

« From wheel of fortune to wheel of misfortune: Financial crises, cycles and consumer predation »

Auteurs


Olivier Mesly, David W. Shanafelt, Nicolas Huck

Document de Travail n° 2020 – 35

Juillet 2020

Bureau d'Économie
Théorique et Appliquée
BETA

www.beta-umr7522.fr

 @beta_economics

Contact :
jaoulgrammare@beta-cnrs.unistra.fr

1
2
3
4
5
6
7
8
9
10
11
12
13
14
15
16
17
18
19
20
21
22
23
24
25
26
27

**From wheel of fortune to wheel of misfortune:
Financial crises, cycles and consumer predation**

Olivier Mesly^a
ICN School of Business, Nancy, France.
Email: olivier.mesly@icn-artem.com

David W. Shanafelt
*Université de Lorraine, Université de Strasbourg, AgroParis Tech, Centre national de la
Recherche Scientifique (CNRS), L'Institut National de Recherche pour l'Agriculture,
l'Alimentation et l'Environnement (INRAE), Bureau d'Économie Théorique et Appliquée
(BETA), Nancy, France*
E-mail: david.shanafelt@inra.fr

Nicolas Huck^b
ICN School of Business, Nancy, France
Email: nicholas.huck@icn-artem.com

^a Professor Olivier Mesly is associate professor at ICN School of Business in Nancy and guest professor at University of Lorraine. He is a member of the Centre Européen de Recherche en Économie Financière et Gestion des Entreprises (CEREFIGE).

^b Professor Huck is associate professor at ICN School of Business in Nancy. He is a member of the Centre Européen de Recherche en Économie Financière et Gestion des Entreprises (CEREFIGE).

28 **From wheel of fortune to wheel of misfortune: Financial crises, cycles and**
29 **consumer predation**

30
31
32 **Abstract:** Predator-prey dynamics are widely used in ecology but seldom utilized in
33 economics and marketing, despite their ability to express financial market agents'
34 behaviors when considered in combination with economic cycles and financial crises.
35 This multidisciplinary paper presents a stylized framework of a market cycle that
36 combines the notions of supply and demand and predator-prey interactions between
37 buyers and sellers of housing mortgages. We illustrate our framework using data from the
38 Global Financial Crisis and a Lotka-Volterra predator-prey model. We find that with our
39 framework we are able to capture the dynamics of the market, particularly the peak and
40 decline in the number of sellers and sold subprime mortgages. Our framework sheds a
41 new light on consumer behaviors, pinpointing how they can put themselves into
42 vulnerable prey positions. This paper is one of the first of its kind to propose market
43 phases and predator-prey dynamics nested in economic cycles and consumer buying
44 trends.

45
46 **Keywords:** Toxic products; predator-prey behavior; financial crisis; regulations;
47 consumer abuse

48
49 **JEL:** M31, N22, N42, O16, P46, R31

52 1. INTRODUCTION

53
54 Financial markets have always contained idiosyncrasies (Brunnermeier and
55 Sannikov, 2014), in which winners are few and losers are numerous (Sorescu *et al.*, 2018;
56 Kindleberger, 1996). Markets worldwide are poisoned by dysfunctionality (Aguilera and
57 Vadera, 2008), with yet unexplored forms of social psychopathy (Boddy, 2015) and
58 moral hazard, defined as, “the failure of either to behave diligently or in good faith at any
59 point in the exchange” (Ericson and Doyle, 2003, p. 11).

60
61 The 2007-2009 Global Financial Crisis (GFC) is no exception. It arose due to a
62 number of factors involving human decisions by both consumers and lenders (Glaeser,
63 Gyourko and Saiz, 2008), hidden maneuvering and “unruly deregulation” (Krugman,
64 2009) such as the *Glass-Steagall Act* revision in the 1990’s, which encouraged banks to
65 seek unqualified clients (White, 2009)¹.

66
67 Many experts blame quicksand-like regulations and excessively easy credit access
68 (Fostel and Geanakoplos, 2012; West and Prendergast, 2009). Heavily misleading
69 advertising and promotions were also factors that contributed to the mayhem (Ben-David,
70 2011; Calomiris and Wallison, 2008). Indeed, much of the unexplained volatility of the
71 housing market can be explained by analyzing the interplay between astute, calculating
72 financiers (predators) and naïve and overconfident buyers (prey) (Cochrane, 2005), which
73 caused the extraordinary rise and equally spectacular collapse of housing prices. Many
74 buyers dreamt of living exuberantly and thus exposed themselves to more risk than they
75 should have (Shiller, 2005). Often buyers of subprime mortgages had little or no financial
76 literacy (Dinwoodie, 2010), belonged to low income brackets (Roy and Kemme, 2012;
77 Shiller, 2012), and suffered from cognitive and/or psychological weaknesses, making
78 them more receptive to misleading advertising (Danis and Pennington-Cross, 2008;
79 Wang, 2009; Yoon *et al.*, 2005). As argued by some authors, the Federal Trade

¹ For a comprehensive review of the factors contributing to the GFC, see Acharya and Richardson (2009) and Razin and Rosefielde (2011).

80 Commission failed to inform borrowers/consumers of the danger of subprime or
81 predatory mortgages (Bone, 2008).²

82

83 The International Monetary Fund describes the rising home prices as a phenomenon
84 that actually concealed the lax lending standards set by the U.S. government (IMF, 2009,
85 Chap. 2). Originally, these standards were supposed to serve as barriers of entry into the
86 market. But, in fact, they acted as an invitation for lenders to deceive and commit fraud,
87 and created a pool of overstretched borrowers/consumers lured into the housing market
88 by the temporary ease of financing or refinancing. Once these so-called “sweetheart
89 deals” (including teaser rates) came due for renewal, consumers were faced with higher
90 interest rates and monthly mortgage and credit card payments (Akerlof and Shiller, 2009;
91 Ben-David, 2011). Then, as house prices plateaued or declined, those
92 borrowers/consumers were doomed, facing delinquency or foreclosures. They no longer
93 contemplated a wheel of fortune but rather a wheel of misfortune.

94

95 Our primary research question asks whether the incorporation of predator-prey
96 dynamics into the depiction of the market can better explain the cyclical patterns of
97 financial crises and, in particular, the GFC. To answer this question, we present a
98 framework of a market cycle, incorporating predator-prey dynamics from ecology and
99 notions of supply and demand. We discuss socio-psychological concepts inherent to
100 consumer behavior that go beyond traditional assumptions such as rationality in
101 economics, and the roles of human behavior in the GFC financial market. The present
102 paper focuses on exceptional markets, specifically ones in which high levels of volatility
103 and market frictions are nourished by toxicity in the form of predatory behavior between
104 market agents. Indeed, it is a story of dysfunctional agents in dysfunctional markets.

105

106 In the context of predatory behavior in the mortgage industry, Hill and Kozup
107 (2007) mention predatory lending as “consumer loans with any or all of the following

² By definition, a subprime mortgage is a type of adjustable-rate mortgage which, during an initial grace period, possesses an interest rate below prime. However, as this grace period expires (usually after one year during the GFC), borrowers must renegotiate the mortgage to become either a fixed-rate or reviewed adjustable-rate mortgage. In general, post-grace period interest rates were at least at the prime rate, adjusted to take into account the risk of a borrower defaulting (Frame *et al.*, 2008; IMF, 2009, Chap. 2).

108 characteristics: aggressive and deceptive marketing, lack of concern for the borrower’s
109 ability to pay, high interest rates and excessive fees, unnecessary provisions that do not
110 benefit the borrower... large prepayment penalties, or faulty underwriting...” (p. 29).
111 They point to the fact that these predatory behaviors targeted vulnerable people who
112 could easily fall for tricky contracts (p. 40) aimed at exploiting them through such
113 measures as incomplete disclosure, inciting them to make “irrational choices” (p. 32). As
114 another example, researchers have recognized that some lenders resorted to “predatory
115 lending” – notably through misleading advertising (Gurun, Matvos, and Seru, 2016) and
116 by soliciting unqualified borrowers³. Shiller (2005, p. 76) describes predatory lenders as
117 follows: “When clever persons become professionals at deceiving people, and devote
118 years to perfect their act, they can put seemingly impossible feats before our eyes and
119 fool us, at least for a while.” Yet the notion of adversarial relationships between lenders
120 or providers of predatory mortgages and buyers has seldom been studied and merits, we
121 believe, deeper study.

122

123 This is not to say that all sellers-buyers relationships were (or are) adversarial.
124 Rather, we posit that a portion of the interactions between sellers and buyers during the
125 dysfunctional market that was the U.S. during the GFC was plagued by adversarial
126 relationships between lenders and providers of subprime or predatory mortgages, and
127 some buyers. Our focus is on dysfunctional agents in dysfunctional markets. Normally,
128 buyers and sellers engage in more of a symbiotic relationship, in which both parties
129 benefit from the transaction. While there are always predatory interactions in the market,
130 under most circumstances they do not threaten the stability of the system. However, when
131 toxicity enters the market, the interaction between buyers and sellers can shift to be
132 highly predatory in nature, where only a handful of market agents benefit at the expense
133 of many. Millions of individuals suffered from the GFC, which saw massive foreclosures
134 and delinquencies, reaching a value of USD 250 billion^{4,5}, representing 2% of U.S. GDP
135 (Frame *et al.*, 2008). All of the largest GFC market players in the U.S. were affected in
136 the end, including Lehman Brothers, which closed, Bear Stearns and Merrill Lynch,

³ Federal Trade Commission: <https://www.ftc.gov/>.

⁴ U.S. Census Bureau, 2012: <https://www.census.gov/>.

⁵ World Bank, 2013: <http://donnees.banquemondiale.org/>.

137 which sought new owners, and Morgan Stanley and Goldman Sachs, which was
138 transformed into bank-holding companies (BHCs).

139

140 In a similar vein, we do not wish to say that all consumers were gullible or engaged
141 in improper behavior. Many were innocent bystanders caught in the wrong place at the
142 wrong time, and suffered greatly as collateral damage. Similarly, we do not wish to claim
143 that only the rich benefitted at the expense of the poor. Both poor and rich alike were hurt
144 during the GFC, with the wealthy losing more in absolute value but the poor lost more as
145 a percentage of total income (Frame *et al.*, 2008). Instead, we focus on a subset of the
146 market agents - whom engage in predatory behavior - that has a large impact on the
147 market as a whole.

148

149 A more complete model than the ones currently used is warranted, one that
150 accounts for the predatory interaction of lenders and borrowers/consumers and the
151 cycling of the market as a whole. In this paper, we develop a framework of the housing
152 market during the Global Financial Crisis. Our framework attempts to capture the
153 functioning of the ailing financial market and, most notably, applies predator-prey theory
154 from ecology to the dynamics between buyers and sellers of subprime (predatory)
155 mortgages as nested in four cyclical phases (Q1 to Q4). We argue that the supply and
156 demand associated with sellers and consumers of mortgages parallel the predator-prey
157 dynamics between the buyers and sellers of subprime mortgages. We believe that these
158 two approaches – normally treated separately – are, in fact, linked. Recognizing their
159 relationship is a necessary advancement. Our approach proposes four phases within each
160 economic cycle that can be seen as a consumer life cycle of its own: we posit that
161 populations (aggregates) of consumers go through specific phases that imply different
162 and at times harmful levels of vulnerability.

163

164 Our framework is grounded in three fields of study: predatory-prey models,
165 disequilibrium models (economic phases), and Schumpeter's theory of waves (market
166 cycles). Decades ago, economists applied predatory mechanisms and Lotka-Volterra
167 (LV) equations to financial market systems (Goodwin, 1967; Samuelson, 1971; Crookes

168 and Blignaut, 2016). Currently, efforts are being made to explain economic phenomena
169 using LV equations (Henry, 2012; Zhang, 2012; Dejuán and Dejuán-Bitriá, 2016; Ditzen,
170 2018), but rarely treat aggregates and flows as a dynamical system (Ryoo and Skott,
171 2008). To our knowledge, no such attempt has been convincingly made in marketing
172 theory. Disequilibrium models address the transient nature of the market. They have
173 furthered our understanding of how economic phases change over time and assisted in
174 subduing the housing market discrimination that plagued the U.S. economy before the
175 passage of the Fair Housing Act of 1968, but much of their focus has been on
176 employment (Maddala, 1984). As for the phases of financial markets, most of their
177 applications are concerned with growth, employment and productivity (Blanchard and
178 Fisher, 1989). We know of no study that links them to Lotka-Volterra, predator-prey
179 dynamics inherent to subprime-infected housing markets. In that vein, Schumpeter's
180 theory of long waves, unemployment, and creative destruction can be summarized by the
181 rise and fall of technology wavelets generated by population dynamics (Schumpeter
182 1934, 1939, 1950)⁶. It touches on the idea that aggregates are important in business cycle
183 theory (Chen, 2005; Lucas 1981), but it falls short of predator-prey dynamics.

184

185 An alternative viewpoint is to consider financial crises as the result of random,
186 historical events that appear in response to the interplay between credit financing and
187 capital assimilation (Kotz, 2009). Marxism and neoliberalism offer two such
188 perspectives. While Marxism emphasizes the elevation of the working class,
189 neoliberalism - at least in the way it is practiced in the US - promotes contrasting actions,
190 including deregulation (which gives more power to the most powerful people), reduction
191 in social net spending (which disfavors the poorest), a shift in labor structure focusing on
192 short-term contracts (thus making the vulnerable work force more vulnerable), and credit-
193 based consumption versus sound capital building (Kotz, 2009). In these circumstances,
194 the class gap that exists between the rich, the poor, and those attempting to get rich(er),
195 can only widen. This perspective shows that what prevails in times of financial crisis is

⁶ As well explained by Aghion, Akcigit, and Howitt (2013) in the context of growth processes, Schumpeter models, "... shed light on several aspects of the growth process which could not be properly addressed by alternative theories (...) (i) the role of competition and market structure; (ii) firm dynamics; (iii) the relationship between growth and development with the notion of appropriate growth institutions; (iv) the emergence and impact of long-term technological waves." (p. 2).

196 the accumulation of capital through production, circulation and distribution of value, and
197 labor shifts by some banking agents from regular employment to accumulating intangible
198 financial assets (such as Special Purpose Entities, or SPEs) built to hide risk, sometimes
199 referred to as “fictitious capital” (Fine, 2014, p. 50). While this viewpoint has merit, it
200 does not address market cycles and cannot fully account for the tenets we set in this
201 paper.

202

203 This paper is organized as follows. In the next section, we motivate and develop our
204 framework of the housing market and explain the phases of a full economic cycle as we
205 see it. We outline how consumers can become prey in certain market conditions,
206 particularly in market cycles where predator-prey dynamics prevail. We thereafter
207 provide evidence of our framework via market data extracted from the GFC. We
208 conclude by outlying the benefits of our approach and opportunities for future research.
209 We raise issues with respect to better protecting consumers against potential financial
210 predators and, at times, against themselves.

211

212

213 2. A FRAMEWORK OF FINANCIAL PREDATION ON CONSUMERS AND 214 ECONOMIC CYCLES

215

216 Current theories of business cycles do not consider predator-prey dynamics as
217 concepts of aggregates and flows of predators (sellers), prey (potential buyers), and
218 control regulations, at least not in a combined, interlocking way. As a first step towards
219 achieving this end, we combine traditional notions of supply and consumer demand with
220 predator-prey dynamics between buyers and sellers of housing mortgages. We show that
221 the two frameworks run parallel to each other to drive the movements of the market
222 cycle. We argue that there are underlying Lotka-Volterra dynamics implicit to standard
223 supply and demand curves and that the two concepts should be considered together.

224

225

226

227 **2.1 A framework of predator-prey dynamics**

228

229 In our framework of the housing market cycle, we use a basic predator-prey model
230 that considers two agents or aggregates: (1) the number of sellers of subprime mortgages
231 (population of predators), and (2) the number of potential buyers of predatory mortgages
232 (population of prey). The number of subprime or predatory mortgages sold – aggregates
233 of toxic products, i.e., “eaten” prey – can be calculated as a result of the interaction
234 between buyers and sellers.

235

236 In order to model the predatory interaction between sellers and buyers of subprime
237 mortgages, we adopt a well-known Lotka-Volterra (LV) predator-prey model borrowed
238 from ecology (Gotelli, 1995; Hanski, 1999). The model expresses mathematically how
239 populations of two species, in our case a predator and its prey, change over time. The
240 classic application of the Lotka-Volterra model is the study of lynx and hare populations
241 in Canada (Elton and Nicholson, 1942). The basic model incorporates growth and death
242 of the prey and predator species separately, and - more importantly - the interaction
243 between the two species (i.e., the number of prey that are caught and eaten by the
244 predator)⁷.

245

246 In the context of human interactions, toxic markets witness the emergence of
247 market predators and in their wake, market prey. As policy regulations become weaker,
248 the opportunity for predation on the part of astute financiers increases. Market predators
249 use the idea of the American dream to bait vulnerable people (Wyly *et al.*, 2007).
250 Customers fall for it to the extent that they are naïve, vulnerable, or prone to greed
251 (Shrum *et al.*, 2014). During the GFC, many consumers abused access to credit and bet
252 on poor investment habits (e.g., lack of diversification) (Hoffmann, Krause, and Laubach,
253 2012), boosted their credit card spending (Elul *et al.*, 2010), lowered their guard and

⁷ Lotka-Volterra equations adopt one of several mutually exclusive interactions depending on the sign of the interaction coefficients for each species (Gotelli, 1995; Song and Thakor, 2010). The sign of the interaction term (positive, negative, or zero) tells how one species affects the other (beneficial, harmful, or no effect). The most common interactions are competitive (both negative), predatory (one negative, one positive), or mutualistic (both positive).

254 accepted to be influenced by aggressive marketing messages (Ben-David, 2011), or opted
255 to disregard the risk of a debt trap (Reavis, 2012).

256

257 We do not wish to claim that all financiers are predatory, nor that the nature of the
258 interaction is one-directional. Indeed, a small fraction of the banking system is considered
259 as “shadow” banking, and consumers can certainly act in a predatory manner to sellers
260 (see, for example “predatory borrowing” (Bianco, 2008), most notably in the form of
261 consumers submitting falsified financial statements). Rather, we focus on a small portion
262 of the financial market that has a potentially large impact on the overall economy. By the
263 end of the GFC, the entire system crashed and caused a tsunami of economic and
264 financial ills that swallowed banks such as Lehman Brothers and consumed the savings of
265 millions of American consumers (Frame *et al.*, 2008).

266

267 We represent the toxic U.S. market of the GFC as the result of the interaction
268 between sellers and buyers of subprime mortgages (predators and prey respectively),
269 which obey Lotka-Volterra equations (Lotka, 1920, 1925; Volterra, 1926, 1931). Under a
270 predatory interaction, the LV equations come in the form of:

271

$$(1.1) \quad \begin{aligned} \frac{dx}{dt} &= rx - \alpha xy && \text{for prey} \\ \frac{dy}{dt} &= \alpha \beta xy - \nu y && \text{for predators} \end{aligned}$$

273

274 where dx/dt and dy/dt are the changes in the aggregates of prey (potential house buyers)
275 and predators (sellers of subprime mortgages) over time. The coefficients r and ν
276 represent the growth and death rates of the prey and predator. That is, r is the rate at
277 which new potential buyers enter the market; ν is the rate at which sellers leave the
278 market. The parameter α is a measure of the probability of potential buyers purchasing a
279 subprime mortgage, and implicitly includes the rate of contact between buyers and
280 sellers, social characteristics such as greed, federal interest rates, and so forth. The
281 parameter β describes the rate at which sold mortgages entice new sellers to join the
282 market. From the consumer’s perspective, it is a proxy for the risk of purchasing a

283 subprime mortgage. All else equal, the parameter β is the marginal influx of new sellers
 284 entering the market following a sale (caught prey). We present a side-by-side comparison
 285 of these parameters in ecological and market contexts in Table 1.

286

287 Table 1. Side-by-side comparison of Lotka-Volterra parameters.

<u>Parameter</u>	<u>Interpretation</u>	
	<u>Ecology</u>	<u>Marketing and finance</u>
r	prey intrinsic growth rate or birth rate	rate at which new buyers enter the market
α	predation rate (how well a predator finds and captures prey)	probability of a buyer purchasing a subprime mortgage from a seller
β	conversion efficiency (how eaten prey become new predators)	rate at which sold mortgages attract new sellers to the market
ν	predator death rate or mortality rate	rate at which sellers leave the market

288

289 All four parameters (r , α , β , and ν) can be calibrated from experimental and/or
 290 market data (Appendix A). An example of the dynamics of the system of equations in
 291 (1.1) is presented in Figure 2b. The system of equations in (1.1) expresses the most basic
 292 predator-prey model, which has been extended over the decades to include more complex
 293 growth and predator response functions, time-varying parameters, and time lags (among
 294 others) (Edelstein-Keshet, 2005)⁸.

295

296 Our framework assumes that sellers act as predators in the sense that they intend to
 297 abuse their customers – prey – to serve their own interests, causing them financial harm
 298 and catching them by surprise. The literature is rich with the idea that consumers may be
 299 abused by astute sellers, and can suffer financial harm sometimes due to their own doing
 300 (by, for example, presenting erroneous financial statements to bankers in order to get
 301 loans, which will eventually drive them into financial debt). For example, Kim *et al.*
 302 (2019) point to low-income homeowners who end up struggling to make ends meet after

⁸ Of particular interest is the effect of time lags, or, put differently, hysteresis. Hysteresis is a situation whereby the consequences of an action persist even after the action has ended (Grjebine and Tripier, 2017). Hence, the present events depend on past, expired events. Following that logic, present crises may actually be influenced by past, extinct crises. Economic contagion, as seen during the GFC, would therefore be not only transversal (affecting present populations) but also longitudinal, having an effect in the future, even when its current phase has become extinct.

303 buying houses they could not afford due to such unexpected charges as repairs. In their
304 view, consumers are often overconfident and neglect to seek proper advice⁹. To make
305 matters worse, approximately 60% of American households are known to not maintain a
306 budget, thus positioning themselves at risk of market hazard (Warmath and Zimmerman,
307 2019). Similarly, however, these authors note that even financial literacy can fail to
308 improve self-protecting financial behaviors. Part of the explanation, they contend, rests in
309 the fact that consumers (would-be prey) are not able or willing to admit their own
310 decision-making weaknesses and choose to rely on untrustworthy sources of information.

311

312 These deficiencies are amplified in the context of home buying and financial crises.
313 Indeed, homes are one of the most important purchases in a consumer’s lifetime and
314 certainly are a crucial element of the modern North American financial ecosystem
315 (Nicholson *et al.*, 2019). For consumers, the latter authors note that the high-cost and
316 time-consuming activity of searching for and deciphering proper and complex
317 information acts as a deterrent to sound decision-making. In short, consumers opt for
318 “rational ignorance” (p. 128). This, as well, has important implications. Even trained
319 consumers are not exempt from causing themselves financial harm, so that government-
320 funded training may be, at times, pointless. Yet, another concern with respect to policy
321 making and government-funded training programs: if consumers choose not to learn, one
322 cannot force them to.

323

324

325 **2.2 Cycles and the consumer’s wheel of misfortune**

326

327 Our proposed framework presents four phases (Q1, Q2, Q3, and Q4) that together
328 form an economic business cycle, one in which regulations should maintain reasonable
329 control over market agents’ tendencies to seek maximum benefits to the detriment of
330 other market agents (a non-Pareto efficient paradigm). Under normal market conditions,

⁹ This has important regulatory consequences. Even if training programs are put in place by governments, targeted consumers may not choose to benefit from them because they feel they are “above” such training. Their overconfidence ultimately leads to their demise.

331 the system moves through each stage smoothly. While there are predator-prey dynamics,
332 they are low and do not threaten the overall stability of the market. When market frictions
333 (e.g., bankruptcies, stock shortages) increase beyond control, however, the economic
334 system collapses. These frictions, we posit, are the result of runaway predator-prey
335 dynamics among market agents. In such a system, the normal economic cycle inflates
336 then capsizes. Figure 1 illustrates the stylized wheel of misfortune, which will be
337 illustrated with actual market data in the following section.

338

339 = = =

340 INSERT FIGURE 1 ABOUT HERE

341 = = =

342

343 We refer to the first phase of the market cycle as *low-vigilance* phase (Q1 going to
344 Q2). This corresponds to years 2000 to 2003 of the GFC, in which the number of
345 subprime mortgages was allowed to increase in the market as government regulations
346 were weak or weakened by economic policies. Eager house buyers drifted to lenders'
347 offices as the barriers to entry (the required credit rating and the access to money) played
348 to their perceived advantage, thus turning themselves into potential prey. As these
349 consumers grew excited by the prospect of easy and rapid wealth, their level of vigilance
350 declined.

351

352 The second phase represents the *predator-prey market* phase (Q2). It corresponds to
353 the years 2003 to 2006, where sellers and buyers engaged in mutual deceit in order to
354 achieve their goals, with buyers not yet realizing the toxicity of the mortgages they
355 contracted. Sellers realized that profits could be made by developing subprime
356 mortgages, the full effect of which will only come later, once the teaser rate period was
357 over. Sellers hid the present risks in opaque financial tools such as Collateralized Debt
358 Obligations (CDOs) or redistributed them geographically as was done with the REPO
359 105 mechanism of the Lehman Brothers. Let loose by weak regulations, suppliers
360 (predators) and buyers (prey) engaged in economic activity revolving around a single
361 asset – houses – defying one of the principal strategies of sound investments:

362 diversification. Indeed, this is what happened during the GFC when astute sellers and
363 overoptimistic buyers flooded the market, causing house prices to soar contagiously.

364

365 The third phase, we call the *forward-fleeing* phase (Q3), which captures the
366 saturation and ultimately the collapse of the market from 2006 to 2009. Initially, the
367 forward-fleeing stage was proactive and geared toward accumulation of assets (through
368 subprime mortgages and pools of mortgages) but then, once the market hit its optimal
369 toxicity and the grace period of mortgages ended, the forward-fleeing was based on panic
370 with efforts to unload toxic products.

371

372 The final phase is the *stalled* phase (Q4). It corresponds to the years 2009 to 2012
373 in which the U.S. government tried to subdue the crisis by installing new regulations to
374 better protect consumers. This phase was initially characterized by a temporary paralysis
375 of economic activity: regulations impeded the drive of well-intentioned financiers or
376 entrepreneurs and each played a game of cat and mouse in order to stay afloat. This
377 delayed the development of productive economic activity. This temporary paralysis was
378 necessary, however. As exemplified during the GFC, the government had to bring the
379 overheated market to a stop with such measures as the Paulson plan¹⁰. In that case, the net
380 effect was deleterious at first, much as cancer treatments are first harsh on the body
381 before being beneficial. Such effects included forcing companies into bankruptcies (e.g.,
382 Lehman Brothers) and increasing consumer interest rates.

383

384

385 **2.3 Supply and Demand curves and the economic cycle**

386

387 Figure 2 decomposes the wheel of misfortune into its constituent phases according
388 to supply and consumer demand curves and predatory interactions between sellers and
389 buyers of subprime mortgages. The demand curve is expressed as the interplay between
390 government regulations (Q_{reg}) and the number of potential buyers of mortgages (Q_{buyers}).

¹⁰ The Paulson Plan or “Emergency Economic Stabilization Act of 2008” was a USD 700 billion bank bailout designed to relieve the market of its idiosyncrasies developed during the GFC.

391 Increased government regulations (interest rates, used as a proxy) disincentive the
392 purchase of new mortgages. That is, the laxer the regulations, the more the number of
393 potential buyers (or prey) increases. The supply curve reveals the interaction between the
394 quantity of sold subprime mortgages ($Q_{mortgages}$) and the number of sellers of those
395 mortgages ($Q_{sellers}$). Naturally, sellers (predators) offer subprime mortgages (toxic
396 products) to potential buyers (prey): the more sellers, the more sold predatory mortgages.
397 We assume linear relationships for the demand and supply curves for the sake of
398 simplicity.

399

400 = = =

401 INSERT FIGURE 2 ABOUT HERE

402 = = =

403

404 As we move along the supply and demand curves and forward in time in the Lotka-
405 Volterra dynamics, we move from one phase of the market cycle to another. Federal
406 interest rates are implicit in our system, shifting the supply and demand curves and are
407 contained within the parameters of the predator-prey model. In our framework, the supply
408 and demand curves and predator-prey dynamics are implicitly linked, which makes our
409 framework quite different from existing economic models. It is this approach, we posit,
410 that renders a better representation of the market (see the next section).

411

412 We assume that the main characteristics of low-vigilance Q1 phase during any
413 financial crisis are as follows: regulators-prey interactions prevail; however, regulations,
414 which are meant to protect prey, start becoming lax (*laissez-faire* being considered in our
415 framework a necessary antecedent to financial crises). There are few predators but a large
416 number of healthy potential prey, who display a *reverse* risk-aversion behavior (or put
417 differently, speculation, which is at the heart of over-indebtedness – Dejuán and Dejuán-
418 Bitriá, 2016). Demand (supply) for mortgages is at its maximum (minimum), paralleling
419 the number of predators and prey in the market.

420

421 We assume that the main characteristics of the predator prey market (Q2) phase
422 during any financial crisis are as follows: predator-prey dynamics become more
423 dominant, and the rate of increase in the aggregate number of sellers and sold mortgages
424 increases. Predators see the opportunity to develop their poisons and traps, as regulations
425 get weaker and do not protect prey anymore. This is the beginning of the financial crisis.
426 Prey start foraging for easy credit and investment bargains, thus exposing themselves to
427 risk (expressed by the presence and action of predators). It is possible that new buyers of
428 houses may be more avid than the first entrants, as they have gained additional trust in the
429 market in that thus far the market had proved rewarding. Thus, demand and supply
430 decline and increase respectively, with the interactions between predators and prey.

431

432 We assume that the main characteristics of the forward-fleeing Q3 phase during any
433 financial crisis are as follows: predators developed and marketed toxic products, which
434 often contained a lag effect (not until later would the prey realize that they had been
435 caught in a debt trap – Dejuán and Dejuán-Bitriá, 2016). Unaware of the real risk, which
436 was hidden, excited prey had flocked the market under a contagion effect. Supply peaked
437 along with the number of sold subprime mortgages, and demand and the number of
438 potential buyers declined.

439

440 We assume that the main characteristics of the stalled Q4 phase during any
441 financial crisis are as follows: regulations control toxic products, left-over prey still
442 invade the crisis-market, and the economic “cure” starts having a positive effect of the
443 market. The system falls into Walrasian equilibrium, a return to normalcy¹¹.
444 Theoretically, in a Q4 phase, the market is competitive without being predatory. Prices
445 are flexible and there are many agents in the market, and produced goods are fully
446 allocated. However, regulations will eventually become inefficient again and predators
447 will innovate better risk-hiding products that tap into unexploited resources (Bhargava,

¹¹ A Walrasian equilibrium corresponds to the traditional concept in economics of equilibrium (especially in auction activities) where traders use flexible pricing to make the system efficient. As an individual trader’s transactions cannot influence prices, it is the entire population of traders that counts (Gul and Stacchetti, 1999).

448 1989), so that the system falls into a phase of low vigilance (Q1). Innovation signifies
 449 less stability, so that the market cycles yet again (Chen, 2014).

450

451 As for the GFC itself, its main characteristics are that it is an exceptional state of
 452 the market where panic kicks in, where prey are finally revealed (with a lag effect) and
 453 where super-predators take advantage over weaker predators. Regulators attempt to
 454 “cure” the market with its medicine, which initially harms the market before being
 455 beneficial.

456

457 Our framework attempts to capture the natural oscillations of the consumer demand
 458 in both functional and dysfunctional markets (though with a focus on the latter). Each
 459 phase (Q1, Q2, Q3, and Q4) is somewhat intertwined with the previous and subsequent
 460 ones rather than being in isolation. The GFC was not a normal oscillation of a market
 461 cycle: particular stages were amplified due to weak and ineffective government
 462 regulations. We summarize our framework in Table 2.

463

464 Table 2. Summary of the market framework.

465

Supply and demand

As interest rates rise (Q_{reg}), consumers are less likely to buy houses (Q_{buyers}).

The more toxic products there are on the market ($Q_{mortgages}$), the more sellers are motivated to sell them ($Q_{sellers}$)

The market cycle

$Q1$ to $Q2$:	The transition occurs when there is first excess demand for predatory mortgages, followed by an increasing supply of them on the market
$Q2$ and $Q3$:	Sellers overflow the market with predatory mortgages ($Q2$), but as interest rates increase, buyers can no longer consume ($Q3$); in other words, the predators “ate” their prey
$Q3$ and $Q4$:	As panic kicks in, sellers are forced to retreat or go out of business (e.g., Lehman Brothers) and, with adapted regulations, consumers’ general ability to pay improves and the system is in a Walrasian equilibrium, a return to normalcy ($Q4$)
$Q4$ to $Q1^*$:	Eventually regulations become inefficient and sellers innovate better risk-hiding products, repeating the cycle ($Q1^*$)

466

467 When the economy is relatively friction-free, the wheel (economic cycle) turns
468 smoothly as market agents move from one state of the market cycle to another. It starts
469 going awry when toxicity invades, thus becoming a wheel of misfortune. The wheel
470 considers the endogenous link between supply and consumers demand and the resulting
471 dynamics between market agents. Quantities of sellers and buyers of subprime mortgages
472 adjust each other dynamically, taking into account the number of toxic products in the
473 system and federal regulations. Supply and demand are implicitly considered in the LV
474 type interactions between the market agents (and vice versa).

475

476

477 4. EMPIRICAL ILLUSTRATION OF THE FRAMEWORK

478

479 We illustrate our framework using empirical data taken from the GFC. We calibrate
480 the parameters of the simple predator-prey model of equation (1.1) to the GFC data, and
481 find that it captures much of the dynamics of the data, particularly the peak and decline in
482 the number of sellers and quantity of sold subprime mortgages (Figure 3).

483

484 For the empirical data, we used proxies for the predator-prey relationship as well as
485 for the regulations-toxic products relationship. For prey, we compiled the number of
486 foreclosures, adjusting for the normal rate of foreclosures prior to the GFC¹². This will be
487 an underestimate of the number of potential buyers of subprime mortgages. For predators,
488 we used the ratio of shadow and traditional banking liabilities (Hein, 2012). For
489 regulations, we resorted to the Federal Reserve (Feds) percent interest rate, which is the
490 Feds' efforts to regulate the market¹³. Lastly, for the toxic products, we use the share of
491 subprime to total mortgages sold in the U.S. during the GFC¹⁴. Finally, we transformed
492 the data and applied a smoothing function to harmonize the scales such that the data
493 could be presented cleanly and concisely¹⁵.

494

¹² Realty Trac: <https://www.realtytrac.com/>.

¹³ US Federal Reserve: <https://www.federalreserve.gov/>.

¹⁴ Inside Mortgage Finance: <https://www.insidemortgagefinance.com/>.

¹⁵ The transformed data is unitless. All data is available on the "Open Science Framework" (osf.io/3924r) and will be made public after acceptance.

495 We calibrated the predator-prey model by choosing parameter values that minimize
496 the sum of squared differences between the dynamics of the predator-prey model and the
497 data (Hilborn and Mangel 1997). As the number of potential buyers are unknown, we
498 focus on the number of sellers and sold predatory mortgages. The latter is a result of the
499 interaction between predators and prey, e.g. “eaten” prey¹⁶. A detailed and step-by-step
500 explanation of the calibration process can be found in Appendix A. In short, we simulate
501 the system of equations in (1.1) over a broad range of parameter values (r , α , β , and ν).
502 For each simulation, we calculate the squared error (difference) between the data and
503 their corresponding values in the simulations. The parameter values that result in the
504 lowest total error are the calibrated, best-fit parameters. The calibrated or best-fit
505 predator-prey model is meant to illustrate the framework and the likely presence of
506 predator-prey dynamics in the empirical data.

507

508 We present the data and fitted predator-prey model in Figure 3. The market data
509 show that during the initial phases of low interest rates, the number of sellers and sold
510 subprime mortgages increased (Q1 and Q2). As the market saturated, the Federal Reserve
511 intervened and increased interest rates, causing the number of sellers and sold mortgages
512 to decrease (Q3 and Q4). There was a lag between the time subprime mortgages were
513 contracted and the end of their one-to-two-year teaser rates in which homebuyers faced
514 steep mortgage rates. Foreclosures followed.

515

516 Even with a simple predator-prey model we are able to capture many of the
517 dynamics of the data, particularly the peak and decline in the number of sellers and sold
518 subprime mortgages. We attribute this discrepancy to simplicities in the framework, such
519 as constant parameter values or (un)observables not captured in a simple predator-prey
520 model (e.g., human behavior, explicit government interventions, etc.). Nonetheless, we
521 believe that the framework provides convincing evidence of the presence of predator-prey

¹⁶ Recall that the model considers only two aggregates: predators and prey. Federal interest rates are taken implicitly in the choice of parameters. The true number of buyers of subprime mortgages is unknown. Therefore, we focus on the number of sold subprime mortgages or “eaten prey”, which are the direct result of the interaction between sellers and potential buyers. Foreclosures would be a function of sold mortgages, being less than or equal to the number of sold subprime mortgages. However, since not all foreclosures were the result of predatory mortgages, they can also be seen as a lower bound to the number of potential buyers.

522 dynamics in the GFC data. Though beyond the scope of this paper, further investigation
523 is warranted.

524

525 = = =

526 INSERT FIGURE 3 ABOUT HERE

527 = = =

528

529

530 4. CONCLUSION

531

532 This paper brings forward a new dimension to current financial models aimed at
533 explaining business cycles in times of crises. We believe our paper clarifies the roles
534 supply and demand and how these interact with the key actors of the market, including
535 avid and/or naïve consumers. Our framework proposes four market phases that depend on
536 the dynamics of aggregates of market agents as they evolve over time. Our approach
537 incorporates Lotka-Volterra equations to obtain a better comprehension of market
538 interactions, turmoil, and the driving factors leading to crisis. The market phases
539 emphasize the role that consumers play in the cycle. While they are relatively passive in
540 low-vigilance (Q1) and stalled (Q4) phases, they are active in the predator-prey (Q2),
541 where they are preyed upon, and forward-fleeing (Q3), where they attempt to exit a
542 treacherous market. Hence, consumers are considered vulnerable during much of the
543 economic cycle, in part due to their own doing (e.g., low-vigilance Q1). As discussed,
544 aggressive advertising and abrasive selling tactics compound to render consumers even
545 more fragile and more prone to inadvertently fall into unsustainable debt. Since our
546 framework posits that all supply and demand dynamics hide inherent LV dynamics, this
547 means that consumers are necessarily subject to moral hazard, a statement that calls for
548 proper regulation of the market. Such regulation could apply to include stronger
549 protection of consumers' rights (e.g., the right to be properly informed), better training
550 and educational programs, more punitive measures aimed at curbing deviant seller
551 behaviors, and a better system of classification of consumer complaints to include
552 predatory-like characterizations of sellers' behaviors.

553

554 We point to specific consumer behaviors that take place in the context of an
555 economic cycle whereby supply and demand are intrinsically linked to predator-prey
556 (LV) dynamics. This has important repercussions in the field of consumer behaviors:
557 certain consumers need to be protected against seller-predators *and* against themselves,
558 because of their vulnerabilities and/or inability to cope with or to even realize they are
559 prey to a web of deceitful practices. The latter is something that is barely discussed in the
560 literature on financial crises. We trust it can therefore be of assistance in both research
561 and public policy by highlighting an important weakness in consumer behavior.
562 Certainly, governments should continue to use traditional tools – such as interest rates –
563 to regulate the market. However, they should also take into account consumer behavior:
564 the fact that some consumers are overconfident, choose to be or are rationally limited, are
565 overwhelmed by complex terminology and financial concepts, seek inaccurate assistance
566 in helping them to make rational decisions, or have difficulty to compare adequately their
567 different options. All of this, of course, damages their ability to survive in the
568 dysfunctional predatory-prey portion of an economic cycle (Q2). This being said, training
569 programs certainly can have positive impacts, as long as consumers are aware of them.
570 Marketing them is of the essence.

571

572 While we are hesitant to generalize our framework of financial predation to all
573 market crises, we find that it can represent data of the GFC in the U.S. We may be able to
574 further illustrate what happened before, during and after the housing-market crisis if we
575 extended the framework to take into account other processes such as hysteresis. Our
576 results warrant further analysis and empirical validation of the wheel of misfortune.

577

578

579

580 5. REFERENCES

581

582 Acharya, V., and Richardson, M. (2009). "Causes of the financial crisis", *Critical Review*
583 Vol. 21 Issue: 2–3, pp. 195–210.

584 Aguilera, R.V., and Vadera, A.K. (2008). "The dark side of authority: Antecedents,
585 mechanisms, and outcomes of organizational corruption", *Journal of Business*
586 *Ethics* Vol. 77 Issue: 4, pp. 431-449.

587 Aghion, P., Akcigit, U., and Howitt, P. (2013). What do we learn from Schumpeterian
588 growth theory? *National Bureau of Economic Research* (NBER) Working Paper
589 18824, 1-44.

590 Akerlof, G. A., and Shiller, R. J. (2009). *Animal Spirits: How Human Psychology Drives*
591 *the Economy, and Why It Matters for Global Capitalism*. New Jersey: Princeton
592 University Press.

593 Bhargava, S. C. (1989). "Lotka-Volterra equations and the mechanism of technological
594 substitution." *Technological forecasting and social change* 35(3), 19-326.

595 Ben-David, I. (2011). "Financial constraints and inflated home prices during the real
596 estate boom", *American Economic Journal: Applied Economics*, pp. 55-87.

597 Bianco, K. (2008). "The subprime lending crisis: Causes and effects of the mortgage
598 meltdown." New York: Wolters Kluwer Law & Business.

599 Blanchard, O., and Fisher, S. (1989). *Lectures on economics*. USA, Massachusetts: MIT
600 Press.

601 Bloomberg: <https://www.bloomberg.com/quicktake/subprime-lending>

602 Boddy, C.R. (2015) "Organisational psychopaths: a ten-year update", *Management*
603 *Decision*, Vol. 53 Issue: 10, pp. 2407-2432.

604 Bone, P.F. (2008). "Toward a general model of consumer empowerment and welfare in
605 financial markets with an application to mortgage servicers", *Journal of Consumer*
606 *Affairs* 42, Issue 2, pp. 165-188.

607 Brunnermeier, M.K., and Sannikov, Y (2014). "A macroeconomic model with a financial
608 sector", *American Economic Review* 104 Issue: 2, pp. 379-421.

609 Calomiris, C.W., and Wallison, P.J. (2008). "WSJ, Blame Fannie Mae and congress for
610 the credit mess", *Opinion*, September 23, 2008.

611 Chen P (2005) Evolutionary economic dynamics: persistent business cycles, disruptive
612 technology, and the trade-off between stability and complexity. In: Dopfer K (ed)
613 The evolutionary foundations of economics, chapter 15. Cambridge University
614 Press, Cambridge, pp 472–505

615 Chen, P. (2014). Metabolic growth theory: market-share competition, learning
616 uncertainty, and technology wavelets. *Journal of Evolutionary Economics*, 24:239–
617 262.

618 Cochrane, J.H. (2005). *Asset Pricing*, revised edition. NJ: Princeton. Princeton University
619 Press.

620 Crookes, D., and Blignaut, J. (2016). “Predator–prey analysis using system dynamics: An
621 application to the steel industry.” *South African Journal of Economic and
622 Management Sciences* 19(5), 733-746.

623 Danis, M. A. and Pennington-Cross, A. (2008). “The delinquency of subprime
624 mortgages”, *Journal of Economics and Business* Vol. 60 Issue: 1, pp. 67-90.

625 Dejuán, Ó., and Dejuán-Bitriá, D. (2016). A predator-prey model to explain cycles in
626 financial-led economies. *Review of Keynesian Economics*. Accepted for
627 publication.

628 Dinwoodie, J.T. (2010). Ignorance is not bliss: Financial illiteracy, the mortgage market
629 collapse, and the global economic crisis. *University of Miami Business Law Review*
630 18, 181-219.

631 Ditzen, J. (2018) Cross-country convergence in a general Lotka–Volterra model. *Spatial
632 Economic Analysis* 13(2), 191-211.

633 Edelstein-Keshet, L. (2005). *Mathematical models in biology*. New York: Society for
634 Industrial and Applied Mathematics.

635 Elton, C., and Nicholson, M. (1942) The ten-year cycle in numbers of the lynx in Canada.
636 *Journal of Animal Ecology* 11, 1942.

637 Elul, R., Souleles, N.S., Chomsisengphet, S., Glennon, D., and Hunt, R. (2010). What
638 “triggers” mortgage default? *American Economic Review* 100(2), 490-494.

639 Ericson, R. V., and Doyle, A. (2003). “The moral risks of private justice: The case of
640 insurance fraud. Risk and morality”, Toronto: University of Toronto Press, Inc.
641 Federal Trade Commission: <https://www.ftc.gov/>.

642 Fine, B. (2014). Financialization from a Marxist perspective. *International Journal of*
643 *Political Economy* 42(4), 47-66.

644 Fostel, A., and Geanakoplos, J. (2012). “Trenching, CDS, and asset prices: How financial
645 innovation can cause bubbles and crashes”, *American Economic Journal:*
646 *Macroeconomics* Vol. 4 Issue: 1, pp. 190-225.

647 Frame, S., Lehnert, A., and Prescott, N. (2008). *A snapshot of mortgage conditions with*
648 *an emphasis on subprime mortgage performance*. Federal Reserve.
649 http://www.federalreserveonline.org/pdf/mf_knowledge_snapshot-082708.pdf.

650 Glaeser, E.L., Gyourko, J., and Saiz, A. (2008). “Housing supply and housing bubbles”,
651 *Journal of Urban Economics* Vol. 64, pp. 198-217.

652 Goodwin, R. (1967). “A growth cycle,” in *Socialism, Capitalism and Economic Growth*,
653 edited by C. Feinstein (Cambridge University Press).

654 Grjebine, T., and Tripier, F. (2017). Finance, crises et croissance. *Revue d'économie*
655 *financière* 3(127), 121-134.

656 Gul, F., and Stacchetti, E. (1999). Walrasian Equilibrium with Gross Substitutes. *Journal*
657 *of Economic Theory* 87, 95–124.

658 Gurun, U.G., Matvos, G., and Seru, A. (2016). Advertising Expensive Mortgages. *Journal*
659 *of Finance* 71(5), 2371-2416.

660 Hanski, I. (1999). *Metapopulation ecology*, Oxford: Oxford University Press.

661 Hein, E. (2012). *The macroeconomics of finance-dominated capitalism and its critics*.
662 Cheltenham, UK: Edward Elgar.

663 Henry, J.F. (2012). The Veblenian predator and financial crises: Money, fraud, and a
664 world of illusion. *Journal of Economic Issues* XLVI(4), 989-1006.

665 Hilborn, R. and Mangel, M. (1997). *The ecological detective: Confronting models with*
666 *data*. Princeton, New Jersey: Princeton University Press.

667 Hill, R.P., and Kozup, J.C. (2007). Consumer experiences with predatory practices. *The*
668 *Journal of Consumer Affairs* 41(1), 29-46.

669 Hoffmann, M., Krause, M.U., and Laubach, T. (2012). Trend growth expectations and
670 U.S. house prices before and after the crisis. *Journal of Economic Behavior and*
671 *Organization* 83(3), 394-409.

672 International Monetary Fund (IMF) (2009). *World Economic Outlook*. Washington, DC,
673 April. <http://www.imf.org/external/pubs/ft/weo/2009/update>.

674 Kim, K.T., Lee, J., and Hanna, S.D. (2019). “The effects of financial overconfidence on
675 the mortgage delinquency of US Households”. *The Journal of Consumer Affairs*.
676 <https://doi.org/10.1111/joca.12287>.

677 Kindleberger, C. (1996). “Manias, panics, and crashes: A history of financial crises, 3rd
678 ed.”, New York: Basic Books.

679 Kotz, D.M. (2009). The Financial and Economic Crisis of 2008: A Systemic Crisis of
680 Neoliberal Capitalism. *Review of Radical Political Economics* 41(3), 305-317.

681 Krugman, P. (2009). “Reagan did it”, *International Herald Tribune* (June 2).

682 Labye, A. (2011). La crise financière actuelle : une application du modèle de Minsky ?
683 *Revue d'économie financière* 2(102), 263 à 284.

684 Lotka, A.J. (1920). Analytical note on certain rhythmic relations in organic systems.
685 *Proceedings of the National Academy of Science*. U.S.A. 6: 410-415:
686 doi:10.1073/pnas.6.7.410. PMC 1084562.

687 Lotka, A.J. (1925). *Elements of Physical Biology*. Baltimore, USA: Williams and
688 Wilkins.

689 Lucas Jr., R. E. (1981). *Studies in business-cycle theory*. MIT Press, Cambridge.

690 Maddala, G.S. (1984) “Estimation of the Disequilibrium Model with Noisy Indicators”.
691 Manuscript, University of Florida.

692 Magill, M.J.P. (1979). The origin of cyclical motion in dynamic economic models.
693 *Journal of Economic Dynamics and Control* 1, 199-218.

694 Mesly, O., Chkir, I., and Racicot, F.-E., (2018). Predatory cells and puzzling financial
695 crises: Are toxic products good for the financial markets? *Economic Modelling* 78,
696 11-31.

697 Minsky, H. (1980). Capitalist Financial Processes and the Instability of Capitalism.
698 *Journal of Economic Issues* 14(2), 505-523.

699 Nicholson, G., Skelton, R., and Tarr, J-A. (2019). “An exploratory study of regulatory
700 failure in the Australian home mortgage market”, *The Journal of Consumer Affairs*
701 53 Issue 1, pp. 126–166.

702 Razin, A., and Rosefielde, S. (2011). "Currency and financial crises of the 1990s and
703 2000s." Working Paper 16754, National Bureau of Economic Research.

704 Reavis, C. (2012) "The Global Financial Crisis of 2008: The Role of Greed, Fear, and
705 Oligarchs", MIT Sloan Management Review, March 16, 2012.

706 Roy, S. and Kemme, D.M. (2012). "Causes of banking crises: Deregulation, credit booms
707 and asset bubbles, then and now", *International Review of Economics and Finance*
708 Vol. 24, pp. 270-294.

709 Ryoo, S. and Skott, P. (2008). Financialisation in Kaleckian economics with and without
710 labour constraints. *European Journal of Economics and Economic Policies* 5, 357-
711 386.

712 Samuelson, P. A. (1971). Generalized predator-prey oscillations in ecological and
713 economic equilibrium, *Proc. Nat. Acad. Sci. U. S. A.* 68, 980-983.

714 Schumpeter, J.A. (1934). *The theory of economic development*. Harvard University
715 Press, Cambridge.

716 Schumpeter, J.A. (1939). *Business cycles, a theoretical, historical and statistical analysis*
717 *of the capitalist process*. McGraw-Hill, New York

718 Schumpeter, J.A. (1950). *Capitalism, socialism and democracy*, 3rd Ed. Harper, New
719 York

720 Shiller, R.J. (2005). "Irrational exuberance", New York: Crown Publishing Group, a
721 division of Random House, Inc.

722 Shiller, R.J. (2012). "The subprime solution: How today's global financial crisis
723 happened, and what to do about it", Princeton, New Jersey: Princeton University
724 Press.

725 Shrum, L. J., Lowrey, T. M., Pandelaere, M., Ruvio, A. A., Gentina, E., Furchheim, P.,
726 Steinfield, L. (2014). Materialism: the good, the bad, and the ugly. *Journal of*
727 *Marketing Management* 30 (17–18), 1858–1881.

728 Song, F., and Thakor, A.V. (2010). Financial system architecture and the co-evolution of
729 banks and capital markets. *The Economic Journal* 120, 1021-1055.

730 Sorescu, A., Sorescu, S.M, Armstrong, W.J., and Devoldere, B. (2018). "Two centuries
731 of innovations and stock market bubbles", *Marketing Science* Vol. 37 Issue: 4, p.
732 507.

733 The Financial Inquiry Crisis Report (2011). [https://www.gpo.gov/fdsys/pkg/GPO-](https://www.gpo.gov/fdsys/pkg/GPO-FCIC/pdf/GPO-FCIC.pdf)
734 [FCIC/pdf/GPO-FCIC.pdf](https://www.gpo.gov/fdsys/pkg/GPO-FCIC/pdf/GPO-FCIC.pdf).

735 United Nations Office on Drugs and Crime (UNODC): www.unodc.org.

736 Volterra, V. (1926). Variazioni e fluttuazioni del numero d'individui in specie animali
737 conviventi. *Memoria della Reale Accademia Nazionale dei Lincei* 2, 31-113.

738 Volterra, V. (1931). Variations and fluctuations of the number of individuals in animal
739 species living together. In Chapman, R. N., *Animal Ecology*, 409-448. New York,
740 USA: McGraw-Hill.

741 Wang, A. (2009). "Interplay of investors' financial knowledge and risk taking", *Journal*
742 *of Behavioral Finance* Vol. 10 Issue: 4, pp. 204-213.

743 Warmath, D., and Zimmerman, D. (2019). "Financial literacy as more than knowledge:
744 the development of a formative scale through the lens of bloom's domains of
745 knowledge", *The Journal of Consumer Affairs* 53(4), pp. 1602-1629.

746 West, D., and Prendergast, G.P. (2009). "Advertising and promotions budgeting and the
747 role of risk", *European Journal of Marketing; Bradford* Vol. 43 Issue: 11/12, pp.
748 1457-1476.

749 White, W. R. (2009). "Should monetary policy Lean or Clean?" Federal Reserve Bank of
750 Dallas Globalization and Monetary Policy Institute Working Paper No. 3.

751 Wolfstetter, E. (1982). Fiscal policy and the classical growth cycle. *Journal of Economics*
752 42(4), 375-393.

753 World Bank World Bank, 2013:
754 <http://donnees.banquemondiale.org/indicateur/NY.GDP.MKTP.KD.ZG>.

755 Wyly, E.K., Atia, M., Lee, E., and Mendez, P. (2007). Race, Gender, and Statistical
756 Representation: Predatory Mortgage Lending and the US Community Reinvestment
757 Movement. *Environment and Planning A*, 39(9), 2139-2166.

758 Yoon, C., Laurent, G., Fung, H., Gonzalez, R., Gutchess, A., Hedden, T., and Skurnik, I.
759 (2005). Cognition, persuasion and decision making in older consumers. *Marketing*
760 *Letters* 16(3), 429-441.

761 Zhang, Y. (2012). Lotka-Volterra evolutionary model of China's incremental institutional
762 reform. *Applied Economics letters* 19, 367-371.

763

764 APPENDIX A – CALIBRATION OF THE BEST-FIT PARAMETERS

765
766
767 In order to calculate the best-fit parameters of the predator-prey model, we choose
768 the parameter values that minimize the sum of squared differences between the predator-
769 prey model and the GFC data (Hilborn and Mangel 1997).

770
771 To do so, we first standardize the timescale of the theoretical model to match the
772 timescale of the data. In our case, this is three time steps. This means that for each of our
773 simulations, we will run the model from time $t = 0$ to $t = 3$. Three time steps in the
774 theoretical model are equivalent to ten years of data (from 2003 to 2012). An example of
775 different timescales and how they line up with the data can be found in Figure S1.

776
777 Next, we select a plausible set of initial conditions for our state variables (number
778 of buyers and sellers at the beginning of the simulation or when time $t = 0$), and a scaling
779 factor (s_f) between the theoretical model results and the data. When we compare the
780 simulation results to the data, we divide all model outputs by the scaling factor (Figure
781 S1). This is similar to converting between scientific units, like kilograms to pounds.
782 Initial conditions and the scaling factor are determined via initial trial-and-error
783 simulations of the model.

784
785 = = =

786 INSERT FIGURE S1 ABOUT HERE

787 = = =

788
789 Then we simulate the system of equations in (1.1) over a broad range of parameter
790 values (r , α , β , and ν) (Figure S1b). For each simulation, we calculate the sum of squared
791 differences between the data and the closest corresponding values of the theoretical
792 model. In layman’s terms, it is squared difference or error between a data point and the
793 simulation, evaluated and summed over every observation in the data.

795 Mathematically, the sum of squared differences (*SSD*) can be calculated as,
796

$$797 \quad SSD = \sum_{n=1}^{39} \left(X_n - \frac{x_n}{s_f} \right)^2 + \sum_{n=1}^{39} \left(Y_n - \frac{y_n}{s_f} \right)^2$$

798
799 where $n = 1, 2, \dots, 39$ are observations from the data (39 quarterly data points from 2003
800 to 2012), X_n and Y_n are the number of potential buyers and sellers of subprime mortgages
801 in the data at observation n , x_n and y_n are the corresponding numbers of potential buyers
802 and sellers from the simulation at observation n , and s_f is the scaling factor (Figure S2).

803
804 = = =
805 INSERT FIGURE S2 ABOUT HERE
806 = = =

807
808 By minimizing the sum of squared differences, we minimize the error or
809 difference between the data and the theoretical model. We select the combination of
810 parameter values with the lowest sum of squared differences ($r = 0.05$, $\alpha = 0.07$, $\beta =$
811 0.129 , and $\nu = 0.689$).

812
813 Finally, using the best-fit parameter values derived from the previous step, we
814 vary the initial conditions and scaling factor, again minimizing the sum of squared
815 differences. The resulting scaling factor and initial conditions complete the best-fit
816 calibration ($s_f = 85$, 894.52 prey, 0.0131 predators).

817
818 The source code and sum of squared differences' data can be accessed online at
819 the Open Science Framework (osf.io/3924r) and will be made public after acceptance.

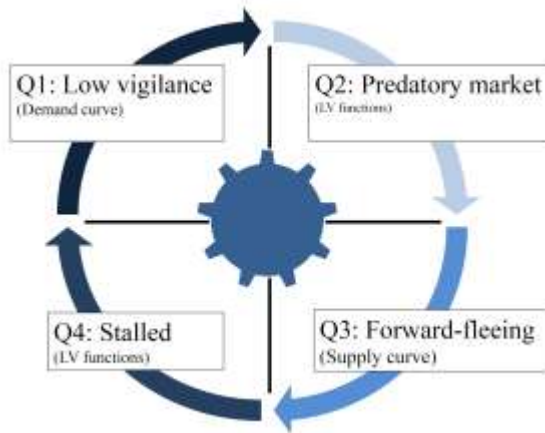
820

821

822

Figure 1. The wheel of misfortune.

823



824

825

<u>Quadrant</u>	<u>Phase</u>	<u>Time period in the GFC</u>
Q1	Low-vigilance	2000 to 2003
Q2	Predator-prey market	2003 to 2006
Q3	Forward-fleeing	2006 to 2009
Q4	Stalled	2009 to 2012

826

827

828

829

830

831

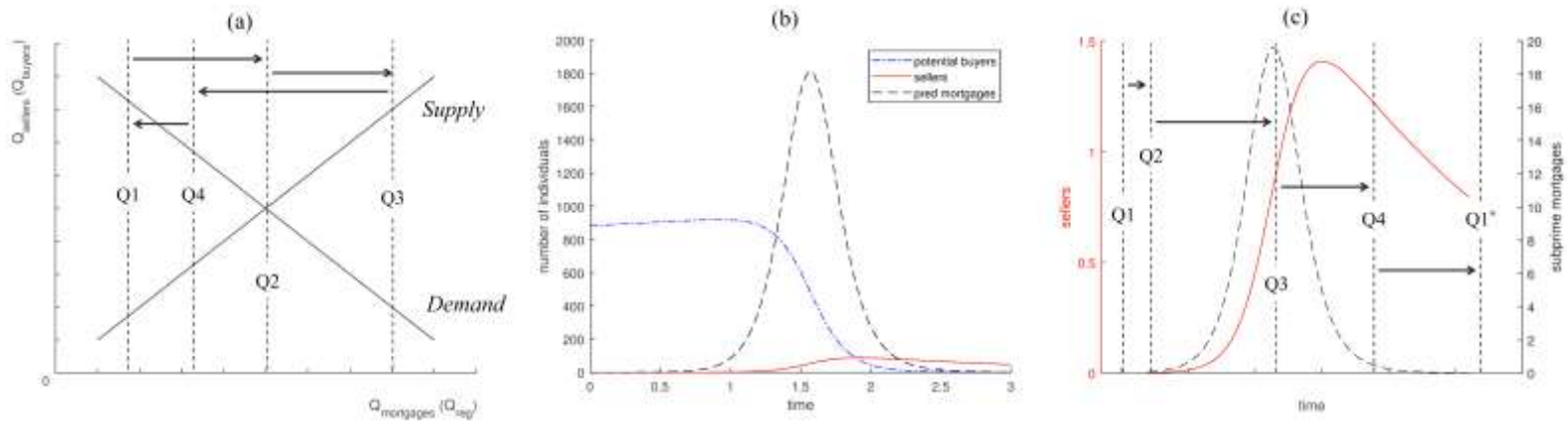
832

833

Notes: When there are few regulations and vigilance is low (Q1), the market is bound to attract astute financiers. With possibilities of quick and easy profits emerging in the market, potential prey abound. Predators and prey engage in LV relationships (Q2). Toxic products – subprime mortgages – are developed as the result of the opportunistic interactions between predators and prey whereby the latter suffer at the hands of the former, which eventually leads to consumers’ panic (Q3). Regulations set by regulators eventually adapt to the emergence of toxic products that cause market frictions (Q4).

834
835

Figure 2. Supply and consumers demand curves (a) and Lotka-Volterra predator-prey dynamics (b, c).

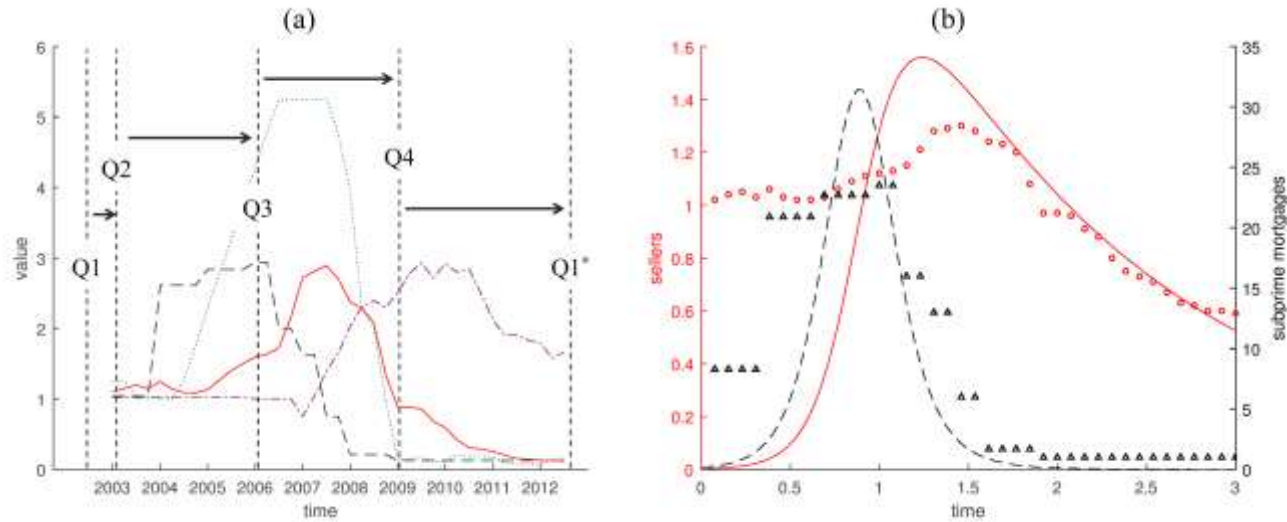


836
837
838
839
840
841
842
843
844
845

Notes: Supply (demand) curves express the relationship between sellers (buyers) of subprime mortgages and the number of sold subprime mortgages (government regulations). In (b, c), line style and color indicate the number of potential buyers (blue, dot-dashed), sellers of subprime mortgages (red, solid), and the number of sold subprime mortgages (black, dashed). In (c), as the true number of potential buyers of mortgages are unknown, we focus on the number of sellers of subprime mortgages and number of subprime mortgages sold. In order to readily compare to empirical data, the results in (c) are scaled from those in (b). The boundary of each quadrant of the wheel of misfortune is indicated by the vertical dotted lines; movement from one quadrant to another is illustrated by arrows.

846
847

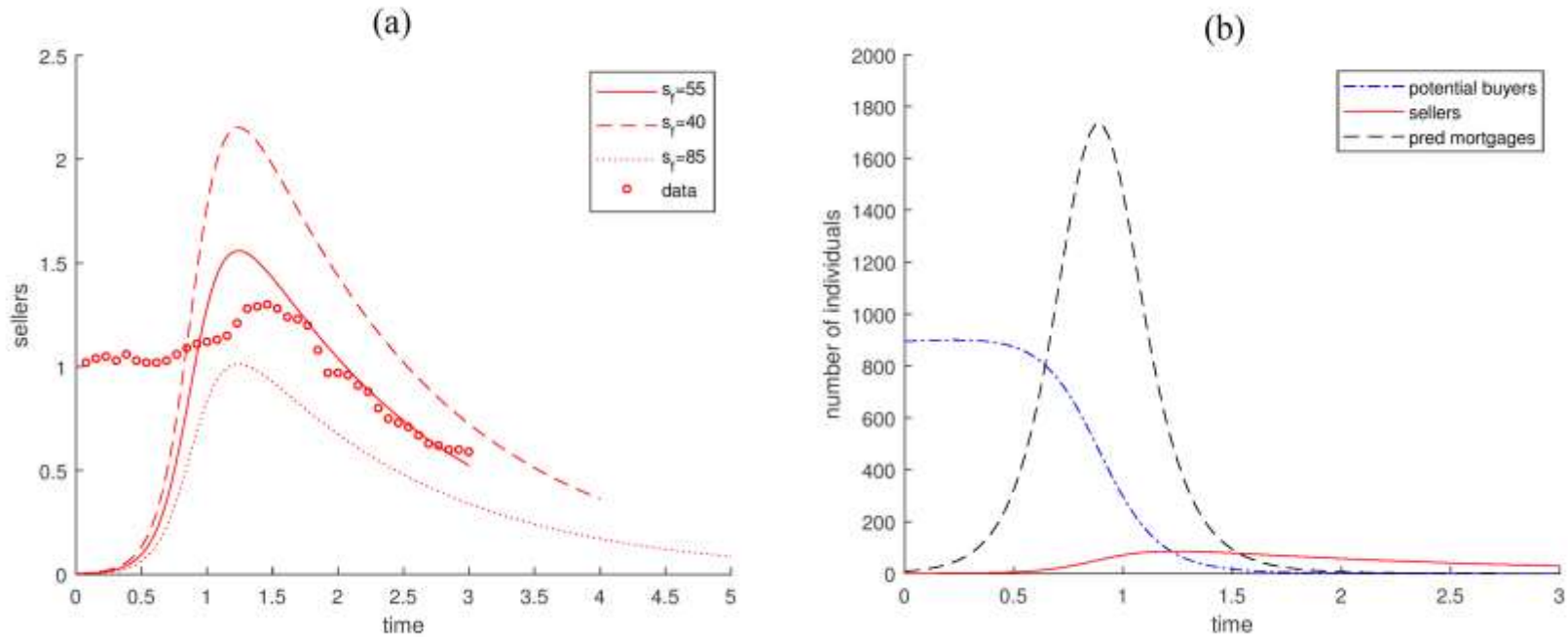
Figure 3. Market data extracted of the Global Financial Crisis (a) and a calibrated Lotka-Volterra predator-prey framework (b).



848
849
850
851
852
853
854
855
856
857
858

Notes: In (a) line style and color indicate market data: sellers of subprime mortgages (red, solid), number of sold predatory mortgages (black, dashed), number of home foreclosures (purple, dot-dashed), and federal interest rates (green, dotted). Note that the market has been transformed to improve readability (see the main text for details). The four quadrants of the wheel of misfortune are indicated by vertical lines; movement from one quadrant to another are illustrated by arrows. In (b) lines represent the output from a basic Lotka-Volterra model, overlaid by markers showing the *un-transformed* market data. Color and style indicate the variable: sellers of subprime mortgages (red, solid; circles) and the number of sold predatory mortgages (black, dashed; triangles). Note that the model output has been scaled to correspond to the data. Framework parameters are $r=0.05$, $\alpha=0.07$, $\beta=0.129$, and $\nu=0.689$. Initial conditions are 894.52 (prey, potential buyers) and 0.0131 (predators, sellers). For details on the calibration of the Lotka-Volterra model, see Appendix A.

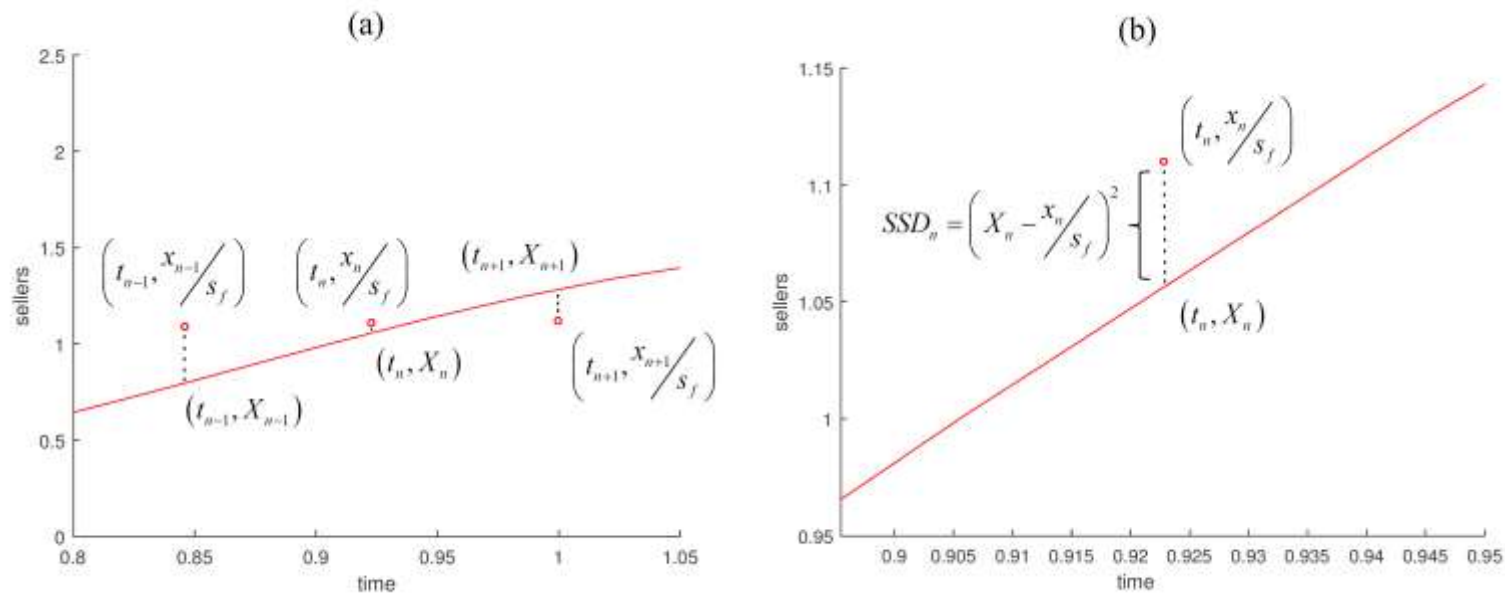
859 Figure S1. Comparison of simulation timescales and scaling factors (a) and an example of un-scaled simulation results of the
 860 Lotka-Volterra equations (b).
 861



862
 863
 864 *Notes:* In (a) market data are given by open circles, while simulation results are smooth curves or lines. Line style indicates a combination of
 865 scaling factors (s_f) and timescales of the simulation: $s_f = 55$ and timescale of 3 time steps (solid), $s_f = 40$ and timescale of 4 time steps
 866 (dashed), and $s_f = 85$ and timescale of 5 time steps (dotted). For the sake of readability, we focus on the number of sellers of subprime
 867 mortgages. For comparison, panel (b) illustrates un-scaled simulation results for all market agents. Color and style indicate the variable:
 868 sellers of subprime mortgages (red, solid), the number of sold predatory mortgages (black, dashed), and the number of potential buyers (blue,
 869 dot-dashed).
 870

871
872

Figure S2. Visual example of the sum of squared differences.



873
874

875 *Notes:* Data (open circles) and theoretical model results (solid lines) depict a subset (zoomed-in view) of the data/simulation in Figure S1.
876 For the sake of visibility, we focus on the number of sellers of predatory mortgages. In (a) and (b), we have added dotted lines to show the
877 error between the data and the simulation results, and (x,y) coordinates for each point in the data and its corresponding point in the theoretical
878 model output. The symbol and subscript t_n represents the time at observation n , X_n is the number of sellers in the data at observation n , x_n is
879 the corresponding quantity of sellers from the simulation at observation n , and s_f is the scaling factor.