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Different no more: Country spreads in advanced and emerging economies

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Different no more: Country spreads
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by

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Different no more: Country spreads in advanced and emerging economies*

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January 2020

Abstract

Interest-rate spreads fluctuate widely across time and countries. We illustrate this on the basis of about 3,100 quarterly observations for 21 advanced and 17 emerging economies since the early 1990s. Prior to the financial crisis, spread fluctuations in advanced economies are an order of magnitude smaller than in emerging economies. After 2008 their behavior has largely converged along a number of dimensions. We also provide evidence on the transmission of spread shocks and find it similar across sample periods and country groups. The importance of spread shocks as a source of output fluctuations in advanced economies has increased after 2008.

Keywords: Country spreads, Country risk, Interest-rate shocks, Financial crisis,
Business cycle, Spread shocks, Average treatment effect

JEL-Codes: G15, F41, E32

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1 Introduction

The global financial crisis is having a lasting impact—on many economies but also on economics as a science. The crisis gave rise to new ideas about what drives the business cycle and revived old ones. Perhaps unsurprisingly, a major research effort during the last decade has been directed towards appropriately capturing the role of financial frictions (for instance, Gilchrist and Zakrajšek 2012; Jermann and Quadrini 2012; Kaplan et al. 2018). Still, prior to the crisis, a specific type of financial disturbance had already been well-established as an important source of the business cycle in emerging market economies: interest-rate shocks (Neumeyer and Perri 2005; Uribe and Yue 2006). According to this earlier research, interest-rate shocks and, in particular, shocks to the “country spread” matter a great deal for emerging markets but are negligible in case of advanced economies. This difference across country groups is plausible because, prior to the crisis, business cycles in emerging markets have been considerable more volatile than in advanced economies (Aguiar and Gopinath 2007).

In this paper, we ask whether country spreads still behave differently in emerging and advanced economies. We answer this question as we explore a data set with a broad country coverage that also includes a large number of observations for the period before and after the global financial crisis. A first look at the data motivates the focus of our investigation. The (black) solid line in Figure 1 shows the average country spread for 38 countries for the period since the early 1990s until 2018Q4. Taken at face value, there is no dramatic change after 2008 as far as the level and the volatility of this time series is concerned. However, the overall series masks large heterogeneity in the underlying sample. For this reason, we also show in the same figure distinct time series for the average spread in 17 emerging economies (red dotted line) and 21 advanced economies (blue dashed line). We observe that prior to 2008, the average spread was very low and stable in advanced economies and very high and volatile in emerging economies. After 2008, the average spread in advanced and emerging economies behaves much more similar.

In the first part of the paper, we explain the construction of our data set and put forward a number of stylized facts. Throughout, we build on and extend a unique data set originally assembled in Born et al. (2020). It includes quarterly observations for the spread, output, as well as a number of key macroeconomic and political indicators for 38 countries. In order to classify an economy as “advanced” and “emerging” we follow IMF (2015). In total, there are more than 3,000 quarterly observations in our sample. We document the variation of spreads across time and across countries on the basis of these observations.

We find five facts particularly noteworthy. First, before 2008 the mean, the median, and the standard deviation of the spread are at least 10 times higher in emerging economies than in advanced economies. Second, after 2008 the mean and the median spread level in emerging economies are now only twice as large as in advanced economies, due to both an increase in the average spread in advanced economies and a decline in emerging economies compared to the pre-2008 period. The volatility of the spread is basically the same across country groups after 2008. Third, consistent with earlier research, we find that before 2008 the spread is counter-cyclical in emerging economies

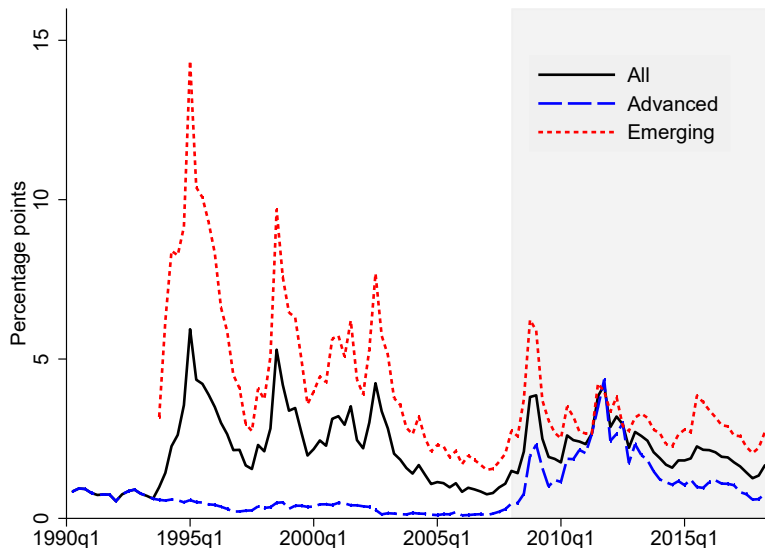


Figure 1: Average country spread for 38 countries (black solid line), 21 advanced economies (blue dashed line), and 17 emerging economies (red dotted line). Country-group classification based on IMF (2015). Data sources: see Section 2.1 below.

and pro-cyclical in advanced economies. After 2008 it is counter-cyclical for both country groups. Fourth, the variation of spreads is not systematically related to the level of public debt, neither before nor after 2008. Fifth, and last, we observe that while before 2008 the variation of spreads is not systematically related to the exchange rate regime, after 2008 it is systematically higher the less flexible the exchange rate regime is. We verify that these facts are insensitive to the particular break date in 2008Q1. They also obtain once we split the sample in either 2007Q1 or 2009Q1.

These patterns raise interesting questions regarding causality. The country spread is certainly endogenous to the fundamentals of a country—a point stressed by Uribe and Yue (2006) in light of the analysis of Neumeyer and Perri (2005) and a central theme in the literature on sovereign default (e.g., Arellano 2008; Eaton and Gersovitz 1981). Yet, spreads also vary for reasons that are exogenous to country-specific developments. One possibility is that global factors cause the spread to vary such as, for instance, changes in risk aversion or the global financial cycle (Longstaff et al. 2011; Rey 2013). This has been documented in particular in the context of emerging market economies (Mauro et al. 2002). A second source of spread variations unrelated to fundamentals is the possibility that spreads shift due to market sentiment or coordination failure as a result of which changes in expectations may become self-fulfilling (e.g., Calvo 1988; Cole and Kehoe 2000; Lorenzoni and Werning 2019). Either way, the notion of a “spread shock” is economically meaningful: these are fluctuations of the spread that are exogenous to the fundamentals of the specific economy under consideration.

In order to identify the dynamic effects of spread shocks, we rely on the causal model by Rosenbaum and Rubin (1983), recently popularized in macroeconomics (e.g. Acemoglu et al. 2019; Angrist and Kuersteiner 2011; Kuvshinov and Zimmermann 2019). In a nutshell, the idea is

to measure the causal effect of a “treatment” by appropriately controlling for the fact that the probability of treatment may be endogenous. For our application, we consider the possibility that countries are treated with a large spread increase and define as treatment an increase of the spread by more than one standard deviation and, at the same time, by at least 25 basis points. There are 230 such treatments in our sample. Because they involve large increases in the spread, they are more likely to be caused by shifts in market sentiments or global factors. However, such treatments may still be an endogenous, possibly non-linear, response to changes in fundamentals. To account for “selection into treatment”, we follow Angrist et al. (2016) and estimate a logit model which provides us with the propensity score, that is, the probability of a country to be treated, given its fundamentals at a specific point in time. In a final step, we follow Jordà and Taylor (2016) and employ the augmented inverse propensity score weighted (AIPW) estimator that uses the propensity score to re-randomize observations in order to establish the causal effect of spread shocks. To shed light on the transmission of spread shocks we consider the Average Treatment Effect (ATE) on a large set of outcome variables, both for emerging and advanced economies and for the period before and after 2008.

Our main finding is that the transmission of a given spread shock is fairly similar in advanced and emerging economies—both before and after 2008. The spread increases by about 40 basis points in response to a “treatment”. Output and its components contract gradually over a two-year period. The maximum effect on output is a contraction of about 0.3 percent. Importantly, the adjustment takes place in an almost identical manner across country groups. The same holds, minor differences notwithstanding, for fiscal policy. Government consumption, in particular, is fairly unresponsive, while tax revenues decline, and the public deficit-to-GDP ratio rises somewhat. Moreover, we find that the stock market contracts sharply, the real exchange rate depreciates, and bank lending contracts again in both emerging and advanced economies. This result is consistent with the notion that positive spread shocks result in capital outflows. We find that this effect is considerably stronger in emerging economies—suggesting a higher vulnerability to international capital flows in line with the received wisdom. Consistent with this interpretation, monetary policy responds more aggressively in emerging economies. It raises short-term interest rates strongly. In this regard, we do observe that advanced economies behave differently. There is not much of a response by monetary policy, both before and after 2008. Our results are robust across a number of specifications, including alternative break dates in 2007 or 2009 and a model with a larger conditioning set of variables accounting for potential endogeneity of treatment. We also consider a parsimonious model of the spread that identifies the effect of spread shocks (both positive and negative) in the spirit of Uribe and Yue (2006). Using this approach we obtain results that are fairly similar to the ATE in the baseline model.

A key finding of our analysis is that there is almost no change before and after 2008 as far as the transmission mechanism is concerned. This suggests that the change in the unconditional correlation pattern reflects a change in the incidence of shocks. We explore this issue by means of a forecast error variance decomposition. For this purpose we split the sample once more into advanced

and emerging economies and the sample period before and after 2008. Consistent with our earlier findings, we find that, on average across horizons, spread shocks have become more important for explaining output fluctuations in advanced economies since 2008. Before 2008 the contribution of spread shocks in advanced economies amounted to 4 percent as opposed to 11 percent in emerging economies. For the period after 2008, the corresponding values are 7 and 11 percent instead, with the largest remaining difference occurring at very short horizons.

Following Neumeyer and Perri (2005) and Uribe and Yue (2006) several studies have focused on the role of interest rate shocks for the business cycle in emerging economies. Akinci (2013) shows that country spreads are a key source of fluctuations in emerging economies and, in turn, caused by global financial risk shocks. García-Cicco et al. (2010) perform a model-based analysis and find that endogenous changes in country premiums are essential to account for business cycles in emerging market economies. Further research has looked into the importance of interest-rate uncertainty as source of business cycle fluctuation in emerging economies (Born and Pfeifer 2014; Fernández-Villaverde et al. 2011). There is also model-based work that provides microfoundations for interest-rate fluctuations (e.g. Brei and Buzaushina 2015; Fernández and Gulán 2015). Corsetti et al. (2013) and Bocola (2016) put forward models where sovereign risk spills over to the private sector, affecting financing condition adversely. Monacelli et al. (2018) investigate the effect of interest rate shocks on productivity and document differences for emerging and advanced economies. However, their data for advanced economies is limited to the period before 2008.

Furthermore, recent work by Faust et al. (2013), Gilchrist and Mojon (2018), and Gilchrist et al. (2009) has highlighted the predictive role of credit spreads for real activity in advanced economies, notably the US and selected countries of the euro area. In this case, aggregate spread measures are constructed on the basis of individual bond spreads within countries, while our analysis is based on the cross-country spread. Likewise, a recent contribution by Bocola and Dovis (2019) quantifies the role of self-fulfilling expectations during the euro area crisis. Using an estimated structural model they find that non-fundamental risk accounts for 13 percent of the variation in the Italian spread.

Lastly, recent work by Passari and Rey (2015) and Miranda-Agrippino and Rey (2019) provides evidence that spread fluctuations are caused by global financial conditions. Specifically, contractionary US monetary policy shocks are shown to impact global financial conditions and, as a result, various spread measures increase around the globe. International lending contracts because of a deleveraging by global financial intermediaries.

The remainder of the paper is organized as follows. Section 2 provides details on our data set and establishes basic facts about the country spread. What sets our analysis apart from earlier work is both the scope of our data and our focus on the difference across country groups and sample periods. Section 3 introduces the empirical strategy on which we rely to identify spread shocks and their effects. It introduces our measure of treatment and provides a sense of how likely it is for countries to be treated given their fundamentals. We show impulse responses to a spread shock in Section 4, shedding light on the transmission mechanism. We also report the results of a forecast error variance decomposition. A final section concludes.

2 Stylized facts

Our analysis is based on quarterly observations for macroeconomic, fiscal, and financial market variables. Most importantly, our dataset includes country spreads of interest rates. Our sample covers 38 emerging and advanced economies and runs from the early 1990s up to the end of 2018. We build on and extend the database assembled in earlier work (Born et al. 2020). In what follows, we first explain briefly the construction of the country spread and characterize its behavior. Afterwards, we provide a number of facts concerning the co-movement of the country spread and the fundamentals of a country.

2.1 Country spreads

We follow Uribe and Yue (2006) and measure the country spread as the difference between foreign-currency-denominated government or government-guaranteed bonds and risk-free bonds in the same currency. As a result, changes in the spread reflect changes in default risk and/or risk aversion (rather than expectations about inflation and/or expected currency depreciation). As the construction of the spread is mostly based on liquid securities with comparable maturities, it is also unlikely to be driven by liquidity or term premia. We exclude default episodes from our sample.¹ Throughout our analysis, we focus on the spread rather than the level of the (real) interest rate, because we are interested in differential developments across advanced and emerging economies—as opposed to movements in the underlying risk-free interest rate that is common to both country groups.

As stressed by Neumeier and Perri (2005), interest rates on government debt are not identical to those of the private sector, but there is generally a very strong co-movement. Like Uribe and Yue (2006), we rely on the JPMorgan Emerging Market Bond Index (EMBI) data set, but also on a number of additional sources, as explained in detail in earlier work (Born et al. 2020). In what follows, we pursue the same approach as in Born et al. (2020), but update the data to include observations up to 2018Q4. In total, there are 1728 country-quarter observations for advanced economies and 1433 for emerging economies. Table A.4 in the appendix provides details on the sample coverage and descriptive statistics at the country level.

In what follows, we compute a number of statistics, both for the period before and after 2008. Specifically, the first sample period ends in 2007Q4, the second starts in 2008Q1, that is, it includes the year 2008. We verify that our results are qualitatively unaffected when we use 2007Q1 or 2009Q1 as alternative break dates.

In Table 1 we report a number of summary statistics for the spread in advanced and emerging economies. The statistics in the left panel refer to the level of the spread measured in percentage points, while the right panel refers to the quarterly change of the spread measured in basis points. A number of observations stand out. First, before 2008 advanced and emerging economies exhibited very different average levels of the spread. In this case, both the mean and the median are more

¹ Default episodes are: Greece (2012Q1-2012Q2, 2012Q4), Argentina (2001Q4-2005Q2, 2014Q3-2016Q2), Ecuador (1999Q3-2000Q3, 2008Q4-2009Q2), Uruguay (2003Q2) and Peru (2000Q3). This classification follows Standard & Poor's (see Witte et al. 2018, Table 13).

Table 1: Descriptive statistics of the country spread before and after 2008Q1

| | Before 2008 | | After 2008 | | Before 2008 | | After 2008 | |
|--------------|---|-------|------------|-------|--|----------|------------|---------|
| | Adv. | Em. | Adv. | Em. | Adv. | Em. | Adv. | Em. |
| | Spread level s_{it} (percentage points) | | | | Spread change Δs_{it} (basis points) | | | |
| Mean | 0.33 | 4.25 | 1.50 | 3.09 | -0.24 | -3.45 | 2.72 | 2.71 |
| Median | 0.25 | 2.84 | 0.70 | 2.39 | -0.30 | -7.38 | -0.95 | -4.88 |
| Std. Dev. | 0.32 | 3.94 | 2.22 | 2.29 | 12.77 | 160.07 | 69.49 | 98.87 |
| Min | -0.14 | 0.15 | -0.06 | 0.41 | -99.08 | -952.59 | -314.45 | -854.70 |
| Max | 2.20 | 24.22 | 24.56 | 19.50 | 97.50 | 1 039.00 | 783.21 | 795.84 |
| Kurtosis | 10.95 | 6.42 | 26.61 | 11.56 | 20.43 | 12.86 | 29.87 | 20.76 |
| Skewness | 2.34 | 1.74 | 3.93 | 2.46 | 0.10 | 1.13 | 2.66 | 0.91 |
| Observations | 870 | 719 | 888 | 737 | 843 | 698 | 885 | 735 |

Notes: Level of spread measured in percentage points (left panel) and quarterly change in basis points (right panel).

than 10 times higher in emerging economies than in advanced economies. Likewise, the standard deviation is about 10 times higher. However, before 2008, as the mean spread change in column 6 shows, emerging market spreads were on average on a downward trajectory. Second, for the period after 2008 we find that the spread behaves much more similar in the two country groups. The mean and median spread level in emerging economies are now only bigger by a factor of 2, due to both an increase in the average spread in advanced economies and a decrease in emerging economies compared to the previous period. For the spread level, we can reject the hypothesis that the mean is the same across country groups before and after 2008, on the basis of both a parametric two-sample t-test and the non-parametric Mann-Whitney-U test. For the spread change, only the Mann-Whitney-U test rejects the null.² After 2008, the standard deviation and the maximum realization have largely converged to a level previously only reached by emerging economies. The same holds true for average spread changes and their standard deviation. We can reject the null of equal standard deviations for the spread level before 2008, but not after 2008 ($p=0.3413$). However, for the spread change we can reject the null of equal standard deviations for both sample periods. Importantly, these changes are not driven by individual countries, but are rather broad-based, as an inspection of Table A.4 and A.5 in the appendix makes clear. For instance, in the advanced economy group, the standard deviation of the spread increased after 2008 not only by a factor 9 in Greece but also in Germany. Similarly, the maximum spread changes increased considerably in all advanced economies. We obtain very similar results if we consider alternative break dates in 2007Q1 or 2009Q1, see Tables A.2 and A.3 in the appendix.

As a way to visualize the change in the spread distribution over time, we show kernel density estimates in Figure 2. Here, the top panels show the distribution of the spread measured in levels, the bottom panels show the distribution of the quarterly change. We once more contrast data for

²The t-test with its clearly violated assumption of normality cannot reject the null of equal means for both sample periods. This is unsurprising given the large underlying standard deviations.

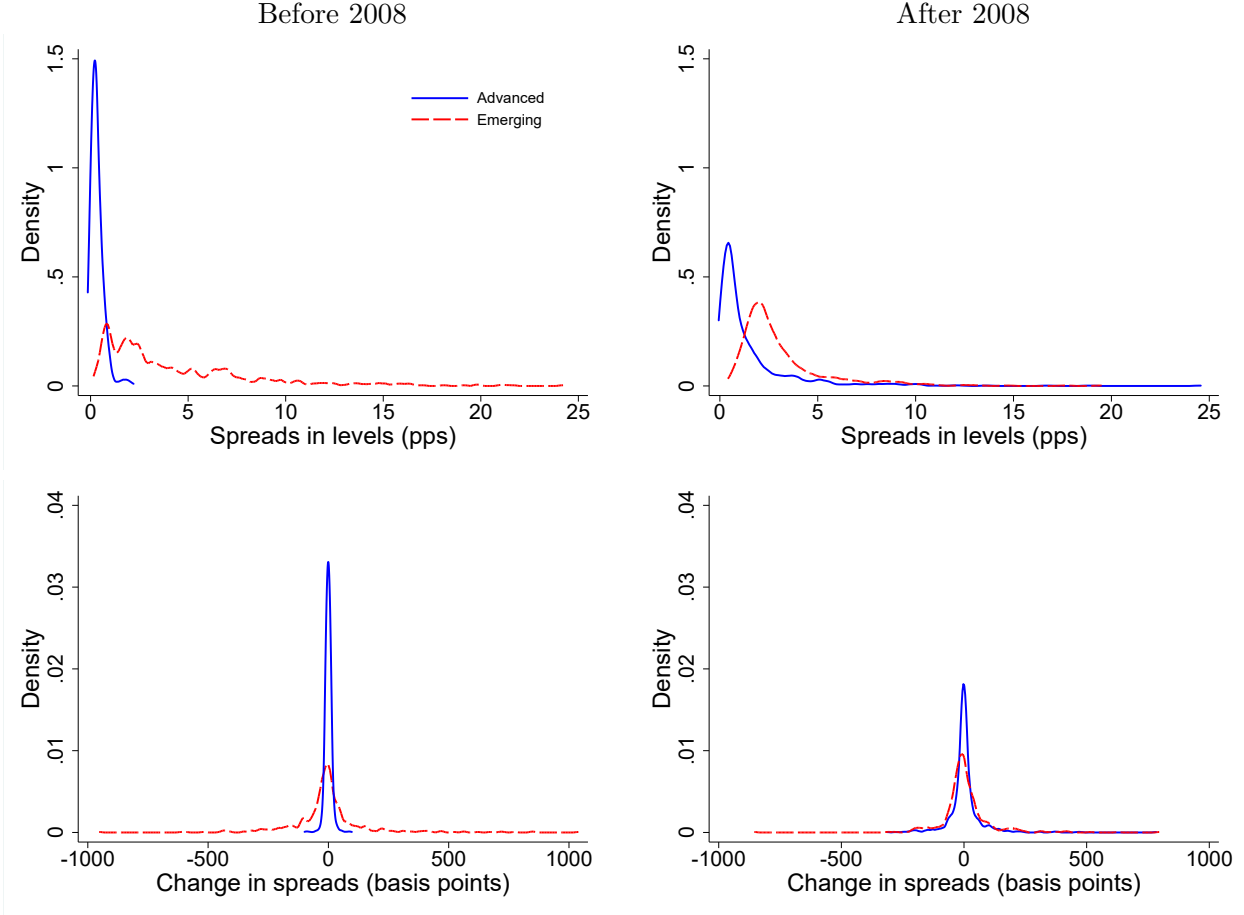


Figure 2: Distribution of the spread in levels (top) and in changes (bottom) before 2008 (left) and after 2008 (right). Kernel density estimate for advanced economies (blue solid line) and emerging economies (red dashed line); spread level measured in percentage points, change of spread in basis points. The kernel density estimate employs an Epanechnikov kernel with bandwidth 8 for the spread change and 0.15/0.25 (before/after 2008) for the spread level.

the period before and after 2008, shown in the left and right column, respectively. In each panel, the solid line displays the distribution for advanced economies and the dashed line represents the distribution for emerging economies. We again note that the two country groups are very different before 2008 and much more similar in terms of their distribution after 2008. Before 2008, the mass of the observations for advanced economy spreads is close to zero, both in terms of the level and the change. This changes considerably after 2008: the distribution becomes wider and less concentrated around zero—a feature formerly characterizing the distribution for emerging economies. Turning to higher moments, we find the distribution to be right-skewed for all time periods, country groups, and both spread measures. Given that spreads are bounded from below, this is unsurprising. But it is noteworthy that the skewness has increased after 2008 and more so for advanced economies (see also Table 1). We also find the distribution of spread changes to be leptokurtic, that is, the

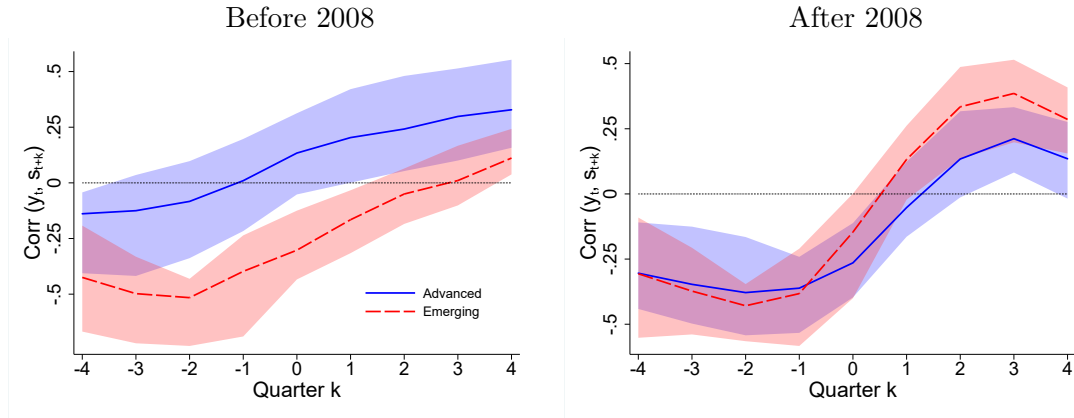


Figure 3: Cross-correlation functions for output y_t and spread s_{t+k} , measured in levels at lead/lag $k = 0, \dots, \pm 4$ before 2008 (left panel) and after 2008. The blue solid line depicts the average correlation for advanced economies, the red dashed line for emerging economies. Shaded areas indicates 25% and 75% interquartile range in the respective country group. Output is HP-filtered with $\lambda = 1600$.

mass of observed changes is clustered around 0 with more extreme observations in both tails of the distribution (compared to a Gaussian distribution with the same first two moments). While positive excess kurtosis (that is >3) is pervasive for both country groups in both sample periods, it is larger to begin with and also increased more for advanced economies (see also Table 1).

2.2 Country spreads and fundamentals: co-movement

Neumeyer and Perri (2005) highlight a striking pattern regarding the cyclicity of interest rates. On the basis of data for the period up to the early 2000s for five emerging and five advanced economies, they show that the contemporaneous co-movement of output and real interest rates at business cycle frequencies is negative for emerging economies, but positive for advanced economies. Fernández and Gulán (2015) report similar results when considering data up to 2010Q3. We revisit these findings on the basis of our data set, which includes more countries and more recent observations after the global financial crisis. Figure 3 displays the cross-correlation between the cyclical component of output and the spread.

Again, we show results for the period before 2008 in the left panel and results for the period after 2008 in the right panel. For the period before 2008 (left panel), we obtain the same pattern as Neumeyer and Perri (2005) and Fernández and Gulán (2015) for output and real interest rates. In particular, for emerging economies the contemporaneous correlation is counter-cyclical. The correlation becomes stronger (weaker) for further leads (lags). Instead, in advanced economies the contemporaneous correlation is slightly positive, that is, the spread is mildly pro-cyclical. This pattern only changes after 2008, when the contemporaneous correlation turns counter-cyclical for advanced economies as well. As the right panel of the figure shows, the cross-correlation function

Table 2: Unconditional relationship between output and spread

| | Advanced economies | | | | Emerging economies | | | | |
|----------------|--------------------|--------------|-------------|--------------|--------------------|--------------|-------------|--------------|-------|
| | Before 2008 | | After 2008 | | Before 2008 | | After 2008 | | |
| | $\sigma(Y)$ | $\rho(Y, s)$ | $\sigma(Y)$ | $\rho(Y, s)$ | $\sigma(Y)$ | $\rho(Y, s)$ | $\sigma(Y)$ | $\rho(Y, s)$ | |
| Australia | 1.31 | -0.06 | 0.49 | -0.30 | Argentina | 3.14 | -0.42 | 3.32 | -0.26 |
| Austria | 1.00 | 0.27 | 1.29 | -0.07 | Brazil | 1.05 | -0.10 | 2.00 | -0.55 |
| Belgium | 0.99 | -0.11 | 0.93 | 0.02 | Bulgaria | 2.00 | 0.90 | 1.40 | 0.37 |
| Czech Republic | 1.68 | -0.04 | 1.75 | -0.13 | Chile | 1.75 | -0.37 | 1.77 | 0.00 |
| Denmark | 1.36 | -0.08 | 1.32 | -0.20 | Colombia | 1.40 | -0.28 | 1.16 | -0.01 |
| Finland | 1.99 | -0.37 | 2.18 | -0.07 | Croatia | 1.59 | -0.34 | 1.96 | -0.41 |
| France | 0.93 | 0.35 | 0.93 | -0.02 | Ecuador | 1.70 | -0.41 | 1.95 | -0.38 |
| Germany | 1.21 | 0.07 | 1.64 | -0.18 | El Salvador | 1.12 | -0.62 | 1.14 | -0.01 |
| Greece | 1.30 | 0.04 | 2.46 | -0.75 | Hungary | 1.23 | 0.03 | 1.67 | -0.42 |
| Ireland | 2.38 | -0.07 | 4.11 | -0.22 | Malaysia | 1.45 | -0.28 | 1.66 | -0.40 |
| Italy | 1.05 | 0.03 | 1.42 | 0.04 | Mexico | 2.47 | -0.39 | 1.70 | -0.22 |
| Latvia | 4.05 | 0.54 | 4.44 | -0.28 | Peru | 1.62 | -0.12 | 1.41 | 0.13 |
| Lithuania | 3.03 | 0.56 | 4.11 | -0.34 | Poland | 1.41 | -0.06 | 1.02 | 0.19 |
| Netherlands | 1.30 | 0.64 | 1.22 | -0.11 | South Africa | 1.60 | -0.43 | 1.13 | 0.21 |
| Portugal | 1.04 | 0.63 | 1.55 | -0.13 | Thailand | 3.20 | -0.81 | 2.13 | -0.43 |
| Slovakia | 2.34 | -0.04 | 2.07 | -0.21 | Turkey | 3.57 | -0.57 | 3.44 | -0.20 |
| Slovenia | 1.60 | 0.14 | 2.30 | -0.40 | Uruguay | 3.71 | -0.88 | 1.23 | -0.13 |
| Spain | 0.96 | 0.11 | 1.49 | -0.46 | | | | | |
| Sweden | 1.30 | 0.04 | 1.80 | -0.48 | | | | | |
| United Kingdom | 1.27 | 0.03 | 1.26 | -0.69 | | | | | |
| United States | 1.34 | | 1.05 | -0.58 | | | | | |
| Total | 1.63 | 0.01 | 2.17 | -0.17 | Total | 2.22 | -0.20 | 1.86 | -0.10 |

Notes: Standard deviation of log output Y and contemporaneous correlation with the spread level s in advanced and emerging economies before 2008 and after 2008. GDP is measured in percentage deviation from HP-trend. In the last line we report the equally-weighted country average.

now exhibits a similar S-shaped pattern for both emerging and advanced economies. We again obtain very similar results if we consider alternative break dates, see Figures A.1 and A.2 in the appendix.

In Table 2, we report more details on a country-by-country basis. For each advanced economy (left panel) we report standard deviations of output deviations from its trend and the spread (in levels) for the period before and after 2008. The same statistics are reported for each emerging economy in our sample (right panel). The table shows that the convergence of the correlation pattern in advanced economies to that formerly only found in emerging economies is not driven by specific countries: the contemporaneous correlation of output and the spread declined in all advanced economies, except for Belgium, Finland, and Italy.

Next, we turn to the co-movement between the spread and the debt-to-GDP ratio shown in Figure 4. As before, the left and right panels display data for the periods before and after 2008, respectively. The top row refers to the level of the spread, the bottom row to the change. Blue plus signs indicate observations for advanced economies, while red circles refer to observations for

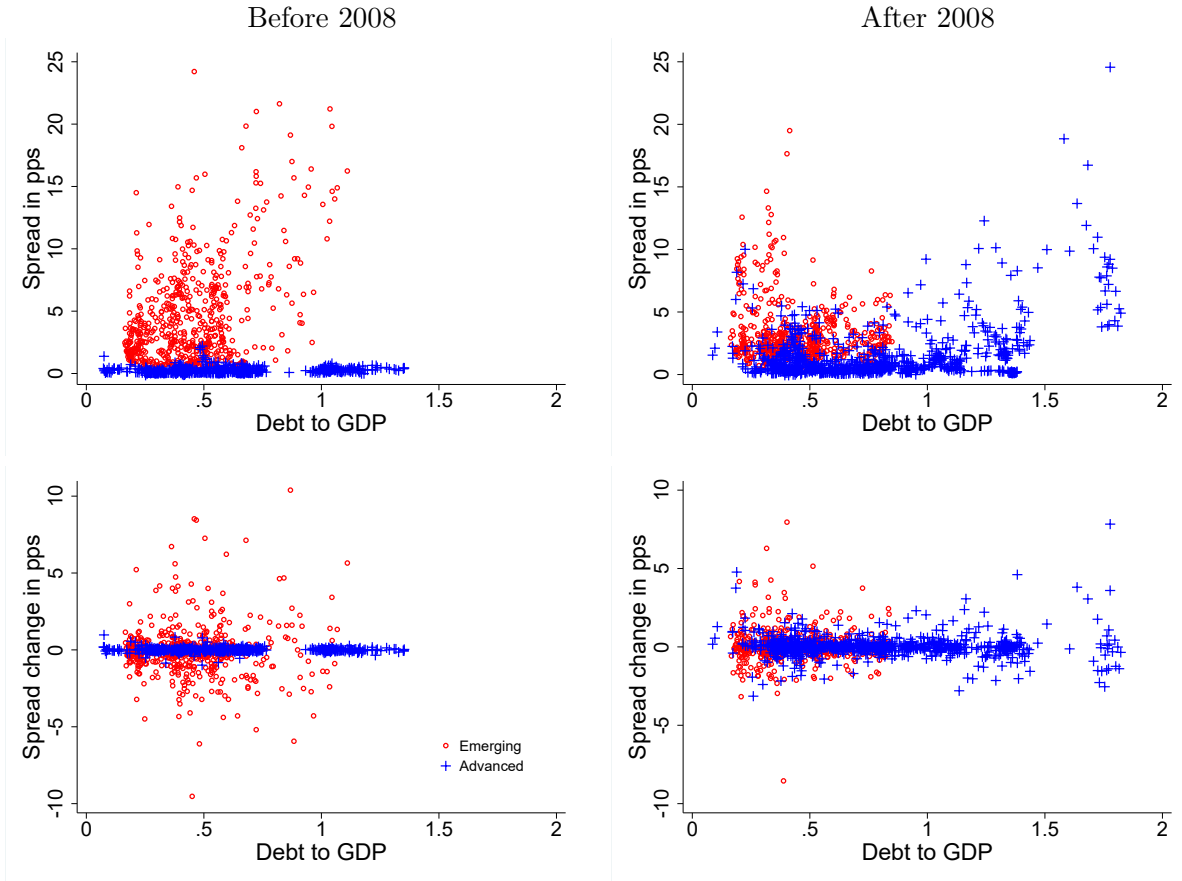


Figure 4: Spread and debt-to-GDP ratio. Top: spread measured in levels (percentage points). Bottom: quarterly spread changes (in percentage points). Blue plus signs indicate observations for advanced economies and red circles indicate observations for emerging economies. Public debt-to-GDP ratio refers to general or central government (external) debt relative to GDP/GNI.

emerging economies. For the period before 2008, depicted in the left panels, we observe distinct patterns for emerging and advanced economies. The debt-to-GDP ratio varies considerably in both country groups, from 7 to 135 percent in advanced economies and from 17 to 111 percent in emerging economies. Yet, even though the range of the debt-to-GDP ratio observed in both country groups is similar, the spread in levels (top left panel) seems to be positively associated with the level of debt in emerging economies, but not much in advanced economies. Again, we observe a notable change for the period after 2008 (top right panel): debt-to-GDP ratios in advanced economies now reach considerably higher levels (of up to 182 percent). The opposite holds true for emerging economies, where the largest observation now only reaches 85 percent of GDP. Moreover, after 2008, the spread in levels exhibits a positive comovement with debt in advanced economies as well. For spread changes (bottom panels) we observe that they differ systematically across country groups, but hardly with the level of debt. After 2008, the range of spread changes appears still largely unrelated to the level of debt.

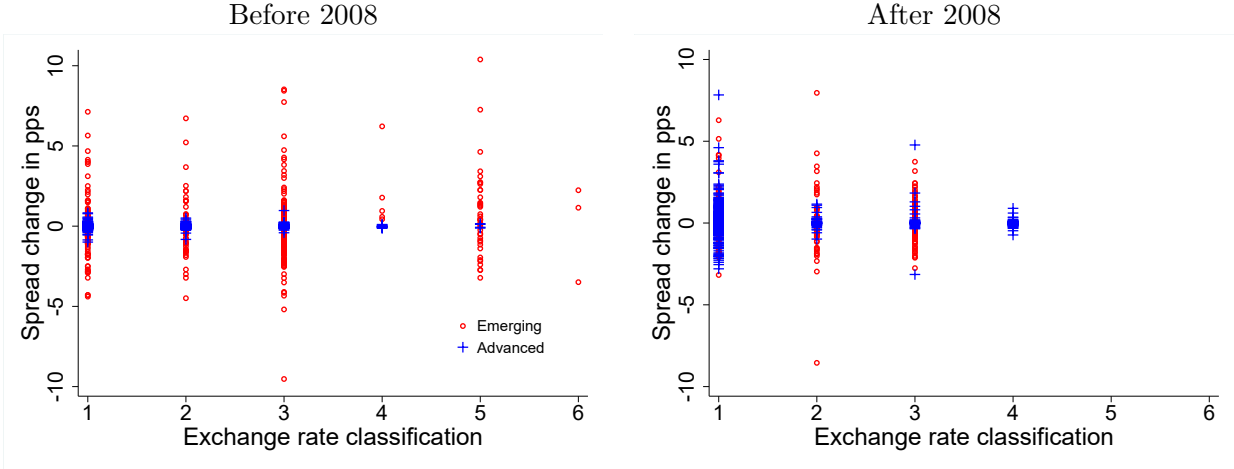


Figure 5: Spread change versus exchange rate classification before 2008 (left panel) and after 2008 (right panel). Blue plus signs indicate observations for advanced economies and red circles indicate observations for emerging economies. The exchange rate regime classification follows the coarse classification of Ilzetzki et al. (2019): 1 denotes peg, 2 crawling peg, 3 managed float, 4 freely floating, 5 freely falling, and 6 denotes dual market. After 2008, there are no observations of categories 5 and 6 in our sample.

Finally, we investigate how spread changes vary across exchange rate regimes. For this purpose, we rely on the coarse regime classification of Ilzetzki et al. (2019). It allows for six categories, which feature increasingly flexible exchange rate regimes: an exchange rate peg (1), a crawling peg (2), a managed float (3), a freely floating exchange rate (4), a freely falling exchange rate (5), and a dual market (6). We order these categories from left to right on the horizontal axis in Figure 5, again for the period before 2008 (left panel) and after 2008 (right panel). We measure the quarterly change in the spread along the vertical axis and use red circles for observations for emerging economies and blue plus signs for advanced economies. Again, we observe that the basic patterns in the data change across the two sample periods. Prior to 2008 there is no apparent systematic relation between spread changes and exchange rate regimes. While spreads generally vary little for advanced economies, the variation in spread changes does not differ much across exchange rate regimes in emerging economies. In contrast, after 2008 variation in spread changes is systematically higher, the less flexible the exchange rate regime. This finding is consistent with the notion that some of the variation in spreads is due to self-fulfilling expectations which, in theory, are more likely to take place if monetary policy is lacking autonomy (Bianchi and Mondragon 2018; De Grauwe 2012; Lorenzoni and Werning 2019).³ The notion that spreads vary for reasons unrelated to fundamentals, for instance, because expectations become self-fulfilling, provides the rationale for the strategy that we use to identify exogenous variation in the spread. We take up this issue in the next section.

³This effect should be less important in case of foreign currency debt. However, even in this case self-fulfilling runs may be more likely the less flexible the exchange rate regime. For if monetary policy is able to act as a lender of last resort for domestic debt, this may free up resources to satisfy the claims of foreign-currency debt holders.

3 Measuring the effects of spread shocks

In the remainder of the paper we focus on spread shocks and how they impact both emerging and advanced economies before and after 2008. As argued in the introduction, there are strong reasons to expect that the country spread fluctuates partly for reasons which are exogenous, either because of global developments or shifts in market sentiment. Our identification strategy is based on the causal model by Rosenbaum and Rubin (1983), which permits estimation of a “treatment effect”. In the context of our analysis a treatment boils down to being exposed to a large spread increase, as we explain in some detail in what follows. In Section 3.2 we present a measure of how likely it is for a country to be treated at a particular point in time, that is, its propensity score. In Section 3.3 we explain how we rely on the propensity score as we employ an augmented inverse propensity score weighted (AIPW) estimator in order to establish the causal effect of sovereign spread shocks. Last, we also discuss an alternative strategy to measure spread shocks.

3.1 Treatment

In our baseline, we focus on large increases of the spread in order to capture events that are potentially more disruptive than garden-variety changes of the spread. Moreover, large changes are also more likely to be caused by exogenous factors, to the extent that country-specific fundamentals change only gradually. Still, large changes of the spread may also reflect an endogenous response to fundamentals. We account for this possibility once we control for selection into treatment on the basis of a large set of fundamentals as well as for potentially non-linear selection effects. In our baseline, we consider only spread increases rather than spread changes, because their effect is not necessarily symmetric. In our robustness analysis we pursue an alternative approach for which we no longer restrict our analysis to spread increases. Instead, we consider both positive and negative spread shocks.

To operationalize the notion of a treatment with a large spread increase, we define a dummy variable that assumes a value of one whenever the change of the spread for a given country-quarter observation is larger than one standard deviation and, in addition, at least 25 basis points. Otherwise, the dummy is zero:

$$D_{i,t} = \mathbb{1}(\Delta s_{i,t} \geq \sigma_i \wedge \Delta s_{i,t} \geq 25\text{bp}) . \quad (1)$$

Here and in what follows the subscripts t and i refer to the quarter and the country of an observation, respectively. $\Delta s_{i,t}$ is the change in the spread, as measured at the end of a quarter, and σ_i is the country-specific standard deviation of spread changes.⁴

On the basis of this definition, 229 observations in our sample qualify as treatments. This amounts to 7.25 percent of the observed spread changes.⁵ Table A.6 in the appendix reports the

⁴Mauro et al. (2002), in their emerging market economy analysis, consider a spread increase large if it exceeds two standard deviations.

⁵This is well below the 16 percent of observations we would expect outside of the one-sigma interval of a normal distribution. The reason is that spread changes are not normally distributed (see Table 1) and because we require a

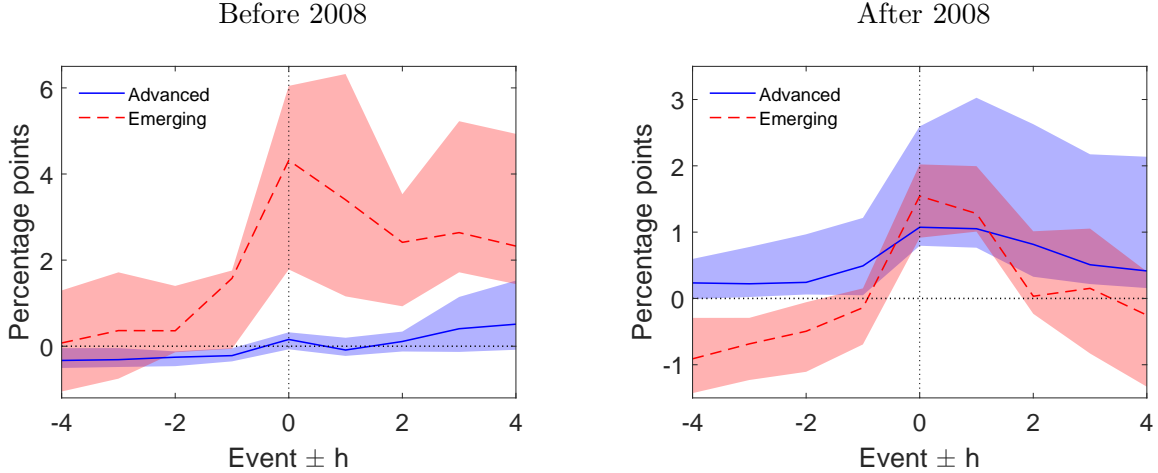


Figure 6: Spread deviations from country-mean around treatments, before (left) and after 2008 (right) in advanced (solid line) and emerging economies (dashed line). Country-specific spread movements around treatments are measured as the average of spread deviations from the respective country mean over all events in the country in the event window $t \pm h$. Lines indicate the median of country-specific spread movements, shaded areas indicate the 25% and 75% interquartile range across countries. Time is measured in quarters. For definition of treatment, see main text, equation (1).

maximum spread change along with the number of treatments for each country in the sample.⁶ Table A.7 in the appendix lists all the countries which have been treated in a specific quarter. We find that treatments are fairly evenly distributed across time and countries. In 49 out of 156 quarters there is at least one treatment. Each country in our sample has been treated at least once. Still, perhaps unsurprisingly, treatments also bunch in quarters associated with major crises: 1998Q3, 2008Q3, 2008Q4, 2010Q2, and 2011Q3. For all countries in our sample we find that the spread increases by more than one standard deviation at the time of the treatment, suggesting that we indeed capture episodes of exceptionally large spread increases.

Figure 6 illustrates how spreads evolve in an event window centered around the quarter in which a treatment takes place. To account for the fact that the level of the spread differs across countries, we first express the country-specific spread in terms of deviations from the country mean. We then compute the country-mean of these spread deviations over all events in the respective country. The left panel represents data for the period before 2008, the right panel for the period after 2008. The solid line represents the median over the individual mean-country-spreads for advanced economies around treatments. The dashed line represents the median for emerging economies. The shaded area represents the 25%-75% interquartile range across countries. The horizontal axis captures four quarters before to four quarters after treatment.

In the period before 2008, the median spread movement around treatments amounts to a

treatment to raise the spread by at least 25 basis points. When dropping the latter requirement, 8.16 percent of the observations qualify as treatments.

⁶Recall that we exclude country-quarter observations for which countries are in default.

4 percentage point increase above the country average in emerging economies. At the same time, the average spread movement around treatments is fairly moderate in advanced economies, namely 0.15 percentage points above the country average and 36 basis points relative to the pre-treatment period. In advanced economies, the spread is flat in the year preceding the event, while it is already elevated in the quarter before the treatment in emerging economies. After treatment takes place, the spread remains high for an extended period only in emerging economies. For the period after 2008 a different picture emerges. The spread movement around treatments in advanced and emerging economies is now of about the same size. For emerging economies we observe a somewhat sharper rise of the spread at the time of the treatment. For advanced economies the spread is already elevated prior to treatment and persistently high afterwards. By and large, however, we find once more that the dynamics in advanced and emerging economies have become fairly well aligned after 2008. In the appendix, we display event windows on a country-by-country basis, see Figures A.3 and A.4.

3.2 Selection into treatment

The selection into treatment is not random, but likely to depend on fundamentals. In order to quantify how the probability of treatment varies with fundamentals, we run a logistic regression. Formally, a country’s likelihood of receiving a treatment at a given point in time, $D_{i,t}$, conditional on some observable fundamentals $X_{i,t}$, that is, its *propensity score*, is given by

$$p(D_{i,t} = 1|X_{i,t}) = G(X_{i,t}\beta) , \quad (2)$$

where G is a logistic cumulative density function and β denotes a vector of regression coefficients. A low propensity score p indicates that, based on the fundamentals $X_{i,t}$, experiencing a treatment is unlikely. As a consequence, the treatment is likely to be caused by exogenous factors. The vector $X_{i,t}$ in our model contains a large number of contemporaneous and lagged control variables, dummy variables, and country-fixed effects.⁷

Note that it is generally recommended to “over-model” the propensity score, that is, to include a large number of covariates because this ensures that the conditional independence assumption (CIA) (see below) is indeed satisfied. In our baseline model, $X_{i,t}$ features key macroeconomic variables such as GDP growth, public debt, and inflation, as well as a number of indicators that capture the political stability of a country (see Table A.1 in the appendix for details). For a subset of country-quarter observations there are additional control variables available, namely the term spread, the short-term interest rate, and a measure of credit, as well as forecasts of GDP and government spending growth. Whenever we rely on the larger set of control variables we refer to the “extended model” as opposed to the “baseline model”. Given the limited availability of control variables, we estimate the logit model (2) on 161 treatments in case of the baseline model and 76 treatments in case of the extended model.

⁷We do not allow for time-fixed effects because we do not want to eliminate spread variation that is likely due to global economic developments and, hence, exogenous to country-specific developments.

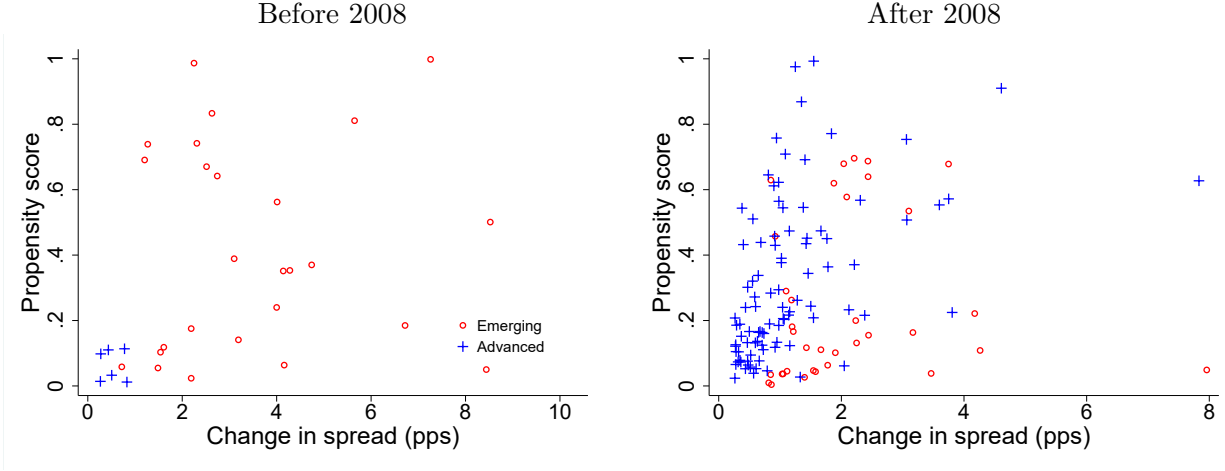


Figure 7: Propensity score and spread change before 2008 (left panel) and after 2008 (right panel) for treatment events $D_{i,t} = 1$. Blue plus signs (red circles) indicate observations for advanced (emerging) economies.

Figure 7 correlates the estimated propensity score with the change in the spread for the observations in our baseline sample for which a treatment has taken place according to definition (1).⁸ As before, we use red circles to refer to observations for emerging market economies and blue crosses for advanced economies. The left panel refers again to the period before 2008, while the right panel refers to the period after 2008. First, we note that there are very few treatments for advanced economies before 2008. Second, in the period before 2008 there are many treatments of emerging economies for which the propensity score is moderate. This suggests that the treatment cannot be well explained by fundamentals. Instead, it is likely caused by exogenous factors. Third, the same holds for the period after 2008, although in this case both for emerging and advanced economies.

Before we move on to estimating treatment effects, we formally assess the goodness-of-fit of our model. To this end, we follow Jordà and Taylor (2016) and report the Area Under the Curve (AUC)-statistic.⁹ For the baseline (extended) model, we obtain a value of 0.8730 (0.9457) with a standard error of 0.0139 (0.0155). This suggests that both models are doing a good job in predicting treatments. The resulting propensity score allows us to control for selection into treatment as we estimate the ATE below. In addition, we check whether the so-called overlap condition is satisfied in the context of our analysis. It ensures that we can compute the treatment effect for all realizations of the control variables in our sample (see e.g. Imbens 2004; Wooldridge 2010).¹⁰ We find that the

⁸Table A.8 in the appendix reports the point estimates as well as the implied average marginal effects, while Tables A.9 and A.10 report the means and standard deviations of the estimated propensity scores \hat{p} on a country-by-country basis.

⁹The AUC statistic summarizes the predictive ability of the estimation model to classify the observations correctly into treatment and control group. The AUC can take values between 0.5 (no predictive power) up to 1 (full accuracy). Its estimator is asymptotically normally distributed. See Jordà and Taylor (2011) and Hanley and McNeil (1982) for details.

¹⁰Formally, the overlap assumption is defined as $0 < p(D_{i,t} = 1 | X_{i,t}) < 1$. Intuitively, for every observation with characteristic vector $X_{i,t}$, we require a strictly positive probability of being in the treatment group as well as in the control group. Otherwise, we would be trying to compare observational units that are “incomparable”.

distributions of the estimated propensity scores indeed show considerably overlap, see Figure A.5 in the appendix.

3.3 Estimating the treatment effect

In order to establish the causal effect of a treatment we have to account for the fact that the spread itself responds to the fundamentals of a country, that is, to macroeconomic and political factors in the economy. To address this issue, we follow Jordà and Taylor (2016) and employ the augmented inverse propensity score weighted (AIPW) estimator. Intuitively, we construct a matching-type estimator that compares a control and a treatment group. To deal with non-random allocation into the respective groups, the propensity score is used to re-randomize the observations. Observations with characteristics $X_{i,t}$ causing a high propensity score are more likely to be in the treatment group and are therefore weighted down. At the same time, observations with a low propensity score—for which the treatment is more likely to be exogenous—tend to be undersampled and receive more weight in the estimator.

We introduce some notation to fix ideas. Generally, in order to establish the causal effects of a treatment $D_{i,t} = d, d \in \{0, 1\}$, defined as in equation (1) above, we rely on the conditional independence assumption (CIA) (Rosenbaum and Rubin 1983):¹¹

$$Y_{i,t+h}(d) - Y_{i,t} \perp D_{i,t} \mid X_{i,t} \quad \text{for } h > 0, \quad (3)$$

where $Y_{i,t+h}(d) - Y_{i,t}$ denotes the potential outcome of variable Y at time $t + h$ relative to its baseline value. This baseline value is observed at time t and we assume it not to be affected by the treatment.¹² An exception is the spread for which we study the response to the treatment relative to its value in the pre-treatment period $t - 1$. The vector $X_{i,t}$ contains control variables as described in Section 3.2. Intuitively, equation (3) states that, conditional on the controls, the allocation of observational units to the control and treatment group, respectively, is independent of potential outcomes. We estimate the treatment effect for each variable of interest in quarters $h = 1, \dots, 8$ after treatment.

Rosenbaum and Rubin (1983) show that if the overlap condition is satisfied and the CIA holds, then the latter will also hold if one conditions only on the propensity score:

$$Y_{i,t+h}(d) - Y_{i,t} \perp D_{i,t} \mid p(D_{i,t} = 1 | X_{i,t}) \quad \text{for } h > 0. \quad (4)$$

Intuitively, instead of effectively matching units in the treatment and control groups that are similar along all dimensions of the covariates $X_{i,t}$, it is sufficient if they have a similar propensity score. As discussed in the previous subsection, we find that condition (4) is satisfied in the context of our analysis. Hence, we simply use the propensity score as estimated above to compute the AIPW estimator, which provides us with the average causal effect of an exogenous increase in the spread

¹¹See Lunceford and Davidian (2004) and Wooldridge (2010) for a discussion.

¹²Note that as we estimate the propensity score, we permit a contemporaneous effect of the control variables on the spread.

on our outcome variables of interest.

Specifically, we employ an AIPW estimator with regression adjustment, which is the most efficient one in its class of so-called doubly-robust estimators (Lunceford and Davidian 2004).¹³ Formally, we use

$$ATE_{AIPW}^h = \frac{1}{N} \sum_{t=1}^N \left\{ \left[\frac{D_t(Y_{t+h} - Y_t)}{\hat{p}_t} - \frac{(1 - D_t)(Y_{t+h} - Y_t)}{(1 - \hat{p}_t)} \right] - \frac{D_t - \hat{p}_t}{\hat{p}_t(1 - \hat{p}_t)} \left[(1 - \hat{p}_t)m_1^h(X) + \hat{p}_tm_0^h(X) \right] \right\}, \quad (5)$$

where treatment takes place at time t and the effect on the dependent variable is captured at horizon $t + h$. In the expression above, we drop the panel index i to ease notation.

Two things are noteworthy about this estimator. First, by including propensity-score weights \hat{p}_t and $(1 - \hat{p}_t)$ in the denominator in the first line of Equation (5) we achieve a random allocation of observational units into treatment and control group. Second, the second line of Equation (5) features a regression adjustment component, which among other things stabilizes the estimator in case the propensity score gets close to zero or one (see Lunceford and Davidian 2004).¹⁴ This is an issue of some concern in light of the estimated propensity scores reported in Tables A.9 and A.10.¹⁵

For inference, we use the asymptotic normality of the AIPW estimator and rely on an empirical sandwich estimator of the variance, as explained in Lunceford and Davidian (2004), to compute clustered robust standard errors.

3.4 An alternative approach

Our baseline approach focuses on specific treatments—defined as a large increase of the spread. As argued in Section 3.1 above, in this way we are more likely to capture events that are a) particularly disruptive and b) not caused by country fundamentals. In order to assess the robustness of our results, we pursue an alternative strategy in the spirit of Uribe and Yue (2006), who identify spread shocks using a VAR-style recursive scheme with the spread ordered last.¹⁶ Given this identifying assumption, the relevant regression equation for the spread change (analogous to the definition of treatment) is given by:

$$\Delta s_{i,t} = \eta_i + X_{i,t}\beta + \varepsilon_{i,t}, \quad (6)$$

where the column vector of controls $X_{i,t}$ contains current and one-period lagged values of GDP growth and net exports as well as the lag of the spread. $\varepsilon_{i,t}$ are mean zero structural innovations,

¹³In this class, consistent estimation of the ATE is achieved as long as either the model for the conditional mean or the propensity score model are correctly specified.

¹⁴The terms $m_d^h(X), d \in \{0, 1\}$ are the conditional means derived from the conditional mean model. This is a regression of $(Y_{t+h} - Y_t)$ on the covariates X_t , conditional on the subsample of treatment ($d = 1$) or control ($d = 0$).

¹⁵An alternative to including a regression adjustment term is truncation. We find that our results are fairly robust as we consider a truncated propensity score at $\pm 5\%$, $\pm 10\%$, and $\pm 20\%$.

¹⁶Technically, they estimate a panel VAR equation by equation and include the US interest rate and the country interest rate separately. But, as they argue, this is equivalent to including the spread directly.

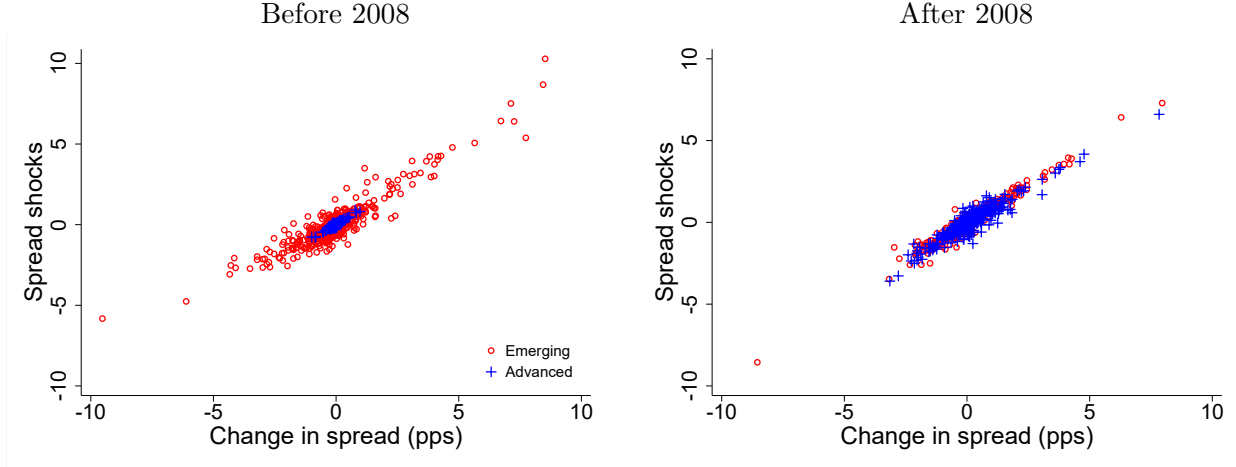


Figure 8: Spread shocks (vertical axis), as captured by linear model (6), measured against change in spread in percentage points (horizontal axis) before and after 2008. Blue plus signs (red circles) indicate observations for advanced (emerging) economies.

that is “spread shocks”, and η_i are country-fixed effects.¹⁷ In terms of identification, model (6) just like our baseline, allows for a contemporaneous effect of fundamentals on the spread change, but rules out that fundamentals respond immediately to spread changes. However, following Uribe and Yue (2006), model (6) is much more parsimonious than our baseline model for two reasons. First, with OLS regressions, “over-modeling” as in the case of propensity score estimation is not advocated. Second, because the model features fewer explanatory variables, we can estimate the OLS regressions separately for the groups of advanced and emerging economies before and after 2008.

In Figure 8 we correlate spread shocks, that is, the residuals from regression (6), $\hat{\varepsilon}_{i,t}$, and the change in the spread. As before red circles refer to observations for emerging economies, while blue plus signs refer to observations for advanced economies, the left panel shows results for the period before 2008, the right panel for the period after 2008. For the period before 2008 we again observe a different distribution between advanced and emerging economies. Shocks are small in the former and quite sizeable in the latter. After 2008, the shocks have again become much more comparable in terms of size across the two country groups. This suggests that there is considerable exogenous variation in the spread.

We use the residuals of regression (6) as a measure of the spread shock and estimate its dynamic effect on various outcome variables via local projections (Jordà 2005). Letting $Y_{i,t+h}$ denote the variable of interest in period $t+h$, we regress it on spread shocks in period t on the basis of the following specification:

$$Y_{i,t+h} - Y_{i,t} = \alpha_{i,h} + \psi_h \hat{\varepsilon}_{i,t} + u_{i,t+h} , \quad (7)$$

¹⁷The R^2 of these OLS regressions (for various sample splits) ranges between 0.78 and 0.90, which indicates that around 10 to 20 percent of the variation in the spread is left unexplained by the model and hence can be attributed to non-fundamental shocks. This finding is in line with the decomposition of Bocola and Dovis (2019).

where $Y_{i,t}$ again denotes the unshocked baseline value of variable Y . In equation (7), the coefficients ψ_h , which we estimate by OLS, provide a direct estimate of the impulse response at horizon h to a spread shock.¹⁸ The error term $u_{i,t+h}$ is assumed to have zero mean and strictly positive variance. $\alpha_{i,h}$ denotes country-fixed effects. We compute clustered robust standard errors.

The local projection framework also allows us to compute the contribution of the spread shocks to the forecast error variance of our variables of interest. Following Gorodnichenko and Lee (forthcoming), we compute the variance share of the shock at horizon h as the R^2 of the following regression

$$\hat{u}_{i,t+h} = \gamma_0 \hat{\varepsilon}_{i,t+h} + \dots + \gamma_h \hat{\varepsilon}_{i,t} + \nu_{i,t+h}, \quad (8)$$

where $\hat{u}_{i,t+h}$ is the forecast error of the local projection (7) at horizon h and $\nu_{i,t+h}$ is a mean 0 disturbance.

4 Results

We first shed some light on how spread shocks are transmitting through the economy, as we study the dynamic adjustment to spread shocks by means of impulse response functions. Second, we establish that our results are robust across a number of alternative specifications. Lastly, we report the contribution of spread shocks to output fluctuation on the basis of a forecast error variance decomposition. Throughout, we are interested in possible differences across country groups and sample periods.

4.1 Shock transmission

We now show the impulse responses to a spread shock. First, we report results for the AIPW estimator in equation (5) with the treatment defined in equation (1). In Figure 9, the (blue) solid and (red) dashed lines represent the point estimates for advanced and emerging economies, respectively. In each instance, the shaded area indicates the 90 percent confidence interval based on clustered robust standard errors. We measure time in quarters along the horizontal axis. The vertical axis measures the deviation relative to the pre-shock level in either percent or basis points. As before, the left column shows results for the period before 2008, the right column for the period after 2008.

Our main finding is that the dynamic adjustment to a spread shock does not differ much across country groups or sample periods. We find this result particularly noteworthy in light of the facts established in Section 2 above. As shown in the top row, spreads remain elevated for an extended period of about four quarters. The initial increase is about 50 basis points. After three quarters, spreads are still some 20 basis points higher than prior to treatment. This pattern is remarkably similar across countries, both for the period before and after 2008.

¹⁸The shock is thus a generated regressor in the second stage (Coibion and Gorodnichenko 2015). Still, Pagan (1984) shows that the standard errors obtained after a regression on the shocks are asymptotically valid under the null that the coefficient is 0.

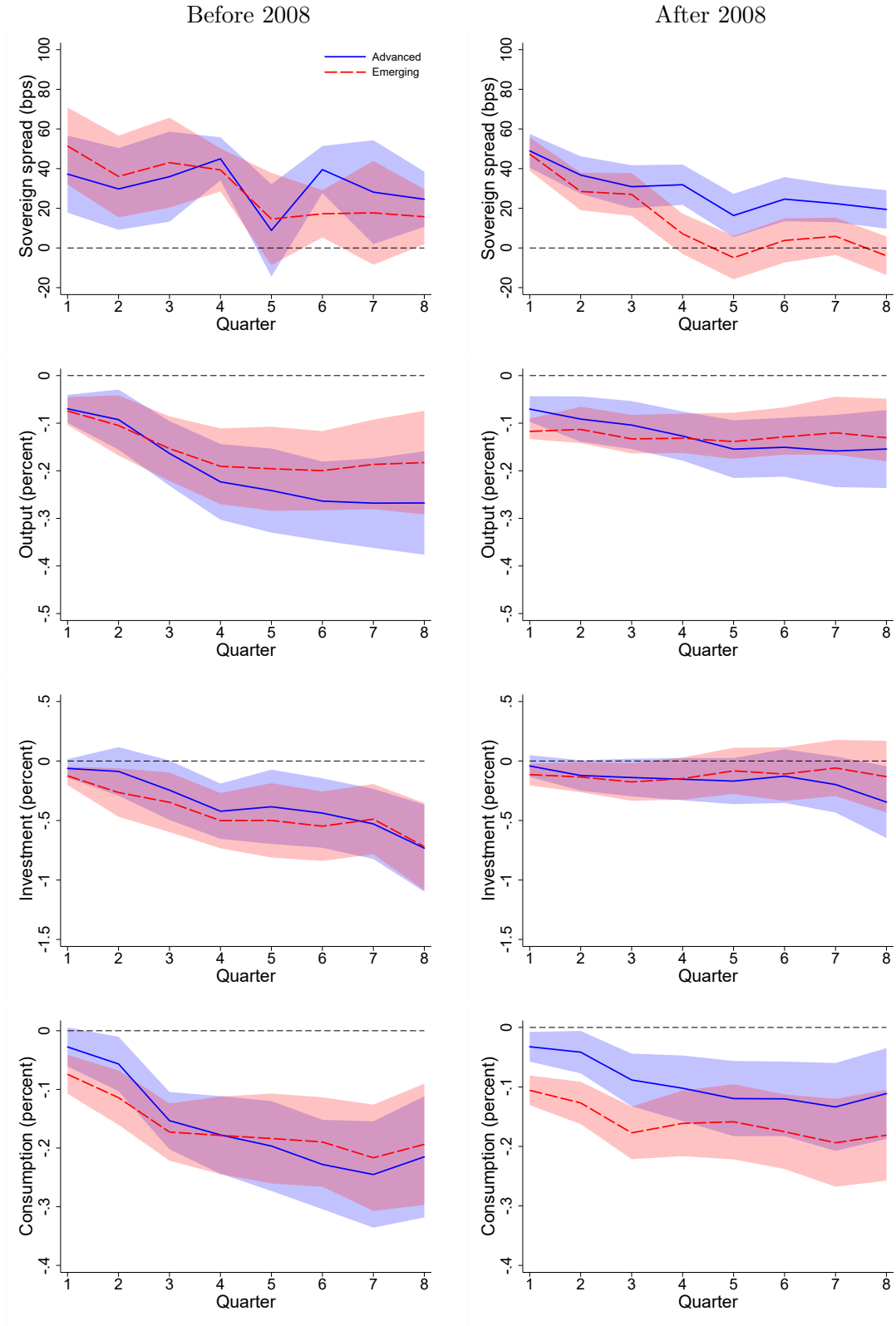


Figure 9: Impulse responses of the spread and real national accounts variables to a $h = 0$ sovereign spread shock based on the ATE estimator in equation (5) together with the treatment definition in (1). Solid (blue) and dashed (red) line represents deviation from pre-shock treatment level for advanced and emerging economies, respectively. Shaded areas correspond to 90% confidence intervals based on clustered robust standard errors. Horizontal axis measures time after treatment in quarters.

The adjustment of output is shown in the second row. It is again highly similar across country groups, in particular in the period before 2008. Output declines immediately by about 0.1 percent and continues to decline in the following one to two years. According to the point estimate, the maximum effect is about 0.3 percent in advanced economies and 0.2 percent in emerging economies. After 2008 the effect is a bit weaker. It is similar on impact, but afterwards there is less of a decline. Overall these numbers are in the same ballpark as those established by the earlier literature on the effect of interest increases due to monetary policy shocks. In a recent paper, Coibion et al. (2017), for instance, find that US output declines by about 0.6 percent in response to a US monetary policy shock that raises the Fed funds rate by 100 basis points (see their Figure 2).

The fact that the output effect is more moderate after 2008 seems to be driven by the weaker response of investment, shown in the third row of the figure. It is almost identical across country groups both before and after 2008, but generally weaker after 2008. We show the responses of private consumption in the bottom row of the figure. In emerging economies it is unchanged across sample periods. In advanced economies, it is almost identical to that in emerging economies before 2008 and somewhat weaker after 2008.

We obtain additional insights into the transmission mechanism as we consider the impulse responses of the real exchange rate and of financial variables in Figure 10. Here, the top row shows the response of the real effective exchange rate. It declines in response to the shock, that is, the currency depreciates in real terms in both country groups and for both sample periods. We note, however, that the response is considerably stronger in emerging economies. The depreciation is consistent with the notion that the spread shock reflects a capital outflow shock—for instance because global risk aversion increases or because there is a run on the country. Consistent with this interpretation, we find that real bank lending contracts in response to the spread shock (second row). The effect is similar across sample periods and somewhat stronger in emerging economies than in advanced economies—consistent with the notion that emerging economies are more vulnerable to a reversal of international capital flows (see, for instance, Broner et al. 2013). In the third row, we show the response of the real stock market index. It contracts strongly, but the response is again remarkably similar across sample periods and country groups.

Recent work by Miranda-Agrippino and Rey (2019) shows that a contractionary US monetary policy shock raises global risk aversion and induces a deleveraging of global financial intermediaries such that domestic credit declines. At the same time credit spreads go up. Consistent with our findings, their shock affecting spreads also appreciates the dollar in real terms against a basket of currencies and triggers a sharp decline of the FTSE and the German DAX. Miranda-Agrippino and Rey (2019) look more closely at monetary policy in the UK and the euro area and find that short-term policy rates decline in response to the shock, although the response is not significant in the UK. We show the response of monetary policy to our identified spread shock in the last row of Figure 10 and observe rather strong differences across emerging and advanced economies. For both sample periods we find that interest rates go up in emerging economies and, in fact, strongly so. In advanced economies their response is very much muted. The difference across country groups may

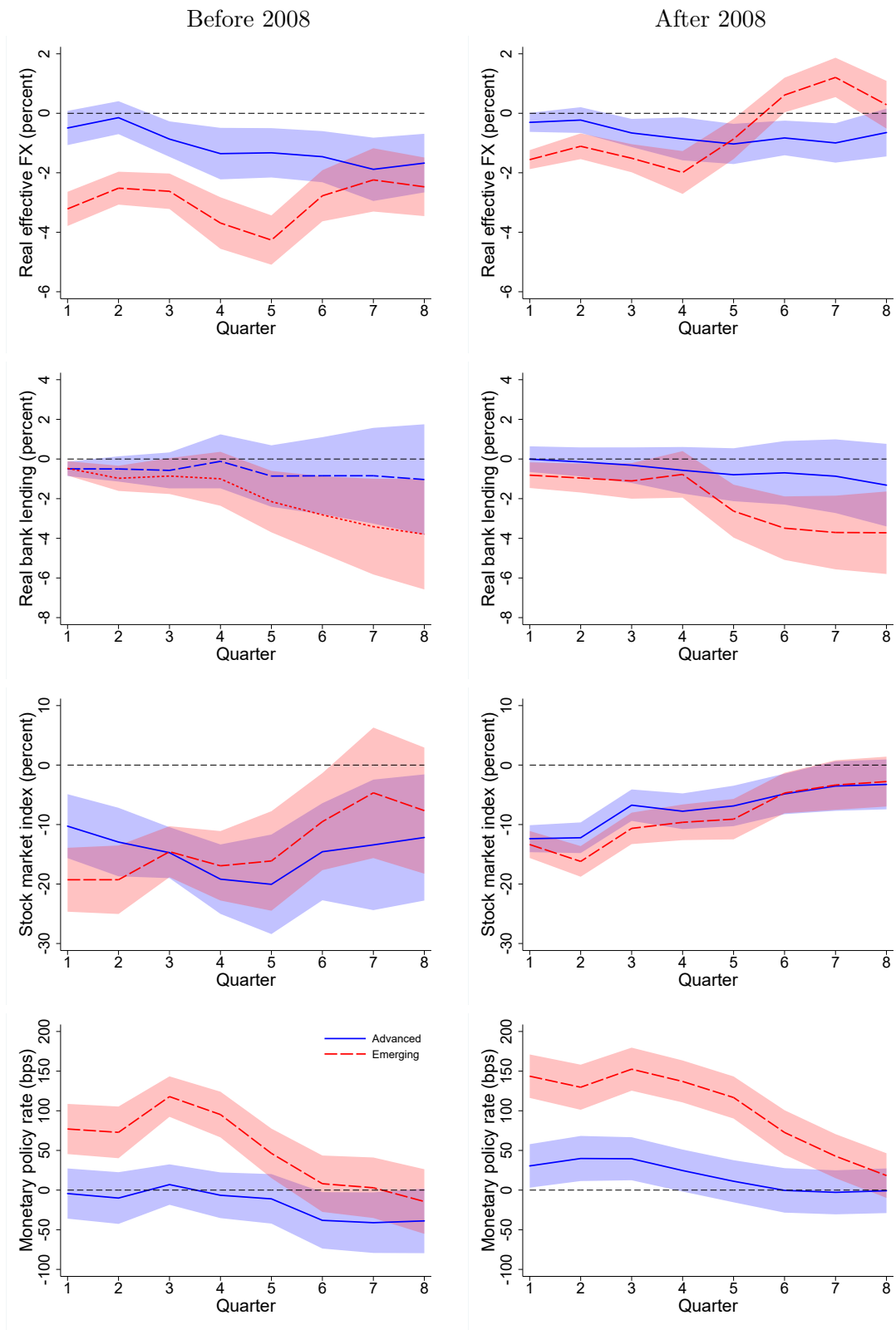


Figure 10: Response of exchange rate and financial variables to spread shock. See Figure 9 for details.

reflect a stronger dependency of emerging economies on capital flows such that monetary policy may respond more aggressively in order to prevent large capital outflows—in line with the notion of limited monetary policy independence in emerging economies (Rey 2013).

In Figure 11 we show the response of net exports and real fiscal variables to the spread shock. By and large, we again find a very similar adjustment pattern across country groups and sample periods. The top panels show the response of the trade balance-to-GDP ratio. In general, it is not very responsive to the shock. An exception are net exports in emerging economies after 2008, where we observe an immediate and sizable decline in response to the shock. In the second row, we show the response of real government consumption. It is fairly unresponsive on impact, before subsequently declining gradually, most notably in the period before 2008. To rationalize this finding, recall that government consumption consists largely of items that are not automatically responding to the cycle. At the same time, it takes time to adjust spending because of decision and implementation lags (Blanchard and Perotti 2002). Our results support the idea that, at least prior to 2008, there is a fiscal retrenchment if a country’s financing conditions deteriorate. However, this effect takes place with a considerable delay only—in line with the evidence and arguments put forward in Born et al. (2020)

The budget-deficit-to-GDP ratio, in turn, increases persistently and somewhat more strongly in advanced economies, both before and after 2008 (third row). The increase of the deficit ratio is consistent with the decline of GDP, shown in Figure 9 above. But we also find that real tax revenues, shown in the last row of Figure 11, decline somewhat. In this case the decline is more pronounced before 2008. After 2008 the decline is considerably weaker in both country groups. However, the change across samples is more pronounced for emerging economies. This finding, in turn, is consistent with the notion that fiscal policy in emerging economies has become less pro-cyclical (Frankel et al. 2013).

Overall, we find that the transmission of spread shocks is fairly similar in advanced and emerging economies. Output and its components contract in an almost identical manner. The same holds, notwithstanding minor differences, for fiscal policy as well as for financial variables. An exception is monetary policy and the exchange rate. Here, we observe a strong contraction in emerging economies and a much weaker one in advanced economies. But throughout we find that there is almost no change before and after 2008. This suggests that any change in the correlation pattern documented in Section 2 reflects a change in the incidence of shocks rather than in the transmission mechanism. We assess this issue more systematically below.

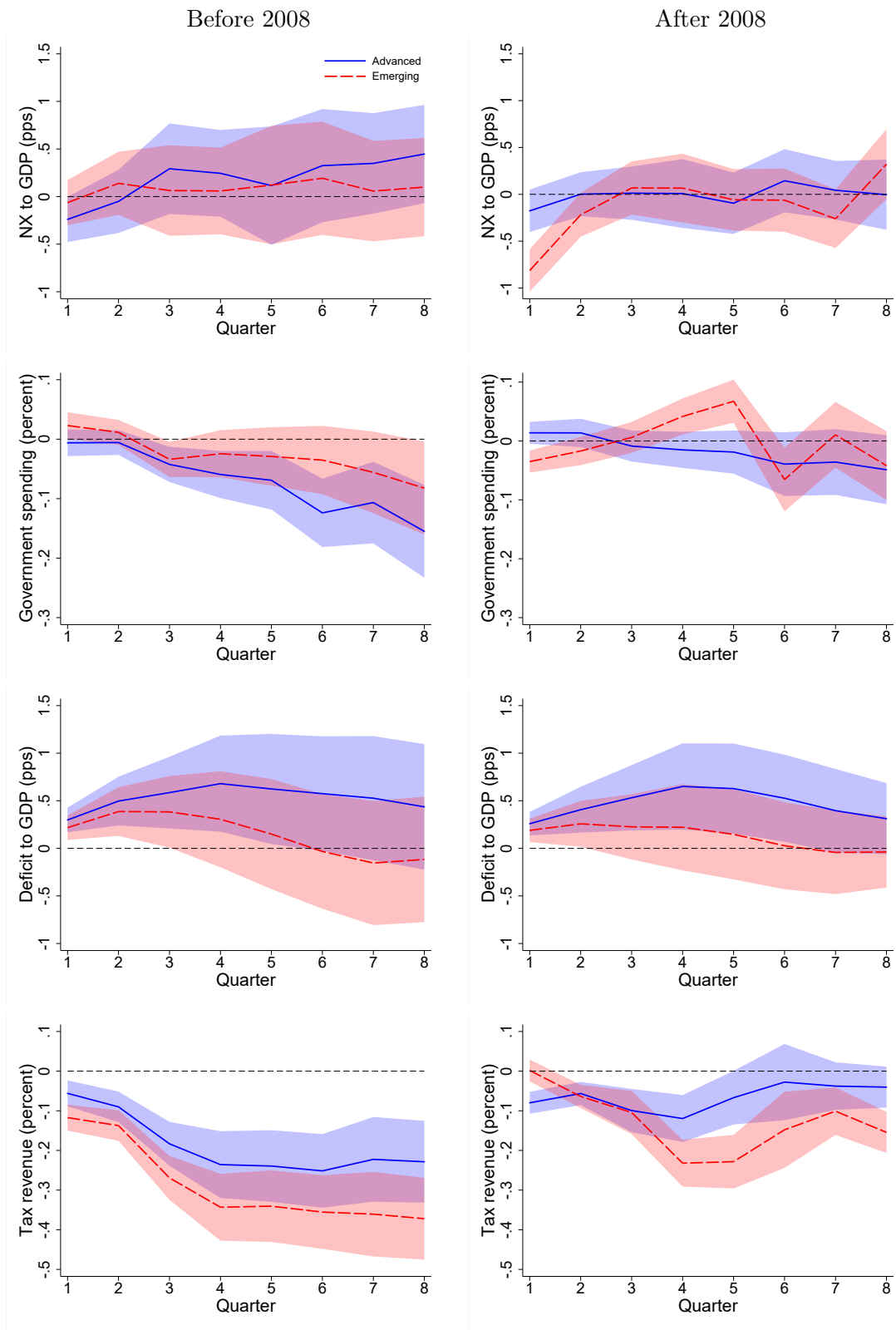


Figure 11: Response of net exports and real fiscal variables to spread shock. See Figure 9 for details.

4.2 Robustness

We also make sure that our main result is robust across a number of specifications. First, we estimate the propensity score on the basis of a larger set of control variables, see Section 3.2 for details.¹⁹ Importantly, these variables include forecasts for GDP among others and are thus potentially important to capture anticipation effects. Unfortunately, they are available for advanced economies only. For these countries, the estimated impulse responses of the spread and output to a spread shock in the extended model are very similar to the baseline results, see Figure A.6 in the appendix.

Second, we consider a more conservative treatment definition. In this case, we require either the spread increase to be at least 50 basis points (alternative treatment definition 1) or the spread to increase by more than two standard deviations (alternative treatment definition 2). In this case, we obtain 196 and 113 treatments, respectively. Based on these alternative treatment definitions, we again estimate impulse responses to a spread shock and report the responses of the spread and output in Figures A.7 and A.8 in the appendix. They are again quite similar to the baseline.

Third, we consider alternative dates for the sample split. Rather than distinguishing the period before and after 2008, we consider 2007 and 2009 as alternative break dates. Figures A.9 and A.10 in the appendix show the impulse responses of the spread and output to the spread shock for both alternatives. The responses are very similar to what we obtain for the baseline.

Fourth, we drop the US and Germany from the sample because one could argue that these countries should be considered as risk-free benchmark countries that are hardly subject to spread shocks. Results, shown in Figure A.11 in the appendix, are again similar to the baseline.

In a last robustness test we consider an alternative framework to establish the effect of spread shocks. As explained in Section 3.4, rather than accounting for the propensity score of a treatment in estimating the ATE, we rely on a more conventional recursive identification scheme in the spirit of Uribe and Yue (2006). We show results in Figure 12. To make results comparable to those shown in Figure 9 above, we re-scale the response of the impulse responses so as to match the $h = 1$ response of the spread for each sample period and country group. The organization of the figure follows Figure 9, except that we now only report results for the spread (top row) and output (bottom row). As before, we find that the adjustment of both variables is quite similar before and after 2008 as well as across country groups. In addition, we note that the adjustment pattern of both variables is quite similar to what we display in Figure 9. This is quite remarkable because the conceptual and methodological approach that we use in both instances is quite distinct. Most importantly, we note that the results in our baseline are based on a much larger set of control variables and on a more narrowly defined set of shocks. In particular, in the baseline specification we only estimate the effect of an increase in the spread, while results shown in Figure 12 are based on all shocks, regardless of their sign. And yet, we find our key results are largely confirmed.²⁰

¹⁹The right panel of Figure A.5 in the appendix displays the distribution of the estimated propensity scores for the extended model, while Table A.10 reports details on a country-by-country basis.

²⁰The response of the other variables are generally also very similar to what we obtain for the baseline. They are available on request.

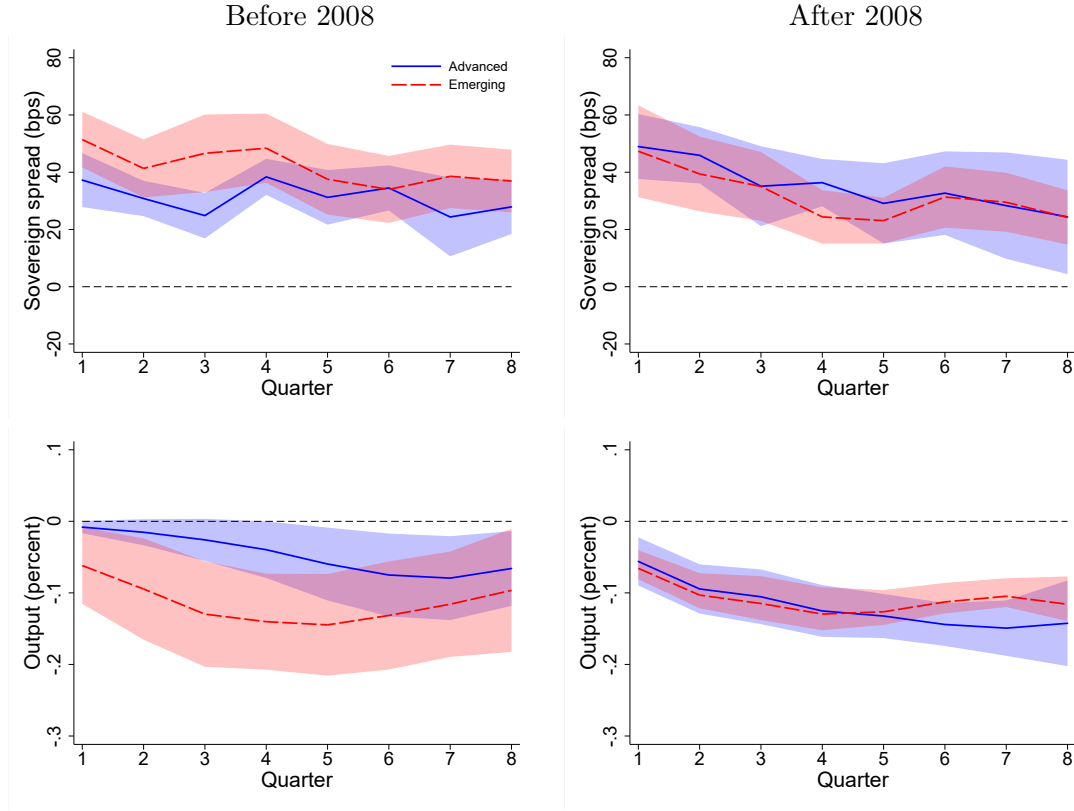


Figure 12: Impulse responses to a sovereign spread shock based on the local projection in equation (7) together with spread shocks identified using equation (6). The left panel shows results for the period before 2008 and the right panel shows results after 2008. Solid (blue) and dashed (red) line indicate point estimates for advanced and emerging economies, respectively. Shaded areas correspond to 90% confidence intervals based on clustered robust standard errors computed for advanced (blue) and emerging economies (red). All variables are expressed relative to their pre-shock level. Responses have been re-scaled to have the same $h = 1$ spread response as the ATE estimator. The horizontal axis indicates quarters.

4.3 Forecast Error Variance Decomposition

In Section 2 above we established a new fact: that country spreads have become much more volatile in advanced economies after 2008 and indeed almost as volatile as in emerging economies. At the same time, we find little evidence for a change in the transmission of spread shocks after 2008, neither in emerging nor in advanced economies. Against this background, we ask two questions. First, does the increase in the volatility reflect an increase in the incidence of spread shocks? Second, and relatedly, does the increase in the volatility of spreads translate into a larger role of spread shocks as a source of business cycle fluctuations in advanced economies?

In order to answer these questions, we compute a forecast error variance decomposition, as detailed in Section 3.4. As always, we split the sample into advanced and emerging economies and distinguish the period before and after 2008. In Table 3 we report the contribution of spread shocks to the forecast error variance of the spread and output for a forecast horizon of 1 to 12 quarters. The bottom row reports the average across those 3 years.

Table 3: Forecast error variance decomposition

| Horizon h | Advanced Economies | | | | Emerging Economies | | | |
|-------------|--------------------|--------|------------|--------|--------------------|--------|------------|--------|
| | Before 2008 | | After 2008 | | Before 2008 | | After 2008 | |
| | Spread | Output | Spread | Output | Spread | Output | Spread | Output |
| 1 | 0.45 | 0.00 | 0.16 | 0.00 | 0.38 | 0.00 | 0.42 | 0.00 |
| 2 | 0.51 | 0.01 | 0.21 | 0.01 | 0.48 | 0.02 | 0.53 | 0.05 |
| 3 | 0.50 | 0.02 | 0.24 | 0.03 | 0.50 | 0.07 | 0.55 | 0.11 |
| 4 | 0.46 | 0.03 | 0.24 | 0.05 | 0.50 | 0.11 | 0.52 | 0.14 |
| 5 | 0.46 | 0.06 | 0.24 | 0.08 | 0.50 | 0.14 | 0.46 | 0.16 |
| 6 | 0.43 | 0.06 | 0.24 | 0.09 | 0.45 | 0.13 | 0.42 | 0.14 |
| 7 | 0.41 | 0.06 | 0.26 | 0.10 | 0.42 | 0.14 | 0.42 | 0.13 |
| 8 | 0.39 | 0.06 | 0.28 | 0.10 | 0.41 | 0.14 | 0.42 | 0.12 |
| 9 | 0.34 | 0.05 | 0.28 | 0.10 | 0.40 | 0.14 | 0.40 | 0.11 |
| 10 | 0.33 | 0.04 | 0.28 | 0.09 | 0.38 | 0.14 | 0.33 | 0.11 |
| 11 | 0.31 | 0.04 | 0.28 | 0.09 | 0.36 | 0.14 | 0.28 | 0.10 |
| 12 | 0.28 | 0.04 | 0.29 | 0.10 | 0.35 | 0.15 | 0.29 | 0.10 |
| \emptyset | 0.41 | 0.04 | 0.25 | 0.07 | 0.43 | 0.11 | 0.42 | 0.11 |

Notes: Forecast error variance decomposition for the spread and output based on local projections (see Section 3.4).

In response to the first question, and focusing on the average contribution, we note that the contribution of spread shocks to the forecast error variance of the spread itself has actually declined in advanced economies after 2008. Before 2008 the contribution of shocks was about 40 percent and similar to what we find for emerging economies. After 2008, it is reduced to about 25 percent. In emerging economies there is no strong change over time.

In response to the second question, we note that before 2008 spread shocks account for only 4 percent of output variation in advanced economies and for about 11 percent in emerging economies. The latter finding is consistent with the value of 12 percent reported by Uribe and Yue (2006). After 2008, we find that the contribution in advanced economies has gone up to 7 percent, while it is still 11 percent for emerging economies. Hence, while we find that the relative importance of spread shocks for the volatility of the spread itself has declined in advanced economies after 2008, we observe that the volatility of the spread has increased by so much in absolute terms that the contribution of spread shocks to the volatility of output has actually gone up in advanced economies. For this reason, we conclude that, by and large, the role of spread shocks as a source of business cycle fluctuations has become more aligned across country groups.

5 Conclusion

In this paper we ask whether country spreads behave differently in emerging and advanced economies. We find that this is the case before 2008, in line with the received wisdom and much of the earlier research. However, the behavior of spreads after 2008 is no more different. We establish this result on the basis of a large data set which contains quarterly observations for 21 advanced and 17 emerging economies since the early 1990s. Our data runs up to the end of 2018. In the first part of the paper, we document the basic facts for the period before and after 2008. We do not repeat these facts here, except for one: before 2008 the spread is about 10 times more volatile in emerging economies than in advanced economies, after 2008 the volatility is basically the same in both country groups. Other moments have converged as well and this is mostly because advanced economies have converged towards levels common in emerging economies before 2008.

In the second part, we provide evidence on the transmission of spread shocks, again allowing for differences across country groups and sample periods. Here, our main result is that the transmission of spread shocks is fairly similar in advanced and emerging economies and there is also no evidence for a significant change in the transmission mechanism after 2008. A spread shock induces a fairly persistent increase of the spread and a contraction of economic activity. Overall the response of fiscal policy is rather moderate. There are some spending cuts, tax revenues decline and the government deficit increases somewhat, but there are no large differences in the adjustment mechanism across time and country groups. We also find that the real exchange rate depreciates and that bank lending contracts in response to the spread shock. This is consistent with the notion that the spread shock reflects a capital outflow. The effect is considerably more pronounced in emerging economies and so is the response of monetary policy, which raises short-term rates in response to the shock. However, also these patterns of adjustment do not change much across sample periods.

Lastly, as we summarize our findings regarding the importance of spread shocks in accounting for the volatility of spreads and output, we highlight a tentative policy implication. We find that the relative importance of spread shocks for the volatility of the spread is rather low in advanced economies after 2008, both relative to the pre-2008 period and relative to emerging economies. This points to a relatively larger role of shocks to fundamentals and their transmission for explaining spread movements. It also indicates that advanced economies are now more vulnerable to market assessment regarding these fundamentals. Identifying the specific reasons for this is beyond the scope of the present paper. But policy makers ignore this increased vulnerability at their own peril.

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A Appendix

Table A.1: Description of outcome and control variables

| Variable | Description | Source |
|------------------------|--|--|
| Consumption | Real private consumption | Eurostat, National Sources |
| Credit-to-GDP | Credit lending to private non-financial sector by banks at market value relative to GDP Data available except for: Croatia, Slovenia, Latvia, Lithuania, Slovakia, Bulgaria, Ecuador Uruguay, and Peru | BIS |
| Debt-to-GDP | General or central government outstanding debt relative to GDP. For Ecuador, El Salvador, Malaysia and Thailand: External debt stock as % of GNI (annual data interpolated to quarterly frequency). Data available except for: Chile and Uruguay | Eurostat, Worldbank QPSD, and International Debt Statistics |
| Deficit-to-GDP | Net lending or borrowing respectively relative to real GDP | Eurostat, IMF Government Finance Statistics |
| Floating | Fixed versus floating. We rely on the coarse classification of Ilzetzki et al. (2019) where codes 1 and 2 are classified as a peg, while 3 to 6 are classified as floating | Ilzetzki et al. (2019) |
| Real effective FX rate | Log effective real exchange rate; an increase indicates an appreciation of the economy's currency against a broad basket of currencies | BIS, complemented by Darvas (2012) |
| G | Government spending is exhaustive real government spending | Eurostat, National sources |
| G growth | First log difference of real government spending G. | |
| G growth forecast | Expected government spending growth at time t List of available countries, see GDP growth forecast | Oxford Economics |
| GDP | Real GDP | Eurostat, National sources |
| GDP growth | First log difference of real GDP | |
| GDP growth forecast | Expected GDP growth at time t . Data available for: Austria, Czech Republic Denmark, Finland, France, UK US, Germany, Greece, Ireland, Italy, Malaysia, Netherlands, Portugal, Spain, Sweden, Thailand | Oxford Economics |
| IMF assistance | Dummy variable which equals 1 if a country has a Standby Arrangement (with or without Supplemental Reserve Facility) or an Extended Fund Facility and 0 otherwise. | Monitoring of Fund Arrangements (MONA) database |
| Inflation | Inflation based on GDP Deflator | Eurostat, National sources |
| Investment | Real Investment | Eurostat, National Sources |
| Interest Rate | Policy or short term interest rate | IMF, OECD |
| NFA | Net financial assets | Lane and Milesi-Ferretti (2007) |
| NX share | Net export share of GDP | Eurostat, National sources |
| Political risk | Total political risk index from International Country Risk Guide (ICRG) ranging between 0 (low risk) and 100 (high risk). Composed of 12 subcomponents covering different aspects of political risk | PRS Group |
| Political stability | Government stability index from ICRG ranging from 0 (low risk) to 12 (high risk). Subcomponent of political risk, see above | PRS Group |
| Political turnover | Dummy variable indicating an ideological leadership change: 1 if new incumbent reaches office with different political orientation, 0 else | Archigos Database of Political Leadership, own classifications |
| Real bank lending | Credit-to-GDP multiplied by real GDP. For more information, see description and data sources for Credit-to-GDP and GDP | |
| Stock Market Index | Real log stock market index detrended | Datastream (Thomson Reuters) |
| Tax revenue | Log linearly detrended real total government revenues | Eurostat, IMF World Revenue Longitudinal Dataset (WoRLD) |
| Tax-to-GDP | Total government revenues relative to real GDP, linearly detrended | Eurostat, IMF World Revenue Longitudinal Dataset (WoRLD) |
| Term spread | 10-year term spread, difference between bond market and money market rate. Data available except for: Croatia, Hungary, Latvia, Turkey, Argentina, Chile Colombia, Ecuador, Brazil, El Salvador, Uruguay, Peru | Datastream (Thomson Reuters) |

Table A.2: Descriptive statistics of the country spread with an alternative break date in 2007Q1

| | Before 2007 | | After 2007 | | Before 2007 | | After 2007 | |
|--------------|---|-------|------------|-------|--|----------|------------|---------|
| | Adv. | Em. | Adv. | Em. | Adv. | Em. | Adv. | Em. |
| | Spread level s_{it} (percentage points) | | | | Spread change Δs_{it} (basis points) | | | |
| Mean | 0.35 | 4.52 | 1.40 | 2.98 | -0.74 | -4.76 | 2.89 | 3.21 |
| Median | 0.26 | 3.16 | 0.61 | 2.30 | -0.74 | -12.88 | -0.45 | -3.00 |
| Sd | 0.33 | 4.02 | 2.15 | 2.26 | 12.22 | 167.80 | 66.84 | 95.49 |
| Min | -0.14 | 0.19 | -0.06 | 0.15 | -99.08 | -952.59 | -314.45 | -854.70 |
| Max | 2.20 | 24.22 | 24.56 | 19.50 | 82.89 | 1 039.00 | 783.21 | 795.84 |
| Kurtosis | 10.54 | 6.03 | 28.13 | 11.66 | 20.06 | 11.83 | 32.10 | 21.90 |
| Skewness | 2.28 | 1.65 | 4.06 | 2.45 | -0.64 | 1.12 | 2.75 | 0.89 |
| Observations | 792 | 651 | 966 | 805 | 767 | 630 | 961 | 803 |

Notes: Level of spread measured in percentage points (left panel) and quarterly change in basis points (right panel).

Table A.3: Descriptive statistics of the country spread with an alternative break date in 2009Q1

| | Before 2009 | | After 2009 | | Before 2009 | | After 2009 | |
|--------------|---|-------|------------|-------|--|----------|------------|---------|
| | Adv. | Em. | Adv. | Em. | Adv. | Em. | Adv. | Em. |
| | Spread level s_{it} (percentage points) | | | | Spread change Δs_{it} (basis points) | | | |
| Mean | 0.39 | 4.21 | 1.56 | 3.02 | 3.57 | 6.70 | -1.38 | -8.31 |
| Median | 0.26 | 2.86 | 0.72 | 2.36 | 0.10 | -3.00 | -1.83 | -8.83 |
| Sd | 0.50 | 3.85 | 2.29 | 2.23 | 27.92 | 162.48 | 67.76 | 84.80 |
| Min | -0.14 | 0.15 | -0.06 | 0.41 | -99.08 | -952.59 | -314.45 | -854.70 |
| Max | 8.17 | 24.22 | 24.56 | 19.50 | 477.30 | 1 039.00 | 783.21 | 628.69 |
| Kurtosis | 85.83 | 6.71 | 25.31 | 11.26 | 128.75 | 11.91 | 32.78 | 24.59 |
| Skewness | 6.79 | 1.79 | 3.83 | 2.44 | 8.80 | 1.13 | 2.63 | -0.54 |
| Observations | 954 | 786 | 804 | 670 | 926 | 765 | 802 | 668 |

Notes: Level of spread measured in percentage points (left panel) and quarterly change in basis points (right panel).

Table A.4: Descriptive statistics for spread changes (end of quarter) measured in basis points.

| Country | Group | First obs | Last obs | Obs | Before 2008 | | After 2008 | |
|----------------|-------|-----------|----------|-----|---------------------|---------------------|---------------------|---------------------|
| | | | | | min(Δs_i) | max(Δs_i) | min(Δs_i) | max(Δs_i) |
| Australia | A | 2003q2 | 2010q3 | 25 | -14 | 11 | -73 | 90 |
| Austria | A | 1994q1 | 2018q4 | 100 | -15 | 20 | -62 | 85 |
| Belgium | A | 1992q1 | 2018q4 | 108 | -35 | 17 | -87 | 104 |
| Czech Republic | A | 2004q2 | 2018q4 | 59 | -4 | 11 | -98 | 109 |
| Denmark | A | 1988q4 | 2018q4 | 111 | -99 | 83 | -58 | 98 |
| Finland | A | 1992q3 | 2018q4 | 106 | -30 | 41 | -47 | 73 |
| France | A | 1999q2 | 2018q4 | 79 | -12 | 12 | -54 | 60 |
| Germany | A | 2004q2 | 2018q4 | 59 | -4 | 4 | -30 | 47 |
| Greece | A | 1992q3 | 2018q4 | 101 | -40 | 50 | -254 | 783 |
| Ireland | A | 1992q1 | 2018q4 | 108 | -25 | 18 | -280 | 205 |
| Italy | A | 1989q2 | 2018q4 | 119 | -20 | 32 | -204 | 238 |
| Latvia | A | 2006q2 | 2018q4 | 51 | -7 | 98 | -314 | 477 |
| Lithuania | A | 2005q3 | 2018q4 | 54 | -24 | 57 | -240 | 375 |
| Netherlands | A | 1999q2 | 2018q4 | 79 | -8 | 11 | -40 | 59 |
| Portugal | A | 1993q3 | 2018q4 | 102 | -14 | 14 | -215 | 307 |
| Slovakia | A | 2004q2 | 2018q4 | 59 | -7 | 9 | -205 | 116 |
| Slovenia | A | 2003q2 | 2018q4 | 63 | -51 | 31 | -183 | 178 |
| Spain | A | 1992q4 | 2018q4 | 105 | -55 | 22 | -75 | 144 |
| Sweden | A | 1993q2 | 2018q4 | 92 | -83 | 51 | -35 | 102 |
| United Kingdom | A | 1993q1 | 2018q4 | 104 | -41 | 25 | -47 | 81 |
| United States | A | 2008q1 | 2018q4 | 44 | | | -23 | 61 |
| Argentina | E | 1994Q1 | 2018q4 | 75 | -291 | 565 | -855 | 796 |
| Brazil | E | 1994q3 | 2018q4 | 98 | -953 | 852 | -165 | 184 |
| Bulgaria | E | 1994q4 | 2018q4 | 97 | -594 | 468 | -211 | 417 |
| Chile | E | 1999q3 | 2018q4 | 78 | -55 | 89 | -148 | 165 |
| Colombia | E | 1997q2 | 2018q4 | 87 | -433 | 560 | -208 | 225 |
| Croatia | E | 2004q2 | 2018q4 | 59 | -24 | 38 | -174 | 310 |
| Ecuador | E | 1995q2 | 2018q4 | 85 | -519 | 1 039 | -317 | 629 |
| El Salvador | E | 2002q3 | 2018q4 | 66 | -67 | 90 | -201 | 515 |
| Hungary | E | 1999q2 | 2018q4 | 79 | -67 | 63 | -190 | 375 |
| Malaysia | E | 1997q1 | 2018q4 | 88 | -439 | 622 | -200 | 221 |
| Mexico | E | 1994q1 | 2018q4 | 100 | -611 | 726 | -185 | 204 |
| Peru | E | 1997q2 | 2018q4 | 85 | -299 | 368 | -176 | 244 |
| Poland | E | 1995q1 | 2018q4 | 96 | -349 | 224 | -124 | 190 |
| South Africa | E | 1995q1 | 2018q4 | 96 | -175 | 300 | -157 | 243 |
| Thailand | E | 1997q3 | 2018q4 | 86 | -253 | 225 | -123 | 86 |
| Turkey | E | 1996q3 | 2018q4 | 90 | -322 | 382 | -212 | 188 |
| Uruguay | E | 2001q3 | 2018q4 | 68 | -415 | 774 | -276 | 318 |

Notes: “A” denotes advanced economies, while “E” denotes emerging economies following the classification in IMF (2015). US observations before 2008 are missing since CDS data is not available.

Table A.5: Standard deviation of spreads and spread changes in advanced and emerging economies before 2008 and after 2008

| | Before 2008 | | After 2008 | | | Before 2008 | | After 2008 | |
|---------------------------|------------------|-------------------------|------------------|-------------------------|---------------------------|------------------|-------------------------|------------------|-------------------------|
| | $\sigma(s_{it})$ | $\sigma(\Delta s_{it})$ | $\sigma(s_{it})$ | $\sigma(\Delta s_{it})$ | | $\sigma(s_{it})$ | $\sigma(\Delta s_{it})$ | $\sigma(s_{it})$ | $\sigma(\Delta s_{it})$ |
| <i>Advanced economies</i> | | | | | <i>Emerging economies</i> | | | | |
| Australia | 0.097 | 6.605 | 0.370 | 41.702 | Argentina | 3.282 | 191.484 | 3.552 | 260.232 |
| Austria | 0.090 | 6.212 | 0.407 | 26.131 | Brazil | 4.267 | 286.385 | 0.899 | 66.925 |
| Belgium | 0.177 | 7.432 | 0.607 | 32.969 | Bulgaria | 5.301 | 169.717 | 1.420 | 96.427 |
| Czech Republic | 0.044 | 3.651 | 0.411 | 30.455 | Chile | 0.562 | 30.648 | 0.534 | 44.754 |
| Denmark | 0.474 | 24.684 | 0.347 | 25.016 | Colombia | 2.258 | 164.523 | 0.853 | 63.747 |
| Finland | 0.209 | 9.766 | 0.268 | 19.765 | Croatia | 0.206 | 16.186 | 1.149 | 84.340 |
| France | 0.053 | 5.182 | 0.371 | 23.541 | Ecuador | 4.757 | 274.815 | 2.198 | 186.510 |
| Germany | 0.017 | 1.925 | 0.163 | 12.253 | El Salvador | 0.790 | 40.092 | 1.254 | 113.369 |
| Greece | 0.571 | 15.895 | 4.916 | 200.478 | Hungary | 0.377 | 25.733 | 1.487 | 97.193 |
| Ireland | 0.221 | 7.166 | 2.268 | 87.394 | Malaysia | 1.714 | 130.962 | 0.667 | 61.203 |
| Italy | 0.279 | 9.684 | 1.143 | 66.244 | Mexico | 2.886 | 172.559 | 0.716 | 57.482 |
| Latvia | 0.450 | 35.931 | 2.101 | 112.558 | Peru | 2.021 | 124.781 | 0.811 | 63.468 |
| Lithuania | 0.228 | 28.935 | 1.732 | 100.568 | Poland | 1.640 | 78.104 | 0.793 | 56.406 |
| Netherlands | 0.069 | 5.023 | 0.275 | 18.647 | South Africa | 1.323 | 68.257 | 0.862 | 69.835 |
| Portugal | 0.105 | 6.273 | 2.855 | 102.097 | Thailand | 1.109 | 73.002 | 0.483 | 35.729 |
| Slovakia | 0.040 | 4.048 | 1.021 | 58.982 | Turkey | 2.697 | 154.774 | 0.864 | 68.489 |
| Slovenia | 0.157 | 19.205 | 1.522 | 70.285 | Uruguay | 3.838 | 215.049 | 1.186 | 83.917 |
| Spain | 0.196 | 10.085 | 1.248 | 50.283 | | | | | |
| Sweden | 0.223 | 18.506 | 0.250 | 19.955 | | | | | |
| United Kingdom | 0.205 | 11.223 | 0.279 | 18.979 | | | | | |
| United States | | | 0.113 | 11.604 | | | | | |
| Mean | 0.321 | 12.770 | 2.215 | 69.485 | Average | 3.938 | 160.067 | 2.291 | 98.868 |

Notes: Spreads are measured in percentage points and spread changes in basis points.

Table A.6: Number of treatments and share of treatments in total number of spread changes by country (excluding default episodes)

| Country | $\sum D_i (>25\text{bp})$ | % of nobs | $\sum D_i(>50\text{bp})$ | % of nobs | $\sum D_i(>2\sigma)$ | % of nobs |
|----------------|---------------------------|------------|--------------------------|------------|----------------------|------------|
| Argentina | 9 | 12.00 | 9 | 12.00 | 2 | 2.67 |
| Australia | 1 | 4.00 | 1 | 4.00 | 1 | 4.00 |
| Austria | 4 | 4.00 | 2 | 2.00 | 3 | 3.00 |
| Belgium | 8 | 7.41 | 2 | 1.85 | 3 | 2.78 |
| Brazil | 6 | 6.12 | 6 | 6.12 | 4 | 4.08 |
| Bulgaria | 8 | 8.25 | 8 | 8.25 | 3 | 3.09 |
| Chile | 10 | 12.82 | 6 | 7.69 | 3 | 3.85 |
| Colombia | 6 | 6.90 | 6 | 6.90 | 2 | 2.30 |
| Croatia | 4 | 6.78 | 4 | 6.78 | 2 | 3.39 |
| Czech Republic | 6 | 10.17 | 2 | 3.39 | 2 | 3.39 |
| Denmark | 6 | 5.41 | 4 | 3.60 | 4 | 3.60 |
| Ecuador | 8 | 9.41 | 8 | 9.41 | 3 | 3.53 |
| El Salvador | 6 | 9.09 | 6 | 9.09 | 2 | 3.03 |
| Finland | 3 | 2.83 | 2 | 1.89 | 3 | 2.83 |
| France | 4 | 5.06 | 2 | 2.53 | 3 | 3.80 |
| Germany | 2 | 3.39 | 0 | 0.00 | 2 | 3.39 |
| Greece | 9 | 8.91 | 9 | 8.91 | 5 | 4.95 |
| Hungary | 6 | 7.59 | 6 | 7.59 | 3 | 3.80 |
| Ireland | 8 | 7.41 | 8 | 7.41 | 5 | 4.63 |
| Italy | 8 | 6.72 | 6 | 5.04 | 5 | 4.20 |
| Latvia | 4 | 7.84 | 4 | 7.84 | 1 | 1.96 |
| Lithuania | 6 | 11.11 | 6 | 11.11 | 2 | 3.70 |
| Malaysia | 5 | 5.68 | 5 | 5.68 | 2 | 2.27 |
| Mexico | 5 | 5.00 | 5 | 5.00 | 3 | 3.00 |
| Netherlands | 2 | 2.53 | 1 | 1.27 | 2 | 2.53 |
| Peru | 7 | 8.24 | 7 | 8.24 | 4 | 4.71 |
| Poland | 6 | 6.25 | 6 | 6.25 | 4 | 4.17 |
| Portugal | 7 | 6.86 | 7 | 6.86 | 4 | 3.92 |
| Slovakia | 7 | 11.86 | 7 | 11.86 | 3 | 5.08 |
| Slovenia | 6 | 9.52 | 6 | 9.52 | 2 | 3.17 |
| South Africa | 10 | 10.42 | 10 | 10.42 | 3 | 3.13 |
| Spain | 8 | 7.62 | 7 | 6.67 | 6 | 5.71 |
| Sweden | 6 | 6.52 | 2 | 2.17 | 3 | 3.26 |
| Thailand | 7 | 8.14 | 7 | 8.14 | 3 | 3.49 |
| Turkey | 12 | 13.33 | 12 | 13.33 | 4 | 4.44 |
| United Kingdom | 3 | 2.88 | 1 | 0.96 | 3 | 2.88 |
| United States | 1 | 2.27 | 1 | 2.27 | 1 | 2.27 |
| Uruguay | 5 | 7.35 | 5 | 7.35 | 3 | 4.41 |
| Total | 229 | mean: 7.24 | 196 | mean: 6.20 | 113 | mean: 3.57 |

Table A.7: Quarters t with treatment D in country i

| Quarter t | Countries with $D_t = 1$ according to Equation (1) |
|-------------|--|
| 1989Q2 | Denmark |
| 1994Q1 | Argentina, Mexico |
| 1994Q4 | Argentina, Bulgaria, Mexico |
| 1995Q1 | Argentina, Brazil, Bulgaria, Mexico, Poland, South Africa |
| 1997Q3 | South Africa, Thailand |
| 1997Q4 | Bulgaria, Denmark, South Africa, Thailand, Turkey |
| 1998Q2 | Brazil, Bulgaria, Malaysia, Peru, Thailand, Turkey |
| 1998Q3 | Argentina, Brazil, Bulgaria, Colombia, Ecuador, Finland, Malaysia, Mexico, Peru, Poland, South Africa, Thailand, Turkey |
| 1999Q1 | Ecuador |
| 1999Q2 | Colombia |
| 2000Q1 | Chile, Colombia, Sweden |
| 2000Q2 | Chile, Colombia |
| 2000Q4 | South Africa, Turkey |
| 2001Q1 | Turkey |
| 2001Q3 | Argentina, Brazil, Chile, Poland, Turkey |
| 2001Q4 | Denmark |
| 2002Q1 | Uruguay |
| 2002Q2 | Chile, Brazil, Peru, Turkey, Uruguay |
| 2002Q3 | Brazil, Colombia, Ecuador, Peru, Turkey, Uruguay |
| 2003Q1 | Turkey |
| 2004Q2 | Ecuador, Turkey |
| 2005Q3 | Sweden |
| 2005Q4 | Denmark, Sweden |
| 2006Q4 | Ecuador |
| 2007Q2 | Sweden |
| 2007Q3 | Chile |
| 2008Q1 | Belgium, Czech Republic, El Salvador, Lithuania, Hungary, South Africa |
| 2008Q3 | Argentina, Belgium, Chile, Czech Republic, Ecuador, El Salvador, Latvia, Lithuania, Peru, Slovakia, South Africa |
| 2008Q4 | Argentina, Australia, Austria, Belgium, Bulgaria, Chile, Colombia, Croatia, Czech Republic, Denmark, El Salvador, Finland, France, Germany, Greece, Hungary, Ireland, Italy, Latvia, Lithuania, Malaysia, Mexico, Netherlands, Peru, Poland, Slovakia, Slovenia, South Africa, Spain, Sweden, Thailand, Turkey, United Kingdom, United States, Uruguay |
| 2009Q1 | Czech Republic, France, Ireland, Latvia, Lithuania, Portugal |
| 2009Q4 | Greece, United Kingdom |
| 2010Q2 | Austria, Belgium, Bulgaria, Croatia, Czech Republic, El Salvador, Greece, Hungary, Ireland, Italy, Lithuania, Poland, Portugal, Spain |
| 2010Q3 | Ireland |
| 2010Q4 | Belgium, Greece, Ireland, Spain |
| 2011Q1 | Ireland, Portugal |
| 2011Q2 | Belgium, Greece, Ireland, Italy, Portugal, Slovakia, Slovenia, Spain |
| 2011Q3 | Argentina, Austria, Belgium, Bulgaria, Chile, Croatia, Czech Republic, Denmark, El Salvador, Finland, France, Germany, Greece, Hungary, Italy, Latvia, Lithuania, Malaysia, Netherlands, Peru, Poland, Portugal, Slovakia, Slovenia, South Africa, Spain, Sweden, Thailand, Turkey, United Kingdom, Uruguay |
| 2011Q4 | Austria, Belgium, France, Greece, Hungary, Ireland, Italy, Portugal, Slovakia, Slovenia |
| 2012Q2 | Croatia, Italy, Slovenia, Spain |
| 2013Q1 | Argentina, Hungary, Slovenia |
| 2013Q3 | Slovakia |
| 2014Q2 | Slovakia |
| 2014Q4 | Ecuador, Greece |
| 2015Q1 | Greece |
| 2015Q2 | Italy, Spain |
| 2015Q3 | Chile, Ecuador, El Salvador, Malaysia, South Africa, Thailand |
| 2016Q1 | Portugal |
| 2018Q2 | Italy, Spain |
| 2018Q4 | Chile |

Table A.8: Logit model: coefficients and average marginal effects (AME) based on Equation (2)

| Dependent Variable: Treatment D_t | Baseline model | | Extended model | |
|--|-------------------------|------------------------|--------------------------|------------------------|
| | coeff | AME | coeff | AME |
| Debt-to-GDP $_t$ | 17.5430* (8.5996) | 0.9855* (0.4838) | 115.1179*** (28.2418) | 4.1949*** (1.0035) |
| Debt-to-GDP $_t^2$ | -0.0006 (0.0005) | -0.0000 (0.0000) | -0.0054*** (0.0015) | -0.0002*** (0.0001) |
| GDP growth $_t$ | -37.7084*** (9.2445) | -2.1183*** (0.5167) | -71.8303** (26.8157) | -2.6175** (0.9629) |
| G growth $_t$ | -1.1192 (5.5443) | -0.0629 (0.3115) | -15.6519 (14.1591) | -0.5704 (0.5164) |
| Tax-to-GDP $_t$ | 0.0121 (0.0949) | 0.0007 (0.0053) | -0.1296 (0.1898) | -0.0047 (0.0069) |
| Deficit-to-GDP $_t$ | 10.5446 (14.5264) | 0.5924 (0.8161) | -50.4703 (36.0059) | -1.8391 (1.3067) |
| NFA $_t$ | 2.6319 (2.6718) | 0.1479 (0.1502) | -0.9824 (5.0811) | -0.0358 (0.1851) |
| NX share $_t$ | -7.4250 (6.6155) | -0.4171 (0.3720) | -8.8244 (18.5801) | -0.3216 (0.6766) |
| Inflation $_t$ | -22.5318** (8.1768) | -1.2658** (0.4595) | -93.6485** (32.0344) | -3.4126** (1.1592) |
| FX rate $_t$ | -16.7344*** (3.0005) | -0.9401*** (0.1672) | -24.8502** (8.1644) | -0.9055** (0.2897) |
| Stock market $_t$ | -1.3734 (1.2316) | -0.1564** (0.0532) | 22.2501** (6.9120) | -0.1015 (0.0842) |
| Political risk $_t$ | -0.4118** (0.1417) | -0.0231** (0.0079) | -0.0242 (0.3366) | -0.0009 (0.0123) |
| Government stability $_t$ | 0.4520 (0.2380) | 0.0254 (0.0134) | -0.2159 (0.4999) | -0.0079 (0.0182) |
| IMF assistance $_t$ | 0.8033 (0.4130) | 0.0451 (0.0232) | 0.6599 (1.7848) | 0.0240 (0.0650) |
| Floating $_t$ | -1.5424** (0.4883) | -0.0866** (0.0275) | -4.3400** (1.4333) | -0.1582** (0.0513) |
| Political turnover $_t$ | 0.1875 (0.4957) | 0.0105 (0.0278) | -0.0145 (1.0258) | -0.0005 (0.0374) |
| Debt-to-GDP $_{t-1}$ | -20.8251* (8.3335) | -1.1699* (0.4687) | -91.1007*** (25.6742) | -3.3197*** (0.9160) |
| Debt-to-GDP $_{t-1}^2$ | 0.0008 (0.0005) | 0.0000 (0.0000) | 0.0046*** (0.0013) | 0.0002*** (0.0000) |
| GDP growth $_{t-1}$ | 17.8767* (8.1544) | 1.0043* (0.4579) | -18.4398 (31.4582) | -0.6719 (1.1450) |
| G growth $_{t-1}$ | -10.8099 (6.3303) | -0.6073 (0.3562) | -40.1146* (16.7281) | -1.4618* (0.6058) |
| Tax-to-GDP $_{t-1}$ | -0.0077 (0.0952) | -0.0004 (0.0053) | 0.0177 (0.1951) | 0.0006 (0.0071) |
| Deficit-to-GDP $_{t-1}$ | 15.1266 (15.0660) | 0.8498 (0.8462) | 64.9080 (40.3421) | 2.3653 (1.4655) |
| NFA $_{t-1}$ | -3.4585 (2.6466) | -0.1943 (0.1488) | 2.8335 (5.2296) | 0.1033 (0.1903) |
| NX share $_{t-1}$ | -1.5166 (6.7019) | -0.0852 (0.3765) | -6.8379 (19.2400) | -0.2492 (0.7012) |
| Inflation $_{t-1}$ | 11.7221 (8.3943) | 0.6585 (0.4709) | -19.7957 (31.0485) | -0.7214 (1.1299) |
| FX rate $_{t-1}$ | 14.8142*** (2.9757) | 0.8322*** (0.1656) | 28.5589*** (8.5966) | 1.0407*** (0.3043) |
| Stock market $_{t-1}$ | 1.6735 (1.3278) | 0.0940 (0.0746) | 6.0567 (3.4333) | 0.2207 (0.1249) |
| Δs_{t-1} | -0.0011 (0.0013) | -0.0001 (0.0001) | -0.0074 (0.0054) | -0.0003 (0.0002) |
| Political risk $_{t-1}$ | 0.5283*** (0.1437) | 0.0297*** (0.0080) | 0.3930 (0.3094) | 0.0143 (0.0112) |
| Government stability $_{t-1}$ | -0.8565*** (0.2406) | -0.0481*** (0.0135) | -0.8497 (0.4597) | -0.0310 (0.0165) |

Table A.8: Logit model estimation results according to Equation (2) – continued

| Dependent Variable: | Baseline model | | Extended model | |
|--|-----------------------|-----------------------|---------------------------|-------------------------|
| | coeff | AME | coeff | AME |
| Stock market _t ² | -0.1097 (0.0587) | | -1.8278*** (0.4605) | |
| $D_{t-1} \times$ Stock market _t | -0.1332 (0.0762) | | 0.2359 (0.4008) | |
| GDP growth _{t-2} | 7.1439 (8.3100) | 0.4013 (0.4664) | 60.4079* (26.4611) | 2.2013* (0.9593) |
| G growth _{t-2} | -13.8706* (6.3529) | -0.7792* (0.3572) | 0.6169 (18.8570) | 0.0225 (0.6872) |
| G growth _{t-3} | -7.4643 (6.2228) | -0.4193 (0.3499) | 25.5322 (18.5595) | 0.9304 (0.6740) |
| G growth _{t-4} | -12.8755* (5.4041) | -0.7233* (0.3042) | -18.6650 (15.4221) | -0.6802 (0.5619) |
| Stock market _{t-2} | 1.0253 (1.2592) | 0.0576 (0.0708) | -2.7126 (3.1649) | -0.0988 (0.1153) |
| Stock market _{t-3} | 2.7250* (1.2150) | 0.1531* (0.0683) | 6.4923* (3.1547) | 0.2366* (0.1141) |
| Stock market _{t-4} | -2.5033** (0.8613) | -0.1406** (0.0485) | -7.2327** (2.3299) | -0.2636** (0.0839) |
| D_{t-1} | 0.5435 (0.5790) | 0.0305 (0.0325) | -3.4780 (2.7397) | -0.1267 (0.0996) |
| D_{t-2} | -0.1948 (0.3440) | -0.0109 (0.0193) | -0.2511 (0.7783) | -0.0092 (0.0283) |
| D_{t-3} | 0.3609 (0.3350) | 0.0203 (0.0188) | -1.6442 (0.8572) | -0.0599 (0.0312) |
| D_{t-4} | 0.1982 (0.3567) | 0.0111 (0.0200) | 0.0299 (0.7408) | 0.0011 (0.0270) |
| D_{t-1} (neg) | -0.0525 (0.4155) | -0.0030 (0.0233) | -0.5953 (1.0288) | -0.0217 (0.0375) |
| D_{t-2} (neg) | -0.5162 (0.4002) | -0.0290 (0.0225) | -1.2669 (0.9004) | -0.0462 (0.0327) |
| Interest Rate _t | | | 0.1166 (0.6530) | 0.0042 (0.0238) |
| Credit-to-GDP _t | | | 17.5733 (13.5510) | 0.6404 (0.4941) |
| Term spread _t | | | 1.1042* (0.4792) | 0.0402* (0.0173) |
| GDP growth forecast _t | | | -322.8091*** (92.7298) | -11.7632*** (3.3317) |
| G growth forecast _t | | | 102.0260 (52.6013) | 3.7178 (1.9093) |
| Interest Rate _{t-1} | | | 0.9404 (0.6814) | 0.0343 (0.0248) |
| Credit-to-GDP _{t-1} | | | -13.5219 (13.1559) | -0.4927 (0.4797) |
| Term spread _{t-1} | | | -0.3922 (0.4325) | -0.0143 (0.0157) |
| GDP growth forecast _{t-1} | | | 231.9433*** (66.3761) | 8.4521*** (2.3742) |
| G growth forecast _{t-1} | | | -157.1149*** (46.7019) | -5.7253*** (1.6768) |
| Observations | 1965 | 1965 | 1003 | 1003 |
| AUC | 0.8730 | | 0.9457 | |
| std(AUC) | 0.0139 | | 0.0155 | |

Notes: Dependent variable is treatment according to Equation (1). Clustered robust standard errors in parenthesis. Constant and country-fixed effects included but not reported. Some country-fixed effects are dropped in estimation due to perfect collinearity. For interaction terms, marginal effects cannot be computed. * p<0.10, ** p<0.05, *** p<0.01.

Table A.9: Descriptive statistics of the estimated propensity score by country for the baseline model specification

| Country | Mean | Std. Dev. | Median | Min | Max | Obs. |
|----------------|-------|-----------|--------|-------|-------|------|
| Argentina | 0.136 | 0.167 | 0.080 | 0.002 | 0.811 | 59 |
| Australia | 0.040 | 0.121 | 0.010 | 0.001 | 0.612 | 25 |
| Austria | 0.060 | 0.057 | 0.047 | 0.003 | 0.302 | 67 |
| Belgium | 0.107 | 0.092 | 0.076 | 0.003 | 0.510 | 75 |
| Brazil | 0.074 | 0.172 | 0.012 | 0.001 | 0.827 | 68 |
| Bulgaria | 0.077 | 0.091 | 0.029 | 0.003 | 0.323 | 39 |
| Colombia | 0.038 | 0.065 | 0.016 | 0.000 | 0.370 | 52 |
| Croatia | 0.092 | 0.106 | 0.055 | 0.004 | 0.535 | 45 |
| Czech Republic | 0.111 | 0.144 | 0.057 | 0.002 | 0.709 | 54 |
| Denmark | 0.070 | 0.092 | 0.046 | 0.004 | 0.622 | 57 |
| Finland | 0.028 | 0.046 | 0.013 | 0.001 | 0.321 | 71 |
| France | 0.061 | 0.061 | 0.038 | 0.004 | 0.320 | 71 |
| Germany | 0.037 | 0.042 | 0.017 | 0.005 | 0.189 | 54 |
| Greece | 0.143 | 0.229 | 0.023 | 0.001 | 0.910 | 63 |
| Hungary | 0.083 | 0.151 | 0.028 | 0.002 | 0.800 | 74 |
| Ireland | 0.127 | 0.248 | 0.007 | 0.000 | 0.993 | 63 |
| Italy | 0.088 | 0.077 | 0.065 | 0.008 | 0.474 | 75 |
| Lithuania | 0.122 | 0.193 | 0.034 | 0.007 | 0.976 | 49 |
| Malaysia | 0.038 | 0.098 | 0.016 | 0.000 | 0.696 | 52 |
| Mexico | 0.053 | 0.143 | 0.017 | 0.000 | 0.998 | 76 |
| Netherlands | 0.028 | 0.043 | 0.013 | 0.002 | 0.272 | 72 |
| Peru | 0.098 | 0.145 | 0.051 | 0.002 | 0.670 | 51 |
| Poland | 0.021 | 0.025 | 0.010 | 0.002 | 0.116 | 51 |
| Portugal | 0.097 | 0.124 | 0.036 | 0.008 | 0.568 | 72 |
| Slovakia | 0.163 | 0.164 | 0.124 | 0.026 | 0.931 | 43 |
| Slovenia | 0.103 | 0.135 | 0.035 | 0.004 | 0.565 | 58 |
| South Africa | 0.089 | 0.132 | 0.026 | 0.002 | 0.687 | 56 |
| Spain | 0.101 | 0.155 | 0.035 | 0.002 | 0.778 | 87 |
| Sweden | 0.078 | 0.090 | 0.045 | 0.004 | 0.489 | 77 |
| Thailand | 0.076 | 0.191 | 0.014 | 0.000 | 0.987 | 66 |
| Turkey | 0.161 | 0.232 | 0.049 | 0.001 | 0.833 | 56 |
| United Kingdom | 0.048 | 0.085 | 0.024 | 0.004 | 0.645 | 63 |
| United States | 0.042 | 0.025 | 0.039 | 0.012 | 0.104 | 24 |
| Total | 0.082 | 0.138 | 0.032 | 0.000 | 0.998 | 1965 |

Notes: Baseline specification includes a smaller set of control variables. Total indicates the equally-weighted country average/sum. Values have been rounded to 3 decimal places and are bounded away from zero in all instances. Robustness of the results to truncating the propensity score has been verified.

Table A.10: Descriptive statistics of the estimated propensity score by country for the extended model specification

| Country | Mean | Std. Dev. | Median | Min | Max | Obs. |
|----------------|-------|-----------|--------|-------|-------|------|
| Australia | 0.040 | 0.126 | 0.001 | 0.000 | 0.602 | 25 |
| Austria | 0.063 | 0.140 | 0.013 | 0.000 | 0.938 | 63 |
| Czech Republic | 0.111 | 0.180 | 0.024 | 0.000 | 0.704 | 54 |
| Denmark | 0.073 | 0.173 | 0.007 | 0.000 | 0.998 | 55 |
| Finland | 0.029 | 0.088 | 0.003 | 0.000 | 0.573 | 69 |
| France | 0.055 | 0.130 | 0.008 | 0.000 | 0.653 | 67 |
| Germany | 0.038 | 0.083 | 0.003 | 0.000 | 0.432 | 52 |
| Greece | 0.164 | 0.303 | 0.005 | 0.000 | 0.998 | 55 |
| Ireland | 0.148 | 0.315 | 0.001 | 0.000 | 1.000 | 54 |
| Italy | 0.106 | 0.197 | 0.023 | 0.000 | 0.835 | 73 |
| Malaysia | 0.051 | 0.173 | 0.000 | 0.000 | 1.000 | 39 |
| Netherlands | 0.029 | 0.099 | 0.002 | 0.000 | 0.778 | 70 |
| Portugal | 0.103 | 0.234 | 0.002 | 0.000 | 0.978 | 68 |
| Spain | 0.083 | 0.192 | 0.007 | 0.000 | 0.825 | 80 |
| Sweden | 0.106 | 0.198 | 0.019 | 0.000 | 0.877 | 47 |
| Thailand | 0.038 | 0.117 | 0.000 | 0.000 | 0.609 | 52 |
| United Kingdom | 0.054 | 0.149 | 0.006 | 0.000 | 0.986 | 56 |
| United States | 0.042 | 0.072 | 0.018 | 0.000 | 0.316 | 24 |
| Total | 0.076 | 0.183 | 0.005 | 0.000 | 1.000 | 1003 |

Notes: Total indicates the equally-weighted country average/sum. Values have been rounded to 3 decimal places and are bounded away from zero and one in all instances. Robustness of the results to truncating the propensity score has been verified.

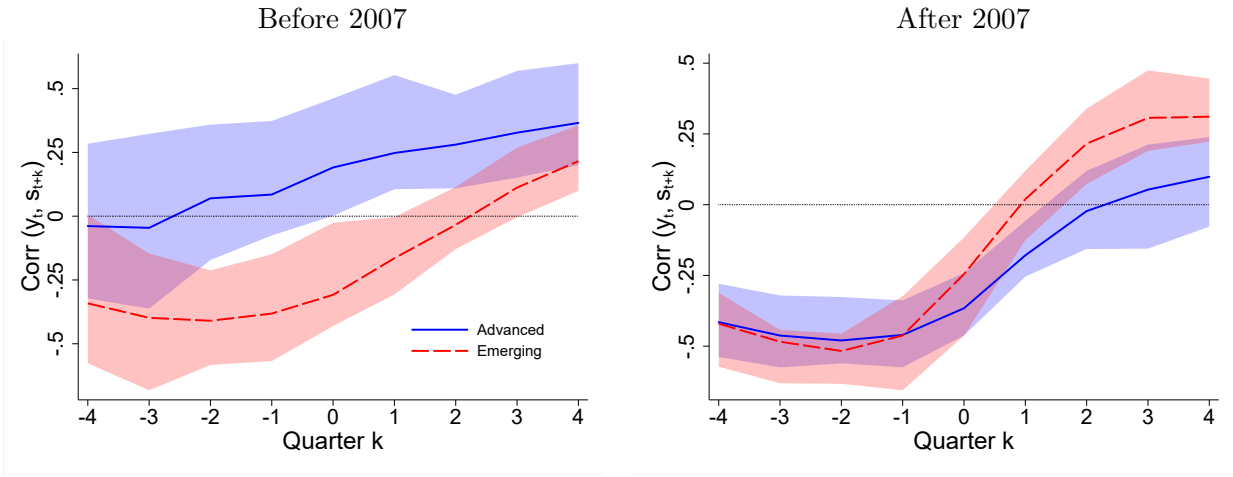


Figure A.1: Cross-correlation functions for output y_t and spread s_{t+k} , measured in levels at lead/lag $k = 0, \dots, \pm 4$ with alternative break date 2007Q1. For details, see Figure (3)

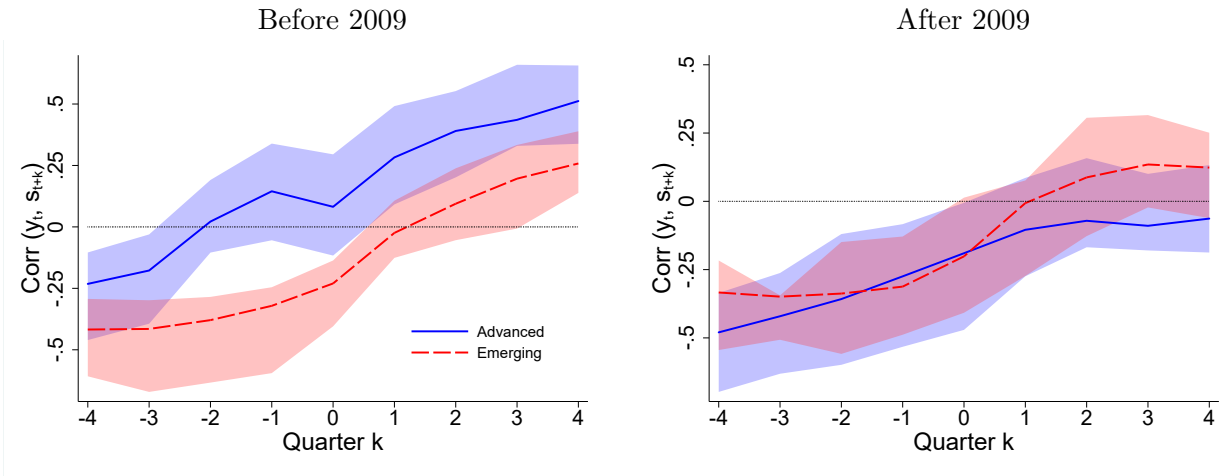


Figure A.2: Cross-correlation functions for output y_t and spread s_{t+k} , measured in levels at lead/lag $k = 0, \dots, \pm 4$ with alternative break date 2009Q1. For details, see Figure (3)

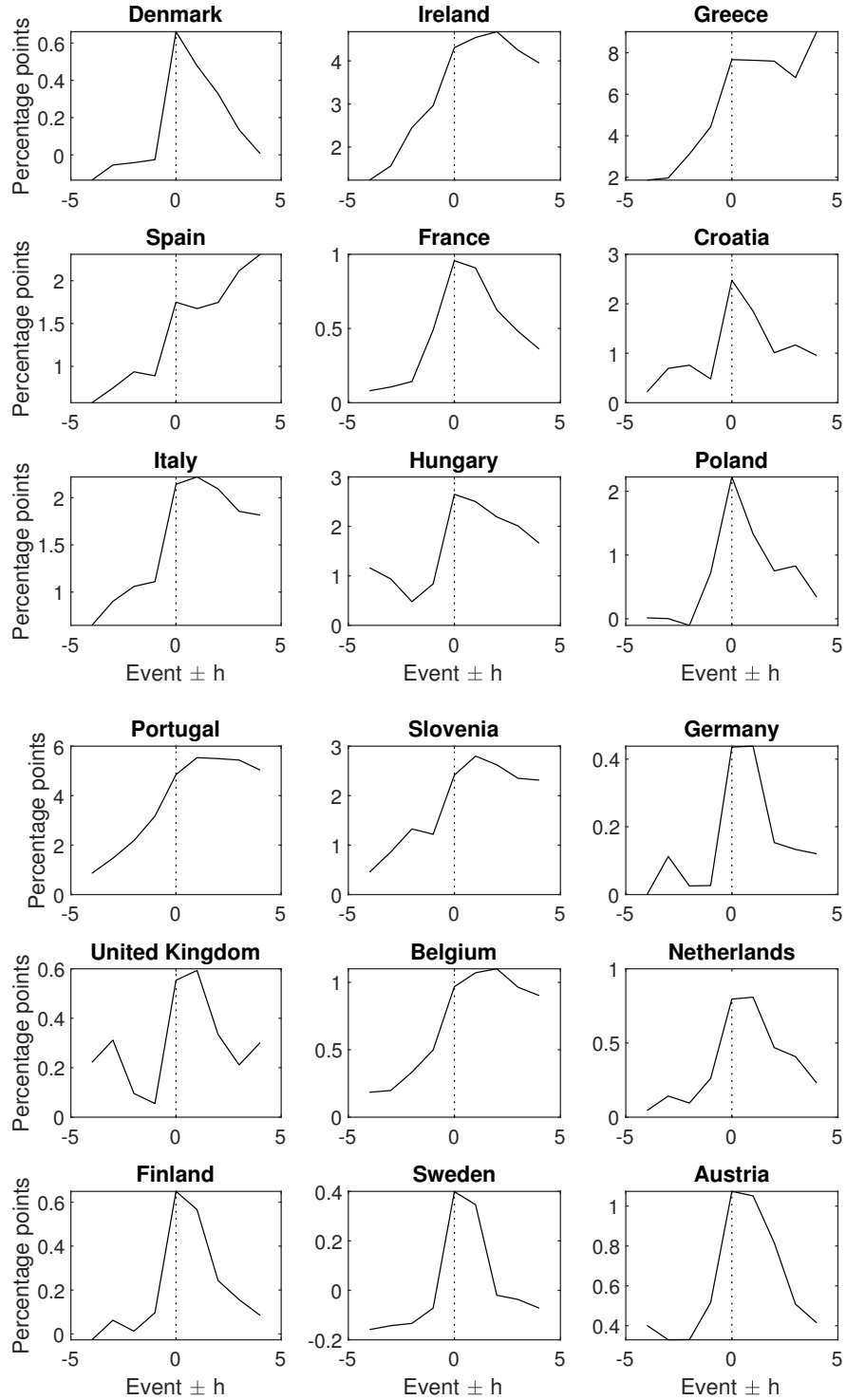


Figure A.3: Event windows country-by-country for the full sample: Treatment in period $t = 0$ and the average spread (in pps) in period $t \pm h$. Country-specific spread movements around treatments are measured as the average of spread deviations from the respective country mean over all events in the country in the event window $t \pm h$. Time is measured in quarters. Treatment is defined according to Equation (1).

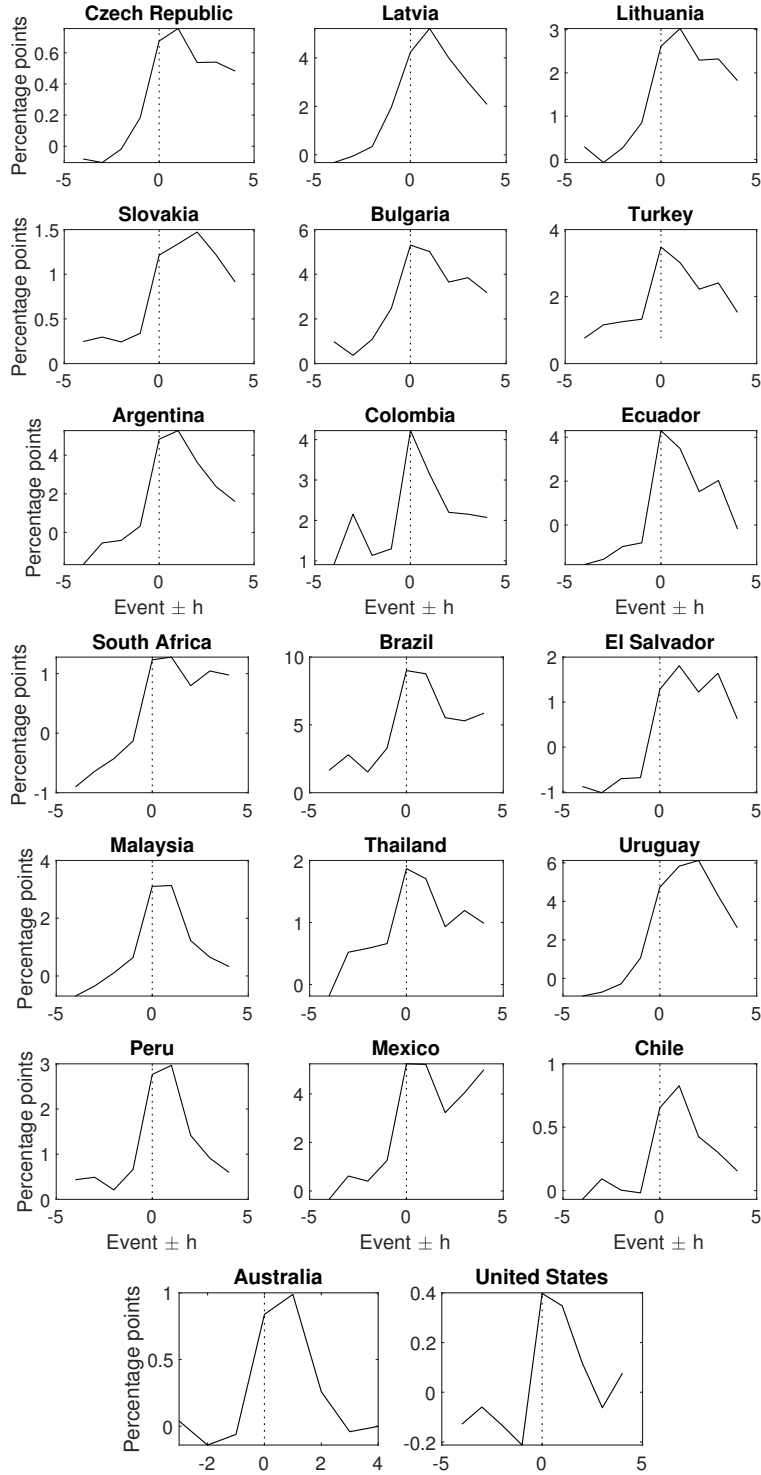


Figure A.4: Event windows country-by-country for the full sample: Treatment in period $t = 0$ and the average spread (in pps) in period $t \pm h$. Country-specific spread movements around treatments are measured as the average of spread deviations from the respective country mean over all events in the country in the event window $t \pm h$. Time is measured in quarters. Treatment is defined according to Equation (1).

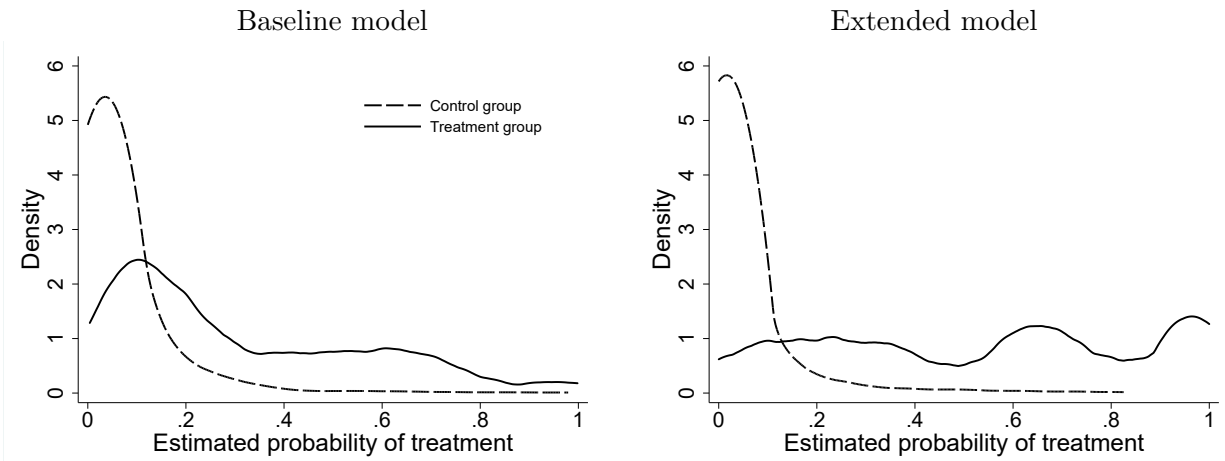


Figure A.5: Distribution of propensity score for the baseline model (left panel) and the extended model (right panel): Kernel density estimate of the predicted probabilities for treatment (solid line) and control group (dashed line) based on an Epanechnikov kernel with bandwidth 0.025.

Robustness check: Extended model specification

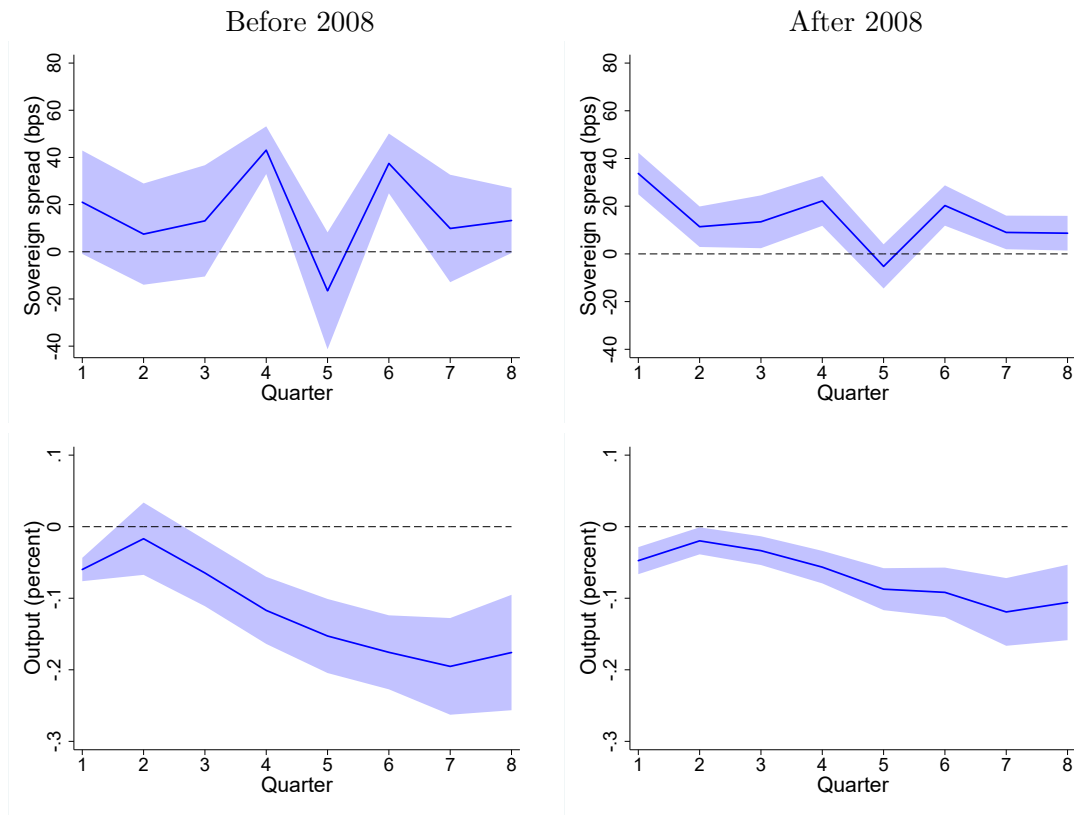


Figure A.6: ATE: responses to a sovereign spread shock (spread increase by more than one standard deviation but at least 25 bp). Extended specification of the first stage and regression adjustment. Response for advanced economies only due to data limitations. For details, see Figure 9.

Robustness check: Conservative treatment definition

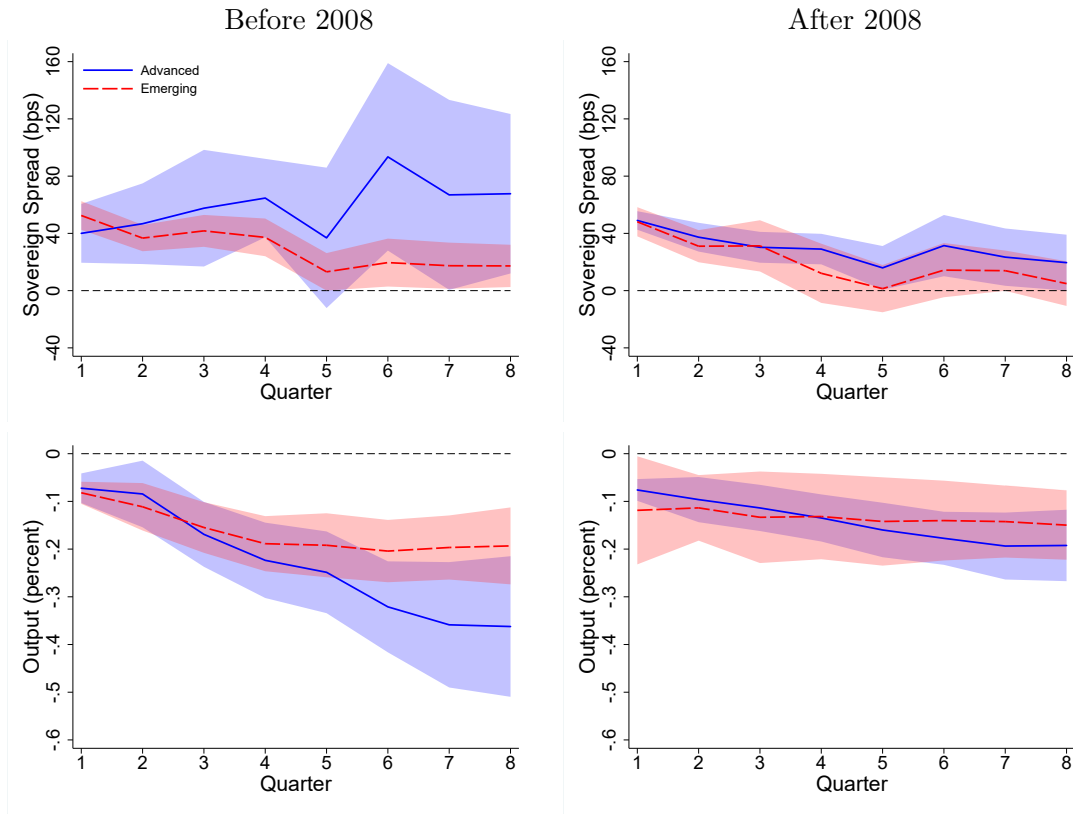


Figure A.7: Impulse responses to a $h = 0$ sovereign spread shock based on the ATE estimator in equation (5) together with a conservative treatment definition of $D_{i,t} = \mathbb{1}(\Delta s_{i,t} \geq \sigma_i \wedge \Delta s_{i,t} \geq 50\text{bp})$, i.e. increases of at least 50bp. For details, see Figure 9.

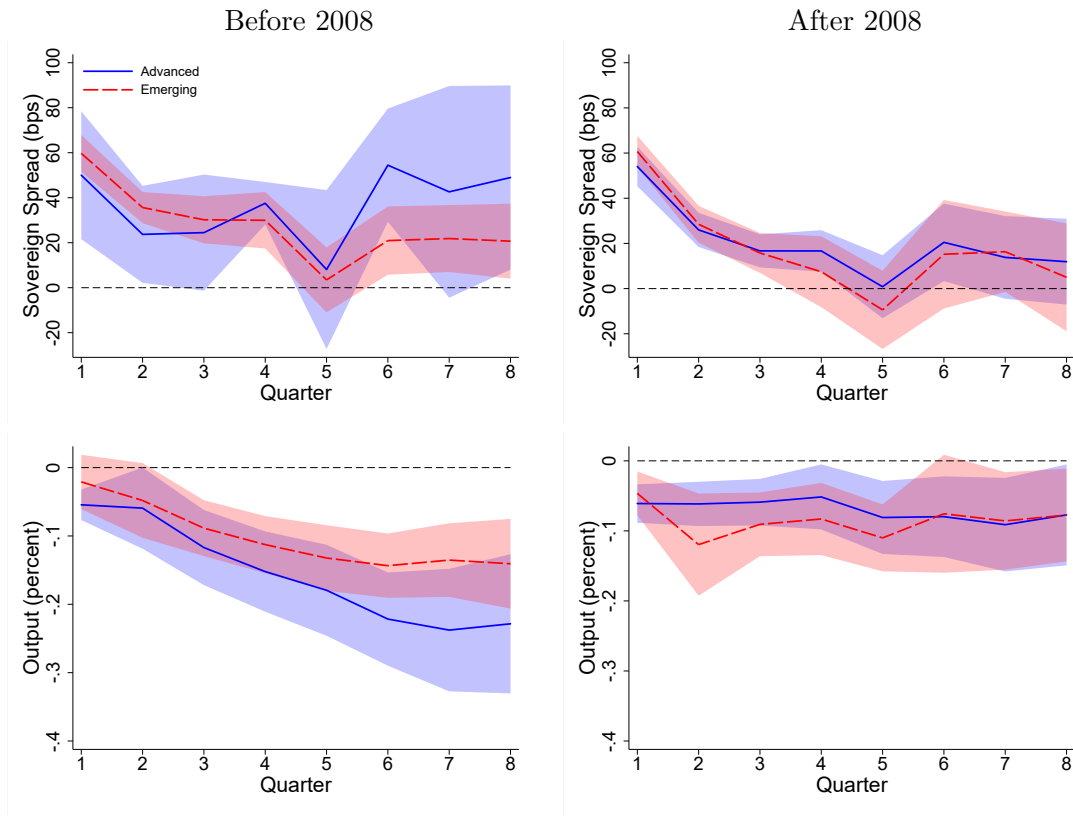


Figure A.8: Impulse responses to a $h = 0$ sovereign spread shock based on the ATE estimator in equation (5) together with a conservative treatment definition of $D_{i,t} = \mathbb{1}(\Delta s_{i,t} \geq 2\sigma_i \wedge \Delta s_{i,t} \geq 25\text{bp})$, i.e. increases of at least 2 standard deviations. For details, see Figure 9

Robustness check: Sample split in 2007

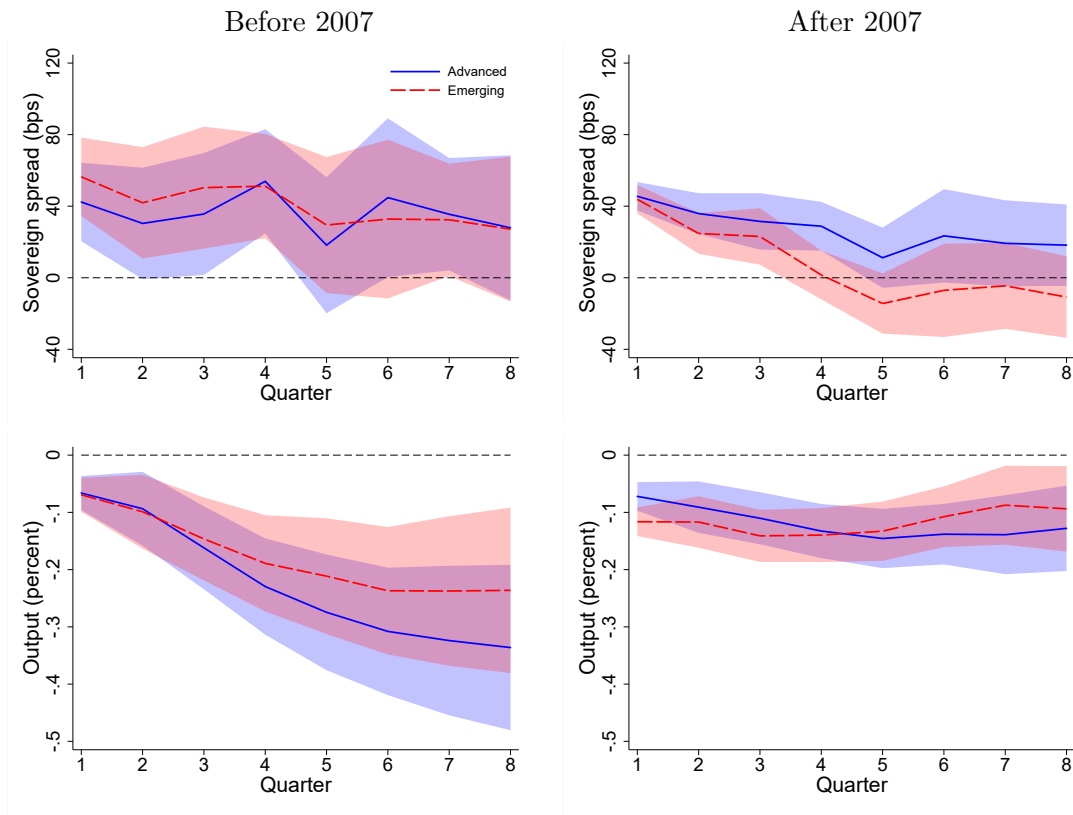


Figure A.9: Impulse responses to a $h = 0$ sovereign spread shock based on the ATE estimator in equation (5) together with the treatment definition in (1) and an alternative break date of 2007Q1. For details, see Figure 9.

Robustness check: Sample split in 2009

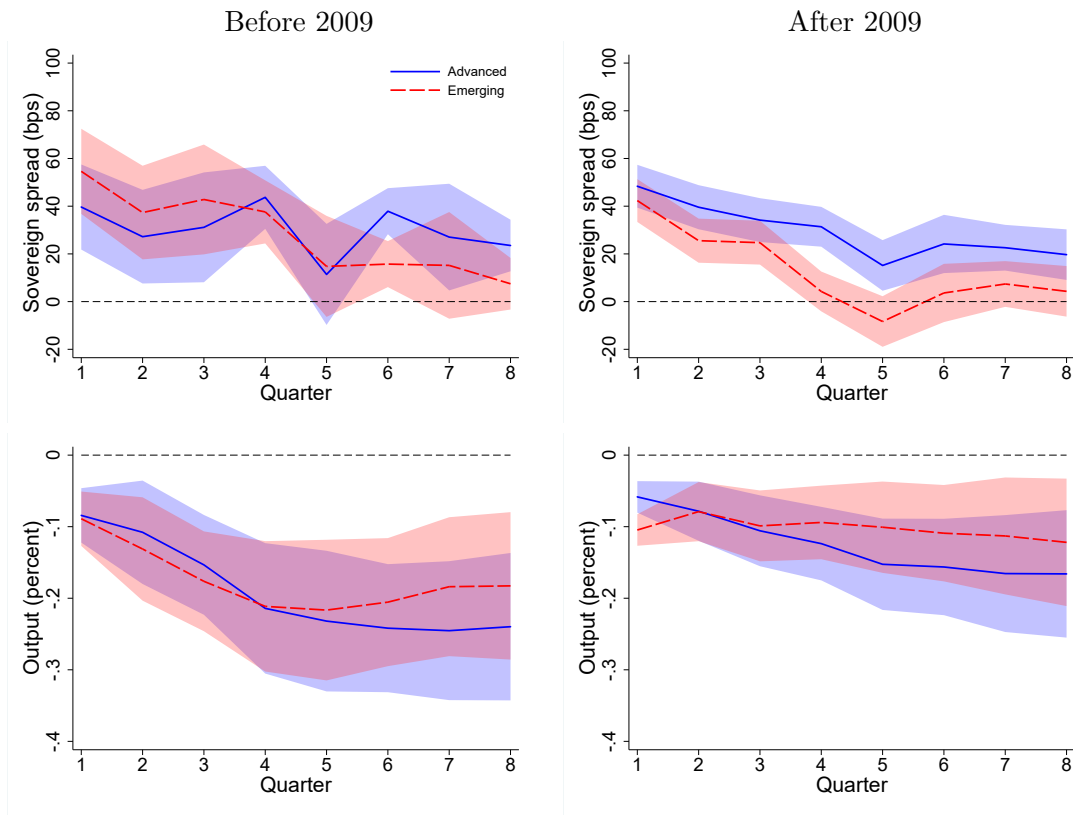


Figure A.10: Impulse responses to a $h = 0$ sovereign spread shock based on the ATE estimator in equation (5) together with the treatment definition in (1) and an alternative break date in 2009Q1. For details, see Figure 9.

Robustness check: Excluding Germany and US

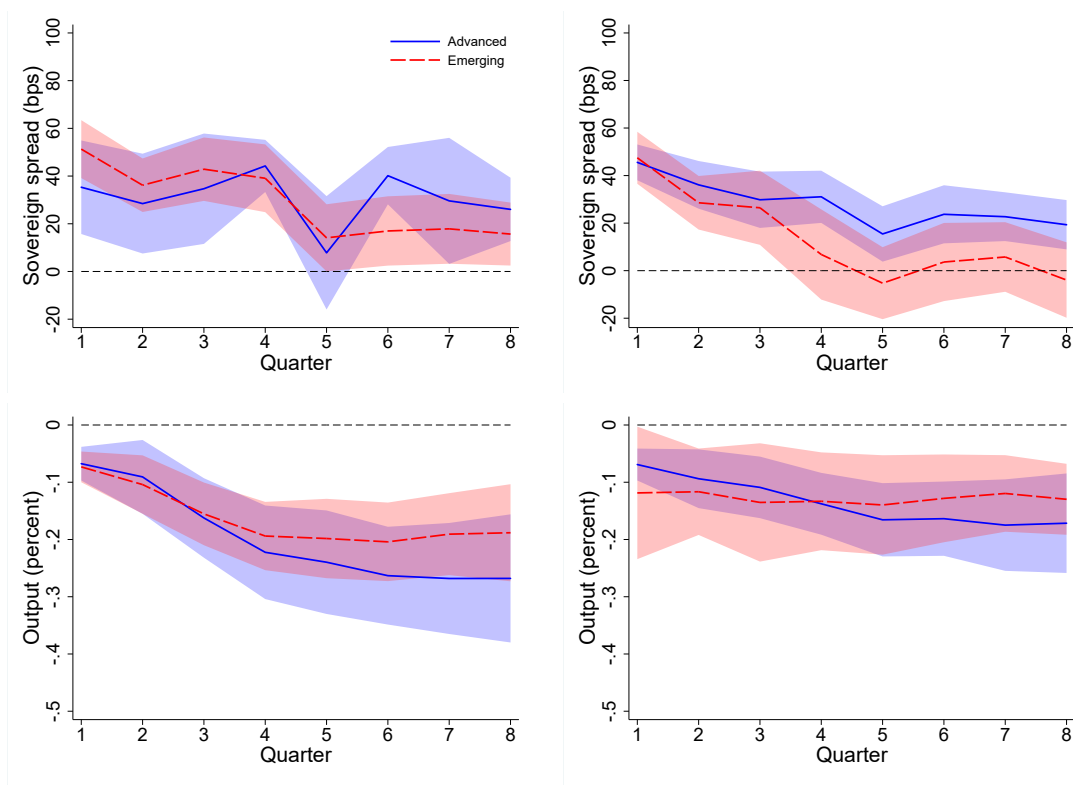


Figure A.11: Impulse responses to a $h = 0$ sovereign spread shock based on the ATE estimator in equation (5) together with the treatment definition in (1) when excluding Germany and the United States. For details, see Figure 9.