

Output, the Interest Rate, and the Exchange Rate

The model developed in this chapter is an extension of the open economy IS-LM model, known as the **Mundell-Fleming model**. The main questions we try to solve are: **What determines the exchange rate? How can policy makers affect exchange rates?**

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Equilibrium in the
Goods Market20-1Goods MarketGoods MarketEquilibrium in the goods market can be
described by the following equations:Y=C(Y-T)+I(Y,r)+G-IM(Y, $\mathcal{E})/\mathcal{E}$ + X(Y*, $\mathcal{E})$
(+)NX(Y,Y*, \mathcal{E}) = X(Y*, \mathcal{E})-IM(Y, $\mathcal{E})/\mathcal{E}$ Y = C(Y - T) + I(Y, r) + G + NX(Y, Y*, \mathcal{E})
(+)Y = C(Y - T) + I(Y, r) + G + NX(Y, Y*, \mathcal{E})
(+)

Equilibrium in the Goods Market

- Consumption C depends positively on disposable income Y-T.
- Investment *I* depends positively on output *Y*, and negatively on the real interest rate *r*.
- Government spending G is taken as given.

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- The quantity of imports IM depends positively on both output Y and the real exchange rate *E*.
- Exports X depend positively on foreign output Y* and negatively on the real exchange rate *E*.

Equilibrium in the Goods Market

$$\begin{split} Y &= C(Y - T) + I(Y, r) + G + NX(Y, Y^*, \varepsilon) \\ (+) & (+, -) & (-, +, +) \end{split}$$

The main implication of this equation is that both the real interest rate and the real exchange rate affect demand and, in turn, equilibrium output:

- An increase in the real interest rate leads to a decrease in investment spending, and to a decrease in the demand for domestic goods.
- An increase in the real exchange rate leads to a shift in demand toward foreign goods, and to a decrease in net exports.

Equilibrium in the Goods Market

In this chapter we make two simplifications:

 Both the domestic and the foreign price levels are given; thus, the nominal and the real exchange rate move together:

$$\frac{P^*}{P} = 1 \Rightarrow \varepsilon = E$$

There is no inflation, neither actual nor expected.
π^e = 0, so r = i

Then, the equilibrium condition becomes: $Y = C(Y - T) + I(Y, r) + G + NX(Y, Y^*, E)$

$$(+)$$
 $(+,-)$ $(-,+,+)$

	20-2	Equilibrium in Financial markets	
Chapter 20: Output, the Interest Rate, and the Exchange Rate	,	Now that we look at a financially open economy, we must also take into account the fact that people have a choice between domestic bonds and foreign bonds.	

Money Versus Bonds

We wrote the condition that the supply of money be equal to the demand for money as:

 $\frac{M}{P} = YL(i)$

We can use this equation to think about the determination of the nominal interest rate in an open economy.

Domestic Bonds Versus Foreign Bonds

What combination of domestic and foreign bonds should financial investors choose in order to maximize expected returns?

 $(1+i_t)=(1+i_t^*)+\left(\frac{E_t}{E_{t+1}^e}\right)$

The left side gives the return, in terms of domestic currency. The right side gives the expected return, also in terms of domestic currency. In equilibrium, the two expected returns must be equal.

Domestic Bonds Versus
Foreign BondsInterview of the expected fully and the expected future exchange rate is given, then:
$$E_t = \frac{1+i}{1+i_t^*} E_{t+1}^e$$
The current exchange rate is: $E = \frac{1+i}{1+i_t^*} \overline{E}^e$ The current exchange rate is: $E = \frac{1+i}{1+i_t^*} \overline{E}^e$

Domestic Bonds Versus Foreign Bonds

An increase in the U.S. interest rate, say, after a monetary contraction, will cause the U.S. interest rate to increase, and the demand for U.S. bonds to rise. As investors switch from foreign currency to dollars, the dollar appreciates.

The more the dollar appreciates, the more investors expect it to depreciate in the future. The initial dollar appreciation must be such that the expected future depreciation compensates for the increase in the U.S. interest rate. When this is the case, investors are again indifferent and equilibrium prevails.





Putting Goods and
Financial Markets Together
Goods-market equilibrium implies that output
depends, among other factors, on the interest
rate and the exchange rate.
$$Y = C(Y - T) + I(Y,i) + G + NX(Y,Y^*,E)$$

The interest rate is determined by the equality of money supply and money demand:

$$\frac{M}{P} = YL(i)$$

The interest-parity condition implies a negative relation between the domestic interest rate and the exchange rate:

$$E = \frac{1+i}{1+i^*} \overline{E}^e \qquad \qquad i^{\uparrow} \Rightarrow E \downarrow$$
$$i^{\downarrow} \Rightarrow E^{\uparrow}$$

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Putting Goods and Financial Markets Together

The open-economy versions of the *IS* and *LM* relations are:

IS:
$$Y = C(Y - T) + I(Y,i) + G + NX\left(Y,Y^*,\frac{1+i}{1+i^*}\overline{E}^e\right)$$

M

$$LM: \frac{1}{P} = YL(i)$$

- Changes in the interest rate affect the economy directly through investment,
- indirectly through the exchange rate.













OCUS	Monetary Expansion the Early	Contra n: The 1 1980s	uction, a United	and Fis States	in in
Table 1 The Emergenc	e of Large U.S. 1980	Budget I 1981	Deficits, 1	1980-1984 1983	4 1984
Spending	22.0	22.8	24.0	25.0	23.
Revenues	20.2	20.8	20.5	19.4	19.3
Personal taxes	9.4	9.6	9.9	8.8	8.:
Corporate taxes	2.6	2.3	1.6	1.6	2.0
Budget surplus (-:deficit)	-1.8	-2.0	-3.5	-5.6	-4.
Numbers are for fiscal years, which expressed as a percentage of GDP.	start in October of the	previous ca	lendar year.	All numbers	are





Table 2 Major U	LS. Macr	oeconor	nic Varial	oles, 1980	-1984
	1980	1981	1982	1983	1984
GDP Growth (%)	-0.5	1.8	-2.2	3.9	6.2
Unemployment rate (%)	7.1	7.6	9.7	9.6	7.5
Inflation (CPI) (%)	12.5	8.9	3.8	3.8	3.9
Interest rate (nominal) (%)	11.5	14.0	10.6	8.6	9.6
(real) (%)	2.5	4.9	6.0	5.1	5.9
Real exchange rate	85	101	111	117	129
Trade surplus (-: deficit) (% of GDP)	-0.5	-0.4	-0.6	-1.5	-2.7
Inflation: Rate of change of the The real interest rate is equal t private forecasting firm. The re normalized so that 1973 = 100	e CPI. The o the nomin eal exchang	nominal inte al rate minus e rate is the	rest rate is th s the forecast trade-weighte	e three-montl of inflation b ed real excha	n T-bill rate. y DRI, a nge rate,



20-5	Fixed Exchange Rates	
Chapter 20: Output, the Interest Rate, and the Exchange Rate	Central banks act under implicit and explicit exchange-rate targets and use monetary policy to achieve those targets.	
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Pegs, Crawling Pegs, Bonds, the EMS, and the Euro

Some countries operate under *fixed exchange rates*. These countries maintain a fixed exchange rate in terms of some foreign currency. Some **peg** their currency to the dollar. Some countries operate under a **crawling peg**.

These countries typically have inflation rates that exceed the U.S. inflation rate.

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Pegs, Crawling Pegs, Bonds, the EMS, and the Euro

Some countries maintain their bilateral exchange rates within some bands. The most prominent example is the **European Monetary System** (EMS). Under the EMS rules, member countries agreed to maintain their exchange rate vis-á-vis the other currencies in the system within narrow limits or **bands** around a **central parity**.

Some countries moved further, agreeing to adopt a common currency, the **Euro**, in effect, adopting a "fixed exchange rate."

Pegging the Exchange Rate, and Monetary Control

The interest parity condition is:

 $(1+i_t)=(1+i_t^*)+\left(\frac{E_t}{E_{t+1}^e}\right)$

Pegging the exchange rate turns the interest parity relation into:

$$(1+i_t)=(1+i_t^*) \Rightarrow i_t=i_t^*$$

Pegging the Exchange Rate, and Monetary Control

In words: Under a fixed exchange rate and perfect capital mobility, the domestic interest rate must be equal to the foreign interest rate.

Increases in the domestic demand for money must be matched by increases in the supply of money in order to maintain the interest rate constant, so that the following condition holds:

 $\frac{M}{P} = YL(i^*)$





There are a number of reasons why countries choosing to fix its interest rate appears to be a bad idea:

- By fixing the exchange rate, a country gives up a powerful tool for correcting trade imbalances or changing the level of economic activity.
- By committing to a particular exchange rate, a country also gives up control of its interest rate, and they must match movements in the foreign interest rate risking unwanted effects on its own activity.

Fiscal Policy Under Fixed Exchange Rates

There are a number of reasons why countries choosing to fix its interest rate appears to be a bad idea:

 Although the country retains control of fiscal policy, one policy instrument is not enough. A country that wants to decrease its budget deficit cannot, under fixed exchange rates, use monetary policy to offset the contractionary effect of its fiscal policy on output.

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		JS	G In	erman (iterest)	Unifica Rates,	tion, and th	e EMS
	Table 1	German U France, ar	nification, In d Belgium,	terest Rates, 1990-1992	and Output	Growth: Ger	many,
		Nomina	l Interest I	Rates (%)	1	nflation (%	6)
- 1		1990	1991	1992	1990	1991	1992
	Germany	8.5	9.2	9.5	2.7	3.7	4.7
	France	10.3	9.6	10.3	2.9	3.0	2.4
	Belgium	9.6	9.4	9.4	2.9	2.7	2.4
1		Real li	nterest Ra	tes (%)	GD	P Growth	(%)
		1990	1991	1992	1990	1991	1992
	Germany	5.7	5.5	4.8	5.7	4.5	2.1
	France	7.4	6.6	7.9	2.5	0.7	1.4
	Belgium	6.7	6.7	7.0	3.3	2.1	0.8
Í	The nominal inte over the year - t	rest rate is the sh hat is, the nomina	ort term nominal I interest rate mi	interest rate. The r nus actual inflation	eal interest rate over the year. Al	s the realized realized realized real	al interest rate I.

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	Key Terms							
Chapter 20: Output, the Interest Rate, and the Exchange Rate	Mundell-Fleming model supply siders twin deficits peg crawling peg	uropean Monetary System EMS) ands entral parity uro						
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