



Summary

- Prior strength in core consumer prices has relented and there are some signs of fresh weakness.
- Weakness in manufacturing producer prices in China is transmitting price negativity to many countries including the US. US PPI is softer.
- Labour market seems fairly solid and wages continue to track around 3% - but there has been no acceleration.
- Overall, the inflation outlook looks rather benign and supports recent Fed assertions that CPI upside looks limited next year.

About this document

US Inflation Watch presents 20 charts comprising 23 key inflation indicators grouped into five categories of economic data including consumer/producer price inflation, commodity prices, wage inflation, inflation expectations and broad monetary indicators. All data are sourced from official sources including the Bureau of Labor Statistics, the Federal Reserve, University of Michigan and Commodities Research Bureau. The objective of this report is to provide a comprehensive summary of inflation and future indicators of inflation according to the latest data out of the US.

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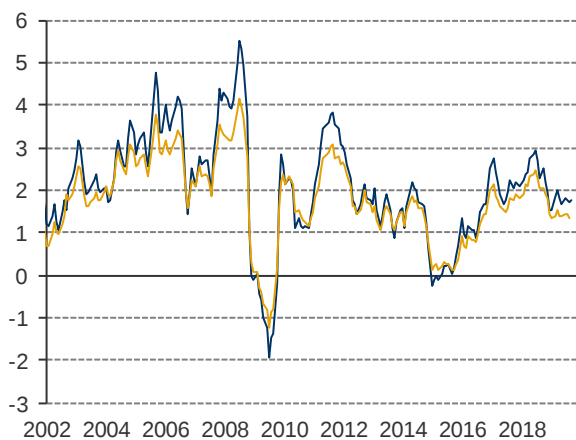
The Importance of Inflation

Inflation is the single most important indicator when measuring real wealth as it will determine how much wealth is worth in terms of what it can actually buy i.e. purchasing power. If 'nominal' wealth doubles over 25 years but the level of prices also doubles there is no net gain in 'real' wealth. It only takes annual inflation of 2.8% to cause a doubling in prices over 25 years.

About Altana Wealth

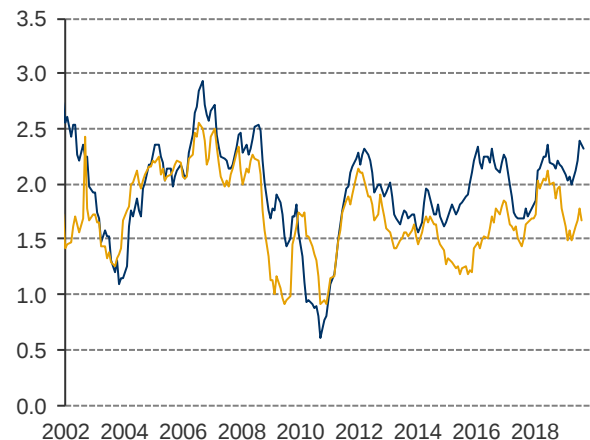
Altana Wealth is a specialist fund manager focused on delivering alpha where we have a competitive edge from niche strategies. As co-investors in all of our funds, our interests are aligned with those of our investors. Altana was set-up by Lee Robinson, co-founder of highly successful Trafalgar Asset Managers in 2010. Our funds have won seven performance awards over the past three years.

Total Consumer Prices (% y/y)



— Total CPI
— Total PCE price index

Core Consumer Prices (% y/y)

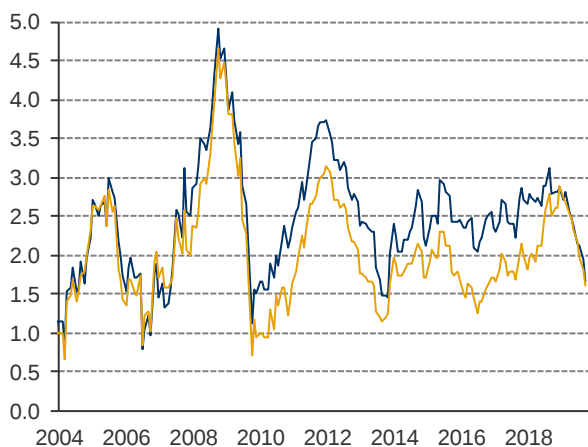


— Core CPI (ex-food and energy)
— Core PCE price index (ex-food and energy)

What is this data? Consumer Price Inflation is 'end-inflation' and what ultimately matters for consumers and central banks. There are two types shown here - the Consumer Price Index (CPI) and the PCE (personal consumption expenditure) deflator. The latter forms the basis of the US Federal Reserve's 2% inflation target.

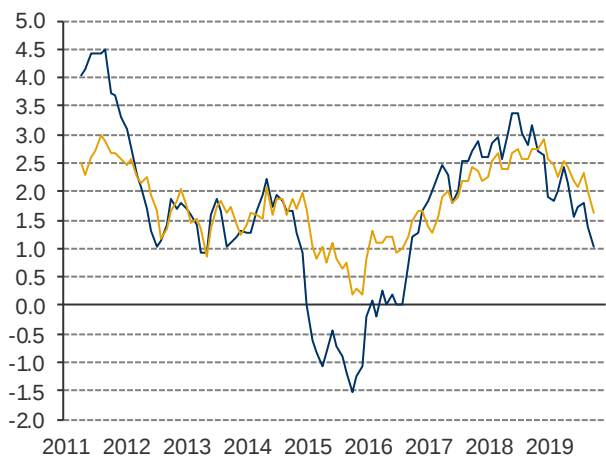
Current status? If the pick-up in core CPI in Jun-Aug justified prior Fed arguments about early year CPI weakness being transitory, the softness in Sep-Oct seems to support the Fed's recent view of limited CPI upside from here and hence little need for any speedy reversal of recent policy easing. However, the Oct data was driven by unusually soft shelter inflation (core measures looked more solid) and it remains to be seen how durable this shelter weakness will be.

Producer prices (% y/y)



— Core PPI (finished consumer goods)
— Core PPI (all finished goods)

Producer prices (% y/y)

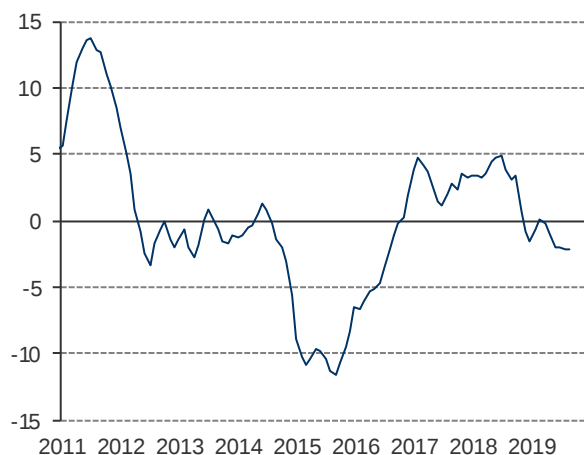


— PPI final demand
— Core PPI final demand (ex-food and energy)

What is this data? Producer Price Indices show pipeline price pressures that can influence future CPI & PCE. The new PPI final demand measure introduced in 2014 was broadened to include services, construction & government sectors as well as manufacturing goods. Measures relating to just goods are also shown in the left hand chart above.

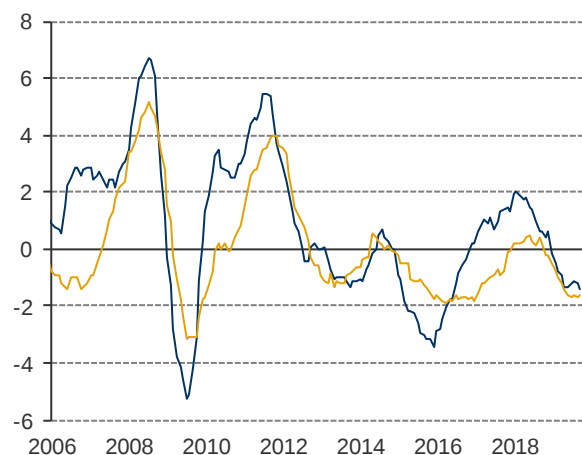
Current status? Core PPI rates have softened recently across most of the complex, reflecting in part an escalation of weakness in the price of Chinese manufacturing goods. This seems to be offsetting any attempts by domestic US producers to raise prices in response to higher tariffs on the imported goods they are competing with. PPI itself does not directly pick-up the tariff effect, as tariff revenue is not retained by the producer.

Import Prices (% y/y)



— Import prices

Import Prices – core and China (% y/y)



— Core import prices (ex-fuels)

— Import prices of Chinese goods

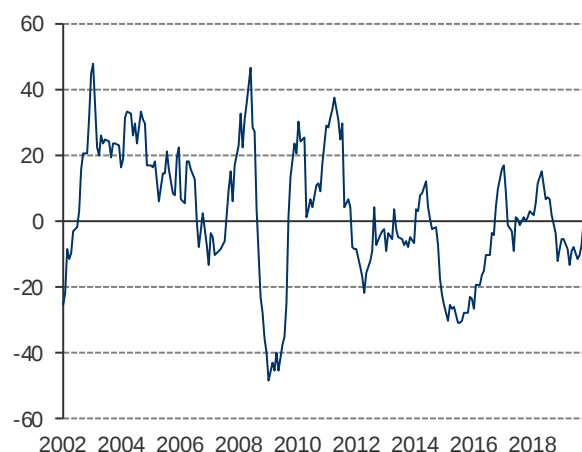
What is this data? Producer price indices refer to prices set by domestic producers only, so Import Prices are also monitored to gauge the price pressures entering the system from abroad. This includes total and core Import Prices and also the price of imports from China, as this is such a major origin of US imports.

Current status? Y/y rates for both core import prices and the price of imports from China remain in negative territory and are exerting downward pressure on other producer prices. Weakness in manufacturing PPI in China is having an effect on pricing in those countries that China exports to. Note that the import price data only records prices before any tariffs or duties are added so will not show tariff impact and the true cost that the supply chain in the US will face. However, in terms of the overall effect on US PPI/CPI the weakness in raw prices seems to be offsetting tariffs.

CRB-TR/J Commodity Price Index



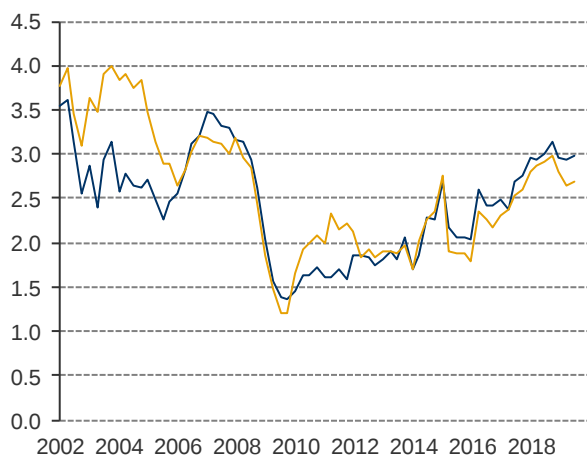
CRB-TR/J Commodity Prices (% y/y)



What is this data? The CRB Index is a basket of commodity prices and is a more timely indication of what is likely to show up in Crude PPI.

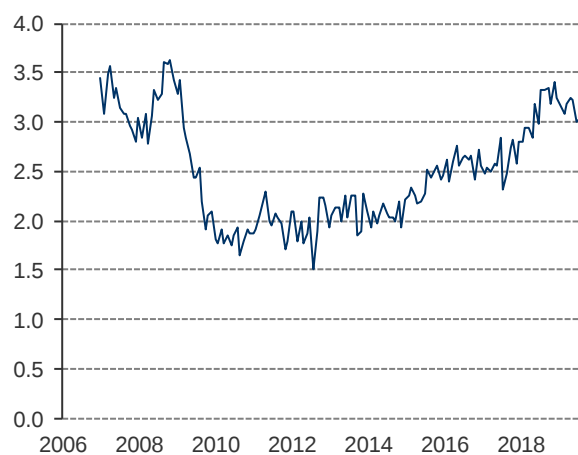
Current status? Commodity prices continue to be sensitive to the fortunes of the trade dispute between the US and China. With more focus now on the likelihood of a Phase 1 deal, commodity prices have generally improved since the beginning of October, which combined with favourable base effects (prices fell sequentially in Oct and Nov last year) has led to a sharp rise in the y/y rate.

Employment Cost Indices (% y/y)



— **Total Employment Cost** (private sector)
— **Wage & Salaries component** (private sector)

Hourly Earnings (% y/y)

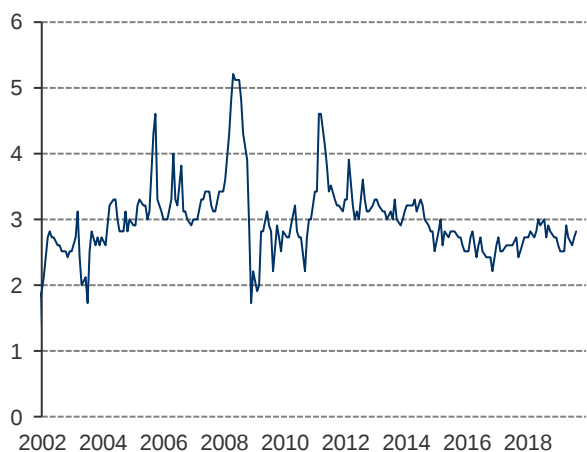


— **Hourly Earnings** (private sector)

What is this data? The Employment Cost Index (ECI) is the total cost of employing workers (wages, salaries, benefits) and is quarterly; 'hourly earnings' is monthly. These measures are significant for inflation from a cost perspective (cost pressures on corporates) and a demand perspective (the income-based spending power of consumers).

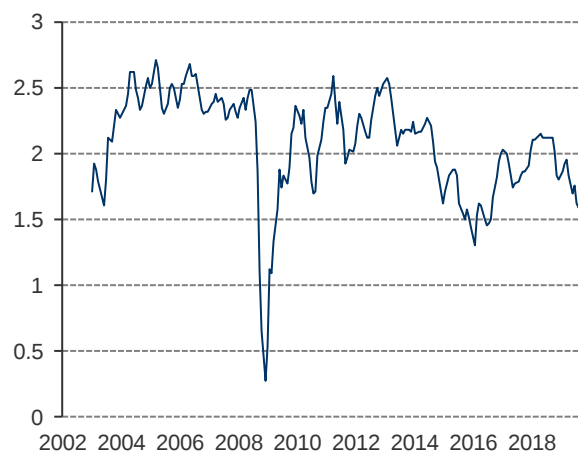
Current status? Employment growth has stabilised somewhat over the past few months (3 & 6 mth averages are at 156k and 176k respectively), while wage growth remains around 3%. With market and Fed attention now on the strength of economic activity instead of inflation, the focus in the labour market remains squarely on employment rather than wages.

Consumer Inflation Expectations (% y/y)



— **Univ. of Michigan survey of Consumer expectations for CPI over 1-y**

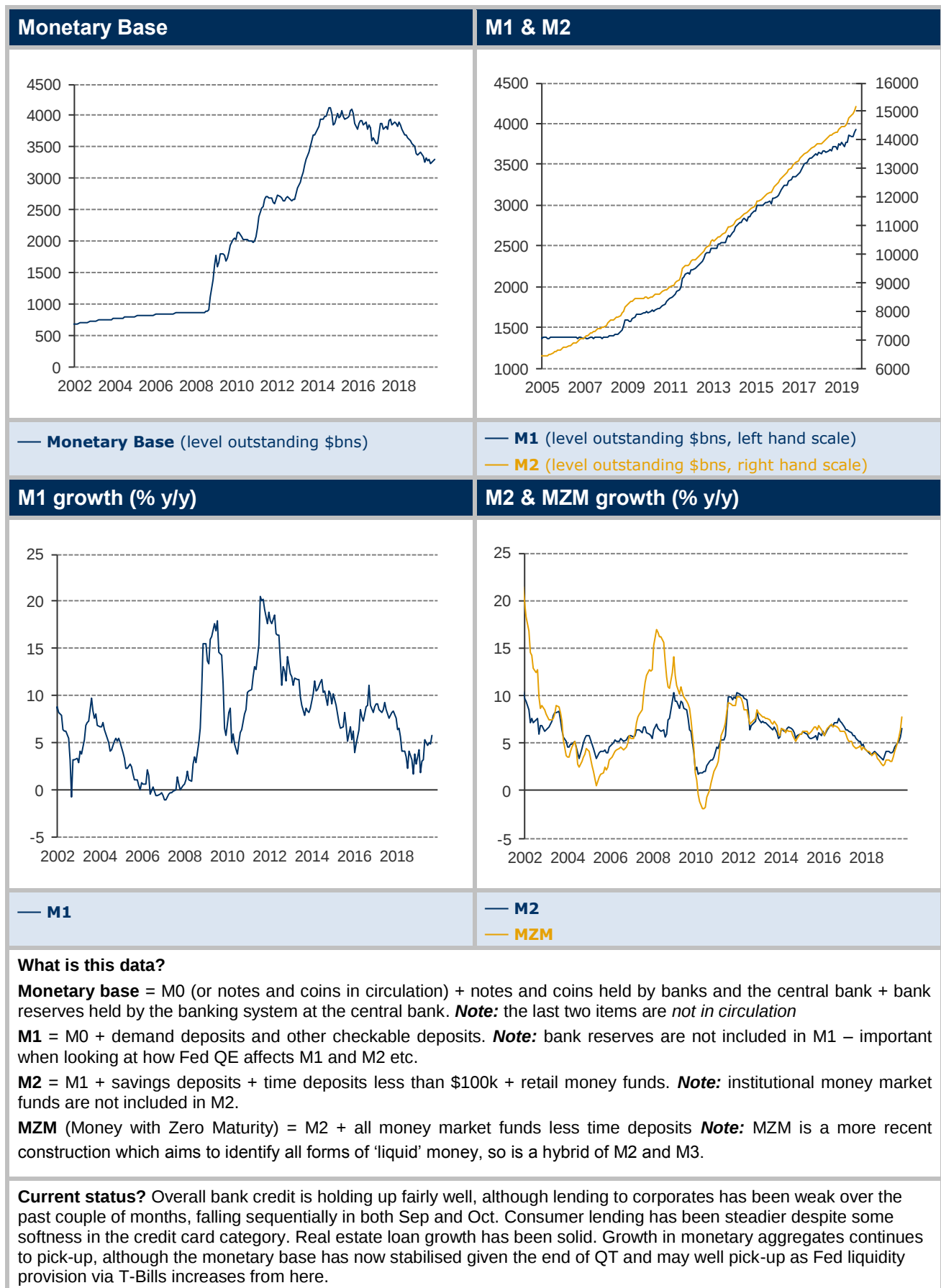
Market Inflation Expectations (% y/y)



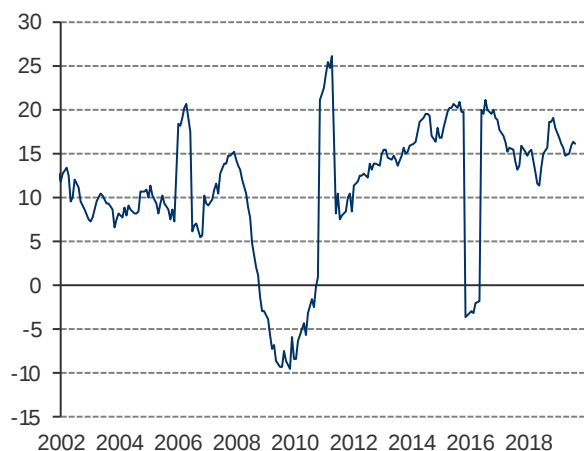
— **US 10yr Breakeven Inflation Rate** (10yr Treasury yield minus 10yr TIPS yield)

What is this data? Inflation expectations held by the public (Michigan survey) and by the financial market (10yr breakeven inflation rate). Inflation expectations are significant e.g. higher consumer expectations of inflation may lead to higher wage demands or may also cause higher spending due to fears that money will carry less spending power in the future. If market expectations of inflation are rising, this may require some reaction from policymakers.

Current status? Market inflation expectations remain soft but still above the lows of 2016, while consumer expectations are steadier. The Fed will be monitoring all of these measures very closely.

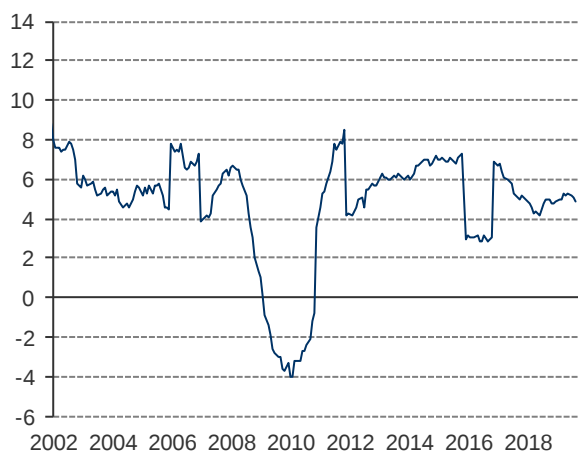


Consumer Credit



— Consumer Credit (6mth MA of m/m \$bn change)

Consumer Credit (% y/y)

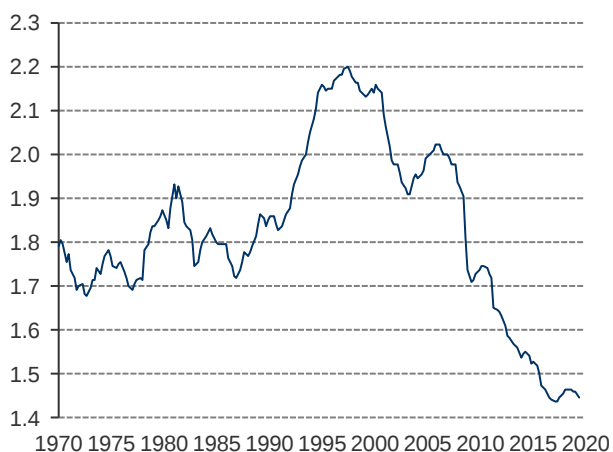


— Consumer Credit

What is this data? Covers most short and intermediate-term credit extended to individuals, excluding loans secured by real estate. Consumer credit growth will directly influence money growth and monetary velocity.

Current status? Consumer credit was weaker than expected for Sep, rising just \$9.5bn. Within this, revolving credit (credit cards) was down \$1.1bn, while non-revolving credit was up \$10.6bn. Revolving credit has been a little volatile in recent months, although overall the trend is weaker. The y/y rate on revolving credit is currently running at +3.1% - soft, but no disaster.

M2 Velocity



MZM Velocity



What is this data? The velocity of money is how much the money stock is actually used for transactions in goods and services and is inversely related to the demand for 'money' as opposed to the demand to 'exchange this money' for goods and services i.e. spending – see Appendix for a more detailed explanation.

Current status? Money velocity slipped further in Q3 down to 2-yr lows, with recent rises in monetary aggregates outpacing the softer profile for nominal GDP. The fact that velocity is now falling reflects the slowing in economic activity and rationalizes the recent easing moves by the Fed.

Appendix A – Monetary Indicators

The monetary backdrop is somewhat profound in terms of its potential influence on inflation and has over the years been the subject of considerable debate. Below is a simple monetary framework that helps to explain the role of Money in the economy and how it can affect inflation.

A Monetary Framework

The amount of money circulating in the economy will have implications for inflation in the medium-long term. This is best expressed via the **Quantity Theory Identity**

$$M.V \equiv P.Y$$

Where M is the amount of money in the economy, V is the velocity of money (how many times the amount of money is used), P is prices and Y is real output (GDP). Together, P.Y is money or nominal GDP.

As a basic statement this is not controversial. If M (\$500) is used 5 times (V) then \$2500 will have been spent and will be equal to the value of all goods sold in the economy - e.g. 2,500 items of real output (Y) at \$1 each (P) or 1,000 of (Y) at \$2.50 each (P) etc.

Where the identity becomes more interesting is in the assumptions that various schools of thought make about its components. For example, traditional Monetarists contend that V is fairly stable and predictable and Y is constrained by the capacity of the economy. So, under the Monetarist argument if M is rising faster than Y and V is stable, it follows that P will also rise. In other words, money growth creates inflation.

Others contend that V is not stable and also that Y can occasionally deviate substantially away from full capacity, so the relationship between M and P is less obvious. For example, in the current context of the US the Federal Reserve has made great efforts to increase the supply of money (M) over the past few years, but this has not led to proportionate increases in P.Y. This is likely due to two things. First, a reduction in velocity - any extra money balances are merely accumulating in the system (higher demand for money) rather than being spent and second, a lower money-multiplier. The money-multiplier represents the rate at which central bank created money (the monetary base) generates additional increases in the total money stock, including that money which is created by commercial banks – more on money creation below.

In sum, this basic Quantity Theory Identity is a useful framework for analysing the potential interaction between the monetary and real sectors of the economy and the monetary data we follow in this document will seek to shed light on what is happening to both M and V in this identity.

What is Money?

Another issue is how we define 'money' or M. There are many definitions and what we will seek to do here is to explain the differences between them and *why they are significant*, especially in the current context where the US Federal Reserve is aggressively flooding the banks with cash.

The definitions of money include M0, MB (the Monetary Base), M1, M2, M3 and MZM (maturity zero money) and the basic difference between them is related to the narrowness of the definition of 'money' (see below). The further we move along the spectrum towards M3 the less liquid 'money' becomes. For example, a large time deposit cannot be spent immediately whereas a checking deposit can.

Definitions

M0 = notes and coins *in circulation* with the non-bank public.

Monetary base = M0 + notes and coins held by banks and the central bank + bank reserves held by the banking system at the central bank (bank reserves) **Note:** the last two items are *not in circulation*.

M1 = M0 + demand deposits and other checkable deposits. **Note:** bank reserves are not included in M1 – important when looking at how Fed QE affects M1 and M2 etc.

M2 = M1 + savings deposits + time deposits less than \$100k + retail money funds. **Note:** institutional money market funds are not included in M2.

M3 = M2 + large time deposits + institutional money market funds + short-term repos and other large liquid assets.

MZM (Money Zero Maturity) = M2 + all money market funds less time deposits **Note:** MZM is a more recent construction which aims to identify all forms of 'liquid' money, so is a hybrid of M2 and M3.

Who creates Money?

A useful way to think about money – again relevant when considering Fed QE – is who creates it? The short answer is that both the central bank and the commercial banking system create money.

The Monetary Base is created and influenced by the Central Bank and is so-called because it is the base from which all other forms of money (non-M0, M1, M2 etc) are created by the commercial banking system.

For example, let us use QE as an example. The Fed buys T-Bonds from a bank and credits that bank's account at the Fed with the proceeds. These funds are now reserves. At this point, no money has entered circulation, so no other measure of money apart from the Monetary Base has been affected.

As the Monetary Base has increased, commercial banks are more *able* to create other money by issuing new loans and if they were to do this it would lead to a corresponding rise in deposits. This is because a loan, when advanced to the borrower, will be deposited in an account from which the borrower can spend it from i.e. an immediate rise in deposits (higher M1). Or, if the money is spent via a credit card, the borrowers account will not be affected, but the recipient of the credit card spending will deposit the revenue in their own account, so deposits somewhere in the system will have increased because of the 'loan' – higher M1.

In sum, boosting the Monetary Base (via e.g. Fed QE) increases the ability of banks to create other money such as M1. But the rate at which this happens (the money-multiplier referred to earlier) will come down to a commercial judgement by the banks as to whether or not they would like to advance extra loans.

So what should we look out for in the data?

There are two things and they relate to both M and V. In the current circumstances where the Fed has been pumping up the Monetary Base we need to be aware of this translating into a much faster pace of money in circulation if commercial banks use the higher reserves (monetary base) to create new money by extending loans etc. For example, since the Fed embarked on QE and expanded the Monetary Base M1 has risen quite sizeably, although the broader indicators have risen by much less. Any evidence of a ramping up of M2 or MZM would be a sign that monetary expansion is starting to become more threatening.

The second issue is velocity. Velocity has been falling in recent years, meaning that the increases in broad money have merely been accumulating in the system rather than being put to work in the form of spending etc. Any sign of a turn in V would suggest that the transmission mechanism from M to P.Y (nominal GDP) has been re-established and would suggest greater significance of M growth for the inflation outlook. If both M and V rise at the same time, the inflation alarm bells would truly start to ring.

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