

The Sustainability of Newly Diversified Fully-Owned Subsidiaries: Production Efficiency and Strategic Diversifications

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Abstract

A diversification strategy is highlighted as a strategic shortcut to penetrate into new business fields while it is a useful way to construct business portfolios as well. From the perspective of parents, autonomy that is given to newly diversified subsidiaries trades off with their governance on fully-owned subsidiaries. Parents become to make strategic decisions based on input-output efficiency when it comes to the longevity of newly diversified subsidiaries. In the paper, we investigate how the longevity of newly diversified subsidiaries are determined taking internal technology shocks and exogenously given market shocks into consideration. For this purpose, a game-theoretic investment game is constructed, which predicts that parents are generically inclined to liquidate their subsidiaries in newly diversified business fields in the long-run. In particular, between the market shocks and the technology shocks, the formers are more likely to affect the sustainability of subsidiaries. Our simulation work supports the theoretic predictions of the game model exactly; when other conditions are equal, the market shocks can expand parents' total net profits compared to the technology shocks. This outcome can explain why subsidiary termination frequently occurs in highly competitive technological areas characterized by volatile market environments.

Keywords: *Diversification, sustainability, strategic investment, sustainability, performance*

1. Introduction

Diversification is highlighted as a way of constructing business portfolios and for active foreign penetration in the pursuit of globalization [8]. For instance, [1] suggests that foreign diversification for constructing business portfolios can tolerate domestic profit volatility [7], which indicates that diversification can reduce investor's heterogeneous belief on firm performance [9]. A sequential-investment strategy can be also viewed as a way for diversification [18].

No matter what diversification types are business risks are generically embedded because firms that enter new business fields are exposed to either internal technology shocks or exogenous market shocks, or the mixture of them. In those industries characterized by rapid technological advancement, such business risks are perceived as structural ones. Own internal technology shocks highlight firms' capability to develop newer innovations, which can improve firm performances [12]. One important notion in a diversification strategy is that there exist larger diversification opportunities in immature industries [5, 4, 19].

These two factors become to formulate the product life cycle (PLC) of any subsidiaries designed to diversify into new fields. It is worthy while to note that both types of shocks can affect the longevity of newly diversified subsidiaries. For instance, technological discontinuity or demand-side discontinuity can occur; they can create inefficiency in the

product life cycle of subsidiaries. Fundamentally, it needs to be acknowledged that both types of shocks, if they are unfavorable ones, can cause production inefficiencies and volatility because they become to affect the expected net profits of subsidiaries. This feature can induce parents to liquidate newly diversified subsidiaries from the long-term perspective. In competitive high-tech industries, unfavorable shocks can frequently cause technological discontinuities. Unless, firms adapt to exogenous shocks efficiently, they are likely to fail [10-11].

A few previous works highlight the contributions of firm effects and industry effects on firm performances [13, 15, 17, 21]. In general, firm effects rather than industry effects play a more important role in shaping the performance of enterprises. In particular, [20] and [22] suggest that firm effects critically determine the strategic investments of newly established but rapidly growing startups. However, these previous works are limitedly applicable to those firms established for diversification purposes because they apply the firm and industry effects directly to gauging firm performances. In contrast, we would like to tackle how diversifications into new business areas through fully owned subsidiaries occur and how such subsidiaries can be sustainable taking their longevity into consideration. Subsidiaries may be able to pass an early stage owing to parents' initial fixed investments but it is not certain if they are able to survive persistently during a later stage. As long as input-output operation is efficient, then their longevity may be secured. Unless subsidiary-wise own investments are not effective, inefficiency in production will deter their sustainability.

By this sense, subsidiaries' self autonomy plays an important role in their longevity; however, it is important to acknowledge that autonomy on newly diversified subsidiaries incurs additional costs to parents [6]. In particular, autonomy can distort headquarters decision on subsidiary's longevity as higher the business volatility is. [16] points out that the quality of governance on subsidiary is proportional to the financial sequence attributable to global diversification. In relation to autonomy, subsidiaries are able to maintain autonomy as long as their productions are efficient. A naturally intriguing question is what will happen in the long-run if subsidiary's input-output operation is generically inefficient.

In the paper, we construct a game-theoretic model for drawing out testable propositions. In particular, the model is designed to explore how fully-owned subsidiaries that are diversified into new business fields can be launched, how total investment on subsidiaries, which is composed of parent's initial fixed investment and subsidiary-wise own investment, is determined, and, between exogenous market shock and internal technology shock, which one plays a more important role in the sustainability of newly diversified fully-owned subsidiary.

The paper is organized as follows. In Section 2, an investment game is constructed, which derives theoretic predictions on the performance of newly diversified subsidiaries along to their sustainability. A simulation experiment is prepared in Section 3, and Section 4 discusses some simulation results. Section 5 summarizes the main findings of the paper along to conclusion remarks.

2. The Investment Game

2.1. A Diversification Strategy

An entrepreneurial firm i diversifies into a newly emerging business area denoted as J by establishing a new fully-owned subsidiary denoted as S_i . It is frequently observed that firms establish new divisions for the purpose of diversification because they are inclined to take advantage of firm-specific internal capital markets. S_i is different from spin-offs or spinouts because it is wholly owned by i .

The utility from S_i is a twice differentiable log linear function. In order to launch S_i ,

a fixed investment, denoted as f , is required and it determines S_i 's size initially. S_i needs to invest its own-investment, *i.e.* z , since its initial take-off. z represents any types of capital expenditures including R&D investment and capital goods investment. In our context, f represents a fixed cost and z can be understood as a variable cost. S_i is required to afford f and z simultaneously throughout its life cycle. S_i can earn M_i with a probability of p , whereas it can wastes K vainly with a probability of $1 - p$; the expected income from S_i is $pM_i - (1 - p)K$.¹ This means that i 's diversification may not be always successful because such business risks as technological discontinuity or demand uncertainty are embedded in penetrating into J . i 's total utility under S_i is defined as a linear combination given as (1).

$$\ln(M - f) + \ln\{pM_i - (1 - p)K - z\} + \ln(f + z) \quad (1)$$

M is i 's own income from existing businesses and i needs to afford f in order to launch S_i . Thus, the net own income of i is defined as $\ln(M - f)$. The subsidiary S_i can earn the net income of $\ln\{pM_i - (1 - p)K - z\}$, which indicates that the subsidiary has to invest z . Typically, new divisions are smaller than their parents in real business practices because the parent i cannot afford to launch S_i otherwise. At the meanwhile, we do not deny a possibility that S_i grows as large as i , or even bigger than the parent firm. Throughout the evolution of S_i , such event will hardly occur because the parent firm cannot initiate S_i indeed if its opportunity cost to afford f is too large against its own profit stream.

2.2. Strategic Investments

The total investment of $f + z$ is the capital resources for S_i 's competition in J . Denote $f + z$ as I . Without the loss of generosity, we assume that $f + z$ and M_i has one-to-one relationship. Simply speaking, S_i 's production is evaluated to be efficient if S_i 's input-output operation follows the constant returns to scale, which makes S_i be more self sustainable. The evolutionary path of S_i is composed of an early stage and a later stage. f and z play different roles in the evolution of S_i . f is an initial endowment for S_i in the early stage, whereas z enhances S_i 's sustainability in the later stage. In equilibrium, f^* and z^* are determined as

$$f^* = \frac{2M - \{pM_i - (1-p)K\}}{3} \quad (2)$$

$$z^* = \frac{2\{pM_i - (1-p)K\} - M}{3} \quad (3)$$

In order to initiate S_i , both f^* and z^* should be positive numbers, which derives Proposition 1. In that, i launches S_i with the expectation of a positive net profit from its new division. If i is capable of earning positive own profit, it is more likely to be. Proposition 2 suggests that the superior the S_i 's performance is, S_i becomes to take advantage of own internal investment z^* . Henceforth, S_i is more likely to survive longer independently from i 's fixed investment. If S_i 's performance is expected to be lower, then i is inclined to increase f^* .

Proposition 1. In equilibrium, the net profit from S_i is always expected to be positive as long as its parent yields positive own profit.

Proof. Because both f^* and z^* should be positive for the self-sustainability of S_i , it should be satisfied that $\frac{M}{2} \leq pM_i - (1 - p)K \leq 2M$ where $M \geq 0$. Therefore, the expected net profit of $pM_i - (1 - p)K$ is positive.

It cannot be denied that $K > M$ posteriorly. However, in terms of expected value, it is $pM > (1 - p)K$ priorly.

Proposition 2. If the diversification through S_i is expected to be highly profitable, S_i

is inclined to rely on z^* while i affords a larger f^* otherwise.

Proof. In the interval of $\frac{M}{2} \leq \{pM_i - (1-p)K\} \leq M$, it is satisfied that $f^* \geq z^*$. But it is $z^* > f^*$ if $M < \{pM_i - (1-p)K\} \leq 2M$.

One can easily know that the higher the probability to earn M_i , the higher the z^* will be as $\frac{\partial z^*}{\partial p} = \frac{M_i+K}{3} > 0$; however, a lower f^* is preferred under the same condition because of $\frac{\partial f^*}{\partial p} = -\frac{(M_i+K)}{3} < 0$. Thus, it is evident that the lower the probability to waste K , the higher the z^* is expected while the lower the f^* will be. From these, proposition 3 reveals that p and K affect f^* and z^* interactively but in different ways.

Proposition 3. If the probability to earn M_i is high while K is large enough at the same time, i becomes to increase z^* .

Proof. Note that $\frac{\partial^2 f^*}{\partial p \partial K} < 0$ and $\frac{\partial^2 z^*}{\partial p \partial K} > 0$.

The total investment for S_i is $I^* = \frac{M+\{pM_i-(1-p)K\}}{3}$. Proposition 4 can explain why large corporations can diversify more easily. Fundamentally, M_i affect I^* interactively with p while M does not. If $p \rightarrow 1$, then $\frac{\partial I^*}{\partial M} = \frac{\partial I^*}{\partial M_i}$. Therefore, generally speaking, those new subsidiaries launched by large corporations are more likely to perform better.

Proposition 4. The total investment for S_i depends on the parent's size more than it depends on S_i 's own size.

Proof. Note that $\frac{\partial I^*}{\partial M} = \frac{1}{3}$ and $\frac{\partial I^*}{\partial M_i} = \frac{p}{3}$, and thus $\frac{\partial I^*}{\partial M} > \frac{\partial I^*}{\partial M_i}$.

2.2. Product Life Cycle and Sustainability

Figure 1 describes the evolutionary path of S_i . The 45° dashed line corresponds to the constant returns to scale for S_i 's input-output operation, which is denoted as EE ; it is the production efficient line that is the strategic pathway of S_i 's evolution. In Figure 1, A_1 represents the early stage and A_2 represents the later stage. In the early stage of A_1 , S_i can run with the total investment of I^* efficiently because S_i 's input-output operation is located well above "EE" line with the constant returns to scale.

However, Proposition 5 suggests that S_i is gradually exposed to a potential threat of termination as its PLC proceeds because S_i 's production becomes to lie under "EE" in A_2 . Hence, the parent firm i is motivated to withdraw from J in the later stage of A_2 as production inefficiency naturally occurs.

Proposition 5. In the early stage, S_i is able to produce efficiently; however, i is motivated to withdraw from the newly diversified market in the later stage.

Proof. Up to $M_i^* \leq \frac{M-(1-p)K}{3-p}$, S_i is self-sustainable; however, I^* becomes no more efficient in the later stage of A_2 as its production becomes to be located under the strategic pathway of EE .

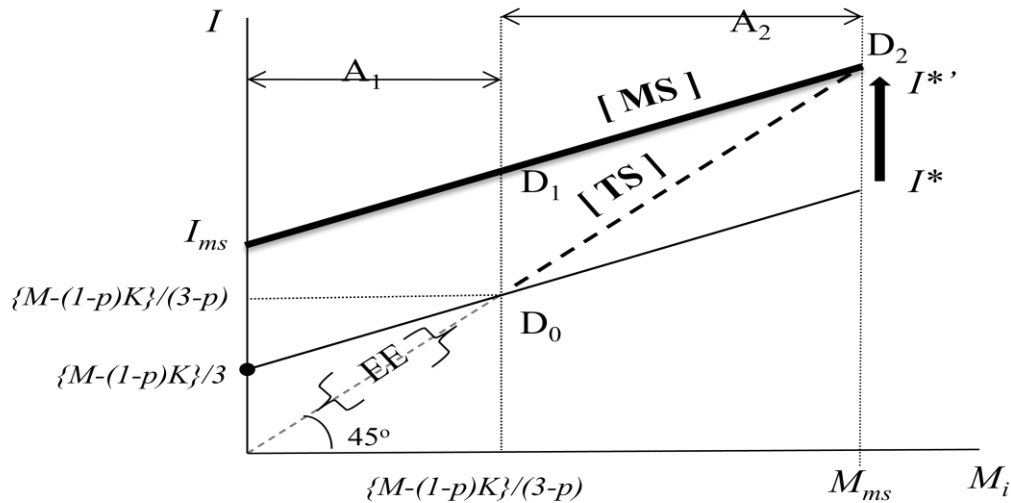


Figure 1. The Evolution of S_i 's Investment Pathway

The sustainability of S_i is directly related to its input-output operational inefficiency in the later stage A_2 , which makes S_i be less self-sustainable. Intuitively, this type of inefficiency originates from embedded transaction costs accruing to i 's exploring J . As long as S_i is i 's fully-owned subsidiary, the parent needs to afford the transaction costs.² Due to the inefficiency concern, S_i can be liquidated during A_2 .

Under the potential threat of liquidation, how i makes S_i competitive is left as an important managerial issue. Solutions can be sought both internally and externally. An internal technology shock represents firm specific internal impact while a market shock does market-oriented external impact. Between them, the internal technology shock can adjust the propensity of S_i 's total investment to trace the strategic pathway EE during A_2 . In contrast, the market shock expands M_i exogenously. A naturally intriguing question is which one between the two different shocks can elicit a larger total investment. According to Proposition 6, it is not the internal technology shock but the market shock that can enhance the performance of S_i as well as its sustainability.

Proposition 6. Initially, an exogenous market shock can enhance S_i 's investment. Unless an internal technology shock is large enough, the exogenous market shock is able to increase S_i 's total investment in the long-run.

Proof. In Figure 1, a market shock, denoted as MS , can move I^* upward to I^{*} . As a result, it scales up the total investment of S_i from D_0 to D_1 and the intercept move to I_{ms} from $\frac{M-(1-p)K}{3}$ accordingly. However, *ex post* M_{ms} , the market shock fails to adjust I^{*} to follow the EE line. In contrast, the internal technology shock can adjust the slope of I^* to trace the EE line at the kinked point of D_0 as depicted by the dark dashed TS line.

Still, the internal technology shock can improve S_i 's production efficiency, which can reinforce S_i 's sustainability; if the internal technology shock is large enough to make S_i 's production follow the kinked line in Figure 1, then the internal technology shock can make S_i stand alone. However, this can occur only when the life cycle of J can be extended over D_2 .

3. The Simulation Experiment

3.1. The Scenario

In the early stage, I and J are separated markets. i 's technology is characterized by $\theta_{I,1}^i$ where the subscript I represents i 's main market and 1 represents the early stage. Initially, j monopolizes J with a technology characterized by $\theta_{J,1}^j$ and thus $\theta_{J,1}^j > \theta_{I,1}^i$. j competes in I through its wholly owned subsidiary S_j , which means that consumers in I purchase from J but consumers in J do not purchase from I . The probability of consumers in I to purchase from i (λ_i^I) is defined as the multi-logit distribution in (4) and the probability of consumers in I to purchase from S_j is similarly defined. The probability of consumers in J purchase from j is defined as (5). Note that α_i^I is the propensity of consumers in I to purchase from I while α_j^J is the propensity of consumers in J to purchase from J . α_j^I represents the propensity for the consumers in I to purchase from J . In (4) and (5), the subscript 1 represents the values of the early stage.

$$\lambda_{I,1}^i = \frac{e^{\alpha_i^I \theta_{I,1}^i - p_{I,1}^i}}{1 + e^{\alpha_i^I \theta_{I,1}^i - p_{I,1}^i} + e^{\alpha_j^I \theta_{I,1}^j - p_{I,1}^j}} \quad \& \quad \lambda_{I,1}^{S_j} = \frac{e^{\alpha_j^I \theta_{I,1}^j - p_{I,1}^j}}{1 + e^{\alpha_i^I \theta_{I,1}^i - p_{I,1}^i} + e^{\alpha_j^I \theta_{I,1}^j - p_{I,1}^j}} \quad (4)$$

$$\lambda_{J,1}^j = \frac{e^{\alpha_j^J \theta_{J,1}^j - p_{J,1}^j}}{1 + e^{\alpha_j^J \theta_{J,1}^j - p_{J,1}^j}} \quad (5)$$

In the early stage, j enjoy demands from both I and J but i can sell only in I . Hence, their demands are defined as $D_1^i = n_{I,1} \lambda_{I,1}^i$ and $D_1^j = n_{I,1} \lambda_{I,1}^{S_j} + n_{J,1} \lambda_{J,1}^j$. In the later stage, i diversifies into market J through its fully-owned subsidiary S_i with $\theta_{J,2}^{S_i}$ where α_i^J represents the propensity for the consumers in J to purchase from I . Then, $\lambda_{I,2}^i$, $\lambda_{I,2}^{S_j}$, $\lambda_{J,2}^j$, and $\lambda_{J,2}^{S_i}$ are defined to be (6) and (7). The subscript 2 represents the values of the later stage.

$$\lambda_{I,2}^i = \frac{e^{\alpha_i^I \theta_{I,2}^i - p_{I,2}^i}}{1 + e^{\alpha_i^I \theta_{I,2}^i - p_{I,2}^i} + e^{\alpha_j^I \theta_{I,2}^j - p_{I,2}^j}} \quad \& \quad \lambda_{I,2}^{S_j} = \frac{e^{\alpha_j^I \theta_{I,2}^j - p_{I,2}^j}}{1 + e^{\alpha_i^I \theta_{I,2}^i - p_{I,2}^i} + e^{\alpha_j^I \theta_{I,2}^j - p_{I,2}^j}} \quad (6)$$

$$\lambda_{J,2}^j = \frac{e^{\alpha_j^J \theta_{J,2}^j - p_{J,2}^j}}{1 + e^{\alpha_i^J \theta_{J,2}^{S_i} - p_{J,2}^{S_i}} + e^{\alpha_j^J \theta_{J,2}^j - p_{J,2}^j}} \quad \& \quad \lambda_{J,2}^{S_i} = \frac{e^{\alpha_i^J \theta_{J,2}^{S_i} - p_{J,2}^{S_i}}}{1 + e^{\alpha_i^J \theta_{J,2}^{S_i} - p_{J,2}^{S_i}} + e^{\alpha_j^J \theta_{J,2}^j - p_{J,2}^j}} \quad (7)$$

By diversification, i can obtain demands from both markets, and thus i 's demand is defined as (8) and j 's demand is defined as (9) in the later stage where $n_{I,2}$ and $n_{J,2}$ are the total number of consumers in I and J .

$$D_2^i = n_{I,2} \lambda_{I,2}^i + n_{J,2} \lambda_{J,2}^{S_i} \quad (8)$$

$$D_2^j = n_{I,2} \lambda_{I,2}^{S_j} + n_{J,2} \lambda_{J,2}^j \quad (9)$$

i 's profit in the later stage is given to (10) and the equilibrium prices of i and S_i must satisfy the first order condition derived from (10) and the equilibrium prices of j and S_j must satisfy the first order condition derived from (11), respectively. The total equilibrium profits of i and j are earned by solving the system of the nonlinear equations in (6)-(11) simultaneously. The system is solved iteratively by maximum likelihood estimation technique.

$$\pi_2^i = \max_{\{p_{I,2}^i, p_{J,2}^{S_i}\}} [(p_{I,2}^i - c^i) n_{I,2} \lambda_{I,2}^i + (p_{J,2}^{S_i} - c^{S_i}) n_{J,2} \lambda_{J,2}^{S_i}] \quad (10)$$

$$\pi_2^j = \max_{\{p_{I,2}^{S_j}, p_{J,2}^j\}} [(p_{I,2}^{S_j} - c^{S_j}) n_{I,2} \lambda_{I,2}^{S_j} + (p_{J,2}^j - c^j) n_{J,2} \lambda_{J,2}^j] \quad (11)$$

3.2. The Parameters and the Variables

In the early stage, the size of both markets is identical, and so $n_{i,1}$ and $n_{j,1}$ are set to be 0.7 along to $c^i = c^{S_i} = c^j = c^{S_j} = 0.2$. The qualities of i and j are set to be $\theta_{i,1}^i=0.5$ and $\theta_{j,1}^j=0.7$.³ In the experiments, it is assumed that subsidiaries are able to produce at the same quality level with their parents, which means that $\theta_{i,1}^{S_j}=0.7$. In the second stage, the technology shock is defined as $\theta_{i,2}^i=\theta_{j,2}^{S_i}=\omega^{2.5} * \theta_{i,1}^i$ and $\theta_{j,2}^j=\theta_{i,2}^{S_j} = \omega^{2.5} * \theta_{j,1}^j$ and the external market shock is defined as $n_{i,2} = \omega^{2.5} * n_{i,1}$ and $n_{j,2} = \omega^{2.5} * n_{j,1}$. The consumer's preferences are given to $\alpha_i^i = \alpha_j^j = \alpha_i^j = \alpha_j^i = 1$. Simulation experiments are done by increasing the scale of ω . As higher the ω , the shocks become to have larger impacts.

4. Simulation Results

Figure 2 describes the evolutions of S_i 's profit paths under a technology shock and a market shock. The simulation results provide two important implications. First, both the technology and market shocks enhance i 's profit unanimously as larger their scales are. Second, if the scales of both shocks, measured by ω , are infinitesimal, they have similar effects; however, the market shock becomes to contribute more to i 's profit as the scale of the two shocks increases. Figure 3 describes the percentage increments of the S_i 's profit paths. As ω increases to 1.6, S_i 's profit jumps more under the market shock than under the technology shock.

One noticeable feature is that S_i 's profit jumps as ω increases but with decreasing scales, which is clearly shown in Figure 4. What is important here is that S_i may be able to reach to D_2 in Figure 1 either by the technology shock or the market shock. At a glance, it seems that the larger the shocks are, the more likely for i 's utility to increase. However, this does not hold up in the long-run. In fact, the larger the shocks are, the profit gains from the shocks start to shrink down as shown in Figures 3 and 4, and i becomes to consider the termination of S_i . This outcome clearly demonstrates that any diversification through a wholly owned subsidiary has its own product life cycle.

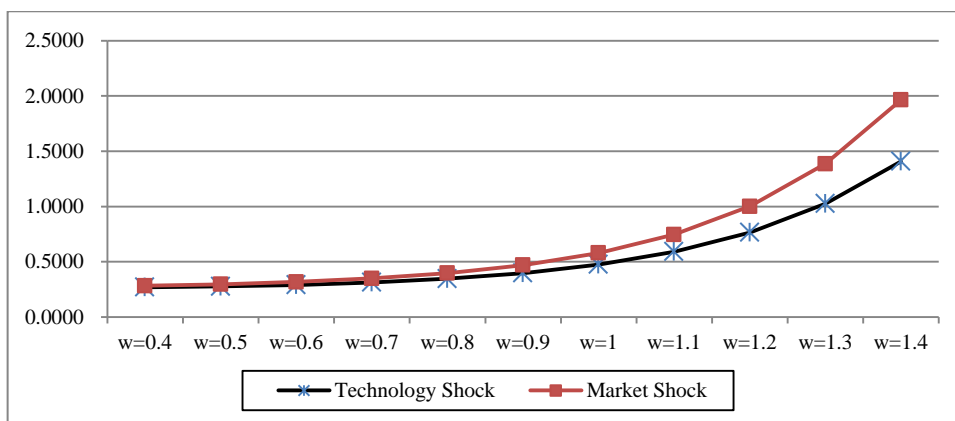


Figure 2. The Evolutionary Profit Paths

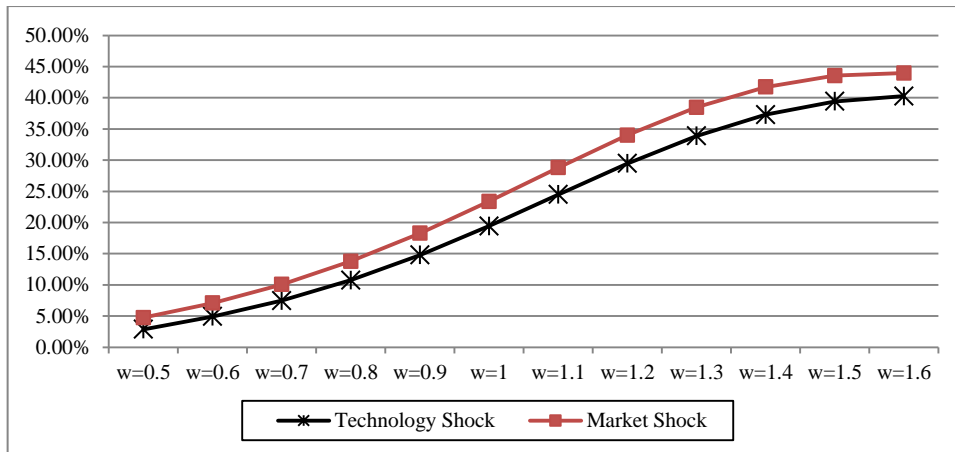


Figure 3. The Profit Paths: The Percentage Increments

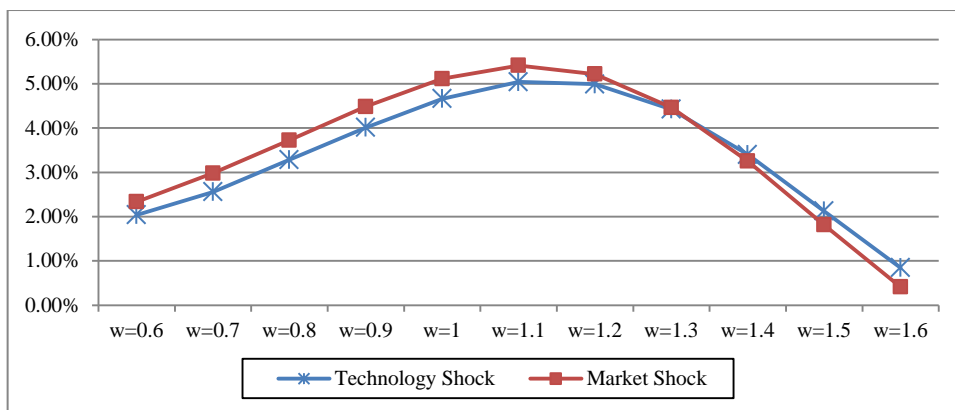


Figure 4. The Profit Paths: The Percentage Points Increments

The price paths described in Figure 5 are broadly consistent to the profit paths described in Figure 2. Unanimously, the equilibrium price of S_i increases as larger the scales of the two shocks are. Figure 6 depicts clear differences between the evolution paths of S_i 's equilibrium price under the two shocks and the evolution paths of S_i 's equilibrium profit under the two shocks. Surely, S_i 's equilibrium price increases along to ω . However, no evidence can be found that its increments start to shrink down when ω increases, quite differently from Figure 5. In fact, the increments of S_i 's equilibrium price converge to some different points depending on the types of shocks.

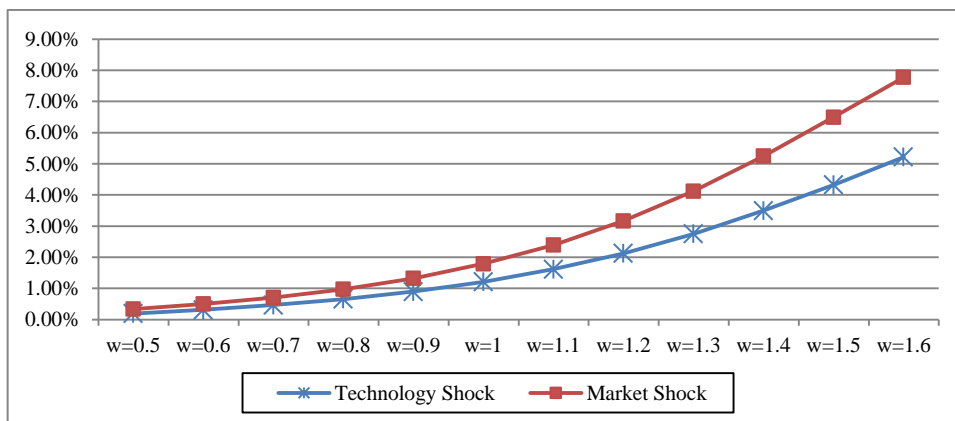


Figure 5. The Price Paths: The Percentage Increments

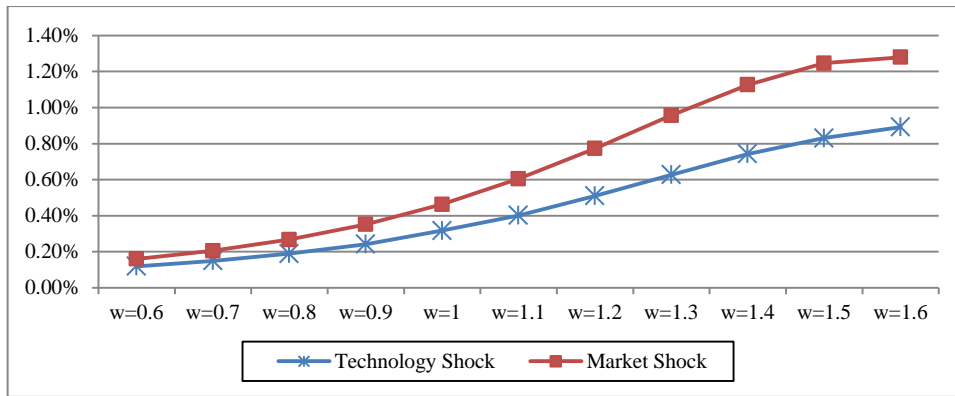


Figure 6. The Price Paths: The Percentage Points Increments

5. Conclusions

The main theme of the paper is to scrutinize the fundamental strategic features of diversification. In particular, we highlighted a diversification strategy through establishing a fully owned subsidiary. The main architecture of the paper is composed two step-wise approaches. As a first step, we develop a game-theoretic model to explore how strategic investments occur for the diversification strategy and to draw out testable hypotheses based on the model. In a second step, we constructed a simulation approach to verify the predictions of the game model through simulation experiments.

In the game-theoretic model, we separated subsidiary's investment from parent's initial investment for initiating its subsidiary. When parent's utility is a log linear function, the model provides four business implications on strategic investments. First, in equilibrium, parents diversify with a strong expectation that their newly diversified subsidiaries can generate positive net profits. Second, as long as their subsidiaries' profits are expected to be high enough, parents tend to rely on their subsidiaries' own investments rather they afford larger parental-wise fixed investments and *vice versa*. Third, when the chances to fail in newly diversified fields are high, parents are inclined to depend on their subsidiaries' own investments rather than their initial fixed investments. Fourth, it is the size of parent rather than subsidiary's own size that affects total investments for subsidiaries.

Ultimately, two important predictions were derived regarding to the sustainability of subsidiary. First, generically, parents tend to liquidate their subsidiaries no matter what their subsidiaries can maintain production efficiency because the expected profits of subsidiaries gradually decline. Second, between market shock and technology shock, the former can extend the sustainability of subsidiary. By some simulation experiments, it is found that both types of the shocks enhance parent's total profit *ex post* diversification but, evidently, the market shock affects total profit more than the internal technology shock does. It is a contrasting result against [20] and [21] who demonstrated that technology shocks significantly affect the performances of rapidly growing but recently established startups.

These results originate from investment behavioral differences between startups and incumbents. To startups, their own technological superiority plays a fundamental role in shaping their long-run sustainability, which can neutralize the impacts of exogenous market shocks. In terms of a diversification strategy, the sustainability of a newly established subsidiary is supported by a parent's fixed investment and its own investment. As long as its decision making is subordinated into the parent firm, there is no choice but to react more sensitively on uncontrollable exogenous market shocks than on internal technology shocks. This implies that, in general, self-autonomy can be allowed during the early stage of newly diversified subsidiaries, which enables them to begin operations

independently from their parents to a certain degree; however, unless favorable market shocks occur in newly diversified fields, parents are inclined to control their subsidiaries in a later stage. The prediction of our work is consistent to [14] who demonstrates that the financial crunch during 2008-2009 critically deteriorated firm performances and [3] who approves diversifications can improve parents' short-term performances.

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