Credit I: Modeling the Credit Market 14.740x: Foundations of Development Policy

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Introduction: Lending to the Poor

- In the 1970s and early 1980s, many had given up hope on giving credit to the poor and being repaid.
- Some governments were continuing subsidized credit programs to the poor, which functioned almost like free transfers programs. For example, in India:
 - Mandated bank branch expansion in rural areas helped reduce poverty (Robin Burgess and Rohini Pande), but the default rate is 42%, and it cost \$2.72 to increase income by \$1.
 - Loans are used for political purpose: Shawn Cole shows that agricultural credit increases by 5%-10% in election years, especially in districts where elections are close. These extra loans are not productive.
- Yet, informal credit institutions have always existed: village moneylenders; Rotating Credit and Savings Associations; mutual credit and insurance arrangements.

Introduction: The Microfinance Revolution

- In 1976, Mohammed Yunus created the Grameen Bank: an institution which made small loans to poor women.
- Microcredit has expanded as a worldwide phenomenon: Today, \$25 billion outstanding, 150-200 million clients; high repayment rates. Many microfinance institutions are profitable. Some are very profitable.
- Mohammed Yunus and the Grameen Bank won the Nobel Peace Prize.
- Compartamos, a Mexican MFI had a successful IPO, attracting controversy.
- Microfinance institutions try to also provide a broader set of financial services, beyond traditional group lending: larger individual loans; savings; insurance.
- Starting 2010 or so: backlash on microfinance. Some big crises (Andhra Pradesh, No Pago movement)

Introduction: The Questions

Today we will try to understand:

- 1 Why lending to the poor may be difficult,
 - and to what extent are those difficulties serious;
- What innovation did the "microfinance" revolution introduce to overcome those difficulties,
 - and to what extent are those innovations responsible for the ability of microfinance institutions to lend and be reimbursed;
- 3 Whether microcredit really helps the poor, and if so how;
- 4 Other financial services the poor may need: (savings, insurance), and their impact.

The Barriers to Credit

- 1 Informational asymmetries
 - Moral hazard: The monitoring cost multiplier
 - Adverse selection
- 2 Lending to the poor is costly. Their rates of return are too low.

Credit markets: some facts

- Sizeable gap between lending rates and deposit rates within the same sub-economy
- Extreme variability in the interest rate within the same sub-economy:
- Low levels of default:
- There seems to be ex ante competition in the markets
- Production and trade finance are the main reasons given for borrowing, even in cases where the rate of interest is relatively high

One example (Aleem (1990))

- Study of 14 money-lenders in one market in Pakistan
- Very detailed data:
 - every step of the lending process is described and priced
- Average lending rate 78.5%
- Average cost of capital for money-lenders 32.5%
- Average bank rate 10%
- Standard deviation of interest rate 38.1%
- Gives default rates for each individual lender. The median default rate is between 1.5 and 2% and the maximum of 10%.

The neo-classical model of the capital market

- Everyone faces the same interest rate, adjusted for risk. i.e. if there is a d% risk of default then (1-d)r (where r is the gross interest rate) is a constant.
- The interest rate paid to depositors is equal to (1 d)r less some small change for the cost of operating a bank.
- The expected marginal product of capital should be equated to (1-d)r.
- This cannot explain any of these facts!

A simple model of the credit market

- Loan repayment is imperfectly enforceable.
- Suppose k dollars invested yields a gross return F(k) and that the gross interest rate is r. A borrower who has a wealth of w and invests k will need to borrow k-w. He is supposed to repay (k-w)r at the end of the period.
- But by expending some resources, which we assume to be proportional to the size of the investment, he can avoid repayment altogether. We denote the constant of proportionality by η and assume that it is less than the cost of capital, ρ .

A simple model of the credit market

• Lenders will only provide finance up to the point where the borrower has the incentive to repay: this requires $F(k) - r(k-w) \ge F(k) - \eta k$ which gives us:

$$\frac{k}{w} = \frac{r}{r - \eta} \equiv \lambda(r, \eta).$$

- Firms are credit rationed. They cannot borrow as much as they want.
- The amount you can borrow is increasing in your wealth and your η but decreasing in the interest rate.
- The interest rate is equal to the cost of capital. It obviously does not vary across borrowers.
- This is a handy model but does not fit the facts.

Extending the model: 1

- It is natural to assume that the lender needs to spend resources in order to make the borrower want to repay. In other words, $\eta=0$ unless the lender spends some resources.
- First let monitoring cost be linear in the amount borrowed: $\phi(k-w)$.
- In this case

$$r(k-w) = \rho(k-w) + \phi(k-w)$$

$$r = \rho + \phi$$

• r will only vary to the extent that ϕ or ρ varies.

Extending the model: 2

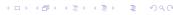
- Let monitoring be a variable cost, ϕ per unit of $\eta k, i.e.$ the cost does not depend on the amount borrowed but on amount invested.
- Under the assumption of competition, the lender just breaks even:

$$r(k - w) = \rho(k - w) + \phi \eta k$$

• For any credit constrained borrower, $k = \frac{r}{r-\eta}w$, which implies that

$$r = \rho + \phi r = \frac{\rho}{1 - \phi}.$$

- Aleem calculates ϕr to be 50 cents per dollar lent on average, easily explaining the gap between the 32.5% cost of capital and the 78.5% average interest rate in this data.
- For this ϕ needs to be about 0.6
- Does not explain exclusion



Extending the model: 3

- ullet Let the monitoring cost be a fixed cost ϕ
- Then the lender's zero profit condition is

$$r(k-w) = \rho(k-w) + \phi$$

 In the model without default, the borrower's IC constraint is now given by

$$r(k-w)=\eta k$$

which together give us

$$\rho(\mathbf{k} - \mathbf{w}) + \phi = \eta \mathbf{k}$$

- We can rewrite this in the form $k = \frac{\rho w \phi}{\rho \eta}$. What if $\rho w < \phi$?Is this necessarily more than w?
- Multiplier property.:

$$r = \rho + \frac{\phi(\rho - \eta)}{\eta w - \phi}$$

Implications of the model

- Can explain a large wedge between the cost of capital and the interest rate and by implication a very high monitoring cost.
- The interest rate can be very sensitive to the cost of capital and the monitoring cost, if 1- ϕ is small
- The interest rate will be especially sensitive where the interest rate is high relative to the cost of capital
- However we do not explain equilibrium default.

Some Policy Implications

- What is the total amount lent?
- In the model without default, the borrower's IC constraint is now given by

$$r(k-w)=\eta k$$

while the lender's zero profit condition is

$$r(k-w) = \rho(k-w) + \phi$$

which together give us

$$\rho(k-w) + \phi = \eta k$$

or

$$k = \frac{\rho w - \phi}{\rho - \eta}$$

Some Policy Implications

- One dollar subsidy to monitoring costs reduces ϕ by ρ dollars (since we assume monitoring costs are paid at the end of the period) which increases the amount of resources going to the poor by $\frac{\rho}{\rho-n}>1$ dollars.
- Keeping the interest rate fixed, the effect of \$1 subsidy would have been $\frac{r}{r-\eta} < \frac{\rho}{\rho-\eta}$. The mutiplier adds to the leverage, especially when monitoring is expensive.
- Cutting monitoring costs is the raison d'etre of the micro-credit movement.
- Note however that one dollar subsidy to wealth (w) would have the same effect.
- However this is only true for those who have $\eta w \phi > 0$.
- Those who have $\eta w \phi < 0$, start out unable to borrow.
- This may be why some micro-credit organizations insist on savings as a way into borrowing (especially under the self-help group model): Helping them save may be way to subsidize building wealth.