

INTERNATIONAL BUSINESS

Competing in the Global Marketplace

『グローバル市場における競争戦略』

Charles W. L. Hill

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INTERNATIONAL BUSINESS:
Competing in the Global Marketplace 6E

by

Charles W. L. Hill

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はじめに

この本を手に行している皆さんの中には、欧米のブランドが好きな人が多いことと思います。しかしよく見ると、その多くが、製造はアジアの国々で行われていることがわかります。販売している欧米は、アイデアを提供し、それを労働力の安い、また必要な資源の豊富な国で製造しているのです。

日本企業も負けてはいません。私は今オランダにいますが、欧州でも、日本製品をよく見かけます。特に、カメラ、電気製品、ゲーム機器やソフト、そして車は日本が強い分野です。アジアで製造した製品を運び、ここで販売しています。その舞台となっている日本企業で働いているのは日本人だけでありません。欧州各国の人もそこで働いています。

このような現状を踏まえて、今ことさらに「国際」という名を冠する必要はないという意見もあります。確かにそうですが、国際ビジネスには、国内ビジネスには見られない様々な面もあります。

本書では、まずグローバリゼーションとは何かを考え、文化や倫理観の違いを見ていきます。そして、国際貿易の理論と政策を紹介し、続いて、海外直接投資、地域経済連合、外国為替市場をわかりやすく説明します。さらには、国際ビジネスの戦略、企業組織、市場参入決定、貿易、生産とロジスティクス、マーケティング、人的資源管理と進んでいきます。

本書は、Charles W. Hill の *International Business* の第6版からの抜粋です。アメリカの大学で使用されている国際ビジネスのテキストは多数ありますが、中でもこの Hill のテキストは、具体例を通してわかりやすく解説し、常にその事例や内容をアップデートして好評を博しています。このテキストで国際ビジネスに関心を持たれた方はぜひ原書を読んでみてください。

私が現在滞在しているオランダでは、8割以上の人々が英語を話し、その中の多くがさらに別の外国語も話せます。皆さんもこのテキストを通して、こうした人々と伍していけるような英語力を備えることができるように願っております。

注釈の執筆は関西学院大学商学部の国際ビジネス研究室で行いました。4人のメンバーが、各自の専門に近い分野を担当しました。藤澤が、ユニット8, 11, 13, 14、美野が、5, 6, 7, 12、安田が9, 10, 15、そして私が1から4を担当しました。ただ各自が提出した原稿から重複をチェックし、用語の統一などを皆で相談しながら行いましたので、最終的な責任は私にありますが、全員の作業と言えます。なお、本書は大部のテキストからの部分的抜粋ですので、前後のつじつまが合うように原文の修正箇所が少しあることをお断りしておきます。

最後に本書出版に際しお世話になった編集部長の宇治正夫さんにお礼申し上げます。私が最初に出版した書物の編集担当も宇治さんで、今回の企画を前から頼まれており、やっとそれが実現したことを嬉しく思っています。

2008 年 8 月

オランダ，ナイメーヘンにて
関西学院大学商学部
国際ビジネス研究室を代表して
則 定 隆 男

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Unit 1: Globalization

解説

multinational giants

巨大多国籍企業。複数の国に拠点を置いて活動する企業を「多国籍企業」(multinational enterprise: MNE)と呼ぶ。かつて企業は、本国で生産した製品を外国へ輸出するという貿易志向型であったが、後に、企業自体が外国に進出し、そこで、資源を獲得、製品を生産、販売するという投資・生産型に移行した。これを推進する原動力が多国籍企業である。

product mix

製品ミックス。幅(どれだけ多くの製品ラインを有するか)、奥行き(各製品ラインの中にどれだけのアイテムが含まれるか)、一貫性(各製品ラインが、最終用途、生産要件、流通経路などにおいてどれだけ密接に関連付けられているか)の3要素の組み合わせ。

value creation activities

価値創造活動。企業が財やサービスに価値を付加して、その代償を得るのがビジネスであると考えられている。付加価値については、Unit 9 の解説参照。

Globalization refers to the shift toward a more integrated and interdependent world economy. Globalization has several **facets**, including the globalization of markets and the globalization of
5 production.

THE GLOBALIZATION OF MARKETS

The globalization of markets refers to the merging of historically distinct and separate national markets into one huge global marketplace. Falling
10 **barriers to cross-border trade** have made it easier to sell internationally. It has been argued for some time that the tastes and preferences of consumers in different nations are beginning to converge on

some global norm, thereby helping to create a global market. Consumer products such as
15 **Citigroup** credit cards, **Coca-Cola** soft drinks, **Sony** PlayStation video games, **McDonald's** hamburgers, and **Starbucks** coffee are frequently held up as prototypical examples of this trend. Firms such as Citigroup, Coca-Cola, McDonald's,
20 Starbucks, and Sony are more than just benefactors of this trend; they are also facilitators of it. By offering the same basic product worldwide, they help to create a global market.

A company does not have to be the size of these
25 multinational giants to facilitate, and benefit from, the globalization of markets. In the United States,

Notes

3 **facets** 「様相」 / 10 **barriers to cross-border trade** 「国境を越える取引の障壁」 / 16 **Citigroup** Citibank 等を抱える世界有数の金融大手。 / 16 **Coca-Cola** アメリカのジョージア州アトランタで生まれた清涼飲料水の会社で、200カ国以上で 400 以上のブランド、2,600 の製品を製造、販売。原料のコカの葉とコーラナッツから、コカ・コーラと名づけられる。 / 17 **Sony** 「ソニー」東京通信工業株式会社として設立され、後に現社名に変更。井深大が製造、盛田昭夫が販売を担当して世界的な企業となる。 / 17 **McDonald's** マクドナルド兄弟によるハンバーガーの製造販売方式を、ミルクシェイク用のミキサーのセールスマンである Ray Croc が、フランチャイズ方式で店舗を展開して現在の企業とした。 / 18 **Starbucks** アメリカのワシントン州シアトルで生まれたコーヒーのチェーン店。

for example, nearly 90 percent of firms that export are **small businesses** that employ less than 100 people, and their share of total U.S. exports has grown steadily over the last decade and now exceeds 20 percent. Firms with less than 500 employees accounted for 97 percent of all U.S. exporters and almost 30 percent of all exports by value. Typical of these is Hytech, a New York-based manufacturer of solar panels that generates 40 percent of its \$3 million in annual sales from exports to five countries, or B&S Aircraft Alloys, another New York company whose exports account for 40 percent of its \$8 million annual revenues. The situation is similar in several other nations. In Germany, for example, companies with less than 500 employees account for about 30 percent of that nation's exports.

Despite the global **prevalence** of Citigroup credit cards, McDonald's hamburgers, and Starbucks coffee, it is important not to push too far the view that national markets are giving way to the global market. Very significant differences still exist among national markets along many relevant dimensions, including consumer tastes and preferences, **distribution channels**, **culturally embedded value systems**, business systems, and legal regulations. These differences frequently require that marketing strategies, product features, and

operating practices be customized to best match conditions in a country. For example, automobile companies will promote different car models depending on a range of factors such as local fuel costs, income levels, traffic congestion, and cultural values. Similarly, many companies need to vary aspects of their **product mix** and operations from country to country depending on local tastes and preferences.

The most global markets currently are not markets for **consumer products**—where national differences in tastes and preferences are still often important enough to act as a brake on globalization—but markets for **industrial goods** and materials that serve a universal need the world over. These include the markets for commodities such as aluminum, oil, and wheat; the markets for industrial products such as microprocessors, **DRAMs** (computer memory chips), and commercial jet aircraft; the markets for computer software; and the markets for **financial assets** from **U.S. Treasury bills** to **eurobonds** and **futures** on the **Nikkei index** or the **Mexican peso**.

In many global markets, the same firms frequently confront each other as competitors in nation after nation. Coca-Cola's rivalry with **PepsiCo** is a global one, as are the rivalries between **Ford** and **Toyota**, **Boeing** and **Airbus**, **Caterpillar** and

Notes

2 **small business** 「(中)小企業」通常は, small and medium-sized businesses (or firms) と言う。 / 18 **prevalence** 「普及」 / 25 **distribution channels** 「流通経路」 / 25– **culturally embedded value systems** 「文化的に根付いた価値体系」 / 39 **consumer products** 「消費財」(一般消費者向け商品) consumer goods とも言う。 / 42 **industrial goods** 「産業財」企業が生産のために使用する「生産財」などとも訳す。 / 46 **DRAMs** ダイナミック RAM (random access memory)。 / 49 **financial assets** 「金融資産」 / 49– **U.S. Treasury bills** 「アメリカ国債」 / 50 **eurobonds** 「ユーロ債権」 / 50 **futures** 「先物」 / 50– **Nikkei index** 「日経インデックス」 / 51 **Mexican peso** メキシコの通貨であるペソ。 / 54 **PepsiCo** アメリカのノースカロライナ州で生まれた清涼飲料水の会社。消化酵素のペプシンとコーラナッツからペプシコーラと名づけられる。 / 55 **Ford** Henry Ford が創業したミシガン州デトロイトに本社を置く自動車メーカー。大量生産方式で車を大衆化させた。 / 56 **Toyota** 「トヨタ自動車」愛知県豊田市に本社を置く日本の自動車メーカー最大手。 / 56 **Boeing** アメリカにある航空宇宙会社。 / 56 **Airbus** フランス, ドイツ, イギリス, スペインの4カ国の企業が共同出資してできた航空機メーカー。 / 56 **Caterpillar** アメリカのイリノイ州に本社を置く建設, 重機械のメーカー。

Komatsu in **earthmoving equipment**, and **Sony**, **Nintendo**, and **Microsoft** in video games. If one firm moves into a nation that is not currently served by its rivals, those rivals are sure to follow to prevent their competitor from **gaining an advantage**. As firms follow each other around the world, they bring with them many of the assets that served them well in other national market—including their products, operating strategies, marketing strategies, and **brand names**—creating some homogeneity across markets. Thus, greater uniformity replaces diversity. In an increasing number of industries, it is no longer meaningful to talk about “the German market,” “the American market,” “the Brazilian market,” or “the Japanese market”; for many firms there is only the global market.

THE GLOBALIZATION OF PRODUCTION

The globalization of production refers to the **sourcing** of goods and services from locations around the globe to take advantage of national differences in the cost and quality of **factors of production** (such as labor, energy, land, and capital). By doing this, companies hope to lower their overall cost structure and/or improve the quality or functionality of their product offering, thereby allowing them to compete more effectively. Consider the Boeing Company’s commercial jet airliner, the 777. Eight Japanese suppliers make **parts** for the **fuselage**, doors, and wings; a supplier in Singapore makes the doors for the **nose landing gear**; three

suppliers in Italy manufacture **wing flaps**; and so on. In total, some 30 percent of the 777, by value, is built by foreign companies. For its next jet airliner, the 787, Boeing is pushing this trend even further, with some 65 percent of the total value of the aircraft scheduled to be outsourced to foreign companies, 35 percent of which will go to three major Japanese companies.

Part of Boeing’s rationale for **outsourcing** so much production to foreign suppliers is that these suppliers are the best in the world at their particular activity. A global web of suppliers yields a better final product, which enhances the chances of Boeing winning a greater share of total orders for aircraft than its global rival, Airbus Industrie. Boeing also outsources some production to foreign countries to increase the chance that it will win significant orders from airlines based in that country.

For another example of a global web of activities, consider the **IBM** ThinkPad X31 laptop computer. This product was designed in the United States by IBM engineers because IBM believed that was the best location in the world to do the basic design work. The **case**, keyboard, and hard drive were made in Thailand; the display screen and memory were made in South Korea; the built-in wireless card was made in Malaysia; and the microprocessor was manufactured in the United States. In each case, these components were manufactured in the optimal location given an assessment of production costs and transportation costs.

Notes

1 **Komatsu** 「小松製作所」日本の建設、重機械のメーカー。 / 1 **earthmoving equipment** 「地ならし機」 / 2 **Nintendo** 「任天堂」日本のゲーム・玩具メーカー。 / 2 **Microsoft** Bill Gates が創業したアメリカのワシントン州に本社を置くコンピュータ・ソフトのメーカー。 / 5 **gaining an advantage** 「(競争) 優位を勝ち取る」 / 10 **brand names** 「ブランド名, 商標名」(Unit 11 の解説参照) / 19 **sourcing** 「調達する」 / 21- **factors of production** 「生産要素」(Unit 4 の解説参照) / 28 **parts** 「部品」 / 28- **fuselage** 「胴体」 / 30 **nose landing gear** 「前脚」 / 31 **wing flaps** 「フラップ」(下げ翼) 主翼の後縁部に取り付けられた高揚力装置のこと。 / 39 **outsourcing** 「外注する, アウトソーシングする」 / 50 **IBM** コンピュータのハードウェア, ソフトウェア, サービスを提供するアメリカの企業で, 正式名称は International Business Machines Corporation. / 54 **case** 「筐体 (きょうたい)」機器類を入れる器のこと。

These components were shipped to an IBM operation in Mexico, where the product was **assembled**, before being shipped to the United States for final sale. IBM assembled the ThinkPad in Mexico because IBM's managers calculated that due to low labor costs, the costs of assembly could be minimized there. The marketing and sales strategy for North America was developed by IBM personnel in the United States, primarily because IBM believed that due to their knowledge of the local marketplace, U.S. personnel would add more value to the product through their marketing efforts than personnel based elsewhere. (Interestingly, in another comment on the nature of globalization, in 2005, IBM's personal computer business, including the ThinkPad, was purchased by the Chinese company **Lenovo**, which promptly moved its headquarters to the United States because it believed that was the best location from which to run this business.)

While historically significant outsourcing has been primarily confined to manufacturing enterprises such as Boeing and IBM, increasingly companies take advantage of modern communication technology, particularly the Internet, to outsource service activities to low-cost producers in other nations. The Internet has allowed hospitals to outsource some **radiology work** to India, where images from **MRI scans** and the like are read at night while U.S. physicians sleep and the results are ready for them in the morning. Similarly, in December 2003, IBM announced it would move the work of some 4,300 software engineers from

the United States to India and China (software production is counted as a service activity). Many software companies now use Indian engineers to perform maintenance functions on software designed in the United States. Due to the time difference, Indian engineers can run **debugging tests** on software written in the United States when U.S. engineers sleep, transmitting the corrected code back to the United States over secure Internet connection so it is ready for U.S. engineers to work on the following day. **Dispersing value creation activities** in this way can compress the time and lower the costs required to develop new software programs. Other companies from computer makers to banks are outsourcing customer service functions, such as **customer call centers**, to developing nations where labor is cheaper.

Robert Reich, who served as **secretary of labor** in the **Clinton administration**, has argued that as a consequence of the trend exemplified by companies such as Boeing, Microsoft, and IBM, in many cases it is becoming irrelevant to talk about American products, Japanese products, German products, or Korean products. Increasingly, according to Reich, the outsourcing of productive activities to different suppliers results in the creation of products that are global in nature; that is, "global products." But as with the globalization of markets, one must be careful not to push the globalization of production too far. Substantial impediments still make it difficult for firms to achieve the optimal dispersion of their productive activities to locations around the globe. These impediments include

Notes

2 **assemble** 「組み立てる」 / 17 **Lenovo** 中華人民共和国のパソコン・メーカーで、中国語名は、「联想集团」 / 28 **radiology work** 「放射線業務」 / 29 **MRI scan** 「MRI (magnetic resonance imaging) スキャン」磁場と電波を使用して人体の内部を映像化する。 / 39 **debugging tests** 「デバッグ・テスト」コンピュータ・プログラムのミスを見つけて修正する。 / 44 **dispersing** 「分散する」 / 49 **customer call centers** 「顧客電話窓口、コールセンター」 / 51 **secretary of labor** 「労働長官」 / 52 **Clinton administration** 「クリントン政権」Bill Clinton 大統領時代の政権は1993年から2001年までで、この内前半の1997年までReichが労働長官を務める。

formal and informal barriers to trade between countries, barriers to **foreign direct investment**, transportation costs, and issues associated with economic and political risk. For example, government regulations ultimately limit the ability of hospitals to outsource **the process of interpreting MRI scans** to developing nations where radiologists are cheaper.

Nevertheless, we are traveling down the road toward a future characterized by the increased globalization of markets and production. Modern firms are important actors in this drama, by their very actions fostering increased globalization. These firms, however, are merely responding in an efficient manner to changing conditions in their operating environment—as well they should.

Notes

2 **foreign direct investment** 「海外直接投資 (FDI)」 (Unit 6 の解説参照) / 6 **the process of interpreting MRI scans** 「MRI スキャンを読み取る作業」

問題

1. 本文をよく読んで、以下の問いに答えなさい。

1. 市場のグローバル化とは何かを説明しなさい。
2. 市場のグローバル化を促進した要因を説明しなさい。
3. グローバル化がしにくい製品は何か、そしてその理由は何かを説明しなさい。
4. 逆に、グローバル化がしやすい製品は何か、その理由は何かを説明しなさい。
5. 生産のグローバル化とは何かを説明しなさい。
6. サービスのアウトソーシングを例を挙げて説明しなさい。

2. 以下の説明に合致する用語を本文から選んで記入しなさい。

1. Direct investment in business operations in a foreign country
()
2. Inputs into the productive process of a firm, including labor, management, land, capital, and technological know-how
()
3. Performing activities that increase the value of goods or services to consumers
()
4. Trend away from distinct national economic units and toward one huge global market
()

Unit 2: Differences in Culture

解説

Geert Hofstede

ヘールト・ホフステッド、オランダの学者で、*Culture's Consequences* (『経営文化の国際比較』) の著作を通し、文化とビジネスの関係に関する分野で、大きな影響を与えている。世界中の IBM の社員に対してアンケート調査を行い、各国の文化を、Individualism (個人主義) vs Collectivism (集団主義), Masculine (男性的) vs Feminine (女性的), Power distance (権力格差) の大小, Uncertainty avoidance (不確実性回避) の傾向の高低という 4 つの次元で比較し、後に Short-term (短期的) vs Long-term (長期的) の視点も加えた。

Samuel Huntington

サミュエル・ハンチントン、*The Clash of Civilizations* (『文明の衝突』) で知られるアメリカの政治学者。この中で、現代の主要な文明を、中華文明、日本文明、ヒンドゥー文明、イスラム文明、西欧文明、ロシア正教会文明、ラテンアメリカ文明、アフリカ文明に分け、文明の衝突は世界平和の最大の脅威で、文明に依拠した国際秩序こそが世界戦争を防ぐ最も確実な安全装置だと主張している。

WHAT IS CULTURE?

Scholars have never been able to agree on a simple definition of culture. In the 1870s, the anthropologist **Edward Tylor** defined culture as “that complex whole which includes knowledge, belief, art, morals, law, custom, and other capabilities acquired by man as a member of society.” Since then hundreds of other definitions have been offered. Geert Hofstede, an expert on cross-cultural differences and management, defined culture as “the collective programming of the mind which distinguishes the members of one human group from another. . . . Culture, in this sense, includes systems of values; and values are among the building blocks of culture.” Another definition of culture comes from sociologists **Zvi Navenwirth** and **Robert Weber** who see culture as a system of ideas and argue that these ideas constitute a design for living.

Here we follow both Hofstede and Navenwirth

and Weber by viewing culture as a system of **values** and **norms** that are shared among a group of people and that when taken together constitute a design for living. By values we mean abstract ideas about what a group believes to be good, right, and desirable. Put differently, values are shared assumptions about how things ought to be. By norms we mean the social rules and guidelines that prescribe appropriate behavior in particular situations. We shall use the term society to refer to a group of people who share a common set of values and norms. While a society may be equivalent to a country, some countries harbor several societies (i.e., they support multiple cultures), and some societies embrace more than one country.

VALUES AND NORMS

Values form the **bedrock** of a culture. They provide the context within which a society's norms

Notes

4 **Edward Tylor** イギリスの文化人類学者。 / 16 **Zvi Navenwirth** アメリカの社会学者。 / 16 **Robert Weber** アメリカの意思決定論研究者。 / 21 **values** 「価値観」 / 21 **norms** 「規範」 / 36 **bedrock** 「基盤」

are established and justified. They may include a society's attitudes toward such concepts as individual freedom, democracy, truth, justice, honesty, loyalty, social obligations, collective responsibility, the role of women, love, sex, marriage, and so on. Values are not just abstract concepts; they are invested with considerable emotional significance. People argue, fight, and even die over values such as freedom. Values also often are reflected in the political and economic systems of a society. Democratic free market capitalism is a reflection of a philosophical value system that emphasizes individual freedom.

Norms are the social rules that govern people's action toward one another. Norms can be subdivided further into two major categories: **folkways** and **mores**. Folkways are the routine conventions of everyday life. Generally, folkways are actions of little moral significance. Rather, folkways are social conventions concerning things such as the appropriate dress code in a particular situation, good social manners, eating with the correct utensils, **neighborly behavior**, and the like. While folkways define the way people are expected to behave, violation of folkways is not normally a serious matter. People who violate folkways may be thought of as eccentric or ill-mannered, but they are not usually considered to be evil or bad. In many countries, foreigners may initially be excused for violating folkways.

A good example of folkways concerns attitudes toward time in different countries. People are keenly aware of the passage of time in the United States and Northern European cultures such as Germany and Britain. Businesspeople are very conscious about scheduling their time and are quickly irri-

tated when their time is wasted because a **business associate** is late for a meeting or if they are kept waiting. They talk about time as though it were money, a something that can be spent, saved, wasted, and lost. Alternatively, in Arab, Latin, and Mediterranean cultures, time has a more elastic character. Keeping to a schedule is viewed as less important than finishing an interaction with people. While an American businessperson might feel slighted if she is kept waiting for 30 minutes outside the office of a Latin American **executive** before a meeting, the Latin American may simply be completing an interaction with an associate, and view the information gathered from this as more important than sticking to a rigid schedule. The Latin American executive intends no disrespect, but due to a mutual misunderstanding about the importance of time, the American may see things differently. Saudi attitudes to time have been shaped by their **nomadic Bedouin heritage**, in which precise time played no real role and arriving somewhere tomorrow might mean next week. Like Latin Americans, many Saudis are unlikely to understand the American obsession with precise time and schedules, and Americans need to adjust their expectations accordingly.

Folkways include rituals and symbolic behavior. Rituals and symbols are the most visible manifestations of a culture and constitute the outward expression of deeper values. For example, upon meeting a foreign business executive, a Japanese executive will hold his **business card** in both hands and bow while presenting the card to the foreigner. This ritual behavior is loaded with deep cultural symbolism. The card specifies the rank of the Japanese executive, which is a very important piece of

Notes

16 **folkways** 「しきたり」 / 23 **neighborly behavior** 「近所づきあい」 / 37- **business associate** 「仕事仲間, ビジネス相手」 / 47 **executive** 「重役, 経営幹部」 / 56 **nomadic** 「遊牧民の」 / 56 **Bedouin heritage** 「ベドウィン族の遺産」 / 68 **business card** 「名刺」

information in a hierarchical society such as Japan (Japanese often have business cards with Japanese printed on one side, and English printed on the other). The bow is a sign of respect, and the deeper
 5 the angle of the bow, the greater the reverence one person shows for the other. The person receiving the card is expected to examine it carefully, which is a way of returning respect and acknowledging the card giver's position in the hierarchy. The
 10 foreigner is also expected to bow when taking the card, and to return the greeting by presenting the Japanese executive with his own card, similarly bowing in the process. To not do so, and to fail to read the card that he has been given, instead casually placing it in his jacket, violates this important
 15 folkway and is considered rude.

Mores are norms that are seen as central to the functioning of a society and to its social life. They have much greater significance than folkways.
 20 Accordingly, violating mores can bring serious **retribution**. Mores include such factors as **indictments against theft, adultery, incest, and cannibalism**. In many societies, certain mores have been enacted into law. Thus, all advanced societies have
 25 laws against theft, incest, and cannibalism. However, there are also many differences between cultures. In America, for example, drinking alcohol is widely accepted, whereas in Saudi Arabia the consumption of alcohol is viewed as violating
 30 important social mores and is punishable by imprisonment (as some Western citizens working

in Saudi Arabia have discovered).

CULTURE, SOCIETY, AND THE NATION-STATE

We have defined a society as a group of people 35 that share a common set of values and norms; that is, people who are bound together by a common culture. There is not a strict one-to-one correspondence between a society and a **nation-state**. Nation-states are political creations. They may 40 contain a single culture or several cultures. While the French nation can be thought of as the political embodiment of French culture, the nation of Canada has at least three cultures—an Anglo culture, a French-speaking “**Quebecois**” culture, and a 45 **Native American** culture. Similarly, many African nations have important cultural differences between tribal groups, as exhibited in the early 1990s when **Rwanda** dissolved into a bloody civil war between two tribes, **the Tutsis** and **Hutus**. 50 Africa is not alone in this regard. India is composed of many distinct cultural groups. During **the first Gulf War**, the prevailing view presented to Western audiences was that Iraq was a homogenous Arab nation. But over the past 15 year, we have learned 55 several different societies exist within Iraq, each with its own culture. The Kurds in the north do not view themselves as Arabs and have their own distinct history and traditions. There are two Arab societies: **the Shiites** in the South and **the Sunnis** 60 who populate the middle of the country and who

Notes

17 **mores** 「戒律」 / 21 **retribution** 「処罰」 / 21– **indictments against theft, adultery, incest, and cannibalism** 「窃盗, 不倫, 近親相姦, 食人習慣の禁止」 / 39 **nation-state** 「国民国家」ある領域内の住民を国民として統治する国家で, 近代国家の姿。 / 45 **Quebecois** 「カナダのケベック州の」ここではフランス語が公用語である。 / 46 **Native American** 「アメリカ先住民」 / 49 **Rwanda** アフリカにあるルワンダ共和国。ここでの内乱は「ホテル ルワンダ」という題名で映画化された。 / 50 **the Tutsis** 「ツチ族」 / 50 **the Hutus** 「フツ族」 / 52– **the first Gulf War** 1990年にイラクがクウェートに侵攻したことに対し, アメリカを中心とする多国籍軍がイラクと行った戦争。第二次湾岸戦争とは, 2001年の9月11日のアメリカに対するテロ活動に端を発した戦争。 / 60 **the Shiites** 「シーア派」 / 60 **the Sunnis** 「スンニ派」

ruled Iraq under the regime of Saddam Hussein (the terms *Shiites* and *Sunnis* refer to different sects within the religion of Islam). Among the southern Sunnis is another distinct society of 500,000 **Marsh**
 5 **Arabs** who live at the **confluence** of the Tigris and Euphrates rivers, pursuing a way of life that dates back 5,000 years.

At the other end of the scale are cultures that embrace several nations. Several scholars argue that
 10 we can speak of an Islamic society or culture that is shared by the citizens of many different nations in the Middle East, Asia, and Africa. This view of expansive cultures that embrace several nations underpins Samuel Huntington's view of a world
 15 that is fragmented into different civilizations including Western, Islamic, and Sinic (Chinese).

To complicate things further, it is also possible to talk about culture at different levels. It is reasonable to talk about "American society" and "American culture," but there are several societies within
 20 America, each with its own culture. One can talk about **Afro-American culture**, **Cajun culture**, **Chinese-American culture**, **Hispanic culture**, **Indian culture**, **Irish-American culture**, and
 25 **Southern culture**. The relationship between cul-

ture and country is often ambiguous. One cannot always characterize a country as having a single homogenous culture, and even when one can, one must also often recognize that the national culture
 30 is a mosaic of subcultures.

THE DETERMINANTS OF CULTURE

The values and norms of a culture do not emerge fully formed. They are the evolutionary product of a number of factors, including the prevailing political and economic philosophies, the social
 35 structure of a society, and the dominant religion, language, and education. Political and economic philosophies clearly influence the value systems of a society. For example, the values found in Communist North Korea toward freedom, justice, and
 40 individual achievement are clearly different from the values found in the United States, precisely because each society operates according to different political and economic philosophies. **The chain of causation** runs both ways. While factors such
 45 as social structure and religion clearly influence the values and norms of a society, the values and norms of a society can influence social structure and religion.

Notes

4- **Marsh Arabs** 「沼地アラブ人」 / 5 **confluence** 「合流地点」 / 22 **Afro-American culture** アフリカ系アメリカ人の文化。 / 22 **Cajun culture** ルイジアナ州に住むアケイディアン人（フランスの植民地からの移民を祖先に持つ）の文化。 / 23 **Chinese-American culture** 中国系アメリカ人の文化。 / 23 **Hispanic culture** ラテン・アメリカ人の文化。 / 24 **Indian culture** インド系アメリカ人の文化。 / 24 **Irish-American culture** アイルランド系アメリカ人の文化。 / 25 **Southern culture** アメリカ南部の文化。 / 44- **the chain of causation** 「因果関係の連鎖」

問 題

1. 本文をよく読んで、以下の問いに答えなさい。

1. 価値観とは何かを説明しなさい。
2. しきたりとは何かを説明しなさい。
3. 戒律とは何かを説明しなさい。
4. 文化と国の関係について説明しなさい。
5. 文化を形成する要因を説明しなさい。

2. 以下の説明に合致する用語を本文から選んで記入しなさい。

1. Abstract ideas about what a society believes to be good, right, and desirable
()
2. Norms seen as central to the functioning of a society and to its social life
()
3. Routine conventions of everyday life
()
4. Social rules and guidelines that prescribe appropriate behavior in particular situations
()
5. The complex whole that includes knowledge, belief, art, morals, law, custom, and other capabilities acquired by a person as a member of society
()

Unit 3: Ethics in International Business

解説

Foreign Corrupt Practices Act

海外腐敗行為防止法。米国企業による外国政府役人の買収を禁止するために、制定された。1970年代に米国企業の中に外国政府役人に対する違法もしくは不適当な支払い慣行が存在することが判明して、制定された。しかし、後に国際市場における競争の中で米国企業は不利になっているとの批判が出て、緩和された。

Organization for Economic Cooperation and Development (OECD)

経済協力開発機構。第二次世界大戦後発足した欧州経済協力機構が前身。その後米国や日本が加わり、現在は30か国が加盟。先進国間の意見交換を通じて、経済成長、貿易自由化、途上国支援に貢献することを目的とする。

Convention on Combating Bribery of Foreign Public Officials in International Business Transactions

国際商取引における外国公務員に対する贈賄の防止に関する条約。国際市場における商取引の公正な競争を確保するために、33か国が署名し、日本では、1998年に不正競争防止法を改正、外国公務員に不正の利益を供与した場合は、企業に最高3億円、個人に300万円以下の罰金または3年以下の懲役が科されることになっている。

social responsibility

社会的責任。近年企業は、利潤をあげるだけでなく、その利潤を社会に還元するような活動が求められる。これは、Corporate Social Responsibility (CSR) と呼ばれる。また、企業も良き市民として地域に貢献するべきという考えから、Corporate citizenship (企業市民) という言葉も用いられる。

British East India Company

イギリス東インド会社。17世紀から19世紀にかけて東インド(狭くは東インド諸島、広くはアジア)とヨーロッパの貿易やアジアの植民地支配を行った会社。他に、オランダやフランスの東インド貿易会社もある。多国籍企業のルーツと言える。

CORRUPTION

Corruption has been a problem in almost every society in history, and it continues to be one today. There always have been and always will be corrupt government officials. International business can gain and have gained **economic advantages** by making payments to those officials. A classic example concerns a well-publicized incident in the 1970s. Carl Kotchian, the president of **Lockheed**,

made a \$12.5 million payment to Japanese agents and government officials to secure a large order for Lockheed's TriStar jet from **Nippon Air**. When the payments were discovered, U.S. officials charged Lockheed with **falsification** of its records and **tax violations**. Although such payments were supposed to be an accepted business practice in Japan (they might be viewed as an exceptionally lavish form of gift giving), the **revelations** created

Notes

1 **corruption** 「腐敗」 corrupt は「腐敗した」 / 6 **economic advantages** 「経済的優位」 / 9 **Lockheed** アメリカの航空機メーカー。 / 12 **Nippon Air** 「エア日本」 ANA グループの航空会社。 / 14 **falsification** 「改ざん」 / 15 **tax violations** 「税法違反」 / 18 **revelations** 「露見」

a scandal there too. The government ministers in question were criminally charged, one committed suicide, the government fell in disgrace, and the Japanese people were outraged. Apparently, such
 5 a payment was not an accepted way of doing business in Japan! The payment was nothing more than a **bribe**, paid to corrupt officials, to secure a large order that might otherwise have gone to another manufacturer, such as Boeing. Kotchian clearly
 10 engaged in unethical behavior, and to argue that the payment was an “acceptable form of doing business in Japan” was self-serving and incorrect.

The Lockheed case was the impetus for the 1977 passage of the Foreign Corrupt Practices Act in
 15 the United States. The act outlawed the paying of bribes to foreign government officials to gain business. Some U.S. businesses immediately objected that the act would put U.S. firms at a competitive disadvantage (there is no evidence that subse-
 20 quently occurred). The act was subsequently amended to allow for “**facilitating payments**.” Sometimes known as speed money or grease payments, facilitating payments are *not* payments to secure contracts that would not otherwise be se-
 25 cured, nor are they payments to obtain exclusive preferential treatment; rather they are payments to ensure receiving the standard treatment that a business ought to receive from a foreign government but might not due to the obstruction of a foreign
 30 official.

In 1997, the trade and finance ministers from the member states of the Organization for Economic Cooperation and Development (OECD) followed the U.S. lead and adopted the Convention on
 35 Combating Bribery of Foreign Public Officials in International Business Transactions. The conven-

tion, which went into force in 1999, obliges member states to make the bribery of foreign public officials a criminal offense. The convention excludes facilitating payments made to expedite
 40 routine government action from the convention. To be truly effective, however, the convention must be translated into **domestic law** by each **signatory nation**, and that is still in process.

While facilitating payments, or speed money, are
 45 excluded from both the Foreign Corrupt Practice Act and the OECD convention on bribery, the ethical implications of making such payments are unclear. In many countries, **payoffs** to government officials in the form of speed money are a part of
 50 life. One can argue that not investing because government officials demand speed money ignores the fact that such investment can bring substantial benefits to the local **populace** in terms of income and jobs. From a pragmatic standpoint, giving bribes,
 55 although a little evil, might be the price that must be paid to do a greater good (assuming the investment creates jobs where none existed and assuming the practice is not illegal). Several economists advocate this reasoning, suggesting that in the con-
 60 text of pervasive and cumbersome regulations in developing countries, corruption may improve efficiency and help growth! These economists theorize that in a country where preexisting political structures distort or limit the workings of the
 65 market mechanism, corruption in the form of **black-marketeering**, **smuggling**, and **side payments** to government bureaucrats to “speed up” approval for business investments may enhance welfare. Arguments such as this persuaded the U.S. Congress to
 70 exempt facilitating payments from the Foreign Corrupt Practice Act.

Notes

7 **bribe** 「賄賂」 / 21 **facilitating payments** 「業務促進のための支払い」 / 43 **domestic law** 「国内法」 / 43– **signatory nation** 「署名国」 / 49 **payoffs** 「賄賂」 / 54 **populace** 「一般大衆」 / 66– **black-marketeering** 「闇取引」 / 67 **smuggling** 「密輸」 / 67 **side payments** 「内緒の支払い」

In contrast, other economists have argued that corruption reduces the **returns on business investment** and leads to low economic growth. In a country where corruption is common, unproductive bureaucrats who demand side payments for granting the enterprise permission to operate may **siphon off** the profits from a business activity. This reduces businesses' incentive to invest and may retard a country's economic growth rate. One study of the connection between corruption and economic growth in 70 countries found that corruption had a significant negative impact on a country's growth rate.

Given the debate and the complexity of this issue, one again might conclude that generalization is difficult and the demand for speed money creates a genuine ethical dilemma. Yes, corruption is bad, and yes, it may harm a country's economic development, but yes, there are also cases where side payments to government officials can remove the bureaucratic barriers to investments that create jobs. However, this pragmatic stance ignores the fact that corruption tends to corrupt both the bribe giver and the bribe taker. Corruption feeds on itself, and once an individual starts down the road of corruption, pulling back may be difficult if not impossible. This argument strengthens the ethical case for never engaging in corruption, no matter how compelling the benefits might seem.

Many multinationals have accepted this argument. The large oil multinational, **BP**, for example, has a **zero-tolerance approach** toward facilitating payments. Other corporations have a more nuanced approach. For example, consider the following from the **code of ethics** at **Dow Corning**:

Dow Corning employees will not authorize or give payments or gifts to government employees or their beneficiaries or anyone else in order to obtain or retain business. Facilitating payments to expedite the performance of routine services are strongly discouraged. In countries where local business practice dictates such payments and there is no alternative, facilitating payments are to be for the minimum amount necessary and must be accurately documented and recorded.

This statement allows for facilitating payments when "there is no alternative," although they are strongly discouraged.

MORAL OBLIGATIONS

Multinational corporations have power that comes from their control over resources and their ability to move production from country to country. Although that power is constrained not only by laws and regulations, but also by the discipline of the market and the competitive process, it is nevertheless substantial. Some moral philosophers argue that with power comes the social responsibility for multinationals to give something back to the societies that enable them to prosper and grow. The concept of social responsibility refers to the idea that businesspeople should consider the social consequences of economic actions when making business decisions, and that there should be a presumption in favor of decisions that have both good economic and social consequences. In its purest form, social responsibility can be supported for its own sake simply because it is the right way for a business to behave. Advocates of this approach argue that businesses, particularly large successful businesses, need to recognize their *noblesse oblige*

Notes

2- **returns on business investment** 「ビジネスの投資から得られる収益」 / 7 **siphon off** 「くすめる, 吸い上げる」 / 31 **BP** イギリスの石油会社. / 32 **zero-tolerance approach** 「不寛容の姿勢」 / 35 **code of ethics** 「倫理コード」 / 35- **Dow Corning** シリコンを主要製品とするアメリカの化学メーカー. / 71 **noblesse oblige** 「高い身分に伴う義務」

and give something back to the societies that have made their success possible. *Noblesse oblige* is a French term that refers to honorable and benevolent behavior considered the responsibility of people of high (noble) birth. In a business setting, it is taken to mean benevolent behavior that is the responsibility of *successful* enterprises. This has long been recognized by many businesspeople, resulting in a substantial and venerable history of corporate giving to society and in businesses making social investments designed to enhance the welfare of the communities in which they operate.

However, some multinationals have abused their power for private gain. The most famous historic example relates to one of the earliest multinationals, the British East India Company. Established in 1600, the East India Company grew to dominate the entire Indian subcontinent in the 19th century. At the height of its power, the company deployed more than 40 warships, possessed the largest standing army in the world, was the **de facto ruler** of India's 240 million people, and even hired its own church bishops, extending its dominance into the spiritual realm.

Power itself is morally neutral. It is how power is used that matters. It can be used in a positive way to increase social welfare, which is ethical, or it can be used in a manner that is ethically and morally suspect. Consider the case of **News Corporation**, one of the largest media conglomerates in the world. The power of media companies derives from their ability to shape public perceptions by the material they choose to publish. News Corporation founder and **CEO** Rupert Murdoch has

long considered China to be one of the most promising media markets in the world and has sought permission to expand News Corporation's operations in China, particularly the **satellite broadcasting operation** of **Star TV**. Some critics believe that Murdoch used the power of News Corporation in an unethical way to attain this objective.

Some multinationals have acknowledged a moral obligation to use their power to enhance social welfare in the communities where they do business. BP, one of the world's largest oil companies, has made it part of the company policy to undertake "social investments" in the countries where it does business. In Algeria, BP has been investing in a major project to develop gas fields near the desert town of Salah. When the company noticed the lack of clean water in Salah, it built two **desalination plants** to provide drinking water for the local community and distributed containers to residents so they could take water from the plants to their homes. There was no economic reason for BP to make this social investment, but the company believes it is morally obligated to use its power in constructive ways. The action, while a small thing for BP, is a very important thing for the local community.

ETHICAL DILEMMAS

The ethical obligations of a multinational corporation toward employment conditions, human rights, corruption, **environmental pollution**, and the use of power are not always clear cut. There may be no agreement about accepted ethical principles. From an international business perspective, some argue that what is ethical depends upon one's cultural

Notes

21 **de facto ruler** 「事実上の支配者」 / 29- **News Corporation** 新聞、テレビ、映画会社などを傘下に収めるオーストラリア発祥の企業。 / 30 **conglomerates** 「複合企業体」異業種を集めて多角的に経営する企業。 / 34 **CEO** Chief Executive Office (最高経営責任者) の略。 / 38- **satellite broadcasting operation** 「衛星放送事業」 / 39 **Star TV** アジア最大の衛星放送会社。 / 51- **desalination plants** 「海水淡水化プラント」 / 60 **ethical dilemmas** 「倫理的ジレンマ」 / 63 **environmental pollution** 「環境汚染」

perspective. In the United States, it is considered acceptable to execute murderers, but in many cultures this is not acceptable—execution is viewed as an affront to human dignity and the death penalty is outlawed. Many Americans find this attitude very strange, but many Europeans find the American approach barbaric. For a more busi-

ness-oriented example, consider the practice of “gift giving” between the parties to a business negotiation. While this is considered right and proper behavior in many Asian cultures, some Westerners view the practice as a form of bribery, and therefore unethical particularly if the gifts are substantial.

問 題

1. 本文をよく読んで、以下の問いに答えなさい。

1. 米国で海外腐敗行為防止法が制定されるきっかけの一つとなった事件を説明しなさい。
2. 条約が効力を発するためには何が必要かを説明しなさい。
3. 「業務促進のための支払」とは何か、それに対する擁護と反論を説明しなさい。
4. 企業の社会的責任とは何かを説明しなさい。
5. 倫理上のジレンマとは何かを説明しなさい。

2. 以下の説明に合致する用語を本文から選んで記入しなさい。

1. Concept that businesspeople should consider the social consequences of economic actions when making business decisions
()
2. Situation in which no available alternative seems ethically acceptable
()
3. A formal statement of the ethical priorities of a business organization
()

Unit 4: International Trade Theory

解説

Adam Smith

アダム・スミス。経済学の父と言われるイギリスの経済学者(1723–1790)。その主著 *An Inquiry into the Nature and Causes of the Wealth of Nations* (『諸国民の富の性質と原因の研究』一般には『国富論』)の中で、「自由放任主義」(*laissez-faire stance*)を標榜し、各自が自己の利益を追求すると「見えざる手」(*invisible hand*)により、公共の利益が図られると主張した。

factors of production

生産要素。企業が財 (goods) やサービス (services) を生産するのに要する資源で、土地、労働、資本を意味する。Porter は、これでは漠然としすぎているとして、人的資源、物的資源、知識資源、資本資源、インフラストラクチャーの5つの要素に分類している。

Harvard Business School

ハーバード・ビジネス・スクール。1908年に創設された最古の経営学修士 (Master of Business Administration: MBA) を授与する大学院。HBS とも略される。ケース・スタディーを用いた授業スタイルで有名。

We open this unit with a discussion of mercantilism. Propagated in the 16th and 17th centuries, **mercantilism** advocated that countries should simultaneously encourage exports and discourage
5 imports. Although mercantilism is an old and largely **discredited doctrine**, its **echoes** remain in modern political debate and in the trade policies of many countries. Next we will look at Adam Smith's theory of absolute advantage. Proposed in 1776,
10 Smith's theory was the first to explain why unrestricted free trade is beneficial to a country. Free trade refers to a situation where a government does not attempt to influence through quotas or duties what its citizens can buy from another country, or
15 what they can produce and sell to another country.

Smith argued that the invisible hand of the market mechanism, rather than government policy, should determine what a country imports and what it exports. His arguments imply that such a *laissez-faire* stance toward trade was in the best interests of a
20 country. Building on Smith's work are two additional theories. One is the **theory of comparative advantage**, advanced by the 19th-century English economist **David Ricardo**. This theory is the intellectual basis of the modern argument for
25 unrestricted free trade. In the 20th century, Ricardo's work was refined by two Swedish economists, **Eli Heckscher** and **Bertil Ohlin**, whose theory is known as the **Heckscher-Ohlin theory**.

30

Notes

3 **mercantilism** 「重商主義」 / 6 **discredited doctrine** 「支持されない理論」 / 6 **echoes** 「似たような考え方」 / 9 **theory of absolute advantage** 「絶対優位の理論」 / 22– **theory of comparative advantage** 「比較優位の理論」 / 24 **David Ricardo** イギリスの経済学者。 / 28 **Eli Heckscher** スウェーデンの経済学者。 / 28 **Bertil Ohlin** ノーベル賞受賞のスウェーデンの経済学者。 / 29– **Heckscher-Ohlin theory** 「ヘクシャー＝オリーンの定理」

THE BENEFITS OF TRADE

The great strength of the theories of Smith, Ricardo, and Heckscher-Ohlin is that they identify with precision the specific benefits of international trade.

Common sense suggests that some international trade is beneficial. For example, nobody would suggest that Iceland should grow its own oranges. Iceland can benefit from trade by exchanging some of the products that it can produce at a low cost (fish) for some products that it cannot produce at all (oranges). Thus, by engaging in international trade, Icelanders are able to add oranges to their diet of fish. The theories of Smith, Ricardo, and Heckscher-Ohlin go beyond this commonsense notion, however, to show why it is beneficial for a country to engage in international trade *even for products it is able to produce for itself*. This is a difficult concept for people to grasp. For example, many people in the United States believe that American consumers should buy products produced in the United States by American companies whenever possible to help save American jobs from foreign competition. Such thinking apparently underlay a 2002 decision by President George W. Bush to protect American steel producers from competition from lower-cost foreign producers (a decision that the Bush administration reversed a year later).

The same kind of nationalistic sentiments can be observed in many other countries. However, the theories of Smith, Ricardo, and Heckscher-Ohlin tell us that a country's economy may gain if its citizens buy certain products from other nations that could be produced at home. The gains arise because international trade allows a country to specialize in the manufacture and export of products that can be produced most efficiently in that country, while

importing products that can be produced more efficiently in other countries. So it may make sense for the United States to specialize in the production and export of commercial jet aircraft, since the efficient production of commercial jet aircraft requires resources that are abundant in the United States, such as a highly skilled labor force and **cutting-edge** technological **know-how**. On the other hand, it may make sense for the United States to import textiles from China since the efficient production of textiles requires a relatively cheap labor force—and cheap labor is not abundant in the United States.

Of course, this economic argument is often difficult for segments of a country's population to accept. With their future threatened by imports, U.S. textile companies and their employees have tried hard to persuade the government to limit the importation of textiles by demanding **quotas** and **tariffs**. Although such import controls may benefit particular groups, such as textile businesses and their employees or unprofitable steel mills and their employees, the theories of Smith, Ricardo, and Heckscher-Ohlin suggest that such action hurts the economy as a whole. Limits on imports are often in the interests of domestic producers, but not domestic consumers.

THE PATTERN OF INTERNATIONAL TRADE

The theories of Smith, Ricardo, and Heckscher-Ohlin help to explain the pattern of international trade that we observe in the world economy. Some aspects of the pattern are easy to understand. Climate and **natural-resource endowments** explain why Ghana exports cocoa, Brazil exports coffee,

Notes

44 **cutting-edge** 「最先端の」 / 44 **know-how** 「ノウハウ」 / 55 **quotas** 「数量割当」 / 56 **tariffs** 「関税」 / 70 **natural-resource endowments** 「天然資源の恵み」

Saudi Arabia exports oil, and China exports **crawfish**. But much of the observed pattern of international trade is more difficult to explain. For example, why does Japan export automobiles, consumer electronics, and machine tools? Why does Switzerland export chemicals, pharmaceuticals, watches, and jewelry? David Ricardo's theory of comparative advantage offers an explanation in terms of international differences in **labor productivity**. The more sophisticated Heckscher-Ohlin theory emphasizes the interplay between the proportions in which the factors of production (such as land, labor, and capital) are available in different countries and the proportions in which they are needed for producing particular goods. This explanation rests on the **assumption** that countries have varying endowments of the various factors of production. Tests of this theory, however, suggest that it is a less powerful explanation of real-world trade patterns than once thought.

One early response to the failure of the Heckscher-Ohlin theory to explain the observed pattern of international trade was the **product life-cycle theory**. Proposed by **Raymond Vernon**, this theory suggests that early in their life cycle, most new products are produced in and exported from the country in which they were developed. As a new product becomes widely accepted internationally, however, production starts in other countries. As a result, the theory suggests, the product may ultimately be exported back to the country of its original innovation.

In a similar vein, during the 1980s economists such as **Paul Krugman** of the **Massachusetts Institute of Technology** developed what has come

to be known as the new trade theory. New trade theory stresses that in some cases countries specialize in the production and export of particular products not because of underlying differences in factor endowments, but because in certain industries the world market can support only a limited number of firms. (This is argued to be the case for the commercial aircraft industry.) In such industries, firms that enter the market first build a competitive advantage that is subsequently difficult to challenge. Thus, the observed pattern of trade between nations may be due in part to the ability of firms within a given nation to capture **first-mover advantages**. The United States is a major exporter of commercial jet aircraft because American firms such as Boeing were first movers in the world market. Boeing built a competitive advantage that has subsequently been difficult for firms from countries with equally favorable factor endowments to challenge (although Europe's Airbus Industrie has succeeded in doing that).

In a work related to the new trade theory, **Michael Porter** of the Harvard Business School developed a theory, referred to as the **theory of national competitive advantage**. This attempts to explain why particular nations achieve international success in certain industries. In addition to factor endowments, Porter points out the importance of country factors such as domestic demand and domestic rivalry in explaining a nation's dominance in the production and export of particular products.

TRADE THEORY AND GOVERNMENT POLICY

Although all these theories agree that international

Notes

2 **crawfish** 「イセエビ」 / 9- **labor productivity** 「労働の生産性」 / 16 **assumption** 「前提」 / 23- **product life-cycle theory** 「製品ライフサイクル理論」 / 24 **Raymond Vernon** アメリカの経済学者。 / 34 **Paul Krugman** アメリカの経済学者。 / 34- **Massachusetts Institute of Technology** 「マサチューセッツ工科大学 (MIT)」 / 48- **first-mover advantages** 「先発優位, 先行者利得」 / 58 **Michael Porter** アメリカの経済学者。 / 59- **theory of national competitive advantage** 「国の競争優位の理論」

trade is beneficial to a country, they lack agreement in their recommendations for government policy. Mercantilism makes a crude case for government **involvement** in promoting exports and
 5 limiting imports. The theories of Smith, Ricardo, and Heckscher-Ohlin form part of the case for unrestricted free trade. The argument for unrestricted

free trade is that both import control and export incentives (such as **subsidies**) are self-defeating and result in wasted resources. Both the new trade
 10 theory and Porter's theory of national competitive advantage can be interpreted as justifying some limited government **intervention** to support the development of certain **export-oriented** industries.

Notes

4 **involvement** 「関与」 / 9 **subsidies** 「補助金」 (Unit 5 の解説参照) / 13 **intervention** 「干渉」 / 14 **export-oriented** 「輸出志向」

問 題

1. 本文をよく読んで、以下の問いに答えなさい。

1. 重商主義とは何かを説明しなさい。
2. 絶対優位の理論を説明しなさい。
3. 比較優位の理論を説明しなさい。
4. 製品ライフサイクル理論を説明しなさい。
5. 新貿易理論を説明しなさい。
6. 国の競争優位の理論を説明しなさい。

2. 以下の説明に合致する用語を本文から選んで記入しなさい。

1. An economic philosophy advocating that countries should simultaneously encourage exports and discourage imports
 ()
2. The absence of barriers to the free flow of goods and services between countries
 ()
3. A theory advocating that countries will export those goods that make intensive use of locally abundant factors of production and import goods that make intensive use of locally scarce factors of production
 ()

4. A theory advocating that the optimal location in the world to produce a product changes as the market for the product matures
()
5. A theory advocating that the observed pattern of trade in the world economy may be due in part to the ability of firms in a given market to capture first-mover advantages
()
6. Advantages accruing to the first to enter a market
()

Unit 5: Instruments of Trade Policy

解説

subsidies

補助金. 各国が採用している補助金には「輸出補助金」と製品の生産を奨励するための「助成金」がある。WTO では、先進国による輸出補助金は、途上国産品の輸出機会を損なうとして、一般的にこれを禁じている。

import quotas

輸入割当または輸入割当量. 特定品目の一国の需要量のうち、通常国内生産量で不足する部分を輸入割当として低関税を適用し、輸入割当を超える部分には高関税を適用する制度（輸入割当量＝国内需要量－国内生産量）。非関税障壁の一種であり、WTO ではこれを世界的に撤廃することを提唱している。

local content requirements

ローカルコンテンツ要求. 海外からの投資を受入れる国が、当該国に投資を行う外国企業に対して、原材料や部品等の生産用資材を一定の割合を超えて国内企業から調達するように強要または指導する措置。国際貿易ルールでは、ローカルコンテンツ要求は貿易を歪める措置であるとして、原則として禁じている。

antidumping duties

アンチダンピング関税. ある国の輸出製品価格が、輸出国における国内販売価格を下回って輸入国に輸出された場合に、（国内販売価格または国際市場価格－輸出価格）相当分を不当廉売として関税をかける場合がある。

GATT

General Agreement on Tariffs and Trade, 関税と貿易に関する一般協定. WTO が定めた「モノの貿易」に関する国際協定で、関税、非関税障壁、自由貿易協定等について国際ルールを規定している。

WTO

World Trade Organization, 世界貿易機関. 「モノの貿易」、「サービスの貿易」、「知的財産権保護」等について貿易上の国際ルールを定めている。

nontariff barriers

非関税障壁. 関税以外の方法により貿易を規制する手段. 輸入割当、輸入数量制限、各種の輸入規制措置など。

tariff rate quota

関税割当制度. 特定産品における国内生産者を保護するために、国内需要量で不足している部分の輸入（必要輸入量）について低率関税を課し、必要輸入量を超える部分については高率関税を課す制度. 必要輸入量＝国内需要量－国内生産量. in-quota tariff rate は、関税割当の必要輸入量の範囲で課す低率関税で、over-quota tariff rate は、関税割当の必要輸入量を超える部分に対して課す高率関税。

Trade policy uses seven main instruments: tariffs, subsidies, import quotas, **voluntary export restraints**, local content requirements, **administrative policies**, and antidumping duties. Tariffs are the oldest and simplest instrument of trade policy. They are also the instrument that the GATT and WTO have been most successful in limiting. A fall in tariff barriers in recent decades has been accompanied by a rise in nontariff barriers, such as subsidies, quotas, voluntary export restraints, and antidumping duties.

TARIFFS

A tariff is a tax levied on imports (or exports). Tariffs fall into two categories. **Specific tariffs** are levied as a fixed charge for each unit of a good imported (for example, \$3 per barrel of oil). **Ad valorem tariffs** are levied as a proportion of the value of the imported good. In most cases, tariffs are placed on imports to protect domestic producers from foreign competition by raising the price of imported goods. However, tariffs also produce revenue for the government. Until the income tax was introduced, for example, the U.S. government received most of its revenues from tariffs.

The important thing to understand about an import tariff is who suffers and who gains. The government gains, because the tariff increases government revenues. Domestic producers gain, because the tariff affords them some protection against foreign competitors by increasing the cost of imported foreign goods. Consumers lose because they must pay more for certain imports. For example, in March 2002 the U.S. government placed an ad valorem tariff of 8 percent to 30 percent on imports of foreign steel. The idea was to protect

domestic steel producers from cheap imports of foreign steel. The effect, however, was to raise the price of steel products in the United States by between 30 percent and 50 percent. A number of U.S. steel consumers, ranging from appliance makers to automobile companies, objected that the steel tariffs would raise their costs of production and make it more difficult for them to compete in the global marketplace. Whether the gains to the government and domestic producers exceed the loss to consumers depends on various factors such as the amount of the tariff, the importance of the imported good to domestic consumers, the number of jobs saved in the protected industry, and so on. In the steel case, many argued that the losses to steel consumers apparently outweighed the gains to steel producers. (In November 2003 the World Trade Organization declared that the tariffs represented a violation of the WTO treaty, and the United States removed them in December of that year).

In general, two conclusions can be derived from economic analysis of the effect of import tariffs. First, tariffs are unambiguously **pro-producer and anti-consumer**. While they protect producers from foreign competitors, this restriction of supply also raises domestic prices. For example, a study by Japanese economists calculated that tariffs on imports of foodstuffs, cosmetics, and chemicals into Japan in 1989 cost the average Japanese consumer about \$890 per year in the form of higher prices. Almost all studies find that import tariffs impose significant costs on domestic consumers in the form of higher prices.

Second, import tariffs reduce the overall efficiency of the world economy. They reduce efficiency because a protective tariff encourages do-

Notes

2- **voluntary export restraints** 「輸出自主規制」 / 3- **administrative policies** 「行政措置」 / 14 **specific tariffs** 「定額関税」 / 16- **ad valorem tariffs** 「定率関税」 / 58- **pro-producer and anti-consumer** 「生産者にはメリットがあるが、消費者（モノの購入者）には不利益である」