MACROFINANCIAL STABILITY AMID HIGH GLOBAL ECONOMIC UNCERTAINTY—ONLINE ANNEX

Online Annex 2.1 Data Description and Sources

Notes: Panels 1 and 2 show the correlation between volatility in US 10-year government bond yields and corporate bond yields and those of specified regions/country groups, respectively. The reported periods
in panel 1 part than otherwise. Panel 3 shows the correlation between S&P500 volatility and the stock market volatility of the specified regions. Panels 4-6 show the cumulative changes in the daily 10-year government bond
yield for specif tapering of US Treasury and mortgage-based securities asset purchases and in general a more aggressive tightening trajectory of policy rates; and 3) September 15-30, 2022 ("2022 United Kingdom Gilts $ricie"$

Online Annex 2.2. Measures of Uncertainty

Online Annex Table 2.2.1 summarizes the uncertainty measures used in this chapter, which are described in the main text (paragraph 11), along with the literature sources where detailed methodologies of construction can be found. ¹ As also noted in the main text (Box 2.2), this chapter develops a new bank-level measure of uncertainty based on text analysis of banks' earnings calls to capture directly the level of uncertainty perceived by banks that could affect their lending behavior. Section A provides details on the construction of the econometric-based macroeconomic uncertainty measures. Section B examines the extent to which financial variables can span the macroeconomic uncertainty measures. Section C examines episodes of good versus bad uncertainty in the data.

A. Construction of Econometric-based Measures of Uncertainty

Following the methodology in Ludvigon and others (2021) and Londono and others (2024), for each country i, $REU_{i,t}$ ($FINV_{i,t}$) combines the uncertainty metrics developed for a wide range of individual macroeconomic (financial) data series referred to as $Y_{i,t}$. For each series in this set, $y_{i,t} \in Y_{i,t}$, the h-period ahead uncertainty, denoted by $U_{i,t}(h)$, corresponds to the volatility of the unforecastable component of the future value of the series, conditional on the available information set $(l_{i,t})$. Specifically:

$$
U_{i,t}(h) \equiv \sqrt{\mathbb{E}[(y_{i,t+h} - \mathbb{E}[y_{i,t+h}|I_{i,t}])^2|I_{i,t}].}
$$
 (1)

Where the expectation $\mathbb{E}(\cdot | I_{i,t})$ is taken with respect to information $I_{i,t}$ available to economic agents up to time *t* for country *i*. The *h*-period REU (FINU) index is then computed by aggregating the individual uncertainty measures across all economic series, such that:

$$
REU_{i,t}(h) \equiv plim_{N_i \to \infty} \frac{1}{N_i} \sum_{j=1}^{N_i} U_{i,t}(h) \equiv \mathbb{E}[U_{i,t}(h)], \qquad (2)
$$

where N_i is the number of series in $Y_{i,t}$. The conditional expectation of the squared forecast errors, $(y_{i,t+h} \mathbb{E}[y_{i,t+h}|I_{i,t}]$ ² in equation 1) is derived from a stochastic volatility model in which the log volatility of the series $y_{i,t}$ is assumed to be time-varying and to follow an autoregressive model.² Furthermore, each economic time series $y_{i,t}$ is assumed to be stationary and follows a factor structure represented by the following form:

$$
y_{i,t} = \Lambda_i^{F'} F_{it} + e_{it} \tag{3}
$$

¹ It is worth noting that, empirically, it is often difficult to distinguish macroeconomic uncertainty from risk, which refers to situations in which the outcome is unknown, but the probability distribution governing the outcome is known (or from volatility, a statistical measure of the variation in outcomes to measure risk). The literature often uses these concepts interchangeably (Jefferson 2023; Cascaldi-Garcia and others 2023), and the macroeconomic uncertainty measures considered in this chapter also do not strictly differentiate between them.

² The assumption of stochastic volatility is relevant to allow for the constructing of a second-moment shock that is orthogonal to the innovation to the level of $y_{j,t}$.

where F_{it} in country *i* is a $N_{if}x$ 1 vector of latent common factors constructed as the static principal components from a large set of real economic indicators for REU and selected financial indicators for FINU following Ludvigson and others (2021). The estimate of the conditional expectation $\mathbb{E}[y_{i,t+h}|I_{i,t}]$ in equation (1) is the obtained by the forecast of $y_{i,t+h}$ using all the factors.³ Input data are indicated in Table 2.2.2. Note that the sample period used to calculate the uncertainty index varies across countries. Similarly, the indicator FINU is calculated using monthly series indicated in Table 2.2.3. These financial series encompass valuation ratios like dividend-price, Fama-French risk factors and a diverse cross-section of international equity index portfolios.⁴ The raw data used to form factors are always transformed to achieve stationarity. In addition, when forming forecasting factors from the large macro and financial datasets, the raw data are standardized before dimension reduction. Estimations are performed separately for each country for one-quarter forecasting horizon to align with the data frequency used in the main analysis discussed in the subsequent sections.

Sources: OECD Main Economic Indicators database; IMF Global Data Source database; and IMF IFS database.

³ Note that utilizing large datasets within each country is crucial for minimizing biases, especially when important predictive information is overlooked or cannot be included due to the absence of sufficient time series data.

⁴ Indicators are included in the computation if observations are available since 1998 (or earlier). Missing data for series included before the cut-off date are imputed using multiple imputation by chained equations. Data series used in the construction of the indicators vary depending on data availability for each country. The use of long time series is relevant to cover both global as well as country-specific events featuring large changes in macroeconomic and financial uncertainty across countries.

B. Financial Spanning of Uncertainty Measures

A potential consideration is that macroeconomic uncertainty measures could capture information spanned by financial variables that may not be directly included in the empirical analysis. To assess formally the degree of financial spanning of different macroeconomic uncertainty measures, these measures are regressed on financial factors based on either the principal component analysis (PCA) components of "risk" variables in Chicago Financial Condition Index from Brave and Butters (2018), or directly the "risk" variables based on data availability for countries besides the United States.⁵ Online Annex Table 2.2.4 shows the R-squared from the regressions. Overall, the results indicate that financial indicators, such as asset prices and measures of implied volatility, may not fully capture macroeconomic uncertainty. Financial factors explain around 80 percent of the variation in commonly used macroeconomic uncertainty measures for the United States, and about 40-50 percent of the variation for major emerging market economies such as Brazil.

This underscores the importance of incorporating measures of macroeconomic uncertainty into systemic risk assessments and forecasting frameworks to better predict tail risks to markets and economic activity, particularly in countries with less developed financial markets. Recent academic studies support the notion that financial indicators alone do not fully encompass macroeconomic uncertainty (Valkanov and Zhang 2018, Dew-Becker and Giglio 2023).

⁵ See for details on the full list of variables used in the Fed Chicago index are here: [https://www.chicagofed.org/-/media/publications/nfci/nfci](https://www.chicagofed.org/-/media/publications/nfci/nfci-indicators-list-pdf.pdf?sc_lang=en&hash=2BAA83FA5155FFEBDF4A3448814090C8)[indicators-list-pdf.pdf?sc_lang=en&hash=2BAA83FA5155FFEBDF4A3448814090C8.](https://www.chicagofed.org/-/media/publications/nfci/nfci-indicators-list-pdf.pdf?sc_lang=en&hash=2BAA83FA5155FFEBDF4A3448814090C8) Results are similar when using as alternative set of financial factors components computed from the risk indicators in Adrian, Duarte and Iyer (2023).

C. "**Good**" **and** "**bad**" **Uncertainty**

Macroeconomic uncertainty can arise from various sources and its impact on output and asset prices can be positive or negative depending on how individuals perceive the source. In this vein, studies categorize episodes of uncertainty as "good" or "bad" (Segal, Shaliastovich, and Yaron 2015; Dew-Becker and Giglio 2023). To examine episodes of good versus bad uncertainty in the data, the analysis utilizes the method proposed by Segal and others (2015), which provide a framework to decompose the realized variance into two components; namely the variances associated with negative (bad) and positive (good) movements in the industrial production growth rate within a given year. Then, realized negative and positive semivariances in annual terms for country i are given by:

$$
RV_{i,t+1}^n = \sum_{j=1}^N \mathbb{I}\left(\Delta y_{i,t+\frac{j}{N}} < 0\right) \Delta y_{i,t+j/N}^2 \qquad \text{and} \qquad RV_{i,t+1}^p = \sum_{j=1}^N \mathbb{I}\left(\Delta y_{i,t+\frac{j}{N}} \ge 0\right) \Delta y_{i,t+j/N}^2
$$

Where I(\cdot) is an indicator function, Δy_i is the demeaned monthly growth rate in industrial production of country *i,* and *N* represents the number of observations of *y* available in one period (i.e. twelve months). The positive and negative semivariances provide insight into the realized variation associated with movements in the right and left tails, respectively, of the underlying variable. Positive semivariance corresponds to favorable realized variance states, while negative semivariance reflects unfavorable states. Consequently, the predictable component of these measures can be used as empirical proxies for ex ante good and bad uncertainty. To construct these predictive components, the logarithm of future average h-period realized semivariance is projected onto a set of time *t* predictors X_t :

$$
\log\left(\frac{1}{h}\sum_{j=1}^{h}RV_{i,t+j}^{s}\right) = \beta_1^s + \nu_i^s X_{i,t} + \epsilon_i,\tag{5}
$$

Where β_i^s is a country-specific constant and s={p, n} refers to positive and negative semivariances. Ex-ante proxies for good (V_i^g) and bad uncertainty (V_i^b) are derived from exponential fitted values of equation (5):

$$
V_{i,t}^g = \exp(\beta_i^p + \nu_i^p X_{i,t}), \quad \text{and} \quad V_{i,t}^b = \exp(\beta_i^n + \nu_i^n X_{i,t}), \tag{6}
$$

In the empirical applications, monthly observations are used to allow for multiple good and bad shocks within a given year. To minimize measurement noise, the forecast window *h* is set to three years. Following Segal and others (2015), the benchmark predictors $X_{i,t}$ include positive and negative realized semivariances, consumption growth, the real market return, the market price–dividend ratio, the real risk-free rate, and the default spread. Residual positive (negative) variance is obtained by isolating the orthogonal component of positive (negative) variance from the negative (positive) variance of industrial production growth. Estimations of good and bad uncertainty are conducted separately for each country. Online Annex Figure 2.2.1 shows the results from the analysis, along with four-quarter ahead realized GDP growth for selected countries such as the US and Korea. As can be seen, 'bad' uncertainty (red line) in both cases increases (is above the mean) before the global financial crisis as well as during the COVID-19 pandemic (also before the Asian Financial Crisis in the case of Korea). 'Good' uncertainty (green line) is higher during tech revolutions such as the US dot-com bubble in the 1990s, and during the post-crisis reform period in Korea (1998).

Online Annex 2.3 Does macroeconomic uncertainty help to predict downside risks to output?

This section describes in detail the econometric and machine learning methods used in the chapter to perform the growth-at-risk (GaR) analysis.¹ Note that the models are primarily estimated or trained using panel data to attain sufficiently large sample sizes for tail risk analysis. 2

Standard econometric approach. The growth-at-risk model (GaR) for a panel of countries is defined as:

$$
y_{i,t+h}^{(\tau)} = \beta_{h,i}^{(\tau)} + \beta_{h,y}^{(\tau)} y_{i,t} + \beta_{h,FCI}^{(\tau)} FCI_{i,t} + \epsilon_{i,t+h}^{(\tau)}, \tag{7}
$$

where $y_{i,t+h}^{(\tau)}$ represents *h*-quarter ahead GDP growth for country *i* realized at *t+h* (annualized), $\beta_{h,i}^{(\tau)}$ indicates a country-specific constant term, $y_{i,t}$ is realized GDP growth at *t*, $FCI_{i,t}$ is the country's financial conditions index, τ denotes the quantile level ($\tau = 0.05, 0.10, ..., 0.95$), ³ and *h* is the forecasting horizon in quarters (e.g. h=1,..,12). The model is extended to include uncertainty measures as follows:

$$
y_{i,t+h}^{(\tau)} = \beta_{h,i}^{(\tau)} + \beta_{h,y}^{(\tau)} y_{i,t} + \beta_{h,FCI}^{(\tau)} FCI_{i,t} + \beta_{h,u}^{(\tau)} U_{i,t} + \epsilon_{i,t+h}^{(\tau)},
$$
\n(8)

where $U_{i,t}$ is a vector of uncertainty measures (defined earlier), and $\epsilon_{i,t+h}^{(\tau)}$ is the error term. The models are estimated for the full panel of countries with available data from 1990 (or earliest) to 2023. Standard errors are bootstrapped.

As discussed in the previous section, a relevant concern in estimating (8) is that economic uncertainty might already be reflected in financial conditions—particularly if the latter can be measured through a broad set of indicators—given a potential observational similarity between economic uncertainty and the skewness of future GDP growth distributions (Adrian and others 2019).⁴ Note that the chapter's main focus is on prediction of future downside tail risks to output growth, conditioning on relevant variables such as financial conditions and macroeconomic uncertainty. The chapter does not aim to specifically identify causal effects of uncertainty shocks on these variables.

That said, different empirical exercises are carried out to address potential endogeneity concerns. Specifically, the analysis is repeated using measures of economic uncertainty that are orthogonalized with respect to financial indicators, ⁵ and using an instrumental variable (IV) approach that exploits possible variation in uncertainty due to exogenous shocks such as natural disasters, terrorist attacks, political coups, and revolutions (Baker and others 2016). The results are robust to these exercises. 6

In addition, the measure of overall macroeconomic uncertainty in eq. (8) is replaced with individual measures of good and bad uncertainty described earlier, to study their specific implications for the lower and upper

¹ The chapter extends the literature on systemic risk and macroeconomic uncertainty in several dimensions. As noted earlier, existing studies on systemic risks have focused mainly on the predictive role of financial conditions, ignoring the possible impact of macroeconomic uncertainty. In addition, a burgeoning literature has focused on the effect of macroeconomic uncertainty on mean GDP growth and asset returns (for example, Caldara and others 2020; Alessandri and Mumtaz 2019; Dew-Becker and Giglio 2019; and Londono, Ma, and Wilson 2024), paying scant attention to its association with tail risks to markets and output (Jovanovic and Ma 2022). By contrast, this chapter considers the role of both financial factors and macroeconomic uncertainty in predicting tail risks to future output, asset returns, and bank lending. It also considers a wide sample of countries in the analysis, integrating the two strands of literature on systemic risk and uncertainty from a cross-country perspective.

² According to our estimation results, panel data models outperform time-series models in terms of out-of-sample forecast accuracy.

³ Note that forecasts of upper tails of future GDP growth distributions help identify "good" uncertainty—instances in which uncertainty has a positive impact of future GDP growth.

⁴ Jovanovic and Ma (2022) show that higher economic uncertainty in the US increases downside risks to output growth, similar to the role of financial conditions in Adrian and others (2019). Both studies highlight that economic uncertainty or financial conditions impact the mean and volatility of future GDP growth, leading to a distribution skewed towards downside risk. Jovanovic and Ma (2022) also provide a theoretical model linking GDP growth and uncertainty, rooted in technological innovation and adoption (similar to Bloom 2009).

⁵ This involves two stages. The first stage involves running a regression of uncertainty measures against an expanded (large dimensional) array of financial conditions (or their principal components), while the second stage consists of using the residuals of the first stage regressions as measures of economic uncertainty in equation 8 (to reflect the part of economic uncertainty not spanned by financial conditions).

⁶ The coefficient on the real economic uncertainty index obtained from the IV approach is only slightly smaller than that obtained from the baseline growth-at-risk model and remains statistically significant. For example, based on the IV approach, an increase in the real economic uncertainty index by one standard deviation is associated with an increase in downside real GDP risk (decline in the 10th percentile of one-period ahead GDP growth distribution) of 1.8 percentage points compared to 2 percentage points in the baseline analysis. Results are available upon request.

quantiles of the future GDP growth distribution, respectively. The findings confirm that positive (negative) uncertainty have a stronger association with the upper and lower quantiles compared to the overall real economic uncertainty measure considered in the baseline that combines both types of uncertainty.⁷

The main findings of the GaR analysis are also robust to the following alternative specifications: i) estimating the GaR model by jointly incorporating different macroeconomic uncertainty measures along with the financial uncertainty measure; ii) constructing confidence intervals based on percentile bootstrap with pairwise resampling; iii) controlling for the global financial crisis using a dummy variable; iv) using alternative panel quantile estimators such as Machado and Silva (2019) and Powell (2021); v) controlling for additional factors (such as inflation, policy rate, unemployment) in eq. (8) that could also affect future downside risks; and vi) estimating the model for the pre-COVID 19 period only (or by excluding the first three quarters of 2020).

Machine learning approach: This section describes the machine learning models of growth-at-risk (ML-GaR) used in the chapter, based on quantile random forest (QRF) and quantile neural network (QNN).

Quantile Random Forest

To estimate the QRF model on a panel of advanced or emerging market economies, the chapter follows the approach of Meinshausen (2006). The QRF model is an extension of the popular random forest (RF) regression algorithm developed by Breiman (2001). In both cases, the process begins with estimating the trees in the random forest. To make a prediction for GDP growth in country i at time $t + h$, both models use the time-t vector of country-specific predictors $x_{i,t}$ to assign a particular weight $w_{i,t+h}(x_{i,t})$ for every observation (across all time and countries) in the training sample. Collecting all training-sample realizations of the GDP growth for country *i* from period *t* to $t + h$, $y_{i,t+h}$, together with their weights produces pairs $\{y_{i,t+h}, w_{i,t+h}(x_{i,t})\}$ which form the distribution of $y_{i,t+h}$ conditional on $x_{i,t}$. The simple RF algorithm then calculates the expectation of this distribution to produce the forecast. The QRF instead computes the conditional quantile $Q_{\tau}(y_{i,t+h}|x_{i,t})$ defined as

$$
Q_{\tau}(y_{i,t+h}|x_{i,t}) = \inf \left\{ y_{i,t+h} \cdot \sum_{s \in I} \sum_{j \in T(i)} w_{s,j+h}(x_{s,j}) \mathbb{1}_{y_{s,j+h} \leq y_{i,t+h}} \geq \tau \right\},\tag{9}
$$

where I is a set of countries, $T(i)$ is a set of time periods in country i, and $1_{a>b}$ is an indicator function equal to 1 if $a > b$. The vector $x_{i,t}$ consists of country-specific time-t lagged one-quarter GDP growth, financial conditions index, country dummies and an uncertainty measure.⁸

Neural Network

The conditional quantile predictor of future GDP growth (at horizon h=1,4) of the model is obtained by solving the following optimization problem based on country-level panel data:

$$
w^* = \arg\min_{w} \frac{1}{l} \sum_{i=1}^{l} \frac{1}{T(i)} \sum_{t=1}^{T(i)} \rho_{\tau} \left(\Delta y_{i,t+h} - G(x_{i,t}, w) \right), \tag{10}
$$

where $\rho_\tau(\cdot)$ is the 10th percentile quantile loss function; $x_{i,t} = (y_{i,t-1}, FCI_{i,t}, U_{i,t}, \alpha_i)$ is the vector of predictors observed at time t in country i ⁹ consistent with the previous exercise.¹⁰ $G(x_{i,t}, w)$ is the conditional prediction of the h-quarter ahead GDP growth rate (a deep feed-forward neural network or a non-linear

⁸ Like many other machine learning methods, the QRF has several hyperparameters that must be chosen before estimating the model. However, the machine learning literature shows that in case of the RF, one set of hyperparameters works reasonably well across different applications and datasets (Weerts and others 2020, Probst and others 2019). The chapter takes advantage of this unique property of the RF and uses the same pre-specified values of hyperparameters across all specifications. In particular, the number of trees in the forest is set to be 1,000, the minimum number of samples in each node is 5, and the number of predictors considered when searching for the best split equals the square root of the total number of predictors. ⁹ These variables are standardized across all samples in in-sample estimation and across each training sample in out-of-sample estimation.

⁷ To estimate the impact of bad versus good uncertainty and compare it with the baseline results in this section, the analysis proceeds in two steps. First, proxies for good and bad uncertainty are constructed for each country in the sample at quarterly frequency, following the methodology detailed in Online Annex 2.2.C. Next, the real economic uncertainty index is regressed on these measures to isolate the predicted values arising from positive (good) and negative (bad) macroeconomic uncertainty. These predicted values are then used to estimate the 90th (10th) percentile of future GDP growth.

¹⁰ Because neural network models are highly non-linear, including these country-level fixed effect dummies allows the models to account for not only the heterogeneity in average growth rates but also the heterogeneous sensitivity of the predictors to other variables.

mapping from the predictors $x_{i,t}$ to the τ -quantile of the future GDP growth distribution); and $y_{i,t+h}$ is the realized value of average GDP growth from t to $t + h$ (annualized). I and $T(i)$, respectively, represent the number of samples countries in each group and the number of sample periods in country i in the group. The

optimal predicted quantile function is thus given by: $Q_{\tau}(y_{i,t+h}|x_{i,t}) = G(x_{i,t}, w^*)$.

Hyperparameter selection is carried out using threefold cross-validation with a grid search algorithm, following the approach of Chronopoulos and others (2023) and Gu and others (2020). ¹¹ Specifically, for out-of-sample forecasting in each fold, block cross-validation is used to choose a set of hyperparameters that minimizes the pseudo outof-sample loss $\sum_{i \in I} \sum_{t=1}^{T(i)-h} \rho(y_{i,t+h} - y_{i,t+h,QNN})$ i∈I $\mathcal{L}_{t=1}$ across all training samples. Out-of-sample forecasts are then generated using the selected hyperparameters. Overall, the cross-validation results indicate that simpler models with a single hidden layer can often match the out-of-sample forecast accuracy of more complex, deeper networks (i.e., those with additional hidden layers) while using significantly fewer parameters (Online Annex Figure 2.3.1). Based on these findings, network structures with one hidden layer are used in the baseline analysis.¹²

Forecast Accuracy Evaluation*.* The analysis compares the forecasting performance of the machine learning models with that of the benchmark model in equation (7). Specifically, the change in the forecast accuracy is evaluated using the following metric:

$$
\left(1 - \frac{\sum_{i \in I} \sum_{t=1}^{T(i)-h} \rho_{\tau}(y_{i,t+h} - y_{i,t+h,ML})}{\sum_{i \in I} \sum_{t=1}^{T(i)-h} \rho_{\tau}(y_{i,t+h} - y_{i,t+h,QR})}\right) * 100\%
$$
\n(11)

where $y_{i,t+h}$ is either 1- or 4-quarter GDP growth in country *i* (from a list of countries *I*) realized in quarter $t + h$, $y_{i,t+h,M}$ is the corresponding prediction from a machine learning model made from quarter t, $\widehat{y_{i,t+h,QR}}$ is the prediction using the benchmark GaR quantile regression model, and ρ_{τ} is the quantile loss function for quantile τ .

Out-of-Sample Forecasts with Machine Learning. Following an approach common in the literature (Bergmeir and Benítez, 2012; Bergmeir, Hyndman and Koo, 2018), the out-of-sample forecasts are performed on a block basis using a similar specification as in equation (8). The timeline is divided into three equal blocks. The model is estimated using two blocks for training, with out-of-sample predictions made on the hold-out block.¹³ This process is repeated until predictions are obtained for each block. Overall, out-of-sample accuracy is then calculated across all periods and countries. Note that despite using future data to predict past outcomes for some observations, the results remain robust when using an expanding window estimation

¹¹ For all models, the learning rate is set to 0.001, and the dropout rate is set to zero.

¹² The results align with recent empirical evidence, such as Gu and others (2020), showing that simple networks with only a few layers often perform best. This is particularly relevant because training very deep neural networks can be challenging, as they involve a large number of parameters, increasing the risk of overfitting, especially when working with relatively small datasets at a quarterly frequency.

¹³ The hyperparameters used to predict each block are chosen separately, while the grids of hyperparameters remain fixed. To avoid spillovers of information between the training and the test samples, the last 4 quarters preceding the beginning of the test sample and the next quarter immediately after its end are dropped from the training sample. To improve stability of the models, the training sample excludes all observations which overlap with the COVID period (2020Q2 and 2020Q3). Note, however, that the COVID period is still included into the test subsample.

scheme. ¹⁴ An extension of the analysis also considers combining lower frequency indicators with high frequency measures of uncertainty using mixed data sampling (MIDAS) models. 15

Variable Importance. The importance and marginal contributions of different input variables to model predictions are evaluated using Shapley values (SHAP). Shapley values explain a model prediction by estimating each feature's contribution to the outcome (see Lundberg and Lee, 2017).

Robustness. The main results of the ML-GaR analysis are robust to the following tests:

i. Prediction at longer horizons and across different macroeconomic uncertainty measures. Online Annex Table 2.3.1 shows the ML-GaR results for different horizons and alternative macroeconomic uncertainty measures. The results include two alternative versions of real economic uncertainty. The first set uses the orthogonal component of the measure relative to a set of financial factors (similar to the previous exercises) and a second set is constructed by projecting the uncertainty measure onto the current values and lags of the cross-sectional mean of squared errors used in the construction of the indicators in equation (1) of Annex 2.2 using a stochastic volatility model ('forward-looking bias corrected REU'). 16

Online Annex Table 2.3.1 Accuracy Change in Out-of-Sample Forecast Using Uncertainty Measures (concluded)

2. Quantile Neural Network

(Accuracy change from the benchmark model, in percent)

¹⁴ Expanding window refers to a forecasting method that gradually expands the training dataset by incorporating only the data available up to a specific point in time to test out-of-sample accuracy of the predictions. In the analysis, the forecast accuracy of quantile random forest ML-GaR remains broadly the same, while that of quantile neural network ML-GaR marginally decreases, likely due to its sensitivity to sample size.

¹⁵ Preliminary country-level analysis indicates that MIDAS enhances the out-of-sample performance by efficiently mixing daily uncertainty measures with quarterly data on other predictors. For example, incorporating seven of the most recent daily observations of the economic policy uncertainty index into the standard QRF ML-GaR improves the four-quarter-ahead forecast accuracy for the US by up to 2.5 percent and for the UK by 9.0 percent compared to a similar model using quarterly economic policy uncertainty index.

¹⁶ The fitted values from this estimation provide a test for potential forward-looking bias in the indicator.

ii. Comparison of predictive accuracy of panel data models versus time series models. Online Annex Table 2.3.2 compares the out-of-sample forecast accuracy of panel- and country-level ML-GaR models. While the results are similar for major advanced and emerging market economies,¹⁷ the panel ML-GaR approach generally outperforms the country-level approach in terms of forecast accuracy. Neural network models particularly benefit from the larger panel data, showing significant improvement over country-level estimations due to their sensitivity to sample size. However, panel models may overlook country-specific nuances, which can reduce accuracy in certain cases.

Online Annex Table 2.3.2. Change in Out-of-Sample Forecast Accuracy from Country-Level to Panel ML-GaR 1. Quantile Random Forest

2. Quantile Neural Network

(Accuracy change from the country-level model, in percent)

Sources: Haver Analytics; OECD, Main Economic Indicators database; LSEG Datastream; and IMF staf

Note: The tables compare the predictive accuracy of panel ML-GaR relative to country-level time series ML-GaR with and without real economic uncertainty. The out-of-sample analysis is performed by estimating the model on block K-folds, with K=3. The accuracy improvement is defined as one minus the percentage change in realized quantile loss for the 10 percentile, where the accuracy is calculated to each sample country. For the QNN, the hyperparameters for the neural network models are chosen based on three block cross validation. GaR = growth-at-risk

iii. Prediction Accuracy of ML-GaR for Past Crisis Episodes. Online Annex Figure 2.3.2 shows the outof-sample forecast accuracy of ML-GaRs, by focusing on the accuracy to predict past crisis episodes: (a) the Global Financial Crisis and (b) COVID-19 pandemic. For (a), the evaluation period includes all forecasts made for the realizations between 2007Q4 and 2009Q2, and (b) includes all forecasts made for realizations in 2020Q2 and 2020Q3. Because it is unlikely that uncertainty measure could predict COVID-19 pandemic in 2019Q2, only one-quarter ahead forecast is evaluated for (b). As shown in the figure, the machine learning approach, when considering the real economic uncertainty measure, is generally useful to predict past crisis episodes. Similar results are obtained for GaR estimated over a longer time horizon.

¹⁷ For instance, tests for the United States and Brazil show very similar performance across panel and country-level estimations.

iv. Comparison of In-Sample and Out-of-Sample Predictions of Future GDP Growth. Online Annex Figure 2.3.3 displays the in-sample and out-of-sample forecasts generated by the QRF and QNN ML-GaR models across different percentiles of the distribution (i.e., 10^{th} , 50^{th} , and 90^{th}). For in-sample forecasts, the 10^{th} -90th percentile band effectively captures GDP growth realizations. Even in out-of-sample forecasts, this range broadly encompasses the actual GDP growth, including during the Global Financial Crisis. In addition, in-sample and out-of-sample broadly track each other.

Online Annex 2.4 How does macroeconomic uncertainty interact with macrofinancial vulnerabilities to affect downside risks to output?

To study the relevance of interaction effects between uncertainty and vulnerability measures, the linear quantile model is extended as follows:

$$
y_{i,t+h}^{(\tau)} = \beta_h^{(\tau)} + \beta_{h,y}^{(\tau)} y_{i,t} + \beta_{h,FCI}^{(\tau)} FCI_{i,t} + \beta_{h,u}^{(\tau)} High\ Uncertainty_{i,t} + \beta_{h,v}^{(\tau)} V_{i,t} + \beta_{h,uv}^{(\tau)} High\ Uncertainty_{i,t} \times V_{i,t} + \epsilon_{i,t+h}^{(\tau)},
$$
\n(12)

where $V_{i,t}$ represents a vector of vulnerabilities, High Uncertainty $_{i,t} x V_{i,t}$ represent interaction terms between uncertainty and vulnerability measures, and the coefficient of interest are $\beta_{h,v}^{(\tau)}$ and $\beta_{h,uv}^{(\tau)}$. "High Uncertainty_{i.t}" is a dummy that takes the value one when real economic uncertainty is above the median, while V_t comprises different proxies for one-sided HP-filtered credit-to-GDP gap and public debtto-GDP gap.

Estimations are conducted using panel quantile regressions for countries in the sample, depending on data availability. For machine learning models (ML-GaR), the conditional predictions of h-quarter ahead GDP growth rates $G(x_{i,t}, w^*)$ are now determined by an expanded set of predictors x_t =(FCI_{i,t},U_{i,t},V_{i,t})—which includes the vulnerability measures. Results from the linear quantile model estimation are presented in Figure 2.6 (panel 1) of the main text.

Online Annex Figure 2.4.1 presents the estimation results of the interaction effects between real economic uncertainty and vulnerability measures. The figure indicates that higher uncertainty generally predicts lower values for the 10th percentile of the future GDP growth distribution. More importantly, the impact of increased uncertainty on downside tail risk to future GDP growth is amplified when credit-to-GDP and public debt-to-GDP gaps are high, indicating that uncertainty interacts with these vulnerabilities.

A. Uncertainty, Macro-Market Disconnect and Financial Conditions

A high-uncertainty regime can be considered a potential vulnerability that can interact with other macrofinancial vulnerabilities to amplify the effect of adverse shocks to the economy through the channels discussed earlier. Extensions of the model explore therefore potential interaction effects between uncertainty and the financial condition index (FCI). Specifically, the following model is estimated:

$$
y_{i,t+h}^{(\tau)} = \beta_h^{(\tau)} + \beta_{h,y}^{(\tau)} y_{i,t} + \beta_{h,FCI}^{(\tau)} FCI_{i,t} + \beta_{h,u}^{(\tau)} High\ Uncertainty_{i,t}
$$

$$
+ \beta_{h,uf}^{(\tau)} High\ Uncertainty_{i,t} \times FCI_{i,t} + \epsilon_{i,t+h}^{(\tau)}, \quad (13)
$$

where High Uncertainty_{i,t} x FCI_{i,t} represents the interaction term between uncertainty and FCI. The coefficients of interest are $\beta_{h,FCI}^{(\tau)}$, which captures the effect of a one-standard deviation change in FCI in low uncertainty regime (i.e., when the "High Uncertainty" dummy is equal to zero); and the coefficient $\beta_{h,uf}^{(\tau)}$, which reflects the additional impact of a change in FCI under a high uncertainty regime (i.e. when the "High Uncertainty" dummy is equal to one). Based on this analysis, Figure 2.6 (panel 2) in the main text shows the impact of a one standard deviation easing shock to financial conditions on the term-structure of GaR amid low real economic uncertainty and the overall effect during periods of high macroeconomic uncertainty $(\beta_{h,FCI}^{(\tau)} + \beta_{h,uf}^{(\tau)}).$

A similar analysis is conducted by replacing the high uncertainty dummy with a dummy that identifies periods of large macro-market disconnect:

$$
y_{i,t+h}^{(\tau)} = \beta_h^{(\tau)} + \beta_{h,y}^{(\tau)} y_{i,t} + \beta_{h,FCI}^{(\tau)} FCI_{i,t} + \beta_{h,u}^{(\tau)} High Disy_{i,t} + \beta_{h,uf}^{(\tau)} High Dis_{i,t} x FCI_{i,t} + \epsilon_{i,t+h}^{(\tau)}, \quad (14)
$$

where $HighDis_{i,t}$ is a dummy variable that takes the value one in periods in which the ratio between real economic uncertainty and realized market volatility is above its mean. Results from this analysis are presented in Figure 2.6 (panel 3) of the main text. The main findings are robust to the following alternative specifications: i) estimating the GaR model by jointly incorporating different macroeconomic uncertainty measures along with the financial uncertainty measure; ii) constructing confidence intervals based on percentile bootstrap with pairwise resampling; iii) controlling for the global financial crisis using a dummy variable; iv) using alternative panel quantile estimators such as Machado and Silva (2019) and Powell (2021), v) controlling for additional confounding factors (such as inflation, policy rate, unemployment, vi) using instrumented uncertainty as described in Online Annex 2.3, vii) estimating the model on the pre-COVID period or by excluding the first three quarters of 2020. 1

B. Effect of Macroprudential Policies on the Intertemporal Risk-Return Tradeoff

The following specification is used to examine the effectiveness of macroprudential measures in curbing the buildup of sector-specific leverage and mitigating downside risks to economic growth:

$$
y_{i,t+h}^{(\tau)} = \theta_{i,t} \left[\alpha_{i,h}^{(\tau,tight)} + \beta_{h,y}^{(\tau,tight)} FCI_{i,t} + \beta_{h,d}^{(\tau,tight)} HighDis_{i,t} + \beta_{h,df}^{(\tau,tight)} HighDis_{i,t} x FCI_{i,t} + \lambda_{h,x}^{(\tau,tight)} y_{i,t} \right]
$$
(15)
+
$$
(1 - \theta_{i,t}) \left[\alpha_{i,h}^{(\tau,no_tight)} + \beta_{h,y}^{(\tau,no_tight)} FCI_{i,t} + \beta_{h,d}^{(\tau,no_tight)} HighDis_{i,t} + \beta_{h,df}^{(\tau,no_tight)} HighDis_{i,t} x FCI_{i,t} + \lambda_{h,x}^{(\tau,no_tight)} y_{i,t} \right] + \epsilon_{i,t+h}^{(\tau)}
$$

where HighDis_{i,t} is a dummy variable equal to one when the ratio between real economic uncertainty and realized market volatility is above its mean, consistently with the previous exercise. In the specification, the parameter $\theta_{i,t}$ is a regime dummy that takes a value one if the sum of net macroprudential policy tightening in the past 4 quarters is positive, and zero otherwise. A variety of macroprudential tools are considered to define the macroprudential policy regime. These include borrower-based measures, as well as measures targeting bank lenders—such as capital adequacy requirements, liquidity regulations, and controls on foreign currency exposure. The data on macroprudential measures is sourced from the IMF's Integrated

¹ Note that results from a baseline model including only $HighDisy_{i,t}$ indicate that the disconnect can increase downside risks by up to 0.3 percentage points (annualized) over the next five quarters.

Macroprudential Policy Database, covering the period 1990-2021 (for further details, see Alam and others, 2019).²

The empirical methodology and results in this section are aligned with the approach and findings presented in Chapter 2 of the April 2021 GFSR. Figure 2.6 (panel 4) in the main text illustrates the impact of a one standard deviation easing in financial conditions during a period of 'macroprudential tightening' amidst high macro-market disconnect, compared to the effect of FCI loosening without macroprudential tightening in a similar context. In addition to the previous robustness tests discussed in Online Annex 2.3, the conclusions of the analysis in this section are also robust to: i) directly interacting the macroprudential measures with the interaction effects of disconnect and financial conditions; ii) using macroprudential policy shocks as in Brandao-Marques and others (2020), iii) controlling for the global financial crisis using a dummy variable; and iv) controlling for additional factors (such as inflation, policy rate, unemployment) that could also affect future downside risks.

² These measures are referred as SUM_{17} in the iMapp database. This is a discrete variable, which indicates the net number of macroprudential tightening actions undertaken in a given quarter The measure included in the indicator can be categorized into six main groups: (1) borrower-based measures, including loan-to-value (LTV) and debt-service-to-income (DSTI) limits; (2) bank capital measures, encompassing capital requirements, leverage limits, loan-loss provisioning, countercyclical capital buffers, capital conservation buffers, and regulations targeting systemically important banks; (3) banks' foreign currency exposure measures, involving limits on foreign currency lending, restrictions on gross open foreign currency positions, and reserve requirements on foreign currency assets; (4) bank liquidity measures, including reserve requirements, liquidity mandates, and limits on the loan-to-deposit ratio; (5) credit measures, covering limits on credit growth and loan restrictions; and (6) other measures, such as stress testing, restrictions on profit distribution, and limits on exposures between financial institutions.

Online Annex 2.5 Does macroeconomic uncertainty influence activity through the market tail risk and bank lending channels?

A. Market tail risk

The following dynamic panel quantile regression specifications are used to examine the association between macroeconomic uncertainty and future tail risks sovereign bond and stock markets:

$$
R_{i,t+h}^{(\tau)} = \beta_i^{(\tau)} + \gamma_t^{(\tau)} + R_{i,t} + \beta_u^{(\tau)} U_{i,t} + \beta_v^{(\tau)} V_{i,t} + \beta_{uv}^{(\tau)} U_{i,t} V_{i,t} + \beta_z^{(\tau)} Z_{i,t} + \epsilon_{i,t+h}^{(\tau)},
$$
(16)

where $R_{i,t+h}^{(\tau)}$ denotes the τ quantile of the h-period ahead distribution of average stock returns between month *t* and *t+h*, or change in sovereign bond spreads between month *t* and *t+h* in country $i \in [1, ..., C]$;¹, $R_{i,t}$ denotes the asset return/bond spread observed in period t ; $U_{i,t}$ is a measure of macroeconomic uncertainty (monthly change); $V_{i,t}$ denotes financial or fiscal vulnerabilities; and the cross-term $U_{i,t}V_{i,t}$ captures possible interactions between the uncertainty and vulnerability measures; $Z_{i,t}$ denotes additional predictor (control) variables described below; and $\epsilon_{i,t+h}^{(\tau)}$ is the error term. In equation (16), $\beta_i^{(\tau)}$ denotes country-level fixed effects and the parameters $\theta^{*(\tau)} \equiv \left\{\beta_i^{(\tau)}, \beta_u^{(\tau)}, \beta_v^{(\tau)}, \beta_{uv}^{(\tau)}, \beta_z^{(\tau)}\right\}$ minimize the quantile loss function.²

The uncertainty measures included in the analysis are the Real Economic Uncertainty index (REU), the financial economic uncertainty measure, the Economic Policy Uncertainty index (EPU), and the World Uncertainty Index (WUI).³ Equation (16) is estimated using monthly data for a sample of 19 advanced and 9 emerging market economies applying the quantile panel regression approach of Canay (2011) with bootstrapped standard errors.

Robustness is assessed considering measures of implied volatility at time *t* for countries with available data, and restricting the analysis to the pre-COVID-19 pandemic period.

Tail risk in sovereign spreads

The sovereign bond spreads used in equation (16) is defined as the difference between the yields on domestic government bonds and the US or German government bonds of the same maturity, in basis points. ⁴ The dependent variable is then the $90th$ percentile of the change in spreads (over different time horizons such as 1, 3, 6 and 12 months) to capture upside tail risk in sovereign bond markets.

The set of control variables $(Z_{i,t})$ when estimating equation (16) for sovereign bond spreads follows Gilchrist and others (2009) and includes: the VIX index, the excess bond premium (EBP) of Gilchrist and Zakrajšek (2012), benchmark economy ('foreign') real 2y Treasury Yield based on TIPS, benchmark economy ('foreign') term spread constructed as the difference between 10-year and 2-year government bond yields, one-month S&P500 stock index return, 3-month daily domestic stock market returns (not correlated with the S&P500 stock return), constructed as the residual from a panel regression of the daily domestic stock market index returns on the S&P500 index returns, controlling for country fixed effects, 3-month daily domestic stock return volatility, 3-month change in the local currency exchange rate vis-à-vis the US DOLLAR in excess of changes in the broad nominal US DOLLAR index from the FRED during the same period, and 3-month exchange rate volatility. ⁵ All control variables are measured at end-of-period.

¹ Robust predictability of mean returns in stock and bond markets has been difficult to establish empirically (for example, Campbell and Thomson 2007; Goyal and Welch 2008). However, studies have shown the predictability of higher moments of return distributions, as well as of downside tail risks (for example, Adrian, Crump, and Vogt 2019; Hung, Liu, and Yang 2020).

² It satisfies the following: $\theta^{*(\tau)} = \arg\min_{\theta^{(\tau)}}$ 1 $\frac{1}{I} \sum_{i=1}^{I} \frac{1}{T}$ $\mathcal{L}_{i=1}^I \sum_{\tau=1}^T \rho_{\tau}(\epsilon_{i,t+h}^{(\tau)}),$ where $\rho_{\tau}(\epsilon_{i,t+h}^{(\tau)}) = \begin{cases} \tau \epsilon_{i,t+h}^{(\tau)} & \text{if } \epsilon_{i,t+h}^{(\tau)} \geq 0 \\ (1-\tau)\epsilon^{(\tau)} & \text{if } \epsilon^{(\tau)} \end{cases}$ $(1-\tau)\epsilon_{i,t+h}^{(\tau)}$ *i*,th $\epsilon_{i,t+h}^{(\tau)} < 0$, where *I* denotes the

number of countries.

³ The REU is available at a quarterly frequency and is interpolated to a monthly frequency for this analysis.

⁴ The choice of the benchmark country (US or Germany) depends on the domestic issuer country—for countries in Euro Area, spread with Germany is computed.

⁵ Stock market and exchange rate volatilities are computed as the monthly average of standard deviation of the daily returns of stock returns/ exchange rate over a rolling window of 62 days (3months).

Note: Table shows results of quantile panel regressions of sovereign bond spread changes from time t to different horizons (t+1, 3, 6 and 12 months) using country fixed effects and estimated at the 90th
percentile of the d underlying regressions include relevant controls for the sovereign bond market at the country and global levels following Gilchrist and others (2022), as well as the lagged dependent variable. Spreads are calculated relative to a benchmark economy for each country (Germany for Euro area countries and the United States for all others) and using only debt denominated in the same currency of the
benchmark economy. Standard err

The estimation results for equation (16) for REU are presented in Online Annex Table 2.5.1⁶ , and show that an increase in REU significantly raises upside tail risks to sovereign bond spreads in both advanced and emerging market economies for up to six months. The effect of REU is amplified for high levels of macrofinancial and fiscal vulnerabilities in emerging market economies, specifically, debt service to GDP (defined as the ratio of nominal general government debt service payments as a percentage of nominal GDP, interpolated from an annual to a monthly frequency); and domestic banks' exposure to sovereign debt (defined as the value of domestic sovereign debt held by banks as a percentage of banks' total assets) interpolated from quarterly data to monthly frequency (Online Annex Table 2.5.2). In advanced economies, the result is opposite, although with a much lower magnitude and only borderline significant—note that the result becomes insignificant when the sample is restricted to the pre-COVID period.⁷

Tail risk in stock returns

To estimate the effect of macroeconomic uncertainty on tail risk in stock market returns, a panel quantile regression is estimated with the 10th percentile of average future stock returns (over 1, 3, 6 and 12-month horizons) considered as the dependent variable in equation (16). The resulting coefficient for changes in uncertainty is rescaled using the standard deviation in the level of the respective uncertainty measure to improve interpretability.

The set of baseline control variables $(Z_{i,t})$ in this case follows Schmeling (2009) and Goyal and Welch (2008). These are standardized at a country level and include: 3-month domestic CPI inflation; 3-month percentage change in real industrial production; average stock market dividend yield; detrended short (3-month) rate. Constructed using HP filter; domestic term spread, computed as the difference between 10-year and 3-month government bond yields; 3-month daily stock market volatility; and price to earnings ratio for the overall stock market.

⁶ Across all uncertainty measures, results for REU are the strongest and most consistent across time horizons and alternative specifications.

⁷ The result for the sample that includes the COVID period is possibly capturing the effect of central bank interventions in sovereign bond markets in advanced economies. During the COVID period, spreads in many countries, after initially spiking in March, quickly returned to pre- COVID levels

The results show that an increase in real economic uncertainty significantly reduces stock returns in both advanced and emerging market economies by up to 12 months (Online Annex Table 2.5.3). The effect is stronger in the first month in advanced economies, but it is of similar magnitude at 3 and 6 month horizons. Unlike with sovereign spreads, fiscal and financial vulnerabilities do not appear to significantly magnify the effect of uncertainty on stock market returns.

Online Annex Table 2.5.2 Regression Results for Changes in Sovereign Spreads in AEs and EMs

Sources: FRED, Federal Reserve Bank of St. Louis; Haver Analytics; OECD, Main Economic Indicators database; ICE BoFA; LSEG Datastream; and IMF staff calculations. Note: Table shows results of quantile panel regressions of sovereign bond spread changes from time t to t+3 using country fixed effects and estimated at the 90th percentile of the distribution of the change in spreads. Specifications include interaction terms between REU and relevant country level vulnerabilities. Estimates based on the Canay estimator. The separate samples consist of unbalanced monthly data for 20 AEs and 9 EMs from 1990m1 to 2024m02. The underlying regressions include relevant controls for the sovereign bond market at the country and global levels following Gilchrist and others (2022), as well as the lagged dependent variable. Spreads are calculated relative to a benchmark economy for each country (Germany for Euro area countries and the United States for all others) and using only debt
denominated in the same c

Online Annex Table 2.5.3 Regression Results for Tail Risk to Stock Returns

Sources: Sources: FRED, Federal Reserve Bank of St. Louis; Haver Analytics; OECD, Main Economic Indicators database; LSEG Datastream; and IMF Staff Calculations Notes: Table shows results for regressions of national stock total average annualized returns at different horizons (1, 3, 6 and 12 months) relative to month t, measured at the 10th percentile of the returns distribution using panel quantile regressions with country fixed effects. Estimates based on the Canay estimator. The panel is comprised of 20 AEs and 9 EMs and the sample period ranges from 1990m1 to 2023m12, with the panel being unbalanced due to data availability across countries. The underlying monthly unbalanced panel regressions include country fixed effects, lagged returns, and relevant stock
market controls at t

B. Tail risk in bank lending

To study the impact of uncertainty measures on bank lending tail risk, the following specification is estimated: Lending $g_{i,t+h}^{(\tau)} = \beta_i^{(\tau)} + \gamma_t^{(\tau)} + \beta_l^{(\tau)}$ Lending $g_{i,t}^{(\tau)} + \beta_u^{(\tau)} U_{i,t} + \beta_v^{(\tau)} V_{i,t} + \beta_{uv}^{(\tau)} U_{i,t} V_{i,t} + \beta_z^{(\tau)} Z_{i,t} + \epsilon_{i,t+h}^{(\tau)}$, (17)

where $Lending_{i,t+h}^{(\tau)}$ denotes the τ^{th} percentile of the distribution of real credit growth in country i between quarter t and $t + h$; credit growth is defined as the average annualized real rate of growth of the stock of bank credit (to firms and households) over the considered horizon; $U_{i,t}$, $V_{i,t}$ and $U_{i,t}V_{i,t}$ denote uncertainty measures, macrofinancial vulnerabilities (described below) and uncertainty-vulnerability interaction terms, respectively; $Z_{i,t}$ includes other relevant control variables (such as real GDP growth and domestic FCI); and $\beta^{(\tau)}_l$ and $\gamma^{(\tau)}_t$ denote country-specific and time effects, respectively.

More specifically, $V_{i,t}$ denotes the credit-to-GDP gap and several banking sector fundamentals that can potentially influence credit growth dynamics, such as the deviation of regulatory capital-to-asset ratio from its country-specific trend, return on assets, non-performing loans (NPLs) ratio, and banks' government debt exposure measured as the share of domestic sovereign bond holdings in banks' total assets. ⁸ Other variables that may have an impact on aggregate credit dynamics (such as house price growth, changes in stock market index, broad money-to-GDP ratio, US Fed Funds Rate, policy rate and the slope of the yield curve for each country, bank lending rate, changes in nominal exchange rate, etc. (e.g. Magud and others 2014; Miranda-Agrippino and Rey, 2022)) are captured by the FCI and time effects.

 $U_{i,t}$ includes four measures of uncertainty: the Economic Policy Uncertainty index (EPU), the Real Economic Uncertainty index (REU), dispersion of the forecast of one-year ahead real GDP growth, and a text-based measure constructed using banks' earnings call reports. The text-based measure is constructed by first scaling the number of sentences that contain uncertainty-related words by the number of sentences in earnings calls for each bank, using the list of words provided by the Loughran-McDonald Master Dictionary (2024).⁹ At each time point, the country-level measure used in this analysis is a simple average of the above bank-specific scores. This measure of uncertainty has little correlation with the other indicators considered in this section (Online Annex Figure 2.5.1, panel 1).¹⁰ Nevertheless, it is negatively correlated with credit growth

⁸ The regulatory capital-to-asset ratio exhibits an upward trend, likely reflecting more stringent capital requirements. In this analysis, the deviation of regulatory capital-to-asset ratio from country-specific trends is used (the trend is computed using a two-sided HP filter). The credit-to-GDP gap is also calculated as the deviation of the credit-to-GDP ratio from country-specific trends (based on a two-sided HP filter).

⁹ Soto (2021) also constructs bank-level measures of uncertainty by counting the frequency of words in earnings calls, but only for US banks. It also uses a machine learning approach to construct a dictionary of words related to uncertainty.

¹⁰ The low correlation with the EPU (which is also constructed using a text-based approach by Baker and others (2016)) can partly be explained by the different lists of key words. The EPU index reflects the frequency of articles in newspapers that contain the following triple: "economic" or "economy"; "uncertain" or "uncertainty"; and one of more of "congress", "deficit", "Federal Reserve", "legislation", "regulation" or "White House".

(Online Annex Figure 2.5.1, panel 2). Putting together, these suggest that uncertainty conveyed in banks' earnings calls may reflect aspects of uncertainty that are not measured by other indicators and therefore can be an additional determinant of bank loan supply.

Equation (17) is estimated using quarterly data for a panel of 18 advanced economies and 13 emerging market economies from 2001 to 2023. The findings suggest that higher macroeconomic uncertainty is negatively associated with downside risks to future (four-quarter ahead) credit growth across the different measures of uncertainty considered (Online Annex Table 2.5.4).¹¹ Notably, when the four measures of uncertainty are considered together in the same specification (i.e., col. 5), the coefficients on forecast dispersion, real economic uncertainty and the text-based bank-level indicator are all negative and statistically significant, confirming that these measures capture different aspects of uncertainty that are all useful for forecasting tail risks to lending. 12

Sources: IMF staff calculations.
Notes: Table shows the estimated coefficients for the panel quantile regression of the 10th percentile of the distribution of country-level real credit growth on the measure of uncertainty and a number of covariates (i.e., equation (17)). Real credit growth is the average quarterly annualized growth over the next 4 quarters.

It is noteworthy that the stock of credit in this analysis measures the amount of credit extended by domestic banks to the private non-financial sector. As discussed in IMF (2024), private credit as an alternative to bank financing has been growing rapidly and now rivals other major credit markets in size. Therefore, bank credit may only capture part of the credit channel in certain markets. To address this concern, a robustness test with the Bank for International Settlements total credit data is used, which comprises of financing from all sources, including domestic banks, other domestic financial corporations, non-financial corporations, and nonresidents. The results are similar (Online Annex Figure 2.5.2), which is not surprising given the high

Thus, a narrow list of uncertainty-related words is used in the construction of EPU. In contrast, the Loughran-McDonald Master Dictionary (2024) used in this analysis contains around 300 words that convey a sense of uncertainty. The very different list of words may explain the low correlation between the text-based measure here and EPU. To explore this point, an alternative indicator is constructed using three, precise words pertaining to uncertainty ("uncertain", "uncertainty", "uncertainties"). As shown in Panel 1 of Online Appendix Figure 2.5.1, the correlation of this alternative textbased indicator with other indicators increases. However, the correlation of this indicator with real credit growth does not improve and results from the associated empirical analysis tends to underperform those using the baseline text-based indicator.

¹¹ The baseline results presented in the main text are estimated through a two-step procedure for panel quantile regressions, following Canay (2011). For all measures of uncertainty considered in this section, the results are robust to an alternative estimation method proposed by Powell (2022), which tends to generate tighter confidence intervals compared with Canay (2011). Results for three out of four measures of uncertainty (except the text-based uncertainty) are robust to another estimation method proposed by Machado and Silva (2019). Different from Power (2022), the approach of Machado and Silva (2019) tends to generate larger confidence intervals, compared with Canay (2011).

¹² The coefficients on the covariates are largely as expected. Across all specifications, there is consistent finding that tighter financial conditions, larger credit-to-GDP gap, and higher banking system NPL ratios are associated with lower future credit growth, while stronger banking system profitability and capital position are associated with higher future credit growth.

correlation between total credit and bank credit (99.6 percent). The estimations using total credit in general point to larger and more persistent effects of uncertainty on tail risks of lending.

Online Annex Figure 2.5.3 presents the estimation results for eq. (17) for the sub-samples of advanced and emerging market economies.¹³ Overall, the main findings hold, though some measures of uncertainty are more significant for certain country groups.

Online Annex Figure 2.5.3. Uncertainty and Tail Risk to Lending by AEs and EMs

2. Bank Lending and Macroeconomic Uncertainty in Emerging Market Economies (Percent)

Sources: IMF staff calculations.

Note: The charts plot the estimated impact of one standard deviation increase in uncertainty (measured by forecast dispersion, REU, EPU and the text-based indicator) on the 10th percentile of future real credit growth distribution. Real credit growth is the average quarterly annualized growth over the next 4 or 8 quarters.

¹³ While considering subsamples helps maintain some homogeneity in the characteristics of countries in each group, it comes with the cost that the results may be less precisely estimated due to a more limited sample size, especially for the EPU and text-based indicators.

Online Annex 2.6. Does the impact of macroeconomic uncertainty spill over across borders to affect downside risks to economic activity in major financial and trading partners?

To examine the cross-border spillover effects of macroeconomic uncertainty, the standard GaR model is extended to include a measure of foreign uncertainty (i.e., macroeconomic uncertainty in major trading and financial partners), along with a measure of domestic macroeconomic uncertainty and other control variables.¹ Thus, a panel quantile model is estimated as follows:

$$
y_{i,t+h}^{(\tau)} = \beta_h^{(\tau)} + \beta_{h,y}^{(\tau)} y_{i,t} + \beta_{h,FCI}^{(\tau)} FCI_{i,t} + \beta_{h,u}^{(\tau)} U_{i,t} + \beta_{h,v}^{(\tau)} Z_{i,t} + \beta_{h,o}^{(\tau)} U_{-i,t} + \epsilon_{i,t+h}^{(\tau)},
$$
(18)

where U_{-it} denotes foreign uncertainty measures computed as weighted average of uncertainty of major financial and trading partners of country *i*, with weights corresponding to the total trade (exports and imports) between country *i* and other countries, normalized by country's *i* GDP. Similar measures are constructed for the banking relationship (sum of assets and liabilities to domestic GDP) and portfolio investment between *i* and *j* (as a share of country *i*'s GDP). $Z_{i,t}$ indicates other relevant control variables, e.g., global real GDP growth, global financial conditions, a domestic financial uncertainty index (based on Ludvigson and others 2021), and a dummy variable equal to one for the GFC (and zero otherwise). The definition of the other variables in equation (18) is the same as in equation (8).

The main results of the analysis are robust to the use of: i) alternative measures of uncertainty (e.g. see results using the economic policy index in the Online Annex Figure 2.6.1); ii) alternative panel quantile estimators; iii) total credit growth as dependent variable $y_{t+h}^{(\tau)}$ in the regressions. iv) controlling for additional confounding factors (such as inflation, policy rate, unemployment, v) estimating the model on the pre-COVID period or by excluding the first three quarters of 2020.²

To assess the role of international reserves in mitigating spillover effects from foreign uncertainty, equation (18) is extended to include an indicator variable for these measures along with their interaction term with indicators of foreign macroeconomic uncertainty. The panel quantile model is then estimated as follows:

$$
y_{t+h}^{(\tau)} = \beta_h^{(\tau)} + \beta_{h,y}^{(\tau)} y_t + \beta_{h,FCI}^{(\tau)} FCl_t + \beta_{h,u}^{(\tau)} U_{i,t} + \beta_{h,z}^{(\tau)} Z_{i,t} + \beta_{h,o}^{(\tau)} U_{-i,t} + \beta_{h,b}^{(\tau)} High \text{ Buffer}_{i,t} + \beta_{h,ob}^{(\tau)} U_{-i,t} x \text{ High } Buffer_{i,t} + \epsilon_{t+h}^{(\tau)}, \quad (19)
$$

where $High$ $Buffer_{i,t}$ a dummy that takes the value one when international reserves-to-GDP is above the median, and High Buffer_t x $V_{i,t}$ represent interaction terms between foreign uncertainty and indicator variable. The coefficients of interest are $\beta_{h,o}^{(\tau)}$ and $\beta_{h,ob}^{(\tau)}$.

¹ Note also that the transmission of macroeconomic uncertainty across borders often involves carry trades (financed through the cross-border credit channel) that influence the risk of currency crashes (Brunnermeier and others 2009).

² The foreign uncertainty measures are constructed using an approach similar to that of Londono and others (2021). Additionally, further analysis was conducted to evaluate the significance of trade and financial linkages, building on the methodology described in Ahir and others (2022). In line with previous findings based on the World Uncertainty Index, the results suggest that trade and financial linkages are positively correlated with REU synchronization, defined as the negative absolute difference between domestic and foreign uncertainty. This relationship holds even after accounting for business cycle synchronization. Detailed results are available upon request from the authors.

A similar, specification is also tested substituting the High Buffer_{it} with a dummy variable that identifies flexible exchange rate regimes and a dummy that identifies countries with large external debt-to-GDP. The dummy reflecting the flexibility of exchange rate regime is based on the coarse classification by Ilzetzki and others (2021), where a value of 3 or higher (on a scale from 1 to 6) indicates more flexible exchange rate regimes. The indicator variable for external debt-to-GDP takes value one when the latter is above median. Results are presented in Online Annex Figure 2.6.2. Overall, the findings indicate that international buffers and flexible exchange rate regimes help mitigate spillover effects from foreign uncertainty, while larger external debt amplifies these effects.

percent confidence intervals.

25

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