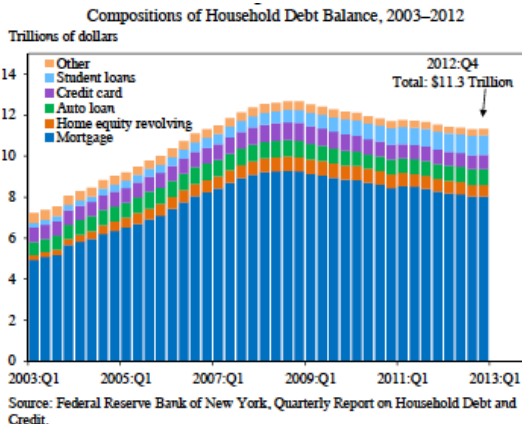


Liquidity Trap and Excessive Leverage

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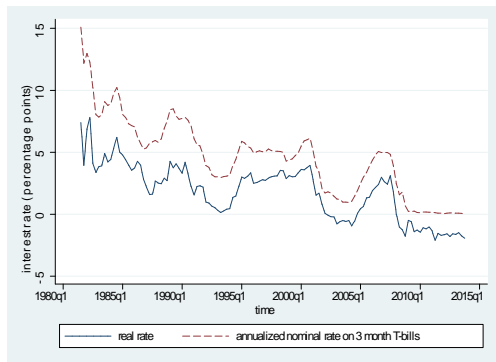
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Deleveraging played important role in recession



- Micro evidence: Deleveraging explains much of job losses (Mian-Sufi).

One view: Low rates and the liquidity trap



- Formalized by: Eggertsson-Krugman, Hall, Guerrieri-Lorenzoni...
- Stimulated policy analysis. Ex-post focus. Ignored debt market.

This paper: Ex-ante/macprudential policies.

Main results: Excessive leverage and underinsurance

Model of **deleveraging and liquidity trap**:

- **Deleveraging shifts wealth** from borrowers (high MPC) to lenders (low MPC) → lower aggregate demand
- May push economy into **liquidity trap**

Main results:

- Competitive equilibrium is **constrained inefficient**:
Excessive leverage and underinsurance.
- Pareto improvement by **macroprudential policies** targeted towards reducing leverage, e.g., **debt limits** and **mandatory insurance.**

Source of inefficiency:

- Aggregate demand externalities
= **novel motive for macroprudential regulation**
- should become part of the **standard toolkit of macro stabilization** policy, in addition to monetary and fiscal policy
- particularly important if countries lose independent monetary policy (and if fiscal policy is constrained)

→ see also “Macprudential Policy Beyond Banking Regulation”
(with Olivier Jeanne, BdF Financial Stability Review)

Interest rate policy is not the ideal tool to reduce leverage

- Common argument: Raising r can curb leverage.
- Under reasonable conditions: **Higher r may actually raise leverage!**
→ Conventional wisdom dominated by general equilibrium effects.
- Even when conventional wisdom dominates, raising r is inefficient
- Problem is **misallocation of wealth between borrowers-lenders.**
- **Macroprudential policies** target this. Interest rate policy does not.

Deleveraging and the liquidity trap: Eggertsson-Krugman...

- We focus on debt market policies and ex-ante policies.

Aggregate demand externalities:

- Older literature, e.g., Blanchard-Kiyotaki (1987). Different context.
- More recent work by Schmitt-Grohe-Urbe and Farhi-Werning
- We focus on AD externalities in a liquidity trap

Excessive leverage: Optimism, moral hazard, fire-sale externalities.

- New mechanism. Complementary, but important differences.

Environment with anticipated borrowing constraints

- Single good (dollar) and dates $t \in \{0, 1, \dots\}$.
- Households $h \in \{b, l\}$, with equal mass normalized to 1/2.
- Types identical except $\beta^b \leq \beta^l$ and $d_0 \equiv d_0^b = -d_0^l \geq 0$.
- **First ingredient: Future borrowing constraints:**
 - For each $t \geq 1$, agents face borrowing constraint $d_{t+1}^h \leq \phi$, which may force them to delever
 - This is fully **anticipated** in baseline setup.
- Let r_{t+1} denote the real interest rate between t and $t + 1$.

Main ingredient: Lower bound on the interest rate

- Key ingredient is **the lower bound on the real interest rate**:

$$r_{t+1} \geq \underline{r} \text{ for each } t \geq 1.$$

- In practice, the lower bound emerges from two features:

- 1 **Zero lower bound on the nominal interest rate:**

$$i_{t+1} \geq 0 \text{ for each } t \geq 0.$$

- 2 **Sticky inflation expectations:**

$$E_t [P_{t+1}/P_t] = 1 + \zeta \text{ for each } t \geq 1.$$

- The combination gives the bound on the real rate with $\underline{r} \simeq -\zeta$.

Demand side: Household optimization

- Baseline preferences $u(\tilde{c}_t^h - v(n_t^h))$ – generalized in appendix.
- Define $c_t^h = \tilde{c}_t^h - v(n_t^h)$ as net consumption. Households solve:

$$\max_{\{c_t^h, d_{t+1}^h, n_t^h\}_t} \sum_{t=0}^{\infty} (\beta^h)^t u(c_t^h)$$

$$\text{s.t. } c_t^h = e_t^h - d_t^h + \frac{d_{t+1}^h}{1 + r_{t+1}} \text{ for all } t,$$

where $e_t^h = w_t n_t^h + \Pi_t - v(n_t^h)$ denotes net income,

and $d_{t+1}^h \leq \phi$ for each $t \geq 1$.

- Technology: 1 unit of labor to 1 unit of consumption good.
- Efficient level of output maximizes net income:

$$e^* = \max_{n_t} n_t - v(n_t).$$

- If $r_{t+1} \geq \underline{r}$ binding, price of current consumption too high.
→ Insufficient demand.

Supply side: Rationing when interest rate is too high

- Final good firms solve:

$$\Pi_t = \max_{n_t} n_t - w_t n_t \quad \text{s.t.} \quad \begin{cases} 0 \leq n_t, & \text{if } r_{t+1} > \underline{r} \\ 0 \leq n_t \leq \frac{\tilde{c}_t^b + \tilde{c}_t^l}{2}, & \text{if } r_{t+1} = \underline{r} \end{cases}.$$

- If $r_{t+1} > \underline{r}$, firms optimize as usual.
- If $r_{t+1} = \underline{r}$, firms are subject to additional **rationing constraint**. (For simplicity, we normalize $\underline{r} = 0$.)
- Rationing equilibrium as in Barro-Grossman, Malinvaud, Benassy.
- NK model: Similar rationing from sticky (monopolistic) prices.

Equilibrium after deleveraging is complete

- Dates $t \geq 2$: Steady state with $1 + r_{t+1} = 1/\beta^l$.
- Output is at its efficient level: $e_t = e^*$.
- Agents' consumption is given by:

$$c_2^l = e^* + \phi(1 - \beta^l) \quad \text{and} \quad c_2^b = e^* - \phi(1 - \beta^l).$$

- Next consider date 1, the date at which deleveraging happens...

Equilibrium during the deleveraging episode

Borrowers' (constrained) consumption: $c_1^b = e_1 - \left(d_1 - \frac{\phi}{1+r_2} \right)$.

Lenders' (unconstrained) consumption: $c_1^l = e_1 + \left(d_1 - \frac{\phi}{1+r_2} \right)$.

- Deleveraging mediated by reduction in real rates (Euler):

$$u'(c_1^l) = \beta^l (1 + r_2) u'(e^* + \phi(1 - \beta^l)).$$

- Constraint $r_2 \geq 0$, implies **upper bound on lender consumption**:

$$c_1^l \leq \bar{c}_1^l \text{ where } u'(\bar{c}_1^l) = \beta^l u'(e^* + \phi(1 - \beta^l)).$$

Equilibrium during the deleveraging episode

Equilibrium depends on:

$$\underbrace{d_1 - \phi}_{\text{leverage adjustment at 0 rate}} \leq \underbrace{\bar{c}_1^l - e^*}_{\text{unconstrained agents' buffer at 0 rate}},$$

- If adjustment is sufficiently small, then $r_2 > 0$ and $e_1 = e^*$.
- Otherwise, if leverage adjustment is sufficiently high:

$$d_1 \geq \bar{d}_1 = \phi + \bar{c}_1^l - e^*,$$

then $r_2 = 0$ and we are in the constrained/rationing regime...

- Net income is then determined by aggregate demand:

$$e_1 = \frac{c_1^b + c_1^l}{2}$$

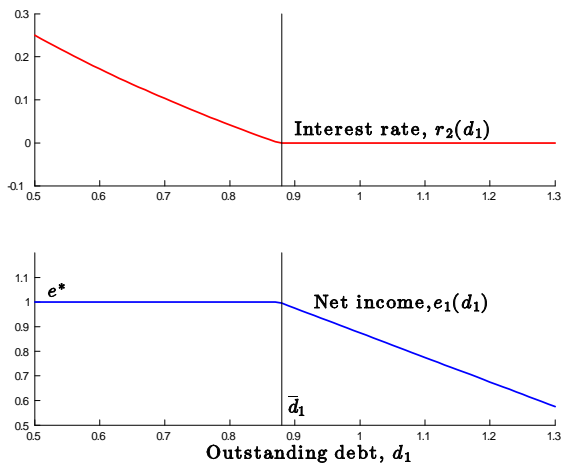
- Agents' consumption are $c_1^b = e_1 - (d_1 - \phi)$ and $c_1^l = \bar{c}_1^l$, and thus:

$$e_1 = \frac{e_1 - (d_1 - \phi) + \bar{c}_1^l}{2}.$$

- This is a Keynesian cross with associated Keynesian multiplier.
- Solving it, we obtain the equilibrium net income:

$$e_1 = \bar{c}_1^l + \phi - d_1.$$

Graphical illustration of equilibrium



Borrowing in the decentralized equilibrium

- Date 0 equilibrium determined by Euler equations:

$$1 + r_1 = \frac{u'(c_0^l)}{\beta^l u'(c_1^l)} = \frac{u'(c_0^b)}{\beta^b u'(c_1^b)}.$$

- Anticipated recession if $d_1 > \bar{d}_1$.
- Is this efficient? We turn to welfare analysis...

Pecuniary externalities hurt some agents, benefit others

- Define agents' date 1 welfare as a function of debt:

$$V^b \left(\underbrace{d_1}_{\text{own}}, \underbrace{D_1}_{\text{aggregate}} \right) = u \left(e_1(D_1) - d_1 + \frac{\phi}{1 + r_2(D_1)} \right) + \text{continuation.}$$

- If $D_1 < \bar{d}_1$, then $r_2 > \underline{r}$ and pecuniary externalities in r_2 apply:

$$\frac{\partial V^h}{\partial D_1} = \begin{cases} -\eta u'(c_1^h) < 0, & \text{if } h = l \\ \eta u'(c_1^h) > 0, & \text{if } h = b \end{cases} \quad \text{where } \eta \in (0, 1).$$

- Externalities net out. Equilibrium is constrained efficient in this range.

Aggregate demand externalities hurt all agents

- If $D_1 > \bar{d}_1$, then **aggregate demand externalities** imply $e_1 < e^*$:

$$\frac{\partial V^h}{\partial D_1} = \frac{\partial e_1}{\partial D_1} u' (c_1^h) = -u' (c_1^h) < 0, \text{ for each } h \in \{b, l\}.$$

- Unlike price externalities, **AD externalities negative for all agents**.
- Analyze a planner who can impose a debt limit coupled with a date 0 transfer to trace the Pareto frontier.

Proposition

Any equilibrium with $D_1 > \bar{d}$ is constrained inefficient.

If limit is binding, constrained efficiency requires

$$\frac{\beta^l u' (c_1^l)}{u' (c_0^l)} > \frac{\beta^b u' (c_1^b)}{u' (c_0^b)}.$$

Interesting but extreme result: Ex-post inefficiency

- We can obtain even **ex-post Pareto improvement** by writing down all borrowers' debt to \bar{d}_1 , so that $D_1 = \bar{d}_1$.
 - Borrowers are clearly better off.
 - Lenders are indifferent since they continue to consume \bar{c}_1^l (lower D_1 increases incomes and offsets lenders' losses)
- Ex-post inefficiency is interesting, but requires specific circumstances (unlike ex-ante inefficiency)

Consider version with uncertainty

Uncertainty: Permanent states $s \in \{H, L\}$ starting date 1 with:

- $d_{t+1,L} \leq \phi$ for each $t \geq 1$
- $d_{t+1,H}$ unconstrained for each $t \geq 1$.
- Probability of each state $\{\pi_s^h\}$, with $\pi_L^h > 0$ for each h .

Complete one-period markets at date 0:

- AD securities with $q_{1,L}$ and $q_{1,H}$. Let $1 + r_1 = 1 / (q_{1,L} + q_{1,H})$.
- Agents choose outstanding debt/assets: $\{d_{1,L}^h, d_{1,H}^h\}_h$.

Proposition

Decentralized allocations with $D_{1,L} > \bar{d}_1$ are constrained inefficient.

→ Case for mandatory insurance (Shiller...)

Preventive monetary policies

- 1 Higher inflation target (Blanchard et al., 2010)
 - Relaxes the ZLB constraint: $r_{t+1} \geq \underline{r}$
 - Effective tool to mitigate AD externalities.
- 2 Contractionary interest rate policy \underline{r}_1 : three effects:
 - **Substitution effect:** Higher \underline{r}_1 reduces d_1^b but raises d_1^l .
 - **Income (recession) effect:** e_0 falls: increases d_1^b , lowers d_1^l .
 - **Redistribution:** Higher \underline{r}_1 transfers wealth from b to l , raising d_1^b .

For CRRA preferences, the latter dominates: $d_1^l(\underline{r}_1) > 0$.

→ higher interest rate may actually increase leverage!

→ monetary policy targets **wrong wedge** (between date 0 and 1)

→ macroprudential **wedge** (between b and l) is required
[conventional wisdom focuses only on substitution effect]

Extension with asset fire sales

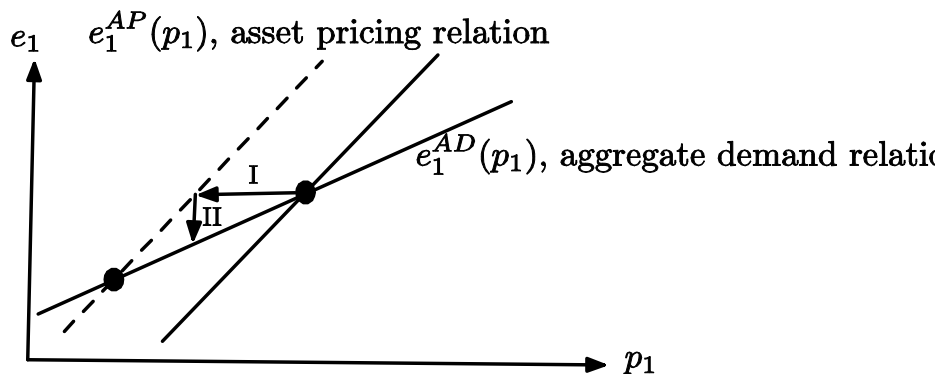
- Borrowers have $a_t = 1$ units of tree that gives dividends.
- Borrowing limit depends on the value of the tree:

$$d_{t+1}/(1 + r_{t+1}) \leq \phi_{t+1} a_{t+1} p_t,$$

where ϕ_{t+1} is the fraction of the tree that can be collateralized.

- Similar to before, suppose $\phi_1 = 1$ and $\phi_{t+1} = \phi < 1$ for each $t \geq 1$.
- Equilibrium at $t = 1$ characterized by two equations in e_1 and p_1 ...

Fire sales reinforce the drop in AD and output



Channel I: Price reductions/fire sales

Channel II: Demand reductions/deleveraging

- The externalities from debt in this case can be written as:

$$\frac{\partial V^l}{\partial D_1} = u'(c_1^l) \frac{de_1}{dD_1},$$

$$\frac{\partial V^b}{\partial D_1} = u'(c_1^b) \frac{de_1}{dD_1} + \phi \frac{dp_1}{dD_1} \left[u'(c_1^b) - \beta u'(c_2^b) \right].$$

- As before, negative AD externalities on all agents.
- In addition, negative fire-sale externalities on borrowers.
- Fire-sale and AD externalities are highly complementary.

Conclusion: Liquidity trap and excessive leverage

Model of a liquidity trap driven by deleveraging:

- Excessive leverage and underinsurance.
- Source: Aggregate demand externalities.

New rationale for macroprudential policies that regulate leverage.