

Reciprocity and Public Opposition to Foreign Direct Investment*

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Abstract: Prior International Political Economy (IPE) public opinion research has primarily examined how economic and socio-cultural factors shape individuals' views on the flows of goods, people, and capital. What has largely been ignored is whether individuals also care about rewarding or punishing foreign countries for their policies on these subjects. To test this possibility, we administered a series of conjoint and traditional survey experiments in the United States and China that examined how reciprocity influences opposition to foreign acquisitions of domestic companies. We find that reciprocity is an important determinant of public opinion on the regulation of foreign investments. This suggests the need to consider the policies that other countries adopt when trying to explain public attitudes towards global economic integration.

Key Words: International Political Economy; Foreign Direct Investment; Mergers & Acquisitions; Reciprocity; Public Opinion; Survey Experiments

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1. INTRODUCTION

In 2016, populist movements swept across the globe. Most prominently, the United Kingdom voted to leave the European Union and the United States elected Donald Trump president. Although there are certainly many reasons for these results, the success of these populist campaigns have been seen, at least in part, as a rejection of global economic integration. One argument that was repeatedly used as a justification for rejecting integration is that other countries are behaving unfairly, and, as a result, that new restrictions are needed on the flows of people, goods, and capital (see, e.g., Beinhocker 2016). For example, Donald Trump repeatedly argued on the campaign trail that retaliations against China are needed because its trade and investment practices are unfair. In other words, Trump not only tried to appeal to voters by arguing that new restrictions on trade and investments from China may improve their economic prospects, but also that reciprocity requires them.

Although a growing body of international political economy (IPE) scholarship has studied why individuals form preferences towards trade, immigration, and international investment, this literature has largely ignored whether the policies other countries adopt influence individual attitudes. Instead, this literature has primarily examined how economic and socio-cultural factors affect public opinion (Hellwig 2014, at 2-3). For example, one line of this scholarship has found that economic factors—like an individual’s skill set, sector of employment, or asset holdings—are often highly correlated with views on trade and immigration (Rho & Tomz 2016; Scheve & Slaughter 2001a; Scheve & Slaughter 2001b). Another line of this scholarship has found that socio-cultural factors—like nationalism, out group resentment, and cosmopolitanism—are also highly correlated with views on these topics (Citrin et al. 1997; Margalit 2012; Lu, Scheve, & Slaughter 2012; Mansfield & Mutz 2009). Little research, however, has examined the extent to which the desire for reciprocity influences views on IPE (but see Jensen & Shin 2014; Bechtel & Scheve 2013).

In this paper, we provide evidence that reciprocity is an important determinant of public opinion in one area of international political economy: the regulation of foreign direct investment (FDI). In this area, reciprocity is the idea that policy makers can encourage other countries to open their markets to investments by permitting or restricting FDI. This concept is well understood by government officials. For example,

former Secretary of Commerce Elliot Richards has explained that the reason it is important for the United States to welcome FDI is that “[i]t is patently impossible to open doors for American business abroad while we slam shut the doors to foreign business in our own country” (Richards 1989). Not only are government officials aware of the importance of reciprocity, it has driven the adoption of U.S. policies on FDI: the United States’ process for regulating foreign investment emerged from concerns about the influx of FDI from Japan at a time when it maintained policies that denied reciprocal market access (Milhaupt 2008; Kang 1997; Prestowitz 1988).

But despite the ample evidence that reciprocity has been a major driver of FDI policy in the United States and other countries, it has not received much theoretical attention from IPE scholarship. Over the last two decades, a growing body of IPE research has sought to understand why countries regulate FDI (for a review, see Pandya 2016, at 459-60). Given that a major finding of that literature is that regulations on inward FDI are based on domestic political considerations, it is not surprising that a related line of scholarship has emerged studying the determinants of public support for inward FDI flows (Linsi 2016; Zhu 2015; Jensen & Lindstädt 2013; Pandya 2014b, 2010; Kaya & Walker 2012; Scheve & Slaughter 2004). These studies have focused, however, on using public opinion data and surveys to evaluate how skills and economic position influence individual support for inward foreign investment.

To our knowledge, scholars have not yet evaluated whether reciprocity influences public support for restrictions on FDI flows. But there are good reasons to believe that it would. For one, foundational research in international relations has long theorized that reciprocity can play an important role in international affairs as a way of inducing cooperative behavior (e.g. Axelrod 1984; Keohane 1984). This logic may lead individuals to think reciprocity is important to ensuring that foreign governments provide access to their markets. Alternatively, recent research has shown that reciprocity can be an important driver of individual foreign policy preference (Kertzer & Rathbun 2015; Kertzer et al. 2014; Brewer et al. 2004). This research has built, in part, on findings from psychology and behavioral economics that individuals care deeply about fairness, and thus are likely to respond positively to others that behave cooperatively and to punish others that behave unfairly. This suggests that an important driver of individual support

for foreign investments may be whether the potential investments are from countries that allow reciprocal investments. In other words, people might not just care about how the investment could affect their economic or physical security, but also whether they think allowing it is fair.

In order to evaluate the effect of reciprocity on public opinion toward inward FDI, we fielded a series of survey experiments in the United States and China. We fielded two experiments to a nationally representative sample of 2,010 adults in the United States and a stratified sample of 1,659 adults in China, and we fielded a third follow-up experiment to a sample of 838 respondents recruited through Amazon's Mechanical Turk service. Our primary experiment used a conjoint design that allowed us to directly compare the relative influence of reciprocity and a number of factors previously theorized as driving opposition to foreign investments. This experiment asked respondents whether the government should block a series of hypothetical acquisitions of domestic firms by foreign companies. Our second and third experiments focused on positive and negative reciprocity by asking respondents how they thought their government should respond to one of several changes that a foreign country could make to its inward investment policies.

The results of these experiments suggest that reciprocity is an important determinant of public opinion on the regulation of foreign investments. In both the United States and China, respondents were consistently more likely to oppose foreign acquisitions when the foreign firm's home country did not provide reciprocal market access. More specifically, in our conjoint experiment, American respondents were 16 percentage points—and Chinese respondents were 19 percentage points—more likely to oppose a potential acquisition when the foreign firm's home country prohibited market access. We also found suggestive evidence that respondents may be more supportive of punishing negative reciprocity than they were of rewarding positive reciprocity.

2. BACKGROUND

2.1. Reciprocity & the Regulation of FDI

China has recently made the importance of reciprocity to FDI policy a salient issue. Despite being one of the largest sources of outward FDI (Saucant & Nolan 2015), China heavily restricts inward FDI. In fact, data compiled by the OECD suggests that China has more restrictions on inward FDI than any OECD or BRIC country.¹ This lack of reciprocity in FDI policy has emerged as a major source of friction between China and other countries. A 2016 Brookings Institute report even argued that the “lack of reciprocity between China’s investment openness and the U.S. system is the most worrisome of the trends” in investment between the two countries (Dollar 2016, at 18).

This concern over a lack of reciprocity is not new—China simply provides the most recent example of this phenomenon. Concerns over reciprocity have long been identified as a major driver of investment policy in the United States and other countries.² For example, the restrictions that the United States places on foreign investments were developed in the 1980s in response to apprehensions over the rise of investment from Japan when it was not open to reciprocal investments from America (Kang 1997; Prestowitz 1988). As one scholar wrote, “the largest underlying cause of friction over Japanese FDI in the 1980s was the perception that, while the U.S. was wide open to Japanese investment and imports, U.S. firms faced substantial barriers to investment and trade in Japan” (Milhaupt 2008).

There have even been proposals to base U.S. investment policies explicitly on the principle of reciprocity. For example, Prestowitz (1988) argued that the U.S. should restructure its regulations of foreign investments so that foreign firms are only given the access and protections that the firm’s home country provides to American firms. A bill

¹ This data is available at <<http://www.oecd.org/investment/fdiindex.htm>> (last visited May 25, 2016).

² Although we focus on the United States, reciprocity is also an important driver of investment policies in other countries. For example, during the takeover of the British candy company Rowntree by the Swiss company Nestle in 1988, there was a debate in the House of Commons on the significance of the lack of reciprocity that Switzerland provided to investors from the UK <http://hansard.millbanksystems.com/commons/1988/jun/08/rowntreepc#column_850> (last visited May 25, 2016).

enshrining this proposal has even been repeatedly introduced into the United States Congress,³ and in some industries U.S. policy has explicitly incorporated reciprocity measures (Graham & Krugman 1995, at 123).

2.2. IPE Scholarship on the Regulation of FDI

Despite the evidence that reciprocity has a major influence on the regulation of FDI, it has not been a major topic of IPE research. Over the last two decades, a growing body of scholarship has examined the regulations that countries place on FDI flows (Owen 2015, 2013; Tingley et al. 2015; Jensen et al. 2014; Pandya 2014a, 2014b, 2010; Meunier 2014; Pinto 2013; Crystal 2009, 2003, 1998; Pinto & Pinto 2008; Graham & Marchick 2006; Li & Resnick 2003; Kang 1997; Ghraham & Krugman 1995). More specifically, this literature has studied why countries either adopt policies to encourage inward FDI flows—like providing tax holidays—or policies to restrict inward FDI flows—like restricting foreign acquisitions of domestic firms.⁴

To answer this question, these papers have primarily examined the economic and non-economic factors that influence whether countries encourage or restrict inward FDI. For example, Pandya (2014a) argued that democracies adopt fewer restrictions on inward FDI because the general public is in favor of these policies due to their effect on wages. According to Pandya, autocratic regimes, on the other hand, are less willing to liberalize because they are more responsive to the preferences of local firms that want to prevent competitors from entering their market. In related research, Owen (2015, 2013) argues that members of labor unions opposed to inward FDI use their political power to block it in their industry. To support this argument, Owen presents evidence from 19 developed countries suggesting that high union density is associated with greater

³ See *Investment Policy Must be based on Reciprocity*, March 12, 1991 (Statement of Tom Campbell, member of Congress from California).

⁴ It is worth noting that there is a great deal of FDI research on other topics, including: the factors that make countries more likely to receive increased FDI flows (e.g. Pandya 2010; Bütthe & Milner 2008); the role that political institutions play in attracting FDI (e.g. Li & Resnick 2003; Jensen 2003, 2008); and the effects that FDI has on economic growth and development (e.g. Bornschier, Chase-Dunn, & Rubinson 1978; Jackman 1982; Aitken & Harrison 1999).

restrictions on inward FDI. Other studies have examined whether restrictions on inward FDI are based on security considerations. Graham & Marchick (2006), for example, reviewed controversial attempts by foreign firms to acquire American companies. They concluded that, although opposition was often framed around national security concerns, economic concerns were primarily behind efforts to block the acquisitions.

These studies have primarily used observational data, but a few studies have examined the determinants of individual attitudes towards FDI.⁵ For instance, Scheve & Slaughter (2004) found that British workers felt lower job security in high FDI industries. In another study, Pandya (2010) used public opinion data from 18 Latin American countries to show that individual preferences towards FDI are a function of its distributional effects on income. Relatedly, Kaya & Walker (2012) analyzed public opinion data from 32 countries and found that characteristics like higher education and private sector employment are associated with respondents being less likely to think that large multinational corporations hurt local business. Additionally, two recent working papers use survey experiments to explore attitudes towards FDI. Jensen & Lindstädt (2013) conducted surveys in the United States and the United Kingdom to examine public support for FDI. They found, among other things, that the country that the foreign investment is from is a major determinant of opposition. Additionally, Zhu (2015) found that Chinese attitudes towards investment in high-skilled and low-skilled sectors differ, and that individual characteristics are an important predictor of attitudes towards both of these types of FDI.

Although this body of literature has gone a long way to explaining why countries may either encourage or restrict FDI, only a handful of papers have even considered how reciprocity influences FDI policies. For example, Crystal (1998) argued that one reason American firms have not lobbied hard for the U.S. government to restrict FDI flows is that these firms profit from other governments not restricting inward investments. Additionally, Tingley et al. (2015) found that one factor that predicts which attempted acquisitions of American companies by Chinese firms produce political opposition is whether China has restrictions on investments in the same industries.

⁵ For review of this literature, see Pandya (2016, at 458).

2.3. Why Reciprocity May Influence Public Opinion on FDI

Although reciprocity has not played a major role in scholarship on the regulation of FDI, scholars have long understood that reciprocity plays an important role in international relations generally (e.g. Kormenos, Lipson, & Snidal 2001; Goldstein & Pevehouse 1997; van Wyk & Radloff 1993; Dixon 1986; Keohane 1984; Axelrod 1984; Ward 1981; Richardson, Kegley, & Agnew 1981). Perhaps most notably, Robert Keohane (1986, at 27) argued that reciprocity is a fundamental concept for explaining state behavior because it can allow “cooperation to emerge in a situation of anarchy.” The basic reason is that, even without hierarchical power structures, states can influence the actions of other states by reciprocally punishing or rewarding them.

Reciprocity has not only been used to explain international relations generally, but also to explain a number of specific areas of IR. For instance, reciprocity is a critical part of international trade policy (Bagwell & Staiger 2002). Indeed, scholars have argued that reciprocity has driven U.S. trade policy since WWII (Gilligan 1997). Additionally, research has shown that reciprocity plays an important role in security policy (Goldstein et al. 2001; Moore & Lanoue 2003). As one example, Goldstein & Freeman (1990) have argued that the interactions between the United States, the Soviet Union, and China during the Cold War can be best explained by strategic reciprocity. In another example, Morrow (2014) found that reciprocity largely explains compliance with the laws of war.

Scholars have only more recently begun to examine whether reciprocity might influence individual attitudes about international relations. Some research is motivated by standard rational choice accounts of reciprocity’s role in conditional cooperation (e.g., Tingley & Tomz, 2014). Other research has been built on findings from psychology and behavioral economics showing that individual behavior may deviate from the assumptions made by traditional rational choice models.⁶ One of these deviations is that, even when they have to forgo individual gains to do so, concerns over equality and fairness may lead individuals to reward or punish others for “pro-self” behavior. For example, individuals playing an ultimatum game in a lab may reject offers they view as unfair even though it means leaving money on the table (Rabin 2002). Moreover,

⁶ For a discussion of the relevant literature, see Kerzer & Rathbun (2015).

although this line of scholarship has suggested that people may forgo individual gains to reward altruistic behavior, “[t]here also seems to be an emerging consensus that the propensity to punish harmful behavior is stronger than the propensity to reward friendly behavior” (Fehr & Gächter 2000).

Drawing on these insights, a handful of papers have tested whether concerns about reciprocity influence preferences over foreign policy (Kertzer & Rathbun 2015; Chilton 2015; Kertzer et al. 2014; Tingley & Tomz 2014; Bechtel & Scheve 2013; Brewer et al. 2004). For example, Kertzer et al. (2014) studied how moral sentiments influence views about foreign policy and found that beliefs about fairness and reciprocity are a particularly important predictor of attitudes towards international relations generally. Similarly, Kertzer & Fathburn (2015) found that concerns over fairness influence how participants in the lab behave in scenarios developed based on bargaining situations central to IR theory. Additionally, Tingley & Tomz (2014) and Bechtel & Scheve (2013) found that reciprocity could affect attitudes towards climate change policy, and Chilton (2015) found evidence indicating that reciprocity influences public support for complying with international legal obligations during the interstate conflicts.

To our knowledge, previous public opinion research on individual support for investment flows has not directly tested whether the general public is concerned about reciprocity. The recent research on the role of reciprocity on foreign policy preferences, however, suggests that the policies other countries adopt should directly influence whether individuals are supportive of allowing foreign investments. In other words, even though at least some research has suggested that outward FDI hurts domestic wages and employment prospects (Blomström, Fors & Lipsey 1997), concern for fairness should make individuals want punish countries that do not allow their countries’ firms to enter their markets. This research also suggests that the desire to punish foreign countries for denying market access should be stronger than the desire to reward foreign countries for opening their markets.

3. EMPIRICAL APPROACH

3.1. Research Method

For a combination of substantive and methodological reasons, we decided to use survey experiments to research the relationship between reciprocity and support for restrictions on FDI. The first substantive reason is the strong relationship between democratic regimes and FDI flows. Existing evidence suggests that democracies attract more inward FDI (Jensen 2003, 2008) and impose fewer restrictions on inward FDI (Pandya 2014a). Since this research suggests that democracies are responsive to the concerns of the electorate, understanding whether the public cares about reciprocity is important to understanding how reciprocity influences FDI policy. Second, the returns to investments made by foreign multinational corporations are affected by how the public perceives the firm's legitimacy (Kaya & Walker 2012). Understanding the sources of opposition to foreign investments is thus important to understanding investment patterns. Finally, despite the fact that a substantial body of research has examined public opinion on many international flows—like the flow of goods (e.g. Hainmueller & Hiscox 2006), foreign aid (e.g. Milner & Tingley 2013), and people across borders (e.g. Hainmueller & Hiscox 2010)—there has been comparatively little research on public opinion on FDI flows (but see Jensen & Lindstädt 2013). Using survey experiments allows us to help bring FDI flows into the discussion of public opinion on IPE more generally.

Additionally, there are two methodological reasons that survey experiments are an appealing way to study the relationship between reciprocity and support for restrictions on FDI. First, since reciprocity likely correlates strongly with other factors that drive opposition to FDI, it is difficult to isolate the effect of reciprocity on opposition to FDI using observational methods. For example, there has been opposition to the surge in inward FDI from China in the United States (Tingley et al. 2015) and in Europe (Meunier 2014), but that surge has happened at the same time that those economies experienced economic downturns. Using observational data, it is thus difficult to tell how much of the opposition is due to resentment that China heavily restricts inward FDI flows and how much is due to the perception that Chinese firms are

taking advantage of a weak economy.⁷ Using survey experiments, however, it is possible to estimate the effect of reciprocity on opposition to inward FDI flows by varying levels of reciprocal market access while holding other features of the transaction constant. Second, there are ways to design survey experiments—like the conjoint design we use—that make it possible to simultaneously test the effect of many treatments. Although our primary interest is the effect of reciprocity, as we will discuss in Part 3.3, there have been a number of other factors that have also been hypothesized as driving opposition to FDI (Jensen & Lindstädt 2013; Tingley et al. 2015). Our research design allows us to estimate the relative effect of reciprocity compared to other features of foreign investments that may drive political opposition.

There are, of course, limitations to using survey experiments to study the influence of reciprocity on public opinion. For example, if a survey experiment asks participants their reactions to foreign countries’ policies based on a reported static state of affairs (e.g. “country X has recently opened/restricted market access”), it may not accurately capture the temporal component of reciprocity. That is, in this case, reciprocity is about individual attitudes evolving in response to changes in policy over time, not reporting their current position after being informed of news. This may bias results from survey experiments towards finding an effect by failing to capture the ways that the evolution of policy over time may attenuate reactions. Additionally, survey experiments largely rely on stated preference research designs. Respondents may respond strongly in a survey, but not hold their view strongly enough to translate it into action.⁸

⁷ For instance, Jensen & Lindstädt (2013) found that public support for inward FDI was heavily influenced by what country a proposed investment came from (i.e. Americans were less supportive of investment from China than other countries). Experimental designs make it possible to further explore whether concerns about reciprocity partially explains this result.

⁸ It is worth noting that a body of scholarship has suggested that public opinion is an important driver of globalization policy (Scheve & Slaughter 2007; Kono 2008).

3.2. Case Selection

We focused on one type of foreign investment: Mergers & Acquisitions (M&As).⁹ This is in part because we believe focusing on a specific type of foreign investment is likely to generate more concrete views than simply asking respondents about attitudes toward foreign investments generally. Given our decision to focus on a specific type of investment, we chose to focus on M&As because we believe that they are more likely to generate political opposition. Moreover, prior observational research has examined factors that influence political opposition to M&As (Tingley et al. 2015), which thus provides us with alternative hypotheses to test.

We fielded our survey in the United States and China. We chose these countries for three reasons. First, the United States and China are the world’s two largest recipients of inward FDI (Feldman 2015). As a result, these are the two countries where it is arguably most important to understand opposition to foreign investment. Second, the United States is a democratic country that has relatively low barriers to foreign FDI, whereas China is an autocratic country that has relatively high barriers to foreign FDI. Since prior research has consistently found differences in openness to FDI between democratic and autocratic countries (Pandya 2016), examining the United States and China allows us to test whether our findings are consistent across both regime types. Third, since the United States and China have spent years negotiating a Bilateral Investment Treaty (BIT) that would increase the reciprocal protections afforded to foreign investors (Hao 2015), research on public opinion in these two countries has the potential to influence an important current policy debate.

3.3. Alternative Determinants of Support For FDI

Although our principle focus is on reciprocity, other factors may influence opposition to foreign acquisitions of domestic firms. As a result, we also tested other factors that have been shown to drive opposition to FDI.

⁹ There are two basic types of FDI: M&As and “Greenfield” investments. M&A investments acquire existing ventures, while Greenfield investments start new ones.

First, we examined the effect of the *Country* of origin of the foreign firm. Previous research has found that public attitudes towards a range of international economic activities change based on the foreign countries involved. For example, Jensen & Lindstädt (2013) found that American respondents' openness to foreign investments depended in part on the specific countries the investments were from. Relatedly, Strezhnev (2013) and Umaña, Brenauer, & Spilker (2015) both found that support for preferential trade agreements changed based on whether the country was a democracy or autocracy. Finally, Li & Vashchilko (2010) showed that bilateral FDI flows were affected by national security concerns. We thus tested whether opposition to foreign acquisitions of domestic companies changes based on whether the foreign firm was from China, Japan, or Saudi Arabia;¹⁰ whether a country is democratic or not; or whether a country is a security or economic threat.

Second, we examined the effect of the type of *Ownership* of the foreign firm. Previous research has suggested that American politicians are more likely to oppose foreign investments from state-owned enterprises (Tingley et al. 2015). This is perhaps because acquisition by state-owned enterprises are more likely to be viewed as negatively affecting economic or national security (Krugman 1994). As a result, we tested whether opposition towards foreign acquisitions of domestic companies changes based on whether the foreign firm was “privately owned” or “government owned.”

Third, we examined the effect of the domestic firm being in an industry that is sensitive for *National Security*. The primary way that a foreign acquisition of an American company can legally be blocked in the United States under the “CFIUS” process that regulates foreign investments is if the transaction poses a risk to national security (Zaring 2010). Moreover, previous research has shown that American politicians are more likely to oppose specific transactions when the target firm is in an industry that is important to national security (Tingley et al. 2015). We therefore tested whether opposition towards

¹⁰ These three countries were selected for two reasons. First, foreign acquisitions from these countries have generated opposition in the United States (Tingley et al. 2015). Second, attitudes toward these countries have previously been examined in research on foreign investment (Jensen & Lindstädt 2013).

foreign acquisitions of domestic companies changes based on whether the foreign firm was in an industry that posed a “low” or “high” risk to national security.

Fourth, we examined the effect of the *Firm Size* of the target firm. It would be reasonable to believe that opposition to foreign acquisitions would be higher for large firms with national profiles. This could be the case, for example, if those firms are seen as being more important for the country’s economic security or national identity. Relatedly, previous research has shown that American politicians are more likely to block specific transactions when the target firm has a value of over \$200 million (Tingley et al. 2015). We therefore tested whether opposition towards foreign acquisitions of domestic companies changes based on whether the target firm was a “small company based in your area” or a “large Fortune 500 Company.”

Finally, we examined the effect of the target firm’s industry being in *Economic Distress*. It has been previously theorized that opposition to foreign acquisitions of domestic firms is likely to be higher when the domestic firm has experienced an economic downturn relative to the rest of the country (Crystal 2003). Moreover, research has shown that American officials have blocked transactions when the targeted firms are experiencing economic distress and high rates of unemployment (Kang 1997; Tingley et al. 2015). We therefore tested whether opposition towards foreign acquisitions of domestic companies changes based on whether the target firm is in an industry that has “lower” or “higher” rates of unemployment than the national average.

4. PRIMARY EXPERIMENT

4.1. Subject Recruitment

Our Primary Experiment was conducted using an online survey administered to respondents recruited by Survey Sampling International (SSI). SSI conducts surveys for corporate and academic research in over 100 countries. We first administered our experiment to a sample of 2,010 adults from the United States that was nationally representative of the adult population of Americans based on gender, age, ethnicity, and census region. We subsequently administered our experiment to a sample of 1,659 adults

from China that was stratified to reflect the Chinese population's gender, age, and region. The surveys were administered two weeks apart in February 2015.¹¹

4.2. Survey Design

Our Primary Experiment used a conjoint design. Conjoint analysis is a marketing tool that has recently started to be used in political science (Hainmueller, Hopkins, & Yamamoto 2014). Conjoint analysis presents respondents with a profile or vignette where multiple attributes are randomly and independently varied. For example, respondents may be presented the biography of a hypothetical political candidate where characteristics like the candidate's age, gender, profession, political positions, and party identification are randomly varied. The respondents would be asked to evaluate several profiles or vignettes, and each time they would be presented with a different combination of attributes. This conjoint design would make it possible to then estimate the relative effect of each characteristic on the respondents' answers.

There are several advantages of conjoint analysis (Hainmueller, Hopkins, & Yamamoto 2014). First, conjoint analysis improves causal inference because it is possible to identify the effect of factors on individual preferences without making functional form assumptions. Second, conjoint analysis allows researchers the ability to test many different hypotheses in a single research design. Third, conjoint analysis enhances realism by asking respondents to evaluate choices with multiple pieces of information, instead of traditional designs that attempt to isolate preferences along a single dimension. Fourth, conjoint analysis asks respondents to register a single behavioral outcome—like supporting or opposing a given policy—which makes it possible to evaluate the relative explanatory power of multiple theories. Fifth, conjoint designs give respondents multiple reasons to justify any policy decision. Sixth, conjoint analysis is an excellent way to evaluate policy designs because it makes it possible to predict which components of various policies are likely to have the most support. Seventh, recent research has

¹¹ Parts 1 of the Supplementary Materials provide information on the subject recruitment and Part 2 reports the respondents' demographic characteristics.

suggested that the realistic properties of conjoint analysis result in high degrees of external validity (Hainmueller, Hangartner, & Yamamoto 2015).

Although conjoint analysis has been used to study a number of topics in IPE,¹² to our knowledge our experiment is the first to use a conjoint design to study the flow of capital. In our conjoint experiment, respondents were asked to evaluate transactions where a foreign firm is proposing to buy a domestic company.¹³ We randomly varied features of each transaction related to the hypotheses that we previously outlined. More concretely, respondents in the United States were presented with the following vignette:

Company A is a company based in **[Country Treatment]** that is **[Ownership Treatment]**. Company A is currently attempting to acquire an American company in an industry that is considered to pose a **[National Security Treatment]** risk to national security. The American company is a **[Firm Size Treatment]**. The American company is in an industry that is experiencing **[Economic Distress Treatment]** than the American economy overall. The country that Company A is based in currently has **[Reciprocity Treatment]** in the same industry.

The text for the six-bolded treatments was randomly and independently varied. The options for each of the six treatments are presented in Table 1. In total, by randomly varying all of the options in Table 1, respondents in the United States were asked to evaluate 576 different company profiles.

After reading about the potential transaction, the respondents were asked whether their government should prevent the proposed acquisition. The respondents were only given two options to register their opinion: yes or no. By doing so, we used a ratings-based conjoint design (see, e.g., Huff & Kertzer 2017) as opposed to a choice-based conjoint design (see, e.g., Hainmueller & Hopkins 2015). The respondents were

¹² For example, conjoint experiments have been used to study the factors that determine individual preferences on potential trade agreements (Strezhnez 2013; Umaña, Bernhauer, & Spilker 2015); the determinants of support for expanding immigration (Hainmueller & Hopkins 2015); the types of countries that people prefer to send foreign aid to (Hansen et al. 2014); and support for global climate change agreements (Bechtel & Scheve 2013).

¹³ Part 3 of the Supplementary Materials presents the wording of the conjoint experiment that we fielded to respondents in the United States and China.

then asked to evaluate four more potential transactions, but each one presented the respondents with a different random set of treatments.¹⁴

There are four features of the vignettes used in our conjoint experiment worth discussing. First, although some conjoint designs vary the order in which the treatments are presented, our design always presented the treatments in the same order. This design has the advantage of allowing the vignette to take the form of a realistic paragraph and is consistent with several other recent papers that have used vignettes in conjunction with a conjoint design (e.g. Huff & Kertzer 2017; Carnes & Lupu 2016; Hainmueller, Hangartner, & Yamamoto 2015). It does, however, introduce an additional assumption into our research design: that the order of the attributes does not affect the results. It is thus possible that the ordering of the treatment biases our results and limits our ability to comparatively evaluate the effects of treatments.

Second, the question we asked after the vignette was framed negatively (that is, should the government **block** the proposed transaction). We choose this formulation because it represents the policy choice that officials, at least in the United States, face. The U.S. default is that foreign acquisitions of American companies are allowed (Zaring 2010), but the CFIUS process allows the government to block transactions that pose a national security risk.¹⁵ The implication is that policy leaders are likely to be focused on when citizens want a transaction blocked, not when they want it approved. A concern with this decision is that the negative framing may prime respondents to be less supportive of the transactions. That said, we do not believe this causes a substantial problem for our research for two reasons: we are interested in relative treatments effects (not absolute levels of support for foreign transactions) and we conduct two additional experiments that use a neutral framing.

Third, although we varied six features of the transactions in the survey fielded in the United States, we were only able to vary four features of the transactions in the survey fielded in China. We intentionally designed the surveys to be comparable, but

¹⁴ Part 7 of the Supplementary Materials presents the results of our experiment when only analyzing the results of the first vignette that each respondent evaluated.

¹⁵ In practice, transactions may be blocked for other reasons but simply justified on national security grounds (Graham & Marchick 2006).

shortly before our survey launched in China we were denied legal approval to ask Chinese respondents questions that highlighted rivalries with foreign countries or national security concerns. Given this constraint, Chinese respondents were given an amended version of the vignette that did not contain the **Country Treatment** or the **National Security Treatment**.

Fourth, there are several aspects of the wording of our vignette that may bias or limit the generalizability of our results. For example, our **Country Treatment** included types of countries—e.g., a “democratic country”—as well as three specific countries where there has been specific hostility to foreign investments in the U.S.: China, Japan, and Saudi Arabia. We did not, however, include specific countries from which respondents may respond favorably to foreign investment. Our results thus do not allow us to say how respondents may have reacted to countries that may have been viewed more favorably. To put it another way, the “context” of our vignette likely moderates the effect of reciprocity, and since we only asked about reciprocity in specific contexts and not the universe of possible cases, broad generalizations from our findings may be inappropriate.

For our **National Security Treatment**, we varied whether the company is in an industry that “poses” a high or low risk to national security. This was because specific industries are subject to greater scrutiny during the CFIUS review process based on the industries’ relevance to national security. A more natural way to word this treatment, however, may have been how “relevant” the industry is to national security. This wording may thus have created confusion that biased the results for this treatment.

Finally, our **Firm Size Treatment** varied whether the company was either “a small company based in your area” or a “national Fortune 500 company.” Although it reduced the total number of treatments to combine the geographic reach and size of the company, confounding these variables makes it impossible to disentangle their effects.

4.3. Results

Figure 1 presents the result for the respondents in the United States.¹⁶ The dots are point estimates, and the lines are 95% confidence intervals, of the influence that each attribute has on the probability that respondents would support the government blocking a proposed foreign acquisition of an American company.¹⁷ The option listed first for each treatment are our baseline categories that serve as the benchmark for our estimates, and they thus do not have a point estimate or confidence interval. For example, the baseline for the Country Treatment is a “foreign country.” Figure 1 thus shows that when a firm is from “a country [that] is a security threat to the United States,” respondents are 11 percentage points more likely to support the government blocking the acquisition than when the firm is from a “foreign country.”

Figure 1 reveals that levels of reciprocal market access in the foreign firms’ home country have a substantial impact on support for blocking an acquisition. Compared to a baseline of there being no restrictions, opposition increases by 11 percentage points when the foreign firms’ home country has “a number of restrictions” on American firms acquiring their companies and by 16 percentage points when the home country has “an absolute prohibition” on American firms acquiring their companies. Interestingly, although market access restrictions substantially increased opposition, support only increased by 1 percentage point when the foreign firms’ home country had signed a treaty providing American companies the ability to acquire their companies.

Figure 1 also confirms prior research suggesting that the characteristics of the country of origin have a substantial effect on opposition to foreign investment (Jensen & Lindstädt 2013). Our results suggest that respondents are 11 percentage point more likely to oppose an acquisition by firms from countries that are security threats to the United

¹⁶ Part 6 of the Supplementary Materials presents all our results in tables.

¹⁷ The analysis of our conjoint experiment follows Hainmueller, Hopkins, & Yamamoto (2014). They demonstrate that, since the attributes are randomly assigned in a conjoint analysis, it is possible to compare the relative importance of a given attribute with another given attribute by comparing their means. This quantity of interest—known as the Average Marginal Component Effects (AMCEs)—can be non-parametrically identified when the attributes are independently randomized and the outcome of interest is binary. Both of those requirements are true of our experimental design.

States and 15 percentage points more likely to oppose an acquisition when the firm is from a country that is both a security and economic threat. Interestingly, firms that are from countries that are just economic threats—and not security threats—only increased opposition over the baseline by 4 percentage points. Additionally, support increases by 8 percentage points when the firm is from a democratic country and decreases by 4 percentage points when the foreign firm is from a non-democratic country.

In addition to testing types of countries, we also asked about three specific countries: China, Japan, and Saudi Arabia. As previously noted, we selected these countries because proposed acquisitions of American companies by firms from these countries have generated controversy in the United States, and these three countries have all been the subject of previous survey research. Respondents in our sample were 6 percentage points more likely to oppose an acquisition by firms from China, 4 percentage points less likely to oppose an acquisition by firms from Japan, and 5 percentage points more likely to oppose an acquisition by firms from Saudi Arabia being blocked. Our results are consistent with previous research suggesting that Americans are more opposed to investments from China and Saudi Arabia than generic “foreign countries”, but more receptive to investments from Japan (Jensen & Lindstädt 2013).

Figure 1 also suggests that the ownership of the foreign firm has minimal impact on support for blocking potential acquisitions. Opposition only increases by 1 percentage point when the foreign firm is government owned compared to privately owned firms. Unlike the ownership of the foreign firm, the national security risk of the industry being targeted had a large effect. More specifically, opposition increased by 17 percentage points when the targeted companies are in industries where the national security risk was high compared to industries where the national security risk was low.

In contrast to the large effect of the national security treatment, the two treatments that are proxies for the economic impact of the transaction had relatively small effects. Opposition only increased by 1 percentage points when the foreign firm targeted a company that is a national Fortune 500 company compared to small, local companies. Additionally, support increased by 2 percentage points when the foreign firm targeted a company that is in an industry with higher rates of unemployment compared to companies in industries with lower rates of unemployment than the national average.

Figure 2 presents the results from the respondents in China. For the reciprocity treatment, the Chinese respondents' reactions were comparable to the American respondents' reactions. For the Chinese respondents, opposition increased by 8 percentage points when the foreign firms' home country has "a number of restrictions" on Chinese firms acquiring their companies and by 19 percentage points when the home country has "an absolute prohibition" on Chinese firms acquiring their companies. As with the American respondents, opposition decreased by 5 percentage points when the foreign firms' home country had signed a treaty providing Chinese companies the ability to acquire their companies. These results indicate that reciprocity is a major concern for both American and Chinese respondents.

The results for the Ownership treatment were also similar to the American sample: whether the foreign firm was privately or government owned had little impact on levels of support. In contrast, the size of the firm being targeted did impact the levels of opposition. Opposition increased by 11 percentage points when the foreign firm targeted a company that is a large national company compared to a small, local company. Finally, the Chinese respondents' support increased by 7 percentage points when the foreign firm targeted a company that is in an industry with high rates of unemployment compared to companies in industries with low rates of unemployment.

5. ADDITIONAL EXPERIMENTS

5.1. Secondary Experiment: Effect of Changes in Foreign Governments' Policies

Our Primary Experiment revealed that reciprocity had a strong effect on public opposition to the acquisition of domestic firms. A complete lack of reciprocity increased opposition by 16 percentage points for American respondents and by 19 percentage points for Chinese respondents. However, the results also revealed that a positive reciprocal investment policy—signing a treaty to eliminate barriers—only increased support for acquisitions by 1 percentage point for American respondents and by 5 percentage points for Chinese respondents.

Because we were interested in the relationship between positive and negative reciprocity, our survey also included a Secondary Experiment focused solely on this

topic. The reason for including this experiment is that our conjoint analysis tested the importance of reciprocity on respondents' support for blocking a specific transaction involving a single firm, but we also wanted to measure the importance of reciprocity on levels of support for broader restrictions on foreign acquisitions. We also wanted to frame government decisions in an active way; that is, saying that the foreign government had recently increased (or decreased) restrictions on investment.

In the Secondary Experiment, respondents were told that their country is considering changing its policies on the purchase of domestic companies by foreign firms.¹⁸ The respondents were then told that a foreign country has recently made one of five changes in their policies towards acquisitions of their companies. Specifically, the respondents were randomly told that their government had made it either: (1) “much harder”, (2) “somewhat harder”, (3) “no change in its process”, (4) “somewhat easier”, or (5) “much easier” for U.S. (Chinese) companies to buy companies in their country. The respondents were then asked whether the United States (China) should make their policies harder or easier for companies from that foreign country to acquire domestic companies in their country.

The top panel of Figure 3 presents the results for the American respondents and the bottom panel presents the results for the Chinese respondents. Each horizontal line represents a different level of restriction that respondents were told the foreign country had recently implemented. The x-axis places responses on a scale from whether respondents thought market access should be “much easier” (set at 0) or “much harder” (set at 1) for foreign companies to buy domestic companies. The dots represent the mean responses and the lines represent the 95% confidence intervals for each treatment.

For American respondents, changes in reciprocal market access had a significant impact on views about how open the United States should be to foreign investment. When a foreign country has made it much harder for American companies to acquire their domestic firms, the mean response was 0.77. On the other end of the spectrum, even when the foreign country has made it “somewhat easier” or “much easier” for American firms to acquire their companies, American respondents still were more

¹⁸ Part 4 of the Supplementary Materials provides the wording of this experiment.

supportive of restricting access than increasing it. Specifically, both treatments had mean responses of 0.60. Further, the deviation from the baseline of no change (0.65) was smaller in the case of positive changes versus negative changes, but the difference does not reach conventional levels of statistical significance ($p = 0.10$).

For Chinese respondents, changes in reciprocal market access also had a significant impact on views about how open China should be to foreign investment. The mean response was 0.69 when the foreign country made it “much harder” and 0.48 when the foreign country made it “much easier.” The deviation from the baseline of no change (0.56) was smaller in the case of positive changes versus negative changes, but the difference also does not reach conventional levels of statistical significance ($p = 0.19$).

There are two things worth noting about these results. First, these results provide some suggestive evidence that positive reciprocity may be less strong than negative reciprocity, but the results for both American and Chinese respondents failed to reach statistical significance at conventional levels. Second, for all five treatments, Chinese respondents were less supportive of increasing investment restrictions than the American respondents. This finding could be because of differences in our samples, Chinese respondents being more open to foreign investment than Americans generally, or respondents’ views being influenced by the fact that absolute levels of current restrictions are very different in the United States and China.

5.2. Follow-Up Experiment: Positive & Negative Reciprocity

The Secondary Experiment only informed respondents about recent changes in another country’s level of openness to foreign investments—it did not tell them about the other country’s absolute level of openness to foreign investments. It is thus possible that the results are driven by beliefs about absolute levels of market access. For example, if American respondents believed that U.S. investment policies were already dramatically more open than China’s, Americans may consequently not feel the need to make the United States more open to foreign investment in response to China opening its markets. In other words, beliefs about the absolute level of market access may influence willingness to punish negative policy changes or reward positive policy changes.

Given this concern, we conducted a Follow-Up Experiment designed to manipulate changes in market access and absolute levels of market access. The experiment was fielded in June 2015 to 838 respondents in the United States recruited through Amazon’s Mechanical Turk (mTurk) service. We elected to field our experiment through mTurk because it offers the practical advantage of being dramatically cheaper than recruiting respondents through traditional firms, but research has suggested that mTurk still produces reliable results (Berinsky, Huber, & Lenz 2012). It is because of these desirable properties that mTurk has been widely used by political scientists to recruit respondents generally (e.g. Huff & Kertzer 2017; Rho & Tomz 2016; Hainmueller, Hopkins, & Yamamoto 2014), and, as in our case, to recruit respondents for follow-ups experiments after having used traditional firms for primary experiments (e.g. Hainmueller & Hopkins 2015; Tomz & Weeks 2013). The trade-off is that mTurk samples are less likely to be representative of the general population than those recruited by traditional firms, which potentially limits the generalizability of the results.¹⁹

In our Follow-Up Experiment, respondents were told that “[o]n a scale of 0 to 10, where 0 is no restrictions and 10 is an absolute ban on foreign ownership, in the past, Country A has had a score of **[Past Score Treatment]** for the ability of U.S. companies to buy companies in Country A. Today this country is now a **[Present Score Treatment]**.”²⁰ For both the Past Score Treatment and Present Score Treatment, respondents were randomly told that the levels were 0, 3, or 6. We thus had nine total treatment conditions. We then told the respondents that the United States is currently a 3 on this scale and asked the respondents whether the United States should make it easier or harder for companies from Country A to buy American companies.²¹

¹⁹ For example, our mTurk sample is younger and more educated than our representative sample recruited by SSI. Parts 1 and 2 of the Supplementary Material information on the recruitment and demographic characteristics of our mTurk sample.

²⁰ Part 5 of the Supplementary Materials provide the wording of this experiment.

²¹ To alleviate the concern that this vignette may confuse respondents, we administered a comprehension quiz about the meaning of the scores to the respondents before they completed the experiment. Eighty-five percent answered correctly. We then provided an additional explanation to anyone that answered incorrectly. Part 8 of the Supplementary Materials presents the results of Figure 4 broken down by respondents that did and did not answer correctly.

Figure 4 presents the baseline results of this experiment. The horizontal axis runs from 0 (make much harder) to 1 (make much easier) and the vertical axis has each of the possible treatment conditions. Each condition first lists the Past Score and then the Present Score. For example, “3-6” means the respondents were told that the country previously had a score of “3” but now has a score of “6” (in other words, the country has increased restrictions on foreign investments).

There are several findings worth noting in Figure 4. First, when the other country was at the same level as the United States in both the past and present (“3-3”), the mean response was that the United States should not change its current policy. To be exact, the mean response for the “3-3” treatment was 0.49. Second, the respondents were most likely to be in favor of making it much easier for foreign firms to buy U.S. companies when the other country had the most open score (“0”) in the present treatment, and the respondents were most likely to be in favor of making it much harder for foreign firms to buy U.S. companies when the other country had the least open score (“6”) in the present treatment.

Although these results are informative, our goal with this experiment was to test the relationship between positive and negative reciprocity while simultaneously manipulating changes in market access and absolute levels of market access. Specifically, this experiment was designed to test the difference between positive and negative reciprocity by comparing responses for pairs of treatments that meet two criteria: (a) the size of movement between the past and present treatment are the same size; and (b) they are now equidistant from the United States position of “3”. There are four pairs of treatments that meet these criteria: (1) “0-0” & “6-6”; (2) “6-0” & “0-6”; (3) “3-0” & “3-6”; and (4) “6-3” & “0-3”. For example, when we compare “6-0” to “0-6”, both moved by “6” and both countries now have policies that are equidistant from “3”. If negative and positive reciprocity were equally strong, then these two treatments would produce an average response that was the same distance from the baseline treatment of “3-3.” If negative reciprocity has a larger effect, however, then “0-6” would have a treatment effect that is a greater distance from the baseline of “3-3” than “6-0”.

To formally test this, we calculated a set of differences utilizing the “3-3” treatment as a baseline. More specifically, we estimated a regression model with all the

treatment conditions as independent variables, clustered the standard errors by respondent, and then differenced the coefficients appropriately. This produces the “difference-in-absolute differences” between the four matched pairs, whereby a negative value indicates that negative reciprocity had a larger treatment effect and a positive value indicates that positive reciprocity had a larger treatment effect.

Figure 5 presents these results. Each line represents one of the four matched pairs. To read Figure 5, take the matched pair of “0-0” & “6-6” that is presented in the first line. The baseline “3-3” treatment had an average response of 0.49. The “0-0” treatment—which asked respondents to consider a country that was **more** open to foreign investments than the United States—had an average response of 0.45. The absolute value of the distance between the “0-0” treatment and the baseline “3-3” treatment was thus 0.04.

In contrast, the “6-6” treatment—which asked respondents to consider a country that was **less** open to foreign investments than the U.S.—had an average response of 0.58. The absolute value of the distance between the “6-6” treatment and the baseline “3-3” treatment was 0.09. When you subtract this value (0.09) from the value for its matched pair (0.04), the result is -0.05. This is the result reported in the first line of Figure 5. In other words, for this matched pair, there is a bigger effect for the negative reciprocity treatment than the positive reciprocity treatment. This difference, however, falls just short of statistical significance at the 0.05 level.

Figure 5 shows that for all four matched pairs, the effect of the negative reciprocity treatment is larger than the matched positive reciprocity treatment. The effect is statistically significant at the 0.05 level for two of the pairs and at the 0.1 level for three of the pairs. The effect is not statistically significant for the fourth pair (“6-3” to “0-3”). But it is worth noting that this is the only pair where the foreign country ends with the same policy as the United States (“3”), and perhaps unsurprisingly, the respondents simply answered that the United States should not change its policy. Taken together, these results provide evidence suggesting that respondents may support punishing other countries more for bad behavior than rewarding them for good behavior.

6. CONCLUSION

The results of our experiments suggest that reciprocity has an influence on opposition to foreign acquisitions of domestic companies. When a foreign firm's home country restricts investments from the respondents' country, the respondents were more likely to oppose potential transactions. This result is consistent with findings that fairness and reciprocity are important drivers of attitudes about foreign affairs generally (e.g. Kertzer & Rathbun 2015; Kertzer et al. 2014; Brewer et al. 2004), and findings that reciprocity is an important driver of public opinion about specific areas of international relations (e.g. Chilton 2015; Tingley & Tomz 2014).

We also found some suggestive evidence that positive reciprocity may be less strong than negative reciprocity. In other words, the public may want their government to block investments from countries that restrict FDI flows, but the public may be less likely to support making it easier for firms from countries with few restrictions to invest in their country. This finding, although inconclusive, is consistent with findings from experiments in psychology and economics about individual responses to negative and positive reciprocity (Fehr & Gächter 2000). It is also consistent with the fact that there have been calls in the United States to adopt restrictions on investments from countries that do not provide access to American firms, but there have not been parallel proposals to provide additional market access to countries that have fewer market restrictions than the United States (Graham & Krugman 1995, at 157).

Before continuing, it is important to acknowledge that although our experiments suggest that reciprocity has an influence on public opinion on FDI, they do not demonstrate why reciprocity might change opinion. As previously noted, it is possible that individuals care about reciprocity because they believe it will induce cooperative behavior from other countries, or that individuals care about reciprocity because believe they fairness norms are important. Relatedly, it may simply be the case that FDI is a "hard" issue for the public to process (Carmines & Stimson 1980), and reciprocity thus may be an appealing heuristic because it provides an intuitive answer to a hard question. Future research will be required to adjudicate between these possible explanations.

Additionally, there are several additional caveats to our results that should be noted. First, the effect of reciprocity on attitudes towards FDI may be particularly strong in the United States and China. In addition to being leading destinations for inward FDI, both countries are major sources of outward FDI. This may lead respondents to care more about reciprocal market access than respondents would in countries with less outward FDI. Second, we focused on M&As and not Greenfield investments. We choose M&As in part because we believed they would produce stronger reactions, so reciprocal access for other forms of FDI may produce less strong responses. Third, our survey experiments asked respondents for their opinions on individual transactions, and as a result they may not have fully captured the temporal aspects of reciprocity. Future research is needed to explain whether repeated FDI interactions may attenuate the effect of reciprocity, or lead to patterns of escalation or de-escalation. Fourth, although we found that reciprocity was an important determinant of opposition to proposed foreign investments, it does not mean that these views would necessarily drive changes in actual policy. By showing that reciprocity can change public opinion, our results provide evidence for one step in a possible causal chain—they do not prove every link.²²

With those caveats in mind, we believe that our results make an important contribution to our understanding of public opinion on both foreign investment and IPE more generally. Our results indicate that public attitudes change based on the policies that other countries adopt towards FDI. As previously noted, prior scholarship has focused on explaining attitudes towards IPE in economic and sociological terms while largely ignoring the importance that the public places on other countries' behavior (Hellwig 2014).²³ Our results suggest that there are limits to theories that try to explain attitudes towards global economic integration while focusing exclusively on the domestic consequences or individual respondents' characteristics. They also highlight the need for

²² As previously noted, there is research suggesting that public opinion is an important driver of globalization policy (Scheve & Slaughter 2007; Kono 2008). Of course, public opinion on FDI restrictions may be more likely to translate into policy changes in a democratic country like the United States than in an autocratic country like China. That said, although Chinese leaders do not have to respond to electoral concerns, research has suggested that mass opinion in China does influence the policies that the ruling coalition adopts (Weiss 2013).

²³ Of course, there are exceptions (e.g. Bechtel & Scheve 2013).

further inquiry. How much weight do individuals weighing foreign investments place on domestic consequences—like the effects on the economy or national security—compared to concerns like reciprocity? How does the preference for reciprocity translate into policy? Can policy instruments that try to ensure liberalization—like multilateral and bilateral treaties—help constrain countries? These are all questions we leave unanswered. But without answering them, it may be impossible to understand the wave of support for reversing global economic integration that is sweeping the globe.

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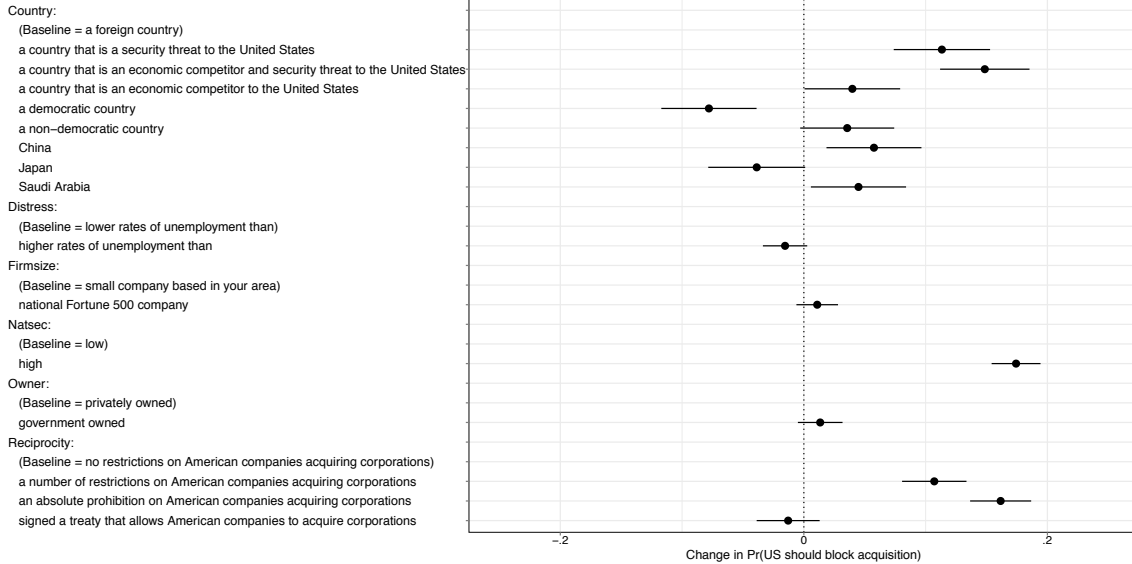
TABLES & FIGURES

Table 1: Treatment Options (as presented to U.S. respondents)

Treatment	Options
Ownership	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> • privately owned • government owned
Country (*)	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> • a foreign country • a country that is a security threat to the United States • a country that is an economic competitor and security threat to the United States • a country that is an economic competitor to the United States • a democratic country • a non-democratic country • China • Japan • Saudi Arabia
National Security (*)	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> • low • high
Firm Size	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> • small company based in your area • national Fortune 500 company
Economic Distress	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> • lower rates of unemployment • higher rates of unemployment
Reciprocity	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> • no restrictions on American companies acquiring corporations • a number of restrictions on American companies acquiring corporations • an absolute prohibition on American companies acquiring corporations • signed a treaty that allows American companies to acquire corporations

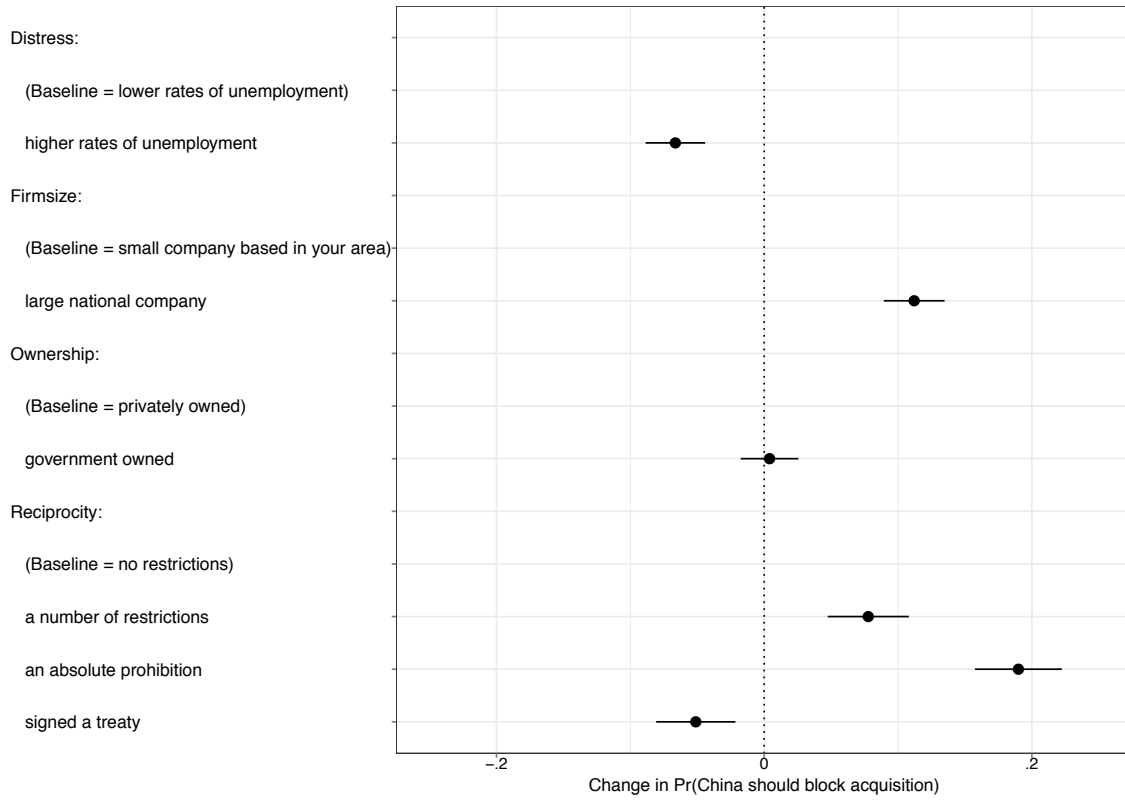
* Indicates that this treatment was not presented to respondents in China.

Figure 1: Primary Experiment Results – U.S. Respondents



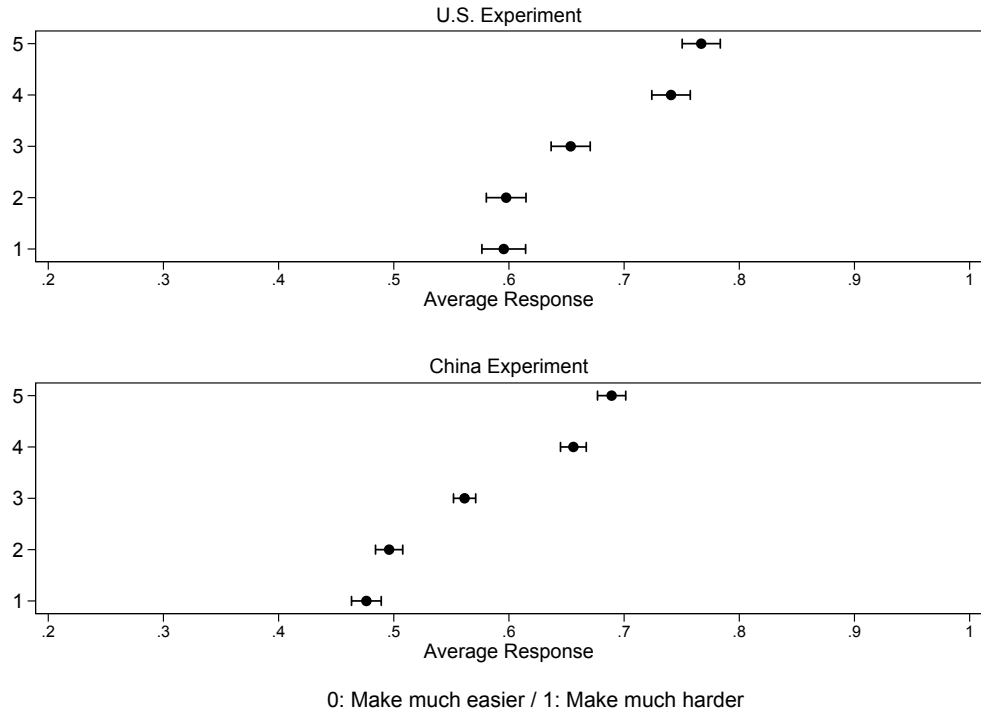
Note: Figure 1 plots the average marginal component effect relative to baseline conditions for each treatment condition. Standard errors clustered at individual level. Horizontal lines indicate 95% confidence intervals.

Figure 2: Primary Experiment Results – Chinese Respondents



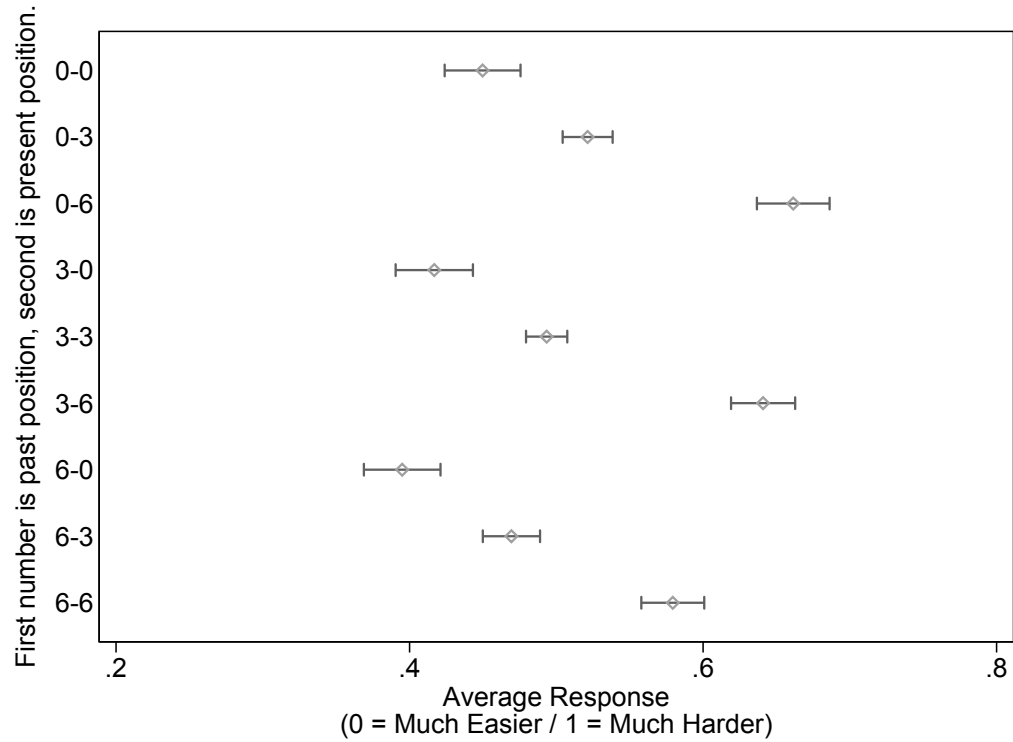
Note: Figure 2 plots the average marginal component effect relative to baseline conditions for each treatment condition. Standard errors clustered at individual level. Horizontal lines indicate 95% confidence intervals.

Figure 3: Secondary Experiment Results – U.S. & Chinese Respondents



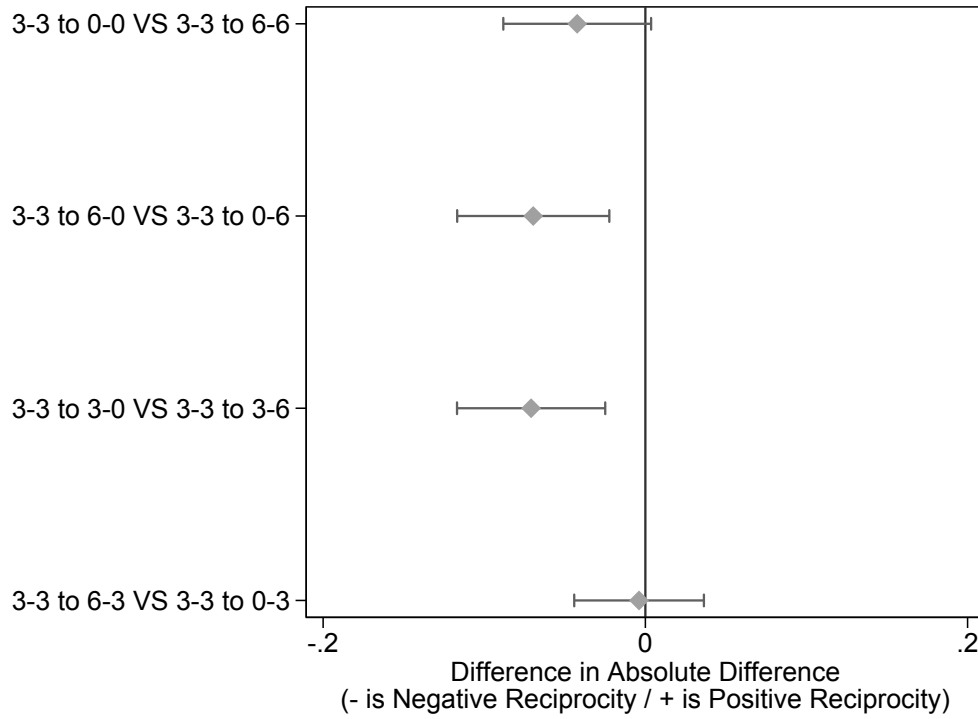
Note: Figure 3 plots answers to the reciprocity follow up experiment for US & Chinese respondents. Subjects told that a country has recently made some change to their policy (different horizontal lines) for how easy it is for a foreign firm to buy a domestic firm. What should the response of their own country be? Horizontal lines indicate 95% confidence intervals.

Figure 4: Follow-Up Experiment Results – Baseline



Note: Figure 4 plots the baseline results of the reciprocity follow-up experiment. Preferred US position (x-axis) versus other country past and present position (y-axis, 0 (no restrictions) to 10 (complete restrictions)). Horizontal lines indicate 95% confidence intervals.

Figure 5: Follow-Up Experiment Results – Negative vs. Positive Reciprocity



Note: Difference in absolute deviations from baseline position of country at 3-3. Positive values indicate that the magnitude of change was greater in responding to positive changes by a country (positive reciprocity larger). Negative values indicate that the magnitude of change was greater in responding to negative changes by a country (negative reciprocity larger).

Reciprocity and Public Opposition to Foreign Direct Investment

Supplementary Materials

These Supplementary Materials provide eight pieces of information. Part 1 provides additional information on the recruitment of subjects for our experiments. Part 2 provides the demographic characteristics of the respondents to whom we fielded our experiments. Part 3 provides the wording of the primary experiment that we fielded to respondents in the United States and China. Part 4 provides the wording of the secondary experiment on the effect of foreign governments changing their policies that we fielded to respondents in the United States and China. Part 5 provides the wording of the follow-up experiment on positive and negative reciprocity that we fielded to respondents recruited through Amazon's Mechanical Turk service. Part 6 provides results tables presenting the results from the figures in the paper. Part 7 provides the results for the conjoint experiments while just using the first profile that respondents were asked to evaluate. Part 8 provides the results of our Follow-Up experiment while breaking out respondents based on whether they passed a quiz to test their competence.

1. SUBJECT RECRUITMENT

Our Primary and Secondary Experiments were fielded online in February 2015 to subjects recruited by Survey Sampling International (SSI). SSI is a company based in Shelton, CT that recruits respondents in over 90 countries for survey research conducted by businesses and researchers. SSI employs opt-in recruitment methods to construct its panels of potential respondents. SSI then sends survey invitations to respondents based on the criteria selected by the business or researchers. More information on SSI's sampling procedures is available at: <https://www.surveysampling.com/site/assets/files/1069/esomar-28-questions.pdf> (last visited January 13, 2017).

SSI has been used to recruit samples for survey research by academics in a number of fields. For examples of recent political science research using samples recruited by SSI, see Adida, Davenport, & McClendon (2016); Chilton & Versteeg (2016); Kertzer and Brutger (2016); Ryan (2016); Sen (2016); Iyengar & Westwood (2015); Berinsky, Margolis, & Sances (2014); Duch, Przepiorka, & Stevenson (2014); Malhotra, Margalit, & Mo (2013); Malhotra & Margalit (2010); Kam (2012); Popp & Rudolph (2011); Healy, Malhotra, & Mo (2010); Barker, Hurwitz, & Nelson (2008).

We engaged SSI to distribute the U.S. version of our experiments to a sample of respondents in the United States that was nationally representative based on gender, age, ethnicity, and census region. We also engaged SSI to distribute the Chinese version of our experiments to a sample of respondents that was stratified to reflect Chinese populations' gender, age, and region. SSI specifically recruited 2,010 adults in the United States and 1,659 adults in China to take our experiments.

Our Follow-Up Experiment was fielded online in June 2015 to subjects recruited through Amazon's Mechanical Turk platform (mTurk). mTurk is an online platform where "requesters" (like academic researchers) can recruit "workers" to complete various tasks. Researchers interested in fielding surveys through mTurk post on this online platform a link to their survey, how long it will take, and how much the workers will be compensated for completing it. More information on mTurk is available at: <https://www.mturk.com/mturk/welcome> (last visited January 13, 2017).

mTurk has also been used to recruit samples for survey research by academics in a number of fields, and research suggests that the workers recruited through the platform perform well compared to respondents recruited through traditional methods (Huff & Tingely 2015; Berinsky, Huber, & Lenz 2012; Germine et al. 2012; Mason & Suri 2012; Paolacci, Chandler & Ipeirotis 2010). For examples of recent political science research using samples recruited by mTurk, see Rho & Tomz (2016); Chilton (2015); Hainmueller & Hopkins (2015); Chaudoin (2014); Hainmueller, Hopkins, & Yamamoto (2014), Tomz & Tingely (2014); Tomz & Weeks (2013); Arceneaux (2012); Huber, Hill, & Lenz. (2012).

We used mTurk to recruit 838 adults in the United States to complete our follow up experiment. Summary statistics of the demographic characteristics of our samples recruited by SSI and through mTurk are provided in the next section.

2. DEMOGRAPHIC CHARACTERISTICS OF OUR SAMPLES

	U.S. Sample		Chinese Sample		mTurk Sample	
	N	%	N	%	N	%
Gender						
Female	1,100	54.86	708	43.52	398	47.49
Male	905	45.14	919	56.48	440	52.51
Age						
18-24	174	8.68	251	15.43	85	10.14
25-34	373	18.60	399	24.52	369	44.03
35-44	361	18.00	483	29.69	201	23.99
45-54	379	18.90	324	19.91	102	12.17
55-64	349	17.41	142	8.73	61	7.28
65-74	298	14.86	22	1.35	18	2.15
75+	71	3.54	6	0.37	2	0.24
Education						
Less than high school	20	1.00	37	2.28	3	0.36
High school graduate	342	17.06	97	5.97	92	10.98
Vocational Training	90	4.49	418	25.71	25	2.98
Some College	589	29.38	108	6.64	271	32.34
College Degree	679	33.87	835	51.35	345	41.17
Graduate Degree	285	14.21	131	8.06	102	12.17

3. PRIMARY EXPERIMENT

3.1. U.S. Version

3.1.1. Intro

In the screens that follow we will be asking for your opinion about how the US government should respond to the actions of different companies. In each we will describe both the company and what that company is doing. It is important that for each set of questions you read through all the details, and give a response to each situation. Please read each situation carefully and give us your honest response. Each of the situations is hypothetical, but may reflect something that has or could happen.

3.1.2. Description

A foreign company is considering acquiring an American owned company that is based in the United States. Please carefully read the following description of the foreign company and the proposed transaction. After you have finished reading, please answer the questions at the bottom of the page.

3.1.3. Question

Company A is a [**Ownership Treatment**] company based in [**Country Treatment**]. Company A is currently attempting to acquire an American company in an industry that is considered to pose a [**National Security Treatment**] risk to national security. The American company is a [**Firm Size Treatment**]. The American company is in an industry that is experiencing [**Economic Distress Treatment**] than the American economy overall. The country that Company A is based in currently has [**Reciprocity Treatment**] in the same industry. In your opinion, should the United States government prevent the proposed transaction?

- Yes
- No

3.1.4. Treatment Options

Treatment	Options
Ownership	<ul style="list-style-type: none">• privately owned• government owned
Country	<ul style="list-style-type: none">• a foreign country• a country that is a security threat to the United States• a country that is an economic competitor and security threat to the United States• a country that is an economic competitor to the United States• a democratic country• a non-democratic country• China• Japan• Saudi Arabia
National Security	<ul style="list-style-type: none">• low• high
Firm Size	<ul style="list-style-type: none">• small company based in your area• national Fortune 500 company
Economic Distress	<ul style="list-style-type: none">• lower rates of unemployment• higher rates of unemployment
Reciprocity	<ul style="list-style-type: none">• no restrictions on American companies acquiring corporations• a number of restrictions on American companies acquiring corporations• an absolute prohibition on American companies acquiring corporations• signed a treaty that allows American companies to acquire corporations

3.2. Chinese Version

3.2.1. Intro

In the screens that follow we will be asking for your opinion about how the Chinese government should respond to the actions of different companies. In each we will describe both the company and what that company is doing.

In the screens that follow we will be asking for your opinion about how the Chinese government should respond to the actions of different companies. In each we will describe both the company and what that company is doing.

3.2.2. Description

A foreign company is considering acquiring a Chinese owned company that is based in China. Please carefully read the following description of the foreign company and the proposed transaction. After you have finished reading, please answer the questions at the bottom of the page.

3.2.3. Question

Company A is a [**Ownership Treatment**] company based in a foreign country. The Chinese company is a [**Firm Size Treatment**]. The Chinese company is in an industry that is experiencing [**Economic Distress Treatment**] than the Chinese economy overall. The country that Company A is based in currently has [**Reciprocity Treatment**] in the same industry. In your opinion, should the Chinese government prevent the proposed transaction?

- Yes
- No

3.2.4. Treatment Options

Treatment	Options
Ownership	<ul style="list-style-type: none">• privately owned• government owned
Firm Size	<ul style="list-style-type: none">• small company based in your area• national Fortune 500 company
Economic Distress	<ul style="list-style-type: none">• lower rates of unemployment• higher rates of unemployment
Reciprocity	<ul style="list-style-type: none">• no restrictions on American companies acquiring corporations• a number of restrictions on American companies acquiring corporations• an absolute prohibition on American companies acquiring corporations• signed a treaty that allows American companies to acquire corporations

4. SECONDARY EXPERIMENT: CHANGES IN FOREIGN GOVERNMENTS' POLICIES

4.1. U.S. Version

4.1.1. Question

The US is considering changing its policies on the purchase of US companies by foreign companies. Another country has [**Present Treatment**] for US companies to buy companies in their country. Should the US make it easier or harder for companies from this country to buy US companies? The US should:

- make it much harder
- make it somewhat harder
- make no change
- make it somewhat easier
- make it much easier

4.1.2. Treatments Options

- recently made it much harder
- recently made it somewhat harder
- made no changes in its process
- recently made it somewhat easier
- recently made it much easier

4.2 Chinese Version

4.2.1. Question

China is considering changing its policies on the purchase of Chinese companies by foreign companies. Another country has [**Treatments**] for Chinese companies to buy companies in their country. Should China make it easier or harder for companies from this country to buy Chinese companies? The China should:

- make it much harder
- make it somewhat harder
- make no change
- make it somewhat easier
- make it much easier

4.2.2. Treatment Options

- recently made it much harder
- recently made it somewhat harder
- made no changes in its process
- recently made it somewhat easier
- recently made it much easier

5. FOLLOW-UP EXPERIMENT: POSITIVE & NEGATIVE RECIPROCITY

5.1. Introduction

Next we are going to ask you about what the US should do in its relationship with other countries. It is important to pay attention to the description of each country prior to making your decision. We will describe each country's policies about how hard or easy it is for US companies to purchase companies in that country. To simplify things, we will use a scale of 0 to 10, where 0 is no restrictions and 10 is an absolute bans on foreign ownership. As context, the US is currently a 3 on this scale.

[Note that prior to beginning this task, subjects were asked comprehension questions to ensure they understood what the numeric scores meant.]

5.2. Question

First consider Country A. On a scale of 0 to 10, where 0 is no restrictions and 10 is an absolute ban on foreign ownership, in the past Country A has had a score of **[Past Treatment [0-10]]** for the ability of US companies to buy companies in Country A. Today this country is now a **[Present Treatment [0-10]]**. As context, the US is currently a 3 on this scale. Should the US make it easier or harder for companies from this country to buy US companies? The US should:

- make it much harder
- make it somewhat harder
- make no change
- make it somewhat easier
- make it much easier

5.3. Treatment Options

Past Treatments

- 0
- 3
- 6

Present Treatments

- 0
- 3
- 6

6. RESULTS TABLES

Figure 1: U.S. Conjoint Experimental Results

Treatment	Options	Estimate	Std. Err.
Ownership	Government Owned	0.013	0.009
	Security Threat	0.113	0.020***
Country	Econ. Comp. & Sec. Threat	0.149	0.019***
	Economic Competitor	0.040	0.020*
	Democratic Country	-0.078	0.020***
	Non-democratic Country	0.036	0.020
	China	0.058	0.020**
	Japan	-0.039	0.020
	Saudi Arabia	0.045	0.020*
National Security	High Risk	0.174	0.010***
Firm Size	A National Fortune 500 Company	0.011	0.009
Economic Distress	Higher Rates of Unemployment	-0.015	0.009
	A Number of Restrictions	0.107	0.013***
Reciprocity	An Absolute Prohibition	0.162	0.013***
	Signed a Treaty	-0.013	0.013

Figure 2: China Conjoint Experimental Results

Treatment	Options	Estimate	Std. Err.
Ownership	Government Owned	0.004	0.011
Firm Size	A National Fortune 500 Company	0.112	0.012***
Economic Distress	Higher Rates of Unemployment	-0.066	0.011***
	A Number of Restrictions	0.078	0.015***
Reciprocity	An Absolute Prohibition	0.190	0.017***
	Signed a Treaty	-0.051	0.015***

Figure 3: U.S. Respondents

Treatment	Mean	Std. Err.
Made Much Harder	0.767	0.008
Made Somewhat Harder	0.741	0.008
No Change	0.654	0.009
Made Somewhat Easier	0.598	0.009
Made Much Easier	0.596	0.010

Figure 3: Chinese Respondents

Treatment	Mean	Std. Err.
Made Much Harder	0.689	0.006
Made Somewhat Harder	0.656	0.006
No Change	0.561	0.005
Made Somewhat Easier	0.496	0.006
Made Much Easier	0.476	0.007

Figure 4: Reciprocity Follow Up Experiment

Past	Present	Mean	Std. Err.
0	0	0.450	0.013
0	3	0.521	0.009
0	6	0.661	0.013
3	0	0.417	0.013
3	3	0.493	0.007
3	6	0.641	0.011
6	0	0.395	0.013
6	3	0.496	0.010
6	6	0.579	0.011

Figure 5: Positive or Negative Reciprocity?

Positive Change	Negative Change	Mean	Std. Err.
3-3 to 0-0	3-3 to 6-6	-0.042	0.023
3-3 to 6-0	3-3 to 0-6	-0.070	0.024
3-3 to 3-0	3-3 to 3-6	-0.071	0.023
3-3 to 6-3	3-3 to 0-3	-0.004	0.021

7. CONJOINT RESULTS WHILE ONLY USING FIRST EVALUATIONS

For our conjoint experiments, the respondents were asked to evaluate five vignettes. The figures below recreate figures 1 and 2 while only using the first evaluations from each respondent.

Figure 1: First Evaluations Only

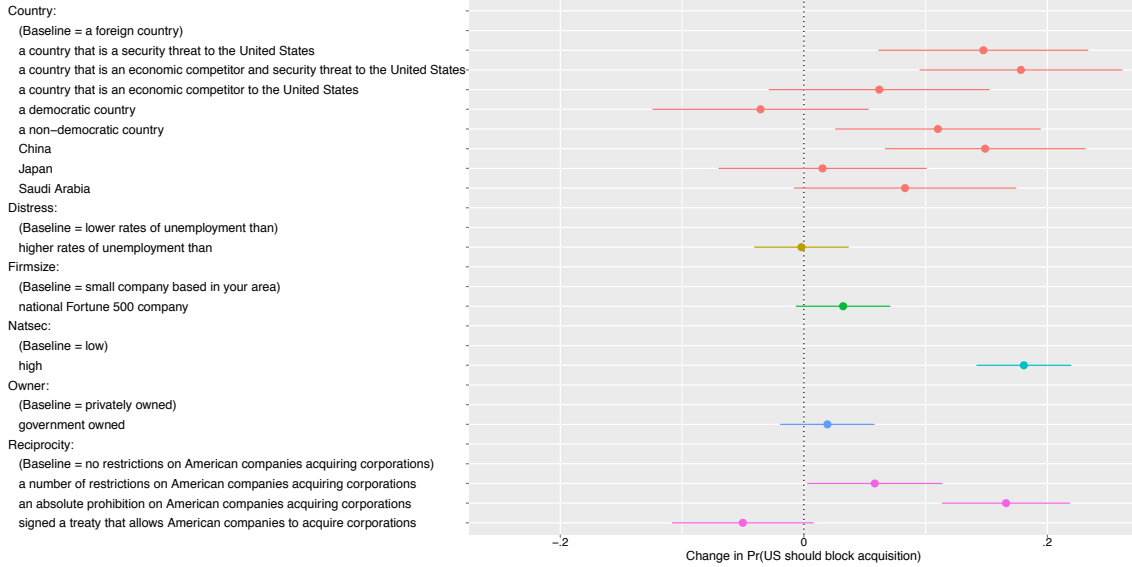
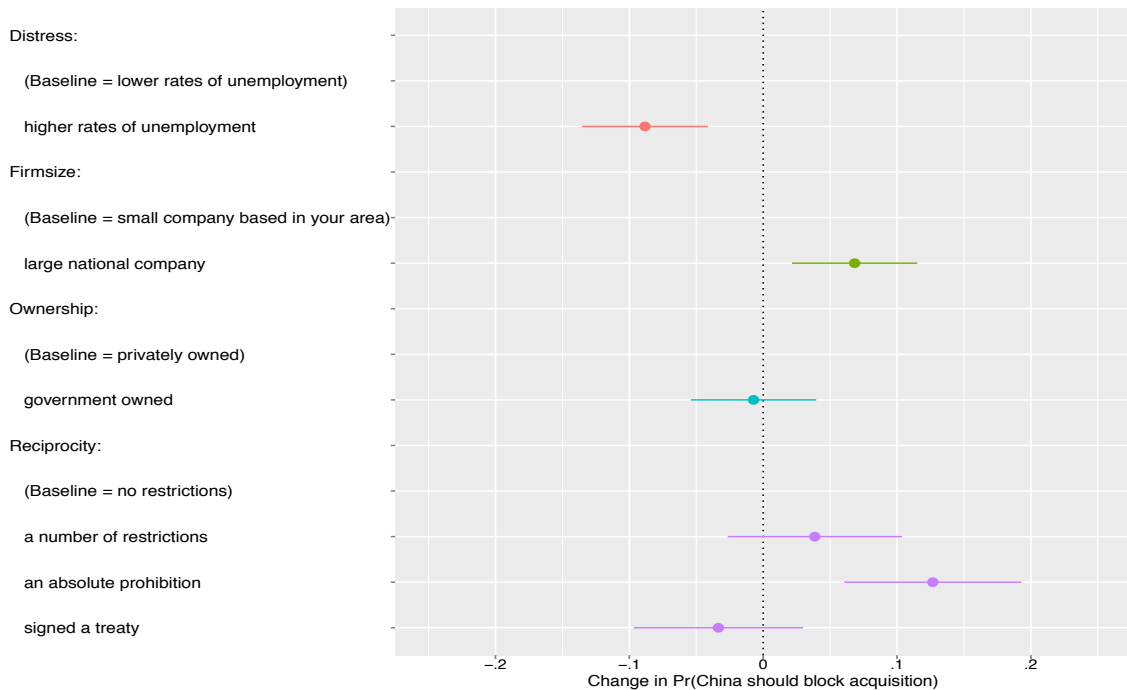


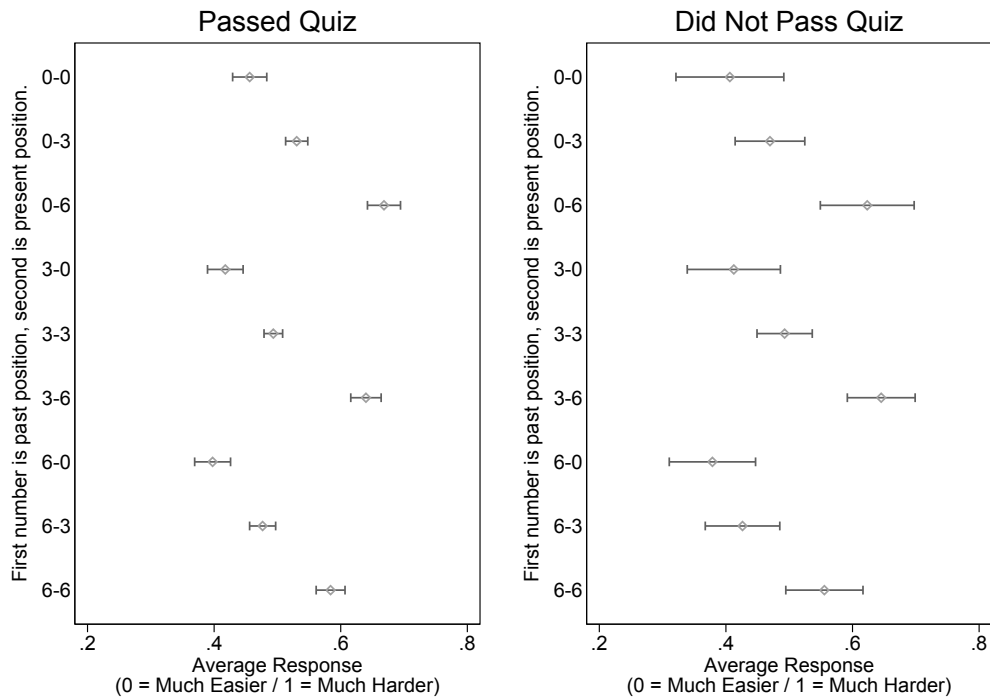
Figure 2: First Evaluations Only



8. PASSED QUIZ FOR THE FOLLOW-UP EXPERIMENT

To alleviate the concern that this vignette may confuse respondents, we administered a comprehension quiz about the meaning of the scores to the respondents before they completed the experiment. Eighty-five percent answered correctly. We then provided an additional explanation anyone that answered incorrectly. The Figure recreates Figure 4 from the paper while breaking out for the respondents that did and did not answer the quiz correctly.

Figure 4: Responses Broken Out by if Respondent Passed Quiz



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