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(Public International Law) Fiction of international law used to explain immunities that certain persons or certain things (diplomatic agents and premises above all) explained the authority of the state of residence, as if they were in the national area. It also works with regard to vessels with rights and obligations ranging depending on the area in which they are located. International Legal Principle where certain persons or things are released in the field of a State whoever or part of the jurisdiction and courier power of that State. At present, this principle, under the most appropriate name of immunity, applies to diplomatic delegations, diplomatic agents, some of their characteristics and foreign warships and their donations in a state port other than those whose flag they are flying. Although diplomatic agents are subject to the general rules of the State to which they are accredited, jurisdiction or administrative rights, of which the general regulation contained in articles 22 to 41 of the 1961 Vienna Convention may not be carried out against them in principle. Similarly, the foreign warship escapes certain aspects of the competence of the state in whose port it is located, because if it is obliged to respect the sovereignty of that state and the general rules of its legal order, the agents of the local state cannot carry out any form of coercive act on board. To explain these situations of immunity, there is talk of extramaturity, fiction that does not comply with positive legislation, defending these immunities today in the understanding that the delegation and the warship are public services and must function as such with full independence (V. diplomatic immunities). Legal fiction that regards certain people and things (such as diplomatic and consular representatives, the buildings they occupy and the warships) as belonging to the territory of the nation they represent, and subject to their laws. The term extraordinary criminal law both refers to the application of Spanish criminal law on crimes committed outside the national area, and to the expansion of Spanish criminal jurisdiction to the knowledge of these crimes. Both issues (which are materially one, as the Spanish criminal jurisdiction applies Spanish criminal law) are regulated in Article 23 of the Organic Law of the Regbank.Na foundation in paragraph 1o the so-called principle of territoriality – according to which, it is to the Spanish jurisdiction to know the causes for crimes and crimes in Spanish Spanish (without bias, in the latter regard, to the provisions of the international vessels to which Spain is a party) - Section 23 of the LOPJ incorporates into paragraphs 2o, 3nd and 4th three principles, complementary to that of territoriality, which exactly are those who enable the excessive application of Spanish legislation. These are the following: (i) Principle of personality or nationality (art. 23.2 of the LOPJ), according to which the Spanish jurisdiction should know the facts provided for in Spanish criminal laws as crimes, even if they were committed outside the national area, provided that the criminal is responsible Spanish or foreign that Spanish nationality is, with the understanding that, provided that, provided that, provided that, provided that the following conditions are complied:a) that the event is punishable at the place of execution.b) that the aggrieved or the Office of the Public Prosecutor's office is condemned or brought a complaint before the Spanish Courts.c) that the perpetrator is not acquitted, forgiving or punished abroad, or, in the latter case, did not have the If you have just complied with it in part, you will be considered to reduce the appropriate one proportionately. (ii) Actual or protective principle (art. 23.3 of the LOPJ), according to which Spanish jurisdiction will hear the facts committed by Spaniards or foreigners outside the national area when they are likely to be criminalised, according to the Spanish criminal law, as one of the following violations:a) of betrayal and against the peace or independence of the State. , your Consort, your Successor or the Regent.c) Counterfeiting of the royal signature or stamp, of the seal of the State, the signatures of Ministers and public or official stamps.e) Counterfeiting of Spanish currency and its issuance.f) Any other expiation that directly harms the credit or interests of the state and introduction or issuing of the counterfeit.g) Attack on Spanish authorities or public officials.h) Those who are in exercising their duties by Spanish resident public officials.g) Attack on Spanish authorities or public officials.h) Those who are in exercise of their duties by Spanish resident public officials.g) abroad and crimes against the Spanish Public Administration.i) to change Those associated with control. (iii) Principle of universal jurisdiction (art. 23.4 of the LOPJ), which establishes the competence of Spanish jurisdiction to hear the facts committed by Spaniards or foreigners outside the national area, which are likely to be typed, according to Spanish criminal law, such as any of the following offences:a) Genocide.b) Terrorism.c) Piracy and illegal aircraft foreign currency.e) Crimes regarding prostitution.f) Illegal trade of psychotropic drugs, toxic and And any other who, according to international stories or conventions, must be pursued in Spain.As set out in section 23.5 of the LOPJ, it is also necessary to comply with the requirement laid down in 23.2.c) in order to be the principles set out in paragraphs 3 and 4 of the article to be operational. In English: Extraterritoriality. Extraordinary, in law, means systems of extramaterial noun those in which the jurisdiction and laws of a sovereign State do not apply to certain persons in its territory. The principle of outdoor criteria, Better known as immunity, applies to diplomatic delegations, diplomatic and consular drugs, and some of its assets, as well as foreign warships in a state other than that of its flag, as it is understood that a ship is located in the port in which it is located, or on the high seas, is part of the territory of the flagnation Therefore, agents of the state corresponding to the port in which the foreign vessel is located, may not perform coercive acts on board. The principle of extramaturity also applies to the jurisdiction of a state on that of its citizens delinquent in its area, but is on foreign land. [1] Definition and description of Extraterritoriality presented by the Mexican Legal Dictionary (1994), of the Supreme Court of Justice of Mexico: (written by Jesús Rodríguez y Rodríguez) (From extra Latin: outside, and terrorism: part of the territory besides a nation, region, etc.) Term used to mean that the people, goods, objects or actions to which the same applies are, escape, to the extent that it is international law, the application of laws and the territorial competence of the State in which they are materially located or actually executed. Traditionally, the doctrine of international law used the concept of extramaturity to explain and substoyp the intangibility of certain persons and certain goods and objects, representatives or besides a foreign state, within the territory of the state of its physical location. At the end, that concept was supported in fictions, such as that which means that diplomatic agents, although physically present in the area of the State for which they were accredited, continued to live in the territory of the country they represent, or, the one considered a part of the foreign territory is the seat of an embassy or warship believing of a state other than its actual place. The unreality of such fictions and the absurd consequences of their clearly inadmissible made the theoretical positions they suppress. Representatives of states However, in the present state of development of international law, this expression leads to the untouchability of both the person of the diplomatic agent, including his private residence, documents, correspondence, etc., and the seat of the diplomatic mission, including its documents and archives. Incompatibility of diplomatic agents, since they, as representatives of other sovereign States, enjoy certain privileges and immunities, including non-submission to local legislation, granted through reciprocity, in order to facilitate and guarantee the effective and full performance of their duties. It should be noted here that for the representatives of the member countries of various international organisations, as well as for senior officials, premises, archives, documents, correspondence, etcétera... de legal status similar to what is described above. Regarding ships or aircraft of a state in the territorial waters or atmosphere of another state, the events on board them are controlled by laws and are submitted to the authorities of the country of their nationality, that is, of the state whose flag the vessel is flying or in which the aircraft is registered. (...) Protective jurisdiction and learning of effects The second part of the verdict on the Lotus case does not require a connection between the state and the exercise of prescription jurisdiction outside the state, on the only state that there is a supremacist of international law prohibiting it. In practice, States practicing excessive jurisdiction often have some connection to the person or the events on which they claim jurisdiction. As seen above, both nationality and territorial jurisdiction allow the State, on certain occasions, to exercise excessive jurisdiction over acts that take place outside the territory of the State and on the activities of non-citizens. In recent years many states, especially the United States, have used the 'learning of effects' to demand jurisdiction on matters that have an effect, even if it's far in their territory. The use of extraordinary jurisdiction has the potential to cause international stress. The unlawful created is adequately illustrated by the excessive impact of American anti-competitive legislation that foreign cartels, formed in many cases with the explicit approval of the national governments of the corporations in question. These cartels do not have a direct connection to the US, but were considered their existence and operation influences world prices and thus influences the US. It was seen by many in Europe as an aggressive promotion of American economic interests. The EU and European states responded by making legislation 'blocking'. Globalization poses challenges for the effectiveness of territorial jurisdiction, and states recognize that sometimes effective regulation of activities within their areas require some control over private activities beyond their borders. When used cooperatively, excessive jurisdiction has the potential to fill certain regulatory and accountability gaps. For example, there is a growing acceptance of the need for greater regulation of transnational businesses. Extraordinary activity was used for bribery control; The U.S. Foreign Corrupt Practices Act of 1977 and the UK Bribery Act of 2010 have both an extraordinary extent. Its use was enacted by John Ruggie, special representative of the Secretary-General of the United Nations in the United Nations Protected, Respect and Means Framework (UN, 2011) as a way of increasing the responsibility of MSNs for their activities in the developing world. States are also increasingly willing to use excessive jurisdiction regarding criminal activities of international scope, such as terrorism, money laundering, corruption, serious human rights violations and human trafficking (see their characteristics, their victims and the illegal - trade of persons; Protocol, which advertises the Convention for the Suppression of Trade in Women and Children, concluded in Geneva on 30 September 1921, and the Convention for the Suppression of Trade in Older Women concluded in Geneva on 11 October 1933. Lake Success, New York, November 12, 1947; 1947 Convention for the Suppression of Trade in Women and Children concluded in Geneva on 30 September 1921 and amended by the protocol signed in Lake Success, New York, Lake Success, New York, November 12, 1947; 1947 Convention for Suppressing Trade in Older Women. Geneva, 11 October 1933; the international agreement to ensure effective protection against criminal trade called Trafficking in Blanks, signed in Paris on 18 May 1904, and the International Convention for the Suppression of Trade in Whites, signed in Paris on 4 May 1910. More Success, New York, May 4, 1949; International Agreement to ensure effective protection against criminal trafficking called Trafficking in Whites, signed in Paris on May 4, 1910 and amended by the protocol signed in Lake Success, New York, May 4, 1949; International Agreement to ensure effective protection against criminal trafficking called Trafficking in Whites, signed in Paris on May 4, 1910 and amended by the protocol signed in Lake Success, New York, May 4, 1949; International agreement to ensure effective protection against criminal trade called the trade of whites, Paris, May 4, 1910; Convention for the Suppression of Trade in Persons and the Exploitation of the Prostitution of Others. Lake Success, New York, March 21, 1950; Final protocol to the Convention on the Suppression of Trade in Persons and the Exploitation of The Prostitution of Others. Lake Success, New York, March 21, 1950). Finally, the principles of jurisdiction of the customary international law are complex and sometimes controversial in their application, as they develop and adapt to a world in which individuals and businesses are increasingly acting and producing effects across state borders. Reviewer: Lawrence Sees information about the definition of war. Causes of War see information on the causes of war, legal justification, legal justification of war, and righteous war (beautiful iustum). Declaration of war sees information on the declaration of war. Belligerence Sees information about Belligerence. Theatre of the War Sees information on The Theatre of war. War Ultimatum Sees information on the Ultimatum of war. Declaration of war sees information on the declaration of war. War Zone Sees information on war zone. See information about goods involved in the war. People involved in the war see information about people involved in the war. The execution of war sees information on the execution of war, war crimes and retribution. Different modes of hostility See information on different modes of hostility. Export of war tenders sees information on the bid driving of the war. Close See information about war blockage. Bombing Sees bombing information. Direction of War Sees information on War Management. Website status See Site Status information. Occupation of areas: War Requisitions See information on the Occupation of Areas, War Requisitions, Proprietation, Requisition of Goods and Forced Labour. Occupation of areas and their administration See information on The Management of Occupied Areas. Occupation of areas and their exploitation See information on exploitation of the resources of occupied areas. Members of parliament (white flag bearers, truce flag) See information on members of parliament (white flag bearers, truce flag). Negotiators See information about negotiators. Special envoys See information on special envoys. Betrayal Sees information on Betrayal. Spy sees information about the spy. War subterfuges See information on Subterfuge or War. Effects of War on International Tolers See information on the Effects of War on International Traits. Civil War Military Hospitals See information on prisoners of war in general. Internship of Prisoners of War Sees information on internship of prisoners of war, Internment of military personnel in enemy countries, Internment of military personnel in neutral countries, Internment of civilians, and Internment of persons whose beliefs or actions are devise to the occupancy force. Political prisoners See information about political prisoners. War hostages See information about War Hostages. Geneva Convention International Red Cross Other Consequences of War Peace Tolerance sees information on peace keepings. End of the war See information about the end of the war. Post-war period See information on the post-war period. Returning to the state of peace sees information about returning to the state of peace. Post-ministry legislation sees information on the post-ministry law. Debt of War Sees information on Debt of War. Recovery of the previous legal status of persons from the liberated areas See information on the restoration of the previous legal status of persons from the liberated areas. Occupation expenses See information on Occupancies expenses. Exact of occupancy expenses See information on Exactness of occupancy expenses. War recycling sees information on war recovery. War experts See information on war-supported. Enemy Property Control Sees information on Enemy Property Control Enemy. Settlement of enemy monetary assets See information on liquidation of enemy monetary assets. War compensation Sees information on war compensation. Corners of the War see information on the courts of war. Courts of Arbitration of War See information on courts of Arbitration of War. Recovery of the previous legal status of the goods from the liberated areas See information on the restoration of the previous legal status of the goods from the liberated areas. Special jurisdictions of war, for kidnapping and winding See information on Special Jurisdictions of War, for kidnapping and winding. See Earth warfare laws for information. Maritime Warfare Laws See information on maritime warfare, Piracy, War under the sea, naval bombing, Prey, Loot, Submarine Warfare and Navy blockade. Air warfare laws see information on Air warfare laws. Colonial War Laws See information on colonial war laws. Similarities during the Ceasfire Capitulation See information on Truce Capitulation See information on Tregua Armistice See information on Armistice Surrender See information on surrender of neutral states during war See more detailed information on Neutral State Obligations, Law of Neutral Rights, Permanent Voluntary, Neutral Air or Space, Trade of Neutral States. We supply wars made by neutral states, citizens of neutral states in the field of belligerent states, violation of neutrality and ownership of neutral states. Codification of the law of war international legal relations at the time of war Meaning and investigation of extramaturity regarding armed conflicts: The term here refers to the status of units of the armed forces in transit or in parking in an area not subject to the sovereignty of their own state. In both cases, and according to a principle dating back to the ancient, but who remain in force in our day, the 'flag rule', according to which the members of those units remain subject to the laws of their own country, where they go, apply to these units. In other words, they remain subject to the disciplinary and criminal jurisdiction of the State to which they belong. This principle finds its application indisputable and, so to speak, automatically, in case units stationed in an enemy area they occupy, say the same as the state of the area in question is a friendly ally of the flag; however, in the last case, learning and practice coincide, from the 19th century thereafter, to claim that the transport or peaceful parking of military units of a state in the field of a friendly or aliaic state must be controlled by bilateral agreements. This principle is of very special importance today. For many States, interdependence is the norm, not only in the time of war, but also in peace time, when they cooperate with the view to preventing aggression or preparation for common defenses in case of aggression. For this, numerous bilateral or multilateral agreements were concluded, both during the First and Second World Wars, as well as in the context of the Western European Union (WEO) forces, North Atlantic Treaty Organization (nato) forces, Warsaw Treaty forces and the United Nations forces. All of these vessels reaffirm the inquiry of the principle and provide for solutions that give to the exercise of sovereignty by the state of the area and the judicial and administrative authority of the flag state over its own citizens stationed in that area, formally it is the host state that, through such agreements, freely agrees to the 'flag law' in disciplinary and criminal cases on foreign powers it hosts , apply. In addition, the problem of local authorities' access to the military installations of the flag state, as well as the activity of the flag state's military police within and outside those facilities, is resolved by such agreements. The questioned status applies to ground, sea and air forces (area, territorial waters, airspace of the state of permanence). For warships, the immunity of jurisdiction in the territorial waters of others also continues in the absence of appropriate agreements. [2] Curious about the rest of the entrance? Then you can keep reading. We prefer to avoid pay wall because we believe it is important that legal content reaches as many people as possible. At the same time, we can only provide information when our readers support us. Do you think our job is important? Make a small donation! The Espasa Legal Dictionary (2001) treats this legal term as follows: A principle by which certain persons or things in the field of a state are completely or partially exempt from the jurisdiction and coercive power of that State. At present this principle, under the most appropriate name of immunity, applies to diplomatic delegations, diplomatic agents, foreign warships and their gifts in a state port other than the one whose flag they fly. Although diplomatic agents are subject to the general rules of the State to which they are accredited, jurisdiction or administrative rights, of which the general regulation contained in articles 22 to 41 of the 1961 Vienna Convention may not be carried out against them in principle. Similarly, the foreign warship escapes certain aspects of the competence of the state in whose port it is located, because if it is obliged to respect the sovereignty of that state and the general rules of its legal order, the agents of the local state cannot carry out any form of coercive act on board. To explain these situations of immunity, there is talk of extramaturity, fiction that does not comply with positive legislation, defending these immunities today in the understanding that the delegation and the warship are public services and must function as such with full independence (V. diplomatic immunities). [F.M.P.] It is a recognized principle of modern international law that every independent and sovereign state absolute and exclusive jurisdiction has all persons and things within its own territorial boundaries. This jurisdiction is not qualified by differences in nationality, and extends to the persons and property of subjects and foreigners equal [1]. Nowhere is this principle of territorial jurisdiction more expressed than in the case of The Schooner Exchange v. M'Faddon &amp; Others, where the President of the Marshall Court gave his opinion, in 7 Cranch 116, 136, in this passage often cited: The jurisdiction of the nation within its own territory is necessarily exclusive and absolutely. It is susceptible to any limitation that does not capture itself. Any limitation on it, arising from an external source, would imply a decrease in its own sovereignty to the extent of the restriction, and an investment of that sovereignty to the same extent to that power that could impose such restrictions. All exceptions must therefore, to the total and complete power of a nation within its own areas, be traced back to the consent of the nation itself. They can't flow out of any other legal source. This passage takes into account the limitations of the principle; and in practice there are a number of well-known exceptions to the general rule. One of the main exceptions is the outdoor ritoriality system. The word extraordinarily used in exchangeably with the word extratorially to indicate the special status of foreign ambassadors, which exemption from local jurisdiction. Through a confusion of ideas, the persons attached to are attached to are legally withdrawn from the area in which they actually live and consequently some authors have maintained it. Foreign ambassadors may exercise civil and criminal jurisdictional action on their suite. This theory is now considered inconsistent with facts and is governed by the most competent writers in international law. After discussing the scope and nature of immunities enjoyed by foreign ambassadors, etc., Hall stated that it is clear that the fiction of externality is not required to clarify them, and even that this is inconvenient. For this reason, he avoided expression throughout his discussion of the subject. Currently, the term is generally used to describe the status of existing legislation in certain Oriental countries, including foreigners exempt from local jurisdiction and is subject to their national authorities, under well-established use or a treaty agreement. In this set of entries, efforts are made to investigate the rise and deterioration of the extramaturity system in all countries where it existed or still existed. Author: Williams was nothing more than a legacy of the indefinite state or, at best, vaguely defined from abroad in the ancient world, and a survival of the medieval theory of the personality of laws, which once prevailed anywhere in Europe. The fact that many of this last principle existed in modern Europe is descendant evidence of its permanent influence. Authors of international law in the 17th and 18th centuries also continued to testify of the judicial competence of the foreign consul. The Mohammedic religion coincided perfectly with the legal concepts of ancient and medieval Europe. The Qur'an ordered the unfaithful to be out of reach of Mussulman's jurisdiction and was forced to live under his own national laws. Long before the Europeans brought their spirit of campaigning to the Levant, Muhammad and his offspring had a habit of giving foreigners the right to submit to their own jurisdiction. When the Crusades began, the conditions were favourable for the transplant of the European system of consular judges to other people's countries. Unless business opportunities have been opened and very important interests have awaited protection against negative setbacks. Furthermore, in order to oversuring maritime states to maintain their indispensable assistance, Christian acquisitions were forced to grant privileges These factors were combined to settle in the area that by the Crusaders conquered the system of consular jurisdiction. At the same time, the Muhammad world was about to constantly expand. Forbidden by their innate mindset of the safe adventure, Muslims were forced to invite external aid. Foreigners who stumbled upon their shores prolonged the privilege of judicial extra-curricular rhythorality, partly as an incentive for their company, partly distraction to koran orders and in part in accordance with established use. In 1453 the Turks conquered Constantinople. Amid transcendent glory, the sultans voluntarily threatened what is now considered the abnormal regime of capitals. The reasons for this action were multiple. Influenced by the religious differences that Divide Islam and Christianity, through the prospects of commercial development and, above all, by the power of use, the sultans left not only foreign traders, but also non-Muslim subjects of the Porte, to follow their own conviction and government. Subsidies to foreigners are made in a series of public acts known as Capitulations. In essence, these capitals were free concessions by the victorious sultans, who made them without the slightest intention of repealing their sovereignty. In other countries of the Levant and the African continent, privileges of the same nature have expanded to foreigners. In the Far East, the origin of extramaturity differentially differed completely from the rise of indigenous legal systems. With the merits of the accusation, we are not concerned here, but the fact is that in their relationship with the East Asian Forces, Western nations have not been seized to express their dissatisfaction with local jurisdiction. With the introduction of the territorial basis of sovereignty, to which the feudal system contributed significantly, the personality theory of laws inevitably gave place to that of absolute territorial jurisdiction. In Europe, the system of judges consultation gradually begins to decline, and the holder of the consular office immediately became a mere commercial representative, although even there, as described in Chapter 1, there are numerous of the old regime. well in relatively recent times. Outside of Europe, the consular jurisdiction system also suffered a process of decline, however, which began late. In general, it can be said that this process dates back to the mid-19th century. It was in the nineteenth century, as known, that the growth of nationalism has reached its climate in Europe. The consciousness of the national sovereignty has become the cornerstone of the existence of the state, divorce name is doomed to decline. (This statement is perhaps the unproven and rather erwed premise of the existence of States and governments and legal communities) For some reason, it has not completely disappeared from the structure of international exchange. It is believed that from an understanding of the outstanding facts associated with the rise and degradation of consular jurisdiction, those countries, whose judiciary is still impaired (Their power to provide true justice is most affected by the monopoly of jurisdiction they wish, established and maintained for themselves, regardless of the wishes of individual clients , can have a new momentum in their effort to get rid of the yoke, externality, and those countries that are still beneficiaries of this system, can realize that it is a decadal institution and that reasonable demands for its progressive absence must sometimes be approved and granted. The interests of justice and impartiality will best be served by the conscientious effort on the one hand to improve the legal system and on the other hand to withhold from introducing what is primarily a legal issue that does not take into account considerations of a political nature. Author: Williams, 1925 Sea: Environmental Business Global International businesses are defined as commercial transactions taking place national boundaries. This broad definition includes the very small company that exports (or imports) a small amount to a single country, as well as the very large global company with integrated operations and strategic alliances around the world. Within this wide range, distinctions are often made between different types of international companies, and these distinctions are useful for understanding a company's strategy, organization, and functional decisions (e.g., its financial, administrative, marketing, human resources, or operations decisions). One distinction that can be useful is that between multi-dominal operations, with independent subsidiaries acting essentially as domestic companies, and global operations, with integrated subsidiaries closely related and interceded. You may think that it is the two points of a continuum, with many intermediate possibilities. However, companies are unlikely to be on one side of the continuum, as they often combine aspects of multidominal operations with aspects of global operations. Although global economic activity has existed for centuries, globalization in its current form began in 1970s. Essentially globalization refers to the growth of trade and investment, accompanied by the growth of international business and the integration of economies around the world. According to Punnett, the concept of globalization is based on a number of relatively simple premises: - Technological advances have increased the ease and speed of international communication and travel. - Increased communication and travel has made the world smaller. - A smaller world means that people are more aware of events outside their homeland and are more likely to travel to other countries. - Increased awareness and travel leads to a better understanding of opportunities

abroad. - A better understanding of opportunities leads to increased international trade and investment, as well as the number of companies that are across national borders. These increases mean that economies and financial markets around the world are closer integrated. Managers should be aware that markets, supplies, investors, places, partners and competitors anywhere in the world can be. Successful companies will benefit from opportunities wherever they are and will be prepared for the fall. Successful managers, in this environment, must understand the similarities and differences between boundaries to seize and handle opportunities for potential declines. Globalizing business is easy to recognize in the distribution of many brands and services around the world. For example, Japanese electronics and cars are common in Asia, Europe and North America, while American cars, entertainment activities, and financial services are also common in Asia, Europe and North America. In addition, companies have become transnational or multinational, i.e. they are headquartered in one country, but export operations in others. For example, many car manufacturers found in Japan are now factories in the United States and elsewhere, while US-based Coca-Cola company has factories in other countries. In developing appropriate global strategies, administrators should consider the advantages and disadvantages of globalization. A global strategy must take into account developments around the world, as well as those in the country. The international strategy is the ongoing and comprehensive management technique designed to help companies function efficiently across national borders and compete. While senior company managers often develop global strategies, they rely on all levels of management to successfully implement these strategies. The methods that companies use to achieve the goals of these strategies take a number of forms. For example, some companies form partnerships with companies in other countries, others acquired companies from other countries, others continue to develop products, services and marketing campaigns designed to attract customers from other countries. Some rudimentary aspects of international strategies reflect national strategies in that companies need to determine which products or services to sell, where and how they will sell them, where and how they will produce or provide them, and how they will compete with other companies in the sector in accordance with the company's goals. The development of international strategies involves paying attention to other details that rarely, if ever, come into playing in the local market. These other areas of concern stem from cultural, geographical and political differences. Therefore, while a company should only develop a strategy considering well-known government regulations, one language (generally) and one currency in the domestic market, it should consider and plan different levels and types of government regulation, multiple currencies and various languages on the world market. Although multinational companies have a large Business scenario for some time, the most recent wave of globalization of American companies began in the 1980s, when companies began to realize that the focus solely on the local market would lead to stagnation in sales and profits and that emerging markets offered many opportunities for growth. Part of the motivation for this globalization was due to the loss of market share in the 1970s in favour of multinational companies in other countries, especially those in Japan. Initially, these American companies tried to mimic their Japanese counterparts by implementing Japanese-style management structures and quality circles. After adjusting these practices to adapt to the needs of American companies and recycling market share, these companies started moving to simulate production, enable resource acquisition (often with a cost benefit), and gain a competitive advantage by achieving greater economies of scale. The globalization of American companies was not without worries and detractors. Exports of jobs in the United States, the exploitation of child labour, and contriving to poverty are positions placed on the front of American companies. These accusations were quashed by consumer demonstrations and boycotts. American companies aren't the only ones affected. Companies in the rest of the developed world have globalized along with American companies, and have also sometimes faced negative consequences. Interestingly, at the end of the 20th and early 21st centuries there was also growth in international enterprises in developing and transitional countries, and this trend is expected to continue and increase. The exports and investments of the People's Republic of China are a significant example, but companies in South East Asia, India, South Africa and Latin America, to name a few countries and regions are released around the world. TYPES OF WORLD BUSINESS ACTIVITIES Companies may choose to globalize or work in different countries in four different ways: through trade, investment, strategic alliances, and offensive or franchise. Companies may decide to trade tangible goods such as cars and electronic products (exports and imports of goods). Alternatively, companies may decide to trade intangible products such as financial or legal services (exports and imports of services). Companies can enter the global market through different types of investments Companies may choose to make foreign direct investments, so that they control companies and assets in other countries. In addition, companies may choose to make portfolio investments, acquiring shares from companies in other countries to get control of those companies. Another way companies enter the global market is by shaping strategic alliances with companies in other countries. While strategic alliances take many forms, some allow each company to access the other's domestic market and in the same way market its products as if they were affiliated with the well-known hosting company. This international business method also allows a company to overcome some of the problems associated with internationalisation, such as different political, regulatory and social conditions. The home company can help the multinational company address and overcome these problems because it is used to them. Finally, companies can participate in the international market licensing or franchises. License entails granting another company the right to use its brand names, trademarks, copyright or patents in exchange for payment of *franchise*. The franchise, on the other hand, is when a company agrees to allow a company of another country to use its name and operating methods in exchange for royalty payments. GENERAL PANORAMA OF THE DEVELOPMENT OF INTERNATIONAL STRATEGIES A company usually develops its international strategy, which includes its operations at home and abroad. We may consider four aspects of the strategy: (1) scope of operations, (2) allocation of resources, (3) competitive advantage, and (4) synergy. The first component covers the geographical locations - countries and regions - of possible operations, as well as possible markets or niches in various regions. Because companies have limited resources and different regions, different benefits, managers should choose markets that the company offers the optimal opportunities. The second component of the global strategy focuses on the use of the company's resources so that the company can successfully compete in the selected markets. This component of strategy planning also determines the relative importance of the different functions of the company and bases the allocation of resources on the relative importance of each function. For example, a company may decide to allow its resources based on product lines or geographical location. Management must then decide where the company has a competitive advantage over other industry. Management can identify their competitive advantage by determining what the company does better (or can do better) than its competitors. Companies can gain this advantage by a number of techniques such as using better technology, applying more efficient organizational practices and distribution systems, and cultivation of well-known brands. This component of the strategy involves not only identifying existing or potential areas of competitive advantage, but also developing a plan to sustain areas of competitive advantage. Finally, the overall strategy should involve establishing a plan for the company that allows its different functions and operations to benefit each other. For example, a company can use a product line to encourage sales from another product line, allowing different parts of a business to benefit each other. Some have argued that internal operations can also be in scope worldwide. For example, a 2002 Academy of Management Executive article highlights the importance of global procurement. The authors point out that the coordination and integration of a company's purchases and sources of supply on a global scale can lead to competitive benefits by making an organisation more efficient. Thomas Friedman also wrote about the importance of global supply chains. Friedman uses Wal-Mart as an example of a company with a sophisticated global supply chain. The company has achieved a remarkable degree of efficiency in its supply chain by has a computer system that allows quick communication with its suppliers. General Motors is another company that has used IT systems to improve its global supply chain. In general, recent technological innovations have helped in all aspects of exporting business operations in a global environment. For example, Colgate Palmolive has used web-based training material throughout his organization instead of person training. Many companies are now outsourced many of their operations internationally. For example, if you call for credit card information, you may well talk to someone in India or Mexico. Manufacturers also often outsourced production to countries with low labor costs. Concerns about ethical issues, such as slave labour and child labour, have led companies to outsource under controlled circumstances: production abroad can be the subject of surprise visits and searches and outsourced factories. Unfortunately, outsource and outsource can make a very difficult task. However, there are other steps that a company can take to be more competitive worldwide. For example, it has been noted that while many companies in the United States are implementing a global strategy, it is not reflected in the composition of directors. The article argues that companies should add foreign citizens to their board to help promote global strategies. While it can offer some practical problems (such as trips to board meetings and cultural collisions), the internationalisation of a board can help cement a company's commitment to a global strategy. STAGES OF THE DEVELOPMENT OF INTERNATIONAL STRATEGIES The development of the strategy itself usually takes place in two phases: the formulation of the strategy and its implementation. When planning a strategy, companies identify their international goals and develop a strategy that allows them to achieve their goals. During the planning phase, drivers suggest plans, review and validate plans to compete in new markets. Once a strategy is agreed, managers must take steps to implement it. Therefore, this stage involves determining when to start global operations, as well as to actually start operations and implement the other components of the global strategy. More specifically, the first phase - the formulation of the strategy - consists of the analysis of the company and its environment, establishing strategic objectives and developing plans to achieve the goals, as well as a control framework. By evaluating itself and the global business environment, a company can determine which markets, products, services, etc. This process involves collecting data across a company and its environment, including information on global markets, regulation, productivity, cost and competitors. Therefore, data collection must provide administrators with economic, financial, political, legal and social information across different countries and their markets for different products or services. Based on this information, administrators can determine which markets and products provide economically viable opportunities for global expansion. During this century, several authors argued that traditional models of strategic analysis were not sufficient to function in a global environment. Specifically, they suggested that elements of change are added to the analyses product lifecycle and DAFO analysis (strengths, weaknesses, opportunities and threats). In the case of the FODA analysis, they note that incorporating various exchange rates as elements that are considered can lead to more than one strategy moving forward. Whether this is done or not, once this analysis is completed, drivers must set strategic goals, which is the significant goal a company aims to achieve through a specific search such as entraining a new regional market. These goals must be practical, measurable and limited to a specific timeframe. Once strategic objectives are established, companies need to develop plans to achieve their goals, and those plans should focus on how strategic plans are implemented. Finally, strategy formulation involves a governing framework, which is a process that uses management to help ensure that a company follows the right course in implementing its strategic plans. The control framework essentially responds to various developments while implementing the strategic plans. For example, if sales are lower than projected sales that are part of strategic goals, then a company can increase its marketing efforts and temporarily lower its prices to stimulate additional sales. INTERNATIONAL MARKET ASSESSMENT While many aspects of the international strategy and its formulation are similar to those of their national counterparts, some important aspects are not and therefore require different methods and types of information. Knowledge of international markets is one of these main differences and an important part of developing an international strategy. In order to enter a new market for a company, catch market share, and thus increase sales and profits, it needs to know what that market looks like. At basic level, a company should examine the different markets, assess the pros and cons of entering each market, and choose only markets that show the greatest potential for access and growth. When examining the various international markets, a company must consider the market potential, competition, regulation and cultural factors of each of them. Business managers can assess market potential by collecting data on gross domestic product (GDP), GDP per capita, population, transport and other figures from various countries. This type of information will enable administrators to determine the purchasing power of consumers in each country and determine if that buying power enables them to purchase a company's products or services. Administrators should also take into account the monetary stability of different markets, which can be done using documents from countries of origin to determine the value and fluctuation of the currency over a period of years. To choose the best entry markets, administrators should also consider the extent of competition within the different markets and should also expect future competition in them. Determining the degree of competition involves identifying all competing companies in potential markets, as well as their sizes, market shares and prices. Managers should then evaluate a prospective market taking into account the number of competitors and their properties as well as market conditions, i.e. whether the market is saturated with competition and cannot support any new entrants. Managers must then assess the regulatory environment of prospective markets, as tax, trade and other related policies are essential for the success of an international business. This step entails determining the respective tariffs and trade hijackers of prospective markets. Different types of trading barriers can affect the type of business a company chooses for a given market. For example, if a market in perspective has trade barriers that restrict the entry of products manufactured abroad, a company may decide to access the market through foreign direct investment and manufacture its products in the country itself. Property restrictions can also limit a company's interest in a particular market; some countries allow foreign companies to establish local operations only if they are associated with a local company. In addition, managers should find out whether potential countries charge foreign companies higher taxes or offer them tax exemptions and incentives to promote economic development. One last consideration that companies should make regarding government is stability. As some countries have undergone government organics due to shocks and insurgents, companies must endure the possibility of political turmoil that could significantly disrupt matters. The last step in assessing international markets is the assessment of cultural factors. To avoid the problems associated with cultural differences, some drivers are looking for new markets that have cultural agreements with their housing market, especially for early international market penetration efforts. Unlike market potential, competition and cultural differences are more difficult to evaluate. However, managers should try to determine the needs and preferences of consumers in potential markets. Managers should also take into account cultural differences in industrial relations, such as worker motivation, compensation, working hours, etc., as they plan foreign direct investment in a foreign company. In addition, a deep understanding of a country's culture in perspective will largely facilitate any kind of global trade business. This cultural knowledge must include a basic understanding of the beliefs and attitudes of a possible country, language and styles of communication, clothing, food preferences and uses, awareness of time and time, relationships, values and work ethics. This type of cultural information is essential to develop an effective and realistic global strategy. Because conducting primary research takes a lot of work and time, managers can get preliminary information about potential book markets and guides on how to do business in different countries, potential job opportunities, policies, label, taxes, etc. After scaling potential markets in this way, administrators are willing to evaluate the pros and cons of each potential market. One way to do this is to determine the cost, benefits and diss of each potential market. Costs for each market include direct costs and opportunity costs. Direct costs are those who pay a company when setting up a business in a new market, such as the costs associated with the purchase of goods and equipment and manufacturing and shipping of goods. Opportunity costs, on the other hand, relate to the costs associated with the loss of other opportunities, as one market discards or delays access to another due to a company's limited resources. Therefore, the benefits that could be obtained in the alternative market are the opportunity costs. Each alternative market often has a number of benefits, such as the possibility of growth, which will lead to higher income and profits. Other benefits include relatively low material and labor costs, new technology that has a strategic advantage over competitors, and equivalent of competitors' actions. However, every prospective market also often has a number of disconnects, such as opportunity costs, increased business complexity, and potential losses arising from unforeseen aspects of prospective markets and Monetary. Other diss may be the result of possible losses associated with unstable political conditions. ANALYSIS OF INTERNATIONAL STRATEGIES After significant globalization, business analysts began exploiting the success of various strategies to do business in other countries. This review led to the distinction between the different orientations of international strategies. The main distinction was between multi-home international strategies (also called multinationals) and global strategies. Multi-domestic international strategies relate to those dealing with competition in every country or region on an individual basis, while the global strategy refers to those dealing with competition in an integrated and holistic way across national and regional borders. Therefore, multi-domestic international strategies aim to meet the needs of customers in different countries or regions, while global strategies aim to standardize products and marketing to function across borders. Rather than relying on one of these strategies, multinational companies can adopt a different strategy for different products or services. For example, a company can use a global strategy for its electronic products and a multidomestic strategy for its devices. Critics of the standardization approach argue that it makes two questionable assumptions: that consumer needs are increasingly homogenous around the world and that consumers prefer high quality and low prices to advanced features and functions. However, standardized global strategies have some important benefits. Companies can reduce their marketing expenses, for example by using the same ads in all their markets. In addition to marketing savings, global strategies can lead to other types of benefits and benefits in areas such as design, packaging, manufacturing, distribution, customer service and software development. Some have noticed that standardization has the traditional benefits associated with very large organizations, such as speed efficiency and scale. Moreover, some argue that companies should adapt their products or services to the needs of the different international markets and should therefore use a multi-domestic strategy, at least in part. KFC, for example, planned a standardized approach to its foray in the Japanese market, but the company soon realized that it was its to meet the needs of Japanese consumers and adapt their operations in Japan. As a result, KFC has introduced smaller pieces of food to satisfy a Japanese preference, and restaurants located in busy areas along with other restaurants, moving away from independent sites. Due to these changes, the fast food restaurant experiences increased demand in Japan. In another example, News Corporation originally relied on a global strategy with its STAR-TV satellite television network, trying to deliver the same TV shows throughout Asia in English. The company has quickly moved to a multi-home strategy, offering programming in local languages after receiving low ratings and advertising dollars with its first approach. However, as Inlpen and Ramaswamy argue, real world strategies are more likely to be a mixture of normalization and localization. In fact, they go as far as to say that real circumstances simply do not allow for a purely standardized global strategy. They also point out that even within the same industry, different companies can develop different combinations and degrees of standardized and localized approaches. For example, they report that some automakers try to adapt their cars to each market (which can have different regulatory environments, national tastes and economies), while others try to offer a product as standardized as possible across national borders. It is also important to note that markets can benefit one approach across the other. Finally, some management scholars have advocated a hybrid strategy of the two, arguing that companies should have a high degree of competition in both standardization and localization. Administration academics Bartlett and Ghoshal identified one of those organizational models they called transnational organization. These organizations are highly decentralised, and allow for effective localization strategies, but they also represent a high degree of knowledge sharing at all times, allowing a company to also benefit from many of the benefits of standardization. However, several business collapses and the revelation of unethical and illegal practices in many international companies resulted in attention paid to corporate governance and ethics in the early 21st century. Issues relating to what contest socially responsible behaviour are probably an important part of the global strategy for years to come. In a 2008 opinion paper, a Hewlett Packard employee also that business ethics was and should be a major concern for global companies. It calls the need to grow in a responsible manner, especially in countries that continue to evolve, as well as maintain an ethical internal culture and have high standards for suppliers. International businesses differ from domestic children because the environment changes when a company crosses international borders. Typically, a company understands its national environment very well, but is less familiar with the environment of other countries and needs to invest more time and resources in understanding the new environment. The following discusses the important aspects of the environment that are changing internationally. The economic environment can be very different from one nation after another. Countries are often divided into three main categories: developed countries, the least developed countries, and developing or emerging economies. Within each category there are major variations, but in general the most developed countries are rich countries, the least developed the poor, and that of recent industrialization that goes from poorer to richer. These distinctions are usually made based on gross domestic product per capita (GDP/capita). Improving education, technology, healthcare, etc., is also often associated with higher levels of economic development. 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The CPR now has a mixed economy that incorporates many aspects of a free market environment, while maintaining government control over industries that are considered essential to the state. It is clear that the level of economic activity combined with education, infrastructure, etc., as well as the extent of government control of the economy, affects virtually all facets of business activity, and a company must understand this environment if it wants to function internationally. The political environment refers to the type of government, the government's relationship with business and political risk in a country. Therefore, business internationally involves dealing with different types of governments, relationships and risk levels. There are many different types of political systems, for example, multiparty democracies, one-party states, constitutional monarchies and dictatorships (military and non-military). In addition, governments change in different ways, for example by periodic elections, down and down elections, deaths, coups and wars. Relations between government and the business sector also differ from country to country. Companies can be considered positive as the engine of growth, they can be seen negatively as workers' operators, or somewhere in between as suppliers of both benefits and inconveniences. Specific relationships between government and businesses can also range from positive to negative, depending on the type of business operations and the relationship between the host country's population and that of the country of origin. To be effective in a place abroad, an international company depends on the goodwill of the foreign government and must have a good understanding of all these aspects of the political environment. A particular concern from international companies is the extent of political risk in a place abroad. Political risk refers to the likelihood that a government activity will have unwanted consequences for the company. These consequences can be dramatic, as in the case of forced divestiture, require a government of the company to give up its assets, or more moderately, as in the case of unwanted regulations or interference with operations. Anyway, the risk occurs due to uncertainty about the likelihood of stable government activity. Risk is usually associated with instability, and a country is considered risky if the government is likely to change unexpectedly, as there is social unrest, as there are riots, revolutions, war, terrorism, etc. Companies naturally prefer countries that are stable and have little political risk, but risk benefits should be weighed, and companies often do business in countries where the risk is relatively high. 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