

# International Reserve Holdings in ASEAN5 Economies

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## Abstract

This paper examines international reserve holdings in five ASEAN economies during the period of 1970-2005 using the autoregressive distributed lag (ARDL) bounds testing approach proposed by Pesaran, Shin, and Smith (2001). These countries had increased their international reserve holdings after the 1997 Asian financial crisis. The majority of these countries had also experienced consistent current account surplus during the same period. Thus, the present study attempts to investigate the existence of long run relationship between reserve holdings and the current account. The empirical results indicate that current account surplus leads to the rise in international reserve holdings in Indonesia, Malaysia, and Singapore.

16

*Index terms*— International Reserves, ASEAN5 Economies, ARDL Model

## 1 INTRODUCTION

After the Asian financial crisis in 1997-1998, the five ASEAN countries, namely Indonesia, Malaysia, the Philippines, Singapore, and Thailand, had increased their holdings of international reserves. International reserves holdings in ASEAN5 economies had been increasing since in the early 1990s but a sharp rise was observed after the crisis. Among the ASEAN5, Singapore showed the highest international reserve holdings both in terms of US dollars and when reserves are scaled to GDP. This is followed by Malaysia. In 2005, Singapore's international reserves stood at US\$116 billion (104% of GDP) while the international reserves of Malaysia were recorded at US\$70 billion (63% of GDP). In Indonesia, international reserve holdings increased by more than 100% after the crisis from US\$17 billion (9% of GDP) in 1997 to US\$35 billion (18% of GDP) in 2003 and 2004. The Philippines showed the lowest reserves in terms of US dollars (US\$16 billion). International reserves of Thailand rose from US\$29 billion in 1998 to US\$51 billion in 2005, an increase by 76% in seven years.

Besides the high international reserve holdings, these countries also experienced consistent current account surplus (with some exception in the cases of the Philippines and Thailand) at least until 2005. The rise in international reserve holdings during the period with current account surplus is associated with the problem of savings-investment imbalance in the region since countries with current account surplus have higher savings than investment. The savings-investment gap had widened, especially in Malaysia and Singapore, reflecting the rise in their current account surplus in recent years.

Based on the above discussion, it can be inferred that high international reserve holdings in the ASEAN5 economies coincided with the period with current account surplus. An interesting question that this study attempts to answer is whether current account surplus leads to the rise in international reserve holdings in these countries. Therefore, the main objective of the present study is to empirically analyze the impact of current account imbalance on international reserve holdings in the ASEAN5 economies.

This study differs from the previous studies in two aspects. First, the study utilizes the autoregressive distributed lag (ARDL) bounds testing approach to cointegration to analyze the behavior of international reserve holdings. This methodology has not been widely applied in this area of research. Previous studies on international reserve holdings for individual countries usually employ the Ordinary Least Square (OLS) and the cointegration techniques developed by Engle and Granger (1987), Johansen (1988), and Johansen and Juselius (1990). One

### 3 REVIEW OF EMPIRICAL LITERATURE

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45 of the advantages of the ARDL approach to cointegration over previous cointegration techniques is that the  
46 former can be applied to studies with small sample sizes (Mah 2000).

47 Second, most studies on international reserve holdings for developed and developing countries are based on  
48 cross-country or panel data analysis. Only a few studies are conducted for individual countries. Even though there  
49 are studies that analyze the behavior of international reserve holdings for individual Asian countries, for instance,  
50 China (Huang, 1995; ??ei and Zhu, 2000), India (Ramachandran, 2004(Ramachandran, , 2006;);Ramachandran  
51 and Srinivasan, 2007;Prabheesh, Malathy, and Madhumati, 2008), Korea (Aizenman, Lee, and Rhee, 2007;Jo,  
52 2007;Ra, 2007), Pakistan (Khan and Ahmed, 2005), and Taiwan (Huang and Shen, 1999), there is still a limited  
53 number of studies on international reserve holdings for individual ASEAN The remainder of this paper is organized  
54 as follows. Section II reviews recent empirical literature on international reserve holdings. Section III summarizes  
55 the data and methodology to be employed in this study. The major findings are presented in Section IV. The  
56 final section concludes the paper.

## 57 2 II.

### 58 3 REVIEW OF EMPIRICAL LITERATURE

59 This section provides a review of some empirical literature on international reserve holdings for individual  
60 countries. There has been an increasing number of studies using time series data since in the 1990s. Individual-  
61 country studies have addressed the following issues associated with international reserve holdings: (1) the  
62 transactions, precautionary, and mercantilist motives for holding reserves; (2) monetary disequilibrium and  
63 reserve holdings; (3) the opportunity cost of holding reserves; (4) the role of reserves as a buffer stock.

64 For instance, Elbadawi (1990) estimates the model of international reserve holdings for Sudan during 1971-  
65 1982 and he discovers that international reserve holdings in Sudan exhibits constant return to scale and the  
66 variability measure is positive and significant, reflecting the precautionary motive for holding reserves. A study  
67 by Prabheesh, Malathy and Madhumati (2008) for India during 1983-2005 also supports the precautionary motive  
68 for holding reserves against the current account and capital account vulnerabilities. Studies by Karfakis (1997) on  
69 Greece (during 1976-1992) and ??ei and Zhu (2000) on China (during January 1994 to December 1998) suggest  
70 that the international reserve holdings in these countries serve the role in the balance of payments adjustment  
71 process. These findings also support the precautionary motive for holding reserves. Applying the seasonal error  
72 correction model, Huang and Shen (1999) analyze the behavior of international reserve holdings in Taiwan during  
73 1961Q1-1995Q2. Their findings suggest that precautionary motive is not an important determinant of reserve  
74 holdings in Taiwan.

75 Using quarterly data for the period 1985Q1-1997Q4, Badinger (2004) finds strong economies of scale for holding  
76 reserves in Austria and he concludes that the transactions motive represents the foreign exchange demand by the  
77 private sector.

78 Aizenman, Rhee, and Lee (2007) analyze the precautionary motive for holding reserves for Korea during 1994-  
79 2003 by including variables such as short term external debt and foreign portfolio holdings. The empirical results  
80 suggest that the Korean holding of international reserves after the 1997 financial crisis supports the precautionary  
81 motive for holding reserves. In contrary, Jo (2007) finds that the Korean holding of international reserves during  
82 the period after the crisis is to maintain export competitiveness which supports the mercantilist motive for holding  
83 reserves.

84 Besides the precautionary and mercantilist motives, opportunity cost also affects international reserve holdings  
85 in Korea. For instance, Ra (2007) applies the dynamic ordinary least square (DOLS) and Johansen and Juselius  
86 (1990) cointegration approach to estimate reserve model for Korea during 1990-2005 and he concludes that the  
87 opportunity cost for holding reserves is inversely related to international reserve holdings during the pre-crisis  
88 and the whole sample period.

89 Some studies on international reserve holdings test the theory of monetarist approach to balance of payments  
90 by including monetary disequilibrium as an added regressor in reserve equation. For instance, Ford and Huang  
91 (1994) examine international reserve holdings in China during 1952-1991 and their empirical results suggest  
92 that domestic monetary disequilibrium significantly affects reserve holdings and the monetary authority takes  
93 appropriate action to restore reserves to their desired level. Monetary disequilibrium also significantly affects  
94 international reserve holdings in Pakistan during 1982Q1-2003Q2 (Khan and Ahmed, 2005).

95 Following Frenkel and Jovanovic (1981), Cifarelli and Paladino (2006) estimate the model of international  
96 reserve holdings based on the buffer stock model using the Johansen cointegration approach for ten Asian and  
97 Latin American emerging economies. Their empirical results suggest that high international reserve holdings in  
98 these countries is associated with the "fear of floating" and mercantilist motive. Similarly, Ramachandran and  
99 Srinivaran (2007) and Ramachandran (2004(Ramachandran ( , 2006) ) utilize the buffer stock model to analyze  
100 the behavior of international reserve holdings for India and they discover that this model predicts well the reserve  
101 model for India.

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102 **4 III.**

103 **5 DATA, EMPIRICAL MODEL, AND METHODOLOGICAL**  
104 **ISSUES a) Data**

105 This study utilizes annual data covering the period of 1970-2005. Reserves, current account balance, and total  
106 external debt are scaled by GDP. This is to allow comparison across different sizes of economy ??Cheung and  
107 Xing, 2007). Following Edison (2003), export volatility is measured by standard deviation of real export receipts.  
108 Data on international reserves (excluding gold), real GDP per capita, imports, exports, and current account  
109 balance are obtained from the International Financial Statistics (IMF, 2007) and data on total external debt are  
110 collected from World Development Indicators (World Bank, 2007) and Key Indicators of Developing Asian and  
111 Pacific Countries (ADB, various issues).

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113 **ume XI Issue Version I b) Empirical Model of International**  
114 **Reserve Holdings**

115 Following Frenkel (1974a), international reserve holdings is a function of a scale variable, propensity to import,  
116 and the variability measure. The scale variable is expected to have a direct relationship with international reserve  
117 holdings since it is expected that the international reserve holdings should increase with a rise in the volume  
118 of international transactions. Marginal propensity to import can have a positive or negative relationship with  
119 reserve holdings. A positive relationship indicates that propensity to import acts as a proxy for the openness of  
120 an economy (Frenkel, 1974b) while a negative relationship indicates that the variable becomes a proxy for the  
121 marginal cost of adjustment (Huang, 1995).

122 Besides these three explanatory variables, two additional variables are included in the model: current account  
123 balance and total external debt. The relationship between international reserves and current account balance is  
124 based on the theories presented by Dunn and Mutti (2000), McCauley (2003), and Taniuchi (2006). It has been  
125 argued that emerging economies accumulate reserves during the period with current account surplus through  
126 foreign exchange market intervention to avoid serious appreciation of their currencies. Specifically, the monetary  
127 authorities purchase foreign currencies and sell domestic currency to maintain stable exchange rates. This action  
128 would help these countries to retain their export competitiveness. On the other hand, when the current account  
129 is in deficit, central banks would sell foreign currencies (purchase domestic currency). This would result in the  
130 decline in international reserve holdings.

131 The inclusion of total external debt in the model is in line with the theories developed by Aizenman, Rhee,  
132 and Lee (2004) and Alfaro and Kanczuk (2007). Aizenman and Marion (2004) argue that countries with high  
133 cost of tax collections and sovereign risk tend to hold reserves and borrow externally. When output is not stable,  
134 external debt can be used to ease consumption. Under the event of default on external debt and thus, no access  
135 to external borrowing, international reserves can be used to ease consumption, provided that creditors have no  
136 access to country's international reserves.

137 Aizenman et al. ( ??004) extends the model on international reserve holdings suggested by Aizenman and  
138 Marion (2004) by taking into account the effect of abrupt short term capital reversals that reduces output and  
139 leads to financial crisis. International reserves may reduce the impact of crisis and thus improving welfare. The  
140 model accounts for the impact of the failure of a country to make external debt repayments on output. Reduction  
141 in output, in turn, could increase the probability of recession.

142 Alfaro and Kanczuk (2007) develop a stochastic equilibrium model of international reserve holdings based on  
143 the framework proposed by Eaton and Gersowitz (1980), Arellano (2006), and Aguiar and Gopinath ??2006).  
144 They incorporate the decision to hold both reserves and debt in their model. They argue that both reserves and  
145 debt can be used to smooth consumption, even though after the country has defaulted.

146 The relationship between international reserves and external debt can be positive or negative. If the  
147 relationship is positive, the latter is a complement for the former. Otherwise, the latter becomes a substitute for  
148 the former (Eaton and Gersowitz, 1980).

149 Based on the theories presented above, the proposed model of international reserve holdings for ASEAN5  
150 economies is developed as follows: $\ln R_t = \ln YCAP_t + \ln PIM_t + \ln XVOL_t + \ln CA_t + \ln DEBT_t$

152 Where  $\ln R$  is the ratio of international reserves to GDP;  $\ln YCAP$  is the real GDP per capita (scale variable);  
153  $\ln PIM$  is the average propensity to import (imports/GDP);  $\ln XVOL$  is the variability in real export receipts;  
154  $\ln CA$  is the ratio of current account balance to GDP; and  $\ln DEBT$  is the ratio of total external debt to GDP.  
155 All variables are expressed in logarithms.

156 **7 c) Methodology**

157 In this study, the following procedures were used. Firstly, stationary tests were performed to identify the order  
158 of integration of the variables. These is done since the ARDL bounds test requires that the dependent variable  
159 to be I(1) and the independent variables to be either I(0) or I (1). The following stationary tests were carried

160 out: the Augmented Dickey-Fuller (ADF) test (Dickey and Fuller 1979) and KPSS test (Kwiatkowski, Phillips, Schmidt, and Shin, 1992).

162 Secondly, the ARDL bounds test developed by Pesaran, Shin, and Smith (2001) was applied to investigate the  
163 existence of cointegration relationship between international reserve holdings and its determinants. Following  
164 Pesaran et al. (2001), the vector auto-regression (VAR) of order  $p$  of international reserve holdings in the  
165 ASEAN5 economies is developed as follows:  

$$t p i i t i t x w ? ? + + = ? = ? 1 \quad (2)$$

166 Where  $w_t$  is the vector of dependent variable (the ratio of international reserves to GDP) and  $x_t$  is the  
167 vector consisting of both the dependent variable and independent variables (real GDP per capita, propensity to  
168 import, export volatility, the ratio of current account balance to GDP, and the ratio of total external debt to (1)  
169 11 GDP).  $?$  is a constant term,  $?$  is the vector of parameters of lag  $i$ ,  $t$  is time or trend term, and  $?$  is the vector  
170 of error terms.

171 The error correction model of the ARDL model can be expressed as:  

$$1 2 1 1 1 0 ? ? + + = ? t t t z w w ? ? ? ? t p i i t i i t i z w ? ? + ? + ? + ? = ? = ? 0 1 \quad (3)$$

172 The third and the fourth expressions containing  $?$ s on the right-hand side correspond to the long run  
173 relationship. The remaining expressions with the summation sign represent the short-run dynamics of the model,  
174 where  $?$  is the first difference operator. We develop the Unrestricted Error Correction model based on the  
175 assumptions made by Pesaran et al. (2001) in Case III, that is, unrestricted intercepts and no trends. In this  
176 case, it is assumed that  $0 0$  and  $1 = 0$ .

177 Thus, the unrestricted error correction model (UECM) based on equation ( ??) is developed as follows:  

$$\ln = ? t R 1 2 1 1 0 \ln \ln ? ? + + t t YCAP R ? ? ? 1 3 \ln ? + t PIM ? 1 4 \ln ? + t XVOL ? 1 5 \ln ? + t CA ? 1 6 \ln ? + t DEBT ? ? = ? ? + a k k t k R 1 , 1 \ln ? ? = ? ? + b k k t k YCAP 0 , 2 \ln ? ? = ? ? + c k k t k PIM 0 , 3 \ln ? ? = ? ? + d k k t k XVOL 0 , 4 \ln ? ? = ? ? + e k k t k CA 0 , 5 \ln ? ? = ? ? + e k k t k DEBT 0 , 6 \ln ? t ? +$$

178 The long run elasticities are calculated by dividing the coefficient of the first lag of the independent variable by  
179 the coefficient of the first lag of the dependent variable (Bardsen, 1989). There are three steps in the ARDL bounds  
180 test. First, equation ( ??) is estimated using Ordinary Least Square (OLS). Second, Wald tests are conducted to  
181 test for the existence of long run relationship between international reserve holdings and its determinants. This  
182 test is performed by imposing restrictions on the long run coefficients of  $\ln R$ ,  $\ln YCAP$ ,  $\ln PIM$ ,  $\ln XVOL$ ,  $\ln CA$ ,  
183 and  $\ln DEBT$ . The null and alternative hypotheses for equation (2) are constructed as follows:

184  $H_0 : ? 1 = ? 2 = ? 3 = ? 4 = ? 5 = ? 6 = 0$  (There is no long run level relationship)  $H_1 : ? 1 ?? 2 ?? 3 ?? 4 ?? 5 ?? 6 ? 0$  (There is long run level relationship)

185 The computed F-statistic from the Wald test is compared with the critical values from Pesaran et al. (2001)  
186 and Narayan (2005). The lower critical value assumes that the regressors are integrated of order zero or  $I(0)$  while  
187 the upper critical value assumes that the regressors are integrated of order one or  $I(1)$ . If the calculated F-statistic  
188 from the Wald test is greater than the upper critical value, the null hypothesis of no long run relationship will be  
189 rejected. If the calculated statistic is less than the lower critical value, the null hypothesis will not be rejected.  
190 If the calculated value falls within the upper and lower critical values, the result of the test is inconclusive. The  
191 selection of model is based on the Hendry's (1991) general to specific approach.

192 IV.

## 193 8 DISCUSSION OF FINDINGS a) Stationary Test Results

194 The results of the ADF and KPSS tests both with and without trend are presented in Table 1. The lag lengths  
195 for the ADF and KPSS tests are selected using the Aikake Information Criteria (AIC) and the Newey-West  
196 bandwidth, respectively. The results of the tests indicate that the dependent variables ( $\ln R$ ) at level are non-  
197 stationary. When the tests are performed at first difference,  $\ln R$  of each country is found to be stationary. On  
198 the other hand, some of the independent variables are found to be stationary at level ( $I(0)$ ) while some of them are  
199 stationary at first difference ( $I(1)$ ). In short, the dependent variable ( $\ln R$ ) is  $I(1)$  while the dependent variables  
200 are either  $I(0)$  or  $I( ??)$ .

201 (4) 1.

202 ADF = augmented Dickey-Fuller; KPSS = Kwiatkowski, Phillips, Schmidt, and Shin 2.

203 Critical values for ADF and KPSS tests are taken from MacKinnon (1991) and Kwiatkowski, Phillips,  
204 Schmidt, and Shin (1992), respectively.

## 205 9 3.

206 The null hypothesis for ADF test is that the series is non-stationary while the null hypothesis for  
207 the KPSS test is that the series is stationary. 4.  $\ln R$  = ratio of international reserves to GDP, logged;  $\ln YC$  =  
208 real GDP per capita, logged;  $\ln PIM$  = average propensity to import (imports/GDP), logged;  $\ln XPV$  =  
209 volatility of real export receipts, logged;  $\ln CA$  = ratio of current account balance to GDP, logged;  $\ln EXTD$  =  
210 ratio of total external debt to GDP, logged.

## 211 10 5.

212 Figures in parentheses are the lag lengths. \*\*\*, \*\*, and \* indicate significant at 1%, 5%, and 10% level respectively.

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## 219 11 b) ARDL Bounds Test Results

220 Table 2 presents the results of the UECM for the long run coefficients based on equation (2). The goodness of  
221 fit of the models (adjusted R-squared) and the standard error of regression remain superior in all models. The  
222 short run coefficients of the UECM results are presented in Table 3 Table 4 summarizes the results of the ARDL  
223 bounds tests based on equation ( ??). The calculated Fstatistics for all five countries are greater than the upper  
224 critical values at least at 5% and 10% levels of significance based on Pesaran et al. (2001) and Narayan (2005),  
225 respectively. Therefore the null hypothesis of no cointegration can be rejected for all cases and we conclude that  
226 there is a long run level relationship between international reserve holdings and its determinants for Indonesia,  
227 Malaysia, the Philippines, Singapore, and Thailand.

228 The long run elasticities calculated based on equation ( ??) are presented in Table 5. GDP per capita  
229 (lnYCAP) is significant and positive in the cases of Indonesia and Thailand. The positive relationship indicates  
230 that international reserve holdings rise with the rise in the volume of international transactions.

231 Propensity to import (lnPIM) is significant in affecting reserve holdings in all sample countries except in the  
232 case of Indonesia. The coefficient sign is positive for Malaysia and the Philippines but negative in the cases of  
233 Singapore and Thailand. Therefore, lnPIM represents the openness of the economy for the first two countries  
234 and the variable acts as a marginal cost of adjustment for the last two countries.

235 The relationship between export volatility and international reserve holdings is positive and significant only in  
236 the case of Indonesia. This implies that international Diagnostic tests such as Breusch-Godfrey serial correlation  
237 test, ARCH test, Ramsey RESET specification test, Jacque-Bera normality test, and stability tests (CUSUM  
238 and CUSUM of Square tests) are performed to test for the adequacy of the models. All models have passed these  
239 tests. The results of diagnostic tests are summarized in the lower panel of Table 2 and in the Appendix.

240 Cointegration can be rejected for all cases and we conclude that there is a long run level relationship between  
241 international reserve holdings and its determinants for Indonesia, Malaysia, the Philippines, Singapore, and  
242 Thailand.

243 Reserve holdings rise with an increase in the volatility of export receipts in this country. 1. lnR = r atio  
244 o f international r eserves t o GDP, l ogged; lnYCAP = real G DP p er cap ita, logged; lnPIM = average  
245 propensity to import (imports/GDP), logged; lnXVOL = volatility of real export receipts, logged; lnCA = ratio  
246 of current account balance to GDP, logged; and lnDEBT = ratio of total external debt to GDP, logged. Current  
247 account balance shows a significant positive impact on international reserve holdings in Indonesia, Malaysia,  
248 and Singapore. The positive relationship implies that a rise in the current account surplus leads to a rise in  
249 international reserve holdings in these countries. The impact of current account balance on international reserve  
250 holdings is highest in Indonesia followed by Singapore and Malaysia. A 1% increase in the current account surplus  
251 would result in the rise in international reserve holdings by 0.56%, 0.54% and 0.27% in Indonesia, Singapore,  
252 and Malaysia, respectively. These results are consistent with the fact that these countries were experiencing huge  
253 current account surplus in recent years. In the case of the Philippines, the current account recorded deficits since  
254 1987 until 2001, except in 1998. The current account of the Philippines shifted to surplus after 2002 and remained  
255 in surplus until, at least, to 2005. However, the surplus totaling to only US\$3 billion during 2003-2005. This  
256 surplus was relatively small as compared to the surplus in the rest of sample countries. This fact may explain  
257 the insignificant impact of current account balance on reserve holdings in the Philippines.

## 258 12 Figures in parentheses (

259 The insignificance of current account balance in Thailand may be associated with the inverse movement between  
260 international reserves and the current account. The ratio of reserves to GDP in Thailand was moving upward  
261 (from 26% in 1998 to 30% in 2002-2005) while the ratio of current account balance to GDP was moving downward  
262 (from 13% in 1998 to 4% in 2004). Furthermore, the Thailand's current account had shifted to a deficit amounting  
263 to US\$7.8 billion in 2005.

264 International reserve holdings would decline with the rise in the total external debt holdings in the Philippines.  
265 In other words, total external debt is a substitute for international reserves in this country. A 1% increase in  
266 total external debt would lead to the decline in international reserve holdings by 1.2% in the Philippines. Total  
267 external debt is not significant in the rest of the countries.

268 Total external debt does not have any significant effect on international reserve holdings in the cases of  
269 Indonesia, Malaysia, Singapore, and Thailand. Some possible explanation for such findings can be offered.  
270 Indonesia was able to reduce its total external debt burden from US\$151 billion (97% of GDP) in 1998-1999 to  
271 an average of US\$136 billion (74% of GDP) during 2001-2004. The reduction is mainly due to the reduction in  
272 the long term debt of the private sector from US\$55 billion in 1998 to an average of US\$32 billion in 2001-2004  
273 (Asian Development Bank, various issues). The government has taken steps in rescheduling its external debt and  
274 also the external debt of the private sector. Under the Paris Club and London Club Agreements, the government  
275 was allowed to reschedule its external debt repayments. Besides, the Frankfurt Agreement was signed on the 4th  
276 June of 1998 to assist the private sector in resolving its external debt burden (Kusumaningtuti, 2004).

277 In the case of Malaysia, there had been a decline in the private sector's long term external debt from US\$18  
278 billion in 2000 to an average of US\$14 billion during 2001 ??ADB 2006)). There are at least two reasons that  
279 could explain the insignificance of total external debt in Singapore. First, the Singaporean government has not  
280 taken any external financing since 1996. This may be due to the policy of the government to maintain budget

281 surplus. The government budget has been in consistent surplus since 1988 (ADB various issues). Second, even  
282 though the levels of external debt have grown in recent years, Singapore is a net creditor in all trade credit  
283 transactions, debt securities, FDIRELATED loans, and loans to other non-residents (Kapur, 2005).

284 The short run causality based on equation ( ??) is presented in Table 6. In the short run,  $\ln YCAP$  is significant  
285 only in the case of the Philippines while  $\ln PIM$  is significant in all sample countries.  $\ln XVOL$  is significant in  
286 affecting international reserve holdings in the cases of the Philippines and Singapore.  $\ln CA$  is significant in all  
287 of the ASEAN countries except Thailand while  $\ln DEBT$  debt does not show significant impact on international  
288 reserve holdings in the short run except in the case of Thailand.

### 289 13 CONCLUSION

290 This paper examines the behavior of international reserve holdings in the ASEAN5 economies, namely Indonesia,  
291 Malaysia, the Philippines, Singapore, and Thailand, during the period of 1970-2005. The ARDL bounds testing  
292 approach developed by Pesaran et al. ( ??001) is utilized to test for the existence of cointegration relationship  
293 between international reserve holdings and its determinants (GDP per capita, average propensity to import,  
294 export volatility, current account balance/GDP, and total external debt/GDP). The empirical results indicate  
295 that there is a long run relationship between international reserve holdings and its determinants in the five  
296 ASEAN economies.

297 An important conclusion can be drawn from the empirical findings is that current account balance is significant  
298 and positively related to international reserve holdings in Indonesia, Malaysia, and Singapore. In other words,  
299 current account surplus leads to the rise in international reserve holdings in these countries.

300 Current account surplus is the excess savings by the private sector. Therefore, it is expected that the private  
301 sector will use these savings to finance their investment. However, due to the less developed financial markets in  
302 the region, the private sector may have limited ability to transform their savings into investment. As a result, the  
303 public sector acts as an intermediary for the private sector to recycle the savings into investment. In particular,  
304 the public sector has transformed these savings into investment in foreign currency assets in the form of the build  
305 up of international reserves ??Genberg, McCauley, Park, and Persaud, 2005, p. 13).

306 The build up of reserves represents the investment in foreign currency assets, especially the US dollar  
307 denominated assets, by central banks. This is because nearly 70% of international reserves are denominated  
308 in the US dollars (World Bank, 2005; Genberg et al., 2005, p. 30). These reserves are usually invested in high  
309 liquidity and low return assets such as the US treasury bills and bonds (Oh, Park, Park, and Yang, 2003; World  
310 Bank 2005). Such investment of reserves represents capital outflows from East Asia to the US. These outflows  
311 of savings could be a loss of opportunities to these countries since the returns on reserves may be lower than  
312 the returns on alternative investments at home. Therefore part of reserves may be used to finance investment at  
313 home such as on health, education, and infrastructure. Such investment may minimize the savings-investment  
314 imbalance and promote long term economic growth in these countries.

### 315 14 APPENDIX

### 316 15 Stability tests Indonesia

317 Malaysia

318 1 2 3 4 5 6

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<sup>6</sup>© 2011 Global Journals Inc. (US) © 2011 Global Journals Inc. (US) XII 2011 December International Reserve Holdings in ASEAN5 Economies 2. \* outside and inside parenthesis indicate significance levels based on Pesaran et al. (2001) and Narayan (2005), respectively. 3. k and n denote the number of regressors and observations, respectively. \*\*\*, \*\*, and \* indicate significant at 1%, 5%, and 10% levels, respectively.

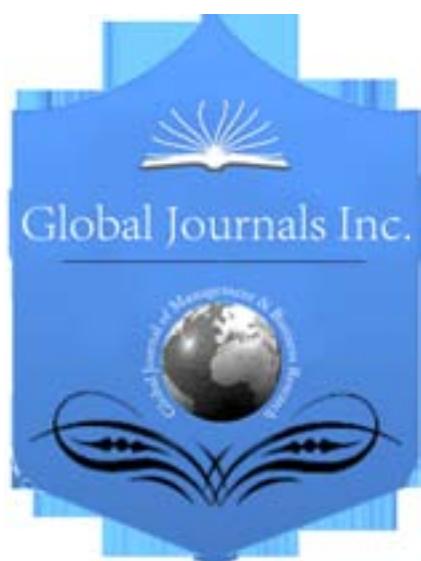


Figure 1:

Country	ADF Test		KPSS Test	
	Without Trend	With Trend	Without Trend	With Trend
Indonesia	-2.5894 (0)	-2.7151 (3)	0.7469 (4)***	0.1284 (12)*
?lnR	-7.1632 (0)***	-7.1507 (0)***	0.1186 (3)	0.0692 (3)
lnYCAP	-1.8357 (0)	-1.6083 (1)	0.7003 (5)**	0.1522 (4)**
?lnYCAP	-4.2539 (0)***	-4.4740 (0)***	0.2592 (2)	0.0614 (1)
lnPIM	-2.6035 (0)	-2.4747 (0)	0.5183 (4)**	0.0886 (2)
?lnPIM	-6.2176 (0)***	-6.3073 (0)***	0.1909 (4)	0.0990 (5)
lnXVOL	-2.9575 (3)*	-3.1817 (3)	0.3392 (4)	0.0900 (2)
?lnXVOL	-4.7629 (4)***	-4.6808 (4)***	0.0559 (1)	0.0541 (1)
lnCA	-3.4726 (0)**	-3.6843 (1)**	0.3494 (3)*	0.1265 (2)*
?lnCA	-6.2626 (1)***	-6.1594 (1)***	0.0574 (3)	0.0568 (3)
lnDEBT	-1.5970 (0)	-2.0373 (0)	0.4426 (5)*	0.0954 (4)
?lnDEBT	-5.5772 (0)***	-5.4902 (0)***	0.1002 (0)	0.0994 (0)
Malaysia	-0.8448 (0)	-3.0273 (1)	0.7191 (4)**	0.1494 (3)**
?lnR	-5.4116 (0)***	-4.6284 (3)***	0.3083 (17)	0.0479 (3)
lnYCAP	-1.2830 (0)	-3.9935 (8)**	0.7088 (5)**	0.0760 (4)
?lnYCAP	-4.8785 (0)***	-4.9762 (0)***	0.1450 (2)	0.0573 (1)
lnPIM	-1.1162 (0)	-3.2815 (0)*	0.6672 (5)**	0.0919 (2)
?lnPIM	-6.7491 (0)***	-6.6427 (0)***	0.0741 (3)	0.0742 (3)
lnXVOL	-2.4267 (0)	-4.0789 (0)**	0.7611 (4)*	0.0679 (2)
?lnXVOL	-8.7104 (0)***	-8.7890 (0)***	0.0983 (5)	0.0832 (6)
lnCA	-2.8432 (1)*	-3.1344 (1)	0.2369 (3)	0.1121 (2)
?lnCA	-5.3593 (0)***	-5.3020 (0)***	0.0772 (3)	0.0350 (2)
lnDEBT	-2.8438 (4)*	-5.1456 (1)***	0.4369 (5)*	0.1629 (4)**
?lnDEBT	-4.8104 (1)***	-2.8438 (4)*	0.2899 (9)	0.0646 (5)
Thailand	-2.3289 (7)	-1.6614 (1)	0.3539 (4)*	0.1540 (4)**
Philippines				
?lnR	-4.1801 (1)***	-4.5065 (3)***	0.0874 (2)	0.0888 (2)
lnYCAP	-1.5139 (2)	-2.5819 (1)	0.4908 (4)**	0.1004 (4)
?lnYCAP	-3.5720 (1)**	-3.4970 (1)*	0.1300 (2)	0.1299 (2)*
lnPIM	-0.3981 (1)	-1.7441 (3)	0.6116 (5)**	0.1414 (4)*
?lnPIM	-7.4357 (0)***	-7.3442 (0)**	0.0971 (1)	0.0808 (1)
lnXVOL	-2.3405 (0)	-3.1354 (0)	0.3543 (4)*	0.0605 (3)
?lnXVOL	-6.1865 (1)***	-6.1484 (1)***	0.1421 (2)	0.0714 (3)
lnCA	-2.3576 (0)	-3.5552 (8)*	0.2803 (4)	0.1295 (3)*
?lnCA	-5.6565 (1)***	-5.6648 (1)***	0.3190 (13)	0.0517 (3)
lnDEBT	-1.9695 (1)	-1.7296 (1)	0.4473 (5)*	0.1588 (4)**
?lnDEBT	-3.5720 (0)**	-3.6962 (0)**	0.1982 (1)	0.0722 (1)
Singapore	-1.0722 (0)	-3.0143 (3)	0.6739 (5)**	0.1443 (1)*
?lnR	-6.4146 (0)***	-6.4339 (0)***	0.0568 (3)	0.0483 (3)
lnYCAP	-2.5184 (0)	-2.0608 (0)	0.7117 (5)**	0.1829 (4)**
?lnYCAP	-4.9678 (0)***	-5.4095 (1)***	0.4133 (1)*	0.0563 (3)
lnPIM	-2.2061 (1)	-2.2511 (1)	0.1440 (4)	0.1257 (4)*
?lnPIM	-6.4658 (0)***	-6.3652 (0)***	0.0894 (1)	0.0834 (1)
lnXVOL	-2.0599 (0)	-3.5777 (1)**	0.7238 (4)**	0.0559 (2)
?lnXVOL	-4.3766 (4)***	-4.2830 (4)**	0.1125 (7)	0.0996 (7)
lnCA	-0.8656 (5)	-4.0348 (0)**	0.6985 (4)**	0.1675 (2)**
?lnCA	-9.1313 (0)***	-9.9914 (0)***	0.1986 (2)	0.0900 (4)
lnDEBT	-0.5104 (1)	-3.4085 (8)*	0.6217 (5)**	0.0971 (4)
?lnDEBT	-4.5197 (0)***	-4.4880 (0)***	0.1015 (0)	0.0774 (1)
Thailand	-1.5991 (3)	-3.4756 (5)*	0.4502 (5)**	0.1349 (3)*
?lnR	-3.9509 (0)***	-3.9824 (0)**	0.2009 (4)	0.1023 (4)
lnYCAP	-0.8808 (1)	-3.2503 (7)*	0.6978 (5)**	0.1039 (4)
?lnYCAP	-3.2524 (0)**	-3.2422 (0)*	0.1122 (2)	0.0852 (3)

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Figure 3:

2

Variable	Indonesia	Malaysia	Philippines	Singapore	Thailand
	(-2.1898)	(-0.4408)	(-1.4424)	(0.3177)	(-2.0436)
lnR t-1	-1.2229*** (-4.0165)	-0.9573*** (-4.1352)	-1.1027*** (-4.1347)	-0.6052** (-2.5103)	-0.1525* (-1.8436)
lnYCAP t-1	0.9284** (2.4470)	0.1334 (0.3111)	2.1489 (1.3812)	-0.0154 (-0.1076)	0.6830* (1.7939)
lnPIM t-1	0.4991 (1.1606)	0.7429* (1.9218)	1.8541*** (4.7293)	-0.2856** (-2.2295)	-0.7276** (-2.4968)
lnXVOL t-1	0.2357*** (3.0022)	0.0060 (0.0647)	0.1322 (1.2375)	-0.0182 (-0.5969)	0.0049 (0.0996)
lnCA t-1	0.6853*** (3.2721)	0.2614*** (3.9370)	0.0830 (0.4646)	0.3304*** (3.3574)	-0.1170 (-1.6733)
lnDEBT t-1	0.2010 (0.7600)	-0.0775 (-0.6501)	-1.2785*** (-4.3313)	0.0507 (0.9053)	-0.0664 (-0.4091)
Adjusted R 2	0.6255	0.5948	0.6568	0.5940	0.6032
AIC	0.1190	-1.0397	0.2640	-2.7159	-1.5221
Std. error of regression	0.2208	0.1234	0.2374	0.0534	0.0970
F-statistic	4.1436	3.9353	4.6023	4.1215	4.2430
Probability (F)	- 0.0041	0.0046	0.0024	0.0032	0.0027
statistic)					
Diagnostic Tests					
Serial correlation test	1.1752 [0.3395]	2.5919 [0.1102]	0.8293 [0.4543]	0.4653 [0.6367]	2.1512 [0.1509]
ARCH test	0.3353 [0.7179]	0.3188 [0.7296]	1.2901 [0.2911]	0.7360 [0.4881]	0.3770 [0.6894]
Normality test	2.8036 [0.2462]	0.1290 [0.9376]	0.4377 [0.8034]	1.9393 [0.3792]	2.8626 [0.2390]
Ramsey RESET test	1.0885 [0.3145]	2.8330 [0.1130]	1.9510 [0.1745]	0.0513 [0.9502]	0.5078 [0.6118]

Figure 4: Table 2 :

Variable	Indonesia	Malaysia	The Philip-pines	Singapore	Thailand
?lnR t-1	0.2749 (1.1370)	0.4647** (2.4577)	0.2868 (1.0874)		
?lnR t-2	0.2692 (1.4359)		0.1915 (0.9590)	0.4111* (1.8851)	0.2582 (1.4885)
?lnYCAP t			8.4343** (2.6870)		
?lnYCAP t-1			- 6.8786*** (-3.0537)	0.3222 (0.6022)	-0.5912 (-0.6875)
?lnYCAP t-2	1.6767 (0.5617)	0.8387 (0.9892)		0.6555 (1.3310)	-1.0757 (-1.1739)
?lnPIM t		0.3914 (1.6840)	2.8458*** (4.4545)	0.5840** (2.1778)	0.2865 (1.4784)
?lnPIM t-1	-0.6127 (-1.4620)	-0.5043* (-1.7538)		-0.1498 (-0.7252)	0.6609** (2.5833)
?lnPIM t-2	-1.2790*** (-3.0423)		-0.8981 (-1.7067)		
?lnXVOL t	0.0784 (1.0973)	0.1253* (1.9253)	0.0648 (0.6224)		0.0403 (1.0290)
?lnXVOL t-1		0.0517 (0.8245)	-0.2476** (-2.4697)	-0.0646* (-2.0402)	
?lnXVOL t-2		0.0778 (1.2901)			
?lnCA t	0.2956*** (3.1830)	0.1092** (2.1795)	0.3420** (2.6390)	0.4863*** (3.7741)	
?lnCA t-1	-0.4551** (-2.8044)	-0.1020* (-1.7916)		-0.0886* (-2.0426)	0.0955 (1.6974)
?lnCA t-2	-0.2775** (-2.2608)				
?lnDEBT t			-1.0426 (-1.5846)	-0.1097 (-1.2318)	
?lnDEBT t-1	0.3230 (0.9458)	0.3005 (1.3821)	1.3289* (1.9200)		-0.3516 (-1.6553)
?lnDEBT t-2	0.8284 (1.5786)				-0.6572** (-2.0000)

Significance level	Lower Bound (k=5)	Upper Bound	Narayan (2005) Lower Bound (k=5; n=35)
1%	3.41	4.68	4.26
5%	2.62	3.79	3.04
10%	2.26	3.35	2.51
1.			

Figure 6: Table 4 :

	(Dependent Variable: Reserves/GDP (lnR))				
	Indonesia	Malaysia	The Philippines	Singapore	Thailand
lnYCAP	0.7591**	0.1393	1.9488	-	4.4796*
				0.0254	
lnPIM	0.4081	0.7761*	1.6814***	-	4.7719**
				0.4718**	
lnXVOL	0.1928***	0.0062	0.1199	-	0.0322
				0.0301	
lnCA	0.5604***	0.2730*	0.0752	0.5459***	-
					0.7672
lnDEBT	0.1644	-	-	0.0838	-
				0.0810	0.4357
1.1594***					

lnYCAP = real GDP per capita, logged; lnPIM is average propensity to import (imports/GDP), logged; lnXVOL = volatility of real export receipts, logged; lnCA = ratio of current account balance to GDP, logged; and lnDEBT = ratio of total external debt to GDP, logged.

\*\*\*, \*\*, and \* indicate significant at 1%, 5%, and 10% levels, respectively.

Figure 7: Table 5 :

6

## Indonesia

Malaysia Singapore Thailand

1.  $\ln YCAP$  is real GDP per capita, logged;  $\ln PIM$  is average propensity to import (imports/GDP), logged;  $\ln X VOL$  is volatility of real export receipts, logged;  $\ln CA$  is the ratio of current account balance to GDP, logged;  $\ln DEBT$  is the ratio of total external debt to GDP, logged.
2. ? is the first difference operator.
3. Figures in square brackets [ ] are the p-values.  
\*\*\*, \*\*, and \* indicate significant at 1%, 5%, and 10% levels, respectively.

V.

Figure 8: Table 6 :

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