

Unconventional Credit Policy in an Economy with Supply and Demand Credit Frictions

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2 Model

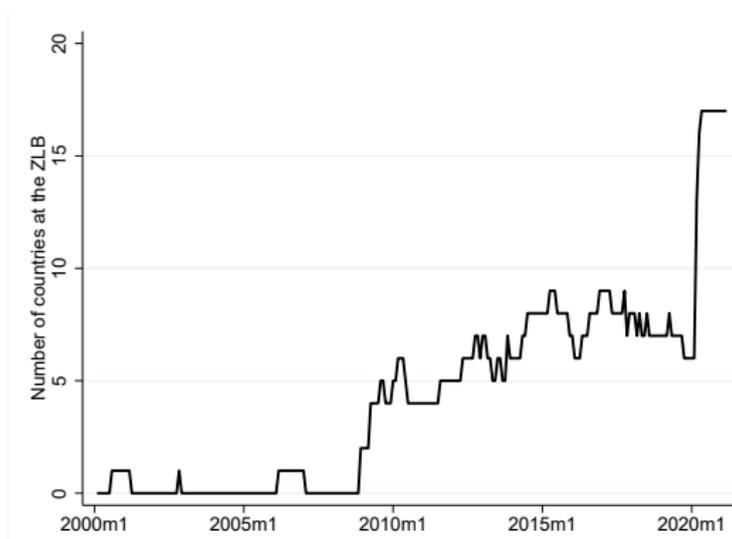
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Motivation

- The Covid-19 global shock has confronted policy makers with the limits of standard policy tools to stimulate economy
- Around 41 countries adopted unconventional credit policies (UCP) to reduce the cost of external finance.
- UCP: central bank (CB) liquidity injection to banks provided they commit to issue government guaranteed loans to firms.



Note: Source: IMF, BIS. Own computations. Monthly data: 2000m1-2021m3. Indeed, this is the number of countries whose monetary policy rate becomes equal or lower than 0.25%.

Research Question:

- What are the implications of unconventional credit policies? What are the mechanisms at work?
 - ▶ What are the role of government guarantees?
- Unconventional Credit Policy: **government guaranteed** loans to firms. Two forms: issued directly or indirectly by the Central Bank. Here: We focus on loans issued indirectly.

Methodology:

- Develop a DGSE: Sticky prices + demand side credit frictions (a la Bernanke, Gertler and Gilchrist, 1999) & credit supply frictions (a la Gertler and Karadi, 2011) + UCP.

Main Results

- Credit supply frictions allows us to mimic a more realistic dynamic of credit after a monetary policy shock.
- Credit demand frictions, on the other hand, are required to better understand the various mechanisms underlying the implementation of unconventional credit policies.
- UCP effects:
 - ① It reduces bank required equity per unit of credit (bank + CB)
⇒ Higher credit supply and investment
 - ② CB loans are government guaranteed
⇒ Zero credit spread: reduces the funding costs of entrepreneurs & higher credit demand
- In normal times, the first effect is more important, while in high-uncertainty periods, the third effect also becomes very important.
- When traditional bank loans have higher seniority, the impact of the credit policy stronger.
- Announcing the policy does not lead to significant benefits when the credit spread is small.

The Model

- Households:
 - ▶ Consume and save via deposits.
- Banks:
 - ▶ Intermediate borrowing and lending and screen entrepreneur's projects.
 - ▶ Credit supply frictions: Moral hazard problem between depositors and banks.
- Entrepreneurs:
 - ▶ Demand bank loans and purchase capital to produce wholesale goods.
 - ▶ Credit demand frictions: Costly State Verification problem.
- Retailers:
 - ▶ Differentiate these goods and sell them. Face price rigidities.
- Government:
 - ▶ Provides the guarantees for the loans funded by Central Bank liquidity.
- Central Bank (CB):
 - ▶ Inject liquidity to banks and set the policy rate with a Taylor rule.

Entrepreneurs: Credit demand frictions (BGG 1999) (I)

- Ex-ante identical entrepreneurs
- Balance sheet: $Q_t K_t = N_{et} + B_t$.
 - ▶ K_t : capital, N_{et} : Equity, B_t : Credit. Q_t : Capital price
- Payoff: $\omega R_{t+1}^k K_{t+1}$ and obligations $Z_{t+1} B_t$. Some entrepreneurs default others do not.
 - ▶ ω : idiosyncratic shock
 - ▶ R_{t+1}^k Aggregate capital return (it contains the aggregate shock)
 - ▶ Z_{t+1} : non-default lending rate.
- Asymmetric information problem between banks and entrepreneurs.
 - ▶ ω is not observed by banks.
 - ▶ Banks pay a monitoring cost of μ (of payoff) to observe ω .
- Banks can perfectly diversify the idiosyncratic shock and require R_{t+1}^l for their loans.
- The non-default lending rate, Z_{t+1} , is going to be higher than R_{t+1}^l .
- Loan contract: The non-default lending rate, Z_{t+1} , responds to aggregate shock, R_{t+1}^k , such that banks always obtain the required return, R_{t+1}^l .

Entrepreneurs (II)

- Entrepreneurs aim to maximize:

$$\mathbb{E}_t \left\{ \left[1 - \mu \int_0^{\bar{\omega}} \omega dF(\omega) \right] R_{t+1}^k Q_t K_t - R_{t+1}^l B_t \right\}.$$

where $\mu \int_0^{\bar{\omega}} \omega dF(\omega) R_{t+1}^k Q_t K_t^j$ are the total monitoring costs. F is the *cdf* of ω . $F(\bar{\omega})$ is the failure probability of entrepreneurs.

- We obtain the **credit demand curve** of entrepreneurs.
- The monitoring costs reduces the effective return of entrepreneurs' investments.
- The failure probability increases expected monitoring costs, which *ceteris paribus* reduces entrepreneurs' incentives to invest and demand bank loans.

Banks: Credit supply frictions (GKa 2011) (I)

- Balance sheet:

$$B_t = N_{bt} + D_t$$

where B_t : credit; N_{bt} : equity; D_t : deposits.

- There is a moral hazard problem between banks and depositors (households).
- Bankers can divert a fraction λ of bank assets.

- Banks operate if:

$$V_t \geq \lambda B_t.$$

where V_t is charter value of the bank.

- We calibrate the model so this always bind.
- → This limits bank ability to capture deposits and hence to lend.

Banks (II)

- Bank lending capacity depends on the size of bank equity, N_{bt} , i.e.,

$$\frac{B_t}{N_{bt}} = \frac{\eta_t}{\lambda - v_t},$$

where $\eta_t = f(R_{t+1}^l/R_t)$, $f' > 0$ depends positively on the credit spread and R_t is the risk-free interest rate.

- This is the **credit supply curve** of banks.
- The model is flexible regarding R_{t+1}^l . Two alternative assumptions.
- R_{t+1}^l is **not** state-contingent to the aggregate shock, R_{t+1}^k : BGG 1999
 - ▶ Banks do not absorb aggregate risk.
- R_{t+1}^l is state-contingent:
 - ▶ For example: $R_{t+1}^l = \xi_t R_{t+1}^k$. Aggregate risk is also absorbed by banks.

Other Ingredients of the model

- The problem of capital producer is as GKQ 2012 and GK_i 2011. The retailer problem is as in BGG 1999 and GK_a 2011.

- Taylor rule: $i_t = \rho_i i_{t-1} + (1 - \rho_i)[i_{ss} + \kappa_\pi \pi_t + \kappa_y (y_t - y_t^n)] + \varepsilon_{i,t}$

- Households preferences:

$$U_t(C_t, C_{t-1}, H_t) = \ln(C_t - hC_{t-1}) - \chi / (1 + \varphi) H_t^{1+\varphi}.$$

- Like in BGG 1999, entrepreneurs offer labor (H^e). Production function is:

$$Y_t = A_t (\psi_t K_{t-1})^\alpha (L_t)^{1-\alpha}, \quad L_t = (H_t)^\Omega (H_t^e)^{1-\Omega}$$

- ψ_t : is the capital quality shock (destruction capital)

- Capital dynamics: $K_t = I_t + (1 - \delta)\psi_t K_{t-1}$.

- Capital return: $R_{t+1}^k = ((1/X_{t+1})(\alpha Y_{t+1}/K_t) + \psi_{t+1}(1 - \delta)Q_{t+1})/Q_t$.

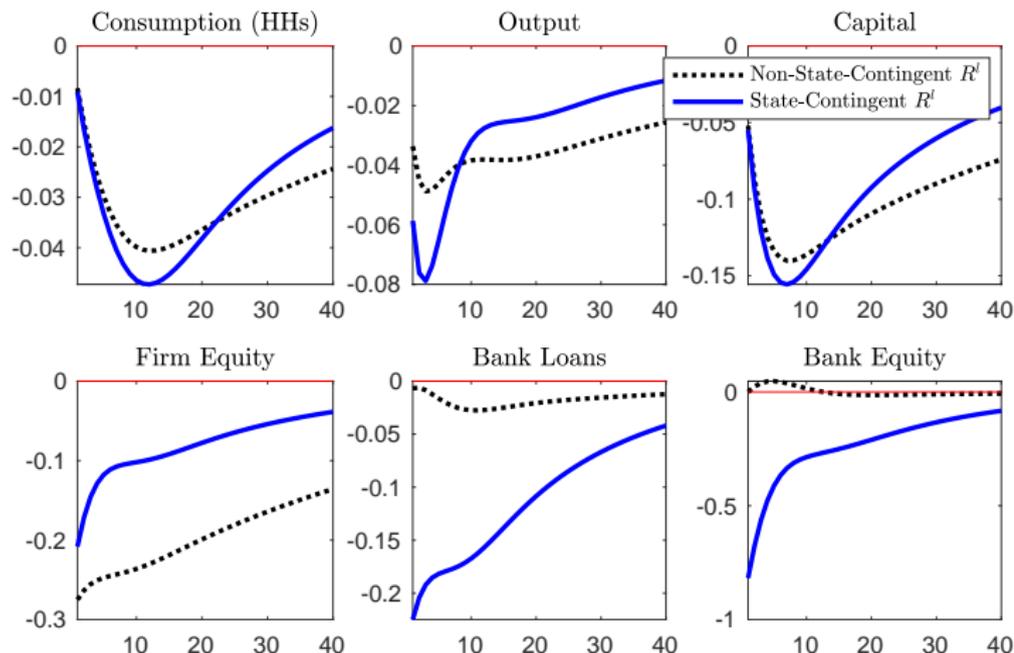
- Parametrization and steady state:

- ▶ Values taken from BGG 1999, GK_a 2011 and GK_i 2011. $\lambda = 0.363$. $\Omega = 0.984$. Taylor rule: $\rho_i = 0.8$, $\kappa_\pi = 1.5$, $\kappa_y = 0.125$,
- ▶ Entrepreneurs leverage: 2, (annual) Entrepreneurs' failure probability. 3%, Banks leverage = 4, (annual) $R^k - R^l = 1\%$, $R^l - R = 1\%$.

- Simulation: negative 5% capital quality shock ($\rho_\psi = 0.66$).

Who absorbs the risk matters?

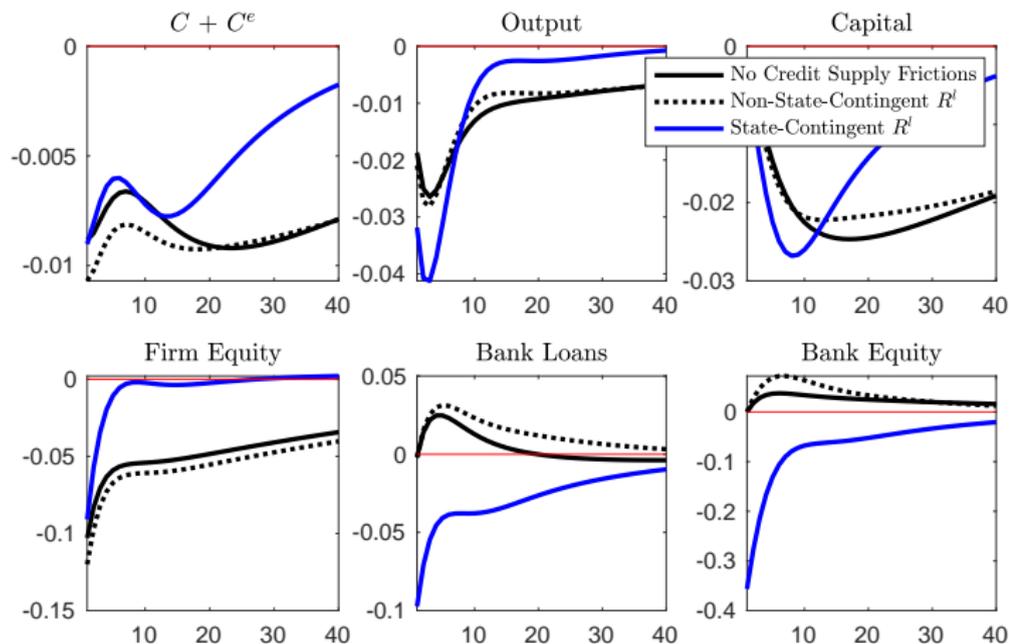
- When bank absorb aggregate risk, fluctuations are larger.



Log deviations from steady-state.

Puzzle: Bank credit increases after a contractionary monetary policy in an economy without credit supply frictions.

- No credit supply frictions \rightarrow credit increases.
- Credit supply friction + Banks also absorb risk \rightarrow Banks' equity and credit supply shrink \rightarrow credit decreases.



A contractionary monetary policy shock of 25 bps ($\rho_i = 0.80$). Log deviations from steady-state.

Unconventional Credit Policy (I)

Definition:

- Central Bank inject liquidity B_t^g to banks, so they can issue loans to firms B_t^g :

$$Q_t K_t = B_t^g + B_t + N_{et}.$$

- Four characteristics:
 - 1 These loans (CB loans, for simplicity) are guaranteed by the government.
 - 2 The Central Bank charges to banks the risk-free interest rate for liquidity injection.
 - 3 There is not moral hazard problem between Central bank and banks.
 - 4 Liquidity injection is to banks that offer the lowest non-default lending rate + (2)+(3): The required return for the guaranteed loans is the risk-free interest rate.

Unconventional Credit Policy (II)

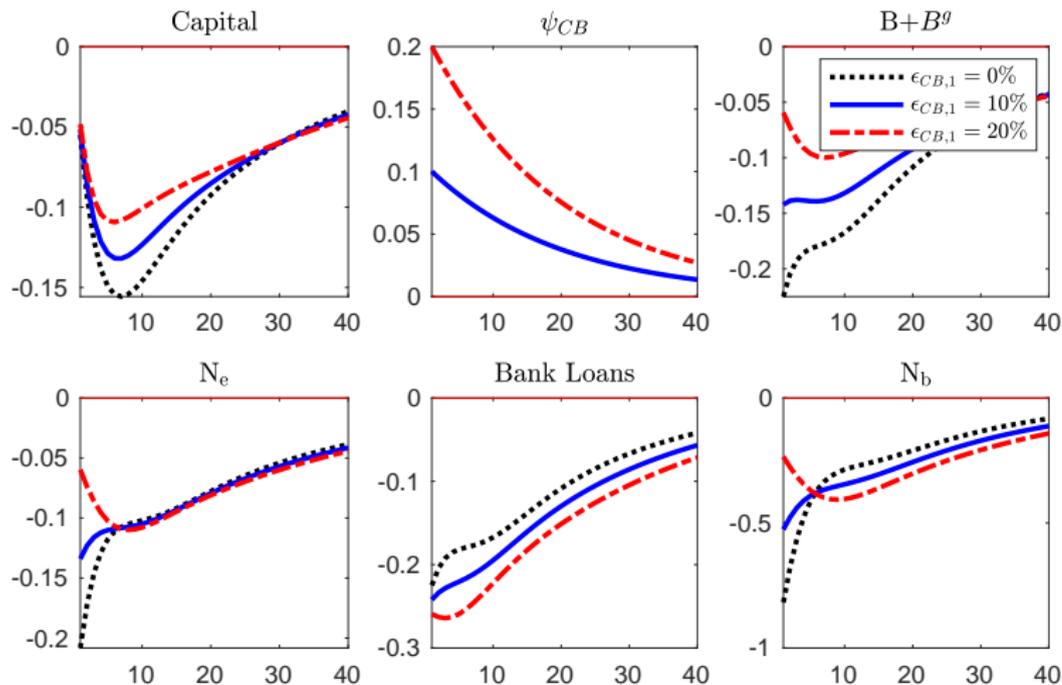
- **Effects:** Increase of credit supply and demand
 - ▶ **Credit Supply:** (3): Increases credit supply per unit of bank equity (GKa 2011)
 - ▶ **Credit Demand:** (1) y (4) the interest rate of CB loans is the risk-free interest rate \rightarrow entrepreneurs replace expensive loans (B) with cheap CB loans (B^g) \rightarrow lower failure probability. Ceteris paribus, smaller monitoring cost and greater incentives to invest and demand more credit.
- Liquidity injection as a proportion of total credit:

$$B_t^g = \psi_{CB,t}(Q_t K_t - N_{et})$$

- ▶ **Exogenous rule:** $\psi_{CB,t} = \rho_{CB}\psi_{CB,t-1} + \varepsilon_{CB,t}$; $\rho_{CB} = 0.95$; $\varepsilon_{CB,1} = 10\%$ and $\varepsilon_{CB,t} = 0$; $\forall t > 1$.
- Unless otherwise stated, we assume CB loans and traditional loans have the same seniority and banks absorb some risk (i.e., $R_{t+1}^l = \xi_t R_{t+1}^k$).

Unconventional Credit Policy Effects

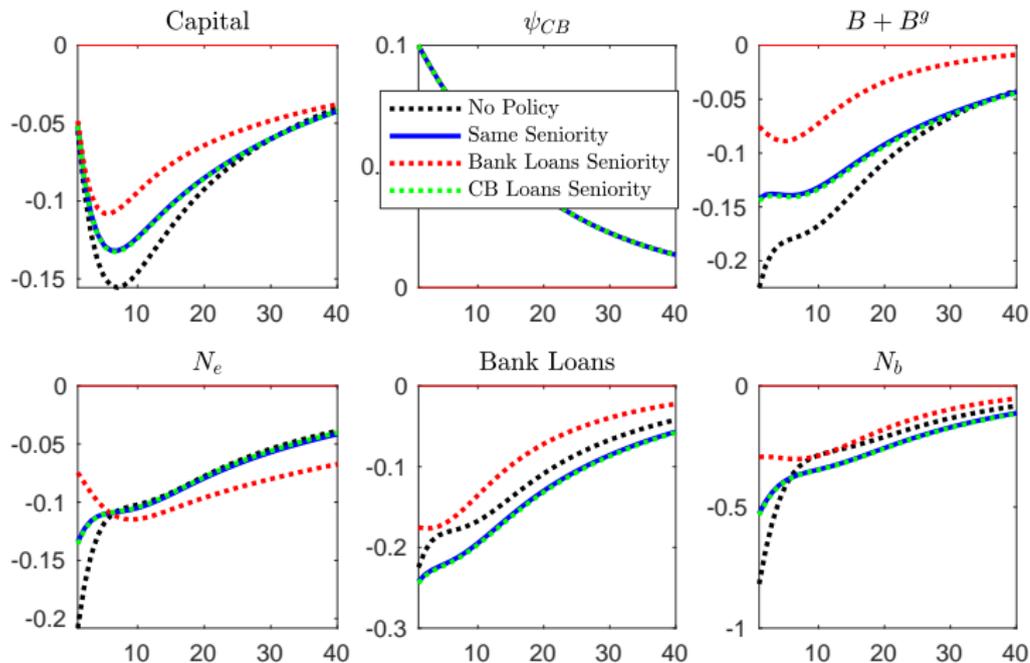
- The unconventional credit policy diminishes the negative impact of the shock.



Log deviations from steady-state expect ψ_{CB} .

Seniority and the impact of the credit policy

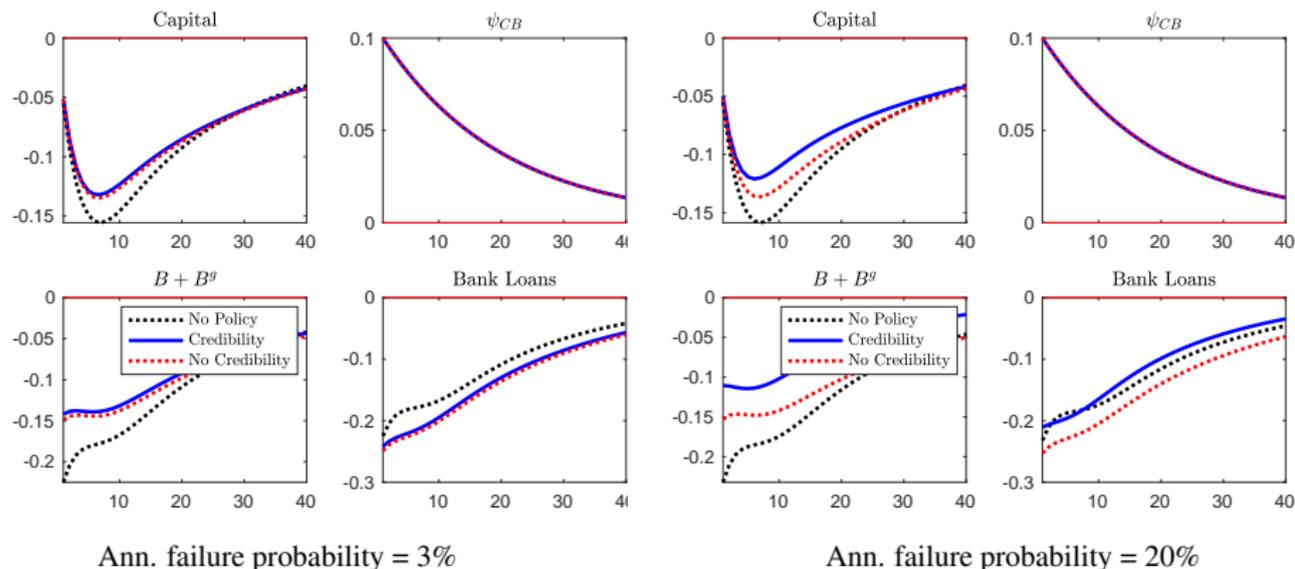
- The higher the seniority of the traditional bank loans, the stronger the impact of the credit policy.
 - ▶ Since bank loans are paid first, CB loans are riskier and government transfers are greater.



Log deviations from steady-state except spreads and CB loans share.

The impact of government guarantees is stronger the higher the uncertainty

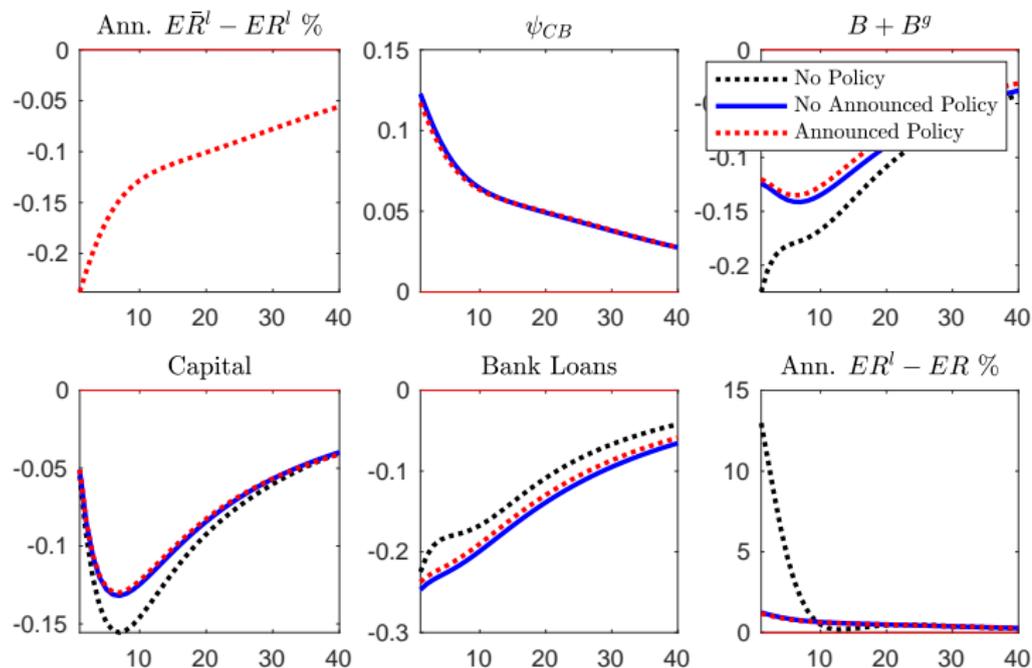
- If banks never believes the government is not going to honor the guarantees, then:
 - ▶ Banks charge a higher non-default lending rate Z_{t+1} to compensate for those resources that are not going to be received from the government.
 - ▶ This is equivalent to no government guarantees.



Log deviations from steady-state expect ψ_{CB} .

Announcing the endogenous credit policy

- Reduces marginal costs of external funding and increases entrepreneurs incentives to demand credit.
- Announcing the policy does not lead to significant benefits when the credit spread is small.



Log deviations from steady-state except spreads and CB loans share.

Conclusions

- Adding credit supply frictions allows us to mimic a more realistic dynamic of credit after a monetary policy shock.
- We find that the unconventional credit policy diminishes the impact of a negative shock on the real economy.
- When traditional bank loans have higher seniority, the impact of the credit policy stronger.
- The credibility of the government guarantees is key in high-uncertainty periods.
- Announcing the policy does not lead to significant benefits when the credit spread is small.