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Unconventional Credit Policy in an Economy under Zero Lower Bound¹

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Motivation

Research Question and Results

Simple Two-period Model

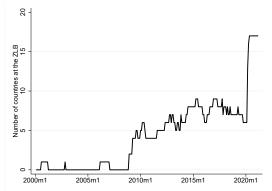
Unconventional Credit Policy

Zero Lower Bound

Conclusions

Motivation

- The Covid-19 global shock has tested the limits of standard policy tools.
- One important constraint faced by several central banks is the ZLB in the monetary policy rate.
- To alleviate the firms's liquidity shortage shock, governments promptly adopted unconventional credit policies such as public guarantees for corporate loans and/or central bank liquidity facilities.



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 and Results

Research Question:

• What is the effectiveness of the unconventional credit policy in a ZLB environemtn in a framework with credit demand and supply frictions?

Methodology:

• A two-period model: Sticky prices + demand side credit frictions (a la Bernake, Gertler and Glichrist 1999) & supply credit frictions (a la Gertler and Karadi 2011) + unconventional credit policy + ZLB.

Main conclusions:

- Credit supply and demand frictions distort capital allocation.
- Unconventional credit policy diminishes the size of the distortion.
- While credit frictions might negatively affect the implementation of an expansionary conventional MP, unconventional credit policy might give more space for conventional MP.

Outline of the simple two-period model

- Closed economy and no aggregate uncertainty.
- 5 types of agents:
- Households consume an save via deposits.
- Banks give loans to entrepreneurs and screen entrepreneur's projects .
 - Credit supply frictions (a la GK 2011). Moral hazard problem.
- Entrepreneurs create capital.
 - Credit demand frictions (a la BGG 1999). Idiosyncratic risk + Costly State Verification
- Intermediate goods firms demand capital to produce. We assume a share of them can't update prices.
- Final goods firms demand intermediate goods to produce final goods.
- Households own banks, entrepreneurs, and firms.

Households

Households make deposits, decide consumption, take profits as lump-sum transfers:

$$\max_{C_1, C_2, D_2} u(C_1) + \beta u(C_2)$$

s.t.
$$C_1 + D_2 = Y_1 + \pi_1$$

$$C_2 = R_2 D_2 + \pi_2$$

where $\pi_1 = -N_{b,1} - N_{e,1}$, $\pi_2 = \pi_2^e + \pi_2^b + \pi_2^f$, where Y_1 , $N_{b,1}$ and $N_{e,1}$ are exogenous. Euler equation:

$$u'(C_1) = \beta R_2 u'(C_2),$$

If $u(c) = \frac{c^{1-\sigma}}{1-\sigma}$ where σ is the CRRA coefficient, it becomes

$$C_2 = C_1 \left(\beta R_2\right)^{1/\sigma},$$

which is a deposit supply curve.

Bankers: Demand of deposits and credit supply frictions

Credit Supply friction a la Gertler and Karadi 2011: A moral hazard problem between bankers and depositors. Bankers:

Period 1	Period 2
	No Divert Divert
	Pay to Households:
Take deposits: D_2	$R_2 D_2$ $(1 - \lambda)(N_{b,1} + D_2)R_2'$
Make loans: $B_2 = N_{b,1} + D_2$	Receive from loans: $R_2'(N_{b,2} + D_2)$
	Bank's profits:
	$ R_{2}'(N_{b,1}+D_{2})-R_{2}D_{2} = \lambda(N_{b,1}+D_{2})R_{2}'$

where R_2^l is the lending rate, and the bank can abscond with share λ of the assets. **Problem of Banks:**

$$\begin{array}{l} \max_{D_2} \quad R_2'(N_{b,1}+D_2)-R_2D_2\\ \text{s.t Incentive constraint (IC): choose no divert}\\ R_2'(N_{b,1}+D_2)-RD_2 \geq \lambda(N_{b,1}+D_2)R_2' \end{array}$$

We parametrize the model so that **IC binds** (e.g., $N_{b,1}$ is sufficiently low). This arises a **credit risk premium** $R_2^l - R_2 > 0$.

Deposits demand and Credit supply curves

We rewrite the binding IC to obtain the **deposit demand curve**:

$$D_2 = N_{b,1} rac{(1-\lambda)R_2'}{R_2 - (1-\lambda)R_2'}, \qquad ext{with} \quad rac{\partial D_2}{\partial R_2} < 0,$$

and which also determines the credit supply curve, via $B_2 = N_{b,1} + D_2$:

$$B_2 = N_{b,1} \frac{R_2}{R_2 - (1 - \lambda)R_2^{\prime}}, \quad \text{with} \quad \frac{\partial B_2}{\partial R_2^{\prime}} > 0.$$

Consequences of credit supply frictions:

- Higher Bank's equity, $N_{b,1}$, increases the availability of credit supply.
- Higher credit supply frictions, λ , decreases the availability of credit supply.

Entrepreneurs: Lending diversification and credit demand frictions

- The modeling device as in Bernanke, Gertler and Gilchrist (1999): a Costly State Verification (CSV) problem
- Balance sheet: An entrepreneur with net worth $N_{e,1}$ goes to bank and receives a loan B_2 and produce capital, K_2 :

$$K_2 = N_{e,1} + B_2.$$

- **Risky project:** The ex-post gross return of capital at t = 2 is $\omega_2 R_2^k$, ω_2 is a idiosyncratic shock, i.i.d. across entrepreneurs, is lognormal, $\mathbb{E}_1{\{\omega_2\}} = 1$.
- Banks lend B_2 at the non-default bank loan rate Z_2
- Entrepreneurs with bad luck, $\omega_2 < \bar{\omega}_2$, default and lose everything.
- $\bar{\omega}$ is given by the break-even point: firm pays a fixed amount to the banker

$$\bar{\omega}_2 R_2^k K_2 = Z_2 B_2 \quad \Rightarrow \quad \bar{\omega}_2 = \frac{Z_2}{R_2^k} \frac{B_2}{B_2 + N_{e,1}},\tag{1}$$

 $F(\bar{\omega}_2)$ is the entrepreneur default probability.

Entrepreneurs (II)

- Bank loan contract: Z_2 , B_2 .
- Asymmetric information problem: banks do not observe ω₂ but can pay a monitoring cost μω₂R^k₂K₂ to know ⇒ Monitor only a bankrupt entrepreneur.
- Bank agrees to lend if it keeps a safe portfolio (diversify idiosyncratic risk), with Rⁱ being the bank's opportunity cost:



where *F* is the cdf of the r.v. ω_2 ; with $Z_2 > B_2$.

but the lending contract must maximize Expected entrepreneur profits,

$$\int_{\bar{\omega}_2}^{\infty} (\omega_2 R_2^k K_2 - Z_2 B_2) dF(\omega) = \underbrace{(1 - \Gamma(\bar{\omega}_2))}_{\text{Share of returns}} R_2^k K_2.$$
(3)

• Solution: Maximize Entrepreneurs' profits (3), s.t. loan contract balance, (2).

Entrepreneurs (III): Credit demand curve

The solution defines an optimal $\bar{\omega}$

$$\frac{R_{2}^{k}}{R_{2}^{l}} = \frac{1}{\left[1 - \Gamma(\bar{\omega}_{2})\right] \frac{1 - F(\bar{\omega}_{2}) - \mu \bar{\omega}_{2} f(\bar{\omega}_{2})}{1 - F(\bar{\omega}_{2})} + \left(\Gamma(\bar{\omega}_{2}) - \mu G(\bar{\omega}_{2})\right)} > 1,$$
(4)

where $\Gamma(\bar{\omega}_2) = [\bar{\omega}_2(1 - F(\bar{\omega}_2)) + G(\bar{\omega}_2)]$ with $G(\bar{\omega}_2) = \int_0^{\bar{\omega}_2} \omega dF(\omega)$. $\bar{\omega}_2$ is an increasing function of the market return spread, R_2^k/R_2^l .

Consequences:

- There is a default probability risk premium: $R_2^k R_2^l > 0$
- The credit demand curve is given by the loan contract (2) and (4):

$$B_2 = N_2 \left[\frac{\left(\Gamma(\bar{\omega}_2) - \mu G(\bar{\omega}_2) \right) \frac{R_2^k}{R_2^l}}{1 - \left(\Gamma(\bar{\omega}_2) - \mu G(\bar{\omega}_2) \right) \frac{R_2^k}{R_2^l}} \right]$$

which is also the supply curve of capital, $K_2 = B_2 + N_2$.

Intermediate and final goods producers

 Final goods firms combine substitute intermediate goods into a homogenous good using a CES technology. Intermediate goods are produced by monopolistically competitive firms indexed by *i* ∈ [0,1],

$$Y_{i,2}=a\left(K_{i,2}\right)^{\alpha},$$

where a is a productivity shock.

• **Price rigidities**: A fraction γ cannot update prices, so $P_{i,2} = P_1$, and a fraction $1 - \gamma$ can update prices. The problem of an intermediate firm *i* that can update prices,

$$\max_{Y_{i,2}} \left[\left(\frac{P_{i,2}}{P_2} \right) Y_{i,2} - \mathcal{C}(Y_{i,2}) \right],$$

subject to inverse demand curve $\frac{P_{i,2}}{P_2} = \left(\frac{Y_{i,2}}{Y_2}\right)^{-\frac{1}{\theta}}$, where $C(Y_{i,2}) = R_2^k K_{i,2}$. The FOC is,

$$\frac{P_{i,2}}{P_2} = \frac{P_2^{\circ}}{P_2} = \left(\frac{1}{\alpha a^{1/\alpha}} R_2^k \left(Y_2\right)^{\frac{1-\alpha}{\alpha}}\right)^{\frac{\alpha}{\alpha+\theta(1-\alpha)}}$$

which imposes a direct and positive relationship between prices and real variables in the economy in equilibrium.

Monetary Policy Rule

• Taylor rule is:

$$i_1 = max(i_{min}, R^*(1 + \pi_2)^{\phi}_{\pi} - 1),$$

where it holds $R_2 = (1 + i_1)/(1 + \pi_2)$.

• Inflation targeting (IT)

$$\pi_2 = 0.$$

• We adopt IT.

Market Clearing

· Capital market requires,

$$K_2 = \int_0^1 K_{i,2} di = \left(\frac{Y_2}{a}\right)^{1/\alpha} \int_0^1 \left(\frac{P_{i,2}}{P_2}\right)^{-\theta/\alpha} di.$$

Solving Y₂ we find,

$$Y_2 = \Delta^{-1} a K_2^{\alpha},$$

where Δ is the price dispersion that for simplicity we assume to be one.

Market clearing in final goods market,

$$C_1 = Y_1 - K_2.$$

 $C_2 = Y_2 - \mu G(\bar{\omega}_2) R_2^k K_2.$

The Euler equation, or the deposit supply curve, becomes,

$$R_{2} = \frac{1}{\beta} \left(\frac{a(D_{2} + N_{1,b} + N_{1,e})^{\alpha} - \mu G(\bar{\omega}_{2}) R_{2}^{k}(D_{2} + N_{1,b} + N_{1,e})}{y_{1} - (D_{2} + N_{1,b} + N_{1,e})} \right)^{\sigma}$$

• Targets: $R_2 = 1.05^{1/4}$, $R'_2 - R_2 = 1.2\%$, $R'_2 - R'_2 = 1.2\%$, $F(\bar{\omega}_2) = 4\%$, $B_2/N_{b,1} = K_2/N_{e,1} = 4$. Capital is 1% inefficiently low.

Deposit and Credit market determination

- In blue the interactions.
- Deposit Market: Supply of deposits:

$$R_{2} = \frac{1}{\beta} \left(\frac{a(D_{2} + N_{1,b} + N_{1,e})^{\alpha} - \mu G(\bar{\omega}_{2}) R_{2}^{k}(D_{2} + N_{1,b} + N_{1,e})}{Y_{1} - (D_{2} + N_{1,b} + N_{1,e})} \right)^{\sigma}.$$

Demand of deposits:

$$D_2 = N_{b,1} \frac{(1-\lambda)R_2'}{R_2 - (1-\lambda)R_2'}$$

Observation: Demand frictions might additional feedback.

Credit Market:
 Supply of gradity

Supply of credit:

$$B_2 = N_{b,1} \frac{R_2}{R_2 - (1 - \lambda)R_2'}.$$

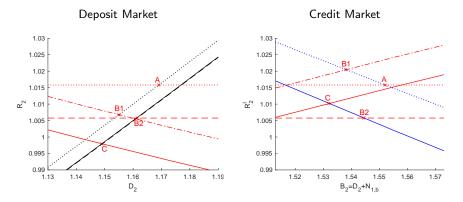
Demand of credit:

$$B_{2} = N_{2} \left[\frac{\left(\Gamma(\bar{\omega}_{2}) - \mu G(\bar{\omega}_{2}) \right) \frac{R_{2}^{k}}{R_{2}^{l}}}{1 - \left(\Gamma(\bar{\omega}_{2}) - \mu G(\bar{\omega}_{2}) \right) \frac{R_{2}^{k}}{R_{2}^{l}}} \right]$$

where $\bar{\omega}_2 = \bar{\omega}_2(R_2^k, B_2)$. Observation: Both credit and deposit markets are intertwined.

Deposit and Credit market equilibrium

- A: No credit frictions.
- B1: Only credit supply frictions (moral hazard problem between banks and depositors)
- B2: Only credit demand frictions (asymmetric information and CSV)
- C: Both credit frictions.



Key result: The presence of credit frictions takes the economy closer to a ZLB equilibrium.

Unconventional Credit Policy

- Unconventional credit policy' definition:
 - i. Government-guaranteed loans are originated by Central Bank's liquidity injection.
 - ii. The required return of loans originated by the credit policy is not the market required return of banks loans, but the monetary policy rate.
- To deal with credit frictions during a crisis the CB might implement unconventional credit policies.

Basically,

- A deposit transformation into loans with no moral risk
- No credit spread due to monitoring.

Unconventional Credit Policy (II)

• Central Bank (CB) facilitates lending (B_{t+1}^g) to firms through banks.

 $B_2 + B_2^g = D_2 + B_2^g + N_{b,2}.$

- CB intervention is funded by lump-sum taxes at t = 1, and guarantees are funded by lump-sum taxes at t = 2.
- Entrepreneurs first exhaust all CB credit and then traditional bank loans.
- Banks' maximization problem is unaffected.
- Credit policy effects:
 - Aggregate credit supply: Since CB loans cannot be diverted by banks, there is a higher aggregate supply of credit.
 - Aggregate credit demand: Since the cost of CB loans is the risk-free interest rate and the lending rate does not have any risk-premium, entrepreneur default probability decreases, which in turn increases the marginal benefit of capital. This pushes up entrepreneurs' incentives to demand credit.

$$\bar{\omega}_2 R_2^k K_2 = Z_2 (K_2 - B_2^g - N_{e,1}) + R_2 B_2^g.$$
(5)

• Credit policy follows the following rule: $B_2^g = \psi_{CB,2}(K_2 - N_{e,2})$, where, we assume:

$$\psi_{CB,2} = 6\%$$

Deposit and Credit market determination

- In red credit policy implications.
- **Deposit Market:** Supply of deposits:

$$R_{2} = \frac{1}{\beta} \left(\frac{a(D_{2} + B_{2}^{g} + N_{1,b} + N_{1,e})^{\alpha} - \mu G(\bar{\omega}_{2}) R_{2}^{k}(D_{2} + B_{2}^{g} + N_{1,b} + N_{1,e})}{Y_{1} - (D_{2} + B_{2}^{g} + N_{1,b} + N_{1,e})} \right)^{\sigma}$$

Demand of deposits:

$$D_2 = N_{b,1} \frac{(1-\lambda)R_2'}{R_2 - (1-\lambda)R_2'}$$

• Traditional bank loans Market: Supply of credit:

$$B_2 = N_{b,1} \frac{R_2}{R_2 - (1 - \lambda)R_2'}$$

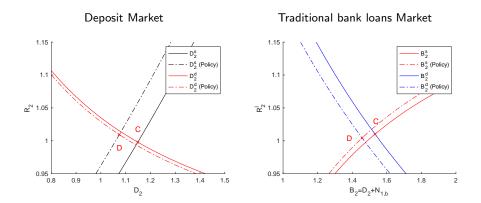
Demand of credit:

$$\frac{R_2^k(B_2, B_2^g)}{R_2^l} = \frac{1}{\frac{\Upsilon_2(R_2^k, R_2, B_2, B_2^g) + (1 - \Gamma(\bar{\omega}_2)) \frac{\Gamma'(\bar{\omega}_2) - \mu G'(\bar{\omega}_2)}{\Gamma'(\bar{\omega}_2)} + (\Gamma(\bar{\omega}_2) - \mu G(\bar{\omega}_2))}}$$

where $\bar{\omega}_2 = \bar{\omega}_2(R_2^k, B_2, B_2^g, R_2); \ \Upsilon_2 > 0$

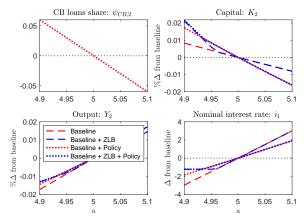
Unconventional Credit Policy

- C: No credit policy; D: Credit policy.
- Credit frictions distortions are reduced.
- There is a higher real interest rate and a smaller lending rate: a credit policy moves the economy away from being closer to the ZLB



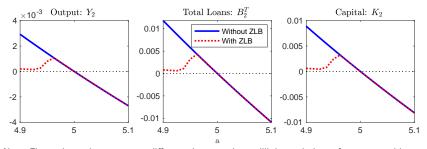
An equilibrium under the ZLB (I)

- We assume changes in the productivity level, *a*, determines if the economy reaches the ZLB: a lower productivity level ⇒ a lower nominal interest rate.
- "Countercyclical" credit policy intervention as a linear function of the size of the *a* change: $\psi_{CB,2} = -3\Delta a$.
- Binding ZLB: Inflation moves above its target. This increases entrepreneurs' incentives to produce and hence to demand credit.



An equilibrium under the ZLB (II)

- The unconventional credit policy can reduce the likelihood of reaching the ZLB.
- However, when the ZLB already binds (even after the policy intervention) the effectiveness of the credit policy to increases total credit (or capital) is reduced.
 - ZLB distorts the power of CB to control inflation. There is a stronger movement to the left of the credit demand curve due to the negative impact on future inflation when the ZLB binds.
 - When the ZLB is reached, the policy's benefits of providing relatively cheaper funding to entrepreneurs is diminished



Note: Figure shows the percentage difference between the equilibrium solutions of output, total loans and capital without and with unconventional credit policy for different values of *a*, the productivity level, for an economy with and without ZLB.

Conclusions

- Credit supply and demand frictions distort capital allocation and make more likely that a ZLB equilibrium occurs.
- Unconventional credit policy diminishes the size of the distortion and reduces the likelihood of reaching the ZLB .
- Once the ZLB binds (even after the policy intervention) the effectiveness of the credit policy is diminished.

Thanks