

FIRMS' ROLLOVER RISK AND MACROECONOMIC DYNAMICS

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Abstract

This paper analyzes the macroeconomic implications of firms' rollover risk. I develop a heterogeneous-firms macroeconomic model with rollover crises emerging from coordination failures among creditors. Rollover crises are events in which a firm defaults because creditors fail to roll over its debt, but would have repaid otherwise. I assess the quantitative relevance of rollover crises by employing a model-based identification strategy which argues that their incidence is informed by the observed distribution of firms' bankruptcy outcomes, and find that roughly half of bankruptcy events are due to rollover crises. I validate the model using individual firms' observed investment dynamics during the last recessions and then use the model to assess the aggregate implications of rollover risk for the U.S. economy. I find that rollover risk can significantly amplify the impact of recessions. Lastly, I show that imperfectly targeted credit policies can mitigate rollover crises but can exacerbate firms' debt overhang in the future.

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1 Introduction

I study the impact of firms' rollover crises on macroeconomic dynamics. Rollover crises are events in which an *economically solvent* firm — i.e., with positive net present value — defaults because its creditors fail to roll over the debt. Although the notion of firms' rollover crises is often alluded to by policymakers during recessions and by top managers of bankrupt firms, we know little about their quantitative and aggregate implications.¹

To assess the aggregate implications of firms' rollover risk, I develop a quantitative macroeconomic framework where firms' rollover crises can be identified and quantified. In the framework, there is feedback between interest rates on newly issued corporate debt and firms' incentives to default outstanding debt. Rollover crises are events in which a firm defaults because creditors fail to roll over its debt, but would have repaid otherwise. To assess the incidence of rollover crises, I use an approach that combines the model and data on firms' bankruptcy outcomes and bankrupt firms' characteristics. I find that roughly half of the bankruptcy events are driven by rollover crises. I then conduct a quantitative analysis of the U.S. economy to assess the impact of firms' rollover risk on macroeconomic dynamics. I find that rollover risk can explain between 10% and 30% of the drop in aggregate output during large recessions. Finally, I study the effectiveness of an imperfectly targeted credit policy — akin to those used extensively during the Covid crisis and other recessions — and find that in the short term the policy can prevent rollover crises but can backfire if it exacerbates firms' future debt overhang.

The framework is a general equilibrium model populated by heterogeneous firms which use internal resources and/or issue debt to finance investment and production. There are three key ingredients. First, firms have no commitment to repay their debt; thus, endogenous default risk limits their borrowing capacity. Second, using tools from the literature that studies self-fulfilling sovereign debt crises [[Cole and Kehoe \(2000\)](#)], I incorporate potential coordination failures among firms' creditors — rollover crises. Third, emulating the U.S. bankruptcy code, firms can decide to liquidate and exit, or restructure

¹For example, this notion was alluded to in discussions around financial institutions and firms bailouts during last recessions [see, for example, [Financial Times \(09/30/2014\)](#) and BIS Bulletin by [Banerjee, Noss and Vidal Pastor \(2021\)](#)]. The notion of rollover crises is also alluded to in regulations, for example, in Section 13(3) of the Dodd Frank act which delimits the lending powers of the Fed. Lastly, top managers of bankrupt firms and other actors involved in the bankruptcy procedure (for example, the judge of the case) often mention financial problems akin to rollover crises as the main cause of bankruptcy [see, [Ayotte and Skeel \(2013\)](#) and references within].

their liabilities and continue operating.

The environment considered creates complementarities between debt prices and firms' default choices, which can lead to multiple equilibria for a firm. I characterize the solution of the model and find that there are three types of firms in the economy. First, there are safe firms with strong fundamentals that will not default even if creditors fail to rollover the debt. On the other extreme, there are insolvent firms with weak fundamentals that default even if creditors would be willing to rollover. Finally, there are risky firms, which are exposed to rollover problems, and default or not depending on creditors' coordination, then the equilibrium outcome for the firm is undetermined. Formally, to construct the equilibrium for the last type of firms, I assume that an *idiosyncratic* and stochastic sunspot variable selects the equilibrium with a given probability *common* to all risky firms. This probability — jointly with the share of firms exposed — captures the rollover risk in the economy.

To measure the incidence of rollover crises, I design a model-based identification strategy that learns from firms' bankruptcy choices and bankrupt firms' characteristics. In the U.S. bankruptcy code, bankrupt firms can choose to use chapter 7 provisions and be liquidated, or use chapter 11 provisions and renegotiate their debt with creditors while they continue operating and, importantly, debt payments are suspended and new debt issuance is facilitated.² To exploit these features of the U.S. bankruptcy code I embed in the model a bankruptcy procedure where bankrupt firms can choose between the liquidation and restructuring chapters. I argue that I can infer indirectly the incidence of rollover crises from the firms bankruptcy chapter choices and bankrupt firms' financial characteristics (for example, leverage). I find that in the model, a larger share of firms in the restructuring process implies a greater incidence of rollover crises. The basic intuition is that the restructuring process provides little benefit to insolvent firms since observed debt haircuts in the restructuring process are small, but provide large benefits to firms under a rollover crisis since the restructuring process can operate as a way to (temporarily) force the rollover of debt (for example, by suspending debt payments).³

²It is widely argued in the bankruptcy law literature [see, for example, the seminal work by [Jackson \(1986\)](#)] that several provisions in the U.S. bankruptcy code (such as the one preventing creditors from collecting debt payments) are designed to solve credit coordination failures for bankrupt firms (or, in other words, coerce debt rollover).

³Anecdotal evidence suggests that firms' managers tend to think of the restructuring process, (and the debtor-in-possession (DIP) protection they provide) as a way to get some time for payments. In addition, the DIP protection facilitates new debt issuance (known as DIP financing).

My first main quantitative result shows that, roughly half of the bankruptcy events in the U.S. economy are driven by rollover crises. I find that 1.6% of the firms are subject to rollover crises: 21% of the firms are exposed with a 7% probability of a coordination failure.

As a validation exercise, I then assess the model’s ability to reproduce untargeted patterns in the data. I simulate a panel of firms and find that the model is able to match the observed investment heterogeneity patterns in last recessions and how firms’ characteristics predict the occurrence of a restructuring event. Consistent with the data, difference-in-difference estimates of the investment heterogeneity patterns during last recessions in U.S. (Great Recession and Covid crisis) show that firms with less internal resources (cash-on-hand) adjust their investment by more. Moreover, in the model and data, firms with smaller size, fewer internal resources, lower sales growth, and less leverage are more likely to enter the restructuring process next period.

I then conduct a quantitative study of the amplification mechanism of firms’ rollover crises in large recessions. I simulate a prototypical large recession and study the transition of aggregate output with and without coordination failures. For different types of shocks driving the recession — total factor productivity (TFP), cash and credit shocks — I find that rollover risk can significantly amplify the impact of recessions, explaining 10% to 30% of output losses during the episode.⁴ Moreover, rollover risk makes recessions more persistent, especially when crises are driven by aggregate TFP or cash shocks. A sudden reduction in firms’ cash flows temporarily exposes more firms to rollover crises, leading to more failures (bankruptcy and liquidation) of healthy firms, which creates extra persistence.

Finally, I study the policy implications of rollover crises. I focus on direct lending policies, which resemble those deployed by the Fed during the Covid crisis and other credit interventions in previous recessions.⁵ I simulate an imperfectly targeted credit policy during a recession for different scales of the policy. By scale, I mean how many firms are eligible to participate. First, I find that small-scale policies can reduce significantly

⁴In my experiments a credit shock is a reduction in the recovery rate of creditors during a firm’s liquidation event.

⁵For example, the Fed provided credit to corporate firms through the Primary Market Corporate Credit Facility (PMCCF) and Secondary Market Corporate Credit Facility (SMCCF) during the Covid crisis.

the short-term impact of rollover crises and provide a swift recovery. The intuition is that the credit policy works as an insurance for creditors which precludes coordination failures, even if firms do not draw funds from the government’s credit facilities. Lastly, I find that large-scale policies can backfire. While they mitigate more rollover crises and have greater short-term benefits, than small-scale policies, they subsidize credit to many firms and exacerbate future debt overhang.

Literature and Contributions. The paper fits in the broad research agenda described by [Brunnermeier and Krishnamurthy \(2020\)](#). This research agenda aims to incorporate firm-level corporate financing considerations in quantitative macroeconomic models to study their aggregate (positive and normative) implications. My paper’s main contributions can be placed in the following strands of literature in macroeconomics and finance:

Financial heterogeneity and default risk in macroeconomics. This paper is related to the broad literature that works with general equilibrium models of firms with default risk [see, for example, [Cooley and Quadrini \(2001\)](#) for an early reference]. More specifically, this paper is related to the literature that studies the implications of aggregate shocks in macro models with firms’ default risk [see, for example, [Cooley, Marimon and Quadrini \(2004\)](#); [Jermann and Quadrini \(2012\)](#); [Arellano, Bai and Kehoe \(2019\)](#); [Khan, Seng and Thomas \(2020\)](#); [Ottonello and Winberry \(2020\)](#)]. I contribute to this literature by studying the aggregate implications of rollover risk (i.e., default driven by credit coordination failures) in recessions.

[Corbae and D’Erasmus \(2021\)](#) studies long-term implications of changes to the U.S. bankruptcy code in a general equilibrium model with heterogeneous firms. Distinctively, in my paper, I study the interaction between firms’ rollover crises and bankruptcy provisions aimed to prevent the hold-out problem (coordination failures) of creditors during bankruptcy.⁶

Rollover crises and multiple equilibria in macroeconomics. An ample literature studies rollover crises and multiple equilibria in macroeconomics.⁷ My paper is closely connected to the work on sovereign debt self-fulfilling crises. In my model, the [Cole and Kehoe](#)

⁶The resolution of creditors’ coordination problems are widely discussed in the bankruptcy law literature. See, for example, the seminal work [Jackson \(1986\)](#) or, more recently, [Ayotte and Skeel \(2013\)](#).

⁷Another related literature studies self-fulfilling expectations and business cycles. See, for example, [Benhabib and Wang \(2013\)](#); [Harrison and Weder \(2013\)](#); [Liu and Wang \(2014\)](#); [Azariadis, Kaas and Wen \(2015\)](#); [Cui and Kaas \(2021\)](#); [Schmitt-Grohé and Uribe \(2020\)](#).

(2000) timing generates the possibility of firms’ rollover crises caused by creditors’ coordination failures. A major challenge for the quantitative literature on sovereign debt self-fulfilling crises, and in this paper, is to disentangle rollover crises from crises driven by fundamentals [see, for example, [Aguiar, Chatterjee, Cole and Stangebye \(2021\)](#)]. In the same spirit as [Bocola and Dovis \(2019\)](#), I identify and quantify indirectly the incidence of rollover crises using firms’ bankruptcy choices. My paper is also connected to the literature that studies bank runs in macroeconomic models [see, for example, [Gertler and Kiyotaki \(2015\)](#); [Gertler, Kiyotaki and Prestipino \(2019\)](#); [Amador and Bianchi \(2021\)](#)]. The contribution of my paper to this literature is twofold. First, I make a quantitative assessment of rollover crises on firms and, second, I use an identification strategy which argues that salient features of the bankruptcy process — jointly with firms’ choices and characteristics — inform the incidence of rollover crises and coordination failures.

Rollover (coordination) crises in corporate finance theory. A strand of literature in corporate finance theory studies firms’ rollover crises caused by creditors’ coordination failures. Salient examples can be found in [Morris and Shin \(2004, 2016\)](#), who adopt a global games approach to study the relation between firms’ rollover crises (coordination) and corporate debt pricing. In related work, [He and Xiong \(2012a,b\)](#); [Cheng and Milbradt \(2012\)](#) study the relation between rollover crises and corporate debt maturity, and [Zhong \(2021\)](#) studies the relation between the risk of credit coordination failures and firms’ creditors concentration choice. My contribution to this strand of literature is the analysis of the interaction between rollover crises and bankruptcy provisions in a general equilibrium infinite horizon economy.

Corporate credit policy intervention and recessions. Sparked by the Covid crisis — and the policy response that followed — a recent body of work studies the effectiveness of corporate credit policies during large recessions using structural models. [Elenev, Landvoigt and Van Nieuwerburgh \(2021\)](#) finds that credit policy during large recessions can prevent firms’ bankruptcy; [Ebsim, Faria e Castro and Kozlowski \(2021\)](#) shows that policy effectiveness may depend on the source of the crisis shock; and [Crouzet and Tourre \(2021\)](#) finds that subsidizing credit to firms may induce future debt overhang. My paper is in line with this recent line of work. In addition, I show that credit policy also works through a coordination channel, akin to a deposit insurance for banks, and may be potent even if few firms participate in the credit policy program (in equilibrium). This last result

is related to observations made by [Cox, Greenwald and Ludvigson \(2021\)](#) regarding the workings of the Fed’s corporate credit facilities during Covid.⁸

Rollover crises empirics. [Kalemli-Özcan, Laeven and Moreno \(2020\)](#); [Almeida, Campello, Laranjeira and Weisbenner \(2012\)](#) study individual investment dynamics and financial heterogeneity during recent recessions in the U.S. and Europe, and find suggestive evidence that firms are subject to increasing rollover risk during recessions. My paper is in line with these findings. Moreover, [Foley-Fisher, Narajabadand and Verani \(2020\)](#) use an empirical identification strategy, that exploits particularities of insurers’ debt contracts, to assess the incidence of rollover crises on life insurance companies. Similarly, my paper identifies the incidence of rollover crises on firms, but I use a model-based strategy, which relies on salient features of the U.S. bankruptcy code and which learns from observed cross-sectional patterns of firms’ bankruptcy choices and bankrupt firms’ characteristics.

Paper’s Organization. The paper is organized as follows: Section 2 develops a macroeconomic model where firms can be subject to rollover crises; Section 3 identifies and quantifies firms’ rollover crises; Section 4 quantifies the amplification mechanism of rollover risk in large recessions; Section 5 studies the effectiveness of credit policies in the presence of rollover risk; and Section 6 concludes. Lastly, the Appendix contains further details on the theory, data, other exercises and extensions.

2 A Macro Model of Firms’ Rollover Crises

In this section I describe the theoretical framework. The framework is used to identify the incidence of firms’ debt rollover crises and to conduct the baseline quantitative exercises.

I develop a heterogeneous-firms macroeconomic model with rollover risk. Firms use internal and/or external resources to invest and produce. Following [Khan *et al.* \(2020\)](#) and [Ottonello and Winberry \(2020\)](#), firms cannot commit to repay their debt, then endogenous default risk limits their borrowing capacity. Firms can default because of fundamental reasons or as a result of rollover crises driven by creditors’ coordination failures à la [Cole](#)

⁸[Cox *et al.* \(2021\)](#) observes limited participation in Federal Reserve’s Primary and Secondary Market Corporate Credit Facility programs, and argue that credit policy (announcements) affected asset prices through non-fundamentals (analogous to the workings of the credit policy in my paper).

and Kehoe (2000). Furthermore, the model features a realistic bankruptcy procedure where firms can decide to liquidate and exit, or restructure their liabilities and continue operating, as in Corbae and D’Erasmus (2021).

To describe the model, I follow several steps: Section 2.1 is an overview of the environment; Section 2.2 describes firms’ setup; Section 2.3 shows how creditors determine debt prices given the choices of the firm; Section 2.4 characterizes firms’ bankruptcy (liquidation and restructuring) choices, which depend on debt prices; Section 2.5 shows firms’ recursive problem formulation; Section 2.6 briefly describes the rest of the agents: capital producers and households; Section 2.7 defines the equilibrium for this economy; and Section 2.8 discusses the main assumptions.

2.1 Environment

The economy has an infinite horizon and is in discrete time, i.e., $t = 0, 1, 2, \dots$. It is inhabited by four types of agents: (i) non-financial heterogeneous firms that invest, produce and make financial choices in order to maximize the present value of their dividends (i.e., firm value); (ii) atomistic and perfectly competitive creditors that lend to non-financial firms; (iii) a representative capital producer that sells capital to non-financial firms; and (iv) a representative household that consumes, saves and works, and owns all the firms in the economy. The price of the final good is normalized to 1, and the price of capital good q and wages w are determined in general equilibrium. I focus on the steady-state equilibrium with no aggregate risk, where recessions and policies happen unexpectedly.

2.2 Firm’s Setup

The objective of firm i is to maximize its value $V_{it} = \mathbb{E}_t [\sum_{t \geq s} \Lambda_s d_{ij}]$ where Λ_s is the stochastic discount factor of the households and d_{is} are the dividends issued by firm i in period j . The firm has three types of idiosyncratic state variables: (i) exogenous fundamental state variables \mathbf{s}_{it}^f ; (ii) an exogenous non-fundamental state variable s_{it}^n ; and (iii) endogenous state variables \mathbf{s}_{it}^e . The idiosyncratic state vector of the firm is defined as $\mathbf{s} = (\mathbf{s}_{it}^f, s_{it}^n, \mathbf{s}_{it}^e)$. Firms are perfectly competitive, and there is a continuum of them producing in each period with a distribution $\Omega(\cdot)$, which is normalized to $\int d\Omega(\cdot) = 1$.

There is no aggregate risk and the firm’s problem can be written recursively; thus, for

clarity of exposition I will drop subscripts for firm i and period t , and adopt the recursive timing convention.

Technology. Firms combine capital k and labor l to produce a unique final good using a Cobb-Douglas production function

$$y = f(z, \omega, k, l) = z(\omega k)^\alpha l^\nu,$$

where $\alpha \in (0, 1)$ is the share of capital and ν is the share of labor. I assume the firm operates with decreasing returns to scale, i.e., $\alpha + \nu < 1$. The firm is subject to two idiosyncratic shocks: (i) a persistent idiosyncratic productivity process $\ln z' = \rho \ln z + \epsilon_z$ with $\epsilon_z \sim^{\text{iid}} (0, \sigma_z^2)$; and (ii) idiosyncratic iid capital quality shock ω , which is drawn from a log-normal truncated distribution where $\ln \omega \in [\underline{\omega}, 0]$. The sole purpose of including the ω shock is to match quantitatively the default rates observed in the data.

Firms own capital k , which is inherited from the previous period, and hire labor l at given wage w . The labor choice problem of firms is static, then I define the operating profits of the firm as

$$\pi(z, \omega, k) = \max_l z(\omega k)^\alpha l^\nu - wl \quad (1)$$

with labor demand $l^* = \left[\frac{\nu z(\omega k)^\alpha}{w} \right]^{\frac{1}{1-\nu}}$.

Resources. Each period, firms can raise external resources by issuing one-period debt b' given price schedule $Q(\cdot)$ offered by creditors. Furthermore, the firm's internal resources, or cash-on-hand holdings, are n , which is the sum of operational profits $\pi(z, \omega, k)$ and current value of the firm's productive capital after depreciation $(1 - \delta)q\omega k$ — where $\delta \in [0, 1]$ is the capital depreciation rate — minus the maturing inherited debt b , i.e.,

$$n = \pi(z, \omega, k) + (1 - \delta)q\omega k - b. \quad (2)$$

External and own resources are used to issue dividends d and make capital purchases, i.e.,

$$d + qk' = n + Q(\cdot)b'. \quad (3)$$

The financial structure of the firm matters in the presence of financial frictions, for example, default risk and limits to equity issuance.

Exit and entry. The mass of entrant firms $\bar{\mu}$ equates the mass of exiting firms in steady state. I assume entrants are endowed with capital $k = k_0$ and debt $b = 0$, and draw their initial productivity level z from invariant distribution $\Omega^e(z)$ which has an average productivity $m \leq 0$ percent lower than the z productivity’s ergodic distribution’s average. This assumption is consistent with evidence that young firms have lower measured productivity, as pointed out by [Ottonello and Winberry \(2020\)](#), and it is instrumental to match the firms’ life-cycle moments.

Following [Khan *et al.* \(2020\)](#), at the beginning of each period, firms can receive an *exogenous* exit shock with probability $\gamma \in [0, 1]$ which forces them to exit after production. This assumption precludes all firms from overcoming the financial frictions in steady state. I assume, exiting firms can decide to liquidate or restructure their inherited debt b . The bankruptcy choice of exiting firms is explained in [Appendix A.1](#). On the other hand, those firms that don’t receive an exit shock can decide to liquidate and exit. The *endogenous* exit decision is described next.

Financial frictions. There are two forms of firm-level financial frictions. First, firms are precluded from issuing equity, i.e.,

$$d \geq 0. \tag{4}$$

This assumption is standard in the literature, it is consistent with the scarce issuance of equity by corporate firms in the data and provides greater tractability to the model. In [Appendix C.4](#), I extend the model to allow for costly equity issuance and show that the characterization of the firm’s liquidation choice doesn’t change significantly. Second, firms’ debt is defaultable. Each period, firms can decide to file for bankruptcy and default their debt. Emulating the U.S. bankruptcy code, I assume that firms can decide to liquidate and exit, or restructure their liabilities and continue operating.

Bankruptcy Choice. If the firm decides to liquidate and exit, then there is indiscriminated default — firm defaults on inherited debt b and new debt issuance b' — and the

firm exits with value $V = 0$. Furthermore, creditors of inherited debt b recover a fraction $R(b, k, \omega) = \min \left\{ 1, \alpha_7 \frac{q\omega k}{b} \right\}$ of b , where $\alpha_7 \in [0, 1]$ is a parameter that indicates the creditors' recovery rate of capital when the firm is liquidated. On the other hand, creditors of new debt issuances b' do not recover anything from a contemporaneous liquidation. This assumption is done for technical reasons and captures the fact that inherited creditors tend to have seniority over new creditors. Importantly, the liquidation choice takes place after the new debt issuance b' . *Chapter 7* liquidations and *Chapter 11* piecemeal liquidations of the U.S. Bankruptcy Code are the empirical counterpart of the liquidation events in the model.

If the firm decides to restructure its debt b and continue operating, then the creditors and the firm use a Nash Bargaining protocol to negotiate the debt recovery rate $\alpha_{11} \in [0, 1]$ of inherited debt b . I assume that the outside option of the bargaining problem is to continue as if the firm never filed for bankruptcy. This assumption captures the notion that restructuring procedure is a joint decision of the firm, creditors and the court. Moreover, we need that the firm and its creditors to be willing to participate in the negotiations; thus, both have to be better off when restructuring. Additionally, firms pay bankruptcy costs $c_{11} \in [0, 1]$ which are proportional to the firms' capital. This assumption captures bankruptcy losses such as legal fees, administrative costs, reputational deterioration. After the haircut and paying the cost the internal resources left are $n_{11} = \pi(z, \omega, k) + (1 - c_{11})(1 - \delta)q\omega k - \alpha_{11}b$.

Lastly, a key assumption is that in the restructuring process creditors' coordination failures are precluded. This assumption captures the provisions in Chapter 11 of the U.S. bankruptcy code where, for example, debt payments are suspended, and new debt issuances are facilitated. The empirical counterpart of the restructuring process is *Chapter 11* of the U.S. Bankruptcy Code, excluding Chapter 11 "liquidations" or "363" sales.

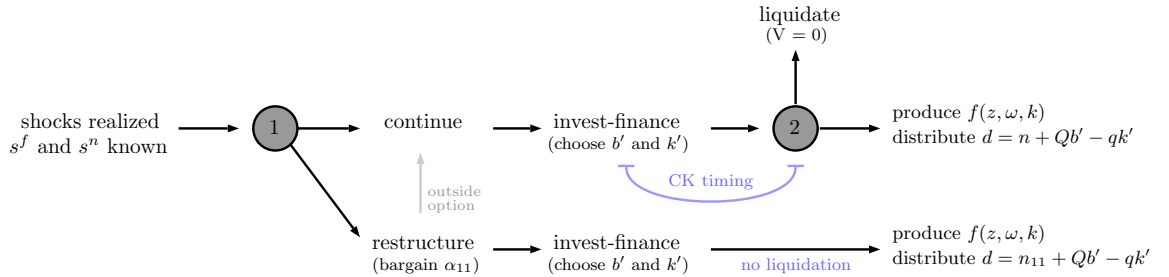
Section 2.8 includes a thorough discussion of the assumptions related to the bankruptcy process and, in Appendix D, I provide further institutional details of Chapter 7 and Chapter 11 of the U.S. bankruptcy code.

Timing. Figure 1 shows the within period timing of the firm problem for firms that are not subject to an exogenous exit shock. At the beginning of the period, idiosyncratic states are realized, i.e., fundamental and non-fundamental shocks are revealed. After

uncertainty is resolved, there is no more within period uncertainty, which means that all shocks and states (including non-fundamental ones) are known, i.e., \mathbf{s} is known, and is common knowledge for all agents.

In Figure 1, the first gray dot indicates the restructuring choice where firms choose to either continue or restructure. If the firm decides to continue, it makes the investment and financing choice, i.e., chooses (k', b') given pricing schedule $Q(\cdot)$ and price q . After the firm issues new debt b' , the firm has a liquidation choice (i.e., second gray dot in Figure 1), where it decides to liquidate and exit, or continue and produce. The fact that the liquidation choice takes place after issuing new debt will be the source of multiple equilibria. This timing is the [Cole and Kehoe \(2000\)](#) (CK) timing, that is widely used in the international macroeconomics literature that studies rollover crises in sovereign debt models. If the firm decides to restructure its liabilities, it enters a bargaining process for α_{11} where the outside option is to continue (gray arrow up in Figure 1). In the restructuring process, there are no current coordination failures since there is no liquidation choice after issuing new debt, i.e., visually, in Figure 1, there is no gray dot after entering the restructuring process.

Figure 1: Within period timing



Note: timing is conditioned on a firm that doesn't receive an exit shock. In Appendix A.1, I describe and characterize the exiting firm's problem.

2.3 Debt Prices

Before characterizing the liquidation and restructuring choice, I have to determine the pricing schedule for creditors.

Creditors borrow from households at risk-free rate r and lend to firms at price $Q(\cdot)$. They are perfectly competitive and atomistic; thus, the no-profit condition holds which prices the debt. All intermediaries are owned by the household, hence they discount future

flows using the household's stochastic discount factor (SDF) Λ . The SDF is defined in the household problem in Section 2.6. Thus, the debt price schedule for a firm with state vector \mathbf{s} is

$$\begin{aligned} Q(\mathbf{s}, k', b') &= [1 - \mathbf{1}_{\{\text{ch7}\}}(\mathbf{s})] \mathbb{E}_{(\mathbf{s}'|\mathbf{s})} \left[\Lambda(1 - \gamma) \mathbf{1}_{\{\text{continue}\}}(\mathbf{s}') \right] \\ &\quad + [1 - \mathbf{1}_{\{\text{ch7}\}}(\mathbf{s})] \mathbb{E}_{(\mathbf{s}'|\mathbf{s})} \left[\Lambda(1 - \gamma) \mathbf{1}_{\{\text{Ch11}\}}(\mathbf{s}') \alpha_{11}(\mathbf{s}') \right] \\ &\quad + [1 - \mathbf{1}_{\{\text{ch7}\}}(\mathbf{s})] \mathbb{E}_{(\mathbf{s}'|\mathbf{s})} \left[\Lambda(1 - \gamma) \tilde{\mathbf{1}}_{\{\text{Ch7}\}}(\mathbf{s}') R(b', k', \omega') \right] \\ &\quad + [1 - \mathbf{1}_{\{\text{ch7}\}}(\mathbf{s})] \tilde{Q}_{\text{exit}}(z, k', b'), \end{aligned} \quad (5)$$

with

$$\begin{aligned} \tilde{Q}_{\text{exit}}(z, k', b') &= \mathbb{E}_{(\mathbf{s}'|\mathbf{s})} \left[\Lambda\gamma \left\{ \mathbf{1}_{\{\text{continue} \mid \text{exit}\}}(\mathbf{s}') + \mathbf{1}_{\{\text{ch11} \mid \text{exit}\}}(\mathbf{s}') \alpha_{11}^{\text{exit}} \right\} \right] \\ &\quad + \mathbb{E}_{(\mathbf{s}'|\mathbf{s})} \left[\Lambda\gamma \mathbf{1}_{\{\text{ch7} \mid \text{exit}\}}(\mathbf{s}') R(\omega', b', k') \right], \end{aligned} \quad (6)$$

where the binary function $\mathbf{1}_{\{\text{Ch7}\}}(\mathbf{s})$ indicates if the firm choose to liquidate in absence of the restructuring choice and $\tilde{\mathbf{1}}_{\{\text{Ch7}\}}(\mathbf{s})$ indicates if the firm is liquidated in equilibrium, $\mathbf{1}_{\{\text{Ch11}\}}(\mathbf{s})$ indicates if the firm restructures the debt and $\mathbf{1}_{\{\text{continue}\}}(\mathbf{s})$ indicates if the firm continues which is defined as $\mathbf{1}_{\{\text{continue}\}}(\mathbf{s}) \equiv 1 - \mathbf{1}_{\{\text{Ch11}\}}(\mathbf{s}) - \tilde{\mathbf{1}}_{\{\text{Ch7}\}}(\mathbf{s})$ for firms that do not receive the exit shock.⁹ Furthermore, the indicators conditioned on the firm receiving the exit shock, i.e. $\mathbf{1}_{\{\cdot \mid \text{exit}\}}$, are defined analogously. The liquidation and restructuring choices for firms that do not receive an exit shock are characterized in Section 2.4 and are characterized for firms that receive an exit shock in Appendix A.1. On the RHS of (5), the first line shows the component of the price where the firm repays fully next period, the second line shows the component of the price where the firm restructures next period and creditors recover $\alpha_{11}(\mathbf{s}')$, and the third line shows the component of the price where the firm is liquidated next period and creditors recover $R(b', k', \omega')$. The last line shows the component of the price related to exiting firms, and equation (6) shows the determinants of the debt price given no liquidation today and the firm receiving an exit shock tomorrow, it is analogous to the pricing function for non-exiting firms.

⁹As a technical note, the liquidation choice doesn't depend on (k', b') because the policy function imposes a constraint redundant to $d \geq 0$ for the financing-investment choice, and creditors of b' have 0 recovery rate and there is no within period uncertainty after shocks are realized at the beginning of the period.

It is useful to define the fundamental price $\tilde{Q}(z, b', k')$ as the price of debt whenever there is no contemporaneous liquidation, i.e.,

$$Q(s, k', b') = [1 - 1_{\{\text{ch7}\}}(s)] \tilde{Q}(z, b', k').$$

The contemporaneous liquidation decision is reflected in the debt pricing because of the CK timing — i.e., the liquidation choice happens after the new debt issuance — and this is the source of potential multiplicity as I explain below.

2.4 Liquidation and Restructuring Choices

In this subsection, I will characterize liquidation and restructuring choices. I will start backwards, according to Figure 1 timing, since the payoffs of the liquidation choice will affect the decisions in the restructuring choice. First, I show that there can be multiple equilibria, then I characterize the solution of the liquidation choice and find that there are three types of firms across the state space: firms safe from current rollover crises, insolvent firms and firms exposed to rollover crises. Finally, I characterize what firms enter the restructuring process.

2.4.1 Liquidation Choice

First, I explain how the feedback between the current liquidation choice and debt prices can create multiple equilibria for a firm. Second, I characterize formally the liquidation choice across the relevant state space.

Multiple equilibria intuition. Firms are subject to the no-equity issuance constraint $d \geq 0$ and their exiting value is $V = 0$. Thus, the firm decides to liquidate and exit if it cannot issue (weakly) positive dividends. Creditors price the debt according to equation (5). The pricing schedule shows debt prices depend on expectations of future default and conjectures about the firm's liquidation choice today. The debt price function schedule and dividends are

$$Q(s, k', b') = \underbrace{1_{d \geq 0}}_{\text{no liquidation choice}} \underbrace{\tilde{Q}(z, k', b')}_{\text{debt price if no liquidation}}$$

$$d = n - qk' + Q(s, k', b'),$$

where $\mathbf{1}_{d \geq 0}$ is today's no liquidation indicator — i.e., if $\mathbf{1}_{d \geq 0} = 0$ the firm cannot satisfy $d \geq 0$ and is liquidated, and if $\mathbf{1}_d = 1$ otherwise — and $\tilde{Q}(\cdot)$ the pricing schedule if no liquidation today (sometimes known as the fundamental debt price).

There is feedback between dividends and current debt prices, which could generate multiple equilibria. To illustrate this, assume the firm has negative cash-on-hand $n < 0$ and creditors conjecture liquidation today $\mathbf{1}_{d \geq 0} = 0$, then they offer price $Q(\mathbf{s}, k', b') = 0$ and the firm cannot satisfy the constraint on dividends $d = n + \max_{k' \geq 0} \{-qk'\} < 0$, which implies that the firm is liquidated. Thus, the outcome is consistent with the conjecture. On the contrary, if creditors conjecture that there is no liquidation today $Q(\mathbf{s}, k', b') = \tilde{Q}(z, k', b')$ and $\exists b'$ such that $\tilde{Q}(z, k', b') b' > n$ then the firm can satisfy $d \geq 0$ and is not liquidated. Thus, this outcome is also consistent with the conjecture. Therefore, under certain conditions — which I show next — the outcomes could depend on creditors' conjectures of the current liquidation choice. Creditors could coordinate on either debt price. I adopt the convention that if creditors coordinate on $Q(\mathbf{s}, k', b') = 0$, then they coordinate in the rollover crisis equilibrium for a firm.

Characterization. Proposition 1 shows that the *fundamental* state-space (z, n) can be divided in three regions: a safe region \mathcal{S} , an insolvency region \mathcal{L} , and a risky region \mathcal{R} . Firms in the region \mathcal{S} will repay independently of their creditors' coordination. The intuition is that firms with positive internal resources $n \geq 0$ do not need external resources to rollover their debt. On the other extreme, firms in \mathcal{L} will liquidate and exit independently of their creditors' coordination. The intuition is that firms with very weak fundamentals cannot get enough external resources even if creditors were willing to provide credit today. Finally, firms in the intermediate region \mathcal{R} will repay if creditors coordinate in the repayment equilibrium and will liquidate and exit if creditors coordinate in the rollover crisis equilibrium. The intuition for the equilibria multiplicity in this region was explained previously.

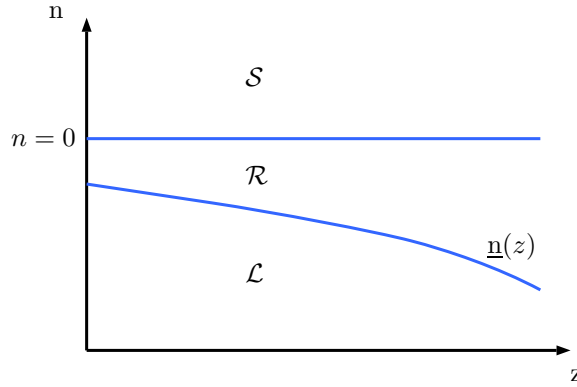
Figure 2 illustrates the regions in the state-space according to Proposition 1. The threshold $\underline{n}(z)$ is weakly decreasing in z if the fundamental debt schedule $\tilde{Q}(z, k', b')$ is weakly increasing in z .

Proposition 1. *Consider the state-space (z, n) then firm's liquidation choice will depend on the region of the state-space (z, n) the firm is allocated:*

1. *safe region \mathcal{S}* : if $n \geq 0$ then $\forall z$ the firm does not liquidate and exit,
2. *liquidation region \mathcal{L}* : if $n < \underline{n}(z)$ then the firm does liquidate and exit,
3. *risky region \mathcal{R}* : if $n \in [\underline{n}(z), 0)$ then the firm equilibrium is undetermined. There is a repayment equilibrium where debt price is positive and a rollover crises equilibrium where the debt price is zero,

where $\underline{n}(z) = -\max_{k', b'} \left\{ -qk' + \tilde{Q}(z, k', b') b' \right\}$. The proof is in Appendix A.3.

Figure 2: Rollover and solvency: regions across (z, n) state-space



Notes: figures shows the state-space (z, n) and the relevant regions for the liquidation choice.

To construct the equilibrium in region \mathcal{R} , I define an *idiosyncratic* and stochastic sunspot variable $\phi \sim [0, 1]$ iid across time and firms that is drawn every period at the beginning of the period. The sunspot variable is the non-fundamental state variable for the firm. I assume that creditors of firms in \mathcal{R} coordinate on the rollover crisis equilibrium whenever $\phi \leq \eta$, where η is a parameter *common* across firms. The parameter η is the probability of a rollover crisis for an exposed firm. The identification and quantification of η is central for the main results of the paper.

The liquidation choice for firms in absence of the restructuring process (i.e., choice in second gray dot in Figure 1 from left to right) is

$$\mathbf{1}_{\{\text{ch7}\}}(z, n, \phi) = \begin{cases} 1 & \text{if } n < \underline{n}(z) \\ 1 & \text{if } n \in [\underline{n}(z), 0) \text{ and } \phi \leq \eta \\ 0 & \text{if } n \in [\underline{n}(z), 0) \text{ and } \phi > \eta \\ 0 & \text{if } n \geq 0 \end{cases}.$$

The characterization of the liquidation choice provides a clear distinction between firms that are liquidated because of solvency issues (those in \mathcal{L}) and rollover crises (those in \mathcal{R} with a coordination failure). Furthermore, I will define as *solvent* firms those in the risky \mathcal{R} and safe \mathcal{S} regions. In Appendix A.1, I characterize the liquidation choice of exiting firms. Finally, since the restructuring choice happens before the liquidation choice (see timing in Figure 1) then to determine what firms are liquidated in equilibrium we also need to characterize which firms enter the restructuring process.

2.4.2 Restructuring Choice

Now I will characterize the restructuring choice of firms and the liquidation choice of firms in equilibrium.

Characterization. When firms choose to enter the restructuring process, firms and creditors bargain a debt recovery rate $\alpha_{11} \in [0, 1]$ of debt b . To participate in the restructuring process, both, creditors and the firm should be better off than in their outside option (i.e., have a positive surplus). I assume that the renegotiation follows a standard Nash Bargaining protocol.

Assumption 1. *The outside option of the debt renegotiation are the payoff for the firm and creditors in absence of the restructuring process.*

Assumption 1 implies that creditors of firms that are solvent without a rollover crisis get fully repaid in the outside option. Moreover, $\alpha_{11} \leq 1$ then creditors are (weakly) better off if they do not participate of the restructuring process and the firm continues. Therefore, solvent firms without a rollover crisis cannot restructure their debt since creditors would not participate of the restructuring process.

Let $V(z, n)$ be the value of a solvent firm without a rollover crisis when making the financing-investment choice (defined in the firm's problem in Section 2.5), then the Nash Bargaining protocol for an insolvent or risky firm in a rollover crisis is

$$\alpha_{11}(z, \omega, b, k) = \max_{\alpha_{11} \in [0, 1]} [V(n_{11}, z) - 0]^{1-\Xi} [b\alpha_{11} - bR(b, k, \omega)]^{\Xi} \quad (7)$$

subject to

$$n_{11} = \pi(z, \omega, k) + (1 - c_{11})(1 - \delta)q\omega k - \alpha_{11}b \geq \underline{n}(z) \quad (8)$$

$$\alpha_{11} \geq R(b, k, \omega). \quad (9)$$

where $\Xi \in (0, 1)$ is the bargaining power of creditors.

Insolvent firms or risky firms are liquidated if they continue without restructuring in a rollover crisis (i.e., outside option is $V = 0$). Equation (8) shows that firms will participate if they are solvent after the restructuring process (i.e., $n_{11} \geq \underline{n}(z)$), equation (9) shows that creditors will participate if they recover more than under liquidation, and (7) shows the objective function of the protocol is a sharing rule of the firms' and creditors' surpluses. For the bargaining process to be feasible we need the maximum recovery rate that the firm is willing to pay to be greater than the minimum creditors are willing to accept, i.e.,

$$\alpha_{11}^{\max}(z, \omega, k, b) > \alpha_{11}^{\min}(\omega, k, b),$$

where

$$\begin{aligned} \alpha_{11}^{\max}(z, \omega, k, b) &\equiv \frac{\pi(z, \omega, k) + (1 - c_{11})(1 - \delta)q\omega k}{b} \\ \alpha_{11}^{\min}(\omega, k, b) &\equiv R(b, k, \omega). \end{aligned}$$

Now I can characterize the restructuring choice of the firm. Denote $\mathbf{s} = (z, \omega, \phi, k, b)$ the idiosyncratic states of the firm, then restructuring choice is

$$\mathbf{1}_{\{\text{ch11}\}}(\mathbf{s}) = \begin{cases} 1 & \text{if } \mathbf{1}_{\{\text{ch7}\}}(z, n, \phi) = 1 \text{ and } \alpha_{11}^{\max}(z, \omega, k, b) > \alpha_{11}^{\min}(\omega, k, b), \\ 0 & \text{otherwise.} \end{cases} \quad (10)$$

Liquidation and Continue in Equilibrium. From this characterization above, it follows that firms that are liquidated in equilibrium are insolvent or risky in a rollover

crisis that cannot restructure their debt, i.e.,

$$\tilde{\mathbf{1}}_{\{\text{ch7}\}}(\mathbf{s}) = \begin{cases} 1 - \mathbf{1}_{\{\text{ch11}\}}(\mathbf{s}) & \text{if } \mathbf{1}_{\{\text{ch7}\}}(z, n, \phi) = 1, \\ 0 & \text{otherwise.} \end{cases} \quad (11)$$

Finally, firms that continue without going through the bankruptcy process (neither liquidation nor restructuring) are in the safe region or in the risky region without rollover crises (solvent without rollover crises), i.e.,

$$\begin{aligned} \mathbf{1}_{\{\text{continue}\}}(\mathbf{s}) &= 1 - \mathbf{1}_{\{\text{ch11}\}}(\mathbf{s}) - \tilde{\mathbf{1}}_{\{\text{ch7}\}}(\mathbf{s}) \\ &= \begin{cases} 1 & \text{if } \mathbf{1}_{\{\text{ch7}\}}(z, n, \phi) = 0, \\ 0 & \text{otherwise.} \end{cases} \end{aligned} \quad (12)$$

Furthermore, firms that receive an exit shock can decide to liquidate or restructure before production. The characterization of the restructuring and liquidation choices of exiting firms — i.e., $\mathbf{1}_{\{\cdot|\text{exit}\}}(\mathbf{s})$ indicator functions — is simple and is relegated to Appendix A.1.

2.5 Firms' Problem

In this section, I describe recursive formulation of the firm's problem. The idiosyncratic states of the firm at the beginning of the period are $\mathbf{s} = (z, \omega, \phi, b, k)$ where the fundamental exogenous states are $\mathbf{s}^f = (z, \omega)$, the non-fundamental exogenous state is $s^n = \phi$, and endogenous states are $\mathbf{s}^e = (b, k)$. Let $V(z, n)$ be the value of a firm that is solvent and not under a rollover crisis when making the investment-financing decision. Notice the problem is the same for firms that went through the restructuring process and are solvent now, or firms that continue, are solvent and not under a rollover crisis.. Moreover, let $\tilde{V}(\mathbf{s})$ be the value of the firm at the beginning of the period without an exit shock and let $V_{\text{exit}}(\mathbf{s})$ be the value of the firm if it received an exit shock. Thus, the investment-financing problem for a solvent firms without rollover crisis today is

$$V(z, n) = \max_{d, k', b'} d + \mathbb{E}_{(z'|\omega'; \phi')} \left[\Lambda \left\{ (1 - \gamma) \tilde{V}(\mathbf{s}') + \gamma V_{\text{exit}}(s) \right\} \right] \quad (13)$$

subject to

$$d = n - qk' + \tilde{Q}(z, b', k') b' \geq 0$$

$$\mathbf{s}' = (z', \omega', \phi', b', k')$$

where the continuation value $\tilde{V}(\mathbf{s})$ and $V_{\text{exit}}(\mathbf{s})$ are defined as

$$\begin{aligned}\tilde{V}(\mathbf{s}) &= \mathbf{1}_{\{\text{ch11}\}}(\mathbf{s}) V(z, n_{11}) + \mathbf{1}_{\{\text{continue}\}}(\mathbf{s}) V(z, n) \\ V_{\text{exit}}(\mathbf{s}) &= \mathbf{1}_{\{\text{ch11}|\text{exit}\}}(\mathbf{s}) n_{11}^{\text{exit}} + \mathbf{1}_{\{\text{continue}|\text{exit}\}}(\mathbf{s}) n\end{aligned}$$

with

$$\begin{aligned}n &= \pi(z, \omega, k) + (1 - \delta) q \omega k - b \\ n_{11} &= \pi(z, \omega, k) + (1 - c_{11}) (1 - \delta) q \omega k - \alpha_{11}(z, \omega, k, b) b \\ n_{11}^{\text{exit}} &= \pi(z, \omega, k) + (1 - c_{11}) (1 - \delta) q \omega k - \alpha_{11}^{\text{exit}}(z, \omega, k, b) b,\end{aligned}$$

where $\tilde{Q}(z, b', k')$ fundamental debt price is defined in Section 2.3, $\mathbf{1}_{\{\cdot\}}(\mathbf{s})$ indicator functions are described in Section 2.4 and $\mathbf{1}_{\{\cdot|\text{exit}\}}(\mathbf{s})$ are described in Appendix A.1, $\alpha_{11}(z, \omega, k, b)$ solves problem (7) which determines firm's cash-on-hand n_{11} when restructuring, and recovery rate $\alpha_{11}^{\text{exit}}(z, \omega, k, b)$ solves problem (22) described in Appendix A.1 and determines exiting firm's cash-on-hand n_{11}^{exit} . Investment-financing policy functions $\{b'(z, n), k'(z, n)\}$ solve problem (13).

2.6 Capital Producers and Households

To close the model, I describe the problem of the representative capital producer that sells capital to firms, and the representative household that owns all firms, works, consumes the final good, and saves.

2.6.1 Capital Producers.

There is a representative aggregate capital producer that solves

$$\max_I q \Phi\left(\frac{I}{K}\right) - I$$

where I is the amount of final goods used to produce capital, K is the aggregate capital stock, and $\Phi(\cdot)$ is the aggregate capital adjustment cost function. The first order condition

of the problem is such that

$$q = \frac{1}{\Phi' \left(\frac{I}{K} \right)} \quad (14)$$

where q is the price of capital. The time-varying price of capital q changes the recovery rate $\mathcal{R}(\cdot)$ which impacts debt prices, then maps to the financial accelerator mechanism (Bernanke, Gertler and Gilchrist, 1999) in the transitions after the shock. I assume a standard functional form such that $\Phi' \left(\frac{I}{K} \right) = \left[\frac{I/K}{\hat{I}} \right]^{-\psi}$ where \hat{I} is the steady-state investment to capital ratio.

2.6.2 Households.

There is a unit mass of identical households that consume C and make labor decision L taking wages w and risk-free interest rate r as given. Households own all the firms in the economy. Then households determine the stochastic discount factor Λ , the Euler equation holds, and the optimal labor-leisure choice is determined by the marginal rate of substitution, i.e.,

$$\Lambda' = \beta \frac{U_C(C', L')}{U_C(C, L)} \quad (15)$$

$$1 = E \left[\beta \frac{U_C(C', L')}{U_C(C, L)} (1 + r) \right] \quad (16)$$

$$w = - \frac{U_L(C, L)}{U_C(C, L)} \quad (17)$$

with utility function $U(C, L) = \ln C - \Phi L$.

2.7 Equilibrium

Now I define the equilibrium of the model. I focus on a steady state definition, the definition of the equilibrium during transitions follows in a straightforward manner from this. First, I describe the law of motion of the distribution of firms and, second, I define the steady state equilibrium.

Law of motion of the distribution of firms. Let Ω be the distribution of producing firms that has a mass of 1, $\tilde{\Omega}$ the distribution of incumbent firms at the beginning of the period, g and \hat{g} the pdf of ω and ϕ respectively, p the conditional pdf of the productivity shocks ϵ_z , and Ω^e the distribution z of entrant firms. The distribution of firms that

produce is determined by

$$\begin{aligned}
\Omega(z, n) = & (1 - \gamma) \int [\mathbf{1}_{\{\text{ch11}\}}(\mathbf{s}) \mathbf{1}_{\{z, n_{11}(z, \omega, k, b) = n\}} + \mathbf{1}_{\{\text{cont}\}}(\mathbf{s}) \mathbf{1}_{\{z, n(z, \omega, k, b) = n\}}] d\tilde{\Omega}(\mathbf{s}) \\
& + \gamma \int_z [\mathbf{1}_{\{\text{ch11}|\text{exit}\}}(\mathbf{s}) \mathbf{1}_{\{z, n_{11}^{\text{exit}}(z, \omega, k, b) = n\}} + \mathbf{1}_{\{\text{cont}|\text{exit}\}}(\mathbf{s}) \mathbf{1}_{\{z, n(z, \omega, k, b) = n\}}] d\tilde{\Omega}(\mathbf{s}) \\
& + \bar{\mu} (1 - \gamma) \int_z [\mathbf{1}_{\{\text{ch11}\}}(\mathbf{s}) \mathbf{1}_{\{z, n_{11}(z, \omega, k_0, 0) = n\}} \\
& + \mathbf{1}_{\{\text{cont}\}}(\mathbf{s}) \mathbf{1}_{\{z, n(z, \omega, k_0, 0) = n\}}] \hat{g}(\phi) g(\omega) d\phi d\omega d\Omega^e(z) \\
& + \bar{\mu} \gamma \int_z [\mathbf{1}_{\{\text{ch11}|\text{exit}\}}(\mathbf{s}) \mathbf{1}_{\{z, n_{11}^{\text{exit}}(z, \omega, k_0, 0) = n\}} \\
& + \mathbf{1}_{\{\text{cont}|\text{exit}\}}(\mathbf{s}) \mathbf{1}_{\{z, n(z, \omega, k_0, 0) = n\}}] \hat{g}(\phi) g(\omega) d\phi d\omega d\Omega^e(z). \tag{18}
\end{aligned}$$

The distribution of incumbent firms $\tilde{\Omega}(z, \omega, k, b, \phi)$ at the beginning of the period evolves according to

$$\tilde{\Omega}(\mathbf{s}') = \int \mathbf{1}_{\{k'(z, n) = k'\}} \mathbf{1}_{\{b'(z, n) = b'\}} \hat{g}(\phi') g(\omega') p(\epsilon_z | \rho_z z + \epsilon_z = z') d\epsilon_z d\Omega(z, n). \tag{19}$$

Equilibrium definition. *Steady-state equilibrium* in this economy is defined as a set of value functions $\{V(z, n), \tilde{V}(s)\}$, firm's decision rules of capital purchases and new debt issuance $\{b'(z, n), k'(z, n)\}$, bankruptcy decisions for firms without the exit shock $\{\mathbf{1}_{\{\text{ch11}\}}(\mathbf{s}), \mathbf{1}_{\{\text{ch7}\}}(\mathbf{s})\}$ and with the exit shock $\{\mathbf{1}_{\{\text{ch11}|\text{exit}\}}(\mathbf{s}), \mathbf{1}_{\{\text{ch7}|\text{exit}\}}(\mathbf{s})\}$, aggregates $\{Y, C, I\}$, corporate debt price schedule $Q(\mathbf{s}, b', k')$, fundamental corporate debt price schedule $\tilde{Q}(z, k', b')$, interest rate r , prices $\{q, w\}$, distributions $\Omega(\mathbf{s})$ and $\tilde{\Omega}(\mathbf{s})$, and debt haircuts $\{\alpha_{11}(z, \omega, b, k)\}$ in the restructuring process such that:

1. Households choices are determined by (15), (16) and (17).
2. The price of capital is determined by the solution to (14).
3. The debt price satisfy (5) and fundamental price \tilde{Q} is implicit in $Q(\mathbf{s}, b', k') = [1 - \mathbf{1}_{\{\text{ch7}\}}(\mathbf{s})] \tilde{Q}(z, b', k')$.
4. Given prices, firm's decision rules solve the firm problem for firms that produce (13), continuing bankruptcy decisions are consistent with (10) (11) (12) and exiting firms bankruptcy decisions are consistent with equations (21) (23) in Appendix A.1, and the recovery rates are solved by negotiation protocols (7) (22).

5. Markets clear: investment is implicitly determined by the law of motion

$$K' = \Phi(I/K) K + (1 - \delta) K - (k_0 - (1 - \delta) \mathbb{E}[\omega] k_0) \bar{\mu}$$

with $K = \int k d\tilde{\Omega}(s)$ and aggregate resource constraint is

$$C = Y - I - \mu_{11}$$

where μ_{11} is the aggregate cost of firms filing to Chapter 11.

6. The distribution of firms that produce $\Omega(z, n)$ and before bankruptcy $\tilde{\Omega}(s)$ satisfy (18) and (19).

In steady state the distribution's law of motions is a fixed point, and the households stochastic discount factor is $\Lambda = \beta = \frac{1}{1+r}$ and capital prices are $q = 1$.

2.8 Discussion of Assumptions

Now I provide a brief discussion of key assumptions of the theory.

In the model, I assume firms borrow from several creditors (i.e., atomistic creditors) and use short-term financing. In Appendix B.3, I show that, in the data, firms tend to borrow from several creditors, especially large corporate firms. Bankruptcy data from the Federal Judicial Center's (FJC) Integrated Database shows that 85% of firms with assets over \$50 million (which, for example, represent more than 90% of total sales in the manufacturing sector) have more than a hundred creditors and two thirds of them have over a thousand creditors. Furthermore, it is well documented that corporate firms' financial debt is mostly composed of corporate debt (rather than bank loans). Thus, corporate firms' liabilities tend to have a dispersed ownership, which could exacerbate coordination problems among creditors. Moreover, in Appendix B.3, I show that an average firm in Compustat has large fractions of its debt maturing in the short term. On average, around one third of the financial debt matures in less than 1 year and more than half of liabilities are due in less than 1 year. For quantitative purposes, I will abstract from long-term debt financing and match moments using liabilities that mature in the short term in the calibration in Section 3.1.

Furthermore, I do not allow firms to manage their liability structure (e.g., extend matu-

rity or concentrate creditors). In Appendix C.2, I show that, for the baseline calibration, ex-ante costs of firm rollover risk are negligible for most firms and, when comparing to reasonable costs of managing their liabilities in the literature, most firms would not modify their liability structure (in steady state) even if allowed. Finally, in Appendix C.4, I characterize the liquidation choice and the conditions for equilibrium multiplicity in various extensions of the model (with long-term debt, costly equity issuance, etc.), and find that qualitative results are unaffected.

Another key assumption of the model is that firms in the restructuring process benefit from the removal of coordination failures (i.e., $Q = \tilde{Q}$) during the restructuring process. This captures various provisions of the Chapter 11 process aimed at resolving coordination issues among creditors. Ayotte and Skeel (2013) observed that “the dominant normative theory of bankruptcy” (see for example, Jackson (1986)) states that the sole purpose of bankruptcy provisions is to solve “coordination problems caused by multiple creditors.” In this spirit, the restructuring process chapter (Chapter 11) of the U.S. bankruptcy, for example, temporarily prevents creditors from individually collecting their debt (Automatic Stay provision, 11 U.S. Code § 362), allows firms to issue new debt and continue operating (usually known as Debtor-In-Possession (DIP) financing) and arranges official and ad-hoc committees of creditors.

3 Identifying Firms’ Rollover Crises

The incidence of rollover crises depends on how many firms are exposed to them (i.e., share of firms in region \mathcal{R}) and the likelihood that exposed firms are subject to a rollover crises (i.e., value of η). I cannot observe directly how many firms are exposed, nor the probability they may have a rollover crisis, so I use a model-based identification strategy to infer them indirectly. In this section, I describe the identification strategy and estimate the incidence of rollover crises. Finally, I validate the model using firm-level observed bankruptcy predictors and investment dynamics in last recessions.

Identification strategy. To estimate the incidence of rollover crises, first, I fix a set of parameters to standard values in the literature and calibrate the parameters unrelated to the bankruptcy process to fit several moments of the U.S. economy. Next, I infer the value of η , and other bankruptcy parameters, using bankrupt firms’ characteristics and

firms' bankruptcy choice distribution. Finally, using the steady-state distribution of firms I determine how many firms are exposed. I find that 1.6% of the firms are subject to coordination failures each period, whereas 21% of them are exposed, and the conditional probability is 7%. Roughly half of the bankruptcy events are due to rollover crises.

3.1 Standard Calibration

Now, I focus on parameters and moments unrelated to the bankruptcy process. The standard calibration consists of 9 fixed parameters and 4 fitted parameters. To evaluate the empirical fitness of the model I contrast the moments in the model to a wide range of moments (16) in the data. The calibration is done at a quarterly frequency. I use national accounts data from NIPA, firms' balance sheet micro data from Compustat, firms' life-cycle data from the Longitudinal Business Database (LBD), and moments computed in other papers. Further details on the data sources, samples and definitions are included in Appendix B.

Table 1: Standard calibration

Parameter	Value	Calibration
<i>a. fixed</i>		
$\beta = 1/(1 + r)$	0.99	fixed to $r = 0.05$ annual
Φ	1.16	fixed to match 58% emp rate
ν	0.64	fixed labor share
α	0.21	fixed capital share
δ	0.025	fixed to match BEA quarterly data
ρ_z	0.90	fixed
b_0	0	fixed
γ	0.02	fixed to 10% annual firm exit rate
ψ	1/4	fixed to standard values in literature
<i>b. fitted</i>		
σ_z	0.032	internally calibrated
$\underline{\omega}$	-0.33	internally calibrated
k_0	0.16	internally calibrated
m	-0.24	internally calibrated

Fixed parameters. Panel (a) in Table 1 shows the value of fixed parameters. The subjective discount rate $\beta = 0.99$ is set to fit an annual real interest rate of 5%. The labor disutility parameter $\Phi = 1.16$ is set to match an employment rate of 58%. The

parameters of the production function scale of production $\nu = 0.21$; $\alpha = 0.64$ are set to fit the labor and the capital share, respectively; and the capital depreciation rate of $\delta = 0.025$ is set to match estimates from BEA. Following [Ottonello and Winberry \(2020\)](#), I fix the persistence of the idiosyncratic productivity process to $\rho = 0.9$. Further, I fix the initial inherited debt to $b_0 = 0$ and exogenous exit rate to $\gamma = 0.02$ to fit the annual exit rate of 10%. Finally, I fix the aggregate capital adjustment cost parameter $\psi = 1/4$ to a standard value in the literature.

Table 2: Standard calibration's moments

Moment	Data	Model	Data source
<i>Aggregates</i>			
K/Y	3.00	2.59	NIPA
I/Y	0.17	0.15	NIPA
gross debt: $\mathbb{E}[\mathbf{1}_{b>0}b]/Y$	1.05	1.83	NIPA and Flow of Funds
<i>Credit spreads</i>			
default rate: $\mathbb{E}[\mathbf{\tilde{1}}_{\{\text{Ch7}\}} + \mathbf{1}_{\{\text{Ch11}\}}]$	0.03	0.03	Annual rate from Dun and Bradstreet
cred spread: $\mathbb{E}[r^Q - r]$	2.2%	0.7%	Moody's BAA corporate bonds
<i>Investment heterogeneity</i>			
average investment rate: $\mathbb{E}[i/k]$	0.12	0.20	Cooper and Haltiwanger (2006)
SD investment rate: $\text{SD}[i/k]$	0.34	0.36	Cooper and Haltiwanger (2006)
<i>Life-cycle</i>			
share of firms that exit	0.10	0.11	LBD
share of labor at age 1	0.03	0.04	LBD
share of firms at age 1	0.10	0.11	LBD
share of firms at age 2	0.08	0.09	LBD
<i>Balance sheet</i>			
average leverage: $\mathbb{E}[\mathbf{1}_{b>0}b'/k']$	0.39	0.72	Compustat
correlation between n and k'	0.74	0.23	Compustat
fraction of firms with $\frac{n}{k'} < 0$	0.21	0.18	Compustat
fraction of firms with $\frac{n}{k'} \in [0, 1]$	0.65	0.77	Compustat
fraction of firms with $\frac{n}{k'} > 1$	0.15	0.05	Compustat

Fitted parameters and moments. Panel (b) in Table 1 shows the value of fitted parameters unrelated to the bankruptcy process. The fitted parameters are the volatility of idiosyncratic productivity shocks σ_z , the lower bound of the truncated normal process of capital quality shocks (in logs) $\underline{\omega}$, initial capital level k_0 , and the relative scale of the initial productivity draw m which are set to fit 16 empirical moments. The moments are related to aggregates, firms' credit spreads and default rates, investment heterogeneity,

life-cycle of firms, and balance sheet moments.

Table 2 shows the moments targeted in the calibration. The model fits fairly well the life-cycle of firms (exit rate and share of labor and firms at the early stages), and investment rates heterogeneity (average and standard deviation) moments. These moments are from the LBD and Cooper and Haltiwanger (2006). Further, it fits the annual default rate of 3% — from Dun and Bradstreet — which includes defaults by liquidation (Chapter 7 liquidation and Chapter 11 piecemeal liquidation) and restructuring (Chapter 11 restructure). On the other hand, in the model steady-state equilibrium the average annual credit spread is 0.7%, which is lower than in the data (2.2%). This discrepancy can be explained by the absence of aggregate risk in the model.

Also, the model fits well the distribution of cash-on-hand n/k' — shares of firms with negative values, between 0 and 1, and greater than 1 — which are particularly relevant moments to estimate the relevance of rollover crises. Cash-on-hand n is measured using data from Compustat. There is no data on non-Compustat firms; thus, I extrapolate the rest of the cash-on-hand distribution. Finally, the model shows lower correlation between cash-on-hand and capital, and larger average and aggregate leverage than in the data. Leverage is measured as short-term liabilities to capital. Further details of the measurement can be found in Appendix B.

3.2 Identification and Incidence of Rollover Crises

In this section, I show how I identify the likelihood of coordination failures that lead to rollover crises and what the share of firms exposed to them is. Neither the parameter η , nor threshold function $\underline{n}(z)$ that defines the regions in the state space are directly observable, thus I will infer them indirectly using observed firms' bankruptcy choices, bankrupt firms' characteristics and the financial distribution of firms.¹⁰

Qualitative identification. Now, I will show a simple qualitative result in a simplified version of the model that provides intuition about the identification in the quantitative model.

¹⁰A salient and related example of the indirect inference of rollover crises is Bocola and DAVIS (2019) who infer indirectly the rollover risk faced by the government through the time series of observed debt maturity choices. In this paper I use the cross-section of bankruptcy choices to infer the relevance of firms' rollover crises.

Proposition 2. *Assume that in the restructuring process the debt haircut is α_{11} fixed and bankruptcy costs are a fixed cost $c_{11} \in (0, -\underline{n}(z_{max}))$ with z_{max} the highest productivity firm in the economy. Then for a given distribution of firms*

1. *if $\alpha_{11} \rightarrow 1$ then firms that are insolvent do not restructure their debt,*
2. *if $\alpha_{11} \rightarrow 1$ then the share of firms that restructure their debt (i.e., $(z, n) \in \mathcal{R}$ with $n_{11} \geq n$) identifies η ,*
3. *if $\alpha_7 < \alpha_{11} < 1$ then firms with higher debt require a smaller c_{11} to restructure.*

The proof is in Appendix A.4.

Proposition 2 shows that η can be identified whenever debt haircuts are low in the restructuring process, and suggests the identification is stronger if cost c_{11} is larger (since less leveraged firms restructure). The intuition is that whenever the haircuts are low or close to 0, and cost $c_{11} > 0$, then there are low benefits for insolvent firms to restructure the debt. On the other hand, firms that have a rollover crisis benefit from filing — and preventing liquidation through a rollover crisis — even if the debt haircut gains are low and the process costly. In the extreme cases in points 1 and 2, I find that only firms in a rollover crisis restructure, then the identification is trivial given c_{11} . To find η we only need to divide the observed share of firms that restructure by the share of firms in the risky region that *would be* solvent when they restructure, which is straightforward to compute given c_{11} .

In an intermediate case, where haircuts are not negligible, such as the one in point 3, I show that firms with higher leverage (which are more likely to be insolvent) require lower c_{11} to restructure, which suggests that with a large c_{11} few firms with high debt will restructure even if the haircut is non-negligible. Then, if cost c_{11} is large, I conjecture that we can approximate η in way similar to the second point. Point 3 also suggests that a relevant moment to identify c_{11} (given the rest of parameters) is the leverage of the firms in the restructuring process.

Overall, Proposition 2 suggests that large bankruptcy costs and low debt haircuts dissuade insolvent firms from restructuring; thus, observed firms' bankruptcy choice between restructuring and liquidation can identify probability η .

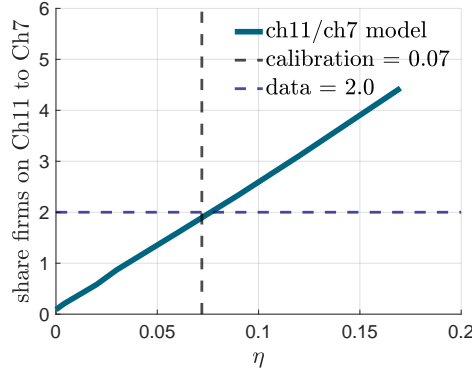
Quantitative identification. I follow two steps to quantify η using the model and data. First, I fit use observed bankrupt firms' characteristics and bankruptcy outcomes to infer the parameters related to the bankruptcy procedure and, then, I infer η from the observed bankruptcy choices of firms.¹¹

Table 3: Identifying the likelihood of rollover crises

(a) Parameters and targeted moments of bankruptcy process

Parameters	Value	Moment targeted	Data	Model	Data source
α_7	0.38	$\mathbb{E}[R(b, k, \omega)]$	0.27	0.29	Acharya, Bharath and Srinivasan (2007)
$\tilde{\Xi}$	0.89	$\mathbb{E}[\alpha_{11}]$	0.69	0.79	Acharya <i>et al.</i> (2007)
c_{11}	0.40	$\mathbb{E}[b'/k' \mid \text{Ch 11}]$	0.73	0.67	Antill (2021)
η	0.07	$\mathbb{E}[1_{\text{Ch11}}]/\mathbb{E}[1_{\text{Ch7}}]$	2.0	1.9	Antill (2021)

(b) Rollover crises likelihood and restructuring vs liquidation choice



Notes: Panel (a) shows the parameters and moments of the bankruptcy process in the baseline calibration. Panel (b) figure shows the relation between η and the share of firms in Chapter 11 relative to Chapter 7, i.e., $\mathbb{E}[1_{\text{Ch11}}]/\mathbb{E}[1_{\text{Ch7}}]$, in the model.

First, I want to identify the parameters $(\alpha_7, \tilde{\Xi}, c_{11})$ of the bankruptcy process using moments related to the bankruptcy procedure and bankrupt firms' characteristics. Table 3 panel (a) shows the value of the bankruptcy parameters, and targeted moments in the data and model. The capital recovery rate of creditors during liquidation $\alpha_7 = 0.29$ is set to match the debt recovery rate $\mathbb{E}[R(b, k, \omega)] = 0.27$ in Chapter 7 liquidations reported by [Acharya *et al.* \(2007\)](#). *Approximate* bargaining power of creditors $\tilde{\Xi} = 0.89$ is set to match the debt recovery rate $\mathbb{E}[\alpha_{11}] = 0.69$ in Chapter 11 restructuring, reported by

¹¹For exposition purposes, I explain sequentially the identification of η , but, technically, the problem solves a fixed point given that η could also shift other moments.

Acharya *et al.* (2007).¹² The parameter that represents the costs of the Chapter 11 process $c_{11} = 0.40$ and is set to fit the leverage of firms under Chapter 11 $\mathbb{E}[b'/k' \mid \text{Ch 11}] = 0.73$, reported by Antill (2021).

Next, I want to infer η . The data on recovery rates and leverage of Chapter 11 firms suggest that restructuring the debt is costly and haircuts are relatively low. Therefore, *relatively few* insolvent firms decide to restructure their debt, since gains from renegotiation are low (recall Proposition 2). In the model, the distribution of firms is shifting with η . The share of restructuring firms drops if η increases because firms in the long run are able to stay far from the risky region. To solve for this, I use the share of firms that restructure relative to those that liquidate.¹³ Consistent with previous observations, in the quantitative model, panel (b) in Table 3 shows that the higher η the larger is the share of firms that restructure relative to those that liquidate in steady state, which provides the identification of η .

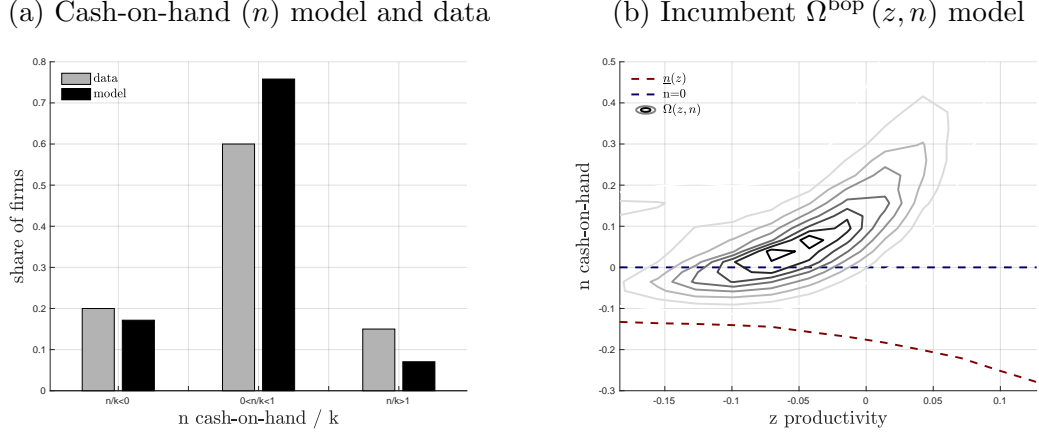
To approximate better the incidence of liquidation and restructuring in the data, I use the summary statistics provided by Antill (2021). Using Chapter 11 outcomes from the Moody's Ultimate Recovery database Antill (2021) identifies how many Chapter 11 cases end in acquisition, piecemeal and full liquidations. When considering this, the ratio of firms that restructure to those that liquidate is 2. Matching the model to the data, [see figure in Table 3 panel (b)], I find $\eta = 0.07$. Furthermore, in the calibration, less than 10% of firms that restructure their debt are insolvent firms, which is consistent with Proposition 2.

To validate the results of the quantitative model, in Section 3.3 and Appendix C.3, I show that the model fits untargeted moments related to bankruptcy predictors and characteristics of firms and investment dynamics in the data.

¹²For computational efficiency, I use a convex-pricing function to approximate the bargaining outcome. Details are included in Appendix A.2.

¹³Although I do not prove this analytically, my numerical exercises suggest the distribution of firms that are insolvent and risky shift roughly proportional with η .

Figure 3: Observed and model's distribution of firms



Notes: Panel (a) compares the distribution of cash-on-hand in the model and the data. Panel (b) shows the contour plot (darker line = higher mass) of the distribution of incumbent firms at the beginning of the period (bop), which do not receive the exit shock across productivity z (x-axis) and cash-on-hand n (y-axis), i.e., $\Omega^{\text{bop}}(z, n) = (1 - \gamma) \int \mathbf{1}_{\{z, n(z, \omega, k, b) = n\}} d\tilde{\Omega}(s)$. The dashed red line is the $\underline{n}(z)$ threshold and the dashed blue line is the $n = 0$ threshold.

Incidence of rollover crises. Given the value of η , it is straightforward to calculate how many firms are subject to rollover crises. First, I compute the distribution of firms at the beginning of the period across productivity z and cash-on-hand n — i.e., $\Omega^{\text{bop}}(z, n) = (1 - \gamma) \int \mathbf{1}_{\{z, n(z, \omega, k, b) = n\}} d\tilde{\Omega}(s)$ — then I estimate the number of firms exposed to rollover crises by computing the share of firms in risky region \mathcal{R} — i.e., $\int_{(z, n) \in \mathcal{R}} d\Omega^{\text{bop}}(z, n)$ — and, finally, I multiply this share by the conditional probability of rollover failure η to estimate the incidence of rollover crises. Figure C.3 shows the financial distribution of firms in the model and data. I find that around 20% of firms are in the risky region and with $\eta = 0.07$ probability of a coordination failure, then 1.6% of firms are subject to rollover crises each period.¹⁴ To illustrate how large is the incidence of rollover crises for firms is, I calculate that roughly half of bankrupt firms (in restructuring and liquidation process) had a rollover crisis.

Result 1. *Roughly half of bankruptcy events (liquidations and restructures) are driven by rollover crises. The quantitative model infers that 1.6% of the firms are exposed to rollover crises, where 20% are exposed and the probability of a rollover crisis is 7%.*

¹⁴Notice that this number includes firms that may not be liquidated because they enter the restructuring process.

3.3 Model Validation

As a validation exercise, I assess the model’s ability to reproduce (untargeted) patterns in the data regarding bankruptcy events and investment dynamics.

3.3.1 Bankruptcy Predictors

In the first exercise, I study how firms’ characteristics predict a restructuring event in the data and the model. I use firm-level data from Compustat. To identify in the data which firms operate and are in the restructuring process, I follow the identification criteria by [Corbae and D’Erasmus \(2021\)](#). Further details of the data are in [Appendix B](#).

To study how firms’ characteristics predict a restructuring event, I make the following regression estimation in the data and model

$$\mathbf{1}_{i,t}^{\text{ch11}} = \beta X_{i,t-1} + \alpha_t + \alpha_i + \alpha_s + \epsilon_{i,t},$$

where $\mathbf{1}_{i,t}^{\text{ch11}}$ indicates if the firm i in period t is in Chapter 11 and operating (restructuring rather than liquidate), α_i are firm FE, α_s sector FE, α_t time fixed effects and $X_{i,t-1}$ is a vector of characteristics (predictors) of interest lagged one period. In my baseline specification I include in $X_{i,t}$ the size of the firm (assets in logs), real quarterly growth of sales, the cash-on-hand and leverage positions. I standardize all variables in $X_{i,t-1}$ and winsorize the cash-on-hand n/k' and leverage b'/k' at level 0.5% and 99.5%.

[Table 4](#) shows the results. For all specifications the coefficients in the model and data have the same sign. In the full specification (3) I find that lower sales growth, smaller size, low cash-on-hand and, surprisingly, low leverage predicts a higher restructuring likelihood the next period. Furthermore, the magnitudes are similar in the model and data. The relation between leverage and bankruptcy is reverted once we exclude cash-on-hand from the specification (as in (2)). One potential explanation for this counter-intuitive relation is that firms suffering from rollover crises for a given current financial position — summarized by n — are more likely to restructure if they are in a better shape once they pay the bankruptcy cost (less leverage).

Table 4: Predictors of Chapter 11 - data and model

	dependent variable: $\mathbf{1}_{i,t}^{\text{ch11}}$					
	(1)		(2)		(3)	
	data	model	data	model	data	model
$n_{i,t-1}/k_{i,t}$	-0.39 (0.03)	-0.05			-0.39 (0.10)	-0.45
$b_{i,t}/k_{i,t}$			0.11 (0.04)	0.03	-0.29 (0.09)	-0.41
$\log(k_{i,t-1})$	-0.50 (0.12)	-0.06	-0.52 (0.12)	-0.06	-0.49 (0.12)	-0.10
$d \log(\text{sales}_{i,t-1})$	-0.04 (0.00)	-0.03	-0.04 (0.00)	-0.02	-0.04 (0.00)	-0.01
Sector FE	Y		Y		Y	
Firm FE	Y	Y	Y	Y	Y	Y
Year FE	Y		Y		Y	
Observations	370,973		373,362		370,973	

Notes: This table shows the baseline results of the regression using bankruptcy outcomes in the data and the model simulations. All variables are standardized, and leverage and cash-on-hand are also winsorized at level 0.5% and 99.5% and demeaned relative to the sector's average. Standard errors (in parenthesis) are clustered by firm. Coefficients are times 100.

Data source: Compustat quarterly.

Furthermore, in Appendix C.3, I show that the model also matches the leverage distribution of firms *when* they are operating under the restructuring process.

3.3.2 Investment Heterogeneity in Recessions

Now I assess the model's ability to reproduce the observed investment decision in the cross section during large recessions. In the model, I simulate a panel of firms during a large recession. A large recession in the model can be driven by a sudden drop in aggregate TFP, drop in firms' cash-on-hand or a lower recovery rate for creditors in liquidation (credit shock). Further details of the recession shocks are included in Appendix A.5.

Using an empirical specification similar to Kalemli-Özcan *et al.* (2020), I study the investment dynamics in the simulated data and empirical data of last recessions (Great Recession and Covid crisis). To estimate the *on impact* heterogeneous response — both in the model and the data — from peak-to-trough of recessions, I will proceed as follows.

First, to account for permanent sectoral heterogeneity I will demean each of the firm-quarter observations of cash-on-hand over capital n_{it}/k_{it} for firm i in period t of interest by its sectoral average, i.e. $\hat{n}_{it} = n_{it}/k_{it} - \mathbb{E}_s[n_{it}/k_{it}]$ for firm i in sector s . Next, I will assign each firm-quarter observation of \hat{n} to each tercile (for each period's distribution). Lastly, I run the following panel regression episode analysis to estimate the heterogeneous responses of investment across cash-on-hand n/k during the recession:

$$\Delta \log(k_{it}) = \underbrace{\sum_{j=1}^J \beta_j^n (Q_{it}^{nj} \times \text{crisis}_t)}_{\text{heterogeneity across } n/k} + \underbrace{\Lambda' Z_{it}}_{\text{controls}} + \varepsilon_{it}, \quad (20)$$

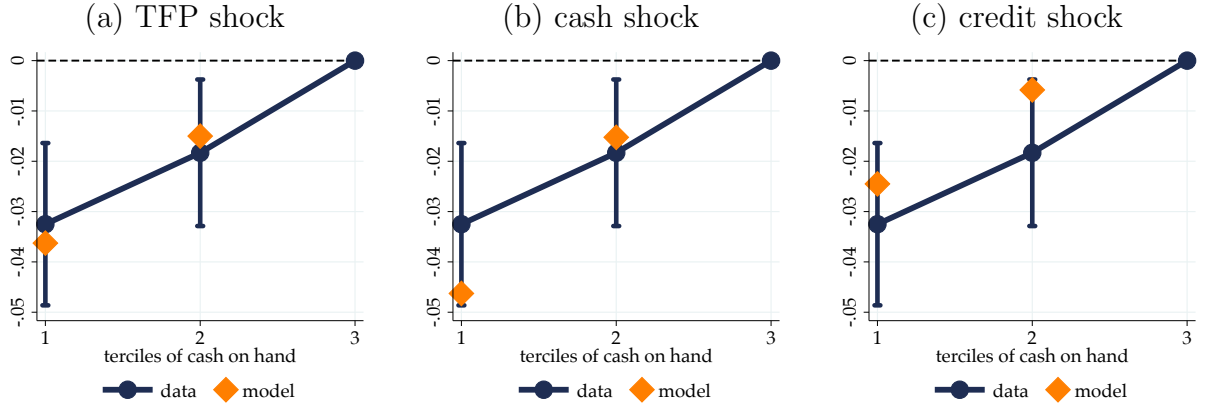
where Q_{it}^{nj} indicates if \hat{n}_{it} belongs to tercile j , $\Delta \log(k_{it}) = \log(k_{it+h}) - \log(k_{it})$ is firm's i capital accumulation over a period equivalent to the recession episode studied (i.e., the extension from peak-to-trough of episode studied h), crisis_t indicates if a recession happens during the period considered (from t to $t+h$) and $Z_{i,t}$ includes the control variables. For baseline specifications controls, I include firm's fixed effects, sectoral fixed effects, log assets as proxy for size, last quarter sales growth and heterogeneity across firm's leverage.

Coefficients β_j^n are the estimates of interest and can be interpreted as difference-in-difference estimates of the recession episode impact on capital accumulation for firms in tercile j of \hat{n} . The results are normalized relative to the group with the highest cash-on-hand. In the empirical application I use data from Compustat (limited to publicly traded firms) and in the model I select firms that approximate this set of firms. Further details of the data, estimates and other results are in Appendix B.

Figure 4 shows the results across cash-on-hand n/k . In all plots, the blue connected line corresponds to the data estimates and the diamond dots indicate the estimates of the model-simulated data. The heterogeneity of investment responses across cash-on-hand is similar in the data and model, surprisingly, for different types of shocks in both episodes. For firms in the lowest group of cash-on-hand we observe that the drop in investment (differences in capital accumulation) is 3.5 percentage points greater compared to firms with high levels of cash-on-hand.¹⁵ These results show that the model performs well matching the heterogeneity of investment in crises (which is not targeted).

¹⁵Further, in Appendix B, I show the empirical results across leverage levels and for individual episodes.

Figure 4: Investment heterogeneity during recessions: β_j^n



Notes: Panel (a), (b) and (c) show the estimates of β_j^n for the Great Recession and Covid Crisis average, for the data and different aggregate shocks simulated in the model. The blue connected line shows the data and the 90% confidence interval. The diamond dots show the estimates from the model's simulated panel data. Since I focus on the heterogeneity, the coefficient values are relative to the tercile of firms with the highest cash-on-hand. All estimates (in model and data) are from empirical specification (20). Estimates are in semester frequency to make them comparable across episodes.

4 Macroeconomic Implications

In this section, I study the relation of firms' rollover crises and macroeconomic dynamics during large recessions.¹⁶ I simulate a prototypical large recession episode — i.e., a recession driven by a large aggregate shock — and assess the role of rollover crises by comparing its macroeconomic dynamics with the macro dynamics of a counterfactual large recession without rollover crises. I find that rollover crises can significantly amplify aggregate output losses during a recession.

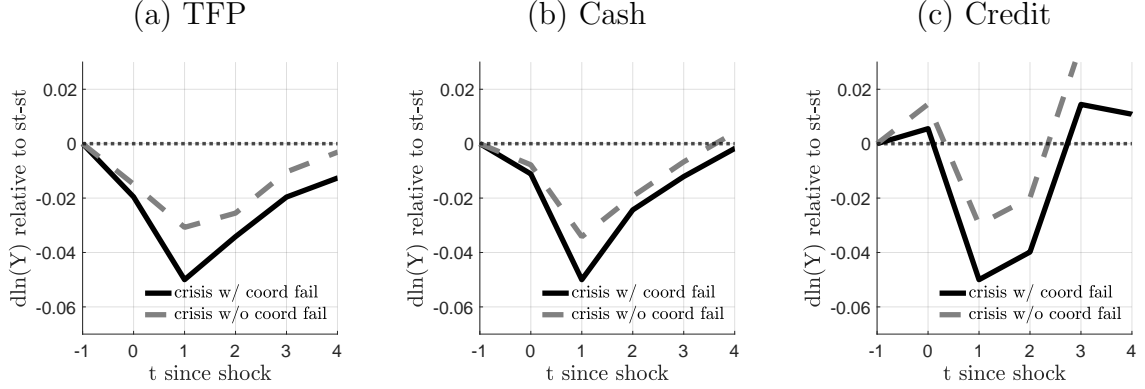
Recessions and rollover crises. To assess the role of rollover risk in recessions I simulate a prototypical large recessions episode — large and unexpected shock — driven by different types of shocks and perform a counterfactual where coordination failures do not happen during the recession episode. The three analyzed types of recession shocks are: (i) aggregate TFP shock; (ii) sudden reduction in firm's cash; (iii) a decrease in liquidation recovery rate α_7 (credit shock).¹⁷ Shocks happen unexpectedly, they return to

¹⁶In Appendix C.1, I show that firms' rollover risk has negligible consequences over macroeconomic outcomes over the long run. This happens because firms accumulate internal resources to stay far from the risky region and in equilibrium they improve their financial position, reducing the overall impact of rollover crises on aggregate outcomes.

¹⁷Notice the credit shock in this model is a reduction in the collateral value when liquidated, which is different from a credit shock in Khan *et al.* (2020). Their credit shock is closer to the cash shock in this

the initial steady state in the long run and there is a perfect foresight of their path. All shocks match a peak-to-trough drop of aggregate output Y of 5%, and have a transitory nature, i.e., persistence of the shocks is set to 0.5. Shocks happen at $t = 0$, where the economy was in steady state during the previous period. Further details of the definition of shocks and the computation of transitions are in Appendix A.5.

Figure 5: Recession Shock and Aggregate Output



Notes: Panels (a), (b) and (c) show the response of aggregate output Y to an aggregate TFP shock, cash shock and credit shock with coordination failures and without coordination failures (for $t=0$ and $t=1$), respectively. The economy at $t = -1$ is in steady state. The definition of the shocks are in the text and in Appendix A.5.

Figure 5 shows the response of aggregate output Y to different types of aggregate shocks with coordination failures (black line) and without them (gray dashed line). In all panels the absence of firm rollover crises —i.e., no extra rollover crises at $t = 0, 1$ — significantly reduces the depth of the trough in the crises. The counterfactual exercises indicate that rollover crises during recessions can explain from 10% to 30% of total output losses.¹⁸

Although the relevance of rollover risk is similar across shocks, on impact, the dynamics are different. In Appendix A.6, I show the dynamics of firm (net) exit, debt and capital accumulation during large recessions. Weaker fundamentals — due to a TFP or a cash shock — expose (temporarily) several solvent firms to rollover crises, which increases exit of healthy firms during the recession. Further, new firms entering the economy are smaller and take time to grow. Therefore, recessions driven by a TFP or cash shock — exacerbated by coordination failures — slow the recovery down significantly. On the other hand, a crisis driven by a credit shock will induce firms to deleverage quickly and reduce their

paper.

¹⁸Numbers depend on the driver of recessions and on how I compute them (e.g., as a present discounted value or a simple sum of output losses).

investment initially to preclude liquidation, which makes the recovery relatively stronger (compared to other shocks), although the initial impact is similar.

Result 2. *Firms' rollover risk significantly amplifies the impact of recessions. Rollover risk explains 10% to 30% of output losses in large recession experiments.*

5 Policy Implications

Firms' rollover crises drive healthy firms to bankruptcy, and — as shown in the previous section — they have significant (negative) macroeconomic consequences (i.e., greater depth and slower recovery) during large recession episodes. Arguably the motivation behind a variety of the policies displayed during the recent Covid crises was to prevent healthy firms from being liquidated. For example, the Federal Reserve's Primary and Secondary Lending Programs provided direct credit access to a set of seemingly sound corporate firms —i.e., those with a good financial position before the recession. Moreover, direct credit interventions in other recessions (e.g., firm bailouts during the Great Recession) had a similar motivation.

Motivated by this, in this section, I study how effective are *imperfectly-targeted* direct lending policies deployed to reduce the impact of creditors' coordination failures during large recessions. Policies are imperfectly targeted because I assume the government cannot target the firms that participate using all relevant characteristics. This assumption captures the notion that the government may not observe all the characteristics of individual firms, or the policy is restricted for other reasons (e.g., regulation on lending powers). In my quantitative exercises, I find that credit programs that operate mostly through the insurance channel (precluding coordination failures) and government credit facilities that remain mostly unused (in equilibrium) are very potent. On the contrary, credit programs that are very ample and subsidize credit to many firms, can mitigate firms' rollover crises in the short term, but exacerbate debt overhang problems in the future, amplifying the overall impact of the recession.

Direct credit policy. A direct lending policy in the model is promised unexpectedly at $t = 0$, and implemented at period J_0 for J periods. When the policy is active, the government offers an alternative pricing schedule $Q_j^g(.)$ for the new debt issuance of the

firm at each period $j = J_0, J_0 + 1, \dots, J$ to a set of eligible firm \mathcal{P} which depends on observable, either current or past, characteristics of the firms. The set of eligible firms \mathcal{P} is assumed to be fixed over once the policy is implemented and I assume creditors know about the policy. Now the external resources from new debt issuance of eligible firms are

$$\max \left\{ Q^g(\cdot), Q(s, k', b') \right\} b',$$

where firms choose the best pricing schedules between the government program and the market. In the quantitative model, I assume the policy is financed by the representative household that pays a lump-sum tax to the government, as described in Appendix A.7.

Workings and trade-off. Proposition 3 shows how the direct policy can mitigate rollover crises and how the policy faces a potential trade-off when it is imperfectly targeted. The first point of the proposition shows that if the government has perfect information about firms states (z, n) and sets its pricing schedule identical to the market price, then rollover crises are precluded and in equilibrium firms do not use the government's credit facilities. The intuition is that the credit facility provides insurance to creditors. They know that if the firm has a rollover crises it can access an alternative source of financing and rollover its debt, then they coordinate in the repay equilibrium.

The credit policy when imperfectly targeted is such that the government offers to buy the debt at $Q^g(z^g, k', b')$ where z^g is a parameter chosen by the government. Parameter z^g also parameterizes the set of eligible firms. The greater is z^g the cheaper is the credit from the government's facilities and more firms are eligible for the policy. In Appendix A.7, I provide further details of the imperfectly targeted policy. The second point in Proposition 3 shows that this imperfectly targeted policy credit can mitigate rollover crises, but some firms will receive a subsidized credit. A firm under a rollover crisis and eligible to the policy for which $\max_{b', k'} \{n + Q^g(z^g, k', b'), b' - qk'\} \geq 0$ then the rollover crisis is precluded. On the other hand, if for a firm eligible to the policy (solvent or insolvent) $Q^g(z^g, k', b') > \tilde{Q}(z, k', b')$ then it receives a subsidized credit. The greater z^g the less are the incidence of rollover crises, but more credit is subsidized.

Proposition 3. *Assume the government implements the credit policy the current period and lasts one period then:*

1. *First best policy: if $Q^g(.) = \tilde{Q}(z, k', b')$ then no rollover crises happen today and firms are indifferent between using market credit or government's credit facilities.*
2. *Trade-off: the more generous is the imperfectly targeted credit policy the lower the incidence of rollover crises, but the greater the share of firms with a subsidized credit (adverse selection).*

The definition of the imperfectly targeted credit policy and the proofs are in Appendix A.7.

Quantification. Figure 6 shows the evolution of aggregate Y for different levels of z^g for programs implemented during $t = 0, 1$ — i.e., peak-to-trough of the recession without the policy. I focus on the cash shock, results for the TFP shock are quantitatively similar and are relegated to Appendix A.7 for clarity.

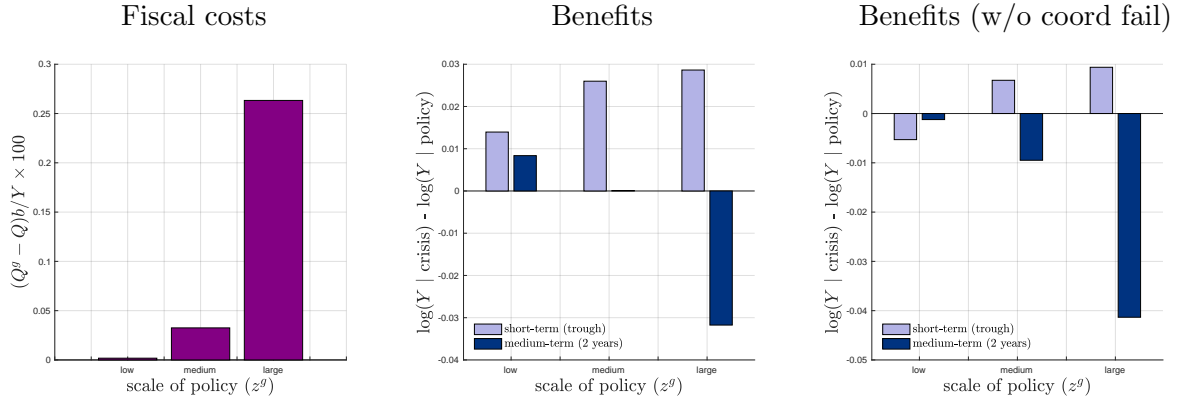
First graph in panel (a) shows the fiscal cost of the policy for different scales, where the fiscal cost is how much credit the government subsidizes in total, i.e., the sum of $(Q - Q^g)$ for participant firms. In this exercise, I show a low-scale policy that has a cost close to 0 (can be interpreted as an announcement), a medium-scale policy that has a low cost (0.05% of output) and a large-scale policy that has a large cost (around 0.3% of output). Next, panel (a) and (b) show the short- and long-term costs and benefits of credit programs with different scales. I find that in the short-term the large scale program improves aggregate outcomes and even provides some extra stimulus (relative to the counterfactual without rollover crises), but in the medium-term it creates greater output losses. The intuition, for this result, is that large scale programs subsidize credit to many financially exposed and fundamentally weak firms, which eventually backfires by exacerbating debt overhang in the future.¹⁹ On the other hand, the low scale program has significant short-term benefits with a fiscal cost close to 0, and provides a swift recovery (similar to the counterfactual without rollover crises). The intuition, for this result, is that small-scale programs can mitigate rollover crises (even if firms do not use the credit facilities ex-post), and can rescue several healthy firms in the economy, which contributes to a stronger recovery.

Result 3. *Imperfectly-targeted credit policies can mitigate the amplification created by rollover crises (even if the policy is just announced), but can backfire if they subsidize credit to many firms. The trade-off is quantitatively relevant.*

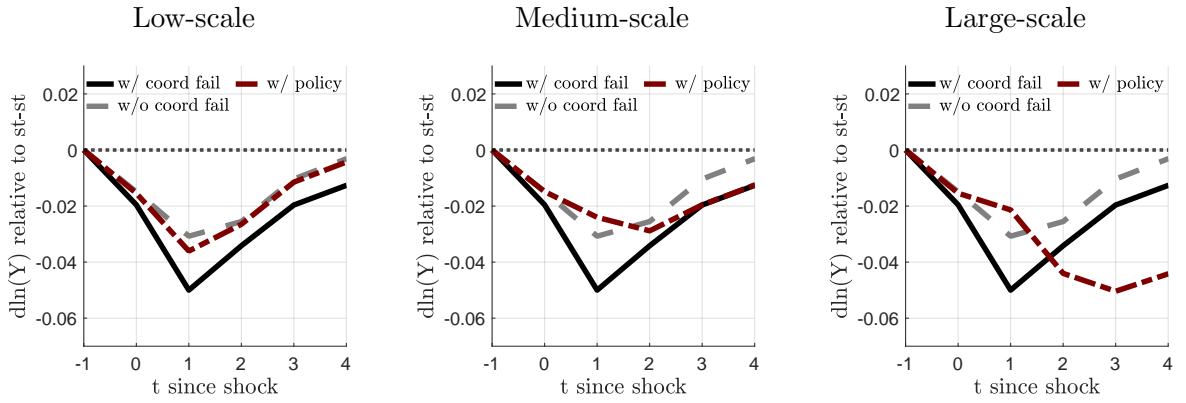
¹⁹This mechanism is similar to the one studied by Crouzet and Tourre (2021).

Figure 6: Imperfect Credit Policy by Scale

(a) Costs and benefits



(b) Dynamics



Notes: The Figure shows the policy costs and benefits for different policies during a large recession driven (crises) by a cash shock. Panel (b) shows the fiscal cost of the policy in GDP terms, the short (in the crisis trough) and medium (2 years) term benefits of the policy with and without coordination failures. Graphs in Panel (b) show the response of aggregate output Y to an aggregate cash shock with perfectly targeted policy (same as without coordination failures, dashed gray line), imperfectly targeted policy (red dashed line), and without policy intervention (solid black line) for different policy scale. The economy at $t = -1$ is in steady-state. The definition of the shocks and crises experiments are in Section 4 and Appendix A.5. Further description of the policy in the text.

6 Concluding Remarks

In this paper, I develop a framework where firms' rollover crises can be identified and quantified. Salient features of the U.S. bankruptcy code allow me to quantify the incidence of rollover crises using observed bankruptcy choices and bankrupt firms' characteristics. I find that rollover crises can explain roughly half of the bankruptcy events.

My quantitative results suggest that firms' rollover crises, through the failure of healthy firms, have a significant impact during large recessions. On the other hand, direct credit policies can act as insurance for creditors and can prevent coordination failures from happening, but, if policy is imperfectly-targeted, then the government faces a trade-off between short-run mitigation of rollover crises and future debt overhang problems. Quantitative results suggest that, during large recessions, the benefits of direct credit policies are ambiguous.

In the model, I focus on the problem of firms which have homogeneous and atomistic creditors, and no active management of its liability structure. Potential extensions could allow for investors' heterogeneity [for example, [Halac, Kremer and Winter \(2020\)](#)]; endogenous debt maturity structure [for example, [Bocola and Dovis \(2019\)](#) for sovereign debt or [Cheng and Milbradt \(2012\)](#); [Crouzet \(2017b\)](#) for firms]; and endogenous number of creditors [for example, [Bris and Welch \(2005\)](#); [Bolton and Scharfstein \(1996\)](#)].

In this paper, bankruptcy outcomes are (indirectly) informative about why firms fail. One potential avenue for future is to collect and study data on bankruptcy procedures from legal documents where the managers of the bankrupt firm, the creditors and the judge provide rich information about the main bankruptcy causes. This could provide more direct evidence on why firms fail and the role of creditors' coordination failures. Furthermore, my paper provides insights on the relationship between rollover crises and bankruptcy provisions during large recessions, which can be applied in other contexts. For example, other potential avenue for future research is to study — in a sovereign debt model with rollover crises — the costs and benefits of adopting provisions analogous to those of the U.S. bankruptcy code in a supranational sovereign debt bankruptcy process. I leave these extensions and alternative applications for future work.

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APPENDICES

The Appendix is organized as follows: Appendix A shows additional derivations of the baseline model and further details on the computations; Appendix B includes details of the data sources (sample selection and definitions) and details of the empirical exercises; and Appendix C includes further exercises and extensions of the model.

A Appendix: Model

A.1 Exiting firms problem

Incumbents firms at the beginning of the period receive with probability γ a shock that force them to exit after production. I allow for exiting firms to make also the liquidation choice and restructuring choice. Notice that since they exit at the end of the period these firms don't choose (b', k') then they are not subject to coordination failures such as the ones described for nonexiting firms. Exiting firms choose to liquidation choice is

$$\mathbf{1}_{\{\text{ch7|exit}\}}(\mathbf{s}) = \tilde{\mathbf{1}}_{\{\text{ch7|exit}\}}(z, \omega, b, k) = \begin{cases} 1 & \text{if } \max\{n, n_{11}^{\text{exit}}\} < 0 \\ 0 & \text{otherwise} \end{cases}. \quad (21)$$

where n defined as before and $n_{11}^{\text{exit}} = \pi(z, \omega, k) + (1 - c_{11})(1 - \delta)q\omega k - \alpha_{11}^{\text{exit}}(z, \omega, k, b)b$. Since the outside option is to continue then only firms with $n < 0$ will restructure their debt and the debt recovery $\alpha_{11}^{\text{exit}}$ is determined by

$$\alpha_{11}^{\text{exit}}(z, \omega, b, k) = \max_{\alpha_{11}} [n_{11}^{\text{exit}} - 0]^{1-\Xi} [b\alpha_{11}^{\text{exit}} - bR(b, k, \omega)]^{\Xi} \quad (22)$$

subject to

$$\begin{aligned} n_{11}^{\text{exit}} &> 0 \\ \alpha_{11} &\geq R(b, k, \omega). \end{aligned}$$

The restructuring choice is

$$\mathbf{1}_{\{\text{ch11|exit}\}}(\mathbf{s}) = \tilde{\mathbf{1}}_{\{\text{ch11|exit}\}}(z, \omega, b, k) = \begin{cases} 1 & \text{if } \{n < 0\} \cap \{n_{11}^{\text{exit}} > 0\} \cap \{\alpha_{11}^{\text{max|exit}} > \alpha_{11}^{\text{min}}\} \\ 0 & \text{otherwise} \end{cases}, \quad (23)$$

where $\alpha_{11}^{\text{max|exit}} = \frac{\pi(z, \omega, k) + (1 - c_{11})(1 - \delta)q\omega k}{b}$ and $\alpha_{11}^{\text{min}} = R(b, k, \omega)$. The firms that continue are defined as $\mathbf{1}_{\{\text{continue|exit}\}}(\mathbf{s}) = 1 - \mathbf{1}_{\{\text{ch11|exit}\}}(\mathbf{s}) - \mathbf{1}_{\{\text{ch7|exit}\}}(\mathbf{s}) = \mathbf{1}_{\{n \geq 0\}}$.

A.2 Computational solution of Bargaining Problem

To solve the bargaining problem I adopt a very simple convex-pricing function to approximate the result from the Nash Bargaining problem.²⁰ Although this is a reduced form solution to the bargaining problem, it provides better computational speed since we don't need the value function of the firm to compute it. I proceed as follows: I compute the maximum and minimum recovery rates, $\alpha_{11}^{\max}(z, \omega, k, b)$ and $\alpha_{11}^{\min}(\omega, k, b)$, respectively. Using these bounds, for the restructuring processes that are feasible I compute the approximate recovery rate $\tilde{\alpha}_{11}(z, \omega, k, b)$ as

$$\tilde{\alpha}_{11}(z, \omega, k, b) = \tilde{\Xi} \alpha_{11}^{\max}(z, \omega, k, b) + (1 - \tilde{\Xi}) \alpha_{11}^{\min}(\omega, k, b)$$

where $\tilde{\Xi} \in [0, 1]$ is the approximate bargaining power of the creditors. There is no one-on-one mapping, but to check for robustness I solve for the exact solution and find similar results. Therefore, I adopt this convex-pricing function, which is computationally significantly more efficient than the exact solution.

A.3 Proof Liquidation Choice

Proof. Firm's exit with value $V = 0$ and requires $d \geq 0$ then the firm decides to liquidate and exit if $d \geq 0$ is not feasible. The default decision can be characterized by regions of state-space (z, n) . First, there is a Safe region \mathcal{S} where firms in this region do not liquidate even if creditors conjecture they are liquidated today. This means that if $Q = 0$ they can satisfy $d = n + \max_{k' \geq 0} \{-qk'\} = n \geq 0$. Thus, firms with $n \geq 0$ can always satisfy $d \geq 0$ and are in $(z, n) \in \mathcal{S}$. Next, there is a Liquidation region \mathcal{L} where firms are liquidated even if creditors conjecture no liquidation today. This means that even if $Q = \tilde{Q}$ then firms cannot satisfy the $d \geq 0$, i.e., $d = n + \max_{b', k' \geq 0} \{\tilde{Q}(\cdot) b' - qk'\} = n < 0$. Since $\tilde{Q}(\cdot) = \tilde{Q}(z, b', k')$, then it follows that firms $(z, n) \in \mathcal{L}$ are those with cash-on-hand n below a threshold $\underline{n}(z)$ where the threshold is defined by the negative of the maximum amount of external resources the firm can raise, i.e., $n < \underline{n}(z) = -\max_{b', k' \geq 0} \{\tilde{Q}(\cdot) b' - qk'\}$. Finally, there is a Risky region \mathcal{R} where firms can either be liquidated or not depending on creditors' conjecture. This means that if $Q = 0$ then they cannot satisfy $d \geq 0$ so we need $n < 0$, but if $Q = \tilde{Q} > 0$ then firms satisfy $d \geq 0$ so we need $n \geq \underline{n}(z)$. Thus, firms $(z, n) \in \mathcal{R}$ whenever $n \in [\underline{n}(z), 0)$. \square

²⁰In their robustness exercises [Guntin and Kochen \(2021\)](#) adopt this function to solve computationally for a complex bargaining problem.

A.4 Proof Identification of η

Proof. Assume α_{11} is fixed, $c > 0$ is a fixed cost and the distribution of firms at the beginning of the period $\tilde{\Omega}$ is fixed.

Consider the case $\alpha_{11} \rightarrow 1$ we have that resources after restructuring are $n_{11} \rightarrow n - c$, then insolvent firms will have $\underline{n}(z) > n > n - c$ then they will not restructure their debt. On the other hand, firms with a rollover crisis restructure if $n > n - c \geq \underline{n}(z)$ since the firm is in \mathcal{R} we have $n < 0$ we need the cost is $c < -\underline{n}(z_{\max})$, with z_{\max} the highest productivity draw in the economy, for at least on firm to participate of the restructuring process. Next, without knowledge of η we can compute the share of firms that *would* restructure if they receive the sunspot shock and are exposed, which is $\int_{(z,n) \in \mathcal{R}} \mathbf{1}_{\{n-c > \underline{n}(z)\}} d\Omega^{\text{bop}}(z, n)$ with the beginning of the period distribution of non-exiting firms across (z, n) is $\Omega^{\text{bop}}(z, n) = (1 - \gamma) \int \mathbf{1}_{\{z, n(z, \omega, k, b) = n\}} d\tilde{\Omega}(\mathbf{s})$. Therefore, if we have the values of c (which could be inferred from other moments, e.g., bankrupt firms' characteristics) and distribution of firms, then we can identify η using the fact the share of firms that restructure equates the share of firms that would restructure if $\phi < \eta$ times the probability η .

Consider the case $\alpha_7 < \alpha_{11} < 1$ assume, without loss of generality, no recovery rate in liquidation $\alpha_7 = 0$, price of capital $q = 1$, the variance of ω shocks is 0 and $\delta = 0$ then internal resources are $n = \pi(z, k) + k - b$ and internal resources when restructuring are $n_{11} = n + (1 - \alpha_{11})b - c$ with $(1 - \alpha_{11})b$ the gains from restructuring and c the cost. Now, for insolvent firms we have now that the net benefits of the debt restructuring process can be ambiguous, so there can be insolvent firms restructuring. In particular, for firms to participate they need that the gains from the haircut are large enough to cover the bankruptcy costs and resources needed to become solvent $(1 - \alpha_{11})b > c + (\underline{n}(z) - n)$. Replacing with the definition of n then we can find for a firm with (z, k, b) that $b < \frac{\underline{n}(z) + \pi(z, k) + k - c}{\alpha_{11}}$ for the firm to restructure.

□

The last condition in the proposition shows that firms with higher b , given (k, z) are less likely to restructure. The intuition is that while leveraged firms benefit more from the haircut, they have lower internal resources which requires them larger gains from the haircut. Furthermore, we can interpret it as higher cost c will create less leveraged firms file for restructuring (using the leverage of the firm we can identify c , which is the identification strategy in the quantitative model). The higher c then will make firms with higher debt become less likely to restructure, therefore we can approximate η if c is large enough such that few insolvent firms can restructure even if $\alpha_{11} < 1$.

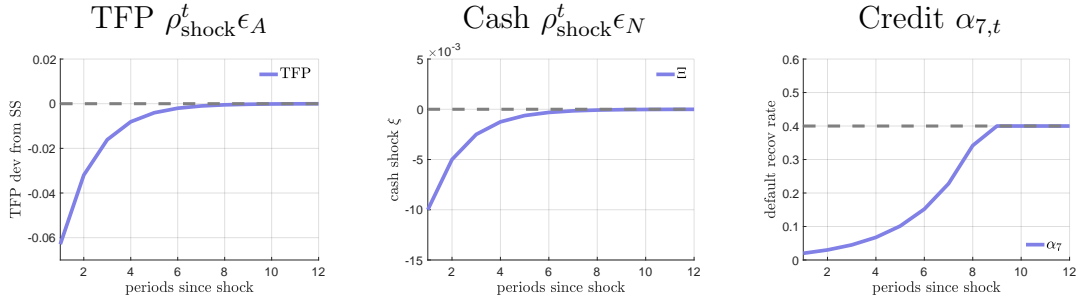
A.5 Crises shocks and counterfactual

I work with 3 different types of crisis shocks: a TFP shock, cash shock and credit shock. Shocks are unforeseen and I study the perfect foresight transitions from $t \geq 0$ where $t = 0$ is the initial impact of the shock (at the beginning of the period). The initial impact is calibrated to match a 5% drop in aggregate output from peak-to-trough (large aggregate shock) and the persistence of all shocks is $\rho_{\text{shock}} = 0.5$ (i.e., short lived).²¹ I assume the process are

1. TFP shock: firms production function is now $y_{it} = A_t f(z_{it}, \omega_{it}, k_{it})$ for $t \geq 0$ where $A_t = \exp(\rho_{\text{shock}}^t \epsilon_A)$ with $\epsilon_A < 0$ the initial shock at $t = 0$.
2. Cash shock: firms cash-on-hand is $n_{it} = \pi_t(z_{it}, \omega_{it}, k_{it}) + (1 - \delta) q_t \omega_{it} k_{it} - b_{it} - N_t k_{it}$ for $t \geq 0$ where $N_t = \rho_{\text{shock}}^t \epsilon_N$ with $\epsilon_N > 0$ initial shock to cash proportional to capital.
3. Credit shock: recovery rate when liquidated α_{7t} is time-varying for $t \geq 0$ where $\alpha_{7t} = \alpha_7 - \rho_{\text{shock}}^t \epsilon_7$ where $\epsilon_7 > 0$ initial decrease in liquidation recovery rate.

Figure A.1 shows the path for the baseline counterfactuals.

Figure A.1: Crises Shocks Path



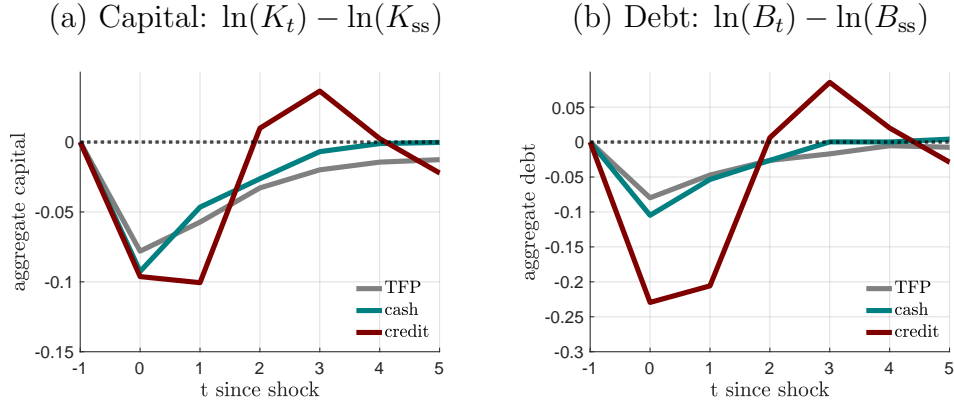
Notes: panel (a), (b) and (c) show the path of the shocks. Shocks happen at $t = 0$. Further description of the shocks in the text.

For computing the aggregates during the transitions I assume that the distribution of firms is no longer a fixed point and allow for *net exit* by fixing the amount of new firms created each period to the initial steady-state calibration, i.e., $\bar{\mu}_t = \bar{\mu}$.

²¹More than 95% of the shocks fades away in an year.

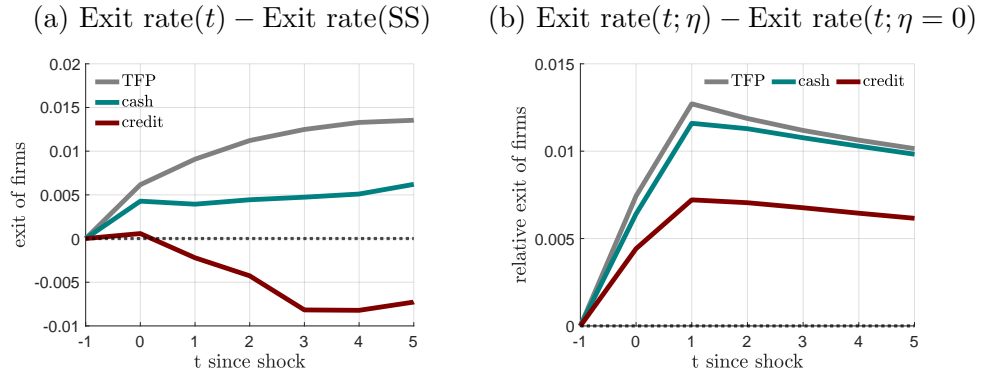
A.6 Firm Exit and Spreads during Crises Experiment

Figure A.2: Capital and Debt during Crises



Notes: Figures show the dynamics of capital and debt accumulation for the three crisis shocks studied. In both panels, the variables are in terms of log difference relative to steady state — $\ln X_t - \ln X_{ss}$. Panel (a) shows the dynamics of aggregate capital accumulation. Panel (b) shows the dynamics of aggregate debt accumulation.

Figure A.3: Firm Exit during Crises



Notes: Figures show the dynamics of firm exit for the three crisis shocks studied. Panel (a) shows the difference between firm exit rates (exogenous and endogenous) relative to pre-crisis steady-state levels during the crisis episode. Panel (b) shows the difference between firm exit rates with coordination failures relative to the counterfactual without coordination failures during the crisis episode.

A.7 Credit policy program

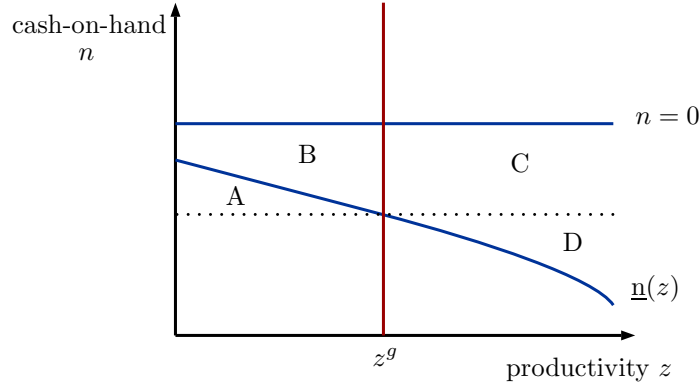
Imperfectly targeted credit policy description. A policy $Q^g = \tilde{Q}$ that precludes all rollover crises without being used in equilibrium requires the government to observe perfectly each firm's productivity and cash-on-hand (z, n). To make the policy more realistic, I assume that the government observes only n and sets the policy according to a simple rule, i.e., *imperfect credit policy*, which has the following parametrization:

1. The set of eligible firms depends on n only and requires that $n < 0$ (i.e., firms need

external resources to satisfy $d \geq 0$). Therefore, the set \mathcal{P} is composed by firms with n such that $n \in [\underline{n}^g, 0)$, where $\underline{n}^g < 0$ is a parameter chosen by the government.

2. All eligible firms receive enough funds such that they can satisfy $d \geq 0$, but the government can't discriminate across the n position of eligible firms, i.e., $Q^g(z, k', b')$ is such that $\underline{n}^g = -\max_{b', k'} Q^g(z^g, k', b') b' - qk' = \underline{n}(z^g)$ which implies that \underline{n}^g determines the choice of $z = z^g$ for the pricing schedule offered by the government.²²

Figure A.4: Imperfect Credit Policy Eligibility



Notes: figure shows an illustration of the eligibility and firms participation in the program for a one period example.

Figure A.4 shows what firms are eligible and the static choice of the participating or not in the program for a 1 period policy.²³ Eligible firms are those in the area $A \cup B \cup C$. In the case of A , in absence of the credit program the firm would be insolvent, then these firms receive subsidized credit. On the other hand, in B , firms will find the credit in the program cheaper than the market then they participate so they receive a subsidized credit. On the contrary, firms in region C will have a more expensive credit than the market then they don't participate in the program. Thus, firms in $A \cup B$ receive a subsidized credit and firms in C don't. Moreover, the credit program will preclude those firms under a rollover crisis in $B \cup C$ from being liquidated. Notice that firms under a rollover crisis in B will participate in the program and those in C will not participate in the program but the mere existence of the program will preclude coordination failures. Therefore, if the scale of the policy increases — i.e., lower \underline{n}^g or, equivalently, greater z^g — more coordination failures are precluded and more firms are subsidized. The subsidized credit could exacerbate future debt overhang problems and has fiscal costs, so the policy faces a potential trade-off when incrementing the scale of the program.

²²The assumption that the government pricing function doesn't depend on the firm's cash-on-hand simplifies greatly the computational problem.

²³If the policy lasts more than one period or is implemented with a lag, then it will affect the solvency thresholds (even in partial equilibrium) since they depend on future prospects of the firm.

Proofs credit policy.

Proof. First best policy - Proposition 3. The government sets for 1 period $Q^g(.) = \tilde{Q}(z, k', b')$. Assume by contradiction that a firm with $(z, n) \in \mathcal{R}$ and $\phi < \eta$ then $Q = 0$ in equilibrium. Since $(z, n) \in \mathcal{R}$ then $n \geq \underline{n}(z)$ and since $\tilde{Q} = Q^g$ then $\max_{b', k'} \{n + \tilde{Q}(.) b' - qk'\} = \max_{b', k'} \{n + Q^g(.) b' - qk'\} \geq 0$ so it cannot be true that $Q = 0$ in equilibrium. \square

Proof. Trade-off - Proposition 3. The government offers $Q(z^g, k', b')$ then firms with $z < z^g$ and $n \geq n^g$ receive a subsidized credit. On the other hand, from the first point is trivial that if $Q(z^g, k', b')$ increasing inf z^g more rollover crises are precluded. \square

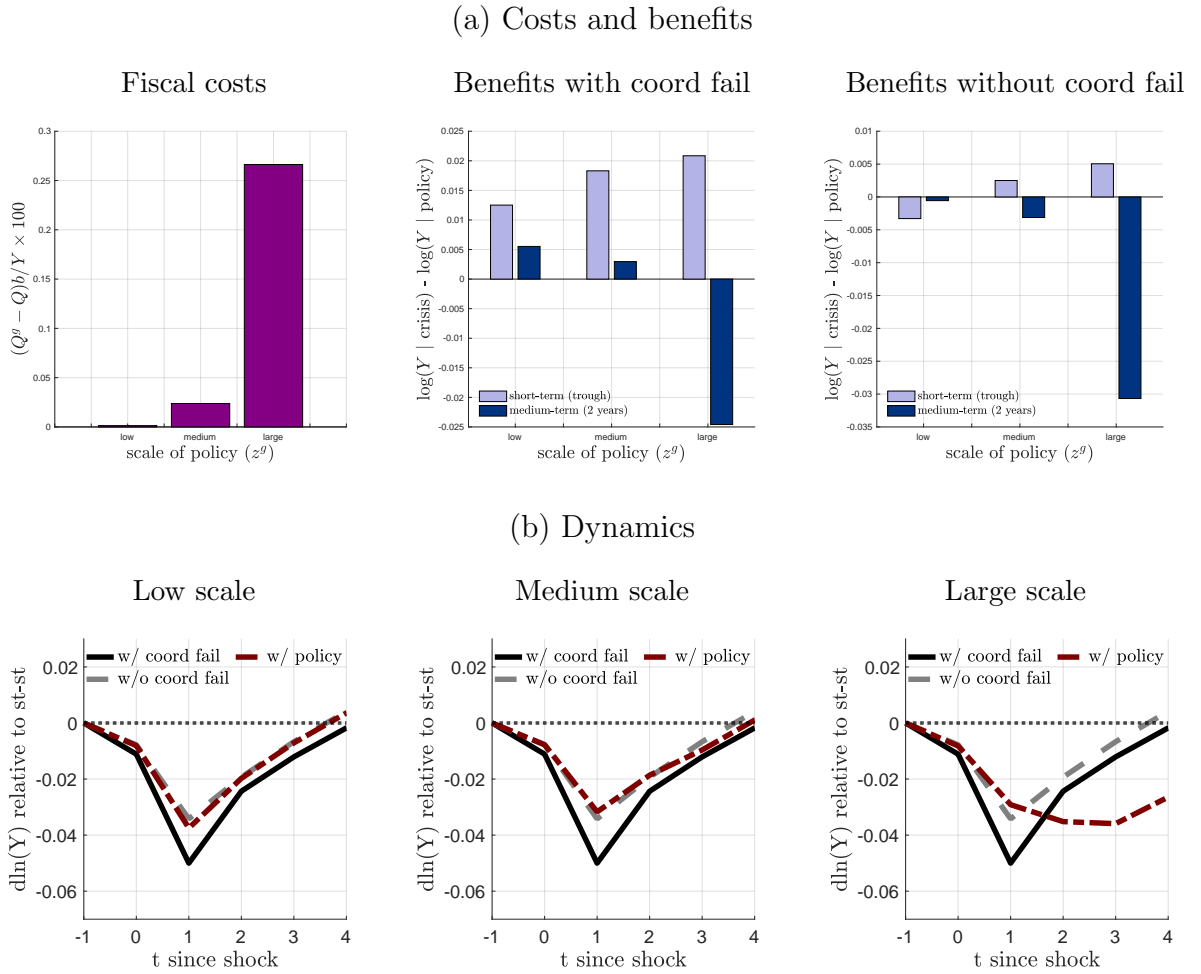
Further details quantitative setup. The baseline credit policy experiment consist of a parameter z^g that determines the pricing schedule $Q_t^g = \tilde{Q}_t(z^g, b', k')$ and set of eligible firms $[\underline{n}(z^g), 0)$ and lasts two periods (implemented at $t = 0$ and $t = 1$). The policy is computed backwards, since the presence of the policy at $t + 1$ will affect the solvency thresholds $\underline{n}_t(z)$. To estimate the cost of the policy I compute the aggregate credit subsidy as the difference between the price offered by the private sector relative to the government credit program times the amount borrowed for the firms that choose to participate in the program, i.e.,

$$G_t = \int_{(z, n) \in \mathcal{P}} \max \left\{ 0, \tilde{Q}_t(z, k', b') - \tilde{Q}_t(z^g, k', b') \right\} b' d\tilde{\Omega}_t(\mathbf{s}).$$

The subsidy is financed through a lump-sum transfer $T_t = G_t$ such that the aggregate output net of government expenditure is $\tilde{Y}_t = Y_t - G_t$.

Further quantitative results. Figure A.5 shows the results for the policy experiments when the driving shock is a cash shock.

Figure A.5: Imperfect Credit Policy by Scale (cash shock)



Notes: the Figure shows the policy costs and benefits for different policies during a crises driven by a TFP shock. Figure (b) shows the fiscal cost of the policy in GDP terms, the short (in the crisis trough) and medium (2 years) term benefits of the policy with and without coordination failures. Figures in Panel (b) show the response of aggregate output Y to an aggregate cash shock with perfectly targeted policy (same as without coordination failures, dashed gray line), imperfectly targeted policy (red dashed line), and without policy intervention (solid black line) for different policy scale. The economy at $t = -1$ is in steady-state. The definition of the shocks and crises experiments are in Section 4 and Appendix A.5. Further description of the policy in the text.

B Appendix: Data and Empirical Exercises

In this section I outline the data sources, variable definitions, and further empirical exercises and results. I show how the balance sheet moments for the calibration are computed, how it is estimated the heterogeneity in investment dynamics during during the Great Recession and Covid-19 crisis, and study the characteristics of bankrupt firms using microdata.

B.1 Data Sources, Sample Selection and Variable Definitions

In this section I describe the details (definitions and sample construction) of the main data sources used to compute moments related to the balance sheet of firms and empirical exercises in the paper.

B.1.1 Compustat

I use Compustat data to compute moments related to the balance sheet of firms and bankruptcy process, and study the patterns of investment in recent large crises. Compustat is limited to publicly held firms, therefore I assume the balance sheet distribution replicates in the rest of the firms.²⁴ To construct the sample I follow standard practices in the empirical investment literature.

Balance Sheet Data. Now I explain how I construct the sample and the variables for the balance sheet data used for calibration and empirical exercises. The sample selection criteria follows a firm level filter and firm-date filter. Table B.1 shows the number of observations and those dropped by each filtering step. I drop firms from finance, insurance, and real estate sectors ($\text{sic} \in [6000, 6799]$), utilities ($\text{sic} \in [4900, 4999]$), nonoperating establishments ($\text{sic} = 9995$) and industrial conglomerates ($\text{sic} = 9997$), and those not incorporated in U.S. and not operate in USD. I drop firm-date observations that with negative capital or total assets, observations with acquisitions of more than 5% of firm's assets, bottom 0.5% and top 99.5% investment rate across the distribution, investment spells of less than 20 quarters, drop if net liquid leverage (net current liquid debt/total assets) is greater than 10 in absolute value, drop if log sales growth is greater than 1 in absolute value, and negative sales or negative liquid assets.

Due to changes in the accounting data of Compustat, I split the sample for the Great Recession (period 1983-2017) and Covid-19 Crisis (period 2019-2020) (see Ma (2020) notes on the accounting changes after 2019).²⁵ The sample criteria for the 2019-2020 period differs slightly from the 1983-2017 sample. Since the 2019-2020 sample is smaller I exclude filters related to investment outliers and spells, and select firm-quarter observations that register they changed they updated their accounting criteria.²⁶

The final sample — pre-Covid — has 426,465 firm-date observations, and the Covid sample has 13,974 firm-date observations.

²⁴An alternative approach is to fit the model to a subset of firms that can be defined as the Compustat firms. For simplicity I use the assumption described in the text.

²⁵An alternative approach is to use Compustat Snapshot to remove the operation leases from various entries in the balance sheet, but access to this dataset is restricted.

²⁶The variable `acctchgq` is ASU16-02 or IFRS16 the quarter the firm changes it's accounting criteria.

Table B.1: Sample Selection Compustat - Quarterly Data

	# Drop	# Obs
<i>Baseline</i>		
1983-2017	-	1,484,973
Non-financial sector	474,327	1,010,646
U.S. incorporated and USD currency	212,680	797,966
20 quarter investment spell	105,503	585,286
No outliers	158,821	426,465
<i>Covid sample</i>		
2019-2020	-	75,712
Change in accounting	38,446	37,266
Other filters	23,292	13,974

The definition of the main variables used for the calibration and regressions are:

1. Capital stock k : is constructed using the perpetual inventory method, following the usual convention in the investment literature.²⁷ I compute the initial capital level using the level of gross plant, property and equipment `ppegqt`, and using the quarterly change of net plant, property and equipment `ppentq`. The depreciation rates δ are calculated using the BEA accounts to compute investment rates (i.e., change in capital k net of capital depreciation).
2. Net debt stock b : different from other papers in the literature I assume b corresponds to the short-term liabilities. Liabilities include financial debt, debt with suppliers and other firms, accounts and tax payables, and others. `lctq` minus cash holdings `cheq`. Complementary, the gross debt position I define it as the short-term liabilities `lctq` only.
3. Operating profits π : corresponds to the variable `ibdpq`
4. Liquid value of assets $q\omega k(1 - \delta)$: to compute this I use the assets of the firm (excluding cash) as follows: for asset category a_{ij} we can compute the liquid value of firms' assets as $\sum_j lr_j \times a_{ij}$ where lr_j is the liquidation rate. The liquidation rates used by asset category are 44% inventories, 63% receivables and 35% physical capital from [Kermani and Ma \(2021\)](#).
5. Cash-on-hand n : is computed as the sum of π and $q\omega k(1 - \delta)$ minus b . It is assumed that all liabilities can be collected each period.
6. Size: log of total assets `atq`.

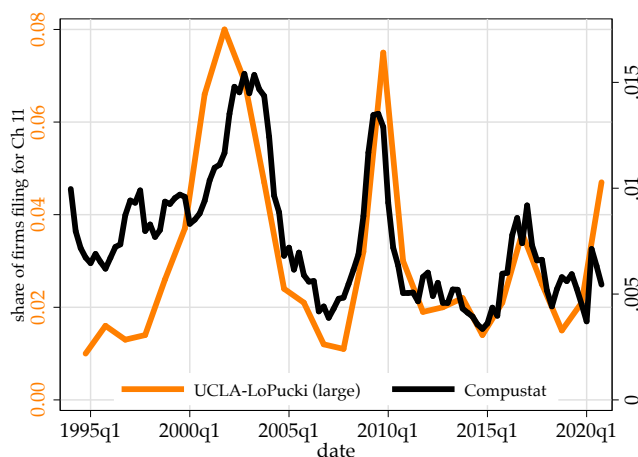
²⁷See for example, Mongey and Williams (2017); Jeena (2019); [Ottonello and Winberry \(2020\)](#) for recent references.

7. Sales growth: quarterly growth of sales `saleq`.

Nominal variables are deflated using the BLS implicit price deflator, unless specified. Percentiles of variables used are constructed by year (not quarter). When specified variables are standardized, winzorized and/or demeaned.

Bankruptcy Data. To identify when and what firms operate under Chapter 11 in Compustat I use the same strategy as [Corbae and D’Erasmus \(2021\)](#). I use the footnote to total assets (`atq`) and deletion information variables `dlrsn` and `dldte`. A firm is in Chapter 11 if (i) footnote (next period) reports adoption of new accounting under Chapter 11 bankruptcy; (ii) if firm shows as bankrupt but is not deleted; (iii) if the firm shows as bankrupt and deleted but this is not due to liquidation; (iv) and if firm’s last observation in the sample is bankruptcy but there is no bankruptcy information.

Figure B.1: Filings to Chapter 11



Notes : Figures shows the flow of filings to Chapter 11 in the last 12 months. Filings to Chapter 11 are identified through the steps detailed in the text. Data sources: Compustat-Quarterly and UCLA-LoPucki.

Figure [B.1](#) shows that the Compustat data evolution is consistent with UCLA-LoPucki estimates which are for large firms in US. Next, I show some summary statistics that compare firms in Chapter 11 and outside Chapter 11. Table [B.2](#) shows that firms operating in Chapter 11 have a lower size, lower investment, lower sales growth, are more leveraged and more of them have negative internal resources.

Table B.2: Compustat Chapter 11 Firms' Summary Statistics

	Chapter 11	All
Leverage: $\mathbb{E}[b/k]$	0.68	0.39
Negative cash-on-hand: $\mathbb{E}[1_{\{n<0\}}]$	0.37	0.21
Investment rate (annualized, median): $P_{50}[i/k]$	-0.9%	12.6%
Real sales growth (annualized): $\mathbb{E}[\log(\text{sales}_t/\text{sales}_{t+1})]$	-8.7%	9.4%
Size (2017 USD millions): $\mathbb{E}[\text{total assets}]$	1,623	2,180
Observations (firm-year)	2,519	228,212

Notes: This table compares firms in Chapter 11 with all the firms in the economy across several characteristics. Real quantities are calculated using the GDP implicit price deflator.

Data source: Compustat.

B.1.2 Federal Judicial Center - Integrated Database (FJC-IDB).

FJC-IDB bankruptcy data includes all petitions filed under the Bankruptcy Code (any of the Chapters) on or after October 1, 2007 and any petitions filed before October 1, 2007 that are still pending. This dataset provides information of the filings, closures and several firm characteristics.

I will focus on a sample of corporate firms filings to Chapter 11 and Chapter 7. This includes public and privately held firms. Table B.3 shows the sample selection criteria.

Table B.3: Sample Selection FJC-IDB

	# Drop	# Obs
All		32,084,867
Corporations	31,546,855	538,012
Chapter 11 and 7	9,771	528,241
Filings	358,890	169,351
Closures	357,023	171,218

Notes: This table shows the number of observations resulting from the sample selection for the FJC. The first line, *All*, shows the original number of entries from in the dataset. from 2008 to 2020. Two samples are used, one that includes only the filings and other that includes only the closures (closure sample entries include filing characteristics). The following lines detail the set of observations dropped from different filters applied to the sample and the resulting number of observations. More details on these filters can be found in the text.

Data source: FJC-IDB.

B.2 Heterogeneous Investment Responses During Recent Crises

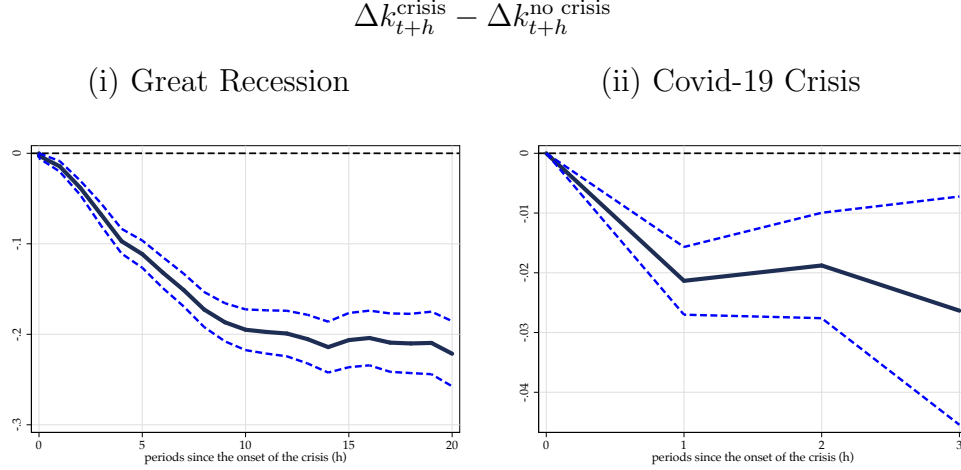
In this section I will study the heterogeneous investment response of firms during the Great Recession and Covid-19 crisis. First, I will show the aggregate dynamics of the

crises. Second, I will show the heterogeneity across the balance sheet positions, focusing on cash-on-hand and leverage positions.

B.2.1 Aggregate Dynamics

Figure B.2 shows that using firm level data of publicly listed firms the capital accumulation rate drop significantly in both episodes — Great Recession and Covid-19 crisis.

Figure B.2: Corporate Investment in Recent Crises Episodes



Notes: figures show the dynamics of the capital stock relative accumulation during the Great Recession and Covid crisis. The change in capital accumulation comes from the following specification using firm-level data: $\log(k_{it+h}) - \log(k_{it}) = \alpha_i + \beta_h \text{crisis}_t + \varepsilon_{it+h}$, where crisis_t indicates the pre-crisis peak and β_h is the h -periods ahead change in the accumulation of capital during the crisis episode relative to no crisis periods. Drop t such that for $\text{crisis}_{t+i} = 1$ for at least one $i \in \{0, \dots, h\}$, i.e. capital accumulation before the crisis overlaps with the crisis. Panels (a) and (b) show coefficients β_h and their 90% confidence interval. Standard errors are clustered at firm level..
Data sources: Compustat.

B.2.2 Investment Heterogeneous Response Estimation

To estimate the *on impact* heterogeneous response — from peak-to-trough of the crisis — I will proceed as follows. First, to account for permanent sectoral heterogeneity — in my baseline estimations — I will demean each of the firm-quarter observations of variable x of interest by its sectoral average, i.e. $\hat{x}_{it} = x_{it} - \mathbb{E}_s[x_{it}]$. Next, I will assign each firm-quarter observation of x to different quartiles (terciles if Covid sample) relative to the annual distribution. Lastly, I run the following panel regression to estimate the heterogeneous responses of investment across cash-on-hand n/k and leverage b/k during the crisis:

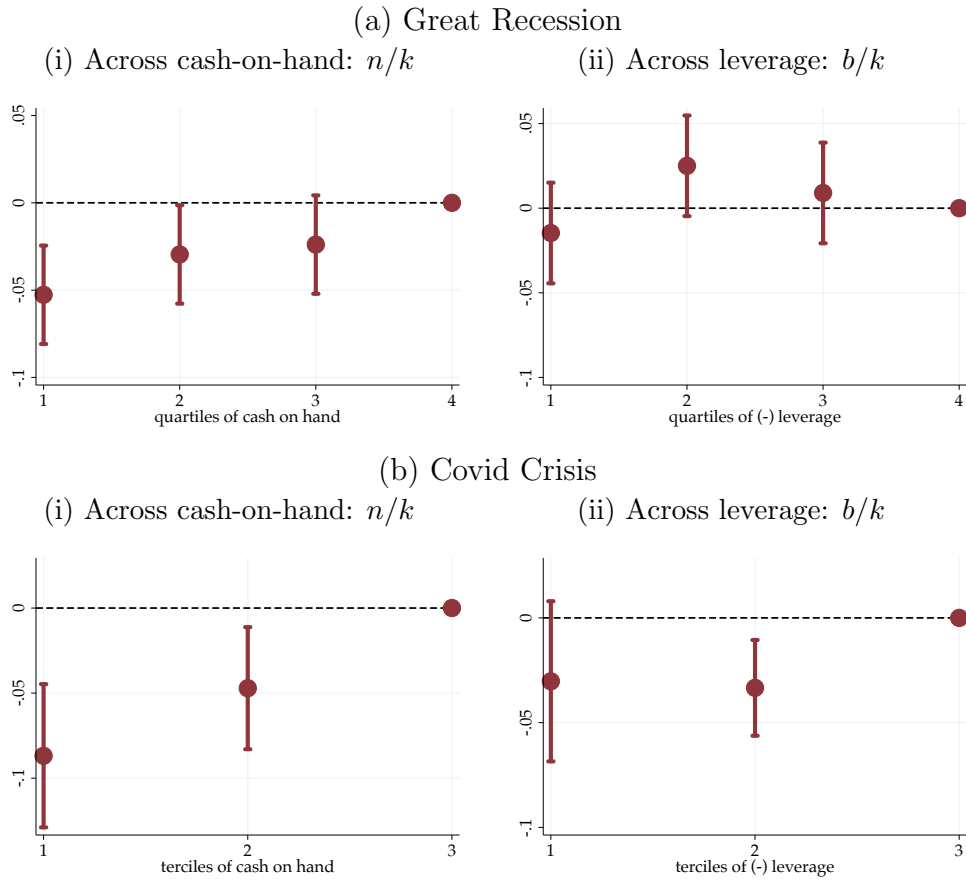
$$\Delta \log(k_{it}) = \underbrace{\sum_{j=1}^J \beta_j^n (Q_{it}^{nj} \times \text{crisis}_t)}_{\text{het across } n/k} + \underbrace{\sum_{j=1}^J \beta_j^b (Q_{it}^{bj} \times \text{crisis}_t)}_{\text{het across } b/k} + \underbrace{\Lambda' Z_{it}}_{\text{controls}} + \varepsilon_{it}, \quad (24)$$

where Q_{it}^{xj} indicates if \hat{x}_{it} belongs to quartile or tercile j , $\Delta \log(k_{it}) = \log(k_{it+h}) - \log(k_{it})$ is the capital accumulation over a period as long as the crisis studied (i.e., the extension

from peak-to-trough of episode studied h), crisis_t indicates if a crisis happens during the period considered and $Z_{i,t}$ includes the control variables. For the baseline specifications I include as controls firm's fixed effects, sectoral fixed effects, log assets as proxy for size and last quarter sales growth. The coefficients β_j^x are interpreted as the diff-in-diff estimates of the crisis impact on capital accumulation for firms in quartile or tercile j of \hat{x} .

The empirical strategy is close to the one used in other work that studies investment adjustment heterogeneity on recent crises episodes. Salient examples are [Almeida *et al.* \(2012\)](#) for the Great Recession in U.S. and [Kalemli-Özcan *et al.* \(2020\)](#) for the EU crisis.

Figure B.3: Heterogeneous Investment Response during Crises



Notes: Figures show the change in the capital accumulation from peak to trough in both episodes. For the Great Recession the episode is from 2007q4 to 2009q4, and for the Covid-19 crisis is from 2019q4 to 2020q2. Figures in panel (a) show the coefficient β_j^n and Figures in panels (b) shows β_j^b for the Great Recession and Covid-19 crisis in a joint estimation of specification (24). Coefficients are normalized to 0 with respect to the highest quartile or tercile coefficient. The interval is at 90% confidence level and standard errors are clustered at firm level for the Great Recession and sector level for the Covid-19 crisis. Balance sheet variables are demeaned at sectoral level. Because of data limitations the estimates of the Covid-19 crisis don't include firm's FE. Coefficients are in annual terms. Data sources: calculations using Compustat data.

Figure B.3 shows the investment response across different levels of cash-on-hand and leverage during the Great Recession and Covid crisis. For both episodes, panel (a) and (b) figure (i) show that firms with low levels of cash-on-hand adjust substantially more their investment, around 5-10 p.p. points in annual terms relative to the firms with the highest levels of cash-on-hand. On the other hand, panel (a) and (b) figure (ii) show that

the heterogeneity across leverage is not significant. In Section 3.3, I contrast these results with simulations from the model.

These findings are related to a recent literature that studies empirically the heterogeneity of investment responses across firm’s financial positions during recent large recession episodes. Two salient examples are Almeida *et al.* (2012) for the Great Recession in U.S. and Kalemli-Özcan *et al.* (2020) for the EU crisis. Almeida *et al.* (2012) explore the relevance of long term debt that matured in the short-term during the Great Recession in U.S. and find that firms with more long term debt maturing in the short-term reduced more their investment. Moreover, Kalemli-Özcan *et al.* (2020) find evidence of debt overhang problems and rollover risk being relevant during the EU crisis. These patterns were greater in peripheral europe countries, which were hardly hit by the crisis. In addition, Ebsim *et al.* (2021) show that cash holdings were relevant explaining the heterogeneity of credit spreads dynamics during the Covid crisis, but they weren’t relevant during the Great Recession.

B.3 Other Observations on the Firm’s Balance Sheet

In this section I show further facts related to the liability structure (e.g. maturity and number of creditors) of firms that complement the baseline analysis. Table B.4 shows that corporate firms use extensively short-term liabilities to finance their investments and operations, and Table B.5 shows that the great majority of medium to large corporate firms (i.e., with more than 50 million assets) in U.S. borrow from hundreds of creditors. This is complementary to the observation of Crouzet (2017a) that corporate firms financial leverage is mostly in bonds, which they are very likely to have a dispersed ownership. These observations supports the idea that the firms’ creditors are likely dispersed and difficult to coordinate, unless the firm wants to incur in costs. Further, in Appendix C.2, I show that the benefits of being able to manage the liability structure in the model are not large (ex-ante), therefore for moderate costs of changing their liabilities most firms will remain inactive.

Table B.4: Firms' Debt Maturity

	Time to mature (share)		
	< 1 year	1 to 4 years	≥ 5 years
Debt	0.29 (0.32)	0.33 (0.28)	0.38 (0.34)
<hr/>			
	< 1 year	> 1 years	
Liabilities	0.61 (0.29)	0.39 (0.29)	

Notes: the table shows the share of debt or liabilities maturing at different time horizons. The summary statistic is computed for the average firm, in parenthesis is the standard deviation. Short term liabilities are `lct` and long-term `lt - lct`. Debt maturing in less than one year is `d1c`, in one to four years is `dd2 + dd3 + dd4`, and maturing at 5 or more years is `d1tt-dd2-dd3-dd4`. Total debt is `d1c + d1tt` and total liabilities is `lct`.

Data source: Compustat.

Table B.5: Number of Creditors When Filing to Bankruptcy

	# Creditors		
	1 to 100	101 to 1,000	$\geq 1,000$
Small (< 50 million assets)	0.88	0.10	0.02
Medium (> 50 million and < 1 billion assets)	0.16	0.19	0.65
Large (> 1 billion assets)	0.03	0.04	0.93
All	0.74	0.10	0.16

Notes: the table shows the share of firms with by creditor number groups and size when filing to Chapter 11 bankruptcy. Shares are relative to the total filings of each size group. Asset value correspond to the one declared when filing for bankruptcy.

Data source: FJC-IDB.

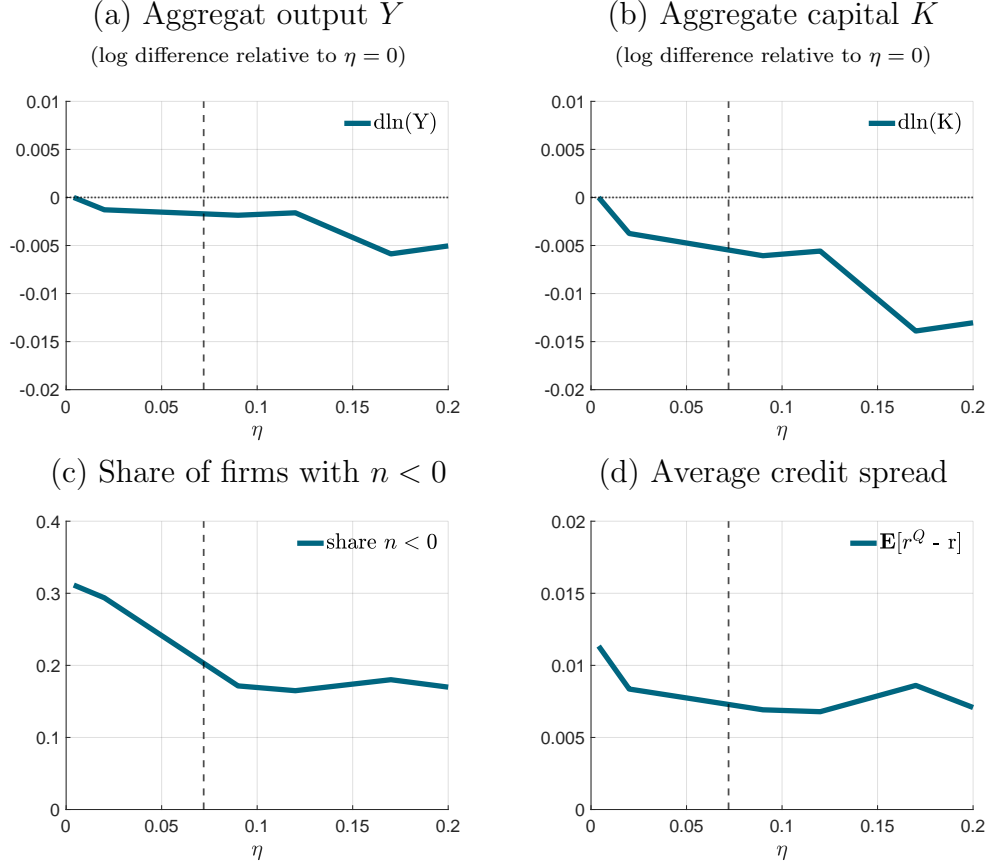
C Appendix: Further Exercises and Extensions

C.1 Steady-state comparative statics

To study the long run implications of firms' rollover risk I make some simple comparative statics with η . Figure C.1 shows for different values of η the output and capital level, and the share of firms with negative cash-on-hand and the average spread rate. I find that the importance of rollover crises in the long run is relatively low. First, in the long run, aggregate output Y is 0.2% lower, see panel (a), and aggregate capital K is 0.5% lower, see panel(b), because of creditors' coordination failures. Second, the higher is η less firms have a weak balance sheet position in steady-state, see panel (c). Rollover risk shifts (improves) the financial distribution of firms significantly. The increase in the risk of rollover failure, for a given financial position, incentivize firms to save away; thus,

accumulating internal resources to preclude the coordination failure. The improvement in the financial position is reflected on the little change observed in credit spreads across η , even if the risk of rollover crises is greater (given the financial position). Overall, the likelihood of coordination failures for exposed firms η shifts the financial position of firms, but don't impact significantly aggregate outcomes over the long run.

Figure C.1: Steady-state Comparison



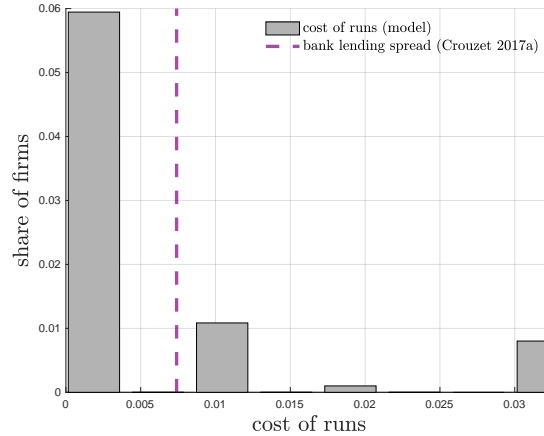
Notes : Panel (a) and (b) show the log difference in aggregate output Y and capital K , respectively, across different values of η in steady-state. Panel (c) and (d) show the share of firms with negative cash-on-hand n and average credit spread rate across, respectively, across different values of η in steady-states. In all the plots, the vertical dashed line indicates the calibrated value of η .

C.2 How costly is firm's rollover risk (ex-ante)?

In this section to assess how costly is rollover risk. For this, I explore the spread distribution between the pricing schedule with and without coordination failures, i.e., $\tilde{Q}(z, k', b'; \eta) - \tilde{Q}(z, k', b'; 0)$. As a benchmark, I compute how many firms would pay the bank's markup over market borrowing solely to preclude future creditors' coordination failures if they could. I use the spread in intermediation costs estimated by [Crouzet \(2017a\)](#) of 0.74% (annual). I find that only 2.2% of the firms face a cost of rollover risk higher than intermediation spread. Figure C.2 shows the distribution of the cost of rollover risk

across firms that produce and don't exit at the end of the period. The figure shows that most firms face a cost close to 0 since many firms become exposed tomorrow only in case of an extremely bad shock, therefore the average cost is negligible. The small cost of rollover risk ex-ante in steady state suggests that it can be optimal for firms choose a liability structure where they are exposed to rollover crises.

Figure C.2: Cost of Rollover Risk (in annual spread terms)

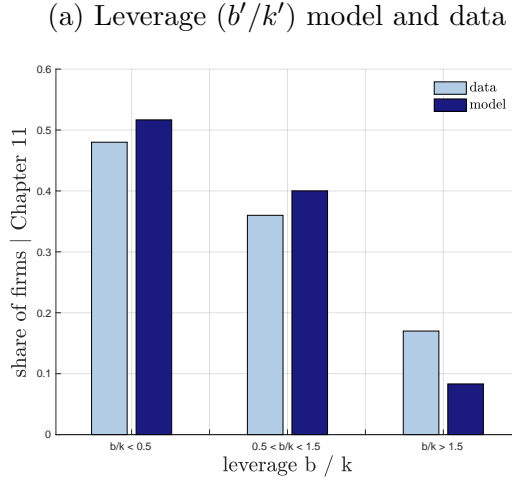


Notes : Figure shows the distribution of the cost of firms' rollover risk — i.e., $\tilde{Q}(z, k', b'; \eta) - \tilde{Q}(z, k', b'; 0)$ — for producing firms that don't exit at the end of the period. Exclude from plot the ones with 0 cost and truncated distribution at 3% cost. The spread of intermediation between bank and market lending is from the calibration of [Crouzet \(2017a\)](#).

C.3 Leverage Distribution of Bankrupt Firms

Although I target the average leverage ratio of firms in Chapter 11, I don't target it's distribution. In this section, I compare the share of bankrupt firms according to their leverage (liabilities over capital) position. I split in three groups, those bankrupt firms that have choose low leverage (less than 0.5), medium to high leverage (0.5 to 1.5) and extremely high leverage (more than 1.5). Figure [C.3](#) shows that the model fits well the distribution of leverage for firms in Chapter 11 that continue operating.

Figure C.3: Leverage distribution of bankrupt (restructuring) firms



Notes: Figure shows the distribution of leverage for firms in the restructuring process in the model and the data (in Chapter 11 and operating the next period). Data source: Compustat.

Further details of the sample selection and data processing are in Appendix B.1.1.

C.4 Model Extensions and Multiple Equilibrium

In this section, I will study two extensions of the model, one that uses more general functional forms for the operational profits function, capital adjustment idiosyncratic frictions and long-term debt, and other that allows firms to issue equity (costly).

Long-term debt and capital adjustment frictions. I assume profits are a function $\pi(\mathbf{z}, k) \in \mathbb{R}$ strictly increasing in both arguments, where $\mathbf{z} = (\mathbf{z}^p, \mathbf{z}^{\text{iid}})$ is a vector of shocks that contain a set of persistent shocks \mathbf{z}^p follow a markov process and \mathbf{z}^{iid} follow an iid process. Both are related to idiosyncratic productivity and cost shocks. Next, I assume that $\iota(\omega k, k') \in \mathbb{R}$ is the investment expenditure function of the firm that is decreasing on k and increasing on k' , where $-\iota(\omega k, 0) \geq 0$ is the liquidation value of capital.²⁸ Last, I assume that the firm can issue long-term debt, which fraction $m^b \in (0, 1]$ matures randomly each period and pays $c^b \geq 0$ coupon payments on non-maturing debt. The rest of the model it follows as the baseline model.

I focus on the characterization of the liquidation choice. For the extended setup, firms dividends now can be defined as

$$d = \pi(\mathbf{z}, k) - \iota(k, k') - b [m^b + (1 - m^b) c^b] + Q(\cdot) (b' - (1 - m^b) b) \geq 0$$

where $Q(\cdot) (b' - (1 - m^b) b)$ is the amount of new debt issued. Analogous to the baseline

²⁸I assume no capital quality shock ω for notational clarity.

model, firms can default after issuing the new debt. The firm never default whenever

$$\begin{aligned} \max_{k'} \pi(\mathbf{z}, k) - \iota(k, k') - b[m^b + (1 - m^b)c^b] = \\ \underbrace{\pi(\mathbf{z}, k) - \iota(k, 0) - b[m^b + (1 - m^b)c^b]}_{n(\mathbf{z}, k, b)} \geq 0. \end{aligned} \quad (25)$$

where I can define n as the cash-on-hand of the firm is the sum of operational profits, liquidation value of capital, and maturing debt and coupon payments. On the other hand, we have that the firm will always default whenever

$$\begin{aligned} \pi(\mathbf{z}, k) - b[m^b + (1 - m^b)c^b] + \max_{k', b'} \left\{ -\iota(k, k') + \tilde{Q}(\mathbf{z}^p, k', b') (b' - (1 - m^b)b) \right\} = \\ n(\mathbf{z}, k, b) + \underbrace{\max_{k', b'} \left\{ -\iota(k, k') + \iota(k, 0) + \tilde{Q}(\mathbf{z}^p, k', b') (b' - (1 - m^b)b) \right\}}_{-\underline{n}(\mathbf{z}^p, k, b)} < 0 \end{aligned} \quad (26)$$

For multiplicity to exists we need that conditions (25) and (26) don't hold, i.e.,

$$0 > n(\mathbf{z}, k, b) \geq \underline{n}(\mathbf{z}^p, k, b). \quad (27)$$

Notice $\underline{n}(\mathbf{z}^p, k, b)$ bounded below by 0 (we can always implement $\{k' = 0, b' = b\}$). Moreover, there is the possibility of multiple equilibrium whenever the firm can have strictly positive external resources in this region of the state-space. Analogous to the baseline model, the firms default decision is determined by the firm's cash-on-hand and a threshold that depends on the fundamentals of the firm (shocks and financial position).

Further, assume there is no bankruptcy, $c^b = 0$ and creditors have no recovery for clarity, then the fundamental pricing schedule $\tilde{Q}(\cdot)$ (without coordination problem today) is pinned down by creditors no profit condition and is

$$\tilde{Q}(\mathbf{z}^p, b', k') = \mathbb{E} \left[\Lambda \left(\mathbf{1}_{\{n \geq \underline{n}\}} - \eta \mathbf{1}_{\{0 > n \geq \underline{n}\}} \right) \left(m^b + (1 - m^b) \tilde{Q}' \right) \right]. \quad (28)$$

The pricing schedule with long-term becomes recursive. Also tomorrow's coordination failures show up in the pricing schedule. These two observations suggest, in the firm problem with long-term debt, rollover crises could even be greater than in the baseline model. With long-term debt the pricing schedule is affected by the future stream of expected rollover crises, which can augment their impact.

Equity issuance. In the baseline specification, I don't allow firms to issue equity — $d \geq 0$. This assumption is consistent with the relatively low equity issuance observed in

the data, and helps on the tractability of the characterization and computational solution of the model. In this section, I will relax this assumption and show how this affects the characterization of the liquidation choice (equilibrium multiplicity). Moreover, I provide a discussion on the model concepts of rollover and solvency in the model.

Firms issue equity $e < 0$ at cost $\phi(e)$, which is decreasing in e and unbounded. I assume that equity is raised at the end of the period. Therefore, firms that never default are those when $Q = 0$ they don't default, i.e.,

$$V^{Q=0}(z, n) \geq 0$$

where $V^{Q=0}(z, n)$ is determined by

$$V^{Q=0}(z, n) = d + \mathbb{E} \left[\Lambda \tilde{V}(\mathbf{s}') \right]$$

subject to

$$d = \begin{cases} e & \text{if } e \geq 0 \\ e - \phi(e) & \text{if } e < 0 \end{cases}$$

$$e = n - qk'$$

where continuation value $\tilde{V}(\mathbf{s}')$ is analogous to one defined in the baseline firm problem. Thus, we can define safe region

$$\mathcal{S} = \{(z, n) : V^{Q=0}(z, n) \geq 0\}. \quad (29)$$

On the other hand, firms that default are those default even if $Q > 0$, i.e.,

$$V^{Q>0}(z, n) < 0$$

where $V^{Q>0}(z, n)$ is determined by

$$V^{Q>0}(z, n) = d + \mathbb{E} \left[\Lambda \tilde{V}(\mathbf{s}') \right]$$

subject to

$$d = \begin{cases} e & \text{if } e \geq 0 \\ e - \phi(e) & \text{if } e < 0 \end{cases}$$

$$e = n + \tilde{Q}(z, b', k') b' - qk'$$

where \tilde{Q} fundamental pricing schedule (no liquidation today) and continuation value $\tilde{V}(\mathbf{s}')$ (this analogous as the one in the baseline firm problem). Thus, we can define liquidation region

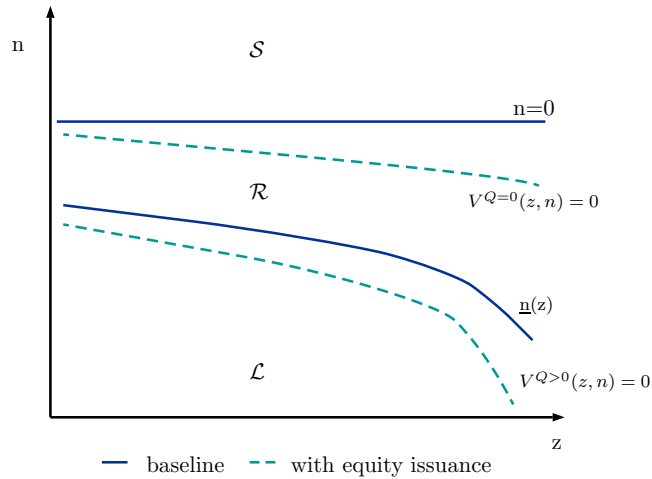
$$\mathcal{L} = \{(z, n) : V^{Q>0}(z, n) < 0\}. \quad (30)$$

Last, it's straightforward to show that $V^{Q>0}(z, n) \geq V^{Q=0}(z, n)$, then under certain conditions it can be the case that firm is in a region that is undetermined, i.e.,

$$\mathcal{R} = \{(z, n) : V^{Q>0}(z, n) \geq 0 \text{ and } V^{Q=0}(z, n) < 0\}. \quad (31)$$

Similar to the baseline mode, we have that firms can be exposed to coordination failure even if they can issue equity. Assume the equity issuance function $\phi(e) = \lambda|e|$ with $\lambda > 0$. In Figure C.4, I illustrate how these affects the characterization of the regions.

Figure C.4: Rollover and solvency regions across (z, n)
Baseline vs Equity Issuance model



Notes: figures shows the state-space (z, n) and the relevant regions for the liquidation choice for the baseline model (solid blue lines) and the model with equity issuance (dashed cyan lines).

Finally, it's worth noticing that in the model with unbounded equity issuance firms in \mathcal{L} threshold — $V^{Q>0}(z, n) = 0$ — have 0 value, which is the standard notion of economic insolvency. On the other hand, in the baseline model, or with bounded equity issuance, firms in \mathcal{L} threshold ($\underline{n}(z)$) could have strictly positive value. For my calibration, I find that firms in the insolvency threshold have values close to 0 — $V(z, \underline{n}(z)) \approx 0$ —; therefore, it approximates well the standard notion of insolvency.

D Appendix: U.S. Bankruptcy Code Institutional Details

In this section, I provide a brief review of some institutional details of the bankruptcy process for firms in the U.S. bankruptcy code. Chapter 7 and 11 are the typically used to liquidate or restructure the firm's liabilities. Chapter 7 is associated with firm liquidations, and Chapter 11 with restructurings (or sometimes called "reorganizations") and liquidations through piecemeal sales of firms.

Chapter 7 bankruptcy. Firms can enter a Chapter 7 liquidation process by filing directly to this chapter or being redirected by court ruling from other chapters (e.g., a judge may rule that a Chapter 11 case is switched to a Chapter 7 one). In this process, a case impartial trustee is appointed by the court to gather and sell the bankrupt firms assets to pay the firm's creditors.

Chapter 11 bankruptcy. Cases begin usually with the voluntary filing of the debtor (firm). Involuntary petitions (done by creditors) are very rare. When filing the firm automatically assumes an additional identity as the "debtor in possession." by 11 U.S.C. § 1101. The DIP provisions can provide access to new credit for the firm (DIP financing) and the automatic stay of firm's debt payments by 11 U.S.C. § 362(a) preclude (most) creditors from collecting the firm's debt. Further, when filing automatically a creditor's committee is appointed, which typically consists of the unsecured creditors who hold the seven largest unsecured claims against the debtor. Further, is common that creditors form ad hoc committees to coordinate their actions and have further surveillance over the debtor-in-possession's management of the firm.

The firm usually files a written disclosure statement and a reorganization plan. The disclosure statement contains information of the firms' assets, liabilities and other business affairs. Typically, the disclosure statements contains a counterfactual analysis of the credit recovery rates under liquidation (liquidation analysis) and other information relevant for the judge to decide if the reorganization chapter is appropriate. Lastly, the plan presented by the creditors needs to be approved by the creditors for the restructuring to be executed.

Moreover, Chapter 11 process are sometimes used by large firms to piecemeal liquidate the firm. The provisions provided by 11 U.S.C. § 363(b), "363 sales", allow firms to liquidate part of the firm's assets without the creditors' consent. This process is closer to a Chapter 7 "piecemeal" liquidation of the firm, instead of a restructuring or reorganization.