

Limited Nominal Indexation of Optimal Financial Contracts¹

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Abstract

We study a model with repeated moral hazard where financial contracts are not fully indexed to inflation because nominal prices are observed with delay as in Jovanovic and Ueda (1997). More constrained firms sign contracts that are less indexed to inflation and, as a result, their investment is more sensitive to nominal price shocks. We also find that the overall degree of nominal indexation increases with price uncertainty. An implication of this is that economies with higher inflation uncertainty are less vulnerable to a price shock of a given magnitude. The micro predictions of the model are tested empirically using macro and firm-level data from Canada.

1 Introduction

When financial contracts are not indexed to inflation, an unexpected increase in the nominal price redistributes wealth from lenders to borrowers. Doepke and Schneider (2006b, 2006a) and Meh, Ríos-Rull, and Terajima (2010) show empirically that redistribution can be sizeable even for moderate levels of inflation, using U.S. and Canadian data respectively. To the extent that the distribution of wealth is not neutral for investment and production decisions, this could have important macroeconomic effects. Christiano, Motto, and Rostagno (2010) consider nominal debt contracts in a large scale macroeconomic model that incorporates the financial accelerator of Bernanke, Gertler, and Gilchrist (1999) and find that the redistribution of wealth from households to entrepreneurs induced by unexpected inflation contributes significantly to macroeconomic fluctuations.

Although the assumption of ‘nominal’ debt contracts is clearly supported by the data, it is not obvious why firms and households enter into financial relations that are not fully indexed to inflation. In this paper we propose a mechanism that can rationalize the limited indexation of ‘optimal’ financial contracts. The mechanism is based on agency problems and lagged observation of ‘aggregate’ nominal prices as in Jovanovic and Ueda (1997, 1998). In this paper, however, we focus on dynamic financial contracts rather than wage contracts.

The model features entrepreneurs who finance investment by entering into contractual relations with financial intermediaries. Because of agency problems created by information asymmetries, financial contracts are constrained optimal. The key mechanism leading to the limited indexation of these contracts is the assumption that the aggregate nominal price is observed with delay since in reality there is a substantial time lag before the aggregate price level becomes public information.¹ The timing lag creates a time-inconsistency problem that leads to the renegotiation of a contract that is fully indexed to inflation.

We first characterize the optimal long-term contract in which the parties commit not to renegotiate in future periods. The optimal contract with

¹This is certainly the case for the GDP deflator. For the consumer price index the time lag is shorter. However, the CPI is an aggregate measure of a representative consumption basket. Because of heterogeneity, what matters is an individual’s consumption basket, the price of which could deviate substantially from the nominal price of the representative basket.

commitment is fully indexed, and therefore inflation is neutral. After showing that this contract is not immune to renegotiation, we characterize the renegotiation-proof contract. In doing so we assume that renegotiation can arise at any time before the observation of the nominal price. Contrary to the environment considered in Martin and Monnet (2006), this assumption eliminates the optimality of mixed strategies.²

A key property of the renegotiation-proof contract is the limited indexation to inflation, that is, *real* payments depend on *nominal* quantities. A consequence of this is that unexpected movements in the nominal price have real consequences for an individual firm and, by aggregation, for the aggregate economy. The central mechanism of transmission is the debt-deflation channel: An unexpected increase in prices reduces the real value of nominal liabilities, improving the net worth of entrepreneurs. The higher net worth then facilitates greater investment and leads to a macroeconomic expansion.

This result can also be obtained in a simpler model in which we impose that financial transactions take place only through non-contingent nominal debt contracts. However, with this simpler framework we would not be able to study how different monetary regimes or policies affect the degree of indexation, and therefore, how the economy responds to nominal price shocks under different monetary policy regimes. Our model, instead, allows us to study whether an economy with greater nominal price uncertainty features a higher degree of nominal indexation and whether nominal price shocks have different macroeconomic implications given the different degree of ‘endogenous’ indexation.

Although the theoretical idea for limited indexation used in this paper has already been developed in Jovanovic and Ueda (1997), the structure of our economy and the questions addressed in this paper are different. First, in our environment all agents are risk neutral but they operate a concave investment technology. Therefore, the role that the concavity of preferences plays in Jovanovic and Ueda is now played by the concavity of the production

²Building on the results of Fudenberg and Tirole (1990), Martin and Monnet show that the time-consistent policy may also depend on the realization of real output if we allow for mixed strategies. The optimality of the mixed strategies, however, depends on the assumption that, once the agent has revealed his/her type, the contract cannot be renegotiated again. This point is clearly emphasized in the concluding section of Fudenberg and Tirole (1990). In our model we do not impose this restriction, that is, the contract can be renegotiated at any time before the observation of the price level. Consequently, mixed strategies are time-inconsistent in our set up.

function. Second, we consider agents that are infinitely lived, and therefore, we solve for a repeated moral hazard problem. This allows us to study how inflation shocks impact investment and aggregate output dynamically over time. It also allows us to distinguish the short-term versus long-term effects of different monetary regimes. Third, in our model entrepreneurs/firms are ex-ante identical but ex-post heterogeneous. At each point in time, some firms face tighter constraints and invest less while other firms face weaker constraints and invest more. This allows us to study how nominal price shocks impact investment at different stages of firm's growth. The paper is also related to Jovanovic (2009).

The first finding of the paper is that the optimal contract allows for lower nominal indexation in firms that are more financially constrained, that is, firms that are currently operating at a smaller scale than the optimal one (that is, the scale they would operate in absence of contractual frictions). As a result, these firms are more vulnerable to inflation shocks. This finding is also relevant for cross-country comparisons: since contractual frictions are likely to play a more important role in countries with less developed financial markets, these countries are also likely to have a larger share of firms with tighter financial constraints, making them more vulnerable to inflation shocks.

The second finding of the paper is that the degree of nominal price indexation increases with the degree of nominal price uncertainty. This implies that the impact of a given inflation shock is bigger in economies with lower price volatility (since contracts are less indexed in these economies). In general, however, economies with greater price uncertainty also face larger inflation shocks on average. Therefore, the overall aggregate volatility induced by these shocks is not necessarily smaller in these economies. In fact, the numerical exercise conducted in the paper shows that the relationship between inflation uncertainty and aggregate volatility is not monotonic: aggregate volatility first increases with inflation uncertainty and then decreases.

We test the micro predictions of the model using firm-level data from Canada. We first estimate a stochastic process for inflation using province-level data from Canada. As a byproduct of this first step estimation, we obtain time series for inflation innovations or shocks. We then use the time series of shocks to test whether unexpected inflation has a differential impact on firms that face different financial conditions. We find that the sales growth of firms that are more financially constrained (those paying no dividends) is more sensitive to inflation shocks, which is consistent with the prediction of

the theoretical model.

The plan of the paper is as follows. Section 2 describes the model. Section 3 characterizes the long-term financial contract with commitment and shows that this contract is not free from renegotiation. Sections 4 and 5 characterize the renegotiation-proof contract. Section 6 further characterizes the properties of the model numerically and Section 7 tests empirically some of its properties. Section 8 concludes.

2 The model

Consider a continuum of risk-neutral entrepreneurs with utility $E_0 \sum_{t=0}^{\infty} \beta^t c_t$, where β is the discount factor and c_t is consumption. Entrepreneurs have the skills to run an investment technology as specified below. They finance investments by signing optimal contracts with ‘competitive’ risk-neutral financial intermediaries. We will also refer to the financial intermediaries as investors. Given the interest rate r , the market discount rate is denoted by $\delta = 1/(1+r)$. We assume that $\beta \leq \delta$, that is, the entrepreneur’s discount rate is at least as large as the market interest rate.

The investment technology run by an entrepreneur generates cash revenues $R_t = p_t z_t k_{t-1}^\theta$, where p_t is the nominal price level, z_t is an ‘unobservable’ idiosyncratic productivity shock and k_{t-1} is the publicly observed input of capital chosen in the previous period. Capital fully depreciates after production. This assumption is not essential for the results but it simplifies the analysis. For notational convenience we denote by $s_t = p_t z_t$ the product of the two stochastic variables, nominal price and productivity. Therefore, the cash revenue can also be written as $R_t = s_t k_{t-1}^\theta$.

The idiosyncratic productivity shock is *iid* and log-normally distributed, that is $z_t \sim LN(\mu_z, \sigma_z^2)$. The nominal price level is also *iid* and log-normally distributed, that is, $p_t \sim LN(\mu_p, \sigma_p^2)$. For later reference we denote with a tilde the logarithm of a variable. Therefore, $\tilde{s}_t = \tilde{z}_t + \tilde{p}_t$. Given the log-normality assumption, the logarithms of productivity and price are normally distributed, that is, $\tilde{z}_t \sim N(\mu_z, \sigma_z^2)$ and $\tilde{p}_t \sim N(\mu_p, \sigma_p^2)$.

It is important to emphasize that z_t is not observable directly. It can only be inferred from the observation of the cash revenue R_t and the nominal price p_t . Because k_{t-1} is public information, the observation of the revenue reveals the value of $s_t = p_t z_t$. Once the nominal price p_t is observed, the value of z_t is inferred from s_t .

The central feature of the model is the particular timing of information wherein aggregate prices are observed with delay. There are two stages in each period and the aggregate price level is observed only in the second stage. In the first stage the cash revenue $R_t = p_t z_t k_{t-1}^\theta$ is realized. The entrepreneur is the first to observe R_t and, indirectly, $s_t = p_t z_t$. However, this is not sufficient to infer the value of z_t because the general price p_t is unknown at this stage.

Being the first to observe the cash revenue, the entrepreneur has the ability to divert the revenue for consumption without being detected by the investor (consumption is also not observable). Therefore, there is an information asymmetry between the entrepreneur and the investor which is typical in investment models with moral hazard such as Atkeson (1991), Clementi and Hopenhayn (2006), Gertler (1992), Meh and Quadrini (2006) and Quadrini (2004).

In the second stage the general price p_t becomes known. Although the observation of p_t allows the entrepreneur to infer the value of z_t , the investor can infer the true value of z_t only if the entrepreneur chooses not to divert the revenues in the first stage.

The actual consumption purchased in the second stage with the diverted revenue will depend on the price p_t . Therefore, when the revenue is diverted in the first stage, the entrepreneur is uncertain about the real value of the diverted cash. As we will see, this is the key feature of the model that creates the conditions for the renegotiation of the optimal long-term contract as in Jovanovic and Ueda (1997). Figure 1 summarizes the information timing.

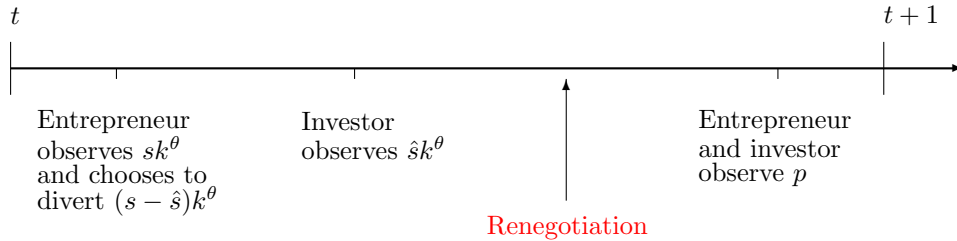


Figure 1: Information timing.

3 The long-term contract

In this section we characterize the optimal long-term contract, that is, the contract signed under the assumption that the parties commit not to renegotiate, consensually, in later periods. We will then show that the long-term contract is not free from renegotiation given the particular information structure where the nominal aggregate price is observed with delay. The renegotiation-proof contract will be characterized in the next section.

The long-term contract is characterized recursively by maximizing the value of the investor (principal) subject to a value q promised to the entrepreneur (agent). This is a standard approach used to characterize dynamic financial contracts as, for example, in Albuquerque and Hopenhayn (2004). We write the optimization problem that is solved at the end of the period after consumption. Under the assumption that the idiosyncratic realization of productivity z is not persistent, the only ‘individual’ state at the end of the period is the after-consumption utility q promised to the entrepreneur.

Given the entrepreneur’s value q , the optimal contract chooses the new investment, k , the next period consumption, $c' = g(z', p')$, and the next period continuation utility, $q' = h(z', p')$, where z' and p' are the productivity and the aggregate price for the next period. For the contract to be optimal, the next period consumption and continuation utility must be contingent on the information that becomes available in the next period, that is, z' and p' .

The maximization problem is subject to two constraints. First, the utility promised to the entrepreneur must be delivered (promise-keeping). The contract can choose different combinations of next period consumption $c' = g(z', p')$ and next period continuation utility $q' = h(z', p')$, but the expected value must be equal to the utility promised in the previous period, that is,

$$q = \beta E[g(z', p') + h(z', p')].$$

Second, the contract must be incentive-compatible, that is, for all realizations of revenues, the entrepreneur does not have an incentive to divert. This requires that the value received when reporting the true s' is not lower than the value of reporting a smaller s' (and diverting the hidden revenue). If the entrepreneur reports \hat{s}' , the real value of the diverted revenues is $\phi(s' - \hat{s}')k^\theta/p$, where $\phi \leq 1$ is a parameter that captures the *efficiency* in diverting. Since smaller values of ϕ imply lower gains from diversion, this parameter captures the severity of the contractual frictions, which we inter-

pret as a proxy for the characteristics of financial markets (less developed financial markets have higher ϕ).

At the moment of choosing whether to divert the revenues, which arises in the first stage of the next period, the nominal price p' is unknown. Therefore, what matters is the expected value of the diverted revenue conditional on the observation of s' , that is, $E[\phi(s' - \hat{s}')k^\theta/p' | s']$. Thus, for incentive-compatibility we have to impose the constraint,

$$E\left[g(z', p') + h(z', p') \mid s'\right] \geq E\left[\phi\left(\frac{s' - \hat{s}'}{p'}\right)k^\theta + g\left(\frac{\hat{s}'}{p'}, p'\right) + h\left(\frac{\hat{s}'}{p'}, p'\right) \mid s'\right],$$

for all $\hat{s}' < s'$. The variable s' is the true realization of $p'z'$ while \hat{s}' is the value observed by the investor if the entrepreneur diverts $(s' - \hat{s}')k^\theta$. Notice that the expectation is conditional on the information available to the entrepreneur when he/she chooses to divert. Even if the investor observes \hat{s}' , the entrepreneur knows the true value of s' .

Although the constraint is imposed for all possible values of $\hat{s}' < s'$, we can restrict attention to the lowest value $\hat{s}' = 0$. It can be shown that, if the incentive compatibility constraint is satisfied for $\hat{s}' = 0$, then it will also be satisfied for all $\hat{s}' < s'$. Using this property, the contractual problem can be written recursively as

$$V(q) = \max_{k, g(z', p'), h(z', p')} \left\{ -k + \delta E\left[z'k^\theta - g(z', p') + V(h(z', p'))\right] \right\} \quad (1)$$

subject to

$$E\left[g(z', p') + h(z', p') \mid s'\right] \geq E\left[\phi z'k^\theta + g(0, p') + h(0, p') \mid s'\right] \quad (2)$$

$$q = \beta E\left[g(z', p') + h(z', p')\right] \quad (3)$$

$$g(z', p'), h(z', p') \geq 0. \quad (4)$$

The problem maximizes the value for the investor subject to the value promised to the entrepreneur. In addition to the incentive-compatibility constraint, which must be satisfied for all possible value of s' , and the promise-keeping constraint, we also impose the non-negativity of consumption and

continuation utility. These constraints can be interpreted as limited liability constraints.

The following proposition characterizes some properties of the optimal long-term contract with commitment.

Proposition 1 *The optimal policies for next period consumption and continuation utility depend only on z' , not p' .*

Proof 1 *See Appendix A.*

These properties imply that the contract is fully indexed to nominal price fluctuations. The intuition behind this result is simple. What affects the incentive to divert is the ‘real’ value of the cash revenues. But the real value of revenues depends on z' , not p' . Although z' is not observable when the entrepreneur decides whether or not to divert, conditioning the payments on the ex-post inference of z' is sufficient to discipline the entrepreneur. Therefore, we can rewrite the optimal policies as $c' = g(z')$ and $q' = h(z')$.

The next step is to show what happens if the parties do not commit to the long-term contract, that is, at any point in time they can choose, consensually, to modify the terms of the contract (renegotiation). As we will see, if the parties are allowed to change the terms of the contract in future periods, they will choose to do so. This means that the long-term contract is not free from renegotiation. Before showing this, however, it will be convenient to rewrite the optimization problem in a slightly different format.

3.1 Rewriting the optimization problem

Define $u(z') = g(z') + h(z')$ the next period utility before consumption. Using the property that the optimal policies for the long-term contract depend only on z' , not p' , the optimization problem can be split in two sub-programs. The first sub-program optimizes over the input of capital and the total next period utility for the entrepreneur, that is,

$$V(q) = \max_{k, u(z')} \left\{ -k + \delta E \left[z' k^\theta + W(u(z')) \right] \right\} \quad (5)$$

subject to

$$E[u(z') | s'] \geq E[\phi z' k^\theta + u(0) | s']$$

$$q = \beta E u(z')$$

$$u(z') \geq 0$$

The second sub-program determines how the utility u' promised in the next period will be delivered to the entrepreneur. The choice is between immediate payments c' or future payments q' , and it is made after observing the aggregate price p' and, indirectly, the idiosyncratic shock z' . The problem takes the form

$$W(u') = \max_{c', q'} \left\{ -c' + V(q') \right\} \quad (6)$$

subject to

$$u' = c' + q'$$

$$c', q' \geq 0$$

Proposition 2 *There exists \underline{q} and \bar{q} , with $0 < \underline{q} < \bar{q} < \infty$, such that $V(x)$ and $W(x)$ are continuously differentiable, strictly concave for $x < \bar{q}$, linear for $x > \bar{q}$, strictly increasing for $x < \underline{q}$ and strictly decreasing for $x > \underline{q}$. Entrepreneur's consumption is*

$$c' = \begin{cases} 0 & \text{if } u' < \bar{q} \\ u' - \bar{q} & \text{if } u' > \bar{q} \text{ and } \beta < \delta \\ \text{Any value in } [0, u' - \bar{q}] & \text{if } u' > \bar{q} \text{ and } \beta = \delta \end{cases}$$

Proof 2 *See Appendix B.*

The typical shape of the value function is shown in Figure 2. To understand the properties states in Proposition 2, we should think of q as the

entrepreneur's net worth. Because of the incentive compatibility constraint, together with the limited liability constraint, the input of capital is limited by the entrepreneur's net worth. As the net worth increases, the constraints are relaxed and more capital can be invested. This can be seen more clearly by integrating the incentive compatibility constraint over s' and eliminating $Eu(z')$ using the promise-keeping constraint. This allows us to derive the condition

$$\frac{q}{\beta} \geq \phi \bar{z} k^\theta + u(0),$$

where $\bar{z} = Ez'$ is the mean value of productivity.

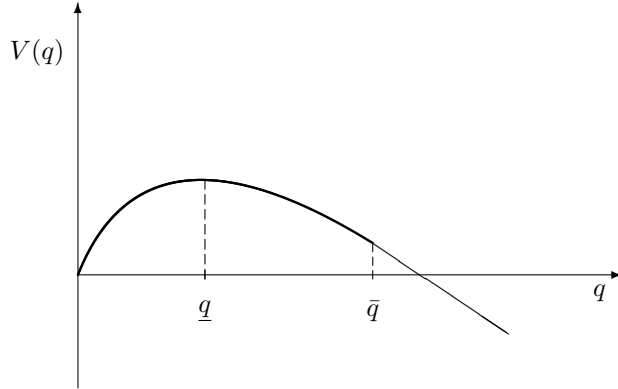


Figure 2: Value of the contract for the investor.

Because $u(0)$ cannot be negative, k must converge to zero as q converges to zero. Then for very low values of q the input of capital is so low and the marginal revenue so high that marginally increasing the value promised to the entrepreneur leads to an increase in revenues bigger than the increase in q . Therefore, the investor would also benefit from raising q . This is no longer the case once the promised value has reached a certain level $q \geq \underline{q}$. At this point the value function slopes downward.

The concavity property of the contract value derives from the concavity of the revenue function. However, once the entrepreneur's value has become sufficiently large ($q > \bar{q}$), the firm is no longer constrained to use a suboptimal input of capital. Thus, further increases in q do not change k , but only involve

a redistribution of wealth from the investor to the entrepreneur. The value function then becomes linear.

The payments to the entrepreneur (entrepreneur's consumption) are unique only if $\beta < \delta$. If $\beta = \delta$, then c and q are not uniquely determined when $u' > \bar{q}$. However, they are determined for $u' \leq \bar{q}$.

3.2 The long-term contract is not renegotiation-proof

The optimal long-term contract has been characterized under the assumption that the parties commit not to renegotiate in future periods. In this section we show that both parties could benefit from changing the terms of the contracts in later periods or stages. In other words, the optimal long-term contract is not free from (consensual) renegotiation.

Consider the optimal policies for the long-term contract $c' = g(z')$ and $q' = h(z')$. The utility induced by these policies after the observation of s' and after the choice of diversion is

$$\bar{u}' = E[g(z') + h(z') \mid s'] \equiv f(s').$$

Now suppose that, after the realization of s' , but before observing p' , we consider changing the terms of the contract in a way that improves the investor's value but does not harm the entrepreneur. That is, the value received by the entrepreneur is still \bar{u}' . The change is only for one period and then we revert to the long-term contract. In doing so, we solve the problem

$$\bar{W}(s', \bar{u}') = \max_{u(z')} E[W(u(z')) \mid s'] \tag{7}$$

subject to

$$\bar{u}' = E[u(z') \mid s'],$$

where $W(\cdot)$ is the value function with commitment defined in (6).

Notice that the optimization problem is now conditional on s' because it is solved after observing the revenues. At this point the agency problem is no longer an issue in the current period since the entrepreneur has already made the decision to divert. Therefore, we do not need the incentive-compatibility constraint. The next proposition characterizes the solution to problem (7).

Proposition 3 *If $\bar{u} < \bar{q}$, the solution to problem (7) does not depend on z' , that is, $u(z') = \bar{u}'$.*

Proof 3 *Proposition 2 has established that the value function $W(x)$ is strictly concave for $x < \bar{q}$. Therefore, given the promise-keeping constraint $\bar{u} = E[u(z')|s']$, the expected value of $W(u(z'))$ is maximized by choosing a constant value of utility, that is, $u(z') = \bar{u}'$ for all z' . Q.E.D.*

This property derives from the concavity of $W(\cdot)$. Because at this stage the incentive problem has already been solved (the entrepreneur has reported the non-diverted revenues), the expected value of $W(u(z'))$ is maximized by choosing a non random value of utility. In fact, since the function $W(u')$ is concave, making u' random would reduce the expected value of $W(u')$. The parties would then benefit from eliminating the dependence of the entrepreneur's utility from the true realization of z' . Proposition 3 then implies that the long-term contract is not free from renegotiation since in this contract u' is a function of z' .

There is another reason why the optimal long-term contract is not free from renegotiation. After a sequence of bad shocks, the value of q approaches the lower bound of zero. But low values of q also imply that k approaches zero. Given the structure of the production function, the marginal productivity of capital will approach infinity. Under these conditions, increasing the value of q —that is, renegotiating the contract—will also increase the value for the investor. Essentially, for low values of q the function $V(q)$ is increasing in q , as established in Proposition 2. The proof of this proposition also shows that, if $\beta < \delta$, the increasing segment of the value function will be reached with probability 1 at some future date. When $\beta = \delta$, the renegotiation interval will be reached with a positive probability if the current q is smaller than \bar{q} . Therefore, the long-term contract could be renegotiated even if there is no delay in the observation of the aggregate nominal price.

4 The renegotiation-proof contract

Proposition 3 established the important result that any policy that makes the promised utility dependent on z' will be renegotiated. Anticipating this, the contract that is free from renegotiation can only make the promised utility dependent on s' , not on z' . This implies that the real payments associated

with the renegotiation-proof contract depend on *nominal* quantities. As we will see, this implies that nominal price fluctuations have real effects.

Consider the following problem:

$$V(q) = \max_{k, u(s')} \left\{ -k + \delta E \left[z' k^\theta + W(u(s')) \right] \right\} \quad (8)$$

subject to

$$u(s') \geq \phi E \left[z' k^\theta \mid s' \right] + u(0), \quad \forall s'$$

$$q = \beta E u(s')$$

$$u(s') \geq \underline{u}$$

where $W(\cdot)$ is again defined in (6). We have imposed that future utilities can be contingent only on s' since any dependence on z' will be renegotiated after the observation of s' . We have also imposed that future utilities cannot take a value smaller than \underline{u} . As argued in the previous section, the contract may not be free from renegotiation because the value function is strictly increasing for low values of q (see Proposition 2). As shown in Quadrini (2004) and Wang (2000), renegotiation-proof is achieved by imposing a lower bound on the promised utility. This bound, denoted by \underline{u} , is endogenously determined. For the moment, however, we take \underline{u} as exogenous and solve Problem (8) as if the parties commit not to renegotiate.

The following lemma establishes a property that will be convenient for the analysis that follows.

Lemma 1 *The incentive-compatibility constraint is satisfied with equality.*

Proof 1 *This follows directly from the concavity of the value function. If the incentive compatibility constraint is not satisfied with equality, we can find an alternative policy for $u(s')$ that provides the same expected utility (promise-keeping) but makes next period utility less volatile, and allows for a higher input of capital. The concavity of $W(\cdot)$ implies that $EW(u(s'))$ will be higher under the alternative policy. Q.E.D.*

Using this property, we can combine the incentive-compatibility constraint with the promise-keeping constraint and rewrite the problem as,

$$V(q) = \max_k \left\{ -k + \delta E \left[z' k^\theta + W(u') \right] \right\} \quad (9)$$

subject to

$$u' = \phi \left[E(z' | s') - \bar{z} \right] k^\theta + \frac{q}{\beta} \quad (10)$$

$$\frac{q}{\beta} - \phi \bar{z} k^\theta \geq \underline{u}, \quad (11)$$

where $\bar{z} = Ez'$ is the mean value of productivity.

The first constraint defines the law of motion for the next period utility while the second ensures that this is not smaller than the lower bound \underline{u} . These two constraints are derived in Appendix C.

As shown in Wang (2000), the renegotiation-proof contract is characterized by some lower bound \underline{u} to the promised utility, which we denote by \underline{u}^{RP} . The reason the renegotiation-proof contract can be characterized by imposing this lower bound has a simple intuition: When $\underline{u} = 0$, the long-term contract generates a value $V(q)$ that is first increasing and then decreasing as plotted in Figure 2. The function $V(q)$ defines the Pareto frontier and for a contract to be renegotiation-proof, the Pareto frontier must be downward sloping. As we increase \underline{u} , we increase the minimum value of q over which the frontier is defined. This reduces the range of q over which the Pareto frontier is upward sloping until it disappears.³ The renegotiation-proof contract is defined by the minimum value of \underline{u} that makes the Pareto frontier monotonically decreasing for $q > \underline{u}^{RP}$. This is at the point in which the derivative of the value function is zero, that is, $V_q(q = \underline{u}^{RP}) = 0$.

4.1 First order conditions

Denote by $\delta\mu$ the Lagrange multiplier for constraint (11). The first order conditions are

$$\delta\theta k^{\theta-1} \left[\bar{z}(1 - \phi\mu) + \phi E \left(E(z' | s') - \bar{z} \right) W_{u'} \right] = 1, \quad (12)$$

³Of course, as we increase \underline{u} , we not only eliminate the upward section of the Pareto frontier, but we also reduce the values of $V(q)$ defined over $q \geq \underline{u}$.

$$W_{u'} = \max \{V_{q'}, -1\}, \quad (13)$$

and the envelope condition takes the form

$$V_q = \left(\frac{\delta}{\beta}\right) (EW_{u'} + \mu). \quad (14)$$

The investment k is determined by equation (12). If the entrepreneur does not gain from diversion, that is, $\phi = 0$, we have the frictionless optimality condition for which the discounted expected marginal productivity of capital is equal to the marginal cost. Notice that with $\phi = 0$, constraint (11) will not be binding and $\mu = 0$. When $\phi > 0$, however, the investment policy will be distorted.

Before continuing, it will be instructive to compare the first order conditions for the renegotiation-proof contract with those for the long-term contract, that is, the optimality conditions for Problem (1). The first order conditions for the long-term contract take the form

$$\delta\theta k^{\theta-1} \left[\bar{z}(1 - \phi\mu) + \phi E(z' - \bar{z})W_{u'} \right] = 1 \quad (15)$$

$$W_{u'} = \max \{V_{q'}, -1\}, \quad (16)$$

with the envelope condition (14).

The comparison of conditions (12) and (15) illustrates how the lack of indexation in the renegotiation-proof contract affects the dynamics of the firm. First notice that the optimality conditions are very similar with the exception of the term z' replacing $E(z'|s')$ for the long-term contract. If there is no price uncertainty, then $E(z'|s') = z'$, and the renegotiation-proof contract is equivalent to the long-term contract, with the exception of the lower bond \underline{u} .

Consider first the long-term contract. The term $W_{u'}$ is typically negative and decreasing (due to the concavity of $W(\cdot)$). Thus, $E(z' - \bar{z})W_{u'}$ is negative. So in general, the input of capital is reduced by a higher volatility of z' . Capital investment is risky for the investor because a higher k requires a more volatile u' to create the right incentives (see equation (10)). Because the value of the contract for the investor is concave, a higher volatility of u' reduces the contract value.

Now consider nominal price uncertainty. The long-term contract is not affected by nominal price uncertainty since the contract is fully indexed. The renegotiation-proof contract, however, is not fully indexed. This implies that price uncertainty reduces the dependence of the entrepreneur's (expected) value of diversion from the realization of revenues. This is because, with price uncertainty, revenues provide less information about the true value of z' (which ultimately determines the value of diversion). Therefore, the distortions in the choice of capital could be less severe. However, the promised utility will now depend on price fluctuations. Therefore, an unanticipated change in nominal price will impact the promised utility of all firms, with consequences for aggregate investment.

4.2 Equilibrium with renegotiation-proof contracts

The equilibrium is defined under the assumptions that there is a unit mass of entrepreneurs or firms, and that investors have unlimited access to funds (so that the interest rate is constant). The equilibrium is characterized by a distribution of firms over the entrepreneur's value q . The support of the distribution is $[\underline{q}, \bar{q}]$. Because of nominal price fluctuations, the distribution never converges to a steady state distribution. Only in the limiting case of $\sigma_p = 0$ (absence of nominal price uncertainty), the distribution of firms converges to an invariant distribution.

Within the distribution, firms move up and down depending on the realization of the idiosyncratic productivity z and the nominal price level p . A firm moves up in the distribution when it experiences a high realization of z (unless it has already reached $q = \bar{q}$), and moves down when the realization of z is low (unless the firm is at $q = \underline{q}$). The idiosyncratic nature of productivity ensures that at any point in time some of the firms move up and others move down. An unexpected nominal price shock, instead, impacts all firms in a monotonic fashion.

5 Model properties

This section characterizes some of the properties of the model. It first shows how the monetary regime affects the response of the macro-economy to inflation shocks. It then shows that the impact of inflation differs for firms that face different financial conditions.

5.1 Monetary policy regimes and indexation

We can use the results established in the previous section to characterize how inflation shocks affect the economy under different monetary regimes. In this framework, monetary regimes are fully characterized by the volatility of the price level, σ_p . Therefore, we will use the terms ‘monetary regime’ and ‘price level uncertainty’ interchangeably.

We are interested in asking the following question: suppose that there is a one-time unexpected increase in the price level (inflation shock); how would this shock impact economies with different degrees of aggregate price uncertainty σ_p ?

The channel through which the monetary regime affects the financial contract is by changing the expected value of z' given the observation of s' , that is $E(z'|s')$. This can be clearly seen from the law of motion of next period utility, equation (10), and from the first order condition (12). It is well known in signaling models that the greater the volatility of the signal, the less information the signal provides. The assumption that $\tilde{p} = \log(p)$ and $\tilde{z} = \log(z)$ are normally distributed allows us to show this point analytically.

Agents start with a prior about the distribution of \tilde{z}' , which is the normal distribution $N(\mu_z, \sigma_z^2)$. They also have a prior about $\tilde{s}' = \tilde{z}' + \tilde{p}'$, which is also normal $N(\mu_z + \mu_p, \sigma_z^2 + \sigma_p^2)$. What we want to derive is the posterior distribution of \tilde{z}' after the observation of \tilde{s}' . Because the prior distributions for both variables are normal, the posterior distribution of \tilde{z}' is also normal with mean

$$E(\tilde{z}'|\tilde{s}') = \frac{\sigma_p^2}{\sigma_z^2 + \sigma_p^2}\mu_z + \frac{\sigma_z^2}{\sigma_z^2 + \sigma_p^2}(\tilde{s}' - \mu_p), \quad (17)$$

and variance

$$Var(\tilde{z}'|\tilde{s}') = \frac{\sigma_z^2\sigma_p^2}{\sigma_z^2 + \sigma_p^2}. \quad (18)$$

This follows from the fact that the conditional distribution of normally distributed variables is also normal.⁴

Expression (17) makes clear how the volatility of nominal prices, σ_p , affects the expectation of \tilde{z}' given the realization of revenues. In particular, the contribution of \tilde{s}' to the expectation of \tilde{z}' decreases as the volatility of prices increases. In the limiting case in which $\sigma_p = \infty$, $E(\tilde{z}'|\tilde{s}') = \mu_z$. Therefore,

⁴A formal proof can be found in Greene (1990, pp. 78-79). It can also be shown that the covariance between \tilde{z} and \tilde{p} is σ_z^2 .

the observation of \tilde{s}' does not provide any information about the value of \tilde{z}' . Given this, the law of motion for the next period utility, equation (10), converges to $u' = q/\beta$. Hence, in the limit, the next period utility does not depend on s' , that is, the contract becomes fully indexed. Of course, if u' does not depend on s' , the contract is not incentive compatible. But this is just a limiting result. With finite values of σ_p , the next period utility does depend on s' but the sensitivity declines with σ_p .

Proposition 4 *Consider a one-time unexpected increase in the aggregate nominal price Δp . The impact of the shock on the next period promised utility strictly decreases in σ_p and converges to zero as $\sigma_p \rightarrow \infty$.*

Proof 4 *See Appendix E.*

The intuition behind this property is simple. When $\sigma_p = 0$, agents interpret an increase in nominal revenues induced by the change in the price level as being derived from a productivity increase, not a price increase. Therefore, the utility promised to the entrepreneur (the expected discounted value of real payments) has to increase in order to prevent diversion. But in doing so, the promised utility increases on average for the whole population. Essentially, the inflation shock redistributes wealth from investors to entrepreneurs. As entrepreneurs become wealthier, the incentive-compatibility constraints are relaxed in the next period and this allows for higher aggregate investment. For positive values of σ_p , however, increases in revenues induced by nominal price shocks are interpreted to a lesser extent as changes in z . As a result, the next period utilities will increase by less on average.

This result suggests that economies with volatile nominal prices are less vulnerable than economies with more stable monetary regimes to the *same* price level shock. However, this does not mean that economies with more volatile prices display lower volatility overall because shocks are larger on average. Ultimately, how different monetary regimes affect the business cycle is a quantitative question. But, a-priori, we cannot say whether countries with more volatile inflation experience greater or lower macroeconomic instability. This point will be illustrated numerically in Section 6.

5.2 Heterogeneous impact of unexpected inflation

The model generates firms's heterogeneity depending on the financial conditions they face. Because all firms have access to the same technology, the

financial condition of the firm is identified by the variable q , which can be interpreted as net worth. Lower values of q imply tighter financial conditions and result in lower scales of production. If q is low (low net worth), the investor is not willing to finance the optimal input of capital. In this section we show that the impact of unexpected inflation is stronger for firms with tighter financial conditions.

The easiest way to show that firms with tighter financial conditions are more vulnerable to surprise inflation is in the case with $\beta = \delta$. In this particular version of the model firms will eventually reach $q = \bar{q}$ and stay there forever. Therefore, in order to have a non-degenerate steady state distribution of firms we need entry and exit. For example, we could assume that firms exit with some exogenous probability and there is a new mass of firms entering in every period.⁵ The new firms are created by entrepreneurs with zero net worth. Therefore, the initial state of the contract will be \underline{u} .

With the addition of exogenous exit the optimal contract is essentially the same. However, at any point in time a fraction of firms have $q < \bar{q}$ and the remaining fraction have $q \geq \bar{q}$. The first group of firms face tight financial constraints and operate with a suboptimal input of capital while the second are unconstrained and operates at the optimal scale.

Proposition 5 *Suppose that $\beta = \delta$ and consider a one-time unexpected increase in price Δp . The shock affects only the next period investment of firms with $q < \bar{q}$.*

Proof 5 *The proof is obvious from the discussion above. Once firms have reached the state $q \geq \bar{q}$, their contract value will never fall below \bar{q} . Therefore, they will not change the next period input of capital. Q.E.D.*

In general, if we think that tight constraints are more likely for young firms (because they have not been around long enough to reach \bar{q}) and small firms (because they have been unlucky and pushed back by a sequence of negative shocks), then the model predicts that younger and smaller firms are more vulnerable to unexpected inflation shocks.

Although it cannot be proved analytically, the sensitivity of next period capital (relative to current capital) for firms with $q < \bar{q}$ decreases in q . As

⁵This is also the assumption made in Clementi and Hopenhayn (2006), Li (2010) and Quadrini (2004). In these papers there is also endogenous exit. However, the probability of endogenous exiting becomes zero once they reach \bar{q} .

q and k increase, the firm gets closer to the unconstrained state. Thus, the benefits from an increase in q are smaller because firms with higher q are more likely to exceed \bar{q} after a positive shock. But after exceeding \bar{q} , inflation no longer matters. This result also applies to the case with $\beta < \delta$. In this case, however, there is always a mass of firms with $q < \bar{q}$ even if there is not exit. This will be shown numerically in the next section.

6 Numerical analysis

This section provides a further characterization of the economy numerically. Although we do not conduct a full calibration exercise, the numerical analysis allows us to illustrate additional properties that cannot be established analytically but are quite robust to alternative parameter values.

The period in the model is one year and the discount factor of the entrepreneur is set to $\beta = 0.95$. The gross real revenue is specified as $z'k^\theta$. The idiosyncratic productivity z' is log-normally distributed with parameters $\mu_z = 0.125$ and $\sigma_z = 0.5$. The scale parameter θ is set to 0.85.

The market discount factor, which corresponds to the discount factor of investors, is set to $\delta = 0.96$, which is higher than the discount factor for entrepreneurs β . The parameter ϕ governs the degree of financial frictions (*i.e.*, the return from diversion) and it is set to $\phi = 1$. This means that in case of diversion the entrepreneur keeps the whole hidden cash-flow. The general price level is log-normally distributed with parameters $\mu_p = 0.01$ and $\sigma_p = 0.02$. We will also report the results for alternative values of σ_p . For the description of the solution technique see Appendix F.

6.1 Some steady state properties

Assuming that the economy experiences a long sequence of prices equal to the mean value $Ep = e^{\mu_p + \sigma_p^2/2} = \bar{p}$, the economy converges to a stationary equilibrium. We will refer to the stationary equilibrium as ‘steady state’. Notice that, even if the realized prices are always the same, agents do not know it in advance and form expectations according to their probability distribution.

Panel (a) of Figure 3 reports the decision rule for investment as a function of the entrepreneur’s value q in the limiting equilibrium (steady state). Investment k is an increasing function of q . For very high values of q , the

capital input is no longer constrained, and therefore, k reaches the optimal scale which is normalized to one.

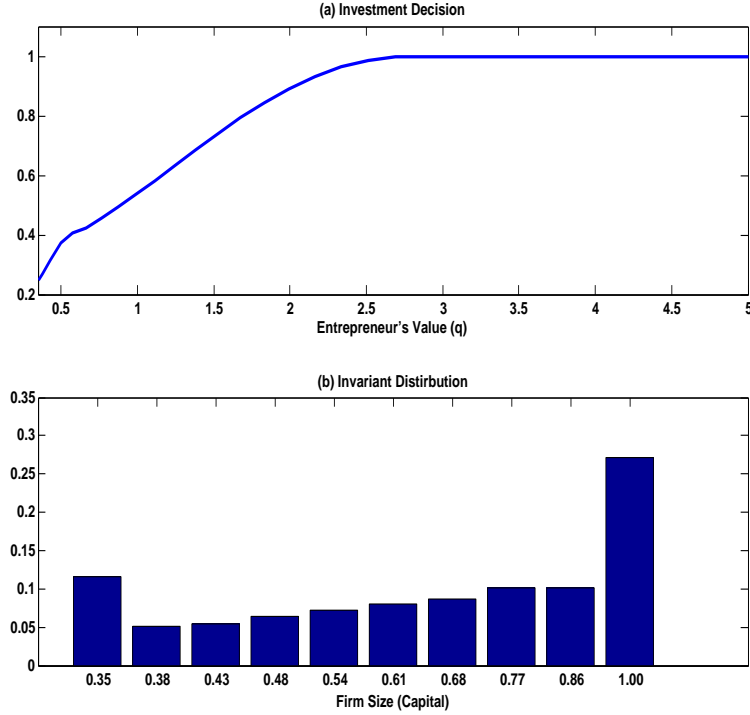


Figure 3: Investment Decision Rule and Invariant Distribution of Firms

Panel (b) plots the distribution of firms over their size k in the steady state. As Panel (a) shows, some firms will ultimately reach the highest size. Even if some firms will be pushed back after a negative productivity shock, there is always a significant mass of firms in the largest size.

6.2 Degree of indexation

The central feature of the model is that the degree of indexation depends on nominal price uncertainty. If financial contracts were fully indexed, then a price shock would not affect the values that the entrepreneur and the investor receive from the contract. On the other hand, if contracts were not indexed, a price shock would generate a redistribution of wealth. For example, if entrepreneurs borrow with standard debt contracts that are nominally

denominated (instead of using the optimal contracts characterized here), an unexpected increase in the price level redistributes wealth from the investor (lender) to the entrepreneur. Therefore, a natural way to measure the degree of indexation is the elasticity of the next period entrepreneur’s value—the promised utility u' —with respect to a nominal price shock.

From equation (10) we have that the next period utility is equal to

$$u' = \phi \left[E(z' | \tilde{z}' + \tilde{p}') - \bar{z} \right] k^\theta + \frac{q}{\beta}.$$

We want to determine the change in u' following a deviation Δp in the nominal price from its mean value. Given the realization of the idiosyncratic productivity \tilde{z}' this is equal to

$$\Delta u' = \phi k^\theta \left\{ E(z' | \tilde{z}' + \mu_p + \Delta \tilde{p}) - E(z' | \tilde{z}' + \mu_p) \right\}.$$

Integrating over all possible realizations of \tilde{z}' weighted by the unconditional distribution $N(\mu_z, \sigma_z^2)$, we get the average value $E_{\tilde{z}'} \Delta u'$ for a firm of type q . The elasticity measure is then obtained by dividing this term by $\phi k^\theta E_{\tilde{z}'} \{ E(z' | \tilde{z}' + \mu_p) \} + q/\beta$, that is, the average u' for a firm of type q if \tilde{p} is equal to its mean μ_p .

Interpreting the next period value of the contract for the entrepreneur as the net worth of the firm, the financial contract would be fully indexed when the elasticity is zero. In this case, the net worth is indeed insulated from inflation shocks. If the elasticity is different from zero, the financial contract is imperfectly indexed.

Figure 4 plots the elasticity as a function of the current value of the firm (current promised utility q), computed for a 25 percent increase in the nominal price.

As can be seen from the figure, the elasticity is positive, meaning that the optimal contract is not fully indexed. Furthermore, the degree of indexation increases with the entrepreneur’s value, and therefore, with the size of the firm. Because the next period entrepreneur’s value affects next period investment in a monotonic relation that is close to linear (see Figure 3), this property implies that the investment of constrained firms is more vulnerable to inflation shocks.

Table 1 presents the overall degree of indexation in an economy with low nominal price uncertainty ($\sigma_p = 0.02$) and with high nominal price uncertainty ($\sigma_p = 1.5$). The aggregate degree of indexation is computed by adding

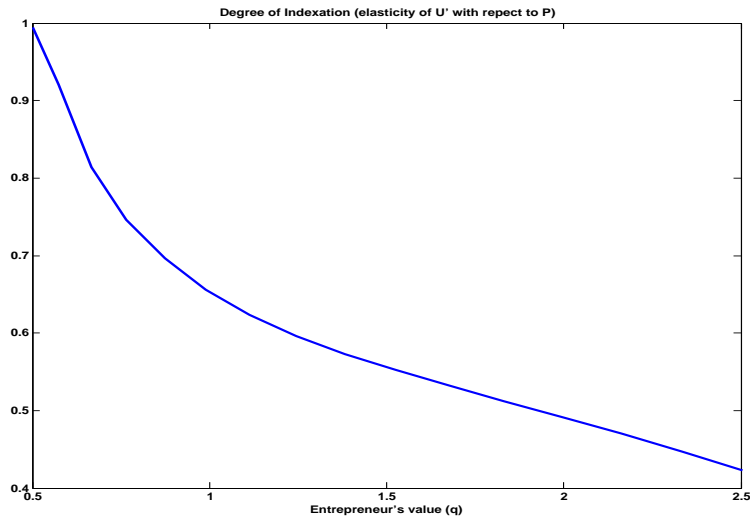


Figure 4: Degree of Indexation as a function of the entrepreneur's value (q)

the elasticity of each firm of type q weighted by the steady state distribution and for a 25 percent increase in the nominal price.

Table 1: Degree of Indexation for Different Price Level Uncertainty

	<i>Elasticity</i>
Low price uncertainty ($\sigma_p = 0.02$)	0.992
High price uncertainty ($\sigma_p = 1.5$)	0.115

As can be seen from the table, the degree of indexation increases with price uncertainty. For example, when $\sigma_p = 0.02$, the elasticity is almost 1 while it is only about 0.1 when $\sigma_p = 1.5$. Therefore, when prices are very stable, an unexpected increase in the nominal price of 1 percent leads to almost a 1 percent increase in the net worth of the firm. Conversely, when there is high price uncertainty, a 1 percent increase in the nominal price leads only to a 0.1 percent increase in the firm's net worth. The result that the degree of indexation is higher in economies with high nominal price

uncertainty is consistent with the experience of countries with very high price instability such as Argentina and Brazil in the 1980s. During periods of high price instability, contract indexation was quite diffuse in these countries.

6.3 Aggregate investment, output and price level uncertainty

Table 2 presents aggregate capital and output for economies with low and high price level uncertainty. The table highlights that the stock of capital is bigger when price uncertainty is high.

Table 2: Aggregate Capital and Output for Different Price Level Uncertainty

	<i>Capital</i>	<i>Output</i>
Low price uncertainty ($\sigma_p = 0.02$)	0.644	0.835
High price uncertainty ($\sigma_p = 1.5$)	0.963	1.187

This finding arises from the characteristics of the contractual frictions. When the price level is very volatile, the observation of the nominal revenues before the observation of the nominal price level does not provide much information about the actual value of productivity z' . The signal becomes noisier and the information content of the signal smaller. This implies that the incentive to divert is not affected significantly by the realization of revenues. Because of this, the value of the contract for the entrepreneur is less volatile and the distribution of firms over k is more concentrated around the optimal size.

This finding may appear to conflict with the fact that countries with monetary policy regimes that feature greater nominal price uncertainty are also countries with lower output per-capita. However, it is also plausible to assume that in these countries the contractual frictions, captured by the parameter ϕ , are higher than in rich countries. As we will see, more severe contractual frictions could offset the impact of greater price level uncertainty on capital accumulation.

6.4 Heterogeneous response to inflation shocks

The impulse responses to a nominal price shock are computed assuming that the economy is in the steady state when the shock hits. As before, we define a steady state as the limiting equilibrium to which the economy converges after the realization of a long sequence of prices equal to the mean value $Ep = e^{\mu_p + \sigma_p^2/2} = \bar{p}$. However, agents do not know this sequence in advance. Therefore, when they make their decisions they take into account price uncertainty.

Starting from this equilibrium, we assume that the economy is hit by a one-time price level shock. After the shock, future realizations of p revert to the mean value \bar{p} (although agents do not anticipate this) and the economy converges back to the same steady state.

We start examining the response of different size classes of firms concentrating on two groups: (i) firms that are currently at $q = \bar{q}$; and (ii) firms that are at $q < \bar{q}$. We label the first group ‘large firms’ and the second group ‘small firms’. Figure 5 plots the average capital of firms with $q < \bar{q}$ (small firms) and $q = \bar{q}$ (large firms) in response to an unexpected one-time increase in the nominal price level.

The top panels of Figure 5 show that the average (per-firm) capital of large firms does not change in response to the nominal shock since these firms are able to implement the optimal investment. However, the shock has a positive effect on the average (per-firm) size of smaller firms. This implies that smaller firms, which are financially constrained, become bigger on average. This effect is much stronger when the economy is characterized by low price uncertainty.

The bottom panels of Figure 5 plot the response of the fraction of large (unconstrained) firms. The relative mass of large firms increases after the shock. As for the average firm size, the effect is much stronger when price uncertainty is low.

In summary, an unexpected increase in the nominal price raises the average size of constrained firms and the mass of unconstrained firms. Both effects contribute to increasing aggregate investment and capital.

6.5 Aggregate response to inflation shocks

Figure 6 presents the dynamics of aggregate capital after a one-time increase in the nominal price level separately for the case of low price uncertainty

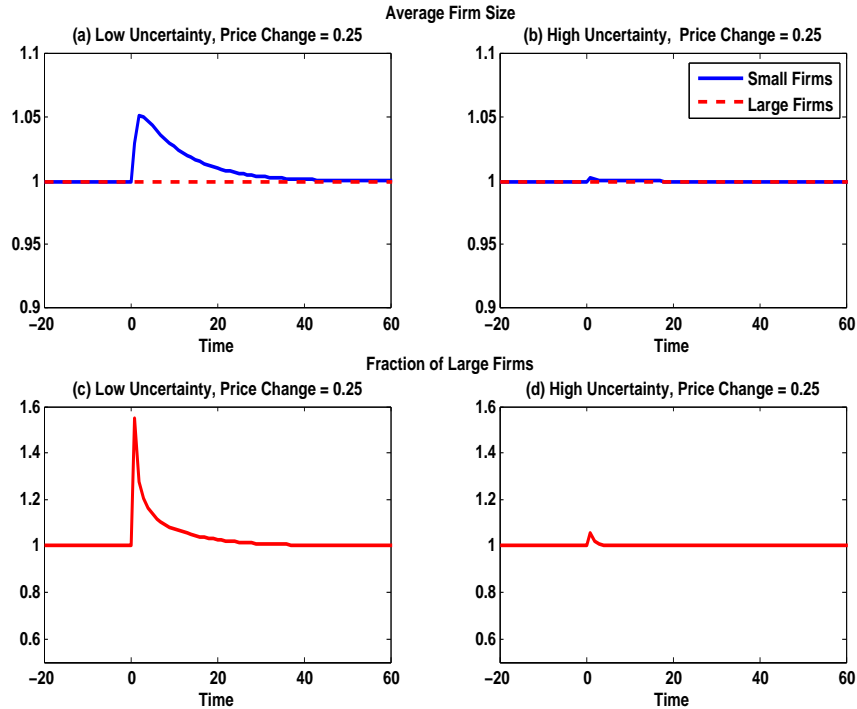


Figure 5: Responses of Average Firm Size and the Relative Number of Small and Large Firms to a Positive Price Level Shock in Regimes with Different Price Level Uncertainty.

($\sigma_p = 0.02$) and high price uncertainty ($\sigma_p = 1.5$). The aggregate capital increases at impact and slowly converges to the initial level. Although the shock is temporary, the effect is persistent. As discussed above, this follows from the fact that a larger number of firms become unconstrained and the average size of constrained firms increases. The aggregate impact of the shock, however, becomes quite small when price uncertainty is high. This follows from the fact that, with high nominal price uncertainty, contracts are characterized by a high degree of nominal indexation. Thus, the nominal price shock has a small redistributive effect.

Figure 6 suggests that countries with a monetary policy regime characterized by low nominal price uncertainty are more vulnerable to a given nominal price shock than countries with greater price uncertainty. However, countries with greater price uncertainty experience on average larger shocks.

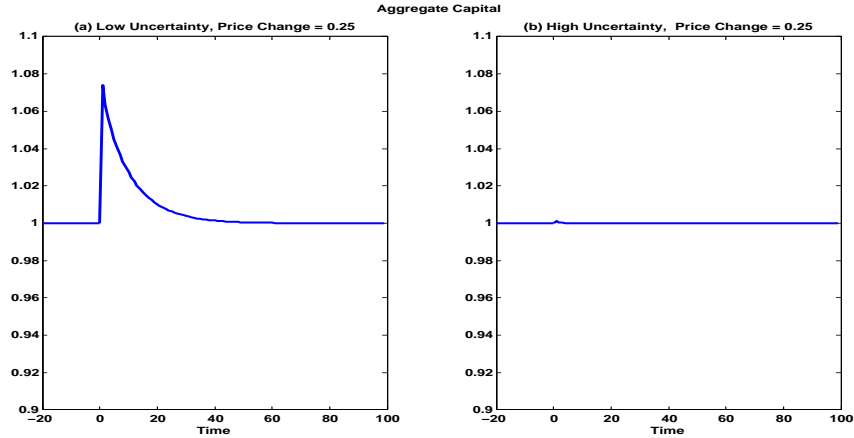


Figure 6: Response of Aggregate Capital to a Positive Nominal Price Shock in Regimes with Different Price Uncertainty.

This raises the following question: Are economies with low price uncertainty more unstable than economies with high price uncertainty? To answer this question, we conduct a simulation exercise for several economies that differ only in the volatility of the price level, σ_p . Each economy is simulated for 20,000 periods. Table 3 reports the standard deviation of investment and output.

Table 3: Volatility of Investment and Output for Different Nominal Price Uncertainty

<i>Price-Level Uncertainty</i>	<i>Standard Deviation of Capital</i>	<i>Standard Deviation of Output</i>
$\sigma_p = 0.02$	0.008	0.009
$\sigma_p = 0.20$	0.073	0.082
$\sigma_p = 1.50$	0.134	0.147
$\sigma_p = 1.70$	0.120	0.130

Before discussing the results, it would be helpful to describe, intuitively, how the volatility of investment and output changes when σ_p increases. There are two opposing effects. On the one hand, a higher σ_p reduces the volatility

of investment since contracts are more indexed to inflation. On the other, a higher σ_p implies that on average the economy experiences larger inflation shocks.

Table 3 shows that these two opposing forces lead to a non-monotonic relation between nominal price uncertainty and the volatility of investment and output. For low or moderate values of σ_p , the volatility of investment increases with σ_p . This means that the fact that the economy experiences larger shocks dominates the lower elasticity to each shock (greater indexation). However, for high values of σ_p , the volatility of investment decreases with σ_p , implying that the higher degree of indexation more than offsets the increase in the magnitude of the price shocks. Recall from the previous analysis that the economy converges to full indexation as σ_p becomes infinitely large.

6.6 Price-level uncertainty and financial development

In this section we discuss how the interaction between nominal price uncertainty and the degree of financial development affects the level and volatility of the real economy. In our model the degree of financial development is captured by the parameter ϕ . A high value of ϕ corresponds to a less developed financial system since firms gain more from the diversion of resources.

In the previous experiments, ϕ was set to 1. In this section we will compare the previous results with an alternative economy where $\phi = 0.5$. We think of the economy with $\phi = 0.5$ as an economy with a ‘more developed financial system’. The standard deviations of aggregate capital and output are reported in Table 4.

As expected, investment is lower when financial markets are less developed. This is because when ϕ is high, financial constraints are tighter and, as result, investment is lower on average. We can also see that investment, for a given level of price uncertainty, is more volatile in the economy with a less developed financial system.

How can we interpret these results? We know that some of the low income countries have experienced high volatility of inflation. As we have seen in Table 2, our model predicts that these countries should have a higher stock of capital (after controlling for the technology level of these countries). At the same time, they are also likely to face more severe contractual frictions which, according to our model, induce a lower stock of capital. If the impact of financial development dominates the impact of higher price uncertainty,

Table 4: Standard deviation of investment and aggregate investment for different degree of financial development and price-level uncertainty.

	<i>More developed financial system ($\phi = 0.50$)</i>	<i>Less developed financial system ($\phi = 1.00$)</i>
Low Price Level Uncertainty ($\sigma_p = 0.02$)		
Aggregate Capital	0.803	0.644
Standard Deviation of Capital	0.006	0.008
Moderate Price-Level Uncertainty ($\sigma_p = 0.20$)		
Aggregate Capital	0.812	0.658
Standard Deviation of Capital	0.050	0.073
High Price-Level Uncertainty ($\sigma_p = 1.5$)		
Aggregate Capital	0.984	0.963
Standard Deviation of Capital	0.092	0.134
Extreme Price-Level Uncertainty ($\sigma_p = 1.70$)		
Aggregate Capital	0.986	0.955
Standard Deviation of Capital	0.085	0.130

the model still predicts that poorer countries have less capital as in the data.

The finding of this section can also be interpreted along a normative stand point: nominal price uncertainty could be welfare improving in countries with lower financial development since it offsets the negative impact of limited contract enforcement on capital accumulation.

7 Empirical analysis

In this section we test empirically some of the micro properties of the model. In particular, the property characterized in Proposition 5 according to which unexpected inflation shocks have stronger effects on the investment/production of firms with tighter financial constraints.

We test this property with a two-step procedure using inflation data and firm-level panel data from Canada. We first identify inflation shocks by estimating a Markov-switching AR(1) model using data on consumer price index (CPI) for each of the 10 Canadian provinces. The inflation shocks derived in the first step are used as an independent variable in the second step where we analyze the impact of the shocks on firm's real revenue conditional on the financial status of an individual firm (constrained or unconstrained).

Consistently with the theoretical model, firms are classified as constrained if they do not pay dividends and unconstrained if they pay dividends.

Cross-sectional variations in province-level inflation shocks allow for a better identification in the second-step where we estimate a panel regression of firm revenues. Each firm is associated with one of the 10 provinces by the location of the company headquarter. Given that corporate-level financial decisions are typically made at the headquarter level and in most cases the predominant economic activity takes place in the province in which the headquarter is located, inflation in that province would have the largest impact on the whole company. As such, variations in inflation shocks across provinces, in addition to time variations, help identify the responses of firms to inflation shocks.

7.1 Data description

The empirical analysis uses two sets of data. The first data set, which is used in the first estimation step to derive the inflation shocks, includes the quarterly inflation measure based on the consumer price index (CPI) from 1979Q1 to 2009Q3 for ten Canadian provinces and a measure of output gaps based on Butler (1996). We only use the national measure of output gap since province-level measures are not available at the quarterly frequency.

The second data set is known as T2-LEAP from Statistics Canada and contains annual firm-level data based on two administrative data sources. It covers the universe of all incorporated firms in Canada with at least one employee. There are two parts. The first part, called T2, consists of corporate income tax files. The second part, called Longitudinal Employment Analysis Program (LEAP), consists of payroll tax information. LEAP includes all firms in Canada that participate in a payroll deduction with the Canada Revenue Agency. The two parts combined (T2 and LEAP) contain annual information on balance sheet and income statements such as sales, assets, liabilities and dividends as well as employment information. Although it covers the years 1983-2007, some variables of interest are available only after 1999. Thus, our analysis will focus on the sample years 1999-2007. For a more detailed description of T2-LEAP data see Huynh and Petrunia (2010) and Leung and Secieru (2010).

In the estimation we use *firm sales* as a measure of firm revenues; *dividends* as an indicator of whether the firm is financially constrained (zero

dividends) or unconstrained (positive dividends);⁶ *firm's total assets* as a control variable. The sample is restricted to manufacturing firms and the number of firms ranges from 50,749 to 68,480. All T2-LEAP variables are deflated using GDP deflators. Table 5 displays some summary statistics for the key variables.

Table 5: Summary statistics for the firm-level variables used in the estimation. Annual series 1999-2007.

	Mean	Std. Dev.
Sales (in \$1,000)	8,261	216,000
Growth rate of sales	-0.0123	0.7099
Dividend amount declared (in \$1,000)	1,465	6,789
Dividend declared (1) or not (0)	0.1645	0.3707
Total assets (in \$1,000):	12,997	387,000

7.2 Estimation methodology

We use a two-step procedure. The first step identifies the inflation shocks from the province-level CPI data. The second step estimates a dynamic panel regression using the inflation shocks derived in the first step as an independent variable.

First step estimation. In order to capture how firms respond to inflation shocks, we first need to construct time series for the inflation shocks. This

⁶Regarding *dividends*, we use firm's declaration of dividend payout rather than the dividend payout itself. The declared dividend is not a mandatory question. This could imply that our study under-captures the number of financially constrained firms. Statistics Canada also provides an aggregate measure of dividends paid in the manufacturing sector in CANSIM Table 187-0002 "Quarterly statement of changes in financial position". The aggregate dividends declared from the manufacturing sector in T2-LEAP captures between 57% and 96% of the annual values reported in CANSIM during the sample period considered in this study. As we will discuss later, we still find significant differences between the group of "constrained" and "unconstrained" firms.

is done by estimating a three-regime Markov-switching AR(1) model as in Demers (2003), which is built on Hansen (1992). The Markov-switching model is specified as

$$\begin{aligned}\pi_{jt} &= c_{s_{jt}} + \phi_{s_{jt-1}}\pi_{jt-1} + \beta_{s_{jt-1}}y_{t-1} + u_{jt} \\ u_{jt} &\sim i.i.d.N(0, \sigma_{s_{jt}}^2),\end{aligned}\tag{19}$$

where π_{jt} is the inflation at time t in province j (annualized quarterly inflation in percentage), and y_t is the output gap at time t .⁷ The parameters c , ϕ , β and σ are indexed by the unobserved regime $s_{jt} \in \{1, 2, 3\}$.

Define $p_{s_{j,t}, s_{j,t+1}}$ the stationary probability of transiting from regime $s_{j,t}$ at time t to regime $s_{j,t+1}$ at time $t + 1$ in province j . In order to reduce the number of estimated parameters, we assume that the transition probability matrix takes the form,

$$\mathbf{P} = \begin{bmatrix} p_{11} & 1 - p_{11} & 0 \\ (1 - p_{22})/2 & p_{22} & (1 - p_{22})/2 \\ 0 & 1 - p_{33} & p_{33} \end{bmatrix}.$$

Therefore, we impose symmetry in the transition from the second regime, and no jumps from the first regime to the third regime and vice versa.

The model is estimated independently for each province using maximum likelihood. The residuals from the estimation, denoted by \hat{u}_{jt} , are the province-level inflation shocks that we will use as an independent variable in the second step estimation after being annualized (since the second step estimation is conducted using annual data). The estimation results are reported in Tables 7 and 8 in Appendix G.

Second step estimation. For the panel regression we use the GMM estimator developed by Arellano and Bond (1991). This estimator is often applied to dynamic panel models with small time series and large cross-sectional observations. Our data set satisfies these conditions since it is available for 9 years and contains more than 50,000 firms per year.

⁷Demers (2003) estimates the model using the Canadian national inflation data. He also considers other variables that could be important for determining inflation such as indirect taxes and imported inflation but finds that only the output gap improves the likelihood value significantly.

The baseline panel regression model takes the following form:

$$\begin{aligned}
\Delta \ln(\text{Sales}_{i,j,t+1}) &= \sum_{k=1}^3 \alpha_k \cdot \Delta \ln(\text{Sales}_{i,j,t+1-k}) & (20) \\
&+ \beta_1 \cdot \hat{u}_{j,t} \\
&+ \beta_2 \cdot D_{i,j,t}^{div} + \beta_3 \cdot D_{i,j,t}^{div} \cdot \hat{u}_{j,t} \\
&+ \gamma \cdot \mathbf{X}_{i,j,t} + \varepsilon_{i,j,t+1},
\end{aligned}$$

where i is the index for the firm, j is the index for the 10 Canadian provinces, and t denotes calendar year. The variable $\Delta \ln(\text{Sales}_{i,j,t+1})$ is the growth rate of sales (i.e., our proxy for real revenues) from year t to $t+1$, deflated by the GDP deflator. For each firm, the index j identifies the province in which the firm's headquarter is located.⁸ The variable $\hat{u}_{j,t}$ is the annualized inflation shock from year $t-1$ to t , derived from the first step estimation. The variable $D_{i,j,t}^{div}$ is the dummy that takes the value of 1 if the firm pays dividends (financially unconstrained) and 0 if it does not pay dividends (financially constrained).

The variables included in the vector $\mathbf{X}_{i,j,t}$ controls for provinces and firms characteristics. We include real provincial-GDP growth, firm's total assets and firm fixed effects. We also include lagged dependent variable.⁹ Hence, $\Delta \ln(\text{Sales}_{i,j,t})$ is the only endogenous variable that is instrumented by the set of Arellano-Bond instruments. We take \hat{u}_{jt} to be exogenous as in our theoretical model. We also assume that other non-endogenous variables (i.e., the second and the third lags of sales growth, dividends, total assets and provincial-GDP growth) are predetermined. Hence, interaction terms between \hat{u}_{jt} and dummy variables are predetermined.

The results for the estimation of Equation (20) are reported in column (1) of Table 6. The variable of interest is the interaction between the dividend dummy and the inflation shock, that is, $D_{i,j,t}^{div} \cdot \hat{u}_{j,t}$. The estimated coefficient is negative and statistically significant. This implies that inflation shocks have a smaller impact in firms that pay dividends and face, supposedly, looser financial constraints.

⁸Hence, given a firm i , there is no variation over provinces, j 's. Our assumption is that the inflation shock in the province where the firm's headquarter is located is most important for its production and financial decisions.

⁹This specification results in the rejection of the null hypothesis of no first-order autocorrelation in first-difference errors, and no rejection of higher-order autocorrelations.

Table 6: Firm's Sales Response to Inflation Shocks

VARIABLES	(1)	(2)	(3)
$\Delta \ln(\text{Sales}_{i,t})$	0.137 ^a (0.0188)	0.113 ^a (0.0186)	0.113 ^a (0.0186)
$\Delta \ln(\text{Sales}_{i,t-1})$	0.0471 ^a (0.00895)	0.0434 ^a (0.00881)	0.0417 ^a (0.00884)
$\Delta \ln(\text{Sales}_{i,t-2})$	0.0262 ^a (0.00430)	0.0237 ^a (0.00426)	0.0223 ^a (0.00424)
\hat{u}_{jt}	0.0262 ^a (0.00150)	0.0463 ^a (0.00291)	0.0464 ^a (0.00291)
D_{it}^{div}	-0.0386 ^a (0.00688)	-0.0573 ^a (0.0140)	-0.0543 ^a (0.0139)
$D_{it}^{div} \cdot \hat{u}_{jt}$	-0.00998 ^a (0.00302)	-0.00371 (0.00777)	-0.00515 (0.00773)
D_{jt}^{pos}		-0.00447 (0.00397)	-0.00479 (0.00398)
$D_{jt}^{pos} \cdot \hat{u}_{jt}$		-0.0399 ^a (0.00496)	-0.0399 ^a (0.00496)
$D_{jt}^{pos} \cdot D_{it}^{div} \cdot \hat{u}_{jt}$		-0.00146 (0.0114)	-0.000551 (0.0114)
Provincial GDP _{jt} Growth (%)	-0.0102 ^a (0.00153)	-0.0141 ^a (0.00196)	-0.0143 ^a (0.00196)
Total assets _{it}			-1.17e-10 ^b (5.78e-11)
Constant			
Observations	169,706	169,708	169,708
Number of firms	50,749	50,749	50,749
Hansen J (p -value)	0	0	0
AR(1)	0	0	0
AR(2)	0.9342	0.5571	0.5984
AR(3)	0.9314	0.8348	0.7942

Note: Standard errors are in parentheses. “a” indicates significance at the 1% level, “b” at the 5% level, and “c” at the 10% level. Model 1-4 are estimated using the two-step GMM robust estimator with the Windmeijer (2005) bias correction. Rows indicated by “AR(x)” show the p -value from Arellano-Bond test for zero x -order autocorrelation in first-difference errors.

Although Proposition 5 states that financial unconstrained firms (those paying dividends) are completely unaffected by inflation shocks, this result applies only when $\beta = \delta$. When $\beta < \delta$, which is the case considered in the numerical simulation, we have shown that also the firms that pay dividends (once they reach the optimal scale) are affected by inflation shocks. However, these firms display a lower sensitivity. They also display an asymmetric response to inflation shocks. In particular, the production scale responds

only to negative inflation shocks.

Because of this, we now extend the panel regression by distinguishing positive and negative inflation shocks. More specifically, we consider the following regression equation

$$\begin{aligned}
\Delta \ln(\text{Sales}_{i,j,t+1}) &= \sum_{k=1}^3 \alpha_k \cdot \Delta \ln(\text{Sales}_{i,j,t+1-k}) & (21) \\
&+ \beta_1 \cdot \hat{u}_{j,t} \\
&+ \beta_2 \cdot D_{i,j,t}^{div} + \beta_3 \cdot D_{i,j,t}^{div} \cdot \hat{u}_{j,t} \\
&+ \beta_4 \cdot D_{j,t}^{pos} + \beta_5 \cdot D_{j,t}^{pos} \cdot \hat{u}_{j,t} \\
&+ \beta_6 \cdot D_{j,t}^{pos} \cdot D_{i,j,t}^{div} \cdot \hat{u}_{j,t} \\
&+ \gamma \cdot \mathbf{X}_{i,j,t} + \varepsilon_{i,j,t+1},
\end{aligned}$$

where the new variable D_j^{pos} is a dummy that takes the value of 1 if the inflation shock is positive and zero if the inflation shock is negative. We allow also for the interaction of this variable with the dividend dummy. The results are reported in columns (2) and (3) of Table 6. Column (2) is without the firm's total assets as a firm control while column (3) adds it.¹⁰

The estimates reported in both columns (2) and (3) show that the effect of positive inflation shocks ($D_{jt}^{pos} = 1$) on the sales growth of financially unconstrained firms ($D_{jt}^{div} = 1$) is not significantly different from zero, i.e., we do not reject the null hypothesis that $\beta_1 + \beta_3 + \beta_5 + \beta_6 = 0$. In addition, the effect of the same shock among constrained firms ($D_{jt}^{div} = 0$) is positive and significant at the 10% level. Therefore, we weakly reject the null hypothesis that $\beta_1 + \beta_5 = 0$. However, when faced with negative inflation shocks, the sales growth of both unconstrained and constrained firms declines. More specifically, we reject both null hypotheses, $\beta_1 + \beta_3 = 0$ and $\beta_1 = 0$, at the 1% level. These findings are consistent with the predictions of the theoretical model shown in the numerical section when $\beta < \delta$.

¹⁰Regarding the serial correlations of the error term, in all dynamic panel models we reject the null hypothesis of no first-order autocorrelation in first-difference errors but we cannot reject the null hypothesis of no second or third order autocorrelations, supporting the validity of the instruments. Another test typically conducted to support the validity of instruments is that of over-identifying restrictions such as the Hansen (1982) J test. With large N as in our case, over-identifying restrictions tests are usually rejected.

8 Conclusion

In this paper we have studied a model with repeated moral hazard where financial contracts are not fully indexed to inflation because, as in Jovanovic and Ueda (1997), the nominal price level is observed with delay.

Nominal indexation is endogenously determined in the model and heterogeneous across firms. In particular, we find that more constrained firms operate under financial contracts with a lower degree of nominal indexation and, as a result, these firms are more vulnerable to inflation shocks. This also implies that the impact of inflation shocks on aggregate investment and output depends on the extent of financial markets frictions.

Another finding is that the overall degree of nominal indexation increases with price uncertainty. An implication of this is that economies with higher price uncertainty are less vulnerable to a given inflation shock, that is, investment and output respond less to the shock. However, these economies experience larger shocks on average. Therefore, they may still face higher macroeconomic volatility.

The key micro properties of the model are tested using firm level data from Canada. The estimation results show that financially constrained firms are more sensitive to unexpected inflation shocks. They also show that the response to positive and negative inflation shocks could be asymmetric for firms that are less financially constrained. Therefore, the estimation results validate the empirical significance of the theoretical model.

Appendix

A Proof of Proposition 1

To simplify the proof we make a change of variables in Problem (1). Define $y = k^\theta$. After substituting $k = y^{\frac{1}{\theta}}$, the optimization problem becomes:

$$V(q) = \max_{y, g(z', p'), h(z', p')} \left\{ -y^{\frac{1}{\theta}} + \delta E \left[z' y - g(z', p') + V(h(z', p')) \right] \right\} \quad (22)$$

subject to

$$E \left[g(z', p') + h(z', p') \mid s' \right] \geq E \left[\phi z' y + g(0, p') + h(0, p') \mid s' \right] \quad (23)$$

$$q = \beta E \left[g(z', p') + h(z', p') \right] \quad (24)$$

$$g(z', p'), h(z', p') \geq 0. \quad (25)$$

The change of variables makes the incentive-compatibility constraint linear in all the decision variables. It is then easy to show that this is a well defined concave problem and (22) satisfies the Blackwell conditions for a contraction mapping. Therefore, there is a unique fixed point V^* . The mapping preserves concavity. This implies that the fixed point for V^* is concave, although not necessarily strictly concave.

Consider a particular solution $S_1 \equiv \{y_1, g_1(z', p'), h_1(z', p')\}$, where the next period consumption and continuation utility are dependent on both z' and p' . Now consider the alternative solution $S_2 \equiv \{y_2, g_2(z'), h_1(z')\}$, where $y_2 = y_1$, $g_2(z') = \int_{p'} g_1(z', p') dF(p')$, $h_2(z') = \int_{p'} h_1(z', p') dF(p')$. In the alternative solution, the next period consumption and continuation utility are contingent only on z' , not p' .

We can verify that, if S_1 satisfies all the constraints to problem (22), then the constraints are also satisfied by S_2 . Therefore, S_2 is a feasible solution. The next step is to show that S_2 provides higher value than S_1 . This follows directly from the concavity of the value function. Essentially, by choosing S_2 we make the next period utility less volatile and increase $EV(h(z', p'))$. *Q.E.D.*

B Proof of Proposition 2

In the proof of Proposition 1, we established that the value function is concave (although not strictly). By verifying the condition of Theorem 9.10 in Stokey, Lucas, and Prescott (1989), we can also establish that the value function is differentiable.

Consider the incentive-compatibility constraint $E[u(z')|s'] \geq \phi E(z'|s')y + u(0)$ and the promise-keeping constraint $q = \beta E u(z')$. The IC constraint can be integrated over p' to get $E u(z') \geq \phi \bar{z} y + u(0)$. Remember that we have made the change of variable $y = k^\theta$. Using this condition with the promise-keeping constraint we can write:

$$q = \beta E u(z') \geq \beta \phi \bar{z} y \tag{26}$$

This says that, as q converges to zero, y (and therefore $k = y^{\frac{1}{\theta}}$) also converges to zero. This also implies that the marginal cost of y converges to zero (or equivalently, the marginal productivity of capital converges to infinity). Therefore, starting from a value of q close to zero, by marginally increasing q we can increase the marginal revenue by a large margin, which makes the value of the contract for the investor higher. Therefore the function $V(q)$ is increasing for very low values of q .

Define \bar{k} as the input of capital for which the expected marginal revenue is equal to the interest rate, that is, $\theta k^{\theta-1} = 1/\delta$. Obviously, the input of capital chosen by the contract will never exceed \bar{k} .

Now consider a very large q , above the level that makes \bar{k} feasible, that is, condition (26) is satisfied. Because the contract will never choose a value of $k > \bar{k}$, further increases in q will not change the input of capital. This implies that $V(q)$ (the value for the investor) decreases proportionally to the increase in q . Therefore, for q above a certain threshold \bar{q} , the value function is linear. Given that the value function is linear for $q > \bar{q}$, it is easy to see from Problem (6) that $c' = u' - \bar{q}$ if $\beta < \delta$. However, if $\beta = \delta$, there are multiple solutions for c' .

Below the threshold \bar{q} , however, q does constrain k . The strict concavity of the value function derives from the fact that the revenue function is strictly concave. The optimal policy for c' then becomes obvious. *Q.E.D.*

C Derivation of equations (10) and (11)

Consider the incentive-compatibility constraint

$$u(s') = \phi E(z'|s')k^\theta + u(0). \quad (27)$$

Integrating over s' we get $Eu(s') = \phi E\{E(z'|s')\}k^\theta + u(0)$. Because $E\{E(z'|s')\} = \bar{z}$, this can also be written as:

$$Eu(s') = \phi \bar{z}k^\theta + u(0). \quad (28)$$

Consider now the promise-keeping constraint $q = \beta Eu(s')$. Using equation (28), this can be written as:

$$\frac{q}{\beta} = \phi \bar{z}k^\theta + u(0). \quad (29)$$

Using this to eliminate $u(0)$ in (27) we get:

$$u(s') = \phi [E(z' | s') - \bar{z}]k^\theta + \frac{q}{\beta}, \quad (30)$$

which is equation (10).

The lower bound on total utility, $u(s') \geq \underline{u}$, requires $u(0) \geq \underline{u}$. This is because $u(s')$ is increasing in s' . From equation (29) we have that $u(0) = q/\beta - \phi \bar{z}k^\theta$. Therefore, the condition $u(0) \geq \underline{u}$ can be written as:

$$\frac{q}{\beta} - \phi \bar{z}k^\theta \geq \underline{u}, \quad (31)$$

which is equation (11).

D Proof of Proposition ??

See Quadrini (2004).

E Proof of Proposition 4

Consider the law of motion for the next period utility (10) which for convenience we rewrite here:

$$u' = \phi [E(z'|s') - \bar{z}]k^\theta + \frac{q}{\beta} \quad (32)$$

The effect of the shock is to increase $E(z'|s')$ for each realization of z' . For convenience we can focus on the conditional expectation where the variables are expressed in log form, that is, $E(z'|s') = E(e^{\tilde{z}'}|\tilde{s}')$.

Given the distributional assumptions about \tilde{z}' and \tilde{p}' , the conditional expectation is equal to:

$$E(e^{\tilde{z}'}|\tilde{s}') = e^{\frac{\sigma_p^2}{\sigma_z^2 + \sigma_p^2}\mu_z + \frac{\sigma_z^2}{\sigma_z^2 + \sigma_p^2}(\tilde{s}' - \mu_p) + \frac{\sigma_z^2\sigma_p^2}{2(\sigma_z^2 + \sigma_p^2)}}$$

Given a realization of the aggregate log-price \tilde{p}' and the idiosyncratic log-productivity \tilde{z}' , the firm observes $\tilde{s}' = \tilde{z}' + \tilde{p}'$. We want to compute how a deviation of the log-price from its mean μ_p affects the conditional expectation of firms. More specifically, we want to compare the case in which the observed revenue is $\tilde{s}_1 = \tilde{z} + \mu_p$ with the case in which the revenue is $\tilde{s}_2 = \tilde{z} + \mu_p + \Delta$. This is done by computing the ratio of conditional expectations $E(z|\tilde{s}_2)/E(z|\tilde{s}_1)$. Using the formula for the conditional expectation written above we get:

$$\frac{E(z|\tilde{s}_2)}{E(z|\tilde{s}_1)} = e^{\frac{\sigma_z^2}{\sigma_z^2 + \sigma_p^2}\Delta}$$

Therefore, the change in the conditional expectation decreases with σ_p . From the law of motion (32) we can then observe that, for each z , the change in next period utility decreases with σ_p . *Q.E.D.*

F Solution method

The solution is based on the iteration of the unknown function $V_q = \psi(q)$. We create a grid of points for q and guess the value of the function $\psi(q)$ at each grid point. The values outside the grid are joined with step-wise linear functions. The detailed steps are as follows:

1. Create a grid for $q \in \{q_1, \dots, q_N\}$.
2. Guess $V_q^i = \psi(q_i)$, for $i = 1, \dots, N$.
3. Solve for k and μ at each grid point of q :
 - (a) Check first for the binding solution:
 - Solve for k using (11).

- Solve for μ using (12).
- (b) If the μ from the binding solution is smaller than zero, the solution is interior. The interior solution is found as follows:
- Set $\mu = 0$.
 - Solve for k using (12).
4. Given the solutions for k and μ , find $W_{u'}$ using (13). Then update the guess for the function $\psi(q)$ at each grid point using the envelope condition (14).
5. Restart from step 3 until convergence in the function $\psi(q)$.

G Estimation of Markov-switching model for inflation

Table 7: Estimation of Markov-switching AR Regression Model

Parameter	AB	BC	MB	NB	NFLD	NS	ON	PEI	QC	SK
p_{11}	0.967 (0.044) ^a	0.968 (0.041) ^a	0.981 (0.025) ^a	0.974 (0.032) ^a	0.97 (0.035) ^a	0.984 (0.018) ^a	0.982 (0.026) ^a	0.965 (0.04) ^a	0.971 (0.046) ^a	0.979 (0.028) ^a
p_{22}	0.942 (0.043) ^a	0.937 (0.044) ^a	0.975 (0.019) ^a	0.961 (0.023) ^a	0.878 (0.096) ^a	0.957 (0.03) ^a	0.98 (0.015) ^a	0.576 (0.221) ^a	0.978 (0.017) ^a	0.969 (0.025) ^a
p_{33}	0.944 (0.035) ^a	0.938 (0.039) ^a	0.965 (0.03) ^a	0.738 (0.141) ^a	0.946 (0.030) ^a	0.72 (0.172) ^a	0.916 (0.078) ^a	0.954 (0.025) ^a	0.809 (0.176) ^a	0.943 (0.048) ^a
c_1	4.417 (4.095)	2.703 (1.915)	12.785 (2.482) ^a	9.166 (2.54) ^a	5.545 (2.287) ^b	1.291 (0.701) ^c	7.673 (1.888) ^a	7.167 (2.539) ^a	6.216 (1.991) ^a	6.713 (2.116) ^a
c_2	3.353 (0.768) ^a	2.299 (0.481) ^a	2.75 (0.489) ^a	2.308 (0.35) ^a	2.652 (0.874) ^a	2.216 (0.442) ^a	2.254 (0.372) ^a	4.632 (2.814) ^c	1.784 (0.333) ^a	2.834 (0.475) ^a
c_3	2.684 (0.436) ^a	1.317 (0.345) ^a	2.012 (0.409) ^a	0.646 (0.195) ^a	2.033 (0.348) ^a	1.704 (0.119) ^a	0.794 (0.577)	2.097 (0.379) ^a	0.97 (0.495) ^c	1.931 (0.377) ^a
ϕ_1	0.587 (0.343) ^c	0.743 (0.168) ^a	-0.306 (0.24)	0.095 (0.23)	0.492 (0.192) ^b	0.769 (0.098) ^a	0.265 (0.171)	0.322 (0.229)	0.483 (0.168) ^a	0.335 (0.202) ^c
ϕ_2	0.038 (0.116)	-0.006 (0.09)	0.05 (0.105)	0.096 (0.021) ^a	0.13 (0.117)	-0.006 (0.022)	0.166 (0.102)	0.005 (0.086)	0.326 (0.07) ^a	0.091 (0.104)
ϕ_3	-0.11 (0.152)	0.285 (0.174)	0.072 (0.161)	0.751 (0.139) ^a	-0.047 (0.134)	-1.616 (0.087) ^a	-0.119 (0.269)	0.036 (0.131)	-1.037 (0.303) ^a	-0.035 (0.18)
β_1	0.487 (0.316)	0.354 (0.235)	0.63 (0.237) ^a	0.56 (0.279) ^b	0.54 (0.234) ^b	0.043 (0.133)	0.656 (0.224) ^a	0.782 (0.335) ^b	-0.461 (0.303)	0.454 (0.182) ^b
β_2	0.243 (0.286)	-0.294 (0.263)	0.438 (0.223) ^b	0.393 (0.069) ^a	-0.002 (0.197)	0.305 (0.096) ^a	0.513 (0.168) ^a	-0.291 (0.949)	0.172 (0.144)	0.267 (0.181)
β_3	0.526 (0.187) ^a	0.637 (0.199) ^a	0.124 (0.158)	0.298 (0.056) ^a	0.381 (0.142) ^a	-1.939 (0.124) ^a	-0.994 (0.811)	0.529 (0.192) ^a	-1.013 (0.259) ^a	0.454 (0.211) ^b
σ_1	5.821 (2.274) ^b	4.245 (1.522) ^a	5.414 (1.955) ^a	7.025 (2.517) ^a	4.2 (1.466) ^a	5.153 (1.08) ^a	4.555 (1.583) ^a	6.54 (2.293) ^a	1.208 (0.526) ^b	2.327 (0.825) ^a
σ_2	19.17 (4.236) ^a	9.862 (2.126) ^a	8.477 (1.537) ^a	10.371 (1.562) ^a	19.244 (7.057) ^a	12.386 (2.256) ^a	5.544 (0.861) ^a	75.562 (37.565) ^b	7.324 (1.044) ^a	7.593 (1.335) ^a
σ_3	2.228 (0.619) ^a	1.348 (0.313) ^a	1.567 (0.378) ^a	0.052 (0.024) ^b	3.134 (0.75) ^a	0.007 (0.004) ^c	0.818 (0.325) ^b	5.671 (0.93) ^a	0.215 (0.153)	1.14 (0.312) ^a
Log Likelihood	-301.266	-269.598	-275.784	-299.692	-287.675	-290.521	-269.539	-308.464	-281.029	-265.744
Periods	123	123	123	123	123	123	123	123	123	123

Note: Standard errors are in parentheses. “a” indicates significance at the 1% level, “b” at the 5% level, and “c” at the 10% level.

Table 8: Summary statistics for the derived inflation shocks from the first step. The numbers are in percentage.

Province	Mean	S.d.	p25	p50	p75
Canada	-0.19521	1.08800	-0.67759	-0.16625	0.80165
Newfoundland and Labrador	-0.14510	1.32228	-1.02437	-0.08937	0.93037
Prince Edward Island	-0.22429	1.58879	-1.45762	-0.01943	0.83140
Nova Scotia	-0.07090	1.49544	-0.83033	-0.16963	0.58313
New Brunswick	-0.33023	1.47883	-1.40188	-0.19534	0.50805
Québec	0.08901	1.52787	-0.78535	-0.09766	0.63763
Ontario	0.11933	1.56955	-0.72884	0.25562	0.68542
Manitoba	-0.13221	1.19729	-0.79322	0.17295	0.73052
Saskatchewan	0.01365	0.95954	-0.54861	0.05248	0.71166
Alberta	0.01258	1.71529	-0.71552	0.02780	0.81381
British Columbia	-0.13439	0.81672	-0.55893	-0.12840	0.48143
Number of periods	123				
Sample period	1979Q1–2009Q3				

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