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Market-Driven Management, Competitive Space and Global Networks

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Abstract

Firms compete today in a situation of intense rivalry, in global markets that are subject to political, social and technological instability. As a result, no company can rely only on its own resources, knowledge and skills as it did in the past.

Global managerial economics demands ramified, widespread and strongly inter-related organisations (networks). These complex structures favour managerial capabilities and outsourcing relations with co-makers and external partners (competitive alliances). The corporate culture therefore evolves into cross-cultural management, designed to overcome the physical limits of competition (market-space management) and the local environment.

In global markets, a network corporate culture makes it possible to create organisations with uniform structures, stimulated and checked by a system of communications networks (Internet; Intranet; Extranet), and it presupposes different levels of performance evaluation, which envisage an estimate of the strategic harmonisation (chairman leadership) and of operating harmonisation (management leadership).

Keywords: Market-Driven Management; Global Managerial Economics; Cross Cultural Management; Global Markets; Global Network; Competitive Alliances; Outsourcing; Co-Makership; Chairman Leadership; Management Leadership

1. Globalisation and Corporate Economics

As markets globalise, numerous frontiers are swept away, intangible aspects replace tangible elements,[1] time becomes a critical factor of existence, and mobility (of people, goods, knowledge and ideas) establishes new types of relationships in the context of global managerial economics.[2]

In global markets, businesses compete according to market-space competition logics,[3] in other words with competition boundaries in which space is not a *fact*, a known and stable element of the decision-making process, but a *competitive factor*,

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whose profile is configured and modified by the actions/reactions of businesses and governments.

Corporate policies based on an 'enlarged' competitive space, in other words without tangible or administrative constraints and conditioning elements (market-space management), basically eliminate the usual direct and proximity control limits that characterise the 'physicality' of activities (no variation in the assets produced, quantities achieved with direct controls, finite number of customers and suppliers, static localisation of manufacturing plans, etc.), in favour of operating contexts distinguished by: a prevalence of intangible assets, competitive adaptability and managerial flexibility.[4]

Globalisation has radically changed the traditional basic principles of industrial output (i.e. a coordinated interaction between workers, technologies and materials, and strong standardisation in terms of the temporal and spatial sequence) which, until a short time ago, was characterised essentially by: efficient output of the highest possible quantity of standardised assets; structures based on a rigid, planned division of roles; the presence of workers on the manufacturing site.

On global markets, on the other hand, organisations shift their strategic levers from the characterisation of assets (differentiated supply) to the qualification of knowledge possessed and managed. Information systems (internal and between companies) thus become a critical factor of corporate development; collaboration between companies is based on the preparation of specific channels and flows of information; and finally, processes organised sequentially are transformed into relationships formed within 'project-oriented networks' that go all the way to the virtual enterprise.

New flexible organisational forms, in other words, that postulate the division of the structures in terms of space, time and the functions performed.[5]

In terms of space, first of all, the manufacture of specific products is not necessarily located permanently in a given place; manufacturing processes are usually shared between different companies and no longer require spatial proximity, because the information flows that generate production allow (even partial) output to be transferred physically anywhere in the world, directly by the individual units, and without temporal constraints.[6]

In terms of time, market-space management affects the temporal efficiency of production and the supply chain of specific goods; networks with different structures, in different locations, replace sequential systems and processes, so that the manufacturing/delivery time configures all the manufacturing and logistic needs of the operating units in the network.

And finally, in terms of the functions performed, market-space management tends to propose a fundamental change in the nature of relationships and collaboration with customers, partners and 'co-makers', overcoming the limits typical of 'interface cooperation', and striving rather to achieve closer and more selective interaction between inter-company teams.

1.1 Global Markets and Corporate Competitive Space

Because of the logic of continuous growth that is typical of market-space competition, corporate development based on 'enlarged' competitive space (market-space management) generates mega-organisations with supranational top management power,[7] which can even create international ethical problems in their relations with Nation-States.[8] Global networks that operate in 'enlarged' competition spaces (enhancing and exploiting the intangible assets of their brand equity, information system and corporate culture) acquire market information that is so vast and sophisticated that they can end up usurping the role of governments to establish the guidelines for local development.

However, because of their market power (which can lead the stronger networks to a position of global oligopoly) and geographical extension (which must continue to spread), global network organisations reveal significant critical factors of development in their pursuit of a stable local supremacy, due to the diffidence and critical sensitivity of opinion makers (consumers, stockholders, employees, suppliers, media, etc.) that are increasingly interconnected, informed and delocalised in relation to the actual production and consumption of assets.

Corporate market globalisation policies cause numerous problems (economic growth concentrated in countries where there is a concentration of R&D, 'targeted' scientific research, little attention to genetic transparency, the environment, food safety and conditions of social exclusion) that involve everyone, partly because mass communications in the 21st century are also globalised (and above all they are no longer one-way and linear, from issuer to recipient).[9]

However, globalisation, global managerial economics and market-space management policies do not appear to be the paradigms to debate for social growth and greater well-being.[10]

On the other hand, long-term corporate goals and corporate global development policies of corporations are worth analysing in depth.[11]

1.2 Clusters, Districts and Competition Culture

Globalisation has highlighted the profound differences between clusters and districts, particularly in terms of Research and Development (R&D) and of competitive reactivity (market-driven management).

'Districts' are agglomerations of companies, usually of a small or medium size, located in circumscribed territorial contexts, that specialise in one or more stages of a manufacturing process. Territory-systems are only moderately exposed to competition, protected by natural borders (physical or administrative) or by factors that limit corporate growth (for example, obsolete transport networks or elementary information systems). In industrial districts – which were established in Italy back in the 1970s due to the crisis in large industry – marketing, finance, and communications are very limited, the corporate culture tends to be traditional and R&D tends to look inward.

On the other hand, 'clusters' are geographical concentrations of capital-intensive companies, associations and institutions that contribute and share specific knowledge, accumulating significant localised competitive differentials.

> □ *Significant examples of clusters are: Silicon Valley (California, computer technology); Napa Valley (California, wine production); Bangalore (India, software outsourcing); Dhahran Techno-Valley*

(Saudi Arabia, energy); Silicon Wadi (Israel, wireless telecommunications); Grenoble (France, Micro-Nano Technologies); Toulouse (France, aerospace); Silicon Fen (Cambridge, UK, biotechnologies and computer technology); Hollywood (US, film production); Detroit (US, auto).

Clusters are therefore aggregations of high tech-oriented organisations that make it possible to develop real chain relations, in which the exchange and synergies of knowledge combine with experience to enhance a corporate culture that strives for competition and is designed to foster cooperative R&D.

Briefly, the long-term development of global companies cannot disregard the achievement of a *'new well-being'*, to be achieved by:

- the expansion of competition boundaries (market-space competition) and the adoption of corporate policies based on a 'harmonious globalisation' of production and consumption (market-space management),[12] thus abandoning performance based on 'local competitive imbalance' (which maximise profit if they are exploited in the very short term and if local development costs do not have to be met at the same time);[13]
- the creation of 'new industries' (protection of biological developments; enhancement of mass and selective nutritional heritage; climate preservation; energy and refuse recycling policies), consistent with the new 'transverse' requirements established by markets where production and consumption are global;
- the concentration of corporate economics on non-elementary key factors (technology, communications, intangible assets), whose value is not established on the basis of their degree of exploitation, but in relation to the intensity of sharing of a specific asset even with structures outside the organisation.

1.3 Market-Space Management and Competitive Interdependence

The sharing of intangible assets pursued by corporate market-space management policies is usually put in place between different structures that belong to the same network, but may also regard other organisations as an effect of alliances and joint ventures. In any case, corporate economics can extend the areas of activity in the intangible dimension, creating complex systematic inter-company relations (which are linked together by their corporate culture, information system and brand equity), which determine competitive positions – for purchasing, distribution and sales – with very weak and instable boundaries, because they are referred to a (potentially very changeable) matrix of goods and companies.[14]

□ *'A typical example of management of the intangible assets and competitive interdependence at corporate system level, may be identified in the modern 'parable of bread', a very traditional product that is apparently far removed from market-space competition logics. Today, in all parts of the world, 'fresh bread' is a complex asset that cannot always be easily classified. For consumers the world over,*

> *'fresh bread' is the fragrant bread, still warm, that they buy at a neighbourhood shop. But in many countries, its competitive context tends to be circumscribed to meet the needs of local companies – both industrial and artisan – that produce and distribute it. In actual fact, this 'fresh bread' is often a frozen, pre-baked, or even baked industrial bread (with raw materials and production cycles that have no time or space limits), subject to free goods circulation, transported from the production site to the point of sale where it is sold to the consumer after brief final baking, providing bread that is 'just out of the oven' 24 hours a day. Therefore with an enormous stretch of the competition boundaries in terms of production, sale and consumption.'*[15]

Today a business tends to set up a complex flourishing competition-oriented system,[16] with an operating horizon that overcomes traditional space and time dimensions (in other words, referred to a finite environment, which therefore allows the competitive performance and position – and consequently any dominant position – of an elementary company-asset-market combination to be measured at a given moment 't'.)

In fact, conditions of market-space competition outline sophisticated competition boundaries with an international matrix, in which space and time all contribute to the creation and alteration of the 'competitive benchmark', also making it difficulty to assess any market domination with the usual performance and position indicators.

It is therefore difficult to classify the competition space generated by market-space management conduct in sectors of activity, and it would be better to relate it to systems of intangible assets (brand equity, information system, corporate culture) which temporarily help to qualify the competitive profile of given companies.

1.4 Global Economies of Scale in Network Corporations

In open markets, not protected by geographical and administrative boundaries, companies adopt very flexible management conduct, dominated absolutely by intangible assets and designed to exploit global economies of scale. In smaller global economies, the search for the lowest manufacturing cost presupposes: 1. complex outsourcing functions; 2. dynamic localisation of facilities; 3. and finally large-scale marketing, to meet local demand with little purchasing motivation, that is volatile in its preferences and not loyal when repurchasing (i.e. the typical conditions of over-supply, aggravated today by growing inflationary trends and recession).

The competition of global companies on open markets has radically modified the traditional characteristics of industrial output: 'long' structures, with a rigid division of roles; workers present on the manufacturing site; massive output of standard goods; stocks of raw materials, semi-finished and finished goods, accumulated close to the manufacturing sites and consumption markets.

Market-space competition, on the other hand, highlights global economies of scale, whose value does not depend on the degree of exploitation of elementary manufacturing factors, but on the 'intensity of sharing' of specific assets in a network system, in other words, sophisticated collaborative relationships between internal, external and co-makership structures. This is why Italian companies and Italian luxury goods are coming up against growing difficulties in global economies with saturated consumption. In fact, manufacturing districts are often only facilities that manufacture to contract, and even the 'golden niches' (small outputs with high selling prices justified by the creative element) of the great designers and craftsmen (textiles, home furnishings, gold-working, etc.) and the opportunities offered by an export market sustained by the exchange rates between currencies are disappearing. The new competition is designed for companies in network with excellent managerial skills that can dominate communications, research and development of new products, marketing, controls and finance.

1.5 Global Networks and Cross Cultural Management

Companies compete today in a situation of intense rivalry, in global markets that are subject to political, social and technological instability. As a result, no company can rely only on its own resources, knowledge and skills as it did in the past.

Corporate development is no longer founded on manufacturing carried out in the large capitalist factories of the 1950s and 1960s, which treated efficient and inefficient workers equally, according to the average yield of their professional category.

A simple mechanism that was consistent with a manufacturing model based on 30-40 years of employment by the same company, whether it was done well or not. But since the 1980s, the global economy has radically changed companies, production and products, and (in a context of dynamic, growing commercial and manufacturing localisation) workers have to deal with various forms of collaboration, with no guarantee of stability (short-term contracts, training contracts, part-time contracts, continuous independent collaboration contracts, etc.).

Global managerial economics demands ramified, widespread and strongly inter-related organisations (networks). These complex structures favour managerial capabilities and outsourcing relations with co-makers and external partners (competitive alliances). The corporate culture therefore evolves into cross-cultural management, designed to overcome the physical limits of competition (market-space management) and the local environment.

In global markets, a network corporate culture makes it possible to create organisations with uniform structures, stimulated and checked by a system of communications networks (Internet; Intranet; Extranet), and it presupposes different levels of performance evaluation, which envisage an estimate of the strategic harmonisation (consistency of the organisations' results and processes, complimentary relationships, leadership by the chairman) and of operating harmonisation (interdependence between structures, shared responsibility, leadership by management).

Open markets therefore reveal the central nature of the competitive approach to the market (market-driven management) and of cross cultural management, i.e. a strongly profit-focused local and global corporate management, which does not rely on the organisation (suitable on closed markets with little competition), but on the contrary, grows in value with the opportunities offered by open markets, i.e. the variable demand and instability generated by competition.

2. Market-Driven Management and Global Markets

Large corporations, which have been operating in contexts dominated by globalised markets for some time, encourage the achievement of vital cost economies (of purchasing, manufacturing, distribution, communication and sales).

However, the enormous economic and financial advantages that can be achieved by ever-larger economies (supply-driven management) cannot disregard conduct whose main goal is to meet demand, which is focused primarily on competition (market-driven management).

In a state of global competition, a market-driven orientation therefore defines a long-term corporate development policy, with competitive cost advantages that can be assessed in relation to the degree of satisfaction of demand and above all in relation to better benchmarking with the competition.

In today's global markets, a market-driven approach also highlights the domination of *intangible supply factors* (i.e. the so-called 'intangible product assets', which comprise pre-sales services, design, after-sales service, logistics, packaging, etc.), which can be effectively enhanced only by careful management of the company's 'intangible assets' (i.e., corporate culture, information system and brand equity).

The *economics of supply and corporate intangibles,* in particular, acquires specific importance in global, over-supplied markets (where output exceeds the absorption capacity of demand, and products, which are increasingly sophisticated, are rendered rapidly obsolete because they are easily imitated). In numerous markets, over-supply becomes a structural factor of the development of companies that plan the gradual over-abundance of goods (produced at ever-lower costs thanks to constant technological development) in competitive terms; goods that are also offered with a copious choice of alternatives, to meet increasingly sophisticated consumption requirements and to motivate demand that is increasingly disloyal. In similar situations, the role of the multi-market, multi-business companies becomes more important on one hand, while on the other, the competitive significance of the sector of activity is reduced: as a result, traditional analysis based on the maturity/novelty of the sector makes way for corporate activities with a high intensity of competition.[17]

In the current situation of all-pervasive global 'hypercompetition' of over-supply, a business can be highly profitable only for organisations that mould innovative supply and create consumption 'bubbles', which are rapidly satisfied ('time to market') and abandoned ('time competition'), leaving the competitors/imitators with the remains of the bubble (which is usually disorganised and unprofitable because of the many alternative proposals).

'Hypercompetition' strategies 'break' the static rules of 'one-to-one' oligopolistic confrontation, and propose a model of systematic competition, to be developed on the basis of market-driven management logics.

Globalisation and over-supply impose a new market-oriented management philosophy, in which customer value management prevails, in other words, sales to demand bubbles (instable aggregates of clientele that replace demand segments) with direct and continuous confrontation with competitors.

□ *In this context, for example, Toyota and PSA produce three versions of the same model together (Toyota Aygo, Citroen C1, Peugeot 107) – locating the new plant in the Czech Republic – to meet demand 'bubbles' for 'city cars' with a low price, high safety and strong personality.*

A competitive approach to the market therefore emerges from the bottom up, to 'force' the encounter of supply and demand, developing exchange and communications flows (push/pull communication).[18] In global markets, market-driven management develops a sophisticated market strategy, implemented by large corporations, which is designed first and foremost to overcome local protectionist measures put in place by Nation-States that still adopt space fragmentation logics.

□ *For example, the global policies of French and German giant retail chains come up against the standards to protect the textile-clothing-footwear section from Chinese imports (import quotas, mutual access to the European/Chinese markets, promotion of quality products that are made in Italy, increased penalties for brand forgery). In fact these defensive measures are weak because they are based on 'elementary competition', like those adopted (unsuccessfully) in the 1960s to combat the invasion of Europe by Japan motorcycles. Even then, the global vision of Japanese industry – and the 'cooperative promotion', underestimated at the time by their European and US competitors, implemented jointly by the corporations that competed in the Motorcycle GP championship (Honda, Kawasaki, Suzuki and Yamaha) – overwhelmed the large manufacturers (in Italy they included MV Agusta, Ducati, Guzzi and Laverda, in the United Kingdom, BSA, Triumph and Norton, in France, Motobécane, and in Spain, Derby), all highly respected but with small local production runs that were local, protected and weak.*

In over-supplied global markets, there is a high level of product replacement, a market-driven management philosophy demands a corporate culture that focuses on results, market policies that monitor the instability of competition and variable demand, companies reorganised around markets rather than products, and the development of new parameters to assess intangible and tangible factors, to estimate corporate performance.

2.1 Global Markets, Over-supply and Instable Demand

Global, over-supplied markets, which stimulate companies to adopt a new market-oriented management philosophy, are characterised by: firms which, in a continuous comparison with competitors, generate instable aggregates of clientele (demand bubbles), evanescent/weak competition boundaries, a high substitution rate between products, and finally, corporate performance that is conditioned by investment return times, as well as by margins. As a result, in over-supplied markets manufacturing and distribution companies with strong market-driven policies are successful, where marketing creates ever-new bubbles of purchases to be sustained with very volatile proposals and products with a strong identity.

On the other hand, the primacy of *marketing*, which characterised markets with balanced demand and supply (a phase that ran out of steam in the late Eighties when the stability of final demand also came to an end), was replaced by the domination of *communications* and intangible product factors, to deal with situations of great instability, in which competition dominates and where intermediate demand and global trade play a central role.

The globalisation of the markets determines growing manufacturing over-capacity and therefore excess supply that had never been tested in relation to the absorption potential of demand. Over-supply thus becomes a structural factor of development, which forces companies to come to terms with: consumption characterised by irregular growth rates, instable demand and above all changing consumption potential.

In a situation of over-supply, consumption cannot be predicted with traditional static purchasing models. Unlike the situation in the past, consumption does not develop in a simple, linear way, either in time or in space. For example, with elementary 'timing intervals' between consumption in leading areas and in 'slow-moving' areas (as in the vase of numerous products sold in different geographical areas of a single country, such as the North and South of Italy). One example of this is the consumption – explosive today, albeit with different trends and growth rates – of *active solitude products* (health care, digital music and photographs, gardening, extreme travel, TV-LCD, etc.), which can only be estimated with anticipatory logics and analogies (therefore with methods that are very different from the linear, aggregate models still used by Associations and government entities – with less success every day – to quantify consumer trends).

2.2 Over-Supply, Non-Loyal Purchasing and Brand Policies

The recent crisis in consumption reveals radical changes in purchasing habits (of families and singles) and this, for the first time, is penalising many large brands. The reduction in available income is producing new spending behaviour, which underlines:

- a drastic increase in brand disloyalty (*brand switching*), with the propensity to change brands peaking at 60-70% (as in the case of olive oil, tinned tomatoes, jams, etc.);
- the explosion of non-loyal purchasing (and the resulting search for more advantageous points of sale and products, for example exploiting the private labels and promotional offers of retail chains);
- the postponement of non-essential purchases;
- product switching, for example drinking beer instead of wine;
- and finally, a reduction in quantities purchased.

Over-supply and global markets exacerbate the consumption crisis and impose new competitive rules for brand products. The globalisation of markets and the related, growing manufacturing over-capacity generate supply that is well in excess of potential demand absorption, which highlights the *'strong brands'* (i.e. those with a high brand rotation index), while it excludes the *'weak brands'* (i.e. with low brand and product class rotation indices) from the market. Moreover, in conditions of over-supply the spiral of the consumption crisis is amplified by inadequate pricing policies. In global, highly competitive markets, price calculation now demands a new approach, founded on 'time-based competition' (abandoning costs and demand, the 'classic' parameters of marketing manuals) and focused on continuous flows of digital communications, with constantly monitored results and rapid updating (market-space management). In a state of over-supply, only manufacturers and distributors with strong market-driven policies, in which the brand is a *'system of responsibility'* in manufacturer-trade-consumer relations, will survive.

2.3 Brand Policy, Global Competition and Market-Driven Management

A few years ago, when primary demand for goods was on the rise, the brand name was sufficient to promote a product, and spending on advertising guaranteed its success, sustaining sales. The advertising share of voice was related to and tendentially equivalent to the market share and leading brands with large budgets were untouchable.

Today, the globalisation of the markets and manufacturing overcapacity sustain the *'strong brands'* (with a large market share and high sales rotation), and marginalise the *'weak brands'* (with low market share and rotation).

> □ *In this context, Chevrolet has eliminated the Daewoo brand name from its Korean car output, superimposing the technological superiority of the global US brand on the popularity of models with a formidable quality/price ratio.*

In global markets, brand heritage thus becomes a primary intangible asset, used to sustain sales when demand is weak, developing market-driven corporate management (as the great corporations, from Coca-Cola to PepsiCo, GE, Microsoft, Toyota, Ford, GM, etc., have been proposing for some time).

> □ *In Italy, locked in a 'castle economy' of protectionism and monopolies, the larger corporations avoid the global market, over-supply and the consumption crisis, and appear to favour investments in monopolistic activities, without a brand and with stable consumption (energy, telecommunications, non-innovative pharmaceuticals, etc.). Smaller companies, on the other hand, are forced to come to terms with the global market and must maintain a vital competitive performance (market share, profitability, appeal), only using 'dwarf brands' that must compete without the resources of the country system and are often*

actually hindered by the deficiencies of the structures and infrastructures.

2.4 Market-Driven Management, Brand Disloyalty and Purchasing Fidelity

In global, over-supplied markets, consumers select their purchases and points of sale, triggering a drastic increase in brand switching and non-loyal purchasing (encouraged above all by the private labels and promotional offers), numerous customer brackets abandon the 'richer products' (product switching), and on the whole purchasing quantities fall. Global markets thus force companies to adopt hard competitive behaviour, based on market-driven management, which fosters consumer fidelity (more flexible and less expensive than purchasing loyalty) and competitive pricing policies, where the price is fixed on the basis of the 'payback period'.

□ *The current collapse of consumption, unbridled for a year now, has radically changed spending behaviour, reducing purchases of cars, foodstuffs, clothing, books and toys. The contraction of consumption in Italy is particularly vast (even affecting scooters, fuel and entertainment) and forecasts for the next six-eight months are for spending to remain very uncertain.*

However, if we look more closely, we can see that a number of important spending areas are bucking the trend, and sales of telecommunications equipment (subscriptions to pay TV, the Internet, etc.) are holding up; in particular, there is an increase in sales of all products with technology traded in Dollars, such as chemical detergents, cell phones, plasma and LCD colour televisions, personal computers, flash memories, digital cameras and videocameras, etc. Sales of goods with a global market and a Euro/Dollar exchange that has been weak for many months, resulting in ever-lower selling prices, continue to grow. But even this commodity class (greatly exploited by large distribution chains, with global imports) is reaching its saturation point (sales threshold), which will only be crossed with the help of strong innovation, or because of a new and serious collapse of the Euro/Dollar exchange.

In contexts where brand disloyalty is strong, over-supply rewards manufacturers and distributors with strong market-driven policies, where marketing creates continuous 'bubbles' of purchasers, with volatile supply with a high promotional value. Demand bubbles which, in fact, presuppose continuous incentive programmes, with digital information flows and cognitive contents that enter the company from the market. In other terms, by including sales promotion in Customer Relationship Management, based on an information system that specifies profiles of purchasing individuals and organisations and estimates the size and duration of demand bubbles, according to a 'customer satisfaction' logic.

In the past, sales promotion was an important tool of marketing and commercial communications, when competition based not on price but on advertising began to be less effective, above all in local 'special actions' that are very brief, with a fast encashment rate (where slow, costly advertising is almost useless). Sales promotion (initially to the consumer and then to trade) thus becomes the primary tool of below-the-line activities, i.e. exceptional activities with sums recovered *'below the company's profit line'* (unlike above-the-line advertising with costs programmed and budgeted).

The effectiveness of sales promotion has therefore decreased on global, over-supplied markets (characterised by manufacturing over-capacity, selective and very competitive trade, and distracted, instable and non-loyal demand). The overall value of supply generated by the promotion is limited when it is generic and designed for a 'mass target', without precise profiling of individual potential beneficiaries (guaranteed by CRM platforms).

On today's global, highly competitive markets, numerous companies still use elementary promotional techniques to increase sales in a situation of over-supply (goods on a sale-or-return basis, satisfied or money back formulas, hard cut pricing, etc. However, these promotional methods are usually typical of desperate situations, in conflict with highly profitable companies that have structures in place to profile customer behaviour (from the end customer to the distributor, wholesaler, prescriber and retailer), to understand and meet their requests, or to anticipate them (before and better than competitors) with digital and 'two-way' communications.

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Notes

[1] See Silvio M. Brondoni, Ouverture de 'Market-Space Management', *Symphonya. Emerging Issues in Management*, (*symphonya.unimib.it*), n. 1, 2002.

[2] Cf. Silvio M. Brondoni, Jean-Jacques Lambin, Ouverture de 'Brand Equity', *Symphonya. Emerging Issues in Management*, (*symphonya.unimib.it*), n. 1, 2000-2001.

[3] 'In the marketplace, content, context and infrastructure can be disaggregated to create new ways of adding value, lowering costs, forging relationships with nontraditional partners and rethinking 'ownership' issues. In the new arena of the market-space, content, context and infrastructure are easily separated. Information technology adds or alters content, changes the context of the interaction and enables the delivery of varied content and a variety of contexts over different infrastructures'. see Jeffrey F. Raiport, John J. Sviokla, Managing in the Marketspace, *Harvard Business Review*, November-December, 1994, p. 145.

[4] Cf. George S. Day, *The Market-Driven Organization*, The Free Press, New York, 1999; George S. Day, *The Market-Driven Strategy*, The Free Press, New York, 1990; Roger J. Best, *Market-Based Management*, Prentice Hall, Upper Sadle River, 2004; Webster Frederick E. jr., *Market-Driven Management*, John Wiley & Sons, New York, 2002; Jean-Jacques Lambin, *Market-Driven*

Management, McGraw-Hill, London, 2000; Gaetano M. Golinelli, *L'approccio sistemico al governo d'impresa,* vol. 1, *L'impresa sistema vitale,* Cedam, Padova, 2000.

[5] Cf. Willem Koot, Peter Leisink, Paul Verweel (ed.), *Organizational Relationships in the Networking Age*, Edward Elgar Publishing, Cheltenham, 2003.

[6] Cf. Maria Emilia Garbelli, *Localizzazione produttiva e dinamiche competitive*, Giappichelli, Turin, 2004.

[7] See Silvio M. Brondoni, Ouverture de 'Market-Space Management', *Symphonya. Emerging Issues in Management* (*symphonya.unimib.it*), cit.

[8] Cf. Elisa Arrigo, Luca Bisio, Market-Driven Management, Corporate Governance e Stati-Nazione, in Silvio M. Brondoni (ed.), *Market-Driven Management e mercati globali*, Giappichelli, Turin, 2007.

[9] Cf. Silvio M. Brondoni, Comunicazione, risorse invisibili e strategia competitiva d'impresa, *Sinergie*, no. 43-44, 1997.

[10] Cf. Philippe De Woot, The Challenge of Economic Globalisation. Companies, Competition and Society, *Symphonya. Emerging Issues in Management* (*symphonya.unimib.it*), n. 2, 2002.

[11] Cf. Silvio M. Brondoni, Network Culture, Performance and Corporate Responsibility, *Symphonya. Emerging Issues in Management* (*symphonya.unimib.it*), n. 1,2003.

[12] Cf. Jacques Lambin, Silvio M. Brondoni, Ouverture de 'Market-Driven Management', *Symphonya. Emerging Issues in Management* (*symphonya.unimib.it*), n. 1, 2000-2001.

[13] Cf. Cosetta Pepe, Global Retailers and Corporate Responsibility, *Symphonya. Emerging Issues in Management* (symphonya.unimib.it), n. 1, 2003; Clara Caselli, Ethics and Corporate Responsibility in International Relations, *Symphonya. Emerging Issues in Management* (*symphonya.unimib.it*), n. 1, 2003; Daniela M. Salvioni, Corporate Governance and Corporate Responsibility, *Symphonya. Emerging Issues in Management* (*symphonya.unimib.it*), n. 1, 2003; Eric Lambin, Implementing the Transition to Sustainable Development, *Symphonya. Emerging Issues in Management* (*symphonya.unimib.it*), n. 1, 2003; Paolo Ricotti, Corporate Responsibility, and Sustainable Development, *Symphonya. Emerging Issues in Management (symphonya.unimib.it)*, n. 1, 2003.

[14] See Silvio M. Brondoni, *Market-Driven Management ed economia d'impresa globale*, in Silvio M. Brondoni (ed.), *Market-Driven Management concorrenza e mercati globali*, Giappichelli, Turin, 2007, p. 30.

[15] See Silvio M. Brondoni, Ouverture de 'Market-Space Management', *Symphonya. Emerging Issues in Management* (*symphonya.unimib.it*), cit.

[16] Cf. Gaetano M.Golinelli, *L'approccio sistemico al governo d'impresa*, cit.

[17] See Silvio M. Brondoni, *Prefazione*, in Silvio M. Brondoni (ed.) *Market-Driven Management concorrenza e mercati globali,* op. cit., pp. XI-XII.

[18] Cf. Margherita Corniani, Digital Marketing Communication, *Symphonya. Emerging Issues in Management* (*symphonya.unimib.it*), n. 2, 2006.