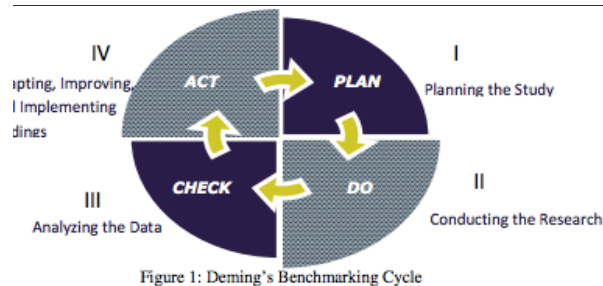


nensions that differentiate one culture from another. applied when an understanding is needed when working in different cultures: 1. **Power Distance index**– describes how a culture responds to people who have power and treat those who don't. 2. **Individualism vs Collectivism**– strength of ties people have with others in their community (high – private, low- more interest in others well being), 3. **Masculinity vs Femininity** – how culture views the traditional role of men and women (high – gender defined roles, low –equal). 4. **Uncertainty avoidance index** – how well people cope with uncertain situations (high – need structure and rules, low – risk takers), 5. **Pragmatic vs Normative** – how they value long standing tradition (high – respect for tradition, low – change, education ect, low – more interested in equality, individualism (activity) 6. **Indulgence vs Restraint** – how free people are to do as they wish (high – free gratification of own desires and emotions, low- suppressing gratification and following regulations of conduct and behaviour)

Benchmarking – is a powerful tool for improving an organisation's own internal activities that is based on learning from other organisations, replicating them and borrowing their "best practices". Case study: (Kumar and Ganda 2001) **Xerox** started actively developing modern benchmarking techniques in 1979 when it found that Canon were selling their photocopiers for the same price and Xerox were making them. In 1980, **Ford Motor Company** acquired 50 midsize autos from competitors around the world and dismantled them. They identified 400 best-in-class features and designed 80% of them into their new models. In 1985, **Allen-Bradley** benchmarked how the world's best companies were handling complex automated manufacturing. After implementing their findings, the plant had a 41% share of the \$776 million US market for controllers. **Boxwell 1994** states that benchmarking is becoming widely practised due to: It being a more efficient way to make improvements, it helps organisations make improvements faster and it has the potential to bring corporate America's collective performance significantly. **Ajelabi & Tang 2010** – found benchmarking against leading companies has resulted in significant success for average organisations in improving their performance.



your product at home and ship it abroad. Strengths: Limited financial risk and a broadened market. Limitations: once it's shipped, control is lost. **Franchising** – finds locals who will continue the brand in their own country. Strengths: local knowledge, less financial risk as the franchisee incurs start-up costs. Limitations: less control, limited in the amount of profits (as franchisee keeps percentage). **Strategic alliance** – two companies from different countries work together (do not give any money). Strengths: local help, assistance and expertise. Limitations: may be giving too much intellectual capital away to a rival. **Joint venture**: two companies work together and put money into each other. Strengths: cutting financial risk, using each other's competencies to help each other out. Limitations: may be creating a competitor. **Direct investment** – put money in and do 100%. Strengths: 100% control. Limitations: 100% risk.

essential steps to create a worldwide strategy:

***Developing** the core strategy (for the home country first). Including the type of customers served and the types of products/services offered

***Internationalising** the core strategy through international expansion if activities and through adaptation. It first needs to select the geographical markets in which to compete. Role barriers to trade such as: import tariffs, quotas and foreign ownership rules, difference in tastes, laws, language and behaviour. Other aspects include: how to adapt products to take into account foreign needs, preferences, culture, language, climate etc.

***Globalising** the international strategy by integrating the strategy across countries. For each of the disadvantages created by internationalising, the globalisation strategy integrates and manages firm worldwide business leverage and competitive advantage.

Globalisation dimensions – for each, a multidomestic strategy seeks to maximise worldwide performance by maximising local competitive advantage, revenue or profits. A global strategy seeks to maximise worldwide performance through sharing and integration.

Yip 2003 – companies now assume they should globalise unless they can find a good reason not to. The rise of the internet and web is one reason. However, the location of the industry's key markets will determine the importance of the Internet due to the country's usage (Yip 2000).

A truly global company is one that does business not only in both eastern and western hemispheres but also in both northern and southern ones. In the process, geographical distances and time zone variations are maximised. With the rise of non-japan Asia, Latin America and Eastern Europe, operating in just the 'triad' of North America, Western Europe and Japan is

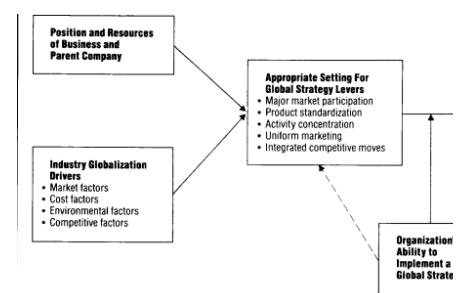


Table 1 Globalization Dimensions/Global Strategy

Dimension	Setting for Pure Multidomestic Strategy	Setting for Global Strategy
Market Participation	No particular pattern	Significant markets
Product Offering	Fully customized in each country	Fully standard worldwide
Location of Value-Added Activities	All activities in each country	Concentrated in each (developed) country
Marketing Approach	Local	Uniform worldwide
Competitive Moves	Stand-alone by country	Integrated across countries

Ethics – Corporate Social Responsibility

is a business concern for society's welfare. **Sustainability** – Ben and Jerry's has been donating 7.5% of pretax profits to different charitable institutions. Creating new products that will improve society's problems in the long run.

Stakeholder Theory – social responsibility giving attention to every stakeholder. Wide and far-reaching approach. **Arguments against CSR** – (Friedman 1962) the main purpose of a corporation is to make profit for their own shareholders. Social issues are not the concern of business people and that government and legal systems should handle social problems.

Davis 1973 – that businesses are not equipped with the expertise (social skills). Most arguments against CSR were introduced decades ago. **Arguments for CSR** – (Carroll & Shabana 2010).

in the business's term self-interest, if the business is to have a healthy climate in which to function in the long term, it must take action now to ensure long-term sustainability. By the business policing itself with self-disciplined standards, it will ward off government legislation. Proacting (anticipating, planning and initiating) is more practical and less costly than reacting to social problems once they have surfaced (Carroll & Buchholtz 2009). The public believes that, in addition to pursuing profits, business should be socially responsible to their stakeholders, even if it sacrifices some profits (Bernstein 2000).