FINANCIAL MARKETS AND INSTITUTIONS

CENTRAL BANKS

A.Y. 2020/2021 Prof. Alberto Dreassi – adreassi@units.it





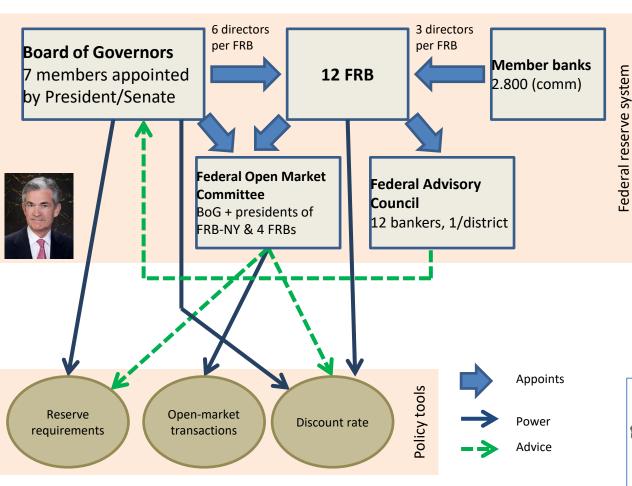
AGENDA



- FED vs ECB
- Why different CB models?
- Monetary policy: why/how/what of different CB mandates
- CB and financial crisis

THE US/FED SYSTEM

Complex balanced system of powers, controls and responsibilities

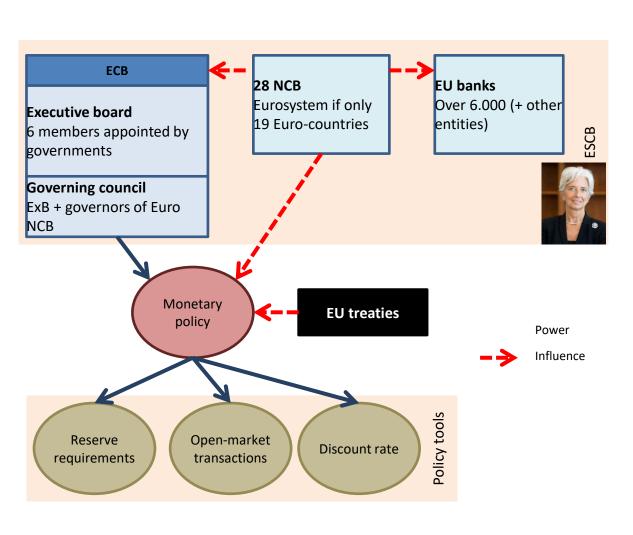


- BoG: chairman has public and internal influence
- FOMC ("the Fed")
- Independent choice of instruments and goals
- Influence from Congress and President



THE EU/ECB SYSTEM

NCBs are the core of the ESCB



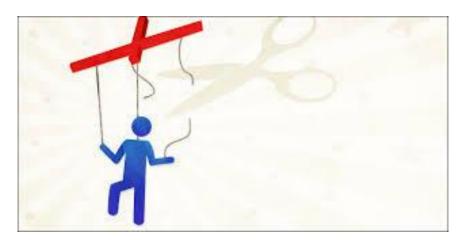
NCBs:

- decide ECB's budget
- enforce monetary policy
- enforce regulation and supervision
- Greater independence
- Treaties require price stability and changes are extremely difficult: more goal independence

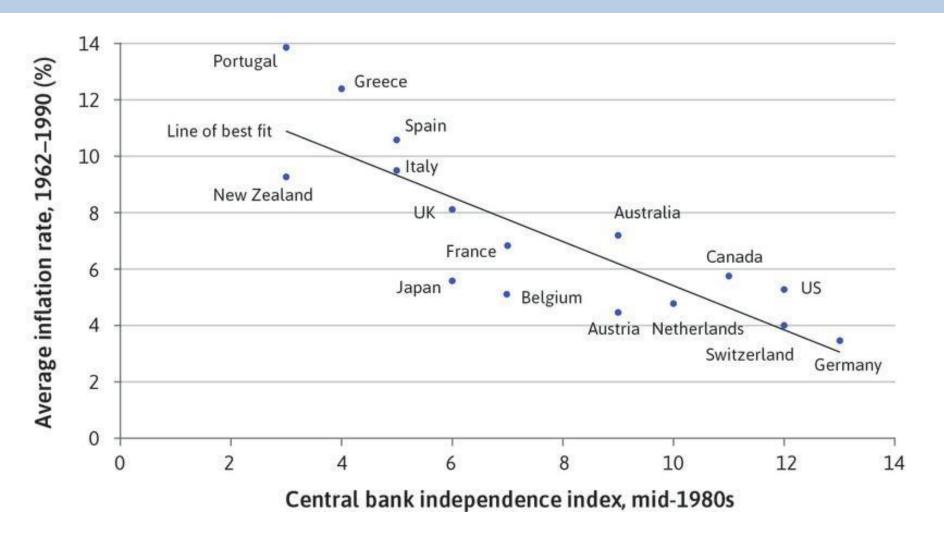


DIFFERENT MODELS: WHY?

- **Pros** of independence:
 - Political shortsighted influence produces inflation by acting on short-term goals (unemployment and IR): election dates rather than economy needs
 - Treasuries' influence accumulates risk by promoting abnormal absorption of public debt and concentration in CB/banks
 - Monetary policy requires specific expertise
- Cons of independence:
 - Accountability and democratic control (?)
 - Governments' fiscal policies weakened by monetary policy (?)
 - Independence did not avoid crisis

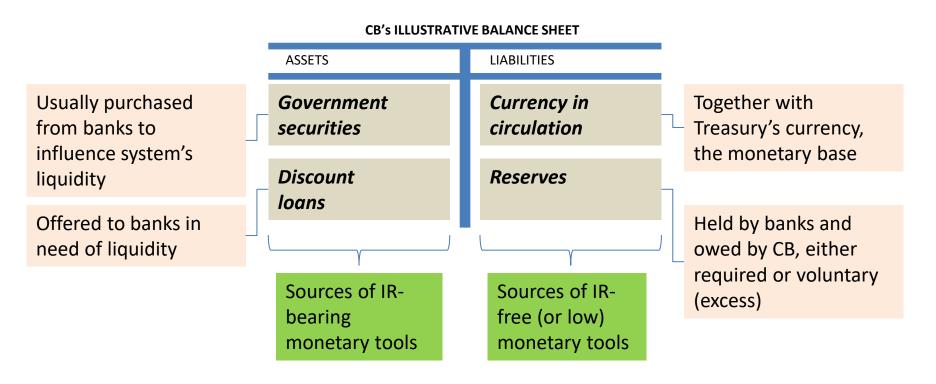


DIFFERENT MODELS: WHY?

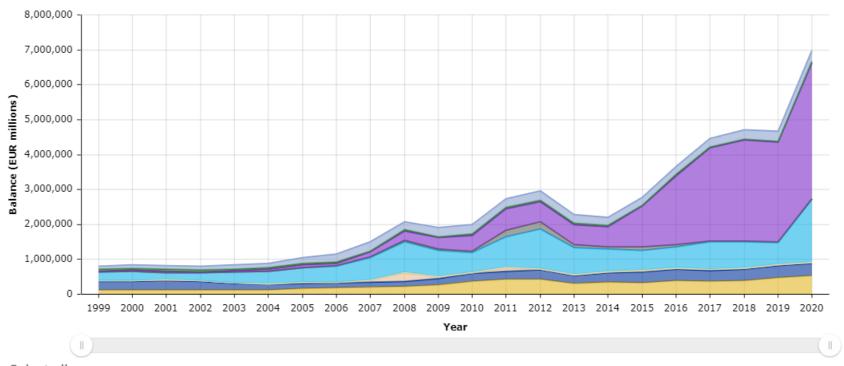


MONETARY POLICY

In an accounting perspective



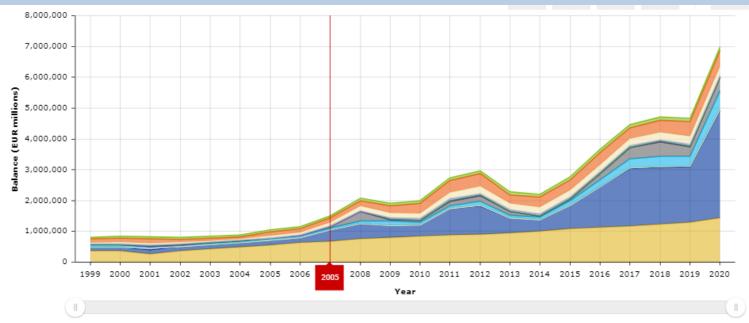
MONETARY POLICY: ESCB ASSETS



✓ Select all

	Balance (EUR millions) 2018
☑ ■ A1 Gold and gold receivables	389,765
☑ ■ A2 Claims on non-euro area residents denominated in foreign currency	334,369
☑ ■ A3 Claims on euro area residents denominated in foreign currency	20,499
☑ ■ A4 Claims on non-euro area residents denominated in euro	21,276
A5 Lending to euro area credit institutions related to monetary policy operations denominated in euro	734,381
☑ ■ A6 Other claims on euro area credit institutions denominated in euro	17,637
■ A7 Securities of euro area residents denominated in euro	2,899,300
☑ ■ A8 General government debt denominated in euro	23,947
☑ ■ A9 Other assets	261,556

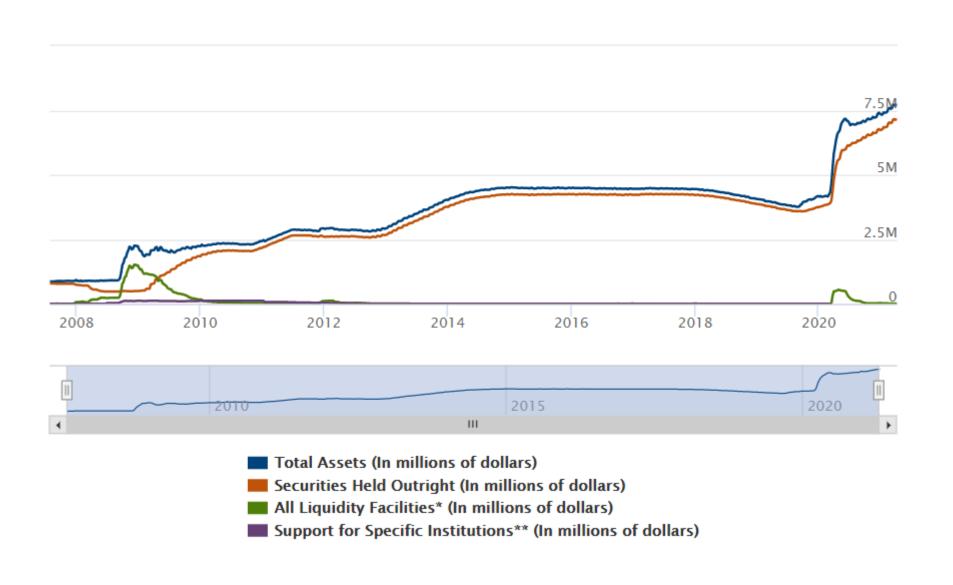
MONETARY POLICY: ESCB LIABILITIES



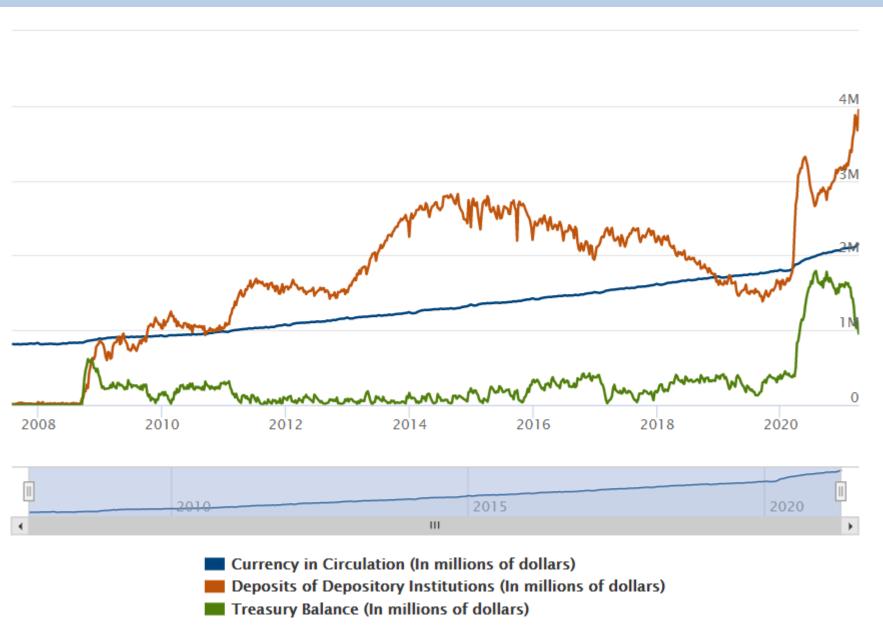
✓ Select all

	Balance (EUR millions) 2005
✓ ■ L1 Banknotes in circulation	565,216
☑ ■ L2 Liabilities to euro area credit institutions	155,535
related to monetary policy operations denominated in euro	
☑ ■ L3 Other liabilities to euro area credit institutions denominated in euro	207
☑ ■ L4 Debt certificates issued	0
☑ ■ L5 Liabilities to other euro area residents denominated in euro	41,762
☑ ■ L6 Liabilities to non-euro area residents denominated in euro	13,224
☑ ■ L7 Liabilities to euro area residents denominated in foreign currency	366
☑ ■ L8 Liabilities to non-euro area residents denominated in foreign currency	8,405
☑ ■ L9 Counterpart of special drawing rights allocated by the IMF	5,920
☑ L10 Other liabilities	67,325
☑ ■ L11 Revaluation accounts	119,094
☑ ■ L12 Capital and reserves	61,562
Total:	1,038,616

MONETARY POLICY: FED ASSETS



MONETARY POLICY: FED LIABILITIES



Open market operations

- Main tool for IR and liquidity
- Purchase/selling of securities on the secondary market through banks

Discount lending

- More "localised"
- More loans increase reserves and assets

Reserve requirements

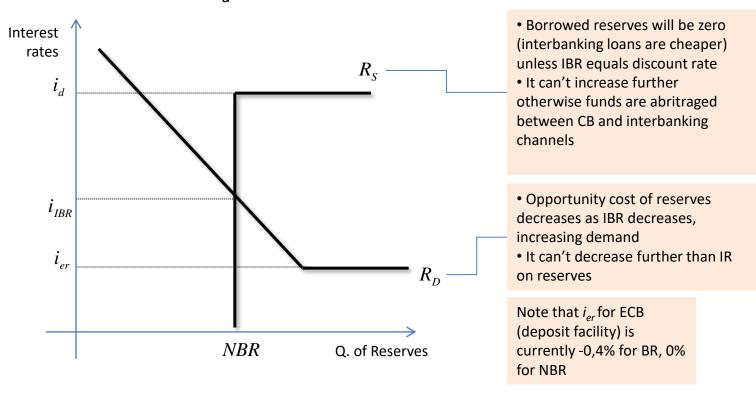
- Amount of requirements
- Also, IR on BR and NBR



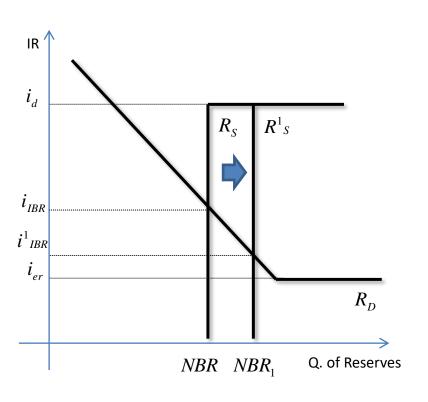


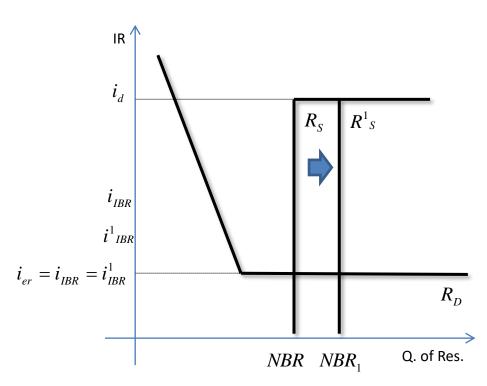
Operations in the market for reserves

- Influence inter-banking rate (i_{IBR}) and therefore other market IR
- Through reserve requirements and IR on reserves (i_{er})
- Influenced by open-market non-borrowed reserves (NBR) and borrowed reserves at the discount rate i_d

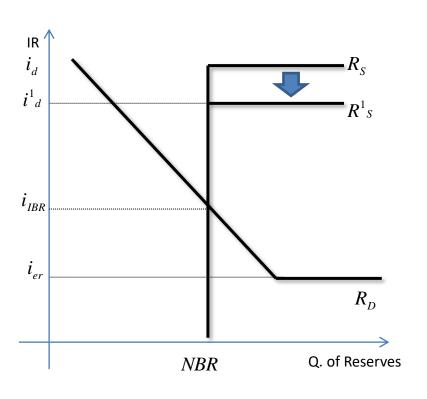


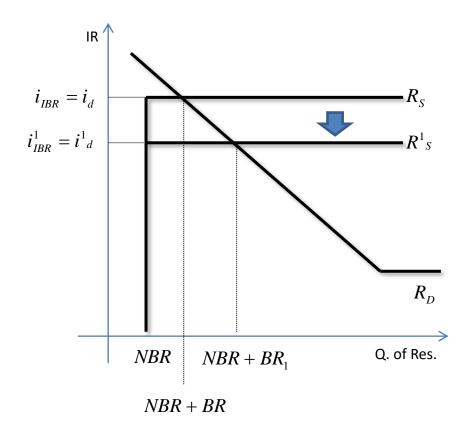
Effects of open-market operations (purchase)



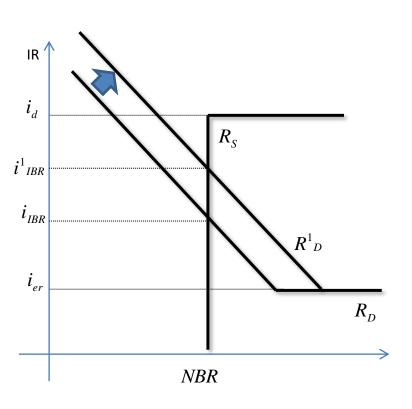


Effects of discount lending (lower IR on discounts)





Effects of reserve requirements (increase)



Effects are different if demand and supply meet where flat, but mostly irrelevant

Use of open-market operations

- Above all, government bonds, especially short-term:
 - market is deep, liquid and trades in high volumes,
 - hence could absorb large interventions
- Transactions take the technical form of:
 - repurchase agreement (REPO): CBs buy (or sell) spot and is obliged to sell (or buy) at a future date (usually within days) – temporary and defensive
 - outright transaction: actual purchase (or selling) by itself not temporary
- Each CB adopts specific names (f.i. ECB main refinancing operations, targeted long-term refinancing operations, ...)

Use of discount lending

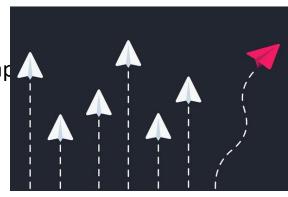
- Liquidity backup, in the very short-term, for solvent and/or troubled institutions (with different pricing)
- Discount lending could allow CBs to become lenders of last resort to avoid bank runs, by increasing discount lending and extending it particularly to troubled institutions
- Lending of last resort induces moral hazard (as any safety net)
- Different names again (f.i. ECB "marginal lending facility")

"Unconventional policies" (incomplete list)

- Negative interest rate policies to avoid deflationary currency ap
 - Effective in dealing with lower bound events
 - Side effects: less bank interest margins
 - Longer-term effects: ?



- Contained funding issues on interbank/money markets
- Longer maturities, more eligible collateral, more counterparties, different lending terms, setting lending goals (TLTRO)
- Effective for flows to the private sector and stabilizing expectations
- Side effects: inefficient allocation of credit, weaker leverage reduction
- Asset purchase programmes for lower bound and monetary policy issues
 - Protected assets during fire sales and incentivized loans securitisation.
 - Side effects: limited weakening CB balance sheets, poorer asset valuations, scarcity in repo markets, spillovers on commodity prices
- Forward guidance to reduce uncertainty
 - Clarifying ahead of time intentions and tools
 - Quite effective, subject to credibility and flexibility issues





Primary goal: price stability

- "Low" and stable increase in price level
- Reduced uncertainty and stimulus economic growth
- Nominal anchor:
 - Typically, inflation or money supply
 - Reduces time-inconsistency: long-run effectiveness
 - Constrains discretionary policies

Other goals:

- High employment (lower than 100%):
 - frictional unemployment is beneficial (looking for better jobs, education, ...),
 structural unemployment (mismatch between demand and supply) is
 outside CBs' powers "natural rate of unemployment"
- Economic growth: promoting investments and savings
- Financial markets stability
- IR stability
- ER stability:
 - to assist competition
 - to avoid "imported" inflation
 - to reduce uncertainty
 - to assist economies dependent on foreign trade



- In the long run all goals converge
- CBs are usually ruled:
 - By hierarchical mandates: price stability first, and growth and employment then (f.i. ECB): less time inconsistency
 - By dual mandates: achieving together price stability and minimum unemployment (f.i. FED)



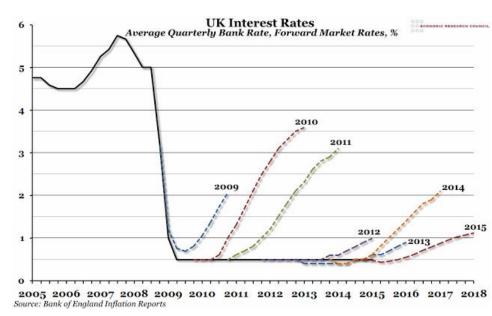
Price stability is usually achieved by **inflation targeting**:

Why?

- Inflation targeting is easily understood and communicated
- Provides easy accountability and less time-inconsistency
- Reduces political pressures requiring a long run focus

But...

- Outcomes are slow to emerge and inflation policies lag
- Can be rigid
- Acting on inflation is difficult, so intermediate targets: monetary aggregates and IR (with credibility issues)



- Intermediate targets bear trade-offs:
 - once a monetary aggregate target is set, IR fluctuate
 - if IR are set, monetary base fluctuates
- Choice of instrument depends on:
 - Observability/measurability: IR are immediate to observe in nominal terms but difficult in real terms, monetary aggregates are easy to measure but lag on actions taken
 - <u>Controllability</u>: short-term nominal IR can be controlled tightly (but little control on expected inflation), whereas monetary base fluctuates on demand changes (less controllable)
 - <u>Predictability</u>: IR have a closer link with goals if compared with monetary aggregates
- And the winner is...



CB AND CRISIS

Asset-price bubbles can lead to crisis:

- <u>Credit-driven</u>: easy credit artificially inflates an asset, and when reverted credit losses arise and asset values are destroyed (f.i. subprime mortgage crisis)
- <u>Irrational exuberance</u>: excessive optimism over an asset inflates prices, and when reverted it has a limited impact on economy (f.i. "New economy" bubble)

CBs should therefore consider the following:

- Exuberance bubbles are hard to see and not so dangerous
- If credit is booming, it is easier to see it and the impact is usually huge



MONETARY POLICY AND CRISIS

How should CBs respond?

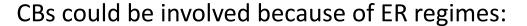
- Influencing IR has uncertain outcomes: it does not discourage "bubble-investors" and higher IR make bubble burst sooner and harder
- Usually it's a specific asset being involved: CBs have tools that are general
- Acting on IR causes a short-term loss of growth, employment and inflation (with heavy political pressures)
- Hence, CBs do not respond to burst bubbles, but to facilitate recovery: it's questionable to say that they are "late", or "did not see it"
- Other players maybe, like regulators and supervisors?



CB AND **ER**

CBs act also on currencies:

- By buying/selling international reserves, changing the monetary base and the value of the domestic currency: unsterilised intervention
- Sterilised interventions add another
 offsetting open market transaction to
 keep the monetary base stable: no effect
 on ER or IR, but signaling effect on future actions



- Floating ER regimes (managed/dirty) with domestic effects
- Fixed ER regimes, setting an anchor, require availability of international reserves: if insufficient a devaluation occurs

THE INTERNATIONAL FRAMEWORK

Why choose fixed or floating?

- Floating systems can induce inflation or damage internal economy through wide fluctuations
- Fixed systems can lead to currency crisis and attacks, is expensive and make CBs give up on inflation
- Some countries tried capital inflow-outflow restrictions: black markets!
- The global system is a mix of managed floats and temporarily fixed ER



EXAMPLES

- 1. On 7th Nov 2013 the ECB cuts IR to an all-time low of 0.25%. On "The Economist"...
- [...] inflation in the euro zone had plunged [...] to 0.7% in October. [...] the European Central Bank responded by cutting its main policy rate from 0.5%. [...] The ECB also extended the time that banks can borrow unlimited amounts from it from mid-2014 to mid-2015.
- What are the immediate consequences in terms of ER?
- The decision came as a surprise—the euro fell sharply against the dollar-even though the collapse in inflation had brought it a percentage point under the central bank's target of "below but close to 2%.
- Traders [thought] that any rate cut would be delayed until December. [...] ECB usually moves in a ponderous way.
- [...] the 23-strong governing council would then have available new staff forecasts.
- [...] it still remains slow-moving and fettered compared with other central banks Is the ECB facing new troubles?
- [...] falling inflation [...] could be highly corrosive, especially if inflation turns to outright deflation. [...] once people start to expect falling rather than rising prices it can be very difficult to reverse.
- [...] inflation [...] is now lower than in Japan. [...] Mr Draghi said that the euro area did not face the risk of Japanese-style deflation [but] "a prolonged period of low inflation" until "a gradual" return towards the ECB's target. That [...] is deeply worrying, for two reasons.

 Why?
- [1] sickly countries [...] are weighed down by excessive debt. [...] it becomes much more difficult
- [2] harder to regain their competitive edge, forcing them towards the deflationary precipice. *Enough?*
- [...] The ECB [...] is still not doing enough: [...] one option [is] a negative rate on CB's deposits.

EXAMPLES

2. ESCB annual report: https://www.ecb.europa.eu/pub/annual/html/ar2019~c199d3633e.en.html

