Lecture 7: The Open Economy in the Long Run

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Readings: Gottfries, Chapter 13

Where we've been

Last week we developed a model of an open economy

We took our standard closed economy and added in

Trade in goods and services (Net Exports)

We showed that $\frac{\partial NX}{\partial \varepsilon}(\varepsilon, Y, Y^*) < 0$ in general

Capital flows across the border

We derived the interest parity condition, and discussed its implications for monetary policy

We showed that aggregate savings are tightly related to the change in net borrowing from foreigners (the current account)

We figured out that we will probably need either real interest rates or the exchange rate to clear this market

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- We need a coherent theory of how real interest rates are determined
 - We'll see that open financial markets mean that over the long run, they must be the same at home and abroad
 - The only price we have left to clear the savings market is the exchange rate
- We'll work through a simple long-run model of output, next exports, and the real exchange rate
 - Under what circumstances does a change in the government deficit will lead to a current account deficit
- We will characterize investment and growth in our open economy, when capital moves freely across borders
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Section 1

Real Interest Rates, Exchange Rates, and Net Exports

Let's go back to our interest parity condition:



- How does the nominal exchange rate change?
- Assumption: We are in the long run
 - Prices and wages adjust (output is at its natural level)
 - \blacktriangleright This means that the real exchange rate ε is constant

Real exchange rates can't be growing at a constant rate over time in the long run, since that means exporters could not compete, and exports would fall (i.e, we're not in the long run)

▶ We have a formula for the exchange rate:

$$e_t = \varepsilon \frac{P_t^*}{P_t} \tag{2}$$

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$$e_t = \varepsilon \frac{P_t^\star}{P_t} \tag{2}$$

(1)

Growth rate of ε

$$e = \varepsilon_t \frac{P^*}{P} \tag{2}$$

▶ We want the growth rate of *e*. Two ways to get it:

1. Rule of thumb for growth rates:



2. Take logs and differentiate:

$$\log(e_t) = \log(\varepsilon_t) + \log(P_t^*) - \log(P_t)$$
(4)

$$\Rightarrow \frac{1}{e_t} \frac{\partial e_t}{\partial t} = \frac{1}{\varepsilon_t} \frac{\partial \varepsilon_t}{\partial t} + \frac{1}{P_t^*} \frac{\partial P_t^*}{\partial t} - \frac{1}{P_t} \frac{\partial P_t}{\partial t}$$
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No matter how you do it, we see that since real exchange rates are constant, we must have

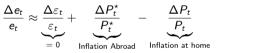
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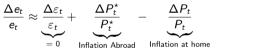
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Real interest parity

We already have:

$$\frac{\Delta e_t^e}{e_t} = i_t^* - i_t \tag{1}$$
$$\frac{\Delta e_t}{e_t} \approx \pi_t^* - \pi_t \tag{6}$$

In the long run, expected change in the exchange rate must be the actual change
So we can drop subscripts (long run) and combine eqs. (1) and (6) to obtain

$$i^{\star} - i = \pi^{\star} - \pi \implies \mathbf{r} = \mathbf{r}^{\star} \tag{7}$$

- Free financial flows require that the real rate is the same everywhere
- Notice that savings are no longer tied to the real interest rate if savings are too low to cover investments, the remainder is borrowed from foreigners

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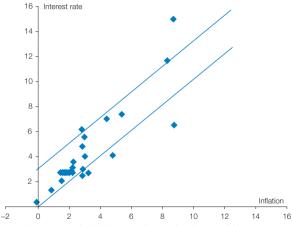
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Are real returns constant across countries?

Fig. 13.1 Inflation and interest rates, averages, 2005-2010

- The spread between nominal interest and inflation (r_t) tends to be between 0 and 3% for most OECD countries
- Higher inflation is compensated by higher nominal rates
- We should expect that differences are mostly due to default risk



Source: OECD Economic Outlook, OECD, 13 October 2011, http://www.oecd-ilibrary.org/statistics.

- We now know that r_t cannot clear the market for savings in our economy?
- So where do the excess savings go?
- Let's go back to basics: the natural level of production is determined just like in our closed economy

$$Y^{n} = F(K, E(1 - u^{n})L)$$
(8)

Aggregate demand is determined by the IS equation:

$$Y = C(Y^d, Y^e - T^e, r^*, A) + I(r^*, Y^e, K) + NX(\varepsilon, Y^*, Y)$$
(9)

- Where disposable income $Y^d = Y^n T + r^*(D + F)$
- Note we've set $r = r^*$ everywhere
- ▶ If production is at the natural level (long run) then we must have:

$$NX(\varepsilon, Y^{*}, Y^{n}) = Y^{n} - C(Y^{d}, Y^{e} - T^{e}, r^{*}, A) - I(r^{*}, Y^{e}, K) - G$$
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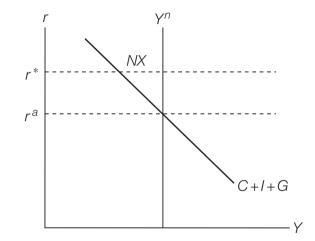
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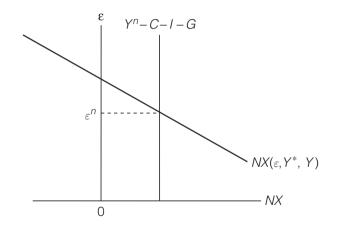
Net exports are the residual (in equilibrium)

- Open economy version of what we've seen before
- r^a is the interest rate that would prevail in autarky (no trade)
 This is what prevailed in our closed economy
- Net exports are the horizontal gap between Yⁿ and C + I + G at r = r*
- Note: There's no equilibrium in this picture – need to think in ε space instead



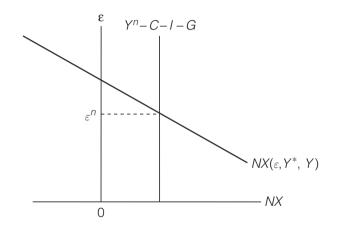
What real exchange rate clears the market for goods?

- Now we can figure out the natural real exchange rate
- It is the rate that causes net exports to clear the goods market the natural level
- εⁿ is the sensible analogue of rⁿ in a small open economy
- Now we start to say something useful about how a change in aggregate demand impacts the long run exchange rate

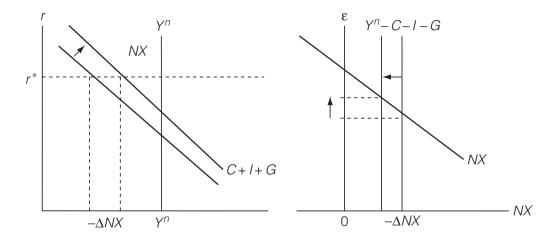


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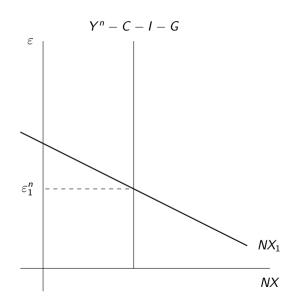
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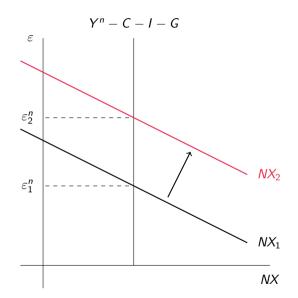
What happens if investment increases?



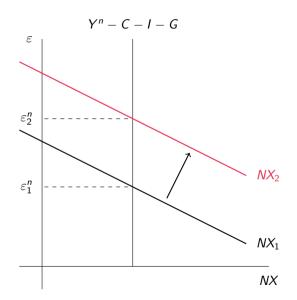
- What if government prohibits imports of foreign steel?
- For any given \varepsilon: imports are lower after the policy, so NX curve shifts out
- Note: aggregate demand stays the same, so NX stays the same in the long run
 - \triangleright ε adjusts up to clear the market
 - Lower imports of steel must be offset by lower exports of other things
 - Trade falls, but both NX and Y remain constant: there is no macroeconomic justification for trade policy
 - Moreover, with gains from trade, this policy probably decreases welfare



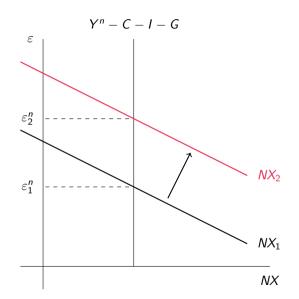
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Who actually sets ε ?

Recall that

$$\varepsilon = \frac{eP}{P^{\star}}$$

Which nominal variable adjusts depends on monetary policy

- 1. Fixed Exchange Rate: since e cannot adjust, the price level P must move instead
 - Increased investment leads to inflation
 - Price level rises until net exports have declined enough that production is at its natural level
- 2. Floating Exchange Rate: nominal rate e can adjust
 - ▶ If central bank targets inflation, then *P* stays constant
 - Since aggregate demand has increased, that means central bank raised nominal interest rate
 - Nominal exchange rate must rise, otherwise interest parity would not hold

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People often talk as though the government budget deficit moves the current account.

► To make sense of this, let's rewrite aggregate savings:



 \blacktriangleright If you save £100, there's only two places it can go:

1. Lend it to the government

2. Lend it to foreigners

• What happens if the government increases ΔD ?

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What is your view on Ricardian equivalence?

- 1. Assume Net Savings is constant:
 - If you lend the government more, you must be lending foreigners less
 - Current account offsets ΔD one for one
 - Real exchange rate will adjust to clear the market for goods
- 2. Assume full Ricardian Equivalence:
 - Consumers know that an increase in D will have to be offset by higher taxes in the future
 - Savings increase 1:1 to pay the future taxes
 - Current account ΔF does not change at all

Reality probably lies somewhere in between...



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- In some countries they seem to move together
 - High deficits in the US in the 1980s and 2000s show up clearly in the current account
- In others, not so much: Japan and Italy have high deficits and current account surpluses
- The UK seems to have almost a negative correlation
- This looks like weak evidence of a systematic correlation
- Maybe Ricardian equivalence is more relevant than we thought?
- ► Confounding Shocks: business cycle booms drive C, I and △D at the same time

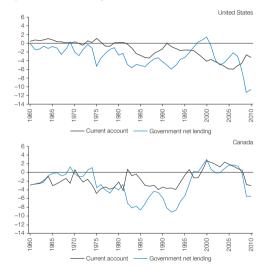
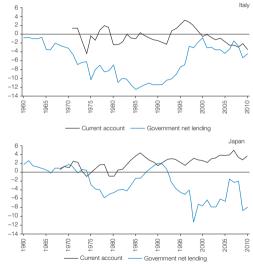


Fig. 13.5 Government net lending and the current account

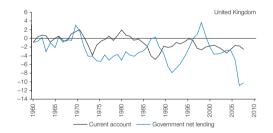
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 - High deficits in the US in the 1980s and 2000s show up clearly in the current account
- In others, not so much: Japan and Italy have high deficits and current account surpluses
- The UK seems to have almost a negative correlation
- This looks like weak evidence of a systematic correlation
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- ► Confounding Shocks: business cycle booms drive C, I and △D at the same time

Fig. 13.5 (Continued)

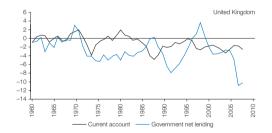


Source: OECD Economic Outlook, OECD, 14 October 2011, http://www.oecd-ilibrary.org/statistics.

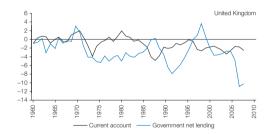
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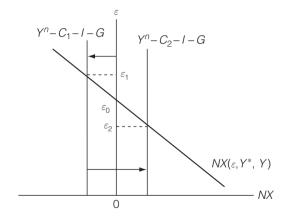
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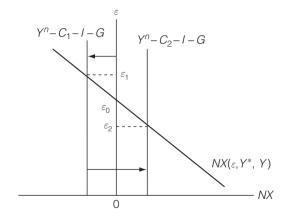
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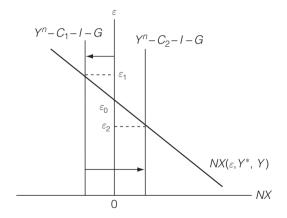
- Does a current account deficit lead to a depreciating currency?
- Consider starting from NX = 0 and F = 0
- Suppose that C goes up to C₁: next exports decrease, and ε ↑
- At some point however, consumers must pay back loans. C falls to C₂ and the exchange rate falls even below ε₀
- Large current account deficits may predict future depreciations, but...
- When will that happen? Very hard to predict in general



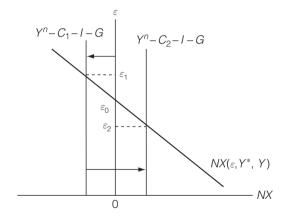
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Section 2

Investment and Growth

$$\frac{f'(k^*)}{1+\mu} - \delta = r^* \tag{12}$$

• Here k = K/(EN) as before

- Like in our closed economy, firms keep investing until the marginal return to a unit of capital (net of depreciation) equals the financing cost
 - In our closed economy, the financing cost was r
 . determined in equilibrium

But now, the relevant interest rate is the international rate r^{*}

Production is given as

$$Y = Y^{n} = F(K, EN^{n}) = F\left(\frac{K}{EN^{n}}, 1\right) EN^{n} = f(k^{*})EN^{n}$$
Constant returns to scale
Def of f
(13)

Key Insight: The link between household savings and investment is broken, since r* is independent of our small economy

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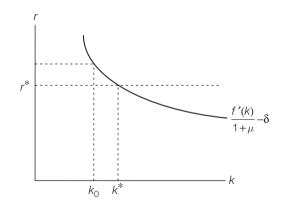
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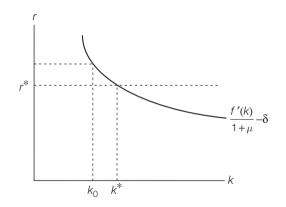
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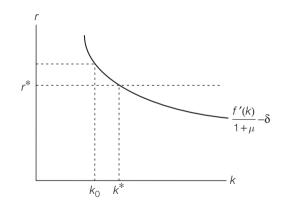
- Suppose k₀ is lower than k^{*}. How is the additional investment financed?
 - Use domestic savings
 - If not sufficient, borrow from international capital markets
- As long as the net return on capital f'(k)/(1 + μ) − δ is above r*, it will be a profitable loan, and a good business decision for firms
- Question: How quickly does the capital stock adjust?
 - In our model, it's instantaneous
 - In the real world there are many reasons it might be slow



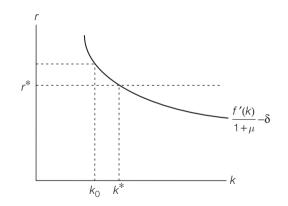
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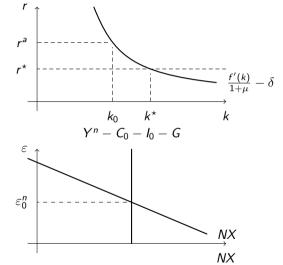


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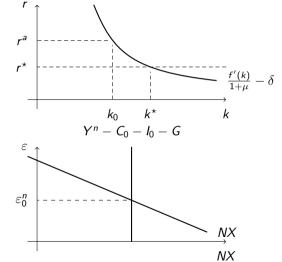
$$Y^n - C(Y^d, Y^e - T^e, r^a, A) - G = I(r^a, Y^e, K)$$

- Now let's open the economy: world interest rate is lower r* < r^a
- Implication 1: Steady state capital is higher
- Implication 2: Investment goes up, but so does consumption, so savings go down
- The extra investment is financed by borrowing from abroad!
- Whether r^a is higher or lower than r^{*} depends on domestic factors (incentives to save)



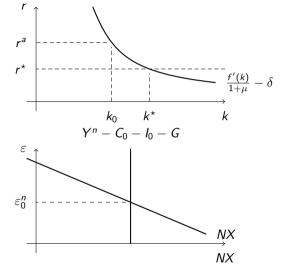
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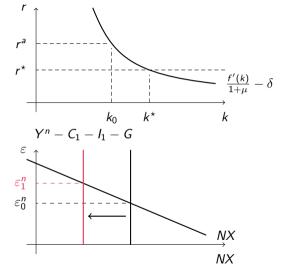
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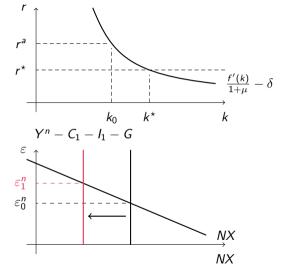
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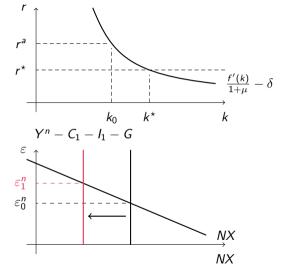
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Where does capital flow?

- This analysis tells us that countries with savings that are too high for their "natural" capital stock will export their capital abroad (i.e, invest in foreign countries)
- ▶ If financial markets are open, then capital flows to wherever the returns are highest
- Our model says that this only stops when returns are equalized across countries

This is a sharp empirical prediction!

Question: Do countries care that they're exporting capital?

$$Y = Y^n = F(K, EN^n) = f(k^*)EN^n$$

If you export your capital, then won't your long run production be lower?

- > Yes! But what you care about is **national income** $Y^n + r^*F$ not production
- Fall in output is more than made up by higher income on loans made abroad

The converse is also true for capital importing countries

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Where does capital flow?

Supply Side

$$\frac{f'(k^{\star})}{1+\mu} - \delta = r^{\star}$$

Another way to think about this is in terms of the marginal product of capital

 Our analysis suggests that in open financial markets, capital will flow from countries with a low MPK (large capital stocks) to countries with a high MPK (low capital stocks)

▶ In principle, this is an efficient outcome:

- > You don't want to keep building factories and machines where the marginal return is low
- Instead, you want them built in the places where the MPK is high

This implies that capital stocks should converge over time In practice, convergence may not be uniform, and it may be quite slow

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Section 3

Current account and long-run foreign debt

Income vs. Production

In our closed economy, income and production are the same thing

▶ However, in an open economy, foreign income from abroad means that national income is

 $Y^n + r^*F$

Savings do not determine investment, but they do determine the long run path of national income

- In principle, savings depend on the relative interest rate r* and the subjective discount rate ρ:
 - If $\rho = r^*$ then savings will stay constant
 - If \(\rho > r^*\) then savings will decrease (households value the present more than capital and investment markets do)
 - If $\rho < r^*$ then savings will accumulate

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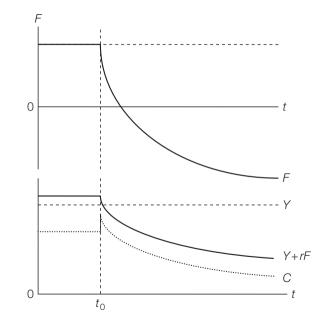
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Effects of Impatience

Recall the Euler Equation from earlier this year:

$$\frac{u'(C_t)}{u'(C_{t+1})} = \frac{1+r^*}{1+\rho}$$
(15)

- This means that (in our model) if ρ > r*, debt will rise forever, and consumption falls to zero.
- In practice, eventually households would simply default on their debt.
- Lenders, knowing this, would eventually stop lending to them The real return on the loan, accounting for default risk, would be lower than r*

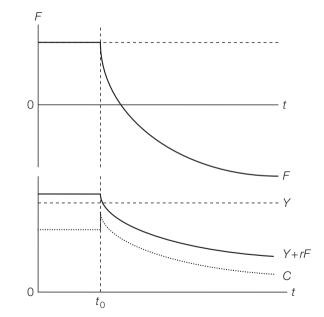


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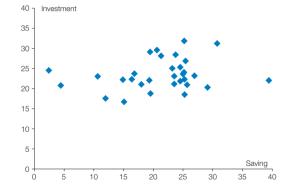
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How integrated are financial markets really?

- In a closed economy, savings and investment are tightly linked
- In an open economy with well integrated financial markets, they do not need to be related
- What do we see in the data?
 - Weak correlation between savings and investment
 - Huge variance in savings rates, but not much in investment Determinants of willingness to save across countries is not well understood

Fig. 13.9 Savings and investment across countries 2008, percent of GDP

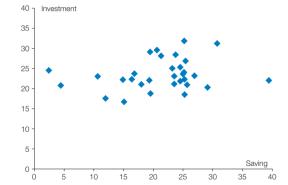


Source: OECD Economic Outlook, OECD, 18 January 2012, http://www.oecd-ilibrary.org/statistics.

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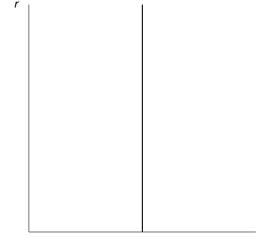
Section 4

Large Open Economy

What happens if our economy isn't small?

▶ Closed Economy: r determined by S = I

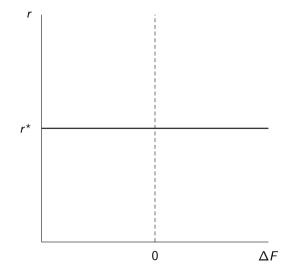
- Small Open Economy: *r*^{*} is fixed
- Large Open Economy: r depends on our country
- The net savings in our large open economy can impact the whole world:
 - Excess savings relative to investment decreases r*
 - Deficit of savings increases r*



0

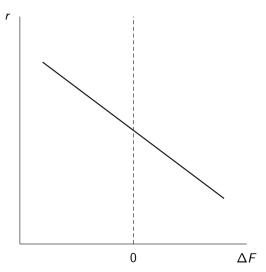
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Clearing Markets

Start with F = 0

Market clearing for savings requires:

$$\Delta F(r) = Y^{n} - C(Y^{d}, Y^{e} - T^{e}, r, A) - I(r, Y^{e}, K) - G$$
(16)

But also we have to clear the goods market:

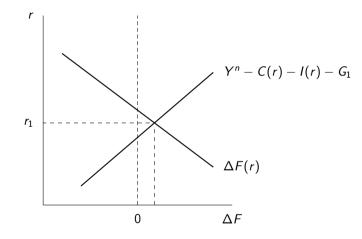
$$NX(\varepsilon, Y, Y^*) = \Delta F(r) = Y^n - C(Y^d, Y^e - T^e, r, A) - I(r, Y^e, K) - G$$
(17)

Now, both prices adjust!

Government spending crowds out investing again

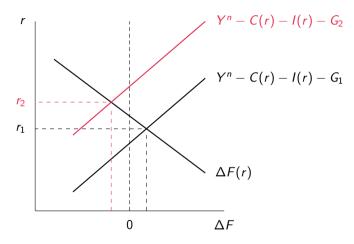
Suppose G ↑ in large open economy

- ► For any given NX level, the interest rate required to implement it goes up (so Yⁿ C(r) I(r) G shifts up
- That means that in equilibrium, interest rate moves from r₁ to r₂
- Higher rates crowd out some consumption/investment
- Net lending to foreigners falls (and so do net exports)
- \blacktriangleright NX decreases and ε increases



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