

Fire Sales in a Model of Complexity

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Abstract

In this paper we present a model of fire sales and market breakdowns, and of the financial amplification mechanism that follows from them. The distinctive feature of our model is the central role played by endogenous *uncertainty*. As conditions deteriorate, more “banks” within the financial network become distressed, which increases each (non-distressed) bank’s likelihood of being hit by an indirect shock. As this happens, banks face an increasingly complex environment since they need to understand more and more interlinkages in making their financial decisions. Uncertainty comes as a by-product of this complexity, and makes relatively healthy banks, and hence potential asset buyers, reluctant to buy. The liquidity of the market quickly vanishes and a financial crisis ensues. The model features a novel *complexity externality* which provides a rationale for various government policies commonly used during financial crises, including bailouts and asset price supports.

JEL Codes: G1, E0, D8, E5

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1 Introduction

Financial assets provide return and liquidity services to their holders. However, during severe financial crises many asset prices plummet, destroying their liquidity provision function at the worst possible time. These fire sales are at the core of the amplification mechanism and credit crunch observed in severe financial crises: Large amounts of distressed asset sales depress asset prices, which exacerbates financial distress, leading to further asset sales, and the downward spiral goes on.

There are many instances in recent financial history of these dramatic fire sales and the chaos they trigger. As explained by Treasury Secretary Paulson and Fed Chairman Bernanke to Congress in an emergency meeting soon after Lehman's collapse, the main goal of the TARP during the subprime crisis as initially proposed was, precisely, to put a floor on the price of the assets held by financial firms in order to contain the sharp contractionary feedback loop triggered by the confusion and panic caused by Lehman's demise. And a few years earlier, after the LTCM intervention, then Fed Chairman Greenspan wrote in his congressional testimony of October 1, 1998:

“Quickly unwinding a complicated portfolio that contains exposure to all manner of risks, such as that of LTCM, in such market conditions amounts to conducting a fire sale. The prices received in a time of stress do not reflect longer-run potential, adding to the losses incurred... ...a fire sale may be sufficiently intense and widespread that it seriously distorts markets and elevates uncertainty enough to impair the overall functioning of the economy. Sophisticated economic systems cannot thrive in such an atmosphere.”

The question arises for why apparently small shocks relative to the resources of the key agents (e.g., the subprime shock relative to the wealth of the U.S. financial system) can trigger such large fire sales and multipliers. How can these take place in deep financial markets such as those in the U.S., where a large number of potential buyers should have the resources to arbitrage the fire sales? In this paper, we present a model in which the answer to this question builds upon the idea that *complexity* of the economic environment (in the usual language sense of complicated) becomes a central concern during crises. This complexity leads to a dramatic increase in *payoff uncertainty*, which generates fire-sales and market breakdowns.

The basic structure is that of a network of cross-exposures between financial institutions (banks, for short) that is susceptible to contagion. In this context, we conceptualize

complexity by banks' uncertainty about cross-exposures. In particular, banks have only *local knowledge of cross-exposures*: They understand their own exposures, but they are increasingly uncertain about cross-exposures of banks that are farther away (in the network) from themselves. This assumption captures in a tractable way the increasing amount of complexity that a bank faces in analyzing the balance sheets of its counterparties (to which it has exposures), and then their counterparties, and so on.

In this setting, during normal times, banks only need to understand the financial health of their counterparties, which they find out by their local knowledge of cross-exposures. In contrast, when a surprise liquidity shock hits parts of the network, cascades of bankruptcies become possible, and banks become concerned that they might be indirectly hit. In particular, banks now need to understand the financial health of the counterparties of their counterparties (and their counterparties). Since banks only have local knowledge of the exposures, they cannot rule out an indirect hit. Consequently, banks now face significant payoff uncertainty and they react to it by retrenching into a liquidity-conservation mode.

This structure exhibits strong interactions with secondary markets for banks' assets. Banks in distress can sell their legacy assets to meet the surprise liquidity shock. The natural buyers of the legacy assets are other banks in the financial network, which may also receive an indirect hit. When the surprise shock is small, cascades are short and buyers can rule out an indirect hit. In this case, buyers purchase the distressed banks' legacy assets at their "fair" prices (which reflect the fundamental value of the assets). In contrast, when the surprise shock is large, longer cascades become possible and buyers cannot rule out an indirect hit. As a precautionary measure, they hoard liquidity and turn into sellers. The price of legacy assets plummets to "fire-sale" levels, which in turn exacerbates the cascade size and the credit crunch.

This feedback mechanism can generate multiple equilibria for intermediate levels of the surprise shock. When legacy assets fetch a fair price in the secondary market, the banks in distress have access to more liquidity. Thus, the surprise shock is contained after fewer bankruptcies, which leads to a shorter cascade. When the cascade is shorter, the natural buyers rule out an indirect hit and demand legacy assets, which ensures that these assets trade at their fair prices. Set against this benign scenario is the possibility of a *fire-sale equilibrium* where the price of legacy assets collapses to fire-sale levels. This leads to a greater number of bankruptcies and a longer cascade. With a longer cascade, the natural buyers become worried about an indirect hit and they sell their own legacy assets, which reinforces the collapse of asset prices.

Our model features a novel *complexity externality*, which stems from the dependence of banks' payoff uncertainty on the endogenous cascade size. In particular, any action that increases the cascade size increases the payoff uncertainty for banks that are uncertain about the financial network, and they dislike this effect. Our model features two variants of this complexity externality (one non-pecuniary, one pecuniary), each of which supports different government policies. First, a bailout of the distressed banks financed by small lump-sum taxes on all the banks may lead to a Pareto improvement. The equilibrium is unable to replicate this allocation because each bank fails to take into account that its contribution to a bailout will reduce the payoff uncertainty of all other banks. Second, in the range of multiple equilibria, policies that support asset prices may lead to a Pareto improvement by coordinating the banks on the fair-price equilibrium. In this range, the fire-sale equilibrium is Pareto inefficient because a bank that sells assets does not take into account the effect of its decision on other banks' payoff uncertainty. In particular, this bank generates a (small) reduction in asset prices, which in turn leads to a longer cascade and a greater payoff uncertainty for all other banks.

In our model, cascades are *partial*, that is, only a fraction of the financial system fails in response to the surprise shock. Partial cascades nonetheless lead to large aggregate effects because they increase banks' payoff uncertainty. In practice, banks could insure against this type of uncertainty to some extent by purchasing credit default swaps on their counterparties. A natural question then is whether our results are robust to allowing for counterparty insurance. We show that, while banks demand counterparty insurance, the supply of this type of insurance is also restricted because of sellers' collateral constraints. In particular, the sellers within the financial network choose not to pledge their collateral in an insurance contract in view of their own payoff uncertainty (in fact, they would rather demand insurance for their own cross-exposures). Thus, the only insurance supply comes from sellers that are outside the financial network. When the collateral of these sellers is small relative to the size of the financial network, allowing for counterparty insurance does not change our qualitative results. This analysis is consistent with the behavior of the CDS markets during the recent Bear Sterns and Lehman debacles. As described by Duffie (2011), the demand for counterparty insurance in both episodes spiked, but this demand could not be met by insurance sellers.

Our paper is related to several strands of the literature. There is an extensive literature that highlights the possibility of network failures and contagion in financial markets. An incomplete list includes Rochet and Tirole (1996), Kiyotaki and Moore (1997a), Allen and Gale (2000), Lagunoff and Schreft (2000), Freixas, Parigi and Rochet (2000), Eisenberg

and Noe (2001), Dasgupta (2004), Leitner (2005), Cifuentes, Ferucci and Shin (2005), Rotemberg (2008), Allen, Babus, and Carletti (2010), Zawadowski (2011) (see Allen and Babus, 2009, for a survey). Many of these papers focus on the mechanisms by which solvency and liquidity shocks may cascade through the financial network. In contrast, we take these phenomena as the reason for the rise in banks' uncertainty and we focus on the effect of this uncertainty on banks' prudential actions. It is also worth pointing out that the uncertainty mechanism we emphasize in this paper is operational *even for a relatively small amount of contagion*. The contagion literature is sometimes criticized because it appears unlikely that many financial institutions would be caught up in a cascade of bankruptcies.¹ But as this paper illustrates, even partial cascades can have large aggregate effects since they greatly increase payoff uncertainty.²

Our paper is also related to the literature on flight-to-quality and Knightian uncertainty in financial markets, as in Caballero and Krishnamurthy (2008), Routledge and Zin (2004), Easley and O'Hara (2005), and Hansen and Sargent (2010). Our contribution relative to this literature is in generating the uncertainty from the complexity of the financial network itself. Our work complements a number of recent papers that focus on other sources of uncertainty during crises. Brunnermeier and Sannikov (2011) show that exogenous uncertainty is amplified in a fire sales episode, because price uncertainty increases natural buyers' balance sheet uncertainty (which in turn feeds back into price uncertainty). Dang, Gorton and Holmstrom (2010) show that uncertainty (and asymmetric information) in credit markets increases during crises because debt contracts become information sensitive.

In the canonical model of fire sales, these happen because the natural buyers of the assets experience financial distress simultaneously with sellers (see Shleifer and Vishny, 1992, 1997, and Kiyotaki and Moore, 1997b). More recently, Brunnermeier and Pedersen (2008) show that, when there are few players, unconstrained potential buyers may choose not to arbitrage fire sales in the short run because they anticipate a better deal in the future. Our model lies somewhere in between these two views: Most potential buyers are unconstrained, as in Brunnermeier and Pedersen (2008), but they are fearful of going about their normal arbitrage role because of uncertainty (and in this sense they are

¹See Upper (2007) for a survey of the empirical literature that uses counterfactual simulations to assess the danger of contagion. Regarding this literature, Brunnermeier, Crockett, Goodhart, Persaud, and Shin (2009) note that "it is only with implausibly large shocks that the simulations generate any meaningful contagion."

²The role of cascades in elevating complexity and uncertainty was also highlighted in Haldane's (2009) speech, who nicely captures the mechanism when he wrote that at times of stress "knowing your ultimate counterparty's risk becomes like solving a high-dimension Sudoku puzzle."

distressed as in Shleifer and Vishny, 1992). It is the complexity of the environment that sidelines potential buyers and exacerbates the cascade of financial bankruptcy. Importantly, this mechanism works even when the number of market participants is large.³

The organization of this paper is as follows. In Section 2 we describe the environment for a benchmark case with no uncertainty about cross-exposures. Section 3 characterizes the equilibrium for this benchmark and illustrate the mechanics of (partial) cascades in our setting. Section 4 contains our main results. There, banks have only local knowledge about cross-exposures, and a sufficiently large surprise shock increases the banks' payoff uncertainty and leads to fire sales in secondary markets. This section also highlights the interaction between payoff uncertainty and fire sales, and demonstrates the possibility of multiple equilibria. In Section 5 we describe the complexity externality and its policy implications. Section 6 shows that our results are robust to allowing for counterparty insurance. The paper concludes with a final remarks section and several appendices.

2 Basic Environment and Equilibrium

In this section, we describe the economic environment and define the equilibrium for the benchmark case with *no* uncertainty about the financial network.

We consider an economy with three dates $\{0, 1, 2\}$ and a single consumption good (a dollar). The economy has n continuums of financial intermediaries (banks, for short) denoted by $\{b^j\}_{j=0}^{n-1}$. Each of these continuums is composed of identical banks. For simplicity, we refer to each continuum b^j as *bank b^j* , which is our unit of analysis.⁴ Banks start with a given balance sheet at date 0 (which will be described shortly), but they only consume at date 2. Banks can transfer their date 0 dollars to date 2 by investing in one of two ways. First, banks can keep their dollars in cash which yields one dollar at the next date per dollar invested. Second, banks can also invest in an asset. Each unit of the asset yields $R > 1$ dollars at date 2 (and no dollars at date 1). The asset is supplied elastically at date 0 at a normalized price of 1.

While the asset yields a higher date 2 return than cash, it is completely illiquid at date

³Other papers that investigate the mechanisms for fire sales and asset price dislocations in financial markets include Allen and Gale (1994), Gromb and Vayanos (2002), Geanakoplos (2003, 2009), Lorenzoni (2008), Brunnermeier and Pedersen (2009), Acharya, Gale, and Yorulmazer (2010), Garleanu and Pedersen (2010), Stein (2010), Diamond and Rajan (2010), and Brunnermeier and Sannikov (2011) (see Shleifer and Vishny, 2011, for a recent survey). More broadly, this paper belongs to an extensive literature on financial crises that highlights the connection between panics and a decline in the financial system's ability to channel resources to the real economy (see, e.g., Caballero and Kurlat, 2008, for a survey).

⁴The only reason for the continuum is for banks to take other banks' decisions as given.

1. In particular, it is not possible to sell or borrow against the asset at date 1. (Thus, a bank cannot convert the asset to dollars at date 1.) This assumption captures the standard liquidity-return trade-off, which is prevalent in financial markets. The microfoundations that lead to this trade-off are well known (e.g., Holmstrom and Tirole, 1998). One can think of the cash in this model as the liquid securities, such as US treasuries, which yield lower return but which retain their market value at times of distress. In contrast, the asset can be thought of as illiquid securities, such as asset backed securities, which potentially yield a higher return but which lose their market value at times of distress.

Each bank initially has y dollars and $1 - y$ units of the asset it purchased in the past, which we refer to as legacy assets. At date 0, which is the only meaningful decision date in our model, banks can trade legacy assets in a secondary market at a price p , which will be endogenously determined. This price cannot exceed 1 because legacy assets and new assets are identical (and the price of the latter is 1). We also assume that the natural buyers of legacy assets are the other banks in the model. In particular, outside agents (lower valuation users) demand the asset elastically at a discounted price $p_{scrap} < 1$. Thus, if legacy assets are sold to outside agents, then they fetch a price $p = p_{scrap}$. We refer to this situation as a *fire sale* of legacy assets.

The basic premise of our model can now be informally described. In normal times banks do not need dollars at date 1. Consequently, to maximize their net worth at date 2, they retain their legacy assets and they use their dollars to acquire new assets. This ensures that yn units of new assets are purchased and the price in the secondary market is $p = 1$. Against this background, we will consider an unexpected shock which generates the possibility that banks might need dollars at date 1. This in turn shifts banks' investments at date 0 from the asset to cash (flight-to-quality), which has two effects. First, as banks stop buying new assets, there is a *credit crunch* in the real sector.⁵ Second, as banks stop buying legacy assets (and as they try to sell their own legacy assets to raise dollars), there is a fire sale of legacy assets in the secondary market. The contribution of our paper is to describe the role of uncertainty and complexity in generating this flight-to-quality episode. To this end, we gradually introduce the main ingredients of our model.

2.1 Cross-exposures and the Financial Network

At date 0, each bank has short term debt claims worth z dollars on one other bank, which we call the *forward neighbor bank*. We assume that short term debt cannot be rolled

⁵In particular, the issuance of new assets will drop. Consequently, consumers and firms that usually borrow from the financial sector by issuing assets will not be able to do so.

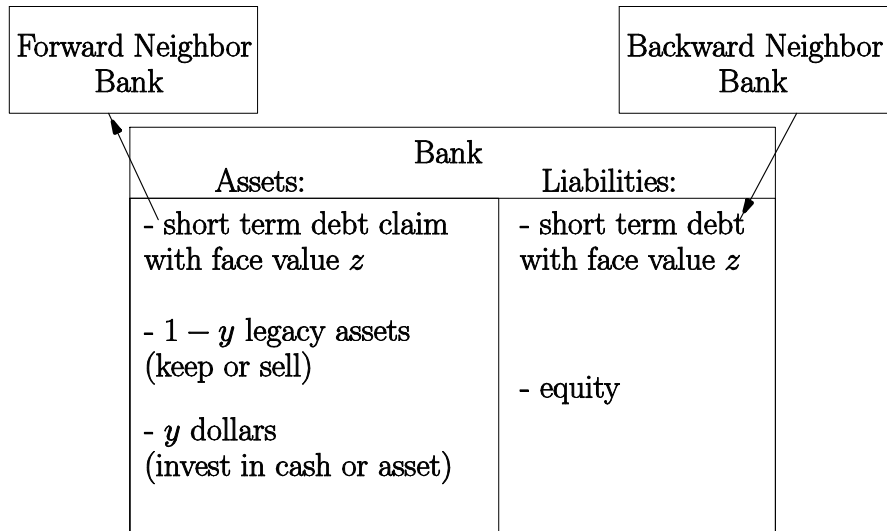


Figure 1: The initial balance sheet of a generic bank.

over and it must be paid back at date 1, which will be without loss of generality.⁶ On the liability side, the bank also has z dollars of short term debt claims held by another bank which we call the *backward neighbor bank*. The initial balance sheet of a bank is illustrated in Figure 1.

The role of these cross debt claims is to capture various types of unsecured cross-exposures that are common in the financial system. One source of cross-exposures is interbank loans. Upper (2007) documents that interbank loans constitute a large fraction of banks' balance sheets in many European countries.⁷ A second and potentially much larger source of cross-exposures is OTC derivative contracts (such as interest rate swaps or credit default swaps) traded between financial institutions. Bank for International Settlements reports that gross credit exposures in OTC derivative markets in G10 countries and Switzerland had exceeded \$5 trillion by the end of 2008.⁸ The cross debt claims of this model can be viewed as capturing the uncollateralized portion of these exposures (although the Lehman crisis revealed that even fully collateralized repo loans can be frozen by bankruptcy courts).

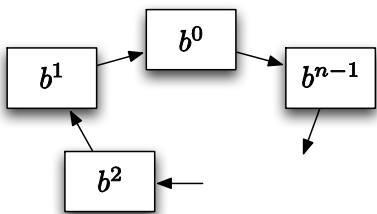
⁶In particular, Appendix A.1 considers an extension of the model in which banks have the option to roll over and shows that the equilibrium is unchanged.

⁷To give two examples, Upper (2007) notes: "at the end of June 2005 interbank credits accounted for 29% of total assets of Swiss banks and 25% of total assets of German banks."

⁸Source: BIS semiannual OTC derivatives statistics. Gross credit exposures take into account bilateral netting between the same pair of counterparties. Gross market values of exposures, which do not take into account this netting, is much larger (more than \$20 trillion in interest rate derivatives and more than \$5 trillion in credit derivatives by the end of 2008).

In Caballero and Simsek (2009), we provide one rationale for cross-exposures from their role in facilitating bilateral liquidity insurance, as in Allen and Gale (2000). In this paper, we take the exposures as given and we analyze their role in generating flight-to-quality episodes.

Banks' cross debt claims form a *financial network*. For analytical tractability, we assume that the network takes the form of a circle denoted by:



(1)

The notation, $b^j \leftarrow b^{j+1}$, illustrates that bank b^{j+1} has debt claims on bank b^j . Note that banks are ordered around a circle, with bank b^0 having debt claims on bank b^{n-1} .

In this paper, we conceptualize “complexity” with banks’ uncertainty about cross-exposures. In particular, banks have only *local knowledge of cross-exposures*: They understand their own exposures, but they are increasingly uncertain about cross-exposures of banks that are farther away (in the network) from themselves. We capture this notion by assuming that banks have only *local knowledge about the financial network* in (1): They know the identity of their forward neighbor bank (on which they have debt claims), but they do not know how the rest of the banks are ordered around the circle (i.e., which banks are exposed to which other banks). For exposition, we shut down this key ingredient until Section 4. In the rest of this section, we define a benchmark equilibrium without uncertainty, in which banks know the exact ordering in (1). The analysis of this benchmark is useful to illustrate the basic effect of cross-exposures and the mechanics of cascades in our model.

2.2 Surprise Shock and Banks’ Response

At date 0, the banks learn that a *rare event* (which they had not anticipated at the unmodeled date -1) has happened and one bank, b^0 , will become distressed. Similar to Allen and Gale (2000), in order to remain solvent *this bank needs to make θ dollars of payment (to an outsider) at date 1*.

This outside debt is senior to the short term debt to the neighbor bank (it can equiv-

alently be interpreted as a shock to the value of the bank's assets). Consequently, these losses might spill over to other banks via the financial network and may bring them into financial distress at date 1. To prepare for date 1, at date 0 the banks take one of the following actions $A_0^j = \{S, B\}$, which are restricted to a binary choice set for simplicity (see Caballero and Simsek, 2009, for a related model with unrestricted action space). As a precautionary measure, the bank may choose $A_0^j = S$, to invest all of its y dollars in cash and to *sell* all of its legacy assets $1 - y$ in the secondary market, keeping a completely liquid balance sheet. Alternatively, the bank may choose $A_0^j = B$, to be a potential *buyer* of assets. In this case, the bank retains its own legacy assets on its balance sheet and it uses its dollars to buy either new or legacy assets (whichever is more profitable).

The bank chooses A_0^j to maximize its equity value at date 2, subject to meeting its debt payment at date 1. Given the rare event, a bank may not be able to pay back its debt in full (despite the precautionary measures it takes), but instead it ends up paying $q_1^j \leq z$. Similarly, the value of bank's date 2 equity may be $q_2^j \leq R$. Note that either the bank is *solvent*, pays $q_1^j = z$, and its date 2 equity value is $q_2^j \geq 0$; or the bank is *insolvent*, pays $q_1^j < z$ and its date 2 equity value is $q_2^j = 0$.

2.3 Secondary Market and Equilibrium

Legacy assets are traded in a centralized exchange that opens (just) at date 0. Given the legacy asset price p , the banks that choose $A_0^j = S$ sell all of their legacy assets ($1 - y$ units for each bank) while the banks that choose $A_0^j = B$ are potential buyers of legacy assets and may spend up to y (their dollars). If $p < 1$, potential buyers spend all of their y dollars on legacy assets, while if $p = 1$, they are indifferent between buying legacy or new assets. Recall that $p_{scrap} < 1$ denotes the valuation of outside agents. Thus, the market clearing condition for legacy assets can be written as:

$$(1 - y) \sum_j \mathbf{1} \{A_0^j = S\} - \frac{y}{p} \sum_j \mathbf{1} \{A_0^j = B\} \begin{cases} \geq 0 & \text{if } p = p_{scrap} \\ = 0 & \text{if } p \in (p_{scrap}, 1) \\ \leq 0 & \text{if } p = 1 \end{cases} . \quad (2)$$

The first term on the left hand side denotes the total supply of legacy assets while the second term denotes the maximum potential demand. If the left hand side of Eq. (2) is negative for each $p \in [p_{scrap}, 1]$, then legacy assets trade at their fair value 1, potential buyers are indifferent between buying legacy and new assets, and they buy just enough legacy assets to clear the market. If the left hand side of Eq. (2) is 0 for some $p \in [p_{scrap}, 1]$, then p is the equilibrium price. If the left hand side is positive for each $p \in [p_{scrap}, 1]$,

then there is excess supply of legacy assets and their price is given by p_{scrap} .

Definition 1. *An equilibrium in the no-uncertainty benchmark is a collection of bank actions, debt payments, and equity values, $\{A_0^j, q_1^j, q_2^j\}_j$, and a price level $p \in [p_{scrap}, 1]$ for legacy assets such that each bank b^j chooses its actions to maximize its equity value, q_2^j , and the legacy asset market clears [cf. Eq. (2)].*

To characterize the equilibrium, it is useful to define the notion of a bank's *distance* from the original distressed bank. The original distressed bank, b^0 , has distance $k = 0$ from itself. The backward neighbor of the original distressed bank has distance $k = 1$. Similarly, the backward neighbor of the backward neighbor has distance $k = 2$. This way, each bank can be assigned a unique distance. For the particular financial network in (1), each bank b^j has distance $k = j$: that is, banks' identities and their distances are identical. For more general orderings of banks (which will be considered in Section 4), the two notions are typically different.

The distance is the only payoff relevant variable in this economy. In particular, as we will demonstrate in the next section, a bank is insolvent if and only if it has a sufficiently short distance. Similarly, a bank chooses a precautionary action, $A_0^j = S$, if and only if it is sufficiently close to the distressed bank. In view of these observations, we define the following notions of a *cascade* and a *flight-to-quality* which facilitate the characterization of equilibrium.

Definition 2. *Consider a collection of bank actions and payoffs $\{A_0^j, q_1^j, q_2^j\}_j$.*

(i) *There is a cascade of length K if banks with distance $k \leq K - 1$ are insolvent [i.e., they pay $q_1^j < z$] while banks with distance $k \geq K$ are solvent [i.e., they pay $q_1^j = z$].*

(ii) *There is a flight-to-quality of size F if banks with distance $k \leq F - 1$ choose $A_0^j = S$ while banks with distance $k \geq F$ choose $A_0^j = B$.*

Note that K also corresponds to the number of banks that are insolvent, and F corresponds to the number of banks that choose the precautionary action. In subsequent sections, K and F will be useful to summarize the equilibrium in this economy.

3 Equilibrium in the No-Uncertainty Benchmark

In this section, we characterize the equilibrium with no-uncertainty, which is useful to illustrate the mechanics of cascades in our setting. We show that, if the number of banks

is sufficiently large, then there only can be a partial cascade and a partial flight-to-quality, that is, $K < n$ and $F < n$. Moreover, K and F are “proportional” to the size of the initial shock, θ . That is, when banks have perfect knowledge of the financial network, a sufficiently deep financial system is resilient to perturbations. These benign results contrast with those we obtain in the next section once we introduce complexity.

We characterize the equilibrium under the following parametric conditions:

$$ny > \lceil \theta \rceil \text{ and } z + y + (1 - y)p_{scrap} \geq \theta. \quad (3)$$

Here, $\lceil x \rceil$ denotes the ceiling function, that is, the unique integer such that $\lceil x \rceil - 1 < x \leq \lceil x \rceil$. The first condition in (3) says that the financial system has sufficient aggregate liquidity to meet the unexpected liquidity shock, θ .⁹ The second condition (whose role will be clarified below) simplifies the notation but does not play an essential role.

Our characterization consists of three steps. First, we characterize a generic bank’s optimal action (and solvency) taking the payoffs and actions of other banks as given. Second, we take the asset price, p , as given and we characterize the partial equilibrium corresponding to banks’ actions and payoff. And third, we characterize the general equilibrium price and allocations.

3.1 Banks’ Optimal Actions

A bank’s optimal action depends on its *liquidity need*. The liquidity need of a bank b^k with distance k , is:

$$z - q_1^{k-1} + \theta [k = 0] \quad (4)$$

(where $\theta [\cdot]$ denotes the product of θ and the indicator function). The first term captures the payment the bank needs to make on its short term debt. The second term captures the equilibrium payment the bank receives from its forward neighbor. The last term captures the additional payment that the original distressed bank needs to make. To meet the liquidity need in (4), a bank can try to obtain dollars at date 1 by choosing the precautionary action, $A_0^j = S$, at date 0. By doing so, it keeps its y dollars in cash and sells $1 - y$ units of legacy assets in the secondary market, obtaining an *available liquidity* of:

$$l(p) = y + (1 - y)p \quad (5)$$

dollars at date 1.

⁹The rounding of the loss, $\lceil \theta \rceil$, in this condition is an artifact of restricting attention to the discrete action space, $\{B, S\}$.

The bank’s optimal action can now be characterized by comparing its liquidity need in (4) and the available liquidity in (5). There are three cases to consider. First, if the bank’s liquidity need is zero, then it is not distressed. Since this bank does not need dollars at date 1, it chooses the aggressive action, $A_0^j = B$, to maximize its equity value. Second, if the bank’s liquidity need lies in the interval, $(0, l(p)]$, then its available liquidity is sufficient to meet its liquidity need. This bank chooses the precautionary action, $A_0^j = S$, to avert insolvency at date 1 (which maximizes its equity value at date 2). Third, if the bank’s liquidity need is greater than $l(p)$, then its available liquidity is not sufficient to meet its liquidity need. This bank is indifferent between choosing $A_0^j = S$ or $A_0^j = B$, because it will be insolvent regardless of the action. Nonetheless, choosing the precautionary action increases the liquidation outcome because it enables the bank to liquidate with time: More specifically, the bank’s assets yield $l(p)$ dollars with the precautionary action, $A_0^j = S$, and 0 dollars with the aggressive action, $A_0^j = B$. Moreover, the precautionary action increases the payoff to debtholders. Given that equity holders are indifferent, we restrict attention to equilibria in which the bank [with liquidity need $> l(p)$] chooses the precautionary action, $A_0^j = S$.

Combining the three cases, note that the bank chooses the precautionary action, $A_0^j = S$, if and only if its liquidity need is strictly positive. Moreover, the bank is insolvent at date 1 if and only if its liquidity need is strictly greater than $l(p)$. We next use this characterization to solve for the partial equilibrium: that is, banks’ actions and payments for a given price p .

3.2 Partial Equilibrium

The following result characterizes the partial equilibrium in the no-uncertainty benchmark.

Proposition 1. *Suppose the price of legacy assets are fixed at $p \in [p_{scrap}, 1]$ and the conditions in (3) hold. Then, there is a cascade of length*

$$K(p) = \left\lceil \frac{\theta}{l(p)} \right\rceil - 1, \tag{6}$$

and a flight-to-quality of size $F = K(p) + 1$ (cf. Definition 2). Both the cascade and the flight-to-quality are contained, i.e., $K(p) < n$ and $F < n$.

Figure 2 illustrates this result. Eq. (6) shows that the cascade size is “proportional” to the ratio of the size of the shock to the banks’ available liquidity, $\theta/l(p)$. A larger

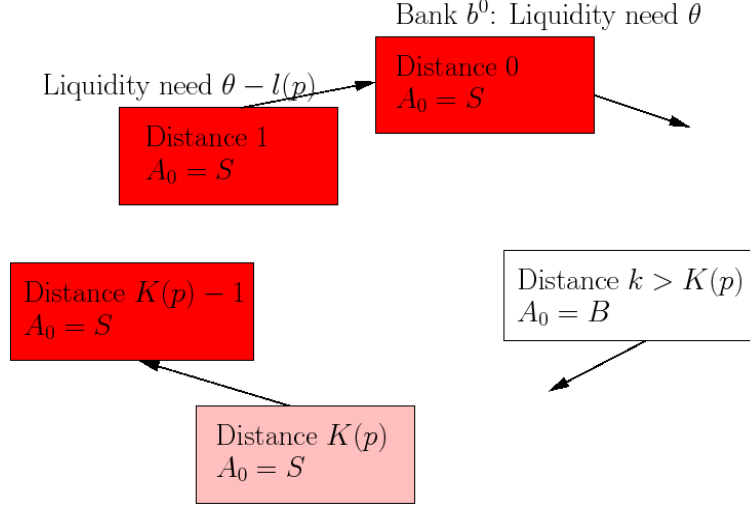


Figure 2: The partial cascade and flight-to-quality in the no-uncertainty benchmark.

shock naturally leads to a longer cascade. A reduction in available liquidity for banks also leads to a longer cascade. Intuitively, this is because, when $l(p)$ is lower, banks are less able to fight the cascade. Using Eq. (5), it also follows that a reduction in p increases the length of the cascade. We next provide a proof of Proposition 1, which is useful to illustrate further the mechanics of cascades in our setting.

Proof of Proposition 1. Under the claim in the proposition, the original distressed bank, b^0 , receives full payment from its debt claims on its forward neighbor, i.e., $q_1^{n-1} = z$. Hence, the liquidity need of bank b^0 is $\theta > 0$. According to the earlier characterization, this bank chooses the precautionary action, $A_0^0 = S$. If $\theta \leq l(p)$, then this bank avoids insolvency and the cascade size is $K(p) = 0$, which is consistent with (6).

Suppose instead $\theta > l(p)$. In this case bank b^0 is insolvent and pays

$$q_1^0 = z + l(p) - \theta < z. \quad (7)$$

where $q_1^0 \geq 0$ in view of the second condition in (3).¹⁰ Note that bank b^0 receives z dollars from its claims on bank b^{n-1} , has $l(p)$ units of liquidity at date 1, and it has to make a payment of θ dollars. In this case, the forward neighbor bank b^1 with distance 1 receives

¹⁰Note that $q_1^0 = 0$ when the second condition in (3) is violated. That is, the original distressed bank pays zero on its debt claims because it is unable to make the outside payment. To accommodate for this case, Eq. (7) could be modified to $q_1^0 = \max(0, z + l(p) - \theta)$. The rest of the analysis would be identical at the expense of additional notation.

$q_1^0 < z$ from its debt claims, and it has liquidity need, (4), of

$$z - q_1^0 = \theta - l(p), \quad (8)$$

where the second expression comes from using (7) to substitute for q_1^0 . Since we are considering the case $\theta > l(p)$, the neighbor bank also has a positive liquidity need, and thus it chooses $A_0^1 = S$. If $\theta \leq 2l(p)$, then the neighbor bank's available liquidity, $l(p)$, is greater than its liquidity need. In this case, this bank is able to avoid insolvency and the cascade size is $K(p) = 1$. Otherwise, the neighbor bank is also insolvent, and it pays

$$q_1^1 = l(p) + q_1^0.$$

From this point onwards, a pattern emerges. The payment by an insolvent bank b^{k-1} (with distance $k-1$) is

$$q_1^{k-1} = l(p) + q_1^{k-2} = l(p)(k-1) + q_1^0.$$

Here, the first equality shows that banks' payments are linearly increasing in their distance, and the second equality uses this property to solve for the payment of bank b^{k-1} in closed form. Using this expression along with Eq. (8), bank b^k (with distance k) has the liquidity need:

$$z - q_1^{k-1} = \theta - l(p)k. \quad (9)$$

That is, banks' liquidity needs are linearly decreasing in their distance, k . If $\theta > l(p)k$, then bank b^k 's liquidity need is positive, and thus it chooses the precautionary action, $A_0^k = S$. If $\theta \leq l(p)(k+1)$, this bank is able to avoid insolvency. Otherwise, it is also insolvent despite taking the precautionary action.

Next note that $K(p)$ defined in Eq. (6) is the first nonnegative integer such that $\theta \leq l(p)(K(p)+1)$. Consequently, all banks b^k with distance $k \leq K(p)-1$ are insolvent since their liquidity needs are greater than their available liquidity, $l(p)$. These banks choose $A_0^j = S$ to improve their liquidation outcome. In contrast, bank $b^{K(p)}$ is solvent since it can meet its losses by choosing the precautionary action, $A_0^{K(p)} = S$. Since bank $b^{K(p)}$ is solvent, all banks b^k with distance $k \geq K(p)+1$ are also solvent as they do not incur losses in cross debt claims. These banks choose the aggressive action, $A_0^j = B$, to optimize their equity value. It follows that there is a cascade of length $K(p)$ and a flight-to-quality of size $F = K(p)+1$. The first condition in (3) also implies that $K(p) < n$ and $F < n$, completing the proof of the proposition. ■

3.3 General Equilibrium

Proposition 1 has characterized banks' actions and payoffs for a given price, p . We next state the main result of this section which characterizes the general equilibrium price and allocations.

Proposition 2. *Consider the no-uncertainty benchmark and suppose the conditions in (3) hold. Then,*

- (i) *The unique equilibrium price is $p = 1$ (no fire sales).*
- (ii) *There is a cascade of length $\lceil \theta \rceil - 1$ and a flight-to-quality of length $\lceil \theta \rceil$.*
- (iii) *The aggregate amount of new asset purchases is: $\mathcal{Y} = ny - \lceil \theta \rceil$.*

This result follows by combining Proposition 1 with the secondary market clearing condition (2). Note that the banks with distance $k \leq K(p)$ choose $A_0^j = S$ and sell all of their existing assets. The remaining banks choose $A_0^j = B$, i.e., they are potential buyers of assets. Condition (3) ensures that, for any price $p \in [p_{scrap}, 1]$, the demand from potential buyers exceeds the supply from distressed banks. This implies that the unique equilibrium price is $p = 1$. Given this price, the cascade length is characterized by Proposition 1. The aggregate new asset purchases is calculated by considering the asset demand by potential buyers net of the legacy asset supply by distressed banks (see the proof in the appendix).

Intuitively, if the cascade is only partial and banks know the financial network, then there exist safe banks which will not make losses from cross-claims and know that much. These banks do not sell assets and are ready to use their dollars to purchase assets from distressed banks. When the aggregate liquidity of the financial system is sufficiently large [cf. condition (3)], the demand from these potential buyers ensures that legacy assets trade at their fair price 1.

Figure 3 illustrates this result by plotting the equilibrium variables as a function of the initial shock, θ . Note that the price is fixed at 1, the cascade size is increasing in θ , and the aggregate new asset purchases is decreasing in θ . Intuitively, as θ increases, there are more losses to be contained, which further spreads the insolvency. As the insolvency spreads, more banks keep their dollars in cash, which lowers \mathcal{Y} . Note, however, that \mathcal{Y} decreases “smoothly” with θ . These results offer a benchmark for the next section. There we show that once auditing becomes costly, both K and \mathcal{Y} may experience large changes with small increases in θ .

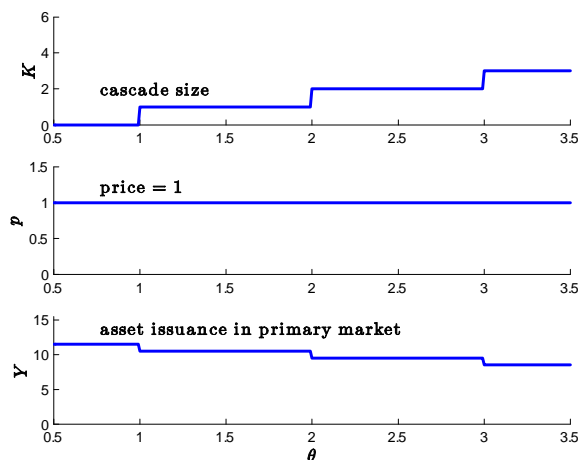


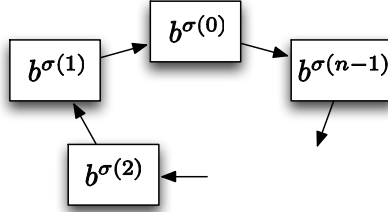
Figure 3: **Equilibrium in the no-uncertainty benchmark.** The top, the middle, and the bottom panels respectively plot the loan prices, the cascade size, and the aggregate level of new loans as a function of the losses in the originating bank.

4 Environment and Equilibrium with Complexity

We next introduce our key ingredient, complexity, which we model as banks' uncertainty about cross-exposures. As we will see, in this context when the shock is small, the system behaves exactly as in the benchmark. But when the shock is large, banks need to understand distant linkages in order to assess the amount of counterparty risk they are facing. Their inability to figure out these linkages leads to a complex environment and increases banks' perceived payoff uncertainty. This increase in complexity (and associated uncertainty) overturns the relatively benign implications of the benchmark environment. In this section, we first modify the environment in Section 2 to incorporate uncertainty about the financial network. We then define and characterize the equilibrium for this environment, and present our main result.

Recall that a financial network in our setting is an ordering of banks around a circle as in (1). To introduce uncertainty, we allow for more general orderings than the particular example in (1). A financial network in this section is denoted by, $\mathbf{b}(\sigma)$, which corresponds

to:



(10)

Here, $\sigma : \{0, 1, \dots, n-1\} \rightarrow \{0, 1, \dots, n-1\}$ is a permutation that assigns bank $b^{\sigma(i)}$ to slot i in the financial network. The no-uncertainty benchmark analyzed in earlier sections corresponds to a particular permutation, $\sigma(i) = i$, which assigns each bank to the slot with the same identity.

The key ingredient is that *banks are uncertain about the financial network*. In particular, banks know the identity, j , of each other bank, but they have uncertainty about the ordering of the banks, σ . Formally, we let

$$\mathcal{B} = \{\mathbf{b}(\sigma) \mid \sigma : \{0, 1, \dots, n-1\} \rightarrow \{0, 1, \dots, n-1\} \text{ is a permutation}\} \quad (11)$$

denote the set of possible financial networks, and $\mathcal{B}^j(\sigma) \subset \mathcal{B}$ denote the set of financial networks which bank b^j finds possible given the actual realization $\mathbf{b}(\sigma)$. We refer to the collection $\{\mathcal{B}^j(\sigma)\}_{j,\sigma}$ as an *uncertainty model* for banks.¹¹ The no-uncertainty benchmark of earlier sections corresponds to a particular uncertainty model in which each $\mathcal{B}^j(\sigma)$ has the single element, $\mathbf{b}(\sigma)$, so that banks have full knowledge of the financial network. Instead, in this section we assume that banks *only have local knowledge about the financial network*. By *local knowledge* we mean that each bank observes its forward neighbor (on which it has claims) but is otherwise uncertain about how the other banks are ordered in the financial network. Formally, we consider the uncertainty model given by:

$$\mathcal{B}^j(\sigma) = \left\{ \mathbf{b}(\tilde{\sigma}) \in \mathcal{B} \mid \left[\begin{array}{c} \tilde{\sigma}(i) = \sigma(i) \\ \tilde{\sigma}(i-1) = \sigma(i-1) \end{array} \right], \text{ where } i = \sigma^{-1}(j) \right\}. \quad (12)$$

Note that, for each realization of σ , each bank knows its own slot and the slot of its forward neighbor, but it is otherwise uncertain how the other banks are assigned to the remaining slots.

¹¹A simpler alternative to the permutations is to have banks ordered in the circle in the same order as the locations (i.e. bank 1 in location 1, bank 2 in location 2, etc.) and have the uncertainty be about the identity of the bank in distress rather than about the linkages between the banks. We chose the slightly more cumbersome route of permutations because it aligns better with the idea of complexity that we want to capture here. But mechanically, the results would be very similar with the alternative formulation.

Banks make their decisions at date 0 while facing Knightian uncertainty about the network. In particular, bank b^j considers a range of possible financial networks, $\mathcal{B}^j(\sigma)$, and it chooses an action that is robust to this uncertainty. Formally, let $(q_1^j(\sigma), q_2^j(\sigma))$ denote the bank's equity and debt payment in equilibrium given the financial network, $\mathbf{b}(\sigma)$. We follow Gilboa and Schmeidler (1989)'s Maximin expected utility representation and write the bank's optimization problem as:

$$\max_{A_0^j(\sigma) \in \{S, B\}} \min_{\mathbf{b}(\tilde{\sigma}) \in \mathcal{B}^j(\sigma)} q_2^j(\tilde{\sigma}). \quad (13)$$

The Knightian uncertainty, and the corresponding Maximin representation, is not essential for our results. In particular, our qualitative results also apply in a standard expected utility framework as long as banks are risk averse. We consider the Maximin representation for two reasons. First, it provides analytical tractability by enabling us to focus on the worst case scenario, instead of specifying a distribution over $\mathcal{B}^j(\sigma)$ and taking expectations. Second, and more importantly, Knightian uncertainty seems more appropriate for our context than quantifiable risk. Given the complexity of the network of cross-exposures in real financial markets, banks are unlikely to have a probability distribution over various possible networks. Microeconomic studies (both empirical and theoretical) have argued that economic agents are more averse to this type of uncertainty compared to quantifiable risks. The optimization problem in (13) enables us to capture this feature in a tractable way.

We next extend Definition 1 to the case with uncertainty as follows.

Definition 3. *An equilibrium with network uncertainty is a collection of bank actions, debt payments, and equity values, $\left[\left\{ A_0^j(\sigma), q_1^j(\sigma), q_2^j(\sigma) \right\}_j \right]_{\mathbf{b}(\sigma)}$, and a price level $p \in [p_{scrap}, 1]$ for legacy assets such that, given the realization of the financial network $\mathbf{b}(\sigma)$, each bank b^j chooses its actions according to the worst case financial network that it finds possible [cf. problem (13)] and the legacy asset market clears [cf. Eq. (2)].*

To characterize the equilibrium, it is useful to generalize also the notion of the distance to this setting. Let $i^d \in \{0, 1, \dots, n-1\}$ denote the slot of the distressed bank, b^0 . Note that, for each bank b^j , there exists a unique $k \in \{0, \dots, n-1\}$ such that $j = \sigma(i^d + k)$, which we define as the *distance* of bank b^j from the distressed bank.¹² As in the benchmark, the distance k is the payoff relevant information for a bank b^j . In particular, as we formally

¹²We use modulo n arithmetic for the slot index i . For example, $i^d + k = n$ represents the slot 0, $i^d + k = n + 1$ represents the slot 1, and so on.

show in the appendix, the banks' equilibrium payoffs and actions can be written as a function of their distance. That is, there exists functions $A_0(\cdot)$, $Q_1(\cdot)$ and $Q_2(\cdot)$ such that:

$$(A_0^j(\sigma), q_1^j(\sigma), q_2^j(\sigma)) = (A_0[k], Q_1[k], Q_2[k]), \quad (14)$$

where k denotes the distance of bank b^j given the network $\mathbf{b}(\sigma)$. Given this observation, the notions of a cascade of length K and a flight-to-quality of length F (cf. Definition 2) also naturally generalize to this setting.

We next characterize the equilibrium by repeating the analysis of Section 3 for this setting. The characterization similarly consists of three steps: (i) banks' optimal actions, (ii) partial equilibrium for a given p , and (iii) general equilibrium price and allocations.

4.1 Banks' Optimal Actions

Recall from Section 3 that in the no-uncertainty benchmark a bank (with distance k) chooses the precautionary action, $A_0^j = S$, if and only if its liquidity need is strictly positive. With uncertainty, the bank does not necessarily know its exact liquidity need in (4). This is because the bank does not know the amount, $Q_1[k-1]$, that will receive from its forward neighbor. Nonetheless, Appendix A.3 shows that the characterization of the bank's optimal action is equally simple in this case: It chooses the precautionary action, $A_0^j = S$, if and only if its liquidity need is strictly positive *under the lowest possible payment that it might receive from the forward neighbor*.

Using the fact that banks have only local knowledge of the network, we can further characterize their optimal actions. First consider a bank with distance $k \leq 1$. Given the uncertainty model in (12), this bank knows its distance. Consequently, it knows the payment, $Q_1[k-1]$, it will receive from its forward neighbor bank. Thus, the optimal action of this bank is characterized exactly as in the no-uncertainty benchmark.

Next consider the optimal action of a bank with distance $k \geq 2$. This bank is uncertain about its distance, and it finds possible all distances $\tilde{k} \in \{2, 3, \dots, n-1\}$. Consequently, it does not necessarily know the payment, $Q_1[\tilde{k}-1]$, it will receive from its forward neighbor. The worst case scenario obtains when the bank is at the closest possible distance, $\tilde{k} = 2$. It follows that this bank chooses its optimal action as if it is at distance $\tilde{k} = 2$. Put differently, *the banks that are uncertain about their distances to the distressed bank choose their precautionary action as if they are closer to the distressed bank than they actually are*.

4.2 Partial Equilibrium

The following proposition, which is the analogue of Proposition 1 for this setting, characterizes the partial equilibrium.

Proposition 3. *Consider the economy with network uncertainty. Suppose the price of legacy assets is fixed at $p \in [p_{scrap}, 1]$ and the conditions in (3) hold. Recall that $K(p) = \left\lceil \frac{\theta}{l(p)} \right\rceil - 1$ denotes the cascade length in the no-uncertainty benchmark [cf. Eq. (6)].*

(i) *If $\theta \leq 2l(p)$ [so that $K(p) \leq 1$], then there is a cascade of length $K(p)$ and a flight-to-quality of size $F = K(p) + 1$.*

(ii) *If $\theta > 2l(p)$ [so that $K(p) \geq 2$], then there is a cascade of length $K(p)$ and a flight-to-quality of size $F = n$.*

Figure 4 illustrates this result by plotting the equilibrium actions (and solvencies) corresponding to the two cases. The first case concerns a liquidity shock, θ , that is smaller than the available liquidity of two banks (i.e., the original distressed bank and its backward neighbor). In this case, part (i) of the proposition (and the first panel of Figure 4) shows that the partial equilibrium is the same as in the no-uncertainty benchmark. To see this, recall that banks at distance $k \geq 2$ act as if they are at distance 2. In this case, the liquidity shock is sufficiently small that the bank at distance 2 does not suffer any losses from cross-claims. Consequently, banks with distance $k \geq 2$ optimally choose the aggressive action. This leads to the same partial equilibrium as in the no-uncertainty benchmark. The proof in Appendix A.3 formalizes this argument.

The second case concerns a liquidity shock, θ , which is greater than the available liquidity of two banks. In this case part (ii) of the proposition (and the second panel of Figure 4) shows that the equilibrium features a much larger flight-to-quality than the no-uncertainty benchmark. In particular, all banks in the financial system choose the precautionary action, $A_0^j = S$. To see this, note that the liquidity shock in this case is sufficiently large to generate a cascade of at least length 2. Thus, it is optimal for a bank at distance 2 to choose the precautionary action, $A_0^j = S$. Consequently, banks with distance $k \geq 2$ also choose the precautionary action. This leads to a flight-to-quality of size n .

Intuitively, if the cascade (generated by the initial shock) is sufficiently short, the environment is *simple* in the sense that banks' uncertainty about the financial network is not payoff relevant. In particular, in this simple environment, a bank with distance $\tilde{k} = 2$ is equally safe as a bank with distance $\tilde{k} = n - 1$. Put differently, banks who are uncertain about their distance \tilde{k} can rule out an indirect hit. Hence these banks

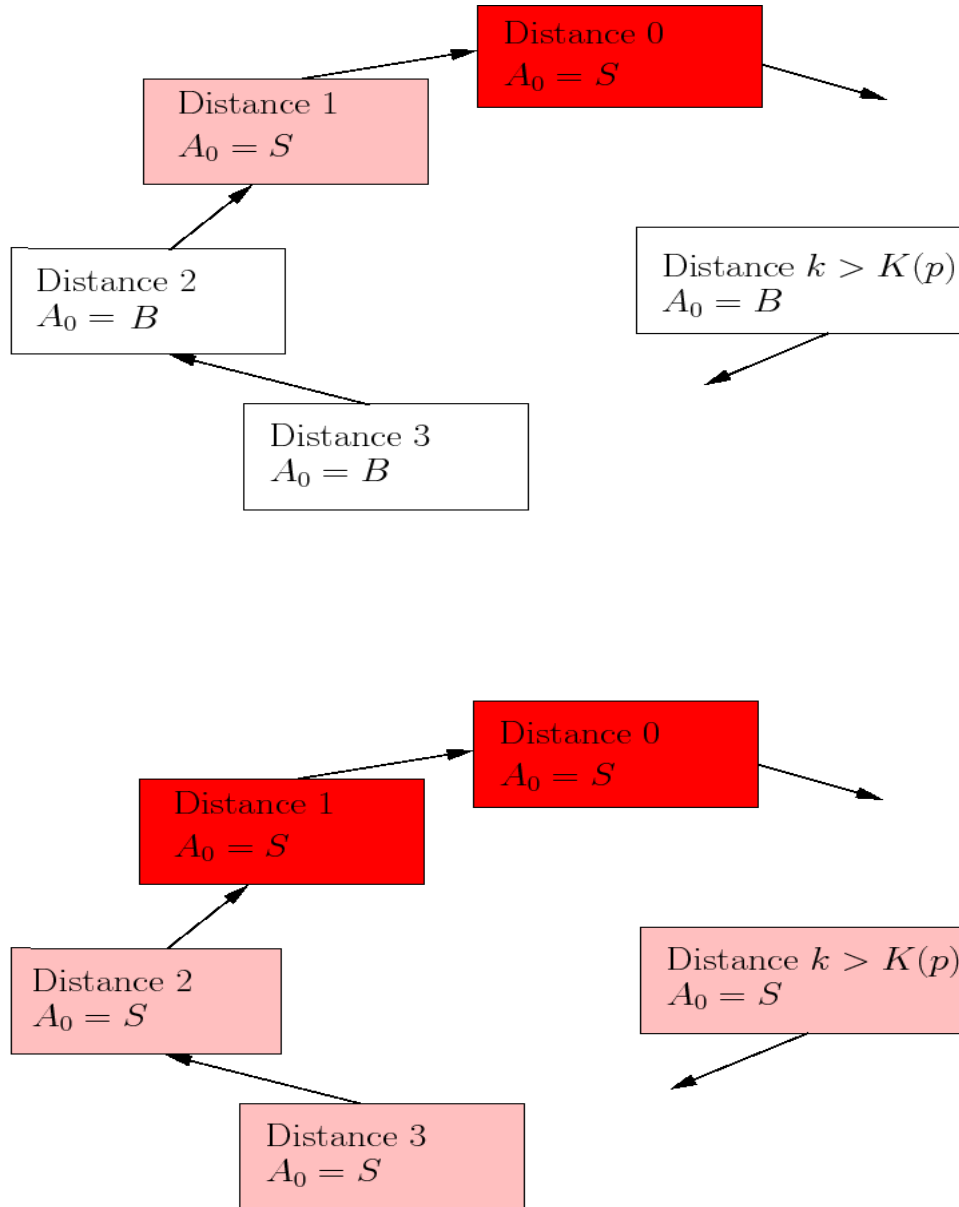


Figure 4: The partial cascade and the precautionary actions with network uncertainty. The top panel displays the first case, $\theta \leq 2l(p)$. The bottom panel displays the second case, $\theta > 2l(p)$.

continue to act as in the no-uncertainty benchmark despite being uncertainty averse. In contrast, if the cascade is sufficiently long, then the environment is *complex* in the sense that banks' network uncertainty is payoff relevant. In particular, in this complex environment, the bank at distance $\tilde{k} = 2$ makes losses from cross-claims while the bank at distance $\tilde{k} = n - 1$ does not. That is, banks that are uncertain about their distance cannot rule out an indirect hit. Since they are uncertainty averse, they respond by choosing the precautionary action.

4.3 General Equilibrium

The following, and the main, result jointly characterizes the equilibrium price and allocations.

Proposition 4. *Consider the economy with network uncertainty and suppose the conditions in (3) hold.*

(i) **Unique fair-price equilibrium:** *If $\theta \leq 2l(p_{scrap})$, then there is a unique equilibrium with price $p = 1$ (no fire sales). There is a cascade of length $K(1) = \lceil \theta \rceil - 1$ and a flight-to-quality of size $F = \lceil \theta \rceil$. The aggregate amount of new asset purchases is $\mathcal{Y} = ny - \lceil \theta \rceil$.*

(ii) **Unique fire-sale equilibrium:** *If $\theta > 2$, then there is a unique equilibrium with price $p = p_{scrap}$ (fire sales). There is a cascade of length $K(p_{scrap}) = \left\lceil \frac{\theta}{l(p_{scrap})} \right\rceil - 1$ and a flight-to-quality of size $F = n$. The aggregate amount of new asset purchases is $\mathcal{Y} = 0$.*

(iii) **Multiple equilibria:** *If $\theta \in (2l(p_{scrap}), 2]$, then there is a fair-price equilibrium as in part (i) and a fire-sale equilibrium as in part (ii).*

Figure 5 illustrates this result. There is a unique equilibrium for sufficiently small and large levels of θ , but there are multiple equilibria for intermediate levels of θ . Note also that the fair-price equilibrium is the same as the equilibrium in the no-uncertainty benchmark (cf. Proposition 2), while the fire-sale equilibrium is very different. In particular, the fire-sale equilibrium features a greater flight-to-quality than the no-uncertainty benchmark ($F = n$ vs. $F = \lceil \theta \rceil$). Moreover, the size of the flight-to-quality is disproportionately larger than the size of the initial shock. This large precautionary reaction generates a fire-sale in the secondary asset market ($p = p_{scrap}$). It also leads to a larger credit-crunch than the no-uncertainty benchmark ($\mathcal{Y} = 0$ vs. $\mathcal{Y} = ny - \lceil \theta \rceil$).

Proposition 4 is our main result because it shows that as the initial losses (measured by θ) increase, the equilibrium makes a very large and discontinuous jump compared to the no-uncertainty benchmark. This jump could be realized either in the region of

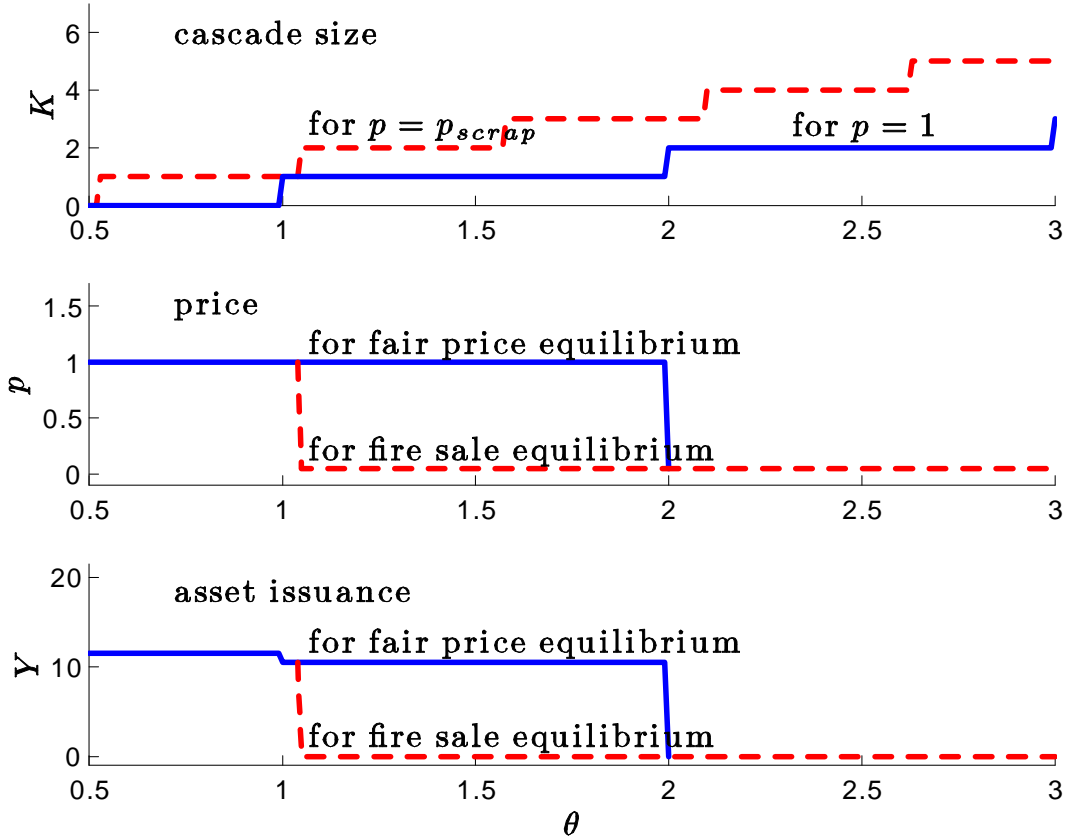


Figure 5: **Equilibria with network uncertainty.** The x axis corresponds to the size of the shock, θ . The y axes correspond to various equilibrium variables. The panels plot these equilibrium variables a function of the shock, θ . The top panel plots the partial equilibrium cascade size, $K(p)$, for price level $p = p_{scrap}$ (dashed line) and price level $p = 1$ (solid line). The second panel plots the general equilibrium price, p . The last panel plots the aggregate issuance of new loans, \mathcal{Y} .

multiple equilibrium if banks coordinate on the precautionary action, or in the region of single equilibrium if initial losses are sufficiently large. The resulting equilibrium features a flight-to-quality episode that is disproportionate to the size of the initial shock. The central ingredient for this result is complexity, that is, banks' uncertainty about the financial network. We next present a proof of this result which is useful to illustrate further the role of complexity.

Proof of Proposition 4. There are three cases to consider. The first case concerns a shock, θ , that is weakly smaller than the available liquidity of two banks even when the price of legacy assets is at its lowest level. In this case, part (i) of Proposition 3 applies regardless of the price. Consequently, the banks' payoffs and actions are the same as the no-uncertainty benchmark. In particular, all banks with distance $k \geq 2$ choose the aggressive action, $A_0^j = B$. In view of condition (3), the asset demand from these banks exceed the asset supply from distressed banks. This leads to an equilibrium price $p = 1$ and a cascade length of $K(1)$. Furthermore, aggregate purchase of new assets is the same as in Proposition 2.

The second case concerns a liquidity shock, θ , which is greater than the available liquidity of two banks even when the price of legacy assets is at its highest level. In this case, part (ii) of Proposition 3 applies regardless of the price. Consequently, there is a flight-to-quality of size n . In particular, all banks choose the precautionary action, $A_0^j = S$, which has two effects. First, since all banks are sellers in the secondary market (and there are no buyers), the market clearing condition (2) implies that $p = p_{scrap}$. Second, since all banks choose to keep their dollars in cash, no new assets are purchased, i.e., $\mathcal{Y} = 0$.

The third case concerns a liquidity shock, θ , which is weakly smaller than the available liquidity of two banks when the price is at its highest level, but not when the price is at its lowest level. In this case, there are multiple equilibria. To see this, first suppose legacy assets trade at their fair price, $p = 1$. With this price, the available liquidity, $l(1)$, is sufficiently large that part (i) of Proposition 3 applies. In particular, banks with distance $k \geq 2$ are potential buyers of the asset. This ensures that the fair price, $p = 1$, corresponds to an equilibrium. Suppose, instead, that legacy assets' price is at the fire-sale level, $p = p_{scrap}$. With this price, the available liquidity, $l(p_{scrap})$, is sufficiently small that part (ii) of Proposition 3 applies. In particular, all banks (including banks with distance $k \geq 2$) are sellers in the secondary market. This ensures that the fire-sale price, $p = p_{scrap}$, also corresponds to an equilibrium. ■

Intuitively, when θ is sufficiently small, the cascade length is manageable (i.e., below the critical threshold of 2) regardless of the price of legacy assets. In this case, the environment is simple (i.e., banks' network uncertainty is not payoff relevant). In contrast, when θ is sufficiently large, the cascade length is unmanageable and the environment is complex (i.e., banks' network uncertainty is payoff relevant) regardless of the price.

For intermediate levels of θ , the interaction between the asset price and complexity of the environment generates multiple equilibria. If legacy assets trade at their fair price, then there is more market liquidity to counter the initial liquidity shock. This generates to a shorter cascade and a simple environment. Since the environment is simple, banks that are uncertain about their distance are potential buyers in the secondary market, which ensures that legacy assets trade at their fair price. Set against this benign scenario is the possibility of a fire-sale equilibrium, in which the price of legacy assets collapses. This reduces market liquidity available to distressed banks, which leads to a longer cascade and a complex environment. Facing a complex environment, banks that are uncertain about their distance panic and sell their legacy assets, which reinforces the collapse of asset prices.

Note also that, whenever there are multiple equilibria, the fair-price equilibrium Pareto dominates the fire-sale equilibrium for all banks. This observation suggests that there are externalities in our setting, which we analyze next.

5 Complexity Externality and Policy Implications

Our model features a novel *complexity externality*, which stems from the dependence of banks' payoff uncertainty on the endogenous cascade size. In particular, any action that increases the cascade size increases the payoff uncertainty for banks that are uncertain about the financial network, and they dislike this effect. Our model features two variants of this complexity externality (one non-pecuniary, one pecuniary), each of which supports different types of policies. The rest of this section discusses the two variants and their policy implications.

5.1 Nonprice Complexity Externality and Bank Bailouts

To illustrate this externality, it is useful to start with a simple example. Consider an alternative economy with a continuum of (measure one) agents, $i \in I$, with utility functions:

$$u(x^i) - ca^i.$$

Here, x_i denotes agent i 's endowment, $a^i \in \{0, 1\}$ denotes a costly action taken by agent i , and $u(\cdot)$ denotes a standard and strictly concave utility function. Suppose also that each x^i is a random variable with mean 1 and variance:

$$1 - \int_I a^i di.$$

In particular, each agent can take a costly action that can (slightly) reduce the variance of endowments of all agents in this economy.

In this example, consider respectively the equilibrium and the planner's allocations. In equilibrium, no agent takes the costly action because she incurs a positive cost while having only a negligible effect on the variance of its own consumption. On the other hand, for sufficiently small $c > 0$, a social planner would have all agents choose $a^i = 1$. This allocation gives each agent a constant consumption at a relatively small cost (by assumption), which is a Pareto improvement over the equilibrium allocation.

In this example, the competitive equilibrium is Pareto inefficient because of a non-pecuniary externality that operates through the production technology. In particular, an agent i does not internalize the fact that her action affects the endowment variance of all other agents. By choosing $a^i = 0$, this agent exerts a negative externality on all other agents, which leads to a Pareto inefficiency.

We next describe the nonprice complexity externality of our model, which is reminiscent of the externality in this example. To this end, consider the setup of Proposition 3, that is, suppose there is network uncertainty and prices are exogenously fixed (which shuts down any pecuniary channels). Suppose also that

$$\theta \in (2l(p), 3l(p)), \tag{15}$$

which ensures that there is a cascade of size 2 and a flight-to-quality of size n (cf. Proposition 3). In particular, all banks choose the precautionary action, $A_0^j = S$. Banks' Minimax utility at date 0 [cf. Eq. (13)] is given by:

$$\begin{cases} 0, & \text{if } k < 2. \\ 3l(p) - \theta \in (0, l(p)), & k \geq 2. \end{cases} \tag{16}$$

In this setting, consider a modification of equilibrium by introducing the possibility of a "bailout" of the distressed bank, b^0 , by other banks. In particular, each bank j can choose to contribute some of her date 0 dollars, y , to a bailout fund. Without loss of

generality, suppose banks' actions are restricted to a binary set, $\{0, \frac{\theta}{n}\}$, that is: a bank either contributes 0 dollars or $\frac{\theta}{n}$ dollars to the bailout fund. Note that contributing $\frac{\theta}{n}$ dollars is feasible because the banks have sufficient aggregate liquidity by condition (3). Once all contributions are made, the total amount in the fund is used to pay some (possibly all) of the liquidity need, θ , of bank b^0 . The equilibrium is then characterized as before with a potentially lower level of the shock for the original distressed bank and a lower level of date 0 dollars for the contributing banks.

In this modified equilibrium, banks optimally choose to contribute 0 dollars to the bailout fund (and thus, the equilibrium remains unchanged). To see this, consider a bank with distance $k \geq 2$. By contributing to the bailout fund, this bank incurs a positive cost while receiving no benefits. This is because this bank alone is not able to change the cascade size (since it is infinitesimal by assumption). On the other hand, consider a social planner that requires all banks to contribute $\frac{\theta}{n}$ dollars. With this bailout policy, the original distressed bank remains solvent and the size of the cascade decreases to 0. In particular, banks' payoff uncertainty disappears. Consequently, banks choose the aggressive action, that is, they keep their legacy assets and they spend their remaining, $y - \frac{\theta}{n}$, dollars to acquire new assets. Their Minimax utility at date 0 is given by:

$$(1 - y)R + \left(y - \frac{\theta}{n}\right)R = \left(1 - \frac{\theta}{n}\right)R. \quad (17)$$

Comparing Eqs. (16) and (17) shows that this bailout policy leads to a Pareto improvement as long as n or R is sufficiently large. The fact that banks with distance $k < 2$ are better off is not remarkable because these banks are (either directly or indirectly) bailed out. However, it is remarkable that all other banks at distance $k \geq 2$ are also better off.

The equilibrium is Pareto inefficient for the same reason as in the earlier example. Each bank with distance $k \geq 2$ does not internalize that its contribution, $\frac{\theta}{n}$, would reduce the cascade size, and thus, the payoff uncertainty faced by other banks. By not contributing, this bank exerts a negative externality on other banks, which we refer to as the *nonprice complexity externality*. A bank bailout policy generates a Pareto improvement by internalizing this externality. Viewed differently, network stability (and similarly, endowment stability in the earlier example) is a public good. Each bank would like to enjoy this good because it reduces its payoff uncertainty. However, each bank would rather not incur the costs and free ride on other banks. The bailout could be viewed as the provision of the public good of stability, which solves the free rider problem.

We stress that the nonprice complexity externality is different than the fire-sale exter-

nality that is common in the literature. In particular, in the above setting there cannot be a fire-sale externality because the asset price is fixed. We next consider the setting with endogenous asset price to illustrate the second variant of the complexity externality.

5.2 Price Complexity Externality and Government Asset Purchases

This externality operates through the interaction of legacy asset prices and the cascade size. In particular, a bank that decides to sell assets (i.e., that chooses the precautionary action, $A_0^j = S$) has a (small) negative impact on asset prices. This in turn has a (small) positive impact on the cascade size. In particular, with a lower loan price, the available liquidity, $l(p)$, of each bank is lower. Thus, the crisis is contained after a greater number of insolvencies [cf. Eq. (6)]. The increase in the cascade size increases the payoff uncertainty faced by other banks and lowers their welfare, demonstrating the price complexity externality.

The price complexity externality is what leads to multiple Pareto-ranked equilibria in our setup, as we have already seen in Proposition 4. In particular, an increase in payoff uncertainty due to a reduction in the legacy asset price not only lowers the welfare of many banks, but also induces these banks to take extreme precautionary measures, which includes further asset sales. The sale of assets by banks in panic mode reduces asset prices further, which leads to a vicious cycle culminating in the fire-sale equilibrium. In contrast, an increase in asset prices reduces the payoff uncertainty, which may mitigate the precautionary measures and turn more sellers into buyers, leading to a virtuous spiral towards the fair price equilibrium. In particular, a social planner that puts a floor on asset prices (e.g., through an asset purchase policy) can generate a Pareto improvement by coordinating banks on the fair-price equilibrium.

We stress that the price complexity externality is also different than the usual fire-sale externality (e.g., in Kiyotaki and Moore, 1997b or in Lorenzoni, 2008). It is true that both externalities operate through asset prices. However, the commonalities end there because the particular channels for the two externalities are different. In a fire-sale externality, the decrease in asset prices erodes the net worth of financial institutions that are *natural buyers* of this asset. This in turn tightens these institutions' borrowing constraints, which lowers their welfare and puts further downward pressure on asset prices. Instead, in the price complexity externality, the decrease in asset prices increases the payoff uncertainty for *financial institutions that are uncertain about the network*. The increase in uncertainty (as opposed to binding constraints) is what lowers the welfare of these

institutions. Moreover, their precautionary reaction (as opposed to binding constraints) is what puts further downward pressure on asset prices.

This comparison also suggests that the price complexity externality could be much more potent than the fire-sale externality. To see this concretely, consider a drop in the price of subprime mortgage backed securities. From the lenses of the conventional fire-sale externality, this shock should mostly affect the natural buyers of these securities. In particular, it should not affect much the institutions that specialize in other businesses or other asset classes (or natural buyers that happen not to hold the securities at the time of the shock). Instead, from the lenses of the price complexity externality, this shock could have a much bigger impact. In particular, suppose the shock is sufficiently large that it leads to the failure of some natural buyers and generates the possibility of cascades. This in turn increases the payoff uncertainty for all financial institutions that are uncertain about the financial network. In practice, this includes virtually all financial institutions, illustrating the much greater scope of the price complexity externality.¹³

6 Robustness to Counterparty Insurance

In our setting, partial cascades lead to aggregate effects because they increase banks' *idiosyncratic* payoff uncertainty from cross-exposures. A natural question is to what extent this uncertainty could be insured. In practice, banks could obtain some insurance by purchasing credit default swaps on their counterparties. This section shows that our results are robust to allowing for counterparty insurance. The key insight is that, while banks demand counterparty insurance, the supply of insurance is also restricted because of sellers' collateral constraints.¹⁴

Consider the setting of Proposition 3 with network uncertainty and fixed asset price (for simplicity). Consider also parameters such that $K(p) \geq 2$, so that banks are trying to maximize their available liquidity at date 1 (in their worst case scenario). In this setting, banks have a demand for insurance contracts that pay when they are distressed at date

¹³In our model, we assumed for simplicity that the natural buyers of the asset are the same as banks that face network uncertainty. Instead, this discussion suggests natural buyers are likely to be a subset of the banks that face network uncertainty. Our model could be easily modified to incorporate this feature.

¹⁴Another natural question is why banks do not insure *ex-ante* (that is, before the arrival of the surprise shock) against this episode. We rule out this type of insurance by assuming that the surprise shock is unanticipated. Zawadowski (2011) considers banks' ex-ante insurance decisions in a similar setting with an anticipated shock, and shows that banks' insurance demand is inefficiently low. This is because each bank fails to take into account the benefits of its insurance purchase that accrue to banks that have exposures to it. This result complements our analysis, and suggests that our results are likely to apply even if banks (to some extent) anticipate the surprise shock.

1. To capture this aspect, suppose banks can invest at date 0 in insurance contracts on the insolvencies of their forward neighbor banks. In particular, for each bank j , there is a contract, I^j , that pays 1 dollar if bank j is insolvent at date 1 (i.e., if it pays $q_1^j < 1$).

In practice, CDS contracts are often collateralized to protect insurance buyers from a potential default of the insurance seller. Moreover, the required collateral is particularly high at times of distress such as our date 0. To capture this aspect, suppose insurance contracts, $\{I^j\}_j$, must be individually and fully collateralized. In particular, the insurance seller must pledge 1 unit of cash as collateral for each unit of insurance contract she sells at date 0. Each contract, I^j , is traded at date 0 in a competitive market at price $f^j \in (0, 1)$, which will be endogenously determined.

The collateral constraint implies that banks within the network choose not to sell insurance contracts. To see this, note that selling the contract, I^j , requires the bank to pledge $1 - f^j$ dollars of cash (in addition to f^j dollars which she raises from the purchase). In particular, selling insurance reduces banks' available liquidity at date 1 (even though it may increase their return at the end of date 1). Given that banks are trying to maximize their available liquidity, they choose not to sell insurance. Put differently, network uncertainty not only increases banks' demand for insurance, but it also naturally decreases their supply of insurance.

It follows that insurance contracts must be sold by an agent outside the financial network. Suppose the outside agent has y^{out} dollars at date 0 and consumes only at the end of date 1. Suppose the outside agent does not know the financial network. In addition, suppose also that the outside agent does not know the identity of the original distressed bank, b^0 .¹⁵ Importantly, the outside agent knows that the size of the cascade will be exactly K (i.e., not all of the banking system can go under). This is the main feature that will facilitate insurance.

Let x^j denote the amount of contract I^j sold by the outside agent. We conjecture an equilibrium for the insurance market in which $f^j \equiv f \in (0, 1)$ for each j and $x^j \equiv x$ for each j . That is, all banks' insurance contracts trade at the same price and the outside agent sells equal number of contracts.

To characterize this equilibrium, first consider the supply of insurance by the outside agent. This agent's portfolio choice problem can be written as:

¹⁵This assumption is only made for simplicity. The results do not change if we assume the outside agent knows b^0 (i.e., she knows as much as the inside banks).

$$\begin{aligned} \max_{\tilde{x} \geq 0} y^{out} + \tilde{x}fn - \tilde{x}K, \\ \text{s.t. } n\tilde{x}(1-f) \leq y^{out}. \end{aligned} \tag{18}$$

The first line is the outside agent's expected profit: For each contract she sells, she collects fn dollars in premiums and she expects to pay K dollars. Note that, even though the outside agent does not know the network, it knows that exactly K banks will fail. The second line of (18) is the outside agent's budget constraint. For each contract she sells, she raises f dollars. However, she needs to put an additional, $1-f$, dollars as collateral. The total amount of collateral she pledges cannot exceed her available collateral, y^{out} .

Problem (18) implies that as long as $fn > K$, which we will verify in equilibrium, the outside bank sells as much insurance as possible. That is:

$$x = \frac{y^{out}}{n(1-f)}. \tag{19}$$

Next consider the demand for insurance by banks. To maximize their available liquidity at date 1, banks, $\{b^j\}_{j=1}^{n-1}$, spend all of their date 0 resources to buy insurance on their respective forward neighbor banks. This is because they buy insurance at price $f < 1$ (which is fully collateralized), that gives them 1 dollar at date 1 in their worst case scenario (when their forward neighbor is insolvent). Thus, these banks' demand for insurance is given by:

$$x = \frac{l(p)}{f}. \tag{20}$$

With these insurance purchases, their available liquidity at date 1 (when their forward neighbor is insolvent) becomes:

$$l(p, f) = x = \frac{l(p)}{f}. \tag{21}$$

Consider next the original distressed bank, b^0 . This bank cannot increase its available liquidity by buying insurance on its forward neighbor, because its forward neighbor will always be solvent. On the other hand, this bank is indifferent between any level of insurance (because it will be insolvent regardless of its action). To keep the analysis and the notation simple, consider equilibria in which this bank's insurance demand is also given by (20), which leads to an available liquidity of 0 dollars at date 1.

Given this characterization of insurance purchases and available liquidities, the length

of the cascade can be calculated as before. In particular, the analogue of Eq. (6) in this setting is given by:

$$K(p, f) = \left\lceil \frac{\theta}{l(p, f)} \right\rceil.$$

Note that when f is lower, more liquidity is available to banks in distress, which leads to a shorter cascade.

The equilibrium price of insurance is characterized by equating the supply of insurance in (19) with the demand for insurance in (20). This leads to the following closed form solution:

$$f = \frac{l(p)}{\frac{y^{out}}{n} + l(p)} \text{ and } x = \frac{y^{out}}{n} + l(p).$$

Note that insurance is expensive when the aggregate collateral of the insurance sellers, y^{out} , is small relative to the number of banks that demand insurance, n . When $\frac{y^{out}}{n}$ is sufficiently small, f is close 1, which has two implications. First, the condition, $fn > K$ [which lead to Eq. (19)], is verified because $n > K$. Second, banks' available liquidity in (21) is close to $l(p)$. Consequently, the equilibrium is qualitatively similar to the earlier setting without insurance.

This analysis illustrates that, as long as the collateral of insurance sellers outside the financial network is scarce, the CDS market does not overturn our results. The behavior of the CDS market during the recent Bear Sterns and Lehman debacles is broadly consistent with this analysis. Duffie (2011) describes that the demand for insurance spiked in both episodes (measured by novation requests), and that this demand could not be met by insurance sellers (dealers) within the financial network. For the Lehman episode, Vause (2010) additionally notes: "Market participants responded to increased concern about counterparty risk by buying protection on CDS dealers... But none of these trading responses represented a comprehensive solution to the problem. Buying protection on one dealer from another dealer is of limited value if there are systemic concerns about the robustness of counterparties in the market." These observations suggest that insurance markets might have failed to eliminate fully the counterparty risk in these episodes, mainly because the supply of insurance was also limited.

7 Conclusion

In this paper we provide a model that illustrates how fire sales can arise even when financial markets are deep and the shock is small relative to the wealth in the financial network. The key ingredient for this outcome is complexity, which we have captured as

banks' uncertainty about the network of cross-exposures. This feature generates payoff uncertainty once banks are unable to figure out their exposures to an indirect hit.

We also show that there is a powerful feedback between fire sales and complexity. More severe fire sales lengthen the potential cascades and increase banks' payoff uncertainty. This triggers a precautionary reaction from potential asset buyers, which pull back and exacerbate the fire sale. In extreme scenarios these potential buyers can turn into sellers, leading to a complete collapse in secondary markets.

We only partially explored policy questions, but it is apparent that our environment creates many policy opportunities. In particular, the complexity externality supports government actions during crises that are aimed at reducing the size of cascades (e.g., bailing out distressed banks or asset purchases), as well as those that are aimed at reducing the network uncertainty (e.g., stress testing, and widespread guarantees to banking liabilities or assets). In addition, the complexity externality also supports preemptive measures that are aimed at simplifying (and increasing the transparency of) the financial network, e.g., moving OTC transactions to exchanges.

A question that emerges in our environment is whether banks can aggregate their (local) information about the financial network. In our model, banks cannot credibly share their information if we assume that distressed banks suffer losses from revealing that they are distressed (which is likely to be the case in reality). This is because banks that are close to the original distressed bank have an incentive to misreport their distance, which prevents the aggregation of information. More broadly, one could imagine many other reasons why information production and sharing during a crisis is inefficient, which emphasizes the importance of policies that provide information (e.g., stress testing, collecting data on OTC transactions).

As a parting thought we note that the particular insolvency motive we consider raises the question of what would happen if the distressed institutions chose to gamble for resurrection by not selling their assets, which would improve their outcome in good states at the cost of a greater bankruptcy risk. Our model suggests that gambling for resurrection may be a mixed blessing for the aggregate. Gambling by potential buyers, that is, institutions that are far from the cascade but that do not know this, would limit the fire sales and the downward spiral of prices. On the other hand, gambling by institutions near the cascade would increase the cascade size and trigger the complexity mechanism. This issue also points to important policy trade-offs for the decision on which institutions to guarantee during a systemic event.

A Appendix: Omitted Proofs and Extensions

A.1 Endogenizing Banks' Debt Rollover Decision

In the main text, we have simplified the model by assuming that all short term debt claims must be settled at date 1. In this appendix, we consider the extension of the model with banks' roll-over actions, and we show that the equilibrium is unchanged. Put differently, all banks choose to withdraw their debt claims immediately.

To see this, consider an extension in which each bank b^j has an additional action at date 1, $A_1^j = W(\tilde{z})$ for some $\tilde{z} \in [0, z]$. A bank that chooses $A_1^j = W(\tilde{z})$ withdraws \tilde{z} dollars of its debt claims on its forward neighbor bank at date 1, and rolls over the remaining $z - \tilde{z}$ dollars of its debt claims to date 2. In this setting, consider a distressed bank with a positive liquidity need at date 1 (e.g., the original distressed bank b^0). This bank could try to obtain the required liquidity either by withdrawing its debt claims at date 1 (i.e., by choosing $A_1^j = W(\tilde{z})$ for some $\tilde{z} > 0$) and/or by taking the precautionary action at date 0 (i.e., by choosing $A_0^j = S$). Taking the precautionary action is strictly costly for the bank because it sacrifices equity value at date 2. However, withdrawing debt claims is not costly. In fact, either the forward neighbor bank is insolvent, in which case withdrawing is strictly better than rolling over (recall that each bank is small and takes the debt payment of the forward neighbor bank as given), or the forward bank is solvent in which case withdrawing and rolling over generate the same amount of equity value. Hence, the bank always prefers ex-post withdrawal to the ex-ante precautionary actions. In other words, the liquidity pecking order is such that a bank that will need liquidity at date 1 first chooses $A_1^j = W(\tilde{z})$, and then (if there is need) resorts to ex-ante precautionary measures.

Next consider the original distressed bank, b^0 , that will need at least θ dollars of liquidity. This bank withdraws a positive amount of its debt claims from its forward neighbor, i.e., $A_1^0 = W(\tilde{z})$ for some $\tilde{z} > 0$. This puts the neighbor bank also in need of \tilde{z} dollars of liquidity, which also withdraws \tilde{z} units of its debt claims on the forward neighbor. As in Allen and Gale (2000), this triggers further withdrawals until, in equilibrium, $A_1^j = W(\tilde{z})$ for all j . Hence, the original distressed bank tries, but cannot obtain, any net liquidity through cross debt withdrawals. In particular, this bank still needs at least θ dollars of liquidity after cross debt withdrawals. This further implies that, in equilibrium, the bank withdraws all of its debt claims, i.e., $\tilde{z} = z$. Thus, no bank rolls over its debt and all debt claims are settled at date 1. It follows that the equilibria analyzed in the main text continue to be the equilibria in this setting with a more general action space

at date 1.

A.2 Equilibrium in the No-Uncertainty Benchmark

This appendix presents the proofs omitted from Section 3.

Proof of Proposition 1. Provided in the text.

Proof of Proposition 2. We complete the sketch proof provided in the paragraph following Proposition 2. Suppose $p \in [p_{scrap}, 1]$ and consider the banks' asset supply and demand. There are $K(p) + 1$ banks that choose $A_0^j = S$. The supply of assets from these banks is given by $(1 - y)(K(p) + 1)$. The remaining $n - K(p) - 1$ banks choose $A_0^j = B$. The demand for assets from these banks is given by $\frac{y(n - K(p) - 1)}{p}$. We claim that the demand exceeds the supply regardless of the price, that is:

$$\frac{y(n - K(p) - 1)}{p} > (1 - y)(K(p) + 1) \text{ for each } p \in [p_{scrap}, 1]. \quad (22)$$

By the secondary market clearing condition (2), this claim ensures that the equilibrium price is $p = 1$, proving part (i). Given price $p = 1$, K and F are characterized by Proposition 1, proving part (ii). Finally, the aggregate amount of new asset purchases is equal to banks' demand for assets net of the supply of legacy assets. Taking the difference of the left hand side and right hand side of the inequality in (22) and using $p = 1$, we have:

$$\mathcal{Y} = ny - (K(1) + 1) = ny - \lceil \theta \rceil,$$

proving part (iii).

The remaining step is to show the claim in (22). Recall that $K(p) + 1 = \left\lceil \frac{\theta}{l(p)} \right\rceil$. Using this expression, the claim in (22) can be written as:

$$ny > \left\lceil \frac{\theta}{l(p)} \right\rceil (y + p(1 - y)) = \left\lceil \frac{\theta}{l(p)} \right\rceil l(p),$$

where the equality follows from the definition of $l(p)$ in Eq. (5). To show this inequality, note that:

$$ny > \lceil \theta \rceil \geq \left\lceil \frac{\theta}{l(p)} \right\rceil l(p),$$

where the first inequality follows from condition (3) and the second inequality follows since $l(p) \leq 1$. It follows that the claim in (22) holds, completing the proof. ■

A.3 Equilibrium with Complexity

This appendix presents the analyses and proofs omitted from Section 4. We first prove that banks' optimal actions are characterized as in Section 4.1. We then present proofs of Proposition 3 and 4.

Consider banks' optimal actions, taking the cross debt payments, $\{q_1^j\}_j$, as given. Note that a *sufficient statistic* for bank b^j with distance k to choose action $A_0^j \in \{S, B\}$ is *the amount it will receive in equilibrium from its forward neighbor*. In particular, to decide on the level of its precautionary measure, this bank only needs to know its liquidity need in (4), which only depends on the debt payment of its forward neighbor. Formally, if the bank chooses A_0^j at date 0 and its forward neighbor pays x at date 1, then this bank's debt payment and equity value can be written as a function $(q_1 [A_0^j, x], q_2 [A_0^j, x])$. However, the bank chooses A_0^j while facing uncertainty about the financial network, and consequently about $x = q_1^j(\sigma)$. More specifically, the bank knows that x lies in some interval:

$$\left[x^{worst} = \min_{\mathbf{b}(\tilde{\sigma}) \in \mathcal{B}^j(\sigma)} q_1^j(\tilde{\sigma}), x^{best} = \max_{\mathbf{b}(\tilde{\sigma}) \in \mathcal{B}^j(\sigma)} q_1^j(\tilde{\sigma}) \right],$$

but it is uncertain about the exact location of x in this interval. Note also that $q_1 [A_0^j, x]$ and $q_2 [A_0^j, x]$ are weakly increasing in x for any choice of action. That is, the bank's debt and equity payments are increasing in the amount it receives from its forward neighbor regardless of the ex-ante precautionary measure it takes. In view of the minimax optimization [cf. problem (13)], it follows that the bank will choose its action as if it will receive the lowest possible payment, x^{worst} . Using the analysis in Section 3.1, it follows that the bank chooses the precautionary action, $A_0^j = S$, if and only if its liquidity need is strictly positive under the lowest possible payment, x^{worst} . This completes the characterization of banks' optimal actions.

Proof of Proposition 3.

Case (i): $\theta \leq 2l(p)$. The statement of the proposition can be rewritten as follows. First, banks with distance $k < K(p)$ are insolvent (they pay, $q_1^j < z$), while banks with distance $k \geq K(p)$ are solvent. Second, banks with distance $k \leq K(p)$ choose the precautionary action, $A_0^j = S$, while banks with distance $k > K(p)$ choose the aggressive action, $A_0^j = B$. We prove a stronger claim that banks' payoffs (and thus solvencies) and actions are the same as in the no-uncertainty benchmark (which is characterized in Proposition 1).

To prove this claim, it suffices to show that the payments and actions of the no-uncertainty benchmark constitute a partial equilibrium also in this case. To show this, first consider the actions of banks with distance $k \leq 1$. Recall that these banks' optimal actions are characterized exactly as in the no-uncertainty benchmark. Moreover, in the conjectured equilibrium, they receive the same payment from their forward neighbors, $x = Q_1[k - 1]$, as in the no-uncertainty benchmark. Consequently, they optimally choose the same actions. Next consider the actions of banks with distance $k \geq 2$. Recall that these banks act as if they are at distance 2. Since $\theta \leq 2l(p)$, the cascade size satisfies $K(p) \leq 1$. This implies $Q_1[1] = z$, that is, the bank at distance 2 does not make any losses from cross-claims. Consequently, banks with distance $k \geq 2$ optimally choose the aggressive action, $A_0^j = B$. For this parameterization (which implies $K(p) \leq 1$), these banks choose the aggressive action also in the no-uncertainty benchmark. It follows that actions chosen in the no-uncertainty benchmark are also optimal in this case. Given the same set of actions, banks payments are also the same.

This analysis also verifies for this case that the banks' actions and payments can be written as a function of their distance [cf. Eq. 14]. Moreover, the function $Q_1[k]$ is weakly increasing because it is the same as in the no-uncertainty benchmark.

Case (ii): $\theta > 2l(p)$. In this case, the proposition can be rewritten as follows. First, banks with distance $k < K(p)$ are insolvent, while banks with distance $k \geq K(p)$ are solvent. Second, all banks choose the precautionary action, $A_0^j = S$.

To prove this claim, first consider the banks with distance $k \leq 1$. Since the original distressed bank, b^0 , receives $Q_1[n - 1] = z$ from its forward neighbor, it can be seen that these banks' optimal actions and payments are the same as in the no-uncertainty benchmark. Since $\theta > 2l(p)$, the cascade size satisfies $K(p) \geq 2$. Consequently, banks with distance $k \leq 1$ are insolvent and they choose $A_0^j = S$, proving the claim for these banks.

Consider next the banks with distance $k \geq 2$. Recall that these banks act as if they are at distance $\tilde{k} = 2$. Given the characterization for banks with distance $k \leq 1$, the bank at distance $\tilde{k} = 2$ receives the payment, $Q_1[1]$, which is the same as in the no-uncertainty benchmark. Consequently, these banks choose the action that the bank at distance $\tilde{k} = 2$ would choose in the no-uncertainty benchmark. Since $K(p) \geq 2$, all of these banks optimally choose the precautionary action, $A_0^j = S$. Consider also the payments of these banks. It can be checked that the banks with distance $k \leq K(p) - 1$ are insolvent and their debt payments and equity values are the same as in the no-uncertainty economy. The transition bank with distance $K(p)$ is solvent and its debt payment and equity value

is also the same as in the no-uncertainty economy. The banks with distance $k \geq K(p) + 1$ are also solvent and they pay $Q_1[k] = z$ on their debt. However, the equity values of these banks are different than the no-uncertainty economy. In particular, the equity value of a bank with distance $k \geq K(p) + 1$ is given by

$$Q_2[k] = y + (1 - y)p < R.$$

This discussion proves the claim also for banks with distance $k \geq 2$, and completes the proof of the proposition.

This analysis also verifies for this case that the banks' actions and payments can be written as function of their distance [cf. Eq. 14]. Moreover, the function $Q_1[k]$ is weakly increasing because it is the same as in the no-uncertainty benchmark. ■

Proof of Proposition 4. Provided in the text.

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