



Inflation in India: Theory, Measures and Background of Policy

Mohd Yaseen Challa¹, Sudheesh B²

¹Research scholar Department of Humanities and Liberal Arts, Rabindranath Tagore University, Raisen, Madhya Pradesh India.

²Assistant Professor (Economics), Faculty of Humanities and Liberal Arts, Rabindranath Tagore University, Raisen, Madhya Pradesh India.

ABSTRACT

In most cases, inflation occurs when total interest grows faster than total stock. A number financial and non-monetary factors contribute to the disparity between these market forces. In this article, Adam Smith (1776) analyzes the strategy embraced by Indian monetarists for expansion and studies new patterns in expansion rate to conclude the outcomes of the money related arrangement took on, with a brief explanation of financial speculations of growth. This article focuses on a few key factors and their commitment to growth, as well as a few measurements that should be included in the public authority's financial management strategy. Then, distinctive lists used to quantify India's expansion are concentrated, followed by a summary of India's financial strategy up to this point, highlighting major adjustments or choices made.

Keywords: Inflation, India, Monetary Policy, Price.

Introduction:

Inflation is described as an economic condition in which the general price level continues to rise without corresponding increases in the production of goods and services. When aggregate demand exceeds aggregate supply, this situation occurs. Several monetary and non-monetary factors contribute to the imbalance between these market forces. This is the theoretical framework of the concept of 'inflation,' but the practical characteristics of inflation are different. As a result, the focus of this article is on a few key "theory and measurements" contributors to the government's economic policies [1].

The term "inflation" refers to a macroeconomic concept. Inflation is a numerical measure of the rate at which the general price level of a basket of goods and services rises over time. Inflation reduces the purchasing power of a certain quantity of money compared to previous periods. The loss of purchasing power of money owing to inflation has an impact on the overall cost of living for the general public, resulting in a slowdown in economic growth. Inflation is the polar opposite of deflation, which implies a drop in the overall price level of goods and services, i.e. when the inflation rate is less than zero. Demand-pull, cost-push, and built-in inflation are three types of inflation seen in diverse economies under varied conditions. Inflation is beneficial to persons who own assets such as real estate or stock commodities because inflation increases the value of their assets. Inflation is bad for people who have cash because it reduces the value of their money. Inflation poses significant issues in both developed and emerging countries. In India, too, inflation is a major concern because it has a considerable impact on economic growth, employment, interest rates, and other macroeconomic indicators [2].

The past decade's economic experiences have revealed the limitations of stabilization policy in terms of lowering inflation. The decade's two recessions demonstrated how costly it is to create economic slack in order to combat entrenched inflation. The susceptibility of the average price level to exogenous supply shocks was exposed by two periods of significant increases in energy prices. And the economy's performance over the last decade has thwarted attempts to reconcile price stability with high employment goals that are widely supported and based on labor market findings [3].

Theories of Inflation

"The true price of everything...is the toil and bother of gaining it," Adam Smith (1776) distinguished between nominal and real prices. The same real price always has the same value; nevertheless, because to fluctuations in gold and silver prices, the same nominal price might have significantly different values." The nominal price is linked to inflation. "The age between the mid-1830s and the Civil War saw a proliferation of banks; along with these institutions came 'bank notes,' a private paper money redeemable for a particular amount of gold," Bryan [4] argued. During this time, the term "inflation" began to appear in the literature, referring to something that happens to a paper currency rather than something that happens to prices. Inflation is also described as the process of increasing the value of a currency without corresponding increases in the production of products [Jean-Claude Trichet (5)]. Inflation, according to these definitions, is merely a monetary phenomenon caused by an excess supply of money-currencies and bank money that is not based on the production of commodities and services.

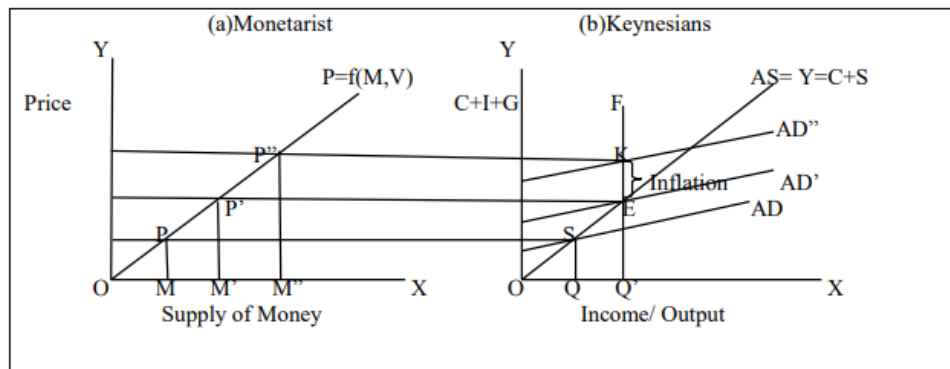
Most modern economists, on the other hand, define inflation as a steady increase in the general price level over time. In the long run, most economists agree that increases in the money supply produce inflation. Monetarists believe that an excess quantity of money is the cause of inflation, although non-monetarists disagree. "People recognize that inflation erodes the actual worth of the government's debt and, consequently, that it is in the government's

interest to induce some inflation," Bernanke said in a footnote to his speech. These reasons reinforce the notion that the central bank is the primary player in the inflation debate.

The monetarist argument was rejected by Keynesians, who proposed that changes in the money supply have no direct effect on prices. There are three major types of inflation, according to Gordon [6]: (i) Demand-pull inflation: This is generated by an increase in aggregate demand as a result of higher private and government spending, among other things. (ii) Cost-push inflation: also known as "supply shock inflation," this type of inflation is brought on by a reduction in aggregate supply (potential output). This might be due to natural calamities, or increased input prices, which raised the overall price level. Built-in inflation is a type of inflation that is triggered by adaptive expectations and is frequently tied to the 'price/wage spiral.' It entails workers seeking to keep their wages up with rising prices, which leads to higher production costs and, in turn, a 'vicious spiral of inflation.' According to the demand-pull hypothesis, inflation accelerates when aggregate demand exceeds the economy's ability to produce potential output. As a result, any factor that boosts aggregate demand might lead to inflation. In the long run, however, aggregate demand can only be kept above productive capacity by raising the amount of money in circulation faster than the economy's real growth rate.

As can be seen, while monetary economists believe that there is a strong link between inflation and money supply, Keynesian economists, on the other hand, typically emphasize the role of aggregate demand in determining inflation; for Keynesians, the money supply is only one determinant of aggregate demand. The following figure-1 depicts the consequences and reconciliation of Monetarist and Keynesian views on inflation causation.

Figure 1: Reconciliation of Monetarist and Keynesian thoughts on causes of inflation



Source: Drawn on basis of Monetarist and Keynesian ideology

Figure 1 (a) explains the Monetarists' thought that price level moves upwards from P to P' and P'' as supply of money increases from M to M' and M'' that indicates the happening of inflation in the free capitalist economy; Figure-1(b) explains the Keynesian thought that when the total expenditure ($C+I+G$) or aggregate demand increases from AD to AD' and AD'' , the total output initially increases from Q to Q' before full-employment equilibrium level i.e. $Q''F$, but above that level an increase in aggregate demand i.e. AD'' leads to inflation i.e. KE ; the aggregate demand represents the supply of money in the economy.

Measurement of Inflation

In actuality, the many indicators used to calculate inflation rates varied from country to country and from economic institutions to economic institutions. The Consumer Price Index (CPI) is one of the most often used indices; it is computed as $\frac{P_1 - P_0}{P_0} \times 100$, which represents the annual percentage rate of inflation in the CPI throughout time. Another statistic for evaluating inflation is the Wholesale Price Index (WPI) or Producer Price Index (PPI). The Producer Price Index (PPI) monitors the pressure that raw material costs place on producers. This could be "passed on" to customers, absorbed by profits, or compensated for by increased productivity. PPI differs from CPI in that it includes price subsidies, earnings, and taxes that are received by producers. Another inflation gauge is the Core Price Index, which is primarily used by central banks to assess the inflationary impact of current monetary policy. It is a tool for determining the long-term trend in price levels. We omit commodities whose demand and supply situations change rapidly, such as food, oil, and so on, from the core price index. Gross Domestic Product (GDP) is a measure of how The GDP Deflator is also used to calculate the price of all products and services included in the GDP (GDP). The GDP Deflator is calculated by dividing the nominal GDP by the real GDP.

The above-mentioned inflation indicators leave out asset prices, which have an impact on the overall price level. Instead of focusing just on CPI or core inflation, some central bankers have indicated that stabilizing a broader general price level inflation metric that includes some asset prices would be preferable. The term "asset price inflation" refers to an increase in the price of real or financial assets such as stocks (equity) and real estate. The reason for this is that central banks may be more successful in averting asset price bubbles and collapses by boosting interest rates when stock or real estate prices increase and lowering them when these asset values fall.

There are certain issues with constructing price indices, such as choosing a base year, choosing a commodity, changing commodity quality, disappearing old commodities and appearing new ones, changing consumption and production patterns, changing technologies, changing lifestyles, and

so on. It is difficult to accurately assess inflation under such conditions. As a result, a General Inflation Index must be developed to measure the source and effect of inflation, allowing both the central bank and the government to adopt appropriate policy measures to control inflation

Background of Monetary Policy of India

Until the mid-1980s, the primary function of India's monetary policy was to make credit available at low, administered rates for the goal of economic development, with public sector banks serving as the primary intermediaries. Monetary targeting was implemented in the mid-1980s, and the Reserve Bank of India introduced a variety of new money market instruments, as well as deregulation of interest rates on existing money market instruments, in the late 1980s. The Cash Reserve Ratio was the principal monetary policy tool for controlling the overall money supply and preventing inflation. RBI announced in April 1998 that it would adopt a "multiple indicator approach" in which, in addition to broad money, a group of macroeconomic variables such as interest rates in the money market, capital market, and government securities market, as well as many other types of data such as data on currency, trade, fiscal deficits, inflation rate, exchange rate, and so on, would be combined with output data to draw policy inferences. A Liquidity Adjustment Facility (LAF) was established in 2000, allowing the RBI to use the repo rate and reverse repo rate as policy signaling rates. The introduction of the Market Stabilization Scheme (MSS) in early 2004 was another major monetary policy initiative. Under this scheme, the government allows the RBI to issue treasury bills and dated securities, with the proceeds of these bonds held by the government in a separate identifiable cash account maintained and operated by RBI. The global financial crisis of 2008 resulted in huge capital outflows, putting pressure on the foreign exchange market. The Indian economy had a dramatic decrease in growth rate in 2008-09 after five years of continuous strong growth. To counteract the effects of the global financial crisis, the RBI lowered the repo rate from 9% to 4.75 percent and the reverse repo rate from 6% to 3.25 percent, as well as the CRR from 9% to 4.75 percent. According to a World Bank research from 2018, the Indian economy had much reduced and deteriorating macroeconomic stability between 2008 and 2012 as a result of massive budget and current account deficits, as well as rising inflation. The RBI's multiple indicator method worked well until 2013, keeping inflation at a manageable level, but after that, the rate of inflation soared into the double digits. Thus, following Raghuram Rajan's appointment as governor of the Reserve Bank of India in September 2013, the Indian monetary policy framework adopted an inflation targeting policy, and a Monetary Policy Framework Agreement (MPFA) was signed between the Government of India and the Reserve Bank of India on February 20, 2015, with the goal of bringing inflation below 6% by January 2016 [7].

Conclusion:

To summarize what has been discussed in this study, expansion in India peaked in 2012-13, after which India adopted an inflation-targeting strategy as its primary strategy. As a result, inflation focused on arrangement control expansion successfully, and the pace of expansion in 2017-18 was nearly 2.5 percent. At its core, this study focuses on the hypothesis of inflation and the Indian government's or national bank's money-related arrangements. Although expansion focused on arrangement work is almost probably the best way to regulate expansion in India, there may be some negative effects of this technique on other macroeconomic aspects such as business, monetary shortage, or loan costs, among others. The negative consequences of focusing on expansion are not included in the scope of this research. Along these lines, another study of the effect of growth concentrating on various parameters should be conceivable.

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