



BANK OF ENGLAND

Centre for Central Banking Studies

An Intro to the New Keynesian DSGE Model

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Title

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Contents

- Introduction
 - Money, nominal rigidities and monopolistic competition
 - A basic closed economy New Keynesian model
 - Develop a simple example of a policy problem
 - Discuss the objectives of policy
 - Explain:
 - Simplicity vs. optimality
 - Targeting rules vs. instrument rules



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Introduction

- The New Keynesian model forms the basic building block of COMPASS
- It combines the micro fundamentals of the Real Business Cycle literature with nominal rigidities
- Two fundamental differences:
 - Imperfect competition coupled with nominal rigidities (sticky wages and prices)
 - Monetary sector introduced, making it possible to model the effects of monetary policy
- Without rigidities in pricing, introducing money does not lead to monetary policy having real effects



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The effects of money: intuition

- Take the equation for the quantity of money

$$\frac{M}{P} = cY$$

- With flexible prices: $\uparrow M \Rightarrow P, Y$ unaffected
- With price rigidities: $\uparrow M \Rightarrow$ prices adjust partially $\Rightarrow \uparrow Y$
(money is not neutral in the short-run)



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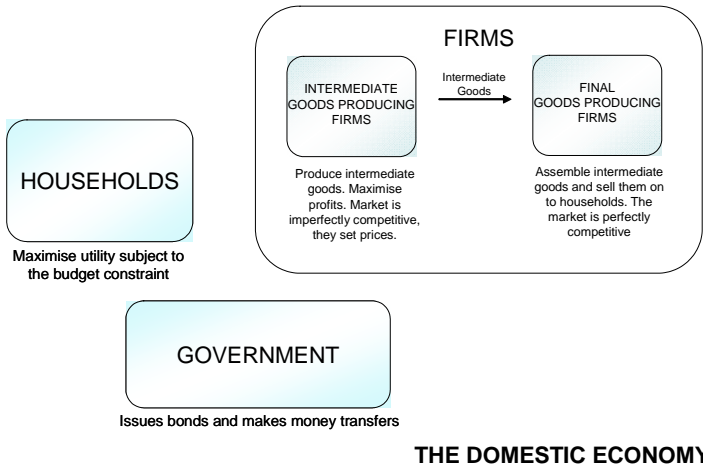
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Key agents in the model



A basic closed economy model

- More formally, the building blocks of a prototype New Keynesian model are:
 - 1 **Households:** consume differentiated goods, hold money, own firms, offer labor
 - 2 **Firms:** produce differentiated intermediate goods (they are price setters) and 'bundle' final products in perfectly competitive markets; all firms demand labor, pay dividends
 - 3 **Government:** make money transfer payments financed by the creation of money



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Representative household

- During each period $t = 0, 1, 2, \dots$, the representative household chooses $\{C_t, L_t, M_t/P_t, B_t/P_t\}$, to maximise

$$E_0 \left\{ \sum_{t=0}^{\infty} \beta^t \left[\frac{C_t^{1-\sigma}}{1-\sigma} + a_m \ln \left(\frac{M_t}{P_t} \right) - \frac{1}{\eta} L_t^\eta \right] \right\},$$

- Subject to the budget constraint

$$\frac{M_{t-1} + B_{t-1} + T_t + W_t L_t + D_t}{P_t} = C_t + \frac{B_t/R_t + M_t}{P_t},$$

- Where M , B , R , and W are nominal money, nominal bonds, gross interest rates and the nominal wage respectively; D , L and C are real profits, hours worked and total consumption



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Representative household

- To solve the problem of the representative household we can set up the Lagrangian function as:

$$\sum_{t=0}^{\infty} \beta^t \left\{ \begin{aligned} & \left[\frac{C_t^{1-\sigma}}{1-\sigma} + a_m \ln \left(\frac{M_t}{P_t} \right) - \frac{1}{\eta} L_t^\eta \right] \\ & + \Lambda_t \left[\frac{M_{t-1} + B_{t-1} + T_t + W_t L_t + D_t}{P_t} - C_t - \frac{B_t / R_t + M_t}{P_t} \right] \end{aligned} \right\}$$

- Where Λ_t is the Lagrange multiplier on the budget constraint
- The representative household chooses $\{C_t, L_t, M_t/P_t, B_t/P_t\}$ to maximize the Lagrangian



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First order conditions

- The first order conditions for this problem are:

$$C_t : C_t^{-\sigma} = \Lambda_t \quad (1)$$

$$L_t : \Lambda_t \frac{W_t}{P_t} = L_t^{\eta-1} \quad (2)$$

$$B_t/P_t : \frac{\Lambda_t}{R_t P_t} = \beta E_t \frac{\Lambda_{t+1}}{P_{t+1}} \quad (3)$$

$$M_t/P_t : a_m \left(\frac{M_t}{P_t} \right)^{-1} = \frac{\Lambda_t}{P_t} - \beta E_t \frac{\Lambda_{t+1}}{P_{t+1}} \quad (4)$$



First order conditions

- We can substitute equation (1) into (2) and (3) to write:

$$\frac{W_t}{P_t} = \frac{L_t^{\eta-1}}{C_t^{-\sigma}}$$

$$\frac{C_t^{-\sigma}}{R_t P_t} = \beta E_t \frac{C_{t+1}^{-\sigma}}{P_{t+1}}$$

- These two equations represent the labor supply and the Euler equation for consumption respectively
- We can substitute equations (1) and (3) into (4) to write:

$$\frac{M_t}{P_t} = \frac{R_t}{R_t - 1} \frac{a_m}{C_t^{-\sigma}}$$

- This equation is the LM equation



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Basic intuition

- FOC on L_t : Captures the consumption/leisure “trade-off”
 - The marginal rate of substitution between consumption and leisure must be equal to the real wage
- FOC on B_t/P_t : Euler equation
 - The marginal utility of today’s consumption must equal the (discounted) marginal utility of tomorrow’s consumption in present discounted terms
- FOC on M_t/P_t : Money demand
 - At the margin, the cost (measured in terms of utility) of holding money today must be equal to the benefit of holding money tomorrow. Another unit of money yields utility and also allows for the same amount of consumption



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Representative final goods producer

- The representative final goods producing firm uses $Y_t(i)$ units of each intermediate good i to produce Y_t according to the CES technology

$$\left[\int_0^1 Y_t(i)^{\frac{\varepsilon-1}{\varepsilon}} di \right]^{\frac{\varepsilon}{\varepsilon-1}} = Y_t$$

- It sells at the nominal price P_t in order to maximize its profits subject to the CES technology: hence, the problem of the representative goods producing firm is to choose $Y_t(i)$ to maximize

$$\max_{Y_t(i)} P_t \left[\int_0^1 Y_t(i)^{\frac{\varepsilon-1}{\varepsilon}} di \right]^{\frac{\varepsilon}{\varepsilon-1}} - \int_0^1 P_t(i) Y_t(i) di$$



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Representative final goods producer

- The FOC is

$$Y_t(i) = (P_t(i)/P_t)^{-\varepsilon} Y_t$$

- This represents the demand for intermediate goods that the representative final goods producing firm has: The parameter ε is the elasticity of demand
- If $\uparrow P_t(i)$ then $\downarrow Y_t(i)$: Also, as $\varepsilon \rightarrow \infty$, individual goods become closer substitutes and individual firms have less power
- If we substitute this last expression into the CES production technology, after a bit of algebra, we obtain the price level

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Representative intermediate goods producer

- Demand for each intermediate firm's good is given by (solution to the previous slide's maximisation problem):

$$Y_t(i) = (P_t(i)/P_t)^{-\varepsilon} Y_t$$

- Note that this is a downward-sloping demand curve, ε is the elasticity of demand
- They face this given demand function for their goods and must either choose the price or the quantity produced
- Since intermediate good producing firms are monopolistic competitors, they choose $P_t(i)$ to maximise profits subject to their demand function and a given production technology (to be defined)



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Representative intermediate goods producer

- During each period $t = 0, 1, 2, \dots$, the representative intermediate goods producer hires $L_t(i)$ units of labor from the household to manufacture $Y_t(i)$ units of intermediate good i according to the production technology

$$Y_t(i) = Z_t L_t(i)$$

- The aggregate technology shock, Z_t , follows the law of motion

$$\ln(Z_t/\bar{Z}) = \rho \ln(Z_{t-1}/\bar{Z}) + \xi_t$$

where $0 < \rho < 1$, and $\xi_t \sim N(0, \mu^2)$



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Representative intermediate goods producer

- As in Rotemberg (1982), the representative intermediate goods producer faces a quadratic cost of adjusting its nominal price between periods

$$\frac{\phi_p}{2} \left(\frac{P_t(i)}{\bar{\pi} P_{t-1}(i)} - 1 \right)^2 Y_t$$

- Hence, any change in price is costly for the firm
- With this formulation both upwards and downwards changes affect the decision of the firm
- This is Stiglitz's idea of the implicit cost of changing prices



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Representative intermediate goods producer

- Hence, the problem of the intermediate goods producer is to choose $P_t(i)$ to maximize its total market value

$$\sum_{t=0}^{\infty} \beta^t \frac{\Lambda_t}{P_t} \left(P_t(i) Y_t(i) - W_t L_t(i) - \frac{\phi_p}{2} \left(\frac{P_t(i)}{\bar{\Pi} P_{t-1}(i)} - 1 \right)^2 P_t Y_t \right)$$

subject to the production technology

$$Y_t(i) = Z_t L_t(i)$$

and the demand for intermediate goods

$$Y_t(i) = (P_t(i)/P_t)^{-\varepsilon} Y_t$$



Representative intermediate goods producer

- The first order condition for the representative intermediate goods producer is

$$\begin{aligned} 0 = & (1 - \varepsilon) \left(\frac{P_t(i)}{P_t} \right)^{-\varepsilon} + \varepsilon \left(\frac{P_t(i)}{P_t} \right)^{-\varepsilon-1} \frac{W_t}{P_t Z_t} \\ & - \phi_p \left(\frac{P_t(i)}{\bar{P}_{t-1}(i)} - 1 \right) \frac{P_t(i)}{\bar{P}_{t-1}(i)} \\ & + \beta \phi_p E_t \left[\frac{\Lambda_{t+1}}{\Lambda_t} \left(\frac{P_{t+1}(i)}{\bar{P}_t(i)} - 1 \right) \frac{P_{t+1}(i)}{\bar{P}_t(i)} \frac{P_t Y_{t+1}}{P_t(i) Y_t} \right] \end{aligned}$$

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Government, and aggregate constraint

- Government budget constraint:

$$(M_t - M_{t-1}) = T_t$$

- The economy resource constraint can be derived from the representative household, intermediate goods producer budget, and government constraints:

$$Y_t = C_t + \frac{\phi_p}{2} \left(\frac{P_t(i)}{\bar{\pi} P_{t-1}(i)} - 1 \right)^2 Y_t$$



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Symmetric equilibrium

- In a symmetric equilibrium, all intermediate goods producers make identical decisions, so that $Y_t(i) = Y_t$, $L_t(i) = L_t$, $P_t(i) = P_t$, and $D_t(i) = D_t$, for all $t = 0, 1, 2, \dots$
- In addition, market-clearing conditions $B_t = B_{t-1} = 0$, and $M_t = M_{t-1} + T_t$ must hold for all $t = 0, 1, 2, \dots$
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Symmetric equilibrium

- The model describes the behaviour of 8 variables $\{C_t, W_t, M_t/P_t, Z_t, L_t, \Pi_t, R_t, Y_t\}$ by

1. IS curve

$$\frac{C_t^{-\sigma}}{R_t P_t} = \beta E_t \frac{C_{t+1}^{-\sigma}}{P_{t+1}}$$

2. Labor supply

$$\frac{W_t}{P_t} = \frac{L_t^{\eta-1}}{C_t^{-\sigma}}$$

3. LM curve

$$\frac{M_t}{P_t} = \frac{R_t}{R_t - 1} \frac{a_m}{C_t^{-\sigma}}$$

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A 'workhorse' monetary policy rule

- Many models closed using a Taylor rule

$$r_t = \gamma r_{t-1} + (1 - \gamma) [\theta_\pi \pi_{t+i} + \theta_y y_t] \quad (5)$$

- The original Taylor (1993) empirical proposal was for $\theta_\pi = 1.5$, $\theta_y = 0.5$, $\gamma = 0$ (no smoothing), $i = 0$ (contemporaneous feedback)
- Is the model microfounded if the policy rule is not?
- Should it be?



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Why Taylor rules?

- Become a cornerstone of modern monetary policy analysis
 - Simple to understand
 - Reflects a move to 'models without money': Interest rate becomes the policy instrument
- The restriction that $\theta_{\pi} > 1$ should hold has become enshrined as the 'Taylor Principle'
- Variations used to explain monetary policy across regimes
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- Taylor suggests the following policy rule table

		y_t		
		-2	0	2
π_t	0	.5	1	2
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	4	6	7	8
	6	9	10	11
	8	12	13	14

- Does this imply we can all go home?



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- The universality of Taylor rules doesn't mean that they have desirable properties
- Svensson (2003) (amongst many others) argues that a lot of effort has gone into microfounding models and none at all into microfounding Taylor rules
- It may be that some variant of a Taylor rule is (nearly) optimal
- It may be that there are many better simple alternatives
 - Long literature on simplicity and robustness
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Welfare

- What microfoundations do we have for optimal policy?
- Woodford (2003) *Interest and Prices*: Write aggregate one-period utility

$$U(C_t, L_t) = u(Y_t; \xi_t) - \int_0^1 v(Y_t^j; \xi_t) dj$$

where $u(Y_t; \xi_t)$ is the utility of aggregate output

$Y_t \equiv \left[\int_0^1 (Y_t^j)^{\frac{\theta-1}{\theta}} dj \right]^{\frac{\theta}{\theta-1}}$ and $v(Y_t^j; \xi_t)$ the disutility of supplying Y_t^j

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- Turns out we can derive a **quadratic approximation** to welfare
- After much algebra Woodford shows that

$$U(C_t, L_t) \simeq -\frac{1}{2} u_c \bar{Y} \left(\mu_1 y_t^2 + \mu_2 \text{var}_j \left[\log P_t^j \right] \right)$$

with μ_1, μ_2 functions of the structural coefficients and $\text{var}_j \left[\log P_t^j \right]$ the variance of log prices across all differentiated goods; this reflects **price dispersion**

- **Pricing frictions** will determine $\text{var}_j \left[\log P_t^j \right]$
 - No frictions \Rightarrow no variation \Rightarrow no price dispersion \Rightarrow no welfare loss
 - Calvo or Rotemberg pricing can be used to model pricing frictions



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- **Pricing frictions** will determine $\text{var}_j \left[\log P_t^j \right]$
 - No frictions \rightarrow no variation \rightarrow no price dispersion
 - Calvo or Rotemberg pricing can be used to model frictions



Welfare

- Turns out we can derive a **quadratic approximation** to welfare
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where $\omega = \frac{\kappa}{\theta}$ and we omit a **lot** more algebra

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Optimal policy

- We have derived an objective function that reflects welfare: Both policymakers and economic agents can act optimally
- Two important problems
 - Approximation depends on the form of pricing and production functions. More complicated models make it much more difficult to approximate welfare so (E) is often used
 - Optimal policy is inherently time inconsistent
- The first of these means that we may not know what we are trying to optimise; the second means that we cannot implement the policy anyway
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Characterising the optimal policy

- Form the **Hamiltonian**

$$H_t = \frac{1}{2} (\pi_t^2 + \omega y_t^2) + \lambda_t (\beta E_t \pi_{t+1} + \kappa y_t + z_t - \pi_t)$$

where λ_t is a Lagrange multiplier

- We only need constrain the objective function using the Philips curve as we can always find a value of i_t to satisfy the IS equation
- Using this we can write the **constrained objective function** as

$$V_0 = \min E_0 \sum_{t=0}^{\infty} \beta^t H_t \quad (7)$$



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- First order conditions

$$\frac{\partial V_0}{\partial y_t} = 0 \Rightarrow E_0(\omega y_t + \kappa \lambda_t) = 0$$

$$\frac{\partial V_0}{\partial \pi_{t>0}} = 0 \Rightarrow E_0(\pi_t - \lambda_t + \lambda_{t-1}) = 0$$

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Characterising the optimal policy

- Solution for the Lagrange multiplier, λ

$$\lambda_t = -\frac{\omega}{\kappa} y_t$$

- Eliminating λ

$$\begin{aligned}\pi_{t>0} &= \Delta \lambda_t \\ &= -\frac{\omega}{\kappa} \Delta y_t\end{aligned}\tag{8}$$

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Policy under discretion

- The optimal policy relies on **commitment**
 - To sustain the optimal policy the monetary authority must have the reputation to stick to an announced plan
 - The optimal policy is treated as a rule, but we know it may not be the best policy in the future
- What if the policymaker retains **discretion**?
 - If policy is not set by an unbreakable rule then the central bank will choose a different policy in each given period
 - Think of successive governments who are not responsible for their predecessors actions
- From the perspective of period 0 this means discretionary policy can be no better and may be substantially worse



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- Find the **discretionary** policy by setting $E_0 (E_t \pi_{t+1}) = \bar{\pi} = 0$
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Implications of time inconsistency

- If policymakers are forced to adopt time consistent policies then they may be substantially inferior
- In static models easy to show that there is an **inflation bias**
- In dynamic models there is a **stabilisation bias** — takes longer to deal with shocks
- Both can be reduced by having a policymaker who is more conservative than socially optimal but acts under discretion ($\omega_m < \omega$)
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Instrument rules and targeting rules

- Taylor rule (5) an obvious example of an **instrument** rule
 - Indicates how much the policy instrument should be moved to achieve a given target
- Svensson calls (8) and (9) a **targeting** rule
 - Indicates what policy should achieve without necessarily saying anything about how
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- See also McCallum and Nelson (2005); Svensson (2005)



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Concluding remarks

- We set up a prototype New Keynesian model from first principles
- Advantages of the framework: ‘micro-fundamentals’, ‘realistic’ monopolistic competition, role for stabilising monetary policy, inflation dynamics based on future expectations of marginal costs
- Simple policy rules may have very good operating characteristics
- Even if policymakers act to maximise welfare their announced policy is time inconsistent
- Discretionary policy may be very suboptimal



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