# Global Imbalances and Financial Fragility

By RICARDO J. CABALLERO AND ARVIND KRISHNAMURTHY\*

The United States is currently engulfed in the most severe financial crisis since the Great Depression. The crisis was triggered by the crash in the real estate "bubble" and amplified by the extreme concentration of risk in a highly leveraged financial sector.

Conventional wisdom is that both the bubble and the risk concentration were the result of mistakes in regulatory policy: an expansionary monetary policy during the boom period of the bubble, and failure to reign in the practices of unscrupulous lenders. In this paper we argue that, while correct in some dimensions, this story misses two key structural factors behind the securitization process that supported the real estate boom and the corresponding leverage. First, over the last decade, the US has experienced large and sustained capital inflows from foreigners seeking US assets to store value (Caballero, Emmanuel Farhi, and Pierre-Olivier Gourinchas 2008). Second, especially after the NASDAQ/tech bubble and bust, excess world savings have looked predominantly for safe debt investments. This should not be surprising because a large amount of the capital flow into the US has been from foreign central banks and governments that are not expert investors and are merely looking for a store of value (Krishnamurthy and Annette Vissing-Jorgenson 2008).

In this paper we develop a stylized model that captures the essence of this environment. The model accounts for three facts observed during the boom and bust phases of the current crisis. First, during a period of good shocks which we interpret as the period up to the end of 2006—the growth in asset demand pushes up asset prices and lowers risk premia and interest rates. It is interesting to observe that the value of *risky* assets rises despite the fact that the increase in demand is for *riskless* assets. Second, foreign demand for debt instruments increases the equilibrium level of leverage of the domestic financial sector. In order to accommodate this demand, the US financial sector manufactures debt claims out of all types of products, which is the reason for the wave of securitization. Third, if shocks turn negative—which we interpret as the post-2006 period—the foreign demand now turns toxic; bad shocks and high leverage lead to an amplified downturn and rising risk premia.

In addition to highlighting the role of capital flows in facilitating the securitization boom, our analysis speaks to the broader issue of global imbalances. Many of the concerns regarding global imbalances derive from emerging markets' experiences, where capital flows are often speculative and a source of volatility, as emphasized in the literature on sudden stops. Our analysis shows that somewhat paradoxically, for a core economy such as that of the US, the risk in "excessive" capital inflows derives from the opposite concern: capital flows into the country are mostly nonspeculative and in search of safety. As a result, the US sells riskless assets to foreigners and in so doing raises the effective leverage of its financial institutions. In other words, as global imbalances rise, the US increasingly specializes in holding its "toxic waste."

## I. Foreign Flows and Fragility

Time is continuous and indexed by t. There is a continuum of US financial institutions, with mass one, that own assets that generate cash flows of  $X_t^d$  per unit time, where

$$dX_t^d/X_t^d = g\,dt + \sigma\,dZ_t,$$

for constants g and  $\sigma$ . We can think of these cash-flows as arising from mortgage loans, credit card loans, auto loans, etc. We assume the

<sup>\*</sup>Caballero: Massachusetts Institute of Technology, Department of Economics, 50 Memorial Drive, Building E52, Room 373A, Cambridge, MA 02142-1347, and NBER (e-mail: caball@mit.edu); Krishnamurthy: Kellogg School of Management, Northwestern University, 2001 Sheridan Road, Evanston, IL 60208, and NBER (e-mail: a-krishnamurthy@northwestern.edu). We are grateful to Iván Werning and Raghu Rajan for their comments. Caballero thanks the National Science Foundation for financial support.

cash-flow process is exogenously given and not affected by other developments in the economy. This is certainly counterfactual, but simplifies the analysis of asset market equilibrium. In practice, some of these cash flows were brought onto banks' balance sheets as a response to the massive demand for assets. Our analysis starts from a moment when these cash flows already exist, but it may also be interesting to model this process as a response to high asset demand. We denote the present value of the cash flows  $X_t^d$ held by the financial institutions as  $V_t$ .

The financial institutions have two liabilities, equity and short-term (instantaneous) debt. We assume there are no bankruptcy costs. Since our model is set in continuous time (and sample paths), this implies that the short-term debt is risk-free.

Our key assumption concerns the demand for the safe debt. The external demand for US assets, from foreign central banks for example, is in particular a demand for high-grade debt. We capture this demand in a reduced-form fashion. We assume that there is a measure one of foreign investors who invest only in the debt of financial institutions. They allocate an exogenous stream of funds,

$$\frac{dX_t^f}{X_t^f} = g \, dt + (1 - \psi) \sigma \, dZ_t,$$

to investments in US assets. The stream  $X_t^f$  is perfectly correlated with US income, but for most of our analysis we assume that it is *less* volatile than domestic income. Hence,  $\psi > 0$  and capital flows, by themselves, are a source of income stability. We may also think of the case of  $\psi < 0$  as that corresponding to emerging markets, where capital flows exacerbate the cycle.

Foreigners' bond holdings are denoted by  $B_t^f$ . We also assume that the foreign investors repatriate some of their US invested wealth at the rate  $\rho$ . Denote

$$c_t^f = \rho B_t^f$$

as the repatriated flow of resources.<sup>1</sup> Then the dynamics of foreign debt are

<sup>1</sup> Suppose foreigners are modeled as overlapping generations. They live from t to  $t + \delta (\delta \rightarrow dt)$ . The previous generation bequests  $B_t^f$  of wealth. Then the current generation receives  $X_t dt$  of income and consumes  $c_t$  to solve: max  $\rho \delta \ln$ 

$$dB_t^f = (X_t^f - \rho B_t^f) dt + r_t B_t^f dt.$$

Throughout our analysis we will imagine that there is a date,  $t_0$ , on which the foreign investors' demand for US debt first arises. We refer to this as the date of foreign entry. We analyze how this entry affects the equilibrium.

The financial institutions' owners/equityholders are local investors who maximize preferences:

$$E_t \int_{-\infty}^{\infty} e^{-\rho(s-t)} \ln c_{t+s}^d \, ds.$$

The value of their ownership stake in the financial institutions, or the equity value of financial institutions, is

$$W_t = V_t - B_t^f.$$

A simple argument deriving from log preference allows us to derive the equity value. The local investor has wealth  $W_t$  and, given log preference, he consumes  $\rho W_t$ . The following accounting identity must hold for cash flows:

$$X_t^d + X_t^f = c_t^d + c_t^f.$$

On the left side is the amount of cash generated by the financial institution plus the amount of foreign savings invested in the US. Thus, it is the total amount of cash inflow into financial institutions. On the right side is the amount of cash repatriated by foreign investors (i.e., cash outflows). This condition is basically a marketclearing condition for the consumption goods. Rewriting yields

$$X_t^d + X_t^f = \rho W_t + \rho B_t^f$$

or

$$W_t = \frac{X_t^d}{\rho} + \frac{X_t^f - \rho B_t^f}{\rho}$$

which implies that the value of the assets held by the financial institutions is

 $c_t + (1 - \rho \delta) E_t [\ln B_{t+\delta}^{f}]$ . Note that the utility for bequest is over wealth. If we take  $\delta \rightarrow dt$ , this model yields the assumed consumption behavior of foreign investors.

$$V_t = \frac{X_t^d + X_t^f}{\rho} \,.$$

These expressions lead to the first result of the analysis.

**PROPOSITION 1** (Asset Demand Effect): An increase in foreign demand for **riskless** assets,  $X_t^f$ , raises the value of **risky** domestic assets,  $V_t$ , and of domestic financial wealth,  $W_t$ . An increase in foreign riskless debt,  $B_t^f$ , lowers the value of domestic financial wealth.

Consider an initial condition when China begins to invest in US debt so that  $X_t^f$  turns positive. Our proposition shows that this flow will push up the value of US assets and domestic financial wealth in the short run. It explains how the value of US assets rose in the early stages of external demand. This is the asset demand effect highlighted in the riskless environment of Caballero et al. (2008).

We next solve for the interest rate,  $r_t$ . Investors can purchase either equity or debt from financial institutions. Thus the interest rate must satisfy the local investor's marginal pricing condition (Euler equation). Going through the usual asset pricing steps based on an investor with consumption  $c_t$ , we have

$$r_t = \rho + E_t [dc_t/c_t] - \operatorname{var}_t [dc_t/c_t].$$

The local investor has log preferences and wealth  $W_t$ . Thus,

$$c_t = \rho W_t.$$

We can then compute  $E_t[dW_t/W_t]$  and  $\operatorname{var}_t[dW_t/W_t]$  to find the equilibrium interest rate. Before doing so, let us define the foreign debt-to-asset ratio (leverage) of financial institutions as

$$b_t^f \equiv \frac{B_t^f}{V_t} = \rho \, \frac{B_t^f}{X_t^f + X_t^d}$$

and the scaled foreign demand for domestic assets as

$$x_t^f \equiv \frac{X_t^f}{X_t^f + X_t^d}.$$

PROPOSITION 2 (Interest Rate): *The interest rate is* 

$$r_t = (\rho + g - \sigma^2) - \rho x_t^f$$

$$+ \sigma^2 \left( 1 - \frac{(1 - \psi x_t^f)^2}{1 - b_t^f} \right).$$

The first term in parentheses corresponds to the interest rate in the absence of foreign capital flows. The next two terms capture opposing effects that foreign entry has on the interest rate. The first effect comes from expanding  $E_t[dW_t/W_t]$ . Upon entry, asset demand raises and lowers interest rates. (Mechanically, from the Euler equation, local wealth jumps on entry and thereafter grows more slowly, which requires a lower interest rate.) The second effect is from the precautionary savings term  $\operatorname{var}_{t}[dW_{t}/W_{t}]$ . When  $\psi > 0$ , external flows reduce domestic volatility because these flows are more stable than local cash flows. This effect raises interest rates, as we can see by examining the precautionary savings term when  $b_t^f = 0$ :

$$\sigma^{2}(1 - (1 - \psi x_{t}^{f})^{2}) = \sigma^{2}\psi x_{t}^{f}(2 - \psi x_{t}^{f}).$$

This expression is positive since  $x_t^f < 1$  and  $\psi > 0$ .

Whether interest rates rise or fall upon foreign entry at  $t_0$  depends upon parameters. However, as time passes, the precautionary savings effect puts downward pressure on interest rates. To see this, note that over time, as foreign debt accumulates, risk is brought back via an increase in leverage,  $b_i^t$ . Since foreign debt holders must be promised a fixed repayment, the domestic equity holders hold a residual claim that becomes riskier as leverage rises. The corresponding rise in precautionary savings reduces interest rates.

The interest rate expression also reveals a contrast between the emerging markets case and the US case. As we have noted, we may think of the emerging markets case as one where foreign inflows are strongly procyclical, so that  $\psi < 0$ . In this case, foreign demand raises local volatility and risk, lowering interest rates through this precautionary savings effect.

Foreign entry, although creating some ambiguity in signing the change in interest rates, has a clear effect on risk premia. Let us consider a hypothetical asset-*i*, whose return depends on innovations in the risk factor  $dZ_t$ :

$$dR_t^i = E_t[dR_t^i]dt + \sigma^i dZ_t.$$

586

Thus, if we think of  $dZ_t$  as reflecting risk on mortgage loans held by financial institutions, this asset can be thought of as a mortgagebacked security. In general, the asset's return is correlated with the risks held by financial institutions.

Suppose that this asset is in zero net supply; then let us consider how  $E_t[dR_t^i]$  will be determined. At the margin, if one of the financial institutions purchases this asset, it is taking on more risk, which then affects the risk held by the local investors. Thus, the expected return has to compensate the local investors for bearing additional risk. Since the local investors have wealth of  $W_t$ , we have

$$E_t[dR_t^i] - r_t = \operatorname{cov}_t[dR_t^i, dW_t/W_t]$$
  
=  $\sigma^i \sigma \frac{1 - \psi x_t^f}{1 - b_t^f}.$ 

**PROPOSITION 3** (Risk Premium): If  $\psi > 0$ , an increase in foreign demand for **riskless** assets,  $x_t^f$ , lowers the **risk premium** on domestic assets. An increase in foreign leverage,  $b_t^f$ , always raises the risk premium.

The intuition here is similar to that offered for the precautionary savings effects. Since  $\psi > 0$ , foreign inflows are more stable than domestic cash flows, and hence the stabilization effect lowers risk premia.<sup>2</sup> This is the immediate effect of foreign flows on domestic risk premia. This effect helps explain why the US experienced a sustained period of low risk premia beginning in 2000.<sup>3</sup>

Over time, external leverage grows and transfers more residual risk onto domestic equity holders. This effect increases risk premia and as time passes becomes the dominant driver of the risk premium. Moreover, leverage leads to a dynamic amplification mechanism. If US shocks turn negative so that  $X_t^d$  and  $V_t$  fall, the effective leverage,  $b_t^f = B_t/V_t$ , rises. Thus the negative shock, through leverage, leads risk premia to rise further. We interpret the magnified downturn beginning in mid-2007 as corresponding to this leverage multiplier effect.

Figure 1 illustrates these results. We set g = 0.03,  $\sigma = 0.20$ ,  $\rho = 0.04$ ,  $\psi = 0.5$ , and  $X^f(t_0) = 0.5 X^d(t_0)$ . We also use an initial condition for debt upon entry at  $t_0$  such that  $B(t_0) = V(t_0)/5$ , which helps to see the results pictorially. Time 0 is the date of foreign entry. We plot a particular realization of shocks such that prior to Time 6,  $X^f$  and  $X^d$  grow at rate g, while after Time 6 they grow at rates  $g - 2\sigma$  and  $g - \sigma$ , respectively. Thus we interpret Time 6 as the date when shocks turn negative.

The left panel of the figure shows that the risk premium and interest rate fall upon entry. The risk premium rises thereafter as leverage accumulates, rising faster after Time 6. The interest rate uniformly falls as risk accumulates over time. The right panel of the figure shows that the asset value rises upon entry before falling when shocks turn negative.

#### II. Securitization and Misperceived Safety

How is safe debt created and sold to satisfy debt demand? The model represents safe debt as a short-term claim on financial institutions. Thus the model directly can account for the increase in financial sector leverage ratios in the period preceding the crisis. In practice, debt is also created through the process of securitization: pooling and tranching of mortgage and related assets to form "AAA" senior tranches; and the financial sector writing credit default insurance on risky loans, which is then packaged with the risky loans to form safe debt. The process of safe-debt creation is evident in much of the financial innovation during the last seven years.

The events of the summer of 2007 revealed that some of the safe debt created by financial innovations was not truly safe. The assumptions on cash flow correlations underlying the insurance benefits to the pooling aspect of securitization proved wrong. As a result, senior tranches had higher default exposure than had been perceived by many investors. The institutions that sold credit default insurance ran into trouble, calling into question the value of the credit default insurance they had sold to support the safe status of some debts. In short, safe debt has proven to be unsafe.

<sup>&</sup>lt;sup>2</sup> There is another channel through which risk premia may fall. Since foreign inflows raise domestic wealth, through decreasing absolute risk aversion, there is a wealth effect that will lower risk premia.

<sup>&</sup>lt;sup>3</sup> Note that if  $\psi < 0$ , foreign inflows raise local risk premia. In this sense, the case of emerging market experience with capital inflows is one of unambiguously rising risk.



FIGURE 1. MODEL SIMULATION

*Notes:* Risk premium and interest rate (left panel) and asset value and external debt (right panel) are graphed over time. Parameters are g = 0.03,  $\sigma = 0.20$ ,  $\rho = 0.04$ , and  $\psi = 0.5$ . We set  $X^f(t_0) = 0.5X^d(t_0)$ . We also use an initial condition for debt upon entry at  $t_0$  such that  $B(t_0) = V(t_0)/5$ , which helps to show the results pictorially. Time 0 is the date of foreign entry. Time 6 is the date when shocks turn negative. Prior to Time 6,  $X^f$  and  $X^d$  grow at rate g, while after Time 6 they grow at rates  $g - 2\sigma$  and  $g - \sigma$ , respectively.

The realization of misperceived safety can create a further leverage amplifier. Prior to the investors' realization, some investors were holding claims they thought were safe-debt but were in fact closer to equity. When investors realized this fact, they shifted their portfolios to sell the "equity" and demand safe debt.

It is straightforward to see the effect of such a portfolio shift: interest rates fall, the risk premium rises, and leverage rises, further exposing the financial sector to negative shocks. This realization of misperceptions effect is consistent with a "flight to quality."

### **III.** Conclusion

We have presented a model to show how global imbalances has driven the US securitization boom and bust. Since flows into the US have been predominantly seeking safe debt, US financial institutions, in producing the safe debt, have been left holding a levered claim on local mortgage risks. Thus our analysis ties together the behavior of leverage and the demand for US assets. An important aspect of the story that our analysis only touches upon is that in creating safe assets, the US financial sector not only took on more leverage, but also sourced assets (i.e., subprime loans) that carried higher cash flow risks. That is, part of the response to the increase in asset demand was an increase in asset supply, which at the margin may have led to more toxic assets being created. It is likely that this phenomenon, also driven by external demand for US assets, has played a part in the build-up to the current financial crisis.

#### REFERENCES

- Caballero, Ricardo J., Emmanuel Farhi, and Pierre-Olivier Gourinchas. 2008. "An Equilibrium Model of Global Imbalances and Low Interest Rates." *American Economic Review*, 98(1): 358–93.
- Krishnamurthy, Arvind, and Annette Vissing-Jorgensen. 2008. "The Aggegate Demand for Treasury Debt." Unpublished.

# This article has been cited by:

- 1. Samia Nasreen, Sofia Anwar, Ilhan Ozturk. 2017. Financial stability, energy consumption and environmental quality: Evidence from South Asian economies. *Renewable and Sustainable Energy Reviews* 67, 1105-1122. [CrossRef]
- 2. Thomas Goda, Özlem Onaran, Engelbert Stockhammer. 2017. Income Inequality and Wealth Concentration in the Recent Crisis. *Development and Change* **48**:1, 3-27. [CrossRef]
- 3. Alessandro Morselli. 2016. Theoretical approaches on the possible existence of a stabilising economic policy in Europe. *Journal of Economic Studies* **43**:5, 815-834. [CrossRef]
- 4. Mohammed M. Elgammal, Tugba Bas, Orla Gough, Neeta Shah, Stefan van Dellen. 2016. Do financial distress and liquidity crises affect value and size premiums?. *Applied Economics* 48:39, 3734-3751. [CrossRef]
- 5. Gabriele Zinna. 2016. Price Pressures on UK Real Rates: An Empirical Investigation. *Review of Finance* **20**:4, 1587-1630. [CrossRef]
- 6. Zhiguo He, Arvind Krishnamurthy, Konstantin Milbradt. 2016. What Makes US Government Bonds Safe Assets?. *American Economic Review* **106**:5, 519-523. [Abstract] [View PDF article] [PDF with links]
- 7. Carmen M. Reinhart, Vincent Reinhart, Takeshi Tashiro. 2016. Does reserve accumulation crowd out investment?. *Journal of International Money and Finance* 63, 89-111. [CrossRef]
- 8. Jihad Dagher, Giovanni Dell'Ariccia, Luc Laeven, Lev Ratnovski, Hui Tong. 2016. Benefits and Costs of Bank Capital. *Staff Discussion Notes* **16**:04, 1. [CrossRef]
- 9. Sergi Lanau, Tomasz WieladekFinancial Regulation and the Current Account 309-363. [CrossRef]
- 10. Andreas SteinerDeterminants of the Public Budget Balance: The Role of Official Capital Flows 71-117. [CrossRef]
- 11. Bibliography 173-183. [CrossRef]
- 12. Andreas SteinerReserve Accumulation and Financial Crises: From Individual Protection to Systemic Risk11This is an extended and updated version of Steiner (2014b). Publication with permission from Elsevier. Differences in the quantitative results may arise from revised data 119-160. [CrossRef]
- 13. Andreas SteinerCurrent Account Imbalances: The Role of Official Capital Flows11This is an extended and updated version of Steiner (2014a). Publication with permission from Elsevier. Differences in the quantitative results may arise from revised data 27-69. [CrossRef]
- 14. Arvind Krishnamurthy, Annette Vissing-Jorgensen. 2015. The impact of Treasury supply on financial sector lending and stability. *Journal of Financial Economics* **118**:3, 571-600. [CrossRef]
- 15. Stefanie Schurer. 2015. Lifecycle patterns in the socioeconomic gradient of risk preferences. *Journal of Economic Behavior & Organization* 119, 482-495. [CrossRef]
- 16. Oliver Hart, Luigi Zingales. 2015. LIQUIDITY AND INEFFICIENT INVESTMENT. Journal of the European Economic Association 13:5, 737-769. [CrossRef]
- 17. Jukka Isohätälä, Feodor Kusmartsev, Alistair Milne, Donald Robertson. 2015. Leverage Constraints and Real Interest Rates. *The Manchester School* **83**, 83-109. [CrossRef]
- Maria Teresa Punzi, Karlo Kauko. 2015. Testing the global banking glut hypothesis. Journal of Financial Stability 19, 128-151. [CrossRef]
- Ugo Albertazzi, Ginette Eramo, Leonardo Gambacorta, Carmelo Salleo. 2015. Asymmetric information in securitization: An empirical assessment. *Journal of Monetary Economics* 71, 33-49. [CrossRef]

- 20. FILIPA SÁ, TOMASZ WIELADEK. 2015. Capital Inflows and the U.S. Housing Boom. Journal of Money, Credit and Banking 47:S1, 221-256. [CrossRef]
- Julien Hugonnier, Rodolfo Prieto. 2015. Asset pricing with arbitrage activity. *Journal of Financial Economics* 115:2, 411-428. [CrossRef]
- 22. Edward B. BarbierWealth Inequality 142-164. [CrossRef]
- 23. Vilma Deltuvaitė. 2015. Investigation of Global Integration of the Central and Eastern European Countries Sovereign Bond Markets. *Procedia Economics and Finance* 24, 182-191. [CrossRef]
- 24. Vilma Deltuvaitė. 2015. CEECs' Financial Integration: Global or Regional? Evidence from Sovereign Bond Markets. *Procedia Economics and Finance* 24, 192-197. [CrossRef]
- 25. Margaux MacDonald. 2015. Patterns of International Capital Flows and Productivity Growth: New Evidence. *Review of International Economics* 23:5, 846. [CrossRef]
- 26. Andreas Steiner. 2014. Reserve accumulation and financial crises: From individual protection to systemic risk. *European Economic Review* 70, 126-144. [CrossRef]
- 27. Karlo Kauko. 2014. How to foresee banking crises? A survey of the empirical literature. *Economic Systems* 38:3, 289-308. [CrossRef]
- ARVIND KRISHNAMURTHY, STEFAN NAGEL, DMITRY ORLOV. 2014. Sizing Up Repo. The Journal of Finance n/a-n/a. [CrossRef]
- 29. T. Goda, P. Lysandrou. 2014. The contribution of wealth concentration to the subprime crisis: a quantitative estimation. *Cambridge Journal of Economics* **38**:2, 301-327. [CrossRef]
- 30. Nauman Ejaz, Hayat Khan. 2014. The Underlying Cause of the Global Financial Crisis: An Islamic Perspective. *Economic Papers: A journal of applied economics and policy* **33**:1, 45-54. [CrossRef]
- 31. Alejandro Justiniano, Giorgio E. Primiceri, Andrea Tambalotti. 2014. The effects of the saving and banking glut on the U.S. economy. *Journal of International Economics*. [CrossRef]
- 32. Thomas Goda, Photis Lysandrou, Chris Stewart. 2013. The contribution of US bond demand to the US bond yield conundrum of 2004–2007: An empirical investigation. *Journal of International Financial Markets, Institutions and Money* 27, 113-136. [CrossRef]
- Andreas Steiner. 2013. Current Account Balance and Dollar Standard: Exploring the Linkages. *Journal of International Money and Finance*. [CrossRef]
- 34. Marcus Kappler, Helmut Reisen, Moritz Schularick, Edouard Turkisch. 2013. The Macroeconomic Effects of Large Exchange Rate Appreciations. *Open Economies Review* 24:3, 471-494. [CrossRef]
- 35. David Cayla. 2013. European Debt Crisis: How a Public Debt Restructuring Can Solve a Private Debt Issue. *Journal of Economic Issues* 47:2, 427-436. [CrossRef]
- 36. Jean-Pierre Allegret, Cécile Couharde, Valérie Mignon. 2013. Introduction: Recent international macroeconomic and financial issues. *International Economics* **133**, 1-7. [CrossRef]
- 37. Harris Dellas, George Tavlas. 2013. Exchange rate regimes and asset prices. *Journal of International Money and Finance*. [CrossRef]
- 38. Bibliography 189-198. [CrossRef]
- 39. Finn Marten Körner, Holger Zemanek. 2013. On the Brink? Intra-euro Area Imbalances and the Sustainability of Foreign Debt. *Review of International Economics* **21**:1, 18-34. [CrossRef]
- 40. Steven Phillips, Luis Catão, Luca Antonio Ricci, Rudolfs Bems, Mitali Das, Julian di Giovanni, D. Filiz Unsal, Marola Castillo, Jungjin Lee, Jair Rodriguez, Mauricio Vargas. 2013. The External Balance Assessment (EBA) Methodology. *IMF Working Papers* 13:272, 1. [CrossRef]
- 41. Jin-Chuan Duan, Elisabeth Van Laere. 2012. A public good approach to credit ratings From concept to reality. *Journal of Banking & Finance* **36**:12, 3239-3247. [CrossRef]

- 42. Pietro Ortoleva. 2012. Modeling the Change of Paradigm: Non-Bayesian Reactions to Unexpected News. *American Economic Review* **102**:6, 2410-2436. [Abstract] [View PDF article] [PDF with links]
- 43. Eduardo Pol. 2012. The preponderant causes of the USA banking crisis 2007–08. *The Journal of Socio-Economics* 41:5, 519-528. [CrossRef]
- 44. Viral V. Acharya, Matthew Richardson. 2012. Implications of the Dodd-Frank Act\*. Annual Review of Financial Economics 4:1, 1-38. [CrossRef]
- 45. Thierry Bracke, Michael Fidora. 2012. The macro-financial factors behind the crisis: Global liquidity glut or global savings glut?. *The North American Journal of Economics and Finance* 23:2, 185-202. [CrossRef]
- Yan Liang. 2012. Global Imbalances and Financial Crisis: Financial Globalization as a Common Cause. Journal of Economic Issues 0:2, 353-362. [CrossRef]
- 47. Julien Chevallier. 2012. Global imbalances, cross-market linkages, and the financial crisis: A multivariate Markov-switching analysis. *Economic Modelling* **29**:3, 943-973. [CrossRef]
- 48. Kenneth S. Chan, Vinh Q.T. Dang. 2012. The 1997 Asian Currency Crisis, Financial Linkages, and the Monetary Policy of Japan. *Review of International Economics* 20:1, 1-17. [CrossRef]
- 49. Tomasz Wieladek, Sergi Lanau. 2012. Financial Regulation and the Current Account. *IMF Working Papers* 12:98, 1. [CrossRef]
- 50. IMF. Monetary and Capital Markets DepartmentGlobal Financial Stability Report, April 2012: The Quest for Lasting Stability . [CrossRef]
- 51. Maria Grazia Miele, Elisa Sales. 2011. The financial crisis and regulation reform. *Journal of Banking Regulation* 12:4, 277-307. [CrossRef]
- 52. Jian-jiang Liu, Chun-xi Liu, Qin YangA study on the trade deficit in U.S. 6524-6527. [CrossRef]
- 53. Joseph P. Byrne, Giorgio Fazio, Norbert Fiess. 2011. Interest rate co-movements, global factors and the long end of the term spread. *Journal of Banking & Finance*. [CrossRef]
- 54. Terrence CaseyConclusion: Anglo-American Politics in the Age of Austerity 263-282. [CrossRef]
- 55. Werner De Bondt. 2010. The crisis of 2008 and financial reform. *Qualitative Research in Financial Markets* 2:3, 137-156. [CrossRef]
- Andrei Shleifer, Robert W. Vishny. 2010. Unstable banking#. Journal of Financial Economics 97:3, 306-318. [CrossRef]
- 57. Viral V Acharya, Philipp Schnabl. 2010. Do Global Banks Spread Global Imbalances? Asset-Backed Commercial Paper during the Financial Crisis of 2007–09. *IMF Economic Review* 58:1, 37-73. [CrossRef]
- 58. David Laibson, Johanna Mollerstrom. 2010. Capital Flows, Consumption Booms and Asset Bubbles: A Behavioural Alternative to the Savings Glut Hypothesis\*. *The Economic Journal* 120:544, 354-374. [CrossRef]
- 59. Kap-Young Jeong, Euysung Kim. 2010. The Global Financial Crisis: New Implications and Perspectives for Emerging Economies. *Global Economic Review* **39**:1, 1-13. [CrossRef]
- 60. Arvind Krishnamurthy, 2010. How Debt Markets Have Malfunctioned in the Crisis. *Journal of Economic Perspectives* 24:1, 3-28. [Abstract] [View PDF article] [PDF with links]
- 61. Giorgio FazioEmerging Markets and the Global Financial Crisis 100-120. [CrossRef]
- 62. Willi Semmler, Aleksandr V. GevorkyanSailing Out of Crisis Emerging Markets Style 155-195. [CrossRef]