
12. Looking for the American dream? An intercultural management perspective on the business diaspora in the USA–Mexico border

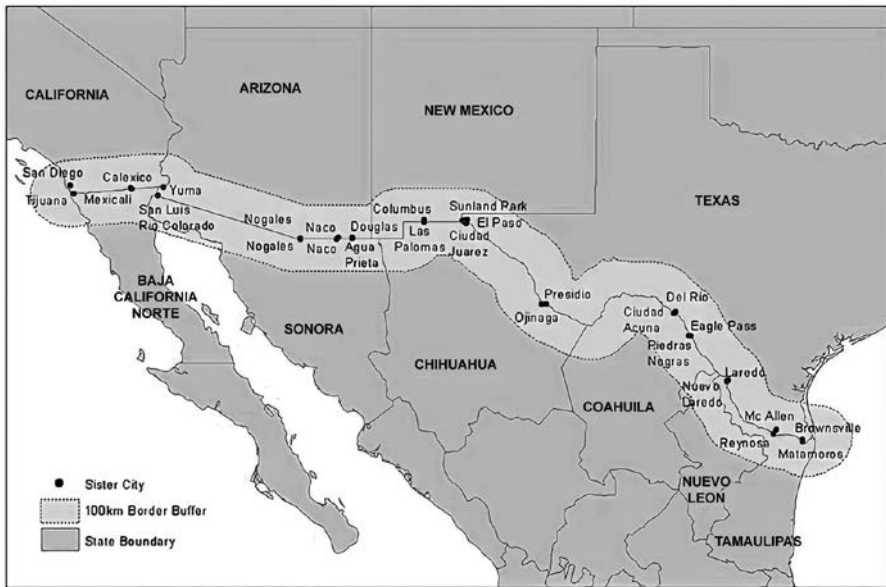
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INTRODUCTION

Since the beginning of humanity, human beings migrated. In the last century, starting with the Universal Declaration of Human Rights in 1948, the right to free movement of people was recognised, as well as to choose “residence in the territory of a State” (UN, 1948). These principles provide the opportunity to analyse how people experience their migration processes in search of a better job, higher wages, better education, or family matters (Villa, 2006), as well as to safeguard physical integrity. The same statement indicates in article 14 that “in the event of persecution, everyone has the right to seek asylum, and to enjoy it, in any country”. One kind of it, forced migration, can be analysed from two types of displacement, those that have been generated by conflicts and those caused by disasters. Starting in 1951, the International Organization for Migration was established, with the goal of “[making] sure that migration is managed in an orderly and humane manner; promote international cooperation on migration issues; help find practical solutions to migration problems, and offer humanitarian assistance to migrants in need, whether they are refugees, displaced or uprooted people” (UN, 1948). Every year the number of people who emigrate from their places of origin has continued to grow. In 2019, according to the UN, the registered figure was almost 272 million worldwide, of which 48 per cent corresponded to women and 52 per cent to men (an increase of 14 million compared to 2017); while slightly more than 60 per cent corresponded to migrant workers (UN, 2021).

The USA–Mexico border (Figure 12.1) has the largest flow of people in the world, although the flows have changed in recent decades due to the implementation of restrictive policies and massive deportations by the United States (US), which has implied a positive migratory balance in most cases. The influx of non-immigrants has been from North America, because of rising immigration from Mexico (MEX), which might be for tourism, business, temporary work, or study, not to say that maybe some of them did not have the intent to stay temporarily. In 2000, 4,125,998 Mexican non-immigrants entered the US, compared to 21,412,174 in 2019 (Jarjoura,

2021). Now America's largest immigrant group, most live in California, Arizona, New Mexico and Texas, all adjacent to Mexico (Wang, 2019).



Source: Education Writers Association (2016) (<https://www.ewa.org/blog-latino-ed-beat/crossing-international-borders-better-education>).

Figure 12.1 *The US–MEX border*

Table 12.1 shows the migration pattern from the Mexican states located along the US–MEX border, which have been showing a total decrease since the early 2000s, either due to COVID-19, less interest in the American way of life, or restrictions imposed in the USA, increasingly tougher. This behaviour does not reflect the displacements due to violence experienced in the country, particularly in the border areas, since the positive balance is suggested to hide this type of forced migration, massive population flows produced by wars, persecution, disasters and other consequences of global change (Foxen, 2021). According to the International Organization for Migration (IOM, 2019), forced migration can be defined as a migratory movement that, although the drivers can be diverse, involves force, compulsion or coercion.

Masferrer and Rodríguez (2019) highlight that although there are no official figures for this type of displacement, it was in the Mexican government from 2006 to 2012, about 345,000 people between 2009 and 2017 were displaced within Mexico as a result of conflicts associated with drug trafficking, and also, they refer that 1 per cent of the people who migrated between 2009 and 2014 from Mexico to the United States did so for causes associated with insecurity in their communities of origin.

Table 12.1 Migration pattern: Mexican states located along the US–MEX border

State	2000	2010	2020
Baja California	898,680	1,114,316	1,252,409
Coahuila	–107,546	–71,910	–39,929
Chihuahua	322,033	278,427	301,633
Sonora	148,473	160,333	141,046
Total	308,030	336,490	237,377

Source: INEGI (2020).

Among the groups of migrants due to forced displacement associated with violence are businessmen. It is estimated that since 2008, extortion against companies and businessmen (group 1) have increased, in fact becoming one of the most widespread crimes, and close to 115,000 businessmen moved to the US (Ríos, 2014), which can be conceptualised as a “business diaspora”. However, other groups of migrants have moved outside of Mexico to promote commercial activities and are part of the so-called skilled migration (group 2, well-educated and trained Mexican professionals from a wide range of fields). In this case, their socio-economic conditions are usually better than those of other groups of migrants, due not only to their economic position but also to their professional career, which represents an initial advantage.

A third group corresponds to people who have migrated to other countries and, due to lack of job opportunities, decide to undertake economic activities once they have immigrated, necessity-driven entrepreneurs. This situation can be related to the unique opportunity to get money or to begin a start-up as an aspiration. In these cases, culture could be considered a limitation for the people, and at the same way as a strength to take advantage of the business environment. Finally, a fourth group corresponds to entrepreneurs who are continuously migrating, back and forth (e.g. between MEX and the US). Among them, the group of businessmen that operates on a common border (cross-border businessmen) stands out. Although they should be considered part of the business diaspora, the focus will be to discuss the entrepreneurial phenomenon in groups 1, 3 and 4.

This business diaspora has been little explored, due to the high mobility that entrepreneurs may have and the possibility of having up to two residences and nationalities, being the studies mainly focus on the drug-related violence era that emerges in Mexico, but, at least to our knowledge, no studies are from the intercultural management competencies scope, constantly developing once they begin to operate in the US. It is important to locate these migrant entrepreneurs and identify common denominators to define the diaspora, and the difficulties in a country other than the country of origin, the problems with intercultural management, and the trajectories of these diaspora subgroups. In the business diaspora of Mexicans in the US, there are four moments: (1) The moment and reasons for the forced departure or not of Mexican entrepreneurs to the US; (2) the recognition by Mexico of its existence in the US and the potential economic and perhaps political resources for Mexico;

(3) the Mexico–US political support for migrants including entrepreneurs; and (4) the starting/insertion/mature processes of “business diaspora”, related to the new ventures, market, technological, cultural, and above all organisational intercultural management dimensions.

The chapter follows recent literature calls for more research on (a) addressing the entrepreneur-person level including the types of individuals and their respective contexts that have not been previously perceived within international entrepreneurship (IE) (Elo et al., 2018), which fit within the groups 1, 3 and 4, and (b) to contribute to the field of IE by exploring whether, how, and why the IE/DE activities of migrant and diaspora US–MEX cross-border entrepreneurs differ from other internationally migrant entrepreneurs, and the particular capabilities (intercultural management skills, market selection, entry modes, international diffusion of products and ideas, as well as service development), for bridging international contexts (Riddle et al., 2010).

Moreover, migrant and diaspora entrepreneurs face additional complexities (like the forced migration, dual nationality, cross-border entrepreneurial context between an advanced vs emerging economy), richness related to their business environments and contexts, ethnicities, resources and business models, and borders (Elo et al., 2018), or operations management (Etemad, 2017). The Mexican business diaspora settled in border towns between MEX and the US can help to better understand the aforementioned processes, taking as a reference the border strips of Baja California and Chihuahua. What are the dimensions of intercultural management, and the mechanisms handled by the cross-border Mexican business diaspora in the US, that might be included in an international entrepreneurship/migrant diaspora entrepreneurship model, to approach more accurately its daily operations and experiences in both its organisational settings and context?

The next section takes a look at the diverse approaches related to business diaspora and intercultural management, and data from the US–MEX cross-border entrepreneurs. The following section explores two regions, these entrepreneurs who maintain a connection in the border areas of (a) Baja California and California, and (b) Chihuahua and Texas. This is followed by a discussion on the conceptual model proposed, and the final section offers our conclusions.

THEORETICAL CONSIDERATIONS

Approaches Related to Business Diaspora

In 2007, immigrants in many OECD countries exhibited higher rates of self-employment than natives (e.g. Belgium, France, Nordic countries and, particularly, in central and Eastern Europe) (OECD, 2010),¹ suggesting that migrants are more likely than natives to start new businesses, but they are also more likely to see their businesses fail (among others, because of low levels of education, credit restric-

tions, length of residence, language, legal status, and region of origin). However, it is worth noting that nothing is mentioned about intercultural management.

Fernández et al. (2013) have pointed out three theories to analyse the migrant business community: cultural theory, disadvantage theory, and mixed embeddedness theory (based on Kloosterman et al., 1999). In the first case, the authors consider cultural characteristics such as religious beliefs, family ties, savings, ethnic work and compliance with social values as resources that explain the orientation of immigrants towards business activity. It should be worth exploring at the US–MEX border how migration policies have promoted entrepreneurship processes, and how these immigrants are shaping these regions (even creating new ones within?), impacting the economic and social spheres.

Regarding the disadvantage theory, Fernández et al. (2013), also warn that migrant entrepreneurs face a disadvantageous context due to a lack of recognition and credentials abroad, which contributes to business failures. To Azmat (2010: 377), “immigrant entrepreneurs face challenges resulting from different values, policies, institutional environment, culture, and perception of social responsibility (SR) in the new country”.

However, it must be differentiated whether the low intercultural management profitability of migrant entrepreneurs is related to the trajectories of entrepreneurs who experience self-employment or to the trajectories of entrepreneurs who already had developed organisations. Hence, it is worth analysing how regulations on business and labour markets are obstacles to the businesses of other ethnic communities. This appreciation converges with the mixed embeddedness theory and the overlaps between the socio-economic and political–institutional environments. A balance among environments can be revealed to understand the role of Mexican entrepreneurs in cross-border areas.

Therefore, the environment for entrepreneurs and entrepreneurship obeys different processes and, consequently, must be part of new debates. A migrant entrepreneur must differentiate from potential migrant entrepreneurs. Socio-economic conditions may also be different in both social groups, which will reflect differences in trajectories, and in the institutional environment that influences directly the “business diaspora” group by group.

Also, three out of these four groups might have enough wealth, not only because they were targeted by criminal groups (group 1), because of their accessibility to quality higher education (group 2), or because having both US and Mexican citizenship as well as a business dynamic in both sides of the border (group 4), that enables them to move forward in their entrepreneurial goals. Wealth rarely is measured directly in ethnic and migration studies, not only shapes the starting points of individuals but is also central to understanding migration and integration (Agius and Keister, 2020).

Intercultural Management

From the perspective of intercultural management,² it is feasible to study the role of Mexican entrepreneurs in the US. Although it can be focused on the behaviour of people within organisations, its objective is to understand the interaction between workers, clients, suppliers, and partners of different ancestry (Adler, 1983). Also, it can be considered as a reference for the study of the business behaviour of Mexicans in culturally different countries. Irrman and Arcand (2000) suggest that no manager or organisation, that is, no entrepreneur, can avoid the problem of intercultural management, specifically in the global arena. Within organisations, entrepreneurs must also show their capacities and consider that in contexts such as the US, the collaborators that hold different cultural horizons must cooperate within the same organisation no matter the cultural diversity.

In addition to considering the local culture, the Mexican entrepreneurs in the US must put into practice their knowledge of other cultures (Adler and Bartholomew, 1992; Tiessen, 1997; Silverthorne, 2005; Fink et al., 2006). It is not possible to make a serious reflection on intercultural management if it is not accepted that each person is the bearer of a multiplicity of cultures, and organisations should be seen as “potential bearers of a multiplicity of cultural groups that can be separated, superimposed, intertwined, and where each member of the organisation can be a member of many different cultural groups at the same time” (Sackmann, 1997: 33).

Irrman and Arcand (2010) highlight that intercultural management must be conceived today as the management of multiple cultures that simultaneously integrate multiple dimensions: regional, cultural, professional, and organisational. In today’s highly interconnected business context, the central task of intercultural management no longer refers only to understanding differences, its objective is to mitigate and reduce problems of misunderstanding, and to facilitate and direct interactions, synergies, and learning where there is contact between cultures (Søderberg and Holden, 2002).

Jacob (2003) identifies nine dimensions of intercultural management, where culture permeates back and forth, iteratively, internally and externally:

- Conflict resolution
- Communications
- Core values
- Knowledge management
- Human resource management
- Organisational structure
- Corporate strategy (including those related to marketing)
- Leadership (including those related to negotiations)
- Team management.

Then it is possible to consider that the Mexican business diaspora in the United States–Mexico, has evolved and formed a transnational social space in the field

of business, as Faist (2000) or Pries (2017) suggests. Thus address a transnational community, and the primary mechanisms that operate in transnationalisation: reciprocity in small groups, exchange in circuits, and solidarity among communities. The transnationalisation implications for citizenship and culture, understanding the immigrant integration in the political and cultural realms, and immigrant adaptation are assimilation, ethnic pluralism and border crossing expansion of social space, citizenship (national, multicultural, and transnational), and culture (acculturation, cultural retention and transnational syncretism).

US–MEX Business Diaspora

Entrepreneurship is defined as “the process of identifying, valuing and capturing opportunity” (Low, 2001 cited in Engelen et al., 2009: 21). Tiessen (1997) distinguishes two levels of analysis: (i) from the entrepreneur and his traits, and (ii) from the organisation. Engelen et al. (2009) also mention the dependency relationship between culture and entrepreneurship, pointing out that entrepreneurs share certain beliefs and values across cultures. From the organisational dimension, it is suggested that culture is likely to have the greatest impact on the configuration of organisations, imposing itself on the preferences and strategies of labour cooperation.

According to the OECD (2010), one aspect that has received little attention so far is the contribution of migrants to entrepreneurship and job creation in their host countries. It is mentioned that among member countries the survival rate of these companies is often lower than that of native ones. Engelen et al. (2009) highlight that even though intercultural research in entrepreneurship is still in its infancy, it offers important inferences for both theory and practice. Also, the OECD (2010) finds that greater knowledge of migrant entrepreneurship is essential so that policymakers can better support migrant businesses and their role in economic growth and job creation, as well as increase awareness of the positive role that migrants can play as entrepreneurs, as it can contribute to a more balanced public debate on immigration.

More research is required on migrant entrepreneurship and data sources. When analysing the entrepreneurial initiative, is viable to integrate an explanatory hypothesis about the personal traits that contribute to business success, such as knowing how to face challenges and take risks, passion, vision, and personality. Currently, the literature is exploring the rise of a new migratory profile: migrants engaged in transnational entrepreneurship (TE) (Zapata-Barrero and Rezaei, 2020).³ TE is described as a “social realm of immigrants operating in complex, cross-national domains, with dual cultural, institutional, and economic features that facilitate and require various entrepreneurial strategies” (Drori, Honig and Wright, 2009: 1001). The group of TE includes immigrants who are engaged in border-crossing business activities involving their country of origin and destination (Elo and Freiling, 2015).

Not much research was oriented, on the one hand, to the organisational management of the business diaspora (and even less to the cross-border business diaspora between US–MEX), and on the other hand to intercultural management and business adaptation and continuity capacities. The above suggests that the literature on the

subject is still scarce. Fink et al. (2006), point out that the dimensions in intercultural management, in addition to the cultural, imply personality traits and cultural standards that lead to the appearance of critical incidents and personal reactions. Morales et al. (2014), propose to advance in other migratory trajectories that were traditionally directed to rural and/or disadvantaged communities.

The cross-border US–MEX business diaspora presents the following characteristics (Orraca et al., 2017): those who reside in Mexico but work in the US who are cross-border entrepreneurs, compared to entrepreneurs who live and operate in Mexico. The former are older, more educated with stronger ties, shorter workweeks, and higher earnings than the latter. Also, years of schooling, having previously resided in the United States and having an adult in the household who was born in the United States (where under this context it is inferred that they acquire networks, implicit knowledge, and cultural experience), increase the likelihood of becoming a cross-border entrepreneur. Therefore, years of schooling and years of work experience are positively associated with the earnings of entrepreneurs operating in Mexico, but not with those of cross-border entrepreneurs.

This dynamic take place in a context of drive-by cross-border economic activities, and work–family arrangement to benefit from the social and economic resources of both Mexico and the United States (Chávez, 2016). This has the advantage to minimise risk by having sources of income in two different countries, or trading or selling their labour on the other side (Orraca et al., 2017); for example, entrepreneurs who buy goods in the United States for resale in Mexico or sell their services (or products) in the USA (Staudt, 1998). Cross-border entrepreneurs do not change their country of residence – they work for a day or week in the USA, and then return to Mexico (Orraca et al., 2017).

The Mexican business community in American contexts has acquired relevance from the economy, sociology (Fernández et al., 2013), geography, and historical routes, as well as in migration studies (Arias, 2018). Professionals, indigenous people, families of entrepreneurs, and qualified entrepreneurs have been the object of study over the last decades since they entered the markets and the organisation of business communities in the US.⁴ In the case of displacements associated with issues of violence, the business community has been less studied.

The diaspora of Mexicans with a low socio-economic level and who flee in search of better living conditions and to survive is more frequently studied. Likewise, the analysis migrant entrepreneurs and aspects related to the organisation of Mexican companies tend to carry less weight. For this reason, it is necessary to also deepen this dimension.

Morales et al. (2014) found that Baja California, in 2015 had 3,808 or 65.3 per cent of all cross-border entrepreneurs, followed by Chihuahua with 799 or 13.7 per cent of all the cross-border entrepreneurs who operate in the United States but reside in Mexico, with some of them moved to the USA because of the high levels of violent crime in Mexico. Also, there is another type of cross-border entrepreneur, those who have both nationalities (US–MEX), live in the USA, and operate on both sides of the border. Sometimes, cross-border entrepreneurs belong to what is called

“cross-border families” (Ojeda, 1994), family members, and parenthood, that live on both sides of the USA–Mexico border, which also can be a motivation and facilitate the start of the new venture, since they might have transnational capital (assets and income), and social networks in the USA (Morales et al., 2013).

Cross-border groups are generally familiar with American culture (due to dual nationality and closeness) and the conduct of business on both sides of the border, which in principle would lead to differentiated insertion and adaptation strategies. On the supply side, we can also highlight differentiated opportunities that favour cross-border migrant communities, especially those of Mexican entrepreneurs where host locations tend to concentrate the Mexican population. This is the case for California as an entity. While in states like Texas, the permanent promotion by the San Antonio Hispanic Chamber of Commerce stands out, which permanently promotes the arrival of Mexican investments.

In the US–MEX border, certain aspects can favour the business diaspora, starting with the cultural proximity, so the organisational conditions could be better as well as their competitive capacities (Trevizo and López, 2018). To approach these elements, we have chosen two cross-border city contexts: Baja California and California (San Diego–Tijuana), and Chihuahua and Texas (Ciudad Juárez–El Paso). This social fact also occurred on the Tamaulipas border with Texas (Reynosa–McAllen), which has been receiving since 2009 a continuous flow of capital from wealthy Mexicans (Durin, 2012), which helped stimulate economic growth and employment (Correa, 2014), but with an opposite effect for Tamaulipas, where tourism dropped 37 per cent in the first half of 2010, and approximately 20 per cent of restaurants closed, and the hotel industry fell 30–35 per cent compared with 2008 (Correa, 2013).

Entrepreneurs who have migrated their businesses to cross-border regions require tools for good intercultural management that allow them to combine talents in an environment of multiple complexities. Cross-border contexts in California and Texas are multicultural and require work management agreements and cooperation among members of the business diaspora. Entrepreneurs must enable areas of convergence, resolve differences and make accommodations within companies whose environments are divergent (Irrman and Arcand, 2010).

In this chapter, we make a descriptive, exploratory, conceptual proposal, based on the Juárez–El Paso, and Tijuana–San Diego context and experiences, mainly regarding the 2007–11 violence era that accelerated entrepreneurial migration and the opening of new businesses on the US side, with a final call to elaborate case studies that can give us a closer, in-depth look at these new ventures, and their present status. Although Whetten (1989) mentions that not all theoretical contributions require propositions, they can be meaningful concerning their derivations with the direction of relationships, and the logic underlying the dimensions. Therefore, propositions will be presented, limited to specifying the logically deduced implications (Whetten, 1989) for the research of a theoretical model, recognising that, over time, their elements will be refined.

It is acknowledged, in line with Whetten (1989), concerning being sensitive and realistic regarding the context, that by testing the model in various settings,

the discovery of the inherent limiting conditions might appear. These conditions might involve the possible limitation of the model's applicability, recognising that maybe entrepreneurship is too young to expect a predictive theory (Kenworthy and McMullen, 2014). A novel proposal might be the case where more questions will arise both on the propositions presented or on new empirical data collected. Logical probability, through appraising the theory by facts (Meehl, 1990), was applied to our model, using the literature review conducted.

TWO CASE STUDY REGIONS

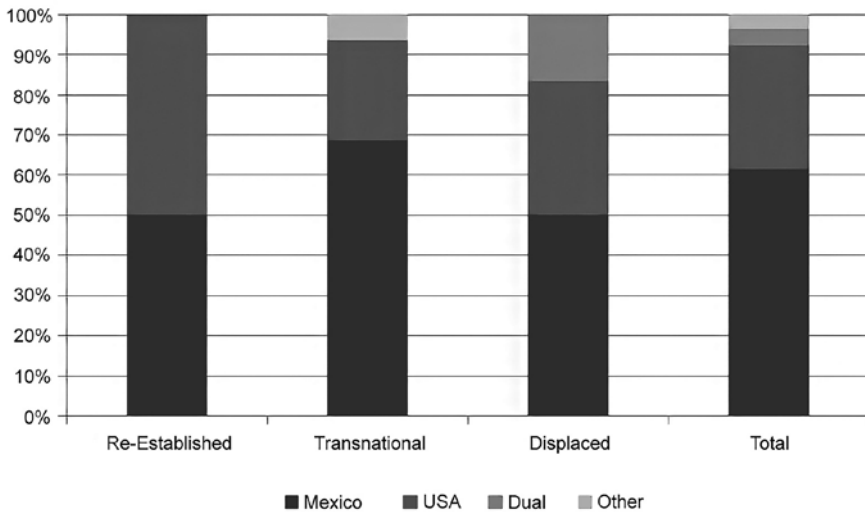
Chihuahua and Texas (El Paso–Ciudad Juárez)

This study starts from the context of forced migration that occurred between 2008 and 2011 when Ciudad Juárez was considered the most violent city in the world. Many business owners and professionals fled Ciudad Juárez and northern Mexico in large part due to the rise of insecurity brought about by the armed conflict between state forces and members of narco-trafficking groups (Campbell, 2009).

El Paso, Texas, USA, Ciudad Juárez, Chihuahua, Mexico, and suburbs configure the El Paso del Norte metropolitan area. Its population is approximately 2.5 million inhabitants, it is the second binational metropolitan area on the United States–Mexico border, one of the largest of any international border and among the 50 largest metropolitan areas in the Western hemisphere. The Mexican war against drug cartels changed the migration and crossing patterns in the border region, a region that has been operating as a cross-border market since the nineteenth century, evidence of the economic integration between Mexico and the USA as a historical process (Román, 2003).

The businessman⁵ who can immigrate legally to El Paso gave investments, new jobs, and opportunities to the city. At that time, it was one of the safest locations in the USA (gossip said that many drug dealers were operating from there and crossed the border into Mexico to offend). Other professionals would have been denied asylum, upper-middle and upper-class Mexicans seek refuge and new opportunities in the United States (Castañeda, 2021), and moved without papers. Nevertheless, they brought business experience, know-how, and capital to buy houses or start small businesses despite a constant fear of deportation (Castañeda, 2019). The war against drug cartels affected the economy of Ciudad Juárez but helped the economy of El Paso, Texas. Nearly 10,000 businesses closed in Ciudad Juárez from 2007 to 2011 (Morales et al., 2014), and the business and investor visas given to Mexicans by the US after the Drug War began was 31,068 compared with 7,603 visas between 2001 and 2005 (Martínez et al., 2011; Morales et al., 2013). A Ciudad Juárez group representing companies from a different industry sector estimated that in 2008, nearly 4,500 businesses went bankrupt in the state of Chihuahua because of extortion (Emmott, 2009). In El Paso, 400 new small businesses were generated, which brought five to ten job opportunities (Grissom, 2010).⁶

Figure 12.2 shows the entrepreneurial paths after migration by nationality or citizenship status. Of those who closed their businesses in Mexico and relocated them to the US, 50 per cent are Mexican and 50 per cent are US nationals. The transnational entrepreneurs (who maintained their businesses in Mexico and move to live in the US) are mostly Mexican (69 per cent) whereas most displaced entrepreneurs who closed their businesses in Mexico and did not re-establish them in the US are Mexican (50 per cent), American (33 per cent) and binational citizens (17 per cent). Thus, US citizenship did not play a prominent role in the migration process.



Source: Morales et al. (2014).

Figure 12.2 Characteristics of businessman migration in El Paso–Juarez region

At the height of this forced migration context, a group appeared (La Red, “network” in Spanish), creating a network of business people to form alliances between recent newcomers from Mexico, providing practical help to Mexican immigrants with some success,⁷ since some complained that La Red did not provide enough support or even gave wrong information about local regulations while demanding high consultancy fees (Castañeda, 2019). This is not new as immigrants’ organisations along with Mexican citizens. Many organisations in the US support Mexican immigrants (federations of hometown associations, grouped by the state of origin, e.g. Zacatecas state, Michoacán state, etc. where Mexican state authorities have very close ties with and visit them frequently; see Portes and Zhou, 2012).

Today, many businesses are still open, not only in El Paso but also are expanding their operations to other cities throughout the US. They have been capable to adapt

their organisational capabilities Others have failed, close their US operations, and return to focusing on the Mexican side.

San Diego–Tijuana

In 2013, Mexican businessmen on the border of Las Californias (California and Baja California) formed a new organisation that seeks to maintain regional communication and facilitate investments in the two states. It involved 70 Mexican businessmen from Los Angeles, Orange County, San Diego, Tijuana, Ensenada and Mexicali. The society called *Asociación de Empresarios Mexicanos* corresponds to the Californias chapter of a regional organisation that is part of a larger bi-national entity formed in Texas in 1996. This chapter was hosted by the University of San Diego to promote Mexican businesses on both sides of the border strip: “We offer talent, experience, guidance” to those who want to invest in the region, said businessman Luis Echeverría. The director of the Los Angeles chapter at the time, Jorge Sadurni, former executive president of the Nestlé firm in North America, said that just meeting opens possibilities for Mexican entrepreneurs and investors. The above explains how a process towards integration is usually perceived in the field of cooperation as a step to success, but without clarity in the intercultural management processes. Also, Irrman and Arcand (2010) consider it false that cultural proximity is a guarantee of cohesion and harmony.

Speeches from the Association of Mexican Entrepreneurs in Las Californias in 2013 did not refer to employees. This is a problem because having similar cultural bases in command positions is different from employees since the same language guarantees a decrease in conflicts. To foster intercultural performance the understanding of interrelationships involves the cultural codes, personality traits, and cultural norms of groups. Employers must conduct incident analysis, underlying reasons and cultural values. Researchers and managers can gain a deeper understanding of intercultural relationships, and propose ways to manage intercultural performance (Fink et al., 2006). The business diaspora, in this sense, has not passed the first hurdle.

The Californias business groups considered in 2013: “we have many forces, many entrepreneurial energies that we are not using in this region of the Californias, for the simple fact that we had not met or knew each other.” An element in line with the principles of intercultural management is that which converges with the grouping of industries concentrated in parks, such as aerospace, textiles, food, automotive, and legal and financial services. The sectoral division can contribute to organisational management and open opportunities to the diaspora, as is often the case when hiring native managers.

Two years earlier in 2011, it had already been reported that more Mexicans were opening businesses in counties such as San Diego, particularly in the south of Coronado Bay. However, it was stressed that entrepreneurs (without specifying whether they were cross-border) were not familiar with the procedures for setting up a business in the United States and that many did not speak English. This was again an indicator that the proximity between countries did not guarantee the understand-

ing of the institutional environments and in no way the cultural domain. Within the framework of this business deployment, the so-called Mexico–American Chamber of Business (Canemexa) was formed, created by three veteran businessmen and activists, Patrick Osorio, Jesse Navarro and Héctor Molina, who joined to support business communities, from City Heights to the Mexican border, comprising 100 members, which represents a way to encourage what could be called “the business diaspora” from the US.

Canemexa was tasked with supporting the professional skills of entrepreneurs, facilitating the understanding of US laws, and providing information to manage and promote businesses and profits through seminars and workshops in Spanish.

Some of the theories of migration, from a neoclassical perspective, would make it possible to point out the weight of the regional economy as part of common interests, and if the Intercultural management approach is added to this, then we can speak of a binational association that fostered cross-border business diaspora. A neoclassical economic theory from the point of view of Harris and Todaro (1970) refers to the emigration process as an imbalance of labour markets concerning the micro-level. A systemic perspective would be based on trading systems and their imbalances, and therefore Wallerstein’s world-system theory is central to understanding macroeconomic imbalances (Wallerstein, 1979).

It is noteworthy that at that time the San Diego Small Business Administration, 40 per cent of the businesses in the counties of San Diego and Imperial belonged to Latinos, and the interest of US groups to grow the diaspora through the networks already established and other cross-border business groupings. We reiterate that institutions such as Canemexa represent that necessary bridge for business intercultural deployment. The support provided by business associations not only encouraged the diaspora between the two countries to be strengthened but also allowed business owners to control internal elements of the organisations and those related to the diaspora itself.

Cooperation and governance institutions in the Tijuana–San Diego region have been based on public and private collaboration, where social and cultural interaction [which] has increased integration, both economically and socially, particularly since the establishment of the North American Free Trade Agreement. For their part, Barajas and Almaraz consider that the territory of Tijuana–San Diego has been configured by its institutions and companies to preserve a logic of creation and acquisition of resources. The authors consider that the territorial organisation in this space is “cause and effect of socio-economic dynamics, where strong interactions between organizational systems dedicated to specialization, integration, and technological development of the territory are key elements for the accumulation of creative capacities of individuals and communities” (Barajas and Almaraz, 2013: 56). In this case, the diaspora represents one more element of the territory’s social and business know-how.

DISCUSSION

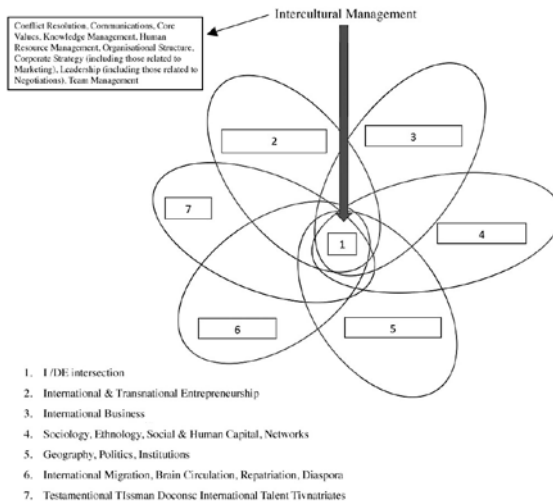
The dynamics of the US–MEX border present a unique context that has challenged present debates. The first one is related to why migrants are more entrepreneurial than host country nationals (Sahasranamam and Nandakumar, 2018) and high-income economies (Fairlie and Lofstrom, 2015). The explanation has been related to the migrants' human capital that conditioned their entry into the labour market (Huang, 2012). In the case of the forced migration from Mexico to the US, these individuals already were entrepreneurs with success in their origin country. Moreover, some of them have double nationality, with cross-border families, relatives and homes on both sides of the border.

The second, as already stated, is related to the quality of migrants' entrepreneurial initiatives (Elo et al., 2018). By living in different cultures, migrant entrepreneurs might have the advantage of launching new products/services and to know better customer preferences, transfer their knowledge of customer problems or solutions between nations (Riddle, Hrivnak and Nielsen, 2010). But these entrepreneurs are very well adapted, not only because of their background mentioned but because the US–Mexico border is one of the biggest commercial border trade regions in the world. They cross very frequently, so in practical terms, San Diego–Tijuana and El Paso–Ciudad Juárez each can be considered one metropolitan area (two of the biggest in the world). This border has diverse elements embedded, and is transnational.

Another issue is to examine the intentions of the diaspora to return to their homeland and keep involved in entrepreneurial activity, in a post-conflict economy, where the entrepreneurial intentions of the returning diaspora are affected by their level of trust and risk in institutions at home (Krasniqi and Williams, 2019). More research must be done within this framework. At this point, it appears that some Mexican entrepreneurs indeed return to Mexico and continue their business, no matter the obstacles they confront when they migrate. More data is needed for the US–Mexico border.

Following Elo et al. (2018) and Etemad (2017), Etemad's framework illustrates the international entrepreneurship domain at the common intersection of five selected influential disciplines; these are entrepreneurship, international business, networks, strategy and operations management, so it might be feasible to adapt their model to include the intercultural management view into the multiple and interdisciplinary lenses that can be employed in understanding and explaining IE and DE. Thirteen years have passed since the forced migration on Mexican entrepreneurs began, and now data can be collected not only in a transversal approach but also in a longitudinal one, so a deep analysis can be made to begin the discussion on all the obstacles and challenges these immigrants faced when starting its new ventures, adapting, and maintaining them. Then, how they manage to adapt their procedures to the new culture they were facing, and how to sustain them throughout the following years. Some of them had success, some did not at that time, but more entrepreneurs went and open businesses on the US side of the border, even when their local Mexican contexts were back to a calmer and safer place.

Figure 12.3 approaches several management constructs from an intercultural management dimensions standpoint. But this can be enriched more, adding value to it. Intercultural management involves dimensions of different origins. When considering the potential of the Mexican diaspora in the US, the results of cultural proximity can be contradictory; have positive as well as negative results. We insist that the trajectories of migrants are very important. We propose in the first place to reconcile the business diaspora.



Source: Adapted from Elo et al. (2018).

Figure 12.3 Dynamics of TE, with intercultural management influence

Conflict resolution within the organisation but also in front of the different context the host country present; both involve having the skills in communications, where the latter is key to divulge its core values to its stakeholders, how to start the new venture and adapt rapidly to the market needs, involves an efficient knowledge management along with its human resources, following of course different legislation at federal, state and local laws (in some cases very different altogether and different from the Mexican current legislation). So, there is a need to have an organisational structure adapted to the new conditions, implementing a whole new corporate strategy (including those related to marketing) to make the correct market entry as an incumbent, and strong Leadership (including those related to negotiations) in the organisational level as well as in the team management.

Including in the model intercultural elements, gives a better and clearest picture of reality, in the now long term this diaspora has been operating for the last decade. Based on the model and the research question, the following propositions are made:

P1. The more difficult the intercultural management is in the organisation, faced by the Mexican entrepreneur, no matter if there is a double nationality or cross-border family, once starts operations in the US, the more likely problems will emerge putting at risk the viability of the new venture.

P2. The feedback that an entrepreneur receives from the quantitative and qualitative measurement of the intercultural management dimensions, the more it will improve the probability of achieving better financial performance, having a positive impact across its business diaspora and cross-border community.

It is clear to imagine (conflict resolution), all the hard times these entrepreneurs went by when faced with the violent atmosphere, the decision to save their families and themselves from kidnapping or extortion, and decided to make an entrepreneurial cross-border experience, forced by the situation. Then implement a whole different approach to initiate relationships with new employees, stakeholders, and local, state, and federal authorities that he/she has never confronted in the past (communications) nor to say new customers (corporate strategy, including those related to marketing) that might expect a new business model to capture value, and with that, adapt the vision and mission of its company (core values) to a new context, a whole different strategy both legally (organisational structure), and culturally when managing people (knowledge management, human resource management, leadership, negotiations and team management), both US citizens, Mexican citizens, and others with double nationality, a mixed embeddedness theory case. These entrepreneurs started a circular migration, a process that was perceived as temporally, but in reality, will never end. They reinvent not only their companies but themselves, as an entrepreneur, individual and leader.

Some companies had success, others failed. Building a US–MEX cross-border database should enable us to have a typology of the most (and worst in the case of a failure) relevant trajectories of the business diaspora, businessmen and entrepreneurs in the early stages of insertion, or group distinctions by company type and sector, place of origin of migrant companies and entrepreneurs. The business development of the diaspora can be modified if migration ceases to be circular. Intercultural management will change and will be altered by the sector and production chain. The number of Mexican businesses continues to increase and on the border with the United States there are even organisations that encourage the arrival of Mexican businessmen, as is the case in Las Californias, but there is a lack of data on who is this diaspora, how it is organised, what are its informal structures both internally as an organisation, and as a community.

Transnational life is host to the business diaspora and is subdivided into territories conducive to business development with different levels of interaction, where intercultural management can converge with other important aspects for the development of organisations.

CONCLUSIONS

They were not looking for the American Dream. But now, they are operating in that territory, and are going for everything. Therefore, the difficulties to successfully insert themselves in a country other than the country of origin, tend to be differentiated, but not in the sense that other diasporas face and that are commonly associated with situations with the use of the language and/or skills to startup, and professionals. To the cross-border business, diaspora makes it necessary to give a new meaning to the debate of adaptation, and continuity more than the decision to migrate and do business. Business' diaspora is complex.

A call is made to examine how integration into the US economy varies along with several places in different states on the US–MEX border, the repercussions that it has on its Mexican counterparts (subsidiaries, suppliers, customers), and the impact it has on the communities. Researchers are encouraged to test the conceptual model further. The case study methodology can give valuable data to begin addressing the US–MEX cross-border Mexican entrepreneurial diaspora.

The challenges of internal organisation for small and medium businesses and large companies are in its business environment as much as in the organisational ones. The management of employees involves processes of hiring, development and incentives to employees that can lead to creativity and innovation, among others. There is a need to explore further and show how the “business diaspora” of Mexicans in the US aspires to dominate institutional, socio-economic and cultural environments, to control certain organisational situations in the case of labour markets, aspects of technological management, the regulations, and the dynamics of the business networks themselves are relevant. However, we must clarify that the next step is to address the trajectories and their differences, as well as the spaces where the “business diaspora” has been developed.

NOTES

1. The figures measure self-employment, by no means an exhaustive measure of entrepreneurship.
2. The most widely used is “intercultural” management. The “cross-culture” dimension evokes the comparison between two cultural groups, while the “intercultural” dimension would be more focused on interaction. The term intercultural is used inclusively in its two meanings. The US–Mexico border is a transnational context. International for the chapter refers basically to interactions or arrangements between nations, their governments, or people and organisations from two or more countries.
3. What Bakhtin called a chronotype, time and space, for our chapter, management processes in the US–Mexico border, embedded, without boundaries, same region, under a quasi-simultaneously dynamic action.
4. For a historical analysis of migrations between the USA and Mexico, 1897–1931, see Cardoso (1980). Most migrants were low-skilled workers that went mostly into the south of the USA to work in building railroads, farms, and so on. But when the Mexican revolution started (c. 1910), wealthy farmers and businessmen went on to move and establish

- in the USA, fearing that the violence would reach them for being supporters of Diaz's regime.
5. For purposes of this chapter, and although there are differences between a businessman and an entrepreneur (Dolan and Gordon, 2019), because of lack of precise official data, both are treated as synonyms, belonging to the same business diaspora.
 6. Regional newspapers left evidence of the experiences in some of the businesses that migrated and the overall community context. See <https://borderzine.com/2011/08/juarez-businesses-fleeing-violence-open-doors-north-of-the-border-2/>; <https://borderzine.com/2011/02/businesses-abandon-a-troubled-juarez/>; <https://www.nytimes.com/2011/07/31/magazine/life-on-the-line-between-el-paso-and-juarez.html>; <https://www.nytimes.com/2013/12/15/world/americas/a-border-city-known-for-killing-gets-back-to-living.html>; where some businesses have success, but others do not, which can be explain in part, by the lack of intercultural management [accessed: 2020-04-17].
 7. In the case of Mexico's north-eastern region (Reynosa–McAllen, Monterrey) in San Antonio, Texas (near the US–Mexico border), the Mexican Entrepreneurs Association, founded 15 years before the Drug War, grew exponentially from a few members to 200 (Sheridan, 2011).

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