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# Market Failure or Government Failure?

## On the Causes of the Financial Crisis<sup>1</sup>

### 1 A Puzzle

For the media, the cause of the financial crisis is simple: Blind with greed, bank managers thought only about their bonuses and miscalculated badly in betting on *toxic* securities in the United States when the very label *subprime mortgages* should have alerted them to the fact that there was something wrong with these securities. Anybody who suggests that matters might be more complicated is denounced as a *homo exculpans*, a person who will excuse anything that managers do.<sup>2</sup>

If we look at the numbers, however, we see that there is something more to be explained. According to the Global Financial Stability Report of the International Monetary Fund (IMF) of October 2008, losses on non-prime mortgage-backed securities in US residential real-estate amount to some USD 500 billion.<sup>3</sup> This figure is both too small and too large.

The figure is too small in the sense that losses of USD 500 billion by themselves cannot explain why the financial system worldwide, with total assets in banking institutions amounting to some USD 80 to 90 trillion, has been so devastated by the crisis. Around 1990, losses of savings and loans institutions in the United States were said to amount to some USD 600 to USD 800 billion. A decade later, losses on NASDAQ and on the New York Stock Exchange amounted to USD 1.6 trillion in the calendar year 2000, USD

1.4 trillion in the calendar year 2001, and again USD 2.7 trillion in the calendar year 2002. Neither episode caused a worldwide financial crisis.

The figure of USD 500 billion of losses on non-prime mortgage-backed securities is too large in the sense that it can hardly be explained by anticipations of losses in debt service and/or repossession proceeds from these securities. According to the IMF's Global Financial Stability Report, the volume of non-prime mortgages that have been securitized amounts to about USD 1.1 trillion. Losses of USD 500 billion would correspond to a loss rate of 45% on these mortgages. If the debtor's down payment amounted to 5%, a loss rate of 45% on the mortgage would correspond to a depreciation of the property by more than 50%. In actual fact, residential-real-estate prices in the United States on average have declined by 19% from their peak in the summer of 2006 to the summer of 2008; across metropolitan areas, the maximum for this period was just below 33% (Phoenix, Tampa, Miami). To be sure, this *back-of-the-envelope* calculation neglects correlations; it also neglects the possibility that the decline of real-estate prices is still going on. However, this calculation also neglects the fact that, in actual fact, average down payment rates were 6% for subprime and 12% for "Alt-A", or near-prime, mortgages, and that about two thirds of these mortgages had been granted before

<sup>1</sup> Paper prepared for the Oesterreichische Nationalbank, May 2009. This paper relies heavily on the Jelle Zijlstra Lecture that I gave in Amsterdam on May 27, 2008, see Hellwig, *Systemic Risk in the Financial Sector: An Analysis of the Subprime-Mortgage Financial Crisis*, Jelle Zijlstra Lecture 6, Netherlands Institute for Advanced Study, Wassenaar 2008, also [www.coll.mpg.de/pdf\\_dat/2008\\_43online.pdf](http://www.coll.mpg.de/pdf_dat/2008_43online.pdf)

<sup>2</sup> *Frankfurter Allgemeine Zeitung*, October 27, 2008.

<sup>3</sup> In April 2009, the Global Financial Stability Report no longer provides separate numbers for securities backed by prime and securities backed by non-prime mortgages. For the aggregate, losses are given as USD 990 billion, as opposed to USD 580 billion in October 2008.

2006, at times when real-estate prices were significantly below their subsequent peaks.

The IMF's loss estimates are not actually based on projections of debt service on subprime mortgages. They are based on market prices for mortgage-backed securities. In some cases, where markets are not functioning any more, they are based on guesses as to what market prices might be if the markets were functioning. The IMF itself points out that these prices may not be good indicators of the returns that can be expected if one is willing to hold these securities to maturity. According to the IMF, therefore, market prices at this point are not a good basis for taking for long-term, value-maximising decisions.

Under *Fair Value Accounting*, however, these market prices are used to value the securities in the banks' books. If, over the past year, banks have forever been *discovering* new losses, the reason is not that bankers have been too stupid to know or too devious to reveal what their losses really are. The reason is rather, that, week by week and month by month, market prices have been going down and the banks' losses have become ever larger as market participants have become ever less willing to hold these securities – or less able to hold them.

The financial crisis is not just a matter of excessive lending in subprime mortgages and excessive securitization. To understand the crisis, we need to look at *systemic interdependence*, i.e., the mechanisms by which the subprime-mortgage crisis spilled over into the rest of the financial system. If we do so, we find that there actually were three distinct ingredients to the crisis:

- Flaws in subprime mortgage lending and securitization
- Flaws in financial structures of financial intermediaries

- Flaws in financial-system architecture

The latter two are interrelated. They are the real reason why something as unimportant as subprime mortgage lending has brought down the global financial system.

## 2 The Securitization of Real-Estate Finance

Before I turn to the systemic issues, I briefly discuss the role of securitization itself. I begin with the proposition that, in principle, the securitization of real-estate loans is a good thing. It would be problematic if the crisis led us to throw the baby out with the bathwater and banned this financial innovation.

Many financial crises in the past have been associated with real-estate finance, from the crisis of US savings and loans institutions in the 1980s to the banking crises that hit the United States, Sweden, Switzerland, Japan and other countries in the late 1980s and early 1990s.

Real estate is problematic because investments are lumpy, economic lifetimes are long, and, in any advanced economy, the total volume outstanding is very large, in most OECD countries on the same order of magnitude as the aggregate net value of financial assets. The discrepancy between the economic lifetime of the typical house and the investment horizon of the typical saver is a source of risk, refinancing risk if the real-estate investment is financed by short-term borrowing, valuation risk if the real-estate investment is financed by long-term securities. These risks could be avoided if we chose to live in tents. If we are not willing to live in tents, we must accept the existence of these risks as a fact of life. The only question then is who should bear them.

The crises of the 1980s and 1990s suggest that neither financial interme-

diaries nor borrowers are in a good position to do so. The assumption of interest rate risk of mortgage finance – and the horrible incidence of this risk – had the effect that, as of 1980/81, about two thirds of savings and loans institutions in the United States were technically insolvent. This was the major reason for the disaster of these institutions in the 1980s. Given this experience, the 1980s saw the emergence of adjustable-rate mortgages as a device for shifting interest rate risks to borrowers. When interest rates reached another peak around 1990, lending institutions found that increases in mortgage rates under the given adjustment clauses could induce debtor default; moreover, at the high market rates of interest, property values were depressed. The attempt to shift interest rate risk to debtors had merely transformed a part of this risk into credit risk. This was an important factor in the various banking crises of the late 1980s and early 1990s.

If neither financial intermediaries nor borrowers are in a good position to bear the risks of maturity transformation in real-estate investment and finance, one must find a way to pass these risks on to third parties that are better able to bear these risks. Such a third party might be a life insurance company or a pension fund. Because these institutions have liabilities with very long maturities, short-term fluctuations in refinancing conditions of the market prices of assets should matter much less for them than for depository institutions.

It also makes sense for some of the risks of real-estate finance in one country to be passed on to financial institutions worldwide. Such sharing of risks by many institutions in many countries improves the overall risk allocation by providing for greater diversification of

risks for each institution. Public discussion of the losses of European banks in the crisis often carries a populist undertone that a decent bank should invest its funds at home rather than abroad. To some extent, this may involve the notion that a bank has better information about the risks that it is incurring if it invests at home. Whether this is actually the case, is a matter of dispute; this notion may well be the result of overconfidence bred by familiarity. However, any regulation requiring “our” banks to lend to “our” firms would leave the banks seriously underdiversified. Such non-diversified domestic lending, in particular real-estate lending, actually played a major role in the banking crises of the late 1980s and early 1990s, e.g., in the Texan savings-and-loans crisis of 1986, which was largely due to state regulation requiring these institutions to limit their real-estate lending to properties in Texas and thereby exposing them to the effects of the oil price decline of 1985 on the Texan economy and Texan real estate markets.



*Securitization of real-estate finance* makes sense as a way to provide for such transfers and sharing of risks. The operations of *packaging* and *tranching* that are associated with securitization also make good economic sense. By

putting many different mortgages into one package that serves as collateral for a mortgage-backed security, one makes the mortgage-backed security somewhat independent of the risks that are



specific to any mortgage and any property. The standardization of securities that is thereby achieved provides for their marketability. With packages rather than single mortgages serving as collateral, there are likely to be fewer information asymmetries between buyers and sellers of these securities.

*Tranching*, i.e., the issuance of different kinds of debt securities with different priority rankings and equity as the first loss absorber, can in principle reduce adverse incentive effects from securitization. The probability distribution of losses from a portfolio of stochastically independent loans tends to be highly skewed; losses above 10% are exceedingly unlikely. Debt titles with claims of up to 90% of the returns on the portfolio may then be deemed as very safe. Credit risks on the underlying real-estate loans affect mainly the equity tranche. If the equity tranche goes back to the bank that initiated the mortgages, this bank has an incentive to use proper care in its credit-

worthiness assessments. If instead the equity tranche is retained by the securitizing bank, this institution will impose minimum standards on the mortgages it acquires from the initiating banks.<sup>4</sup>

When mortgage securitization was developed in the United States, the initiating banks were *not* made liable for the credit risks of the mortgages they issued. This omission initially did not make much of a difference. The securitization was carried out by *Fannie Mae* and *Freddie Mac*, the Federal National Mortgage Association and the Federal Home Loan Mortgage Corporation. These institutions *guaranteed* the debt service on the securities that they issued. At the same time, they imposed minimum standards for creditworthiness of the borrowers whose mortgage were to be taken into a mortgage portfolio for securitization; the term *prime mortgage* designates mortgages for which these minimum standards are fulfilled. Expected losses and market write-downs for prime mortgages and prime-mortgage-backed securities were actually negligible until quite recently. The losses that have occurred by now must be deemed a consequence, rather than an initial cause of the crisis.

Because *Fannie Mae* had originally been a government institution and, along with *Freddie Mac*, they still held a privileged position with the US Treasury, many investors believed that these *government sponsored enterprises* were backed by the government even though, in fact, they had been privatized long ago, and there was no explicit government guarantee. Given this belief, the debt service guarantees that they provided made mortgage-backed securities appear to be very safe.

<sup>4</sup> An example for this sort of arrangement is provided by the German *Pfandbrief*, a security that is backed by a portfolio of mortgages, where the issuing bank retains full liability for the promised debt service.

In the early 2000s, private investment banks discovered that debt securitization held great promises as a new line of business and aggressively moved into this field. As they did so, they introduced two important changes:

- Unlike Fannie and Freddie they did *not* provide any debt service guarantees for the mortgage-backed securities that were issued under their auspices, usually through special purpose vehicles that had been created for just this purpose.
- Moreover, they concentrated on mortgages that did *not* fulfil the quality requirements of Fannie Mae and Freddie Mac, the so-called *subprime* mortgages. In particular, they did not impose lower bounds on down payment rates or upper bounds on debt service to income ratios. Even for consumer credit scores, their standards were below those of Fannie and Freddie.

In these developments, no attention seems to have been paid to the fact that, with the displacement of Fannie and Freddie by the private investment banks and with the expansion mortgage lending and securitization from prime mortgages to subprime mortgages, there was no more check against a deterioration of borrower creditworthiness. The standards used for assessing subprime mortgages were easier to manipulate than the standards for prime mortgages, the private investment banks shunned the sort of liability that Fannie and Freddie had borne, and the initiating mortgage banks never had any liability at all. I suspect that this oversight was partly due to the fact that, by the time the private investment banks entered the field, securitization was seen as an investment banking activity and, cultural differences between investment bankers and loan officers being what they are, investment bankers have

about as much of a feeling for credit risk as loan officers have for risks in market pricing.

### 3 The Emergence of the Subprime Bubble between 2003 and 2006/07

From 2003 to 2006 the securitization activities of private investment banks in the area of *subprime mortgages* grew dramatically. By 2006, more than 40% of newly granted mortgages belonged to this category, as opposed to 9% in 2000; the share of subprime mortgages in the stock of outstanding mortgages had risen from 7% in 2000 to 14% in 2006.

During these years, there was a steady decline in mortgage quality. Some of this is evident in observable variables such as down-payment rates or debt service to income ratios. However, econometric studies of delinquencies suggest that the quality decline also concerned unobservable variables; conditional on all observable variables, delinquency rates twelve months after the conclusion of mortgage contracts rose steadily from 2001 to 2006. However, in 2004 and 2005, this reduction in borrower quality was concealed because increases in real-estate prices induced borrowers' equity shares to rise after the mortgage contract had been concluded.

After a period of stagnation in the 1990s, real-estate prices in the United States had increased by about 9% per year from 1999 to 2003, then by almost 14% from 2003 to 2004 and by almost 16% from 2004 to 2005. It is probably not a coincidence that the jump in the rate of real-estate appreciation in 2003 occurred at the very time when the private investment banks began to move aggressively into the mortgage securitization business.

It is probably also not a coincidence that this expansion occurred at a time when monetary policy in the United States was very loose and the yield curve was very steep. From 2002 to 2004, interest rates in US money markets were significantly below 2%, as opposed to 6% in 2000 and 4% in 2001. Long-term interest rates had also fallen, but much less than short-term rates: The interest rate for ten-year Treasuries fell from around 6% in 2000 to just over 4% between 2003 and 2005, the mortgage rate for fixed-rate *prime* mortgages fell from around 8% in the year 2000 to just under 6% p.a. between 2003 and 2005. The excess of this mortgage rate over the interest rate in the money market thus moved from 200 basis points (2 percentage points) in 2000 to over 400 basis points (4 percentage points) between 2003 and 2004.

The *risk premium* for fixed-rate *subprime* mortgages had been at 300 base points in 2001 and fell to 100 base points in 2004. This decline in the risk premium for subprime mortgages is all the more remarkable because, as mentioned above, it coincided with a decline in the quality of subprime-mortgage borrowers.<sup>5</sup> At the same time, there was no comparable decline in the risk premia for lower-rated corporate bonds.

These observations suggest that the entire development was supply-driven rather than demand-driven. The aggressive move of private investment banks into the business of securitizing subprime mortgages contributed to the lowering of risk premia even without any general change in risk appetites. Investors in search of high yields were happy to make more and more funds

available for housing finance in the subprime segment of the market. These investors did not impose any *market discipline*, i.e., quality standards that would have forced the securitizing investment banks and the initiating mortgage banks to address the problem of creditworthiness of the final borrowers.

Who were these investors? Three groups are of particular interest:

- Most equity tranches ended up with hedge funds and investment banks that were hungry for high yields, as the phrase went. Little thought seems to have been given to the implications of the marketing of equity tranches on the originating and/or the securitizing institutions' incentives.
- The so-called *mezzanine tranches*, subordinated-debt tranches, were being acquired by investment banks that wanted to use them as collateral in a second round of securitization, creating the so-called MBS CDOs, Collateralized Debt Obligations that were backed by Mortgage-Backed Securities. In this second round of securitization, debt securities with different priority rankings and equity as a first loss absorber would be issued against a portfolio of (mezzanine) mortgage-backed securities. One purpose of this operation was to obtain additional funds even for subordinated-debt tranches of mortgage-backed securities: If the credit risks in, say a portfolio of BBB-rated mezzanine securities were deemed to be sufficiently independent, the *super-senior tranche*, i.e., the debt with the highest priority ranking against this portfolio, might be given a AAA rating and might thereby be eligible

<sup>5</sup> The number of cases of fraud in connection with new mortgages grew fivefold from 1996 to 2005; in 2003 the growth rate was 77%, in 2004 it was 93%.

for inclusion in the portfolios of institutional investors, like certain insurers, that were required to invest only in AAA-rated securities. European banks, whose access to the initiating mortgage banks was worse than that of their American counterparts, were particularly active in this second round of securitization, which they saw as an opportunity to get a share of the action.

- Many of the securities that were produced by the different rounds of securitization were acquired by special entities, so-called conduits and structured investment vehicles (SIVs), which banks in Europe as well as the United States were using to acquire and hold such securities without having to back them up with equity capital. These special entities had virtually no equity capital of their own. Moreover, they financed themselves by issuing asset-backed commercial papers, debt securities with maturities of one year or less.

Remarkably, the different participants seem to have been entirely focussed on yields, apparently without paying much attention to risks. Questions about incentives and liabilities in origination and securitization did not receive much attention. The rating agencies' assessments of the different securities were not questioned. Indeed, there seems to have been no concern that ratings of AAA on different securities must mean different things if the interest rates on these securities differed by fifty or so basis points.

The assessments of mortgage-backed securities by the rating agencies were fundamentally flawed. They seem to have assumed that problems of borrower creditworthiness would be defused by continued increases in real-estate

prices, which would raise the borrowers' stakes in their properties and improve the protection that these properties were providing as collateral for the lenders. In assuming that real-estate prices would continue to rise, they failed to see that some of the reasons for the increases that had occurred, in particular the lowering of interest rates from 2000 to 2003 and the inflow of funds into these markets that was due to the development of subprime-mortgage securitization, were one-time changes that would not be repeated, and that, therefore, an extrapolation from past and current real-estate price increases into the future was unjustified.

The agencies also seem to have neglected the correlations of credit risks that were caused by the dependence of all mortgage contracts on common factors such as changes in market rate of interest and changes in real-estate prices. Neglect of correlations is the



only reason I can see for why, in the assessment of MBS CDOs, they would have given an AAA rating to the super-senior tranche on a package of BBB-rated mezzanine securities. However, correlations came into play when interest rates again began to rise and real-estate prices began to fall.



#### 4 The Onset of the Crisis

Beginning in 2005, US monetary policy became more restrictive, with some caution at first and then very strongly, so that interest rates in US money markets moved back to around 5% in 2006 and 2007. Real-estate prices continued



to rise from 2005 to 2006, albeit at a slower rate of 7.5%; in the summer of 2006, they began to fall, first slowly, at 3.6% from 2006 to 2007 and then at 15.3% from the summer of 2007 to the summer of 2008.

When real-estate prices began to fall, delinquency rates increased dramatically. The impending difficulties in subprime mortgages and mortgage-backed securities were quickly recognized, but, prior to August 2007, hardly anybody appreciated the implications for the overall financial system. In April 2007, the Global Financial Stability Report of the International Monetary Fund provided a detailed description of the crisis in subprime-mortgages and subprime-mortgage-backed securities, but ended with an assessment that the crisis was unlikely to spread to other parts of the financial system. In June 2007, the Annual Report of the Bank for International Settlements provided a similar assessment.

In August 2007, however, the crisis of subprime mortgages and subprime

mortgage-backed securities did turn into an international financial crisis. The triggering event was the downgrading of a large set of mortgage-backed securities by the rating agencies, some of them by three grades at once, something that was almost unheard of for corporate bonds. This downgrading had an immediate impact on the market prices of these securities. Even more importantly, it made market participants wake up to the fact that these securities were much less safe than had been thought to be, not just in terms of the underlying credit risk but also in terms of market risk associated with the downgrading and the system's reaction to this downgrading.

This first surprise was almost immediately followed by a second surprise. Price declines for mortgage-backed securities caused losses at institutions holding them. For some institutions, these losses immediately created solvency and refinancing problems. Hardest hit were some hedge funds and the *conduits* and *structured investment vehicles* (SIVs that European and American banks had used as instruments to invest in mortgage-backed securities without having these investments count towards statutory capital requirements. These entities had practically no equity capital; they invested in asset-backed securities and refinanced themselves by issuing commercial paper. Given the absence of equity, the initial price declines of mortgage-backed securities caused these entities to become effectively insolvent; as a result, they could no longer refinance themselves on the commercial paper market and had to call in the liquidity assistance promises that they had received from the sponsoring banks. Not all of these promises were honoured, however. Moreover, given the losses that had already occurred, some of

these promises exceeded the sponsoring banks' own capacities to absorb losses. The liquidity assistance promises of Sächsische Landesbank to its conduits, for instance, amounted to more than ten times the bank's equity!

Whereas the existence and use of conduits and SIVs had always been known, hardly anybody had appreciated the scope of their activities. *Ex post*, their holdings of asset-backed securities have been estimated at USD 1 trillion as of July 2007, equal to almost the total outstanding volume of securitized subprime mortgages (USD 1.1 trillion) and over 17% of the volume of all securitized residential mortgages in the United States. The information that such a large part of the outstanding volume of mortgage-backed securities had been financed by issuing short-term commercial paper and that this refinancing mode was no longer available very much magnified the impact of the drastic downgrading of mortgage-backed securities by the rating agencies.

The surprises that had just been experienced contributed to an atmosphere of mutual mistrust. The solvency problems of conduits and SIVs and of the banks that had sponsored them raised the question of who else might be involved. As a result of such mistrust, interbank lending was much reduced; indeed, from August 2007 to September 2008, there were already several instances when interbank markets stopped operating altogether, and central banks were the only institutions providing liquidity.

Given this mistrust of investors, institutions like investment banks and money market funds that had been used

to refinancing themselves by short-term securities now had to make provisions for the event that their financiers might cease funding them. Money market funds did so by moving out of commercial paper and into government securities, from cash to short-term Treasuries; investment banks also tried to shift from less liquid to more liquid assets. This left little room for buying mortgage-backed securities, even though the prices of these securities might have dropped much more than the discounted present values of expected debt service on the underlying mortgages.

## 5 Dynamics of the Crisis

In the atmosphere of apprehensiveness and mistrust that resulted from the twin surprises of August 2007,<sup>6</sup> the international financial system has inexorably moved in a downward spiral. At times, the spiral has been slowed down by central banks providing liquidity to the system. However, the central banks were not able to remove fears about refinancing and doubts about the solvency of prospective borrowers. As long as solvency was an issue, there was no prospect of the spiral ending. Indeed, the downward spiral itself contributed to deepening concerns about solvency – until the insolvency of Lehman Brothers showed that such concerns had a material basis in fact and interbank markets broke down altogether. It remains to be seen whether the subsidies and guarantees that governments in the United States and Europe have provided after the Lehman fiasco will eventually eliminate the prevailing doubts about the viability of financial institutions.

<sup>6</sup> I am treating the breakdown of maturity transformation by conduits and structured investment vehicles (SIVs) as an „independent“ surprise. While this breakdown was triggered by the downgrades of subprime-mortgage-backed securities, financing structures of these institutions were so unhealthy that some other shock, e.g., a general increase in interest rates, would have had the same effect.

The downward dynamics have been driven by the interplay of the following factors:

*Market Malfunctioning:* The prices of many asset-backed securities have gone down much more than expectations of future debt service or foreclosure proceeds would seem to warrant. This explains the discrepancy, mentioned in the introduction, between the IMF's October 2008 estimate of USD 500 billion of losses non-prime mortgage-backed securities and the losses that would have been anticipated on the basis of actual developments in real-estate markets. There are few buyers for these securities, and some markets have become inactive altogether. Even where markets have remained active, following the twin surprises of August 2007, maturity premia and risk premia have risen and prices have declined dramatically. The lack of buyers is due partly to investors feeling too weak to take on new commitments, partly to their expecting the price declines to continue, and partly to their being afraid of adverse selection. Akerlof's *lemons* problem, whereby, in the presence of asymmetric information about quality, the average quality that is put up for sale is worse than the average quality outstanding, is relevant for used securities as well as used cars.<sup>7</sup>

*Accounting Rules:* Many financial institutions have treated asset-backed securities as market risks, rather than credit risks, because this allows them

to determine capital requirements on the basis of their own internal models. For these risks, they must follow the principle of *mark-to-market or fair value accounting*. Declines in market values must immediately enter the banks' financial statements. In cases where markets have ceased to function, the banks must use estimates of what the market prices would be if the markets did function.<sup>8</sup> To the extent that market prices are deemed to provide measures of value that are more *objective*, less at the discretion of the banker than the assessment of credit risks, this difference may be seen as an advantage of fair value accounting over traditional accounting for credit risks.<sup>9</sup> However, if market prices are driven by panic and fears of a liquidity shortage, fair value accounting may be providing the bank with the wrong signals on which to base its strategy.

*Insufficiency of "free" equity capital:* In their quest for high rates of return on equity, many banking institutions had greatly expanded their operations relative to their equity base. They had little or no equity in excess of regulatory requirements. Fair value accounting and regulatory requirements being what they are, losses from declines in the market prices of assets required the banks to react immediately, either by recapitalizing or by *deleveraging*, i.e., by selling assets. By deleveraging, they put additional pressure on asset markets and on other institutions

<sup>7</sup> This problem is also plaguing the various toxic-asset purchase programs by which governments are trying to relieve banks of these securities.

<sup>8</sup> This requirement has only recently been abandoned.

<sup>9</sup> Thus, for a long time in the 1990s, Japanese banks did not write down their loan portfolios even when it was clear that many of the loans in these portfolios were bad; this failure to acknowledge losses delayed the cleanup of the crisis and thus contributed to the prolonged recession in Japan. In the early 1980s, US savings and loans institutions kept long-term, fixed-interest mortgages at face value in their books, even though, at the double-digit market rates of interest, the discounted present values of debt service on these mortgages were much lower. Thereby they concealed the fact that they were technically insolvent and gave themselves the opportunity to "gamble for resurrection", with the consequence that the cleanup after 1990 was much costlier than a cleanup in 1981 would have been.

that were faced with further price declines.

*Insufficiency of regulatory capital:* Banks were also economizing on regulatory capital. Using the model-based approach to determine regulatory capital for market risks, some of the most sophisticated institutions had managed to reduce their equity to a small fraction of the balance sheet, in the case of UBS some 40 billion on a balance sheet of some 1600 billion Swiss francs. At such low levels, it does not take much of an asset price decline to raise doubts about solvency. Even if solvency is not of an issue, deleveraging needs are likely to be quite drastic.

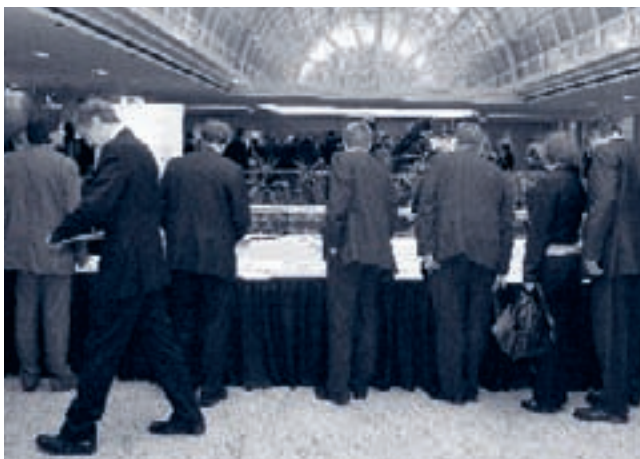
It is important to appreciate the role of capital requirements in the downward spiral. Whereas past studies had discussed pro-cyclical effects of capital regulation in terms of macroeconomic flows of aggregate demand, corporate revenues, corporate borrowers' debt service, bank profits, new loans and aggregate corporate investment, in this crisis, we have seen pro-cyclical effects of capital regulation on stocks of assets and liabilities in the bank balance sheets. Asset prices declines that induce write-downs automatically eat into the banks' capital. Under a mechanical regime of capital regulation, the bank is forced to sell asset, possibly even to realize book losses that are not matched by losses in the present values of future returns on the securities in question. The bank's asset sales induce further declines in asset prices and put additional pressure on other banks.

Financial developments since August 2007 have been driven by the interplay of price declines in malfunctioning markets, fair-value accounting, capital requirements, and deleveraging. At times, the downward movement has accelerated, sometimes because individual banks ran into trouble, some-

times because, once again, interbank markets broke down. On these occasions, liquidity assistance from central banks, to individual institutions or to the market as a whole, has brought some relief, but was unable to stop the downward movement as such. Whenever market participants and the media proclaimed that the worst of the crisis was over, the next problem would appear on the horizon.

At last, the insolvency of Lehman Brothers had such repercussions for other institutions (AIG) and for asset markets worldwide that governments in the United States and Europe and, ultimately, the taxpayers have become involved. We can only hope that this government involvement will eventually stop the downward spiral and to help rebuild confidence among the actors in the financial system.

This is by no means certain, however. For the immediate future, we must fear the feedback effects from the recession of the real economy on the fi-



ancial sector. At least in Europe, the crisis did not hit the real economy until the last quarter of 2008. The downturn that we have experienced since then has been more radical than any downturn since 1945. If past experience is anything to go by, we must expect this downturn to lead to a sharp deteriora-

tion in the performance of outstanding loans from banks to firms. Problems with debt service will require further write-downs, now on loans, rather than securities. Such write-downs will put additional pressure on bank equity.

Under the rules of Basel II, banks will have to assess the effects of the re-



cession on the creditworthiness of all their loan clients, including those that continue to fulfil their obligations. Such reassessments may require further write-downs; even when no write-down occurs, under Basel II, any notion that a client's creditworthiness is lowered by the recession requires the bank to hold more equity against the loan in question.

With little scope for recapitalization, the additional pressure on bank equity is likely to trigger another wave of deleveraging. As Basel II enhances the pressure on bank equity, it reinforces the downward spiral of the financial system and the real economy.

In the introduction, I asked why the (expected) losses from subprime-mortgage lending have disrupted the global financial system. The answer to this question lies in the interconnectedness of the system and in the interplay of the factors that I have described. Because of these systemic interactions, the twin surprises of August 2007 induced a

gradual implosion of markets, prices and institutions that even the central banks' interventions could not bring to a stop.

## 6 Whose Fault Was It? Individual Misbehaviour

In assessing these developments, it is important to distinguish between individual misbehaviour and faulty system design. *Individual misbehavior* involves choices that end up harming the individual or institution that have taken them. By this, I do not mean choices that turned out badly *ex post* because of bad luck, but choices whose flaws should have been obvious *ex ante*. *Faulty system design* involves institutional arrangements and regulatory rules that lead to undesirable results, for the institutions that are involved or even the financial system as a whole, when individuals pursuing their own interests are subjected to these arrangements and rules. The question of who was responsible arises for flaws in system design as for individual misbehaviour, but it arises at another level, the level of regulatory design rather than any specific actions.

By this logic, the insufficiency of creditworthiness assessments by originating banks in subprime lending would be deemed to be a matter of faulty system design rather than individual misbehavior. Because the originate-and-distribute system of mortgage securitization had been designed so that the originating banks had no liability, these banks had no reason to spend more than a minimum of resources on creditworthiness assessments. The fact that they had no liability, however, was an instance of faulty system design.

As the genesis and the evolution of the crisis have been described above, the following instances of misbehaviour seem to have played a role:

- Investment bankers focussing on growth and market shares in securitization ignored risks. To be sure, once they sold the securities they would no longer be liable. However, in the crisis, the losses just from *warehousing* securities in the process of securitization turned out to be enormous.
- All sorts of investors, individuals, private universities, foundations, German public banks, American and Swiss investment banks were so much concerned about yields that they neglected the associated risks and failed to ask why a mortgage-backed security with a rating of AAA was paying more interest than a corporate bond with the same rating.
- These investors also failed to think through the implications of liability rules for incentives in origination and securitization.
- Risk control and risk management in the large investment banks that were involved in securitization and/or holding mortgage-backed securities failed to provide comprehensive analyses of their institutions' risk exposures from these securities, taking into account the joint dependence of securitization as a business and of the returns on securities held on the movements of residential real-estate prices in the United States and on the factors that were driving these movements.
- To the extent that credit risks were hedged, risk control and risk management did not pay attention to the possibility that, because these risks were highly correlated, their counterparties, monoline insurers or institutions like AIG, might go under at the very time when they would be called upon to substitute for the defaulting borrowers.
- The *rating agencies* also failed to develop an adequate, comprehensive and timely understanding of the relevant risks and the correlations between these risks taking into account their joint dependence on movements in underlying factors.
- *Conduits* and *SIVs* were engaging in excessive maturity transformation. Not having any equity worth mentioning, investing in long-term assets, and refinancing through the money market would be a sure recipe for disaster even if the long-term assets were not subject to credit risk but *only* to interest rate risk. The risks of such maturity transformation should have been known to any professional banker.
- By the same token, the risks that the pledges of liquidity assistance to *conduits* and *SIVs* imposed on the sponsoring banks should have been obvious to any professional banker.
- Regulators and politicians must take the blame for allowing significant loopholes in banking regulation. If conduits and SIVs were treated as parts of the sponsoring banks, they should have been on the banks' balance sheets from the beginning. If they were treated as independent market participants, the sponsoring banks' pledges of liquidity assistance should have been subjected to large-exposure regulation. Excuses of the sort that large-exposure regulation does not apply to promises with maturities below 365 days are ridiculous.
- Finally, mention must be made of the looseness of monetary policy in the years 2002 to 2004. The low money market rates and steep yield curves that the USA had in these years made borrowing short to lend long appear to be very attractive and contributed to the push of US

investment banks into the business of securitizing subprime mortgages. The Federal Reserve Bank should have known that this constellation was bound to make the financial system vulnerable, so that a reversal of monetary policy would be difficult to achieve without endangering financial institutions. After all, this is what happened when the liquidity flush of 1988 was followed by the restrictiveness of 1989 and when the expansionary policy of the years after 1990 was ended in 1994.

## 7 Flaws in System Design

The following *flaws in system design* were also important:

- The decline in the quality of subprime mortgages was at least partly caused by a lack of incentives for originating mortgage banks to spend resources on creditworthiness assessments. Incentives were missing because (i) the originating banks did not carry any liability and (ii) the securitizing private investment banks – unlike Fannie Mae and Freddie Mac – did not impose strong quality standards of their own.
- The failure of the securitizing private investment banks to impose strong quality standards of their own was due to their not being liable either – unlike Fannie Mae and Freddie Mac. Their failure to provide guarantees was possible because hedge funds were willing to buy up equity tranches – presumably satisfying the demands of final investors hungry for yields.
- The failure of the securitizing investment banks to impose strong quality standards was also supported by the willingness of other investment banks to buy up mezzanine securities for a second round of securitization (MBS CDOs). Apparently, these other investment banks cared more about market shares in the securitization business than about the credit risks in mezzanine securities. Incentives for investment banks in the second round of securitization to impose quality standards were just as deficient as for investment banks in the first round of securitization. For the economist, it is not evident that the second and higher rounds of securitization served any useful purpose – except of course, to get additional AAA ratings so as to attract additional investors that were required by regulation to invest only in AAA-rated securities.
- The absence of any regulation or supervision for *conduits* and *SIVs* and for their relations with the sponsoring banks implied that the extent of maturity transformation by these institutions was by and large unknown. When this became known in August 2007, it contributed greatly to the shock, perhaps even more than the unexpectedly large downgrading of the subprime-mortgage-backed securities as such.
- Private-sector banks had significant governance problems. Internally, they were unable to subject their investment bankers to effective risk control. Externally, in relations with shareholders, analysts, and the media, the mechanisms that support *market discipline* in order to enhance *shareholder value* were biased towards yields with little concern for risk. When Deutsche Bank was claiming that a 25% rate of return on equity was the *benchmark* for modern banking institutions, it raised protests among labor unions militating against layoffs, but not by financial analysts suggesting that

this benchmark might be an indication of undercapitalization and demanding that the bank provide information about the risks associated with this benchmark. Moreover, the mechanisms that support *market discipline* in order to enhance *shareholder value* do not pay much attention to risks that will be borne by others than shareholders, i.e., the banks' creditors or the taxpayer when he is called upon to save the bank.

- German public banks had even greater governance problems. Whereas private investors and banks may have been suffering from yield mania, these public banks were caught up in a *yield panic*. When interest rates and intermediation margins are low, and you do not have much of an established business model, when the implicit public subsidies that you used to get in the past have just been outlawed by the European Commission, where do you get the returns you need in order to cover your operating costs and to satisfy the demands of the politicians? For these banks, mortgage-backed securities looked like a god-sent remedy, especially when refinanced at 1% in the American money market. For the politicians sitting in these banks' supervisory committees, ...
- The portfolio managers and risk managers of institutional investors cannot be blamed for not having taken into consideration the system risk exposure that was created by maturity transformation in *conduits* and *structured investment vehicles* (SIVs). After all, they did not and could not know the extent of this maturity transformation. They can be blamed, however, for not having paid enough attention to the possi-

bility that there might be a major risk that their risk models had not captured. I see this as a problem of system design rather than any specific misbehaviour. Common experience suggests that there are always matters outside one's horizon of analysis; any system of risk management must address such eventualities and consider how to make provisions for them.

- The preceding point concerns the system of banking regulation as well as the system of risk management at the level of the individual bank. When they allowed the banks to determine their regulatory capital for market risks exclusively on the basis of their own quantitative risk models, the regulators – like the bank managers – neglected the possibility that important risks might not have been captured by the models.



- The very mechanical approach to capital regulation that we have under the Basel Accord has greatly contributed to the interplay between malfunctioning markets, fair value accounting, capital requirements, and deleveraging that has driven the implosion of the system since August 2007. If overall capital requirements had been higher,



the multipliers would have been smaller. If the application of the regulation would have left more scope for discretion with respect to the speed of deleveraging, the systemic impact of the regulation would have been cushioned even more.



- Banking regulation and supervision must be criticized for their lack of systemic thinking. They tend to think about the solvency of the individual institution and the protection of its investors in isolation. Yet, the survival of the institution also depends on its systemic environment. The fact that hedge funds, *conduits* etc. were not subject to any reporting requirements makes sense if we think about these institutions in isolation and consider their investors to be sophisticated enough and important enough to fend for themselves. It does not make sense if we think in systemic terms about the roles of these institutions as counterparties in the securitization business or about the impact of their failure on asset prices and all the institutions that are thereby affected. Deleveraging, i.e.,

the sale of assets after a loss, can make sense as a way of adapting the bank's risk exposure to its reduced equity,<sup>10</sup> but it is counterproductive if the induced decline in asset prices requires other banks to deleverage as well, with additional price effects that hit right back at the first bank.

## 8 Market Failure or Government Failure? National-Champions and Regulatory Capture

In thinking about what went wrong, it is misleading to think merely in terms of market failure or government failure. Some of the most important flaws in the design of the financial system have been the result of interactions between market participants, regulators, and politicians. The evolution of the current regime of banking regulation provides a case in point.

Following a period of deregulation, from the mid-1970s to the mid-1980s, in the second half of the 1980s, the Basel Committee on Banking Supervision began to think about international harmonization of banking regulation, in particular, the regulation of bank capital, where harmonization is not obviously nonsensical (as would be the case for the regulation of deposit rates or asset allocation rules, the regulatory instruments of yesteryear). The result was the 1988 Basel Accord providing for an 8% capital requirement for credit risks. The industry was somewhat taken by surprise. In 1993, however, when the Basel Committee came up with a proposal to extend the Basel Accord to market risks, the industry was better prepared. It quickly ridiculed the proposal (now known as the *standard approach*) for its coarseness

<sup>10</sup> Even here, there is a possibility that the realization of losses through a fire sale in a malfunctioning market may destroy the viability of the bank in the medium run.

and its lack of calibration of capital requirements to differences in the risks of the different assets. By contrast, the industry's own techniques of risk management and risk control were said to be much more advanced so that the Basel Committee's proposal would actually require the industry to reduce the quality of its risk management. Two years later, in 1995, the Basel Committee came up with a new proposal, which, according to the industry's wishes, allowed for the model-based approach as an alternative way of determining capital requirements. This new proposal was quickly enacted in the 1996 Amendment to the Basel Accord.

This regulatory capture by sophistication was made possible by a complete lack of conceptual foundation for the regulation in question. Capital, it is said, serves as a buffer. No mention is made of the fact that only *free* capital serves as a buffer; required capital is needed to satisfy requirements and cannot therefore serve as a buffer. Nor is any mention made of the fact that deleveraging induced by the interdependence of interim losses and capital requirements has negative effects on market prices and on other institutions. Systemic effects lie outside the horizon of a regulator who believes that, if he is safeguarding the solvency of each institution, then he is also safeguarding the system. No attention is paid to the fact that, because of correlations between underlying and counterparty risks or because of parallel exposures of different institutions to the same underlying risk, key elements of the individual institutions risk exposure cannot be assessed let alone measured. Nor has any attention been paid to the question of

how to handle the dynamics of adjustment after interim losses that reduce the institution's equity.

In discussions about Basel II, I regularly hear: Surely you must agree that the kind of fine-tuning in assessing credit risks is great progress over Basel I (the 1988 Accord)?! This kind of question cannot actually be answered unless one knows what the purpose of the regulation is. On this, I have never seen a coherent account. The regulators talk about a buffer. Academic economists tend to talk about capital as an incentive device, reducing the banks' incentives to gamble. Yet a third objective might be to give the supervisor a breathing space in which to intervene, to take corrective actions, before the bank is taken over by a bankruptcy court. This third objective would not call for any risk calibration of capital requirement at all. It would call for a regime that is safe from manipulations aiming at delaying the regulator's intervention. It might also call for a calibration of capital requirements according to differences in the ease of disposing of assets as the supervisor intervenes prior to insolvency. If this is the purpose of the regulation, we should need something quite different from what we have today.

As matters stand, however, we should acknowledge that the regime of capital regulation that we have today has materially contributed to the crisis, first in allowing banks to have extremely low regulatory capital and second in greatly contributing to the downward spiral since August 2007. We should also acknowledge that the introduction of this regime in the 1990s has taken place not only without conceptual foundation, but also without

any theoretical or empirical analysis of what its effects might actually be.<sup>11</sup>

To be sure, capital requirements are not the only piece of banking regulation that we have. There are also the second and third pillars of Basel II, concerning the professionalism of the bank's management and market discipline. But why did the supervisors not make more use of the powers they have under the second pillar in order to disallow some of the practices that were obviously deleterious? And why did the supervisors not put more pressure on banks to check the assumption about correlations in their models and to think about whether their capital would also be able to deal with risks that were not in the models?

If one asks a supervisor this question, he will answer that the banks would have protested and the politicians and the media would not have allowed it. In the good years, as things seemed to be going well, nobody wanted to put sand into the wheels and risk stopping the party. Concerns for the competitive positions of national champions in international market played an important role. The fact that there is a difference between the public interest and the private interests of a bank, a difference between concerns about risk from the public perspective

and the perspective of private players, seems to have been lost.

In my view, we should be less concerned about the respective roles of market failures and government failures in the crisis and more concerned with why, in the decade prior to the crisis, there were too few voices, in the public sector as well as the industry itself, that acknowledged the difference between private and public interests and that questioned the risk implications of current regulation and current business strategies. Arranging the system so as to make room for such concerns being voiced may be the most important task for regulatory reform.

At this point, most politicians seem to be agreed that financial supervision must be expanded and strengthened. However, there are few signs indicating that the politicians appreciate the extent to which not just the lack of supervision over hedge funds, conduits and SIVs, but also the very mechanics of the system that is imposed on banks has contributed to the financial crisis. If we are to prevent a recurrence of such a systemic implosion, we need to address this problem as well. For this purpose, the conceptual foundations of banking regulation and supervision must be altogether reconsidered.

<sup>11</sup> Compare the procedure leading to the 1996 Amendment to the Basel Accord to the effort that a pharmaceutical company must undertake to get approval for the introduction of a new drug.