

# Towards the end of the banks/sovereign nexus



## Financial crises "double whammy"

Fiscal policy becomes more potent after a financial crisis, as the economy becomes less responsive to monetary policy and the private sector's generalized preference for deleveraging needs to be offset by public spending or tax cuts. However, very quickly after a brief period of coordinated fiscal push, governments throughout the developed world ditched the textbook and moved into all-out austerity in 2010, even though the recovery was shaky. We argue here that the large effective and potential financial burden of supporting the financial sector (both on and off the governments' balance sheet) explains this premature conversion to fiscal restraint. This is the "double whammy" effect of financial crises: beyond the direct, negative impact on aggregate demand, they also reduce the potency of counter-cyclical economic policies.

## Banks/sovereign loop in the EA was worse, absent QE

In the Euro area, the impact of the banks/sovereign negative feedback loop was even more acute than in the rest of the developed world, given the tardiness in addressing the structural issues of the banking sector and more fundamentally because, in the absence of QE, banks played the role of marginal lender to the government - thanks to the ECB's generous liquidity policy - at the expense of funding the private sector.

## But things are improving

However, thanks to progress in the capital position of banks and the new "presumption of bail-in" - which in our view could only come after the most acute systemic banking risks were actually alleviated thanks to government support (e.g. in Spain) - member states' exposure to the financial sector has now fallen. This liberates more room for manoeuvre for counter-cyclical fiscal policy. The recent shift, in the Euro area, from all-out austerity to a neutral, or even slightly stimulative, fiscal stance would not be sustainable, in our view, if government faced massive contingent liabilities.

## And QE will help reduce the loop even further

At the same time, to wean banks off lending to the governments at the expense of the private sector without jeopardizing the governments' funding capacity - which would be equally detrimental to economic growth - the Euro area needed to find an alternative marginal lender. This is achieved by QE. In a nutshell, QE is the necessary complement to banking union and the Single Resolution Mechanism to break the banks/sovereign nexus. This is another, indirect, transmission mechanism of QE to the real economy. Under cover of QE, we think that the regulatory authorities will try to incentivize banks to reduce their exposure to sovereigns. This is the message that Daniele Nouy, head of SSM, sent in a recent interview in the Handelsblatt, in which she opined that holdings of government bonds should be limited to a quarter of banks' equity.

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## Bank crises change the fiscal textbook

Economies which experienced acute financial crises tend to mend more slowly than when faced with other types of exogenous shocks. This has become a frequent explanation of the surprisingly slow recovery which followed the 2008/2009 Great Recession. A recent paper by the IMF<sup>1</sup> estimates that when recessions come after a major rise in bank credit, it takes three years for output to return to peak, against 1.5 years in “normal” recessions. Intuitively, it is fairly easy to understand why. After a financial crash, which significantly constrains available liquidity, firms and households are incentivised to de-leverage, which postpones any rebound in capital expenditure and consumption, while banks, focusing on rebuilding their capital base to deal with increased asset impairment, restrict the supply of credit.

Post-financial crash, policy recommendations are also likely to differ from the usual textbook approach. With monetary policy impaired - since both the demand and supply of credit are less reactive to changes in central banks' rates - fiscal policy becomes the weapon of choice to support the economy, and public spending needs to increase to offset higher saving in the private sector. Another version of this view - popularized by Blanchard - is that in the aftermaths of a financial crisis, fiscal multipliers should be higher than usual.

However, in 2010, while the recovery was still shaky, the developed world consciously chose another route: after the initial somewhat-coordinated push of 2008-2009, the US and the EU called for fiscal restraint. While the EU's preference for fiscal austerity is now routinely derided and seen as the key ingredient in Europe's counter-performance over the last few years, we think it is worth remembering that the Obama administration also chose austerity in 2010.

Irrespective of their prior ideological leanings, and within various institutional set-ups (fiscal rulebook in a monetary union or full national sovereignty on budgetary issues) governments of all ilk, in the developed world, chose restrictive fiscal policies. The similarity in the magnitude of the fiscal tightening (measured as the change in underlying balance as estimated by the OECD) across the US, the UK and the Euro area between 2009 and 2011 is remarkable (respectively 1.6%, 1.7% and 1.4% of GDP).

We argue here that the political and financial cost of bailing out banks, at the onset of the Great Recession, can explain this collective choice, with particularly negative effects in the Euro area. In this approach, the burden of shoring up the financial system led to fiscal restraint, which is another channel through which the financial crisis had lingering effects over domestic demand.

## Bailouts evict traditional fiscal support

Nearly everywhere in the developed world, taxpayers paid to shore up their financial systems with little visible impact on economic activity, since bailouts did not remove the need for balance sheet shrinkage in the banking industry. It is not surprising that they were reluctant to engage in any additional activist policy which they would see as increasing, in the long run, their liabilities.

Indeed, on top the immediate cost of the bailouts, public debt trajectories could be affected by the impact on governments' funding rates of “off-balance sheet” liabilities. Beyond the public cash actually spent on recapitalisation and asset

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<sup>1</sup> "From Banking to sovereign stress: implications for public debt". March 2015.

impairment relief, governments explicitly extended massive guarantees to the banking sector and often made it plain that, if need be, recapitalisations could go much further. According to the European Commission's state aid data, between 2008 and 2013 EU governments spent EUR 636bn in total on bank recapitalisation and asset relief, but a total of EUR 1490bn had been pre-approved by the European authorities (c.11% of GDP), i.e. could have been legally triggered if the need had arisen. In addition to this, European governments at peak offered EUR 905bn in guarantees, another 6% of GDP (Table 1 and Table 2). Even strong economies, with lots of room for manoeuvre on fiscal policy, were potentially facing large liabilities as a consequence of their support of the local banking sector (more than 25% of GDP for Germany).<sup>2</sup>

Obviously, at some point some probability of these potential liabilities would have to be factored in, raising risk premia. This "ticking bomb" of off-balance sheet liabilities could reasonably call for restraint on the other item of public finances.

The weight of actual, rather than potential, support for the financial sector should not be understated either. Chart 1 shows that the impact of financial sector support on the governments' fiscal position was very similar to that of the post-crisis lower aggregate demand (the "cyclical component" of the deficits), in both the UK and the Euro area.

This does not mean that ideological preferences play no role. We do not believe there is a mechanical relationship between higher spending to bail out banks and subsequent lower spending on social transfers and public investment. However, we think that the deterioration in public debt trajectories triggered by the bailouts made the argument of the usual "fiscal orthodox" line easier to sell.

In a nutshell, while financial crises make fiscal multipliers larger than usual, they also tend to "evict" public spending because of the need to shore up the financial system, making "traditional" fiscal support less likely. It is when the fiscal support is the most needed that it is the least available.

Table 1: Government's Financial Sector Support (% of 2013 GDP)

	On-balance sheet liabilities		(b) Asset impairment relief	Off-balance sheet liabilities
	(a)+(b)	(a) Recapitalis.		
	US	4.5%		
UK	7.4%	5.3%	2.1%	12.0%
EA	4.9%	3.4%	1.5%	12.9%
DE	5.3%	2.3%	2.9%	5.2%
FR	1.3%	1.2%	0.1%	6.8%
ES	9.3%	6.0%	3.2%	14.2%
IT	0.5%	0.5%	0.0%	10.7%

Source: EC state Aid Scoreboard, IMF Fiscal Monitor October 2014

Table 2: Financial Crisis Aid (% of 2013 GDP)

	Used amounts		Approved amounts	
	On-balance sheet liabilities	Off- balance sheet liabilities	On-balance sheet liabilities	Off- balance sheet liabilities
UK	7.4%	12.0%	19.1%	26.9%
EA	4.9%	12.9%	10.8%	29.0%
DE	5.3%	5.2%	7.2%	17.0%
FR	1.3%	6.8%	1.6%	19.0%
ES	9.3%	14.2%	30.7%	34.6%
IT	0.5%	10.7%	1.4%	7.1%
IE	39.9%	197.0%	142.4%	362.6%
PT	6.6%	21.0%	21.9%	30.4%
GR	22.4%	65.5%	26.9%	55.3%

Source: EC state Aid Scoreboard

<sup>2</sup> Notice that state aid does not necessarily lead to higher debt, since it can be contingent. Also higher debt does not need to lead to higher deficits, if losses are not crystallised. These accounting issues explain the discrepancies between the data on tables 2, 3 and 4.

Something then needs to give. In the US, vigorous monetary policy action - in the form of early QE - managed to offset much of the fiscal drag. To put things simply, if fiscal support is unavailable and sensitivity to interest rates is lower, then monetary policy needs to "go an extra-mile". In our view, QE in the US has been instrumental in making sure the economy remained on the recovery track in spite of a i) effective fiscal drag and ii) unprecedented threats of "catastrophic withdrawals" in public spending, with the various "debt ceiling" and sequester episodes. The UK is another example of a country which managed to control the impact of a major fiscal drag - after a just as major public bailout of the financial system - thanks to extraordinary monetary support.

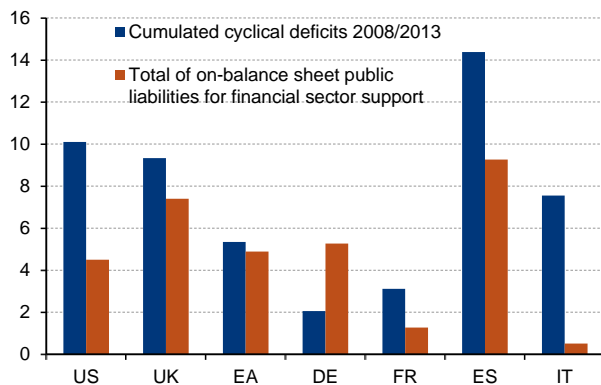
In the Euro area, in our view, the "banks/sovereign" nexus played a more acute role than in the US and the UK, not simply because monetary policy did not offer as much support, at least until very recently, but more fundamentally because the "banking issue" had a more durable, complex and pervasive effect on the economy and policy-making.

### The banks/sovereign nexus is bad everywhere, but it's even worse in Europe

The reaction of the US authorities - after the initial "bail in" temptation on Lehman Brothers - was remarkably swift. Forcing a recapitalisation and imposing management decisions on banks complemented state support on liquidity. In Europe, while support came very quickly, there was comparatively little attempt at dealing with the structural issues surrounding the national banking systems. Probably to some extent because European policy-makers considered that this was primarily an "Anglo-Saxon crisis", the onus was on dampening the contagion effects of a New York born financial meltdown, without necessarily a clear awareness of the depth of the local difficulties.

This timing difference is plain to see in banks' capital to asset ratio across the regions (see Table 3). For simplicity of analysis, we look here at total assets, not risk weighted assets. This measure, which we take from the IMF's financial stability report, is therefore close to a leverage ratio. Before the Great Recession, the ratio was already much higher in the US than in Europe (roughly twice as large), but what is striking is that within only three years, it had already improved

Chart 1: Increase in cyclical deficits vs. financial sector public support



Source: EC state Aid Scoreboard, IMF, CBO, BofA Merrill Lynch Global Research

Table 3: Capital and reserves/total assets

	Level			Delta	
	2007	2010	2013	2007-2010	2010-2013
Germany	4.3	4.3	5.5	0	1.2
France	3.7*	4.9	5.4	1.2	0.5
Italy	4.6	5	5.5	0.4	0.5
Spain	6.7	6.1	6.3	-0.6	0.2
Ireland	4.4	5.5	8.1	1.1	2.6
Portugal	6.5	6.7	6.9	0.2	0.2
Greece	6.8	7.3	8.3	0.5	1
US	10.3	12.7	11.8	2.4	-0.9
UK	5.5	5.4	5**	-0.1	-0.4

Source: IMF, Global Financial Stability Report, ,  
Note: \*: 2008; \*\*: 2012

by more than 2 percentage points. The best European performer during this period (France) managed an increase of only 1.2 pp, from a very low starting point.

The irony, then, is that the Europeans ended up spending slightly more government money on their banks than the Americans (4.9% of GDP instead of 4.5% of GDP for on-balance sheet expenditure alone) while triggering a much smaller improvement in their banks' capital position. To some extent, this mechanically reflects the difference in size between the two banking systems - the same public spending in % of GDP has a much lower impact on the financial position of the much larger European banking sector - but we also consider that, at least at the onset of the crisis, European governments failed to emulate their US counterpart in making public support conditional on significant and rapid efforts from banks under their jurisdiction to deal with their underlying problems.

Europe's tardiness in dealing with the structural issues of the banking sector proved particularly toxic given the much more central role it plays in funding the economy, relative to the US. Indeed, in the US bank loans accounted for only 20% of the total liabilities of the corporate sector before the Great Recession, roughly half the proportion found in the Euro area (see Chart 2).

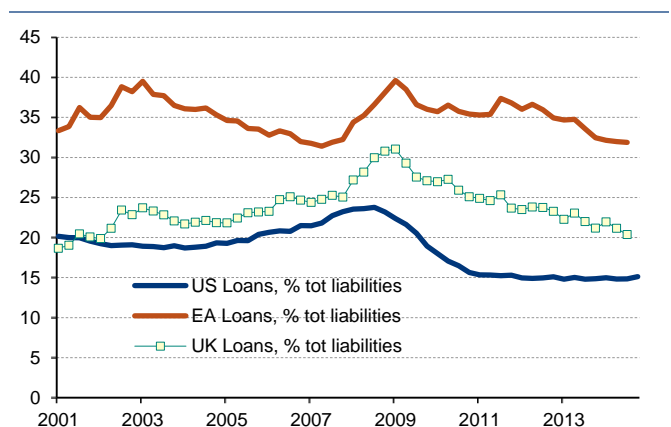
It was not only a matter of quantities but also, as suggested above, of price. As we have argued before (see [EEW](#)), the health of the demand and particularly the supply of credit are key to understand the broken transmission of monetary policy, the very limited sensitivity of lending rates to policy rates in most of the periphery for most of the post-crisis period and the increased sensitivity of lending rates to sovereign yields.

Table 4: Financial needs for government bail-outs & impact on EDP debt (% of 2013 GDP)

A. Financial needs to support Financial Sector from 2008 to 2013					B. Impact on EDP Debt
	% of GDP	from 2008 to 2010	from 2011 to 2013	Cumulated deficit/surplus	Debt up to 2013
BE	3.9	5.1	-1.2	0.2	4.8
DE	8.8	10.9	-2.1	1.4	8.8
EE	0.0	0.0	0.0	0.0	0.0
IE	37.3	28.7	8.6	25.2	27.7
GR	24.8	1.1	23.6	12.1	23.0
ES	4.9	2.3	2.6	4.3	5.3
FR	0.0	0.0	-0.1	-0.1	0.1
IT	0.2	0.3	-0.1	-0.1	0.3
CY	10.5	-0.2	10.7	0.1	11.0
LV	5.0	5.7	-0.7	3.6	5.4
LU	5.7	5.7	0.0	-0.1	5.5
MT	0.0	0.0	0.0	0.0	0.0
NL	6.1	8.3	-2.2	0.7	8.0
AT	3.1	2.8	0.3	1.9	5.8
PT	10.4	3.7	6.8	2.8	10.3
SI	14.2	3.9	10.3	10.9	14.2
SK	0.0	0.0	0.0	0.0	0.0
FI	0.0	0.0	0.0	0.0	0.0
EA	5.1	4.9	0.2	1.7	5.2
UK	6.3	6.9	-0.7	1.9	8.0

Source: ESCB, Eurostat

Chart 2: NFC loans, % of total liabilities



Source: ECB, FRB

Another consequence of the belated reaction of the European public sector was, that by the time the banking sector was blatantly on the brink of collapse in number of countries, the governments there had already lost market access – or at the very least was already paying crippling interest rates – precisely on account of the market's anticipation of the bailout costs. Spain probably is the best example of this type of behaviour. Exactly at the time public sector support became crucial, its cost was impossible to shoulder.

This gets us to the second significant difference between the US and the Euro area as far as the "banks/sovereign nexus" is concerned: the "imperfect mutualization issue". In the US, even if various bodies compete in the regulation of the banking industry, two centers of decision matter: the White House and Congress, as it is ultimately a federal issue. In the Euro area, a major difficulty arose from a discrepancy, across member states, between banks' need for funds and fiscal capabilities. Ireland is the best example of this. As it can be seen in Table 2, the total of approved support to the financial sector there - on and off-balance sheet potential liabilities - amounted to 500% of GDP, while the effective cost of support exceeded twice local GDP.

This was actually another factor behind the tardiness in the European approach to sorting out the banking sector. First, as it took time for the Euro area to cobble up a viable financial solidarity mechanism which could contain the effects of the financial crisis in the most fragile member states, the situation there continued to fester. Second, once the mechanism was in place, the loss of national sovereignty that a recourse to European solidarity entailed drove some states to delay such request. Again, Spain provides an interesting example. While it had become obvious by 2011, in our view, that Madrid could not properly shore up its banking system on its own financial resources, the government waited until the summer of 2012 before asking for an EFSF loan to recapitalize its banks. In the meantime, the deepening banking crisis - and the uncertainty on the sustainability of public finances - had further damaged the economy.

The European periphery settled in a particularly toxic negative feedback loop in which banks' funding costs and ultimately market access were compromised by a growing perception of the inability of their sovereigns to provide effective protection, while the "presumption of bailout" of a fragilized banking sector made the governments' own funding costs entailed a significant risk premium which jeopardized public debt trajectory. The victim there was those countries' real economy, which had to deal with i) the direct effect of a dysfunctional banking sector on domestic demand, ii) higher interest rates and iii) compressed "ordinary" public spending, as governments were trying their best to prove that their public debt trajectory remained sustainable so that they could maintain market access, or more simply, when they had lost market access, because this was a key condition for tapping into the European financial stability mechanism.

The political balance within the central bank - compounded by, until recently, the absence of clear deflationary pressure at the aggregate regional level - made it impossible to break this negative feedback loop via direct purchases of government bonds, which at the very least would have isolated sovereign funding costs from the consequences of the banking crisis.

Instead, the ECB approach - understandable from an emergency management point of view - added another layer to the banks/sovereign nexus by turning the banks into the lender of last resort of their local sovereign. Indeed, the ECB, by allowing access to long term cheap liquidity, through the LTROs, allowed banks

to engage in safe carry-trade, parking liquidity into government bonds at a time when non-residents were leaving the periphery in droves.

Banks always tend to skew their asset allocation towards government bonds in bad cyclical times, as the demand for credit from the private sector diminishes while the quality of the banks' loan books deteriorates. Still, the ECB's generous approach to liquidity clearly was a facilitator.

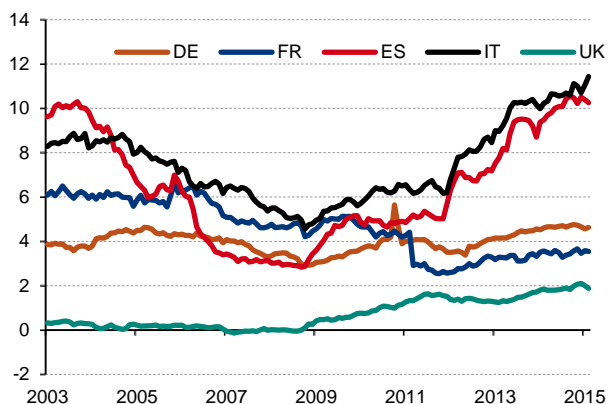
Italy in our view managed to avoid a recourse to the EFSF/ESM only because banks, which in 2009 held only 14% of the stock of public debt, ended up absorbing 75% of the increase in public debt between 2009 and 2014.

This was probably an acceptable "second best" to QE in terms of maintaining some funding capacity for embattled governments, as well as keeping the banking sector alive in the absence of clear progress on recapitalisation and balance sheet clean-up, but such approach presented the major risk of keeping the real economy into a recessive regime. Indeed, in this configuration, peripheral banks could make a more than decent living purely on the carry-trade, with little incentives for them to try to re-start lending to the private sector.

### Beyond institutional progress on banking union, QE is the necessary condition for breaking the banks/sovereign nexus

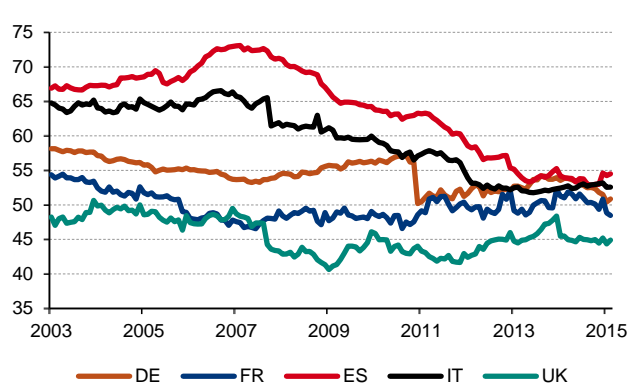
The two key institutional elements allowing the Euro area to deal with the banks/sovereign nexus are i) the Single Resolution Fund, funded by the banks and ii) the possibility, finally adopted on 8 December 2014, for the ESM to recapitalize banks directly, i.e. without leaving the financial cost, ultimately, on the balance sheet of the sovereign in the concerned banks' jurisdiction. These two instruments' capability is limited (1% of insured deposits for the first one and EUR 60bn for the second) but this is a first, important step towards a mutualization of the banking risk across the Euro area, which is in our view made possible by the federalization of banking supervision under the SSM framework.

Chart 3: MFIs' holdings of government securities, % Tot assets



Source: ECB, BofA Merrill Lynch Global Research

Chart 4: MFIs' Private sector loans, % Tot assets



Source: ECB, BofA Merrill Lynch Global Research

In both cases, however, in principle mutualized support can be triggered only after a bail-in of the private creditors. This leaves the "financial stability" issue unanswered. Indeed, if the Euro area was faced with a major banking incident in which "burning" private shareholders and bondholders would trigger an unstoppable, generalized crisis, it remains unclear how a collective response would be organized.

Yet, the Europeans came to the bail-in principle quite late, after having allowed banks a lot of time to recapitalise and address their asset impairment issues, often with public support (the Single Resolution Mechanism is operational only since January 2015). The most threatening systemic banking crisis in the Euro area had for long been that of Spain, given the size of the financial sector there. Spain dealt with the Cajas issue - with financial help from the ESM - before the resolution framework was implemented and the "bail in principle" was established. The lesser need for government support of banks is reflected in the fact that the off-balance sheet liabilities of Euro area governments in the form of guarantees to banks fell from a peak at 7.9% of GDP in 2009 to 4.7% of GDP in 2013 (see Table 5).

In other words, the Europeans have consecrated the "bail-in principle" only after the probability of a systemic banking crisis had significantly fallen. This does not mean that the principle is void of practical consequences. Cyprus was a key warning, and more recently Portugal dealt with the difficulties of BES without creating any major market hiccup for the government. Bail-ins are a credible threat, but with a lower probability of widespread usage, because the Europeans made sure that their banks had made sufficient progress before implementing the new system.

The Euro area has thus made significant progress in reducing governments' exposure to the banking risk. This is normally consistent with a lower risk premium on government bonds, and allows for more leeway on counter-cyclical fiscal policy. Indeed, the "eviction effect" of traditional growth-supporting public spending by higher actual or potential liabilities arising from supporting the financial sector is now lower.

However, in our view, without QE, the Euro area would still face difficulties in significantly reducing the banks' preference for government bonds, which creates an "eviction effect" at the expense of lending to the private sector.

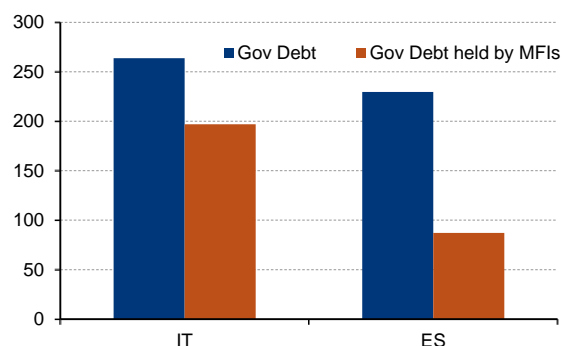
Table 5: Contingent liabilities (% of 2013 GDP)

	UK	Euro area	EA Group 1	EA Group 2
2007	1.7	0	0	0
2008	19.2	5.1	11.5	1.4
2009	34.2	7.8	14.3	4
2010	22.7	5.7	7.7	4.6
2011	10.4	5.7	6.5	5.2
2012	0.5	5.7	5	6.1
2013	0	4.7	2.8	5.8

Source: ESCB, Eurostat, BofA Merrill Lynch Global Research

Note: The first group includes Germany, Ireland, Latvia and the Netherlands. The second group is composed of the other 14 euro area countries.

Chart 5: Change in government debt, 2008-2013 (EUR bn)



Source: Bdl, BdE

A year ago, Bundesbank Governor Jens Weidmann made the point in an op-ed in the Financial Times that given the occurrence of actual sovereign restructuring in Europe (Greece) it made little sense to maintain, in the calculation of the regulatory capital ratio to maintain the fiction of a "zero risk weight" for government bonds. Raising the risk weight on this asset would reduce the relative profitability of storing liquidity into govies instead of lending to the private sector.



We think that Jens Weidmann, on substance, had a very valid point. The "only" problem in his reasoning at the time was that there was no credible alternative to domestic banks to fund peripheral governments. If collectively the Europeans want to wean governments off bank funding and liberate bank resources for lending to the private sector in a non-disruptive way, then they have to find an alternative marginal lender to the banks.

The ECB, with QE, offers this alternative lender. In our estimate, between March 2015 and September 2016, which is the shortest possible time span for QE, the central bank will have absorbed 7.8% of public debt in Italy and 12.6% in Spain. This is actually a bit higher than the share of those public debts currently held by domestic banks (respectively 7.3% and 8.7%) (see Table 6).

We noticed, two weeks ago when the money supply data for February were published, that while the recovery in lending to the private sector was confirmed, banks had been net sellers of government bonds for EUR25bn. We want to be prudent given the volatility in this series, but this would suggest that the normalization of bank asset allocation has started.

In the US, the Fed absorbed via QE 30% of the additional public debt accumulated since 2008. In the Euro area, assuming - contrary to the views we [expressed here](#) - that the central bank stops QE after 18 months, the ECB would hold 38% of the "marginal public debt" (see Table 7). This obviously changes the sustainability conditions of public debt. Indeed, if one considers - which is our view logical since the ECB did not mutualize QE across the Eurosystem - that we should look at the balance sheet of the governments and the central banks in a consolidated manner (through the central bank's dividend, governments pay coupons to themselves) then we should focus, when assessing sovereign risks, only on the share of public debt which is held outside of the central bank.

With reduced exposure to the banking risk, and a more sustainable public debt, governments now have wide room for manoeuvre on counter-cyclical fiscal policy. The recent shift, in the Euro area from all out austerity to a neutral, or even

Table 6: Public debt "absorbed" by QE vs. bank holdings

	IT	ES
2010-2014 diff in % of gov debt held by banks out of total	6.30%	8.73%
QE purchase as % of total gov debt	7.76%	12.56%

Source: BofA Merrill Lynch Global Research

Note: For Italy, we assume a total amount of 7.6bn of gov. bond purchases per month, as for March 2015 (see [here](#)). For Spain, we assume a total amount of 5.4bn of gov. bond purchases per month, as for March 2015 (see [here](#)). It might be an upward biased estimate due to the fact that it may include purchases of national agency body's bonds.

Table 7: Public debt "absorbed" by QE

	US (USD bn)	UK (GBP bn)	EA (EUR bn)
Marketable gov. debt increase, 2008-2014	6721	799	1946
QE size	1985	375	745.2
QE size, % gov. debt increase	30%	47%	38%

Source: BofA Merrill Lynch Global Research

Note: For ECB QE, we assume a total amount of 41.4bn of gov. bond purchases per month, as for March 2015 (see [here](#)). It might be an upward biased estimate due to the fact that it may include purchases of national agency body's bonds.

slightly stimulative fiscal stance would not be sustainable, in our view, if government faced massive contingent liabilities and could not count on a marginal lender.

Under cover of QE, we think that the regulatory authorities will try to incentivize banks to reduce their exposure to sovereigns. This is the message that Daniele Nouy, head of SSM, sent in an interview in the Handelsblatt on April 1st, in which she opined that holdings of government bonds should be limited to a quarter of banks' equity (currently this exceeds four times equity in some peripherals).

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