Topic 11 – Inflation

Econ 1102 section 28 (part 2)



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Agenda

- Measuring Inflation
 - Measurement Problems
- Costs of Inflation
- Correcting for Inflation (minimum wages)
- Correcting for Inflation (purchasing power and interest rates)
- Money and Inflation
- Inflation and Unemploymen



Measurement Problems





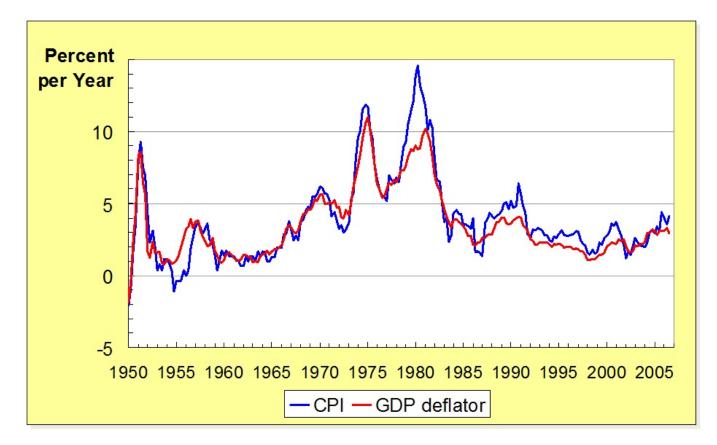


Unemployment and Inflation



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Are CPI inflation and GDP deflator the same? Not exactly



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They seem close. Why do we care?

- CPI used for
 - Social Security, Poverty Level, Wage Contracts
- Comparing the two:
 - CPI Inflation: The level of inflation consumers experience
 - GDP Deflator: The level of inflation producers experience

If GDP deflator is lower than CPI, are you better or worse off?



Measurement Problems

- Substitution Bias: Multiple similar goods ex. iPhone and Samsung Galaxy.
 - If basket is fixed and only contains one item, number misses out substitution effects
- Quality Change: Is today's cellphone the same as a phone from 20 years ago?

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New goods: Kindle – devices didn't exist 10 years ago

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How bad are these measurement problems?

- Hard to say. Bils (2009) believes CPI overstates inflation by almost 2% per year (should be quality growth)
- This doesn't seem like much, but inflation is only 3% per year.

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– 2/3 of the price increases normally attributed to inflation may be wrong!

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What are the Costs of inflation?

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In which of the following two scenarios will you save?

Scenario 1

- You know prices will increase by 20% next year.
- The bank pays 21% interest on your deposits

Scenario 2

- You don't know what inflation will be next year.
- The bank pays 1% interest on your deposits
- With *anticipated inflation*, people put their money in a bank to earn interest



Assume we are in scenario 2

- Suppose people are worried about unanticipated inflation. What does this do?
 - Decreases your ability to purchase goods (C)
 - Decreases foreigners' ability to purchase US goods (NX)
 - Makes lenders more cautious and/or charge higher interest rates (I)
- All of these are bad for the economy!
 - Y=C+G+I+NX



Wait, why are lenders more cautious?

- Suppose you lend \$1000 at 5% interest. That means the borrower has to pay \$1050 back next year.
- Inflation turns out to be 100%. That means \$2000 next year is equivalent to \$1000 today, but next year you only get paid \$1050. In terms of purchasing power, you've taken a loss.

Who does inflation affect?

Unaffected or benefits

- Flexible Income receivers: income can increase/adjust
- Debtors: real value of borrowing goes down

Hurts

- Fixed Income receivers: purchasing power decreases (income isn't changing)
- Savers: If unexpected, decrease in "real" returns
- Creditors: Lose money in real terms

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Other Costs

- You expect inflation to be high, so you want to have as much money as possible in interest-bearing bank accounts or bonds. What do you do?
 - Shoeleather costs: Resources wasted running to/from bank
- You run a restaurant and inflation is 20% a day. What do you do with your menus?
 - Menu Costs: Costs of changing price lists
- Prices of food are going up by 10%, shoes by 15%, and rent by 8%. How do you change your consumption?
 - Relative price variability: Difficulty in properly allocating resources





Other Costs (contd.)

- You don't know what inflation is, but you suspect it will be large
 - Confusion and Inconvenience
- Borrowers win → creditors lose, and vice-versa
 - Redistributions of wealth
- Nominal interest rates increase to make up for inflation, but this gives you higher capital gains, so a higher effective tax rate.
 - Inflation-Induced Tax Distortion: Savings suddenly looks less attractive



How do we correct for inflation?

i.e. How do we use CPI to make sure inflation doesn't affect real values?



Example: Minimum Wages

- Minimum wage:
 - 1978: \$2.65, 2009: \$7.25
 - In real terms, who is making more?
- Depends on inflation!

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 $P \downarrow T = CPI \downarrow T / CPI \downarrow B P \downarrow B$

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– B: Base year, T: Target year

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Example: Minimum Wages

- CPI: Base Year is 1978
 1978:65.2, 2009:213
- $P \downarrow T = CPI \downarrow T / CPI \downarrow B P \downarrow B$
- Real wages:

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- 1978:*P*↓78 =*CPI*↓78 /*CPI*↓78 **P*↓78 = 65.2/65.2 *2.65=\$2.65
- 2009: P↓09 = CPI↓09 /CPI↓78 *P↓78 = 213/65.2 *2.65=\$8.65

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 Deposit \$1000 in the bank in 2009 at interest rate of 2%. Is it worth more or less in *real* terms after one year?

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• Well, this depends on inflation.

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Assume CPI inflation is 1%

 Let's say I want to purchase a laptop for \$500. How many can I buy?

Year	Wealth	Price of laptop	# purchase
2009	\$1000	\$500	
2010	\$1020	\$505	



 Let's say I want to purchase a laptop for \$500. How many can I buy?

Year	Wealth	Price of laptop	# purchase
2009	\$1000	\$500	2
2010	\$1020	\$505	



 Let's say I want to purchase a laptop for \$500. How many can I buy?

Year	Wealth	Price of laptop	# purchase
2009	\$1000	\$500	2
2010	\$1020	\$505	2 + \$10 remaining

• So inflation affects how much I can purchase



What we care about is the "real" interest rate

- Definition: The interest rate once we have accounted for inflation.
- real=nominal-inflation

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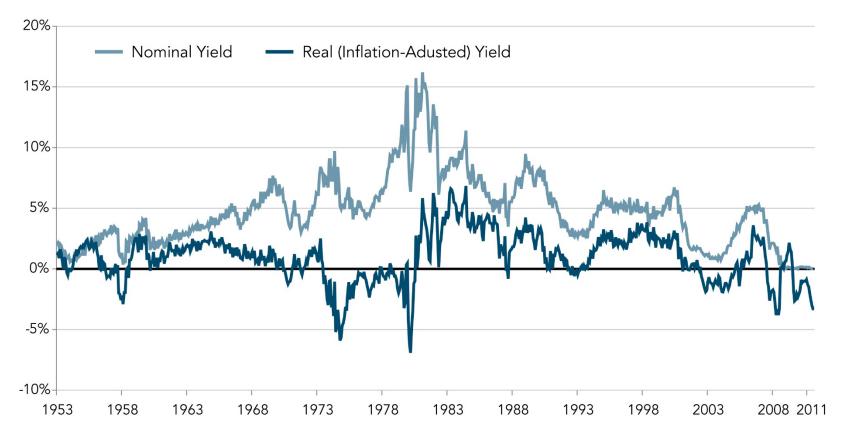
Nominal inflation is the quoted value (i.e. what you see posted by banks, etc)

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In our previous example, real = 2%-1%=1%

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Real and nominal rates move together (but not exactly)



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How does money affect inflation?

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Consider supply and demand

- If there is more supply than demand, what happens to the value?
 - Let's say I build one million abaci for sale at the university bookstore.

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– How much demand is there?

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- So what value do my abaci have?

Money works the same way

- If there is more supply than demand, what happens to the value?
 - Too much money, and not enough demand, then the value drops.
 - What happens to prices?
 - How many abaci would I have to give you for your computer?

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So prices increase. Inflation!

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We can formalize this idea with an equation

• But first, another example

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 If there is 100 single dollar bills in the economy, but over the whole year, \$1000 worth of transactions occur, how many times did each dollar bill get used?

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So we have something like

TimesUsed=GDP/MoneySupply

- We call times used, the *velocity of money*
 - Velocity of Money: The rate at which money changes hands
- But which GDP did we use, real or nominal?

If we let

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- Y=quantity of goods
- P=average price of a "good"

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• We can replace the previous equation

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#Used=GDP/MoneySupply

If we let

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- Y=quantity of goods
- P=average price of a "good"
- We can replace the previous equation

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Velocity=GDP/MoneySupply

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If we let

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- Y=quantity of goods
- P=average price of a "good"
- We can replace the previous equation

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*Velocity=P***Y*/*MoneySupply*

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So now we can see the impact of money supply on prices

Restating the previous equation

*P=V***MoneySupply/Y*

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- Assume we increase money supply, but has no impact on GDP (Y remains constant)
- V is determined by technology, etc., so is relatively stable

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An increase in MoneySupply will do what to prices?

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Quantity Theory of Money

- Given the previous equation, we can see two things:
 - 1. The quantity of money available determines price levels
 - 2. Changes in money supply causes changes in prices (inflation)

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Combined, this is the quantity theory of money.

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A dancing baby



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What determines how valuable a dollar is?

- Which is more valuable?
 - \$1 with which I can purchase sandwich
 - $\in 1$ with which I can purchase a new car

– Why?

 The value of a fiat currency is what you can buy with it



How does inflation affect the value of money?

- Think back to the example of supply and demand.
- Low value meant I had to give up more
- Low value currency means prices go up
- This works the other way. If prices are going up, then value must be going down.

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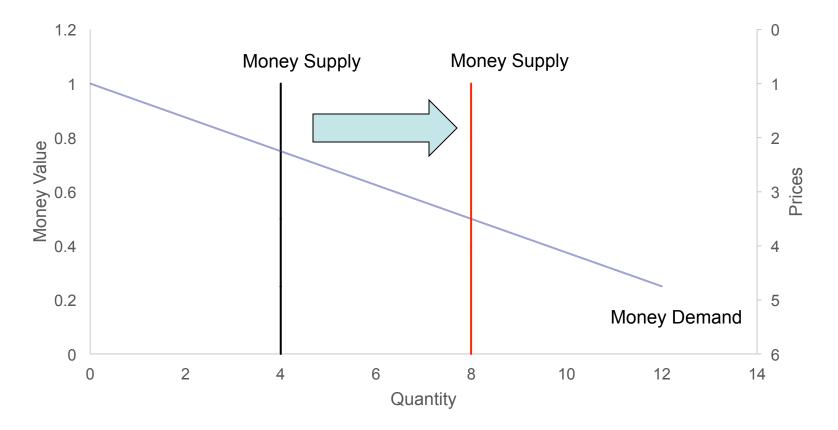
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Value of Money = 1/P

Price of Bread	% of loaf purchased w/ \$1	Value of Money	Money Demand (to buy 2 loaves of bread)
\$2	0.5	1⁄2=0.5	\$4
\$4	0.25	1⁄4=0.25	\$8



Let's see this in a supply/ demand diagram



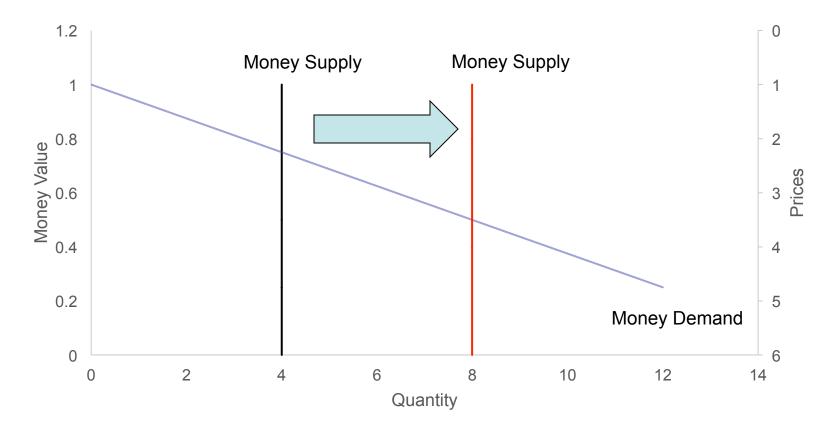
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We assume output has not changed



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How does money affect "real" prices

- If prices double, and your wage remains the same, is there any change in your "real" purchasing power?
- Recall the flow diagram. If prices have doubled, what must eventually happen to wages?
- Now, is there a change to your "real" purchasing power?

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Two definitions

- Classical Dichotomy: The theoretical separation of nominal and real variables
- Monetary Neutrality: The proposition that changes in the money supply do not affect real variables
 - Wait, what? Didn't we say in the previous slide that it can affect real purchasing power?



The difference between short run and long run

 Why do we have upward sloping SR aggregate supply curves?

Sticky prices

- In LR, how does aggregate supply change?
- The same with money.

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 SR: sticky prices cause real value to drop (inflation)

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- LR: relative prices adjust to their normal value

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Inflation as a Tax

- Which of these would you consider a tax? The government:
 - takes 10% of your income

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- Forces you to deliver mail one day a month
- Takes one gallon of gas from your car each week

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Sells one million mint condition Wayne
 Gretzky rookie hockey cards

Unemployment and Inflation A tax reduces the value of wealth/goods you hold

- Recall *P=V***MoneySupply/Y*
- If money supply goes up by more than quantity, what happens to prices?
- What happens to value of money?

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 By printing money (and causing inflation), government is taxing your holding of money!

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Sometimes this can be positive

- Do drug dealers report income to the government?
- Do they accept credit cards?

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 Inflation provides a way to tax "black market" or illegal transactions that use cash

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Fisher Effect

- Monetary Neutrality says changing money supply does not affect real variables (in the long run)
- This includes the real interest rate! The Fed's actions shouldn't affect it, in the long run

Fisher Effect (continued)

• Recall:

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Nominal int rate = Real int rate + Inflation

• If Real int rate stays the same...

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• Fisher Effect: The one-for-one adjustment of the nominal interest rate to the inflation rate.

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Fisher Effect (example)

Suppose nominal = 4%; inflation = 3%.

- Real int rate = 4-3=1%

- Gov't starts printing extra money, and inflation permanently increases to 4%.
 - Short run real int rate = 4-4=0%

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Long run real int rate = 1% (what it was originally) so it must be that...

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– Nominal int rate = Real int rate + Inflation

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AS-AD shows a trade-off

• Recall:

- fiscal/monetary policy affect AD.

higher output means lower unemployment rate (UR)

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- Short-run AD shift right: lower UR, higher inflation
- Short-run AD shift left: lower inflation, higher UR

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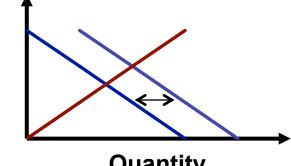
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So policy faces this trade-off

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Quantity

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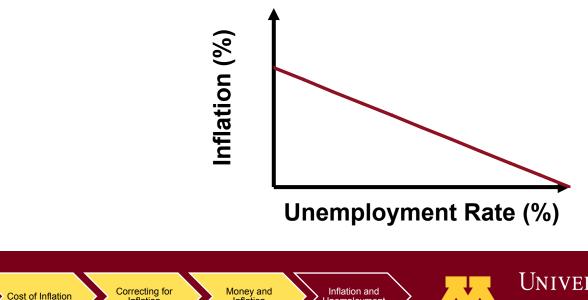
Definition

- Phillips Curve: The curve that shows the short-run tradeoff between inflation and unemployment.
- Will look something like this:

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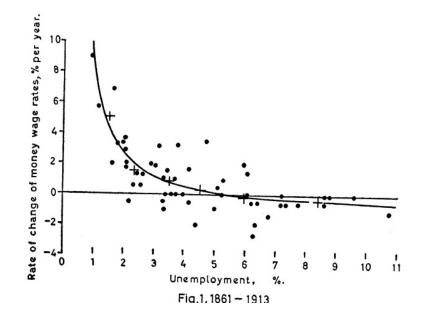
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A short history of the Phillips Curve

- AS-AD model was just a theory in 1950
- Late 1950s, Phillips uses UK data to show negative relationship

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A short history of the **Phillips Curve**

1960s:

Samuelson and Solow show it

using US data.

They apply it to policy: trade higher inflation for lower unemployment

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But wait! If firms *expect* inflation they will adjust production

- 1970s: Friedman and Phelps
 - No! Phillips Curve is a short-run relationship (think sticky wages)
 - Unemployment will adjust to natural rate, inflation will stay high.

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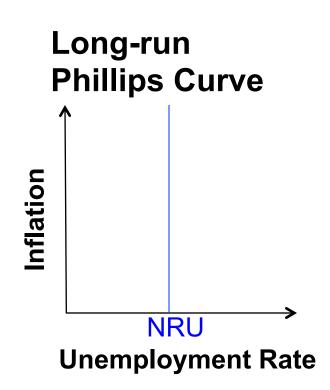
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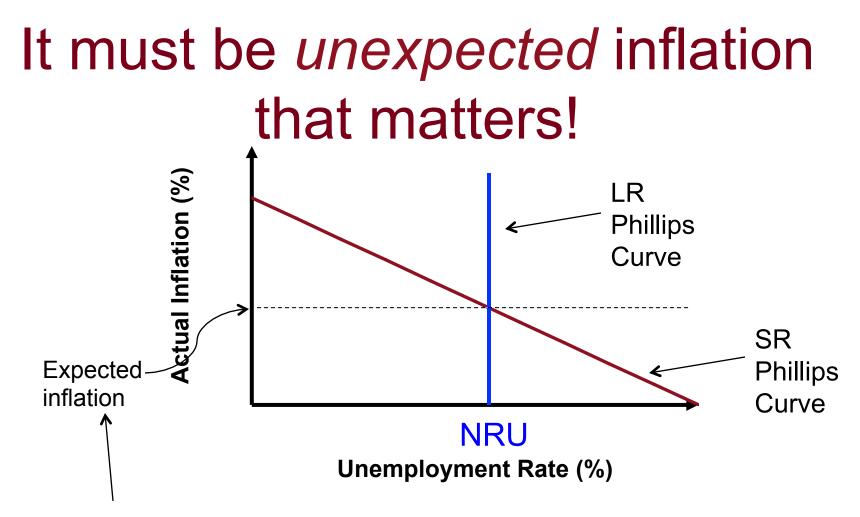
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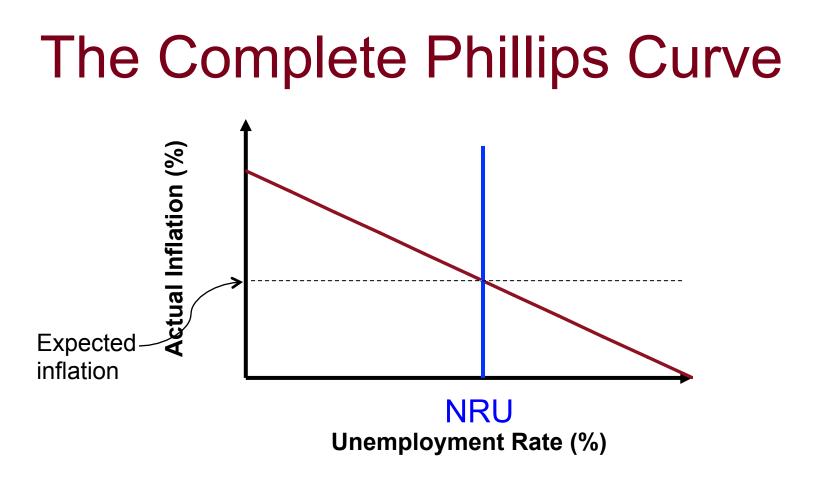
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Measuring Inflation



Only leave long-run equilibrium (i.e. NRU) when actual prices are not expected prices (think sticky wages)





(Equation for this line) UR = NRU – a(Actual Inflation – Expected Inflation)



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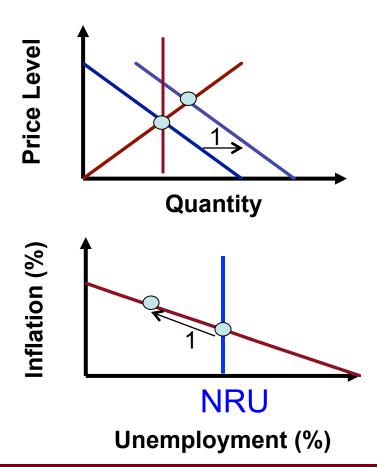


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Example, part 1 (short-run)

1. Fed increases money supply, shifting AD right.

Due to sticky wages, we move along the SR-AS to a point with lower UR and higher inflation (firms are hiring more because labor is relatively cheap)



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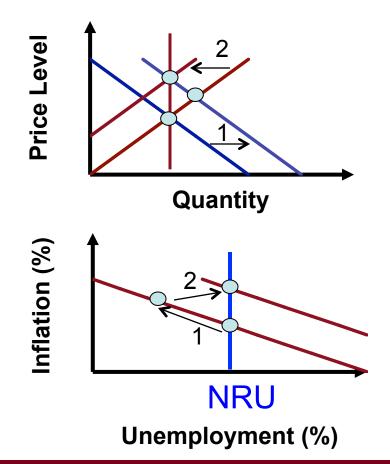


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Example, part 2 (long-run)

 People's expectations of inflation begin to align with actual inflation (people start asking for a raise)

Employment returns to NRU.



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University of Minnesota Driven to Discover[™] Employment always returns to the NRU eventually!

• Natural-Rate Hypothesis: The claim that unemployment eventually returns to its normal, or natural, rate, regardless of the rate of inflation.



Remember the theory of money neutrality

 The government can create inflation by increasing money

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- Can this affect real variables (like natural rate of unemployment)?
- So in the long run monetary policy affect unemployment!

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SR Phillips Curve is not stable

- Let's return to the previous example.
- When people update beliefs and expect higher inflation, you have to increase inflation even further to affect unemployment. You have to keep "surprising" people.

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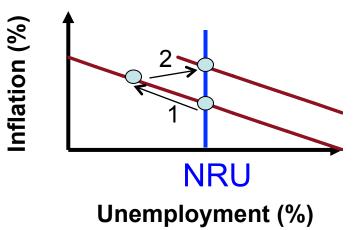
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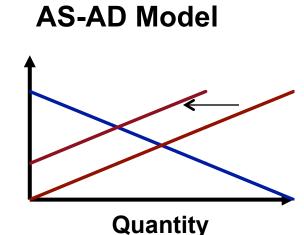


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Example: Supply Side Shocks

- 1970's oil shocks
- By 1980: Unemployment = 7%, Inflation = 9%.
 What to do?
- Fed Chairman Paul Volcker used contractionary monetary policy to control inflation. But what would that do to unemployment?



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Price Level

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Sacrifice Ratio

- How much must unemployment increase for a reduction in inflation?
- Sacrifice Ratio: # of percentage points of annual output lost while reducing inflation by 1 percentage point.
- Typical estimate of sacrifice ratio= 5.

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• So for inflation Ψ 6%, unemployment \uparrow 30%!

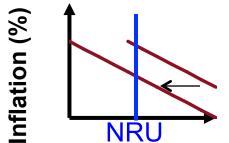
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Rational Expectations

- Then a new group of economists say:
- Rational Expectations: People optimally use all the info they have, including information about government policies, when forecasting the future (forming expectations).
- If people thought Fed were serious about lowering inflation, expected inflation would decrease, so unemployment would decrease.

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Unemployment





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Back to Paul Volcker

- Rational Expectations economists said Volcker just had to seem serious to get costless disinflation.
- If people thought Fed were serious about lowering inflation, expected inflation would decrease, so unemployment would decrease.



Back to Paul Volcker

- Inflation was about 10% in 1980 and 1981, 6% in 1982, 3-4% in 1983 -87
- Unemployment reached 10%
- Big recession!

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 Were the RE economists right? Sort of. Cost was much less than the theoretical sacrifice cost of 5

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Should the Fed Aim for Zero Inflation?

- Probably not
 - Not easy to measure costs of 3% inflation, but probably not that high
 - Zero inflation makes monetary policy ineffective
 - Why? If zero inflation, is nominal interest greater than, less than, or equal to real interest?
 - Recall: can't cut nominal interest rate below zero
 - What does this imply about real interest rates?
 - Inflation makes wage cuts "Easier" (your nominal wages can rise even while your real wages fall)





Key Ideas and Things To Think About

Note: This is NOT a study guide – i.e. do not limit yourself to these items when studying

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- In the long run, inflation doesn't affect real variables (like real interest rate or unemployment)
- High inflation (like 9%) has high costs, but reducing it requires raising unemployment in the short run



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Things To Think About

 Does it make sense to buy a thousand Forever Stamps, since they are "worth more" each year? How would you figure this out?



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Things To Think About

- Suppose the expected CPI (base year = 2005) for 2013 is 132 and the sacrifice ratio is 4. Draw the SR Phillips curve
 - Assume you sacrifice 4 percentage points unemployment to reduce inflation by 1 percentage point.



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