

International Economic Policy | 3. International money and finance

'When the United States sneezes, the rest of the world catches a cold.' —Old saying in financial markets

"The dollar is our currency, but it's your problem." —US Treasury Secretary John Connally, 1971

1. A summarizing triad: power, money, welfare

This course can be reduced to a basic international (global, world) exploration of three concepts (the first one was briefly covered in the immediately preceding notes; this third instalment deals with the second one).

- Power. This concept focuses attention to the political dimension of interstate interaction, namely, geopolitics (how global power is distributed among states).
- Money. This concept captures the economic dimension of interstate interaction: geoeconomics and the international financial organization (or lack of it). As distinguished from global power (which is essentially exercised by governments), private actors (global banks, hedge funds, multinational corporations...) play an important in global finance. As regards governments, there is also a strong interdependence between the endowment of global power and the influence in global finance (it is not by chance that the dollar, the currency of the global hegemonic power, is in practice *the* world currency nor that US government bonds are considered one of the safest financial investments in the world).
- Welfare. This concept mixes political, economic and social dimensions: what sustains and expands global welfare? In particular, how much does global integration, and global policy coordination, contribute to global welfare (perhaps through a better political and economic organization of the world: peace, democracy, economic development, global solutions to global problems)?

2. Last global shocks: 9-11 attacks, 2008 global financial crisis, 2020 Covid-19 health crisis

Each of the last three global shocks appears to be strongly linked, at least in the first stages of the shocks, with one of the elements of the triad.

- 9-11 attacks (2001). These attacks can be viewed as a geopolitical shock: they constitute a response motivated by dissatisfaction with how the US exercised politically its hegemonic powers. The attacks represented a challenge to the world international order. At the time, it appeared that the attacks would change everything – twenty years after, not much appear to have really changed (the hegemon crushed dissenting voices: Iraq, Libya, Afghanistan...)
- 2008 global financial crisis. The crisis (see references below) showed the fragility and vulnerability of the international financial system. Paradoxically, the currency of the global dominant power (the dollar) did not lose its status as a global currency: despite the 2001 geopolitical shock and the 2008 financial meltdown, the dollar remains triumphant as a global reserve currency and foreign financial investment in the US may have even be reinforced.

- Covid-19 pandemic. This global shock appears to hit mainly and directly both global integration and global welfare. At the first stages, the global response offers no surprise: lack of international coordination and solidarity. This suggests that another global problem will be dealt with nationally: mostly uncoordinated domestic policies will magnify the adverse welfare effects of the health crisis. Domestically, the consequences of the ongoing outbreak and the policies to respond to the future uncertainties will most likely increase inequalities and the welfare gap between the most and the least privileged citizens. (The impact on welfare and integration depends strongly on currently big unknowns: will the covid-19 be recurrent?; will an effective, affordable treatment be found?; how would geopolitical and global financial structures be altered as a result of the pandemic?)

[A bit contrived illustration of the above three kinds of shocks for those who have seen the last three Star Trek movies, from 2009, 2013 and 2016.

- The story of the 2009 movie is based on a brutal, external attack, much like the 9-11 event (the final episode of Season 2 of the TV series Star Trek: Enterprise is a much evident example): a visitor from the future destroys whole planets in response to a loss caused by unfulfilled promises from the interplanetary hegemon, the United Federation of Planets.
- The 2013 movie plot can be reduced to how to deal with a plague: which are the consequences of having genetically enhanced humans around? (Like any pandemic, genetic enhancement separate people in two groups: those who profit —and profit quite a lot— from it, and those who do not.) The basic consequence the movie explores is giving up integration with other alien empires: genetically enhanced humans offer a good opportunity to prefer conducting a pre-emptive strike against a strong alien empire instead of, pursuing the principles of the United Federation of Planets, favour harmony, collaboration and peaceful integration.
- An interpretation of the 2016 movie is that it is about paying debts. The storyline is similar to the 2009 movie, with the difference that now the threat is internal: authorities have not compensated well or enough those who have made sacrifices for the common good (not receiving a fair compensation can be perceived as exploitation —and finance offers great opportunities from exploiting others through excessive debt, speculation or privileged access to funds).]

3. Basic topics and issues on global finance

The following is a selection of topics and issues related to the international monetary and financial order (IMFO).

(i) Who benefits from the IMFO?

- The US appears to be the greatest beneficiary of the system. There is a snowball effect: geopolitical power allows the US to strongly influence the rules and working of the IMFO, which in turn reinforces the US geopolitical position. In particular, the dollar, as a global reserve currency, is said to enjoy an 'exorbitant privilege'.

- The IMFO has a rich-country bias. Financial flows tend to go from poorer to richer countries, as the poorer countries need to accumulate strong foreign reserves, which typically correspond to rich-country currencies (dollar, euro, yen, pound sterling). The rules of the IMFO have also been dictated by the richer countries and they are reluctant to change them in favour of the interest of the poorer countries. Is then the IMFO inequitable? (Rich countries are interested in preserving the international preeminence of their currencies because that preeminence allows them to consolidate the privileged position against the poorer countries.)
- The IMFO has a surplus-country bias. As countries running current account surpluses are not interested in reducing those surpluses, any adjustment in global imbalances must be conducted by deficit countries. Those adjustments tend to be painful for the development and growth prospects of those countries, which reinforces their position as foreign deficit countries.

(ii) What forces tend to make the IMFO less stable?

- There is no coordinated global mechanism to prevent the emergence of global imbalances nor to handle them. Specifically, the IMFO currently allows the US to run any current account deficit level apparently indefinitely. The question is then whether the IMFO is a systematically unbalanced system whose balance is only restored through some global crisis?
- Triffin and related dilemmas. These dilemmas express the tension between liquidity and stability of the IMFO: the conditions required for liquidity to expand to meet the global demand for liquidity of a growing global economy appear to be, eventually, inconsistent with the conditions ensuring the stability of the IMFO (that international actors trust enough the global currency in which global liquidity is created).

[Triffin general dilemma (Tommaso Padoa-Schioppa, 2010): “The stability requirements of the system as a whole are inconsistent with the pursuit of economic and monetary policy forged solely on the basis of domestic rationales”. The US uses its status to its own advantage, and the rest must bear the costs of the global effects the US decisions cause.]

- The fact that the IMFO supports and is supported by the geopolitical structure connects the fated of both the world political order and the IMFO. Anything affecting the former will then affect the latter.
- Heterodox economic thinking regards financial activity as inherently unstable and destabilizing. Hyman Minsky’s financial instability hypothesis is summarized by the motto ‘Stability is always destabilizing’. Hence, if the financial sector creates trouble domestically, one cannot but expect that enlarging the scale of the financial sector (by connecting and integrating domestic financial markets) will magnify the destabilizing forces. Global financial crises seem to be a recurrent, not an episodic, phenomenon.
- Another potential source of instability is the rise of private global finance. Financial integration and the expansion of international financial markets have removed

considerable financial power (and ability to control and regulate) from states. In fact, the main actors in global finance are no longer states.

- (iii) How fair is the status of the dollar in the IMFO and which are the prospects for the rise of a multipolar currency system?
- The dollar is the de facto international currency and world's reserve currency. This implicitly grants the US central bank (the Federal Reserve, 'the Fed') powers as a global central bank. The Fed's decisions increase the tensions associated with the Triffin and related dilemmas: the Fed responds to domestic needs and disregards the global impact of its response. Nothing good can be expected from this mismatch: to handle global financial problems relying exclusively on domestic considerations.
 - The strong link between the IMFO and the geopolitical order makes it more difficult for the dollar to be replaced as the main global currency: for a country to make its currency a global currency, the country must become geopolitically hegemonic. There is also a network effect: the higher the number of countries conducting international transactions in a given foreign currency, the more difficult it is for a rival currency to replace the current dominant currency.
 - It follows from the above that, at least for a couple of decades, the dollar is unlikely to be replaced as the de facto world currency (the euro and the renminbi are, as of now, weak challengers). Only a global, intense shock might accelerate a transition (like the two world wars in the 20th century, which allowed a quick replacement of the British pound by the US dollar). A more likely alternative is the emergence of strong regional currencies (for example, the renminbi could become the Euroasiatic reserve currency; if China had not risen in the last 40 years, that role could have been played by the euro).
- (iv) What is the role of central banks in the IMFO and what should it be?
- It is not only the Fed that has a strong global financial influence. The new powers that, in response to the 2008 financial crisis, many central banks have accumulated, and the fact that they have increased their coordination, have transformed central banks into powerful international financial actors. How wisely are they going to use that power?
- (v) How much international policy coordination is there?
- The historical record suggests that policy coordination is exceptional. Lack of coordination is the norm. The rare coordination episodes are forced by circumstances: coordination tends to occur in the presence of some severe global shock.
 - Moreover, the existing international monetary and financial institutions appear to be subordinated to US interests (or, at least, the interests of the richer countries).

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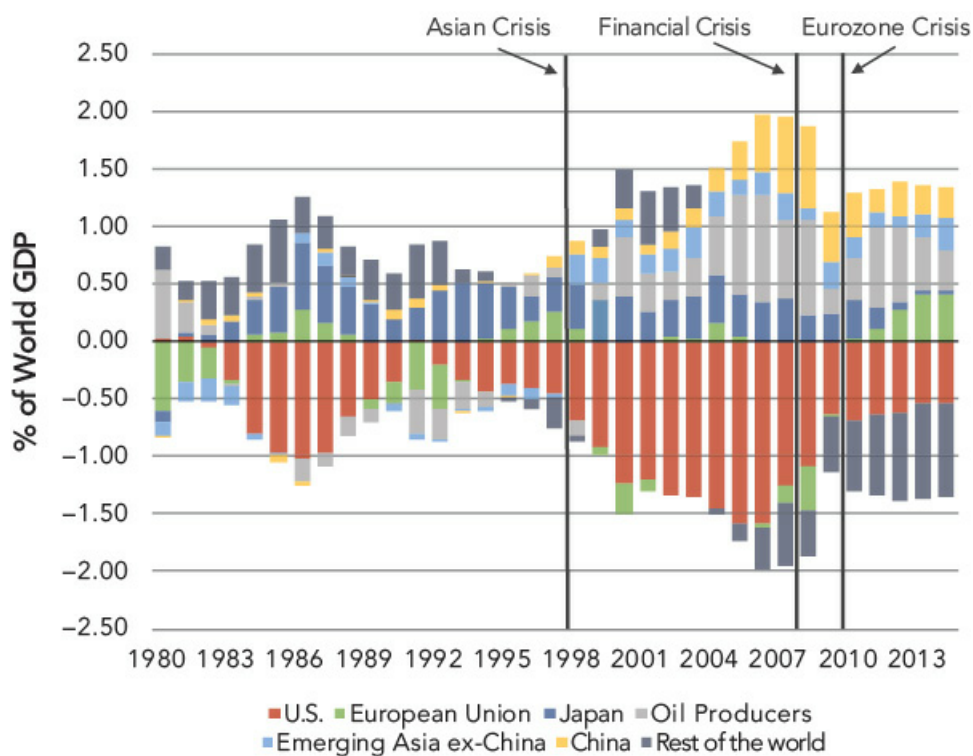
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Current account balances as a fraction of world GDP (Bordo and Taylor, 2017)

NEW RULES OF THE GAME FOR AN IDEALIZED DOLLAR STANDARD

UNITED STATES

Rule 1. In the long run, limit inflation and stabilize the domestic and foreign purchasing power of the dollar so as to provide a nominal anchor for the price levels of other countries.

Rule 2. In the short run, raise interest rates to prevent outflows of “hot” money to other countries collectively when the dollar is weak, and vice versa. Keep interest rates comfortably above zero.

Rule 3. In noncrisis periods, remain passive in the foreign exchanges: allow foreigners to transact freely in dollars and set their dollar exchange rates without being “bashed.” No capital controls for the center country.

Rule 4. The IMF acts as lender of first resort to individual countries in crisis. The United States acts as lender of last resort through dollar swaps and similar devices to overcome dollar liquidity crises more generally.

Rule 5. Do not force developing countries to open their financial markets internationally or to abandon capital controls. Cease pushing entry of American banks and other financial institutions into their domestic economies.

Rule 6. Limit or reverse current account deficits by increasing domestic saving, government and private.

EMERGING MARKETS

Rule 7. Retain current-account currency convertibility under the IMF’s Article VIII, but recognize the problem of currency mismatches. Restrain foreign exchange exposure by banks and other financial institutions, if necessary by capital controls.

7A: Debtor economies: Limit buildup of short-term liquid dollar liabilities.

7B: Creditor economies: Limit “overhangs” of liquid dollar assets.

Rule 8. Recognize that pegging to the dollar may be necessary to reduce risk in countries with immature domestic financial markets—particularly if they are either large dollar debtors or large dollar creditors.

Rule 9. Aim for mutual exchange rate stability within natural economic regions such as East Asia. Set long-term dollar exchange rate objectives for the group.

Rule 10. Hold official exchange reserves mainly in dollar assets. If necessary, supplement with regional swap agreements—as in East Asia.

McKinnon (2013)