

# Money

- Primary function: a medium of exchange
- We hold money because we expect we can buy things with it
- The value of money depends on confidence
- Confidence in money depends on
  - Scarcity
  - Ease of recognition
  - Difficulty of counterfeiting

# Gold and silver as money

- Gold and silver have special qualities that make them useful as money
  - Scarce, durable, malleable, recognizable, etc.
- US money
  - Gold coins and paper money backed by gold, until 1933
  - Silver coins and paper money backed by silver, until 1965
  - Paper money now backed by nothing

# The international gold standard ca. 1870-1914

- All major currencies defined in terms of gold
  - US \$20.67 = one oz. gold
  - UK £4.253 = one oz. gold
  - Other major currencies also defined by gold
- Conversion rates of these currencies was never in doubt
  - \$/£ exchange rate was  $20.67/4.253 = \$4.86/£$
- Inflation was largely unknown
- International trade was greatly facilitated

# Gradual erosion of the gold standard

- Governments like to finance war by printing money
- If a gold or silver standard is in effect they have to suspend redemption of paper money into specie (gold/silver)
- 1914: Warring European countries suspended gold redemption
- 1925: UK tried to return to gold at prewar rate
- 1931: UK went off gold
- 1933: Roosevelt seized private gold
- 1944: Gold exchange standard established at Bretton Woods
- 1971: Last link to gold removed

# Bretton Woods monetary system

- Bretton Woods conference, 1944 had two goals
  - Reduce tariffs and other trade barriers
  - Establish a stable international monetary system
- Bretton Woods system
  - Foreign central banks could convert US\$ into gold at \$35/oz.
  - Exchange rates fixed: \$4.03/£, 119 Ffr/\$, etc.

# Decline and fall of the Bretton Woods monetary system

- The Bretton Woods system relied on prudent government fiscal and monetary policy
- Governments that incurred high deficits risked breaking their currency's link to US\$.
- When a country's currency got too far out of line with its official exchange rate there were sometimes sudden and jarring devaluations

# Devaluations

- British pound
  - 1944: \$4.03/£ set at Bretton woods (previously \$4.86)
  - 1949: Devalued to \$2.80/£
  - 1967: Devalued to \$2.40/£
  - 1971: Bretton Woods collapse
- French franc
  - 1944: 119 Ffr/\$
  - 1949: 350 Ffr/\$
  - 1958: 494 Ffr/\$
  - 1958: 4.94 new Ffr/\$

# Declining U.S. gold reserves

- Foreign governments had been exercising their rights to redeem US\$ for gold in spite of the “gentlemen’s agreement” not to
- Led by French who disliked the Bretton Woods system and distrusted the U.S. generally
- U.S. gold reserves had declined from 20,000 tonnes to 8,000 tons.

# The Sunday night Nixon shock: Aug. 15, 1971

- Richard Nixon liked dramatic gestures, whether they made sense or not
- Aug 15:
  - Extra 10% tariff on imports
  - Wage and price freeze
  - End of gold convertibility; beginning of the end of fixed exchange rates

# Nixon tariff increase

- Intended as a bargaining chip to induce other countries to revalue their currencies upward
- Nixon was warned that other countries might retaliate
- Surcharge ended in December 1971 before too much damage was done

# Nixon wage/price freeze

- Popular at first; helped Nixon get re-elected in 1972
- Longer-term: created shortages and other economic distortions
- Abandoned 1973
- Helped create a decade of “stagflation:” inflation plus economic stagnation

# Foreign exchange (FX)

- Foreign currencies supplied and demanded by
  - International travelers
  - Business firms
  - Governments
  - Speculators
- We will study S/D for UK£, paid for with US\$ (Fig. 10.2)

# Current exchange rates (XR)

- Online, e.g. [www.xe.com](http://www.xe.com)
  - 0.901 €/US\$ or 1.110 US\$/€
  - 0.808 £/US\$ or 1.238 US\$/£
  - 103.03 ¥/US\$ or 0.00970 US\$/¥
  - 0.747 US\$/C\$ or C\$1.339/US\$
  - XR alone do not tell us the strength of a currency. The Korean won is strong at 1,150 per US\$
  - Underlined forms preferred for convenience
- Fluctuations last 12 months:
  - 99.99 to 103.17 ¥/\$
  - 1.251 to 1.523 \$/£
  - 1.057 to 1.153 \$/€

# Exchange rate arbitrage

- Suppose we observe these XR:
  - \$1.15/€
  - \$1.40/£
- These numbers determine the expected £/€ rate:  $1.40/1.15 = 1.22$  €/£. If the actual rate is 1.20, someone holding US\$ can profit:
  - Exchange \$1,000 for €869.56 ( $1000/1.15$ )
  - Exchange €869.56 for £724.63 ( $869.56/1.20$ )
  - Exchange £724.63 for \$1,014.44 ( $724.63 \times 1.40$ )
  - 1.4% profit in almost no time – unrealistic

# Currency appreciation/depreciation

- If the  $\$/\text{£}$  XR rises we say
  - It costs more to acquire  $\text{£}$  using  $\text{\$}$
  - The  $\text{£}$  has appreciated (strengthened) vs. the  $\text{\$}$
  - The  $\text{\$}$  has depreciated (weakened) vs. the  $\text{£}$
- If the  $\text{¥}/\text{\$}$  XR rises we say
  - It less to acquire  $\text{£}$  using  $\text{\$}$
  - The  $\text{¥}$  has depreciated vs. the  $\text{\$}$
  - The  $\text{\$}$  has appreciated vs. the  $\text{¥}$

# Supply and demand for UK£

- We focus on the market for UK£ paid for with US\$
- “Supply” in this market refers to holders of £ who want to exchange them for \$
- UK demand for \$ implies supply of £
- “Demand” refers to holders of \$ who want to exchange them for £
- US supply of \$ implies demand for £

# Effects of S/D shifts

- Demand increases (shifts right)
  - \$/£ XR rises, £ appreciates, \$ depreciates
- Demand decreases (shifts left)
  - \$/£ XR falls, £ depreciates, \$ appreciates
- Supply increases (shifts right)
  - \$/£ XR falls, £ depreciates, \$ appreciates
- Supply decreases (shifts left)
  - \$/£ XR rises, £ appreciates, \$ depreciates

# Scenario 1: US price level rises more than UK price level

- UK response:
  - UK people demand fewer US goods/services
  - UK people demand fewer \$ to pay for them
  - Lower demand for \$ means lower supply of £
  - XR (\$/£) rises, £ appreciates, \$ depreciates
- US response
  - US people demand more UK goods/services
  - US people demand more £ to pay for them
  - XR rises more

## Scenario 2: US interest rates rise more than UK interest rates

- US bonds are more attractive to UK savers
  - Demand more \$ to pay for US bonds
  - Supply more £ into FX market
  - \$/£ XR drops, £ depreciates, \$ appreciates
- UK bonds are less attractive to US savers
  - Demand fewer UK bonds (or sell some)
  - Demand fewer UK£
  - \$/£ XR drops more

## Scenario 3: a socialist is elected in UK, £ depreciation expected

- Market participants will want to get rid of £ before the expected depreciation occurs
- Increased supply into FX market will suppress \$/£ XR
- Like all other markets, FX markets try to anticipate (“discount”) future events
- If they get it right, speculators provide social benefits by causing adjustments to future changes sooner

# Exchange rate risk

- Sometimes people are risk-averse and are willing to pay someone to take on risk
- Sometimes people are risk-takers and are willing to take on risk for a price
- Exchange rates change over time, posing risks
  - A US firm that will be receive £ a year from now, to be converted to \$, will lose purchasing power if the \$/£ exchange rate drops
  - Risk can be off-loaded to speculators by forward contracts: e.g. \$ price for £ to be delivered in one year

# Forward (futures) contracts.

## Agricultural example

- A farmer plants wheat which he will harvest in September. He is willing to pay a fee to avoid the risk of lower September wheat prices.
- A speculator is willing to pay the farmer now for delivery of wheat in September. He hopes the wheat price will be high in September
- The speculator will not take delivery of the wheat, but will sell the contract to someone who wants wheat

# Social benefits of speculation

- Speculation shifts risk from risk-averse people to risk-taking people
- When they are right, speculators cause prices to adjust to future conditions sooner than they would otherwise
  - Example: wheat speculator expects bad weather before September, hence poor crop and high price
  - Buys wheat for future delivery, thereby bidding up current prices

# Forward currency contracts

- Forward currency contracts are mutually beneficial:
  - One party wants to reduce XR risk and is willing to pay
  - The counter-party is willing to take risk, hoping for profit
- A US person who will need £ in the future (to pay for a purchase, for example) can buy a contract for forward delivery
  - Assured of receiving future £ at a rate agreed to now
  - Avoids risk of £ appreciation
  - Will lose any benefit from £ depreciation

# Forward currency contracts

- A US person who will *receive* £ in the future (getting paid for a sale, for example) can *sell* a contract for forward delivery
  - Assured of getting rid of £ in the future at a price agreed to now
  - Avoids risk of £ depreciation
  - Assumes risk of missing out on £ appreciation

# Forward currency contracts

- Example 1: I have contracted to buy an apartment in London for £1,000,000 which will be due in 3 months. XR is now \$1.40/£
  - I could buy a contract for delivery of £1,000,000 for \$1.41/£, total \$1,410,000
  - Suppose 3 months go by and the XR is \$1.45. Without the contract I would have paid \$1,450,000 for the £. I have saved \$40,000
  - Suppose 3 months go by and the XR is \$1.39. Without the contract I would have paid \$1,390,000 for the £. I have lost \$20,000

# Forward currency contracts

- Example 2: I have contracted to sell a valuable painting in London for £1,000,000 which I will receive in 3 months. XR is now \$1.40/£
  - I could sell a contract for delivery of £1,000,000 and receive (say) \$1.39/£, total \$1,390,000
  - Suppose 3 months go by and the XR is \$1.35. Without the contract I would have received \$1,350,000 for the £. I am \$40,000 better off
  - Suppose 3 months go by and the XR is \$1.45. Without the contract I would have received \$1,450,000 for the £. I am \$60,000 worse off

# Purchasing power parity (PPP)

- Exchange rates are sometimes “wrong” according to PPP. Assume \$1.40/£:
  - If you can buy more goods/services with \$1,400 than you can with 1,000 £ then we conclude:
    - The \$ is over-valued relative to the £
    - The £ is under-valued relative to the \$
    - An arbitrage opportunity exists: buy stuff for \$ and sell it for £
    - Arbitrage should drive the \$ down and the £ up. The XR might move to \$1.41/£

# Persistence of purchasing power disparity

- Currencies are “at parity” when there is no discrepancy between their purchasing powers (PPP)
- Deviations in PPP often cannot be arbitrated away because
  - Some goods and especially services can’t be traded
  - Transaction costs and tariffs/quotas interfere
  - Expectations can drive currencies away from PPP

# Price level

- The “price level” in a particular country is an attempt to measure the purchasing power of its currency
- An imaginary “basket” of goods and services is used to attempt price level measurements
- A rise in the price of a basket is called “price inflation” or just “inflation”

# Real (inflation-adjusted) exchange rate

- Exchange rates tend to follow changes in the price level in the two countries
- If prices rise more rapidly in the UK than in the US, we would expect the £ to depreciate relative to the \$, so that the purchasing powers of each currency remained unchanged
- If the XR does not fall as much as expected, the real exchange rate has risen
- If the XR falls more than expected, the real exchange rate has fallen

# Real (inflation-adjusted) interest rates

- Assume there is a single interest rate that characterizes a country's entire loan market
- Assume price inflation can be measured in each of two countries
  - Ex post: calculated from recent price history
  - Ex ante: anticipated future price changes
  - Expressed as % per year
- Interest rates in two countries should reflect anticipated future price inflation in both countries

# Real interest rates

- In general, lenders who anticipate price inflation will demand higher interest to compensate for future purchasing power deterioration:
- Subtract expected price inflation rate from nominal interest rate to get real interest rate
$$r = i - \pi$$
- Example: inflation rate  $\pi=2\%$ , nominal interest rate  $i=4.2\%$ , real interest rate  $4.2-2 = 2.2\%$ , representing change in purchasing power

# Real interest rate parity

- XR should reflect anticipated real interest rates in each country
- The expected change in XR over time (% per annum) should roughly equal the interest rate difference in that time
- If not, there is an arbitrage opportunity.

# Real interest rate parity

- Example (text)
  - German CD pays 2% per annum, denominated in €
  - US CD pays 3% per annum, denominated in \$
  - US investor has two ways to invest \$1,000
    - Buy US CD and receive \$1,030 after one year
    - Convert \$1,000 to €833.33 at current XR=\$1.20
    - Get  $1.02 \times 833.33 = €850$  after one year
    - But how many \$ will €850 buy after one year? If interest rate parity prevails the XR would be  $\$1,030 / €850 = \$1.211 / €$
    - € appreciation compensates for lower German interest rate

# Real interest rate parity

- Stated differently (text p. 220)
- The interest rate parity condition says that the difference in interest rates between two countries should equal the one-year change in XR between those countries, e.g.
  - $i_{UK} - i_{US} = (FXR - XR) / XR$
  - XR = spot \$/£ exchange rate
  - FXR = one-year forward \$/£ exchange rate
  - $i_{UK}$  = UK interest rate,  $i_{US}$  = US interest rate