

# How is the Substitution Account doing?

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## 1. Introduction

Doubts about the role of the dollar as the primary reserve currency have periodically prompted a range of proposals for fundamental reform of the international monetary system. Despite the suspension of convertibility to gold at a fixed price in 1971 and ultimately the transition to a floating exchange rate regime from 1973, the dollar has continued to dominate global foreign exchange reserves. This reflects the size of the US economy and the unparalleled liquidity of the US financial markets. However, when the US economy appears to founder or the dollar is weak, concerns about the ability of the dollar to bear the burdens of its role as the world's primary reserve currency tend to arise. Thus in the 1960s, the 1970s and in the 2000s there have been sustained periods of debate about reforming the international monetary system to transition the dollar out of its dominant position. In the 1960s prolonged negotiation produced the Special Drawing Right (SDR) to supplement the dollar, but it has failed to develop into a genuine alternative to dollar assets, so many proposals since the 1960s have focussed on how to enhance the SDR's role. As the presidency of the G20 rotated to France in 2010, French policymakers past and present placed the reform of the international monetary system again on the agenda (Camdessus (2009), Landau (2009, 2010a,b)). Several proposals to reinvigorate the SDR were proposed, including a Substitution Account to replace some US dollar official reserves with SDR assets, an idea that had occupied members of the IMF and G10 throughout most of the 1970s.

The revival of the SDR in general, and the Substitution Account in particular, owe much to the statement by the Governor of the People's Bank of China in March 2009 in which he claimed the SDR 'serves as the light in the tunnel for the reform of the international monetary system'. (Zhou (2009)). Given its huge dollar reserves, China clearly has a large stake in any reform process and Zhou proposed an 'open-ended SDR-denominated fund' to exchange dollar reserves for SDR assets. Since then, these proposals have been taken up more widely both as a way to redress apparent asymmetries and vulnerabilities associated with the US dollar's reserve currency status and to enhance global liquidity and resilience (IMF 2011). That the Substitution Account is back on the agenda is more evident from policymakers past (Bergsten (2007), Camdessus (2009) and Padoa-Schioppa (2009), Wijnholds (2009), Palais Royale Initiative (2011)) than from policymakers present.<sup>2</sup> On the US side, participants in the late 1970s discussion of the proposal for a Substitution Account have revisited the issues (Bergsten (1997, 2009), Cooper (2009), Kenen (2010)). However, a fresh generation of European economists (Angeloni et al (2011, pp 37, 61, 70, 75, Farhi et al (2011 p. 45)) have also included a Substitution Account in some scenarios.

This paper seeks to inform the renewed interest in the Substitution Account by analysing how it would have performed had it been set up along the lines discussed in the international dialogue that ended in 1980. Kenen (2010a, b) reports such an exercise and concluded that the United States would have had to "top up" the Substitution Account by about \$475 billion to break even over 1980-2008. Nevertheless, he argues that this cost is small relative to the American economy and that the benefits would warrant adopting a similar scheme today. We contend that he has not done justice to the issues that divided policymakers in 1980 or to the sensitivity of outcomes to the date when the Account is established. The issues include the

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<sup>2</sup> Two organisations have formed to renew debate on the reform of the international monetary system. The Reinventing Bretton Woods Committee has sponsored a series of events thanks to the indefatigable Marc Uzan (<http://rbwf.org/cms/index.php>). More recently, the Palais Royale Initiative (2011) assembled the Orion's Belt of Michel Camdessus, Alexandre Lamfalussy and (the late) Tomaso Padoa-Schioppa. Andre Icard, former Banque de France director of research and former Deputy General Manager, BIS, headed its secretariat. Its report is lodged on the Banque de France's website on the international monetary system, [http://global-currencies.org/smi/gb/telechar/news/Rapport\\_Camdessus-integral.pdf](http://global-currencies.org/smi/gb/telechar/news/Rapport_Camdessus-integral.pdf). For a proposal akin to a substitution account, see Greenwald and Stiglitz (2010), pp 334-336.

related questions of the interest rate to be paid by the US Treasury on dollars placed into the account and the means for sharing possible shortfalls arising from a failure of uncovered interest parity to hold over any given horizon. Importantly, the archive record shows that the IMF staff predicted at the time that the Account would run deficits over the long term, so that participants would have had to somehow share big losses.

In what follows, we first describe the Substitution Account proposal as it developed from 1973 to 1980. A longer perspective is important to understand why the idea was finally rejected in 1980, because it reveals the underlying presumptions and priorities of the participants. Then we profile the main outstanding issues, drawing connections between the yields that Europeans sought to have the US Treasury pay and contemporary and subsequent changes in reserve management. In profiling the issues, we rely not only on published accounts like Sobol (1979), Wallich (1980), Gowa (1983) and Boughton (2001) but also on archival sources from the International Monetary Fund (IMF), the Bank for International Settlements (BIS) and the UK Treasury. Then we undertake simulations that show how the Substitution Account would have performed on different assumptions about the resolution of the outstanding issues *and* different starting points. We then draw conclusions.

## 2. What was the Substitution Account?

The concept of exchanging dollar denominated reserve assets for a reserve unit issued by the IMF or another multilateral agency had a long period of gestation towards what was ultimately a still birth. From the early 1960s, there was widespread concern over the sustainability of the Bretton Woods system of using national currencies as reserve assets. This was most closely associated with the Triffin Dilemma which predicted a loss of confidence in the gold value of the US dollar as the value of liquid claims on the United States in the form of dollar foreign exchange reserves increased. More generally, Triffin argued the need to choose the rate of global reserve (or “liquidity”) growth collectively rather than allow it to be a by-product of national decisions.

Very early on, many schemes shared common characteristics including a neutral unit of account issued by a multilateral fund (either the IMF or a new institution embedded in the IMF) against the deposit of foreign exchange reserve assets.<sup>3</sup> At first, US unwillingness to consider any scheme that would replace the US dollar blocked progress, but from 1965 as the American balance of payments problems appeared more protracted, the Johnson administration embraced the reform discussions then underway in the G10 (Schenk 2010).

With the obstacle of US reticence removed, the talks gained traction and culminated in a resolution that met half of the goal: the creation of a new reserve unit that could be deliberately created by IMF members, but not a way to replace existing foreign exchange reserve assets. Rather than replacing an existing *stock* of assets, the reform was aimed at collective control over some of the *flow* of future reserve creation.

The Special Drawing Right was a triumph of ambiguity over clarity of purpose, a compromise driven by the need to meet expectations that had been built up for an announcement at the Rio IMF Annual Meeting in September 1967. Careful terminology avoided the label of reserve asset and it was designed to add to rather than replace existing reserves. US and UK officials referred

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<sup>3</sup> For example, under the British Chancellor of the Exchequer Maudling’s Mutual Currency Account scheme of 1962, the IMF would create a separate pool to which countries in surplus would contribute currencies in return for claims on the account. These claims would form interest bearing assets with a gold value guarantee that would be part of the donors’ national reserves. See Schenk (2010a, pp 245-52) and Sobol (1979, pp 41-2).

to it publicly as front-line reserves while French officials gave it muted praise as a new limited form of credit (with “reconstitution” requirements analogous to requiring repayment after use). Ambiguous in concept and requiring a super-majority of IMF votes to make further allocations, SDR issuance remained very limited. As a result, the SDR has neither contributed significantly to international official reserves nor replaced foreign exchange as the primary reserve asset. Nor did it fulfil the hope that it might preserve the Bretton Woods system. In 1971, the United States withdrew from its pledge to convert dollars into gold, and the resulting fiat currency came to float against other major currencies by early 1973.

The evident failure of the SDR to resolve the weaknesses in the Bretton Woods system alongside the growth of an apparently persistent global imbalance between the United States, on the one hand, and Japan and West Germany, on the other, led to renewed proposals for reform. The advent of flexible exchange rates had transformed the Triffin Dilemma into a problem of possibly unstable demands for fiat reserve currencies. The prospect of a destabilising rush of official reserves out of the US dollar, against the backdrop of resistance by the German and Japanese authorities to wider international use of their currencies, led the Committee of Twenty (representing the Executive Directors of the IMF) to consider a Substitution Account in 1973-74.

The plan would allow (or in some early versions require) official reserve holders to replace a portion of their foreign exchange reserves with SDRs issued by a special account overseen by the IMF.<sup>4</sup> By February 1973, the US Treasury was prepared to envisage a one-time conversion of some existing USD reserves into SDRs, replacing liabilities to sundry national creditors with a liability to an IMF-based Substitution Account. However, the US Treasury remained wary either of undertaking a new financial obligation by guaranteeing the SDR value of the Account or of paying better yields to the Account than it was offering the public. If the terms were too generous, particularly considering the huge scale of possible liabilities to the Account, the US Treasury (and Congress) would be unable to agree. They thus kept an open mind on the need to transform US dollar reserves while pressing for a symmetrical global adjustment mechanism to discipline countries in persistent surplus. Others, particularly in Europe, hoped to devise a system that forced the US economy to reduce its deficits and redeem its liabilities in some form other than more dollar liabilities. In February 1973, the US Executive Director William B. Dale dismissed the Substitution Account as an interesting academic exercise noting that “while the broad analytical issues were of great interest, the more fundamental questions lay in the obligations of debtors and creditors” and “Unless the proponents of the various schemes had some practical way of dealing with the problem of financial obligation on the part of the reserve centers [i.e. the United States], little progress could be made”.<sup>5</sup> Certainly without American support or at least acquiescence, no arrangement to transform US dollar reserves could go forward.

Nevertheless, the Committee of Twenty’s final report in June 1974 included an illustrative proposal for a Substitution Account, leaving open the contested questions of interest rates payable on assets and liabilities, the disposition of any profit or loss and the terms of liquidation. In the end, these were the same obstacles that eventually scuppered the 1980 Substitution Account. Lurking behind these issues was the European desire to require the US Treasury to amortise the dollar assets in the fund over time by exchanging them for SDRs. Europeans saw such settlement of dollar obligations in a medium not created by the United States (formerly

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<sup>4</sup> The formal name of the Committee of Twenty was the Committee on Reform of the International Monetary System and Related Issues; it attempted to broaden the governance of the international monetary system beyond the G10.

<sup>5</sup> EBM/73/19, 23 February 1973. Sobol (1979) states that the proposal died for lack of support owing to the below-market rate of return then paid on the SDR and a lack of consensus on adjustment obligations as between debtor and creditor countries.

gold, now SDRs) as making the international monetary system more symmetric and as exerting collective control over international liquidity.<sup>6</sup> By the time the C20 report was completed, the urgency of responding to the oil crisis, inflation, floating exchange rates, development challenges and the deficits of less developed countries pushed the complex and longer term topic of a Substitution Account down the IMF agenda. There was little political support for it and it was ignored in the proposals to reform of the Articles of Agreement agreed in 1976.<sup>7</sup>

A depreciating dollar and negotiations for fresh allocations of SDRs revived the discussion of a substitution account at the end of 1977.<sup>8</sup> In this context, the controversy over the potential expansionary effect of fresh allocations of SDRs on international liquidity prompted the IMF Managing Director Johannes Witteveen to propose in February 1978 that developed countries (including the United States) might deposit an amount of dollars equivalent to the amount of SDRs they were allocated into a 'substitution account' in order to neutralise the impact on international liquidity and to increase the proportion of global reserves denominated in SDR. The IMF would invest the proceeds in long term US Treasury securities.<sup>9</sup> The United States was initially non-committal, although the British and Belgians supported the scheme as a way to increase the use of the SDR.<sup>10</sup> After months of deliberation the United States rejected the proposal on three grounds: it would require the US Treasury to borrow the dollars to deposit in the account, it would be too small to make much of a difference to the distribution of global reserves and it might further weaken confidence in the dollar. The European reaction was also 'remarkably negative'.<sup>11</sup> The Germans, French and Italians rejected Witteveen's plan early on as too lenient on the Americans in terms of the interest they would need to pay on the US Treasury securities and the lack of arrangements to amortise the funds in the account (i.e. for the US to pay off its liabilities).<sup>12</sup> In the end a further modest allocation of SDRs for the next three years was agreed without such a compensating mechanism and Witteveen's initiative was deferred for future study.

These early iterations of a Substitution Account as a vehicle to increase the role of the SDR in the international monetary system exposed the key obstacles that remained in 1980:

1. The importance of US enthusiasm to the success of any scheme but at the same time the US Treasury's ambivalence over setting up a reserve rival to the US dollar.
2. The appropriate return on SDR assets in the Account.

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<sup>6</sup> Final Report and Outline of Reform of the Committee of Twenty, June 14 1974. Williamson also highlights the idea of using changes in US liabilities to the fund to offset changes in US liabilities to other official dollar holders in order to gain control over the aggregate of such liabilities. Rueff (1971, p 78) summarised the asymmetry with a simile: "If I had an agreement with my tailor that whatever money I pay him he returns to me the very same day as a loan, I would have no objection at all to ordering more suits from him".

<sup>7</sup> Briefing Memorandum from the Assistant Secretary of State for Economic and Business Affairs (Enders) to Secretary of State Kissinger, January 15, 1976. *Foreign Relations of the United States* (henceforward *FRUS*), 1969-76, Vol. XXXI, Doc. 129.

<sup>8</sup> Boughton (2001, p. 937-38), Solomon (1982, p. 285)

<sup>9</sup> Telegram 24 Feb. 1978 from Ryrie at IMF Washington. TNA T382/102. Telegram from UK IMF Director, W. Ryrie to Treasury. TNA T381/130.

<sup>10</sup> Telegram from UK Treasury to UK Director IMF (Ryrie) 5 July 1978. TNA T381/130. Prime Minister James Callaghan was an enthusiast for developing the SDR and reform of the International Monetary System (April 1976-May 1979) but his successor Margaret Thatcher (and her Chancellor of the Exchequer Nigel Lawson), who took office while the final discussions of the Account took place, was not.

<sup>11</sup> Telegram from Ryrie at IMF Washington, 24 February 1978 reporting a lunch meeting of European IMF Directors with Witteveen. TNA T382/182.

<sup>12</sup> Telegram from Ryrie to London, 14 July 1978. TNA T381/130. Paper for Ken Couzens end Jan 1979. Bank of England paper, 23 March 1978. TNA T382/102.

3. The need for the US to take on a major share of any burden of keeping a scheme's assets as large as its liabilities.
4. The desire of the Europeans that the United States amortise its obligations, imparting symmetry to the international monetary system.

At the beginning of November 1978, the US reversed its benign neglect of the dollar exchange rate and a tough set of measures reversed the dollar's decline. This change in US policy opened an opportunity to revisit the role of the dollar in the international monetary system. It seemed that American opinion on reducing the role of the dollar might have changed now that they were bearing some burden of stabilising the exchange rate.

By December the new IMF Managing Director Jacques de Larosière was taking soundings on a fresh and more ambitious scheme for the next Interim Committee of the IMF scheduled for March 1979.<sup>13</sup> The goal was still to enhance the SDR and reduce dependence on the US dollar as a reserve currency, but the mechanism was much more elaborate to overcome the objections to Witteveen's scheme and to target those countries that wanted to diversify their reserve holdings rather than merely linking substitution to SDR allocation. As reported by William Ryrie, the UK's IMF Executive Director, "what was needed was a voluntary arrangement which would give countries which felt they had dollars in excess the opportunity to deposit them in exchange for some acceptable instrument and he [de Larosière] was thinking in terms of an SDR-denominated asset issued by the Fund".<sup>14</sup> The IMF would then invest the Account's dollars in long term US securities. US Treasury Under-Secretary Anthony Solomon of the US Treasury was guarded when de Larosière approached him informally, but he agreed to consider the plan while de Larosière quietly sought further opinion from a select group of other countries. In order to make a more substantial contribution to reforming the reserves system, the total amount of the account would perhaps be about US\$20b, much greater than Witteveen's earlier proposal for about half of that amount.<sup>15</sup>

Despite some preparation of the ground, the IMF Executive Directors in February 1979 received the proposal with caution rather than enthusiasm, although the US Executive Director, Sam Cross, pledged to keep an "open mind".<sup>16</sup> Cross' agnostic view was partly a ruse to avoid raising expectations. Solomon privately told his British and German counterparts that his main concern was the potential effect of prolonged and public discussion of these reform proposals on the US dollar and urged that a group smaller than the IMF should take the discussions forward.<sup>17</sup> Solomon's long term goal was to promote the SDR as a replacement for private rather than official holdings of dollars, but he conceded that a Substitution Account aimed at central banks would take a step toward this goal by creating new SDR-denominated assets. German Finance Minister Manfred Lahnstein "feared too much allure for journalists in the substitution account", and, while he also "feared nothing would come of it", he agreed to continue deliberations in a small group although the Germans remained among the most prominent sceptics. The Interim Committee's lukewarm response in March 1979 kicked the scheme into the long grass of further investigation by the Executive Board. The non-committal public statement of the Interim Committee was drafted

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<sup>13</sup> The Interim Committee comprised ministers of member states and so had greater political weight and decision-making powers than the Executive Board comprised of officials.

<sup>14</sup> Telegram from Ryrie in Washington reporting a discussion with de Larosière, 13 December 1978. TNA T381/130.

<sup>15</sup> DJS Hancock memorandum 26/2/79 TNA T381/130.

<sup>16</sup> Telegram from Ryrie (Washington) to UK Treasury, 14 February 1979. TNA T385/248.

<sup>17</sup> Secret and Personal note of discussion of Kenneth Couzens with Solomon and Lahnstein, 15 February 1979. TNA T385/248.

by the British by the end of February, weeks before the Committee met.<sup>18</sup> Meanwhile Ministers of the G5 agreed to meet secretly among themselves and through Deputies to discuss the technicalities out of the public gaze.<sup>19</sup>

This archive based account contradicts both Boughton's (2001, p. 938) claim that "the most pronounced enthusiasm came from European countries itching to diversify their reserves" and Robert Solomon's contention that the support of Anthony Solomon also added momentum (Solomon 1982, p. 286). Some further insight is available from the British account of the G5 working group that the UK Treasury chaired.<sup>20</sup> In June 1979, Solomon was reported to be warming to the proposal and the UK negotiator in the G5 group noted that "the US seemed prepared to go along with the creation of a substitution account" so long as the *United States did not bear more than half of the exchange risk*, eventual liquidation was conditional on US agreement and the SDR assets did not have a fixed maturity (i.e. the scheme was open-ended). Furthermore the plan had to be presented as an enhancement of the SDR rather than protecting the US dollar from destabilising diversification of global reserves. The Germans disagreed, insisting that the purpose was exactly to avoid a flight from the dollar to, for example, the Deutsche mark and they resisted bearing any exchange risk. The timing of the necessary legislation was also an obstacle given the need to approve the European Monetary System. They also wanted the US to agree to redeem some of the dollars in the Account over time (so-called amortisation). The French agreed with the Germans on sharing the exchange risk and amortisation and predicted difficulty in getting the French parliament to enact appropriate legislation. They also argued that the success of the Account would depend on a reduction of US balance of payments deficits since "it is no good taking dollars out of the system without assurance that they won't be created all over again". This was clearly resisted by the Americans. The Japanese position at these meetings was "quiet".

The British under the Labour government (1974-79) sought to promote use of the SDR and international monetary reform, but Thatcher's Conservative government elected in May 1979 had other priorities. In June 1979 Nigel Lawson (then Financial Secretary) scathingly commented "we should not waste valuable manpower on matters such as the IMF substitution account. Over the years I can recall no aspect of the financial scene where so much high-powered effort has been expended to so little return"<sup>21</sup> The British were not alone in their scepticism.

The Americans continued to resist bearing more than half of the exchange risk or committing to amortising the assets. The UK representative described the 3 August IMF Executive Board meeting as "fairly fractious and [it] did not conclude until almost midnight".<sup>22</sup> He reported "widespread feeling that a substitution account would not aid in the international adjustment process" and the Board was unable to make a positive recommendation to the Interim Committee. The British delegation was frustrated that ministers would not receive a more definitive steer, but there was no consensus on the complex set of alternative variations of the technical aspects, particularly interest payments, burden of exchange risk and the terms of liquidation. The IMF ministers' meeting in Belgrade in October 1979 coincided with a crisis

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<sup>18</sup> Kenneth Couzens was invited by Polak to draft the conclusions of the Interim Committee and this was sent to the Chancellor of the Exchequer (Chair of the Interim Committee) on 5 March 1979. TNA T385/248.

<sup>19</sup> The United States, UK, Japan, West Germany, France.

<sup>20</sup> The following paragraph draws on a Brief for incoming Chancellor of the Exchequer, Geoffrey Howe, by H. Hedley-Smith. 7 June 1979. TNA T382/102.

<sup>21</sup> Nigel Lawson to Geoffrey Howe (Chancellor of the Exchequer), 13 June 1979. Howe minuted "I..have reached similar conclusions". TNA T382/102.

<sup>22</sup> Telegram from Washington to UK Treasury, 6 August 1979. TNA 382/102.

in market confidence in the US dollar. This was not the time for a bold policy departure while differences over the technicalities remained unresolved. By April 1980, the proposal for a substitution account had been abandoned for a third time.

With respect to the 1980 iteration of the Substitution Account, Kenen (2010a) states that "the proposal was widely discussed at the time but was not adopted for two reasons: the strengthening of the dollar in foreign-exchange markets at the start of the 1980s and, more importantly, the refusal of the United States to take sole responsibility for maintaining the dollar value of the SDR-denominated claims on the proposed account". While the impetus for reform did recede with the dollar's recovery and the burden-sharing of risk was an important issue, this synopsis under-states the technical, political and institutional obstacles posed to the scheme. It is clear that there was no firm expectation that the US would take the sole exchange rate risk, although agreement over the burden sharing remained unresolved. The Europeans sought to constrain the United States to reduce its official liabilities as a price of transforming and solidifying them and, in the face of resistance, stiffened their position on yields and exchange-risk sharing. Moreover, it became clear that participating in the Account would require national legislation in many cases, which would be politically contentious as well as time consuming. Ultimately, given the uncertainties over the future performance of such an Account and plans for monetary union in Europe (the EMS with its ECU was launched in March 1979) there was no political will to embark on an elaborate and possibly expensive scheme to retire what might turn out to be a very small proportion of dollar reserves.

So far, we have characterised the evolving proposal for a Substitution Account in political terms as a case of failed international financial diplomacy. In economic terms, the solvency or possibility theorem of the Substitution Account is one of the central theorems of international finance. The open economy version of Irving Fisher's hypothesis holds that over time, currency movements offset interest differentials so that higher yielding currencies depreciate. While this hypothesis boasts a fine pedigree, the data over the years have treated it very badly. In fact, the simulations reported below show that US Treasury bill yields over the last 30 years have not been high enough to offset the decline of the US dollar against the other SDR currencies. This finding is consistent with the assumptions underlying the simulations undertaken in 1980 by the IMF staff (and by Kenen himself), which suggested that a substantial shortfall could arise that would need to be met either by extra capital committed by members or from IMF resources.<sup>23</sup> Since the SDR interest rate is based on the component treasury bill rates,<sup>24</sup> the version of the Substitution Account in which the United States paid Treasury bill rates on the Account's assets sets up a particular form of the test of uncovered interest parity. While most studies over the past generation of interest parity have used short-term bank rates for major currencies, earlier tests used government bill yields (Aliber (1973)). The simulations of the Substitution Account reported by Kenen (2010a,b), therefore, may be regarded as tests of uncovered interest parity in a multi-currency setting using government bill rates.

What we have learned about open interest parity since 1980 has uneven application to the SDR against the dollar. What we now know is that higher yielding currencies over many sample periods actually rise against lower yielding currencies. Regressions over 1980 to 2000 of the dollar's change against the Deutsche mark, pound sterling and the Japanese yen all show this tendency with significance; only the movement French franc does not (Chinn and Meredith (2004)). On average the SDR has yielded 5.17% in the period mid-1980 to end 2010, while the US dollar has yielded slightly more at 5.37%. (Recall that the dollar amounts

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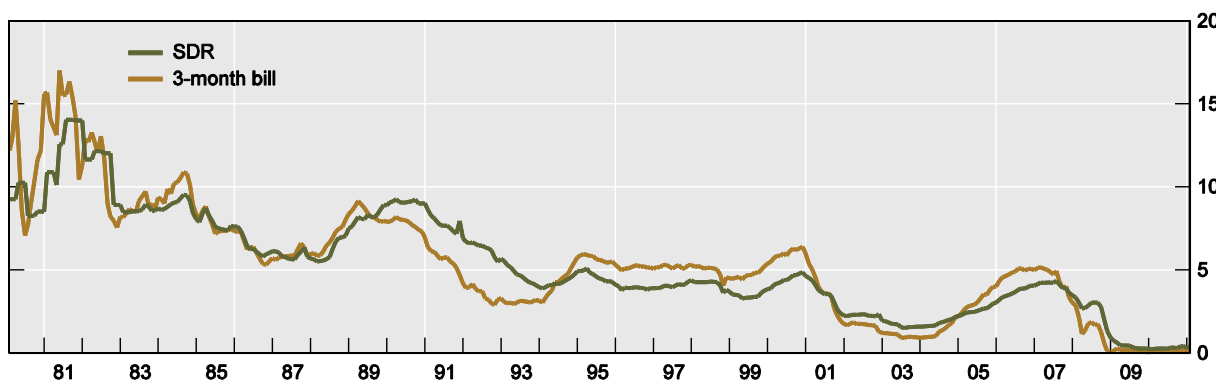
<sup>23</sup> Memo for Executive Board, 'Substitution Account – results of a simulations study of the Account's financial balance', 2 April 1980, IMFA SM/80/83.

<sup>24</sup> See below, however, for a post-euro qualification of this statement.



to something approaching half of the SDR, so an interest differential of 0.2% means that the differential between the US dollar and the weighted average of euro, sterling and yen is more like a half of a percent.) From these findings one might expect the dollar to have risen against the SDR over 1980-2010, but we shall see that it did not. However, not only are the average yields close, but also the SDR yielded more in periods of weak growth or recessions in the United States: in 1981-82, 1986, 1989-93, 2001-03 and 2007-10 (Graph 1). In any case, the long-term average yield premium of US Treasury bills over the SDR rate would have kept the Substitution Account in balance with a modest trend of US dollar depreciation. As we shall see, however, the trend depreciation of the dollar has well gone well beyond the yield cushion.

Graph 1  
**SDR and US Treasury bill yields, 1980-2010**  
 In per cent



Source: IMF.

### 3. What were the major unresolved issues?<sup>25</sup>

Any revival of the Substitution Account would inevitably have to deal with the unresolved issues of the 1980 negotiations. Putting aside the political obstacles and the priority many parties placed on using the scheme to ensure that the US 'paid off' its liabilities, the technical obstacles include the interest rates on its assets and liabilities and the means to assure the solvency of the Account in the event the dollar weakened against the other currencies included in the SDR basket.

#### 3.1 The interest rates on Account assets and liabilities

The Substitution Account would invest its dollars in non-marketable US Treasury securities, but their maturity and yields remained unresolved. Interest payable could be related to a range of US marketable securities but the British, Dutch and others also sought to ensure that the US paid a premium to reflect the non-marketability of these assets (and to promote the Account's solvency).<sup>26</sup>

<sup>25</sup> The final form of the proposal is in the Executive Board report to the Interim Committee, 15 April 1980. ICMS/Doc/80/3.

<sup>26</sup> Executive Board Minutes, 7 April 1980. EBM8062.

The April 1980 simulations by the Fund staff suggested that using the US 3-month Treasury bill rate could easily, given trend dollar depreciation, lead to deficits in the account that would require additional capital commitments amounting to up to 35% to keep the account in balance. The recent relationship between interest rate differentials and the dollar's movements were far from reassuring. From 1964-79, the US Treasury bill rate had fallen short of providing an interest rate differential sufficient to offset the decline of the dollar by 3% per annum, but the Fund staff attributed this to special circumstances when confidence in the stability of the US dollar was high (because of the Bretton Woods system). Even during the 1970s when US inflation increased and the dollar depreciated, the Treasury bill rate remained relatively low, due to "lags in the adjustment of financial markets", "as well as of monetary policies". For their simulations the IMF staff allowed the interest rate differential to fall short of dollar depreciation by anywhere from ½% to 1½% per annum over the next 30 years (and also factored in some cyclical and random disturbances).<sup>27</sup> This outcome clearly highlighted the importance of interest rates payable on assets and liabilities of the Account to the eventual costs of sustaining it. Getting the interest rates right would reduce the ex ante commitment of extra capital by members or IMF resources such as gold or the ex post negotiations to raise extra capital.

Another bone of contention was the interest payable on SDR-denominated assets issued by the Account. These would need to be attractive enough to encourage the voluntary deposit of dollars. In April 1980 the IMF Executive Board (at the same meeting that dismissed the Substitution Account) agreed to narrow the SDR basket from 16 to five currencies (effective 1 May 1981) to match the five currencies used to determine the SDR interest rate (see Box). Some Europeans argued that the yield on SDR-denominated liabilities of the Substitution Account would need to compete not only with US Treasury rates but also with Eurodollar market rates since reserve managers also invested dollars in banks outside the United States. Higher yields on SDR liabilities would increase the chances that the earnings of the Account on its dollar assets would not cover its SDR liabilities, for a given US dollar/SDR exchange rate. Either higher SDR yields or dollar depreciation against the SDR could lead over time to losses.

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<sup>27</sup> Memo for Executive Board, 'Substitution Account – results of a simulations study of the Account's financial balance', 2 April 1980, IMFA SM/80/83. The amount of capital required at the outset to ensure that the Account's liabilities matched its assets if interest was paid in US dollars at the end of 30 years was c.12% to cover interest differentials, exchange rate movements and cycles plus c. 7% to cover random disturbances in exchange rates – a total of almost 20% of the value of the Account.

### **Box 1: The Substitution Account and reserve management practice**

The discussion of the Substitution Account was complicated by the ongoing shift of US dollar reserve management away from US Treasury bills. The construction of the SDR yields out of treasury bill yields (see Box 2) reflected reserve management practice of another day, even in 1980. Thus, while investing the dollars in the Account in Treasury bills would make for a symmetrical treatment of assets and liabilities, it would not have accorded with reserve management circa 1980. By then, reserve managers outside the United States had diversified considerably from US Treasury bills.

By 1980, official reserve holdings of US dollar bank deposits, much of them outside the United States, were about twice the value of holdings of US Treasury bills (McCauley and Fung (2003, p 42)).\* At the same time, official reserve managers had extended maturities to the point where their holdings of US Treasury coupon securities were about equal to their holdings of US Treasury bills.

This diversification influenced the debate over the yield to be paid by the US Treasury on the dollars placed in the Account. Thus, it is not surprising (though still incoherent in the mixing of sovereign and bank risk) that there were suggestions that the US Treasury pay interest on dollars in the Substitution Account at Eurodollar yields. Indeed, as shown in the Annex, the additional interest yield if Libor rather than the Treasury bill rate were paid on the dollars would have done wonders for the finances of the Account, leaving it in deficit only for two years in the mid-1990s. This scenario is interesting because of the suggestion that Libor be used, not because one can imagine the US Treasury agreeing to pay such a private sector rate. And it is equally unsurprising that there were suggestions that the US Treasury pay interest on the Substitution Account at Treasury bond yields. The upshot is the would-be beneficiaries of the Account suggested returns on the dollar assets of the Substitution Account that differed in duration or credit from the returns on the liabilities—basically those on risk-free government bills. But this mismatch reflected contemporary dollar reserve management practices, that themselves can be seen as an adaptation to the pressure for income on reserve assets to offset the decline of the US dollar. Also emphasises the changing nature of the dollar as a reserve asset through creditors' new reserve management practices that deployed the private market rather than generating government liabilities directly.

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\* This observation suggests that the G10 agreement not to add to Eurodollar placements had not been adhered to. See Toniolo (2005).

#### **3.1.1 The proposal to pay the higher of Treasury bill or 20-year bond yields**

The majority of the IMF Executive Board took the view that the US should pay interest on the Account's assets at the higher rate of either the market yield on 3-month Treasury bills or longer term (20 year) bonds, to reflect the non-marketability of the assets. Cross, the US Executive Director, objected that this amounted to asking the US Treasury to pay a premium and insisted that the rate should be equivalent to the market yield on 3-month Treasury Bills "or such other maturities as may be agreed between the Fund and the US". Cross suggested an alternative in which the rate would be set in line with the market interest rate on US debt corresponding to the chosen maturities of the non-marketable securities in the Account. Most participants vigorously objected and sought a floating rate, in which the interest would be determined each quarter at the higher of the short and long current market yields.

Members of the Executive Board actually disagreed whether the higher of 3-month or 20-year rates amounted to a "premium". Even if the securities in the Substitution Account were not meant to be marketable, the market valuation of this option is of interest in understanding

the bargaining at the time.<sup>28</sup> After all, the US Treasury could have attached such an option to its public issues of 20-year Treasury bonds and received a higher price than otherwise. Moreover, any Treasury proposal to give such an option to foreign official holders of dollars but not to domestic investors would have been difficult to defend domestically.

In the event, the seemingly more innocent proposal to pay a floating rate corresponding to the 20-year bond yield would have been more expensive to the US Treasury than the ex post cost of adding the higher of the 3-month yield as an option. Put differently, with hindsight, basing the Treasury's dollar interest payments to the Substitution Account on the 20-year bond yield would have done wonders for the solvency of the scheme, while paying the three month bill rate on the few occasions when that would have been higher would have had little incremental effect on its solvency.

### **3.1.2 Ex ante value of the option and ex post value of the option**

The technology to evaluate the cost of the option of a floating rate set at the maximum of the three-month Treasury bill rate and the 20 year bond rate was just becoming available at the time of these discussions. The Vasicek term structure model (1977), essentially conceiving of the short-term interest rate movements as Brownian motion, had been around for several years.<sup>29</sup> Technology has since moved on and today so-called yield curve options are valued using other characterisations of the evolution of interest rates. We have seen no record of the IMF or the US Treasury or anyone else in the discussion attempting to price this option. Presumably the US Treasury could have gained access to the latest technology through the primary dealers of the time.

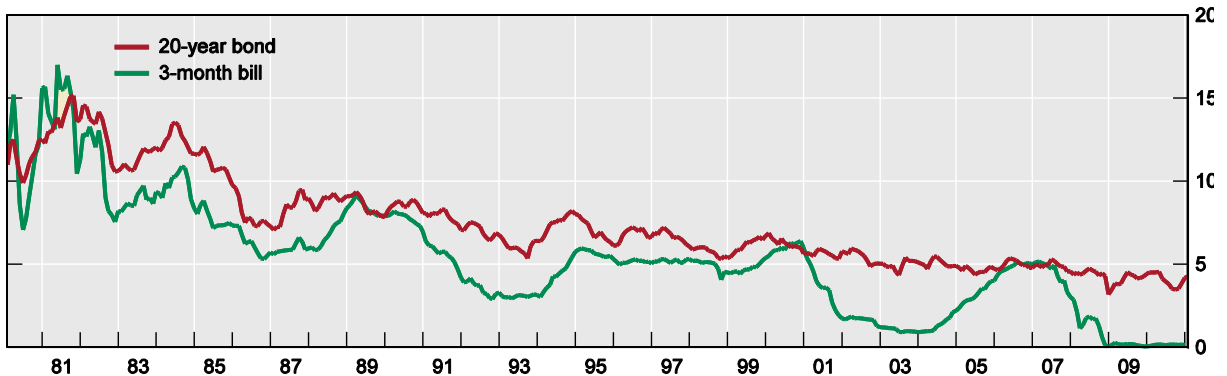
Our approach below is to consider the ex post value of the option that was discussed in 1980. At the time of Volcker's disinflation, with Treasury bill rates well into the 'teens, yield curve inversion—short-term yields above long-term yields—was the order of the day (Graph 2). One might guess that the value of this option was overstated then.

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<sup>28</sup> The question of the market value might also have become significant in the event of liquidation. In that event the US Treasury securities might have been redeemed at face value (in the case of undated securities) or "market value" (if there was a range of maturities). See page 18 of 15 April version ICMS/80/3.

<sup>29</sup> Given the high level of interest rates at the time, its failure to exclude zero or negative interest rates was not such a practical problem.

Graph 2  
**US Treasury bill and bond yields**  
 In per cent



Note: Due to data break from January 1987 through September 1993, the 10-year bond yield is used instead.

Source: Federal Reserve Economic Data.

### 3.1.3 A floating rate bond based on long-term yields: a Japanese example

To our knowledge, the world had never seen a competitively auctioned floating rate security paying interest based on long-term yields in 1980. So the countries proposing such a servicing scheme for the dollars in the Substitution Account had at best a back-of-the-envelope idea of the value of such a proposal.

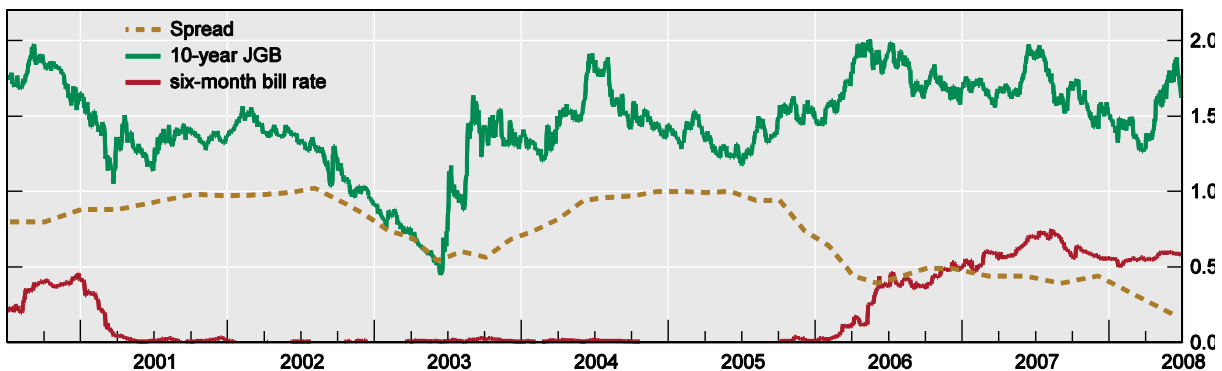
The Japanese Ministry of Finance (MoF) introduced a 15-year bond (the CMT) in 2000, with a coupon, payable every half year, set equal to half the average 10-year Japanese Government bond auction yield over the prior six months **less** an issue-specific number of basis points. The absolute value of this spread ranged from 81 basis points in the first auction, to a peak of over 100 basis points in 2005, to 40–50 basis points in 2007.<sup>30</sup> In the eight years from June 2000 through June 2008 the absolute value of this spread averaged 76 basis points, 60% of the average spread between the 10-year bond and 6-month bill of 127 basis points (Graph 3). In Section 4 below, we assess how a similarly priced instrument based on the US Treasury bond would have performed over the 1980-2010 period.

<sup>30</sup> From mid-2007, market pricing of these floating rate bonds fell below their “theoretical” values, by as much as 10% in late 2008, and the Ministry of Finance cancelled issuance for the balance of the 2008–09 fiscal year. See McCauley and Ueda (2009).

Graph 3

**Japanese government 10-year bond yield and spread on floating rate bonds**

In per cent



Note: Absolute value of spread is plotted; spread was uniformly negative. When the 10-year bond yield over the previous period fell below the absolute value of the spread, the floating rate note paid a zero coupon.

Source: Japanese Ministry of Finance.

Even from the pricing in low-yield yen, it is evident that the proposal for the US Treasury to pay a floating rate based on the 20-year bond without any such spread was extremely favourable to the US creditors. Their view at the time, however, was that such a premium was due them owing to the non-marketability of the Treasury securities to be held by the Substitution Account.

### 3.2 How to meet any shortfall of dollar returns below SDR returns

Technical differences in the proposals arose from domestic political constraints on participants and from differences in the desired international adjustment process. If the US dollar were to depreciate against the SDR, and this was not fully compensated for by higher US interest rates, the financial balance of the account would quickly deteriorate. As noted above, the IMF staff ran a series of simulations for the Account in late 1979 and early 1980 based on historical and hypothetical future interest and exchange rates, all of which showed that liabilities could well exceed assets over the medium and longer term if depreciation of the dollar were to exceed interest differentials, as it had in the 1970s.<sup>31</sup> The viability of the account therefore depended on the US following economic policies conducive to a strong dollar, but if this was the case then there was less incentive to replace the dollar as a reserve asset. Thus, in January 1980, Whitelaw (Australia) noted “Ultimately, the substitution account could be effectively guaranteed only if the US Government followed economic policies that tended to maintain the value of the dollar”.<sup>32</sup> Europeans worried that, with a substantial share of US dollar liabilities immobilised in the account, American policy-makers might actually feel less pressure to adjust the balance of payments. Could the US Treasury be induced to promise to maintain the dollars’ SDR value to sustain solvency of the Account? In Cooper’s (2009, p 4) phrase, this “would be a show-stopper for the United States, since no Congress would provide an unconditional guarantee of value for assets, that, though issued by the US government, were issued in US dollars and voluntarily acquired by foreign parties”.<sup>33</sup> If the

<sup>31</sup> Memo for Executive Board, ‘Substitution Account: results of a simulations study of the Account’s financial balance’, 2 April 1980, IMFA SM/80/83.

<sup>32</sup> This view was echoed by Dini (Italy) representing also Greece, Malta and Portugal; and Garces (Chile) representing a range of South American members. IMFA Executive Board Seminar 80/2, 7 January 1980.

<sup>33</sup> Although this is what the UK did to try to ‘retire’ sterling reserves in the 1960s (Schenk 2010)

US Treasury had to bear all the risk, it might as well, as suggested by Governor Wallich of the Federal Reserve Board, issue SDR-denominated liabilities itself rather than going through the complexities of a substitution account (Solomon 1982, p. 289).<sup>34</sup> If the United States were unwilling, would the claimants on the Substitution Account be prepared to bear all the risk in order to restore some stability to the international monetary system? If so, unless the Account solved a prisoners' dilemma among dollar holders, they might as well continue to hold the dollars themselves and save the bother of the Account. Somehow the risk had to be shared and the United States took a firm position that other participants would have to shoulder at least half of the burden of exchange risk.<sup>35</sup>

One politically expedient way would be to use the IMF's resources, which in a certain sense would share any losses among the participants without explicitly burdening either party. Would Europeans and less developed countries agree that IMF gold should be used to maintain the dollar's SDR value? To some Europeans, such an approach would allow the United States a free hand to adopt policies that would weaken the dollar since losses would be met by the IMF gold. For less developed countries, using the IMF's gold to prop up an Account that would benefit mainly rich participating countries (i.e. those with large dollar reserves) would break the terms of the IMF's Jamaica agreement calling for equitable treatment of members. For these reasons, many of the parties involved were convinced that, to ensure equity and discipline on US policy, the US had to bear at least part of the burden of any losses in the Account arising from valuation or interest rate changes.

### **3.2.1 Sharing rules**

The distribution of any burden between depositors, the United States and the IMF was highly contentious. The IMF staff simulation of the Account's performance over 30 years assumed that the dollar's downward trend would continue and examined the consequences of the interest rate differential in favour of the dollar not proving a sufficient offset.<sup>36</sup> For this reason, the discussion tended to consider the flow problem of balancing interest payments separately from the stock problem of possible valuation losses. The valuation losses would only need to be realised only if the Account were liquidated and there were ongoing hopes among the Germans, for example, that the United States could be convinced to amortise the account over time by buying back the dollars using its own foreign reserves. Most discussion focussed on the flow problem and members sought a solution whereby the United States would bear at least half of the shortfall of interest income from the Account's dollar assets in relation to required interest payment on SDR liabilities. The rest of the burden could be borne by depositors themselves or by IMF resources, particularly by latent profits on gold holdings, although the US Treasury hoped that any shortfall of interest earned over interest paid might be met through the IMF merely issuing more SDR claims.<sup>37</sup> However, Europeans worried that, if the United States bore no share of potential losses, US policymaking could face perverse incentives (i.e., moral hazard). This aspect of the Account was complicated by the uncertain nature of how the Account would perform. At the time of the discussions, the US dollar was weakening which suggested that there might be substantial losses to be met.

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<sup>34</sup> In the event, after November 1978 the US sold "Carter Bonds" denominated in Deutsche mark, Japanese yen and Swiss franc (but not sterling) in an effort to prop up the US dollar.

<sup>35</sup> Brief for Nigel Lawson, TNA 328/102.

<sup>36</sup> Memo for Executive Board, 'Substitution Account: results of a simulations study of the Account's financial balance', 2 April 1980, IMFA SM/80/83.

<sup>37</sup> Minute of meeting at UK Treasury with German, French, Japanese Treasury representatives, November 1979. TNA Bulkorder

One set of solutions required all participants (including the United States) to commit to contribute a maximum amount of “callable capital”, although the distribution of burden between the US and others was never agreed. In addition, there was no consensus over whether these contributions should be called only after profits from IMF gold sales had been exhausted. An alternative required a decision about liquidation or continuation to be made once the gold profits were exhausted. Only in the event of a majority vote to continue the Account would further capital be called. If there were no agreement to make contributions, then the Account would be liquidated and the losses distributed among participants. The extent of burden on participants during the lifetime of the Account (for both the United States and others) clearly depended on whether and how the IMF’s gold reserves could be devoted to ensuring that the Account remained solvent on an ongoing basis.

### **3.2.2 Profits on gold sales**

The amount of gold that would need to be pledged to support the Account depended on assumptions of the relative dollar price of gold and the dollar exchange rate. At the time that the plan was being discussed, the rise in the dollar price of gold had far exceeded the declining value of the US dollar, which meant that only a proportion of the Account’s value in gold would be necessary to insure against any shortfall. The early simulations undertaken by IMF staff at the end of 1979 led them to suggest that one third of the Fund’s remaining gold supply (about 32 million ounces) would be required to cover the potential risk of liabilities exceeding assets if the account amounted to a total of SDR 50 billion.<sup>38</sup> This would cover a potential 10% fall in the US\$ vis a vis the SDR plus a further 5% of interest rate shortfall. The staff added a further 5% cushion to arrive at an amount of gold equivalent to about 20% of the size of the Substitution Account. As background, from 1976 the IMF had agreed a programme to sell about one third of its gold (then 50 million oz) as part of the collective resolution to reduce the role of gold in the international monetary system under Article V. To accomplish the divestment, half was sold at market prices and the profits were vested in a Trust Fund for developing economies. With this precedent, the disposition of the IMF’s remaining gold reserves was highly contentious (developing countries wanting gold for development and European members wanting the gold sold back to members at historic values well below the market price<sup>39</sup>), and an 85% majority was required to approve further gold sales.<sup>40</sup> By April 1980 the IMF staff estimated that only 20-25 million ounces of gold would need to be committed if the Account were to have an initial size of SDR 50 billion.<sup>41</sup> This new estimate brought the commitment to the Substitution Account into line with the volume of gold that had recently been sold to the benefit of the developing countries.

There were three proposals: One was that part of the IMF’s gold would be sold when needed at market prices so that the profit from any price over SDR35/oz could bring the assets of the Account back into line with its liabilities. This proposal directly paralleled how IMF gold was used to support less developed countries in 1976. Alternatively, a similar share of the IMF’s gold could be transferred directly to the Substitution Account’s balance sheet and either sold

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<sup>38</sup> IMFA SM/79/294. Discussed at Executive Board Seminar 80/2, 7 January 1980. According to Boughton (2001, p 941), Managing Director de Larosière mooted a gold backing for the SDR 50 billion Substitution Account ranging from 23 to 32 million ounces.

<sup>39</sup> So-called restitution involved the sale of the IMF’s gold stock to those who were member countries as of April 1978 at the former official price of SDR 35 per ounce, in proportion to their quotas as of that date. It was clearly of benefit to US, UK and European members.

<sup>40</sup> The Trust Fund was terminated in April 1981 and its resources transferred to the Supplementary Financing Facility Subsidy Account.

<sup>41</sup> Minutes of the Interim Committee of the Board of Governors on the International Monetary System, 25 April 1980. ICMS/Meeting 14 (1980). Gowa (1984) cites this range as well.



immediately or retained until it was needed. A third alternative (if the transfer of gold proved illegal under the IMF Articles) was discussed outside the IMF by Treasury representatives from the UK, USA, Germany, France and Japan in November 1979; the IMF gold could be sold to member countries along the rules of restitution (i.e. at \$35/0z) and the members would sell this gold back to the IMF.<sup>42</sup>

A wide range of members strongly resisted the commitment of the IMF's gold resources to the Substitution Account, since the benefits would not be distributed equitably. Muns (Spain) and Dini (Italy) stressed that this was a potentially illegal use of the Fund's gold, which was committed to equitable treatment of all members.<sup>43</sup> As the influential Brazilian Director Alexandre Kafka put it, "the Fund's gold was in the last analysis owned by individual countries but would be used only to help the participants in the substitution account".<sup>44</sup> Muns (Spain) and de Groote (Belgium) also expressed concern that giving the account a "gold backing" might resurrect the role of gold in the international monetary system, which would reverse the recent decision to reduce that role. Conversely, Cross (USA) and Laske (West Germany) favoured the transfer of gold to the account, or even its immediate sale to provide liquid and interest-earning assets and to avoid the risk that the gold price would fall in the future.<sup>45</sup> Cross stressed that all countries would benefit from a stronger international monetary system so the equitable treatment constraint didn't arise, but Deshmukh (India) and Amuzegar (Iran) expressed scepticism. At the Executive Board seminar on the use of gold in the Account in early January 1980 those Executive Directors rejecting the use of gold or expressing severe reservations accounted for just under 30% of the votes in the IMF, which did not bode well for achieving an 85% approval. Without the IMF's gold as backstop, participants would find it difficult to agree on a distribution of the burden among themselves and then to sell the agreement to their national parliaments.

### **3.2.3 Liquidation**

Since any losses on the account would not be realised unless the account was liquidated, the timing and mechanism for liquidation was also highly contested. There was clearly an understanding that the balance of assets and liabilities would be monitored on an annual basis and topped up, perhaps through gold sales or earmarked gold profits in the first instance. If "at any time" liabilities exceeded assets plus the hypothecated value of the reserved gold profits, then consideration of either calling up further contributions or liquidation would begin. If the deficit rose beyond the value of assets plus gold profits plus callable capital, then the Account would immediately be liquidated. This has important implications for the simulations since there are prolonged periods in which the account would have been in sustained deficit (up to half of the time) which brings into question its viability even if the losses were hypothetically turned around in the longer term.

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<sup>42</sup> Minute of meeting at UK Treasury, 30 November 1979. TNA Bulk Order Image 3.

<sup>43</sup> Statement by Mr Muns on the Use of Part of the Fund's Gold in Support of the Substitution Account, EBM 80/38 7 March 1980. Circulated in advance on 6 March 1980 as 80/60.

<sup>44</sup> IMFA Executive Board Seminar 80/1, 7 January 1980. Kafka represented Brazil and 8 other South and Central American members with 3.19% of IMF votes.

<sup>45</sup> IMFA Executive Board Seminar 80/2, 7 January 1980.

## **4. Simulations of the Substitution Account Performance**

We first present our baseline scenario, finding that the Substitution Account would have been in recurrent difficulty. Then we consider whether a different starting time—which was never explicitly discussed—would have helped and find that 1980 would have been among the best times to start from the standpoint of the solvency of the Account. Then we consider the variations that were discussed and find that the flow question of the interest rate payable by the US Treasury would have made a huge difference while the stock question of a larger commitment of gold would not have made much difference.

### **4.1 Baseline scenario**

Our baseline simulation assumes that the account amounted to the proposed SDR50m, that it began in mid-1980 (when the US dollar was in a trough against major currencies) and that the potential profit from sales of the proposed 25 million ounces of IMF gold was allocated to support the Account. With hindsight, even this favourable combination was a recipe for trouble. Our simulation differs from Kenen by sticking more closely to the original proposal whereby the deficits would be offset by IMF gold rather than Kenen's annual 'topping up' by the United States to keep the Account in balance.

This simulation shows steady growth in liabilities but an unsteady balance between these and assets. The liability of SDR 50 billion would have cumulated to a liability of SDR 262 billion by 2010. Compounded at Treasury bill yields, dollar assets equivalent to SDR 227 billion would have fallen short of liabilities by SDR 35 billion or 14%. This is a bit more optimistic than the IMF's predictions at the time, which suggested a 20% shortfall after 30 years if interest was paid in US dollars at the Bond Equivalent 3-month Treasury Bill rate. Importantly for the prospects of a sustainable Account, deficits recurred. In particular, the Account would have needed the support of gold as early as the Plaza Accord era in 1987, throughout the 1990s and again for the years after the dollar's peak in early 2002. On-balance sheet profits on gold of as much as SDR 20 billion from 25 million ounces would have sufficed to fill the gap between assets and liabilities in the late 1980s and late 1990s. However, they would have fallen short in most of the 1990s and all of the years since 2002.

Table 1

**Baseline scenario: start July 1980, pay Treasury bill rate, 25 million ounces of gold**  
(in billions of SDRs)

End-year	SDR yield <sup>1</sup>	3m US T-bill yield <sup>1</sup>	USD assets	SDR liabilities	USD/SDR	Surplus or deficit				
						<i>w/o gold</i>		<i>Gold price</i>	<i>w/ 25 m oz gold</i>	
						<i>In SDR</i>	<i>% of assets</i>		<i>In SDR</i>	<i>% of assets</i>
1980	8.8	15.6	54.3	52.4	1.28	1.9	3.4	590	12.5	23.1
1981	14.7	11.3	69.5	58.9	1.16	10.6	15.2	400	18.3	26.3
1982	9.2	8.2	82.5	66.9	1.10	15.5	18.8	448	24.8	30.1
1983	8.9	9.4	95.0	73.2	1.05	21.9	23.0	382	30.1	31.7
1984	8.8	8.3	112.6	80.2	0.98	32.4	28.8	309	39.4	35.0
1985	7.8	7.3	108.9	87.1	1.10	21.8	20.0	327	28.4	26.1
1986	6.2	5.7	104.5	93.3	1.22	11.1	10.7	391	18.3	17.5
1987	6.1	6.0	95.8	99.1	1.42	-3.4	-3.5	487	4.3	4.5
1988	7.4	8.4	107.9	105.3	1.35	2.5	2.4	410	9.3	8.6
1989	9.1	7.9	120.5	114.2	1.31	6.3	5.3	401	13.1	10.9
1990	9.3	7.0	120.7	125.3	1.42	-4.6	-3.8	392	1.5	1.2
1991	7.6	4.2	127.7	136.2	1.43	-8.5	-6.6	353	-3.2	-2.5
1992	5.8	3.3	138.0	145.8	1.38	-7.8	-5.6	333	-2.6	-1.9
1993	4.2	3.1	142.6	153.5	1.37	-10.8	-7.6	391	-4.6	-3.2
1994	4.8	5.7	139.7	160.1	1.46	-20.4	-14.6	383	-14.7	-10.5
1995	4.3	5.3	145.3	167.9	1.49	-22.6	-15.5	387	-16.9	-11.7
1996	3.9	5.0	158.5	174.9	1.44	-16.4	-10.4	370	-10.9	-6.9
1997	4.4	5.3	177.9	182.1	1.35	-4.2	-2.4	289	0.3	0.2
1998	3.8	4.5	179.6	190.2	1.41	-10.6	-5.9	288	-6.4	-3.6
1999	3.8	5.4	193.1	197.0	1.37	-3.9	-2.0	291	0.6	0.3
2000	4.9	6.0	215.9	205.6	1.30	10.3	4.8	273	14.7	6.8
2001	2.4	1.7	233.6	214.2	1.26	19.4	8.3	277	24.0	10.3
2002	2.2	1.2	219.8	219.3	1.36	0.5	0.2	343	6.0	2.7
2003	1.6	0.9	203.2	223.3	1.49	-20.1	-9.9	417	-13.9	-6.8
2004	2.2	2.2	196.8	227.2	1.55	-30.3	-15.4	438	-24.1	-12.3
2005	3.0	4.0	220.2	232.8	1.43	-12.6	-5.7	513	-4.5	-2.0
2006	4.1	5.0	219.3	241.0	1.50	-21.7	-9.9	635	-12.1	-5.5
2007	3.7	3.0	219.0	251.4	1.58	-32.4	-14.8	836	-20.1	-9.2
2008	1.4	0.0	228.9	259.5	1.54	-30.7	-13.4	862	-17.6	-7.7
2009	0.3	0.0	225.2	261.3	1.57	-36.2	-16.1	1096	-19.6	-8.7
2010	0.4	0.1	229.5	262.0	1.54	-32.6	-14.2	1418	-10.4	-4.5

<sup>1</sup> Bond equivalent yield basis.

Sources: IMF; authors' estimates.

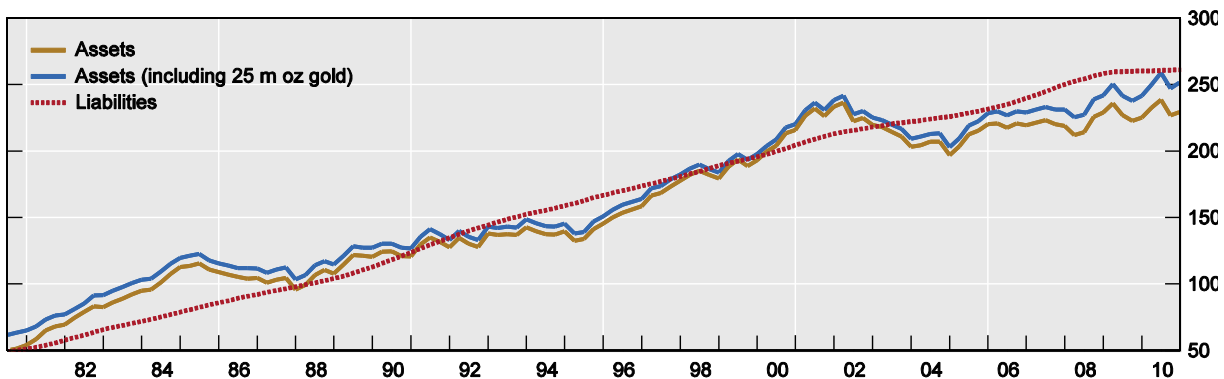
This would have prompted liquidation discussions in the 1990s, requiring the calling up of contributions from participants. Even the high price of gold in the last few years would not have restored balance, a remarkable finding.

As a visual summary of this baseline result, Graph 4, top panel shows the assets and liabilities of the Account under this scenario, as well as the gold profits at current market prices. Then the bottom panel shows the deficit as a percent of assets, with and without the profits from the gold.

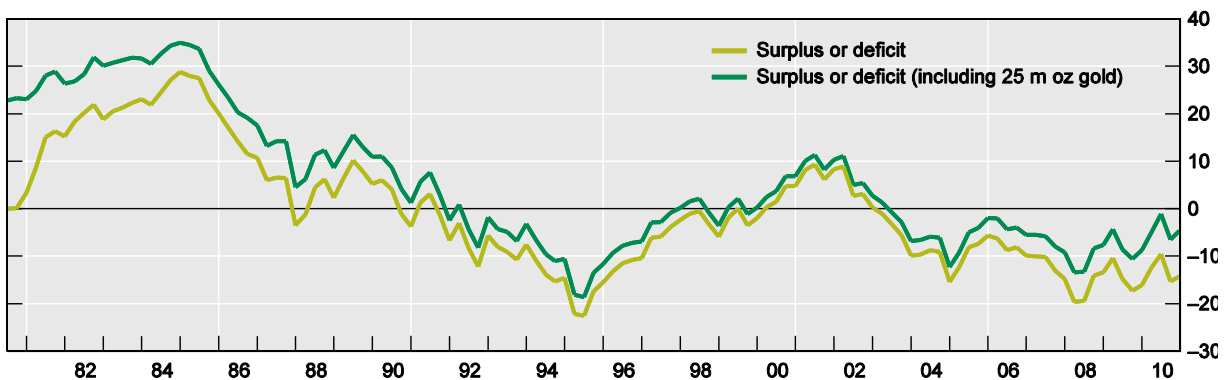
Graph 4

**Substitution Account's solvency: baseline scenario**

In billions of SDRs



As a percentage of assets

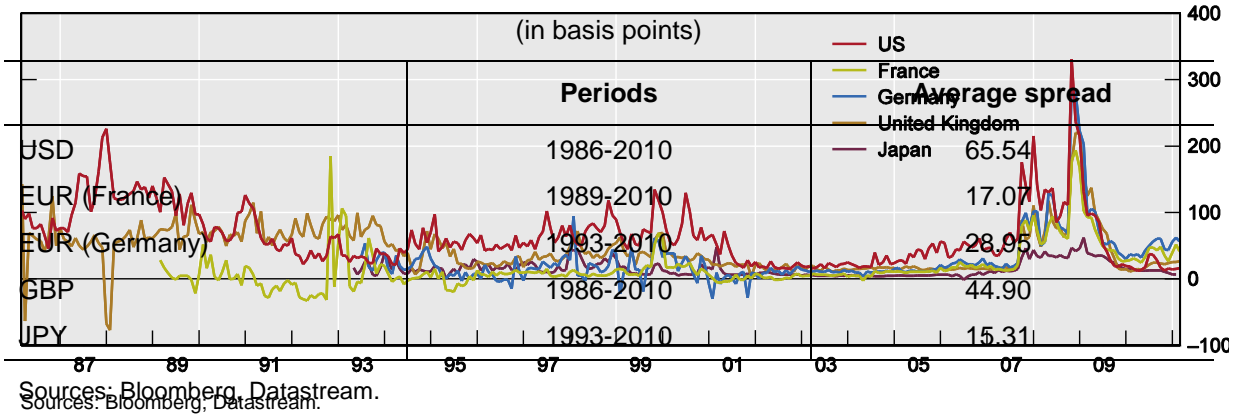


Sources: IMF; authors' estimates.

As noted, this result suggests that over long periods the yield premium on US dollars did not compensate for the dollar's trend depreciation. One possible reason is that US Treasury bills offer a particularly low yield owing to their status as one of the world's most liquid securities. The Substitution Account would then suffer from the compounding of government bill rates if the US Treasury pays particularly low rates on its bills. Is it possible that the Substitution Account would have retained a balance between assets and liabilities had the returns been based on Eurocurrency deposit rates rather than bill rates? Graph 5 and Table 2 suggest that there is something to this supposition. The Treasury-eurodollar ("Ted") spread is wider for the US dollar than for the other SDR currencies.

Graph 5

Table 2  
**Treasury bill-eurocurrency spread in SDR currencies**  
**Treasury-eurocurrency spreads**



It is of interest to compare the IMF staff projections with the hypothetical outcome under our baseline scenario. Treasury bills yielded on average 0.2% more than the SDR, implying an interest rate differential of the dollar against the other SDR currencies of about 0.4%. This came in on the optimistic side of the IMF scenarios. The depreciation of the dollar against the SDR was about 0.6% [CHECK] per annum, so that the dollar fell against the other SDR currencies by something like 1.2% per annum. This was worse than the IMF staff allowed itself to imagine, except in one case. All-in-all the outcome proved better than the IMF staff's set of "worst plausible" conditions, in which the interest differential adjusted for the dollar's depreciation went against the dollar to the extent of one percent per annum.

Table 3

**IMF scenarios from 1980 and 1980-2010 outcome**

Scenario	IMF 1	IMF 2	IMF3*	IMF 4	IMF 5*	IMF 6*	1980-2010
Interest differential versus other SDR currencies in favour of US dollar	1½	½	0	-½	-1	1	0.4
Depreciation of US dollar	-1	-1	-1	-1	0	-2	-1.2
Interest differential adjusted for dollar appreciation	½	-½	-1	-1½	-1	-1	-0.8
Added resources needed at inception of Account	0	10.1	18.9-22.0	28.5	15.5	26.5	14.2

\* Combinations deemed "worst plausible".

Sources: IMF, SM/80/83, p 8, and authors' calculations.

In sum, the baseline case in which the US Treasury would have paid interest on the dollars in the Account at Treasury bill rates would have produced chronic deficits and occasioned many international financial discussions over the last generation. The IMF's staff would have been surprised at the weakness in the dollar over the thirty years, but the slightly higher yield on Treasury bills than on the other constituents of the SDR would have left the result within the range of what the Staff deemed the "worst plausible" outcome.

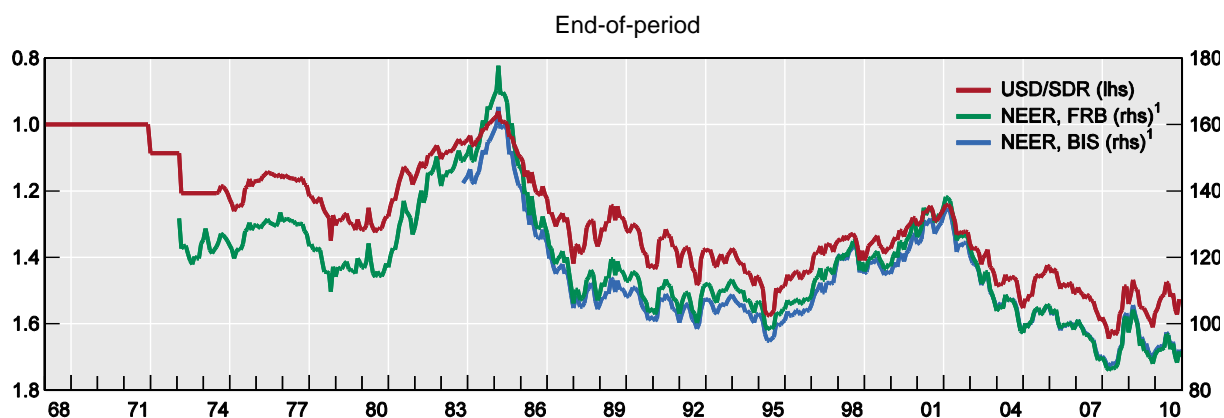
## 4.2 Alternative start date

The marked cycling of the value of the US dollar since the Substitution Account was proposed means that the choice of starting point is key to any simulation. Indeed, the Substitution Account appeals precisely when the US dollar is weak and there are doubts about the sustainability of its role as a reserve asset. One might almost say that when officials come around to discussing such an account that the dollar has reached its trough (1974, 1980, 2011?). The exception seems to be the 1995 trough of the dollar, when there was no discussion of a Substitution Account.

The cycles of the dollar against the SDR correspond to those of the dollar in general, as measured by either the Federal Reserve or the BIS nominal exchange rate indices (Graph 6). Run the data from 1980 or 1995, and the Substitution Account just might produce satisfactory results. Run the analysis of the Substitution Account from near the dollar peaks of 1985 or 2002, and the Account will be in chronic trouble.

Graph 6

### The US dollar/SDR rate and the US dollar nominal effective exchange rate



Sources: Board of Governors of the Federal Reserve System; IMF; BIS.

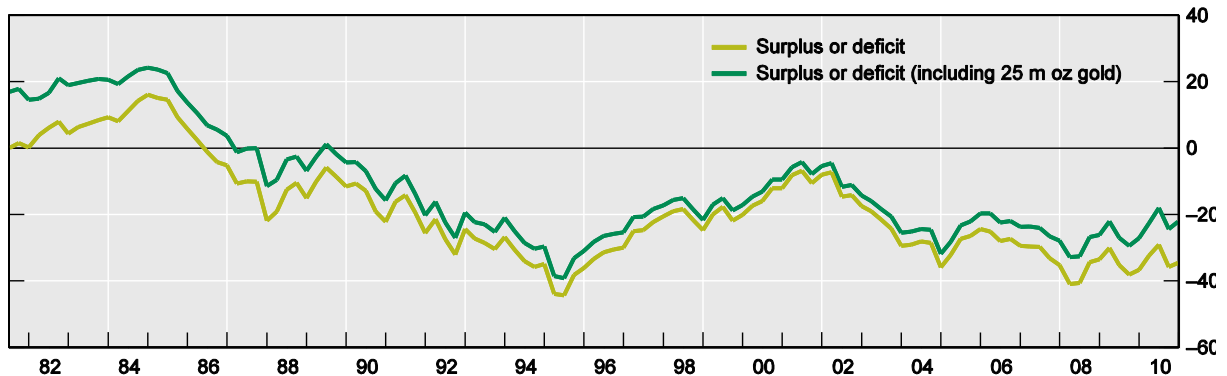
Thus, the choice by Kenen (2010a) of 1980 and 1995 as starting points produce unrepresentatively favourable results. He notes that his historical simulation “begins in 1980, chosen in part because that was the year in which the proposal for a Substitution Account was not in fact adopted”. Given the timing of the negotiations in mid-1980 it is not likely that a Substitution Account could have been implemented before the end of that year, given the timescale to gather the required “widespread” participation and political approval. We argue that 1981 is historically a more realistic starting point if all the obstacles discussed above could have been overcome.

In the event, even this subtle difference in timing would have had important implications for the Account’s performance. Graph 7 shows how much worse the Account’s solvency would have proved had it started in mid-1981. This finding underscores the importance of the initial conditions and more generally the risks posed by exchange rates to the whole venture. In this simulation, the Account would have been insolvent within five years and would not have recovered, even after taking substantial gold profits into account.

Graph 7

**Account's solvency: start mid-1981; pay Treasury bills rate**

In billions of SDRs



Sources: IMF; authors' estimates.

**4.3 Account pays US Treasury bond rate**

If gold in the amounts that might have been agreed could not keep the Account in balance, perhaps a more favourable outcome was possible if the US Treasury paid one of the alternative yields on the Account's US dollar assets.<sup>46</sup> In principle, compounding using a bond yield adds a term premium (the ex ante difference between long-term rates and the average of short-term rates expected over the relevant period). In practice, given the starting point of high bond yields, slowly adapting inflation expectations embedded in bond yields would have boosted yields in a period of declining trend inflation. Table 3 shows that if the US had somehow been convinced to pay interest on its liabilities to the Substitution Account at the 20-year bond rate, as was suggested by some protagonists at the time, the Account would have performed much more satisfactorily and indeed would have produced a very considerable surplus. (*A fortiori*, the investment of dollars in fixed-rate Treasury bonds in 1980 or 1981, then carrying double-digit yields, as proposed by US Executive Director Cross, would have left the Account in even more robust financial health.) If the Account had in effect invested farther out the Treasury yield curve, it would have put its finances on a sound basis.

Indeed, the margin of solvency would have been wide enough to permit the 20-year yield to have been shaved in a manner parallel to that of the Japanese government floating-rate bond as described above. Table 4 reports the result of a scenario in which the US Treasury paid its 20-year bond yield less 76 basis points. This was the average reduction of ten-year yields set in auctions of the Japanese government floating-rate bond over the years it was sold. Again, the result would have been an Account in chronic and eventually large surplus. Since the US dollar yield curve tends to be steeper than that of the Japanese yen, 76 basis points may be too low, but the Account would have run a surplus in this scenario with even a larger reduction from the 20-year yield.

This finding helps put in new perspective the shift by reserve managers toward longer-dated US Treasury obligations in the years since 1980 (McCauley and Rigaudy (2011)). The largest reserve managers tend to finance (or "sterilise") their own reserve holdings with short-

<sup>46</sup> Note that this exercise pits long-term US dollar rates vis-à-vis short-term euro, sterling and yen rates against the depreciation of the dollar. It is different from the long-horizon test of uncovered interest parity using bonds as reported by Chinn and Meredith (2004).

term, domestic currency obligations (somewhat akin to the short-term yields on euro, yen and sterling embodied in SDR returns). By receiving medium- or long-term yields on their US dollar holdings, they have been better able to offset the decline of the US dollar's exchange rate on the total returns on their foreign exchange reserves. Admittedly, buying 20-year bonds would have been a leap out the yield curve in 1980 (and for most reserve managers even today), but by crawling out the yield curve they have boosted income to offset the long-term decline of the dollar.



Table 3

**Scenario 1: start July 1980, pay 20-year bond yield, 25 million ounces of gold**  
(in billions of SDRs)

End-year	SDR yield <sup>1</sup>	20-Y US bond yield <sup>1,2</sup>	USD assets	SDR liabilities	USD/SDR	Surplus or deficit				
						w/o gold		Gold price	w/ 25 m oz gold	
						In SDR	% of assets		In SDR	% of assets
1980	8.8	13.1	54.8	52.4	1.28	2.4	4.4	590	13.1	23.9
1981	14.7	14.4	69.0	58.9	1.16	10.1	14.7	400	17.9	25.9
1982	9.2	11.1	83.7	66.9	1.10	16.7	20.0	448	26.0	31.1
1983	8.9	12.6	98.8	73.2	1.05	25.6	26.0	382	33.9	34.3
1984	8.8	12.2	120.2	80.2	0.98	40.0	33.3	309	47.0	39.1
1985	7.8	10.1	120.4	87.1	1.10	33.3	27.7	327	39.9	33.1
1986	6.2	7.5	117.7	93.3	1.22	24.4	20.7	391	31.5	26.8
1987	6.1	9.5	110.1	99.1	1.42	10.9	9.9	487	18.6	16.9
1988	7.4	9.3	127.1	105.3	1.35	21.7	17.1	410	28.5	22.4
1989	9.1	8.2	142.3	114.2	1.31	28.2	19.8	401	34.9	24.5
1990	9.3	8.7	143.3	125.3	1.42	18.1	12.6	392	24.1	16.8
1991	7.6	7.6	154.9	136.2	1.43	18.8	12.1	353	24.1	15.5
1992	5.8	6.9	173.4	145.8	1.38	27.6	15.9	333	32.8	18.9
1993	4.2	6.6	185.6	153.5	1.37	32.1	17.3	391	38.4	20.7
1994	4.8	8.3	188.0	160.1	1.46	27.9	14.9	383	33.6	17.9
1995	4.3	6.3	198.7	167.9	1.49	30.8	15.5	387	36.4	18.3
1996	3.9	6.9	220.3	174.9	1.44	45.4	20.6	370	50.9	23.1
1997	4.4	6.3	251.6	182.1	1.35	69.5	27.6	289	73.9	29.4
1998	3.8	5.5	255.8	190.2	1.41	65.7	25.7	288	69.9	27.3
1999	3.8	6.9	279.1	197.0	1.37	82.1	29.4	291	86.5	31.0
2000	4.9	5.8	313.8	205.6	1.30	108.2	34.5	273	112.5	35.9
2001	2.4	5.9	344.5	214.2	1.26	130.3	37.8	277	135.0	39.2
2002	2.2	5.1	337.0	219.3	1.36	117.8	34.9	343	123.2	36.6
2003	1.6	5.2	324.0	223.3	1.49	100.7	31.1	417	106.8	33.0
2004	2.2	5.0	326.4	227.2	1.55	99.2	30.4	438	105.4	32.3
2005	3.0	4.9	371.9	232.8	1.43	139.1	37.4	513	147.2	39.6
2006	4.1	4.9	371.7	241.0	1.50	130.6	35.1	635	140.3	37.7
2007	3.7	4.7	372.1	251.4	1.58	120.6	32.4	836	133.0	35.7
2008	1.4	3.3	399.6	259.5	1.54	140.1	35.1	862	153.2	38.3
2009	0.3	4.5	408.6	261.3	1.57	147.2	36.0	1096	163.8	40.1
2010	0.4	4.3	433.6	262.0	1.54	171.5	39.6	1418	193.7	44.7

<sup>1</sup> Bond equivalent yield basis.

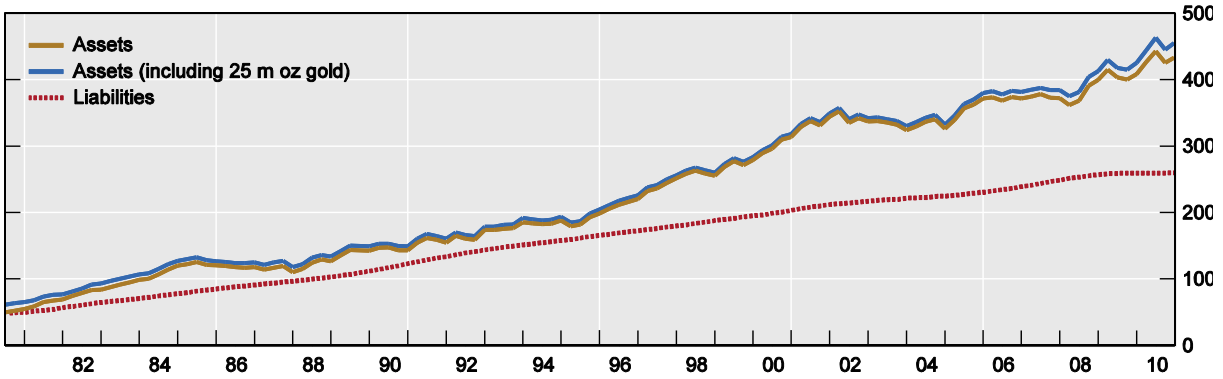
<sup>2</sup> From January 1987 through September 1993, the 10-year bond yield is used to fill the break in the time series of the 20-year bond yield.

Sources: IMF; authors' estimates.

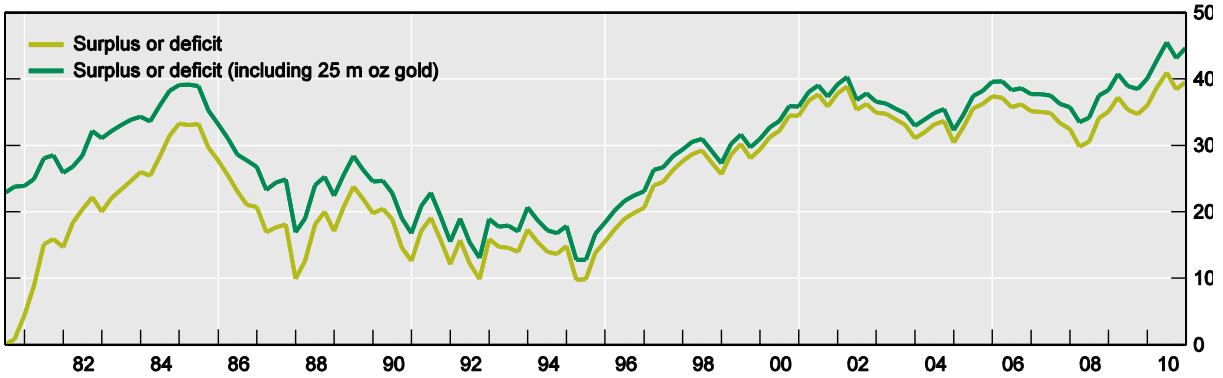
Graph 8

**Substitution Account's solvency: start 1980; pay Treasury bond yield**

In billions of SDRs



As a percentage of assets



Sources: IMF; authors' estimates.

Table 4

**Scenario 2: start July 1980, pay 20-year Treasury bond yield less 76 basis points**  
(in billions of SDRs)

End-year	SDR yield <sup>1</sup>	20-year US T bond yield adj. <sup>1,2,3</sup>	USD assets	SDR liabilities	USD/SDR	Surplus or deficit				
						w/o gold		Gold price	w/ 25 m oz gold	
						In SDR	% of assets		In SDR	% of assets
1980	8.8	12.3	54.6	52.4	1.28	2.2	4.0	590	12.9	23.6
1981	14.7	13.6	68.2	58.9	1.16	9.3	13.7	400	17.0	25.0
1982	9.2	10.3	82.0	66.9	1.10	15.1	18.4	448	24.4	29.7
1983	8.9	11.8	96.1	73.2	1.05	22.9	23.9	382	31.2	32.4
1984	8.8	11.3	116.0	80.2	0.98	35.8	30.8	309	42.8	36.9
1985	7.8	9.3	115.3	87.1	1.10	28.2	24.5	327	34.8	30.2
1986	6.2	6.7	111.8	93.3	1.22	18.5	16.5	391	25.6	22.9
1987	6.1	8.6	103.7	99.1	1.42	4.6	4.4	487	12.3	11.8
1988	7.4	8.5	118.8	105.3	1.35	13.5	11.3	410	20.2	17.0
1989	9.1	7.4	132.0	114.2	1.31	17.9	13.5	401	24.6	18.7
1990	9.3	7.9	131.9	125.3	1.42	6.6	5.0	392	12.7	9.6
1991	7.6	6.8	141.5	136.2	1.43	5.3	3.7	353	10.6	7.5
1992	5.8	6.1	157.1	145.8	1.38	11.3	7.2	333	16.5	10.5
1993	4.2	5.8	166.9	153.5	1.37	13.4	8.0	391	19.6	11.8
1994	4.8	7.5	167.7	160.1	1.46	7.6	4.5	383	13.3	7.9
1995	4.3	5.5	175.9	167.9	1.49	7.9	4.5	387	13.6	7.7
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1997	4.4	5.5	219.2	182.1	1.35	37.1	16.9	289	41.5	19.0
1998	3.8	4.7	221.1	190.2	1.41	31.0	14.0	288	35.2	15.9
1999	3.8	6.1	239.4	197.0	1.37	42.4	17.7	291	46.8	19.6
2000	4.9	5.0	267.0	205.6	1.30	61.4	23.0	273	65.8	24.6
2001	2.4	5.1	290.9	214.2	1.26	76.7	26.4	277	81.3	28.0
2002	2.2	4.4	282.4	219.3	1.36	63.1	22.4	343	68.6	24.3
2003	1.6	4.5	269.3	223.3	1.49	46.0	17.1	417	52.2	19.4
2004	2.2	4.2	269.2	227.2	1.55	42.0	15.6	438	48.2	17.9
2005	3.0	4.1	304.4	232.8	1.43	71.6	23.5	513	79.7	26.2
2006	4.1	4.1	301.8	241.0	1.50	60.8	20.1	635	70.4	23.3
2007	3.7	3.9	299.8	251.4	1.58	48.4	16.1	836	60.7	20.3
2008	1.4	2.5	319.5	259.5	1.54	60.0	18.8	862	73.1	22.9
2009	0.3	3.7	324.2	261.3	1.57	62.8	19.4	1096	79.4	24.5
2010	0.4	3.5	341.3	262.0	1.54	79.3	23.2	1418	101.4	29.7

<sup>1</sup> Bond equivalent yield basis.

<sup>2</sup> From January 1987 through September 1993, the 10-year bond yield is used to fill the break in the time series of the 20-year bond yield. <sup>3</sup> Yield minus 76 bps.

Sources: IMF; authors' estimates.

#### **4.4 More gold?**

Rather than relying on higher yields on dollar assets, it is possible that the shortfall in Table 1 could have been offset by committing more of the IMF's gold to the Account. The greatest amount of gold proposed to be committed to the Account was the 32 million ounces that de Larosière pitched in January 1980 (Boughton (2001, p 941)). As noted above, even the subsequent commitment of 25 million was highly controversial, but the larger amount would have added the profits on another 7 million ounces to the Account. Even with profits of another SDR 6 billion in recent years, the scenario in Table 1 based on US Treasury bill rates would not be qualitatively different. Nor for that matter would be the scenario of Table 3 based on US Treasury bond yields. In short, another 7 million ounces would not have made a telling difference despite very high recent prices of gold.

### **Box 2: What is the SDR interest rate and what difference does it make?**

The SDR started life in 1969 bearing an interest rate of 1.5% but in June 1974 the rate was increased to 5%. From July 1974, when the SDR valuation was changed from a gold value to a basket of 16 currencies, the SDR yields were taken from five main international currencies, which were predicted to give a good approximation of the total weighted yields from short term assets from all participating currencies (the SDR actually underperformed the full weighted average of the original 16 currencies' yields). The SDR rate was set at 50% of a weighted average of market yields on US and UK treasury bills and 3-month German and French inter-bank rates. The Japanese yen contribution was the rate on uncollateralised call money until 1 May 1981 and thereafter that on two month private bills. The heterogeneity of the basis of the yields—US and UK treasury bills versus private yields in the Deutsche mark, French franc and Japanese yen—reflected differences in money market development that have persisted in one form or another to this day. When the French and Japanese treasuries began regular bill issuance, these joined the US and UK treasury bills in the setting of the SDR yield, but the Bundesbank's opposition to floating rate government debt left the Deutsche mark yield an interbank rate. From 1976 the factor was raised from 50% to 60% and then from the start of 1979 to 80% and then from 1 May 1981 to 100%. These steps from half to full market yield were taken to make the SDR a more attractive reserve asset (IMF Annual Reports 1980 and 1981). The rates were set quarterly from 1976 (previously half-yearly).

The arrival of the euro, however, disturbed even this uneven mapping from currencies to governments. The 3-month German interbank rate and the 3-month French Treasury bill rate continued to be used until the regular 5-year review in 2000. Then, the basis of the SDR yield was changed from membership (ie France and Germany) to currency (ie the euro). In the absence of a euro-wide government bill, the euro's yield was taken as 3-month euribor, that is, an unsecured interbank money market rate.\*

The subsequent quinquennial review narrowed but did not eliminate the gap between the government bill rates for the dollar, sterling and yen and the private bank rate used for the euro. The European Central Bank proposal that a secured private sector rate, the three-month eurepo rate, would better approximate the (low) risk profile of a sovereign short-term debt instrument. As IMF (2005, p 16) reported: "The Eurepo was introduced in 2002 as a reference rate for secured (collateralized) money market transactions. It is the rate at which one prime bank offers funds in euro to another prime bank if in exchange the former receives from the latter 'Eurepo general collateral' (GC) as collateral. The GC is widely accepted due to its homogeneous composition of government paper".

Still, the eurepo rate has tended to be higher than the yields on the bills of the best-rated euro area sovereigns. For instance, in a recent calculation of the SDR rate from the IMF (Box Table), the euro interest rate from the European Banking Federation's survey of 3-month eurepo was 80.71 basis points, while the 3-month German government ("Bubill") and French government ("BTF") bill rates were about 20 basis points lower at around 60 basis points.

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\*As reported by IMF (2005, p 17): "Staff considered alternatives to the use of the Euribor, since it is not a treasury-type financial instrument, but rather a reference rate for the banking sector. Possible alternatives explored were: (i) a weighted average of three-month treasury bill rates; (ii) a representative repo rate; (iii) a bid rate in the unsecured market; and (iv) the rate on the ECB three-month refinancing facility. The Euribor was ultimately chosen at the time of the 2000 review, since the alternatives compared unfavourably when benchmarked against the guidelines for the inclusion of interest rate instruments in the SDR interest rate basket. The main problems encountered with alternative instruments were highly segmented and largely domestically oriented markets, therefore reducing the representativeness of such instruments for the wider euro area, the fact that six countries in the euro area did not issue treasury bills, and the limited response to changes in underlying credit conditions. However, there remained misgivings by some Directors concerning the risk characteristics of the Euribor".

**Box Table: SDR interest rate for the week of 1 to 7 November 2010**

(As of Friday 29 October 2010, in percent)

Currency	Currency amount	Exchange rate against the	SDR interest rate	Product
Euro	0.4100	0.881609	0.8071	0.2917
Japanese Yen	18.4000	0.0078955	0.1100	0.0160
Pound Sterling	0.0903	1.01299	0.5100	0.0467
US Dollar	0.6320	0.636219	0.1200	0.0483
<b>Total</b>				0.4027
<b>SDR Interest Rate</b>				0.40

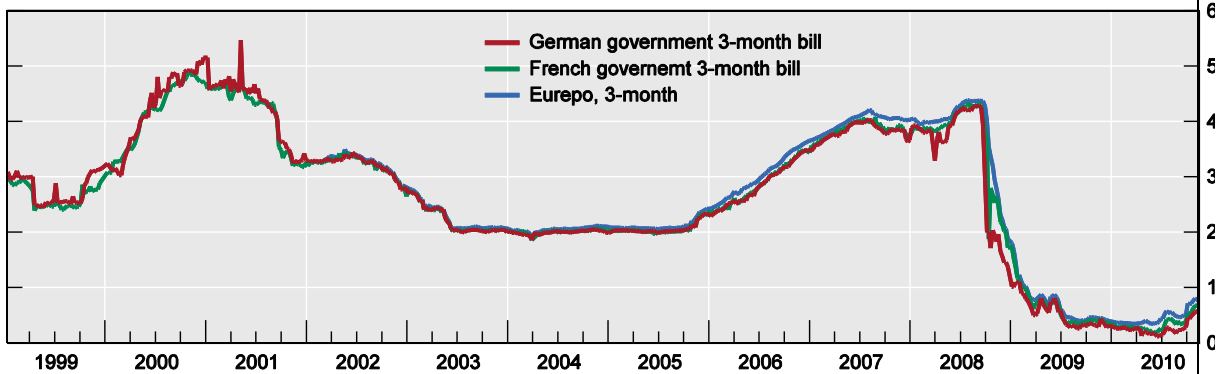
Source: IMF

The implication of the use of a repo rate for the euro for the Substitution Account is that, since 1999, it is slightly less likely that the excess of US dollar interest rates over SDR yields offsets any depreciation of the dollar against the SDR. The Box Graph plots the 3-month Eurepo against the 3-month French and German government bills. While the gap in normal times is just a handful of basis points [?], it can widen appreciably during periods in which private market participants flee to quality). Any such widening of European private sector yield spreads over government bill rates is permanently impounded in the SDR cumulative returns that matter for the solvency of the Substitution Account. The element of private risk in the SDR yield raises the hurdle for the Account.

Box Graph

**Three-month rates for the euro**

On government bills and on repos against euro area government bonds



Source: Bloomberg.

## 5. Conclusions

The promise of a Substitution Account to absorb unwanted US dollar reserves and to increase the role of the SDR have attracted reformers of the international monetary system for over 30 years. In the 1970s part of the appeal of such schemes was to develop a mechanism that might ultimately require the United States to redeem its liabilities in SDR, or at the very least that would develop an SDR-denominated reserve asset that could rival the dollar. Repeated efforts to design such a mechanism have stumbled repeatedly over

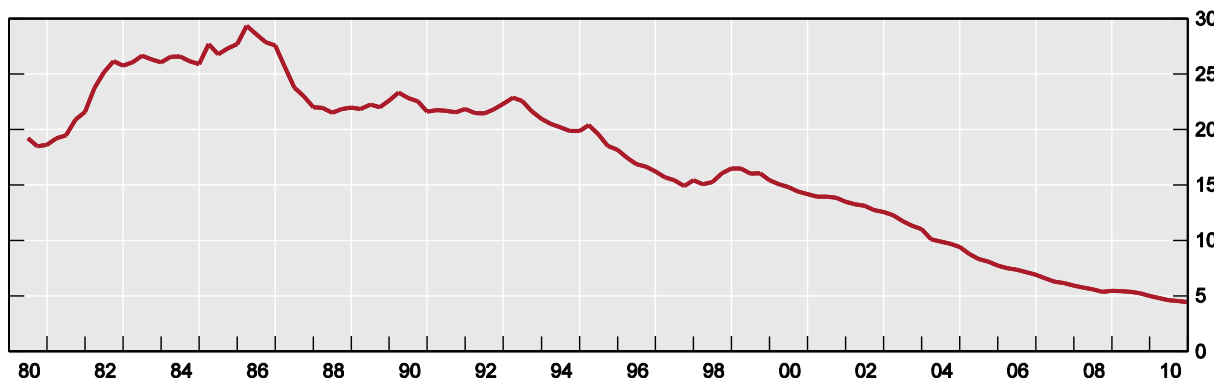
technical and political obstacles. Kenen points to the refusal of the United States to bear the sole burden of losses as a key reason why the Substitution Account was not adopted, but it was how to anticipate such losses rather than an expectation that they would all be borne by the United States that was at issue. This posed important obstacles that proved insurmountable, including the use of gold reserves, the returns on the liabilities and assets of the Account and the obligation of the United States ultimately to redeem its outstanding US dollar liabilities. Crucially, in April 1980 the IMF staff produced scenarios that suggested that considerable extra resources might well be required from the outset to ensure that the Account remained in balance. This effectively scuppered the initiative in 1980. Moreover, we have argued that even if these issues had been resolved, and the IMF's gold had been committed to the Account, it still would not have broken even.

To have made a substantial dent in the share of dollars in global reserves, the Substitution Account would have to serve as a process for converting dollars into SDR rather than a one-shot deal. As it was conceived in 1980, the Substitution Account would have immobilised a substantial fraction of global reserves. In mid-1980, SDR 50 billion represented about 16% of global foreign exchange reserves outside of those held by the United States and a third of US dollar reserves [check]. On our baseline scenario, the initial SDR 50 billion would have grown fivefold. Yet by the end of 2010, this compounded sum would have fallen to less than 5% of global reserves (Graph 9). Thus, although the Substitution Account was aimed at resolving the “stock” problem of large existing balances of US dollar reserves, its benefit measured in stock terms would have eroded steadily over time. Thus our hypothetical Substitution Account would have had to have been re-opened in order to keep the presumed problem from re-appearing.

Graph 9

**Share of Substitution Account liabilities in non-US foreign exchange reserves, 1980-2010**

In per cent, an initial SDR 50 billion, compounded at the SDR interest rate



Source: IMF; authors' estimates.

Conceiving of a Substitution Account instead as a perpetually open haven for US dollar reserves turns it from addressing a “stock” to a “flow” problem. This may have been (and be) what the proposers were (and are) really after, i.e. a way to turn the SDR into a more important reserve asset. Indeed, in the 1980 proposal there was a provision to re-open the account once it had reached SDR50 billion. However, it is hard to imagine the Account being upsized unless it were at least in balance. As we have seen, this would have been rare in the case of the US Treasury paying interest at its bill rate. Moreover, additional “deposits” would have to have been well-timed at or near US dollar troughs to maintain the performance of the Account, as is clear in the comparison of starting it in mid-1980 or six months later.

In our simulations, the Substitution Account fails a particular test of uncovered interest parity. As is well known, such tests depend for their results on the sample period chosen. However, since the dollar was near the bottom of its cycle in 1980, this seems a fair test.

The upshot is that those who suggest a Substitution Account again must deal with an inconvenient fact—the Account would not have added up even with a substantial endowment of gold profits and a favourable start date unless the US would have committed to pay a bond yield on the Account's assets. Indeed, given the preference on the part of modern reserve managers for bond investments, it is hard to imagine how negotiations for a Substitution Account would not focus on the US Treasury paying the 2- to 5-year note yields that correspond to the most usual official investment in US Treasury obligations today. How such negotiations would proceed, and what results might be obtained over time, with the Federal Reserve using large-scale bond purchases to lower the returns payable, are interesting questions. Choosing the right moment to open such an account and anticipating the possible rhythm of deficits as well as surpluses on its balance sheet would be significant challenges.



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## Annex: The US Treasury pays US dollar Libor to the Account

Table A

Baseline scenario: start July 1980, pay US dollar Libor rate, 25 million ounces of gold  
(in billions of SDRs)

End-year	SDR yield <sup>1</sup>	3m USD Libor	USD assets	SDR liabilities	USD/SDR	Surplus or deficit				
						w/o gold		Gold price	w/ 25 m oz gold	
						In SDR	% of assets		In SDR	% of assets
1980	8.8	16.6	55.1	52.4	1.28	2.6	4.8	590	13.3	24.2
1981	14.7	14.5	71.6	58.9	1.16	12.7	17.7	400	20.4	28.5
1982	9.2	10.0	86.9	66.9	1.10	20.0	23.0	448	29.3	33.7
1983	8.9	9.9	100.8	73.2	1.05	27.7	27.4	382	35.9	35.6
1984	8.8	9.8	119.9	80.2	0.98	39.7	33.1	309	46.7	39.0
1985	7.8	8.2	116.7	87.1	1.10	29.7	25.4	327	36.2	31.0
1986	6.2	6.2	112.7	93.3	1.22	19.4	17.2	391	26.5	23.5
1987	6.1	8.0	103.9	99.1	1.42	4.8	4.6	487	12.5	12.0
1988	7.4	9.0	118.3	105.3	1.35	12.9	10.9	410	19.7	16.6
1989	9.1	8.6	132.9	114.2	1.31	18.7	14.1	401	25.4	19.2
1990	9.3	8.1	133.4	125.3	1.42	8.1	6.1	392	14.1	10.6
1991	7.6	5.0	141.8	136.2	1.43	5.7	4.0	353	11.0	7.7
1992	5.8	3.6	153.8	145.8	1.38	8.0	5.2	333	13.2	8.6
1993	4.2	3.4	159.2	153.5	1.37	5.8	3.6	391	12.0	7.5
1994	4.8	6.0	156.0	160.1	1.46	-4.0	-2.6	383	1.7	1.1
1995	4.3	5.9	162.8	167.9	1.49	-5.2	-3.2	387	0.5	0.3
1996	3.9	5.5	177.9	174.9	1.44	3.0	1.7	370	8.5	4.8
1997	4.4	5.8	200.5	182.1	1.35	18.4	9.2	289	22.9	11.4
1998	3.8	5.3	203.3	190.2	1.41	13.2	6.5	288	17.4	8.6
1999	3.8	6.1	219.7	197.0	1.37	22.7	10.3	291	27.1	12.3
2000	4.9	6.7	246.5	205.6	1.30	40.9	16.6	273	45.3	18.4
2001	2.4	2.1	268.4	214.2	1.26	54.2	20.2	277	58.9	21.9
2002	2.2	1.5	253.0	219.3	1.36	33.7	13.3	343	39.2	15.5
2003	1.6	1.2	234.5	223.3	1.49	11.2	4.8	417	17.3	7.4
2004	2.2	2.3	227.4	227.2	1.55	0.2	0.1	438	6.4	2.8
2005	3.0	4.3	254.7	232.8	1.43	21.9	8.6	513	30.0	11.8
2006	4.1	5.4	254.1	241.0	1.50	13.1	5.1	635	22.8	9.0
2007	3.7	5.0	255.2	251.4	1.58	3.8	1.5	836	16.1	6.3
2008	1.4	2.7	271.1	259.5	1.54	11.6	4.3	862	24.7	9.1
2009	0.3	0.3	269.8	261.3	1.57	8.5	3.1	1096	25.1	9.3
2010	0.4	0.3	275.6	262.0	1.54	13.6	4.9	1418	35.7	13.0

<sup>1</sup> Bond equivalent yield basis.

Sources: IMF; BIS, British Bankers' Association; authors' estimates.