Capital, Ideas, and the Costs of Financial Frictions*

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Abstract

We study the role of financial frictions in determining the allocation of investment and innovation. Empirically, we find that established firms are investment-intensive when they have low net worth but become innovation-intensive as they accumulate net worth. To interpret these findings, we develop an endogenous growth model with heterogeneous firms and financial frictions. In our model, firms are investment-intensive when they have low net worth because their returns to capital are high. Financial frictions determine the rate at which firms drive down the returns to capital and shift towards innovation. Quantitatively, the aggregate losses due to lower innovation are large, even though the allocation of capital to existing ideas is comparatively efficient. If innovation has positive spillovers, a planner would lower investment among constrained firms to finance more innovation. An innovation subsidy does not generate the correct distribution of investment and innovation to exactly decentralize this outcome.

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1 Introduction

In the long run, economic growth is driven by new ideas which push out the technological frontier. While many of these ideas are generated by brand new firms entering the economy, a substantial share of new ideas come from established firms already in the economy. In this project, we study the innovation decisions of established firms because they face a joint tradeoff: since they already have ideas in place, these firms must decide not only how much to innovate — creating new ideas — but also how much to invest in capital — scaling up production using existing ideas. To the extent that a firm is financially constrained, these two activities will compete for the same funds within the firm. At the micro level, how do financial frictions distort the mix of investment and innovation within firms? At the macro level, do these distortions quantitatively matter for economic growth?

We address these questions using new firm-level evidence and an endogenous growth model with heterogeneous firms subject to financial frictions. Empirically, we find that established firms are investment-intensive when they have low net worth but become innovation-intensive as they accumulate more net worth. Our model matches this finding because firms with low net worth have a high return to capital which crowds out innovation. At the micro level, financial frictions slow the rate at which firms accumulate capital, drive down its return, and shift into becoming innovation-intensive. At the macro level, this lower innovation reduces economic growth. We calibrate the model to the US economy and find that the resulting long-run output losses from lower growth are large, even though the allocation of capital to existing ideas is relatively efficient in comparison. To the extent that innovation has positive spillovers, this allocation is not constrained efficient; a planner would raise innovation and lower investment expenditures among constrained firms. A simple innovation subsidy does not generate the correct distribution of investment and innovation across firms to fully achieve this goal.

Our analysis in this paper focuses on established firms, which already have at least one "scalable idea," i.e., an idea which requires meaningful capital investment to bring to market. In contrast, we view the smallest and youngest firms in the economy as focused on creating their first scalable idea, leading them to be highly innovation-intensive (consistent with the empirical evidence in, for example, Akcigit and Kerr (2018)). By definition, these firms do not yet face the tradeoff between investment and innovation which motivates our analysis.

Our empirical sample of established firms is drawn from Compustat, a panel of publicly-listed US firms. To our knowledge, Compustat is the only US panel dataset that measures our outcomes of interest (investment and innovation expenditures) as well as the financial position of the firm. However, Compustat is a highly selected subset of established firms because it only contains firms with publicly traded equity or debt. We address this issue by calibrating our model to a broad set of firms in the economy and explicitly modeling selection into Compustat.

We uncover two key results about how investment and innovation depend on firms' financial position. First, firms become *less* investment-intensive as they accumulate net worth in the sense that their physical investment rates decline over time. Second, firms become *more* innovation-intensive as they accumulate net worth in the sense that their R&D rates and patenting rates increase over time.

We refer to these findings as a *pecking order of firm growth* because firms primarily grow through accumulating capital when they have low net worth but primarily grow through producing new ideas when they have high net worth. We infer that firms prioritize investment over innovation when they face a high shadow price of external finance, as proxied by having low net worth. We find similar patterns using other proxies for that shadow price, such as size — firms are investment-intensive when they are small but innovation-intensive when they are large — and age — firms are investment-intensive when they are young but innovation-intensive when they are old.

Motivated by this evidence, we develop a heterogeneous-firm endogenous growth model in which firms face financial constraints. Given our focus on established firms, firms in our model are initially endowed with their first scalable idea, embodied in their productivity, from the existing stock of ideas in the economy. Firms must then decide how much resources to spend on investment, which increases the capital stock used in production, and how much to spend on innovation, which increases the probability of receiving a new idea and raising the firm's productivity. The firm's mix of investment and innovation is determined by the relative return on these two activities. The return to capital is its marginal product and collateral value in external finance, while the return to innovation is the probability of generating a new idea times the present value of that idea to the firm.

Our model generates a pecking order of firm growth similar to the data. Firms with low levels of net worth are investment-intensive because the returns to capital are high, both because their marginal product of capital is high and, being financially constrained, because they place a high value on capital's use as collateral. As a firm accumulates net worth, the return to capital falls, and the firm slowly shifts into becoming innovation-intensive. Financial frictions control how quickly firms become innovation-intensive because they determine how quickly firms can drive down the returns to capital.

The quantitative strength of the model's pecking order is governed not only by the financial frictions but also the innovation technology, which determines the return to innovation. Inferring the properties of this technology is difficult because new ideas are difficult to measure in the data. We infer the realization of new ideas using what firms reveal to us through their forward-looking investment decisions. In particular, our model predicts that, among unconstrained firms, new ideas should generate investment spikes — short-lived bursts of investment — in order to implement the new ideas in production. Consistent with this prediction, past R&D expenditures are strongly associated with investment spikes in our Compustat data; having one standard deviation higher R&D increases the probability of a spike in the following year by approximately 30%. We calibrate our model to match this finding as well as other features of firms' investment, R&D, and borrowing in the U.S.

We validate our calibrated model using new empirical evidence on the response of innovation to changes in the after-tax price of investment induced by the Bonus Depreciation Allowance. In particular, we show that our model quantitatively replicates two findings. First, lower investment taxes raises both investment R&D expenditures, consistent with their complementarity in production. Second, the increase in R&D expenditures is larger for small firms, consistent with the role of financial frictions in our model.

We then use our calibrated model to quantify the long-run costs of financial frictions. To do so, we compare the balanced growth path in our model to a frictionless version of the model in which firms face no financial constraints. The frictionless model has no pecking order of firm growth because firms immediately accumulate their optimal scale of capital and begin innovating. Because financial frictions slow down the rate at which firms become innovation-intensive, they reduce the total amount of innovation in the economy, lowering the growth rate of aggregate TFP. In addition, financial frictions also misallocate capital given the current distribution of productivity, lowering the level of TFP.

Quantitatively, we find that financial frictions lower the aggregate growth rate by more than 40 basis points per year, leading to substantial long-run output losses when cumulated over time. For example, lower growth reduces GDP by nearly 25% over fifty years. We show that this result holds for a range of parameter values governing the innovation technology, financial frictions, innovation spillovers, and firm entry. These large effects of financial frictions on growth occur even though the output losses from capital misallocation are comparatively modest (with an upper bound of 5%). In other words, for the US economy, financial frictions have large long-run costs because fewer new ideas are discovered, even though good ideas are able to attract funding once they are discovered.

To the extent that innovation generates positive spillovers, the equilibrium allocation is socially inefficient, opening the door to policy intervention. In order to understand the nature of the externality, we first study the allocation chosen by a planner who internalizes the positive spillovers but is subject to the same financial constraints as individual firms. Clearly, the planner wants higher innovation, so we focus on the subtler question of how the planner reallocates investment in order to support this goal.

The planner faces a tradeoff for investment because of financial frictions: higher innovation requires lower investment expenditures for constrained firms (in order to finance higher innovation) but incentivizes higher investment for unconstrained firms (due to the complementarity of productivity and capital). We study how the planner balances these forces along a transition path starting from the equilibrium BGP. In the early phase of this transition, the substitutability for constrained firms dominates in the sense that aggregate investment initially falls. Over time, however, the resulting growth builds up the distribution of net worth and eventually the complementarity for unconstrained firms dominates in the sense that aggregate investment increases.

While simple policies can partially decentralize the planner's allocation, they are not fully successful because they do not produce the same distribution of investment and innovation across firms. We illustrate this finding by computing the effects of an innovation subsidy that increases aggregate innovation expenditures by the same amount as the social planner. But despite generating the same aggregate amount of innovation expenditures, the subsidy raises the aggregate growth rate by 10% less than the planner. This occurs because the subsidy disproportionately increases innovation expenditures among unconstrained firms who have a low marginal return to innovation.

Related Literature Our findings contribute to our understanding of the aggregate costs of financial frictions. The existing quantitative macro literature about financial frictions has primarily focused on how the frictions affect the allocation of inputs across firms (see, e.g., Buera, Kaboski and Shin (2011), Midrigan and Xu (2014), or Moll (2014)). However, these papers abstract from innovation decisions, so the costs of financial frictions only arise from distorting inputs as a function of productivity.[1] In our model, financial frictions also distort the distribution of productivity by affecting innovation.

Our model combines elements of the Hopenhayn (1992) framework, in which firm dynamics are determined given an exogenous process for productivity, and the Schumpeterian growth framework pioneered by Aghion and Howitt (1992) and Grossman and Helpman (1991), and more recently used in quantitative analyses by, e.g., Klette and Kortum (2004), Akcigit and Kerr (2018), or Acemoglu et al. (2018). We contribute to this Schumpeterian literature by incorporating capital accumulation and sluggish input dynamics induced by financial frictions.[2]

A key feature of Hopenhayn (1992) is decreasing returns to scale, which implies that firms have an optimal scale given their level of productivity. The literature has studied how various

[1] Midrigan and Xu (2014) allow financial frictions to affect whether firms enter the "modern" sector which has a better production technology. This adoption margin is complementary to the innovation margin we study here.

[2] Our focus on differences in innovation intensity across firms is most closely related to Akcigit and Kerr (2018), who study how firms choose between two different types of innovation. We abstract from different types of innovation to instead study the choice between innovation and capital investment. In a related vein, Chen and Xu (2023) incorporate both physical capital and R&D investments into an industry equilibrium model (in the tradition of Ericson and Pakes, 1995), abstracting from financial frictions. Our results are also related to the literature on how financial frictions distort the allocation of investment across different types of capital, such as tangible vs. intangible (Garcia-Macia et al., 2017), durable vs. non-durable (Rampini, 2019), new vs. used (Lanteri and Rampini, 2023a), and clean vs. dirty (Lanteri and Rampini, 2023b). Crouzet et al. (2022) develop a model in which firms choose between two different types of capital that differ in their degree of non rivalry.

frictions impede the ability of firms to reach this optimal scale, including financial frictions in, for example, Khan and Thomas (2013). We incorporate innovation into a version of this model, endogenizing the productivity process and therefore the distribution of optimal size. In doing so, we are broadly related to Atkeson and Burstein (2010), who embed innovation decisions in a Melitz (2003)-style model without capital.

In independent work, Sui (2024) also develops a version of the Hopenhayn (1992) model in which firms choose investment and innovation subject to financial frictions in order to study how differences in financial conditions accounts for differences in economic performance across European countries. We view our two papers as highly complementary. Our main contribution is the pecking order of firm growth: we document it in the data, show that it is the key manifestation of financial frictions in the model, and quantitatively assess its implications for both aggregate efficiency and innovation policy.

More broadly, our findings are consistent with a large body of empirical work that provides cross-country, regional, sectoral, firm-level, and case study evidence that better-functioning financial markets lead to higher economic growth (see Levine, 2005, for a detailed survey). There is also a large body of theoretical work about the relationship between financial markets and economic growth (see, e.g., Aghion, Howitt and Levine, 2018, and references therein). We contribute to this literature in at least two ways. First, we focus on how financial frictions distort firms' joint decisions between investment and innovation. Second, we focus on quantifying the aggregate effects of the resulting distortions.

Road Map The rest of our paper is organized as follows. Section 2 elaborates on the set of established firms on which we focus our analysis. Section 3 documents the pecking order of firm growth in the data. Motivated by this evidence, Section 4 develops the model and Section 5 describes how the model matches the pecking order. Section 6 calibrates the key parameters of the model and shows the model matches a number of untargetted moments in the data. Section 7 uses the calibrated model to quantify the aggregate effects of financial frictions. Section 8 shows how innovation spillovers shape the constrained-efficient allocation and evaluates the effects of innovation subsidies and investment tax cuts. Section 9 concludes.

2 Which Firms Are We Thinking About?

The established firms on which we focus our analysis is a particular subset of all firms in the economy. In fact, the vast majority of firms in the economy pursue little to no innovation and their scale is very small, perhaps for non-pecuniary reasons (see Hurst and Pugsley, 2011). We omit these "lifestyle entrepreneurs" from our analysis and instead focus on firms that will eventually innovate and meaningfully contribute to economic growth.

We conceptualize the lifecycle of these innovative firms in two phases. In the *initial phase*, the firm is innovating in order to create its first "scalable idea," i.e. an idea which requires a meaningful capital investment in order to successfully bring to market. Almost by definition, these firms are innovation-intensive because they do not have a project into which they can devote meaningful capital investment. This view is consistent with the vast array of empirical evidence that the smallest and youngest firms in the economy are highly innovation-intensive (see, e.g., Akcigit and Kerr, 2018).

Once a firm successfully creates and implements its first scalable idea, it enters the *established phase*. We focus on this phase because it contains the tradeoff in which we are interested: how much does the firm scale up its existing idea through investment and how much does it to attempt to generate a new idea through innovation? Our empirical evidence on the pecking order of firm growth guides the model we develop to study this tradeoff.

Our Compustat sample is a selected subset of these established firms because it requires that firms have publicly traded debt or equity to be included in the data. This selection skews our empirical sample to contain older and larger firms than the universe of established firms. We address this issue in our economic model by including the universe of established firms and explicitly accounting for the selection into Compustat.

3 Descriptive Evidence

We show that firms are more investment-intensive when they have low net worth but become more innovation-intensive when they have high net worth.

3.1 Data Description

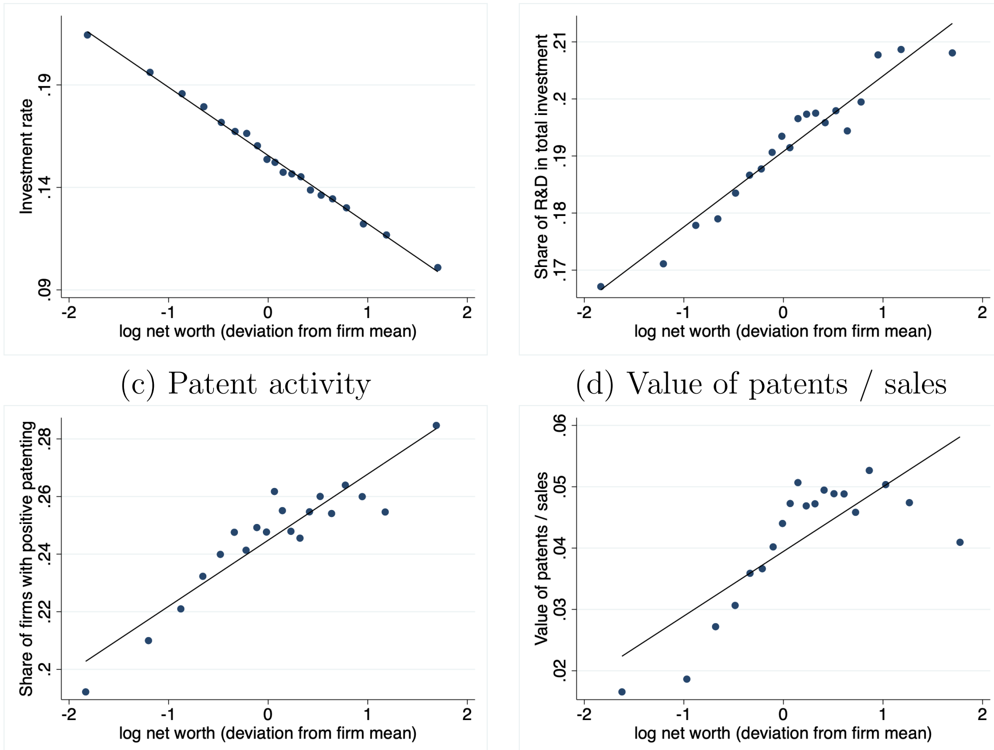
Our main analysis uses annual firm-level data from Compustat, a panel of publicly listed U.S. firms from 1975 – 2018. These data contain a long panel of firms' investment expenditures, R&D expenditures, and financial positions, allowing us to measure our key variables of interest. To our knowledge, Compustat is the only US dataset with these properties.

Our main outcomes of interest are firms' investment and innovation decisions as a function of their net worth. We measure the investment rate as the ratio of capital expenditures to the lagged value of plant, property, and equipment. Innovation activity is more difficult to measure, so we proxy for it in two ways. First, we proxy for the inputs into the innovation process using the *R&D share*, i.e. the ratio of R&D expenditures to the sum of R&D expenditures and capital investment. Second, we proxy for the outputs of the innovation process using approved patents collected from the United States Patent and Trademark Office by Kogan et al. (2017).

We study how these outcomes vary with firms' financial positions to study the effects of financial frictions. Our main measure of financial position is net worth, which is the value of plant, property, and equipment, plus cash and short-term investments, minus total debt. In our model, net worth is the key state variable which determines the shadow price of external finance to the firm. Of course, the empirical variation in net worth is endogenous, and we do not have exogenous variation to identify the causal effect of net worth on investment and innovation. For that reason, we view our empirical results as providing descriptive evidence that firms with low net worth prioritize investment over innovation. In Section 6, we provide additional supportive evidence of the role of financial frictions in our model using firms' response of investment and innovation to changes in the after-tax relative price of investment.

Appendix A describes the details of how we clean the data and presents descriptive statistics of our final sample. For our baseline analysis, we exclude observations associated with acquisitions in order to focus on innovation and investment occurring within firms (though we obtain similar results when including acquisitions).

Figure 1: The Pecking Order of Firm Growth



(a) Investment rates (b) R&D share

(c) Patent activity (d) Value of patents / sales

Notes: Binned scatter plots of investment rates, the R&D share, the share of firms with positive patenting, and the patent-value-to-sales ratio by the log of firm net worth. All variables are demeaned at the firm level. In order to make the units of the outcome variables more interpretable, we add back in the unconditional mean across all firms. For variable definitions and sample selection, see Appendix A.

3.2 The Pecking Order of Firm Growth

We illustrate our pecking order of firm growth using simple binned scatterplots of investment and innovation by net worth. We isolate within-firm variation by de-meaning all variables at the firm level, which is equivalent to using a firm fixed effect in a regression context. We condition on firms with at least twenty years of observations in order to precisely estimate the firm-level mean, but Appendix A shows our results also hold for the whole sample of firms. In order to make the units of the outcome variables more interpretable, we add back in their mean values across all firms for these plots (which is a normalization that does not affect any results).

Figure 1 illustrates our two key empirical results. First, panel (a) shows that firms' investment activity *decreases* as they accumulate net worth; investment rates exceed 0.2

when firms have their lowest levels of net worth but then fall below 0.1 as firms accumulate net worth.[3] This pattern is consistent with the notion that firms face a higher relative return to capital when they have low net worth.

Second, panels (b) – (d) shows that firms' innovation activity instead *increases* as firms accumulate net worth. In terms of innovation inputs, panel (b) shows that the R&D share increases by about 25% as firms accumulate net worth. Appendix A shows that other measures of R&D activity, such as R&D-to-sales or the share of firms with positive R&D expenditures, also increase in net worth.[4]

In terms of innovation outputs, panels (c) and (d) show that patenting activity also increases as firms accumulate net worth. On the extensive margin, panel (c) shows that firms are about 30% less likely per year to obtain a successful patent when they are have low net worth compared to when they have high net worth. On the intensive margin, panel (d) shows that the total market value of those new patents granted in a given year (scaled by firms' sales) doubles as they accumulate net worth.[5] Appendix A shows that other measures of patenting activity, such as the number of new patents per employee or the value of each new patent, are also increasing with net worth. While individually none of these measures of R&D or patenting activity fully captures firms' innovation, they are collectively consistent with the notion that firms face a higher relative return to innovation as they accumulate net worth.

Pecking Order by Size and Age Although net worth maps directly into the shadow price of external finance in our model, the corporate finance literature often uses other measures of size and age to proxy for that shadow price. We now show that our pecking

[3] A potential concern with this result is that the firm's capital stock is a component of net worth as well as the denominator of the investment rate. Of course, that fact does not necessarily imply a mechanical negative relationship between the two variables because investment expenditures, in the numerator of the investment rate, is an endogenous choice. Nevertheless, Table 1 shows that firm-level investment rates are also decreasing in the firms' sales or employment, which have no mechanical relationship with its capital stock. In addition, Appendix Figure A.2 shows that the investment-to-sales ratio is decreasing in net worth.

[4] A potential concern is R&D expenditures are under-reported in the data. We address this concern in Appendix A by conditioning on observations after the firm reports its first positive R&D expenditure and therefore has presumably set up the accounting infrastructure to report R&D going forward. We find similar results in this subsample.

[5] We use Kogan et al. (2017)'s measure of the market value of these patents, i.e. the change in firm equity value in a narrow window around the patent approval. We sum all of these changes that occur within a year to obtain the annual change in the firm's equity value due to new patents.

Table 1
The Pecking Order by Various Measures of Size

	(1) Investment rate	(2) R&D share	(3) Patent activity	(4) Patent-value -to-sales
log net worth				
$\hat{\gamma}$	-0.068	0.024	0.049	0.021
	(0.003)	(0.003)	(0.007)	(0.005)
N	45935	47286	49105	31176
R^2	0.263	0.857	0.639	0.678
log capital				
$\hat{\gamma}$	-0.087	0.026	0.064	0.022
	(0.003)	(0.003)	(0.008)	(0.005)
N	49986	51569	53625	33561
R^2	0.272	0.852	0.633	0.671
log capital including intangibles				
$\hat{\gamma}$	-0.087	0.039	0.046	0.020
	(0.003)	(0.004)	(0.009)	(0.005)
N	44471	44794	46484	30549
R^2	0.282	0.852	0.634	0.670
log employment				
$\hat{\gamma}$	-0.045	0.002	0.110	0.008
	(0.005)	(0.005)	(0.011)	(0.006)
N	45050	45827	47508	30868
R^2	0.207	0.851	0.636	0.673
log sales				
$\hat{\gamma}$	-0.058	0.018	0.094	0.026
	(0.004)	(0.004)	(0.010)	(0.005)
N	49986	51569	53625	33561
R^2	0.218	0.851	0.634	0.671
Mean	0.13	0.16	0.34	0.05

Notes: Results from estimating the regression $o_{jt} = \alpha_j + \gamma \log s_{jt} + \epsilon_{jt}$, where o_{jt} is the outcome of interest (investment rate, R&D share, indicator for positive patenting, or patent-value-to-sales ratio; s_{jt} is the measure of size (net worth, capital, capital including intangibles, sales, employment); and α_j is a firm fixed effect. We standardize the size measures $\log s_{jt}$ over the entire sample. Standard errors, reported in parentheses, are clustered at the firm level. The variable "capital including intangibles" is from Peters and Taylor (2017) and is measured by incorporating both the firm's past investment and R&D expenditures. For variable definitions and sample selection, see Appendix A.

order holds using these alternative sorting variables.

We summarize the pecking order using the regression

$$o_{jt} = \alpha_j + \gamma \log s_{jt} + \epsilon_{jt}, \tag{1}$$

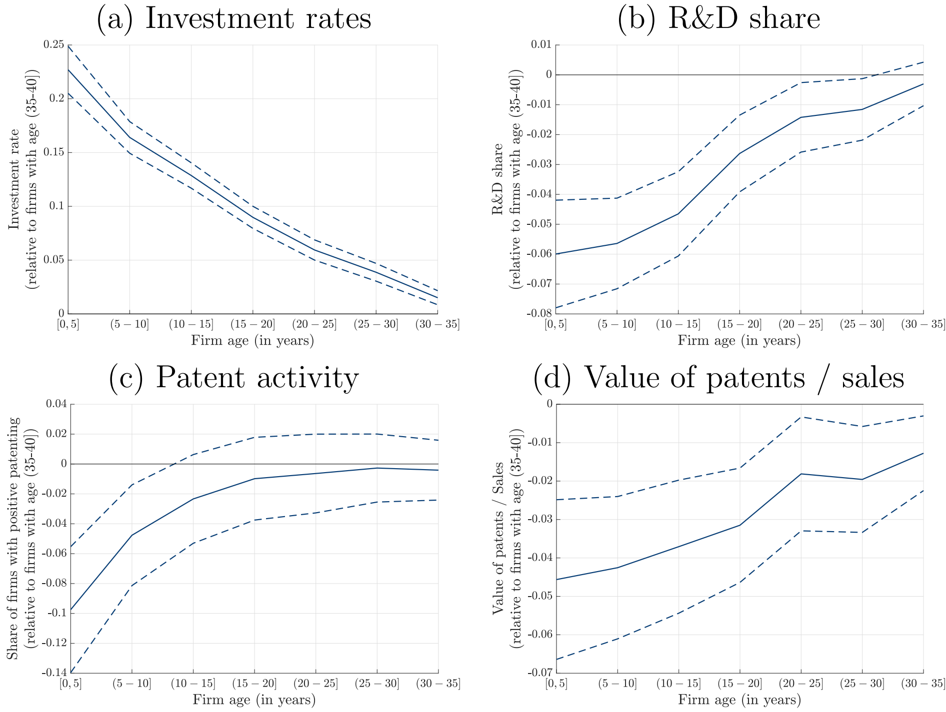
where o_{jt} is the outcome of interest (investment rate, R&D share, indicator for positive patenting, or patent-value-to-sales), s_{jt} is the measure of size (net worth, capital, sales, or employment), and ϵ_{jt} is a residual. The coefficient of interest is γ, which measures how the outcome of interest varies with the particular measure of firm size. We standardize each size variable $\log s_{jt}$ over the entire sample in order to make the units of the coefficient γ easier to interpret. We cluster standard errors at the firm level.

The first row of Table 1 quantifies the magnitudes and statistical significance of the bin-scatters using the regression (1) in which s_{jt} is measured with net worth. Column (1) shows that having one standard deviation more net worth lowers the firm's investment rate by nearly 7 percentage points relative to the unconditional mean of 13 percentage points — a more than 50% decline in investment as firms accumulate net worth. Columns (2) – (4) show that having more net worth systematically raises our various proxies of innovation activity. For example, having one standard-deviation higher net worth increases the market value of that year's patenting activity relative to sales by 2 percentage points, a nearly 40% increase relative to its unconditional mean. All these effects are statistically significant.

The remaining rows of Table 1 show that these patterns hold for the other measures of size. The second and third row proxy for size using physical capital (measured with plant, property, and equipment) or the sum of physical and intangible capital (as measured by Peters and Taylor (2017), which includes physical investment and R&D expenditures). The fourth and fifth rows proxy for size using employment or sales, which are common in the literature. Net worth and these various measures of size are correlated in both the data and our model, so it is reassuring that the magnitudes of the pecking order are similar for all of these measures.

Figure 2 shows the pecking order by firm's age. We use Datastream to obtain age since

FIGURE 2: The Pecking Order by Age



Notes: Results from estimating the regression $o_{jt} = \alpha_j + \sum_{s \in \mathcal{S}} \gamma_s \text{age}_{sjt} + \varepsilon_{jt}$, where o_{jt} is the outcome of interest (investment rate, R&D share, indicator for positive patenting, or patent-value-to-sales); age_{sjt} is a dummy variable that takes the value of 1 if firm's age of incorporation in period t is in group s and zero otherwise; and α_j is a firm fixed effect. We consider the following age groups: $\mathcal{S} \equiv \{[0, 5], (5, 10], (10, 15], (15, 20], (25, 30], (30, 35]\}$. We estimate the regression for firms with age up to 40 years, so the omitted group corresponds to age $(35, 40]$. Standard errors are clustered at the firm level and dashed lines correspond to 90% error bands. Firms' age since incorporation is obtained from Datastream. For other variable definitions and sample selection, see Appendix A.

incorporation (not age since IPO) and estimate the regression

$$o_{jt} = \alpha_j + \sum_{s \in \mathcal{S}} \gamma_s \text{age}_{sjt} + \epsilon_{jt}, \tag{2}$$

where age_{sjt} is a dummy variable that takes the value of 1 if the firm's age of incorporation in period t is within age bin $s \in \mathcal{S} \equiv \{[0, 5], (5, 10], (10, 15], (15, 20], (25, 30], (30, 35]\}$. We estimate the regression for firms with an age up to 40 years—above which the number of observations per bin becomes too small—so the omitted group corresponds to the age range $(35, 40]$. Consistent with our main results, we find that firms are more investment-intensive when they are young but become more innovation-intensive as they become older.

3.3 Additional Results

Appendix A.2 contains a number of robustness checks, which we summarize here:

(i) *Other measures of innovation.* Appendix Figure A.2 shows that our baseline bin-scatter plots look similar for five other measures of innovation inputs: (a) the ratio of R&D expenditures to sales, which is often studied in the literature; (b) the share of firms with positive R&D; (c) the R&D share for firms that have reported positive R&D in the past, and therefore have presumably set up the accounting infrastructure to record formal R&D with less measurement error; (d) the patents-to-employees ratio, another measure often studied in the literature; and (e) the average market value per patent in a given year, a measure of patent quality.

(ii) *Sources of variation.* Appendix Table A.2 shows that the pecking order is robust to using different sources of variation in the data, such as adding time fixed effects to capture trend changes in the composition of investment and innovation.

(iii) *Sample.* Table A.3 shows that the pecking order is also robust when using different samples of firms, such as all firms in the data or further conditioning only on Akcigit and Kerr (2018)'s "continuously innovative firms" that have conducted positive R&D or patenting activity at some point over the last five years.

4 Model

We now develop our model of investment and innovation that is consistent with the evidence presented above. The core of the model is a set of heterogeneous firms who face the tradeoff between investment and innovation. We specify the model in order to capture three salient difference between capital and ideas which generate the pecking order of firm growth:

(i) *Scale*: a given amount of ideas has an optimal scale of capital that can be supported in the market. Past that point, firms must grow by creating new ideas through innovation.

(ii) *Tangibility*: it is easier to sell capital than ideas. This feature implies that capital is more collateralizable in external borrowing.

(iii) *Risk*: scaling up existing ideas through capital investment is less risky than innovating to create a new idea. We will exploit the differences in risk characteristics when calibrating the model in Section 6.[6]

4.1 Environment

We now turn to the specifics of how we capture these salient differences in our model framework. The model is set in discrete time and there is no aggregate uncertainty.

Heterogeneous Firms There is a set of heterogeneous firms that correspond to the established firms in the economy. Each period, there is a fixed flow π_d of new firms that enter with zero debt and draw their initial levels of productivity and capital from some distribution $\Phi_t^0(z, k)$. We assume the initial distribution of productivity for new firms is related to the distribution of productivity among incumbent firms (we will parameterize this dependence in Section 6). Some type of imitation is necessary to ensure the model generates a positive growth rate along the balanced growth path.

One can view these initial conditions as the outcomes of a rich process of firm dynamics during the initial phase described in Section 2. We view these initial phase firms' primary activity as investing in innovation to create their first scalable idea. As a result, their innovation intensity — measured, for example, as the R&D-to-sales ratio or the patents-to-employee ratio — will be the highest in the economy, consistent with Akcigit and Kerr (2018). These firms may also have a limited number of non-scalable products generating sales, so their innovation intensity will also be decreasing in size, again consistent with Akcigit and Kerr (2018). Since these firms have little capital to use as collateral, these firms also rely heavily on equity finance, consistent with the role of venture capital and private equity.[7]

[6] More broadly, one can view our model as a special case of a more general framework in which firms accumulate two assets which differ in their technology, risk, and tangibility properties. We focus on capital and ideas specifically because ideas, being non-rival, are the ultimate source of long-run growth while capital, being rival, is not.

[7] A more formal model of the initial phase could be formulated as follows. Each initial phase firm has a (possible empty) set of non-scalable ideas/products which generate a small flow of sales. The firm's primary activity is spending resources into an innovation technology which generates a probability of receiving a scalable idea. If successful, a scalable idea is drawn from the set of existing ideas among established firms, as in the main text. Any innovation expenditures in excess of current sales must be financed by external equity. Quantifying equity financing frictions requires taking a stand on issues unique to initial phase firms, such as

Production Each firm j an undifferentiated good $y_{jt} = A_t z_{jt} k_{jt}^{\alpha}$ where j indexes a firm, z_{jt} is firm-specific productivity, k_{jt} is the firm's capital stock, and A_t is aggregate productivity.[8] Decreasing returns to capital $\alpha < 1$ ensure there is an optimal scale of the firm for each level of productivity, capturing the *scale* difference between capital and ideas described above. Decreasing returns could capture either a feature of the production technology or, alternatively, diminishing marginal revenue due to a downward-sloping demand curve. In either case, decreasing returns generate positive profits which incentivizes innovation efforts.

After production, a random subset of firms learn that they must exit the economy, in which case they sell their undepreciated capital $(1-\delta)k_{jt}$ and pay back their debt. This exit shock occurs with probability π_d, which is also the inflow of new entrants, ensuring the total mass of firms in production is constant over time. The exit shocks ensures that firms do not outgrow their financial frictions in the long run.

Innovation and Investment Firms that will continue into the next period spend resources on investment and innovation. Investment x_{jt} yield capital in the next period following the standard accumulation equation $k_{jt+1} = (1-\delta)k_{jt} + x_{jt}$. Innovation intensity i_{jt} increases the probability of realizing a successful innovation, $\eta(i_{jt})$. We assume the arrival probability $\eta(i_{jt})$ is increasing, concave, and bounded between 0 and 1. A successful innovation permanently raises productivity by a factor Δ:

$$\log z_{jt+1} = \begin{Bmatrix} \log z_{jt} + \Delta + \varepsilon_{jt+1} \text{ with probability } \eta(i_{jt}) \\ \log z_{jt} + \varepsilon_{jt+1} \text{ with probability } 1-\eta(i_{jt}) \end{Bmatrix}, \tag{3}$$

where $\varepsilon_{jt+1} \sim N(0, \sigma_\varepsilon)$ are idiosyncratic shocks to productivity growth unrelated to innovation. Together, these assumptions capture the *risk* differences between capital and ideas:

concentrated ownership, agency issues with the manager, the value of expertise provided by financiers, etc. Since these frictions are distinct from the financial frictions affecting established firms, we omit the initial phase from our baseline analysis and assume the inflow of firms into the established phase is independent of the degree of financial frictions. In this sense, our results about the aggregate costs of financial frictions should be interpreted as a lower bound.

[8] Appendix B shows that this production function can be derived from a model in which labor is a variable input in production: $y_{jt} = A_t z_{jt} k_{jt}^{\widetilde{\alpha}} \ell_{jt}^{\widetilde{\nu}}$ with $\widetilde{\alpha} + \widetilde{\nu} < 1$. The production function in the main text is equal to the variable profit function $\max_{\ell_{jt}} A_t z_{jt} k_{jt}^{\widetilde{\alpha}} \ell_{jt}^{\widetilde{\nu}} - w_t \ell_{jt}$. In this case, the production parameter α reflects the elasticity of revenue with respect this combination of inputs through $\alpha = \frac{\widetilde{\alpha}}{1-\widetilde{\nu}}$. We calibrate the model under this interpretation.

on the one hand, investment generates future capital with certainty, so its risk comes from shocks to the marginal product of capital. On the other hand, innovation only generates a new idea with uncertainty, but a new idea generates a large discrete jump in productivity. This jump captures the arrival of new technologies, production practices, or new products which are distinct from other idiosyncratic shocks.

The total amount of expenditures required to achieve success probability $\eta(i_{jt})$ is $i_{jt} \times (A_t z_{jt})^{\frac{1}{1-\alpha}}$. This cost specification has two natural properties. First, the fact that it grows along with aggregate productivity ensures the model has a balanced growth path. Second, the fact that it scales with individual productivity implies that all financially unconstrained firms have the same growth rate, a property known as Gibrat's law. This property provides useful benchmark both because it arguably holds among large firms in the data and because it is a common feature of Schumpeterian models. Constrained firms grow faster than unconstrained firms because constrained firms have a higher marginal product of capital.

Firms cannot sell their existing ideas, i.e., innovation expenditures must be non-negative $i_{jt} \geq 0$. In principle, financially constrained firms may have an incentive to sell their ideas in order to finance investment. In practice, the "market for ideas" — licensing arrangements, patent sales, mergers and acquisitions, etc. — is rife with frictions. We view our assumption that $i_{jt} \geq 0$ as the limit in which those frictions are sufficiently large to prevent trade in the market for ideas altogether. These frictions allow the model to generate inaction in innovation rates, which is common in the data.

Financing Firms have two sources of finance for their investment and innovation expenditures. First, they can borrow externally, but this borrowing is subject to the collateral constraint $b_{jt+1} \leq \theta k_{jt+1}$. This constraint can be derived from an environment in which firms lack commitment to repay their debts, lenders can seize a fraction $\frac{\theta}{1-\delta}$ of the firm's collateral in the event of default, and lenders only offer risk-free contracts. We assume that firms can only post physical capital as collateral, capturing the fact that capital is more *tangible* than ideas. In Section 5, we show that our results are robust to allowing firms to partially collateralize ideas through an earnings-based constraint.

Firms can also finance expenditures using their internal resources, but they cannot raise new equity. This assumption implies that dividend payments must be non-negative:

$$d_{jt} = A_t z_{jt} k_{jt}^{\alpha} + (1-\delta)k_{jt} - b_{jt} - k_{jt+1} - (A_t z_{jt})^{\frac{1}{1-\alpha}} i_{jt} + \frac{b_{jt+1}}{1+r_t} \geq 0.$$

This no equity-issuance constraint is a parsimonious way of capturing the fact that seasoned equity offerings are relatively rare among established firms.

Innovation Spillovers Aggregate productivity A_t captures the positive spillovers from one firms' innovation decisions onto others:

$$A_t = \left(\int z_{jt} dj \right)^a , \tag{4}$$

where $a \geq 0$ governs the degree of spillovers, e.g. the degree to which others' ideas are relevant or can be appropriated for use. We choose this form of spillovers to cleanly illustrate how financial frictions interacts with the positive externality. These spillovers are used to conduct our policy analysis in Section 8.

Household To close the model, there is a representative household with preferences represented by the utility function $\sum_{t=0}^{\infty} \beta^t \frac{C_t^{1-\sigma}-1}{1-\sigma}$, where $1/\sigma$ is the elasticity of intertemporal substitution (EIS). Since there is no aggregate uncertainty, firms discount future profits using the risk-free rate

$$\frac{1}{1+r_t} = \beta \left(\frac{C_{t+1}}{C_t} \right)^{-\sigma} . \tag{5}$$

4.2 Equilibrium

In order to define the equilibrium, it is convenient to formulate firms' decisions recursively. The firm's individual state variables are its individual productivity z_{jt} and its net worth $n_{jt} = A_t z_{jt} k_{jt}^{\alpha} + (1-\delta)k_{jt} - b_{jt}$. Exiting firms set $k_{jt+1} = b_{jt+1} = i_{jt} = 0$, while continuing firms' decisions are characterized by the Bellman equation

$$v_t^{\text{cont}}(z, n) = \max_{k', i, b'} n - k' - (A_t z)^{\frac{1}{1-\alpha}} i + \frac{b'}{1+r_t} + \frac{1}{1+r_t} \mathbb{E}_t \left[v_{t+1}(z', n') \right] \text{ s.t. } d \geq 0 \text{ and } b' \leq \theta k', \tag{6}$$

where $\mathbb{E}_t\left[v_{t+1}(z',n')\right]$ integrates over the next period's exit shock, innovation success, and idiosyncratic productivity shocks. The implied decision rules induce a law of motion for the measure of firms, $\Phi_{t+1}(z,n) = T(\Phi_t; k'(\cdot), i(\cdot), b'(\cdot))(z,n)$.

A *competitive equilibrium* is a sequence of value functions $v_t(z,n)$; policies $k_t'(z,n)$, $i_t(z,n)$, and $b_t'(z,n)$; distribution of firms $\Phi_t(z,n)$; real interest rate r_t; and aggregate productivity A_t such that (i) firms optimize and the associated policy functions solve the Bellman equation (6); (ii) the evolution of $\Phi_t(z,n)$ is consistent with firm decisions; (iii) the real interest rate r_t is given by (5) with $C_t = \int \left(y_{jt} - (k_{jt+1} - (1-\delta)k_{jt}) - (A_t z_{jt})^{\frac{1}{1-\alpha}} i_{jt}\right) dj$; and (iv) aggregate productivity is given by the definition (4).

Balanced Growth Path Because productivity grows over time, the limiting behavior of the model exhibits a balanced growth path (BGP). Along the BGP, all macroeconomic aggregates grow at the same rate $1+g = (1+\widetilde{g})^{\frac{1+a}{1-\alpha}}$, where $\widetilde{g}$ is the growth rate of mean firm-specific productivity $\mathbb{E}_t[z_{jt}]$. Appendix B provides details.

5 The Pecking Order of Firm Growth

We now show that financial frictions create the pecking order of firm growth in the model. We show that this result is robust to extending the model to incorporate an earnings-based borrowing constraint. We also highlight the key parameters governing the pecking order, motivating our calibration strategy in Section 6.

5.1 Characterizing Decision Rules

We will illustrate the model's pecking order by plotting firms' decision rules for investment and innovation. A key object for characterizing these decision rules is the *shadow value of funds*, $\frac{\partial v_t(z,n)}{\partial n}$. This object is the marginal value of keeping a unit of resources inside the firm and therefore represents the opportunity cost of instead spending those resources outside the firm on investment or innovation.

Financial frictions increase the marginal cost of spending by raising the shadow value of funds. Appendix B shows that the shadow value is equal to $\frac{\partial v_t(z,n)}{\partial n} = 1 + \lambda_t(z,n)$, where

$\lambda_t(z,n)$ is the Lagrange multiplier on the non-negativity constraint on dividends. That is, the shadow value of funds is equal to the household's value of funds, 1, plus the shadow price of issuing equity, $\lambda_t(z,n)$. At the optimum, firms equate this shadow price $\lambda_t(z,n)$ to the shadow price of additional borrowing when constrained, i.e. the expected value of the multipliers on the borrowing constraint $\mu_t(z,n)$ in all possible current and future states.

We refer to the multiplier $\lambda_t(z,n)$ as the *financial wedge* because it encodes how both financial frictions affect the marginal cost of spending. Proposition 1 below shows how this financial wedge affects firms' optimal choices.[9]

***Proposition* 1.** *Consider a firm in period t that will continue operations in $t+1$, has productivity z, and has net worth n. Then there exist two functions $\overline{n}_t(z)$ and $\underline{n}_t(z,n)$ that partition the individual state space such that*

(i) ***Financially unconstrained****: If $n \geq \overline{n}_t(z)$, then the financial wedge $\lambda_t(z,n) = 0$. Being financially unconstrained is an absorbing state. The capital accumulation $k_t^*(z)$, innovation $i_t^*(z)$, and borrowing $b_t^*(z)$ policies are independent of net worth.*

(ii) ***Currently constrained****: If $n \leq \underline{n}_t(z,n)$, then both the collateral constraint binds $b' = \theta k'$ and the financial wedge is positive $\lambda_t(z,n) > 0$.*

(iii) ***Potentially constrained****: If $n \in (\underline{n}_t(z,n), \overline{n}_t(z))$, the collateral constraint is not currently binding $b' < \theta k'$ but the financial wedge is positive $\lambda_t(z,n) > 0$.*

In all of these cases, the optimal choices for external financing $b_t'(z,n)$, investment $k_t'(z,n)$, and innovation $i_t(z,n)$ solve the system

$$k' + (A_t z)^{\frac{1}{1-\alpha}} i = n + \frac{b'}{1+r_t} \text{ if } \lambda_t(z,n) > 0; \text{ otherwise, } b_t'(z,n) = b_t^*(z), \tag{7}$$

$$1 + \lambda_t(z,n) = \frac{1}{1+r_t}\mathbb{E}_t\left[(MPK_{t+1}(z',k') + 1 - \delta) \times (1 + (1-\pi_d)\lambda_{t+1}(z',n'))\right] + \theta\mu_t(z,n) \tag{8}$$

$$1 + \lambda_t(z,n) \geq \frac{\eta'(i)}{(A_t z)^{\frac{1}{1-\alpha}}} \frac{1}{1+r_t}\left(\mathbb{E}_t[v_{t+1}(z',n'|\iota_{t+1}(z,n) = 1] - \mathbb{E}_t[v_{t+1}(z',n'|\iota_{t+1}(z,n) = 0)]\right),$$
$$\text{with } = \text{ if } i_t(z,n) > 0 \tag{9}$$

[9]This proposition extends a similar result from Khan and Thomas (2013)'s model without innovation.

where $MPK_{t+1}(z', k') = \alpha A_{t+1} z' (k')^{\alpha-1}$ *is the marginal product of capital,* $\lambda_t(z,n)$ *is the Lagrange multiplier on the no equity issuance constraint* $d \geq 0$*,* $\mu_t(z,n)$ *is the multiplier on the collateral constraint* $b' \leq \theta k'$*, and* $\iota_{t+1}(z,n)$ *denotes the realization of a successful innovation.*

Proof. See Appendix B. ■

The first part of Proposition 1 describes three different regimes of financial constraints. *Financially unconstrained* firms have zero probability of facing a binding collateral constraint, which implies that their financial wedge is $\lambda_t(z,n) = 0$. These firms are able to follow the policy rules from the version of the model without financial frictions and are indifferent over any combination of external financing b' and internal financing d leaves them financially unconstrained. Following Khan and Thomas (2013), we resolve this indeterminacy by requiring that firms pursue the "minimum savings policy," i.e., the smallest level of b' that leaves them unconstrained with probability one (see Appendix B for details).

The remaining firms are affected by financial frictions in some way. *Currently constrained* firms' collateral constraint binds in the current period, directly limiting their ability to borrow. *Potentially constrained* firms do not face a binding collateral constraint in the current period, but may reach a future state in which the constraint becomes binding. Financial frictions still affect these firms' decisions through precautionary motives.

The second part of Proposition 1 characterizes the investment and innovation decisions for any of these three types of firms.[10] Equation (7) is the nonnegativity constraint on dividends, which binds if the firm has a positive financial wedge $\lambda_t(z,n) > 0$. In this case, innovation and investment expenditures must be financed out of either internal resources or new borrowing. Equations (8) and (9) are the first-order conditions for investment and innovation.[11]

[10] It is possible that the first-order conditions have multiple solutions due to the complementarity between innovation and investment. However, in a simple version of the model, we have shown that, under our functional forms for $\eta(i)$, there is a wide range of parameters such that there is at most one interior solution to the FOCs. Other than this interior solution, the only other possibility is at the corner with zero innovation, which our algorithm takes into account. Consistent with this result, in the full calibrated model we have numerically found at most one interior solution to the FOCs as well. Results available upon request.

[11] Our numerical algorithm solves the firm's problem by jointly iterating over the policy functions and the Lagrange multipliers $\lambda_t(z,n)$ in (the detrended version of) this system (7) - (9). This procedure is very fast because it avoids any numerical maximization or equation solving. In practice, we find computational

As discussed above, the marginal cost of investment or innovation on the LHS of (8) and (9) is the shadow value of funds $1 + \lambda_t(z, n)$. The marginal benefit of investment on the right-hand side of the investment (8) is given by two terms. The first term is the discounted expected marginal product of capital in the next period, weighting the marginal product in different future states by the shadow value of funds. The second term is collateral benefit of capital: each unit of capital provides θ units of collateral whose shadow value is the Lagrange multiplier $\mu_t(z, n)$.

The marginal benefit of innovation on the RHS of (9) is the marginal improvement in the probability of success (per unit of innovation expenditure) times the expected increase in firm value from a successful innovation. This first-order condition may not hold with equality if the firm is against the non-negativity constraint on innovation $i_t(z, n) \geq 0$, generating inaction in innovation expenditures.[12]

5.2 The Pecking Order of Firm Growth in the Model

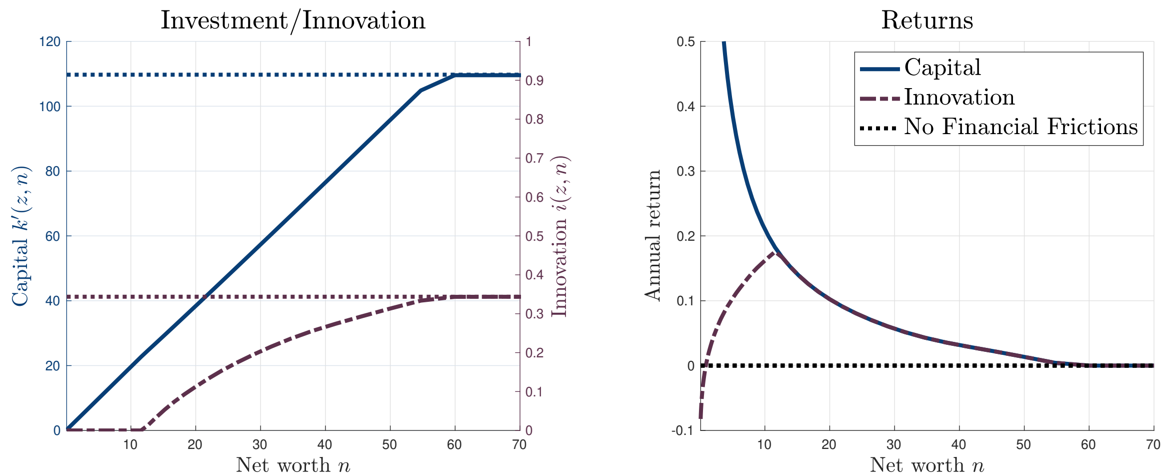
Figure 3 illustrates the model's pecking order by plotting the firms' decision rules. The left panel plots the investment and innovation policies $k'_t(z, n)$ and $i_t(z, n)$ as a function of net worth n, holding the level of productivity z fixed for the sake of illustration. The right panel plots the net returns associated with each activity, i.e. the right-hand side of the respective first-order condition minus one. We generate these plots using our calibrated parameter values from Section 6, but the qualitative properties that emerge hold over a wide range of the parameter space.

The model's pecking order can be summarized by three distinct regions of net worth space. First, for the lowest levels of net worth,, the firm spends all of its available resources on capital and sets innovation expenditures $i_t(z, n) = 0$ because the net return to capital lies strictly above the net return to innovation. This occurs because the firm is small, so its marginal product of capital is high (reflecting the *scale* difference between capital and

runtimes comparable to using Carroll (2006)'s endogenous grid method, even though that method does not apply to this model. Our algorithm is applicable to other investment models in which the endogenous grid method does not apply. See Appendix C for details.

[12]We abstract from inaction in investment expenditures because it is extremely rare in our Compustat sample (which aggregates over many production units within a firm). In contrast, around half of firm-year observations have zero R&D expenditures in our data.

Figure 3: The Pecking Order of Firm Growth in the Model



Notes: the left panel plots capital expenditures $k'_t(z,n)$ (left axis) and innovation intensity $i_t(z,n)$ (right axis) in market equilibrium BGP of the calibrated model for fixed z. The right panel plots the net return to these activities, defined as the RHS of Euler equations (8) and (9) minus 1. "No financial frictions" refers to the model in which all firms following the unconstrained policies $k^*(z)$ and $i^*(z)$ from Proposition 1.

ideas), and because the firm is financially constrained, so it places a high value on collateral (reflecting the *tangibility* difference between capital and ideas).[13] In this region of the state space, the firm only grows by accumulating capital. As it does so, the firm drives down the return capital due to the diminishing marginal product and the lower shadow value of collateral. At the same time, higher capital also raises the return to innovation because productivity and capital are complements in production.

As the firm continues to grow and accumulate net worth, the net returns to capital and innovation eventually intersect and the firm begins innovating. In this second region of the pecking order, the innovation first-order condition (9) holds with equality, so the net returns to capital and innovation must be equalized. However, both net returns are still strictly greater than zero because the financial wedge is positive $\lambda_t(z,n) > 0$, so the firm is still financially constrained. In this region of the state space, the firm grows both through accumulating capital and through innovating (in the sense that it may successfully generate a new idea and increase its productivity z). In this process, the "R&D share" — innovation

[13] Appendix D shows that most of the gap between the return to capital and innovation is due to the higher marginal product of capital, not its collateral value, in our particular calibration.

expenditures as a share of investment plus innovation expenditures — is increasing net worth, as in the data. This occurs because the amount of innovation required to equate the two returns is initially low but then increases over time due to the concavity of $\eta(i)$.

For sufficiently high levels of net worth, the firm enters the last region of the pecking order in which the shadow value of funds $\lambda_t(z, n)$ is close to zero and the firm is essentially unconstrained. In this region, the net returns to investment and innovation are close to zero, implying that the firm's policies become independent of net worth. In this case, the only way in which the firm will grow further is through the realization a successful innovation. If this happens, the firm's productivity z will jump up and the firm may re-enter an earlier region of the pecking order.

Taken together, these three regions of the state space form the pecking order of firm growth in our model: firms are investment-intensive when they have low net worth but slowly shift to becoming innovation-intensive as they accumulate net worth. This pattern reflects the typical firm dynamics in our model for two reasons. First, firms enter the economy with a new idea but less capital than the implied optimal scale, $k < k_t^*(z)$, placing most new entrants in the first region of the pecking order in which they start growing through investment.[14] Second, incumbent firms who successfully receive a new idea from a successful innovation will similarly enter a situation in which their current capital stock is below their new, higher optimal scale $k < k_t^*(z)$. These firms may enter an earlier region of the pecking order and prioritize investment before innovating again.

Financial Frictions Create the Pecking Order The degree of financial frictions is key to the model's pecking order because they control how quickly firms can accumulate net worth and shift towards becoming innovation-intensive. In fact, Figure 3 shows that,

[14]In this sense, firms enter the economy rich in ideas but poor in capital. This assumption is consistent with empirical evidence on scale-dependent growth from, e.g. Haltiwanger, Jarmin and Miranda (2013). In particular, the literature often finds that employment and sales of small firms grow faster than large firms; this occurs in our model because small firms have a high marginal product of capitalr. In addition, the literature sometimes argues that the expected growth rates of large firms are independent of size (Gibrat's law); this occurs among unconstrained firms in our model because they choose the same innovation intensity $i_t(z, n)$ and therefore have the same probability of receiving a new idea (see the plots in Appendix D). However, the fact that Gibrat's law does not hold for all firms in our model complicates aggregation relative to the typical endogenous growth model. Specifically, we need to keep track of the entire distribution of firms in order to solve the model. See Appendix C for details.

without financial frictions, the model would not have a pecking order at all; instead, firms would immediately lever up to their optimal scale and enter the third region of the pecking order in which they grow only through innovation. In this case, investment and innovation would become independent of net worth, inconsistent with the data.

Alternative Forms of Financial Frictions While some form of financial constraints are necessary to generate the pecking order in our model, the precise form we've chosen is not. In general, financial constraints play two roles in our model. First, they imply that firms with low net worth have a higher shadow value of funds $1 + \lambda_t(z, n)$ and, therefore, face a higher marginal cost of spending resources on either activity. Second, the financial constraints determine the collateral value of investment or innovation, which affects the marginal benefit of either activity. In our model, the financial constraint $b_{jt+1} \leq \theta k_{jt+1}$ implies that capital is collateralizable but ideas are not.

We now describe a model extension in which ideas are also collateralizable and show that the pecking order still holds. In this extension, we consider the alternative earnings-based borrowing constraint

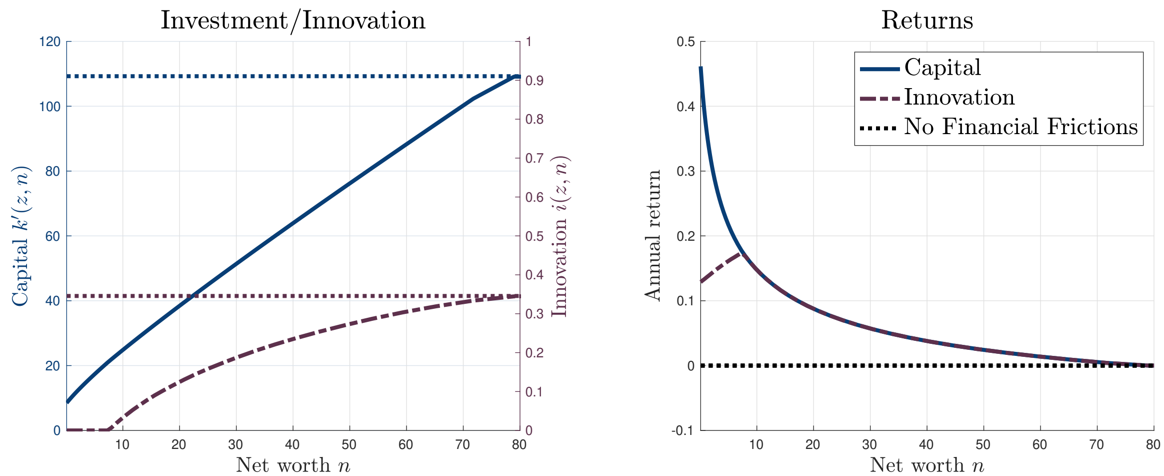
$$b_{jt+1} \leq \widetilde{\theta}\mathbb{E}_t \left[A_{t+1} z_{jt+1} k_{jt+1}^{\alpha}\right]. \tag{10}$$

This specification captures the spirit of the earnings-based constraints documented by Lian and Ma (2021), Greenwald et al. (2019), and Caglio, Darst and Kalemli-Özcan (2021).[15] We assume expected future earnings enter this constraint in order to allow for future ideas, not just current ideas, to be partially collateralizable. In this sense, this alternative constraint also has similar features to equity issuance. We recalibrate the strength of the alternative constraint $\widetilde{\theta}$ to match the same leverage as in our baseline model; therefore, the key difference between this alternative constraint and our baseline is the fact that future ideas are now collateralizable.

Figure 4 shows that this alternative constraint generates a similar pecking order to our baseline model. The pecking order is similar because both constraints raise the marginal cost of expenditures for firms with low net worth, implying these firms have a high marginal

[15] This functional form requires that the idiosyncratic productivity shocks ε_{jt+1} are bounded in order to support any borrowing. In practice, we bound the shocks in the interval $[-3\sigma_\varepsilon, 3\sigma_\varepsilon]$.

FIGURE 4: The Pecking Order with Collateralizable Ideas



Notes: the left panel plots capital expenditures $k_t(z,n)$ (left axis) and innovation intensity $i_t(z,n)$ (right axis) in market equilibrium BGP of the alternative model with the financial constraint (10). The right panel plots the return to investment and innovation from the alternative first-order conditions

$$1+\lambda_t(z,n) = \frac{1}{1+r_t}\mathbb{E}_t\left[(MPK_{t+1}(z',k')+1-\delta)\times(1+(1-\pi_d)\lambda_{t+1}(z',n'))\right] + \theta\mu_t(z,n)\mathbb{E}_t[MPK_{t+1}(z',k')]$$

$$1+\lambda_t(z,n) \geq \frac{\eta'(i)}{(A_t z)^{\frac{1}{1-\alpha}}}\frac{1}{1+r_t}\left(\mathbb{E}_t[v_{t+1}(z',n'|\iota_{t+1}(z,n)=1]-\mathbb{E}_t[v_{t+1}(z',n'|\iota_{t+1}(z,n)=0)]\right)$$
$$+\frac{\eta'(i)}{(A_t z)^{\frac{1}{1-\alpha}}}\left(\mathbb{E}_t[A_{t+1}z'|\iota_{t+1}(z,n)=1]-\mathbb{E}_t[A_{t+1}z'|\iota_{t+1}(z,n)=0)]\right)(k')^{\alpha}.$$

"No financial frictions" refers to the model in which all firms following the unconstrained policies $k^*(z)$ and $i^*(z)$ but using the same real interest rate from the market BGP.

product of capital. The primary quantitative difference is that the return to innovation is shifted up relative to the baseline model, reflecting the fact that future ideas are now partially collateralizable. However, the second region with positive innovation — in which the R&D share slowly increases over time — is larger than in our baseline model. Therefore, the pecking order is robust to allowing for the collateralizability of ideas. Given this robustness, we maintain with our baseline model of financial frictions $b_{jt+1} \leq \theta k_{jt+1}$ for the rest of the paper because it is canonical in macro-finance (e.g. Kiyotaki and Moore, 1997).

Other Forms of Sluggish Adjustment In our model, financial frictions are the only reason that firms cannot immediately jump to their optimal scale of capital $k^*_t(z)$ and shift to becoming innovation-intensive. However, there are other forces outside our model which also generate sluggish capital adjustment, such as adjustment costs, customer capital accumulation, or learning by doing. These other mechanisms would also slow down the rate at which firms accumulate capital and shift to innovation-intensity, also consistent with the pecking order in the data.[16]

We focus on financial frictions in this paper for two reasons. The first reason is empirical: our results in Section A about the role of net worth suggest that firms' financial position determines their place in the pecking order. In addition, financial frictions imply that investment and innovation are substitutes for constrained firms, which allows the model to match the size-dependent response of innovation to investment tax shocks described in Section 6. More generally, the empirical corporate finance literature has provided a vast array of other evidence that financial frictions influence firms' investment decisions. Taken together, these empirical results suggest that financial frictions are a key source of sluggish adjustment dynamics.

Comparison to the Data The second reason that we focus on financial frictions because our approach is to independently calibrate their strength and ask how much of the pecking order they generate, rather than to force financial frictions to account for the entire pecking order. In particular, in Section 6, we choose the collateral constraint θ to target average borrowing rates and leave the pecking order as an untargeted outcome of the model. Appendix D shows that our model generates a qualitatively similar pecking order to the data in terms of the R&D share over the firms' lifecycle. However, among our Compustat firms, the slope of the model's pecking order is flatter than the empirical regression coefficients in the data. This result is consistent with the idea that other forms of sluggish adjustment are necessary to fully account for the empirical pecking order. We leave combining financial frictions with these other forms of sluggish adjustment for future research.

[16] We have solved a version of the model with quadratic capital adjustment costs to show this result. Results available upon request.

5.3 Key Parameters Generating the Pecking Order

Numerically, we have found that two sets of parameters are particularly important in determining the pecking order. The first is the strength of financial frictions, which are governed by the collateral constraint θ. As described above, a tighter constraint (lower θ) slows down the rate at which firms accumulate net worth and shift toward becoming innovation-intensive.

The second key set of parameters govern the innovation technology: the probability of successfully generating an idea, $\eta(i)$, and the size of successful innovations, Δ. Appendix Figure D.2 illustrates the effects of a more efficient innovation technology, which raises the success probability $\eta(i)$ for any level of innovation intensity i. The higher success probability shifts up the returns to innovation, which implies that it intersects the returns to capital at a lower level of net worth. Therefore, firms begin innovating earlier on, and conditional on innovating, do more innovation.[17]

6 Parameterization

We now calibrate the model, focusing on the key parameters that govern the magnitude of the pecking order. We show that the calibrated model matches various untargeted statistics, including the response of innovation to investment tax shocks.

6.1 Strategy for Disciplining Key Forces

As discussed in Section 5, the model's pecking order is governed by the degree of financial frictions and the innovation technology.

Financial Frictions Following much of the literature, we choose the tightness of the collateral constraint θ to match the average leverage of firms in the data. Importantly, we target average leverage in the microdata underlying the Quarterly Financial Reports (QFR) reported in Crouzet and Mehrotra (2020). This sample of firms is broader than the publicly-traded firms in Compustat and is therefore more representative of the aggregate economy.

[17] Appendix D also describes an extension of the model with heterogeneity in the size of successful innovations, Δ. In this extension, the across firm correlation between size and innovation intensity depends on the correlation of firm size with Δ. However, the pecking order always holds within firms over time.

In Section 6.3, we validate the magnitude of our financial frictions using the response of investment and innovation to investment tax shocks.

Innovation Technology The main challenge in our calibration is to pin down the properties of the innovation technology, i.e., the probability of a successful innovation $\eta(i)$ and the size of successful innovations Δ. While we can arguably measure innovation inputs using R&D expenditures, there is no direct measure of the output, successful innovations. Given this difficulty, we instead infer successful innovations using what firms reveal through their forward-looking investment decisions. In our model, unconstrained firms that receive a successful innovation experience an *investment spike*—a large but short-lived surge in their investment rate — in order to adapt their capital stock to the new, higher level of productivity.[18] Therefore, the responsiveness of investment spikes to R&D expenditures should be informative about the innovation technology.

We study the relationship between investment spikes and R&D expenditures in our Compustat data. Following Cooper and Haltiwanger (2006), we define investment spikes as years in which a firm's investment rate is above 20%. In our sample, the frequency of investment spikes is 23% and the average size of an investment spike is 37%, similar to Cooper and Haltiwanger (2006)'s Census sample.

We estimate the linear probability model

$$\mathbb{1}\{\frac{x_{jt}}{k_{jt}} \geq 0.2\} = \alpha_j + \alpha_{st} + \sum_{h=1}^{H} \beta_h \left(\frac{\text{RD}_{jt-h}}{\tilde{y}_{jt-h}}\right) + \Gamma' X_{jt} + \epsilon_{jt}, \tag{11}$$

where $\frac{x_{jt}}{k_{jt}}$ denotes the investment rate of firm j in period t; $\frac{\text{RD}_{jt}}{\tilde{y}_{jt}}$ the R&D-to-sales ratio; α_j and α_{st} firm and time by 4-digit sector fixed effects; X_{jt} is a vector of firm-level controls; and ϵ_{jt} is a residual. Our coefficient of interest, β_1, measures how the probability of an investment spike is related to previous R&D expenditures. The vector X_{jt} includes variables that attempt to control for two alternative reasons for investment spikes that are unrelated

[18]This approach relies on the assumption that a successful innovation creates a discrete jump in productivity while shocks unrelated to productivity, ε_{jt}, follow a normal distribution. Again, our formulation is aimed at capturing the non-normal, discrete nature of innovation, which are classic elements in Schumpeterian growth models (e.g., Aghion and Howitt, 1992; Grossman and Helpman, 1991).

Table 2
R&D Expenditures Predict Investment Spikes

	(1)	(2)	(3)
$\frac{\mathrm{RD}_{jt-1}}{\tilde{y}_{jt-1}}$	1.27	1.09	1.10
	(0.16)	(0.15)	(0.15)
Controls	No	Cash flows	Cash flows, years since the last spike, capital to labor ratio
Observations	55,647	55,647	55,647
Adj. R^2	0.280	0.297	0.300

Notes: Results from estimating $\mathbb{1}\{\frac{x_{jt}}{k_{jt}} \geq 0.2\} = \alpha_j + \alpha_{ts} + \sum_{h=1}^{4} \beta_h \left(\frac{\mathrm{RD}_{jt-h}}{\tilde{y}_{jt-h}}\right) + \Gamma' X_{jt} + \epsilon_{jt}$, where $\frac{x_{jt}}{k_{jt}}$ denotes the investment rate of firm j in period t; $\frac{\mathrm{RD}_{jt}}{\tilde{y}_{jt}}$ the R&D-to-sales ratio; α_j and α_{ts} firm and time by sector fixed effects; X_{jt} is a vector of firm-level controls; and ϵ_{jt} is a residual. Column (1) reports estimates for a specification without including-firm level time-varying controls; Column (2) those that include cash flows ($\frac{\mathrm{cf}_{jt}}{k_{jt}}$) as a control; and Column (3) those that also include the lumpy-investment controls (years since the last investment spike, years since spike$_{t-1}$, and the standardized capital-output ratio, $\frac{k_{jt}}{n_{jt-1}}$). To estimate the models reported in Columns (1) and (2), we restrict the sample to that with available observations in Column (3). For variable definitions and descriptive statistics, see Appendix A.

to the innovation technology. First, we include the ratio of cash flows to lagged capital to absorb the effect that changes in firms' cash-on-hand has on both investment spikes and R&D expenditure. Second, we control for the number of years since a previous investment spikes and the capital-to-labor ratio, which are informative about the effects of non-convex capital adjustment costs.[19] Appendix A.1 details the construction of these additional control variables. We set $H = 4$ for our baseline model and explore alternative lags in robustness analysis. We two-way cluster standard errors by firm and year.

Table 2 shows that, consistent with the predictions of our model, R&D expenditures are a strong predictor of investment spikes. Column (1) reports the estimated coefficient β_1 from the linear probability model (11) without any additional controls X_{jt}. Quantitatively, the estimated coefficient implies that having last year's an R&D-to-sales ratio one standard deviation above the mean increases the probability of an investment spike by 7 percentage points, i.e. a 30% increase in the probability of a spike relative to its unconditional mean.

[19] (S, s) models predict that an investment spike is more likely when the firms' capital stock k is farther from its optimal scale $k^*(z)$. This "gap" is increasing if firms have not had an investment spike in the recent past, or if the capital-to-labor ratio is far from normal (under the assumption that the choice of labor is more flexible and therefore better reflects current productivity z).

Column (2) shows that this estimate survives controlling for changes in cash flow which may independently affect both investment and R&D expenditures.

One may be concerned that investment spikes in the data are driven by non-convex capital adjustment costs, not the arrival of new ideas as in our model. We address this concern in three ways. First, we target the passthrough of R&D expenditures to investment spikes, not the overall frequency of investment spikes. Second, we note that fixed costs and irreversibilities most naturally occur at the unit of the plant or even production line, and Compustat firms aggregate over many such units. Finally, Column (3) in Table 2 shows that our regression coefficient is virtually unaffected by controlling for the years since the last spike and the capital to labor ratio.

While we admittedly do not have exogenous variation in R&D expenditures to identify the causal effect of innovation on investment spikes, we view these results are suggesting a tight link between the two. Therefore, we will target the estimated coefficient β_1 in our model calibration by running the same regression on model-simulated data.

Appendix A.3 presents robustness analysis and additional supportive evidence about the relationship between R&D expenditures and investment spikes. We show that the results presented in Table 2 are robust to using an alternative definition of investment spikes that considers a sector-level threshold instead of an absolute threshold, using more or less lags of R&D-to-sales ratios, and using additional controls used in the investment literature (e.g., size, sales growth, and the share of current assets). We also present a complementary event study which shows that R&D-to-sales tend to increase before investment spikes.

6.2 Calibration

We now describe our calibration in more detail. We proceed in two main steps. First, we fix a subset of parameters to match standard targets. Second, we choose the remaining parameters so that moments from the model's BGP match key features of the data, including the regression coefficients documented above.

For the calibrated model, we assume that initial scalable idea z of new entrants is drawn from log-normal distribution whose mean z_0 equals the mean of the distribution of incumbent firms, and set the dispersion in those draws to $\sigma_z = \Delta$. We further assume that all new

Table 3
Fixed Parameters

Parameter	Description	Value
Household		
β	Discount factor	0.97
$1/\sigma$	EIS	1.50
Firms		
α	Output elasticity w.r.t inputs	0.55
δ	Depreciation rate	0.08
π_d	Exit rate	0.08

Notes: parameters chosen exogenously to match external targets.

entrants start with an initial capital stock k_0 roughly equal to 4% of the average capital stock in the economy. This value is between the two possibilities discussed by Khan and Thomas (2013): having new entrants' capital be 10% of average capital or having their employment be 10% of average employment (in the extended model with labor discussed in Footnote 8). We show that our main results are robust to alternative choices for both the mean and standard deviation of this initial distribution in Section 7.

Fixed Parameters Table 3 contains the parameters that we exogenously fix. We set the EIS $1/\sigma = 1.5$, in line with estimates from the finance literature. We make this choice because changes in the real interest rate are very powerful in our model given that firms face no other adjustment costs. We set the EIS on the high end of estimates from the literature to dampen this unrealistic interest-sensitivity of investment. Given this value of the EIS, we set the household's discount factor β so that the real interest rate is 4% annually along the BGP. We set the elasticity of output with respect to inputs to be $\alpha = 0.55$, close to the 0.59 value Cooper and Haltiwanger (2006) estimate for manufacturing plants.[20] We set the depreciation rate to $\delta = 8\%$ annually to imply an aggregate investment-to-capital ratio of 10% along the BGP. Finally, we assume $\pi_d = 8\%$ of firms exit per year, broadly consistent with exit rates in both the Business Dynamics Statistics (BDS) and in our Compustat sample.

[20]In the model with labor discussed in Footnote 8, our choice of α is consistent with an underlying production function in which the labor share is 2/3 and the total returns to scale is 0.85.

Selection into Compustat We now turn to the set of parameters that we choose to match targets in the data. Many of these targets are drawn from our Compustat data. In the model, we mirror selection into Compustat by conditioning on firms that have survived at least five years. This choice matches the median time to IPO of seven years from Ottonello and Winberry (2020), but allowing the "initial phase" outside our model to take two years. The logic behind this choice is that all established firms in our model would like to enter Compustat at some point in their life, so the most informative variable to select on is the average age of firms that end up in Compustat.[21]

Fitted Parameters Table 4 contains the parameters that are endogenously chosen along with our empirical targets. The targets labeled "Compustat" are drawn from our Compustat data, and the corresponding statistic in the model is drawn from the selected subset of firms described above.

The first three parameters in the left panel of Table 4 govern the innovation technology. We assume that the probability of success is given by $\eta(i) = 1 - \exp\{-\eta_0 [(1+i)^{\eta_1} - 1]\}$, which is increasing, concave, and bounded between 0 and 1. In addition, $\eta'(0)$ is finite, allowing the model to generate inaction in R&D expenditures as discussed earlier. Under this functional form, the parameter η_0 governs the overall efficiency of the success probability with respect to innovation intensity while the parameter η_1 governs the slope of this relationship. The parameter Δ then controls the size of successful innovations.

While all parameters are jointly chosen to match all moments, we have found that the innovation technology is primarily pinned down by the first three targets in the right panel of Table 4. The regression coefficient from Section 6.1 has a strong influence over both parameters that govern the probability of success, η_0 and η_1. In contrast, the average R&D to sales ratio, $\mathbb{E}[\mathrm{RD}_{jt}/y_{jt}|\mathrm{RD}_{jt} > 0]$, primarily influences the curvature parameter η_1 because it governs how quickly the marginal benefit of additional R&D spending is exhausted.[22] Given

[21] In contrast, cutoffs based on size would be require us to find a relevant comparison group of non-Compustat firms that does not include the Hurst and Pugsley (2011) "lifestyle entrepreneurs" which have a permanently small optimal scale.

[22] We target the average R&D-to-sales ratio conditional on positive R&D because the R&D inaction rate in Compustat (45%) is much higher than in our model (10%). We prefer to not target this inaction rate because Compustat inaction may partly reflect misreporting rather than true inaction.

Table 4

Fitted Parameters and Empirical Targets

Parameter	**Description**	**Value**	**Target** (all joint)	**Data**	**Model**
Innovation technology					
η_0	Idea arrival	1.01	Regression coefficient (Compustat)	1.09	1.03
η_1	Idea arrival	0.21	$\mathbb{E}[\text{RD}_{jt}/y_{jt}\|\text{RD}_{jt}>0]$ (Compustat)	0.06	0.06
Δ	Size of ideas	0.10	$\mathbb{E}[x_{jt}/k_{jt}\|\text{spike}]$ (Compustat)	0.37	0.35
Financial frictions					
θ	Collateral	0.52	$\mathbb{E}[b_{jt}/k_{jt}]$ (QFR)	0.34	0.30
Productivity shocks					
σ_ε	SD of shocks	0.03	$\sigma(x_{jt}/k_{jt})$ (Compustat)	0.15	0.13
Innovation spillovers					
a	Spillovers	0.55	Growth rate (aggregate data)	0.02	0.02

Notes: left panel contains the parameters chosen to match the moments in the right table. "Idea arrival function" refers to $\eta(i) = 1 - \exp\{-\eta_0 [(1+i)^{\eta_1} - 1]\}$. "Regression coefficient" is the regression coefficient β_1 from Table 2 column (2). $\mathbb{E}[\text{RD}_{jt}/y_{jt}|\text{RD}_{jt} > 0]$ is the average R&D to sales ratio for observations with positive R&D expenditures in the Compustat sample described; in the model, we compute R&D expenditures as $A_t z^{\frac{1}{1-\alpha}} i_t(z,n)$. $\mathbb{E}[x_{jt}/k_{jt}|\text{spike}]$ is the average size of investment spikes in the Compustat sample. $\mathbb{E}[b_{jt}/k_{jt}]$ is the average gross leverage of firms in the QFR reported by Crouzet and Mehrotra (2020). $\sigma(x_{jt}/k_{jt})$ is the standard deviation of investment rates in our sample. "Growth rate" is the aggregate growth rate along the BGP.

these two targets, the average size of investment spikes $\mathbb{E}[x_{jt}/k_{jt}|\text{spike}]$ pins down the size of successful innovations Δ.

As described above, we choose the the degree of financial frictions θ to match average leverage $\mathbb{E}[b_{jt}/k_{jt}]$ from the QFR data reported in Crouzet and Mehrotra (2020). The dispersion of idiosyncratic shocks σ_ε then allows us match the dispersion of investment rates.

Given all these targets, the model without any innovation spillovers (i.e. $a = 0$ in aggregate productivity) generates an aggregate growth rate less than 2% per year. We then choose the spillovers a residually in order to match a long-run growth rate of 2% per year. This approach is an admittedly simple way of disciplining the spillovers associated with innovation. We therefore view our policy results, which are a consequence these spillovers, as a numerical illustration of the key economics for a reasonable degree of spillovers.

Model Fit Table 4 shows that the model matches the targeted moments fairly well (even though it is overidentified due to nonlinearity). Importantly, the model is very close to the targets informative about both the innovation technology and the degree of financial frictions. Averaging across all firms, the implied excess return to capital is 5.4% and the excess return to innovation (conditional on innovating) is 2.7%.

Calibrated Parameters The calibrated parameter values are broadly consistent with the range of estimates in the literature. The collateral constraint implies that about half of tangible capital is collateralizable. The volatility of idiosyncratic shocks σ_ε is lower than typical estimates in versions of the Hopenhayn (1992) model with capital, but the dispersion of investment in our model is also driven by endogenous innovations, which reduces the size of exogenous shocks necessary to match the data.[23]

The most natural point of comparison for our estimated innovation technology is to the empirical literature on the response of patenting to R&D spending, which is often used to discipline Schumepterian models (see, e.g., Acemoglu et al. (2018)). These studies typically find an average elasticity of successful innovation to R&D around 1/2, while our estimates imply an average elasticity 0.74. One interpretation of this finding is that investment spikes capture a broader set of innovations than do patents.

6.3 Validation

Our calibrated model matches a number of untargeted statistics in the data.

Investment Tax Shocks Appendix D provides new evidence on the response of investment and innovation to exogenous changes in the after-tax price of investment. Specifically, we study variation in the after-tax price of investment induced by the Bonus Depreciation Allowance, a countercyclical investment stimulus used during the 2001 and 2008 recessions. Following Zwick and Mahon (2017), we exploit sectoral heterogeneity in the policy treatment to estimate the effects of the Bonus using a difference-in-difference empirical design. We first reproduce Zwick and Mahon (2017)'s finding that the Bonus substantially raises firm-level investment in our Compustat data. We then show that the Bonus also raises R&D expenditures, especially for small firms.

We replicate the Bonus Depreciation Allowance in our model by feeding in a comparable shock to the relative price of investment (Appendix B shows how to map investment taxes

[23] In addition, existing models often use mean-reverting AR(1) processes, while our process is a unit root, creating more cross-sectional dispersion in investment for a given volatility of shocks.

into the relative price). We then replicate the same regressions described above on data simulated from our model and find that the model roughly matches all of these regression coefficients.Hence, our model is consistent with the cross-price elasticities of innovation to investment prices by firm size. We view this result as validating the strength of financial frictions in driving investment and innovation decisions in our model.

Firm Heterogeneity More broadly, Appendix D analyzes the two sources of firm heterogeneity in our model, lifecycle dynamics and productivity differences. Following the pecking order of firm growth, most young firms start investment-intensive but become more innovation-intensive as they age. Increases in productivity, due to either successful innovations or productivity shocks, raise the marginal product of capital and shadow value of funds $1 + \lambda_t(z, n)$, which induces firms to invest and borrow more but innovate less. These dynamics imply positive investment- and innovation-cash flow sensitivities, as in the data. We also show that the model matches a number of untargeted moments from Compustat.

7 Aggregate Costs of Financial Frictions

We now show that financial frictions lead to substantial long-run losses in aggregate output, primarily through reducing innovation and growth.

7.1 The Costs of Financial Frictions

Financial frictions reduce aggregate output through two channels in our model. First, as described in Section 5, they slow down the rate at which firms shift towards becoming innovation intensive. Aggregating across firms, lower innovation reduces the long-run growth rate along the BGP:

$$g^* \approx \frac{1}{1-\alpha}(1+a)(e^{\Delta}-1)\int \iota_{jt}dj, \tag{12}$$

where ι_{jt} is an indicator for whether firm j generated a new idea. We quantify this channel by comparing our calibrated model to the *frictionless model* in which there are no financial frictions. In the frictionless model, all firms follow the unconstrained policies $k_t^*(z)$ and $i_t^*(z)$ from Proposition 1, which imply a higher arrival rate of new ideas.

Second, financial frictions distort the allocation of capital across firms with different levels of productivity, reducing the level of TFP as in the misallocation literature. Formally decomposing the misallocation costs of financial frictions separately from the growth costs is conceptually difficult in our model because changes in the allocation of capital also affect innovation decisions. We instead provide a simple upper bound for the misallocation costs by computing the counterfactual level of output which solves

$$Y_t^* = \max_{k_{jt}} A_t \int z_{jt} k_{jt}^{\alpha} dj \quad \text{such that} \quad \int k_{jt} dj \leq K_t.$$

This counterfactual holds aggregate capital fixed, but distributes it across firms to maximize current output given the current distribution of productivity. This object is an upper bound on misallocation costs because it assumes capital can be perfectly re-allocated after the realization of the productivity shocks z_{jt}. Appendix B shows that the ratio of actual output to this optimal level is

$$\frac{Y_t}{Y_t^*} = \frac{\int z_{jt} \left(\frac{k_{jt}}{K_t}\right)^{\alpha} dj}{\left(\int z_{jt}^{\frac{1}{1-\alpha}} dj\right)^{1-\alpha}}.$$

Our upper bound on the misallocation costs of financial frictions is then $\frac{Y_t}{Y_t^*} - 1$.

Quantitative Results The top row of Table 5 shows that the growth costs of financial frictions are large: without financial frictions, the long-run growth rate would be more than 40 basis points higher per year. Cumulated over long horizons, this difference implies substantial losses in aggregate output; for example, after fifty years, GDP in the frictionless model is nearly 23% higher than in the calibrated model.[24]

These findings about the long-run growth costs of financial frictions complement the

[24]Financial frictions affect the long-run BGP growth rate because our model is a fully endogenous growth model. Alternatively, we could specify a semi-endogenous growth model by assuming that new ideas increase productivity $\log z_{jt}$ by the factor $\Delta \times (A_t \mathbb{E}_t[z_{jt}])^{\phi}$ with $\phi < 0$ (our baseline model corresponds to $\phi = 0$). In this case, removing financial frictions would no longer affect the BGP growth rate, but would still raise growth along the transition path following their removal. Furthermore, the gains from removing financial frictions along this path would be continuous in the parameter ϕ. Performing this exercise would require making assumptions about the dynamics of how the financial frictions are removed and what agents expect about that path, estimating a value for the parameter ϕ, and potentially require modeling other short-term adjustment frictions as well. We view our analysis here as a simple, parsimonious benchmark to illustrate the quantitative magnitude of financial frictions on growth without taking a specific stand on these issues.

Table 5
Aggregate Output Losses from Financial Frictions

	Lost growth per year	Lost growth after 20 years	30 years	40 years	50 years	Misallocation costs (upper bound)
Baseline	41bps	8.6%	13.1%	17.9%	22.8%	5.0%
Higher η_0	54bps	11.0%	16.9%	23.2%	29.8%	4.8%
Higher η_1	54bps	11.0%	16.9%	23.2%	29.8%	4.6%
Higher θ	33bps	6.7%	10.2%	13.8%	17.5%	3.9%
Lower a	39bps	7.9%	12.1%	16.5%	21.1%	5.2%
Lower z_0	35bps	7.1%	10.8%	14.7%	18.7%	3.8%
Higher k_0	39bps	7.9%	12.1%	16.5%	21.0%	4.6%

Notes: output losses from financial frictions computed relative to frictionless model in which all firms follow the unconstrained policies $k^*(z)$ and $i^*(z)$ from Proposition 1. "Lost growth" is the difference in the BGP growth rate g^* in the frictionless model vs. the full model. "Lost growth after" cumulates the lost growth over different horizons. "Misallocation (upper bound)" refers to the losses from capital misallocation discussed in the main text. "Baseline" refers to calibration model. "Higher" and "lower" refer to sensitivity analysis with respect to parameter values 25% higher or lower than their calibrated value.

literature which studying the misallocation costs of financial frictions. For example, Buera, Kaboski and Shin (2011) argue that the misallocation costs of financial frictions can be up to 40% of aggregate TFP in developing economies.[25] In contrast, our model is calibrated to the US economy, in which financial markets are much better developed and therefore misallocation is less than 5%. We nevertheless find that that financial frictions are costly for this US in the long run due to reduced innovation. In this sense, our results suggest that the main aggregate costs of financial frictions in the long run is that fewer new ideas are discovered rather than existing ideas going underfunded.[26]

Sensitivity Analysis Table 5 also performs sensitivity analysis with respect to key parameters in the model. The first two rows show that making the innovation technology more efficient (raising η_0 or η_1 by 25%) increases the growth costs but decreases the misallocation costs of financial frictions. This occurs because higher η_0 or η_1 raise the marginal benefit

[25] Of course, the quantitative magnitudes of misallocation are debated in the literature. Midrigan and Xu (2014) argue that the TFP losses from misallocation are around 5-10% in a model calibrated to Korea.

[26] Another way to compare the growth and misallocation costs would be to compute the present value of lost growth cumulated over time. However, performing this calculation would require computing the entire transition path, which would require making assumptions about the dynamics of how the financial frictions are removed, what agents expect about that path, potentially require modeling other short-term adjustment frictions, etc. An alternative simple back-of-the-envelope alternative is to simply compute the difference in present values of output implied by these different growth rates using a 4% discount rate. Under that metric, the present value of lost growth from financial frictions is approximately 26%.

of innovation, implying that more firms are constrained in terms of innovation relative to investment. The third row of Table 5 shows the effects of raising the collateral constraint by 25%, reducing the degree of financial frictions. As expected, less financial frictions reduce both the growth and misallocation costs. However, the growth costs are still substantial.

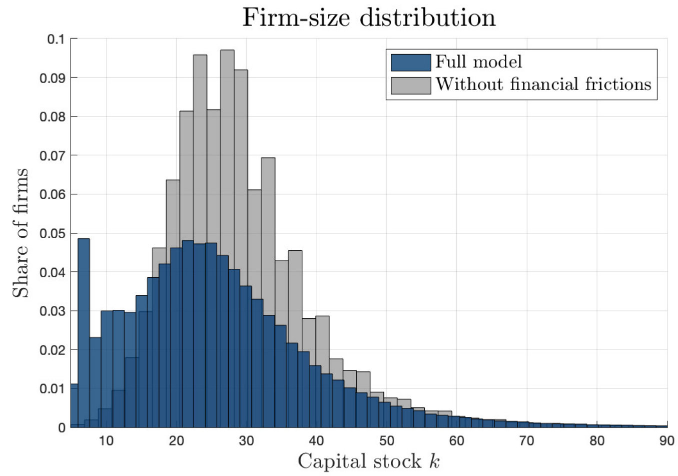
The remaining rows of Table 5 contain further sensitivity analysis. Lower innovation spillovers a reduces the growth effects of financial frictions, as expected from (12). Lower productivity among new entrants z_0 implies that entrants are closer to their efficient scale and therefore less constrained than in the baseline calibration, which reduces the growth and misallocation costs of financial frictions. Raising the capital stock of new entrants k_0 similarly implies that entrants start out closer to their efficient scale, reducing the growth and misallocation costs. In all cases, the growth costs are still substantial.

Role of Innovation Spillovers As we noted in Section 6, we calibrated the innovation spillovers $a = 0.55$ residually to match a long-run growth rate of 2% per year. One concern with this strategy is that there may be other sources of this long-run growth rate outside our model. As a robustness check, we recalibrated the model to target an annual growth rate of $g = 1.5\%$ per year, resulting in smaller innovation spillovers of $a = 0.12$. In this case, the growth costs of financial frictions are still substantial: the annual growth rate is 32bps per year lower due to financial frictions.

7.2 Distributional Effects of Financial Frictions

In the cross section, financial frictions depress innovation primarily in financially constrained firms who are in the early stages of the pecking order. Figure 5 compares the distribution of detrended capital stocks in our calibrated model and the frictionless model. Given the differences in growth rates, direct comparisons across the two economies are not valid, but comparisons within each economy are still meaningful. From this perspective, the size distribution in our full model has more mass in both the left and right tails than does the distribution without financial frictions. The thickness of the left tail reflects the fact that it takes new entrants longer to grow, while the thickness of the right tail reflects the fact that

Figure 5: Distributional Effects of Financial Frictions



Notes: distribution of capital along the balanced growth path. Capital stocks have been detrended in order to compute a stationary distribution, but the resulting distribution has the same cross-sectional properties as the raw distribution (see Appendix B). "Full model" refers to our calibrated model. "Without financial frictions" refers to the version of the model in which firms follow the unconstrained policies $k^*(z)$ and $i^*(z)$ from Proposition 1.

unconstrained firms who survive follow a random growth process with exogenous death.[27]

Because most innovation is done by financially unconstrained firms, Appendix D shows that temporary financial shocks θ_t do not have a particularly persistent effect on aggregate growth in our model (despite the sizeable effects of *permanent* differences in θ described above). This result contrasts with the stylized fact that financial shocks have more persistent negative economic effects in the data (e.g., Cerra and Saxena, 2008). In our model, the majority of innovation at a given time is performed by unconstrained firms, as described above. These firms are not directly affected by the shock and therefore face no impulse to lower innovation. However, an important caveat to this result is that we abstract from how financial frictions affect the initial phase of firm growth.[28]

[27] In fact, these random growth with death dynamics in the right tail generate a Pareto tail (see, e.g., Jones and Kim (2018)). Unfortunately, the model's tail is thinner than in the data because the expected size of successful innovations must be relatively small to match the average size of investment spikes. However, we can thicken the tail by incorporating heterogeneity in the size of successful innovations, which would create heterogeneity in the expected growth rates (again in the spirit of Jones and Kim (2018)). In this extension, the average of these growth rates would still be pinned down by the average size of investment spikes, but the thickness of the right tail would be driven by firms with higher realized growth.

[28] Ates and Saffie (2021) study how financial shocks affect aggregate productivity through the composition of firms' entry in the context of a small open economy experiencing a sudden stop.

8 Policy Implications of Financial Frictions

The equilibrium is not socially efficient because firms do not internalize the positive spillovers from their innovations. In this section, we study a constrained-efficient planner who internalizes the externality. We show that financial frictions create a tradeoff in how the planner chooses the distribution of investment and innovation across firms. We find that simple policies do not decentralize this allocation because they do not generate the same distribution.

8.1 Planner's Allocation

We characterize the problem of a constrained-efficient social planner who faces the same financial constraints as private firms but internalizes the positive spillovers from innovation. In principle, this planner may also want to change the private allocation due to pecuniary externalities through the real interest rate (which may affect welfare due to market incompleteness). We exclude these pecuniary externalities from the main text because they do not affect the long-run choices of the planner and have already been extensively studied in the literature (see, for example, Geanakoplos and Polemarchakis, 1986; Lorenzoni, 2008; Dávila and Korinek, 2018).[29]

Appendix B formulates the planner's problem recursively. The problem is technically challenging because the state variable is the entire distribution of firms and the control variables are entire functions of the firms' individual states. We overcome this challenge by solving the problem in the function space following Lucas and Moll (2014) and Nuño and Moll (2018). We arrive at the following characterization of the solution:

***Proposition* 2.** *In the constrained-efficient allocation, individual allocations solve the augmented Bellman equation*

$$\omega_t^{cont}(z,n) = \max_{k',b',i} n - k' - (A_t z)^{\frac{1}{1-\alpha}} i + \frac{b'}{1+r_t} + \Lambda_t z + \frac{1}{1+r_t}\mathbb{E}_t[\omega_{t+1}(z',n')] \ \textit{s.t.}\ d \geq 0 \ \textit{and}\ b' \leq \theta k' \tag{13}$$

[29] It is straightforward to incorporate pecuniary externalities; results available upon request.

where Λ_t is the planner's shadow value of the innovation externality:

$$\Lambda_t = a\left(\int z_{jt}dj\right)^{a-1} \times \int (1+\lambda_{jt})\left[z_{jt}k_{jt}^{\alpha} - \frac{1}{1-\alpha}(A_t^{\frac{\alpha}{1-\alpha}} z_{jt})^{\frac{1}{1-\alpha}} i_{jt} dj\right] \tag{14}$$

with the convention that $\lambda_{jt} = i_{jt} = 0$ for exiting firms.

Proof. See Appendix B. ■

The only difference between the private Bellman equation (6) and the planner's augmented Bellman equation (13) is the shadow value of the innovation externality, Λ_t. Equation (14) shows that this shadow value is the product of two terms: the marginal impact of an individual firm's productivity, z_{jt}, on aggregate productivity times the marginal social benefit of higher aggregate productivity.[30] This object is itself an integral of a product of two firm-level objects: the marginal increase in production net of innovation costs, $z_{jt}k_{jt}^{\alpha} - \frac{1}{1-\alpha}(A_t^{\frac{\alpha}{1-\alpha}} z_{jt})^{\frac{1}{1-\alpha}} i_{jt}$, times the firms' shadow value of funds, $1+\lambda_{jt}$.

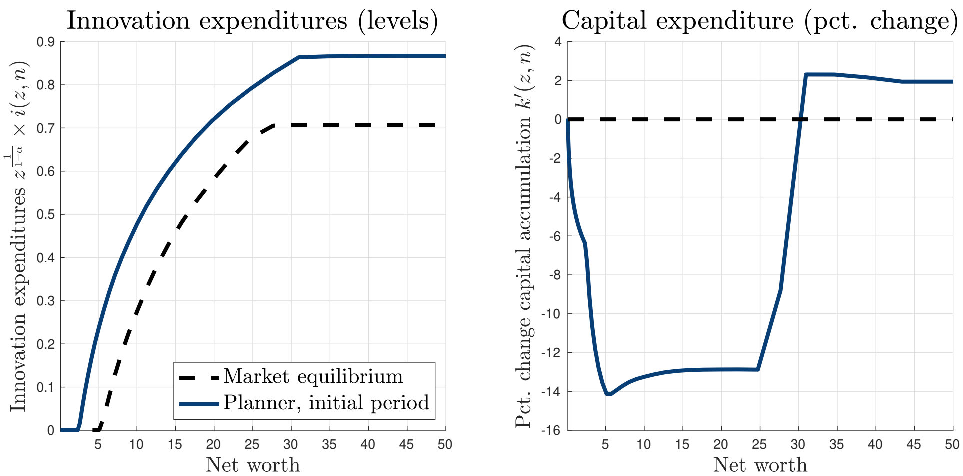
Financial frictions amplify the positive externality of innovation in the sense that a higher shadow value of funds $1+\lambda_{jt}$ raises the social value of innovation through the product in (14). This amplification occurs because the higher production net of innovation costs increases firms' cash flows and therefore alleviates their financial constraints.

Tradeoff Between Investment and Innovation While the planner prefers more innovation than in equilibrium ($\Lambda_t > 0$), it faces a tradeoff in terms of investment due to financial frictions. On the one hand, higher innovation for constrained firms requires less investment expenditures due to their flow-of-funds constraint, i.e. investment and innovation are substitutes for constrained firms. On the other hand, higher innovation incentivizes more investment for unconstrained firms due to the complementarity between productivity and capital, i.e. investment and innovation are complements for unconstrained firms.

In order to characterize this tradeoff, we solve for the transition path chosen by the planner starting from the equilibrium BGP. Figure 6 compares the equilibrium allocation to

[30] Consistent with our focus on established firms, we also assume that the planner takes as given the distribution of new entrants, i.e. does not take into the positive externality through imitation. We make this simplifying assumption because we treat the initial phase as largely outside our model; incorporating this margin would only further increase the positive externality of innovation.

Figure 6: Firm-Level Allocations Chosen by Planner



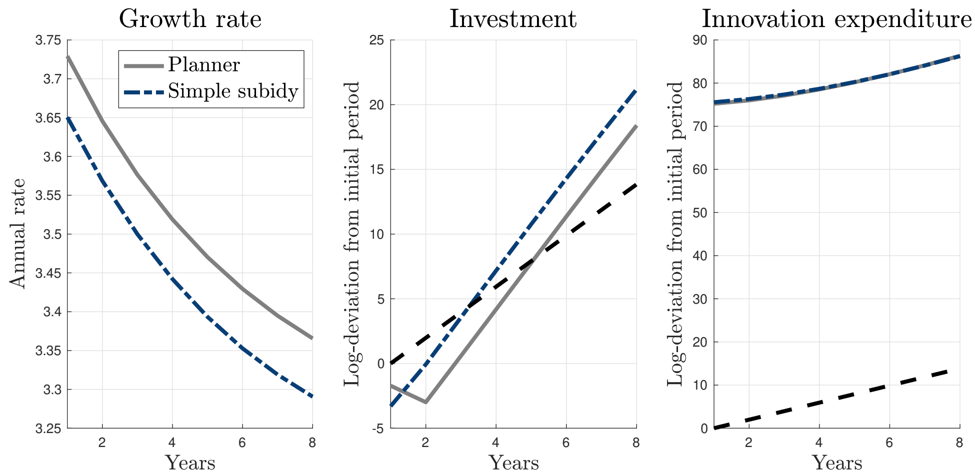
Notes: decision rules in market equilibrium vs. constrained-efficient allocation in initial period of the transition, for a given level of productivity z. Left panel plots innovation expenditures $(A_t z)^{\frac{1}{1-\alpha}} i(z,n)$ for a firm with average productivity z for a given level of net worth. Dashed black line is the private policy rule in the market equilibrium and solid blue line is the planner's policy rule. Right panel plots the percentage difference between the planner's capital accumulation policy relative to the private policy in the market equilibrium.

the planner's allocation in the first period of the transition path. The left panel shows that the planner weakly increases innovation expenditures for all firms because the shadow of the innovation externality is positive $\Lambda_1 > 0$.

The right panel of Figure 6 shows that the planner's allocation of investment is very different for constrained and unconstrained firms. Constrained firms must reduce capital accumulation $k'(z,n)$ by nearly 14% in order to finance higher innovation expenditures. In contrast, unconstrained firms increase capital accumulation around 2% because higher innovation also raises their expected marginal product of capital in the next period.

Figure 7 studies the aggregate implications of this tradeoff over the entire transition path. The substitutability between investment and innovation dominates in the early stage of the transition in the sense that aggregate investment falls. This occurs for two reasons. First, more firms are financially constrained early in the transition, putting them in the substitutable region of the state space illustrated above. Second, the planner requires especially high innovation early on in the transition, implying constrained firms need to substantially reduce their investment. One reason the planner values high innovation early on because

Figure 7: Planner's Allocation and a Simple Innovation Subsidy



Notes: aggregate transition paths chosen by planner (grey lines) and generated by the simple 23% innovation subsidy (dashed blue lines). Growth rate in top rate is in percentage points per year. Aggregate investment and innovation expenditures in the remaining panels are in log-deviations from initial period. Dashed black lines are the growth trajectory in the initial market BGP.

more firms are constrained, amplifying the planner's shadow value of the innovation externality Λ_t described in equation (14).

Over time, the complementarity between investment and innovation begins to dominate in the aggregate in the sense that aggregate investment eventually increases. This occurs because higher innovation raises net worth, implying that more firms are unconstrained and therefore in the complementary region of the state space. In addition, the planner's desired innovation falls over time as the shadow value of the externality falls as well.

8.2 Evaluating Practical Policies

The planner's allocation is difficult to implement in practice because one has to get both the allocation of innovation and investment correct, and the relevant tradeoffs vary across both firms and time.[31]

Figure 7 compares the planner's allocation to a simple, commonly-used policy: a sub-

[31]The planner's augmented Bellman equation (13) suggests one possible implementation: a time-varying transfer to firms proportional to individual productivity. This transfer would have to vary over time to mirror changes in the planner's shadow value Λ_t and vary across firms according to their productivity z_{jt}. Both of these objects are unobservable to policymakers in practice.

sidy to innovation expenditures that is constant across both firms and time. To make the policy comparable to the planner's allocation, we choose the subsidy rate to generate the same increase in *aggregate* innovation expenditures chosen by the planner. However, Figure 7 shows that the subsidy generates 10 basis points less growth per year than the planner's allocation. This result occurs because the subsidy disproportionately increases innovation among unconstrained firms, who have a lower return to innovation $\eta'(i)$. Hence, the innovation subsidy does not fully replicate the planner's solution because it fails to deliver the correct distribution of innovation across firms.[32]

9 Conclusion

In this paper, we have studied the efficiency costs of financial frictions for the macroeconomy. While the quantitative macroeconomic literature has primarily focused on how financial frictions distort investment decisions and misallocate capital, we focused on how financial frictions distort innovation and lower economic growth. We showed these two margins are empirically linked through the pecking order of firm growth. Quantitatively, we found the primary long-run costs of financial frictions is due to lower innovation and growth.. A key contribution of our paper is a new endogenous growth framework with heterogeneous firms and financial frictions that is consistent with this evidence and can be used to draw aggregate implications.

We have purposefully kept our framework as parsimonious as possible in order to focus on the novel mechanisms for our research questions. However, the parsimony of our framework can be leveraged in order to obtain additional insights. For example, extending the model to include labor would also incorporate a negative pecuniary externality of innovation operating through the labor market. In this extension, innovations from unconstrained firms raise labor demand, which in turn raises labor costs and tightens financial constraints on affected firms. The optimal policy would have to balance the tradeoff between growth (coming from the

[32]Appendix D also studies the effects of an investment tax cut in our model. We find that an investment tax cut raises the long-run growth rate by 10 basis points per year because higher capital also stimulates innovation. In contrast, investment tax cuts have no effect on the long-run growth rate in the neoclassical growth model.

innovation spillovers) and misallocation (coming from these pecuniary externalities).

Another extension would relax our assumption that firms cannot sell ideas. Given the frictions in the market for ideas, it is natural to use a search-and-matching model in the spirit of Lucas and Moll (2014), Perla and Tonetti (2014), or Akcigit, Celik and Greenwood (2016). In this extension, firms would choose between spending time producing output and their remaining time searching in the market for ideas. This tradeoff would provide a third source of firm-level growth, technology adoption. We conjecture that low-productivity firms would be more likely to adopt than innovate because their time cost of searching is relatively low and their expected return from matching is relatively high. Conversely, high-productivity firms would be more likely to sell ideas, especially if they are financially constrained. This extension would also endogenize the innovation spillovers through the composition of idea trades that emerges in the market for ideas.

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A Data Appendix

This appendix provides additional empirical results referenced in the main text.

A.1 Data Construction

Variables For the Compustat sample, we define the variables used in our empirical analysis as follows:

1. *Investment rate*: ratio of capital expenditures (`capx`) to lagged plant, property, and equipment (`ppegt`).
2. *R&D share*: ratio of research and development expense (`xrd`) to the sum of capital expenditures and research and development expense. *R&D-to-sales*: ratio of research and development expense to the average of sales (`sale`) in the previous 5 years.
3. *Patents*: Number of patents filed per year (based on the variable `filing_dated`) and market value of patents (based on the variable `xi_real`), constructed from the Kogan et al. (2017) dataset. To construct the patent-value-to-sales ratio, we use the average of sales (`sale`) in the previous 5 years.
4. *Net worth*: defined as sum of plant, property, and equipment and cash and short-term investments (`che`) minus total debt (sum of `dlc` and `dltt`).
5. *Cash flows*: measured as the sum of EBITDA and research and development expense divided by lagged plant, property, and equipment.
6. *Capital-to-employment*: defined at the ratio of lagged plant, property, and equipment to employment (`emp`).

Sample Selection Our empirical analysis excludes:

1. Firms in finance, insurance, and real estate sectors ($\texttt{sic} \in [6000, 6799]$), utilities ($\texttt{sic} \in [4900, 4999]$), nonoperating establishments ($\texttt{sic} = 9995$), and industrial conglomerates ($\texttt{sic} = 9997$).

2. Firms not incorporated in the United States.

3. Firm-year observations that satisfy one of the following conditions, aimed at excluding extreme observations:

    i. Negative assets, sales, capital expenditure, or R&D.

    ii. Low capital values (gross plant, property, and equipment below $5M in 1990 dollars).

    iii. Acquisitions larger than 20% of assets.

    iv. Investment rates higher than 1.

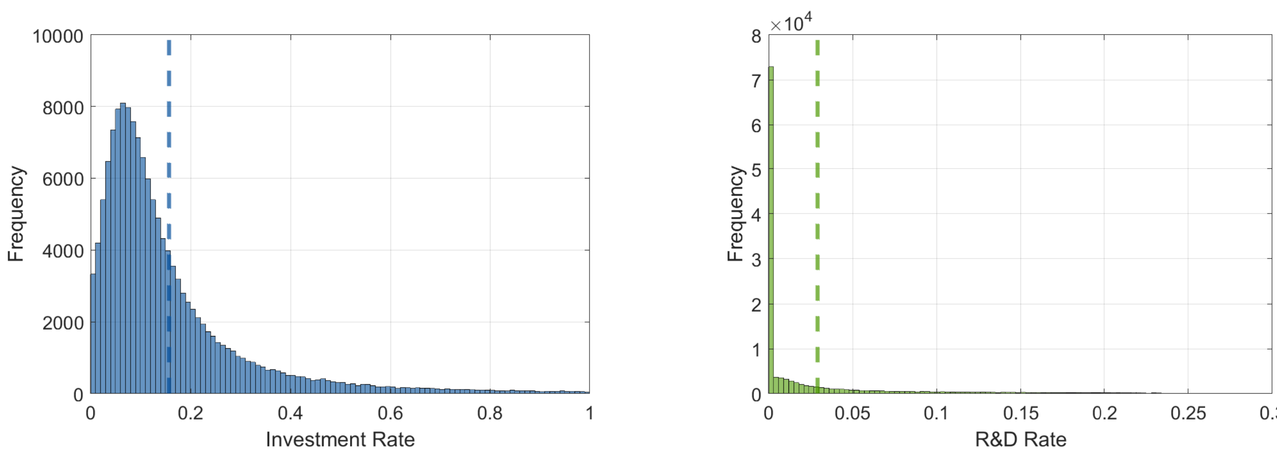
    v. R&D-to-sales ratios higher than 0.3.

    vi. Gross leverage (defined as the ratio of total debt to total assets) higher than 10 or negative.

Descriptive Statistics Table A.1 contains descriptive statistics of our final analysis sample. Figure A.1 plots the distribution of investment rates and R&D-to-sales ratios in our sample.

FIGURE A.1: Distribution of Investment Rates and R&D

(a) Investment rates (b) R&D-to-sales



Notes: This figure shows the histogram of investment rates and the R&D-to-sales ratio. Vertical dashed lines represent each variable mean. For variables definitions and sample selection, see Appendix A.1.

Table A.1
Descriptive statistics

	Mean	Median	St dev	95th	Observations
Investment rate	.155	.107	.15	.48	157,644
Investment spike	.233		.423		157,644
Investment rate | spike	.371	.311	.167	.778	36,735
Time since last spike	4.34	2	6.12	17	111,130
R&D share	.193	0	.29	.84	165,105
R&D-to-sales ratio	.027	0	.055	.166	133,054
Positive R&D expenditure	.433		.495		133,054
R&D-to-sales ratio | positive R&D expenditure	.063	.033	.069	.222	57,584
Leverage	.281	.243	.242	.736	166,641

Notes: This table shows descriptive statistics for variables used in the empirical analysis of Section 6.1. Investment rate, R&D-to-sales ratio, and leverage are defined in Appendix A.1. *Investment spike* denotes a dummy variable that takes the value of one in periods in which a firm's investment rate is above 20%. *Time since last spike* denotes the number of years since the firm experienced the previous investment spike. *Positive R&D expenditure* denotes a dummy variable that takes the value of one in a period in which a firm's research and development expense (`xrd`) is positive. *Investment rate | spike* and *R&D-to-sales ratio | positive R&D expenditure* report, respectively, moments for investment rates conditional on periods of investment spikes and of R&D-to-sales ratios conditional on positive R&D expenditure. For sample selection, see Appendix A.1.

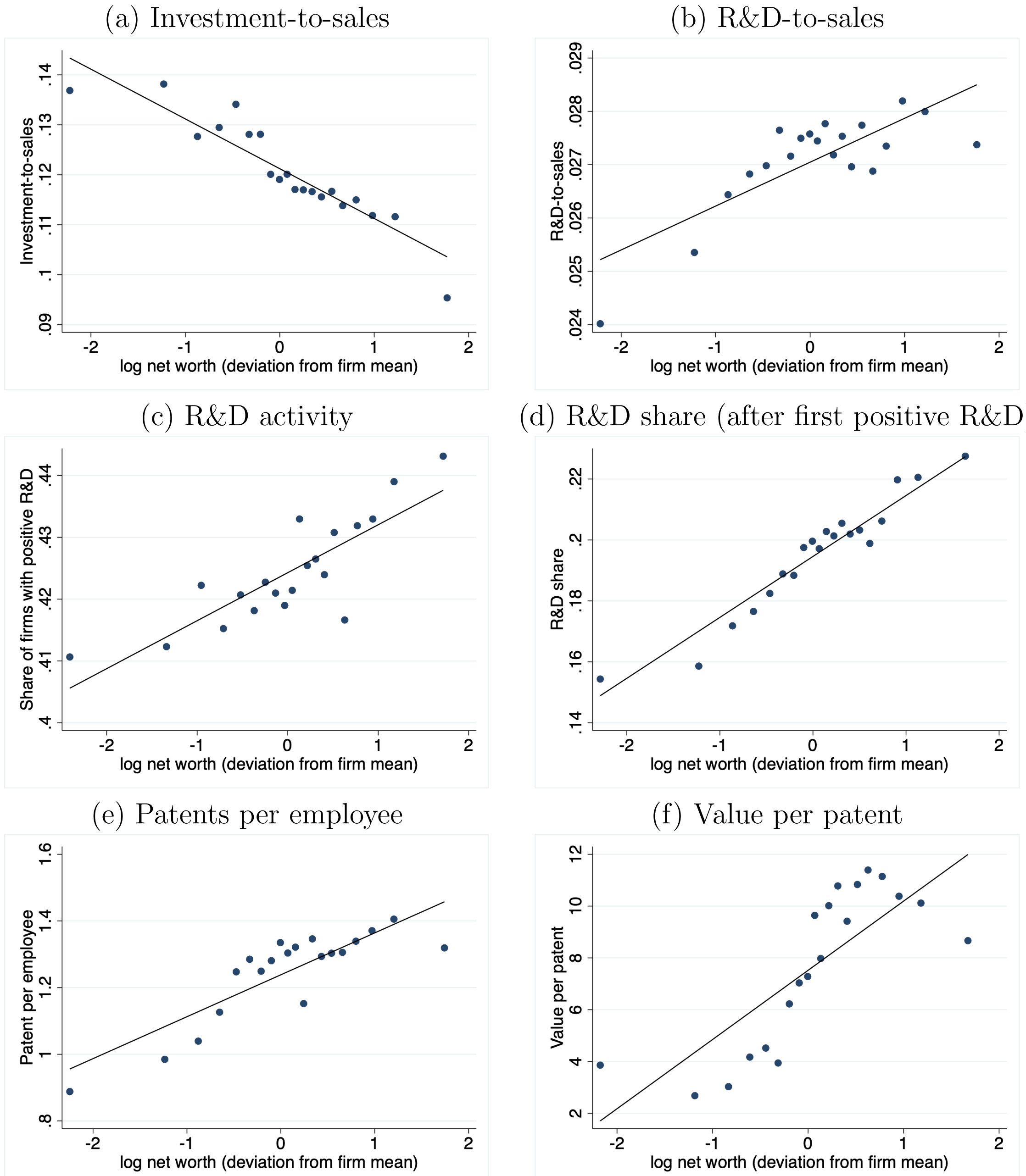
A.2 Robustness of Pecking Order

This section contains the additional robustness analysis described in the main text. We recapitulate that description below.

Figure A.2 shows that our bin-scatter plots look similar for other measures of investment and innovation. Panel (a) shows that the investment-to-sales ratio is declining in net worth, similar to the investment-to-capital ratio presented in the main text. The remaining panels show that other measures of innovation are increasing in net worth: panel (b) is the ratio of R&D expenditures to sales, which is often studied in the literature; panel (c) the share of firms with positive R&D, a measure of the extensive margin; panel (d) is the R&D share for firms that have reported positive R&D in the past, and therefore have presumably set up the accounting infrastructure to record formal R&D with less measurement error; panel (e) is the patents-to-employees ratio, another measure often studied in the literature; and panel (f) the average market value per patent in a given year, a measure of patent quality.

Table A.2 shows that the pecking order is generally robust to using different sources of variation in the data. Panel (a) reports the regression coefficients (1) without the firm fixed

Figure A.2: The Pecking Order of Firm Growth for Other Measures of Investment and Innovation



Notes: Binned scatter plots of the investment-to-sales ratio, the R&D-to-sales ratio, the share of firms with positive R&D, the R&D share (conditional on already having an observation with positive R&D), patents per employee, and the market value per patent (computed following Kogan et al., 2017, and expressed in 1982 millions of dollars, deflated by the CPI) by the log of firm net worth. All variables are demeaned at the firm level. In order to make the units of the outcome variable more interpretable, we add back in the unconditional mean of the outcome variables across all firms. For variable definitions and sample selection, see Appendix A.

Table A.2
Sources of Variation in the Pecking Order

	(1) Investment rate	(2) R&D share	(3) R&D -to-sales	(4) R&D activity	(5) Patent activity	(6) Patent-value -to-sales
(a) No fixed effects						
$\hat{\gamma}$	-0.010	-0.011	0.001	0.029	0.103	0.039
	(0.001)	(0.001)	(0.000)	(0.002)	(0.002)	(0.001)
N	45939	47290	41664	49109	49109	31177
R^2	0.009	0.002	0.001	0.003	0.048	0.053
(b) Firm fixed effects (baseline)						
$\hat{\gamma}$	-0.068	0.024	0.002	0.016	0.049	0.021
	(0.003)	(0.003)	(0.001)	(0.006)	(0.007)	(0.005)
N	45935	47286	41661	49105	49105	31176
R^2	0.263	0.857	0.877	0.854	0.639	0.678
(c) Sector fixed effects						
$\hat{\gamma}$	-0.014	0.019	0.006	0.073	0.155	0.062
	(0.002)	(0.005)	(0.002)	(0.010)	(0.010)	(0.012)
N	45939	47290	41664	49109	49109	31177
R^2	0.084	0.586	0.494	0.549	0.360	0.261
(d) Sector-by-time fixed effects						
$\hat{\gamma}$	-0.0005	0.014	0.007	0.085	0.196	0.071
	(0.003)	(0.005)	(0.002)	(0.011)	(0.011)	(0.014)
N	42962	44278	38785	46173	46173	28713
R^2	0.198	0.571	0.443	0.519	0.358	0.205
(e) Firm and time fixed effects						
$\hat{\gamma}$	-0.025	-0.007	0.003	0.018	0.097	0.021
	(0.003)	(0.004)	(0.001)	(0.008)	(0.009)	(0.005)
N	45935	47286	41661	49105	49105	31176
R^2	0.318	0.862	0.878	0.855	0.643	0.691

Notes: Panel (a) shows the results from estimating the regression $o_{jt} = \alpha + \gamma \log n_{jt} + \epsilon_{jt}$, where o_{jt} is the outcome of interest (investment rate, R&D share, R&D-to-sales, indicator for positive R&D, indicator for positive patenting, or patent-value-to-sales ratio); and n_{jt} is net worth (standardized over the whole sample). Panel (b) shows our baseline results, from estimating the regression $o_{jt} = \alpha_j + \gamma \log n_{jt} + \epsilon_{jt}$, where α_j is a firm fixed effect. Panel (c) reports the results from estimating $o_{jt} = \alpha_s + \gamma \log n_{jt} + \epsilon_{jt}$, where α_s is a sector fixed effect. Panel (d) reports the results from estimating $o_{jt} = \alpha_{st} + \gamma \log n_{jt} + \epsilon_{jt}$, where α_{st} is a sector-by-time fixed effect. Panel (e) reports the results from estimating $o_{jt} = \alpha_j + \alpha_t + \gamma \log n_{jt} + \epsilon_{jt}$, where α_t is a time fixed effect. Standard errors, reported in parentheses, are clustered at the firm level. For variable definitions and sample selection, see Appendix A.

effects α_j. Panel (b) then includes firm fixed effects, which is our baseline specification from the main text. Panel (c) replaces the firm fixed effects with 4-digit sector fixed effects α_s. Panel (d) includes sector-by-year fixed effects α_{st} to focus on within-sector-year variation. Finally, panel (e) includes firm and year fixed effects to absorb aggregate trends in the outcome variables.

Table A.3
The Pecking Order of Firm Growth for Alternative Samples

	(1) Investment rate	(2) R&D share	(3) R&D -to-sales	(4) R&D activity	(5) Patent activity	(6) Patent-value -to-sales
(a) Unrestricted sample						
$\hat{\gamma}$	-0.061	0.021	0.002	0.017	0.057	0.016
	(0.002)	(0.002)	(0.000)	(0.003)	(0.004)	(0.003)
N	134754	140545	115194	142163	142163	85297
R^2	0.322	0.888	0.889	0.878	0.613	0.703
(b) Firms with more than 20 years of data (baseline)						
$\hat{\gamma}$	-0.068	0.024	0.002	0.016	0.049	0.021
	(0.003)	(0.003)	(0.001)	(0.006)	(0.007)	(0.005)
N	45935	47286	41661	49105	49105	31176
R^2	0.263	0.857	0.877	0.854	0.639	0.678
(c) Continuously innovative firms with more than 20 years of data						
$\hat{\gamma}$	-0.064	0.043	0.003	0.008	0.050	0.039
	(0.003)	(0.005)	(0.001)	(0.009)	(0.011)	(0.009)
N	27057	27743	25450	28854	28854	18984
R^2	0.267	0.807	0.855	0.752	0.477	0.654

Notes: This table shows the results from estimating the regression $o_{jt} = \alpha_j + \gamma \log n_{jt} + \epsilon_{jt}$, where o_{jt} is the outcome of interest (investment rate, R&D share, R&D-to-sales, indicator for positive R&D, indicator for positive patenting, or patent-value-to-sales ratio); n_{jt} is net worth (standardized over the whole sample); and α_j is a firm fixed effect. Panel (a) reports results using the sample of all firms and periods; panel (b) shows our baseline sample, including firms with at least 20 years of observations; and panel (c) the sample of firms with at least 20 years of observations and that are "continuously innovative" (i.e., firms that have conducted positive R&D or patenting activity over the last five years). For variable definitions and sample selection, see Appendix A.

Table A.3 shows that the pecking order is also robust when using different samples of firms. Panel (a) uses all firms in the sample, without selecting on firms that have at least twenty years of observations as in our baseline sample. Panel (b) uses our baseline sample from the main text. Finally, panel (c) conditions on Akcigit and Kerr (2018)'s definition

Table A.4
Investment spikes and Innovation: Robustness

	(1)	(2)	(3)	(4)	(5)
$\frac{\text{RD}_{jt-1}}{\tilde{y}_{jt-1}}$	1.115	0.65	1.10	1.13	1.03
	(0.15)	(0.14)	(0.15)	(0.15)	(0.15)
Measure of spikes	Absolute	Sectoral	Absolute	Absolute	Absolute
Lags	4	4	3	5	4
Additional controls	No	No	No	No	Size, sales growth, current assets
Observations	55,647	39,215	55,647	50,117	54,191
Adj. R^2	0.300	0.220	0.300	0.294	0.314

Notes: Results from estimating $\mathbb{1}\{\frac{x_{jt}}{k_{jt}} \geq \chi_s\} = \alpha_j + \alpha_{st} + \sum_{h=1}^{H} \beta_h \left(\frac{\text{RD}_{jt-h}}{\tilde{y}_{jt-h}}\right) + \Gamma' X_{jt} + \epsilon_{jt}$, where $\frac{x_{jt}}{k_{jt}}$ denotes the investment rate of firm j in period t; χ_s is a threshold defining investment spikes; $\frac{\widehat{i}_{jt}}{\tilde{y}_{jt}}$ the R&D-to-sales ratio; α_j and α_{st} firm and time by sector fixed effects; $X_{j,t}$ is a vector of firm-level controls; and ϵ_{jt} is a residual. Column (1) reports estimates for the baseline specification of Table 2, with $\chi_s = 0.2$, $H = 1$, and the vector X_{jt} including cash flows ($\frac{\text{cf}_{jt}}{k_{jt}}$) and the lumpy-investment controls (years since the last investment spike, years since spike$_{t-1}$, and the standardized capital-output ratio, $\frac{k_{jt}}{n_{jt-1}}$). Column (2) uses a "sectoral" threshold for investment spikes, where χ_{ts} is the mean plus one standard deviation of the distribution of investment rates of sector s (at 2-digit NAICS level). Columns (3) and (4) report results for alternative lags of the R&D-to-sales ratio: $H = 3$ and $H = 5$. Column (5) includes additional control variables: size (measured with the log of real plant, property, and equipment), sales growth, and the share of current assets. For variable definitions and descriptive statistics, see Appendix A.

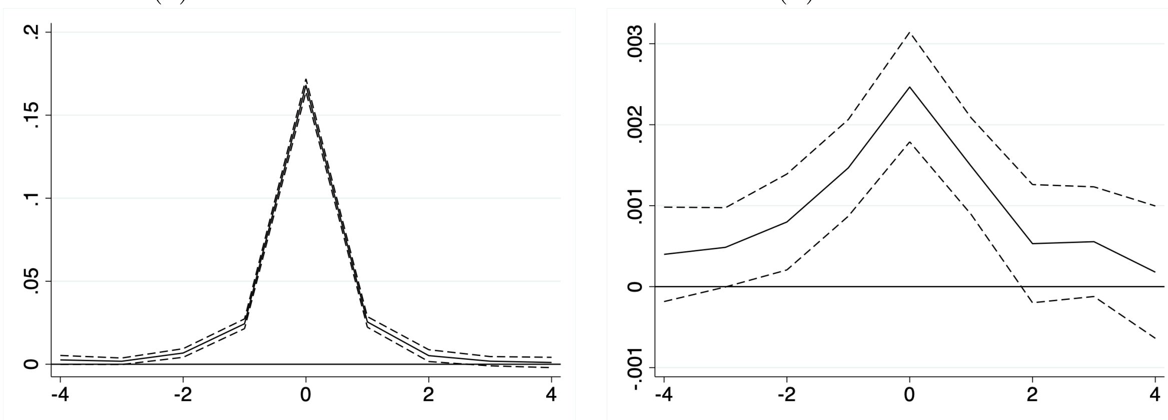
of "continuously innovative firms" in our baseline sample, i.e., firms which have at least twenty years of observations and have conducted positive R&D or patenting activity over the previous five years.

A.3 Innovation and Investment Spikes

This appendix contains four additional results about the relationship between R&D expenditures and investment spikes referenced in Section 6. First, Table A.4 Columns (1), (3), and (4) show that the main coefficient estimates are robust to including different numbers of lag H. Second, Table A.4 Column (2) shows that the result holds when spikes are defined as an investment rate of one standard deviation above the mean investment rate within sector s. Third, Table A.4 Column (5) shows that the results hold when adding size, sales growth, and current assets to the control vector X_{jt}. Finally, Figure A.3 complements the regression results with an event-study analysis around an investment spike.

Figure A.3: Event Study Analysis of Investment Spikes

(a) Investment rates (b) R&D-to-sales



Notes: This figure shows the dynamics of investment rates and R&D-to-sales around investment spike episodes. The figure reports the coefficients β_h from estimating $y_{jt} = \alpha_j + \alpha_{st} + \sum_{h=-4}^{4} \beta_h \mathbb{1}\{\frac{x_{jt+h}}{k_{jt+h}} \geq 0.2\} + \varepsilon_{jt}$, where y_{jt} denotes the investment rate ($\frac{x_{jt}}{k_{jt}}$) or R&D-to-sales ratio ($\frac{\mathrm{RD}_t}{\tilde{y}_t}$); α_j and α_{ts} firm and time by sector fixed effects; and ε_{jt} is a random error term. For variable definitions and descriptive statistics, see Appendix.

B Model Appendix

This appendix provides various details of model analysis mentioned in the main text. Section B.1 characterizes firms' decision rules, proves Proposition 1, and provides details of the BGP. Section B.2 shows how to add labor to the model, as described in Footnote 8. Section B.3 provides details about the tax code discussed in Section 6.3 and Section 8.2. Section B.4 derive the expressions relating to the costs of financial frictions in Section 7. Finally, Section B.5 sets up the planner's problem and proves Proposition 2.

B.1 Firms' Decision Rules and the BGP

This subsection characterizes the individual firm's decisions and defines a balanced growth path. We proceed in three steps. First, we detrend the problem in order to work with a stationary system, which is what we solve numerically. Second, we characterize the solution of the detrended problem and show that it results in Proposition 1 in the main text. Finally, we use these results to show that all decisions and macroeconomic aggregates scale with the growth rate g in a balanced growth path.

B.1.1 Detrending

We will scale the problem by $Z_t = \left(A_t \int z_{jt} dj\right)^{\frac{1}{1-\alpha}} = \left(\int z_{jt} dj\right)^{\frac{1+a}{1-\alpha}}$. To that end, let $\widetilde{n} = \frac{n}{Z_t}$, $\widetilde{k} = \frac{k}{Z_t}$ denote variables relative to Z_t. The only except is that we will define $\widetilde{z} = \frac{z}{\int z_{jt} dj}$. Divide the Bellman equation (6) by Z_t to get

$$\frac{v_t^{\text{cont}}(z,n)}{Z_t} = \max_{k',i,b'} \frac{n}{Z_t} - \frac{k'}{Z_t} - \frac{(A_t z)^{\frac{1}{1-\alpha}} i}{Z_t} + \frac{b'}{Z_t(1+r_t)} + \frac{1}{1+r_t} \mathbb{E}_t \left[\pi_d \frac{n'}{Z_t} + (1-\pi_d) \frac{v_{t+1}^{\text{cont}}(z',n')}{Z_t} \right], \quad (15)$$

where we have expanded $\mathbb{E}_t[v_{t+1}(z',n')] = \pi_d \mathbb{E}_t[n'] + (1-\pi_d)\mathbb{E}_t[v_{t+1}^{\text{cont}}(z',n')]$.

Our goal is to write (15) in terms of the detrended variables and the growth rate $g_t = \frac{Z_{t+1}}{Z_t}$ only. To that end, note that $\frac{k'}{Z_t} = \frac{k'}{Z_{t+1}} \frac{Z_{t+1}}{Z_t} = (1+g_t)\widetilde{k}'$ and $\frac{b'}{Z_t} = (1+g_t)\widetilde{b}'$. Now multiply and divide the continuation value by $\frac{Z_{t+1}}{Z_{t+1}}$ to get

$$\frac{v_t^{\text{cont}}(z,n)}{Z_t} = \max_{k',i,b'} \widetilde{n} - (1+g_t)\widetilde{k}' - \widetilde{z}^{\frac{1}{1-\alpha}} i + \frac{(1+g_t)\widetilde{b}'}{(1+r_t)} + \frac{1+g_t}{1+r_t} \mathbb{E}_t \left[\pi_d \widetilde{n}' + (1-\pi_d) \frac{v_{t+1}^{\text{cont}}(z',n')}{Z_{t+1}} \right].$$

Define $\widetilde{v}_t(\widetilde{z},\widetilde{n}) = \frac{v_t^{\text{cont}}(z,n)}{Z_t}$ to arrive at our final detrended Bellman equation:

$$\widetilde{v}_t(\widetilde{z},\widetilde{n}) = \max_{\widetilde{k}',i,\widetilde{b}'} \widetilde{n} - (1+g_t)\widetilde{k}' - \widetilde{z}^{\frac{1}{1-\alpha}} i + \frac{(1+g_t)\widetilde{b}'}{(1+r_t)} + \frac{1+g_t}{1+r_t} \mathbb{E}_t \left[\pi_d \widetilde{n}' + (1-\pi_d) \widetilde{v}_{t+1}(\widetilde{z}',\widetilde{n}') \right]. \quad (16)$$

Finally, we detrend the constraints and consistency conditions of this problem. Clearly, we have $\widetilde{d} \geq 0$, $\widetilde{b}' \leq \theta \widetilde{k}'$, and $\widetilde{n}' = \widetilde{z}'(\widetilde{k}')^\alpha + (1-\delta)\widetilde{k}' - \widetilde{b}'$. In terms of the law of motion for z, in the event of a successful innovation, we have

$$\log \frac{z}{\int z_{jt+1} dj} = \log \frac{z}{\int z_{jt+1} dj} + \Delta + \varepsilon_{jt+1} = \log \frac{z}{\int z_{jt} dj} \frac{\int z_{jt} dj}{\int z_{jt+1} dj} + \Delta + \varepsilon_{jt+1}$$

which implies

$$\log \widetilde{z}' = \log \frac{\widetilde{z}}{1+\widetilde{g}_t} + \Delta + \varepsilon_{jt+1}$$

where $\widetilde{g}_t = \frac{\int z_{jt+1} dj}{\int z_{jt} dj}$ is the growth rate of firm-specific productivity.

B.1.2 Proof of Proposition 1

Our characterization in Proposition 1 is similar to Khan and Thomas (2013), extended to include the innovation decision. We proceed in three steps. First, we set up the Lagrangian and take the associated first-order conditions. Second, we use those first-order conditions to derive the partition of the state space from the first part of Proposition 1. Finally, for convenience, we un-detrend those first-order conditions to get the system of equations in the second part of Proposition 1.

Lagrangian The Lagrangian of the detrended Bellman equation (16) is

$$\mathcal{L} = (1+\lambda_t(\widetilde{z},\widetilde{n}))\left(\widetilde{n} - (1+g_t)\widetilde{k}' - \widetilde{z}^{\frac{1}{1-\alpha}} i + \frac{(1+g_t)\widetilde{b}'}{(1+r_t)}\right) + (1+g_t)\mu_t(\widetilde{z},\widetilde{n})\left(\theta\widetilde{k}' - \widetilde{b}'\right) \tag{17}$$
$$+ \chi_t(\widetilde{z},\widetilde{n}) i + \frac{1+g_t}{1+r_t}\mathbb{E}_t\left[\pi_d \widetilde{n}' + (1-\pi_d)\widetilde{v}_{t+1}(\widetilde{z}',\widetilde{n}')\right],$$

where $\lambda_t(\widetilde{z},\widetilde{n})$ is the multiplier on the no-equity issuance constraint $\widetilde{d} \geq 0$, $\mu_t(\widetilde{z},\widetilde{n})$ is the multiplier on the collateral constraint $\widetilde{b}' \leq \theta\widetilde{k}'$, and $\chi_t(\widetilde{z},\widetilde{n})$ is the multiplier on the nonnegativity constraint on innovation $i \geq 0$.

The first-order condition for borrowing $\widetilde{b}'$ is

$$(1+\lambda_t(\widetilde{z},\widetilde{n}))\frac{1+g_t}{1+r_t} = (1+g_t)\mu_t(\widetilde{z},\widetilde{n}) - \frac{1+g_t}{1+r_t}\mathbb{E}_t\left[\pi_d\frac{\partial\widetilde{n}'}{\partial\widetilde{b}'} + (1-\pi_d)\frac{\partial\widetilde{v}_{t+1}(\widetilde{z}',\widetilde{n}')}{\partial\widetilde{n}'}\frac{\partial\widetilde{n}'}{\partial\widetilde{b}'}\right].$$

From the envelope condition, we have $\frac{\partial\widetilde{v}_t(\widetilde{z},\widetilde{n})}{\partial\widetilde{n}'} = 1+\lambda_t(\widetilde{z},\widetilde{n})$. Use that together with $\frac{\partial\widetilde{n}'}{\partial\widetilde{b}'} = -1$ to get

$$(1+\lambda_t(\widetilde{z},\widetilde{n}))\frac{1+g_t}{1+r_t} = (1+g_t)\mu_t(\widetilde{z},\widetilde{n}) + \frac{1+g_t}{1+r_t}\mathbb{E}_t\left[\pi_d + (1-\pi_d)(1+\lambda_{t+1}(\widetilde{z}',\widetilde{n}'))\right].$$

Note that $\pi_d + (1-\pi_d)(1+\lambda_{t+1}(\widetilde{z},\widetilde{n})) = 1 + (1-\pi_d)\lambda_{t+1}(\widetilde{z},\widetilde{n})$. Use that fact, multiply by $\frac{1+r_t}{1+g_t}$, and subtract 1 from both sides to finally arrive at

$$\lambda_t(\widetilde{z},\widetilde{n}) = (1+r_t)\mu_t(\widetilde{z},\widetilde{n}) + (1-\pi_d)\mathbb{E}_t\lambda_{t+1}(\widetilde{z}',\widetilde{n}'). \tag{18}$$

Hence, the financial wedge $\lambda_t(\widetilde{z},\widetilde{n})$ is the expected value of current and all future Lagrange multipliers on the collateral constraint $\mu_t(\widetilde{z},\widetilde{n})$, discounted by the exit probability.

The first-order condition for capital accumulation $\widetilde{k}'$ is

$$(1+g_t)(1+\lambda_t(\widetilde{z},\widetilde{n})) = \theta(1+g_t)\mu_t(\widetilde{z},\widetilde{n}) + \frac{1+g_t}{1+r_t}\mathbb{E}_t\left[\pi_d\frac{\partial\widetilde{n}'}{\partial\widetilde{k}'} + (1-\pi_d)\frac{\partial\widetilde{v}_{t+1}(\widetilde{z}',\widetilde{n}')}{\partial\widetilde{n}'}\frac{\partial\widetilde{n}'}{\partial\widetilde{k}'}\right].$$

Note that $\frac{\partial\widetilde{n}'}{\partial\widetilde{k}'} = MPK(\widetilde{z}',\widetilde{k}') + (1-\delta)$, where $MPK(\widetilde{z}',\widetilde{k}') = \alpha\widetilde{z}'(\widetilde{k}')^{\alpha-1}$ is the marginal product of capital. Using very similar steps to above, the terms in the continuation value can be collected to yield

$$1+\lambda_t(\widetilde{z},\widetilde{n}) = \theta\mu_t(\widetilde{z},\widetilde{n}) + \frac{1}{1+r_t}\mathbb{E}_t\left[\Big(MPK(\widetilde{z}',\widetilde{k}') + (1-\delta)\Big)\big(1+(1-\pi_d)\lambda_{t+1}(\widetilde{z}',\widetilde{n}')\big)\right]. \quad (19)$$

The first-order condition for innovation i is

$$(1+\lambda_t(\widetilde{z},\widetilde{n}))\widetilde{z}^{\frac{1}{1-\alpha}} = \chi_t(\widetilde{z},\widetilde{n}) + \frac{1+g_t}{1+r_t}\frac{\partial}{\partial i}\mathbb{E}_t\left[\pi_d\widetilde{n}' + (1-\pi_d)\widetilde{v}_{t+1}(\widetilde{z}',\widetilde{n}')\right].$$

Consider the term in the continuation value in the case where the firm exits in the next period. We can write this expectation as $\mathbb{E}_t[\widetilde{n}'] = \eta(i)\mathbb{E}^\varepsilon[\widetilde{n}'|\iota=1] + (1-\eta(i))\mathbb{E}^\varepsilon[\widetilde{n}'|\iota=0]$ where $\mathbb{E}^\varepsilon$ denotes the expectation over the idiosyncratic shocks ε. Hence, we have $\frac{\partial\mathbb{E}_t[\widetilde{n}']}{\partial i} = \eta'(i)\left(E^\varepsilon[\widetilde{n}'|\iota=1] - E^\varepsilon[\widetilde{n}'|\iota=0]\right)$. By a similar argument,

$$\frac{\partial\mathbb{E}_t[\widetilde{v}_{t+1}(\widetilde{z}',\widetilde{n}')]}{\partial i} = \eta'(i)\left(E^\varepsilon[\widetilde{v}_{t+1}(\widetilde{z}',\widetilde{n}')|\iota=1] - E^\varepsilon[\widetilde{v}_{t+1}(\widetilde{z}',\widetilde{n}')|\iota=0]\right).$$

Putting these all together yields

$$(1+\lambda_t(\widetilde{z},\widetilde{n}))\widetilde{z}^{\frac{1}{1-\alpha}} \geq \frac{1+g_t}{1+r_t}\eta'(i)\begin{bmatrix}\pi_d\big(E^\varepsilon[\widetilde{n}'|\iota=1] - E^\varepsilon[\widetilde{n}'|\iota=0]\big) + \\ (1-\pi_d)\big(E^\varepsilon[\widetilde{v}_{t+1}(\widetilde{z}',\widetilde{n}')|\iota=1] - E^\varepsilon[\widetilde{v}_{t+1}(\widetilde{z}',\widetilde{n}')|\iota=0]\big)\end{bmatrix}, \quad (20)$$

with equality if $i > 0$.

To summarize, the firm's optimal decisions are characterized by the first-order conditions

(18), (19), and (20) together with the complementary slackness conditions:

$$\mu_t(\widetilde{z},\widetilde{n})(\theta\widetilde{k}'-\widetilde{b}')=0 \text{ with } \mu_t(\widetilde{z},\widetilde{n})\geq 0, \text{ and}$$
$$\lambda_t(\widetilde{z},\widetilde{n})\widetilde{d}=0 \text{ with } \lambda_t(\widetilde{z},\widetilde{n})\geq 0.$$

Partition of State Space We now use these first order conditions to derive the partition of the state space in the first part of Proposition 1.

Unconstrained Firms: We define a financially unconstrained firm as one for whom the financial wedge $\lambda_t(z,n)=0$. From (18), these firms have zero probability of a binding collateral constraint in the future, so $\mu_{jt+s}=\lambda_{jt+s}=0$ for all $s\geq 0$; that is, being unconstrained is an absorbing state. We will guess and verify that these firms decisions are independent of net worth and are characterized by a set of objects $\widetilde{b}_t'^*(\widetilde{z})$, $\widetilde{k}_t'^*(\widetilde{z})$, $i_t^*(\widetilde{z})$, and $\widetilde{v}_t^*(\widetilde{z})$. We now characterize these objects.

First, because $\lambda_t(\widetilde{z},\widetilde{n})=\mu_t(\widetilde{z},\widetilde{n})=0$, they are indifferent over any combination of b' and d which leaves them financially unconstrained. Following Khan and Thomas (2013), we resolve this indeterminacy by assuming firms accumulate the most debt (or, if $b'<0$, do the least amount of savings) which leaves them financially unconstrained. Khan and Thomas (2013) refer to this policy $b_t'^*(\widetilde{z})$ as the *minimum savings policy*. In order to derive a characterization of it, note that if the firm adopts $b_t'^*(\widetilde{z})$ in period t, then its dividends in the next period $t+1$, conditional on a particular realized state $\widetilde{z}'$, are

$$\widetilde{d}_{t+1}(\widetilde{z}')=\widetilde{z}'(\widetilde{k}_t'^*(\widetilde{z}))^\alpha+(1-\delta)\widetilde{k}_t'^*(\widetilde{z})-\widetilde{b}_t'^*(\widetilde{z})-(\widetilde{z}')^{\frac{1}{1-\alpha}}i_{t+1}^*(\widetilde{z}')-(1+g_{t+1})\widetilde{k}_{t+1}'^*(\widetilde{z}')+\frac{1+g_{t+1}}{1+r_{t+1}}\widetilde{b}_{t+1}'^*(\widetilde{z}')$$

In order to be financially unconstrained, it must be the case that $\widetilde{d}_{t+1}(\widetilde{z}')\geq 0$ for all $\widetilde{z}'$ which have a positive probability. The minimum savings policy $\widetilde{b}_t'^*(\widetilde{z})$ is the largest level of debt which satisfies this constraint with probability one:

$$\widetilde{b}_t'^*(\widetilde{z})=\min_{\widetilde{z}'}\widetilde{z}'(\widetilde{k}_t'^*(\widetilde{z}))^\alpha+(1-\delta)\widetilde{k}_t'^*(\widetilde{z})-(\widetilde{z}')^{\frac{1}{1-\alpha}}i_{t+1}^*(\widetilde{z}')-(1+g_{t+1})\widetilde{k}_{t+1}'^*(\widetilde{z}')+\frac{1+g_{t+1}}{1+r_{t+1}}\widetilde{b}_{t+1}'^*(\widetilde{z}') \quad (21)$$

Note that this policy implies dividends are zero at a minimizer of the RHS of (21) and strictly positive otherwise.

Next, we define $\widetilde{v}_t^*(\widetilde{z})$ to be the value of a firm starting right after they adopt the unconstrained policies:

$$\widetilde{v}_t^*(\widetilde{z}) = -(1+g_t)\widetilde{k}_t'^*(\widetilde{z}) - \widetilde{z}^{\frac{1}{1-\alpha}} i_t^*(\widetilde{z}) + \frac{(1+g_t)\widetilde{b}_t'^*(\widetilde{z})}{1+r_t} + \frac{1}{1+r_t}\mathbb{E}_t\left[\widetilde{n}' + (1-\pi_d)\widetilde{v}_{t+1}^*(\widetilde{z}')\right], \quad (22)$$

where $\widetilde{n}' = \widetilde{z}'(\widetilde{k}_t'^*(\widetilde{z}))^\alpha + (1-\delta)\widetilde{k}_t'^*(\widetilde{z}) - \widetilde{b}_t'^*(\widetilde{z})$ is independent of $\widetilde{n}$. Since the financial constraints never bind for unconstrained firms, their value function is linearly separable in net worth. Therefore, the total value of a firm who becomes unconstrained in period t is $\widetilde{v}_t(\widetilde{z}, \widetilde{n}) = \widetilde{n} + \widetilde{v}_t^*(\widetilde{z})$.

Given this characterization of the value function, the first-order conditions for capital and innovation (19) and (20) become

$$1 = \frac{1}{1+r_t}\mathbb{E}_t[MPK(\widetilde{z}', \widetilde{k}') + (1-\delta)] \quad (23)$$

$$1 \geq \frac{\eta'(i)}{\widetilde{z}^{\frac{1}{1-\alpha}}}\frac{1+g_t}{1+r_t}\mathbb{E}_t\begin{bmatrix}\pi_d\left(E^\varepsilon[\widetilde{n}'|\iota=1] - E^\varepsilon[\widetilde{n}'|\iota=0]\right) + \\ (1-\pi_d)\left(E^\varepsilon[\widetilde{v}_{t+1}^*(\widetilde{z}')|\iota=1] - E^\varepsilon[\widetilde{v}_{t+1}^*(\widetilde{z}')|\iota=0]\right)\end{bmatrix}. \quad (24)$$

Note that the innovation policy implicitly enters the first-order condition for capital (23) through the expectations operator. Nevertheless, one can verify from (23) and (24) that these policies are independent of current net worth $\widetilde{n}$ given that both $\widetilde{n}'$ and $\widetilde{v}_{t+1}^*(\widetilde{z}')$ are themselves independent of net worth.

Finally, note that if it is feasible to follow these policies, then it will also be optimal because they solve the firm's profit maximization problem with an expanded choice set. In turn, it is feasible to follow these policies if the firm can adopt them without violating the no-equity issuance constraint:

$$\widetilde{n} - (1+g_t)k_t'^*(\widetilde{z}) - \widetilde{z}^{\frac{1}{1-\alpha}} i_t^*(\widetilde{z}) + \frac{1+g_t}{1+r_t}\widetilde{b}_t'^*(\widetilde{z}) \geq 0. \quad (25)$$

This condition is satisfied if and only if $\widetilde{n} \geq \overline{n}_t(\widetilde{z}) \equiv (1+g_t)\widetilde{k}_t'^*(\widetilde{z}) + \widetilde{z}^{\frac{1}{1-\alpha}} i_t^*(\widetilde{z}) - \frac{(1+g_t)\widetilde{b}_t'^*(\widetilde{z})}{1+r_t}$.

Constrained Firms: We define financially constrained firms as those for whom $\lambda_t(z,n) > 0$, i.e., there is a positive probability of facing a binding collateral constraint. These firms' decision rules are characterized by the full system of first-order conditions (18), (19), and

(20), and therefore depend on net worth. We divide these firms into two cases: (i) *currently constrained* firms currently face a binding collateral constraint, i.e., $\mu_t(\widetilde{z},\widetilde{n}) > 0$, and (ii) *potentially constrained* firms who do not currently face a binding collateral constraint, i.e., $\mu_t(\widetilde{z},\widetilde{n}) = 0$.

To derive the threshold $\underline{n}_t(\widetilde{z},\widetilde{n})$ from the proposition, let $i_t^{\mathrm{p}}(\widetilde{z},\widetilde{n})$, $\widetilde{k}_t'^{\mathrm{p}}(\widetilde{z},\widetilde{n})$, and $\widetilde{b}_t'^{\mathrm{p}}(\widetilde{z},\widetilde{n})$ denote the policy rules of the currently constrained firms. If these choices are feasible, then they are also optimal because they solve a relaxed version of the full problem. The policies are feasible as long as

$$\widetilde{n} \geq \underline{n}_t(\widetilde{z},\widetilde{n}) \equiv \widetilde{z}^{\frac{1}{1-\alpha}} i_t(\widetilde{z},\widetilde{n}) + (1+g_t)\widetilde{k}_t'^{\mathrm{p}}(\widetilde{z},\widetilde{n}) - \frac{(1+g_t)b_t'^{\mathrm{p}}(\widetilde{z},\widetilde{n})}{1+r_t}.$$

Un-Detrending the Conditions We now show that the detrended first-order conditions (18), (19), and (20) derived above imply the conditions (7), (8), and (9) from the main text.

We start with the first-order condition for capital. First note that, from the chain rule,

$$\frac{\partial v_t(z,n)}{\partial n} = Z_t \frac{\partial \widetilde{v}_t(\widetilde{z}, \frac{n}{Z_t})}{\partial n} = \frac{Z_t}{Z_t}\frac{\partial \widetilde{v}_t(\widetilde{z},\widetilde{n})}{\partial \widetilde{n}} \implies 1+\lambda_t(z,n) = 1+\lambda_t(\widetilde{z},\widetilde{n}),$$

i.e., the financial wedge is the same in the detrended and un-detrended problems. Next, note that

$$MPK_{t+1}(z',k') = \alpha\frac{A_{t+1}z'}{(k')^{1-\alpha}} = \alpha\frac{A_{t+1}z'/Z_{t+1}^{1-\alpha}}{(k')^{1-\alpha}/Z_{t+1}^{1-\alpha}} = \alpha\widetilde{z}(\widetilde{k}')^{1-\alpha}.$$

Hence, the detrended first-order condition (19) directly implies the undetrended first-order condition (8) (where $\mu_t(z,n) = \mu_t(\widetilde{z},\widetilde{n})$ as well).

Next, consider the detrended first-order condition for innovation (20). Plugging in the fact that $1+g_t = \frac{Z_{t+1}}{Z_t}$ and rearranging gives

$$(1+\lambda_t(z,n))Z_t\widetilde{z}^{\frac{1}{1-\alpha}} \geq \frac{\eta'(i_t(z,n))}{1+r_t}Z_{t+1}\mathbb{E}_t\left[\begin{array}{l}\pi_d\left(E^{\varepsilon}[\widetilde{n}'|\iota=1] - E^{\varepsilon}[\widetilde{n}'|\iota=0]\right) + \\ (1-\pi_d)\left(E^{\varepsilon}[\widetilde{v}_{t+1}(\widetilde{z}',\widetilde{n}')|\iota=1] - E^{\varepsilon}[\widetilde{v}_{t+1}(\widetilde{z}',\widetilde{n}')|\iota=0]\right)\end{array}\right]$$

By definition of the detrended variables, this equation is the same as the un-detrended condition (9) from the main text. The nonnegativity constraint for dividends (7) follows directly from our detrending of the problem.

B.1.3 Balanced-Growth Path

In this subsection, we characterize a balanced-growth path of the model. In order to do so, we must first explicitly write out the law of motion for the distribution of firms. We find it easier to work with the distribution over de-trended state variables, $\Phi_t(\widetilde{z}, \widetilde{n})$. Heuristically, its evolution is given by

$$\widetilde{\Phi}_{t+1}(\widetilde{z}', \widetilde{n}') = (1 - \pi_d) \int\int\int \begin{pmatrix} \eta(i_t(\widetilde{z}, \widetilde{n})) \left[\mathbb{1}\{\widetilde{z}' = \frac{\widetilde{z}e^{\Delta}e^{\varepsilon}}{1 + \widetilde{g}_t}\} \times \mathbb{1}\{n'(\frac{\widetilde{z}e^{\Delta}e^{\varepsilon}}{1+\widetilde{g}_t}, k_t'(\widetilde{z}, \widetilde{n}), b_t'(\widetilde{z}, \widetilde{n}))\} \right] \\ +(1 - \eta(i_t(\widetilde{z}, \widetilde{n}))) \left[\mathbb{1}\{\widetilde{z}' = \frac{\widetilde{z}e^{\varepsilon}}{1 + \widetilde{g}_t}\} \times \mathbb{1}\{n'(\frac{\widetilde{z}e^{\varepsilon}}{1+\widetilde{g}_t}, k_t'(\widetilde{z}, \widetilde{n}), b_t'(\widetilde{z}, \widetilde{n}))\} \right] \end{pmatrix}$$
$$\times p(\varepsilon) d\varepsilon \widetilde{\Phi}_t(\widetilde{z}, \widetilde{n}) d\widetilde{z} d\widetilde{n} + \pi_d \widetilde{\Phi}^0(\widetilde{z}, \widetilde{n}), \tag{26}$$

where $\widetilde{n}' = \widetilde{z}'\widetilde{k}_t'(\widetilde{z}, \widetilde{n})^{\alpha} + (1 - \delta)\widetilde{k}_t'(\widetilde{z}, \widetilde{n}) - \widetilde{b}_t'(\widetilde{z}, \widetilde{n})$ is the law of motion for detrended state variables induced by the policy rules.[33]

We are now ready to define a **balanced-growth path** as the limiting behavior of the model when $\frac{Z_{t+1}}{Z_t} = 1 + g$ for all t. Using the results in the previous subsections, we have shown that the firm value function and decision rules are all scaled by Z_t in the sense that their detrended analogs $\widetilde{v}(\widetilde{z}, \widetilde{n})$ are time-invariant. In addition, the distribution of detrended state variables $\widetilde{\Phi}(\widetilde{z}, \widetilde{n})$ is constant and equal to the stationary distribution implied by (26). Finally, it is easy to see that aggregate consumption is stationary because can be written as the integral of the policy rules, which scale with Z_t, against the stationary distribution:

$$C = \int \widetilde{z}\widetilde{k}^{\alpha} d\widetilde{\Phi}(\widetilde{z}, \widetilde{k}, \widetilde{b}) - (1 - \pi_d) \int \Big(((1 + g)\widetilde{k}_t'(\widetilde{z}, \widetilde{k}, \widetilde{b}) - (1 - \delta)\widetilde{k}) + \widetilde{z}^{\frac{1}{1-\alpha}} i_t(\widetilde{z}, \widetilde{k}, \widetilde{b}) \Big) d\widetilde{\Phi}(\widetilde{z}, \widetilde{k}, \widetilde{b})$$
$$- \pi_d \int \widetilde{k} d\widetilde{\Phi}^0(\widetilde{z}, \widetilde{k}, \widetilde{b}),$$

where, abusing notation somewhat, $\widetilde{\Phi}(\widetilde{z}, \widetilde{k}, \widetilde{b})$ denotes the stationary distribution over $(\widetilde{z}, \widetilde{k}, \widetilde{b})$.

[33] This description is heuristic because the true transition function for the distribution should be defined over measurable sets of $(\widetilde{z}', \widetilde{n}')$. One can view the heuristic evolution (26) as the generator of that transition function if one interprets the indicator functions $\mathbb{1}$ as Dirac delta functions.

B.2 Adding Labor to the Model

Adding labor extends the model in two ways. First, as discussed in the main text, the production function becomes $y_{jt} = A_t z_{jt} k_{jt}^{\alpha} \ell_{jt}^{\nu}$, where ℓ_{jt} is the labor used in production by firm j and $\alpha + \nu < 1$. Second, we incorporate labor supply into the household's preferences by assuming that the utility function is

$$\sum_{t=0}^{\infty} \beta^t \left[\log C_t - \chi \frac{L_t^{1+\psi}}{1+\psi} \right],$$

where χ is a scale parameter and ψ^{-1} is the Frisch elasticity of labor supply.[34]

Adding labor does not significantly alter our positive results; it simply leads to a re-interpretation of the production function in the main text. To see this, note that firms' optimal labor demand is purely static and is therefore independent of their net worth:

$$\max_{\ell_{jt}} A_t z_{jt} k_{jt}^{\alpha} \ell_{jt}^{\nu} - w_t \ell_{jt} \quad \Longrightarrow \ell_{jt} = \left(\frac{\nu A_t z_{jt} k_{jt}^{\alpha}}{w_t} \right)^{\frac{1}{1-\nu}}$$

Now define variable profits $\pi_{jt} = y_{jt} - w_t \ell_{jt}$. Plugging in the above expression for optimal labor demand and simplifying yields

$$\pi_{jt} = \widetilde{\nu} \left(A_t z_{jt} \right)^{\frac{1}{1-\nu}} w_t^{-\frac{\nu}{1-\nu}} k_{jt}^{\frac{\alpha}{1-\nu}}.$$

where $\widetilde{\alpha} = \frac{\alpha}{1-\nu}$ and $\widetilde{\nu} = \nu^{\frac{\nu}{1-\nu}} - \nu^{\frac{1}{1-\nu}}$.

The firm's problem in this extended model is isomorphic to our previous model using the new definition of net worth: $n_{jt} = \pi_{jt} + (1-\delta) k_{jt} - b_{jt}$. Importantly, net worth still grows with Z_t, facilitating the same detrending as in our baseline model. Specifically, it is easy to guess and verify that the real wage w_t scales with Z_t, which implies that the first two terms grow with $Z_t^{\frac{1-\alpha-\nu}{1-\nu}} = Z_t^{1-\frac{\alpha}{1-\nu}}$. But since capital grows with Z_t, the term involving capital grows with $Z_t^{\frac{\alpha}{1-\nu}}$. Putting these two observations together, variable profits grows with $Z_t^{1-\frac{\alpha}{1-\nu}} Z_t^{\frac{\alpha}{1-\nu}} = Z_t$.

[34]Given these additively separable preferences over consumption and labor supply, balanced growth requires log utility over consumption. We could alternatively allow for a non-unitary EIS if we instead assume preferences fall within the more general King, Plosser and Rebelo (1988) class.

The equilibrium of this extended model is the same as in our baseline model, except that we add the real wage w_t as another equilibrium price and add the labor market as another market clearing condition:

$$\left(\frac{w_t C_t^{-1}}{\chi}\right)^{\frac{1}{\psi}} = \int \ell_{jt} dj.$$

B.3 Incorporating Corporate Taxes and Bonus Depreciation

We model the structure of the U.S. corporate tax code before the Tax Cuts and Jobs Act (TCJA 2017), and then consider the long-run effects of implementing the TCJA 2017. We assume firms pay a linear tax rate τ on their revenues net of tax deductions. Firms can fully deduct innovation expenditures in the period in which they occur, but investment expenditures must be gradually deducted over time according to the tax depreciation schedule.[35] Following Winberry (2021), we assume the tax deduction schedule follows a geometric depreciation process with tax depreciation rate $\widehat{\delta}$ (which may differ from economic depreciation δ). Each period, firms inherit a stock of depreciation allowances $\widehat{k}_{jt}$ from past investments and deduct the fraction $\widehat{\delta}$ of those depreciation allowances from their tax bill. In addition, firms deduct the same fraction $\widehat{\delta}$ of new investment $k_{jt+1} - (1-\delta)k_{jt}$ from their tax bill as well. Therefore, their total tax bill in a given period is

$$\tau \times \left(y_{jt} - (A_t z_{jt})^{\frac{1}{1-\alpha}} i_{jt} - \widehat{\delta} \left[\widehat{k}_{jt} + (k_{jt+1} - (1-\delta)k_{jt}) \right] \right).$$

The firm carries the un-deducted portion of its investments into the next period: $\widehat{k}_{jt+1} = (1-\widehat{\delta}) \left[\widehat{k}_{jt} + (k_{jt+1} - (1-\delta)k_{jt}) \right]$.

In principle, we would need two new state variables, $\widehat{k}_{jt}$ and k_{jt}, in order to forecast the evolution the stock of depreciation allowances $\widehat{k}_{jt+1}$. However, we are able to bypass these additional states using the following simplifying assumption.

***Proposition* 3.** *Suppose that firms can borrow against future tax deductions at the risk-free rate* r_t*. Then the tax depreciation schedule only affects firm decisions through the present*

[35] R&D expenditures are typically fully deducted because they primarily reflect labor costs.

value of tax deductions per unit of investment:

$$\widehat{\zeta}_t = \sum_{\iota=0}^{\infty} \left(\prod_{p=0}^{s} \frac{1}{1 + r_{t+p}} \right) (1 - \widehat{\delta})^s. \tag{27}$$

This present value alters the effective after-tax price of capital:

$$v_t^{cont}(z,n) = \max_{k',i,b'} n - (1-\tau\widehat{\zeta}_t)k' - (1-\tau)(A_t z)^{\frac{1}{1-\alpha}} i + \frac{b'}{1+r_t} + \frac{1}{1+r_t}\mathbb{E}_t\left[v_{t+1}(z',n')\right] \;\; s.t. \;\; d \geq 0 \text{ and } b' \leq \theta k',$$

where $n' = (1-\tau)A_t z'(k')^\alpha + (1-\tau\widehat{\zeta}_t)(1-\delta)k - b'$.

Proof. The key insight of our proof is that borrowing against the stream of future tax deductions is equivalent to selling a claim on this stream to households. Since the claim is risk-free, the household is willing to pay its present value $\tau\widehat{\zeta}_t \times (k_{jt+1} - (1-\delta)k_{jt})$. Hence, each unit of investment produces $\tau\widehat{\zeta}_t$ of additional resources to the firm, lowering its after-tax price by that amount.

The financially constrained firms from Proposition 1 (with a positive financial wedge $\lambda_t(z,n) > 0$) will strictly prefer to sell the claim because their shadow value of funds is higher than the household's value of funds. However, financially unconstrained firms (with no financial wedge $\lambda_t(z,n) = 0$) will be indifferent between selling the claim or not because they value funds the same as the household. However, one can show that in this case, the present value of the tax deductions affects firms decisions because they are indifferent over the timing (technically, their value function is linearly separable in the tax deductions; see Winberry (2021)). ■

This proposition allows us to model both temporary investment tax incentives and permanent tax reforms using changes in the present value $\widehat{\zeta}_t$. Temporary tax incentives, like the Bonus Depreciation Allowance, temporarily increase $\widehat{\zeta}_t$ and therefore act as shocks to the relative price of investment. The TCJA 2017 tax reform introduced full expensing, which increased $\widehat{\zeta}_t = 1$ because it allows firms to fully deduct investment expenditures from their tax bill in the period they are incurred. To keep our analysis simple, we will directly work with the composite shock $\zeta_t = \tau\widehat{\zeta}_t$ and assume that $\zeta_t = 0$ in the balanced growth path. This assumption implies that we do not have to recalibrate the model to accommodate steady state taxes. Instead, we will calibrate our tax shocks ζ_t as deviations from their initial value.

B.4 Aggregate Costs of Financial Frictions

We derive the two results referenced in Section 7 of the main text.

Approximation of the Long-Run Growth Rate The long-run growth rate is given by $1+g=(1+\widetilde{g})^{\frac{1+a}{1-\alpha}}$, where $\widetilde{g}$ is the growth rate of average productivity $\int z_{jt}dj$. In Appendix C, we show that

$$1+\widetilde{g}=\frac{\int z'p(\varepsilon)\Phi(s)d\varepsilon ds}{\int z\Phi(s)ds}$$

where $\Phi_t(s)$ is the distribution of firms over individual states $s=(z,n)$ in period t along a balanced growth path, and $z'(s,\varepsilon')=ze^{\varepsilon'}e^{\Delta}$ with probability $\eta(i(s))$ and $z'(s,\varepsilon')=ze^{\varepsilon'}$ with probability $1-\eta(i(s))$. Plug this in to get

$$\begin{aligned}
1+\widetilde{g}&=\frac{\int\left(\eta(i(s))ze^{\varepsilon'}e^{\Delta}+(1-\eta(i(s)))ze^{\varepsilon'}\right)p(\varepsilon')\Phi_t(s)d\varepsilon' ds}{\int z\Phi_t(s)ds}\\
\implies 1+\widetilde{g}&=\frac{\int e^{\varepsilon'}p(\varepsilon')d\varepsilon'\times\int\left(\eta(i(s))ze^{\Delta}+(1-\eta(i(s)))z\right)\Phi_t(s)ds}{\int z\Phi_t(s)ds}\\
\implies 1+\widetilde{g}&=\frac{e^{\sigma_\varepsilon^2/2}\times\int\left(1+\eta(i(s))(e^{\Delta}-1)\right)z\Phi_t(s)ds}{\int z\Phi_t(s)ds}\\
\implies 1+\widetilde{g}&=e^{\sigma_\varepsilon^2/2}\left(\frac{\int z\Phi_t(s)ds}{\int z\Phi_t(s)ds}+(e^{\Delta}-1)\frac{\int z\eta(i(s))\Phi_t(s)ds}{\int z\Phi_t(s)ds}\right)\\
\implies 1+\widetilde{g}&\approx\left(1+(e^{\Delta}-1)(\int\eta(i(s))\Phi_t(s)ds)\frac{\int z\Phi_t(s)ds}{\int z\Phi_t(s)ds}\right)\\
\implies \widetilde{g}&\approx(e^{\Delta}-1)\int\eta(i(s))\Phi_t(s).
\end{aligned}$$

Hence, we have

$$\begin{aligned}
1+g&=(1+\widetilde{g})^{\frac{1+a}{1-\alpha}}\\
\implies \log(1+g)&=\frac{1+a}{1-\alpha}\log(1+\widetilde{g})\\
\implies g&\approx\frac{1+a}{1-\alpha}(e^{\Delta}-1)\int\eta(i(s))\Phi_t(s),
\end{aligned}$$

as in the main text.

Upper Bound on Misallocation Costs The upper bound on misallocation costs in the main text compares actual output along the BGP, Y_t, to the benchmark

$$Y_t^* = \max_{k_{jt}} A_t \int z_{jt} k_{jt}^{\alpha} dj \text{ such that } \int k_{jt} dj \leq K_t.$$

The first-order condition with respect to k_{jt} can be rearranged to

$$k_{jt} = \left(\frac{\alpha A_t z_{jt}}{\lambda}\right)^{\frac{1}{1-\alpha}}, \tag{28}$$

where, abusing notation, λ is the Lagrange multiplier on the constraint $\int k_{jt} dj \leq K_t$.

Integrating (28) across firms j and using $\int k_{jt} dj = K_t$ gives

$$\lambda = \frac{\alpha A_t}{K_t^{1-\alpha}} \left(\int z_{jt}^{\frac{1}{1-\alpha}} dj\right)^{1-\alpha}.$$

Plug this expression into the FOC (28) and rearrange to get

$$\frac{k_{jt}}{K_t} = \frac{z_{jt}^{\frac{1}{1-\alpha}}}{\int z_{jt}^{\frac{1}{1-\alpha}} dj}.$$

Aggregate TFP in this allocation is therefore

$$\begin{aligned}
& TFP_t^* = A_t \int z_{jt} \left(\frac{k_{jt}}{K_t}\right)^{\alpha} dj \\
\implies & TFP_t^* = A_t \int z_{jt} \left(\frac{z_{jt}^{\frac{1}{1-\alpha}}}{\int z_{jt}^{\frac{1}{1-\alpha}} dj}\right)^{\alpha} \\
\implies & TFP_t^* = A_t \frac{\int z_{jt}^{\frac{1}{1-\alpha}}}{\left(\int z_{jt}^{\frac{1}{1-\alpha}}\right)^{\alpha} dj} \\
\implies & TFP_t^* = A_t \left(\int z_{jt}^{\frac{1}{1-\alpha}} dj\right)^{1-\alpha}.
\end{aligned}$$

Taking the ratio of this to actual TFP gives the expression in the main text.

B.5 Planner's Problem and Proof of Proposition 2

We formulate the planner's problem recursively. For notational convenience, let $s = (z, k, b)$ denote a firm type. The planner's state variable is the distribution of firms, $\Phi(s)$. The planner's value function solves the Bellman equation

$$W_t(\Phi) = \max_{k'(\cdot),i(\cdot),b'(\cdot)} \frac{C^{1-\sigma}-1}{1-\sigma} + \beta W_{t+1}(T(\Phi; k'(\cdot), i(\cdot), b'(\cdot))) \text{ such that} \tag{29}$$

$$C = \int [Azk^\alpha + (1-\delta)k]\,\Phi(s)ds - (1-\pi_d)\int \left[k'(s) + (Az)^{\frac{1}{1-\alpha}} i(s)\right]\Phi(s)ds \tag{30}$$

$$- \pi_d \int k'\Phi^0(z', k', b')dz'dk'db'$$

$$Azk^\alpha + (1-\delta)k - b - k'(s) - (Az)^{\frac{1}{1-\alpha}} i(s) + \frac{b'(s)}{1+r_t} \geq 0 \text{ for all } s \tag{31}$$

$$b'(s) \leq \theta k'(s) \text{ for all } s \tag{32}$$

$$A = \left(\int z\Phi(s)dz\right)^a \tag{33}$$

$$T(\Phi; k'(\cdot), i(\cdot), b'(\cdot))(z', k', b') = \pi_d \Phi^0(z', k', b') \tag{34}$$

$$+ (1-\pi_d)\int \begin{bmatrix} (\mathbb{1}\{k' = k'(s)\} \times \mathbb{1}\{b' = b'(s)\})\times \\ (\eta(i(s))\mathbb{1}\{z' = ze^{\Delta}e^{\varepsilon}\} + (1-\eta(i(s)))\mathbb{1}\{z' = ze^{\varepsilon}\}) \end{bmatrix} p(\varepsilon)\Phi(s)ds,$$

where $p(\varepsilon)$ is the p.d.f. of ε and $T(\Phi; k'(\cdot), i(\cdot), b'(\cdot))$ is the transition function for the distribution. We denote the entire decision rule function using, e.g., $k'(\cdot)$, and the function evaluated at a particular using $k'(s)$.

The planner's problem (29) is a *functional equation* because both the state variable and choice variables are functions of the individual state s. Nuño and Moll (2018) provide conditions under which Lagrangian methods apply using Gâteaux derivatives, which we assume hold in our model as well. These derivatives are the natural extension of partial derivatives into the function space. For example, $\frac{\delta W}{\delta \Phi(\hat{s})}(\Phi)$ denotes the Gâteaux derivative with respect to the mass of households at point s, which itself is a function of the entire distribution Φ.[36] The time subscripts reflect the dependence on the path of the real interest rate in firms' borrowing decisions. For notational simplicity we will often omit the dependence on Φ and

[36] A more explicit analogy with partial derivatives may be useful. Suppose that the state space s lay on a finite grid with N points. Then the distribution $\Phi(s)$ would be an $N \times 1$ vector, and the value function $W(\Phi) : \mathbb{R}^N \to 1$. In this case, the partial derivative $\frac{\partial W}{\partial \Phi(s_i)} : \mathbb{R}^N \to 1$ is a function of Φ as well.

the time subscripts.

We will use these tools to solve the planner's problem (29) using Lagrangian methods. Let $\lambda(s)$ denote the multiplier on the no-equity issuance constraint (31), $\mu(s)$ denote the multiplier on the collateral constraint (32), and Λ denote the multiplier on the innovation externality (33). We will directly plug in the definitions of consumption (30) and the transition function for the distribution (34). With all this notation in hand, the Lagrangian is

$$\mathcal{L} = \frac{C^{1-\sigma}-1}{1-\sigma} + \int \lambda(s)\left(Azk^{\alpha} + (1-\delta)k - b - k'(s) - (Az)^{\frac{1}{1-\alpha}} i(s) + \frac{b'(s)}{1+r_t}\right) ds$$
$$+ \int \mu(s)\left(\theta k'(s) - b'(s)\right) ds + \Lambda\left[\left(\int z\Phi(s)ds\right)^{a} - A\right] + \beta W(T(\Phi; k'(\cdot), i(\cdot), b'(\cdot))),$$

where it is understood that C and $T(\Phi; k'(\cdot), i(\cdot), b'(\cdot))$ stand in for (30) and (34).

We proceed in two steps. First, subsection B.5.1 takes the first-order conditions with respect to all the planner's choices. Second, subsection B.5.2 characterizes those choices in terms of the marginal social value function from Proposition 2 in the main text.

B.5.1 First Order Conditions

We analyze each first-order condition separately.

Aggregate productivity The FOC with respect to aggregate productivity is

$$C^{-\sigma}\left[\int zk^{\alpha}\Phi(s)ds - \frac{1-\pi_d}{1-\alpha}\int A^{\frac{\alpha}{1-\alpha}} z^{\frac{1}{1-\alpha}} i(s)\Phi(s)ds\right]$$
$$+ \int \lambda(s)\left[zk^{\alpha}\Phi(s)ds - \frac{1}{1-\alpha}A^{\frac{\alpha}{1-\alpha}} z^{\frac{1}{1-\alpha}} i(s)\right] ds = \Lambda. \tag{35}$$

Going forward, it will be convenient to work with the transformed multipliers $\widetilde{\lambda}(s) = \frac{\lambda(s)}{\Phi(s)(1-\pi_d)C^{-\sigma}}$ and $\widetilde{\Lambda} = \frac{\Lambda}{C^{-\sigma}}$.[37] Plugging these in and simplifying yields

$$\widetilde{\Lambda} = \pi_d \int zk^{\alpha}\Phi(s)ds + (1-\pi_d)\int (1+\widetilde{\lambda}(s))\left[zk^{\alpha}\Phi(s)ds - \frac{1}{1-\alpha}A^{\frac{\alpha}{1-\alpha}} z^{\frac{1}{1-\alpha}} i(s)\right]\Phi(s)ds. \tag{36}$$

[37] Of course, this transformed multiplier $\widetilde{\lambda}(s)$ is only defined for points with a positive mass of firms.

Innovation The FOC with respect to innovation at a particular point $i(s)$ is

$$C^{-\sigma}(1-\pi_d)(Az)^{\frac{1}{1-\alpha}}\Phi(s)+\lambda(s)(Az)^{\frac{1}{1-\alpha}}=\beta\int\frac{\delta W(\Phi')}{\delta\Phi'(s')}\frac{\delta T(s')}{\delta i(s)}ds'.$$

The LHS is the planner's marginal cost of higher innovation $i(s)$, which reduces consumption and tightens the no-equity issuance constraint for firm-type s. The RHS is the marginal benefit, which captures how higher innovation affects the distribution of productivity in the next period. To keep the notation manageable, we denote $T(s')=T(\Phi;k'(\cdot),i(\cdot),b'(\cdot))(s')=\Phi'(s')$. The integral is the functional-derivative extension of the chain rule: a change in $i(s)$ affects the mass of firms at each point in the state space in the next period $T(s')$, and each of those marginal changes affects the social welfare function $W(\Phi')$.

We can simplify the $\frac{\delta T(s')}{\delta i(s)}$ terms using the definition of the transition function (34). In particular, marginal changes in $i(s)$ only affect the transition function through changing the probability of success, not changing the value of the state conditional on success. Therefore, we have

$$\frac{\delta T(s')}{\delta i(s)}=\left\{\begin{matrix}(1-\pi_d)\eta'(i(s))p(\varepsilon)\Phi(s)\text{ if }s'=(ze^{\Delta}e^{\varepsilon},k'(s),b'(s)),\\-(1-\pi_d)\eta'(i(s))p(\varepsilon)\Phi(s)\text{ if }s'=(ze^{\varepsilon},k'(s),b'(s))\\0\text{ otherwise}\end{matrix}\right\}$$

Plugging this into the FOC gives

$$C^{-\sigma}(1-\pi_d)(Az)^{\frac{1}{1-\alpha}}\Phi(s)+\lambda(s)(Az)^{\frac{1}{1-\alpha}}=\beta(1-\pi_d)\eta'(i(s))\Phi(s)\begin{bmatrix}\int\frac{\delta W(\Phi')}{\delta\Phi'(ze^{\Delta}e^{\varepsilon},k'(s),b'(s))}p(\varepsilon)d\varepsilon\\-\int\frac{\delta W(\Phi')}{\delta\Phi'(ze^{\varepsilon},k'(s),b'(s))}p(\varepsilon)d\varepsilon\end{bmatrix}$$

Finally, dividing by $C^{-\sigma}(1-\pi_d)\Phi(s)$ and using our definition of $\widetilde{\lambda}(s)$ from above gives

$$(Az)^{\frac{1}{1-\alpha}}(1+\widetilde{\lambda}(s))=\frac{\beta}{C^{-\sigma}}\eta'(i(s))\left[\int\frac{\delta W(\Phi')}{\delta\Phi'(ze^{\Delta}e^{\varepsilon},k'(s),b'(s))}p(\varepsilon)d\varepsilon-\int\frac{\delta W(\Phi')}{\delta\Phi'(ze^{\varepsilon},k'(s),b'(s))}p(\varepsilon)d\varepsilon\right].\quad(37)$$

Investment The FOC for capital accumulation at a particular point $k'(s)$ is

$$C^{-\sigma}(1-\pi_d)\Phi(s)+\lambda(s)=\theta\mu(s)+\beta\int\frac{\delta W(\Phi')}{\delta\Phi'(s')}\frac{\delta T(s')}{\delta k'(s)}ds'.$$

The derivatives of next period's value functions are more complicated than for innovation because a marginal change in $k'(s)$ affects the value of the state s' in the next period. Assuming we can swap the order of differentiation, we can write

$$\int \frac{\delta W(\Phi')}{\delta \Phi'(s')} \frac{\delta T(s')}{\delta k'(s)} ds' = \int \frac{\delta}{\delta k'(s)} \frac{\delta W(\Phi')}{\delta \Phi'(s')} T(s') ds'.$$

Plugging in the definition of the transition function and noting that only the part of the transition function from incumbents will matter for the derivatives gives

$$\int \frac{\delta}{\delta k'(s)} \frac{\delta W(\Phi')}{\delta \Phi'(s')} T(s') ds' = (1-\pi_d) \int\int\int \frac{\delta}{\delta k'(s)} \frac{\delta W(\Phi')}{\delta \Phi'(s')} \begin{bmatrix} (\mathbb{1}\{k' = k'(s)\} \times \mathbb{1}\{b' = b'(s)\}) \times \\ (\eta(i(s))\mathbb{1}\{z' = ze^{\Delta}e^{\varepsilon}\} + (1-\eta(i(s)))\mathbb{1}\{z' = ze^{\varepsilon}\}) \end{bmatrix} p(\varepsilon)\Phi(s) ds ds' d\varepsilon.$$

Using only the initial state s under consideration and eliminating the values of the future state variables s' with zero probability, the integral becomes

$$(1-\pi_d)\left[\eta(i(s)) \int \frac{\delta}{\delta k'(s)} \frac{\delta W(\Phi')}{\delta \Phi'(ze^{\Delta}e^{\varepsilon}, k'(s), b'(s)))} p(\varepsilon) d\varepsilon + (1-\eta(i(s))) \int \frac{\delta}{\delta k'(s)} \frac{\delta W(\Phi')}{\delta \Phi'(ze^{\varepsilon}, k'(s), b'(s)))} p(\varepsilon) d\varepsilon \right] \Phi(s).$$

Finally, we will plug this into the FOC, and as usual divide by $C^{-\sigma}(1-\pi_d)\Phi(s)$ to get

$$1 + \widetilde{\lambda}(s) = \theta \widetilde{\mu}(s) + \frac{\beta}{C^{-\sigma}} \begin{bmatrix} \eta(i(s)) \int \frac{\delta}{\delta k'(s)} \frac{\delta W(\Phi')}{\delta \Phi'(ze^{\Delta}e^{\varepsilon}, k'(s), b'(s)))} p(\varepsilon) d\varepsilon + \\ (1-\eta(i(s))) \int \frac{\delta}{\delta k'(s)} \frac{\delta W(\Phi')}{\delta \Phi'(ze^{\varepsilon}, k'(s), b'(s)))} p(\varepsilon) d\varepsilon \end{bmatrix} \tag{38}$$

where $\widetilde{\mu}(s) = \frac{\mu(s)}{C^{-\sigma}(1-\pi_d)\Phi(s)}$.

Borrowing The FOC for borrowing at a particular point $b'(s)$ is

$$\frac{\lambda(s)}{1+r_t} = \mu(s) - \beta \int \frac{\delta W(\Phi')}{\delta \Phi'} \frac{\delta T(s')}{\delta b'(s)} ds'$$

As with capital, we can write the integral term as

$$\int \frac{\delta}{\delta b'(s)} \frac{\delta W(\Phi')}{\delta \Phi'(s')} T(s') ds' = (1-\pi_d) \int\int\int \frac{\delta}{\delta b'(s)} \frac{\delta W(\Phi')}{\delta \Phi'(s')} \begin{bmatrix} (\mathbb{1}\{k' = k'(s)\} \times \mathbb{1}\{b' = b'(s)\}) \times \\ (\eta(i(s))\mathbb{1}\{z' = ze^{\Delta}e^{\varepsilon}\} + (1-\eta(i(s)))\mathbb{1}\{z' = ze^{\varepsilon}\}) \end{bmatrix} p(\varepsilon)\Phi(s) ds ds' d\varepsilon.$$

And as in the case with capital, this integral becomes

$$(1-\pi_d)\left[\eta(i(s))\int \frac{\delta}{\delta b'(s)}\frac{\delta W(\Phi')}{\delta\Phi'(ze^{\Delta}e^{\varepsilon},k'(s),b'(s)))}p(\varepsilon)d\varepsilon+(1-\eta(i(s)))\int\frac{\delta}{\delta b'(s)}\frac{\delta W(\Phi')}{\delta\Phi'(ze^{\varepsilon},k'(s),b'(s)))}p(\varepsilon)d\varepsilon\right]\Phi(s).$$

Plugging this into the FOC and dividing by $C^{-\sigma}(1-\pi_d)\Phi(s)$ yields

$$\frac{\widetilde{\lambda}(s)}{1+r_t}=\widetilde{\mu}(s)-\frac{\beta}{C^{-\sigma}}\left[\begin{array}{l}\eta(i(s))\int \frac{\delta}{\delta b'(s)}\frac{\delta W(\Phi')}{\delta\Phi'(ze^{\Delta}e^{\varepsilon},k'(s),b'(s)))}p(\varepsilon)d\varepsilon+\\(1-\eta(i(s)))\int\frac{\delta}{\delta b'(s)}\frac{\delta W(\Phi')}{\delta\Phi'(ze^{\varepsilon},k'(s),b'(s)))}p(\varepsilon)d\varepsilon\end{array}\right] \tag{39}$$

B.5.2 Marginal Social Value Functions

The optimal choices to the planner's problem are given the FOCs (36), (37), (38), and (39), together with the complementarity slackness conditions. In order to arrive at the results in Proposition 2, we now use the envelope theorem to get a recursive expression for the marginal social value function $\frac{\delta W(\Phi)}{\delta\Phi(s)}$.

Differentiating the RHS of the planner's objective at the optimal policies results in

$$\begin{aligned}\frac{\delta W(\Phi)}{\delta\Phi(s)}=&C^{-\sigma}\left[Azk^{\alpha}+(1-\delta)k-(1-\pi_d)\left(k'(s)+(Az)^{\frac{1}{1-\alpha}}i(s)\right)\right]+\Lambda a\left(\int z\Phi(s)ds\right)^{a-1}z\\&+\beta\int\frac{\delta W(\Phi')}{\delta\Phi'(s')}\frac{\delta T(s')}{\delta\Phi(s)}ds'.\end{aligned}$$

From the definition of the transition function (34), we have

$$\int\frac{\delta W(\Phi')}{\delta\Phi'(s')}\frac{\delta T(s')}{\delta\Phi(s)}ds'=(1-\pi_d)\left[\eta(i(s))\int\frac{\delta W(\Phi')}{\delta\Phi'(ze^{\Delta}e^{\varepsilon},k'(s),b'(s))}p(\varepsilon)d\varepsilon+(1-\eta(i(s)))\int\frac{\delta W(\Phi')}{\delta\Phi'(ze^{\varepsilon},k'(s),b'(s))}p(\varepsilon)d\varepsilon\right].$$

We now define $\omega(s;\Phi)=\frac{\delta W(\Phi)}{\delta\Phi(s)}$ to be the marginal social value function in the direction of $\Phi(s)$. Plugging this into the two equations above and slightly rearranging, we have

$$\begin{aligned}\omega(s;\Phi)=&\pi_d C^{-\sigma}\left[Azk^{\alpha}+(1-\delta)k\right]+(1-\pi_d)C^{-\sigma}\left[Azk^{\alpha}+(1-\delta)k-k'(s)-(Az)^{\frac{1}{1-\alpha}}i(s)\right]\\&+\Lambda a\left(\int z\Phi(s)ds\right)^{a-1}z+\beta(1-\pi_d)\mathbb{E}^{\varepsilon}\left[\eta(i(s))\omega(s';\Phi')+(1-\eta(i(s)))\omega(s';\Phi')\right],\end{aligned}$$

where $\mathbb{E}^{\varepsilon}[\omega(s';\Phi')]=\int\omega(s';\Phi')p(\varepsilon)d\varepsilon$ takes the expectation over idiosyncratic shocks ε.

We now define $\widetilde{\omega}(s;\Phi) = \frac{\omega(s;\Phi)}{C^{-\sigma}}$. Plugging this into the equation above yields

$$\begin{aligned}\widetilde{\omega}(s;\Phi) =& \pi_d \left[Azk^\alpha + (1-\delta)k + \widetilde{\Lambda} a \left(\int z\Phi(s)ds \right)^{a-1} z \right] + \\ &+ (1-\pi_d) \left[\begin{array}{l} Azk^\alpha + (1-\delta)k - k'(s) - (Az)^{\frac{1}{1-\alpha}} i(s) + \widetilde{\Lambda} a \left(\int z\Phi(s)ds \right)^{a-1} z \\ + \beta \left(\frac{C'}{C} \right)^{-\sigma} \mathbb{E}^\varepsilon \left[\eta(i(s))\widetilde{\omega}(s';\Phi') + (1-\eta(i(s)))\widetilde{\omega}(s';\Phi') \right] \end{array} \right]. \end{aligned} \tag{40}$$

We are finally in a position to derive the equations in Proposition 2 from the main text. Let time subscripts denote the optimal value and policy functions conditional on the optimal path of the distribution $\Phi(s)$. Then, let

$$\widehat{\omega}_t(s) = \widehat{\omega}(s;\Phi_t) - b'_{t-1}(s) + (1-\pi_d)\frac{b'_t(s)}{1+r_t} + \beta \left(\frac{C_{t+1}}{C_t} \right)^{-\sigma} (1-\pi_d) \left(-b'_t(s) + (1-\pi_d)\frac{b'_{t+1}(s)}{1+r_{t+1}} \right) + \dots$$

be the planner's social marginal value function plus the path of borrowing and debt repayments starting from period t. Plugging this into (40) gives the *augmented Bellman equation*

$$\begin{aligned}\widehat{\omega}_t(s) =& \pi_d \left[Azk^\alpha + (1-\delta)k - b + \widetilde{\Lambda} a \left(\int z\Phi(s)ds \right)^{a-1} z \right] + \\ &+ (1-\pi_d) \left[\begin{array}{l} Azk^\alpha + (1-\delta)k - b - k'(s) - (Az)^{\frac{1}{1-\alpha}} i(s) + \widetilde{\Lambda} a \left(\int z\Phi(s)ds \right)^{a-1} z \\ + \frac{b'(s)}{1+r_t} + \beta \left(\frac{C'}{C} \right)^{-\sigma} \mathbb{E}^\varepsilon \left[\eta(i(s))\widehat{\omega}_t(s') + (1-\eta(i(s)))\widehat{\omega}_t(s') \right] \end{array} \right]. \end{aligned} \tag{41}$$

To keep notation even simpler, define $\widehat{\Lambda} = \widetilde{\Lambda} a \left(\int z\Phi(s)ds \right)^{a-1}$ and let $\mathbb{E}_t$ denote the expectation over both the innovation shock and the idiosyncratic ε shocks, as in the main text. Finally, let $\widehat{\omega}_t^{\text{exit}}$ denote the terms inside the first set of brackets in (41) and let $\widehat{\omega}_t^{\text{cont}}$ second set of brackets in (41). Then we have $\widehat{\omega}_t(s) = \pi_d \widehat{\omega}_t(s)^{\text{exit}} + (1-\pi_d)\widehat{\omega}_t(s)^{\text{cont}}$, where

$$\widehat{\omega}_t^{\text{cont}}(s) = Azk^\alpha + (1-\delta)k - b - k'(s) - (Az)^{\frac{1}{1-\alpha}} i(s) + \frac{b'(s)}{1+r_t} + \widehat{\Lambda} z + \beta \left(\frac{C_{t+1}}{C_t} \right)^{-\sigma} \mathbb{E}_t \left[\widehat{\omega}_{t+1}(s') \right] \tag{42}$$

This Bellman-like equation (42) is similar to the augmented Bellman equation (13) from Proposition 2 except that (42) is evaluated at the planner's optimal policies. Therefore, it remains to show that the planner's policies maximize the RHS of Bellman operator implied by the RHS of (42) subject to the constraints $d \geq 0$ and $b' \leq \theta k'$. But inspection of the FOCs we derived above shows that this is the case.

C Numerical Algorithm

This appendix describes our numerical solution algorithm. This algorithm may be of interest to other researchers because it is extremely efficient by avoiding numerical optimizer or equation-solver.

Balanced Growth Path We first describe how we solve for a balanced growth path, and then describe how we solve for a transition path starting from an arbitrary initial condition away from the BGP. Our algorithm for solving the balanced growth path iterates over candidate growth rates g. Given a guess of g, we solve for individual firms' decision rules, computed the implied growth from those decision rules, and check whether that implied growth is consistent with our guess for g. For each candidate growth rate, the most difficult part is solving for the individual decisions.

Individual decisions Given a guess for the growth rate g, we solve for the individual decision rules using the first order conditions from Proposition 1. We solve for the decision in two steps. First, we solve for the decisions of the financially unconstrained firms. The key step in this process is iterating over the unconstrained policies $\widetilde{k}'^{*}_{(\text{it})}(\widetilde{z})$, $i^{*}_{(\text{it})}(\widetilde{z})$, and $\widetilde{v}_{(\text{it})}(\widetilde{z})$, where (it) indexes the iteration. Given the current iteration of these objects, we perform the following:

(i) Update the investment policy from (19), which becomes $\widetilde{k}'^{*}_{(\text{it})+1}(\widetilde{z}) = \left(\alpha \frac{\mathbb{E}_t[\widetilde{z}']}{r-\delta}\right)^{\frac{1}{1-\alpha}}$, where $r = \frac{1}{\beta}(1+g)^{\sigma} - 1$ is the real interest rate associated with the growth rate g. Note that we use the previous iteration of the innovation policy $i^{*}_{(\text{it})}(\widetilde{z})$ to evaluate the expectation.

(ii) Update the innovation policy from (20), which can also be evaluated in closed form:

$$i^*_{(\text{it})+1}(\widetilde{z}) = \max\{0, \eta'^{-1}\left(\widetilde{z}^{\frac{1}{1-\alpha}}\frac{1+r}{1+g}\begin{bmatrix}\pi_d\left(E^\varepsilon[\widetilde{n}'|\iota=1]-E^\varepsilon[\widetilde{n}'|\iota=0]\right)+\\(1-\pi_d)\left(E^\varepsilon[\widetilde{v}^*_{(\text{it})}(\widetilde{z}')|\iota=1]-E^\varepsilon[\widetilde{v}^*_{(\text{it})}(\widetilde{z}')|\iota=0]\right)\end{bmatrix}^{-1}\right)\}.$$

We use the new iteration of the capital policy $k'^*_{(\text{it})+1}(\widetilde{z})$ to evaluate the evolution of net worth. Note that the minimum savings policy drops out of this difference and is therefore not necessary for this computation. We pre-compute the inverse function $\eta'^{-1}(y)$.

(iii) Update the value function $\widetilde{v}^*_{(\text{it})+1}(\widetilde{z})$ by iterating on the Bellman operator implied by (22).

Given these unconstrained objects, we can solve for the minimum savings policy by iterating on the operator implied by (21). Finally, we can recover the unconstrained net worth cutoff $\overline{n}(\widetilde{z})$ from (25).

With these unconstrained policies in hand, we can now solve for the decision rules for all firms over the entire state space $(\widetilde{z}, \widetilde{n})$. We do so by iterating on $\widetilde{k}'_{(\text{it})}(\widetilde{z}, \widetilde{n})$, $\widetilde{b}'_{(\text{it})}(\widetilde{z}, \widetilde{n})$, $i_{(\text{it})}(\widetilde{z}, \widetilde{n})$, $\lambda_{(\text{it})}(\widetilde{z}, \widetilde{n})$, and $v_{(\text{it})}(\widetilde{z}, \widetilde{n})$:

(i) If a particular state $(\widetilde{z}, \widetilde{n})$ satisfies $\widetilde{n} > \overline{n}(\widetilde{z})$, then use the unconstrained policies and value derived above.

(ii) Solve for the policy rules assuming the collateral constraint is not binding:

- Update the capital accumulation policy from (19), which can be computed in closed form:

$$\widetilde{k}'_{(\text{it})+1}(\widetilde{z}, \widetilde{n}) = \left(\alpha\frac{\mathbb{E}_t[(\widetilde{z}' \times (1+1-\pi_d)\lambda_{(\text{it})}(\widetilde{z}', \widetilde{n}')]}{(1+r)(1+\lambda_{(\text{it})}(\widetilde{z}, \widetilde{n})) - (1-\delta)\mathbb{E}_t[(1+1-\pi_d)\lambda_{(\text{it})}(\widetilde{z}', \widetilde{n}')]}\right)^{\frac{1}{1-\alpha}},$$

where we compute the law of motion for net worth $\widetilde{n}$ and the expectation using the current iteration (it) of the policy rules.

- Update the implied $\widetilde{b}'_{(\text{it})+1}$ from the $\widetilde{d} = 0$ constraint:

$$\widetilde{b}'_{(\text{it})+1}(\widetilde{z}, \widetilde{n}) = \frac{1+r}{1+g} \left(\widetilde{z}^{\frac{1}{1-\alpha}} i_{(\text{it})}(\widetilde{z}, \widetilde{n}) + (1+g)\widetilde{k}'_{(\text{it})+1}(\widetilde{z}, \widetilde{n}) - \widetilde{n} \right).$$

(iii) For each point in the state space $(\widetilde{z}, \widetilde{n})$, which if the collateral constraint is binding at these candidate solutions, i.e. if $\widetilde{b}'_{(\text{it})+1}(\widetilde{z}, \widetilde{n}) > \theta \widetilde{k}'_{(\text{it})+1}(\widetilde{z}, \widetilde{n})$. If so, compute the policies with a binding collateral constraint:

- Update the capital accumulation policy from the $\widetilde{d} = 0$ constraint with $\widetilde{b}' = \theta \widetilde{k}'$:

$$\widetilde{k}'_{(\text{it})+1} = \frac{\widetilde{n} - \widetilde{z}^{\frac{1}{1-\alpha}} i_{(\text{it})}(\widetilde{z}, \widetilde{n})}{(1+g)(1 - \frac{\theta}{1+r})}.$$

- Set $\widetilde{b}'_{(\text{it})+1}(\widetilde{z}, \widetilde{n}) = \theta \widetilde{k}'_{(\text{it})+1}(\widetilde{z}, \widetilde{n})$.
- Recover the Langrange multiplier on the collateral constraint $\mu_{(\text{it})+1}(\widetilde{z}, \widetilde{n})$ from the capital Euler equation (19).

(iv) Update the innovation policy (20) given this new iteration of the investment and borrowing policies:

$$i^*_{(\text{it})+1}(\widetilde{z}) = \max\{0, \eta'^{-1} \left((1 + \lambda_{(it)}(\widetilde{z}, \widetilde{n}))\widetilde{z}^{\frac{1}{1-\alpha}} \frac{1+r}{1+g} \mathbb{E}_t \begin{bmatrix} \pi_d \left(E^\varepsilon[\widetilde{n}'|\iota = 1] - E^\varepsilon[\widetilde{n}'|\iota = 0] \right) + \\ (1 - \pi_d) \left(E^\varepsilon[\widetilde{v}^*_{(\text{it})}(\widetilde{z}')|\iota = 1] - E^\varepsilon[\widetilde{v}^*_{(\text{it})}(\widetilde{z}')|\iota = 0] \right) \end{bmatrix}^{-1} \right) \}$$

where we evaluate the law of motion for net worth using $\widetilde{k}'_{(\text{it})+1}(\widetilde{z}, \widetilde{n})$ and $\widetilde{b}'_{(\text{it})+1}(\widetilde{z}, \widetilde{n})$.

(v) Update the value function $\widetilde{v}_{(\text{it})+1}(\widetilde{z}, \widetilde{n})$ by iterating on the Bellman operator from (16).

(vi) Update the financial wedge $\lambda_{(\text{it})+1}(\widetilde{z}, \widetilde{n})$ from (18):

$$\lambda_{(\text{it})+1}(\widetilde{z}, \widetilde{n}) = (1+r)\mu_{(\text{it})+1}(\widetilde{z}, \widetilde{n}) + (1 - \pi_d)\mathbb{E}_t[\lambda_{(\text{it})}(\widetilde{z}', \widetilde{n}')].$$

While we do not have a formal proof that this iteration will converge, we find that it robustly converges for the parameterizations that we have explored. Given these policy rules, we compute the stationary distribution $\widetilde{\Phi}(\widetilde{z}, \widetilde{n})$ implied by (26).

Updating guess of the growth rate g We now need to compute the aggregate growth rate implied by these decision rules. We compute the growth rate of average productivity $\int z_{jt}dj$, $\widetilde{g}$, using the definition

$$1+\widetilde{g}=\frac{(1-\pi_d)\int z'p(\varepsilon)\Phi(s)d\varepsilon ds+\pi_d(1+\widetilde{g})\int z\Phi(s)ds}{\int z\Phi(s)ds}$$

where $s=(z,n)$ denotes the individual state vector. The second term in the numerator reflects our assumption that the average productivity of initial entrants is equal to the average productivity of incumbents. Rearranging this expression gives

$$1+\widetilde{g}=\frac{\int z'p(\varepsilon)\Phi(s)d\varepsilon ds}{\int z\Phi(s)ds}.$$

The numerator in this integral is

$$\begin{aligned}&\int\left[\eta(i(s))e^{\Delta}e^{\varepsilon}z+(1-\eta(i(s)))e^{\varepsilon}z\right]p(\varepsilon)\Phi(s)d\varepsilon ds\\&=e^{\sigma_\varepsilon^2/2}\left[\int z\Phi(s)ds+\int\eta(i(s))(e^{\Delta}-1)z\Phi(s)ds\right]\end{aligned}$$

where the second line uses the fact that ε is log-normally distributed independent of s. Collecting terms, we have

$$1+\widetilde{g}=e^{\sigma_\varepsilon^2/2}\left[1+(e^{\Delta}-1)\frac{\int\eta(i(s))z\Phi(s)ds}{\int z\Phi(s)ds}\right].$$

Given this value of $\widetilde{g}$, we can then compute the implied growth of Z_t as $1+\widehat{g}=(1+\widetilde{g})^{\frac{1+a}{1-\alpha}}$.

Taken together, this procedure defines a mapping from the current guess of the growth rate, g, to a new guess, $\widehat{g}=f(g)$. The balanced growth path is a fixed point of this mapping. We compute the fixed point using a nonlinear equation solver to numerically solve the equation $\widehat{g}-f(g)=0$.

Transition Path We can solve for the transition path starting at an arbitrary initial distribution $\widetilde{\Phi}_0(\widetilde{z},\widetilde{n})$ using a nonlinear equation solver. Specifically, we assume the economy converges to the balanced growth path by some finite period T and define the transition path as a sequence of $\{g_t, r_t\}_{t=0}^T$ which solves $h(\{g_t, r_t\}) = 0$, where h performs the following:

(i) Given the sequence $\{g_t, r_t\}_{t=0}^T$, solve for the individual decisions using backward iteration in the scheme described above for computing the BGP.

(ii) Given these policies and the initial distribution, $\widetilde{\Phi}_0(\widetilde{z}, \widetilde{n})$, simulate forward to get the path of distributions $\{\widetilde{\Phi}_t(\widetilde{z}, \widetilde{n})\}_{t=1}^T$.

(iii) The elements of $h(\{g_t, r_t\})$ are then the aggregate consistency conditions:

$$\frac{1}{\beta}\left(\frac{C_{t+1}}{C_t}\right)^\sigma - (1 + r_t) = 0.$$

D Additional Quantitative Results

This appendix provides details of quantitative results described in the main text.

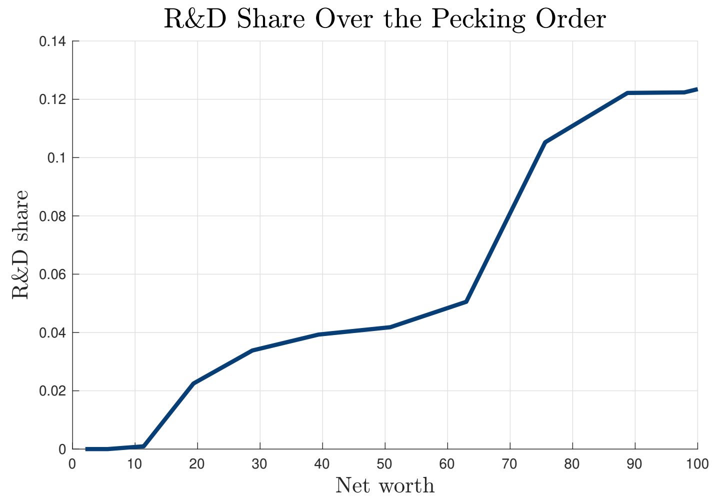
D.1 Additional Results about the Pecking Order

This section provides additional results about the model's pecking order of firm growth described in Section 5.

R&D Share Over the Pecking Order Figure D.1 shows that the model's R&D share is increasing throughout the pecking order. We compute the R&D share as the ratio of R&D expenditures to the sum of R&D expenditures and investment expenditures, as in the data. The model's R&D share is zero in the first region of the pecking order in which firms pursue no innovation. The R&D share begins to increase in the second region, in which firms begin innovating. The R&D share is monotonically increasing in this region because the amount of innovation required to reduce the return on innovation is itself increasing due to the concavity of $\eta(i)$. Finally, the R&D share flattens out once the firm reaches the third region of the pecking order in which the decision rules are independent of net worth.

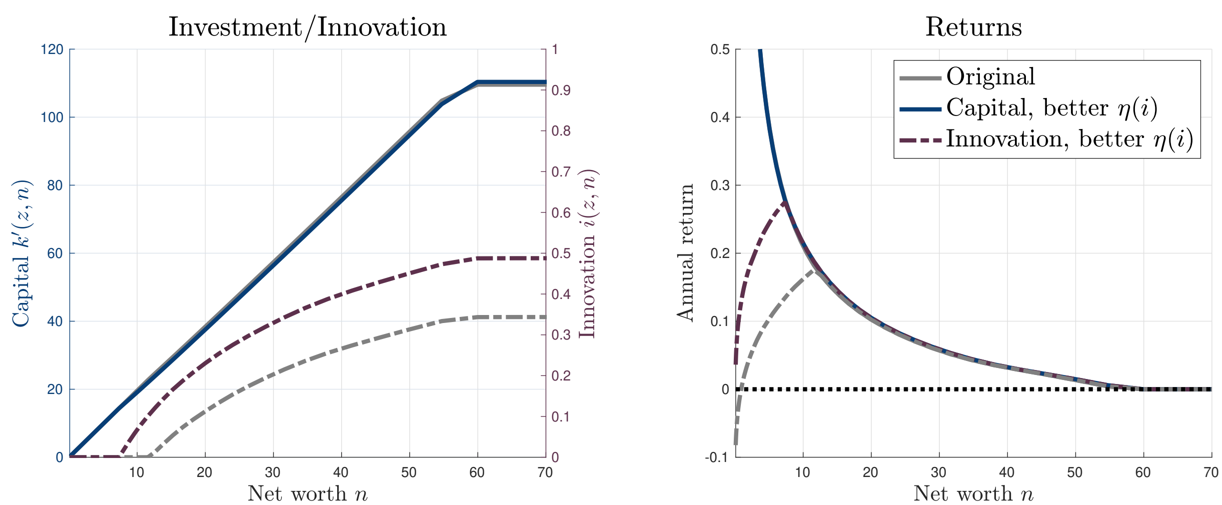
Role of Innovation Technology in the Pecking Order Figure D.2 compares our calibrated pecking order to a version of the model with a more efficient innovation technology,

Figure D.1: R&D Share Over the Pecking Order



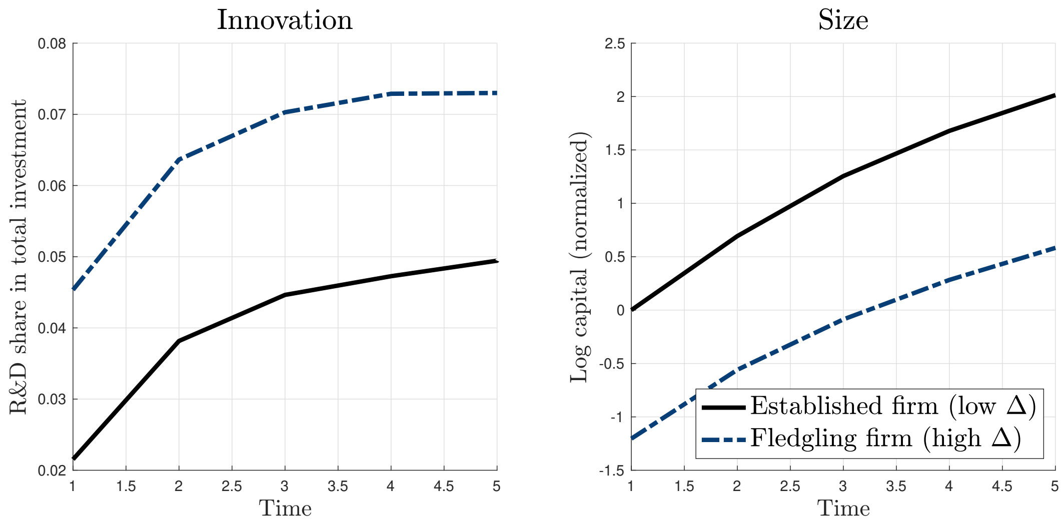
Notes: R&D share computed as the ratio of innovation expenditures to the sum of innovation expenditures and capital expenditures, $\frac{(A_t z)^{\frac{1}{1-\alpha}} i_t(z,n)}{(A_t z)^{\frac{1}{1-\alpha}} i_t(z,n)+k'_t(z,n)-(1-\delta)k}$.

Figure D.2: Role of Innovation Technology in the Pecking Order



Notes: the left panel plots capital expenditures $k'_t(z,n)$ (left axis) and innovation intensity $i_t(z,n)$ (right axis) in market equilibrium BGP of the calibrated model for fixed z. The right panel plots the net return to these activities, defined as the RHS of the Euler equations (8) and (9) minus 1. "Better $\eta(i)$" refers to the model with higher η_0 than in our baseline calibration (see Section 6).

Figure D.3: The Pecking Order with Heterogeneity in Innovation Size



Notes: figure plots time path of R&D-to-sales ratios (left panel) and detrended log capital stock (right panel) for two types of firms: one with the baseline innovation technology, and one with a better technology with higher step size Δ but starts with a smaller log capital stock. Log capital in right panel is normalized to zero in the first year for the firm with the baseline technology.

i.e. a higher value of η_0 which raises the probability of receiving a successful innovation $\eta(i)$ for a given innovation intensity i. As described in the main text, the more efficient innovation technology shifts up the returns to innovation, which has two effects on firms' decisions. First, the return to innovation intersects the return to capital for a lower level of net worth, implying that firms start innovating earlier on in the pecking order. Second, conditional on positive innovation, firms do more innovation. These higher innovation expenditures requires the firm to reduce capital accumulation in the region in which the firm is financially constrained. However, once the firm becomes unconstrained, capital accumulation increases relative to the baseline because higher innovation increases the expected marginal product of capital in the next period.

Heterogeneity in Innovation Size Our baseline model assumes that all innovations produce the same increase in productivity, Δ. However, some papers in the existing literature argues that some firms have a comparative advantage in larger "breakthrough" innovations. We now show that our model can accommodate this possibility without affecting our pecking order of growth within firms.

Specifically, we compare the time paths of two firms that differ in the size of their successful innovations, Δ. The first firm is representative of an established firm in our Compustat sample; it has our calibrated innovation technology and starts with a level of capital similar to a smaller firm within Compustat. The second firm is representative of a smaller "fledgling" firm that has a comparative advantage in innovation; its innovation technology has a larger increase in productivity upon success Δ, but the firm starts with a lower level of capital. We simulate the time paths of the R&D share and the capital stock over five years.

Figure D.3 shows that innovation is negatively correlated with size *across firms* but is still positively correlated with size *within firms*, as in our pecking order of firm growth. The across-firm correlation is negative because the smaller firm has a higher technological return to innovation Δ, and therefore pursues more innovation and less investment for any level of net worth. However, the within-firm correlation is still positive because each firm is more willing and able to finance higher innovation as they accumulate net worth.

D.2 Investment Tax Shocks

The Bonus Depreciation Allowance allowed firms to deduct a fraction $b_t \in [0, 1]$ of investment expenses from their tax bill immediately (and apply the standard depreciation schedule to the remaining $1 - b_t$ fraction of expenditures). By bringing forward future tax deductions into the present, the policy increases the present value of tax deductions by $\Delta\zeta_t = b_t(1 - \zeta)$ where $\zeta < 1$ is the present value of deductions under the baseline schedule.

Zwick and Mahon (2017) show that sectoral heterogeneity in the baseline tax depreciation schedule across sectors, ζ_s, provides exogenous variation that can be used to identify the effect of the Bonus, $\Delta\zeta_{st} = b_t(1 - \zeta_s)$, on investment. We estimate their specification in our Compustat sample with the regression

$$\frac{x_{jt}}{k_{jt}} = \alpha_i + \alpha_t + \gamma\frac{1 - \tau\zeta_{st}}{1 - \tau} + \Gamma' X_{jt} + \epsilon_{jt}, \tag{43}$$

where τ is the corporate tax rate, α_i is a firm fixed effect, α_t is a time fixed effect, X_{jt} controls for cash flows to lagged capital, and ϵ_{jt} are residuals.

Table D.1
Bonus Depreciation Allowance in the Data and the Model

	(1) $\frac{x_{jt}}{k_{jt}}$, data	(2) $\frac{x_{jt}}{k_{jt}}$, model	(3) $\frac{i_{jt}}{y_{jt}}$, data	(4) $\frac{i_{jt}}{y_{jt}}$, model
$\frac{1-\tau\zeta_{st}}{1-\tau}$	-1.37	-1.73	-0.14	-0.20
	(0.16)		(0.04)	
R^2	0.35		0.88	

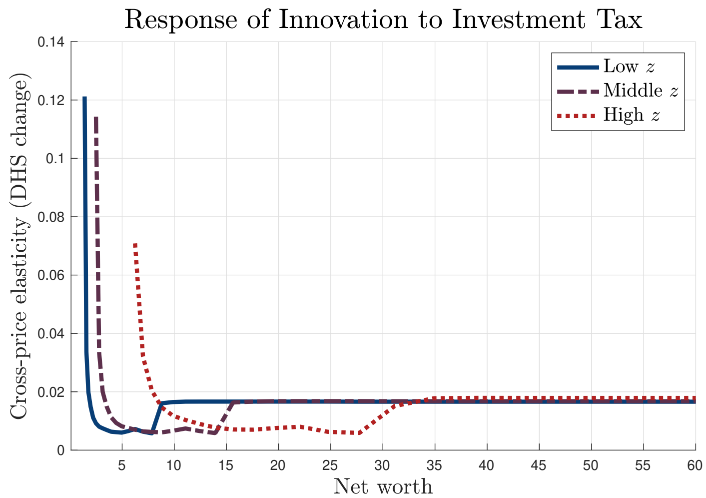
Notes: estimates of $\widehat{\gamma}$ from the regression (43) in columns (1) and (2) or from the regression (44) in columns (3) - (6). Standard errors, reported in parentheses, are clustered by firms. "Model" columns (2) and (4) replicate the regressions on model-simulated data in response to a shock equivalent to a 50% bonus depreciation allowance which reverts back to its long-run average following an AR(1) process with annual persistence 0.8 (giving a half-life of roughly two years).

To replicate this experiment in our model, we feed in an exogenous shock to the relative price of investment. Appendix B shows that the Bonus is isomorphic to a temporary shock to the relative price of capital in our model. We assume that the shock mean-reverts according to an AR(1) with an annual autocorrelation coefficient of 0.8, which implies a half-life around two years (broadly in line with the data). We then simulate a panel of firms from our model's Compustat sample and estimate the regression equation (43). In this regression, we assume all firms face the same present value of tax deductions ζ_t, i.e. there is no sectoral heterogeneity. Since the empirical specification (44) includes time fixed effects to absorb general equilibrium effects, we keep the real interest rate fixed at its initial value $r_t = r^*$ for this exercise. We do not include controls X_{jt} that are outside of our model.

As a reality check, the first two columns of Table D.1 show that the model roughly matches the response of investment to the Bonus Depreciation Allowance. Column (1) shows that the empirical estimate of the regression coefficient is $\widehat{\gamma} = -1.37$, which is close to Zwick and Mahon (2017)'s estimate of -1.53 using firm-level IRS microdata. A 50% bonus would increase the average value of $\frac{1-\tau\zeta_{st}}{1-\tau}$ by -0.03, implying its direct effect increased the average firm's investment rate by $-0.03 \times -1.37 = 0.04$, compared to its unconditional average of 0.14. The model's implied regression coefficient in Column (2) is $\widehat{\gamma} = -1.73$, around two standard errors of the empirical estimate.

Column (3) in Table D.1 documents a new empirical finding: the Bonus also substantially

FIGURE D.4: Heterogeneous Responses to the Bonus Depreciation Allowance



Notes: cross-price elasticity of innovation expenditures to the relative price of investment, using a shock equivalent to a 50% bonus depreciation allowance which reverts back to its long-run average following an AR(1) process with annual persistence 0.8 (giving a half-life of roughly two years). Elasticities computed as the Davis, Haltiwanger and Schuh (1998) growth rate in the impact period of the shock.

raises innovation expenditures. We estimate the regression

$$\frac{\text{RD}_{jt}}{\widetilde{y}_{jt}} = \alpha_i + \alpha_t + \gamma \frac{1 - \tau\widehat{\zeta}_{st}}{1 - \tau} + \Gamma' X_{jt} + \epsilon_{jt}, \tag{44}$$

which replaces the investment rate on the LHS of (43) with the RD-to-sales ratio $\text{RD}_{jt}/\widetilde{y}_{jt}$. Note that the denominator $\widetilde{y}_{jt}$ is lagged sales in the past five years, so it is predetermined in the period of the shock. Quantitatively, this estimated coefficient implies that a 50% bonus directly raises the average firm's RD-to-sales ratio by about 0.8pp relative to its unconditional average of 2.9pp — a nearly 30% increase in innovation expenditures.

Column (4) in Table D.1 shows that the model matches the empirical response of innovation to the Bonus within one standard error. In order to understand the role of financial frictions in driving the model's success, Figure D.4 plots the model's cross-price elasticity of innovation with respect to investment. Unconstrained firms have a positive elasticity because higher investment also raises the return to innovation due to the complementarity between capital and productivity. On the other hand, constrained firms have a positive elasticity because the shock lowers their after-tax expenditures on investment, freeing up cash flows to

Table D.2
Bonus Depreciation Allowance by Size

	Small firms		Large firms	
	$\frac{\text{RD}_{jt}}{y_{jt}}$, data	(2) $\frac{\text{RD}_{jt}}{y_{jt}}$, model	(3) $\frac{\text{RD}_{jt}}{y_{jt}}$, data	(4) $\frac{\text{RD}_{jt}}{y_{jt}}$, model
$\frac{1-\tau\zeta_{st}}{1-\tau}$	-0.27 (0.10)	-0.27	-0.10 (0.04)	-0.07
R^2	0.83		0.90	

Notes: estimates of $\widehat{\gamma}$ from the regression (43) in columns (1) and (2) or from the regression (44) in columns (3) - (6). Standard errors, reported in parentheses, are clustered by firms. "Small" firms in column (5) are those whose average sales are in the bottom 3 deciles of the sales distribution. "Large" firms in column (6) have average sales in the top 3 deciles of the sales distribution "Model" columns (2) and (4) replicate the regressions on model-simulated data in response to a shock equivalent to a 50% bonus depreciation allowance which reverts back to its long-run average following an AR(1) process with annual persistence 0.8 (giving a half-life of roughly two years).

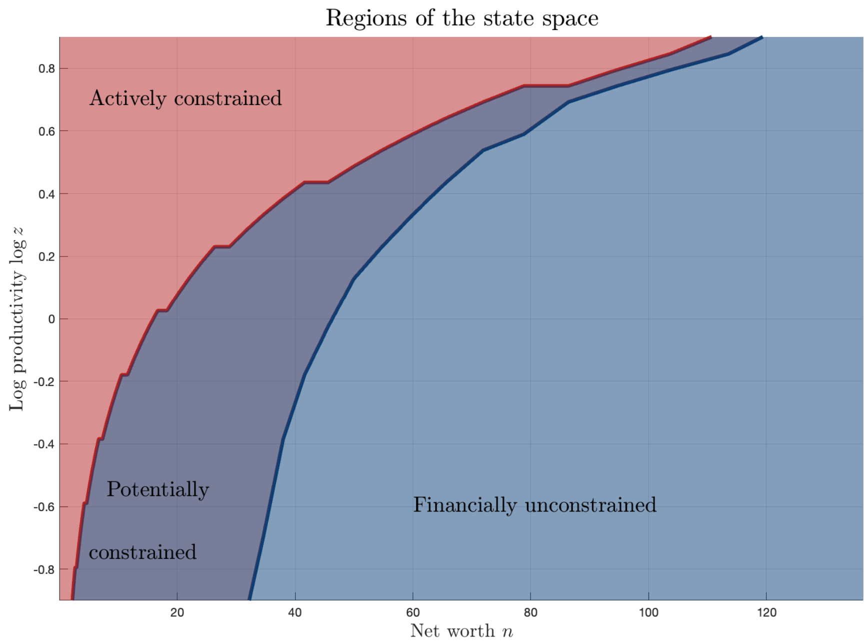
finance innovation. Quantitatively, this cash flow channel is larger than the complementarity channel for most constrained firms.

Table D.1 confirms that these size-dependent responses are consistent with the data, providing further validation of the role of financial frictions in linking innovation and investment. Following Zwick and Mahon (2017), we define small firms as those whose average sales are in the bottom three deciles of the distribution and large firms whose sales are in the top three deciles. Small firms' innovation expenditures are about four times as responsive to the bonus as are large firms, consistent with our model.

D.3 Sources of Firm Heterogeneity

Figure D.5 visualizes the partition of the state space characterized in Proposition 1 in the detrended BGP. The red isocurve implicitly defines the constrained cutoff $\underline{n}(z, n)$; firms above this curve are actively constrained. The level of net worth below which firms are constrained is increasing in productivity z because higher productivity firms have a higher optimal scale of capital $k^*(z)$ and therefore a greater incentive to borrow. The blue isocurve implicitly defines the unconstrained cutoff $\overline{n}(z)$; firms below this curve are financially unconstrained. Firms in between these two isocurves are potentially constrained.

Figure D.5: Partition of the State Space

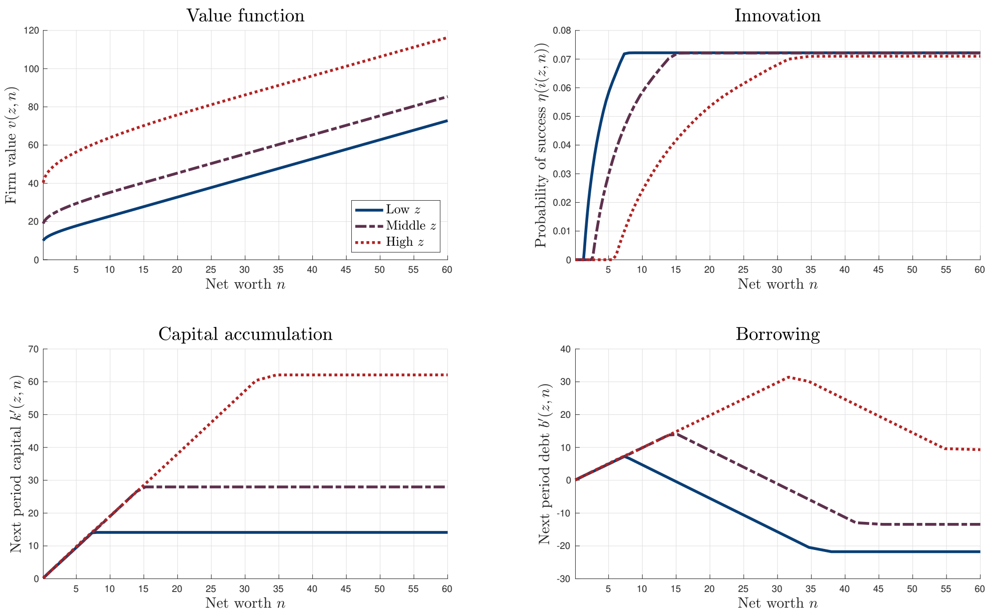


Notes: partition of the state space from Proposition 1 in the market BGP. Net worth n and log productivity $\log z$ have been detrended following Appendix B.

Decision Rules Figure D.6 plots firms' value functions and decision rules as a function of net worth n for different levels of productivity z. Consistent with the pecking order of firm growth from Section 5, firms with low net worth spend all their available resources on investment and do not innovate. The level of net worth at which firms begin innovating is increasing in their productivity because higher-productivity firms have a higher marginal product of capital and, therefore, a higher opportunity cost of innovation. While constrained, firms accumulate debt until they reach their optimal scale $k^*(z)$, at which point they use additional net worth to pay down their debt (and potentially engage in financial saving). Once firms become financially unconstrained, they adopt the minimum savings policy described in Proposition 1. Unconstrained firms' capital varies substantially, but all unconstrained firms have the same innovation rate because of how the cost of innovation is scaled by productivity.

Figure D.7 plots the "cash flow sensitivities" of investment and innovation, defined as $\frac{\partial k'(z,n)}{\partial n}$ and $\frac{\partial i(z,n)}{\partial n}$. Of course, unconstrained firms have sensitivities of zero because their

Figure D.6: Decision Rules



Notes: firm decision rules in the market BGP. All variables have been detrended following Appendix B.

decision rules are independent of net worth (see Figure D.6). Among constrained firms, those that do not innovate simply put all additional net worth toward investment. We can explicitly compute the resulting investment-cash flow sensitivity by differentiating the flow of funds constraint (7) with innovation $i(z,n) = 0$ and borrowing $b' = \theta k'$

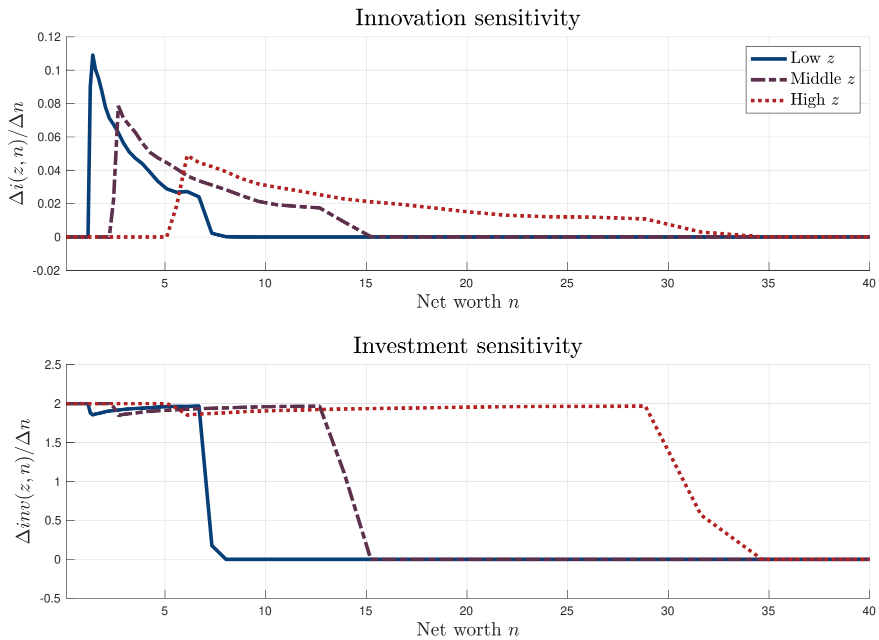
$$k'(z,n) = n + \frac{\theta k'(z,n)}{1+r} \implies \frac{\partial k'(z,n)}{\partial n} = \left(1 - \frac{\theta}{1+r}\right)^{-1} \approx 2,$$

where the last approximation uses our calibrated values of $\theta = 0.52$ and $r = 0.04$. Since firms can lever up investment with borrowing, their investment-cash flow sensitivities are above one. Constrained firms with positive innovation have a smaller investment-cash flow sensitivity because they put some of the additional funds toward innovation as well:

$$k'(z,n)+(A_t z)^{\frac{1}{1-\alpha}} i(z,n) = n+\frac{\theta k'(z,n)}{1+r} \implies \frac{\partial k'(z,n)}{\partial n} = \left(1 - \frac{\theta}{1+r}\right)^{-1} \left(1 - (A_t z)^{\frac{1}{1-\alpha}} \frac{\partial i(z,n)}{\partial n}\right).$$

Quantitatively, Figure D.7 shows that the innovation-cash flow sensitivities are an order of magnitude smaller than the investment-cash flow sensitivities.

Figure D.7: Cash Flow Sensitivities



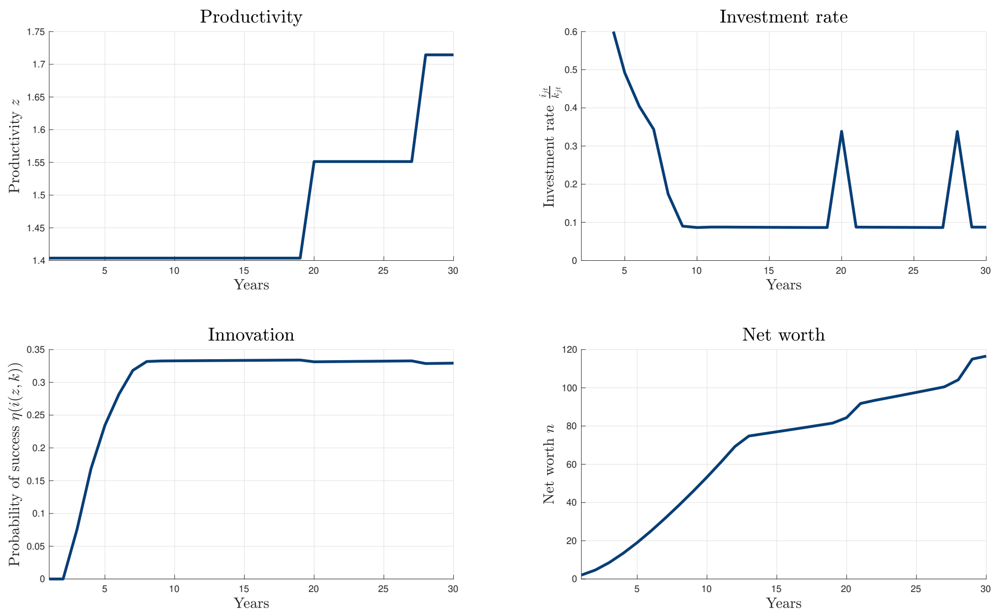
Notes: cash flow sensitivities computed as $\frac{\partial k'(z,n)}{\partial n}$ and $\frac{\partial i(z,n)}{\partial n}$. Derivatives computed using finite differences.

Lifecycle Dynamics Figure D.8 plots a sample lifecycle for a firm that enters the economy at time $t = 0$. In order to highlight the role of innovation, we assume that the firm receives no idiosyncratic productivity shocks $\varepsilon_{jt} = 0$ over this sample path. In its first years of life, the firm has a very high investment rate and does not innovate. As the firm ages, it exhausts its marginal product of capital, reducing its investment rate and increasing its innovation rate. These dynamics are consistent with the descriptive evidence from Figure 1 in the main text. In this particular sample path, the firm receives two successful innovations, both of which successful innovations are accompanied by investment spikes.

Decomposing the Return to Capital Figure D.9 decomposes the return to capital from the pecking order plot Figure 3 as well as its "MPK component"

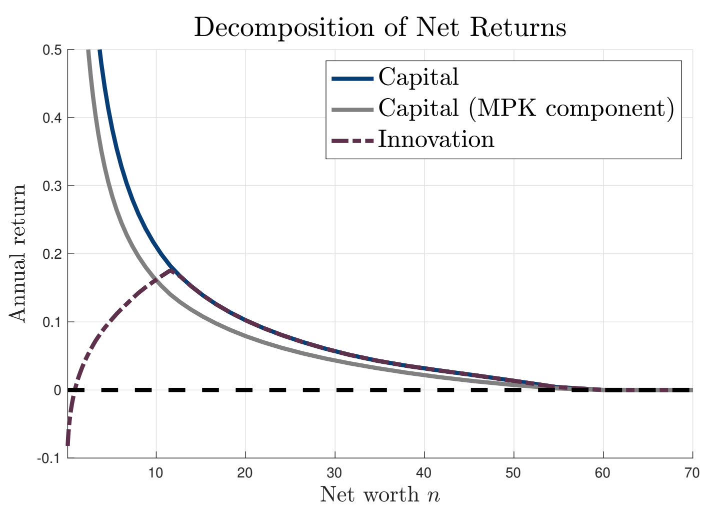
$$\frac{1}{1+r_t}\mathbb{E}_t\left[(MPK_{t+1}(z',k') + 1 - \delta) \times (1 + (1-\pi_d)\lambda_{t+1}(z',n'))\right],$$

Figure D.8: Sample Firm Lifecycle



Notes: sample lifecycle profile for a firm without idisosyncratic shocks $\varepsilon_{jt} = 0$ for all j. Initially endowed with approximately average productivity and net worth among new entrants .

Figure D.9: Decomposing the Return to Capital



Notes: the return to investment and innovation, defined as the RHS of Euler equations (8) and (9) minus 1. "Capital (MPK component)" refers to the return to capital excluding the collateral value $\theta\mu_t(z, n)$.

Table D.3
Distribution of Investment, Innovation, and Leverage

Statistic	**Data**	**Model**
Investment spending		
$\mathbb{E}[x_{jt}/k_{jt}]$	0.15	0.16
$\sigma(x_{jt}/k_{jt})$ (targeted)	0.15	0.13
$\mathbb{E}[x_{jt}/k_{jt}\vert\text{spike}]$ (targeted)	0.37	0.35
R&D spending		
$\mathbb{E}[\text{RD}_{jt}/y_{jt}]$	0.06	0.03
$\text{Frac}(\text{RD}_{jt}/y_{jt} > 0)$	0.45	0.92
$\mathbb{E}[\text{RD}_{jt}/y_{jt}\vert\text{RD}_{jt} > 0]$ (targeted)	0.06	0.06
Leverage		
Mean gross leverage, all (targeted)	0.34	0.30
Mean gross leverage, Compustat	0.21	0.28
SD gross leverage, Compustat	0.22	0.24
Mean net leverage, Compustat	0.13	0.09
SD net leverage, Compustat	0.33	0.36

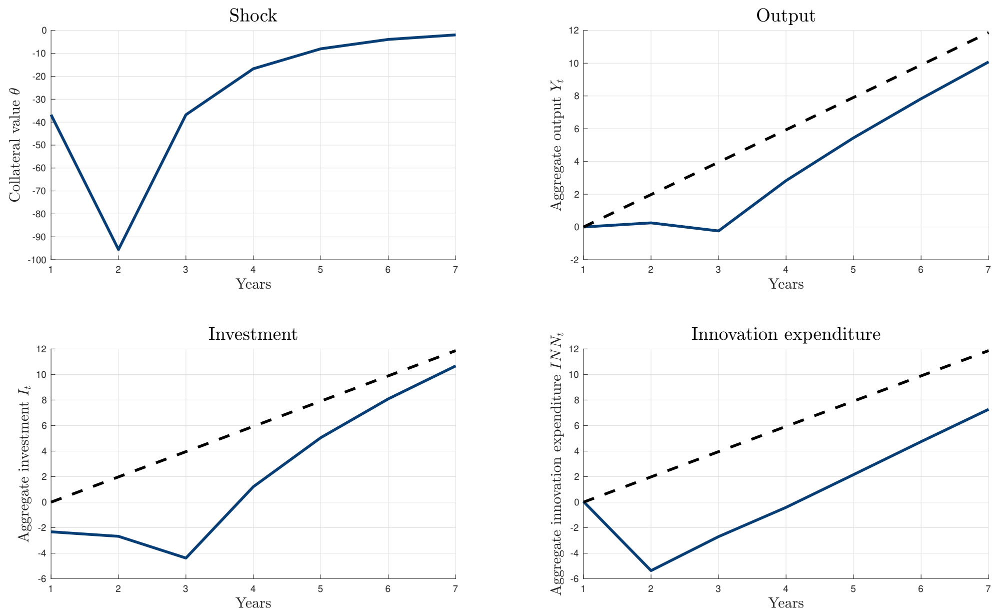
Notes: cross-sectional statistics from stationary distribution of firms. As in the maint text, x_{jt} denotes investment, k_{jt} denotes capital, i_{jt} denotes innovation, y_{jt} denotes sales, and b_{jt} denotes borrowing. We compute gross borrowing in the model as $\max\{b_{jt}, 0\}$.

i.e. the part of the return to capital not driven by its value as collateral $\theta\mu_t(z, n)$. The figure shows that the majority of the difference between the return to capital vs. innovation is due to the MPK component, not its collateral value.

D.4 Distribution of Investment, Innovation, and Leverage

Table D.3 compares a number of moments of the stationary distribution of investment, R&D, and leverage from our model to their counterparts in the Compustat data. The model endogenously matches the average investment rate fairly well even though they it was not directly targeted in the calibration. The model model also matches the first two moments of leverage fairly well, either in terms of gross or net leverage. However, the model over-predicts the share of firms with positive R&D spending compared to the data. We choose not to target this statistic because it is well-known that firms under-report R&D expenditures, especially along the extensive margin.

FIGURE D.10: Transition Paths Following Financial Shock θ_t



Notes: aggregate transition paths following an unexpected tightening of the collateral constraint θ_t. Top left panel plots the path of θ_t. Remaining panels plot aggregate output, investment, and innovation expenditures in log-deviations from initial period. Dashed black lines are the growth trajectory in the initial market BGP.

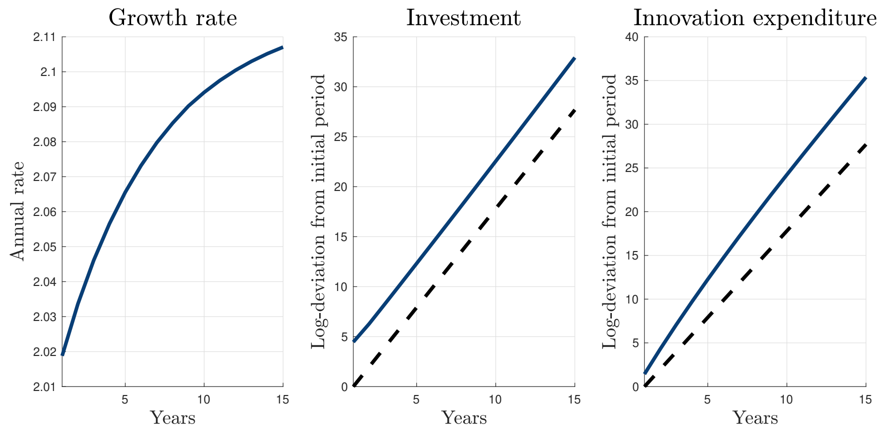
D.5 Transitory Growth Effects of Financial Shocks

We model a financial shock as a transitory decline in the collateral constraint θ_t plotted in the top left panel of Figure D.10. We compute the effects of this shock assuming that the shock is completely unexpected at time $t = 0$ but then agents have perfect foresight as the economy transitions back to a BGP. The bottom panels show that the shock reduces both investment and innovation expenditures. However, once the shock has dissipated, the growth rate of investment, innovation, and output return to their original levels. Hence, our model does not generate much internal propagation of financial shocks on aggregate growth rates (although the levels never return to the original trend).

D.6 Investment Tax Cuts

We illustrate the connection between investment tax cuts and innovation using the Tax Cuts and Jobs Act (TCJA 2017) as an example. Appendix B.3 shows that the tax system changes

Figure D.11: Investment Tax Cuts Raise Innovation (TCJA 2017)



Notes: transition path following an unexpected, permanent decline in the relative price of capital of the size equivalent to full expensing of investment, starting from the initial market BGP. Dashed lines correspond to the paths of investment, output, and innovation along the initial growth trajectory. Solid lines correspond to their actual paths in response to the change in the relative price of capital. Investment and innovation expenditures expressed as log-deviations from initial period.

the after-tax price of investment to $1 - \tau\zeta_t$, where τ is the corporate tax rate and ζ_t is the present value of tax deductions per unit of investment. The TCJA 2017 raised the present value of deductions to $\zeta_t = 1$, lowering the relative price of investment. We mirror this policy change in our model by studying a permanent decline in the after-tax price of investment of the same size.

Figure D.11 shows that, in our model, full expensing increases the long-run growth rate by 10 basis points per year. This result occurs for two reasons. First, for unconstrained firms, the complementarity of capital and TFP in production implies that the return to innovation increases with investment. Second, if after-tax capital expenditures fall, constrained firms can afford more innovation our of their current cash flows. However, these positive effects take fifteen years to fully materialize.

In contrast to our model, investment tax cuts would have no effect on the long-run growth rate in the neoclassical growth model. In the neoclassical model, cutting taxes on investment would increase the capital stock but, due to the diminishing marginal product of capital, only lead to an increase in the level of output (not its growth rate).