

Japan Economic Adviser

Research Analysts
Hiromichi Shirakawa
+ 81 3 4550 7117
hiromichi.shirakawa@credit-suisse.com

Takashi Shiono
+81 3 4550 7189
takashi.shiono@credit-suisse.com

Too early to expect an end to corporate deleveraging in Japan?

- Corporate debt outstanding to cash flow on an all firm basis has recently declined to the level seen in the late-1970s, having suggested that Japan's corporate deleveraging has made substantial progress
- The progress in corporate deleveraging by this measure during 2000s is largely attributable to expansion of corporate cash flows, even amid the deflationary economic environment; the so-called corporate profit share has been on a rising trend as growth of labor productivity has essentially outpaced that of real wages
- Reduction in total hours worked, driven by an increasing share of non-fulltime workers, has been the main contributor to the higher growth rates of labor productivity and hence to the progress in corporate deleveraging
- Looking ahead, we believe that there will be two headwinds preventing corporate profit share from rising continuously, namely 1) peaking-out of the share of non-regular workers under the government's initiatives, and 2) shrinking labor supply, mainly due to the exit of baby-boomers from the labor markets, which would likely lead to a rise in the unit or hourly wage
- Should corporate expectations that profit share will continue to rise be reversed, incentives to deleverage would strengthen and corporate capital expenditure would remain depressed; what's worse, this could lead to even weaker growth of labor productivity and probably even a lower corporate profit share
- Such a vicious circle remains a possibility as the prospect for strong goods inflation is gloomy for the foreseeable future, in our view, even though we think that a deflationary output gap may shrink gradually as the capital stock ages

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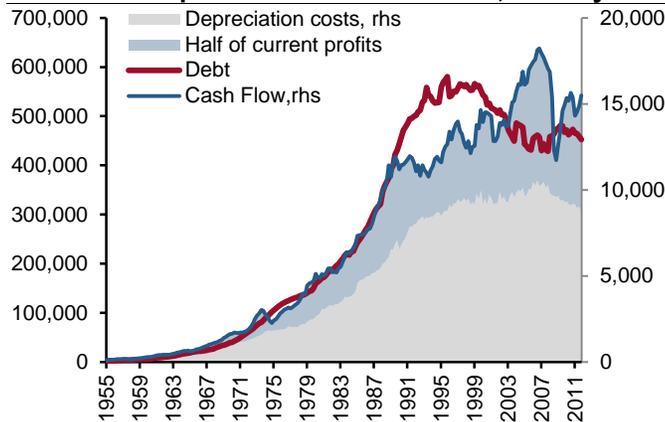
1. Japanese corporate deleveraging has made progress

The total amount of interest-bearing debt¹ owed by Japan's nonfinancial corporate sector moved into a downtrend after peaking in 1995, just as the economy began to recover from the collapse of the asset bubble in the early-1990s (Exhibit 1). The ratio of interest-bearing debt to cash flow² also started falling in 1995 (Exhibit 2).

The ratio had been on a stable uptrend since the 1950s, except for swings during the second half of the 1970s, but it rose substantially toward the mid-1990s following the collapse of the asset bubble as corporate profitability deteriorated and many firms increased borrowing in the face of liquidity shortages. The banking sector meanwhile failed to address their nonperforming loan problems. This procrastination ultimately resulted in several financial institution failures from late 1997 through 1998, and it was around this time that the corporate sector moved into deleveraging mode.

Japanese firms (particularly exporters) saw quite remarkable profit growth during the 2003–2007 boom years as they benefited from robust global economic growth, but continued to pay down debt in quite substantial amounts rather than stepping up their capital spending. The ratio of debt to cash flow dropped materially then, followed by a rise in late-2008/early-2009 due to the post-Lehman Brothers plunge in corporate profits. Yet, the ratio soon moved back into its ongoing downtrend. With the ratio of debt to cash flow now back at pre-bubble levels or at late-1970s levels, it may indeed seem reasonable to conclude that so-called "balance sheet adjustments"—the reversal of previous overleveraging—are now largely complete³.

Exhibit 1: Corporate debt and cash flow, billion yen



Source: MoF, BoJ, Credit Suisse

Exhibit 2: Debt to cash flow ratio (times)



Source: MoF, BoJ, Credit Suisse

¹ The sum of short-term borrowings, long-term borrowings, and outstanding bonds based on data from the Ministry of Finance's *Financial Statements Statistics of Corporations by Industry*.

² Using data from the *Financial Statements Statistics of Corporations by Industry*, we have defined cash flow = 0.5 * ordinary profits + depreciation.

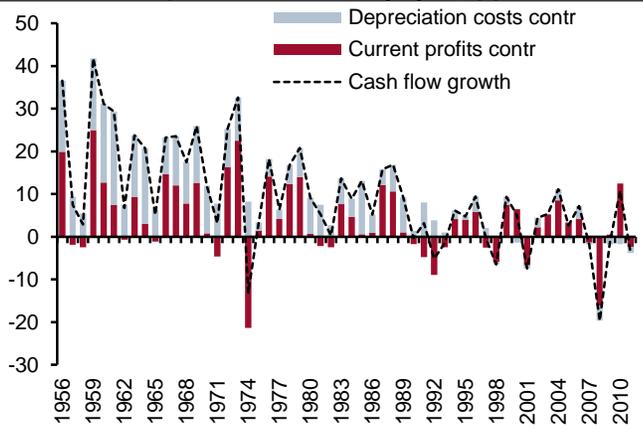
³ Looking at the "lending attitude of financial institutions" diffusion index from the Bank of Japan's Tankan survey on an all-enterprises basis, we note that the post-bubble increase in nonperforming loans only resulted in a tightening of lending standards from 1997 through 2003 (Exhibit 5). If balance sheet adjustments by the nonfinancial corporate sector were primarily aimed at overcoming difficulties in raising funds externally (and the associated liquidity problems and default concerns), then one might reasonably expect such adjustments to have been completed by now. The fact that the ratio of debt to cash flow continues to decline for nonfinancial firms suggests that deleveraging has also been driven by some factor other than "ordinary" balance sheet adjustments, with this factor particularly influential over the past few years.

2. The progress in deleveraging resulted from a reduction in hours worked

The progress in corporate deleveraging by this measure during the 2000s is largely attributable to expansion of corporate cash flows, even amid the deflationary economic environment. Importantly, the so-called corporate profit share (corporate current profits to GDP) has been on a rising trend as growth of labor productivity has essentially outpaced that of real wages.

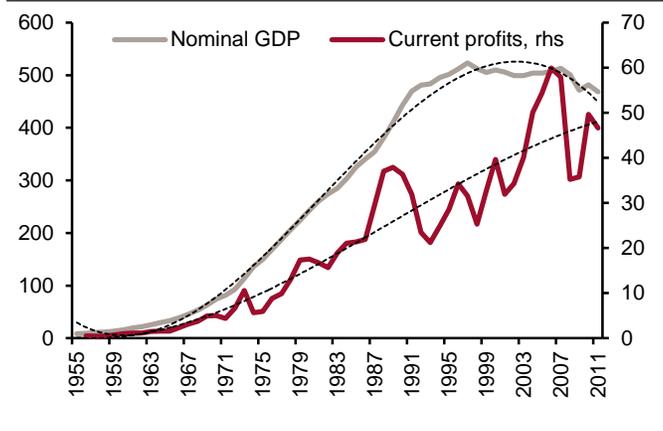
In the simplest terms, corporate cash flow at the macroeconomic level is composed of after-tax profits (assumed to be equal to 50% of pre-tax current profits) and depreciation costs (Exhibits 1 and 3). Expansion of corporate cash flow has been mainly due to growing profits, since depreciation costs have trended down. It is worth noting that profits have "decoupled" from nominal GDP in recent years (Exhibit 4), as current profits have kept climbing (albeit at a slowing pace) despite a relatively steady contraction to nominal GDP and hence the ratio of current profits to nominal GDP ("corporate profit share") has been rising since 2003.

Exhibit 3: Breakdown of cash flow growth into profits and depreciation costs, yoy %, pp



Source: MoF, Credit Suisse

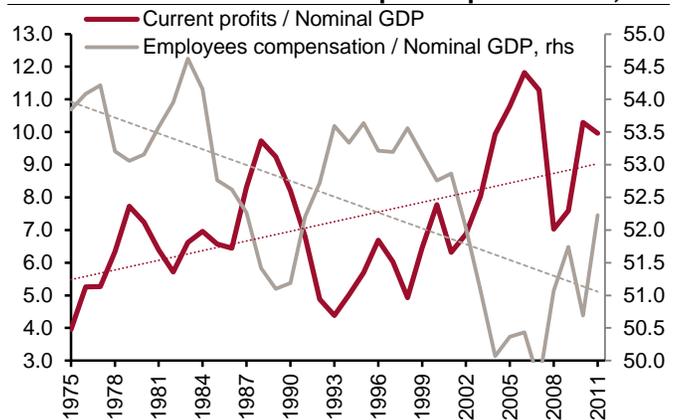
Exhibit 4: Nominal GDP and current profits, trn yen



Source: Cabinet Office, MoF, Credit Suisse

During an increase in corporate profit share, the labor share of profits (employees' compensation to GDP) tends to decline (Exhibit 5). Given that the labor share is equal to the real wage multiplied by the reciprocal of labor productivity⁴, corporate profit share rises as long as real wage growth is kept lower than labor productivity growth (see the equation on the next page). This phenomenon has actually occurred on the background of expanding corporate cash flows since 2003.

Exhibit 5: Labor share vs. corporate profit share, %



Source: Cabinet Office, MoF, Credit Suisse

⁴ Here we have divided the hourly wage (nominal employee compensation / man-hour labor inputs) by the GDP deflator to obtain the real wage, and have divided real GDP by man-hour labor inputs to obtain our measure of labor productivity.

$$1 - CapS \doteq LS = \frac{W \cdot L \cdot H}{P \cdot Y} = \frac{W}{P} \cdot \frac{1}{LP}$$

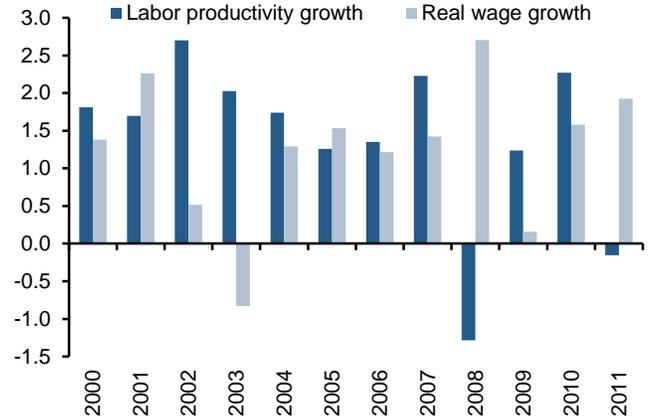
CapS : Profit share , *LS* : Labor share , *W* : wage per hour , *L* : Working population , *H* : Total hours worked ,
P : GDP deflator , *Y* : Real GDP , *LP* : Labor productivity

Exhibit 6: Real wage and labor productivity (2000=100)



Source: Cabinet Office, MIC, Credit Suisse

Exhibit 7: Labor productivity growth and real wage growth

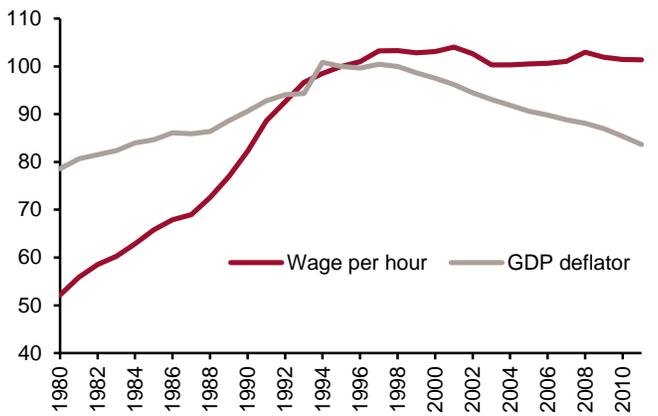


Source: Cabinet Office, MIC, Credit Suisse

Historical data actually show that the level and the growth rate of labor productivity have consistently exceeded those of real wages, with a major exception being right after the Lehman Brothers shock in 2008 (Exhibit 6, 7).

The rising trend of real wages has been mainly due to sticky nominal hourly wages (Exhibit 8) which forced companies to cut real labor input, with the goal of maintaining profitability. As seen from Exhibit 9, many firms have cut total hours worked.

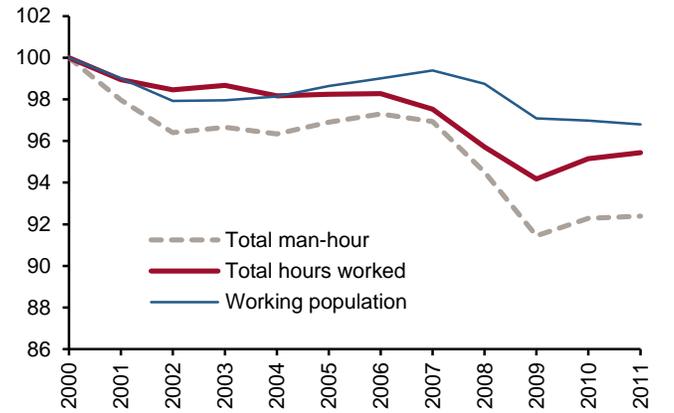
Exhibit 8: GDP deflator and nominal wage per hour (1995=100)



Source: Cabinet Office, MHLW, Credit Suisse

In other words, companies have been able to keep labor productivity growing by reducing per capita work hours. Importantly, the contribution from capital input should have been limited under deleveraging and declines in corporate capex. In addition, the total number of workers actually rose from 2003 through 2007 and has not been reduced significantly since then. Thus, reduction in the labor input has relied almost entirely on the shortening of work hours

Exhibit 9: Labor input and its breakdown



Source: Cabinet Office, MHLW, Credit Suisse

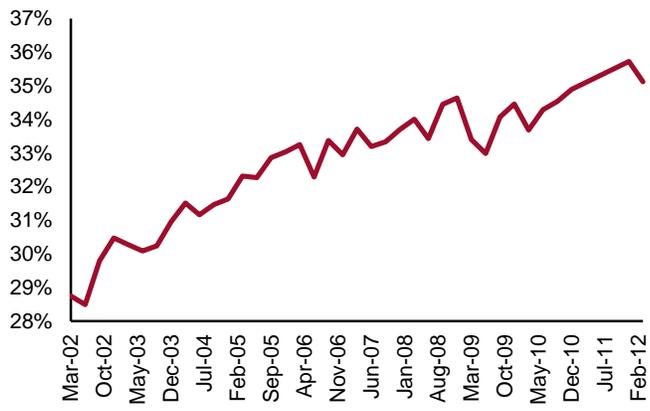
(greater use of part-time and non-regular workers). To summarize, the steady rise in the corporate profit share since 2000 has reflected improvements in hourly output made possible by increasingly flexible work practices and a more mobile work force.

3. Too early to expect an end to corporate deleveraging in Japan?

Looking ahead, we believe that there will be two headwinds preventing corporate profit share from rising continuously, namely 1) peaking-out of the share of non-regular workers under the government's initiatives, and 2) shrinking labor supply, mainly due to the exit of baby-boomers from the labor markets, which would likely lead to a rise in the unit or hourly wage.

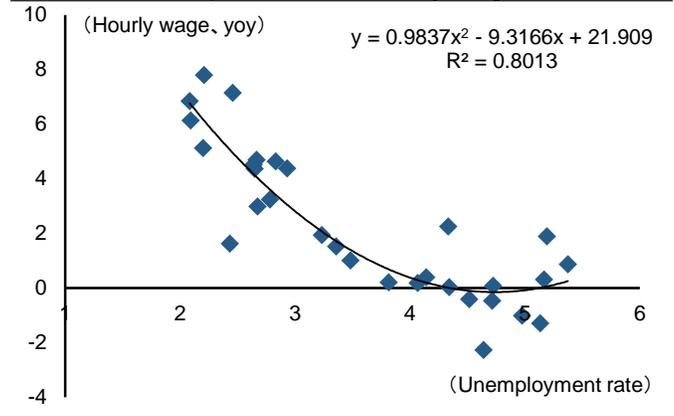
The share of cheaper non-regular workers may hit a peak soon (Exhibit 10), as social concerns for income disparity has put pressures on the government to initiate promotion of non-regular workers to regular positions. Also, the impact of an aging-driven decline in the number of workers is likely to be felt in the labor market sooner than in the goods market. Worker shortages can be expected to generate upward pressure on (nominal) hourly wages (Exhibit 11).

Exhibit 10: Share of non-regular workers, %



Source: MIC, Credit Suisse

Exhibit 11: Philips curve on hourly wage



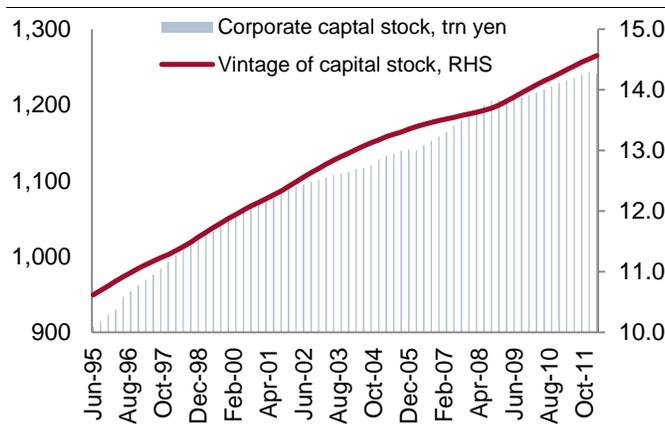
Source: MHLW, Credit Suisse

Should corporate expectations that profit share will continue to rise be reversed amid such a tightening labor market, incentives to deleverage would strengthen and corporate capital expenditure would remain depressed; this could lead to even weaker growth of labor productivity and probably even a lower corporate profit share.

Keeping corporate profit share on an uptrend may therefore be impossible without price increases. If the inflation rate for the GDP deflator can be driven up well beyond the likely pace of nominal wage growth, then this could limit real wage growth to levels commensurate with further increases in corporate profit share. Boosting the GDP deflator inflation rate in this way would require a higher inflation rate for the domestic demand deflator. Moreover, this increase would need to be sufficient to offset the negative impact of any imported inflation attributable to high international commodity prices or other factors.

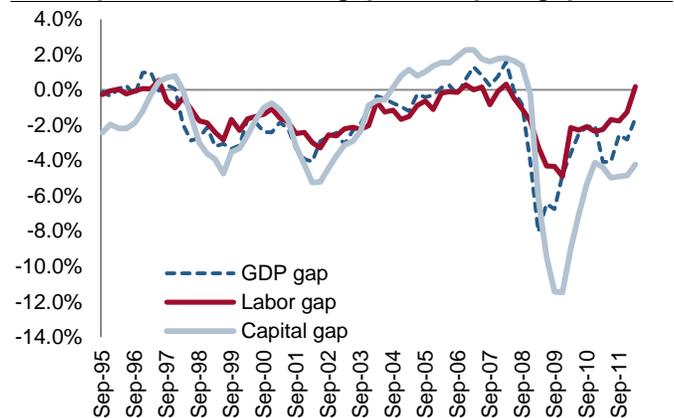
Such a vicious circle remains a possibility as the prospect for strong goods inflation (to reduce real wages) is gloomy for the foreseeable future, in our view, even though we think that a deflationary output gap may shrink gradually as capital stock ages (Exhibit 12). That is because we expect the deflationary gap to be filled sooner in the labor market (labor gap) than in the overall goods market (GDP gap, Exhibit 13).

Exhibit 12: Corporate capital stock and its vintage



Source: Cabinet Office, MIC, MHLW, Credit Suisse

Exhibit 13: Estimated zero inflation GDP gap: decomposition into labor gap and capital gap



Note: All gaps are rate of deviation between actual and potential levels
Source: Cabinet Office, MIC, MHLW, Credit Suisse

GLOBAL FIXED INCOME AND ECONOMIC RESEARCH

Dr. Neal Soss, Managing Director
 Chief Economist and Global Head of Economic Research
 +1 212 325 3335
 neal.soss@credit-suisse.com

Eric Miller, Managing Director
 Global Head of Fixed Income and Economic Research
 +1 212 538 6480
 eric.miller.3@credit-suisse.com

US AND CANADA ECONOMICS

Dr. Neal Soss, Managing Director
 Head of US Economics
 +1 212 325 3335
 neal.soss@credit-suisse.com

Jonathan Basile, Director
 +1 212 538 1436
 jonathan.basile@credit-suisse.com

Jay Feldman, Director
 +1 212 325 7634
 jay.feldman@credit-suisse.com

Henry Mo, Director
 +1 212 538 0327
 henry.mo@credit-suisse.com

Dana Saporta, Director
 +1 212 538 3163
 dana.saporta@credit-suisse.com

Jill Brown, Vice President
 +1 212 325 1578
 jill.brown@credit-suisse.com

Isaac Lebwahl, Associate
 +1 212 538 1906
 isaac.lebwahl@credit-suisse.com

Peggy Riordan, AVP
 +1 212 325 7525
 peggy.riordan@credit-suisse.com

LATIN AMERICA ECONOMICS AND STRATEGY

Alonso Cervera, Managing Director
 Head of Non-Brazil Latam Economics
 +52 55 5283 3845
 alonso.cervera@credit-suisse.com
 Mexico, Chile, Colombia

Casey Reckman, Vice President
 +1 212 325 5570
 casey.reckman@credit-suisse.com
 Argentina, Venezuela

Daniel Chodos, Vice President
 +1 212 325 7708
 daniel.chodos@credit-suisse.com
 Latam Strategy

Nilson Teixeira, Managing Director
 Head of Brazil Economics
 +55 11 3701 6288
 nilson.teixeira@credit-suisse.com

Daniel Lavarda, Vice President
 +55 11 3701 6352
 daniel.lavarda@credit-suisse.com
 Brazil

Tales Rabelo, Vice President
 +55 11 3701 6353
 tales.rabelo@credit-suisse.com
 Brazil

Iana Ferrao, Associate
 +55 11 3701 6345
 iana.ferrao@credit-suisse.com
 Brazil

Leonardo Fonseca, Associate
 +55 11 3701 6348
 leonardo.fonseca@credit-suisse.com
 Brazil

EURO AREA AND UK ECONOMICS

Neville Hill, Director
 Head of European Economics
 +44 20 7888 1334
 neville.hill@credit-suisse.com

Christel Aranda-Hassel, Director
 +44 20 7888 1383
 christel.aranda-hassel@credit-suisse.com

Giovanni Zanni, Director
 European Economics – Paris
 +33 1 70 39 0132
 giovanni.zanni@credit-suisse.com

Violante di Canossa, Vice President
 +44 20 7883 4192
 violante.dicanossa@credit-suisse.com

Axel Lang, Analyst
 +44 20 7883 3738
 axel.lang@credit-suisse.com

Steven Bryce, Analyst
 +44 20 7883 7360
 steven.bryce@credit-suisse.com

Yiagos Alexopoulos, Analyst
 +44 20 7888 7536
 yiagos.alexopoulos@credit-suisse.com

EASTERN EUROPE, MIDDLE EAST & AFRICA ECONOMICS AND STRATEGY

Berna Bayazitoglu, Managing Director
 Head of EEMEA Economics
 +44 20 7883 3431
 berna.bayazitoglu@credit-suisse.com
 Turkey

Sergei Voloboev, Director
 +44 20 7888 3694
 sergei.voloboev@credit-suisse.com
 Russia, Ukraine, Kazakhstan

Carlos Teixeira, Director
 +27 11 012 8054
 carlos.teixeira@credit-suisse.com
 South Africa

Gergely Hudecz, Vice President
 +33 1 7039 0103
 gergely.hudecz@credit-suisse.com
 Czech Republic, Hungary, Poland

Alexey Pogorelov, Associate
 +7 495 967 8772
 alexey.pogorelov@credit-suisse.com
 Russia, Ukraine, Kazakhstan

Natig Mustafayev, Associate
 +44 20 7888 1065
 natig.mustafayev@credit-suisse.com
 EM and EEMEA cross-country analysis

Saad Siddiqui, Associate
 +44 20 7888 9464
 saad.siddiqui@credit-suisse.com
 EEMEA Strategy

Nimrod Mevorach, Associate
 +44 20 7888 1257
 nimrod.mevorach@credit-suisse.com
 EEMEA Strategy, Israel

JAPAN ECONOMICS

Hirokichi Shirakawa, Managing Director
 +81 3 4550 7117
 hirokichi.shirakawa@credit-suisse.com

Takashi Shiono, Associate
 +81 3 4550 7189
 takashi.shiono@credit-suisse.com

NON-JAPAN ASIA ECONOMICS

Dong Tao, Managing Director
 Head of NJA Economics
 +852 2101 7469
 dong.tao@credit-suisse.com
 China

Robert Prior-Wandesforde, Director
 +65 6212 3707
 robert.priorwandesforde@credit-suisse.com
 Regional, India, Indonesia, Singapore

Christiaan Tuntono, Vice President
 +852 2101 7409
 christiaan.tuntono@credit-suisse.com
 Hong Kong, Korea, Taiwan

Santitam Sathirathai, Vice President
 +65 6212 5675
 santitam.sathirathai@credit-suisse.com
 Malaysia, Philippines, Thailand

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