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Theme:

The Impact of the Exchange Rate Behaviour on Foreign Direct Investment

(Empirical Evidence on Emerging Markets)

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To

My

beloved parents

Garbi and Fatima

Brother Nasreddine Zohir

Sister Mokhtaria

Chiraz

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Introduction

In an old tale, six blind men have come into contact with an elephant for the first time. They are curious to know what is it like. The first blind man touches its side and says an elephant is like a hard wall. The second puts his hand on the trunk and disagrees, saying an elephant resembles a giant snake. The third blind man touches its tail and compares the animal to a fuzzy piece of rope. The fourth feels the legs and says the elephant is like four tree trunks. The fifth touches the ear and describes it as soft carpet. The last blind man touches the tusk and proclaims an elephant to be sharp like a spear. Confused that they all had come to radically different conclusions, they seek a wise man to ask which one of them has it right. He tells them that they are all right. The reason, he explains, is that each of you has 'seen' only one part of the elephant. To ascertain the truth, you must see the whole animal.

Open trade, competitiveness and emergence of global markets for standardized consumer products are the commercial reality which has driven the world business with high magnitude of change in the economy and consumer culture. Technology, by accelerating communication, transport and travel drives the world toward a converging commonality.

Well-managed companies have moved from emphasis on customizing items to offering globally standardized products that are advanced, functional, reliable and low priced. They benefit from enormous economies of production scale, distribution, marketing and management. Such dynamism in the business and related activities portrays the functional concepts of globalization. While sometimes globalization is endorsed as primarily a synonym for global business, it deepens and broadens linkages of national economies into a worldwide market for goods, services and especially capitals as a major characteristic.

Foreign Direct Investment (FDI) has been considered as striking feature of increased international economic integration which all countries are actively seeking to attract it for the expected favorable income from capital inflows, advanced technology, management skills and market know-how. As a result, national governments are lively

looking for a better understanding of its determinants, impacts and implications.

FDI's rapid growth has raised a number of policy issues and significant attempts to explain its trends. By 2006, inflows of FDI reached more than 1.3\$ trillion approaching level similar to the record level observed in 2000 of 1.4\$ trillion ¹, with more than half of these flows received by businesses in developing countries. One of the many influences on FDI activity is the behavior of the exchange rate. Exchange rates, defined as the domestic currency price of a foreign currency, matter both in terms of their levels and their volatility. Exchange rate can influence both the total amount of foreign direct investment and its distribution across a range of countries.

When a currency depreciates, meaning that its value declines relative to the value of another currency, this exchange rate movement has two potential implications for FDI. First, it reduces that's country wages and production costs relative to those of its foreign counterparts. In fact, the country experiencing real currency depreciation has enhanced "locational advantage" or attractiveness as a location for receiving productive capacity investments. By this relative wage channel, the exchange rate depreciation improves the overall rate of return to foreigners contemplating an overseas investment project in this country².

In addition to this argument, volatility of exchange rate also matters for FDI activity. Theoretical arguments for volatility effects are broadly divided into production flexibility arguments and risk aversion arguments.³ In the production flexibility argument, the important presumption is that producers can adjust their use of a variable factor following the realization of a stochastic input into profits. Without this variable factor, i.e. under a productive structure with fixed instead of variable factors, the potentially desirable effects on profits of price variability are diminished⁴. By the production flexibility argument, more

See World investment Prospects Survey 2007-2009, p07.

² The exchange rate level effects on FDI through this channel rely on a number of basic considerations. First, the exchange rate movements need to be associated with change in relative production costs across countries. Second, the importance of the "relative wage "channel may be diminished if the exchange rate movements are anticipated.

³ For more details see second chapter: Exchange rates and Foreign Direct Investment, p68.

⁴ Aizenman nicely demonstrated that the extent to which exchange rate variability influences foreign investments hinges on the sunk costs in capacity, i.e. the extent of investment irreversibilities, for more detail see Aizenman, J in Exchange Rate Flexibility, Volatility and Patterns of Domestic and Foreign Direct Investment, p890-922.

volatility is associated with more FDI ex ante, and more potential for excess capacity and production shifting ex post after exchange rates are observed.

The alternative approach linking exchange rate variability and investment relies on risk aversion approach. According to this argument, the investors require compensation for risks that exchange rate movements introduce additional risk into the returns on investment. Higher exchange rate variability lowers the certainty equivalent expected exchange rate level⁵. If exchange rates are highly volatile, the expected values of investment projects are reduced, and FDI is reduced accordingly.

Overall, the current state of knowledge is that there is an emerging consensus that FDI is a common method of engaging in international business and it has been one of the most dynamic components of the world economy in recent decades. For that the search of policies and measures aiming to attract this kind of investment is a crucial and vital thought. In this study, the impact of this variable on FDI is examined through its: depreciation, appreciation and volatility in order to be aware of how should this macroeconomic variable be a factor of FDI attraction.

This study is conducted with the following broad and narrow objectives:

Broad:

To examine how should FDI be attracted by the exchange rate behavior.

Narrow:

To highlight the increasing importance and beneficial scope of foreign direct investment decision.

To explore and identify the main channels by which FDI boosts economic development.

To find out the challenges and obstacles confronted by developing countries especially vis-a-vis this phenomenon considered as main driver of economic development in world today.

⁵See Cushman, D .O in Exchange Rate Uncertainty and Foreign Investment in the United States, p322-334.

Research questions:

The study attempts to analyze the behavior of the exchange rate on FDI conducted by the following research issue:

How does the exchange rate fluctuation affect really FDI flows?

Hypotheses:

In line with the issue, the following hypotheses are presented:

- 1. An expected devaluation of local currency (host country currency) lowers FDI inwards.
- 2. FDI rises when devaluation occurs.
- 3. Exchange rate volatility discourages FDI.

Method and structure of research:

This thesis deals with the issue through both the theoretical and empirical study. The theoretical one focuses on foreign direct investment by stressing on its various definitions, determinants, valuations and different effects.

The impact of the exchange rate behavior is dealt through a survey comprising the models used, the theories adopted and the major findings.

The empirical study held on US FDI flows to a sample of 16 emerging markets using panel data for the period 1994-2006. Three variables are utilized to capture separate exchange rate effects. The bilateral exchange rate to the US \$ captures the value of local currency (a higher value implies a cheaper currency). Changes in real effective exchange rate index (REER) for expected changes in the exchange rate: an increasing (decreasing) REER is interpreted as devaluation (appreciation) being expected. The transitory component of bilateral exchange rates is a proxy for volatility of local currency. The empirical study supports the "Chakrabati" and "Scholnick" hypothesis claiming that, *ceteris paribus*, there is a negative relationship between the expectation of local currency depreciation and FDI flows while cheaper local currency (devaluation) attracts FDI as volatile exchange rates discourages FDI.

Research difficulties:

The main problems of this study are enrolled on two major points:

- 1. The rarity of the Arabic and French literature survey in this field.
- 2. Learning and writing in English language is not an easy task.

Chapter I:

Foreign Direct Investment

Foreign direct investment (FDI) is considered as one of the forces for globalization fostering the economic interdependence among countries. The importance and rapid increase of FDI flows has generated a considerable debate about its conceptual ground and several empirical studies surrounding on its determinants, incentives and implications to both home and host countries.

In this chapter, the following ideas are analyzed:

- 1- Definitions of FDI.
- 2- Theories of FDI.
- 3- Components and valuations of FDI.
- 4- Effects of FDI.

I- Definitions and Concepts:

I-1. Main concepts and definitions of FDI:

Foreign direct investment is a category of investment that reflects the objective of establishing a lasting interest by a resident enterprise in one economy (direct investor) in an enterprise (direct investment enterprise) that is resident in an economy other than of direct investor¹.

From this definition, the following ones can be suggested:

Foreign Direct Investment enterprise²:

FDI enterprise is an *incorporated* or *corporated* enterprise (including a branch) resident in one economy which an investor resident in another economy owns either directly or indirectly 10% or more of its voting power. This *ownership share* of voting power is regarded as the necessary evidence that the investor has sufficient influence on the *firm's management* and makes a relationship between the direct investor and direct investment enterprise.

Foreign Direct Investor³:

Foreign Direct Investor is an *entity* (institutional unit) resident in one economy that has acquired directly or indirectly at least 10% of the voting power of an enterprise resident in another economy. A direct investor could be classified to any sector of the economy and may be one of the following forms:

(i) An individual.

- (ii) A group of related individuals.
- (iii) An incorporated or unincorporated enterprise.
- (iv) A public or private enterprise.
- (v) A group of related enterprises.
- (vi) A government body.
- (vii) An estate, trust or other social organization.
- (viii) Any combinations of the above.

About the branch establishments as a main feature of FDI see the survey study of Nirmal Kumar Chandra on FDI and domestic economy: neolibiralism in China, p3195-3212.

² See John B. Cullen and K. Praveen in International Business: Strategy and Multinational Company, p118.

³ See Peijie Wang ,The Economics of Foreign Exchange and Global Finance , p396.

I-1.1. Some theoretical definitions:

Another definition known as the IMF / OECD benchmark definition⁴, it considers FDI as an international venture⁵ in which an investor residing in the home country acquires a long term influence in the management of an affiliate firm in the host economy.

BOP (balance of payment) Manuel⁶ defines **FDI** as investments made to acquire a lasting interest by a resident entity in an enterprise located in another economy.

Hymer (1960)⁷ saw **FDI** as a mean of transferring knowledge and other firm assets both tangible and tacit in order to organize production abroad.

Caves (1971) and Dunning (1958)⁸ saw **FDI** as a way of exploiting ownership advantage.

Vernon (1966) ⁹used the product life cycle concept to theorize that firms set up production facilities abroad for products that have been already standardized and mature in the home market.

Rugman (1979)¹⁰ saw FDI as a way of risk diversification.

Dunning (1983)¹¹ based his **FDI** definition on the **OLI** acronym (ownership, location and internalization) to analyze why and where **MNEs** invest abroad.

Kogut (1983)¹² saw **FDI** as an *organizational assets* and knowledge *transfer*.

⁷ See D Sethi, SE Guisinger, SE Phelan and DM Berg in Trends in Foreign Direct Investment Flows: a theoretical and empirical analysis, p316.

⁴ See Report of the Committee on Compilation of Foreign Direct Investment in India: Balance Of Payment Manual, p03-04-05.

For more details see Michael Du Pont in Foreign Direct Investments: a case study of China and Poland about the Chinese international ventures, p118-119-120-121, Adj.Prof.Marting Haemmig in The case for international venture firms, p01-07, Jianfa Shen ,Kwan-Yiu Wong ,Kim Yee Chu , Zhiqiang Feng in The spatial dynamics of foreign investment in the Pearl River Delta , South China , p312.

Balance of Payment Manual, p41.

⁸ To more understanding of the ownership paradigm see John H. Dunning and Sarianna M.Lundan in Multinatinational enterprises and the global economy, p95-102.

⁹ For more detail see Loannis Komninos in Product Life Cycle Theory Management , p4-18 , John .B.Cullen and K .Praveen in International Business , p106-107-108-109.

For more detail about how can the international diversification offers to a multinational firm significant risk reduction advantages see Alan M. Rugman in Risk Reduction By International Diversification, p75-80.

The ownership and location specific variables are significant keys explaining the industrial pattern and the geographical distribution of the firms as the more the ownership specific advantages possessed by an enterprise, the greater the inducement to internalize and the wider the attraction of foreign base will be, for more detail see John H. Dunning, Toward an eclectic theory of international production: some empirical tests, p09-31.

Krugman Obstfield ¹³(2000) defined FDI as an international capital flow from a firm in one economy which creates a subsidiary in another country or allows a firm to obtain a controlling interest in a foreign firm.

FDI is defined as:

- Establishing a new company or branch of a foreign company (Greenfield investment¹⁴).
- Share acquisitions¹⁵ either by capital markets where the foreigner owns 10% or more of the shares as a voting power. these shares have the following assets forms:
 - (1) Assets acquired from abroad by foreign investor:
- Capital in cash in the form of convertible currency bought and sold by the central bank.
- Stocks and bonds of foreign companies (other than government bonds).
- Machinery and equipment.
- Industrial and intellectual property rights.
 - (2) Assets produced in the host country:
 - -Reinvested earning, revenues, financial claims or any other investment related rights or financial value.
- -Commercial rights for the exploration and extraction of natural resources.

To understand the organizational assets FDI definition which based on the International activities coordination of the multinational and why they invest abroad see Bruce Kogut in International business: the new bottom line, p152-163 and how can this coordination benefits multinationals to operate in a high flexibility degree in the uncertainty case see Bruce Kogut and Nalin Kutalitaka in Operating Flexibility, Global Manufacturing and the Option Value of a Multinational Network, p123-137. For the firm's transferring knowledge see Bruce Kogut and Udo Zander in Knowledge of the firm, combinative capabilities and replication of technology, p383-396, how this knowledge be transferred (the knowledge process transfer) see Jack Baranson in Technology transfer through the international firm, p 435-440 and Transfer of technical knowledge by international corporations to developing economies , p259-267.

13 See Paul R. Krugman and Maurice Obstfeld in International Economics : theory and practice , p 169-171-172.

¹⁴ For more detail about Greenfield investment mode over the acquisition process see Thomas Muller in Analysing Modes of Foreign Entry: Green field investment versus Acquisition, p01-19 and Holger Gorg in Analysing Foreign Market Entry: The Choice Between Greenfield investment and Acquisitions , p01-27.

¹⁵ To understand the firm's shares acquisition motives and how to increase operating efficiency process within financial market see Stanley B. Block and Geoffrey A. Hirt in Foundations of Financial Management, p567-609.

I-2. History of FDI:

FDI's history can be analyzed through three distinguished stages:

First stage: Nineteenth century to the interwar period of the twentieth century: 16

This period was characterized by the *British financing* of the economic development processes of other countries which took the form of lending (ownership *financial assets*).

Godley 1999 analyses the kinds of FDI in Britain prior to 1890 which were primarily in the consumer goods, but they mostly failed due to the narrow focus and the perspective just on how to access British market .One exception was the Singer manufacturer Company which emerged as a modern MNE.

From 1890 *Godley* showed that investments in Britain were driven entirely to the *manufacturing sectors* which were registered an unprecedented bulk.

Second stage: Interwar period to 1980¹⁷:

In this period Britain lost its status as a major world creditor, ceded the place to the USA which emerged as an economic and financial power.

After Second World War, FDI started to grow for two reasons:

- 1. Technological: improvement in transport and communications (exercising *control* from a distance).
- 2. The need of European and Japan countries for US capital to finance reconstruction following the damage inflicted by the war.

¹⁶ Cases of Foreign investment in British manufacturing and the pioneering entrants characteristic by sectors are showed in detail study of Andrew C. Godley in Pioneering Foreign Direct Investment in British Manufacturing , p 394 -429 , and The Market Share of Foreign Multinationals in British Retailing : 1850-1962 , p 41-47.

For deep understanding of the US post war economy and the various implications of new deal which enhanced the prosperity and investments forms see report of President Harry S. Truman in We Must Build a New World, A Far better world, one in which the external dignity of man is respected, p 258-257, and Imaad A. Moosa in Foreign Direct Investment: theory, evidence and practice, p 16-17, the idea saying that US is the best soil to do business in the world and the statistics related to FDI in US from 1950 is tackled by President George W. Bush in The US Litigation environment and Foreign Direct Investment, p01-16.

By 1960 appeared various factor giving rise to a reversal of FDI trend growth as: resistance of several host countries to the US ownership and control of local industry leading to a slowdown of outflows from USA. Another factor arose when some host countries started to initiate FDI in USA leading to decline the net outflows from the USA.

In 1970, Britain emerged as a major player in **FDI**'s game as a result of *North Sea Oil* surplus and the abolition of *foreign exchange* control in 1979.

Third stage: 1980 to 1999 18

The 1980 witnessed two major changes:

The first was that the US became a net debtor country and major recipient of FDI with a negative net international investment position. The prime reasons for this were the low saving rate in the US economy leading to impossibility to finance budget deficit and exhibited a great need to foreign capitals (Japan, Germany), don't forget the Appreciation of the US dollar in the second half of 1980 and the restrictive policy trade adopted by the USA.

Other major change was the emergence of Japan as an important supplier of **FDI** to **US** and Europe taking the *cheap labor costs* as a major motivation¹⁹.

The surge of **FDI** in general was attributed to the business globalization and the emergence of "managed trade" suggested that **FDI** benefits both **MNE** and host countries, that's why a great tolerance towards **FDI** was flourished.

The period 1990-1992 ²¹ registered a fall of **FDI** flows but a strong rebound took place, this was due to the following reasons:

1. The emergence of smaller firms as multinationals.

¹⁸ The competitiveness of US and the FDI trends from 1980 are clearly shown in Assessing Trends and Policies of Foreign Direct Investment in the United States, US department of commerce working paper, p01-12.

The approaches of Japanese FDI bulk in 1980 especially in the US are analyzed by Young Kwan Yoon in the political economy of transition: Japanese Foreign Direct Investment in the 1980s, p01-27 and John A. Tatom in Currency Appreciation and Deindustrialization: A European Perspective, p01-42.

For more details about managed trade see Joshua Aizenman , FDI as a commitment mechanism in the presence of managed trade , NBER Working Paper Series , p01 -28.

The factors driving the growth of FDI in this period and after are vividly analyzed with statistics in John H. Dunning: Multinational enterprises and global economy, p 17-18-19-20-21-22-23 (FDI general trends).

- 2. The diversity of **FDI** sectors (the increasing share of service sector)²².
- 3. The rise of countries interconnected in FDI's game (both host and home).
- 4. The recognition of **FDI**'s benefits as an important driver to economic growth, that's why several countries created *incentives* through *deregulation* and *privatization processes*.
- 5. the emergence of $M&A^{23}$ as the driving force behind **FDI**.

In 1998, the number of treatises avoiding double taxation reached 1871²⁴

In 1999, some changes were introduced to host governments strengthening the trend toward *liberalization*, protection and promotion of **FDI**²⁵.

To bridge briefly the scope of FDI services see Claudia M. Buch and Alexander Liponner in FDI versus cross border financial services: the case of german banks (FDI in financial sector: which banks expand abroad and which form of entry mode they choose), p1-52, and about the analysis of FDI services based on degrees of service sector openness estimation see Joseph Francois, Bernard Hoeckman and Julia Woerz in Does Gravity Apply to Intangibles? Trade and FDI in services, p1-15, How is relevant theory of FDI from FDI service theory and how can we distinguish the discrepancies between service trade and service FDI approaches see Rashmi Banga in Trade and Foreign Direct Investment in Services: A Review, p01-46.

A very enjoyable chapter handles the historical background of ACER corporation pursuing an evolving internalization process becoming now a Dragon Multinational merits to be read in Dragon Multinational: A New Model for Global Growth of John A. Mathews, p55-80, to know how do we make the best from the M&A Tsunami see Merger & Acquisition Magazine of Boardroom Briefing, p04-46, for factors driving M&A flows see the empirical study of Julian Di Giovanni in What Drives Capital Flows? The Case of Cross Border M&A Activity and Financial Deepening, p01-47.

²⁴See Imad A. Moosa in Foreign Direct Investment: theory, evidence and practice, p18.

²⁵ See UNCTAD World Investment Report 2006 FDI from Developing and Transition Economies: implication for development, p

I-3. Types of FDI:

In this field, it's distinguished between the *investor perspective* and the *host country*'s one.

From the *investor perspective*, **FDI** can be classified to: *vertical*, *horizontal* and *conglomerate* **FDI**²⁶.

1. Vertical FDI:

The theory of Vertical FDI finds its origins with Helpman (1984) ²⁷ supported by Hekcher Ohlin model ²⁸ showing that differences in production stages especially in their factor intensities in one hand and differences in factor endowment between countries in the other lead to vertical disintegration by firms. In vertical FDI, we find one or more stages of production outside the market where the final goods are sold. This type is driven by cost saving motives and is supposed to involve an element of complementary between the firms domestic and foreign operations. Vertical FDI may be backward (exploiting raw materials purpose) or forward (acquisition of distribution outlets: marketing approach).

2. Horizontal **FDI**²⁹:

Is undertaken to exploit certain oligopolistic or monopolistic ³⁰ advantages (patents for example), it's thereby a production expansion to produce a similar product abroad as in the home country. This type is

This FDI classification was adopted by Caves R.E in International Corporations: The Industrial Economics of Foreign Investment, p01-27.

About the implications of circumstances in which corporations find it more profitable to be multinational and the interactions of simultaneous existence of intersectoral trade, intra-industry trade and intrafirm trade see Elhanan Helpman in A Simple Theory of International Trade with Multinational Corporations, p451-471.

The relationship between initial factor endowments differences and trade patterns in the steady state and how can this difference leads to an integration into a world trading system see Kazumishi lwaza , Toru Kikuchi and Koji Shimomura in A Dynamic Chamberlin-Heckscher-Ohlin Model with Endogenous Time Preferences : A Note , p01-27 , to describe both the effects of a country 's factor endowments on the commodity composition of its trade and the effects of trade related changes in good prices on factor prices see Adrian Wood in A Practical Hecksher Dhlin model , p01-26.

The Vertical entry mode is supported in an empirical study on relatively skilled labor and capital scarce country Mexico (correlation between skill differences and FDI) of Andreas Waldkirch in Vertical FDI: A Host Country Perspective, p1-35.

For more detail about the importance of Horizontal Merger, complexities and motivations of this entry mode kind see Milford B. Green and Robert G. Gromley in The Horizontal Merger: its motives and spatial employment impact, p358-370.

To grasp how the oligopoly advantage is a prime causal factor behind foreign direct investment (exchange of threat) see

To grasp how the oligopoly advantage is a prime causal factor behind foreign direct investment (exchange of threat) see Edward M. Graham in Oligopolistic imitation, Theories of Foreign Direct Investment and European Direct investment in the United States, p01-78, the nice story of Knickerbocker about the oligopolistic reaction is discussed to show why and when firms follow rivals in foreign market see Keith Head, Thierry Mayer and John Ries in revisiting Oligopolistic reaction: Are FDI Decision Strategic Complements?, p01-24. The monopolistic reaction affects the probability of firm's exit as this latter decreases with its current size, For more detail see José Mata and Pedro Portugal in The Survival of new Domestic and Foreign Owned Firms, p 326-327, how do the firms maximize profits under monopolistic competition see Stephen Enke in Profit Maximization Under Monopolistic Competition, p 317-326.

driven by market seeking motives³¹ and could be expected to involve substitution between the MNE's foreign and domestic activities.

3. Conglomerate FDI: involves both vertical and horizontal FDI.

Another classification approach:

From Chen and Ku (2000),³² FDI can be classified to:

- 1. Expansionary FDI: seeks to exploit FSA (firm specific advantages).
- 2. Defensive FDI: seeks cheap labor in the host country.

From the host country perspective, **FDI** is classified to:

- 1. Import substituting **FDI**: indicates the production of goods previously imported by the host country, this type is determined by: the host country market, transportation costs and trade barriers.
- 2. Export increasing **FDI**: this type looks for sources of inputs (raw material for example) and it's interpreted by the host country as a factor to increase their exports of raw materials to the investing country.
- 3. Government initiated **FDI**: this type is enhanced when the government offers incentives to foreign investors in order to eliminate balance of trade deficit for example (both economical and political approach).

Another classification: Kojima's view (1973, 1975, 1985): 33

FDI may be:

1. Trade oriented FDI: generates excess demand of imports and excess supply of exports.

2. Anti – trade oriented **FDI**: has an adverse effect on the original terms of trade.

³¹ See Kee Hwee Wee in Outward Foreign Direct Investment by Enterprise From Thailand, p 01-28.

³² See Chen, T.J and Ku, Y.H in The Effect of Foreign Direct Investment on Firms Growth: The Case of Taiwan's Manufacturers, p153-172.

³³ See Kojima, K In A Macroeconomic Approach To Foreign Direct Investment, p1-12, International Trade and Foreign Direct Investment: Substitutes or Complements? , p01-12.

The conducive factors to horizontal **FDI**³⁴:

- 1. Bigger market size of the host country.
- 2. Smaller plant-level fixed cost (smaller plant level scale economies).
- 3. Larger trade costs.

The conducive factor to vertical **FDI**³⁵:

1. Differences in production factors endowment as to minimize costs.

Another approach FDI types classification:

FDI may be classified to: 36

- 1. Natural resource seeking FDI.
- 2. Market seeking FDI.
- 3. Efficiency seeking FDI.
- 4. Strategic asset seeking FDI.

See Kazuhiko Yokota and Akinori Tomohara in A Decomposition of Factors Influencing Horizontal and Vertical FDI: A Separate analysis, p01-21.

³⁵ The Same, p01-21.

For more details see: John H. Dunning in Multinational Enterprises and The Global Economy, p 64-78, an empirical analysis on Canadian Industry level data showing the FDI motivation s and its relationship with domestic capital formation concluded that FDI is primarily motivated by market access and factor price differences and on the role of intra firm trade, for more detail see Walid Hejazi and P . Pauly in Motivation for FDI and Domestic Capital Formation, p282-289.

These types are shown schematically in the table below:

FDI types	Definitions
	FDI resource seeking tries to utilize
FDI resource seeking	a specific country's comparative
	advantage (raw materials, cheap labor cost).
FDI market seeking	FDI market seeking tries to satisfy
	foreign market demands via local production or by expanding to market outside its home market.
	The important factors of market
	seeking strategy are:
	 Market size. Market growth.
FDI efficiency seeking	FDI efficiency seeking tries to
	rationalize the structure of
	production units by integrating
	assets, production and markets:
	specialization, production and
	geographical processes (Dunning 1995).
FDI strategic asset seeking	FDI strategic asset seeking tries to
	protect or increase its existing
	ownership advantages and /or
	reduce those of its competitors (Dunning 2000).

Table: FDI types and definitions.

Source: compilation of the student.

FDI Classification based on its determinants is schematically revealed in the table below:

	Markets	Size; income levels, urbanization; stability and growth prospects; access to regional markets, distribution and demand patterns.
Economic conditions	• Resources	Natural resources, location.
	Competitiveness	Labour availability, cost, skills, trainability; managerial technical skills, access to inputs; physical infrastructure; supplier base, technology support.
Host country policies. • Private • Trade	Macro policies	Management of crucial macro variables, ease of territance; access to foreign exchange
	Private sector	Promotion of private ownership, clear and stable policies; easy entry/exit policies: efficient financial markets, other support.
	Trade and industry	Trade strategy, regional integration and access to markets, ownership controls, competition policies; support for SMBs.
	FDI policies	Ease of entry, ownership, incentives, access to inputs, transparent and stable policies.
• Risk	Risk perception	Perceptions of country risk, based on political factors, macro management, labour markets, policy stability
MNE strategies	Location, sourcing, integration transfer.	Company strategies on location, sourcing of products/inputs, integration of affiliates, strategic alliances, training, technology

Table: FDI classification based on its determinants.

Source: Joon Wang Cho, Foreign Direct Investment: determinants, trends inflows and promotion policies, p 100.

FDI may be also classified as follow:

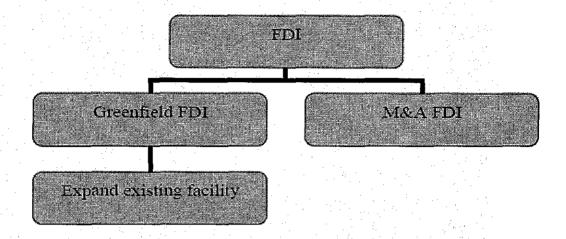


Exhibit: FDI Types

p412.

Source: Peijie Wang, The Economics of Foreign Exchange and Global Finance,

FDI may be classified on factors impacting its trend as the exhibit shows:

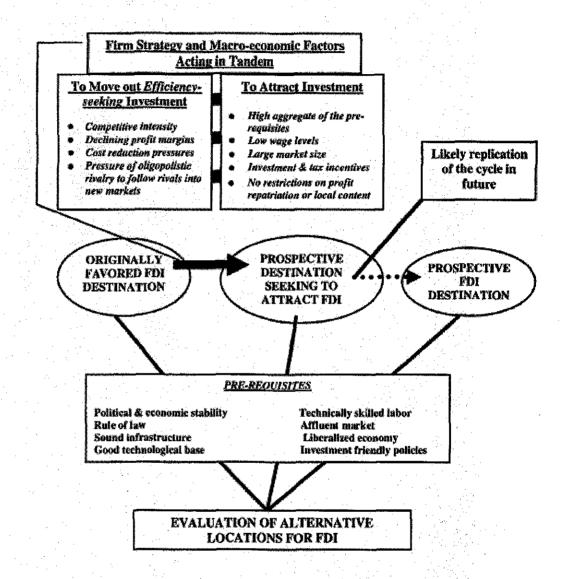


Exhibit: FDI Classification on trend factors.

Source: Deepak Sethi, S.E Guisinger, S.E.Phelan and D.M.Berg in Trends in Foreign Direct Investment Flows: A Theoretical and Empirical Analysis, p 320.

I-4. The multinational enterprises:

Simply speaking: firms become multinationals when they undertake FDI.

The multinational companies are major signs of the economic globalization³⁷, where production activities are carried out by these firms both at home and abroad by establishing a presence in foreign countries via: subsidiaries³⁸, associates³⁹ and branches⁴⁰ Instead of carrying one flag, these MNCs have many flags and many homes.

MNE in a strictly legal sense can be defined as a collection of corporate entities, each having its juridical identity and national origin, but each in some way connected by a system of centralized management and control normally exercised from the primary seat of ownership.

Several criteria are joined for assessing the degree or intensity of an enterprise's multi- or *transnationality*, these include:

- 1. The number or size of foreign affiliates⁴¹ or associates companies it owns or exercises control over.
- 2. The number of countries in which it owns or in some way controls value added activities such as mines, implantations, banks and so on.
- 3. The proportion of its global assets, revenue, income or employment accounted for by its foreign affiliates.
- 4. The degree in which its management or ownership is internationalized.
- 5. The extent in which it's higher value activities (research and development for example) are internationalized; we speak about the quality or depth of foreign production and the degree of new knowledge creation.

³⁷ See John Mathew, Dragon Multinationals: a new model for global growth, p25.

A subsidiary is an incorporated enterprise in the host country in which another entity directly owns more than a half of a shareholder's voting power and has the right to appoint or remove a majority of the members of the administrative, management or the supervisory body.

An associate is an incorporate enterprise in the host country in which an investor owns a total of at least 10% but not more than a half, of the shareholder's voting power.

⁴⁰ A branch is a wholly or jointly – owned unincorporated enterprise in the host country which takes the form of permanent office of the foreign investor or an unincorporated partnership or a joint venture. A branch may also refers to land, structures, immovable equipments and mobile equipment (oil drilling and ships) operating in the country other than the investor's country.

⁴¹ UNCTAD (1999) lists that multinationals comprise over 500000 foreign affiliates established by some 60000 parent firms.

- 6. The extent and the pattern of the systematic advantages arising from its governance of, and influence over a network of economic activities located in different countries.
- 7. The responsibility's extent for the creation and usage of institutions and assets (the devolution degree of decision making as financial and marketing issues to foreign affiliates).

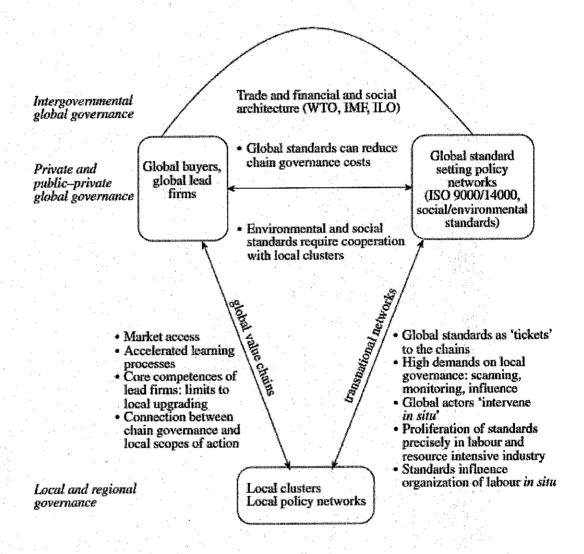


Exhibit: The World Economy Triangle.

Source: Hubert Schmitz, Local Enterprise and The Global Economy, p 23.

This exhibit shows clearly that MNEs are the predominant player in the world economy by their strong controlling power over both global value chains and transnational networks.

Parker (1974)⁴² classified 613 largest MNE into three distinguished categories according to three economic criteria: size, geographical spread and the extent of foreign involvement of the firm to:

MPE2 which represents firms with more than five foreign subsidiaries or more than 15 per cent of total sales realized abroad.

MPE1represents firms that have 2-5 subsidiaries or 5-15 percent of sales produced abroad (these kinds of firms are less globally oriented comparing with the first one).

Not MPE which represents the rest of the firms.

Dorrenbacher (2000) proposes MNCs classification based on the following indicators:

- 1. Structural indicators: including the number of countries where the firm is active, the number of foreign subsidiaries, the number of stock market where the firm's shares are listed and the number of employees.
- 2. Performance indicators: foreign sales and operating incomes of foreign subsidiaries.
- 3. Attitudinal indicators: include management style and international experience of top management.

We can find in the literature other classifications based on other indicators as: the transnationality index of UNCTAD⁴³, the transnational spread index of Iettio-Gillies (1998)⁴⁴, the degree of internationalization scales Sullivan (1994)⁴⁵...

⁴³ The transnationality index is based on three ratios: foreign sales to total sales, foreign assets to, total assets, foreign employment to total employment, for more understanding see John H Dunning, The multinational enterprises and the global economy, p 61.

This index is calculated by multiplying the average of the ratios used in the transnationality index by the number of foreign countries in which the firm is active.

This indicator is based on the ration of foreign sales on total sales, foreign assets to total assets, the number of foreign subsidiaries to total subsidiaries, the international experience of top managers, the dispersion of international operations.

⁴² See Imad Moosa in Foreign Direct investment: theory, evidence and practice, p07, the typology of MNEs is more significant to reduce the complexity of multinational organizational management and to denote properly different kinds of MNEs: Polycentric ,Geocentric , Ethnocentric ... for more understanding see Anne Will Harzing in An Empirical Analysis and the extension of the Batelett and Goshal typology of Multinational Companies , p 101-120.

I-4.1 The main characteristics of MNE:

The MNCs are recognized by some major salient features such as:

- 1. The MNCs predominance in certain monopolistic and oligopolistic industries (take into account the marketing and technology importance).
- 2. The advance of MNCs techniques of production⁴⁶ which is catered to consumers with relatively *high incomes* and *sophisticated tastes*.
- 3. The organizational evolution of MNCs leading to *centralization* of functions as finance, marketing and research.
- 4. The increasing implication of MNCs on social political power in developed and developing countries.

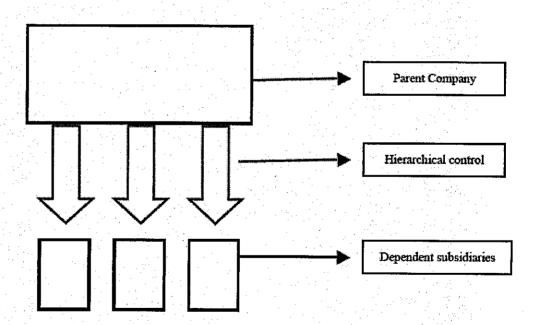


Exhibit: Simple MNE Hierarchy Structure.

Source: Muzaffer Eroglu, Multinational Enterprises and Tort Liabilities (an interdisciplinary and comparative examination), p46.

 $^{^{46}}$ Grubaugh (1987) used an econometric model supporting the importance of R&D as a firm's probability to become an MNC.

II. Theories of Foreign Direct Investment:

The growing importance of FDI leads to a sizeable body of literature dealing with various dimensions of the trends and determinants of FDI flows.

Theories of FDI can be evaluated in terms of several different criteria. One is whether each theory is logically consistent, the second is how well predicts out of sample observations and especially how well each theory provides an explanation for the sharp changes in the country patterns of FDI .Most theories of FDI are under-determined 47 and deal only partly with observed trends which limits the possibility of explaining new trends and limits the tested validity of each hypothesis.

Agarwal 48 (1980) suggested that: there is no one but a number of competing theories with varying degrees of power to explain FDI.

These theories can be ranked through four distinguished headings⁴⁹:

Theories assume perfect markets, theories assume imperfect market, other theories of FDI and theories based on other variables.

- II.1 Theories assume perfect market: this head covers three hypotheses:
 - 1. Differential rate of return hypothesis⁵⁰:

this hypothesis considers FDI as a kind of capital flows, so it moves between countries according to return rates between them (from low rates of return to high rates of return) in such a way as to

⁴⁹ This classification was suggested by Lizondo in Foreign Direct Investment in International Monetary Fund, Determinants and

Because FDI is known by its heterogeneity and complexity including many variables and considerations: economical, financial, political, social... for more detail see Maggie X. Chen and Michael O. Moore in Location Decision of Heterogeneous Multinational Firms, p01-46 and Kazunobi Hayakawa, Toshiyuki Matsuura in Complex Vertical FDI and Firm Heterogeneity: Evidence from East Asia ,p02-37.

⁴⁸ See Agarwal. S in Determinants of Foreign Direct Investment: A Survey, p739-773.

Systematic Consequences of International Capital Flows, p68-82.

50 Weitrub analyzes the relationship between Inter-country differences in the rate of return and the flows of US capital , for more detail see Weintrub ,R in Studio Emprico Sulle Relazioni di Lungo Andare Tra Movimenti di Capitali Rendimenti Differnziali ,p401-405 and Bandara, White whose rejected the hypothesis of differential rate of return as a major factor of capital movement for more detail see Bandera , V.N and White J.T in US direct Investments and Domestic Markets in Europe , p117-

equate the marginal return on and the marginal cost of capital (the rate of return is the sole variable of investment decision)⁵¹.

2. The diversification hypothesis⁵²:

According to this hypothesis, the choice among various project is therefore guided not only by the expected rates of return but also by risk (correlation between return and risk).

3. The market size hypothesis⁵³:

This hypothesis suggests that **FDI**'s volume is determined by the host country's *market size* which is measured by the sales of **MNC**s in that country or by the country's **GDP**.

II.2 Theories assuming imperfect market: include the following hypothesis:

1. The industrial organization hypothesis⁵⁴:

According to this hypothesis, when a firm establishes a subsidiary in another country it faces several disadvantages (differences in language, culture, legal system...) in competing with local firms, but these disadvantages can be overcome if the MNCs exploit its *intangible assets* (well –known, brand name, patent protected technology, managerial skills...) in such a way to arise advantages from its location abroad (other conception of the comparative advantage theory).

This Hypothesis finds its basis in the portfolio selection and investment efficient diversification of Markowitz (1959) and Tobin (1958), a brief survey is introduce d by Guofu Zhou in Understanding the role of Diversification, p01-04.

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Balasse surgested that a coefficient of the coefficient o

⁵¹ This claim finds its historical background in the absolute advantages theory of Adam Smith (1723-1790).

Balassa suggested that a sufficiently large market allows for the specialization of the factor of production and consequently the achievement of cost minimization , for more detail see Balassa ,B in American Direct Investment in The Common Market , p121-146. Measures of market size by MNEs sales or the country GDP is popularly represented by Jorgenson in a generalized model of Chenery , and Koyck , for more detail see Jorgenson , D.W in Capital Theory And Investment Behavior , p247-259 and Chenery , H.B in Dvercapacity And The Acceleration Principle , p01-28.

For more understanding of the industrial organization Hypothesis see Rajneesh Narula in Multinational Investment and Economic Structure, a books deal with the relationship between the multinational industrial organization and foreign direct investment based on Hymer (1976), Kidnelberger (1969) and Caves (1982) theories in this field.

2. The internalization hypothesis⁵⁵:

This hypothesis explains why firms use **FDI** in preference to exporting and importing from other countries and why they are so shy to offer licensees. The answer could be found in such marketing costs when it's preferable to save them by forming a new firm. For example, if there are problems associated with buying oil products on the market, a firm may decide to buy a foreign refinery.

3. The location hypothesis ⁵⁶:

According to this hypothesis, **FDI** exists because of the *international immobility of some factor of production* (labor, natural resources), this immobility creates differences in the *cost of production factors*. An major example of this is the low wages as a prime determinant of **FDI** locations⁵⁷.

II.3 Other theories of foreign direct investment: under this title, the following ones are suggested:

1. The eclectic theory: (**Dunning** 1977, 1978, 1988)⁵⁸:

This theory try to explain **FDI** basing on three hypotheses: the industrial organization hypothesis, the internalization hypothesis and the location hypothesis but the way of this hypothesis interrelation remains a matter.

According to this theory, the three following hypotheses must be satisfied if a firm wants to engage in FDI.

The original argument of the internalization hypothesis put by Coase stated that forming a plant in foreign soil saved different costs as the marketing ones, for more detail see Coase, R.H in The Nature of The Firms, p386-405, Buckley and Casson proposed creating internal market hypothesis especially in market imperfection cases in order to reduce costs relating to intermediate products bypass to foreign soils, for more detail see Buckley, P.J and Casson, M in Foreign Market entry: A Formal Extension of Internalization Theory, p849-876.

Horst used this hypothesis (the location hypothesis based on the immobility of some production factors) to analyze US FDI in Canada ,see Horst ,T in The Industrial Composition of US Exports and Subsidiary Saies to The Canadian Market , p37-45,

Various empirical studies concluded that wages differentials are major determinant of FDI location, for example Riedel found that lower wages costs were more significant determinant factor of export—oriented FDI in Taiwan, see Riedel, J in The Nature And Determinants of Export—Oriented Foreign Direct Investment in a Developing Country: A Case Study of Taiwan, p505-528.

See John H. Dunning in The Multinational Enterprise and The Global Economy, p95-103.

1.1. The industrial organization hypothesis:

This suggests that a firm may have comparative advantages over other firms by the ownership of some intangible assets (the ownership specific advantages) like: particular technology or monopoly power⁵⁹ for example. These advantages increase both the wealth creating capacity of the firm and the value of its assets.

1.2. the internalization hypothesis:

This hypothesis refers to the choice between the expansion within the firm or selling the rights to the means to other firms. According to this conception, **FDI** occurs if the specific ownership advantages can be profitably internalized⁶⁰ (it's beneficial for the firm to use these rights by itself rather than selling or leasing them).

1.3. The location hypothesis:

this hypothesis answers to the question of whether expansion is best accomplished at home or abroad, so it's in global interest of the firm to use *location specific advantages* in conjunction with at least some factor inputs located abroad.

⁵⁹ To understand monopoly power within markets see Philip Nelson in Monopoly Power, Market Definition and the Cellophane Fallacy, p01-20.

The internalization process and measures are clearly discussed in Are Proxies Valid Measures of Internalization? of Paul Kalfadeilis and Judy Gray, p02-20.

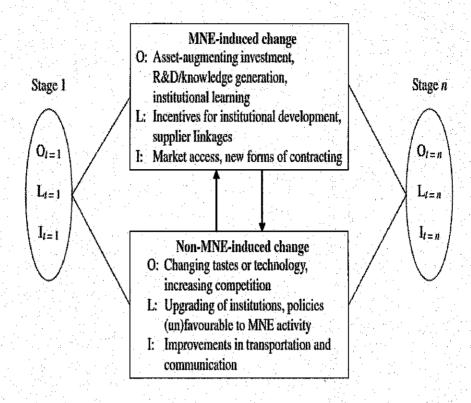


Exhibit: Some dynamic OLI paradigm from the perspective of MNEs.

Source: John H. Dunning: The Multinational enterprise and the global economy, p319.

2. The product life cycle theory (A technology innovation view):

Vernon (1966)⁶¹ seemed to explain the Post –World War II product development innovation in the US and the eventual migration of the production of these products to low cost countries.

This theory is base on three important assumptions⁶²:

- (a) Communication costs within the firm and between the firm and the market are significant and increase with distance.
- (b) Production undergoes predictable changes in technology and market methods.
- (c) The market in technical Know-How is very imperfect.

 $^{^{61}}$ See Vernon .R in International Investment and International Trade in The Product Cycle, p 190-207.

⁶² See Thomas N. Gladwin and Ian H.Gidy in A Survey of Foreign Investment Theory, p 20-29.

This theory suggested that many manufactured products go through the following stages:

- (a) Introduction into the home market.
- (b) Export sales are added to domestic sales.
- (c) Foreign production begins in lower cost countries.
- (d) Domestic industry loses its competitive advantage in price and innovation.
- (e) Foreign competition serves the domestic market with imports.
- (a), (b) Represent which is called: new *product stage innovative* base⁶³, characterized by the need for coordination between R&D and production units and an inelastic price demand.

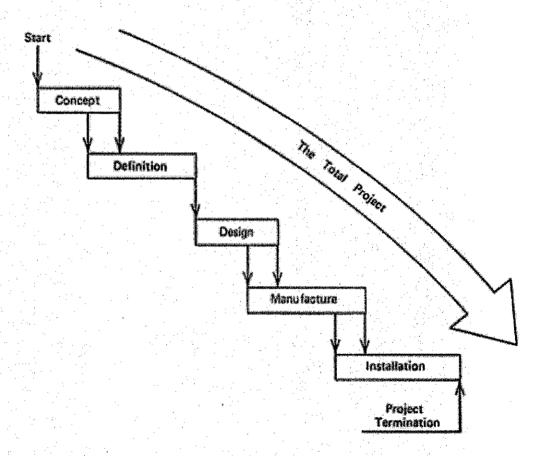


Exhibit: The Project Life Span including the Innovative Base (Start-Concept-Definition –Design).

Source: R.Maw Wideman: The Role of Project Life Cycle (Life Span) in Project Management, p 03.

For more detail about the innovative base stage see Jeffry.L Funk in The Product Life Cycle Theory and Product Line Management: The Case of Mobile Phones, p143.

- (c), (d) Represents the second stage market by the product's maturity when the firms become increasingly sensitive to routine production cost so it's not important for production to be close to the market (the firm's resort to FDI in order to meet local demand).
- (e) Represents the third stage where the product is completely standardized and the production processes are commonly known, the home country becomes net importer and the host country becomes net exporter.

The following exhibit shows these processes work over time:

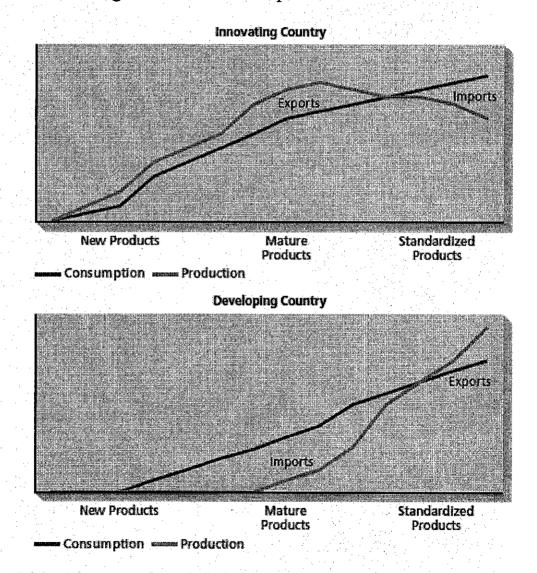


Exhibit: Vernon's Product Life Cycle Theory

Source: John B. Cullen and K. Praveen Parboteeah, International Business Strategy And The Multinational Company, p 108.

3. The oligopolistic reaction theory (Knickerbocker 1973):

According to this theory, the *oligopolistic reaction* increases with the level of *concentration*⁶⁴, in the field of **FDI** and decreases with the level of diversity of the product, that leads to a positive correlation between **FDI**'s profitability and the industrial concentration degree and a negative's one with the product diversity.

The inclusion of this theory implies that **FDI** is *self limiting*⁶⁵ because the invasion of each firm arouses the competition force in an attempt to maintain firms market shares and declines the oligopolistic reaction.

4. The internal financing theory⁶⁶:

This theory is based on the "gamblers earnings⁶⁷" of **Barlow** and **Wender⁶⁸** (1955) postulates that **MNEs** commit a modest amount of their resources to their initial investment, while subsequent subsidiaries are financed by reinvesting profits obtained from operations in the host country.

This theory is more appropriate for explaining **FDI** especially in developing countries for two reasons:

- (a) The rudimentary state and the inefficiency of capital markets.
- (b) The restrictions on funds movement.

The firm concentration level (the ownership concentration) and its effect on firms profitability and performance, how the ownership structure reduces the agency costs (separation between ownership and management) see an empirical study on firms from different manufacturing sectors in Pakistan of Attiya Y.Javid in Ownership Concentration, Corporate Governance and Firm Performance: Evidence From Pakistan, p01-22, other empirical study using panel data to show the effects of Ownership Concentration on Firm Performance see: John S. Earie, Csaba Kucsera and Almos Telegdy in Ownership Concentration and Corporate Performance on The Budapest Stock exchange: Do Too Many Cooks Spoil The Goulash?, p1-24, how the concentration be measured (discrepancies between traditional and contemporary measures)?, this question is tackled by James F. Oehmke and Christopher A. Wolf in Measuring Concentration in The Biotechnology R&D Industry: Adjusting for Interfirm Transfer of Genetic Materials, p134-139.

See George J. Stigler in A Theory of Oligopoly, p44.
 It means the utilization of profit generated by a subsidiary to finance the expansion of FDI, the project self- financing is a flourished study subject underlying the appropriate criteria and effects on the firms performance and profitability, details in Self- financing of council housing services: summary of findings of a modeling exercise, p13-S7.

While of the internal financing is lower, this leads to the existence of a positive relationship between internal cash flows and investment outlays.

⁶⁸ See Guy V.G.Stevens in The Multinational Firm and The Determinants of investments, p18 (Table), the internal financing and repatriated earnings affect FDI MNEs and host country incomes, for more detail see: Hartman D G in Tax Policy And Foreign Direct investment in The United States, p107-121.

5. The currency exchange rate area hypothesis and the effect of the exchange rate theory:

This theory explains **FDI** in terms of relative strength of various currencies, supposing that firms belonging to a country of strong currency tend to invest abroad (sources of **FDI**) while firms belonging to weak currency do not have such tendency (recipients of **FDI**). This theory was tested empirically by examining the relationship between the value of currency and the FDI flows that⁶⁹:

The overvaluation of currency leads to an FDI outflows.

The undervaluation of currency leads to FDI inflows.

Exchange rate is also important to **FDI** because this latter can be considered as an alternative of export as:

Depreciation of domestic currency leads to increase FDI inflows.

Appreciation of domestic currency leads to decrease FDI inflows.

The expectation of a reversed depreciation leads to increase FDI inflows.

⁶⁹ See Len J. Trevino , Franklin G. Mixon Jr in Strategic Factors affecting Foreign Direct Investment Decisions by Multinational Enterprises in Latin America, p236.

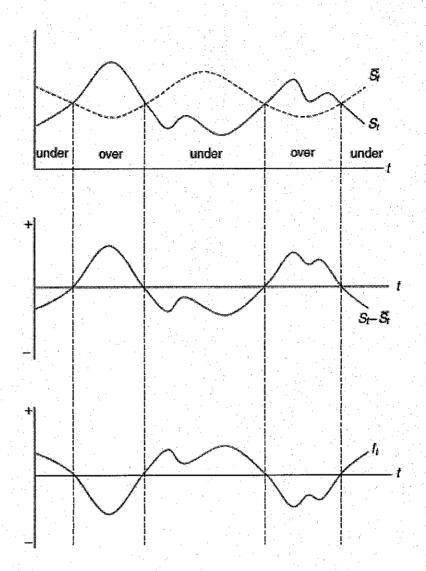


Exhibit: Relationship between undervaluation and overvaluation (misalignment), appreciation and depreciation changes in the exchange rate and FDI flows. Source: Imad A. Moosa, Foreign Direct Investment: theory, evidence and practice, p47.

Where:

St: the actual level of exchange rate.

 \overline{S}_t : the exchange rate level implied by purchasing power parity (PPP).

6. The theory of diversification with barriers to international capital flows⁷⁰:

This theory suggests that the international diversification can be accomplished through firms if:

- (a) There exist barriers or portfolio's costs greater than those associated with direct investment.
- (b) Investors recognize that multinational firms provide diversification opportunities that are otherwise unavailable.

Furthermore, the presence of capital flows barriers shows a strong systematic relationship between the extent of international involvement and excess market value (the firm stock prices).

7. The **Kojima** theory: 1973, 1975, and 1985⁷¹:

According to this theory, **FDI** is a mean of transferring capital, managerial skills from the source to the host country. *Kojima* classifies **FDI** to two kinds:

- (a) Trade oriented FDI generating an excess import demand and excess export supply
- (b) Anti trade oriented FDI: which has an adverse effect on the original terms of trade cited in the first kind.

In general, this theory is based on the complementarity between **FDI** and trade (more consideration to the comparative cost theory).

⁷⁰ See Agmon T. and Lessard D. R in Investor Recognition of Corporate International Diversification, p1049-1055.

⁷¹ See Kojima K in International Trade and Foreign Investment: Substitutes or Complements?, p01-12, A Macroeconomic Approach to Foreign Direct investment, p01-12 and Japanese and American Investment in | Asia: A Comparative Analysis, p01-35.

II-4 Theories based on other variables:

The theories fall under this heading are:

Political risk and country risk, tax policy, trade barriers, government regulations and strategic and long term factors.

1. Political risk and country risk⁷²:

Political risk represents the unexpected modification of the legal and fiscal framework of the host country (repatriation restriction on dividends to the parent firm, specific government that appear hostile to **FDI** ...) which drastically discourage **FDI** inflows.

Country risk is wider concept encompassing the former taking into account economic and credit indicators.

2. Tax policies⁷³:

There are three channels through which tax policies affect MNC's decision:

- (a) The tax treatment of income generated abroad (effect on net return of **FDI**).
- (b) The tax treatment of income generated at home (effect on net profitability of domestic and foreign investment).
- (c) The tax treatment on capital costs of domestic and foreign investment.

To show the interconnection between country risk and FDI on domestic and foreign company see the empirical study on Serbia Republic of Evica Petrović, Jelina Stonković in Country Risk and Effect on Foreign Direct Investment, p10-21, Ramcharan used the Euromoney index to measure the effect of political risk on FDI using regression analysis and cross section data for 26 countries for the years 1992-1993-1994, for more detail see: Ramcharan. H in Foreign Direct Investment and country risk, p49-58, what are the variables included to measure country risk and the interconnection between country risk, Greenfield investment and Acquisition are tackled by: Frank Hauser in Country Risk and Foreign Direct Investment in Transition Countries, p17-58.

p17-58.

For more detail about the corporate taxation reaction on FDI (the most exclusively studies focus) see: Agriès Bénassy –Quéré and Amina Lahrèche Révil in How Does FDI React to Corporate Taxation?, p3-22, another way of thinking based on the effect of indirect tax (non-income) on FDI by American Multinational Firms estimated that 10% higher local indirect taxes are associated with 7.1% lower affiliate assets which is similar to the effect of 10% higher income tax rates, for more details see Mihir A. Desai, C. Fritz Foley and James R. Hines Jr in Foreign Direct Investment in a world of Multiple Taxes, p2729-2743.

3. Trade barriers⁷⁴:

According to this theory, **FDI** may be undertaken to circumvent trade barriers as the increased threats of protection leads to greater **FDI** flows⁷⁵.

4. Government regulations⁷⁶:

The government regulations can be viewed through: incentives (fiscal incentives, financial incentives, market preferences, provision of information, low cost infrastructure...) to encourage **FDI** flows, or disincentives (various forms of restrictions) to restrict the MNC's activities.

Type of incentive	Ршрож	Elements
fiscal	to reduce the tax burden on the investor	tax credit, tax relief, tax rebate, exemption from customs duty, reduction of tax base, VAT exemption, accelerated depreciation, reinvestment allowance, loss accrual
financial	to provide direct financial assistance	Soft loans, grants, sovereign guarantee on investment credits, export guarantee, insurance and credit, subsidised funding for various purposes
Other	to increase the profitability/reduce the costs of the investment through non-financial means	preferential government contracts, real estate provided below market price, promotion of institutional investment, SME development programmes, customs free areas, special economic zones, industrial parks

Exhibit: Key FDI incentives in the narrow sense.

Source: Magdolna Sass, Competiveness and Economic Policies Related to foreign Direct Investment, p 11.

How does the integration effect (another approach of trade barriers) reduce border effect s on FDI?, an empirical study on 18 European Countries from 1995-2006 showing that reducing trade barriers of the host countries stimulated the horizontal multinational enterprise to substitute International trade for FDI and promoted bilateral FDI through reducing the distribution costs of products within the European Union (controversial view), for details see: Valeriano Martinez and Martga Bebgoa in Integration Effects And Trade Barriers: Does European Economic Integration affect Foreign Direct Investment?, p02-17.

Nice example of this is the Honda's establishment of production facilities into Ohio to circumvent the tariffs and quotas imposed by US government. The surge of FDI in Mexico is related to the desire of MNCs corporations to circumvent the trade barriers imposed by NAFTA, for more detail see Eun C. S AND Resnick B. G in International Financial Management, p394.

⁷⁶ About the host government various incentives see Magnus Blomström and Arl Kokko in The Economics of Foreign Direct Investment incentives, p01-21.

5. Strategic and long term factors 77:

There are some strategic factors putting forward to explain **FDI** as:

- (a) The strong desire from the investor to defend existing market share from competitors.
- (b) The need to induce the host country into a long commitment to a particular type of technology.
- (c) Competition for market share among oligopolistic and strengthening the bargaining positions.

⁷⁷ See Len J. Trevino and Franklin G. Mixon Jr in Strategic Fators affecting Foreign direct investment decisions by multinational enterprises in Latin America , p234-235-236.

Table: Some selected recent studies of FDI determinants.

Study	Issue under investigation	Findings
Goldberg and Klein (1997)	Effects of real exchange rate	A real depreciation of
	on FDI	currencies of Asian countries
		against the yen leads to an
		increase in FDI from Japan
		and a decrease in FDI from
		the USA.
Lehmann (1999)	Role of country risk	Political and economic risks
		are deterrents to FDI.
Clegg and Scott Green	Link between FDI and	New FDI is linked to
(1999)	European integration	conventional host
		characteristics whose effects
		vary considerably between
		groups of member countries.
Marinov and Marinova	Motives of foreign investors	Motives are related to the
(1999)	, host governments and host	strategic priorities of
	companies in Eastern Europe	investing firms.
Dunning and Dilyard (1999)	Explanation of FDI and	Determinants have common
	portfolio investment	and distinctive characters
TYPH 1 (1000)		.They are complementary.
Wilkins (1999)	Relationship between FDI	FDI and portfolio investment
	and portfolio investment	ratios have shown no
		consistency across countries
D 1 (1000)	Dalatinatinatina PDI	through time.
Ramcharran (1999)	Relationship between FDI	A significant relationship exists between FDI and
	and country risk	
		country risk (political and economic).
Kreinin et al (1999)	Motives for Japanese FDI	Many motives but securing
Kienini ei ai (1999)	Wiotives for Japanese 1 151	market share is the most
		important.
Okopsin (1999)	FDI by Singapore based	FDI is carried out only by
	firms	large firms or firms with
		monopolistic advantage.
Konishi et al (1999)	FDI and trade barriers	Firms can jump over trade
		restrictions by undertaking
		FDI.
Wu (1999)	Intra-urban FDI location in	Intra –urban FDI can be
	China	explained according to
		rational economic
		considerations.
Fosfurri and Motta (1999)	The argument that firms	Firms might invest abroad to
	embarking on FDI must	capture local advantages
	possess some advantage	through proximity of plant
the first control of the first	1	location.

Globerman and Shapiro	The effect of policy changes	Free trade agreements had a
(1999)	on inward and outward FDI	positive effect .Screening of
		projects had no significant
		effect.
Gyapong and Karikari	Causal relationship between	Impact of economic
(1999)	FDI and economic	performance on FDI depends
	performance in two African	on the strategy of the
	countries	investment.
Tuman and Emmert (1999)	Political and economic	Determinants include market
	determinants of Japanese	size, economic policies and
	FDI in Latin America	certain types of political
		instability.
Montiel and Reihart (1999)	Effect of capital controls on	Capital controls influence the
	the volume and composition	composition of flows, but
	of capital flows	sterilized intervention
		influences both volume and
		composition.
Mody et al (1999)	The choice of FDI location	Trade barriers do not drive
	by Japanese MNCs	Japanese FDI in Asia.
Das (1999)	Choice of entry mode	Riskiness of the project is a
		factor against joint venture
		In the absence of policy
		intervention, licensing is
		dominated by FDI or
Martin and Ottaviano (1999)	Locational factors	Ventures. High growth rates and
Wartin and Ottaviano (1999)	Locational factors	transaction costs are
함마 나는 이번 가장하다		associated with FDI.
Cleeve (2000)	Factors that determine	Wage differences are
C10676 (2000)	location of Japanese FDI in	unimportant .Production
	the UK.	growth is important.
Resmini (2000)	Determinants of FDI by EU	Heterogeneity ate sector
ACCOUNT (2000)	in the CEESs.	level.
Baumgarten and Haushmen	Location of US FDI in Latin	FDI decision is complicated,
(2000)	America.	containing variables of
		political market and social
		nature.
Gray (2000)	Effect on globalization on	Tendency for virtuous and
	developing countries.	vicious cycle is magnified.
Pitles (2000)	Theory of growth of MNEs	Growth results from
		endogenous factors and from
		external opportunities and
		threats.
	1	<u> </u>

Sanford and Dong (2000)	Influence of tourism on FDI	Significantly positive relationship between tourism and new FDI in the USA.
Traxler and Woitech (2000)	Labor market regimes are determinant of location	Investors do not assign high priority to labor market regimes.
Schoeman et al (2000)	Impact of fiscal policy on FDI in South Africa.	FDI flows are affected by fiscal discipline and tax burden on foreign investors.
List and Co (2000)	Relationship between location and environmental regulations	Environmental policies do matter.
Cheng and Kwan (2000)	Determinants of the location of FDI in China	Important determinants are regional market size, good infrastructure and
Thompson and Poon (2000)	Links between FDI and	preferential policy. Wage cost has a negative effect. Significant correlation
	regulatory change in Asian countries.	between reform expectations and FDI flows.
Sung and Lapan (2000)	FDI and exchange rate volatility.	With sufficient exchange rate volatility, firms can increase profits by opening several plants.
Ihrig (2000)	Effect of repatriation restrictions on FDI	Abolishing restrictions encourages FDI inflows.
Pistoresi (2000)	Location specific and policy related determinants of FDI in Latin America and Asia	FDI depends on economic and political factors.
Kosteletou and Liargovas (2000)	Relationship between FDI and Real exchange rate	Causality runs from real exchange rate to FDI in large countries with floating exchange rates .Bidirectional causality in other cases.
Kiyamaz and Taylor (2000)	Competition for FDI	When a country is not sure that a miserly offer will drive the firm to its rival, it may take the chance and nevertheless make a miserly offer.
Benacek (2000)	Determining factors of FDI inflows in the Czech Republic	Initially, foreign investors were not motivated by local human capital.
Zhang (2000)	Size of US FDI in China	Small size is a result of US investors 'preference for market access, china export promotion FDI regime,

			bilateral relations and
			political ins
Г	Donnefeld and Weber (2000)	Choice between FDI and	No simple relationship
		exports	between the size of tariffs
. 12			and the tendency to engage
			in FDI.
V	Vei (2000)	The effect of taxes and	A rise in either the tax rate or
		corruption on FDI	corruption in the host
			country reduces FDI.
G	luimaraes et al (2000)	Agglomeration as	Agglomeration economies
		determinant of FDI	are decisive location factors.
N	Marcelo Braga	Level of schooling	FDI is closely associated
N	Ionnemberg and Mario	economy's degree of	with stock market
J	orge Cardoso de	oppeness as major	performance.
N	Mondonca (2000)	determinants of FDI.	
S	ing and Leung (2001)	Effect of liberalization on	Policy changes are more
		FDI inflows	important for FDI than GDP
			growth rate or exchange rate
N	Ioshiriani (2001)	FDI in banking	Major determinants include
			bilateral trade banks, foreign
			assets, and cost of capital,
			exchange rates and other
			FDI.
A	anjum Aqeel and	Trade, fiscal and financial	All these variables are
N	Iohamed Nishat (2005)	sector liberalization as	significant determinants of
		determinants of FDI in	FDI.
		Pakistan .	
T	ayek Dong Yeo,	Labor cost, market size,	Trade oppeness and the
Y	Youngman Yoon, Min	trade volume, regulation	agglomeration are major
H	Iwan Lee and Chan Yeal	and agglomeration as	determinants of FDI while
L	ee (2006)	major determinants of FDI	regulation is a negative
		in Korea.	effect on FDI.
N	Iguyen Ngoc Anh and	Determinig factors of FDI	The imporatnce of market
N	guyen Thang (2007)	in Vietnam.	, labour and infrastructure
			as major deterinants of
			FDI flows.
O	zturk Ilhan and	Determining factor of FDI	Economic growth of host
K	alyoncu Husyein (2007)	in Turkey and Pakistan	country as a major
		(cross country	determinant of FDI.
		comparaison)	
A	sa Hansson and Karin	Taxes and agglomeration	Higer taxes deter FDI
	lofsdotter (2009)	as determinants of FDI in	flows.
		an enlarged European	
		Countries.	
		Commiss.	

Karimi Mohamed Sharif	Determining factors of FDI	There is no strong
and Yusop Zukkornain	in Malaysia .	evidence of a directional
(2009)		causality between FDI and
		economic growth.
Claudia M.Buch, Iris	Financial factors as	The importance of
Kesternish, Alexander	determinants of FDI.	financial factors for firms
liponner and Monika		to engage in FDI .The
Schnitzer (2010)		fiinancial frictions matter
		for this decision.

Source: Compiled by the student.

III- Components and valuation of FDI:

This part describes the *components*, accounts and scopes of foreign direct investment.

III-1. FDI Components:

The FDI components include:

- (a) Financial instrument components⁷⁸: this heading contains:
 - 1. Equity: common and preferred shares, reserves, reinvested earnings, dividends and undistributed branch earnings.
 - 2. Debt: marketable securities as bonds, debentures, commercial papers, promissory notes, non participating preference shares; and other non tradable security shares like loans, deposits, trade credit and other accounts payable / receivable.

In general FDI equity and debt are:

- 1. Financing provided by a direct investor to a directly or indirectly owned direct investment enterprise.
- 2. Financing received from directly or indirectly owned direct investment enterprise by a direct investor.
- 3. Financing provided by or fellow enterprises.

III-2. FDI accounts:

The FDI accounts include:

FDI positions, FDI transactions, FDI incomes and other changes.

- (a) **FDI** positions⁷⁹: FDI positions can be analyzed through the following principles:
- 1. FDI positions according to the asset / liability principle:

Six classes of **FDI** assets and six classes of **FDI** liabilities serving at the building blocks for the presentation of **FDI** statistics as in the following table:

⁷⁸ OECD Benchmark Definition of Foreign Direct Investment 2008, p 60.

⁷⁹ OECD Benchmark Definition of Foreign Direct Investment 2008, p 65.

Table: FDI position according to the asset /Liability principle.

Asuts	Liabilities
Of direct investors in direct linestment enterprises	Of direct investment enterprises to direct investors
A1. Equity	11 Equity
A2. Debt instruments	Le. Debt instruments
Of direct investment enterprises in direct investors (reverse	Of direct investor to direct investment enterprises (reverse investment)
investment)	
AS EQUITY TO THE PROPERTY OF T	(a) Equity
A4. Debt instruments	L4. Debt instruments
in fellow entarprises	To fellow orterprises
A6. Equity	L5. Equily
A5.1. If ultimate controlling parent is resident	L5 1.11 Ultimate controlling parent is por-resident
AS.2. If ultimate controlling parent is non-resident	L5.2. If ultimate controlling parent is resident
A6. Debt instruments	LG Debt instruments
A6.1. If ultimate controlling parent is resident	L6.1. If ultimate controlling parent is non-resident
A62. If ultimate controlling parent is non-resident	£8.2. If ultimate controlling parent is resident

Source: OECD Benchmark Definition of Foreign Direct Investment 2008, p65.

2. **FDI** position according to the directional (outward / inward) principle:

FDI outwards include the net asset of resident enterprise exerting control or influence on nonresident enterprises. **FDI** inwards include the net liabilities of resident enterprises controlled or influenced by nonresident enterprises. Outwards and inwards are schematically shown as follows:

Table: FDI position according to the directional principle.

Outward foreign direct investment	Inward foreign direct investment
Outward equity position:	Inward equity position:
M. Equity assets of DI in DIE	L1. Equity Habilities of DIE to DI
- L3. Equity liabilities of D1 to D1E* (reverse investment)	-A3. Equity assets of DIE in DI (reverse investment)
15.1. Equity assets in fellow enterprises abroad (if ultimate controlling	L5.1. Equity liabilities to fellow enterprises abroad
parent is resident)	(if ultimate controlling parent is non-resident)
L5.2. Equity liabilities to fellow enterprises abroad (d'ulbinate	- A5.2. Equity assets in fellow enterprises abroad
controlling parent is resident)	(if ultimate controlling parent is non-resident)
Outward debt instruments position:	Inward debt instruments positions:
12. Debt instruments assets of DI in DIE	L2. Debt instruments liabilities of DIE to DI
- L4. Debt instruments liabilities of DI to DIE* (reverse investment)	-A4. Debt instruments assets of DIE in DI* (reverse investment)
N6.1. Debt instruments assets in fellow enterprises abroad (if ultimate controlling parent is resident)	EG.1. Debt instruments liabilities to fellow enterprises abroad (if ultimate controlling parent is non-resident):
- L6.2. Debt instruments liabilities to fellow enterprises abroad	- A6.2. Debt instruments assets in fellow enterprises abroad
if ultimate controlling parent is resident)	(if ultimate controlling parent is non-resident)

Source: OECD Benchmark Definition of Foreign Direct Investment 2008, p66.

(b) FDI financial transactions 80:

FDI transactions are all transactions between direct investors, direct investment enterprises and /or other fellow enterprises .**FDI** transactions are analyzed through:

1. FDI transactions according to the asset liability principle:

Shows the subdivision of equity assets and liability classes to sub-components as exhibited in the following table:

⁸⁰ OECD Benchmark Definition of Foreign Direct Investment 2008, p70-74.

Table: FDI Transaction according to Asset /Liability principle.

Transactions in assets	Transactions in liabilities
Of direct investors in direct investment enterprises	Of direct investment enterprises to direct investors
настоли и на при	L1. Equity
A1.1. Equity transactions	L1.1. Equity transactions
A1.2. Reinvestment of earnings	L1.2. Reinvestment of earnings
W. Debt instruments	£2. Debt instruments
Of direct investment enterprises in direct investors- Reverse investment	Of direct investors to direct investment enterprises – Reverse investment
R . Equity	C3 Equity
A. Debt instruments	L4. Debt instruments
In Tellow enterprises	To fellow anterprises
A5. Equity	L5. Equity
A5.1. If ultimate controlling parent is resident	L5.1. If ultimate controlling parent is non-resident
A5.2. If ultimate controlling parent is non-resident	L5.2. If ultimate controlling parent is resident
A6. Debt instruments	LG. Debt instruments
A6.1. If ultimate controlling parent is resident	L6.1. If ultimate controlling parent is non-resident
A6.2. If ultimate controlling parent is non-resident	L6.2. If ultimate controlling parent is resident

Source: OECD Benchmark Definition of Foreign Direct Investment 2008, p70.

2. transaction according to the directional principleThe FDI elements are schematically shown as follows:

Table: FDI Transaction according to the directional Principle.

Outward foreign direct investment	Inward foreign direct investment
Outward equity transactions	Inward equity transactions
A1. Equity assets of DI in DIE	L1. Equity liabilities of DIE to DI
A1.1. Equity transactions	L1.2. Equity transactions
A1.2. Reinvestment of earnings	L1.2. Reinvestment of earnings
-13. Equity liabilities of DI to DIE(reverse investment)*	– A3. Equity assets of DIE in DI (reverse investment)*
A5.1. Equity assets in fellow enterprises abroad	L5.1. Equity liabilities to fellow enterprises abroad
(if ultimate controlling parent is resident)	(if ultimate controlling parent is non-resident)
-1.5.2. Equity liabilities to fellow enterprises abroad*	-A5.2. Equity assets in fellow enterprises abroad*
(d ultimate controlling parent is resident)	(if ultimate controlling parent is non-resident)
Outward debt instruments transactions	Inward debt instruments transactions
A2, Debt instruments assets of D1 in D1E:	L2, Debt instruments liabilities of DIE to DI
-L4. Debt instruments liabilities of DI to DIE (reverse investment)*	- A4. Debt instruments assets of DIE in DI (reverse investment)*
A6.1. Debt instruments assets in fellow enterprises abroad	L6.1. Debt instruments liabilities to fellow enterprises abroad*
(if ultimate controlling parent is resident)	(ii ultimate controlling parent is non-resident)
- L6.2. Debt instruments liabilities to fellow enterprises abroad*	- A6.2. Debt instruments assets in fellow enterprises abroad*
(if ultimate controlling parent is resident)	(if ultimate controlling parent is non-resident)

Source: OECD Benchmark Definition of Foreign Direct Investment 2008, p71.

(c) **FDI** investment incomes ⁸¹:

FDI income is part of the return on direct investment position, it consists of: return on equity investment and debt investment. For example a resident direct investment share in the net income or earnings of its direct investment enterprises plus income on debt between direct investment and direct investment enterprises and between fellow enterprises.

⁸¹ OECD Benchmark Definition of Foreign Direct Investment 2008, p74.

FDI income should be separately shown for:

1. assets and for liabilities principle as exhibited in the table below:

Table: FDI Income according to the Asset /Liabilities Principle.

Receivables	Payables
Of direct investors from direct investment enterprises	Of direct investment enterprises to direct investors
A1. Earnings on equity	L1. Earnings on equity
. Al.1. Distributed earnings	L1.1. Distributed earnings
A1.2. Reinvested earnings	L1.2. Reinvested earnings
A2, Interest (on debt instruments)	L2. Interest (on debt instruments)
Of direct investment enterprises from direct investors -	Of direct investors to direct investment enterprises -
Reverse Investment	Reverse investment
A3 Distributed earnings	L3 Distributed earnings
A. Interest (on debt instruments)	L4. Interest (on debt instruments)
From fellow enterprises abroad	To fellow enterprises abroad
A5. Distributed earnings	L5. Distributed earnings
A5.1. If the ultimate controlling parent is resident	L5.1. If the ultimate controlling parent is non-resident
A5.2. If the ultimate controlling parent is non-resident	L5.2. If the ultimate controlling parent is resident
A6. Interest (on debt instruments)	L6; Interest (on debt instruments)
A6.1. If the ultimate controlling parent is resident	L6.1. If the ultimate controlling parent is non-resident
A6.2. If the ultimate controlling parent is non-resident	16.2. If the ultimate controlling parent is resident

Source: OECD Benchmark Definition of Foreign Direct Investment 2008, p75.

2. directional principle as shown schematically as follows:

Table: FDI Income according to the directional Principle.

Income on outward foreign direct investment	Income on inward foreign direct investment
Income on outward equity	Income on inward equity
A1. Earnings on equity	L1. Earnings on equity
A1.1. Distributed earnings	L1.1. Distributed earnings
A1.2. Reinvested earnings	L1.2. Reinvested earnings
- L3 . Distributed earnings of DI to DIE (reverse investment)*	-A3. Distributed earnings of DIE from DI (reverse investment)*
A5.1. Distributed earnings from fellow enterprises abroad (if ultimate controlling parent is resident)	LS. 1. Distributed earnings to fellow enterprises abroad (if ultimate controlling parent is non-resident)
– L5.2. Distributed earnings to fellow enterprises abroad*	-A5.2. Distributed earnings from fellow enterprises abroad*
(if ultimate controlling parent is resident)	(if ultimate controlling parent is non-resident)
Interest on outward debt instruments	Interest on inward debt instruments
A2. Interest receivable from DIE	L2. Interest payable to Ols
- 14. Interest payable by DI to DIE (reverse investment).	→ A4. Interest receivable by DIE from D1 (reverse investment)*
AG.1. Interest receivable from fellow enterprises (on debt instruments)	L6.1. Interest payable to fellow enterprises (on debt instruments)
(if ultimate controlling parent is resident)	(if ultimate controlling parent is non-resident)
- L6.2. Interest payable to fellow enterprises (on debt instruments)*	- A5.2. Interest receivable from fellow entarprises (on debt
(if ultimate controlling parent is resident)	instruments)* (if ultimate controlling parent is non-resident)

Source: OECD Benchmark Definition of Foreign Direct Investment 2008, p75.

(d) Other changes⁸²:

The other changes account is an important component of direct investment statistics as it allows transactions to be reconciled with positions. This account consists of : valuation changes and volume changes.

⁸²: OECD Benchmark Definition of Foreign Direct Investment 2008, p79.

1. Valuation changes:

Valuation changes in the market value of a position through exchange rate changes and other price changes.

1.1Exchange rate changes:

For example, if the accounts are compiled in the local currency and the local currency appreciates against the currency of denomination of a financial instrument , exchange rate changes will reflect a decrease in the value of the instrument in the local currency . This is the case whether the instrument is an asset or a liability .

About transactions and positions: the former are converted to the compilation currency at the rate prevailing when they took place. The latter are converted at the rate prevailing on the reference date.

2.2 Other price changes:

This item reflects all changes to the market value of an instrument as expressed in the compilation currency that are not exchange rate changes or attributable to transactions that 's mean reflecting all the changes in the market value of an instrument in the currency in which is denominated, then these changes will be converted to the currency of compilation and may also give rise to exchange rate changes if this latter (exchange rate) changes over the period during which the market price change occurred.

2. Volume changes:

The causes of changes in volume of financial assets /liabilities are due to:

Debt cancellation and write-offs, liquidations, uncompensated seizure and reclassifications.

2.1 Debt cancellation and write-offs⁸³ (volume changes treatment):

Debt cancellation and write –offs are unilaterally determined by creditor as well as by courts, arbitrator and related out of court settlements while the debt repudiation is not recognized.

⁸³ OECD Benchmark Definition of Foreign Direct Investment 2008, p82.

Example:

A creditor may recognize that a financial claim can no longer be collected from the debtor and may remove the claim from its balance sheet.

2.2Debt forgiveness and debt assumption (financial transaction treatment) ⁸⁴:

Debt forgiveness involves the intention by the creditor to convey a benefit to the debtor.

Debt assumption (including one off guarantees) involves a third party with which there may be transactions.

2.3Liquidation and failed exploration activities 85:

In liquidation, the investment enterprise equity is often written off by direct investor and removed from its balance sheet (volume change treatment). For the write off of debt, this case should be treated as valuation change. Concerning mineral exploration activities, the provision of the used equipment is recorded as transaction reflecting the injection of equity in the branch. The same kind of treatment (volume change) is adopted where the operator walks away from the activities (identification failure of viable resource discovery for example).

2.4*Uncompensated seizure* ⁸⁶:

This happens when the government decides to nationalize certain industries within its jurisdiction without compensation (the equity position of the direct investor reduced to zero through volume change treatment).

2.5 Reclassification:

This item consists of changes in financial instruments characteristics without cross border transactions for example:

⁸⁴ OECD Benchmark Definition of Foreign Direct Investment 2008, p82.

⁸⁵ OECD Benchmark Definition of Foreign Direct Investment2008,p82.

⁸⁶ OECD Benchmark Definition of Foreign Direct Investment 2008, p83.

The effect of migration of persons on FDI reclassification (assets held by person changes his resident leads to a reclassification to his /her direct investment assets).

III-3 FDI valuation⁸⁷:

The market value is the conceptual basis for valuing direct investment transactions and positions. This covers the following headings:

1. Valuation of Foreign Direct Investment positions:

a. Equity positions:

The market valuation is the recommended principle to be used when measuring equity positions. This valuation focuses on methods that may be used to value quoted shares, unquoted shares and equity in incorporated enterprises.

b. Debt positions:

The use of nominal values as proxy for market value for all debt positions is recommended.

2. Valuation of FDI financial flows and transfer pricing:

When a transaction in goods and services occurs between two enterprises, this transaction is to be recorded at market prices⁸⁸.

For more details see OECD Benchmark Definition of Foreign Direct Investment, p93-94-95.

The balance of payments manual defines market prices as amounts of money as amounts of money that willing buyers pay to acquire something from willing sellers on commercial considerations only –sometimes called at "arm's length". For more details OECD Benchmark Definition of Foreign Direct Investment, p96-97.

IV- The effect of foreign direct investment:

The effect of **FDI** on the host country can be classified to: economical, political and social effects⁸⁹.

The economic effects of **FDI** include the implications for (micro and macro) economic variables as: output, the balance of payment and market structure⁹⁰. The political effects include the question of national sovereignty⁹¹. The social issues are mainly concerned with the creation of enclaves and foreign elite in the host country.

Under this heading only the economic effects are discussed.

1. The provision of capital ⁹²:

FDI contributes in filling two important gaps:

The saving gap (difference between investment and saving) and the foreign exchange gap (difference between imports and exports).

2. The effect of **FDI** on output and growth ⁹³:

This effect is more important because **FDI** inwards are considered to boost the economic development (the increasing of the capital stock of the host country or take over which means more efficiency utilization of existed resources).

For more detail see: Adeolu B. Ayanwale in FDI and economic growth: evidence from Nigeria, p01-37, Andreas Johnson in The effects of FDI inflows on host country economic growth, p1-26, K.C.Fung, Hitomi Lizaka, Sara Tong in Foreign Direct investment in China: Policy, Trend and impact, p02-34 and Maria Carkovic and Ross Levine in Does Foreign Direct Investment Accelerate Economic Growth?, p195-220.

⁹¹For more detail see :Heiner Schulz in The Political Determinants of FDI in developing countries , p01-14 , Blendi Barroli , Koji Takahashi , Tokishatsu Tomizawa The impact of Political Volatility on Foreign Direct Investment : Evidences from the Western Balkan Countries , p65-76 , a very enjoyable book in this field merits to be read of Kristlina Korhonen in Foreign Direct investment in a Changing Political Environmental .

⁸⁹See Imad A.Moosa in Foreign Direct Investment: theory, evidence and application, p69.

McKinnon claimed that developing countries encounter a hard saving problem to match their investment needs and other problem related to import financing through export earnings, for more detail see: McKinnon, R in Foreign Exchange Constraints in Economic Development And Efficient Aid Aliocation, p388-409, these problems de resolved typically by FDI simply because: FDI by a particular MNE in a particular country may encourage other MNEs to participate in the same project, this may encourage also official aids developments aids from the investor's home country, FDI can mobilize domestic saving by offering local attractive investment opportunities and increases the financial inflows available for investment especially for developing countries, for more detail see: Razin and Yuen about the role of FDI on financial markets of the host country arguing that FDI plays a double role (reviving domestic market through channeling domestic saving to domestic investment and providing traditional gains from trade to host country.

For more detail see: Zeshan Atique, Mohsin Hasnain Ahmed and Usman Ashar in the impact of FDI on Economic growth under foreign trade regimes: A Case Study of Pakistan, p01-11.

- 3. The effect of FDI on employment and wages 94:
 - 1. **FDI** is capable of increasing employment directly by setting up new facilities or indirectly by stimulating employment in distribution.
 - 2. **FDI** preserve employment by acquiring and restructuring ailing firms.
 - 3. **FDI** can reduce employment by divestment or closure of production facilities.

4. The effect of FDI on balance of payment:

This effect has certain features:

First: distinction between direct (reflected immediately in the foreign exchange gap results from the flows associated with the investment) and indirect feature (the effect of FDI on balance of payment via domestic sales and the use of local resources).

Second: distinction between two important forms:

The initial one off form: leads to an improvement of the capital account of the host country by the investment amount less value of any imported machinery.

The second form: the continuing effect which is the most important.

5. The effect of **FDI** on trade flows⁹⁵:

The most critical issue about the relationship between **FDI** and trade is whether they are *complement* s or *substitutes*.

⁹⁴ For more detail see: Paolo Figini and Holger Gorg in Does Foreign Direct Investment Affect Wage Inequality? An Empirical Investigation, p1-20, Jaan Masso, Urmas Varbiane, Pritt Vahter in The Impact of Outward FDI on Home Country Employment in a Low cost transition economy, p05-65.

For more detail about the relationship between FDI and trade see Lionel Fontagné, Michael Pajo in Foreign Trade and FDI stocks in British, U5 and French Industries: Complements or Substitutes?, p01-31, Panic and Joyce in U5 manufacturing Industry: International Integration and Trade Performance, p 42-55, Pain and Wakelin in Export Performance and the Role of Foreign Direct Investment, p62-88, a very interesting document entitled: Linkages between Foreign Direct Investment and Trade Flows, p337-374 merits to be analyzed to grasp the interrelation between these two macroeconomic variables landscape.

6. The effect of **FDI** on productivity ⁹⁶:

This effect can be channeled through: export promoting (products of the subsidiary are destined to a large world market), the installation of plants achieving the economies of scale.

7. **FDI** and technology⁹⁷:

Technology diffusion by **FDI** can takes place through various channels':

Imports of high technology products, adoption of foreign technology, acquisition of foreign capital through international study.

8. The effect of **FDI** on market structure⁹⁸:

This effect is viewed through improving the competitiveness forces or worsening the monopolistic or oligopolistic elements in the host economy.

9. **FDI** and the environment ⁹⁹:

FDI can get away with causing lot of damage to the environment particularly in developing countries that are trying to attract **FDI** (Less stringent environmental damage approach).

⁹⁶ See Foreign Direct Investment and Productivity: Evidence from the East Asian Economies, Staff Working Paper, UNITED NATIONS INDUSTRIAL DEVELOPMENT DRGANIZATION, p01-24.

⁹⁷ See Findlay R in Relative Backwardness, Direct Foreign Investment and the transfer of technology: A Simple Dynamic Model, p01-16.

⁹⁸ See Spiros Bougheas, David Greenaway, Kittipong, Jangkamolkulachai and Richard Kneller in Technology Gap, Foreign Direct Investment and Market Structure, p01-23.

⁹⁹ See Kevin R. Gray in Foreign Direct Investment and Environmental Impacts? Is The Debate Over, p1-08 and Feng Helen Liang in Does Foreign Investment Harm The Host Country's Environment? Evidence From China, p01-24.

Table: Summary of selected recent studies of FDI effects.

Study	Issue under investigation	Findings
Nachum (1999)	Impact of FDI on	FDI weakens the link between
	international	location and ownership
	competitiveness	advantage
Zhang (1999)	Relationship between	FDI enhances growth in long
	FDI and growth in Asian	run
	countries	
Zhang (1999)	Effect of FDI on	Long run link and two way
	economic growth in	causality between FDI and
	China	growth.
Bosworth and Collins	Implication of financial	Little correlation among FDI,
(1999)	flows for saving and	portfolio investment and
	investment in the host	Loans .FDI has close one to
	country.	one effect on investment.
Glass and Saggi (1999)	Consequences of FDI in	FDI raises wages and lowers
	a general equilibrium	profits in the host country,
	setting	and vice versa.
Yabuuchi (1999)	Effects of FDI on	An increase in FDI leads to an
	Welfare and	increase in welfare and a
	Unemployment	decrease in unemployment if
		capital is also used in the
		domestic manufacturing
<u> </u>		sector.
Fung et al (1999)	Effects of FDI on	FDI can affect national
	national welfare	welfare positively or
		negatively.
Saggi (1999)	Implications of licensing	Relative to licensing, FDI
	and FDI for technology	limits technology spillovers to
	transfer	local firms, but dissipates
		more rents in the product
		market.
Bonelli (1999)	Links between FDI and	FDI has contributed to
	industrial	increased productivity and
	competitiveness in Brazil	competitiveness.
Roling (1999)	German job export	Empirical basis for German
	through FDI	job export is weak.
Driffield (1999)	Employment	FDI generates employment
	consequences of inward	substitution away from local
	FDI in the UK	firms
Okomato (1999)	Effect of FDI on	FDI has a positive effect
	production efficiency	through the enhancement of
		competitive pressure and

Chuang and Lin (1999) Effect of FDI on productivity effect on productivity. Elahee et pagan (1999) The role of FDI in Asia and Latin America effect on long run growth, eventually helping the recipient country to catch to	r.
productivity effect on productivity. Elahee et pagan (1999) The role of FDI in Asia and Latin America effect on long run growth, eventually helping the	r.
Elahee et pagan (1999) The role of FDI in Asia and Latin America FDI may have a positive effect on long run growth, eventually helping the	
and Latin America effect on long run growth, eventually helping the	
and Latin America effect on long run growth, eventually helping the	
eventually helping the	
	ıþ
the investing country.	
Aitken and Harrison Effect of FDI on FDI affect the productivity	
(1999) domestic firms in domestic firm negatively .1	Vet
Venezuela impact of FDI is small.	
De Mello (1999) Direct investment led The extent to which FDI is	
growth growth enhancing depends	on
the degree of	
complementarity and	
substitution between FDI a	nđ
domestic investment.	-174
Glass and Saggi (1999) FDI and technology The role FDI plays in	
technology transfer depend	S
on whether substitute	
channels are available for	
transfer to the host country	
Ellingsen and FDI and protectionism An import competing indus	stry
Warneyard (1999) may not want maximum	•
protection because it may	
encourage FDI which could	1
be less desirable.	
Wilamoski and Tinkler The effect of FDI on FDI leads to increased	
(1999) exports and imports imports and exports.	
Gopinnath et al (1999) FDI and trade Small substitution effect	
between foreign sales and	
exports.	
Zukowska and Examining the effect of FDI has a negative impact of	on
Gagelmann (2000) FDI on productivity the performance of the mos	t
growth productive local firms.	-
Drieffield and Taylor The labor market impact FDI leads to an increase in	
(2000) of inward FDI in the UK wage inequality and the use	
, , , , , , , , , , , , , , , , , , ,	
of skilled labor in domestic	
firms.	
Fan and Dickie (2000) Contribution of FDI to FDI accounts for 04-20	
growth and stability in percent of GDP growth.	
Asian countries.	
Xu and Wang (2000) International trade and No evidence that FDI is a	
FDI as channels for significant channel for	
technology diffusion technology diffusion.	
Asafu – Adjaye (2000) Effect of FDI on FDI has a significant positive	70
	/ C
Indonesian economic effect on growth.	

	growth	
Jarolim (2000)	Role of FDI on	FDI has a significant positive
<i>saronini</i> (2000)	Indonesian economic	effect on growth.
	growth	onect on grown.
Hennerberger and	Effect of Swiss FDI on	FDI's spillover effect is
Ziegler (2000)	employment	statistically significant.
Stone and Jeon (2000)	Relationship between	Significant and positive
	FDI and trade in Asia –	relationship between FDI and
	Pacific economies.	trade.
Muchielli et al (2000)	Relationship between	Complementarity for global
	intra or inter firm firm	trade is explained by
	trade and FDI.	Complementarity for intra-
		firm trade and substitutability
		for inter-firm trade.
Castilho and Zignago	Relationship between	Positive link between FDI and
(2000)	FDI trade and regional	trade flows mitigated by the
	integration.	impact of integration on FDI
Chen (2000)	Relationship between	Dogitive and strong Link
Chen (2000)	FDI and intra –industry	Positive and strong link between FDI and intra –
	trade	industry trade.
Kearns and Ruane	Relationship between	FDI has been beneficial to
(2001)	FDI and growth in	Ireland .R&D active firms
	Ireland	provide greater benefits.
Wasantha Athukorala	Relationship between	Econometric result shows
(2002)	FDI and economic	that FDI inflows do not
	growth in Sir Lanka	exert an independent
		influence on economic
		growth.
Kui-Yin Cheung and	Relationship between	FDI benefits innovation
Ping Lin (2004)	FDI and innovation in	activity via spillover
	China	channels: reverse
		engineering ,skilled labor
		turnovers, demonstration
		effects and suplier
		customer relationship.
Chandana	Economic effects of	FDI induses economic
Chakraborty and Peter	Foreign Direct	growth if only regulations
Nunnenkamp (2006)	Investment in India	are relaxed and more
		industries are still open up.
Nicole Madariaga and	Spillovers and impact	Economic growth responds
Sandra Poncet (2006)	of FDI in Chinese	positively to FDI received
	cities	locally as well as in
		TO STORY OF THE STORY AND ALL

	the state of the s	<u> </u>
		proximate cities.
Sune Karlsson,	Relationship between	FDI has positive effects on
Nannan Lundin and	FDI and job creation in	employment growth, these
Ping He (2007)	China	effects are associated with
		firm's characteristics and
		their access to export
		markets.
Nada Massoud (2008)	The employment	The study does not that
	effects of FDI inflows	FDI exerts a positive
	to Egypt	influence on employment.
Gaston Gohou and	Impact of FDI on	The analyses confirm the
Issouf Soumaré (2009)	poverty reduction in	positive significant
	Africa	relationship between FDI
		and poverty reduction.
Mohammad I.Al-	Impact of FDI on	The results show foreign
Halameh and	Shares Market value in	direct investment has
Abdelsttar M.Sayah	Amman Exchange	significant effects on share
(2010)	Market	market value in Amman
		Exchange Market.

Source: Compiled by the student.

Conclusion

In this chapter, it's clearly shown that Foreign Direct Investment becomes the core feature of globalised world allowing to a more interconnection of businesses as a mean to transfer management skills and technology especially to developing countries, but the important issue remains on conceiving the appropriate strategies to built strong platform for more understanding its impacts on national economies which their aim is to exploit efficiently the positive spillover of FDI.

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Chapter II:

Exchange rates and Foreign Direct Investment

Foreign Direct Investment (FDI) has become an important channel for resource flows across national borders. During 2005, for example, world FDI inflows grew 28.9 per cent compared to a growth rate of 12.9 per cent of world exports. This boom has stimulated significant attempts at developing theories that explain FDI trend. One line of this research explores the relationship between exchange rates and FDI.

In this chapter, the following ideas are analyzed:

- 1- The theoretical background.
- 2- The empirical evidence and model specification.
- 3- Some outstanding models.
- 4- Some concluding remarks.

I. The theoretical background:

USA as other countries of the globe experienced a depreciation of the exchange rate and an associated FDI inflows during the mid-to late 1980s, this leads to suggest that exists a relationship between these two variables, but may have squandered¹.

When we talk about FDI, we are behind a heterogeneous decision in nature as it's settled in a various context of national beliefs, considerations, different social institutions and attitudes ²...

The FDI heterogeneity nature and its relationship with the exchange rate urged on the emergence of two broad strands in the theoretical literature ³: the real option and risk aversion approaches.

I-1 The Real Option approach:

This approach is based on the *irreversibility* of the investment decisions in general. Dixit and Pindyck (1994) ⁴ considered that a firm can have an option to invest abroad, this latter value is impacted by the uncertainty of the investment expected return (the option valuation theory of investment) pioneered by Brennan and Schwartz (1985)⁵ and Mac Donald and Siegel (1982)⁶, i.e.: The timing of decision making of

¹ See Linda Goldberg in Exchange rate and investment in the United States industry, p57S-588.

² See Levis R. Cabrera , Germán E. Giraldo in A multiple criteria decision analysis for FDI in Latin America countries , they used the Analytical Hierarchical Process to help investors making rational decision within FDI several factors ,p137-142 and L. J Treviño , Franklin J. Mixon Jr in Strategic factors affecting foreign direct investment decisions by multinational enterprises in Latin America using cross country differences in macroeconomic and institutional environments to explain the factors that affect the MNEs behavior in seven Latin American countries for the period 1988-1999 , p233-242.

³ See Linda 5. Goldberg and Charles D. Koistad in Foreign direct investment, exchange rate variability and demand uncertainty using a two period model of the inter-temporal decision making of a producer to demonstrate how does the investment decision is made in the context of multiplicative risk factors entering both through revenues (the analogy of production flexibility) and production costs (the analogy of risk aversion), p01-28, Alzeman used a model with two countries, two periods and two classes of goods o highlight how producers commit to domestic and foreign capacity ex ante (production flexibility) and commit to employment expost following the realization of some stochastic elements such as nominal and real shocks by integrating short—run Phillips curve, for more detail see Joshua Alzeman in Exchange rate flexibility, volatility and domestic and foreign direct investment, p890-921, to grasp how the relative risk aversion of the firm affects the dependency of production and exports on exchange rate uncertainty see model proposed by Udo Broll and Bernhart Eckwert in exchange rate volatility and international trade, p178-185.

⁴ See Dixit and Pindyck in investment under uncertainty , p06-07-08-09-135-173 (investment opportunities and investment timing chapter) , how could this approach be estimated econometrically (magnitude and investment timing) see : Tarek M. Harchaoui and PierreLasserre in Testing the option value theory of irreversible investment , p01-31 , in contrast with the general assumption claiming that increased uncertainty raises the value of waiting and decelerates investment , it may be argued that firm's fast technology changing environment implies that the firms have finite project life ,this latter may be accelerated by increasing uncertainty , for more detail see Sebastian Gryglewics , Kuno JN Huisman and Peter M Kort in Finite project life and uncertainty effects on investment , p01-18 , firms face a future demand uncertainty , how does this latter interact with the investment irreversibility to maximize firm's value , a model suggested by Robert Pindyck in Irreversible investment , capacity choice and the value of the firm , p01-30.

See M J Brennan and E 5 Schwartz in Corporate income taxes , valuations and the problem of optimal capital structure , p103-114.

⁶ See Robert Mac Donald and Daniel Siegel in The value of waiting to invest (1982), p01-36, and the value of waiting to invest (1986), p707-728, Jonathan E. Ingersoll, Jr and Stephen A. Ross in Waiting to invest: investment and uncertainty, p01-29.

various investment problems and investment value can be shown by using real option theory. A firm facing this problem (uncertainty) can be understood as having a financial option by which the firm has the right to buy an asset (the plant in a foreign country) at a future time. The price that the firm has to pay in order to exercise the option is the sunk cost of the investment⁷. This theory is dealt with market equilibrium with no strategic competition, i.e. perfect competition and monopoly⁸.

The stylized feature of this theory on the relationship between exchange rate and FDI can be found in Campa (1993)⁹. Darby et al (1999)¹⁰, Kogut and Chang (1996)¹¹ suggested that changes in exchange rate levels affect the price of the option (exchange rate uncertainty may increase the value of holding onto the option by no investing).

Another approach surged in this line called the production flexibility which referred to Aizeman (1992)¹², according to this view exchange rate movements create the option to shift production among facilities in different countries, this implies that the fixed exchange rate regime is more favorable to FDI.

According to Sung and Lapan (2000) ¹³, investment will change to the lowest cost after an exchange rate movement, and the value of the option is positively related to uncertainty. In this case, it's more conducive for a MNE to open plants at home and abroad, postponing production decision until after an exchange rate shock. ¹⁴

The power of this approach is that exchange rate movements affect the timing of FDI as the firm's decisions are to invest, wait or not invest at all.

⁷ For more detail about sunk costs effects on investment rational decision making see M. Preston MCAfee , Hugo M .Mialon and Sue H. Mialon in Do Sunk Cost Matter , p01-30

See Marchei Boyer, Eric Gravel, Pierre Lasserre in Real options and strategic competition : a survey , p01-29.

⁹ See Campa J in Entry by foreign firms in the United States under exchange rate uncertainty, p614-622.

¹⁰ See Darby J , Hall A .H ; Ireland and Piscicitelli .L in The impact of exchange rate uncertainty on the level of investment , pSS-67

See Kogut B and Chang S J in Platform investments and volatile exchange rates: direct investment in the US by Japanese electronic companies, p221-231.

See Aizeman Joshua in Exchange rate flexibility, volatility and domestic and foreign direct investment, p890-922 and Joshua

See Aizeman Joshua in Exchange rate flexibility, volatility and domestic and foreign direct investment, p890-922 and Joshua Aizeman and Nancy Marion in The merits of horizontal versus vertical FDI in the presence of uncertainty, p125-148.

See Hongmo Sung and Harvey E Lapan in Strategic foreign direct investment and exchange rate uncertainty, p411-423.

About the postponement production strategies under uncertainty see Jan A . Van Miegham and Maqbol Dada in Price versus production postponement : capacity and competition , p1631-1649.

I-2 Risk aversion approach:

The outstanding of this approach is that firm's investment motive is restricted on their expectation on their returns as 15:

 $Expected\ returns = cost + payment\ for\ degree\ of\ risk.$

This line referred to Cushman (1985)¹⁶ which argued that the exchange rate volatility can be introduced as a risk composite of the above equation suggesting that the risk adjusted expected real exchange rate appreciation lowers the foreign cost of capital, this leads to an FDI encouragement, however, when the costs of other inputs are also affected, induced productivity changes or output prices changes may offset the direct effect, if so direct investment is reduced.

Some salient models in this field are there of Goldberg and Kolstad $(1995)^{17}$, Bénassé- Quéré et al $(2001)^{18}$ interfering the demand shocks concept link with the exchange rate shocks as follow:

The increase in the foreign money supply increases demand (macroeconomic approach) ¹⁹ this leads to raise foreign prices, as a result a short term real appreciation of the foreign currency is showed .While both shocks are positive, the covariance is positive, firms minimize the variance of expected profits and increase expected utility by higher FDI.²⁰

Charles D. Kostlad and Linda S. Goldberg (1995)²¹ have argued that there are two classes of models that link real exchange variability to international investment activity. The first class of model relies on the argument that producer engages in international investment diversification in order to achieve *ex post* production flexibility and higher profits in response to shocks. The second class suggests that the

For more detail about the importance of risk analysis on the investment decision and the application stages of risk analysis process see Savakkis C. Savvadis in Risk analysis in investment appraisal, p01-30, a new method of estimating risk aversion using data on labor supply behavior is suggested by Raj Chetty in A new method of estimating risk aversion, p01-26.

¹⁶ See Cushman D.D in Real exchange rate risk , expectations and the level of foreign direct investment , p297-308.

¹⁷ See Goidberg .L.S and Kolstad C.D in Foreign direct investment and demand uncertainty, p855-873.

¹⁸ See Bénassé- Quéré , A , Fontagné , L and Lahrèche Révil, A in Exchange rate strategies in the competition for attracting FDi , p178-198

For more detail see Brian Snowdon and Howard Vane in Modern Macroeconomics, p163-187 and Ferdinand C Nwafar in The Naira – Dollar Exchange rate determination: a monetary perspective, p130-13S.

To highlight how do the fluctuations in the growth of money supply be considered as a mechanism influencing both realizations of the exchange rate and due to sticky prices, the demand for consumption goods in the host country see Kathryn Niles Russ in The endogeneity of the exchange rate as a determinant of FDI: A model of entry and multinational firms, p01-35.

²¹ See Goldberg L S and Koistad C D in Foreign Direct investment and demand uncertainty , p855-873 and Linda S Goldberg in Exchange rates and Foreign Direct investment , p01-06.

production flexibility argument is less likely to pertain to short term volatility in exchange rates than to realignments over long intervals.

In this view, exchange rate variability is expected to have real effects on the share of domestic investment resources channeled abroad in a limited set of circumstances. If investors are risk neutral, the model does not predict any statistical relationship between exchange rate volatility and the allocation of production facilities between domestic and foreign markets. But, if there is a risk aversion among producers, exchange rate volatility may expand the share of investment resources located offshore.

R.Barrell , S.D.Gottschalk , S.G.Hall (1995)²² constructed a model based on the hypothesis that risk-averse firms would attempt to reduce the impact of uncertainty on their investment portfolio by exploiting correlations between exchange rate in alternative locations. They showed that market power reduces the uncertainty risk impact on investment.

Bénassé Quéré (1999) ²³ examine the case of FDI by integrating the determinants of multinational firms locations, he considered the case of a risk-adverse multinational firm which contemplates relocating two alternative foreign locations in order to re-export by exhibiting the trade-off between price competitiveness and a stable nominal exchange rate. He showed that that the firm will consider both locations as substitutes or complements depending on whether the two exchange rates against the investing country 's currency are correlated (positively or negatively).

The authors identified that real exchange rate affects FDI in various ways depending of the destination of the goods produced. If FDI and trade are substitute (the investor aim to serve the local market) then the appreciation of the local currency increases FDI inflows due to higher purchasing power of the local consumers. Conversely, a depreciation of the real exchange rate of the recipient country increases FDI through reduced cost of capital.

See Barrell ,R ; Gottschalk S. D and Hall S G in Foreign direct investment and exchange rate uncertainty in imperfectly competitive industries , p01-23.

See Bénassé —Quéré, Lionel Fontagné and Amina lahrèche Révil in Exchange rate strategies in the competition for attracting FDI, p08-15.

I-3 Recent contributions:

The recent contributions that have been made in this field stressed on three major points:

The consideration of the effect of FDI heterogeneity motive²⁴, the exchange rate endogeneity²⁵, and multilateral resistance concept²⁶.

Kathryn Niles Russ (2005) and Russ.K (2007) tried to explain the conflicting findings of the previous works in a partial equilibrium framework interfering the endogeneity of the exchange rate by showing that volatility in the exchange rate may or may not deter FDI depending on which underlying variable (shock) is the source of volatility. The extent of the model is about the MNEs worry about exchange rate volatility which is closely related to the presence and magnitude of positive or negative shocks, for example:

Positive shock to the money supply of the host currency depreciates the host currency simultaneously with an increasing income and therefore an increase of sales by both domestic firms and MNEs in the host's markets²⁷.

A contractionary monetary policy in the host leads to a better exchange rate to convert profits with reducing local sales, but the contractionary monetary shock in the foreign country can adversely affect the value of the host currency without counteracting effect on overseas sales.

Lin et al (2006) proposed a model with heterogeneous firm motives in explaining how the exposure of profit to exchange rate risk might vary with FDI motives .i.e., if firms are an FDI market seeking motives, then the volatility of the exchange rate is responded by delaying FDI decisions whereas the export substituting FDI motives are responded to the volatility more quickly if risk aversion is great enough.

²⁴ See Chia Ching Lin , Kung Min Chen and Hslu Hua Rau in Exchange rate volatility and the timing of foreign direct investment: market seeking versus export substituting , p01-37.

²⁵ See Russ K in The endogeneity of exchange rate as a determinant of FDI: a model of entry and multinational firms, p344-

See Harmut Egger , Peter Egger and Michael Ryan in Bilateral and third country exchange rate effects o multinational activity n01-38.

²⁷ Contessi presents a model with firm heterogeneity, endogeneneous exports and FDI, for more detail see Contessi in International macroeconomic dynamics, endogenous tradability and foreign direct investment with hetereneous firms, p and Paul R Bergin, Reuvin Glick in Endogenous tradability and Macroeconomic implications, p01-42.

Buch and Kleinert (2006)²⁸ used a partial equilibrium analysis in a model predicting that the appreciation of the home economy currency increases FDI by both good market frictions and the wealth effect²⁹.

Xing and Zhao (2008) ³⁰ presented another mean (reverse imports) through which exchange rates can affect FDI by proposing a two country model with oligopolistic markets to examine these linkages (exchange rate , reverse imports and FDI). They predict that exchange rate changes , wage , capital cost differentials , barriers in brand name recognition contribute positively to Japanese FDI in China and reverse imports (the empirical study was on Japanese FDI in China).

Egger et al (2007) ³¹tracked two channels for effects of the exchange rate by presenting a three country model of exports and FDI. These channels are the following:

- 1. Revenue effect channel: the host currency depreciation raises the MNEs profits from affiliates (positive bilateral effect).
- 2. Competition effect channel: the host currency appreciation induces an increase in relative production costs following the same bilateral appreciation (negative bilateral effect).
- 3. The third country exchange rate effect: the reverse of the above affect i.e. a negative revenue effect and positive competition effect; this can be explained as follow: as the competition or revenue effects are determined by skilled labor endowments, transport and foreign investment costs, furthermore skilled labor is abundant and transport cost high this predicts that the exchange rate effect will be positive.

In general, it seems reasonable that no single model can encompass FDI behavior ³². The suggested relationship between exchange rate and FDI varies depending on the several determinants of the heterogeneity FDI decision as: configuration of costs and revenues, FDI types, or source of exchange rate shocks. But the theoretical background remains

²⁸ See Buch CM and Kieihert J in Exchange rate and FDI: goods versus capital market frictions, p01-35.

²⁹ For more clear details about this concept, a study carried by Patrick Legros and Andrew F. Newman incorporating the wealth effect concept on the organization theory, see Wealth effect, distribution and theory of organization, p312-341.

³⁰ See Yuking Xing and Laixun Zhao in Reverse imports , Foreign Direct Investment and Exchange Rates , p01-23.

³¹ See Harmut Egger, Peter Egger and Michael Ryan in Bilateral and third country exchange rate effects o multinational activity p01-38

³⁴ As FDI decision known by its heterogeneity conducted by several factors: economic, social, and politic

the strong pillar of the way paving to a more investigation of the relationship by the various and ambiguous ³³empirical studies.

II. The empirical evidence and model specifications:

The major feature of the empirical studies is that it has mostly been conducted on aggregated data, this arises the problem of data disaggregating beyond the manufacturing sector level. Furthermore, such FDI data are confidential in nature, hence difficult to access which the major source of this remains the capital flows from the balance of payment.

The paucity of data in this context forms a serious compromise between what is possible given empirically and the most theoretically appropriate approaches, this latter suggests that the response of FDI to exchange rates may differ among industries and by FDI motives, so exchange rates – FDI linkages are likely to be revealed at disaggregated level.

Froot and Stein (1991)³⁴ found that IFDI to the US was negatively correlated with the US dollar, but disaggregating FDI inflows by industry the coefficient significance varies; this leads to say that aggregate studies may mask important differences among industries.

Turning now to the exchange rate level effects, it seems that 64 per cent of the empirical findings³⁵ support the proposition that a depreciation of the host's country currency encourages FDI inflows (this result is on an aggregate data level), the remainder findings show the insignificance of the exchange rate level as the host appreciation increases IFDI or that results are mixed³⁶.

Lin and al (2006) analyzed for firm level data industry and found that this effect could be viewed through two channels: either increased IFDI after a depreciation of the host's currency, or a significant response determined by FDI motives.

The ambiguity refers to different models used to determine relationships between factors affecting FDI decision and their impacts on this latter.

³⁴ See Froot, K and Stein , J in Exchange Rates and FDI : an imperfect capital market approach , p1191-1127.

 $^{^{\}mathbf{35}}$ This result is calculated from the several empirical studies adopted in this survey.

³⁶ This means that the relationship trend was not clearly depicted.

Goldberg and Kolstad (1995), Froot and Stein (1991), M Corrison and Sheldon (1998)³⁷ support all in their empirical studies the proposition that the dollar depreciation increases IFDI.

Campa (1993), Alba and al (2005)³⁸ found an exception that the dollar appreciation increases IFDI.

Tomlin (2000)³⁹, Amuedo-Dorantes and Pozo (2001)⁴⁰ showed that this effect (US dollar levels and FDI) is insignificant.

In general the empirical studies results differ in their findings between supporting the above propositions (the case of US dollar for example) and both the insignificance, the mix of the results (some Australian empirical studies).

Another matter must be revealed in this context concerning the exchange rate volatility and variability concepts as the former means the risk (variability) and the latter implies that the exchange rate movements are unexpected. From the studies including the variability in their empirical studies models found that the negative significance effect is more than half (IFDI and variability of the host's currency), the remainder is shared between positive effect (less than 15 per cent) and inconclusive effect (mixed result). But the problem here stays on the variability or the uncertainty proxy choices as: what is the appropriate proxy to design the variability or the uncertainty of the exchange rate within the model? Some theoretical suggestions ⁴¹ used the GARCH measures to proxy uncertainty and the standard deviation measure to proxy the exchange rate variability, as the choice of the appropriate measure depends largely on the sensitivity results and it's compatibility with the theoretical concept.

Furthermore, one serious question emerges from the use of volatility proxies depending on the researcher interest (variability or uncertainty) and of what this proxies might be picking up i.e. the volatility could be proxying for some other factors (macroeconomic for example).

³⁷ See M cCorrisson, S and Scheldon, in Cross Border Acquisitions and FDI in the US Food industry, p1066-1072.

³⁸ See Alba , Wang P and Park in The impact of exchange rates on FDI and interdependence of FDI over time , p01-25.

³⁹ See Tomlin, K.M in The effects of model specification on foreign direct investment: an application of count data models, p460-468.

⁴⁰See Amuedo-Dorantes, C and Pozo , S in Foreign Exchange Rates and foreign direct investment in the US, p323-343.

⁴¹ See for example Amuedo-Dorantes and Pozo in Foreign exchange rates and foreign direct investment in the United States, p323-343.

II-1 Hazard rate models:

The essence of these models is to assess the exchange rate volatility impact on the timing of investment. The dependant variable in Hazard rate models is the likelihood of a firm to invest in each period. The conditional probability that investment happens in time $t+\Delta t$ given that it has not occurred at time t is estimated as a function of time varying covariates amongst them an exchange rate measure (Cox's proportional Hazard model)⁴². The model assume multiplicative relationship between baseline Hazard and the Covariates as the effect of these latter is $\log - \log t$ linear and the baseline Hazard is the same for all firms (the baseline remain unspecified)⁴³.

Kogut and Chang (1996)⁴⁴ found that an appreciation of the Yen increases the likelihood of the FDI, and that earlier investment in the US market as platforms for later entry (using Cox's proportional hazard model to estimate investment delays for the FDI of Japanese companies into the USA).

Lin et al (2006) estimate a Hazard model for Taiwanese FDI into China and find that exchange rate volatility delays market seeking FDI but hasten export substituting FDI⁴⁵.

Altomonte and Pennings (2004)⁴⁶ claim that a great understanding of the relationship between investment and uncertainty can be gained by estimating the Baseline because the question remains about the interpretation in the baseline as sufficiently warrant estimation of a parametric form⁴⁷, their basis is the real option theory as firms require high profitability when uncertainty increased, this latter increases the value of the option to delay investment

⁴² Cox's proportional hazard model is semi- parametric form as the baseline hazard is not estimated.

 $^{^{\}rm 43}$ The unspecification of the baseline is deduced from the proportionality assumption.

⁴⁴ See Kogut, B and Chang, S J in Platform investments and volatile exchange rates: direct investment in the US by Japanese electronics companies, p221-231.

⁴⁵ See Lin and Rau in Exchange rate volatility and the timing of foreign direct investment: Market seeking versus export substituting, p01-45.

⁴⁶ See Altomonte and Penning in The hazard rate of foreign direct investment; a structural estimation of a real –option model , p 569-593.

⁴⁷ As Box-5teffensmeiser and Jones argued that the hazard can be thought of a statistical nuisance in favour of Cox's model, for more detail see Box -Steffensmeiser and Jones in event history modeling: a guide for social scientists, p216-235.

Other way of thinking cited in Sarkar (2000) ⁴⁸ suggesting that high exchange rate volatility increases the probability that the threshold of investment is reached i.e. increased uncertainty may not delay investment (non-linearities of the relationship between exchange rate and FDI).

One of the difficulties with the application of this model (Hazard Rate) is the collection of data on investment delays and how to pinpoint an exact starting time for investment opportunities.

Misspecification bias is also another matter (statistical nuisance) as the question posed is about the trade –off between both efficiency and biases, information and efficiency.

II-2 Qualitative dependant variable and count data models:

These models are used where available data is limited that the possibility of investment data set construction is based on historical events.

Urata and Kawai (2000)⁴⁹ use a logit model for the location choice of Japanese manufacturing firms finding a positive relationship between host country depreciation and FDI entry, and a negative effect of exchange rate volatility.

Russ (2007)⁵⁰ use single equations and a Poisson model to explore differences between first time and veteran investors for the OECD, finding that the investors behavior vary depending on investor type and the source of volatility.

Campa (1993)⁵¹ use Tobit model to explore the determinants of FDI entries into US industries (the number of FDI entries is the dependant variable) finding that an expected dollar appreciation increases FDI, volatility deters entry and sunk costs are significant.

Tomlin (2000) estimates a count data model (Zero Inflated Poisson) and a Tobit model to analyse the sensitivity of results to specification of the dependant variable, finding that misspecification bias can arise from

⁴⁸ See Sarkar , S in On the investment uncertainty relationship in real option models , p219-225.

⁴⁹See Urata and Kawai In the determinants of the location of foreign direct investment by Japanese small and medium size enterprises, p79-103.

 $^{^{50}}$ See Russ $\,$, K in Exchange rate volatility and firs time entry by multinational firms ,p01-38.

 $^{^{51}}$ See Campa , J in Entry by foreign firms in the United States under exchange rate uncertainty , p614-622

modeling discrete data with continuous distribution (criticism of Tobit models use of count data).

Blonigen (1997)⁵² used ZIP estimates based on his theoretical model using data for the USA, Buch and Kleinert (2006)⁵³ distinguished between the explanation of Blonigen, Froot and Stein model and they found evidence of the goods market imperfection (Blonigen assumption).

Iannizzotto and Miller (2005)⁵⁴ tested the effects of the exchange rate on FDI to the UK by using firm level data. They concluded that a real appreciation of Sterling reduced UK FDI (statistical testing rejects the ZIP in favour of a standard Poisson model).

Alba et al (2005)⁵⁵ introduced the idea of FDI interdependence over time by using a panel data Markov ZIP (MZIP) model for FDI to the USA. The interdependence takes account of immeasurable factors (corporate rivalry, domestic investment conditions, interaction with rivals in other foreign markets...).

The main characteristic of MZIP interdependence is the existence of both favorable and unfavorable FDI states .Alba et al major findings is that the favorability of industries to FDI reflects a great exchange rate impact.

II-3 Single equation time series models and panel data models:

The major works of these models were built on the model of Froot and Stein (1991)⁵⁶: a regression of aggregate FDI /GDP on exchange rates and a trend variable finding that FDI to USA is negatively correlated with the US dollar; this result varies across industries by disaggregating FDI inflows.

⁵² ZIP is zero inflated Poisson, see Blonigen, B in Firm specific assets and the link between exchange rates and foreign direct investment, n448-465

 $^{^{\}rm S3}$ See Buch and Kleihert in Exchange rates and FDI : goods versus capital market frictions , p01-35.

See lannizzotto and Miller in The effect of exchange rate uncertainty on foreign direct investment in the United Kingdom , p

See Alba and Park in The impact of exchange rates on FDI and the interdependence of FDI over time, p01-58. See Froot and Stein in Exchange rates and FDI: an imperfect capital markets approach, p1191-1127.

Dewenter(1995) ⁵⁷, Goldberg and Kolstad (1995) ⁵⁸, Mc Corriston and Sheldon (1998) ⁵⁹, Gopinath e al (1998) ⁶⁰, Kiyota and Urata (2004) ⁶¹ found similar results of Froot and Stein (FDI is negatively correlated with the US dollar).

An alternative of time series analysis is a panel data model where the gravity models have been popular. The gravity models include the exchange rate level and volatility, and other variable allowing for distance and country effects. Estimation of these models has generated significant negative (Bénassy –Quéré et al .2001⁶²; Gast.2005⁶³) and positive (Gőrg and Wakelin .2002⁶⁴), as well as insignificant coefficients (De Sousa and Lochard 2004⁶⁵, Jeanneret 2005⁶⁶).

Chakrabati (2001)⁶⁷ used extreme bound analysis (EBA) to explore the robustness of coefficients on the determinants of FDI to changes in the conditioning information set i.e there may be competing regressions for the relationship between FDI and the exchange rates and the estimated sign of the exchange rate coefficient may depend on which set of regressors is included.

McAleer et al (1985)⁶⁸ outlined some problems associated with EBA as the inadequacy diagnostics validation presented for the models that produce bounds, showing that coefficient fragility depends on the classifications of variables in the regression as either doubtful or free.

Stevens (1998)⁶⁹ used the specification of Froot and Stein to test for stability, finding that the sign and the significance of the estimates changes between sub-samples.

⁵⁷ See Dewenter , K in Do exchange rate changes drive foreign direct investment ? P405-433.

⁵⁸ See Goldberg and Kolstad in Foreign direct investment and demand uncertainty, p855-873.

⁵⁹ See M.C.Corrisson and Sheldon in Cross border acquisition and FDI in the U5 food industry, p1066-1072.

⁶⁰ See Gopinath and Vasavada in Exchange rate effects on the relationship between FDI and trade in the US food processing industry, p1073-1079

⁶¹ See Kyota and Urata in Exchange rate, exchange rate volatility and foreign direct investment, p1S01-1S36.

⁶² See Bénassé Quéré , Fontagné and Lahrèche in Exchange rate strategies in the competition for attracting FDI , p178-198.

⁶³ See Gast , M in Determinants of foreign direct investment of OECD countries 1991-2000 , p01-28.

⁶⁴ See Gorg and Wakelin in The impact of exchange rate variability on US direct investment , p380-397.

 $^{^{65}}$ See De Sousa and Lochard in Does the single currency affect FDI? PO1-32.

⁶⁶ See Jeanneret in Does exchange rate volatility really depress foreign direct investment in OECD countries? P01-31.

⁶⁷ See Chakrabarti and Scholnick in The determinants of foreign direct investment: sensitivity analysis and cross country regressions, p89-114.

⁶⁸ See Mc Aleer and Volker in what will take the con out of econometrics? 293-307.

⁶⁹ See Stevens G.V in Exchange rates and foreign direct investment: a note, p293-401.

Ihirg and McIntyre (1999) ⁷⁰ established a business cycle link between FDI and exchange rate showing that a statistically temporally stable relationship between FDI an exchange rate and net worth when they isolate business cycle component of FDI.

Jeanneret (2005) estimates a gravity model for OECD countries and finds that the negative effect of exchange rate volatility declines over time as Görg and Wakelin (2002) in their findings.

 $^{^{70}}$ See Ihrig and McIntyre in Foreign direct investment and real exchange rate: the business cycle link, p01-10.

Table: Some empirical studies on exchange rate -FDI linkages.

Study	Major Findings
Cushman (1985)	Level mixed significance, significant
	reduction of FDI for expected real
	appreciation of the foreign currency,
	significant increases FDI associated with risk
Cushman (1988)	Expected \$ US appreciation reduces IFDI,
	increased exchange rate risk positively
	correlated with FDI
Froot and Stein (1991)	Host currency depreciation increases IFDI
Baily and Tavlas (1991)	Volatility insignificant
Harris and Ravensraft (1991)	Wealth gains after cross- border take over
	possibility related to host currency
	depreciation
Michael W. Rosengren and Eric	Host currency depreciation increases
and the state of t	
S.Rosengren (1992)	IFDI inwards through relative wealth
	channel.
Clare (1992)	Volatility negatively affects FDI
Campa (1993)	Volatility deters FDI, level effect is positive
Swenson (1993)	Host currency depreciation increases IFDI
Klein and Rosengren (1994)	Host depreciation increases IFDI (Relative
	Wealth effect)
Goldberg and Kolstad (1995)	If demand and exchange rate shocks are
	correlated, volatility increases FDI
Dewenter (1995)	Host currency depreciation increases
	absolute IFDI, not FDI relative to domestic
	investment
Ning and Reed (1995)	US\$ depreciation stimulates OFDI
Kogut and Chang (1996)	Home currency appreciation increases OFDI
Barrell and Pain (1996)	Expected short term exchange rate changes
	affect timing of investment -expected
	appreciation of \$US delays OFDI
Grosse and Trevino (1996)	US\$ depreciation increases IFDI
Blonigen (1997)	Host currency depreciation increases IFDI
Tcha (1997)	Negative effect for inbound, positive effect
icha (1997)	for outbound
Bayoumi and Lipworth (1998)	OFDI to host increases after host currency
Dayounn and Lipworth (1990)	depreciation
Coldborg and Visia (1000)	4
Goldberg and Klein (1998)	Exchange rate significant for SE Asia, not
0-1/1/1000	Latin America
Campa et al (1998)	Host currency depreciation increases IFDI
Gopinath et al (1998)	Volaility reduces FDI, appreciation of US\$
	increases OFDI and sales
McCorriston and Sheldon (1998)	Host currency depreciation increases
	aggregate IFDI, results mixed for industry
Ricci (1998)	Volatility promotes agglomeration effects of
	FDI, except for small countries
Ihrig and McIntyre (1999)	FDI-Exchange rate links exists in filtered not
	raw data

D. 14 (1000)	37-1-4114 1
De Menil (1999)	Volatility has positive effect on FDI
Marchant et al (1999)	Exchange rate insignificant
Urata and Kawai (2000)	Levels and volatility significant – signs mixed for different industries
W + 4-1-4 1 I : (2000)	
Kosteletou and Liargovas (2000)	For large countries causality runs from exchange rate to FDI, causality is bi-
	directional for small countries –mixed sign
Chakrabati and Scholnick (2000)	on exchange rate Level and volatility insignificant,
Chakraban and Schollick (2000)	
	skewness significant : relatively large
	devaluations generate mean reverting
	expectations, increasing IFDI
Yang et al (2000)	Exchange rate insignificant
Tomlin (2000)	Exchange rate level and volatility
	insignificant –exchange rate drift –
	significant and incorrect sign
Bénassé –Quéré et al (2001)	Host currency depreciation FDI,
	volatility decreases FDI, significant
	exchange rate interdependence effects
Amuedo-Dorantes and Pozo (2001)	Levels insignificant, volatility affects
	FDI negatively
Lafrance and Tessier (2001)	Volatility and level insignificant
Halicioglu (2001)	Exchange rate insignificant
Feliciano and Lipsey (2002)	Host currency depreciation increases
renciano and Lipsey (2002)	1.
	foreign acquisitions but it's insignificant
17 (2002)	for new establishments
Matteson and Koo (2002)	Exchange rate level insignificant,
	volatility effect negative
Görg and Wakelin (2002)	Exchange rate significant, effect differs
	across locations, volatility has positive
	effect except for France
Trevino et al (2002)	Exchange rate insignificant
Crowley and Lee (2003)	Volatility effect differs across countries
Pain and Van Welsum (2003)	Host currency depreciation increases
	IFDI – volatility increases FDI
Becker and Hall (2003)	Volatility negatively affects FDI-
	exchange rate covariances significant,
	appreciation of Sterling reduces IFDI
Kiyota and Urata (2004)	Host currency depreciation increases
Triyou and Oran (2001)	IFDI, volatility affects FDI negatively
Xing and Wang (2004)	If host currency appreciates relative to
Aing and wang (2004)	source country currency more than that
7 6 17 1 1(2004)	of rival host, FDI increases to rival host
De Sousa and Lochard (2004)	Volatility negatively affects FDI, level
	insignificant
Barrell et al (2004)	Volatility effect negative market power
	doesn't reduce impact of exchange rate
	uncertainty – exchange rate correlation
	affect location choice
	1

Jeanneret (2005)	Volatility effect negative, decreasing
	over time
Faeth (2005)	Exchange rate effect positive
1 acm (2003)	
	contemporaneously, negative after one
T ' 44 13 (2005)	lag
Iannizotto and Miller (2005)	Volatility insignificant
Gast (2005)	Exchange rate insignificant
Alba et al (2005)	Volatility insignificant .FDI interdependent :
	a favorable state for FDI and strong US
	dollar increase IFDI
Brzowzoski (2006)	Volatility and uncertainty negatively
	affect FDI
Lin et al (2006)	Level-positive for market seeking,
	negative for export substituting FDI
Buch and Kleinert (2006)	Exchange rate effects operate via goods
	not capital market frictions
Egger et al (2007)	Exchange rate effects differ between USA
	and Japan: \$US depreciation increases both
	Japanese and US OFDI
Russ (2007)	FDI behavior differs between veteran and
	first time investors, and effects depend on
	source (domestic or foreign) of interest rate
	volatility that drives exchange rate risk
Oliver and Manop (2008)	Expectations of local currency
	appreciation and local currency
	depreciation may stimulate inward FDI
	while exchange ratte volatility may deter
	IFDI
Jeannert (2009)	The effect of low level exchange rate
	uncertainty is negative on investment
	decision while high level is positive
	I

IV- Some outstanding models:

1. Froot and Stein (1991):

The appreciation of the firm's home country currency



Increased firm wealth



Firm has greater low cost funds to invest than the counterpart firms in the foreign country



Increased FDI level

Exhibit: Froot and Stein analysis.

2. Klein and Rosengren (1994):

Their empirical study on US FDI concluded that:

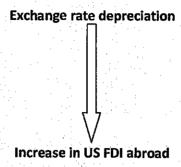


Exhibit: Klein and Rosengren analysis.

Source: compiled by the student

3. Blonigen (1997):

Exchange rate appreciation of the foreign country

Lower the prices of assets (assets transferable within firm across markets without currency transaction as technology, managerial skills ...)) in hat foreign country but not necessarily lower the nominal return

Allowance to Fire Sale for such transferable assets to foreign firms

Exhibit: Blonigen analysis.

4. Campa (1993):

Greater exchange rate uncertainty

Increase the option for firms to wait (postponement)

Depressing FDI

Exhibit: Campa analysis.

Source: Compiled by the student.

5. Goldberg and Kolstad (1995):

Exchange rate uncertainty



Uncertainty correlated with

Export demand shocks in the

Markets they intend to serve



Increase FDI by risk averse MNEs

Exhibit: Goldberg and Kolstad analysis.

6. Garruth et Al (2000):

Negative Relationship

Exchange rate uncertainty

Exhibit: Garruth et Al analysis.

Source: Compiled by the student.

7. Kohlahegen (1997):

Currency of host country devaluated

MNEs increases production capacity

Exhibit: Kohlahegen analysis.

Source: Compiled by the student.

8 . Bénassé-Quéré (2001) :

Erodes

The negative impact of exchange rate volatility —

 $\overline{\hspace{1cm}}$

The attractiveness of host

Currency depreciation

Exhibit: Bénassy-Quéré analysis.

8. Xing and Zhou (2003):

Product differentiation + Barriers in brand name recognition + MNEs reverse imports

Multinationals benefit from the currency devaluation of the recipient country by expanding their operations through additional FDI.

Exhibit: Xing and Zhou analysis.

Concluding Remarks:

Which is remarkable as a major matter in studying such kind of relationships is the *unavoidability of data*, this constraint led to a weakness of body of empirical evidence and a very little firm studies (micro study).

Other resurgent constraint remains in the *heterogeneity* of FDI decision itself; this leads to the heterogeneity of studies i.e. that the exchange rate will have an *ambiguous* and *complex* effect reflected in both theoretical and empirical studies.

The empirical evidence matter consists of *mixed* results provided, this is due to model *specification* problems and data issues as results which are not robust to changes in model specifications. These constraints pave the way for researchers to invest currently efforts to examine the impacts of this macroeconomic variable on FDI decision.

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Chapter III:

Foreign Direct Investment and Exchange Rates: A Case Study of US FDI in Emerging Market

This chapter investigates the impact of exchange rates on US foreign direct investment (inflows) to a sample of 16emerging markets countries using panel data for the period 1994-2006.

Three variables are used to capture separate exchange rate effects: the bilateral exchange rate to the US\$ captures the value of local currency (a higher value implies a cheaper currency), changes in real effective exchange rate index (REER) proxy for expected changes in the exchange rate (an increasing, decreasing REER is interpreted as devaluation, appreciation being expected, the transitory component of bilateral exchange rate is a proxy for volatility of local currency. The background of this support is the" Chakrabati" and "Scholnick" hypothesis that ceteris paribus there is a negative relationship between the expectation of local currency depreciation and FDI inflows, cheaper local currency (devaluation) attracts FDI as volatile exchange rates discourages FDI. This investigation respects the following steps:

- 1. The Emerging Market
- 2. Theoretical background of the study
- 3. Empirical methodology and data
- 4. Econometric analysis and results
- 5. Concluding remarks

I- Emerging Markets:

I-1 Definition:

Emerging markets are countries that are restructuring their economies along market-oriented lines and offer a wealth of opportunities in trade, technology transfers, and foreign direct investment. According to the World Bank¹, the five biggest emerging markets are China, India, Indonesia, Brazil and Russia. Other countries that are also considered as emerging markets include Mexico, Argentina, South Africa, Poland, Turkey, and South Korea. These countries made a critical transition from a developing country to an emerging market. Each of them is important as an individual market and the combined effect of the group as a whole will change the face of global

I-2 Emerging Markets characteristics:

Emerging markets stand out due to four major characteristics. First, they are regional economic powerhouses with large populations, large resource bases, and large markets. Their economic success will spur development in the countries around them; but if they experience an economic crisis, they can bring their neighbors down with them. Second, they are transitional societies that are undertaking domestic economic and political reforms. They adopt open door policies to replace their traditional state interventionist policies that failed to produce sustainable economic growth. Third, they are the world's fastest growing economies, contributing to a great deal of the world's explosive growth of trade. By 2020, the five biggest emerging markets' share of world output will double to 16.1 percent from 7.8 percent in 1992². They will also become more significant buyers of goods and services than industrialized countries. Fourth, they are critical participants in the world's major political, economic, and social affairs. They are seeking a larger voice in international politics and a bigger slice of the global economic pie.

I-3 The potential causes of Emerging Markets creation:

There are two potential causes for the creation of emerging markets: the failure of state-led economic development and the need for capital investment. First, state-led economic development failed to produce sustainable growth in the traditional developing countries. This failure

¹ For more detail see World Trade Report in a Globalized World, p09.

² For more detail see Neenad Pacek and Daniel Throniely in Emerging Markets, Lessons for Business success and the Outlook of different Markets, p65.

and its tremendous negative impact pushed those countries to adopt open door policies, and to change from the state's being in charge of the economy to facilitating economic growth along market-oriented lines. Second, the developing counties desperately needed capital to finance their development, but the traditional government borrowing failed to fuel the development process. In the past, the governments of the developing countries borrowed either from commercial banks or from foreign governments and multilateral lenders like the IMF and the Word Bank. This often resulted in heavy debt overload and led to a severe economic imbalance. The past track record of many developing countries also demonstrates their inability to well manage and efficiently operate the borrowed funds to support economic growth. In light of the unsatisfactory results of government borrowing, developing countries began to rely on equity investment as a means of financing economic growth. They seek to attract equity investment from private investors who will become their partners in development. To attract equity financing, a developing country has to establish the preconditions of a market economy and create a business climate that meets the expectations of foreign investors. This change in financing sources thus became another factor leading to the rise of emerging markets.

I-4 Emerging Markets and traditional view of development³:

The rise of emerging markets is changing the traditional view of development as follows. First, foreign "investment" is replacing foreign "assistance." Investing in the emerging markets is no longer associated with the traditional notion of providing development assistance to poorer nations. Second, emerging markets are rationalizing their trade relations and capital investment with industrialized countries. Trade and capital flows are directed more toward new market opportunities, and less by political consideration. Third, the increasing two-way trade and capital flows between emerging markets and industrialized countries reflect the transition from dependency to global interdependency. The accelerated information exchange, especially with the aid of the Internet, is integrating emerging markets into the global market at a faster pace.

I-5 Emerging Markets challenges:

In their effort to create a market economy and to ensure sustainable development, emerging markets still face big challenges that come from fundamental problems associated with their traditional economic and

³ See Dianna Farrell, Jaana K.Renes and Heiner Schulz in The Truth about Foreign Direct Investment in Emerging Markets, p01-07.

political systems. A market economy requires those countries to redefine the role of the government in the development process and to reduce the government's undue intervention. Another serious problem that those countries have to confront is controlling corruption, which distorts the business environment and impedes the development process. An even more challenging task for those countries is to undertake structural reforms with their financial system, legal system, and political system, so as to guarantee a disciplined and stable economy that is relatively free of political disturbances and interference.

I-6 Emerging Markets prospects⁴:

Emerging markets are the "key swing factor" in the future growth of world trade and global financial stability, and they will become critical players in global politics. They have a huge untapped potential and they are determined to undertake domestic reforms to support sustainable economic growth. If they can maintain political stability and succeed with their structural reforms, their future is promising.

See Gran Thoronton in Emerging Markets, leading the way to recovery, p01-44.

II -Theoretical background:

The main support of this model study is the "Chakrabatti" and "Scholnik"(2002)⁵ hypotheses about different specifications and variables to show the impact of exchange rates, exchange rates expectations and exchange rate volatility on FDI inwards.

Referring to them, investors are lacking to expect fully the future exchange rate variations and they do not revise their expectations to the full extent in current exchange. They suggested that after a probably devaluation of the host country currency, this latter becomes temporarily cheap vis a vis the origin country currency, under these circumstances FDI would to the country as foreign assets become cheaper relative to their future income stream as it's cleared from the following model:

$$\pi = N \left\lceil \frac{R(N)E(e_1)}{1+r} \right\rceil - C(N)e_0 \tag{01}$$

Where:

N: is a measure of the scale of the project.

R: is revenue in host country currency occurring at future point of time for unit N.

C: is the cost of project in the host country currency payable -up for unit N.

 e_{θ} is the exchange rate (source country currency unit per local currency unit) at the time of making the investment .

 $E(e_1)$: is the expected exchange rate at the time when the project pays back.

r: is the opportunity cost of capital over the project's life.

⁵ See Chakrabarti, R. and Scholnick B in Exchange Rate Expectations and Foreign Direct Investment Flows p: 01-21.

Following to this model, firms maximize the value of the expected net payoff by choosing the appropriate value of N, under this assumption there exists an expected dollar profit maximizing the value of N.

Suppose that the optimal value of N is N^* , so the following statement can be suggested:

$$N^* = N^* (r,d); \partial N^* / \partial r < 0 \text{ and } \partial N^* / \partial d < 0$$
 (2)

As: $dE(e_1)/de_0 < 1 \tag{3}$

Based on the expectation inelasticity concept found by Frankel and Froot (1987)⁶.

From (2), (3) the following assumption is summarized:

$$dN^*/de_0 < 0 \tag{4}$$

⁶ Froot, K. and Stein, J in Exchange Rates and Foreign Direct Investment: an Imperfect Capital Markets Approach p, 1191-1218.

Explanations:

An appreciation in a host country currency

Raises expectations about the future levels of the exchange rate by less than the amount of current appreciation



Creates expectations of future devaluation of the currency



Reduces FDI inflows to the host country.

Exhibit: future exchange rate expectations and FDI.

Source: Compiled by the student.

Don't neglect that the effect depends also on the motives for FDI as its illustrated by the following exhibit:

The foreign investor expects that an appreciation of local currency may happen



He would deter the export-oriented FDI



FDI would not be higher in the country and a negative relationship between the expectation of local currency appreciation and FDI inflows exists.



This leads to think about the probable inappropriateness of the above model for explaining export-oriented FDI.

Exhibit: Expectations relationships reverse.

Source: Compiled by the student.

III- Empirical methodology and data:

This study case aims to test three hypotheses:

- 1. The expected devaluation of foreign currency lowers current inward FDI.
 - 2. The foreign currency devaluation raises FDI inwards.
 - 3. The exchange rate volatility discourages FDI inwards.

These three hypotheses can be extended as the following model shows:

Inflows of FDI = f(level of exchange rate, exchange rate volatility, exchange rate shock)

Level of exchange rate: appreciation or depreciation of the foreign country currency

Exchange rate shock: measured by the exchange rate skewness as a proxy (due to lack of data this component is excluded from the model).

Cyclical and regular components of exchange rates are used as proxies measuring exchange rate variations.

Don't neglect that foreign direct investment decision is conducted by other variables rather than exchange rate like: market potential, labor costs, export potential, GDP, infrastructure, inflation), under the above clarifications the suggested full econometric model to be tested is specified as follows:

FDI
$$i, t = \alpha i + \beta 1 \Delta REERi, t$$

+ $\beta 2FXDi, t + \beta 3TFXDi, t + \beta 4MNUi, t + \beta 5INFi, t + \beta 6EXPi, t + \beta 7PGDPi, t + \beta 8PORi, t$
+ $\beta 9TELi, t + \beta 10GGDPi, t + \epsilon i, t$. (5)

Where:

FDI i.t: is the US FDI inflow to the countries.

 $\beta 1 \triangle REERi, t$: is the first difference of log of REER as proxy of the expectation in local currency value (increase, decrease implies that the foreign investor expects devaluation, appreciation of local currency)

 $FXD_{i,t}$: is log of bilateral exchange rates adjusted for inflations to capture the impacts of exchange rates on FDI flows into host countries.

TFXDi,t: is the temporary components (cyclical and regular) of log of the bilateral exchange rates (the Hodrick Prescott HP filter is used to estimate these transitory components) as:

Exchange rate = trend component + cyclical component + irregular component (6)

From the above equation:

Exchange rate -trend component =cyclical component +irregular component (7)

The equation reveals that cyclical and irregular components appear to exhibit oscillatory and unpredictable behavior of series (that of exchange rate in particular), these two components generate exchange rate variability.⁷

 $MNU_{i,t}$: is the manufacturing as proxy of industrialization in, the host countries, its importance results from the informal skills embodied in labor forces. More industrialized countries attract more technology intensive FDI.⁸

 $INF_{i,t}$: is the inflation as some empirical studies examine the effect of host's country macroeconomic management on FDI^9 .

 $EXP_{i,t}$: is the exports, there is an empirical support augmenting that export orientation attracts FDI as MNEs are more attracted to a country with high export potential¹⁰.

For more detail see Goldfajn and Valdes in The Aftermath of Appreciations, p229-226.

⁸ See Wheeler and Mody in International investment location decisions, p57-76 and Lucas in On The Determinants of Foreign Investment: Evidence from East and Southeast Asia , p391-406.

⁹ See Schneider and Frey in Economic and Political determinants of Foreign Direct Investment, p161-175 and Tuman and Emmert in Explaining Japanese Foreign Direct Investment in Latin America, p539-555.

PGDPit: is log of real per capita GDP as a measure of labour costs. This latter has very low mobility in contrast to capital and technology. The multinationals can reduce production costs by transferring the more mobile production factors to countries where labour is cheaper¹¹.

PORit: is the portfolio investment represents a measure of investor confidence and may be positively correlated with FDI (the rise in portfolio capital indicating higher foreign investor confidence and boosting the relative attraction of the country for foreign investor).¹²

TELi,t: is log of the number of telephone mainlines, this is n indicator of infrastructure level as low infrastructure level substantially increases operational costs and may be a deterrent factor of FDI¹³.

GGDP_{i,t}: is real GDP growth as a large domestic market permits the exploitation of economies of scale, which is likely to stimulate FDI, some empirical studies confirm that domestic market potential measured by GDP growth attracts FDI ¹⁴.

Data collection, study period and selected countries:

III-1Data collection:

The data representing those variables are annual aggregate data.

Net *FDI* inflows is treated as dependant variable and collected from Bureau of Economic Analysis at the US Department of Commerce. The data represent financial flows generated by multinationals and do not totally represent the MNEs activity¹⁵. The balance of data payments is used to construct the dependant variable this is due to data limitation in developing countries.

For more detail see Cuiem in The Locational Determinants of Foreign Investments among Industrialized Countries, p885-904.

¹¹ See Aristotelous and Fountas in An Empirical Analysis of Inward Foreign Direct Investment Flows in the EU with Emphasis on the Market Enlargement on the Market Enlargement Hypothesis, p571-583.

For more detail see Meredith in US Multinational Investment in Canadian Manufacturing Industries, p111-119.

For more detail see Asidieu in On Determinants of Foreign Direct Investment in Developing Countries: is Asia Different? P107-119.

¹⁴ See Gastanaga, Nugent and Pashamova in Host Country Reforms and DFI Inflows: How Much Difference do they make?, p1299-1314.

For more detail see Lipsey in Foreign Direct Investors and The Operations of Multinational Firms : Concepts , History and Data , p01-14

REER indices are from international financial statistics, international monetary fund through World Development indicators (WDI) 2008.

IMF defines *REER* as nominal effective exchange rate adjusted for relative movements in national price indicators (CPI) of home country and selected countries.

Average official bilateral exchange rate are collected from World Development indicators 2008, they are adjusted by CPI of host countries to acquire real exchange rates.

MNU: measured as value added as a share of GDP, it's collected from World Development indicators 2008 (used as proxy of the industrialization factor).

INF: inflation measured as percentage of annual growth of GDP deflator, it's collected from World Development indicators 2008 (used as proxy of macroeconomic environment factor).

EXP: exports of goods and services as a ratio of GDP, are collected from World Development indicators 2008 (is used as proxy of the export market factor).

PGDP: GDP per capita is collected from World Development indicators 2008(the data utilized for labor costs).

POR: portfolio investment is collected from World Development indicators 2008 and adjusted by GDP at current prices (US Dollar) to obtain portfolio investment as ratio of GDP as a proxy of foreign investors confidence in economic and political conditions of the host countries.

TEL: data on number of telephone mainlines is extracted from World Development Indicators 2008 (this variable is used as proxy of infrastructure).

GGDP: real GDP growth is obtained from World Development Indicators 2008 as a proxy of the domestic market potential factor.

III-2 Study period:

The period of study covers from 1994 to 2006.

III-3 Selected countries:

The countries selected are 16 emerging countries, consist of 5 countries from Asia (China, Malaysia, Pakistan, The Philippines, Thailand), 8 Latin America Countries (Bolivia, Chile, Colombia, Costa Rica, Dominican Republic, Paraguay, Uruguay, Venezuela) and 3 African countries (Morocco, South Africa, Tunisia).

IV- Econometric Analysis:

- 1. The fixed and random effects are uses to test the hypothesis (or pooled OLS if estimation if unobserved effects summation equals Zero¹⁶).
- 2. To show which technique is more suitable for the data the **Hausman** or **F**-**Test** is used.¹⁷
 - 3.LM test is used to check for first order correlation.¹⁸
- 4.It's possible that the errors are not independent and identically distributed (iid), in this case the estimators are still consistent but inefficient that 's why random and fixed effects with first order autocorrelation disturbances are used to assume error terms and remedy the problem ¹⁹.
- 5. Robustness check of regional effects on FDI determination is performed by dividing the countries into two regions: Latin America and Asia.

¹⁶ For more detail see Jeffery M. Wooldridge in Econometric Analysis of Cross Section and Panel Data, p251-286.

¹⁷ See Jeffery M. Wooldridge in Econometric Analysis of Cross Section and Panel Data , p288 and Badi H. Batgali in Econometric Analysis of Panel Data , p124-128.

¹⁸ For more detail see Badi H. Batgali , p62.

¹⁹ See Jeffery M. Wooldridge in Econometric Analysis of Cross Section and Panel Data, p663-673.

Estimation Re	sults: 1	1994-2006.
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Table 01:

INDEPENDENT	VARIABLE
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FIXED EFFECTS WITH AR(1)

DISTURBANCES

irst difference of log of REER	-0.48(0.08)	-0.77(0.16)	-0.56(0.09)
Log of the bilateral exchange rate	5.75(0.00)	6.04(0.00)	5.86(0.00)
Temporary component of log of the	-6.30(0.01)	-6.64(0.06)	-6.50(0.01)
bilateral exchange rate			
Manufacturing, value added/GDP	-0.06(0.60)	-0.04(0.45)	-0.05(0.63)
Inflation	-0.01(0.07)	-0.01(0.87)	-0.02(0.08)
Exports of goods and services	-0.01(0.96)	-0.01(0.93)	-0.01(0.58)
Log of real per capita GDP	3.00(0.20)	3.36(0.16)	3.13(0.19)
Portfolio investment/GDP	0.03(0.09)	0.03(0.11)	0.04(0.08)
Log of number of telephone mainlines	-0.69(0.25)	-0.47(0.46)	-0.69(0.21)
Real GDP growth	0.01(0.83)	0.01(0.96)	0.01(0.93)
Constant	-40.36(0.00)	-41.54(0.00)	-41.46(0.00)
Coefficients of determinations	0.36	0.32	0.21
Hausman test Statistics (Chi-5quared)			
LM test Statistics			
Koenker-Bassett test (t-test) Statistics			
Number of observations	176	176	176

Period Covered 1994-2006.

Sample :16 emerging markets

Notes: the figures in parentheses are P-values (significant coefficients in **bold**); the 5% critical value of Chi-squared distribution with 1 degree of freedom is 3.85.

Table: Fixed Effects and Random Effects

INDEPENDENT VARIABLE	FIXED EFFECTS	RANDOM EFFECTS
First difference of log of REER	-1.94(0.01)	-062(0.69)
Log of the bilateral exchange rate	6.62(0.00)	0.24(0.03)
Temporary component of log of the	-7.96(0.00)	-0.16(0.91)
bilateral exchange rate		
Manufacturing, value added/GDP	0.03(0.67)	0.10(0.01)
Inflation	-0.02(0.09)	-0.01(0.93)
Exports of goods and services	-0.02(0.18)	-0.01(0.51)
Log of real per capita GDP	3.71(0.11)	1.19(0.14)
Portfolio investment/GDP	0.08(0.09)	0.04(0.38)
Log of number of telephone mainlines	-0.48(0.19)	-0.39(0.17)
Real GDP growth	0.02(0.28)	0.06(0.02)
Constant		-9.56(0.01)
Coefficients of determinations	0.43	0.16
Hausman test Statistics (Chi-Squared)	86.49(0.00)	
LM test Statistics	180.69	
Koenker-Bassett test (t-test) Statistics	0.89(0.56)	
Number of observations	192	192

Period Covered 1994-2006

Sample: 16 emerging markets

Notes: the figures in parentheses are P-volues (significant coefficients in **bold**); the 5% critical value of Chi-squared distribution with 1 degree of freedom is 3.85.

Fixed effects estimation results (192 observations) are presented in the table above . This estimation reveals negative responses of the FDI inflows to expectations of local currency devaluation and local currency volatility . The expected positive response of FDI is also shown . The estimated coefficients of these variables are statistically significant at 5 percent level . In addition, the results provide evidence that high inflation discourages FDI inflows.

An increase in foreign investors' confidence encourages inward FDI. The estimated coefficients are statistically significant at 10 percent level. The other coefficients are statistically insignificant.

IV-1The economic crisis of 1997 effects on FDI inflows:

To test the hypothesis that the 1997 economic crisis may decrease inflows of FDI to the emerging markets a time dummy variable is included in the model (TIME), which equals to 1 if the period is 1997-2006 and 0 otherwise. From the econometric tests, there is no evidence that the economic crisis has any impact on US FDI inwards to the emerging markets. In the following regression, the estimated coefficients of exchange rate expectation is not statistically significant whilst the impacts of foreign currency devaluations and volatility of the exchange rate on the inward FDI are comparable to these obtained before: local currency depreciation stimulates FDI and volatile exchange rate discourages FDI.

The interaction of exchange rate expectations with exchange rate volatility effect on FDI inflows is examined by including the interaction variable ($\triangle REER*TFXD$) in the model, results are shown in the following table:

Estimation Results (1994-2004)

INDEPENDENT VARIABLE	FIXED EFFECT:	S WITH AR (1)			
	DISTURB	ANCES			
First difference of log of REER	-0.86(0.08)	-0.77(0.16)	-0.56(0.09)		
Log of the bilateral exchange rate	5.75(0.00)	6.04(0.00)	S.86(0.00)		
Temporary component of log of the	-6.30(0.01)	-6.64(0.06)	-6.50(0.01)		
bilateral exchange rate					
Manufacturing, value added/GDP	-0.06(0.60)	-0.04(0.45)	-0.05(0.63)		
Inflation	-0.01(0.07)	-0.01(0.87)	- 0.02(0.08)		
Exports of goods and services	-0.01(0.96)	-0.01(0.93)	-0.01(0.58)		
Log of real per capita GDP	3.00(0.20)	3.36(0.16)	3.13(0.19)		
Portfolio investment/GDP	0.03(0.09)	0.03(0.11)	0.04(0.08)		
Log of number of telephone mainlines	-0.69(0.25)	-0.47(0.46)	-0.69(0.21)		
Real GDP growth	0.01(0.83)	0.01(0.96)	0.01(0.93)		
Constant	-40.36(0.00)	-41.54(0.00)	-41.46(0.00)		
TIME		-0.49(0.17)			
ΔREER*TFXD (logged)	-0.26(0.04)				
Coefficients of determinations	0.43		0.16		
Hausman test Statistics (Chi-Squared)	86.49(0.00)				
LM test Statistics	180.69				
Koenker-Bassett test (t-test) Statistics	0.89(0.56)				
Number of observations	192		192		

Period Covered 1994

Sample: 16 emerging markets

Notes: the figures in parentheses are P-values (significant coefficients in **bold**); the 5% critical value of Chi-squared distribution with 1 degree of freedom is 3.85.

IV-2 Regional Effects on FDI Inflows:

The 1997 economic crisis had a significant and direct impact on level of exchange rates in Asian Countries. After the crisis, some of the countries adopted floating exchange rate regime, so it's important to test the regional effects on US FDI inflows .A dummy variable for Asian countries interacted with the core explanatory variables is included in the model as follow:

 $FDIi, t=\beta 0+\beta 1\Delta REERi, t+\beta 2FXDi, t+\beta 3TFXDi, t+\beta 4Xi, t+\beta 5ASIA+\beta 6ASIA*\Delta REERi, t+\beta 7ASIA*FXDi, t+\beta 8ASIA*TFXDi, t+\mu i+\varepsilon i.$

Where:

ASIA is a dummy variable that is 1 for Asian countries and 0 otherwise. The Latin American countries are included and the African countries are omitted (to have a sensible comparison group).

Tests are shown in the following table:

VARIBLES FI	XED EFFECTS WITH AR (1)	FIXED EFFECTS	OLS
	DISTURBANCES		
Δ log of REER (β1)	-4.00(0.01)	-3.38(0.03)	1.39(0.51)
FXD (logged ,β2)	9.36(0.00)	9.62(0.00)	0.16(0.05)
TFXD (logged, β3)	-9.07(0.00)	-10.89(0.00)	1.76(0.38)
MNU/GDP (β4)	-0.09(0.29)	-0.13(0.89)	-0.04(0.39)
INF (β5)	-0.04(0.03)	-0.02(0.01)	0.01(0.17)
EXP/GDP (β6)	0.01(0.92)	0.02(0.76)	-0.03(0.04)
PGDP (logged, β7)	5.26(0.25)	4.73(0.19)	1.43(0.38)
PORT/GDP (β8)	0.08 (0.27)	-0.04 (0.76)	-0.05(0.78)
TEL (logged, β9)	-0.97 (0.13)	-0.86(0.13)	-0.67(0.16)
GGDP (β10)	0.05 (0.8)	0.04(0.04)	0.06(0.05)
ASIA (β11)	6.46 (0.01)		2.79(0.01)
ASIA*Δ log of REER (β12)	-5.97(0.05)	6.34(0.01)	4.23(0.29)
ASIA*FXD (logged) (β13)	-0.81(0.07)	-7.31(0.01)	-0.46(0.08)
ASIA*TFXD (logged) (β14)	0.38(0.00)	1.96(0.07)	-3.69(0.42)
Constant	-68.78 (0.00)		-7.94(0.00)
Coefficient of determination	0.49	0.56	0.26
F-test: H0: β1+β12=0	10.59(0.01)		
F-test :H0:β2+β13=	3.16(0.08)		
F-test: H0:β3+β14=0	24.32(0.00)		
F-test statistic		18.79(0.00)	
LM test (Chi-squared) statistic		144.46	
Koenker-Bassett test statistic		0.56(0.19)	
Number of observations	143	156	156

Period Covered 1994

Sample :16 emerging markets

Notes: The figures in parentheses are P-values (significant coefficients in **bold**); the 5% critical value of Chi-squared distribution with 1 degree of freedom is 3.84.

The previous results are largely confirmed but ASIA exhibits some differences compared to Latin America (the samples are too small to reliably each region separately). The LM test however suggests misspecification due to first—order autocorrelation. The calculated test is greater than the 5% critical value of the Chi—squared distribution with 1 degree of freedom, so the no—first order autocorrelation null hypothesis could be rejected and fixed—effects with AR(1) disturbances is reestimated.

First—order autocorrelation fixed effects findings show that the results on inflation and market potential variables are broadly consistent with prior expectations and with the evidence found in other studies of FDI determinations. Market potential encourages inflows of FDI whereas inflation discourages FDI flows.

In line with the hypotheses, exchange rate volatility, local currency appreciation and expectations of local currency depreciation all discourages FDI flows into both Latin America and Asia. The other independent variables are statistically insignificant.

Concluding Remarks:

This chapter investigates the effects of exchange rate expectations, and exchange rate volatility on (net) US FDI to 16 emerging markets countries. This empirical study adopted as theoretical background the "Chakrabarti" and "Scholnick" (2002) model .Annual aggregate data are employed over the period 1994-2006.

The study based on three hypotheses: expectations of local currency appreciation and local currency depreciation may stimulate inward FDI; in addition, exchange rate volatility has probably a significant role on FDI inflows.

The results can be summarized as follow:

- 1. There is strong evidence of the positive (negative) relationship of local currency devaluation (appreciation) and FDI inflows.
- 2. There is evidence of the negative (positive) relationship of expectations of local currency depreciation (appreciation) and FDI inflows. The result implies that FDI in the countries is increasingly being undertaken to service domestic demand for finance, telecommunications, wholesaling, and retailing rather than to tap cheap labor.
- 3. There is evidence of the negative relationship of volatile exchange rates and FDI inflows.
- 4. There is significance of the interaction variable (ΔREER*TFXD): the greater is the volatility the greater is the extent to which FDI is discouraged .Exchange rate expectations give weight on exchange rate variation .If devaluation is expected, a volatile exchange rate discourages FDI .In case of expected appreciation, the variation decreases FDI when change in REER is between 0 and -3.30 otherwise the variability encourages FDI.
- 5. There is significance of foreign investors confidence in economic conditions of host countries
- 6. The 1997 economic crisis has no possibly impact on US FDI in emerging markets because the impact is on exchange rates, especially in an Asia, which then affect FDI.

Foreign investors in emerging markets do respond to the exchange rate: devaluation attracts FDI (as it reduces the price of assets abroad), although an expected devaluation postpones FDI. US investors are discouraged by volatile exchange rates, perhaps because this is correlated with economic and political uncertainty, which also appears to discourage FDI.

This analysis contributes to the discussion of the impacts of exchange rates on FDI. However, a limitation is the sample used here which is restricted to relatively few countries since REER data are not available for earlier years and for many emerging markets. The utilization of longer and for broader data series would extend and test the results. Another improvement of this study would be to utilize data from future exchange rate markets and the standard deviation of high frequency (monthly or daily) exchange rate data to re-analyze the effects of exchange rate expectations and volatility on FDI inflows. The country-level analysis moreover has some limitations, particularly when MNEs have different FDI objectives .Suppose two types of MNEs with two different FDI objectives exist in host country. One is interested in low cost production (export -oriented FDI). The other is interested in domestic sales (market -seeking FDI). Under such circumstances, the country-level analysis cannot clearly clarify the FDI types (in the country) by capturing the exchange rate expectation impact on inward FDI .As a consequence, this investigation indicates the need to undertake the firm-level analysis, which requires detailed information on firm activities.

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Conclusion:

This study has taken a considerable tour of the economic, financial aspects of FDI by exploring the characteristics, determinants and effects of FDI in one hand and the exchange rate impact behavior on FDI flows by mentioning the major findings and contributions in the other, but it's possible to state the following points as some sort of recapitulation:

- 1. FDI is the process whereby residents of one country acquire ownership of assets for the purpose of controlling the activities of a firm in another country. Interests of FDI results from its rapid growth, the concern it raises over the causes and consequences of foreign ownership and the fact that FDI has become an important source of funds in the international business process.
- 2. The effects of FDI on the host country can be classified into economic, political and social effects. Whether these effects are favorable or adverse is a controversial matter, as they are condition specific.
- 3. One of the many influences of FDI activity is the behavior of exchange rates. Exchange rates defined as the domestic currency price of a foreign currency, matter in terms of their levels and their volatility. Exchange rates can influence both the total amount of Foreign Direct Investment that takes place and the allocation of this investment spending across range of countries as the FDI host country currency depreciation increases IFDI, volatility affects FDI negatively and the expected host currency depreciation lowers IFDI.

These are the major pillars of the study paving the way for a more detailed and fruitful researches in order to be able to pick-up and distinguish the exchange rate and other variables impacts on FDI decision.

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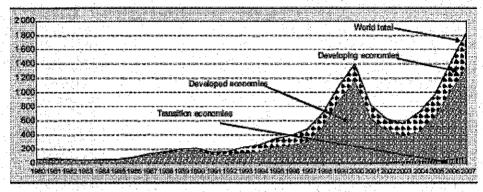
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Appendices

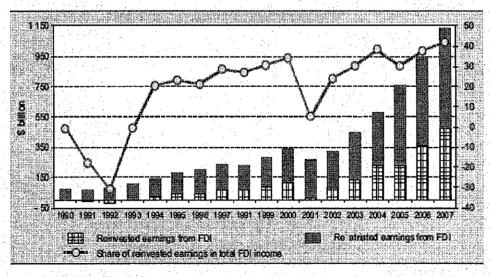
FDI (Foreign Direct Investment)

Figure I.1. FDI inflows: global and by groups of economies, 1980–2007 (Billions of dollars)



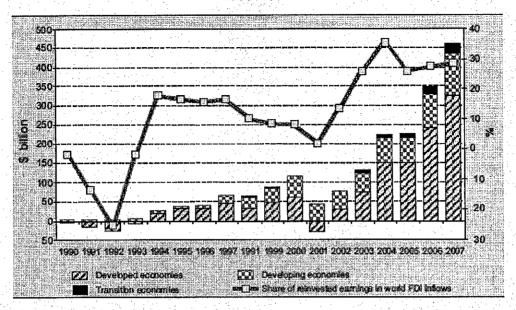
Source: UNCTAD FDITTNC database (www.unctad.org/fdistatistics) and amexitable B.1.

Figure I.3. Worldwide income on FDI and reinvested earnings, 1990-2007



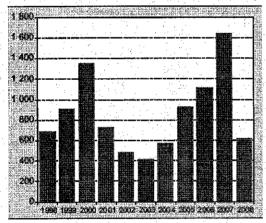
Source: UNCTAD, FDI/TNC database (www.unctad.org/fdistatistics).

Figure I.4. Reinvested earnings of TNCs: value and share in total FDI inflows, 1990–2007



Source: UNCTAD, FDI/TNC database (www.uncted.org/fdistatistics).

Figure I.5. Value of cross-border M&As, 1998–2008 (Billions of dollars)



Source: UNCTAD, cross-border M&A database (www. unctad.org/idlatatistics).

Note: Data for 2008 are only for the first half of the year.

Table I.2. Cross-border M&As valued at over \$1 billion, 1987–2008*

	Number of deals	Produce a ola	Value (5 billion)	
1987	19	n er iki Lo erenis e	39.1	40.1
1988	24	na kan da 177 da 197 sa Bassa da Lab ara da ka	53.2	38.7
1989	31	en e	68.2	40.8
1990	48	a national parties remain	83.7	51.65 3 4 7 37 50
1991	13	ngaraz o y a serif	31.5	3 37 0 - 15 -
1992	12		23.8	e engine de la
1993	18		37.7	30.5
1994	36	intribuis di a akeesaa	72.6	42.5
1995	44		97.1	41.9
1996	48	0.a	100.2	
1997	73		146.2	364
1998	111	and the state of t	408.8	59.0
1999	137	15 (5)	578.4	64.0
2000	207		999.0	74.0
2001	137	19 1 1 1 1 1 1 1 1 1 1 1 1 1 1 1 1 1 1	451.0	617
2002	105	eres del pr esidento	265.7	55.0
2003	78	ezen a ifêrê	200.7 184.2	
2004	111		291.3	515
940: VES-TV (1 pt/b) Ode (rece)	182	BALLY DOWN THE SECOND CONTRACTOR OF STREET	291.0 569.4	
2005				States Science Land Crost South February Control And
2006	215		711.2	63.6
2007	300	3.0	1 161	5 9 70.9
O f	54		153.7	637
Q2	98	9.242. 37 .756	359.4	26.4 See 76.4
QS	73	29 + C	251.3	67.1
Q4	75	K. 18 3 1	396.9	78.7
2008 *	137	31	439.4	70.7
101	77	Principle (a g eneralis as	259.7	73.8
, Q2	60	29	179.7	66.6

Source: UNCTAD cross-border M&A database (www.unctad.org/ fdistalistics).

* First half only.

Table (4. Selected indicators of FDI and international production, 1982-2007

	Value at c	ing inern	ces			Annual growth	i rate		
	(\$ 1	illion)				(Per cent)		V
ta deserva sanoeuros deservas la proposición.	1982 1990	2006	2007	1986- 1990	1991- 1995	1996- 2004 2000 - 2004	2005	2006	2007
	100012		88(\$4K-4\$2) Y FRY		12(0.715)(180)	Elastrately.		ed strikeringer	
FDI inflows	58 207	1 411	1 633	23.6	22.1	39.9 27.9	33.6	47.2	29.9
FDI oulflows	27 239	1 323	1 907	25.9	18.5	36.1 63.5	-4.3	50.2	50.9
FDI inward stock	789 1341	12 470	15 211	15.1	8.6	16.1	6.2	22.5	22.0
FDI outward stock	579 1 785	12 750	15.602	18.1	10.6	17.2 16.4	3.9	20.4	22.3
Income on inwerd FDI	44 74	950	1 128	10.2	25.3	13.1 31.3	31.1	24.3	18.7
Income on outward FDI	46 120	1 038	1 220	18.7	20.2	10.2 42.4	27.4	17.1	175
Cross-border M&As*		1 118	1 637	26.6	****49.5	51.5 37.6	64.2	20.3	46.4
Sales of loreign affiliates	2 741 0 126	25 844	31 1974	19.3	6.8	8.4 15.0	1.89	22.2ª	20.70
Gross product of foreign affiliates	676 1 501	5 049*	6.020	17.0	6.7	7.3 15.9	5.94	21.2	19.4*
Total assets of foreign affiliates	2206 6036	55 818"	68 716*	17.7	13.7	19.3 -1.0	20.6*	18.6*	23.1*
Export of foreign affiliates	688 1 523	4 950	5714	217	8.4	39 212	12.0	15.2	154
Employment of foreign affiliates (thousands)	21 524 25 103	70 00 24	81 6 154	5.3	5.5	11.5 3.7	4.94	21 68	16.04
Standards to store the continuous and a major pr	Residential	1,175	Kideroutytti		district.	12010000000		AND AND AND ASSESSMENT	1.5
GDP (in current prices)	12 083 22 163	48 926	54 568	9.4	5.9	1.3 32.6	8.3	8.3	11.5
Gross fixed capital formation	2 798 5 102	10 922	12 356	10.0	5.4	1.1 15.2	12.5	10.9	13.1
Royaltes and icence lee recepts	9 29	142	184	21.1	14.6	8.1 23.7	10.6	10.5	15.4
Exports of goods and non-factor services	2 395 4 417	14 848	17 138	11.6	7.0	38 212	12.8	15.2	15.4

Source: UNCTAD, based on its FDI/TNC database (www.uncted.org/fcf statistics), UNCTAD, GlobStat, and IMF, International Financial Statistics, juno 2008

- * Data are only available from 1967 onward.
- 1987-1990 aniy.
- Data for 2006 and 2007 are based on the following regression result of sales against inward FDI stock (in \$ railion) for the period 1980-2005; sales=1 484.6002-1.9534* inward FDI stock.
- Data for 2006 and 2007 are based on the following regression result of gross product against lewend FDI stock (in \$ million) for the period 1982-2005; gross product=591.8813+0.3574* inward FDI stock.
- Data for 2006 and 2007 are based on the following regression result of assets against inward FDI stock (in \$ million) for the period 1980-2005 assets = -2 874.9859+4.7686*
- For 1995-1997, based on the regression result of exports of foreign affiliates against inward FOI stock (in \$ million) for the period 1692-1694; exports = 138.9912+0.6414*FDI inward stock. For 1998-2007, the share of exports of foreign affiliates in works exports at 1988-233½) was applied to obtain the value.
- Based on the Eleving regression result of employment (in trousands) against isward FDI stock (in 1 million) for the period 1980-2005; employment of 7164.7204+4.2372* Isward FDI stock.
- * Based on data from the BMF, World Economic Cuthook, April 2008.

In data from the lift, West Economic Custoos, April 2009.

Not included in this table are the values of worldwide sales by foreign affiliates associated with their parent firms through non-equity relationships and the sales of the parent firms themselves. Worldwide sales, gross product, total assats, exports and employment of breign affiliates are estimated by extrapolating the worldwide data of foreign affiliates of TNCs from Austria, Conada, the Czech Republic, Finland, France, Germany, Italy, Japan, Luxembourg, Fortugal, Sweden and the United States for assets, those from Austria, Germany, Japan and the United States for assets; those from Austria, the Czech Republic, Japan, Portugal, Sweden and the United States for assets; those from Austria, Germany, Japan, Switzedand and the United States for employment, on the basis of the shares of those countries in world outward FDI stock.

Figure I.8. Matrix of inward FDI performance and potential, 2006

der et lier in Grand (1991)	High FD perform nce	Low FDI perform nos
High FDI potenti	Front-runners Arreteger, Estamer, Banser, Degum, Estame Deroschem Bulgata, Chila, Ghasta, Cymaa, the Congr. Renatio, Sp. Dominican Penatro, Estavia	Below potential Algeria, Aspertise, Austria, Belous, Berall, Canada, China, Demonik, Firsherd, France, Germany, Greece, Velond, Salamo Republic of Iran, Itary, Japan, Kawas, Sie Libyas Arab Jamashinya, Mecon, Norway, Portugal, Cathr. Sie Republic of Korea, the Russian Follorister, Sovenia, Syah, Switzerford, Talvan Froning of China, line Usiled States and the Beliverian Rep. of Venezuesa.
Low FDI potent	Above occental Above occental Above America Basswaria, Connota, Congo, Coste Rica Pgyrs, Ethiopia, the Gambin, Georgia, Gusesi, Gujaria, Floridores, Jamesca, Kingyestan, Lebentor, Modove, Hambin, Mcarages, Nigeria, Pet	Undergerbriners Angols, Ganglardesh, Benin, Bolskii, Barkina Feaso, Cameroon, Côse d'Ivoire, Ere Demonsiès Regulais of Ere Congo, Erouatos, El Savador, Galton, Chema, Gustomaia, Mari, India, Indonesia, Kenya, Madagnasar, Materi, Alesi, Munocco, Ahrzambique, Myassina, Meipel, Niger, Pakistan, Papula New Guinera, Paraguay, Paip pares, Rwantes, Sanegai, South Africa, Shi Lante, Sariname, Be Syrian Asia Republic, Turkey, Universitation, Yomen and Zinfastowe

Source: UNCTAD, based on annex table A.I.10.

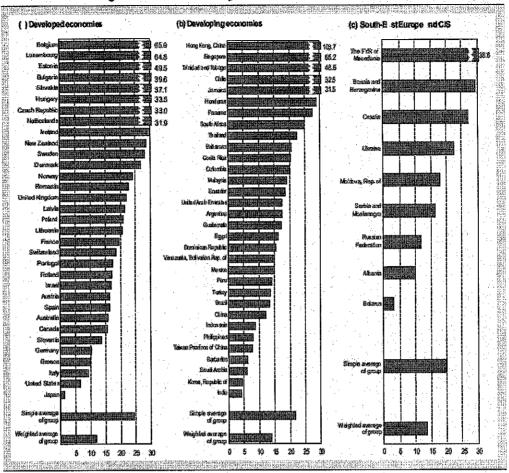
Table I.6. Top 20 rankings by Inward and Outward Performance Indices, 2006 and 2007 *

Inward FDI Performance Index ranking			Outward FDI Performance Index ranking			
Economy	2006 20		Economy	2006	2007	
Hong Kong, China	2	1	Luxembourg	3	1	
Bulgaria	3	2	Iceland	4	. 2	
Iceland	4	3	Hong Kong, China	2	3	
Malia	5	4	Switzerland	4	A	
Bahamas	8	5	Panama	5	5	
Jordan	7	6	Belgium	7	6	
Singapore	6	7	Netherlands	6	7	
Estonia	9	8	Kuwait	12	Ð	
Georgia	15	4	Bahrain	11		
Lebanon	13	10	Singapore	. 8	10	
Guyana	20	11	Ireland	9	1	
Belarain	12	12	Sweden	13	12	
Beigium	10	13	Spain	14	13	
Gambia	11	14	France	18	14	
Panama	16	15	Estoria	17	15	
Mongolia	19	16	United Kingdom	21	18	
Tajikistan	18	17	Israel	15	17	
Cyprus	24	18	Norway	16	18	
Moldova, Republic of	27	19	Austria	23	15	
Egypt	31	20	Denmark	33	20	

Source: UNCTAD, armex table A.I.10.

Countries are listed in the coder of their 2007 rankings. Rankings based on indices
deduced using three-year moving averages of data on FD1 flows and GDP for the
three years immediately preceding the year in question including that year.

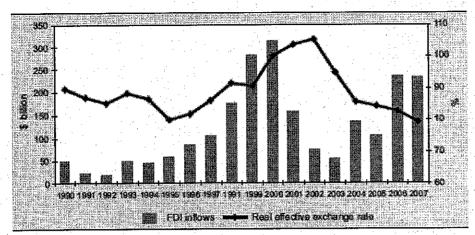
Figure 1.7. Transnationality index* for host economies, \$ 2005



Source: LINCTAD estimates.

- Average of the four shares: FDI inflows as a percentage of gross fixed capital formation for the past three years 2003-2005; FDI invarid abouts as a percentage of GDP in 2005; value added offoreign affiliates as a percentage of GDP in 2005; and employment of foreign affiliates as a percentage of total employment in 2005. Day the economies for which data for all of these four shares are available were selected. Data on value added were available only for Augmits (2001), Austria (2003), Salarus (2002), Bulyaria, China (2003), Czech Republic, Esonis (2004), France, Hong Kong (China), Hungary, Indy (2004), Ireland (2004), Japan, Latvia (2004), Salarus (2004), France (

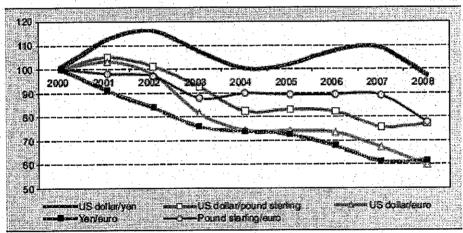
Figure 1.18. FDI inflows to the United States and the real effective exchange rate, 1990–2007



Source: UNCTAD, FDI/TNC database (www.unctad.org/fdlistellstics) and IMF's International Financial Statistics, June 2008 (for data on exchange rate).

Note: Real effective exchange rate is based on relative normalized unit labour costs.

Figure 1.16. Nominal bilateral exchange rate changes of selected currencies, 2000–2008 * (2000=100)

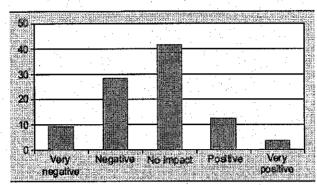


Source: UNCTAD, based on OECD, Economic Outbook, No. 83, June 2008.

2008 data are projections by OECD.

Note: A falling curve indicates a depreciation of the exchange rate of the first mentioned currency against the second currency.

Figure I.17. Impact of depreciation of the United States dollar on global FDI flows for 2008–2010 (Per cent of responses to the UNCTAD survey)



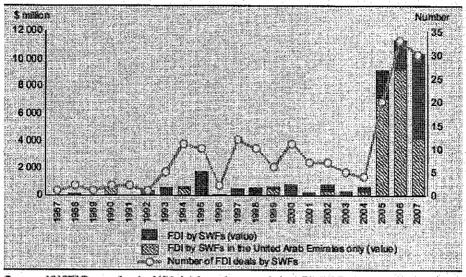
Source: UNCTAD, 2008b.

The survey question was: To what extent have your actual FDI and short-term investment plans been affected by the depreciation of United States dollar? Note:

Figure 1.19. Major FDI locations of sovereign wealth funds, 2007

UNCTAD, based on annex table A.I.11.

Figure 1.20. FDI flows by sovereign wealth funds, 1987-2007



Source: UNCTAD cross-border M&A database (www.uncled.org/fdistatistics).

* Oross-border M&As only. Greenfield investments by SWFs are assumed to be extremely limited.

Table 1.9. Twenty selected large FDI cases by sovereign wealth funds, 1995-2007 stry of the acquired million) Acquired company Host economy COMORNY established by SWFs 2005 2 359 Kuokwana Petrochemins Taiwan Province Industrial organic chemicals of China nec International Patrillaum 20 Co Ltd 2 313 Tunisio-Telecoms nec Telephone communicatio Investment Co (IPIC) Tunisia Investment Corporation United Arch Emzetic 35 exceptradiofelephone Plastics materials and of Dubai Abu Dhabi Investment 2005 1691 Borealis A/S 50 Authority Dubai International Capital evotoetic resins 1 495 Tussauda Group Ltd 2005 United Kingdom Amusement and recreation 2006 1 270 Travelodge Hotels Ltd United Kinddom Hotels and motels Dubai International Capital United Areb Emiratos 100 LLC
Dubai international Capital United Areb Emirales United Kingdom 2006 1 241 Donoanters PLC Aircraft parts,aquipment 100 uc 2005 1 222 CSX World Tecnine in LLC United States Marine cargo handling Dubai Ports Internationa United Areb Emirale 100 2000 1 200 280 Park Ave New York NY United States Operators of non-residentia Isithmar PJSC United Arab Emirales 100 buildings Plastic foam products Germany. Dubai International Capital United Arab Em 100 LLC 1905 1 135 Medaset SpA(Fininvest) Television broadcasting Investor group Saudi Arabia 18 stations 2008 Operators of non-resid buildings 1 030 Marry Hill. Linned Kingdom 50 buildings Real estate investment trusts GIC Real Estate Pte Ltd 2007 954 Chapterhouse Holdings Ltd United Kingdom 100 2007 942 Barneys New York Inc United States Men's and boys' dollring and Istimmer PJSC United Areb E 100 accessory stores Department stores 2007 Japan Government of Singapore Investment Corp Pie Lid Sincapore 100 (GIC) GIC Real Estate Pie Ltd 2007 821 Capital Shopping Centres United Kingdom Operators of non-residential Sindanore 40 2007 621 Bank Muscat Banks Dubai Financial LLC United Arab E 2007 612 WestQuay Shopping Ce GIC Real Estate Pte Ltd 50 Singapore 2007 506 Westfield Passametta Operators of non GIC Real Estate Pie Lid 50 Singapon 2005 594 Bluewater Shopping Centre United Kingdom Operators of non-residential GIC Real Estate Pie List Singapore 18 buildings 2006 594 Adelphi United Kingdom Operators of non-residential Istitimar PJSC buildings United Areb Emirel 100

Source: UNCTAD, cross-border M&A database (www.unctad.org/fidistatistics). For those cases ranked between 21 and 50, see annex table A.I.12.