Who Benefits from Financial Development? The Interaction of Finance and Trade*

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Abstract

We document that finance-dependent industries benefit from financial development when trade barriers are low, and not when they are high. To explain this finding, we develop an international trade model featuring cross-country financial friction heterogeneity. Production in finance-dependent sectors is supported by endogenous profit margins to prevent firms from making strategic defaults. We test this mechanism using cross-country firm-level ORBIS data. We further show that, because of profit shifting, a country may gain more (relative to the frictionless case) when trading with less financially developed economies, and a small open economy may not benefit from its own financial development.

JEL Codes: G1, F1, O16, E22.

Keywords: Financial Frictions, Profits, International Trade, Finance Dependence, Financial Development.

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1 Introduction

It is hard to overstate the importance of financial development for the macroeconomy. A large body of literature in economics and finance emphasizes the key role of financial development in economic growth, resource allocation, and technology adoption (e.g., Alfaro, Chanda, Kalemli-Ozcan and Sayek, 2004; Banerjee and Duflo, 2005; Cole, Greenwood and Sanchez, 2016; Midrigan and Xu, 2014; Rajan and Zingales, 1998). While beneficial overall, financial development would not affect all agents in the economy equally (e.g., Aghion and Bolton, 1997; Braun and Raddatz, 2008; Greenwood and Jovanovic, 1990; Townsend and Ueda, 2006).

In this paper, we show that the extent of international trade barriers is a key determinant of who benefits from financial development within an economy. Specifically, we document that financial development benefits finance-dependent sectors when trade barriers are low. In contrast, when trade barriers are sufficiently high, financial development does not benefit—and may even *harm*—these sectors. Our findings have implications for understanding the development of a country's financial sector from a political economy perspective, especially in an era of powerful *de*globalization movements. Specifically, our evidence implies that finance-dependent sectors do not benefit from and therefore would not support financial development in an environment with restricted international trade, which might pose a threat against financial development. To rationalize our empirical findings and explore aggregate implications, we develop a stylized model of international trade featuring cross-country financial friction heterogeneity.

By employing a triple-difference strategy, we first empirically document a complementarity between financial development and trade openness in finance-dependent industries' profits. As a proxy for total payoffs to capital/firm owners, we use value added net of wage bill—which equals capital rents plus (variable) economic profits—and call it *profits* in what follows.[1] We examine the profits of 27 manufacturing industries for a panel of 81 countries from 1988 to 2003, along the dimensions of country-level financial development, industry-level finance dependence, and industry-country level trade barriers.

We document that more (relative to less) finance-dependent industries generate higher profits in more financially developed economies, but only when trade barriers are low. More interestingly, we show that financial development *hurts*—or at least does not increase—the profits of finance-dependent sectors when trade barriers are high. Our empirical estimates are economically significant: under low trade barriers (i.e., the left tail of the distribution), a one standard deviation increase in financial development is associated with a 35%–75% increase in the profits of finance-dependent industries. However, at the right tail of the trade

[1] In accounting terms, this variable is called *gross* profits.

barrier distribution, the association becomes consistently negative (or at least non-positive), with point estimates around –20%. Our results, therefore, establish that the sensitivity of finance-dependent industries to financial development depends crucially on trade barriers.

Furthermore, we document that the impact of trade barriers on finance-dependent industries largely depends on the level of financial development. Specifically, we show that finance-dependent industries benefit from lower trade barriers in financially developed economies. In contrast, these industries do not benefit from—or may even be harmed by—lower trade barriers in a financially underdeveloped economy.

To demonstrate the robustness of our empirical findings, we employ a range of proxies for our main variables. Specifically, for country-level financial development, we use: (i) the share of firms reporting that finance is not a major concern, based on the World Bank Enterprise Surveys; (ii) private credit by banks and other financial institutions (% GDP), financial system deposits (% GDP), the opposite of banks' overhead costs over total assets, and the opposite of banks' net interest margin—all sourced from the World Bank Global Financial Development Database; and (iii) composite financial development indices from the International Monetary Fund (IMF), which aggregate measures of depth, efficiency, and access for both financial institutions and financial markets. To measure trade barriers, we use the opposite of "natural openness" as implied by a gravity model, tariffs at varying levels of aggregation, and the opposite of trade openness (defined as imports plus exports over GDP). For industry-level financial dependence, we use proxies such as external finance dependence, asset intangibility, and capital intensity. Additionally, we consider alternative industry outcomes as the dependent variable, including value added net of wage bill, value added net of both wage bill and capital depreciation, total value added, and sales. Across these various proxies, our results remain qualitatively—and in most cases, also quantitatively—consistent. Importantly, we find that the sensitivity of finance-dependent industries to financial development declines with international trade barriers, with this estimated sensitivity being negative (or at least non-positive) at the right tail of the trade barrier distribution in our sample.

To explain our empirical findings, we develop a stylized model of international trade that delivers tractable and closed-form results. To isolate our mechanism from competing forces, we assume all markets except the financial market are frictionless. Our model features two sectors: one is external-finance dependent, and the other is non-finance dependent. Capital is the sole factor of production, and we have time-to-build friction. In the finance-dependent sector, a continuum of varieties are produced, each with a distinct productivity. We assume national product differentiation—that is, varieties produced in a country are distinct from those in other countries. The production function features non-convexity: firms must operate above a minimum scale, which needs to be externally financed. External financing is subject to frictions.

We model financial market frictions in a forward-looking setup. A borrower may take away a fraction of firm revenue and strategically default on a loan. The fraction that could be taken away represents financial contract enforceability and determines the financing friction severity. A borrowing firm can credibly commit not to default if the firm is going to earn a high profit. Hence, firms' debt limits endogenously depend on firms' profits—determined by equilibrium forces—not just their internal resources at the time of financing the investment cost (as in a backward-looking setup with collateral constraints). In equilibrium, firms in the finance-dependent sector earn an endogenous profit *margin* (i.e., firm-level sales/cost ratio), although product markets are perfectly competitive and we impose free entry. This profit margin prevents strategic default on loans and is needed to support lending, investment, and production in the finance-dependent sector. In equilibrium, this profit margin increases with the financial friction severity.

To analyze the implications of international trade, we present a comparative advantage model of international trade in which the origin of comparative advantage is financial friction severity (Baldwin, 1989; Beck, 2002; Becker, Chen and Greenberg, 2013; Ju and Wei, 2011; Kletzer and Bardhan, 1987; Matsuyama, 2005) rather than production technology (à la Dornbusch, Fischer and Samuelson, 1977; Eaton and Kortum, 2002) or factor endowments (à la the Heckscher-Ohlin-Samuelson model).[2] In our model, countries differ in their financial friction severity; therefore, more financially developed countries have a comparative advantage in producing finance-dependent goods.[3] Through the lens of our model, when trade barriers are low, financial development benefits finance-dependent sectors, since production and profits shift to more financially developed economies with a comparative advantage in these sectors. When trade barriers are large, however, financial development decreases the total profits of finance-dependent sectors. This is because, although these industries shrink in production size, firms in finance-dependent sectors earn higher profit *margins* under more severe financial frictions, as explained above.

The key mechanism in our model that underlies our results is that production of finance-dependent varieties in the presence of financial frictions is supported by profits from production, which facilitates in-advance external financing and investment in a forward-looking setup. Our model then implies that firms in finance-dependent sectors earn higher profit margins in less financially developed economies. We empirically test this mechanism by employing a difference-in-difference identification strategy using ORBIS firm-level data for 11 European countries. Our estimate is economically significant: profit margins are 5%-23%

[2] Costinot (2009) provides a general theory of comparative advantage based on institutional quality, and Nunn and Trefler (2014) review the theoretical and empirical insights in this literature.

[3] This pattern of specialization is well documented in a large body of literature; see, for example, Manova (2013), among others. We also empirically confirm this source of comparative advantage using Comtrade bilateral trade data and proxies for country-level financial development and industry-level finance dependence that are consistent with our model.

(depending on proxies for financial development and finance dependence) larger at the 75th percentile of the finance-dependence distribution relative to the 25th percentile, in the least compared to the most financially developed country in our ORBIS sample.

The link between financial frictions and profits documented in this paper has important aggregate-level implications for the gains from international trade and the gains from financial development. In our model, trade openness influences welfare through two potentially competing forces—namely, the price channel and profit-shifting channel. On the one hand, by reducing consumers' price index, trade openness benefits consumers and raises welfare—the price channel. This channel is stronger when a country's trade partners are less financially frictional, since those trade partners are able to produce finance-dependent varieties at a lower profit margin and therefore cheaper prices. On the other hand, the economic profits earned by producers of finance-dependent goods flow out of (into) an open economy that has a comparative disadvantage (advantage) in finance-dependent sectors, which in turn reduces (raises) welfare in that country—the profit-shifting channel.[4] The overall impact of the price and profit-shifting channels depends on the relative financial friction severity of trade partners. We use our theory along with our empirical findings from ORBIS to show that the profit-shifting channel in our model is indeed a relevant force, through which the presence of financial frictions tends to increase (decrease) the gains from trade for countries that are more (less) financially developed than their trade partners.

Finally, even though financial friction is the only friction in our model, our theory shows that an open economy may lose from its own financial development (i.e., reducing its financial frictions). In a closed economy, however, welfare rises monotonically with financial development. To elaborate, financial development reduces the profit margin in the finance-dependent sector, which reduces misallocation and raises welfare in a closed economy. Note that it is indeed the consumers, not the producers of finance-dependent goods, who enjoy the welfare gains from financial development in a closed economy. In an open economy, the benefits from the fall in profit margin induced by financial development are shared between Home and Foreign consumers. The reduction in profit margin embodied in the exported goods tends to reduce Home welfare while raising Foreign welfare. We therefore analytically show that there is an optimal level of financial frictions for an open economy, and a complete elimination of financial frictions in the Home economy indeed hurts welfare as a result of the reduction in export profits. We use the estimates from our empirical findings from ORBIS together with our analytical results and show that while reducing financing frictions is wel-

[4]Note that the phrase "profit shifting" is used in two different stands of literature with two different meanings. In the international macro/finance literature, profit shifting is typically defined as the practice of business owners transferring money to so-called tax havens to avoid paying taxes. In the international trade literature, however, profit shifting refers to the case in which, as a result of comparative advantage, the profits from producing some goods or services shift from producers in one country to those in another country (e.g., Bagwell and Staiger, 2012; Ossa, 2014). In this paper, profit shifting refers to the latter definition.

fare improving in less financially developed countries, more financially developed countries in our ORBIS sample may not benefit as much from a reduction in financial frictions.

This paper contributes to several strands of literature. We contribute to a large body of the literature in economics and finance examining the effects of financial frictions on economic development and growth (Aghion, Howitt and Mayer-Foulkes, 2005; Buera, Kaboski and Shin, 2011; Itskhoki and Moll, 2019; Sui, 2020), misallocation of input resources (Bai, Lu and Tian, 2018; Banerjee and Moll, 2010; Banerjee and Duflo, 2005; Cole et al., 2016; Hsieh and Klenow, 2009; Midrigan and Xu, 2014), and economic development and inequality (Aghion and Bolton, 1997; Banerjee and Newman, 1993; Ebrahimian, 2020; Greenwood and Jovanovic, 1990; Matsuyama, 2000; Townsend and Ueda, 2006). To the best of our knowledge, the aforementioned literature in macro-finance does not emphasize the role of trade barriers in shaping the aggregate and distributional implications of financing frictions, while we show that these implications depend crucially on the extent of trade barriers.

We also contribute to the literature on the determinants of financial development at the country level. The legal system and cultural forces, private interests and politics, and demand for financing as a result of, for example, comparative advantage in finance-dependent sectors are discussed in the literature as determinants of financial development (see e.g., Beck, Demirgüç-Kunt and Levine, 2003; Braun and Raddatz, 2008; Do and Levchenko, 2007; Rajan and Zingales, 2003, among others). In particular, by studying the patterns of international trade and financial development across countries over time, Rajan and Zingales (2003) argue that international trade may affect financial development by changing the private interests of incumbents and demand for financial development. We contribute to this literature by providing direct evidence and a theoretical explanation for the fact that financial development benefits finance-dependent industries if trade barriers are low, and not when they are high. By identifying who benefits/loses from financial development, our results shed light on the potential supporters/opponents and therefore on the dynamics of financial development from a political economy perspective, especially in an era of deglobalization movements.

This paper also contributes to a large and growing body of literature that studies international trade in the presence of financial frictions (see Kohn, Leibovici and Szkup (2022) for a review). A branch of this literature explores the role of financial frictions as a source of comparative (dis)advantage and its effects on trade flows (Beck, 2002; Hur, Raj and Riyanto, 2006; Kohn, Leibovici and Szkup, 2020a; Leibovici, 2021; Manova, 2013; Svaleryd and Vlachos, 2005; Tetenyi, 2019; Wynne, 2005) as well as on capital flows (Antras and Caballero, 2009; Matsuyama, 2005). Moreover, the effects of financial frictions and access to credit on firm-level export activities have been documented in this literature (Amiti and Weinstein, 2011; Becker et al., 2013; Chaney, 2016; Esposito and Hassan, 2023; Greenaway, Guariglia and Kneller, 2007; Huynh, Petrunia, Rodrigue and Steingress, 2023; Kohn, Leibovici and

Szkup, 2016; Manova, Wei and Zhang, 2015; Matray, Müller, Xu and Kabir, 2024; Minetti and Zhu, 2011; Muûls, 2008; Paravisini, Rappoport, Schnabl and Wolfenzon, 2015). While this literature focuses on the role of financial frictions in international trade, we explore the interplay between international trade and financial frictions from a distinctly different angle: we empirically and theoretically study the role of international trade barriers in the implications of financing frictions. In particular, we show that the sensitivity of finance-dependent industries to financial development depends crucially on trade barriers.

Lastly, we contribute to a literature that studies gains from trade under financing frictions (Brooks and Dovis, 2020; Caggese and Cuñat, 2013; Kohn, Leibovici and Szkup, 2020b; Leibovici, 2021). In our paper, financial frictions lead to endogenous profits in finance-dependent sectors. Trade openness shifts these profits to more financially developed countries. By introducing this profit-shifting channel, we establish that the effects of financial frictions on a country's gains from trade depend on the financial friction severity not only of the home country but also of its trade partners. In this regard, we also contribute to the strategic trade policy and profit-shifting literature (Bagwell and Staiger, 2012; Brander, 1986; Brander and Spencer, 1985; Firooz and Heins, 2021; Krugman, 1987; Ossa, 2014; Spencer and Brander, 1983) by introducing that financial frictions activate profit shifting across less and more financially developed countries.

The rest of the paper is organized as follows. Section 2 documents our industry-level empirical facts. Section 3 develops a stylized model to rationalize these facts. Using cross-country firm-level data, Section 4 directly tests the key mechanism of the model that helps explain the empirical facts documented in Section 2. Section 5 illustrates how the key channel in this paper influences the welfare consequences of trade under financial frictions and the welfare consequences of financing frictions against trade openness. Section 6 concludes.

2 Financial Development with Trade Barriers: Empirical Evidence

This section empirically establishes a complementarity between financial development and trade openness on finance-dependent industries. We document that finance-dependent industries benefit from financial development only when trade barriers are low. Indeed, financial development harms (or at least does not benefit) finance-dependent industries when trade barriers are high. Furthermore, we show that finance-dependent industries benefit from lower trade barriers only in financially developed economies.

2.1 Data and Variables

To document our empirical facts, we employ a variety of proxies for financial development, finance dependence, and international trade barriers by relying on various data sources. We show that our results are remarkably robust to using different measures. Here, we briefly introduce the data sources and explain how we construct our variables.

We follow the literature and use several proxies for country-level financial development. First, we use the World Bank Enterprise Surveys and measure the fraction of firms in a country that report finance is not their major concern (Asiedu, Kalonda-Kanyama, Ndikumana and Nti-Addae, 2013; Beck, Demirgüç-Kunt and Maksimovic, 2008; Bento and Restuccia, 2017). Second, we rely on the World Bank Global Financial Development Database (Beck, Demirgüç-Kunt and Levine, 2000) and use these alternative proxies for financial development that reflect depth and efficiency of financial institutions: private credit by banks and other financial institutions (% GDP), financial system deposits (% GDP), (the opposite of) banks' net interest margin, and (the opposite of) banks' overhead costs over total assets. Lastly, we obtain data from the IMF, which constructs broader financial development indices that aggregate measures of depth, efficiency, and access for both financial institutions and financial markets in a country.

We construct three measures to compare finance dependence across industries. First, we measure external finance dependence as the fraction of capital expenditures of a median firm in a specific industry that is not covered by the internal cash revenue of the firm (Rajan and Zingales, 1998). Firms in more finance-dependent industries rely relatively more on external sources of funds to finance investment costs and are therefore more affected by country-level financial development. Second, we compare industries based on their asset intangibility (Braun, 2005; Manova, 2013). The idea is that industries with a higher share of intangible assets are more vulnerable to financing frictions since they cannot use intangible assets as collateral when borrowing. To raise funds for investment, they must instead pledge future cash flows in a forward-looking sense, which depends on sophisticated financial institutions. Third, we compare industries based on their capital intensity in production. One minus the share of material and labor in sales reflects capital intensity (both tangible and intangible capital, such as entrepreneurial ability and managerial efficiency) in the production technology. Given the time-to-build nature of capital, capital-intensive industries presumably rely more on financing and are therefore more affected by financial development. We use the U.S. Compustat data to construct industry-level measures of external finance dependence and asset intangibility and use the NBER-CES Manufacturing Industry Database to construct capital intensity in the production technology, all for 27 three-digit ISIC (revision 2) manufacturing sectors. As in the literature, we treat these proxies as inherent characteristics of industries that are the same across countries. To construct our proxies, we use data from

the 1980s for the U.S.—presumably a financially developed economy. We drop the U.S. from our sample to address concerns about reverse causality from industry performance to our proxies for finance dependence.

We employ three proxies for international trade barriers in our empirical setup. First, we use the opposite of "natural openness" (Do and Levchenko, 2007; Frankel and Romer, 1999) which measures country-level trade openness (trade over value added) predicted by a gravity model using geographical variables. Specifically, we use CEPII data and predict bilateral manufacturing trade (imports plus exports) divided by manufacturing value added using the distance between the two countries, whether the two countries share a border, whether the two countries share the same language, the source and destination surface area, and the source and destination populations. Second, we use trade-weighted average tariffs that a country imposes on its imports and that its trade partners impose on its exports as a proxy for trade barriers at the industry-country level. We use data on bilateral tariffs and trade volumes from WITS (World Integrated Trade Solution). As our last proxy for trade barriers, we use (the opposite of) the conventional measure of trade openness, defined as a country's total international trade in manufacturing divided by its GDP.

We obtain data on value-added, wage bill, sales, and capital formation from the United Nations Statistical Division, Industrial Statistics for manufacturing industries at the three-digit ISIC (revision 2) level for all countries in our sample. We abstract from labor in this paper and use value added minus wage bill—which equals capital rents plus (variable) economic profits—as our outcome variable. This variable proxies total payoffs to capital/firm owners, which we call *profits* in what follows. Note that, in accounting terms, this variable is called gross profits. As robustness checks, we also employ alternative measures as our industry outcome variables: value added (without subtracting wage bill), sales, and value-added net of wage bill and capital depreciation (which corresponds to profits net of capital depreciation) for part of the sample with non-missing data on capital formation.[5] We back out capital depreciation using the perpetual inventory technique and assuming a constant depreciation rate.

Our final data set includes a panel of 81 countries from 1988 to 2003.[6] More details on the data and variables are provided in appendix A. Summary statistics for baseline variables

[5]The United Nations Industrial Statistics data set primarily covers large, formal firms. For measures such as industries' total value added or profits, which are the focus of our empirical analysis in this section, large formal firms account for the majority, as documented in the literature for several developing countries. Therefore, the limited coverage of small, informal firms in the UN data set is less of a concern in this context. However, one should be cautious about using this data set in studies focused on employment or labor productivity, since a significant share of workers, especially in less-developed countries, are employed by small, informal firms (Herrendorf, Rogerson and Valentinyi, 2022).

[6]For many countries in our sample, tariffs and trade data are not available before 1988. Moreover, we restrict our sample to data before 2003, since industry classification in the United Nations Statistical Division data set changes after 2003.

are provided in table A.1.

2.2 Empirical Specification

In this section, we document the complementarity between financial development and trade openness. Specifically, we estimate the sensitivity of finance-dependent industries to financial development and show that this sensitivity varies significantly with the extent of trade barriers. To this end, we run the following triple-difference regression:

$$\log[\text{Profits}]_{ict} = \alpha\ [\text{Fin Dep}]_i * \log[\text{Fin Dev}]_{ct} + \beta\ [\text{Fin Dep}]_i * [\text{Trade Barr}]_{j(i)ct} + \gamma\ [\text{Fin Dep}]_i * \log[\text{Fin Dev}]_{ct} * [\text{Trade Barr}]_{j(i)ct} + \theta_{it} + \delta_{ct} + \epsilon_{ict}\ . \quad (1)$$

The left-hand-side variable is the log of profits (i.e., value added minus wage bill) in three-digit industry i in country c in year t. On the right-hand side, "Fin Dep" represents finance dependence, "Fin Dev" is a proxy for financial development, and "Trade Barr" is the extent of trade barriers. The subscript $j(i)$ in "Trade Barr" denotes the broader sector j in which industry i lies. In particular, when using the opposite of openness measures, j represents the entire manufacturing sector. When employing tariffs, j denotes the two-digit ISIC sector to which the three-digit industry i belongs. The terms θ_{it} and δ_{ct} are industry-year and country-year fixed effects, respectively, and ϵ_{ict} is the error term. We cluster standard errors at the industry-country level, given that data for an industry in a country across time are not necessarily independent observations.

This regression exploits within-country differences in profits across industries with different external financing needs and measures how these differences vary across countries with different levels of financial development and trade barriers. By doing so, this regression isolates from the classic endogeneity and reverse causality problems in the regression of a country-level outcome variable on financial development. To further address the reverse causality concerns, we use a five-year lag of financial development in our robustness checks. Moreover, by exploiting within-country variations across industries with different levels of finance dependence, this specification alleviates endogeneity issues that stem from the negative correlation between trade barriers and country-level economic development (which directly affect industries' profits).[7]

We use natural openness and tariffs as two proxies for trade barriers in our baseline analysis below. While natural openness is an exogenous measure, tariffs are likely endogenous, which may raise concerns about reverse causality. For instance, larger industries with higher

[7]The correlation between credit over GDP and tariffs is -0.30, and the correlation between credit over GDP and natural openness is -0.39. There are therefore some independent variations based on which we estimate our triple-difference specification—see Figure A.1.

profits in the subsample of less financially developed economies may lobby for high tariffs (which would induce a positive link from profits to tariffs), or governments may impose larger tariffs for struggling low-profit industries (which would induce a *negative* link from profits to tariffs). To alleviate these reverse causality concerns, while our left-hand-side outcome variable is at the *three-digit* industry level, we use average tariffs at the broader *two-digit* level, since narrower industries are less likely to lobby for broader industries' tariffs, and governments are less likely to target these tariffs to help narrower industries. For example, if finance-dependent industries call for higher tariffs *relative* to other industries, using average tariffs at broader levels isolates the estimates from these endogenous differences in tariffs across finer industries and, therefore, addresses this reverse causality concern. Furthermore, since some industries may still account for a significant share of two-digit sectors, we demonstrate below that our results remain robust when using average tariffs at the broadest level for the entire manufacturing sector. To further mitigate endogeneity and reverse causality concerns related to tariffs, and to limit the influence of large industries on average tariffs, we conduct additional robustness checks by using five-year lagged tariffs, unweighted average tariffs, and by excluding industries in the top sales quartile when calculating average tariffs.

Since we use various proxies for financial development, trade barriers, and finance dependence, we normalize these variables to facilitate comparison of economic magnitudes across different specifications. In particular, we normalize finance dependence proxies by subtracting the median and dividing by the interquartile range (75th minus 25th percentile). Our point estimates therefore report the effects of financial development and trade barriers on an industry at the 75th percentile of the finance-dependent distribution relative to the one at the 25th percentile. Note that, given our empirical specification, in our analysis below, we always report impacts on more finance-dependent industries (the 75th percentile) *relative to* less finance-dependent industries (the 25th percentile); however, we often omit this relative notion for the sake of conciseness. We also normalize proxies for financial development and trade barriers by subtracting the 10th percentile and dividing by the standard deviation of the respective distribution. By doing so, the difference-in-differences coefficients α and β in specification (1) respectively capture the impact of a one-standard-deviation increase in financial development and trade barriers on finance-dependent industries at the 10th percentile of the trade barrier and financial development distributions, representing the extreme cases of trade openness and financial underdevelopment.

2.3 Estimation Results

Table 1 presents the results. As a proxy for trade barriers, columns (1) and (2) employ the opposite of natural openness, whereas columns (3) and (4) use tariffs. As a proxy for financial development, columns (1) and (3) use the fraction of firms reporting that finance is not a

Table 1: The impact of financial development and trade barriers on finance-dependent industries

log(Profits)	(1)	(2)	(3)	(4)
external-finance dependence × financial development	0.4979***	0.3151***	0.2704***	0.2386***
	(0.0642)	(0.0644)	(0.0559)	(0.0435)
external-finance dependence × trade barriers	0.2622***	0.1036*	-0.0163	-0.0272
	(0.0568)	(0.0596)	(0.0505)	(0.0382)
external-finance dependence × financial development × trade barriers	-0.2110***	-0.1116***	-0.1015***	-0.1253***
	(0.0301)	(0.0357)	(0.0335)	(0.0291)
FE − Industry & Country, by Year	✓	✓	✓	✓
Observations	6083	7631	6099	7647
Clusters (country×industry)	1459	1725	1469	1735

Notes: This table presents the results of regression (1). Each observation represents a three-digit ISIC industry in a given country and year. The left-hand-side variable is the log of profits (i.e., value added minus wage bill). As a proxy for trade barriers, columns (1) and (2) employ the opposite of country-level natural openness, whereas columns (3) and (4) use trade-weighted average tariffs that a country imposes on its imports and that its trade partners impose on its exports at the two-digit ISIC level. As a proxy for country-level financial development, columns (1) and (3) use the fraction of firms reporting finance not being a major concern, whereas columns (2) and (4) use the log of private credit by banks and other financial institutions (% GDP). We employ Rajan-Zingales external-finance dependence as a proxy for industry-level finance dependence in all columns. We normalize proxies for financial development and trade barriers by subtracting the 10th percentile and dividing by the standard deviation of the respective distribution. We also normalize the external-finance dependence measure by subtracting the median and dividing by the interquartile range of the distribution. For further details on variable construction, see Section 2.1 and Appendix A. Standard errors are clustered at the industry-country level and are reported in parentheses. $^{***}p < 0.01$ $^{**}p < 0.05$ $^{*}p < 0.1$

major concern, whereas columns (2) and (4) use the log of private credit by banks and other financial institutions (% GDP). We employ Rajan-Zingales external-finance dependence as a proxy for industry-level financial dependence in all columns.[8] Section 2.4 examines the robustness of our results by using alternative proxies for trade barriers, financial development, and finance dependence.

[8]Notice that the number of clusters varies across columns in Table 1 because different proxies for financial development and trade barriers have different country coverage. For example, the financial development proxy in columns (2) and (4) covers more countries than the one used in columns (1) and (3). Furthermore, the total number of clusters is smaller than 81×27 (the product of 81 countries and 27 industries) primarily because some country-industry pairs have missing profit data in all years—not because of negative profits. In fact, only 4% of our constructed profit measures are negative and dropped from the regressions.

The positive coefficient in the first row of Table 1 indicates that when trade barriers are low (i.e., at the 10th percentile of the distribution), finance-dependent industries generate 0.24 to 0.50 log points more in profits in countries with a one standard deviation higher financial development. This result supports the widely accepted view in the literature that finance-dependent industries benefit from financial development (Rajan and Zingales, 1998).

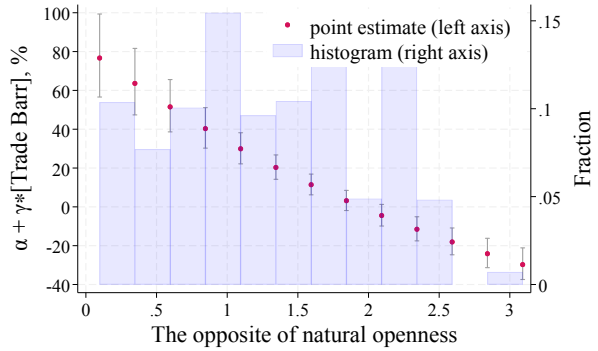
The negative triple-interaction term in the third row of Table 1 shows that finance-dependent industries benefit more from financial development when trade barriers are lower. In particular, this coefficient indicates that one standard deviation increase in trade barriers reduces the impacts of financial development on finance-dependent industries' profits by about 0.10-0.21 log points, depending on the specification. For future reference, we summarize these results below.

Fact 1: *Finance-dependent industries benefit from financial development when trade barriers are low enough. Moreover, finance-dependent industries benefit more from financial development when trade barriers are lower.*

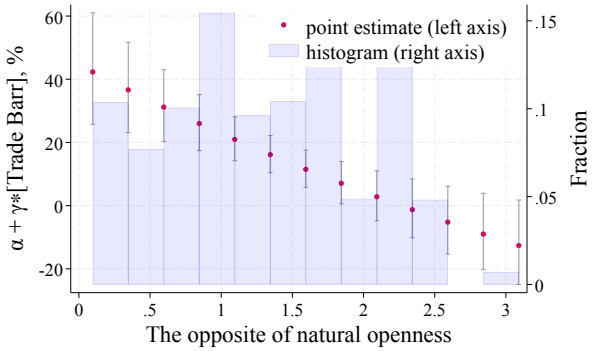
Overall, the expression $\alpha+\gamma\cdot[\text{Trade Barr}]_{j(i)ct}$ captures the effect of financial development on the profits of finance-dependent industries across different levels of trade barriers. Figure 1 visualizes this relationship by plotting the expression against observed trade barrier levels in the distribution, using estimates from Table 1 with various proxies for trade barriers and financial development. The dots illustrate the percentage increase in profits of finance-dependent industries with a one standard deviation increase in financial development at different levels of trade barriers, accompanied by 90% confidence intervals (on the left y-axis). The bars represent the distribution of trade barriers in our sample (on the right y-axis).

These plots point to the complementarity between trade openness and financial development on finance-dependent industries. To elaborate, Figure 1 shows that under low trade barriers (i.e., the left tail of the distribution), a one standard deviation increase in financial development is associated with a 35%–75% increase in the profits of finance-dependent industries. Interestingly, however, when trade barriers are high (i.e., the right tail of the distribution), the association becomes consistently negative (or at least non-positive), with point estimates around –20%. Our results, therefore, establish the fact that the sensitivity of finance-dependent industries' profits to financial development depends crucially on trade barriers. In particular, our results indicate that financial development benefits finance-dependent industries (in terms of profits), but only under low trade barriers. With high trade barriers, financial development indeed *harms*—or at least does not benefit—finance-dependent industries. We summarize this result below.

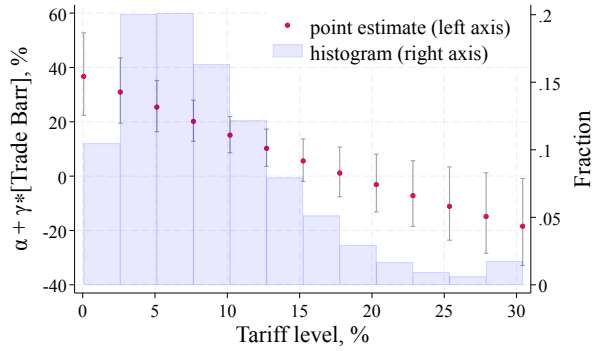
Figure 1: The impact of financial development on finance-dependent industries at different levels of trade barriers



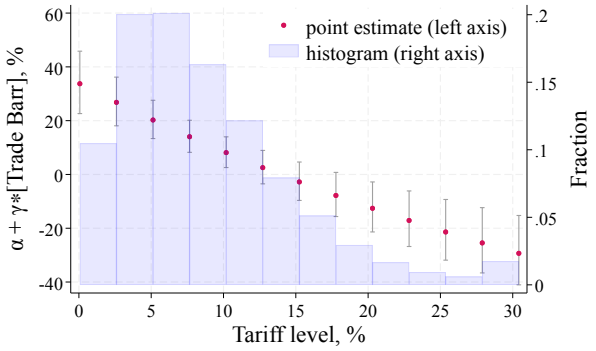
(a) finance not a concern; (minus) natural openness



(b) credit over GDP; (minus) natural openness



(c) finance not a concern; tariffs



(d) credit over GDP; tariffs

Notes: This figure illustrates the impact of financial development on the profits of finance-dependent industries at different levels of trade barriers. Specifically, we plot the estimated term $\alpha + \gamma * [\text{Trade Barr}]$ from regression (1) across different levels of trade barriers, using the estimates reported in Table 1: From left to right, the top two panels correspond to columns (1) and (2) of Table 1, while the bottom two panels correspond to columns (3) and (4), respectively. The dots represent the percentage increase in the profits of finance-dependent industries resulting from a one standard deviation increase in financial development at different levels of trade barriers, accompanied by 90% confidence intervals (on the left y-axis). The bars depict the distribution of trade barriers (on the right y-axis).

Fact 2: *Financial development harms—or at least does not benefit—finance-dependent industries under high trade barriers.*

These empirical results have implications for understanding the development of a country's financial sector from a political economy perspective. By identifying which sectors benefit/lose from financial development, our results shed light on the potential supporters/opponents and, therefore, on the dynamics of financial development, especially in an era of deglobalization movements. Specifically, our evidence suggests that in an environment with restricted international trade, finance-dependent sectors do not benefit from—and

therefore would not support—financial development, potentially posing a threat to its advancement.

Lastly, Table 1 also highlights that the impact of trade barriers on finance-dependent industries largely depends on the level of financial development. To elaborate, the second row of this table shows that finance-dependent industries do not benefit from—or may even be harmed by—lower trade barriers in a financially underdeveloped economy (i.e., at the 10th percentile of the distribution). Combined with the negative triple-interaction term in the last row, this result indicates that finance-dependent industries benefit from lower trade barriers only in financially developed economies. We summarize this result below.

Fact 3: *Finance-dependent industries benefit from lower trade barriers only in financially developed economies.*

2.4 Robustness Checks

Our empirical findings remain robust to various modifications in the empirical specification and the proxies we use. Below, we outline these robustness checks.

Trade barriers. As previously discussed, to address concerns about endogeneity and reverse causality when using tariffs, we employ alternative approaches to construct average tariffs at broader industry levels. Panel (a) of Table E.1 presents the results. Column (1) replicates the baseline results using trade-weighted average tariffs at the two-digit industry level for comparison. Column (2) instead calculates trade-weighted average tariffs at the entire manufacturing sector. Column (3) replaces contemporaneous tariffs in column (1) with their five-year lagged values, which significantly reduces the number of observations. Column (4) employs *unweighted* average tariffs across all industries in the manufacturing sector. Unlike in columns (1) and (2), average tariffs in this specification are not weighted by trade volumes. This approach helps isolate potential influences from larger three-digit industries on the overall manufacturing sector's average tariffs. To further limit the impact of large industries, column (5) excludes from the sample the three-digit industries in the top sales quartile. Overall, the results indicate that our main triple-difference estimates in the last row fall within the quantitative range of those in the baseline model.

Additionally, while we constructed natural openness and average tariffs using both imports and exports, we conduct an additional robustness check by calculating these measures using imports only. Columns (2) and (4) in panel (b) of Table E.1 present the results for natural openness and tariffs, respectively, while columns (1) and (3) replicate our baseline results for comparison. Finally, we use a conventional measure of trade openness to construct an alternative proxy for trade barriers: the opposite of a country's manufacturing imports, as well as imports plus exports, divided by GDP. The last two columns in panel (b)

of Table E.1 report the results. Overall, our main triple-difference estimates in the last row remain qualitatively similar and quantitatively close to those in our baseline specifications.

Alternative proxies for country-level financial development. Table E.2 presents several robustness checks for our proxies of financial development. The first column of panel (a) replicates our baseline results using private credit divided by GDP as the proxy for financial development. Column (2) of this panel uses a five-year lag of private credit divided by GDP, instead of contemporaneous figures, to further mitigate endogeneity and reverse causality concerns. The last three columns in panel (a) employ alternative proxies that capture the depth and efficiency of financial institutions. Specifically, column (3) uses financial system deposits (% of GDP), column (4) employs the opposite of banks' net interest margin, and column (5) uses the opposite of banks' overhead costs relative to total assets. Lastly, panel (b) utilizes the IMF's broad proxies for the development of financial institutions and financial markets, which aggregate measures of depth, efficiency, and access. In particular, we use the financial development index, the financial institutions development index, and the financial markets development index. Overall, the results remain robust and consistent across all specifications, with point estimates staying reasonably close to our baseline results.

Alternative proxies for industry-level finance dependence. In our baseline specifications, we use Rajan and Zingales (1998)'s external-finance dependence measure as a proxy for industry-level finance dependence. As a robustness check, we also employ asset intangibility (Braun, 2005; Manova, 2013) and capital intensity as alternative proxies for finance dependence, as defined in Section 2.1. Table E.3 presents the results, with the first column replicating our baseline result using external finance dependence. As shown in this table, our results remain robust across alternative measures of finance dependence.

Measuring the industry outcome. As the left-hand-side variable in our baseline regressions, we use value added net of the wage bill to proxy for total payoffs to capital/firm owners, commonly referred to as gross profits in accounting terms. As a robustness check, we further subtract capital depreciation from our constructed profits, yielding *net* profits. To estimate capital depreciation, we use data on capital formation to calculate capital stock via the perpetual inventory method, assuming a depreciation rate of 5%. Column (2) of Table E.4 demonstrates that our results remain robust and quantitatively similar to the baseline results replicated in column (1), despite a significant reduction in sample size due to frequent missing data on capital formation. Note that, in all regressions, we apply a logarithmic transformation to the left-hand-side variable, which automatically removes observations with negative values. As an additional robustness check, we employ a Tobit model that includes observations with negative profits net of depreciation. Column (3) of Table E.4 presents these results. Moreover, our empirical findings are robust to alternative

specifications in which we use value added (without subtracting the wage bill) or sales as the industry outcome on the left-hand side. These results are reported in columns (4) and (5) of Table E.4, respectively.

Measurement errors. A potential concern is that measurement errors in the United Nations Industrial Statistics dataset may be more pronounced in countries with high trade barriers and/or lower levels of financial development. These countries typically have smaller manufacturing sectors, and their data on value added and wage bills may be more susceptible to measurement and reporting errors. Such errors could reduce our statistical power, compromise estimation precision, and potentially bias our estimates. To mitigate this concern, we conduct Monte Carlo simulations. Specifically, we use the mean squared error of the residuals from the main regression within the subsample of countries that are either less financially developed (below the median of financial development) and/or have high trade barriers (above the median of trade barriers) to estimate the potential noise in the left-hand-side variable—industry-level profits. Our simulation results indicate that this potential noise has a negligible effect on both the point estimates and the standard errors of the difference-in-differences and triple-differences coefficients. This holds true whether the measurement error is confined to less financially developed, high-trade-barrier countries, or affects all countries with high trade barriers. The robustness of our results to these potential measurement errors is attributable to our large sample size and the fact that the noise affects only the dependent variable in our regressions.

Moreover, another potential concern is that accounting practices may vary across countries in the United Nations Industrial Statistics dataset (Herrendorf et al., 2022), potentially biasing our estimates. However, our identification strategy in the triple-difference specification relies on within-country variations across industries. Therefore, as long as accounting standards differ across countries but remain consistent across industries within each country, they should not bias our estimates. These cross-country differences in accounting practices are absorbed by the country-time fixed effects.

3 The Model

3.1 Overview

The previous section documented a complementarity between financial development and international trade. We showed that financial development benefits finance-dependent industries if trade barriers are low, and not when they are high. This fact is puzzling because, as widely discussed in the literature, financing frictions result in a misallocation of capital and adversely affect finance-dependent sectors in terms of their production scale (e.g.,

Banerjee and Duflo, 2005). Hence, one expects that, *regardless* of trade barriers, relaxing financial frictions (i.e., financial development) helps finance-dependent industries to scale up and generate more, not less, profits (compared to industries that are less finance dependent).

To rationalize our empirical facts, this section develops a stylized model of international trade with cross-country heterogeneity in financial frictions. We first analyze a closed economy and then introduce international trade. In the model, more financially developed economies have a comparative advantage in finance-dependent industries. When trade barriers are low, financial development is crucial for finance-dependent industries to be able to gain market share in the global economy. More interestingly, in addition to the comparative advantage force which is standard in the literature, our model can rationalize why financial development *reduces*–or at least does not increase—profits in finance-dependent sectors when trade barriers are large. In equilibrium, because of financing frictions, there emerges an endogenous profit *margin* (profits per size) which prevents strategic defaults and supports production. When trade barriers are large, finance-dependent industries benefit (in terms of total profits) from financial *under*development since they earn higher profit margins without losing market shares to foreign competitors. We directly test this mechanism on profit margins using ORBIS firm-level data in Section 4.

3.2 The Environment

There are two sectors in the economy: a traditional, non-finance-dependent sector (n) and a modern, finance-dependent sector (f). Sector n produces a homogeneous final good, and sector f produces a continuum of varieties indexed by A with the cumulative distribution function $F : [\underline{A}, \overline{A}] \to [0, 1]$. In both sectors, capital k is the sole factor of production, which fully depreciates. There is a unit mass of agents, each endowed with $e > 0$ units of capital. We assume the technology of producing all goods (in both sectors) is common to all individuals in the economy and product markets are perfectly competitive. We therefore assume free entry in producing all goods in the economy.

The non-finance-dependent good, which is the model numeraire, is produced using the following constant returns to scale (CRS) technology:

$$y_n(k) = A_n k \ , \tag{2}$$

where A_n is the productivity in sector n.

The technology of producing variety A in the finance-dependent sector is

$$y_f(k; A) = \begin{cases} 0 & k < I \\ Ak & k \geq I \end{cases} \ , \tag{3}$$

where I is the minimum scale of operation for all varieties in this sector, and A is the productivity of producing this variety.[9] This minimum scale of operation implies that to produce a variety in the modern, finance-dependent sector, firms need to be larger than a certain size, which is arguably a reasonable assumption and is in line with a large body of literature (e.g., Midrigan and Xu, 2014).[10]

There is time-to-build friction in the finance-dependent sector. We assume $e < I$; therefore, to operate in this sector, producers need to rely on external financing (i.e., they need to borrow capital from consumers).

We assume that there are two subperiods. In the first subperiod, individuals lend capital to producers in sector f. In the second subperiod, production takes place and returns on loans are paid to lenders. Everyone enjoys utility from consuming goods at the end of subperiod 2.

The representative consumer has a Cobb-Douglas utility function over the two final goods:

$$U = C_n^{\theta} C_f^{1-\theta} \ , \tag{4}$$

where C_n is the consumption of good n, and C_f is the composite finance-dependent good, which is a CES aggregate over consumption of sector f varieties:

$$C_f = \left[\int_A C(A)^{\frac{\sigma-1}{\sigma}} dF(A) \right]^{\frac{\sigma}{\sigma-1}} \ , \tag{5}$$

with $\sigma > 1$ being the elasticity of substitution between varieties.

3.3 Financing Frictions

The financial market is imperfect. We model financing frictions in the form of strategic default: a borrowing firm may default on the loan and liquidate the firm, in which case it earns a fraction $1 - \eta$ of the firm revenue. Lenders receive nothing in the event of a default.[11] The parameter $\eta \in [0, 1]$ measures the severity of financial frictions, where higher η represents less severe financial frictions, or a higher level of financial development. The case with $\eta = 1$ represents a frictionless economy with a perfect credit market.

[9] The model easily extends to the one with multiple finance-dependent sectors with different I. To show the main idea in the simplest setup, however, here we present a model with only one finance-dependent sector.

[10] Nonconvexity and investment lumpiness in frameworks with a minimum scale of operation are standard features in corporate finance (e.g., Holmstrom and Tirole, 1997; Tirole, 2010), macro-development (e.g., Aghion and Bolton, 1997; Banerjee and Newman, 1993), and investment literature (e.g., Thomas, 2002; Winberry, 2021). In the language of Thomas (2002), "The lumpiness of investment activity at the plant level is a well-established fact."

[11] Strategic default is socially inefficient since the fraction η of the firm revenue is lost upon default.

The borrowing/lending contracts in equilibrium feature no default, since there is no uncertainty in our model and lenders would receive zero payoff upon a borrower's default. To produce a finance-dependent variety at scale $k \geq I$, an individual needs to borrow $k - e$ units of capital in the financial market. Hence, the following no-default condition holds in equilibrium for producing variety A at scale $k(A)$:

$$(1-\eta)\ p(A)\ A\ k(A)\ \leq\ p(A)\ A\ k(A) - R\ (k(A) - e)\ , \tag{6}$$

where $p(A)$ is the equilibrium price of variety A in sector f, and R is the equilibrium gross return rate on loans. The no-default condition states that the individual's payoff from defaulting on the loan (the LHS) needs to be less than what she would earn if she repays the loan (the RHS).

Define $\gamma(A)$ as the profit margin (i.e., sales over total costs) of variety A produced in sector f:

$$\gamma(A) := \frac{p(A)Ak(A)}{Rk(A)} = \frac{p(A)A}{R}\ . \tag{7}$$

The profit margin $\gamma(A)$ is an equilibrium object, as is the price $p(A)$. Given $\gamma(A)$, we can rewrite the no-default condition (6) as

$$(1 - \eta\gamma(A))k(A) \leq e\ . \tag{8}$$

If $\eta\gamma(A) \geq 1$, the inequality (8) would always hold, no matter what the size of operation $k(A)$ is. In this case, there would be no limit on borrowing. This is the case either if η is large enough, in which case the payoff to default is low, or if the profit margin $\gamma(A)$ is large enough, since it would eliminate the incentives to default (even if the payoff to default is positive $\eta > 0$). In these cases, borrowers may raise funds with no financing constraint. Notice that in a frictionless economy (i.e., $\eta = 1$), $\eta\gamma(A) \geq 1$ always holds.[12]

If $\eta\gamma(A) < 1$, the no-default condition (8) would imply that the scale of operation for variety A cannot exceed the threshold $k_c(A)$:

$$\eta\gamma(A) < 1\ \Rightarrow\ k(A) \leq k_c(A) := \frac{e}{1 - \eta\gamma(A)}\ . \tag{9}$$

The scale threshold $k_c(A)$ depends on three variables. First, the higher the endowment e, the higher the amount of capital that can be borrowed. Second, the scale threshold is increasing in η. As η rises, the payoff to default falls, and therefore more capital can be raised via external financing. Finally, the most consequential determinant of the borrowing limit and

[12]Note that $\gamma(A) \geq 1$ in equilibrium, because otherwise producing variety A would deliver a negative profit and therefore this variety would not be produced.

$k_c(A)$ in our setup is the profit margin $\gamma(A)$. As the profit margin $\gamma(A)$ rises, production of the finance-dependent variety A becomes more profitable, and the loss from defaulting on the loan goes up, which lowers the incentive to default. As a result, the borrower may credibly commit not to default if the firm's end-of-period profit—determined by the equilibrium profit margin $\gamma(A)$—is high. Therefore, the borrower may raise more funds from outside investors in advance, thereby increasing the debt limit and the scale of operation. Note that the borrowing constraint in our setup is endogenous and represents a *forward-looking* financing friction (Albuquerque and Hopenhayn, 2004; Brooks and Dovis, 2020); that is, a borrower takes into account the end-of-period revenue of the firm in her decision on whether or not to default on a loan.[13] Section 3.8 analyzes the implications of an alternative model with collateral constraints and discusses the robustness of our results.

3.4 Firms in the Finance-Dependent Sector

A firm with productivity A in the finance-dependent sector solves the following profit maximization problem:

$$k^* = \arg\max_k \quad p(A)Ak - Rk$$
$$\text{s.t.} \quad k \geq I \ , \quad k \leq k_c(A) = \frac{e}{1 - \eta\gamma(A)}.$$

If $\gamma(A) < 1$, producing the variety A is not profitable, hence $k^* = 0$ (regardless of financing friction severity η). Otherwise, the firm optimally chooses $k^* = k_c(A)$ as long as the size limit $k_c(A)$ implied by financing frictions exceeds the minimum scale of operation I. As we show below, these two constraints—debt limit and minimum scale of operation—determine the profit margin $\gamma(A)$ in equilibrium.

3.5 Equilibrium Profit Margin

In equilibrium, consumers and firms optimize, and markets for good n, sector f varieties, and capital clear. Given the Cobb-Douglas utility function (4), both sectors produce in equilibrium. Hence, the gross return rate R in equilibrium is equal to the sector n productivity: $R = A_n$. This is the case because the production in sector n features constant returns to scale and is common to all individuals, so it generates zero profits in equilibrium.[14]

[13] Despite our model being static, it still features a forward-looking financing constraint, as it has two subperiods: fundraising and investment in the first subperiod, followed by production and loan repayment at the end of the second subperiod.

[14] We abstract from the effects of financial frictions on R, which would emerge in a setup with diminishing marginal product of capital (e.g., Antras and Caballero, 2009).

To derive the equilibrium profit margin of variety A in sector f, $\gamma(A)$, we first characterize the supply function of variety A. As appendix B.1 shows, this supply function can be written as

$$Y(A;\gamma(A)) = \begin{cases} 0 & \gamma(A) < \gamma_c \\ 0 \leq . \leq \frac{Ae}{1-\eta\gamma_c} & \gamma(A) = \gamma_c \\ \frac{Ae}{1-\eta\gamma(A)} & \gamma_c < \gamma(A) < \eta^{-1} \\ +\infty & \gamma(A) \geq \eta^{-1} \end{cases} \tag{10}$$

where the profit margin threshold γ_c is defined as

$$\gamma_c := \max\{1, (1-e/I)\eta^{-1}\} \ . \tag{11}$$

For the production of variety A to be feasible, $k_c(A)$ needs to be greater than I, which implies that the profit margin $\gamma(A)$ must be (weakly) greater than $(1-e/I)\eta^{-1}$. This means that in an environment with low internal resources e relative to the minimum operation size I in sector f, or in an economy with severe financing frictions (i.e., low η), the production of a finance-dependent variety is supported by a high profit margin $\gamma(A)$ (and therefore, a high price $p(A)$). Moreover, $\gamma(A) \geq 1$ also needs to hold to have a non-negative profit from producing this variety. Given the supply function (10), appendix B.2 shows that all varieties in sector f share the same profit margin in equilibrium:

$$\forall A: \quad \gamma(A) = \gamma_c = \max\{1, (1-e/I)\eta^{-1}\} \ . \tag{12}$$

The intuition behind this result is that since the production technology of each variety is common to all individuals, each variety is produced at the lowest feasible profit margin (and price). As a result, producers operate at the minimum scale I in equilibrium.[15] The total quantity of a variety A in equilibrium is therefore determined by the extensive margin—the measure of firms—and is solved in equilibrium via the demand curve. If, for example, η falls and therefore γ_c rises, the demand for a variety A falls, as does total output and capital employed by producers of this variety. As a result, the *measure* of firms falls, while each firm operates at the same scale $k = I$, which is invariant to the degree of financing friction severity. This implication of our model that financial frictions influence the extensive margin (measure of firms) only, not the intensive margin (size per firm), is largely in line with the literature. For example, Midrigan and Xu (2014) show that the effect of financial frictions on misallocation and productivity is mainly through the extensive margin. Moreover, Rajan and Zingales (1998) show that financial development affects economic growth mostly through the growth of the number of firms (extensive margin) rather than the growth of typical

[15] In case the financial constraint is not binding (i.e., $\gamma_c = 1$), firms' size would be indeterminate.

establishments (intensive margin). In line with this evidence, our model therefore abstracts from the dynamic effects of financial frictions on within-firm capital accumulation and focuses on the extensive margin in a static setup.

As equation (12) shows, the profit margin for a variety in the finance-dependent sector f, γ_c, rises as either the financing friction gets more severe (η falls) or external-finance dependence rises (i.e., higher $1 - e/I$). To elaborate, as finance dependence rises, a higher profit margin is needed to raise enough external funds to support sector f production, as long as η is not large; if η is "large enough," the financial constraint would not bind, which in turn would eliminate the profit margin. This pattern is the key mechanism underlying our results and a testable implication of the model.

Model's Implication 1 (Profit margin in finance-dependent sectors)**.** Firms in finance-dependent industries earn higher profit margins in less financially developed economies.

We directly test this prediction of the model in Section 4 using ORBIS firm-level data. We highlight that this pattern of profit margin against finance dependence and financial development does not reflect variations in productivity. To elaborate, if, for example, finance-dependent industries are less productive in less financially developed economies and therefore have higher relative prices (as in, for example, Buera et al., 2011), their output would also be less in such countries. Hence, the profit margin—defined as sales over cost (see equation (7))—would be determined solely by the extent of industry-level finance dependence (e/I) as well as country-level financial development (η), irrespective of productivity.

Lastly, we note that a positive profit margin is indeed a standard result of many models with financing frictions since the shadow cost of financial constraints creates a wedge between the marginal product of capital and the rental rate of capital (see, for example, Buera et al., 2011; Midrigan and Xu, 2014). This wedge shows up in the sales-costs margin. This mechanism is at the center of focus in our theoretical analysis, as the key channel that explains the patterns of sectoral profits documented in Section 2. As we explain in the following section, for profits of sector f relative to sector n to increase with frictions—while relative sectoral capital decreases due to misallocation—the variation in profit margins must dominate the variation in scale.

3.6 Closed Economy

Consumption. Maximizing individuals' utility function (4) yields the following first-order conditions:

$$C_n = \theta Y \ , \ C_f = (1-\theta)Y/P_f \ , \tag{13}$$

where $Y = P_f C_f + C_n$ is the aggregate income of the economy, and P_f is the aggregate price index of the composite finance-dependent good:

$$P_f^{1-\sigma} = \int_A p(A)^{1-\sigma} dF(A) \ . \tag{14}$$

Using that $R = A_n$ in equilibrium along with the equilibrium profit margin in equation (12), we obtain

$$P_f = \gamma_c A_n / A_f \ , \tag{15}$$

where A_f is defined as the aggregate productivity of sector f:

$$A_f := \left[\int_A A^{\sigma-1} dF(A) \right]^{1/(\sigma-1)} \ . \tag{16}$$

The price index P_f is increasing in γ_c—hence, it is weakly decreasing with η. Financial development reduces the price of finance-dependent varieties, which (everything else constant) benefits consumers.

Capital and income. In equilibrium, the demand for capital equals the supply of capital:

$$K_n + K_f = e \ , \tag{17}$$

where K_n is the demand for capital in sector n, and K_f is the demand for capital in sector f—the sum of capital employed in producing all finance-dependent varieties. The total supply of capital equals e, since there is a unit mass of individuals in the economy, each endowed with e units of capital.

From the market clearing for the non-finance-dependent good and finance-dependent varieties, and also the demand for capital in each sector, we find that

$$K_n = Y_n / A_n = \theta Y / A_n \ , \tag{18}$$

where Y_n is the production in sector n, and that

$$K_f = Y_f / A_f = \frac{(1-\theta) Y}{\gamma_c A_n} \ . \tag{19}$$

where Y_f is sector f production (see derivations in appendix B.3).

Substituting for K_n and K_f from equations (18)-(19) in (17) yields the aggregate income of the economy:

$$Y = \frac{\gamma_c A_n \ e}{\theta \gamma_c + 1 - \theta} \ . \tag{20}$$

The aggregate income in the economy is *increasing* in γ_c and is therefore (weakly) decreasing in η. This is because profits in the finance-dependent sector rise with γ_c.

From equations (18) to (20) we observe that in equilibrium, K_f is decreasing in γ_c and so is weakly increasing in η, whereas the opposite is true for K_n. As η rises, the finance-dependent sector can raise more external funds, and therefore K_f rises at the expense of K_n.[16] Relaxing financing frictions would reduce the misallocation of input resources and results in a flow of capital from the non-finance-dependent sector n to the finance-dependent sector f, which in turn raises production in sector f relative to sector n (as in, for example, Banerjee and Duflo, 2005; Midrigan and Xu, 2014). While sector f production relative to sector n increases with η, we show below that the relative profit in these two sectors moves in the opposite direction due to the endogenous changes in the profit margin γ_c.

Profits. Since capital fully depreciates in our model (as in Aghion and Bolton, 1997; Banerjee and Newman, 1993; Holmstrom and Tirole, 1997, for example), the appropriate measure of total payoffs to capital/firm owners is sales net of depreciation (i.e., net capital rents plus economic profits).[17] Profits in sector n and f can therefore be written as

$$\Pi_n = \frac{\theta\gamma_c(A_n - 1)e}{\theta\gamma_c + 1 - \theta}\ , \tag{21}$$

$$\Pi_f = \frac{(1-\theta)(\gamma_c A_n - 1)e}{\theta\gamma_c + 1 - \theta}\ . \tag{22}$$

As financial friction severity falls (i.e., η rises), capital moves out of sector n to sector f, which in turn reduces the scale of production as well as profits of sector n.[18] This shift in capital increases the scale of operation in sector f, but at the same time reduces the economic profits of this sector, since the profit margin γ_c in sector f falls as η rises. This is the case because in a financially underdeveloped economy, production in the finance-dependent sector is supported by a high profit margin γ_c (to eliminate the incentive to default on loans), which in turn generates high economic profits in sector f. Overall, while capital moves to the finance-dependent sector, equations (21) and (22) show that Π_f/Π_n falls with η in a closed economy. In other words, financial development *harms* the profits of the

[16] Note that total borrowing (or lending) in equilibrium equals $B = (1 - e/I)K_f = (1 - \frac{e}{I})\frac{(1-\theta)e}{\theta\gamma_c+1-\theta}$, since the fraction $(1 - e/I)$ of total capital employed in sector f is externally financed. Total credit over GDP is therefore given by $B/Y = \frac{1-\theta}{A_n}\eta$, which is directly linked to η. This link rationalizes why we used the log of total credit over GDP as one of the main financial development proxies in our empirical specifications.

[17] Since our model abstracts from labor and material, this variable corresponds to the notion of profits (i.e., value added net of wage bill) in our empirical setup. As discussed in Section 2, we do not subtract capital depreciation from profits in our baseline empirical specification due to frequent missing data on capital formation. However, as shown in the robustness checks in Section 2, accounting for depreciation does not significantly alter our empirical results, although the missing data reduces the sample size by more than 60%.

[18] Note that the Π_n equals net capital rents, which is linear in the size of production.

finance-dependent sector (relative to the non-finance-dependent sector).[19] This implication of the model rationalizes the empirical fact 2 in Section 2 regarding the effects of financial development on finance-dependent sectors when trade barriers are large. We summarize this result below.

Model's Implication 2 (Profits, closed economy)**.** Profits in sector f relative to sector n, Π_f/Π_n, are decreasing in η in a closed economy; that is, financial development hurts the finance-dependent sector (relative to the non-finance-dependent sector) in a closed economy. *Proof.* Divide equation (22) by (21), and the result immediately follows.

Two points are worth mentioning here. First, the result that Π_f/Π_n declines with η, even though capital moves toward the finance-dependent sector, depends on the elasticity of substitution between the two sectors. In our model, this elasticity is equal to one, as the utility function is Cobb-Douglas. Appendix C.3 demonstrates that our findings regarding relative sectoral profits are robust to adopting a CES utility function, as long as the elasticity of substitution between sectors f and n is not too large. Generally, the smaller the cross-sector elasticity of substitution, the stronger our result. This is because with low substitutability, consumers cannot easily shift consumption from sector f to sector n when prices in sector f rise. Second, in line with our empirical evidence, the model's implication above is about profits in sector f *relative* to those in sector n. While we abstract from the effects of financial development on the total capital stock in the economy, which would affect the level of profits in both sectors, this simplification would not change our result about the *relative* profits in these sectors.

Sales. While a reduction in financial friction severity reallocates capital from sector n to sector f, the resulting decline in the profit margin and price of sector f fully offsets the scale effect, keeping the relative sales ratio, $P_f Y_f/Y_n$, unchanged with respect to η. This invariance result stems from the assumption of a Cobb-Douglas utility function. Appendix C.3 extends the model using a CES utility function, demonstrating that the relative sales of sector f to sector n increase with financial friction severity, provided that the elasticity of substitution between sectors f and n is less than one. Thus, the model's predicted behavior of relative sales aligns with the empirical findings in Section 2, which indicate that under high trade barriers, financial development does not benefit finance-dependent sectors relative to non-finance-dependent sectors.

Welfare. The representative consumer's welfare in our model is $U = \frac{Y}{P_f^{1-\theta}}$, which can be simplified to

$$U = \Gamma e A_f^{1-\theta} A_n^{\theta} \ , \tag{23}$$

[19] Relaxing frictions reduces sector f profits in *absolute* terms as well.

where

$$\Gamma := \frac{{\gamma_c}^{\theta}}{\theta\gamma_c + 1 - \theta} \ . \tag{24}$$

Here, Γ is decreasing in the equilibrium profit margin γ_c. Therefore, welfare is increasing in η and is decreasing in the external-finance dependence $1 - e/I$. The utility share θ controls the sensitivity of welfare to η and $1-e/I$. As the financing friction gets less severe, the sector f profit margin γ_c falls and its production rises, which in turn increases welfare.[20] While the absence of financial frictions (i.e., $\gamma_c = 1$) is optimal in a closed economy—yielding the highest welfare—Section 5 will show that this is not necessarily the case in an open economy.

While finance-dependent producers benefit from financial *under*development in a closed economy, the representative consumer of such an economy bears the welfare cost of financing frictions by paying a higher price for finance-dependent goods. In other words, financial frictions make the finance-dependent producers better off at the expense of all consumers.

3.7 International Trade

The world consists of M countries. As in Antras and Caballero (2009), countries are heterogeneous in terms of their financial friction severity (i.e., each country has a distinct $\eta \in \{\eta_i\}_{i=1}^{M}$). Other than heterogeneity in financing frictions, countries are homogeneous. This means that individuals in all countries share the same endowment e and have access to the same production technologies (2)-(3) with the same productivity distribution $F(\cdot)$.

Preferences in country i are represented by

$$U^i = {C_n^i}^{\theta} {C_f^i}^{1-\theta} \ , \tag{25}$$

where C_n^i and C_f^i are country i's consumption of non-finance-dependent and finance-dependent goods, respectively. We assume national product differentiation—that is, varieties produced in a country are distinct from those in other countries—and that the composite finance-dependent good C_f^i is a CES aggregate over all varieties produced across the world:

$$C_f^i = \left[\sum_j \int_A C^{j \to i}(A)^{\frac{\sigma-1}{\sigma}} dF(A) \right]^{\frac{\sigma}{\sigma-1}} \ , \tag{26}$$

where $C^{j \to i}(A)$ is country i's demand for variety A produced in country j.

We assume all economies are open to international trade, and international trade is frictionless. As a result, countries share the same prices for all goods. Section 3.8 relaxes the

[20] Notice that if the profit margin hits the lower bound of one, a further increase in η does not have an impact on welfare.

frictionless trade assumption and introduces an iceberg trade cost into the model. Moreover, we assume that a country can borrow capital from other countries, subject to its own financing friction severity.[21] In the free trade equilibrium, consumers and firms optimize, markets for good n, sector f varieties, and capital clear, and each country satisfies a balance of payments. We solve for the free trade equilibrium below.

Consumption, import, and export. We start by specifying country j's demand for variety A produced in country i, $C^{i\to j}(A)$, using the preferences in (25):

$$C^{i\to j}(A) = (p^i(A)/P_f)^{-\sigma}(1-\theta)Y^j/P_f \ , \tag{27}$$

where Y^j is the aggregate income in country j and P_f is the price index for the composite good f, both to be defined below.

In the same fashion as we derived in Section 3.5, we can show that the producer of variety A sourced from country i earns the profit margin $\gamma_c^i := \max\{1, (1-e/I)\eta_i^{-1}\}$. The model implication 1 therefore holds in open economies as well: finance-dependent producers earn higher profit margins in less financially developed economies.

The price of variety A (across the world) is obtained by $p^i(A) = \gamma_c^i R/A$, which we use to solve for P_f, the world CES price index for the composite good f:

$$P_f = \gamma_w A_n / A_f \ , \tag{28}$$

where A_f is defined in equation (16), and γ_w is the world profit margin defined as

$$\gamma_w := \left[\sum_i (\gamma_c^i)^{1-\sigma}\right]^{1/(1-\sigma)} . \tag{29}$$

Note that capital lenders across the world receive the same rate of return $R = A_n$ in equilibrium.[22]

[21] We can alternatively assume that capital is immobile between countries, since trade in sector n and capital mobility are substitutes in our setup as a result of having a constant marginal product of capital (in contrast to, e.g., Antras and Caballero, 2009).

[22] To satisfy market clearing conditions for all goods, we need to have $R = A_n$; this is because if $R > A_n (R < A_n)$, the non-finance-dependent good (finance-dependent goods) would not be produced. Notice that, to simplify the exposition, we assume A_n is identical across countries. However, one could introduce cross-country productivity heterogeneity in A_n by assuming that good n is a CES aggregate of varieties produced worldwide—just as we do for sector f. In that alternative setup, the world capital market clears via an endogenous rental rate, and every country produces its own variety of good n because of consumers' love of variety. Although the equilibrium conditions would be more complex, the model's main predictions regarding sectoral profits would still hold due to the comparative-advantage mechanism.

The world demand for variety A produced in country i, $Y^i(A)$, can be written as

$$Y^i(A) = \sum_j C^{i\to j}(A) = (\gamma_c^i R/AP_f)^{-\sigma}(1-\theta)Y/P_f \ , \tag{30}$$

where Y stands for the world income (i.e., $Y = \sum_{i=1}^{M} Y^i$). The total exports of the finance-dependent sector from country i to j are

$$X^{i\to j} = \int_A p^i(A)C^{i\to j}(A)\ dF(A) = (\frac{\gamma_c^i}{\gamma_w})^{1-\sigma}(1-\theta)Y^j \ , \tag{31}$$

which are increasing in η_i. This expression shows that an economy with less severe financing frictions has a comparative advantage in the finance-dependent sector f, as shown below.

Model's Implication 3 (Comparative advantage in the finance-dependent sector)**.** Total exports of finance-dependent varieties from country i relative to country j to an arbitrary destination k are weakly decreasing (increasing) in the financing friction severity of country i (country j).

Proof. Use equation (31) to get $\log(X^{i\to k}/X^{j\to k}) = (1-\sigma)\log(\gamma_c^i/\gamma_c^j) = (\sigma-1)[\log(\eta_i) - \log(\eta_j)]$. The last equality holds assuming that financial constraints are binding in both countries (i.e., η_i and η_j being sufficiently small: $\eta_i < 1 - e/I$ and $\eta_j < 1 - e/I$). In case either η_i or η_j is large enough such that $\eta_i > 1 - e/I$ or $\eta_j > 1 - e/I$, then $\log(X^{i\to k}/X^{j\to k})$ would not change with η_i or η_j, respectively, which is why the pattern holds *weakly*. □

The pattern of specialization specified above is a well-documented fact in the literature (see, e.g., Beck, 2002; Becker et al., 2013; Hur et al., 2006; Manova, 2013; Svaleryd and Vlachos, 2005). Appendix D verifies this pattern of specialization by following Costinot (2009)'s methodology. To this end, we use Comtrade trade data for more than 160 countries in 27 three-digit ISIC manufacturing sectors and our empirical proxies for country-level financial development and industry-level finance dependence. We show that financially developed economies have a revealed comparative advantage in finance-dependent sectors.

Capital market and global income. We can now derive the global demand for capital in sector f:

$$K_f = \sum_i K_f^i = \sum_i \int_A \frac{Y^i(A)}{A}\ dF(A) = \frac{(1-\theta)Y}{\gamma_w A_n}\sum_i (\gamma_c^i/\gamma_w)^{-\sigma} \ , \tag{32}$$

where K_f^i is the capital demand by sector f in country i. Global demand for capital by sector n is

$$K_n = \sum_i K_n^i = \theta Y/A_n \ , \tag{33}$$

where K_n^i is the capital demand by sector n in country i. Since there are M countries each with the stock of capital e, the resource constraint for capital satisfies

$$K_f + K_n = Me \ . \tag{34}$$

Using equations (32)-(34), we solve for the world income:

$$Y = \frac{\hat{\gamma_c} A_n M e}{\theta \hat{\gamma_c} + (1-\theta)} \ , \tag{35}$$

where

$$\hat{\gamma_c} := \frac{\gamma_w}{\sum_i (\gamma_c^i/\gamma_w)^{-\sigma}} = \frac{\sum_i (\gamma_c^i)^{1-\sigma}}{\sum_i (\gamma_c^i)^{-\sigma}} \ . \tag{36}$$

Balance of payments and country income. Countries have no reason to import the non-finance-dependent good because each country can meet its demand for this good by borrowing capital from other countries. Therefore, we assume each country produces the non-finance-dependent good to satisfy its domestic demand.[23] We also assume that the balance of payments in equilibrium holds for each country i—that is, the net imports of finance-dependent varieties equal the value of exported capital:

$$\underbrace{(1-\theta)Y^i}_{\text{country } i\text{'s total imports}} - \underbrace{(\frac{\gamma_c^i}{\gamma_w})^{1-\sigma}(1-\theta)Y}_{\text{country } i\text{'s total exports}} = A_n \underbrace{\left[e - \frac{(1-\theta)Y}{\gamma_w A_n} (\frac{\gamma_c^i}{\gamma_w})^{-\sigma} - \frac{\theta Y^i}{A_n} \right]}_{\text{country } i\text{'s capital export}} \ , \tag{37}$$

where both imports and exports on the left-hand side include domestic sales.[24] The second and third terms on the right-hand side represent the capital demand by country i's finance-dependent sector (serving the global market) and non-finance-dependent sector (serving the domestic market), respectively.

To solve for each country's income, insert the world income (35) into the balance of payment equation (37) and simplify:

$$Y^i = A_n e \left[1 + (1-\theta) \left(\frac{\gamma_c^i}{\gamma_w} \right)^{1-\sigma} (1 - \frac{1}{\gamma_c^i}) \frac{\hat{\gamma_c} M}{\theta \hat{\gamma_c} + 1 - \theta} \right] \ . \tag{38}$$

Country i's welfare equals $Y^i / P_f^{1-\theta}$. Section 5 will explore the welfare implications of trade openness and those of financial development.

[23] Note that since producing good n and exporting capital are isomorphic, this assumption does not affect the balance of payment equation. Moreover, if we alternatively assume that countries trade good n instead of capital, the main results below regarding sectoral profits would be even stronger.

[24] Country i's total imports and exports are $\sum_j \int_A p^j(A) C^{j \to i}(A) \, dF(A)$ and $\sum_j \int_A p^i(A) C^{i \to j}(A) \, dF(A)$, respectively, both including domestic sales.

Profits. The profits of each sector in country i equal

$$\Pi_n^i = \theta Y^i (1 - \frac{1}{A_n}) \ , \tag{39}$$

$$\Pi_f^i = (\frac{\gamma_c^i}{\gamma_w})^{1-\sigma} (1-\theta) Y [1 - \frac{1}{A_n \gamma_c^i}] \ . \tag{40}$$

The profits of sector n are a linear function of income Y^i, since each country produces good n for its own consumers. Financial frictions influence the profits of sector f through two forces. First, as η_i rises, country i gains a comparative advantage in sector f and gets a larger sales share in the global market for finance-dependent varieties. This force is captured by the term $(\frac{\gamma_c^i}{\gamma_w})^{1-\sigma}(1-\theta)Y$ in the expression above. Second, as η_i rises, the profit margin of country i's finance-dependent sector γ_c^i falls, which reduces the profits of this sector. This force is captured by the second term, $1 - \frac{1}{A_n \gamma_c^i}$, in the expression above. Appendix B.4 shows that the first force dominates and Π_f^i rises with η_i, provided that the elasticity of substitution σ is large enough (i.e., $\frac{\sigma}{\sigma-1} \leq A_n$).

Comparing sectoral profits in autarky (equations (21)-(22)) to those under free trade (equations (39)-(40)) confirms that the model can rationalize the empirical facts presented in Section 2 regarding the complementarity between financial development and trade openness on finance-dependent sectors. The model results are summarized below.

Model's Implication 4 (Profits, open economy)**.** Provided that σ is large enough such that $\frac{\sigma}{\sigma-1} \leq A_n$, (i) Π_f^i / Π_n^i is increasing in η_i in a small open economy i; (ii) The gap between Π_f^i / Π_n^i under free trade (i.e., low trade barriers) and that under autarky (i.e., high trade barriers) rises with η_i; that is, the finance-dependent sector (relative to sector n) benefits *more* from financial development when trade barriers are lower; (iii) There exists a cutoff $\eta^* < 1 - e/I$ such that opening up to trade increases Π_f^i / Π_n^i if and only if $\eta_i > \eta^*$; that is, the finance-dependent sector benefits from lower trade barriers if and only if the economy is financially developed.

Proof. See Appendix B.4.

Results (i)-(ii), along with result (iii), help explain empirical Facts 1 and 3, respectively, as presented in Section 2. The intuition behind these results is as follows. If a financially underdeveloped economy i opens up to trade, the profits in the finance-dependent sector would shrink (relative to sector n). This is because such an economy has a comparative disadvantage in finance-dependent sectors, whereas these finance-dependent sectors could earn endogenously high economic profits under autarky as a result of financing frictions. A reduction in financial frictions in this open economy (i.e., increasing η_i) would help the finance-dependent industry gain a comparative advantage in the global market and a higher market

share, therefore generating more profits (relative to sector n).[25] In contrast, a reduction in financial frictions in a closed economy would reduce the profit margin, thereby reducing the total profits of the finance-dependent sector relative to the non-finance-dependent sector (as discussed in the model implication 2). Therefore, there is a complementarity effect between financial development and trade openness on the profits of finance-dependent industries. Specifically, a reduction in financial frictions would increase the gap between Π_f^i/Π_n^i under low trade barriers and that under high trade barriers, which is in line with the negative triple-difference empirical result documented in Section 2.

Sales. The channels through which an increase in η_i affects the sales of the finance-dependent sector relative to the non-finance-dependent sector mirror those discussed above regarding profits. Consequently, the model implies similar properties for sales as in implication 4. Specifically, when η_i rises, sector f in country i gains a comparative advantage in the global market, increasing the sales of sector f relative to sector n. At the same time, the profit margin of country i's finance-dependent sector, γ_c^i, declines, which reduces the relative sales of sector f. As shown in Appendix B.4, the first effect always dominates the second, and we therefore find that the relative sales of sector f to n increase with η_i in a small open economy. This result holds without requiring any restrictions on the elasticity σ, unlike the counterpart result for profits discussed earlier. Moreover, since the sales of sector f relative to sector n remain constant in a closed economy under our Cobb-Douglas utility function, the model predicts that the gap between relative sales under free trade and under autarky widens with η_i. Thus, the model's predicted behavior of relative sales also aligns with empirical Fact 1 in Section 2, which indicates that the finance-dependent sector (relative to sector n) benefits more from financial development when trade barriers are lower. As demonstrated in Appendix C.3, these results apply not only to the Cobb-Douglas utility function but also to the CES utility function.

3.8 Discussions and Extensions

Profit margins and the marginal cost of production. In our model, although product markets are competitive, the profit margin $p(A)A/R$ may be greater than one, which means that the marginal revenue of production is greater than the marginal cost, but the firm may not scale up because of the financing constraint. However, if one takes the shadow price of the financing constraint into account when calculating the marginal cost, then the marginal revenue and the *implied* marginal cost of production would be equal. In reality, to mitigate the financing constraint, constrained firms may pay an interest margin to intermediaries

[25] As noted above, a reduction in financial frictions also reduces the profit *margin* in the finance-dependent sector, but, provided that $\sigma/\sigma - 1 \leq A_n$, this force is dominated by the comparative advantage channel.

who finance firms on behalf of investors (e.g., via monitoring). This additional interest payment reflects the shadow price of the constraint in our model. Nevertheless, there exists a wedge between the marginal revenue (for the borrowing firm) and the opportunity cost of capital (for lenders), which shows up as part of our measured "profit" (i.e., capital rents plus economic profits) in the data.

Forward-looking financing frictions. In our model, we consider a forward-looking financing friction, in which the profit margin affects the borrowing limit. As a result, while product markets feature perfect competition and free entry, a positive profit margin emerges in equilibrium to support borrowing, investment, and production under financing frictions. Forward-looking financing frictions are employed and tested in various contexts in the literature. Paulson, Townsend and Karaivanov (2006) show that a forward-looking friction based on moral hazard (as opposed to a backward-looking friction based on collateral constraint) is the key driver of business startups in Thailand. Brooks and Dovis (2020) show that the pattern of exports upon Colombia's trade liberalization is explained by an endogenous debt limit implied by forward-looking financing frictions. Bai et al. (2018) explain capital misallocation across Chinese firms via endogenous borrowing constraints in a forward-looking setup. In Section 4, we test the key mechanism of our model regarding profit margins using ORBIS firm-level data.

A model with monopolistic competition and collateral constraints. While in our model with perfectly competitive product markets we need forward-looking financing frictions to generate a positive equilibrium profit margin, our key theoretical results still hold in a framework with collateral constraints and monopolistic competition. Appendix C.1 presents this alternative model. In this framework, a more severe financing friction forces *all* firms to scale down—to effectively coordinate on a higher aggregate price—which increases each firm's profits. This mechanism holds as long as competition is limited—that is, the economy is closed to international trade. In a small open economy, however, more severe financial friction would still result in firms scaling down, but the aggregate price does not rise since consumers switch to foreign producers. Therefore, profits in the finance-dependent industry would fall. We provide a formal discussion and mathematical proofs in appendix C.1.

Although this alternative model yields consistent results for sectoral profits, it produces counterfactual predictions regarding the extensive margin. Specifically, in this setup, a firm's profit depends on the aggregate price index. When financial constraints tighten, incumbent firms scale down, which, in turn, increases the aggregate price and profits and ultimately leads to more, rather than less, entry; see appendix C.1 for details and mathematical proofs. This prediction runs counter to empirical evidence on the extensive margin (e.g., Rajan and Zingales, 1998), despite the crucial role this margin plays in shaping the effects of financial

frictions (Midrigan and Xu, 2014).

Incorporating trade costs. For tractability reasons, in the model presented above we abstracted from any trade frictions in the trade equilibrium. Our main results in the paper are, however, robust to incorporating a *variable* trade friction. In particular, in appendix C.2 we assume that country i faces an iceberg trade cost τ^i to import from and export to other countries in the world; that is, to receive/deliver one unit of any goods, country i needs to purchase/export τ^i units of that good. As appendix C.2 shows, when the trade cost τ^i is large enough, the model behaves like the model in autarky, and therefore the results in the model implication 2 hold. Moreover, when trade costs are low enough, the model behaves like that under free trade presented above, therefore delivering the model's implications 4.

4 Finance Dependence, Financial Development, and Profit Margin: Evidence from Firm-Level Data

Firms in finance-dependent industries earn higher profit margins in less financially developed economies. As explained in Section 3, this is the key mechanism in our model that rationalizes why financial development may not benefit finance-dependent sectors when trade barriers are large, as documented in Section 2. In this section, we directly test this mechanism using cross-country firm-level data from ORBIS.

To this end, we run the following difference-in-difference regression:

$$\log[\text{Profit Margin}]_{ic} = \theta_i + \delta_c + \beta\ [\text{Fin Dep}]_i * \log[\text{Fin Dev}]_c + \epsilon_{ic}\ , \tag{41}$$

where θ_i and δ_c are industry and country fixed effects, respectively, and ϵ_{ic} is the error term. "Fin Dep" and "Fin Dev" are our proxies for industry-level finance dependence and country-level financial development, respectively. To run this regression, we use the ORBIS data set, which provides firm-level balance sheet information on both large and small firms in several countries (Gopinath, Kalemli-Özcan, Karabarbounis and Villegas-Sanchez, 2017).

We use data from 2000 to 2009 for 11 European countries for which ORBIS has good data coverage. Table A.2 reports our sample countries. Industries are three-digit Standard Industrial Classification (SIC) codes in manufacturing. Given the variations in the right-hand-side variables, we construct profit margins at the industry-country level by taking the cross-firm-year median of value added minus wage bill, divided by fixed assets—see details in appendix A. Consistent with the definition of profit margin in our model, our constructed profit margin measures economic profits plus capital rent, scaled by the size of capital.[26]

[26]While the denominator of profit margin in our model is Rk, we drop R in our profit margin measure

Table 2: Profit margin, finance dependence, and financial development

log(Profit margin) {Panel A}	(1)	(2)	(3)	(4)	(5)	(6)
finance dependence × financial development	−0.117*** (0.034)	−0.056** (0.028)	−0.015 (0.030)	−0.122*** (0.042)	−0.006 (0.019)	0.020 (0.017)
log(Profit margin) {Panel B}						
finance dependence × financial development	−0.189*** (0.038)	−0.010 (0.030)	−0.091*** (0.031)	−0.230*** (0.044)	−0.087*** (0.021)	−0.063*** (0.020)
Industry & Country FE	✓	✓	✓	✓	✓	✓
# Firms	3,952,289	3,853,946	3,952,289	3,952,289	3,952,289	3,952,289
# industry × country	1065	979	1065	1065	1065	1065

Notes: This table presents the results of regression (41). An observation is an industry in a country. For each industry-country pair, the left-hand-side variable measures the cross-firm-year median of value added minus wage bill divided by fixed assets, using ORBIS firm-level data from 2000 to 2009 for 11 European countries listed in appendix table A.2. Panels A and B use, respectively, external-finance dependence and asset intangibility (both measured using U.S. data) as proxies for industry-level finance dependence. Columns (1) to (6) use six different measures as proxies for country-level financial development, all measured in the year 2000: (i) private credit by banks and other financial institutions (% of GDP), (ii) the fraction of firms reporting that finance is not a major concern, (iii) the IMF's financial development index, (iv) the IMF's financial institutions development index, (v) the opposite of banks' overhead costs relative to total assets, and (vi) the opposite of the net interest margin. See appendix A for more details on constructing variables. We normalize the industry-level finance dependence proxies by the interquartile range (75th minus 25th percentile) and the financial development proxies by the range (maximum minus minimum) of each measure. Standard errors are reported in parentheses. $^{***}p < 0.01$ $^{**}p < 0.05$ $^{*}p < 0.1$.

Here we do not include other variable costs (i.e., labor and material) in the denominator, since wage bill and material costs are presumably less subject to financial frictions and are optimized out in the firm's cost minimization problem. Results are nonetheless robust to defining the profit margin as sales over total variable costs—that is, wage bill plus material costs plus the rental cost of capital.[27,28]

Table 2 reports the regression results. Panels A and B use, respectively, external-finance dependence and asset intangibility (both measured using U.S. data) as proxies for industry-level finance dependence. Columns (1) to (6) use six different measures as proxies for country-level financial development, all measured in the year 2000 (i.e., the beginning of our sample period): (i) private credit by banks and other financial institutions (% of GDP), (ii) the fraction of firms reporting that finance is not a major concern, (iii) the IMF's financial

here. Note that this does not matter since our difference-in-difference specification is comparing different sectors within a country, and sectors face the same economy-wide rate R.

[27]We measure the rental cost of capital as the 10-year government bond yields in each country plus a 5% depreciation rate, times fixed assets. Note that consistent with our theoretical model, our profit margin measure does *not* intend to measure price over the *implied* marginal cost (i.e., taking into account the shadow price of the financial constraint). Indeed, price over implied marginal cost in our model is equal to one, regardless of the severity of frictions.

[28]This robustness measure also helps to address the potential concern that finance-dependent industries may be more capital intensive in more financially developed economies, which puts downward pressure on our benchmark profit margin measure in such industries.

development index, (iv) the IMF's financial institutions development index, (v) the opposite of banks' overhead costs relative to total assets, and (vi) the opposite of the net interest margin. Table A.2 presents these proxy measures for the countries in our sample. To facilitate comparison of economic magnitudes across specifications, we normalize the industry-level finance dependence proxies by the interquartile range (75th minus 25th percentile) and the financial development proxies by the range (maximum minus minimum) of each measure.

The negative point estimates in table 2 indicate that firms in more finance dependent industries earn higher profit margins in less financially developed economies. This result is consistent with the key channel in our model summarized in the model implication 1. The estimated coefficients show that results are also economically significant: profit margins are between 5% and 23% (depending on the proxies for financial development and finance dependence) higher in the 75th percentile of the finance dependence distribution relative to the 25th percentile, in the least financially developed country compared to the most financially developed one in our sample.

Interestingly, although tables 1 and 2 draw on two entirely different data sources, the magnitudes of their results align reasonably well. As shown in figure 1, for countries with large trade barriers, a one standard deviation increase in financial development is associated with a 10%–20% decline in the profits of industries at the 75th percentile of finance dependence distribution relative to those at the 25th percentile. According to our model—and as corroborated by table 2—this empirical pattern arises because financial development, while expanding the relative size of finance-dependent sectors, simultaneously reduces their profit margins. Therefore, we expect variation in profit margins to be on the order of 10%–20%, which is consistent with our findings in table 2.[29]

5 Financial Frictions and Trade Openness: Welfare Implications

The key mechanism in our model that finance-dependent sectors earn higher profit margins in less financially developed economies has important implications for the gains from trade as well as the gains from financial development. While our model abstracts from several relevant forces in a standard quantitative model, in this section we explore how variations in profit margins due to financing frictions influence the welfare consequences of trade and financial development. We use our point estimates in the previous section to shed light on

[29]This conclusion is based on the fact that the dispersion in our *normalized* financial development proxies in table 2 and table 1 are quite similar. For instance, the gap between the highest and lowest values of Credit over GDP in our ORBIS sample (reported in table 2) is 0.9, while the standard deviation of this measure across countries in table 1 is approximately 0.8.

the quantitative relevance of this particular mechanism for welfare analysis.

5.1 Gains from Trade

Trade openness influences country i's welfare through the price index P_f and country income Y^i. We can express the gains from trade openness as

$$GT_i = \underbrace{\frac{Y^i_{\text{trade}}}{Y^i_{\text{autarky}}}}_{\text{profit-shifting channel}} \underbrace{\left(\frac{P_{f,\text{autarky}}}{P_{f,\text{trade}}}\right)^{1-\theta}}_{\text{price channel}} = \frac{Y^i_{\text{trade}}}{Y^i_{\text{autarky}}}\left(\frac{\gamma^i_c}{\gamma_w}\right)^{1-\theta}, \tag{42}$$

where Y^i_{trade} and $P_{f,\text{trade}}$ are the income and sector f price index under free trade given in equations (38) and (28), respectively, and Y^i_{autarky} and $P_{f,\text{autarky}}$ are those under autarky in equations (20) and (15), respectively.

The price index always falls with trade openness since $\gamma_w < \gamma^i_c$. We call this force the *price channel*. This channel always generates gains from trade openness, since consumers get access to more (and potentially cheaper) varieties (i.e., love of varieties). In a world without financial frictions where we have $\gamma^i_c = 1$ for all countries (the frictionless world, hereon), the price channel would be the same for all countries and would equal $M^{\frac{1-\theta}{\sigma-1}}$. In the presence of frictions, the price channel is stronger for less financially developed economies with higher γ^i_c relative to trade partners, since import prices are lower than the prices for varieties produced at home. The following proposition summarizes this result.

Proposition 1. *In the presence of financial frictions, trade openness reduces the price index in country i by more than it does in the frictionless world if and only if $\gamma^i_c > M^{1/(\sigma-1)}\gamma_w$, or equivalently,*

$$M(\gamma^i_c)^{1-\sigma} < \sum_j (\gamma^j_c)^{1-\sigma} \tag{43}$$

Proof. Use the price index equations (15) and (28), and the result immediately follows.

Besides the price channel, changes in income affect the gains from trade. A country's income equals capital rent $A_n e$, which is invariant to trade openness, plus economic profits generated in sector f. In a frictionless economy with $\gamma^i_c = 1$, income is unaffected by trade openness since economic profits are zero. For a frictional economy with $\gamma^i_c > 1$, however, income entails a positive economic profit generated in sector f. Trade openness shifts these profits to countries with a comparative advantage in producing finance-dependent varieties. We call this force the *profit-shifting channel*. This channel generates gains (losses) from trade openness for a country if profits flow into (out of) the country. The following proposition formalizes the profit-shifting channel.

Proposition 2. *Provided that $\gamma_c^i > 1$, trade openness reduces country i's income (and profits) if and only if*

$$M\left[\theta(\gamma_c^i)^{1-\sigma} + (1-\theta)(\gamma_c^i)^{-\sigma}\right] < \theta\sum_j(\gamma_c^j)^{1-\sigma} + (1-\theta)\sum_j(\gamma_c^j)^{-\sigma} \ . \tag{44}$$

Proof. See appendix B.5.

Corollary. In a two-country model with Home and Foreign and $\gamma_c^H > 1$, trade openness reduces Home income (and profits) if and only if Home faces more severe financial frictions than Foreign—that is, $\gamma_c^H > \gamma_c^F$, or equivalently, $\eta_H < \eta_F$.

The intuition behind this proposition is as follows. Country i with a high γ_c^i (i.e., low η_i) relative to its trade partners has a comparative disadvantage in sector f. Therefore, such a country loses profits after opening up to trade since the economic profits from producing finance-dependent varieties shift away from this country.[30]

We note that although our context is different, the notion of profit shifting in our model is similar to that in the strategic trade policy and profit-shifting literature (Bagwell and Staiger, 2012; Brander, 1986; Brander and Spencer, 1985; Firooz and Heins, 2021; Krugman, 1987; Ossa, 2014; Spencer and Brander, 1983). Unlike this literature that features imperfect competition in product markets, we assume perfectly competitive product markets and free entry in this paper, but firms may still earn positive profits as a result of financial frictions.

We put the price channel and the profit-shifting channel from propositions 1 and 2 together to analyze the implications of financial frictions on the gains from trade. First, note that in the frictionless world, the gains from trade are only through the price channel and equal

$$GT_i^{\text{frictionless}} = M^{\frac{1-\theta}{\sigma-1}} \ , \tag{45}$$

which is the same for all countries. Financial frictions can either raise or reduce the gains from trade openness. The following proposition formalizes our results. To keep tractability, we approximate equations up to the first order of variations in financing friction severity across countries.

Proposition 3. *For any average profit margin in the world $\bar{\gamma} = \frac{\sum_j \gamma_c^j}{M} > 1$, there exists a cutoff*

$$\sigma^* = \frac{\bar{\gamma}}{\bar{\gamma}-1} + \frac{\theta\bar{\gamma}}{1-\theta+\theta\bar{\gamma}} \tag{46}$$

such that (i) provided that $\sigma > \sigma^*$, the gains from trade for country i in the presence of financial frictions are <u>smaller</u> than those in the frictionless world if and only if $\gamma_c^i > \bar{\gamma}$; (ii)

[30] In the case that all countries share the same profit margin γ_c, country i's income and profits would not change by trade openness since all countries would be symmetric.

provided that $\sigma < \sigma^*$, the gains from trade for country i in the presence of financial frictions are larger than those in the frictionless world if and only if $\gamma_c^i > \bar{\gamma}$; (iii) in the case $\sigma = \sigma^*$, the gains from trade for all countries in the presence of financial frictions are the same as those in the frictionless world.

Proof. See appendix B.6.

This proposition shows that the presence of financial frictions can either increase or decrease the gains from trade openness, depending on the relative financial friction severity of trade partners. The intuition behind this result is as follows. Consider a country with more severe financial frictions than the world average (i.e., $\gamma_c^i > \bar{\gamma}$). On the one hand, the presence of financial frictions increases the gains from trade for such a country through the price channel, since this economy gets access to cheaper varieties after trade openness (see proposition 1). On the other hand, and perhaps less obviously, the presence of financial frictions reduces the gains from trade for such a country through the profit-shifting channel because the profits generated in the finance-dependent industry shift to trade partners as a result of a comparative disadvantage (see proposition 2). When the elasticity of substitution σ is large enough, the loss from the profit-shifting channel would be more pronounced since finance-dependent varieties across the world are more substitutable. In this case, the profit-shifting channel therefore dominates the price channel and determines the direction of changes in the gains from trade.

The profit-shifting channel induced by financial frictions is a new mechanism that we introduce in this paper. As explained above, the importance of this channel depends on the magnitude of σ compared to σ^*. Here we employ our empirical evidence in Section 4 to find a reasonable range for σ^*. We show that the values for σ estimated in the international trade literature fall in our range of estimated σ^*, and therefore the profit-shifting channel is indeed a relevant force for the gains from trade. To elaborate, our empirical results in table 2 show that profit margins in the 75th percentile of finance dependence distribution relative to the 25th percentile are 10%-20% larger in the least financially developed compared to the most financially developed country (proxied by Credit/GDP that is consistent with our model) in our sample of 11 European countries in ORBIS. Interpreting the industry at the 25th percentile of finance dependence as the "non-finance-dependent" sector in our model (with a profit margin implied by financing frictions equal to one) and assuming that the most financially developed country in our sample is frictionless with $\gamma_c^i = 1$, we conclude that financial frictions create an average profit margin for European economies in our ORBIS sample ranging from 1.1 to 1.2. This range provides a lower bound for the world average profit margin $\bar{\gamma}$ (induced by financial frictions), since an average European country in our ORBIS sample is less financially frictional than the world average. The profit margin $\bar{\gamma}$

therefore lies above $1.1 - 1.2$, which implies that σ^* falls below the range from 6 to 12.[31] Moreover, the trade elasticity estimates in the literature range from 4 to 8 (Eaton and Kortum, 2002; Simonovska and Waugh, 2014), and therefore σ ranges from 5 to 9 in our model.[32] We therefore conclude that σ arguably falls in the same range as σ^*, and so the profit-shifting channel induced by financial frictions is a relevant force (as compared to the price channel) that influences the gains from trade.

By introducing the profit-shifting channel induced by financial frictions, we contribute to the literature examining the welfare implications of trade in the presence of financing constraints (Brooks and Dovis, 2020; Caggese and Cuñat, 2013; Kohn et al., 2020b; Leibovici, 2021). In contrast to this literature, we showed that the effects of financial frictions on a country's gains from trade depend not only on the financial friction severity of the home country but also on the financial friction severity of its trade partners. In particular, we showed that through the profit-shifting channel, the presence of financial frictions *increases* the gains from trade for more financially developed economies, whereas the opposite is true for less financially developed countries.[33] The mechanism that cross-country heterogeneity in financial frictions activates profit shifting is absent in the literature.[34]

5.2 Gains from Financial Development

The mechanism that firms in finance-dependent sectors earn endogenous profit margins because of financial frictions also has important implications for the welfare consequences of financial development with/without international trade, which is summarized below.

Proposition 4. *While a closed economy i always gains from reducing its financial frictions (i.e., an increase in η_i), a small open economy i gains from reducing its financial frictions if and only if $\frac{\sigma}{\sigma-1} \leq \gamma_c^i$. Hence, there exists an optimal level of financial development $\eta_i^* =$*

[31] Note that σ^* is increasing in θ and ranges from $\frac{\bar{\gamma}}{\bar{\gamma}-1}$ (for $\theta = 0$) to $\frac{\bar{\gamma}}{\bar{\gamma}-1} + 1$ (for $\theta = 1$).

[32] Note that the trade elasticity in our model equals $\sigma - 1$.

[33] Our analysis abstracts from the potential effects of trade openness on financial development. Given the empirical facts documented in the literature, relaxing this assumption would make our profit-shifting channel even stronger. To elaborate, in a cross-country analysis, Do and Levchenko (2007) document that trade openness tends to *worsen* (improve) financial development in countries with a comparative disadvantage (advantage) in producing finance-dependent goods. The findings in Braun and Raddatz (2008) are also in line with this result. Based on these empirical findings, we conclude that taking into account the potential impacts of international trade on financial development would make the profit-shifting channel even stronger. That is, the presence of financial frictions increases (decreases) the gains from trade for economies that are more (less) financially developed. This is because economies that are more financially developed (i.e., $\gamma_c^i < \bar{\gamma}$) would become even more developed after trade openness and therefore gain even more from profit shifting, whereas the opposite is true for economies that are less financially developed.

[34] Note that although they employ a forward-looking financing friction, the profit-shifting channel does not exist in Brooks and Dovis (2020). This is because they assume that the trade partner of the country in their study has frictionless financial markets, and therefore by construction the trade partner earns no economic profits from producing finance-dependent goods.

$\frac{\sigma-1}{\sigma}(1-e/I) < 1$ *(i.e., below the frictionless value of one) that maximizes the welfare of the small open economy* i*.*

Proof. See appendix B.7.

Proposition 4 shows that even though financial friction is the only source of friction in our open economy, an open economy may lose from reducing its financial frictions. This is the case for the range $\gamma_c^i < \frac{\sigma}{\sigma-1}$, or equivalently, $\eta_i > \frac{\sigma-1}{\sigma}(1-e/I)$. The intuition behind this result is as follows. Financial development (i.e., a reduction in financial frictions) influences the welfare of a small open economy by changing its income.[35] Two forces affect income. On the one hand, a country benefits from its financial development through shifting profits from its trade partners to its domestic producers. This is because financial development reduces the price of finance-dependent varieties that this country produces, which in turn leads to this country gaining a comparative advantage in the finance-dependent sector that entails economic profits. The larger the elasticity of substitution σ, the stronger is this force. On the other hand, however, financial development reduces the profit margin of finance-dependent varieties that a country exports to other countries (i.e., by reducing γ_c^i), which tends to reduce this country's economic profits, income, and welfare. If the elasticity of substitution is low enough (such that $\gamma_c^i \leq \sigma/(\sigma-1)$), or equivalently, the financial friction is not severe, the second force dominates, and therefore the economy would lose from its own financial development.

We employ our empirical findings to shed light on the welfare implications of financial development in a small open economy. As described in proposition 4, whether or not reducing financing frictions benefits a small open economy depends on the magnitude of γ_c^i relative to $\frac{\sigma}{\sigma-1}$. As noted above, the trade elasticity estimates in the literature range from 4 to 8, which implies that $\frac{\sigma}{\sigma-1}$ ranges from 1.12 to 1.25 in our model. Moreover, as shown in table 2, we find an estimate of financial-frictions-implied profit margins for European countries in ORBIS in the range of $\gamma_c^i \sim 1.1 - 1.2$. This range of profit margin estimates γ_c^i therefore falls in the interval of calibrated $\frac{\sigma}{\sigma-1}$ from the literature. Therefore, one expects that in the set of ORBIS countries, both cases of $\gamma_c^i \gtrsim \frac{\sigma}{\sigma-1}$ and $\gamma_c^i \lesssim \frac{\sigma}{\sigma-1}$ apply. This suggests that while less financially developed European countries are better off from their financial development, more financially developed European countries might not benefit as much from their financial development on the margin.[36]

[35] Note that the world price index P_f is not affected as a result of the *small* open economy assumption.

[36] We note that financial development benefits a country through various forces that we abstract from in our model. Here, we highlight a particular mechanism—profit shifting—for the welfare implications of financial development that differentially affects open versus closed economies.

6 Conclusion

This paper studies the micro and macro implications of financing frictions in the presence of international trade barriers. We empirically document that finance-dependent industries benefit (in terms of total profits) from financial development if trade barriers are low, and not when they are high. By identifying which sectors benefit/lose from financial development, our empirical findings have implications for understanding the development of a country's financial sector from a political economy perspective. Specifically, our evidence implies that finance-dependent sectors would not support financial development in an environment with restricted international trade, which might pose a threat against financial development in an era of powerful *de*globalization movements.

To rationalize our empirical evidence and to analyze the interaction between financial frictions and trade openness, we develop a model of international trade featuring cross-country financial friction heterogeneity. In the model, although product markets are competitive, investment and production in finance-dependent sectors are supported by an endogenous profit margin in equilibrium, which would prevent firms from making strategic defaults on loans. We support this key mechanism of our model using cross-country firm-level data from ORBIS. In a closed economy, while financing frictions hurt aggregate welfare, these frictions indeed benefit finance-dependent producers. Trade openness reduces the price of finance-dependent goods, which benefits consumers; however, the economic profits of producing such varieties flow out of an economy that is less financially developed because of a comparative disadvantage.

We show that the welfare gains from financial development depend on trade openness and that the gains from trade openness depend on the relative financing friction severity of trade partners. In particular, our analytical results, along with firm-level evidence from ORBIS, show that (i) while less financially developed countries in our sample are better off from their financial development, more financially developed countries may not benefit from their financial development on the margin; and (ii) through the profit-shifting channel, the presence of financial frictions tends to increase (decrease) the gains from trade for more (less) financially developed economies.

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Appendices

This online appendix provides supplementary appendices and additional results for the paper "Who Benefits from Financial Development? The Interaction of Finance and Trade" by Ebrahimian and Firooz (2025).

A Empirical Facts: Constructing Variables

Financial development. We use several proxies for country-level financial development. As our first proxy, we rely on the World Bank Enterprise Surveys and calculate one minus the fraction of firms in the manufacturing sector of a given country that identify access to finance as a major concern (Asiedu et al., 2013; Beck et al., 2008; Bento and Restuccia, 2017). We use the 2006 survey data—the first run of the survey—or the first available survey for countries not covered in the 2006 survey. The majority of countries in our sample appear at least once between 2006 and 2010.

Second, we obtain data from the World Bank Global Financial Development Database (Beck et al., 2000) for measures reflecting the depth and efficiency of financial institutions. For each country-year pair, we use private credit by deposit money banks and other financial institutions to the private sector, normalized by GDP. We winsorize the data below 0.05 to reduce noise in our right-hand-side variable. Histograms are shown in figure A.1. We also use, from the same source, (the opposite of) banks' total overhead costs over total assets, (the opposite of) net interest margin, and total deposits in the financial system over GDP, as alternative proxies for financial development in robustness checks.[1]

Lastly, we use data from the IMF, which constructs broader financial development indices separately for a country's financial institutions and financial markets, as well as a combined index for both. These broader indices are created by combining various detailed measures of depth and efficiency (as listed in the previous paragraph for financial institutions), along with measures of access for both financial institutions and markets. The constructed indices range from 0 to 100, with higher values indicating greater financial development in a country.

Finance dependence. We construct three measures to compare finance dependence across industries. First, we use external-finance dependence as introduced in Rajan and Zingales (1998). To construct this measure, we use the U.S. Compustat database and collect data on capital expenditures (*capx*) and cash flows ("*cash*" defined as cash flows from operations (*oancf*) plus decreases in inventories (*invt*), decreases in receivables (*rect*), and increases in

[1]Note that when banks' overhead costs or net interest margin are higher, this is interpreted as lower financial development.

payables (*ap*)) for the U.S. publicly traded manufacturing firms in the 1980s. We measure external-finance dependence as [ext dep] $= \frac{capx-cash}{capx}$ for each firm, where *capx* is the sum of capital expenditures of the firm in all years, and *cash* is the sum of cash flows. This ratio represents the fraction of investment costs that is not financed via internal cash revenues. Hence, it is a relative measure of dependence on external financing at the firm level. We winsorize the variable *ext dep* at the firm level from bottom and top at the 10% level. We then map each firm to a specific three-digit ISIC code. External-finance dependence at the industry level is then calculated by taking the median of *ext dep* across firms within an industry. Table A.3 reports the external-finance dependence measure for each industry in our data. Tobacco, Footwear, and Leather are the least finance-dependent industries, while "Other" chemicals (which includes drugs and medicines), Machinery, and Professional goods are the most finance-dependent industries.

Second, as in Braun (2005) and Manova (2013), we construct the fraction of intangible assets at the industry level as an alternative proxy for finance dependence. We use data on net property, plant and equipment (*ppent*), and total assets (*at*) for the U.S. publicly traded firms in Compustat in the 1980s and take the within-industry, cross-firm median of one minus the ratio of mean net property, plant and equipment over mean total assets, $1 - \frac{ppent}{at}$. Net property, plant, and equipment are considered tangible assets that can presumably be more easily used as collateral for a loan. Industries with higher levels of asset intangibility require sophisticated financial institutions to meet their funding needs and are therefore more financially vulnerable. Table A.3 reports asset intangibility measure for each industry in our data.

Finally, we use a new measure for finance dependence: capital intensity in production technology. We use the annual NBER-CES Manufacturing Industry Database in the 1980s at the four-digit SIC level to construct this measure. We first calculate one minus production costs (material *matcost* plus labor *prodw*) divided by sales (total value of shipments *vship*). We then take the average of this measure across years and across all four-digit SIC industries that fall under a particular three-digit ISIC industry code. Intuitively, this measure captures the share of capital (both physical capital and human capital, which reflects, for example, managerial quality and entrepreneurial ability that contribute to TFP) in the production technology.[2] Industries with capital-intensive technologies rely more on finance, as a result of the time-to-build friction for capital. Table A.3 reports the measured capital intensity for each industry in our data. This proxy ranges from 0.2 to 0.5.

[2]Assume that firms optimally set material and labor in an intra-period cost minimization problem, given the level of capital and TFP. Consider a Cobb-Douglas technology $y = e^{1-\alpha-\beta-\gamma}k^{\alpha}l^{\beta}m^{\gamma}$ for output y, with e being TFP (capturing human capital—for example, managerial ability), k being physical capital, l being labor, and m being material. The capital intensity measure—one minus the share of material and labor cost in sales—would be $1 - \beta - \gamma$ (i.e., the sum of the share of e and k in the production function).

Imports, exports, and trade openness. For imports and exports, we use Comtrade data for 27 three-digit ISIC manufacturing industries (reported in table A.3). These data constitute all available exporter-importer-industry combinations and are available beginning in 1988 for the wide range of countries in our sample. As a proxy for country-level trade barriers, we employ the opposite of trade openness using two alternative measures: total imports of manufacturing divided by GDP and total imports plus exports of manufacturing divided by GDP.

Tariffs. We use industry-country-level import tariffs and trade volumes from 1988 to 2003 from WITS (World Integrated Trade Solution). We construct two measures for tariffs. For a *two*-digit ISIC rev. 2 industry i in country c at year t, we first take an average of *import* tariffs τ_{cp}^{it} that importer c imposes on trading partners p, where the average is weighted by the *import* volumes T_{cp}^{it}. Using the introduced notations, this measure equals $\sum_p T_{cp}^{it}\tau_{cp}^{it}/\sum_p T_{cp}^{it}$. The second measure constructs the average tariffs that partners of the country c impose on their imports from country c in industry i at year t. Using our notations, this measure equals $\sum_p T_{pc}^{it}\tau_{pc}^{it}/\sum_p T_{pc}^{it}$. The first measure computes the average tariffs on the products of foreign producers in the domestic market, while the second measure calculates the average tariffs that domestic producers face in order to sell their products abroad. We use the average of these two measures in our benchmark regressions, and we do robustness checks using import tariffs only. Moreover, for use in our robustness checks, we perform the same calculations to derive average tariffs at the broader, *one*-digit ISIC level—that is, for the entire manufacturing sector. Lastly, in further robustness checks and to limit the influence of large industries on average tariffs, we use *unweighted* average tariffs across all industries in the manufacturing sector. Additionally, as another robustness check, we exclude three-digit industries in the top sales quartile when calculating trade-weighted average tariffs. We winsorize the data at the 1% level from above, with the minimum tariff in the data being zero.

Natural openness. We construct country-level "natural openness" (as in, e.g., Do and Levchenko, 2007; Frankel and Romer, 1999) using a gravity model. To this end, we use CEPII version 2022 data on geographical variables to construct gravity-implied openness for each country in our sample. In particular, we regress the log of bilateral manufacturing imports (and separately for exports) divided by manufacturing value added on the log of distance between the two countries, whether the two countries share a border, whether the two countries share the same language, the log of source and destination surface area, and the log of source and destination population to predict the log of imports (and separately for exports) divided by value added. We then take the exponential of these predicted values, since they are in log terms, and then sum over all trading partners. We then construct the

gravity-implied imports divided by value added and gravity-implied imports plus exports divided by value added as two alternative measures for trade openness.

Industry outcome variables. We obtain industry-level data from United Nations Statistical Division, Industrial Statistics. This data set reports annual data on sales,[3] value added, wage bill, and capital formation for a panel of 81 countries in the manufacturing sector, which consists of 27 three-digit ISIC revision 2 industries, from 1988 to 2003. We use exchange rates as well as the U.S. GDP deflator to convert nominal values to real ones. We trim the data at 2.5% level from bottom and top. For a given sector-country pair at a given year, we calculate value added minus total wage bill and call it *profits*, which equals capital rents plus (variable) economic profits. To be used as the left-hand-side variable in our baseline industry-level regressions, we take the log profits after dropping negative values. In our robustness checks, we use the log of value added (without subtracting the wage bill), sales, and value added net of the wage bill and capital depreciation as our industry outcome variables. To back out capital depreciation, we first construct data on capital stock using the reported data on capital formation, following the perpetual inventory method. We assume a capital depreciation rate of 0.05 and an initial steady state growth of 0.05 (i.e., the median growth rate in the data). Having constructed an estimate for the capital stock per year for each industry, we then estimate capital depreciation by multiplying the estimated capital stock by the assumed depreciation rate. Data coverage on capital formation is not perfect, with frequent missing data points.

Profit margin. We compute the industry-country-level profit margin using ORBIS firm-level data from 2000 to 2009 for 11 European countries reported in table A.2. We define industries as three-digit SIC codes in manufacturing. We first construct the profit margin for each firm-year as value added minus wage bill, divided by total fixed assets. We then take the sales-weighted median of this measure across all firm-year observations within each industry-country pair. We winsorize all variables at the firm level from bottom and top at the 10% level.

[3] What is reported in the data is the value of production.

Table A.1: Summary statistics

Variable	Mean	Median	Std	p10	p90	Observations
log (Profits)	18.79	18.95	2.38	15.46	21.80	7649
Tariff (%)	8.82	7.58	5.97	2.55	16.74	7649
-log ((import+export)/GDP)	1.142	1.177	0.648	0.213	1.949	7628
-log (natural openness)	1.298	1.266	0.685	0.329	2.231	7628
Credit (% of GDP)	58.6	48.9	40.5	15.8	123.4	7649
Firms w/o financing issue (% of all)	77.5	78.5	14.2	57.8	94.2	6129
External finance dependence	0.084	0.040	0.450	-0.530	0.732	7649
Asset intangibility	0.695	0.706	0.099	0.519	0.836	7649
Capital intensity in production	0.359	0.352	0.066	0.272	0.447	7649
log (Profit margin)	-1.08	-1.09	0.70	-1.70	-0.40	1218

Notes: This table reports the average, median, standard deviation, 10th and 90th percentiles, and the number of observations for the main variables used in our empirical analysis. All variables except the one in the last row are used in the empirical analysis in Section 2. The variable *log(Profit margin)* in the last row is used in the empirical analysis in Section 4.

Table A.2: Countries in our ORBIS data set and their proxies for financial development

Country	# Firm-Year	(3)	(4)	(5)	(6)	(7)	(8)
Austria	52,031	98.35	0.94	0.60	0.72	-1.65	-1.71
Belgium	224,526	77.34	0.93	0.60	0.79	-1.32	-1.36
Finland	107,836	51.38	0.87	0.56	0.59	-1.27	-1.84
France	845,647	81.29	0.82	0.69	0.70	-1.31	-0.93
Germany	450,512	116.33	0.92	0.76	0.74	-1.62	-1.17
Italy	986,967	70.33	0.85	0.75	0.74	-2.04	-2.06
Netherlands	163,621	125.34	0.91	0.85	0.89	-0.67	-1.20
Norway	104,407	70.41	-	0.60	0.42	-1.98	-2.19
Portugal	250,137	112.30	0.86	0.70	0.83	-1.16	-1.35
Spain	900,355	90.13	0.88	0.85	0.85	-0.76	-0.89
Sweden	200,920	64.28	0.95	0.74	0.64	-1.56	-1.32

Notes: This table reports the list of 11 European countries in the ORBIS firm-level data. Column (2) reports the number of firm-year observations for each country in our sample from 2000 to 2009. Columns (3) to (8) report six different proxies for country-level financial development, all measured in the year 2000: (i) private credit by banks and other financial institutions (% of GDP), (ii) the fraction of firms reporting that finance is not a major concern, (iii) the IMF's financial development index, (iv) the IMF's financial institutions development index, (v) the opposite of banks' overhead costs relative to total assets, and (vi) the opposite of the net interest margin.

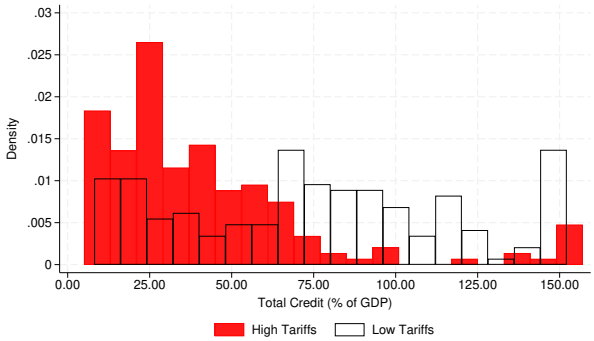
Table A.3: External-finance dependence, asset intangibility, and capital intensity for industries in the manufacturing sector

Rank	ISIC code	Industrial sectors	External dependence	Asset intangibility	Capital intensity
1	314	Tobacco	-0.983	0.735	0.424
2	324	Footwear	-0.691	0.836	0.350
3	323	Leather	-0.530	0.858	0.336
4	313	Beverages	-0.271	0.697	0.390
5	361	Pottery	-0.246	0.691	0.436
6	311-2	Food products	-0.212	0.624	0.320
7	354	Petroleum and coal products	-0.195	0.661	0.267
8	353	Petroleum refineries	-0.178	0.508	0.194
9	369	Nonmetal products	-0.120	0.508	0.384
10	342	Printing and publishing	-0.117	0.706	0.465
11	381	Metal products	-0.085	0.715	0.370
12	351	Industrial chemicals	-0.075	0.574	0.347
13	371	Iron and steel	-0.005	0.581	0.298
14	341	Paper and products	-0.001	0.519	0.313
15	332	Furniture	0.040	0.711	0.352
16	355-6	Rubber and Plastic products	0.073	0.663	0.354
17	384	Transportation equipment	0.165	0.724	0.334
18	321	Textile	0.205	0.672	0.272
19	372	Nonferrous metal	0.233	0.655	0.273
20	322	Apparel	0.242	0.847	0.330
21	331	Wood products	0.307	0.680	0.258
22	362	Glass	0.497	0.567	0.384
23	390	Other industries	0.645	0.807	0.398
24	383	Electric Machinery	0.662	0.763	0.408
25	352	Other chemicals	0.732	0.768	0.447
26	382	Machinery	0.756	0.788	0.404
27	385	Professional goods	1.043	0.804	0.504

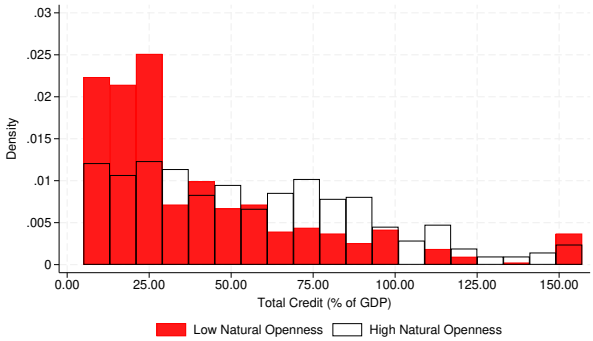
Notes: The data source for external-finance dependence and asset intangibility is the annual U.S. Compustat database for publicly traded firms from 1980 to 1989. To build external-finance dependence, we first take the sum over all years of capital expenditures (capx) minus cash flows (which is cash flows from operations (oancf) plus decreases in inventories (invt), decreases in receivables (rect), and increases in payables (ap)) for each firm, and divide by the sum of capital expenditures (capx). We then take the cross-firm median within each industry (three-digit ISIC level). As for asset intangibility, we first calculate the fraction of intangible assets as one minus the mean of net property, plant, and equipment (ppent) scaled by the mean total assets (at) for each firm. We then take the cross-firm median within each industry (three-digit ISIC level). The data source for capital intensity in the production technology is the annual NBER-CES Manufacturing Industry Database at the four-digit 1987 SIC level, from 1980 to 1989. We first calculate sales (total value of shipments) minus production costs (total cost of materials plus production worker wages) divided by sales (total value of shipments). We then take the average of this ratio across years and across all four-digit SIC codes that belong to a three-digit ISIC code. Before taking the summation over years, we normalize all variables with the U.S. GDP deflator. In this table, we sort industries based on their external-finance dependence.

Figure A.1: Histogram of financial development across countries

(a) Split countries by tariffs



(b) Split countries by natural openness



Notes: This figure shows histograms of the credit-to-GDP ratio separately for countries with below-median and above-median trade barriers. Panels (a) and (b) split countries by tariffs and by natural openness, respectively.

B Proofs

B.1 Supply function of finance-dependent varieties

Here, we show that the supply of finance-dependent variety A can be written as the following piecewise function:

$$Y(A;\gamma(A)) = \begin{cases} 0 & \gamma(A) < \gamma_c \\ 0 \leq . \leq \frac{Ae}{1-\eta\gamma_c} & \gamma(A) = \gamma_c \\ \frac{Ae}{1-\eta\gamma(A)} & \gamma_c < \gamma(A) < \eta^{-1} \\ +\infty & \gamma(A) \geq \eta^{-1} \end{cases} \tag{47}$$

Recall that the borrowing constraint for a firm implies

$$\eta\gamma(A) < 1 \;\Rightarrow\; k(A) \leq k_c(A) := \frac{e}{1-\eta\gamma(A)}\ , \tag{48}$$

and there would be no limit on borrowing if $\gamma(A) \geq \eta^{-1}$. If profit margin $\gamma(A)$ falls below the threshold γ_c, the finance-dependent variety A is not produced. This is because if $\gamma(A) < 1$, producing this variety delivers a negative profit, and no one would produce it. On the other hand, if $\gamma(A) < (1-e/I)\eta^{-1}$, the size limit $k_c(A)$ would be less than the minimum scale I (look at (48)), and therefore producing this variety is not feasible.

If $\gamma(A) = \gamma_c$, equation (48) implies that the size threshold is $k_c(A) = e/(1-\eta\gamma_c) \geq I$. Moreover, since $\gamma(A) = \gamma_c \geq 1$, producing the finance-dependent variety A is profitable. Therefore, all individuals are willing to supply variety A up to the point where the financial constraint binds (i.e., $k(A) = k_c(A)$). As a result, the supply of this variety may be anything in $[0, Ae/(1-\eta\gamma_c)]$.

Now consider the third case: $\gamma_c < \gamma(A) < \eta^{-1}$. Since by definition $\gamma_c \geq 1$, the profit margin $\gamma(A)$ is strictly greater than one in this case. Hence, producing variety A delivers a positive profit, and variety A would be produced at its maximum capacity subject to the financial constraint. Therefore, $Ak_c(A)$ amount of variety A will be produced in the aggregate.

As the last case, if $\gamma(A) \geq \eta^{-1}$, the supply of variety A would be infinity. This is because the financing constraint is not binding in this case, and therefore there would be no limit on borrowing and the scale of production. Moreover, $\eta\gamma(A) \geq 1$ implies that $\gamma(A) > 1$, as long as $\eta < 1$. Therefore, producing variety A delivers a positive profit. Hence, the supply would be infinity if $\gamma(A) \geq \eta^{-1}$.[4]

[4]Note that if $\gamma(A) = \eta = 1$, supply would be anything from zero to infinity, which will be captured by

B.2 Equilibrium profit margin and firm size

We show that all varieties in sector f share the same profit margin in equilibrium:

$$\forall A: \quad \gamma(A) = \gamma_c = \max\{1, (1 - e/I)\eta^{-1}\} \ . \tag{49}$$

We can see from the supply function (47) that the equilibrium profit margin of variety A needs to fall in the range $\gamma_c \leq \gamma(A) < \eta^{-1}$: $\gamma(A) \geq \eta^{-1}$ would raise the scale of production and demand for capital to infinity, and $\gamma(A) < \gamma_c$ results in zero supply of variety A, both of which cannot be an equilibrium outcome given the demand structure.

We also show that $\gamma(A) > \gamma_c$ cannot be an equilibrium outcome. Because $\gamma_c \geq 1$, $\gamma(A) > \gamma_c$ results in $\gamma(A) > 1$ (i.e., a positive economic profit). Moreover, because $\gamma_c \geq (1-e/I)\eta^{-1}$, $\gamma(A) > \gamma_c$ would imply $\gamma(A) > (1-e/I)\eta^{-1}$, which permits a scale of operation satisfied by the no-default condition (48) that is strictly greater than the minimum scale I (i.e., $k_c(A) > I$). In this case, a profit margin that is slightly below $\gamma(A)$ would still permit an operation scale that meets the financing constraint and is still greater than I. Potential entrants would then be able to produce variety A at a lower profit margin and serve the entire market demand. The entrants meet both the financing and technological constraints and earn a positive profit. This is a contradiction for $\gamma(A)$ being an equilibrium profit margin.

Now that we proved $\gamma(A) = \gamma_c$, we determine the firm size in equilibrium. Provided that $\gamma_c > 1$, the borrowing constraint (48) requires $k(A) \leq k_c(A) = I$, whereas the technological constraint requires $k(A) \geq I$. Therefore, $k(A) = I$ for all varieties A as long as $\gamma_c > 1$. Note that $\gamma_c = 1$ implies $(1 - e/I)\eta^{-1} \leq 1$, which in turn yields $k_c(A) = \frac{e}{1-\eta} \geq I$. In this case, firms' size would be indeterminate.

B.3 Sector f capital

Total demand for capital in sector f equals

$$K_f = \int_A K(A)\, dF(A) = \int_A \frac{Y(A)}{A}\, dF(A) = \int_A \frac{C(A)}{A}\, dF(A) = \int_A (\frac{p(A)}{P_f})^{-\sigma} \frac{C_f}{A}\, dF(A) = A_f^{\sigma-1} P_f^{\sigma} (\gamma_c A_n)^{-\sigma} C_f = C_f/A_f = \frac{(1-\theta)Y}{\gamma_c A_n} \ , \tag{50}$$

where $Y(A)$ and $K(A)$ are the equilibrium output/supply and capital demand of variety A, respectively. Here, we used the market clearing condition $Y(A) = C(A)$ and substituted for

the second case since $\gamma_c = 1$ as well.

the demand for variety A derived from the CES aggregator (5)

$$C(A) = C_f \ (p(A)/P_f)^{-\sigma} \ . \tag{51}$$

We also substituted for the price of variety A from the equilibrium profit margin

$$\gamma(A) = p(A)A/R = \gamma_c \quad \Rightarrow \quad p(A) = \gamma_c R/A \ , \tag{52}$$

combined with $R = A_n$ as well as the sector f aggregate price index

$$P_f = \gamma_c A_n / A_f \ , \tag{53}$$

and the aggregate productivity

$$A_f = \left[\int_A A^{\sigma-1} dF(A) \right]^{1/(\sigma-1)} \tag{54}$$

from equations (15) and (16). Finally, we used equation (13) to substitute for the aggregate demand for the composite good f as $C_f = (1-\theta)Y/P_f$.

B.4 Properties of relative profits and sales in a small open economy

In this section, we first prove the three parts of the model's implication 4. We then show that the relative sales of sector f to n increase with η_i in a small open economy.

Part (i). In an open economy,

$$\begin{aligned} \Pi_n^i &= \theta Y^i (1 - 1/A_n) \\ \Pi_f^i &= (\frac{\gamma_c^i}{\gamma_w})^{1-\sigma} (1-\theta) Y [1 - \frac{1}{A_n \gamma_c^i}] \end{aligned} \tag{55}$$

Therefore,

$$\Pi_f^i / \Pi_n^i = (\frac{\gamma_c^i}{\gamma_w})^{1-\sigma} (\frac{1-\theta}{\theta}) (\frac{Y}{Y^i}) \frac{A_n \gamma_c^i - 1}{\gamma_c^i (A_n - 1)} \ . \tag{56}$$

Moreover,

$$Y^i = A_n e + (1-\theta) \left(\frac{\gamma_c^i}{\gamma_w} \right)^{1-\sigma} (1 - \frac{1}{\gamma_c^i}) \underbrace{\frac{A_n e \hat{\gamma}_c M}{\theta \hat{\gamma}_c + 1 - \theta}}_{=Y} \ . \tag{57}$$

So we can simplify

$$(\frac{\gamma_c^i}{\gamma_w})^{1-\sigma}(\frac{Y}{Y_i}) = \frac{1}{(1-\theta)(1-\frac{1}{\gamma_c^i}) + \frac{A_n e}{Y}(\frac{\gamma_w}{\gamma_c^i})^{1-\sigma}} \ . \tag{58}$$

Substituting equation (58) in equation (56) delivers

$$\Pi_f^i/\Pi_n^i = \frac{A_n\gamma_c^i - 1}{\theta(A_n-1)(\gamma_c^i - 1 + \alpha(\gamma_c^i)^\sigma)} \ , \tag{59}$$

where

$$\alpha := \frac{A_n e \gamma_w^{1-\sigma}}{Y(1-\theta)} \tag{60}$$

is a positive constant. We can show that[5]

$$\frac{\partial(\Pi_f^i/\Pi_n^i)}{\partial\gamma_c^i} \ \propto \ 1 - A_n + \alpha(\gamma_c^i)^{\sigma-1}\underbrace{[\sigma + A_n\gamma_c^i(1-\sigma)]}_{negative?} \ . \tag{61}$$

A sufficient condition for the right-hand side to be negative is that the term in the bracket is negative. Given that $\gamma_i^c \geq 1$, this sufficient condition holds if $\sigma + A_n(1-\sigma) \leq 0$, which is equivalent to

$$1 < \frac{\sigma}{\sigma - 1} \leq A_n \ . \tag{62}$$

If equation (62) holds, then Π_f^i/Π_n^i is decreasing in γ_c^i in the entire range of γ_c^i, which means that Π_f^i/Π_n^i is always increasing in η_i. Moreover, taking the derivative of Π_f^i with respect to γ_c^i shows that Π_f^i is decreasing in γ_c^i, provided that $\frac{\sigma}{\sigma-1} \leq A_n$.

Part (ii). While in an open economy i, Π_f^i/Π_n^i is decreasing in γ_c^i (i.e., increasing in η_i) as shown in part (i) above, Π_f^i/Π_n^i is increasing in γ_c^i in the closed economy case. To see this, use equations (21) and (22) to write

$$(\Pi_f^i/\Pi_n^i)^{\text{closed}} = \frac{(1-\theta)(\gamma_c^i A_n - 1)}{\theta\gamma_c^i(A_n - 1)} \ , \tag{63}$$

which is increasing in γ_c^i. Therefore, the gap between Π_f^i/Π_n^i under free trade and that under autarky rises with η_i.

Part (iii). We show that there exists an $\eta^* < 1 - e/I$ such that Π_f^i/Π_n^i in an open economy is larger than that in autarky if and only if $\eta_i > \eta^*$. We show this result in two steps.

[5] In taking the partial derivative of Π_f^i/Π_n^i w.r.t. γ_c^i, we abstract from the dependence of α on γ_c^i, whereas γ_c^i indeed affects global income Y and price index γ_w. We can show that this simplification does not alter the final conclusion for a case that the number of countries M is large enough.

Step 1. At $\gamma_c^i = 1$, Π_f^i/Π_n^i is larger in an open economy than it is under autarky. To show this, note that under autarky and $\gamma_c^i = 1$, we have $(\Pi_f^i/\Pi_n^i)^{\text{closed}} = (1-\theta)/\theta$. Use equation (59) to show that in an open economy i and when $\gamma_c^i = 1$,

$$\left.\frac{\Pi_f^i}{\Pi_n^i}\right|_{\gamma_c^i=1} = \frac{1-\theta}{\theta}\frac{Y}{A_n e \gamma_w^{1-\sigma}} = \frac{1-\theta}{\theta}\frac{M}{\theta\sum_j(\gamma_c^j)^{1-\sigma} + (1-\theta)\sum_j(\gamma_c^j)^{-\sigma}} \geq \frac{1-\theta}{\theta}\,, \tag{64}$$

where we used equation (35) for the global income Y and equation (29) for γ_w. The last inequality comes from the fact that $\sum_j(\gamma_c^j)^{1-\sigma} \leq M$ and $\sum_j(\gamma_c^j)^{-\sigma} \leq M$, since $\gamma_c^j \geq 1$ for all j. Note that the last *inequality* would be an *equality* if and only if $\gamma_c^j = 1$ for all j (i.e., financial markets in all countries are frictionless).

Step 2. We show that in the limit of $\gamma_c^i \to \infty$, Π_f^i/Π_n^i is smaller in an open economy than it is under autarky. To see this, note that under autarky and in the limit of financial underdevelopment (i.e., $\gamma_c^i \to \infty$), the ratio of the profits of these two sectors is positive:

$$(\Pi_f^i/\Pi_n^i)^{\text{closed}} = \frac{(1-\theta)(\gamma_c^i A_n - 1)}{\theta\gamma_c^i(A_n-1)} \xrightarrow{\gamma_c^i\to\infty} \frac{(1-\theta)A_n}{\theta(A_n-1)}\,, \tag{65}$$

whereas from equation (59) we can see that, as long as $\sigma > 1$, in the limit $\gamma_c^i \to \infty$, Π_f^i/Π_n^i in an open economy converges to zero.

These two steps along with the result in *Part (ii)* show that Π_f^i/Π_n^i in an open economy and that under autarky cross at some $\gamma^* > 1$ (i.e., at some $\eta^* < 1 - e/I$). Moreover, Π_f^i/Π_n^i in an open economy is larger than that under autarky if and only if $\gamma_c^i < \gamma^*$ (i.e., $\eta > \eta^*$).

Relative sales. Finally, we show that the relative sales of sector f to n increase with η_i in a small open economy. Sales of sector n and f equal θY^i and $(\frac{\gamma_c^i}{\gamma_w})^{1-\sigma}(1-\theta)Y$, respectively. Using equation (58), sales of sector f relative to n can be written as

$$\frac{1}{\theta(1-\frac{1}{\gamma_c^i}) + \frac{A_n e}{Y}(\frac{\gamma_w}{\gamma_c^i})^{1-\sigma}},$$

which is decreasing in γ_c^i.

B.5 Proof of proposition 2

Provided that $\gamma_c^i > 1$, producing finance-dependent varieties in country i entails economic profits. A country's income equals capital rent $A_n e$, which is invariant to trade openness, plus economic profits generated in sector f. To explore profit shifting, we therefore compare a country's income in autarky to that under free trade. Country i's income in autarky is

given by equation (20), which can be written as

$$Y^i_{\text{autarky}} = A_n e\left[1 + \frac{(1-\theta)(\gamma^i_c - 1)}{\theta\gamma^i_c + 1 - \theta}\right], \tag{66}$$

and income under free trade is given by equation (38):

$$Y^i_{\text{trade}} = A_n e\left[1 + (1-\theta)\left(\frac{\gamma^i_c}{\gamma_w}\right)^{1-\sigma}(1 - \frac{1}{\gamma^i_c})\frac{\hat{\gamma}_c M}{\theta\hat{\gamma}_c + 1 - \theta}\right]. \tag{67}$$

In the case $\gamma^i_c = 1$, $Y^i_{\text{trade}} = Y^i_{\text{autarky}} = A_n e$. Provided that $\gamma^i_c \neq 1$, we can write

$$Y^i_{\text{trade}} < Y^i_{\text{autarky}} \iff \left(\frac{\gamma^i_c}{\gamma_w}\right)^{1-\sigma}\frac{M\hat{\gamma}_c}{\theta\hat{\gamma}_c + 1 - \theta} < \frac{\gamma^i_c}{\theta\gamma^i_c + 1 - \theta}, \tag{68}$$

and substituting for γ_w and $\hat{\gamma}_c$ from equations (29) and (36) delivers

$$Y^i_{\text{trade}} < Y^i_{\text{autarky}} \iff \frac{(\gamma^i_c)^{-\sigma}}{\sum_j(\gamma^j_c)^{-\sigma}}\frac{M}{\theta\frac{\sum_j(\gamma^j_c)^{1-\sigma}}{\sum_j(\gamma^j_c)^{-\sigma}} + 1 - \theta} < \frac{1}{\theta\gamma^i_c + 1 - \theta}, \tag{69}$$

which can be simplified to

$$Y^i_{\text{trade}} < Y^i_{\text{autarky}} \iff M\left[\theta(\gamma^i_c)^{1-\sigma} + (1-\theta)(\gamma^i_c)^{-\sigma}\right] < \theta\sum_j(\gamma^j_c)^{1-\sigma} + (1-\theta)\sum_j(\gamma^j_c)^{-\sigma}. \tag{70}$$

B.6 Proof of proposition 3

As mentioned in the text, to keep tractability, we approximate equations up to the first order of variations in financing friction severity across countries. We derive the first-order Taylor expansions of equations around the world average profit margin $\bar{\gamma} := \frac{\sum_j \gamma^j_c}{M} > 1$. Define $\gamma^i_c := \bar{\gamma} + \Delta\gamma^i_c$, where $\sum_j \Delta\gamma^j_c = 0$ by definition. We first derive first-order approximations of γ_w and $\hat{\gamma}_c$.

$$(\gamma^i_c)^{1-\sigma} = (\bar{\gamma} + \Delta\gamma^i_c)^{1-\sigma} \approx \bar{\gamma}^{1-\sigma}(1 + (1-\sigma)\frac{\Delta\gamma^i_c}{\bar{\gamma}}). \tag{71}$$

Therefore,

$$\sum_i(\gamma^i_c)^{1-\sigma} \approx \bar{\gamma}^{1-\sigma}(M + (1-\sigma)\frac{\sum_i \Delta\gamma^i_c}{\bar{\gamma}}) = M\bar{\gamma}^{1-\sigma}. \tag{72}$$

Using the definition of γ_w, we derive

$$\gamma_w \approx M^{1/(1-\sigma)}\bar{\gamma}. \tag{73}$$

As for $\hat{\gamma}_c$,

$$\hat{\gamma}_c = \frac{\sum_i (\gamma_c^i)^{1-\sigma}}{\sum_i (\gamma_c^i)^{-\sigma}} \approx \frac{\bar{\gamma}^{1-\sigma} \sum_i (1 + (1-\sigma)\frac{\Delta\gamma_c^i}{\bar{\gamma}})}{\bar{\gamma}^{-\sigma} \sum_i (1 - \sigma\frac{\Delta\gamma_c^i}{\bar{\gamma}})} = \bar{\gamma}. \tag{74}$$

We write the gains from trade in equation (42) as

$$\log(GT_i) = \underbrace{\log(\frac{Y^i_{\text{trade}}}{Y^i_{\text{autarky}}})}_{\text{profit-shifting channel}} + \underbrace{(1-\theta)\log\left(\frac{\gamma_c^i}{\gamma_w}\right)}_{\text{price channel}}. \tag{75}$$

We can write the price channel as

$$(1-\theta)\log\left(\frac{\gamma_c^i}{\gamma_w}\right) = (1-\theta)\log(1+\frac{\Delta\gamma_c^i}{\bar{\gamma}}) - (1-\theta)\log M^{1/(1-\sigma)} \approx (1-\theta)\frac{\Delta\gamma_c^i}{\bar{\gamma}} + \frac{1-\theta}{\sigma-1}\log M. \tag{76}$$

The first term in the price channel is a result of the presence of financial frictions, while the second term equals the price channel in the frictionless case. The price channel is stronger in the presence of frictions relative to the frictionless world for countries with $\Delta\gamma_c^i > 0$ (i.e., countries with frictions that are more severe than the world average).

We now derive the first-order approximations of income equations under autarky and free trade. We start with the income equation (20) under autarky:

$$\begin{aligned} Y^i_{autarky} &= \frac{A_n e \gamma_c^i}{\theta\gamma_c^i + 1 - \theta} = \frac{A_n e(\bar{\gamma} + \Delta\gamma_c^i)}{1-\theta+\theta\bar{\gamma}+\theta\Delta\gamma_c^i} = \frac{A_n e\bar{\gamma}}{1-\theta+\theta\bar{\gamma}} \frac{1+\frac{\Delta\gamma_c^i}{\bar{\gamma}}}{1+\frac{\theta\Delta\gamma_c^i}{1-\theta+\theta\bar{\gamma}}} \\ &\approx \frac{A_n e\bar{\gamma}}{1-\theta+\theta\bar{\gamma}}(1+\frac{\Delta\gamma_c^i}{\bar{\gamma}} - \frac{\theta\Delta\gamma_c^i}{1-\theta+\theta\bar{\gamma}}) = \frac{A_n e\bar{\gamma}}{1-\theta+\theta\bar{\gamma}}\left[1+\frac{\Delta\gamma_c^i}{\bar{\gamma}}(\frac{1-\theta}{1-\theta+\theta\bar{\gamma}})\right]. \end{aligned} \tag{77}$$

We use equations (67), (73), and (74) to derive the first-order approximation for income under free trade:

$$\begin{aligned} Y^i_{\text{trade}} = A_n e\left[1+(1-\theta)\left(\frac{\gamma_c^i}{\gamma_w}\right)^{1-\sigma}(1-\frac{1}{\gamma_c^i})\frac{\hat{\gamma}_c M}{\theta\hat{\gamma}_c+1-\theta}\right] &\approx A_n e\left[1+(1-\theta)\left(\frac{\gamma_c^i}{\bar{\gamma}}\right)^{1-\sigma}(1-\frac{1}{\gamma_c^i})\frac{\bar{\gamma}}{\theta\bar{\gamma}+1-\theta}\right] \\ &\approx A_n e\left[1+(1-\theta)(1+(1-\sigma)\frac{\Delta\gamma_c^i}{\bar{\gamma}})(1-\frac{1}{\bar{\gamma}}(1-\frac{\Delta\gamma_c^i}{\bar{\gamma}}))\frac{\bar{\gamma}}{\theta\bar{\gamma}+1-\theta}\right] \\ &\approx \frac{A_n e\bar{\gamma}}{\theta\bar{\gamma}+1-\theta}\left[1+(1-\theta)\frac{\Delta\gamma_c^i}{\bar{\gamma}}(1-\sigma(1-\frac{1}{\bar{\gamma}}))\right], \end{aligned} \tag{78}$$

where the last approximation above assumes $(\Delta\gamma_c^i)^2 \approx 0$. Now we use equations (77) and

(78) to write the profit-shifting channel as

$$\log(\frac{Y^i_{\text{trade}}}{Y^i_{\text{autarky}}}) \approx (1-\theta)\frac{\Delta\gamma^i_c}{\bar{\gamma}}\left[1-\sigma(1-\frac{1}{\bar{\gamma}})\right]-\frac{\Delta\gamma^i_c}{\bar{\gamma}}\left[\frac{1-\theta}{1-\theta+\theta\bar{\gamma}}\right] = -(1-\theta)\frac{\Delta\gamma^i_c}{\bar{\gamma}}(\bar{\gamma}-1)\left[\frac{\sigma}{\bar{\gamma}}-\frac{\theta}{1-\theta+\theta\bar{\gamma}}\right]. \tag{79}$$

Note that $\frac{\sigma}{\bar{\gamma}} - \frac{\theta}{1-\theta+\theta\bar{\gamma}} > 0$ provided that $\sigma > 1$. As expected, for any average profit margin $\bar{\gamma} > 1$, country i's income falls by trade if and only if $\Delta\gamma^i_c > 0$ (i.e., country i is more frictional than the world average).

Using equations (76) and (79) into the gains from trade in equation (75), and subtracting the frictionless gains from trade in equation (45) delivers

$$\log(GT_i) - \log(GT_i^{\text{frictionless}}) = (1-\theta)\frac{\Delta\gamma^i_c}{\bar{\gamma}}\left[1-(\bar{\gamma}-1)(\frac{\sigma}{\bar{\gamma}}-\frac{\theta}{1-\theta+\theta\bar{\gamma}})\right]. \tag{80}$$

Defining $\sigma^* = \frac{\bar{\gamma}}{\bar{\gamma}-1} + \frac{\theta\bar{\gamma}}{1-\theta+\theta\bar{\gamma}}$ as in the text, the equation above proves proposition 3. This equation shows that provided that $\sigma > \sigma^*$, the gains from trade for country i in the presence of financial frictions are smaller than those in the frictionless world if and only if $\Delta\gamma^i_c > 0$ (i.e., $\gamma^i_c > \bar{\gamma}$), and vice versa for the case $\sigma < \sigma^*$, up to the first order of approximation of $\Delta\gamma^i_c$.

B.7 Proof of proposition 4

In a closed economy, welfare falls with financial frictions. To elaborate, taking the derivative of welfare in the closed economy in equation (23) with respect to γ_c delivers

$$\frac{\partial U}{\partial \gamma_c} = A_n^{\theta} A_f^{1-\theta} e \frac{\theta(1-\theta)(1-\gamma_c)\gamma_c^{\theta-1}}{(\theta\gamma_c+1-\theta)^2} \leq 0, \tag{81}$$

since $\gamma_c \geq 1$.

For a small open economy, the world price index for sector f does not change by γ^i_c. Therefore, to explore changes in the welfare of a small open economy i with respect to financial friction severity, we take the derivative of the income equation (67) with respect to γ^i_c:

$$\frac{\partial Y^i_{\text{trade}}}{\partial \gamma^i_c} \propto (1-\sigma)\gamma_i^{\sigma} + \sigma\gamma_i^{\sigma-1}\ , \tag{82}$$

which is positive if and only if $\gamma^i_c \leq \sigma/(\sigma-1)$; that is, welfare rises with a reduction in financial friction severity if and only if $\gamma^i_c \geq \sigma/(\sigma-1)$. Note that the world equilibrium objects $\hat{\gamma}_c$ and γ_w do not change with γ^i_c since country i is small.

C Robustness and Extensions of the Model

C.1 A model with monopolistic competition and a collateral constraint

Consider a version of our model with monopolistic competition and a collateral constraint. We assume the same Cobb-Douglas preferences as in the model in the text and also assume the same CES aggregation over varieties A in the finance-dependent sector f, with the elasticity of substitution across varieties being σ. The firm A in the finance-dependent sector f operating at scale k produces Ak units of its particular variety, selling this product in a monopolistically competitive product market. This firm faces the demand curve $Y(A) = (p(A)/P_f)^{-\sigma}Y_f$, where $p(A)$ is the price charged by this producer, P_f is the aggregate price index of the finance-dependent sector, and Y_f is the aggregate demand for sector f. In line with models in the literature, we abstract from the minimum scale I by assuming that it is small and therefore not biding in equilibrium.

In an unconstrained world, the firm chooses its capital k and price $p(A)$ to maximize its profit:

$$k^*(A) = \arg\max_k \quad p(A)Y(A) - Rk,$$

such that

$$Y(A) = Ak,$$

$$Y(A) = (p(A)/P_f)^{-\sigma}Y_f.$$

The optimal, unconstrained price and capital would be

$$p^*(A)A/R = \sigma/(\sigma - 1),$$

$$k^*(A) = 1/AY_f(\frac{R}{AP_f}\frac{\sigma}{\sigma - 1})^{-\sigma}.$$

In a world with imperfect financial markets, firms face a constraint in raising funds to scale up their operation. In particular, we assume that the amount of loans that can be raised to finance investment is limited to a fraction η of their entire stock of capital k, which is posted as collateral: $l \leq \eta k$, where l is the amount of loan. Here, $\eta \in [0, 1]$ governs the severity of financing friction; in a perfect financial market, $\eta = 1$, which means that the entire stock of capital is valued as collateral. In a world with no financial markets, $\eta = 0$. Assuming that all producers have an endowment e, we have $k = l + e$, and therefore the

collateral constraint can be written as $k \leq e/(1-\eta)$. Define

$$k_c := e/(1-\eta)$$

as the maximum possible scale, given that financial markets are imperfect ($\eta < 1$). In the rest of this section, we drop the notation η and simply refer to k_c as the proxy for financial development.

We assume that the financing constraint is binding for all firms—that is, $k_c \leq k^*(A)$ for all A. All firms will therefore operate at $k(A) = k_c$. Firm A produces

$$Y(A) = k_c A$$

and sells the product at the price

$$p(A) = (\frac{k_c A}{Y_f})^{-1/\sigma} P_f.$$

The aggregate price index of sector f in a closed economy solves

$$P_f^{1-\sigma} = \int p(A)^{1-\sigma} dF(A) = (k_c \hat{A}_f / Y_f)^{(\sigma-1)/\sigma} m P_f^{1-\sigma},$$

where

$$\hat{A}_f := [\int A^{(\sigma-1)/\sigma} dF(A) / \int dF(A)]^{\sigma/(\sigma-1)}$$

is the average productivity and

$$m := \int dF(A)$$

is the measure of firms. For now, we treat m as given and exogenously fixed. We introduce free entry and discuss its implications below.

Given the Cobb-Douglas preferences across sectors n and f, the aggregate demand for sector f equals

$$Y_f = (1-\theta) Y / P_f,$$

where Y is the country's total income. We can then solve for P_f as

$$P_f = \frac{(1-\theta) Y}{k_c \hat{A}_f m^{\sigma/(\sigma-1)}}.$$

The price index of sector f, P_f, is decreasing in financial development k_c, holding everything else unchanged. If k_c rises, *all* firms scale up, which reduces the price index. This decrease in P_f, in turn, would hurt an individual firm. We show that the total profit of sector f would

also decrease with k_c, even though each individual firm would get closer to its optimal scale of operation k^*. The output of sector f, Y_f, can also be solved as

$$Y_f = k_c \hat{A}_f m^{\sigma/(\sigma-1)}.$$

Note that Y_f is increasing in k_c: Financial development allows more capital allocation to sector f, and the output of sector f rises as a result.

Aggregate profits of sector f equal

$$\Pi_f = \int p(A)Y(A)dF(A) - K_f,$$

where we subtract K_f since the depreciation rate is one, as in the baseline model. Substituting for $p(A)$ and $Y(A)$ delivers

$$\Pi_f = \frac{(\hat{A}_f k_c)^{\frac{\sigma-1}{\sigma}}}{(Y_f)^{\frac{-1}{\sigma}}} m P_f - m k_c = (1-\theta)Y - m k_c,$$

where the second equality is obtained by substituting for P_f. We solve for the aggregate income Y from the market clearing condition for capital. Specifically,

$$K_n = e - K_f = e - m k_c \;\Rightarrow\; Y_n = A_n K_n = A_n(e - m k_c).$$

Given the Cobb-Douglas preferences, $Y_n = \theta Y$, and therefore,

$$Y = A_n(e - m k_c)/\theta.$$

By substituting for Y in the profits equation, Π_f simplifies to

$$\Pi_f = \frac{1-\theta}{\theta} A_n(e - m k_c) - m k_c.$$

Here, Π_f is clearly decreasing in k_c, the maximum scale of operation imposed by the financing constraint. This pattern is driven by a fall in P_f and not a rise in Y_f, as we discussed above.

On the other hand, the profits of sector n equal

$$\Pi_n = Y_n - K_n,$$

which, given the production function $Y_n = A_n K_n$ and capital market clearing $K_n = e - m k_c$, simplifies to

$$\Pi_n = (A_n - 1)(e - m k_c).$$

We can now derive the profits of sector f relative to sector n:

$$\frac{\Pi_f}{\Pi_n} = \frac{\frac{1-\theta}{\theta}A_n - \frac{mk_c}{e-mk_c}}{A_n - 1},$$

which is *decreasing* in k_c. Financial development (an increase in η and hence k_c), while increasing the output, results in a *decrease* in the profits of the finance-dependent sector f (relative to n), through a reduction in the price index of this sector P_f. This result is similar to the one we derived in the main text and is summarized below.

Proposition. *In a closed economy, the profits of sector f relative to sector n are decreasing in financial development.*

We now turn to the case of an open economy with free trade. For a small open economy i, the price index P_f is given. Demand for country i's firm A is derived by

$$Y^i(A) = (p^i(A)/P_f)^{-\sigma}Y_f,$$

where P_f is the global price index and Y_f is the global demand for good f. Given Cobb-Douglas preferences, $Y_f = (1-\theta)Y/P_f$, where Y is the global income. We again assume that all firms in sector f of country i are financially constrained, and therefore the production of firm A is given by

$$Y^i(A) = Ak_c^i,$$

where $k_c^i := e/(1-\eta_i)$ and $\eta_i < 1$ governs the financial friction severity in country i. We can solve for $p^i(A)$ via market clearing for country i's product A:

$$p^i(A) = (\frac{AP_fk_c^i}{(1-\theta)Y})^{-1/\sigma}P_f.$$

The profits of sector f in country i can be written as

$$\Pi_f^i = \int p^i(A)Y^i(A)dF(A) - \int k^i(A)dF(A) = \frac{m^i(P_f\hat{A}_fk_c^i)^{\frac{\sigma-1}{\sigma}}}{[(1-\theta)Y]^{\frac{-1}{\sigma}}} - m^ik_c^i.$$

We solve for the global price index P_f to simplify this equation:

$$P_f^{1-\sigma} = \sum_i \int p^i(A)^{1-\sigma}dF(A) \;\Rightarrow\; P_f = \frac{(1-\theta)Y}{\hat{A}_f\hat{k}_cm^{\frac{\sigma}{\sigma-1}}},$$

where $\hat{k}_c := (\sum_i m^i(k_c^i)^{\frac{\sigma-1}{\sigma}}/\sum_i m^i)^{\frac{\sigma}{\sigma-1}}$ is the cross-country average of size limits imposed by financing frictions, and $m := \sum_i m^i$ is the sum of the mass of firms in sector f across the

world. We can now rewrite the profits in sector f of country i as

$$\Pi_f^i = \frac{(1-\theta)Y}{m}(\frac{k_c^i}{\hat{k}_c})^{\frac{\sigma-1}{\sigma}}m^i - m^i k_c^i.$$

In contrast to the closed economy, here Π_f^i is *increasing* in k_c^i as long as the global income Y is large enough and/or the size limit in country i, k_c^i, is small relative to the rest of the world. The key point is that a larger k_c^i allows firms in the home economy to scale up, which increases their total profits, since a larger k_c^i does not affect the global income and price index P_f for i being a small open economy.

The profits of sector n depend on the income of the country

$$\Pi_n^i = Y_n^i - K_n^i = Y_n^i(1-1/A_n) = \theta Y^i(1-1/A_n),$$

where we again assume that sector n in country i produces good n for its own consumers, and therefore $Y_n^i = \theta Y^i$ given the Cobb-Douglas preferences.

The income of country i is pinned down by the balance of payments:

$$\underbrace{(1-\theta)Y^i}_{\text{total consumption of good } f} - \underbrace{\int p^i(A)Y^i(A)dF(A)}_{\text{total export of good } f} = \underbrace{A_n[e-K_f^i-K_n^i]}_{\text{flow of capital across border times eqm return rate on capital}}.$$

By substituting for sectoral demand for capital, we get

$$Y^i = A_n e + \int p^i(A)Y^i(A)dF(A) - A_n m^i k_c^i.$$

We can now derive the relative profits of sectors as

$$\frac{\Pi_f^i}{\Pi_n^i} = \frac{\frac{(1-\theta)Y}{m}(\frac{k_c^i}{\hat{k}_c})^{\frac{\sigma-1}{\sigma}}m^i - m^i k_c^i}{\theta(1-1/A_n)(A_n e + \frac{(1-\theta)Y}{m}(\frac{k_c^i}{\hat{k}_c})^{\frac{\sigma-1}{\sigma}}m^i - A_n m^i k_c^i)}.$$

The profits of sector n (the denominator) are proportional to the income of the country, which in turn depends on k_c^i. The profits of sector f (the numerator) are also affected by k_c^i. We see that the numerator is more sensitive to k_c^i than the denominator, in log scale, because of the fixed term $A_n e$ in the denominator and also since $A_n > 1$. A sufficient condition for Π_f^i/Π_n^i being *increasing* in k_c^i is that the derivative of the denominator is positive (i.e., the income of the country is increasing in k_c^i). This is the case, for example, if θ is small enough or k_c^i is small (relative to the world average $\hat{k}_c$). We summarize this result below.

Proposition. *In a small open economy, the profits of sector f relative to sector n are increasing with financial development if (as a sufficient condition) the total income of the economy increases with financial development.*

We now introduce free entry and analyze its implications in this setup. Suppose there is a fixed entry cost κ in sector f, which firms must pay before drawing their productivity A. In equilibrium, the mass of firms m is determined by the condition that expected economic profit net of entry costs is zero. When financing frictions become more severe, profits increase—as discussed above—which encourages additional entry. This influx of entrants puts downward pressure on the price index P_f and profits Π_f; however, profits remain higher than in the case with less severe frictions.

The zero-profit condition implies that

$$P_f Y_f - A_n K_f = m\kappa A_n,$$

where the left-hand side is sector f's economic profit (gross of entry costs) and the right-hand side is the total fixed cost paid by firms (in subperiod 2 units). Note that

$$K_f = mk_c,$$

by the assumption that frictions are binding for firms in sector f.

The Cobb-Douglass utility implies that

$$P_f Y_f = \frac{1-\theta}{\theta} Y_n = \frac{1-\theta}{\theta} A_n K_n.$$

Market clearing for capital delivers

$$K_n = e - mk_c - m\kappa.$$

Therefore, $P_f Y_f = \frac{1-\theta}{\theta} A_n (e - mk_c - m\kappa)$, which combined with the zero-profit condition delivers the mass of firms

$$m = \frac{(1-\theta)e}{k_c + \kappa}.$$

Clearly, m is *decreasing* in k_c, and therefore also in the financial development proxy η.

The size of capital in sector f is an *increasing* function of k_c:

$$K_f = mk_c = \frac{(1-\theta)ek_c}{k_c + \kappa}.$$

Finally, total profit in sector f (gross of entry costs) is

$$\Pi_f = P_f Y_f - K_f = \frac{1-\theta}{\theta} A_n (e - mk_c - m\kappa) - mk_c = (1-\theta) e A_n - mk_c,$$

which is decreasing in mk_c, and therefore also in k_c and η.[6] On the other hand, the profits of sector n equal

$$\Pi_n = Y_n - K_n,$$

which, given the production function $Y_n = A_n K_n$ and capital market clearing condition, simplifies to

$$\Pi_n = (A_n - 1)(e - mk_c - m\kappa) = (A_n - 1)\theta e_n,$$

which is invariant with respect to k_c. Therefore, Π_f/Π_n is decreasing in both k_c and η.

C.2 The model with iceberg trade cost

Consider a world in which country i faces the iceberg trade cost τ^i on both imports and exports. We show that the main results provided in the text hold in this world as well. In particular, we show that Π_f^i/Π_n^i is increasing in γ_c^i when τ^i is large enough and decreasing in γ_c^i when τ^i is low enough.

Facing the iceberg trade cost τ^i, the price of variety A exported from country i to any country in the world would be $\gamma_c^i R\tau^i/A$. Similarly, the price of variety A that country i imports from country j would be $\gamma_c^j R\tau^i/A$. Notice that, as before, $R = A_n$ in equilibrium. The total exports of country i (not including domestic sales) therefore equal

$$\sum_{j\neq i} \int_A \left(\frac{\gamma_c^i R\tau^i/A}{P_f}\right)^{1-\sigma} (1-\theta) Y^j dF(A) = (\gamma_c^i \tau^i)^{1-\sigma} \Omega P_f^{\sigma-1} \sum_{j\neq i} Y^j, \tag{83}$$

where $\Omega \equiv (1-\theta)(A_n/A_f)^{1-\sigma}$, A_f is defined in equation (16), and P_f is the sector f CES price index that all countries in the world except country i face:

$$P_f = \frac{A_n}{A_f}\left[(\tau^i \gamma_c^i)^{1-\sigma} + \sum_{j\neq i} {\gamma_c^j}^{1-\sigma}\right]^{1/1-\sigma}. \tag{84}$$

The total imports of country i (not including domestic sales) can be written as

$$\sum_{j\neq i} \int_A \left(\frac{\gamma_c^j R\tau^i/A}{P_f^i}\right)^{1-\sigma} (1-\theta) Y^i dF(A) = \Omega {\tau^i}^{1-\sigma} {P_f^i}^{\sigma-1} \gamma_{w\neq i}^{1-\sigma} Y^i, \tag{85}$$

[6] Note that, given the free entry condition, if one measures profits net of entry costs, there would be no economic profits in sector f, regardless of financing friction severity.

where $\gamma_{w\neq i}^{1-\sigma} \equiv \sum_{j\neq i} {\gamma_c^j}^{1-\sigma}$ and P_f^i is the sector f CES price index in country i:

$$P_f^i = \frac{A_n}{A_f}\left[{\gamma_c^i}^{1-\sigma} + {\tau^i}^{1-\sigma}\sum_{j\neq i}{\gamma_c^j}^{1-\sigma}\right]^{1/1-\sigma}. \tag{86}$$

Total capital demand in sector f of country i can be written as:

$$K_f^i = \int_A \left(\frac{\gamma_c^i R/A}{P_f^i}\right)^{-\sigma}\frac{(1-\theta)Y^i}{AP_f^i}dF(A) + \sum_{j\neq i}\int_A \left(\frac{\gamma_c^i R\tau^i/A}{P_f}\right)^{-\sigma}\frac{(1-\theta)Y^j}{AP_f}\tau^i dF(A) \tag{87}$$

$$= \frac{\Omega}{A_n}{\gamma_c^i}^{-\sigma}{P_f^i}^{\sigma-1}Y^i + \frac{\Omega}{A_n}{\gamma_c^i}^{-\sigma}{\tau^i}^{1-\sigma}P_f^{\sigma-1}\sum_{j\neq i}Y^j. \tag{88}$$

Balance of payments implies that total imports minus total exports equals capital exports. Capital exports equal $A_n(e-K_f^i-\theta Y^i/A_n)$ since we again assume that each country produces good n for its own consumption only. Balance of payments can therefore be written as

$$\Omega{\tau^i}^{1-\sigma}{P_f^i}^{\sigma-1}\gamma_{w\neq i}^{1-\sigma}Y^i - (\gamma_c^i\tau^i)^{1-\sigma}\Omega P_f^{\sigma-1}\sum_{j\neq i}Y^j = A_n e - \theta Y^i - \Omega{\gamma_c^i}^{-\sigma}{P_f^i}^{\sigma-1}Y^i - \Omega{\gamma_c^i}^{-\sigma}{\tau^i}^{1-\sigma}P_f^{\sigma-1}\sum_{j\neq i}Y^j, \tag{89}$$

which can be simplified to

$$Y^i\left[\Omega{\tau^i}^{1-\sigma}{P_f^i}^{\sigma-1}\gamma_{w\neq i}^{1-\sigma} + \theta + \Omega{\gamma_c^i}^{-\sigma}{P_f^i}^{\sigma-1}\right] = A_n e + \Omega{\gamma_c^i}^{-\sigma}{\tau^i}^{1-\sigma}P_f^{\sigma-1}(\gamma_c^i - 1)\sum_{j\neq i}Y^j. \tag{90}$$

Note that as $\tau^i \to \infty$, the economy goes into autarky, and therefore the balance of payment equation delivers the country income Y^i, as in equation (20).

We now explore how profits in sector f relative to those in sector n, Π_f^i/Π_n^i, vary by γ_c^i. Profits in sector f equal exports plus domestic sales minus capital (since capital fully depreciates):

$$\Pi_f^i = {\gamma_c^i}^{-\sigma}\Omega{P_f^i}^{\sigma-1}Y^i(\gamma_c^i - \frac{1}{A_n}) + {\gamma_c^i}^{-\sigma}\Omega{\tau^i}^{1-\sigma}P_f^{\sigma-1}\sum_{j\neq i}Y^j(\gamma_c^i - \frac{1}{A_n}). \tag{91}$$

Profits in sector n equal

$$\Pi_n^i = \theta Y^i(1 - \frac{1}{A_n}). \tag{92}$$

Using these two equations, relative profits can be written as

$$\frac{\Pi_f^i}{\Pi_n^i} = \frac{\Omega}{\theta(A_n-1)}{\gamma_c^i}^{-\sigma}{P_f^i}^{\sigma-1}(A_n\gamma_c^i - 1) + \frac{\Omega}{\theta(A_n-1)}{\gamma_c^i}^{-\sigma}{\tau^i}^{1-\sigma}P_f^{\sigma-1}(A_n\gamma_c^i - 1)\frac{\sum_{j\neq i}Y^j}{Y^i}, \tag{93}$$

where $\sum_{j\neq i} Y^j/Y^i$ can be replaced using the balance of payment equation (90). To elaborate, the first term corresponds to the relative profits from serving the domestic market, while the second term is associated with exports.

When trade cost τ^i is large enough, the second term would be negligible. In particular, as $\tau^i \to \infty$, the second term goes to zero, and therefore Π_f^i/Π_n^i would converge to relative profits under autarky:

$$\left.\frac{\Pi_f^i}{\Pi_n^i}\right|_{\tau^i\to\infty} = \frac{\Omega}{\theta(A_n-1)}{\gamma_c^i}^{-\sigma}{P_f^i}^{\sigma-1}(A_n\gamma_c^i-1), \tag{94}$$

which, as shown above, is increasing in γ_c^i given the fact that under autarky $P_f^i = \gamma_c^i A_n/A_f$. Therefore, given the continuity of Π_f^i/Π_n^i, there exists a trade cost τ^i above which Π_f^i/Π_n^i is increasing in γ_c^i. In contrast, as $\tau^i \to 1$, relative profits Π_f^i/Π_n^i converge to that under free trade, which is decreasing in γ_c^i, as we showed above. Hence, again since Π_f^i/Π_n^i is continuous, there exists a trade cost below which Π_f^i/Π_n^i is decreasing in γ_c^i. We can therefore conclude that when trade costs are large (small) enough, profits in sector f relative to those in sector n rise (fall) with γ_c^i.

C.3 The model with CES utility

We extend the Cobb-Douglas utility specification in the baseline model to a more general case with a CES utility:

$$U = \left[\theta^{\frac{1}{\varepsilon}} C_n^{\frac{\varepsilon-1}{\varepsilon}} + (1-\theta)^{\frac{1}{\varepsilon}} C_f^{\frac{\varepsilon-1}{\varepsilon}}\right]^{\frac{\varepsilon}{\varepsilon-1}}, \tag{95}$$

where ε captures the elasticity of substitution between the finance- and non-finance-dependent goods f and n. The special case with $\varepsilon \to 1$ corresponds to the Cobb-Douglass utility, $U = C_n^\theta C_f^{1-\theta}$, analyzed in the baseline model in the text.

Following the same approach as in the baseline model, we derive the scale of operations in sectors n and f. In particular,

$$K_f = \int_A K(A)\, dF(A) = \int_A \frac{Y(A)}{A}\, dF(A) = \int_A \frac{C(A)}{A}\, dF(A) = \\ \int_A \left(\frac{p(A)}{P_f}\right)^{-\sigma}\frac{C_f}{A}\, dF(A) = A_f^{\sigma-1}P_f^\sigma(\gamma_c A_n)^{-\sigma}C_f = P_f C_f/(\gamma_c A_n), \tag{96}$$

as in equation (50), for the same aggregate productivity $A_f := \left[\int_A A^{\sigma-1} dF(A)\right]^{1/(\sigma-1)}$ and

price index $P_f = \gamma_c A_n/A_f$, and

$$K_n = Y_n/A_n = C_n/A_n. \tag{97}$$

Here, C_n and C_f represent aggregate demand for sectors n and f in the economy. The CES utility maximization problem implies

$$C_n = \frac{\theta}{\theta + (1-\theta)P_f^{1-\varepsilon}} Y \ , \quad P_f C_f = \frac{(1-\theta)P_f^{1-\varepsilon}}{\theta + (1-\theta)P_f^{1-\varepsilon}} Y. \tag{98}$$

In what follows, we analyze the size, sales, and profits of sectors f and n in both closed and open economies.

Closed economy. Define

$$\hat{\theta} := \frac{\theta}{\theta + (1-\theta)P_f^{1-\varepsilon}}. \tag{99}$$

Observe that $\hat{\theta} = \theta$ if $\varepsilon = 1$. Imposing the capital market clearing condition, $K_n + K_f = e$, yields an expression for national income, Y, analogous to that in the baseline model, but with $\hat{\theta}$ replacing θ:

$$Y = \frac{\gamma_c A_n e}{\hat{\theta}\gamma_c + 1 - \hat{\theta}}. \tag{100}$$

Note that the parameter η affects Y not only through γ_c, but also via P_f, which enters $\hat{\theta}$ in this expression.

The ratio of sectoral sales can be written as

$$\frac{P_f Y_f}{Y_n} = \frac{1-\theta}{\theta} P_f^{1-\varepsilon}. \tag{101}$$

Note that the price index $P_f = \gamma_c A_n/A_f$ is increasing in $\gamma_c := \max\{1, (1 - e/I)\eta^{-1}\}$—and thus increasing in financing frictions (i.e., the inverse of η). Therefore, the model predicts that sales of sector f relative to sector n are *increasing* in financial frictions in a closed economy, provided that $\varepsilon < 1$. This is not the case in an open economy, as we show below.

We use equations (96)-(98) to derive the relative capital stock in the two sectors:

$$\frac{K_f}{K_n} \propto \gamma_c^{-\varepsilon},$$

which implies that the relative scale of operations in the finance-dependent sector is decreasing in financing frictions for all values of ε.

Finally, the profits in the finance-dependent sector relative to the non-finance-dependent

sector can be expressed as

$$\frac{\Pi_f}{\Pi_n} = \frac{P_f Y_f - K_f}{Y_n - K_n} = \frac{P_f Y_f - Y_f/A_f}{Y_n - Y_n/A_n} = \left(\frac{1 - 1/(\gamma_c A_n)}{1 - 1/A_n}\right)\left(\frac{P_f Y_f}{Y_n}\right). \tag{102}$$

The first term on the right-hand side is *increasing* in financing frictions, as in the baseline model. The second term is the sales ratio, which is also (weakly) increasing in financing frictions when $\varepsilon \leq 1$, further reinforcing the positive relationship between the profits ratio and financing frictions.

We show below that, in a small open economy, the sales and profits of sector f relative to sector n are *decreasing* in financing frictions.

Open economy. In an open economy i, the size of capital, sales, and profits of the finance-dependent sector f are proportional to the global demand for sector f, denoted by $P_f C_f$:

$$K_f^i = (\gamma_c^i/\gamma_w)^{-\sigma} P_f C_f/(\gamma_w A_n), \tag{103}$$

$$P_f Y_f^i = (\gamma_c^i/\gamma_w)^{1-\sigma} P_f C_f, \tag{104}$$

$$\Pi_f^i = P_f Y_f^i - K_f^i = (\gamma_c^i/\gamma_w)^{1-\sigma}[1 - \frac{1}{\gamma_c^i A_n}] P_f C_f, \tag{105}$$

where $P_f = \gamma_w A_n/A_f$ indicates the global price index for the finance-dependent sector f and $\gamma_w = [\sum_j (\gamma_c^j)^{1-\sigma}]^{\frac{1}{1-\sigma}}$ as in the baseline model. Note that $P_f C_f = (1-\hat{\theta})Y$, with Y representing the global income and $\hat{\theta} := \frac{\theta}{\theta + (1-\theta)P_f^{1-\varepsilon}}$.

As for sector n in country i, we can derive $K_n^i = \hat{\theta} Y^i/A_n$, $Y_n^i = \hat{\theta} Y^i$, and $\Pi_n^i = \hat{\theta} Y^i[1 - 1/A_n]$, with Y^i representing country i's income. Similar to the approach used in the baseline model, we use the world capital market clearing condition along with individual countries' balance of payments to derive Y^i and Y. This procedure yields relationships analogous to those in the baseline model, but with $\hat{\theta}$ replacing θ:

$$Y = \frac{\hat{\gamma_c} A_n M e}{\hat{\theta}\hat{\gamma_c} + (1-\hat{\theta})}, \tag{106}$$

$$Y^i = A_n e + (1-\hat{\theta})\left(\frac{\gamma_c^i}{\gamma_w}\right)^{1-\sigma}(1 - \frac{1}{\gamma_c^i})Y, \tag{107}$$

with $\hat{\gamma_c}$ defined in equation (36).

Since P_f, and therefore $\hat{\theta}$, are taken as given in a small open economy, all properties regarding relative sales and profits in country i—namely, $P_f Y_f^i/Y_n^i$ and Π_f^i/Π_n^i—mirror those in the baseline model with Cobb-Douglas utility. Specifically, sales of sector f relative to sector n decline with γ_c^i, and the same holds for relative profits, provided that σ is sufficiently

large such that $\frac{\sigma}{\sigma-1} \leq A_n$. Lastly, since sales and profits of sector f relative to n decrease with η_i in a closed economy if $\varepsilon \leq 1$, while they increase in a small open economy, we can conclude that the gap between sales and profits of sector f relative to n under free trade and those under autarky rise with η_i. Overall, a higher σ and a lower ε widen this gap.

D Financial Development and Comparative Advantage in Finance-Dependent Industries

In line with the literature (Beck, 2002; Becker et al., 2013; Hur et al., 2006; Manova, 2013; Svaleryd and Vlachos, 2005), here we document that financially developed economies have a comparative advantage in finance-dependent industries. We follow Costinot (2009) to measure revealed comparative advantage by running the following regression:[7]

$$\ln(x^i_{od}) = \alpha_{od} + \beta^i_d + \delta_o[\text{Fin Dep}]^i + \epsilon^i_{od} \ , \tag{108}$$

where x^i_{od} is the exports from the origin country o to the destination country d in industry i, and α_{od} and β^i_d capture origin-destination and destination-industry fixed effects, respectively. Here, $[\text{Fin Dep}]^i$ is the Rajan-Zingales external-finance dependence for industry i: the fraction of firms' investment cost not financed via cash flows. The origin fixed effects δ_o determine the pattern of cross-country comparative advantage in finance-dependent industries. To see why, take the difference-in-difference of the above regression to write

$$\text{E}[\ln(x^{i_1}_{o_1d}/x^{i_2}_{o_1d}) - \ln(x^{i_1}_{o_2d}/x^{i_2}_{o_2d})] = (\delta_{o_1} - \delta_{o_2}) * ([\text{Fin Dep}]^{i_1} - [\text{Fin Dep}]^{i_2}) \ . \tag{109}$$

This representation shows that countries with higher δ_o export relatively more in finance-dependent industries.

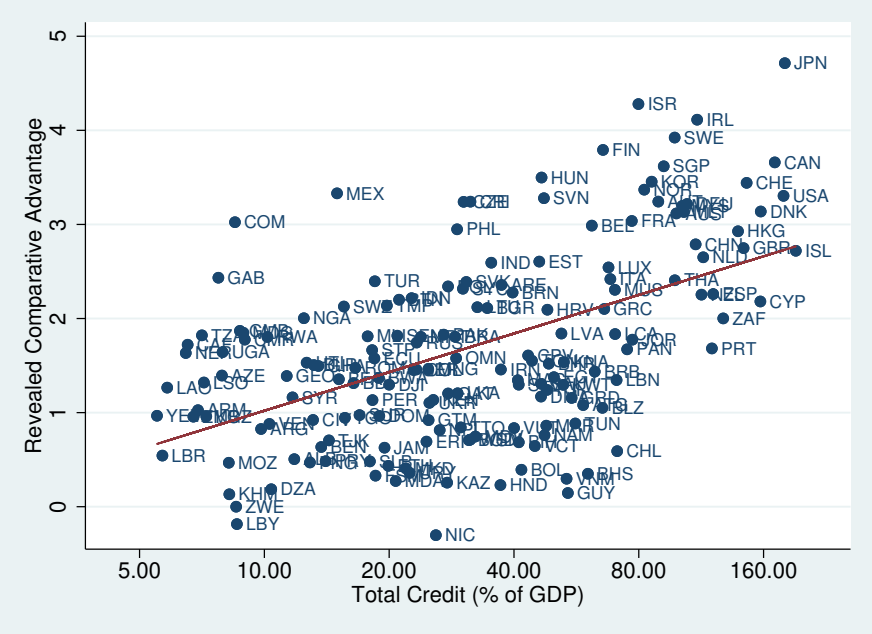
To run this regression, we use Comtrade import flows for 181 exporters and 169 importers in 27 three-digit ISIC manufacturing industries in 2005 (see details in appendix A).[8,9] Figure D.1 plots the estimated revealed comparative advantage δ_o against our main proxy for financial development (i.e., private credit (% of GDP)) in log scales. We confirm that more financially developed countries have a comparative advantage in finance-dependent industries. This result is robust to using our other proxies for finance dependence and financial development introduced above.

[7] The context in Costinot (2009) is different, as he estimates revealed comparative advantage in producing "complex" goods.

[8] Table A.3 lists the industries.

[9] Using data in 1995 or 2015 delivers the same pattern.

Figure D.1: Revealed comparative advantage in finance-dependent industries against financial development



Notes: The vertical axis measures revealed comparative advantage in finance-dependent industries using regression (108). The horizontal axis is our proxy for financial development, which measures total credit to private sector normalized by GDP, in the log scale. The slope of the linear fit is statistically significant, with the t-statistic being 7.78.

E Additional Tables and Figures

Table E.1: Alternative proxies for trade barriers

Panel a) Alternative tariff measures

log(Profits)	(1)	(2)	(3)	(4)	(5)
external-finance dependence	0.2386***	0.2457***	0.2786***	0.2290***	0.2164***
× financial development	(0.0435)	(0.0407)	(0.0633)	(0.0425)	(0.0441)
external-finance dependence	-0.0272	-0.0053	0.0087	-0.0137	0.0423
× trade barriers	(0.0382)	(0.0450)	(0.0454)	(0.0454)	(0.0443)
external-finance dependence	-0.1253***	-0.1503***	-0.0974***	-0.1011***	-0.1295***
× financial development	(0.0291)	(0.0330)	(0.0331)	(0.0326)	(0.0340)
× trade barriers					
FE − Industry & Country, by Year	✓	✓	✓	✓	✓
Observations	7647	7652	2590	7603	5891
Clusters (country×industry)	1735	1740	895	1740	1425

Panel b) Alternative trade openness measures

log(Profits)	(1)	(2)	(3)	(4)	(5)	(6)
external-finance dependence	0.3151***	0.3145***	0.2386***	0.2463***	0.2760***	0.2697***
× financial development	(0.0644)	(0.0692)	(0.0435)	(0.0435)	(0.0531)	(0.0527)
external-finance dependence	0.1036*	0.0990*	-0.0272	0.0275	0.0435	0.0790*
× trade barriers	(0.0596)	(0.0535)	(0.0382)	(0.0419)	(0.0430)	(0.0424)
external-finance dependence	-0.1116***	-0.0953***	-0.1253***	-0.1400***	-0.0781***	-0.0658**
× financial development	(0.0357)	(0.0360)	(0.0291)	(0.0317)	(0.0290)	(0.0282)
× trade barriers						
FE − Industry & Country, by Year	✓	✓	✓	✓	✓	✓
Observations	7631	7631	7647	7652	7631	7631
Clusters (country×industry)	1725	1725	1735	1740	1725	1725

Notes: This table presents the results of regression (1), where we conduct robustness checks regarding the proxy for trade barriers. In panel (a), as a proxy for trade barriers, column (1) uses trade-weighted average tariffs at the two-digit level, column (2) uses trade-weighted average tariffs at the entire manufacturing sector, column (3) replaces contemporaneous tariffs in column (1) with their five-year lagged values, column (4) employs *unweighted* average tariffs across all industries in the manufacturing sector, and column (5) excludes from the sample the three-digit industries in the top sales quartile. In panel (b), columns (1) and (3) use natural openness and two-digit average tariffs using both imports and exports, respectively, while columns (2) and (4) computes these measures using imports only. Column (5) employs the opposite of a country's manufacturing imports plus exports divided by GDP, while column (6) constructs a similar measure using imports only. As a proxy for finance dependence, we employ the Rajan-Zingales external finance dependence measure. As a proxy for financial development, we use the log of private credit by banks and other financial institutions (% of GDP). We normalize all proxies as described in Table 1. For further details on variable construction, see Section 2.1 and Appendix A. Standard errors are clustered at the industry-country level and reported in parentheses. $^{***}p < 0.01$ $^{**}p < 0.05$ $^{*}p < 0.1$

Table E.2: Alternative proxies for financial development

Panel a) Alternative proxies reflecting financial institutions development

log(Profits)	(1)	(2)	(3)	(4)	(5)
external-finance dependence	0.2386***	0.2525***	0.2259***	0.2595***	0.3012***
× financial development	(0.0435)	(0.0423)	(0.0483)	(0.0429)	(0.0517)
external-finance dependence	-0.0272	-0.0487	-0.0536	-0.0529	-0.0507
× trade barriers	(0.0382)	(0.0407)	(0.0421)	(0.0468)	(0.0493)
external-finance dependence	-0.1253***	-0.1100***	-0.1031***	-0.1514***	-0.1411***
× financial development	(0.0291)	(0.0315)	(0.0327)	(0.0288)	(0.0306)
× trade barriers					
FE − Industry & Country, by Year	✓	✓	✓	✓	✓
Observations	7647	7209	7526	5622	5671
Clusters (country×industry)	1735	1670	1683	1515	1564

Panel b) Aggregate proxies for the development of financial institutions and financial markets

log(Profits)	(1)	(2)	(3)
external-finance dependence	0.2943***	0.2772***	0.2514***
× financial development	(0.0451)	(0.0448)	(0.0423)
external-finance dependence	-0.0227	-0.0424	-0.0846**
× trade barriers	(0.0437)	(0.0379)	(0.0412)
external-finance dependence	-0.1093***	-0.1325***	-0.0672**
× financial development	(0.0369)	(0.0379)	(0.0304)
× trade barriers			
FE − Industry & Country, by Year	✓	✓	✓
Observations	7626	7626	7626
Clusters (country×industry)	1720	1720	1720

Notes: This table presents the results of regression (1), where we conduct robustness checks regarding the proxy for country-level financial development. In panel (a), as a proxy for financial institutions development, column (1) uses the log of private credit by banks and other financial institutions (% of GDP), column (2) uses a five-year lag of the log of private credit by banks and other financial institutions (% of GDP), column (3) uses financial system deposits (% of GDP), column (4) employs the opposite of banks' net interest margin, and column (5) uses the opposite of banks' overhead costs relative to total assets. Panel (b) uses IMF's financial development index, financial institutions development index, and financial markets development index in columns (1)-(3), respectively. As a proxy for finance dependence, we employ the Rajan-Zingales external finance dependence measure. As a proxy for trade barriers, we use trade-weighted average tariffs that a country imposes on its imports and that its trade partners impose on its exports at the two-digit ISIC level. We normalize all proxies as described in Table 1. For further details on variable construction, see Section 2.1 and Appendix A. Standard errors are clustered at the industry-country level and reported in parentheses. $^{***}p < 0.01$ $^{**}p < 0.05$ $^{*}p < 0.1$

Table E.3: Alternative proxies for industry-level finance dependence

log(Profits)	(1)	(2)	(3)
finance dependence	0.2386***	0.1523***	0.1686***
× financial development	(0.0435)	(0.0564)	(0.0581)
finance dependence	-0.0272	0.0249	0.0156
× trade barriers	(0.0382)	(0.0511)	(0.0572)
finance dependence	-0.1253***	-0.0843**	-0.0860*
× financial development	(0.0291)	(0.0345)	(0.0456)
× trade barriers			
FE − Industry & Country, by Year	✓	✓	✓
Observations	7647	7647	7647
Clusters (country×industry)	1735	1735	1735

Notes: This table presents the results of regression (1), where we conduct robustness checks regarding the proxy for industry-level finance dependence. Each observation represents a three-digit ISIC industry in a given country and year. The left-hand-side variable is the log of profits (i.e., value added minus the wage bill). As proxies for finance dependence, column (1) employs the Rajan-Zingales external finance dependence measure, column (2) uses asset intangibility, and column (3) uses capital intensity. As a proxy for trade barriers, all columns use trade-weighted average tariffs that a country imposes on its imports and that its trade partners impose on its exports at the two-digit ISIC level. As a proxy for country-level financial development, all columns employ the log of private credit by banks and other financial institutions (% of GDP). We normalize all proxies as described in Table 1. For further details on variable construction, see Section 2.1 and Appendix A. Standard errors are clustered at the industry-country level and reported in parentheses. $^{***}p < 0.01$ $^{**}p < 0.05$ $^{*}p < 0.1$

Table E.4: Alternative industry outcome variables

	(1)	(2)	(3)	(4)	(5)
external-finance dependence	0.2386***	0.2183***	0.2263***	0.2318***	0.2110***
× financial development	(0.0435)	(0.0754)	(0.0724)	(0.0389)	(0.0349)
external-finance dependence	-0.0272	-0.0324	-0.0532	-0.0366	-0.0367
× trade barriers	(0.0382)	(0.0660)	(0.0679)	(0.0343)	(0.0344)
external-finance dependence	-0.1253***	-0.1669***	-0.1289**	-0.0961***	-0.0883***
× financial development	(0.0291)	(0.0495)	(0.0523)	(0.0236)	(0.0210)
× trade barriers					
FE − Industry & Country, by Year	✓	✓	✓	✓	✓
Observations	7647	2709	3076	8377	9001
Clusters (country×industry)	1735	680	832	1822	2002

Notes: This table presents the results of regression (1), where we conduct robustness checks regarding the outcome variable. Each observation represents a three-digit ISIC industry in a given country and year. As the left-hand-side variable, column (1) uses the log of profits (i.e., value added minus the wage bill), column (2) uses the log of profits net of capital depreciation, column (3) employs a Tobit model with the same outcome variable as in column (2), column (4) uses the log of value added (without subtracting the wage bill), and column (5) uses the log of sales. As a proxy for finance dependence, we employ the Rajan-Zingales external finance dependence measure. As a proxy for trade barriers, we use trade-weighted average tariffs that a country imposes on its imports and that its trade partners impose on its exports at the two-digit ISIC level. As a proxy for country-level financial development, we employ the log of private credit by banks and other financial institutions (% of GDP). We normalize all proxies as described in Table 1. For further details on variable construction, see Section 2.1 and Appendix A. Standard errors are clustered at the industry-country level and reported in parentheses. $^{***}p < 0.01$ $^{**}p < 0.05$ $^{*}p < 0.1$