



# Global Macro Research

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#US

/ #Monetary policy /

#Inflation

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## Thinking through the Fed's "third mandate"

The Fed's 'third mandate' – promoting "moderate long-term interest rates" – is gaining attention, raising the risk of mandate creep toward fiscal dominance. We outline three phases: an initial dovish tilt, markets pricing higher inflation tolerance, and eventual yield-curve control with financial repression. The latter would mean subordination of monetary policy to fiscal needs, risking unanchored inflation expectations, dollar weakness, and asset-price dislocations.

### Key Takeaways

- Stephen Miran and other Trump administration officials have recently invoked the Fed's 'third mandate' of "moderate long-term interest rates."
- A modest shift in the Fed's reaction function toward lower rates doesn't imply fiscal dominance, but mandate creep could evolve into a regime break.
- We identify three phases of fiscal dominance. In phase one, policy rates are cut more than they otherwise would be, boosting growth and risk assets. In phase two, markets question inflation tolerance, pushing expectations and term premia higher. But this rise in long-term yields undermines cheaper funding. In phase three, a politicised Fed does explicit yield-curve control (YCC) and financial repression to cap long-end yields.
- US YCC would be far more disruptive than the Fed's QE or Japan's YCC, which were deployed for monetary, not fiscal, objectives.
- A better historical analogy is the Fed's use of yield caps during and after WWII, which kept rates low but saw inflation peak near 20%, before the 1951 Treasury-Fed Accord restored independence.
- While fiscal dominance remains a low probability, the risk has risen – which could keep the dollar under pressure and gold supported as markets gauge how far a Trump-era Fed might go.

### Discussion of the "third mandate" is becoming more frequent

Section 2A of the Federal Reserve Act lays out the objectives of monetary policy as being:

*"...to promote effectively the goals of maximum employment, stable prices, and moderate long-term interest rates."*

The long-standing convention has been to think that targeting the first two objectives (the dual mandate of maximum employment and stable prices) creates the conditions for long-term rates to settle at moderate levels. So, the Fed has not foregrounded the "moderate long-term interest rates" part of the Act.

However, as we pointed out back in July, talk about the so-called "third mandate" has recently increased.

In his congressional testimony to be appointed to the FOMC, Governor Stephan Miran unusually underlined the importance of the Fed's mandated goal of moderate long-term interest rates, alongside the more familiar dual mandate goals. And Treasury Secretary Scott Bessent has also been pointedly highlighting moderate long-term interest rates as part of the Fed's mandated goals.

More broadly, President Donald Trump's pressurising of the Fed has been couched in fiscal terms, emphasising the need to reduce the cost of servicing US government debt (see Figures 1 and 2).

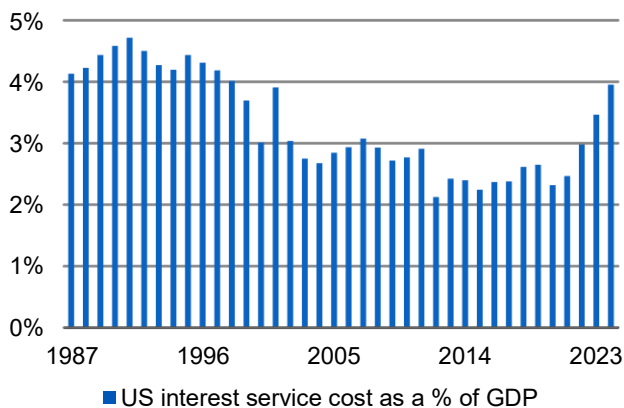


**Figure 1: US long-term interest rates have been rising...**



Source: Aberdeen, Haver, October 2025

**Figure 2: ...which, alongside a higher debt load, means debt servicing costs are at multi-decade highs**



Source: Aberdeen, Haver, October 2025

### The Fed will become more focused on long-term interest rates

In principle, emphasising moderate long-term interest rates as a distinct third mandate does not necessarily entail a regime shift in how monetary policy is conducted. It simply adds another objective to the Fed's trade-off space, shifting its reaction function in response to shocks.

All else equal, this would deliver lower interest rates on average, but it would not imply that low rates are pursued *regardless* of other considerations.

For example, beyond simply setting the fed funds rate slightly lower than it would otherwise be, the Fed may manage the average duration of its bond holdings to make it somewhat longer (potentially putting downward pressure on long-term yields), or use "open mouth operations" (i.e. forward guidance and other communication with the market) to opine on bond market functioning or influence pricing.

All this could be in the context of closer cooperation with the Treasury, as the latter skews bond issuance to the shorter end of curves where demand has been stronger (including

from stablecoin providers) or builds treasury purchases into trade deals.

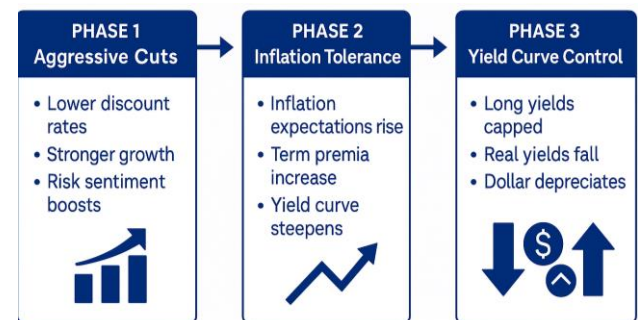
This is distinct from fiscal dominance, which represents a fundamental regime shift, in which the overriding objective becomes ensuring more favourable financing conditions for the fiscal authority.

But, in practice, a shift in how the mandate is construed, or even just an implicit tilt in policymakers' reaction functions to favour lower rates at the margin, can easily become a regime shift as fiscal concerns grow more pressing. Indeed, the interaction of monetary policy with financial markets may accelerate this process, blurring the line between mandate creep and fiscal dominance.

### Three stages to US fiscal dominance

One way to think about this process is through three phases of fiscal dominance (see Figure 3).

**Figure 3: Three phases towards fiscal dominance**



Source: Aberdeen, October 2025

In the first phase, policy rates are cut more than implied by standard monetary rules. The justification could be couched in normal monetary policy language about  $r^*$  and the balance of risks, or could involve a more explicit preference for lower rates for their own sake. Either way, the effect is stimulative, with lower rates and stronger nominal growth boosting risk sentiment.

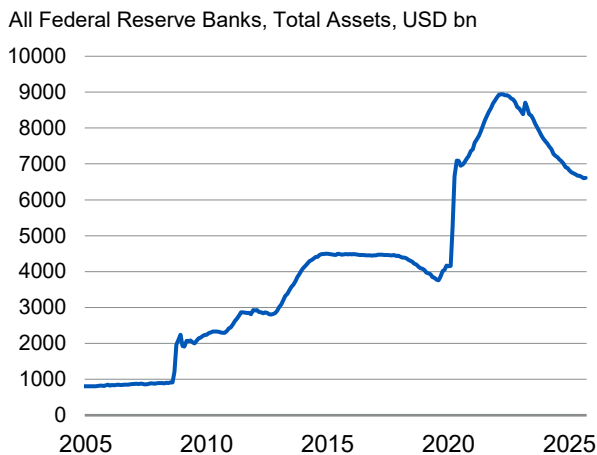
In the second phase, markets increasingly notice the willingness of the Fed to tolerate higher inflation. Inflation expectations move higher, with long-term yields rising and investors demanding more term premia. The yield-curve steepens, and market volatility increases. Crucially, and ironically, Treasury's average cost of borrowing rises. This is consistent with our bond market rout risk scenario.

In the third phase, monetary policy is explicitly used to contain long-term bond yields, as the fiscal requirements of lower funding costs dominate. This may involve targeted asset purchases and eventually yield-curve control, combined with regulatory policy and other forms of financial repression to absorb Treasuries. Long-end nominal yields would fall, and real yields would collapse, as inflation expectations ratcheted higher still. The dollar would fall sharply, and gold and related assets would perform very well, while equities would likely weaken.

## Distinguishing fiscal dominance from quantitative easing

Of course, the Fed has conducted large scale purchases of Treasuries previously, through the various rounds of QE initiated since 2008. These operations caused the Fed's balance sheet to increase (see Figure 4) and had the explicit objective of lowering long-term interest rates.

**Figure 4: The Fed's balance sheet grew significantly after the GFC and pandemic**



Source: Haver, Aberdeen, October 2025

Teasing out the exact market impacts of QE is notoriously difficult. But broadly speaking, QE probably did put downward pressure on long-term yields and the dollar and upward pressure on inflation expectations. But, quite conspicuously, it did not cause a loss of inflation credibility, and was (in)famously supportive of risk sentiment.

So, the question might be: why should asset purchases under the third phase of our fiscal dominance typology not be more like this experience of QE?

The answer is that the response of financial markets to a large extent turns on *why* the policy instrument is being used.

QE was *monetary policy* aimed at stimulating an economy in which interest rates had fallen to the lower bound, but which still had a large output gap. Asset purchases helped towards the inflation (and labour market) mandates by stopping inflation falling further still. QE was done to achieve the dual mandate, not in spite of it.

However, asset purchases conducted for *fiscal policy* reasons mean that monetary policy would likely be inappropriate given inflation and unemployment.

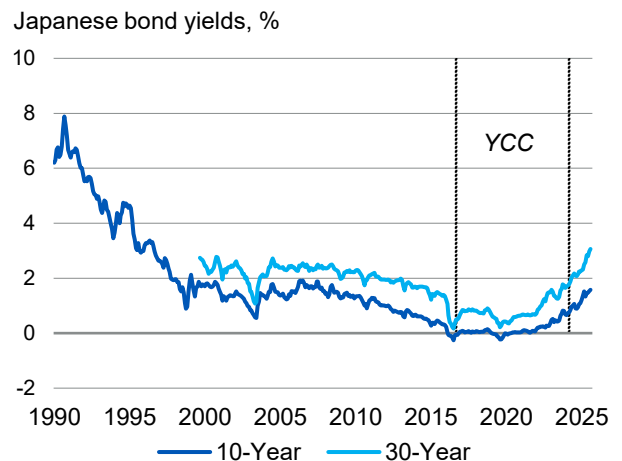
As financial markets understand this distinction, inflation expectations would move higher. And as real rates fall in response to higher inflation expectations, this could feed back into still higher inflation. In fact, inflation expectations could eventually increase without bound, with negative consequences for the real return of risk assets.

## Comparisons with Japanese YCC

In stage three of fiscal dominance, the level of longer-term yields could be explicitly pinned down by the Fed, and then the balance sheet allowed to expand to whatever size is necessary to maintain the peg.

Investors have recent experience of yield-curve control, with the Bank of Japan (BoJ) pegging 10-year yields at 0% from September 2016, before abandoning the policy in March 2024 after various tweaks (see Figure 5).

**Figure 5: Japanese yield-curve control**



Source: Aberdeen, Haver, October 2025

This policy saw the yen depreciate significantly, with USD/JPY falling 18% over the initial three months, and it put some upward pressure on inflation expectations. But expectations did not become unanchored, and the policy was broadly supportive of Japanese risk assets.

In contrast to the hypothetical US scenario of YCC, Japan had experienced two decades of very low inflation by the time the policy was announced. Yield-curve control was the next step in a series of policies to reflate the economy.

So, while Japan certainly has a huge debt load, investors understood the reason for the policy was monetary in nature (i.e. to boost inflation back to target) and not fiscal (i.e. to keep government funding costs artificially low).

Nonetheless, Japanese yield-curve control did cause notable distortions in the JGB market, such as reduced liquidity and price discovery. And the BoJ's ability to maintain the peg came under increasing market pressure and required ever larger interventions (bloating the size of the balance sheet), especially as global bond yields increased after the pandemic.

In the case of the Fed, these distortions and pressures would likely be even greater, given the vital role played by Treasuries in the global financial system.

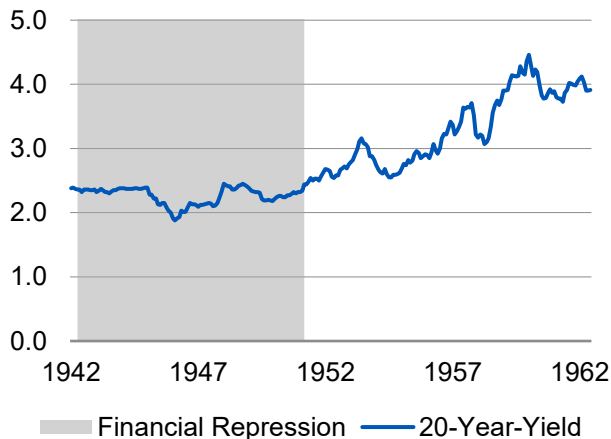


## The experience of US financial repression after WW2

The most useful historical analogy to how Fed yield-curve control under the auspices of an explicit fiscal objective may go is the Fed's own experience during and after WWII.

From April 1942 until March 1951, the Fed was committed to supporting US government borrowing by keeping short-term bills at 0.375% and 25-year bond yields capped below 2.5% (see Figure 6).

**Figure 6: The Fed capped US bond yields during and after WWII**



Source: Aberdeen, Federal Reserve, October 2025 \*20-year yield plotted for data availability reasons

The rationale for this policy during a period of total war is obvious. But after the war ended, the Treasury continued to insist the policy was kept in place to keep debt servicing easier.

While the post-war peak in inflation near 20% was driven by the release of pent-up demand amid demobilisation, the subordination of monetary policy to fiscal concerns (including as government spending rose in response to the Korean War) prevented the Fed from responding to this price shock (see Figure 7)

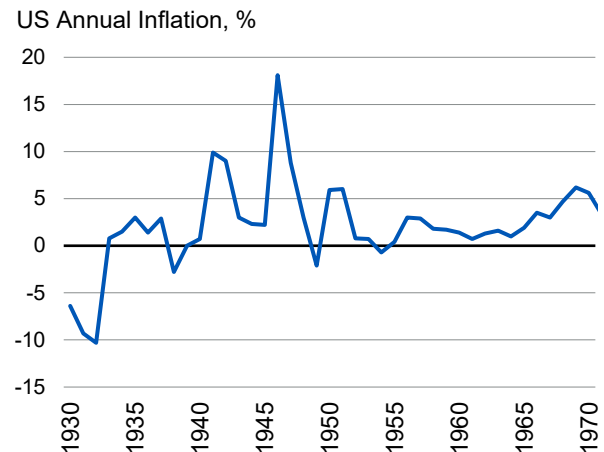
In 1951, the Fed was able to re-establish monetary independence through the Treasury-Fed accord, which allowed the Fed to drop the yield targets and set monetary policy in accordance with non-fiscal goals.

While the inflationary consequences of YCC would be less immediate and dramatic today, given the economy doesn't face the same supply shortages and demobilisation pressures as prevailed post-war, the financial market disruption could be bigger.

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**Figure 7: US inflation surged post WWII, and a regime of fiscal dominance prevented the Fed responding**



Source: Aberdeen, Haver, October 2025

Post-war global financial markets were much smaller and faced significantly more constraints, including capital controls as part of the Bretton Woods system.

The economy is much more financialised today, and financial markets much more globalised. It is much easier for domestic and foreign capital to move abroad, putting more pressure on the dollar. Meanwhile the impact of moves in asset prices on the economy is likely to be larger.

## A low-probability but high-impact risk scenario

All told, we think the realisation of a full fiscal dominance scenario – i.e. the third phase of our typology – remains a low probability, but high impact, risk.

It has a low probability because it would be very unorthodox (although that has not stopped other policy measures occurring under a Trump presidency!); it is contrary to some of Miran's and Bessent's previously stated views on the conduct of monetary policy and management of the Fed's balance sheet; and it is potentially self-defeating because it could be inflationary, with big negative risk asset implications, and hard to credibly maintain.

However, it has a high impact because such a scenario would represent a radical change to how prices are set for the bedrock assets of the financial system. Lower US bond yields, flatter curves, and dramatically lower real yields as inflation expectations moved higher, would in turn impact asset prices, currency crosses, and savings and investment decisions throughout the global financial system and economy.



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