

Chapter 1 : Businesspedia - The Business Encyclopedia

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Written by one of the leading contemporary Hispanic-American poets, this work, like many others from the same collection, chronicles the lives of everyday people in New York City, where Victor Hernandez Cruz lived for many years after moving from Puerto Rico. When he was about fourteen years old, Cruz began to write verse, and, at seventeen, he composed his first collection of poetry, titled *Papo Got His Gun!* Six months before he was to have graduated from high school in , Cruz quit school. Cruz joined *Umbra* magazine in as an editor. The theater closed after a year. Cruz moved to California in , where he soon made contact with other authors. He accepted a job teaching a group of junior high school boys in a Berkeley experimental public school that same year and began his first major work, *Snaps*. Cruz taught a poetry workshop at the University of California at Berkeley in and served as an instructor of ethnic studies at San Francisco State College. That same year, he began an association with the San Francisco Neighborhood Arts Program, working with schools, senior citizen centers, prisons, and city festivals. The job supported him while he completed his third book, *Tropicalization*. Cruz won another CAPS grant in to write fiction. Although some of his short fiction was published in avant-garde reviews, an early novel he had written had still not been published. Lines 2â€”4 The story begins the way most stories do, introducing the central character, who seems like a simple man, perhaps a street vendor selling toys to kids in order to make a living. The very easy level of vocabulary is reminiscent of stories one is told as a child. Line 5 Not only does he sell puppets and whistles, he is also a musician, entertaining the crowds. Lines 6â€”8 These lines give a sense of how popular the man was. Lines 9â€”12 Here the reader learns more specifically how successful the man was, both in his sales of puppets and whistles, and in his performances. Many street performers leave their guitar or saxophone cases open while they play so people can toss in money, usually small change, for tips. Media Adaptations Lannan Literary Videos: Lines 18â€”19 In these humorous lines, the man shows no regard for court room protocol, instead putting on his performance a puppet show and making a circus out of the proceedings. Again, the reader is left wondering how much of the story is exaggerated, but in any case the poet sets up a very unexpected courtroom scene, perhaps satirizing or mocking the stiff and highly organized proceedings most courtrooms observe. Such conflicts are not uncommon in a society that has put the needs of big business and government ahead of those of individuals. Cruz uses a confrontation between a street performer and the government to point out the hypocrisy at the root of these conflicts. Competition It is a truism that human beings compete with one another to survive and that the rules for competition depend on the society in which one lives. The monkey man, then, must craft a strategy for appeasing the demands of government while continuing to do the work that he loves. He accomplishes this by being himself: It is significant that these two groups of people side with the monkey man, as they are also working people. The end of the poem sets up a confrontation between the judge and ordinary people, represented by the monkey man, the court clerks, and the police. This David and Goliath scenario does not need to play itself out in order for readers to sympathize with the monkey man. After all, he is the underdog. Individualism Balancing the needs of the state with the desires of the individual is a continuing struggle for modern governments. Cruz demonstrates the absurdity that results when government equally applies rules to citizens regardless of circumstance. By denying a man who is simply trying to make a living his business, the government reveals its inability to represent all the people. Instead of following a set pattern of stresses or rhymes, as in formal verse, Cruz uses the more relaxed and varied rhythms of everyday conversation, perhaps similar to the voice of Don Arturo, from whom the speaker claims to have heard the story. By keeping his lines shortâ€”usually only three to five wordsâ€”and the vocabulary simple and straightforward, Cruz succeeds in creating an easy tone. Almost every line lacks end punctuation, a technique called enjambing the line, which allows the phrase to run-over to the next line. The resulting effect is a flowing, nonstop motion throughout the work. Cruz wrote many of the poems in *Mainland* while living in New York City in the s and early s. Many of the Cubans who immigrated to the United States during the early

s were staunch anticommunists and had family ties in Florida and New York. Many were middle-class government workers, businessmen, professionals, and managers who left Cuba not only because they opposed the revolution but because they wanted to protect their financial assets. Some of these new arrivals formed groups whose members actively worked for the overthrow of the Castro government. Cubans who immigrated during the mids to mids also came for political and economic reasons but tended to be less educated and less skilled than the previous wave of Cuban immigrants. The Mariel boatlift of alone brought more than , Cubans to American shores. In the early s, Cuba and the United States explored the possibility of reestablishing ties, but, in , the United States suspended talks when Cuba sent a large number of troops to fight in the Angolan civil war. In , the countries finally Topics for Further Study Research African folk tales having to do with animals. What is the role of the monkey in such tales? What about the responses are wise? Present your findings to the class. Do an informal survey of the small businesses in your city or town. How many of these businesses are owned by immigrants or the children of immigrants? Research the relationship between various kinds of businesses, such as corner stores, quick marts, and fast food restaurants, and the people who own them and work in them. Are people of certain ethnic backgrounds over-represented in them? Account for your findings. Brainstorm as many ethnic and racial stereotypes related to money and work as possible, and then hold a class discussion on the danger of such stereotypes. With your class, make a chart listing the advantages and disadvantages of self-employment. What are some of the qualities needed to be self-employed? How many people in your class envision working for themselves in the future? Discuss possible job opportunities. During this period, John V. A reformer, Lindsay tried to pare down government by consolidating administrative agencies and to decentralize authority by creating neighborhood councils. However, the city became a hotbed of tension and unrest as severe rioting rocked its streets in and again in The Cuban Communist Party approves a new socialist constitution, and Fidel Castro is elected president. The United States House of Representatives approves a measure allowing the sale of food and medicines to Cuba as American corporations prepare themselves to do business in Cuba if Castro ceases to exercise power. Rudolph Giuliani becomes the assistant United States attorney in the office of the Southern District of New York where he takes on drug dealers, organized crime , and white-collar criminals. On September 11, , two hijacked jetliners crash into the World Trade Center in lower Manhattan, killing thousands, including hundreds of firefighters and police, and causing massive economic and emotional shock waves that reverberate throughout the country. One-and-a-half million Puerto Ricans live in the United States. In , the Organized Crime Control Bureau was founded to investigate narcotics crimes. In the late s and early s, New York City lost more than a half million jobs, which seriously eroded its tax base. The unemployment rate skyrocketed and by the city teetered on bankruptcy, with a deficit of more than three billion dollars. The poor, as always, were disproportionately affected. This distrust escalated in when a group of men, including former CIA agent James McCord, were arrested in the burglary of the Democratic Party headquarters in the Watergate apartment complex in Washington, D. Under the threat of impeachment, Nixon himself resigned in New York City Culture: The new sound is derived from the Afro-Cuban religious and secular music of island slaves but incorporates genres from other Afro-Caribbean and African-American musical traditions as well. The large number of people immigrating to New York from Cuba and Puerto Rico in the s and s helped to fuel the popularity of salsa music, and many salsa bands include both Cuban and Puerto Rican musicians. In his book The Nuyorican Experience: It has all of the ingredients of popular appeal: Underneath the comedic tone, however, lies the truth of the poem, the message Cruz wants readers to take away. They are presented as nuggets of wisdom from a sage who has lived the advice he offers.

Business Encyclopedia of Terms and Methods. Look up or search for in-depth coverage of terms and methods from the fields of Accounting, Finance, Marketing, Economics, and Business Strategy, Business Analysis, Business Planning, Business Case Analysis, Project Management, and Corporate Governance.

Business endeavors hold no mandated interest for the Church or its members. Church members involve themselves in all avenues of life in much the same proportion as the general population of the region or country in which they live see Occupational Status. Church members are urged to be honest in all their dealings with their fellow men, including business and professional activities. Elements of history, theology, and practice combine to form a positive LDS attitude toward honest business endeavors. As the Church developed settlements in Ohio, Missouri, Illinois, and the Great Basin, it became necessary and desirable to be involved in business activities. Cooperative business efforts were necessary for success, independence, and survival. In addition to its spiritual and cultural roles, the Church sponsored economic initiatives that could not be mounted by individual entrepreneurs. For example, when it was determined that sugar would be expensive and difficult to obtain in the Great Basin, the Church in the s sponsored a business venture to cultivate and process sugar beets. Converts brought capital and equipment from Europe, and factories were constructed. After extended difficulties, a thriving sugar beet industry resulted in the s. Similarly, to provide banking services, a Church-sponsored bank was incorporated. As the capital needed for these businesses became available from private sources, the Church divested itself of nearly all business activities unrelated to its ecclesiastical mission. Thus, historically, members of the Church have been integrally involved in business activities. In their pioneer environment, Latter-day Saints developed, out of necessity, traits of self-sufficiency, pragmatism, and resourcefulness. This heritage is reflected in an entrepreneurial spirit and penchant for hard work that lend themselves very well to business endeavors. The theology of the Church is also supportive of honest business. Church doctrines emphasize individual agency and self-determination, which provide fertile conceptual soil for fostering business attitudes of free enterprise. The Church teaches that property and wealth are stewardships and that all people will be held accountable to God for what they have done with the time and resources entrusted to them Young, p. Church leaders continue to encourage members to live within their means, to save and be frugal, and to remain economically independent by avoiding debt. Such principles are harmonious with business success and help prepare Church members to perform well in a business environment. Each member, young and old, is called upon to serve in some calling. Young boys and girls give talks in Church and develop public-speaking skills. Church youth are given leadership opportunities, and adult men and women fill numerous leadership and teaching positions in every local congregation see Lay Participation and Leadership ; Leadership Training. Budgeting, counseling, organizing, and performing administrative tasks are carried out on a regular basis. From these experiences, members develop business-related skills that are useful in many business contexts. Over the years, Church leaders have spoken forthrightly about maintaining high standards of business ethics and have warned against becoming carried away by business endeavors: Eldon Tanner, Ensign 9 [Nov. Fair business dealing, giving value for value received, is scripturally required Lev. Thus, President Spencer W. Kimball distinguished clean money from filthy lucre or compromise money: Employers are admonished to be generous and kind; employees, to be loyal and diligent. President Brigham Young encouraged "every man who has capital [to] create business and give employment and means into the hands of laborers"; he saw economic strength in "the bone and sinew of workingmen and women," and encouraged all to be industrious: Discourses of Brigham Young, comp. Salt Lake City, On the business experiences and philosophies of a prominent LDS entrepreneur in the s, see Dean L. May, "Sources of Marriner S. Church Participation in Business Author: Historically, two purposes have characterized Church participation in business: During the first half century of settlement in Utah, the Church started or helped to start many businesses. Some continue to operate; but as communities became self-sufficient, the Church withdrew from such business activities as banking, health care, commercial printing, sugar processing, and the Hotel Utah. Most of the business assets of the Church originated in the

pioneer era when its people were isolated from other business and commercial centers. When a newspaper was needed to help keep people of Utah informed, the Church established the Deseret news in 1850. In the 1860s, federal officials urged newspapers to develop broadcast operations. In the 1870s, the Deseret News did as requested, and that was the beginning of KSL and Bonneville International corporation. To help Utah farmers develop a cash crop that they could sell beyond the borders of the state, the Church helped pioneer the sugar beet industry. ZCMI department stores were the outgrowth of a cooperative movement among the early pioneers. When hotel accommodations were insufficient to provide housing for a growing number of visitors to Temple Square and other points of interest in Salt Lake City shortly after the turn of the century, the Church joined with other community interests to construct Hotel Utah. Over a period of years, the Church bought out other investors to become the sole owner of Hotel Utah. The Church became more involved in Salt Lake City real estate primarily to preserve the beauty and the integrity of the downtown area, especially around Temple Square. That purpose guided Church officials when they decided in the late 1800s to lease to Salt Lake County, for one dollar per year, the property on which Symphony Hall and the Salt Palace Convention Center are now located. The Church also owns Laie Resorts, Inc. These businesses come under the umbrella of Deseret Management Company, a holding company that receives and distributes profits, performs internal audits, generates consolidated financial statements, files consolidated income tax returns for the group, coordinates activities, and reviews business operations and plans. The Church of Jesus Christ of Latter-day Saints Foundation receives from Church businesses contributions from their pretax earnings, which in turn are given to the community as contributions to the arts, education, and charitable groups, and other beneficiaries. The LDS foundation coordinates the distribution of major portions of the charitable contributions designated by Church-owned businesses. Income from Church business operations permits participation in local community causes without using the tithing of members from around the world. Those tithes are dedicated to continuing the primary work of the Church, which includes teaching the gospel to the world, building faith and testimony and promoting activity among the membership, and helping members to complete sacred temple ordinances in proxy for the deceased. Other business activities are under the aegis of the Investment Properties Division of the Church. For example, it oversees Church-owned farmland in several states and Canada, although many of the agricultural activities on the land are managed by Farm Management Companies. The Church does not publish financial data regarding its privately owned businesses. However, Church officials have indicated that profits from business operations are used to provide living allowances for the General Authorities of the Church. While business profits are not disclosed, President Gordon B. Hinckley, a member of the First Presidency, said in 1983 that the combined income from all these business interests would not keep the work of the Church going for longer than a very brief period Hinckley, G. B., p. In addition to its wholly owned businesses, the Church has controlling interest in the chain of ZCMI department stores. The company name was changed to U and I, Inc. Its remaining assets are held by Deseret Management Company. The Church also has a significant but noncontrolling interest in Heber J. Grant and Company, a holding company. Other investments include a varied portfolio of stocks and bonds. Each of the businesses owned by the Church operates in a competitive environment and must succeed or fail according to standard business operating principles. These companies pay taxes to federal, state, and local governments. The Church is the fourth largest payer of real estate taxes in Salt Lake County. Church businesses have boards of directors that set policies for the individual companies. In most cases, Church leadership is represented on the boards of directors, but many boards include persons of other faiths. Operating management is in the hands of professional managers, who need not be Church members. The Church requires them to operate the businesses in harmony with its principles and values of honesty, integrity, sensitivity, and service. The Church expects its businesses to return something back to the communities from which they derive their revenues, and it encourages managers to participate actively in community activities and in business and professional associations. The Church expects them to set standards of excellence, to be leaders in their particular industries, and always to be conscious of the values of the ownership that they represent. The major commercial businesses owned by the Church engage in the following activities: Beneficial Development Company is a property development company dealing primarily with real estate holdings in and around Salt Lake City. In a very few instances, the company has installed

roads, water systems, and other amenities for residential developments. Beneficial Life Insurance Company offers the full range of life insurance protection. A division, Bonneville Communications, provides promotional services, and produces and distributes the weekly Mormon Tabernacle Choir broadcast, the general conferences of the Church, the Homefront Series public service announcements, items for the Missionary Department, and various seasonal programs. The company also provides commercial advertising and promotional services for national businesses and organizations. The company also serves as a publishing arm of the Church to publish books and other materials for and about the Church. Deseret Trust Company receives and administers trust funds and trust properties given to the Church. Bibliography Hinckley, Gordon B. See also the following series of articles on Church and business: Deseret News, July 2, , pp.

Chapter 3 : Business - Wikipedia

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Globalization Global business refers to international trade whereas a global business is a company doing business across the world. The exchange of goods over great distances goes back a very long time. Anthropologists have already established long-distance trading in Europe in the Stone Age. Sea-borne trading was commonplace in many regions of the world in times predating Greek civilization. Such trade, of course, was not by definition "global" but had the same characteristics. In the 16th century all of the continents came to be routinely linked by ocean-based communications. Trading activity in the modern sense rapidly followed at the beginning of the 17th century; it might be more accurate to say that it "returned" again because trading of such character had taken place in Roman times as well. It is not intended here to discuss another and related subject covered separately in this volume: Globalization is a long-standing program advocated by the economically advanced nations to free up international trade across the globe through treaties. It has also come to mean the relocation of production or service activities to places that have much lower labor costs. Global business in the past or currently does not require what advocates of globalization seek, namely a so-called level playing field. International trade has always had a mixed character in which national organizations and private enterprises have both participated, in which monopolies have been imposed, frequently defended by armed forces, in which all manner of restraints and tariffs have been common and participants have made all sorts of efforts to counter such interference or to profit from it. Very high profits could be achieved trading in spices and silk with the "Indies"; such profits justified the risks. In parallel with such private trading, government-sponsored ventures also took to the oceans; they became the dominant form of international trade shortly before and all through the period of colonialism. Thus Spain exploited its discoveries in South America by shipping gold and silver from America to Europe thus setting off a great inflationary period. Global enterprise, thus, in the modern sense, began to develop during the Age of Discovery. It was instrumental in stimulating colonialism. Single merchants or groups of explorers went forth and came back with treasures. The two earliest global companies, both government chartered, were the British East India Company begun in and the Dutch East India Company, established in Both have now passed into history. The British company dissolved in , but in its nearly year history it had launched and for a long period had practically run the British Empire. Early global companies were usually state-chartered trading companies. Japan established companies known as the sogo shosha for "general trading company" in the 19th century. Japan had tried and failed to preserve its isolation. When it opened itself to the world, it channeled trade through these ventures. Great trading companies were and continue to be important in transportation as well; operating shipping supports their activities. A contemporary American example is the privately held Cargill Corporation which trades internationally in agricultural, food, pharmaceutical, and financial products. Commodity-based international corporations emerged in the 19th century with oil. The first global oil company was Standard Oil, founded by John D. Major companies in turn emerged in chemicals and in artificial fibers, in automobiles, in aircraft manufacturing, and then in virtually every industry in the second part of the 20th century. Multinationals The term "multinationals" came into currency during the same time to designate corporations that operated in at least two different countries but the actual use of the label applies to corporations that have a global presence. The term is used in a neutral sense simply to indicate very large size and participation in global markets. A more negative connotation of the term is that such corporations are effectively beyond the full reach of national laws because they have a presence in many locations, can move money and resources around at will, can sometimes escape taxation, and thus represent a power beyond public control. The "scoreboard" is based on unique products thus the "brand" label applied here and by definition excludes some very important multinationals that operate in unbranded commodities like crude oil, grains, food products, minerals and similar categories; Phillips, British Petroleum, and Shell, for instance, make the top but Aramco does not. Based on this scorecard, the U. Royal Dutch Petroleum, is listed as both British and

Dutch. The two largest industrial categories are electronics and software with 17 brands and autos and related with As Coca-Cola with its sweet soda leads the list so Heineken with its beer closes the list in the th spot. The most current data available in early were for the year ; all economic data lag the current time, but international data more so than national. Services are divided into transportation, travel, and the "other services" categories. Merchandise Trade The largest category of foreign trade is in machinery and transportation equipment, representing Fuels and Mining Products is second with The other major categories are Office and Telecom Equipment Just ten countries around the world represent Germany led the world in with a 10 percent share of all exports, followed by the U. Other leading exporters in order of share were China 6. At the top of world trading, anyway, the same countries were also the top importers, but not in the same order. The others were China 5. More interestingly, six of 10 countries achieved a trade surplus and the others had a trade deficit. Commercial Services In the export and import of commercial services, the U. The other leading exporters of services were United Kingdom 8. Countries that are part of the top 15 to which the U. On the import side, in addition to the largest trade partners, the top 15 import partners include Venezuela, Malaysia, Italy, Ireland, Saudi Arabia, and Nigeria. These listings are for trade results achieved in March , but looking back at intervals over several years, much the same results obtain. Related Parties When a company imports from or exports to a foreign-based element of its own companyâ€”to a branch, a subsidiary, or a partnerâ€”the goods or services nevertheless cross country borders and are handled as foreign trade. In , 47 percent of all U. These ratios have been fairly steady over time; the import ratio in was the same and the export ratio just one percentage point higher. Related party trading is, of course, an indirect measure of global-izationâ€”especially the rather high import percentage: Balanced trade means that exports will be the same as imports, one balancing the other. Exports generate the currency with which imports must be bought. A country that persistently experiences trade deficits slides into debt or dependency on foreign investmentâ€”the current situation of the U. The United States has experienced trade deficits continuously since ; it has been able to sustain its way of life only because of foreign investment here. Current trends point to continued and ever-growing trade deficits. The only bright spot in the picture is a trade surplus in the commercial services export category. Such surpluses, however, would have to increase fold based on data before they erased the merchandise trade deficit. The other alternatives open are as yet invisible innovations that lead to the creation of new, proprietary exports no one else can matchâ€”or a drastic diet of consumption so that imports take a dive and exports can catch up. The future will tell which way the problem will be resolved. The Wheels of Commerce. Retrieved on 19 May Oxford University Press, Retrieved on January 10, Bradford Jensen, and Peter K. A Portrait of Firms in the U.

Chapter 4 : Business Ethics (Stanford Encyclopedia of Philosophy)

A business license grants the owner the right to start and run a business. Stock Keeping Unit (SKU) A SKU is a unique code consisting of letters and numbers that identify characteristics about each product.

The first of these problems is already familiar from the previous discussion of the stages of capitalist development. Many critics have alleged that the capitalist system suffers from inherent instability that has characterized and plagued the system since the advent of industrialization. Such crises were once looked upon as pathological incidents or catastrophes in economic life, rather than as a normal part of it. The following examples represent some of the attempts theorists have made to explain and predict business cycles. Subsequent analysis designated the years , , , , , , , , , , and as initial years of a downswing i. The so-called Juglar cycle has often been regarded as the true, or major, economic cycle, but several smaller cycles have also been identified. Close study of the interval between the peaks of the Juglar cycle suggests that partial setbacks occur during the expansion , or upswing, and that there are partial recoveries during the contraction, or downswing. According to this theory, the smaller cycles generally coincide with changes in business inventories, lasting an average of 40 months. Other small cycles result from changes in the demand for and supply of particular agricultural products such as hogs, cotton, and beef. Kondratieff waves Cycles of greater duration than the Juglar cycle have also been studied. For example, the construction industry was found to have cycles of 17 to 18 years in the United States and 20 to 22 years in England. Measuring longer-term business cycles involves the study of long waves, or so-called Kondratieff cycles, which were named for the Russian economist Nikolay D. His examination of the major Western countries during the years from to identified three periods characterized by slow expansions and contractions of economic activity, each averaging 50 years in length: Some students of business cycles have analyzed them by statistical methods, in the hope of finding regularities that are not immediately apparent. One speculative theory has held that the larger cycles were built up from smaller ones. Thus, two seasonal cycles would produce a two-year cycle, two of which would produce a four-year cycle; two four-year cycles would become an eight-year, or Juglar, cycle, and so on. The hypothesis is not widely accepted. Patterns of economic depression and upswing Cycles of varying lengths are closely bound up with economic growth. In 19th-century Germany , for example, upswings in total economic activity were associated with the growth of the railroad, metallurgy, textile, and building industries. Periodic crises such as those outlined above in the discussion of the Juglar cycle brought slowdowns in growth. The crisis of led to a wave of financial and industrial bankruptcies; recovery started in , when iron production ceased to fall, and by a new upswing was under way. The recession of was less severe than the previous one, but a slump that began in led to a serious depression, with complaints of overproduction. The year was one of financial crisis also in England and the United States. The British banking house of Baring Brothers failed, partly because of a revolution in Argentina. English pig-iron production fell from 8. That depression might have been less severe but for the international financial crisis, especially intense in the United States, where in a stock market panic led to widespread bank failures. The recession of was followed by an unusually vigorous upsurge in almost all the Western economies. Prices rose more and more rapidly as the U. Deviations from cycle patterns Cycles are compounded of many elements. Historical fluctuations in economic activity cannot be explained entirely in terms of combinations of cycles and subcycles; there is always some factor left over, some element that does not fit the pattern of other fluctuations. It is possible, for example, to analyze a particular fluctuation into three principal components: But these components cannot be found exactly recombined in another fluctuation because of a residual element in the original fluctuation that does not have a cyclical form. If the residual is small, it might be attributed to errors of calculation or of measurement. For practical purposes, it would be useful to know the typical shape of a cycle and how to recognize its peak and trough. A great amount of work has been done in what may be called the morphology of cycles. In the United States, Arthur F. Burns and Wesley C. The object in such studies was to describe the shape of each specific cycle, to analyze its phases, to measure its duration and velocity, and to measure the amplitude or size of the cycle. Researchers using these methods have

identified a number of series, each of which reaches its turning point 2 to 10 months before the turns in general business activity, as well as another group of series, each of which follows the turns in business by 2 to 7 months. Examples of leading series include published data for new business orders, labour productivity, consumer demand, residential building contracts, stock market indices, and changes in business inventory. These and other leading indicators are widely used in economic forecasting. Dynamic analyses of cycles

Coincident with the Great Depression – one of the most severe economic downturns in modern times – the British economist John Maynard Keynes put forth a large body of economic theory that examined the relationship between investment and consumption. According to Keynes and other economists associated with his views, any new expenditure – e. This is so because those who are paid to build the road or factory will spend more of what they receive; their expenditures will thus become income for others, who will in their turn spend most of what they receive. Every new act of investment will, thus, have a stimulating effect on aggregate income. This relationship is known as the investment multiplier. Of itself, it cannot produce cyclical movements in the economy; it merely provides a positive impulse in an upward direction. Courtesy of the National Portrait Gallery, London To the relationship between investment and consumption must be added that between consumer demand and investment. An increase in demand for refrigerators, for example, may eventually require increased investment in the facilities for producing them. This relationship, known as the accelerator, implies that an increase in national income will stimulate investment. As with the multiplier, it cannot of itself explain cyclical movements; it merely accounts for a fundamental instability that Keynesians thought they had observed. It can be shown, however, that the multiplier and accelerator in combination may produce very strong cyclical movements. Thus, when an increase in investment occurs, it raises income by some larger amount, depending on the value of the multiplier. That increase in income may in turn induce a further increase in investment. The new investment will stimulate a further multiplier process, producing additional income and investment. In theory, the interaction might continue until a point is reached at which such resources as labour and capital are being fully utilized. At that point – with no increase in employment and, therefore, no rise in consumer demand – the operation of the accelerator would cease. That halt in demand, plus the lack of new capital, would cause new investment to decline and workers to be laid off. The process thus would go into reverse. The fluctuations in national income could take various forms, depending on the characteristics of the economy and the way in which the population allocated its income between consumption and savings. Such spending habits, of course, affect both the levels of consumer demand and capital investment. This theoretical analysis does not explain actual economic fluctuations; it is merely an aid to understanding them. See also Keynesian economics. The analysis can be made more realistic by taking into account three other factors. First, one may assume that although the economy has an inherent tendency to swing very widely, there are limits beyond which it cannot go. The upper limit of the swings would be the point at which full employment or full capacity is reached; the lower limit is more difficult to define, but it would be established when the forces that make for long-term economic growth begin to operate. Thus, the upswing of a cycle stops when it meets the upper limit; and the downswing stops at the lower limit, resulting in continuous cyclical movements with an overall upward trend – a pattern corresponding to the one found in history. The occurrence of a time lag – the inevitable delay between every decision to invest and the outcome of that investment – provides a second reason for expecting cyclical fluctuations to occur in any economic process. This phenomenon is illustrated, for example, in the relation between the action of a thermostat and the temperature of a room. A fall in room temperature causes the thermostat to turn on the heater, but there is a lag in time until the room warms up sufficiently to cause the thermostat to turn the heat off, whereupon the temperature begins to fall again. The shape of the curve of the temperature cycle will depend on the responsiveness of the thermostat and on the time required to raise the temperature of the room. By making various adjustments, it is possible to minimize the cycle, but it can never be eliminated entirely. In economic life, there are many such lags between the decision to invest and the completion of the project: Random shocks, or what economists call exogenous factors, constitute the third type of phenomena affecting business cycles. These are such external disturbances to the system as weather changes, unexpected discoveries, political changes, wars, and so on. It is possible for such external impulses to cause cyclical motions within

the system, in much the same way that striking a rocking horse with a stick will cause the horse to rock back and forth. The length of the cycle will be determined by the internal relationships of the system, but its intensity is governed by the external impulse. Theories of economic fluctuation Many explanations of the reasons for economic fluctuation have been advanced throughout history. Even the most rudimentary explanation of cycles must isolate the forces and relationships that tend to produce these recurrent movements. The more comprehensive theories must in addition explain why, during downturns, 1 employment falls and unemployment increases and 2 investment declines by a much greater percent than output. Agricultural and climatic theories Perhaps the oldest theories of the business cycle are those that link their cause to fluctuations of the harvest. Since crops depend upon soil, climate, and other natural factors that in turn may be affected by biological or meteorological cycles, such cycles will transmit their effects through the harvests to the rest of the economy. The 19th-century British economist William Stanley Jevons thought he had found the key to such a process in the behaviour of sunspots, which seemed to display a year cycle. It attracted a certain interest, however, for suggesting a causal factor that was completely detached from the economic system and one that could not be influenced by it in turn. Agricultural theories made sense in the 19th century and earlier, when agricultural products represented between 40 and 60 percent of the output of advanced economies. William Stanley Jevons, engraving. Psychological theories A number of writers have explored mass psychology and its consequences for economic behaviour. Individuals are strongly influenced by the beliefs of the group or groups to which they belong. There are times when the general mood is optimistic and others when it is pessimistic. British economist Arthur C. But if they imitate each other, their errors will accumulate, eventually acquiring a global magnitude that may have powerful economic effects. One can say, however, that this psychological factor is not enough to explain economic fluctuations; rather, moods of optimism and pessimism themselves are probably rooted in economic factors. Political theories Some observers have maintained that economic fluctuations result from political events. Even the imposition of a tax or an import restriction may have some dynamic effect upon the economy. In the United States, for example, some economists have speculated that incumbent political leaders pressure the chairman of the Federal Reserve System to loosen monetary policy in advance of an election as a means of fostering prosperity. It remains to be determined whether such political factors are capable of producing cyclical movements. Technological theories Ever since the start of the Industrial Revolution at the end of the 18th century, technical innovations have followed each other without end but not without pause. For example, cycles of rapid growth and measured accommodation took place after the introduction of the steam engine , the development of petroleum-based energy sources, the harnessing of electric power , and the invention of the computer and the creation of the Internet. It is possible that, if a rhythm could be found in these waves of change, the same rhythm might be responsible for corresponding movements in the economy.

Chapter 5 : Business - Simple English Wikipedia, the free encyclopedia

Encyclopedia of Business, 2nd ed. A-Ar Contains articles like Absenteeism, Absorption Accounting, Accounting, Active Management (Fixed Income), Advertising, Affirmative Action, African Management Methods, Age and Employment, Agency for International Development (AID), Agency Theory, etc.

Business Information Sources Business Information Sources Business information comes in general surveys, data, articles, books, references, search-engines, and internal records that a business can use to guide its planning, operations, and the evaluation of its activities. Such information also comes from friends, customers, associates, and vendors. Published sources may be daily newspapers; financial, trade, and association magazines; databases, government statistics, directories, technical manuals, and much else. In effect, since "information" is defined more by context than by content, business information is whatever information helps a business know its environment. Writing in his book *Business Information*: Lavin commented that business information is of tremendous value in problem solving and strategic planning: Information is critical in keeping tabs on the competition by watching new product developments, shifts in market share, individual company performance, and overall industry trends. Intelligence helps managers anticipate legal and political changes, and monitor economic conditions in the United States and abroad. In short, intelligence can provide answers to two key business questions: How am I doing? Print Information The category of print covers not only a vast array of books and periodicals, but also includes microfilm and microfiche, newsletters, and other subcategories. State and federal government reports also fit into this category; indeed, Lavin described the U. Government Printing Office as "the largest publisher in the free world; its products can be purchased by mail, telephone or through GPO bookstores in major cities. Certainly business owners have a wide array of book titles to choose from, many of which find their way onto the shelves of public, business, and university libraries every year. In addition to books that provide general reference information on human resources management, start-up financing, product development, establishing a home-based business, and a plethora of other topics of interest to small business owners, the publishing industry has seen a surge of books that tackle more philosophical issues, such as balancing work and family life, establishing healthy personal interactions with co-workers and employees, the nature of entrepreneurial activity, and many others. Many other small business owners, meanwhile, get a considerable amount of their business information from print sources. As with books, entrepreneurs and established business owners as well as corporate executives, human resource managers, and nearly every other category of person involved in business can turn to a variety of periodical sources, each with its own target niche. Some magazines and newspapers, such as *Business Week* and *Wall Street Journal*, provide general interest coverage, while others *Forbes*, *Fortune* provide more of an emphasis on subjects of interest to investors and executives in large firms. Still others--most notably *Inc.* *Chamber of Commerce* --publish information specifically targeted at small business owners. These magazines can provide entrepreneurs with helpful information on every aspect of operations, from creating a good business plan to determining which computer system is most appropriate for your enterprise. Then there are the trade journals, an enormous subsection of print aimed at very select audiences. These trade journals, which typically provide narrow coverage of specific industries journals targeted at owners of bakeries, amusement parks, real estate businesses, grocery stores, and a variety of other businesses can all be found , often contain valuable industry-specific information. Finally, both government agencies and educational institutions publish a wide variety of pamphlets, brochures, and newsletters on a range of issues of interest to small business owners and would-be entrepreneurs. While government brochures and reports have long been a favored source of business information--in some measure because many of these documents are available free of charge--consultants indicate that valuable studies and reports compiled by educational institutions are often underutilized by large and small companies alike. Television and Radio Media This source of business information is perhaps the least helpful of the various external sources available to small business owners. Programs devoted to general investment strategies and the changing fortunes of large companies can be found, of course, but the broad-based nature of broadcasting makes it difficult, if not impossible, to launch programs aimed at narrow

niche audiences like dental instrument manufacturers or accounting firms, for example. Online Information As we advance into the first decade of the 21st century, the ever-greater speed and scope of the Internet is beginning to turn the Web into the most powerful source of information for the small business. With appropriate subscription services like InfoTrac, even access to print sources is easier to achieve than actually searching newspapers or trade magazines. Search skills, of course, must be developed, but the small business owner can practice this art in the evenings when libraries and bookstores are closed. Many of these databases offer information pertinent to the activities of business owners. As Ying Xu and Ken Ryan observed in Business Forum, the Internet includes data on demographics and markets, economics and business, finance and banking, international trade, foreign statistics, economic trends, investment information, and government regulations and laws. This information is provided by Internet news groups, online versions of newspapers and magazines, and trade associations. In addition, "many colleges, universities, libraries, research groups, and public bodies make information freely available to anyone with an Internet connection," stated Robert Fabian in CMA--The Management Accounting Magazine. But it can be less costly to provide general access than to screen access. The range of available information is impressive. As the name implies, CD-ROM is not so much an interactive system; in usage it is close to traditional print. The primary drawback associated with business CD-ROM products is the absence of current information, although many publishers of CD-ROM products offer updates on an annual--or even more frequent--basis. The CD-ROM as an information delivery system is now facing increasing competition from subscription-based online services. The growing speed of the Internet when accessed by cable or DSL lines is making large down-loads from the Web less of a frustration; at the same time very rapid updates to the databases consulted are available to the user. But researchers note that members of the business community often rely on personal contact for a great deal of their information. A knowledgeable friend or colleague will often provide, not only the facts requested, but also advice, encouragement, and moral support. Any organization is a complex information processing system in which actions and decisions are underpinned by an array of oral and written instructions, reports, regulations, information, and advice. University of California Press, Metadata for Information Management and Retrieval. Ying Xu and Ken Ryan. Free Access to Internet Business Resources.

Chapter 6 : Business Plot - Wikipedia

Introducing the Business Pundit Encyclopedia Businesspedia. Here, we define business terms in a way that you can understand. We come at our terms from an insider's perspective, so you'll learn things that the average definition might not tell you.

Background[edit] Butler and the veterans[edit] Shacks, erected by the Bonus Army on the Anacostia flats, burning after being set on fire by the US military Main article: Waters , a former Army sergeant , led this " Bonus Army ". Smedley Butler ; as a popular military figure of the time, Butler had some influence over the veterans. Army cavalry troops under the command of Gen. Douglas MacArthur destroyed their camps. Butler, although a self-described Republican , responded by supporting Franklin D. Roosevelt in the US presidential election. They viewed a currency not solidly backed by gold as inflationary , undermining both private and business fortunes and leading to national bankruptcy. Roosevelt was damned as a socialist or Communist out to destroy private enterprise by sapping the gold backing of wealth in order to subsidize the poor. On November 24 the committee released a statement detailing the testimony it had heard about the plot and its preliminary findings. On February 15, , the committee submitted its final report to the House of Representatives. MacGuire attempted to recruit him to lead a coup, promising him an army of , men for a march on Washington, DC , and financial backing. Given a successful coup, Butler said that the plan was for him to have held near-absolute power in the newly created position of "Secretary of General Affairs", while Roosevelt would have assumed a figurehead role. Those implicated in the plot by Butler all denied any involvement. MacGuire was the only figure identified by Butler who testified before the committee. Others Butler accused were not called to appear to testify because the "committee has had no evidence before it that would in the slightest degree warrant calling before it such men The committee will not take cognizance of names brought into testimony which constitute mere hearsay. Spivak published the first of two articles in the communist magazine New Masses , revealing portions of the Congressional committee testimony that had been redacted as hearsay. Spivak argued that the plot was part of a "conspiracy of Jewish financiers working with fascist groups", referring specifically to Felix Warburg , the McCormackâ€”Dickstein Committee, and certain members of the American Jewish Committee in collusion with J. Hans Schmidt concludes that while Spivak made a cogent argument for taking the suppressed testimony seriously, he embellished his article with his "overblown" claims regarding Jewish financiers, which Schmidt dismisses as guilt by association not supported by the evidence of the Butler-MacGuire conversations themselves. His attending doctor at the hospital attributed the death to pneumonia and its complications, but also said that the accusations against MacGuire had led to his weakened condition and collapse which in turn led to the pneumonia. This section possibly contains synthesis of material which does not verifiably mention or relate to the main topic. Relevant discussion may be found on the talk page. He stated that they offered to get hundreds of supporters at the American Legion convention to ask for a speech. Around August 1, MacGuire visited Butler alone. Clark when he was a second lieutenant in China during the Boxer Rebellion. Clark had been nicknamed "the millionaire lieutenant". On November 20 the Committee began examining evidence. This committee has had no evidence before it that would in the slightest degree warrant calling before it such men as John W. The committee will not take cognizance of names brought into the testimony which constitute mere hearsay. This committee is not concerned with premature newspaper accounts especially when given and published prior to the taking of the testimony. As the result of information which has been in possession of this committee for some time, it was decided to hear the story of Maj. Butler and such others as might have knowledge germane to the issue. The Congressional committee final report said: No evidence was presented and this committee had none to show a connection between this effort and any fascist activity of any European country. There is no question that these attempts were discussed, were planned, and might have been placed in execution when and if the financial backers deemed it expedient. This committee received evidence from Maj. Butler retired , twice decorated by the Congress of the United States. He testified before the committee as to conversations with one Gerald C. MacGuire in which the latter is alleged to have suggested the formation of a fascist army

under the leadership of General Butler. MacGuire denied these allegations under oath, but your committee was able to verify all the pertinent statements made by General Butler, with the exception of the direct statement suggesting the creation of the organization. This, however, was corroborated in the correspondence of MacGuire with his principal, Robert Sterling Clark, of New York City, while MacGuire was abroad studying the various forms of veterans organizations of Fascist character. Morgan called it "perfect moonshine". Douglas MacArthur, alleged to be the back-up leader of the putsch if Butler declined, referred to it as "the best laugh story of the year. When the committee released its report, editorials remained skeptical. Butler, retired, according to testimony at a hearing, was actually contemplated. Van Zandt stated to the press, "Less than two months" after Gen. Burk wrote, "At their core, the accusations probably consisted of a mixture of actual attempts at influence peddling by a small core of financiers with ties to veterans organizations and the self-serving accusations of Butler against the enemies of his pacifist and populist causes. He may have been working both ends against the middle, as Butler at one point suspected. In any case, MacGuire emerged from the HUAC hearings as an inconsequential trickster whose base dealings could not possibly be taken alone as verifying such a momentous undertaking. If he was acting as an intermediary in a genuine probe, or as agent provocateur sent to fool Butler, his employers were at least clever enough to keep their distance and see to it that he self-destructed on the witness stand.

Chapter 7 : Oxford Research Encyclopedia of Business and Management

Business PRIVATELY OWNED BUSINESS [1] GOVERNMENT-OWNED BUSINESS [2] NONPROFITS [3] COOPERATIVES [4] INTERNATIONAL BUSINESS [5] E-BUSINESS [6] BIBLIOGRAPHY [7] Business is a commercial activity engaged in as a means of livelihood or profit, or an entity that engages in such activities.

Varieties of business ethics Many people engaged in business activity, including accountants and lawyers, are professionals. As such, they are bound by codes of conduct promulgated by professional societies. Many firms also have detailed codes of conduct, developed and enforced by teams of ethics and compliance personnel. Business ethics can thus be understood as the study of professional practices, i. This entry will not consider this form of business ethics. Instead, it considers business ethics as an academic discipline. Business ethics as an academic discipline is populated by both social scientists and normative theorists. This is reflected in the attendees of academic conferences in business ethics and the types of articles that are published in business ethics journals. Social scientistsâ€™who at this point comprise the largest group within the fieldâ€™approach the study of business ethics descriptively. They try to answer questions like: Does corporate social performance improve corporate financial performance, i. I will not consider such questions here. This entry focuses on questions in normative business ethics, most of which are variants on the question: What is ethical and unethical in business? Considered only as a normative enterprise, business ethicsâ€™like many areas of applied ethicsâ€™draws from a variety of disciplines, including ethics, political philosophy, economics, psychology, law, and public policy. This is because remedies for unethical behavior in business can take various forms, from exhortations directed at private individuals to change their behavior to new laws, policies, and regulations. One is that the means of production can be privately owned. A second is that marketsâ€™featuring voluntary exchanges between buyers and sellers at mutually determined pricesâ€™should play an important role in the allocation of resources. Those who deny these assumptions will see some debates in business ethics e. Merck and Wal-Mart are examples of the first type organization; Princeton University and the Metropolitan Museum of Art are examples of the second. Business ethicists sometimes concern themselves with the activities of non-profit organizations, but more commonly focus on for-profit organizations. Indeed, most people probably understand businesses as for-profit organizations. Corporate moral agency One way to think about business ethics is in terms of the moral obligations of agents engaged in business activity. Who is a moral agent? To be precise, the question is whether firms are moral agents and morally responsible considered as qua firms, not considered as aggregates of individual members of firms. In the business ethics literature, French is a seminal thinker on this topic. He bases this conclusion on his claim that firms have internal decision-making structures, through which they 1 cause events to happen, and 2 act intentionally. Donaldson claims that firms cannot be persons because they lack important human capacities, such as the ability to pursue their own happiness see also Werhane Other responses denied that firms are moral agents also. Velasquez argues that firms lack a necessary condition of agency, viz. In later work, French recanted his claim that firms are moral persons, though not his claim that they are moral agents. Discussions of corporate moral agency and moral responsibility have largely faded from the business ethics literature as of But they continue to receive attention in the mainstream philosophical literature, where they are treated with a high degree of sophistication. Here the focus is on collectives more generally, with the business firm playing a role as an example of a collective. As in the business ethics literature, in the mainstream philosophical literature a key question is: What are the conditions for moral agency and responsibility, such that collectives qua collectives, including firms, do or do not satisfy them? This view has strong intuitive appeal. We routinely say things like: On the other side are writers who deny that firms can be moral agents, such as Gilbert , S. A claim advanced on this side is that agency requires intention, and firms are not the kinds of things that can have intentions S. The common way of speaking about the agency and responsibility of firms may be metaphorical, or a shorthand way of referring to the agency and responsibility of individuals within firms. For discussions of these issues, see the entries on collective responsibility , collective intentionality , and shared agency. While the question of whether firms themselves are moral agents is of theoretical interest, its practical

import is uncertain. Perhaps BP itself was morally responsible for polluting the Gulf of Mexico. Perhaps certain individuals who work at BP were. What hangs on this? According to Hasnas, very little. Firms such as BP can be legally required to pay restitution for harms they cause even if they are not morally responsible for them. What ascribing agency and responsibility to firms enables us to do, according to Hasnas, is blame and punish them. But, he argues, we should not engage in this practice. Phillips, by contrast, argues that in some cases no individual employee in a firm is responsible for the harm a firm causes. To the extent that it makes sense—and it often does, he believes—to assign responsibility for the harm, it must be assigned to the firm itself. The ends and means of corporate governance

There is significant debate about the ends and means of corporate governance, i. Much of this debate is carried on with the large publicly-traded corporation in view. There are two main views about the proper ends of corporate governance. According to one view, firms should be managed in the best interests of shareholders. Shareholder primacy is the dominant view about the ends of corporate governance among financial professionals and in business schools. A few writers argue for shareholder primacy on deontological grounds. On this argument, shareholders own the firm, and hire managers to run it for them on the condition that the firm is managed in their interests. Shareholder primacy is thus based on a promise that managers make to shareholders Friedman; Hasnas. In response, some argue that shareholders do not own the firm. They own stock, a type of corporate security Bainbridge; Stout; the firm itself may be unowned Strudler. Others argue that managers do not make, explicitly or implicitly, any promises to shareholders to manage the firm in a certain way Boatright. More writers argue for shareholder primacy on consequentialist grounds. In support of this, some argue that, if managers are not given a single objective that is clear and measurable—viz. Consequentialist arguments for shareholder primacy run into problems that afflict many versions of consequentialism: Most think that people should be able to pursue projects, including economic projects, that matter to them, even if those projects do not maximize welfare. The second main view about the proper ends of corporate governance is given by stakeholder theory. To its critics, stakeholder theory has seemed both insufficiently articulated and weakly defended. With respect to articulation, one question that has been pressed is: The groups most commonly identified are shareholders, employees, the community, suppliers, and customers. But other groups have stakes in the firm, including creditors, the government, and competitors. It makes a great deal of difference where the line is drawn, but stakeholder theorists have not provided a clear rationale for drawing a line in one place rather than another. With respect to defense, critics have wondered what the rationale for managing firms in the interests of all stakeholders is. This is precisely what defenders of shareholder primacy say about that view. It is important to realize that a resolution of the debate between shareholder and stakeholder theorists however we conceive of the latter will not resolve all or even most of the ethical questions in business. This is because this is a debate about the ends of corporate governance; it cannot answer all of the questions about the moral constraints that must be observed in pursuit of those ends Goodpaster; Norman. Rather, these views should be interpreted as views that managers should do whatever is morally permissible to achieve these ends. A large part of business ethics is trying to determine what morality permits in this domain. Answers to questions about the means of corporate governance often mirror answers to question about the ends of corporate governance. Often the best way to ensure that a firm is managed in the interests of a certain party P is to give P control over it. We might see control rights for shareholders as following analytically from the concept of ownership. To own a thing is to have a bundle of rights with respect to that thing. As noted, in recent years the idea that the firm is something that can be owned has been challenged Bainbridge; Strudler. But contractarian arguments for shareholder control of firms have been constructed which do not rely on the assumption of firm ownership. All that is assumed in these arguments is that some people own capital, and others own labor. It just so happens that, in most cases, capital hires labor. Many writers find this result troubling. Even if the governance structure in most firms is in some sense agreed to, they say that it is unjust in other ways. Anderson characterizes standard corporate governance regimes as oppressive and unaccountable private dictatorships. Arguments for these governance structures take various forms. According to it, if states should be governed democratically, then so should firms, because firms are like states in the relevant respects Dahl; Walzer. A fourth argument for worker participation in firm decision-making sees it as valuable or even necessary training for participation

in political processes in the broader society Cohen Space considerations prevent a detailed examination of these arguments. But criticisms generally fall into two categories. The first insists on the normative priority of agreements, of the sort described above. There are few legal restrictions on the types of governance structures that firms can have. And some firms are in fact controlled by workers Dow ; Hansmann To insist that other firms should be governed this way is to say, according to this argument, that people should not be allowed to arrange their economic lives as they see fit.

The Business of Wine: An Encyclopedia is a necessary part of wine education for everyone from the curious consumer to the oenophile or business student and industry.

Calculated from Rebecca Horn, *Postconquest Coyoacan*: Stanford University Press, , p. The overall role of Mexico within the Hapsburg Empire was in flux as well. Nothing signals the change as much as the emergence of silver mining as the principal source of Mexican exportables in the second half of the sixteenth century. Silver Mining While silver mining and smelting was practiced before the conquest, it was never a focal point of indigenous activity. But for the Europeans, Mexico was largely about silver mining. Again, there has been much controversy of the precise amounts of silver that Mexico sent to the Iberian Peninsula. What we do know certainly is that Mexico and the Spanish Empire became the leading source of silver, monetary reserves, and thus, of high-powered money. Over the course of the colonial period, most sources agree that Mexico provided nearly 2 billion pesos dollars or roughly 1. The graph below provides a picture of the remissions of all Mexican silver to both Spain and to the Philippines taken from the work of John TePaske. This production has to be considered in both its domestic and international dimensions. The residual claimants on silver production were many and varied. There were, of course the silver miners themselves in Mexico and their merchant financiers and suppliers. They ranged from some of the wealthiest people in the world at the time, such as the Count of Regla , who donated warships to Spain in the eighteenth century, to individual natives in Zacatecas smelting their own stocks of silver ore. In the Iberian Peninsula, income from American silver mines ultimately supported not only a class of merchant entrepreneurs in the large port cities, but virtually the core of the Spanish political nation, including monarchs, royal officials, churchmen, the military and more. And finally, silver flowed to those who valued it most highly throughout the world. Mining centers tended to crowd out growth elsewhere because the rate of return for successful mines exceeded what could be gotten in commerce, agriculture and manufacturing. Because silver was the numeraire for Mexican pricesâ€”Mexico was effectively on a silver standardâ€”variations in silver production could and did have substantial effects on real economic activity elsewhere in New Spain. For this reason, the expansion of Mexican silver production in the years after was never unambiguously accompanied by overall, as opposed to localized prosperity. Mexican silver accounted for well over three-quarters of exports by value into the nineteenth century as well. If there was any threat to the American Empire, royal officials thought that Mexico, and increasingly, Cuba, were worth holding on to. From a fiscal standpoint, Mexico had become just that important. The ensuing conflict, known as the War of Spanish Succession, came to an end in The dynasty he represented was known as the Bourbons. For the next century of so, they were to determine the fortunes of New Spain. One of them dealt with raising revenue and the other was the international position of the imperial economy, specifically, the volume and value of trade. A series of statistics calculated by Richard Garner shows that the share of Mexican output or estimated GDP taken by taxes grew by percent between and The number of taxes collected by the Royal Treasury increased from 34 to between and An entire array of new taxes and fiscal placemen came to Mexico. They affected and alienated everyone, from the wealthiest merchant to the humblest villager. If they did nothing else, the Bourbons proved to be expert tax collectors. From the mid-sixteenth century onwards, ocean-going trade between Spain and the Americas was, in theory, at least, closely regulated and supervised. Ships in convoy flota sailed together annually under license from the monarchy and returned together as well. Since so much silver specie was carried, the system made sense, even if the flotas made a tempting target and the problem of contraband was immense. The point of departure was Seville and later, Cadiz. Under pressure from other outports in the late eighteenth century, the system was finally relaxed. As a consequence, the volume and value of trade to Mexico increased as the price of importables fell. Import-competing industries in Mexico, especially textiles, suffered under competition and established merchants complained that the new system of trade was too loose. But to no avail. There is no measure of the barter terms of trade for the eighteenth century, but anecdotal evidence suggests they improved for Mexico. Admittedly, looking for modern economic growth in Mexico in the eighteenth century is an

anachronism, although there is at least anecdotal evidence of technological change in silver mining, especially in the use of gunpowder for blasting and excavating, and of some productivity increase in silver mining. So even though the share of international trade outside of goods such as cochineal and silver was quite small, at the margin, changes in the trade regime were important. There is also some indication that asset income rose and labor income fell, which fueled growing social tensions in New Spain. In the last analysis, the growing fiscal pressure of the Spanish empire came when the standard of living for most people in Mexico—the native and mixed blood population—was stagnating. During periodic subsistence crisis, especially those propagated by drought and epidemic disease, and mostly in the s, living standards fell. Many historians think of late colonial Mexico as something of a powder keg waiting to explode. When it did, in , the explosion was the result of a political crisis at home and a dynastic failure abroad. What New Spain had negotiated during the Wars of Spanish Succession—“regime change”—provide impossible to surmount during the Napoleonic Wars. Internal commerce was largely paralyzed. Silver mining essentially collapsed between and and a full recovery of mining output was delayed until the s. Thus neglected, they quickly flooded. At the same time, the fiscal and human costs of this period, the Insurgency, were even greater. With a reduced fiscal capacity, in part the legacy of the Insurgency and in part the deliberate effort of Mexican elites to resist any repetition Bourbon-style taxation, Mexico defaulted on its foreign debt in . For the next sixty years, through a serpentine history of moratoria, restructuring and repudiation , it took until for the government to regain access to international capital markets, at what cost can only be imagined. Private sector borrowing and lending continued, although to what extent is currently unknown. What is clear is that the total internal plus external indebtedness of Mexico relative to late colonial GDP was somewhere in the range of 47 to 56 percent. Leaving aside simple questions of uncertainty, there is the very real matter that the national government—“whatever the state of private wealth”—lacked the capacity to service debt because national and regional elites denied it the means to do so. This issue would bedevil successive regimes into the late nineteenth century, and, indeed, into the twentieth. A rough estimate of output per head in the late colonial period was perhaps 40 pesos dollars. By the time United States troops crossed the Rio Grande, a recovery had been under way, but the war arrested it. Further political turmoil and civil war in the s and s represented setbacks as well. In this way, a half century or so of potential economic growth was sacrificed from the s through the s. This was not an uncommon experience in Latin America in the nineteenth century, and the period has even been called The Stage of the Great Delay. Agricultural Recovery and War On the other hand, it is clear that there was a recovery in agriculture in the central regions of the country, most notably in the staple maize crop and in wheat. The famines of the late colonial era, especially of , when massive numbers perished, were not repeated. There were years of scarcity and periodic corresponding outbreaks of epidemic disease—the cholera epidemic of affected Mexico as it did so many other places—but by and large, the dramatic human wastage of the colonial period ceased, and the death rate does appear to have begun to fall. Very good series on wheat deliveries and retail sales taxes for the city of Puebla southeast of Mexico City show a similarly strong recovery in the s and early s, punctuated only by the cholera epidemic whose effects were felt everywhere. It is not possible to put numbers on the cost of the war to Mexico, which lasted intermittently from to , but the loss of what had been the Southwest under Mexico is most often emphasized. This may or may not be accurate. Certainly, the loss of California, where gold was discovered in January , weighs heavily on the historical imaginations of modern Mexicans. In the long run, the loss may have been staggering, but in the short run, much less so. The northern territories Mexico lost had really yielded very little up until the War. In fact, the balance of costs and revenues to the Mexican government may well have been negative. The reasons are several. In , the government essentially went broke. While it is true that its financial position had disintegrated since the mids, marked a turning point. The entire indemnity payment from the United States was consumed in debt service, but this made no appreciable dent in the outstanding principal, which hovered around 50 million pesos dollars. The limits of debt sustainability had been reached: While only the French actively prosecuted the war within Mexico, and while they never controlled more than a very small part of the country, the disruption was substantial. By , with Maximilian deposed and the French army withdrawn, the country required serious reconstruction. Their beginnings actually went back several decades earlier, to the last

presidency of Santa Anna, generally known as the Dictatorship. But Santa Anna was overthrown too quickly, and now for the last time, for much to have actually occurred. A ministry for development Fomento had been created, but the Liberal revolution of Ayutla swept Santa Anna and his clique away for good. So it is appropriate to pick up with the story here. Where did Mexico stand in ? For the moment, let us look at the period leading up to , when the French withdrew from Mexico. Since the share of the illiterate population was clearly larger, we might infer that living standards for most Mexicans declined after , however we interpret other quantitative and anecdotal evidence. The regimes after were faced with stagnation. Real per capita output oscillated, sometimes sharply, around an underlying growth rate of perhaps one percent; changes in the distribution of income and wealth are more or less impossible to identify consistently, because studies conflict. Its key elements were the creation of a secular, bourgeois state and secular institutions embedded in the Constitution of . This was the beginning of the end of the Ancien Regime. This was effectively the largest transfer of land title since the late sixteenth century not including the war with the United States and it cemented the idea of individual property rights. With the expulsion of the French and the outright repudiation of the French debt, the Treasury was reorganized along more modern lines. Equally, if not more important, Mexico now entered the railroad age in , nearly forty years after the first tracks were laid in Cuba in . The educational system was expanded in an attempt to create at least a core of literate citizens who could adopt the tools of modern finance and technology. Literacy still remained in the neighborhood of 20 percent, and life expectancy at birth scarcely reached 40 years of age, if that. Yet by the end of the Restored Republic , Mexico had turned a corner. It was a rural, agrarian nation whose primary agricultural output per person was maize, followed by wheat and beans. For the most part, the indigenous population lived on maize, beans, and chile, producing its own subsistence on small, scattered plots known as milpas.

Chapter 9 : Encyclopedia of Business, 2nd ed.

Business is the activity of making one's living or making money by producing or buying and selling products (such as goods and services). [1] [2] [need quotation to verify] [3] [4] Simply put, it is "any activity or enterprise entered into for profit.

Jump to navigation Jump to search Retail business A business is an organization where people work together. In a business, people work to make and sell products or services. Other people buy the products and services. The business owner is the person who hires people for work. A business can earn a profit for the products and services it offers. The word business comes from the word busy, and means doing things. Originally, individual trades people were qualified, and they hired assistants. The invention of the joint-stock company meant a new era in business. There is a law which says this kind of company is a " legal entity ": In this way, a company can outlive the people who started it. This idea was invented in medieval times, but really flowered in the 19th century. Most businesses are created for commerce. There are big and small businesses. For example, one person can open a small barber -shop. A big business, like Microsoft , employs thousands of people all over the world. Some businesses need fixed locations. Examples are an office , store, or farm. For some businesses the worker goes to different locations. Examples are carpenters or electricians. They usually bring everything they need for work in their truck. Business can also mean the work or current state of a business. A business owner might say: The term can also be used in a more general way. As a noun, it can be used, for example, to speak about a broad area of activity "Business is of great importance in any society. As an adjective, it can be used in a similarly broad way; we may speak of "the business community" or "the business world". Retrieved 4 May The development of the business corporation in England, â€”