IDE Discussion Papers are preliminary materials circulated to stimulate discussions and critical comments

IDE DISCUSSION PAPER No. 397

An export strategy and technology networks in the Republic of Korea

Junko MIZUNO*

Abstract

In Korea, trade with Japan has had a deficit since the normalization of Japan-Korea diplomatic relations in 1965. Korea's trade balance with Japan has remained in deficit since then, although Korean companies have become bigger compared to Japanese companies. My hypothesis is that the problem has been caused because Korea introduced technologies from Japan. However, in recent years Korean companies could not introduce technologies through technical cooperation with Japan like in the 1990s. In addition, the Korean government seemed to encourage domestic production for import substitution. Nevertheless, the deficit has continued. I thought it necessary to check my hypothesis in order to discover whether or not it was persuasive.

Keywords: Korea's trade balance with Japan, Technology networks JEL classification: F1, O1, O5

* Executive Senior Research Fellow, Inter-Disciplinary Studies Center,

The Institute of Developing Economies

The Institute of Developing Economies (IDE) is a semigovernmental, nonpartisan, nonprofit research institute, founded in 1958. The Institute merged with the Japan External Trade Organization (JETRO) on July 1, 1998. The Institute conducts basic and comprehensive studies on economic and related affairs in all developing countries and regions, including Asia, the Middle East, Africa, Latin America, Oceania, and Eastern Europe.

The views expressed in this publication are those of the author(s). Publication does not imply endorsement by the Institute of Developing Economies of any of the views expressed within.

INSTITUTE OF DEVELOPING ECONOMIES (IDE), JETRO 3-2-2, Wakaba, Mihama-ku, Chiba-shi Chiba 261-8545, JAPAN

©20XX by Institute of Developing Economies, JETRO No part of this publication may be reproduced without the prior permission of the IDE-JETRO.

An export strategy and technology networks in the Republic of Korea

Junko MIZUNO

Institute of Developing Economies Executive Senior Research Fellow Inter-Disciplinary Studies Center 12 Feb., 2013.

Preface

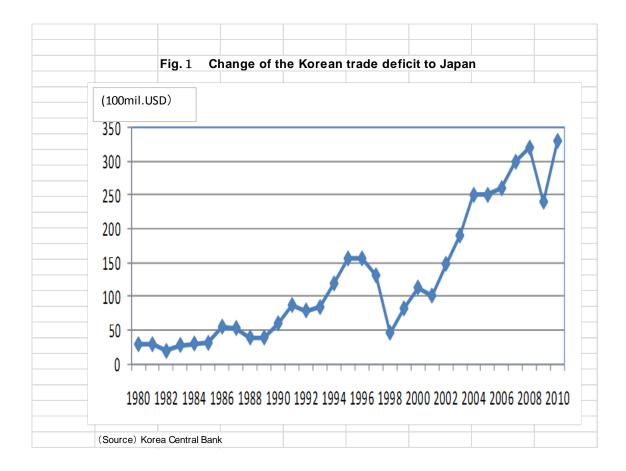
In Korea, trade with Japan has had a deficit since the normalization of Japan-Korea diplomatic relations in 1965 (see figure 1).

"Since the medium⁻ and small-sized enterprises in Korea were weak, Korea should have imported parts and material from Japanese medium⁻ and small-sized enterprises. Because Japan did not give technologies to Korea, Korea has had a trade deficit". For many years, the Korean government has strongly insisted during Japanese-Korean diplomatic negotiations that this is so and it has complained about the lack of technology transfers.

In view of such a history and to solve Korea's trade deficit with Japan, both the Japanese and the Korean governments established the Japan-Korea Industrial Technology Co-Operation Foundation for the purpose of transferring technologies to Korea from Japan's medium- and small-sized enterprises with investments from both governments in 1992.

Korea's trade balance with Japan has remained in deficit since then, although Korean companies have become bigger compared to Japanese companies. Since the normalization of Japan-Korea relations, during diplomatic negotiations the government of Korea has insisted that Japan should bear the responsibility for Korea's trade deficit, and the Korean government has invited Japanese medium- and small-sized enterprises to give technologies to Korea.

In the Japan-Korea FTA negotiations and the negotiations over the Japan, China and Korea FTA, the government of Korea has strongly insisted that "the solution to Korea's trade deficit with Japan was a premise for the conclusion of an FTA with Japan".



Because this issue has not been solved for 40 years, we must consider other possible reasons for the problem. In the present situation, where Korea's conglomerates are looking down on the deficits of Japanese companies as the former increase their sales, it is common to think that this analysis of the cause for the deficit which has lasted more than 40 years may have been mistaken and that it might not be the case that "because Japan does not transfer technologies to Korea, Korean medium- and small-sized businesses are weak and must import parts and material from Japanese medium- and small-sized producers."

My hypothesis is that the problem has been caused because Korea introduced technologies from Japan. However, in recent years Korean companies could not introduce technologies through technical cooperation with Japan like in the 1990s. In addition, the Korean government seemed to encourage domestic production for import substitution. Nevertheless, the deficit has continued. I thought it necessary to check my hypothesis in order to discover whether or not it was persuasive.

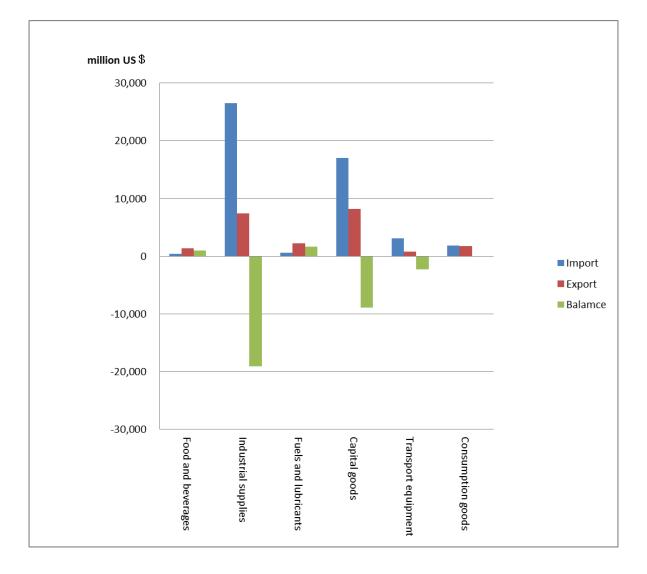
1. The procedure and results of the verification

I therefore decided to examine the hypothesis afresh and see whether the Korean government's claim was rational.

The procedures of the verification are as follows. First, a study team tried to discover the names of the items called "parts, material" that the Korean government said were the cause of the deficit. On investigation, the "parts, material" that the Korean government was talking about were like the black box of a flight recorder in that we could not find precise details about the contents. The system behind the trade balance was such that an outsider could not obtain the information we needed. Therefore, we used the UN Com Trade's statistics, where the government of every country, including Korea, provides its trade statistics to the United Nations. These statistics are then shown on the homepage of the United Nations. The study team decided to use them to check the names of the commodities imported from Japan. On investigation, 100 high-ranking items (for the classification standard of two digit classifications) that Korea imported from Japan accounted for approximately 60% of imports from Japan. I inspected these to see whether they were products produced by Japanese medium- and small-sized businesses. I then excluded items like steel sheets or semiconductors, because these were obviously the products of big companies and not produced by the medium- and small-sized businesses that the Korean government was complaining about. Third, for the other imported items, which were not definitely the products of big companies, I checked to see if the products were produced by medium- and small-sized businesses. Fourth, I considered why the items had been imported from Japan. As a result, the following things became clear.

Firstly, according to the United Nations Com Trade, it became clear that Korea imports capital goods and industrial supplies from Japan, and the ratio was one-third of the deficit for capital goods imports and two-thirds for industrial supplies. Even up to this year, this pattern has roughly stayed the same. Figure 2 shows Korean imports from Japan and the trade balance with Japan in 2009. When the Korean government says "parts, material", in Korean they actually mean industrial supplies and capital goods. However, in Japanese, the words "parts, material" do not include capital goods. However, the person in charge of the Korean government calls both machine tools, which are representative of factory machinery, and semiconductor production equipment "parts" and feels no sense of incongruity when doing this. In Japan and Korea, it became clear that the content of what was being talked about for each party was very different when the two countries were discussing the term "parts, material". Japan and Korea negotiated an "understanding" without recognizing that there was such a difference between the governments in their use of the term "parts, material", and without realizing that there was such a misunderstanding.

Figure 2 : Korean trade and the balance with Japan by goods (2009)



(Source) UN Com Trade

Secondly, checking the Japanese companies that produced the 100 high-ranking

imports from Japan, surprisingly, they are all from big companies, not the mediumand small-sized businesses which the Korean government insisted were the problem. There is a law which defines medium- and small-sized businesses in Korea as in Japan. The name of the law is called the "Fundamental Law of Small and Medium-sized Enterprises' Enforcement Order". By law, as for the manufacturing industry, a medium- or small-sized business is defined as one that has "less than 300 employees as a general rule or capital of 8 billion won (approximately 1 billion yen or less)." However, the image of the general medium- and small-sized business in Korea really has nothing to do with the legal definition. Generally, a Korean often calls most companies, except some famous huge companies, medium- or small-sized businesses. Similarly, because Koreans generally only know the famous, big Japanese companies like Toyota or Panasonic, they call almost all Japanese companies "a medium and small-sized business". For example, when the Korean government wants to invite a Japanese "medium and small-sized business" to Korea, the company which the Korean government wants to invite is often actually a large company. There is a difference in Japanese-Korean understanding here.

	Table 1: Korean import commodit	Amount of in				e import tota	al sum
		2007	2000	2000	from Japan		2000
HS code	name of commodities Flat-rolled products of iron or	2007	2008	2009	2007	2008	2009
7208	non-alloy steel,	3,121	4,528	3,741	5.55	7.43	7.5
3920	Other plates, sheets, film, foil and strip, of plastics,	1,536	1,817	2,260	2.73	2.98	4.5
8542	Electronic integrated circuits and microassemblies	3,853	3,139	2,210	6.85	5.15	4.4
8486	Machines and apparatus of a kind used solely or principally for the manufacture of semiconductor boules or wafers, semiconductor devices, electronic integrated circuits or flat panel displays;	2,882	3,472	1,664	5.12	5.7	3.3
2902	Cyclic hydrocarbons	1,308	1,409	1,262	2.33	2.31	2.55
7204	Ferrous waste or scrap, ingots or iron or steel	1,384	1,504	1,208	2.46	2.47	2.44
7207	Semi-finished products of iron or non-alloy steel	1,095	1,495	1,204	1.95	2.45	2.44
9001	Optical fibres, lenses, mirrors, prisms, etc	998	1,063	1,136	1.77	1.74	2.3
3824	Prepr binder for foundry	863	918	1,062	1.53	1.51	2.15
7004	Drawn or blown glass, in sheets	721	948	1,008	1.28	1.56	2.04
8541	Diodes, transistors, semi- conductors, etc	1,014	1,196	1,008	1.8	1.96	2.04
8708	Parts and accessories for motor vehicles	1,021	1,107	893	1.82	1.82	1.81
8479	Machines nes having individual functions	887	985	748	1.58	1.62	1.51
3818	Chemical element/compound wafers doped for electronics	1,487	1,292	600	2.64	2.12	1.2
8901	Passenger and goods transport ships, boats	993	1,150	580	1.77	1.89	1.17
8517	Electric apparatus for line telephony, telegraphy	416	545	524	0.74	0.9	1.06
8536	Electrical switches, connectors,	548	576	503	0.97	0.94	1.02
2707	Coal-tar distillation products including oils	594	746	422	1.06	1.22	0.85
2901	Acyclic hydrocarbons	400	437	402	0.71	0.72	0.8
8703	Motor vehicles for transport of persons (except buses)	583	650	395	1.04	1.07	0.8
8538	Parts for electrical switches, protectors, connectors	246	400	391	0.44	0.66	0.79
8443 7219	Printing and ancillary machinery Rolled stainless steel sheet,	545 463	548 537	388 382	0.97 0.82	0.9 0.88	0.79
	width > 600mm						
7304	Angles shapes and eastings of	408	461	361	0.73	0.76	0.73
7216	Angles, shapes and sections of iron or non-alloy steel	401	782	359	0.71	1.28	0.73
2710	Oils petroleum, bituminous, distillates, except crude	315	521	347	0.56	0.85	0.7
	Total of 26 commodities	28,082	32,227	25,058	<u> </u>		
6 L.	Ratio of 26 commodities to the import total sum from Japan	56,250	60,956	49,428	49.9	52.9	50.
参考	The export total sum to Japan The ratio of 26 commodities to	26,370 29,880	28,252 32,704	21,771 27,657	— 94		

Thirdly, which commodities did Korea import from Japan? We also decided to check the reason why Korea imported these goods. Therefore, we decided to get the names of the commodities imported by Korea from Japan using the UN Com Trade statistics. We picked trade items by sub-classification from 1990. The classification used is the HS (Harmonized Commodity Description and Coding System) code, which is the classification for all the entries in the statistics. There is a classification (four digits), a sub-classification (six digits) within a macro-taxonomy (two digits). In the case of Korea, there is a detailed classification of ten digits. Looking at the two-digit classification of HS, there are many HS72 "steel product", HS84 "instrumentation and parts", HS85 "electric apparatus and parts" among the 26 highest ranking imports from Japan. Of these, HS72 "steel product" is a product from big companies such as Nippon Steel as described above and is not the product of a medium- or small-sized business, so the study team excluded it from their objects for detailed analysis. When we look at the imported commodities from Japan in detail, using the ten-digit classification, we found commodities, such as semiconductor devices, LCD (Liquid Crystal Display) panels and products to produce mobile phones. In other words, regarding the products that Korea imported from Japan, it was clear that there were many things which large, Korean enterprises imported to produce the main exports of Korea.

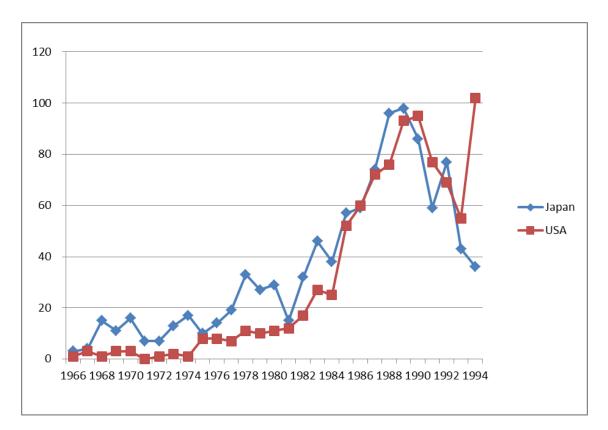
Therefore the study team decided to check whether the commodities that Korea imported from Japan in order to produce semiconductors, LCD panels and mobile phones were really the products of Japanese medium- and small-sized businesses. In addition, the study team also inspected the introduction of new technologies, the relations between the procurement of industrial supplies and capital goods, and the situation with regards to localization in these three Korean industries. I decided to inspect a hypothesis that suggests the trade deficit is the result of the introduction of imports of new technologies from Japan.

2. The introduction of new technology-producing imports

Korea has introduced technologies from Japan, and it is indisputable that Korea has produced products using these technologies and has exported these products, which has made Korea grow. Information about the introduction of these technologies from Japan can be understood from "The technologies introduction contract, present situation in '62 - '95", which was published by the Korea Industrial Technology Association until 1995. The situation is not clear after 1995 because we could get no information for after that year. According to Figure 3, in the electronics and electrical equipment industry, the top country of origin for the introduction of new technologies to Korea was Japan before 1990. However, the United States rose to the top position with respect to new technologies exports after that. Because the Japanese-Korean technological gap was reduced around the 1990s, Japanese companies began to refuse to transfer technology to Korea. This is the reason why these numbers for the electronics and electrical equipment industry fell.

When competition began in the Japanese-Korean electronics and electrical equipment industry, the import of technologies from Japan became difficult. In those days, the number of Japanese engineers being headhunted away from Japanese electronics and electrical equipment companies by Korean companies began to increase. The number of Japanese engineers in Korean companies reached a peak in 1997 when an economic crisis occurred and the number suddenly declined, but it increased again afterwards. Technological diffusion from Japan to Korea varies from a form of direct investment and technical cooperation to the headhunting of Japanese engineers. If either form introduces a technology, Korea must supply capital goods and industrial supplies to produce products using these technologies and enter the technology network of the technology exporting company. When developing countries introduce a technology from a developed country and produce a product, they must import capital goods and

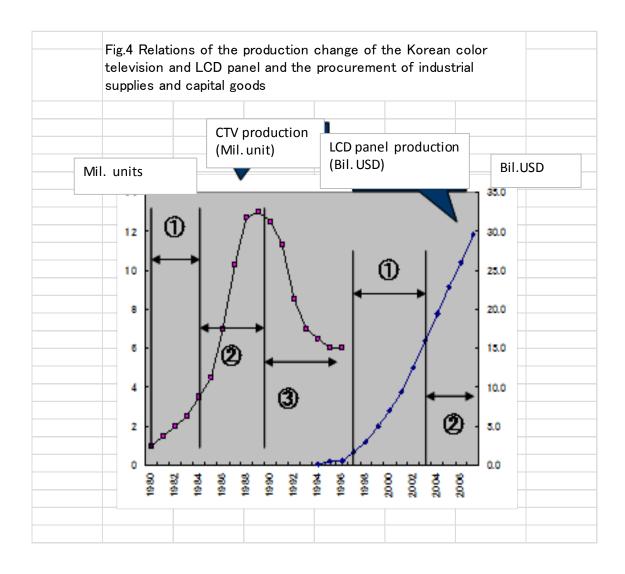
Fig. 3 Number of technologies introduced from Japan and the



USA in the electronics and electrical equipment industry in Korea

(Source) Korea Industrial Technology Association [1995] "The technologies introduction contract, present situation in '62 - '95", pp.509-725.

industrial supplies to fill any technology gaps. Figure 4 shows that Korea produces product using technologies introduced from Japan, and it imports capital goods and



(Source) Junko Mizuno [2010] p.22 $_{\circ}$

①In the set-up period, many industrial supplies and capital goods are imported from Japan.

@Import substitution begins. The industrial supplies and capital goods imported from Japan begin

to decrease.

③When offshore production begins, imports of industrial supplies and capital goods from Japan decreases .

In order to inspect the above hypothesis, I will look below at procurement and technology transfers

regarding semiconductors, LCD panels, and mobile phones.

industrial supplies for the production required at the time of set-up, but the figure also shows that, at the second stage, if the Korean company can get enough profit from their production because the market is big enough to make fresh investments, import substitution begins. The production units of color televisions hit their peak in 1989, but they had imported many industrial supplies and capital goods from 1980 through 1984 from Japan during the period needed to set up production. Import substitution began afterwards because there was enough volume and profits for Korean companies to be able to invest the huge amounts of money needed to produce the goods they needed to substitute for their imports. Then the second period started. However, because Korea introduced other technologies again when the production of color televisions began to decrease, the same process was repeated, and imports from Japan increased.

3. Technologies introduction in the semiconductor industry in Korea and imports from Japan

Technologies for semiconductor production in Korea entered from the United States and Japan. Processing technologies were diffused from Japan but production technologies came from the United States. Mitarai's analysis [2011a] shows that the rate of localization for the production of the semiconductor materials is over 50%, which marks considerable progress in comparison with the figure of around 20% for the rate of localization for producing the devices in 2009. In particular, the rates of localization for advanced production, such as for photomasks, special gases, process chemicals and metals, are 70-95%, a high value. On the other hand, regarding silicon wafers and CMP slurry, the rate of localization is around 30%, the photoresist is at a level of more than 50%. Korean companies import silicon wafers, for which there is the biggest demand, from big companies such as SUMCO CORP. (40%), Shin-Etsu Chemical Co. Ltd (25%), LG Siltron (20%), and Siltronic Samsung Wafer Pte. Ltd. (15%). These companies are, in fact, big companies; they are not medium or small-sized businesses. The only local company is LG Siltron, the others are Japanese exporters (SUMCO CORP. and Shin-Etsu Chemical Co. Ltd), with Siltronic Samsung Wafer Pte. Ltd. operating under joint management in Singapore.

Looking at semiconductor production in Korea, together with domestic industrial supplies and imported industrial supplies, Korea increased its imports from Japan to about 200-250 billion Japanese yen in the mid-2000s from 100-150 billion Japanese yen in the early 2000s, but, affected by the fall in semiconductor production from 2009 to 2010, imports decreased to 180 -170 billion Japanese yen. The imports depended on the amount of production.

This was the same with respect to the United States with the figures there being 35% (down from 40% in 2006) and Japan 28% (down from 35% in 2006), but for Europe it was 32% (up from 24%), and Taiwan 5% (up from 2%), according to information from Korea's KSIA on the imports of semiconductor production devices in 2009. Japanese volumes fell together with the United States, and instead Europe and Taiwan took their place, because their prices were more competitive. From the data on the Japanese side regarding this situation, exports to Korea of Japanese semiconductor production devices totaled from 50 billion yen to 140 billion yen around 2000, increased to 200 billion yen in the mid-2000s and reached a peak at approximately 270 billion yen in 2007. Although the exchange rates, the classification of the statistics and the years are

slightly different, a comparison of the data between 2006 and 2009 supports the information from the KSIA.

Import substitution for the imported capital goods and industrial supplies was gradually realized, but Korea imports capital goods and industrial supplies strategically, since the manufacture of such products is not sufficiently profitable in Korea, even though Korea has the technology necessary to engage in such manufacturing if it so wished. Therefore, the expansion of the semiconductor production of Korean companies became the reason for the increase in the imports of industrial supplies and production devices, and caused the trade deficit with Japan.

4. Technology introduction in the LCD panel industry in Korea and imports from Japan

Because the technology of LCD panels was developed in Japan, the technology was diffused from Japan. Korean companies asked for technological cooperation regarding LCD panels from Japan because they predicted that the cathode-ray tube market would decline and that LCD panels and plasma display panels would replace cathode-ray tubes in the future. But the Japanese companies refused. Therefore, after the 1990s, Korean companies began to catch up by headhunting Japanese engineers and importing capital goods and production supplies. According to Mitarai [2011b], the rate of localization reached around 60% with regard to the purchase of industrial supplies, then it reached 80% at the end of 2009, if one adds the local production of Japanese companies in Korea. Although the dependence on Japan for raw materials is still sizeable, it is necessary to regard this in terms of investment costs and benefits. As for the production materials required for LCDs, national policy has judged this to be easier than is the case for semiconductor production devices, so domestic production has progressed and dependence on Japan has decreased.

5. Technology introduction in the mobile phone industry and imports from Japan

Korea did well in technological development and technology transfers in terms of practical digital mobile phones under the national project system, according to QUALCOMM Incorporated of the USA, which was looking for a joint development partner in the early 1990s. In Japan, the NTT group pushed for practical use with an original method called the PDC (Personal Digital Cellular), but the plan to go global did not turn out well, for various reasons. Because of this, technological relations in the mobile phone sector between Japan and Korea are weak. There is not much of a relationship in basic technologies regarding Korean mobile phones. As a result, in mobile phone production, Korean companies depend more on the USA than on Japan.

According to Mitarai [2011c], 80-90 % of displays, cameras, batteries, printed circuit boards, and housing use locally made products. On the other hand, almost all of the baseband processors, which constitute the basic technology in mobile phones, come from imports from Europe and the USA. The percentage of domestic production is high for semiconductor memory. The localization of semiconductors and LSIs, which are used in the application processors that perform internet correspondence and multimedia processing, has already started with Samsung Electron on the expectation of growing demand due to the spread of smart phones in the near future. Very important elements, such as displays, cameras and batteries, which were first almost entirely imported from Japan, are going to be localized on the basis of modules. It is just with regard to matrix systems, such as the high frequency parts of the RF system, the wireless interface systems, and the sensors or tip parts that Korea still strongly depends on Japan. Of course, this dependence on Japan is strengthened with the high-tech parts connected to the new mobile phones like the smart phone to begin with, but domestic production will soon start, and dependence on Japan will be reduced. The Japanese exporters here are big companies and not medium- and small-sized businesses.

Conclusion

Korea intended to catch up with Japan and overtake it, and it selected semiconductors and LCD panels for strategic reasons and nurtured these sectors as export industries. As a result, this strategy forces Korea to participate in Japanese technology networks and depend on Japan. This is shown to be the cause of the deficit. On the other hand, in the case of the mobile phone industry, as for the issue of dependence on Japan, in comparison with semiconductors and LCD panels, Korea's dependency is relatively light, because the original technology came from the USA.

Herein above, we saw that the reason why the Korean trade deficit with Japan has been a big issue for many years is that Korean companies have chosen their technologies from among Japan's main export products strategically. This goes for products like color televisions, VCRs, semiconductors, and LCD panels, and they have imported capital goods and industrial supplies from Japan in order to invest in and produce the same products on a large scale so as to take a large share of the global market in the short term. Developing countries can have the same industries as developed countries, but they cannot avoid importing industrial supplies and capital goods to fill a technological gap which they cannot fill with goods produced domestically. In addition, if a developing country cannot secure enough demand to make it worth investing in the production of goods that would fill such a technological gap, they will import existing industrial supplies and capital goods from a developed country like Japan, because it is more profitable to do this than make the investment required to do otherwise.

Generally, it may be said that the best course to solve the deficit with Japan is to develop product in Korea, but there is no guarantee that this would be a business model that would maximize profits. Also, there has been a strong tendency in recent years in Korea to think that original development in Korea is a waste of time. In theory, there are other ways to solve the trade deficit with Japan. For example, Korea could increase its exports to Japan, or Korean companies could enter Japan. Korea holds the key to solving their trade deficit with Japan.

[References]

<Japanese>

Junko Mizuno edition [2011] "Korean export strategy and technologies network the deficit with Japan in household appliances and the information industry", Japan External Trade Organization Institute of Developing Economies.

Hisami Mitarai [2011a] "The semiconductor industry" (Junko Mizuno [2011])

------[2011b] "The LCD panel industry" (Junko Mizuno [2011])

— [2011c] "The mobile phone industry" (Junko Mizuno [2011])

<Korean>

Korea Industrial Technology Association [1995], "The technologies introduction contract, present situation in '62 - '95", (original Korean)

No.	Author(s)	Title	
396	Ke Ding, Toshitaka Gokan, Xiwei Zhu	Search, Matching and Self-Organization of a Marketplace	2013
395	Aya SUZUKI and VU Hoang Nam	Status and Constraints of Costly Port Rejection: A case from the Vietnamese Frozen Seafood Export Industry	2013
394	Natsuko OKA	A Note on Ethnic Return Migration Policy in Kazakhstan: Changing Priorities and a Growing Dilemma	2013
393	Norihiko YAMADA	Re-thinking of "Chintanakan Mai" (New Thinking): New Perspective for Understanding Lao PDR	2013
392	Yasushi HAZAMA	Economic Voting under a Predominant Party System	2013
391	Yasushi HAZAMA	Health Reform and Service Satisfaction in the Poor: Turkey	2013
390	Nanae YAMADA and Shuyan SUI	Response of Local Producers to Agro-food Port Rejection: The Case of Chinese Vegetable Exports	2013
389	Housam DARWISHEH	From Authoritarianism to Upheaval: the Political Economy of the Syrian Uprising and Regime Persistence	2013
388	Koji KUBO	Sources of Fluctuations in Parallel Exchange Rates and Policy Reform in Myanmar	2013
387	Masahiro KODAMA	Growth-Cycle Nexus	2013
386	Yutaka ARIMOTO, Seiro ITO, Yuya KUDO, Kazunari TSUKADA	Stigma, Social Relationship and HIV Testing in the Workplace: Evidence from South Africa	2013
385	Koichiro KIMURA	Outward FDI from Developing Countries: A Case of Chinese Firms in South Africa	2013
384	Chizuko SATO	Black Economic Empowerment in the South African Agricultural Sector: A Case Study of the Wine Industry	2013
383	Nudjarin RAMUNGUL, Etsuyo MICHIDA, Kaoru NABESHIMA	Impact of Product-related Environmental Regulations/Voluntary Requirements on Thai Firms	2013
382	Kazushi TAKAHASHI	Pro-poor Growth or Poverty Trap? : Estimating the Intergenerational Income Mobility in Rural Philippines	2013
381	Miwa TSUDA	Kenya after the 2007 "Post-Election Violence": Constitutional Reform and the National Accord and Reconciliation Act	2013
380	Kazuhiko OYAMADA	Parameterization of Applied General Equilibrium Models with Flexible Trade Specifications Based on the Armington, Krugman, and Melitz Models	2013
379	Yoshihiro NAKANISHI	Post-1988 Civil-Military Relations in Myanmar	2013
378	Tadashi ITO	Export Platform Foreign Direct Investment: Theory and Evidence	2012
377	Muhamad Takiyuddin Ismail, Ahmad Fauzi Abdul Hamid	The Misconception of Political Lessons: How UMNO Perceives the Fall of LDP in Japan	2012
376	Koji KUBO	Myanmar's Two Decades of Partial Transition to a Market Economy: A Negative Legacy for the New Government	2012

~ Previous IDE Discussion Papers ~

No.	Author(s)	Title	
375	Bo MENG, Yaxiong ZHANG, Satoshi INOMATA	Compilation, Application and Challenge of IDE-JETRO's International Input-Output Tables	2012
374	Momoe MAKINO	What Motivates Female Operators to Enter the Garment Industry in Pakistan in the Post-MFA Period?	2012
373	Kenta GOTO	Is the Vietnamese Garment Industry at a Turning Point?: Upgrading from the Export to the Domestic Market	2012
372	Kazunobu HAYAKAWA	Impact of Diagonal Cumulation Rule on FTA Utilization: Evidence from Bilateral and Multilateral FTAs between Japan and Thailand	2012
371	Toshihiro KUDO and Satoru KUMAGAI	Two-Polar Growth Strategy in Myanmar: Seeking "High" and "Balanced" Development	2012
370	Takeshi Inoue and Shigeyuki Hamori	Market Efficiency of Commodity Futures in India	2012
369	Satoru KUMAGAI, Kazunobu HAYAKAWA, Ikumo ISONO, Souknilanh KEOLA and Kenmei TSUBOTA	Geographical Simulation Analysis for Logistics Enhancement in Asia	2012
368	Yuya KUDO	Marriage as Women's Old Age Insurance: Evidence from Migration and Land Inheritance Practices in Rural Tanzania	2012
367	Bo MENG, Jinjun XUE, Kuishuang FENG, Dabao GUAN	China's Inter-regional Spillover of Carbon Emissions and Domestic Supply Chains	2012
366	Kazunobu HAYAKAWA	Impacts of FTA Utilization on Firm Performance	2012
365	Kuo-I CHANG and Kazunobu HAYAKAWA	Selection and Utilization of the Early Harvest List: Evidence from the Free Trade Agreement between China and Taiwan	2012
364	Kazunobu HAYAKAWA	Does the Use of Multiple FTAs Force Firms to Raise Local Input Share?: Evidence of the Spaghetti Bowl Phenomenon	2012
363	Kazunobu HAYAKAWA	Firms' Use of FTA Schemes in Exporting and Importing: IsThere a Two-way Relationship?	2012
362	Bo MENG, Yong FANG, Norihiko YAMANO	Measuring Global Value Chains and Regional Economic Integration: An International Input–Output Approach	2012
361	Tadashi ITO	New Aspects of Intra-industry Trade in EU Countries	2012
360	Ho Yeon Kim	Shrinking Population and the Urban Hierarchy	2012
359	Bo MENG, Yaxiong ZHANG, Jiemin GUO, Yong FANG	China's Regional Economies and Value Chains: An Interregional Input-Output Analysis	2012
358	Koji KUBO	Real Exchange Rate Appreciation, Resource Boom, and Policy Reform in Myanmar	2012
357	Maki AOKI-OKABE	Increasing Popular Participation in the Treaty-making Process : The Legislative Process of Section 190 of the 2007 Constitution of Thailand	2012
356	Tadashi ITO	Revisiting the Determinants of Unit Values	2012
355	Susumu (Shin) ABE, Ryo TAKAHASHI, Akiko HARUNA, Eiji YAMAJI, and Toshiyuki WAKATSUKI	Farming Strategy of African Smallholder Fermers in Transition from Traditional to Alternative Agriculture	2012
354	Kiyoyasu TANAKA and Yoshihiro HASHIGUCHI	Spatial Spillovers from FDI Agglomeration: Evidence from the Yangtze River Delta in China	2012
353	Takeshi INOUE	Central Bank Intervention and Exchange Rate Behaviour: Empirical Evidence for India	2012
352	Rajnish KUMAR, Arup MITRA and Mayumi MURAYAMA	Toiling Children: The Gender Dimension	2012
351	Chizuko SATO	Casting a Voice for Rural Struggles during Apartheid: The Case of AFRA	2012
350	Hisao YOSHINO	Backward-bending of Labor Supply Function and Free Riders	2012
349	Miwa YAMADA	Comparative Analysis of Bilateral Memoranda on Anti-human Trafficking Cooperation between Thailand and Three Neighboring Countries: What Do the Origin and the Destination States Agree Upon?	2012

No.	Author(s)	Title	
348	Nobuhiro AIZAWA	The Inverted Chinese/China Problem in Indonesia: A Preliminary analysis on the 2011 Surabaya incident	2012
347	Manabu IWAMOTO and Kaoru NABESHIMA	Can FDI Promote Export Diversification and Sophistication of Host Countries? Dynamic Panel System GMM Analysis	2012
346	Kenmei TSUBOTA	Multiplant Strategy under core-periphery structure	2012
345	Wakana KUSAKA, Michikazu KOJIMA, Mariko WATANABE	Consciousness, Value and Consumer Choice of Energy Efficient Appliance: Case of Thailand, China and India	2012
344	Yuka KODAMA	Young Women's Economic Daily Lives in Rural Ethiopia	2012
343	Etsuyo MICHIDA and Kaoru NABESHIMA	Roles of Supply Chains in Adopting Product Related Environmental Regulations: Case of Vietnam	2012
342	Shunsuke MANAGI	Trade, Economic Growth and Environment	2012
341	Keiichiro HONDA	The Effect of EU Environmental Regulation on International Trade: Restriction of Hazardous Substances as a Trade Barrier	2012
340	Yasushi HAZAMA	Non-Economic Voting and Incumbent Strength in Turkey	2012
339	Yoshihiro HASHIGUCHI and Kuang-hui CHEN	Assessing Agglomeration Economies in the Yangzi River Delta, China: A Bayesian Spatial Econometric Approach	2012
338	Koichiro KIMURA	Diversified Boundaries of the Firm	2012
337	Mami YAMAGUCHI	Migration as a Rural Development Strategy and the Migrants Involved: An Account of a Migrants' Hometown in Sichuan, China	2012
336	Junko MIZUNO	Technology Network for Machine Tools in Vietnam	2012
335	Fernando GONZALEZ-VIGIL and Tatsuya SHIMIZU	The Japan-Peru FTA: Antecedents, Significance and Main Features	2012
334	Yuko TSUJITA and Hisaya ODA	Caste, Land, and Migration: A Preliminary Analysis of a Village Survey in an Underdeveloped State in India	2012
333	Hisaya ODA	Progress and Issues in Rural Electrification in Bihar: A Preliminary Analysis	2012
332	Koichi FUJITA	Development Strategy in Bihar through Revitalizing the Agricultural Sector: A Preliminary Analysis	2012
331	Chirashree Das GUPTA	Growth and Public Finance in Bihar	2012
330	Zhe Ren	The Confucius Institutes and China's Soft Power	2012
329	Ikuko OKAMOTO	Coping and Adaptation agains! Decreasing Fish Resources:Case Study of Fishermen in Lake Inle, Myanmar	2012
328	Takeshi INOUE, Yuki TOYOSHIMA, and Shigeyuki HAMORI	Inflation Targeting in Korea, Indonesia, Thailand, and the Philippines: The Impact on Business Cycle Synchronization between Each Country and the World	2012
327	Yoko IWASAKI	The Business Management Strategy of Iran's Large Apparel Firms: Overview of Results from a Questionnaire Survey and Interviews 2009-2011	2012
326	Koji KUBO	Trade Policies and Trade Mis-reporting in Myanmar	2012
325	Momoko KAWAKAMI	Innovating Global Value Chains: Creation of the Netbook Market by Taiwanese Firms	2012
324	Shawn ARITA and Kiyoyasu TANAKA	Heterogeneous Multinational Firms and Productivity Gains from Falling FDI Barriers	2012
323	Hisatoshi HOKEN	Development of Land Rental Market and its Effect on Household Farming in Rural China: An Empirical Study in Zhejiang Province	2012
322	Yuya KUDO	Returns to Migration: The Role of Educational Attainment in Rural Tanzania	2012
321	Miwa TSUDA	The Gap between Recognition and the 'Compensation Business': The Claim against Britain for Compensation by Kenya's Former Mau Mau Fighters	2012
320	Koji KUBO	Restructuring the State Budget System for Disinflation and exchange Rate Unification in Myanmar	2012
319	Momoe MAKINO	Effects of Birth Order and Sibling Sex Composition on Human Capital Investment in Children in India	2012
318	Kazunobu HAYAKAWA, Kiyoyasu TANAKA, and Yasushi UEKI	Transport Modal Choice by Multinational Firms: Firm-level Evidence from Southeast Asia	2011
	Yuko TSUJITA	Factors that Prevent Children from Gaining Access to Schooling: A	2011
317	Tuko ISOJITA	Study of Delhi Slum Households	

No.	Author(s)	Title	
315	Daisuke HIRATSUKA	Production Networks in the Asia-Pacific Region: Facts and Policy Implications	2011
314	Kaoru NABESHIMA	Growth Strategies in a Greener World	2011
313	Kazunobu HAYAKAWA, Hyun- Hoon LEE, and Donghyun PARK	Do Export Promotion Agencies Increase Exports?	2011
312	Mariko WATANABE	Competition of Mechanisms: How Chinese Home Appliances Firms Coped with Default Risk of Trade Credit?	2011
311	Kazunobu HAYAKAWA	How Serious Is the Omission of Bilateral Tariff Rates in Gravity?	2011
310	Kazunobu HAYAKAWA and Kiyoyasu TANAKA	Export Platform FDI and Firm Heterogeneity	2011
309	Kazunobu HAYAKAWA, Fukunari KIMURA, Kaoru NABESHIMA	Non-conventional Provisions in Regional Trade Agreements: Do They Enhance International Trade?	2011
308	Koichi KAWAMURA	Concensus and Democracy in Indonesia: Musyawarah-Mufakat Revisited	2011
307	Kumudinei DISSANAYAKE	Low Workforce Participation of Educated Female and the Role of Work Organizations in Post-war Sri Lanka	2011
306	Nay Myo Aung	Agricultural Efficiency of Rice Farmers in Myanmar: A Case Study in Selected Areas	2011
305	Takeshi KAWANAKA and Yuki ASABA	Establishing Electoral Administration Systems in New Democracies	2011
304	Kazunobu HAYAKAWA	Bilateral Tariff Rates in International Trade: Finished Goods versus Intermediate Goods	2011
303	Shuji UCHIKAWA	Knowledge Spillover in Indian Automobile Industry The Process and the Coverage	2011
302	Ke DING and Jiutang PAN	Platforms, Network Effects and Small Business Dynamics in China: Case Study of the Shanzhai Cell Phone Industry	2011
301	Kazunobu HAYAKAWA and Kenmei TSUBOTA	Location Choice in Low-income Countries: Evidence from Japanese Investments in East Asia	2011
300	Tatsufumi YAMAGATA and Yoko ASUYAMA	The Rise and Fall in the Price of Food, Fuel and Manufactured Goods: Interdependency between Prices and Technology Determining Comparative Advantages and Development Paths	2011
299	Takeshi INOUE and Shigeyuki HAMORI	Financial Permeation As a Role of Microfinance: Has Microfinance Actually been Helpful to the Poor?	2011
298	Tatsuya SHIMIZU	Development of Broiler Integration in Peru	2011
298	Kaoru NABESHIMA and Kiyoyasu TANAKA	Innovation Networks among China, Japan, and Korea: Further Evidence from U.S. Patent Data	2011
296	Shawn ARITA and Kiyoyasu TANAKA	Simulating Heterogeneous Multinational Firms	2011
295	Abu S. SHONCHOY and Seiro ITO	Ramadan School Holidays as a Natural Experiment:Impacts of Seasonality on School Dropout in Bangladesh	2011
294	Abu S. SHONCHOY	Seasonal Migration and Micro-credit in the Lean Period: Evidence from Northwest Bangladesh	2011
293	Futaba ISHIZUKA	Economic Restructuring and Regional Distribution of Enterprises in Vietnam	2011
292	Miki HAMADA	Market Discipline by Depositors: Impact of Deposit Insurance on the Indonesian Banking Sector Market Discipline by Depositors: Impact of Deposit Insurance on the Indonesian Banking Sector	2011
291	MURAKAMI Kaoru	Negotiating Social Assistance: The Case of the Urban Poor in Turkey	2011
290	Kazuhiko OYAMADA and Yoko UCHIDA	Domestic, Vertical, and Horizontal Multinationals: A General Equilibrium Approach using the "Knowledge Capital Model"	2011
289	Miwa YAMADA	Is the Anti-Trafficking Framework Really for the 'Victims'?	2011
288	Yasushi HAZAMA	Determinants of Political Tolerance: A Literature Review	2011
287	Hisao YOSHINO	Strategic Trade Policy and Non-Linear Subsidy -In The Case of Price Competition-	2011
286	Natsuko OKA	Neither Exit nor Voice: Loyalty as a Survival Strategy for the Uzbeks in Kazakhstan	2011

No.	Author(s)	Title	
285	Ikuo KUROWA, Kaoru NABESHIMA, and Kiyoyasu TANAKA	Innovation Networks among China, Japan, and Korea: Evidence from Japanese Patent Data	2011
284	Hitoshi SUZUKI	Preliminary Discussions on the Urbanization of Rural Areas in Modern Iran	2011
283	Kozo KUNIMUNE	A Model of Economic Growth with Saturating Demand	2011
282	Etsuyo MICHIDA, Cemal Atici, and Michikazu KOJIMA	Does Quality Matter in the Iron and Scrap Trade?	2011
281	Kazunobu HAYAKAWA, Fukunari KIMURA, and Hyun-Hoon LEE	How Does Country Risk Matter for Foreign Direct Investment?	2011
280	Kazunobu HAYAKAWA and Nobuaki YAMASHITA	The Role of Preferential Trade Agreements (PTAs) in Facilitating Global Production Networks	2011
279	Noriyuki YANAGAWA and Mariko WATANABE	Ex ante barganing and ex post enforcement in trade credit supply: Theory and Evidence from China	2011
278	Yoko ASUYAMA	Skill Sorting, Inter-Industry Skill Wage Premium, and Production Chains: Evidence from India 1999-2000	2011
277	Yoko ASUYAMA	Skill Distribution and Comparative Advantage: A Comparison of China and India	2011
276	Bo MENG, Norihiko YAMANO and Colin WEBB	Application of Factor Decomposition Techniques to Vertical Specialisation Measurement	2011
275	Kazunobu HAYAKAWA	Measuring Fixed Costs for Firms' Use of a Free Trade Agreement: Threshold Regression Approach	2011
274	Kenmei TSUBOTA, Yujiro KAWASAKI	Myopic or farsighted: Bilateral Trade Agreements among three symmetric countries	2011