

Discussion “Fiscal Stimulus Payments, Housing Demand, and House Price Inflation”

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Summary of the Paper

● Research Question

- ▶ whether the fiscal stimulus transfers provided during the pandemic contribute to the **increasing housing demand and house price inflation** in the United States?
- ▶ focuses on two sizeable stimulus transfers
 - ★ Economic Impact Payments (EIPs)
 - ★ expanded Child Tax Credits (CTC)

● Empirical Evidence

- ▶ **Household micro**: lower-income families saw bigger boosts to disposable income; their home-ownership rates and rooms-per-person rose.
- ▶ **A regression-kink design** at the **75k/150k** income thresholds shows discontinuous jumps in ownership and space consumption
- ▶ **Cross-MSA analysis**: every \$1,000 of per-capita stimulus is associated with roughly a 4–5 percentage-point housing price increase

This paper...

• Findings

- ▶ stimulus transfers significantly influenced housing consumption and prices,
- ▶ lower-income groups disproportionately benefit in terms of increased homeownership rates and higher LTI ratios.

• Highlights

- ▶ Well-written, clearly structured
- ▶ Comprehensive Empirical Analysis
 - ★ multiple empirical approaches: household-level analysis, a regression kink design, and MSA-level regressions
 - ★ detailed microdata (ACS and HMDA)
 - ★ robust to numerous control variables (income, unemployment, remote work exposure, housing stock, and demographic factors)
- ▶ Novel Contribution and Policy Relevance

Comment 1: Identification and Causality Concerns

- The potential endogeneity of regional stimulus payment variation
 - ▶ local shocks may correlate with both stimulus payments received and housing market outcomes
 - ★ e.g., pandemic severity
- A more direct strategy: a DID analysis?
 - ▶ exploiting differences in stimulus rollout timing across states or examining regions with similar initial economic conditions but different stimulus receipts
 - ▶ treat and control groups; narrower band for RD
 - ▶ more explicit placebo checks or falsification tests
 - ★ using pre-pandemic periods
 - ★ using placebo thresholds further removed from actual eligibility cutoffs

Comment 2: Alternative Explanations: Low Rates

- Primary Mortgage Rates: nation-wide Fed-induced drop to 50-year low mortgage rates (2.65-3.0%) during the study period



(Source: Freddie Mac PMMS)

- Cheap credit mechanically boosts purchasing power
 - ★ prices can rise 10-15% without stimulus. (Favara and Imbs, 2015, AER; Justiniano et al., 2019, JPE; Greenwald and Guren, 2024, JF)

Comment 2: Alternative Explanations: Low Rates

- Potential consequences if ignored
 - ▶ Upward bias: stimulus coefficient may capture price-to-payment sensitivity rather than liquidity effect.
 - ▶ Mis-attributed mechanism: policy conclusions about transfer effectiveness could mislead.
- Should disentangle interest rate shock from the stimulus variation
 - ▶ Add changes in local average contract rate (state/MSA) 2019-21 as covariate.
 - ▶ Define "payment-sensitive" MSAs: high price-to-income or high ARM share, estimate the interaction term *Stimulus* \times *Sensitivity*.
 - ▶ Triple Difference: from 2018-24, interact Stimulus with Post-2022 high-rate dummy.
 - ▶ Additional Robustness Checks:
 - ★ LTV vs LTI: falling LTV alongside stable LTI supports down-payment story.
 - ★ Rent/vacancy regression: if demand channel dominates, rents \uparrow with prices.

Comment 3: Mechanisms

- “Stimulus raises the down-payment; because it is not counted as income, the borrower can now qualify for a larger loan, so LTI rises.”
 - ▶ implicitly treats “L” as potential borrowing capacity (how much the bank would now let you borrow), rather than the realised loan on the purchase that actually shows up in HMDA.
 - ▶ LTI from HMDA or GSE loan-level records: based on the funded loan balance
- Definition of LTI
 - ▶ $\text{LTI} = \text{actual loan amount originated} / \text{borrower annual gross income}$
 - ★ It is not the borrower's ex-ante “borrowing capacity,” or “maximum loan they could qualify for.”
- Two competing mechanisms:
 - ▶ cash substitutes for debt: higher down-payment, lower actual loan, LTI falls.
 - ▶ trade-up house: higher purchase price, loan rises by more than the cash, LTI rises.

Comment 3: Mechanisms

- LTI can rise or fall depending on how households deploy the cash windfall.

	Baseline (pre-stimulus)	Scenario A Same house, bigger cash	Scenario B Bigger house, LTV relaxed
Household income (annual)	\$40,000	unchanged	unchanged
Savings <i>before</i> stimulus	\$100,000	\$100,000	\$100,000
Cash stimulus windfall	—	+\$5,000	+\$5,000
Total cash available	\$100,000	\$105,000	\$105,000
Loan-to-value limit	90%	90%	90%
House price chosen	\$1,000,000	fixed at \$1,000,000	maximum affordable \$1,050,000
Down-payment	\$100,000 (10%)	\$105,000 (10.5%)	\$105,000 (10%)
Loan amount	\$900,000	\$895,000	\$945,000
Loan-to-income (LTI)	22.5	22.4 ↓	23.6 ↑

Comment 3: Mechanisms

- LTI is a joint outcome of the chosen house price, the loan contract, and stated income. A liquidity bump can push it either way.
- A higher mean LTI in 2021 could reflect:
 - ▶ general house-price inflation
 - ▶ compositional shifts: more low-income borrowers entering, who mechanically have high LTI
- How could LTI rise in spite of higher down-payments?
 - ▶ Trade-up behavior: The transfer relaxes the LTV constraint, so the buyer chooses a larger or better-located house.
 - ▶ Combined rate & cash effect: Lower mortgage rates in 2020–21 increased the “affordable payment” ceiling: loosen two constraints (lower rates and extra cash)
 - ▶ Competitive starter-home markets: Transfers trigger extra bidders who drive prices up

Comment 3: Strategies to Distinguish the Mechanisms

- LTV test: If transfers ease down-payment constraints, LTV should fall, even if LTI rises.
 - ▶ Regress ΔLTV on stimulus at borrower/MSA level.
 - ▶ Confirms the liquidity channel directly
- Condition on local price indices
 - ▶ Regress loan size on borrower income and local price index
 - ▶ Test if low-income borrowers take larger residual loans in high-payment MSAs.
 - ▶ Separates pure price inflation from selection/composition.
- Plot LTI Quantile Shifts
 - ▶ Split loans into Low-Stimulus MSAs vs High-Stimulus MSAs (top vs bottom of per-capita EIP + CTC).
 - ▶ Draw the empirical CDF or kernel density of LTI for each subsample and year
 - ▶ Compare Δ quantiles: If high-stimulus MSAs show a bigger jump only in the right tail, then it is evidence of down-payment relief

Comment 4: Why didn't renters up-size?

- If liquidity really relaxed housing constraints, why is there no intensive-margin response for renters?
 - ▶ The most constrained group (renters) should react first.
 - ▶ Weakens the claim that the boom is driven by liquidity
- Why do we observe this? three possible explanations:
 - ▶ Selection/composition bias:
 - ★ Stimulus-rich MSAs may have lost many renters who bought homes
 - ★ The remaining renter pool is poorer/younger and unlikely to up-size: Could overstate “non-housing MPC” and understate housing demand.
 - ★ Current analyses may mix “movers” and “stayers”
 - ▶ Measurement error
 - ★ rental moves remain invisible: 2-bed→2-bed with 30% more sqft
 - ★ Misclassifies true consumption response as “zero.”
 - ★ Use better data: square footage, rent paid
 - ▶ Supply-side bottlenecks?
 - ★ Vacancies plunged in 2020-21: search frictions and lease rigidity may have blocked upsizing even if renters wanted it.

Comment 4: Strategies to address the issue

- Renter-to-owner flow
 - ▶ Measure transition probability 2019→21 by MSA.
 - ▶ High flow in high-stimulus MSAs would explain why renters show no housing consumption change: they exited the renter pool.
- Square-foot or rent paid
 - ▶ Redfin Rental or American Housing Survey micro: regress Δsqft or Δ rent on stimulus.
 - ▶ Whether quality/space improved even when “room count” did not.
- Movers-only room analysis
 - ▶ restrict to renters who changed address in the last 12 months: compare room change vs stimulus
 - ▶ If movers up-size only in high-stimulus areas, liquidity mattered but lease rigidity blocked stay-put renters.
- Whether renters diverted transfers to non-housing consumption.
 - ▶ Consumer Expenditure Survey: track durable-goods and cash-balance changes versus stimulus by tenure.

Minor Comments: Remaining Confounding Factors

- Selection Bias & External Validity Issues: Only the poor got cash
 - ▶ High-income households untreated and estimated effects describe liquidity-constrained buyers only (LATE)
 - ▶ Can we say anything about what would happen if rich households also received \$?
 - ▶ “down-payment relief” specific to constrained buyers; rich may channel cash into savings/investment.
 - ▶ Calibrate life-cycle housing-choice model and report counterfactual price effect.

Minor Comments: Remaining Confounding Factors

- How about intensive-margin outcomes?
 - ▶ home-improvement and renovation expenditure
- Other potential confounders:
 - ▶ regional differences in COVID-19 severity or policy responses
 - ★ e.g., lockdown stringency, reopening pace, housing market policies
 - ▶ control for pandemic severity at the MSA or county level
 - ★ e.g., COVID-19 infection rates, mortality rates, or lockdown durations
- Long-run effects?
 - ▶ whether the effects are temporary or have lasting structural effects

Take-aways

- Well-executed paper: rich data, multiple designs, careful robustness.
- Key contribution: shows pandemic transfers translated into tangible housing-market impacts—especially for liquidity-constrained buyers.
- Next steps: isolate low-rate channel, pin down mechanisms (down-payment vs. equity-management), and explore renter outcomes.

**An important and policy-relevant study:
I look forward to the revision!**