Sovereign and Country Risk Macroeconomics B

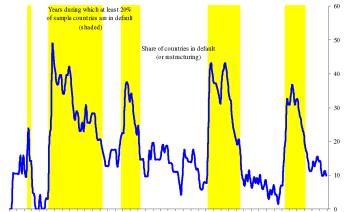
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Introduction

- So far we have assumed that all debt is repaid
- But there are numerous episodes where countries do not repay their debt
- Actually repayment is not so natural in an international context
 - No strong legal system at the international level and no international government to enforce contracts
- The risk of default is non negligible. Focus on sovereign debt
- Evidence on country default
- How does default affect international capital flows? Large literature
- Read Harms VI.3.1

FIGURE 2. Global Sovereign External Default Cycles: 1800-2009 Share of countries in default or restructuring



1800 1810 1820 1830 1840 1850 1860 1870 1880 1890 1900 1910 1920 1930 1940 1950 1960 1970 1980 1990 2000 2010

Sources: Lindert and Morton (1989), Macdonald (2003), Purcell and Kaufman (1993), Reinhart, Rogoff, and Savastano (2003), Suter (1992), and Standard and Poor's (various years).

Notes: Sample includes all countries, out of a total of 70 listed in Appendix Table 1, that were independent states in the given year. Specifically, the number of countries increases from 19 in 1800 to 32 in 1826, as Latin American colonies gained independence; following World War II, newly-independent Asian states swell the number to 58 and in the following decades as African nation-sates are born the number of sovereign increases to a total of 70—the full sample.

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Table 2. An Early History of External Debt Defaults: Europe before the Twentieth Century

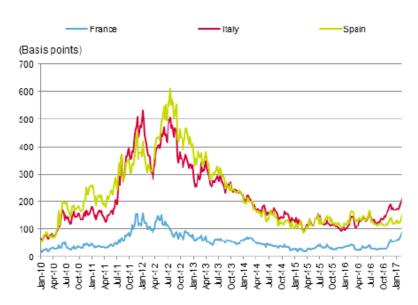
	1501–1800		1801–1900		
	number of defaults	years of default	number of defaults	years of default	Total default:
Spain	6	1557, 1575, 1596	7	1820, 1831, 1834, 1851	13
France	8	1607, 1627, 1647 1558, 1624, 1648, 1661 1701, 1715, 1770, 1788	n.a.	1867, 1872, 1882	8ª
Portugal	1	1560	5	1837, 1841, 1845	6
				1852, 1890	
Germany ^b	1	1683	5	1807, 1812, 1813	6
				1814, 1850	
Austria	n.a.	n.a.	5	1802, 1805 1811	5
				1816, 1868	
Greece	n.a.	n.a.	4	1826, 1843, 1860, 1893	4
Bulgaria	n.a.	n.a.	2	1886, 1891	2
Holland	n.a.	n.a.	1	1814	1
Russia	n.a.	n.a.	1	1839	1
Total	16		30		46

Source: "Debt Intolerance," Carmen M. Reinhart, Kenneth S. Rogoff, and Miguel A. Savastano NBER Working Paper No. 9908

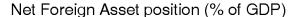
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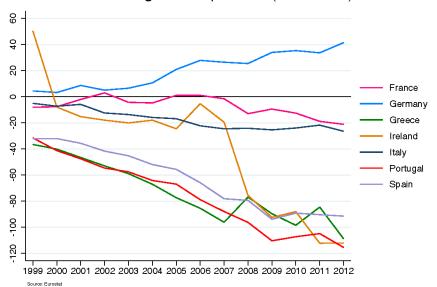
Total for the period 1501–1800 only.
 Defaults listed are those for Prussia in 1683, 1807 and 1813, Westfalia in 1812; Hesse in 1814 and Sleswig-Holstein in 1850.

Ten-Year Sovereign Bonds Over German Bund



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A Model with default, but no uncertainty

- Reference: Vegh, section 2.4, Harms VI.3.3
- Consider a two-period model
- To focus on debt, we will use the notation $D_2 = -B_2$
- In reality mainly sovereign debt. Here we consider total debt
- Why repay a debt?
- Must be some commitment device or a high cost of not repaying.
 Otherwise, don't repay
- Then nobody will lend: autarky
- We will consider a model without commitment, but with default cost

Default cost

- Assume that cost is proportional to $Y_2: \phi Y_2$
 - trade or financial sanctions
 - internal political costs
 - no future borrowing (in a more dynamic framework)
- Then repay when the cost is too high, i.e. when:

$$Y_2 - (1+r)D_2 \ge (1-\phi)Y_2$$

Repay when

$$D_2 \leq \frac{\phi Y_2}{1+r}$$

- Lenders will not lend more than $\frac{\phi Y_2}{1+r}$
- ullet With low ϕ , countries are not able to borrow much even if they need to

Optimal behavior

• max
$$U(C_1) + \beta U(C_2) + \lambda (\frac{\phi Y_2}{1+r} - D_2)$$

- Assume $\beta(1+r)=1$
- FOC is:

$$U'(C_1) = U'(C_2) + \lambda$$

$$\lambda(\frac{\phi Y_2}{1+r} - D_2) = 0 \quad \text{and} \quad D_2 \le \frac{\phi Y_2}{1+r}$$

There are 2 cases

2 cases

1 constraint not binding: $\lambda = 0$

$$U'(C_1) = U'(C_2) \Longrightarrow C_1 = C_2$$

perfect consumption smoothing

2 constraint binding: $\lambda > 0$

$$U'(C_1) > U'(C_2) \Longrightarrow C_1 < C_2$$

Consumption smoothing is not feasible

- There is never default
- Graph supply of funds

A Model with default and uncertainty

- Harms, VI.3.4
- With uncertainty, there are cases with default and cases without
- Default comes with bad shocks
- Lenders face a risk and charge a risk premium
- Let r^s be the interest rate on debt
- Let p be the probability of default
- Let z be the proportion of debt repaid when default: recovery rate
- 1 − z is haircut



Figure 4.3. Interest rate spreads on emerging market bonds. End-of-week data, in basis points. Source: EMBI/EMBI + series, J. P. Morgan Chase.



Figure: Reinhart and Trebesch (JEEA, 2016), Debt relief % GDP

Assume perfectly competitive market and risk neutrality from lenders.
 Then:

$$1 + r = (1 - p)(1 + r^{s}) + pz(1 + r^{s}) = (1 - p(1 - z))(1 + r^{s})$$

- Observe the spread $r^s r$. Compute an estimate p for a given z
- We will assume z = 0:

$$1 + r = (1 - p)(1 + r^s)$$

- Compute p and r^s , as well as D_2 and CA in a two-period model
- Assume uncertainty about Y_2
- Uniform distribution:

$$Y_2 \in \left[0, Y_2^H\right]$$

• Remark about uniform distribution: If $x \in [a, b]$, $prob(x < x^*) = \frac{x^* - a}{b - a}$

• Also assume cost of default ϕY_2 . Default if:

$$D_2 > \frac{\phi Y_2}{1+r^s}$$

• There is a critical level of Y_2 below which it becomes optimal to default:

$$D_2 = \frac{\phi Y_2^*}{1 + r^s}$$

or

$$Y_2^* = \frac{(1+r^s)D_2}{\phi}$$

Probability of default:

$$p = prob(Y_2 < Y_2^*) = \frac{Y_2^*}{Y_2^H} = \frac{(1 + r^5)D_2}{\phi Y_2^H}$$

- In particular increases in D_2
- See empirical evidence from Kray-Nehru

TABLE 3. Basic Results

	(1)	(2)	(3)
	All	Low-Income Countries ^a	Middle-Income Countries ^a
Present value debt/exports	0.644 (0.152)***	0.143 (0.074)*	0.262 (0.060)***
Country Policy and Institutional Assessment (CPIA)	-0.557 (0.142)***	-0.311 (0.091)***	-0.020 (0.051)
Real GDP growth	-4.620 (2.085)**	-0.930 (1.199)	-2.080 (0.749)***
Constant	0.821 (0.512)	1.911 (0.789)**	-1.375 (0.925)
Number of observations	200	83	117
Out-of-sample predictive power (fraction of events correctly predicted)			
All episodes	0.71	0.75	0.78
Distress episodes	0.74	0.56	0.70
Normal time episodes	0.70	0.83	0.80

^{*}Significant at the 10 percent level.

Note: Numbers in parentheses are standard errors.

Source: Authors' analysis of data described in Appendix.

^{**}Significant at the 5 percent level.

^{***}Significant at the 1 percent level.

^aMarginal effects rather than slope coefficients are reported for first three variables to facilitate a comparison of the magnitude of estimated effects between these two columns.

- Determine r^s and risk premium
- From:

$$1 + r = \left(1 - \frac{(1 + r^{s})D_{2}}{\phi Y_{2}^{H}}\right)(1 + r^{s})$$

- Quadratic equation in $1 + r^s$
- Consider the lower root and get $r^s(D_2)$ with $\frac{\partial r^s}{\partial D_2} > 0$
- ullet But D_2 is endogenous and can be determined from optimal borrowing

Optimal borrowing

- Consider linear utility function: $U = C_1 + \beta EC_2$
- Assume $\beta < \frac{1}{1+r}$ so there is an incentive to borrow
- Budget constraints:

$$C_1 = Y_1 + D_2 C_2^{ND} = Y_2 - (1 + r^s)D_2 C_2^D = (1 - \phi)Y_2$$

• Utility can be written as:

$$U = Y_1 + D_2 + \beta \left\{ pE(C_2^D) + (1 - p)E(C_2^{ND}) \right\}$$

where:

$$E(C_2^D) = (1 - \phi)E(Y_2 \mid D)$$

 $E(C_2^{ND}) = E(Y_2 \mid ND) - (1 + r^s)D_2$

Notice that:

$$pE(Y_2 \mid D) + (1-p)E(Y_2 \mid ND) = E(Y_2)$$

Then rewrite:

$$U = Y_1 + D_2 \left[1 - \beta (1-p)(1+r^s) \right]$$

$$+\beta E(Y_2) - \beta \phi p E(Y_2 \mid D)$$
loss of resources due to default

We have

$$E(Y_2) = \frac{Y_2^H}{2}$$

$$E(Y_2 \mid D) = \frac{Y_2^*}{2} = \frac{(1+r^s)D_2}{2\phi} = \frac{pY_2^H}{2}$$

Last term becomes:

$$\frac{\beta \phi p^2 Y_2^H}{2}$$

Hence

$$U = Y_1 + D_2 \left[1 - \beta (1+r) \right] + \beta \frac{Y_2^H}{2} - \frac{\beta \phi p^2 Y_2^H}{2}$$

Now take FOC w/D₂:

$$[1 - \beta(1+r)] = \beta \phi \rho Y_2^H \frac{\partial \rho}{\partial D_2}$$

Marginal gain = marginal cost. Can be rewritten as:

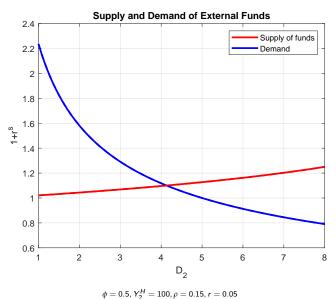
$$\rho - r = \phi p Y_2^H \frac{\partial p}{\partial D_2}$$

• Finally we get:

$$\begin{array}{rcl} \rho & = & \frac{\rho - r}{1 + 2\rho - r} \\ D_2 & = & \frac{\phi Y_2^H (1 + \rho)(\rho - r)}{(1 + r)(1 + 2\rho - r)^2} \\ r^s & = & \frac{1 + r}{1 + \rho} (1 + 2\rho - r) - 1 \end{array}$$

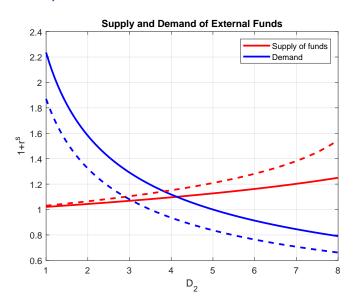
- ullet p independent of ϕ
- D_2 increases in ϕ
- ullet All increase in ho

Equilibrium



-

Decrease in ϕ



Welfare

• Utility can be written as:

$$U = Y_1 + \frac{1}{1+\rho}E(Y_2) + \phi \frac{Y_2^H(\rho - r)^2}{2(1+2\rho - r)(1+\rho)(\rho - r)}$$

- ullet Utility increases with ϕ
- Higher costs of default increase welfare

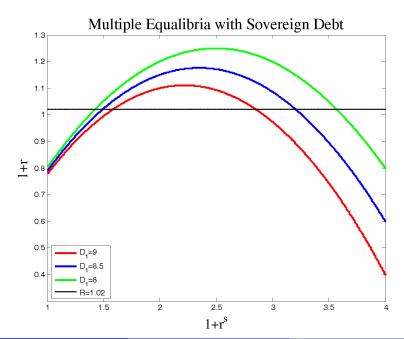
Multiple equilibria

- How to explain sudden jump in risk premia in 2010?
- Potential explanation: multiple equilibria. Recent literature on self-fulfilling debt crises. Started with Calvo, AER, 1988
- Calvo: With initial debt level D_2 , two levels of interest rate with good and bad equilibrium
- Works through the government budget constraint: high interest rate implies higher debt service ⇒ default more likely ⇒ justifies higher interest rate: self-fulfilling equilibrium
- Low interest rate \Rightarrow low debt service \Rightarrow no default \Rightarrow low interest rate
- Sharp increase in interest rate may be explained by switch from the good to the bad equilibrium

- Similar in our model, although not through budget constraint
- Remember quadratic equation:

$$1 + r = \left(1 - \frac{(1 + r^{s})D_{2}}{\phi Y_{2}^{H}}\right)(1 + r^{s})$$

- Graphical representation
- Higher r^s means higher interest rate payment and higher probability of default: self-fulfilling.
- Technical problem in Calvo and in our model: the high interest rate solution is unstable
 - Leads to absurd comparative statics



- ECB President Draghi:
 - "... the assessment of the Governing Council is that we are in a situation now where you have large parts of the euro area in what we call a "bad equilibrium", namely an equilibrium where you may have self-fulfilling expectations that feed upon themselves and generate very adverse scenarios." (press conference, September 6, 2012).
- Role for the central bank?
 - See Bacchetta, Perazzi and van Wincoop (JIE, 2018)