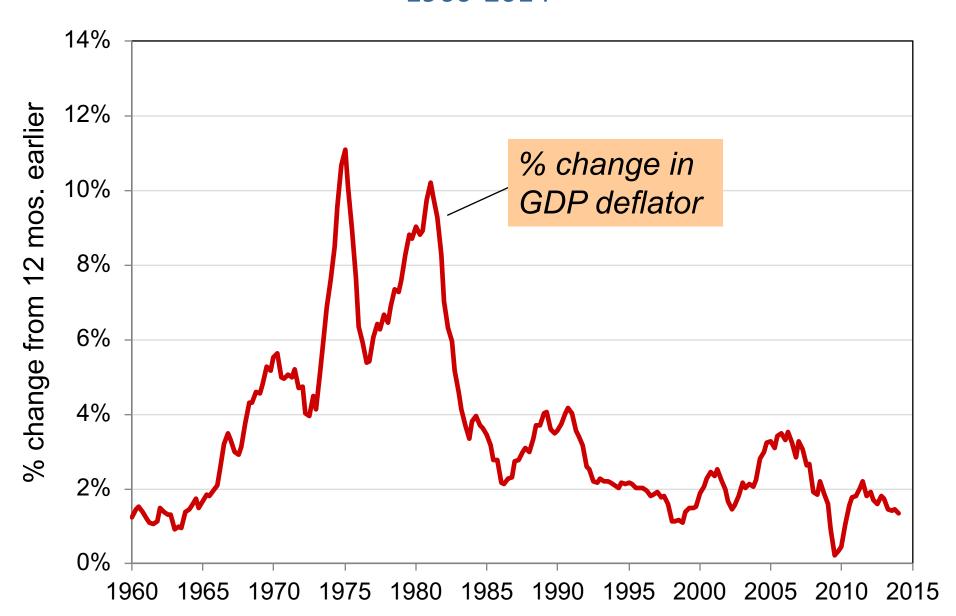
# Chapter 5

Inflation: Its Causes, Effects, and Social Costs

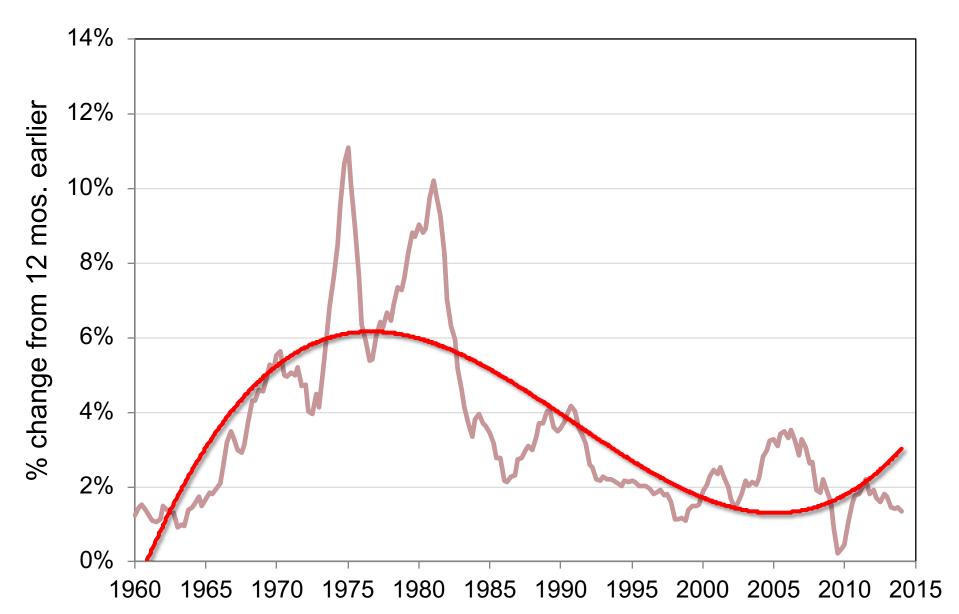
### IN THIS CHAPTER, YOU WILL LEARN:

- The classical theory of inflation
  - causes
  - effects
  - social costs
- "Classical" assumes prices are flexible & markets clear
- Applies to the long run

U.S. inflation and its trend, 1960-2014



U.S. inflation and its trend, 1960-2014



# The quantity theory of money

- A simple theory linking the inflation rate to the growth rate of the money supply.
- Begins with the concept of velocity...

# Velocity

- basic concept:
   the rate at which money circulates
- definition: the number of times the average dollar bill changes hands in a given time period
- example: In 2012,
  - \$500 billion in transactions
  - money supply = \$100 billion
  - The average dollar is used in \_\_\_\_\_ transactions in 2012
  - So, velocity = ???

# Velocity, cont.

This suggests the following definition:

$$V = \frac{T}{M}$$

where

**V** = velocity

**T** = value of all transactions

**M** = money supply

# Velocity, cont.

Use nominal GDP as a proxy for total transactions.

Then,

# The quantity equation

The quantity equation

$$M \times V = P \times Y$$

follows from the preceding definition of velocity.

It is an *identity:* it holds by definition of the variables.

The quantity equation and its relationship with a simple money demand function

- M/P = real money balances, the purchasing power of the money supply.
- A simple money demand function:

$$(M/P)^d = kY$$

where

k = how much money people wish to hold for each dollar of income.

(k is exogenous)

### Money demand and the quantity equation

- money demand:  $(M/P)^d = kY$
- quantity equation:  $M \times V = P \times Y$
- The connection between them: k =\_\_\_\_\_
- When people hold lots of money relative to their incomes (k is large), money changes hands infrequently (\_\_\_\_ is small).

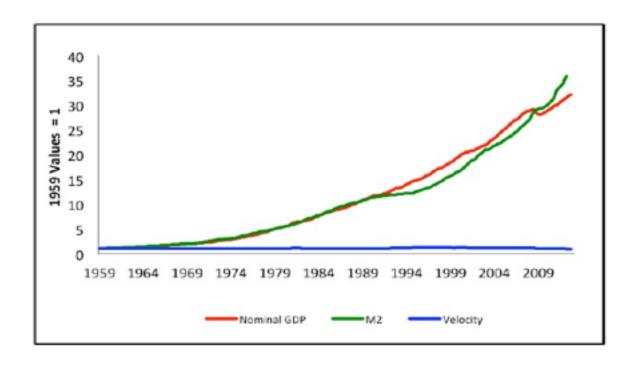
### Back to the quantity theory of money

- starts with quantity equation
- assumes  $\boldsymbol{V}$  is constant & exogenous:  $\boldsymbol{V} = \boldsymbol{V}$

Then, quantity equation becomes:

# P\*Y, M, and V in the U.S.

### P x Y, M, and V in the US



# The quantity theory of money, cont.

$$\mathbf{M} \times \overline{\mathbf{V}} = \mathbf{P} \times \mathbf{Y}$$

How the price level is determined:

- With V constant, the money supply determines  $(P \times Y)$ .
- is determined by the economy's supplies of K and L and the production function (Chap. 3).
- The price level isP =

# The quantity theory of money, cont.

- Recall from Chapter 2:
   The growth rate of a product equals the sum of the growth rates.
- The quantity equation in growth rates:

The quantity theory of money assumes: V is \_\_\_\_\_\_. So \_\_\_\_\_.

# The quantity theory of money, cont.

 $\pi$  (Greek letter pi)
denotes the inflation rate:  $\pi = \frac{\Delta P}{P}$ 

The result from the preceding slide:

Solve this result for  $\pi$ :

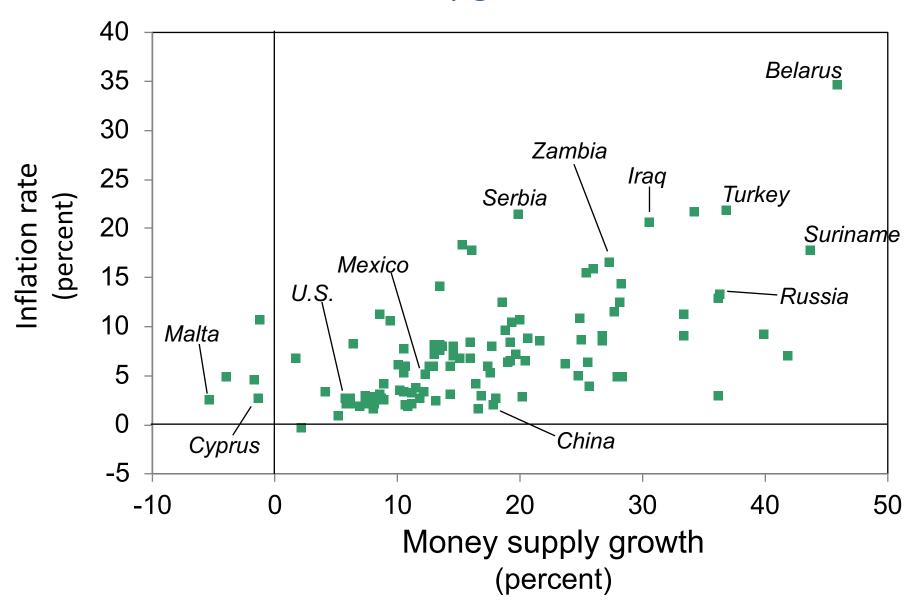
### Confronting the quantity theory with data

### The quantity theory of money implies:

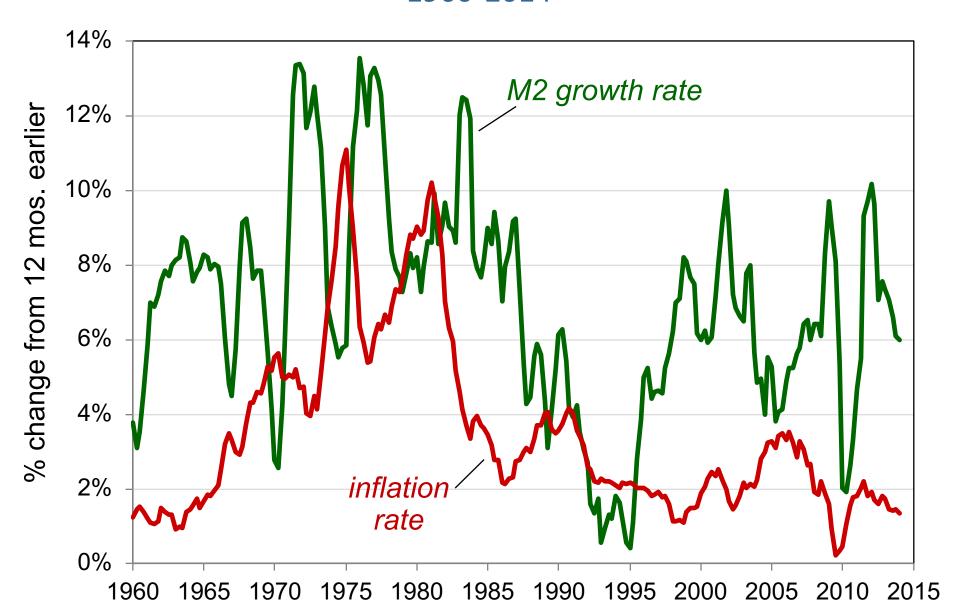
- 1. Countries with higher money growth rates should have \_\_\_\_\_ inflation rates.
- 2. The long-run trend in a country's inflation rate should be similar to the long-run trend in the country's \_\_\_\_\_\_rate.

Are the data consistent with these implications?

# International data on inflation and money growth



U.S. inflation and money growth, 1960-2014



# Seigniorage

- To spend more without raising taxes or selling bonds, the govt can \_\_\_\_\_\_\_.
- The "revenue" raised from \_\_\_\_\_\_ is called seigniorage (pronounced SEEN-your-idge).
- The inflation tax:

Printing money to raise revenue causes inflation. Inflation is like a \_\_\_\_ on people who hold money.

### Inflation and interest rates

- Nominal interest rate, i
  not adjusted for inflation
- Real interest rate, r
   adjusted for inflation:

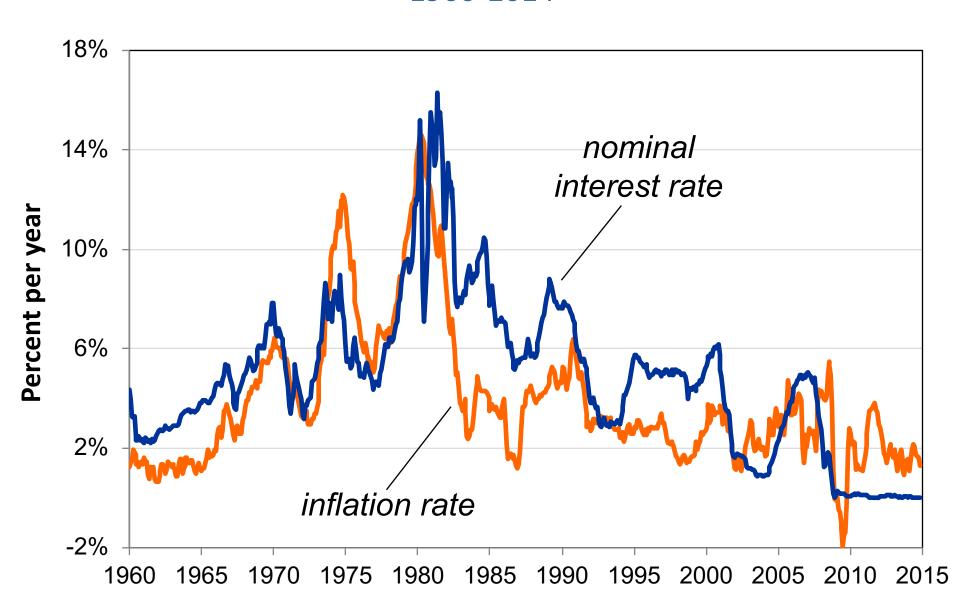
$$r = i - \pi$$

### The Fisher effect

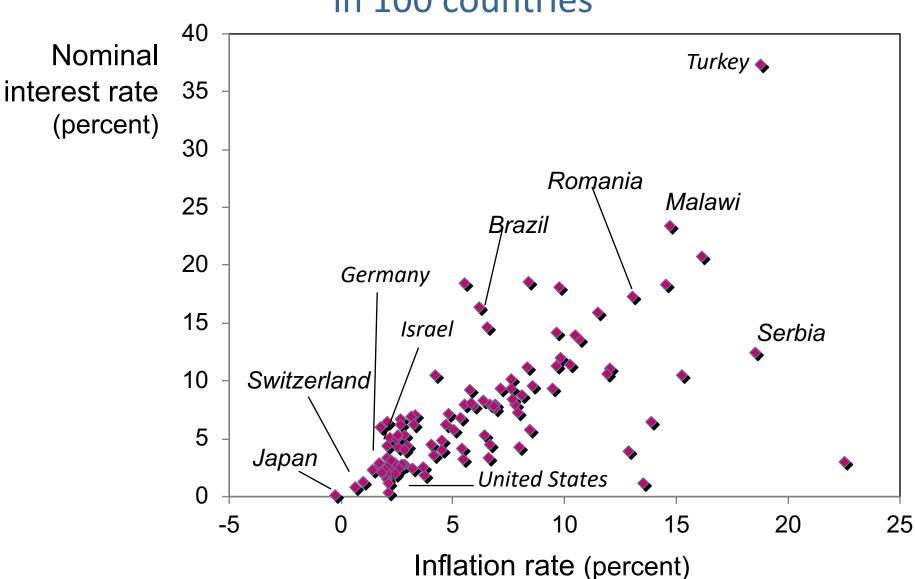
- The Fisher equation:  $i = r + \pi$
- Chap. 3:  $\boldsymbol{S} = \boldsymbol{I}$  determines  $\boldsymbol{r}$ .
- Hence, an increase in  $\pi$  causes an equal increase in i.

 This one-for-one relationship is called the Fisher effect.

U.S. inflation and nominal interest rates, 1960-2014



# Inflation and nominal interest rates in 100 countries



#### NOW YOU TRY

### Applying the theory

Suppose V is constant, M is growing 5% per year, Y is growing 2% per year, and Y = 4.

- **a.** Solve for *i*.
- **b.** If the Fed increases the money growth rate by 2 percentage points per year, find  $\Delta i$ .
- c. Suppose the growth rate of Y falls to 1% per year.
  - What will happen to  $\pi$ ?
  - What must the Fed do if it wishes to keep  $\pi$  constant?

# Answers Applying the theory

### Two real interest rates

#### **Notation:**

- $\pi$  = actual inflation rate (not known until after it has occurred)
- $E\pi$  = expected inflation rate

### Two real interest rates:

- $i E\pi =$  real interest rate: the real interest rate people expect at the time they buy a bond or take out a loan
- $i \pi =$  real interest rate: the real interest rate actually realized

# Money demand and the nominal interest rate

- In the quantity theory of money, the demand for real money balances depends only on \_\_\_\_\_\_\_.
- Another determinant of money demand:

\_\_\_\_\_

- the opportunity cost of holding money (instead of bonds or other interest-earning assets).
- The relationship between these variables??.

# The money demand function

$$(\boldsymbol{M/P})^{d} = \boldsymbol{L}(\boldsymbol{i}, \boldsymbol{Y})$$

 $(M/P)^d$  = real money demand, depends - on i

*i* is the opp. cost of holding money

\_\_\_\_ on **Y** 

higher  $Y \Rightarrow$  \_\_\_\_\_ spending

 $\Rightarrow$  so, need more money

("L" is used for the money demand function because money is the most <u>liquid</u> asset.)

# The money demand function

$$(\mathbf{M/P})^{d} = \mathbf{L}(\mathbf{i}, \mathbf{Y})$$
  
=  $\mathbf{L}(\mathbf{r} + \mathbf{E}\pi, \mathbf{Y})$ 

When people are deciding whether to hold money or bonds, they don't know what inflation will turn out to be.

Hence, the nominal interest rate relevant for money demand is  $\mathbf{r} + E\pi$ .

### What determines what

$$\frac{\boldsymbol{M}}{\boldsymbol{P}} = \boldsymbol{L}(\boldsymbol{r} + \boldsymbol{E}\boldsymbol{\pi}, \boldsymbol{Y})$$

### variable how determined (in the long run)

M

r

Y

P

$$\overline{Y} = F(\overline{K}, \overline{L})$$
 adjusts to ensure

$$\frac{M}{P} = L(i, Y)$$

# How P responds to $\Delta M$

$$\frac{\boldsymbol{M}}{\boldsymbol{P}} = \boldsymbol{L}(\boldsymbol{r} + \boldsymbol{E}\boldsymbol{\pi}, \boldsymbol{Y})$$

For given values of *r*, *Y*, and *Eπ*,
 a change in *M* causes *P* to change by
 —just like in the quantity theory of money.

### What about expected inflation?

•	Over the long run, people don't consistently
	over- or under-forecast inflation,
	so on average.

- In the short run,  $E\pi$  may change when people
- EX: Fed announces it will increase M next year. People will expect next year's P to be higher, so  $E\pi$  rises.
- This affects P now, even though M hasn't changed yet....

### How P responds to $\Delta E \pi$

$$\frac{\boldsymbol{M}}{\boldsymbol{P}} = \boldsymbol{L}(\boldsymbol{r} + \boldsymbol{E}\pi, \boldsymbol{Y})$$

For given values of r, Y, and M,

# Now you TRY Discussion question

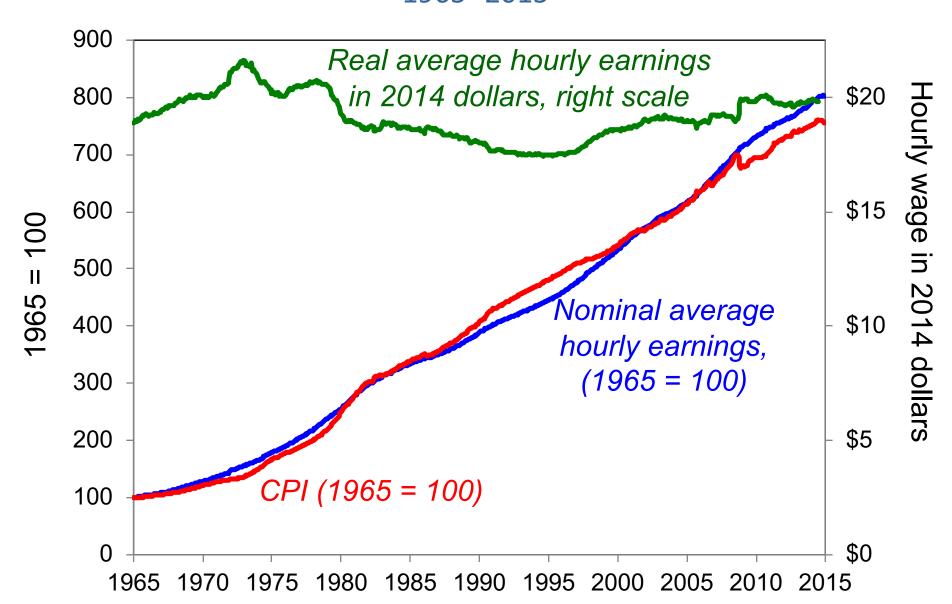
### Why is inflation bad?

What costs does inflation impose on society?
 List all the ones you can think of.

### A common misperception

- Common misperception: inflation reduces real wages
- This is true only in the \_\_\_\_\_\_, when nominal wages are fixed by contracts.
- (Chap. 3) In the long run,
   the real wage is determined by
   and
   ;not the price level or inflation
   rate.
- Consider the data...

# The CPI and average hourly earnings, 1965–2015



## The classical view of inflation

The classical view:

A change in the price level is merely a change in the units of measurement.

Then, why is inflation a social problem?

## The social costs of inflation

...fall into two categories:

- costs when inflation is expected
- costs when inflation is different than people had expected

### The costs of expected inflation:

#### 1. Shoeleather cost

- The inflation does erode the value of money that each person holds in his or her wallet.
- Thus, when inflation rises, people make greater efforts to reduce the amounts of money that they hold, for example, by going to the bank or the ATM more often, but withdrawing smaller amounts each time.
- The costs that are associated with these efforts
   are called shoe-leather costs, based on the
   imagery of someone wearing out his or her shoes
   walking to the bank more often.

# The costs of expected inflation: 2. Menu costs

- def: The costs of changing prices.
- Examples:
  - cost of printing new menus
  - cost of printing & mailing new catalogs
- The higher is inflation, the more
   \_\_\_\_\_ firms must change their
   prices and incur these costs.

### The costs of expected inflation:

### 3. Relative price distortions

- Firms facing menu costs change prices infrequently.
- Example:

A specific firm issues new catalog each January only. As the general price level rises throughout the year, the firm's relative price will \_\_\_\_\_.

 Different firms change their prices at different times, leading to relative \_\_\_\_\_ distortions...

...causing microeconomic inefficiencies in the allocation of resources.

Rise or fall?

### The costs of expected inflation:

#### 4. Unfair tax treatment

- Consider two economies, one in which the inflation rate is zero and the other in which the inflation rate is 8 percent.
- In both economies, the real interest rate is 4 percent.
- The differences in interest rates lead, through the Fisher effect, to differences in nominal interest rates. With zero inflation, the nominal interest rate is 4 percent, but with 8 percent inflation, the nominal interest rate is 12 percent.
- Suppose that interest income is taxed at rate of 25 percent.
- This means with a 4 percent before tax interest rate, the saver pays 1 percent in taxes.
- But with a 12 percent before tax interest rate, the saver pays 3 percent in taxes.
- With zero inflation, the after tax real return to saving is 3 percent.
- But with 8 percent inflation, the after tax return is just 1 percent.

# The costs of expected inflation: 5. General inconvenience

- Inflation makes it harder to compare nominal values from different time periods.
- This complicates long-range financial planning.

# Additional cost of high inflation: Increased uncertainty

- When inflation is high, it's more variable and unpredictable:  $\pi$  turns out different from  $E\pi$  more often, and the differences tend to be larger (though not systematically positive or negative)
- This creates higher \_\_\_\_\_

# Hyperinflation

# The World's Worst Hyperinflations

Country	Month with Highest Inflation Rate	Highest Monthly Inflation Rate	Time Required for Prices to Double
Hungary	July 1946	4.16 x 10 <sup>16</sup> %	15.0 hours
Zimbabwe	November 2008	79,600,000,000%	24.7 hours
Yugoslavia	January 1994	313,000,000%	1.4 days
Germany	October 1923	29,500%	3.7 days
Greece	October 1944	13,800%	4.3 days
China	May 1949	2,178%	6.7 days

From: Steve H. Hanke and Alex K.F. Kwok. "On the Measurement of Zimbabwe's Hyperinflation." Cato Journal vol.29 (Spring/Summer 2009): pp.353-364.

# Hyperinflation

## The World's Worst Hyperinflations



# Germany Hyperinflation in 1923



## A few examples of hyperinflation

country	period	<b>CPI Inflation</b> % per year	<b>M2 Growth</b> % per year
Israel	1983-85	338%	305%
Brazil	1987-94	1,256	1,451
Bolivia	1983-86	1,818	1,727
Ukraine	1992-94	2,089	1,029
Argentina	1988-90	2,671	1,583
Dem. Republic of Congo / Zaire	1990-96	3,039	2,373
Angola	1995-96	4,145	4,106
Peru	1988-90	5,050	3,517
	2005-07	5,316	9,914