



BIS Working Papers  
No 1199

New spare tires: local  
currency credit as a  
global shock absorber

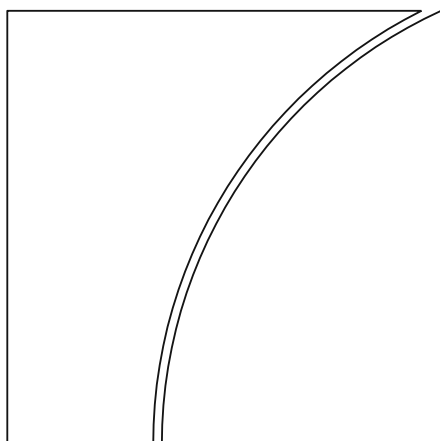
by Stefan Avdjiev, John Burger, Bryan Hardy

Monetary and Economic Department

July 2024

JEL classification: F30, G30

Keywords: Emerging markets, local currency debt,  
foreign currency debt, global factors, dollar debt



BIS Working Papers are written by members of the Monetary and Economic Department of the Bank for International Settlements, and from time to time by other economists, and are published by the Bank. The papers are on subjects of topical interest and are technical in character. The views expressed in them are those of their authors and not necessarily the views of the BIS.

This publication is available on the BIS website ([www.bis.org](http://www.bis.org)).

© *Bank for International Settlements 2024. All rights reserved. Brief excerpts may be reproduced or translated provided the source is stated.*

ISSN 1020-0959 (print)  
ISSN 1682-7678 (online)

# New spare tires: local currency credit as a global shock absorber<sup>1</sup>

Stefan Avdjiev  
Bank for International  
Settlements

John Burger  
Loyola University Maryland

Bryan Hardy  
Bank for International  
Settlements

3 JULY 2024

## Abstract

*It is well-known that dollar credit to emerging market (EM) corporates has expanded dramatically in the past two decades. However, the concurrent expansion of local currency credit, facilitated by more developed domestic financial systems, has been less recognized. This paper first uses data on EM corporates' borrowing through bonds and syndicated loans to show the considerable rise of their local currency debt. It then utilizes comprehensive firm-level data to document that EM corporates' local currency borrowing can offset shocks to their dollar debt, and how this varies across firms and countries. A broad dollar appreciation is associated with a decline in credit to "local" firms (smaller, non-exporting, with low profitability) but has no significant impact on "global" firms (larger, exporting, highly profitable). Firms in the mid-range (of these dimensions) see lower dollar debt in response to a stronger dollar, but replace it with local currency debt, thus offsetting the shock.*

**Keywords:** Emerging markets, local currency debt, foreign currency debt, global factors, dollar debt

**JEL Codes:** F30, G30

*"The failure to have backup forms of intermediation was of little consequence. The lack of a spare tire is of no concern if you do not get a flat. East Asia had no spare tires." – Alan Greenspan (19 October 1999)*

---

<sup>1</sup> The authors thank Stijn Claessens, Ilhyock Shim, Hyun Song Shin and seminar participants at the Bank for International Settlements for helpful comments and discussions, as well as Mert Onen for excellent research assistance. All errors are our own. Burger acknowledges support from a BIS Research Fellowship. The views expressed are those of the authors and do not necessarily reflect those of the Bank for International Settlements.

## 1. Introduction

It is well known that US dollar debt of emerging market economy (EME) non-financial corporates (NFCs) has increased dramatically over the past 20 years. However, EME financial systems have expanded and developed considerably during this time, facilitating greater levels of local currency debt. Most of the attention has been given to the important development of local currency sovereign debt markets which has attracted increased participation from foreign investors (contrary to the original sin hypothesis). The growing importance of local currency debt for corporates is often overlooked, especially when one focuses on “external” debt, which is more frequently denominated in foreign currency (especially USD) for corporates and is strongly influenced by global factors.

The sensitivity of dollar debt to global factors has been well established in the literature. Studies have shown that increases in the broad dollar index – a proxy for tightening global financial conditions – are associated with declines in cross-border and dollar lending by banks (Bruno and Shin (2015); Avdjiev et al (2019b)). In principle, the development of local currency debt markets, supported by domestic investors, could provide an alternative source of funding that reduces the sensitivity of EME firms to the dollar exchange rate.<sup>2</sup> Such a “spare tire” could cushion a blow from shocks to international credit.<sup>3</sup> Nevertheless, there is not much research on the impact of global factors on local currency corporate funding.

This paper addresses these gaps in the literature. It documents the growing importance of local currency debt for emerging market corporates and examines its links to the global financial cycle. We document two key sets of results. First, local currency debt of emerging market corporates has grown by as much as, and in some cases by more than, their dollar debt. This is especially the case for firms in non-tradable sectors. Second, the broad dollar exchange rate has a heterogeneous impact on US dollar debt across firms and can also affect their local currency borrowing. Specifically, the debt of “local” firms (smaller, non-exporters) is most impacted by the dollar, global firms (large, exporters) are largely unaffected by the dollar, and medium firms (along both dimensions) see a decline in their dollar borrowing but offset this with increased local currency borrowing.<sup>4</sup> The results are similar when sorting firms by

---

<sup>2</sup> There is evidence that local lending in local currency by foreign banks is more stable than cross-border bank lending (Ehlers and McGuire (2017); McCauley et al (2010)).

<sup>3</sup> In its original use, Greenspan (1999) contemplated if more developed capital markets could have helped offset the shock from the domestic banking system during the Asian financial crisis.

<sup>4</sup> Since our sample consists primarily of listed firms, “small firms” is a relative term, which does not overlap with SMEs.

profitability. Thus, the development and availability of local currency debt markets allows some, but not all, emerging market firms to offset global shocks.

We use data from Dealogic, containing global bond and syndicated loan issuances, to document long-term trends in debt by currency. We aggregate this by currency and sector for our sample of 22 emerging markets over 2000-2020. We further use firm-level data from Capital IQ to analyze the response of local and foreign currency corporate borrowing to global financial shocks. In contrast to the Dealogic data – and most studies examining how the global financial cycle affects corporate debt – this dataset captures all sources of debt.<sup>5</sup> In addition to the standard balance sheet information, we utilize two additional segments of the data that contain detail on the currency composition of the firm’s debt and on the location of the firm’s assets and sales. We analyze this dataset for 11,151 firms in 18 emerging market economies.

An expansion of domestic banks led the development of emerging market financial systems. Between 2001 and 2020, banking system assets of the typical emerging market rose from below 50% of GDP up to nearly 80%. The development of EME financial systems was coincident with a period of low rates in advanced economies, pushing dollar credit to emerging markets in a search for yield (Hardy and von Peter (2023)). The rapid rise in dollar and cross-border credit, with its attendant financial stability implications (CGFS (2011)), thus overshadowed the equally large increase in local currency corporate borrowing observed in data from Dealogic. Examining bonds and syndicated loans – vehicles typically used for dollar borrowing – both tradable and non-tradable firms saw comparable increases in dollar and local currency debt, with local currency debt of non-tradable sector firms rising even faster. These trends were common to both bonds and syndicated loans, though recently loans have driven the local currency debt and bonds the dollar debt. The increase in local currency debt was most pronounced in Asian EMEs.

Such an increase in local currency debt should mean that firms are less vulnerable to dollar funding shocks. This is both because the dollar debt is larger for firms in tradable sectors, which may have a more natural revenue hedge for dollar debt, and because these firms will have better access to local currency debt markets to replace any lost funding. Such shocks to dollar funding happen with fluctuations in global financial conditions, often correlated with the strength of the US dollar (Bruno and Shin (2015); Avdjiev et al (2019a, 2019b)).

We examine at the firm-level how global financial conditions (dollar strength) affect dollar and local currency debt of emerging market corporates. Using Capital IQ data, we regress debt growth on

---

<sup>5</sup> While firms included in Capital IQ tend to be relatively large, our sample includes both publicly listed and private firms.

growth in the broad dollar index, along with firm fixed effects and other firm and macro controls. We confirm findings in the literature that when the dollar strengthens, dollar credit for EME corporates contracts.

Novel to our paper, we show important heterogeneity across firms for both their dollar *and* local currency borrowing. Our analysis reveals a distinct pattern in the impact of global financial conditions on firm financing which is uncovered when one examines both dollar and local currency borrowing. When firms are unconstrained or otherwise hedged – such as by being larger, more profitable, or major exporters – their borrowing is not affected by global financial conditions. Firms in the mid-range of these variables are impacted in their dollar borrowing but are able to access local currency debt to replace the lost dollar debt, thus leaving total debt unaffected. For the most constrained firms, dollar debt is restricted as global dollar funding conditions tighten, but they are not able to shift to local currency debt to make up for it. This pattern is revealed clearly for all 3 of these dimensions (trade intensity, size, and profitability), and even holds for profitability when examining just the non-exporting firms. There appears to be a consistent difference between global firms, local firms, and firms in between which matters for how global financial conditions affect their borrowing and thus real outcomes. These results are reminiscent of the experience of firms around the great financial crisis (GFC): large firms resorted to the bond market when bank funding dried up, while smaller firms were effectively shut out (Adrian et al (2023)).

Extending the analysis, we find the same general pattern of results when we disaggregate total debt into bank loans and bonds. Although our primary focus is on firm level heterogeneity, we also consider country-level factors. Motivated by our descriptive finding that the development of local currency credit markets varies starkly across EMEs, we split the sample based on the degree of dollar reliance. We find that only firms located in less dollar reliant countries are able to substitute into local currency debt during periods of broad dollar appreciation.

Our analysis has important policy implications. First, concerns about the rapid rise in dollar denominated debt for EME corporates should be placed in the context of equally rapid growth in local currency credit. Second, the concentration of dollar debt in large tradeable/exporting firms, who are least likely to suffer from balance sheet mismatches and appear less sensitive to global conditions, should ease financial stability concerns. Third, access to local currency credit can insulate many EME firms from fluctuations in global financial conditions. Finally, policymakers should focus their attention on the most vulnerable firms whose access to both dollar *and* local currency credit appear sensitive to global conditions.

The rest of this paper proceeds as follows: section 2 reviews the relevant literature and articulates our contribution; section 3 presents the data used in the analysis; section 4 lays out the key stylized facts about the expansion of local currency corporate debt; section 5 analyzes the impact of global factors on local and dollar corporate borrowing; and section 6 concludes.

## **2. Literature Review**

The development of EME local currency sovereign bond markets has been well documented (see e.g. Burger and Warnock (2006) and Claessens et al (2007)). And contrary to the original sin hypothesis (Eichengreen and Hausmann (1999)), cross-border investors are increasingly willing to lend to EME sovereigns in local currency (Burger et al (2012); Onen et al. (2023)). For many EMEs lower inflation and improved policy credibility have fostered the ability to borrow from abroad in local currency and increased macroeconomic resilience in the face of global shocks (Alvarez and De Gregorio (2014); Kalemli-Özcan and Unsal (2023); Ogrokhina and Rodriguez (2018); Végh and Vuletin (2014)).

While currency mismatches for many EM sovereigns have abated, a surge in dollar borrowing by EME corporates has raised financial stability concerns (Acharya et al (2015); Alfaro et al (2019); Du and Schreger (2022)). Corporate reliance on foreign currency debt raises the possibility of adverse balance sheet impacts in the event of a depreciation (Hardy (2023); Kalemli-Özcan et al (2016); Kim et al (2015)). Much of the existing literature documenting rapid growth in USD-denominated credit to EME corporates has focused on external debt. Less attention has been paid to the impressive growth in private local currency debt markets, especially in emerging Asia (Abraham et al (2021); Avdjiev et al (2012)); Burger et al (2018); Hale et al (2020)). What is missing from the literature is a more comprehensive evaluation of credit to EME corporates. Our analysis includes debt across sources (domestic + external), instruments (loans + bonds), and currencies (local + foreign).<sup>6</sup>

Financial globalization and integration of emerging markets has fostered research into financial spillovers including the global financial cycle (Rey (2013, 2016)), the risk-taking channel of monetary policy (Bruno and Shin (2015)), and the dollar risk factor (Avdjiev et al (2019a)). The macroeconomic literature on global spillovers is extensive, but our paper builds on a smaller but growing literature using granular data to highlight heterogeneities in financial spillovers to emerging markets. Müller and Verner (2023) study credit booms across a wide range of countries and highlight an important heterogeneity by sector. Credit expansions in non-tradable sectors predict subsequent growth slowdowns and financial crises,

---

<sup>6</sup> There is a separate literature on the development of banking systems. See McCauley et al (2021) for a long-run view that highlights the growth of local currency denominated bank lending.

while credit expansions in the tradable sector are associated with output and productivity growth. In a firm-level EME study, Bacchetta et al (2023) find dollar debt issuance is more sensitive to US monetary spillovers for domestic oriented firms. We extend this analysis to consider the full balance sheet (bonds and loans) in all currencies (USD and local).

Our use of the broad dollar index to capture global financial conditions connects us to an extensive literature debating the impact of exchange rate movements on macroeconomic outcomes. The classic logic of Mundell-Fleming argues that a depreciation of the local currency is expansionary because net exports rise. Several decades of emerging market currency crises however suggested that depreciations may not always be desirable. Subsequent research demonstrated how currency mismatch could amplify shocks which depreciated the local currency (Céspedes, Chang and Velasco (2004)).

Empirical work that followed sought to causally identify the impact of such balance sheet shocks with micro data, though the results showed that considerable nuance was required: sometimes the measured effect was negative, sometimes absent, sometimes positive (see Hardy (2023) for a summary of diverging results). These nuances include that firms with natural hedges (ie FX revenues from exports) select more into FX debt (Bleakley and Cowan (2008)), larger firms are less constrained and so less impacted by balance sheet shocks (Kim, Tesar and Zhang (2015); Hardy (2023)), foreign ownership enable some firms to better maintain access to external financing (Kalemli-Özcan et al (2016)) and more productive or higher quality firms select into FX debt, either because they can better bear the risk (Salamao and Varela (2022)) or to signal their type (Eren, Malamud, and Zhou (2023)). Our work demonstrates again that heterogeneity in firm characteristics is crucial to understanding the impact of currency shocks, specifically noting the role of export intensity, firm size, and firm profitability.

Recent papers have illustrated a financial channel of the exchange rate playing through financiers rather than firms, with dollar strength at the center (Bruno and Shin (2023); Erik et al (2020); Jansen et al (2023); Ma and Schmidt-Eisenlohr (2023)). Most notably, Bruno and Shin (2015) show theoretically and empirically that a stronger dollar increases bank leverage (through mismatched counterparties), constraining the bank and leading it to contract credit. Fukui, Nakamura, and Steinsson (2023) compare countries that peg to the US dollar and those that do not to show that an appreciation of the US dollar is expansionary, but through a capital channel (net capital inflows as investment becomes cheaper) rather than a trade channel. Our results suggest that the financial channel remains relevant in the context of exchange rate movements from global shocks, as some firms see decreased debt, but that options for local currency borrowing may affect the relative strength of this channel for macroeconomic outcomes.



Closest to our paper is a small literature examining local currency corporate debt and global factors. Ayala et al (2017) focus on the shift between bank and bond financing but note that greater foreign currency bond market borrowing makes the country more sensitive to global factors. Hale et al (2020) document a significant increase in the share of bonds issued in local currency, and that shocks in the global market can affect this share. Bruno et al (2024) evaluate corporate bond issuance during periods of global financial stress and find increased local currency issuance during the COVID-19 pandemic. We examine all sources of debt in both local and foreign currency and examine how global shocks jointly affect firm borrowing by currency.

A few papers find evidence for the substitution effect to local currency borrowing. Hardy (2023) shows that balance sheet shocks from FX exposure result in lower FX debt growth for non-exporting Mexican firms, but larger such firms are able to substitute to local currency debt to offset this decline. Bonomo et al (2003) find earlier evidence of this for firms in Brazil. Our results show that this substitution is important in the context of global shocks.

### **3. Data**

We use two main sources of data in our study: firm-level balance sheet data from Capital IQ, and debt issuance data from Dealogic. We describe each in turn.

#### ***Capital IQ***

Capital IQ captures corporate balance sheet data for large publicly listed and privately held firms in many countries. This is our primary data source for our regression analysis described below. We focus on non-financial firms located in the following 18 emerging markets: Argentina, Brazil, Chile, Colombia, Czech Republic, Hungary, India, Indonesia, Korea, Malaysia, Mexico, Peru, Philippines, Poland, Russia, South Africa, Thailand, and Turkey. We drop financial firms, and also exclude state-owned firms from the sample, which are identified as firms that have "Government Institution," "Sovereign," or "Supranational" as the sector of their current ultimate corporate parents.

In addition to standard balance sheet information, we leverage two additional data modules provided by Capital IQ. The first is the capital structure module, which has debt by debt information for each firm, including amount of the debt, currency of the debt, and type of the debt (eg term loan, security). The currency dimension allows us to compute the share of each firm's debt that is owed in local currency, US dollars, Euros, etc. One important thing to note with this measure is that we capture the total debt of the firm, regardless of the type of the debt (eg bonds vs loans) or the location of the lender (eg local vs

foreign).<sup>7</sup> We aggregate the debt-by-debt data to the currency-instrument level for each firm-year observation. We keep only firms where the sum of this debt-by-debt data matches (within 5%) the total debt from the core balance sheet data. This is the case for 95% of firm-year observations with capital structure data. We compute flows of debt by adjusting the change in debt stocks for currency valuation effects.

The second data module is the geographic segments module. This dataset splits the sales and assets of each firm by country or region.<sup>8</sup> We use this to obtain measures of export intensity (share of sales outside of the home country) and foreign currency assets (assuming assets held outside the home country are denominated in foreign currency). We are able to compute these measures for 85% of our sample.

Our final dataset consists of 11,151 firms spanning 2010-2019.<sup>9</sup> We focus on annual observations, as not all firms report the capital structure data at a quarterly frequency. Coverage of firms improves over time, leading us to start the sample in 2010 despite having earlier observations. Hence, this data is less suited to showing global, aggregate trends over a long horizon. For this, we turn to our other dataset.

### ***Dealogic***

Dealogic captures issuance-level data for debt securities and syndicated loans. We select the same sample of countries as for the Capital IQ data, and extend it to include China, Hong Kong, Singapore, Chinese Taipei, and Saudi Arabia.<sup>10</sup> Dealogic captures most debt issued on major exchanges, with consistent coverage over time. It does not have good coverage of short-term debt (eg commercial paper) or sovereign debt, but captures well international debt and has some additional coverage of domestic debt. We focus on non-financial borrowers over 2000q1-2020q4.

The Dealogic data include detail on the volume of issuance, currency denomination, maturity, and industry classification of the issuer. We utilize this information to aggregate debt issues by currency and sector. We drop financial firms and holding companies. We group issuers into tradable sector firms and

---

<sup>7</sup> We clean this data for duplicate entries. For duplicates with annual observations, we prioritize observations where the period end date is closer to the calendar year end.

<sup>8</sup> The splits are not harmonized across firms, so some firms may report individual countries, others may report broad regions or groups of countries, and still others may report different cities. We identify which locations refer to a domestic country, region, or city, and classify all others as foreign.

<sup>9</sup> There are 18,714 firms in the capital IQ dataset for this sample, 14,409 of which have capital structure data. Our sample is further restricted by the availability of export intensity data and by requiring at least 3 years of data.

<sup>10</sup> China is both large and an outlier in terms of the growth of local currency corporate debt. We exclude China in our aggregate figures so it does not drive the observed patterns, but Graphs including China are in the Appendix.

non-tradable sector firms, by sector of the ultimate parent of the firm.<sup>11</sup> We group currencies into local currency (to the location of the firm’s ultimate parent), US dollars, Euros, and other.<sup>12</sup>

#### 4. Growth of EME corporate local currency debt

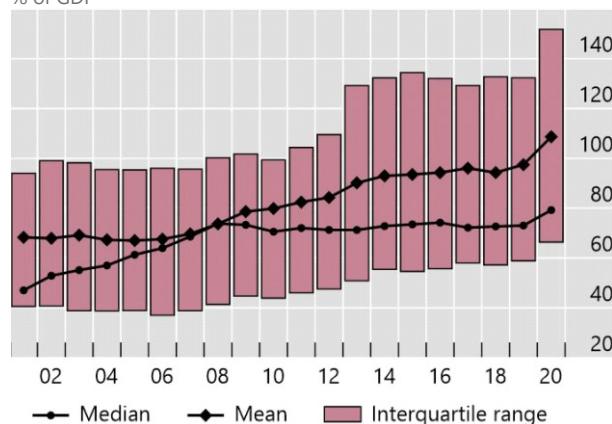
Emerging market financial systems have developed considerably over the past 25 years. Between 2001 and 2020, the banking system assets of the median EME rose from below 50% of GDP up to nearly 80%, with the average moving from below 70% up to nearly 110% (Graph 1.A). This growth led emerging markets to become much less reliant on foreign banks as domestic lenders increased credit, including in local currency (Hardy (2019)). The IMF’s financial development index also rose steadily for the average EME. The respective rise in the financial institution development subcomponent was even sharper (Graph 1.B). This reflects a dramatic expansion of emerging market banks, enabling them to provide much more credit to the corporate sector, especially local currency credit.

Financial development indicators

Graph 1

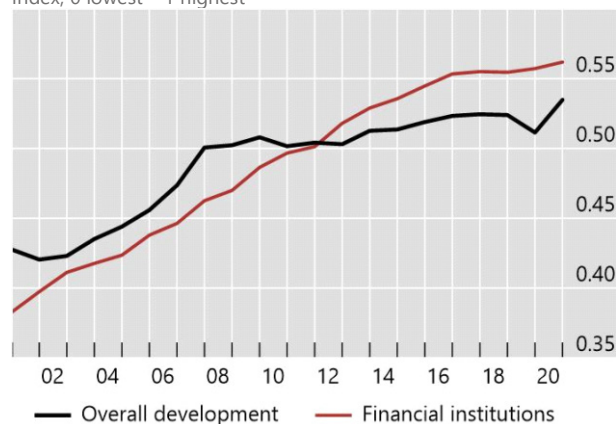
##### A. Banking sector assets<sup>1</sup>

% of GDP



##### B. Financial development index<sup>2</sup>

Index, 0 lowest – 1 highest



<sup>1</sup> Balanced panel of 20 countries. Excluding AR, SA, and TW due to data availability. <sup>2</sup> Simple average of the index for 22 emerging markets. Excluding TW due to data availability.

Sources: IMF; World Bank; authors’ calculations.

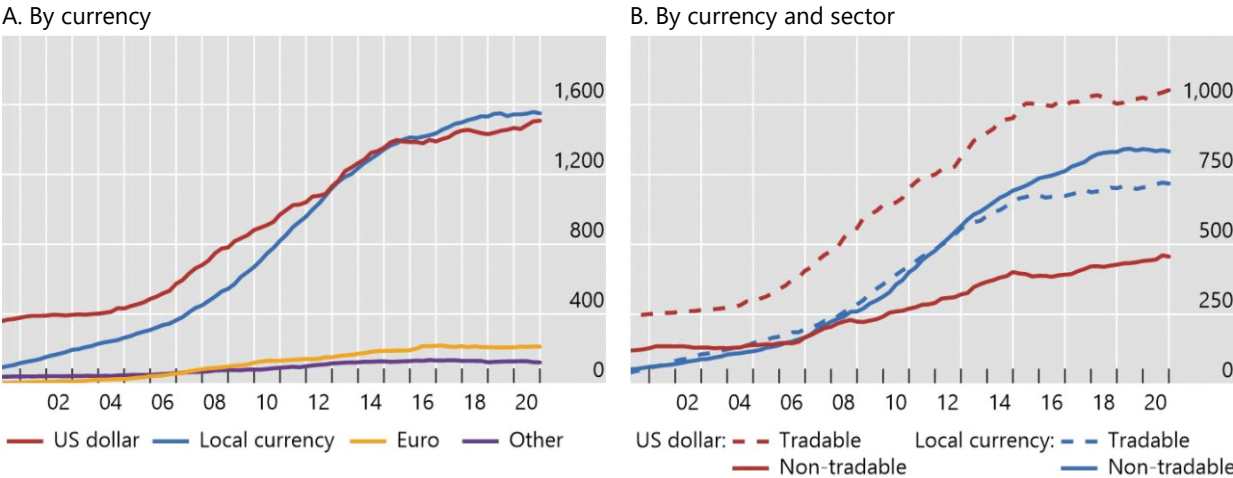
<sup>11</sup> We classify firms in the following sectors as tradable: aircraft, autos, chemicals, communications, forestry, manufacturing, machinery, metals, mining, oil, textiles, transportation, agriculture, and food. All others are non-tradable (eg retail, wholesale, etc.).

<sup>12</sup> Because we organize the debt around the ultimate parent, we capture both onshore and offshore borrowing of these firms (McGuire et al (2024)). Thus, the trends we document account for the possibility of firms increasingly issuing dollar bonds via offshore subsidiaries (Aldasoro et al (2021); Mizen et al (2021)).

Much of the development of most EME financial systems occurred in a period of easy dollar credit, as low rates in advanced economies led investors to search for yield in emerging markets (Hardy and von Peter (2023)). This led to a rapid increase in EME dollar debt, which raised serious financial stability concerns, mainly due to the currency mismatches that it could generate on the balance sheets of EME borrowers (Acharya et al (2015); Aldasoro and Ehlers (2018)). Thus, it overshadowed the coincident growth of local currency corporate debt, which was at least on par with, and in many cases even exceeded, that of dollar debt, measured as the sum of bonds and syndicated loans (Graph 2.A).<sup>13</sup> These trends hold for tradable sector firms, which saw parallel increases in dollar and local currency debt, and non-tradable sector firms, which saw local currency debt rise much faster than dollar debt (Graph 2.B).<sup>14</sup>

Aggregate EME corporate debt<sup>1</sup>

Outstanding amount of debt securities and loans, in billions of US dollars Graph 2



<sup>1</sup> Tradable: ultimate parent of the issuing firm is in a tradable sector such as manufacturing or agriculture. Non-tradable: ultimate parent of the issuing firm is in a non-tradable sector such as construction. For an unbalanced panel of firms headquartered in 22 emerging markets since Q1 2000. Includes debt securities and syndicated loans.

Sources: Dealogic; authors' calculations.

These aggregate trends are also present for both bonds and syndicated loans. Local and dollar bond debt both grew rapidly for EME corporates (Graph 3.A). Syndicated loans similarly saw concurrent

<sup>13</sup> The expansion of local currency debt markets for sovereigns has been extensively documented.  
<sup>14</sup> Note that the series plotted in Graph 2 are obtained from a sample of 22 EMEs that excludes China. This is done in order to illustrate that the rapid growth of local currency EME corporate debt is not driven solely by China but is instead a much broader phenomenon affecting a wide set of EMEs. Due to China's size and unusual reliance on local currency debt, including it in the sample makes the above trends (related to the rapid growth of local currency EME corporate debt) even more pronounced (Graphs A1-A3).

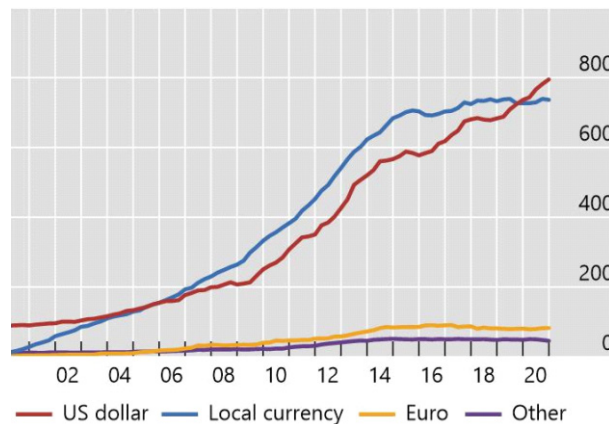
increases, with local currency debt taking the lead since 2018 (Graph 3.B). Breaking bonds and syndicated loans further by tradable and non-tradable sectors reveals that most of the increase in dollar bonds was driven by tradable firms, whereas both tradable and non-tradable firms had similar increases in local currency bonds (Graph 4.A). For syndicated loans, non-tradables took the lead in local currency issuance and nearly equaled the outstanding amounts of dollar syndicated loans among tradable firms by end-2020 (Graph 4.B). Notably, the plots in Graphs 2-4 are based on a sample of EMEs that does not include China. When China is included in the sample the growth of EME local currency corporate debt becomes even steeper (Appendix Graphs A1-A3).

### EME corporate debt by currency<sup>1</sup>

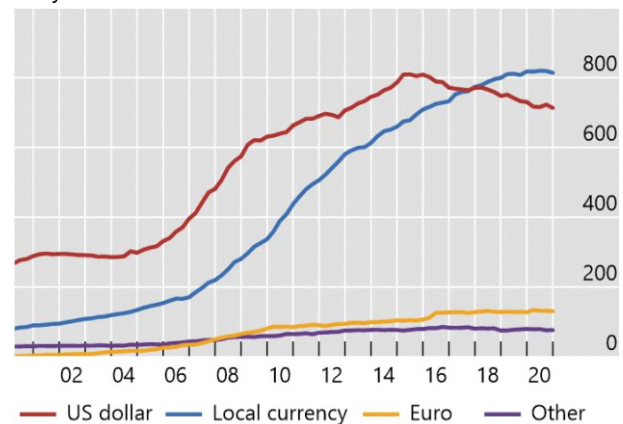
Outstanding amounts, in billions of US dollars

Graph 3

A. Bonds



B. Syndicated loans



<sup>1</sup> For an unbalanced panel of firms headquartered in 22 emerging markets (excluding China) since Q1 2000. Includes debt securities and syndicated loans.

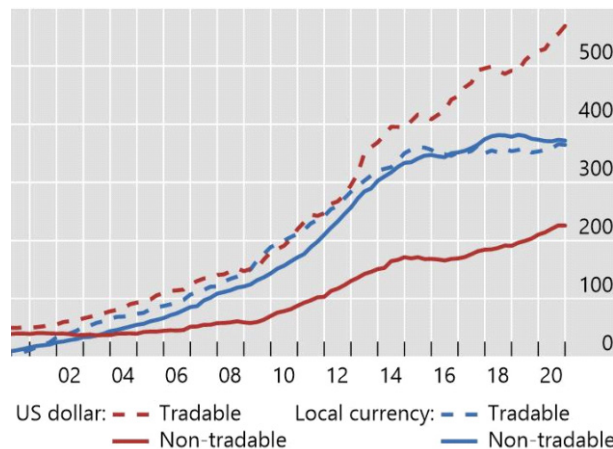
Sources: Dealogic; authors' calculations.

## EME corporate debt by currency and sector<sup>1</sup>

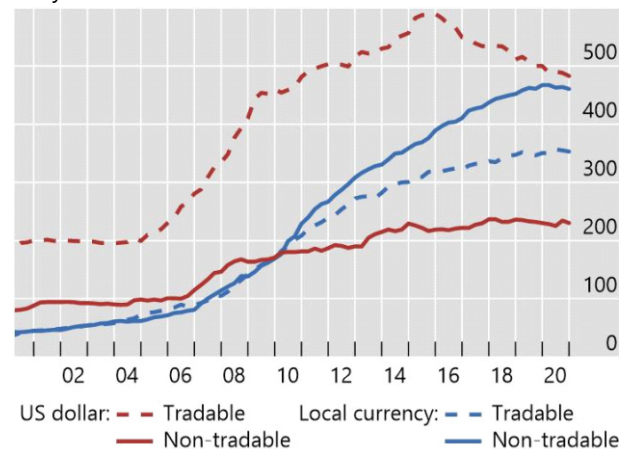
Outstanding amounts, in billions of US dollars

Graph 4

A. Bonds



B. Syndicated loans



<sup>1</sup> Tradable: ultimate parent of the issuing firm is in a tradable sector such as manufacturing or agriculture. Non-tradable: ultimate parent of the issuing firm is in a non-tradable sector such as construction. For an unbalanced panel of firms headquartered in 22 emerging markets (excluding China) since Q1 2000. Includes debt securities and syndicated loans.

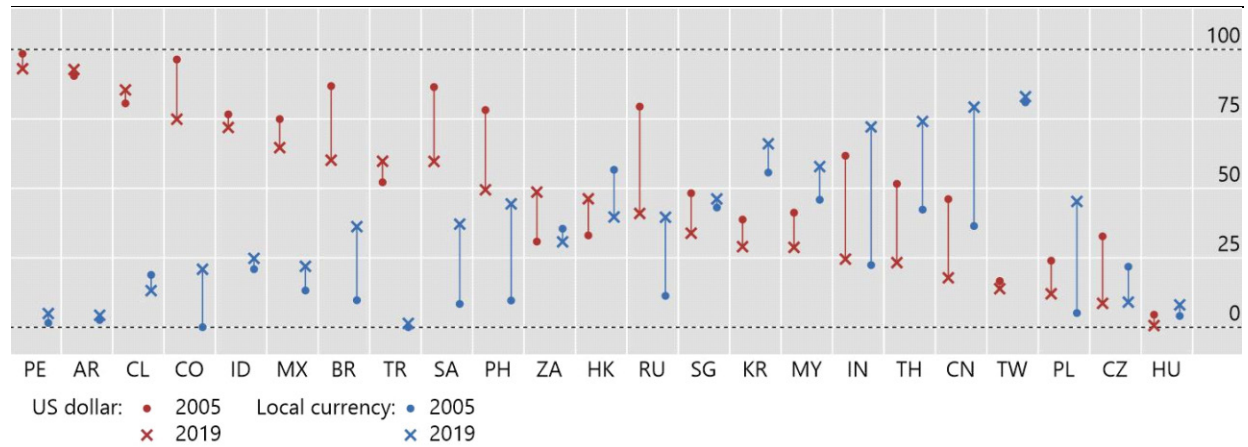
Sources: Dealogic; authors' calculations.

The shift towards relatively more local currency debt was broad based in our 23 EME sample. Only 4 (CI, CZ, HK, ZA) saw declines in the share of debt in local currency over 2005-2019 (Graph 5). The largest increases in this share came mainly from Asian EMEs such as IN, CN, PH, TH, though PL, SA, RU, BR, CO all had this share rise by more than 20%. Asian EMEs end the sample with much more local currency debt than foreign currency. This is not the case for Latin American firms, which despite increasing their share of debt in local currency, still had high levels of dollar debt amongst their bond and syndicated loan debt.

# US dollar and local currency share in total debt<sup>1</sup>

As a percentage of total debt outstanding

Graph 5



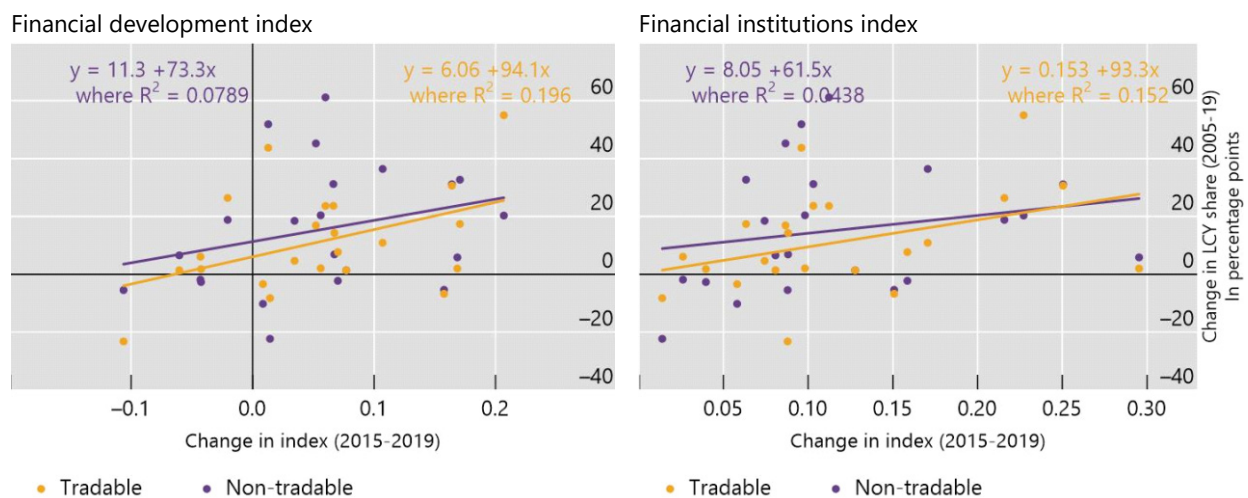
<sup>1</sup> Dates correspond to the fourth quarter of 2005 and 2019. Total debt represents the total outstanding amount of bonds and syndicated loans in the Dealogic dataset.

Sources: Dealogic; authors' calculations.

We next examine more carefully the relationship between financial development and local currency corporate debt. At first blush, there does seem to be a positive association across countries. When we plot the change in the financial development index over 2005-2019 against the change in the local currency share of debt, we find an upward sloping relationship for both tradable and non-tradable sectors (Graph 6).

# Financial development and change in local currency borrowing<sup>1</sup>

Graph 6



<sup>1</sup> Excluding AR, SA, and TW due to data availability. HK and SG are also excluded as outliers from their status as financial centres.

Sources: IMF; World Bank; authors' calculations.

To further bolster this connection, we regress the share of debt in local currency on these measures of financial development at the country-industry level. This enables us to control for shocks to individual sectors which may affect their borrowing in dollars or local currency (eg due to commodity price changes) through industry-time fixed effects. We employ the following regression:

$$\frac{LC\ Debt_{cjt}}{Total\ Debt_{cjt}} = \alpha_{cj} + \alpha_{jt} + \theta\ FinDev_{ct} + \varepsilon_{cjt}$$

Country industry fixed effects ( $\alpha_{cj}$ ) imply that we are comparing changes in financial development within each country against changes in the local currency share of debt for each country-sector unit. Since the explanatory variable varies at the country-time level, but the outcome variable varies at the country-industry-time level, we cluster our standard errors at the country-level to account for correlated errors across sectors within the same country and over time.

With this specification, we see that greater financial development (overall, or for banking institutions in particular) is associated with a larger share of corporate debt in local currency (Table 1). From the estimate in the first column, a 10 point increase in the financial development index (ranging from 0-100).<sup>15</sup> correlates with a 9pp increase in the local currency share of debt. When we examine this share for loans and bonds, we see that the loan share correlates more strongly with a higher financial institutions index, whereas the bond share correlates better with the overall financial development index.

These results come with an important caveat due to the coverage of Dealogic data. This does not capture the full balance sheet of firms. In particular, Dealogic data excludes bilateral bank debt, which tends to be extended by domestic banks and is primarily denominated in local currency. It may also miss some domestic corporate debt, such as short-term commercial paper or other bonds not traded internationally. Thus, the Dealogic data tends to skew the distribution towards cross-border and foreign currency debt. So, while the level of local vs USD debt should not be taken as the share of overall debt owed by firms in these countries, the trends derived from the Dealogic data are even more striking as they focus on the segment of debt that is most likely to be in foreign currency.

For comparison, we also plot the average share of debt in local currency from Capital IQ. We note again that this captures all of the firm's balance sheet, and so developments may be less stark since the additional coverage is mostly of local currency debt. Further, the Capital IQ data is less suited for documenting long-term aggregate trends in currency positions. Nevertheless, Graph 7 shows that this share has been largely stable, or even rising post-2010, despite the large influx of dollar credit to EME firms during this time. This is in line with the above results showing local currency debt rising alongside dollar

---

<sup>15</sup> To make the coefficients easier to read, we norm the financial index to range between 0-100 instead of 0-1.



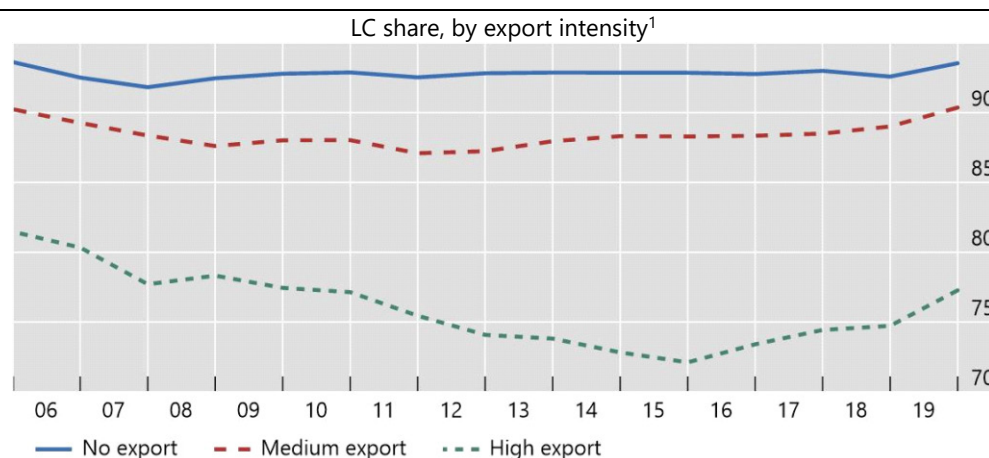
debt, stabilizing the share of debt in dollars. These data also confirm that firms with more than 50% of their sales as exports tend to have a much higher share of debt in foreign currency, but even for them the dollar share began to decline after 2015.

---

### Local currency share of debt in capital IQ data

Average in each year, unbalanced sample

Graph 7



<sup>1</sup> High export intensity is >50% of sales as exports, medium is 0-50%, and non-exporter is 0%.

Source: Capital IQ, authors' calculations

---

These facts highlight how large and significant the development of domestic financial markets has been for local currency debt of emerging market corporates. The next section examines how the availability of local currency debt changes the impact of global financial conditions on firm borrowing.

## 5. Global Factors and EME Corporate Debt

### a. Hypotheses – expected effects of BDI on EME debt issuance

Our empirical work examines how global financial conditions (proxied by the broad dollar index) affect debt growth at the firm level in emerging economies. There is a significant literature linking the broad dollar to cross-border credit flows, risk appetite, and global economic activity (Bruno and Shin (2015); Avdjiev (2019a,2019b)).

There are several channels through which fluctuations in the broad dollar could impact credit to EM corporates (Table 2). First, *the financial channel of exchange rates* works through currency mismatches on the balance sheets of EM firms. This channel has a *direct* and an *indirect* component. The former component is associated with the fact that a dollar appreciation has a negative impact on the balance sheets of firms with FX mismatches (i.e. firms that have borrowed in USD but lack dollar-denominated

assets or future expected income flows to match their dollar liabilities). As a result, we expect a broad dollar appreciation will have a stronger (negative) impact on dollar-denominated borrowing for EM firms that are primarily domestic/local (and, therefore, lack dollar export revenue or dollar assets). The indirect component of the financial channel of exchange rates works through the balance sheets of internationally active banks. More concretely, a broad dollar appreciation tends to weaken the balance sheets of the currency-mismatched borrowers in the global portfolio of internationally active banks. This increases the credit risk in the portfolios of those banks, which in turn tightens their value-at-risk (VaR) constraints. This results in a reduction in the supply of global dollar credit and a tightening of global financial conditions. This indirect component of the financial channel of exchange rates affects all firms (regardless of whether they have currency mismatches).

A second channel through which the broad dollar impacts the debt of EME corporates is the *dominant currency invoicing channel* (Gopinath et al, 2020). Since the majority of international trade is denominated in US dollars, a dollar appreciation is typically associated with a contraction in global trade, which in turn leads to a slowdown in global economic activity. This has a negative impact on both the supply of credit to EME corporates and on their demand for credit. As a consequence, a strengthening of the dollar has a negative impact on the debt of all EME corporates (regardless of whether they are exporters or non-exporters).<sup>16</sup>

On top of the above general effect, the *dominant currency invoicing channel* also has two additional effects on exporting firms. These two effects work in opposite directions and thus offset each other (at least partially). On the one hand, the contraction in global trade induced by a broad dollar appreciation has a direct negative effect on the profitability and the financial health of exporting corporates, which ultimately results in less credit being extended to them. On the other hand, a broad dollar appreciation increases the local currency value of each unit of exports. This increases the profitability and improves the financial health of exporting firms, which should (*ceteris paribus*) boost lending to them.

Third, there is also a *currency substitution channel*, which works indirectly – through interest rate differentials. More specifically, a USD appreciation is usually associated with a rise in USD interest rates

---

<sup>16</sup> Note that the *dominant currency invoicing channel* works in the opposite direction to the classical (Mundell-Fleming) trade channel. In the former channel, a dollar appreciation increases the relative prices of traded goods (since they are invoiced in dollars), which results in a contraction in trade and a decline in global economic activity. In the latter channel, a dollar appreciation vis-à-vis the currency of a given country reduces the relative prices of the goods produced in that economy (making its exports less expensive and its imports more expensive), which boosts that economy's next exports and, ultimately, its GDP.

relative to the interest rates on debt denominated in other currencies. As a consequence, borrowers have an incentive to substitute (at least on the margin) USD debt (which has become relatively more expensive) for local currency debt (which has become relatively cheaper).

The coexistence of the above channels and their heterogeneous impact on different types of EME firms generates several testable hypotheses. First, a broad dollar appreciation should have a negative (or insignificant) impact on dollar-denominated debt and a positive (or insignificant) impact on debt denominated in local currencies.<sup>17</sup> Second, the negative impact of the broad dollar on dollar debt should be most pronounced for EME firms with a large share of dollar debt and firms in non-tradeable sectors since those firm types are most likely to have large currency mismatches (not offset by future dollar revenues) and therefore be more exposed to the direct component of the financial channel of exchange rates. Third, the negative impact of a broad dollar appreciation on dollar debt should be stronger for smaller and less profitable firms since these firm types are most likely to be rationed away from credit markets during a tightening of global financial conditions (triggered by the indirect component of the financial channel). Fourth, the positive impact of a dollar appreciation on local currency debt should be most pronounced for global (exporting, larger and more profitable) firms since these firms should be best positioned to tap local currency debt markets when dollar debt becomes more expensive relative to local currency debt (i.e. due to the substitution channel).

## b. Empirical Approach

We employ firm-level data (as described in Section 3) to evaluate the channels through which the broad dollar impacts emerging market corporate debt. The dependent variable in our analysis is the annual growth rate in total debt (including loans, bonds, leases, etc.) by currency at the firm-level:

$$DG_{i,c,t} = \frac{DebtFlow_{i,c,t}}{DebtStock_{i,t-1}}$$

where  $DebtFlow_{i,c,t}$  represents new debt issuance (+) or repayments (-) by firm ( $i$ ), denominated in currency ( $c$ ), at time ( $t$ ) and  $DebtStock_{i,t-1}$  is total debt stock from the previous period.<sup>18</sup> Our baseline regression specification is:

$$DG_{i,c,t} = \alpha_i + \beta BDI_t + \delta X_{i,t-1} + \varphi Y_{i,t} + \varepsilon_{i,t}$$

<sup>17</sup> The impact on local currency debt could also be negative if a high share of the local currency debt is held by foreign investors with high exposure to global shocks. The existence of this channel has been documented for sovereign debt - the so-called “original sin redux” (Carstens and Shin (2019)).

<sup>18</sup> For the empirical analysis we winsorize  $DG_{i,c,t}$  by capping growth at 100% (a symmetric treatment given that negative growth is, by definition, capped at -100%)

where  $\alpha_i$  is a firm-level fixed effect,  $BDI_t$  is the annual growth rate in the broad dollar index,  $X_{i,t-1}$  are a set of firm-level controls and  $Y_{j,t}$  are country-level macroeconomic controls. Firm-level controls include the natural log of total assets, leverage ratio, and annual revenue growth.<sup>19</sup> Country-level controls include the change in the bilateral exchange rate (orthogonalized to BDI), growth in Real GDP, MSCI stock return, local policy interest rate, and inflation. Firm-level fixed effects are also included, as well as a dummy variable for the year 2019 (to control for a change in international financial reporting standards).<sup>20</sup> The firm-level fixed effects regressions are estimated using annual data over the 2010-2019 sample for all firms with at least 3 years of data.

The empirical analysis includes firms from 18 EMEs: Argentina, Brazil, Chile, Colombia, Czech Republic, Hungary, India, Indonesia, Korea, Malaysia, Mexico, Peru, Philippines, Poland, Russia, South Africa, Thailand, and Turkey.<sup>21</sup>

### c. Baseline Results

Table 3 presents baseline regression results for annual firm-level debt growth by currency over the 2010-2019 sample period. In the left panel (first 3 columns) we restrict the sample to 4,842 firms that had USD-denominated debt on their balance sheet at some point during the sample period. Our primary focus is on the impact of the broad dollar, but the coefficients on other country-level macroeconomic controls are largely intuitive. Firm-level debt growth is positively correlated with local real GDP growth and inflation rates, but negatively correlated with local monetary policy rates and stock returns. Depreciation of the bilateral exchange rate is associated with growth in local currency debt, consistent with a traditional trade channel.

As a proxy for global financial conditions, we focus our attention on the coefficient for the broad dollar index (BDI). As discussed above, the BDI has been found to closely track global liquidity conditions and global dollar funding conditions, especially after the 2008 crisis. In the total (all currency) column the BDI coefficient is negative but statistically insignificant. Splitting by currency we find broad dollar appreciation is associated with declines in USD-denominated credit (consistent with previous literature).

---

<sup>19</sup> Firm leverage is calculated as ratio of total debt to assets and winsorized at the 1% level.

<sup>20</sup> Due to a change initiated by the International Accounting Standards Board, as of January 2019 firms are required to eliminate nearly all off balance sheet accounting for leases. As a result, we observe a surge in leases on firm balance sheets during 2019 (which tend to be denominated in local currency).

<sup>21</sup> Notably, China, Hong Kong, and Singapore are excluded from our analysis because we lack firm-level data on export intensity.

In the local currency column, we find a marginally significant positive coefficient providing some preliminary evidence for a substitution channel – reduced global supply of dollar credit encourages firms to seek local currency funding. In the right panel of Table 1 (final column) we analyze a sample of 6,309 firms that had no foreign-currency-denominated debt on their balance sheet within the sample period. For this sample of firms there is no evidence that the broad dollar impacts debt issuance. The lack of BDI significance likely reflects the fact that there are no FX balance sheet effects and no substitution across currencies for these firms.

The results in Table 3 indicate broad dollar appreciation is associated with reduced USD-denominated borrowing by EME firms and suggest a potential substitution channel into local currency debt. As we extend the analysis, we focus on firms that had dollar debt on their balance sheet at some point in the sample. This is to isolate the firms that are more likely to have a relevant tradeoff between borrowing in local currency vs dollars. Further, we posit that sensitivity to the broad dollar is related to firm characteristics, and we specifically explore three dimensions of heterogeneity: export intensity, size, and profitability.

One channel for the broad dollar to impact emerging market firms is through currency mismatches on borrower balance sheets. Our primary results from Table 3, that the broad dollar specifically impacts USD-denominated credit and does not significantly impact firms without FX debt, are consistent with a balance sheet dimension for the financial channel of exchange rates. However, it is important to consider that some foreign currency debt is operationally hedged if firms choose to match the currency denomination of debt to foreign currency revenues from exports. In Table 4 we therefore split the sample of firms by export intensity (export revenue as a share of total sales) such that the left panel presents results for firms with no exports, the middle panel includes firms with average export intensity less than 50%, and the right panel is for firms whose exports average greater than 50% of sales. The largest impact of BDI is on USD-denominated debt growth for non-exporters (1,299 firms) – potentially consistent with concerns by creditors for currency mismatches in this group of firms that lack operational hedging. For the middle group of 2,695 firms, we also find that broad dollar appreciation leads to a decrease in USD-denominated debt growth, but these firms significantly substitute into local currency debt thus alleviating the impact on total credit. Finally, the right panel presents results for 848 major exporters and finds that these firms appear essentially immune from BDI effects.<sup>22</sup> Perhaps operational hedging by major exporters

---

<sup>22</sup> This is consistent with the theory from Bougheas et al (2018).

allays concerns about currency mismatches to the point where USD-denominated credit supply remains steady for these firms even in the face of global shocks.

Another dimension of heterogeneous fragility to global factors may be captured by firm size. The literature suggests that large firms maintain better access to cross-border/foreign currency credit (see e.g. Maggiori, Neiman, and Schreger (2020)). In Table 5 we split our sample by average firm size (measured by assets) such that results for the bottom 25% of the size distribution are presented in the left panel, middle 50% in the middle panel, and largest 25% in the right panel. The results suggest that a broad dollar appreciation is associated with a decline in USD-denominated debt for both small and medium sized firms. However, total debt declines only for small firms because medium firms appear better able to substitute into local currency when global financial conditions constrain USD credit. Large firms appear minimally impacted by the broad dollar although there is some marginally significant evidence of an increase in local currency debt as the broad dollar appreciates. The results are potentially consistent with large and medium firms crowding small firms out of local currency debt when global conditions tighten.

Our final indicator for firm-level sensitivity to global factors is profitability. Plausibly, global credit conditions may differentially impact EME borrowers based on firm performance (and thus creditworthiness). In Table 6 we split the sample by average profit rate (measured as EBT/Total Assets) with bottom 25% in the left panel, middle 50% in middle panel, and top 25% in the right panel. In the left panel of Table 6 we find that appreciation in the broad dollar leads to a contraction in USD-denominated and total debt for the least profitable firms. In response to broad dollar fluctuations, firms in the middle of the profit distribution substitute across USD and local currency debt such that total debt is not significantly impacted. Debt for the most profitable firms is not significantly impacted by the broad dollar.

A common theme emerges from our exploration of firm-level heterogeneity in Tables 4-6. Along each dimension of fragility (export intensity, size, profitability) we find that the most fragile firms have the greatest sensitivity to the broad dollar, firms in the middle of the distribution substitute across currencies in response to BDI fluctuations, and the least fragile firms are not significantly impacted. In Tables 7 and 8 we sharpen the analysis by exploring overlapping categories of firm-level fragility. In each case we focus on non-exporting firms that in theory will be most likely to suffer from adverse balance sheet effects in the face of a broad dollar appreciation. Table 7 explores differentiation by size across the sample of non-exporting firms. In the left panel we see our sample of 309 small non-exporters are very sensitive to BDI with total debt estimated to decline by 6.9% when the broad dollar appreciates by 10%. These small, local firms do not appear able to substitute across currencies as the estimated coefficient for BDI in the local currency column is also negative (albeit statistically insignificant). The 640 medium-sized non-exporters

demonstrate evidence of currency substitution such that broad dollar appreciation leads to a decrease in USD-denominated debt but an offsetting increase in local currency debt. In the right panel we find large non-exporters are not significantly impacted by the broad dollar. A very similar pattern is displayed in Table 8 where we find the least profitable non-exporters are most sensitive to the broad dollar while firms in the middle of the profit distribution substitute across currencies.

#### **d. Extensions**

Our finding in Table 4 that credit to non-exporting firms is more sensitive to the broad dollar is consistent with a direct financial channel through FX mismatches on issuer balance sheets. As a further test of the balance sheet channel, in Table 9 we introduce an interaction term between the rate of broad dollar appreciation and firm-level dependence on USD debt.  $USDshare_i$  is calculated as the share of total firm debt denominated in USD (averaged over time). According to the hypotheses laid out in Table 2, we expect firms that are more reliant on USD-denominated debt to be more sensitive to broad dollar fluctuations. Consistent with the balance sheet channel, in the left panel of Table 9 we find a significant interaction term indicating that non-exporters with higher shares of USD debt are particularly sensitive as broad dollar appreciation is associated with declines in USD-denominated and total debt. Results in the right panel suggest that major exporters are not significantly impacted by broad dollar fluctuations. And consistent with prior results, we find firms in the middle of the exporting spectrum (middle panel) are able to substitute across currencies as global dollar funding conditions vary.

Throughout the analysis we find that firms in the middle of the export/size/profitability distribution are able to offset global dollar shocks by substituting into local currency debt. The development of local currency debt markets (both bank loans and bond lending) highlighted in Section 4 has therefore reduced the vulnerability of EME firms to external funding shocks. However, it is important to note that access to local currency credit is uneven across EMEs (see Graph 5), suggesting that firms in some countries are more susceptible to global shocks. To evaluate the importance of cross-country heterogeneity, Table 10 splits our sample into countries that maintained a high level of dollar borrowing (AR, CL, PE, ID, and MX) compared to those that have a greater incorporation of local currency debt. Our dollar reliant sample shows a negative impact of the broad dollar on total borrowing, driven by decreased dollar borrowing, but no compensating increase in local currency debt. For countries with more robust local currency markets (right panel) we see no significant impact of the broad dollar on their total debt, as the decrease in dollar debt is matched by an offsetting increase in local currency debt. The evidence in

Table 10 suggests that the ability of EME firms to substitute across currencies varies significantly at the country level.<sup>23</sup>

Lastly, our baseline regressions focus on firm-level growth in total debt, but disaggregation into debt subcomponents (loans and bonds) is also possible. Table 11 presents the coefficient on the broad dollar index for bank loans and bonds based on the specifications employed in Tables 4, 5, 6, and 10. To conserve space, we report only the coefficient for the broad dollar index.

The top panel of Table 11 reveals that for non-exporters dollar denominated borrowing in the form of loans and bonds are each constrained as the broad dollar appreciates. These firms are able to substitute the lost dollar loans with local currency loans, but their local currency bonds also fall, driving the overall decline in bond credit. For middle range exporters we find broad dollar appreciation is associated with decreased dollar bank loans and increased local currency bond issuance (substitution across currencies and instruments). Neither bank loans nor bond credit to major exporters appears sensitive to BDI.

The second panel of Table 11 suggests that for small firms the sensitivity of credit to BDI is concentrated in bank loans (perhaps because small firms are less likely to issue bonds). For medium sized firms the substitution between USD and LC credit becomes statistically insignificant when splitting debt into loans and bonds, but once again there is no evidence that credit to large firms is sensitive to BDI. In the third panel of Table 11 we find evidence that low profit firms are constrained in dollar denominated bank and bond borrowing as the broad dollar appreciates, with no offsetting substitution to local currency credit. For medium profit firms there is statistically significant evidence of substitution across currencies for bank lending in response to BDI. For bond credit to medium profit firms there is a statistically insignificant hint of similar cross-currency substitution. For high profit firms there is some marginally significant evidence of a substitution from bank loans to bonds.

In the bottom panel of Table 11 we present results for the country-level dollar reliance split as explored in Table 10. The evidence suggests that in highly dollar reliant countries a BDI appreciation constrains both bank and bond lending as USD-denominated credit contracts and firms are not able to substitute into local currency loans or bonds. For firms in less dollar reliant countries, we find evidence of the ability to substitute across currencies for both bank loans and bonds as global conditions vary.

---

<sup>23</sup> Consistent with our results, Bruno et al (2024) find evidence that Asian EME firms increased local currency bond issuance during the COVID-19 pandemic.



## 6. Conclusion

The rise in externally funded dollar-denominated debt on the balance sheets of EM corporates is commonly cited as a potential financial stability risk. In this paper we note a few less appreciated points about debt on EM corporate balance sheets. First, local currency debt has grown as fast if not faster than dollar debt. Second, the fastest growth in dollar-denominated credit has been in tradeable sectors, while domestic oriented firms have seen rapid growth in local-currency denominated debt. Third, in our examination of the sensitivity of debt growth to global factors we find that large/global/highly profitable firms are least sensitive to fluctuations in the broad dollar, while small/local/low profit firms are most sensitive. Firms in the middle of the distribution along each of these dimensions appear able to substitute across currencies as global financial conditions vary.

Our results suggest significant policy implications. First, to evaluate the financial stability implications of debt growth in emerging markets requires a more granular examination of balance sheets. For example, to the extent that dollar debt is concentrated in large global firms that are operationally hedged there should be less of a concern. The fact that dollar credit flows to these firms are not significantly correlated with the broad dollar could be interpreted as a signal that the financial system does not anticipate any mismatch-related vulnerabilities for these large global firms. Second, the fact that most firms substitute across currencies as global conditions change suggests the development of local currency credit markets provides a critical shock absorber, a “spare tire” to compensate for punctures in global credit. Policymakers should therefore focus on continued development of local currency debt markets (currently highly uneven across emerging market economies). Finally, our finding that small/local/less profitable firms are most sensitive to global financial conditions should help policymakers focus their attention on the most vulnerable firms.

## References

- Abraham, F, J Cortina and S Schmukler (2021): "The rise of domestic capital markets for corporate financing: lessons from East Asia", *Journal of Banking and Finance*, vol 122, no 105987.
- Acharya, V, S Cecchetti, J De Gregorio, Ş Kalemli-Özcan, P Lane and U Panizza (2015): "Corporate debt in emerging economies: A threat to financial stability?" *Committee on International Economic Policy and Reform*.
- Adrian, T, P Colla and HS Shin (2013): "Which Financial Frictions? Parsing the Evidence from the Financial Crisis of 2007 to 2009", *NBER Macroeconomics Annual*.
- Aldasoro, I and T Ehlers (2018): "Global liquidity: changing instrument and currency patterns", *BIS Quarterly Review*, September, pp 17-27.
- Aldasoro, I, B Hardy and N Tarashev (2021): "Corporate debt: post-GFC through the pandemic", *BIS Quarterly Review*, June, pp 1-14.
- Alfaro, L, G Asis, A Chari and U Panizza (2019): "Corporate debt, firm size and financial fragility in emerging markets", *Journal of International Economics*, vol 118, pp 1-19.
- Alvarez, R and J De Gregorio (2014): "Understanding Differences in Growth Performance in Latin America and Developing Countries between the Asian and the Global Financial Crises", *IMF Economic Review*, vol 62(4), pp 494-525.
- Avdjiev, S, V Bruno, C Koch and HS Shin (2019a): "The dollar exchange rate as a global risk factor: evidence from investment", *IMF Economic Review*, vol 67, pp151-173.
- Avdjiev, S, C Koch, HS Shin, S and W Du (2019b): "The dollar, bank leverage, and deviations from covered interest parity", *AER:Insights*, vol 1(2), pp 193-208.
- Avdjiev, S, R McCauley and P McGuire (2012): "Rapid credit growth and international credit: challenges for Asia", in *Exchange rate appreciation, capital flows and excess liquidity: adjustment and effectiveness of policy responses*, The SEACEN Centre.
- Ayala, D, M Nedeljkovic and C Saborowski (2017): "What slice of the pie? The corporate bond market boom in emerging economies", *Journal of Financial Stability*, vol 30, pp 16-35.
- Bacchetta, P, R Cordonier and O Merrouche (2023): "The rise in foreign currency bonds: The role of US monetary policy and capital controls", *Journal of International Economics*, vol 140, No 103709.
- Bleakley, H and K Cowan (2008): "Corporate dollar debt and depreciations: much ado about nothing?", *Review of Economics and Statistics*, vol 90(4), pp 612-626.

- Bonomo, M, B Martins and R Pinto (2003): "Debt composition and exchange rate balance sheet effect in Brazil: a firm level analysis", *Emerging Markets Review*, vol 4(4), pp 368-396.
- Bougheas, S, H Lim, S Mateut, P Mizen and C Yalcin (2018): "Foreign currency borrowing, exports and firm performance: evidence from a currency crisis" *European Journal of Finance*, vol 24(17), pp 1649-1671.
- Bruno, V, M Dathan and Y Kitsul (2024). Corporate Bond Issuance Over Financial Stress Episodes: A Global Perspective. *International Finance Discussion Paper*, (1390).
- Bruno, V and HS Shin (2015): "Cross-border banking and global liquidity", *Review of Economic Studies*, vol 82(2), pp 535-564.
- Bruno, V and HS Shin (2023): "Dollar and exports", *Review of Financial Studies*, vol 36(8), pp 2963-2996.
- Burger, J and F Warnock (2006): "Local currency bond markets", *IMF Staff papers*, 53, pp 133-146.
- Burger, J, F Warnock and V Warnock (2012): "Emerging local currency bond markets", *Financial Analysts Journal*, vol 68(4), pp73-93.
- Burger, J, F Warnock and V Warnock (2018): "The effects of US monetary policy on emerging market economies' sovereign and corporate bond markets," *Central Banking, Analysis, and Economic Policies Book Series*, in: Enrique G. Mendoza & Ernesto Pastén & Diego Saravia (ed.), *Monetary Policy and Global Spillovers: Mechanisms, Effects, and Policy Measures*, edition 1, volume 25, chapter 3, pages 49-96, Central Bank of Chile.
- Carstens, A and H S Shin (2019): "Emerging markets aren't out of the woods yet", *Foreign Affairs*, 15 March.
- Céspedes, L, R Chang and A Velasco (2004): "Balance sheets and exchange rate policy", *American Economic Review*, vol 102(6), pp 2381-2409.
- Claessens, S, D Klingebiel and S Schmukler (2007): "Government bonds in domestic and foreign currency: the role of institutional and macroeconomic factors", *Review of International Economics*, 15(2), pp 370-413.
- Committee on the Global Financial System (2011): "Global liquidity – concept, measurement and policy implications", *CGFS Papers*, no 45.
- Du, W and J Schreger (2022): "Sovereign risk, currency risk, and corporate balance sheets", *Review of Financial Studies*, vol 35(10), pp 4587-4629.
- Ehlers, T and P McGuire (2017): "Foreign banks and credit conditions in EMEs", *BIS Papers*, No 91.
- Eichengreen, B and R Hausmann (1999): "Exchange rates and financial fragility", in *New challenges for monetary policy*, proceedings of the Federal Reserve Bank of Kansas City Jackson Hole Symposium, pp 319-367.

- Eren, E S Malamud and H Zhou (2023): “Signaling with debt currency choice”, *BIS Working Papers*, No 1067.
- Erik, B, M Lombardi, D Mihajlek and HS Shin (2020): “The dollar, bank leverage, and real economic activity: an evolving relationship”, *AEA Papers and Proceedings*, vol 110, pp 529-534.
- Fukui, M, E Nakamura and J Steinsson (2023): “The macroeconomic consequences of exchange rate depreciations”, Working Paper.
- Greenspan, A (1999): “Do efficient financial markets mitigate financial crisis?”, speech given 19 Oct 1999 in Sea Island, Georgia, Financial Markets Conference of the Federal Reserve Bank of Atlanta.
- Hale, G, P Jones and M Spiegel (2020): “Home currency issuance in international bond markets”, *Journal of International Economics*, vol 122.
- Hardy, B (2019): “Emerging markets’ reliance on foreign bank credit”, *BIS Quarterly Review*, March, pp 15-28.
- Hardy, B (2023): “Foreign currency borrowing, balance sheet shocks, and real outcomes”, *Journal of International Money and Finance*, vol 139 (102969).
- Hardy, B and G von Peter (2023): “Global liquidity: a new phase?”, *BIS Quarterly Review*, December, pp 21-31
- Jansen, K, HS Shin and G von Peter (2023): “Which exchange rates matter to global investors”, Working Paper.
- Kalemli-Özcan, Ş, H Kamil and C Villegas-Sanchez (2016): “What hinders investment in the aftermath of financial crises? Insolvent firms or illiquid banks?”, *Review of Economics and Statistics*, vol 98(4), pp 756-769.
- Kalemli-Özcan, Ş and F Unsal (2024): “Global transmission of FED hikes: the role of policy credibility and balance sheets”, *NBER Working Paper* No 32329.
- Kim, Y, L Tesar and J Zhang (2015): “The impact of foreign liabilities on small firms: firm-level evidence from the Korean crisis”, *Journal of International Economics*, vol 97, pp 209-230.
- Ma, S and T Schmidt-Eisenlohr (2023): “The financial channel of the exchange rate and global trade”, *CESifo Working Paper*, No 10495.
- Maggiore, M, B Neiman and J Schreger (2020): “International currencies and capital allocation”, *Journal of Political Economy*, vol 128(6), pp 2019-2066.
- McCauley, R, P McGuire and G von Peter (2010): “The architecture of global banking: from international to multinational?”, *BIS Quarterly Review*, March, pp 25-37.

- McCauley, R, P McGuire and P Wooldridge (2021): “Seven decades of international banking”, *BIS Quarterly Review*, September, pp 61-75.
- McGuire, P, G von Peter and S Zhu (2024): “International finance through the lens of BIS statistics: residence vs nationality”, *BIS Quarterly Review*, March, pp 73-88.
- Mizen, P, F Packer, E Remolona and S Tsoukas (2021): “Original sin in corporate finance: New evidence from Asian bond issuers in onshore and offshore markets”, *Journal of International Money and Finance*, vol 119, No 102489.
- Müller, K and E Verner (2023): “Credit allocation and macroeconomic fluctuations”, *Review of Economic Studies*, in press.
- Onen, M, HS Shin and G von Peter (2023): “Overcoming original sin: insights from a new dataset”, *BIS Working Papers*, No 1075.
- Ogrokhina, O and C Rodriguez (2018): “The role of inflation targeting in international debt denomination in developing countries”, *Journal of International Economics*, vol 114, pp 116-129.
- Rey, H (2013): “Dilemma not trilemma: the global financial cycle and monetary policy independence”, *Federal Reserve Bank of Kansas City Economic Policy Symposium*.
- Rey, H (2016): “International channels of transmission of monetary policy and the Mundellian trilemma”, *IMF Economic Review*, vol 64, pp 6-35.
- Salomao, J and L Varela (2022): “Exchange rate exposure and firm dynamics”, *Review of Economic Studies*, vol 89(1), pp 481-514.
- Végh, C and G Vuletin (2014): “The Road to Redemption: Policy Response to Crises in Latin America”, *IMF Economic Review*, vol 62(4), pp 526-568.

**Table 1: Financial Development and Local Currency Debt Share**  
 Annual Data, Dealogic, 2000-2019  
 By Industry, Country, and Type of Debt

	All debt	All debt	Loans	Loans	Bonds	Bonds
Financial Development Index	0.907** (0.426)		0.417 (0.403)		0.850** (0.306)	
Financial Institutions Index		0.579* (0.295)		0.734** (0.298)		0.200 (0.212)
$R^2$	0.74	0.74	0.73	0.74	0.77	0.76
$N$	8,546	8,546	8,027	8,027	5,519	5,519
<i>Country-Industry FE</i>	Yes	Yes	Yes	Yes	Yes	Yes
<i>Industry-year FE</i>	Yes	Yes	Yes	Yes	Yes	Yes

*Notes: Dependent variable is the local currency share of debt at the country-industry level. The local currency share is calculated for total debt, loans, and bonds. Country-industry and industry-year fixed effects are included in all specifications. Standard errors are clustered at the country-level and reported in parentheses. \*\*\*, \*\*, \* indicate statistical significance at the 1%, 5%, and 10% levels respectively.*

**Table 2. Expected effects of a broad USD appreciation on EME NFC issuance**  
*By currency of issuance (USD vs LC) and issuer industry (tradeable vs non-tradeable)*

Channel	USD-All	USD-trade	USD-nontrade	LC-All	LC-trade	LC-nontrade	LC-nontrade/NoFXdebt
Financial Channel of FX rates	--	--	---	-	-	-	-
• Direct ( <i>through FX mismatches on issuer balance sheets</i> )	-	-	--	x	x	x	x
• Indirect ( <i>through tightening of global financial conditions</i> )	-	-	-	-	-	-	-
Trade channel ( <i>dominant currency invoicing</i> )	-	-	x	-	-	x	x
Substitution channel ( <i>working indirectly, through the interest rate, rather than directly, through the FX rate</i> )	-	-	-	+	+	+	+
<b>Overall impact</b>	--	--	---	?	?	?	?

Notes: This table presents a stylized summary of the expected effects of a broad USD appreciation on EME NFC issuance, while conditioning on the currency of issuance (USD vs LC) and issuer industry (tradeable vs non-tradeable). The content and color of each cell are coded as follows: “+” = positive impact, “x” = no impact, “-” = mildly negative impact, “--” = strongly negative impact, “---” = very strongly negative impact, “?” = uncertain overall impact.

**Table 3. Total Debt Growth by Currency**

	Firms with USD debt			No FX Debt
	All cur	USD	LC	LC
$\Delta BDI_t$	-0.093 (0.059)	-0.168*** (0.038)	0.097* (0.056)	0.052 (0.068)
$\Delta Revenues_{it}$	0.065*** (0.007)	0.022*** (0.004)	0.051*** (0.006)	0.030*** (0.004)
Log Assets <sub>it-1</sub>	-0.163*** (0.008)	-0.048*** (0.005)	-0.127*** (0.008)	-0.173*** (0.007)
Leverage <sub>it-1</sub>	-0.868*** (0.023)	-0.219*** (0.012)	-0.670*** (0.021)	-0.823*** (0.021)
$\Delta Bilat XR, orthog_{ct}$	0.198*** (0.028)	-0.009 (0.019)	0.236*** (0.027)	0.284*** (0.034)
Real GDP Growth <sub>ct</sub>	0.478*** (0.120)	0.033 (0.073)	0.455*** (0.116)	0.869*** (0.148)
Stock Return <sub>ct</sub>	-0.086*** (0.015)	-0.041*** (0.011)	-0.037*** (0.014)	-0.111*** (0.020)
Policy Rate <sub>ct</sub>	-0.006*** (0.001)	-0.002** (0.001)	-0.004*** (0.001)	-0.003 (0.002)
Inflation <sub>ct</sub>	0.007*** (0.001)	0.002** (0.001)	0.005*** (0.001)	0.006*** (0.002)
2019=1	0.044*** (0.008)	-0.016*** (0.004)	0.064*** (0.008)	0.032*** (0.010)
Constant	1.285*** (0.047)	0.370*** (0.029)	0.992*** (0.045)	0.907*** (0.031)
$R^2$	0.26	0.16	0.22	0.26
$N$	32,810	32,810	32,810	37,525
# firms	4,842	4,842	4,842	6,309

Notes: Dependent variable is annual growth rate in total debt. Left panel is restricted to sample of firms that have USD-denominated debt on their balance sheet at some point during the 2010-2019 sample period. Right panel is restricted to sample of firms that had no foreign currency debt on their balance sheet. Firm-level fixed effects are included in all specifications. Robust standard errors in parentheses. \*\*\*, \*\*, \* indicate statistical significance at the 1%, 5%, and 10% levels respectively.



**Table 4. Export Intensity**  
Total debt growth 2010-2019

	Non-exporters			< 50% exports			> 50% exports		
	All	USD	LC	All	USD	LC	All	USD	LC
$\Delta BDI_t$	-0.061 (0.121)	-0.237*** (0.076)	0.157 (0.117)	-0.057 (0.079)	-0.172*** (0.047)	0.164** (0.075)	-0.123 (0.140)	-0.047 (0.111)	-0.055 (0.126)
$\Delta Revenues_{it}$	0.048*** (0.012)	0.014** (0.007)	0.033*** (0.011)	0.085*** (0.010)	0.026*** (0.006)	0.074*** (0.009)	0.051*** (0.018)	0.031*** (0.011)	0.028** (0.014)
Log Assets <sub>it-1</sub>	-0.142*** (0.014)	-0.051*** (0.009)	-0.102*** (0.013)	-0.177*** (0.010)	-0.041*** (0.006)	-0.152*** (0.010)	-0.155*** (0.021)	-0.061*** (0.013)	-0.100*** (0.019)
Leverage <sub>it-1</sub>	-0.732*** (0.040)	-0.214*** (0.023)	-0.546*** (0.036)	-0.900*** (0.032)	-0.188*** (0.015)	-0.737*** (0.029)	-1.077*** (0.061)	-0.367*** (0.038)	-0.698*** (0.052)
$\Delta Bilat XR_{ct}$ , orthog <sub>ct</sub>	0.167*** (0.048)	-0.035 (0.034)	0.202*** (0.049)	0.257*** (0.039)	0.004 (0.024)	0.292*** (0.037)	0.021 (0.070)	-0.008 (0.058)	0.090 (0.063)
Real GDP Growth <sub>ct</sub>	0.600*** (0.216)	-0.062 (0.134)	0.636*** (0.212)	0.342** (0.168)	0.067 (0.098)	0.263 (0.164)	0.608** (0.303)	0.046 (0.210)	0.731** (0.284)
Stock Return <sub>ct</sub>	-0.057** (0.028)	-0.023 (0.020)	-0.036 (0.027)	-0.084*** (0.020)	-0.050*** (0.014)	-0.021 (0.019)	-0.140*** (0.041)	-0.040 (0.034)	-0.095*** (0.035)
Policy Rate <sub>ct</sub>	-0.004** (0.002)	-0.002 (0.002)	-0.002 (0.002)	-0.007*** (0.002)	-0.001 (0.001)	-0.005*** (0.002)	-0.009** (0.004)	-0.008** (0.003)	-0.001 (0.003)
Inflation <sub>ct</sub>	0.002 (0.002)	0.002 (0.002)	0.001 (0.002)	0.008*** (0.002)	0.001 (0.001)	0.007*** (0.002)	0.015*** (0.004)	0.009*** (0.003)	0.006** (0.003)
2019=1	0.029* (0.016)	-0.041*** (0.009)	0.070*** (0.015)	0.046*** (0.010)	-0.009* (0.005)	0.061*** (0.010)	0.064*** (0.020)	-0.002 (0.013)	0.073*** (0.018)
Constant	1.184*** (0.084)	0.407*** (0.056)	0.855*** (0.080)	1.366*** (0.062)	0.310*** (0.037)	1.149*** (0.059)	1.257*** (0.129)	0.493*** (0.080)	0.776*** (0.114)
$R^2$	0.29	0.19	0.24	0.26	0.14	0.23	0.26	0.17	0.20
$N$	8,135	8,135	8,135	18,946	18,946	18,946	5,729	5,729	5,729
# firms	1,299	1,299	1,299	2,695	2,695	2,695	848	848	848

Notes: Dependent variable is annual growth rate in total debt. Left panel includes firms with zero exports, middle panel includes firms with export to sales ratio greater than zero but less than 50%, and right panel includes firms with exports greater than 50% of sales. Sample is restricted to firms that had USD-denominated debt on their balance sheet at some point during the 2010-2019 sample period. Firm-level fixed effects are included in all specifications. Robust standard errors in parentheses. \*\*\*, \*\*, \* indicate statistical significance at the 1%, 5%, and 10% levels respectively.

**Table 5. Firm Size**  
Total debt growth 2010-2019

	Small Firms			Medium Firms			Large Firms		
	All debt	USD debt	LC debt	All debt	USD debt	LC debt	All debt	USD debt	LC debt
$\Delta BDI_t$	-0.291* (0.149)	-0.249*** (0.081)	-0.059 (0.143)	-0.101 (0.084)	-0.235*** (0.056)	0.144* (0.080)	0.086 (0.101)	-0.009 (0.070)	0.161* (0.093)
$\Delta Revenue_{Sit}$	0.076*** (0.013)	0.030*** (0.007)	0.054*** (0.012)	0.046*** (0.009)	0.013** (0.006)	0.038*** (0.009)	0.089*** (0.018)	0.032*** (0.012)	0.070*** (0.014)
$\log Assets_{it-1}$	-0.148*** (0.014)	-0.051*** (0.008)	-0.109*** (0.014)	-0.169*** (0.011)	-0.048*** (0.007)	-0.129*** (0.011)	-0.165*** (0.016)	-0.033*** (0.010)	-0.155*** (0.014)
$Leverage_{it-1}$	-0.732*** (0.039)	-0.148*** (0.019)	-0.605*** (0.037)	-0.938*** (0.034)	-0.239*** (0.019)	-0.713*** (0.030)	-0.965*** (0.058)	-0.331*** (0.033)	-0.673*** (0.049)
$\Delta Bilat XR, orthog_{ct}$	0.110 (0.085)	-0.054 (0.049)	0.162** (0.081)	0.225*** (0.043)	-0.031 (0.030)	0.285*** (0.041)	0.186*** (0.040)	0.024 (0.029)	0.207*** (0.037)
Real GDP Growth <sub>ct</sub>	0.229 (0.299)	0.032 (0.162)	0.313 (0.294)	0.552*** (0.166)	0.096 (0.105)	0.428*** (0.160)	0.342* (0.202)	-0.131 (0.136)	0.454** (0.194)
Stock Return <sub>ct</sub>	-0.107*** (0.037)	-0.020 (0.022)	-0.085** (0.036)	-0.088*** (0.021)	-0.072*** (0.016)	-0.007 (0.020)	-0.071*** (0.025)	-0.006 (0.019)	-0.057** (0.023)
Policy Rate <sub>ct</sub>	-0.009*** (0.003)	-0.000 (0.002)	-0.007*** (0.002)	-0.007*** (0.002)	-0.003** (0.001)	-0.004*** (0.002)	-0.001 (0.002)	-0.002 (0.002)	0.002 (0.002)
Inflation <sub>ct</sub>	0.009*** (0.003)	0.001 (0.002)	0.007*** (0.003)	0.009*** (0.002)	0.003* (0.001)	0.006*** (0.002)	0.003 (0.002)	0.001 (0.002)	0.001 (0.002)
2019=1	-0.025 (0.019)	-0.022** (0.010)	0.002 (0.019)	0.056*** (0.011)	-0.016** (0.006)	0.077*** (0.011)	0.080*** (0.014)	-0.011 (0.008)	0.092*** (0.013)
Constant	0.833*** (0.058)	0.233*** (0.032)	0.640*** (0.056)	1.324*** (0.066)	0.373*** (0.044)	0.999*** (0.063)	1.745*** (0.128)	0.416*** (0.088)	1.524*** (0.113)
$R^2$	0.24	0.14	0.20	0.27	0.17	0.23	0.29	0.17	0.25
$N$	8,208	8,208	8,208	16,375	16,375	16,375	8,227	8,227	8,227
# firms	1,199	1,199	1,199	2,430	2,430	2,430	1,213	1,213	1,213

Notes: Dependent variable is annual growth rate in total debt. Left panel includes smallest quartile of firms (by assets), middle panel includes the 25<sup>th</sup>-75<sup>th</sup> percentile of size distribution, and right panel includes the top quartile of size distribution. Sample is restricted to firms that had USD-denominated debt on their balance sheet at some point during the 2010-2019 sample period. Firm-level fixed effects are included in all specifications. Robust standard errors in parentheses. \*\*\*, \*\*, \* indicate statistical significance at the 1%, 5%, and 10% levels respectively.

**Table 6. Profitability**  
Total debt growth 2010-2019

	Low Profit			Medium Profit			High Profit		
	All	USD	LC	All	USD	LC	All	USD	LC
$\Delta BDI_t$	-0.200* (0.116)	-0.258*** (0.073)	0.015 (0.113)	0.074 (0.078)	-0.121** (0.050)	0.242*** (0.076)	-0.124 (0.130)	-0.111 (0.087)	0.020 (0.120)
$\Delta Revenue_{Sit}$	0.039*** (0.009)	0.013** (0.005)	0.033*** (0.008)	0.103*** (0.014)	0.030*** (0.008)	0.083*** (0.012)	0.098*** (0.021)	0.046*** (0.014)	0.062*** (0.020)
$\log Assets_{it-1}$	-0.152*** (0.013)	-0.048*** (0.008)	-0.117*** (0.012)	-0.131*** (0.012)	-0.027*** (0.007)	-0.115*** (0.012)	-0.149*** (0.020)	-0.055*** (0.012)	-0.110*** (0.019)
$Leverage_{it-1}$	-0.559*** (0.027)	-0.143*** (0.015)	-0.434*** (0.025)	-1.259*** (0.045)	-0.304*** (0.025)	-0.963*** (0.041)	-1.336*** (0.072)	-0.392*** (0.041)	-1.008*** (0.060)
$\Delta Bilat XR, orthog_{ct}$	0.102* (0.053)	-0.032 (0.038)	0.138*** (0.053)	0.244*** (0.039)	-0.004 (0.025)	0.277*** (0.037)	0.241*** (0.058)	0.012 (0.040)	0.281*** (0.055)
Real GDP Growth <sub>ct</sub>	0.947*** (0.238)	0.195 (0.134)	0.631*** (0.232)	0.574*** (0.164)	-0.058 (0.103)	0.688*** (0.160)	0.006 (0.255)	0.071 (0.160)	-0.028 (0.243)
Stock Return <sub>ct</sub>	-0.130*** (0.029)	-0.053*** (0.020)	-0.090*** (0.028)	-0.054*** (0.020)	-0.023 (0.015)	-0.016 (0.019)	-0.070** (0.033)	-0.053** (0.023)	-0.003 (0.030)
Policy Rate <sub>ct</sub>	-0.004 (0.002)	-0.001 (0.002)	-0.004* (0.002)	-0.009*** (0.002)	-0.004*** (0.001)	-0.004** (0.002)	-0.008*** (0.002)	-0.002 (0.002)	-0.005** (0.002)
Inflation <sub>ct</sub>	0.005** (0.002)	-0.002 (0.002)	0.007*** (0.002)	0.011*** (0.002)	0.004*** (0.001)	0.007*** (0.002)	0.009*** (0.003)	0.003* (0.002)	0.006** (0.002)
2019=1	0.013 (0.016)	-0.018** (0.008)	0.028* (0.015)	0.034*** (0.011)	-0.017*** (0.006)	0.057*** (0.010)	0.070*** (0.018)	-0.021** (0.010)	0.097*** (0.017)
Constant	1.057*** (0.072)	0.330*** (0.047)	0.809*** (0.066)	1.235*** (0.073)	0.279*** (0.042)	1.011*** (0.070)	1.305*** (0.121)	0.444*** (0.077)	0.971*** (0.114)
$R^2$	0.28	0.19	0.23	0.29	0.16	0.25	0.24	0.15	0.21
$N$	8,191	8,191	8,191	16,370	16,370	16,370	8,249	8,249	8,249
# firms	1,285	1,285	1,285	2,350	2,350	2,350	1,207	1,207	1,207

Notes: Dependent variable is annual growth rate in total debt. Left panel is restricted to lowest quartile of firm average profit rate (EBT/Total Assets), middle panel includes firms in the 25<sup>th</sup>-75<sup>th</sup> percentile of profit distribution, and right panel includes the top quartile of profit distribution. Sample is restricted to firms that had USD-denominated debt on their balance sheet at some point during the 2010-2019 sample period. Firm-level fixed effects are included in all specifications. Robust standard errors in parentheses. \*\*\*, \*\*, \* indicate statistical significance at the 1%, 5%, and 10% levels respectively.

**Table 7. Firm size variation with zero exports**

Total debt growth 2010-2019

	Small non-exporters			Medium non-exporters			Large non-exporters		
	Total	USD	LC	Total	USD	LC	Total	USD	LC
$\Delta BDI_t$	-0.691** (0.329)	-0.445** (0.189)	-0.389 (0.314)	0.142 (0.168)	-0.285*** (0.110)	0.430*** (0.165)	0.129 (0.195)	0.033 (0.123)	0.124 (0.187)
$\Delta \text{Revenues}_{it}$	0.042** (0.020)	0.019* (0.011)	0.025 (0.019)	0.039** (0.018)	0.012 (0.010)	0.021 (0.017)	0.070** (0.031)	0.012 (0.013)	0.062** (0.025)
$\text{Log Assets}_{it-1}$	-0.106*** (0.024)	-0.062*** (0.015)	-0.048** (0.022)	-0.164*** (0.019)	-0.060*** (0.013)	-0.122*** (0.018)	-0.158*** (0.029)	-0.009 (0.020)	-0.157*** (0.026)
$\text{Leverage}_{it-1}$	-0.616*** (0.064)	-0.158*** (0.036)	-0.468*** (0.059)	-0.762*** (0.056)	-0.250*** (0.035)	-0.558*** (0.050)	-0.889*** (0.119)	-0.237*** (0.055)	-0.668*** (0.112)
$\Delta \text{Bilat XR}_{ct}$ , orthog <sub>ct</sub>	-0.044 (0.172)	-0.098 (0.100)	0.055 (0.165)	0.256*** (0.071)	-0.079 (0.054)	0.317*** (0.074)	0.117 (0.071)	0.002 (0.045)	0.134** (0.067)
Real GDP Growth <sub>ct</sub>	0.042 (0.572)	-0.496 (0.327)	0.442 (0.543)	0.585** (0.286)	0.066 (0.189)	0.498* (0.290)	1.014*** (0.373)	0.077 (0.216)	0.953*** (0.358)
Stock Return <sub>ct</sub>	-0.086 (0.067)	0.018 (0.040)	-0.126* (0.066)	-0.040 (0.037)	-0.073** (0.030)	0.044 (0.036)	-0.075 (0.047)	0.038 (0.032)	-0.123*** (0.043)
Policy Rate <sub>ct</sub>	-0.003 (0.005)	0.001 (0.003)	-0.004 (0.004)	-0.007*** (0.003)	-0.004* (0.002)	-0.002 (0.003)	0.003 (0.003)	0.001 (0.002)	0.001 (0.003)
Inflation <sub>ct</sub>	0.003 (0.006)	0.001 (0.004)	0.002 (0.005)	0.005 (0.003)	0.005* (0.003)	0.001 (0.003)	-0.005 (0.004)	-0.004 (0.003)	-0.001 (0.003)
2019=1	-0.066 (0.041)	-0.064*** (0.023)	-0.023 (0.039)	0.051** (0.023)	-0.042*** (0.013)	0.104*** (0.022)	0.064** (0.027)	-0.032** (0.014)	0.093*** (0.024)
Constant	0.674*** (0.094)	0.298*** (0.058)	0.421*** (0.086)	1.311*** (0.114)	0.465*** (0.081)	0.958*** (0.109)	1.638*** (0.241)	0.182 (0.170)	1.538*** (0.208)
$R^2$	0.25	0.21	0.21	0.30	0.19	0.25	0.32	0.19	0.28
$N$	1,789	1,789	1,789	4,043	4,043	4,043	2,303	2,303	2,303
# firms	309	309	309	640	640	640	350	350	350

Notes: Dependent variable is annual growth rate in total debt. Sample is restricted to firms with zero exports that had USD-denominated debt on their balance sheet at some point during the 2010-2019 sample period. Left panel is restricted to smallest quartile of firms (by assets), middle panel includes firms in the 25<sup>th</sup>-75<sup>th</sup> percentile of size distribution, and right panel includes the top quartile of size distribution. Firm-level fixed effects are included in all specifications. Robust standard errors in parentheses. \*\*\*, \*\*, \* indicate statistical significance at the 1%, 5%, and 10% levels respectively.

**Table 8. Profit variation with zero exports**

Total debt growth 2010-2019

	Low Profit non-exporters			Medium Profit non-exporters			High Profit non-exporters		
	Total	USD	LC	Total	USD	LC	Total	USD	LC
$\Delta BDI_t$	-0.430*	-0.282**	-0.210	0.237	-0.207*	0.493***	-0.083	-0.191	-0.025
	(0.231)	(0.136)	(0.225)	(0.167)	(0.107)	(0.165)	(0.259)	(0.170)	(0.249)
$\Delta Revenues_{it}$	0.030**	0.008	0.026**	0.088***	0.016	0.072***	0.077**	0.040	0.004
	(0.014)	(0.008)	(0.013)	(0.028)	(0.011)	(0.026)	(0.033)	(0.028)	(0.037)
$\text{Log Assets}_{it-1}$	-0.147***	-0.060***	-0.101***	-0.091***	-0.014	-0.090***	-0.153***	-0.081***	-0.084***
	(0.021)	(0.014)	(0.019)	(0.023)	(0.013)	(0.023)	(0.031)	(0.024)	(0.029)
$\text{Leverage}_{it-1}$	-0.495***	-0.172***	-0.356***	-1.298***	-0.350***	-0.950***	-0.972***	-0.255***	-0.772***
	(0.045)	(0.028)	(0.042)	(0.088)	(0.058)	(0.084)	(0.101)	(0.057)	(0.085)
$\Delta \text{Bilat XR}_{ct}$ , orthog <sub>ct</sub>	0.050	-0.042	0.082	0.208***	-0.019	0.229***	0.193*	-0.058	0.231**
	(0.089)	(0.068)	(0.093)	(0.070)	(0.044)	(0.069)	(0.102)	(0.078)	(0.105)
$\text{Real GDP Growth}_{ct}$	0.777*	0.084	0.463	0.880***	0.043	0.972***	-0.103	-0.413	0.206
	(0.409)	(0.226)	(0.389)	(0.321)	(0.209)	(0.315)	(0.427)	(0.281)	(0.430)
$\text{Stock Return}_{ct}$	-0.185***	-0.072**	-0.137***	-0.020	0.020	-0.018	0.019	-0.039	0.039
	(0.052)	(0.035)	(0.051)	(0.039)	(0.031)	(0.038)	(0.058)	(0.037)	(0.054)
$\text{Policy Rate}_{ct}$	-0.006	-0.003	-0.005	-0.005*	-0.003	-0.000	-0.003	0.001	-0.003
	(0.004)	(0.003)	(0.003)	(0.003)	(0.002)	(0.002)	(0.004)	(0.003)	(0.004)
$\text{Inflation}_{ct}$	0.008*	0.003	0.007*	0.004	0.004	-0.000	-0.006	-0.005	-0.004
	(0.004)	(0.003)	(0.004)	(0.003)	(0.003)	(0.003)	(0.005)	(0.004)	(0.005)
2019=1	-0.030	-0.039**	0.012	0.053**	-0.040***	0.097***	0.020	-0.058***	0.071**
	(0.030)	(0.016)	(0.029)	(0.023)	(0.013)	(0.022)	(0.034)	(0.020)	(0.030)
Constant	1.058***	0.418***	0.745***	1.042***	0.217***	0.888***	1.384***	0.632***	0.858***
	(0.117)	(0.080)	(0.107)	(0.141)	(0.079)	(0.137)	(0.197)	(0.155)	(0.183)
$R^2$	0.31	0.25	0.25	0.30	0.17	0.26	0.29	0.18	0.25
$N$	2,321	2,321	2,321	3,889	3,889	3,889	1,925	1,925	1,925
# firms	398	398	398	597	597	597	304	304	304

Notes: Dependent variable is annual growth rate in total debt. Sample is restricted to firms with zero exports that had USD-denominated debt on their balance sheet at some point during the 2010-2019 sample period. Left panel is restricted to lowest quartile of firm average profit rate (EBT/Total Assets), middle panel includes firms in the 25<sup>th</sup>-75<sup>th</sup> percentile of profit distribution, and right panel includes the top quartile of profit distribution. Firm-level fixed effects are included in all specifications. Robust standard errors in parentheses. \*\*\*, \*\*, \* indicate statistical significance at the 1%, 5%, and 10% levels respectively.

**Table 9. Interaction of BDI with USDshare**  
Total debt growth 2010-2019

	Non-exporters			< 50% exports			> 50% exports		
	All	USD	LC	All	USD	LC	All	USD	LC
$\Delta BDI_t^*USDshare_i$	-0.601* (0.316)	-1.066*** (0.279)	0.420* (0.245)	-0.165 (0.273)	-0.809*** (0.233)	0.684*** (0.210)	0.139 (0.387)	-0.480 (0.330)	0.407 (0.295)
$\Delta BDI_t$	0.077 (0.147)	0.007 (0.075)	0.061 (0.144)	-0.028 (0.093)	-0.026 (0.049)	0.040 (0.089)	-0.166 (0.189)	0.101 (0.124)	-0.180 (0.180)
$\Delta Revenues_{it}$	0.048*** (0.012)	0.014** (0.007)	0.033*** (0.011)	0.085*** (0.010)	0.026*** (0.006)	0.074*** (0.009)	0.051*** (0.018)	0.031*** (0.011)	0.028** (0.014)
$\text{Log Assets}_{it-1}$	-0.142*** (0.014)	-0.050*** (0.009)	-0.103*** (0.013)	-0.177*** (0.010)	-0.041*** (0.006)	-0.152*** (0.010)	-0.156*** (0.021)	-0.061*** (0.013)	-0.100*** (0.019)
$\text{Leverage}_{it-1}$	-0.731*** (0.040)	-0.214*** (0.023)	-0.547*** (0.036)	-0.900*** (0.032)	-0.189*** (0.015)	-0.736*** (0.029)	-1.077*** (0.061)	-0.368*** (0.038)	-0.697*** (0.052)
$\Delta \text{Bilat XR}_{ct}$ , orthog <sub>ct</sub>	0.167*** (0.048)	-0.034 (0.033)	0.202*** (0.049)	0.257*** (0.039)	0.002 (0.024)	0.294*** (0.037)	0.020 (0.070)	-0.004 (0.058)	0.087 (0.064)
$\text{Real GDP Growth}_{ct}$	0.620*** (0.217)	-0.027 (0.134)	0.623*** (0.213)	0.337** (0.168)	0.042 (0.098)	0.284* (0.164)	0.616** (0.303)	0.021 (0.212)	0.752*** (0.284)
$\text{Stock Return}_{ct}$	-0.059** (0.028)	-0.026 (0.020)	-0.034 (0.027)	-0.085*** (0.020)	-0.051*** (0.014)	-0.020 (0.019)	-0.140*** (0.041)	-0.038 (0.034)	-0.096*** (0.036)
$\text{Policy Rate}_{ct}$	-0.004** (0.002)	-0.002 (0.002)	-0.002 (0.002)	-0.007*** (0.002)	-0.001 (0.001)	-0.005*** (0.002)	-0.009** (0.004)	-0.008** (0.003)	-0.000 (0.003)
$\text{Inflation}_{ct}$	0.002 (0.002)	0.002 (0.002)	0.001 (0.002)	0.008*** (0.002)	0.001 (0.001)	0.007*** (0.002)	0.015*** (0.004)	0.009*** (0.003)	0.006* (0.003)
2019=1	0.029* (0.016)	-0.041*** (0.009)	0.070*** (0.015)	0.046*** (0.010)	-0.010* (0.005)	0.061*** (0.010)	0.064*** (0.020)	-0.003 (0.013)	0.074*** (0.018)
Constant	1.181*** (0.084)	0.402*** (0.055)	0.858*** (0.080)	1.365*** (0.062)	0.309*** (0.037)	1.150*** (0.059)	1.258*** (0.129)	0.490*** (0.080)	0.779*** (0.114)
$R^2$	0.29	0.19	0.24	0.26	0.14	0.23	0.26	0.17	0.20
$N$	8,135	8,135	8,135	18,946	18,946	18,946	5,729	5,729	5,729
# firms	1,299	1,299	1,299	2,695	2,695	2,695	848	848	848

Notes: Dependent variable is annual growth rate in total debt.  $USDshare_i$  is firm-level average share of total debt denominated in USD. Left panel includes firms with zero exports, middle panel includes firms with export to sales ratio greater than zero but less than 50%, and right panel includes firms with exports greater than 50% of sales. Sample is restricted to firms that had USD-denominated debt on their balance sheet at some point during the 2010-2019 sample period. Firm-level fixed effects are included in all specifications. Robust standard errors in parentheses. \*\*\*, \*\*, \* indicate statistical significance at the 1%, 5%, and 10% levels respectively.

**Table 10. Degree of country-level dollar reliance**

Total debt growth 2010-2019

	Highly Dollar Reliant (AR, CL, PE, ID, MX)			Less Dollar Reliant		
	All cur	USD	LC	All cur	USD	LC
$\Delta BDI_t$	-0.353*** (0.131)	-0.341*** (0.105)	-0.002 (0.114)	-0.024 (0.067)	-0.157*** (0.039)	0.165** (0.065)
$\Delta Revenues_{it}$	0.053*** (0.016)	0.035*** (0.013)	0.025* (0.013)	0.066*** (0.008)	0.020*** (0.004)	0.055*** (0.007)
Log Assets <sub>it-1</sub>	-0.142*** (0.018)	-0.082*** (0.013)	-0.070*** (0.016)	-0.163*** (0.009)	-0.037*** (0.005)	-0.139*** (0.008)
Leverage <sub>it-1</sub>	-0.856*** (0.055)	-0.483*** (0.041)	-0.410*** (0.042)	-0.870*** (0.026)	-0.156*** (0.012)	-0.732*** (0.024)
$\Delta Bilat XR_{ct}$ , orthog <sub>ct</sub>	0.017 (0.066)	-0.061 (0.054)	0.079 (0.058)	0.197*** (0.031)	-0.028 (0.019)	0.261*** (0.031)
Real GDP Growth <sub>ct</sub>	-0.280 (0.289)	0.013 (0.231)	-0.326 (0.264)	0.601*** (0.142)	-0.122 (0.077)	0.765*** (0.141)
Stock Return <sub>ct</sub>	-0.042 (0.027)	-0.008 (0.022)	-0.029 (0.025)	-0.105*** (0.018)	-0.071*** (0.011)	-0.023 (0.018)
PolicyRate <sub>ct</sub>	0.001 (0.002)	0.002 (0.002)	0.001 (0.002)	-0.008*** (0.002)	-0.006*** (0.001)	-0.001 (0.002)
Inflation <sub>ct</sub>	-0.004* (0.002)	-0.001 (0.002)	-0.004** (0.002)	0.014*** (0.002)	0.005*** (0.001)	0.010*** (0.002)
2019=1	-0.004 (0.019)	-0.044*** (0.015)	0.041** (0.016)	0.061*** (0.009)	-0.012*** (0.005)	0.079*** (0.009)
Constant	1.235*** (0.105)	0.668*** (0.081)	0.641*** (0.095)	1.254*** (0.054)	0.295*** (0.030)	1.026*** (0.051)
$R^2$	0.29	0.21	0.24	0.26	0.14	0.23
$N$	6,222	6,222	6,222	26,588	26,588	26,588
#firms	993	993	993	3,849	3,849	3,849

Notes: Dependent variable is annual growth rate in total debt. Left panel is restricted to firms in the five most dollar reliant economies based on average firm-level share of USD debt (Argentina, Chile, Peru, Indonesia, and Mexico). Right panel includes firms from less dollar reliant economies. Sample is restricted to firms that had USD-denominated debt on their balance sheet at some point during the 2010-2019 sample period. Firm-level fixed effects are included in all specifications. Robust standard errors in parentheses. \*\*\*, \*\*, \* indicate statistical significance at the 1%, 5%, and 10% levels respectively.

**Table 11. Bank v. Bond Debt Growth**

	All	USD	LC	All	USD	LC	All	USD	LC
	Non-exporters			< 50% exports			> 50% exports		
$\Delta BDI_t$	0.120	-0.164**	0.251**	-0.184**	-0.147***	-0.008	-0.125	-0.054	-0.055
<b>Bank Loans</b>	(0.117)	(0.069)	(0.108)	(0.075)	(0.044)	(0.070)	(0.139)	(0.105)	(0.118)
$\Delta BDI_t$	-0.235***	-0.086*	-0.149**	0.098*	-0.015	0.135***	0.041	-0.058	0.056
<b>Bonds</b>	(0.085)	(0.046)	(0.075)	(0.053)	(0.027)	(0.048)	(0.093)	(0.065)	(0.061)
	Small Firms			Medium Firms			Large Firms		
$\Delta BDI_t$	-0.355**	-0.276***	-0.106	-0.132	-0.181***	0.042	0.093	0.038	0.102
<b>Bank Loans</b>	(0.138)	(0.077)	(0.131)	(0.084)	(0.054)	(0.078)	(0.092)	(0.062)	(0.081)
$\Delta BDI_t$	-0.074	0.030	-0.106	-0.044	-0.082***	0.044	0.051	-0.013	0.075
<b>Bonds</b>	(0.146)	(0.053)	(0.138)	(0.053)	(0.027)	(0.047)	(0.070)	(0.043)	(0.057)
	Low Profit			Medium Profit			High Profit		
$\Delta BDI_t$	-0.146	-0.210***	0.012	0.031	-0.083*	0.152**	-0.218*	-0.096	-0.124
<b>Bank Loans</b>	(0.111)	(0.066)	(0.102)	(0.077)	(0.048)	(0.072)	(0.124)	(0.082)	(0.113)
$\Delta BDI_t$	-0.180**	-0.103**	-0.076	0.032	-0.036	0.070	0.127	0.012	0.152*
<b>Bonds</b>	(0.079)	(0.044)	(0.069)	(0.055)	(0.029)	(0.048)	(0.089)	(0.050)	(0.079)
	Highly Dollar Reliant Countries						Less Dollar Reliant Countries		
$\Delta BDI_t$	-0.333**	-0.325***	-0.002				-0.028	-0.160***	0.164**
<b>Bank Loans</b>	(0.130)	(0.105)	(0.113)				(0.067)	(0.039)	(0.065)
$\Delta BDI_t$	-0.216	-0.241**	0.068				0.015	-0.100**	0.139*
<b>Bonds</b>	(0.139)	(0.116)	(0.119)				(0.079)	(0.045)	(0.076)

Notes: In each panel the top row reports results for annual growth rate in bank loans as the dependent variable and the second row reports results for growth in bonds. Left to right variation in samples is based on export intensity, size, profit, and dollar reliance as analyzed in preceding tables. Sample is restricted to firms that had USD-denominated debt on their balance sheet at some point during the 2010-2019 sample period. To conserve space only the coefficient on broad dollar appreciation is reported. Firm and country-level controls as well as firm-level fixed effects are included in all specifications. Robust standard errors in parentheses. \*\*\*, \*\*, \* indicate statistical significance at the 1%, 5%, and 10% levels respectively.



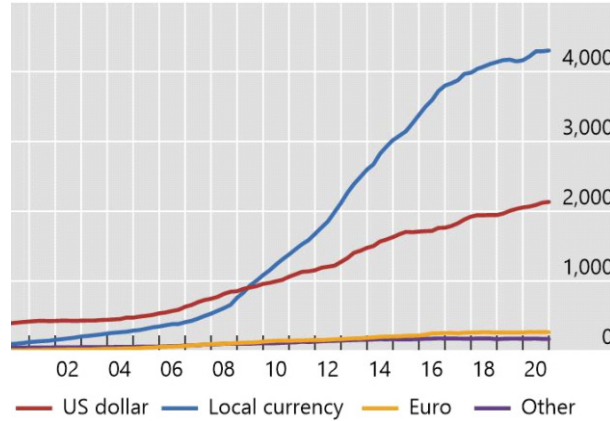
## Appendix

### Aggregate EME corporate debt, including China<sup>1</sup>

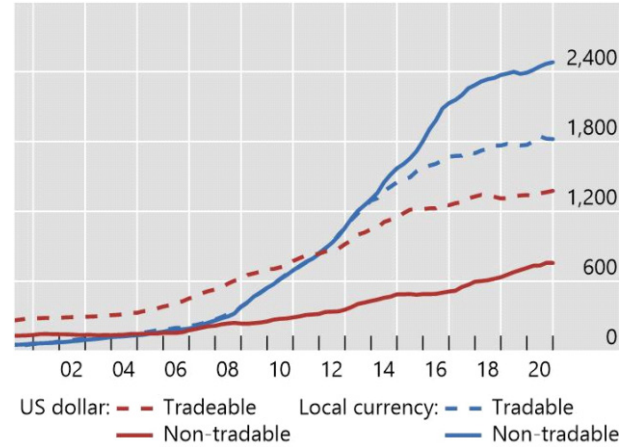
Outstanding amount of debt securities and loans, in billions of US dollars

Graph A1

A. By currency



B. By currency and sector



<sup>1</sup> Tradable: ultimate parent of the issuing firm is in a tradable sector such as manufacturing or agriculture. Non-tradable: ultimate parent of the issuing firm is in a non-tradable sector such as construction. For an unbalanced panel of firms headquartered in 23 emerging markets since Q1 2000. Includes debt securities and syndicated loans.

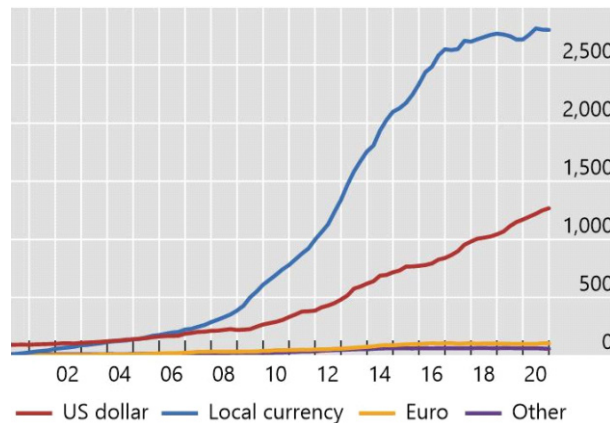
Sources: Dealogic; authors' calculations.

### EME corporate debt by currency, including China<sup>1</sup>

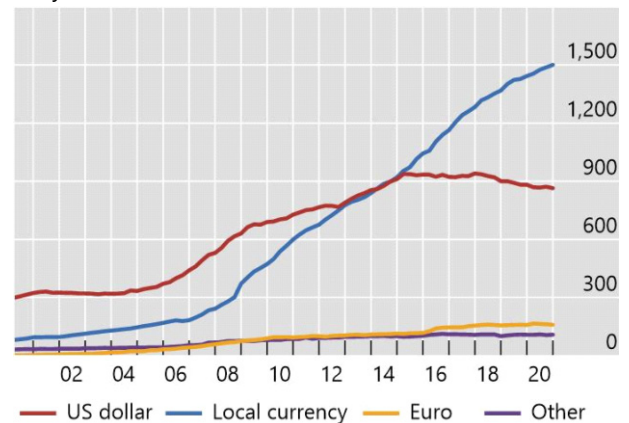
Outstanding amounts, in billions of US dollars

Graph A2

A. Bonds



B. Syndicated loans



<sup>1</sup> For an unbalanced panel of firms headquartered in 23 emerging markets since Q1 2000. Includes debt securities and syndicated loans.

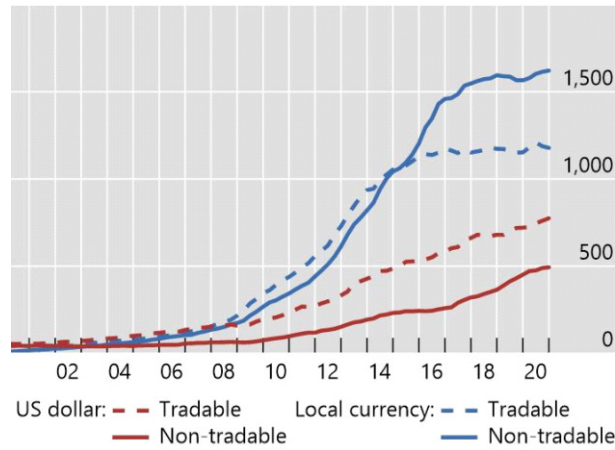
Sources: Dealogic; authors' calculations.

# EME corporate debt by currency and sector, including China<sup>1</sup>

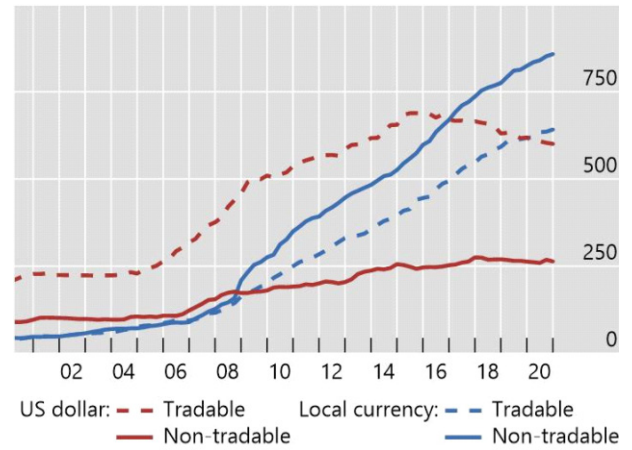
Outstanding amounts, in billions of US dollars

Graph A3

A. Bonds



B. Syndicated loans



<sup>1</sup> Tradable: ultimate parent of the issuing firm is in a tradable sector such as manufacturing or agriculture. Non-tradable: ultimate parent of the issuing firm is in a non-tradable sector such as construction. For an unbalanced panel of firms headquartered in 23 emerging markets since Q1 2000. Includes debt securities and syndicated loans.

Sources: Dealogic; authors' calculations.

## Previous volumes in this series

1198 July 2024	Sovereign green bonds: a catalyst for sustainable debt market development?	Gong Cheng, Torsten Ehlers, Frank Packer and Yanzhe Xiao
1197 July 2024	The gen AI gender gap	Inaki Aldasoro, Olivier Armantier, Sebastian Doerr, Leonardo Gambacorta and Tommaso Oliviero
1196 July 2024	Digital payments, informality and economic growth	Ana Aguilar, Jon Frost, Rafael Guerra, Steven Kamin and Alexandre Tombini
1195 July 2024	The asymmetric and persistent effects of Fed policy on global bond yields	Tobias Adrian, Gaston Gelos, Nora Lamersdorf, Emanuel Moench
1194 June 2024	Intelligent financial system: how AI is transforming finance	Iñaki Aldasoro, Leonardo Gambacorta, Anton Korinek, Vatsala Shreeti and Merlin Stein
1193 June 2024	Aging gracefully: steering the banking sector through demographic shifts	Christian Schmieder and Patrick A Imam
1192 June 2024	Sectoral heterogeneity in the wage-price pass-through: Evidence from Euro area	Miguel Ampudia, Marco Lombardi and Théodore Renault
1191 May 2024	The impact of macroprudential policies on industrial growth	Carlos Madeira
1190 May 2024	CEO turnover risk and firm environmental performance	Giulio Cornelli, Magdalena Erdem and Egon Zakrajsek
1189 May 2024	Sixty years of global inflation: a post GFC update	Raphael Auer, Mathieu Pedemonte and Raphael Schoenle
1188 May 2024	Finding a needle in a haystack: a machine learning framework for anomaly detection in payment systems	Ajit Desai, Anneke Kosse and Jacob Sharples
1187 May 2024	Nothing to hide? Gender and age differences in willingness to share data	Olivier Armantier, Sebastian Doerr, Jon Frost, Andreas Fuster and Kelly Shue
1186 May 2024	Unconditional convergence in the Mexican manufacturing sector (1988-2018)	Alex Rivadeneira
1185 May 2024	Allocative efficiency and the productivity slowdown	Lin Shao and Rongsheng Tang

All volumes are available on our website [www.bis.org](http://www.bis.org).