

Systemic Debt Crisis in the Global South: Beyond Dependency and Ineffective Relief

Mahmood Fakri¹ and Daniel Stockemer^{2*}

¹Konrad Adenauer Research Chair in Empirical Democracy Studies, School of Political Studies, University of Ottawa, Ottawa, Ontario, Canada

²Konrad Adenauer Research Chair in Empirical Democracy Studies, School of Political Studies, University of Ottawa, Ottawa, Ontario, Canada

*Corresponding author:

Daniel Stockemer,
Konrad Adenauer Research Chair in Empirical
Democracy Studies, School of Political Studies,
University of Ottawa, Ottawa, Ontario, Canada

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1. Abstract

The systemic debt crisis afflicting the Global South is rooted in deep-seated structural inequalities embedded within the international financial system. These inequalities, historically shaped by colonialism and perpetuated through asymmetric economic relations, have entrenched patterns of dependency that hinder sustainable development. Rather than addressing these foundational issues, responses such as Structural Adjustment Programs (SAPs) and conditional lending by International Financial Institutions (IFIs) have often intensified fiscal vulnerabilities, eroded national policy sovereignty, and prioritized creditor interests over domestic needs. Although debt relief mechanisms have been implemented, they largely fail to confront the underlying political and economic structures driving recurrent debt cycles. This paper argues that a meaningful resolution requires moving beyond short-term relief efforts to reimagine the global financial architecture in a manner that promotes equitable development, restores policy autonomy, and disrupts exploitative financial dependencies.

2. Introduction

The root cause of the Global South debt crisis lies in systemic inequalities in the international financial system, shaped by historical dynamics such as colonialism and structural dependencies that continue to marginalize the underdeveloped world. The advancement of external financing models through Structural Adjust-

ment Programs (SAPs) and conditional lending by International Financial Institutions (IFIs) exacerbated such challenges to undermine national policy autonomy. Debt relief initiatives already exist, but most do not focus on underlying structural problems, leading to developing economies becoming vulnerable to the cycles of poverty and external shocks. Economic nationalism offers a lens critical to analyzing all these dynamics, thereby highlighting skepticism toward IFIs and their neoliberal prescriptions. This perspective certainly advocates state-led development as an alternative to debt dependency. In addition to that, it prioritizes policies that certainly foster national production as well as protect domestic industries. Economic nationalist goals correspond with the rise of alternative lending sources, such as Chinese financing without neoliberal conditionalities, by expanding policy space for developing countries. Ultimately, economic nationalism ensures economic development benefits the nation and its citizens rather than serving external interests or global capital.

3. Colonial Legacies and Economic Dependency

Colonial legacies have greatly added to economic dependency in many developing nations. Extractive colonial policies were created to benefit European colonial states, often relegating Africa and other regions to an inferior position within the global economic system. These policies led to the absence of strong institutional and infrastructural capacities in the postcolonial era, obs-

tructing their ability to achieve economic development. For most of the Global South Countries, colonialism created a dependent economy. Dependency theory posits that developed “core” nations have historically structured the global capitalist system to extract economic surplus from underdeveloped “peripheral” countries, thus perpetuating the former’s development and the latter’s underdevelopment. “Raúl Prebisch, the Director of the UN Economic Commission for Latin America, argued that the economic activities of advanced countries” [1,2] often led to economic challenges in poorer countries due to unequal trade relations, where developing countries exported cheaper primary commodities and imported more expensive manufactured goods, leading to a spiral of economic losses and dependence [3,4].

4. Evolution of Debt Accumulation

Countless factors, including the pursuit of development agendas, global economic shifts, and the role of IFIs, have shaped the evolution of debt accumulation since the postcolonial era. Several developing countries sought large foreign aid in the post-World War II period. They additionally requested assistance from the US and former European colonial powers [5,6]. However, this aid was often aligned with the donor countries’ interests, potentially rendering recipient states passive and hindering the development of autonomous and self-reliant institutions. Since the postcolonial era, many developing countries have experienced recurring cycles of indebtedness. Following the 2009 world recession, the period saw a sharp increase in external debt, fuelled by low interest rates in advanced economies and loose global monetary policy. As a result, developing economies significantly increased their external borrowing in foreign currencies, mainly US dollars, making them highly vulnerable to subsequent devaluations and higher local currency costs of servicing this debt [6,7]. Monetary tightening in the US triggered the debt crisis of the early 1980s, which is similar to the current debt crisis in the Global South. This historical parallel underscore the continued vulnerability of developing countries to external economic shocks emanating from the Global North. By the 2000s, some sub-Saharan African states had accumulated debt levels equivalent to around 100% of their GDP, with annual debt servicing exceeding the entire foreign aid package [8,9]. This historical progression highlights the persistent challenges of debt accumulation and management faced by developing countries since gaining independence from colonial rule.

5. The Role of Global Financial Institutions

The role of global financial institutions, mostly the IMF and World Bank, has been meaningful in shaping the debt crisis in the Global South through their SAPs and conditional lending practices. In the 1970s and 1980s, these institutions advocated, faced with slowdowns, for SAPs that stressed free market development, macroeconomic stabilization, and privatization as preconditions for loans. Rooted in a neoliberal comprehension of economic development, SAPs required developing countries to adopt trade li-

beralization, financial deregulation, budgetary austerity, and privatization policies. While these reforms could be considered essential, they insufficiently addressed the social dimensions of development and the institutional weaknesses of developing countries. Furthermore, SAPs have been described as institutional, failing to understand the local market’s specific workings and culture’s influence [8,9]. The practice of such lending has also now extended to reforms, creating a paradox where governance becomes a condition and objective of assistance. Despite many attempts to streamline conditionality, the principle linking of aid to policy that changes has persisted. While IFIs have acknowledged several limitations of financial leverage as well as moved towards a more selective aid allocation [10], the historical impact of SAPs, as well as conditional lending, remains a factor in understanding the systemic nature of debt accumulation and the constraints on domestic governance in the Global South. Notably, some sources contrast this Western model of conditional finance with Chinese finance, which is often provided without such neoliberal conditionalities [11]. Consider Ghana, where SAP conditions led to harmful social and economic outcomes. The imposition of many trade liberalization policies weakened local industries, while specific budgetary austerity measures reduced certain public services, exacerbating social inequalities and obstructing long-term development [12].

6. A Comparative Analysis of Chinese Loans Versus Western Financing on Development

Throughout history, Western development financing, in general, channelled through the Bretton Woods Institutions, has been deeply intertwined with the rise and dominance of more neoliberal economic thought. As mentioned, using more SAPs became a true hallmark within Western lending [13,14]. The rationale behind conditionality was that reforms were vital in promoting growth and stability in countries. For instance, the Berg Report did attribute African development failures to state intervention. It did so in the early 1980s and advocated market liberalization. However, these general one-size-fits-all approaches often fail to account for borrowing countries’ specific contexts, institutional capacities, and the social consequences of borrowing countries [15,16].

Furthermore, focusing on macroeconomic stabilization sometimes came at the expense of long-run development goals and could even exacerbate social inequalities. While the World Bank and IMF state they have streamlined conditionality to focus on policies critical to macroeconomic objectives, the underlying principle and its impact on developing countries’ policy autonomy remains significant. Though IFIs have pursued governance reforms, extending into legal and judicial areas, the effectiveness of these technocratic approaches is questioned. Some argue that state reform politics and the political economy of institutional development receive insufficient consideration. In response to debt crises, the orthodox approach championed by Western institutions has often involved austerity measures and further structural adjustments (Fischer &

Storm, 2023). Even after the COVID-19 pandemic, the IMF has stressed the need for countries to return to pre-pandemic spending levels. The IMF often conditions its loans on plans for future spending cuts, including eliminating subsidies and privatization. These loan conditions can lead to a “debtor’s prison” scenario where countries are forced to prioritize debt repayment through budget surpluses, often at the cost of crucial public spending and investment needed for long-term development. Debt forgiveness has been another tool utilized within the Western financing framework. The Heavily Indebted Poor Countries (HIPC) initiative and similar programs aim to provide debt relief to the most vulnerable. However, policymakers and economists continue to debate the effectiveness and selection criteria for debt forgiveness. Concerns exist about moral hazard, where the expectation of future bailouts might reduce a recipient country’s incentive to improve tax mobilization. Furthermore, the allocation of debt forgiveness does not always align with purely economic rationales, and factors like strategic political concerns or humanitarian crises can play a role [13,14]. However, policymakers and economists continue to debate the effectiveness and selection criteria for debt forgiveness, questioning its long-term impact and fairness [15]. The debate over debt forgiveness has been a key attraction for many developing countries, offering them greater policy autonomy in pursuing their development objectives, including using industrial policy instruments. China emphasizes filling infrastructure gaps and financing large-scale, integrated projects in sectors critical for economic transformation, such as energy, transport, and industry. This “Big Push” logic, involving bundled loans for multiple projects, addresses creditworthiness issues in often “non-bankable” areas. China has rapidly emerged as a major official provider of development finance, even surpassing the World Bank and IMF in volume by 2017 [9]. This significant increase in available financing provides developing countries with alternative sources of capital beyond traditional Western donors and institutions. However, Chinese development finance is not without its critics and potential downsides. Concerns have been raised about debt sustainability and the potential for countries to fall into debt distress, although the narrative of “debt-trap diplomacy” has been contested [11]. Chinese trade and investment relationships can lead to deindustrialization in recipient countries, and Chinese development projects primarily benefit Chinese companies. Furthermore, while not imposing obvious policy conditionalities, China’s financing decisions and project focus can still shape the development trajectories and create new forms of dependency, such as reliance on Chinese-built infrastructure or trade imbalances [13,12].

7. Comparative Analysis: Zambia, Ghana, and Rwanda

Comparing Chinese loans for development reveals traits. Western financing in Zambia, Ghana, and Rwanda sparks debates. Zambia and Ghana have both experienced recent debt distress. For ins-

tance, Zambia defaulted on its external debt in 2020 and struggled with the crisis in 2023. Ghana followed suit by defaulting in 2022. These situations highlight the broader debt crisis in the global South, not solely attributable to one type of financing. The current debt crisis, affecting countries like Zambia and Ghana, has similarities to the 1982 debt crisis but also differences, with a greater role for portfolio debt (like Eurobonds, often Western-centered in issuance) compared to the bank lending that characterized the earlier crisis. In contrast, Rwanda presents an interesting case as a non-resource-rich, aid-dependent country that has nonetheless attracted Chinese patronage and investment. China is not the major donor to Rwanda, but it offers an alternative to the conditionalities of traditional (Western) donors. Notably, Chinese financing in Rwanda tends to focus on constructing physical infrastructure, such as the Prime Minister’s office, special economic zones, stadiums, and roads. This focus on Chinese investment in infrastructure contrasts with traditional aid, which might involve more direct fund transfers. However, China’s trade and investment patterns in Africa, including with Rwanda, can replicate colonial-era dynamics by focusing on raw material imports in exchange for manufactured goods, potentially leading to dependent economies. The “debt-trap diplomacy” narrative has also been raised in the context of Chinese lending, though some studies suggest this might be overstated and influenced by geopolitical rivalries [14,15]. Despite aid dependency, Rwanda has shown an ability to maintain policy autonomy from donors. Understanding the developmental impact requires considering the source of financing (Chinese vs. Western), the terms, conditions, focus (e.g., infrastructure vs. other forms of aid), and the recipient country’s agency and economic structure. Many argue that the rise of China expands the development policy space for countries in the Global South by providing finance free of neoliberal conditionalities associated with Western finance [14].

8. Comparative Analysis and Implications for Development

The sharp difference between the conditional lending of Western institutions and the largely non-conditional approach for Chinese financing has meaningful implications for the policy space available for developing countries. Western financing has constrained fiscal and industrial policies, while Chinese financing offers further autonomy. The differing focus concerning lending – with Western institutions often stressing governance reforms as well as private sector development alongside infrastructure, while China prioritizes large-scale infrastructure plus real sector investments – can lead to different development outcomes along with patterns relating to dependency. The approaches differ in the context of a debt crisis. Also, the methods differ contextually. Fairly standard Western responses commonly involve spending cuts and adjustments, which may have detrimental social and economic consequences. China is evolving its role in debt restructuring; its participation in frameworks like the Common Framework has encountered diffi-

culties, sometimes being a source of delay, not consensus. Debt entanglements highlight the complex and multi-layered relationships created through public borrowing at various scales [5]. Western and Chinese financing contribute to these entanglements, shaping borrowing countries' economic structures and ideological landscape. The idea of the state as both a borrower from international institutions and a lender to its citizens, as seen in the case of the Colombian Agrarian Bank, illustrates the multifaceted nature of debt and its role in shaping the developmental state and societal relations. The international financial subordination (IFS) perspective stresses the unequal authority structures within the global economic system [9]. Whether they borrow from Western or Chinese sources, developing countries often operate within a framework of subordination, where external actors considerably influence their economic policies and developmental trajectories.

9. Debt Crisis and Everyday International Political Economy (IPE)

The theories and dynamics in the context of the Global South's debt crisis are not abstract concepts confined to international institutions and government policies. They manifest in tangible ways affecting everyday life in developing and developed nations. Understanding these connections helps illustrate IPE's relevance and impact on daily experiences.

10. Debt Sustainability and the Role of Local Financial Institutions

Examining debt sustainability requires assessing both the macroeconomic policies of borrowing countries and the lending practices of creditor nations. Certain debt levels depend on a country's ability to generate adequate export revenues, attract stable foreign direct investment, and effectively manage fiscal deficits. Weak institutional capacity, corruption, and volatile commodity prices have taken such efforts. These circumstances lead to unsustainable debt burdens in many developing countries. Local financial institutions have a vital role in reducing debt crises. Strengthening domestic banking systems, promoting financial inclusion, and developing local capital markets can reduce reliance upon external borrowing [10]. For instance, countries such as Botswana and Mauritius have diversified economies. They have, too, built strong financial sectors, improving resilience to external shocks and debt vulnerabilities. Local banks inside several poorer nations meet significant issues, for example, scarce funds, rules that restrain, plus little skill at running tricky items. Certain factors often can obstruct their ability to provide adequate financing for local domestic enterprises and infrastructure projects, thus perpetuating the need for external borrowing [11].

11. Financial Inclusion and Access to Credit

Financial inclusion, the ability of certain people and certain businesses to access affordable and usable financial services, is important for promoting economic development and reducing po-

verty. Access to credit enables entrepreneurs to start and expand businesses, invest in education and healthcare, and improve their living standards. Millions of people in poorer nations cannot get vital monetary resources like banking, credit, and assurance. The structure of the global financial system, shaped by IFIs and creditor nations, influences access to credit and financial inclusion in developing countries. High interest rates, collateral requirements, and limited access to formal banking services can hinder entrepreneurship and economic development. Microfinance institutions (MFIs) have become key players in promoting financial inclusion by providing small loans and other financial services to low-income individuals and microenterprises [13]. However, MFIs often face challenges in scaling up their operations and reaching remote or marginalized communities. Innovative financial technologies (fintech), such as mobile banking and digital payment platforms, offer new opportunities to expand financial inclusion and reduce financial services' costs. By leveraging technology, developing countries can leapfrog traditional banking infrastructure and reach underserved populations. However, fintech solutions also bring problems, like cyber risks, private data worries, plus regulatory rules that push innovation while keeping consumers safe [2].

12. Alternative Development Models

Alternative development models prioritizing domestic resource mobilization, industrial diversification, and regional integration can offer a pathway to sustainable development and reduced debt dependency. For example, the East Asian developmental state model, characterized by strategic state intervention, export-oriented industrialization, and close collaboration between the public and private sectors, has enabled countries like South Korea and Taiwan to achieve rapid economic growth and reduce their reliance on external financing. Regional integration initiatives, such as the African Continental Free Trade Area (AfCFTA), can promote intra-African trade, diversify export markets, and foster regional value chains. These initiatives can enhance debt sustainability and promote inclusive growth by reducing dependence on traditional export commodities and enhancing regional economic cooperation. Microfinance and social entrepreneurship also play a critical role in promoting inclusive development and reducing poverty. By providing access to credit and business development services for marginalized communities, these initiatives can empower local entrepreneurs, create employment opportunities, and reduce reliance on external aid and borrowing [8].

13. Conclusion

The debt crisis in the Global South is a multifaceted issue rooted in historical dependencies, exacerbated by the conditional lending practices of Western institutions, and now influenced by the rise of Chinese financing. While Chinese financing offers increased policy autonomy, it is not without potential risks. A balanced approach that considers the unique context of each country promotes

sustainable development. It ensures equitable outcomes, essential for addressing the systemic challenges of debt in the Global South. Addressing the debt crisis requires a comprehensive approach integrating macroeconomic stability, institutional reforms, and alternative development models. Developing countries can reduce their reliance on external borrowing and build more resilient and inclusive economies by promoting domestic resource mobilization, diversifying economies, and fostering regional cooperation.

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