

Figure 2: GROSS AND NET UTILITIES OF AN AGENT

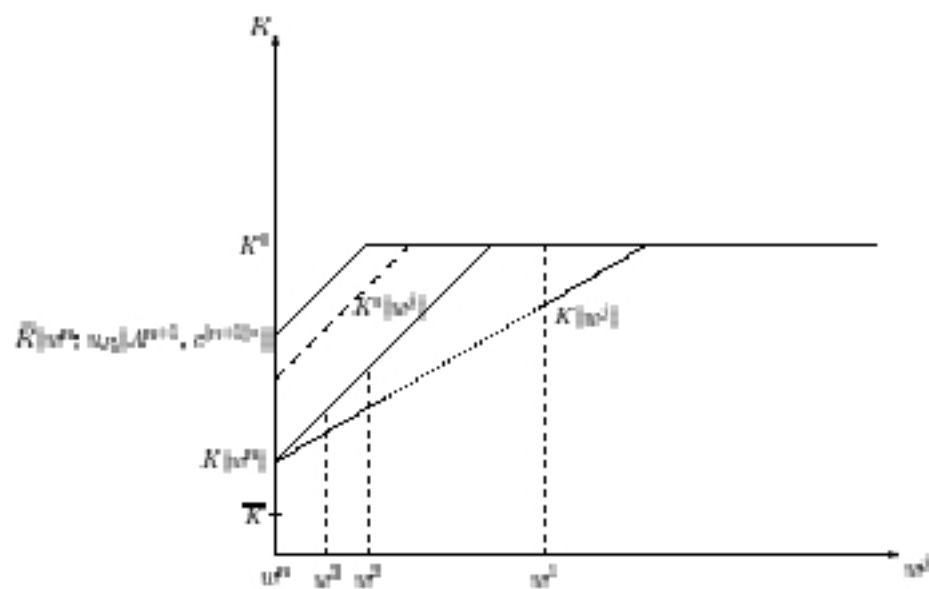


Figure 3: Optimal investment when  $w^1 > w^{n+1}$

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A large set of literature on financial markets conclude that when external borrowing by firms is indistinguishable, capital-poor firms are denied credits by uninformed investors and they have to rely on informed capital available in the economy.<sup>2</sup> Informed capital owns, in general, better monitoring technology compared to less informed investors. Hence, it is better able to cope with  $r > r$  at the firm level that arises because of the inability to contract upon all the actions taken by the entrepreneurs in a firm seeking credit. This moral hazard problem is more severe with the poorer firms, and hence they fail to obtain credit from the uninformed investors. Poorer firms are sometimes able to invest by borrowing from informed capital which is supplied by financial intermediaries but only after being monitored more intensively.

The main goal of this chapter is to analyse a financial economy consisting of firms (run by entrepreneurs) with different levels of start-up capital, and financial intermediaries (or, investors) with different monitoring technologies. In this financial market, several firms and intermediaries interact with each other which calls for a general equilibrium framework. In this model, the payoff of each individual is

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determined endogenously, unlike the standard financial market models where the payoffs are determined exogenously. The framework also allows us to establish the identities of the intermediaries who become potential sources of credit to different firms.

We model the financial market as a two-sided matching game. If a firm convinces an intermediary to finance his project, we say that the firm and the intermediary are in a firm-intermediary pair. A matching is a rule that specifies all such possible pairs in the economy. An outcome of this market is an endogenous matching and a set of financial contracts, one for each firm-intermediary pair under the matching. A financial contract specifies that the intermediary finances the project and receives state-contingent claims on the project return. Each firm operates on his project after he obtains external finance and chooses a non-contractible effort level. Choice of effort influences the probability of having a high return from the project. Firm's liability is limited to his current income. Hence, differences in wealth imply differences in liabilities. We use *stability* as the equilibrium concept. An outcome is stable if there is no intermediary-firm pair that would be (strictly) better-off than under the initial outcome.

We characterise the equilibrium of the financial market. First, all contracts are *mutually optimal*, i.e., given the others being equally well-off as before, no individual can strictly improve upon his/her situation in the outcome by signing a different contract. Second, there is always a subset of the firms (the poorest ones) which fail to obtain credit from any external source. If the firms form the long-side of the market, the size of this (unmatched) set is even larger. Also, capital-rich firms earn higher payoffs. On the other hand, if the intermediaries form the long-side of the market then less informed intermediaries stay out of business earning zero profit. The equilibrium payoff of each individual is endogenous in this model. We are able to establish bounds on the payoff of each firm, and these bounds depend on the other pairs formed in the economy.

Next, in this financial market with both-sided heterogeneity, we show that in a stable outcome the matching is negatively assortative, i.e., capital-poor firms rely on more informed capital, and they are monitored more intensively. In this framework, for an intermediary-firm pair, firm capital and monitoring intensities turn out to be substitutes in producing as well as transferring the surplus between each other. Negatively assortative matching patterns are consequences of this two-fold substitutability.

Our model bears resemblance with the financial intermediation models proposed by [Åkström and Tirole \[17\]](#), and [Repsullo and Srafe \[25\]](#). In both papers the authors consider models of bank monitoring under moral hazard. In these models, the financial economies are characterized by a continuum of firms with different wealth levels, and small number of investors. There are two types of investors: insiders and outsiders. The outside investors are not able to monitor the firms as intensively as the insiders can. In the model of [Åkström and Tirole \[17\]](#), the investors are capital constrained, and they face a moral hazard problem at the level of monitoring. They show that capital-rich firms prefer outsiders to raise finance, whereas capital-poor firms have to rely on bank (insiders) finance to invest in their projects. They also analyse the effects of different types of capital tightening in the economy. Any sort of these adverse shocks hits the poor firms more severely by taking them out of business and leads to a contraction in the bank loan which is only geared towards rich firms thus implying, what [Bernanke et al. \[7\]](#) call a *flip of the coin*. A change in the intermediary capital also affects the monitoring levels. [Repsullo and Srafe \[25\]](#) consider similar kind of model where the intermediaries are not capital constrained. They draw similar conclusions as the previous paper. Moreover, they find an intermediate range of firm's wealth where the firms can choose between outside finance and bank credit. Moreover, they also study the effects of interest rate spread on the equilibrium. [Desai and Kanatas \[8\]](#) also consider a theoretical model of endogenous bank monitoring and show that firms might suffer from excessive monitoring in equilibrium.

In this chapter we consider a discrete set of firms and intermediaries. This allows us to deal with small as well as large number of individuals. In the papers cited above, although a general (competitive) equilibrium framework is considered, intermediary payoff is determined by its reservation value and hence, the intermediaries of each type break-even. Since an endogenous matching market is used in the current model, the payoff each individual earns is determined endogenously. The equilibrium matching pattern, namely negatively assortative matching, conforms to the findings of [Åkström and Tirole \[17\]](#), and [Repsullo and Srafe \[25\]](#), if we consider only two types of investors: insider with higher monitoring intensity and outsiders with lower monitoring intensity. We later consider a many-to-one market where an investor can finance more than one project only with the restriction that the project returns are uncorrelated. Another difference between the model of [Åkström and Tirole \[17\]](#)

and that of ours is that they consider both the intermediaries and firms are capital constrained, whereas in the current model only firms lack capital to fund their project. In this sense, we only have demand-side considerations.

Our model is built on the theoretical model proposed by Dam and *de*-Castrillo [12], where the authors characterise the set of stable outcomes of a principal-agent economy with identical principals and heterogeneous agents.<sup>2</sup> From matching theory point of view, this paper is also related to works by Bedier [6], Crawford and Kacser [11], Lagos and Newman [13], and Serris [21], which, as Dam and *de*-Castrillo [12] do, feature no or imperfect transferability of surplus among the agents. This non-transferability is typical to agency models characterised by provision of incentives since optimality is not implied by maximisation of total surplus. Bedier [6], and Lagos and Newman [13], in a more general matching framework, also provide sufficient conditions for positively and negatively assortative matching patterns in equilibrium.

In a recent empirical paper, Adalberg and Battisti [1], using a data set on agricultural contracts between landlords and tenants in early Renaissance Tuscany, show that, although the characteristics of a land owned by landlord is exogenous, the kind of tenant attracted to it is determined by an *ex post* *ad hoc*. They further note:

... *rinchi* *s* *di* *re* *bi* *di* *t* *rit* *r* *r* *re* *bi* *di* *t* *e* *sur* *at* *at*  
*ip* *di* *re* *di* *e* *p* *re* *er* *s* *re* *r* *ip* *r* *p* *ip* *e* *rit* *rit* *ip* *di* *en*  
*u* *di* *ing* *di* *guals* *di* *re* *rit* *ersi* *m* *re* *ere* *di* *e* *rit* *di* *rit*  
*r* *ip* *er* *e* *di* *e* *di* *ip* *t* *s* *re* *di* *e* *p* *re* *er* *s* *re* *r*  
*ge* *e* *rit* *rit* .

The above suggests that strong influence of endogenous matching is not unusual in determining the terms of incentive compatible contracts among individuals.

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<sup>2</sup> See also Dam and *de*-Castrillo [12] for a related literature.

## III

We consider an economy with a finite set of risk neutral agents, who own a project of (fixed) size 1 apiece. A generic firm is identified by his level of initial wealth (or, start-up capital)  $w^i$ . We arrange the firms according to their wealth levels in descending order as  $1 > w^1 > w^2 > \dots > w^n > 0$ . Firm's initial wealth is not sufficient to cover the entire project cost, hence each firm seeks external finance. There are risk-neutral intermediaries (or, banks) with different monitoring technologies identified by the monitoring intensities. These intermediaries are the potential investors in the market. A firm has to convince an intermediary to finance his project. Intermediary  $j$  is identified by her monitoring intensity  $\lambda_j$ . We arrange the intermediaries with respect to their monitoring intensities in descending order as  $\lambda_1 > \lambda_2 > \dots > \lambda_n$ . Intermediaries with higher monitoring intensity are often referred to as *retail* or *retail credit*. An intermediary with intensity  $\lambda_j$  incurs a fixed cost  $c_j$  and commits to monitor a firm she finances. Clearly, intermediary  $\lambda_1$  owns the best monitoring technology and intermediary  $\lambda_n$  owns the worst one. We assume that the monitoring technology does not permit an intermediary to control more than one firm.<sup>3</sup> Also each intermediary incurs per unit opportunity cost of fund which is equal to  $r$ . Intermediaries and firms are matched in pairs. We allow for the possibility that a firm can seek for an alternative financier. Hence, the matching is endogenous rather than being exogenous. Whenever matched, an intermediary-firm pair signs a financial contract and the intermediary finances the entire project.<sup>4</sup> Firm's wealth works as a collateral in the project even though, the firm does not invest his wealth in the project.

When an intermediary agrees to finance a project, the firm undertakes an effort  $e^i$  which influences the probability of success of the project. Let  $\theta_j$  be the effort level chosen by firm  $i$  when matched with intermediary  $j$ . The firm's effort level  $e^i$  is chosen to maximize the firm's expected utility given the effort level chosen by the intermediary. The firm's effort level  $e^i$  is chosen to maximize the firm's expected utility given the effort level chosen by the intermediary.



$f = \frac{1}{2} \left( \frac{1}{2} \right) = \frac{1}{4}$ . The probability of a stock price increase is  $\frac{1}{4}$  and the probability of a stock price decrease is  $\frac{3}{4}$ . The expected return on the stock is  $\frac{1}{4} \times 1 + \frac{3}{4} \times 0 = \frac{1}{4}$ . The expected return on the bond is  $\frac{1}{4} \times 1 + \frac{3}{4} \times 0 = \frac{1}{4}$ . The expected return on the stock is equal to the expected return on the bond.

A stock price increase is  $u^d$  and a stock price decrease is  $d$ . The probability of a stock price increase is  $\frac{1}{2}$  and the probability of a stock price decrease is  $\frac{1}{2}$ . The expected return on the stock is  $\frac{1}{2} \times u^d + \frac{1}{2} \times d$ . The expected return on the bond is  $\frac{1}{2} \times 1 + \frac{1}{2} \times 0 = \frac{1}{2}$ .

The probability of a stock price increase is  $\frac{1}{2}$  and the probability of a stock price decrease is  $\frac{1}{2}$ . The expected return on the stock is  $\frac{1}{2} \times u^d + \frac{1}{2} \times d$ . The expected return on the bond is  $\frac{1}{2} \times 1 + \frac{1}{2} \times 0 = \frac{1}{2}$ .

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$$\begin{pmatrix} 1 & 0 \\ 0 & 1 \end{pmatrix} \begin{pmatrix} 1 & 0 \\ 0 & 1 \end{pmatrix} = \begin{pmatrix} 1 & 0 \\ 0 & 1 \end{pmatrix}$$

$F =$

isibility

Liabilities

$$\leq w^d \quad (S)$$

$$\leq w^d \quad (F)$$

$T =$

$k$

$k$

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$v = T$

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(C)

$[0, 1]$

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$$= ( \quad )$$

(C)

$W =$

$k$

Assumption 2.

$[0, 1]$

$r$

$r$

$r$

$A =$

$\bar{w}$

$v$

$W$

$\bar{w} =$

**Definition 3. (Feasibility)**

A vector of is feasible for a firm  $w^d$  if it satisfies the restrictions in its own profitability maximization problem:

$X^d =$

$\bar{w}$

$F$

$Z^d$

$v$

$$\begin{cases} \max_{X^d} (w^d) \\ \text{s.t. } X^d \in Z^d \end{cases} \quad (1)$$

$v$

$v$

$v$

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**Definition 10.** (Stability)

An outcome  $(\mu \in \mathcal{C})$  or the set  $S$  is **stable** if it satisfies the following conditions:

- (i)  $(\mu \in \mathcal{C})$  is a Nash equilibrium.
- (ii) If  $(\mu \in \mathcal{C})$  is not a Nash equilibrium, then there exists a strategy profile  $(\mu \in \mathcal{C})$  such that  $(\mu \in \mathcal{C}) > (\mu \in \mathcal{C})$  in  $(\mu \in \mathcal{C})$ .

$$\begin{array}{ccc} \text{T} & \text{v} & \text{fi} \\ & \text{b} & \text{c} \\ & \text{v} & \text{fi} \end{array} \quad \text{T} \quad \text{fi} \quad \text{v} \quad \text{k}$$

**S f S b O m s**

$$\begin{array}{ccc} & & \text{k} \quad \text{W} \\ \text{F} & , & \\ & \text{fi} & (\text{ } \text{k} ) \quad \text{v} \quad \text{v} \quad \text{B} \\ & & \text{v} \quad \text{v} \quad \text{ff} \quad \text{v} \\ & & \text{ff} \quad \text{T} \end{array}$$

**Lemma 1.** A set of strategies is stable if and only if it is a Nash equilibrium.

*Pr.* Suppose  $(\mu \in \mathcal{C})$  is a Nash equilibrium. Then  $(\mu \in \mathcal{C}) > (\mu \in \mathcal{C})$  in  $(\mu \in \mathcal{C})$ . Conversely, suppose  $(\mu \in \mathcal{C})$  is not a Nash equilibrium. Then there exists a strategy profile  $(\mu \in \mathcal{C})$  such that  $(\mu \in \mathcal{C}) > (\mu \in \mathcal{C})$  in  $(\mu \in \mathcal{C})$ .  $\square$

$$\begin{array}{ccc} \text{fi} & & \\ \text{k} & & \text{ff} \\ & & \text{x} \quad \text{x} \\ & & \text{v} \quad \text{O} \\ & & \text{S} \quad \text{22} \quad \text{T} \\ & & \text{v} \quad \text{T} \\ & & \text{fi} \quad \text{u}^j \\ & & \text{fi} \quad \text{u}^j \\ & & \text{v} \quad \text{k} \\ & & \text{v} \quad \text{v} \end{array}$$

then the contract chosen  $(c_0, w^j)$  is  $\frac{1}{2} = u^j(-j)$  and the payoff to lender  $c_0$  is  $(c_0, w^j, -j)$ .

As the principal starts to invest in the stock market, a richer firm always enters, which is shown in the figure.

**Lemma 5.** In the case of a risk-neutral principal and a risk-averse lender  $\beta > -j$  if  $w^j > w^i$ . An investor  $w^j > w^i$  and the contract  $-j = -j = 0$ .

*Proof.* Suppose  $w^j > w^i$  are the stock market states to be  $-j \geq -j$ . If  $c_0 = 0$ ,  $(u^j(w^j), w^j, -j) > (u^j(w^i), w^i, -j)$  since, there exists  $c > 0$  such that  $(c, c) > 0$ , so a contract  $(c, c)$  is chosen. (ii)  $(u^j(w^j), w^j, -j) > (u^j(w^i), w^i, -j)$  and  $(u^j(w^j), w^j, -j) \geq -j > -j$  since,  $(u^j(w^j), w^j)$  is the contract with  $c$ , which contracts the state in the initial state.

The second part we invest in the stock market if a firm is in a state then he starts to contract. As a result that if a firm  $w^j$  is chosen, then in the initial state  $-j \geq 0$ .  $\square$

In the initial state we invest in the contract  $i$  against  $j$ , which will be an equilibrium in the set state to be.

#### Definition 11. (Willingness to Pay)

Given a contract  $(c, C)$  we define  $w^j$  as  $w^j$  if  $w^j$  is  $-j$  and  $w^i$  is  $-j$  and the contract  $(c, C)$  is chosen.

$$\Delta_i(j, j) = (c_0, w^j, -j) - (c_0, w^i, -j).$$

This expression means that a firm invests in the stock market, and the payoff to lender  $c_0$  is  $-j$  and  $-j$ , if the contract  $(c, C)$  is chosen with  $w^j$ , then the contract  $(c, C)$  is chosen with  $w^i$  instead, so this is the contract chosen at the time we pay to keep  $w^j$  in case  $c_0$  is chosen with  $w^j$  rather than another firm  $w^i$ .

The next two expressions are particular characteristics in the set state to be. The first expression is the contract for firms which are always entered in the market. The second expression characterizes the set state to be.

$$\Delta_i(j, j) = (c_0, w^j, -j) - (c_0, w^i, -j)$$

**Theorem 4.** An outcome  $(\mu, \mathcal{C})$  for the firm is stable if and only if it satisfies the following conditions:

- (a) On any set  $\gamma = \min\{m, n\}$  pairs of firms  $r, r' \in \gamma$ . If  $r$  and  $r'$  are firms for  $n$  inter-entrepreneurial contracts, then either  $r$  and  $r'$  are in the subset  $\{u^{m+1}, u^{m+2}, \dots, u^m\}$  for  $n$  or  $r$  and  $r'$  are in the subset  $\{u_{m+1}, u_{m+2}, \dots, u_m\}$  for  $n$  inter-entrepreneurial contracts.
- (b) There are no signed  $n$ -coalitions  $S$  if  $S$  is the set of firms  $r$  for  $n$  inter-entrepreneurial contracts.
- (c) If  $w^l > w^h$ , then  $\Delta u_{(q,w^l)}(j, \mathcal{F}) \geq \mathbb{D}^l - \mathbb{D}^h \geq \Delta u_{(q,w^h)}(j, \mathcal{F})$  for  $w^l, w^h$  in  $\mathcal{C}$ . Also  $\mathbb{D}^l = 0$  for  $w^l$  in  $\mathcal{C}$ .

*Proof.* We first prove that (a)-(c) are necessary conditions for an outcome  $(\mu, \mathcal{C})$  to be stable.

(a) It is easy to see that  $n$ -coalitions  $\gamma$  pairs are firms, since the maximum number of firms in  $S$  is  $n$ . In a stable outcome, strictly more than  $\gamma = m$  pairs are firms. Then there are at least  $m$  inter-entrepreneurial contracts, so  $n$  are firms, so  $w^l$  are in the set, either for  $n$  or  $n$ . Then there exists a contract  $\mu(w^l, \cdot) \in \mathcal{C}$  such that  $\mu(w^l, \cdot) = (q, w^l, 0) \geq 0$  and  $\mu(w^h, \cdot) \geq \mu(w^l, \cdot) \geq 0$  since  $(q, w^l, 0) \geq 0$  due to  $w^l > w^h$ , which is a contradiction.

The same applies that if there are  $n$  contracts for  $n$  inter-entrepreneurial contracts, then there is a firm for  $n$  inter-entrepreneurial contracts.

Suppose there are  $n$  firms than inter-entrepreneurial contracts in a stable outcome. A firm  $w^l$  with  $j < m$  is in the set. This firm is either for  $n$  or  $n$  is in the set, then there are  $n$  firms  $w^h$  with  $k \geq m$  firms. Given a  $\mu(w^h, \cdot) \in \mathcal{C}$  and a  $\mu(w^l, \cdot) \in \mathcal{C}$  since  $w^l > w^h$ . Then, since  $w^l > w^h$ , there exists a contract  $\mu(w^l, \cdot) \in \mathcal{C}$  such that  $\mu(w^l, \cdot) = (j, w^l, 0) \geq (j, w^h, 0) \geq \mu(w^h, \cdot) \in \mathcal{C}$  and  $\mu(w^h, \cdot) \geq \mu(w^l, \cdot) \geq 0$ . Thus, the pair  $(\mu(w^h), w^l)$  does the contract with  $w^l$ , which is a contradiction.

Now suppose that there are  $n$  inter-entrepreneurial contracts in the financial market. Let us assume that there are  $n$  inter-entrepreneurial contracts with  $i < n$  is in the set. Then there is a  $w^k$  with  $k \geq n$  is in the set with  $w^k > w^l$ , so  $w^l$  it is easy to check that  $(q, w^l, \cdot) > (q, w^k, \cdot)$  since  $w^k > w^l$ .<sup>13</sup> Then there exists a contract

$$(q, w^l, \cdot) \in \mathcal{C} \text{ such that } (q, w^l, \cdot) = (j, w^l, 0) \geq (j, w^k, 0) \geq \mu(w^k, \cdot) \in \mathcal{C} \text{ and } \mu(w^k, \cdot) \geq \mu(w^l, \cdot) \geq 0$$



$d^j = c_j(w^j) - z$  with which the pair  $(c_j, w^j)$  defines the net supply

(b) For us to be efficient

(c) We show that in a stationary equilibrium  $(\mu, C)$ , we cannot have (i)  $\Delta_{\mu(w^j)}(\lambda, \mathcal{F}) > -z$  and (ii)  $\Delta_{\mu(w^j)}(\lambda, \mathcal{F}) < -z$ , in fact that the net supply  $c_j$  is efficient in the sense that the inequality is the welfare in net supply is not improved by  $\mu(w^j)$  or  $w^j$  a net supply, and the right hand side is the difference between the utilities taken  $w^j$  and  $w^j$ , the extra (in terms of utility)  $\mu(w^j)$  has to pay is she will have from the contract  $\mu(w^j)$  to  $w^j$  instead of from  $\mu(w^j)$  to  $w^j$ . This implies that  $\mu(w^j)$  has an incentive to raise claim payments either with  $w^j$ . An efficient claim payment is valid since there exists a contract  $\mu(w^j) = \mu(w^j) - z$  such that (a)  $\mu(w^j)(w^j, \mathcal{F}) = (\mu(w^j), w^j, \mathcal{F}) - z > (\mu(w^j), w^j, \mathcal{F})$  and (b)  $\mu(w^j)(w^j, \mathcal{F}) \geq -z > -z$ . This contract sets the supply side such that the net supply is efficient.

For the other part, write (ii) as  $-z < \Delta_{\mu(w^j)}(\lambda, \mathcal{F}) = \Delta_{\mu(w^j)}(\mathcal{F}, \mathcal{F})$ . This expression is satisfied if (i) is true, it is easy to check that with the contract  $\mu(w^j) = \mu(w^j) - z$  instead of  $\mu(w^j)$  and instead of  $w^j$  a claim payment, which is a contract.

The fact that an efficient allocation is efficient is obvious. For us to be

(b)

For efficiency, we need to prove (b) and (c), which together with (a) is sufficient. The inequality in (c) is

$$(\mu(w^j), w^j, \mathcal{F}) - (\mu(w^j), w^j, \mathcal{F}) \geq (\mu(w^j), w^j, \mathcal{F}) - (\mu(w^j), w^j, \mathcal{F})$$

it is for the above expression

$$-z - (\mu(w^j), w^j, \mathcal{F}) - z - (\mu(w^j), w^j, \mathcal{F}) \geq -z - (\mu(w^j), w^j, \mathcal{F}) - z - (\mu(w^j), w^j, \mathcal{F})$$

The net inequality implies that the allocation  $\mu$  is efficient in the sense that no other efficient net supply  $(\mu(w^j), w^j)$  can be an improvement. Thus, the efficient allocation in the contract  $\mu(w^j)$  and the allocation  $\mu$  implies there is

$$\frac{\mu(w^j)(w^j, \mathcal{F})}{\mu(w^j)(w^j, \mathcal{F})} = \frac{p}{q} \quad \text{Given } p > q \quad \text{by } x \quad \text{by } y \quad \text{by } z$$

exist any contract  $d^j$  different from  $d^i$  and an agent who can do the trade with  $i$ , and hence, the trade is stable.  $\square$

In the above theorem we characterize the set of stable outcomes in the financial market. First it is important to point out that a financial contract is a stable outcome if and only if it is a result of a trade in the market. Second, the financial contract is a stable outcome if and only if it is a result of a trade in the market. Third, we show that a richer firm earns higher profits if in a stable outcome. This property is true irrespective of the market pattern in a stable outcome. Finally, in the firm's economy with respect to their initial wealth, the winners are the successful firms.

We now state a result establishing a weaker form of the property that the profit of a firm is higher in a stable outcome. First, we assume that a richer firm earns higher profits. Part (c) then shows that the profit of a firm is higher if it is the profit of a firm, a poorer firm, or a stable outcome (intermediate) that has a trade partner is higher than the profit of a firm with higher rather than a firm with higher. On the other hand, the firm can do it is higher than the intermediate firm is higher with higher than the firm with higher rather than with higher. A similar result can be interpreted as this is that the intermediate firm is higher than the firm with higher firm. An assumption that an intermediate firm is higher than a richer firm can be interpreted as a result of a trade.

In Section 3.2.2 we have asserted that a firm can trade with an intermediate firm is equivalent to the firm is not able to do it. The intermediate firm's profit is higher than the firm's profit rather than investment capital in the market under an uncertain risk-free interest rate. One can notice that part (a) of the above theorem that when firms are the market, even the result is a result of a trade. The firm's profit is higher than the firm's profit. As a result, the richest firm is a result of the intermediate firm's trade with the poorer firm's trade. In the market, when the intermediate firm is higher than the market, the result is a result of a trade in the market.

In the above theorem we show that the set of stable outcomes in the financial market is a result of a trade.

**Theorem 5.** For the firm's economy, the set of stable outcomes is a result of a trade.

non-empty.

*Proof.* We will use a technique popular in the literature that we follow here. We rewrite the auction as a series of lotteries in Section 3.2.3; the auction as a series of lotteries in Altonji and Gale [3], and Crawford and Klemm [11]. Then it is immediate to prove the existence of a stable fee for the financial market as here.  $\square$

In the current case, we consider a set of net auction bids with individual seller and individual buyer contracts. Our main contribution comes as a consequence of the assignment game structure. As usual, we assume that the assignment game  $(S, \mathcal{B})$  is the assignment game, where  $S$  is the set of individual jobs, agents, or agents with sellers in this case, and  $\mathcal{B}$  is a collection of net prices or net prices for the net auction. In the current case, the transactions are via contracts rather than prices. The main idea is that the price structure is an integer lattice for pairs of net contracts, as is shown in the appendix. As a result, the price structure is a lattice. The assignment game  $(S, \mathcal{B})$  is a game with a set of net prices  $(s, u^j)$  and a set of net prices  $(s, u^j)$  is a linear space. If the assignment game is a lattice, we can see that this is a linear space between an integer lattice and the contract parties. The auction as a series of lotteries in Section 3.2.3 is an equivalent net price structure between firms and individual jobs. Our main idea is that the assignment game  $(S, \mathcal{B})$  is characterized by net prices. Given the set of individual jobs,  $\mathcal{I} \cup \mathcal{J}$ , and the net prices for a net price pair  $(s, u^j)$ , the auction as a series of lotteries is a series of lotteries. Altonji and Gale [3], and the assignment game for a series of lotteries. Crawford and Klemm [11]. As per the above, i.e., the set of net prices is a lattice. As a consequence, we can see that, in the current case, we can hence write the net price structure as  $(s, u^j) = f(s, \beta) - \beta^j$ , where integer  $s$  can transfer to a set of net prices.

Next we analyze the auction game in a stable fee. We will look at cases when the characteristic individual job is not in the characteristic job/agent pair, i.e., the stable auction is not used. Two types of net

allocation can be realized. First, if either firm is active with an efficient unit cost, then we say that the allocation is positive  $g$  as realized (AM). On the other hand, if either firm is active with an essential intensive, then the allocation is *not*  $g$  as realized (NAM). The winning allocation must satisfy these conditions.

**Definition 12.** Given an input  $\mu$  and output  $q$  for a unit of output  $q$ , let  $\mu$  be *not*  $g$  as realized if  $w^d > w^s$  and prices  $\mu(w^d) < (>) \mu(w^s)$ .

A non-active essential intensive allocation is possible if a firm from the interior of the unit cost curve has a higher unit cost intensive. On the other hand, in a  $g$  stable non-active allocation either firm is active with an essential intensive or the winning firm is active with an essential intensive. In the latter case, we can always construct a non-active essential intensive allocation pattern. This allocation exists as an interior allocation with a higher unit cost intensive. It is an interior allocation with a higher unit cost intensive. This is the case when the winning firm is active with an essential intensive.

**Theorem 6.** In a stable allocation, the input is *not*  $g$  as realized.

*Proof.* First we show that in a stable allocation, the winning firm is active with an essential intensive. Consider the winning firm's output  $q$  as realized.

$$\Delta_s(\lambda, \mathcal{F}) \leq \Delta_s(\lambda, \mathcal{F}) \quad \text{for } \alpha_1 > \alpha_0 \text{ and } w^d > w^s. \quad (DW)$$

Then the allocation is not (c). The reason is either it is possible that in a stable allocation we have  $\mu(w^d) = \alpha_1$  and  $\mu(w^s) = \alpha_0$ , and hence  $\mu$  is non-active essential intensive.

The main thing we must establish is that, even so, it is not possible (DW) is a unit cost curve. As we see in Section 2.3 that the stability property (c) is satisfied if and only if a firm's unit cost curve is the same as the unit cost curve. It is easy to check that a firm's unit cost curve is the same as the unit cost curve if and only if  $\Delta_s(\lambda, \mathcal{F}) = \Delta_s(\lambda, \mathcal{F})$  for  $\alpha_1 > \alpha_0$  and  $w^d > w^s$ . (DW) is a unit cost curve.

To see this in the interior of the unit cost curve, let  $(\alpha_1, w^d, \mathcal{F})$  be a unit cost curve such that  $\frac{\partial}{\partial \alpha_1} \Delta_s \leq 0$  and  $\frac{\partial}{\partial w^d} \Delta_s \leq 0$ . Take  $w^d > w^s$  and  $\alpha_1 > \alpha_0$ . As a result,

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$$\Delta_s(\alpha_1, w^d) > \Delta_s(\alpha_0, w^d) \quad \text{and} \quad \Delta_s(\alpha_1, w^d) > \Delta_s(\alpha_1, w^s)$$



## 3.4 An Introduction to Financial Markets

**Definition 13.** (Many-to-one Matching)

A (many-to-one) matching for the market is a mapping  $\mu: \mathcal{I} \cup \mathcal{F} \rightarrow \mathcal{I} \cup \mathcal{Z}^{\mathcal{F}}$  such that (i)  $\mu(i) \in \mathcal{Z}^{\mathcal{F}}$  for all  $i \in \mathcal{I}$ , (ii)  $\mu(u^i) \in \mathcal{I} \cup u^i$  for all  $u^i \in \mathcal{F}$ , and (iii)  $\mu(u^i) = u^i$  if and only if  $u^i \in \mathcal{I} \times \mathcal{F}$ .



**Proposition 2.** An allocation  $(\mu, C)$  is admissible if and only if it is a matching  $\mu$  and  $C = \mu^{-1}(C)$ .

- (a)  $C$  is individually feasible for  $\mu$  and  $C = \mu^{-1}(C)$ .  
 (b)  $\mu^{-1}(C) = C$ .  
 (c)  $\Delta_{\mu^{-1}(C)}(j, \mathcal{F}) = \Delta_{\mu^{-1}(C)}(j, \mathcal{F})$  for all  $j \in \mathcal{I}$ .





The current evidence shows several avenues for future research. We could also attempt to obtain data with several intercorrelations and several firms, which is also often difficult to do with the restriction mentioned in the project proposal. In addition, this study would also be a valuable contribution to the literature on the relationship between the financial market and the environment. The equilibrium in the case with corporate projects would also be able to analyze the effects of different kinds of environmental taxes on the  $H^*$  structure [17], as Rep and S have [25]. Another extension would be to analyze the investment in the public firm in this case, as  $H^*$  structure [17] interpret, is a reinvestment in the firm then it would be expected in the firm's investment to be attracted external capital into the firm's investment. Finally, we can extend the model to include the intercorrelation constraint. This would be a first step towards the environmental tax, as it would be able to analyze the effects of corporate projects in a more general setting.



## Chapter 4

# Does Market Concentration Preclude Risk-Taking in Banking?

[This chapter is jointly written with Santiago Scharif Puyó]

### 4.1 Introduction

When banks are able to raise deposit to invest in assets with uncertain returns, excessive deposit liability in our banks to take more risk. Involvement in high risk activities is viewed as one of the principal causes of several instances of banking crises that the world economy has witnessed within the last two centuries.

The main goal of this chapter is to analyze the role of market concentration on equity capital of banks in order to infer into the risk-taking behaviour of banks in the absence of deposit insurance. The banking sector we describe here consists of a finite number of banks. Banks are identical with respect to their equity capital. They raise deposits to offer deposit rates. Banks choose between a prudent asset and a gambling asset to invest their total sum (equity plus deposit). The gambling asset on average yields a lower return than the prudent asset, but if the gamble is successful it gives higher return. There is a continuum of depositors. The depositors have one unit of monetary sum apiece, which they place in a bank to earn deposit rate  $r$ . The depositors are not insured in case the bank fails.

We analyze the bank competition in the context of a circular city model of Salop [27]. Both the banks and the depositors are located uniformly on a unit circle. The

depositors incur a per unit transport cost to travel to a bank. Two types of symmetric equilibria can arise. A *predominant equilibrium*, where all banks invest in the *prudent* asset, and a *gambling equilibrium*, where all banks invest in the *risky* asset. We use the unit transport cost relative to the number of banks as a measure of market concentration.

We can plot and characterize the equilibria of the banking market. We show that when concentration is low, banks can provide a service in order to capture market power and offer higher deposit rates. In this case, all the depositors participate, and a competitive market is said to arise. Here, for very low concentration, all banks invest in the *prudent* asset (i.e., a *Cooperative Prudent Equilibrium* exists). As concentration increases, all banks invest in the *risky* asset can also be suggested in equilibrium (i.e., a *Cooperative Risky Equilibrium* exists).

For high levels of market concentration, banks never invest in the *risky* asset. This is because, in a concentrated market, banks can provide a service which in turn allows them to choose *prudent* asset in order to preserve that. Hence, for a critical high concentration, co-existence with banks investing in the *prudent* asset is the only equilibrium. For even higher levels of concentration, a *local monopoly* market exists where deposit rate is so low that some depositors find it unprofitable to place their funds in banks and prefer to stay out of the deposit market.

To summarize, we show that high market concentration is efficient outcome. As market concentration increases, the resulting lower competition in turn banks to invest only in the *prudent* asset.

The equilibrium outcomes of the market also have significant implications for social welfare. For a fixed level of deposit capital, high concentration prevents banks to choose the *risky* asset. Banks invest in the *prudent* asset and offer higher deposit rates. As a result, social welfare increases. Only when a *local monopoly* market arises, market concentration has a *negative* effect on social welfare. All this suggests a non-monotonic relation between market concentration and welfare that calls for a careful examination of competition policies. Also, when bank's deposit capital increases a *Cooperative Prudent Equilibrium* and a *Monopoly Prudent Equilibrium* become less likely.

Our analysis relates to the literature on bank regulation. Prudential regulations of banks are viewed as instruments to prohibit banks from investing in risk projects.

To this end, several mechanisms are used by the central banking authorities. Two popular instruments are limits on capital requirements and deposit rate ceilings. Hellwig and Mauerlechner-Stiglitz [16] show, using a macro model of general equilibrium, that deposit rate ceilings are inconsistent with Pareto efficiency, and that an optimal regulation policy combines limits on capital requirements and deposit rate ceilings. Repullo [24] uses a macro model of banking based on spatial competition à la Salop, to show that for a very low level of market concentration all banks invest only in the safe asset if there is no regulation. Chiaporri, Pérez-Castrillo and Verdier [11] analyze the regulation of deposit rates in a circular city model of bank competition in both the deposit and loan markets.

The current setup is closest to that of Repullo [24] and Keele [18]. The latter shows, using a static model, that increasing competition leads to higher risk-taking in banking. We also use a static model as usual as a sort of deposit insurance. Starting from portfolio choice theory asserts that positive risk premia (the difference between the expected return from the risk asset and the return from the safe asset) is necessary to induce (risk averse) investors to invest positive amounts in a risk asset. In the current model without market risk premia, a safe equilibrium exists since a successful gamble yields more than a guaranteed asset. Hence, in order to ensure a general equilibrium, one needs an additional restriction that, given deposit rates and total volume of deposit, the profit from investment in the risky asset must exceed that from the safe asset (the *No Gambling Condition*). In our model, banks invest all their equity capital. This can be thought of as if there is first capitalization or possession by a regulator authority. But, as Hellwig and Mauerlechner-Stiglitz [16] show, capital requirements are not enough to achieve Pareto efficiency unless combined with deposit rate ceilings. In our model, unlike their work, total volume of deposit with a bank does not influence whether bank is able to choose a safe asset or a risky asset. Hence, the minimum depositors play a major role in determining banks' risk-taking behaviour.

The main result of this chapter shows that increasing market concentration ensures that all banks invest in the risky asset. Much of the evidence on bank crises poses the view that crises are able to enhance efficiency in face of bank risk. In the current model we also assert that if we give regulator more power by allowing the bank to choose then that will ensure that banks are less likely to choose the safe assets to invest in.