

Sovereign Stress, Non-conventional Monetary Policy, and SME Access to Finance

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Abstract

We investigate the effect of sovereign stress and of non-conventional monetary policy on small firms' financing patterns during the euro area debt crisis. We find that firms in stressed countries were more likely to be credit rationed, both in the quantity and in the price dimension. The evidence does not suggest that less creditworthy firms were more likely to be constrained. We also find weak evidence that the announcement of the ECB's Outright Monetary Transactions Program was followed by a short-lived decline in the share of credit rationed firms and of firms discouraged from applying. Firms with improved outlook and credit history were particularly likely to benefit from easier credit access. However, beyond the first 6 months after the announcement, a rising share of firms discouraged from applying for bank credit and a higher use of trade credit by firms in stressed countries points to a further tightening of credit constraints in the economy.

JEL classification: D22, E58, G21, H63.

Keywords: Sovereign debt, non-conventional monetary policy, credit access, SMEs.

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The euro area sovereign debt crisis which unfolded in the spring of 2010 significantly disrupted financial markets and real economic activity in the euro area, both of which were at the time still reeling from the impact of the global financial crisis of 2007-09. Borrowing costs for a number of peripheral countries reached levels which endangered their ability to service their debt, banks tightened credit standards rapidly, and economic confidence hit a new all-time low.¹ The extraordinary nature of the crisis led the European Central Bank (ECB) to take a number of unprecedented steps to improve the functioning of the banking sector and to support the economic recovery. In terms of scale, the announcement of the Outright Monetary Transactions (OMT) Program in August 2012 has arguably been the most important unconventional policy employed in the euro area since its inception. Under the OMT the ECB committed to purchasing in secondary markets and under a number of strict conditions unlimited amounts of government debt issued by eligible euro area governments.

In this paper, we evaluate the dual impact of the sovereign debt crisis and of the OMT announcement on credit access by small business in the euro area. Specifically, we exploit the fact that during the sovereign debt crisis, five euro area countries (Greece, Ireland, Italy, Portugal, and Spain, henceforth denoted as “stressed countries”) experienced a substantial deterioration in their sovereign creditworthiness, while the rest of the countries in the euro area did not. Because banks tend to hold large quantities of debt securities issued by domestic sovereigns,² investors rapidly lost faith in the banking sectors of stressed countries, pushing banks’ funding costs up.³ Empirical evidence suggests that given their high reliance on bank credit (Ferrando, Marchica, and Mura, 2014), small and medium enterprises (SMEs) are likely to

¹ See Lane (2012) for an excellent analysis of the causes and consequences of the crisis.

² For theoretical models of incentives for purchases of sovereign debt by domestic banks, see Acharya and Rajan (2013) and Broner et al. (2014). For empirical evidence on the propensity of banks to hold domestically issued sovereign debt, see Acharya and Steffen (2014).

³ For example, Albertazzi et al. (2012) report a sharp rise in the cost of both wholesale and of retail funding of Italian banks, following a rise in the spread on 10-year Italian sovereign bonds.

become credit constrained when banks adjust their loan portfolios in response to negative shocks to their balance sheets (Duygan-Bump et al., 2010). Because SMEs comprise up to 99% of firms in Europe, provide two out of three private sector jobs, and contribute more than half of total business-provided value added,⁴ a reduction in bank lending can have potentially significant negative consequences for real economic activity. Correspondingly, the benefits from using monetary policy tools aimed at reducing pressures on bank balance sheets can be equally large.

Employing a difference-in-differences (DID) methodology, this paper attempts to identify the effect of the sovereign debt crisis across the euro area and of the ECB's non-conventional monetary policy in three separate dimensions. First, we study the evolution of credit constraints faced by small euro area firms. Second, we examine to what degree changes in credit access associated with changes in bank lending are associated with a flight to quality in lending. Third, we look at how small firms' use of alternative funding sources responds to changes in credit access. Our first main result is that the sovereign debt crisis resulted in a strong supply-driven reduction of credit access. When we investigate the underlying reasons, we find evidence for rationing by banks in both the quantity and the price dimension (formal constraints). Firms in stressed countries relied considerably less on debt securities after the crisis started. Our second main finding is that the OMT Program had a weak short-lived effect on credit access, with firms in stressed countries being less likely to be rationed or discouraged from applying (informal constraints) in the 6 months after the announcement of the OMT program. Firms with better outlook and credit history were especially likely to benefit from improved credit access. In the long run, the OMT Program did not arrest the increase in the share of discouraged firms, and a higher use of trade credit by firms in stressed countries indicates residual credit constraints in the economy.

⁴ See the European Commission's "Annual Report on European SMEs 2012/2013" (2013).

While a number of demand-side effects clearly played a role at all stages of the sovereign debt crisis (for instance, by affecting final customers' demand for goods and services), we go to great lengths to identify the causal impact of the crisis through the bank lending channel's supply of external finance. First, we employ an exhaustive set of fixed effects, notably country-time and sector-time interactions, in order to net out the effect of common demand shocks (e.g., to changes in the willingness of households in Spain to purchase residential property). Second, we show that the trends in credit access that we observe during the sovereign debt crisis do not exist before the spring in 2010, suggesting that differences in lending practices across stressed and non-stressed countries are specific to the period of the crisis. Finally, we isolate the subset of the most creditworthy corporate borrowers, specifically, firms with the highest credit history, collateral quality, and growth opportunities. We show that even in this class of firms, those in stressed countries are more likely to be credit constrained during the sovereign debt crisis than those in non-stressed countries.

The rest of the paper is organized as follows. In Section 1, we discuss the related literature. Section 2 reviews the sovereign debt crisis in the euro area and the ECB's response, in particular, the details of the OMT Program. Section 3 summarizes the data. Section 4 discusses the empirical strategy. Section 5 presents the empirical evidence on the effect of the sovereign debt crisis on credit access and firm financing. Section 6 presents the evidence on the impact of the OMT Program. Section 7 concludes.

1. Related literature

Our paper builds on a rapidly growing literature on how credit crunches affect firm access to finance. The most challenging issue faced by this literature is distinguishing between supply and demand effects. One research strategy, for example, is to exploit experiments that provide a laboratory that naturally accomplishes this identification (e.g., Peek and Rosengren, 1997; Khwaja and Mian 2008; Chava and Purnanandam 2011; Lin and Paravisini, 2013). While these natural experiments allow for relatively easy identification of supply shocks, they are hard to come by and have not been available during the current global crisis. Another strategy is to

examine the substitution between bank loans and capital market instruments such as commercial paper (e.g., Kashyap et al., 1993) or corporate bonds (Becker and Ivashina, 2014), where the latter strategy can only be applied to firms which have access to public debt markets. Yet another alternative is to estimate demand and supply equations using data that includes firm level characteristics in a disequilibrium model that identifies credit constrained borrowers (e.g., Carbo-Valverde et al.2014; Kremp and Sevestre, 2013). Another strategy has been to exploit credit registry data in countries where firms routinely obtain credit from multiple banks. This creates an environment that naturally controls for demand effects (e.g., Albertazzi and Marchetti, 2010; Jimenez et al., 2012; Iyer et al., 2014).

The identification approach that we use in this paper is to measure supply effects directly from firm-level survey data that are specifically designed for this purpose. Because of data availability this approach has been particularly helpful in identifying the effects of this crisis-driven credit crunch in Europe. Some of these survey-based papers that use information on loan applications and bank lending decisions focus on a single country (e.g., Pigini et al., 2014; Presbitero et al., 2014) while a few papers like ours have analyzed the impact of credit crunches in a cross-country analysis (e.g., Popov and Udell 2012; Beck et al.2014).⁵

Overall the evidence from these and other studies indicate that the supply effects associated with credit crunches – including this most recent one – can be quite significant and that weaker banks contract their credit more than stronger banks. Perhaps of greater interest to policymakers is the impact of credit crunches, particularly this one, on SMEs who do not have access to the capital markets for external finance (Ferrando et al., 2014). As we noted SMEs may be particularly vulnerable as banks adjust their loan portfolios in response to balance sheet shocks (Duygan-Bump et al., 2010). This policy issue is acute in Europe because the SME sector reflects two-thirds of the jobs. But, it is also a major policy concern in the U.S. where the crisis

⁵ Another recent cross country study analyzes the impact of crises on the terms of loans in a 50-country study during the period 2004-2011 (Berger et al., 2014). Using DealScan data on loan contract terms this study focuses on larger firms and is not able to control for firm-level demand.

started and where SMEs still account for roughly half of the labor force (Stangler and Litan, 2009). However, a lack of firm level SME survey data and the lack of public credit registries have made “direct” analysis of the credit crunch in the U.S. challenging. Nevertheless, “indirect” evidence in the U.S. suggests an economically significant effect. For example, a study that used census data found that employees who work for small businesses were more affected during the crisis (Duygan-Bump et al., 2010). Another study analyzed debt-overhang and bank level lending data in community banking to identify supply shocks (DeYoung et al. 2014). Yet another U.S. study analyzed the extension of trade credit by large firms and found that large liquid firms extended more trade credit during the crisis (Garcia-Appendini and Montoriol-Garriga, 2015). Presumably some of this trade credit was extended to SMEs who had been crunched out of the bank loan market as has been found in Europe (Carbo-Valverde et al., 2014). The only “direct” (i.e., firm level) evidence in the U.S. has been on larger firms (publicly listed firms and/or firms with access to the syndicated loan market) and indicates that larger firms on the whole were affected by the credit crunch (e.g., De Haas and van Lelyveld, 2010; Ivashina and Scharfstein, 2010; Almeida et al., 2012; Chodorow-Reich, 2014) and that weaker larger firms received more trade credit (Garcia-Appendini and Montoriol-Garriga, 2015).

As a result of these data limitations in the U.S., most of our direct evidence on the credit crunch in the SME sector, including prominently the studies mentioned above, has come from Europe where credit registry and survey data are available. We extend these European studies that focused only on the initial phase of the financial crisis in Europe (i.e., the financial crisis-induced credit crunch that spanned the period 2007-2009) by exploring the second phase of the European crisis, the sovereign debt crisis that spanned 2010-2012, and its impact on the supply of credit to European SMEs in a cross-country analysis. We employ the ECB’s “Survey on the Access to Finance of Enterprises” (SAFE) survey data on eleven Western European countries in a comprehensive study of the impact of the sovereign debt crisis, how the sovereign debt crisis differentially affected SMEs in countries most affected by sovereign debt problems (i.e. Greece,

Ireland, Italy, Portugal, and Spain), and the extent to which non-conventional monetary policy – the OMT policy announced in July 2012 - mitigated the effects of the credit crunch.⁶

There has been very little research on the impact of the sovereign debt crisis on credit availability. To the best of our knowledge only two papers are relevant here. One paper found a direct link between deterioration in a bank's sovereign debt portfolio and bank lending in the syndicated loan market (Popov and Van Horen, 2015). Unlike our paper, this paper does not examine the impact of the sovereign debt crisis on the supply of credit to small firms. A second paper examines the link between a country's sovereign debt quality and the credit risk of non-financial firms in that country using CDS spreads to measure both types of risk (Bedendo and Colla, 2014). This paper did not directly analyze the issue of access to credit but instead focused on spillover effects as countries attempt to shift a rising debt burden onto the corporate sector. While one of the potential spillover channels runs through the domestic credit markets, this paper only considered firms large enough to CDS contracts written on their debt. Neither of these papers considers the effect of non-conventional monetary policy as we do.

Because we focus on the effect of the OMT, our paper is also related to the literature on monetary policy and the bank lending channel (e.g., Bernanke and Blinder, 1988 and Kashyap and Stein, 1994). The bank lending channel posits that the transmission of monetary policy operates – at least in part – through the asset side of banks' balance sheets by affecting the supply of bank loans. We use micro data to analyse the OMT, so we avoid the criticism in this literature on the transmission of monetary policy that aggregate data is not up to the task (e.g., Kashyap et al., 1996). Also, in our analyses of the sovereign debt crisis and the OMT we consider loan pricing effects as well as loan quantity effects on the availability of credit. Some other papers on the current global crisis have also considered loan pricing effects (e.g., Santos,

⁶ For papers using the SAFE to study the determinants of SMEs' credit access without analysing the role of the sovereign debt crisis, see Casey and O'Toole (2013) and Holton et al., (2014).

2011; Chodorow-Reich, 2014), but many (if not most) focus instead on just quantity effects (e.g., Ivashina and Sharfstein, 2010; Puri et al., 2011; Jimenez et al., 2012).^{7,8}

2. The euro area sovereign debt crisis and the ECB's response

The sovereign debt crisis which erupted in the euro area in 2010 sent ripples through the global banking system and prompted interventions by governments and central banks on a scale comparable to the programs implemented during the financial crisis of 2008-09. On the fiscal response side, the €440 bln.-strong European Financial Stability Facility (EFSF) was established by the 27 member states of the EU in May 2010 with a mandate to provide financial assistance to euro area states. Its committed funding was later boosted to around €1 tln.

On the side of monetary policy, the ECB implemented a series of non-standard monetary policy measures. In May 2010, the ECB instituted the Security Markets Program (SMP) whereby it began open market operations buying government and private debt securities in secondary markets, reaching about €220 billion in February 2012, and simultaneously absorbing the same amount of liquidity to prevent a rise in inflation (Eser and Schwaab, 2013). In December 2010, the ECB extended €489 billion (nearly \$640 billion) in loans to more than 500 European banks at a fixed 1 percent interest rate. This was followed, in February 2012, by a second long-term refinancing operation, injecting an additional €530 billion into the banking system⁹. The collateral framework was also altered, for example, by accepting an ever wider range of SME loan-backed securities.

Concerned that the effect of all these interventions would be short-lived, on 2nd August 2012, the ECB announced that it would undertake outright transactions in secondary sovereign

⁷ Some papers on this crisis that use firm-level survey data combine price and quantity effects based on questions that ask whether the firm was “affected by the cost or availability of credit” (e.g., Campello et al., 2010)

⁸ Quantity effects include non-price credit rationing (e.g., Stiglitz and Weiss, 1981).

⁹ See ECB (2013) Box “Early repayment of funds raised through three-year longer-term refinancing operations: economic rationale and impact on the money market”, Monthly Bulletin, February.

bond markets (OMT Program), aimed at safeguarding an appropriate monetary policy transmission and the singleness of the monetary policy. It set a number of conditions. First, a country seeking access to the OMT must request financial assistance from the EFSF. Second, the EU and/or IMF must agree to provide financial assistance through the EFSF and lay out the terms of a deficit reduction program that the country must abide by. Third, the applicant country must agree to the terms of the program. At this point, the ECB can start purchasing sovereign bonds issued by the requesting country, focusing on the shorter part of the yield curve (with maturity of 3 years or less). The ECB set no ex ante quantitative limits on the amount of government bonds that could be purchased through the OMT Program. However, in order to neutralize the potential impact on the money supply, all bond purchases would be offset by selling other securities of equal amount. The Program would run until the country regained market access and could once again fund itself normally in bond markets.

Despite the fact that no OMT Programs were ready to start at the time of the announcement, the financial markets reacted immediately by pricing in a decline of both short term and long term interest rates in all European countries previously suffering from elevated interest levels. By the end of 2013, even though the ECB had not purchased a single bond through the OMT Program, capital had flowed back into stressed countries such as Italy and Spain, and government bond yields had tumbled, returning to pre-crisis levels.

3. Data

3.1. Firm-level data

The main data source for our analysis is the ECB and European Commission survey on “Access to Finance of Enterprises” (SAFE). The SAFE has been conducted ten times between the summer of 2009 and March 2014. The survey started after the financial crisis initially hit the euro area. The survey waves include the period before the sovereign debt crisis (survey waves 1 and 2, from 1st January until 31st December, 2009); the period during which the sovereign debt crisis unfolded (wave 3, from 1st April until 30th September, 2010); the period of the sovereign debt crisis (waves 4, 5, and 6, from 1st October 2010 until 31st March 2012); the period during

which the OMT Program was announced (wave 7, from 1st April until 30th September, 2012); and the period after the OMT Program announcement (waves 8, 9, and 10, from 1st October 2012 until 31st March 2014). The firm-level survey contains information on a respondent firm's characteristics (size, sector, firm autonomy, turnover, firm age and ownership) and on its assessment of recent short-term developments regarding its financing including information on its financing needs and its access to finance.¹⁰ The sample contains only non-financial firms and excludes firms in agriculture, public administration and financial services.¹¹

In our analysis, we use all of the waves, with the exception of waves 3 and 7, for a total of 68,796 observations and 44,739 firms. Most of the firms are interviewed only once in the survey but there is a small subsample of firms present for several waves. Table 1 reports some descriptive statistics on the main variables of interest. All survey-based percentages are weighted statistics that restore the proportions of the economic weight (in terms of number of employees) of each size class, economic activity and country. *Credit constrained*, our main dependent variable, is a dummy variable equal to 1 in four different cases: a) the firm's application for a bank loan or credit line in the past 6 months was denied (*Loan application denied*); b) the firm received less than 75% of the loan amount it requested (*Rationed*); c) the firm refused the loan offer because the rate was too high (*Refused due to high cost*); or d) if the firm did not apply for a loan because it feared a rejection (*Discouraged from applying*). The variable is equal to 0 if the firm's application for a bank loan or a credit line in the past 6 months was approved. Of the 26,247 firms with a demand for credit 35% are on average constrained. Of these firms 16% were discouraged from applying. Of the 22,089 that applied, 10% were denied, 13% were rationed, and 2% refused the loan due to its high cost. Respondent firms were also asked about the supply of bank loans and 36% reported that bank availability deteriorated.

¹⁰ The survey's main results are published in the ECB website every six months. For more information on the survey and its individual waves see <http://www.ecb.europa.eu/stats/money/surveys/sme/html/index.en.html>.

¹¹ The SAFE data include an oversample of firms in smaller countries; thus, our empirical analyses use sampling weights that adjust the sample to be representative of the frame from which the sample was drawn.

Table 1 also reports information on firm financing structure based on the qualitative survey responses. 57% regularly use bank loans and credit lines and 32% regularly use trade credit. Grants and subsidised loans – the most common measure implemented by governments during the financial crisis to induce banks to reopen their lending facilities – has been utilised by 17% of firm. Market-based sources of finance are less common among European firms. According to the survey, 7% reported using equity while only 2% used debt securities. Additionally, it is common especially among SMEs and young firms to rely more on internal rather than external funds: 35% of the firms confirmed the importance of these funds to finance their activities. Almost half of our sample includes firms belonging to stressed countries (Greece, Ireland, Italy, Portugal, and Spain). The survey includes mostly SMEs, equally distributed between micro, small and medium enterprises, with less than 10% of the firms having more than 250 employees. In terms of turnover, the majority of firms are small with annual turnover less than EUR 2 million (41%). 37% have turnover between EUR 2 and 10 million. Firms are mostly independent (84%) and are individually or family-owned (74%). The sample includes mostly firms that are 10 or more years old (78%) but around 20% are between 2 and 10 years old. Finally, around one quarter of companies in our sample report that their outlook -- in terms of sales and profitability, their capital conditions, and their credit history -- was on average improving during the sample period.

Table 2 reports the dependent variable *Credit constrained* for the three sub-periods (pre-sovereign debt crisis, postsovereign debt crisis, post-OMT) and across stressed and non-stressed countries. Overall the difference between the two groups of countries was 13 percent in the first period (i.e., 46% and 33% of firms reported being credit constrained in stressed non-stressed countries respectively) increasing to 19 and 21 percent afterwards (see Chart 1).

3.2. Country data

Summary statistics for our country level variables that capture the macroeconomic conditions over the sample period are shown at the bottom of Table 1. Table 3 shows these same variables over the three sub-periods and across stressed and non-stressed countries.

We use four variables to distinguish between credit supply and demand. The first, the average cost of lending, ranges from a minimum of 2.0% to a maximum of 6.4%, reflecting high heterogeneity across euro area countries (Table 3). Overall the cost of borrowing was lower in non-stressed countries versus stressed countries. Also, it declined over time for non-stressed countries but increased after the sovereign-debt crisis in stressed countries. The second variable is credit standards, taken from the euro area Bank Lending Survey (BLS), which summarizes the internal guidelines or criteria that reflect banks' lending policies.¹² Positive figures indicate that more banks were tightening their credit conditions than easing them. In the period 2009-2014, about 12% of banks reported on net tightening their credit standards with some instances of easing (e.g., France, pre-sovereign debt crisis).

We capture real economic activity with variables for real GDP growth and the unemployment rate. Both indicators reached their worst values during the sample period. While on average GDP growth was shrinking by -0.8% across all countries and all periods, the ratio was more strongly declining in all euro area countries in the pre-sovereign debt period but recovering immediately afterwards in most non-stressed countries. In contrast, among stressed countries, real GDP growth only started to grow after the sovereign-debt crisis in Ireland and, to a lesser extent, in Italy. It remained negative in the other stressed countries. In the third sub-period, all stressed countries reported GDP growth. Mirroring the developments in GDP growth the unemployment rate reached historically high levels in stressed countries (particularly in Greece where it reached 27% in the period 30th June -- 30th September 2013, wave 9) while it remained much lower but stable in the non-stressed countries. We capture banks' perceptions of risk as it relates to general economic activity and bank credit standards with another variable taken from the BLS, the general economic outlook. Like credit standards it is expressed as a net percentage with higher values corresponding to higher perceptions of risk in each country.

¹² The variable is calculated as the difference between the sum of the percentages of banks responding "tightened considerably" and "tightened somewhat" and the sum of the percentages of banks responding "eased somewhat" and "eased considerably".

Finally we capture leverage in the financial system, private debt/GDP, calculated as the sum of debt securities and bank loans over GDP. Theoretical and empirical evidence suggests that excessive leverage sowed the seed for the financial crisis and conditioned the severity of the downturn in the euro area¹³. Generally speaking, investment (and output) losses were commensurate with the intensity of private debt accumulation prior to the crisis. This was particular the case in Spain, Ireland and Portugal.

4. Empirical strategy and identification

We investigate the effects of sovereign stress and non-conventional monetary policy on firms' financing by employing a DID approach. Our treatment group consists of firms in the five countries with the most acute sovereign debt problems during the 2010-2012 period (Greece, Ireland, Italy, Portugal, and Spain – stressed countries). Our “control” group consists of firms in six non-stressed countries (Austria, Belgium, Finland, France, Germany, and the Netherlands). The two groups are of roughly equal size, with the treatment group consisting of 32,314 observations (20,746 firms) and the control group consisting of 36,482 observations (23,993 firms).

The choice of groups is motivated by the fact that all countries in the “treatment” group experienced severe problems in accessing government bond markets over the sample period. In 2010, 10-year bond yields reached levels usually associated with a high probability of sovereign default: 1210 basis points (Greece), 950 basis points (Ireland), 470 basis points (Italy), 750 basis points (Portugal), and 550 basis points (Spain). European policy makers recognized the severity of the sovereign problems in these five countries. Greece received a bailout from the EC and the IMF in May 2010, Ireland received one in November 2010, and Portugal agreed on a bailout in May 2011. As mentioned above, the European Central Bank instituted the SMP whereby in May 2010 it started buying (in secondary markets) Greek, Irish, and Portuguese government debt, and in August 2011 it intervened in Italian and Spanish debt markets, too.

¹³ ECB 2013 “Corporate finance and economic activity in the euro area”.

For comparison, yields on 10-year government bonds for the six countries in the control averaged 340 basis points at the end of 2010, similar to yields on 10-year US treasury bills.

We hypothesize that this type of sovereign stress affects credit access by small firms in two ways. First, because banks tend to hold, for regulatory and for liquidity reasons, large amounts of debt issued by domestic sovereigns, problems leading to sovereign downgrades weaken banks' balance sheets, reducing their profitability (Gertler and Kiyotaki, 2010). Second, sovereign stress reduces the implicit guarantees issued by the domestic government to the banking sector (Demirguc-Kunt and Huzinga, 2013). Both effects raise bank funding costs as bank investors demand higher returns, and hence reduce banks' willingness to lend.

We use two sources of identifying variation in our analysis: the time before and after the beginning of the euro area sovereign debt crisis, and the cross section of firms affected and not affected by the crisis because of sovereign stress. We estimate the following model:

$$\Pr ob(Credit_constrained_{isct} = 1) = \varphi(\beta_1 Post_t \times Stressed_{isc} + \beta_2 X_{isct} + \beta_3 \phi_{sc} + \beta_4 \eta_t + \varepsilon_{isct}) \quad (1)$$

In the main tests, $Credit_constrained_{isct}$ is a dummy variable equal to 1 in the following cases: if the firm's application for a bank loan or credit line was denied; if the firm received less than 75% of the loan amount it requested; if the firm refused the loan offer because the cost was too high; or if the firm was discouraged from applying. Consequently, it is equal to 0 if the firm applied for a bank loan or a credit line in the past 6 months, and its application was approved, it got at least 75% of the requested amount, and the cost was "favorable". In robustness tests, we employ different proxies for credit market experience, as well as variables that capture other types of firm financing. $Stressed_{isc}$ is a dummy variable equal to 1 if firm i in sector s is domiciled in country c which belongs to the group of stressed countries (Greece, Ireland, Italy, Portugal, and Spain), and to 0 otherwise.¹⁴ $Post_t$ is a dummy variable equal to 1

¹⁴ While Belgium did not experience sovereign stress to the same extent as Greece, Ireland, Italy, Portugal, and Spain, yields on 10-year Belgian government bonds briefly breached the 400-basis-points threshold, and one of its bank (Dexia) was devastated by its exposure to Greek sovereign debt, ultimately necessitating government

between 1st October 2010 and 31st March 2012 (waves 4, 5 and 6), and to 0 between 1st January and 31st December, 2009 (waves 1 and 2). We do not use information from the SAFE wave that took place in 1st April and 31st September 2010 (wave 3) because this is an interim period over the course of which the sovereign debt crisis started unfolding. X_{isc} is a vector of time-varying firm-level control variables; ϕ_{sc} is an interaction of sector and country fixed effects; η_t is a time fixed effect which corresponds to each survey wave; and ε_{isc} is an i.i.d. error term. $Stressed_{isc}$ and $Post_t$ are not included in the specification on their own because the effect of the former is subsumed in the matrix of sector-country fixed effects, and the effect of the latter is subsumed in the time fixed effects.

The coefficient of interest is β_1 . In a classical DID sense, it captures the change in access to finance from the pre-treatment to the post-treatment period, for the treatment group (firms domiciled in countries experiencing sovereign stress) *relative to* the control group (firms domiciled in countries not experiencing sovereign stress). A positive coefficient β_1 would imply that all else equal, access to finance deteriorated more for firms in stressed countries.

The model is saturated to provide additional identification of the credit supply effect of sovereign stress. The vector of firm-specific variables X_{isc} controls for the demand for credit by capturing the independent impact of firm-level heterogeneity related to size, age, turnover, corporate governance, etc. Ample evidence points to a negative relation between profitability and the demand for external funds (Almeida and Campello, 2010). Therefore, we expect larger and older firms, whose projects have matured, to have a lower demand for external financing. We also include interactions of sector and country fixed effects and year fixed effects. The inclusion of the former is aimed at eliminating variation in access to finance that is specific to a particular industry in a particular country (e.g., construction in Spain during the housing bust).

intervention. The main results of this paper are not changed by dropping Belgian SMEs from the sample, or by re-classifying them as “affected” (results available upon request).

The inclusion of the latter is aimed at alleviating concerns that variation in credit access is driven by global shocks that are common to all firms (e.g., a global repricing of risk).

Our main sample period is January 1st 2009 -- March 31st, 2012 (waves 1-6). The end date captures the period of the sovereign debt crisis right up to the ECB's announcement of the OMT Program in July 2012. The model is estimated using probit and standard errors are clustered at the country level. The combination of firm-level characteristics and various fixed effects addresses the concern that our estimates can be contaminated by shocks to credit demand unrelated to the supply of credit. For example, while agency cost problems may have become more severe and/or growth opportunities may have deteriorated more for firms domiciled in stressed countries, this should be accounted for by the firm-specific information and by the country-sector fixed effects.

Turning to the effect of non-conventional monetary policy on credit access, we estimate a version of model (1) where we look at the two periods before and after the ECB's announcement of the OMT Program. In particular, we estimate the following empirical model:

$$\Pr ob(Credit_constrained_{isc,t} = 1) = \varphi(\beta_1 Post_OMT_t \times Stressed_{isc} + \beta_2 X_{isc,t} + \beta_3 \varphi_{sc} + \beta_4 \eta_t + \varepsilon_{isc,t}) \quad (2)$$

The only difference relative to Model (1) is $Post_OMT_t$, which is a dummy variable equal to 1 between 1st October 2012 and 31st March 2013 (wave 8), and to 0 between 1st October 2011 and 31st March 2012 (wave 6)¹⁵. We do not use information from the wave of the SAFE survey that took place between 1st April and 31st September 2012 (wave 7) because this period coincides with the OMT announcement in July 2012. Similar to Model (1), the coefficient of interest is β_1 , and it captures the change in access to finance from the pre-OMT period to the post-OMT period, for firms domiciled in countries that experienced sovereign stress relative to

¹⁵ We believe that looking at the first 6 months after the OMT announcement is the only way to identify the effect of the OMT. In robustness tests where we study the long-run OMT effect, $Post_OMT_t$ is a dummy variable equal to 1 between 31st March 2013 and 31st March 2014 (waves 9-10), and to 0 between 1st October 2010 and 31st March 2012 (waves 4-6).

firms domiciled in countries that did not. A negative coefficient β_1 implies all else equal, access to finance improved more for firms in stressed countries following the OMT announcement.

5. The impact of sovereign stress on credit access and firm financing

5.1. Sovereign stress and credit access

5.1.1. Main result

We first present the empirical results from the estimation of Model (1) where we test for the effect of sovereign stress on access to finance by comparing the change in credit access for firms in stressed countries vs. firms in non-stressed countries. In column (1) of Table 4 we report a version of Model (1) with firm-specific covariates, but without sector-country and time fixed effects. The data strongly reject the hypothesis that sovereign stress has no effect on credit access. The effect is significant at the 5% statistical level, and economically meaningful, too. The point estimate on the interaction term is 0.079. Given that 39% of the firms in the sample are either denied credit, quantity or price rationed, or discouraged from applying because they anticipate a rejection (see Table 1), this implies a 20% higher probability of being credit constrained for a firm in a stressed country relative to an otherwise identical firm in a non-stressed country in the period after the sovereign debt crisis unfolded.

A number of the firm-level covariates have the expected sign. For example, micro firms and firms with low turnover are more likely to be denied credit, potentially because they are more opaque and/or because they (or their entrepreneurs) have less collateral (e.g., Berger and Udell 1998, 2006). Older firms are less likely to be denied credit, potentially because of their lower informational opacity (Berger and Udell, 1995; Cole 1998). Finally, firms whose outlook or credit history improved in the past 6 months are less likely to be credit constrained than firms whose outlook or credit history deteriorated or did not change, implying that banks use both soft and hard information in their credit underwriting decisions. Whether the firm is a subsidiary or a stand-alone firm, whether it is individually- or family-owned rather than

exhibiting a different ownership pattern, as well as the gender of the firm owner, does not seem to matter for credit access.

In column (2), we add country-industry and time fixed effects. Once again, after controlling for firm size, age, gender of the owner, turnover, ownership, growth prospects, collateral quality, and credit history are accounted for, sovereign stress continues to exhibit a significant negative effect on firms' denial rates. The point estimate implies a 32% higher probability of being credit constrained for a firm in a stressed country relative to an otherwise identical firm in a non-stressed country in the period after the sovereign debt crisis unfolded.

5.1.2. Components of credit constraints

Our main proxy for credit access so far is a dummy variable equal to 1 if the firm was rejected, quantity rationed, price rationed, or discouraged from applying. This approach is common to the literature that uses survey data to study credit access (Cox and Japelli, 1993; Duca and Rosenthal, 1993; Popov and Udell, 2012; Ongena et al., 2013; Ferrando and Mulier, 2013), and it captures both formal and informal credit constraints. Nevertheless, the two components of this proxy can be important in their own right. The empirical literature on the bank lending channel based on evidence from credit registries (e.g., Ioannidou et al., 2011; Jimenez et al., 2012) relies exclusively on empirical proxies for whether the firm's credit application has been accepted or denied by its bank. Alternatively, recent evidence lends support to the notion that in some countries, informal credit constraints can be more prevalent than formal ones (Brown et al., 2011), and that in general such constraints can vary systematically across countries in a way which can yield biased results (Popov, 2015).

To address this point, we modify Model (1) by replacing the independent variable with a number of alternative proxies for credit access. First, we split the *Credit constrained* variable into its four components, i.e., four separate dummy variables: *Loan application denied*, *Rationed*, *Refused due to high cost*, and *Discouraged from applying* (using the same definitions for each as before). Columns (1)-(4) of Table 5 test these alternative models. We find that the

bulk of the increase in overall credit constraints is due to quantity and to price rationing: firms in stressed countries are 8.6 percentage points more likely to receive less than 75% of the requested loan amount after the start of the crisis than similar firms in non-stressed countries (column (2)). In addition to that, such firms are 5 percentage points more likely to be price rationed in that they refuse the loan offer because of its high cost (column (3)). Firms are also more likely to be discouraged from applying (column (4)), but this effect is not significant. Interestingly, firms in stressed countries were no less likely to receive the full amount of credit requested than firms in non-stressed countries (column (1)).

Second, we also look at the firms which provided answers to the survey question that asked whether the availability of bank loans, bank overdrafts, and credit lines “improved, remained unchanged, or deteriorated in the past 6 months”. The sample of firms increases to 18,948 because even firms that did not need credit gave their subjective assessment of the evolution of bank lending in their country. We create a dummy variable equal to 1 if the firm said that credit availability deteriorated in the past 6 months and to 0 otherwise, and use it as the proxy for credit access in Model (1). The estimate from this test, reported in column (5) of Table 5, suggests that firms in stressed countries are no more likely to say that bank lending deteriorated after the sovereign debt crisis unfolded. We conclude that the data strongly reject the hypothesis of similar trends across firms in stressed and in non-stressed countries, both in the case of formal and in the case of informal credit constraints.

5.1.3. Robustness

We next proceed to address a number of non-trivial issues with our empirical model. For a start, although our DID specification allows us to control for omitted variables that affect both the treatment and the control group in a similar manner, identification of the causal effect requires controlling for any systematic shocks to the treatment group, that is, controlling for other shocks that might be correlated with the financial sector’s exposure to sovereign stress. For example, it might be the case that growth opportunities in different countries changed

around the time the sovereign debt crisis unfolded, or that constraints related to firm-specific net worth tightened differently across the treatment and the control group.

We address this concern by controlling for such shocks explicitly. First, we augment our regression specification to include an interaction of country and time dummies, as well as of sector and time dummies. This is a nonparametric way of controlling for time-varying shocks that are specific to a country (e.g., Greece) or to a sector (i.e., construction after the bust of the housing bubble). Column (1) of Table 6 reports that the point estimate for the effect of the sovereign debt crisis on credit access actually increases relative to column (2) of Table 4, to 0.2523. The estimate remains statistically significant, at the 1% level.

Second, we include interactions of firm-level variables with the Post dummy (column (2)). This procedure aims at accounting for the possibility that the effect of firm-specific variables, such as various proxies for net worth, is time-varying and our main explanatory variable may be picking part of it. We find that while the magnitude of the main effect declines somewhat relative to column (2) of Table 4, it is once again significant at the 1% statistical level.

We next note that the key identifying assumption of our DID approach is that in the absence of shocks to sovereign creditworthiness, firms in all countries would be subject to the same trend in credit access. This need not be the case: for example, the break in trends implied by the estimates in Table 4 may have started already during the global financial crisis of 2008-09 for reasons unrelated to sovereign stress, e.g., higher financial sector or corporate leverage in stressed countries. For example, two countries in our treatment group, Ireland and Spain, experienced significant housing booms during the early-to-mid 2000s causing severe problems in their banking sectors once the financial crisis unfolded.

We take advantage of the fact that our data allow us to test this assumption explicitly. Wave 1 of the SAFE took place between 1st January and 30th June 2009, while the second wave took place between 1st July and 31st December 2009. Because both survey waves took place before the sovereign debt crisis unfolded, we can apply our DID strategy to test for differences in credit access trends across firms in stressed versus non-stressed countries between SAFE waves 1 and 2. If the estimate of β_1 is once again positive and significant, we would conclude

that the break in trends recorded in Table 3 predates the sovereign debt crisis. The estimate from this regression, reported in column (3) of Table 6, implies that in the fall of 2009, firms in stressed countries were *less* likely to be denied credit, compared with firms in non-stressed countries and relative to the spring of 2009, and this effect is significant at the 1% statistical level. This placebo test thus confirms that the deterioration in credit access we observe did not predate the sovereign debt crisis.

One other consideration is related to the fact that Greece is an outlier in the sample: it is the only country to have effectively been shut out of international bond markets and to have experienced a quasi-default whereby in February 2012 private investors were asked to accept a write off 53.5% of the face value of Greek governmental bonds. We therefore test if our results are robust to the exclusion of Greek firms from the sample. The evidence reported in column (4) of Table 6 confirms that this is the case.

So far, we have attempted to identify a credit supply shock related to the sovereign debt crisis by comparing firms in countries affected by the crisis to firms in unaffected countries, accounting for shocks to credit demand by including an exhaustive list of firm-specific characteristics and a wide range of fixed effects. Arguably, however, a number of other developments may have affected the supply of credit by banks. For example, high unemployment and/or low GDP growth may signal a higher risk of corporate default in the future and hence deter banks from lending. Alternatively, high levels of private debt may reduce the credit supply because banks price in the deterioration of growth opportunities in an environment of private debt overhang, especially for firms with low growth opportunities (Lang et al., 1996).

To test for these channels more formally, column (5) of Table 6 tests a version of Model (1) where we replace the interaction *Stressed*×*Post* with a range of country-specific time-varying variables that capture aspects of both credit supply and credit demand. In order to capture shocks to the credit supply, we use data on the average cost of lending to non-financial companies, and also data from the ECB's BLS in which banks report, on a quarterly basis, changes in their credit standards *related to their own balance sheets*. Both measures increased

more for stressed countries during the sovereign debt crisis (see Table 3). The evidence suggests that the cost of lending is significantly and positively correlated with credit constraints at the firm level, implying that firms in need of bank credit were less likely to have access to such in countries where the cost of lending increased and credit standards tightened relatively more. We also use proxies that capture aspects of credit demand. In particular, we include real GDP growth, the level of unemployment, the banks' estimate of the general economic outlook reported in the ECB's BLS, and the private debt-to-GDP ratio.

The evidence from these tests confirms that the tightening of credit standards related to banks' own problems continues to exhibit a strong statistically significant effect on credit denial, implying that effects on bank lending are not limited to negative shocks to credit demand. Nevertheless, it also suggests that developments which can affect firms' credit demand have a strong effect on credit, which may contaminate our tests if credit demand has deteriorated more in stressed countries. For example, the growth prospects or creditworthiness of firms may have worsened relatively more in stressed countries. If such a divergence in firm prospects, collateral quality, or credit-worthiness has resulted in distributions that do not overlap sufficiently across stressed and non-stressed countries, then Model (1) may yield biased estimates.

We address this point formally in column (6) of Table 6. We first isolate the most profitable and credit-worthy firms by focusing on the sample of firms which reported that their own growth outlook and/or the quality of their collateral and/or their credit history *improved* over the course of the past 6 months. There are 324 firms in the dataset with full balance sheet information that report an improvement along all three dimensions after the sovereign debt crisis started, about a quarter of which are domiciled in stressed countries. Then we re-run our main test on the sub-samples of firms that improved along all dimensions. The estimates strongly reject the hypothesis that the reduction in credit access we recorded so far is driven by systematic changes in the composition of credit demand and/or quality that we have somehow failed to capture: even the most creditworthy firms in stressed countries continue to be relatively more likely to be denied credit after the sovereign debt crisis started.

5.2. Exploiting firm heterogeneity

We now address the question: Which firms suffer most when credit access deteriorates? Theory suggests that banks can adopt two different strategies when reallocating their portfolios away from lending. One is a flight to quality, whereby banks reduce credit mostly to less creditworthy borrowers (i.e., firms that are informationally opaque and/or risky; see Albertazzi and Marchetti, 2010). One version of this phenomenon is the “flight home” effect (e.g., Giannetti and Laeven, 2012; De Haas and Van Horen, 2013; Popov and Van Horen, 2015)¹⁶, whereby banks with international operations withdraw relatively more from foreign markets and stick to their domestic relationships. The other is an overall reduction in credit whereby banks increase credit to the riskiest firms as part of a broader “gambling for resurrection” strategy (Freixas et al., 2003).¹⁷ Empirical evidence has provided support for both mechanisms (e.g., Caballero et al., 2006; De Haas and Van Horen, 2013).

To test the above hypotheses, we choose several firm-specific characteristics which are both theoretically justified and empirically common proxies for firms’ risk. The first is firm size: relative to large firms, small firms tend to have more uncertain projects, lower quality collateral, and a higher probability of suffering an involuntary death - although the empirical evidence on this is mixed (e.g., Jovanovic, 1982; Phillips and Kirchhoff, 1989; Mahmood, 1992; Agarwal and Gort, 1996; Agarwal, 1996, 1997; and Ghosal and Loungani, 2000).¹⁸ Empirical evidence has shown that better access to finance is disproportionately more important for small firms (e.g., Cetorelli and Strahan, 2006; Beck et al., 2000), and so credit constraints are usually more detrimental to small firms. The second set of proxies is related to the firms’ own

¹⁶ This home bias has also been found in single country analysis where lenders during this crisis reduced the supply of credit to functionally distant companies (Presbitero et al., 2014).

¹⁷ See Akerlof and Romer (1993) for empirical evidence of gambling for resurrection.

¹⁸ While we are not aware of any direct evidence on this issue of whether small SMEs have lower quality collateral, indirect evidence suggests that this is the case. For example, an analysis of the probability that small business will pledge collateral finds a positive relationship with firm asset size (Berger and Udell 1995).

assessment of their quality and prospects: whether their own outlook improved over the past 6 months; whether the quality of their fixed assets, and hence value as collateral, improved over the past 6 months; and whether their credit history improved over the past 6 months. The full set of proxies are chosen to capture different aspects of risk: the effect of size conditional on firm quality, and the effect of firm quality conditional on size.

In order to gauge the differential impact of the sovereign crisis on firms of different riskiness in stressed countries, we estimate a difference-in-difference-in-differences model whereby we create a triple interaction $Post_t \times Stressed_{isc} \times Risk_{isc}$, where $Risk_{isc}$ is any of the four proxies for firm risk discussed above. We also include all other variables from Model (1), as well as all double interactions. The coefficient on the triple interaction measures the difference in credit access, after the crisis started, between risky and non-risky firms, in stressed countries, relative to non-stressed countries.

Table 7 reports the estimates from this modification of our main test, for all definitions of credit constraints. We find that large firms are *more* likely than small firms to be credit constrained (column (1)) or quantity rationed (column (3)) in stressed countries than in non-stressed countries. We also find that firms with better capital are *more* likely to be price rationed (column (4)), and firms with better credit history are *more* likely to be discouraged from applying (column (5)) in stressed countries after the crisis started. To the extent that unconditional firm quality increases in firm size, this fact is inconsistent with a flight-to-quality strategy by banks. The only suggestion of a flight-to-quality effect, is the fact that firms with better credit history are less likely to be price rationed (column (4)). We thus mostly reject the hypothesis that faced with deteriorating balance sheets, banks in stressed countries exhibited a flight to safety by lending relatively less to credit-unworthy borrowers. This is consistent with a study of Italian firms that also found evidence inconsistent with a flight to quality during the crisis (Presbitero, Udell, and Zazzaro, 2014).

5.3. Firm financing

Having determined that access to credit tightened in stressed countries, we now turn to an examination of the change in financing patterns induced by the reduction in bank lending. Firms in the SAFE were asked to give a yes/no answer to questions on whether they used an exhaustive range of funding sources: bank loans, equity, retained earnings, corporate bonds and debt securities, trade credit, and government support in the form of direct subsidies or subsidized loans.

This test serves two important purposes. First, it aims to illustrate substitution patterns across funding sources in the presence of a shock to one of them (external credit). The literature has provided evidence of a pecking order in funding, whereby cheaper sources of funding (such as bank loans and debt securities) are preferred to more expensive sources. For example, Petersen and Rajan (1994, 1997) argue that small businesses only use trade credit if bank loans are unavailable. Nevertheless, very few data sources are rich enough to provide a full picture of substitution across the full range of possible funding sources. Second, in light of the differences in cost implied by substitution across the pecking order, this test may provide insight into increases in the overall cost of external finance driven by a tightening in credit.

Formally, we re-estimate Model (1) replacing the proxy for credit access with dummies for the various sources of funding that firms indicated they used in the past 6 months. Table 8 reports these estimates. We find that firms responded to the tightening of external finance by being more likely to issue debt securities in order to cover their financing needs (column (3))¹⁹. This is the only statistically significant response by business firms to the tightening of credit standards. Firms in stressed countries also used more retained earnings (column (1)), less equity (column (2)), more trade credit (column (4)), and more subsidized loans and government grants (column (5)), but all these effects are insignificant.

Overall, the evidence implies that while in normal times firms prefer to use cheaper funding sources, such as bank loans, firms have not been able to tap into a wide range of

¹⁹ This finding is related to the evidence in Becker and Ivashina (2014), however, they only look at the behaviour of large listed firms which issue corporate bonds.

alternative funding sources, with the exception of debt securities. We conclude that as a result of the crisis, not only has the amount of overall financing available to firms declined, but it is also likely that the overall cost of funding has increased, with potentially negative implications for firms' real investment decisions.

6. The effect of the OMT Program

6.1. The OMT Program and credit access

We now turn to the estimation of Model (2) which captures the effect of one of the ECB's unconventional measures announced to deal with the sovereign debt crisis, the OMT Program. After a brief respite in early 2012, the crisis intensified in the spring and summer of that year, with yields on Italian and Spanish government bonds reaching levels normally considered unsustainable. On 26th July 2012, Mario Draghi, President of the ECB, vowed in a speech in London that the ECB would do "whatever it takes" to safeguard the single currency. A week later, the ECB's Governing Council unveiled the details of the new program under which it would undertake outright transactions in secondary sovereign bond markets. Under the program, the ECB could in theory buy an unlimited amount of government bonds in secondary markets under the condition that the governments had asked for financial assistance from the European Stability Fund and that the ECB would reabsorb the money pumped into the system.

In the months that followed the announcement of the OMT Program, yields on government bonds declined dramatically, in particular for debt issued by countries that had experienced severe stress between 2010 and 2012. Altavilla et al.(2014) have argued that the decline in bond yields can mainly be attributed to the ECB's OMT Program, which is quite remarkable given that almost two years after its announcement, none of the euro area countries had actually activated the OMT Program.

Table 9 reports the estimates from Model (2) where we compare the change in access to finance from the sovereign debt crisis period to the post-OMT period, for firms in stressed countries relative to firms in non-stressed countries. We generate two sample periods in an

attempt to separate the short-run from the long-run response. In our main test, we compare the period 1st October 2011 -- 31st March 2012 (wave 6) to the period 1st October 2012 -- 31st March 2013 (wave 8). That is, we compare access to finance over the 6 months post-OMT to access to finance over the 6 months pre-OMT (after excluding the period during which the OMT Program was announced), thus testing for the immediate impact of the OMT Program. In our tests of the long-run, we compare the period 1st October 2010 -- 31st March 2012 (wave 4-6) to the period 31st March 2013 -- 31st March 2014 (waves 9-10). This juxtaposes the full period of the sovereign debt crisis to the post-OMT period, excluding the first 6 post-OMT months for which we have data. The regressions continue to control for the same firm-specific characteristics, as well as for the confounding influence of unobservable factors common to all firms in a country-sector, as well as over time. Finally, in order to acquire a more complete picture of all aspects of credit access, we test for the effect of the OMT program on denial rates, discouragement, and firms' subjective perception of the availability of bank finance.

Panel A reports the estimates from the main test where we use the same "treatment" and "control" countries as in the tests in Tables 4--8. The evidence reported in column (1) suggests that after the announcement of the OMT Program, credit access for SMEs in stressed countries improved by about 2 percentage points, but the effect is not statistically significant. When we split the *Credit constrained* variable into its components, we find that none of the channels is operational: firms in stressed countries are statistically no less likely to be denied credit (column (2)), quantity rationed (column (3)), price rationed (column (4)), or discouraged from applying for a bank loan (column (5)).

The most immediate explanation for this observed non-effect of the OMT program is related to the fact that Germany is a special case in that firms in Germany experienced the largest secular decline in credit constraints over the period among all countries, from 22% to 14% in 1 year.²⁰ EXPLANATION. Because German firms are in the control group, this may lead us

²⁰ Another possible explanation for why we find such a weak short-run effect is that the pre-OMT period was characterized by a strong easing of bank funding conditions in the euro area. In December 2011 and in March

to under-measure any effect of the OMT on firms in stressed (treatment) countries. To account for this, in Panel B we drop all German firms from the sample. We now find a significant OMT effect: immediately after the OMT announcement, firms in stressed countries were 6.4 percentage points less likely to be credit constrained relative to firms in non-stressed countries. This effect is significant at the 5% statistical level, and it is fully due to firms being less likely to be quantity rationed (column (3)) and discouraged from applying (column (5)).

The picture that emerges from our tests of the long-run effect of the OMT Program (Panel C) is very different. Somewhat surprisingly, we find that overall credit access deteriorated further between 1st October 2010 -- 31st March 2012 and 31st March 2013 -- 31st March 2014 (column (1)). Actual credit experience (columns (2)-(4)) does not explain this effect, and moreover. However, we find that a substantially higher proportion of firms shied away from the formal credit granting process, expecting to be denied credit (column (5)). The fact that the OMT program did not arrest the long-run increase in the share of discouraged firms and that this effect dominates explains why overall credit access deteriorated between 1st October 2010 -- 31st March 2012 and 31st March 2013 -- 31st March 2014. At the same time, differences in credit access 1.5 years after the OMT announcement can be due to a number of other factors, such as the assumption of the ECB of the role of single supervisor of large banks in Europe and the implementation of an Asset Quality Review by the ECB which may have forced banks to reduce lending as part of a strategy of prudence. Hence, the short-run analysis (Panels A and B) remain our main tool for identifying the effect of the OMT.

6.2. Exploiting firm heterogeneity

Even though we find no immediate effect of the OMT program, there could still be heterogeneous effects that are masked by aggregation. Prior evidence suggests that small firms

2012, the ECB extended overall almost €1 trillion in loans to more than 500 European banks, at a fixed 1 percent interest rate. This long-term refinancing operation was designed to prevent a credit freeze, and it represented the largest such deal in ECB's history.

are more sensitive to monetary policy shocks (Gertler and Gilchrist, 1994; Jimenez et al., 2012), although this evidence comes from observing shocks to conventional monetary policy (the policy rate). Regarding firm risk, theory suggests that if there is flight to safety in lending during negative shocks, riskier firms should benefit more from a positive monetary shock.

Table 10 reports the estimates from a DID framework. As in Table 7, we differentiate by firm size and by changes in firm quality in the past six months. The evidence strongly suggests that after the OMT Program announcement, firms whose outlook improved in the past six months were less likely to be credit constrained in stressed countries (column (1)) as they were less likely to be quantity rationed (column (3)), price rationed (column (4)), and discouraged (column (5)). Also firms whose credit history improved in the past six months were less likely to be credit constrained in stressed countries (column (1)), and effect that is entirely due to that fact that such firms became less likely to be rationed in the quantity dimension (column (3)). This result is economically significant, in two ways. First, it suggests that access to credit is a function of hard information. Second, it implies improvement in the credit supply induced by nonconventional monetary policy, driven by relatively higher lending to creditworthy corporate customers. However, we do not find a positive effect of the OMT program for other definitions of creditworthiness. In fact, we find that large firms and firms with better capital in stressed countries became more likely to be rationed in the price dimension.

6.3. Firm financing

Our final test is aimed at identifying the change in financing patterns induced by the improvement in credit access in the wake of the OMT Program. This test is similar to the one reported in Table 8, but this time we compare the period of the sovereign debt crisis (the pre-period) to the period after the OMT Program was announced (the post- period). In practice, we re-estimate Model (2) where we replace the proxy for credit access with dummies for whether the firm has used equity, retained earnings, debt securities, trade credit, and government grants or subsidized loans in the past six months.

The evidence from these tests is reported in Table 11. Similar to Table 9, we report results from a short-run (Panel A) and a long-term (Panel B) sample period. The picture is a mirror image of the one reported in Table 8: we find that after the announcement of the OMT Program, and relative to firms in non-stressed countries, firms in stressed countries were less likely to use issue debt securities (column (3)). This suggests an overall improvement in bank credit. Firms are, however, no more likely to use government grants and subsidized loans (column (5)), even though governments in stressed countries further increased their efforts to stimulate the real sector through subsidies, so its decline might be due to the fact that such programs run through financial intermediaries. Regarding the decline in debt securities financing, it implies that it is a relatively more expensive type of financing that firms only use in the absence of credit and/or equity.

In the long-run we observe a higher tendency of firms in stressed countries to resort to trade credit to finance their needs (column (4)), and a decline in the use of retained earnings (column (1)). The former finding suggests the possibility that while credit access may have improved for some affected firms due to the OMT Program, residual constraints were still being financed by trade credit as the lowest cost substitute. This confirms the finding in Table 9 that the OMT Program did not improve strongly credit access, especially in the long run.

7. Conclusion

In this paper we examine the dual effects of sovereign stress on SME access to finance, and non-conventional monetary policy on SME access to finance. In particular, we investigate whether firms in stressed euro area countries experienced a disproportionately higher reduction in access to bank credit and whether this effect varied across firms based on firm characteristics. We also explore whether firms turned to other sources of external debt to compensate for the loss of access to bank credit. In this regard we extend the current literature on SME access to finance during the “Great Recession”. Prior to our study this literature had not, to the best of our knowledge, distinguished between the impact of the financial crisis on firms in sovereign-debt stressed countries and firms in non-stressed countries. We do this by

comparing credit access in five euro area countries that experienced sovereign debt stress to six euro area countries that did not using the SAFE firm-level survey data that spanned the crisis and post-crisis periods. Most of the extant literature has only examined the impact of the credit crunch in single-country studies (e.g., Jimenez et al., 2012; Iyer et al., 2014; Presbitero et al., 2014). While there have been a limited number of cross-country analyses of SME access to finance using firm-level data in Europe (e.g., Popov and Udell 2012, Beck et al., 2014), these studies, unlike ours, have not examined the impact of the sovereign debt crises on SMEs.

We also extend the current literature in another, very policy-relevant, dimension. We are the first to analyze the effect of non-conventional monetary policy on SME access to finance – specifically the effect of the OMT Program announced by the ECB in July 2012. This announcement had an immediate impact on the yields on government bonds, particularly those issued by countries that had experienced severe stress between 2010 and 2012.

We confirm findings elsewhere in the literature of a significant credit crunch in the European SME sector. But, beyond these findings we also find that sovereign stress had a large negative impact on access to finance even after controlling for a wide variety of firm characteristics. Moreover, this result survives a number of robustness checks that control for systematic shocks to the treatment group (i.e., firms in stressed countries), trends specific to stressed countries that predate the crisis, alternative proxies for credit access, and alternative controls for changes in firm credit-worthiness.

We also find interesting results on how firms seek alternative sources of financing during the credit crunch. A small fraction of firms were more likely to issue debt securities, but most didn't have access to this source. Government support does not seem to have played a role in stressed countries.

With regard to the impact of non-conventional monetary policy program, we find a notable difference between the short-term effect and the longer-term effect of the announcement of the ECB's OMT Program. We find a weak positive impact on access to finance in stressed countries during the first six months after the announcement. In the long-run, our analysis suggests that the deterioration of credit access for SMEs which started with the

sovereign debt crisis, continued. In particular, firms in stressed countries were more likely to be credit constrained than firms in non-stressed countries 1 year after the OMT announcement, relative to the pre-OMT period. This effect is largely driven by firms in stressed countries being relatively more discouraged from applying because they expected to be rejected. We do find a heterogeneous impact, with firms with an improving credit history reporting lower credit constraints in stressed countries. In addition, firms in the economy at large are more likely to say that access to bank credit improved during the post-OMT period.

We also examine how alternative sources of finance mattered after the OMT Program was announced finding that it was more-or-less a mirror image of the pre-OMT period: relative to firms in non-stressed countries, firms in stressed countries were less likely to issue debt securities. Interestingly, trade credit continued to be important in stressed countries, a result that had only been found in single-country studies (e.g., Garcia-Appendini and Montoriol-Garriga, 2015; Boissay and Gropp, 2014; Carbo-Valverde et al., 2014). This result confirms the presence of residual constraints that were still being financed by trade credit as the lowest cost substitute.

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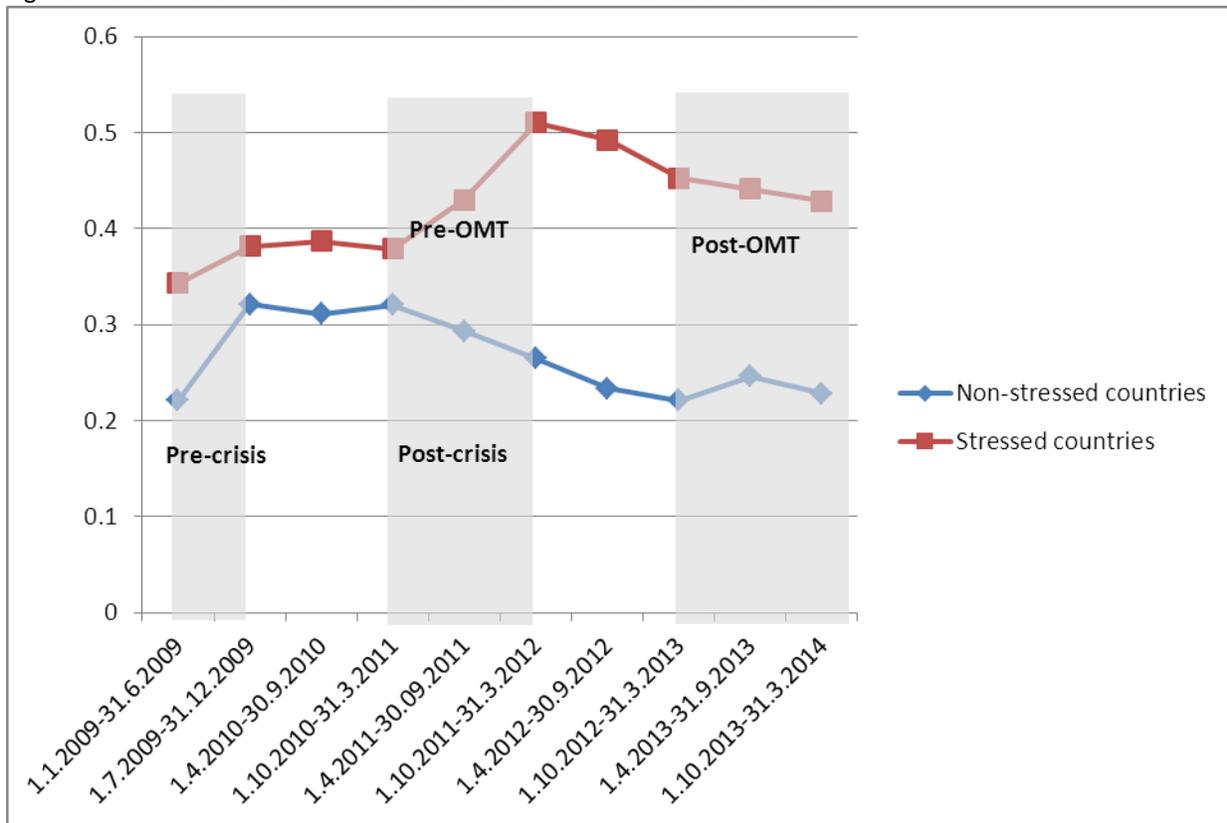
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Figure 1. Credit constrained firms across stressed and non-stressed countries



Note: The Chart summarizes weighted averages of credit constrained firms over the sample period. 'Credit constrained' is a dummy variable equal to 1 if the firm declared a positive demand for bank financing in the past 6 months, but it did not apply because of possible rejection, it applied and its loan application was rejected, it applied and got less than 75% of the requested amount, or it refused the loan because the cost was too high.

Table 1. Summary statistics

Variable	Observations	Mean	St. dev.	Min	Max
Access to finance					
Credit constrained	26247	0.35	0.48	0	1
Loan application denied	22089	0.10	0.29	0	1
Rationed	22089	0.13	0.34	0	1
Refused due to high cost	22089	0.02	0.15	0	1
Discouraged from applying	26247	0.16	0.37	0	1
Bank finance deteriorated	54153	0.36	0.48	0	1
Bank loans and credit lines	68395	0.57	0.50	0	1
Equity	68129	0.07	0.25	0	1
Retained earnings	68068	0.35	0.48	0	1
Debt securities	67823	0.02	0.15	0	1
Trade credit	68301	0.32	0.47	0	1
Grants or subsidies	68298	0.17	0.38	0	1
Other loans	68345	0.17	0.38	0	1
Firm characteristics					
Stressed	68796	0.41	0.49	0	1
Stand-alone firm	68739	0.84	0.37	0	1
Individual- or family-owned	63153	0.74	0.44	0	1
Female owner	62044	0.12	0.33	0	1
Size_1	68796	0.32	0.47	0	1
Size_2	68796	0.21	0.41	0	1
Size_3	68796	0.16	0.37	0	1
Size_4	68796	0.31	0.46	0	1
Age_1	66118	0.02	0.13	0	1
Age_2	66118	0.07	0.25	0	1
Age_3	66118	0.13	0.34	0	1
Age_4	66118	0.78	0.41	0	1
Turnover_1	66853	0.41	0.49	0	1
Turnover_2	66853	0.19	0.39	0	1
Turnover_3	66853	0.18	0.39	0	1
Turnover_4	66853	0.22	0.41	0	1
Outlook better	65210	0.22	0.42	0	1
Capital better	67748	0.27	0.45	0	1
Credit history better	65392	0.23	0.42	0	1
Country characteristics					
Cost of lending	68796	3.39	1.13	1.90	6.85
Credit standards	68796	11.57	21.82	-40.00	100.00
GDP growth	61276	-0.76	2.89	-9.62	5.47
Unemployment rate	68796	11.34	6.24	3.36	27.49
General economic outlook	68796	21.13	26.36	-30.00	100.00
Private debt / GDP	68796	65.47	18.63	39.10	104.48

Note: This table presents weighted summary statistics for the variables used in the empirical tests. The weights restore the proportions of the economic weight (in terms of number of employees) of each size class, economic

activity and country and are applied to the variables derived from the survey. 'Credit constrained' is a dummy variable equal to 1 if the firm declared a positive demand for bank financing in the past 6 months, but it was discouraged from applying because it believed it would be rejected, or it applied but its loan application was denied, or it applied and got less than 75% of the requested amount (i.e., quantity rationed), or it refused the loan because the cost was too high (i.e., price rationed). 'Loan application denied', 'Rationed', 'Refused due to high cost', and 'Discouraged from applying' are dummy variables for each individual component that are equal to 1 if in the past 6 months the firm was, respectively, denied an application, quantity rationed, price rationed, or discouraged from applying. 'Bank finance deteriorated' is a dummy variable equal to 1 if the firm declared that the willingness of banks to provide a loan deteriorated in the past 6 months. 'Equity' is a dummy variable equal to 1 if in the past 6 months the firm used equity financing to finance its day-to-day operations. 'Retained earnings' is a dummy variable equal to 1 if in the past 6 months the firm used retained earnings to finance its day-to-day operations. 'Debt securities' is a dummy variable equal to 1 if in the past 6 months the firm used debt securities to finance its day-to-day operations. 'Trade credit' is a dummy variable equal to 1 if in the past 6 months the firm used trade credit to finance its day-to-day operations. 'Grants or subsidies' is a dummy variable equal to 1 if in the past 6 months the firm used government grants or subsidized bank loans to finance its day-to-day operations. 'Other loans' is a dummy variable equal to 1 if in the past 6 months the firm used loans from a related company or shareholders or from family and friends. 'Stressed' is a dummy variable equal to 1 if the firm is domiciled in Greece, Ireland, Italy, Portugal, or Spain. 'Stand-alone firm' is a dummy variable equal to 1 if the firm is an autonomous profit-oriented enterprise. 'Individual- or family-owned' is a dummy variable equal to 1 if the firm's owner is an individual or a family. 'Female owner' is a dummy variable equal to 1 if the primary owner is a female. 'Size_1' is a dummy variable equal to 1 if the firm has between 1 and 9 employees. 'Size_2' is a dummy variable equal to 1 if the firm has between 10 and 49 employees. 'Size_3' is a dummy variable equal to 1 if the firm has between 50 and 249 employees. 'Size_4' is a dummy variable equal to 1 if the firm has 250+ employees. 'Age_1' is a dummy variable equal to 1 if the firm is less than 2 years old. 'Age_2' is a dummy variable equal to 1 if the firm is between 2 and 5 years old. 'Age_3' is a dummy variable equal to 1 if the firm is between 5 and 10 years old. 'Age_4' is a dummy variable equal to 1 if the firm is 10+ years old. 'Turnover_1' is a dummy variable equal to 1 if the firm's annual turnover is less than €2 mln. 'Turnover_2' is a dummy variable equal to 1 if the firm's annual turnover is between €2 mln. and €5 mln. 'Turnover_3' is a dummy variable equal to 1 if the firm's annual turnover is between €5 mln. and €10 mln. 'Turnover_4' is a dummy variable equal to 1 if the firm's annual turnover is €10+ mln. 'Outlook better' is a dummy variable equal to 1 if the firm's outlook, with respect to sales, profitability, and business plan, improved in the past 6 months. 'Capital better' is a dummy variable equal to 1 if the firm's capital improved in the past 6 months. 'Credit history better' is a dummy variable equal to 1 if the firm's credit history improved in the past 6 months. 'Cost of lending' is calculated by aggregating short and long-term bank interest rates for loans to non-financial corporations using a 24-month moving average of new business volumes. The figures are averages of monthly data for each survey round. 'Credit standards' summarize the internal guidelines or criteria that reflect a bank's lending policy. They are defined as the difference between the sum of the percentages of banks responding "tightened considerably" and "tightened somewhat" and the sum of the percentages of banks responding "eased somewhat" and "eased considerably". 'GDP growth' is the annual growth rate of real GDP based on averages of quarterly data for each survey round. 'Unemployment rate' is the annual unemployment rate based on averages of quarterly data for each survey round. 'General economic outlook' summarises banks' perceptions of risk related to the general economic activity as a factor affecting their decisions when setting the credit standards. It is defined as the difference between the sum of the percentage of banks responding "contributed considerably" and "contributed somewhat" and the sum of the percentage of banks responding "contributed somewhat" and "contributed considerably". 'Private debt / GDP' is the ratio of debt securities and bank loans of the private sector to GDP, based on averages of quarterly data.

Table 2. Credit constraints, by country and time period

Country	Credit constrained		
	1 st January 2009 -- 31 st December 2010 (waves 1-3)	1 st October 2011 - 31 st March 2012 (waves 4-6)	1 st October 2012 -- 31 st March 2014 (waves 8-10)
Stressed			
Spain	0.52	0.48	0.44
Greece	0.52	0.65	0.70
Ireland	0.47	0.57	0.53
Italy	0.39	0.39	0.40
Portugal	0.43	0.45	0.44
Total	0.46	0.48	0.44
Non-stressed			
Austria	0.23	0.19	0.15
Belgium	0.39	0.29	0.31
Germany	0.32	0.21	0.12
Finland	0.22	0.23	0.30
France	0.25	0.30	0.31
Netherlands	0.65	0.56	0.55
Total	0.33	0.27	0.23

Note: This table presents summary statistics, by country and time period, of the probability of the firm's loan application being rejected by the bank. Summary statistics are weighted means. 'Credit constrained' is a dummy variable equal to 1 if the firm declared a positive demand for bank financing in the past 6 months, but it was discouraged from applying because it believed it would be rejected, or it applied but its loan application was denied, or it applied and got less than 75% of the requested amount, or it refused the loan because the cost was too high.

Table 3. Country characteristics, by country and time period

Country	Cost of lending			Credit standards		
	1 st January 2009 -- 31 st December 2009 (waves 1-2)	1 st October 2011 - 31 st March 2012 (waves 4-6)	1 st October 2012 -- 31 st March 2014 (waves 8-10)	1 st January 2009 -- 31 st December 2009 (waves 1-2)	1 st October 2011 - 31 st March 2012 (waves 4-6)	1 st October 2012 -- 31 st March 2014 (waves 8-10)
Stressed						
Spain	2.8	3.6	3.6	15.0	1.7	0.0
Greece	2.6	6.4	6.3	45.0	33.3	10.8
Ireland	3.6	4.0	3.6	27.5	4.2	-4.2
Italy	2.4	3.7	4.0	18.8	18.8	12.5
Portugal	2.9	6.0	5.6	45.0	86.7	-30.0
Non-stressed						
Austria	2.8	2.7	2.0	15.0	10.0	9.0
Belgium	2.6	2.7	2.3	12.5	0.0	-8.3
Germany	3.6	3.4	2.5	14.4	-4.4	-1.7
Finland	2.4	2.6	2.1	25.0	20.8	16.7
France	2.9	3.0	2.2	10.1	7.6	1.3
Netherlands	3.0	3.0	2.4	55.0	8.3	27.8

Country	GDP growth			Unemployment rate		
	1 st January 2009 -- 31 st December 2009 (waves 1-2)	1 st October 2011 - 31 st March 2012 (waves 4-6)	1 st October 2012 -- 31 st March 2014 (waves 8-10)	1 st January 2009 -- 31 st December 2009 (waves 1-2)	1 st October 2011 - 31 st March 2012 (waves 4-6)	1 st October 2012 -- 31 st March 2014 (waves 8-10)
Stressed						
Spain	-3.8	-0.1	-1.1	17.9	21.6	25.9
Greece	-3.2	-7.6	-3.6	9.6	18.0	27.3
Ireland	-6.4	1.7	-0.5	12.0	14.8	13.1
Italy	-5.5	0.5	-1.8	7.8	8.7	12.1
Portugal	-2.9	-1.0	-1.3	10.5	13.1	16.3
Non-stressed						
Austria	-3.4	2.5	0.5	4.8	4.1	4.9
Belgium	-2.8	1.6	0.3	7.9	7.3	8.4
Germany	-5.1	3.2	0.8	7.8	6.0	5.3

Finland	-8.5	3.0	-1.3	8.2	7.8	8.2
France	-2.9	1.9	0.4	9.1	9.2	10.2
Netherlands	-3.6	0.8	-0.8	3.7	4.5	6.6

Country	General economic outlook			Private debt / GDP		
	1 st January 2009 -- 31 st December 2009 (waves 1-2)	1 st October 2011 - 31 st March 2012 (waves 4-6)	1 st October 2012 -- 31 st March 2014 (waves 8-10)	1 st January 2009 -- 31 st December 2009 (waves 1-2)	1 st October 2011 - 31 st March 2012 (waves 4-6)	1 st October 2012 -- 31 st March 2014 (waves 8-10)
Stressed						
Spain	32.0	16.7	0.0	90.5	87.5	79.2
Greece	65.0	73.3	17.5	47.1	41.6	44.3
Ireland	65.0	46.7	0.0	98.7	100.7	91.9
Italy	31.3	31.3	14.6	61.1	63.3	62.7
Portugal	75.0	96.7	10.0	93.9	95.4	96.3
Non-stressed						
Austria	30.0	13.3	9.0	71.1	71.5	72.5
Belgium	18.8	8.3	12.5	40.7	41.6	45.7
Germany	23.3	-4.5	0.0	44.3	40.8	39.3
Finland	43.8	25.0	25.0	45.9	46.8	53.2
France	31.7	10.0	13.3	61.2	63.7	66.5
Netherlands	54.2	2.1	20.8	73.0	76.7	81.8

Note: This table presents summary statistics, by country and time period. 'Cost of lending' is calculated by aggregating short and long-term bank interest rates for loans to non-financial corporations using a 24-month moving average of new business volumes. The figures are averages of monthly data for each survey round. 'Credit standards' summarize the internal guidelines or criteria that reflect a bank's lending policy. They are defined as the difference between the sum of the percentages of banks responding "tightened considerably" and "tightened somewhat" and the sum of the percentages of banks responding "eased somewhat" and "eased considerably". 'GDP growth' is the annual growth rate of real GDP based on averages of quarterly data for each survey round. 'Unemployment rate' is the annual unemployment rate based on averages of quarterly data for each survey round. 'General economic outlook' summarises banks' perceptions of risk related to the general economic activity as a factor affecting their decisions when setting the credit standards. It is defined as the difference between the sum of the percentages of banks responding "contributed considerably" and "contributed somewhat" and the sum of the percentages of banks responding "contributed somewhat" and "contributed considerably". 'Private debt / GDP' is the ratio of debt securities and bank loans of the private sector to GDP, based on averages of quarterly data.

Table 4. Sovereign stress and credit access

	Credit constrained	
	(1)	(2)
Stressed × Post	0.0785** (0.0396)	0.1234** (0.0599)
Stand-alone firm	-0.0230 (0.0165)	-0.0182 (0.0211)
Individual- or family-owned	0.0071 (0.0162)	0.0072 (0.0176)
Female owner	0.0233 (0.0279)	0.0286 (0.0283)
Size_1	0.1408*** (0.0150)	0.1503*** (0.0148)
Size_2	0.0067 (0.0091)	0.0029 (0.0080)
Size_4	0.0003 (0.0321)	-0.0040 (0.0280)
Age_1	-0.0006 (0.0571)	-0.0080 (0.0531)
Age_2	0.0608*** (0.0125)	0.0644*** (0.0155)
Age_4	-0.0363 (0.0369)	-0.0405 (0.0369)
Turnover_1	0.0956*** (0.0324)	0.1068*** (0.0339)
Turnover_2	0.0479** (0.0219)	0.0489** (0.0227)
Turnover_4	-0.0718* (0.0405)	-0.0609 (0.0378)
Outlook better	-0.0287* (0.0152)	-0.0261* (0.0153)
Capital better	-0.0320 (0.0224)	-0.0313 (0.0240)
Credit history better	-0.0762*** (0.0203)	-0.0689*** (0.0239)
Country × Industry FEs	No	Yes
Time FEs	No	Yes
No. Observations	8916	8907
R-squared	0.08	0.11

Note: This table presents difference-in-differences estimates of the probability of the firm having been credit constrained in the past 6 months. The estimation period is 1st January 2009 -- 31st March 2012. 'Credit constrained' is a dummy variable equal to 1 if in the past 6 months the firm was denied credit, quantity rationed, price rationed or discouraged from applying. 'Stressed' is a dummy variable equal to 1 if the firm is domiciled in Greece, Ireland, Italy, Portugal, or Spain. 'Post' is a dummy variable equal to 0 if the time period is between 1st January 2009 and 31st December 2009 (waves 1-2), and to 1 if the time period is between 1st October 2010 and 31st March 2012 (waves 4-6). See Appendix 1 for all variable definitions and sources. All regressions use sampling weights that adjust the sample to be representative of the population. All regressions include fixed effects as specified. Standard errors clustered at the country level appear in parentheses. *** indicates significance at the 1% level, ** at the 5% level, and * at the 10% level.

Table 5. Sovereign stress and credit access: Components of credit constraint

	Loan application denied	Rationed	Refused due to high cost	Discouraged from applying
	(1)	(2)	(3)	(4)
Stressed × Post	-0.0102 (0.0411)	0.0857*** (0.0107)	0.0505*** (0.0138)	0.0525 (0.0486)
Firm-specific controls	Yes	Yes	Yes	Yes
Country × Industry FEs	Yes	Yes	Yes	Yes
Time FEs	Yes	Yes	Yes	Yes
No. Observations	7292	6434	7281	8905
R-squared	0.14	0.07	0.08	0.11

Note: This table presents difference-in-differences estimates where the dependent variable is a dummy variable equal to 1 if the firm was in the past 6 months denied credit (column (1)); quantity rationed (column (2)); price rationed (column (3)); or discouraged from applying (column (4)). 'Stressed' is a dummy variable equal to 1 if the firm is domiciled in Greece, Ireland, Italy, Portugal, or Spain. 'Post' is a dummy variable equal to 0 if the time period is between 1st January 2009 and 31st December 2009 (waves 1--2), and to 1 if the time period is between 1st October 2010 and 31st March 2012 (waves 4-6). All firm-specific control variables from Table 4 are included in the regressions. All regressions use sampling weights that adjust the sample to be representative of the population. All regressions include fixed effects as specified. Standard errors clustered at the country level appear in parentheses. *** indicates significance at the 1% level, ** at the 5% level, and * at the 10% level.

Table 6. Sovereign stress and credit access: Robustness

	Credit constrained					
	(1)	(2)	(3)	(4)	(5)	(6)
Stressed × Post	0.2523*** (0.0086)	0.0785*** (0.0338)		0.1057*** (0.0541)		0.3167* (0.1953)
Stressed × Post (Pre-Crisis)			-0.1233*** (0.0287)			
Cost of lending					0.1108*** (0.0341)	
Credit standards					0.0008 (0.0006)	
GDP growth					0.0203*** (0.0105)	
Unemployment rate					0.0223*** (0.0060)	
General economic outlook					0.0007 (0.0007)	
Private debt / GDP					0.0080** (0.0034)	
Firm-specific controls	Yes	Yes	Yes	Yes	Yes	Yes
Firm-specific controls × Post	No	Yes	No	No	No	No
Country × Industry FEs	Yes	Yes	Yes	Yes	Yes	Yes
Time FEs	No	Yes	Yes	Yes	Yes	Yes
Country × Time FEs	Yes	No	No	No	No	No
Industry × Time FEs	Yes	No	No	No	No	No
No. Observations	8907	8907	2626	8261	18510	648
R-squared	0.13	0.12	0.19	0.10	0.12	0.15

Note: This table presents difference-in-differences estimates where the dependent variable is a dummy variable equal to 1 if in the past 6 months was denied credit, quantity rationed, price rationed or discouraged from applying. In column (4), all firms domiciled in Greece are excluded from the analysis. In column (6), only the firms whose outlook and capital and credit history improved in the past 6 months are included in the regression. The estimation period is 1st January 2009 -- 31st March 2012. 'Stressed' is a dummy variable equal to 1 if the firm is domiciled in Greece, Ireland, Italy, Portugal, or Spain. 'Post' is a dummy variable equal to 0 if the time period is between 1st January 2009 and 31st December 2009 (waves 1-2), and to 1 if the time period is between 1st October 2010 and 31st March 2012 (waves 4-6). 'Post (Pre-crisis)' is a dummy variable equal to 0 if the time period is between 1st January 2009 and 30th June 2009 (wave 1), and to 1 if the time period is between 1st July and 31st December 2009 (wave 2). All firm-specific control variables from Table 4 are included in the regressions. See Appendix 1 for all variable definitions and sources. All regressions use sampling weights that adjust the sample to be representative of the population. All regressions include fixed effects as specified. Standard errors clustered at the country level appear in parentheses. *** indicates significance at the 1% level, ** at the 5% level, and * at the 10% level.

Table 7. Sovereign stress and credit access: Exploiting cross-sectional heterogeneity

	Credit constrained	Loan application denied	Rationed	Refused due to high cost	Discouraged from applying
	(1)	(2)	(3)	(4)	(5)
Stressed × Post × Size_4	0.1473** (0.0751)	-0.0036 (0.0428)	0.0454* (0.0290)	0.0258 (0.0332)	-0.0188 (0.0721)
Stressed × Post × Outlook better	0.0585 (0.0506)	0.0264 (0.0554)	-0.0108 (0.0322)	0.0707 (0.0551)	0.0347 (0.1111)
Stressed × Post × Capital better	-0.0054 (0.0633)	0.0326 (0.0425)	-0.0251 (0.0263)	0.0869*** (0.0204)	-0.0883 (0.0545)
Stressed × Post × Credit history better	0.1878 (0.1958)	-0.0479 (0.0372)	0.0405 (0.0504)	-0.0715** (0.0300)	0.2051* (0.1321)
Firm-level controls	Yes	Yes	Yes	Yes	Yes
Double interactions	Yes	Yes	Yes	Yes	Yes
Country × Industry FEs	Yes	Yes	Yes	Yes	Yes
Time × Industry FEs	Yes	Yes	Yes	Yes	Yes
No. Observations	8907	7292	6434	7439	8905
R-squared	0.11	0.14	0.07	0.04	0.11

Note: This table presents difference-in-differences estimates where the dependent variable is a dummy variable equal to 1 if in the past 6 months the firm has been credit constrained (column (1)); denied credit (column (2)); quantity rationed (column (3)); price rationed (column (4)); and discouraged from applying (column (5)). 'Stressed' is a dummy variable equal to 1 if the firm is domiciled in Greece, Ireland, Italy, Portugal, or Spain. 'Post' is a dummy variable equal to 0 if the time period is between 1st January 2009 and 31st December 2009 (waves 1-2), and to 1 if the time period is between 1st October 2010 and 31st March 2012 (waves 4-6). 'Size_4' is a dummy variable equal to 1 if the firm has 250+ employees. 'Outlook better' is a dummy variable equal to 1 if the firm's own outlook, with respect to sales, profitability, and business plan, improved in the past 6 months. 'Capital better' is a dummy variable equal to 1 if the firm's capital improved in the past 6 months. 'Credit history better' is a dummy variable equal to 1 if the firm's credit history improved in the past 6 months. All firm-level control variables from Table 4 are included in the regressions. All double interactions are also included. See Appendix 1 for all variable definitions and sources. All regressions use sampling weights that adjust the sample to be representative of the population. All regressions include fixed effects as specified. Standard errors clustered at the country level appear in parentheses. *** indicates significance at the 1% level, ** at the 5% level, and * at the 10% level.

Table 8. Sovereign stress and alternative sources of firm financing

	Retained earnings	Equity	Debt securities	Trade credit	Grants or subsidies	Other loans
	(1)	(2)	(3)	(4)	(5)	(6)
Stressed × Post	0.1029 (0.1265)	-0.0016 (0.0189)	0.0142** (0.0083)	0.0082 (0.0728)	0.0037 (0.0570)	-0.0163 (0.0267)
Firm-specific controls	Yes	Yes	Yes	Yes	Yes	Yes
Country × Industry FEs	Yes	Yes	Yes	Yes	Yes	Yes
Time × Industry FEs	Yes	Yes	Yes	Yes	Yes	Yes
No. Observations	22498	22466	22408	22561	22525	22533
R-squared	0.13	0.08	0.08	0.10	0.06	0.09

Note: This table presents difference-in-differences estimates of the firm's use of different sourced of firm financing. 'Retained earnings' is a dummy variable equal to 1 if in the past 6 months the firm used retained earnings to finance its day-to-day operations. 'Equity' is a dummy variable equal to 1 if in the past 6 months the firm used equity financing to finance its day-to-day operations. 'Debt securities' is a dummy variable equal to 1 if in the past 6 months the firm used debt securities to finance its day-to-day operations. 'Trade credit' is a dummy variable equal to 1 if in the past 6 months the firm used trade credit to finance its day-to-day operations. 'Grants or subsidies' is a dummy variable equal to 1 if in the past 6 months the firm used government grants or subsidized bank loans to finance its day-to-day operations. 'Other loans' is a dummy variable equal to 1 if in the past 6 months the firm used loans from a related company or shareholders or from family and friends. 'Stressed' is a dummy variable equal to 1 if the firm is domiciled in Greece, Ireland, Italy, Portugal, or Spain. 'Post' is a dummy variable equal to 0 if the time period is between 1st January 2009 and 31st December 2009 (waves 1-2), and to 1 if the time period is between 1st October 2010 and 31st March 2012 (waves 4-6). All firm-level control variables from Table 4 are included in the regressions. See Appendix 1 for all variable definitions and sources. All regressions use sampling weights that adjust the sample to be representative of the population. All regressions include fixed effects as specified. Standard errors clustered at the country level appear in parentheses. *** indicates significance at the 1% level, ** at the 5% level, and * at the 10% level.

Table 9. The Outright Monetary Transactions Program and credit access

Panel A. All firms

	Credit constrained	Loan application denied	Rationed	Refused due to high cost	Discouraged from applying
	(1)	(2)	(3)	(4)	(5)
Stressed × Post_OMT	-0.0170 (0.0435)	0.0033 (0.0147)	-0.0098 (0.0308)	-0.0019 (0.0046)	-0.0217 (0.0222)
Firm-specific controls	Yes	Yes	Yes	Yes	Yes
Country × Industry FEs	Yes	Yes	Yes	Yes	Yes
Time FEs	Yes	Yes	Yes	Yes	Yes
No. Observations	5136	4215	4231	3955	5142
R-squared	0.15	0.13	0.10	0.11	0.15

Panel B. Excluding firms in Germany

	Credit constrained	Loan application denied	Rationed	Refused due to high cost	Discouraged from applying
	(1)	(2)	(3)	(4)	(5)
Stressed × Post_OMT	-0.0635** (0.0279)	-0.0045 (0.0188)	-0.0483** (0.0220)	-0.0030 (0.0058)	-0.0466** (0.0235)
Firm-specific controls	Yes	Yes	Yes	Yes	Yes
Country × Industry FEs	Yes	Yes	Yes	Yes	Yes
Time FEs	Yes	Yes	Yes	Yes	Yes
No. Observations	4610	3724	3740	3580	4616
R-squared	0.10	0.09	0.06	0.11	0.13

Panel C. Long-run (March 2013 – March 2014)

	Credit constrained	Loan application denied	Rationed	Refused due to high cost	Discouraged from applying
	(1)	(2)	(3)	(4)	(5)
Stressed × Post_OMT	0.0956* (0.0603)	0.0117 (0.0144)	-0.0072 (0.0176)	0.0010 (0.0059)	0.0967** (0.0541)
Firm-specific controls	Yes	Yes	Yes	Yes	Yes
Country × Industry FEs	Yes	Yes	Yes	Yes	Yes
Time FEs	Yes	Yes	Yes	Yes	Yes
No. Observations	12905	10810	10814	10593	12888
R-squared	0.12	0.14	0.06	0.09	0.12

Note: This table presents difference-in-differences estimates of the probability of the firm having been credit constrained in the past 6 months. 'Stressed' is a dummy variable equal to 1 if the firm is domiciled in Greece, Ireland, Italy, Portugal, or Spain. In Panels A and B, 'Post_OMT' is a dummy variable equal to 0 if the time period is between 1st October 2011 and 31st March 2012 (wave 6), and to 1 if the time period is between 1st October 2012 and 31st March 2013 (wave 8). In Panel C, 'Post_OMT' is a dummy variable equal to 0 if the time period is between 1st October 2010 and 31st March 2012 (waves 4-6), and to 1 if the time period is between 31st March 2013 and 31st March 2014 (waves 9-10). Panel B excludes all firms domiciled in Germany. All firm-level control variables from Table 4 are included in the regressions. See Appendix 1 for all variable definitions and sources. All regressions use sampling weights that adjust the sample to be representative of the population. All regressions include fixed effects as specified. Standard errors clustered at the country level appear in parentheses. *** indicates significance at the 1% level, ** at the 5% level, and * at the 10% level.

Table 10. The Outright Monetary Transactions Program and credit access: Exploiting cross-sectional heterogeneity

	Credit constrained	Loan application denied	Rationed	Refused due to high cost	Discouraged from applying
	(1)	(2)	(3)	(4)	(5)
Stressed × Post_OMT × Size_4	0.1875*** (0.0561)	0.1471** (0.0914)	0.0621 (0.0588)	0.9989*** (0.0004)	-0.0654 (0.0476)
Stressed × Post_OMT × Outlook better	-0.1792*** (0.0331)	-0.0070 (0.0182)	-0.0569** (0.0185)	-0.0037** (0.0005)	-0.0642** (0.0246)
Stressed × Post_OMT × Capital better	0.2527*** (0.0617)	0.1833 (0.0569)	0.2044*** (0.0723)	-0.0039 (0.0010)	0.0216 (0.0350)
Stressed × Post_OMT × Credit history better	-0.1554*** (0.0373)	-0.0154 (0.0317)	-0.0617*** (0.0093)	-0.0030 (0.0017)	0.0138 (0.0896)
Firm-level controls	Yes	Yes	Yes	Yes	Yes
Double interactions	Yes	Yes	Yes	Yes	Yes
Country × Industry FEs	Yes	Yes	Yes	Yes	Yes
Time × Industry FEs	Yes	Yes	Yes	Yes	Yes
No. Observations	5136	4215	4231	3955	5142
R-squared	0.15	0.14	0.12	0.17	0.16

Note: This table presents difference-in-differences estimates where the dependent variable is a dummy variable equal to 1 if in the past 6 months the firm has been credit constrained (column (1)); denied credit (column (2)); quantity rationed (column (3)); price rationed (column (4)); and discouraged from applying (column (5)). 'Stressed' is a dummy variable equal to 1 if the firm is domiciled in Greece, Ireland, Italy, Portugal, or Spain. 'Post_OMT' is a dummy variable equal to 0 if the time period is between 1st October 2011 and 31st March 2012 (wave 6), and to 1 if the time period is between 1st October 2012 and 31st March 2013 (wave 8). 'Size_4' is a dummy variable equal to 1 if the firm has 250+ employees. 'Own outlook better' is a dummy variable equal to 1 if the firm's own outlook, with respect to sales, profitability, and business plan, improved in the past 6 months. 'Capital better' is a dummy variable equal to 1 if the firm's capital improved in the past 6 months. 'Credit history better' is a dummy variable equal to 1 if the firm's credit history improved in the past 6 months. All firm-level control variables from Table 4 are included in the regressions. All double interactions are also included. See Appendix 1 for all variable definitions and sources. All regressions use sampling weights that adjust the sample to be representative of the population. All regressions include fixed effects as specified. Standard errors clustered at the country level appear in parentheses. *** indicates significance at the 1% level, ** at the 5% level, and * at the 10% level.

Table 11. The Outright Monetary Transactions Program and alternative sources of firm financing

Panel A.

	Retained earnings	Equity	Debt securities	Trade credit	Grants or subsidies	Other loans
	(1)	(2)	(3)	(4)	(5)	(6)
Stressed × Post_OMT	0.0223 (0.0629)	0.0129 (0.0141)	-0.0098* (0.0044)	-0.0592 (0.0677)	-0.0247 (0.0206)	0.0203 (0.0158)
Firm-specific controls	Yes	Yes	Yes	Yes	Yes	Yes
Country × Industry FEs	Yes	Yes	Yes	Yes	Yes	Yes
Time × Industry FEs	Yes	Yes	Yes	Yes	Yes	Yes
No. Observations	12223	12197	10636	12270	12276	12270
R-squared	0.14	0.07	0.14	0.11	0.06	0.08

Panel B. Long-run (March 2013 – March 2014)

	Retained earnings	Equity	Debt securities	Trade credit	Grants or subsidies	Other loans
	(1)	(2)	(3)	(4)	(5)	(6)
Stressed × Post_OMT	-0.0712** (0.0280)	0.0221 (0.0173)	-0.0017 (0.0060)	0.0597* (0.0386)	-0.0067 (0.0200)	0.0048 (0.0181)
Firm-specific controls	Yes	Yes	Yes	Yes	Yes	Yes
Country × Industry FEs	Yes	Yes	Yes	Yes	Yes	Yes
Time × Industry FEs	Yes	Yes	Yes	Yes	Yes	Yes
No. Observations	31119	31096	30427	31191	31168	31199
R-squared	0.12	0.06	0.17	0.12	0.07	0.10

Note: This table presents difference-in-differences estimates of the firm's use of different sourced of firm financing. 'Retained earnings' is a dummy variable equal to 1 if in the past 6 months the firm used retained earnings to finance its day-to-day operations. 'Equity' is a dummy variable equal to 1 if in the past 6 months the firm used equity financing to finance its day-to-day operations. 'Debt securities' is a dummy variable equal to 1 if in the past 6 months the firm used debt securities to finance its day-to-day operations. 'Trade credit' is a dummy variable equal to 1 if in the past 6 months the firm used trade credit to finance its day-to-day operations. 'Grants or subsidies' is a dummy variable equal to 1 if in the past 6 months the firm used government grants or subsidized bank loans to finance its day-to-day operations. 'Other loans' is a dummy variable equal to 1 if in the past 6 months the firm used loans from a related company or shareholders or from family and friends. 'Stressed' is a dummy variable equal to 1 if the firm is domiciled in Greece, Ireland, Italy, Portugal, or Spain. In Panel A, 'Post_OMT' is a dummy variable equal to 0 if the time period is between 1st October 2011 and 31st March 2012 (wave 6), and to 1 if the time period is between 1st October 2012 and 31st March 2013 (wave 8). In Panel B, 'Post_OMT' is a dummy variable equal to 0 if the time period is between 1st October 2010 and 31st March 2012 (waves 4-6), and to 1 if the time period is between 31st March 2013 and 31st March 2014 (waves 9-10). All firm-level control variables from Table 4 are included in the regressions. See Appendix 1 for all variable definitions and sources. All regressions use sampling weights that adjust the sample to be representative of the population. All regressions include fixed effects as specified. Standard errors clustered at the country level appear in parentheses. *** indicates significance at the 1% level, ** at the 5% level, and * at the 10% level.

Appendix 1: Variable definitions

Variables	Definition	Sources
Credit constrained	Dummy variable equal to 1 if the firm declared a positive demand for bank financing in the past 6 months, but it did not apply because of possible rejection, it applied and its loan application was rejected, it applied and got less than 75% of the requested amount, or it refused the loan because the cost was too high	ECB/EC SAFE
Loan application denied	Dummy variable equal to 1 if in the past 6 months the firm applied for a loan and its loan application was rejected	ECB/EC SAFE
Rationed	Dummy variable equal to 1 if in the past 6 months the firm applied for a loan and it got less than 75% of the requested amount	ECB/EC SAFE
Refused due to high cost	Dummy variable equal to 1 if in the past 6 months the firm applied for a loan and it refused the loan because the cost was too high	ECB/EC SAFE
Discouraged from applying	Dummy variable equal to 1 if the firm declared a positive demand for bank financing in the past 6 months, but it did not apply because of possible rejection	ECB/EC SAFE
Equity	Dummy variable equal to 1 if in the past 6 months the firm used equity financing to finance its day-to-day operations	ECB/EC SAFE
Retained earnings	Dummy variable equal to 1 if in the past 6 months the firm used retained earnings to finance its day-to-day operations	ECB/EC SAFE
Debt securities	Dummy variable equal to 1 if in the past 6 months the firm used debt securities to finance its day-to-day operations	ECB/EC SAFE
Trade credit	Dummy variable equal to 1 if in the past 6 months the firm used trade credit to finance its day-to-day operations	ECB/EC SAFE
Grants or subsidies	Dummy variable equal to 1 if in the past 6 months the firm used government grants or subsidized bank loans to finance its day-to-day operations	ECB/EC SAFE
Other loans	Dummy variable equal to 1 if in the past 6 months the firm used loans from a related company or shareholders or from family and friends	ECB/EC SAFE
Stand-alone firm	Dummy variable equal to 1 if the firm is an autonomous profit-oriented enterprise	ECB/EC SAFE
Individual- or family-owned	Dummy variable equal to 1 if the firm's owner is an individual or a family	ECB/EC SAFE
Female owner	Dummy variable equal to 1 if the primary owner is a female	ECB/EC SAFE
Size	'Size_1' is a dummy variable equal to 1 if the firm has between 1 and 9 employees. 'Size_2' is a dummy variable equal to 1 if the firm has between 10 and 49 employees. 'Size_3' is a dummy variable equal to 1 if the firm has between 50 and 249 employees. 'Size_4' is a dummy variable equal to 1 if the firm has 250+ employees.	ECB/EC SAFE
Age	'Age_1' is a dummy variable equal to 1 if the firm is less than 2 years old. 'Age_2' is a dummy variable equal to 1 if the firm is between 2 and 5 years old. 'Age_3' is a dummy variable equal to 1 if the firm is between 5 and 10 years old. 'Age_4' is a dummy variable equal to 1 if the firm is 10+ years old.	ECB/EC SAFE
Turnover	'Turnover_1' is a dummy variable equal to 1 if the firm's annual turnover is less than € mln. 'Turnover_2' is a dummy variable equal to 1 if the firm's annual turnover is between € mln. and €5 mln. 'Turnover_3' is a dummy variable equal to 1 if the firm's annual turnover is between €5 mln. and €10 mln. 'Turnover_4' is a dummy variable equal to 1 if the firm's annual turnover is €10+ mln.	ECB/EC SAFE
Outlook better	Dummy variable equal to 1 if the firm's outlook, with respect to sales, profitability, and business plan, improved in the past 6 months.	ECB/EC SAFE

Capital better	Dummy variable equal to 1 if the firm's capital improved in the past 6 months.	ECB/EC SAFE
Credit history better	Dummy variable equal to 1 if the firm's credit history improved in the past 6 months.	ECB/EC SAFE
Overall situation improved	Dummy variable equal to 1 if the firm's outlook and the firm's capital and the firm's credit history improved in the past 6 months.	ECB/EC SAFE
Cost of lending	The variable is calculated by aggregating short and long-term bank interest rates for loans to non-financial corporations using a 24-month moving average of new business volumes.	ECB
Credit standards	The variable is defined as the difference between the sum of the percentages of banks responding "tightened considerably" and "tightened somewhat" and the sum of the percentages of banks responding "eased somewhat" and "eased considerably" in the Bank lending survey.	ECB BLS
GDP growth	The annual growth rate of real GDP based on averages of quarterly data for each survey round.	Eurostat
Unemployment rate	The annual unemployment rate based on averages of quarterly data for each survey round	Eurostat
General economic outlook	The variable is defined as the difference between the sum of the percentages of banks responding "contributed considerably" and "contributed somewhat" and the sum of the percentages of banks responding "contributed somewhat" and "contributed considerably" in the Bank lending survey.	ECB BLS
Private debt / GDP	The variable is defined as the ratio of debt securities and bank loans of the private sector to GDP, based on averages of quarterly data	ECB and Eurostat
Stressed	Dummy variable equal to 1 if the firm is domiciled in Greece, Ireland, Italy, Portugal, or Spain	
Post	Dummy variable equal to 0 if the time period is between 1 st January 2009 and 31 st December 2009 (waves 1-2), and to 1 if the time period is between 1 st October 2010 and 31 st March 2012 (waves 4-6).	
Post (Pre-crisis)	Dummy variable equal to 0 if the time period is between 1 st January 2009 and 30 th June 2009 (wave 1), and to 1 if the time period is between 1 st July and 31 st December 2009 (wave 2).	
Post_OMT	Dummy variable equal to 0 if the time period is between 1 st October 2011 and 31 st March 2012 (wave 6), and to 1 if the time period is between 1 st October 2012 and 31 st March 2013 (wave 8)	
Post_OMT (long-run)	Dummy variable equal to 0 if the time period is between 1 st October 2010 and 31 st March 2012 (waves 4-6), and to 1 if the time period is between 31 st March 2013 and 31 st March 2014 (waves 9-10).	