Public Liquidity and Bank Lending: Treasuries, Quantitative Easing, and Central Bank Digital Currency

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Introduction

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Theory

Conclusions

Motivation: Public Liquidity

• What is the optimal supply of public liquidity?

- Treasury securities
- (Traditional) central bank reserves: quantitative easing (QE)
- Central bank digital currency

(i.e., allowing firms and households to hold deposits at the central bank)

• Focus here: medium- and long-run average supply of public liquidity

Main results (1/2)

1. Empirical evidence: Structural VAR

An increase in public liquidity (= debt/GDP) causes

- Share of credit to firms that is intermediated by banks \downarrow
- GDP \downarrow
- No statistically significant effects on investments
- 2. Simple model to rationalize evidence

Banks have better technology, but are subject to moral hazard

Welfare analysis. Public liquidity ↑ [Treasuries/QE/Digital Currency]

- Public liquidity is safer than bank debt \Rightarrow welfare \uparrow
- Households hold less deposits (consistent with evidence in literature) to economize on costs induced by moral hazard Banks' investments ↓ ⇒ welfare ↓

Optimal policy balances these two effects

Main results (2/2)

- Central bank can achieve the same outcomes using QE or digital currency
 - Formally, equivalence result
 - Key difference in implementation

interest rate on reserves interest rate on digital created by QE (held by banks) > currency (held by households)

- Treasury and central bank interaction
 - Size of optimal central bank balance sheet is non-monotonic in the stock of Treasury debt
 - Optimal joint policy
 - Assume central bank chooses size of balance sheet optimally
 - Multiple levels of Treasury debt supply (within a range) are optimal, as opposed to a single value

(Some) related literature

- Public liquidity injections reduce deposits at banks
 Greenwood, Hanson, and Stein (2015); Krishnamurthy and Vissing-Jorgensen (2015); Li (2019)
- Optimal supply of public liquidity Holmstrom and Tirole (1998); Lagos and Rocheteau (2008); Benigno and Robatto (2019); Angeletos et al. (2020)
- Quantitative easing with government bonds Gertler Karadi (2013)
- Central bank digital currency Bordo and Levin (2017); Keister and Sanches (2020); Williamson (2020)



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Overview



- U.S. Debt-to-GDP: Privately-held gross federal debt (excludes government accounts, Federal Reserve)
- Share of bank credit to firms (from Flow of Funds):

 $share = \frac{bank \ bans}{bank \ bans + commercial \ paper + corporate \ bonds + other \ bans}$ bank = depository institutions

VAR

- What is the effect of higher debt/GDP on the share of bank lending?
- Reduced-form VAR

$$Y_{t} = \begin{bmatrix} \Delta \log \left(\frac{debt}{GDP} \right)_{t} \\ \Delta \log \left(\frac{share}{t} \right)_{t} \end{bmatrix}, \qquad Y_{t} = A_{1} Y_{t-1} + \ldots + A_{p} Y_{t-p} + \begin{bmatrix} \varepsilon_{t}^{1} \\ \varepsilon_{t}^{2} \end{bmatrix}$$

Baseline: p = 2 lags

- Long-run restriction (Blanchard Quah, 1989): Two orthogonal shocks
 - 1. One shock has transitory effects on debt/GDP
 - One shock has permanent effects on debt/GDP Interpretation: variation in policymakers' attitude toward the long-run average level of debt to GDP

Results



- Long-term effect: 1% permanent increase in debt to GDP
 ⇒ 0.25% reduction in the share of credit intermediated by banks
 90% confidence interval: [-0.692%, -0.046%]
- Results robust (almost unchanged) to using
 (i) Cholesky identification, any ordering, (ii) 4 lags, (iii) annual data
- Higher debt to GDP reduces GDP too but has no statistically significant effects on investments/GDP



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Simple model (Treasury securities only)

(Builds on Benigno and Robatto, 2019)

- Timing
 - Two periods (t = 0, 1)

Time t = 1 is divided into two subperiods

- Two aggregate states at t = 1:
 - High state h, probability 1π
 - Low state l, probability π
- Agents
 - Continuum of households
 - Continuum of intermediaries (i.e., banks)
 - Government

[and central bank, in the full model]

Technology

Households are less productive than banks

One unit of investment at t = 0 produces, at t = 1:



- Normalizations:
 - Average output = $(1 \pi) A_h + \pi A_l = 1$
 - Output in low state: $A_l = 0$

Households

Notation:

Upper-case variables with no subscript: t = 0Variables with subscript h and l: t = 1

Utility

$$(1-\pi)\left[\log C_h + X_h\right] + \pi\left[\log C_l + X_l\right]$$

- C_h, C_l: first subperiod of t = 1 need to be financed with liquid assets (next slide)
- X_h , X_l : second subperiod of t = 1
- Budget constraint at t = 0



D and B: zero-coupon debt securities, face value = 1

•
$$Q^D$$
, Q^B : prices

Households: constraints at t = 1

• First subperiod: C_h, C_l financed with debt securities



- Banks debt D: payoff = 0 in state l
- Second subperiod: budget constraint for X_h and X_l

$$X_{h} \leq \underbrace{\overline{Y}_{h}}_{\text{time-1}} + \underbrace{(B + D - C_{h})}_{\text{liquid asset not used}} + \underbrace{A_{h}(1 - \phi) K}_{\text{output of}} + \underbrace{\Pi_{h}}_{\text{profits}} - \underbrace{T_{h}}_{\text{lump-sum}}$$

$$X_{l} \leq \overline{Y}_{l} + (B - C_{l}) + \underbrace{A_{l}}_{=0}(1 - \phi) K + \Pi_{l} - T_{l}$$

Households: optimality conditions

Consumption



Portfolio of debt securities

Choice of B: $\underbrace{1}_{\text{Payoff}} + \underbrace{\left[(1-\pi)\,\mu_h + \pi\mu_l\right]}_{\text{Liquidity value}} = \underbrace{\left(1-\phi\right)}_{\substack{\text{households' price}\\ \text{productivity}}} \\
\underbrace{1 \times (1-\pi)}_{\substack{\text{Expected payoff}\\ (\text{payoff-1 only in }h)}} + \underbrace{(1-\pi)\,\mu_h}_{\text{Liquidity value}} = (1-\phi)\,Q^D$

Intermediaries (banks)

• Budget constraint, t = 0



- Profits, t = 1: $\Pi_h = A_h K^I D$, $\Pi_l = 0$
- Moral hazard friction (standard in macro-finance literature):
 - Intermediaries can extract private benefits $\theta A_h K^I$
 - To avoid misbehavior, intermediaries must earn rents $\Pi_h \geq \theta A_h K^I$
- Parameter restriction: Moral hazard θ is sufficiently severe, in comparison to technological advantage φ of banks

 $\theta > \phi$

 \Rightarrow Households prefer to manage some investments directly (If $\theta < \phi \Rightarrow$ all investments are made by banks)

Government

• Taxes finance repayment of government debt \overline{B}

$$T_h = \overline{B}$$
 (state h)

$$T_l = \overline{B}$$
 (state *l*)

Equilibrium (simplified)

Focus on case $\overline{B} < 1$ [i.e., public liquidity does not satiate liquidity demand] (but allow for any \overline{B} in the policy analysis)

• Consumption at t = 1, first subperiod:



Bank debt

$$D = 1 - \overline{B}$$

Both households and banks invest:

$$\underbrace{K^{I} = \frac{\left(1 - \overline{B}\right)\left(1 - \pi\right)}{1 - \phi} > 0,$$



investments by banks

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investments by households

Price of liquid securities

$$Q^{B} = \frac{1}{1-\phi} \left[(1-\pi) + \pi \frac{1}{\overline{B}} \right]$$
$$Q^{D} = \frac{1-\pi}{1-\phi}$$

Intermediaries earn profits (to avoid moral hazard): Π_h = φ^{1−B}/_{1−φ} > 0.

Policy: higher supply of government debt

Government debt ↑

Households' liquidity needs met using banks debt \downarrow (households economize on the cost of the moral hazard friction)

- Households hold less deposits, more public debt
 ⇒ Welfare ↑ because public debt is safer
- 2. Households invest more directly, hold fewer deposits Banks invest less (disintermediation)

 \Rightarrow Welfare \downarrow because households have worse technology

- Optimal supply of government debt trades off (1) and (2)
 - A too-large supply is not optimal
 - Under optimal policy: Liquidity premium on government debt > 0 (i.e., Friedman-like rule is not optimal)

Central Bank Digital Currency (overview)

- Central bank purchases government debt B^{CB}, issues reserves R
 Reserves R [= digital currency] can be held by households
- Liquidity
 - Reserves *R* provides the same liquidity as deposits
 - Treasury debt is only partially liquid
- Results:
 - Central bank "transforms" partially-liquid B^{CB} into fully-liquid RWelfare \uparrow
 - Households' deposits ↓, banks' investments ↓
 Welfare ↓

Quantitative easing (overview)

- Central bank purchases government debt B^{CB} , issues reserves RReserves are held by banks
 - Federal Reserve: 2010-2014, 2019, 2020
 - Euro Area: Public Sector Purchase Program

(80% of ECB asset purchases)

- Liquidity: Treasury debt is only partially liquid
- Equivalence result: Every allocation that is achieved by QE can be achieved with central bank digital currency, and vice-versa

Key differences:

- Reserves are now intermediated by banks
- Implementation (to deal with bank moral hazard)
 Interest rate on reserves created by QE (held by banks)
 > Interest rate on digital currency (held by households)

Joint Treasury & central bank policies Numerical example



- Supply of government debt \overline{B} taken as exogenous
- Central bank chooses *B*^{CB} to maximize welfare
 - \overline{B} is very low: QE is good (increases "effective" public liquidity)
 - \overline{B} is very high: optimal QE=0 Disintermediation is too large, QE would worsen it
 - Intermediate B: welfare is maximized & flat in this region
 Optimal "effective" liquidity & share of bank credit



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- Empirical evidence:
 - More public liquidity reduces GDP and the fraction of credit to firms that is intermediated by banks
 - No statistically significant effect on investments
- Theoretical analysis
 - Optimal policy balances positive, direct benefits of public liquidity against the reduction of credit supplied by banks
 - Results hold under various definition of "public liquidity": Treasury securities, traditional central bank reserves, central bank digital currency (i.e., reserves accessible to public)
 - Digital currency equivalent to quantitative easing, but difference implementation related to interest on reserves
 - Size of optimal QE policy is non-monotonic in the supply of Treasury debt



Appendix



