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BALANCE OF PAYMENTS AND THE FOREIGN EXCHANGE
MARKET: A DYNAMIC PARTIAL EQUILIBRIUM MODEL

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Balance of Payments and the Foreign Exchange Market:
A Dynamic Partial Equilibrium Model

ABSTRACT

This paper develops a dynamic partial equilibrium model of the foreign exchange market extending the standard textbook model in two respects. First, capital account transactions are explicitly incorporated into the model, and secondly, 'rational' speculative behaviour is also introduced. At a point in time, or in a given day, exchange rate fluctuations are dominated by 'new information' that leads to revision of speculative expectations, as well as by other disturbances on the capital account. In the long run, fundamental factors, such as divergences of inflation rates and real changes influencing the trade balance, become relevant in determining the 'trend' of the exchange rate.

A variety of exercises, and numerical simulations, illustrate the usefulness of the dynamic supply-demand model in understanding the behaviour of floating exchange rates in a world of high capital mobility.

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BALANCE OF PAYMENTS AND THE FOREIGN EXCHANGE MARKET:

A DYNAMIC PARTIAL EQUILIBRIUM MODEL*

by

Pentti J.K. Kouri

Introduction

All economic transactions between countries or regions that belong to a different currency area must go through the foreign exchange market. Domestic residents wishing to purchase goods and services or assets abroad must first acquire foreign currency in the amount of their planned purchases. Similarly, foreign residents wishing to purchase goods and services or assets in the domestic economy must first acquire domestic currency in the amount of their planned purchases. Going through the foreign exchange market would not be necessary if domestic money was acceptable as a means of payment abroad and foreign money as a means of payment at home. Since this is not the case, planned domestic payments abroad translate to a demand for, and planned foreign payments at home to a supply of, foreign currency in the foreign exchange market. In the absence of intervention, the exchange rate is determined so as to equilibrate the demand for foreign exchange with the supply of foreign exchange, or -- what comes to the same -- so as to equilibrate the balance of (planned) payments.

*This paper extends and refines in part an earlier paper entitled, "Capital Flows and the Dynamics of the Exchange Rate," Seminar Paper No. 67, Institute for International Economic Studies, University of Stockholm, December 1976. The paper was first written while I was in the Finnish army. At that time the work was supported by a grant from the Yrjo Jahnssoon Foundation. I wish to thank the Jahnssoon Foundation for this support, and also the Ford Foundation for their support in 1979/80. I also wish to thank Jorge de Macedo for many helpful discussions. The errors that remain are mine.

This description of the nature of the foreign exchange market is still valid--yet, the modern theory of flexible exchange rates appears to have no connection with these market processes. There is no explicit treatment of the sources of supply and demand in the foreign exchange market and no explicit analysis of how supply and demand interact in that market to determine the exchange rate. In part this is because such details are hidden in the background of general equilibrium models; but in part it is because analysis has been reduced to terms that bear no connection to supply and demand in the foreign exchange market. An example of the latter is the monetarist theory of exchange rate determination according to which 'the exchange rate is a relative price of two monies and as such is determined by the relative supplies of these monies on the one hand and the relative demands for these monies on the other' (cf. Frankel (1976), Mussa (1976) and Bilson (1978)). This cannot be a statement about supply and demand in the foreign exchange market, because, as is described above, they derive from demands for and supplies of all kinds of assets and goods and services. In fact holdings of foreign money are so small that the direct effect of changes in money demand or supply on the exchange rate must be insignificant. Rather, such shifts affect the exchange rate through their effect, ex ante, on capital movements and other components of the balance of payments.

In many of the recent models, including Dornbusch (1976), it is assumed that all other assets but monies are perfect substitutes. In such models balance of payments pressures have no effect on the exchange rate, which can deviate from its purchasing power parity, or long run equilib-

rium, value only to the extent that monetary conditions permit differences in interest rates, as is shown in Kouri and de Macedo (1978). These models cannot, however, explain observed movements in exchange rates in recent years because these movements have been far in excess of differences in inflation rates even if allowance is made for anticipated differences in future inflation rates as reflected in interest rate differentials. The models of perfect substitutability simply assume away market pressures that could account for the observed behavior. As one example, they cannot explain the tendency of the currencies of surplus countries to appreciate and those of deficit countries to depreciate continuously in real terms. This stylized fact of recent years cannot be explained either by the 'textbook' partial equilibrium model, based on Bickerdike (1920), Robinson (1937) and Machlup (1939, 1940). In that model the capital flow account is independent of the exchange rate--in fact, it is treated as a transfer payment. This implies that ex ante shifts in the current account or in the capital flow account give rise to once-and-for-all adjustments in the exchange rate. Furthermore, shifts in the trade balance ex ante have no effect on the current account ex post because the ex post current account is determined independently of the exchange rate.

The purpose of this paper is to develop a dynamic supply-demand model of the foreign exchange market, consistent with the description of the market in the opening paragraphs and also consistent with the modern general equilibrium approach--given the assumption that prices or quantities in other markets are exogenous. The burden of balance of payments adjustment is thus assumed to fall on the exchange rate alone.

It is assumed that the foreign exchange market clears continuously, as indeed it almost does. Therefore, at a point in time only stock demands for and supplies of foreign exchange derived from stock transactions on the capital account matter in determining the short run equilibrium value of the exchange rate. This is similar to the liquidity preference theory of interest rate determination, or the theory of the determination of the demand price of capital assets in terms of stocks rather than flows. It is also consistent with the general equilibrium 'asset market approach' to international monetary economics that determines all of these prices simultaneously by conditions of stock equilibrium.

Given the short run equilibrium value, the exchange rate must change per unit of time in such a way as to equilibrate flow demands for and supplies of foreign exchange derived from capital flows on the one hand and current account transactions on the other. Capital flows are functions of the rate of change of the exchange rate because the stock demand for foreign assets is a function of the level of the exchange rate. Therefore in order for the foreign exchange market to stay in equilibrium, domestic currency must depreciate whenever the current account is in deficit (in excess of 'normal deficit') and appreciate whenever the current account is in surplus (in excess of 'normal surplus'). This acceleration hypothesis accords well with the behavior of the major currencies in recent years.

In long run equilibrium the real exchange rate is constant and is determined by the condition that the current account is at its normal level, which is taken to be zero in the analysis of this paper.

Section I develops in detail the analysis of the short run deter-

mination of the exchange and Section II develops the complete dynamic model along the lines indicated above. Section III brings in rational speculative behavior, and thus brings the analysis one step closer to the reality of the foreign exchange market which is undoubtedly one of the most sensitive and best organized speculative markets in existence.

I. CAPITAL ACCOUNT AND THE EXCHANGE RATE: SHORT RUN EQUILIBRIUM IN THE FOREIGN EXCHANGE MARKET

The foreign exchange market is but one of many interconnected financial markets. Its special nature is that intermediation and arbitrage between financial markets in different currency areas must go through it: to invest abroad in excess of their current holdings of foreign assets domestic residents must first acquire foreign currency in the amount of their planned investment; to add to their asset holdings in the domestic economy foreign residents must similarly first acquire domestic currency in the foreign exchange market. Demand for and supply of foreign currency, or what comes to the same, demand for and supply of domestic currency at a point in time can thus be derived from domestic demand for foreign assets in excess of already existing holdings on the one hand, and foreign demand for domestic assets in excess of existing holdings on the other. This description must be qualified when domestic residents lend to foreign residents in domestic currency or when foreign residents lend to domestic residents in foreign currency: this case is analyzed separately in Appendix III.

Consider now how domestic demand for foreign assets and foreign demand for domestic assets depend on the exchange rate. For this purpose assume that prices and rates of return of all assets in the domestic economy are exogenously given in domestic currency, and that prices and rates of return of foreign assets are exogenously given in foreign currency. Thus all domestic assets can be aggregated into a single 'domestic asset' whose price for a foreign investor is the foreign currency price of domestic currency; and similarly all foreign assets can be aggregated into a single foreign asset whose price for a domestic investor is the domestic currency price of foreign currency, ceteris paribus.

Portfolio theory suggests that, given total domestic marketable wealth, domestic residents want to hold some fraction of it in foreign assets, this fraction depending on expected returns and risk characteristics of domestic and foreign assets.¹ Therefore, taking prices of foreign assets as exogenous in foreign currency and the stock of domestic marketable wealth as exogenous in domestic currency, it follows that domestic demand for foreign assets is a declining function of the price of foreign currency with elasticity of minus one.² By the same reasoning demand for

¹For a theory of portfolio diversification between assets of different currency denomination, see Kouri and de Macedo (1978), pp. 118-130.

²Strictly speaking, domestic marketable wealth cannot be taken as exogenous even in partial equilibrium analysis because of capital gains and losses resulting from exchange rate changes. This is not a real problem, however, because we could equally take the domestic component of wealth as exogenous. This is not done for expositional convenience.

domestic assets by foreign residents is a declining function of the price of domestic currency in terms of foreign currency with elasticity of minus one. This simple result linking stock transactions on the capital account to the level of the exchange rate has not, surprisingly, been noted in the literature. Thus in a recent paper on foreign exchange market intervention John Williamson (1976) states that "in striking contrast...[to the current account]...there are rather few reasons for expecting the capital account to depend on the level of the exchange rate, but compelling reasons for expecting it to depend on the expected change in the rate."¹ Similarly in his well-known paper on flexible rates Dornbusch (1976) assumes away the dependence of capital account transactions on the level of the exchange rate with the assumption of perfect substitutability between domestic and foreign assets, except for money. Therefore the exchange rate is indeterminate in his model in a system of dual exchange rates, when the capital account is isolated from the trade account.²

The Formal Model of Short Run Equilibrium

To develop the model formally let F_0 be the stock of foreign assets held by domestic residents at time 0 valued in foreign currency, and let G_0 be the stock of domestic assets held by foreign residents at time 0 valued in domestic currency. F_0 and G_0 are both given at the initial moment. In contrast, the desired holdings of foreign assets by domestic

¹J. Williamson (1976), p. 331.

²Dornbusch (1976), footnote on page 271.

residents (F^d) and of domestic assets by foreign residents (G^d) are subject to choice. Let s be the domestic currency price of foreign exchange. Then $(F^d - F_0)$ is the stock demand for foreign exchange derived from domestic excess demand for foreign assets (in excess of initial holdings) and $(G^d - G_0)/s$ the stock supply of foreign exchange derived from foreign excess demand for domestic assets. Momentary equilibrium in the foreign exchange market is then defined by:

$$(1) \quad (F^d - F_0) + (I^d - I_0) = (G^d - G_0)/s$$

where I_0 = initial stock of central bank's foreign exchange reserves
 I^d = desired stock of foreign exchange reserves
 $I^d - I_0$ = central bank's purchase of foreign exchange at time 0 .

With fixed exchange rates change in reserves $(I^d - I_0)$ is the residual that equilibrates the foreign exchange market; with clean floating $(I^d - I_0)$ is zero and the exchange rate adjusts to equilibrate private demand and supply. Between these two extremes there are other types of regimes which can be specified by appropriate characterization of intervention behavior. In the present paper we restrict the analysis to floating with no systematic intervention.

Next we need to specify the asset demand functions. Let V be the value of domestic marketable wealth in domestic currency and V^* the value of foreign marketable wealth in foreign currency. Then, with reference to earlier discussion:

$$(2) \quad F^d \cdot s = f(R, R^* + \pi, z)V; \quad G^d/s = g(R - \pi, R^*, z)V^* ;$$

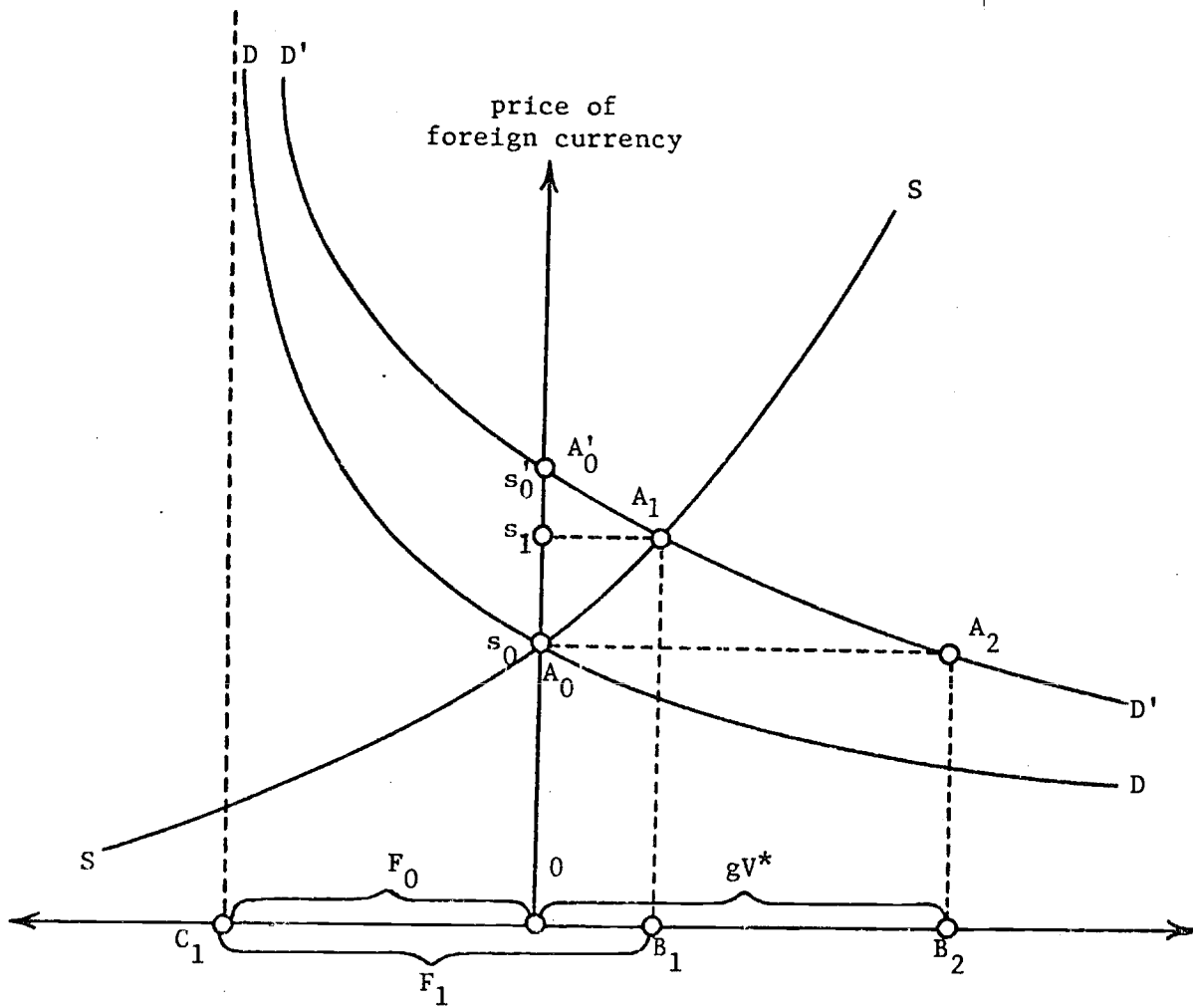
where R = nominal rate of return on domestic assets in domestic currency
 R^* = nominal rate of return on foreign assets in foreign currency
 π = expected rate of change in the domestic currency price of
 foreign currency
 z = vector of other determinants of international investment.

Substituting these demand functions in equation (1) above and setting $I^d - I_0$ equal to zero, we get the condition of short run equilibrium in the foreign exchange market with no intervention:

$$(3) \quad f(R, R^* + \pi, z)V/s - F_0 = g(R - \pi, R^*, z)V^* - G_0/s .$$

The left hand side gives the stock demand for foreign exchange at time 0 derived from desired domestic purchases of foreign assets at time 0 . It is illustrated by the downward sloping DD schedule in Figure 1. The right hand side gives the stock supply of foreign exchange derived from desired foreign purchases of domestic assets at time 0 . It is illustrated by the upward sloping SS schedule in Figure I. Short run equilibrium in the foreign exchange market, which clearly is unique, obtains at the intersection of these demand and supply schedules at A_0 . As the schedules are drawn no transactions take place at the equilibrium exchange rate s_0 because initial asset holdings just happen to equal desired asset holdings. This does not mean, however, that the exchange rate is indeterminate, for a small increase in the price of foreign currency would bring forward an excess supply of foreign exchange and a small decrease, an excess demand for foreign exchange. Thus, although no transactions take place, potential transactions keep the exchange rate at s_0 . It is clear then that short

FIGURE I
SHORT RUN EQUILIBRIUM IN THE FOREIGN EXCHANGE MARKET



demand for and supply of foreign exchange

run equilibrium is not only unique but also stable. It will be assumed from now on that the foreign exchange market is always in short run equilibrium.

Suppose now that domestic residents want to increase their holdings of foreign assets for some reason; for example, because of an increase in foreign interest rates. In Figure I the demand schedule shifts to the right, to $D'D'$, by OB_2 at the initial exchange rate s_0 . If the central bank pegged the exchange rate at s_0 , it would, of course, lose reserves in that amount. With no intervention, domestic currency instead depreciates to s_1 . This enables domestic residents to increase their foreign asset holdings by OB_1 --which is equal in value to the additional purchases of the now cheaper domestic assets by foreign residents (measured in foreign currency). Once the new equilibrium position has been reached, and by assumption it is reached instantaneously, the exchange rate stays at s_1 and again no transactions take place in the market (ignoring for now 'marginal' supplies and demands coming from flow transactions). Technically, the origin shifts to B_1 in Figure I: the initial stock of foreign assets is now C_1B_1 (F_1) rather than C_1O (F_0).

It is not necessary for transactions to actually take place in order for the exchange rate to change, as is the case above. For example, suppose that foreign residents do not hold domestic assets, a case typically assumed in recent literature. Then an attempt by domestic residents as a group to increase their holdings of foreign assets would only succeed, in the short run, in raising the price of foreign assets, or the exchange rate, to a level at which the existing stock would be willingly held and thus to a level at which no transactions would actually take place in the market.

To develop the above analysis formally, let f and g be the initial portfolio proportions, and F_0 and G_0 the initial asset holdings. From equation (3), equilibrium exchange rate, s_0 in Figure I, is given by:

$$(4) \quad s_0 = \frac{fV + G_0}{gV^* + F_0} .$$

Let f_1 and g_1 be the new portfolio properties at time 0 (unlike in the figure, the supply schedule is allowed to shift at will). The new equilibrium value of the exchange rate, s_1 in Figure I, is then:

$$(5) \quad s_1 = \frac{f_1V + G_0}{g_1V^* + F_0} .$$

At this new exchange rate, asset holdings are:

$$(6) \quad F_1 = f_1V/s_1, \quad G_1 = g_1V^*s_1 .$$

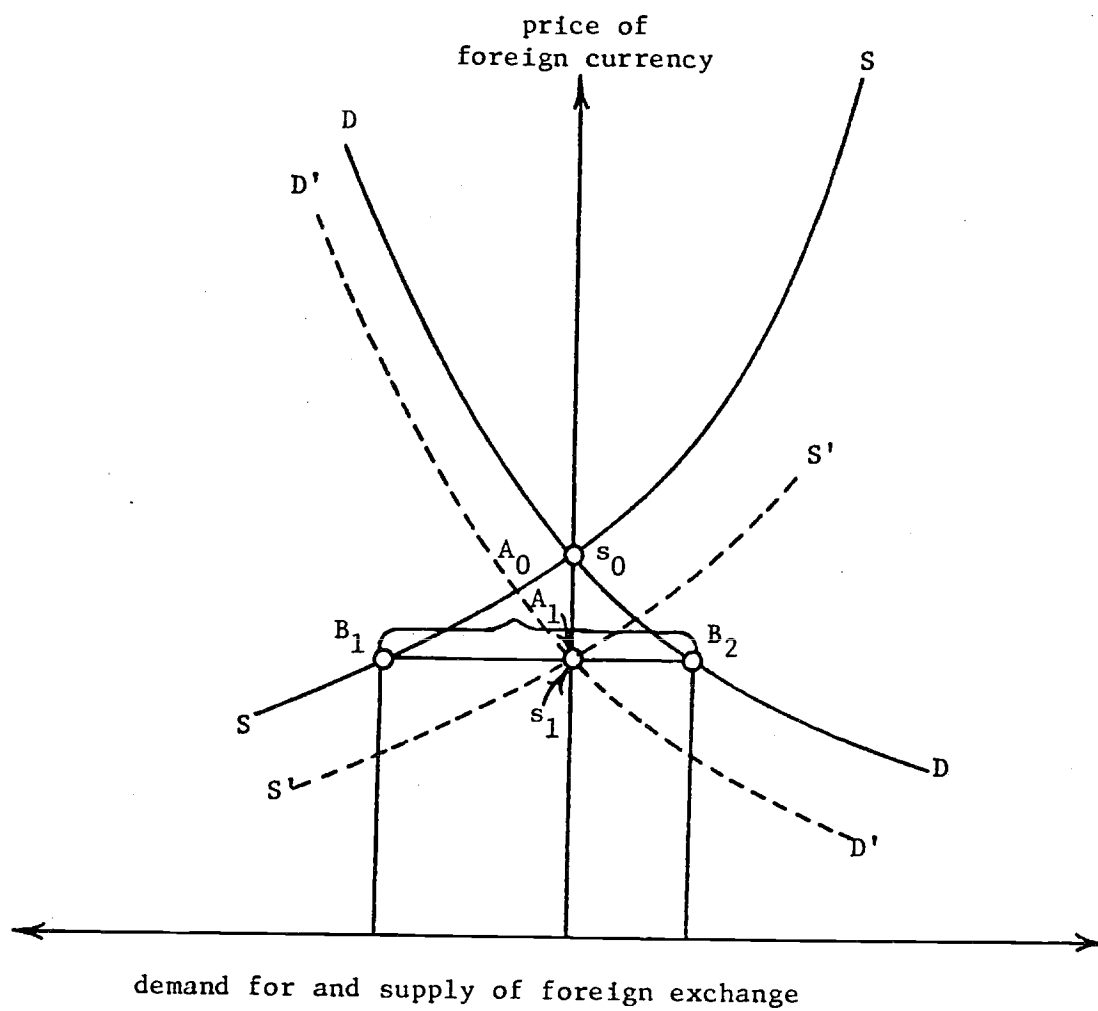
F_1 and G_1 become the new initial conditions. If nothing changes after the shift from (f, g) to (f_1, g_1) at the initial moment, the exchange rate will stay at s_1 with no transactions taking place thereafter. To check this apply formula (4) again to the new situation:

$$(7) \quad s_1' = \frac{f_1V + G_1}{g_1V^* + F_1} = \frac{f_1V + g_1V^*s_1}{g_1V^* + f_1V/s_1} = s_1 ,$$

which confirms that the exchange rate will indeed stay at s_1 .

Figure II illustrates the effect of a once-and-for-all sale of foreign exchange by the central bank. The market is initially in equi-

FIGURE II
 EFFECT OF A ONCE-AND-FOR-ALL SALE
 OF FOREIGN EXCHANGE BY THE CENTRAL BANK



librium at A_0 with exchange rate s_0 . The central bank sells foreign exchange in the amount B_1B_2 ($= \Delta I_0$) thus forcing the price of foreign currency down to s_1 . At this new exchange rate, B_1A_1 of the decline in central bank reserves finances an increase in domestic holdings of foreign assets, while the rest, A_1B_2 in the figure, finances a reduction in foreign holdings of domestic assets. The exchange rate will not return to s_0 immediately as the central bank leaves the market: instead it stays at s_1 because the initial conditions change thus shifting the demand and supply schedules so that they intersect at s_1 . From equation (1) the new equilibrium exchange rate s_1 is:

$$(8) \quad s_1 = \frac{fV + G_0}{gV^* + F_0 + \Delta I_0}.$$

This formula is useful because it shows the limited possibilities that central banks have to influence the exchange rate when official reserves are only a small fraction of private asset holdings.

Comparison with the Bickerdike-Robinson-Machlup Model

The supply-demand model developed above resembles the 'textbook' model of the foreign exchange market based on the work of Bickerdike (1920), Robinson (1937) and Machlup (1939, 1940) in that the supply and demand schedules in the foreign exchange market are derived from economic transactions between the two countries or currency areas. The difference is that the textbook model derives these schedules from flow transactions on the trade account, while the present model derives them from stock transactions on the capital account. In the textbook model depreciation of

domestic currency increases net supply of foreign exchange per unit of time by inducing a reduction in domestic purchases of foreign goods and services, and an increase in foreign purchases of domestic goods and services, provided that the 'elasticities condition' holds; while capital movements are treated as 'transfer payments' that do not depend on the level of the exchange rate. In contrast, in the present model depreciation of domestic currency brings forward an excess supply of foreign currency at a point in time by inducing a reduction in domestic holdings of foreign assets and an increase in foreign holdings of domestic assets. Furthermore, net supply of foreign exchange is everywhere an increasing function of the price of foreign currency; thus equilibrium is both unique and globally stable. The elasticities condition is met because the elasticities of domestic demand for foreign assets, and of foreign demand for domestic assets with respect to the exchange rate are both equal to one in absolute value (see, however, the discussion in Appendix I).

If there was a dual exchange rate system with capital account transactions going through one market, market A, and current account transactions, including interest payments going through another market--market B--the model developed above would be a complete partial equilibrium model of market A, while the Bickerdike-Robinson-Machlup model would be a complete partial equilibrium model of market B. Market B would be linked to market A because the net inflow or outflow of interest income would have to be effected through exchange rate adjustments in market B. In a unified floating rate system there is, as it were, also a feedback from market B to market A because the initial conditions on which equilibrium in market A depends change whenever the current account is different from zero.

We now turn to study this dynamic process.

II. INTERACTION BETWEEN THE CURRENT ACCOUNT AND THE CAPITAL ACCOUNT:

THE DYNAMICS OF THE EXCHANGE RATE

To study the dynamics of the foreign exchange market we make two simplifying assumptions initially: first, that there is no inflation or real growth in either country; and second, that all interest earnings on foreign assets are spent on imports. The first assumption implies that current account must be zero in long run equilibrium while the second assumption implies that the long run equilibrium value of the exchange rate, associated with zero current account, does not depend on the level or direction of international investment. The reason for these assumptions is to abstract from the complex problems of intertemporal transfer whose satisfactory treatment requires general equilibrium analysis.

A Special Case

We begin the analysis with the special case, typically assumed in recent literature, when foreign residents do not hold domestic assets.

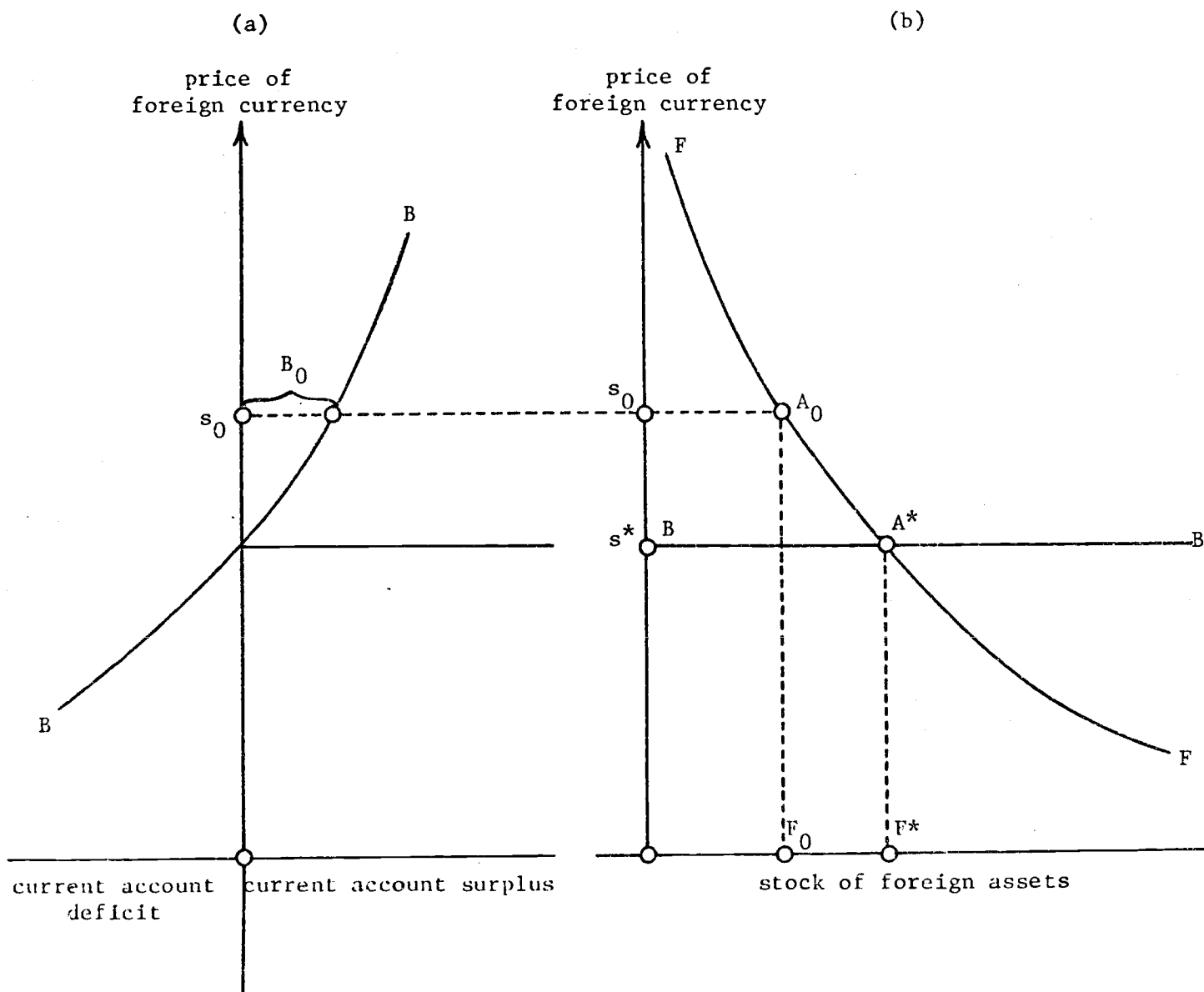
Short run equilibrium condition (3) becomes then:

$$(9) \quad F \cdot s = f(R, R^* + \pi, z)V,$$

where π is still set equal to zero. This equilibrium condition is illustrated by the FF schedule in Figure III(b). With initial stock of foreign assets equal to F_0 , initial equilibrium obtains at A_0 with exchange rate s_0 .

FIGURE III

INTERACTION BETWEEN CURRENT AND CAPITAL ACCOUNTS 1:
A SPECIAL CASE



The stock of foreign assets changes whenever the current account is different from zero, or

$$(10) \quad \dot{F} = B(s;y) ,$$

where B is current account surplus in foreign currency and y is a vector of determinants of the current account, including domestic and foreign prices and activity levels. Equations (9) and (10) together with the initial condition $F = F_0$ define the complete dynamic partial equilibrium model of the foreign exchange market.

Assume first that the current account is everywhere an increasing function of the price of foreign currency, as illustrated by the BB schedule in Figure III(a). At the initial exchange rate s_0 the current account is in surplus by B_0 . Thus, thereafter the stock of foreign assets increases and domestic currency appreciates as the market converges to long run equilibrium at A^* with exchange rate s^* and stock of foreign assets F^* . If instead the stock of foreign assets was initially above its long run level, the price of foreign currency would be below its long run equilibrium value, and the market would converge to equilibrium at A^* along FF from the right hand side with domestic currency depreciating and the current account in deficit. It is thus evident that, given the monotonicity of the BB schedule, long run equilibrium is both unique and globally stable.

The dynamics of the foreign exchange market, illustrated in Figure III, is consistent with observed exchange rate behavior in recent years with the currencies of surplus countries appreciating and those of deficit countries depreciating in excess of differences in inflation rates. It

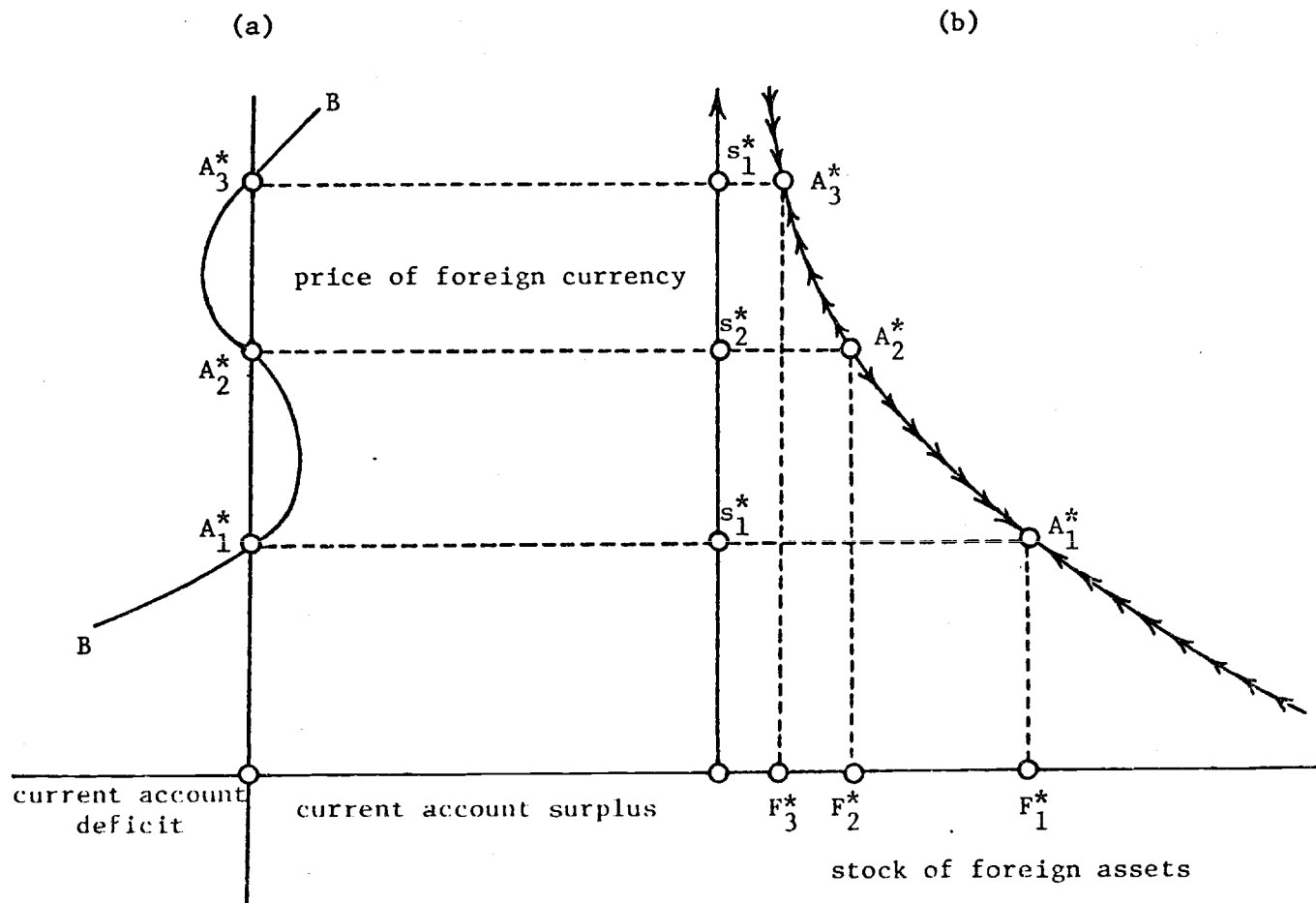
is useful to restate this implication of the model as the acceleration hypothesis: domestic currency appreciates whenever the current account is in surplus and depreciates whenever it is deficit.

Multiple Equilibria and Dynamic Instability

Consider next the possibility that long run equilibrium is not unique because the current account is not a monotonic function of the exchange rate. Figure IV gives an example where there are three long run equilibria, namely A_1^* , A_2^* , and A_3^* . Of these, only A_1^* and A_2^* are stable. Which one of these the market will converge to depends on where it starts. As is indicated in Figure IV(a) it converges to A_1^* if it is initially on the right hand side of A_2^* , and to A_3^* if it is initially on the left hand side of A_2^* ; and stays at A_2^* if it happens to be there. With multiple equilibria foreign exchange market is thus dynamically unstable in that perturbations may move it from one equilibrium to another, unlike above where it always ended in the same long run equilibrium.

Before considering the general case it is illuminating to derive the results of the above analysis in a slightly different way. In order for the foreign exchange market to stay in equilibrium after the initial moment the exchange rate has to change per unit of time in such a way as to equilibrate the net flow supply of foreign exchange from current account transactions with the net flow demand for foreign exchange from marginal additions to domestic holdings of foreign assets, or capital outflow for short. But capital outflow is a function of the rate of change of the exchange rate, namely:

FIGURE IV
 INTERACTION BETWEEN CURRENT AND CAPITAL ACCOUNTS 2:
 MULTIPLE EQUILIBRIA



$$(11) \quad \dot{F}^d = -f \frac{V}{s} \frac{\dot{s}}{s},$$

where expectations and other determinants of f are held constant. Along the adjustment path the exchange rate must then satisfy a 'dynamical balance of payments equilibrium condition':

$$(12) \quad \dot{F}^d = -f \frac{V}{s} \frac{\dot{s}}{s} = B(s; x).$$

This can be rewritten as

$$(13) \quad \frac{\dot{s}}{s} = - \frac{sB(s; x)}{fV} = - \frac{B}{F},$$

which is an algebraic statement of the acceleration hypothesis: domestic currency appreciates whenever the current account is in surplus, and depreciates when it is in deficit. Furthermore, the rate of appreciation (depreciation) is equal to the ratio of the current account surplus (deficit) to the stock of foreign assets.¹

The General Case

To build on the previous section it is useful to rearrange short run equilibrium condition (3) in the form:

$$(14) \quad f(R, R^* + \pi, z)V/s - g(R - \pi, R^*; z)V^* \equiv NFA^d = NFA^s \equiv F_0 - G_0/s.$$

¹The dimensions of \dot{s}/s and B/F are the same because both \dot{s} and B are flow variables while s and F are stock variables.

The right hand side can be interpreted as net supply of foreign assets and the left hand side as net demand for foreign assets.¹ These two schedules are illustrated by the FF and SS schedules in Figure V. The FF schedule corresponds to the FF schedule in Figures III and IV above; they are the same when foreign residents do not hold domestic assets. Unlike in the special case, however, net stock of foreign assets is not predetermined at a point in time--its value in foreign currency increases as domestic currency depreciates. For any exchange rate excess demand for foreign exchange at a point in time can be read as the horizontal distance between the FF and DD schedules (cf. Figure I). Excess demand is zero at A_0 , which is the same short run equilibrium position as A_0 in Figure I.

Given its initial value s_0 , the exchange rate must change in such a way as to equilibrate the current account with 'marginal' net outflow of capital. Net outflow of capital is a function of the rate of change of the exchange rate, namely:

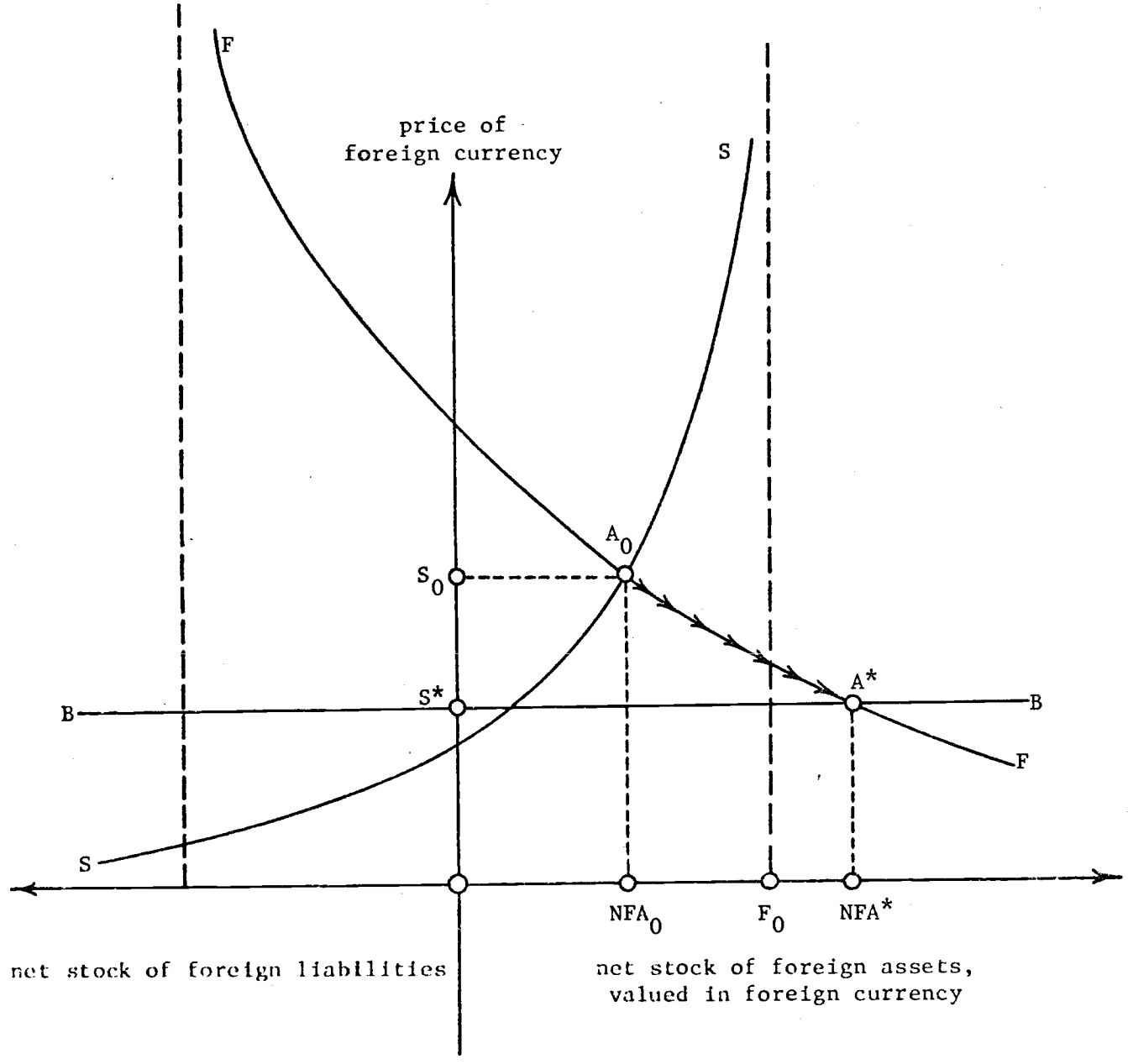
$$(15) \quad CF = \frac{\dot{G}^d}{s} - \dot{F}^d = \left(gV^* + f\frac{V}{s} \right) \frac{\dot{s}}{s} = \left(F + \frac{G}{s} \right) \frac{\dot{s}}{s},$$

where $\dot{G}^d/s = gV^*(\dot{s}/s) =$ inflow of capital and $\dot{F}^d = -f\frac{V}{s}(\dot{s}/s) =$ outflow of capital.²

¹ It is not necessary that the net stock of foreign assets is positive. The analysis applies equally if domestic residents are net debtors abroad. Problems arise only if domestic residents are net debtors in foreign currency, that is either fV/s , or F_0 or both are negative (see Appendix I).

² Note that along the equilibrium path, after portfolio adjustment at the initial moment, $F^d = F$ and $G^d = G$.

FIGURE V
INTERACTION 3: THE GENERAL CASE



For the foreign exchange market to stay in flow equilibrium, it is then necessary that the exchange rate satisfies the dynamical balance of payments equilibrium condition:

$$(16) \quad CF = \left(gV^* + f \frac{V}{s} \right) \frac{\dot{s}}{s} = B(s; x) ,$$

where B is the current account surplus in foreign currency as before. This can be written as:

$$(17) \quad \frac{\dot{s}}{s} = -B(s; x) / \left(f \frac{V}{s} + gV^* \right) ,$$

which is simply the 'acceleration equation.' Thus the rate of appreciation (depreciation) of domestic currency is equal to the ratio of the current account to the level of international investment as measured by the sum of domestic holdings of foreign assets on the one hand and foreign holdings of domestic assets on the other.

Change in the net stock of foreign assets, valued on foreign currency, is governed by the dynamical equation:

$$(18) \quad \dot{NFA} = -f \frac{V}{s} \frac{\dot{s}}{s} = \frac{f \frac{V}{s}}{f \frac{V}{s} + gV^*} B(s; x) ,$$

which is similar to equation (11) above. In particular, net stock of foreign assets is constant whenever the current account is in zero, increases when it is in surplus and decreases when it is in deficit.

The complete dynamic partial equilibrium model of the foreign exchange market consists of equations (14) and (18). It is illustrated in

Figure V where the horizontal BB line is the schedule of long run equilibrium in the balance of payments (zero current account). It is assumed to be unique.¹ Short run equilibrium obtains at the intersection of the FF and SS schedules at A_0 ; long run equilibrium obtains at the intersection of the FF and BB schedules at A^* ; and adjustment from short run to long run equilibrium takes place along the FF schedule as indicated by the arrows. Given that long run equilibrium is unique it is clearly also globally stable: whenever the market starts it always ends there.

Comparative Dynamics

We now apply the model to study the dynamic response of the foreign exchange market to (i) a decline in foreign demand for domestic assets; (ii) a once-and-for-all purchase of foreign exchange by the central bank; and (iii) an increase in domestic demand for imported foreign goods and services. Except for the analysis in Figure VII it is assumed that long run equilibrium is unique.

Figure VI illustrates the dynamic response of the foreign exchange market to a decline in foreign demand for domestic assets from an initial situation of long run equilibrium at A_0 . The FF schedule shifts to the right to $F'F'$: at the initial exchange rate there is excess supply of domestic currency and thus excess demand for foreign currency in the amount A_0A^* . Short run equilibrium is restored as domestic currency depreciates to s'_0 . Foreign residents are able to reduce their holdings of domestic assets immediately to the extent that domestic residents reduce their holdings of the now more expensive foreign assets. They are able to do so over time by importing more from and exporting less to the domestic economy; in effect by gradually exchanging their assets for goods and services. As is shown in Figure VI the exchange rate eventually returns back to its 'normal' level s^* .

The cumulative current account surplus in the course of the adjustment process is approximately equal to A_0A^* : the initial excess demand for foreign exchange in the amount A_0A^* translates over time into an equal cumulative current account surplus.¹

¹From equation (7) in Appendix I the cumulative current account surplus, S , is:

$$(i) \quad S = \left(f^* \frac{V^*}{s^*} + g^* V^* \right) \frac{s_0 - s^*}{s^*},$$

where f^* and g^* are the desired portfolio proportions corresponding to the $F'F'$ schedule. From equation (5) in Appendix I s_0 is given by:

$$(ii) \quad s_0 = \frac{f^*V + G_0}{g^*V^* + F_0} = \frac{f^*V^* + gV^*s^*}{g^*V^* + f(V/s^*)},$$

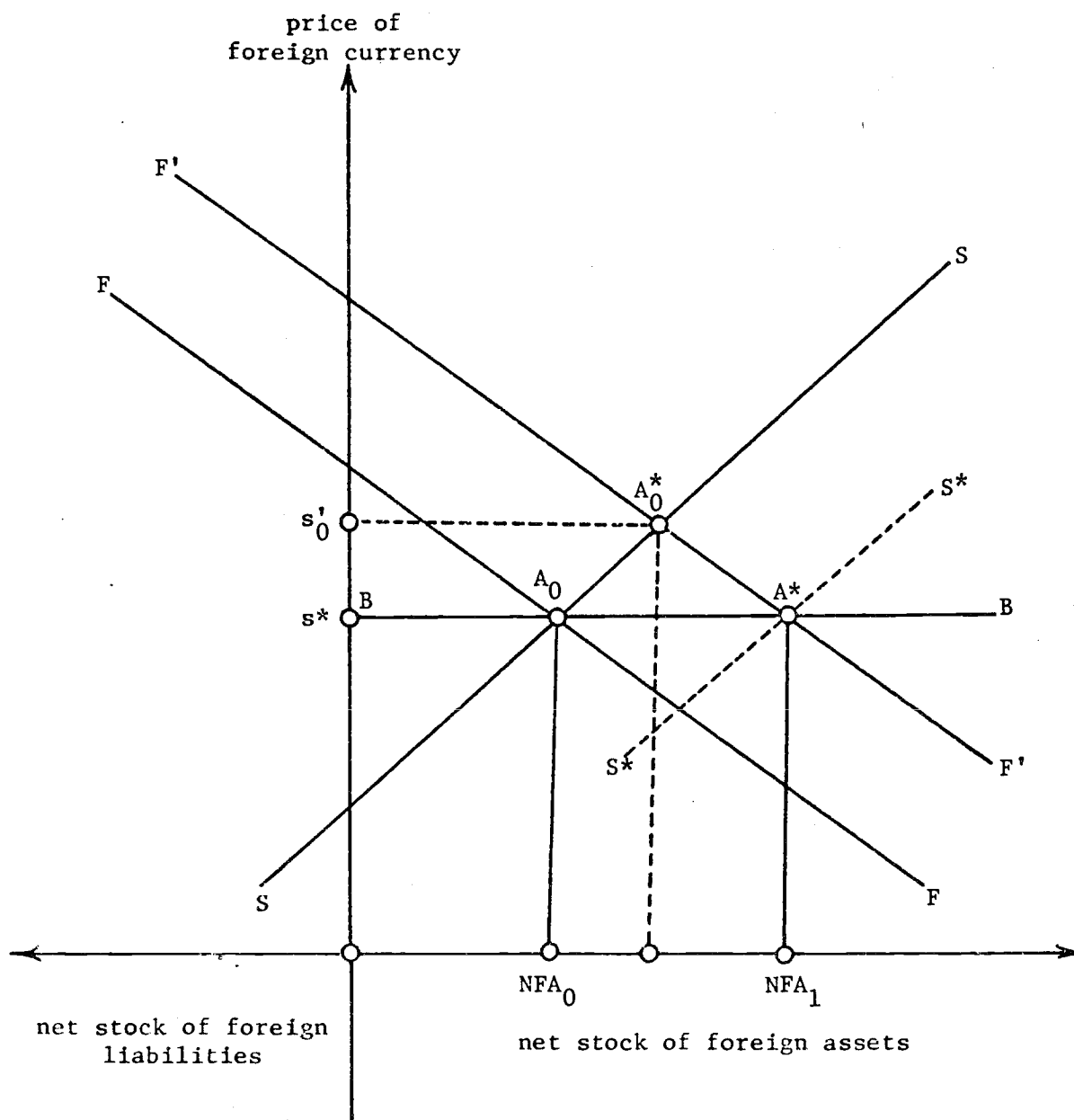
where f and g correspond to the FF schedule. Substituting this in equation (i) above we get:

$$(iii) \quad S = \frac{f^*V - fV}{s^*} - (g^*V^* - gV) = NFA^* - NFA_0 = A_0A^*.$$

When foreign residents do not hold domestic assets ($g^*V^* = gV = 0$) this approximation is exact: the cumulative surplus equals $F^* - F_0$.

FIGURE VI

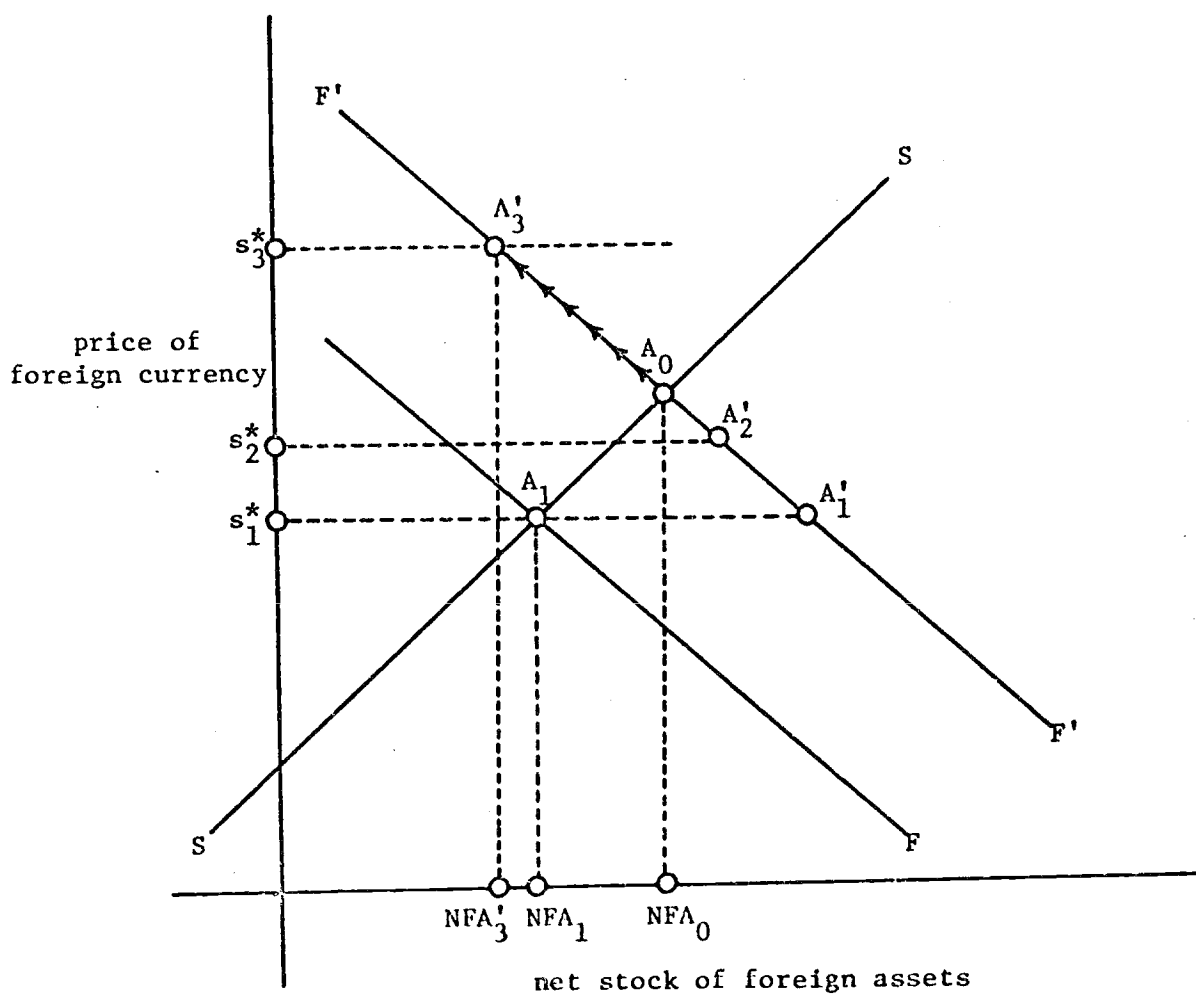
DYNAMIC RESPONSE 1:
EFFECT OF A DECLINE IN FOREIGN DEMAND FOR DOMESTIC ASSETS



One can interpret the capital account disturbance as a once-and-for-all financial transfer payment that is effected over a period of time through surpluses in the current account brought about by transitory depreciation of the domestic currency. The time it takes the foreign exchange market to effect such capital transfers depends on the level of trade in relation to the level of asset holdings on the one hand, and the exchange rate elasticity of the current account on the other (see Appendix I and in particular Table I).

When long run equilibrium is unique, as above, the exchange rate effect of a capital account disturbance is only transitory. With multiple equilibria, however, the effect may be permanent because the market may move from one equilibrium to another in response to a disturbance. Figure VII illustrates such a possibility. There are three possible long run equilibrium values of the exchange rate, namely s_1^* , s_2^* , and s_3^* , of which only s_1^* and s_3^* are stable. The market is initially at A_1 with exchange rate s_1^* and net stock of foreign assets NFA_1 . Reduction in foreign demand for domestic assets shifts the FF schedule to the right to $F'F'$. To restore equilibrium domestic currency depreciates to s_0 which is above the exchange rate associated with the unstable equilibrium, namely s_2^* . Therefore the exchange rate will not come back to s_1^* but instead increases to s_3^* . Thus there is a permanent decline in the value of domestic currency and a period of deficits in the current account which may in fact cause the net stock of foreign assets to decline in the long run. Thus with multiple equilibria, it is difficult to infer whether observed currency depreciation is caused, ex ante, by 'capital outflow' or an adverse shift in the trade balance, because, as the example shows, ex

FIGURE VII
DYNAMIC RESPONSE WITH MULTIPLE EQUILIBRIA



ante 'capital outflow' may turn into ex post 'capital inflow.'

Consider next the response of the market to a once-and-for-all purchase of foreign exchange by the central bank. This is shown in Figure VIII as a leftward shift of the SS schedule by A_1A^* at the initial exchange rate s^* , assumed to be the long run equilibrium exchange rate. The ex ante excess demand of A_1A^* is eliminated by depreciation of the domestic currency to s_0 . At this exchange rate, A_2A^* of the increase in the central bank's foreign exchange reserves comes from domestic residents who reduce their holdings of foreign assets by this amount, and the rest from foreign residents who supply foreign exchange in the amount A_1A_2 in order to increase their holdings of domestic assets. Over time, however, the purchase of foreign exchange translates to an exactly equal cumulative surplus in the current account, and after the initial depreciation domestic currency appreciates back to the same long run equilibrium level. The initial impact of intervention on the exchange rate depends on the size of the central bank's purchase of foreign exchange in relation to total international investment while the duration of the impact depends on the strength of the induced current account response, as is clear from earlier analysis.

To conclude this section we show in Figure IX the response of the foreign exchange market to a permanent increase in domestic demand for imported goods and services. In the textbook model such shift would cause an immediate depreciation of domestic currency with no change in the current account balance which is determined ex post by the capital flow account independently of the exchange rate. In contrast, in Figure IX the increase in import demand causes an equal increase in the current

FIGURE VIII
 DYNAMIC RESPONSE 2:
 EFFECT OF A ONCE-AND-FOR-ALL PURCHASE
 OF FOREIGN EXCHANGE BY THE CENTRAL BANK

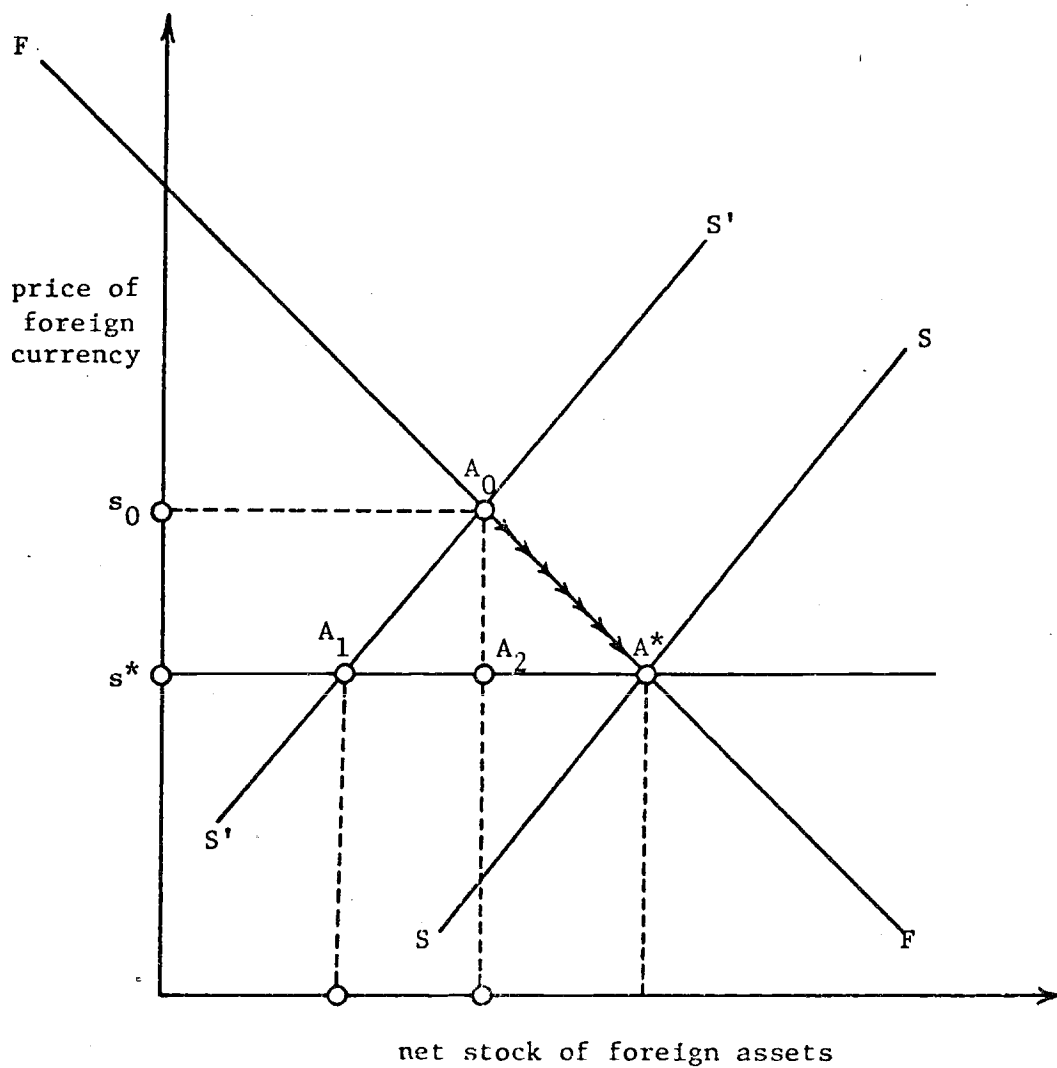
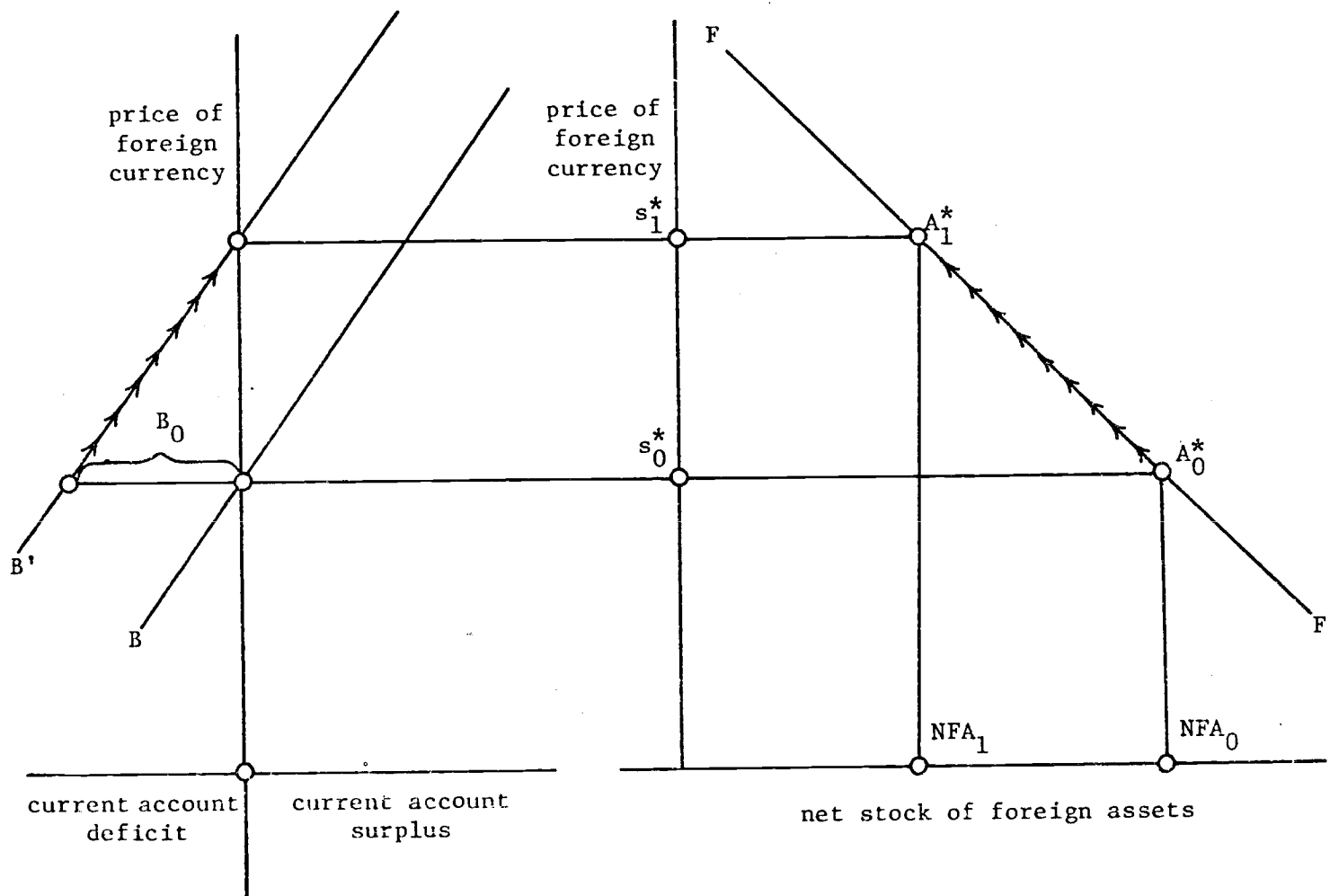


FIGURE IX
 DYNAMIC RESPONSE 3:
 EFFECT OF A PERMANENT INCREASE
 IN THE DOMESTIC DEMAND FOR FOREIGN GOODS



account deficit at the initial moment (B_0). Domestic currency depreciates to its new long run equilibrium value s^*_1 only gradually as successive, although diminishing, current account deficits are financed by reductions in domestic holdings of foreign assets on the one hand, and increases in foreign holdings of domestic assets, on the other. The total cumulative current account deficit resulting from the increase in import demand is approximately equal to $NFA_1 - NFA_0$.

Balance of Payments Equilibrium with Inflation

We have assumed so far that there is no inflation in either country. Suppose now that prices in the domestic economy are increasing at a constant rate π_p and prices in the foreign country at constant rate π_p^* . The rate of change of the price of foreign currency in long run equilibrium is then $\pi_p - \pi_p^*$. Even in the absence of real growth the current account is not zero in long run equilibrium: In order to maintain a constant real stock of foreign assets domestic residents must purchase new assets at the rate of $\pi_p^*(F/p^*)$ in real terms, where (F/p^*) is the real value of domestic holdings of foreign assets in long run equilibrium. Similarly, foreign residents must purchase new domestic assets at the rate of $\pi_p(G/p)$ in order to keep the real value of their holdings of domestic assets constant, where (G/p) is the real value of foreign holdings of domestic assets in long run equilibrium. The current account surplus is thus equal to $\pi_p^*(F/p^*) - \pi_p(G/p)$. If the balance of payments accounts were properly measured this notional surplus of the current account would instead be counted as outflow of interest income: for clearly net inflow of interest, income in real terms is $(R^* - \pi_p^*)(F/p^*) - (R - \pi_p)(G/p)$. If

we continue to assume that real interest earnings are spent on imports, the above analysis still applies to the real exchange rate $s(p^*/p)$ and the real, or inflation adjusted, balance of payments. A satisfactory treatment of inflation as well as of real growth requires, however, an analysis of its own. For this reason we continue to assume in the following that there is no inflation or real growth.

III. IMPLICATIONS OF 'RATIONAL' SPECULATION IN THE FOREIGN EXCHANGES

In this section we study the implications of 'rational' speculative behavior for the dynamics of the foreign exchange market. Such behavior is technically interpreted as perfect foresight, that is $\pi = \dot{s}/s$, in contrast to the assumption of stationary expectations maintained so far. The analysis is limited to the special case when foreigners do not hold domestic assets because space does not permit satisfactory treatment of the general case. For the same reason long run equilibrium is assumed to be unique.

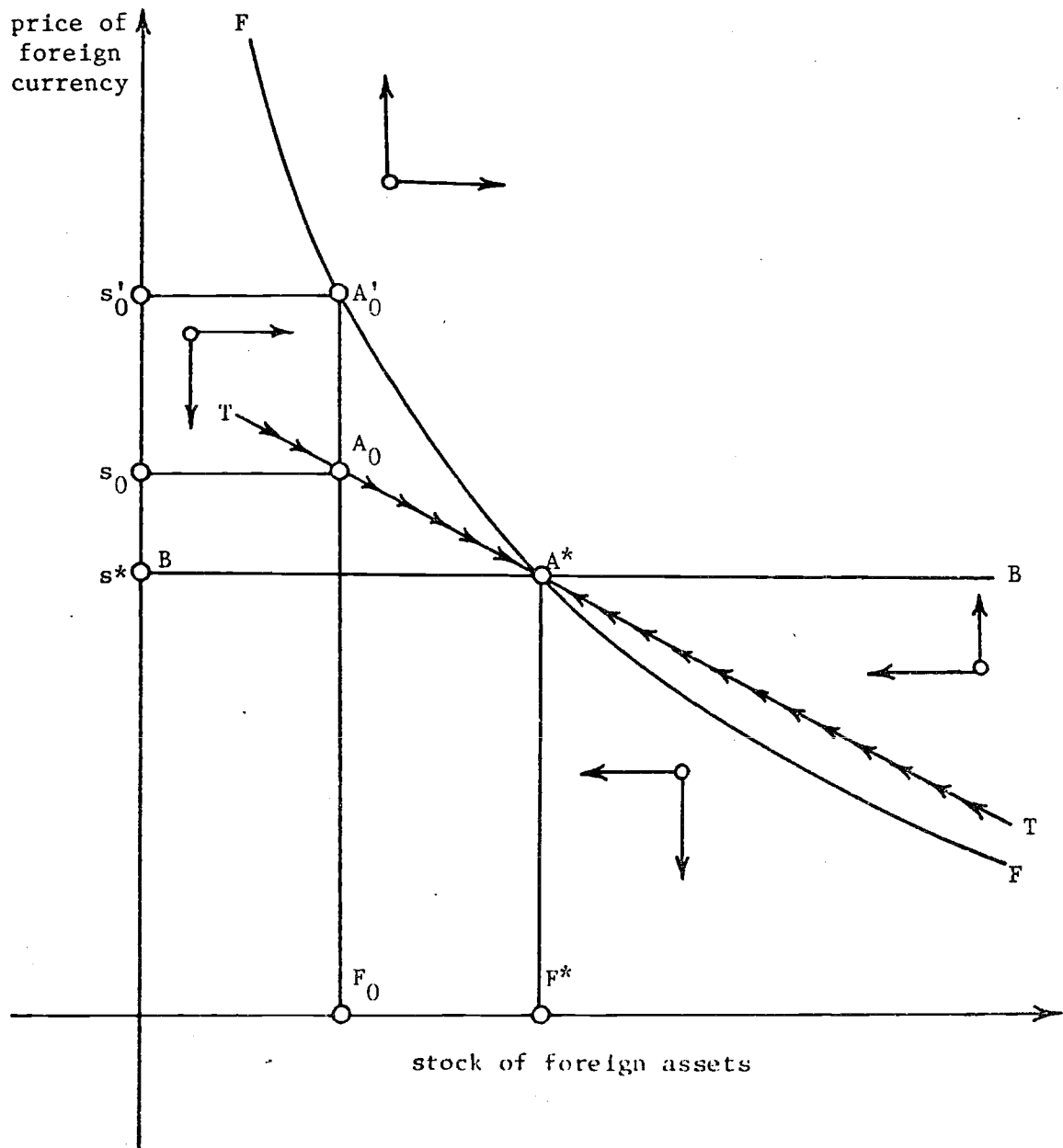
The dynamic partial equilibrium model of the foreign exchange market is now defined by the following two differential equations:

$$(19) \quad f\left(R, R^* + \frac{\dot{s}}{s}, z\right) \frac{V}{s} = F \quad (\text{cf. equation (9)})$$

$$(20) \quad \dot{F} = B(s; x) .$$

The dynamics of this system can be studied with the aid of Figure X. The FF schedule, defined by setting \dot{s}/s equal to zero in equation (18),

FIGURE X
RATIONAL EXPECTATIONS EQUILIBRIUM



gives for each stock of foreign assets the exchange rate that is consistent with no expected appreciation or depreciation. It is the same as the FF schedule in Figure III. As the arrows indicate, domestic currency must be expected to appreciate at any point above the FF schedule, and depreciate at any point below it for such a point to be an equilibrium point. The dynamics of the stock of foreign assets can be determined with the aid of the BB schedule, defined by setting \dot{F} equal to zero in equation (20) (cf. equation(23) in Appendix I). As indicated by the arrows, the stock of foreign assets increases above the BB schedule and decreases below it. Inspection of the direction of movement in each of the four regions separated by the FF and BB schedules reveals that there is only one path along which expectations are continuously realized such that it takes the market to long run equilibrium at A^* . This is the 'rational expectations' path and it is illustrated by the TT schedule in the figure. With initial stock of foreign assets equal to F_0 the equilibrium value of the exchange rate consistent with 'rational expectation' of subsequent appreciation is s_0 in comparison with s'_0 that would obtain with stationary expectations (cf. Figure III). How the market could reach s_0 and stay on TT, which is the only path that takes it to long run equilibrium, is an open question and an answer will not be attempted here.

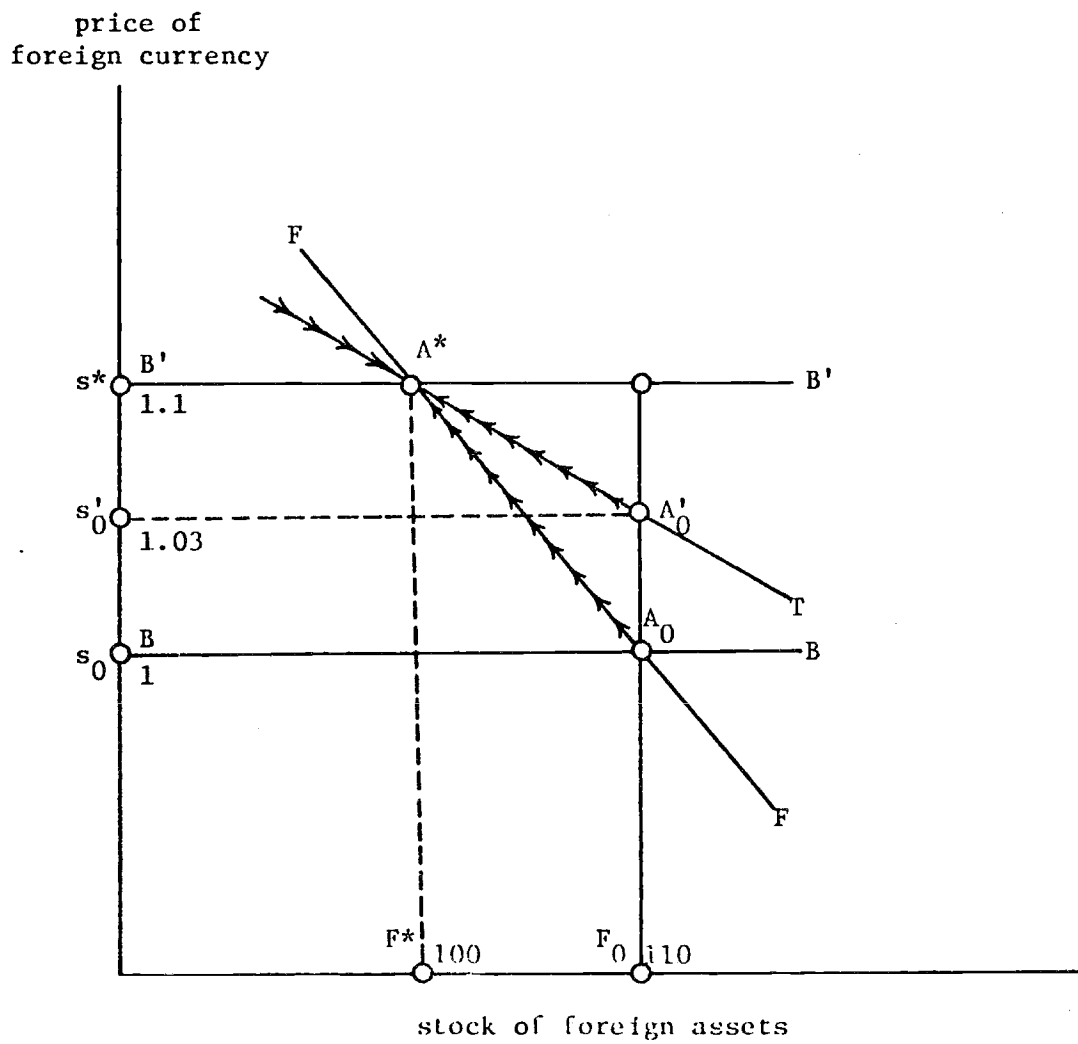
Comparative Dynamics

The response of the foreign exchange market to unanticipated permanent disturbances with rational expectations differs from the response pattern with stationary expectations only in that the short run effect of capital account disturbances on the exchange rate is weakened while the short run effect of trade account disturbances on the exchange rate is strengthened.

Figure XI illustrates response to an increase in domestic demand for foreign assets on an initial situation of long run equilibrium with exchange rate s_0 and stock of foreign assets F_0 . The exchange rate jumps to s'_0 from s_0 which is consistent with equilibrium under stationary expectations. Thereafter, the market converges back to equilibrium at A^* along the TT schedule. The analysis of Appendix I and Appendix II permits a quantitative illustration. The numbers reported in the figure give an example with $\alpha = 0.50$ and $\beta = 1$. The initial impact of the trade account disturbance on the exchange rate is to increase it from 1 to 1.03. The average exchange rate for the first year is 1.04 compared to 1.02 under stationary expectations. However, the market reaches long run equilibrium faster under stationary expectations than it does under rational expectations: from Table IV the market reaches 1.09 in 4.6 years under stationary expectations and only in 6 years under rational expectations. The cumulative current account deficit along the adjustment path from A_0 to A^* is 10 units. From Table VI the deficit is 3.1 in the first year, compared to 3.9 under stationary expectations. This example shows that when the level of international investment is high in relation to trade flows, permanent shifts in the trade account give rise to long periods of deficits or surpluses in the current

FIGURE XI

EFFECT OF AN UNANTICIPATED INCREASE IN DOMESTIC DEMAND
FOR FOREIGN ASSETS UNDER RATIONAL EXPECTATIONS 1



account associated with continuous currency depreciation or appreciation, ceteris paribus.

Figure XII illustrates the response of market to a permanent increase in domestic demand for foreign assets in an initial situation of long run equilibrium at A_1^* with exchange rate s_0 and stock of foreign assets F_0 ($s_0 = 1$, $F_0 = 100$). The FF schedule shifts to $F'F'$ and the TT schedule to $T'T'$. Rational expectations equilibrium obtains initially at s'_0 and thereafter the market converges to long run equilibrium at A_2^* along the TT schedule. Using the same parameter values as in the above example ($\alpha = 0.5$, $\beta = 1$), s'_0 is equal to 1.07. Average exchange rate in the first year is, from Table VII, 1.06 compared to 1.03 under stationary expectations. However, the exchange rate reaches 1.09 only in 6 years under rational expectations compared to 4.6 years under stationary expectations (Table IV). This is also the time it takes the market to effect 90 percent of the total transfer of $(F_1 - F_0)$.

Market Response to Anticipated Disturbances

As an efficient speculative market, the foreign exchange market responds to disturbances when they are anticipated rather than when they occur: disturbances that have been correctly discounted in advance have no effect when they actually occur. Using another terminology, the market responds only to new information. In this section we show the effects of permanent capital account and trade account disturbances when they are anticipated in advance.

Figure XIII shows market response to an anticipated central bank purchase of foreign exchange at some future date T . The market is

FIGURE XII

EFFECT OF A PERMANENT UNANTICIPATED INCREASE IN DOMESTIC DEMAND 2

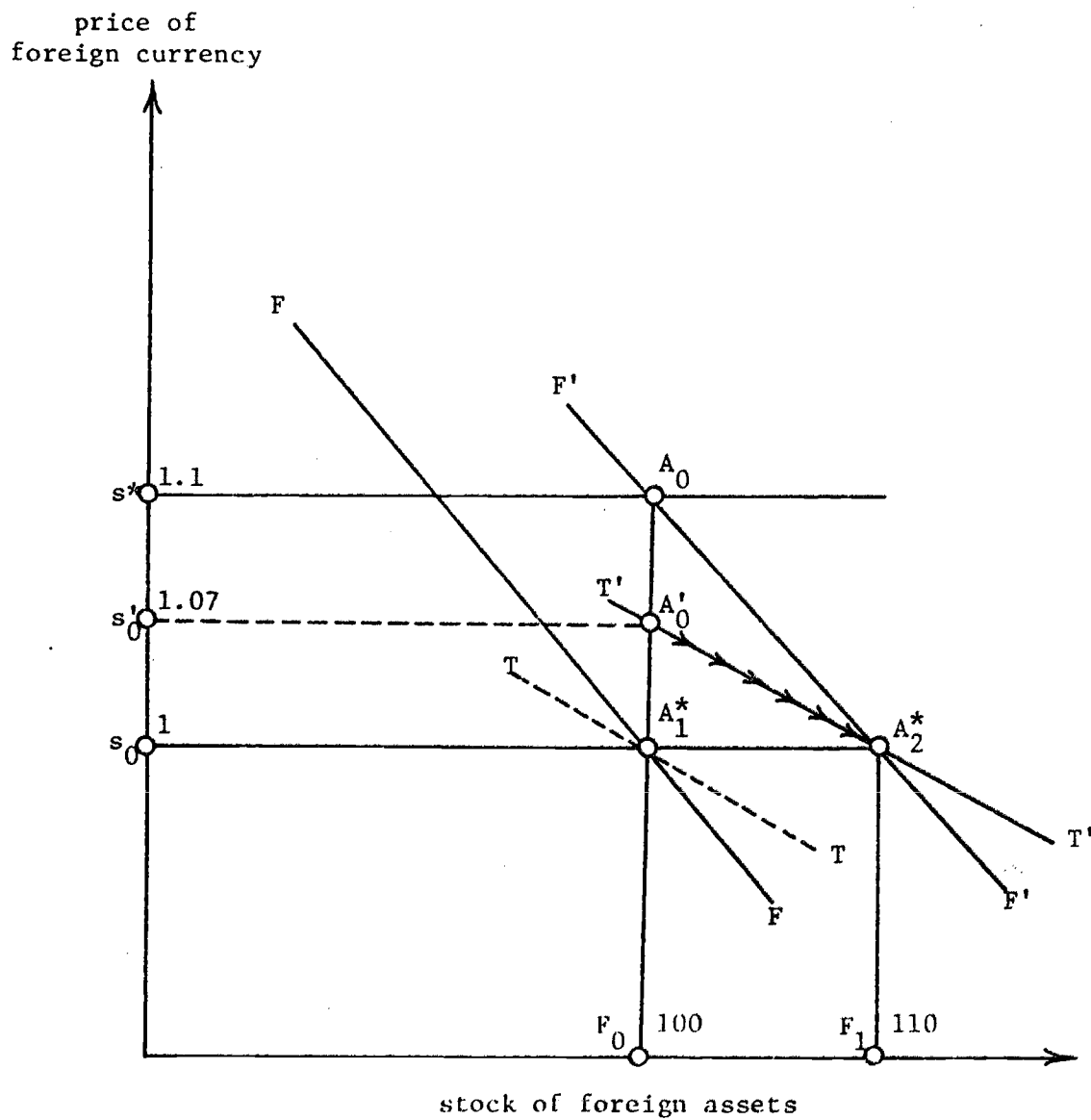
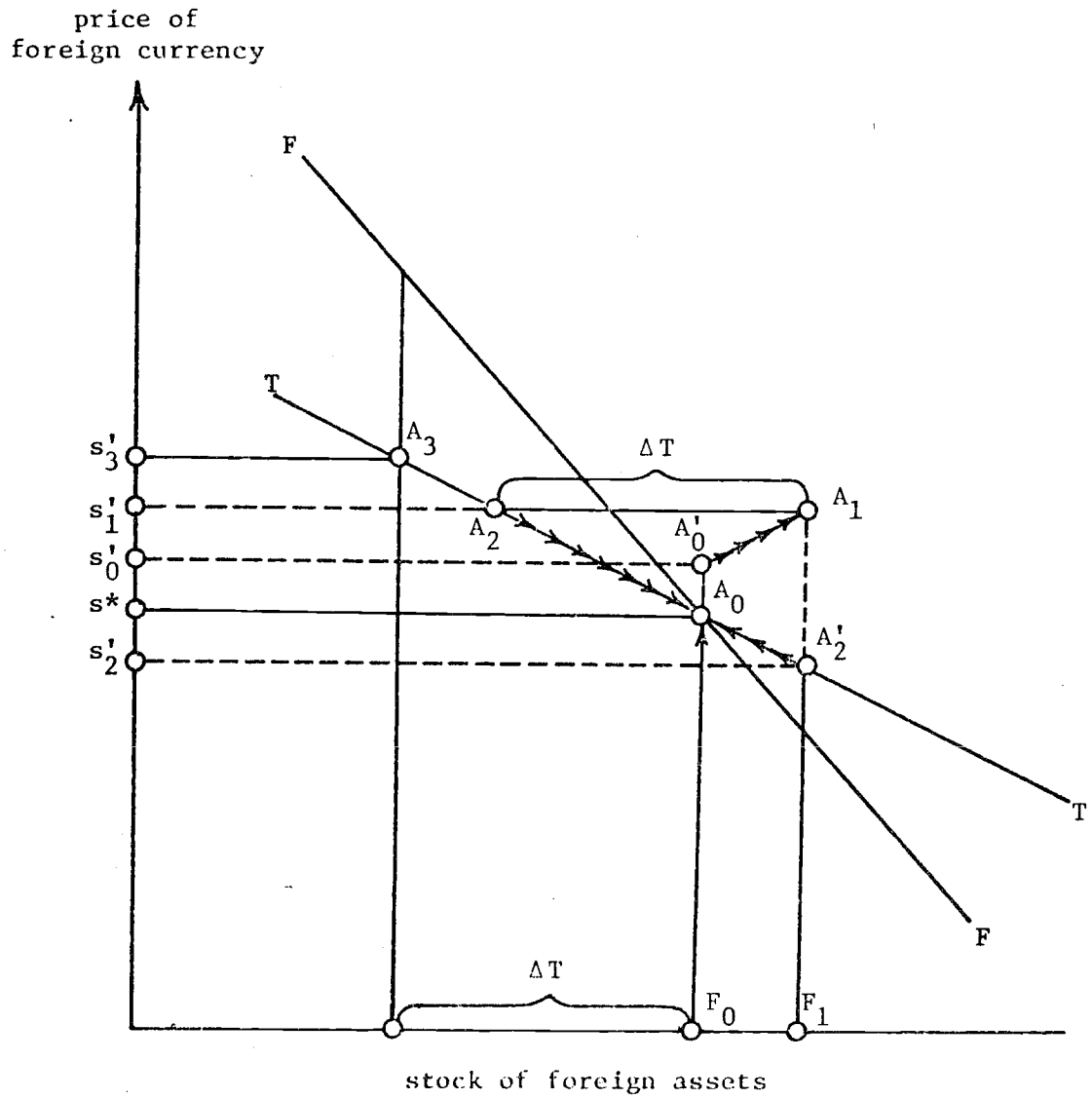


FIGURE XIII

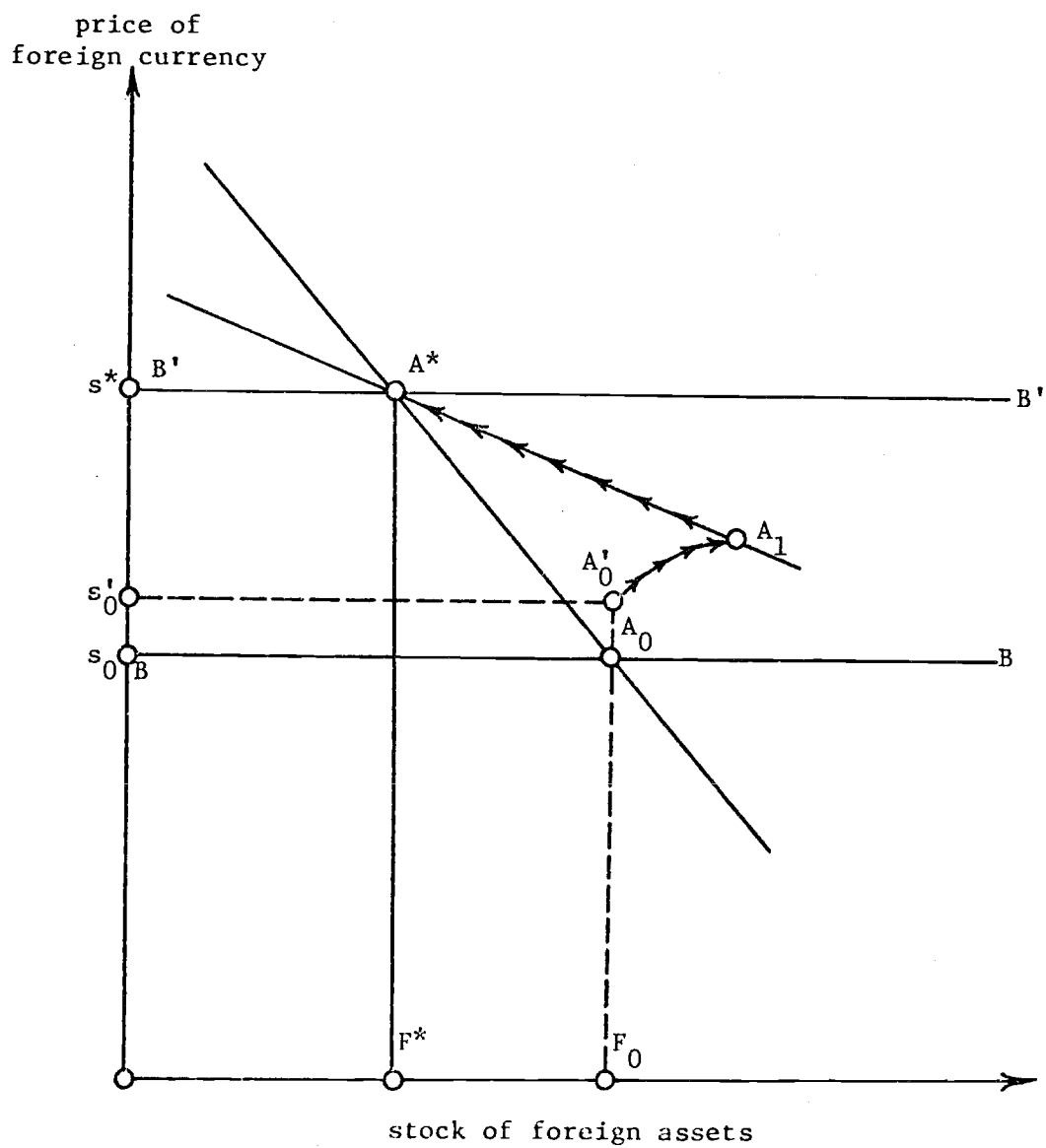
EFFECT OF AN ANTICIPATED CENTRAL BANK PURCHASE OF FOREIGN EXCHANGE



initially in equilibrium at A_0 with exchange rate s^* and stock of foreign assets F_0 . If the central bank purchase of foreign exchange occurred immediately at time 0, domestic currency would depreciate to s'_3 . Thereafter, the market would return back to equilibrium along the TT schedule. If, in contrast, the intervention is expected to occur at some future date T, domestic currency depreciates immediately to s'_0 . Thereafter it continues to depreciate while the current account is in surplus. When the intervention actually occurs at time T there is no effect on the exchange rate, and after the intervention domestic currency gradually appreciates back to its normal value s^* . If the intervention, although anticipated, does not occur, domestic currency appreciates discretely to s'_2 and thereafter depreciates gradually back to equilibrium at A_0 . In summary, only new information, whether in the form of current unanticipated events, anticipated future events, or mistakes in past expectations, gives rise to discrete and noticeable movements in the exchange rate.

To conclude the analysis, Figure XIV illustrates market response to an anticipated permanent increase in import demand at some future date T from an initial situation of equilibrium at A_0 . Domestic currency depreciates immediately to s'_0 and thereafter continues to depreciate while the current account is in surplus in reflection of the expectations induced outflow of capital--an obvious modification to the acceleration hypothesis. When the turnaround in the trade balance occurs at time T there is again no noticeable jump in the exchange, although there is a discrete change in the balance of payments. Adjustment to equilibrium at A_2 takes now a longer time than in the case when the disturbance is not anticipated

FIGURE XIV
EFFECT OF AN ANTICIPATED INCREASE IN IMPORT DEMAND



in advance because the market has to eliminate the 'overhang' of speculative holdings of foreign assets.

CONCLUSION

This paper has synthesized the modern theory of exchange rate determination with the older balance of payments approach in the framework of a dynamic partial equilibrium model that is consistent with the nature of the foreign exchange market as an intermediary between the markets for goods and services and assets in two separate currency areas. Explicit analysis of the sources of supply and demand -- stocks as well as flows -- makes the model a useful tool in empirical analysis of exchange rate behavior. As one example, the model explains the observed tendency of the currencies of countries in current account surplus to appreciate, and those of countries in current account deficit to depreciate. This phenomena cannot be explained by the monetarist theory of exchange rate determination nor can it be explained by the 'textbook' supply-demand model.

The partial equilibrium nature of the model is an obvious qualification to the analysis of this paper, although simple general equilibrium models (Kouri(1976, 1980), Kouri and de Macedo(1978), Branson(1978), Calvo and Rodriguez(1977), Dornbusch and Fischer(1980), Niehans(1978) and Rodriquez(1980)) yield similar response patterns for the exchange rate. Staying in the partial equilibrium framework there are, however, a number of problems that still need to be analyzed. One problem is the observed slow, and initially perverse, response of the trade balance to changes in the exchange rate, known as the J-curve problem.

Another is the distinction between the currency denomination of an asset and its country of origin. This brings in the forward currency market that enables investors to decide separately about currency composition of assets on the one hand and the 'nationality' of assets on the other. A third problem, connected with the J-curve problem is the problem of leads and lags in trade payments. In the present paper trade credit is treated as any other asset. Finally, models of the foreign exchanges should clearly recognize the existence of more than two currencies, and of more than one exchange rate.

APPENDIX I

Linear Approximation of the Model

The diagram developed in section II enables us to study qualitatively the dynamic response of the foreign exchange market to capital account as well as current account disturbances. To get some idea of the quantitative effects of such disturbances, or rather to identify the crucial parameters, we need to consider the approximate solution of the nonlinear model. For this purpose we write the current account equation more explicitly as

$$(21) \quad B(s;x) = E(s;x)/s - M(s;x) ,$$

where E is the value of exports in domestic currency and M is the value of imports in foreign currency.² Substituting this in equation (17) in section II and linearizing around s^* we obtain:

¹The case of multiple long run equilibria is discussed in the next section.

²Because of the assumption that interest earnings are spent on imports in both countries, the interest service account and the implied net imports cancel out.

and linearizing around s^* we obtain:

$$(22) \quad \dot{s} = - \frac{M^*}{\left[\frac{fV}{s^*} + gV^* \right]} (\eta_E + \eta_M - 1)(s - s^*) \equiv -\alpha(s - s^*) ,$$

where η_E = elasticity of export earnings in domestic currency with respect to the exchange rate

η_M = elasticity of imports in foreign currency with respect to the exchange rate

s^* = long run equilibrium value of the exchange rate.

Long run equilibrium value of the exchange rate is determined by

$$(23) \quad B(s^*; x) = 0 .$$

A necessary and sufficient condition for long run equilibrium s^* to be locally stable is that $\alpha > 0$, or that the 'elasticities condition'

$\eta_E + \eta_M - 1 > 0$ holds. The solution of the linear differential equation defined by equation (22) is:

$$(24) \quad s_t = s^* + (s_0 - s^*)e^{-\alpha t} ,$$

where s_0 is the initial equilibrium value of the exchange rate as determined by equation (4) (or (14)), repeated below for convenience:

$$(25) \quad s_0 = \frac{fV + G_0}{gV^* + F_0} .$$

Equations (23), (24) and (25) enable us to study the effects of capital account as well as trade account disturbances in the short run

as well as in the long run, starting from an initial situation of equilibrium. Equations (23) and (24) seem to suggest that 'only capital account disturbances matter in the short run' while 'only trade account disturbances matter in the long run.' This asymmetry disappears, however, when allowance is made for speculative expectations, as is shown in the next section; and when the analysis applies to any period of time. To show this consider the approximate discrete solution of the above model in terms of annual averages. For this purpose we adopt the convention of measuring all flow variables and flow parameters 'at annual rates.' By integration of equation (24) we can write the average annual exchange rate for the i^{th} year as:

$$(26) \quad s_i = (1 - \theta_i) s^* + \theta_i s_0 ,$$

where
$$\theta_i = \frac{1}{\alpha} e^{-\alpha(i-1)} (1 - e^{-\alpha}) , \quad i = 1, 2, \dots .$$

The average exchange rate for any year after time 0 is thus a weighted average of the long run equilibrium exchange rate (s^*) on the one hand, and the short run equilibrium value of the exchange rate (s_0) at time 0 on the other. The weight of the long run equilibrium exchange rate increases with time. It also increases with an increase in the exchange rate elasticity of the current account $(\eta_E + \eta_M - 1)$ and with an increase in the level of trade in relation to the level of asset holdings $(M^*/[f(V/s^*) + gV^*])$, for $\alpha = (M^*/[f(V/s^*) + gV^*])(\eta_E + \eta_M - 1)$.

The cumulative current account surplus associated with the adjustment path is approximately:

$$(27) \quad S = \int_0^{\infty} B_t dt = \left(f^* \frac{V}{s^*} - g^* V^* \right) \frac{s_0 - s^*}{s^*} .$$

If foreign residents do not hold domestic assets, the cumulative current account surplus is exactly equal to $(F^* - F_0)$. Current account surplus in the i^{th} year after the initial moment is a fraction of the cumulative surplus, this fraction decreasing over time:

$$(28) \quad B_i = \psi_i S ,$$

where
$$\psi_i = e^{-\alpha(i-1)} (1 - e^{-\alpha}) .$$

Finally, there are two possible measures of the speed of adjustment. One is the time it takes the market to eliminate x percent of the initial exchange rate discrepancy $(s_0 - s^*)$, or x percent of the cumulative current account surplus S ; namely:

$$(29) \quad T_1(x) = -\frac{1}{\alpha} \ln(1-x) ,$$

where $s_T - s_0 = x(s^* - s_0)$ and $S_T = xS$. This measure is independent of the size of the disturbance. An alternative measure is the time it takes the exchange rate to get to within x percent of its long run equilibrium value, namely:

$$(30) \quad T_2(x) = -\frac{1}{\alpha} \ln \left(\frac{x_0}{x} \right) ,$$

where $x_0 = |(s_0 - s^*)/s^*|$ is the initial deviation of the exchange rate from its long run equilibrium value. $T_2(x)$ is also the time it takes

TABLE I
Speeds of Adjustment for Different Values of α

α	0	0.10	0.25	0.50	0.75	1.0	2.0	2.5	5.0	10.0
$e^{-\alpha}$	1	0.90	0.78	0.61	0.47	0.37	0.14	0.08	0.01	0.00
ψ_1	0	0.10	0.22	0.39	0.53	0.63	0.86	0.92	0.99	1.00
ψ_2	0	0.09	0.17	0.24	0.25	0.23	0.12	0.08	0.01	0.00
$1 - \theta_1$	0	0.00	0.12	0.21	0.30	0.37	0.57	0.63	0.80	0.90
$1 - \theta_2$	0	0.10	0.31	0.52	0.67	0.77	0.94	0.97	1.00	1.00
$T_1(0.90)$ (years)	∞	23.0	9.2	4.6	3.1	2.3	1.2	0.9	0.5	0.2

APPENDIX II

Linear Approximation of the Model

To get an idea of the quantitative effects of disturbances we again consider a linear approximation of the dynamic model defined by equations (19) and (20) in section III. The linear differential equation corresponding to equation (22) in Appendix I is:

$$(31) \quad \frac{\dot{s}}{s^*} = \frac{1}{\beta} \left(\frac{s - s^*}{s^*} \right) + \frac{1}{\beta} \left(\frac{F - F^*}{F^*} \right),$$

where $\beta = \frac{\partial F / \partial \pi}{F}$ = the elasticity of demand for foreign assets with respect to the expected rate of depreciation of domestic currency, evaluated at long run equilibrium.

The linear approximation of differential equation (30) around long run equilibrium is:

$$(32) \quad \frac{\dot{F}}{F^*} = \alpha \frac{s - s^*}{s^*}$$

where $\alpha = \frac{M^*}{F^*} (\eta_E + \eta_M - 1)$ as before, except for the assumption that $gV^* = 0$.

The characteristic roots of this system of two linear differential equations are $\frac{1}{2}(1/\beta) \pm \sqrt{(1/\beta)^2 + 4\alpha/\beta}$. If the 'elasticities condition' holds α is positive and therefore the characteristic roots are real and of opposite sign, which means that the rest point of the system is a saddlepoint.¹ There is therefore only one initial value of the free variable, in this case the exchange rate, such that, starting from that value the system converges to equilibrium. To determine the stable solution

¹ If the elasticities condition is not met and thus α is negative, there are two possibilities. First, if $4|\alpha| \leq 0.25(1/\beta)$, where $|\alpha|$ is the absolute value of α , both characteristic roots are real and positive; second, if $4|\alpha| > 0.25(1/\beta)$ the roots are complex conjugates with a positive real part $(1/\beta)$. In both cases there does not therefore exist a rational expectations equilibrium.

of the above system consider the solution:

$$(33) \quad \frac{s_t - s^*}{s^*} = \mu_1 A_1 e^{-\lambda_1 t} + \mu_2 A_2 e^{\lambda_2 t}$$

$$(34) \quad \frac{F_t - F^*}{F^*} = A_1 e^{-\lambda_1 t} + A_2 e^{\lambda_2 t},$$

where λ_1 and λ_2 are the absolute values of the negative and positive characteristic roots respectively; $(\mu_1, 1)$ and $(\mu_2, 1)$ are the associated characteristic vectors; and A_1 and A_2 are constants to be determined by initial and terminal conditions. The terminal condition is that the system converges to equilibrium, and it restricts A_2 to equal zero. The initial condition on the stock of foreign assets restricts A_1 to equal $(F_0 - F^*)/F^*$. From equation (33) the 'rational expectations' equilibrium value of the exchange rate at the initial moment, denoted by s_0^1 , must then equal $\mu_1(F_0 - F^*)/F^*$. From this we get the linear approximation of the rational expectations equilibrium schedule as:

$$(35) \quad \frac{s - s^*}{s^*} = \mu_1 \frac{F - F^*}{F^*}.$$

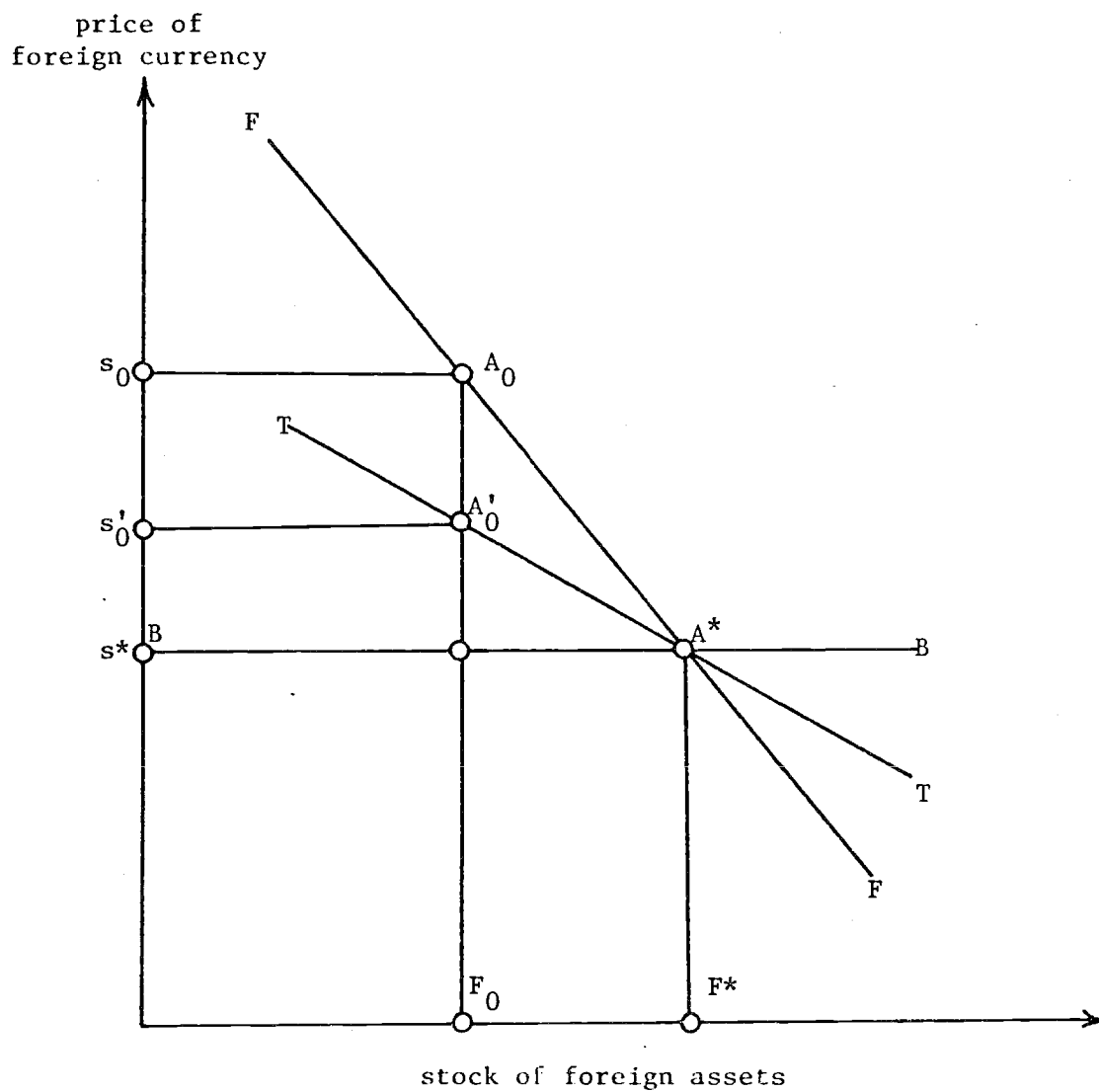
This is illustrated by the TT schedule in Figure I. The linear approximation of the stationary expectations equilibrium schedule, FF in Figure I, is simply

$$(36) \quad \frac{s - s^*}{s^*} = - \frac{F - F^*}{F^*}.$$

The BB schedule, also shown in Figure I is defined by:

FIGURE IA

LINEAR APPROXIMATIONS TO THE RATIONAL EXPECTATIONS EQUILIBRIUM



$$(37) \quad s = s^* .$$

The rational expectations equilibrium value of the exchange rate s'_0 at time 0 is thus related to the stationary expectations value s_0 by:

$$(38) \quad s'_0 - s^* = -\mu_1 (s_0 - s^*) \quad (\text{cf. Figure X}) .$$

The value of parameter μ_1 is given by:

$$(39) \quad \mu_1 = \frac{1}{2}\gamma - \frac{1}{2}\sqrt{\gamma^2 + 4\gamma} ,$$

where $\gamma = 1/\alpha\beta$.

The value of μ_1 goes from zero to minus one as γ increases from zero to infinity. The higher are the interest elasticity of the capital account on the one hand and the exchange rate elasticity of the current account on the other, the closer is the TT schedule to the horizontal BB schedule. Also, an increase in the level of trade in relation to the level of asset holdings brings the TT schedule closer to the BB schedule. Table II shows different values of $|\mu_1|$ corresponding to different values of α and β .

Given s'_0 and F_0 , the time path of the market under rational expectations is characterized by:

$$(40) \quad s'_t - s^* = (s'_0 - s^*)e^{\lambda_1 t}$$

$$(41) \quad F_t - F^* = (F_0 - F^*)e^{\lambda_1 t} ,$$

TABLE II
Different Values of $|\mu_1|$

α	β	0	0.1	0.25	0.5	1	2	2.5	5	10
10	1		0.62	0.44	0.36	0.27	0.25	0.18	0.13	0.10
5	1		0.73	0.58	0.46	0.36	0.27	0.25	0.18	0.13
2.5	1		0.83	0.61	0.58	0.46	0.36	0.33	0.25	0.18
2	1		0.85	0.73	0.62	0.50	0.37	0.36	0.27	0.25
1	1		0.92	0.83	0.73	0.62	0.50	0.44	0.36	0.27
0.5	1		0.95	0.90	0.83	0.72	0.62	0.58	0.46	0.36
0.25	1		0.98	0.95	0.90	0.83	0.73	0.61	0.58	0.44
0.1	1		0.99	0.98	0.95	0.92	0.85	0.83	0.73	0.62

Note: $\mu_1 = \frac{1}{2}\gamma - \frac{1}{2}\sqrt{\gamma^2 + 4\gamma}$, where $\gamma = 1/\alpha\beta$.

where $\lambda_1 = \frac{1}{2}(1/\beta) - \frac{1}{2}\sqrt{(1/\beta)^2 + 4(\alpha/\beta)} < 0$.

Table III shows different values of λ_1 corresponding to the same values of α and β as above. The speed of adjustment of the stock of foreign assets decreases as the interest rate elasticity of the capital account (β) increases. This is illustrated in Table IV that reports different values of $T_1(0.10)$ corresponding to different values of α and β , where $T_1(x)$ is defined by

$$(42) \quad T_1(x) = -\frac{1}{\lambda_1} \ln(1-x).$$

The column with β equal to zero is the same as the last row of Table I.

$T_1(x)$ does not, however, correctly measure the speed of adjustment of the exchange rate because the exchange rate jumps discretely at the initial moment. An appropriate measure is instead the time it takes to eliminate x percent of deviation ($s_0 - s^*$) of which ($s_0 - s'_0$) is eliminated immediately. This time is given by:

$$(43) \quad T_3(x) = -\frac{1}{\lambda_1} \ln \frac{1-x}{|\mu_1|},$$

which is less than $T_1(x)$. Table V reports different values of $T_3(x)$ for the same range of values of α and β as used in Table II.

Finally, the discrete solution of the model is given by:

$$(44) \quad s'_i = (1 - |\mu_1| \theta'_i) s^* + |\mu_1| \theta'_i s_0,$$

TABLE III
Different Values of λ_1

α	β	0	0.1	0.25	0.5	1	2	2.5	5	10
10	10		6.20	4.40	3.60	2.70	2.50	1.80	1.30	1
5	5		3.65	2.90	2.30	1.80	1.35	1.25	0.90	0.65
2.5	2.5		2.08	1.53	1.45	1.15	0.90	0.83	0.63	0.45
2	2		1.70	1.46	1.24	1.00	0.78	0.72	0.54	0.50
1	1		0.92	0.83	0.73	0.62	0.50	0.44	0.36	0.27
0.5	0.5		0.48	0.45	0.42	0.37	0.31	0.29	0.23	0.18
0.25	0.25		0.25	0.24	0.23	0.21	0.18	0.15	0.15	0.11
0.1	0.10		0.10	0.10	0.10	0.09	0.08	0.08	0.07	0.06

Note: $\lambda_1 = \frac{1}{2}(1/\beta) - \frac{1}{2}\sqrt{(1/\beta)^2 + 4(\alpha/\beta)} = \alpha\mu_1$.

TABLE IV
Different Values of T_1 (years)

α	β	0	0.1	0.25	0.5	1	2	2.5	5	10
10		0.23	0.37	0.52	0.64	0.85	0.92	1.28	1.77	2.30
5		0.46	0.63	0.79	1.28	1.70	1.84	2.56	3.54	4.60
2.5		0.83	1.11	1.50	1.59	2.00	2.56	2.77	3.65	5.11
2		0.87	1.35	1.58	1.85	2.30	2.95	3.19	4.26	4.60
1		2.30	2.50	2.77	3.15	3.71	4.60	5.23	6.39	8.52
0.5		4.60	4.80	5.12	5.48	6.22	7.42	7.93	10.01	12.79
0.25		9.20	9.20	9.58	10.00	10.25	12.78	15.33	15.33	20.91
0.1		23.0	23.0	23.0	23.0	25.6	28.8	28.8	32.9	38.3

Note: $T_1(x) = -\frac{1}{\lambda_1} \ln(1-x)$, $x = 0.90$.

TABLE V
Different Values of T_3

$\alpha \backslash \beta$	0	0.1	0.25	0.5	1	2	2.5	5	10
10	0.23	0.29	0.34	0.36	0.37	0.37	0.33	0.20	0
5	0.46	0.55	0.61	0.94	1.13	0.87	1.45	1.64	1.46
2.5	0.83	1.02	1.18	1.22	1.32	1.43	1.43	1.44	1.31
2	0.87	1.26	1.37	1.46	1.61	1.75	1.77	1.80	1.82
1	2.30	2.41	2.55	2.72	2.94	3.22	3.37	3.56	3.68
0.5	4.60	4.70	4.90	4.69	5.38	5.87	6.07	6.62	7.12
0.25	9.20	9.12	9.37	9.57	10.05	11.06	12.06	11.73	13.46
0.1	23.0	22.90	22.80	22.50	24.71	26.80	26.43	28.47	30.47

Note: $T_3(x) = -\frac{1}{\lambda_1} \ln \frac{1-x}{|\mu_1|} = T_1(x) + \frac{1}{\lambda_1} \ln |\mu_1| \leq T_1(x)$.

where $\theta'_i = \frac{1}{\lambda_1} e^{-\lambda_1(i-1)} (1 - e^{-\lambda_1})$, $i = 1, 2, \dots$
 s'_i = average exchange rate for the i^{th} year
 s^* = long run equilibrium value of the exchange rate
 s_0 = initial exchange rate as determined by (36).

This equation is of the same form as equation (26).

Current account in the i^{th} year is a fraction of the cumulative surplus $F^* - F_0$:

$$(45) \quad B_i = \psi'_i S,$$

where $S = F^* - F_0$, and

$$\psi'_i = e^{-\lambda_1(i-1)} (1 - e^{-\lambda_1}).$$

Because λ_1 is smaller than α , ψ'_i is smaller than ψ_1 while θ'_i is greater than θ_i for sufficiently high values of i . This is, of course, another indication of the fact that, under rational expectations, adjustment to long run equilibrium is slower, ceteris paribus. Tables VI and VII report different values of ψ_1 and $1 - |\mu_1| \theta'_1$ for a range of values of α and β . The columns with β equal to zero are the same as the rows for ψ_1 and $1 - \theta_1$ in Table I.

TABLE VI
Different Values of ψ_1'

α	β	0	0.1	0.25	0.5	1	2	2.5	5	10
10		1.00	1.00	0.99	0.97	0.93	0.92	0.83	0.73	0.63
5		0.99	0.97	0.94	0.90	0.83	0.74	0.71	0.59	0.48
2.5		0.92	0.87	0.78	0.76	0.68	0.59	0.56	0.47	0.36
2		0.86	0.82	0.77	0.71	0.63	0.54	0.51	0.42	0.39
1		0.63	0.60	0.56	0.52	0.46	0.39	0.35	0.30	0.24
0.5		0.39	0.38	0.36	0.34	0.31	0.27	0.25	0.21	0.16
0.25		0.22	0.22	0.21	0.20	0.19	0.16	0.14	0.14	0.10
0.1		0.09	0.09	0.09	0.09	0.09	0.08	0.08	0.07	0.06

Note: $\psi_1' = 1 - e^{-\lambda_1}$.

TABLE VII
 Different Values of $1 - \mu_1 | \theta_1'$

α	β	0	0.1	0.25	0.5	1	2	2.5	5	10
10		0.90	0.90	0.90	0.90	0.91	0.91	0.92	0.93	0.94
5		0.80	0.81	0.81	0.82	0.83	0.85	0.86	0.88	0.90
2.5		0.63	0.65	0.69	0.70	0.73	0.76	0.78	0.81	0.86
2		0.57	0.59	0.61	0.64	0.68	0.73	0.74	0.79	0.80
1		0.37	0.40	0.44	0.48	0.54	0.61	0.65	0.70	0.76
0.5		0.21	0.25	0.28	0.33	0.39	0.46	0.50	0.58	0.68
0.25		0.12	0.14	0.17	0.22	0.25	0.35	0.43	0.46	0.60
0.1		0.10	0.11	0.12	0.14	0.02	0.15	0.17	0.27	0.38

Note: $\theta_1' = \frac{1}{\lambda_1}(1 - e^{-\lambda_1})$.

APPENDIX III

Implications of Borrowing in Foreign Currency

Residents of most small countries cannot borrow in their own currency in the international capital market, but instead have to borrow in one of the major currencies. Many of the small countries are furthermore net debtors. This introduces problems in the foreign exchange market. To analyze these problems, consider first the case when domestic residents currently are net debtors in foreign currency ($F_0 < 0$) but would like to hold a positive stock of foreign assets ($fV > 0$). If foreign demand for other types of domestic assets but bonds is larger (measured in foreign currency) than the foreign debt of domestic residents ($gV^* > F_0$), equilibrium still exists, and is unique and stable as is shown in Figure I, where the market reaches equilibrium at A_0 with exchange rate s_0 . Suppose, however, that in this situation foreign demand for domestic assets declines so much as to shift the supply schedule to $S'S'$ ($g'V^* < F_0$). Then clearly there does not exist any equilibrium with stationary expectations: domestic currency would tend to depreciate without limit.

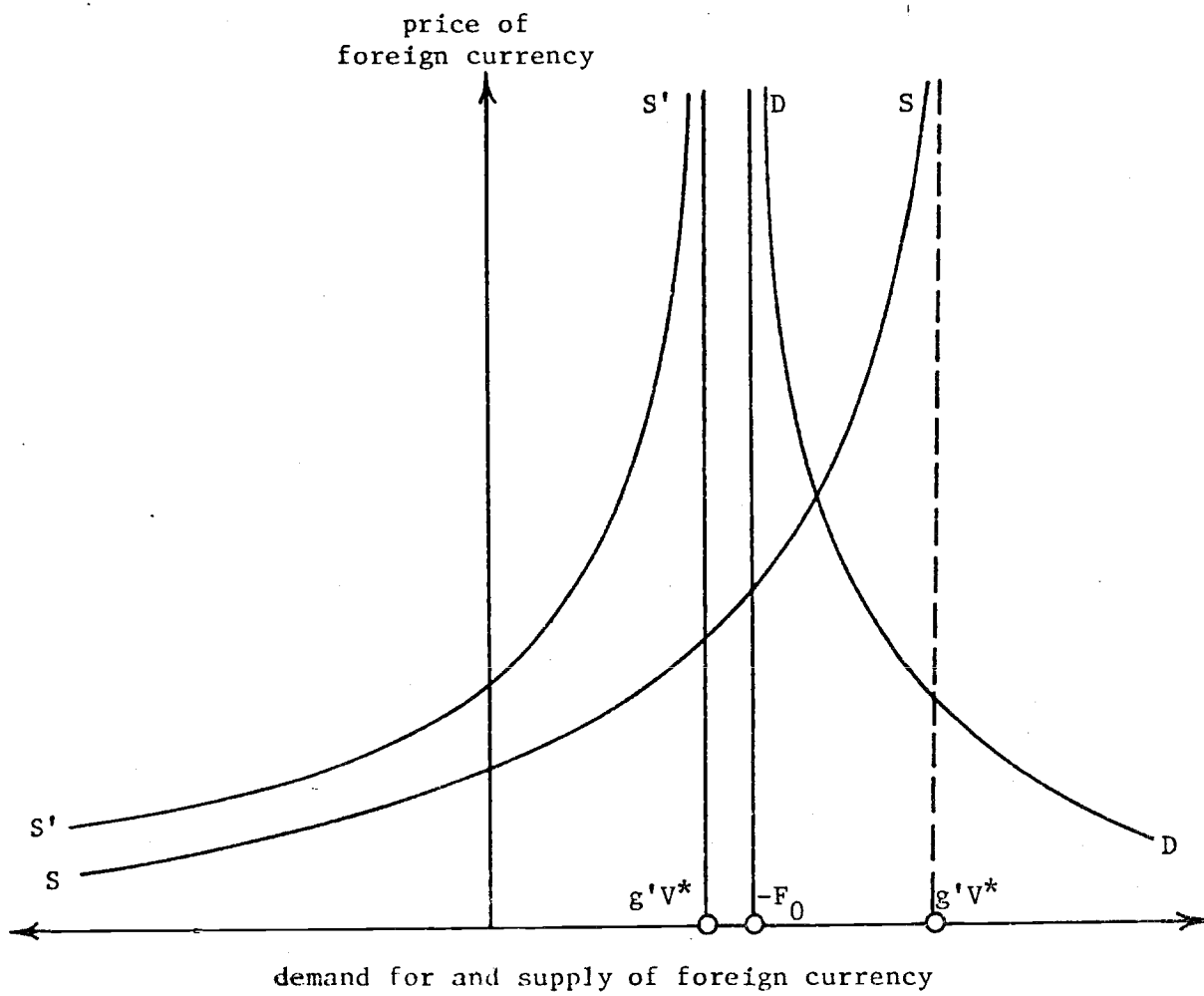
Consider next the case when the desired stock of foreign assets is negative ($fV < 0$). The equilibrium condition is now

$$(46) \quad -f(R, R^* + \pi, z)V/s - F_0 = g(R - \pi, R^*, z)V^* - G_0/s,$$

where f is replaced by $-f$ to indicate that domestic residents want to borrow foreign currency. $f(R, R^* + \pi, z)V/s$ is the supply schedule

FIGURE IIA

THE FOREIGN EXCHANGE MARKET WITH FOREIGN
CURRENCY DENOMINATED DEBT (1)



of foreign currency denominated domestic loans. It is assumed that foreign demand for these loans is infinitely elastic at interest rate R^* . The equilibrium value of the exchange rate implied by equation (1) is

$$(47) \quad s_0 = \frac{G_0 - fV}{F_0 + gV^*} .$$

There are four possible constellations in terms of initial asset holdings (F_0, G_0) and desired asset holdings (fV, gV^*) as illustrated in Figures II(a) to II(d).

Given stationary expectations short run equilibrium exists if and only if $G_0 > fV$ and $-F_0 < gV^*$ or $G_0 < fV$ and $-F_0 > gV^*$ ((a) and (c) in Figure II). However, equilibrium is stable if and only if $G_0 > fV$ and $-F_0 < gV^*$; loosely speaking it is stable only if actual and desired foreign holdings of domestic currency denominated assets are large enough.

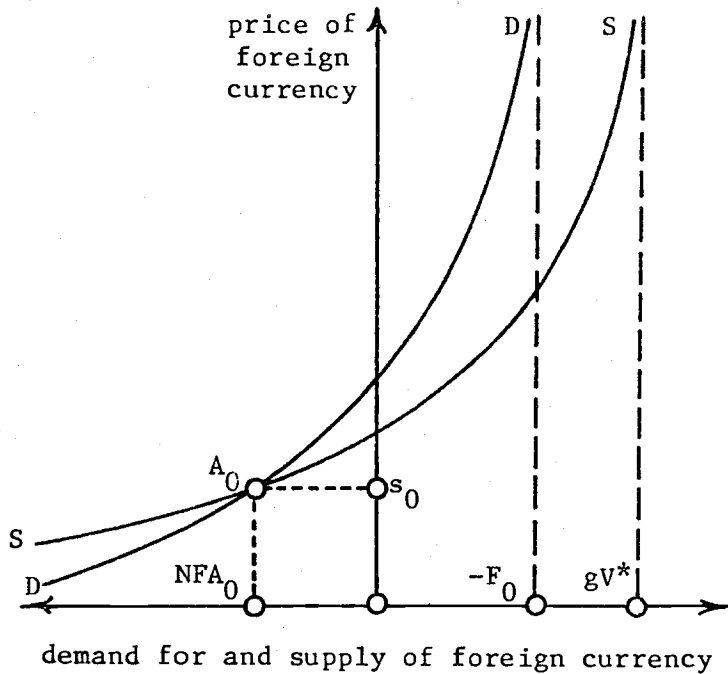
Rational Expectations Equilibrium

Figure III shows that when expectations are rational the problem of nonexistence of short run equilibrium does not arise provided that long run equilibrium is unique.¹ It is assumed in the figure that foreign residents do not hold domestic currency denominated assets. Domestic residents have initially a positive stock of foreign assets, equal to F_0 in the figure while they would like to be net debtors--in other words they would

¹This analysis is not meant to be rigorous, only suggestive.

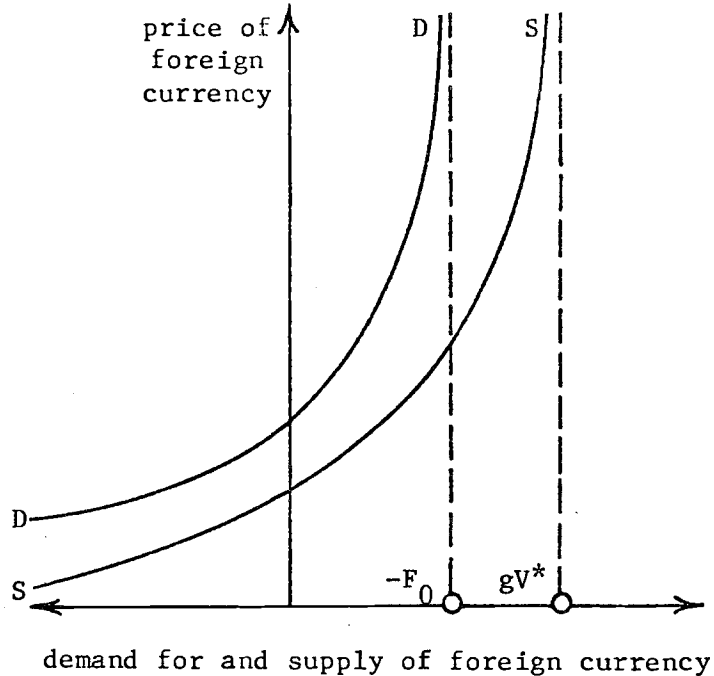
(a)

$$G_0 > fV, -F_0 < gV^*$$



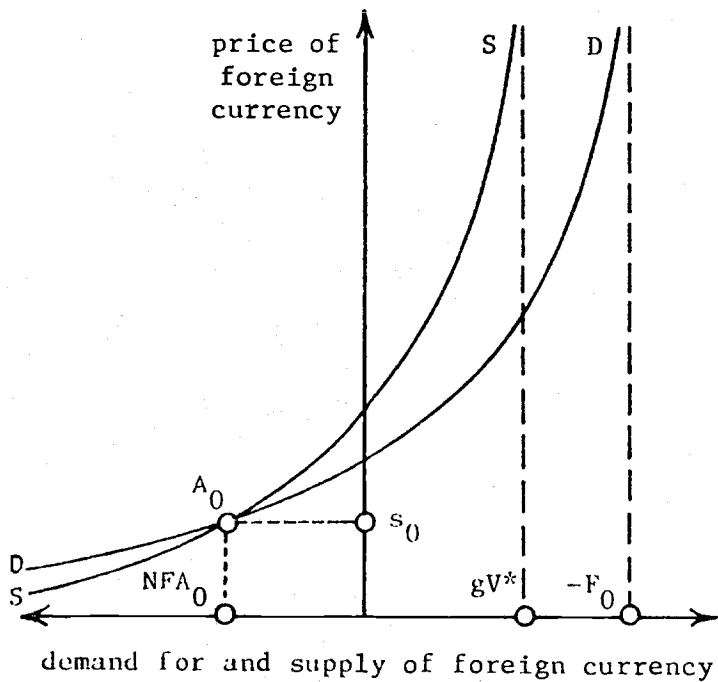
(b)

$$G_0 < fV, -F_0 < gV^*$$



(c)

$$G_0 < fV, -F_0 > gV^*$$



(d)

$$G_0 > fV, -F_0 > gV^*$$

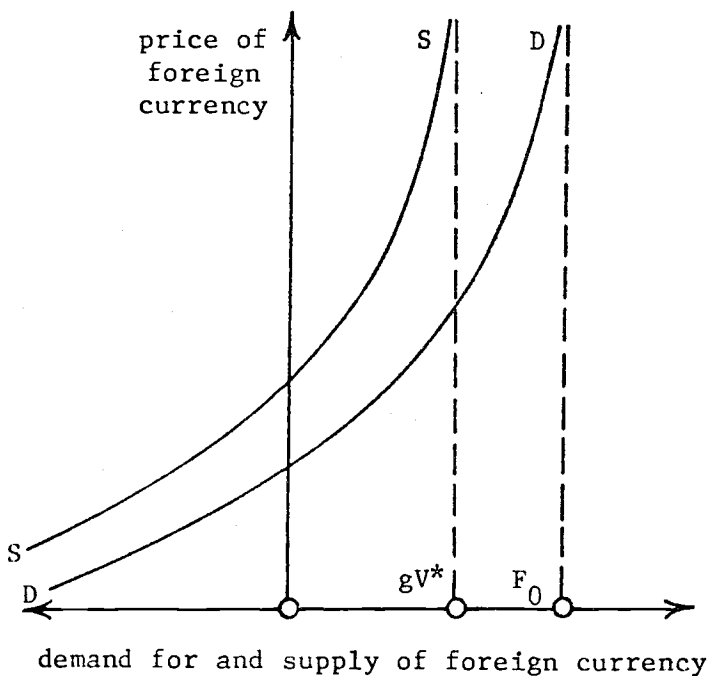
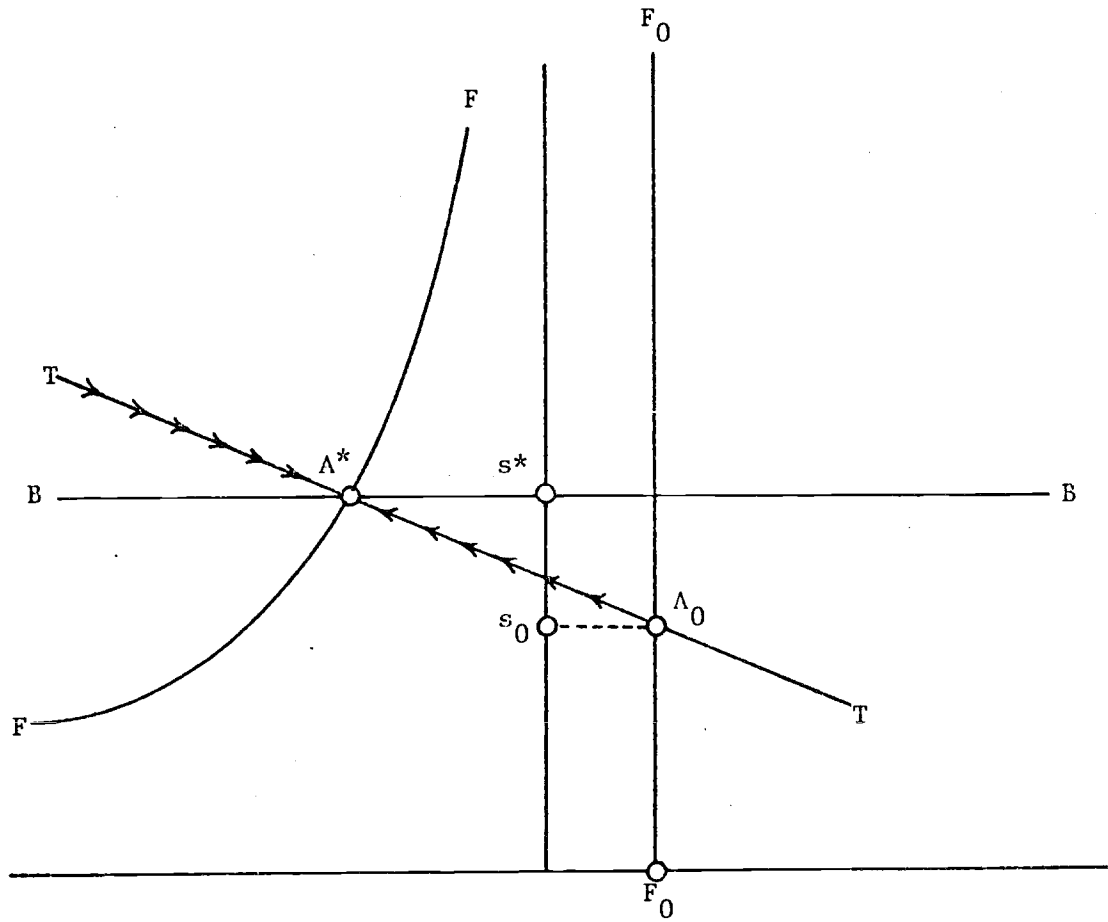


FIGURE IVA

THE FOREIGN EXCHANGE MARKET WITH FOREIGN
CURRENCY DENOMINATED DEBT (3)



like to borrow in foreign currency to invest in domestic assets. Clearly, there is no equilibrium under stationary expectations--the FF and the F_0F_0 schedules do not intersect. However, there is a rational expectations equilibrium at A_0 where the TT schedule intersects the vertical F_0F_0 schedule.