

# Chapter 4: Money and Inflation\*

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## 1 Money and Policy

Money: the stock of assets that can be readily used to make transactions.

Functions of money:

1. **Medium of exchange**: can be traded for goods/services.
2. **Store of value**: transfer purchasing power across time.
3. **Unit of account**: a common unit to measure relative prices.
4. **Method of deferred payment**: acceptable for debt repayment.

Money supply: the quantity of money available in the economy.

Monetary policy: control of the money supply by a country's central bank to achieve macroeconomic stability.

## 2 The Quantity Theory of Money

Velocity of money: the rate that money circulates throughout the economy (transactions per unit time).

- Example: In 2007, \$500 billion in transactions, money supply = \$100 billion. The average dollar is used in five transactions in 2007. So, velocity = 5.
- Mathematical definition:  $V = \frac{T}{M}$ , V is velocity, T value of all transactions and M is money supply.

Use nominal GDP as a proxy for total transactions:  $V = \frac{PY}{M}$ , P is the price of output and Y is the quantity of real output (real GDP).

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Quantity equation:  $MV = PY$

- Assumes  $V$  is constant and exogenous:  $V = \bar{V}$ , then  $M\bar{V} = PY$ ; the money supply determines the price level.
- $M\bar{V} = PY \Rightarrow \% \Delta M + \% \Delta \bar{V} = \% \Delta P + \% \Delta Y \Rightarrow \% \Delta M = \% \Delta P + \% \Delta Y \Rightarrow \pi = g_M - g_Y$
- $g_M$  controlled by central bank,  $\% \Delta \bar{V} = 0$ ,  $g_Y$  depends on growth in the factors of production and technological progress  $\Rightarrow g_M$  determines the rate of inflation  $\pi$ .
- Normal economic growth requires a minimum level of  $g_M$  to support output growth  $g_Y$ . Money growth in excess of this amount leads to inflation.

Fisher equation:  $r = i - \pi$ .

Nominal interest rate,  $i$  (not adjusted for the rate of inflation).

Real interest rate,  $r$  (adjusted for inflation).

$S = I$  in the loanable funds market determines  $r$ , thus  $\pi \uparrow \Rightarrow i \uparrow$ .

$\pi$  is the actual inflation rate;  $\pi^e$  is the expected inflation rate.

$r_{ex-ante} = i - \pi^e$  (real interest rate people expect when they buy a bond or take out a loan).

$r_{ex-post} = i - \pi$  (realized, actual interest rate).

Real money demand  $(\frac{M}{P})^d = L(i, Y) = L(r + \pi^e, Y)$ . What does  $(\frac{M}{P})^d$  depend on?

1.  $i$ : nominal interest rate is the opportunity cost of holding money.  
(-)
2.  $Y$ : higher income means that you want to hold more cash to finance purchases.  
(+)

Money market equilibrium:  $(\frac{M}{P})^s = (\frac{M}{P})^d \Rightarrow \frac{M}{P} = L(r + \pi^e, Y)$

- $M = \bar{M}$  is exogenous (set by the central bank).
- $r$  adjusts to equate savings and investment ( $S = I$ ; goods market equilibrium).
- $Y = F(K, L)$  aggregate production function.
- $P$  adjusts to equate real money supply and demand ( $\frac{M}{P} = L(r + \pi^e, Y)$ ; money market equilibrium).

### 3 The Costs of Inflation

Costs of expected inflation: **(1)** menu costs **(2)** shoeleather costs **(3)** relative price distortions **(4)** unfair tax treatment **(5)** difficulty in comparing prices across time.

Costs of unexpected inflation: **(1)** arbitrary redistribution of purchasing power; borrowers are better off and lenders are worse off, in real terms **(2)** increased uncertainty/instability in the economy.

“Benefit” of inflation: allows real wages to reach equilibrium without nominal wage cuts (wages are usually inflexible downward). Improves the functioning of labor markets, if real wages are sticky.