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<https://escholarship.org/uc/item/9741w9n3>

### Journal

Review of International Political Economy, ahead-of-print(ahead-of-print)

### ISSN

0969-2290

### Authors

Vortherms, Samantha A

Zhang, Jiakun Jack

### Publication Date

2024

### DOI

10.1080/09692290.2024.2351841

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# Political risk and firm exit: evidence from the US–China Trade War

Samantha A. Vortherms<sup>a</sup>  and Jiakun Jack Zhang<sup>b</sup> 

<sup>a</sup>Department of Political Science, University of California, Irvine, CA, USA; <sup>b</sup>Department of Political Science, University of Kansas, Lawrence, KS, USA

## ABSTRACT

When do political risks lead to divestment from a profitable market? Existing theories argue both that foreign investors may be sensitive to political tensions, but that they may only be sensitive to violent conflict. Using the crucial case of the US–China Trade War, we outline how political risks increased rates of exit among foreign firms while firm entrenchment mitigated these risks. Using a new dataset on all foreign-invested enterprises registered in China between 2017 and 2019, we implement triple interaction models to isolate the impact of increased political risks, investor national origin, and entrenchment on firm exit. Our findings show that heightened political risks during the trade war did increase firm exits by 34% – 3% points – over the pre-conflict baseline. Tariffs, the targeted effect of the trade war, increase US firm exits by 1% point. Firm exit is determined by the balance of heightened political risks against the availability of firm-level resources to mitigate these risks. These findings reconcile the conflicting expectations of the ‘business as usual’ and ‘follow the flag’ literatures about how firms respond to political risk, highlighting the tremendous collateral damage tariffs can cause in an age of global value chains.

**ARTICLE HISTORY** Received: 3 May 2023; Revised: 20 January 2024; Accepted: 25 March 2024


## KEYWORDS

Political risk; trade war; foreign direct investment; China; global value chains; international business; international trade

## Introduction

Multinational corporations (MNCs) engage in foreign direct investment (FDI) when political risks are low (Barry, 2018; Pandya, 2016; Jensen et al., 2012; Jensen, 2008), national security interests between sending and target countries align (Biglaiser & DeRouen Jr., 2007; Rodman, 2001), and when property rights are protected (Wellhausen, 2014; Biglaiser & Staats, 2012; Li et al., 2003). Comparatively little is known, however,

**CONTACT** Samantha Vortherms  [s.vortherms@uci.edu](mailto:s.vortherms@uci.edu)  Department of Political Science, University of California, Irvine, CA, USA

 Supplemental data for this article can be accessed online at <https://doi.org/10.1080/09692290.2024.2351841>.

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40 about the determinants of FDI flight, or the politics of divestment. Do elevated political  
41 risks increase the likelihood that foreign investors exit from a once-promising  
42 market? When political relations sour between sender and host countries, will FDI  
43 ‘follow the flag’ out of the market? If so, are some firms more likely to exit than others?

44 We build on work by Vekasi (2019), Barry (2018), Graham et al. (2016) and  
45 Camacho and Rodriguez (2013) to unpack the effects of political risk on divestment.  
46 Previous research on the impacts of political risks and FDI flight focuses on risks  
47 associated with violent conflicts, such as civil wars, insurgency and terrorism, demon-  
48 strating how MNCs’ behavior depends on the different stages of the FDI lifecycle.  
49 While the probability of FDI entry decreases with conflict duration and intensity,  
50 once the costs of investment are sunk, firms are resilient to all but the most intense  
51 forms of political risks, and FDI exits are rare (Barry, 2018). Firms with the same  
52 national origins act similarly because of a sense of ‘shared political risk’ (Wellhausen,  
53 2014). We expand the literature on FDI exit by examining how MNCs respond to an  
54 important episode of non-violent political risk: The US–China Trade War.

55 Even before the trade war, China represented a crucial case for understanding  
56 both FDI investment and divestment. China is one of only two non-US allies  
57 among the top 20 largest recipients of FDI stocks between 2005 and 2022,<sup>1</sup> making  
58 China a crucial case for understanding variation in firm exits as both a geopolitical  
59 rival to the US and the second largest recipient of FDI in the world, trailing behind  
60 only the US. The US–China Trade War offers a unique opportunity to examine the  
61 impact of political risk outside of armed conflicts. The trade war represents the  
62 most serious disruption to global supply chains since their emergence. Studying the  
63 effects of political risks on FDI in this influential case could help establish the  
64 scope conditions for a theory of FDI outflows. On the one hand, we would expect  
65 national origin of the firm to be the most salient in this case where geopolitics  
66 looms so large. On the other hand, the size and depth of the Chinese market may  
67 convince some foreign investors to ignore pressures from their home governments  
68 to decouple from China.

69 We argue that the 2018 US–China Trade War increased political risks across the  
70 board for all foreign MNCs operating in China, contributing to the exit of some  
71 China-based subsidiaries. Costs of business increase through concrete measures  
72 such as tariffs and export controls but political risks also increase intangible costs,  
73 such as uncertainty about the future business environment and political pressure  
74 from sender governments as well.

75 These factors drive political risk for China-based operations by raising costs and  
76 changing the rules of the game, with significant ramifications for overseas produc-  
77 tion. But some firms resist the influence of these adverse effects of intensifying  
78 geopolitical competition through greater entrenchment in the local market. We uti-  
79 lize micro-level data from the original Foreign-Invested Enterprises in China (FIEC)  
80 Dataset to implement triple interaction models identifying the conditions under  
81 which the trade war increased divestment through firm exit. We find that the blunt  
82 effect of the trade war – the souring of business relations felt by all MNCs oper-  
83 ating in China – was significant, increasing MNC subsidiary exit by an average of  
84 3% points, or approximately a 34% increase over pre-trade war levels. We find that  
85 US firms in industry classes with higher tariffs – the targeted effect of the trade  
86 war – were marginally more likely to exit than MNCs from other countries in the  
87 same industries by approximately 1% point. Firms from countries with close

88 political alignment with China, while more likely to exit before the trade war, do  
89 not exit at a higher rate when tariffed, but still suffer significant blunt effects of  
90 the trade war. Finally, firm entrenchment in China mitigates the effect of rising  
91 political risks, reducing firm exits. These results are consistent with the emerging  
92 literature on the heterogeneous impact of political risk on domestic economic  
93 actors (Vekasi, 2019; Li & Liu, 2019; Davis & Meunier, 2011; Kastner, 2007). The  
94 trade war increased overall firm exits but had a heterogeneous effect in terms of  
95 which MNCs exited China.

96 Our results have significant theoretical and empirical implications for under-  
97 standing the dynamics of FDI flows, especially between geopolitical competitors.  
98 Theoretically, we present one of the first systematic attempts to understand divest-  
99 ment through firm exit during a clearly demarcated period of heightened political  
100 risk. We show that the interaction of heightened macro risk and the differing  
101 capacity for firms to mitigate micro risk drives firm exits. Empirically, we provide  
102 evidence that the trade war elevated political risks for all foreign MNCs in China,  
103 but tariffs marginally accelerate FDI exits in affected industries. The trade war had  
104 a greater blunt effect than targeted effect, with smaller and newer firms bearing the  
105 brunt of its impact. This suggests policy initiatives using tariffs to encourage the  
106 re-shoring of specific industries may have limited effects and carry unintended dis-  
107 tributional consequences. Our results also explain the uneasy coexistence of eco-  
108 nomic decoupling with business-as-usual found in the current era of the US–China  
109 Trade War. They help explain why the anecdotal evidence on how much decou-  
110 pling or derisking is actually happening as a result of Western politicians pressur-  
111 ing MNCs to divest from China is mixed. Finally, our research highlights the need  
112 to analyze political risk outside of the extreme case of violent conflict.

### 114 ***The case: the US–China Trade War***

115  
116 After accusing China of unfair trade practices and intellectual property theft, the  
117 Trump administration imposed four rounds of tariffs on Chinese goods between  
118 July 2018 and May 2019, specifically targeting intermediate and capital goods sup-  
119 ported by the ‘Made in China 2025 Initiative’ which quickly expanded to include  
120 a wide array of consumer goods as well (Zhang, 2022). Chinese officials retaliated  
121 with four rounds of tariffs on US goods, such as soybeans, whose production was  
122 concentrated in Republican-supporting districts (Kim & Margalit, 2021).

123 The US–China Trade War quickly expanded beyond tariffs to a wider set of  
124 policies aimed at the ‘strategic decoupling’ of the two economies. A slew of other  
125 policy measures designed to curb Chinese competitiveness in emerging technolo-  
126 gies – the so called ‘tech-war’ – and to heighten ideological competition between  
127 the two systems of government – the so-called ‘new cold war’ – accompanied the  
128 escalation of tariffs. Since 2018, the Department of Commerce added more than  
129 600 Chinese companies, including Huawei, one of the world’s largest information  
130 and communication technology suppliers, to a list of entities subject to stringent  
131 export licensing requirements for US technology. The US Congress expanded con-  
132 trols *via* the Export Controls Reform Act to cover dual-use emerging and founda-  
133 tional technologies and also increased scrutiny of Chinese investment in dual-use,  
134 high-technology sectors *via* the Foreign Investment Risk Review Modernization Act  
135 of 2018. The Department of the Treasury expanded the Office of Foreign Asset

136 Control's financial sanctions to penalize Chinese human rights abuses in Xinjiang  
137 and Hong Kong.

138 The Department of Justice launched a nation-wide China initiative to identify  
139 instances of Chinese intellectual property theft, and the Department of State can-  
140 celed visas of Chinese scholars suspected of economic espionage. The Biden admin-  
141 istration not only kept the Trump administration's tariffs on China in place, but  
142 also intensified efforts to cut China off from advanced technologies. The US–China  
143 Trade War garnered significant attention as researchers inside and outside of aca-  
144 demia tracked the coverage of tariffs (Bown, 2019) and attempted to identify its  
145 causes and political logic (Hua, 2022). This dramatic incidence of economic state-  
146 craft highlights how supply chains create more powerful tools for political manip-  
147 ulation than ever before (Chen & Evers, 2023; Lee & Maher, 2022). This article  
148 adds to the growing literature on the wide-ranging consequences of the US–China  
149 trade war. Previously identified consequences include its influence on public opin-  
150 ion, securitizing economic relationships and popular support of a global liberal  
151 economic order (Dolan et al., 2021; Bulman, 2022; Steinberg & Tan, 2023). This  
152 impact on public opinion also impacts US electoral outcomes (Chyzh & Urbatsch,  
153 2021). Individual firms changed their political behavior in response to the trade  
154 war, including decisions to exit markets or voice opposition at home (Liu et al.,  
155 2022) and petition for tariff exclusions to protect their industries (Lee & Osgood,  
156 2022). A remaining area of inquiry is how political risks heightened by the trade  
157 war impact investor behavior. While there is some preliminary evidence of the  
158 trade war reshaping supply chains,<sup>2</sup> less is known about the heterogeneous effects  
159 of the trade war on firm exits from China.

160 Evidence of MNC divestment from China in the wake of the trade war is mixed.  
161 Aggregate foreign investment in China held steady during 2018 and 2019 and  
162 increased dramatically in 2020 despite the Coronavirus pandemic when China  
163 briefly overtook the US as the largest recipient of FDI (UNCTAD, 2021). The num-  
164 ber of foreign-invested enterprises entering China outpaced exits (Figure 1). Yet,  
165 exits increased from an average of 7.7% before the escalation of the trade war to  
166 11.2% in 2019 after new tariffs and retaliatory tariffs were placed on nearly all  
167 bilateral trade.

168 What accounts for this discrepancy between the increased rate of firm exit and  
169 the steady level of overall FDI? Did the US–China Trade War succeed in starting  
170 an exodus of MNCs from China, beginning the process of decoupling as some  
171 commentators and policymakers claimed? Does national origin influence which  
172 firms are more responsive to calls to economically 'decouple' from China?

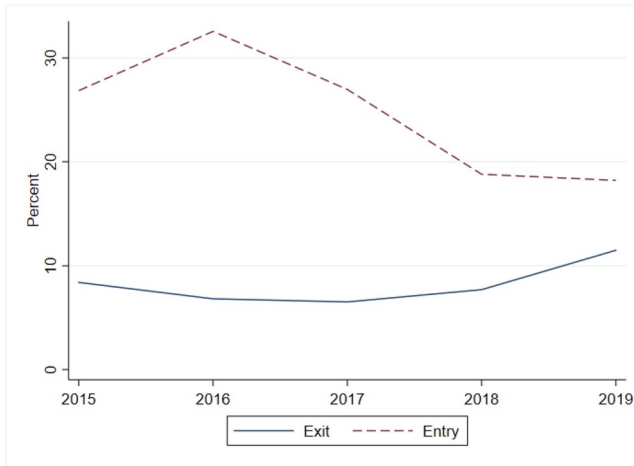
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175

## **The geopolitics of FDI outflows**

176 Theoretically, we know more about the politics of FDI inflows than FDI outflows.  
177 Foreign investors are more likely to invest in a country with favorable economic  
178 conditions or when seeking new markets (Dunning, 1980; Cheng & Kwan, 2000;  
179 Wadhwa & Reddy, 2011). MNCs are more likely to enter a market when property  
180 rights are protected (Wellhausen, 2014; Biglaiser & Staats, 2012; Li et al., 2003) and  
181 when there are strong institutions (Pandya, 2016; Jensen et al., 2012; Jensen, 2008).  
182 Large-scale political disruptions in the host country, including violent conflict and  
183 decrease investment (Barry, 2018; Pandya, 2016).



**Figure 1.** MNC entries and exits since 2015. Data represent the percent of foreign-invested firms that either are established in a given year (entry) or that exit in a given year (exit). *Source:* FIEC Dataset.

The existing literature on the politics of FDI offers conflicting expectations about how foreign investors in China are likely to respond to the trade war. The most prominent recent study on the effect of political tensions on trade and investment finds a powerful null relationship (Davis & Meunier, 2011), suggesting that firms continue to operate ‘business as usual.’ The authors point out that the costs of movement are substantial for firms engaged in intra-industry trade, and these relationship-specific sunk costs discourage fluid adjustment by economic actors to changing political circumstances. Foreign MNCs in China depend on its vast industrial base for suppliers and are embedded in regional supply chains. China has actively attracted FDI domestically through establishing free trade zones and internationally through signing bilateral investment treaties (BITs). These are production network relationships that take years to forge and are very costly to replace. Davis and Meunier (2011) point out that weakening alliance ties or animosity between rivals would not produce a parallel shift in economic ties. They conclude that in an era of globalization, ‘actors lack incentives to link political and economic relations,’ and thus investment can proceed ‘business as usual’ despite political conflict.

Alternatively, the literature on investment ‘following the flag’ suggests that US FDI aligns with its alliances (Biglaiser & DeRouen Jr., 2007) and that bilateral FDI is higher between security allies (Li & Vashchilko, 2010). Trade and investment create security externalities: Trade with allies benefits security relations while trade with adversaries increases security costs (Gowa & Mansfield, 1993). Li and Vashchilko (2010) argue that allies are less likely to restrict foreign entry into the economy, which lowers political risks in the host for investments from an allied home country. Nigh (1985) finds that because host governments have difficulty distinguishing the interests of the US government and those of US investors, investors watch events of cooperation or conflict between the nations closely for information about the business environment they might face in the host nation. International cooperation should increase US investment, and conflict should decrease US investment.

232 These theories are unsatisfying when evaluating the present economic decou-  
233 pling dilemma where politics and economics are pulling MNCs in opposite direc-  
234 tions. China is a puzzle for the IPE literature on the politics of FDI. As an  
235 autocratic, non-US allied country with a non-independent judiciary and uncertain  
236 property rights protection, it has emerged as one of the world's leading FDI recip-  
237 ient countries despite being a risky place to invest. Scholars have noted the political  
238 risk tolerance of foreign firms in China, termed 'hot economics, cold politics'  
239 (Vekasi, 2019; Aggarwal & Govella, 2013). Does 'business as usual' hold in an era  
240 where politicians seem more concerned than ever about economic security and  
241 geopolitics? Or has the unprecedented increase of political risk in China caused  
242 more firms to 'follow the flag'? This article explores the role of nationality and  
243 firm-entrenchment in mitigating political risks at the firm-level and shaping deci-  
244 sions to exit from China.

## 245 246 **Theorizing political risks and firm exit**

247 We argue that variation in divestment through firm exit results from differential  
248 experiences of political risks among foreign MNCs and their firm-level character-  
249 istics that mitigate the costs of political risks. Political risk increases the likelihood  
250 of exit, but not all firms experience exit pressure equally. Both national origin and  
251 firm entrenchment affect firms' exposure to political risks.

### 252 253 **Political risk and firm exit**

254 We argue that the US–China Trade War heightened both broad and targeted polit-  
255 ical risks, encouraging firm exits. Political risk refers to the risk investors suffer as  
256 a result of politics. Political risks are the risks of governments breaching an implicit  
257 contract with investors.<sup>3</sup> Extreme cases of political risk – rare occurrences of inter-  
258 state violent conflict – dominate existing studies of how risk affects FDI. Yet less  
259 intense but more common forms of political risk are also likely to impact investment.

260 The political actions taken by both China and the United States increased  
261 uncertainty and political risks for MNCs. The rapid deterioration of US–China  
262 relations and resulting policy uncertainty caught MNCs by surprise. Between 2018  
263 and 2019, the US trade policy uncertainty index topped 800, multiple times above  
264 its mean of 100 from 1985 to 2019, reflecting an 'extraordinary' level of uncertainty  
265 (Baker et al., 2019). Most analysts and business leaders initially expected a negoti-  
266 ated settlement to be reached in 2018 before the tariffs would be implemented  
267 (Davis & Wei, 2020). They initially saw the threat of tariffs as mostly posturing,  
268 and thus the breakdown of talks and implementation of these tariffs in July and  
269 August 2018 startled many MNCs. The timing of this bargaining failure was diffi-  
270 cult for MNCs to anticipate in advance. But the onset of the trade, tech and cold  
271 war with the US dramatically increased political risks for foreign MNCs doing  
272 business with China.

273 Political risk has long been established as an important determinant of FDI  
274 inflows and firm entry (Pandya, 2016) but plays a more ambiguous role for firm  
275 exit (Barry, 2018). Political risk, regardless of form, erodes the business environ-  
276 ment and increases the likelihood of firm exit, all else equal. We argue that the  
277  
278  
279



280 political risks create two effects: A targeted effect of micro-political risks and a  
281 blunt effect of macro-political risks.<sup>4</sup> The targeted effect of the trade war is expected  
282 to increase for those firms exposed to tariffs and other retaliatory measures.  
283 However, it also has a blunt chilling effect across all foreign businesses because  
284 even foreign firms that do not export directly to the US face elevated regulatory  
285 uncertainty, greater difficulty securing financing or insurance, and more uncer-  
286 tainty about Chinese growth.

287 Firms vary not only in terms of their exposure to micro- and macro-political  
288 risks, but also in their capacity to respond and adapt. We hypothesize that the  
289 exposure of individual firms to political risk is mitigated by their national origin  
290 and their degree of entrenchment in China. The national origin of the firm will  
291 serve as a filter for exposure as some foreign firms are more likely to be targeted  
292 by specific policies. The ‘follow the flag’ literature suggests that political risks ema-  
293 nating from the trade war should be more acute for some foreign firms than others  
294 depending on if the relationship between their country of origin and China is  
295 friendly or hostile. The ‘business as usual’ literature suggests that a firm’s degree of  
296 entrenchment in China must also be considered. Less entrenched firms have less  
297 costs sunk in China and fewer political resources; they are likely more sensitive to  
298 political risks. For better entrenched firms, exposure to tariffs could increase the  
299 cost of doing business but may not be enough to convince them to stop doing  
300 business in China. They may also receive more favorable treatment from local gov-  
301 ernments or business partners to continue operating in China.

302 Previous scholarship on both ‘following the flag’ and ‘business as usual’ has used  
303 bilateral economic flows, be it trade or FDI, as the unit of analysis. We argue that  
304 the impact of political risk on firm exits must be understood and analyzed at the  
305 firm level rather than the dyadic level. Different firms make different decisions  
306 depending on exposure and entrenchment, and their behavior can be more than  
307 the sum of its parts. Firm exit is a costly decision that can result from either acute  
308 exposure or inadequate capacity to respond. Aggregate FDI stock data at the  
309 national level would not show a change if many small firms exit but most large  
310 well-entrenched firms remain as a result of the trade war. We synthesize the  
311 insights from both the ‘follow the flag’ and ‘business as usual’ approaches to ana-  
312 lyze pathways of how political risks can result in firm exit across different firms.

313

### 314 *Casualty*

315 The most straightforward pathway for firm exit is between targeted political risks  
316 and low-entrenchment firms. Both the US and China targeted retaliatory tariffs to  
317 maximize political leverage while minimizing economic harm. For these firms that  
318 lack scale and experience in China, exposure to higher tariffs could put an unbear-  
319 able strain on business models and cause them to go out of business. Firms from  
320 countries that are hostile toward China, such as the United States, should be espe-  
321 cially exposed to targeted political risk. Firm exit for these casualty firms likely  
322 means liquidation; the tariffs that target them put the marginal firm over the edge  
323 into insolvency.

324

### 325 *De-risking*

326 For better entrenched firms, exposure to tariffs could increase the cost of doing  
327 business but may not be enough to convince them to reduce their footprint in

328 China. However, some of these firms exposed to targeted political risk may choose  
329 to preemptively reduce their exposure to China by divestment or restructuring.  
330 National origin is a key driver of derisking behavior because US and US-allied  
331 firms face additional reputational risks and regulatory pressure from their home  
332 governments to reduce exposure to China due to national security concerns. These  
333 firms that ‘follow the flag’ choose to exit whereas the less well-entrenched firms are  
334 forced to exit.

### 335 336 *Collateral damage*

337 The trade war also has a blunt effect on global value chains beyond those import-  
338 ing/exporting firms that have to deal with higher tariffs. Arguably, the primary way  
339 that the trade war elevated political risks in China was to magnify uncertainty and  
340 undermine investor confidence. As the *South China Morning Post* reported in 2019,  
341 ‘China [was] holding onto US dollars by increasingly restricting business and indi-  
342 vidual transfers out of the country’ while foreign financial institutions were ‘increas-  
343 ingly reluctant to lend US dollars to Chinese banks given worries about financial  
344 risks amid the trade war.’<sup>5</sup> Additionally, firms that invested in China with the  
345 expectation of amicable US–China relations, promising growth, and low political  
346 risk had to quickly adjust to much more negative outlooks.<sup>6</sup> Similar to the casualty  
347 pathway, firms that lack scale and experience in China will be the least prepared  
348 to deal with the new reality of economic decoupling.

### 349 350 *Business as usual*

351 More entrenched firms that are not directly targeted by policies should be the least  
352 likely to exit, as they have greater costs sunk and deeper relationships in the host  
353 country. These firms can carry on business as usual provided that they are pre-  
354 pared to deal with the blunt effects of the trade war. Some firms may even benefit  
355 from the market share vacated by competitors that are under pressure to exit  
356 China. The national origin of firms may make some difference here as firms from  
357 countries friendly to China should be under the least political pressure from host  
358 and sender governments and stand the most to gain from the shifting tides of  
359 geopolitics.

360 The trade war can thus cause voluntary exits (as in the de-risking pathway) as  
361 some foreign firms whose operations in China are profitable can choose to ‘de-risk’  
362 from China because they anticipate future political risks. It can also cause involun-  
363 tary exits (as in the casualty and collateral damage pathways), in which firms on  
364 the margins of profitability could be pushed over the edge by additional costs of  
365 doing business. Our measure of FIE exit does not allow us to distinguish between  
366 these voluntary vs. involuntary exits. It is difficult to causally identify why specific  
367 firms exit China or whether the exit is voluntary or involuntary without a firm-level  
368 survey. We hope that subsequent research by management scholars can further  
369 unpack whether an FIE is put out of business or whether it chooses to sell or  
370 restructure assets.

371 However, we can try to determine, all else equal, the independent effects of  
372 political risk exposure, national origin and firm entrenchment on all forms of firm  
373 exit to try to better understand the consequences of political shocks like the trade  
374 war on all exits. We offer a general theory for how political shocks, like that  
375

376 delivered by the trade war, can influence the behavior of MNCs. We distinguish  
 377 between the targeted and broad political risks that resulted from the onset of the  
 378 US–China Trade War in 2018. National origin should be a significant driver of  
 379 firm exit only after political tensions are heightened. But entrenchment should mat-  
 380 ter both before and after the trade war.

### 382 *The blunt and targeted effects of political risk*

383 Specific policy initiatives can directly increase the cost of doing business for spe-  
 384 cific sectors or firms, creating a targeted effect of political risk. Often targeted  
 385 political risks, such as targeted sanctions or export controls, are the intended con-  
 386 sequence of government policy. These micro-risks make the targeted firms less  
 387 attractive to financiers, insurers and partners.

388 As outlined above, the trade war increased multiple forms of political risk for  
 389 specific firms. The most targeted of these are the export controls placed against  
 390 Chinese technology companies, increasing political risks for their foreign suppliers.  
 391 Tariffs operate at the product rather than firm-level but are nevertheless a form of  
 392 targeted risks. US Section 301 tariffs had the explicit aim of punishing industries  
 393 linked to Made in China 2025. US tariffs make exports into the US more costly  
 394 for targeted firms. MNCs and the global supply chains they participate in depend  
 395 on the trade of intermediate goods as well as finished products, all of which can  
 396 be more difficult to produce when trade barriers increase. Thus, the targeting of  
 397 tariffs is inexact because it hurts foreign firms of all nationalities that export goods  
 398 from China to the US.

399 Second, elevated political tensions generate a blunt effect for all foreign firms in  
 400 the host country. These macro-risks make China, and all firms with exposure to  
 401 China, less attractive to foreign investors. With global value chains, it is not just  
 402 US firms that are exposed to the political risks of the trade war and tariffs.

403 As political relations deteriorate, the business environment for MNCs in China  
 404 becomes more uncertain, deals become harder to negotiate, financing becomes  
 405 more difficult to obtain, political risk premiums become more expensive and state  
 406 meddling in markets becomes more likely. Unstable political ties between the host  
 407 and sending countries increase uncertainty not only for MNCs of the sender coun-  
 408 try, but also for all MNCs linked together by global value chains. While one firm  
 409 might not be directly affected by tariffs, the firms they engage with may be. The  
 410 uncertainty that results from the macro risk emanating from the trade war should  
 411 accelerate investment exit. Additionally, sender country governments can put pres-  
 412 sure on MNCs to leave a particular host country, souring business ties at home.  
 413 This leads to our following hypotheses:

414  
 415 H1a: *Macro political risks from the trade war will increase firm exits across all MNCs (blunt*  
 416 *effect).*

417  
 418 H1b: *Micro political risks from tariffs will increase exits from affected industries (targeted*  
 419 *effect).*

420 The trade war had a blunt effect on all MNCs operating in China regardless  
 421 of industry or nationality. These larger risks are likely to affect many MNCs  
 422 regardless of industry or nationality due to the complex nature of supply chain  
 423 linkages. The US–China Trade War represents a concerted political effort to

reverse decades of trade and investment integration. The uncertainty caused by deteriorating US–China relations poses a risk to profitability for most foreign firms operating in China. Even if a firm does not export to or import from the US, they might work with suppliers or sell to customers who do. They might do business with the growing number of Chinese firms added to the US entities list. Or they might just reduce investments because they anticipate slower economic growth in China due to the trade war. Thus, this blunt effect of the trade war increases political risk systematically across a wide range of firms in China. Tariffs, on the other hand, create a targeted effect on specific MNCs. The USTR’s List 1 and 2 tariffs explicitly targeted products that benefited from Made in China 2025. Industries targeted with more tariffs and those with greater tariff intensity should face higher political risks as they experience greater creeping expropriation. US tariffs are taxes on Chinese exports, meaning that they should raise costs for all MNCs creating goods for sale in the US market. Chinese tariffs are taxes on American imports, meaning that they should raise costs for all MNCs that use US-produced materials or components. Tariffs directly increase the cost of business for these firms.

### *The effects of national origin*

The existing literature suggests that firm nationality is a key determinant of which MNCs faced with rising political risks take flight or fight (Wellhausen, 2014). Nationality, defined by the investor’s country of origin, can influence firm exit through multiple pathways with mixed results. We compare the effects of national origin across firms from the US, US allies and China-aligned countries.

First, one might expect US firms to be particularly vulnerable to targeted political risks and be the most likely to ‘follow the flag’ out of China. International cooperation increases US investment and conflict decreases US investment (Biglaiser & DeRouen Jr., 2007). Investors watch events of cooperation or conflict between the nations closely for information about the business environment they might face in the host nation (Nigh, 1985). So, just as investors ‘follow the flag’ in choosing where to invest, the same logic might also make them more likely to get out of China. Additionally, US firms are more likely to be targeted by tariffs because of an increased probability of engaging in US–China trade, increasing the micro risks as well. This leads to the first hypothesis of how nationality affects firm exit:

H2a: *US firms, particularly those in tariff-affected sectors, are the most likely to exit.*

Second, firms from US-allied countries also suffered from the targeted and blunt effects of the US–China Trade War. The conflict, particularly the intensifying ‘tech war,’ quickly dragged in US allies like Canada, Japan, Australia and the United Kingdom. For example, Canada was hit by Chinese trade restrictions on soybeans, pork and canola oil after the Canadian government arrested an executive of Huawei Technologies in December 2019 at the United States’s request. The US also pressured many of its allies such as Germany and the United Kingdom to ban Huawei from their 5G networks, elevating political tensions between China and those countries. Firms from US-allied countries also faced increased reputational risks and pressure from home governments to de-risk China-reliant supply chains. At the same time, US firms complained bitterly that US tariffs were hurting their

472 competitiveness relative to European and Japanese competitors. Thus, we consider  
 473 the role of US alliance on firm exits with these countervailing forces in mind.

474 H2b: *US-allied firms, particularly those in tariff-affected sectors, are more likely to exit.*  
 475

476 Finally, we examine how friendly diplomatic relations or quasi-alliances with  
 477 China might mitigate both micro and macro political risks and reduce firm exit.  
 478 Unlike the US with its global network of 51 treaty allies, China does not have a  
 479 formal set of traditional alliances other than North Korea. In recent decades, how-  
 480 ever, China has taken a more proactive role in deepening bilateral strategic part-  
 481 nerships. As of 2018, China has concluded partnership agreements with 78  
 482 countries, of which 34 are at the highest level of ‘comprehensive strategic partner-  
 483 ships’ and 60 are at the level of ‘strategic partnerships’ or above (Li & Ye, 2019).  
 484 Bilaterally, China has also worked to expand defense cooperation with a larger set  
 485 of countries, most recently with Singapore in 2019. China lacks formal treaty allies  
 486 but instead uses defense cooperation agreements (DCAs) to coordinate defense pol-  
 487 icies, conduct joint military exercises, promote training and education exchanges  
 488 and support defense-related research and development. China has signed 20 DCAs  
 489 with countries, such as Russia, Pakistan and Indonesia. Finally, China launched the  
 490 ambitious Belt and Road Initiative (BRI) in 2015 to fulfill an ambitious set of eco-  
 491 nomic and strategic objectives (Ye, 2020). As of 2018, 134 countries had signed up  
 492 to the BRI (see Online Supplementary Appendix A.2 for the full list of China’s SP,  
 493 DCA and BRI partners). Based on ‘follow the flag’ logic outlined above, these  
 494 agreements should increase trade and investment because firms whose governments  
 495 have friendlier ties with China might be expected to receive preferential treatment.

496 None of these cooperation agreements in diplomatic, defense and economic  
 497 domains alone provides the same benefits of a traditional alliance, but together  
 498 they should signal the likelihood of cooperation and conflict between China and  
 499 the home government of foreign investors in a similar way that alliance treaties  
 500 might. We investigate the effect of all three types of international partnerships indi-  
 501 vidualy and also create an index of countries with the closest alignment to China.  
 502 We expect firms from these quasi-allies to experience the least amount of targeted  
 503 political risk and thus be less likely to exit.

504 H2c: *Alignment between China and investor home countries mitigate trade war risks and*  
 505 *reduce firm exits.*  
 506

### 507 ***The choices of more and less well-entrenched firms***

508 Finally, MNCs differ in their entrenchment in the local market when operating over-  
 509 seas, which affects exposure to political risks. Firms with greater local entrenchment  
 510 have higher potential for relationship-specific sunk costs and political resources.  
 511 Whether or not a conflict reduces trade or investment depends on how firms incor-  
 512 porate rational expectations and uncertainty into their profit calculus of trading  
 513 firms (Li & Sacko, 2002). Unexpected onset or severity of conflict could induce  
 514 rational firms to exit China if these risks outweigh the expected profits from staying.  
 515

516 Firms that have smaller amounts of capital invested have less experience (more  
 517 sensitive to political risk) and less costs sunk. They are also marginally more likely  
 518 to fail the rate. There is a sizable body of work business scholarship that finds that  
 519 size increases survival and that larger firms are more difficult to fail and liquidate.

Q3

520 H3: *More entrenched firms are less likely to exit, even in the face of political risks.*

521 These measures go beyond the simple expectation of increased fixed assets  
522 reducing exits, but instead incorporate the broader understanding of the possible  
523 mechanisms relating firm heterogeneity with exit decisions, as the case of Japanese  
524 firms in China highlights.

525 The Senkaku/Diaoyu island disputes between China and Japan long created  
526 political tensions, but trade and investment between the two countries continued  
527 to flourish. However, large Japanese firms respond differently to cycles of political  
528 risk and anti-Japanese sentiment than smaller firms. Even though they were more  
529 exposed to risk and targeted by nationalist boycotts, larger firms were less likely to  
530 leave China and less concerned about political risk than smaller firms (Vekasi,  
531 2019). Thus, our concept of entrenchment goes beyond simple sunk costs, allowing  
532 for greater conceptual inclusion of other protective benefits firms enjoy from  
533 greater experience in local markets.

## 534 **Methods and data**

535 The FIEC dataset provides micro-level data not previously available to analyze the  
536 effects of the trade war. The FIEC database is an original database compiled by the  
537 other, drawn from the Ministry of Commerce records of foreign-invested enter-  
538 prises. All foreign-invested enterprises in China are required to report annually to  
539 the Ministry. The FIEC Dataset compiles each of these reports from 2014 to 2019.  
540 Over six years, there are more than one million firm-year observations.

541 These FIEs range from firms begun by individual entrepreneurs to subsidiaries  
542 of major MNCs. FIEs are the legal destination given to firms with foreign capital  
543 operating in China and have historically enjoyed more preferential policies when it  
544 comes to taxes and financing.<sup>7</sup> The FIEC data follows a power distribution with a  
545 few large investors and many small investors, where the largest MNCs contribute  
546 the majority of registered capital.

547 The unit of analysis for all subsequent sections is the firm-year operations with  
548 two time points including the year before the trade war, defined as operating  
549 between July 2017 and June 2018, and the year after the trade war from July 2018  
550 until June 2019.<sup>8</sup> The two panels capture exits of firms the year before the trade  
551 war, the 2017–2018 panel, and after the trade war, the 2018–2019 panel. This  
552 allows us to analyze exit using the records of the registered FIE subsidiaries in the  
553 immediate aftermath of the trade war.

554 Results presented below represent the short-run effects of the trade war on  
555 firm exits in the year following the major escalation of US–China trade hostili-  
556 ties in 2018 and before the Phase One Trade Agreement was signed in January  
557 2020, as well as before the Covid-19 pandemic upended the global and local  
558 economy. The final sample is an unbalanced panel of firms operating in 2017  
559 with two time periods: Exit in the year prior to the trade war and exit in the  
560 year immediately after the trade war. The sample is unbalanced because while  
561 new entrants are not included in the sample, firms do exit in the first period.  
562 Each model includes the time indicator variable – trade war – to capture the  
563 different time points.

568 **Dependent variable: firm exit**

569 The dependent variable measures *firm exit*. A firm is defined as exiting if they  
 570 report in one year but do not report in subsequent years. Between 2018 and 2019,  
 571 just over 32,000 firms exit the dataset (Table 1). Our pre-trade war panel identifies  
 572 exits that occur between the 2017 and 2018 registration periods and the post-trade  
 573 war panel identifies exits that occur between the 2018 and 2019 registration peri-  
 574 ods. The second panel thus captures exits after the initiation of the trade war and  
 575 the pre-trade war panel provides an immediate comparison group. Exit increases  
 576 between 2017 and 2019 for firms of all ownership from 7% to 11%. US firms had  
 577 a slightly higher probability of exit in 2018 but exited at an average rate in 2019.  
 578

579 Our measure of firm exit includes a full closure of a firm, sale, or subsidiary  
 580 closure.<sup>9</sup> When investors invest solely in one FIE that closes its doors, that investor  
 581 also exits the market. When a subsidiary of a large MNC exits, the parent company  
 582 does not necessarily cease all China operations. The FIEC does not provide infor-  
 583 mation on whether the subsidiary was sold/acquired, went out of business, or was  
 584 restructured. We focus on the closing of individual operations in China because  
 585 this should closely proxy the extent of divestment – after all, when CEOs talk  
 586 about derisking, they are usually talking about gradually reducing their footprint in  
 587 China rather than ceasing all operations.<sup>10</sup>

588 **Independent variables**

589 **Political risk**

590 As discussed above, we expect the probability of exit to be affected by the level of  
 591 political risk. We disaggregate the effects of the trade war by the macro risks and  
 592 micro risks leading to blunt and targeted effects of the trade war, respectively.  
 593 Blunt effects relate to the macro risks related to the souring business climate and  
 594 heightening uncertainty in China resulting from the trade war. We capture the  
 595 blunt effects of the trade war with an indicator variable that captures the trade war  
 596 period. This is a general measure to capture time effects related to the start of the  
 597 trade war that plays a key role in our modeling decisions. All firms doing business  
 598 related to US–China trade face greater uncertainty after 2018 than before.  
 599

600 Targeted effects result from micro risks resulting from tariff exposure. Firms  
 601 targeted by tariffs should exit more than firms unaffected by tariffs. Ideally, we  
 602 would be able to identify exposure to tariffs at the firm level. Unfortunately, these  
 603 data are not available, leading us to aggregate exposure to the industry class. We  
 604 matched tariff data from Bown (2019) to Chinese industry classes identified in  
 605 the FIEC. If any products within a given industry class face tariffs, the indicator  
 606 variable takes the value of 1.<sup>11</sup> For robustness, we constructed a *tariff intensity*  
 607

608 **Table 1.** Number of MNCs by year and ownership, with percent exits.

Year	Total MNCs		US MNCs			
	Number	Exits	(Exit %)	Number	Exits	(Exit %)
2017	257,404	16,731	(6.50)	16,141		
2018	285,203	21,846	(7.66)	16,670	1341	(8.05)
2019	308,569	35,238	(11.42)	16,536	1893	(11.45)

609 *Source:* Foreign-Invested Enterprises Dataset. *Note:* Firm ownership is not available for 2016.

616 measure for both the US and PRC tariffs. Tariff intensity takes the count of prod-  
617 ucts subject to tariffs in the industry-class divided by the number of industries in  
618 that class to account for variation in industry size.<sup>12</sup> We focus on tariff exposure  
619 rather than other kinds of sector- or industry-level variation because it is the most  
620 direct and transparent way to measure the targeted effect of the trade war given  
621 available data.

### 622 **National origin**

623 To test the impact of national origin and political alignment, we analyze the effects  
624 of the trade war for US firms compared to MNCs from US-allied, China-aligned  
625 and non-aligned countries.<sup>13</sup> US firms accounted for 6% of all firms in 2018. US  
626 allies should also share the ‘follow the flag’ logic while non-allied should be the  
627 least likely to divest. US and allied firms are more likely to be subject to targeted  
628 policies, in addition to tariffs, that discourage investment in China. The efforts to  
629 ban the export of advanced semiconductor equipment to China by both US and  
630 US-allied firms (from Japan, Netherlands and South Korea) are an example of such  
631 targeted policies. US-allied firms accounted for 21% of all firms in 2018.

632 To test H2c, we construct an index of China-alignment from three sets of bilat-  
633 eral agreements: Strategic partnerships (SPs), DCAs and BRI membership. A coun-  
634 try is deemed China-aligned if it has all three bilateral agreements with China as  
635 of 2018.<sup>14</sup> The data on DCAs comes from Kinne (2018) and includes 28 DCAs as  
636 of 2010. The data for SPs come from Li and Ye (2019) and includes 59 SPs as of  
637 2016. We include all partnerships at the level of ‘strategic partnership’ and above,  
638 and do not distinguish between ‘comprehensive strategic partnership of coordina-  
639 tion’ with Russia or the ‘all-weather strategic cooperative partnership’ with Pakistan  
640 from the plain ‘Strategic Partnership’ with South Korea or Canada. The BRI partner  
641 country data come from the Council on Foreign Relations; it includes 130 coun-  
642 tries that signed BRI memorandum of understanding with China before 2019.  
643 China-aligned firms accounted for 7% of all firms in 2018.

### 644 **Entrenchment**

645 For Hypothesis 3, we utilize common indicators of firm entrenchment: Length of  
646 time operating in China and size of registered capital. As both of these indicators  
647 increase, firm exit is expected to decrease. Across the dataset, the average firm has  
648 been operating in China since 2009, with the vast majority entering after 1989.<sup>15</sup> The  
649 earliest registered US-invested firm in China was registered in 1980. Registered cap-  
650 ital is highly skewed across firms, with the median firm having 18.34 million USD  
651 invested. The average US firm in 2018 has 11.5 million USD in registered capital.<sup>16</sup>

### 652 **Controls**

653 The literature evaluating the role of political risks in determining FDI focuses on  
654 the domestic institutions of the host country. MNCs prefer to locate in democracies  
655 where contract enforcement is better (Li et al., 2003; Jensen, 2003, 2008). Domestic  
656 institutions that protect property rights and provide credible commitments reduce  
657 these domestic sources of political risk. One strength of our analysis is the ability  
658 to control for national-level variation in host country institutions. To control for  
659 variation within China, we include provincial fixed effects. These controls capture  
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664 historically driven institutional variation, particularly between coastal and central  
665 provinces and province-level variation in policies toward MNCs.

666 To capture characteristics of the sending country that may mitigate risks of  
667 engaging with China in trade, we include sending country GDP (log), democracy  
668 (defined as 1 if Polity IV is six or greater), distance (between capitals) and tax-haven  
669 status of the sending country. Firms from wealthier countries may be more estab-  
670 lished and have access to better production networks, sheltering them from the  
671 effects of the trade war. The FDI literature suggests that in times of heightened  
672 tension, foreign investors from democratic countries may be more sensitive to  
673 political risks in an autocratic host country. Being physically closer to China  
674 reduces transaction costs of international business, with firms from closer neigh-  
675 bors expected to exit at a lower rate than firms from farther afield. Investment  
676 from tax haven countries and territories may be capital originating in mainland  
677 China, making these firms technically foreign, but operated by Chinese owners.<sup>17</sup>  
678 Finally, we include a control for signed BITs with China. BITs address the  
679 obsolescing-bargain problem by forestalling ex-post trade barriers or expropriation  
680 by the host government (Pandya, 2016; Bauerle Danzman, 2016; Allee & Peinhardt,  
681 2014) and are expected to reduce exit.

682 To control for firm-level variation, we include controls for joint venture status  
683 measured as an indicator variable based on reported ownership structure, service  
684 industry firms,<sup>18</sup> and exporter status indicating if the firm mentions exporting in  
685 its business activities.<sup>19</sup>

686

687

### 688 ***Modeling strategy***

689 In subsequent sections, we use hierarchical logit models to estimate the relationship  
690 between firm exit, political risk, and the mitigating factors of firm entrenchment.  
691 The mixed effects models provide random intercepts for country of origin, provid-  
692 ing less biased results when our sample of firms includes multiple countries.<sup>20</sup> This  
693 design compensates for correlation in errors associated with the nesting of firms by  
694 sending country. We cannot claim that the implementation of tariffs was fully exog-  
695 enous. Not knowing the specific determinants of why tariffed products were chosen,  
696 we use interaction terms to isolate the impact of the trade war. When comparing  
697 firm national origin, specifically US firms, US-ally firms, China-aligned firms and  
698 non-aligned firms, we use triple interaction term models with each national origin  
699 group modeled separately because these categories are not mutually exclusive, other  
700 than non-alignment, which is defined as countries that are not the US, US allies or  
701 China aligned. The results should be understood as the effect of trade war variables  
702 on firms from the national origin category relative to all other firms.

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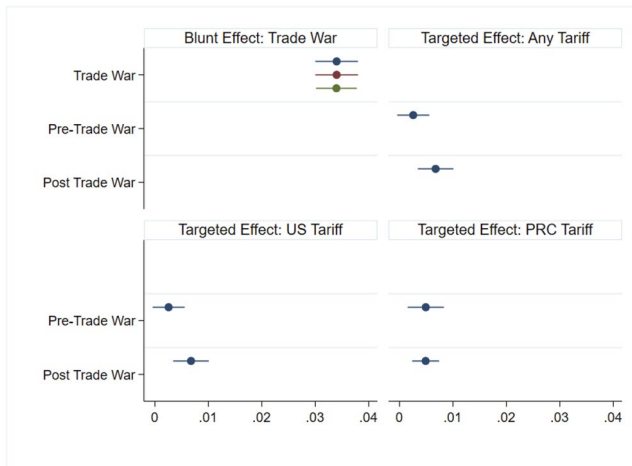
### 705 **Determinants of firm exit**

706

#### 707 ***Political risks: blunt and targeted effects***

708

709 To identify the blunt and targeted effects of the trade war (H1a and H1b), [Figure](#)  
710 [2](#) presents marginal effects of the baseline model interacting the trade war indica-  
711 tor and tariffed industries. The year after the trade war began, firms were 3%  
points more likely to close than the year before the trade war, representing the



**Figure 2.** Marginal effects of trade war and tariffs, baseline model. Estimated from a baseline interaction model of trade war and tariffed industries. Marginal effects of tariffs measured in the first year of the trade war. Full results available in [Table A5](#).

blunt effect of the trade war. This represents a 34% increase in baseline exit rates from before to after the trade war.

The targeted effects of the trade war, specifically the increase in exits due to tariffs, were relatively small compared to the blunt effect. Tariffed industries had a higher rate of exit before the trade war began, indicated in [Figure 2](#) by the statistically significant pre-trade war marginal effects for all three measures of tariff exposure. Both ‘any tariff’ measure and the US Tariff measure increased exits during the trade war period. In the first year of the trade war, firms in tariffed industries were 0.35% points more likely to exit than non-tariffed firms, increasing the exit rate by approximately 5%. This correlation is driven by US tariffs. Chinese tariffs are not correlated with an increase in exit during the trade war in the baseline model. The findings of the baseline model provide evidence for a strong blunt effect of the trade war – 34% increase in exits across the board – and a small effect of targeted micro risks – 5% increase in the exit rates for US tariffs, but not specifically Chinese tariffs.

Firms both in and outside of tariff-targeted industries face different potential risks of the trade war, however, due to their national origin. US firms could be exiting at a higher rate compared with other countries because they are most exposed to political risk in the US–China trade war. Firms from countries allied with the US could also face higher political risks because of the trade war due to political pressure. If countries place political pressure on their firms and economic actors to align with international diplomacy, governments of US allies could side with the US and divest from China during the trade war. Firms from countries more closely aligned with China are expected to exit at a lower rate, potentially mitigating the effect of tariffs.

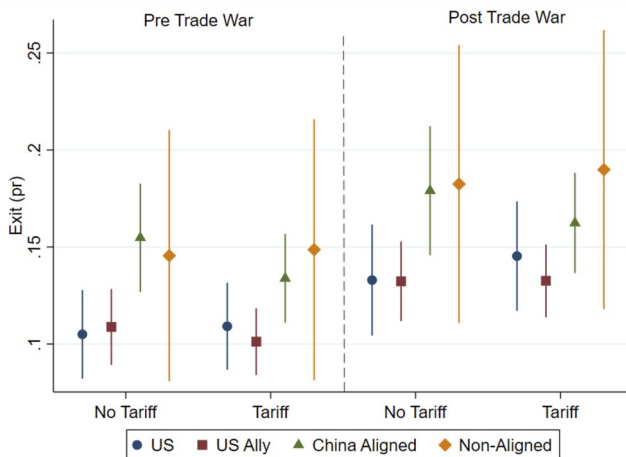
To test these possibilities, we implement four triple-difference models. The triple difference allows us to compare firms from 1) different national origins and political alignments, 2) subject to tariffs or not and 3) before and after the trade war. This research design allows us to identify the relative increase of exits by varying

760 degrees of political risks, with US firms with tariffs experiencing the most risk and  
 761 China-aligned firms with no tariffs experiencing the least.

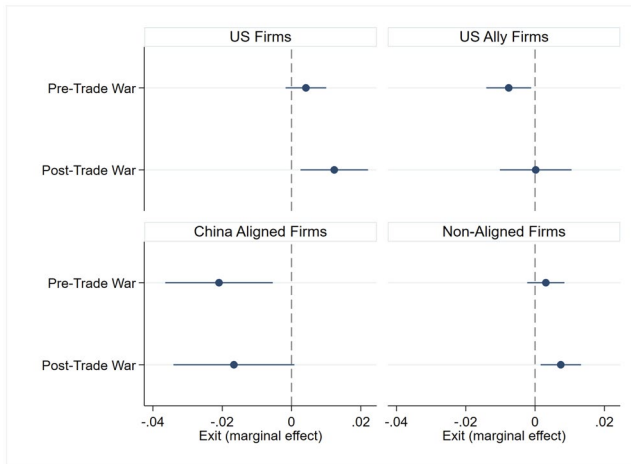
762 **Figure 3** presents predicted probabilities for each national origin group compared  
 763 with all other firms. Both before and after the trade war, China-aligned firms  
 764 and non-aligned firms have the highest rate of exits compared with US firms and  
 765 firms from US-ally countries. Again, we see the most significant effect is the blunt  
 766 trade war effect: There are greater differences between the left- and right-hand side  
 767 of the figure than between the tariffed and non-tariffed firms. On average, US and  
 768 US-allied firms have similar exit rates, but the targeted effects of tariffs differ  
 769 slightly.

770 Like the baseline model, **Figure 4** presents the marginal effects of being in a  
 771 tariffed industry before and after the trade war. Before the trade war, US and firms  
 772 from non-aligned countries in soon-to-be tariffed industries were no more nor less  
 773 likely to exit, but after the introduction of tariffs, exit rates increased. China-aligned  
 774 firms had a higher rate of exit than US and US-allied firms, but both the blunt  
 775 and targeted effect of the trade war were smaller for China-aligned firms compared  
 776 to other firms. Before the trade war, firms from US-ally and China-aligned coun-  
 777 tries that would become tariffed in the trade war exited China at a lower rate than  
 778 other firms, but this difference disappeared in the trade war. During the trade war,  
 779 tariff-exposed firms from China-aligned countries and US-ally countries were no  
 780 more nor less likely to exit than non-tariffed exposed firms.

781 The comparison of the marginal effects of tariff rates provides a nuanced under-  
 782 standing of the targeted effect of the trade war. Compared with all other firms, US  
 783 firms did experience the largest targeted effect of the trade war, with the largest  
 784 marginal impact of tariffs. While tariffed China-aligned firms were no more likely  
 785 to exit China than non-tariffed China-aligned firms, all else equal, exit rates did  
 786 increase, as they did for US-ally firms.



805 **Figure 3.** Predicted probability of exit, calculated from triple difference models. Predicted probability of exit  
 806 for US, US-ally, China aligned and other firms, calculated from separate triple difference models with indicator  
 807 for political alignment. Tariff measured as tariffs from either the US or China. Results table available in [Online Supplementary Appendix Table A7](#).



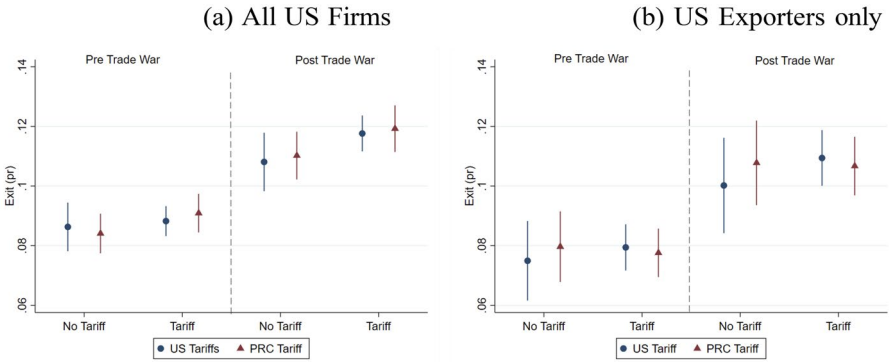
**Figure 4.** Marginal effects of tariffed industry on exits before and after trade war, by political alignment. Marginal effects of exits for tariffed industries by political alignment calculated from separate triple difference models with indicator for political alignment. Tariff measured as tariffs from either the US or China. Results table available in [Online Supplementary Appendix Table A7](#).

When looking at US firms specifically, there is a small, statistically significant difference for tariffed US firms during the trade war compared to all other firms. US firms subject to tariffs during the trade war do have a slightly higher probability of exiting. This holds for both US and PRC tariffs. The magnitude of this effect, however, is small: The marginal effect of tariffs in the trade war period is approximately a 1% point increase. The same does not hold for firms from US allies. This comparison provides significant evidence that the broad coalition of US allies decoupling from China is not happening in the short run. When the sample is limited to exporters only, only US tariffs remain significant. This result is expected because of the nature of Chinese tariffs compared to US tariffs.<sup>21</sup>

Figure 5(a,b) presents a comparative sub-sample analysis of all US firms and US exporters. We implement a series of logit models with interaction terms to isolate the marginal effect of the trade war and tariffs among US firms specifically. Differences between the left and right side depict the blunt effect of the trade war and differences between no tariff and tariff markets present the impact of tariffs.

For both subsamples, the largest impact of the trade war is the blunt effect: Shifts from the left side of the figures to the right side of the figures. Consistent across all measures of tariffs, the marginal effect of the trade war is approximately 3%. US firms are approximately 3% points more likely to exit after the onset of the trade war, regardless of their experience of tariffs. Of our measures of targeted trade war effects – experiencing any tariffs from the US or China, and the intensity of tariffs – none are more likely to increase exit. This is likely because many MNCs are ‘in China, for China’ and not relying on exporting products to the US market.<sup>22</sup> In fact, US-invested exporters had a lower rate of exit than the average US firm (Figure 5(b)). This counterintuitive result stems from a few factors. First, firms rarely engage exclusively in exports and most also produce for the Chinese domestic market. After the imposition of tariffs, firms may shift their focus from exporting to producing more for the domestic market as Liu et al. (2022) find. Second, firms operate in

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**Figure 5.** Predicted Probabilities of Political Risk on Firm Exit, US Firms. All measures of tariffs interacted with trade war to estimate marginal effects of tariff measures during the trade war. Full results available in [Online Supplementary Appendix Table A6](#).

dense networks of economic activity, meaning tariffs experienced by one firm may affect the business of other, non-exporting support firms around them. Finally, our measure of exporters is limited to firms that mention exporting in their business activities description. This introduces possible measurement error in identifying exporters. Restricting the sample to only firms that mention exports in their business description results in the same pattern as aggregate models with all US-invested firms. Tariff intensity does not have a statistically significant relationship with exit during the trade war, regardless of whether the tariffs are from the US or China, except for China-aligned firms, where both US tariff intensity and Chinese tariff intensity increase the probability of exit in the first year of the trade war.

In sum, we find significant and consistent evidence that the blunt effect of the trade war does increase firm exit overall through the collateral damage pathway. There is slight evidence that the targeted effect does increase US firm exit when compared with non-US firms, but not within the US sub-sample and not more among exporters. This increase in US firm exit is relatively small compared to the blunt effect, suggesting that US tariffs are causing exits through the casualties pathway rather than the de-risking pathway.

### **Firm entrenchment effects**

As Hypothesis 3 predicts, firms entrenched in the local market are less likely to exit than newly established firms. Firms operating in China for longer periods of time and with greater invested capital have greater sunk costs as well as greater access to political capital, thus they should be less likely to exit.

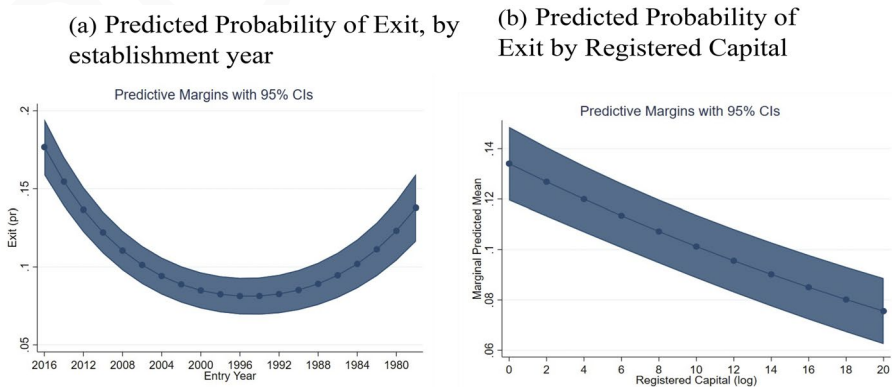
Firm experience has a non-linear relationship with exit ([Figure 6\(a\)](#)). Firms that entered China right before its ascension to the World Trade Organization (WTO) are the least likely to exit. Older firms have higher variance in their probability of exiting, possibly due to standard business cycles. Young firms, those only operating for a few years, are significantly more likely to exit. Firms established only one year ahead of the start of the trade war have a 20% chance of exiting, likely because of fewer resources being newly established.

904 Registered capital operates in a similar pattern. The more registered capital, the  
 905 higher the sunk costs, and the less likely firms are to exit. Unlike age, the relation-  
 906 ship between logged registered capital and exit percent is linear (Figure 6(b)). Both  
 907 of these factors increase the incentives for enterprises to remain in China, regard-  
 908 less of trade war variables. In other words, larger and older firms are less likely to  
 909 exit both before and after the outbreak of the trade war, and this effect does not  
 910 interact with tariffs.<sup>23</sup>

## 912 Conclusion

914 This article is a first attempt to understand the impact of political risk associated  
 915 with an escalating trade war on foreign divestment. Political risk, heightened by the  
 916 trade war, did lead to greater firm exit, but followed an economic rather than a  
 917 political logic. The most significant impact of the trade war was the blunt effect:  
 918 Heightened country risk caused MNCs to exit China at a higher rate across the  
 919 board, regardless of country of origin. The specific and targeted effects of the trade  
 920 war, contrary to political expectations, only had a marginal increase in the proba-  
 921 bility of exiting China for small sub-groups of firms. National origin had a much  
 922 smaller effect on firm exit than we anticipated. US firms targeted by tariffs did exit  
 923 at a slightly higher rate compared to all other firms. However, neither US-allied  
 924 firms nor China-aligned firms 'followed the flag' to exit China at greater or lower  
 925 rates compared to counterparts. Overall, the blunt effects of the trade war for all  
 926 firms were roughly three times greater than the targeted effects for US firms tar-  
 927 geted by tariffs. Finally, firm entrenchment in the local market provided resources  
 928 that helped firms weather the storm of political crises. Firms that are larger and  
 929 older were significantly less likely to exit China.

930 These insights contribute to a growing theoretical literature on the political  
 931 economy of firm exit or foreign divestment, complementing the much larger liter-  
 932 ature on FDI in-flows. Relatively little is known about the determinants of divest-  
 933 ment from a representative sample of firms. Existing evidence suggests broad,  
 934 macro trends can either encourage or discourage longevity in overseas business  
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**Figure 6.** Firm entrenchment and probability of exit. Predicted from hierarchical logit model with non-linear effect of firm length. The model includes international agreement and trade war variables, country of origin controls, firm controls and province-fixed effects.

952 operations. The arguments presented here highlight the importance of understand-  
953 ing the heterogeneous effects of heightened political risks across firms, both in firm  
954 traits and protections from international institutions.

955 The research also speaks to contemporary policy challenges as policymakers  
956 strive to understand the extent and dynamics of US–China decoupling. The US–  
957 China Trade War constitutes the most significant uptick in political risk, short of  
958 armed conflict, for one of the world’s largest FDI recipients. The Eurasia Group, a  
959 leading political risk consultancy, identified the deteriorating US–China relationship  
960 as a top risk for its clients in 2019 (Bremmer & Kupchan, 2019). Politicians and  
961 pundits have tended to focus on the intended effects of tariffs to produce targeted  
962 effects, such as reversing offshoring or even promoting ‘friendshoring.’ US Trade  
963 Representative Robert Lighthizer has repeatedly asserted that the trade war reduced  
964 dependency on a global adversary and ended the ‘era of reflexive offshoring’  
965 (Lighthizer, 2023).

966 These results also reconcile seemingly contradictory accounts about the pace  
967 and scope of economic decoupling from China glimpsed from surveys and aggre-  
968 gate statistics. For example, the *SCMP* reports in July 2020, ‘A poll of 200 compa-  
969 nies with global supply chains conducted by sourcing specialists Qima in June  
970 found that 95% of respondents from the United States [and half from the European  
971 Union] planned to change suppliers away from China, due to the confluence of  
972 current issues and the uncertainty of future trading patterns.’ Yet, according to two  
973 2019 surveys conducted by the American Chamber of Commerce in China and the  
974 European Union Chamber of Commerce in China, only 9% of US firms and 11%  
975 of EU firms considered shifting current or planned investment from China to other  
976 markets (Kennedy & Tan, 2020). Our results reconcile these seemingly contradic-  
977 tory survey findings by showing that firm exits have increased since the onset of  
978 the trade war, particularly among the smaller firms sampled by Qima, but the  
979 well-entrenched firms that make up the membership of the American and EU  
980 chambers are the least likely to exit China. As the President of AmCham China  
981 said when survey results on the impact of the trade war were released, ‘in contrast  
982 to some global narratives, our China-based data suggests that the majority of our  
983 members will not be packing up and leaving China anytime soon.’<sup>24</sup>

984 Since data collection for this article concluded in 2019, questions about the  
985 political economy of firm exit and the politics of FDI between geopolitical compet-  
986 itors have intensified. Scholars and policymakers are more keenly interested in how  
987 MNCs respond to political risks after the Russian invasion of Ukraine in 2022, the  
988 Israel–Hamas War in 2023, and the possibility of a Taiwan Strait conflict. The  
989 temptation to use ‘targeted’ economic instruments like sanctions or tariffs to achieve  
990 political goals is also greater than ever. Our results suggest these are blunt instru-  
991 ments that could cause a lot of collateral damage to the global economy without  
992 generating the desired political outcomes. MNCs are finding it harder and harder  
993 to maintain ‘business as usual’ but they are not necessarily ‘following the flag’ and  
994 investing where politicians direct.

995 This article highlights multiple avenues for future research. Our primary analysis  
996 explores the impact of international and domestic drivers of divestment in the year  
997 immediately following the initiation of the trade war. Businesses, especially those  
998 with significant fixed asset investment, may not react immediately to tariffs or a  
999 souring business climate in the short-run. These longer-term effects are not

captured in this article and are an important area for future research. Research can also shed light on how firms can use tariff exclusions and other avoidance strategies to minimize costs. Additionally, questions arise as to what the diversification strategies are that firms take in the face of rising costs. Comparative data of MNC behavior in countries outside of China would help verify whether MNCs are using a ‘China + 1’ strategy to de-risk rather than exit. Finally, the focus of this article is on tariffs and the blunt *vs.* targeted effects of the trade war. More qualitative evidence is necessary to identify the effects of financial sanctions and export controls that encourage or enforce decoupling.

## Notes

1. Russia is the other, and total FDI stock in China (\$350 trillion) is nearly 10 times larger than that of Russia (\$36 trillion).
2. See, e.g. Freund et al. (2023) and Zeng et al. (2023).
3. Graham et al. (2016) posit that political risk stems from the risks of host governments violating implicit contracts with foreign companies. We expand this definition to include actions by or between any state.
4. The business literature (Simon, 1982; Alon & Herbert, 2009) distinguishes between macro and micro political risks. Macro risks are general political risks – like political instability or regulatory uncertainty – that impact all businesses exposed to a particular country, while micro risks are firm-specific risks, such as labor unrest at a factory or being hit by sanctions. The US–China Trade War elevates both types of risks. We have opted to use the language of blunt and targeted to describe their effects on firm exit. Macro risks produce a blunt effect and micro risks produce targeted, firm-specific effects.
5. Yueng, Karen. 9 June 2019. ‘Why is US dollar access so restrained in China as trade war rages on?’ *South China Morning Post*. Available at: <https://bit.ly/3M9Qc2u>. Accessed May 2022.
6. For example, the premiums for political risk coverage linked to China increased by 67% according to a WTW report. The proportion of global businesses who reported purchasing political risk insurance nearly tripled from 25% in 2019 to 68% in 2023. As a head of the Political Risk Division at an insurance broker argued, all American companies in China need to have political risk insurance because ‘[n]o one knows how each government will continue to act and react as these tariffs continue to be imposed.’
7. All MNCs, commonly understood as firms with operations in at least one country that is not their home country, are by definition FIEs. But not all FIEs are MNCs, as some are directly invested without a parent company located abroad.
8. The vast majority of foreign entities submit their registration information between April and June each year. Earlier years currently suffer significant missing data on industry and country of origin, especially for firms that exited before 2017.
9. We are confident that liquidation is the most likely fate for most FIEs that exit. Using the same data source Liu et al. (2022) unpacks the exit measure for a sample of 500 US-registered FIEs hand matched to the US-based parent company using other firm-level data providers. Their work suggests that FIE exits consist of 20% subsidiary closure (partial exits where the parent company continued to operate in China), 10% due to renaming or rebranding, with the remaining 70% accounted for by liquidation as a result of default or bankruptcy.
10. Unfortunately, the MOFCOMM registration data does not provide operational-level details about firm-level changes in investment or personnel. These alternative measures are an important area for future research.
11. There are 92 industry classes in the database. Approximately, 47% of industry classes experience some tariff exposure, affecting 75% of firms in the FIEC database.
12. Tariff intensity models can be found in the [Online Supplementary Appendix](#).
13. The US Allies measure comes from the COW Alliances Dataset in the World Economics and Politics (WEP) Dataverse.
14. [Table A4](#) shows the complete list of China’s treaty partners.



- 1048 15. One firm has a stated entrance date of 1951, a Polish-funded joint venture in Shanghai.
- 1049 16. Another potential form of entrenchment could be joint venture status. But joint venture
- 1050 ownership structures create countervailing forces in episodes of heightened political risk.
- 1051 Having a domestic partner correlates with local resources and relationships that could help
- 1052 reduce risk and exposes a firm to greater creeping expropriation risk because of the domes-
- 1053 tic status of the partner firm. Evaluating the complex effect of ownership structure is beyond
- 1054 the scope of this paper, but we do include joint venture status as a control variable.
- 1055 17. We include a measure for sending country tax haven because there is a chance investments
- 1056 from these countries are actually mainland Chinese investors who round-trip their invest-
- 1057 ments. Anecdotally, domestic investors like Alibaba might incorporate in tax havens like the
- 1058 Cayman Islands to take advantage of preferential policies meant to attract foreign investors
- 1059 or to protect capital from the state. While technically foreign in the eyes of the state, these
- 1060 firms may operate differently locally because their investors are, in the end, domestic rather
- 1061 than foreign. Unfortunately, we are unable to trace original ownership from all tax haven
- 1062 registered firms.
- 1063 18. Service firms generally have lower fixed capital investments and may be more likely to exit.
- 1064 19. As a robustness, we also run all models restricting the sample to exporters only. The results
- 1065 remain substantively the same.
- 1066 20. The analysis uses `melogit` command (multi-level mixed effects logistic regression) for Stata
- 1067 SE 15.1. The second level provided random intercepts for country of origin.
- 1068 21. Kim and Margalit (2021) found that Chinese tariffs systematically targeted US goods that
- 1069 had production concentrated in Republican-supporting counties, particularly when located in
- 1070 closely contested Congressional districts. Unlike US tariffs in Lists 1 and 2, Chinese retaliatory
- 1071 tariffs were not designed to induce firm exit and Chinese leaders tried to reassure
- 1072 foreign investors.
- 1073 22. These results on the rather limited targeted effect of tariffs may be due to tariff exclusions.
- 1074 Since the start of the trade war, US firms and trade groups applied for around 53,000 tariff
- 1075 exclusions, with 13% of these granted. To address the potential impact of exclusions on firm
- 1076 exit, we ran a secondary analysis, where we examine 13,683 exclusions requests for List 1
- 1077 and 2 tariffs and are able to identify 47 industry categories affected by exclusion filings.
- 1078 Firms in industry categories with at least one exclusion application have a slightly lower rate
- 1079 of exit than those subject to US tariffs without an exclusion filing (11.4% exit vs. 10.0%).
- 1080 The impact of tariffs on exits remains around 1.5%, suggesting the potential for exclusions
- 1081 is not driving the smaller effect of tariffs. A discussion of tariff exclusions is available in the
- 1082 [Online Supplementary Appendix](#).
- 1083 23. Interestingly, joint venture status increases the probability of firm exit. We speculate that this
- 1084 is because JV firms considering exit might have an easier time offloading China assets to
- 1085 their partner firm at a competitive price. We plan to explore this variable in greater depth
- 1086 in future work.
- 1087 24. Reuters. 16 April 2020. 'Most US firms have no plans to leave China due to coronavirus:
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## 1084 Acknowledgments

1085 Versions of this article were presented at APSA 2020, University of California San Diego 2020,

1086 Association of Chinese Political Studies 2020, ISA 2021, IPES 2021, Georgetown University 2021

1087 and the University of Maryland 2021. We thank the participants of those conferences and work-

1088 shops for their feedback and suggestions. We also thank Boliang Zhu, Rachel Wellhausen, Ka

1089 Zeng, Quan Li, William Norris, Sung Eun Kim, Stephan Haggard and Margaret Pearson for pro-

1090 viding detailed comments. Special thanks to Rigao Liu for research assistance.

## 1092 Disclosure statement

1093 The authors declare no conflict of interest.

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## Funding

This article was supported, in part, by the New Faculty General Research Fund (University of Kansas).

## Notes on contributors

*Samantha Vortherms* is Assistant Professor of Political Science at University of California, Irvine and faculty affiliate at UCI's Long US-China Institute and a Non-resident Scholar at UC San Diego's 21st Century China Center.

*Jiakun Jack Zhang* is Assistant Professor of Political Science at University of Kansas and Director of the Trade War Lab. He is a Public Intellectual Fellow with the National Committee on US-China Relations.

## ORCID

Samantha A. Vortherms  <http://orcid.org/0000-0002-3577-1732>  
Jiakun Jack Zhang  <http://orcid.org/0000-0002-6453-5413>

## Data availability statement

Data supporting this manuscript can be found at: <https://www.samanthavortherms.com/research/#business>.

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