frac{1}{1-\epsilon}}.$$
 (5.11)

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LOG-LINEARIZATION OF THE AGGREGATE PRICE LEVEL

Stationarize equation (5.11), ie express it in inflation rates and in relative prices: Divide (5.11) by P_{t-1} and rise it power $1 - \epsilon$:

$$\Pi_t^{1-\epsilon} = \theta + (1-\theta) \left(\frac{P_t^{\star}}{P_t} \Pi_t\right)^{1-\epsilon},$$

where $\Pi_t = P_t / P_{t-1}$. Zero inflation steady-state implies that $\underline{P}_t^* \equiv P_t^* / P_t = 1$. Log-linearizing it around zero steady state inflation results:

$$\pi_t = (1-\theta)(p_t^\star - p_{t-1}).$$

(As in Gali's book). Or (remember that $\pi = 0$, hence $\hat{\pi}_t = \pi_t$)

$$\hat{\pi}_t = (1 - \theta)(p_t^* - p_t + p_t - p_{t-1}) = (1 - \theta)(\underline{\hat{p}}_t^* + \hat{\pi}_t)$$

or

$$\hat{p}_{t}^{\star} = \frac{\theta}{1-\theta} \pi_{t} \tag{5.12}$$

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PHILLIPS CURVE

Plug (5.12) into (5.9) to obtain

$$\frac{\theta}{1-\theta}\hat{\pi}_{t} = \theta\beta\frac{\theta}{1-\theta}\operatorname{E}_{t}\hat{\pi}_{t+1} + \theta\beta\operatorname{E}_{t}\hat{\pi}_{t+1} + (1-\beta\theta)\underline{\hat{m}c}_{t}$$
$$= \theta\beta\frac{\theta+1-\theta}{1-\theta}\operatorname{E}_{t}\hat{\pi}_{t+1} + (1-\beta\theta)\underline{\hat{m}c}_{t}$$

$$\frac{\theta}{1-\theta}\hat{\pi}_t = \frac{\theta\beta}{1-\theta} \operatorname{E}_t \hat{\pi}_{t+1} + (1-\beta\theta)\underline{\hat{m}c_t}$$

And finally

$$\hat{\pi}_t = \beta \operatorname{E}_t \hat{\pi}_{t+1} + \frac{(1-\theta)(1-\theta\beta)}{\theta} \underline{\hat{m}c}_t$$

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Returns-to-scale and marginal costs ${\rm I}$

Under *constant returns to scale*⁶ production function, the marginal costs does not depend on the scale of production.

 $mc_t = (w_t - p_t)$ – marginal product of labour,

where the marginal product of labour is given by

$$\log(1-\alpha) + a_t - \alpha n_t = \log(1-\alpha) + \frac{1}{1-\alpha}(a_t - \alpha y_t)$$

 $\alpha = 0 \longrightarrow$ constant returns to scale. $0 < \alpha < 1$ corresponds decreasing returns to scale. *Particular Case:* $\alpha = 0$ (constant returns)

$$\Longrightarrow \psi_{t+k|t} = \psi_{t+k}$$

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RETURNS-TO-SCALE AND MARGINAL COSTS II

Recursive form:

$$p_t^* = \beta \theta E_t \{ p_{t+1}^* \} + (1 - \beta \theta) p_t - (1 - \beta \theta) \widehat{\mu}_t$$

where $\mu_t \equiv p_t - \psi_t$ and $\widehat{\mu}_t \equiv \mu_t - \mu$

Combined with price dynamics equation yields:

$$\pi_t = \beta E_t \{ \pi_{t+1} \} - \lambda \widehat{\mu}_t$$

where

$$\lambda \equiv \frac{(1-\theta)(1-\beta\theta)}{\theta}$$

General case: $\alpha \in [0, 1)$

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RETURNS-TO-SCALE AND MARGINAL COSTS III

$$\psi_{t+k|t} = w_{t+k} - mpn_{t+k|t} = w_{t+k} - (a_{t+k} - \alpha n_{t+k|t} + \log(1 - \alpha))$$

$$\psi_{t+k} \equiv w_{t+k} - (a_{t+k} - \alpha n_{t+k} + \log(1 - \alpha))$$

$$\begin{split} \psi_{t+k|t} &= \psi_{t+k} + \alpha (n_{t+k|t} - n_{t+k}) \\ &= \psi_{t+k} + \frac{\alpha}{1-\alpha} (y_{t+k|t} - y_{t+k}) \\ &= \psi_{t+k} - \frac{\alpha \epsilon}{1-\alpha} (p_t^* - p_{t+k}) \end{split}$$

Optimal price setting equation:

$$p_t^* = (1 - \beta\theta) \sum_{k=0}^{\infty} (\beta\theta)^k E_t \left\{ p_{t+k} - \Theta \widehat{\mu}_{t+k} \right\}$$

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RETURNS-TO-SCALE AND MARGINAL COSTS IV

where $\Theta \equiv \frac{1-\alpha}{1-\alpha+\alpha\epsilon} \in (0, 1]$. Recursive form:

$$p_t^* = \beta \theta E_t \{ p_{t+1}^* \} + (1 - \beta \theta) p_t - (1 - \beta \theta) \Theta \widehat{\mu}_t$$

Combined with price dynamics equation yields:

$$\pi_t = \beta E_t \{ \pi_{t+1} \} - \lambda \widehat{\mu}_t$$

where

$$\lambda \equiv \frac{(1-\theta)(1-\beta\theta)}{\theta} \, \Theta$$

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— Equilibrium

OUTLINE



Introduction

Approximating and solving dynamic models

Monetary Policy in Classical Model

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Fiscal theory of price level

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— Equilibrium

Equilibrium I

Goods market

$$Y_t(i) = C_t(i) \quad \forall i \in [0, 1] \text{ and } \forall t.$$

Letting $Y_t \equiv \left(\int_0^1 Y_t(i)^{1-\frac{1}{e}} di\right)^{\frac{e}{e-1}}$:
 $Y_t = C_t. \quad \forall t$

Combined with Euler equation:

$$y_t = E_t \{ y_{t+1} \} - \frac{1}{\sigma} (i_t - E_t \{ \pi_{t+1} \} - \rho)$$

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Equilibrium II

Labour markets

$$N_{t} = \int_{0}^{1} N_{t}(i) di$$

= $\int_{0}^{1} \left(\frac{Y_{t}(i)}{A_{t}}\right)^{\frac{1}{1-\alpha}} di$
= $\left(\frac{Y_{t}}{A_{t}}\right)^{\frac{1}{1-\alpha}} \underbrace{\int_{0}^{1} \left(\frac{P_{t}(i)}{P_{t}}\right)^{\frac{-\epsilon}{1-\alpha}} di}_{\equiv \text{price dispersion}}$

Up to a first order approximation:

$$n_t = \frac{1}{1-\alpha}(y_t - a_t)$$

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— Equilibrium

Equilibrium III

Average price markup and output

$$\mu_t \equiv p_t - \psi_t$$

= $-(w_t - p_t) + (a_t - \alpha n_t + \log(1 - \alpha))$
= $-(\sigma y_t + \varphi n_t) + (a_t - \alpha n_t + \log(1 - \alpha))$
= $-\left(\sigma + \frac{\varphi + \alpha}{1 - \alpha}\right) y_t + \left(\frac{1 + \varphi}{1 - \alpha}\right) a_t + \log(1 - \alpha)$

Under flexible prices:

$$\mu = -\left(\sigma + \frac{\varphi + \alpha}{1 - \alpha}\right)y_t^n + \left(\frac{1 + \varphi}{1 - \alpha}\right)a_t + \log(1 - \alpha)$$

implying

$$y_t^n = \psi_{ya}a_t + \psi_y$$

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Equilibrium IV

where
$$\psi_y \equiv -\frac{(1-\alpha)(\mu-\log(1-\alpha))}{\sigma(1-\alpha)+\varphi+\alpha} > 0$$
 and $\psi_{ya} \equiv \frac{1+\varphi}{\sigma(1-\alpha)+\varphi+\alpha}$. Thus,
 $\widehat{\mu}_t = -\left(\sigma + \frac{\varphi+\alpha}{1-\alpha}\right)(y_t - y_t^n)$

New Keynesian Phillips Curve

$$\pi_t = \beta E_t \{ \pi_{t+1} \} + \kappa \widetilde{y}_t$$

where $\tilde{y}_t \equiv y_t - y_t^n$ and $\kappa \equiv \lambda \left(\sigma + \frac{\varphi + \alpha}{1 - \alpha}\right)$. **The Non-Policy Block of the Basic New Keynesian Model** *New Keynesian Phillips Curve*

$$\pi_t = \beta E_t \{ \pi_{t+1} \} + \kappa \widetilde{y}_t \tag{5.13}$$

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Equilibrium V

Dynamic IS equation

$$\tilde{y}_t = E_t\{\tilde{y}_{t+1}\} - \frac{1}{\sigma}(i_t - E_t\{\pi_{t+1}\} - r_t^n)$$
(5.14)

where r_t^n is the *natural rate of interest*, given by

$$r_t^n = \rho - \sigma (1 - \rho_a) \psi_{ya} a_t \tag{5.15}$$

Missing block: description of monetary policy (determination of i_t).

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OUTLINE



Introduction

Approximating and solving dynamic models

Monetary Policy in Classical Model

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MONETARY POLICY

Determination of nominal interest rate, i_t , gives the path for actual real rate. It is a description how monetary policy is conducted.

Monetary policy is non-neutral

When prices are sticky nominal interest rate path determines output gap.

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DYNAMICS

To study the dynamics of a linear rational expectation model, we write is as follows

$$A_0 x_t = A_1 \operatorname{E}_t x_{t+1} + B z_t.$$

and study the properties of the transition matrix $A_T \equiv A_0^{-1}A_1$ of the following form

$$x_t = \underbrace{A_0^{-1}A_1}_{\equiv A_T} \operatorname{E}_t x_{t+1} + \underbrace{A_0^{-1}B}_{\equiv B_T} z_t.$$

 A_0 should be of full rank (some solution algorithms allow reduced rank cases too).

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SIMPLE INTEREST RATE RULE I Equilibrium under a Simple Interest Rate Rule

 $i_t =
ho + \phi_\pi \pi_t + \phi_y \widehat{y}_t + v_t$

where $\widehat{y}_t \equiv y_t - y$ and

$$v_t = \rho_v v_{t-1} + \varepsilon_t^v$$

Equivalently:

$$i_t =
ho + \phi_\pi \pi_t + \phi_y \widetilde{y}_t + \phi_y \widehat{y}_t^n + v_t$$

where $\hat{y}_t^n \equiv y_t^n - y$. Equilibrium dynamics:

$$\begin{bmatrix} \widetilde{y}_t \\ \pi_t \end{bmatrix} = \mathbf{A}_T \begin{bmatrix} E_t \{ \widetilde{y}_{t+1} \} \\ E_t \{ \pi_{t+1} \} \end{bmatrix} + \mathbf{B}_T u_t$$

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SIMPLE INTEREST RATE RULE II where

$$u_t \equiv \widehat{r}_t^n - \phi_y \widehat{y}_t^n - v_t = -\psi_{ya} (\phi_y + \sigma(1 - \rho_a)) a_t - v_t$$

and

$$\mathbf{A}_{T} \equiv \Omega \begin{bmatrix} \sigma & 1 - \beta \phi_{\pi} \\ \sigma \kappa & \kappa + \beta (\sigma + \phi_{y}) \end{bmatrix} ; \quad \mathbf{B}_{T} \equiv \Omega \begin{bmatrix} 1 \\ \kappa \end{bmatrix}$$

with $\Omega \equiv \frac{1}{\sigma + \phi_{y} + \kappa \phi_{\pi}}$.

Uniqueness condition (Bullard and Mitra):

$$\kappa(\phi_{\pi}-1)+(1-\beta)\phi_{y}>0$$

Exercise: analytical solution (method of undetermined coefficients).

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└─ Monetary policy in a new Keynesian model

EXOGENOUS MONEY GROWTH RULE I

Equilibrium under an Exogenous Money Growth Process

$$\Delta m_t = \rho_m \Delta m_{t-1} + \varepsilon_t^m$$

Money demand

$$l_t \equiv m_t - p_t = \widetilde{y}_t - \eta i_t + y_t^n$$

Substituting into dynamic IS equation

$$(1+\sigma\eta)\widetilde{y}_t = \sigma\eta E_t\{\widetilde{y}_{t+1}\} + \widehat{l}_t + \eta E_t\{\pi_{t+1}\} + \eta \widehat{r}_t^n - \widehat{y}_t^n$$

Identity:

$$\widehat{l}_{t-1} = \widehat{l}_t + \pi_t - \Delta m_t$$

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EXOGENOUS MONEY GROWTH RULE II *Equilibrium dynamics:*

$$\mathbf{A}_{\mathbf{M},\mathbf{0}} \begin{bmatrix} \widetilde{y}_t \\ \pi_t \\ \widehat{l}_{t-1} \end{bmatrix} = \mathbf{A}_{\mathbf{M},\mathbf{1}} \begin{bmatrix} E_t \{ \widetilde{y}_{t+1} \} \\ E_t \{ \pi_{t+1} \} \\ \widehat{l}_t \end{bmatrix} + \mathbf{B}_{\mathbf{M}} \begin{bmatrix} \widehat{r}_t^n \\ \widehat{y}_t^n \\ \Delta m_t \end{bmatrix}$$
(5.16)

where

$$\mathbf{A_{M,0}} \equiv \begin{bmatrix} 1 + \sigma\eta & 0 & 0 \\ -\kappa & 1 & 0 \\ 0 & -1 & 1 \end{bmatrix} \quad ; \quad \mathbf{A_{M,1}} \equiv \begin{bmatrix} \sigma\eta & \eta & 1 \\ 0 & \beta & 0 \\ 0 & 0 & 1 \end{bmatrix} \quad ; \quad \mathbf{B_M} \equiv$$

Uniqueness condition:

 $A_M \equiv A_{M,0}^{-1} A_{M,1}$ has two eigenvalues inside and one outside the unit circle.

Calibration

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└─ Monetary policy in a new Keynesian model

EXOGENOUS MONEY GROWTH RULE III

Households: $\sigma = 1$; $\varphi = 5$; $\beta = 0.99$; $\epsilon = 9$; $\eta = 4$; $\rho_z = 0.5$ Firms: $\alpha = 1/4$; $\theta = 3/4$; $\rho_a = 0.9$ Policy rules: $\phi_{\pi} = 1.5$, $\phi_y = 0.125$; $\rho_v = \rho_m = 0.5$ Dynamic Responses to Exogenous Shocks

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- Monetary policy, discount rate, technology
- Interest rate rule vs. money growth rule

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Monetary policy in a new Keynesian model

ANALYTICAL SOLUTION: UNDETERMINED COEFFICIENTS I

Let's use a bit simpler version of the above interest rate rule:

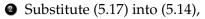
$$i_t = \rho + \phi_\pi \pi_t + \phi_y \tilde{y}_t + v_t, \qquad (5.17)$$

where

$$v_t = \rho_v v_{t-1} + \varepsilon_t^v, \quad \varepsilon_t^v \sim \text{IID}(0, \sigma_v^2)$$

The system is characterized by the equations (5.17), (5.14) and (5.13).

• Guess that the solution takes the form $\tilde{y}_t = \psi_{yv}v_t$ and $\pi_t = \psi_{\pi v}v_t$ (why?)



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ANALYTICAL SOLUTION: UNDETERMINED COEFFICIENTS II

- Let's assume that $\hat{r}_t^n \equiv r_t^n \rho = 0$ (because it is not affected by monetary policy shocks,
- Impose these to (5.13) and (5.14) (note that $E_t v_{t+1} = \rho_v v_t$) and
- **6** solve the unknown ψ_{yv} and $\psi_{\pi v}$ to obtain

$$ilde{y}_t = -(1-eta
ho_v)\Lambda_v v_t$$

 $\pi_t = -\kappa\Lambda_v v_t$,

where $\Lambda_v = \{(1 - \beta \rho_v)[\sigma(1 - \rho_v) + \phi_y] + \kappa(\phi_\pi - \rho_v)\}^{-1}$

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ANALYTICAL SOLUTION: UNDETERMINED COEFFICIENTS...

- Note, however, that $v_t = \rho_v v_{t-1} + \varepsilon_t^v = \frac{1}{1 \rho_v L} \varepsilon_t^v$, where *L* is lag-operator (or backshift operator), ie $Lx_t = x_{t-1}$.
- Then, the solution ('VAR' representation) is

$$\begin{split} \tilde{y}_t &= \rho_v \tilde{y}_{t-1} - (1 - \beta \rho_v) \Lambda_v \varepsilon_t^v \\ \pi_t &= \rho_v \pi_{t-1} - \kappa \Lambda_v \varepsilon_t^v. \end{split}$$

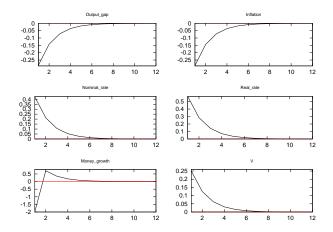
Note, that the persistence (lagged endogenous variable) is *inherited* from the shock process v_t .

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RESPONSES TO A MONETARY POLICY SHOCK (INTEREST RATE RULE)



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Monetary policy in a new Keynesian model

EFFECTS OF A TECHNOLOGY SHOCK

Set $v_t =$ (no monetary policy shocks). Technology process:

$$a_t = \rho_a a_{t-1} + \varepsilon_t^a.$$

Implied natural rate:

$$\hat{r}_t^n = \sigma \varphi_{ya} (1 - \rho_a) a_t.$$

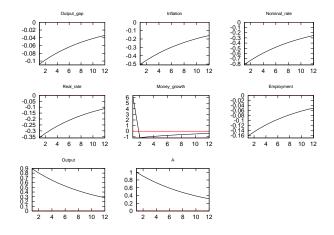
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Dynamic effects of a technology shock ($\rho_a = 0.9$)

- The Basic New Keynesian Model

- Monetary policy in a new Keynesian model

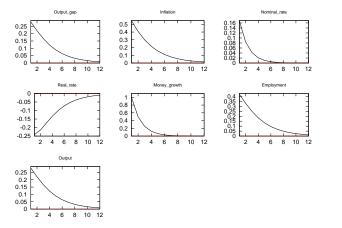
RESPONSES TO A TECHNOLOGY SHOCK (INTEREST RATE RULE)



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RESPONSES TO A MONETARY POLICY SHOCK (MONEY GROWTH RATE RULE)



Note that liquidity effect is not present (due to the calibration)!

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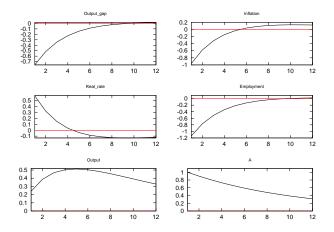
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RESPONSES TO A TECHNOLOGY SHOCK (MONEY GROWTH RULE)



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ESTIMATED RESPONSES TO A TECHNOLOGY SHOCK

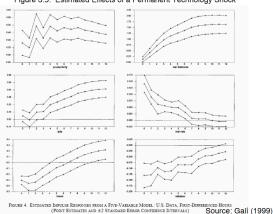


Figure 3.5: Estimated Effects of a Permanent Technology Shock

— The Basic New Keynesian Model

- Alternative approaches to Calvo rigidities

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ALTERNARIVE APPROACHES I

Adjustment costs

Quadratic adjustment costs by Rotemberg (1982). Fixed costs, Gertler and Leahy (2006).

Staggered price setting

Deterministic time duration: price adjustments allowed (in a non-syncronized manner) only after each n^{th} period. Taylor (1980), Chari, Kehoe, McGrattan (2000).

Time-dependent and state-dependent pricing:

- The Basic New Keynesian Model

- Alternative approaches to Calvo rigidities

ALTERNARIVE APPROACHES II

Time-dependent pricing

Calvo structure assumes the price changes to be time independent (and also state-dependent). The hazard is flat; i.e. the propability of changing prices at time *t* does not depend on when the last price-change occurred. *This contradicts with micro evidence, where hazard is upward-sloping.* The Calvo models also predict bigger absolute price changes for older prices, when no such pattern exists in the data.

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- Alternative approaches to Calvo rigidities

ALTERNARIVE APPROACHES III

State-dependent pricing (SDP)

In SDP models, a positive monetary shock boosts the fraction of firms changing prices and/or the average size of those price changes. In Dotsey, King, and Wolman (1999), it is predominantly the fraction that responds, whereas in Golosov and Lucas (2007) it is almost wholly the average size of changes (more increases and fewer decreases). The DKW model produces no large price changes, and predicts far too big a role for the extensive margin in inflation movements. The GL model does not generate enough small price changes.

In reasonable stable macro environment, the state and time dependent results will be similar.

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Alternative approaches to Calvo rigidities

ALTERNARIVE APPROACHES IV

2nd-generation time-dependent pricing

Mash (2004) combines Calvo with overlapping-contracts of Taylor. Sheedy (2010) modifies Calvo model such the probability of the visit of a Calvo fairy increases with distance from the last visit. This generates inflation inertia.

Sticky information

Mankiw and Reis (2003) present a Phillips curve with a substantial amount of price setting based on Sticky information. Erceg and Levin (2000) builds on adaptive learning by agents in response to a change in policy regime.

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ALTERNARIVE APPROACHES V

2nd-generation state-dependent pricing

Gertler and Leahy (2006) propose a model with Poisson arrival of idiosyncratic shocks and small menu costs, so that many price changes are small and the size of price changes is unrelated to the time since the last change. Dotsey, King, and Wolman (2006) add idiosyncratic shocks to their earlier model, thereby generating large price changes andmitigating the importance of the extensive margin. Woodford (2009) presents a generalization of state-dependent pricing in which decisions about when to review a firm's existing price must be made on the basis of imprecise awareness of current market conditions.

Monetary Policy Design in the Basic New Keynesian Model

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Open Economy and Monetary Policy



Fiscal theory of price level

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Monetary Policy Design in the Basic New Keynesian Model

The Efficient Allocation

$$\max U\left(C_{t}, N_{t}\right)$$
where $C_{t} \equiv \left[\int_{0}^{1} C_{t}(i)^{1-\frac{1}{\epsilon}} di\right]^{\frac{\epsilon}{\epsilon-1}}$ subject to:
 $C_{t}(i) = A_{t} N_{t}(i)^{1-\alpha}, \ all \ i \in [0, 1]$
 $N_{t} = \int_{0}^{1} N_{t}(i) \ di$

Optimality conditions:

$$\begin{split} C_t(i) &= C_t, \ all \ i \in [0,1] \\ N_t(i) &= N_t, \ all \ i \in [0,1] \\ - \frac{U_{n,t}}{U_{c,t}} &= MPN_t \end{split}$$

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where $MPN_t \equiv (1 - \alpha) A_t N_t^{-\alpha}$.

THE EFFICIENT ALLOCATION...

- Produce and consume same quantity of all goods.
- Allocate same amount of labour to all firms.
- Due to
 - all goods enter symmetrically to utility function,
 - concavity of $U(\cdot)$,
 - identical technologies.
- Marginal rate of substitution equals marginal rate of transformation equals marginal product of labour: corresponds classical model!

NEXT: How this efficient allocation is violated!

Sources of Suboptimality of Equilibrium

- 1. Distortions unrelated to nominal rigidities:
 - Monopolistic competition: $P_t = \mathcal{M} \frac{W_t}{MPN_t}$, where $\mathcal{M} \equiv \frac{\varepsilon}{\varepsilon 1} > 1$

$$\implies \quad -\frac{U_{n,t}}{U_{c,t}} = \frac{W_t}{P_t} = \frac{MPN_t}{\mathcal{M}} < MPN_t$$

Solution: employment subsidy τ . Under flexible prices, $P_t = \mathcal{M} \frac{(1-\tau)W_t}{MPN_t}$.

$$\implies -\frac{U_{n,t}}{U_{c,t}} = \frac{W_t}{P_t} = \frac{MPN_t}{\mathcal{M}(1-\tau)}$$

Optimal subsidy: $\mathcal{M}(1-\tau) = 1$ or, equivalently, $\tau = \frac{1}{\varepsilon}$.

• *Transactions friction* (economy with valued money): assumed to be negligible

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Monetary Policy Design in the Basic New Keynesian Model

2. Distortions associated with the presence of nominal rigidities:

• Markup variations resulting from sticky prices: $\mathcal{M}_t = \frac{P_t}{(1-\tau)(W_t/MPN_t)} = \frac{P_t\mathcal{M}}{W_t(MPN_t)}$ (assuming optimal subsidy)

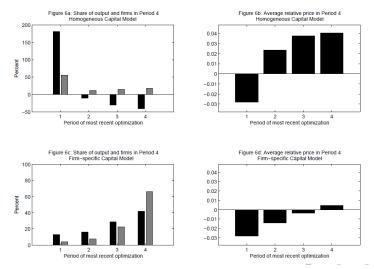
$$\implies -\frac{U_{n,t}}{U_{c,t}} = \frac{W_t}{P_t} = MPN_t \frac{\mathcal{M}}{\mathcal{M}_t} \neq MPN_t$$

Optimality requires that the average markup be stabilized at its frictionless level.

• Relative price distortions resulting from staggered price setting: $C_t(i) \neq C_t(j)$ if $P_t(i) \neq P_t(j)$. Optimal policy requires that prices and quantities (and hence marginal costs) are equalized across goods. Accordingly, markups should be identical across firms/goods at all times. Monetary Policy Design in the Basic New Keynesian Model

PRICE AND OUTPUT DISPERSION

Figure 6: Features of the Distribution of Output and Prices Across Firms



 Monetary Policy Design in the Basic New Keynesian Model

Optimal Monetary Policy in the Basic NK Model

Assumptions:

 \bullet optimal employment subsidy

 \Longrightarrow flexible price equilibrium allocation is efficient

 \bullet no inherited relative price distortions, i.e. $P_{-1}(i)=P_{-1}$ for all $i\in[0,1]$

 \implies the efficient allocation can be attained by a policy that stabilizes marginal costs at a level consistent with firms' desired markup, *given existing prices*:

- no firm has an incentive to adjust its price, i.e. $P_t^* = P_{t-1}$ and, hence, $P_t = P_{t-1}$ for $t = 0, 1, 2, \dots$ As a result the aggregate price level is fully stabilized and no relative price distortions emerge.
- equilibrium output and employment match their counterparts in the (undistorted) flexible price equilibrium allocation.

Monetary Policy Design in the Basic New Keynesian Model

Equilibrium under the Optimal Policy

$$\widetilde{y}_t = 0$$
$$\pi_t = 0$$
$$i_t = r_t^n$$

for all t.

Implementation: Some Candidate Interest Rate Rules

Non-Policy Block:

$$\widetilde{y}_{t} = -\frac{1}{\sigma} (i_{t} - E_{t} \{ \pi_{t+1} \} - r_{t}^{n}) + E_{t} \{ \widetilde{y}_{t+1} \}$$
$$\pi_{t} = \beta \ E_{t} \{ \pi_{t+1} \} + \kappa \ \widetilde{y}_{t}$$

Monetary Policy Design in the Basic New Keynesian Model

TWO FEATURES OF OPTIMAL POLICY

Stabilization of output is not desirable

It should vary one for one with the natural level of output.

Aggregate price stability is not a policy *target* It arises making all firms content with their existing prices.

Monetary Policy Design in the Basic New Keynesian Model

An Exogenous Interest Rate Rule

$$i_t = r_t^n$$

Equilibrium dynamics:

$$\begin{bmatrix} \widetilde{y}_t \\ \pi_t \end{bmatrix} = \mathbf{A_0} \begin{bmatrix} E_t \{ \widetilde{y}_{t+1} \} \\ E_t \{ \pi_{t+1} \} \end{bmatrix}$$

where

$$\mathbf{A}_{\mathbf{O}} \equiv \begin{bmatrix} 1 & \frac{1}{\sigma} \\ \kappa & \beta + \frac{\kappa}{\sigma} \end{bmatrix}$$

Shortcoming: the solution $\tilde{y}_t = \pi_t = 0$ for all t is not unique: one eigenvalue of $\mathbf{A}_{\mathbf{O}}$ is strictly greater than one.

 \rightarrow indeterminacy. (real and nominal).

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Monetary Policy Design in the Basic New Keynesian Model

An Interest Rate Rule with Feedback from Target Variables

$$i_t = r_t^n + \phi_\pi \ \pi_t + \phi_y \ \widetilde{y}_t$$

Equilibrium dynamics:

$$\begin{bmatrix} \widetilde{y}_t \\ \pi_t \end{bmatrix} = \mathbf{A}_T \begin{bmatrix} E_t \{ \widetilde{y}_{t+1} \} \\ E_t \{ \pi_{t+1} \} \end{bmatrix}$$

where

$$\mathbf{A}_T \equiv \frac{1}{\sigma + \phi_y + \kappa \phi_\pi} \begin{bmatrix} \sigma & 1 - \beta \phi_\pi \\ \sigma \kappa & \kappa + \beta (\sigma + \phi_y) \end{bmatrix}$$

Monetary Policy Design in the Basic New Keynesian Model

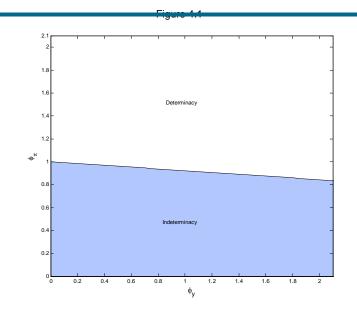
Existence and Uniqueness condition: (Bullard and Mitra (2002)):

$$\kappa (\phi_{\pi} - 1) + (1 - \beta) \phi_y > 0$$

Taylor-principle interpretation (Woodford (2000)):

$$di = \phi_{\pi} d\pi + \phi_{y} d\tilde{y} = \left(\phi_{\pi} + \frac{\phi_{y} (1 - \beta)}{\kappa}\right) d\pi$$

Monetary Policy Design in the Basic New Keynesian Model



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Monetary Policy Design in the Basic New Keynesian Model

A Forward-Looking Interest Rate Rule

$$i_t = r_t^n + \phi_\pi \ E_t\{\pi_{t+1}\} + \phi_y \ E_t\{\widetilde{y}_{t+1}\}$$

Equilibrium dynamics:

$$\begin{bmatrix} \widetilde{y}_t \\ \pi_t \end{bmatrix} = \mathbf{A}_F \begin{bmatrix} E_t \{ \widetilde{y}_{t+1} \} \\ E_t \{ \pi_{t+1} \} \end{bmatrix}$$

where

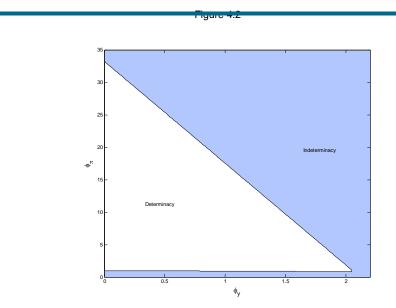
$$\mathbf{A}_{F} \equiv \begin{bmatrix} 1 - \sigma^{-1}\phi_{y} & -\sigma^{-1}\phi_{\pi} \\ \kappa(1 - \sigma^{-1}\phi_{y}) & \beta - \kappa\sigma^{-1}\phi_{\pi} \end{bmatrix}$$

Existence and Uniqueness conditions: (Bullard and Mitra (2002):

$$\begin{aligned} \kappa \left(\phi_{\pi} - 1\right) + \left(1 - \beta\right) \phi_{y} &> 0\\ \kappa \left(\phi_{\pi} - 1\right) + \left(1 + \beta\right) \phi_{y} &< 2\sigma(1 + \beta)\\ \phi_{y} &< \sigma(1 + \beta^{-1}) \end{aligned}$$

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Monetary Policy Design in the Basic New Keynesian Model



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Monetary Policy Design in the Basic New Keynesian Model

Shortcomings of Optimal Rules

- they assume observability of the natural rate of interest (in real time).
- this requires, in turn, knowledge of:
 - (i) the true model
 - (ii) true parameter values
 - (iii) realized shocks

Alternative: "simple rules", i.e. rules that meet the following criteria:

- the policy instrument depends on observable variables only,
- do not require knowledge of the true parameter values
- ideally, they approximate optimal rule across different models

Monetary Policy Design in the Basic New Keynesian Model

Simple Monetary Policy Rules

Welfare-based evaluation:

$$\mathbb{W} \equiv -E_0 \sum_{t=0}^{\infty} \beta^t \left(\frac{U_t - U_t^n}{U_c C} \right) = \frac{1}{2\lambda} E_0 \sum_{t=0}^{\infty} \beta^t \left(\kappa \ \tilde{y}_t^2 + \epsilon \ \pi_t^2 \right)$$

 \Rightarrow expected average welfare loss per period:

$$\mathbb{L} = \frac{1}{2\lambda} \left[\kappa \ var(\widetilde{y}_t) + \epsilon \ var(\pi_t) \right]$$

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See Appendix for Derivation.

Monetary Policy Design in the Basic New Keynesian Model

A Taylor Rule

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

Equivalently:

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

where $v_t \equiv \phi_y \ \hat{y}_t^n$

Equilibrium dynamics:

$$\begin{bmatrix} \widetilde{y}_t \\ \pi_t \end{bmatrix} = \mathbf{A}_T \begin{bmatrix} E_t \{ \widetilde{y}_{t+1} \} \\ E_t \{ \pi_{t+1} \} \end{bmatrix} + \mathbf{B}_T \left(\widehat{r}_t^n - \phi_y \ \widehat{y}_t^n \right)$$

where

$$\mathbf{A}_T \equiv \Omega \begin{bmatrix} \sigma & 1 - \beta \phi_{\pi} \\ \sigma \kappa & \kappa + \beta (\sigma + \phi_y) \end{bmatrix} ; \quad \mathbf{B}_T \equiv \Omega \begin{bmatrix} 1 \\ \kappa \end{bmatrix}$$

and $\Omega \equiv \frac{1}{\sigma + \phi_y + \kappa \phi_\pi}$. Note that $\hat{r}_t^n - \phi_y \ \hat{y}_t^n = -\psi_{ya}^n \left[\sigma(1 - \rho_a) + \phi_y\right] a_t$ Exercise: $\Delta a_t \sim AR(1)$ + modified Taylor rule $i_t = \rho + \phi_\pi \ \pi_t + \phi_y \ \Delta y_t$

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Monetary Policy Design in the Basic New Keynesian Model

Money Growth Peg

$$\Delta m_t = 0$$

money market clearing condition

$$\widehat{l_t} = \widetilde{y}_t + \widehat{y}_t^n - \eta \ \widehat{i_t} - \zeta_t$$

where $l_t \equiv m_t - p_t$ and ξ_t is a money demand shock following the process

$$\Delta \zeta_t = \rho_\zeta \ \Delta \zeta_{t-1} + \varepsilon_t^{\zeta}$$

Define
$$l_t^+ \equiv l_t - \zeta_t$$
. \Longrightarrow
 $\hat{i}_t = \frac{1}{\eta} \left(\tilde{y}_t + \hat{y}_t^n - \hat{l}_t^+ \right)$
 $\hat{l}_{t-1}^+ = \hat{l}_t^+ + \pi_t - \Delta \zeta_t$

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L Monetary Policy Design in the Basic New Keynesian Model

Equilibrium dynamics:

$$\mathbf{A_{M,0}} \begin{bmatrix} \widetilde{y}_t \\ \pi_t \\ l_{t-1}^+ \end{bmatrix} = \mathbf{A_{M,1}} \begin{bmatrix} E_t \{ \widetilde{y}_{t+1} \} \\ E_t \{ \pi_{t+1} \} \\ l_t^+ \end{bmatrix} + \mathbf{B_M} \begin{bmatrix} \widehat{r}_t^n \\ \widehat{y}_t^n \\ \Delta \zeta_t \end{bmatrix}$$

where

$$\mathbf{A}_{\mathbf{M},\mathbf{0}} \equiv \begin{bmatrix} 1+\sigma\eta & 0 & 0\\ -\kappa & 1 & 0\\ 0 & -1 & 1 \end{bmatrix} \quad ; \quad \mathbf{A}_{\mathbf{M},\mathbf{1}} \equiv \begin{bmatrix} \sigma\eta & \eta & 1\\ 0 & \beta & 0\\ 0 & 0 & 1 \end{bmatrix} \quad ; \quad \mathbf{B}_{\mathbf{M}} \equiv \begin{bmatrix} \eta & -1 & 0\\ 0 & 0 & 0\\ 0 & 0 & 1 \end{bmatrix}$$

Simulations and Evaluation of Simple Rules

L Monetary Policy Design in the Basic New Keynesian Model

Table 4.1: Evaluation of Simple Monetary Policy Rules						
	Taylor Rule				Constant Money Growth	
ϕ_{π}	1.5	1.5	5	1.5	-	-
ϕ_y	0.125	0	0	1	-	-
$\phi_y \ (\sigma_\zeta, ho_\zeta)$	-	-	-	-	(0,0)	(0.0063, 0.6)
$\sigma(\widetilde{y})$	0.55	0.28	0.04	1.40	1.02	1.62
$\sigma(\pi)$	2.60	1.33	0.21	6.55	1.25	2.77
welfare loss	0.30	0.08	0.002	1.92	0.08	0.38

Monetary policy at the zero lower bound of nominal interest rates

OUTLINE

1 Introduction

- Approximating and solving dynamic models
- 3 Monetary Policy in Classical Model
- 4 The Basic New Keynesian Model
- 5 Monetary Policy Design in the Basic New Keynesian Model

- Monetary policy at the zero lower bound of nominal interest rates
 - Two steady states
 - Debt, deleveraging and the liquidity trap
- 7 Discretion vs Commitment: Monetary Policy and Time-Consistency Problem
- 8
- Open Economy and Monetary Policy



Fiscal theory of price level

Monetary policy at the zero lower bound of nominal interest rates

Two steady states

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Fiscal theory of price level

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Monetary policy at the zero lower bound of nominal interest rates

└─ Two steady states

INFLATION DYNAMICS

Consider the consumption Euler equation (4.3)

$$\frac{1}{1+i_t} = \beta \operatorname{E}_t \left\{ \left(\frac{C_{t+1}}{C_t} \right)^{-\sigma} \frac{1}{\Pi_{t+1}} \right\}$$

and the simple Taylor -type rule (without output gap) in the non-linearized form

$$1+i_t=\beta^{-1}\Pi_t^{\phi_\pi}.$$

Consider the deterministic case (drop expectation operator) and substitute interest rate out from consumption Euler equation using the Taylor rule to obtain

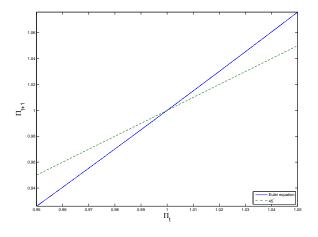
$$\Pi_t^{\phi_{\pi}} = \left(\frac{C_{t+1}}{C_t}\right)^{\sigma} \Pi_{t+1}$$

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Monetary policy at the zero lower bound of nominal interest rates

Two steady states

Phase diagram



 $\sigma = 2$, $C_{t+1}/C_t = 1$, $\phi_{\pi} = 1.5$. The steady state is $\Pi = 1$

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Monetary policy at the zero lower bound of nominal interest rates

Two steady states

INFLATION DYNAMICS AND THE ZERO LOWER BOUND (NLB)

Consider the case where the nominal interest rate is bounded by zero. This is due to existence of paper money (that we do not model here).

The Taylor rule can be modified according to

$$1+i_t=\max\left(1,\beta^{-1}\Pi_t^{\phi_{\pi}}\right).$$

and the resulting Euler equation

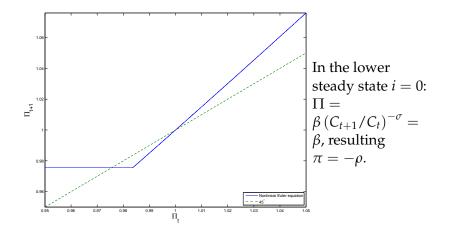
$$\max\left(1,\beta^{-1}\Pi_t^{\phi_{\pi}}\right) = \frac{1}{\beta} \left(\frac{C_{t+1}}{C_t}\right)^{\sigma} \Pi_{t+1}$$

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Monetary policy at the zero lower bound of nominal interest rates

Two steady states

PHASE DIAGRAM WITH TWO STEADY STATES



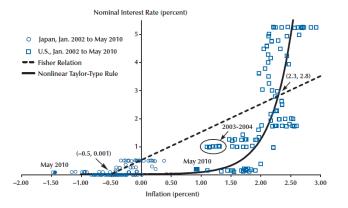
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Monetary policy at the zero lower bound of nominal interest rates

Two steady states

INTEREST RATES AND INFLATION IN JAPAN AND US

Interest Rates and Inflation in Japan and the U.S.



NOTE: Short-term nominal interest rates and core inflation rates in Japan and the United States, 2002-10. SOURCE: Data from the Organisation for Economic Co-operation and Development.

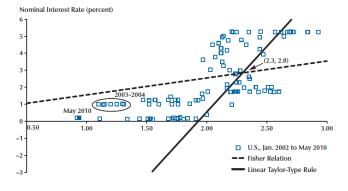
Source: Jim Bullard (2010)

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Monetary policy at the zero lower bound of nominal interest rates

Two steady states

DENIAL



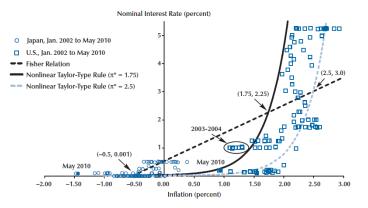
Inflation (percent)

Monetary policy at the zero lower bound of nominal interest rates

Two steady states

INCREASING INFLATION TARGET

Inflation Expectations, Interrupted



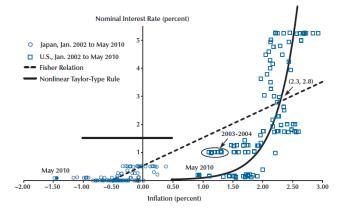
NOTE: The 2003-04 episode. Thornton (2006, 2007) argues that FOMC communications increased the perceived inflation target of the Committee.

Monetary policy at the zero lower bound of nominal interest rates

Two steady states

DISCONTINUITY

Discontinuity



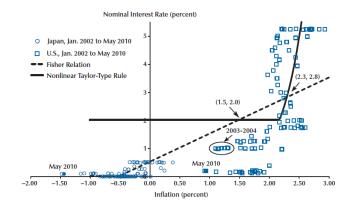
NOTE: The discontinuous Taylor-type policy rule looks unusual but eliminates the unintended steady state.

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Monetary policy at the zero lower bound of nominal interest rates

Two steady states

HISTORIC POLICY



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Monetary policy at the zero lower bound of nominal interest rates

Two steady states

OTHER PROPOSALS

Government insolvency

- Government can threaten to behave in an insolvent manner in the case of lower steady-state.
- "Unsophisticated implementation".
- Japanese aggressive fiscal policy (debt-to-GDP ratio over 200 %)

Quantitative easing

- Long-term rates falling: US, UK, euro area
- Permanent or temporary asset purchases
- General problem: what is inflation expectations will anchor to the lower steady-state.

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Forward guidance

- Commitment issues?
- Works in theory, not in practise?

Monetary policy at the zero lower bound of nominal interest rates

- Debt, deleveraging and the liquidity trap

OUTLINE

1 Introduction

- 2 Approximating and solving dynamic models
- 3 Monetary Policy in Classical Model
- 4 The Basic New Keynesian Model
- 5 Monetary Policy Design in the Basic New Keynesian Model

- Monetary policy at the zero lower bound of nominal interest rates
 - Two steady states
 - Debt, deleveraging and the liquidity trap
- 7 Discretion vs Commitment: Monetary Policy and Time-Consistency Problem
- 8
- Open Economy and Monetary Policy



Fiscal theory of price level

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Monetary policy at the zero lower bound of nominal interest rates

- Debt, deleveraging and the liquidity trap

INTRODUCTION

Debt is mentioned as a central problem behind the Great Recession.

It has long tradition

- Fisherian debt-deflation: $P \downarrow \rightarrow$ real value of debt $\uparrow \rightarrow P \downarrow$
- Hyman Minsky.
- Richard Koo (2008): Japan's lost decade due to balance sheet distress.
- Hall (2011): tightening household borrowing constraint essential to understant the crisis
- Open-economy models by Krugman (1999) and Aghion, Bacchetta and Banerjee (2001): Debt in foreign currencies + massive devaluations lead to Fisherian debt-deflation.

In our benchmark model, level of debt plays no role!

Monetary policy at the zero lower bound of nominal interest rates

- Debt, deleveraging and the liquidity trap

EGGERTSSON AND KRUGMAN (2012)

- Level of debt matters only if the distribution of debt matters.
- High indebted households have different constraints to from households with low debt.

 \longrightarrow All debt is not created equal!

- Paper divides economy to patient and impatient agents. Latter ones are subject to an exogenous debt limit.
- If limit is reduced, impatient have to cut their spending. With nominal debt and high reduction in limit, this leads to Fisherian debt-deflation.
- Impatient consume all their current income
 →Fiscal policy may have a large effect.

Monetary policy at the zero lower bound of nominal interest rates

└─ Debt, deleveraging and the liquidity trap

LEVEL OF HOUSEHOLD GROSS DEBT

HOUSEHOLD GROSS DEBT AS PERCENT OF PERSONAL INCOME

	2000	2008
United States	96	128
United Kingdom	105	160
Spain	69	130

Source: McKinsey Global Institute (2010).

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Monetary policy at the zero lower bound of nominal interest rates

- Debt, deleveraging and the liquidity trap

PRELIMINARIES

Endowment economy, no aggregate savings nor investments. All receive the same.

Two types of households

Savers, $s \ \beta_s = \beta$

Borrowers, $b \ \beta_b < \beta$, rate of time preference $\rho(b)$ $(\beta_b \equiv 1/(1 + \rho(b))$ is higher \longrightarrow appreciate future less than savers.

Each get endowment $\frac{1}{2}Y$ in each period. Positive *D* means debt and negative *D* means positive asset holdings. (Opposite to *B* in previous section.)

Monetary policy at the zero lower bound of nominal interest rates

Debt, deleveraging and the liquidity trap

UTILITY AND BUDGET CONSTRAINTS

Savers

$$\mathrm{E}_0 \sum_{t=0}^{\infty} \beta^t \log(C_t^s)$$

$$D_t^s = (1 + r_{t-1})D_{t-1}^s - rac{1}{2}Y + C_t^s$$

Borrowing limit

$$(1+r_t)D_t^s \leq D^{\text{high}}$$

Borrowers

$$\mathrm{E}_0 \sum_{t=0}^{\infty} \beta_b^t \log(C_t^b)$$

budget constraint

$$D_t^b = (1 + r_{t-1})D_{t-1}^b \ - rac{1}{2}Y + C_t^b$$

Borrowing limit

$$(1+r_t)D_t^b \leq D^{\text{high}}$$

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Monetary policy at the zero lower bound of nominal interest rates

- Debt, deleveraging and the liquidity trap

STEADY-STATE I

Assume that the borrowing limit is less than the *discounted value of output of each agent*

$$D^{\mathrm{high}} \leq rac{eta}{1-eta}rac{1}{2}Y.$$

and that the borrower need to respect the following borrowing limit

$$(1+r_t)D_t^b \le D^{\text{high}},$$

where we include the interest rate payment to borrowing limit. (This will simplify the algebra!)

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Monetary policy at the zero lower bound of nominal interest rates

- Debt, deleveraging and the liquidity trap

STEADY-STATE II

Since borrower is more impatient than saver, the steady-state is the one in which the impatient agent (borrower) will borrow up her borrowing limit

$$D^b = \frac{1}{1+r} D^{\mathrm{high}}.$$

Substitute this into the steady-state budget constraint of the borrower

$$C^b = \frac{1}{2}Y - rD^b$$

to obtain steady-state consumption

$$C^b = \frac{1}{2}Y - \frac{r}{1+r}D^{\text{high}}$$

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Monetary policy at the zero lower bound of nominal interest rates

- Debt, deleveraging and the liquidity trap

STEADY-STATE III All production (still exogenous) is consumed:

 $Y = C^s + C^b.$

substituting C^b and solving for C^s gives

$$C^s = \frac{1}{2}Y + \frac{r}{1+r}D^{\text{high}}$$

The first-order condition for saver is

$$\frac{1}{C_t^s} = (1 + r_t)\beta \, \mathbf{E}_t \, \frac{1}{C_{t+1}^s}$$

and in the steady state

$$r = \frac{1-\beta}{\beta}.$$
 (7.1)

Monetary policy at the zero lower bound of nominal interest rates

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STEADY-STATE IV

Remarks

- Borrower has negative wealth (=debt), and pays only the discounted interest on that, ie being at the borrowing limit all the time.
- Saver opposite
- Saver's discount rate β determines the real interest rate.

Monetary policy at the zero lower bound of nominal interest rates

Debt, deleveraging and the liquidity trap

DELEVERAGING I

Unexpected fall in the debt constraint: change in the attitude. $D^{high} > D^{low}$





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Wile E. Coyote moment or Minsky moment

This will result a temporary fall in the real interest rate: large fall in the ceiling will result a *negative* real rate. Assume, further, that this move $D^{\text{high}} \rightarrow D^{\text{low}}$ is rapid.

Monetary policy at the zero lower bound of nominal interest rates

Debt, deleveraging and the liquidity trap

DELEVERAGING II

To simplify: *S* short-run, *L* long-run (steady-state).

Long-run consumption Savers

Borrowers

$$\begin{split} C_L^s &= \frac{1}{2}Y + \frac{r}{1+r}D^{\text{low}} & C_L^b = \frac{1}{2}Y - \frac{r}{1+r}D^{\text{low}} \\ &= \frac{1}{2}Y + (1-\beta)D^{\text{low}}. &= \frac{1}{2}Y - (1-\beta)D^{\text{low}}. \end{split}$$
The second inequality results from (7.1).

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Monetary policy at the zero lower bound of nominal interest rates

- Debt, deleveraging and the liquidity trap

DELEVERAGING III

Let's assume that the borrower has to deleverage to new, lower debt limit within a single period such that

$$D_S = \frac{D^{\text{low}}}{1+r_S}.$$

Substitute this to her budget constraint

$$\frac{D^{\text{low}}}{1+r_S} = D^{\text{high}} - \frac{1}{2}Y + C_S^b$$

and solve the short-run consumption

$$C_S^b = \frac{1}{2}Y + \frac{D^{\text{low}}}{1+r_S} - D^{\text{high}}.$$

Since $D^{\text{high}} \gg D^{\text{low}}$ the consumption will decline substantially.

Monetary policy at the zero lower bound of nominal interest rates

- Debt, deleveraging and the liquidity trap

DELEVERAGING IV Since

$$Y = C_S^s + C_S^b$$

the short-run consumption of the saver is

$$C_S^{\rm s} = \frac{1}{2}Y - \frac{D^{\rm low}}{1+r_S} + D^{\rm high}.$$

Her consumption Euler equation gives

$$C_L^s = (1+r_S)\beta C_S^s.$$

Substituting C_L^s and C_S^s above and solving for $1 + r_S$ gives the level of real interest rate that balanances the bond market, ie makes savers to save less (=consume more):

$$1 + r_{S} = \frac{\frac{1}{2}Y + D^{\text{low}}}{\beta \frac{1}{2}Y + \beta D^{\text{high}}}.$$

Monetary policy at the zero lower bound of nominal interest rates

- Debt, deleveraging and the liquidity trap

DELEVERAGING V

To get negative real interest rate $r_S < 0$ (1 + $r_S <$ 1), we must have

$$\frac{\frac{1}{2}Y + D^{\text{low}}}{\beta \frac{1}{2}Y + \beta D^{\text{high}}} < 1$$

or

$$\beta D^{\text{high}} - D^{\text{low}} > \frac{1}{2}(1 - \beta)Y.$$
(7.2)

This condition is valid if $\beta D^{\text{high}} - D^{\text{low}}$ is high enough (in absolute terms not very high actually since $1 - \beta$ is very small). Negative real interest rate will make the saver to substitute the future consumption to current consumption, ie consume more today. Hence, the negative real interest rate would make *saver* to spend sufficiently more.

Monetary policy at the zero lower bound of nominal interest rates

- Debt, deleveraging and the liquidity trap

PRICE LEVEL I

Assume that there exist *nominal* government debt traded in zero supply, such that we get the nominal arbitrage equation (as previous section) for saver

$$\frac{1}{C_t^s} = \beta(1+i_t) \, \mathrm{E}_t \, \frac{1}{C_{t+1}^s} \frac{P_t}{P_{t+1}},$$

where P_t is the price level, and i_t is the nominal interest rate. (Cashless limit as before!)

Assumptions:

- Impose zero-lower-bound: $i_t \ge 0$.
- Monetary policy targets the price level *P*^{*}.
- Fix long-run price level $P_L = P^*$: monetary policy does its job in the long-run.

Monetary policy at the zero lower bound of nominal interest rates

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PRICE LEVEL II Then the short-run Fisher equation

$$1 + r_S = (1 + i_S) \frac{P_S}{P^\star}.$$

The consumption (nominal) Euler equation results the same condition (7.2) for nominal interest rates as above. But this cannot happen due to ZLB.

If ZLB is binding, $i_t = 0$, the (from Fisher equation) $1 + r_S = P_S/P^*$ and then — due to the condition (7.2) — we have deflation if

$$\frac{P_S}{P^{\star}} = \frac{\frac{1}{2}Y + D^{\text{low}}}{\beta \frac{1}{2}Y + \beta D^{\text{high}}} < 1$$

We need to have a drop in price level to have positive inflation in the future such that we achieve negative real interest rate.

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Monetary policy at the zero lower bound of nominal interest rates

- Debt, deleveraging and the liquidity trap

FISHERIAN DEBT DEFLATION I

 D^{high} is denominated in consumption goods (real debt). Introduce nominal debt B_t but keep the debt ceiling in real terms $D^{\text{high}} = B^{\text{high}}/P_s$.

Then the short-run consumption of borrower

$$C_S^b = rac{1}{2}Y + rac{D^{ ext{low}}}{1+r_S} - rac{B^{ ext{high}}}{P_S}.$$

If price level P_S drops, she must pay more debt down. The natural rate is now endogenous

$$1 + r_S = \frac{\frac{1}{2}Y + D^{\text{low}}}{\beta \frac{1}{2}Y + \beta \frac{B^{\text{high}}}{P_S}}.$$

Monetary policy at the zero lower bound of nominal interest rates

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FISHERIAN DEBT DEFLATION II

When price level P_S drops, the real rate becomes even more negative and making price level (from Fisher equation)

$$\frac{P_S}{P^\star} = 1 + r_S$$

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to drop even more.

Monetary policy at the zero lower bound of nominal interest rates

- Debt, deleveraging and the liquidity trap

ENDOGENOUS OUTPUT I

Assume Dixit-Stiglitz aggregate of continuum of goods as in the previous section.

The utility of each type i (i = s or b) of household is given by

$$\mathrm{E}_0\sum_{t=0}^{\infty}eta(i)^t\left[u^i\left(C_t^i
ight)-v^i\left(h_t^i
ight)
ight],$$

where h_t is hours worked.

Households are continuum of measure 1 such that

- Fraction χ_s are savers
- Fraction $\chi_b = 1 \chi_s$ are borrowers, and
- Borrowers and savers consume similar basket.

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ENDOGENOUS OUTPUT II

• Aggregate consumption is given by the weighted sum of the two groups

$$C_t = \chi_s C_t^s + \chi_b C_t^b.$$

Firms are also continuum of measure 1 such that

- each of which produce one type of the varieties the consumers like.
- Production function is linear in labour: $C_t(i) = h(i)$.
- Fraction 1λ keeps the prices fixed for one period.
- Fraction λ can change their prices all the time.
- Firms sell all the amount of goods that is demanded with the price they set, and
- hire the labour to satisfy this demand.

Monetary policy at the zero lower bound of nominal interest rates

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ENDOGENOUS OUTPUT III

The appendix of Eggertsson and Krugman (2012) derives the complete model. The main differences to the model in the earlier sections (including this one) are the following

- utility is not parameterized. We have standard assumptions regarding first and second derivatives.
- instead of Calvo frictions we have the simplified friction. The logic is close to Calvo.
- note also the employment subsidy τ .
- it is assumed that borrowers borrow up to the limit, ie in the steady-state the borrowing is binding.

Monetary policy at the zero lower bound of nominal interest rates

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ENDOGENOUS OUTPUT IV

Since production is endogenous, agents choose how much they consume and how much they work. Hence for each type i (i = s or b), the log-linearized first-order condition wrt to labour is given by

$$\widehat{W}_t = \omega \widehat{h}_t^i + \frac{1}{\sigma} \widehat{C}_t^i,$$

where

$$\begin{split} \sigma &\equiv -\frac{\overline{u}_{c}^{b}}{\overline{u}_{cc}^{b}\widehat{Y}} \equiv -\frac{\overline{u}_{c}^{s}}{\overline{u}_{cc}^{s}\widehat{Y}} > 0\\ \omega &\equiv \frac{\overline{v}_{hh}^{b}\overline{h}}{\overline{v}_{h}^{b}} \equiv \frac{\overline{v}_{hh}^{s}\overline{h}}{\overline{v}_{h}^{s}} > 0\\ \widehat{C}_{t}^{i} &\equiv \frac{C_{t}^{i}-\overline{C}^{i}}{\overline{Y}}\\ \widehat{W}_{t} &\equiv \log \frac{W_{t}}{\overline{W}}. \end{split}$$

Monetary policy at the zero lower bound of nominal interest rates

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ENDOGENOUS OUTPUT V

Borrower can deleverage by cutting her consumption or increasing hours worked. Or both. Due to linear production function

$$\widehat{Y}_t = \chi_s \widehat{h}_t^s + \chi_b \widehat{h}_t^b,$$

where $\widehat{Y}_t \equiv \log \frac{Y_t}{\overline{Y}}$. The Phillips curve

$$\pi_t = \kappa \widehat{Y} + \mathcal{E}_{t-1} \, \pi_t,$$

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where

$$\kappa \equiv \frac{\lambda}{1-\lambda} \left(\omega + 1/\sigma \right)$$
$$\pi_t \equiv \log \frac{P_t}{P_{t-1}}.$$

Monetary policy at the zero lower bound of nominal interest rates

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ENDOGENOUS OUTPUT VI

Monetary policy takes into account the zero lower bound:

$$i_t = \max\left(0, r_t^n + \phi_\pi \pi_t\right),\,$$

where $\phi_{\pi} > 1$ and r_t^n is the natural rate of interest, and $i_t = \log(1 + i_t)$.

$$\widehat{C}_t^s = \operatorname{E}_t \widehat{C}_{t+1}^s - \sigma(i_t - \operatorname{E}_t \pi_{t+1} - \bar{r}),$$

where $\bar{r} = \log \beta^{-1}$. The loglinearized resource constraint

$$\widehat{Y}_t = \chi_s \widehat{C}_t^s + \chi_b \widehat{C}_t^b.$$

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Monetary policy at the zero lower bound of nominal interest rates

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ENDOGENOUS OUTPUT VII

The action is, as before, in the behaviour of the borrower. Borrower is up against the borrowing constraint. The budget constraint

$$B_t(i) = (1 + i_{t-1})B_{t-1}(i) - W_t P_t h_t(i) - \int_0^1 \Pi_t(i) + P_t C_t$$

and the debt constraint

$$(1+r_t)\frac{B_t(i)}{P_t} \le D_t(i).$$

Due to assumption, the debt constraint is binding and we may substitute it to the budget constraint and solve for borrower's consumption

$$C_{t}^{b} = -\left(\frac{1+i_{t-1}}{1+r_{t-1}}\right) \frac{P_{t-1}}{P_{t}} D_{t-1} + \frac{1}{1+r_{t}} \frac{D_{t}}{P_{t}} + \underbrace{W_{t} h_{t}^{b}}_{t},$$

Monetary policy at the zero lower bound of nominal interest rates

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ENDOGENOUS OUTPUT VIII

Log-linearising this around $D_t = \overline{D} = \overline{D}^{\text{low}}$ gives

$$\widehat{C}_t^b = \widehat{I}_t^b + eta \widehat{D}_t - \widehat{D}_{t-1} + \gamma_D \pi_t - \gamma_D eta \left(i_t - \operatorname{E}_t \pi_{t+1} - ar{r}
ight)$$
 ,

where $\widehat{D}_t \equiv \frac{D_t - \overline{D}}{\overline{Y}}$ and $\gamma_D \equiv \overline{D} / \overline{Y}$. Few observations:

- In the long run: $\hat{Y}_L = 0$, $\hat{C}_L^b = \hat{C}_L^s = 0$, $i_L = r_L^n = \bar{r}$, and $\pi_L = 0$ (in the target).
- Price level will not revert to *P*^{*} since central bank targets inflation.

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Monetary policy at the zero lower bound of nominal interest rates

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ENDOGENOUS OUTPUT IX

To solve the model analytically, we distinguish the short-run and long-run behaviour, ie we solve the instantaneous decisions of the agents in the economy. The borrower's consumption function can be written as

$$\widehat{C}_{S}^{b} = \widehat{I}_{S}^{b} - \widehat{D} + \gamma_{D}\pi_{S} - \gamma_{D}eta(i_{s} - \pi_{L} - \overline{r}).$$

Note that in this formulation $\widehat{D} \equiv (D^{\text{high}} - \overline{D})/\overline{Y}$. Hence this term is positive under deleverageing! This differs from standard consumption function:

- big bulk of consumption is determined by *current income* — not the life-cycle income!
- this is due to the binding borrowing constraint: the borrower cannot smooth its consumption *via* capital markets.

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ENDOGENOUS OUTPUT X

• marginal propensity to consume out of current income is unity!

Saver's consumption function:

$$\widehat{C}_S^s = \widehat{C}_L^s - \sigma(i_S - \pi_L - \bar{r})$$

Note that $\hat{C}_L^b = \hat{C}_L^s = \pi_L = 0$ and, using aggregate resource constraint, saver's consumption and optimal labour decisions of each household type

$$\widehat{I}_{S}^{b} = \widehat{W}_{S} + \widehat{h}_{S}^{b} = \mu \widehat{Y}_{S} - \chi_{s} \omega^{-1} \chi_{b}^{-1} (i_{S} - \overline{r}),$$

where $\mu \equiv (1+\omega^{-1})(\omega+\sigma^{-1})-\sigma^{-1}\omega^{-1}\chi_b^{-1}.$

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ENDOGENOUS OUTPUT XI

Substitute the two consumption functions into the resource constraint and substitute the \hat{I}_{S}^{b} is in that of the borrower to obtain

$$\widehat{Y}_S = -rac{\chi_s(1/\omega+\sigma)+\chi_b\gamma_Deta}{1-\chi_b\mu}(i_S-ar{r}) - rac{\chi_b}{1-\chi_b\mu}\widehat{D} + rac{\chi_b\gamma_D}{1-\chi_b\mu}\pi_S.$$

Define

$$r_{S}^{n} \equiv \bar{r} - \frac{\chi_{b}}{\chi_{s}(1/\omega + \sigma) + \chi_{b}\gamma_{D}\beta}\widehat{D} + \frac{\chi_{b}\gamma_{D}}{\chi_{s}(1/\omega + \sigma) + \chi_{b}\gamma_{D}\beta}\pi_{S}$$

such that

$$\widehat{Y}_{S} = -\frac{\chi_{s}(1/\omega + \sigma) + \chi_{b}\gamma_{D}\beta}{1 - \chi_{b}\mu}(i_{S} - r_{S}^{n}).$$
(7.3)

Natural rate r_S^n

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ENDOGENOUS OUTPUT XII

- depends on the deleverageing (just as in the endowment economy)
- spending cuts lead to decline in real rate that lead to increase of the consumption of the saver.
- if *ω* → 0 (perfectly elastic labour), this effect disappear, since borrower supply more labour to finance the spending cuts.

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• if $\omega \to \infty$ is equal to the endowment economy.

Aggregate demand \hat{Y}_S

• looks like an IS curve

Monetary policy at the zero lower bound of nominal interest rates

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ENDOGENOUS OUTPUT XIII

- standard multiplier effect: if *i*_S falls, savers consume more, this leads to higher output and higher income of borrowers. Liquidity constraint borrowers will spend the additional income, which leads to second round effects, etc.
- When the IS curve (7.3) is combined with the (assumed) non-linear Taylor rule two steady-states ("regimes") might follow after deleverage shock:
 - After small deleverage natural interest rate remains positive but will fall to offset the decline in output
 - Large develerage will drive the economy to ZLB and output will fall below potential.

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ENDOGENOUS OUTPUT XIV Since deleverage is unanticipated (E $\pi_S = 0$), the aggregate supply (Phillips curve) will be

$$\pi_S = \kappa \widehat{Y}_S$$

which will result

$$\begin{aligned} \widehat{Y}_{S} &= \Gamma - \frac{\chi_{b}}{1 - \chi_{b}(\mu + \kappa \gamma_{D})} \widehat{D} \leq 0 \end{aligned} (7.4) \\ \pi_{S} &= \kappa \Gamma - \frac{\chi_{b}}{1 - \chi_{b}(\mu + \kappa \gamma_{D})} \widehat{D} \leq 0, \end{aligned} (7.5)$$

where $\Gamma \equiv \frac{\chi_s(\omega^{-1}+\sigma)+\chi_b\gamma_D\beta}{1-\chi_b(\mu+\kappa\gamma_D)}\bar{r}$

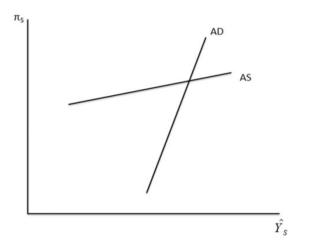
 \rightarrow AD and AS will be upward-sloping. AD will be steeper! If $\chi_b = 0$ (no impatient, constraint households), AD becomes vertical

 \rightarrow The higher χ_b it starts sloping backwards.

Monetary policy at the zero lower bound of nominal interest rates

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TOPSY-TURVY ECONONOMY



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FEATURES OF TOPSY-TURVY

Shifting AS curve (to the right), ie positive supply shock ("paradox of toil")

- rise in the willingness to work, decline in labour income taxes, rise in productivity, etc.
- Results a decline in price level
- that is contractionary via the Fisher effect
- This result holds only to the pure supply shocks but not the ones who also shift AD.

Increased price flexibility ("paradox of flexibility")

 \longrightarrow AS would be steeper

Monetary policy at the zero lower bound of nominal interest rates

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MONETARY AND FISCAL POLICY I

Monetary policy:

- Rise in expected inflation would be cure
- Higher inflation target would do it (probably not credible)
- "Forward guidance": keeping interest rates longer lower
- Even partial accommodation would help (but not enough to close the output gap).

Fiscal policy:

- Multiplier is 1!
- Ricardian equivalence does not hold!
 - (in the develarageing proces) borrower's spending depends on their current income — not expected future income.
 - (Compare with rule-of-thumb-consumers)

Monetary policy at the zero lower bound of nominal interest rates

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MONETARY AND FISCAL POLICY II

- Multiplier can be higher than one, since it will increase inflation and, hence, loosen the real burden of debt.
- It also makes people to work more: due to an increase in marginal utility of consumption.

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• Fiscal transfers (and tax-cuts) should be targeted to debt-constraint agents. Because they are the non-Ricardians.

Monetary policy at the zero lower bound of nominal interest rates

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DISCUSSION I

The model has resulted a lot of discussion:

- Wieland (2014) shows that under nominal debt constraint the "paradox of toil" does not hold anymore. He also shows some empirical evidence (oil price shocks, Japanese earthquake) to support this finding.
- Braun, Körber and Waki (2012) show that "paradox of toil" results from log-linearization. Since they use Rotemberg (1983) quadratic adjustment costs (of prices) approach, that generates resource cost of price adjustment that is absent in the resource constraint of the log-linearized economy.

Monetary policy at the zero lower bound of nominal interest rates

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DISCUSSION II

• Mertens and Ravn (2014) show that expectation driven ZLB equilibria (eg low confidence) results complete opposite fiscal policy consequences. This results upward-sloping AD curve at the ZLB, but it will be steeper than AS curve!

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 \longrightarrow The paradox of toil disappears.

Discretion vs Commitment: Monetary Policy and Time-Consistency Problem

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- Monetary Policy in Classical Model
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- 5 Monetary Policy Design in the Basic New Keynesian Model

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CENTRAL BANK INCENTIVES

No incentive to deviate

By stabilizing inflation, the central bank stabilizes output gap (*divine coincidence*). The resulting equilibrium is optimal (given the employment subsidy to compensate the imperfect competition). The *central bank has no incentive to deviate from this plan.* This is a peculiar situation.

If central bank had incentives to deviate

Modify the model such that there is a *trade-off* between inflation stabilization and closing the output gap. Then the inflation stabilization is not any more *incentive compatible*.

Discretion vs Commitment: Monetary Policy and Time-Consistency Problem

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DISCRETION VS COMMITMENT: TIME-CONSISTENCY OF OPTIMAL PLANS

Commitment

Commitment is the ability to deliver on past promises no matter what the particular current situation is.

Discretion

Under discretion, a policymaker is allowed to change policy depending on current circumstances and to disregard any past promises.

Time-consistency

A policy is **time consistent** if an action planned at time *t* for time t + i remains optimal to implement when time t + i actually arrives.

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WHY IT IS IMPORTANT TO ANALYZE TIME-CONSISTENCY IN MONETARY POLICY

Positive theories of observed rates of inflation Forces one to examine the incentives faced by the central bank. Natural starting point in explaining the actual behaviour of central banks.

Normative task of designing policy-making institutions If time-consistency is important, the models help us in designing how to set-up the policy institutions and how the institutional structure affect economy's outcome.

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BACKGROUND

Time-consistency problem arises only if central bank faces a temptation to lower the output gap by rising inflation.

Divine coincidence: inherent feature of many New-Keynesian Models

Stabilizing inflation is equivalent to stabilizing the welfare-relevant output gap! This generalizes to models with wage frictions. \longrightarrow More profound *real frictions* are needed.

Is monetary policy too easy? Are there no trade-offs?

Flexible inflation targeting

Monetary policy makers claim that — at least in the short-run — there is trade-off between stabilizing inflation or output/employment. Hence, a central bank should avoid too much instability in output while committing to a medium term inflation target

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THE MONETARY POLICY PROBLEM IN THE CASE OF AN EFFICIENT STEADY STATE

Combine two ingredients

- When nominal rigidities coexist with *real*⁷ imperfections, the flexible price equilibrium allocation is generally inefficient.
- If economic activity deviates from the natural (flex price) level, it generates variations in inflation that generates relative price distortions.

to get a monetary policy trade-off!

⁷This is new to us!

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Assume further that

- The possible inefficiencies associated with the flexible price equilibrium do not affect the steady state, which remains efficient. Hence:
- Short run deviations between the natural and efficients levels of output.

Here we analyze the optimal monetary policy problem under that assumption.

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BREAKING DIVINE COINCIDENCE

Easy candidates

Markup shock

Suppose that the elasticity of substitution contains exogenous variation, ϵ_t . Then the markup

$$\mu_t = \log\left(\frac{\epsilon_t}{\epsilon_t - 1}\right)$$

enters to New-Keynesian Phillips curve as follows

$$\pi_t = \mathbf{E}_t \, \pi_{t+1} + \lambda \left(\widehat{mc}_t + \widehat{\mu}_t \right)$$

Later, we denote $u_t \equiv \lambda \hat{\mu}_t$.

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BREAKING DIVINE COINCIDENCE...

Wage markup shock

Analogous to product market markup. Creates wedge between the marginal rate of substitution and marginal product of labour.

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MARKUP SHOCK AND THE NATURAL LEVEL OF OUTPUT

• Note that under constant markup μ , the natural rate is

$$y_t^n = -\frac{(1-\alpha)[\mu - \log(1-\alpha)]}{\sigma(1-\alpha) + \varphi + \alpha} + \phi_{ya}^n a_t$$

- The existence of the markup, i.e. the imperfect competition, reduces the natural level of output.
- If the markup is time-varying, *μ*_t, then the natural rate will fluctuate according the fluctuation in markup.
- A rise in the markup will raise inflation and reduce the efficient output: monetary policy faces a trade-off.

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Presence of markup shocks leads to

- Differences between natural y_t^n and efficient y_t^e level of output
 - Natural level *y*^{*n*} corresponds the flex price level of output, whereas
 - Efficient level y_t^e corresponds the output with flexible prices and absence of real rigidities.
 - Then

$$\tilde{y}_t \equiv (y_t - y_t^e) + (y_t^e - y_t^n)$$

- allows for short run deviations between the natural and efficient levels of output.
- assume that the gap between the two $u_t \equiv \kappa(y_t^e y_t^n)$ follows a stationary process, with zero mean:

$$u_t = \rho_u u_{t-1} + \varepsilon_t^u, \quad \varepsilon_t^u \sim \operatorname{iid}(0, \sigma_u^2).$$

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• time variations in gap between efficient and natural levels of output (reflected in markup) generate a trade-off for monetary policy, since it is then impossible to attain simultaneously zero inflation and efficient level of activity.

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The Monetary Policy Problem

$$\min E_0 \{ \sum_{t=0}^{\infty} \beta^t \left[\alpha_y \, \widetilde{y}_t^2 + \pi_t^2 \right] \}$$
(1)

subject to:

$$\pi_t = \beta \ E_t\{\pi_{t+1}\} + \kappa \ \widetilde{y}_t + u_t$$

where $\{u_t\}$ evolves exogenously according to

 $u_t = \rho_u \ u_{t-1} + \varepsilon_t$

In addition:

$$\widetilde{y}_t = -\frac{1}{\sigma} (i_t - E_t \{ \pi_{t+1} \} - r_t^n) + E_t \{ \widetilde{y}_{t+1} \}$$
(2)

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Note: utility based criterion requires $\alpha_y = \frac{\kappa}{\epsilon}$

Discretion vs Commitment: Monetary Policy and Time-Consistency Problem

No steady-state deviations

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Discretion vs Commitment: Monetary Policy and Time-Consistency Problem

No steady-state deviations

MONETARY POLICY WITH DISCRETION

Period-by-period optimization

Discretionary monetary policy relies on period-by-period optimization of the central bank. It is a sequence of unrelated decisions.

Discretionary policy

Sequential optimization; Policy that is optimal in each period without commitment to future actions.

Discretion vs Commitment: Monetary Policy and Time-Consistency Problem

No steady-state deviations

OPTIMAL POLICY WITH DISCRETION I

Define $x_t \equiv y_t - y_t^e$, then $\tilde{y}_t \equiv x_t + (y_t^e - y_t^n)$ Each period central bank chooses (x_t, π_t) to *minimize*

$$\alpha_y x_t^2 + \pi_t^2$$

subject to

$$\pi_t = \kappa x_t + v_t,$$

where $v_t \equiv \beta E_t \pi_{t+1} + u_t$ is taken as given (since the current action of the central bank does not affect future inflation). We assume that

$$u_t = \rho_u u_{t-1} + \varepsilon_t^u \quad \varepsilon_t^u \sim \operatorname{iid}(0, \sigma_u^2).$$

Discretion vs Commitment: Monetary Policy and Time-Consistency Problem

- No steady-state deviations

OPTIMAL POLICY WITH DISCRETION II Optimality condition:

$$x_t = -\frac{\kappa}{\alpha_y}\pi_t.$$

Think this as what the central bank would do if it controlled both inflation and output gap.

Substitute this to the modified expectation-augmented IS curve

$$x_t = -\frac{1}{\sigma} (i_t - E_t \pi_{t+1} - r_t^e) + E_t x_{t+1},$$

where

$$r_t^e \equiv \rho + \sigma \operatorname{E}_t \Delta y_{t+1}^e$$

to obtain

$$\pi_t = \frac{\alpha_y \beta}{\alpha_y + \kappa^2} \operatorname{E}_t \pi_{t+1} + \frac{\alpha_y}{\alpha_y + \kappa^2} u_t.$$

Discretion vs Commitment: Monetary Policy and Time-Consistency Problem

└─No steady-state deviations

OPTIMAL POLICY WITH DISCRETION III

The solution results

$$\pi_t = \alpha_y q u_t$$

$$x_t = -\kappa q u_t$$

$$i_t = r_t^n + q \left(\kappa \sigma (1 - \rho_u) + \alpha_y \rho_u\right) u_t,$$

where

$$q \equiv \frac{1}{\kappa^2 + \alpha_y (1 - \beta \rho_u)}.$$

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L Discretion vs Commitment: Monetary Policy and Time-Consistency Problem

No steady-state deviations

Implementation:

$$i_t = r_t^n + \left[(1 - \rho_u) \frac{\kappa \sigma}{\alpha_y} + \rho_u \right] \pi_t$$

uniqueness condition: $\frac{\kappa\sigma}{\alpha_y} > 1$ (likely if utility-based: $\sigma\epsilon > 1$)

Alternatively,

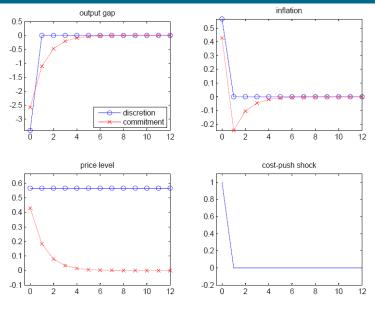
$$i_t = r_t^n + q \, \left[\kappa \sigma (1-\rho_u) + \alpha_y \rho_u\right] \, u_t + \phi_\pi (\pi_t - \alpha_y q \, \, u_t)$$

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uniqueness condition: $\phi_{\pi} > 1$.

Discretion vs Commitment: Monetary Policy and Time-Consistency Problem

^{__}No steady-state deviations</sup> Optimal Monetary Policy: Discretion vs. Commitment



Discretion vs Commitment: Monetary Policy and Time-Consistency Problem

No steady-state deviations

DEGREE OF POLICY ACCOMMODATION

- Under discretion, the central bank finds it optimal to accommodate partly the inflationary pressures resulting from the cost-push shock, and thus let inflation increase.
- However, the increase in inflation is smaller than the one that would obtain if the output gap remained unchanged:

$$\pi_t = \frac{1}{1 - \beta \rho_u} u_t.$$

Discretion vs Commitment: Monetary Policy and Time-Consistency Problem

- No steady-state deviations

COMMITMENT

Central bank is assumed to be able to commit, with full credibility, to a *policy plan* In the case of our model, the plan consists of a specification of the desired levels of inflation and output gap at

- all possible dates, and
- States of nature,
- Ourrent and future.

Discretion vs Commitment: Monetary Policy and Time-Consistency Problem

- No steady-state deviations

Optimal Policy with Commitment

State-contingent policy $\{\widetilde{y}_t, \pi_t\}_{t=0}^{\infty}$ that maximizes

$$-\frac{1}{2} E_0 \sum_{t=0}^{\infty} \beta^t (\alpha_y \ \widetilde{y}_t^2 + \pi_t^2)$$

subject to the sequence of constraints:

$$\pi_t = \beta \ E_t\{\pi_{t+1}\} + \kappa \ \widetilde{y}_t + u_t$$

Lagrangean:

$$\mathcal{L} = -\frac{1}{2} E_0 \sum_{t=0}^{\infty} \beta^t \left[\alpha_y \ \tilde{y}_t^2 + \pi_t^2 + 2\gamma_t \ (\pi_t - \kappa \ \tilde{y}_t - \beta \ \pi_{t+1}) \right]$$

First order conditions:

$$\begin{aligned} \alpha_y \; \widetilde{y}_t - \kappa \; \gamma_t &= 0 \\ \pi_t + \gamma_t - \gamma_{t-1} &= 0 \end{aligned}$$
 for $t=0,1,2,\ldots \text{and where} \; \gamma_{-1} &= 0. \end{aligned}$

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Discretion vs Commitment: Monetary Policy and Time-Consistency Problem

No steady-state deviations

Eliminating multipliers:

$$\widetilde{y}_0 = -\frac{\kappa}{\alpha_y} \,\pi_0 \tag{7}$$

$$\widetilde{y}_t = \widetilde{y}_{t-1} - \frac{\kappa}{\alpha_y} \,\pi_t \tag{8}$$

for $t = 1, 2, 3, \dots$

Alternative representation:

$$\widetilde{y}_t = -\frac{\kappa}{\alpha_y} \, \widehat{p}_t \tag{9}$$

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for $t = 0, 1, 2, \dots$ where $\hat{p}_t \equiv p_t - p_{-1}$.

L Discretion vs Commitment: Monetary Policy and Time-Consistency Problem

└─No steady-state deviations

Equilibrium

$$\widehat{p}_t = a \ \widehat{p}_{t-1} + a\beta \ E_t \{ \widehat{p}_{t+1} \} + a \ u_t$$
for $t = 0, 1, 2, \dots$ where $a \equiv \frac{\alpha_y}{\alpha_y(1+\beta)+\kappa^2}$

Stationary solution:

$$\widehat{p}_{t} = \delta \ \widehat{p}_{t-1} + \frac{\delta}{(1 - \delta\beta\rho_{u})} u_{t}$$
for $t = 0, 1, 2, ...$ where $\delta \equiv \frac{1 - \sqrt{1 - 4\beta a^{2}}}{2a\beta} \in (0, 1).$

$$\rightarrow price \ level \ targeting \ !$$
(10)

$$\widetilde{y}_t = \delta \ \widetilde{y}_{t-1} - \frac{\kappa \delta}{\alpha_y (1 - \delta \beta \rho_u)} \ u_t \tag{11}$$

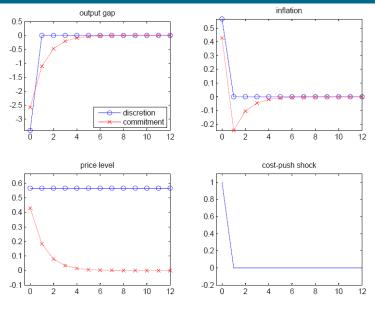
for $t = 1, 2, 3, \dots$ as well as

$$\widetilde{y}_0 = -\frac{\kappa\delta}{\alpha_y(1-\delta\beta\rho_u)} \ u_0$$

(ロ)

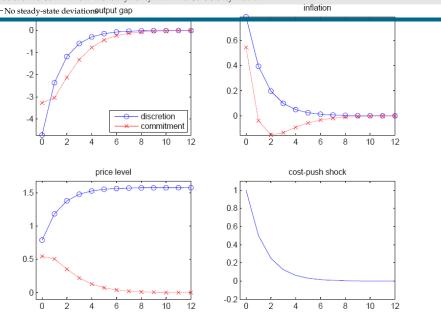
Discretion vs Commitment: Monetary Policy and Time-Consistency Problem

^{__}No steady-state deviations</sup> Optimal Monetary Policy: Discretion vs. Commitment



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Discretion vs Commitment: Monetary Policy and Time-Consistency Problem



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Discretion vs Commitment: Monetary Policy and Time-Consistency Problem

-No steady-state deviations

COMPARING DISCRETION AND COMMITMENT I

- Note, that the loss function is quadratic! Large deviations results relatively higher losses than small deviations.
- In both policies, both output gap and inflation return to zero. In discretionary policy this is reached immediately after the first period and in the case of commitment gradually.

Commitment: why persistently negative output gap and inflation?

By committing to such a response, the central bank manages to improve the output gap/inflation tradeoff in the period when shock occur.

Discretion vs Commitment: Monetary Policy and Time-Consistency Problem

No steady-state deviations

COMPARING DISCRETION AND COMMITMENT II

• A credible central bank is able tie his hands and smooth the losses over time. Discretionary central bank reoptimizes every period (that is known by the agents) and does not have this luxury.

Discretion vs Commitment: Monetary Policy and Time-Consistency Problem

No steady-state deviations

SUMMARY

Given the convexity of the loss function inflation and output gap deviations, the dampening of those dviations in the period of shock brings about an improvement in overall welfare relative to the case of discretion, because the implied benefits are not offset by the (relatively small) losses generated by the deviations in the subsequent periods (and which are absent in the discretionary case).

Stabilization bias

Discretionary policy attempts to stabilize output gap in the medium term more than the optimal policy under commitment calls for, without *internalizing* the benefits in terms of short term stability that results from allowing larger deviations of the output gap at future horizons.

Discretion vs Commitment: Monetary Policy and Time-Consistency Problem

Distorted steady-state: permanent trade-off

OUTLINE





- Discretion vs Commitment: Monetary Policy and Time-Consistency Problem
- Introduction
- No steady-state deviations
 - Discretion
 - Commitment
- Distorted steady-state: permanent trade-off





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Discretion vs Commitment: Monetary Policy and Time-Consistency Problem

- Distorted steady-state: permanent trade-off

DISTORTED STEADY-STATE

• Assume that there exist (unmodeled) real distortions/imperfections that generate permanent gap between the natural and the efficient levels of output, which is reflected in an inefficient steady-state

$$-\frac{U_n}{U_c} = MPN(1-\Phi)$$

- Since Φ > 0, the steady state levels of output and employment are below their respective efficient levels.
- Example: A non-zero steady-state markup (that is NOT corrected by a subsidy), $\Phi \equiv 1 1/M$.

Discretion vs Commitment: Monetary Policy and Time-Consistency Problem

- Distorted steady-state: permanent trade-off

• Losses are given by

$$\mathrm{E}_0\sum_{t=0}^{\infty}\beta^t\left[\frac{1}{2}\left(\pi_t^2+\alpha_x\hat{x}_t^2\right)-\Lambda\hat{x}_t\right],$$

where \hat{x}_t is the deviation of a welfare relevant output gap from its (negative) steady-state (x < 0). $\Lambda \equiv \Phi \lambda / \epsilon$.

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Discretion vs Commitment: Monetary Policy and Time-Consistency Problem

- Distorted steady-state: permanent trade-off

DISTORTED STEADY-STATE...

• New-Keynesian Phillips curve is as before, except that

$$u_t \equiv \kappa (\hat{y}_t^e - \hat{y}_t^n).$$

• Furthermore, the steady-state distortion has the same order magnitude as fluctuation in the output gap and inflation, ie "small". We need to be able analyze behavior in the neighborhood of the zero inflation steady-state.

Discretion vs Commitment: Monetary Policy and Time-Consistency Problem

- Distorted steady-state: permanent trade-off

DISCRETION I

Optimality condition

$$\hat{x}_t = rac{\Lambda}{lpha_x} - rac{\kappa}{lpha_x} \pi_t$$

and solutions

$$\pi_t = \frac{\Lambda \kappa}{\kappa^2 + \alpha_x (1 - \beta)} + \alpha_x \Psi u_t$$
$$\hat{x}_t = \frac{\Lambda (1 - \beta)}{\kappa^2 + \alpha_x (1 - \beta)} - \kappa \Psi u_t$$

The response to cost-push shock is not affected (ie previous impulse responses are valid). Stabilization bias remains. It has effect to the steady-state around which the economy fluctuates.

Discretion vs Commitment: Monetary Policy and Time-Consistency Problem

Distorted steady-state: permanent trade-off

DISCRETION II

Inflation bias: Due to inefficiently low level of output, central bank has a desire to increase output by inflating economy. This is known by the agents, and it results positive inflation. (See the constant term in the optimality conditions.)

Discretion vs Commitment: Monetary Policy and Time-Consistency Problem

Distorted steady-state: permanent trade-off

COMMITMENT I

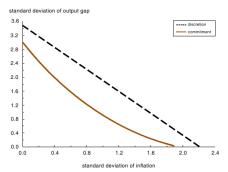
$$\hat{p}_{t} = \delta \hat{p}_{t-1} + \frac{\delta}{1 - \delta \beta \rho_{u}} u_{t} + \frac{\delta \kappa \Lambda}{1 - \delta \beta}$$
$$\hat{x}_{t} = \delta \hat{x}_{t-1} - \frac{\kappa \delta}{\alpha_{x} (1 - \delta \beta \rho_{u})} u_{t} + \Lambda \left[1 - \delta \left(1 + \frac{\kappa^{2}}{\alpha_{x} (1 - \delta \beta)} \right) \right]$$

Having a committing "technology" (ability) central bank may (asymptotically) get rid of the *inflation bias*. This is a result of additional channel where price level converges to a constant (defined by the preference parameters).

Discretion vs Commitment: Monetary Policy and Time-Consistency Problem

Distorted steady-state: permanent trade-off

TRADE-OFF



Output and Inflation Tradeoffs

Source: Dotsey

OUTLINE



- The Basic New Keynesian Model
- Basic New Keynesian Model



Open Economy and Monetary Policy

- Introduction
- Indentities
- Important implications
- Supply side
- Equilibrium
- Determination of marginal costs
- € 990 canonical representation

Open Economy and Monetary Policy

Introduction

OUTLINE



- Basic New Keynesian Model

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Open Economy and Monetary Policy

Introduction

Motivation

- The basic new Keynesian model for the closed economy
 - equilibrium dynamics: simple three-equation representation

- ability to match much of the evidence on the effects of monetary policy and technology shocks

- monetary policy: optimality of inflation targeting

- How does the introduction of open economy elements affect that analysis and prescriptions?
- Can a model with nominal rigidities account for the volatility of nominal and real exchage rates?
- What role should the exchange rate play in the design of policy? What is the optimal degree of exchange rate volatility?

Open Economy and Monetary Policy

Introduction

Some References

- Kollmann (JIE 01): nominal and real exchange rates, SOE version of EHL, pricing to market, many shocks
- Chari et al. (RES 02): two country model, Taylor type contracts, MP shocks
- Benigno and Benigno (RES 03): one-period contracts, two country, conditions for optimality of price stability
- Svensson (JIE 00): not-fully-optimizing model, strict vs. flexible CPI inflation targeting
- Benigno (JIE 04): staggered, currency union, heterogeneity
- Galí and Monacelli (RES 05): staggered, small open economy, equivalence result, optimal policy.

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- Monacelli (JMCB 05): staggered, GM with limited pass-through
- Benigno and Benigno (JME 06): staggered, two countries, optimal policy
- de Paoli (LSE dissertation): generalization of GM

Open Economy and Monetary Policy

-Introduction

MODELING CHOICES

Open economy aspect brings new concepts: exchange rate, the terms of trade, exports, imports, international financial markets.

Choose, among others, from

- Large or small economy
- Nature of international asset markets: autarky or complete markets.
- Obscrimination between domestic and foreign markets.
- Pricing behaviour: PCP, LCP
- S Tradeables vs. nontradeables,
- Trading costs,
- International policy coordination
- S Exchange rate regimes

Open Economy and Monetary Policy

Households

OUTLINE



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Open Economy and Monetary Policy

-Households

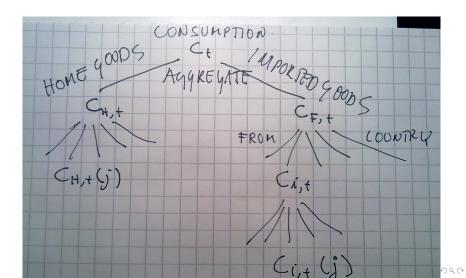
SMALL OPEN ECONOMY

- World economy is a continuum of small open economies represented by the unit interval. → performance of a single economy does not have any impact on the rest of the world.
- Productivity shocks are imperfectly correlated across the economies.
- Identical preference, technology and market structure.
- Notation: no *i*-index refers to domestic (home) economy, *i* ∈ [0, 1] subscript refers to economy *i*, one in the continuum. Superscript * correspond the world economy as a whole. Superscript *i* denotes economy *i* from its own perspective.

Open Economy and Monetary Policy

-Households

GOODS STRUCTURE



Open Economy and Monetary Policy

-Households

Households

Representative household maximizes

$$E_0 \sum_{t=0}^{\infty} \beta^t U(C_t, N_t), \qquad (9.1)$$

where (as before) N_t denotes hours of labour, and C_t is the CES composite

$$C_{t} = \left[(1-\alpha)^{\frac{1}{\eta}} C_{H,t}^{\frac{\eta-1}{\eta}} + \alpha^{\frac{1}{\eta}} C_{F,t}^{\frac{\eta-1}{\eta}} \right]^{\frac{\eta}{\eta-1}}, \qquad (9.2)$$

where α is a measure of *openness* and $1 - \alpha$ the *degree of home bias* (Gali 2nd ed. has ν). $\eta > 0$ is elasticity of substitution between domestic and foreign goods.

Open Economy and Monetary Policy

-Households

Households...

 $C_{H,t}$ is index of consumption domestic goods (<u>H</u>ome goods) give by the CES aggregator

$$C_{H,t} = \left(\int_0^1 C_{H,t}(j)^{rac{arepsilon-1}{arepsilon}}dj
ight)^{rac{arepsilon}{arepsilon-1}}$$
 ,

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where $j \in [0, 1]$ denotes the good variety.

Open Economy and Monetary Policy

-Households

Households.....

 $C_{F,t}$ is an index of imported goods given aggregegate from countries *i* by

$$C_{F,t} = \left(\int_0^1 C_{i,t}^{\frac{\gamma-1}{\gamma}} di\right)^{\frac{\gamma}{\gamma-1}}$$

with elasticity of substitution $\gamma > 0$ between importing countries. Imports from each country *i* is a bundle varieties *j*

$$C_{i,t} = \left(\int_0^1 C_{i,t}(j)^{\frac{\varepsilon-1}{\varepsilon}} dj\right)^{\frac{\varepsilon}{\varepsilon-1}}$$

Hence, the varieties in each country are produced by similar technology given by elasticity of substitution $\varepsilon > 0$.

Open Economy and Monetary Policy

-Households

BUDGET CONSTRAINT

$$\int_{0}^{1} P_{H,t}(j) C_{H,t}(j) dj + \int_{0}^{1} \int_{0}^{1} P_{i,t}(j) C_{i,t}(j) dj di + E_{t} Q_{t,t+1} D_{t+1} \leq D_{t} + W_{t} N_{t} + T_{t}, \quad t = 0, 1, 2, \dots$$
(9.3)

where

- $P_{H,t}(j)$ is the price of domestic variety *j*,
 - $P_{i,t}(j)$ is price of variety *j* imported from country *i*.
 - D_{t+1} is the nominal payoff in period t + 1 of the portfolio held at the end of period t.
 - W_t is nominal wage, and
 - T_t denotes lump-sum transfers/taxes
 - $Q_{t,t+1}$ is stochastic discount factor for one period payoff of the household's portfolio.

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Complete set of contingent claims traded internationally!

Open Economy and Monetary Policy

-Households

PRICES AND DEMAND FUNCTIONS

Aggregate price index of home goods, $P_{H,t}$, and imported goods from country $i \in [0, 1]$ (in domestic currency)

$$P_{H,t} = \left(\int_0^1 P_{H,t}(j)^{1-\varepsilon} dj\right)^{\frac{1}{1-\varepsilon}}$$
$$P_{i,t} = \left(\int_0^1 P_{i,t}(j)^{1-\varepsilon} dj\right)^{\frac{1}{1-\varepsilon}}$$

Demand for domestic good (home good) of variety *j* and imported good from country *i* of variety *j*

$$C_{H,t}(j) = \left[\frac{P_{H,t}(j)}{P_{H,t}}\right]^{-\varepsilon} C_{H,t}$$

$$C_{i,t}(j) = \left[\frac{P_{i,t}(j)}{P_{i,t}}\right]^{-\varepsilon} C_{i,t}$$
(9.4)

Open Economy and Monetary Policy

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PRICES AND DEMAND FUNCTIONS...

Aggregate price index of imported goods, $P_{F,t}$, and, finally, the aggrage consumtion price index

$$P_{F,t} = \left(\int_0^1 P_{i,t}^{1-\gamma} di\right)^{\frac{1}{1-\gamma}}$$
$$P_t = \left[(1-\alpha)P_{H,t}^{1-\eta} + \alpha P_{F,t}^{1-\eta}\right]^{\frac{1}{1-\eta}}$$

Open Economy and Monetary Policy

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PRICES AND DEMAND FUNCTIONS.....

Demand for imported good from country *i* and demand form domestic and imported aggregate goods respectively

$$C_{i,t} = \left[\frac{P_{i,t}}{P_{F,t}}\right]^{-\gamma} C_{F,t}$$

$$C_{H,t} = (1 - \alpha) \left[\frac{P_{H,t}}{P_t}\right]^{-\eta} C_t$$

$$C_{F,t} = \alpha \left[\frac{P_{F,t}}{P_t}\right]^{-\eta} C_t$$
(9.4)
(9.5)

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Open Economy and Monetary Policy

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HOUSEHOLD BUDGET CONSTRAINT REVISITED

Given the market equilibrium (for all of these aggregators), the total consumption expenditure is as follows

$$P_t C_t = P_{H,t} C_{H,t} + P_{F,t} C_{F,t}.$$

The argument is similar to the beginning of the chapter 3. The budget constraint (9.3) can be written in the following form

$$P_t C_t + E_t Q_{t,t+1} D_{t+1} \le D_t + W_t N_t + T_t.$$
(9.5)

Open Economy and Monetary Policy

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OPTIMALITY CONDITIONS

Optimality conditions are as before (suppose the familiar utility function, $U(C,N) = \frac{C^{1-\sigma}}{1-\sigma} - \frac{N^{1+\varphi}}{1+\varphi}$

$$C_t^{\sigma} N_t^{\varphi} = \frac{W_t}{P_t} \tag{9.6}$$

and

$$\mathbf{E}_t \beta \left(\frac{C_{t+1}}{C_t}\right)^{-\sigma} \left(\frac{P_t}{P_{t+1}}\right) = \mathbf{E}_t Q_{t,t+1} \tag{9.8}$$

and loglinearized as

$$w_t - p_t = \sigma c_t + \varphi n_t$$

$$c_t = E_t c_{t+1} - \frac{1}{\sigma} (i_t - E_t \pi_{t+1} - \rho)$$
(9.8)

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└─ Indentities

Fireworks of definitions!

Open Economy and Monetary Policy

Indentities

TERMS OF TRADE

Important relative price that deserve a special term! Price of something in terms of price of home good! *Bilateral terms of trade* between home and country *i*:

$$S_{i,t} \equiv \frac{P_{i,t}}{P_{H,t}}$$

and (with aggregate) effective terms of trade

$$\mathcal{S}_t \equiv rac{P_{F,t}}{P_{H,t}} = \left(\int_0^1 \mathcal{S}_{i,t}^{1-\gamma} di\right)^{rac{1}{1-\gamma}}$$

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Open Economy and Monetary Policy

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TERMS OF TRADE...

Symmetric steady-state $S_{i,t} = 1$ for all $i \in [0, 1]$. The loglinearized effective terms of trade is given by

$$s_t \equiv \log S_t = p_{F,t} - p_{H,t} = \int_0^1 s_{i,t} di$$
 (9.9)

Other useful loglinearizations

• CPI

$$p_t \equiv (1 - \alpha)p_{H,t} + \alpha p_{F,t} = p_{H,t} + \alpha s_t.$$
 (9.10)

• CPI inflation π_t and domestic inflation $\pi_{H,t}$

$$\pi_t = \pi_{H,t} + \alpha \Delta s_t \tag{9.11}$$

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EXCHANGE RATES

 $\mathcal{E}_{i,t}$ is the *bilateral nominal exchange rate*, ie price of country *i*'s currency in terms of domestic currency, eg how many euros (domestic country) one US (country *i*) dollar is worth. $P_{i,t}^{i}(j)$ is the price of country *i*'s good *j* expressed in terms of its own currency, eg iPhone (*j*) in US (*i*) dollars.

Law of one price

 $P_{i,t}(j) = \mathcal{E}_{i,t}P_{i,t}^i(j)$ for all $i, j \in [0, 1]$. Assume it holds at all times for all internationally traded goods. Aggregating results $P_{i,t} = \mathcal{E}_{i,t}P_{i,t}^i$, where $P_{i,t}^i = \left(\int_0^1 P_{i,t}^i(j)^{1-\varepsilon} dj\right)^{\frac{1}{1-\varepsilon}}$

Open Economy and Monetary Policy

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EXCHANGE RATES...

- $p_{i,t}^{i} = \int_{0}^{1} p_{i,t}^{i}(j) dj$ is the loglinerized domestic price index for country *i* (in country *i*'s own currency).
 - $e_t = \int_0^1 e_{i,t} di$ is the log of *effective nominal exchange rate*. Note that it is an index.

$$p_t^* = \int_0^1 p_{i,t}^i di$$
 is the log world price index.

Then $P_{F,t}$ may be loglinearized around symmetric steady-state as

$$p_{F,t} = \int_0^1 \left(e_{i,t} + p_{i,t}^i \right) di = e_t + p_t^*,$$

and when combined with the loglinearized terms of trade results

$$s_t = e_t + p_t^* - p_{H,t}.$$
 (9.12)

Open Economy and Monetary Policy

Indentities

EXCHANGE RATES.....

Bilateral real exchange rate with country *i* is defined as

$$\mathcal{Q}_{i,t}\equiv rac{\mathcal{E}_{i,t}P_t^i}{P_t},$$

is the ratio of the two countries' CPIs, both expressed in terms of domestic currency.

 $q_t = \int_0^1 q_{i,t} di$ is the log *effective real exchange rate*

$$q_t = \int_0^1 (e_{i,t} + p_t^i - p_t) di = e_t + p_t^* - p_t = s_t + p_{H,t} - p_t = (1 - \alpha)s_t$$

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Open Economy and Monetary Policy

Important implications

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Open Economy and Monetary Policy

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INTERNATIONAL RISK-SHARING

An analogous optimality condition to (9.8) holds also for the country *i*. When expressed in the domestic currency, it can be written as

$$\mathbf{E}_t \beta \left(\frac{C_{t+1}^i}{C_t^i}\right)^{-\sigma} \left(\frac{\mathcal{E}_t^i P_t^i}{\mathcal{E}_{t+1}^i P_{t+1}^i}\right) = \mathbf{E}_t Q_{t,t+1}.$$
(9.13)

Combining this with (9.8) (and assuming zero net foreign asset holdings and an *ex ante* identical environment) results

$$C_t = C_t^i \mathcal{Q}_{i,t}^{\frac{1}{\sigma}}.$$
(9.14)

Loglinearizing and aggregating $(c_t^* = \int_0^1 c_t^i di)$ over *i* gives

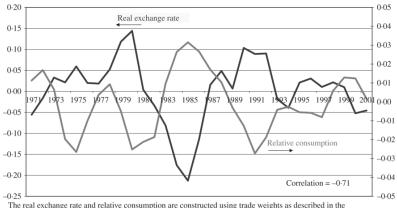
$$c_t = c_t^* + \frac{1}{\sigma}q_t = c_t^* + \left(\frac{1-\alpha}{\sigma}\right)s_t.$$
 (9.15)

Complete international asset markets equalizes consumption levels between countries up to terms of trade.

Open Economy and Monetary Policy

Important implications

INTERNATIONAL RISKSHARING



The real exchange rate and relative consumption are constructed using trade weights as described in the data appendix. Both series are logged and HP-filtered.

Grey line: $c_t - c_t^*$; Black line: q_t . Source: Corsetti et al 2008

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Open Economy and Monetary Policy

-Important implications

UNCOVERED INTEREST PARITY

Allow households to invest both domestic B_t and foreign B_t^* one-period bonds. The budget constraint may be written as

$$P_tC_t + Q_{t,t+1}B_{t+1} + Q_{t,t+1}^* \mathcal{E}_t B_{t+1}^* \le B_t + \mathcal{E}_t B_t^* + W_t N_t + T_t.$$
(9.16)

The optimality conditions wrt to these assets are

$$\beta \operatorname{E}_{t} \left(\frac{C_{t+1}}{C_{t}} \right)^{-\sigma} \left(\frac{P_{t}}{P_{t+1}} \right) = Q_{t,t+1},$$

$$\beta \operatorname{E}_{t} \left(\frac{C_{t+1}}{C_{t}} \right)^{-\sigma} \left(\frac{P_{t}}{P_{t+1}} \right) \left(\frac{\mathcal{E}_{t+1}}{\mathcal{E}_{t}} \right) = Q_{t,t+1}^{*}.$$

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Combining these results

$$\mathrm{E}_t\left(\frac{\mathcal{E}_{t+1}}{\mathcal{E}_t}\right) = \frac{Q_{t,t+1}^*}{Q_{t,t+1}},$$

whose loglinear form is the familiar

$$i_t = i_t^* + \mathcal{E}_t \,\Delta e_{t+1}$$

Combining this with the definition of terms of trade, we find that

$$s_t = \mathbf{E}_t \sum_{k=0}^{\infty} \left[(i_{t+k}^* - \pi_{t+k+1}^*) - (i_{t+k} - \pi_{H,t+k+1}) \right].$$

That express the terms of trade as the expected sum of real interest rate differential. Note, however, that this is not an equilibrium condition. It simply combines the two from previous slide with the definition of the terms of trade.

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Open Economy and Monetary Policy

-Supply side

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- Basic New Keynesian Model



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Open Economy and Monetary Policy

-Supply side

FIRMS AND TECHNOLOGIES

The supply side follows the very same structure as in the basic New-Keynesian model. We assume constant-returns-to-scale, $\alpha = 0$ (according to notation of the chapter 3). Firms price is the domestic price $P_{H,t}(j)$ (price index of domestic production). Therefore, the marginal costs area

$$mc_t = -\nu + w_t - p_{H,t} - a_t$$

where $\nu \equiv -\log(1-\tau)$ (employment subsidy). The Calvo-pricing applies here too:

$$\bar{p}_{H,t} = \mu + (1 - \beta\theta) \operatorname{E}_{t} \sum_{k=0}^{\infty} (\beta\theta)^{k} (mc_{t+k} + p_{H,t+k}), \qquad (9.17)$$

where $\bar{p}_{H,t}$ denotes the price of firms allowed to optimize.

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Open Economy and Monetary Policy

Equilibrium

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- Basic New Keynesian Model



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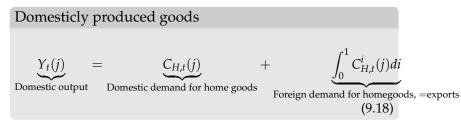
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-Open Economy and Monetary Policy

Equilibrium

GOODS MARKET CLEARING



Notice, that due to nested structure the demand for domestic good *j* in country *i* is given by

$$C_{H,t}^{i}(j) = \alpha \left(\frac{P_{H,t}(j)}{P_{H,t}}\right)^{-\epsilon} \underbrace{\left(\frac{P_{H,t}}{\mathcal{E}_{i,t}P_{F,t}^{i}}\right)^{-\gamma}}_{=C_{F,t}^{i}} \underbrace{\left(\frac{P_{F,t}^{i}}{P_{t}^{i}}\right)^{-\eta}C_{t}^{i}}_{=C_{F,t}^{i}}$$

Open Economy and Monetary Policy

– Equilibrium

EXPRESSING (9.8) IN TERMS OF OUTPUT

Aggregate (9.18) and express in terms of terms of trade

$$Y_{t} \equiv \left[\int_{0}^{1} Y_{t}(j)^{1-\frac{1}{\varepsilon}} dj\right]^{\frac{\varepsilon}{\varepsilon-1}}$$

$$= (1-\alpha) \left(\frac{P_{H,t}}{P_{t}}\right)^{-\eta} C_{t} + \alpha \int_{0}^{1} \left(\frac{P_{H,t}}{\mathcal{E}_{i,t}P_{F,t}^{i}}\right)^{-\gamma} \left(\frac{P_{F,t}^{i}}{P_{t}^{i}}\right)^{-\eta} C_{t}^{i} di$$

$$= \left(\frac{P_{H,t}}{P_{t}}\right)^{-\eta} \left[(1-\alpha)C_{t} + \alpha \int_{0}^{1} \left(\frac{\mathcal{E}_{i,t}P_{F,t}^{i}}{P_{H,t}}\right)^{\gamma-\eta} \mathcal{Q}_{i,t}^{\eta} C_{t}^{i} di\right]$$

$$= \left(\frac{P_{H,t}}{P_{t}}\right)^{-\eta} C_{t} \left[(1-\alpha) + \alpha \int_{0}^{1} (\mathcal{S}_{t}^{i} \mathcal{S}_{i,t})^{\gamma-\eta} \mathcal{Q}_{i,t}^{\eta-\frac{1}{\sigma}} di\right] \quad (9.19)$$

The last step comes from (9.14).

Open Economy and Monetary Policy

– Equilibrium

In the Cobb-Douglas case, ie $\sigma = \eta = \gamma = 1$ this aggregates as

$$Y_t = \mathcal{S}_t^{\alpha} C_t. \tag{9.20}$$

Note that at the world level, the terms of trade is unity, ie $\int_0^1 s_t^i di = 0$. The loglinear approximation of (9.19) around the symmetric steady state is the following

$$y_t = c_t + \alpha \gamma s_t + \alpha \left(\eta - \frac{1}{\sigma}\right) q_t = c_t + \frac{\alpha \omega}{\sigma} s_t, \qquad (9.21)$$

where $\omega \equiv \sigma \gamma + (1 - \alpha)(\sigma \eta - 1)$. Aggregating the country *i* counterparts of (9.21) over all countries results

$$y_t^* \equiv \int_0^1 y_t^i di = \int_0^1 c_t^i + \frac{\alpha \omega}{\sigma} s_t^i di = \int_0^1 c_t^i di \equiv c_t^*.$$
 (9.22)

Open Economy and Monetary Policy

– Equilibrium

Combine (9.21), (9.15) and (9.22) to express output y_t in terms of world demand and terms of trade as

$$y_t = y_t^* + \frac{1}{\sigma_\alpha} s_t, \tag{9.23}$$

where $\sigma_{\alpha} \equiv \frac{\sigma}{1+\alpha(\omega-1)} > 0$. Finally, combining (9.8) with (9.21) gives

$$y_{t} = E_{t} y_{t+1} - \frac{1}{\sigma} (i_{t} - E_{t} \pi_{t+1} - \rho) - \frac{\alpha \omega}{\sigma} E_{t} \Delta s_{t+1}$$

= $E_{t} y_{t+1} - \frac{1}{\sigma} (i_{t} - E_{t} \pi_{H,t+1} - \rho) - \frac{\alpha \Theta}{\sigma} E_{t} \Delta s_{t+1}$
= $E_{t} y_{t+1} - \frac{1}{\sigma_{\alpha}} (i_{t} - E_{t} \pi_{H,t+1} - \rho) + \alpha \Theta E_{t} \Delta y_{t+1}^{*}$ (9.24)

Open Economy and Monetary Policy

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COEFFICIENTS IN (9.24)

- Real rate sensitivity: *σ_α < σ* in the case *ω >* 1, ie when *η* and *γ* are high.
- Foreign output growth sensitivity:

$$\Theta \equiv (\sigma\gamma - 1) + (1 - \alpha)(\sigma\eta - 1) = \omega - 1$$

is positive if η and γ are high (relative to σ).

Intuition: direct negative effect of an increase in the real rate on aggregate demand and output is amplified by the induced ral appreaciation (and the resulting switch toward foreign goods). It is dampened by expected real depreciation (CPI inflation is higher than domestic inflation) which dampens the change in the consumption based real rate $i_t - E_t \pi_{t+1}$ (relative to $i_t - E_t \pi_{H,t+1}$).

Open Economy and Monetary Policy

– Equilibrium

THE TRADE BALANCE

In the pure Cobb-Douglas (eg $\omega = 0$) case (9.19) results

$$P_{H,t}Y_t = P_tC_t, \quad t > 0.$$

which means that the trade balance

$$nx_t \equiv \left(\frac{1}{Y}\right) \left(Y_t - \frac{P_t}{P_{H,t}}C_t\right)$$

is zero all the time. Loglinearize to obtain

$$nx_t = y_t - c_t - \alpha s_t = \alpha \left(\frac{\omega}{\sigma} - 1\right) s_t.$$
(9.25)

Hence, the sign of net exports is ambiguous and depends on (as usual) the elasticities of substitution!

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Determination of marginal costs

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Open Economy and Monetary Policy

Determination of marginal costs

OUTPUT AND EMPLOYMENT

Labour market clearing condition is

$$N_t \equiv \int_0^1 N_t(j) dj = \frac{Y_t}{A_t} \int_0^1 \left(\frac{P_t(j)}{P_t}\right)^{-\varepsilon} dj.$$

Loglinearizing

$$y_t = a_t + n_t \tag{9.26}$$

Calvo-pricing implies

$$\pi_{H,t} = \beta \operatorname{E}_t \pi_{H,t+1} + \underbrace{\frac{(1 - \beta \theta)(1 - \theta)}{\theta}}_{\equiv \lambda} \hat{mc}_t.$$
(9.27)

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Open Economy and Monetary Policy

- Determination of marginal costs

Marginal cost is given by

$$mc_{t} = -\nu + (w_{t} - p_{H,t}) - a_{t}$$

= $-\nu + (w_{t} - p_{t}) + (p_{t} - p_{H,t}) - a_{t}$
= $-\nu + \sigma c_{t} + \varphi n_{t} + \alpha s_{t} - a_{t}$
= $-\nu + \sigma y_{t}^{*} + \varphi y_{t} + s - (1 + \varphi)a_{t}$ (9.28)
= $-\nu + (\sigma_{\alpha} + \varphi)y_{t} + (\sigma - \sigma_{\alpha})y_{t}^{*} - (1 + \varphi)a_{t}$ (9.29)

Channels

- φ : output via employment
- σ_{α} : output via terms of trade
- σ : world output via consumption (real wage)
- σ_{α} : world output via terms of trade

Open Economy and Monetary Policy

- Determination of marginal costs

MARGINAL COSTS AND OUTPUT GAP

Under flexible prices

$$mc_t = -\mu$$
.

and it is the same form as (9.29)

$$(\sigma_{\alpha}+\varphi)y_t^n=\nu-\mu+(1+\varphi)a_t-(\sigma-\sigma_{\alpha})y_t^*.$$

Solve a_t , substitute into (9.29) and note that the foreign output y_t^* is independent of domestic factors to obtain

$$\hat{mc} = (\sigma_{\alpha} + \varphi)\tilde{y}_t$$

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-Open Economy and Monetary Policy

Equilibrium dynamics: a canonical representation

OUTLINE



- Basic New Keynesian Model



Open Economy and Monetary Policy

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- Equilibrium dynamics: a canonical representation

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Copen Economy and Monetary Policy

- Equilibrium dynamics: a canonical representation

Equilibrium Dynamics in the SOE: A Canonical Representation

$$\pi_{H,t} = \beta \ E_t \{ \pi_{H,t+1} \} + \kappa_\alpha \ \widetilde{y}_t$$
$$\widetilde{y}_t = E_t \{ \widetilde{y}_{t+1} \} - \frac{1}{\sigma_\alpha} \left(i_t - E_t \{ \pi_{H,t+1} \} - r_t^n \right)$$

where

$$\begin{split} \widetilde{y}_t &= y_t - y_t^n \\ y_t^n &= \Omega + \Gamma \; a_t + \alpha \Psi \; y_t^* \\ r_t^n &\equiv \; \rho - \sigma_\alpha \Gamma(1 - \rho_a) \; a_t + \alpha \sigma_\alpha (\Theta + \Psi) \; E_t \{ \Delta y_{t+1}^* \} \end{split}$$

$$\begin{split} \kappa_{\alpha} &\equiv \lambda \left(\sigma_{\alpha} + \varphi \right) \quad ; \quad \sigma_{\alpha} \equiv \frac{\sigma}{\left(1 - \alpha \right) + \alpha \omega} \quad ; \quad \omega \equiv \sigma \gamma + \left(1 - \alpha \right) \left(\sigma \eta - 1 \right) \\ \Gamma &\equiv \frac{1 + \varphi}{\sigma_{\alpha} + \varphi} \quad ; \quad \Psi \equiv - \frac{\Theta \sigma_{\alpha}}{\sigma_{\alpha} + \varphi} \end{split}$$

Role of openness: assuming high substitutability (high η, γ)

$$\frac{\partial \sigma_{\alpha}}{\partial \alpha} < 0 \qquad ; \qquad \frac{\partial \kappa_{\alpha}}{\partial \alpha} < 0$$

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-Open Economy and Monetary Policy

-Optimal monetary policy

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Open Economy and Monetary Policy

Optimal monetary policy

OPEN-ECONOMY DISTORTIONS

First of all: this is model dependent!

- Imperfect competition (monopoly power): corrected with employment subsidy 1τ .
- Staggered (Calvo) price setting, resulting fluctuations in the markup: corrected by the inflation stabilization.
- Terms of trade distortion arising from imperfect substitutability of domestic and foreign goods: increase employment subsidy.

Policy that stabilizes domestic inflation maximizes welfare. Nominal exchange rate, CPI inflation are adjusting to replicate the response of the terms of trade that would obtained under flexible prices.

Copen Economy and Monetary Policy

Optimal monetary policy

Optimal Monetary Policy

Background and Strategy

A Special Case

$$\sigma = \eta = \gamma = 1$$

Optimality of Flexible Price Equilibrium:

$$(1-\tau)(1-\alpha) = 1 - \frac{1}{\epsilon}$$

Implied Monetary Policy Objectives

$$y_t = y_t^n$$
$$\pi_{H,t} = 0$$

for all t.

Implementation

$$i_t = r_t^n + \phi_\pi \ \pi_{H,t} + \phi_y \ \widetilde{y}_t$$

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Copen Economy and Monetary Policy

Optimal monetary policy

Evaluation of Alternative Monetary Policy Regimes

Welfare Losses (special case)

$$\mathbb{W} = - \frac{(1-\alpha)}{2} \sum_{t=0}^{\infty} \beta^t \left[\frac{\epsilon}{\lambda} \pi_{H,t}^2 + (1+\varphi) \, \tilde{y}_t^2 \right]$$

Average period losses

$$\mathbb{V} = -\frac{(1-\alpha)}{2} \left[\frac{\epsilon}{\lambda} var(\pi_{H,t}) + (1+\varphi) var(\widetilde{y}_t)\right]$$

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- Open Economy and Monetary Policy

Optimal monetary policy

Three Simple Rules

Domestic inflation-based Taylor rule (DITR)

 $i_t = \rho + \phi_\pi \pi_{H,t}$

CPI inflation-based Taylor rule (CITR):

$$i_t = \rho + \phi_\pi \pi_t$$

Exchange rate peg (PEG)

$$e_t = 0$$

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Impulse Responses and Welfare Evaluation

-Open Economy and Monetary Policy

Impulse responses

OUTLINE

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Copen Economy and Monetary Policy

Impulse responses

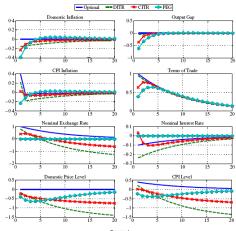
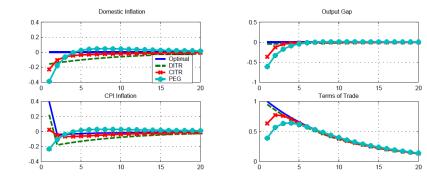


FIGURE 1 Impulse responses to a domestic productivity shock under alternative policy rules

Open Economy and Monetary Policy

- Impulse responses

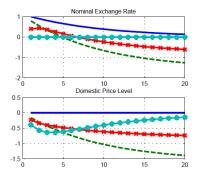
IMPULSE RESPONSES TO POSITIVE TECHNOLOGY SHOCK

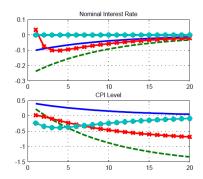


Open Economy and Monetary Policy

- Impulse responses

IMPULSE RESPONSES TO POSITIVE TECHNOLOGY SHOCK





Open Economy and Monetary Policy

Extentions

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- Basic New Keynesian Model



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1 canonical representation

Copen Economy and Monetary Policy

-Extentions

TABLE 1

Cyclical properties of alternative policy regimes						
	Optimal sd%	DI Taylor sd%	CPI Taylor sd%	Peg sd%		
Output	0.95	0.68	0.72	0.86		
Domestic inflation	0.00	0.27	0.27	0.36		
CPI inflation	0.38	0.41	0.27	0.21		
Nominal I. rate	0.32	0.41	0.41	0.21		
Terms of trade	1.60	1.53	1.43	1.17		
Nominal depr. rate	0.95	0.86	0.53	0.00		

Note: Sd denotes standard deviation in %.

TABLE 2

Contribution to welfare losses

	DI Taylor	CPI Taylor	Peg		
Benchmark $\mu = 1.2, \varphi = 3$					
Var(domestic infl)	0.0157	0.0151	0.0268		
Var(output gap)	0.0009	0.0019	0.0053		
Total	0.0166	0.0170	0.0321		
Low steady state mark-up $\mu = 1.1$, $\varphi = 3$					
Var(Domestic infl)	0.0287	0.0277	0.0491		
Var(Output gap)	0.0009	0.0019	0.0053		
Total	0.0297	0.0296	0.0544		
Low elasticity of labour supply $\mu = 1.2$, $\varphi = 10$					
Var(Domestic infl)	0.0235	0.0240	0.0565		
Var(Output gap)	0.0005	0.0020	0.0064		
Total	0.0240	0.0261	0.0630		
Low mark-up and elasticity of labour supply $\mu = 1.1$, $\varphi = 10$					
Var(Domestic infl)	0.0431	0.0441	0.1036		
Var(Output gap)	0.0005	0.0020	0.0064		
Total	0.0436	0.0461	0.1101		

Note: Entries are percentage units of steady state consumption.

Open Economy and Monetary Policy

-Extentions

An Extension with Imperfect Pass-Through (Monacelli JIE 05)

Setup as in GM, with rest of the world modelled as a single economy.

Key Assumption:

- imports sold through retail firms
- price at the dock: $e_t + p_{Ft}^*(j)$
- staggered price setting by retailers \implies in general, $p_{F,t}(j) \neq e_t + p_{F,t}^*(j)$

Law of One Price Gap:

$$\psi_{F,t} \equiv e_t + p_t^* - p_{F,t}$$

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Consistent with the evidence (Campa and Goldberg (REStat 05):

- partial pass-through in the short run
- full pass through in the long run (for most industries).

Copen Economy and Monetary Policy

-Extentions

Imported Goods Inflation:

$$\pi_{F,t} = \beta E_t \{ \pi_{F,t+1} \} + \lambda_F \ \psi_{F,t}$$

Domestic Goods Inflation

$$\pi_{H,t} = \beta E_t \{ \pi_{H,t+1} \} + \lambda_H \ \widehat{mc}_t$$

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 \Longrightarrow impossibility of replicating flexible price allocation

 \implies emergence of a policy trade-off

 \implies gains from commitment

OUTLINE



Introduction

- Approximating and solving dynamic models
- Monetary Policy in Classical Model
- 4 The Basic New Keynesian Model
- Monetary Policy Design in the Basic New Keynesian Model

- 6 Monetary policy at the zero lower bound of nominal interest rates
- Discretion vs Commitment: Monetary Policy and Time-Consistency Problem



Open Economy and Monetary Policy



Fiscal theory of price level

INTRODUCTION

The fiscal theory of price level (FTPL) tries to fill some gaps in the previous analysis by addressing

- what determines the price level under passive interest rate rules (or fixed interest rate)
- interpreting the public sector present value of the budget constraint
- implicit assumptions about fiscal policy in the previously set monetary theory
- Sargent and Wallace (1981) game of chicken

The theory remains controversial but has generated interest in the current crisis of euro area.

It emphasizes the role of nominal public sector liabilities and their valuation.

See the new book by Cochrane.

(The slides of this section borrow extensive from Eric Leeper's mini-course.)

BIG PICTURE I

Canonical models, like the basic New-Keynesian model, assume:

- MP can and does control inflation
- P can and does ensure solvency
- MP optimal or obeys Taylor-type rule: unconstrained or "active"
- FP takes MP and private behavior as given and stabilizes debt: constrained or "passive"

Makes sense in normal times. MP is omnipotent and FP trivial. Modeling convention a stretch since 2008 What have policies actually been doing?

 MP at or near zero lower bound: Aggressive MP has pursued growht: thrown Taylor principle out the window

BIG PICTURE II

② FP bouncing between stimulus and austerity: IMF advice

- 2008–2009: urgent need to stimulate
- 2010–2011: urgent need to consolidate
- 2012: urgent need for stimulative consolidation ("growsterity")

How can such policies anchor monetary expectations on inflation target?

How can such policies anchor fiscal expectations on debt stabilization?

Need to understand implications of policy interactions that deviate from convention

Short-run reasons:

• Europe enters second recession, emerging economies slowing down, U.S. on brink of new recession, Japan still stuck

BIG PICTURE III

- Ubiquitous tradeoff between stabilization and sustainability
- What are effect of fiscal policy when MP pegs rate?

Long-run reasons:

- Ageing populations and unfunded old-age benefits
- Huge uncertainty about future fiscal policies
- What are impacts of unresolved long-run fiscal stress?

Conventional modeling cannot address these issues: assumes away the problems

The model I

Endowment economy at the cashless limit, complete financial markets, one-period nominal debt. Representative household maximizes

$$\mathsf{E}_0\sum_{t=0}^{\infty}U(C_t),$$

subject to the following budget constraint

$$P_tC_t + P_t\tau_t + E_t(Q_{t,t+1}B_t) = P_tY_t + P_tG_t + B_{t-1}, \quad B_{-1} > 0$$

where

- τ_t is the tax (and other) revenues of the government
- G_t is government's expenditures (or purchases more concretely)

The model II

 $s_t \equiv \tau_t - G_t$ government's primary surplus. Define the real stochastic discount factor

$$Q_{t,t+j} = \prod_{k=0}^{j} Q_{t,t+k}, \quad Q_{t,t} = 1.$$

The intertemporal budget constraint can be written as

$$E_t \sum_{j=0}^{\infty} Q_{t,t+j} C_{t+j} = \frac{B_{t-1}}{P_t} + E_t \sum_{j=0}^{\infty} Q_{t,t+j} Y_{t+j} - E_t \sum_{j=0}^{\infty} Q_{t,t+j} S_{t+j}.$$

and the transversality condition

$$\lim_{T\to\infty} \mathbf{E}_t \left(Q_{t,t+T} \frac{B_{T-1}}{P_T} \right) = 0.$$

The model III

(no infinite asset accumulation) Impose $Y_t = C$ (endowment economy), denote $\frac{1}{1+i_t} = Q_{t,t+1}$ and the above transversality condition to get the following optimality conditions

$$\frac{1}{1+i_t} = \beta \operatorname{E}_t \frac{P_t}{P_{t+1}} \equiv \beta \operatorname{E}_t \frac{1}{\Pi_{t+1}}$$
$$\frac{B_{t-1}}{P_t} = \operatorname{E}_t \sum_{j=0}^{\infty} \beta^j s_{t+j}.$$

Price sequence $\{P_t\}$ must satisfy these to be an equilibrium. Without any additional restrictions from policy behaviour, there are many possible equilibrium $\{P_t\}$ sequences.

POLICY RULES I

Specify the policy rules and the government budget constraint

$$\frac{1}{1+i_t} = \frac{1}{1+i^*} + \alpha \left(\frac{1}{\Pi_t} - \frac{1}{\Pi^*}\right)$$
$$s_t = s^* + \gamma \left(\frac{B_{t-1}}{P_t} - b^*\right)$$
$$\frac{E_t \left(Q_{t,t+1}B_t\right)}{P_t} + s_t = \frac{B_{t-1}}{P_t}.$$

Steady state

$$\frac{B_{t-1}}{P_t} = b^{\star}, \quad s^{\star} = (1-\beta)b^{\star}, \quad 1+i^{\star} = \frac{\Pi^{\star}}{\beta}, \quad m^{\star} = \beta.$$

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POLICY RULES II

Combine policy rules with equilibrium conditions to obtain

$$E_t \left(\frac{1}{\Pi_{t+1}} - \frac{1}{\Pi^*} \right) = \frac{\alpha}{\beta} \left(\frac{1}{\Pi_t} - \frac{1}{\Pi^*} \right)$$
$$\frac{B_t}{P_{t+1}} - b^* = \frac{1 - \gamma}{\beta} \left(\frac{B_{t-1}}{P_t} - b^* \right).$$

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Policy tasks

- Control inflation
- Stabilize public debt

POLICY RULES III

Two different policy mixes can accomplish these tasks

Active MP/passive FP

Active monetary policy, and passive fiscal policy: \longrightarrow MP targets inflation; FP targets real debt. Normal state of affairs

Passive MP/active FP

Passive monetary policy, active fiscal policy: \longrightarrow MP maintains the value of debt, and FP controls inflation. Can arise in an era of fiscal stress.

REGIME OF ACTIVE MONETARY POLICY I

Familiar:

• monetary policy targets inflation by adjusting nominal interest rates aggressively:

$$\frac{\alpha}{\beta} > 1$$

• fiscal policy adjusts future surpluses to cover interest plus principal of the debt

$$rac{1-\gamma}{eta} < 1, \quad \Longleftrightarrow \quad \gamma > 1-eta.$$

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Equilibrium

REGIME OF ACTIVE MONETARY POLICY II • Unique bounded equilibrium

$$\Pi_t = \Pi^*$$

• evolution of the government debt

$$\mathbf{E}_t \frac{B_t}{P_{t+1}} - b^\star = \frac{1 - \gamma}{\beta} \left(\frac{B_{t-1}}{P_t} - b^\star \right)$$

which results $E_t b_T \rightarrow b^*$ when $T \rightarrow \infty$.

Keeping the *phase-diagram of the ZLB section* in mind, we cannot rule out

$$\lim_{T\to\infty}\Pi_T=\infty.$$

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by monetary policy and private behaviour. Can be resolved only by fiscal policy!

REGIME OF ACTIVE MONETARY POLICY III

- any shock that changes debt must create expectations that future surpluses will adjust to stabilize debt value.
- people must believe that those adjustments will occur
- this eliminates the wealth effect from government debt
 →Ricardian fiscal policy!
- Fiscal expectations must be achored!

In other words: MP delivers the equilibrium inflation process, FB stabilizes the debt such that the equilibrium condition

$$\frac{B_{t-1}}{P_t} = \mathbf{E}_t \sum_{j=0}^{\infty} \beta^j s_{t+j}$$

is satisfied.

REGIME OF PASSIVE MONETARY POLICY I

Most of the governments issue nominal bonds: 90 % US, 80 % UK, etc.

In passive monetary policy, active fiscal policy regime

- Fiscal policy sets primary surpluses independently of the debt.
- Monetary policy prevents interest payments on debt from destabilizing debt.

Nominal debt is revalued to align its value with expected surpluses: price level is defined by the equilibrium condition

$$\frac{B_{t-1}}{P_t} = \mathbf{E}_t \sum_{j=0}^{\infty} \beta^j s_{t+j}.$$

In other words:

REGIME OF PASSIVE MONETARY POLICY II

• Fiscal policy responds weakly (or not at all) to state of government indebtedness (*B*_{*t*-1}):

$$\gamma < 1 - \beta$$

• Monetary policy prevents nominal interest rate from reacting strongly to inflation:

$$0 < \frac{\alpha}{\beta} < 1$$

Consider a special case where $\alpha = \gamma = 0$:

- MP sets $1 + i_t$ exogenously
- FB sets $\{s_t\}$ exogenously

REGIME OF PASSIVE MONETARY POLICY III

In equilibrium

$$E_t \frac{1}{\prod_{t+1}} = \frac{1}{\beta(1+i^{\star})} = \frac{1}{\Pi^{\star}}$$

and price level is solved from

$$\frac{B_{t-1}}{P_t} = \mathcal{E}_t \sum_{j=0}^{\infty} \beta^j s_{t+j}.$$

note that at period t, B_{t-1} and $E_t s_{t+j}$ are given $\longrightarrow P_t$ becomes endogenous. To summarize:

• FP delivers unique equilibrium price process

REGIME OF PASSIVE MONETARY POLICY IV

- taking this inflation process as given, MP must choose compatible interest rate policy: stabilizes debt
- this imposes restrictions on *P*_t and on monetary policy if price level remains stable.

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DISCUSSION I

The equilibrium condition

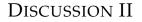
- Holds any model, and any regime
 →no empirical tests of regimes possible
- It is not an "intertemporal government budget constraint" since we have imposed market clearing, optimality conditions, transversality condition
- debt valuation equation (like stock valuation)

Other issues

- ? is about segniorage where as FTPL is not
- Debt maturity structure: MP is not impotent but it cannot control both actual and expected inflation

 \longrightarrow Consol: MP determines only the timing, whereas FP determines the present value of inflation.

Advanced Macroeconomics 4 (ECOM-R319) Fiscal theory of price level



• Fiscal union is needed to support monetary union See Cochrane's panel discussion.

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