8

Some approaches to the choice of entry mode

Contents
8.1 Introduction
8.2 The transaction cost approach
8.3 Factors influencing the choice of entry mode
8.4 Summary
Case study
8.1 Ansell condoms

Learning objectives
After studying this chapter you should be able to do the following:
- Identify and classify different market entry modes.
- Explore different approaches to the choice of entry mode.
- Explain how opportunistic behaviour affects the manufacturer/intermediary relationship.
- Identify the factors to consider when choosing a market entry strategy.

8.1 Introduction

We have seen the main groupings of entry modes which are available to companies that wish to take advantage of foreign market opportunities. At this point we are concerned with the question: what kind of strategy should be used for the entry mode selection?

According to Root (1994) there are three different rules:

1. Naive rule. The decision maker uses the same entry mode for all foreign markets. This rule ignores the heterogeneity of the individual foreign markets.
2. Pragmatic rule. The decision maker uses a workable entry mode for each foreign market. In the early stages of exporting the firm typically starts doing business with a low-risk entry mode. Only if the particular initial mode is not feasible or profitable will the firm look for another workable entry mode. In this case not all potential alternatives are investigated, and the workable entry may not be the 'best' entry mode.
3. Strategy rules. This approach requires that all alternative entry modes are systematically compared and evaluated before any choice is made. An application of this decision rule would be to choose the entry mode that maximizes the profit
contribution over the strategic planning period subject to (a) the availability of company resources, (b) risk and (c) non-profit objectives.

Although many SMEs probably use the pragmatic or even the naive rule, this chapter is mainly inspired by an analytical approach, which is the main principle behind the strategy rule.

8.2 The transaction cost approach

The principles of transaction cost analysis have already been presented in Chapter 3 (section 3.3). This chapter will go into further details about ‘friction’ and opportunism.

The unit of analysis is the transaction rather than the firm. The basic idea behind this approach is that in the real world there is always some friction between the buyer and seller in connection with market transactions. This friction is mainly caused by opportunistic behaviour in the relation between a producer and an export intermediary.

In the case of an agent, the producer specifies sales-promoting tasks that the export intermediary is to solve in order to receive a reward in the shape of commission.

In the case of an importer, the export intermediary has a higher degree of freedom as the intermediary itself, to a certain extent, can fix sales prices and thus base its earnings on the profit between the producer’s sales price (the importer’s buying price) and the importer’s sales price.

No matter who the export intermediary may be, there will be some recurrent elements that may result in conflicts and opportunistic actions:

- **stock size of the export intermediary**;
- **extent of technical and commercial service that the export intermediary is to carry out for its customers**;
- **division of marketing costs (advertising, exhibition activities, etc.) between producer and export intermediary**;
- **fixing of prices: from producer to export intermediary, and from the export intermediary to its customers**;
- **fixing of commission to agents**.

**Opportunistic behaviour from the export intermediary**

In this connection the export intermediary’s opportunistic behaviour may be reflected in two activities:

1. In most producer–export intermediary relations a split of the sales promoting costs has been fixed. Thus statements by the export intermediary of too high sales promotion activities (e.g. by manipulating invoices) may form the basis of a higher payment from producer to export intermediary.

2. The export intermediary may manipulate information on market size and competitor prices in order to obtain lower ex-works prices from the producer. Of course, this kind of opportunism can be avoided if the export intermediary is paid a commission of realized turnover (the agency case).

**Opportunistic behaviour from the producer**

In this chapter we have so far presumed that the export intermediary is the one who has behaved opportunistically. The producer may, however, also behave in an opportunistic
way, as the export intermediary must also use resources (time and money) on building up the market for the producer’s product programme. This is especially the case if the producer wants to sell expensive and technically complicated products.

Thus the export intermediary carries a great part of the economic risk, and will always have the threat of the producer’s change of entry mode hanging over its head. If the export intermediary does not live up to the producer’s expectations it risks being replaced by another export intermediary, or the producer may change to its own export organization (sales subsidiary), as the increased transaction frequency (market size) can obviously bear the increased costs.

The last case may also be part of a deliberate strategy from the producer: namely, to tap the export intermediary for market knowledge and customer contacts in order to establish a sales organization itself.

What can the export intermediary do to meet this situation?

Heide and John (1988) suggest that the agent should make a number of further ‘offsetting’ investments in order to counterbalance the relationship between the two parties. These investments create bonds that make it costly for the producer to leave the relationship: that is, the agent creates ‘exit barriers’ for the producer (the principal). Examples of such investments are as follows:

- Establish personal relations with the producer’s key employees.
- Create an independent identity (image) in connection with selling the producer’s products.
- Add further value to the product, such as a BDA (before–during–after) service, which creates bonds in the agent’s customer relations.

If it is impossible to make such offsetting investments Heide and John (1988) suggest that the agent reduces its risk by representing more producers.

These are the conditions that the producer is up against, and when several of these factors appear at the same time the theory recommends that the company (the producer) internalizes rather than externalizes.

8.3 Factors influencing the choice of entry mode

A firm’s choice of its entry mode for a given product/target country is the net result of several, often conflicting forces. The need to anticipate the strength and direction of these forces makes the entry mode decision a complex process with numerous trade-offs among alternative entry modes.

Generally speaking the choice of entry mode should be based on the expected contribution to profit. This may be easier said than done, particularly for those foreign markets where relevant data are lacking. Most of the selection criteria are qualitative in nature, and quantification is very difficult.

As shown in Figure 8.1, four groups of factors are believed to influence the entry mode decision:

1. internal factors;
2. external factors;
3. desired mode characteristics;
4. transaction-specific behaviour.
In what follows a proposition is formulated for each factor: how is each factor supposed to affect the choice of foreign entry mode? The direction of influence is also indicated both in the text and in Figure 8.1. Because of the complexity of the entry mode decision the propositions are made under the condition of other factors being equal. If the firm wants to quantify its decision making it may often be necessary to measure the different factors’ effect on internalization/externalization on a scale, for example, from −3 to +3 with 0 indicating that the factor would favour intermediate modes.

1 Internal factors

Firm size
Size is an indicator of the firm’s resource availability; increasing resource availability provides the basis for increased international involvement over time. Although SMEs may desire a high level of control over international operations and wish to make heavy resource commitments to foreign markets, they are more likely to enter foreign markets using export modes because they do not have the resources necessary to achieve a high degree of control or to make these resource commitments. Export entry modes (market modes), with their lower resource commitment, may therefore be more suitable for SMEs. As the firm grows it will increasingly use the hierarchical model (Sanchez-Peinado et al., 2007). The ‘firm size’ may e.g. be measured in terms of sales volume or number of employees before the time of foreign entry.
Chapter 8  Some approaches to the choice of entry mode

International experience

Another firm-specific factor influencing mode choice is the international experience of managers and thus of the firm. Experience, which refers to the extent to which a firm has been involved in operating internationally, can be gained from operating either in a particular country or in the general international environment. International experience reduces the cost and uncertainty of serving a market, and in turn increases the probability of firms committing resources to foreign markets.

In developing their theory of internationalization Johanson and Vahlne (1977) assert that uncertainty in international markets is reduced through actual operations in foreign markets (experiential knowledge) rather than through the acquisition of objective knowledge. They suggest that it is direct experience with international markets that increases the likelihood of committing extra resources to foreign markets (Sanchez-Peinado et al., 2007; Chen and Mujtaba, 2007).

Product/service

The physical characteristics of the product or service, such as its value/weight ratio, perishability and composition, are important in determining where production is located. Products with high value/weight ratios, such as expensive watches, are typically used for direct exporting, especially where there are significant production economies of scale, or if management wishes to retain control over production. Conversely, in the soft drinks and beer industry, companies typically establish licensing agreements, or invest in local bottling or production facilities, because shipment costs, particularly to distant markets, are prohibitive.

The nature of the product affects channel selection because products vary so widely in their characteristics and use, and because the selling job may also vary markedly. For instance, the technical nature of a product (high complexity) may require service both before and after sale. In many foreign market areas marketing intermediaries may not be able to handle such work. Instead firms will use one of the hierarchical modes.

Blomstermo et al. (2006) distinguish between hard and soft services. Hard services are those where production and consumption can be decoupled. For example software services can be transferred into a CD, or some other tangible medium, which can be mass-produced, making standardization possible. With soft services, where production and consumption occur simultaneously, the customer acts as a co-producer, and decoupling is not viable. The soft-service provider must be present abroad from their first day of foreign operations. Blomstermo et al. (2006) conclude that there are significant differences between hard- and soft-service suppliers regarding choice of foreign market entry mode. Managers in soft services are much more likely to choose a high control entry mode (hierarchical mode) than hard services. It is important for soft-service suppliers to interact with their foreign customers, thus they should opt for a high degree of control, enabling them to monitor the coproduction of the services.

Products distinguished by physical variations, brand name, advertising and after-sales service (e.g. warranties, repair and replacement policies) that promote preference for one product over another may allow a firm to absorb the higher costs of being in a foreign market. Product differentiation advantages give firms a certain amount of impulse in raising prices to exceed costs by more than normal profits (quasi rent). They also allow firms to limit competition through the development of entry barriers, which are fundamental in the competitive strategy of the firm, as well as serving customer needs better and thereby strengthening the competitive position of the firm compared
to other firms. Because these product differentiation advantages represent a ‘natural monopoly’ firms seek to protect their competitive advantages from dissemination through the use of hierarchical modes of entry.

2 External factors

Sociocultural distance between home country and host country
Socioculturally similar countries are those that have similar business and industrial practices, a common or similar language, and comparable educational levels and cultural characteristics.

Sociocultural differences between a firm’s home country and its host country can create internal uncertainty for the firm, which influences the mode of entry desired by that firm.

The greater the perceived distance between the home and host country in terms of culture, economic systems and business practices, the more likely it is that the firm will shy away from direct investment in favour of joint venture agreements. This is because the latter institutional modes enhance firms’ flexibility to withdraw from the host market, if they should be unable to acclimatize themselves comfortably to the unfamiliar setting. To summarize, other things being equal, when the perceived distance between the home and host country is great, firms will favour entry modes that involve relatively low resource commitments and high flexibility. This is also supported by Sanchez-Peinado et al. (2007).

Country risk/demand uncertainty
Foreign markets are usually perceived as riskier than the domestic market. The amount of risk the firm faces is a function not only of the market itself but also of its method of involvement there. In addition to its investment the firm risks inventories and receivables. When planning its method of entry the firm must do a risk analysis of both the market and its method of entry. Exchange rate risk is another variable. Moreover, risks are not only economic; there are also political risks.

When country risk is high a firm would do well to limit its exposure to such risk by restricting its resource commitments in that particular national domain. That is, other things being equal, when country risk is high, firms will favour entry modes that involve relatively low resource commitments (export modes).

Unpredictability in the political and economic environment of the host market increases the perceived risk and demand uncertainty experienced by the firm. In turn this disinclines firms to enter the market with entry modes requiring heavy resource commitments; on the other hand, flexibility is highly desired.

Market size and growth
Country size and rate of market growth are key parameters in determining the mode of entry. The larger the country and the size of its market, and the higher the growth rate, the more likely management will be to commit resources to its development, and to consider establishing a wholly-owned sales subsidiary or to participate in a majority-owned joint venture. Retaining control over operations provides management with direct contact and allows it to plan and direct market development more effectively.

Small markets, on the other hand, especially if they are geographically isolated and cannot be serviced efficiently from a neighboring country, may not warrant significant attention or resources. Consequently they may be best supplied via exporting or a licensing agreement. While unlikely to stimulate market development or maximize
Chapter 8  Some approaches to the choice of entry mode

market penetration this approach enables the firm to enter the market with minimal resource commitment, and frees resources for potentially more lucrative markets.

Direct and indirect trade barriers
Tariffs or quotas on the import of foreign goods and components favour the establishment of local production or assembly operations (hierarchical modes).

Product or trade regulations and standards, as well as preferences for local suppliers, also have an impact on mode of entry and operation decisions. Preferences for local suppliers, or tendencies to ‘buy national’, often encourage a company to consider a joint venture or other contractual arrangements with a local company (intermediate modes). The local partner helps in developing local contacts, negotiating sales and establishing distribution channels, as well as in diffusing the foreign image.

Product and trade regulations and customs formalities similarly encourage modes involving local companies, which can provide information about and contacts in local markets, and can ease access. In some instances, where product regulations and standards necessitate significant adaptation and modification, the firm may establish local production, assembly or finishing facilities (hierarchical modes).

The net impact of both direct and indirect trade barriers is thus likely to be a shift towards performing various functions such as sourcing, production and developing marketing tactics in the local market.

Intensity of competition
When the intensity of competition is high in a host market firms will do well to avoid internalization, as such markets tend to be less profitable and therefore do not justify heavy resource commitments. Hence, other things being equal, the greater the intensity of competition in the host market the more the firm will favour entry modes that involve low resource commitments (export modes).

Small number of relevant intermediaries available
In such a case the market field is subject to the opportunistic behaviour of the few export intermediaries, and this will favour the use of hierarchical modes in order to reduce the scope for opportunistic behaviour.

3 Desired mode characteristics

Risk averse
If the decision maker is risk averse they will prefer export modes (e.g. indirect and direct exporting) or licensing (an intermediate mode) because they typically entail low levels of financial and management resource commitment. A joint venture provides a way of sharing risk, financial exposure and the cost of establishing local distribution networks and hiring local personnel, although negotiating and managing joint ventures often absorb considerable management time and effort. However, modes of entry that entail minimal levels of resource commitment and hence minimal risks are unlikely to foster the development of international operations and may result in significant loss of opportunity.

Control
Mode-of-entry decisions also need to consider the degree of control that management requires over operations in international markets. Control is often closely linked to the level of resource commitment. Modes of entry with minimal resource commitment, such as indirect exporting, provide little or no control over the conditions under which the product or service is marketed abroad. In the case of licensing and contract
manufacturing management needs to ensure that production meets its quality standards. Joint ventures also limit the degree of management control over international operations and can be a source of considerable conflict where the goals and objectives of partners diverge. Wholly-owned subsidiaries (hierarchical mode) provide the most control, but also require a substantial commitment of resources (Sanchez-Peinado et al., 2007).

**Flexibility**

Management must also weigh up the flexibility associated with a given mode of entry. The hierarchical modes (involving substantial equity investment) are typically the most costly but the least flexible and most difficult to change in the short run. Intermediate modes (contractual agreements and joint ventures) limit the firm’s ability to adapt or change strategy when market conditions are changing rapidly.

### 4 Transaction-specific factors

The transaction cost analysis approach was discussed in Chapter 3 (section 3.3) and earlier in this chapter. We will therefore refer to only one of the factors here.

**Tacit nature of know-how**

When the nature of the firm-specific know-how transferred is tacit it is by definition difficult to codify and patent, and therefore it is more difficult to transfer through contracts with external partners.

Sanchez-Peinado et al. (2007) use the following measures for ‘tacit know-how’:

- the difficulty in understanding the involved skills and knowledge;
- the difficulty in transferring skills and knowledge;
- the difficulty in valuing a priori the exact price of a product/service;
- the difficulty in copying skills and knowledge.

Tacit know-how makes the drafting of a contract (to transfer such complex know-how) very problematic. The difficulties and costs involved in transferring tacit know-how provide an incentive for firms to use hierarchical modes. Investment modes are better able to facilitate the intra-organizational transfer of tacit know-how. By using a hierarchical mode the firm can utilize human capital, drawing upon its organizational routines to structure the transfer problem. Hence, the greater the tacit component of firm-specific know-how, the more a firm will favour hierarchical modes.

## Summary

Seen from the perspective of the manufacturer (international marketer), market entry modes can be classified into three groups:

- export modes: low control, low risk, high flexibility;
- intermediate modes (contractual modes): shared control and risk, split ownership;
- hierarchical modes (investment modes): high control, high risk, low flexibility.

It cannot be stated categorically which alternative is the best. There are many internal and external conditions which affect this choice and it should be emphasized that a manufacturer wanting to engage in global marketing may use more than one of these methods at the same time. There may be different product lines, each requiring a different entry mode.
Chapter 8  Some approaches to the choice of entry mode

Ansell Limited is the new name of the company formerly known as Pacific Dunlop Limited.

The company's name was changed in April 2002 as a result of its strategic repositioning to concentrate on its core business, protective products and services in a broad health care context, and following the disposition of a series of other business units that did not fit within the strategy. Ansell Limited is an Australian publicly listed company with its corporate head office located in Richmond, Australia.

In 1905 Eric Ansell, a former Dunlop employee, took the machinery and set up his own company, The Ansell Rubber Company, in Melbourne, Australia, manufacturing toy balloons and condoms. The rest is history, as Ansell made strategic acquisitions and expansions and invested in the research and development necessary to bring a number of products to the world market.

Today Ansell Limited is a global leader in barrier protective products. With operations in the Americas, Europe and Asia, Ansell employs more than 12,000 people worldwide and holds leading positions in the natural latex and synthetic polymer glove and condom markets.

Ansell Condom brands are marketed globally through the Personal Healthcare division of Ansell Healthcare, with main office in Red Bank, NJ, USA. This 100-year-old company has fostered some innovations in latex condoms and gloves. It manufactures and markets a variety of condoms with flavours, colours, spermicide, studded and ribbed features. Ansell markets branded condoms worldwide each with its own unique marketing strategy that has been tailored to the particular country or region. A quick list of their brands around the globe includes: LifeStyles (for the US market), Mates (for the UK market), KamaSutra (for the Indian market), Contempo, Manix, Primex, Pleasure and Chekmate.

Additionally, the company participates in the public sector market where condoms are supplied through health and social welfare programmes and agencies, mainly in developing countries around the world. Ansell also participates in a broad range of studies and educational activities. Ansell continues to expand their market presence with the introduction of new products. Lifestyle Ultra Sensitive condoms with spermicide, for instance, were developed to meet demand for a thinner condom that includes a spermicide to maximize protection from sexually transmitted diseases (STDs).

**World market for male condoms**

Condoms offer protection against both unwanted pregnancies (contraception) and STDs (prophylaxis). The latter property is unique to condoms. Although there is considerable superficial variation in the types of condoms available (e.g. ribbed, thin and thick) there has been little fundamental change in the latex condom over the years.

Organizations that comprise the ‘global public health sector’ currently distribute 8 to 10 billion male condoms, mostly free of charge or at a nominal cost, to sexually active people throughout the world, mostly in developing nations. It is estimated that another 3 to 5 billion male condoms are distributed through commercial channels, mostly in developed countries such as the United States, Japan and European nations. The size of the world market for male condoms and how is made up as shown in Table 1.

In 2005, 35 per cent of condoms were purchased by the United Nations Population Fund. The World Health Organization (WHO) also is a buyer.

Besides the direct competitors, described in Table 2, it is essential to emphasize the role of the indirect competitors, which are those with a product of substitution. According to the Durex Sex Survey, the male condom is globally the most popular form of contraception (41 per cent of people use it). Among the 59 per cent non-condom users, 19 per cent of the population uses the pill, 8 per cent natural methods and the rest (75 per cent) use no contraception.
Table 1 World market for male condoms (2005)

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Per year (billions)</th>
<th></th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Global public health sector (UN, WHO and local governments)</td>
<td>8</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Commercial channels (mainly in the US, Japan, and European nations)</td>
<td>4</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>World market</td>
<td>12</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Source: Adapted from different public sources.

In the distribution of male condoms in the commercial sector, there has been a movement from the pharmacies toward the retail chains (supermarkets). For example, in the early 1990s supermarkets accounted for around 25 per cent of the UK retail sales of condoms while pharmacies accounted for over a half. Today, the supermarkets account for around 40 per cent of retail sales, a share mostly drawn from the pharmacies, which have seen their share fall to 30 per cent. Therefore, national retailing chains (supermarkets, Boots and Superdrug) now account for at least 65 per cent of condom sales in the United Kingdom.

Table 2 Company shares on the world market for male condoms (2005)

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Company</th>
<th>Nationality</th>
<th>Major brands</th>
<th>Key strategies (MS = market share)</th>
<th>Market share (%)</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Seton Scholl London (SSL)</td>
<td>UK</td>
<td>Durex, Durex Avanti, Durex Pleasure, Durex Fetherlite, Durex Extra Sensitive, etc.</td>
<td>A true global brand with strong positions in all main markets, except US (15% MS) and Japan (5% MS). In UK the Durex MS is 85%</td>
<td>25</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Church &amp; Dwight Co.</td>
<td>US</td>
<td>Trojan, Trojan Magnum, Trojan Pleasure, Trojan Enz</td>
<td>Market leader in US market, minor position in UK</td>
<td>8</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Okamoto Industries</td>
<td>Japan</td>
<td>Beyond Seven, Skinless Skin</td>
<td>Home market oriented: 60% MS of the Japanese market, but with little exports, mainly to US</td>
<td>10</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Others: Sagami Rubber Industries (JP), Fuji Latex Co (JP), DKT Indonesia (Indonesia), Mayer Laboratories (JP) and about 70 other manufacturers around the world</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td>Domestic and region oriented companies with strong positions in local markets</td>
<td>44</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Source: Estimations based on different public sources.

Key competitors (manufacturers) in the world male condom market

SSL International

In 1929 the London Rubber Company (LRC) registered the DUREX condom trademark, whose name was derived from Durability, Reliability and Excellence. The next important steps as a global condom’s provider were in 1951 with the introduction of the first fully-automated production process and two years later with the development of the first electronic testing machines.

In the UK ‘home market’, during the 1980s, Durex condoms began to be sold in public areas (e.g. supermarket, pubs), due to the AIDS fear. That decade showed a sharp development in marketing with the first Durex poster campaign in 1982, as well as the first condom advertising on television (1987).

Finally, during this past decade, Durex has followed a marketing policy aimed at increasing the awareness of the brand with: the installation of free-standing outdoor Durex vending machines (1992); the sponsorship of MTV’s events (1995); the first Durex Sex Survey (1995); the launch of the first selection of
coloured, flavoured and ribbed condom in the same pack (1996); and in 1997 the launch of the first non-latex protection called Avanti.

At the beginning of the twenty-first century, Durex launched www.Durex.com over 30 countries. These websites, featuring localized pages, in particular the use of local language, provide sexual information, allow people to question specialists, give details of Durex condoms and any sponsored events.

Durex is nowadays part of SSL International Plc, which was formed in 1999 from the merger of the Seton-Scholl Group and London International, the former owner of LRC. It is a worldwide company producing a range of branded products such as Scholl and Marigold gloves, sold to medical and consumer health care markets.

With a market share of approximately 25 per cent, Durex’s position can be defined as the world market leader of the sector. Obviously, at different national levels, rankings can be slightly different with, for example, 80–85 per cent of market share in the United Kingdom, 55–60 per cent in Italy, 10–15 per cent in the United States and around 5 per cent in Japan.

Durex condoms are manufactured in 17 factories worldwide.

Church & Dwight Company Inc
Armkel, LLC, Church & Dwight’s 50/50 joint venture with the private equity group, Kelso & Company, acquired in 2001 the remainder of the Carter-Wallace consumer products businesses, including Trojan Condoms.

The Trojan brand accounts for the largest proportion of condom supplies in the United States (with around 60–70 per cent market share).

The company markets condoms under the Trojan brand name in Canada, Mexico and recently, in limited distribution, in the United Kingdom. In Canada, the Trojan brand has a leading market share. It entered the UK condom market in 2003, but at present has only a small share of this market. The company markets its condoms through distribution channels similar to those of its domestic condom business.

Okamoto
Okamoto has been in existence since 1934. It holds a remarkable 60 per cent market share in Japan, where condoms are the preferred method of birth control.

In late 1988, Okamoto introduced its condoms to the US market, but without great success until now.

Latest development – Possible acquisition of an European key condom player
Following financial problems at some European condom manufacturers with relatively strong local brands, Ansell is now considering acquiring one of these manufacturers.


Questions
1 What are the differences between the global strategies of Ansell and the other three competitors?
2 What are the pros and cons for Ansell acquiring a European competitor? In your opinion, is it a good idea?

For further exercises and cases, see this book’s website at www.pearsoned.co.uk/hollensen

Questions for discussion

1 Why is choosing the most appropriate market entry and development strategy one of the most difficult decisions for the international marketer?

2 Do you agree with the view that LSEs use a ‘rational analytic’ approach (‘strategy rule’) to the entry mode decision, while SMEs use a more pragmatic/opportunistic approach?

3 Use Figure 8.1 to identify the most important factors affecting the choice of foreign entry mode. Prioritize the factors.
Part III  Market entry strategies

References