Assessing The Fiscal-Monetary Policy Mix Effectiveness: Evidence from Morocco, Egypt and Saudi Arabia

> Younes EL KHATTAB Rachida EL YAMANI Ahmed HEFNAOUI

**20 23** May 4 - 6, Cairo Egypt



ERF 29<sup>th</sup> Annual Conference

# Assessing the fiscal-monetary policy mix effectiveness: evidence from Morocco, Egypt and Saudi Arabia

## EL KHATTAB Younes<sup>1</sup>, EL YAMANI Rachida<sup>2</sup> and HEFNAOUI Ahmed<sup>3</sup>

<sup>1,2,3</sup> Professor at Hassan II University of Casablanca Morocco, Faculty of Legal, Economic and Social Sciences, Mohammedia, Economic and Logistics Performance Research Laboratory

## Abstract

Our research paper contributes to enrich empirical literature and goes beyond a single open economy analysis by proposing a multi-country assessment of the policy mix in the Middle East/North Africa (MENA) region, under the two hypotheses of monetary and fiscal dominance. We base our study on a SVAR approach performed on secondary data from 1977-2021, for three countries from the MENA region, namely Morocco, Egypt and Saudi Arabia. Our data is sourced from World Development Indicators and includes five variables: Current account balance (% of GDP) (CA), inflation rate (INF), GDP growth (annual %) (GDP), money supply (M3) and government expenditure (GEXP).

The results show that the coordination scheme choice has no significant effect on the policy mix effectiveness in the three countries. Policy mix in Morocco is more effective in preserving price stability whereas stabilisation policies in Egypt are more effective in boosting economic activity. Because of its limited exposure to energy price risk (i.e. imported inflation), Saudi Arabia has a wider margin of manoeuvr*e* in implementing growth-oriented policies without imperiling price stability.

Considering that previous studies gave different views on which policies, monetary or fiscal, is more effective in a single open economy analysis, to our knowledge, no relevant studies have performed a multi-country assessment of the policy mix in the MENA area. In fact, this research will provide an empirical framework for analysing the macroeconomic implications of monetary and fiscal policies in the MENA area, which will allow us to draw some interesting conclusions about the policy mix effectiveness in the sample countries.

**Keywords:** Monetary Policy, Fiscal Policy, Joint Analysis of Fiscal and Monetary Policy, Inflation, Economic Growth.

**JEL classification :** E31, E52, E62, E63, F43.

<sup>1</sup> Corresponding author: elkhattab.younes1983@gmail.com

<sup>&</sup>lt;sup>2</sup> Corresponding author: rachida.elyamani@univh2c.ma

<sup>&</sup>lt;sup>3</sup> Corresponding author: hefnaoui\_ahmed@yahoo.com

## 1. Introduction

Over the last decades, the world has experienced series of economic crises with different causes (tech bubble burst, subprime meltdown, sovereign debt build-up, commodity price shock and pandemic outbreak), leading to a global economic downturn as a major consequence. In this context, monetary and fiscal authorities around the world have joined their efforts to deliver the required macroeconomic support by adopting a growth-oriented policy mix. The aim of this combination between monetary and fiscal policy is to ensure a strong and rapid economic recovery.

The question of policy mix macroeconomic effects has been the subject of a rich array of theoretical literature, which includes the contributions of Keynes (1936), Hicks (1937), Fleming (1962) and Mundell (1960, 1963). An important strand of the empirical literature has proposed an assessment of the policy mix effectiveness within the SVAR framework. It is all about analysing the response of economic growth and inflation to structural shocks emanating from fiscal and/or monetary policy.

Our research paper contributes to the SVAR based empirical literature and goes beyond a single open economy analysis by proposing an assessment of the policy mix in three MENA region countries, under the two hypotheses of monetary and fiscal dominance. Our approach takes into account the effects of the countries' economic structure as well as the implications of the stabilization policy choices.

## 2. Literature review

The question of policy mix macroeconomic effects has been the subject of a rich array of literature. The starting point for the theoretical framework is Keynes's General Theory (1936), which emphasizes the role of fiscal and monetary policy in tempering economic downturns and upturns. The Keynesian approach suggests a combination of monetary expansion, tax cuts and increases in government spending to boost economic activity in periods of depression. In their three research papers, Harrod (1937), Mead (1937) and Hicks (1937) gave a mathematical structure to the General Theory. Hansen (1949, 1951 and 1953) built on Hicks's work to formulate the IS-LM model, which analyses the effects of macroeconomic policies in a closed economy with a fixed price level.

Mundell (1960, 1963) and Fleming (1962) extended the IS-LM model to deal with the open economy by introducing two parameters: the balance of payments equilibrium and the exchange rate system. The authors demonstrated that monetary policy has strong effect on economic activity under flexible exchange rates whereas fiscal policy is an effective tool for boosting growth under fixed exchange rates.

In addition to the previous models, many authors of macroeconomics textbooks (e.g. Baumol et al. (1985), Stiglitz (1993), McTaggart et al. (2003) and McConnell et al. (2018)) proposed the aggregate demand / aggregate supply framework as a simple tool for explaining real output and inflation dynamics. The model captures the effects of fiscal and monetary policy decisions in a context of flexible price level.

Since the early 1980s, the question of creating a sound macroeconomic environment for growth has become the focus of a large array of theoretical contributions. Sargent and Wallace (1981) argued that excessive public deficits arising from growth-oriented fiscal policies limit the independence of central banks and hinder their ability to preserve price stability. Under fiscal dominance, the government sets independently its expansionary fiscal policy and the central bank is constrained to finance part of the budget deficit through seigniorage, which results in additional inflation. In order to deal with this situation, Sargent and Wallace proposed a monetary dominance scheme that allows the central bank to set independently its inflation control policy and forces the government to reduce its fiscal deficit.

The fiscal theory of the price level provides another explanation of the inflationary pressures induced by loose fiscal policy. In contrast with the conventional monetarist approach, which treated inflation as a monetary phenomenon, the proponents of the fiscal theory (e.g. Leeper (1991), Sims (1994) and Woodford (1995, 1996, 2001) emphasized the direct impact of government budget deficit on price level and concluded therefore that inflation is a fiscal phenomenon. According to this view, it would be difficult for an independent central bank to achieve the goal of price stability without the government's commitment to set an appropriate fiscal policy.

A large body of literature has sought to provide an empirical framework for analysing the policy mix macroeconomic effects in small open economies. An important strand of this literature has proposed an assessment of the policy mix effectiveness within the SVAR framework. It is all about analysing the response of economic growth and inflation to structural shocks emanating from fiscal and/or monetary policy. The following table presents a brief review of the empirical literature.

Authors	Model	Period,	Variables	Main results
		frequency		
Dungey and Fry (2009)	SVAR	and country 1983-2006 Quarterly New Zealand	Foreign output, export prices, import prices, real government expenditure, real taxation, real gross national expenditure, government debt to GDP, real GDP, house price inflation, consumer price inflation, short term interest rate and trade weighted exchange rate. (Climate and international interest rate are incorporated as exogenous variables)	Fiscal policy shocks have a greater impact on output than shocks emanating from monetary policy. Output behaviour is mostly explained by foreign and domestic shocks linked to non-policy variables.
Ravnik and Zilic (2011)	SVAR	2001-2009 Monthly Croatia	Government expenditures, index of industrial production (proxy of output), consumer price index (first difference), government revenues, overnight interest rate on the money market	The impact of government expenditures shocks on industrial production is negative in the short term and vanishes within two years. The crowding out effect is a possible explanation of this direction of influence. The effects of fiscal policy shocks are relatively the lowest on inflation and the highest on interest rate
Vinayagathasan (2013)	SVAR	1978-2011 Monthly Sri Lanka	Foreign block (world oil price index and US interest rate); domestic block "non-policy variables" (output and price index); domestic block "policy variables" (exchange rate, interbank rate and reserve money)	Monetary policy shocks, through interest rate, play a significant role in explaining the variations of domestic economic indicators. These latter show no significant
Fetai (2013)	SVAR	1997-2013 Monthly Macedonia	Real gross domestic product, manufacturing prices index, retail prices index, monetary aggregate (M1), government expenditures and government revenues	Money stock shocks exhibit a strong and persistent effect on price level (inflationary pressures), without any significant impact on real GDP. Monetary policy counteracts the effects of an increase in government expenditures. Expansionary fiscal policy seems to be ineffective unless it is based on tax-cuts
Coric, Simovic, and Deskar- Skrbic (2015)	SVAR	2004-2012 Monthly Croatia	Domestic industrial production, government expenditures-to- revenues ratio, monetary aggregate (M1), nominal	Economic activity reacts positively to expansionary monetary and fiscal policies. Government expenditures shocks lead to nominal exchange rate appreciation while the effect of

Table 1. A brief literature review

			effective exchange rate and net exports (included as exogenous variable)	monetary expansion is negative (depreciation). Coordinated measures of monetary and fiscal policies can provide support to growth without inducing inflationary pressures
Tule, Onipede and Ebuh (2020)	SVAR	2003-2017 Monthly Nigeria	Real GDP growth, government expenditure to revenue growth, changes in price level, global oil price, money supply (M1) and prime lending rate	Economic activity shows a delayed positive reaction to expansionary monetary policy, accompanied by inflationary pressures. A positive shock in government expenditure leads to real GDP contraction and brings price level up. A coordinated policy mix could help achieving the goal of economic growth and price stability.

Source: authors

## 3. Methodology

This study addresses the question of policy mix effectiveness with a focus on the MENA region. It aims to test two major hypotheses:

- <u>Hypothesis I</u>: the fiscal-monetary policy mix provides effective support to economic growth in the MENA region without imperiling price stability.
- <u>Hypothesis II</u>: the countries' economic structure and their stabilization policy choices (i.e. fiscal or monetary dominance) have an influence on the policy mix effectiveness.

In light of the World Bank's available data, we use annual series from 1977 to 2021.

The model includes five variables: Current account balance (% of GDP) (CA), inflation rate (INF), GDP growth (annual %) (GDP), money supply (M3) and government expenditure (GEXP).

We propose an assessment of the policy mix effectiveness in a sample of three countries belonging to the MENA area, which are Morocco, Egypt and Saudi Arabia. The three Arab economies have various economic development and structures (i.e. two oil-importing and one oil-exporting country), but have shown a common effort of search for the effectiveness of macroeconomic policy decisions.

In order to conduct this study, the SVAR approach is used to impose restrictions on the response of a variable to a shock on another variable, these restrictions are based on economic theory. Thus, the SVAR is appropriate for predicting the impact of macroeconomic policy decisions (Ravnik and Zilic 2011; Vinayagathasan 2013; Fetai 2013; Coric et al 2015; Tule et al. 2020). In this study, we are interested in analyzing the response of economic growth and inflation to structural shocks emanating from monetary and fiscal policy.

The identification of our SVAR model requires the imposition of some short-term restrictions:

In light of Mundell (1960, 1963) and Fleming (1962) theoretical contribution, the current account is a key variable in small open economies. This variable reacts to the fluctuations of foreign prices and global economic activity (i.e. external shocks). The current account is therefore incorporated as a foreign block variable and assumed to have a contemporaneous effect on domestic prices and real output. Inflation responds contemporaneously to current account and has an immediate impact on real output.

Since fiscal and monetary authorities base their decisions on the analysis of macroeconomic data, their policy variables (i.e. government expenditure and money supply) react instantaneously to shocks in current account, inflation and real output.

In addition, by changing the policy variables ordering in the short-term restrictions matrix, we can account for the two main policy coordination schemes defined by Sargent and Wallace (1981). Indeed, monetary authorities are constrained by the government expenditure decisions under fiscal dominance and fiscal authorities are constrained by the central bank stance under monetary dominance.

The sequential order of the variables (in Cholesky factorization) will be as follows (1):

	/1	0	0	0	0 \			$/ CA_t \setminus$	
	a <sub>21</sub>	1	0	0	0			$\left(\begin{array}{c} CA_t\\ INF_t \end{array}\right)$	
Α	a <sub>31</sub>	$a_{32} \\ a_{42}$	1	0	0	;	$X_t$	$GDP_t$	(1)
	<i>a</i> <sub>41</sub>	$a_{42}$	$a_{43}$	1	0			$M3_t$	
	$\backslash a_{51}$		$a_{53}$	$a_{54}$	1/			$\langle GEXP_t \rangle$	

## 4. Results and discussion

The structural VAR model provides two main outputs, the first one concerns the impulse response graphs and the second one is the decomposition of variance errors.

For this purpose, before analyzing the impulse response graphs and interpreting the decomposition of variance errors for each country, several tests were performed:

## **4.1.Results of unit root test**

Before analyzing the response of economic growth and inflation to structural shocks emanating from monetary and fiscal policy, it is necessary to examine the stationarity of all variables included in the study.

Augmented Dickey-Fuller (ADF) and Phillips-Perron (PP) tests was used to examine if the variables are stationary in levels or after first difference.

According to table 2 (in appendix), all variables, for the three countries, are stationary in level.

The results of the non-stationarity tests (ADF and PP) show that the variables of our model are all stationary in level, for the three countries. Therefore, a co-integration test in the sense of Johansen is not necessary, since it assumes that the series are integrated in the same order. The SVAR approach will be our analysis method.

In fact, before giving the SVAR outputs, it is necessary to determine the VAR order, on which the SVAR restrictions will be implemented.

## 4.2.VAR order

The determination of the number of lags is done by estimating the VAR model for several values of the lag p, the optimal lag is the one that minimizes the Akaike (AIC) Schwarz (SC) and Hannan-Quinn (HQ) information criteria.

From table 3, we can see that the three criteria lead us to retain a VAR (1) process. We will then summarize that the method we will use throughout the estimation is that of the VAR with a delay for the three countries, for the monetary and fiscal dominance perspectives.

## **4.3.Diagnostic tests**

The validation of the VAR (1) model will be done by performing diagnostic tests on the residuals. According to table 4, for the three countries and for both the monetary and fiscal dominance approaches, the results of the diagnostic tests show us that the residuals are normal, uncorrelated and they are homoscedastic, thus we conclude that our models are statistically valid, at a significance level of 5%.

Since all the VAR (1) models for the three countries are valid, we can now put structural restrictions to interpret the impulse responses and the variance decomposition of the errors under the two perspectives of monetary and fiscal dominance

## 4.4. Impulse Response Function Analysis

## 4.4.1. Responses to monetary and fiscal policy shocks in Morocco

#### • Under monetary dominance (Table 5):

Following a positive shock in government expense (i.e. expansionary fiscal policy), money supply shows a negative response over seven years and then moves gradually to its initial baseline. By reducing their money supply, monetary authorities attempt to alleviate the possible inflationary pressures induced by an increase in government spending, which is consistent with the monetary dominance approach (Sargent and Wallace 1981). Inflation reacts also negatively to a loose fiscal policy and edges towards its initial level by the end of the analysis period. This reaction is inconsistent with the fiscal theory of the price level (e.g. Woodford 1995, 1996, 2001) and can be explained by the restrictive stance of monetary authorities. The response of output is negative and short-lived, which seems to be the result of monetary contraction and

crowding out effect. Thus, fiscal policy fails to produce the positive Keynesian effect on growth. In addition, positive shocks emanating from government expenditure lead to an improvement in the current account balance particularly over the five first years.

Fiscal authorities reduce their spending in reaction to a positive shock in money supply. The impact of this shock vanishes within two years. Under monetary dominance, government seems to adopt a prudent stance since it cannot rely on central bank to back its stimulus policies. Furthermore, expansionary monetary policy generates inflationary pressures that last for several years and weaken by the end of the analysis period. This result is in line with the quantity theory of money (Friedman 1956). The impact of positive monetary shocks on output is positive in the short-term (i.e. the two first years), volatile in the medium-term and null in the long-term. Therefore, monetary policy produces the positive Keynesian effect on growth in the short-term. In addition, shocks induced by monetary expansion lead to a deterioration in the current account especially over the five first years.

## • Under fiscal dominance (Table 6):

Even under fiscal dominance, monetary authorities focus on alleviating inflationary pressures by reducing their money supply in reaction to a positive shock in government expense. The reaction of the other variables (i.e. inflation, output and current account) to fiscal shocks remains the same, which means that the coordination scheme choices (i.e. fiscal or monetary dominance) do not have any impact on the fiscal policy effectiveness in Morocco.

The government raises its expenditure in reaction to a positive monetary shock. The effect of this shock becomes less important starting from the sixth year and disappears in the longterm. Indeed, the favorable monetary conditions resulting from an increase in money supply reduce the cost of financing deficits and encourage fiscal authorities to spend more. A positive monetary policy shock has a short-lived negative effect on current account and its impact on inflation and output does not change under fiscal dominance compared to monetary dominance scheme.

## 4.4.2. Responses to monetary and fiscal policy shocks in Egypt

#### • Under monetary dominance (Table 5):

Following a positive fiscal shock, money supply increases gradually until the sixth year and then edges towards its initial baseline. Indeed, central bank attempts to back government stimulus policy through an accommodative monetary stance, which is inconsistent with the monetary dominance approach (Sargent and Wallace 1981). An expansionary fiscal policy generates permanent inflationary pressures. This direction of influence is in line with the fiscal theory of the price level (e.g. Woodford 1995, 1996, 2001). The inflationary pressures are also

consistent with the monetarist arithmetic since the expansionary fiscal policy is accompanied by an increase in money supply (Sargent and Wallace 1981). The effect of government expense shock on output is positive and reaches its peak by the end of the second year, before starting to decline progressively, which means that fiscal policy yields the positive effects expected in the Keynesian model. Furthermore, the current account balance shows a negative response to fiscal expansion. This indicator decreases significantly over the four first years and returns gradually to its initial level.

The government reduces its expense after a positive monetary shock. The expense contraction is particularly noticeable over four years and vanishes in the long-term. This prudent fiscal authorities' stance is consistent with the monetary dominance scheme. Expansionary monetary policy is also the cause of substantial inflation pressures especially in the short-term (i.e. the four first years). This effect is consistent with the quantity theory of money (Friedman 1956). Output shows a temporary positive response that lasts for four years, which confirms the ability of monetary policy to generate the positive Keynesian effect on activity in the short-term. Finally, a positive shock in money supply produces a negative short-term impact on the current account. Starting from the sixth year, the variable returns progressively to its initial baseline.

#### • Under fiscal dominance (Table 6):

In accordance with the fiscal dominance approach, central bank maintains its accommodative monetary policy (i.e. increase in money supply) in response to expansionary fiscal stance. Overall, a positive fiscal policy shock puts upward pressure on inflation, stimulates growth and leads to a deterioration in the current account, which means that the reaction of these macroeconomic variables does not change under fiscal dominance compared to monetary dominance scheme.

Even under fiscal dominance, the government keeps its prudent stance following a monetary expansion. Indeed, government expenditure decreases in the first three years, before moving gradually to its initial level. Furthermore, including the fiscal dominance restrictions in the empirical analysis does not alter the reaction of inflation, output and current account to monetary shocks.

#### 4.4.3. Responses to monetary and fiscal policy shocks in Saudi Arabia

#### • Under monetary dominance (Table 5):

The central bank adopts an expansionary monetary policy following a positive shock in government expense. Indeed, the money supply shows a delayed positive reaction that lasts for several years and vanishes in the long-term. This direction of response is not in line with the monetary dominance approach (Sargent and Wallace 1981). Moreover, the fiscal theory of the price level (e.g. Woodford 1995, 1996, 2001) and the monetarist arithmetic (Sargent and Wallace 1981) do not apply in the case of Saudi Arabia. Indeed, the reaction of inflation to expansionary fiscal policy is negative and short-lived. Fiscal expansion produces the positive Keynesian effect on growth, which lasts for three years and disappears by the end of the fourth horizon. The current account reacts also positively and edges towards its initial baseline in the long-term.

Following a positive shock in money supply, the government adopts an expansionary stance for two years, before reducing its expenditure over the remaining period. This fiscal contraction is consistent with the monetary dominance scheme. In contrast to the quantity theory of money (Friedman 1956), inflation shows a delayed negative reaction to shocks induced by monetary expansion. This downward pressure on inflation lasts for several years and disappears by the end of the analysis period. Furthermore, monetary policy fails to yield the expected Keynesian effect on activity. Indeed, the impact of an increase in money supply on output is negative over the first four years and vanishes by the end of the fifth horizon. Finally, central bank accommodative policy is the cause of current account deterioration particularly in the short and medium term.

#### • Under fiscal dominance (Table 6):

Monetary authorities raise their money supply in response to a positive fiscal shock. The response becomes less important starting from the third year and disappears in the long-term. This accommodative stance is in line with the fiscal dominance system. Moreover, positive fiscal shocks put downward pressure on price level, boost economic activity in the short-term and lead to an improvement in the current account situation. The reaction of these non-policy variables remains the same under the two coordination schemes.

After a positive shock in money supply, the government increases its expense over the two first years and then adopts a restrictive stance over the remaining period. Thus, fiscal authorities maintain their prudent stance even under fiscal dominance. The introduction of this coordination scheme in the empirical study does not change the response of output and current account. The reaction of inflation remains negative and shows a moderate downward pressure.

#### 4.5. Decomposition of variance errors Analysis

#### 4.5.1. Decomposition of variance errors Analysis in Morocco

#### • Under monetary dominance (Table 7):

The variance of the forecast error of the inflation rate is due to 64,31% to its own innovations; 23,17% to innovations in the money supply and only 4,65% to innovations in government

spending. Regarding the GDP, the variance of its forecast error is due to 91,21% to its own innovations; 3,63% to innovations in the money supply and only 0,17% to innovations in government spending.

#### • Under fiscal dominance (Table 8):

The variance of the forecast error of the inflation rate is due to 68,69% to its own innovations; only 7,65% to innovations in government spending and 16,36% to innovations in the money supply. Regarding the GDP, the variance of its forecast error is due to 92,59% to its own innovations; only 0,42% to innovations in government spending and 2,89% to innovations in the money supply.

## 4.5.2. Decomposition of variance errors Analysis in Egypt

## • Under monetary dominance (Table 7):

The variance of the forecast error of the inflation rate is due to 47,27% to its own innovations; 24,82% to innovations in the money supply and only 2,21% to innovations in government spending. Regarding the GDP, the variance of its forecast error is due to 84,59% to its own innovations; 2,56% to innovations in the money supply and only 1,7% to innovations in government spending.

## • Under fiscal dominance (Table 8):

The variance of the forecast error of the inflation rate is due to 48,95% to its own innovations; only 5,46% to innovations in government spending and 20,89% to innovations in the money supply. Regarding the GDP, the variance of its forecast error is due to 83,33% to its own innovations; only 1,59% to innovations in government spending and 2,71% to innovations in the money supply.

#### 4.5.3. Decomposition of variance errors Analysis in Saudi Arabia

#### • Under monetary dominance (Table 7):

The variance of the forecast error of the inflation rate is due to 71,84% to its own innovations; 0,45% to innovations in the money supply and only 1,06% to innovations in government spending. Regarding the GDP, the variance of its forecast error is due to 68,73% to its own innovations; 6,3% to innovations in the money supply and only 4,53% to innovations in government spending.

#### • Under fiscal dominance (Table 8):

The variance of the forecast error of the inflation rate is due to 62,97% to its own innovations; only 5,54% to innovations in government spending and 1,63% to innovations in the money supply. Regarding the GDP, the variance of its forecast error is due to 71,44% to its own

innovations; only 2,56% to innovations in government spending and 8,72% to innovations in the money supply.

## **5.** Conclusion

In this paper, we used the SVAR approach to assess the policy mix effectiveness in Morocco, Egypt and Saudi Arabia. Particularly, we analysed the impact of fiscal and monetary shocks on output, inflation and current account in the three MENA region countries. Our empirical framework takes into account the countries' economic structure as well as the implications of the coordination scheme choices. In light of our results, we can draw some interesting conclusions.

In Morocco, the analysis of macroeconomic indicators response to shocks in policy variables (i.e. government spending and money supply) yields the same results under both fiscal and monetary dominance. Therefore, the coordination scheme choice has no effect on the policy mix effectiveness. A possible explanation of this result is that central bank maintains the same restrictive stance under the two coordination schemes. Indeed, Moroccan monetary authorities remain focused on alleviating inflationary pressures induced by fiscal expansion and potential commodity price shocks, since morocco is an oil-importing country.

An expansionary fiscal policy has no destabilising effect on price level and current account in Morocco but seems to be ineffective in stimulating economic activity. Indeed, monetary authorities' restrictive stance counteracts the impact of an increase in government expenditure.

Moroccan monetary authorities manage to boost growth in the short-term through a monetary expansion. Nevertheless, this accommodative stance puts an upward pressure on inflation and leads to a deterioration in the current account.

In Egypt, the reaction of macroeconomic variables to fiscal and monetary policy decisions does not change under fiscal dominance compared to monetary dominance system. Therefore, the coordination scheme choice has no significant impact on the effectiveness of stabilization policies. This result can be explained by the central bank decision to uphold the same accommodative policy under the two coordination schemes in order to back government stimulus programs.

An expansionary fiscal policy seems to be an effective tool for stimulating economic activity in Egypt. Furthermore, the central bank provides great support for the government stimulus programs. However, these policy choices destabilise external balances and generate inflationary pressures. It is worth recalling that Egypt remains exposed to commodity price risk (i.e. imported inflation) since it is an oil-importing country. Egyptian central bank policy manages to generate a temporary positive effect on economic activity. This expansionary stance puts upward pressure on price level and has a negative impact on current account.

In Saudi Arabia, the coordination scheme choices do not alter the response of macroeconomic variables to shocks emanating from fiscal and monetary policy. Indeed, Saudi monetary authorities maintain the same accommodative stance under fiscal and monetary dominance, which generates the same reaction from the non-policy variables under the two schemes.

In the short-term, Saudi government achieves the goal of growth stimulation through an effective fiscal policy that builds on monetary authority's support. This expansionary stance has no destabilizing effect on external balances and price level. It is worth noting the limited exposure of Saudi Arabia to energy price risk (i.e. imported inflation) since it is an oil-exporting country.

An expansionary monetary policy does not cause any inflationary pressures in Saudi Arabia but remains ineffective since it produces a negative effect on output and external balances.

In our study, the two oil-importing countries make a trade-off between growth stimulation and inflation. Morocco adopts a fiscal / monetary policy combination that is more focused on preserving price stability, which explains the negative impact of fiscal expansion on growth. Egypt chooses a fiscal / monetary policy combination that is more focused on boosting economic activity, which explains the positive impact of fiscal expansion on price level. A better coordination between fiscal and monetary policy could lead to growth stimulation in Morocco and price stability preservation in Egypt. In addition, the two countries could rely on expansionary monetary policy to generate a short-term increase in their output especially in periods of low inflationary pressures. The oil-exporting country (i.e. Saudi Arabia) has limited exposure to energy price risk (i.e. imported inflation). Thus, it has a wider margin of manoeuvre in implementing growth-oriented policy mix without imperiling price stability.

## Appendixes

Country	Variables	Unit root test at level		Conclusion
		ADF	PP	
	CA	-3.327319**	-3.327319**	I(0)
	INF	-2.119304**	-2.453705**	I(0)
Morocco	GDP	-12.03162***	-11.06093***	I(0)
	M3	-4.999486***	-5.028902***	I(0)
	Gexp	-3.850872**	-3.850872**	I(0)

Table 2. Unit root tests results

	CA	-2.402696**	-2.398849**	I(0)
	INF	-3.333464**	-3.274006**	I(0)
Egypt	GDP	-4.224393***	-4.068890 ***	I(0)
	M3	-3.360703 **	-3.360703**	I(0)
	Gexp	-3.110380***	-3.166386 ***	I(0)
	CA	-2.391547**	-2.322311**	I(0)
	INF	-2.022338**	-4.827084***	I(0)
Saudi Arabia	GDP	-3.008354***	-5.404713***	I(0)
	M3	-5.759316***	-5.699030***	I(0)
	Gexp	-3.956638***	-3.870810***	I(0)

Note: \*\*\*, \*\* and \* reveal, respectively, significance at 1% level; 5 % and 10%.

	Lag	AIC	SC	HQ
		Monetary dominant	ce	
	0	29.03468	29.24366	29.11078
Morocco	1	27.06822*	28.32205*	27.52480*
Morocco	2	27.50699	29.80569	28.34405
	3	27.26021	30.60377	28.47775
	0	30.13027	30.34138	30.20660
Egymt	1	28.64453	29.91119*	29.10251*
Egypt	2	28.34122*	30.66343	29.18086
	3	28.70038	32.07814	29.92167
	0	33.02223	33.22909	33.09805
Saudi Arabia	1	31.81655*	33.05774*	32.27150*
Saudi Alabia	2	32.08258	34.35810	32.91665
	3	32.28762	35.59747	33.50081
		Fiscal dominance		
	0	29.03468	29.24366	29.11078
Morocco	1	27.06822*	28.32205*	27.52480*
Morocco	2	27.50699	29.80569	28.34405
	3	27.26021	30.60377	28.47775
	0	30.23326	30.44437	30.30959
Earmt	1	28.36625*	29.63291*	28.82424*
Egypt	2	28.56917	30.89137	29.40880
	3	28.99880	32.37655	30.22009
	0	33.02223	33.22909	33.09805
Saudi Arabia	1	31.81655*	33.05774*	32.27150*
Sauui Araula	2	32.08258	34.35810	32.91665
	3	32.28762	35.59747	33.50081

Table 3: VAR Order

Table 4: Diagnostic tests

	Autocorrelation LM Test	White Heteroskedasticity Test	Normality Test						
	Monetary dominance								
Morocco	0.3702	0.1314	0.1167						
Egypt	0.1119	0.2018	0.4190						
Saudi Arabia	0.2945	0.0646	0.5861						
	Fi	scal dominance							
Morocco	0.7655	0.0983	0.4376						
Egypt	0.1013	0.1066	0.0877						
Saudi Arabia	0.2039	0.0895	0.1424						



 Table 5: Impulse Responses of the SVAR model under monetary dominance



Table 6: Impulse Responses of the SVAR model under fiscal dominance





			Morocco			
Period	S.E.	Varia CA	nce Decompositi INF	on of INF GDP	M3	GEXP
Teriou	J.L.	en	1111	001	1015	OLM
1	2.318043	7.054471	92.94553	0.000000	0.000000	0.000000
2	2.960694	5.802222	77.15709	0.711633	14.87757	1.451489
3	3.307495	5.529134	71.63233	1.268986	18.87599	2.693562
4	3.509711	5.637894	68.37973	1.187675	21.25793	3.536773
5	3.632203	5.838538	66.80796	1.223414	22.10048	4.029602
6	3.707584	6.077870	65.75311	1.186733	22.66755	4.314731
7	3.754558	6.282505	65.15005	1.189103	22.90150	4.476847
8	3.783951	6.459701	64.73687	1.174259	23.06003	4.569141
9	3.802427	6.593736	64.48278	1.174128	23.12790	4.621453
10	3.814053	6.697584	64.31035	1.168791	23.17210	4.651170
		Variance	e Decomposition	of GDP		
Period	S.E.	CA	INF	GDP	M3	GEXP
1	1.903072	2.587164	1.855150	95.55769	0.000000	0.000000
2	2.616291	1.843664	3.122830	91.69688	3.162662	0.173969
3	2.946315	1.950528	2.878725	91.73819	3.275897	0.156658
4	3.158471	1.853060	3.102143	91.32920	3.543787	0.171813
5	3.263685	1.885709	3.051468	91.33629	3.557924	0.168608
6	3.330687	1.868102	3.104838	91.24449	3.611188	0.171384
7	3.365901	1.878573	3.093881	91.24488	3.611910	0.170759
8	3.388194	1.875516	3.107730	91.22160	3.623706	0.171447
9	3.400515	1.878809	3.105467	91.22100	3.623391	0.171330
10	3.408291	1.878396	3.109161	91.21484	3.626084	0.171516
			Egypt	CDE		
Period	S.E.	CA	ance decompositi INF	on of INF GDP	M3	GEXP
Fellou	5.E.	CA	ШАГ	ODF	IN15	UEAF
1	2.852789	11.08985	88.91015	0.000000	0.000000	0.000000
2	3.493175	8.460766	73.11076	2.351089	15.51687	0.560515
3	3.819256	9.227064	62.18768	3.474434	24.20445	0.906375
4	3.997316	12.80381	56.04956	3.383233	26.58307	1.180330
5	4.095165	16.39697	52.40897	3.164802	26.58138	1.447888
6	4.148501	18.95074	50.17017	3.148649	26.03441	1.696028
8 7	4.177218	20.50234	48.80489	3.266985	25.52594	1.899854
8	4.192481	21.37050	47.99521	3.413169	25.17175	2.049367
9	4.200496	21.83440	47.52983	3.533936	24.95232	2.149510
10	4.204662	<b>22.07574</b>	47.26989	<b>3.617492</b>	24.95252 24.82484	2.149910
10	7.207002		T1.40707	5.01/772	<i>4</i> 7,04707	<i>2,212</i> 031
		Variance	e Decomposition	of GDP		
Period	S.E.	CA	INF	GDP	M3	GEXP
1	4.658793	1.670769	1.008672	97.32056	0.000000	0.000000
2	5.406211	4.018245	0.896263	92.79738	1.684512	0.603599
3	5.874709	6.469513	0.883381	89.20895	2.398414	1.039745
4	6.188190	8.206745	0.868417	87.05418	2.564945	1.305709
5	6.400610	9.226558	0.855080	85.86047	2.585487	1.472401
6	6.542392	9.772973	0.847131	85.22430	2.579135	1.576462
7	6.633366	10.05354	0.843188	84.89253	2.571599	1.639144
0	6.689084	10.19500	0.841381	84.72169	2.566622	1.675305
8					- · · ·	
8 9 10	6.721769 6.740261	10.26585 <b>10.30126</b>	0.840575 <b>0.840214</b>	84.63442 <b>84.59008</b>	2.563775 <b>2.562239</b>	1.695382 1.706200

 Table 7: Variance Decomposition of the SVAR model under monetary dominance

		Saudi Arabia							
Period	S.E.	CA	ariance Decomp/ INF	oosition of INF GDP	M3	GEXP			
1	8.629599	4.527641	95.47236	0.000000	0.000000	0.000000			
2	11.44185	12.57083	85.91446	0.386391	0.000367	1.127952			
3	12.92385	18.37836	80.03774	0.437751	0.089857	1.056285			
4	13.69716	22.01894	76.28737	0.488299	0.194613	1.010778			
5	14.08495	24.05242	74.12364	0.521538	0.290430	1.011974			
6	14.27208	25.11731	72.95220	0.541403	0.361574	1.027511			
7	14.35946	25.64976	72.34868	0.552150	0.407701	1.041701			
8	14.39917	25.90650	72.05020	0.557595	0.434727	1.050979			
9	14.41683	26.02663	71.90757	0.560223	0.449395	1.056190			
10	14.42456	26.08146	71.84133	0.561447	0.456899	1.058866			
		Variance	e Decomposition	of GDP					
	S.E.	CA	INF	GDP	M3	GEXP			
1	2.160672	12.96231	7.478853	79.55884	0.000000	0.000000			
2	2.477590	11.92699	6.860066	71.39013	5.284408	4.538397			
3	2.594764	11.86299	6.929043	70.35087	6.262045	4.595052			
4	2.660828	12.31262	6.971525	69.78601	6.369681	4.560166			
5	2.699489	12.79424	6.981649	69.35132	6.334502	4.538282			
6	2.721106	13.12749	6.977173	69.05624	6.309327	4.529767			
7	2.732515	13.31786	6.970725	68.88403	6.300351	4.527039			
8	2.738240	13.41576	6.966052	68.79344	6.298493	4.526259			
9	2.740998	13.46289	6.963334	68.74901	6.298698	4.526064			
10	2.742284	13.48462	6.961922	68.72825	6.299193	4.526024			

Table 8: Variance Decomposition of the SVAR model under fiscal dominance

			Morocco	)		
		Varia	nce Decompositi	on of INF		
Period	S.E.	CA	INF	GDP	GEXP	M3
1	2.367010	9.107050	90.89295	0.000000	0.000000	0.000000
2	2.931200	6.718310	77.99942	1.264912	3.010181	11.00718
3	3.200166	6.090062	73.65886	1.468186	4.942255	13.84064
4	3.338374	5.828368	71.06001	1.509251	6.208674	15.39370
5	3.411548	5.776287	70.01393	1.475199	6.877981	15.85660
6	3.450945	5.769757	69.33920	1.481961	7.259161	16.14992
7	3.472331	5.789035	69.03606	1.466667	7.457177	16.25106
8	3.484097	5.807959	68.84164	1.466136	7.565981	16.31828
9	3.490567	5.824878	68.74892	1.461362	7.622043	16.34280
10	3.494177	5.837100	68.69116	1.460572	7.652313	16.35886
		Variance	e Decomposition	of GDP		
Period	S.E.	CA	INF	GDP	GEXP	M3
1	1.913382	2.012847	1.525293	96.46186	0.000000	0.000000
2	2.577716	1.484094	2.658379	92.87614	0.415911	2.565472
3	2.871885	1.502315	2.435876	93.06341	0.381876	2.616519
4	3.054152	1.437250	2.645000	92.66417	0.418900	2.834676
5	3.137180	1.447542	2.598960	92.70447	0.412893	2.836135
6	3.186955	1.436541	2.650955	92.60920	0.420566	2.882737
7	3.209951	1.440219	2.641284	92.61871	0.419198	2.880593
8	3.223377	1.438324	2.655301	92.59338	0.421243	2.891755
9	3.229667	1.439443	2.653457	92.59533	0.420941	2.890827
10	3.233259	1.439132	2.657319	92.58843	0.421527	2.893588

	Egypt							
		Varia	nce Decompositi	on of INF				
Period	S.E.	CA	INF	GDP	GEXP	M3		
1	2.824527	11.56549	88.43451	0.000000	0.000000	0.000000		
2	3.465627	8.803559	72.46805	3.298480	2.169731	13.26018		
3	3.796307	9.114047	62.14548	4.976407	3.580907	20.18316		
4	3.980012	12.05313	56.67396	4.962711	4.347481	21.96271		
5	4.083225	15.09529	53.50213	4.685537	4.794485	21.92256		
6	4.140948	17.27898	51.54613	4.608095	5.071501	21.49530		
7	4.172911	18.62110	50.34065	4.679982	5.247238	21.11103		
8	4.190414	19.38670	49.61708	4.791694	5.357965	20.84656		
9	4.199900	19.80743	49.19544	4.888120	5.426109	20.68290		
10	4.204997	20.03418	48.95594	4.955898	5.466852	20.58713		
		Variance	e Decomposition	of GDP				
Period	S.E.	CA	INF	GDP	GEXP	M3		
1	4.633310	1.984044	0.691750	97.32421	0.000000	0.000000		
2	5.416026	4.394402	0.643076	92.77457	0.482660	1.705292		
3	5.871940	7.062879	0.690566	88.83256	0.890761	2.523234		
4	6.149449	9.064018	0.700739	86.35344	1.157960	2.723844		
5	6.329149	10.29449	0.694298	84.93496	1.330595	2.745655		
6	6.448171	10.98060	0.687283	84.15661	1.441035	2.734472		
7	6.524928	11.34657	0.682878	83.73820	1.509548	2.722801		
8	6.572333	11.53847	0.680501	83.51543	1.550469	2.715128		
9	6.600445	11.63860	0.679279	83.39739	1.574072	2.710657		
10	6.616583	11.69084	0.678659	83.33501	1.587312	2.708174		
			Saudi Arab					
	~		nce Decompositi					
Period	S.E.	CA	INF	GDP	GEXP	M3		
1	7.832494	2.411947	97.58805	0.000000	0.000000	0.000000		
2	10.94501	5.959882	85.32800	2.102517	5.223866	1.385736		
3	12.60432	7.898105	79.63728	5.824984	5.049431	1.590196		
4	13.42356	12.88967	71.83179	8.516843	5.159694	1.602008		
5	13.84873	15.86846	67.29025	9.938104	5.188518	1.714671		
6	14.07461	17.20715	64.66909	11.05637	5.393464	1.673939		
7	14.19901	17.74840	63.57267	11.51051	5.515337	1.653083		
8	14.25071	17.89106	63.12066	11.79777	5.551965	1.638546		
9	14.27044	17.93183	62.99403	11.89348	5.547084	1.633580		
10	14.27964	17.92669	62.97455	11.92481	5.540020	1.633928		
		Variance	e Decomposition	of GDP				
Period	S.E.	CA	INF	GDP	GEXP	M3		
1	2.125662	5.969581	7.999101	86.03132	0.000000	0.000000		
2	2.407707	7.268545	7.115048	75.76718	0.000140	9.849084		
3	2.564449	7.207705	6.370024	75.83356	1.634160	8.954547		
4	2.707312	7.928771	6.931286	73.79048	2.329595	9.019872		
5	2.798474	9.814116	6.752952	72.28404	2.347881	8.801015		
6	2.855200	10.23252	6.731400	71.84844	2.425204	8.762435		
7	2.880802	10.39805	6.715992	71.68242	2.459091	8.74446		
8	2.893676	10.47679	6.734037	71.58833	2.463784	8.737061		
9	2.898924	10.56328	6.750420	71.50115	2.460492	8.724658		
10	2.901280	10.60735	6.774696	71.44370	2.457610	8.716647		

## References

- Baumol, W. J. and Blinder, A. S. (1985). Economics: principles and policy. San Diego: Harcourt Brace Jovanovich.
- Bhaskara Rao, B. (2007). The nature of the ADAS model based on the ISLM model. Cambridge Journal of Economics, 31(3), 413-422.
- Blanchard, O. (2017). Macroeconomics. Harlow: Pearson.
- Christiano, L.J. and Fitzgerald, T. J. (2000). Understanding the fiscal theory of the price level. Economic Review, 36(2), 1-38.
- Coric, T., Simovic, H. and Deskar-Skrbic, M. (2015). Monetary and fiscal policy mix in a small open economy: the case of Croatia, Economic Research - Ekonomska Istraživanja, 28(1), 407-421.
- Darity, W. and young, W. (1995). IS-LM: an inquest. History of Political Economy, 27(1), 1-41.
- Dixon, H. and Gerrard, B. (2000). Old, new and post Keynesian perspectives on the IS-LM framework: a contrast and evaluation in W. Young and Z. Ben Zion (eds), IS-LM and Modern Macroeconomics, (PP 7-28). New York: Springer Science+Business Media.
- Dungey, M. and Fry, R. (2009). The identification of fiscal and monetary policy in a structural VAR, Economic Modelling, 26, 1147-1160.
- Fetai, B. (2013). Assessing monetary and fiscal policy interaction in a small open economy: the case Republic of Macedonia, Transition Studies Review, 20(1), 89-104.
- Fields, T. W. and Hart, W. R. (1996). The AD-AS model in introductory macroeconomics texts: theory gone awry in N. Aslanbeigui and M. I. Naples (eds), Rethinking Economic Principles, (PP 140-150). Homewood, Illinois: Richard D. Irwin.
- Fleming, J. M. (1962). Domestic financial policies under fixed and under flexible exchange rate regimes. IMF Staff Papers, 9(3), 369-379.
- Friedman, M. (1956). The quantity theory of money: a restatement in Studies in the Quantity Theory of Money, (PP 94-111). Chicago: University of Chicago Press.
- Hansen, A. H. (1949). Monetary theory and fiscal policy. New York: McGraw-Hill.
- Hansen, A. H. (1951). Classical, loanable funds, and Keynesian interest theories. Quarterly Journal of Economics, 65, 429-432.
- Hansen, A. H. (1953). A guide to Keynes. New York: McGraw-Hill.
- Harrod, R. F. (1937). Mr Keynes and traditional theory. Econometrica, 5, 74-86.

- Hicks, J. R. (1937). Mr. Keynes and the "classics": a suggested interpretation. Econometrica, 5(2), 147-159.
- Keynes, J. M. (1936). The general theory of employment, interest and money. London: Macmillan.
- Leeper, E. M. (1991). Equilibria under "active" and "passive" monetary and fiscal policies. Journal of monetary economics, 27(1), 129-147.
- McConnell, C. R., Brue, S. L. and Flynn, S. M. (2018). Macroeconomics. New York: McGraw-Hill Education.
- McTaggart, D., Findlay, C. and Parkin, M. (2003). Macroeconomics. Frenchs Forest: Pearson Education Australia.
- Meade, J. E. (1937). A simplified model of Mr Keynes' system. Review of Economic Studies, 4, 98-107.
- Mundell, R. A. (1960). The monetary dynamics of adjustment under fixed and flexible exchange rates. Quarterly Journal of Economics, 74(2), 227-257.
- Mundell, R. A. (1963). Capital mobility and stabilisation policy under fixed and flexible exchange rates. Canadian Journal of Economics and Political Science, 29(4), 475-485.
- Ravnik, R. and Zilic, I. (2011). The use of SVAR analysis in determining the effects of fiscal shocks in Croatia, Financial Theory and Practice, 35(1), 25-58.
- Sargent, T. J. and Wallace, N. (1981). Some unpleasant monetarist arithmetic. Federal Reserve Bank of Minneapolis, quarterly review, 5(3), 1-17.
- Sims, C. (1994). A simple model for study of the determination of the price level and the interaction of monetary and fiscal policy. Economic Theory, 4(3), 381-399.
- Stiglitz, J. E. (1993). Principles of macroeconomics. New York: W. W. Norton & Company.
- Tule, M. K., Onipede, S. F. and Ebuh, G. U. (2020). Monetary and fiscal policy mix in a small open economy: evidence from Nigeria, Scientific African, 8, 1-12.
- Vinayagathasan, T. (2013). Monetary policy and the real economy: a structural VAR approach for Sri Lanka. (GRIPS Discussion Paper 13-13). National Graduate Institute for policy Studies, Tokyo.
- Woodford, M. (1995). Price-level determinacy without control of a monetary aggregate. Carnegie-Rochester Conference Series on Public Policy, 43(3), 1-46.
- Woodford, M. (1996). Control of the public debt: a requirement for price stability? (NBER Working Paper No. 5684). National bureau of Economic Research.
- Woodford, M. (2001). Fiscal requirements for price stability. Journal of Money, Credit and Banking, 33(3), 669-728.