

# Derivatives Hedging, Geographical Diversification, and Firm Market Value<sup>a</sup>

## Abstract

This paper examines the value effect from different aspects of hedging activity and foreign operations, using a sample of Swedish firms over the period 1997-2001. A main finding is that there seems to be a positive value effect from hedging transaction exposure, but that translation exposure hedging does not add value. Further, the results suggest that firm value is positively related to geographical diversification and firms' net long positions in foreign currency. The latter may be caused by the depreciation of the Swedish currency during the sample period.

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# 1 Introduction

The purpose of this paper is to investigate whether firms' hedging activities are rewarded by investors with higher market values. In the perfect capital market of the classic Modigliani and Miller proposition I, risk management is irrelevant to firms. Shareholders can hedge on their own by holding well-diversified portfolios, so there is no value creation by hedging away risks for an individual firm. Recent theories derive optimal hedging policies by introducing frictions into the Modigliani and Miller model.<sup>1</sup> An increasing number of empirical studies have been performed to investigate these theories and the evidence suggests that firms hedge largely in order to mitigate market imperfections consistent with theoretical recommendations.<sup>2</sup> Important for this study is Hagelin's (2001) evidence concerning Swedish firms' use of currency derivatives. He found evidence implying that firms hedge transaction exposure with currency derivatives to increase firm value by reducing indirect costs of financial distress or alleviating the underinvestment problem. However, there was no evidence that translation exposure hedges were used to increase firm value. A few recent studies have examined the risk reducing effect from hedging. Allayannis and Ofek (1998) found that, on average, firms use currency derivatives to reduce exchange rate exposure, rather than to speculate. Hagelin and Pramborg (2000) examined whether hedging reduces foreign exchange rate risk. They found that firms that hedge have lower exchange rate exposures, given the level of inherent FX exposure, than firms that do not hedge. It follows that firms' hedging activity may increase firm value. Allayannis and Weston (2001) investigated whether the use of derivatives affects firm value. The evidence suggests that there is a positive relation between firm value and the use of foreign currency derivatives, and, assuming that most firms use currency derivatives to hedge, that hedging causes an increase in firm value.

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<sup>1</sup> See e.g. Stulz (1984) for a rationale based on managers' risk aversion, Smith and Stulz (1985) for rationales based on structure of taxes or transaction costs of financial distress, and Froot, Scharfstein, and Stein (1993) for a rationale based on the underinvestment problem that would result from costly external financing in combination with variable cash flows. DeMarzo and Duflo (1995) propose a rationale based on managers' private information.

<sup>2</sup> See e.g. Nance, et al., 1993; Mian, 1996; Geczy, et al., 1997; and Haushalter, 2000.

This paper adds to the findings of Allayannis and Weston (2001) mainly by studying whether hedging of different types of exposure, i.e. transaction exposure and translation exposure, are rewarded by investors. An advantage in this study is that the use of survey data makes it possible to use improved measures of foreign operations and hedging.

The results indicate that firms that are diversified geographically and hedges are valued at a premium. Also, positive net exposure to foreign currency affects firm value positively. This result may be specific to the period under study in which the Swedish currency depreciated substantially. In periods of depreciation firms with long positions benefit. An important result is that any value effect from hedging comes from hedging transaction exposure, but not from hedging translation exposure. To the best of the author's knowledge, this is the first study to empirically document this result. The finding is consistent with the results of Hagelin (2001) and with theoretical arguments that hedging accounting numbers should not add value.

The paper is organized as follows. The next section describes the sample and discusses effects from the choice of sample period. Section three contains the variable definitions. Empirical results are presented in the fourth section, which is followed by the conclusions.

## 2 Sample Description

The paper focuses on Swedish firms' foreign operations and hedging activities for the period 1997 to 2001. The sample is based on three consecutive questionnaires sent to non-financial Swedish firms listed on the Stockholm Stock Exchange. The first, used by Hagelin (2001) was sent to 160 firms in 1997, and contained questions regarding the financial year 1997. The second, used by Hagelin and Pramborg (2002), was sent out in March 2000, and contained questions regarding the financial years 1998 and 1999. The third was sent out by the author in September 2001 and contained questions regarding the financial years 2000 and 2001. The questionnaires are very similar and differ only on a few items which are not of importance for the present study. Firms were asked to answer questions regarding their foreign exchange exposure and hedging activity.

Specifically, they were asked to provide the percentages of total revenues, total costs and net assets that were denominated in foreign currency for each year. Further, they were asked to indicate the percentages of committed transactions, anticipated transactions, and translation exposure they hedged with derivatives. The total sample consists of 101, 130, and 128 firms for the first, second, and third survey which translate into response rates of 63 percent, 47 percent, and 49 percent, respectively. All firms met the following criteria: (i) The firm was listed at the Stockholm Stock Exchange at the time of the questionnaire; (ii) the firm was a non-financial firm; and (iii) the firm's headquarter was located within Sweden. Financial firms are excluded from the sample, because most of them are market makers in foreign currency derivatives; hence their motivation to use derivatives may be very different from the motivation of non-financial firms. The three surveys produced a total number of firm year observations of 617, but due to incomplete responses and missing data, the number is reduced to 455. Table 1 presents firm characteristics and summary results for these observations.

Insert Table 1 here

During the sample period the Swedish trade-weighted currency (TCW) index was depreciating. Figure 1 displays the index. Allayannis and Weston (2001) found evidence that the value increasing effect from derivatives use was higher during times of appreciation than in times when the local currency depreciated. They argued that when the local currency depreciates non-hedgers may ex-post benefit and their market value may end up relatively higher compared to the values of the hedgers. Thus, the potential value increasing effect from the risk reduction of hedging may, at least partly, be offset by a negative influence of foregone profits.

Insert Figure 1 here

The downward trend (depreciation), with a reduction in the value of the Swedish currency, SEK, of about 15 percent over the time period would suggest that exporting firms benefited in terms of competitive position. Swedish firms are generally export oriented and it is possible that hedging

during this period actually hurt profits.<sup>3</sup> Therefore, the choice of sample period may create a bias, which, however, should be against finding value effects from hedging activity. The latter may be due to higher expected profits (cash flows) for firms with a long position in foreign currency during the sample period in which the local currency depreciated substantially.

### 3 Firm Value and Explanatory Variables

I follow Bodnar et al. (1999), Allayannis and Weston (2001) and others, and use the logarithm of Tobin's Q, denoted  $TQ$ , as a proxy for firms' market values. Tobin's Q is defined as the ratio of market value to replacement cost of assets, evaluated at the end of the fiscal year for each firm.<sup>4</sup>

In order to investigate the potential effects on firm value from the use of currency derivatives and geographical diversification, I use univariate tests and multivariate regressions. Below, I describe the explanatory variables used.

- 1) Geographical Diversification: Morck and Yeung (1991), Bodnar, et al. (1999), and Allayannis and Weston (2001) found positive value effects from geographical diversification (multinationality). As proxy for multinationality, the earlier studies used the percentage of total revenues from foreign sources. The use of survey data enables me to use a measure that also includes costs. This measure, Foreign Activity ( $FA$ ), is calculated as the average of firms percentage of total revenues and percentage of total costs denominated in foreign currency.<sup>5</sup>

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<sup>3</sup> One such example is a substantial "loss" for Volvo, as reported in Dagens Industri on November 21, 2000. The headline was "Billions lost by Volvo from currency hedging" with the subtitle "Volvo misses a currency killing of 3.5 billion kronor after the company hedged a share of Ford's payment for Volvo Cars". The expected "loss" from hedging the contracted payment of USD 1,613 million at the rate 8 SEK/USD (the spot rate at the time of the article was 10.20 SEK/USD), amounted to about half of the expected profit for the fiscal year 2000 for Volvo.

<sup>4</sup> I use book value of total assets minus book value of equity plus market value of equity as proxy for market value, and book value of total assets as proxy for replacement cost of assets. Fama and French (1998) used an alternative proxy for Tobin's Q: the difference between the market value of assets and the book value of assets, normalized by the book value of assets. As a robustness test I use this measure with similar results (not reported).

<sup>5</sup> Other proxies for geographical diversification are possible. One alternative measure is simply the percentage of foreign revenues denoted in foreign currency. This measure is similar to that used by Allayannis and Weston (2001). As a robustness test I use this measure instead of  $FA$  and the results are similar to those reported in the paper. In addition, from the questionnaires the percentages of net assets denominated in foreign currency are available. The inclusion of this variable did not change the results.

- 2) Net Exposure: Firms that are long in foreign currency (i.e. exporters) may be at an advantage (disadvantage) as compared to firms that are short in foreign currency during periods when the local currency depreciates (appreciates). In order to capture the difference in exposure between firms I use a proxy, Net Exposure ( $NE$ ), which is calculated as the difference between the percentage of total revenues and the percentage of total costs denominated in foreign currency. This measure indicates firms' net long or short position in foreign currency where a positive (negative) value indicates a long (short) position.
- 3) Hedging: Allayannis and Weston (2001) found a positive and significant value effect from the use of currency derivatives. Since most firms use derivatives to hedge, it may be expected that these results translate into a positive effect from hedging. However, because the Swedish TCW index depreciated during the sample period, there may be an offsetting effect due to foregone profits for hedgers as compared to non-hedgers. As proxy for hedging activity I use a dummy ( $H$ ) that is set to 1 for firms that hedge with currency derivatives and 0 for non-hedgers. A positive (negative) value on the coefficient for this dummy suggests that hedging adds (reduces) value.
- 4) Type of Exposures Hedged: Theory, as reflected in standard text books (see e.g. Butler, 1999) argues that only hedging that affects cash flows should be of value to shareholders. In this view, translation hedging is irrelevant since only book values are affected. Allocating resources to this activity may even reduce value since the resources spent are wasted. However, Hagelin and Pramborg (2002) found that translation hedging reduced exposure. They argued that the reason for this may be that firms that hedge have translation exposures that proxies for economic exposures. If so, then by hedging translation exposure, the economic exposure is reduced. Based on this argument, translation exposure may increase firm value by reducing the economic exposure. To investigate this issue, I first classify observations into four distinct groups, using three dummy variables, based on the purpose of hedging

activity. The first dummy (*TRTL*) is set to 1 for firms that hedge transaction exposure and translation exposure; the second dummy (*TR*) is set to 1 for firms that hedge transaction exposure only; and the third dummy (*TL*) is set to 1 for firms that hedge translation exposure only. The fourth group, the base case, consists of firms that do not hedge with currency derivatives. Second, because of few observations in the *TL* group, I reclassify the observations into three distinct groups based on two dummy variables. The first dummy in this alternative classification (*TLall*) is set to 1 for all firms that hedged translation exposure. The second dummy (*NH*), is set to 1 for firms that did not hedge, and the base case consists of firms that hedged transaction exposure only. This specification provides evidence of the incremental effect from hedging translation exposure.

There are a number of factors other than hedging and foreign operations that may explain the market value of firms. The effects from these factors must be controlled for before inference whether foreign operations and hedging affects value may be drawn. Below, I describe the control variables and the reasons why I use them.

- a) Size: Allayannis and Weston (2001) found differences in Tobin's Q for large firms as compared to small firms, where large firms were associated with lower Tobin's Q. Also, as large firms are more likely to hedge than are small firms (see e.g. Hagelin, 2001; and Pramborg, 2002) this should be controlled for. The logarithm of total assets evaluated at year-end is used to control for size (*SIZE*).
- b) Liquidity: Firms that are cash constrained may have higher Tobin's Qs because they are more likely to invest in predominantly positive NPV projects. This follows from the free cash flow argument of Jensen (1986) that firms with excess free cash flow are more likely to invest in projects with negative NPV. The current ratio (*LIQ*) evaluated at year-end is used as a proxy for liquidity.
- c) Leverage: Fama and French (1998) and Allayannis and Weston (2001) found evidence of

a negative relation between leverage and Tobin's Q. To control for differences in capital structure, the ratio of debt to shareholders' equity (*LEV*) evaluated at year-end is used.<sup>6</sup>

- d) Profitability: A profitable firm is likely to trade at a premium relative to a less profitable one. To control for profitability, I use the return on capital employed for the current year (*PROF*).
- e) Investment growth: As argued by Myers (1977) firm value is affected by future investment opportunities. Hedgers may have larger investment opportunities (see Allayannis and Weston, 2001), thus it is important to control for this. The ratio of capital expenditures over sales (*GRO*) is used as a proxy for investment opportunities.<sup>7</sup>
- f) Dividends: Allayannis and Weston (2001) argued that if hedgers forego projects because they are not able to obtain the necessary financing, their Tobin's Q may remain high because they undertake only positive NPV projects. Fama and French (1998) inferred from their empirical results that dividends convey information about future profitability (expected net cash flows). I control for dividends, following Allayannis and Weston (2001), by using a dividend dummy (*DIV*) that is set to 1 for firms that paid a dividend in the current year.
- g) Industrial diversification: Empirical studies have found that Tobin's Q is negatively related to industrial diversification, see e.g. Lang and Stulz (1994), Berger and Ofek (1995), and Bodnar, et al. (1999). I use a dummy (*MULT*) that is set to 1 if the firm operates in more than one segment as a proxy for industrial diversification.<sup>8</sup>

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<sup>6</sup> I also used the ratio of long-term debt to shareholders' equity with no change in results. One factor missing from the analysis is the rating of firms' debt from independent institutes, such as Moody's. It is likely that the quality of debt affects firm value, and Allayannis and Weston (2001) found support for this. Unfortunately, the market for corporate debt was very small in Sweden during the sample period and such data is not available.

<sup>7</sup> Capital expenditures is defined as the end-of-year fixed assets minus beginning-of year fixed assets plus depreciation for the year. Two related variables could also be included in the analysis: the ratio of R&D expenses to total sales as proxy for technological know-how and expertise, and the ratio of advertising to total sales as a proxy for consumer goodwill. Unfortunately, information on these variables are not available for Swedish firms for this time period.

<sup>8</sup> The basis for the this classification follows the classification discussed under Industry Effects below.

- h) Time effects: The general level of Tobin's Q changes over time as the market increases or decreases in value. I control for time effects by using year dummies ( $Y$ ) in all regressions.
- i) Industry effects: Firms belonging to different industries may have different values of Tobin's Q because the business they belong to require e.g. different levels of investments in fixed assets. Also, growth opportunities may differ between industries. If firms with high degrees of geographical diversification and/or hedgers are concentrated in high-Q industries, then these firms will have higher values, not because of their foreign operations or hedging activities, but because of the industry they belong to. Industry effects are captured by industry dummies ( $IND$ ), where the classification follows Statistics Sweden's official classification SNI 92 on a two-digit level. This results in a total of eleven industries.

## 4 Empirical Results

### 4.1 Univariate Tests

In this section I test the main hypothesis that hedging is rewarded by investors with higher valuation, by comparing the values of Tobin's Q for hedgers and non-hedgers. Table 2 presents the mean and median values for Tobin's Q for the total sample, for hedgers, and non-hedgers, respectively.

[Insert Table 2 here]

On average, non-hedgers are characterized by higher Tobin's Q, but the difference is not significant, nor is it consistent for all years in the sample. The median values are below the means, which is indicative of a skewed distribution.<sup>9</sup> The percentage changes in the TCW-index are displayed, where a positive value indicates that the Swedish currency depreciated. Also, for dispositional purpose, the signs of the TCW-changes are displayed with the signs of the differences in median between hedgers and non-hedgers ( $H$  vs  $NH$ ). The results from Allayannis and Weston (2001)

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<sup>9</sup> In the table, I report values for Tobin's Q, but for the  $t$ -tests for differences in means I use  $TQ$ , the logarithm of Tobin's Q.

suggest that there may be a larger value premium for hedgers during years when the currency appreciated (1999) and smaller in other years (1997-98, 2000-01), but the univariate analysis does not support this. It is possible that the univariate tests are inconclusive because the sample includes firms that have no exposure and therefore do not hedge. Therefore, in the last three columns of Table 1, firms with at least 35 percent  $FA$  (the median value of  $FA$ ), with positive exposures ( $NE > 0$ ), and with negative exposures ( $NE < 0$ ) are compared. The positive premium for non-hedgers as compared to hedgers is somewhat stronger for firms with high  $FA$ , but still not significant. The differences for firms with positive and negative exposure are also insignificant. Note that Tobin's  $Q$  is generally higher for firms with FX exposure, as defined in the three last columns, than for the total sample, suggesting that geographical diversification may create value.

## 4.2 Cross-sectional Regressions

In the previous section, Tobin's  $Q$  is analyzed in a univariate setting. To document a relationship between foreign operations, hedging, and firm value, however, control variables that may have an impact on Tobin's  $Q$  should be included. In this section, I investigate the levels of Tobin's  $Q$  and how these can be explained using multivariate regressions. I use ordinary least squares (OLS) regressions on the pooled sample, and also perform year-by-year regressions and panel data regressions to check the robustness of the results. This is followed by causality tests, using multivariate regressions with lagged variables.

### 4.2.1 Levels of Tobin's $Q$

I investigate the effects on the level of Tobin's  $Q$  from geographical diversification, net exposure, and hedging activity using OLS regression models on the pooled sample. The first model includes the proxies for geographical diversification, net exposure, and control variables:

$$TQ_i = \alpha_0 + \alpha_1 FA_i + \alpha_2 NE_i + \alpha_3 SIZE_i + \alpha_4 PROF_i + \alpha_5 LIQ_i + \alpha_6 LEV_i \quad (1)$$

$$+ \alpha_7 GRO_i + \alpha_8 MULT_i + \alpha_9 DIV_i + \sum_{j=1}^{\mathbb{P}} \alpha_{(9+j)} Y_i^j + \sum_{k=1}^{\mathbb{P}} \alpha_{(13+k)} IND_i^k + \varepsilon_i,$$

for  $i = 1, \dots, N$ , where  $N$  is the number of firm year observations. In equation (1) the variables included are those discussed in section 3, and  $\varepsilon_i$  is the residual for observation  $i$ . Table 3 presents the results from this and additional regressions. The first report column, labeled Model (a), reports on the regression model in equation (1). Due to space considerations the year and industry dummies are not reported.<sup>10</sup>

Insert Table 3 here

The evidence from Model (a) suggests that geographical diversification is valued by investors by higher Tobin's Q. The coefficient for  $FA$  is positive and significant at the 10 percent level of significance. The positive impact from the degree of multinationality, as captured by  $FA$ , may relate to MNCs operational flexibility where e.g. production can be shifted in response to changing conditions. The coefficient for  $NE$  is also positive and significant. This result may be due to higher expected profits (cash flows) for firms with a long position in foreign currency during this period when the local currency depreciated.<sup>11</sup> The control variables in Model (a) have signs according to expectations. Larger firms are characterized by lower Tobin's Qs which is in line with earlier research, e.g. Allayannis and Weston (2001). Industrial diversification ( $MULT$ ) is also associated with lower levels of Tobin's Q. The discount for diversified firms is in accordance with e.g. Lang and Stulz (1994), Bodnar et al. (1999), and Graham, Lemmon, and Wolf (2002). The coefficients for profitability ( $PROF$ ) and growth opportunities ( $GRO$ ) are positive and statistically significant, which corroborates the evidence from Allayannis and Weston (2001). The remaining control variables, leverage ( $LEV$ ), liquidity ( $LIQ$ ), and the dividend dummy ( $DIV$ ), are statistically insignificant.

In Model (b), the hedging dummy  $H$  is added. The evidence indicates that hedging is rewarded

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<sup>10</sup> The year dummies are not statistically significant, except for the 1999 dummy, which has a significant positive value. This can be explained by the unusually high stock market value in late 1999 and early 2000 when the dot.com bubble was at its peak. Most of the industry dummies are insignificant.

<sup>11</sup> As an alternative specification, I replaced  $FA$  and  $NE$  in the models reported in Table 3 with the percentage of revenues denominated in foreign currency ( $FR$ ), and the percentage of costs denominated in foreign currency ( $FC$ ) as separate variables. The coefficients for  $FR$  were positive and significant. The coefficients for  $FC$  were negative but insignificant. This supports the conjecture that exports were a positive determinant of firm value in the sample period.

by investors with higher firm value. This supports the evidence from Allayannis and Weston (2001), and it is interesting to note that the positive effect from hedging is significant in a period when the currency depreciated four out of five years. The hedge dummy captures some of the effect from *FA*, which reflects the fact that sample firms with higher *FA* are more likely to use derivatives. The analysis does not provide evidence as to which of these two variables, or both, positively affects value.<sup>12</sup> The results for the control variables are as in Model (a) which is reassuring.

Model (c) reports on a regression to investigate the potential effect from firms' decisions to hedge different types of exposures. The coefficient for *TR*, representing firms that hedge transaction exposure only, is positive with a *p*-value of 0.054. The base case in this regression contains the group of firms that do not hedge. Thus, the significant coefficient supports the argument that transaction exposure hedging adds value. The dummy *TRTL*, representing firms that hedge both types of exposures, has a positive sign but is insignificant. The coefficient for *TL*, representing firms that hedge translation exposure only, is insignificant on all conventional levels of significance. This suggests that there is a positive effect from transaction hedging, but that there is no effect from translation hedging. The results are in accordance with theoretical arguments that translation hedging should not add value, but that value should come from hedging that affects cash flows.

The analysis in Model (c) is based on only eight observations for the *TL* group of firms which makes statistical inferences highly unreliable. Model (d) reports on an alternative specification to Model (c). In this model, firms are classified into three groups, using two dummy variables, based on whether they hedged translation exposure or not. The first dummy, *TLall*, is set to 1 for all firms that hedged translation exposure. The second dummy, *NH*, is set to 1 for firms that did not hedge, and the base case consists of firms that hedged transaction exposure only. This

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<sup>12</sup> The coefficient for *FA* in the regression is affected since the hedging dummy captures a large part of the variation in *FA*. The mean *FA* for non-hedgers is 20.8 and for hedgers 49.5. The difference is significant at a 1 percent level of significance.

specification provides evidence on the incremental effect from hedging translation exposure.<sup>13</sup> If hedging translation exposure is valued by investors it can be expected that the coefficient for *TLall* is positive. On the other hand, if hedging transactions exposure only is the value driver, then it can be expected that the coefficient for *TLall* is zero, or even negative since resources are spent on an activity that is not valued by investors. The *NH* dummy variable is expected to be negative. The table shows that both coefficients are negative and significant on a ten percent level of significance. This may be interpreted as evidence that translation exposure hedging is not rewarded by investors, but rather that firms that hedge transaction exposure only are rewarded by higher Tobin's Qs.<sup>14</sup>

As robustness tests, I use panel data techniques.<sup>15</sup> Table 4 presents regression estimates of models, similar to models (b) and (d) presented in Table 3. The table shows two types of estimates: "between" estimates (be), based on the variation of the intra-firm means of all variables, and "within" estimates, also called fixed effects (fe) estimates, based on the variation of the data within each firm.<sup>16</sup> The between estimates are presented to address concerns that observations drawn repeatedly from the same sample of firms may not be independent. The fixed effects estimates adjust for the possibility that unobservable, firm specific factors influence the level of Tobin's Q in each individual company; the estimates are equivalent to estimating OLS models and including a dummy variable for each firm in the sample. It should be noted that with the addition of the firm-specific dummy variables it would have been desirable to have a longer sample period. Most

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<sup>13</sup> Note that 98 out of the 106 observations in the *TLall* group are for firms that also hedged transaction exposure. Thus, the coefficient for this dummy measures the difference in value between firms that hedge both exposures and those that hedge transaction exposure only.

<sup>14</sup> From the questionnaires, for each exposure the percentages hedged are available. As a robustness test I used the percentage of transaction exposure, and the percentage of translation exposure hedged in a related regression. The coefficients were not significant. However, the coefficient for transactions hedging was positive, and the coefficient for translations hedging was negative, which supports the results in Table 3.

<sup>15</sup> In addition, I reestimate the regression models from Table 3 for each year separately (not reported). The sample size for the regressions using annual data ranges between 81 and 99 observations. Therefore, although the magnitude of the estimated coefficients may be comparable to those using the pooled sample, the standard errors of these estimates tends to be greater, and the significance of the coefficients is generally less. In short, the results support the results from Table 3, but the statistical significance for the coefficients are in general low for all models.

<sup>16</sup> The choice of the fixed effects model is based on the Breusch and Pagan (1980) test which rejects the null hypothesis of no variance in the firm-specific dummies, and the Hausman (1978) test that rejects the null hypothesis of a non-systematic difference in the firm-specific intercepts. Both tests are significant at the 1% level.

...rms have observations for only one or two years, with no ...rm covering the ...ve-year period.<sup>17</sup>

Also, only a few of the sample ...rms changed hedging policy during the sample period. These shortcomings of the sample reduce the possibility of ...nding within variation.

#### Insert Table 4

From the table it is evident that the ...xed effects estimates for hedging and foreign operations are statistically insigni...cant at conventional levels. Given the limitations of this method due to the short sample period it is noteworthy that the sign of the hedging dummy ( $H$ ) in Model fe(a) supports the evidence from the OLS regression in Table 3 with a  $p$ -value of 0.125. Also, in Model fe(b) the coefficient for non-hedgers ( $NH$ ) is negative. However, the coefficient for translation hedgers ( $TLall$ ) is insigni...cant well above conventional levels of signi...cance.<sup>18</sup> The coefficients for  $NE$  and  $FA$  are statistically insigni...cant in the ...xed effects models. This may result from the fact that the foreign operations of the sample ...rms were relatively static during the sample period. Relying on within variation, small changes in geographical diversi...cation and net exposure in foreign currency that have effects on ...rm value may not be detected even if such effects exist.

The between effects models be(a) and be(b) in Table 4 render support to the notion that net exposure to foreign currency positively affects ...rm value. The coefficients for  $NE$  are signi...cant and positive in both models. Possible value effects from hedging and/or from hedging transaction exposure cannot be con...rmed. The coefficients for all hedging variables are insigni...cant, although with identical signs as in Table 3.

In sum, the results in this section for the pooled OLS regressions suggest that net exposure to foreign currency positively affects ...rms value. The results for hedging are mixed. The analysis does not distinguish whether geographical diversi...cation and/or hedging positively affects value.

The results for hedging different types of exposure suggest that any value effect comes from

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<sup>17</sup> Out of a total of 455 observations 50 are for ...rms with one observation only. Any effect from these observations is captured by the ...rm-specific dummies, and thus do not contribute to the analysis. The remaining 405 observations are for 126 ...rms with two observations and 51 ...rms with three observations.

<sup>18</sup> For ...rms that did not change policy, there is no within variation in the hedging variable.

transaction exposure hedging, and not from translation exposure hedging. Translation exposure hedgers rather seem to be valued at a discount compared to firms that concentrate their hedging efforts to transaction exposure. However, the robustness tests of the results indicate that the evidence from the pooled OLS regressions should be interpreted with some caution.

#### 4.2.2 Causality

The suggested relations concerning hedging in the previous section could be caused by reversed causality, that is, firms with high Tobin's Qs may be more likely to hedge, possibly because they have large growth opportunities. If firms with high values are valued at premiums because they have many profitable investment opportunities, then these firms may have an added incentive to hedge. That is, higher values for firms that hedge may simply reflect the fact that high-valued firms have an incentive to hedge, and not that hedging causes higher values. Allayannis and Weston (2001) found evidence supporting that hedging causes increases in Tobin's Q, but no evidence that the level of Tobin's Q influence hedging behavior.<sup>19</sup> To test for the possibility of reversed causation for this sample, I follow Allayannis and Weston (2001), and classify firms into four categories, using three dummy variables as follows:

- 1)  $NN^H$ : A dummy that is set to 1 for firms that chose not to hedge in the current period and not in the next period;
- 2)  $YN^H$ : A dummy that is set to 1 for firms that hedged in the current period, but chose not to hedge in the next period; and
- 3)  $NY^H$ : A dummy that is set to 1 for firms that did not hedge in the current period, but chose to hedge in the next period.

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<sup>19</sup> Géczy, Minton, and Schrand (1997), Hagelin (2001), and others have also found that Tobin's Q is not significantly related to firms' hedging decisions.

The base case contains of ...rms that hedged in the current period and the next period. I then use the dummy variables in the following regression:

$$\begin{aligned}
 TQ_i = & \beta_0 + \beta_1 FA_i + \beta_2 NE_i + \beta_3 NN_i^H + \beta_4 YN_i^H + \beta_5 NY_i^H & (2) \\
 & + \beta_6 SIZE_i + \beta_7 PROF_i + \beta_8 LIQ_i + \beta_9 LEV_i + \beta_{10} GRO_i \\
 & + \beta_{11} MULT_i + \beta_{12} DIV_i + \sum_{j=1}^{\mathbb{P}} \beta_{(12+j)} Y_i^j + \sum_{k=1}^{\mathbb{P}} \beta_{(16+k)} IND_i^k + \mu_i
 \end{aligned}$$

where  $TQ$  is the value for the current period, the explanatory variables are those used in regression equation (1), and  $\mu_i$  is the error term. If ...rms with high  $TQ$ s choose to hedge, then ...rms that begin hedging in the next period should have higher  $TQ$ s in the current period than ...rms that remain unhedged in the next period. Thus, the expectation in that case is that  $\beta_5 > \beta_3$ . Also, ...rms that choose to quit hedging should be characterized by lower  $TQ$ s, that is,  $\beta_4 < 0$ . Finally, it could be expected from the results in the previous section that ...rms that do not hedge have lower  $TQ$ s than ...rms which do, or  $\beta_3 < 0$ .

The results from this regression is presented in Table 5, Model (a). As expected from the results in the previous section, ...rms that do not hedge in the current period and do not begin hedging in the next period ( $NN^H$ ) are characterized by lower Tobin's Qs, than ...rms that hedge in the current and the next period (the base case). The Wald test for  $NN^H = NY^H$  indicates that the decision to begin hedging is unaffected by the level of Tobin's Q. However, ...rms that quit hedging ( $YN^H$ ) are characterized by significantly lower Tobin's Qs than are ...rms that continue to hedge. This finding suggests that the decision to quit hedging is affected by the level of Tobin's Q. Using the Wald test, the joint null hypothesis of no reverse causality ( $NN^H = NY^H, YN^H = 0$ ) is also rejected. The implication on the finding presented in Table 3 is that the value effect may not necessarily come from hedging but that the relationship is more complex. However, the analysis in Table 5 suffers from a small sample size problem, since only a few ...rms changed hedging policy. In view of the results from Allayannis and Weston (2001), Géczy, Minton and Schrand (1997), and Hagelin (2001) who found that book-to-market variables are not significantly related to ...rms

hedging decisions, these results should be interpreted as indicative only.

Insert Table 5 here

In the previous section it is suggested that hedging transaction exposure may be a determinant for a positive value premium. To test the causality of this specific relationship, namely that it is possible that firms with high  $TQ$ s focus on transaction exposure hedging, I use a similar multivariate regression model as in equation (2), but instead of using the decision to hedge to classify firms, I use the decision to hedge transaction exposure, using the three dummy variables  $NN^{TR}$ ,  $YN^{TR}$ , and  $NY^{TR}$ . The interpretation of these dummies are as above. For example,  $YN^{TR}$  is a dummy that is set to 1 for firms that hedged transaction exposure in the current period, but not in the next period. In Table 5 the results from this model, Model (b), are displayed. The results from this regression are similar to Model (a) in Table 5, and indicate that the decision to quit hedging transaction exposure is influenced by the level of Tobin's Q. As for Model (a), the results should be interpreted as indicative only as the number of firms that began/quit hedging is small.<sup>20</sup>

Next, I take a direct approach of testing the causality that foreign operations and hedging cause firms to have higher firm value by studying how changes in Tobin's Q can be explained by changes in geographical diversification, net exposure, and hedging activity. To accomplish this, firms are classified as in the previous section, and the following regression equation is estimated:

$$\begin{aligned} \Delta TQ_i = & \gamma_1 + \gamma_2 \Delta FA_i + \gamma_3 \Delta NE_i + \gamma_4 NN_i^H + \gamma_5 YN_i^H + \gamma_6 NY_i^H & (3) \\ & + \gamma_7 \Delta SIZE_i + \gamma_8 \Delta PROF_i + \gamma_9 \Delta LIQ_i + \gamma_{10} \Delta LEV_i + \gamma_{11} \Delta GRO_i + \gamma_{12} NN(DIV)_i \\ & + \gamma_{14} YN(DIV)_i + \gamma_{15} NY(DIV)_i + \sum_{j=1}^{\text{FD}} \gamma_{(15+j)} Y_i^j + \sum_{k=1}^{\text{FD}} \gamma_{(19+k)} IND_i^k + \nu_i, \end{aligned}$$

<sup>20</sup> As an additional test of causality I used the change in  $TQ$  from the previous period to the current period as dependent variable (not reported). Using this specification, it is possible to investigate whether changes in Tobin's Q, as opposed to the level, has an effect on the decision to hedge or not. The coefficients for all hedging variables were statistically insignificant.

where  $\Delta TQ$  is the change in  $TQ$  from the current period to the next period, and changes in explanatory variables used in regression equations (1) and (2) are included. If geographical diversification and net exposure create value in the sample period, it is expected that the coefficients  $\gamma_2$  and  $\gamma_3$  are greater than zero. If hedging creates value it can be expected that firms that begin hedging increase in value relative to firms that remain unhedged ( $\gamma_6 > \gamma_4$ ). Similarly, it is expected that the decision to quit hedging causes a decrease in Tobin's  $Q$ , relative to firms that remain hedged ( $\gamma_5 < 0$ ). In a second specification, I use a similar regression to investigate possible effects from transaction exposure hedging. As for the regression equation (2) I substitute dummy variables reflecting transaction exposure hedging for the dummy variables representing hedging in equation (3). Table 6 displays the results from the two regressions.

Insert Table 6 here

Changes in geographical diversification, net exposure, and hedging practices seem to be relatively unimportant. The coefficients for the hedging dummies are not significant, nor are the Wald tests for differences between firms that begin hedging as compared to those that stay unhedged. The results concerning geographical diversification indicates the relative static nature of foreign operations. For the sample firms, the degree of multinationality ( $FA$ ) and positions in foreign currency ( $NE$ ) do not change very much between years. The variables of particular interest in these models are the  $YN$  and  $NY$  dummies. The coefficients are insignificant, and renders no evidence that hedging causes firm value to increase. Note, however, that the analysis suffer from the same problem as noted in relation to the results in Table 5, that there are very few observations for some groups. Specifically, there were only a few firms that changed hedging policy during the sample period.

## 5 Conclusions

This paper investigates the value effect from geographical diversification, net exposure, and hedging activity. The most important contribution concerns different aspects of hedging activity. The findings from Allayannis and Weston (2001) suggest that the use of foreign currency derivatives increases firm value. In this paper, Allayannis and Weston's (2001) findings are supported, and the analysis adds to their findings.

The results suggest that firms that are geographically diversified and hedges are valued at premiums. However, the analysis fails to distinguish value effects from hedging to those from geographical diversification. Possibly, both factors are important, which would support arguments that firms that engage in international operations could increase profitability and be higher valued since they can exploit market imperfections (see e.g. Butler, 1999), as well as arguments that hedging adds value.

More importantly, the evidence indicates that a positive value effect for hedging does not necessarily imply that all hedging activities add value. It is suggested that a positive value premium primarily comes from hedging transaction exposure, but that there is no positive effect from translation exposure hedging. This finding supports theoretical arguments that hedging should be aimed at reducing volatility in cash flows, as well as Hagelin's (2001) evidence that firms hedge transaction exposure to increase firm value, but lack of evidence that translation exposure hedges are used to increase firm value. The finding from Hagelin and Pramborg (2002) suggests that firms are successful in reducing exposure by translation exposure hedging, possibly increasing value. However, from the evidence in this paper and Hagelin (2001) it seems as if the firms that hedge translation exposure do not hedge for the correct reasons and are therefore not rewarded by investors with increased firm values.

Robustness tests show that the statistical evidence for the results discussed above is somewhat weak. Also, specific tests for causality fail to document that changes in hedging policy changes

firm value, but rather indicate that firm value may influence the decision to hedge. The robustness tests and the tests for causality suffers from two properties of the sample: namely that the sample period is short and the fact that very few firms changed hedging policy during the sample period.

Finally, the evidence suggests that the net position in foreign currency is an important determinant of firm value. Firms with long (short) positions have, on average, higher (lower) Tobin's Qs. Potential explanations include the currency movements in the sample period. The Swedish currency depreciated quite substantially, which may improve competitive position and expected cash flows for firms that are long in foreign currency.

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Table 1: Descriptive Statistics

The table displays descriptive statistics on firm characteristics and survey responses. Panel A contains firm characteristics, where the variables are defined as follows: Tobin's Q is the ratio of market value to book value, where market value is defined as book value of assets minus book value of equity plus market value of equity at year-end; Total Assets is the book value of total assets at year-end; Profitability is the return on capital employed for the current year; Leverage is the debt-to-equity ratio at year-end; Liquidity is the current ratio at year-end; Investment Growth is defined as invested capital during the current year divided by total revenues for the year; Industry Diversification is the proportion of firms that are diversified across industries; Dividends Paid is the proportion of firms that paid a dividend during the current year; Panel B displays summary statistics on foreign exchange exposure and hedging, where Foreign Activity is the average of the share of revenues and the share of costs that are denominated in foreign currency; Net Exposure is the difference between the share of revenues and the share of costs that are denominated in foreign currency; Hedgers is the proportion of firms that used derivatives to hedge; TR only is the proportion of firms that hedged transaction exposure only; TL only is the proportion of firms that hedged translation exposure only; TR and TL is the proportion of firms that hedged transaction exposure and translation exposure;

Panel A. Firm Characteristics					
	percent=1	Mean	Q3	Median	Q1
Tobin's Q	-	2.17	2.02	1.34	1.04
Total Assets	-	9132	6641	1333	310
Profitability	-	0.53	15.95	9.39	2.00
Leverage	-	1.68	2.19	1.29	0.73
Liquidity	-	2.40	2.57	1.78	1.19
Investment Growth	-	1.17	0.26	0.08	0.03
Industrial Diversification	23.7	-	-	-	-
Dividends Paid	69.7	-	-	-	-

Panel B. Exposure and Hedging					
	percent > 0	Mean	Q3	Median	Q1
Foreign Activity	85.3	36.13	60	35	5
Net Exposure*	-	8.97	17	0	0
abs(Net Exposure)	71.4	24.96	40	15	5
Hedgers	51.2	-	-	-	-
TR only	30.2	-	-	-	-
TL only	3.4	-	-	-	-
TR and TL	24.5	-	-	-	-

\*percentage with positive (negative) exposure is 49.6 (21.8)

Table 2: Comparison of Tobin's Q: Hedgers vs. Non-hedgers

The table displays summary statistics on Tobin's Q for hedgers and non-hedgers, respectively. In the first report columns the mean and median values are displayed for each year in the sample.  $p$ -values are reported for tests for differences in means, using  $t$ -tests.  $p$ -values are reported for tests for differences in medians using the Mann-Whitney statistic. The percentage change in a trade-weighted currency index, the TCW-index, is reported for each year, and the sign of the change in the index and the sign of the difference in Tobin's Q between hedgers and non-hedgers are reported. In the last four report columns, the Tobin's Q for the total sample, for firms with  $FA_{i,t} \geq 35$ , firms with positive exposure ( $NE > 0$ ), and for firms with negative exposure ( $NE < 0$ ) are reported.

	Tobin's Q per year					Tobin's Q 1997-2001			
	1997	1998	1999	2000	2001	All	$FA_{i,t} \geq 35$	$NE > 0$	$NE < 0$
Mean									
Total	1.66	2.09	2.63	2.49	1.83	2.17	2.40	2.32	2.29
Hedgers ( $H$ )	1.70	1.57	2.08	3.01	2.05	2.11	2.27	2.02	2.45
Non-hedgers ( $NH$ )	1.60	2.49	3.10	1.92	1.59	2.23	2.72	2.84	2.05
$p$ -value diff	0.51	0.04	0.06	0.24	0.12	0.54	0.17	0.12	0.85
Median									
Total	1.35	1.25	1.47	1.41	1.25	1.33	1.42	1.33	1.50
Hedgers ( $H$ )	1.36	1.21	1.33	1.35	1.41	1.33	1.34	1.30	1.32
Non-hedgers ( $NH$ )	1.29	1.39	1.75	1.48	1.22	1.37	1.91	1.45	1.73
$p$ -value diff	0.28	0.37	0.25	0.49	0.17	0.73	0.17	0.45	0.29
No. of Hedgers	53	41	44	52	43	233	169	145	59
No. of observations	85	94	96	99	81	455	236	225	100
$\Delta$ TCW-index	3.2	6.8	4.4	4.5	4.2	14.7			
Sign $\Delta$ TCW-index	(+)	(+)	(+)	(+)	(+)	(+)			
Sign median( $H$   $NH$ )	(+)	(+)	(+)	(+)	(+)	(+)	(+)	(+)	(+)

Table 3: Cross-sectional Regressions:  $TQ$

The table displays the results from cross-sectional OLS regressions, where the dependent variable is the logarithm of Tobin's  $Q$ . The explanatory variables are:  $FA$ , the average of the percentage of revenues and costs that are denominated in foreign currency;  $NE$ , the difference between the percentage of revenues and costs that are denominated in foreign currency;  $H$ , a dummy that is set to 1 for firms that hedge;  $TRTL$ , a dummy that is set to 1 for firms that hedge transaction exposure and translation exposure;  $TR$ , a dummy that is set to 1 for firms that hedge transaction exposure only;  $TL$ , a dummy that is set to 1 for firms that hedge translation exposure only;  $NH$ , a dummy that is set to 1 for firms that do not hedge;  $TLall$ , a dummy that is set to 1 for firms that hedge translation exposure;  $SIZE$ , the logarithm of total assets;  $LEV$ , the debt-to-equity ratio;  $LIQ$ , the current ratio;  $PROF$ , return on capital employed;  $GRO$ , invested capital during the year divided by total sales;  $DIV$ , a dummy that is set to 1 for firms that paid a dividend during the current year.  $MULT$ , a dummy that is set to 1 for firms that are diversified; Observations are for years 1997-2001. In all regressions four year dummies and ten industry dummies are included.  $p$ -values for coefficients are reported using Newey-West (1987) corrected standard errors.

Model	No. obs	(a)		(b)		(c)		(d)	
		coef	$p$ -value						
Intercept		0.598	(0.001)	0.605	(0.001)	0.613	(0.001)	0.761	(0.000)
$FA$		0.002	(0.086)	0.001	(0.240)	0.001	(0.201)	0.001	(0.185)
$NE$		0.003	(0.065)	0.003	(0.064)	0.003	(0.047)	0.003	(0.049)
$H$	233			0.138	(0.047)				
$TRTL$	98					0.086	(0.252)		
$TR$	124					0.151	(0.054)		
$TL$	8					0.034	(0.807)		
$NH$	211							0.143	(0.050)
$TLall$	106							0.076	(0.097)
$SIZE$		0.047	(0.024)	0.059	(0.007)	0.055	(0.016)	0.054	(0.017)
$LIQ$		0.012	(0.226)	0.010	(0.299)	0.004	(0.692)	0.005	(0.581)
$LEV$		0.033	(0.201)	0.033	(0.182)	0.035	(0.164)	0.034	(0.168)
$PROF$		0.003	(0.000)	0.003	(0.000)	0.003	(0.000)	0.003	(0.000)
$GRO$		0.003	(0.000)	0.004	(0.000)	0.004	(0.000)	0.004	(0.000)
$DIV$	317	0.083	(0.223)	0.076	(0.275)	0.073	(0.304)	0.070	(0.318)
$MULT$	108	0.115	(0.015)	0.103	(0.036)	0.111	(0.019)	0.110	(0.021)
$adjR^2$		0.434		0.439		0.443		0.445	
$N$		455		455		441		441	

Table 4: Panel Data Regressions:  $TQ$

The table displays the results from fixed effects regressions and between effects regressions, where the dependent variable is the logarithm of Tobin's Q. The explanatory variables are:  $FA$ , the average of the share of revenues and the share of costs that are denominated in foreign currency;  $NE$ , the difference between the share of revenues and the share of costs that are denominated in foreign currency;  $H$ , a dummy that is set to 1 for firms that hedge;  $TRTL$ , a dummy that is set to 1 for firms that hedge transaction exposure and translation exposure;  $TR$ , a dummy that is set to 1 for firms that hedge transaction exposure only;  $TL$ , a dummy that is set to 1 for firms that hedge translation exposure only;  $NH$ , a dummy that is set to 1 for firms that do not hedge;  $TLall$ , a dummy that is set to 1 for firms that hedge translation exposure;  $SIZE$ , the logarithm of total assets;  $LEV$ , the debt-to-equity ratio;  $LIQ$ , the current ratio;  $PROF$ , return on capital employed;  $GRO$ , invested capital during the year divided by total sales;  $DIV$ , a dummy that is set to 1 for firms that paid a dividend during the current year.  $MULT$ , a dummy that is set to 1 for firms that are diversified; Observations are for years 1997-2001. The fixed effects regressions include four year dummies. The between effects regressions are estimated using WLS, and includes four year dummies and ten industry dummies.  $p$ -values are reported in parentheses.

	Fixed Effects ( $fe$ ) Models				Between Effects ( $be$ ) Models			
	$fe(a)$		$fe(b)$		$be(a)$		$be(b)$	
	coef	p-value	coef	p-value	coef	p-value	coef	p-value
Intercept	2.153	(0.000)	2.293	(0.000)	0.429	(0.048)	0.583	(0.015)
$FA$	0.002	(0.294)	0.002	(0.425)	0.001	(0.365)	0.002	(0.301)
$NE$	0.001	(0.708)	0.000	(0.979)	0.004	(0.018)	0.004	(0.013)
$H$	0.137	(0.125)			0.138	(0.150)		
$NH$			0.112	(0.253)			0.143	(0.142)
$TLall$			0.025	(0.698)			0.090	(0.373)
$SIZE$	0.257	(0.000)	0.256	(0.000)	0.049	(0.050)	0.042	(0.116)
$LIQ$	0.016	(0.068)	0.015	(0.082)	0.007	(0.660)	0.002	(0.899)
$LEV$	0.022	(0.415)	0.024	(0.371)	0.040	(0.117)	0.041	(0.109)
$PROF$	0.002	(0.003)	0.002	(0.005)	0.004	(0.000)	0.004	(0.000)
$GRO$	0.001	(0.671)	0.001	(0.665)	0.004	(0.066)	0.006	(0.077)
$DIV$	0.173	(0.069)	0.193	(0.057)	0.059	(0.536)	0.062	(0.585)
$MULT$					0.086	(0.280)	0.097	(0.233)
$adjR^2$	0.237		0.244		0.533		0.542	
No. of Firms	177		170		177		170	
No. of obs	405				405			

Table 5: Cross-sectional Regressions: Reversed Causality

The table displays the results from cross-sectional OLS regressions, where the dependent variable is the logarithm of Tobin's Q, measured at the end of each period. The explanatory variables are: *FA*, the average of the percentage of revenues and costs that are denominated in foreign currency; *NE*, the difference between the percentage of revenues and costs that are denominated in foreign currency; *NN<sup>H</sup>*, a dummy that is set to 1 for firms that did not hedge in the current period and did not hedge in the next period; *YN<sup>H</sup>*, a dummy that is set to 1 for firms that hedged in the current period but not in the next period; *NY<sup>H</sup>*, a dummy that is set to 1 for firms that did not hedge in the current period but hedged in the next period; *NN<sup>TR</sup>*, *YN<sup>TR</sup>*, *NY<sup>TR</sup>*, dummies representing hedging of transaction exposure with explanations as for hedgers; *SIZE*, the logarithm of total assets; *LEV*, the debt-to-equity ratio; *LIQ*, the current ratio; *PROF*, return on capital employed; *GRO*, invested capital during the year divided by total sales; *DIV*, a dummy that is set to 1 for firms that paid a dividend during the current year. *MULT*, a dummy that is set to 1 for firms that are diversified; Observations are for years 1997-2001. In all regressions three year and ten industry dummy variables are included. Reported *p*-values are for Newey-West (1987) adjusted standard errors.

Model	No. of obs	(a)		(b)	
		coef	<i>p</i> -value	coef	<i>p</i> -value
Intercept		0.953	(0.000)	0.909	(0.001)
<i>FA</i>		0.000	(0.922)	0.000	(0.834)
<i>NE</i>		0.005	(0.001)	0.006	(0.002)
<i>NN<sup>H</sup></i>	127	0.202	(0.040)		
<i>YN<sup>H</sup></i>	6	0.476	(0.000)		
<i>NY<sup>H</sup></i>	11	0.193	(0.358)		
<i>NN<sup>TR</sup></i>	117			0.225	(0.037)
<i>YN<sup>TR</sup></i>	9			0.302	(0.014)
<i>NY<sup>TR</sup></i>	9			0.066	(0.784)
<i>SIZE</i>		0.061	(0.037)	0.060	(0.041)
<i>LIQ</i>		0.003	(0.753)	0.004	(0.686)
<i>LEV</i>		0.063	(0.055)	0.078	(0.040)
<i>PROF</i>		0.004	(0.000)	0.004	(0.000)
<i>GRO</i>		0.003	(0.000)	0.004	(0.000)
<i>DIV</i>	202	0.050	(0.592)	0.032	(0.761)
<i>MULT</i>	71	0.113	(0.052)	0.114	(0.067)
<i>adjR</i> <sup>2</sup>		0.529		0.521	
<i>N</i>		283		265	
Wald tests ( <i>p</i> -values)					
<i>NN = NY</i>		0.965		0.510	
<i>NN = NY, YN = 0</i>		0.001		0.044	

Table 6: Cross-sectional Regressions:  $\Delta TQ$

The table displays the results from cross-sectional OLS regressions, where the dependent variable is the change in the logarithm of Tobin's  $Q$ ,  $TQ$ . The explanatory variables are:  $\Delta FA$ , the change in foreign activity;  $\Delta NE$ , the change in net exposure;  $NN^H$ , a dummy that is set to 1 for firms that did not hedge in the current period and not in the next period;  $YN^H$ , a dummy that is set to 1 for firms that hedged in the current period but not in the next period;  $NY^H$ , a dummy that is set to 1 for firms that did not hedge in the current period but hedged in the next period;  $NN^{TR}$ ,  $YN^{TR}$ , and  $NY^{TR}$ , dummies representing hedging of transaction exposure with explanations as for hedgers;  $\Delta SIZE$ , the change in the logarithm of total assets;  $\Delta PROF$ , the change in the return on capital employed;  $\Delta LEV$ , the change in the debt-to-equity ratio;  $\Delta LIQ$ , the change in the current ratio;  $\Delta GRO$ , the change in capital expenditures over sales;  $NN^{DIV}$ ,  $YN^{DIV}$ ,  $NY^{DIV}$ , dummies representing dividend payments with explanations as for hedgers and transaction exposure hedgers. Observations are for years 1997-2001. In all regressions a dummy for diversified firms, three year dummies and ten industry dummies are included. Reported  $p$ -values are for Newey-West (1987) corrected standard errors.

Model		(a)		(b)	
	No. obs	coef	$p$ -value	coef	$p$ -value
Intercept		-0.123	(0.015)	-0.181	(0.000)
$\Delta FA$		0.001	(0.787)	0.000	(0.932)
$\Delta NE$		0.001	(0.429)	0.001	(0.409)
$NN^H$	105	0.045	(0.439)		
$YN^H$	5	0.051	(0.582)		
$NY^H$	11	0.111	(0.263)		
$NN^{TR}$	93			0.050	(0.454)
$YN^{TR}$	7			0.013	(0.890)
$NY^{TR}$	8			0.047	(0.671)
$\Delta SIZE$		0.277	(0.020)	0.302	(0.015)
$\Delta LIQ$		0.009	(0.440)	0.008	(0.443)
$\Delta LEV$		0.028	(0.303)	0.027	(0.333)
$\Delta PROF$		0.002	(0.038)	0.002	(0.046)
$\Delta GRO$		0.000	(0.860)	0.000	(0.781)
$NN^{DIV}$	59	0.079	(0.365)	0.069	(0.449)
$YN^{DIV}$	10	0.237	(0.145)	0.258	(0.138)
$NY^{DIV}$	5	0.023	(0.784)	0.103	(0.207)
$adj R^2$		0.235		0.244	
$N$		238		221	
Wald tests ( $p$ -values)					
$NN = NY$		0.130		0.371	

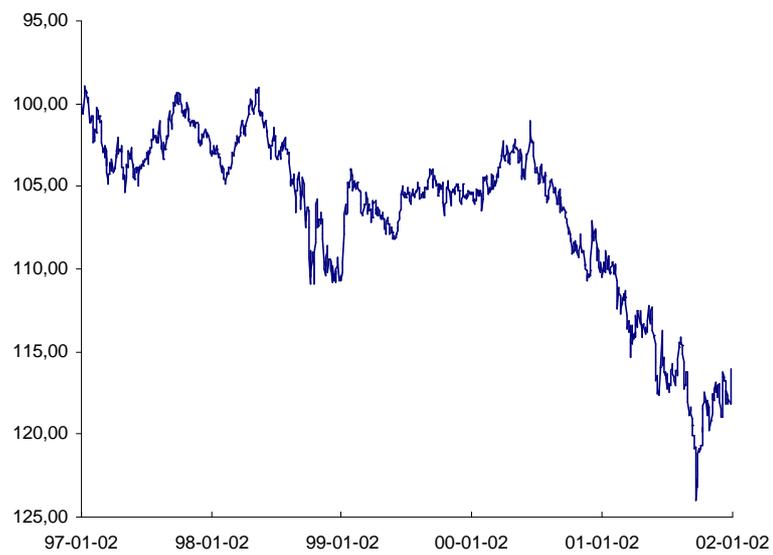


Figure 1: The Swedish TCW (Total Competitive Weights) Index for the period January 1997 until December 2002. Value on January 2, 1997 = 100 (inverted scale). The TCW index is the official trade weighted currency index provided by the Swedish central bank and is based on the IMF Total Competitive Weights.