

## Global Market and Local Creativities

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Date of Submission: 30-06-2020

Date of Acceptance: 15-07-2020

**ABSTRACT:** *This is a Program overview of the Erasmus Mundus joint master's degree. The program name is Global Market and Local Creativities. Specifically, in pathway B, I tried to elaborate on this 2-year program.*

*In this paper, you will get a reflection of what are you going to study in this subject. I read every subject course objective and according to this explanation, I collected information from a number of different resources.*

**Keywords:** Globalization, Globalization Dimension, Capitalism, Technology, Economy, Creative City, Emerging Sectors, Family Business, History of Marketing, Mass Consumption, Entrepreneurship, Sustainable Development, Environment, Trade, Human Resource Management.

### I. INTRODUCTION

Global Market and Local Creativities Program have 5 pathways for the virtues of background student. Almost 7 University under this program and it is first to start from Glasgow University for all pathway students. Here, Made this paper for Study track Pathway B. in this pathway B under three University Glasgow University (UK), Universitat DE Barcelona (Spain), Georg-August Universitat Gottingen (Germany).

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**What is Globalization?**

*Globalization is the spread of products, technology, information, and jobs across national borders and cultures. In economic terms, it describes an interdependence of nations around the globe fostered through free trade. On the upside, it can raise the standard of living in poor and less developed countries by providing job opportunities, modernization, and improved access to goods and services. On the downside, it can destroy job opportunities in more developed and high-wage countries as the production of goods moves across borders. Globalization's motives are idealistic, as well as opportunistic, but the development of a global free market has benefited large corporations based in the Western world. Its impact remains mixed for workers, cultures, and small businesses around the globe, in both developed and emerging nations. (source: INVESTOPEDIA)*

**Example of Globalization**

Garments, Car, Medicine, Telecommunication Manufacturing companies based on the USA, JAPAN, GERMANY they manufacture their products in several developing countries such as CHINA, INDIA, BANGLADESH, VIETNAM, ETHIOPIA. Developed countries are most benefited by globalization in the world. The 2<sup>nd</sup> is developing nations China and India. But there are many smaller newcomers IN-11,

Rwanda, Ethiopia, Philippines, Myanmar, Cambodia, Senegal. Because most countries' GDP growth rate is very good.

- Economic globalization: is the development of trade systems within transnational factors such as corporations or INGOs;

- Financial globalization: can be linked with the rise of a global financial system with international financial exchanges and monetary exchanges. Stock markets, for instance, are a great example of the financially connected global world since when one stock market has a decline, it affects other markets negatively as well as the economy as a whole.

- Cultural globalization: refers to the interpenetration of cultures which, as a consequence, means nations adopt principles, beliefs, and costumes of other nations, losing their unique culture to a unique, globalized supra-culture;

- Political globalization: the development and growing influence of international organizations such as the UN or WHO means governmental action takes place at an international level. Other bodies are operating at a global level such as INGOs like *Doctors Without Borders* or *Oxfam*;

- Sociological globalization: information moves almost in real-time, together with the interconnection and interdependence of events and their consequences. People move all the time too, mixing and integrating different societies;

- Technological globalization: the phenomenon by which millions of people have interconnected thanks to the power of the digital world via platforms such as Facebook, Instagram, Skype, or YouTube.

- Geographic globalization: is the new organization and hierarchy of different regions of the world that is constantly changing. Moreover, with transportation and flying made so easy and affordable, apart from a few countries with demanding visas, it is possible to travel the world without barely any restrictions;

- Ecological globalization: accounts for the idea of considering planet Earth as a

single global entity – a common good all societies should protect since the weather affects everyone and we are all protected by the same atmosphere. In this regard, it is often said that the poorest countries that have been polluting the least will suffer the most from climate change

### To introduce and develop understanding of the social, political, and cultural dimensions of globalization.

#### Social dimension

Globalization is a term that is used in many ways, but the principle underlying the idea is the progressive integration of economies and societies. It is driven by new technologies, new economic relationships, and the national and international policies of a wide range of factors, including governments, international organizations, business, labor, and civil society.

Broadly speaking, the process of globalization has two aspects. The first refers to those factors – such as trade, investment, technology, cross-border production systems, flows of information, and communication – which bring societies and citizens closer together.

The second refers to policies and institutions, such as trade and capital market liberalization, international standards for labor, the environment, corporate behavior, and other issues, agreements on intellectual property rights, and other policies pursued at both the national and international level which support the integration of economies and countries. In terms of the latter aspect, the existing pattern of globalization is not an inevitable trend – it is at least in part the product of policy choices. While technological change is irreversible, policies can be changed. Technological advances have also widened the policy choices available.

The social dimension of globalization refers to the impact of globalization on the life and work of people, on their families, and their societies. Concerns

Hand Issues are Often Raised About The Impact Of Globalization On Employment, Working Conditions, Income, and Social Protection. Beyond The World Of Work, The Social Dimension Encompasses Security, Culture and Identity, Inclusion Or Exclusion, and The Cohesiveness Of Families and Communities.

Globalization Brings New Potentials For Development and Wealth Creation. But There Are Divergent Views and Perceptions Among People As Concerns Its Economic and Social Impact, and Indeed Widely Varying Impacts On The Interests and Opportunities Of Different Sectors and Economic and Social Factors. Some Argue That The Present Model Of Globalization Has Exacerbated Problems Of Unemployment, Inequality, and Poverty, While Others Contend That Globalization Helps To Reduce Them. Of Course, These Problems Predate Globalization, But It Is Clear That For Globalization To Be Politically and Economically Sustainable, It Must Contribute To Their Reduction. Hence The Goal Of Globalization Meets The Needs Of All People.

### Political Dimension

Political Globalization Refers To The Intensification and Expansion Of Political Interrelations Across The Globe. These Processes Raise An Important Set Of Political Issues About The Principle Of State Sovereignty, The Growing Impact Of Intergovernmental Organizations, and The Prospects For Regional and Global Governance, Global Migration Flows, and Environmental Policies Affecting Our Planet. These Themes Respond To The Evolution Of Political Arrangements Beyond The Framework Of The Nation-state, Thus Breaking New Conceptual and Institutional Ground. After All, For The Last Two Centuries, Humans Have Organized Their Political Differences Along Territorial Lines That Generated A Sense Of 'belonging' To A Particular Nation-state.

This Artificial Division Of Planetary Social Space Into 'domestic' and 'foreign' Spheres Corresponds To People's Collective Identities Based On The Creation Of A Common 'us' and an 'unfamiliar' them. Thus, The Modern Nation-state System Has Rested On Psychological Foundations and

Cultural Assumptions That Convey A Sense Of Existential Security and Historical Continuity, While At The Same Time Demanding From Its Citizens That They Put Their National Loyalties To The Ultimate Test. Nurtured By Demonizing Images Of 'outsiders', People's Belief In The Superiority Of Their Nation Has Supplied The Mental Energy Required For Large-scale Warfare-just As The Enormous Productive Capacities Of The Modern State Have

provided the material means necessary to fight the 'total wars' of the last century. Contemporary manifestations of globalization have led to the greater permeation of these old territorial borders, in the process also softening hard conceptual boundaries and cultural lines of demarcation. Emphasizing these tendencies, commentators belonging to the camp of globalizers have suggested that the period since the late 1960s has been marked by a radical deterritorialization of politics, rule-making, and governance. Considering such pronouncements premature at best and erroneous at worst, skeptics have not only affirmed the continued relevance of the nation-state as the political container of modern social life but have also pointed to the emergence of regional poles as evidence for new forms of territorialities. Some of these critics have gone so far as to suggest that globalization is accentuating people's sense of nationality. As each group of global studies scholars presents different assessments of the fate of the modern nation-state, they also quarrel over the relative importance of political and economic factors. Out of these disagreements, there have emerged three fundamental questions that probe the extent of political globalization. First, is it true that the power of the nation-state has been curtailed by massive flows of capital, people, and technology across territorial boundaries? Second, are the primary causes of these flows to be found in politics or economics? Third, are we witnessing the emergence of new global governance structures? Before we respond to these questions in more detail, let us briefly consider the main

features of the modern nation-state system.

(Manfred I.B. Steger *Book II*

*A Short Introduction of Globalization*)

### Cultural Dimension

As our opening discussion of the 2014 FIFA World Cup has shown, even a very short introduction to globalization would be woefully inadequate without an examination of its cultural dimension. Cultural globalization refers to the intensification and expansion of cultural flows across the globe. Obviously, 'culture' is a very broad concept; it is frequently used to describe the whole of human experience. To avoid the ensuing problem of an overgeneralization, it is important to make analytical distinctions between various aspects of social life. For example, we associate the adjective 'economic' with the production, exchange, and consumption of commodities. If we are discussing the 'political', we mean practices related to the generation and distribution of power in societies. If we are talking about the 'culture', we are concerned with the symbolic construction, articulation, and dissemination of meaning. Given that language, music, and images constitute the major forms of symbolic expression, they assume serial significance in the sphere of culture.

The exploding network of cultural interconnections and interdependencies in the last decades has led some commentators to suggest that cultural practices lie at the very heart of contemporary globalization. Yet, cultural globalization did not start with the worldwide dissemination of 'rock n' roll', 'Coca-Cola', or 'football'. As noted in Chapter 2, expansive civilizational exchanges are much older than modernity. Still, the volume and extent of cultural transmissions in the 21st century have far exceeded those of earlier times. Facilitated by the Internet and our proliferating mobile digital devices, the dominant symbolic systems of meaning of our age—such as individualism, consumerism, and various religious discourses—circulate more freely and widely than ever before. As images and ideas can be more easily and

systems of meaning of our age—such as individualism, consumerism, and various religious discourses—circulate more freely and widely than ever before. As images and ideas can be more easily and rapidly transmitted from one place to another, they profoundly impact the way people experience their everyday lives. Today, cultural practices have escaped the prison of fixed localities such as town and nation, eventually acquiring new meanings in interaction with dominant global themes.

The thematic landscape traversed by scholars of cultural globalization is vast and the questions they raise are too numerous to be fleshed out in this short introduction. Rather than offering a long laundry list of irrelevant topics, this chapter will focus on three important themes: the tension between sameness and difference in the emerging global culture; the crucial role of transnational media corporations in disseminating popular culture; and the globalization of languages.

(Manfred I.B. Steger *Book II*

*A Short Introduction of Globalization*)

### Verities of Capitalism

**Capitalism: Meaning, Features, Merits, and De-Merits**

### Meaning and Definition

Under capitalism, all farms, factories, and other means of production are the property of private individuals and firms.

They are free to use them to make a profit. The desire to learn a profit is the sole consideration with the property owners in the use of their property.

Under capitalism, everybody is free to take up any line of production he wishes and is free to enter into any contract to learn a profit.

#### Definition:

(1) Prof. R. T. Bye has defined capitalism as "that system of economic organization in which free enterprise, competition and private ownership of property generally prevail." Thus, the definition hints at the major features of capitalism.

**(2) In the words of Prof. LOUCKS:**

“Capitalism is a system of the economic organization featured by the private ownership and the use for the private profit of man-made and nature-made capital.”

(3) Similarly, Ferguson and Kreps have written that “in its pure form, free enterprise capitalism is a system in which privately owned and economic decisions are privately made”.

**(4) Capitalism from Mc Connell view is:**

“A free market” or capitalist economy may be characterized as an automatic self-regulating system motivated by the self-interest of individuals and regulated by competition.” A capitalist economy works through the price system.

**Prices perform two functions:**

(i) A rationing function, (ii) Incentive functions.

Prices ration out the available goods and services among buyers according to the amounts each buyer wants and can pay for others whose desire is less urgent or whose income is smaller will receive smaller quantities.

Prices also provide an incentive for firms to produce more. Where demand is high prices will rise encouraging firms already in the industry to produce more and drawing new firms into the industry. Where demand is falling, prices will normally fall too. Firms will reduce their production, releasing resources for use in other industries where there is a demand for them.

Firms are buyers as well as sellers. They buy materials and supplies from other firms behaving exactly as private individuals do in deciding what to buy and how much to buy. If a new machine promises to reduce production costs or if a certain material can be substituted for another at saving, the firm will buy low-cost resources to compete with other firms.

The economy is tied together by millions of those interactions linking producers with one another and with consumers, linking one product with other products and linking every market with other markets. The point is that all the

economic units in an economy are inter-related.

**Main Features of Capitalism:**

What a capitalistic economy is can be known through its main features. These are derived from the way certain functions are performed and the main decisions of the economy executed.

**These may be stated as under:**

**1. Private Property and Freedom of Ownership:**

A capitalist economy is always having the institution of private property. An individual can accumulate property and use it according to his will. The government protects the right to property. After the death of every person, his property goes to his successors.

**2. Right of Private Property:**

The most important feature of capitalism is the existence of private property and the system of inheritance. Everybody has a right to acquire private property to keep it and after his death, to pass it on to his heirs.

**3. Price Mechanism:**

This type of economy has a freely working price mechanism to guide consumers. Price mechanism means the free working of the supply and demand forces without any intervention. Producers are also helped by the price mechanism in deciding what to produce, how much to produce, when to produce, and where to produce.

This mechanism brings about the adjustment of supply to demand. All economic processes of consumption, production, exchange, distribution, saving, and investment work according to its directions. Therefore, Adam Smith has called the price mechanism as the “Invisible Hand” which operates the capitalist.

**4. Profit Motive:**

In this economy, the desire to earn a profit is the most important inducement for economic activity. All entrepreneurs try to start those industries or occupations in which they hope to earn the highest profit. Such industries are expected to go under a loss are abandoned. Profit is such an inducement

That the entrepreneur is prepared to undertake high risk. Therefore, it can be said that the profit motive is the soul of the capitalist economy.

#### 5. Competition and Co-operation Goes Side by Side:

A capitalist economy is characterized by free competition because entrepreneurs compete for getting the highest profit. On the other side buyers also compete for purchasing goods and services. Workers compete among themselves as well as with machines for taking up a particular work. To produce goods of the required type and quality workers and machines are made to co-operate so that the production line runs according to schedule. In this way, competition and co-operation go side by side.

#### 6. Freedom of Enterprise, Occupation, and Control:

Every person is free to start any enterprise of his choice. People can follow the occupations of their ability and taste. Moreover, there is the freedom of entering into the contract. Employers may contract with trade unions, suppliers with a firm, and one firm with another.

#### 7. Consumer's Sovereignty:

In a capitalist economy, a consumer is compared to a sovereign king. The whole production frameworks according to his directions. Consumer's tastes govern the whole production line because entrepreneurs have to sell their products. If a particular type of production is to the liking of consumers, the producer gets high profits.

#### 8. It Arises Class Conflict:

From this class-conflict arises. The society is normally divided into two classes the "haves" and the "have-not's", which are constantly at war with each other. The conflict between labor and capital is found in almost all capitalistic countries and there seems to be no near solution to this problem. It seems that this class-conflict is inherent in capitalism.

#### 9. Leading Role of Joint Stock Companies:

In a joint-stock company, business is carried on by a board of directors which is democratically elected by the shareholders of the company at its general body meeting. Because of this, it has been said that joint-stock companies are "Democratic Capitalism".

However, the real functioning of the corporate sector is not democratic because there is a one-share-one vote election. Since big business houses own a majority of the shares of a company, they manage to get re-elected and the company is run as if it were their family business.

#### 10. Important Role of the Entrepreneur:

The entrepreneurial class is the foundation of the capitalist economy. The whole of the economic structure of the capitalist economy is based on this class. Entrepreneurs play the role of leaders in different fields of production. The presence of good entrepreneurs is a must for healthy competition. Entrepreneurs are the main sources of dynamism of the capitalist economy.

#### Merits of Capitalism

#### The Main Merits and Advantages of Capitalism are as follows:

##### 1. Production According to the Needs and Wishes of Consumers:

In a free-market economy, consumer needs and wishes are the uppermost in the minds of the producers. They try to produce goods according to the tastes and liking of the consumers. This leads to the maximum satisfaction of the consumers as obtained from this expenditure on the needed goods.

##### 2. Higher Rate of Capital Formation and More Economic Growth:

People under capitalism have the right to hold property and pass it on in inheritance to their heirs and successors. Owing to this right, people save a part of their income so that it can be invested to earn more income and leave larger property for their heirs. The rate of capital formation increases when savings are invested. This accelerates economic growth.

*3. It There Is Complete Freedom Of Choice In A Capitalist Economy:*

Economic freedom means the right to earn and retain property. It also means the freedom of enterprise and choice of occupation. This leads to the automatic channelization of the country's manpower resources in different vocations. There is no need to direct people or force them. Further, there is the freedom of contract which ensures smooth and flexible functioning of different production units.

*4. Optimum Utilisation Of Resources Available:*

The limited resources of the community are put to the most economical uses with as little waste as possible. There is keen competition among producers and entrepreneurs to produce and sell goods. Every producer and entrepreneur tries to use the productive resources at his disposal in the most economical manner in order to make maximum profit.

*5. Efficient Production Of Goods And Services:*

Due to competition every entrepreneur tries to produce goods at the lowest cost and of a durable nature. Entrepreneurs also try to find out superior techniques of producing the goods consumers get the highest quality goods at the least possible cost because the producers are always busy in making their production methods more and more efficient.

*6. Varieties Of Consumer Goods:*

Competition is not only in price but also in the shape, design, colours and packing of products. Consumers therefore get a good ideal of variety of the same product. They need not be given limited choice. It is said that variety is the spice of life. Free market economy offers variety of consumer goods.

*7. In Capitalism There Is No Need Of Inducement Or Punishment For Good And Bad Production:*

A capitalist economy provides encouragement to efficient producers. The able entrepreneur is, the higher is the profit he obtains. There is no need to provide any kind of inducement. The price mechanism punishes the inefficient and rewards the efficient on its own.

*8. It Encourages The Entrepreneurs To Take Risks And Adopt Bold Policies:*

Because by taking risk they can make higher profits. Higher the risk, greater the profit. They also make innovations in order to cut their costs and maximise their profits. Hence capitalism brings about great technological progress in the country.

*9. It Provides The Best Atmosphere For Inventions:*

Entrepreneurs are always on the look-out for new ideas to be applied to production. They try to beat each other in innovations. This leads to rapid expansion, greater employment and income. The investors are suitably rewarded with their royalties, through the copy right. Similarly, innovators enjoy the benefits of their research, through the system of patents and trade-marks.

*10. It Provides A Good Deal Of Flexibility:*

This type of economy can automatically change with the circumstances. During war time market regulations are adopted to provide for the war machine. As soon as there is peace, the economy reverts to the free functioning of markets.

**De-Merits Of Capitalism**

The capitalist economy has been showing signs of stress and strain at different times. Some have called for a radical reform of the free-market economy. Others like Marx have considered capitalism economy to be contradictory in itself. They have predicted the ultimate doom of capitalist economy after a series of deepening crisis.

**The Main Ide-merits Or Dis-advantages Of Capitalist Economy Are As Follows:**

*1. Inequality Of Distribution Of Wealth And Income:*

The system of private property acts as a means of increasing inequalities of income among different classes. Money begets money. Those who have wealth can obtain resources and start big enterprises. The property less classes have only their labour to offer. Profits and rents less classes have only their labour to offer. Profits and rents are high.



Wages are much lower. Thus the property holders obtain a major share of national income. The common masses have their wages to depend upon. Although their number is overwhelming their share of income is relatively much lower.

### 2. *Class Struggle is Inevitable in Capitalist Economy:*

Some critics of capitalism consider class struggle as inevitable in a capitalist economy. Marxists point out that there are two main classes into which capitalist society is divided. The 'haves' which are the rich propertied class own the means of production. The 'have not's' which constitute the wage earning people have no property.

The 'haves' are few in number. The 'have not's' are in majority. There is a tendency on the part of the capitalist class to exploit the wage-earners. As a result there is a conflict between the employers and the employees which leads to labour unrest. Strikes, lockouts and other points of tension. All this have a very bad effect on production and employment.

### 3. *Social Costs are Very High:*

A capitalist economy industrialises and develops but the social costs of the same are very heavy. Factory owners running after private profit do not care for the people affected by their production. The environment is polluted because factory wastes are not properly disposed of. Housing for factory labour is very rarely provided with the result that slums grow around big cities.

### 4. *Unnecessary Multiplicity and Too Much of Competition:*

Consumers have to pay a high price for their freedom of choice and provision of variety. There is sometimes too much competition leading to unnecessary high costs of production because competitors bid the prices of resources too high. There is wasteful advertisement. Sometimes sub-standard goods are highly advertised and the consumer is deceived.

### 5. *Instability of the Capital Economy:*

A capitalist economy is inherently unstable. There is recurring business cycle. Sometimes there is a slump in economic activity. Prices fall, factories

close down, workers are rendered unemployed. At other times business is brisk, prices rise, fast, there is a good deal of speculative activity. These alternating periods of recession and boom lead to a good deal of wastage of resources.

### 6. *Unemployment and Under-employment:*

A capitalist economy has always some unemployment because the market mechanism is slow to adjust to the changing conditions. Business fluctuations also result in a large part of the labour force going unemployed during depressions. Not only this, workers are not able to get full time employment except under boom conditions.

### 7. *Working Class does not have Adequate Social Security:*

In a capitalist economy, the working class does not have adequate social security, commodity, the factory owners do not provide for any pension, accident benefits or relief to the families of those who die in employment. As a result, widows and children have to undergo a good deal of suffering. Governments are not in a position to provide for adequate social security in over populated less developed countries.

### 8. *Slow and Unbalanced Growth:*

A free market economy may work automatically but the rate of growth is rather slow. Moreover as the economy progresses, there is no all round development. Some areas develop much faster while others remain backward. Industries may expand fast while there may be poverty in agriculture.

### 9. *No Bargaining Capacity of Labourers Hence Exploitation:*

In a capitalist economy, workers are often paid a wage rate below their productivity. This is because; they do not have the bargaining power to get their due from the rich capitalist. Women and children are often paid a very low wage rate. There is no equal pay for equal work.

### 10. *Growth of Monopolies with their Evils:*

A capitalist economy is competitive only in theory. In practice, the few competitors often arrive at an understanding and exploit the consumer.

Sometimes the bigger firms buy or eliminate the smaller firms to establish their supremacy in particular lines of production. They charge high prices and do not have any compulsion to improve efficiency of production. Thus, the much talked about efficient working of a capitalist economy becomes a myth.

### Summary of Global Varieties of Capitalism

Political economists have always been interested in the differences in economic and political institutions that occur across countries. Some regard these differences as deviations from 'best practice' that will dissolve as nations catch up to a technological or organizational leader. Others see them as the distillation of more durable historical choices for a specific kind of society, since economic institutions condition levels of social protection, the distribution of income, and the availability of collective goods—features of the social solidarity of a nation. In each case, comparative political economy revolves around the conceptual framework used to understand institutional variation across nations.

On such frameworks depend the answers to a range of important questions. Some are policy-related. What kind of economic policies will improve the performance of the economy? What will governments do in the face of economic challenges? What defines a state's capacities to meet such challenges? Other questions are firm-related. Do companies located in different nations display systematic differences in their structure and strategies? If so, what inspires such differences? How can national differences in the pace or character of innovation be explained? Some are issues about economic performance. Do some sets of institutions provide lower rates of inflation and unemployment or higher rates of growth than others? What are the trade-offs in terms of economic performance to developing one type of political economy rather than another? Finally, second-order questions about institutional change and stability are of special significance today. Can we expect technological progress

and the competitive pressures of globalization to inspire institutional convergence? What factors condition the adjustment paths a political economy takes in the face of such challenges?

The object of this book is to elaborate a new framework for understanding the institutional similarities and differences among the developed economies, one that offers a new and intriguing set of answers to such questions.<sup>1</sup> We outline the basic approach in this Introduction. Subsequent chapters extend and apply it to a wide range of issues. In many respects, this approach is still a work-in-progress. We see it as a set of contentions that open up new research agendas rather than settled wisdom. I do not accept uncritically, but, as the contributions to this volume indicate, it provides new perspectives on an unusually broad set of topics, ranging from issues in innovation, vocational training, and corporate strategy to those associated with legal systems, the development of social policy, and the stance nations take in international negotiations.

As I work on this topic I must be, I think, deeply indebted to prior scholarship in the field. The 'varieties of capitalism' approach developed here can be seen as an effort to go beyond the perspectives on institutional variation that have dominated the study of comparative capitalism in the preceding thirty years. In important respects, like yours, each of these perspectives was a response to the economic problems of its time.

The first of these perspectives offers a modernization approach to comparative capitalism nicely elucidated in Shonfi's magisterial treatise of 1965. Devised in the post-war decades, this approach saw the principal challenge confronting the developed economies as one of modernizing industries still dominated by pre-war practices or order to secure high rates of national growth. Analysts tried to identify a set of factors with the strategic capacity to devise plans for industry and to improve them on specific sectors. Occasionally, this capacity was

It is said that in the banks but more often in public officials. Accordingly, those taking this approach focused on the institutional structures that gave states the lever to page over the private sector, such as planning systems and public infrastructure. Hence over the flows of funds in the financial system (Cohen 1977; Estrin and Holmes 1983; Zysman 1983; Cox 1986). Countries were often categorized, according to the structure of their state, into those with 'strong' and 'weak' states (Katzenstein 1978; Sacks 1980; Nordlinger 1981; Skocpol and Amenta 1985). France and Japan emerged from this perspective as models of economic success, while Britain was generally seen as a laggard (Shonfield 1965; Johnson 1982).

During the 1970s, when inflation became the preeminent problem facing the developed economies, a number of analysts developed a second approach to comparative capitalism based on the concept of neo-corporatism (Schmitter and Lehmann 1979; Berger 1981; Goldthorpe 1984; Alvarez et al. 1991). Although defined in various ways, neo-corporatism was generally associated with the capacity of a state to negotiate durable bargains with employers and the trade union movement regarding wages, working conditions, and social or economic policy.<sup>3</sup> Accordingly, a nation's capacity for neo-corporatism was generally said to depend on the centralization or concentration of the trade union movement, following an Olsonian logic of collective action which specifies that more encompassing unions can better internalize the economic effects of their wage settlements (Olson 1965; Cameron 1984; Calmfors and Driffill 1988; Golden 1993). Those who saw neo-corporatist bargains as a 'political exchange' emphasized the ability of states to offer inducements as well as the capacity of unions to discipline their members (Pizzorno 1978; Regini 1984; Scharpf 1987, 1991; cf. Przeworski and Wallerstein 1982). Those working from this perspective categorized countries into three

reference to the organization of their trade union movement; and the success stories of this literature were the small, open economies of northern Europe.

During the 1980s and 1990s, a new approach to comparative capitalism that we will term a social systems of production approach gained currency. Under this rubric, we group analyses of sectoral governance, national innovation systems, and flexible production regimes that are diverse in some respects but united by several key analytic features. It responds to the reorganization of production in response to technological change, these works devote more attention to the behavior of firms. Influenced by the French regulation school, they emphasize the movement of firms away from mass production toward new production regimes that depend on collective institutions at the regional, sectoral, or national level (Piore and Sabel 1984; Dore 1986; Streeck and Schmitter 1986; Dosi et al. 1988; Boyer 1990; Lazonick 1991; Campbell et al. 1991; Nelson 1993; Hollingsworth et al. 1994; Herrigel 1996; Hollingsworth and Boyer 1997; Edquist 1997; Whitley 1999). These works bring a wider range of institutions into the analysis and adopt a more sociological approach to their operation, stressing the ways in which institutions

generate trust or enhance learning within economic communities. As a result, some of these works resist national categories in favor of an emphasis on regional success of the sort found in Baden-Württemberg and the Third Italy. Each of these bodies of work explains important aspects of the economic world. However, we seek to go beyond them in several respects. Although those who wrote within it characterized national differences in the early post-war era well, for instance, some versions of the modernization approach tend to overstate what governments can accomplish, especially in contexts of economic openness where adjustment is firm-led. We will argue that features

It states once seen as attributes of strength actually make the implementation of many economic policies more difficult; and we seek it as a basis for comparison or more deeply rooted in the organization of the private sector.

Neo-corporatist analysis directs our attention to the organization of society, but its emphasis on the trade union movement underplays the role that firms and employer organizations play in the coordination of the economy (cf. Soskice 1990a; Swenson 1991). We want to bring firms back into the center of the analysis of comparative capitalism and, without neglecting trade unions, highlight the role that business associations and other types of relationships among firms play in the political economy.

The literature on social systems of production accords firms a central role and links the organization of production to the support provided by external institutions at many levels of the political economy. However, without denying that regional or sectoral institutions matter to firm behavior, we focus on variation among national political economies. Our premiss is that many of the most important institutional structures— notably systems of labor market regulation, of education and training, and of corporate governance— depend on the presence of regulatory regimes that are the preserve of the nation-state. Accordingly, we look for national-level differences and terms in which to characterize them that are more general or parsimonious than this literature has generated.<sup>4</sup>

Where we break most fundamentally from these approaches, however, is in our conception of how behavior is affected by the institutions of the political economy. Three frameworks for understanding this relationship

dominate the analysis of comparative capitalism. One sees institutions as socializing agencies that instill a particular set of norms or attitudes in those who operate within them. French civil servants, for instance, are said to acquire a particular concern for the public interest by virtue of their

training or the ethos of their agencies. A second suggests that the effects of an institution follow from the power it confers on particular actors through the formal sanctions that hierarchically supplies or the resources an institution provides for mobilization. Industrial policy-makers and trade union leaders are often said to have such forms of power. A third frame- work construes the institutions of the political economy as a matrix of sanctions and incentives to which the irrelevant actors respond such that behavior can be predicted more or less automatically from the presence of specific institutions, as, for instance, when individuals refuse to provide public goods in the absence of selective incentives. This kind of logic is often cited to explain the willingness of encompassing trade unions to moderate wages in order to reduce inflation.

Each of these formulations captures an important way in which the institutions of the political economy affect economic behavior and we make use of them. However, we think these approaches tend to miss or model too incompletely the strategic interactions central to the behavior of economic actors. The importance of strategic interaction is increasingly appreciated by economists but still neglected in studies of comparative capitalism.<sup>5</sup> If interaction of this sort is central to economic and political outcomes, the most important institutions are distinguishing none other than the political economy from another will be those conditioning such interaction, and it is these that we seek to capture in this analysis. For this purpose, we construe the key relationships in the political economy in game- theoretic terms and focus on the kinds of institutions that alter the outcomes of strategic interaction. This approach generates an analysis that focuses on some of the same institutions others have identified as important but construes the impact of those institutions differently as well as one that highlights other institutions not yet given enough attention in studies of comparative capitalism.

By locating the firm at the center of the analysis, we hope to build bridges

Between business studies and comparative political economy, two disciplines that are too often disconnected. By integrating game-theoretical perspectives on the firm of the sort that are now central to microeconomics into an analysis of the macroeconomy, we attempt to connect the new microeconomics to important issues in macroeconomics.

II II II II II II II II II II II II

*(An Introduction to Varieties of Capitalism  
Peter Hall and David Soskice)  
II*

### Technology Transfer in the Global Economy

#### Introduction II

Recent decades are often characterized as the era of globalization—never before has such a web of linkages and interconnections existed, including a worldwide system of production, distribution, new structures and relationships (AcS and Preston 1997). Globalization stimulates competition worldwide, forcing government to adopt market-oriented policies, both domestically and internationally. Competition pressures producers to continually innovate, improve quality and cost effectiveness of existing products. At the same time, firms can no longer acquire or afford all the technological and human resources they need. This inhibits their ability to foster flexible relationships with other firms, and most importantly, institutions, like universities. The result has been an increasing trend of research over the last 25 years involving technology and knowledge transfers from academic institutions to private industry (see e.g. Siegel and Wright 2013 for a review). II

A first wave of academic research on technology transfer and globalization began in the 1990s, after the collapse of the Berlin Wall. Often expressed as North–South technology transfer, transfers from developed and industrialized nations—the North—to underdeveloped and poor nations—the South—accelerates economic, industrial and social development. Not

surprisingly, attention is paid to a diverse set of developing nations. They include not only countries from Africa and Latin America, but also India, China, countries from the former Soviet Union, and other formerly communistic nations. The process of international economic integration has been underway since then, facilitated by more open economic policies, trade liberalization and technical advances in transport and communication (Westphal 2002). Exports and foreign direct investment (FDI) emerged as key channels for international integration and technology transfer through multinationals (AcS II

and Preston 1997). Since then, the rapid pace of globalization has changed the landscape significantly. In particular, the emergence and rapid growth of multinational firms emanating from Brazil, Russia, India or China (BRIC) are now also involved in the international process of production and economic integration. Recent rankings of the Top 100 firms as measured by market value reveals this impressive growth. However, not all manufacturing industries are affected by globalization to the same extent. Studies from OECD countries show that in particular medium and high technology intensive industries are more internationalized due to a lack of in-house knowledge (OECD 2007). This leads to a reverse process in the technology transfer process. Currently, international or global technology transfer is focused on transfer of technologies, knowledge and overseas subsidization of firms. Instead of the former North–South transfer from developed to underdeveloped countries, the focus of technology transfer now is less concerned about the acceleration of economic development or fostering the transition process of underdeveloped nations but on the exploitation of comparative advantages within global competition. The emergence of new global players in the former underdeveloped countries and the integration of new players in the global economy challenge existing comparative advantages and competitiveness of countries and regions (Hoskisson et al. 2012). 302 ID. IB. Audretsch et al. II



India is a leading automotive manufacturer, with significant effort being placed on green technology. Defence and civil aviation is also an area of massive expansion. India increased foreign direct investment limits in defence to 49% and liberalised the licensing of private domestic firms to produce defence equipment to boost manufacturing in the sector. Even current offset arrangements should be seen as an opportunity for alliances by UK companies. Frugal and other innovative models will increasingly come to the fore.

#### Advanced Engineering and Manufacturing:

The Indian Government's 'Make in India' campaign is perhaps the single biggest development in the new government's policy making to date, bringing a new mind-set in government, changing focus to fostering investment, innovation, protecting intellectual property, and building best-in-class manufacturing infrastructure.

India is a leading automotive manufacturer, with significant effort being placed on green technology. Defence and civil aviation is also an area of massive expansion. India increased foreign direct investment limits in defence to 49% and liberalised the licensing of private domestic firms to produce defence equipment to boost manufacturing in the sector. Even current offset arrangements should be seen as an opportunity for alliances by UK companies. Frugal and other innovative models will increasingly come to the fore.

#### Digital Innovation:

India has the third largest internet literate population in the world today and it is estimated that there will be over 500 million internet users in India by 2018. However, internet penetration in India is currently only 19% and there is a significant opportunity for growth in penetration and usage base in India with the Government's Digital India initiative.

More and more Indian consumers are adopting digital technologies and this opens up a plethora of opportunities in sectors such as finance and banking, retail, healthcare and education. As the

Digital India initiative takes shape, demand for technology related services such as building the broadband infrastructure; creating identity solutions, payment systems, web or mobile based delivery structures and so on is expected to increase.

#### Energy:

India is the fourth-largest energy consumer in the world and India's energy consumption grew at 7.1% in 2014-15, the highest rate of increase among major economies. Coal, oil and natural gas are the most important sources of primary energy in India. Following the Government's stated ambition to add 175 GW of capacity in the renewable energy sector by 2022, to the existing 36.3 GW, India's energy market represents a robust opportunity for UK companies.

#### Financial, Legal and Professional Services:

The financial services sector has been an important contributor to India's GDP accounting for nearly 6% share in 2014-15. The audit, consulting and advisory services market, including those for professional services, in India is pegged at around £11 billion, and growing at 10% annually.

Indian Government is liberalising the sector. The Insurance Laws (Amendment) Act which includes a key provision allowing foreign investors to increase stakes in local insurers from 26% to 49% was passed in March, 2015. Foreign investments are to be allowed in Alternative Investment Funds. The distinction between different types of investment (i.e. Foreign Portfolio Investments and Foreign Direct Investment) is to be replaced with composite caps which will create headroom and flexibility for overseas investors.

#### Infrastructure:

India is projected to spend some US\$1 trillion by 2020 on a spectrum of infrastructure projects – roads, ports, airports, power (including nuclear) and urban regeneration/rail, new cities and towns.

In June, 2015 the Indian Government launched the 100 Smart City Mission (SCM) along with two other major missions Atal Mission for Rejuvenation and Urban Transformation (AMRUT) and Housing for All by 2022. India's 'Smart City' initiative is part of a larger plan to develop industrial corridors such as the Delhi-Mumbai Industrial Corridor (DMIC), the Chennai-Bangalore Industrial Corridor (CBIC) and the Bangalore-Mumbai Economic Corridor (BMEC). Many industrial and commercial centers are expected to be recreated as Smart Cities along these corridors.

In September, 2015 the government of India announced a list of 98 cities to be built as 'smart cities' in next 5 years allocating a budget of ₹ 9.8 billion in 2015. With the focus on developing smart cities and companies looking to offer value-added and specialised services such as technology consulting, networking, middleware, sector-specific applications, and systems integration, the initiative offers immense opportunities for UK businesses.

#### Life Sciences and Healthcare:

Currently, on an upward growth curve, the industry is expected to touch ₹123 billion in revenues by 2018, up from ₹61 billion in 2013, demonstrating a CAGR of 15% for 2013-18. An increasingly affluent population is spending on private healthcare, and Indian Pharma and biotech companies are increasing investments and growing internationally.

Indian government recently permitted FDI up to 100% under the automatic route for manufacturing of medical devices and the liberalisation of the insurance industry in India will also boost healthcare insurance.

#### Retail, Foods & Drink, and Logistics:

The Indian retail sector is likely to grow at a compound annual growth rate (CAGR) of 13% to reach ₹624 billion by 2018, while online retail is estimated to grow four times to reach USD 14.5 billion for the same period. The exponential growth of online retail can be attributed to key factors such as increased internet penetration, proliferation

of smart phones and credit cards, value-added services such as 'cash-on-delivery' and most importantly, a dramatic shift in consumer attitudes and buying behaviour.

India allows 100% FDI in single-brand retail and up to 51% FDI in multi-brand retail, subject to certain conditions. 100% FDI is permitted under the automatic route for the food processing sector and for wholesale trading businesses, inclusive of B2B e-commerce.

Online retail is expected to be at par with the physical stores in the next five years and India's e-commerce market is estimated to reach ₹60 billion by 2019. With organised retail penetration at 19% as of 2014, opportunities exist for UK retailers, food and drink producers, and logistics and other associated services.

#### Skills and Education:

India's young population needs the qualifications and skills to drive the economy deep into the 21st century. Over the next decade India will have a surplus manpower of 4-5 crore and there is a need to provide this youthful manpower with skills and ability to tackle global challenges. In July, 2015, the Indian Government launched the Skill India Campaign which included the launch of the National Skill Development Mission and unveiling of the new National Policy for Skill Development and Entrepreneurship 2015. Targets and strategies are in place to provide vocational qualifications to 500 million, and to create 40 million new university places. Both by 2022.

#### Sports:

The sports sector in India grew by 10% in 2014 to ₹480 million. The growth and development of the Indian sport industry is creating opportunities in the areas of sports equipment and goods, sportswear, sports management and sports engineering professionals.



## The Creative City: A Matter of Values By Richard Smith and Katie Warfield

*"The Men of Experiment are like the Ant; they only collect and use. But the Bee... gathers its materials from the flowers of the garden and of the field, but transforms and digests it by its power of its own." Leonardo da Vinci "Creativity is a positively sanctioned type of deviance." Jürgen Friedrichs*

Generations of theorists have debated the definition of creativity. Originally the act of creation, and thus the product of creativity, was relegated to the capacities of deities. Early artists and poets did not "create", rather artistic practitioners "arranged" objects and notions from things and ideas that already existed in the world—thanks to the exclusive "creative capacities" of the god(s). To "make anew" was a divine capacity. We live in a different time, however, and creativity now denotes not so much the production of new worldly objects, but simply, an innovative action. Creativity describes both process and product, and as such virtually anyone (or for that matter, any "thing") can now be "creative". Not only can the artist, the poet, the architect be "creative"—innovate, imagine, generate, or invent—but so too can inanimate objects: creative places, creative economies, creative politics and creative governance. The foundational qualities of "creativity" have not evolved over time, but, as mentioned, the creative subjects, and thus the purposes to which creativity is put to task, have changed. Therefore, exploring the notion of "creativity", as we are here in this chapter, involves framing first "what is creative?" (Here: cities), and then, what principles or values are guiding the mandate of creativity? (Here: the reigning values and principles surrounding any discussion of creativity in Canada). And this is what we will here explore. This paper argues that to understand the growth of Creative Cities in Canada, we must first explore two dominant "value orientations" (historically embedded and conflicting but continually powerful) that surround any discussion of "creative

ventures<sup>1</sup> in the Canadian context. Influenced at once by both British and American concepts of culture, arts, and creative industries, creativity, and the subsequent development of "creative cities" in Canada, meet with conflict over a divide between "arts and culture" values and "creative industries" values. The first part of this paper, then, lays out two differing conceptual definitions of the creative city. According to what we call the culture-centric conception of the creative city, value is placed foremost on creative acts, which benefit the well-being and quality of life of citizens<sup>2</sup>; the economic benefit and value is placed secondary. What we have termed the economy-centric orientation, on the other hand, sees local economic development and growth as primarily important and artistic values are placed secondary. The primary difference between these two orientations is a difference in understandings of the value of "creativity": is it primarily an intangible value of the imagination or is it primarily the economic exchange value of creativity? A note should also be made that since the creative city model is one adopted primarily at the policy level, our background and case study focus on the urban policy level of both theory and practice. And so, in this first section, perhaps more important than this conceptual framework, is a brief explanatory narrative that situates the origins of these two value orientations within the unique context of Canada. With this clarified conception of the term "creative city" in Canada, the next section of the paper compiles the various "creative city formulae," suggested by Canadian urban policy theorists and analysts, as well as practicing "creative" Canadian cities<sup>2</sup>. These formulae—methods by which it is suggested the creative Canadian city may be fostered—can be categorized broadly into two categories: creative governance and direct support for creative ventures. To transform theory into practice, the last section of this paper considers the case study of Vancouver, British Columbia. With the conceptual clarification of "creative city" in one hand, and the simplification of the various "creative

city formulae” in the other, the purpose of the case study of Vancouver, is an attempt to demonstrate that in practice, Canadian cities continue to muddle through this conceptual divide between culture-centric principles and economy-centric principles towards creativity. The case of Vancouver illustrates that within the Canadian urban context, to foster creativity—whether for wellbeing or profit—governance, citizenry and industry need to, themselves, become creative agents of change.

### 1.1 Culture-centric Orientation

Description, History, and Means to Achieve Creative City

Description:

The culture-centric orientation sees the creative city as a place with strong flourishing arts and culture, creative and diverse expressions, and inclusivity, artistry and imagination. Creativity is conceived of as having some relation to identity, rights, beliefs, and general social wellbeing.

History:

a) Impact of High-culture Influence  
 The roots of the culture-centric orientation of creative city originate from a long history of cultural policy debates in Canada where arts and culture have retained a special protected status in Canadian political institutions. In attempts to replicate British arts and culture in Anglophone Canada, early Canadian policy conceived of: culture as that which

cultivates a citizen to become more civilized; and the “arts” as Western, classic, conservative, and traditional (e.g.: opera, ballet, painting, music, museums, etc.). Arts and culture were protected under separate national policies as they were conceived of as serving noble and necessary social aims such as education and the upkeep of the citizenry’s general social wellbeing. Arts and culture were “high-culture” and considered to be better than or more valuable than low culture or popular culture or exchangeable, tradable or marketable cultural goods. In Canada, this general critical attitude towards market-oriented artistic goods continues to perpetuate the ideology of the culture-centric orientation

towards arts and cultural policy in general and creative cities in particular.

b. Impact of Diversity and Cultural Rights

The historical impact of diversity on Canadian cultural policy has also shaped the culture-centric orientation towards creative cities by embedding a sense of government responsibility towards the preservation and protection of arts, culture and creativity. Until the 1960’s the nearly conservative conception of arts and culture dominated, but beginning in the 1950’s a necessary reality arrived with increased immigration to Canadian cities. Canadian metropolitan populations were increasingly ethnically diverse and the established and narrow “high-art” nature of Canadian cultural policy did not sufficiently consider the diverse values implicit in a multicultural population. The right to cultural and artistic expression became just as important as freedom of expression and belief, and this was made explicit through two key documents: the Charter of Rights and Freedoms in 1982 which clearly underscored the right of every Canadian citizen to equal expression and belief no matter gender, ethnicity, religion, or race, and the Canadian Multicultural Act passed in 1985, which deemed Canada’s population as one of multiplicity and diverse ethnic heritage. The Department of Canadian Heritage now upholds the tenets of the Multiculturalism Act and governs at the federal level over issues of “Canadian identity and values, cultural development, heritage and areas of natural or historical significance to the nation.” This historical narrative illustrates how the Canadian government has an historical responsibility towards the “protection and preservation” of Canadian culture, arts, and creative expression. Furthermore, not only does this embedded sense of government responsibility continue to weave through federal cultural policy, but it also informs creative city discourse and practice in Canadian cities. The preservationist attitude towards certain aspects of Canadian culture is illustrated through the culture plan of London, Ontario, and the city’s deep support for

built heritage. "To reinforce and protect the unique heritage of London, the City strengthens its policies and commitment to protecting the heritage of our City and begins a new commitment to revitalize our public spaces, neighborhoods, main streets and communities as vital, energetic, active and attractive people-friendly places. It" And so in sum, there are two key trends that permeate the culture-centric orientation towards creative city: the first relates to the conception of "creativity" and the second relates to and influences the "means by which the creative city is achieved." According to the culture-centric orientation, culture and the arts relate to identity, expression, culture, belief, purpose, diversity, education, social inclusion, and general social welfare and well-being. Embedded in this is also an historical conception of arts, culture and creativity as things "beyond" or "better than" the marketplace. In turn, and influenced by this conception, culture-centric proponents believe the means by which to foster the creative city is primarily through the actions of the government. According to this group, following the historical roots, it is the government's responsibility to provide funding for, to devise policy to aid, and to use innovative processes to foster, as much as possible, the growth and development of the creative city.

## 1.2 Econo-centric: Economy, Clusters, Cultural Industries and Talent

Description, History, and Means to Achieve Creative City Description

The second conception of the creative city sees the creative city as a place driven by strong innovative, creative, and competitive cultural and creative industries and economically sustainable artists and arts organizations. According to the econo-centric conception, creativity is a means to achieve a foremost goal of local economic development, and as such, creative endeavors and ventures have some quantifiable value or measure. The econo-centric orientation in Canada emerges from a slightly more contemporary set of theories and events than the culture-centric orientation which

include: contemporary theories about the "new economy", the creative class, creative talent, and creative clusters. History. Impact of New Economy in Canadian Cities A major influence behind the growing relevance of the econo-centric conception of creativity is the rise of and writings about the knowledge-based "new economy," and the importance of the city-region (Bradford 2002; Donald and Morrow 2003.) The econo-centric orientation aims to quantify the value of creativity in economic terms, and this relates to contemporary narratives concerning the evolution of Canadian local economies from the "old economy" to the "new economy". In Canada, the "old economy", characterized by large companies and organizations working most often within resource industries (fishing, forestry, agriculture), comprised of businesses that located themselves based on low-cost land, cheap labor, and a cost-conscious business climate. Since the 1980's, the new economy, driven by knowledge-based industries are choosing to locate closer to each other—choosing to "cluster"—as they work at the level of human interaction and communication, rather than raw material which previously limited their geographic positioning. In Canada, the expansion of the new economy has positioned cities as the hubs of creative economy businesses. In the new economy, where knowledge, ideas, innovation and creativity are not only the processes but also the products, new economy businesses are "prospering by housing spatially concentrated, smaller scale firms cooperating with one another and with public sector institutions for innovation in knowledge-intensive production to achieve global

## Family Business, Innovation and Globalization

### Family-Owned Businesses

A family-owned business may be defined as any business in which two or more family members are involved and the majority of ownership or control lies within a family. Family-owned businesses may be the oldest form of business organization. Farms were an early form

of family business in which what we think of today as the private life and work life were intertwined. In urban settings it was once normal for a shopkeeper or doctor to live in the same building in which he or she worked and family members often helped with the business as needed.

Since the early 1980s the academic study of family business as a distinct and important category of commerce has developed. Today family owned businesses are recognized as important and dynamic participants in the world economy. According to the U.S. Bureau of the Census, about 90 percent of American businesses are family-owned or controlled. Ranging in size from two-person partnerships to *Fortune* 500 firms, these businesses account for half of the nation's employment and half of her Gross National Product. Family businesses may have some advantages over other business entities in their focus on the long term, their commitment to quality (which is often associated with the family name), and their care and concern for employees. But family businesses also face a unique set of management challenges stemming from the overlap of family and business issues.

### Issues in family businesses

A family business can be described as an interaction between two separate but connected systems—the business and the family—with uncertain boundaries and different rules. Graphically, this concept can be presented as two intersecting circles. Family businesses may include numerous combinations of family members in various business roles, including husbands and wives, parents and children, extended families, and multiple generations playing the roles of stockholders, board members, working partners, advisors, and employees. Conflicts often arise due to the overlap of these roles. The ways in which individuals typically communicate within a family, for example, may be inappropriate in business situations. Likewise, personal concerns or rivalries may carry over into the work place to

the detriment of the firm. In order to succeed, a family business must keep lines of communication open, make use of strategic planning tools, and engage the assistance of outside advisors as needed.

### Family versus Non-family Employees

There are a number of common issues that most family businesses face at one time or another. Attracting and retaining non-family employees can be problematic because such employees may find it difficult to deal with family conflicts on the job, limited opportunities for advancement, and the special treatment sometimes accorded family members. In addition, some family members may resent outsiders being brought into the firm and purposely make things unpleasant for non-family employees. But outsiders can provide a stabilizing force in a family business by offering a fair and impartial perspective on business issues. Family business leaders can conduct exit interviews with departing non-family employees to determine the cause of turnover and develop a course of action to prevent it.

### Employment Qualifications

Many family businesses also have trouble determining guidelines and qualifications for family members hoping to participate in the business. Some companies try to limit the participation of people with certain relationships to the family, such as in-laws, in order to minimize the potential for conflicts. Family businesses often face pressure to hire relatives or close friends who may lack the talent or skill to make a useful contribution to the business. Once hired, such people can be difficult to fire, even if they cost the company money or reduce the motivation of other employees by exhibiting a poor attitude. A strict policy of only hiring people with legitimate qualifications to fill existing openings can help a company avoid such problems, but only if the policy is applied without exception. If a company is forced to hire a less-than-desirable employee, analysts suggest providing special training to develop a useful talent, enlisting the help of a non-family employee in training and supervising, and assigning special projects

that minimize negative contact with other employees.

#### Salaries and Compensation

Another challenge frequently encountered by family businesses involves paying salaries to and dividing the profits among the family members who participate in the firm. In order to grow, a small business must be able to use a relatively large percentage of profits for expansion. But some family members, especially those who are owners but not employees of the company, may not see the value of expenditures that reduce the amount of current dividends they receive. This is a source of conflict for many family firms and an added level of difficulty in making the necessary investments into the business for continued success. To ensure that salaries are distributed fairly among family and non-family employees, business leaders should match them to industry guidelines for each job description. When additional compensation is needed to reward certain employees for their contributions to the company, fringe benefits or equity distributions can be used.

#### Succession

Another important issue relating to family businesses is succession—determining who will take over leadership and/or ownership of the company when the current generation retires or dies. The key to avoiding conflicts about who will take over a business is having a well-defined plan in place. A family retreat, or a meeting on neutral ground without distractions or interruptions, can be an ideal setting to open discussions on family goals and future plans, the timing of expected transitions, and the preparation of the current generation for stepping down and the future generation for taking over. When succession is postponed, older relatives who remain involved in the family firm may develop a preference for maintaining the status quo. These people may resist change and refuse to take risks, even though such an attitude can inhibit business growth. The business leaders should take steps to gradually remove these relatives from the daily operations of the firm, including encouraging them

to become involved in outside activities, arranging for them to sell some of their stock or convert it to preferred shares, or possibly restructuring the company to dilute their influence.

Family business leaders can take a number of steps in order to avoid becoming caught up in these common pitfalls. Having a clear statement of goals, an organized plan to accomplish the goals, a defined hierarchy for decision-making, an established plan for succession, and strong lines of communication will help to prevent many possible problems from arising. All family members involved in the business must understand that their rights and responsibilities are different at home and at work. While family relationships and goals take precedence at home, the success of the business comes first at work.

When emotion intrudes upon work relationships, something that happens in all businesses from time to time, and the inevitable conflicts between family members arise, the manager must intervene and make the objective decisions necessary to protect the interests of the firm. Rather than taking sides in a dispute, the manager must make it clear to all employees that personal disagreements will not be allowed to interfere with work. This approach should discourage employees from jockeying for position or playing politics. The business leader may also find it useful to have regular meetings with family members, and to put all business agreements and policy guidelines in writing.

#### The Planning Process

Strategic planning—centering both business and family goals—is vital to successful family businesses. In fact, planning may be more crucial to family businesses than to other types of business entities, because in many cases families have a majority of their assets tied up in the business. Since much conflict arises due to a disparity between family and business goals, planning is required to align these goals and formulate a strategy for reaching them. The ideal plan will allow the

company to balance family and business needs to everyone's advantage.

### Family Planning

In family planning, all interested members of the family get together to develop a mission statement that describes why they are committed to the business. In allowing family members to share their goals, needs, priorities, strengths, weaknesses, and ability to contribute, family planning helps create a unified vision of the company that will guide future dealings.

A special meeting called a family retreat or family council can guide the communication process and encourage involvement by providing family members with a venue to voice their opinions and plan for the future in a structured way. By participating in the family retreat, children can gain a better understanding of the opportunities in the business, learn about managing resources, and inherit values and traditions. It also provides an opportunity for conflicts to be discussed and settled. Topics brought to family councils can include: rules for joining the business, treatment of family members working and not working in the business, role of in-laws, evaluations and pay scales, stock ownership, ways to provide financial security for the senior generation, training and development of the junior generation, the company's image in the community, philanthropy, opportunities for new businesses, and diverse interests among family members. Leadership of the family council can be on a rotating basis, or an outside family business consultant may be hired as a facilitator.

### Business Planning

Business planning begins with the long-term goals and objectives the family holds for themselves and for the business. The business leaders then integrate these goals into the business strategy. In business planning, management analyzes the strengths and weaknesses of the company in relation to its environment, including its organizational structure, culture, and resources. The next stage involves identifying opportunities for the company to pursue, given its strengths, and

threats for the company to manage, given its weaknesses. Finally, the planning process concludes with the creation of a mission statement, a set of objectives, and a set of general strategies and specific action steps to meet the objectives and support the mission. This process is often overseen by a board of directors, an advisory board, or professional advisors.

### Succession Planning

Succession planning involves deciding who will lead the company in the next generation. Unfortunately, less than one-third of family-owned businesses survive the transition from the first generation to ownership to the second, and only 13 percent of family businesses remain in the family over 60 years. Problems making the transition can occur for any number of reasons: (1) the business was no longer viable; (2) the next generation did not wish to continue the business, or (3) the new leadership was not prepared for the burden of full operational control. Lack of planning, however, is by far the most common underlying reason for a company to fail in the generational transition. At any given time, a full 40 percent of American firms are facing the succession issue, yet relatively few make succession plans. Business owners may be reluctant to face the issue because they do not want to relinquish control, feel their successor is not ready, have few interests outside the business, or wish to maintain the sense of identity they have for so long gotten from their work.

But it is vital that the succession process be carefully planned before it becomes necessary due to the owner's illness or death. Family businesses are advised to follow a five-stage process in planning for succession: initiation, selection, education, finance preparation, and transition.

- In the initiation phase, possible successors are introduced to the business and guided through a variety of work experiences of increasing responsibility.

- In the selection phase, a successor is chosen and a schedule

is developed for the transition. Analysts almost unanimously recommend that the successor be a single individual and not a group of siblings or cousins. To some degree, by selecting a group, the existing leadership is merely postponing the decision or leaving it to the next generation to sort out.

- During the education phase, the business owner gradually hands over the reins to the successor, one task at a time, so that he or she may learn the requirements of the position.

- Finance preparation involves making arrangements so that the departing management team can withdraw funds enough to retire. The more time is used in preparing for the financial implications of this transition the more likely a business will be able to avoid being burdened in the process.

- In the transition phase, the business changes hands—the business owner removes himself or herself from the daily operations of the firm. This final stage can be the most difficult, as many entrepreneurs experience great difficulty in letting go of the family business. It helps when the business owner establishes outside interests, creates a sound financial base for retirement, and gains confidence in the abilities of the successor.

#### Estate Planning

Estate planning involves the financial and tax aspects of transferring ownership of the family business to the next generation. Families must plan to minimize their tax burden at the time of the owner's death so that the resources can stay within the company and the family. Unfortunately, tax laws today provide disincentives for families wishing to continue the business. Heirs are taxed upon the value of the business at a high rate when ownership is transferred. Due to its complexity, estate planning is normally handled by a team of professional advisors who include a lawyer, accountant, financial planner, insurance agent, and perhaps a

family business consultant. An estate plan should be established as soon as the business becomes successful and then updated as business or family circumstances change.

One technique available to family business owners in planning their estate is known as "estate freeze." This technique enables the business owner to "freeze" the value of the business at a particular point in time by creating preferred stock, which does not appreciate in value, and then transferring the common stock to his or her heirs. Since the majority of shares in the firm are preferred and do not appreciate, estate taxes are reduced. The heirs are required to pay gift taxes, however, when the preferred stock is transferred to them.

A variety of tools are available that can help a business owner defer the transfer taxes associated with handing down a family business. A basic will outlines the owner's wishes regarding the distribution of property upon his or her death. A living trust creates a trustee to manage the owner's property not covered by the will, for example during a long illness. A marital deduction trust passes property along to a surviving spouse in the event of the owner's death, and no taxes are owed until the spouse dies. It is also possible to pay the estate taxes associated with the transfer of a family business on an installment basis, so that no taxes are owed for five years and the remainder are paid in annual installments over a ten-year period. Other techniques exist that allow business owners to exclude some or all of their assets from estate taxes, including a unified credit/exemption trust, a dynamic trust, and an annual exclusion gift. Since laws change frequently, retaining legal assistance is highly advisable.

#### Assistance in Planning

A professional family business consultant can be a tremendous asset when confronting planning issues. The consultant is a neutral party who can stabilize the emotional forces within the family and bring the expertise of

working with numerous families across many industries. Most families believe theirs is the only company facing these difficult issues, and a family business consultant brings a refreshing perspective. In addition, the family business consultant can establish a family council and advisory board and serve as a facilitator to those two groups.

Advisory boards can be established to advise the company's president or board of directors. These boards consist of five to nine non-family members who meet regularly to provide advice and direction to the company. They too can take the emotions out of the planning process and provide objective input. Advisory board members should have business experience and be capable of helping the business to get to the next level of growth. In most cases, the advisory board is compensated in some manner.

As the family business grows, the family business consultant may suggest different options for the family. Often professional non-family managers or an outside CEO are recruited to play a role in the future growth of the business. Some families simply retain ownership of the business and allow it to operate with few or no family members involved.

### The future of family businesses

As Tracy Permian explains in her *Business Week* article entitled "Taking the Pulse of Family Business," two broad trends are visible in the realm of family business as we get comfortable in the 21st Century. First, the aging of the baby boom generation signals a coming ownership change for many family businesses within the next ten years. Second, more and more of these businesses will be taken over by women, continuing a trend that has been visible since the turn of the century. Permian goes on to highlight some statistics about women-owned family businesses that makes this trend towards female ownership seem quite positive. Recent studies have shown, Permian explains, that "women-owned businesses were more likely to focus on succession planning, have a 40 percent

lower rate of family-member attrition, intend to be more fiscally conservative, and carry less debt than male-owned businesses."

Some family-owned businesses are finding that it is no longer assumed that children will wish to take over a family business. If the founders of a firm wish to keep it in the family's hands, they should be sure to take proactive measures to attract future generations to the business.

- **Expose family members to all aspects of the business, including employees, customers, products, and services.**

- **Define the business's attractive qualities in terms that will appeal to the listener.**

- **Recognize those factors that have the potential to dissuade family members from staying involved in the business. These factors can range from personal interests that lie in other areas to conflicts with other family members.**

- **Reward family members who decide to join or stay with the family business. The 'price' successors pay to join and operate a family business may include giving up career options that they find financially and personally attractive. It may seem to a new family member coming into a family business that he or she is suffering a loss of privacy. Conflicts may arise between parent and child when their management styles conflict. A business may make compromises—such as making it possible for the successor to spend more time with his or her family or hiring an interim senior manager to buffer conflicts between parent and child. But the company's 'cost' and the successor's 'price' must be affordable to both.**

- **Give family members outlets to explore their ideas, interests, and concerns.**

The rewards of a family-owned business are many as are the challenges. Those family members who manage the family business should enjoy the business itself if they are to be successful and pass along a sense of enthusiasm for the



business when the time comes for them to hand over the reins.

### Innovation in family businesses

**It has been observed that family businesses are the mainstay of an economy, generating long-term employment and contributing to nation-building by adding to its GDP.** Traditionally, world over, it has been observed that family businesses are the mainstay of an economy, generating long-term employment and contributing to nation-building by adding to its gross development product (GDP). Although many family businesses are still small and medium enterprises, some have grown exponentially and transformed themselves from small shops around the corner to large publicly listed organizations.

In fact around 30 per cent of S&P 500 companies, two-fifth of the 250 largest firms in Germany and France and more than two-thirds of large organizations in East Asia and Latin America are family businesses, where the important decisions are controlled by family members. In US alone, there are 5.5 million family businesses, creating jobs for 63 per cent of the workforce and in turn contributing 57 per cent to the GDP of the country. According to the IEY report, the top 10 family businesses generated approximately \$1,298.3 billion of North America's GDP of \$19.6 trillion in 2015 and employed more than 3.6 million people. UK is not far behind with more than three million family businesses providing 9.4 million jobs and generating 25 per cent of GDP.

Family businesses are also deep-rooted in Asian cultures with Japan having the oldest family business in the world, presently run by the 40th generation. This region also boasts of a high concentration of family businesses at about 85 per cent. These family businesses contribute 34 per cent to the Asian GDP by employing 57 per cent of the workforce. Two-thirds of India's GDP and 90 per cent of the gross industry output are contributed by family business in India.

Although family businesses are important contributors to the growth story of any nation, in the Indian context, family businesses faced a major challenge in competing with global giants after the economic liberalization of 1991, as they showed resistance to change and innovation. However, in due course, Indian family businesses were able to change, modernize and compete with the multinational corporations.

Family businesses are generally traditional, risk-averse, close-knit businesses with generations taking the mantle forward which are not very open to new ideas. Additionally, lack of resources, both capital and human; smaller size, higher costs; lack of internal communication channels and dual role in family and business; and fear of upsetting the power balance of family can also render innovation less important.

However, the continuity of business across generations, longevity of the business and succession issues are the top priorities of family businesses and, hence, innovation becomes very important to survive, grow and remain competitive. In addition, integration of local markets with global markets and the continuous quest for sustainable growth are making family businesses innovate. In this era of globalization, it is all the more difficult for organizations to maintain their competitive advantage and any firm has a competitive advantage if it is able to create economic value.

The digital revolution has erased the traditional borders, and organizations and customers are omnipresent. Customer needs and preferences have changed from being local or regional to a global platform. Therefore, it is every challenging for organizations to be unique in their products or services, efficient in operations.

Through innovation, firms are able to create entirely new products or services that catapult them to a category of high-growth companies with an opportunity to be market leaders giving them competitive advantage if the competitors are unable to keep pace with them. Age of the firm plays a significant role towards the tendency to be innovative. Since innovation is an

Important strategy to grow and to gain competitive advantage, all firms choose this strategy, albeit, at varying degrees of intensity. Although there is a general belief that younger firms do not have the capacity to innovate when compared to older firms, it is seen in several studies that younger firms undertake greater risks to be more innovative compared to older firms.

It is interesting to note that, worldwide, the size of the firms that innovate vary according to industry. In US, the degree of innovation is higher for smaller firms in manufacturing and computer/modem industry whereas in Spain, larger firms innovate more in the engineering industry. With a number of firms leaving their domestic markets and offering their products and services to international markets and, in some cases, setting up their manufacturing bases there, internationalization is also an equally important strategic decision.

It offers firms with new markets, new sourcing and production bases, in addition to cheap labor, saving up to 70% per cent of production costs. By reducing dependency on the local markets, internationalization improves competitiveness of organization's but the choice of international market strategy is very pertinent as it involves huge costs and resources.

If the strategies of innovation and internationalization give competitive advantage to organizations, the same concept should be applicable to family businesses and they should not be far behind to adapt these strategies. This leads to the question: Do family businesses adapt the strategies of innovation and internationalization to keep pace with the global competitive environment? Further questions arise about the type of family businesses that adopt these strategies.

In a study of BSE 500 index companies spread across a period of 11 years, the writer analyses innovativeness and internationalization of family businesses in India using R&D expenses as a proxy for innovativeness and the proportion of foreign income as a proxy for internationalization and found that family businesses are more innovative and

internationalized when compared to non-family businesses. Resource-dependency framework explains this phenomenon and suggests that family businesses are entrepreneurial in nature which makes them more innovative.

Further, to probe into the question as to what type of family businesses innovate and internationalise more, the impact of age and the size of family businesses on these variables was studied and it was also found that within the family businesses, younger firms were more innovative and internationalized than older firms in the Indian context. This can be explained by the theory of "learning advantages of newness", according to which younger firms are more flexible, eager to learn, have less internal resistance and are able to adapt to the changing environment much faster. At the same time, "liabilities of aging" theory suggests that older firms become rigid, inflexible and lose their edge in fast decision-making.

This type of study has significant implications and can be extended to a large number of unlisted family businesses around the world. Governments need to create policies and platforms for family businesses to grow, innovate and internationalize. A positive business environment where family businesses can raise funds at lower interest rates, professional assistance for scaling up of their business and providing skilled labor and manpower can help family businesses in a big way.

## Topics in International Economy

### International Economics

International Economics is a field of study which assesses the implications of international trade in goods and services and international investment.

There are two broad sub-fields within international economics: international trade and international finance.

**International Trade** is a field in economics that applies microeconomic models to help understand the international economy. Its content includes the same tools that are introduced in microeconomics courses, including supply and demand analysis, firm and consumer

behavior, perfectly competitive, oligopolistic and monopolistic market structures, and the effects of market distortions. The typical course describes economic relationships between consumers, firms, factor owners, and the government.

The objective of an international trade course is to understand the effects on individuals and businesses because of international trade itself, because of changes in trade policies and due to changes in other economic conditions. The course will develop arguments that support a free trade policy as well as arguments that support various types of protectionist policies. By the end of the course, students should better understand the centuries-old controversy between free trade and protectionism.

**International Finance** applies macroeconomic models to help understand the international economy. Its focus is on the interrelationships between aggregate economic variables such as GDP, unemployment rates, inflation rates, trade balances, exchange rates, interest rates, etc. This field expands macroeconomics to include international exchanges. Its focus is on the significance of trade imbalances, the determinants of exchange rates and the aggregate effects of government monetary and fiscal policies. Among the most important issues addressed are the pros and cons of fixed versus floating exchange rate systems.

### International Political Economy

International political economy studies problems that arise from or are affected by the interaction of international politics, international economics, and different social systems (e.g., capitalism and socialism) and societal groups (e.g., farmers at the local level, different ethnic groups in a country, immigrants in a region such as the European Union, and the poor who exist transnationally in all countries). It explores a set of related questions ("problemata") that arise from issues such as international trade, international finance, relations between wealthier and poorer countries, the role of multinational corporations, and the problems of hegemony (the dominance, either physical

or cultural, of one country over part or all of the world), along with the consequences of economic globalization.

Analytic approaches to international political economy tend to vary with the problem being examined. Issues can be viewed from several different theoretical perspectives, including the mercantilist, liberal, and structuralist (Marxist or neo-Marxist) perspectives. Mercantilists are closely related to realists, focusing on competing interests and capabilities of nation-states in a competitive struggle to achieve power and security. Liberals are optimistic about the ability of humans and states to construct peaceful relations and world order. Economic liberals, in particular, would limit the role of the state in the economy in order to let market forces decide political and social outcomes. Structuralist ideas are rooted in Marxist analysis and focus on how the dominant economic structures of society affect (i.e., exploit) class interests and relations. Each of these perspectives is often applied to problems at several different levels of analysis that point to complex root causes of conflict traced to human nature (the individual level), national interests (the national level), and the structure of the international system (which lacks a single sovereign to prevent war). For example, analysis of U.S. policy regarding migrants from Mexico must take into consideration patterns of trade and investment between the two countries and the domestic interests on both sides of the border. Similarly, domestic and international interests are linked by trade, finance, and other factors in the case of financial crises in developing countries such as Thailand and Argentina. The distinction between foreign and domestic becomes as uncertain as the distinction between economics and politics in a world where foreign economic crises affect domestic political and economic interests through trade and financial linkages or through changes in security arrangements or migrant flows.

Contemporary international political economy appeared as a subfield of the study of international relations during the era of

Cold War rivalry between the Soviet Union and the United States (1945–91). Analyses initially focused largely on international security but later came to include economic security and the role of market factors—including multinational corporations, international banks, cartels (e.g., OPEC), and international organizations (e.g., the IMF)—in national and international security strategies. International political economy grew in importance as a result of various dramatic international economic events, such as the collapse of the Bretton Woods international monetary system in 1971 and the oil crisis of 1973–74.

During the early period of the Cold War, political scientists emphasized the realist, or power politics, dimension of U.S.–Soviet relations, while economists tended to focus on the Bretton Woods system of the international economy—that is, the institutions and rules that beginning in 1945 governed much of the international economy. During the Vietnam War, however, a growing decrease in the value of the U.S. dollar and large deficits for the United States in its balance of trade and payments weakened the ability of the United States to conduct and pay for the war, which thereby undermined its relationship to its North Atlantic Treaty Organization allies. During the OPEC oil crisis, the realist-oriented U.S. Secretary of State Henry A. Kissinger found himself unable to understand the issues without the assistance of an economist. These events led to a search for a multidisciplinary approach or outlook that borrowed different theories, concepts, and ideas from political science and international relations—as well as from economics and sociology—to explain a variety of complicated international problems and issues. It did not so much result in the development of a new school of political economy as emphasize the continued relevance of the older, more-integrated type of analysis, which explicitly sought to trace the connections between political and economic factors.

Following the end of the Cold War, international political economy became focused on issues raised by economic globalization, including the viability of the state in an increasingly globalized international economy, the role of multinational corporations in generating conflict as well as growth in the “new global economy,” and various problems related to equity, justice, and fairness (e.g., low wage rates in developing countries and the dependency of these countries on markets in wealthier countries). In the 1950s and ’60s, American economist W.W. Rostow and other experts on Western economic development made popular the argument that after a period of tension, disorder, and even chaos within a developing country that had been exposed to the West, that country would eventually “take off,” and development would occur. In the late 1960s and continuing into the 1990s, many development experts from a structuralist point of view (including many Marxists and neo-Marxists) posited a variety of explanations as to why many developing countries did not seem to develop or change much. For example, the German-born economist Andre Gander Frank made popular the idea that, when developing countries connect to the West, they become underdeveloped. Social theorist and economist Immanuel Wallerstein, whose works have made a lasting impact on the study of the historical development of the world capitalist system, argued that development does occur but only for a small number of semi-peripheral states and not for those peripheral states that remain the providers of natural resources and raw materials to the developed industrial core states.

Such themes were evident in the 1990s and the early 21st century when a number of politically and economically powerful (and mostly Western) multinational corporations were accused of exploiting women and children in unsanitary and unsafe working conditions in their factories in developing countries. These cases and others like them were seen by some structuralists as evidence of a “race to the bottom” in which,

In order to attract investment by international businesses, many developing countries relaxed or eliminated worker-protection laws and environmental standards.

### **International Economic Organizations, Developing Country Reforms, and Trade**

The three major international economic organizations are the World Bank, the International Monetary Fund (IMF), and the World Trade Organization (WTO). The WTO emerged out of the General Agreement on Tariffs and Trade (GATT) in 1995; it is an arrangement across countries that serves as a forum for negotiations on trading rules as well as a mechanism for dispute settlements in trade issues. By contrast, the World Bank and IMF deal with their member countries one at a time. They have little influence with industrial countries but can affect developing countries during times of economic crisis and when those countries seek additional foreign exchange resources. The origins and evolution of the three organizations are of considerable interest. Perhaps even more important in light of the recent financial crises in Mexico, East Asia, and a few other countries, are the questions that arise about the current and future roles of the IMF and the World Bank.

These questions cover a broad set of issues. A healthy open trading system is crucial for the progress of the international economy. It is particularly important in providing an environment in which developing countries can successfully reform their policies and achieve rapid economic growth and rising living standards for all. I have been particularly interested in the relationship between preferential trading arrangements, such as the North American Free Trade Agreement (NAFTA), and the WTO. The issue is simple: the WTO is based on the principle of open, nondiscriminatory trade among its members, while preferential trading arrangements are, by their nature, discriminatory. Under NAFTA, for example, goods originating in Mexico

and Canada are not subject to duties when they enter the United States, yet the same goods from other countries are subject to U.S. duties. Assuring that preferential trading arrangements will not block progress in multilateral liberalization is important, and I am now completing a paper in which I analyze how much discrimination has been a factor under the first three years of NAFTA.

My other major concern regarding international economic organizations is closely related to the subject of developing countries' economic policy reforms. I want to know what the current and future roles of the World Bank and IMF will be in economic policy reform in developing countries. In the case of the World Bank, for example, to what extent will the Bank need to focus its resources on poor countries and the support of economic policy reforms, as opposed to tackling "new issues," such as gender and ethnicity (including treatment of minorities). Both the Bank and the IMF have been criticized by many in light of the Asian financial crises of 1997 and 1998.

### **Economic Policy Reforms**

That takes me immediately to my second set of issues of concern: the choice of exchange rate regime and its relationship to economic growth and the avoidance of crisis. Even before 1994 there was cause for concern about Mexico and other countries that adopted "nominal anchor" exchange rate policies: they deliberately kept their exchange rates from depreciating as rapidly as would have been warranted on the basis of the inflation differential between themselves and the rest of the world. These regimes enabled foreigners to invest very profitably in local markets (because they received the domestic interest rate and could convert it into their own currencies at the appreciated exchange rate) until investors realized that the debt-servicing obligations that were accumulating were too heavy.

Moreover, as long as foreigners were willing to lend and invest, domestic

credit could increase in these countries without strong inflationary pressures: the lending financed an excess of imports over exports. Investors appear to have been fooled: they did not observe fiscal deficits, but they also failed to recognize that under these exchange rate regimes, rapid expansion of domestic credit was equivalent to increasing the contingent liabilities of the government, with the same long-run implications for sustainability unless capital inflows financed highly productive investments.

An increasing body of evidence suggests that efforts to maintain nominal anchor exchange rates are very unlikely to be unsustainable: the appropriate exchange rate regime is probably either floating rates or one in which the currency is permanently and irrevocably tied to a major foreign currency.

Indeed, the rapid expansion of domestic credit in many countries meant that banks did not have an adequate staff of trained personnel who could appropriately evaluate the credit risks of their borrowers. As a result, nonperforming loans built up in the domestic banking systems and weakened the banking structure. Then, when the exchange rate regime was abandoned, the dollar- (or yen- or Deutsch mark-) denominated liabilities of domestic borrowers increased the difficulty with debt servicing, and threatened a major crisis in the domestic banking system.

One of the questions that has arisen as we are better understanding the events of 1997-8 (and the earlier Mexican difficulties) is: what are the appropriate reforms for financial systems so that banks will have improved incentives (attributable mostly to increased capital adequacy standards) and will operate in a regulatory framework that prevents the build-up of nonperforming loans (whose magnitude is further increased when devaluation must follow the end of the nominal anchor exchange rate regime)? Aaron Tornal and I have analyzed the evolution of nonperforming loans in the Mexican banking system and the ways in which Mexico's policy responses to

the 1994-5 crisis enabled rapid recovery but failed to resolve some of the longer-term issues associated with restoring the health of the banks. The problem for policymakers is that recovery from crisis cannot occur until the banks are restored to health: that means that nonperforming loans must be removed from the banks' portfolios (as happened in Mexico). But that must be done in ways that prevent a repetition of the build-up of nonperforming loans. Finding an appropriate mix of policy instruments is challenging, and many researchers continue to investigate this topic.

An interesting and related question is how the charges of "cronyism" relate to the other issues that have arisen in the East Asian crisis. I am currently studying the parallels between state-directed lending by banks to cronies under "crony capitalism" and public-sector deficits of state economic enterprises under more state-led development. The parallels are interesting and instructive: if cronies can be assured of access to bank credit, their budget constraints are "soft," just as are those of state-owned enterprises when their losses are automatically covered from the government's budget. And, for the same reason, each type of enterprise is likely to realize lower rates of return on investments than when there is a "hard" budget constraint.

Likewise, for state enterprises politicians normally select managers whose talents and skills lie elsewhere. Cronies are equally likely to not be the most qualified and trained managers. In each instance, there is likely to be a lack of competition (or an unfair playing field) that further reduces pressures for economically efficient production. In both instances, import barriers are likely to be used to assist domestic firms. In the case of crony capitalism, access to credit on favorable terms and other government favors can insulate enterprises from competitive pressures. I am currently estimating real rates of return on investments in the various financial-crisis countries; preliminary data indicate

that real rates of return fell dramatically for several decades as the relative importance of the crony-run enterprises increased.

#### U.S. Trade Policy

The final area of research in which I have been involved in recent years is U.S. trade policy. The United States is so important in the world economy that its policies affect the functioning of the international economic system with at least as much force as does the WTO and other international economic organizations. Many aspects of U.S. trade policy are conducive to the efficient functioning of the international trading system, but there are questionable practices, too. While these practices clearly hurt U.S. consumers and producers, they have broader ramifications for the international economy because of the American leadership role. Particularly worrisome are American practices with respect to antidumping and countervailing duties: the law and the procedures followed in these cases bear little resemblance to the economist's case against predatory pricing. Many other countries are now imitating American practices, and there is a serious risk that many of the gains achieved in liberalizing world trade under GATT and the WTO will be eroded as more and more countries resort to antidumping measures and procedures that penalize trade even when predatory pricing is not involved.

#### EASE

All of these issues arise in connection with relations between East Asian countries and the United States. For the past ten years, Tadayoshi Ito and I have been codirectors of the INBER's East Asian Seminar on Economics. Each year a conference has been held on a subject relating to mutual interdependence. Authors have then revised their papers based on discussion at the conference, and we have produced a volume published for the INBER by the University of Chicago. Cosponsoring institutions are the Chung-Hwa Institution

for Economic Research in Taipei, the Japan Economic Research Center, the Korea Development Institute, and the Hong Kong University of Science and Technology. The five cosponsors have rotated being the local host, while the INBER has maintained a lead role in supporting the logistics of the conference and in preparing the results for publication. The subject of the 1998 conference in Osaka was the microeconomic aspects of direct foreign investment. That volume is in press. The subject of the 1999 conference, hosted by the INBER in Hawaii, was macroeconomic aspects of direct foreign investment. The 2000 conference, to be held in Seoul, will have trade in services as its theme. Each seminar has proved highly stimulating in illuminating the many similarities that arise across the economies of East Asia and the United States. Researchers from the participating countries also benefit from the additional insights they achieve when contrasting the circumstances in their own countries with those of others.

#### Global History of Marketing and Mass Consumption

##### Mass Consumption

"Mass Production" was a term invented by Henry Ford, the auto maker, in 1926. Before that, his system of assembly-line manufacturing was called "Fordism".

The genius of the 19th Century Industrial Economy was its ability to boost production, to maximize output. In the early 20th Century Henry Ford and others like him used the assembly line to maximize production to the point where the economy could simply out-produce the ability of consumers to buy the product. Even if you made it cheaply (and Henry Ford did) there was still more than people wanted to buy or could afford.

So the cutting edge of the 20th Century Industrial Economy was built around boosting consumption. If you had to get people to buy things, increase their wages, so they could spend more, and tempt them to buy stuff they didn't really need. If manufacturers even went

So far as to purposely make a product so that it wore out quickly or seemed outdated when it was still fairly new. Hence the fashion industry and "planned obsolescence" (invented by Alfred P Sloan, boss of General Motors, in 1926). Manufacturers found that if they promoted mass-consumption, they boosted profits. Mass-consumption had to be developed to accompany mass-production.

The first mass-consumption items were not expensive things like cars or clothes, but cheap things like newspapers. Mass newspaper readership developed across the industrial world in the later 19th century, and much of it based on cheap newsprint and mass-literacy from the new school systems which had been set up.

The newspaper circa 1900 was filled with advertising, and richly-illustrated stories. Stores, especially department stores marketed themselves visually with store displays and lavish, illustrated advertisements in the newspaper. Politicians had to do photo-ops. The media personality emerged. Eventually the attention shifted a little from the newspaper to the movies and the radio, but advertising remained. Advertising happened before 1900, but after that date it became very much more important and vital to manufacturing. Advertising became a tool for promoting mass-consumption. With TV and the internet, we have simply changed the medium, not the message.

Mass-consumption also depended upon the rising prosperity of people in the industrialized world, and their ability to buy all the stuff that was made and advertised. Their prosperity, to some extent, depended upon the ability of a market of mass-consumers to absorb the products which the industries produced. The consumer kept the producer in business, and the business paid the wages which financed the consumer.

For most of the rest of the 20th century, down to the present, the lifestyle of the industrial world has been one of mass-consumption. This mass-consumer lifestyle is being globalized, and it is a profoundly urban thing (perhaps that should be "suburban").

### The Evolution of Global Marketing

Whether an organization markets its goods and services domestically or internationally, the definition of marketing still applies. However, the scope of marketing is broadened when the organization decides to sell across international boundaries, this being primarily due to the numerous other dimensions which the organization has to account for. For example, the organization's language of business may be "English", but it may have to do business in the "French language". This not only requires a translation facility, but the French cultural conditions have to be accounted for as well. Doing business "the French way" may be different from doing it "the English way". This is particularly true when doing business with the Japanese.

Let us, firstly define "Marketing" and then see how, by doing marketing across multinational boundaries, differences, where existing, have to be accounted for.

### S. Carter Defines Marketing As:

"The process of building lasting relationships through planning, executing and controlling the conception, pricing, promotion and distribution of ideas, goods and services to create mutual exchange that satisfy individual and organizational needs and objectives".

The long-held tenants of marketing are "customer value", "competitive advantage" and "focus". This means that organizations have to study the market, develop products or services that satisfy customer needs and wants, develop the "correct" marketing mix and satisfy its own objectives as well as giving customer satisfaction on a continuing basis. However, it became clear in the 1980s that this definition of marketing was too narrow. Preoccupation with the tactical workings of the marketing mix led to neglect of long term product development, so "Strategic Marketing" was born. The focus was shifted from knowing everything about the customer, to knowing the customer in a context which includes the competition, government policy and regulations, and



The broader economic, social and political macro forces that shape the evolution of markets. In global marketing terms this means forging alliances (relationships) or developing networks, working closely with home country government officials and industry competitors to gain access to a target market. Also the marketing objective has changed from one of satisfying organisational objectives to one of "stakeholder" benefits - including employees, society, government and non-profit. Profit is still essential but not an end in itself.

### **Strategic Marketing According to Wensley (1982) has been defined as:**

"Initiating, negotiating and managing acceptable exchange relationships with key interest groups or constituencies, in the pursuit of sustainable competitive advantage within specific markets, on the basis of long run consumer, channel and other stakeholder franchise".

Whether one takes the definition of "marketing" or "strategic marketing", "marketing" must still be regarded as both a philosophy and a set of functional activities. As a philosophy embracing customer value (or satisfaction), planning and organising activities to meet individual and organisational objectives, marketing must be internalised by all members of an organisation, because without satisfied customers the organisation will eventually die. As a set of operational activities, marketing embraces selling, advertising, transporting, market research and product development activities to name a few. It is important to note that marketing is not just a philosophy or one or some of the operational activities. It is both. In planning for marketing, the organisation has to basically decide what it is going to sell, to which target market and with what marketing mix (product, place, promotion, price and people). Although these tenets of marketing planning must apply anywhere, when marketing across national boundaries, the difference between domestic and international marketing lies almost entirely in the differences in national environments within which the global programmed is conducted and the differences in the organization and

programmed of a firm operating simultaneously in different national markets.

It is recognized that in the "postmodern" era of marketing, even the assumptions and long standing tenants of marketing like the concepts of "consumer needs", "consumer sovereignty", "target markets" and "product/market processes" are being challenged. The emphasis is towards the emergence of the "customising consumer", that is, the customer who takes elements of the market offerings and moulds a customised consumption experience out of these. Even further, post modernism, posts that the consumer who is the consumed, the ultimate marketable image, is also becoming liberated from the sole role of a consumer and is becoming a producer. This reveals itself in the desire for the consumer to become part of the marketing process and to experience immersion into "thematic settings" rather than merely to encounter products. So in consuming food products for example, it becomes not just a case of satisfying hunger needs, but also can be rendered as an image - producing act. In the post modern market place the product does not project images, it fills images. This is true in some foodstuffs. The consumption of "designer water" or "slimming foods" is a statement of a self image, not just a product consuming act.

Acceptance of postmodern marketing affects discussions of products, pricing, advertising, distribution and planning. However, given the fact that this textbook is primarily written with developing economies in mind, where the environmental conditions, consumer sophistication and systems are not such that allow a quantum leap to postmodernism, it is intended to mention the concept in passing. Further discussion on the topic is available in the accompanying list of readings.

When organisations develop into global marketing organisations, they usually evolve into this from a relatively small export base. Some firms never get any further than the exporting stage. Marketing overseas can, therefore, be anywhere on a continuum of "foreign" to "global". It is well to note that this stage that the words "international",

"multinational" or "global" are now rather outdated descriptions. In fact "global" has replaced the other terms to all intents and purposes. "Foreign" marketing means marketing in an environment different from the home base, it's basic form being "exporting". Over time, this may evolve into an operating market rather than a foreign market. One such example is the Preferential Trade Area (PTA) in Eastern and Southern Africa where involved countries can trade inter-regionally under certain common modalities. Another example is the Cold Storage Company of Zimbabwe.

**Case II.1 Cold Storage Company of Zimbabwe**

The Cold Storage Company (CSC) of Zimbabwe, evolved in 1995, out of the Cold Storage Commission. The latter, for many years, had been the parastatal (or nationalised company) with the mandate to market meat in Zimbabwe. However, the CSC lost its monopoly under the Zimbabwean Economic Reform Programme of 1990-95, which saw the introduction of many private abattoirs. During its monopoly years the CSC had built five modern abattoirs, a number of which were up to European Union rating. In addition, and as a driving force to the building of IEU rated abattoirs, the CSC had obtained a 9000 tonnes beef quota in the IEU. Most of the meat went out under the auspices of the Botswana Meat Commission. For many years, the quota had been a source of volume and revenue, a source which is still continuing. In this way, the CSC's exporting of beef to the IEU is such that the IEU can no longer be considered as "Foreign" but an "Operating" market.

In "global marketing" the modus operandi is every different. Organisations begin to develop and run operations in the targeted country or countries outside of the domestic one. In practice, organisations evolve and Table II.1 outlines a typology of terms which describes the characteristics of companies at different stages in the process of evolving from domestic to global enterprises.

**The four stages are as follows:**

1. *Stage One:* Domestic in focus, with all activity concentrated in the home market. Whilst many organisations can survive like this, for example raw milk marketing, solely domestically oriented organisations are probably doomed to long term failure.

2. *Stage Two:* Home focus, but with exports (ethnocentric). Probably believes only in home values, but creates an export division. Usually ripe for the taking by stage four organisations.

3. *Stage Three:* Stage two organisations which realise that they must adapt their marketing mixes to overseas operations. The focus switches to multinational (polycentric) and adaptation becomes paramount.

4. *Stage Four:* Global organisations which create value by extending products and programmes and focus on serving emerging global markets (geocentric). This involves recognising that markets around the world consist of similarities and differences and that it is possible to develop a global strategy based on similarities to obtain scale economies, but also recognises and responds to cost effective differences. Its strategies are a combination of extension, adaptation and creation. It is unpredictable in behaviour and always alert to opportunities.

There is no time limit on the evolution process. In some industries, like horticulture, the process can be very quick.

**Table II.1 Stages of Domestic to Global Evolution**

Management Emphasis	Stage One Domestic	Stage Two International	Stage Three Multinational	Stage Four Global
Focus	Domestic	Ethnocentric	Polycentric	Geocentric
Marketing Strategy	Domestic	Extension	Adaption	Extension
Structure	Domestic	International	Worldwide area	Adaption Creation Matrix/mixed
Management Style	Domestic	Centralised Topdown	Decentralised Bottomup	Integrated
Manufacturing Instance	Mainly Domestic	Mainly Domestic	Host Country	Lowest Cost Worldwide
Investment Policy	Domestic	Domestic Used Worldwide	Mainly in Each Host Country	Cross Subsidization
Performance	Domestic	Against	Each Host	Worldwide

nce	tic	Ihome	Icountry	e
Ievaluation	Imarket	Icountry	Imarket	
n	Ishare	Imarket	Ishare	

### Factors Which Have Led To Internationalization

There have been many underlying forces, concepts and theories which have emerged as giving political explanation to the development of international trade. Remarkably, despite the trend to world interdependency, some countries have been less involved than others. The USA, for example, has a remarkably poor export record. About 2000 US companies only account for more than 70% of US manufacturer's exports. This has been mainly due to its huge state-wide domestic market, which is almost tantamount to "international trade", for example, Californian fruit being sold three thousand kilometres away in New Jersey. Japan has risen fast to dominate the export rankings, with countries of Africa struggling to make a significant mark, mainly because of their emphasis on exporting primary products. This section will briefly examine the forces which have been instrumental in the development of world trade.

### Theoretical Approaches

These include the theory of comparative advantage described in the book *Wealth of Nations* (Adam Smith) and *David Ricardo*, the product trade cycle (Raymond Vernon) and the Business Orientation (Howard Perlmutter).

### The theory of Comparative Advantage:

The theory can be relatively complex and difficult to understand but stated simply this theory is a demonstration (under assumptions) that a country can gain from trade even if it has an absolute disadvantage in the production of all goods, or it can gain from trade even if it has an absolute advantage in the production of all goods. Even though a country has an absolute production advantage it may be better to concentrate on its comparative advantage. To calculate the comparative advantage one has to compare the production ratios, and make the assumption that the one country totally specialises in one product. To maximise the wellbeing of both individuals and countries, countries are better off specialising in their area of competitive advantage and then

trading and exchanging with others in the market place. Today there are a variety of spreadsheets that one can use to calculate comparative advantage, one such is that of the Food and Agriculture Organization (FAO). Calculation of comparative advantage is as follows:

### Example

It may be assumed that Holland is more efficient in the production of flowers than Kenya. Yet Kenya succeeds in exporting thousands of tonnes of flowers to Europe every year. Kenya flower growers in South Africa and Oregon have achieved legendary reputations, in the supply of fresh cut flowers to Europe, how?

Take the simple two country - two product model of comparative advantage. Europe grows apples and South Africa oranges, these are two products, both undifferentiated and produced with production units which are a mixture of land, labour and capital. To use the same production units South Africa can produce 100 apples and 10 oranges, and Europe can produce 80 apples and 10 oranges. At the other extreme South Africa can produce 10 apples and 50 oranges and Europe 10 apples and 30 oranges. Now if the two countries specialise and trade the position is as follows:

Product	South Africa			Europe		
	Production	Imports	Consumers	Production	Imports	Consumers
Apples (000's)	0	30	30	80	30	50
Oranges (000's)	50	14	36	30	14	44

The trading price 30:14 = 2.14 = 1 apple = 2.14 oranges  
 14:30 = 0.467 = 1 orange = 0.467 apples

So in apples, South Africa has an advantage of 1.25 (100/80) but in oranges 1.67 (50/30). So South Africa should concentrate on the production of oranges as its comparative advantage is greatest there. Unfortunately the theory assumes that production costs remain relatively static. However, it is a well known fact that increased volumes result, usually, in lower costs. Indeed, the Boston Consulting Group observed this phenomenon, in the so called "experience curve" effect concept. And it is not only "production" related but "all experience" related; including marketing. The

IBoston Consulting Group observed that as an organisation gains experience in production and marketing the greater the reduction in costs. The theory of comparative advantage also ignores product and programme differentiation. Consumers do not buy products based only on the lowest costs of production. Image, quality, reliability of delivery and other intangible and non-tangible factors come into play. Kenyan may well be prepared to pay extra for imported French or South African wines, as the locally produced grape wine may be much inferior.

#### **The Product Trade Cycle:**

The model describes the relationship between the product life cycle, trade and investment (see Figure 11.1) and is attributable to Venon<sup>1</sup> (1966)

The International Product Trade Cycle model suggests that many products go through a cycle during which high-income, mass consumption countries which are initial exporters, lose their export markets and finally become importers of the product. At the same time other countries, particularly less developed but not exclusively so, shift from being importers to exporters. These stages are reflected in Figure 11.1.

#### **Figure 11.1 International Product Trade Cycle**

From a high income country point of view phase 1 involves exporting, based on domestic product strength and surplus-to phase 2, when foreign production begins, to phase 3 when production in the foreign country becomes competitive, to phase 4 when import competition begins. The assumption behind this cycle is that new products are firstly launched in high income markets because (a) there is most potential and (b) the product can be tested best domestically near its source of production. Thus new products generally emanate from high income countries and, over time, orders begin to be solicited from lower income countries and so a thriving export market develops. High income country entrepreneurs quickly realise that the markets to which they are selling often have lower production costs and so production is initiated abroad for the new products, so starts the second stage.

In the second stage of the cycle, foreign and high income country production begins to supply the same export market. As foreign producers begin to expand and gain more experience, their competition displaces the

high income export production source. At this point high income countries often decide to invest in foreign countries to protect their share. As foreign producers expand, their growing economies of scale make them a competitive source for third country markets where they compete with high income exporters. The final phase of the cycle occurs when the foreign producer achieves such a scale and experience that it starts exporting to the original high income producer at a production cost lower than its original high income producer at a production cost lower than its original high income supplier. High income producers, once enjoying a monopoly in their own market, now face competition at home.

The cycle continues as the production capability in the product extends from other advanced countries to less developed countries at home, then in international trade, and finally, in other advanced countries home markets.

#### **Case 11.2 IUK Textiles**

There are numerous examples of the International Product Trade Cycle in action. No more than the textiles industry, especially cotton. In the early and mid twentieth century the UK was a major producer of cotton textile materials, primarily based on its access to cheap raw materials from its Commonwealth countries and its relatively cheap labour. However, its former colonies like India, Pakistan and certain African countries, which were sources of cotton in themselves realised that they had the labour and materials on their doorstep conducive to domestic production. They began to do so. Such was their success in supplying their own huge markets that their production costs dropped dramatically with growing economies of scale.

Soon they were able to support cloth and finished goods back to the UK, which by now had experienced growing production costs due to rising labour costs and failing market share. Now the UK has little cotton materials production and is served by many countries over the world, including its former colonies and Commonwealth countries.

Whilst the underlying assumption behind the International Product Trade Cycle is that the cycle begins with the export of new product ideas from high income countries to low income importers, then low income countries begin production of the product etc., things

It does not always turn out as the cycle suggests. Sometimes a high or even low income exporter may put a product into a high/low income country which is simply unable to respond. In this case, the trade cycle ceases to be the underpinning concept. This may be due to a number of factors like lack of access to capital to build the facilities to respond to the import, lack of skills, or that the costs of local production cannot get down to the level of costs of the imported product. In this case, product substitution between the exporter and importer may also take place. A classic example of this phenomenon is the case of Zimbabwe Sun Splash fruit juice drinks.

### Case 11.3 ISun Splash IZimbabwe

Sun Splash, based in Masvingo, Zimbabwe had, since 1984, processed a variety of fruit juices for the Zimbabwean market. When Zimbabwe embarked on its World Bank sponsored structural adjustment program in 1990, Zimbabwe steadily moved from a command to a market economy, part of which allowed foreign importers.

In a short space of time, market share for Sun Splash fell from 11 million liters annually to a mere 400 000 liters. On this reduced volume, coupled with higher transport costs, the company simply could not compete and closed its doors in January 1995. However reduction in income and transport costs were not the only problems. Expenses like high-interest rates were an inhibiting factor. The company needed to make the transition to aseptic packaging which would alleviate the need for chemical preservatives and enhance unrefrigerated shelf life. The new packaging would have greatly enhanced the product and generated export potential. However, cashflow constraints within the holding company, (AFDIS), coupled with high-interest rates made the \$5.8 million investment unviable.

### The Orientation of Management:

Perlmutter<sup>1</sup> (1967) identified the distinctive "orientations" of the management of international organizations. His "EPRG" scheme identified four types of attitudes or orientations associated with successive stages in the evolution of international operations.

- Ethnocentrism - Home country orientation - exporting surplus.
- Polycentrism - Host country orientation - subsidiary operation.

· Regiocentrism - Regional orientation - world market strategies.

· Egocentrism - World orientation - world market strategies.

The latter two are based on similarities and differences in markets, capitalizing on similarities to obtain cost benefits, but recognizing differences.

### Market Forces and Development

Over the last few decades internationalism has grown because of a number of market factors which have been driving development forward, over and above those factors which have been attempting to restrain it. These include market and marketing related variables.

Many global opportunities have arisen because of the clustering of market opportunities worldwide. Organizations have found that similar basic segments exist worldwide and, therefore, can be met with a global orientation. Cotton, as an ingredient in shirting's, suiting's, and curtain material can be globally marketed as natural and fashionable. One can see in the streets of New York, London, Kuala Lumpur or Harare, youth with the same style and brand of basketball shirts or American football shorts. Coca Cola can be universally advertised as "Adds Life" or appeal to a basic instinct "You can't beat the feeling" or "Come alive" as with the case of Pepsi. One can question "what feeling?", but that is not the point. The more culturally unbounded the product is, the more a global clustering can take place and the more a standardized approach can be made in the design of marketing programmes.

This standardized approach can be aided and labelled with technology. Technology has been one of the single most powerful driving forces to internationalism. Rarely is technology culturally bound. A new pesticide is available almost globally to any agricultural organisation as long as it has the means to buy it. Computers in agriculture and other applications are used universally with IBM and Macintosh becoming household names. The need to recoup large costs of research and development in new products may force organisations to look at global markets to recoup their investment. This is certainly true of many veterinary products. Global volumes allow continuing investment in R & D, thus helping firms to improve

quality. Farm machinery, for example, requires volume to generate profits for the development of new products.

Communications and transport are shrinking the global market place. Value added manufacturers like Cadbury, Nestlé, Kellogg's, Beyer, Norsk Hydro, Massey Ferguson and ICI find themselves "under pressure" from the market place and distributors alike to position their brands globally. In many cases this may mean an adaptation in advertising appeals or messages as well as packaging and instructions. Nestlé will not be in a hurry to repeat its disastrous experience of the "Infant formula" saga, whereby it failed to realise that the liability to find, boil and water for its preparations, coupled with the illiteracy level to read the instructions properly, were not universal phenomena.

Marketing globally also provides the marketer with five types of "leverage" or "advantages", those of experience, scale, resource utilisation and global strategy. A multi-product global giant like Nestlé, with over £10 billion turnover annually, operates in so many markets, buys so much raw material from a variety of outgrowers of different sizes, that its international leverage is huge. If it consumes a third of the world's cocoa output annually, then it is in a position to dominate terms. This also has its dangers.

The greatest lift to producers of raw agricultural products has been the almost universal necessity to consume their produce. If one considers the whole range of materials from their raw to value added state there is hardly a market segment which cannot be tapped globally. Take, for example, oranges. Not only are Brazilian, Israeli, South African and Spanish oranges in demand in their raw state worldwide, but their downstream developments are equally in demand. Orange juice, concentrates, segments and orange pigments are globally demanded. In addition the ancillary products and services required to make the orange industry work, find themselves equally in global demand. So insecticides, chemicals, machinery, transport services, financial institutions, warehousing, packaging and the whole range of other production and marketing services are in demand, many provided by global organisations like Beyer, British Airways and Barclays Bank. Of course, many raw materials are at the mercy of world prices, and so many developing countries find

themselves at the mercy of supply and demand fluctuations. But this highlights one important global lesson - the need to study markets carefully. Tobacco producing countries of the world are finding this out. With a growing trend away from tobacco products in the west, new markets for increasing volumes into consuming markets have to be prospected and developed. Many agricultural commodities take time to mature. An orange grove will mature after five years. By that time another country may plant or have its trees mature. Unless these developments are picked up by global intelligence the plans for a big profit may be not realised as the extra volume supplied depresses prices. This happened in 1993/94 with the Malawian and Zimbabwean tobacco companies. The unexpected release of Chinese tobacco depressed the tobacco price well below expectations, leaving farms with stock and large interest carrying production loans.

A number of suppliers of agricultural produce can take advantage of "off season" in other countries, for the fact that they produce speciality products. This is the way by which many East African and South American producers established themselves in Europe and the USA respectively. In fact the case of Kenya vegetables to Europe is a classic, covering many of the factors which have just been discussed - improved technology, emerging global segments, shrinking communications gaps and the drive to diversify product ranges.

#### Case 11.4 Kenya Off Season Vegetables

Kenya's export of off season and speciality vegetables has been such that from 1957 to the early 1990s exports have grown to 26 000 tonnes per annum. Kenya took advantage of:

- Increased health consciousness, increased affluence and foreign travel of West European consumers;
  - Improved technologies and distribution arrangements for fresh products in Western Europe;
  - The emergence of large immigrant populations in several European countries;
  - Programmes of diversification by agricultural export countries and
  - Increased uplift facilities and cold store technologies between Europe and Kenya.
- Exports started in 1957, via the Horticultural Cooperation Union, which pioneered the

European "off season" trade by sending small consignments of green beans, sweet peppers, chillies and other commodities to a London based broker who sold them to up market hotels, restaurants and department stores. From these beginnings Kenya has continued to give high quality, high value commodities, servicing niche markets. Under the colonialists, production remained small, under the misguided reasoning that Kenya was too far from major markets. So irrigation for production was limited and the markets served were tourists and the settlers in Kenya itself.

The 1970s saw an increased trade as private investment in irrigation expanded, and air freight space increased, the introduction of wide bodied aircraft, and trading relationships grew with European distributors. Kenya, emerged as a major supplier of high quality sweet peppers, courgettes and French beans and a major supplier of "Asian" vegetables (okra, chillies etc.) to the UK growing immigrant population. Kenya was favoured because of its ability to supply all year round - a competitive edge over other suppliers. Whilst the UK dominated, Kenya began supplying to other European markets.

Kenya's comparative advantage was based on its low labour costs, the country's location and its diverse agro-ecological conditions. These facilitated the development of a diversified product range, all year round supply and better qualities due to labour intensity at harvest time. Kenya's airfreight costs were kept low due to government intervention, but lower costs of production were not its strength.

This lay in its ability for continuance of supply, better quality and Kenyan knowledge of the European immigrant population. Kenya's rapidly growing tourist trade also accelerated its canning industry and was able to take surplus production.

In the 1980's Kenya had its ups and downs. Whilst losing out on temperature vegetables (courgettes etc) to lower cost Mediterranean countries, it increased its share in French beans and other speciality vegetables significantly getting direct entry into the supermarket chains and also Kenya broke into tropical fruits and cut flowers - a major success. With the development and organisation for many small "outgrowers", channelled into the export market and thus widening the export base, the industry now

provides an important source of income and employment. It also has a highly developed information system, coordinated through the Kenya Horticultural Crops Development Authority.

Kenya is thus a classic case in its export vegetable industry of taking advantage of global market forces. However, it has to look to its laurels as Zimbabwe is rapidly beginning to develop as another source of flowers and vegetables, particularly the former.

Whilst the forces, market and otherwise, have been overwhelming in their push to globalisation, there remain a number of negatives. Many organisations have been put off or have not bothered going into global industry due to a variety of factors. Some have found the need to adapt the marketing mix, especially in many culture bound products, too daunting. Similarly brands with a strong local history may not easily transfer to other markets. National breweries of Zimbabwe, for example, may not find their Chibuku brand of beer (brewed especially for the locals) an easy transboundary traveller. More often than not sheer management myopia may set in and management may fail to seize the export opportunity although products may be likely candidates. Similarly organisations may refuse to devolve activities to local subsidiaries.

Other negative forces may be created by governments. Simply by creating barriers to entry, local enterprises may be protected from international competition as well as the local market. This is typical of many developing countries, anxious to get their fledgling industries off the ground.

### The International Economic System

Several factors have contributed to the growth of the international economy post World War II. The principal forces have been the development of economic blocs like the European Union (EU) and then the "economic pillars" - the World Bank (or International Bank for Reconstruction and Development to give its full name), the International Monetary Fund (IMF) and the evolution of the World Trade Organisation from the original General Agreement on Tariffs and Trade (GATT).

Until 1969 the world economy traded on a gold and foreign exchange base. This affected liquidity drastically. After 1969 liquidity was

leased by the Agreement that member nations to the IMF accept the Special Drawing Rights (SDR) in settling reserve transactions. Now an international reserve facility is available. Recently, the World Bank has taken a very active role in the reconstruction and development of developing country economies, a point which will be expanded on later.

Until the General Agreement on Tariffs and Trade (GATT) after World War III, the world trading system had been restricted by discriminating trade practices. GATT had the intention of producing a set of rules and principles to liberalise trade. The most favoured nation concept (MFN), whereby each country agrees to extend to all countries the most favourable terms that it negotiates with any country, helped reduce barriers. The "round" of talks began with Kennedy in the 1960s and Tokyo of the 1970s. The latest round, Uruguay, was recently concluded in April 1994 and ratified by most countries in early 1995. Despite these trade agreements, non-tariff barriers like exclusion deals, standards and administrative delays are more difficult to deal with. A similar system exists with the European Union, the Lomé Convention. Under this ideal, African and Caribbean countries enjoy favoured status with ECU member countries.

Relative global peace has engendered confidence in world trade. Encouraged by this and the availability of finance, global corporations have been able to expand into many markets. The break up of the former Soviet Union has opened up vast opportunities to investors, aided by the World Bank and the European Development Bank. This atmosphere of peace has also allowed the steady upward trend of domestic growth and again opened up market opportunities domestically to foreign firms. Peace in Mozambique, the "normalisation" of South Africa, and peace in Vietnam are examples that have opened up the way for domestic growth and also, therefore, foreign investment. The liberation of economies under World Bank sponsored structural adjustment programmes have also given opportunities. This is very true of countries like Zambia and Zimbabwe, where in the latter, for example, over \$2.8 billion of foreign investment in the stock exchange and mining projects have occurred in the early 1990s.

Sometimes, market opportunities open up through "Acts of God". The great drought of 1992 in Southern Africa, necessitated a large influx of foreign produce, especially yellow maize from the USA and South America.

Not only did this give a market for maize only, but opened up opportunities for transport businesses and services to serve the drought-stricken areas. Speedy communications like air transportation and electronic data transmission and technology have "shrunk" the world. Costs and time have reduced enormously and with the advent of television, people can see what is happening elsewhere and this can cause desire levels to rise dramatically. Only recently has television been introduced into Tanzania, for example, and this has brought the world and its markets, closer to the average Tanzanian.

No doubt a great impetus to global trade was brought about by the development of economic blocs, and, conversely, by the collapse of others. Blocs like the European Union (EU), ASEAN, the North American Free Trade Agreement (NAFTA) with the USA, Canada and Mexico has created market opportunities and challenges. New countries are trying to join these blocs all the time, because of the economic, social and other advantages they bring. Similarly, the collapse of the old communist blocs have given rise to opportunities for organisations as they strive to get into the new market based economies arising from the ruins. This is certainly the case with the former Soviet bloc.

In the late 1980s and early 1990s, the United States, along with Japan, have been playing an increasingly influential role in world affairs, especially with the collapse of the former USSR. Whilst on the one hand this is good, as the USA is committed to world welfare development, it can be at a price. The Gulf War coalition of the 1990s, primarily put together by the USA as the leading player, was an example of the price.

#### **Impetus to Global Marketing Involvement**

Individuals or organisations may get involved in international marketing in a rather unplanned way which gives the impetus to more formal and larger operations. This may happen in a number of ways:

#### **Foreign Customers**

Unsolicited enquiries through word of mouth, visits, exhibitions, and experience through



Others may result in orders. This is often typical of small scale organisations.

#### **Importers**

Importers may be looking for products unavailable in domestic markets, for example, mangoes in the UK, or products which can be imported on more favourable terms. An example of these is flowers from Kenya to Holland.

#### **Intermediaries**

These may be of four types - domestic based export merchants, domestic based export agents, export management companies or cooperative organisations. These will be expanded on later in this text. Sometimes an intermediary may provide export services in an attempt to reduce their own costs on the export of their own produce by acting as a representative for other organisations. This is called "piggybacking".

#### **Other Sources**

These may include banks, export organisations like ZIMTRADE, parastatals like the Kenyan Horticultural Crop Development Authority or even individual executives.

#### **Attitudes as Precursors to Global Involvement**

Cavusgil<sup>3</sup> (1984) developed a three-stage model of export involvement, based on the fact that the opportunity to export may arise long before exporting behaviours became manifest. See figure 11.2.

#### **Figure 11.2 Cavusgil's Three Stage Model of Export Involvement**

According to Cavusgil attitudes are determined by the operating style of the organisation and cultural norms which prevail in the domestic market. An organisation's style may be defensive or prospective. The latter type of organisation may systematically, or in an ad hoc manner, search out international opportunities.

Culture plays a vital part in the internationalisation process. Hakansson et al<sup>4</sup>. (1982) demonstrated that German and Swedish firms internationalise much earlier in their corporate history than do French or British companies. African culture is not littered with international marketers of note. This may be due to colonisation late into the twentieth century.

#### **Behaviour as a Global Marketing Impetus**

We saw earlier in the internationalisation process that organisations may evolve from exporting surplus or serving ad hoc enquiries to a more committed global strategy. This

gradual change may involve moving from geographically adjacent markets to another, say, for example from the Southern African Development Conference (SADC) to Europe. However, not all globalisation takes place like this. In the case of fresh cut flowers, these may go to major, developed country consumer centres, for example from Harare to London or Amsterdam and Frankfurt. Lusaka or Nairobi may never see Zimbabwe flowers. In analysing behaviour one has not to generalise. What is certain, is that in all stages, the balance of opportunity and risk is considered.

#### **The Context of Internationalisation**

It is essential to see in what context individual organisations view internationalisation. The existing situation of the firm will affect its interest in and ability to internationalise. Such may be the low domestic quality and organisation that a firm could never export. It may not have the resources or the will.

#### **Internationalization Infrastructure**

Johansson and Mattison<sup>5</sup> (1984) have explored the notion of differences in tasks facing organisations which internationalize. In low and high infrastructure situations. "Early starters" are likely to experiment or depend on contacts with experienced organizations which know the process. "Late starters" may use existing contacts as a "bridge" to new opportunities. They may also be pressured by customers, suppliers or competitors to get into joint venturing. Joint venturing, with its added infrastructure, may lead to rapid progress. If the organization faces intense competition then it may be forced to up the pace and scale of foreign investment. Rising protectionism in recent years has given impetus to late starters to establish production facilities in target markets. Infrastructure for foreign operations may also change (firms also reduce their investment as well as invest). When this happens the perceived risk changes also.

This discussion on international infrastructure concludes the factors which have led to internationalization. It is a complex focus of internal and external factors and looking carefully at risk versus opportunities.

#### **Planning to Meet the Opportunities and Challenges of Global Marketing**

In order to take advantage of global opportunities, as well as meet the challenges presented by so doing a number of concepts

can be particularly useful. Every organisation needs an understanding of what is involved in "strategy", or else the haphazardness involved in chance exporting can be accepted as the norm with all inherent dangers involved. Also potential exporters need to know what is going on in the global "environment". Just as in domestic marketing "Government", "competition", "social" and other factors need to be accounted for, such is the case in international marketing. If one can place products or services at a point on an environmental sensitivity/insensitivity continuum, one can see more clearly the need to account for differences in the marketing mix. By comparing the similarities and differences between domestic and international marketing needs and planning requirements, then the organisation is in a better position to isolate the key factors critical to success. This section examines all these concepts in brief.

#### Strategy

Whatever business we are in, haphazard organisation often leads to haphazard results. In planning for international marketing organisations need a clear picture of the steps involved. "Strategy" gives such a picture. Strategy is the response of the organisation to the realities of shareholders and the business environment. The phases in the strategy formulation process are given in figure 11.3.

#### Figure 11.3 Strategy Formulation

##### The Global Environment

Of all the steps in formulating strategy, no one step is as important as the ability to assess the "environmental" factors in international marketing. Taking account of cultural, economic and political differences is a must when dealing with different markets. More will be said on these factors in later chapters. Environmental analysis allows the organisation to cluster markets according to similarities and differences, based on the environmental "uncontrollable" factors. The international "uncontrollables" are in addition to the organisation's domestic "uncontrollables" so need to be treated with extra care. Figure 11.4 shows the major environmental factors to be considered. It must be noted that according to the "relationship" marketing school of thought, the so-called "incontrollables" can be made more "controllable" by building relationships with the influences of these factors. For

example, if an exporter of horticultural produce wishes to be able to anticipate changes in the political environment, it may build a relationship with certain politicians who may have intimate knowledge of the political system. This should not, of course, be misconstrued as "insider information". However, having made this caveat, this text will treat the "incontrollables" in the conventional way.

#### Figure 11.4 Foreign "uncontrollables" in the Global Macroenvironment

##### International Environment

An analysis of the environmental uncontrollables allows the potential marketers to place products on a continuum of environmental sensitivity. At the one end are environmentally insensitive products and at the other end, those more sensitive to economic, sociocultural, physical and other factors. The greater the sensitivity, the greater the need for the organisation to learn the way the product interacts with the environment. An example is given below (figure 11.5).

#### Figure 11.5 Environmental Sensitivity Framework for International Analysis

In order to put together the task of finding the differences and similarities in environmental and market analysis, a framework needs to be devised. Where unifying influences are found then the marketer is able to develop more standardised plans. When there are a large number of differences, then plans have to be designed adapted to circumstances. Figure 11.6 gives a framework for the process of identifying similarities and differences.

#### Figure 11.6 A Conceptual Framework for Multinational Marketing: National Market Versus Other Nations

Once having identified the unifying and differentiating influences and answered many questions about where one could or could not standardise the marketing planning process then a conceptual framework for multinational marketing planning can be developed. One such conceptual framework is given in figure 11.7.

#### Figure 11.7 A Conceptual Framework for Multinational Marketing in Constraint Economies

Key questions for analysis, planning and control of marketing in constraint economies.

a) Principle Constraint Analysis

- i) Government's Attitude To Employment, Foreign Intervention, Foreign Exchange, Indebtedness and Policies
- ii) Government's Policy Of Economic Development, Foreign Exchange, Barter Deals, Equity Arrangements, Remittance Of Funds, State Intervention, Private Sector Development and Import Substitution?
- iii) Government's Social Objectives Including Indigenisation, Subsidies, Population and Socialisation?
- iv) Laws, Tariffs, Duties, Trade Regulations, Balance Of Payments, Licensing and Labour Laws?

Leading To An Economic Analysis

Gathering Of Inappropriate Data On:

- b) Appropriate Environmental Variable Data
  - i) Market Characteristics-physical, Cultural, Size, Growth Rate, Stage Of Development?
  - ii) Market Institutions - Distribution, Media, Research, Services?
  - iii) Industry Conditions- Size, Practices, Development Stage, Appropriate Technology?
  - iv) Resources- Manpower and Money?

**Planning**

- c) Target Country Experts Or Generalist Staff To Plan Operations?
- d) What Are The *authorised* Target Markets and The Product Appropriateness?
- e) Market Size?
- f) What Is The Stage Of Development and Strength Of Competition Both State and Private?
- g) What Is The Appropriate Product/market Technology?
- h) What Is The Necessary Adaptation Of The Marketing Mix?
- i) How Do The Government and Company Objectives Coincide?
- j) What Is The Trading Risk?
- k) What Government/organisation Interface Is Required? How Are Licences Agreed and Obtained? Who Are The Principle Characters?

**Structure**

- l) How Does The Company Have To Be Structured To Meet The Government, Economic and Social Objectives As Well As Company Objectives

**Plan Implementation**

- m) Given The Government's Policies, Attitudes and Economic and Social Objectives How Is An Effective Marketing Plan Designed, Resourced and Implemented? What Degree Of Adaptation and Cooperation Is Required At All

Levels? (Government Marketing Institutions and Function)? Who Will Be Responsible For Each Level"?

**Controlling The Market Program**

- n) Who Is Responsible and How Is The Plan Performance Measured and Monitored?
- o) What Controls, Other Than Profit Are Required? Are Employment and Other Such Objectives Necessary?
- p) Has The Company The Ability and Authority To Alter The Parameters To Bring Actual Results Into Line With Desired?
- q) What Are The Principal Control Parameters? Can They Be Easily Adjusted At All?

This Framework Is Particularly Relevant To Developing Economies Where Government Constraints and Controls Tend To Be More Intensive Than Developed Economies.

**Product Life/market Life Cycle**

Just As In Domestic Marketing The Concept Of The Product Life Cycle Has Often Been Cited As A Useful (but Often Misaligned!) Planning Concept, So It Can Be Useful In International Marketing. Figure 11.8 Gives An Outline Of The Market Life Cycle Across International Boundaries.

**Figure 11.8 The Product/market Life Cycle**

The Traditional Four Stage Life Cycle - Introduction, Growth, Maturity, Decline - Is A Well Documented Phenomenon. Attempts Are Made In The Maturity Stage To Extend The Cycle. The Market Life Cycle Is Very Similar and What Global Marketers Have To Be Wary Of Is That Not All Markets Are At The Same Stage Globally. It May Be Appropriate To Have Tractor Mounted Ditchers and Diggers In Africa Or The UK Where Labour Is Not Too Plentiful, But In India, They May Be The Last Thing Required Where Labour Is Plentiful and Very Cheap. So The Appropriate Marketing Strategy Will Be Different For Each Market.

It Would Be Very Easy To Discuss The Global Marketing Decision As A Case Of Deciding Whether To Export Or Standardise Or Adapt Your Product/market Offering. This Is Far From The Case. Even The Smallest Nuance Of Change In The Global Environment Can Ruin A Campaign Or Plan. Whilst The Above Discussion Has Tended To Be Theoretical In Nature, Most Of It, If Not All Of It, Is Essential In Practice. In Food Marketing Systems Many Transactions and Discussions Take Place Across International Boundaries. This Involves A Close Look At All The Necessary Environmental Factors. If One Considers Food Marketing As The Physical and

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### **Immigrant IEntrepreneurship**

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Years have contributed to entrepreneurship through self-employment and earnings. It aims to address the questions of how do immigrants contribute to recent U.S. self-employment trends, in what industries are immigrant entrepreneurs concentrated, and how do their earnings compare to those of U.S.-born entrepreneurs? Before turning to the analysis, I aimed to provide a broader understanding of contributions of immigrants to entrepreneurship, I begin with a brief overview of the relevant literature.<sup>1</sup>

### Literature Review of Immigrant Entrepreneurship

There are a number of relevant ways to measure entrepreneurship and immigrant contributions to it. One is by measuring business ownership and startups. A body of research has consistently found that business ownership is higher among the foreign-born than the native-born in many developed countries such as the United States, United Kingdom, Canada, and Australia (Borjas 1986; Lofstrom 2002; Clark and Drinkwater 2000, 2010; Schuetz and Antecol 2007; Fairlie et al. 2010). Immigrants in the United States are also found to be more likely to start businesses than the native born (Fairlie 2008).

Other measures of entrepreneurship also point toward significant immigrant contributions. For example, as a recent review of the relevant literature shows, immigrants are greatly over-represented among U.S.-based Nobel Prize winners, high-impact companies, patent applications, and members of the National Academy of Sciences and the National Academy of Engineering (Fairlie and Lofstrom 2015). They are also over-represented among founders of high-tech companies, biotech firms, biotech companies undergoing initial public offerings, and public venture-backed U.S. companies. Nonetheless, some researchers urge caution about interpreting immigrant contributions to the high-tech sector of the economy. Hart and Acs (2011: 1116) conclude that “most previous studies have overstated the role of immigrants in high-tech entrepreneurship.”

There is evidence of broader contributions by skilled immigrants to innovation. For example, Hunt and Gauthier-Loiselle (2010) find that the increase in the share of the U.S. immigrant population with at least a college degree increased the country’s patents per capita by about 21 percent. Importantly,

they point out that their analysis does not suggest that immigrants are innately more able than the native-born but that the higher rate of patenting among college graduate immigrants is entirely explained by the greater share of immigrants with science and engineering education compared to the native-born. Another influential study, by Kerr and Lincoln (2010), assesses the impact of high-skilled immigration on technology information as measured by science and engineering employment and patenting. They find that high-skilled temporary workers from India and China on H-1B visas in the United States account for a significant share of the growth in U.S. immigrant science and engineering employment. A key takeaway is that the growth is accomplished without crowding out native-born scientists and engineers.

However, not all evidence points toward such positive and beneficial effects of immigrant entrepreneurship. Specifically, there is some evidence that immigrant entrepreneurs may crowd out native-born entrepreneurs (Fairlie and Meyer 2003). This limited evidence is mixed, and even within the same study, the findings also indicate that immigration increases earnings among the native-born self-employed. In light of the less than clear picture of the role of immigration on native business owners, Fairlie and Meyer (2003: 1647) suggest that the results “may be due to immigrants primarily displacing marginal or low-income self-employed natives, but our analyses do not provide clear evidence supporting this hypothesis.”

The notion and relevance of self-employment as an economic stepping stone, as well as a tool in immigrants’ economic assimilation process in the host country, has been explored by a number of researchers. Most researchers have focused on examining whether business ownership tends to rise with time in the new country, and generally find a positive relationship (Borjas 1986, Clark and Drinkwater 2010, Lofstrom 2002, Schuetz 2009, and Andersson and Wadensjö 2005). Fewer studies have analyzed assimilation learning patterns among immigrant self-employed business owners.

Lofstrom (2002) analyzes both self-employment probabilities and earnings and finds that both increase along with time spent in the United States. Specifically, he finds that self-employed immigrants are relatively successful

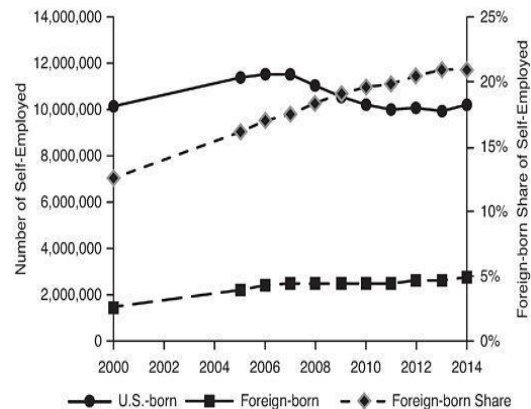
and may even reach earnings parity with observationally similar U.S.-born entrepreneurs after about 25 years in the country. For wage-earning immigrants, however, he does not find evidence of earnings convergence relative to their native-born wage-earning counterparts. In an analysis that also includes immigrants in Canada and Australia, Antecol and Schuetze (2007) find that in all three countries self-employment increases with the time in the country but that in terms of earnings outcomes relative to natives, self-employed immigrants in the United States outperformed immigrants in those two countries. This finding is interesting and policy irrelevant because, unlike immigrants to Canada and Australia, U.S. immigrants are not extensively selected and admitted based on skills. This feature may be due to the self-selection of immigrant entrepreneurs, with the most promising foreign-born entrepreneurs favoring the United States because of potentially higher returns to their capital compared with countries with more equal income distributions.<sup>2</sup>

### Recent Trends in Immigrant Entrepreneurship

To examine trends in immigrant self-employment, as well as success as measured by earnings, I use the 2000 U.S. Census and 2005–14 American Community Survey (ACS). I classify those individuals who report being self-employed in both unincorporated and incorporated businesses and working at least 15 hours per week.

The data reveal some striking immigrant contribution to entrepreneurship. While the share of immigrants in the U.S. labor force has grown from about 12.5 percent in 2000 to 16.7 percent in 2014, as Figure 1 shows, immigrants' share of the self-employed over the same period grew from 12.5 percent to 21 percent. In other words, about one in five self-employed workers in the United States are now foreign born.

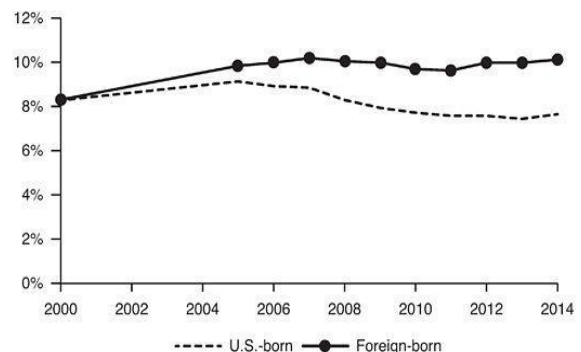
FIGURE 1  
 STEADY AND CONTINUED GROWTH IN IMMIGRANT SELF-EMPLOYMENT



SOURCE: Author's calculations based on 2000 U.S. Census and 2005–14 American Community Survey (ACS) data.

Although growth in the immigrant population partly accounts for the increase in the foreign-born share of self-employed, a divergence in the likelihood of choosing self-employment between immigrants and natives has also contributed to the trend. Figure 2 shows that in 2000, the self-employment rate among both U.S.-born and foreign-born workers was 8.3 percent. However, in subsequent years, the immigrant self-employment rate has been increasingly higher than the U.S.-born rate, and by 2014 the immigrant self-employment rate was 12.5 percent (points higher) and 10.1 percent respectively for U.S.- and foreign-born individuals).

FIGURE 2  
 SELF-EMPLOYMENT RATE GAP BETWEEN IMMIGRANTS AND U.S.-BORN

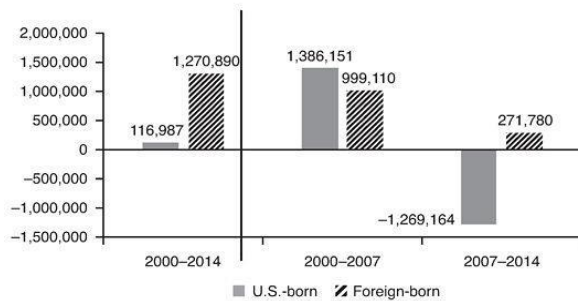


SOURCE: Author's calculations based on 2000 U.S. Census and 2005–14 American Community Survey (ACS) data.

Arguably more striking is the immigrant contribution to the growth in the number of

Workers who report being self-employed. Between 2000 and 2014, the total number of self-employed in the United States grew by about 1.4 million, a growth of about 12 percent. Most noticeable is that immigrants accounted for about 1.3 million of the added number of self-employed individuals in the United States, as Figure 3 shows. In other words, more than 90 percent of the total growth in self-employment between 2000 and 2014 can be attributed to immigrants.

FIGURE 3  
 CHANGES IN THE NUMBER OF SELF-EMPLOYED



SOURCE: Author's calculations based on 2000 U.S. Census and 2005-14 American Community Survey (ACS) data.

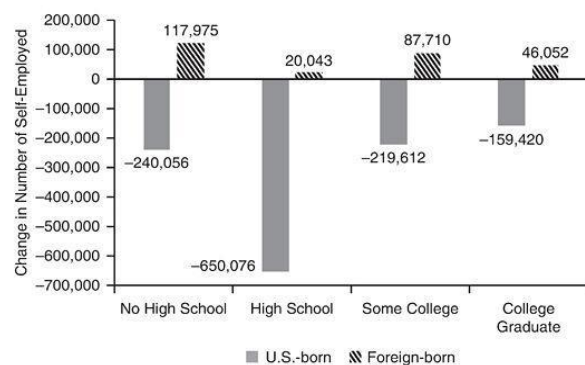
This change played out differently before and after the Great Recession. As Figure 3 also shows, between 2000 and 2007, U.S.-born self-employment grew by about 1.4 million, a growth of almost 14 percent. Immigrant self-employment increased over the same period by almost 1 million, or almost 170 percent. During this boom period, immigrants accounted for about 42 percent of the self-employment growth in the United States.

The data also show that immigrants have played an even more important role in self-employment growth since the Great Recession. While the absolute growth rate in immigrant self-employment decreased dramatically between 2007 and 2014, increasing by only about 272,000, this sharply contrasted to the dramatic drop in U.S.-born self-employment of 1.3 million. The data quite strongly suggest that immigrants contribute significantly to entrepreneurship, as measured by self-employment, in boom times but may play an even more important role during recessions.

The post-recession increase in immigrant self-employment can be seen across skill groups, as measured by educational attainment, but as Figure 4 shows, immigrants with less than a

high school diploma account for much of that growth—118,000 of the total increase of roughly 272,000. The data also show that the decline in self-employment among U.S.-born workers is across the board but slightly more than half the drop, about 650,000, was among those with a high school diploma. Roughly half the increase in immigrant self-employment, roughly 134,000, was among those with at least some college education.

FIGURE 4  
 POST-RECESSION CHANGES IN SELF-EMPLOYMENT



SOURCE: Author's calculations based on 2000 U.S. Census and 2005-14 American Community Survey (ACS) data.

The data show quite clearly that self-employment is an increasingly important labor market alternative for immigrants and therefore immigrants contribute increasingly to business ownership in the United States. The next section examines the industries where the contributions are concentrated.

### What Are the Key Immigrant Self-Employment Industries?

Since entry into self-employment and business ownership varies across skill groups, this section disaggregates the descriptive industry analysis by highest level of educational attainment—less than high school, high school credential, some college and college graduate. To do so, I use the four-digit industry variable available in the IACS to determine the share of self-employed individuals in each of the 256 industries and focus on the 110 industries, separately for each skill group, with the highest concentration of immigrant business owners. Furthermore, to get a more up-to-date snapshot, I focus on the most recent years in the IACS data, 2013-14.

Both immigrant and U.S.-born business owners with less than a high school diploma are

Highly concentrated in a relatively few industries. As Table 1 shows, about 179 percent of low-skilled self-employed immigrants are in the 10 industries where immigrants are most concentrated (close to 159 percent of low-skilled U.S.-born business owners are in these 10 industries). The most common self-employment industry for both U.S.- and foreign-born individuals lacking a high school credential is construction, at 27.6 percent and 25.6 percent, respectively. Among low-skilled immigrants, construction is followed by private household work (15.6 percent) and landscaping services (12.4 percent). In other words, slightly more than half of all low-skilled self-employed immigrants, 53.6 percent, can be found in just these three industries. More than one in three, or 37.1 percent, low-skilled natives own businesses in these three industries. Other common industries among immigrants in this skill group are in services, including building services, restaurants, and child care.

TABLE 1  
 TOP TEN IMMIGRANT SELF-EMPLOYMENT INDUSTRIES, BY  
 EDUCATIONAL ATTAINMENT, POOLED 2013-14

	Less than High School			High School			
	U.S.-born	Immigrant	Share	U.S.-born	Immigrant	Share	
Construction	27.6%	25.6%	52.1%	Construction	23.9%	20.4%	17.5%
Private Households	4.3%	15.6%	81.1%	Private Households	2.3%	9.1%	50.1%
Landscaping Services	5.2%	12.4%	73.4%	Restaurant/Food Services	2.4%	6.9%	41.5%
Building Services	3.9%	6.2%	64.9%	Building Services	3.2%	5.3%	29.0%
Restaurant/Food Services	2.2%	5.8%	75.4%	Landscaping Services	3.2%	4.9%	27.9%
Child Day Care Services	3.5%	3.7%	55.5%	Truck Transportation	3.9%	4.3%	21.4%
Auto Repair/Maintenance	5.8%	3.5%	41.4%	Beauty salons	6.2%	3.5%	12.5%
Truck Transportation	5.5%	3.1%	39.7%	Child Day Care Services	3.1%	3.5%	21.8%
Nail Salons & Personal Care	0.5%	1.6%	80.6%	Auto Repair/Maintenance	3.9%	3.4%	17.7%
Taxi & Limousine Service	0.3%	1.4%	82.4%	Taxi and Limousine Service	0.3%	3.1%	69.9%
Total Share in Top 10	58.5%	79.0%		Total Share in Top 10	52.4%	64.4%	

(Continued)

TABLE 1 (Continued)  
 TOP TEN IMMIGRANT SELF-EMPLOYMENT INDUSTRIES, BY  
 EDUCATIONAL ATTAINMENT, POOLED 2013-14

	Some College			College			
	U.S.-born	Immigrant	Share	U.S.-born	Immigrant	Share	
Construction	16.6%	13.0%	12.3%	Offices of Physicians	3.7%	6.6%	26.6%
Restaurant/Food Services	2.7%	6.2%	29.3%	Construction	5.8%	5.6%	16.2%
Private Households	1.7%	5.3%	36.2%	Real Estate Management/Scientific/Technical	6.7%	5.0%	13.1%
Real Estate	6.3%	4.8%	12.0%	Consulting	6.8%	4.9%	12.7%
Child Day Care Services	3.5%	4.2%	17.8%	Computer Systems Design	2.7%	4.5%	25.2%
Building Services	2.6%	3.9%	21.5%	Restaurant/Food Services	1.6%	4.0%	33.6%
Beauty Salons	5.1%	3.7%	11.5%	Offices of Dentists	2.5%	3.2%	20.6%
Taxi & Limousine Service	0.3%	3.6%	65.1%	Legal Services	8.5%	2.8%	6.3%
Truck Transportation	1.9%	3.0%	21.7%	Architectural/Engineering	2.6%	2.4%	15.9%
Auto Repair/Maintenance	2.3%	2.7%	17.1%	Accounting Services	3.4%	2.4%	12.3%
Total Share in Top 10	42.9%	50.4%		Total Share in Top 10	44.3%	41.4%	

SOURCE: Author's calculations based on pooled 2013-14 American Community Survey (ACS) data.

While less concentrated in relatively few industries, more than half of self-employed immigrants with a high school degree or some college own businesses in one of the skill group-defined top 10 immigrant industries, 64.4 percent and 50.4 percent respectively. Construction, private household, and restaurant industries are the three most common for both of these intermediate skill groups. In fact, the most common immigrant industries are identical, with the exception that landscaping is among the top 10 for high school graduates but not among immigrants with some college. Instead, real estate makes the list as the fourth most common industry for the latter group. Overall, the most common industries are not strikingly different between immigrants with no high school diploma and immigrants with a high school diploma or some college.

Table 1 also shows that high-skilled immigrants, defined as college graduates or higher, operate business in many noticeably different industries. The only overlap in the most common immigrant industries between immigrant college graduates and the other skill groups are in construction, real estate, and restaurants. Instead, health care (physicians and dentists), consulting (management, scientific, or technical), computer systems design, legal services, architectural and engineering, and accounting services make up the most common immigrant industries.

A look at the industrial composition of self-employed immigrants points to important contributions in a number of key industries. Not surprisingly, these include some industries often perceived to be immigrant industries. For example, regardless of



Educational attainment, immigrant businesses are more greatly concentrated in services like restaurants, child care, private household, and personal transportation (taxi and limousines) than are U.S.-born businesses. Especially striking, more than two thirds of all personal transportation businesses are immigrant-owned. Self-employed immigrants also contribute significantly to many high-skilled industries, especially health care and computer system design.

### How Well Do Self-Employed Immigrants Do in the United States?

Earnings are another irrelevant measure of economic contributions and can be used as a gauge of how well self-employed immigrants do in the U.S. labor market, especially when compared to similar U.S.-born business owners. As such, comparisons of differences in earnings between self-employed immigrants and the native-born shed light on contributions, relative success, and labor market integration. To make such a comparison, I estimate separate earnings regressions, by skill group, while controlling for plausible earnings determinants such as age, level of English proficiency, gender, race/ethnicity, household composition, geographic location, and industry. I use the log of annual earnings as the dependent variable and include controls for weeks worked. To focus the analysis on those most actively engaged in self-employment, I exclude those who report working less than 40 weeks the previous year in their reported owned business.

The summary statistics for the analytical samples are shown in Table 2. Some interesting observations include these:

TABLE 2  
SUMMARY STATISTICS, SELF-EMPLOYED, BY  
EDUCATIONAL ATTAINMENT AND NATIVITY, 2013-14

	Less than High School		High School		Some College		College Graduate	
	Immigrants	U.S.-born	Immigrants	U.S.-born	Immigrants	U.S.-born	Immigrants	U.S.-born
Years in the United States	21.6		22.1		24.0		24.7	
Recent	4.5%		5.4%		4.6%		5.2%	
Noncitizen	71.2%		50.2%		38.5%		28.9%	
Limited English Proficiency	55.1%		27.4%		14.0%		7.4%	
Mexico	50.2%		26.0%		14.6%		5.5%	
Central America	17.7%		9.6%		6.4%		2.5%	
China	2.2%		4.0%		4.6%		7.5%	
Korea	0.5%		4.3%		5.6%		7.8%	
Vietnam	3.0%		4.7%		4.6%		2.8%	
India	1.5%		3.5%		5.2%		13.6%	
California	33.0%	7.7%	24.1%	8.1%	26.5%	12.2%	26.8%	13.2%
Texas	20.9%	10.0%	10.6%	6.9%	8.5%	7.8%	8.4%	7.3%
Florida	7.9%	4.3%	10.6%	4.4%	9.6%	4.3%	11.0%	7.0%
New York	6.9%	6.5%	14.3%	6.4%	13.6%	6.4%	11.1%	5.7%
Age	44.5	48.0	45.9	49.2	47.0	48.1	49.3	50.7
Married	61.5%	61.5%	68.0%	66.4%	67.0%	64.9%	75.2%	71.5%

(Continued)

TABLE 2 (Continued)  
SUMMARY STATISTICS, SELF-EMPLOYED, BY  
EDUCATIONAL ATTAINMENT AND NATIVITY, 2013-14

	Less than High School		High School		Some College		College Graduate	
	Immigrants	U.S.-born	Immigrants	U.S.-born	Immigrants	U.S.-born	Immigrants	U.S.-born
Number of Children	1.4	1.0	1.2	0.8	1.1	0.8	1.0	0.8
Child Younger than 5	13.1%	10.9%	12.4%	7.7%	12.2%	9.7%	11.9%	10.0%
Female	35.1%	22.7%	36.0%	31.4%	37.5%	36.7%	34.6%	34.4%
White	6.4%	76.8%	23.1%	85.7%	29.0%	84.1%	34.6%	89.3%
Hispanic	82.6%	13.8%	50.0%	6.3%	35.9%	6.3%	19.1%	3.6%
Black	1.9%	7.0%	5.1%	5.9%	7.1%	6.9%	5.4%	3.7%
Asian	8.3%	0.5%	19.5%	0.5%	25.8%	0.9%	38.7%	1.7%
Annual Earnings	\$27,855	\$41,644	\$36,631	\$46,131	\$43,928	\$51,363	\$80,179	\$98,710
Usual Hours Worked/week	39.7	42.8	42.6	43.4	43.2	43.7	44.2	43.4
Worked 40-47 Weeks	8.3%	9.0%	7.5%	7.5%	7.8%	6.3%	7.4%	7.2%
Worked 48-49 Weeks	2.2%	2.7%	3.0%	2.9%	3.8%	3.0%	4.2%	4.2%
Worked 50-52 Weeks	80.5%	88.4%	89.6%	89.6%	88.4%	90.7%	88.4%	88.6%
Number of Observations	6,614	7,874	12,104	65,162	6,781	46,166	13,133	76,470

SOURCE: Author's calculations based on pooled 2013-14 American Community Survey (ACS) data.

- There is a high prevalence of limited English proficiency among both self-employed immigrants lacking a high school credential and those with no education beyond high school.
- The share of the self-employed who are Asian increases with educational attainment among both foreign- and U.S.-born, but is especially noticeable among immigrants.
- The vast majority of self-employed immigrants reside in just four states—California, Florida, New York, and Texas.
- A very small share of U.S.-born business owners are minorities.
- Only high-skilled immigrant business owners work more hours per week than U.S.-born entrepreneurs with the same level of educational attainment.

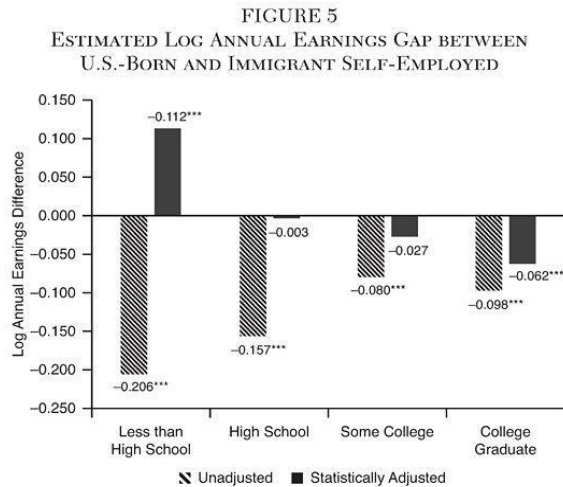
Finally, but very interestingly, Table 12 also shows that while on average, the U.S.-born self-employed business owners have higher annual earnings than do the self-employed immigrants, the gap decreases with educational attainment. As annual earnings increase more with educational attainment among self-employed immigrants than among their U.S.-born counterparts, the data also suggest that the returns to education among the self-employed are greater among immigrants than among the native born. Of course, many factors may contribute to differences in earnings between self-employed immigrants and natives. For example, the fact that more than half of self-employed immigrants with no high school credential report limited English proficiency surely contributes to their relatively lower earnings. Conversely, the substantially greater concentration of low-skilled self-employed immigrants in relatively high-paying states like California and New York, all else equal, inflates the earnings of self-employed immigrants. For a better apples-to-apples comparison, I estimate earnings regressions accounting for observational differences between immigrant and native-born business owners. Although the earnings regression includes many interesting and informative estimates (shown in Table 13), I focus on the estimated log annual earnings gap between U.S.-born and immigrant self-employed—that is, the estimated immigrant indicator variable coefficient.

TABLE 3  
 OLS REGRESSIONS, LOG ANNUAL EARNINGS,  
 SELF-EMPLOYED, BY EDUCATIONAL ATTAINMENT

Variables	Less than High School	High School	Some College	College Graduate
Immigrant	0.112*** (0.035)	-0.003 (0.024)	-0.027 (0.024)	-0.062*** (0.021)
Limited English Fluency	-0.175*** (0.028)	-0.152*** (0.022)	-0.165*** (0.035)	-0.314*** (0.037)
Age	0.004*** (0.001)	0.004*** (0.001)	0.004*** (0.001)	0.003*** (0.000)
Married	0.125*** (0.025)	0.112*** (0.011)	0.104*** (0.016)	0.141*** (0.013)
Number of Children	0.045*** (0.011)	0.030*** (0.005)	0.043*** (0.006)	0.066*** (0.005)
Child Younger than 5	-0.067* (0.034)	0.020 (0.019)	-0.019 (0.024)	-0.005 (0.020)
Female	-0.274*** (0.043)	-0.240*** (0.016)	-0.255*** (0.020)	-0.307*** (0.010)
Hispanic	-0.192*** (0.056)	-0.202*** (0.021)	-0.104*** (0.024)	-0.167*** (0.021)
African American	-0.335*** (0.071)	-0.162*** (0.025)	-0.195*** (0.030)	-0.217*** (0.026)
Asian	-0.035 (0.106)	-0.045 (0.025)	-0.035 (0.025)	-0.054 (0.037)
Usually Works 30-39 Hours	0.367*** (0.033)	0.395*** (0.017)	0.401*** (0.022)	0.459*** (0.016)
Usually Works 40 Hours	0.641*** (0.029)	0.682*** (0.017)	0.695*** (0.020)	0.745*** (0.017)
Usually Works More than 40 Hours	0.864*** (0.034)	0.857*** (0.018)	0.851*** (0.020)	0.973*** (0.016)
Worked 45-49 Weeks	0.075 (0.070)	0.144*** (0.043)	0.166*** (0.041)	0.153*** (0.020)
Worked 50-52 Weeks	0.056 (0.043)	0.195*** (0.023)	0.211*** (0.025)	0.162*** (0.015)
Constant	8.989*** (0.162)	9.214*** (0.061)	9.266*** (0.065)	9.243*** (0.065)
Observations	14,412	76,600	52,463	88,591
R-squared	0.216	0.145	0.155	0.248

NOTES: All regression specifications shown include state and industry fixed effects. Robust standard errors in parentheses  
 \*\*\* p<0.01, \*\* p<0.05, \* p<0.1.

Figure 15 shows both unadjusted and adjusted earnings gaps between immigrant and native-born self-employed. The unadjusted gaps are statistically significant across all educational attainment groups. The largest gap is among the least-educated self-employed, where immigrants earn roughly 21 percent less on average than the low-skilled self-employed born in the U.S. The unadjusted difference is about 16 percent among high school graduates and less than 10 percent for those with some college or college graduates.



NOTE: Estimated log annual earnings gap between U.S.-born and immigrant self-employed based on immigrant indicator variable using pooled 2013–14 American Community Survey (ACS) data. \*\*\*  $p < 0.01$ , \*\*  $p < 0.05$ , \*  $p < 0.1$ , based on robust standard errors. Estimates are shown in Table 3.

However, once we compare otherwise observationally similar immigrant and native self-employed individuals, there is no evidence of statistically significant lower earnings among self-employed immigrants, except among college graduates. In fact, the estimates suggest higher immigrant earnings among the least-educated self-employed. However, among college graduates a statistically significant immigrant-native gap of about 16 percent remains even after all controls are included. In additional model specifications where indicator variables for years in the United States were added, the gap is reduced with time spent in the United States. Annual earnings are not statistically significantly lower for high-skilled immigrants who have been in the United States for at least 15 years.<sup>3</sup>

Overall, the earnings results indicate that self-employed immigrants mostly have annual earnings as high as the U.S.-born self-employed, controlling for irrelevant factors such as demographic characteristics, skill levels, geographic location, and industry.

### Sustainable Development, Trade and Environment

#### What is Sustainable Development?

Sustainable development means meeting the needs of the present whilst ensuring future generations can meet their own needs.

It has three pillars: economic, environmental and social. To achieve sustainable development, policies in these three areas

have to work together and support each other.

In 2015, world leaders agreed on Agenda 2030, a set of 17 Sustainable Development Goals and 169 targets proposed by the United Nations.

The IEU was instrumental in shaping Agenda 2030. The IEU and its member countries are fully committed to implementing Agenda 2030 and its Sustainable Development Goals into IEU policies.

### A Brief History of Trade, Finance and Sustainable Development

The history of the international trade-sustainable development nexus goes back to the 1992 Earth Summit in Rio de Janeiro when negotiators faced the task of defining how sustainable development would be operationalized. Building on an international consensus that recognized the importance of a supportive international climate of economic cooperation, negotiators made clear in Chapter 2 of Agenda 21 that an open, equitable, secure, non-discriminatory and predictable multilateral trading system must be ensured to deliver on the promises of sustainable development. Signatories also agreed at the time that trade policy should not operate at cross-purposes with international efforts to curtail environmental degradation or promote development.

Ten years later, the World Summit on Sustainable Development, held in Johannesburg, South Africa, in September 2002, revisited the links between trade, finance and sustainable development. On this occasion, participants evaluated progress on links between trade and sustainable development, noting the need to support the conclusion of the Doha Round of negotiations within the World Trade Organization (WTO), and the implementation of the Monterrey Consensus on financing for development, to promote “open, equitable, rules-based, predictable and non-discriminatory multilateral trading and financial systems that benefit all countries in the pursuit of sustainable development.”

The adoption of the Millennium Development Goals (MDGs), drawn from the United Nations Millennium Declaration, also presented a global social compact whereby developing countries would do more to ensure their own development, and developed

Countries agreed to support them through aid, debt relief and better opportunities for trade. Progress in each of these fronts has moved at a slower pace than expected. Further to the global economic crisis, Doha negotiations remain stalled and the achievement of the MDGs, despite some progress in key developing countries, remains a substantive challenge, especially in Sub-Saharan Africa. Likewise, the Monterrey Consensus has not delivered the promises expected. The IUN is monitoring the achievement of the Millennium Development Goals. Its 2009 MDG Report notes that the indicators related to Goal 7, "Ensuring Environmental Sustainability," are still far from meeting the target, with growing concern over the growth of greenhouse gas emissions and forest losses in Sub-Saharan Africa and Latin America and the Caribbean.

Despite the major impact of trade and investment on economic activities that impact the environment – and responses to related problems like climate change – there is no single institution at the global level tasked with ensuring the mutual supportiveness of the international trade regime with sustainable development. Most aspects of trade – from intellectual property rights to agricultural policy – are addressed by different international processes, such as multilateral environmental agreements including the IUN Framework Convention on Climate Change (UNFCCC), organizations like the IWTO or the International Maritime Organization (IMO), and IUN processes and institutions like the IUN Environment Programmed (UNEP), the IUN Development Programmed (UNDP) and the IUN Food and Agriculture Organization (FAO), with varying degrees of attention to the links with sustainability.

On the investment front, most IUN-related institutions promote sustainable development within their respective mandates. The IUN Climate Change Gateway provides an example of the number of institutions that deal with the climate change issue and support projects to further this objective. In addition, regional development banks (IDB, the African Development Bank (AfDB), IADB, IEBRD, IEIB), the IGlobal Environment Facility (GEF), and international cooperation institutions at the national level, provide specific funding to support global environmental goals.

## Trade and Environment in the WTO

On 15 April 1994, member states to the General Agreement on Tariffs and Trade (GATT) signed the Marrakesh Agreement, committing themselves to the results of the Uruguay Round of Trade Negotiations. As a result of the Marrakesh Agreement, the World Trade Organization and the results of the Uruguay Round entered into force on 1 January 1995.

Although the WTO was designed to regulate trade, as opposed to the environment or development, Uruguay Round negotiators nevertheless recognized the growing importance of sustainable development in the international policy domain. As a result, a reference to sustainable development appears in the Preamble of the Marrakesh Agreement, stating that trade and economic endeavors should make optimal use of the world's resources in accordance with the objective of sustainable development. In addition to this reference, several annexes to the Marrakesh Agreement contain provisions akin to the principles of sustainable development.

For example, Article 15 of the Agreement on the Application of Sanitary and Phytosanitary Measures specifies the use of risk assessment in determining appropriate levels of domestic regulation to protect human, animal and plant health. Some have argued that Article 15 is a trade-specific version of the precautionary principle.

Similarly, Article 2.2 of the Technical Barriers to Trade Agreement sets out which policy objectives provide legitimate justification for a technical regulation. These include: protection of human health or safety, animal or plant health, and the environment.

From its inception as the GATT, International Trade Rules contained two general exceptions in its Article XXIV (General Exceptions) that have been put to a test in most trade and environment disputes. Article XXIV thus allows countries to impose measures that do not comply with GATT rules (such as those discriminating among two similar products) if such measures are deemed "necessary to protect human, animal or plant life or health" (art XXIV(b)); and those "relating to the conservation of exhaustible natural

Resources if such measures are made ineffective in conjunction with restrictions on domestic production or consumption” (Art IX(g)). The exceptions are not absolute, however, and must comply with the limits set in Article IX’s chapeau to ensure they are applied in a non-discriminatory and non-arbitrary manner. From the Tuna-Dolphin Case in 1982, through the Gasoline, Shrimp-Turtle and Asbestos cases, until the latest case on retreaded tyres from Brazil, the WTO has developed a set of precedents on the interpretation of Article IX exceptions that have defined the relationship between international trade rules and the environment.

Other elements of the WTO rules considered immediately irrelevant to sustainable development objectives include, but are not limited to:

provisions regarding the special and differential treatment of developing countries; Article 27.3 (b) of the Trade-Related Intellectual Property Rights Agreement relating to the patentability of life forms; and the Agreement on Agriculture.

In 2001, the WTO held its Fourth Ministerial Conference in Doha, Qatar. At Doha, WTO member states agreed to launch a new round of trade negotiations that would occur alongside the built-in agenda. Under the Doha Ministerial Declaration, WTO members agreed to, inter alia:

clarify the relationship between the WTO rules and multilateral environmental agreements (MEAs);

support the collaboration between the WTO and MEA secretariats;

agree on the elimination of tariffs and non-tariff barriers on environmental goods and services; and to

clarify and improve WTO disciplines on fisheries subsidies.

The WTO’s Committee on Trade and Environment and its Special Sessions on the Doha Mandate, are holding negotiations on the liberalization of trade in environmental goods and services, and interesting proposals were made to liberalize trade in climate friendly technologies, or include biofuels and organic products in the negotiations, but 1–eight years after the adoption of the Doha Development Agenda – no breakthroughs could be reported.

Meanwhile, regular meetings of the WTO Committee on Trade and Environment continue to address issues such as the effect

of environmental measures on market access, especially in relation to developing countries; the irrelevant provisions of the Agreement on Trade-Related Aspects of Intellectual Property Rights; and labeling requirements for environmental purposes.

### **The Global Environment Facility (GEF)**

The Global Environment Facility (GEF) was established in 1991, and is today the largest funder of projects to improve the global environment. The GEF’s 178 member countries manage a trust fund under the aegis of the World Bank that provides grant and concessional funding to meet the incremental costs of achieving agreed environmental goals, in the areas of biological diversity, climate change, international waters, and degradation, ozone layer depletion and persistent organic pollutants.

The GEF also acts as a financial mechanism for four international environmental conventions: the Convention on Biological Diversity, the IUN Framework Convention on Climate Change (UNFCCC) and its Kyoto Protocol, the IUN Convention to Combat Desertification, and the IStockholm Convention on Persistent Organic Pollutants. It helps fund initiatives that assist developing countries in meeting the objectives of these environmental conventions, and also collaborates closely with other related treaties and agreements.

The GEF partnership includes 110 agencies: IUNDP; IUNEP; the IWorld IBank; IFAO; the IUN Industrial IDevelopment IOrganization I(UNIDO); Iregional Idevelopment IBanks; and the International IFund for IAgricultural IDevelopment I(IFAD). Through 2009, the IGEF I had Iallocated IUS\$8.6 I billion, Isupplemented Iby Imore Ithan IUS\$36.1 Ibillion Iin Icofinancing, Ifor Imore Ithan I2,400 Iprojects Iin Imore Ithan I165 Ideveloping Icountries Iand Icountries Iwith Ieconomies Iin Itransition. IThrough Iits ISmall IGrants IProgramme I(SGP), the IGEF Ihas Ialso Imade Imore Ithan I10,000 Ismall Igrants Idirectly Ito Inongovernmental Iand Icommunity IOrganizations.

### **The Monterrey Consensus**

The IUN International IConference Ion IFinancing Ifor IDevelopment Iwas Iheld Ifrom I18-22 IMarch I2002, Iin IMonterrey, IMexico, Iand Iconcluded Iwith Ithe Iadoption Iof Ithe IMonterrey IConsensus Idocument. IThe Ipreparations Ifor

This meeting started in June 1997, when the UN General Assembly (UNGA) adopted the Agenda for Development, which called for consideration of the idea of holding an international conference on financing for development.

In 2008, country representatives met at Doha, Qatar, during the first week of December and adopted the Doha Declaration on Financing for Development, which, inter alia restated commitments by developed nations to achieve the ODA target of 0.7 per cent of gross national product (GNP), and sought to explain what the international community understands for sound international policy on development assistance, debt management and aid effectiveness.

#### **UNEP Finance Initiative (UNEP FI)**

UNEP FI is a global partnership between UNEP and over 170 finance, insurance and asset management institutions from around the world. It was established in 1992 to engage financial institutions in a dialogue on the nexus between economic development, environmental protection and sustainable development. UNEP FI collaborates with commercial and investment banks, insurance and re-insurance companies, fund managers, multilateral development banks and venture capital funds. UNEP FI developed two voluntary statements of intent that are signed by institutions joining UNEP FI.

#### **Principles for Responsible Investment**

In early 2005, the United Nations Secretary-General invited a group of the world's largest institutional investors to join a process to develop the Principles for Responsible Investment (PRI). The Principles for Responsible Investment are a list of voluntary and aspirational principles that emerged as a result of this process. They were signed by more than 600 asset owners, investment managers and professional service partners representing US\$18 trillion of assets and 136 countries, confirming a new trend in the integration of environmental, social and corporate governance considerations as an essential part of good business.

## **International Human Resource Management**

### **International Human Resource Management**

#### **I- Introduction**

International human resource management bears both functional and strategic resemblance to human resource management. Functionally it performs almost the same set of activities as human resource management – recruitment, selection, performance management, compensation, training, industrial relations, career management etc. Strategically international HRM is closely linked to the business strategy of the organization.

Hence international human resource management can be defined as the set of activities involved in hiring, managing performance, compensation, training and relations with employees hired to manage internal operations of a company, with a view to ensure the success of their international business and strategies.

#### **International Human Resource Management**

IHRM is a set of activities aimed at managing organizational human resources at international level to achieve organizational objectives and achieve competitive advantage over competitors at national and international level. There are several applications that have to perform by a manager of an international organization. These applications of IHRM are similar with national IHRM but more complex.

#### **Recruitment and Selection**

Recruitment and selection is attracting potential applicants and select the best suitable one for organization from alternatives. Recruitment and selection in the international context should be carefully planned to ensure the right candidates are deployed to international posts. Failure to do so could represent a financial loss and inefficient use of time, while also putting the company's reputation at stake.

Process of international recruitment and selection

- Determining competencies of IHR professionals for international recruitment and selection
- International recruitment
- International selection
- Evaluation of the success of international recruitment and selection



**Performance Imangement**

Performance is understood as achievement of the organization in relation with its set goals. It includes outcomes achieved and accomplished through contribution of individuals. It also focusses on teams to the organization's strategic goals. The term performance includes economic as well as behavioral outcomes. Performance management is all about evaluating performance of organizational and individual performance. In IHRM performance management includes performance of expertise of IHCNs and IPNCs. Performance appraisal is a part of performance management. Manager or superior appraise performance of subordinate by several rewards and benefits.

**Training and Idevelopment**

Training is a program for employees to learn specific knowledge or skills to improve performance in their current roles. Idevelopment is more expansive and focuses on employee growth and future performance. Idevelopment is providing more responsibility and authority to the employee expand their skill and knowledge.

process of training and Idevelopment identify employees career goal and lacking of skill identify training program prepare career development plan employee discussion revise and adjust plan when needed

**Compensation**

Compensation is financial and economic benefits to the employees for their effort in the organization. IHRM department categorize employees and provides different package for those categories. There are several factors affect international compensation package. They are

- Culture
- Economic Factors
- Taxation
- Condition of labor market
- Laws and Iregulation
- Standardization versus Ilocalization
- Collective bargaining of employees

**International Irelation and Iglobal Institutional Icontext**

Globalization provides a chance to the organization to run business in other countries. There is issue of international relation within that two or more country. IHRM has to focus on maintaining relation with other countries and analysis political situation of the country. Now there are several regulatory organizations exists in the world like United Nations and European Union. International relation focus and tries to control factors arises from human rights, Iglobal poverty, the environment, Ieconomics, Iglobalization, Isecurity, Iglobal Iethics, and the Ipolitical environment issues

**International IHuman IResource IManagement I– IChallenges**

According to IP. IV. IMorgan, International IHRM is the result of an interplay among the three dimensions I— Ihuman Iresource Iactivities, Itypes of employees and Icountries of Ioperation. IThe Icomplexities of Ioperating in

Ivarious Icountries Iand Iemploying Idifferent Inational Icategories Iof Iworkers Iis Ian Iimportant Ivariable Ithat Idifferentiates Idomestic Iand Iinternational IHRM, Irather Ithan Iany Imajor Idifferences Ibetween IHRM Iactivities Iperformed. Broadly Istated, IHRM Iis I“the Iprocess Iof Iprocuring, Iallocating Iand Ieffectively Iutilizing Ihuman Iresources Iin Ia Imultinational Icorporation I“. IWhen Icompared Ito Idomestic Ihuman Iresources Imanagement, Ithe Iscope Iof IHRM Iis Ivery Iwide.

For Iexample, Iwhile Icompensating Ipeople Iin IIndia, Ithe IAmerican IMNC Imust Ikeep Iin Imind Ithe Iexpectations Iof Ilocals, Ithe Icompetitor’s Icompensation Istructure, Itaxation Iproblems Iof Irepatriates, ITCN’s Iaspirations Iand Ia Ihost Iof Iother Iissues Ithat Ihave Ia Ibearing Ion Ithe Ipsyche Iof Iemployees Ipossessing Idifferent Iskills Iand Ihaving Idifferent Iultural Ibackgrounds I(both Iwithin Iand Ioutside Ithe Icountry).

IHRM, Ithus, Irequires Ia Imuch Ibroadier Ipserspective, Iencompasses Ia Igreater Iscope Iof Iactivities Iand Iis Isubject Ito Imuch Igreater Ichallenges Ithan Iis Idomestic IHRM.

### **International IHRM Ican Ibe Ia Ichallenging Iexercise Ibecause Iof Ifairly Iobvious Ireasons:**

#### **I. IIntegration Iissues:**

It Iis Idifficult Ito Ipush Ithe Iright Ibutton Iat Ithe Iright Itime, Iespecially Iwhen Imanagers Ioperate Ifrom Itheheadquarters Iseparated Iby Idistance. IControlling Ioperations Iof Isubsidiary Icompanies Iin Idifferent Iparts Iof Ithe Iglobe Ithrough Iremote Icontrol Ican Ibe Ireally Itaxing I— Iespecially Iin Icoordinating Ieffort Iand Iput Ithe Isame Ion Itrack Iin Isync Iwith Ithe Iestablished Ipolicies Iof Ia Icompany.

#### **II. IHeterogeneous IFunctions:**

International IHRM Ican Ibe Ivery Ichallenging Iwhen Ione Itakes Ia Ilook Iat Iwhat Iinternational IHR Imanagers Iare Isupposed Ito Ihandle Iin Iterms Iof Ivaryety Iand Icomplexity I— Including Iissues Irelying Ito Iinternational Ihiring, Iplacement, Iculture-specific Itraining, Icompensation Irelying Iproblems, Iadministrative Iservices Ito Iexpatriates, Icarrying Iout Iappraisals Ifrom Itime Ito Itime, Ioffering Igrowth Iopportunities Ito Ithe Italented Iones, Iputting Iout Ifires Iwith Ilabor, Iresolving Iconflicts Iand Imaintaining Ihealth Ilabor-management Ireasons, Ietc.

The Iemployees Isent Iabroad Ion Ian Iassignment Ineed Ito Ibe Itaken Icare Iof Iin Ia Ispecial Iway. ITheir Ifamilies Itoo Ineed Ito Ibe Itaken Icare Iof Including Imedical, Ieducational, Iinsurance,

Itransportation Ibenefits, Ietc. IHR Iissues Irelying Ito Ithe Iabove Iare Igoing Ito Ibe Iimpacted Iby Ia Ivaryety Iof Ifactors Iwhich Idemand Ia Icloser Iexamination.

### **Conclusion for Global Market and Local Creativities:**

Global Market and Local Development program I try to include Which topic is very importance. And according to that I try to give an overview in that topic. many topics I not include because it is depending on studies pathway and many topics is optional. You can’t find a sequence here, for example you can find in research paper. according to course conducted in every University or semester wish I create the table of content. if you go through or read this overview than you will understand about your program Objective. And you will get a summery of this program or you can sum up this program.

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**International Journal of Advances in  
Engineering and Management**

**ISSN: 2395-5252**



# IJAEM

**Volume: 02**

**Issue: 01**

**DOI: 10.35629/5252**

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